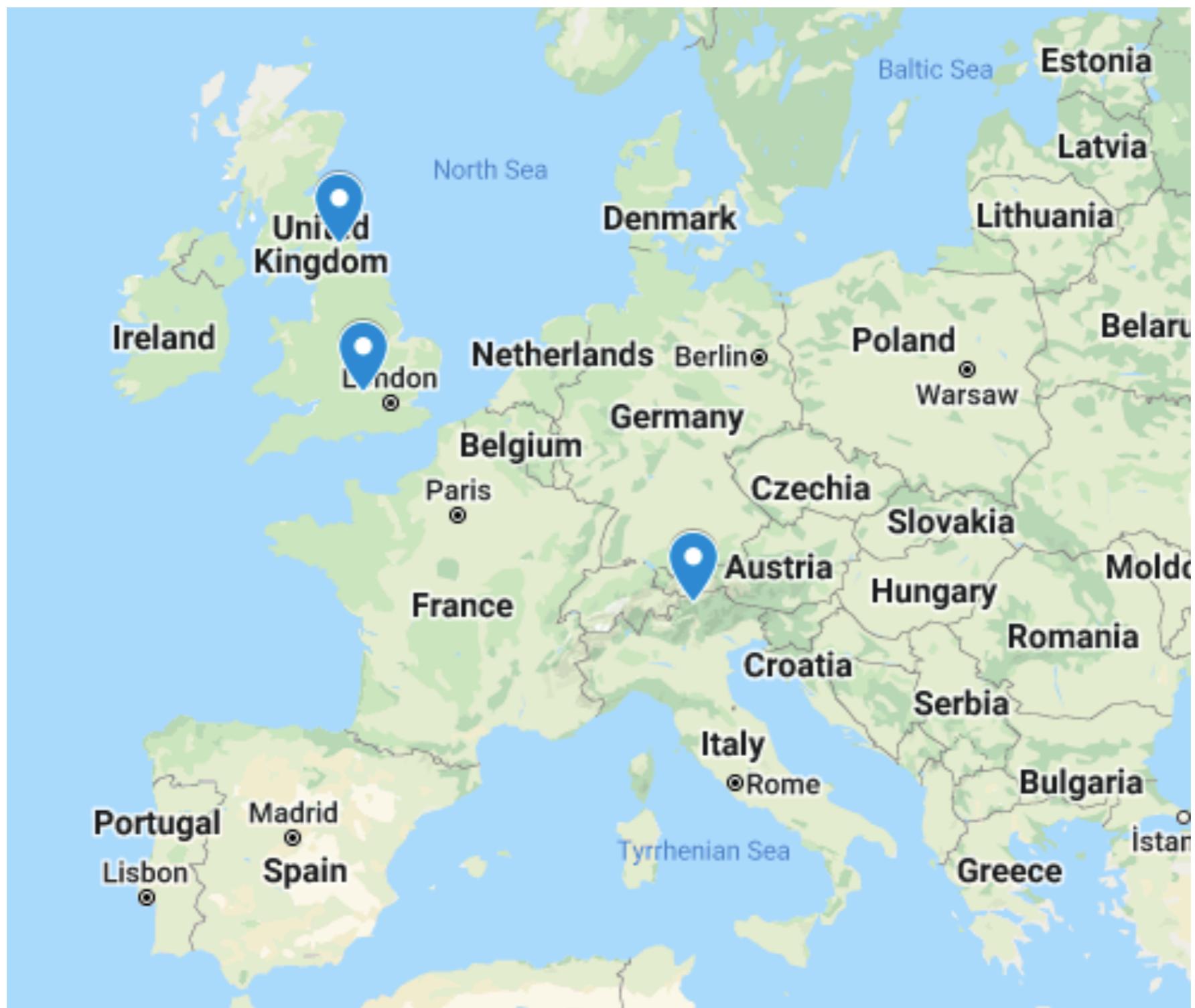


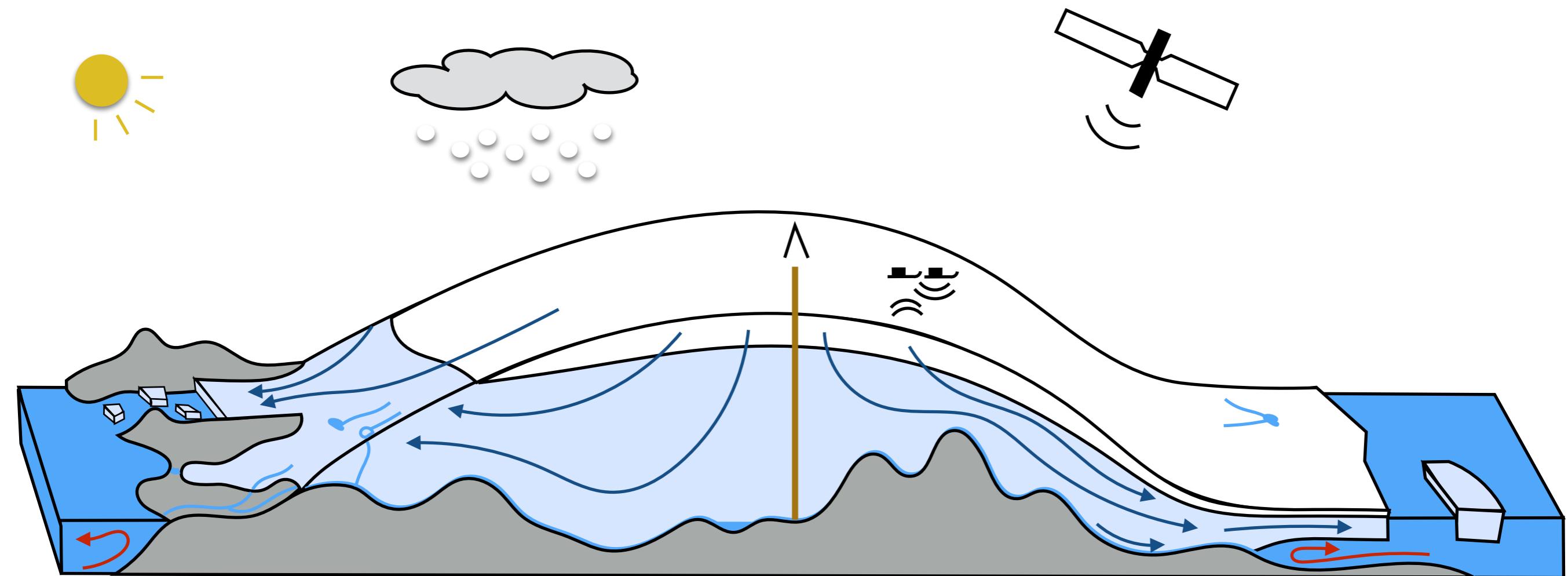
# Continuum mechanics

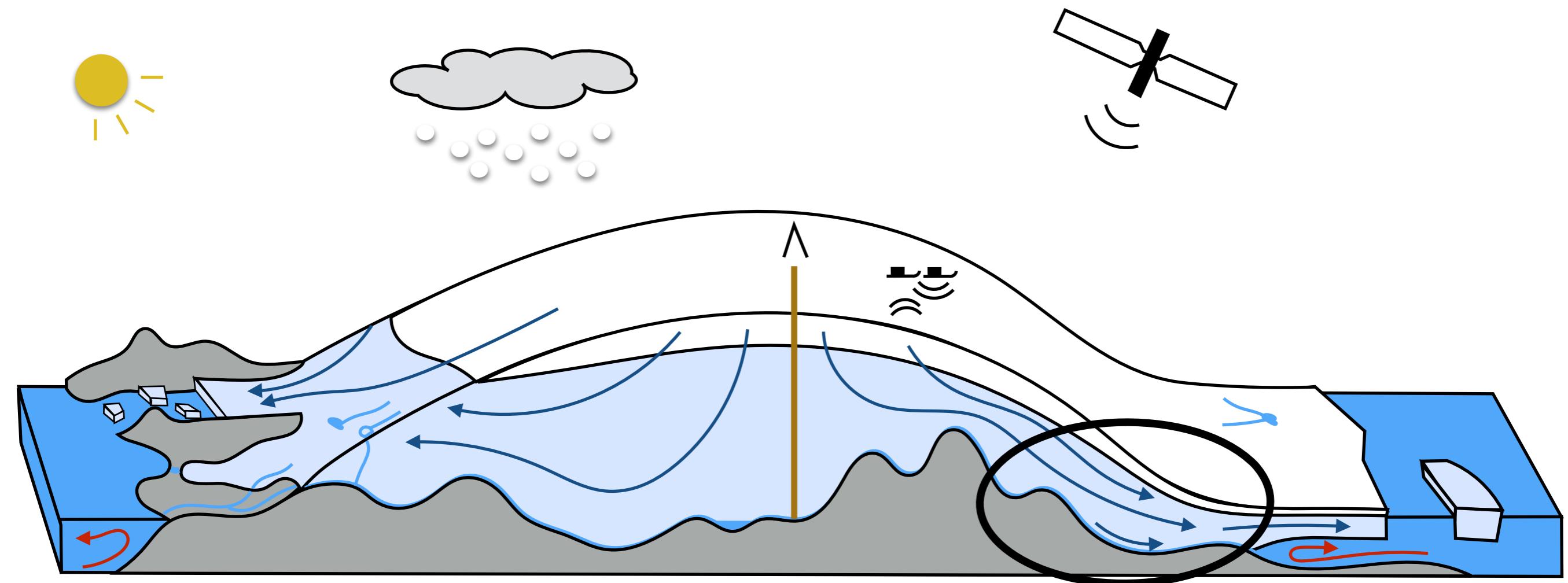


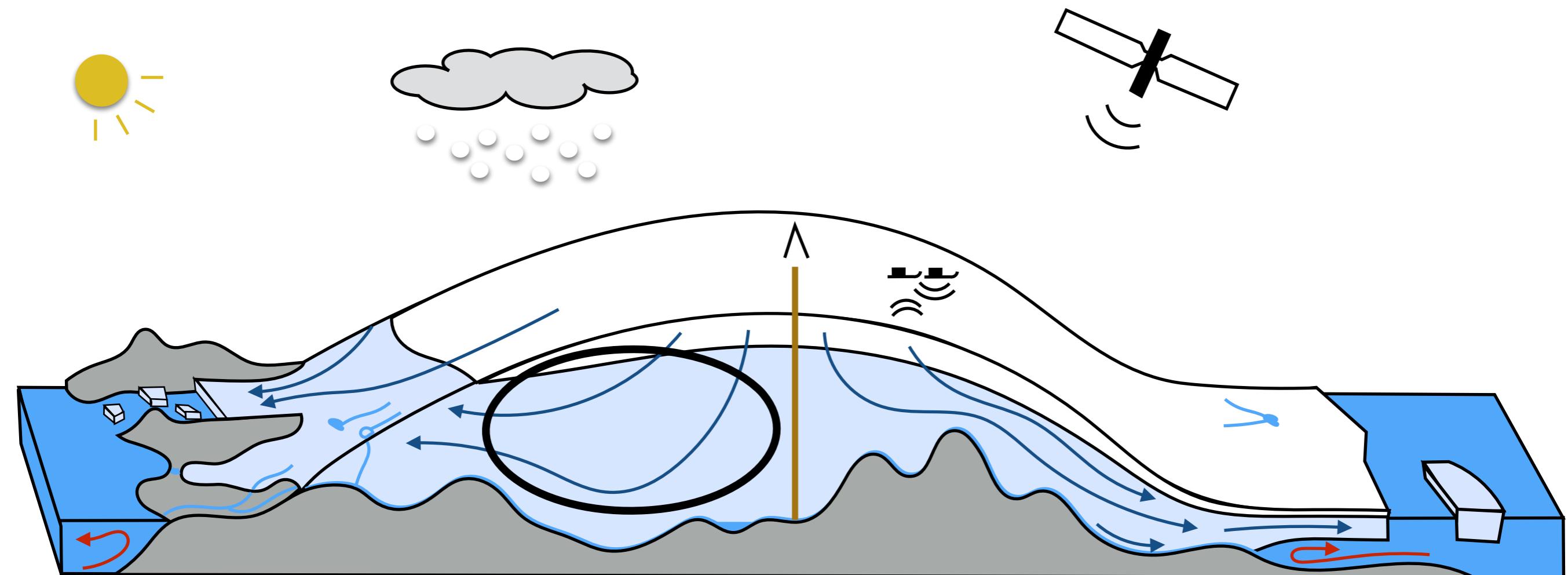
# Background

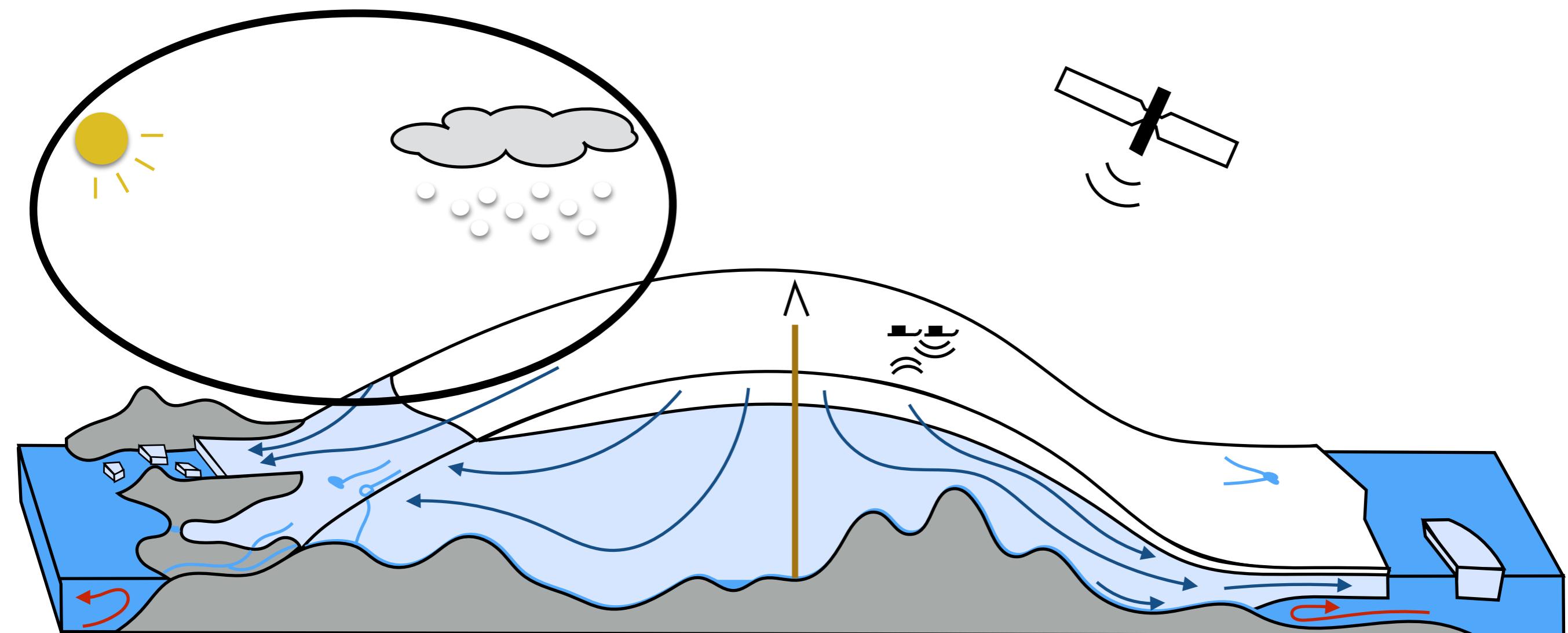


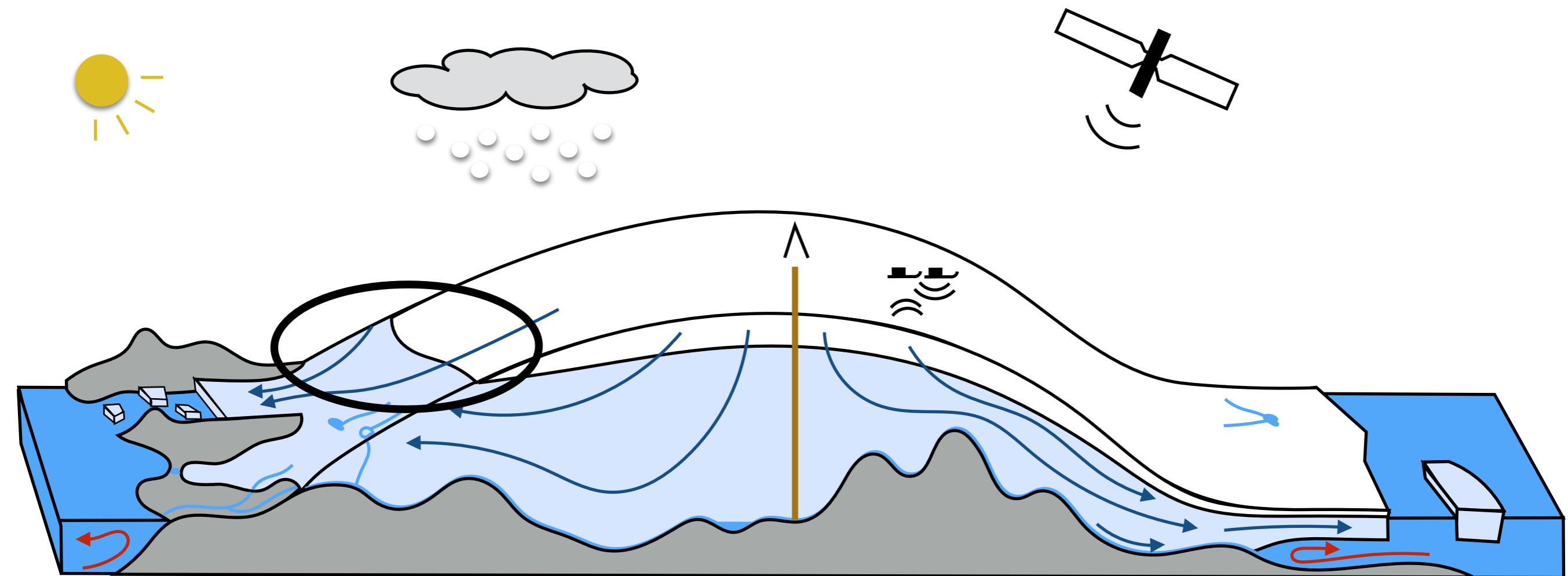


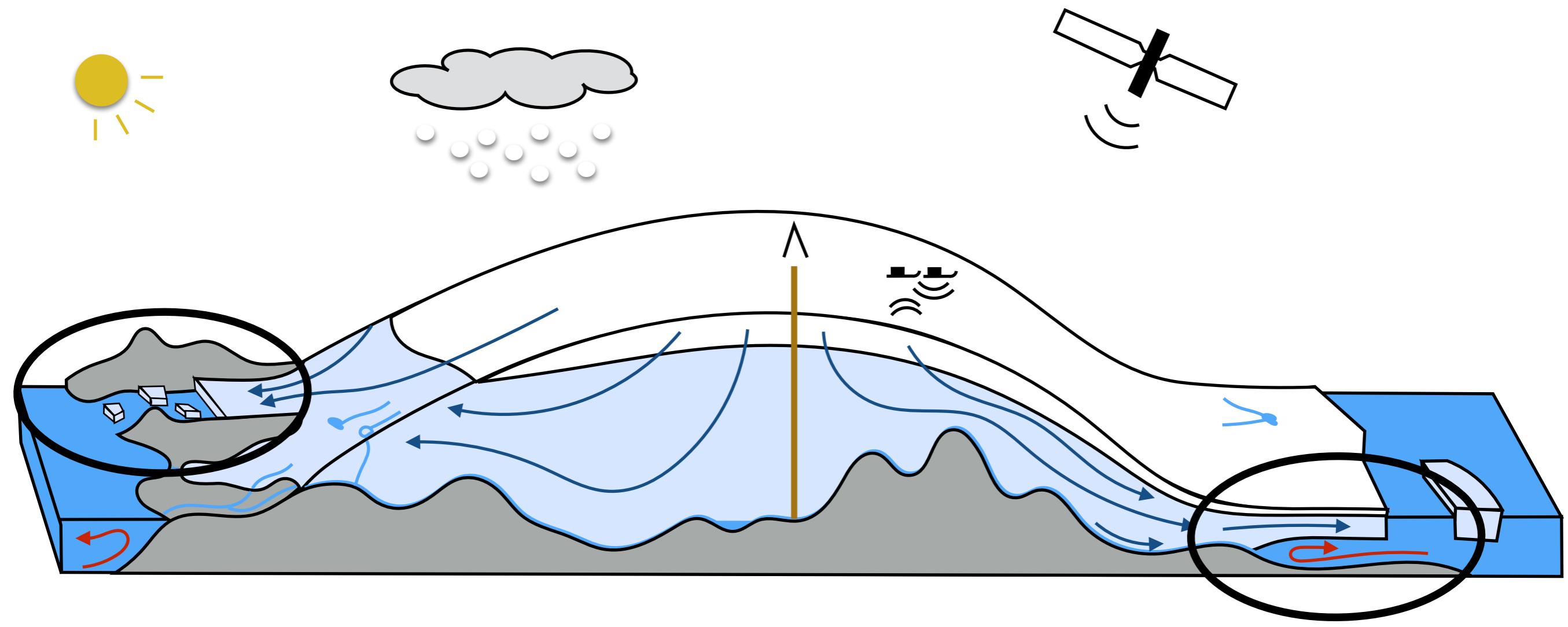


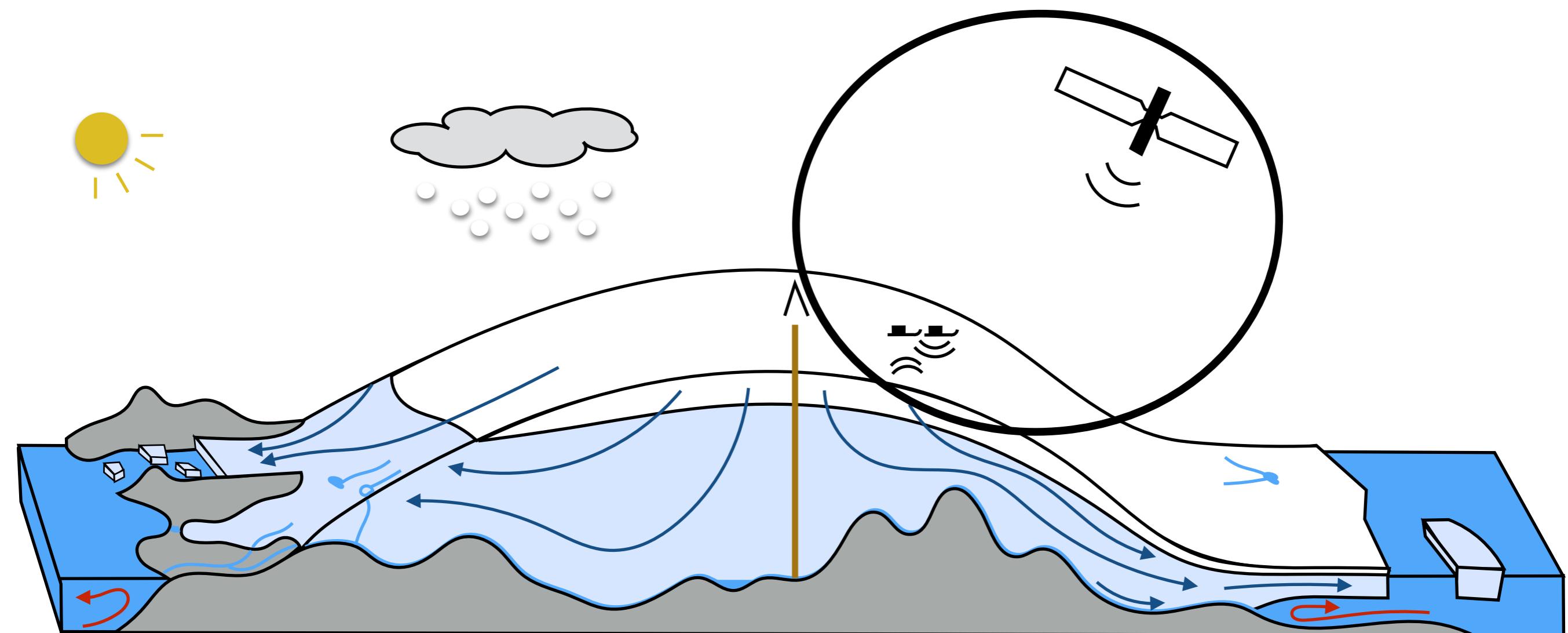


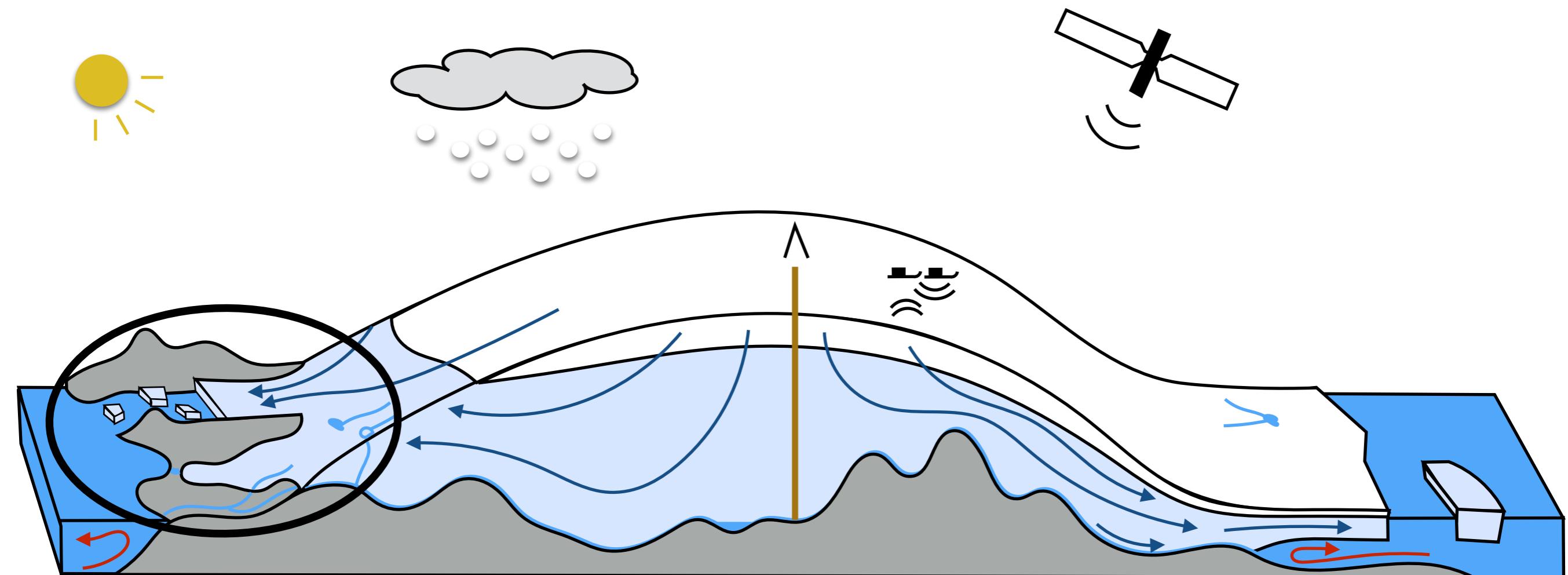


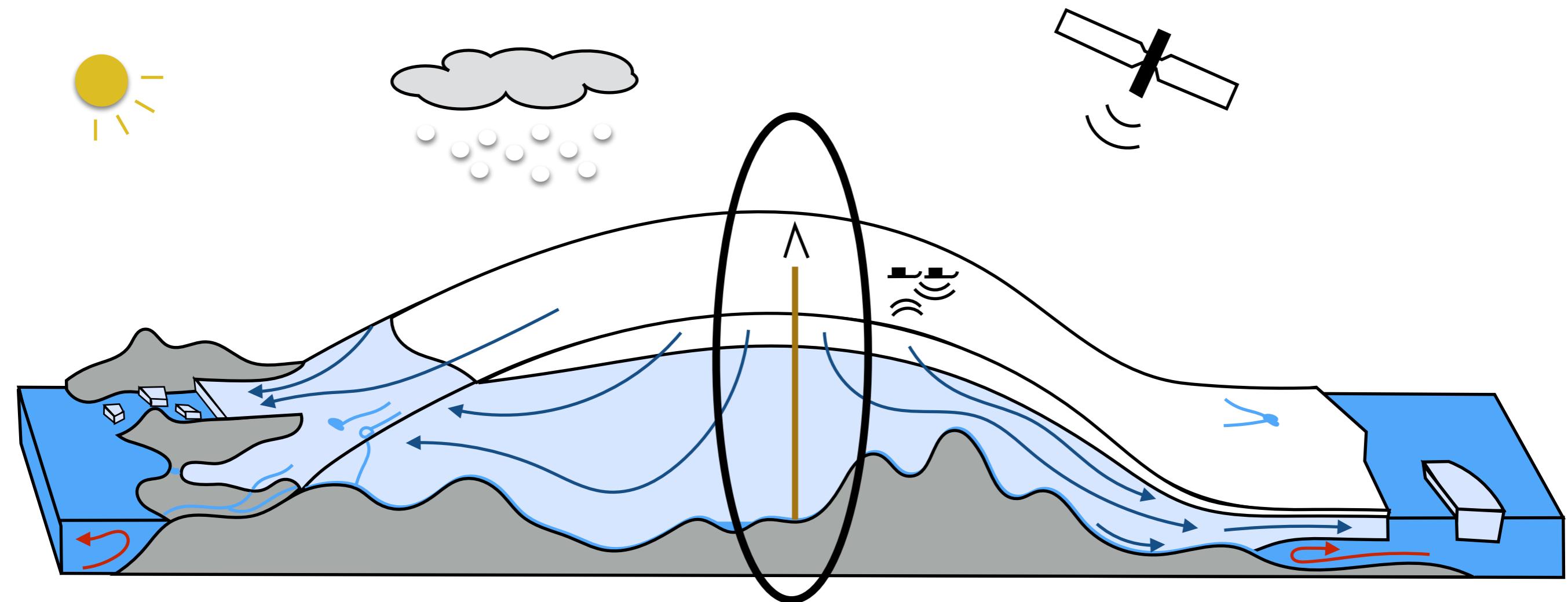










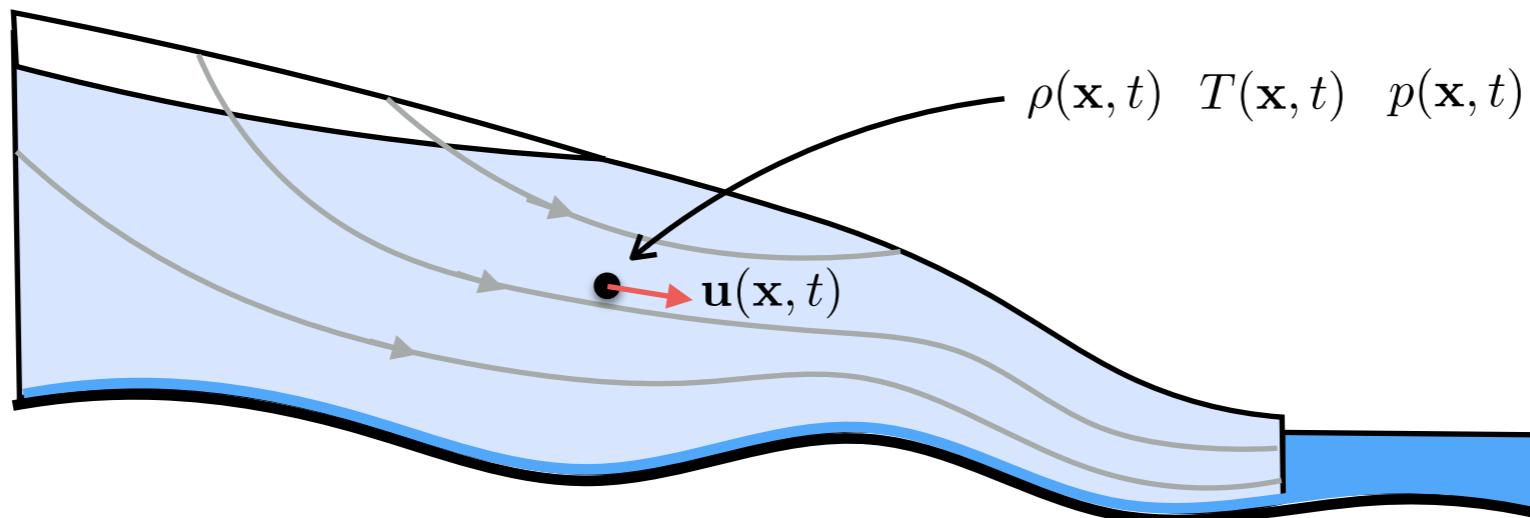


# Continuum mechanics

# Continuum mechanics

A **continuum approximation** treats a material as having a continuous distribution of mass. It applies on scales much larger than inter-molecular distances.

Each ‘point’ of the continuum can be ascribed properties, such as **density, temperature, velocity, pressure**, etc.



Continuum mechanics provides a mathematical framework to describe how these properties vary in **space** and **time**.

Continuum mechanics can be used to describe both ‘fluids’ and ‘solids’ - we focus on fluids.

## Kinematics

- Coordinate systems / derivatives
- Strain rate

## Dynamics

- Stress tensor
- Constitutive laws

## Conservation laws

- Conservation of mass
- Conservation of momentum
- Navier-Stokes equations
- Conservation of energy

## Boundary conditions

## Depth-integrated models



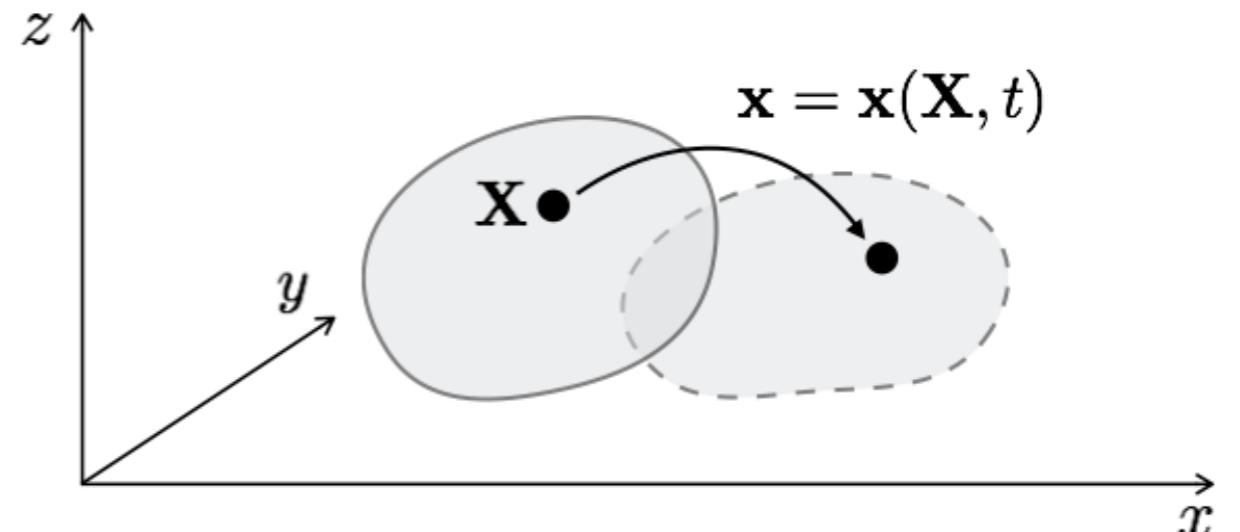
