



# A thermo-mechanically consistent Burnett regime continuum flow equation without Chapman–Enskog expansion

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(Received 23 September 2012; revised 3 November 2012; accepted 5 November 2012)

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Chapman–Enskog expansion is the orthodox approach to derive continuum flow models from Boltzmann’s kinetic equation for dilute gases. Beyond the Navier–Stokes–Fourier order these models, known as Burnett hydrodynamic-regime equations, violate a number of fundamental mechanical and thermodynamic principles in their original forms. This has generated a widely investigated problem in the kinetic theory of gases. In this short article, we derive a Burnett hydrodynamic-regime continuum model that is systematically consistent with all known mechanical and thermodynamic principles without using any series expansion. A close comparison with the conventional Burnett hydrodynamic set of equations is made and the linear stabilities around an equilibrium point under small perturbations are presented.

**Key words:** kinetic theory, non-continuum effects, rarefied gas flow

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## 1. Introduction

Chapman–Enskog expansion is the commonly used method when solving Boltzmann’s kinetic equation for dilute gases in order to obtain continuum flow models. This method is an asymptotic series expansion in which the unknown molecular distribution function and differential operators appearing therein are expanded in series in terms of a small parameter, taken to be the Knudsen number (Chapman & Cowling 1970; Karlin & Gorban 2002). At zeroth-order this expansion method yields Euler’s hydrodynamic equations, followed by the Navier–Stokes–Fourier continuum flow model at first-order. The second- and higher-order terms are termed the Burnett and super-Burnett equations respectively. As the Navier–Stokes–Fourier model becomes invalid, Burnett and super-Burnett models are thought to improve flow predictions. Instead, however, these models become subject to mechanical, thermodynamic, and instability problems (Woods 1983; Comeaux, Chapman & MacCormack 1995; Karlin & Gorban 2002; Bobylev 2006).

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In an attempt to resolve inconsistencies related to Burnett's hydrodynamic-regime equations, various set of equations, consisting essentially of modifying or adjusting the originals have been proposed (see, for example, Garcia-Colin, Velasco & Uribe 2008). Among these is the class of models proposed to remedy particularly the problem of instability under small perturbations in time or space. The proposal of Bobylev & Windfall (2012) is perhaps the latest in this line.

A modification resolving one inconsistency does not necessarily resolve the others. As a result, a variety of modified Burnett equations are now found in the literature, depending upon the particular inconsistency considered by the author. Woods (1983) focused on the mechanical inconsistencies. Burnett equations are known to depend upon the observer's reference frame. Woods therefore proposed a modification aimed at resolving this particular issue, which differs from modifications focused on instabilities. In contrast, some authors simply assumed that it was, instead, this mechanical principle that was not valid in kinetic theory (Söderholm 1976).

The comprehensive review by Garcia-Colin *et al.* (2008) describes the successes and failures of Burnett equations. In that review, outstanding problems related to Burnett's equations are listed as follows: (i) *the boundary conditions are in general unknown*; (ii) *the convergence properties of the Chapman–Enskog series are not known*; (iii) *there is no proof of the Burnett equations exhibiting a positive definite entropy production*; (iv) *the Burnett equations are frame dependent in rotating coordinates*; (v) *the equilibrium state is linearly unstable under longitudinal perturbations*.

Developing an adequate Burnett-regime hydrodynamic set of equations is not only concerned with dilute-gas flow predictions. Rather, this set of equations is also used to predict various phenomena pertinent to granular flows (Sela & Goldhirsch 1998) as well as other relativistic flows (Denicol, Koide & Rischke 2010). An appropriate resolution of problems related to Burnett's hydrodynamic-regime equations is of utmost importance.

## 2. The structure of Burnett's equation as obtained using Chapman–Enskog expansion

Starting with the Boltzmann kinetic equation for dilute gases, the zeroth, first, and second moments of the distribution function follow evolution equations associated with conservation of mass, momentum and energy, written as:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\rho \mathbf{U}] = 0, \quad (2.1a)$$

$$\frac{\partial \rho \mathbf{U}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\rho \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}] + \nabla \cdot [p \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{II}] = 0, \quad (2.1b)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \rho U^2 + \rho e_{in} \right] + \nabla \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \rho U^2 \mathbf{U} + \rho e_{in} \mathbf{U} \right] + \nabla \cdot [(p \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{II}) \cdot \mathbf{U}] + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{q} = 0. \quad (2.1c)$$

In the set of equations (2.1a)–(2.1c),  $\rho$  represents the macroscopic mass-density of the fluid;  $\mathbf{U}$  is the flow (unique) mass velocity vector;  $p$  is the hydrostatic pressure; and  $e_{in}$  is the specific internal energy of the fluid. These hydrodynamic field variables are all functions of the time variable  $t$  and spatial variable  $X$ . Variable  $\mathbf{II}$  represents the shear stress tensor and  $\mathbf{q}$  is the heat flux vector, the constitutive equations for both of which are primarily unknown. To obtain expressions for  $\mathbf{II}$  and  $\mathbf{q}$ , so as to close the system (2.1a)–(2.1c), a solution is sought by expanding the distribution function and differential operators in Boltzmann's kinetic equation as power series in the Knudsen number, restricted by the assumption that the Knudsen number is much less than unity.

