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# Fluid Mechanics

By

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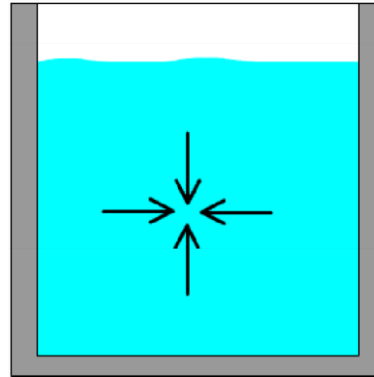
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# Pressure

- Pressure is the (compression) force exerted by a fluid per unit area.

$$\text{Pressure} = \frac{\text{Force}}{\text{Area}} \left( \frac{N}{m^2} \right) \equiv Pa$$

- Stress vs. pressure?
  - In fluids, gases and liquids, we speak of pressure; in solids this is normal stress. For a fluid at rest, the pressure at a given point is the same in all directions.
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- Differences or gradients in pressure drive a fluid flow, especially in ducts and pipes.

# Density

The density of a fluid is its mass per unit volume:

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} \left( \frac{kg}{m^3} \right)$$



- Liquids are essentially incompressible
- Density is highly variable in gases nearly proportional to the pressure.

@20°C, 1 atm	Air	Water	Hydrogen	Mercury
Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	1.20	998	0.0838	13,580

- **Note:** *specific volume* is defined as:

$$v = \frac{V(m^3)}{m(kg)} = \frac{1}{\rho}$$

## Specific weight

- The specific weight of a fluid is its weight, , per unit volume.  
Density and specific weight are related by gravity:



$$\gamma = \rho g \left( \frac{N}{m^3} \right)$$

# Specific gravity

Specific gravity is the ratio of a fluid density to a standard reference fluid, typically water at 4°C (for liquids) and air (for gases):

$$SG_{gas} = \frac{\rho_{gas}}{\rho_{air}} = \frac{\rho_{gas}}{1.205 \text{ (kg/m}^3\text{)}}$$

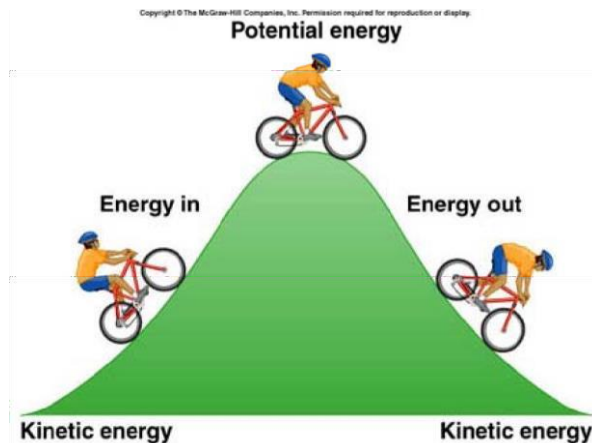
$$SG_{liquid} = \frac{\rho_{liquid}}{\rho_{water}} = \frac{\rho_{liquid}}{1000 \text{ (kg/m}^3\text{)}}$$

- For example, the specific gravity of mercury is  $SG_{Hg} = 13,580/1000 \approx 13.6$ .

# Kinetic and potential energy

- Potential energy is the work required to move the system of mass  $m$  from the origin to a position against a gravity field  $g$ :

$$PE = mgz$$



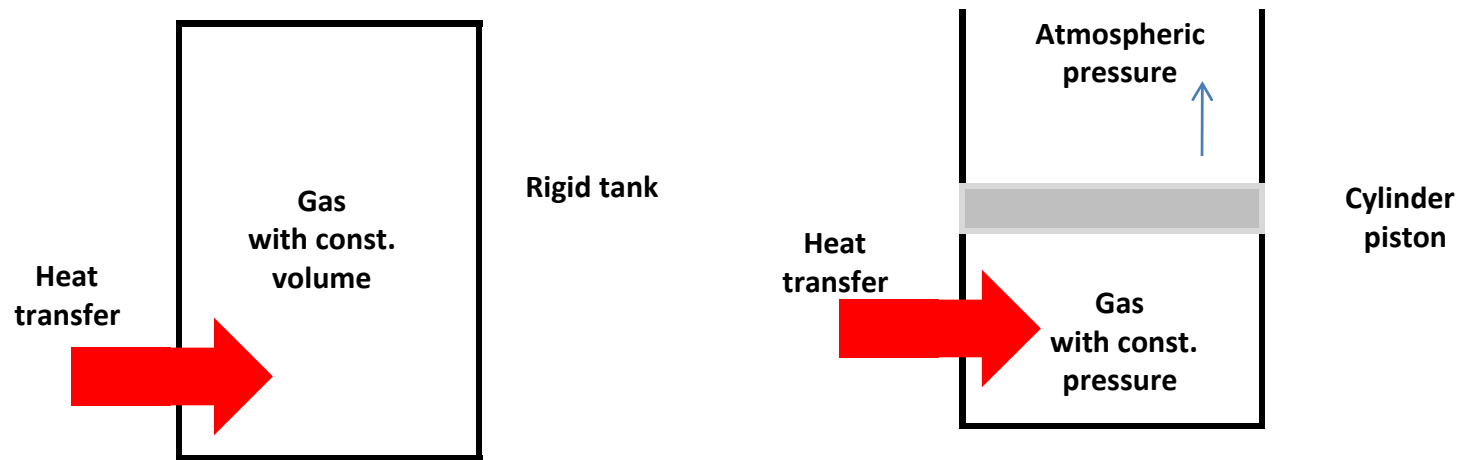
- Kinetic energy is the work required to change the speed of the mass from zero to velocity  $V$ .

