

1 **Simple shear flow of collisional granular-fluid mixtures**

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5 **Abstract**

6 This work deals with the simple shear flow of neutrally buoyant, rigid, frictionless spheres
7 immersed in a viscous fluid that exchange momentum through inelastic collisions. We show
8 how kinetic theories are able to provide a full analytical description of the flow, once the
9 influence of the viscous fluid is taken into account in a simple way through the dependence of
10 the collisional coefficient of restitution on the Stokes number. This allows the capture of the
11 characteristics of the experiments performed by Bagnold sixty years ago and the
12 interpretation of the macro-viscous and inertial regimes described by the same author as the
13 limits for the coefficient of restitution equal to zero and to the value valid in absence of the
14 viscous fluid, respectively.

15 **Introduction and theory**

16 The simple shear flow (SSF) is the obvious configuration to study the response of fluids to
17 deformation. Thus, it has been largely investigated, experimentally, numerically and
18 theoretically, to determine the appropriate rheology of granular gases (Savage and Sayed
19 1984; Hanes and Inman 1985; GDR MiDi 2004; da Cruz et al. 2005; Mitarai and Nakanishi
20 2007; Orlando and Shen 2012).

21 Although theories that take into account the role of frictional contacts among deformable
22 particles exist (Berzi et al. 2011), let us focus, for sake of simplicity, on the case of

23 frictionless, rigid spheres. First, we briefly recall the case of dry SSF, already analyzed in
24 great detail (GDR MiDi 2004; da Cruz et al. 2005; Mitarai and Nakanishi 2007).

25 A certain amount of granular material, characterized by a constant volume concentration v
26 and composed of mono-dispersed rigid spheres of diameter d and density ρ_p , is confined
27 between two parallel plates, and homogeneously sheared ($\dot{\gamma}$ being the shear rate), in absence
28 of external forces (Fig. 1). The shearing induces inter-particle collisions, that we characterize
29 through a coefficient of restitution, e (ratio of pre- to post-collisional relative velocity
30 between two colliding particles). Macroscopic shear stress, s , and pressure, p (the isotropic
31 component of the normal stresses) result from the statistical average of the momentum
32 exchange due to collisions (Goldhirsch 2003). Hence, s and p are unique functions of the five
33 independent variables, v , d , ρ_p , $\dot{\gamma}$ and e . Using the particle diameter and density and the
34 shear rate to non-dimensionalize the problem, we reduce the number of independent variables
35 to two, i.e., v and e . Conversely, the shear stress and the pressure must be substituted by two
36 non-dimensional numbers. The French group GDR MiDi (2004) have suggested to use the
37 particle stress ratio, $\mu \equiv s/p$, and the inertial number, $I \equiv \dot{\gamma}d / [p/(\rho v)]^{1/2}$, respectively, for
38 this purpose. The rheology of the dry granular material is fully determined once the two
39 functions, $\mu = \mu(v, e)$ and $I = I(v, e)$, are known. That is, in dry condition, every value of
40 concentration corresponds to a certain value of the particle stress ratio (Mitarai and Nakanishi
41 2007), given the value of the coefficient of restitution, which is a material property. Of
42 course, one can use the inertial number as independent variable instead of the concentration,
43 leading to the theoretically equivalent problem of determining the two functions $\mu = \mu(I, e)$
44 and $v = v(I, e)$. In experiments and numerical simulations, the two cases are distinguished
45 and called concentration- and pressure-imposed SSF, respectively.

46 Let us see now what changes when the particles are immersed in a viscous fluid, as in
 47 Bagnold's pioneering experiments (Bagnold 1954). Bagnold's idea was to use neutrally
 48 buoyant spheres immersed in a fluid to eliminate the influence of gravity and approximate the
 49 ideal conditions of SSF. The presence of the interstitial fluid, though, introduces an additional
 50 variable to the problem, the fluid viscosity η . Hence, a non-dimensional number, representing
 51 the ratio of the particle inertia to the fluid viscous forces, must be included as an additional
 52 independent variable of the problem. This additional degree of freedom implies that, unlike
 53 the dry case, infinite values of the particle stress ratio are possible at a given concentration
 54 (Bagnold 1954).