To the second-order, these expressions are written as (Chapman & Cowling 1970; Woods 1993):

$$\mathbf{H} = -2\mu \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}} + \frac{\mu^2}{p} \left[ \overset{(a)}{\tilde{\omega}_1 \nabla \cdot U \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}} + \tilde{\omega}_2 (\mathbf{D} \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}} - 2 \overset{\circ}{\nabla} U \cdot \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}}) + \tilde{\omega}_3 R \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\nabla} T} \right. \\ \left. + \frac{\tilde{\omega}_4}{\rho T} \overset{(b)}{\overset{\circ}{\nabla} p \overset{\circ}{\nabla} T} + \tilde{\omega}_5 \frac{R}{T} \overset{\circ}{\nabla} T \overset{\circ}{\nabla} T} + \tilde{\omega}_6 \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}} \cdot \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}} \right], \quad (2.2)$$

$$\mathbf{q} = -\kappa \nabla T + R \frac{\mu^2}{p} \left[ \theta_1 \nabla \cdot U \nabla T + \theta_2 \overset{(c)}{(\mathbf{D} \nabla T - \nabla U \cdot \nabla T)} + \theta_3 \frac{T}{p} \overset{(d)}{\overset{\circ}{\nabla} p \cdot \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}}} \right. \\ \left. + \theta_4 \overset{(e)}{T \nabla \cdot \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}}} + 3\theta_5 \nabla T \cdot \overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}} \right], \quad (2.3)$$

where the fluid's material derivative is defined as

$$\mathbf{D} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + U \cdot \nabla. \quad (2.4)$$

The symmetric traceless tensor operator defined with tensor  $\nabla \mathbf{U}$  is written

$$\overset{\circ}{\nabla} \overset{\circ}{\mathbf{U}} = \frac{1}{2} (\nabla \mathbf{U} + \widetilde{\nabla \mathbf{U}}) - \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{1} \nabla \cdot U, \quad (2.5)$$

with  $\widetilde{\nabla \mathbf{U}}$  denoting the transpose of  $\nabla \mathbf{U}$ , and  $\mathbf{1}$  the unit matrix. Coefficients  $\mu$  and  $\kappa$  are, respectively, the dynamic viscosity and heat conductivity, whereas  $R$  is the specific gas constant and  $T$  is the temperature. Coefficients  $\tilde{\omega}_1$  to  $\tilde{\omega}_6$  and  $\theta_1$  to  $\theta_5$  are the Burnett-order dimensionless constant transport coefficients, whose exact values depend upon the interaction potential. The set of (2.1a)–(2.1c), closed with (2.2) and (2.3), corresponds to the original full set of Burnett equations.

In the shear stress equation (2.2) and heat flux equation (2.3) the material derivative  $\mathbf{D}$  appearing in terms (a) and (c) owes its presence directly to the Chapman–Enskog expansion. Its presence renders these shear stress and heat flux contributions dependent upon the observer's reference frame in rotating systems (Woods 1983). As such, these Burnett shear stress and heat flux terms are, in principle, mechanically inconsistent. As the above Burnett continuum flow equations are also known to be linearly unstable (Karlin & Gorban 2002), the methods used to correct all of these defects vary from modifications of the material derivative or its alternative forms to *ad hoc* additions of selected terms from higher-order Chapman–Enskog contributions (Woods 1983; Jin & Slemrod 2001; Söderholm 2007; Bobylev & Windfall 2012). Furthermore, not all terms appearing in (2.2) and (2.3) have an established physical significance. For example, term (e) predicts in a neutral gas a heat flux generated by fluid shear alone. This was called a ‘strange result’ by Woods (1993). These overall inconsistencies lead this author, including others, to claim that the Boltzmann kinetic equation may not be valid in the Burnett regime.

In the following we demonstrate a methodological derivation, originating from a kinetic equation and leading, ultimately, to a systematically consistent set of equations without any adjustment.

