

# **ARYAN SCHOOL OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY**

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## **LECTURE NOTE**

**SUBJECT NAME- FLUID MECHANICS**

**BRANCH – MECHANICAL ENGINEERING**

**SEMESTER – 4<sup>TH</sup> SEM**

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# Properties of Fluid

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## Properties of Fluid:

- 1.1 Definition and Units of density, specific weight, specific gravity, specific volume.
- 1.2 Definition and Units of dynamic Viscosity, kinematic Viscosity, Surface tension, Capillary Phenomenon.

## Introduction of Fluid Mechanics and Hydraulic Machine:

Fluid Mechanics is that branch of Science which deals with the behaviour of the fluid [liquid or gases] at rest as well as in motion.

It is up off three types:-

i) Static Fluid ii) Dynamic Fluid. iii) Kinematic Fluid.

### 1. Fluid static:

The branch of Science deals with the static, kinematics and dynamic aspect of Fluid.

The study of Fluid at rest is called static Fluid.

### 2. Kinematic Fluid:

The study of Fluid in motion, where pressure force are not considered is called kinematic Fluid.

### 3. Dynamic Fluid:

The study of Fluid is in motion, where pressure force are considered is called dynamic Fluid.

## Properties of Fluid:

1. Mass density:— Mass density of a Fluid is defined as the ratio of the mass of the Fluid to its Volume.

$$\text{Mass density} = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Unit Volume of Fluid}}$$

It is denoted by the symbol  $\rho$  [rho]

Unit  $\rightarrow$   $\text{kg/m}^3$  In SI

The density of liquid may be considered as constant while that of gases changes with the variation of pressure and temperature.

Mathematically —

$$\text{Mass density } (\rho) = \frac{\text{Mass of Fluid}}{\text{Volume of Fluid}}$$

The value of density of water is  $1 \text{ gm/cm}^3$ . or  $1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$

2. Specific Weight or weight density —

Specific weight or weight density of a fluid is the ratio between the weight of a fluid to its volume.

$\rightarrow$  Thus weight per unit volume of a fluid is called weight density.

$\rightarrow$  denoted by the symbol "w".

Thus mathematically  $w = \frac{\text{Weight of the Fluid}}{\text{Volume of the Fluid}}$

$$= \frac{[\text{Mass of the Fluid}] \times [\text{Acceleration due to gravity}]}{\text{Volume of the Fluid}}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Mass of the Fluid} \times g}{\text{Volume of the Fluid}}$$

$$= \rho \cdot g$$

$$\boxed{w = \rho \cdot g}$$

The Value of Specific weight or weight density ( $w$ ) for water is  $9.81 \times 1000$  Newton/ $m^3$  in SI Units.

while  
nd temp.

### 3. Specific Volume:

Specific Volume of a Fluid is defined as the Volume of a Fluid occupied by a Unit mass or Volume per Unit mass of a Fluid is called specific Volume.

Mathematically —

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Specific Volume} &= \frac{\text{Volume of Fluid}}{\text{Mass of Fluid}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\frac{\text{Mass of Fluid}}{\text{Volm of Fluid}}} = \frac{1}{\rho}\end{aligned}$$

The Specific Volume is the reciprocal of mass density.

Unit —  $m^3/kg$ .

Notes: — It is commonly applied to gases.

### 4. Specific Gravity:

Specific gravity is defined as the ratio of the weight density of a fluid to the weight density of a standard fluid.

- For liquid, the standard fluid is taken water and for
- For gases, the standard fluid is taken as air.
- Specific gravity is also called relative density.
- dimensionless quantity.
- denoted by the symbol "S".

Mathematically:-

$$S[\text{For liquid}] = \frac{\text{Weight density of liquid}}{\text{Weight density of water.}}$$

$$S[\text{For gases}] = \frac{\text{Weight density of gas}}{\text{Weight density of air.}}$$

Thus weight density of a liquid =  $S \times$  weight density of water.

$$= S \times 9.81 \times 1000 \text{ N/m}^3.$$

$$\text{Density of liquid} = S \times \text{density of water}$$

$$= S \times 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

If the specific gravity of the fluid is known, then the density of the fluid will be equal to specific gravity of fluid multiplied by density of water.