# Kinematics

# Coordinate systems

## Eulerian description $(\mathbf{x}, t)$

x Spatial coordinates, fixed in space

$$\mathbf{x} = (x, y, z) = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$$



## Lagrangian description $(\mathbf{X}, t)$

X Spatial coordinates, fixed in material

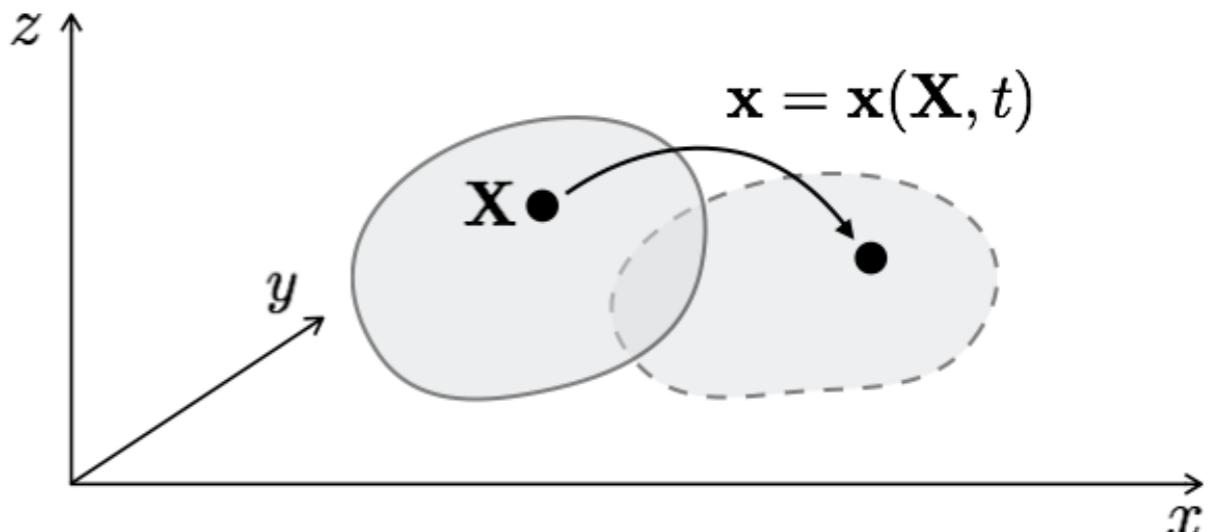
We usually choose these as the coordinates of a reference configuration at  $t = 0$

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X Spatial coordinates, fixed in material

We usually choose these as the coordinates of a reference configuration at  $t = 0$

Material paths  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X}, t)$  are governed by

$$\frac{D\mathbf{x}}{Dt} = \mathbf{u} \quad \mathbf{x}|_{t=0} = \mathbf{X}$$

velocity  $\mathbf{u} = (u, v, w) = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$

where  $\frac{D}{Dt}$  is the time rate of change for fixed  $\mathbf{X}$  (i.e. the derivative ‘following the fluid’)

# Coordinate systems

A stake drilled into the ice tracks the ice motion in a **Lagrangian** system.



A weather station on the ice surface measures atmospheric properties in a (roughly) **Eulerian** framework.

Fluid **models** are usually written in an **Eulerian** coordinate system.

# Material derivative

Given some function of Eulerian coordinates (e.g. temperature)  $T = f(\mathbf{x}, t)$