### 3. A non-conventional approach to Burnett hydrodynamics

#### 3.1. The kinetic model and macroscopic equations

Our new starting point is a single-particle probability distribution function (p.d.f.),  $f(t, X, \xi, c)$ , which is a function of the time and spatial variables, which are not considered as random variables. Spatial variable  $X$  specifies a given position in the inertial frame of reference. Variable  $\xi$  is the molecular-velocity random variable, identifying molecules associated with velocity  $\xi$ . Variable  $c$  is a scalar random variable whose dimensions are those of concentration (number of molecules per unit of gas volume). This additional scalar variable is incorporated into the single-particle p.d.f. to account for the local number of molecules and their spatial distribution. This formulation distinguishes an element of measurable gas volume from a volume element in the inertial reference frame that may be associated with a differential of  $X$  or any differential volume element in the phase space.

Following Liouville's theorem of conservation of probability density, a Boltzmann-like kinetic evolution equation may be written for  $f(t, X, \xi, c)$  as (Dadzie, Reese & McInnes 2008)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + (\xi \cdot \nabla) f + \mathfrak{W} \frac{\partial f}{\partial c} = \mathbf{I}(f, f). \quad (3.1)$$

Appearing on the right-hand side of (3.1) is the Boltzmann hard-sphere molecular collision integral. The concentration production term is denoted as  $\mathfrak{W}$  (which may also be viewed as a gas volume production term). Body forces such as gravity are neglected in (3.1) for conciseness.

With  $M$  denoting the gaseous molecular mass, we may define, as is done conventionally, the three macroscopic hydrodynamic variables  $\rho$ ,  $\rho U$ ,  $\rho e_{in}$ , as moments of  $f$  associated, respectively, with the microscopic molecular variables  $M$ ,  $M\xi$ ,  $0.5M\xi^2$ . Subsequently, an additional macroscopic variable may also be associated to the moment given by  $c$ , the additional random variable. This additional scalar moment, denoted as  $\bar{\rho}$ , has the dimensions of a mass-density, as it is precisely associated with the microscopic element  $Mc$ .

Upon integrating kinetic equation (3.1) so as to derive evolution equations governing the four moments,  $\rho$ ,  $\bar{\rho}$ ,  $\rho U$ ,  $\rho e_{in}$ , we obtain a new set of four macroscopic conservation equations, namely:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\rho U] = 0, \quad (3.2a)$$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\rho}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\bar{\rho} U] + \nabla \cdot [\bar{\rho} \mathbf{J}_c] = \rho \mathfrak{W}, \quad (3.2b)$$

$$\frac{\partial \rho U}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\rho U U] = -\nabla \cdot [\mathbf{P}_v - \rho \mathbf{J}_c \mathbf{J}_c], \quad (3.2c)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \rho U^2 - \frac{1}{2} \rho \mathbf{J}_c^2 \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} [\rho e_{in}] + \nabla \cdot \left[ \left( \frac{1}{2} \rho U^2 - \frac{1}{2} \rho \mathbf{J}_c^2 \right) U + \rho e_{in} U \right] \\ & = -\nabla \cdot [\mathbf{P}_v \cdot U_v] - \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{q}_v + \rho e_{in} \mathbf{J}_c] + \nabla \cdot [\rho \mathbf{J}_c^2 \mathbf{J}_c + \rho \mathbf{J}_c \mathbf{J}_c \cdot U]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.2d)$$

In order to form a closed system, the above set of macroscopic equations requires constitutive expressions for the new pressure tensor  $\mathbf{P}_v$ , the heat flux  $\mathbf{q}_v$ , the diffusive flux  $\mathbf{J}_c$ , and  $\mathfrak{W}$ . The conventional method in kinetic theory for obtaining these expressions consists of returning to solve (3.1) for the p.d.f. using Chapman–Enskog expansion. In contrast with this conventional route, we propose to use thermodynamic laws and irreversible thermodynamic principles to obtain these expressions, so that the final set of equations is systematically consistent with these fundamental principles.

### 3.2. Constitutive equations and compatibility with thermodynamics

First, we note that flux  $\mathbf{J}_c$  appearing in (3.2b) is a consequence of distinguishing between the pure mass continuity equation and an equation describing the true molecular spatial distribution involving an evolution of the gas volume containing these molecules (Dadzie *et al.* 2008). As a consequence, this flux is only attributable to a molecular diffusive flux with respect to the mass-average velocity  $U$ . Accordingly, the most natural form of its expression is the Fickian diffusion law:

$$\bar{\rho}\mathbf{J}_c = -\kappa_m\nabla\bar{\rho}, \quad (3.3)$$

where  $\kappa_m$  is the molecular diffusivity coefficient (actually a volume diffusivity coefficient).