Notes:- Specific gravity of mercury is 13.6

$$\text{Density of mercury is } 13.6 \times 1000 \\ = 13600 \text{ kg/m}^3.$$

Eg. 1 Calculate the specific weight, density and specific gravity of 1 Hrc of a liquid which weight 7N.

Sol<sup>n</sup> → Data given as —

$$\text{Volume } 1 \text{ Hrc} = \frac{1}{1000} \text{ m}^3.$$

$$\text{Weight } 7 \text{ N} =$$

∴ Specific Weight —

$$\frac{\text{Weight}}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{7 \text{ N}}{(1/1000) \text{ m}^3}$$

$$= 7000 \text{ N/m}^3$$

(111)

$$(ii) \text{ Density } (\rho) - \frac{w}{g} = \frac{7000}{9.81} \text{ kg/m}^3 = 713.5 \text{ kg/m}^3.$$

$$(iii) \text{ Specific gravity} = \frac{\text{Density of liquid}}{\text{Density of Water}} = \frac{713.5}{1000} = 0.713.$$

Eg.2 calculate the density, specific weight and weight of 1 litre of petrol of specific gravity 0.7.

Sol<sup>n</sup> → Data given as —

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Volume of petrol} &= 1 \text{ litre.} \\ &= 1 \times 1000 \text{ cm}^3 \\ &= \frac{1000}{10^6} \text{ m}^3 = 0.001 \text{ m}^3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Specific gravity } S = 0.7$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Density } (\rho) = S \times 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3 = 0.7 \times 1000 = 700 \text{ kg/m}^3.$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Specific weight } (w) = \rho \times g = 700 \times 9.81 = 6867 \text{ N/m}^3.$$

iii) Weight (W), we know that —

$$\text{Specific weight } (w) = \frac{\text{Weight}}{\text{Volume.}}$$

$$w = \frac{W}{0.001}$$

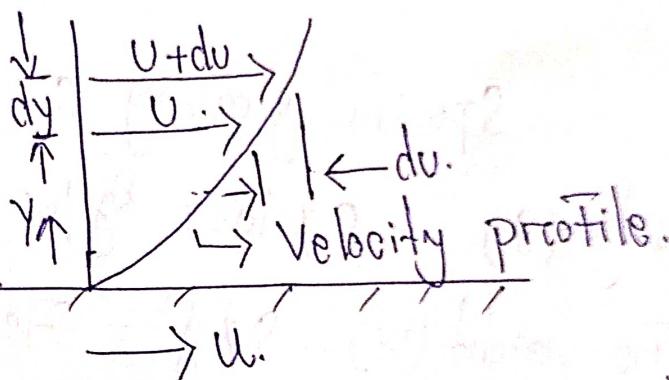
$$6867 = \frac{W}{0.001}$$

$$W = 6867 \times 0.001 = 6.867 \text{ N.}$$

## Viscosity:-

Viscosity is defined as the property of a fluid which offers resistance to the movement of one layer of fluid over another adjacent layer of the fluid. When two layers of a fluid a distance "dy" apart move one over the other at different velocities. say  $U$  and  $U + du$ .

→ The Viscosity together with relative velocity causes a shear stress acting betw the fluid layers.



[Velocity Variation near a Solid boundary]

→ The top layer Causes a shear stress on the adjacent lower layer while the lower layer Causes a shear stress on the adjacent top layer.

→ This shear stress is proportional to the rate of change of Velocity with respect to  $y$ .

→ It is denoted by the symbol  $\tau$  ( $\tau_{av}$ ).

Mathematically  $\tau \propto \frac{du}{dy}$ .

$$\tau = M \cdot \frac{du}{dy}$$

Whence  $M$  = Constant of proportionality, and is known as dynamic viscosity, or only Viscosity.

From equation We have —

$$M = \frac{C}{\left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right)}$$

Thus viscosity is also defined as the shear stress required to produce unit rate of shear strain.

