57:020

Fluid Mechanics

Class Notes
Fall 2012

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BASIC CONCEPTS

Fluids and the no-slip condition

Fluid mechanics is the science and technology of fluids either at rest (fluid statics) or in motion (fluid dynamics) and their effects on boundaries such as solid surfaces or interfaces with other fluids.

Definition of a fluid: A substance that deforms continuously when subjected to a shear stress

Consider a fluid between two parallel plates, which is subjected to a shear stress due to the impulsive motion of the upper plate
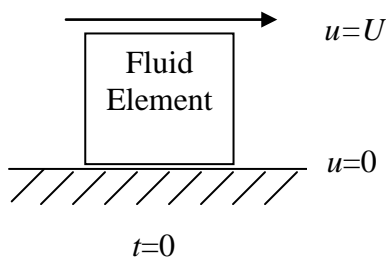

No slip condition: no relative motion between fluid and boundary, i.e., fluid in contact with lower plate is stationary, whereas fluid in contact with upper plate moves at speed U.
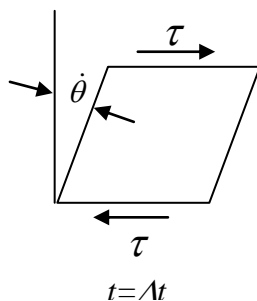
Fluid deforms, i.e., undergoes rate of strain $\dot{\theta}$ due to shear stress τ

Newtonian fluid: $\tau \propto \dot{\theta}$ = rate of strain

$$\tau = \mu \dot{\theta}$$

μ = coefficient of viscosity

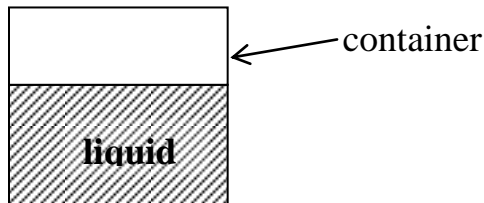Such behavior is different from solids, which resist shear by static deformation (up to elastic limit of material)

τ

Solid

τ

t=0

γ

t=Δt

Elastic solid: $\tau \propto \gamma$ = strain

$$\tau = G \gamma$$

G = shear modulus
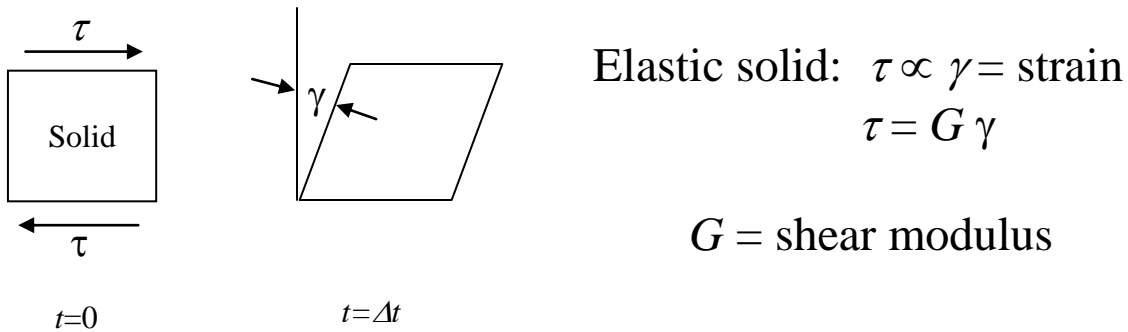
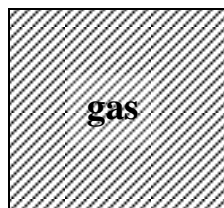<u>Both liquids and gases behave as fluids</u>

Liquids:
Closely spaced molecules with large intermolecular forces
Retain volume and take shape of container

← container

liquid

Gases:
Widely spaced molecules with small intermolecular forces
Take volume and shape of container

gas

Recall *p-v-T* diagram from thermodynamics:
single phase, two phase, triple point (point at which solid, liquid, and vapor are all in equilibrium), critical point (maximum pressure at which liquid and vapor are both in equilibrium).

Liquids, gases, and two-phase liquid-vapor behave as fluids.

(a)

(b)