we can calculate the **material derivative** using the **chain rule** (recall  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X}, t)$ )

$$\frac{DT}{Dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T$$

↑                   ↑  
local term      advective term

$\partial T / \partial t$  rate of change with respect to time at fixed  $\mathbf{x}$

$\nabla T$  rate of change with respect to  $\mathbf{x}$

$\mathbf{u}$  rate of change of  $\mathbf{x}$  with respect to time at fixed  $\mathbf{X}$

The material derivative is also called the '**convective**' derivative or '**total**' derivative.

In components,

$$\frac{DT}{Dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + u_i \frac{\partial T}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}$$

We use the **summation convention** (repeated indices imply a sum):  $u_i \frac{\partial T}{\partial x_i} = \sum_{i=1}^3 u_i \frac{\partial T}{\partial x_i}$

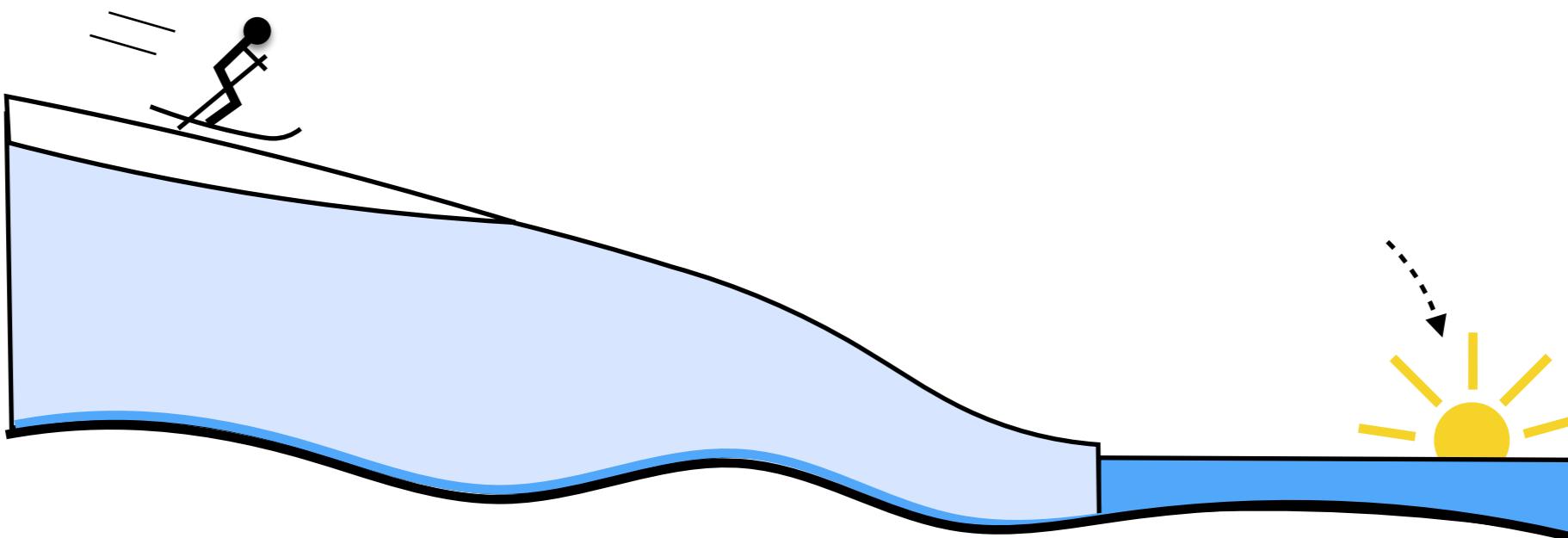
# Material derivative

## Example

The **rate of change of temperature** as measured by a **skier** has components due to:

- the temperature decreasing through the evening
- the temperature increasing as they travel downhill

$$\frac{DT}{Dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T$$

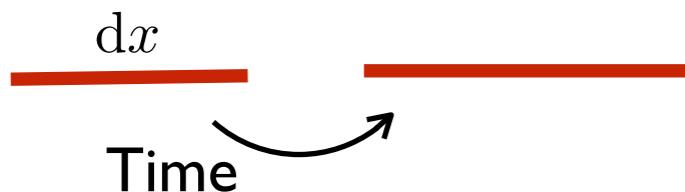


# Strain rate

Strain is a measure of deformation. The **strain rate** is a measure of how fast strain is changing.