Units of Viscosity: —

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \frac{\text{Shear stress}}{\left( \frac{\text{Change of Velocity}}{\text{Change of distance}} \right)} = \frac{\text{Force / Area}}{\left( \frac{\text{Length}}{\text{time}} \right) \times \frac{1}{\text{Length}}} \\ &= \frac{\text{Force} \times (\text{Length})^2}{\text{time}} = \frac{\text{Force} \times \text{time}}{(\text{Length})^2} \end{aligned}$$

- i) MKS Unit of Viscosity —  $\frac{\text{kgt-Sec}}{\text{m}^2}$
- ii) CGS Unit of Viscosity —  $\frac{\text{dyne-Sec}}{\text{cm}^2}$
- iii) SI Unit of Viscosity —  $\frac{\text{Newton-Sec}}{\text{m}^2} = \frac{\text{Ns}}{\text{m}^2}$

Notes: —

The unit of Viscosity in CGS is also called poise.

$$1 \text{ poise} = \frac{1 \text{ dyne-Sec}}{\text{cm}^2}$$

The numerical Conversion of the Unit of Viscosity From MKS Unit to CGS Unit is given below.

$$\text{One } \frac{\text{kgt-Sec}}{\text{m}^2} = \frac{9.81 \text{ N-Sec}}{\text{m}^2}$$

$$[1 \text{ kgt} = 9.81 \text{ N}]$$

$1 \text{ N} = 1 \text{ kg (Mass)} \times 1 (\text{m/s}^2) \text{ acceleration.}$

$$= \frac{1000 \text{ gm} \times 100 \text{ cm}}{\text{sec}^2} = 1000 \times 100 \frac{\text{gm-cm}}{\text{sec}^2}$$

$\therefore 1000 \times 100 \text{ dyne.}$

$$[\text{dyne} = \frac{\text{gm-cm}}{\text{sec}^2}]$$

$$\frac{1 \text{ kgt-Sec}}{\text{m}^2} = 9.81 \times 10,000 \frac{\text{dyne-Sec}}{\text{cm}^2}$$

$$= 9.81 \times 1000 \frac{\text{dyne-Sec}}{100 \times 100 \times \text{cm}^2}$$

$$= 98.1 \frac{\text{dyne-Sec}}{\text{cm}^2}$$

$$= 98.1 \text{ poise.}$$

Thus for solving numerical problems, IF Viscosity is given in poise, it must be divided by 98.1 to get its equivalent numerical value in MKS.

$$\text{One } \frac{\text{kgt-Sec}}{\text{m}^2} = \frac{9.81 \text{ Ns}}{\text{m}^2} = 98.1 \text{ poise.}$$

$$\text{One } \frac{\text{Ns}}{\text{m}^2} = \frac{98.1}{9.81} \text{ poise} = 10 \text{ poise.}$$

$$1 \text{ poise} = \frac{1}{10} \frac{\text{Ns}}{\text{m}^2}$$

Notes: —

- i) In SI, Unit Second is represented by "S" and Not "Sec".
- ii) If Viscosity is given in poise, it must be divided by 10 to get its equivalent numerical value in SI Units.

Sometimes a unit of Viscosity as centipoise is used where

$$1 \text{ centipoise} = \frac{1}{100} \text{ poise.}$$

$$1 \text{ c.p.} = \frac{1}{100} \text{ P}$$

The viscosity of water at 20°C is 0.01 poise or 1.0 Centipoise.

### Kinematic Viscosity:

It is defined as the ratio, betn the dynamic Viscosity and density of fluid.

→ It is denoted by the greek symbol " $\nu$ " called "nu".

$$\text{Mathematically} - \nu = \frac{\text{Viscosity}}{\text{Density}} = \frac{M}{S}$$

Thus Units of kinematic viscosity is obtained as: —

$$\begin{aligned}\nu &= \frac{\text{Units of } M}{\text{Units of } S} = \frac{\text{Force} \times \text{Time}}{(\text{Length})^2 \times \frac{\text{Mass}}{(\text{Length})^3}} \\ &= \frac{\text{Force} \times \text{time}}{\text{Mass} / \text{Length.}} = \frac{\text{Mass} \times \frac{\text{Length}}{(\text{time})^2} \times \text{time}}{(\text{length})^2} \\ &= \frac{(\text{Length})^2 / \text{Time.}}{[\text{Mass} / \text{Length}]}\end{aligned}$$

In MKS and SI, the unit of kinematic Viscosity is

$$(\text{Metre})^2$$

C.G.S Unit  $\rightarrow \text{cm}^2/\text{Sec.}$

Notes:-

\* In C.G.S units, kinematic Viscosity is also known as stoke.