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} mV^2$$

Note: internal energy,  $u$ , is a function of temperature and pressure for the single-phase substance, whereas KE and PE are kinematic quantities

## Specific heat

- Specific heat capacity: is the measure of the heat energy required to increase the temperature of a unit mass of a substance by one degree temperature.
  - $c_{aluminum} = 0.9$  (kJ/kg.K) and  $c_{water} = 4.186$  ( kJ/kg.K )
  - There are two types of specific heats, constant volume  $c_v$  and constant pressure  $c_p$ .
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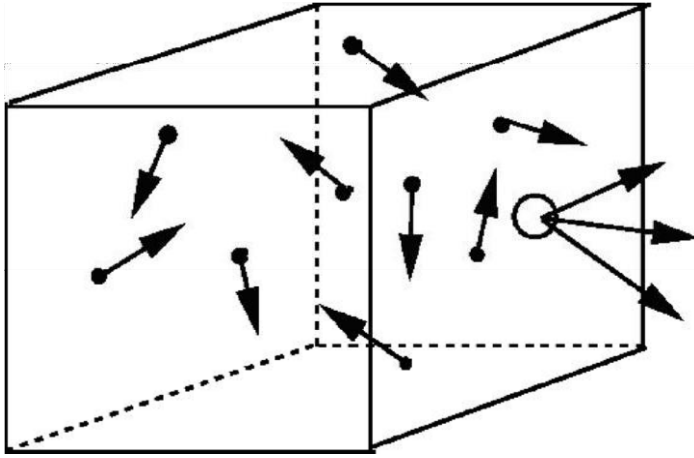


## $c_v$ $c_p$ Ideal gas equation of state

- Any equation that relates the pressure, temperature, and specific volume of a substance is called an equation of state.
  - It is experimentally observed that at a low pressure the volume of a gas is
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proportional to its temperature:



$$p = \rho R T \quad p = R_u \rho T$$

$R_u$  is the gas universal constant,  $R_u = 8.314 \text{ (kJ/kmol.K)}$

The constant  $R$  is different for each gas; for air,  $R_{\text{air}} = 0.287 \text{ (kJ/kg.K)}$ . The molecular weight of air  $M = 28.97 \text{ kg/kmol}$ .



# Properties of ideal gas

- For an ideal gas, *internal energy* is only a function of temperature; thus constant volume specific heat is only a function of temperature:

$$c_v = \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial T} \right) \bigg|_v = \frac{du}{dT} = c_v(T)$$
$$du = c_v(T) dT$$

- For an ideal gas, *enthalpy* is only a function of temperature;  $h = u + pv$ • The constant pressure specific heat can be defined as:

$$c_p = \left( \frac{\partial h}{\partial T} \right) \bigg|_p = \frac{dh}{dT} = c_p(T)$$
$$dh = c_p(T) dT$$
$$R = c_p - c_v$$

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- The specific heat ratio is an important dimensionless parameter:

$$k = \frac{c_p}{c_v} = k(T) \geq 1$$

## Incompressible fluids

- Liquids are (almost) incompressible and thus have a single constant specific heat:

$$c_p = c_v = c \quad dh = c dT$$



# Viscosity

- Viscosity is a measure of a fluid's resistance to flow. It determines the fluid strain rate that is generated by a given applied shear stress.



- Temperature has a strong and pressure has a moderate effect on viscosity. The viscosity of gases and most liquids increases slowly with pressure.
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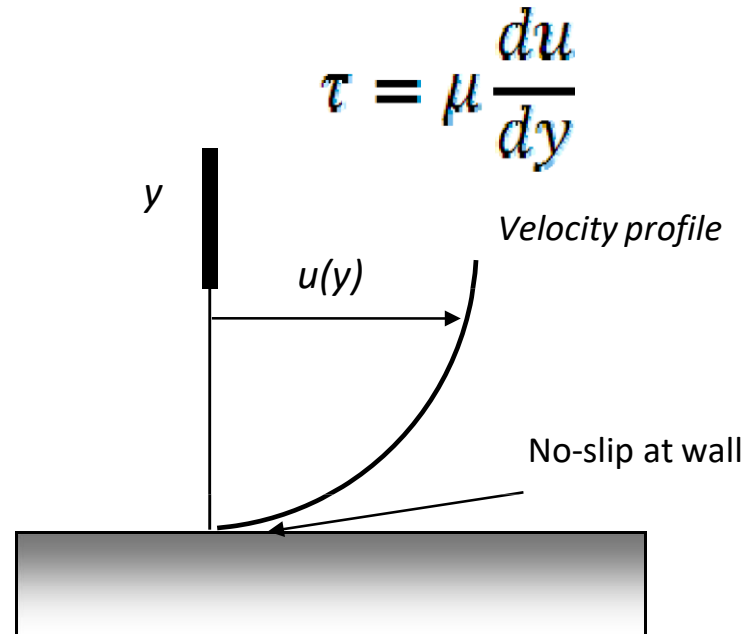
$$\mu_{\text{hydrogen}} = 9.0E-6 \left( \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m.s}} \right) \quad \mu_{\text{air}} = 1.8E-5 \left( \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m.s}} \right)$$

$$\mu_{\text{water}} = 1.0E-3 \left( \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m.s}} \right) \quad \mu_{\text{engine oil, SAE30}} = 0.20 \left( \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m.s}} \right)$$