(c)
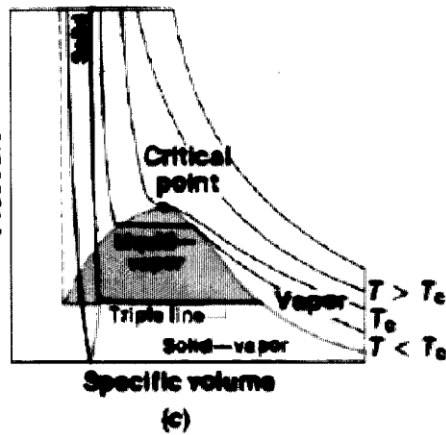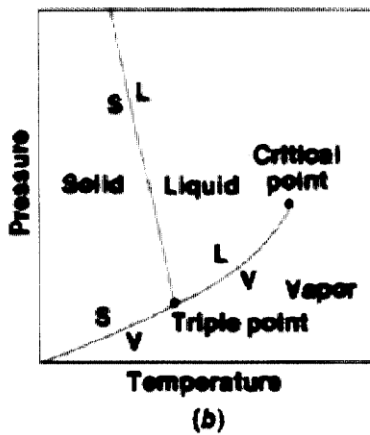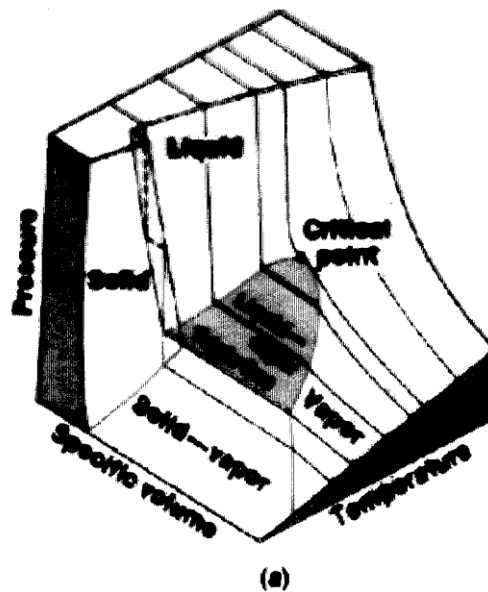
Continuum Hypothesis

In this course, the assumption is made that the fluid behaves as a continuum, i.e., the number of molecules within the smallest region of interest (a point) are sufficient that all fluid properties are point functions (single valued at a point).

For example:
Consider definition of density ρ of a fluid

$$\rho(\underline{x},t) = \frac{\lim}{\delta V \to \delta V^*} \frac{\delta m}{\delta V} \qquad \begin{array}{l} \underline{x} = \text{position vector} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k} \\ t = \text{time} \end{array}$$

δV^* = limiting volume below which molecular variations may be important and above which macroscopic variations may be important

$\delta V^* \approx 10^{-9}$ mm^3 for all liquids and for gases at atmospheric pressure

10^{-9} mm^3 air (at standard conditions, 20°C and 1 atm) contains 3×10^7 molecules such that $\delta M / \delta V$ = constant = ρ

Note that typical "smallest" measurement volumes are about $10^{-3} - 10^0$ mm$^3 >> \delta V^*$ and that the "scale" of macroscopic variations are very problem dependent

(a)   (b)
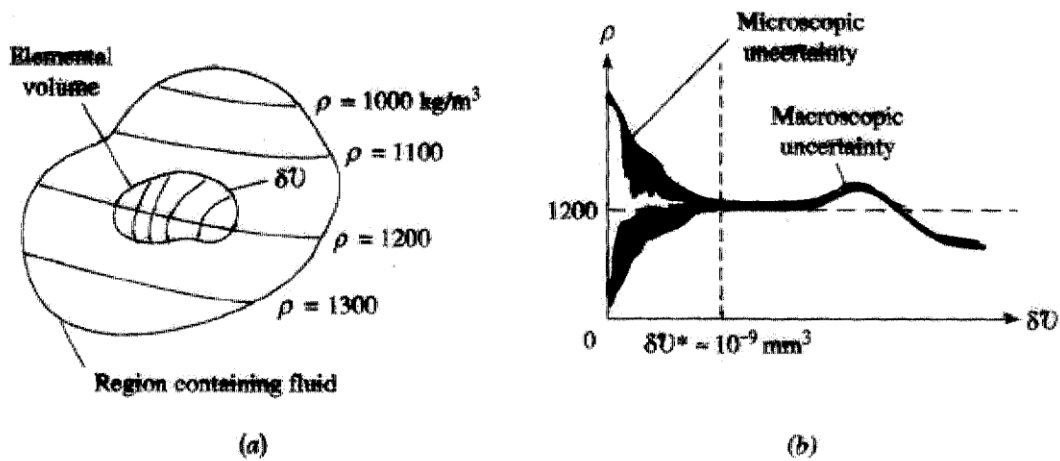
[2] One atmosphere equals 2116 lbf/ft² = 101,300 Pa.

Exception: rarefied gas flow

$\delta\forall^*$ defines a point in the fluid, i.e., a fluid particle or infinitesimal material element used for deriving governing differential equations of fluid dynamics and at which all fluid properties are point functions:

$\delta\forall^*$ >> molecular scales

λ = mean free path = 6×10^{-8} m

$t_\lambda = 10^{-10}$ s = time between collisions

$\delta\forall^*$ << fluid motions scales = 10^{-18} m³, i.e., l* = 10^{-6} m

For laminar flow: $l_{max} \approx$ smallest geometry scales of the flow

$U_{max} < U$ transition to turbulent flow

For turbulent flow: l_{max} and U_{max} determined by Kolmogorov scales at which viscous dissipation takes place, which for typical ship/airplane,

$\eta \approx 2\times10^{-5}$ m (ship)/2.3×10^{-5} m (airplane)

$u_\eta \approx 0.05$ m/s (ship)/1.64 m/s (airplane)

$t_\eta \approx 4\times10^{-4}$ s (ship)/1.4×10^{-5} s (airplane)

Properties of Fluids

Fluids are characterized by their properties such as viscosity μ and density ρ, which we have already discussed with reference to definition of shear stress $\tau = \mu \dot{\theta}$ and the continuum hypothesis.