## One dimension

Consider the rate of change of length of a small fluid element



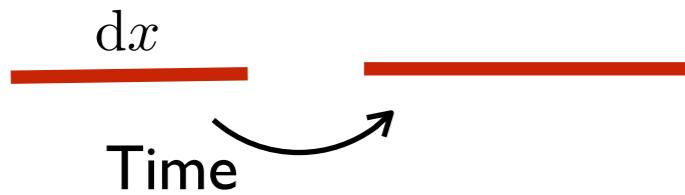
$$\frac{D}{Dt}(dx) = du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{dx} \frac{D}{Dt}(dx) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \quad \text{stretching rate}$$

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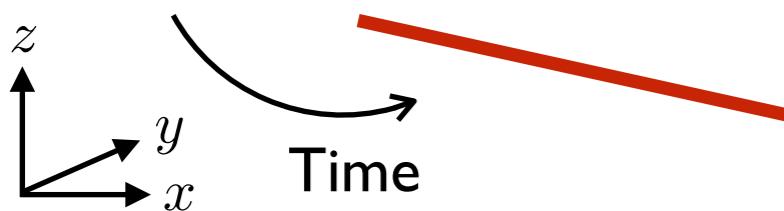
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## Three dimensions

The strain rate is now described by a rank-two tensor (a matrix)

$$dx = \hat{s} ds$$



$$\frac{1}{ds} \frac{D}{Dt}(ds) = \frac{1}{2} \hat{s}^T (\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^T) \hat{s} = \hat{s}_i \dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} \hat{s}_j$$

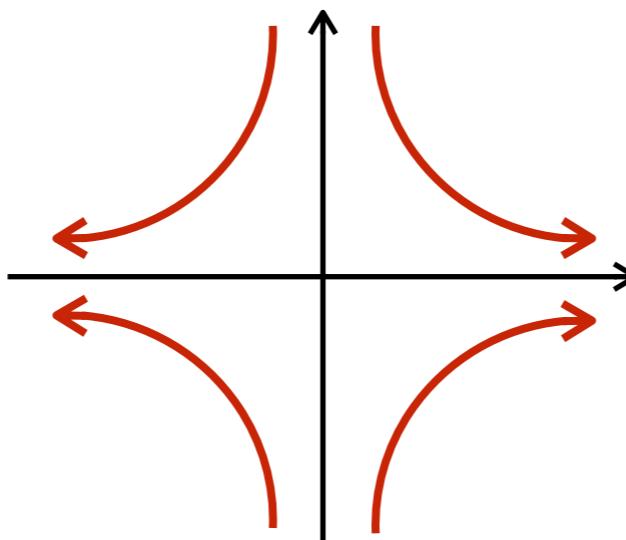
where the **strain rate tensor** is

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right)$$

# Strain rate

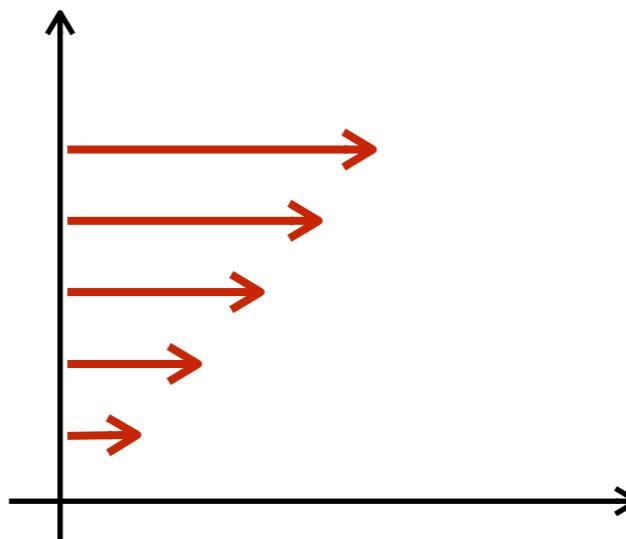
## Examples

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ -z \end{pmatrix}$$



$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} z \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

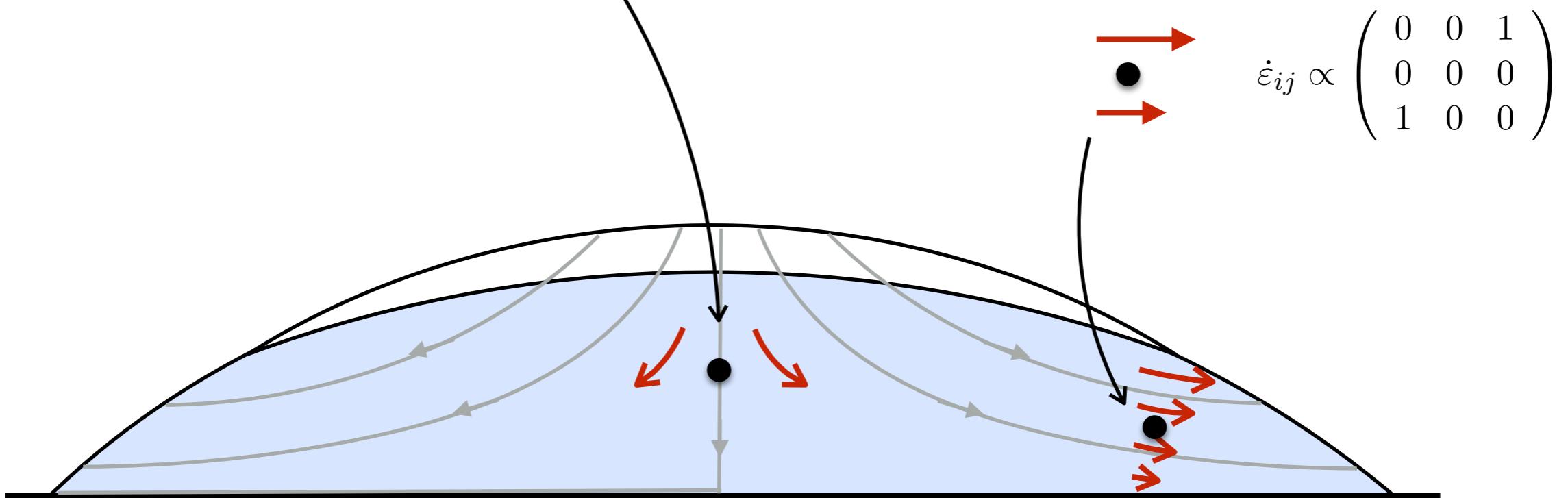


$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Strain rate

# Examples

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} \propto \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Dynamics

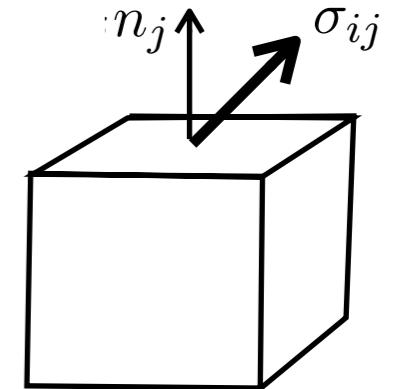
# Stress tensor

Stress is force per unit area. The stress state is described by a rank-two tensor.

At each point in the material, consider a small cube.

We define the **Cauchy stress tensor**  $\sigma = \sigma_{ij}$  as the force per unit area in the  $i$  direction on the face with normal in the  $j$  direction.

$$\sigma = \sigma_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{zx} & \sigma_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$



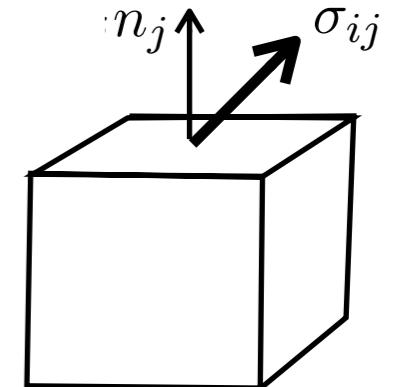
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We define the **pressure** by  $p = -\frac{1}{3}\sigma_{ii}$

and the **deviatoric stress tensor**  $\tau$  by  $\sigma = -p\delta + \tau$       or

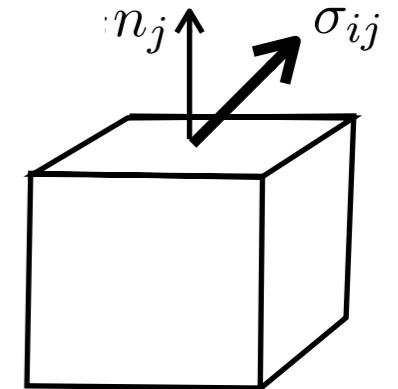
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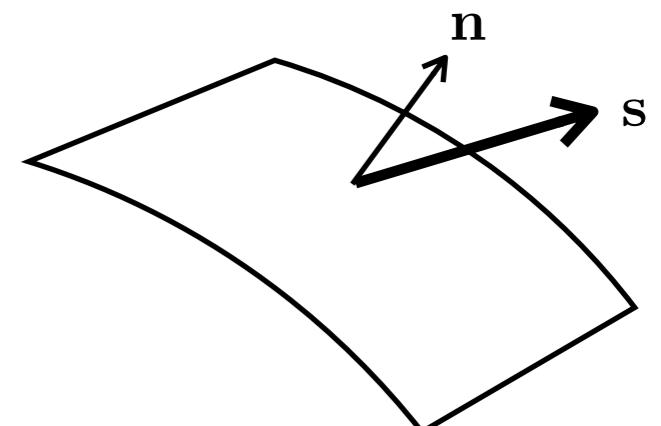
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or

$$\sigma_{ij} = -p\delta_{ij} + \tau_{ij}$$

The **stress acting on a general surface** with unit normal  $n$  is

$$s = \sigma \cdot n \quad \text{or, in index notation,} \quad s_i = \sigma_{ij}n_j$$



# Constitutive law

The constitutive law describes a relationship between stress and strain rates - it characterises the **rheology** of the material

For a **Newtonian fluid** (e.g. water)

$$\tau_{ij} = 2\eta\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}$$

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For ice, it is common to use **Glen's flow law**

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = A(T)\tau^{n-1}\tau_{ij}$$

$$\tau = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\tau_{ij}\tau_{ij}} \quad n \approx 3 \quad A \approx 2.4 \times 10^{-24} \text{ Pa}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ at } 0^\circ \text{ C}$$

This can be written in the form of a Newtonian fluid but with an **effective** (non-constant) **viscosity**

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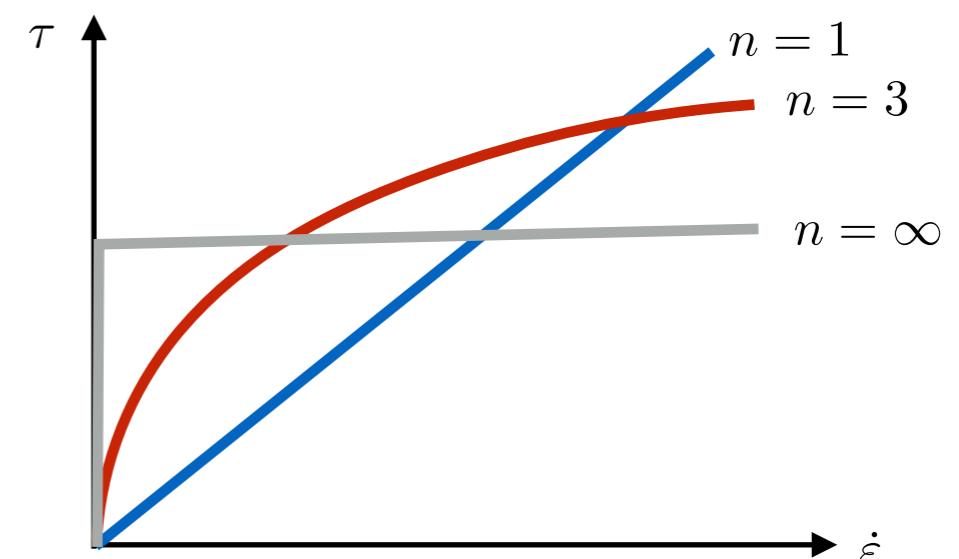
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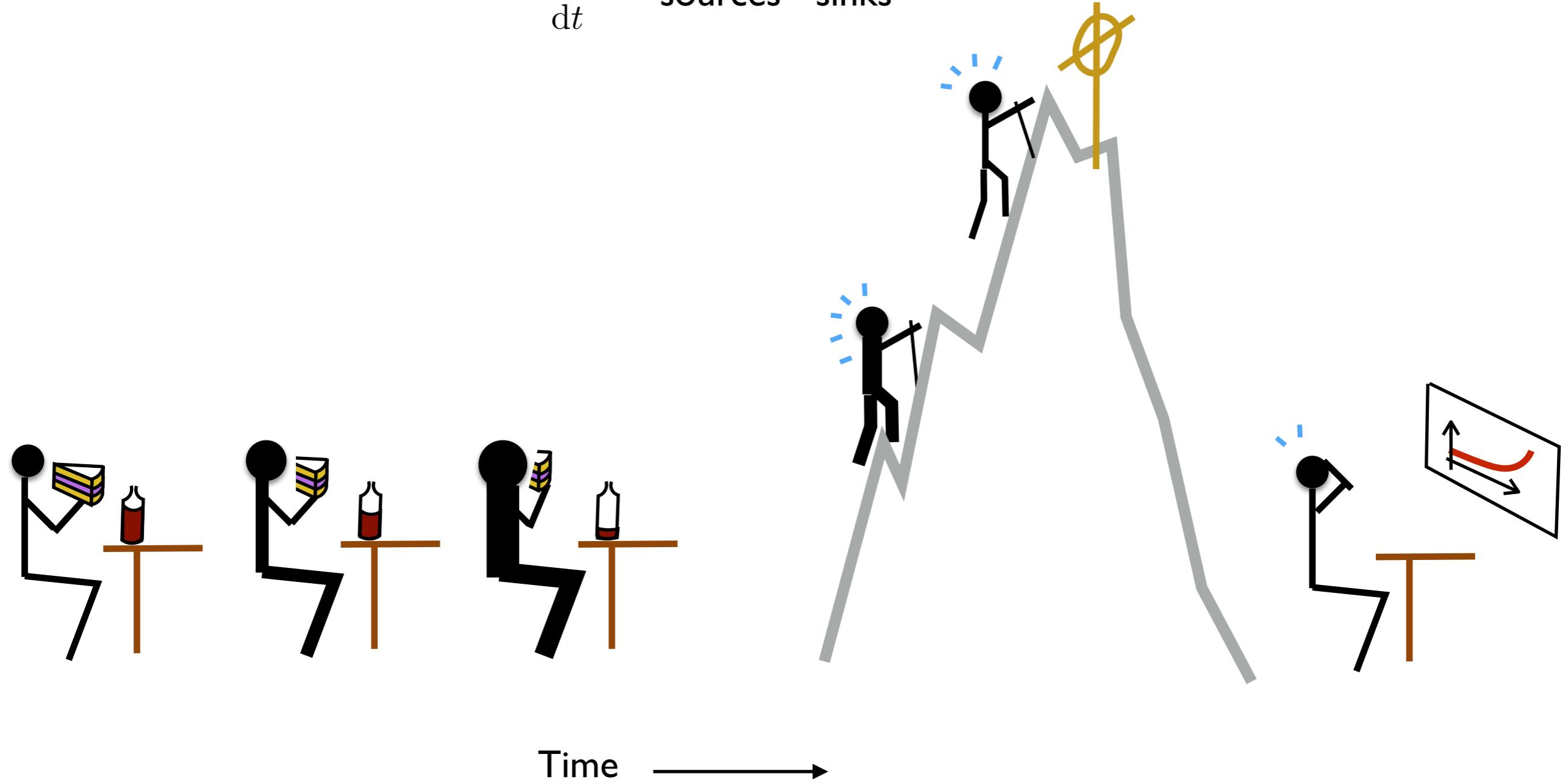