# Viscosity

- A Newtonian fluid has a linear relationship between shear stress and





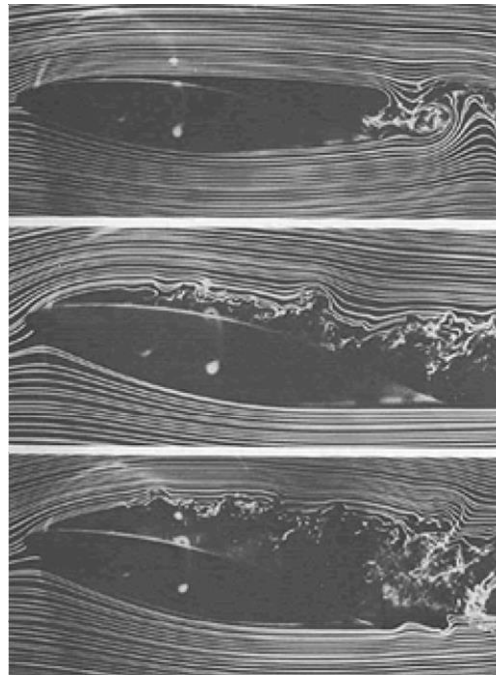
velocity gradient:

- The *no-slip condition*: at the wall velocity is zero relative to the wall. This is a characteristic of all viscous fluid.
- The shear stress is proportional to the slope of the velocity profile and is greatest at the wall.

# The Reynolds number

- The Reynolds number,  $Re$ , is a dimensionless number that gives a measure of

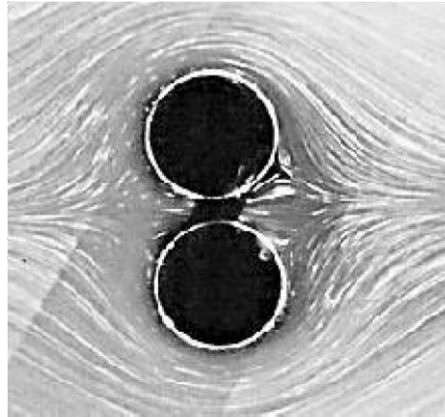
$$Re = \frac{\rho VL}{\mu} = \frac{VL}{\nu}$$



the ratio of inertial forces

to viscous forces





Creeping flow,  $Re$  is very low

Laminar flow,  $Re$  moderate

Turbulent flow,  $Re$  high

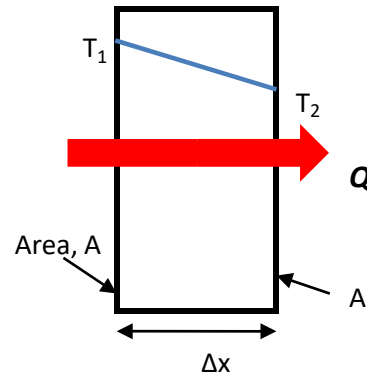
## Thermal conductivity

- Rate of heat conduction is proportional to the temperature difference, but it is inversely proportional to the thickness of the layer





Rate of heat transfer  $\propto \frac{(\text{surface area})(\text{temperature difference})}{\text{wall thickness}}$



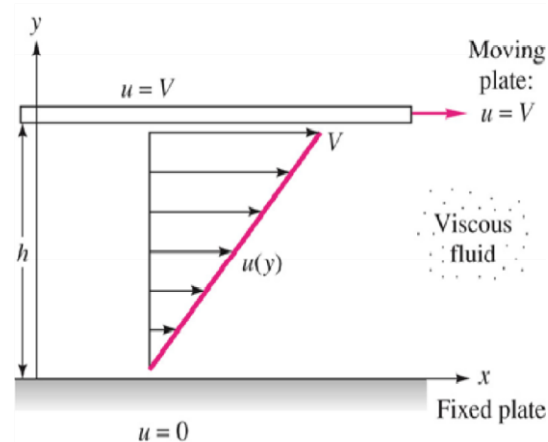
- To make this equality,  $k$  ( $\text{W/m.K}$ ) the thermal conductivity of the material, is introduced.
- This is called the Fourier's law of heat conduction:

$$q = \frac{Q}{A} = -k \nabla T$$

$$q_x = -k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}, \quad q_y = -k \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}, \quad q_z = -k \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}$$

# Flow between parallel plates

- It is the flow induced between a fixed lower plate and upper plate moving steadily at velocity  $V$



- Shear stress is constant throughout the fluid:

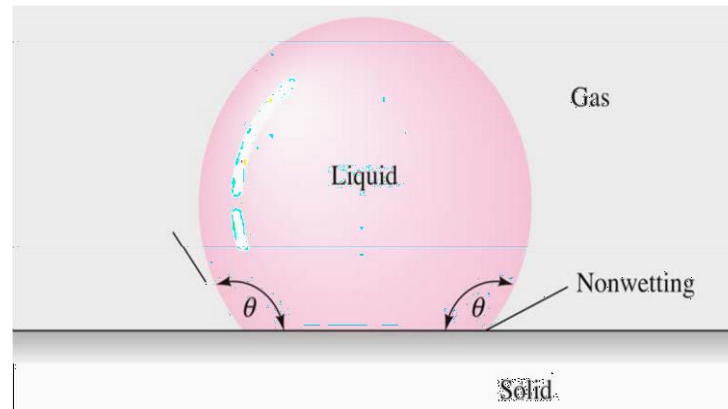
$$\frac{du}{dy} = \frac{\tau}{\mu} = \text{const.}$$

- After integration and applying boundary conditions:



# $u = V \frac{\gamma}{A}$ Surface tension

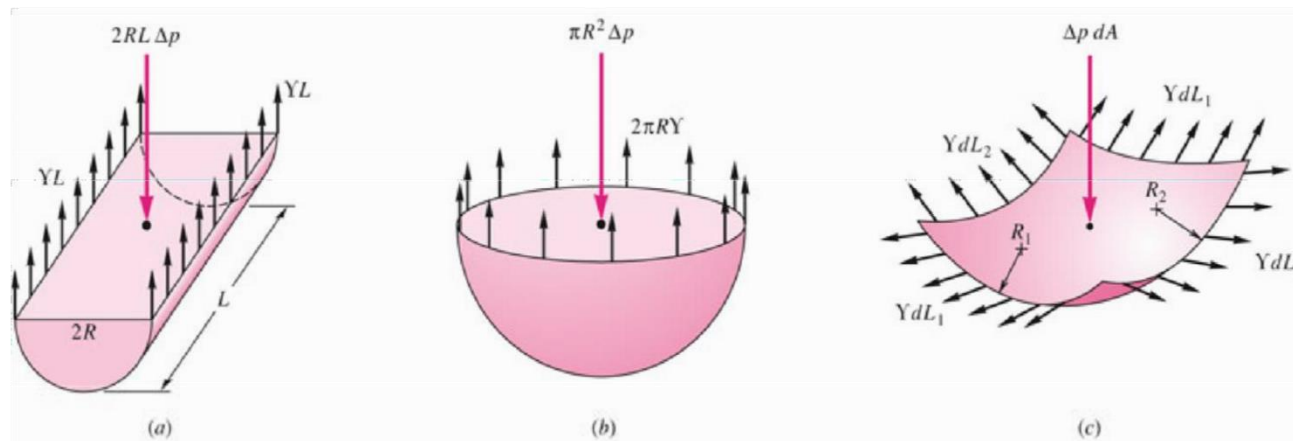
- A liquid, being unable to expand freely, will form an *interface* with a second liquid or gas.



- The cohesive forces between liquid molecules are responsible for the phenomenon known as surface tension.
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- Surface tension  $\gamma$  (pronounced upsilon) has the dimension of force per unit length ( $N/m$ ) or of energy per unit area ( $J/m^2$ ).
- $\gamma_{air-water} = 0.073 N/m$ ;  $\gamma_{air-mercury} = 0.48 N/m$

## Surface tension



- Using a force balance, pressure increase in the interior of a liquid half cylinder droplet of length  $L$  and radius  $R$  is:

$$2RL\Delta p = 2\gamma L \text{ or } \Delta p = \frac{\gamma}{R}$$

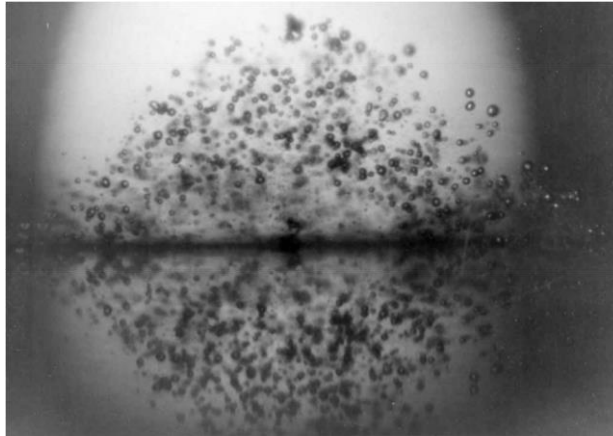
- Contact angle  $\theta$  appears when a liquid interface intersects with a solid surface.

$$\theta = \begin{cases} < 90^\circ & \text{wetting liquid} \\ > 90^\circ & \text{nonwetting liquid} \end{cases}$$

- Water is extremely wetting to a clean glass surface with  $\theta \approx 0$ . For a clean mercury-air-glass interface,  $\theta \approx 130^\circ$ .

## Vapor pressure and cavitation

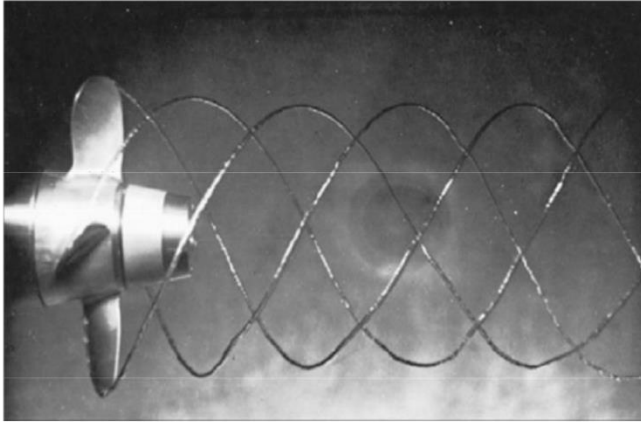
- Vapor pressure: the pressure at which a liquid boils and is in equilibrium with its own vapor.
  - When the liquid pressure is dropped below the vapor pressure due to a flow phenomenon, we call the process *cavitation*.
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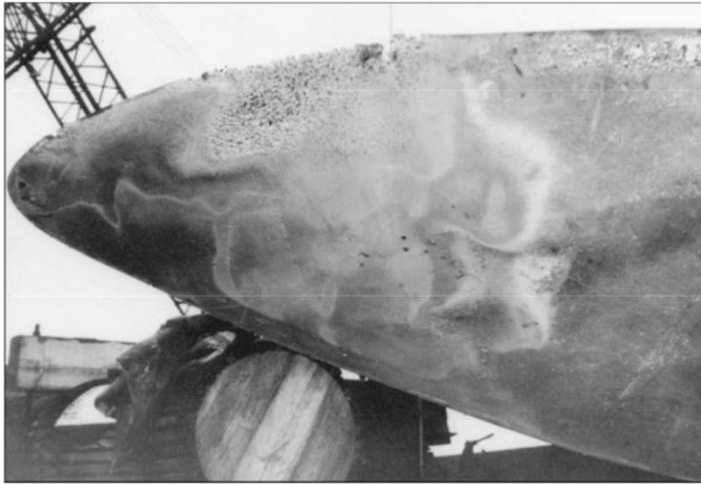
- The dimensionless parameter describing flow-induced boiling is called cavitation number:

$$Ca = \frac{p_a - p_v}{0.5\rho V^2}$$





- Bubble formation due to high velocity (flow-induced boiling).