Properties can be both dimensional (i.e., expressed in either SI or BG units) or non-dimensional.

Figure B.1 Dynamic (absolute) viscosity of common fluids as a function of temperature.

Figure B.2 Kinematic viscosity of common fluids (at atmospheric pressure) as a function of temperature.

Table B.1 Physical Properties of Water (BG Units)

Table B.2 Physical Properties of Water (SI Units)

Table B.3 Physical Properties of Air at Standard Atmospheric Pressure (BG Units)

Table B.4 Physical Properties of Air at Standard Atmospheric Pressure (SI Units)

Table 1.5 Approximate Physical Properties of Some Common Liquids (BG Units)

Table 1.6 Approximate Physical Properties of Some Common Liquids (SI Units)

Table 1.7 Approximate Physical Properties of Some Common Gases at Standard Atmospheric Pressure (BG Units)

Table 1.8 Approximate Physical Properties of Some Common Gases at Standard Atmospheric Pressure (SI Units)

Basic Units

System International and British Gravitational Systems

Primary Units	SI	BG
Mass M	kg	slug=32.2lbm
Length L	m	ft
Time t	s	s
Temperature T	°C (°K)	°F (°R)

Temperature Conversion:

°K = °C + 273

°R = °F + 460

°K and °R are absolute scales, i.e., 0 at absolute zero. Freezing point of water is at 0°C and 32°F.

Secondary (derived) units	Dimension	SI	BG
velocity $\underline{V}$	L/t	m/s	ft/s
acceleration $\underline{a}$	L/t^2	m/s^2	ft/s^2
force $\underline{F}$	ML/t^2	N (kg·m/s^2)	lbf
pressure p	F/L^2	Pa (N/m^2)	lbf/ft^2
density ρ	M/L^3	kg/m^3	slug/ft^3
internal energy u	FL/M	J/kg (N·m/kg)	BTU/lbm

Table 1.3 Conversion Factors from BG and EE Units to SI Units.
Table 1.4 Conversion Factors from SI Units to BG and EE Units.

Weight and Mass

$\underline{F} = m\underline{a}$ Newton's second law (valid for both solids and fluids)

Weight = force on object due to gravity

$\mathcal{W}^o = mg$ $g = 9.81$ m/s^2
                $= 32.2$ ft/s^2

SI: $\mathcal{W}^o(\text{N}) = m \text{ (kg)} \cdot 9.81$ m/s^2

BG: $\mathcal{W}^o(\text{lbf}) = \dfrac{m(\text{lbm})}{g_c} \cdot 32.2 \text{ ft/s}^2 = m(\text{slug}) \cdot 32.2 \text{ft/ s}^2$

$g_c = 32.2 \dfrac{\text{lbm} \cdot \text{ft}}{\text{s}^2 \cdot \text{lbf}} = 32.2 \dfrac{\text{lbm}}{\text{slug}}$, i.e., 1 slug = 32.2 lbm

$1\text{N} = 1\text{kg} \cdot 1\text{m/s}^2$

$1\text{lbf} = 1 \text{ slug} \cdot 1\text{ft/s}^2$

System; Extensive and Intensive Properties

System = fixed amount of matter
$\qquad$ = mass m

Therefore, by definition
$$\frac{d(m)}{dt} = 0$$

Properties are further distinguished as being either extensive or intensive.

Extensive properties: depend on total mass of system, e.g., m and $\mathcal{W}^{o}$

Intensive properties: independent of amount of mass of system, e.g., p (force/area) and ρ (mass/volume)

Properties Involving the Mass or Weight of the Fluid

Specific Weight, γ = gravitational force (i.e., weight) per unit volume $\cancel{V}$

$$= \cancel{W}/\cancel{V}$$
$$= mg/\cancel{V}$$
$$= \rho g \quad N/m^3$$

(Note that specific properties are extensive properties per unit mass or volume)

Mass Density ρ = mass per unit volume
$$= m/\cancel{V} \quad kg/m^3$$

Specific Gravity S = ratio of γ_{liquid} to γ_{water} at standard $T = 4°C$
$$= \gamma/\gamma_{water, \, 4°C} \quad \text{dimensionless}$$
(or γ_{air} at standard conditions for gases)

$\gamma_{water, \, 4°C} = 9810 \, N/m^3$ for $T = 4°C$ and atmospheric pressure

Variation in Density

gases: $\rho = \rho \,(\text{gas}, T, p)$ equation of state (p-v-T)