# **Conservation laws**

# Conservation of mass

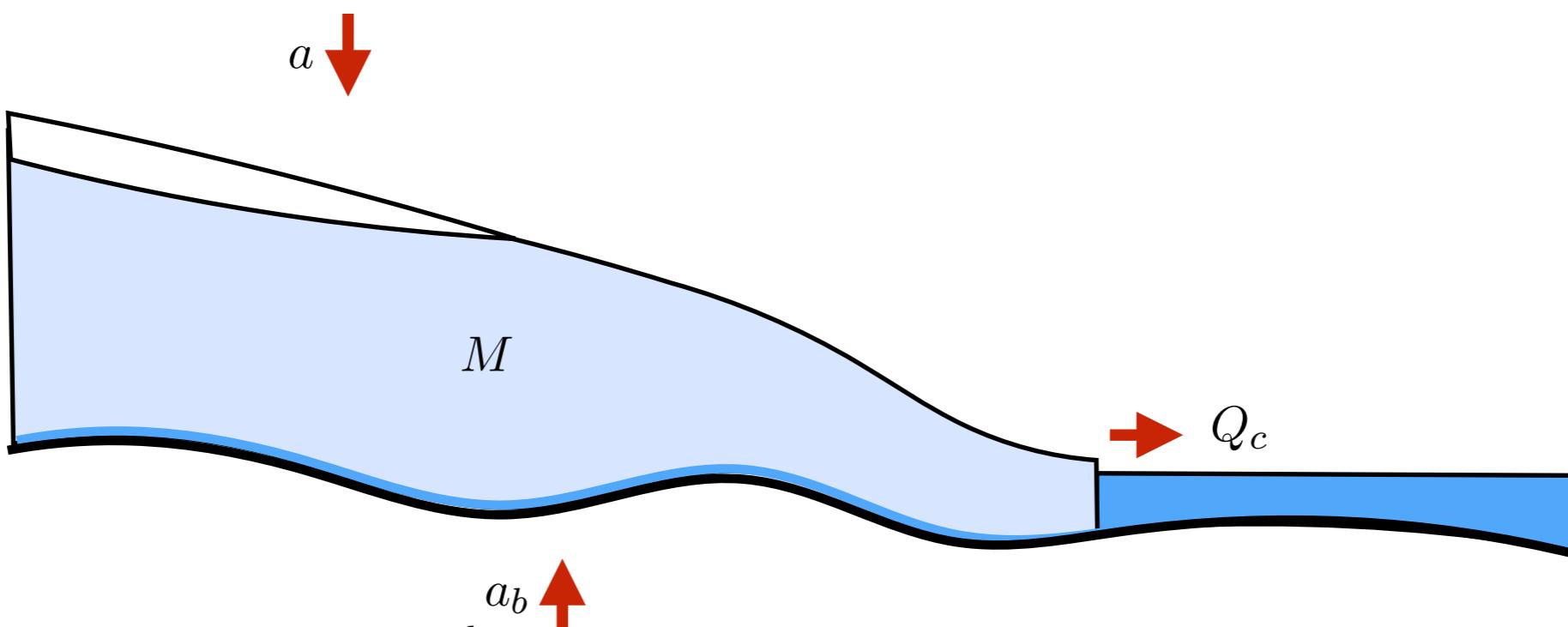
A major concern at Karthaus ...

$$\frac{dM}{dt} = \text{sources - sinks}$$



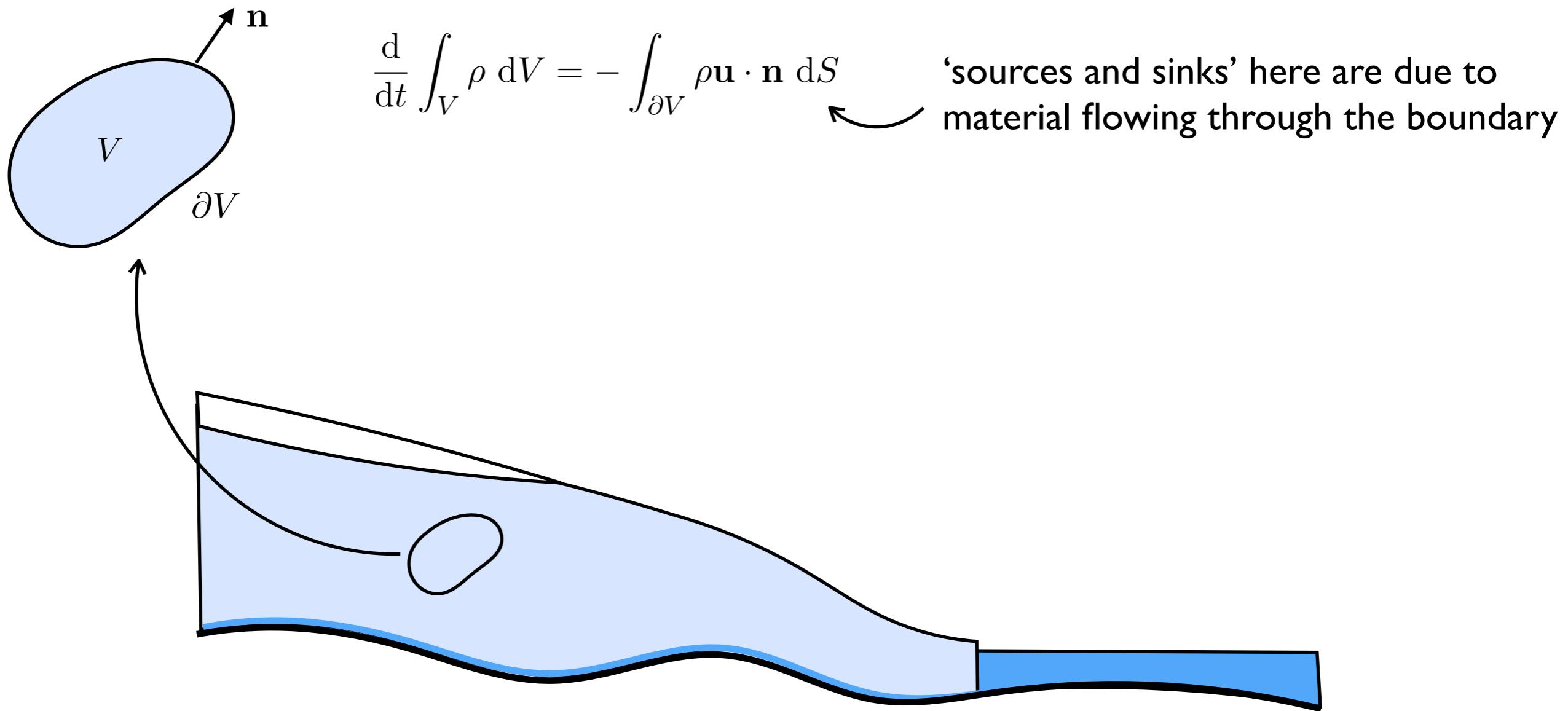
# Conservation of mass

$$\frac{dM}{dt} = \int_{surface} a \, dS + \int_{bed} a_b \, dS - Q_c$$



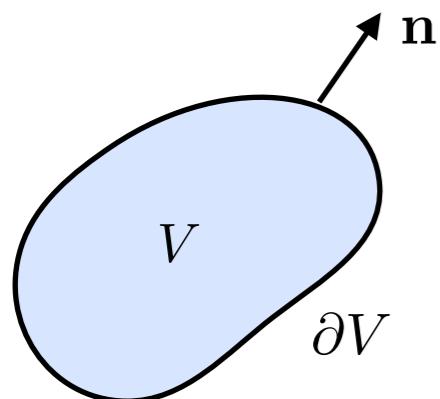
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**Conservation of mass** applies to each arbitrary (Eulerian) volume  $V$  in the ice.



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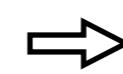
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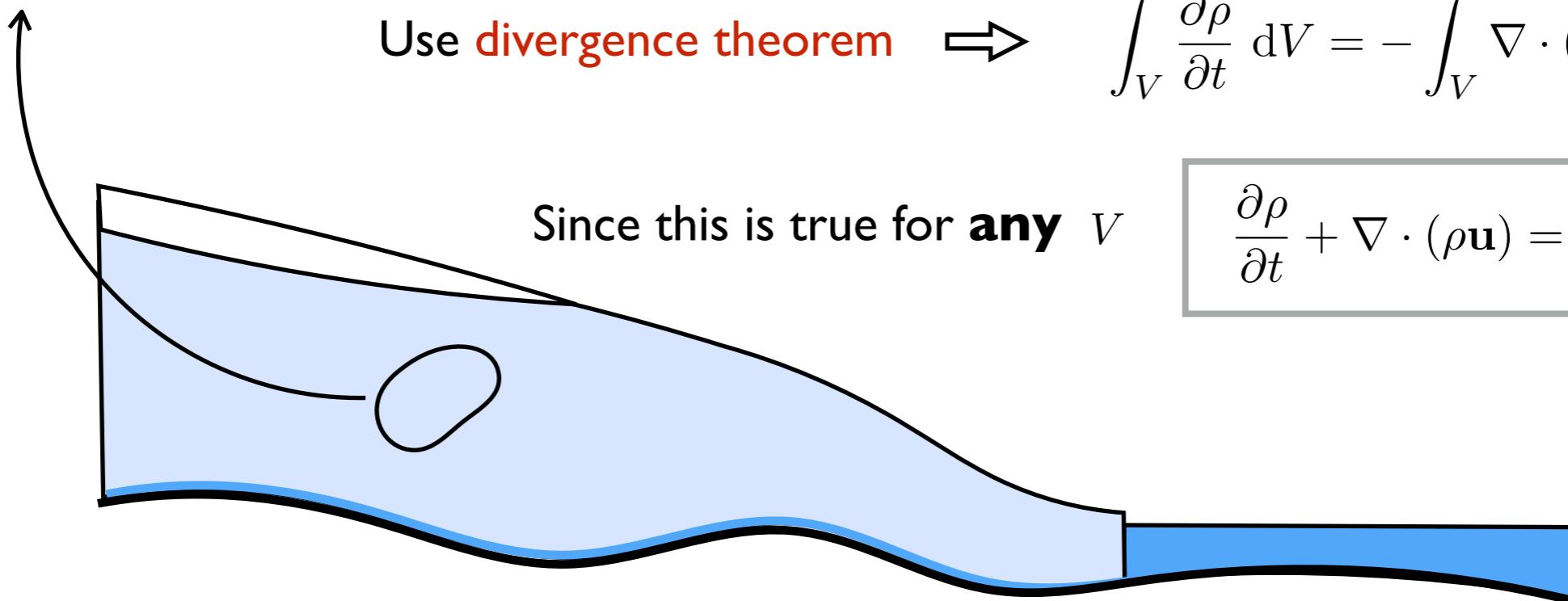
$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho \, dV = - \int_{\partial V} \rho \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

'sources and sinks' here are due to material flowing through the boundary

Use **divergence theorem**



$$\int_V \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \, dV = - \int_V \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u}) \, dV$$