- Damage (erosion) due to cavitation on a marine propeller.



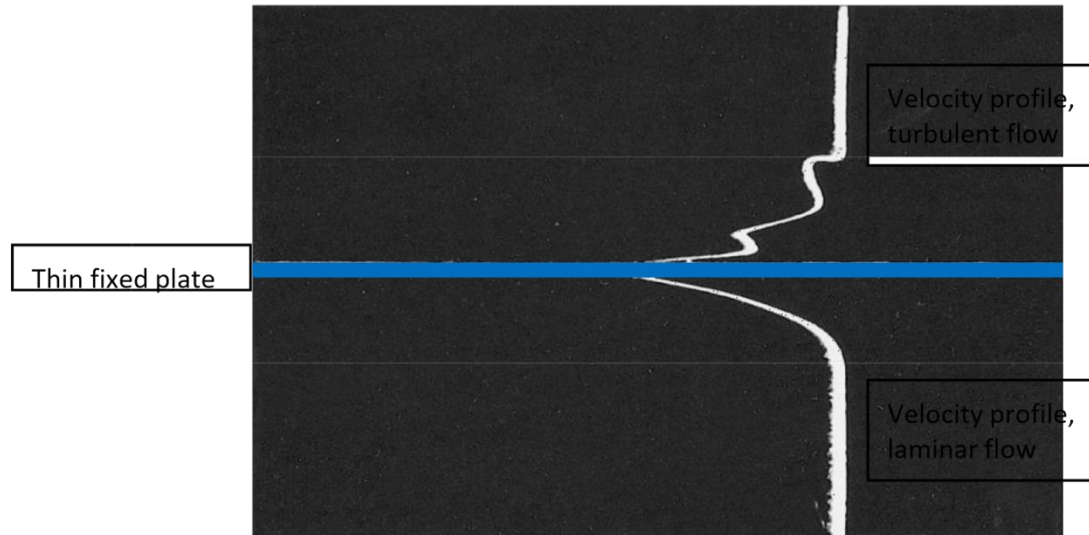
# No-slip and no-temp jump

- When a fluid flow is bounded by a surface, molecular interactions cause the fluid in contact with the surface to seek momentum and energy equilibrium





with the surface.



$$V_{fluid} = V_{wall}$$

No-slip flow condition

$$T_{fluid} = T_{wall}$$

No-temperature jump condition

## Speed of sound & compressibility

- the compressibility effects are important at high gas flows due to significant





density changes.

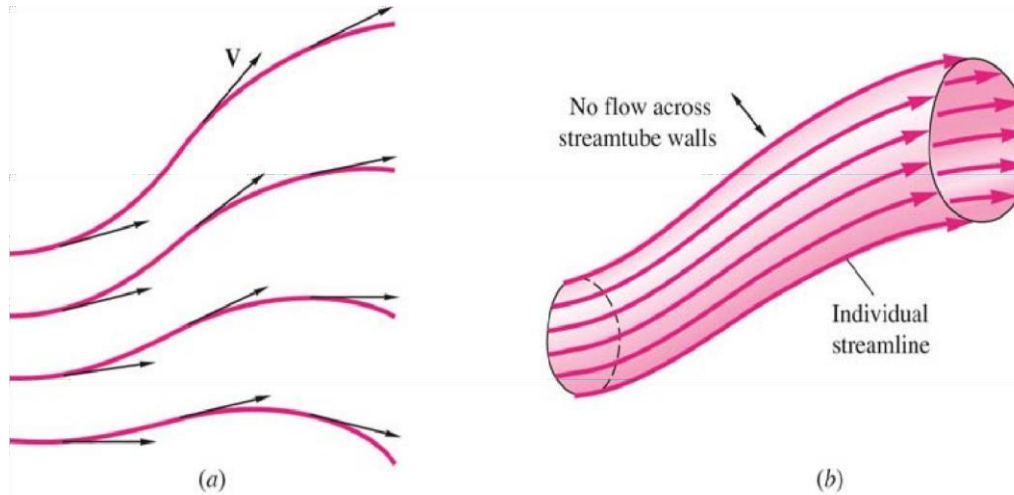
- Speed of sound: is the rate of propagation of small disturbance pressure pulses (sound waves) through the fluid:

$$\alpha^2 = k \left( \frac{\partial p}{\partial \rho} \right)_T, \quad k = \frac{c_p}{c_v}$$

- For an ideal gas  $\alpha_{ideal\ gas} = \sqrt{\gamma RT}$
- Mach number is the ratio of the flow to the speed of sound
- Compressibility effects are normally neglected for  $Ma < 0.3$

$$Ma = \frac{V}{\alpha}$$

# Flow pattern



- Streamline: is a line everywhere tangent to the velocity vector at a given instant.
- Pathline: is the actual path traversed by a given fluid particle.
- **Note**: in steady flows, streamlines and pathlines are identical.