$\qquad = p/RT$ ideal gas

$\qquad R = R \,(\text{gas})$

$\qquad$ e.g.) R (air) $= 287.05$ N·m/kg·°K

$\qquad\qquad \rho = 1.225$ kg/m^3 at Standard Atmosphere

$\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad$ ($T = 15°C$ and $p = 101.33$ kPa)

liquids: $\rho \sim$ constant
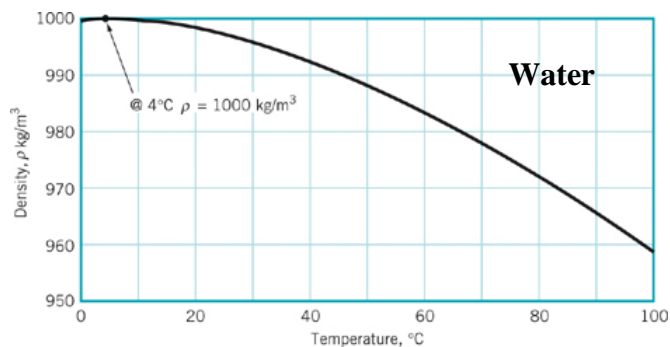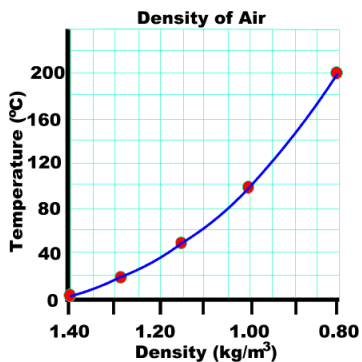
Liquid and temperature	Density (kg/m^3)	Density (slugs/ft^3)
Water 20°C (68°F)	998	1.94
Ethyl alcohol 20°C (68°F)	799	1.55
Glycerine 20°C (68°F)	1,260	2.45
Kerosene 20°C (68°F)	814	1.58
Mercury 20°C (68°F)	13,350	26.3
Sea water 10°C at 3.3% salinity	1,026	1.99
SAE 10W 38°C(100°F)	870	1.69
SAE 10W-30 8°C(100°F)	880	1.71
SAE 30 38°C(100°F)	880	1.71

For greater accuracy can also use p-v-T diagram

$$\rho = \rho \,(\text{liquid}, \, T, \, p)$$

$T\uparrow \qquad \rho\downarrow$
$p\uparrow \qquad \rho\uparrow$

Properties Involving the Flow of Heat
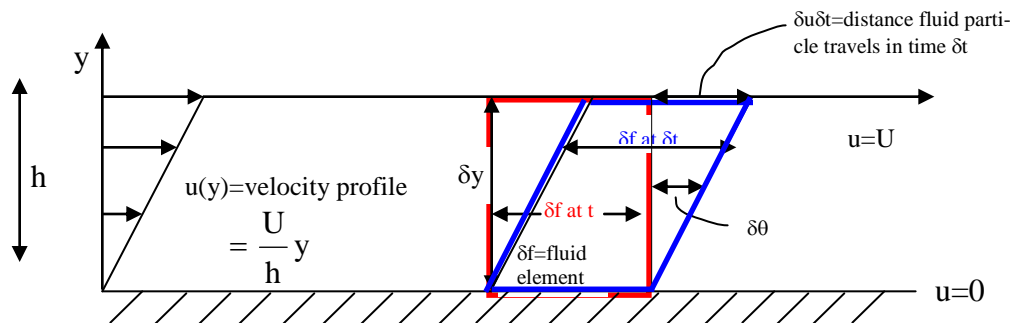
For flows involving heat transfer such as gas dynamics additional thermodynamic properties are important, e.g.

specific heats $\qquad\qquad c_p$ and c_v $\qquad$ J/kg·°K

specific internal energy $\qquad u$ $\qquad$ J/kg

specific enthalpy $\qquad h = u + p/\rho$ $\quad$ J/kg

Viscosity

Recall definition of a fluid (substance that deforms continuously when subjected to a shear stress) and Newtonian fluid shear / rate-of-strain relationship: $\tau = \mu \dot{\theta}$.

Reconsider flow between fixed and moving parallel plates (Couette flow)

Newtonian fluid: $\tau = \mu \dot{\theta} = \mu \dfrac{\delta\theta}{\delta t}$

$\tan \delta\theta = \dfrac{\delta u \delta t}{\delta y}$ or $\delta\theta = \dfrac{\delta u \delta t}{\delta y}$ for small $\delta\theta$

therefore $\delta\dot{\theta} = \dfrac{\delta u}{\delta y}$ i.e., $\dot{\theta} = \dfrac{d u}{d y}$ = velocity gradient

and $\tau = \mu \dfrac{du}{dy}$

Exact solution for Couette flow is a linear velocity profile

$$u(y) = \frac{U}{h} y \qquad \text{Note: } u(0) = 0 \text{ and } u(\text{h}) = U$$

i.e., satisfies no-slip boundary condition

$$\tau = \mu \frac{U}{h} = \text{constant}$$

where

U/h = velocity gradient = rate of strain

μ = coefficient of viscosity = proportionality constant for Newtonian fluid

$$\mu = \frac{\tau}{\dfrac{du}{dy}} = \frac{\text{N}/\text{m}^2}{\dfrac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \Big/ \text{m}} = \frac{\text{Ns}}{\text{m}^2}$$