One of the major problems with Burnett’s equations as noted in the Introduction is its violation of the second law. Our derivation of an entropy equation for the system (3.2) began with energy equation (3.2d) transformed, using continuity and momentum equations (3.2a) and (3.2c), into the expression

$$\begin{aligned} \rho D \left[ e_{in} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{J}_c^2 \right] - \frac{p}{\rho} D\rho + \nabla \cdot [\rho(e_{in} - \mathbf{J}_c^2)\mathbf{J}_c] = & -\nabla \cdot [\mathbf{q}_v + \mathbf{P}_v \cdot \mathbf{J}_c] \\ & - (\mathbf{II}_v - \rho\mathbf{J}_c\mathbf{J}_c) : \nabla U, \end{aligned} \quad (3.4)$$

where  $\mathbf{II}_v = \mathbf{P}_v - p\mathbf{1}$ , and in which  $D$  is the material derivative defined in (2.4). Using continuity equation (3.2a) and (3.2b) yields

$$-\frac{p}{\rho} D\rho = -\frac{p}{\bar{\rho}} D\bar{\rho} - \frac{p}{\bar{\rho}} \nabla \cdot [\bar{\rho}\mathbf{J}_c] + \frac{\rho p}{\bar{\rho}} \mathfrak{W}. \quad (3.5)$$

Equation (3.5) may be substituted into energy equation (3.4) to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \rho D \left[ e_{in} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{J}_c^2 \right] + \bar{\rho} p D\bar{\rho}^{-1} = & \frac{p}{\bar{\rho}} \nabla \cdot [\bar{\rho}\mathbf{J}_c] - \frac{\rho p}{\bar{\rho}} \mathfrak{W} - \nabla \cdot [p\mathbf{J}_c - \rho\mathbf{J}_c^2\mathbf{J}_c] \\ & - \mathbf{II}_v : \nabla \mathbf{J}_c + \rho\mathbf{J}_c\mathbf{J}_c : \nabla U - \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{II}_v \cdot \mathbf{J}_c] \\ & - \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{q}_v + \rho e_{in}\mathbf{J}_c] - \mathbf{II}_v : \nabla U + \mathbf{II}_v : \nabla \mathbf{J}_c. \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

From this last equation, an expression for  $\mathfrak{W}$  is extracted as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\rho p}{\bar{\rho}} \mathfrak{W} = & \frac{p}{\bar{\rho}} \nabla \cdot [\bar{\rho}\mathbf{J}_c] - \nabla \cdot [p\mathbf{J}_c - \rho\mathbf{J}_c^2\mathbf{J}_c] \\ & - \mathbf{II}_v : \nabla \mathbf{J}_c + \rho\mathbf{J}_c\mathbf{J}_c : \nabla U - \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{II}_v \cdot \mathbf{J}_c], \end{aligned} \quad (3.7)$$

such that (3.6) takes the form

$$\rho D[e_{in} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{J}_c^2] + \bar{\rho} p D\bar{\rho}^{-1} = -\nabla \cdot [\mathbf{q}_v + \rho e_{in}\mathbf{J}_c] - \mathbf{II}_v : \nabla [U - \mathbf{J}_c]. \quad (3.8)$$

Considering the structure of (3.8) with regard to the fundamental Gibbs equation, a specific entropy quantity  $\bar{s}$  is defined through the expression

$$\rho D[e_{in} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{J}_c^2] + \bar{\rho} p D\bar{\rho}^{-1} = \rho T D\bar{s}, \quad (3.9)$$

so that, by substituting (3.9) into (3.8), an evolution equation for the entropy is obtained as:

$$\rho TD\bar{s} = -\nabla \cdot [\mathbf{q}_v + \rho e_{in} \mathbf{J}_c] - \mathbf{II}_v : \nabla [U - J_c]. \quad (3.10)$$

From the entropy equation (3.10), the non-negative production rate and bilinear structure requirements associated with linear irreversible thermodynamic principles impose the following constitutive equation upon the shear stress:

$$\mathbf{II}_v = -2\mu \overline{\nabla [U - J_c]}. \quad (3.11)$$

Furthermore, from (3.10) we also deduce that Fourier's law applies to the entropic heat flux  $\mathbf{q}_{ve}$  as

$$\mathbf{q}_{ve} = \mathbf{q}_v + \rho e_{in} \mathbf{J}_c = -\kappa \nabla T, \quad (3.12)$$

where  $\kappa$  is the heat conductivity coefficient.