- If the elemental arc length  $dr$  of a streamline is to be parallel to  $V$ , their respective components must be in proportion:

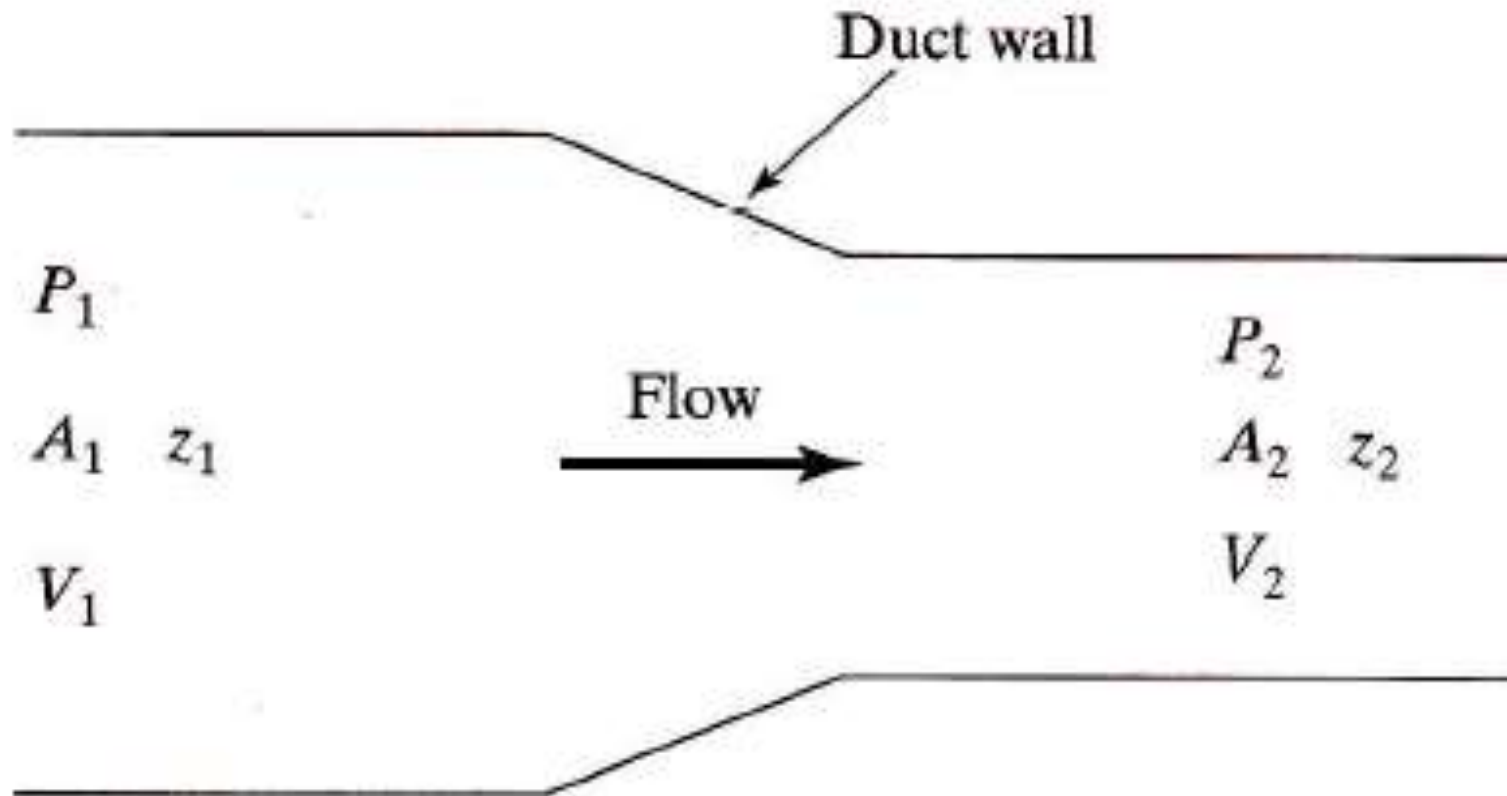
$$\frac{dx}{u} = \frac{dy}{v} = \frac{dz}{w} = \frac{dr}{V}$$



- Bernoulli equation takes the form of

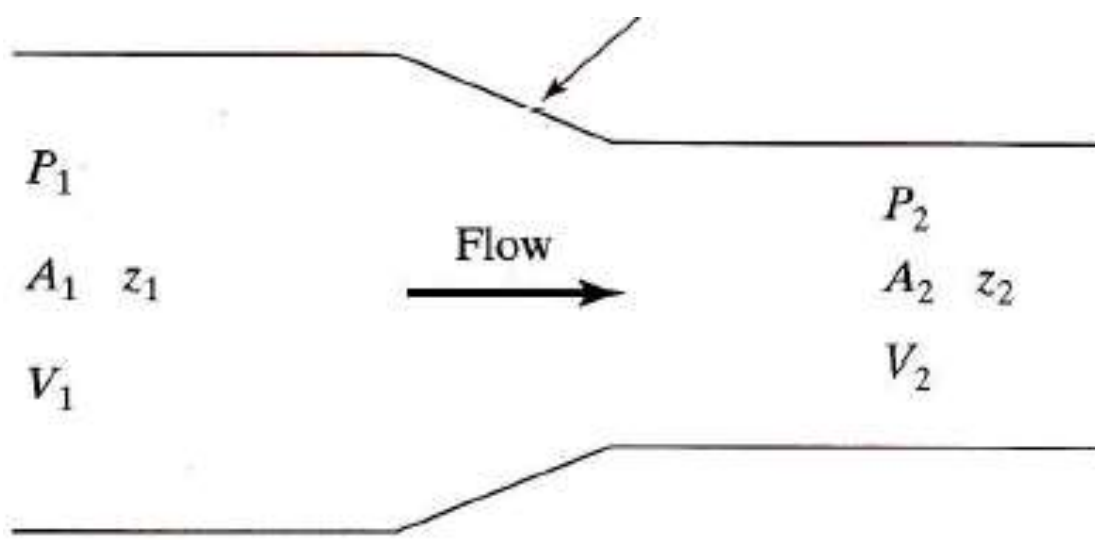
$$\frac{V_1^2}{2} + \frac{P_1}{\rho} + gz_1 = \frac{V_2^2}{2} + \frac{P_2}{\rho} + gz_2$$

where  $V$  is the fluid velocity,  $P$  is the fluid pressure,  $z$  is the elevation of the location in the pipe relative to a specified reference elevation (datum),  $\rho$  is the fluid density, and  $g$  is gravity