55 The expression for μ can be easily obtained from kinetic theories (Mitarai and Nakanishi
 56 2007), even when a viscous interstitial fluid is present. The pressure and the shear stress, in
 57 the dense limit (Jenkins and Berzi 2010), i.e., v greater than say 0.4, and using the
 58 constitutive relations of Garzo and Dufty (1999), read

$$59 \quad p = 2(1+e)\rho_p v^2 g_0 T, \quad (1)$$

60 and

$$61 \quad s = \frac{8J}{5\pi^{1/2}} \rho_p v^2 g_0 T^{1/2} d\dot{\gamma}, \quad (2)$$

62 respectively, with

$$63 \quad J = \frac{1+e}{2} + \frac{\pi}{4} \frac{(1+e)^2 (3e-1)}{24 - 6(1-e)^2 - 5(1-e^2)}. \quad (3)$$

64 In Eqs. (1) and (2), T is the granular temperature, mean square of the particle velocity
 65 fluctuations, and g_0 is the radial distribution function at contact (Chapman and Cowling
 66 1970). The balance of fluctuating energy of the particles provides the required equation to
 67 determine the granular temperature. In the case of SSF, that equation reduces to a balance
 68 between energy production and dissipation,

69
$$\sigma \dot{\gamma} = \frac{12}{\pi^{1/2}} (1 - e^2) \rho_p v^2 g_0 \frac{T^{3/2}}{L} + \Gamma_\eta, \quad (4)$$

70 where the first and the second term on the right hand side represents the rate of energy
 71 dissipation due to the inelastic collisions and the viscous drag on the particles (Hsu et al.
 72 2004), respectively. There, L is the correlation length, the measure of the correlation among
 73 the particle velocity fluctuations whose effect is in diminishing the energy dissipated in
 74 collisions (Jenkins 2007). Its expression is, however, available only for some values of the
 75 coefficient of restitution (Jenkins and Berzi 2010, 2012); further investigations are needed to
 76 determine the complete dependence of L on e . In view of the above mentioned limitation, and
 77 for sake of simplicity, here we take $L = d$. An expression for Γ_η is, in principle, available
 78 (Hsu et al. 2004), although there are some issues concerning, for instance, the dependence of
 79 the drag on the particle concentration and the velocity fluctuations. Here, we prefer to adopt a
 80 simpler approach. The presence of the viscous fluid damps the inter-particle collisions,
 81 therefore enhancing the apparent inelasticity of contacts (Joseph et al 2001; Yang and Hunt
 82 2006). As in Berzi (2011), we set $\Gamma_\eta = 0$ in Eq.(4), and take the coefficient of restitution
 83 dependent on the Stokes number, St , which represents the ratio of particle inertia to the
 84 viscous forces. With this, Eqs. (3) and (4) show that the granular temperature is an algebraic
 85 function of the shear rate,

86
$$T = \frac{2J}{15(1 - e^2)} d^2 \dot{\gamma}^2. \quad (5)$$

87 The particle stress ratio μ , therefore, results, from Eqs. (1), (2) and (5),

88
$$\mu = \left[\frac{24J(1 - e^2)}{5\pi(1 + e)^2} \right]^{1/2}. \quad (6)$$

89 The fact that μ results independent on v in the dense limit, in contrast with experiments and
 90 numerical simulations on dry SSF (GDR MiDi 2004; Mitarai and Nakanishi 2007), is actually