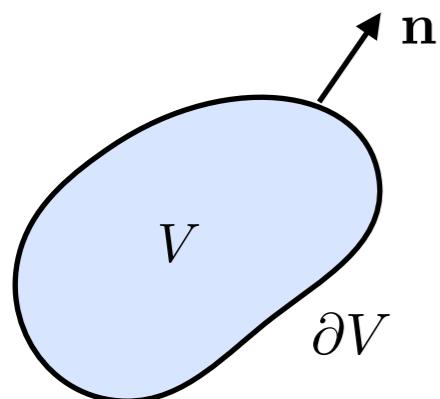


Since this is true for **any**  $V$

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u}) = 0$$

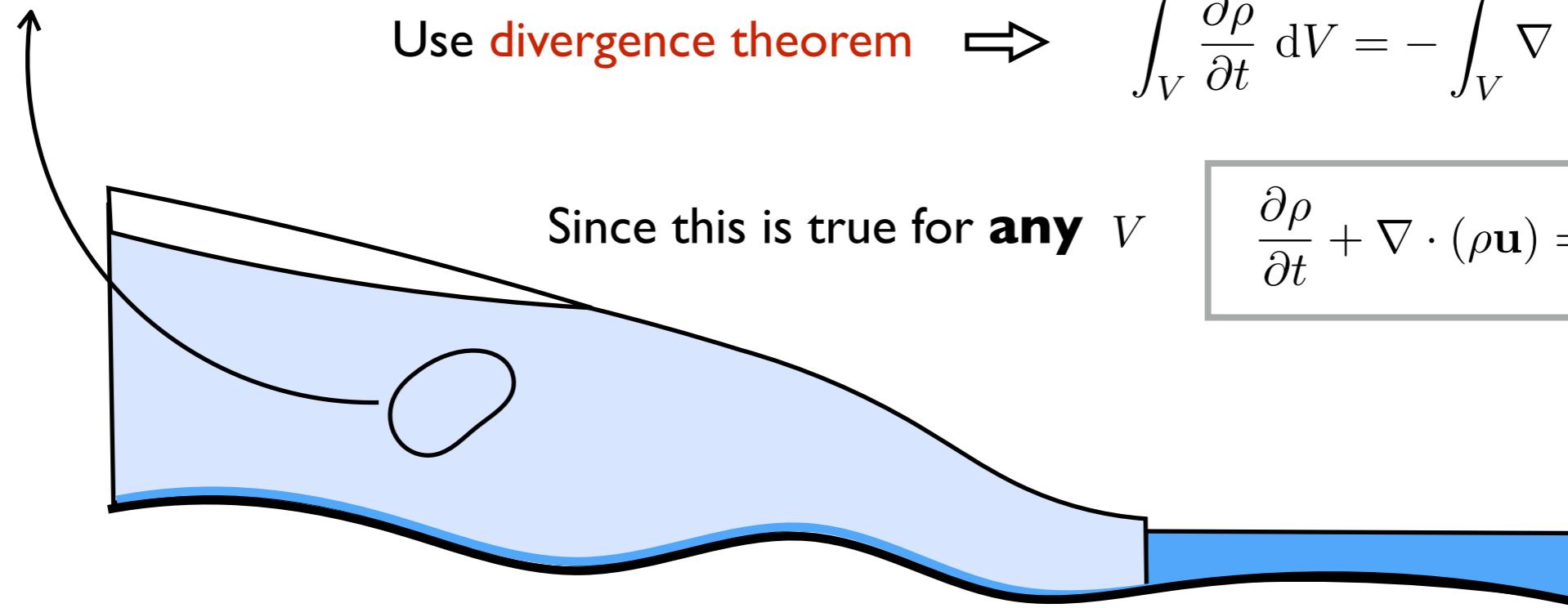
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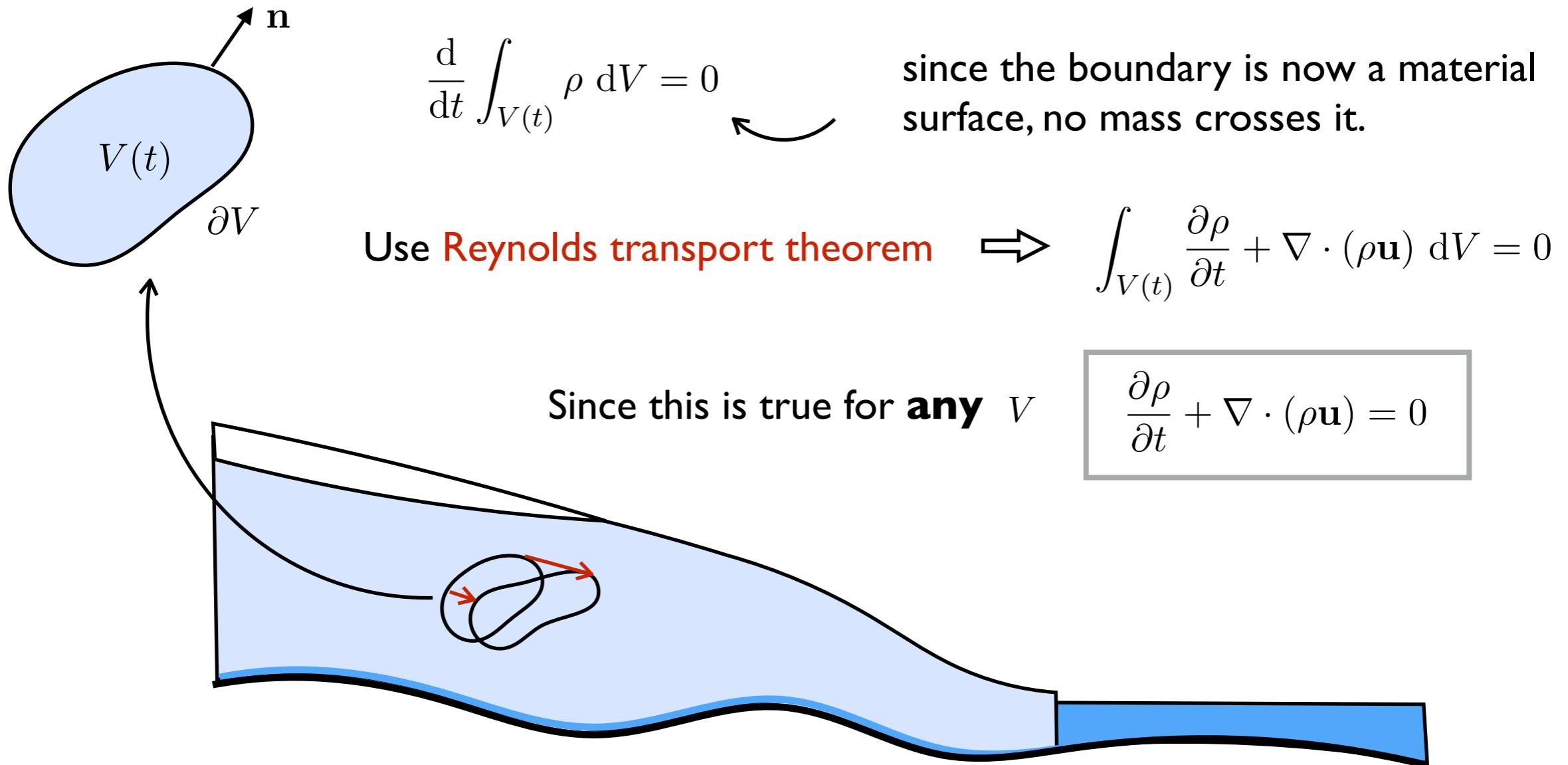
$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u}) = 0$$

If the material is **incompressible**,  $\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = 0$ , we obtain

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

# Conservation of mass

An **alternative** derivation is to consider arbitrary material (Lagrangian) volumes  $V(t)$

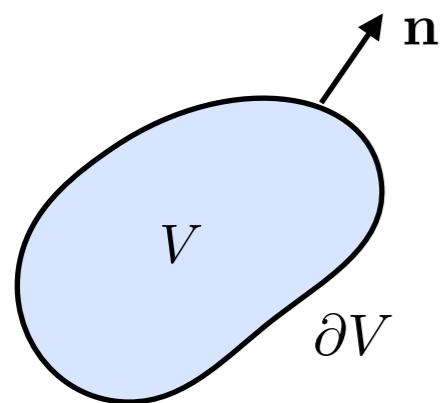


# Conservation of momentum

We apply a similar argument to conserve **momentum** for each volume  $V$

Momentum conservation is equivalent to **Newton's second law**:

**Rate of change of momentum is equal to the forces acting**



$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho u_i \, dV = - \int_{\partial V} \rho u_i u_j n_j \, dS + \int_{\partial V} \sigma_{ij} n_j \, dS + \int_V \rho g_i \, dV$$

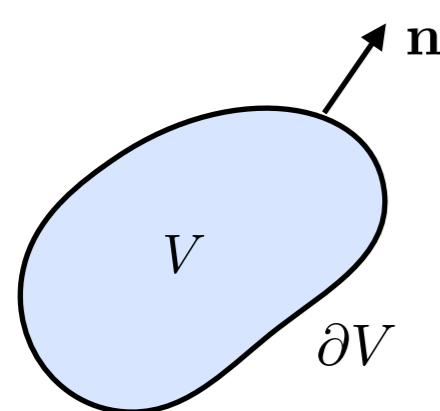
flux of momentum through boundary      surface forces      body force (gravity)

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↑                              ↑                              ↑  
flux of momentum          surface forces          body force  
through boundary            (gravity)

Apply divergence theorem

$$\int_V \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho u_i) \, dV = \int_V -\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(\rho u_i u_j) + \frac{\partial \sigma_{ij}}{\partial x_j} + \rho g_i \, dV$$

Use that volume is arbitrary

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho u_i) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}(\rho u_i u_j) = \frac{\partial \sigma_{ij}}{\partial x_j} + \rho g_i$$

Use conservation of mass

$$\rho \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} \right) = \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \rho \mathbf{g}$$

(in vector form)

# Navier-Stokes equations

We have derived **mass** and **momentum** equations for an incompressible fluid

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \quad \rho \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} \right) = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau} + \rho \mathbf{g}$$

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Combining with the Newtonian rheology  $\tau_{ij} = 2\eta\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}$  gives the **Navier-Stokes equations**

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \quad \rho \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} \right) = -\nabla p + \eta \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} + \rho \mathbf{g}$$

constant viscosity is used here  
this term is non linear!

# Reynolds number

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \mathbf{g}$$

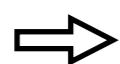
Estimate the size of terms in the momentum equation for an ice sheet

$$\mathbf{u} \sim U \approx 100 \text{ m y}^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{x} \sim L \approx 1000 \text{ m}$$

$$\mathbf{g} \sim g \approx 9.8 \text{ m s}^{-2}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} \sim \rho g z$$



$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} \sim 10^{-14} \text{ m s}^{-2}$$



The inertial terms on the left are much much smaller than those on the right.

More generally, the relative size of these terms is measured by the **Reynolds number**

- this is a measure of how ‘fast’ the flow is.

$$Re = \frac{\rho U L}{\eta}$$

# Reynolds number

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \mathbf{g}$$

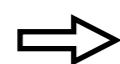
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$$Re = \frac{\rho U L}{\eta}$$

For small Reynolds number (‘slow flow’) we have the **Stokes equations**

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{0} = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau} + \rho \mathbf{g}$$

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = A(T) \boldsymbol{\tau}^{n-1} \tau_{ij}$$

# High Reynolds number flows

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \mathbf{g}$$

For flows with **high Reynolds number** (e.g. most atmosphere and ocean processes) we can usually **ignore the viscous terms**.

However, such flows are often **turbulent**, and there are Reynolds stresses (due to fluctuations in the velocity field) that have to be **parameterised**

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p - \nabla \cdot \langle \mathbf{u}' \mathbf{u}' \rangle + \mathbf{g}$$

↗      **Reynolds stresses**

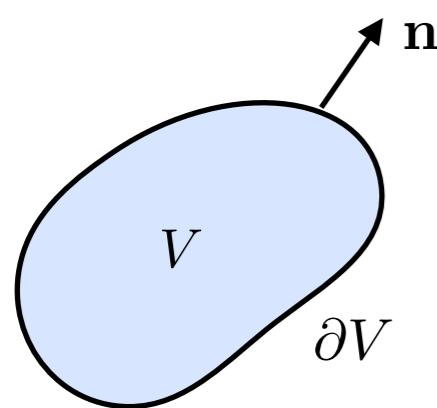
When inertia is important we may also have to worry about the effects of Earth's **rotation**

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} \quad \text{becomes} \quad \frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} + 2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge (\boldsymbol{\Omega} \wedge \mathbf{x})$$

# Conservation of energy

The same methods work to derive an **energy** equation.

Rate of change of energy is equal to the work done by forces and net conductive heat transfer

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho(e + \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{u}|^2) dV = - \int_{\partial V} \rho(e + \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{u}|^2) \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS + \int_{\partial V} k \nabla T \cdot \mathbf{n} dS + \int_{\partial V} \mathbf{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS + \int_V \rho \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{g} dV$$


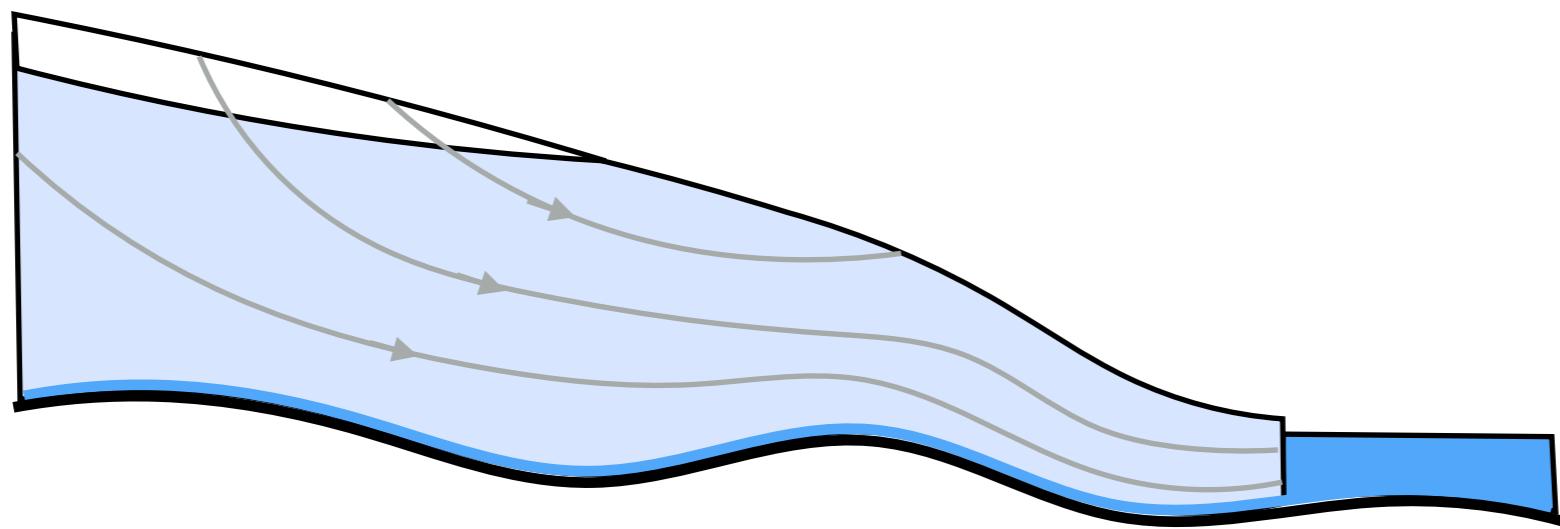
↑  
flux of energy  
through boundary      ↑  
conductive  
transfer      ↑  
work done against  
surface forces      ↑  
work done  
against gravity

Applying the usual arguments ...

$$\rho c_p \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T \right) = \nabla \cdot (k \nabla T) + \tau_{ij} \dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}$$

$$\frac{De}{Dt} = c_p \frac{DT}{Dt}$$

# Boundary conditions



# Kinematic boundary conditions

At a **rigid boundary** (e.g. the glacier bed\* in absence of melting/freezing), we must usually have **no normal flow**

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$$

For a viscous fluid we also usually have **no slip**

$$\mathbf{u}_b = \mathbf{u} - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n} = 0$$

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However, glaciers often **slide** at the base, for which we adopt a **sliding law** relating basal speed and basal shear stress  $\tau_b = \sigma \cdot \mathbf{n} - (\mathbf{n} \cdot \sigma \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n}$

$$\tau_b = f(|\mathbf{u}_b|) \frac{\mathbf{u}_b}{|\mathbf{u}_b|}$$

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At a **material boundary** (e.g. the glacier surface in absence of accumulation or melting) we insist particles must stay on the surface

$$\frac{D}{Dt} (z - s(x, y, t)) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} = w$$

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$$\frac{D}{Dt} (z - s(x, y, t)) = 0$$

If there is **mass transfer** (e.g. accumulation) at a boundary, conservation of material demands a modification of the kinematic condition

$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} = w$$

$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} = w + a$$

# Dynamic boundary conditions

At free boundaries we apply atmospheric stress conditions

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{n} = -p_a \mathbf{n}$$

(atmospheric pressure is often chosen as the gauge pressure and set to zero)