Using the expression for the concentration production term,  $\mathfrak{W}$ , given in (3.7), the volume (or concentration) diffusion equation (3.2b) takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \bar{\rho}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\bar{\rho} U] + \frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \nabla \cdot [p \mathbf{J}_c] &= -\frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \mathbf{II}_v : \nabla \mathbf{J}_c + \frac{\rho \bar{\rho}}{p} \mathbf{J}_c \mathbf{J}_c : \nabla U \\ &\quad - \frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{II}_v \cdot \mathbf{J}_c] + \frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \nabla \cdot [\rho \mathbf{J}_c^2 \mathbf{J}_c], \end{aligned} \quad (3.13)$$

or, alternatively, in terms of the material derivative,

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\rho} D \left( \ln \frac{\bar{\rho}}{\rho} \right) + \frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \nabla \cdot [p \mathbf{J}_c] &= -\frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \mathbf{II}_v : \nabla \mathbf{J}_c + \frac{\rho \bar{\rho}}{p} \mathbf{J}_c \mathbf{J}_c : \nabla U \\ &\quad - \frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{II}_v \cdot \mathbf{J}_c] + \frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \nabla \cdot [\rho \mathbf{J}_c^2 \mathbf{J}_c]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.14)$$

In (3.13) and (3.14) the right-hand sides consist only of high-order nonlinear terms involving the flux  $\mathbf{J}_c$ . If these terms are negligible compared with terms on the left-hand side we obtain the following equation for the concentration:

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\rho}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\bar{\rho} U] + \frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \nabla \cdot [p \mathbf{J}_c] = 0. \quad (3.15)$$

### 3.3. The new set of Burnett-regime continuum model equations

From the preceding section, the set of four equations (3.2) may now be written using the material derivative and the entropy equation in place of the energy equation as:

$$D\rho = -\rho \nabla \cdot U, \quad (3.16a)$$

$$\bar{\rho} D \left( \ln \frac{\bar{\rho}}{\rho} \right) = -\frac{\bar{\rho}}{p} \nabla \cdot [p \mathbf{J}_c], \quad (3.16b)$$

$$\rho DU = -\nabla \cdot [\mathbf{P}_v - \rho \mathbf{J}_c \mathbf{J}_c], \quad (3.16c)$$

$$\rho TD\bar{s} = -\nabla \cdot [\mathbf{q}_{ve}] - \mathbf{II}_v : \nabla [U - J_c], \quad (3.16d)$$

which is then closed with (3.11) and (3.12).

The structure of the set (3.16) is such that its satisfaction of the following mechanical principles can be verified straightforwardly: Galilean invariance,

integrability, angular momentum conservation, centre-of-mass position (see the Appendix of Dadzie & Brenner 2012). These are due specifically to the material derivative being associated with the mass velocity,  $\mathbf{U}$ , appearing exclusively and simultaneously on the left-hand side of the continuity and momentum equations. The set's satisfaction of the positive-definite entropy production requirement is seen explicitly in the entropy equation (3.16d).

In order to compare the set (3.16) with the original Burnett set of equations, the new momentum equation (3.16c) is rewritten, by substituting into it  $\mathbf{J}_c$  from its equation (3.3) and using  $p = \bar{\rho}RT$ , as

$$\begin{aligned} \rho DU = & -\nabla \cdot \left[ p\mathbf{1} - 2\mu \overline{\nabla \mathbf{U}} - 2\mu \overline{\nabla [\kappa_m \nabla \ln p]} + 2\mu \overline{\nabla [\kappa_m \nabla \ln T]} \right] \\ & - \nabla \cdot \left[ \rho \kappa_m^2 [-\nabla \ln p \nabla \ln p + \nabla \ln T \nabla \ln p + \nabla \ln p \nabla \ln T - \nabla \ln T \nabla \ln T] \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.17)$$

In (3.17) the last terms on the first and second lines involving the temperature gradient represent the linear and nonlinear thermal stresses respectively. These terms are the most physically well-established among Burnett's shear stress terms appearing in (2.2), as they predict various flows driven by temperature gradients. The third term on the right-hand side of the first line, involving the pressure gradient, also appears in the conventional Burnett stress after one eliminates (without any concrete physical argument) the material derivative by use of the Euler or Navier–Stokes equations. The derivation of our continuum set of equations (3.16) naturally disposes of, precisely, the frame-dependent terms involving the fluid material derivative previously seen in the Burnett shear stress and heat flux terms. The cross-effect term between the pressure and temperature gradients in (2.2) is also observed in (3.17), but in a different format.

Despite the close similarity between the new and the standard Burnett models, there are also some noticeable differences between these two continuum equations. For example, (3.17) does not contain any higher-order term involving the rate of fluid strain, other than the Navier–Stokes shear stress. Importing constitutive equation (3.12) into the energy equation (3.2d) and rearranging, enables an accompanying energetic heat flux to be derived as:

$$\mathbf{J}_u = \mathbf{q}_{ve} + p\mathbf{J}_c = -\kappa \nabla T + \kappa_m p \nabla \ln T - \kappa_m p \nabla \ln p. \quad (3.18)$$

This expression has a component not driven by temperature gradient. This is a feature of the original Burnett equation also, but now in a different form.