91 a strong argument in favor of the introduction of the correlation length in Eq. (4). We use the
 92 expression suggested by Barnocki and Davis (1988) for the dependence of the coefficient of
 93 restitution on the Stokes number,

$$94 \quad \varepsilon - e \propto \frac{(1 + \varepsilon)}{St}, \quad (7)$$

95 where ε is the value of the coefficient of restitution in dry condition (i.e., when $St \rightarrow \infty$), and
 96 $St \propto (\rho_p d T^{1/2}) / \eta$, as in Berzi (2011). In the expression of the Stokes number, the square
 97 root of the granular temperature is taken to be a measure of the relative velocity between
 98 colliding particles (Chapman and Cowling 1970; Armanini et al. 2005). Bagnold (1954) used
 99 the following non-dimensional number,

$$100 \quad N = \left[\frac{1}{(v_M/v)^{1/3} - 1} \right]^{1/2} \frac{\rho_p d^2 \dot{\gamma}}{\eta} \quad (8)$$

101 to measure the importance of particle inertia to the fluid viscous forces, instead of the Stokes
 102 number. In Eq. (8), v_M is the maximum packing concentration of the granular material (equal
 103 to 0.74 for rigid spheres). Using Eqs. (5), (7) and the expression for the Stokes number,
 104 Eq. (8) becomes

$$105 \quad N = a \left[\frac{1}{(v_M/v)^{1/3} - 1} \right]^{1/2} \frac{(1 + \varepsilon)}{(\varepsilon - e)} \left[\frac{15(1 - e^2)}{2J} \right]^{1/2}, \quad (9)$$

106 where we set the coefficient of proportionality, a , on the basis of comparisons with
 107 experiments.

108 **Results and discussion**

109 Eqs. (6) and (9) allow to determine the particle stress ratio, μ , and the Bagnold number, N ,
 110 at a given concentration, for every value of the coefficient of restitution e from 0 to ε . Fig. 2
 111 shows the experimental results of Bagnold (1954), as reported by Hunt et al. (2002),

112 performed with neutrally buoyant wax spheres ($\rho_p = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$ and $d = 0.0013 \text{ m}$) in water
113 ($\eta = 0.001 \text{ Pa}\cdot\text{s}$) or in a mixture of glycerin, water and alcohol ($\eta = 0.007 \text{ Pa}\cdot\text{s}$), in terms of μ
114 versus N , for two different values of concentration (0.375 and 0.555).

115 We set $\varepsilon = 0.95$ - close to the values appropriate for spheres made of glass and cellulose
116 acetate measured by Foerster et al. (1994) - and $a = 5$ to obtain the theoretical predictions of
117 Fig. 2. We must emphasize that the exact quantitative agreement between the theory and the
118 experiments is beyond the scope of the present work, so that the values of ε and a must be
119 taken as purely indicative. Indeed, as already mentioned, the theory is not strictly rigorous,
120 because of the rough simplification of neglecting the velocity correlation in Eq. (4), which is
121 however present only at concentration larger than 0.49 (Jenkins 2007). On the other hand,
122 also the correctness of Bagnold's experimental findings have been criticized (Hunt et al.
123 2002), thus making meaningless the construction, at this stage, of too refined a theory.
124 Nonetheless, the present simple theory captures well the qualitative behavior of the
125 experimental results. The decrease of the particle stress ratio with the Bagnold number can be
126 explained with the associated increase of the apparent coefficient of restitution e ; indeed, it is
127 well known that lower values of the particle stress ratio pertain to less dissipative particles
128 (Mitarai and Nakanishi 2007). Furthermore, it seems natural (Fig. 2) to relate the constant
129 values of the particle stress ratio that Bagnold found appropriate for the macro-viscous and
130 inertial regimes (Bagnold 1954), with the values obtained by setting $e = 0$ and $e = \varepsilon$ in
131 Eq. (6), respectively. We must be cautious in making statements about the macro-viscous
132 regime based on the present theory, given that we assume that the microscopic particle inertia
133 still plays the major role in determining stresses (the constitutive expressions for the particle
134 shear stress and pressure are indeed both proportional to the particle density). However, the
135 particle stress ratio does not depend on the particle density, and Fig. 2 seems to suggest that
136 kinetic theories may be used also to obtain information about the behavior of the particle

137 stress ratio at vanishingly small values of the Stokes number (or, equivalently, of the Bagnold
138 number). We leave the analysis to future works.