$$\text{Thus One stoke} = \text{cm}^2/\text{s} = \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^2 \text{m}^2/\text{s} \\ = 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2/\text{s.}$$

$$\text{Centistoke means } = \frac{1}{100} \text{ stokes.}$$

### Surface Tension and Capillarity:

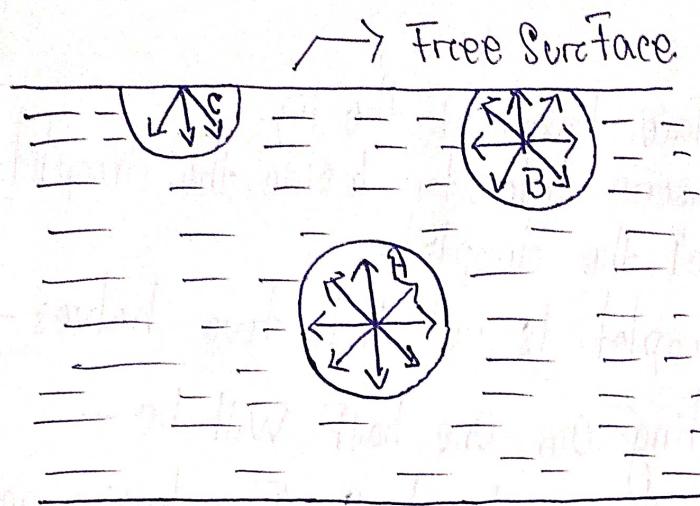
Surface tension is defined as the tensile force acting on the surface of the liquid in contact with a gas or on the surface betn two immiscible liquids such that the contact surface behaves like a membrane under tension.

→ The magnitude of this force per unit length of the free surface will have the same value as the surface energy per unit area.

→ It is denoted by the greek letter " $\sigma$ ".

Units - In MKS  $\rightarrow \text{kgf/mtrc.}$

In SI  $\rightarrow \text{N/mtrc.}$



- Consider three molecules A, B, C of a lig. In a mass of lig.
- The molecule A is attracted in all directions equally by the surrounding molecules of the lig.
- Thus the resultant force acting on the molecule A is zero.
- Molecule 'B' which is situated near the Free Surface is acted upon by upward and downward forces which are Unbalanced.
- A net resultant force on molecule "B" is acting in the downward direction.
- The molecule 'C' situated on the Free Surface of lig does experience a resultant downward force.
- All the molecules on the Free Surface experienced a downward force.
- Thus the Free Surface of the lig acts like a very thin film under tension of the surface of the lig act as though it is an elastic membrane under tension.

### Surface tension on lig. Droplet:-

Consider a small spherical droplet of a lig of radius "r". On the entire surface of the droplet, the tensile forces due to surface tension will be acting.

Let  $\sigma$  = Surface tension of the liq.

P = Pressure Intensity Inside the droplet.

d = dia of the droplet.

Let the droplet is cut into two halves —

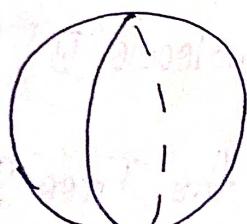
The forces acting on one half will be —

(i) Tensile force due to surface tension, acting around the circumference of the cut portion.

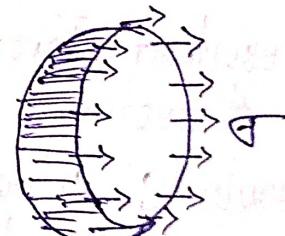
$$\begin{aligned} &= \sigma \times \text{Circumference} \\ &= \sigma \times \pi d. \end{aligned}$$

(ii) pressure force on the area —

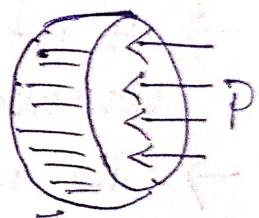
$$\frac{\pi}{4} d^2 = P \times \frac{\pi}{4} d^2$$



[Droplet]



[Surface tension]



[Pressure force]

These two forces will be equal & opposite Under equilibrium Condition.

$$P \times \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 = \sigma \times \pi d.$$

$$P = \frac{\sigma \times \pi d}{\frac{\pi}{4} d^2} = \frac{4\sigma}{d}.$$

Surface tension in a hollow bubble:—

A hollow bubble like a soap bubble in air has two surfaces in contact with air. One inside and other outside.