#### 4. Linear stability analysis and sound dispersion

We consider in a one-dimensional flow configuration, a perturbation from the equilibrium state defined by

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \rho &= \rho^0(1 + \rho^*), & \bar{\rho} &= \rho^0(1 + \bar{\rho}^*), & T &= T^0(1 + T^*), \\ U &= U^* \sqrt{RT^0}, & p &= p^0(1 + p^*), \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (4.1)$$

where the asterisked variables represent dimensionless quantities, and the superscript 0 denotes an equilibrium flow parameter. The dimensionless space and time variables are specified using a characteristic length  $L$  and characteristic time  $\tau$  by the expressions

$$x = Lx^*, \quad t = \frac{L}{\sqrt{RT^0}} t^* = \tau t^*, \quad \tau = \frac{L}{\sqrt{RT^0}}, \quad (4.2)$$

with  $p^0 = R\rho^0 T^0$  and  $U^0 = 0$ . The one-dimensional linearized version of the closed set of equations (3.16) follows as:

$$\frac{\partial \rho^*}{\partial t^*} + \frac{\partial U^*}{\partial x^*} = 0, \quad (4.3a)$$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\rho}^*}{\partial t^*} - \frac{\partial \rho^*}{\partial t^*} - \kappa_m^* \frac{\partial^2 \bar{\rho}^*}{\partial x^{*2}} = 0, \quad (4.3b)$$

$$\frac{\partial U^*}{\partial t^*} - \frac{4}{3} \mu^* \frac{\partial^2 U^*}{\partial x^{*2}} + \frac{\partial \rho^*}{\partial x^*} + \frac{\partial T^*}{\partial x^*} - \frac{4}{3} \mu^* \kappa_m^* \frac{\partial^3 \bar{\rho}^*}{\partial x^{*3}} = 0, \quad (4.3c)$$

$$\frac{\partial T^*}{\partial t^*} - \frac{2}{3} \frac{\partial \bar{\rho}^*}{\partial t^*} - \frac{2}{3} \kappa^* \frac{\partial^2 T^*}{\partial x^{*2}} = 0, \quad (4.3d)$$

where the different dimensionless transport coefficients are given by

$$\mu^* = \frac{\mu \sqrt{RT^0}}{\rho^0 L} = Kn, \quad \kappa_m^* = \frac{\kappa_m \bar{\rho}^0}{\mu^0}, \quad \kappa^* = \frac{\kappa}{R\mu^0}, \quad (4.4)$$

where  $\mu^0 = \rho^0 L \sqrt{RT^0}$  is a reference viscosity coefficient chosen such that the Knudsen number,  $Kn$ , is set equal to unity. In obtaining the momentum equation (4.3c) for the pressure we substituted  $p = \rho RT$  (and not  $p = \bar{\rho} RT$ ). This allows transferring the actual mass from the continuity equation through the pressure into  $\bar{\rho}$  of (4.3b) representing gas volume evolution.

If the volume diffusivity coefficient is associated with the thermal diffusivity coefficient, i.e.  $\kappa_m = \kappa / (\rho c_p)$ , then  $\kappa_m^* = Pr^{-1}$  whereas  $\kappa^* = \gamma (Pr(\gamma - 1))^{-1}$ , where  $Pr$  is the Prandtl number and  $\gamma$  is the adiabatic exponent. But, from (3.18), because of additional non-Fourier heat flux terms, the entropic heat flux is no longer identical to the energetic heat flux (Brenner 2012). Consequently, the thermal conductivity coefficient  $\kappa$  within the entropic heat flux differs from the comparable conductivity  $\kappa_h$  conventionally associated with the energetic heat flux. This difference may be expressed as  $\kappa_h \gamma = \kappa$  if the volume diffusivity coefficient equals the thermal diffusivity coefficient. More generally, the present distinction between energetic and entropic heat fluxes may imply some correcting coefficients between transport properties associated with the new and standard approaches. Although exact values of the correcting factor between transport coefficients have not been fully developed in the present work, we found it convenient to choose for the monatomic case,  $\kappa_m^* = \bar{Pr}^{-1} = 2/5$  and  $\kappa^* = \bar{\gamma} (\bar{Pr}(\bar{\gamma} - 1))^{-1} = 9/4$ , if  $\bar{Pr}$  and  $\bar{\gamma}$  respectively represent the Prandtl number and adiabatic exponent within the new entropic heat flux formalism.