This is often broken into normal and shear components

$$\mathbf{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{n} = -p_a$$

$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_s = \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{n} - (\mathbf{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{0}$$

# Stokes equations + boundary conditions

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = A(T)\tau^{n-1}\tau_{ij}$$

$$0 = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{xx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{xy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial z}$$

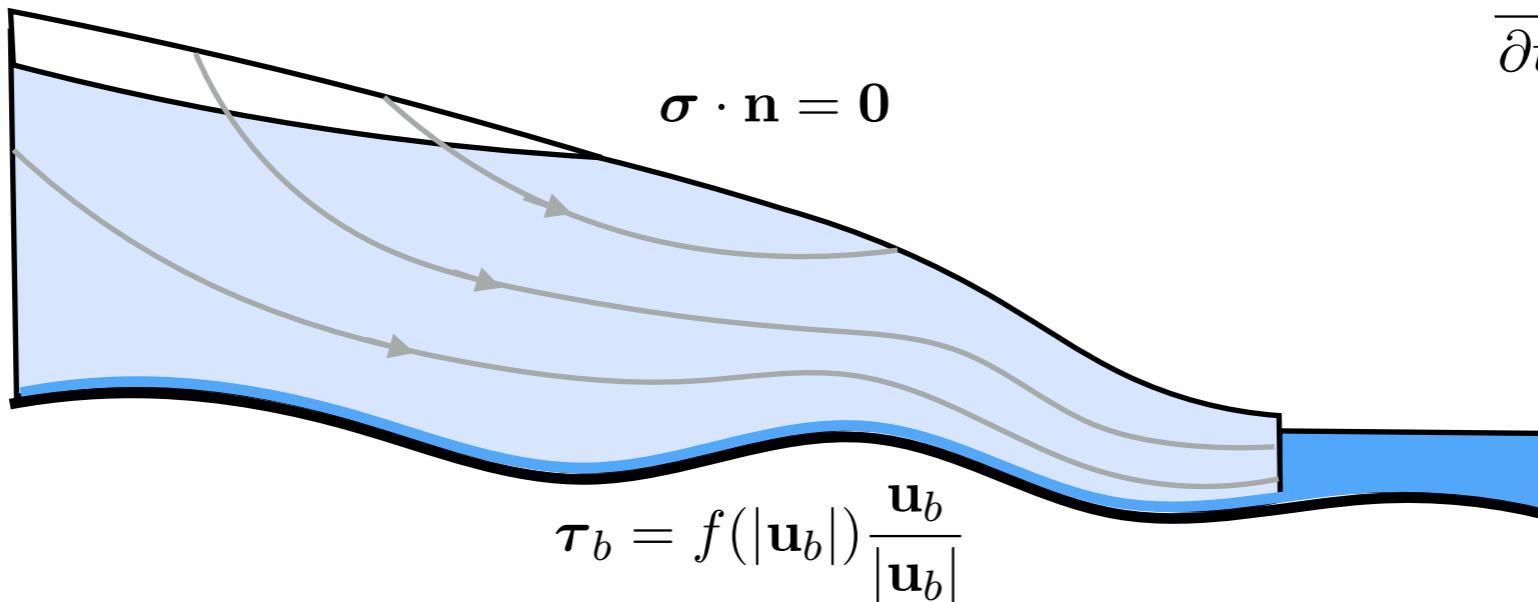
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$$0 = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zz}}{\partial z} - \rho g$$

$$z = s(x, y, t)$$

$$z = b(x, y)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$$



$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} = w + a$$

$$u \frac{\partial b}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial b}{\partial y} = w$$

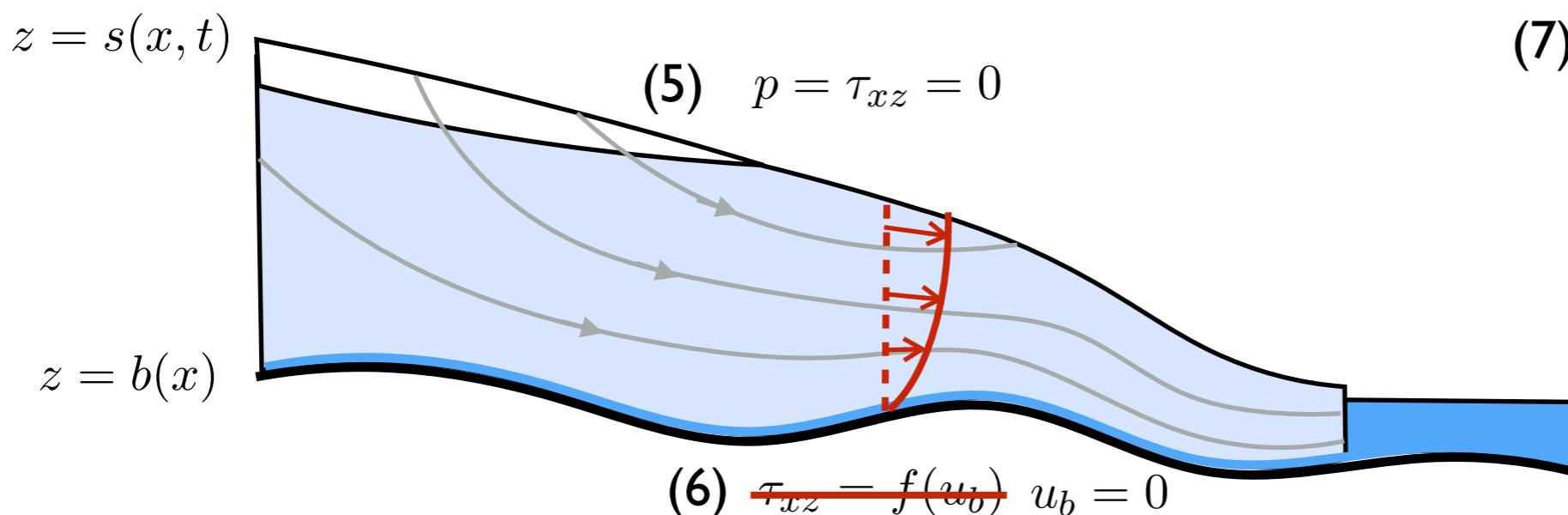
# Shallow approximation (lubrication theory, 2D)

$$(1) \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$(2) \quad 0 = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{xx}}{\cancel{\partial x}} + \frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial z}$$

$$(4) \quad \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = A |\tau_{xz}|^{n-1} \tau_{xz}$$

$$(3) \quad 0 = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zx}}{\cancel{\partial x}} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zz}}{\cancel{\partial z}} - \rho g$$



$$(7) \quad \frac{\partial s}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} = w + a$$

$$(8) \quad u \frac{\partial b}{\partial x} = w$$

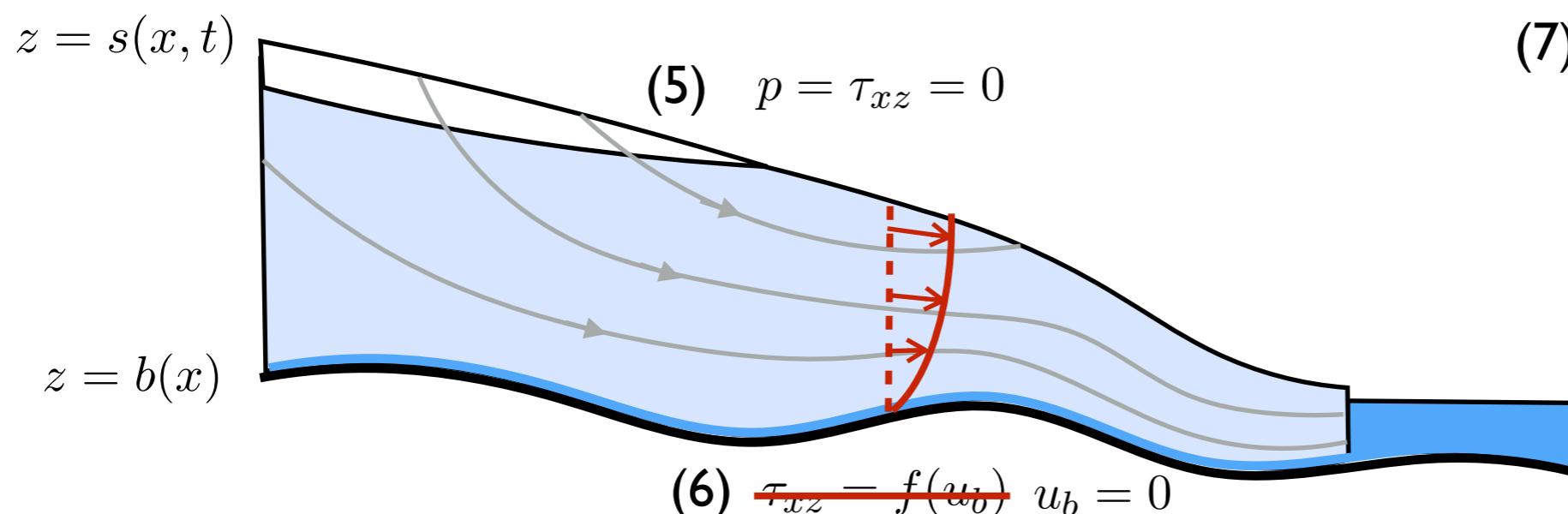
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Integrate (1) with (7) and (8)

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} = a$$

$$h = s - b$$

$$q = \int_b^s u \, dz$$

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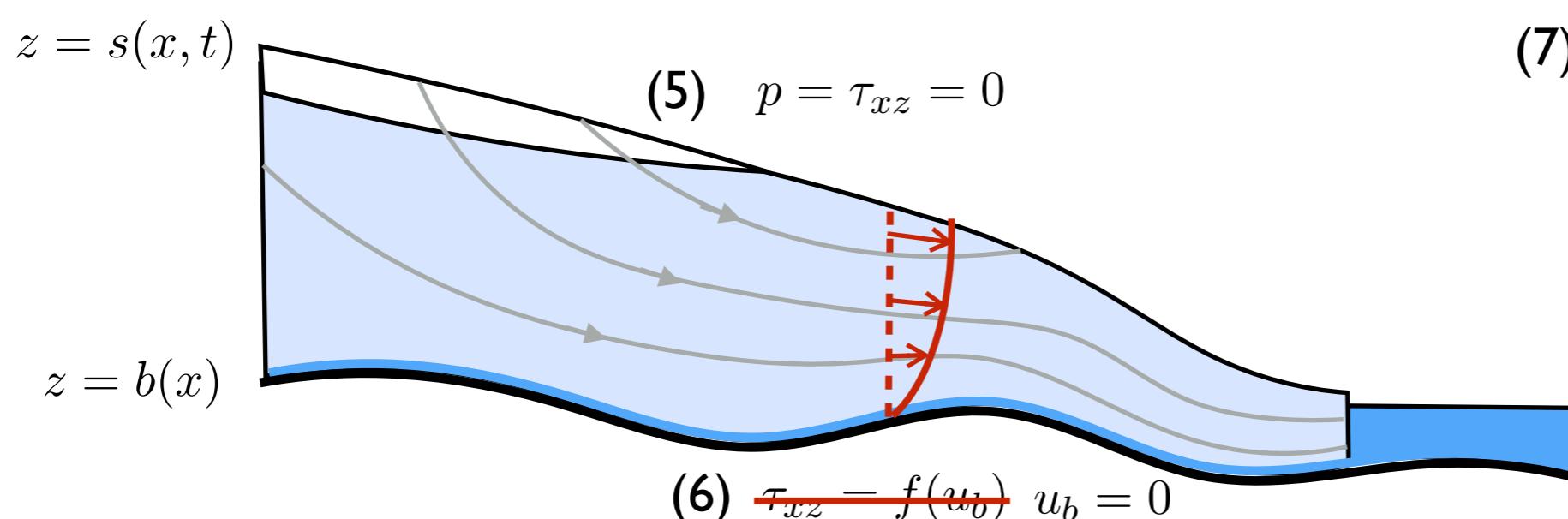
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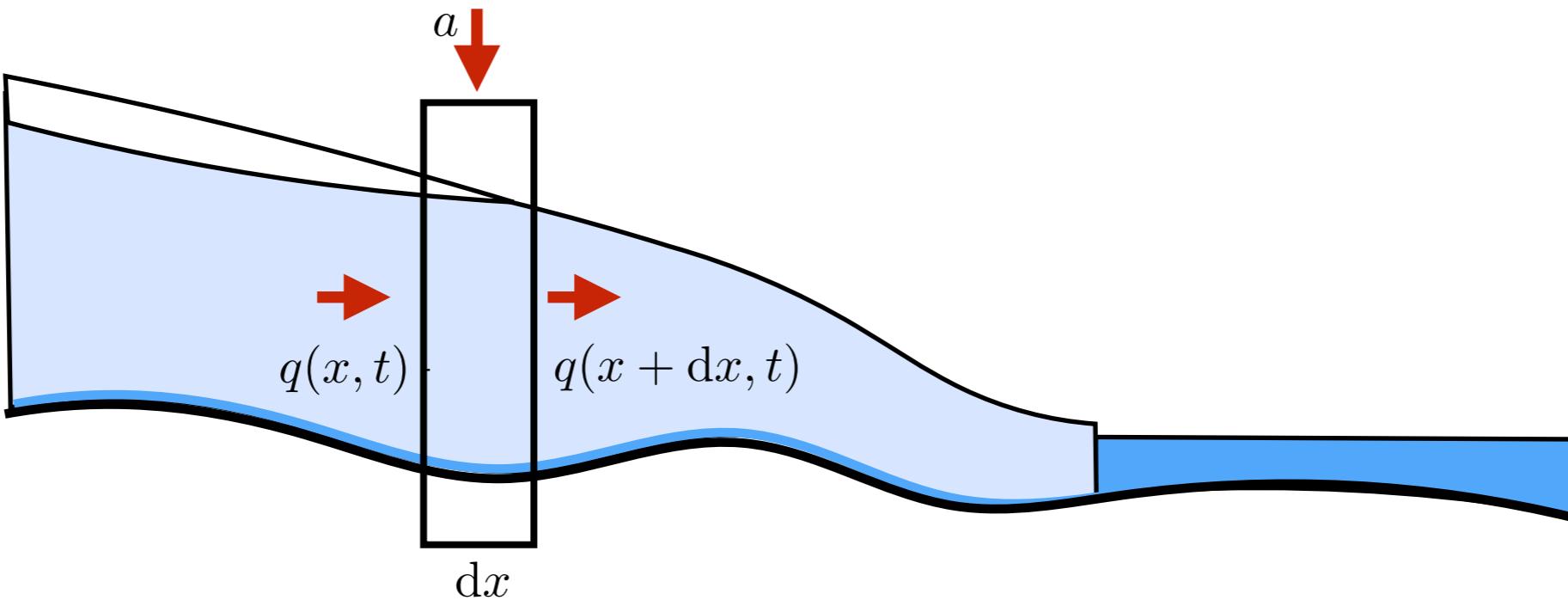
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Integrate (2)-(4) with (5) and (6)

$$q = -\frac{2A(\rho g)^n}{n+2} h^{n+2} \left| \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} \right|^{n-1} \frac{\partial s}{\partial x}$$