The velocities at two axial locations in the duct with different areas are related through the conservation of mass equation,

$$\rho_1 V_1 A_1 = \rho_2 V_2 A_2 = \dot{m}$$



where,  $A$  is the duct cross-sectional area and  $\dot{m}$  is the fluid mass flow rate (e.g., kg/s).  
For an incompressible fluid, the density is constant.

conservation of mass equation

$$\rho_1 V_1 A_1 = \rho_2 V_2 A_2 = \dot{m} \qquad \frac{V_1^2}{2} + \frac{P_1}{\rho} + gz_1 = \frac{V_2^2}{2} + \frac{P_2}{\rho} + gz_2$$

*is usually written in the form:*

$$V_1 A_1 = V_2 A_2 = Q \quad \text{where } Q \text{ is the volume flow rate (e.g., m}^3\text{/s).}$$

Equations can be combined to obtain an expression

$$V_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (A_2/A_1)^2}} \sqrt{\frac{2[(P_1 + g\rho z_1) - (P_2 + g\rho z_2)]}{\rho}}$$

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$$V_1 A_1 = V_2 A_2 = Q$$

$$Q = \frac{A_2}{\sqrt{1 - (A_2/A_1)^2}} \sqrt{\frac{2[(P_1 + g\rho z_1) - (P_2 + g\rho z_2)]}{\rho}}$$

***The theoretical basis for a class of flow meters in which the flow rate is determined from the pressure change caused by variation in the area of a conduit.***