For the sake of completeness, the one-dimensional linearized versions of the conventional Burnett equations are, here, also set down as (Uribe, Velasco & Garcia-Colin 2000):

$$\frac{\partial \rho^*}{\partial t^*} + \frac{\partial U^*}{\partial x^*} = 0, \quad (4.5a)$$

$$\frac{\partial U^*}{\partial t^*} - \frac{4}{3} \mu^* \frac{\partial^2 U^*}{\partial x^{*2}} + \frac{\partial \rho^*}{\partial x^*} + \frac{\partial T^*}{\partial x^*} - \frac{2\tilde{\omega}_2}{3} \frac{\partial^3 \rho^*}{\partial x^{*3}} + \frac{2}{3} (\tilde{\omega}_3 - \tilde{\omega}_2) \frac{\partial^3 T^*}{\partial x^{*3}} = 0, \quad (4.5b)$$

$$\frac{\partial T^*}{\partial t^*} + \frac{2}{3} \frac{\partial U^*}{\partial x^*} - \frac{5}{2} \frac{\partial^2 T^*}{\partial x^{*2}} + \frac{4}{9} (\theta_4 - \theta_2) \frac{\partial^3 U^*}{\partial x^{*3}} = 0, \quad (4.5c)$$

where the Burnett coefficients for Maxwellian molecules are:  $\theta_2 = 45/8$ ,  $\theta_4 = 3$ ,  $\tilde{\omega}_2 = 2$ ,  $\tilde{\omega}_3 = 3$ . We assume the disturbances  $\rho^*$ ,  $\bar{\rho}^*$ ,  $T^*$  and  $U^*$  to be wave functions

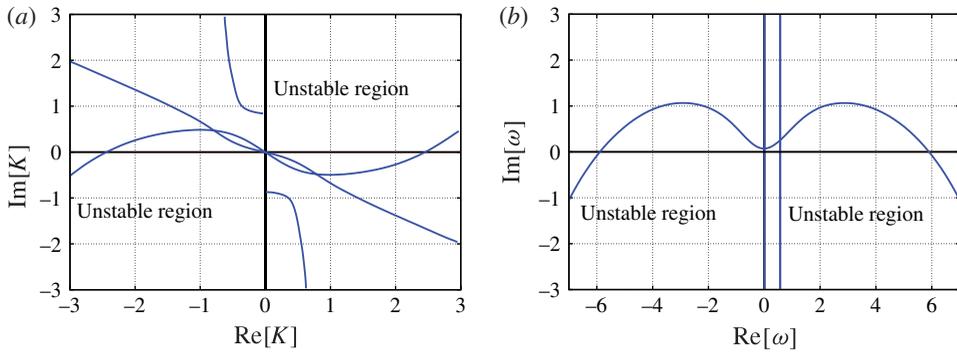


FIGURE 1. Stability analysis of the conventional Burnett equations: (a) spatial (b) temporal.

of the form

$$\phi^* = \phi_a^* \exp[i(\omega t^* - Kx^*)], \quad (4.6)$$

where  $\omega$  is the complex wave frequency,  $K$  is the complex wavenumber, and  $\phi_a^*$  is the complex amplitude. Then, substituting expression (4.6) into the two linearized sets of equations above, we deduce their stability or instability, as well as their predictions of sound dispersion, following the procedure described in Dadzie & Reese (2010) or Struchtrup & Torrilhon (2003).

Figure 1 presents stability results for the conventional Burnett equations. The Burnett equations are linearly unstable in both space and time, as some of their modes enter unstable regions for certain values of the wave frequency (figure 1a) and for certain values of the wavenumber (figure 1b). We note that varying the Burnett transport coefficients, i.e. varying the molecular interaction potential, does not resolve these instabilities (Uribe *et al.* 2000). Figure 2 present the stability results for our new Burnett continuum model. The three different pairs of figures correspond, respectively, to: a vanishing; a finite; and a large value of  $\kappa_m^*$ . Remarkably, the new model is unconditionally stable in both space and time for all values of its transport coefficients.

The dimensionless inverse of sound speed and damping coefficient may be defined, respectively, as

$$\sqrt{\frac{5}{3}} \frac{\text{Re}[K]}{\omega} \quad \text{and} \quad -\sqrt{\frac{5}{3}} \frac{\text{Im}[K]}{\omega}. \quad (4.7)$$

These are plotted in figure 3 alongside experimental data by Meyer & Sessler (1957), and predictions by a regularized moment model of Struchtrup & Torrilhon (2003). Taking the sound speed and damping coefficient together, the new Burnett-equation model achieved better agreement with experiments than all other models involved in figure 3. Moreover, the agreement is clearly well beyond the Knudsen number (dimensionless frequency) of unity.