139 **Conclusions**

140 We have focused on the simple shear flow of granular-fluid mixtures to show that their
141 behavior can be described in the framework of kinetic theories, if the influence of the fluid
142 viscosity on the collisional coefficient of restitution is taken into account through its
143 dependence on the Stokes number (the measure of the ratio between the particle inertia and
144 the fluid viscous forces). Kinetic theories predict that the ratio of particle shear stress to
145 particle pressure decreases when the coefficient of restitution increases; given that the latter
146 monotonically increases with the Stokes number, this explains why the experimental particle
147 stress ratio decreases with the physically-equivalent Bagnold number. The present analysis
148 also suggests that the well known macro-viscous and inertial regimes introduced by Bagnold
149 (1954), whose work is at the origin of the modern literature on both debris flows (Berzi et al.
150 2010) and dense suspensions (Boyer et al. 2011), can be interpreted as the limits for the
151 Stokes-dependent coefficient of restitution that goes to zero and to the value of the dry
152 granular material, respectively.

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Figure 1

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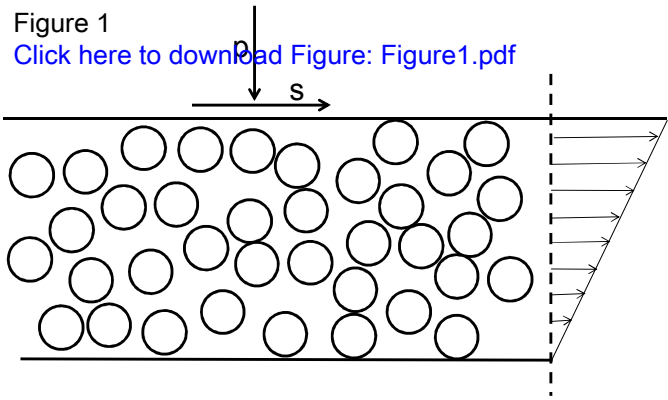
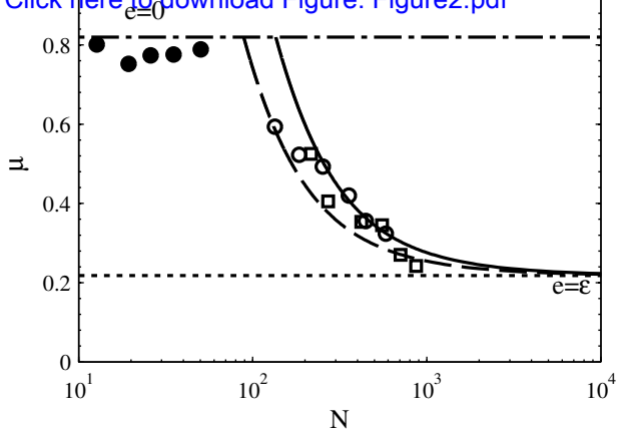


Figure 2

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Figure 1. Sketch of the SSF configuration.

Figure 2. Experimental (symbols, after Bagnold 1954) and theoretical (lines) particle stress ratio as function of the Bagnold number. Experiments refer to wax spheres in water (open symbols) and wax spheres in a mixture of water, glycerin and alcohol (filled symbols), for $\nu = 0.375$ (squares) and $\nu = 0.555$ (circles). The theoretical predictions are for $\nu = 0.40$ (dashed line) and $\nu = 0.56$ (solid line). Also shown are the predicted particle stress ratios when $e = 0$ (dot-dashed line) and $e = \varepsilon$ (dotted line).