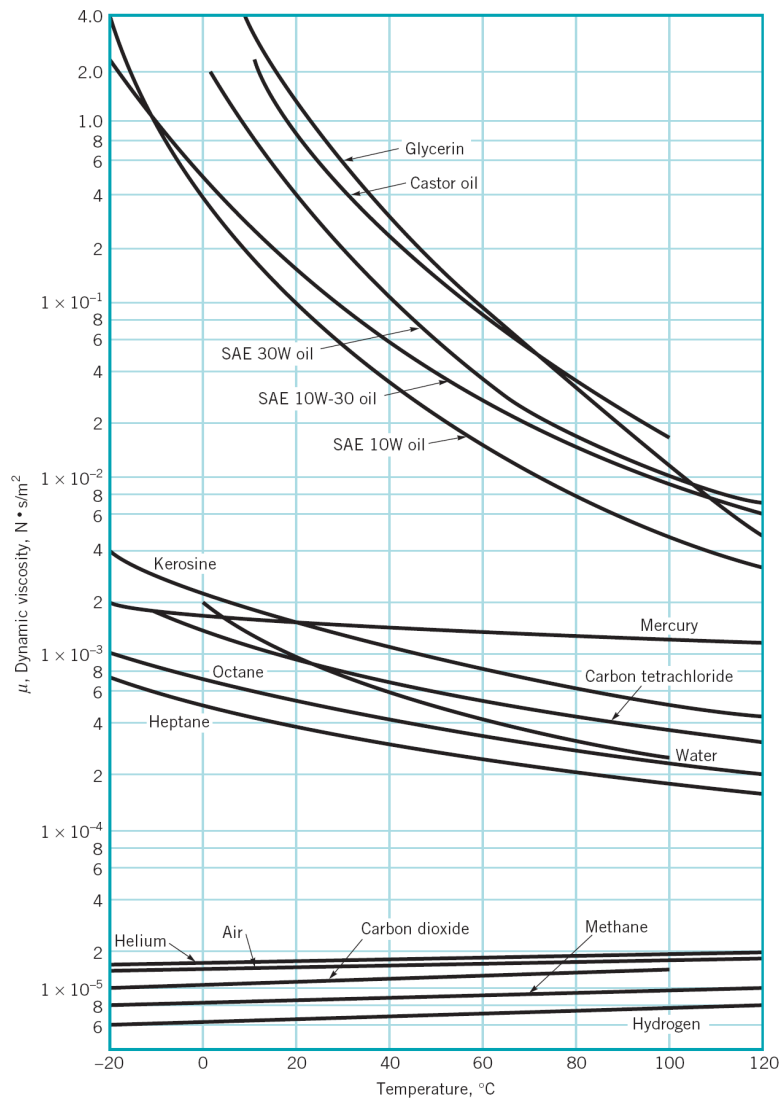$$\nu = \frac{\mu}{\rho} = \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{s}} = \text{kinematic viscosity}$$

$$\mu = \mu(\text{fluid};T,p) = \mu(\text{gas/liquid};T)$$

gas and liquid $\mu\uparrow$ $p\uparrow$, but small $\Delta\mu$

gas: $\mu\uparrow$ $T\uparrow$ **Due to structural differences, more molecular**

liquid: $\mu\downarrow$ $T\uparrow$ **activity, decreased cohesive forces for gases**

Newtonian vs. Non-Newtonian Fluids

Dilatant: $\tau \uparrow$ $du/dy \uparrow$
Newtonian: $\tau \propto$ du/dy
Pseudo plastic: $\tau \downarrow$ $du/dy \uparrow$
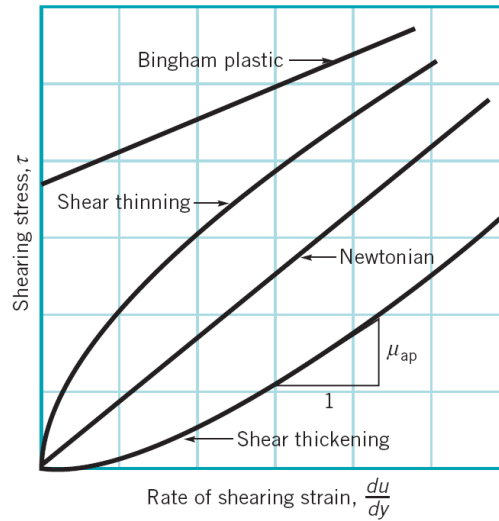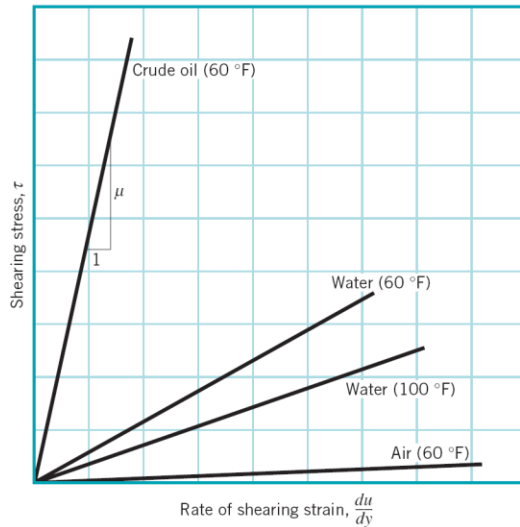
$$\tau \propto \frac{du}{dy}$$