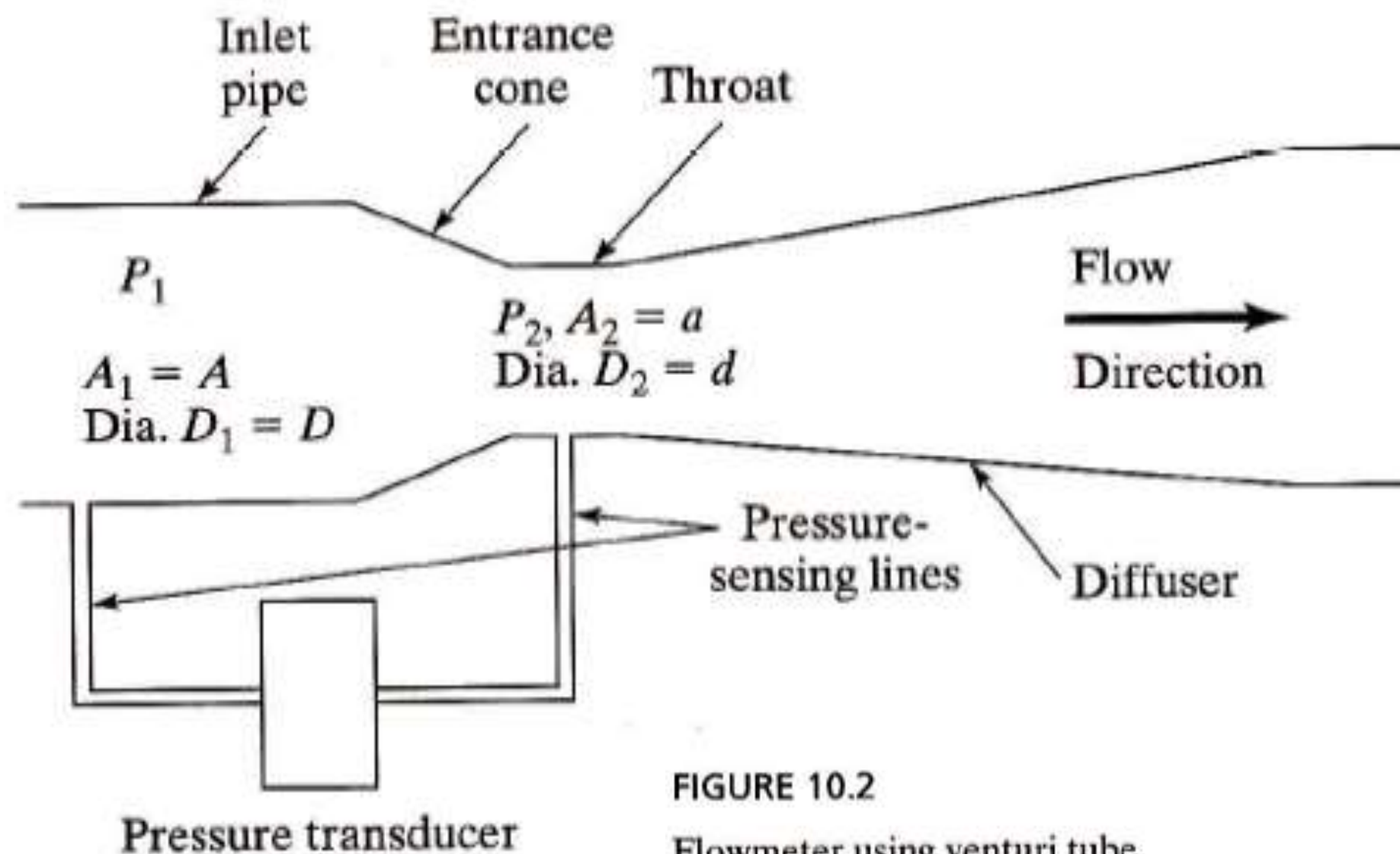
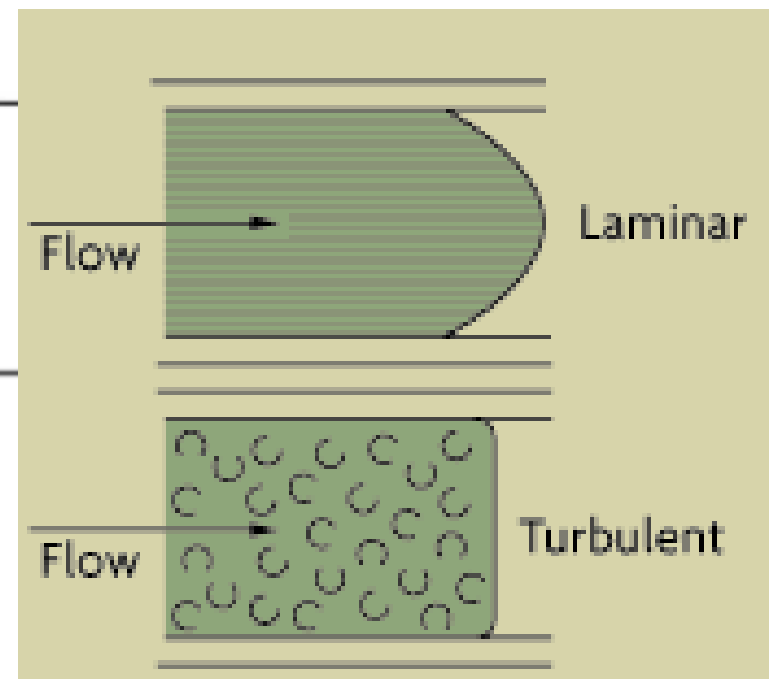
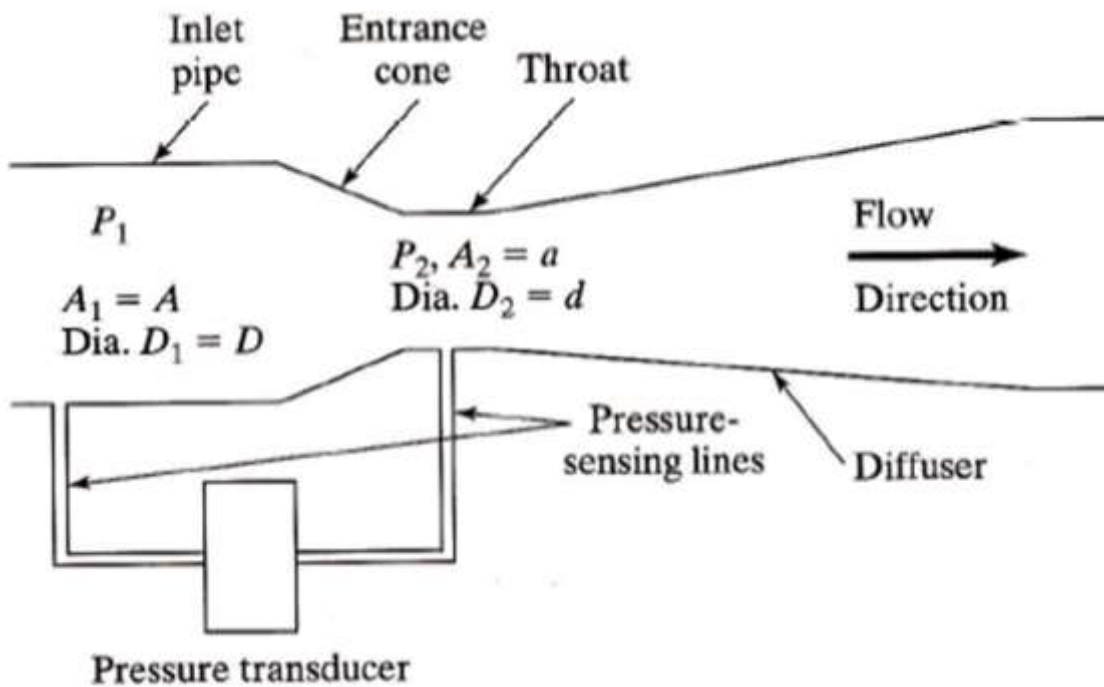


FIGURE 10.2  
Flowmeter using venturi tube.



$$Q = \frac{CA_2}{\sqrt{1 - (A_2/A_1)^2}} \sqrt{\frac{2[(P_1 + g\rho z_1) - (P_2 + g\rho z_2)]}{\rho}}$$

The factor  $C$ , called the *discharge coefficient*

is used to account for nonideal effects.

and a parameter called the Reynolds number, which is defined as

$$Re = \frac{\rho V D}{\mu}$$

$$Q = \frac{CA_2}{\sqrt{1 - (A_2/A_1)^2}} \sqrt{\frac{2[(P_1 + g\rho z_1) - (P_2 + g\rho z_2)]}{\rho}}$$

$$K = \frac{C}{\sqrt{1 - (A_2/A_1)^2}} \quad K, \text{ called the flow coefficient,}$$

When  $Z_1 = Z_2$  Flow Rate Equation becomes as follows:

$$Q = \frac{CA_2}{\sqrt{1 - (A_2/A_1)^2}} \sqrt{\frac{2\Delta P}{\rho}}$$