Disregarding the concentration (3.16b) and the nonlinear diffusive terms in the pressure tensor, the three remaining equations consisting of (3.16a), (3.16c) and (3.16d), have, remarkably, a structure identical to the Navier–Stokes–Fourier model in which we observe that the velocity in the Rayleigh dissipation function is replaced by  $U_v = U - J_c$  (the ‘volume velocity’). This is the three-set volume diffusion or

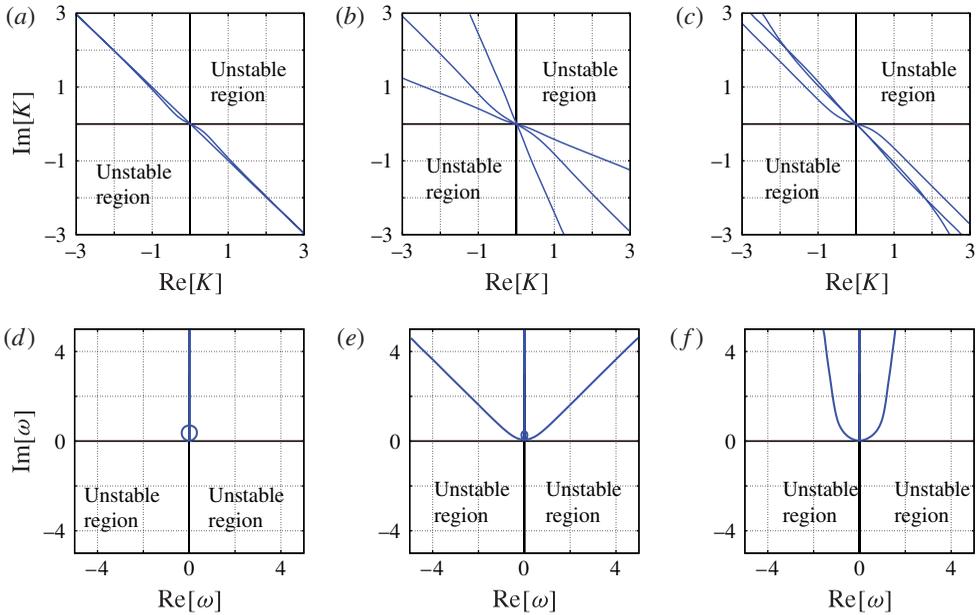


FIGURE 2. Stability analysis of our new Burnett equations: (a) spatial with  $\kappa_m^* = 0.01$ ; (b) spatial with  $\kappa_m^* = 4/3$ ; (c) spatial with  $\kappa_m^* = 100$ ; (d) temporal with  $\kappa_m^* = 0.01$ ; (e) temporal with  $\kappa_m^* = 4/3$ ; (f) temporal with  $\kappa_m^* = 100$ .

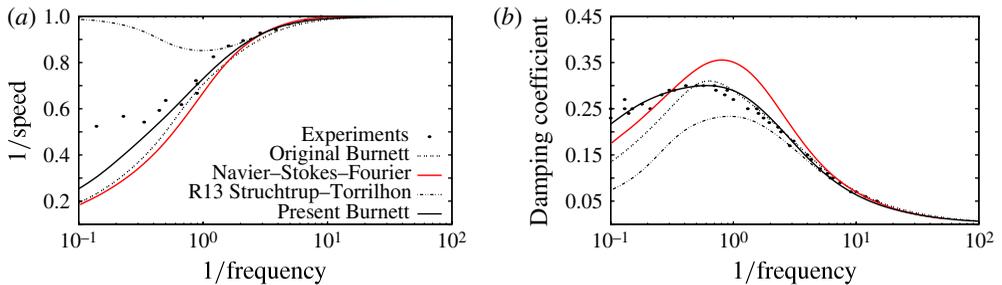


FIGURE 3. Sound dispersion compared with experiments by Meyer & Sessler (1957): (a) inverse dimensionless sound speed; (b) dimensionless damping coefficient.

bi-velocity hydrodynamic model presented in Brenner (2012), although an unimportant difference exists with respect to the nonlinear diffusive terms in the energy equation, depending on whether it is the energy or entropy equation that is used to introduce the volume-velocity. Beyond this difference, the representation of the fluid continuum model as a dual velocity model eliminates the last problem listed. Indeed, the original Burnett equations contain explicit spatial derivatives of order higher than those within Navier–Stokes–Fourier equations, leading to difficulties in setting accompanying physical boundary conditions. However, through use of the dual velocity method,

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the continuum model equations remain virtually of the same differential-order as those of Navier–Stokes–Fourier. Setting additional boundary conditions in this case consists simply of imposing appropriate non-slip or slip boundary conditions on the volume velocity, without directly dealing with the explicit additional high-order of the differential equations (Dadzie & Brenner 2012).

### Acknowledgements

I am grateful to Professor J. M. Reese, Department of Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering, University of Strathclyde, for very useful discussions.

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