$\mu = \text{slope}$

$$\tau \propto \left(\frac{du}{dy}\right)^n$$

$n > 1$ slope increases with increasing τ (shear thickening)

$n < 1$ slope decreases with increasing τ (shear thinning) Ex) blood, paint, liquid plastic

Elasticity (i.e., compressibility)

Increasing/decreasing pressure corresponds to contraction/expansion of a fluid. The amount of deformation is called elasticity.

$$dp = -E_v \frac{d\forall}{\forall} \qquad\qquad dp > 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d\forall}{\forall} < 0$$

Increase pressure, decrease volume. $\therefore$ minus sign used

$$E_V = -\frac{dp}{d\forall/\forall} = \frac{dp}{d\rho/\rho} = \rho \frac{dp}{d\rho} = \frac{N}{m^2}$$

Alternate form: $m = \rho\forall$

$dm = \rho d\forall + \forall d\rho = 0$ (by definition)

$$-\frac{d\forall}{\forall} = \frac{d\rho}{\rho}$$

Liquids are in general incompressible, e.g.
$E_v = 2.2$ GN/m^2 water
i.e. $\Delta\forall = 0.05\%$ for $\Delta p = 1$MN/m^2
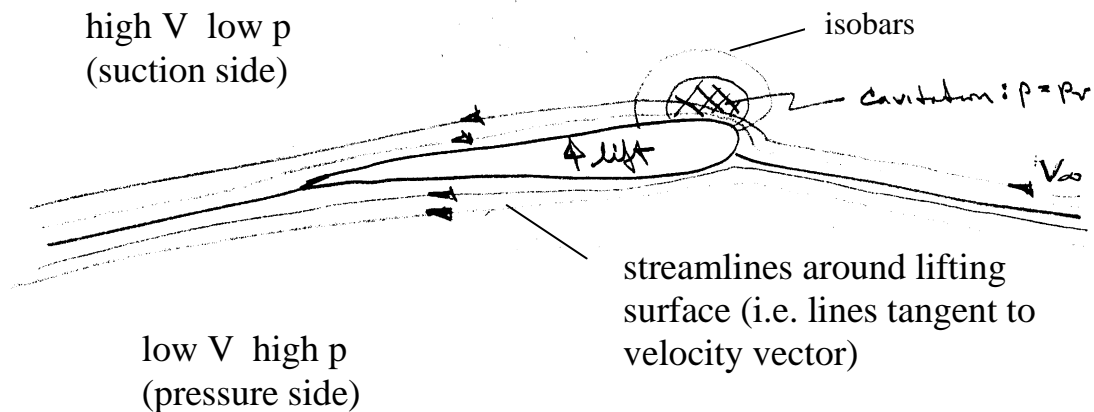(G=Giga=10^9 M=Mega=10^6 k=kilo=10^3)

Gases are in general compressible, e.g. for ideal gas at T = constant (isothermal)

$$\frac{dp}{d\rho} = RT$$

$$\boxed{E_v = \rho RT = p}$$

Vapor Pressure and Cavitation

When the pressure of a liquid falls below the vapor pressure it evaporates, i.e., changes to a gas. If the pressure drop is due to temperature effects alone, the process is called boiling. If the pressure drop is due to fluid velocity, the process is called cavitation. Cavitation is common in regions of high velocity, i.e., low p such as on turbine blades and marine propellers.

high V low p
(suction side)