# Depth-integrated equations directly



Depth-integrated mass conservation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(h \, dx) = q(x, t) - q(x + dx, t) + a \, dx$$

Rearrange

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \frac{q(x + dx, t) - q(x, t)}{dx} = a$$

Take limit  $dx \rightarrow 0$

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} = a$$

# Rapid sliding (membrane theory)

$$u(x, z, t) \approx u_b(x, t)$$

$$(1) \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0$$

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$$z = s(x, t)$$

$$(5) \quad p = \tau_{xz} = 0$$

$$z = b(x)$$

$$(6) \quad \tau_{xz} = f(u_b)$$

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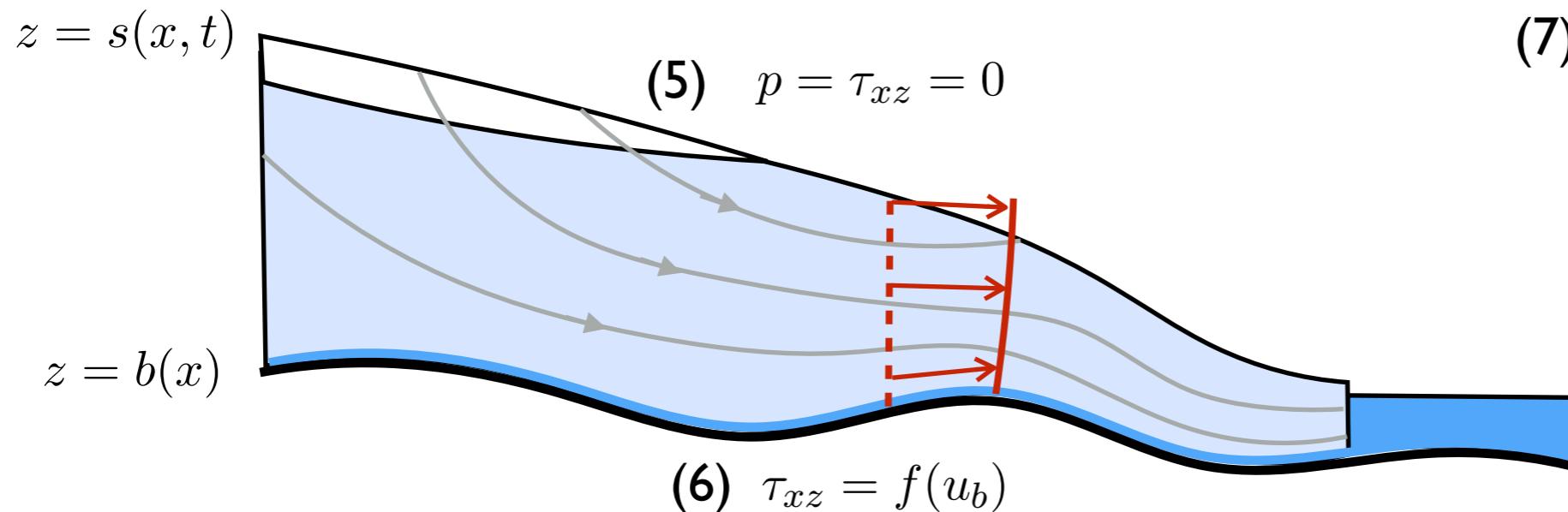
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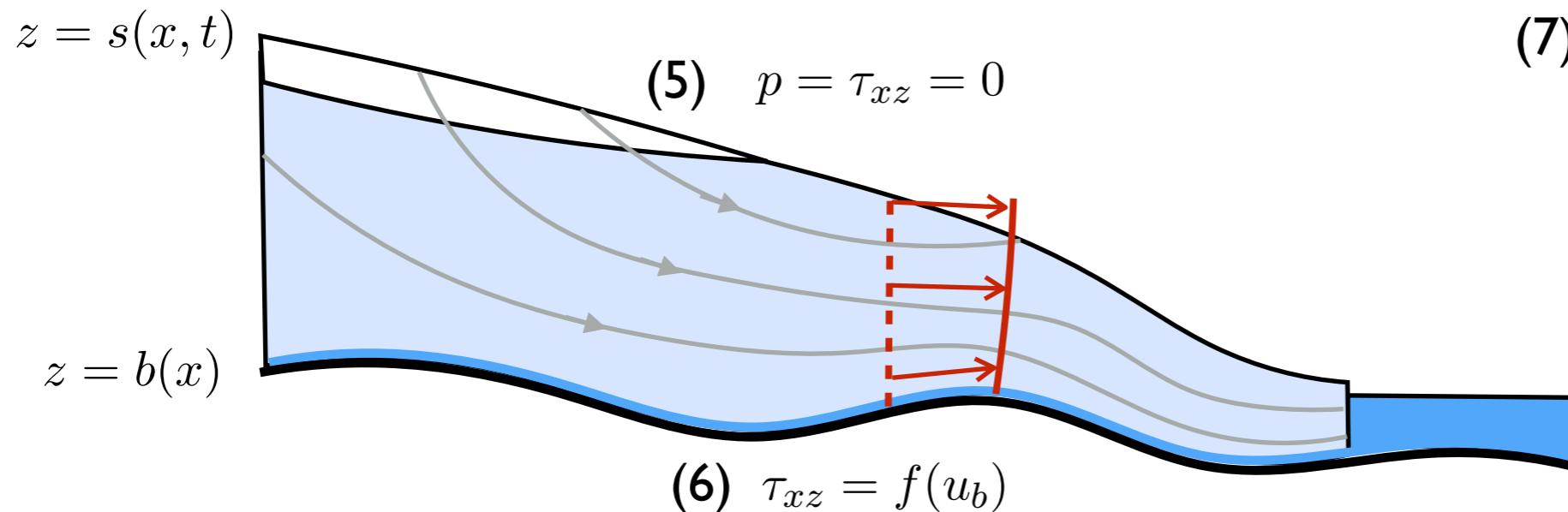
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$$h = s - b$$

$$q = hu$$

Integrate (2)-(4) with (5) and (6)

$$0 = -\rho g h \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( 2hA^{-1/n} \left| \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right|^{1/n-1} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) - f(u)$$

# Summary

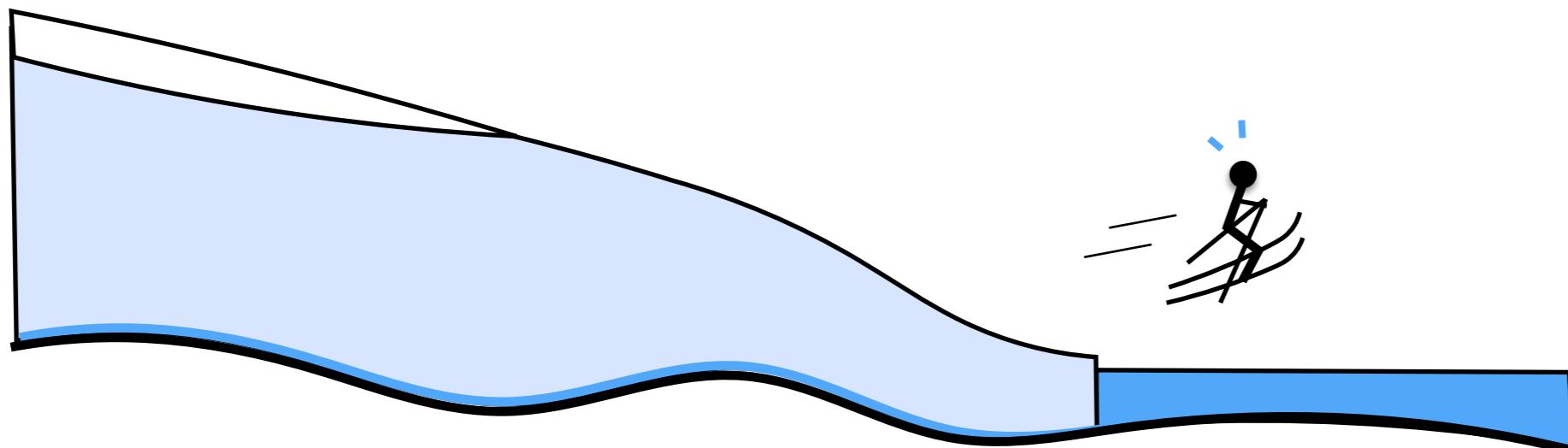
Continuum variables can be described in terms of **Eulerian** or **Lagrangian** coordinates.

The **material derivative** is the derivative following fluid particles.

**Stress and strain rate tensors** describe the forces and the rates of deformations in the material.

The principles of **mass and momentum conservation** lead to coupled PDEs for velocity, pressure and deviatoric stress. Together with a **constitutive law** these lead to the **Navier-Stokes** or **Stokes** equations.

Various **boundary conditions** are applicable for different types of bounding surfaces.





# Continuum mechanics summary

## Continuum mechanics

- Treats fluid as a continuous distribution, with properties (e.g. temperature) assigned to each point.

## Coordinate systems

- Eulerian  $\mathbf{x}$  (coordinate is fixed in space, material points moves through the coordinates)

$$T = f(\mathbf{x}, t) \quad \text{e.g. satellite footprint}$$

- Lagrangian  $\mathbf{X}$  (coordinate moves with material, material points defined by initial position)

$$T = f(\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X}, t), t) = F(\mathbf{X}, t) \quad \frac{D\mathbf{x}}{Dt} = \mathbf{u} \quad \mathbf{x}|_{t=0} = \mathbf{X} \quad \text{e.g. GPS stake}$$

## Rates of change

- Eulerian derivative

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \Big|_{\mathbf{x} \text{ fixed}}$$

- Material derivative

$$\frac{DT}{Dt} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial t} \Big|_{\mathbf{X} \text{ fixed}}$$

(rate of change ‘following the fluid’)

- using chain rule

$$\boxed{\frac{DT}{Dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T}$$

(also called ‘convective’ or ‘total’ derivative)

## Notation

- Eulerian coordinates  $\mathbf{x} = (x, y, z) = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$

- Velocities  $\mathbf{u} = (u, v, w) = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$

- Summation convention  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} \left( = \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} \right)$  (repeated indices are summed over)

- Kronecker delta  $\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$

## Strain rate tensor

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right)$$

- Describes local rates of deformation

## Stress tensor

$$\sigma_{ij} = -p\delta_{ij} + \tau_{ij}$$

- Describes force per unit area in  $i$  direction on a surface with normal in  $j$  direction  $s_i = \sigma_{ij} n_j$

- Pressure  $p = -\frac{1}{3}\sigma_{ii}$

- Deviatoric stress tensor  $\tau_{ij}$

## Constitutive law

- Relates stress to strain rate - general form  $\tau_{ij} = c_{ijkl}\dot{\varepsilon}_{kl}$

- Newtonian fluid  $\tau_{ij} = 2\eta\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}$   $\eta$  viscosity

- Glen's law for ice  $\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = A(T)\tau^{n-1}\tau_{ij}$   $\tau = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\tau_{ij}\tau_{ij}}$   $n \approx 3$   $A \approx 2.4 \times 10^{-24} \text{ Pa}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at  $0^\circ \text{ C}$

## Conservation of mass

- Consider rate of change of mass in a control volume  $\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho \, dV = - \int_{\partial V} \rho u_j n_j \, dS$

- using divergence theorem, and since volume is arbitrary,

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u}) = 0$$

- If incompressible  $\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = 0$ , then  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$

## Conservation of momentum

- Apply Newton's second law to a control volume

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V \rho u_i \, dV = - \int_{\partial V} \rho u_i u_j n_j \, dS + \int_{\partial V} \sigma_{ij} n_j \, dS + \int_V \rho g_i \, dV$$

- manipulating, and since volume is arbitrary,

$$\rho \frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \rho \mathbf{g}$$

- e.g. for incompressible Newtonian fluid, these are the Navier-Stokes equations:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \quad \rho \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} \right) = -\nabla p + \eta \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} + \rho \mathbf{g}$$

## Reynolds number

$$Re = \frac{\rho U L}{\eta}$$

- measures the importance of the inertia terms (LHS of momentum eqn).
- typically very small for ice flow, so approximate as 'Stokes flow',

$$\mathbf{0} = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau} + \rho \mathbf{g}$$

## Boundary conditions (general)



$$\mathbf{u} - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n} = 0 \quad (\text{no slip})$$

- free surfaces**  $z = f(x, y, t)$        $w = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$       (kinematic condition)

$$\sigma_{ij} n_j = -p_a \delta_{ij}$$

(stress continuity)

## Glacier boundary conditions

- glacier surface  $z = s(x, y, t)$

$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} - w = a$$

## *a* accumulation/ablation

$$\sigma_{ij}n_j = -p_a \delta_{ij}$$

$p_a$  atmospheric pressure

- glacier bed  $z = b(x, y)$

$$u \frac{\partial b}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial b}{\partial y} - w = a_b \quad (\approx 0)$$

:  $a_b$  basal accumulation

$$\tau_b = f(|\mathbf{u}_b|) \frac{\mathbf{u}_b}{|\mathbf{u}_b|}$$

friction law to account for slip

$$\tau_b = \sigma_{ij} n_j - (n_k \sigma_{kj} n_j) n_i$$

$$\mathbf{u}_b = u_i - (u_k n_k) n_i$$

## Shallow-layer models

- Exploit small aspect ratio to reduce complexity of the model.
- Derive by systematically approximating and integrating the governing equations, or by using conservation laws for depth averaged quantities.
- Depth-averaged conservation of mass

$$\frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q} = a$$

$h = s - b$  ice depth

$$\mathbf{q} = h \bar{\mathbf{u}} = \int_b^s \mathbf{u} \, dx \quad \text{ice flux}$$

- Depth-averaged conservation of momentum

$$0 = -\rho g h \nabla s - \boldsymbol{\tau}_b + \nabla \cdot (h \bar{\boldsymbol{\tau}})$$

$$\bar{\boldsymbol{\tau}} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\bar{\tau}_{xx} + \bar{\tau}_{yy} & \bar{\tau}_{xy} \\ \bar{\tau}_{xy} & \bar{\tau}_{xx} + 2\bar{\tau}_{yy} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{membrane stress}$$