isobars

Cavitation: $p = p_v$

V_∞

4 lift

streamlines around lifting surface (i.e. lines tangent to velocity vector)
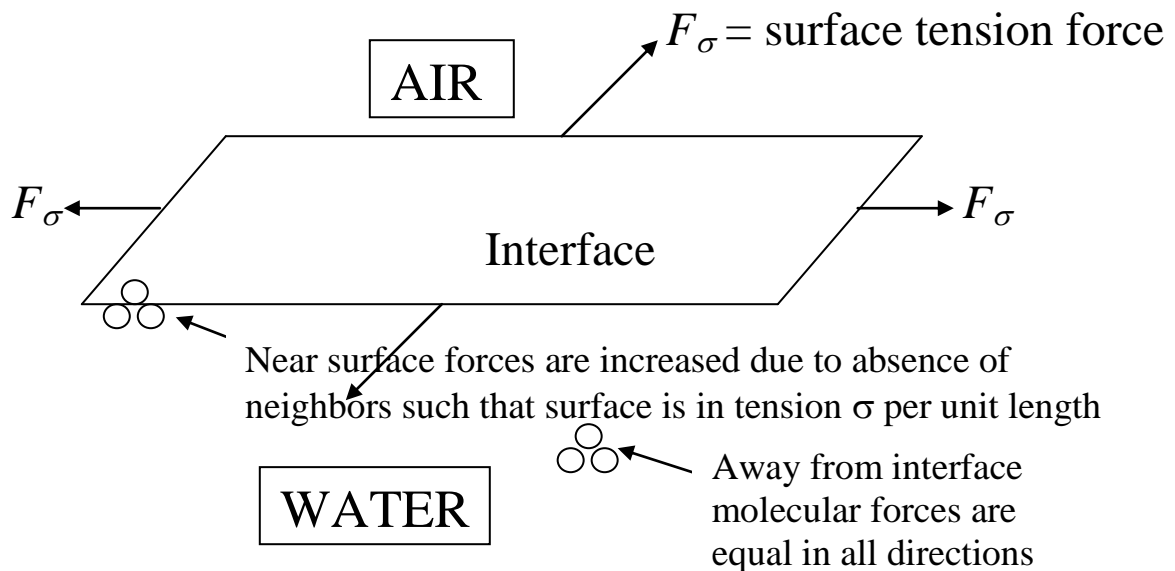
low V high p
(pressure side)

$$\text{Cavitation number} = \frac{p - p_v}{\frac{1}{2}\rho V_\infty^2}$$

< 0 implies cavitation

Surface Tension and Capillary Effects

Two non-mixing fluids (e.g., a liquid and a gas) will form
an interface. The molecules below the interface act on each
other with forces equal in all directions, whereas the mole-
cules near the surface act on each other with increased
forces due to the absence of neighbors. That is, the inter-
face acts like a stretched membrane

F_σ = surface tension force

AIR

F_σ ← → F_σ

Interface

Near surface forces are increased due to absence of
neighbors such that surface is in tension σ per unit length

Away from interface
molecular forces are
equal in all directions

WATER
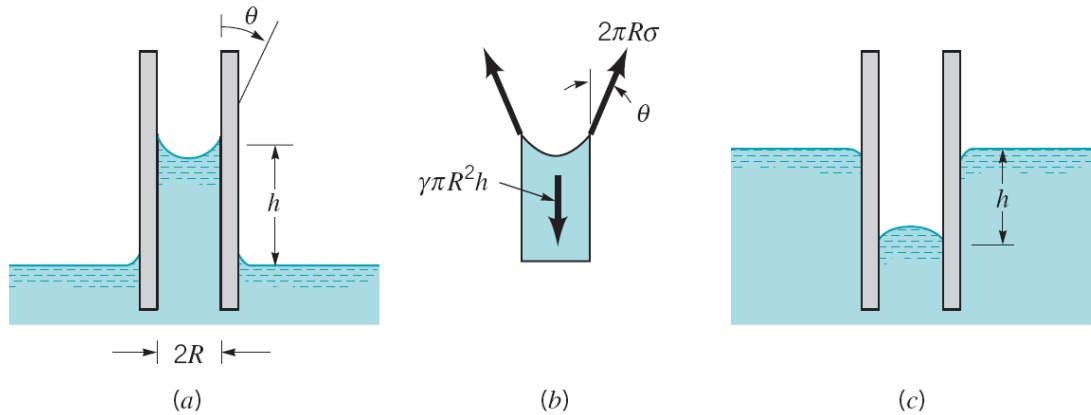
$\sigma_{air/water} = 0.073$ N/m
$F_\sigma = \sigma \times L =$ line force with direction normal to the cut
L = length of cut through the interface

Effects of surface tension:

Contact angle:

$\theta < 90^o$, Wetting
e.g., Water, $\theta \approx 0°$

$\theta > 90^o$, Non-wetting
e.g., Mercury, $\theta \approx 130°$

1. Capillary action in small tube (See page 21)

$$\Delta h = 4\sigma/\gamma d$$

2. Pressure difference across curved interface (See page 22)
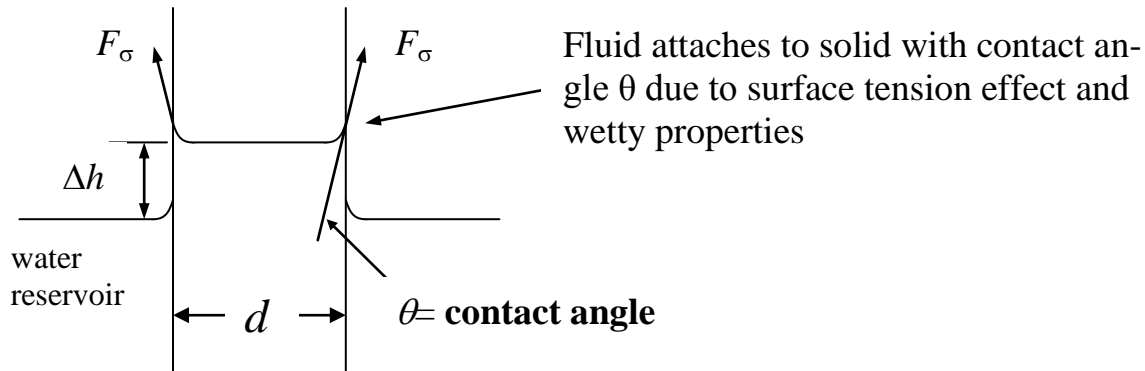
$$\Delta p = \sigma/R \qquad R = \text{radius of curvature}$$

3. Transformation of liquid jet into droplets

4. Binding of wetted granular material such as sand

5. Capillary waves: surface tension acts as restoring force
   resulting in interfacial waves called capillary waves

Capillary tube

F_σ F_σ Fluid attaches to solid with contact angle θ due to surface tension effect and wetty properties

Δh

water reservoir $\leftarrow\ d\ \rightarrow$ θ= **contact angle**

Example:

Capillary tube $d = 1.6\text{mm} = 0.0016\text{m}$

$F_\sigma = \sigma \times L$, L=length of contact line between fluid & solid

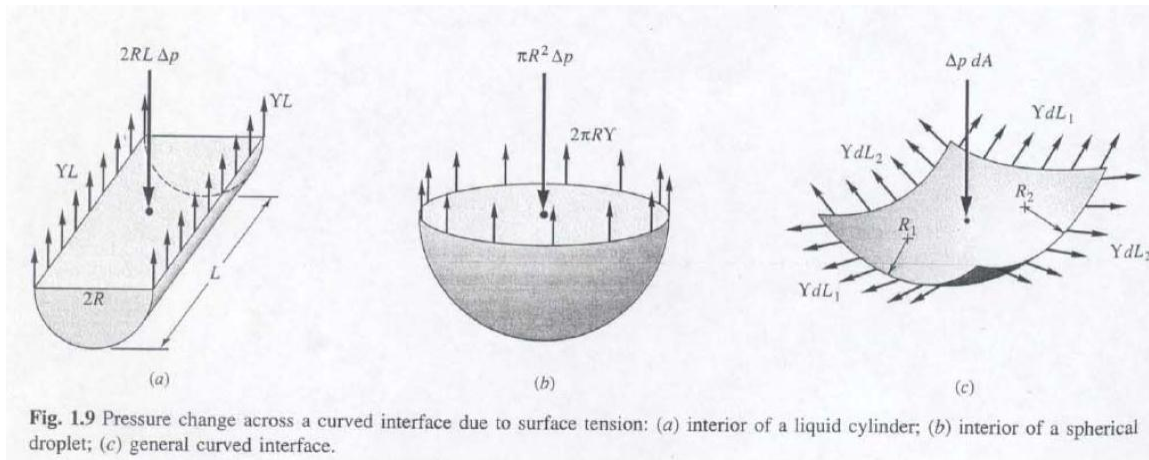water reservoir at 20° C, $\sigma = 0.073$ N/m, $\gamma = 9790$ N/m^3

$\Delta h = ?$

$\Sigma F_z = 0$

$F_{\sigma,z} - \cancel{W} = 0$

$\sigma \pi d \cos\theta - \rho g \cancel{V} = 0$ $\theta \sim 0° \Rightarrow \cos\theta = 1$

$\rho g = \gamma$

$\sigma \pi d - \gamma \Delta h \dfrac{\pi d^2}{4} = 0$ $\cancel{V} = \Delta h \dfrac{\pi d^2}{4}$ =Volume of fluid above reservoir

$\Delta h = \dfrac{4\sigma}{\gamma d} = 18.6mm$

Pressure jump across curved interfaces

Fig. 1.9 Pressure change across a curved interface due to surface tension: (*a*) interior of a liquid cylinder; (*b*) interior of a spherical droplet; (*c*) general curved interface.

(a) Cylindrical interface
Force Balance:

$$2\sigma L = 2(p_i - p_o)RL$$

$$\Delta p = \sigma/R$$

$p_i > p_o$, i.e. pressure is larger on concave vs. convex side of interface

(b) Spherical interface

$$2\pi R\sigma = \pi R2\Delta p \quad \rightarrow \quad \Delta p = 2\sigma/R$$

(c) General interface

$$\Delta p = \sigma(R_1^{-1} + R_2^{-1})$$
$$R_{1,2} = \text{principal radii of curvature}$$

A brief history of fluid mechanics

See textbook section 1.10.

Fluid Mechanics and Flow Classification

<u>Hydrodynamics:</u> flow of fluids for which density is constant such as liquids and low-speed gases. If in addition fluid properties are constant, temperature and heat transfer effects are uncoupled such that they can be treated separately.

Examples: hydraulics, low-speed aerodynamics, ship hydrodynamics, liquid and low-speed gas pipe systems

<u>Gas Dynamics:</u> flow of fluids for which density is variable such as high-speed gases. Temperature and heat transfer effects are coupled and must be treated concurrently.

Examples: high-speed aerodynamics, gas turbines, high-speed gas pipe systems, upper atmosphere