Thus two surfaces are subjected to surface tension.

$$P \times \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 = 2 \times (\sigma \times \pi d)$$

$$P = \frac{2 \times \sigma \times \pi d}{\frac{\pi}{4} d^2} = \frac{8\sigma}{d}$$

Surface tension on a liquid jet:— [Stream of fluid that is projected into a surrounding medium]  
Consider a liquid jet of diameter "d" and length "L".

Let  $p$  = pre intensity inside the liquid jet above the outside pressure.

$\sigma$  = Surface tension of the liquid.

Consider the equilibrium of the semi-jet, we have —

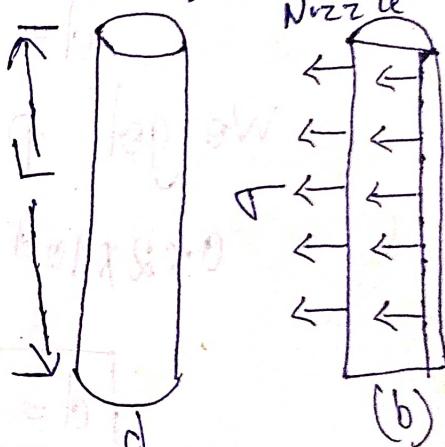
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Force due to } p_{\text{ext}} &= P \times \text{area of semi-jet} \\ &= P \times L \times d. \end{aligned}$$

Force due to Surface tension =  $\sigma \times 2L$

Equating the force,

$$P \times L \times d = \sigma \times 2L$$

$$P = \frac{\sigma \times 2L}{L \times d}$$



Eg.1 The surface tension of water in contact with air at  $20^\circ\text{C}$  is  $0.0725 \text{ N/m}$ . The prc inside a droplet of water is found to be  $0.02 \text{ N/cm}^2$ , greater than the outside prc. Calculate the diameter of the droplet of water.

Sol<sup>n</sup> → Data given as —

$$\text{Surface tension } (\sigma) = 0.0725 \text{ N/m.}$$

Pressure Intensity  $P$  in excess of outside pressure is —

$$P = 0.02 \text{ N/cm}^2 = 0.02 \times 10^4 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}^2}$$

$d$  = dia of the droplet.

$$\text{We get } P = \frac{4\sigma}{d}$$

$$0.02 \times 10^4 = \frac{4 \times 0.0725}{d}$$

$$d = 1.45 \text{ mm.}$$

Eg.2 Find the Surface Tension in a soap bubble of  $40 \text{ mm}$  diameter when the inside pressure is  $2.5 \text{ N/m}^2$  above atmospheric pressure.

Sol<sup>n</sup> → Data given as —

$$\text{dia of bubble } d = 40 \text{ mm} = 40 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

$$\text{pressure in excess of outside } P = 2.5 \text{ N/m}^2$$

For a soap bubble, using eqn. We get —

$$P = \frac{8\sigma}{d}$$

$$2.5 = \frac{8 \times \sigma}{40 \times 10^{-3}} \Rightarrow \sigma = \frac{2.5 \times 40 \times 10^{-3}}{8} \text{ N/m.}$$

$$= 0.0125 \text{ N/m.}$$

Eg.3 The prc outside the droplet of water of dia 0.04 mm is 10.32 N/cm<sup>2</sup>. Calculate the prc within the droplet if surface tension is given as 0.0725 N/m of water.

Sol<sup>n</sup> → Data given as —

dia of the droplet —  $d = 0.04 \text{ mm} = 0.04 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m.}$

pressure outside the droplet = 10.32 N/cm<sup>2</sup>.

Surface tension.  $\sigma = 0.0725 \text{ N/m.}$

The prc inside the droplet, In excess of outside prc is given by eqn.

$$P = \frac{4\sigma}{d} = \frac{4 \times 0.0725}{0.04 \times 10^{-3}} = 7250 \text{ N/m}^2.$$

$$\therefore P_{\text{inside}} = \frac{7250}{10^4 \text{ cm}^2} = 0.725 \text{ N/cm}^2.$$

pressure inside the droplet —

$$= P + \text{prc. outside the droplet.}$$

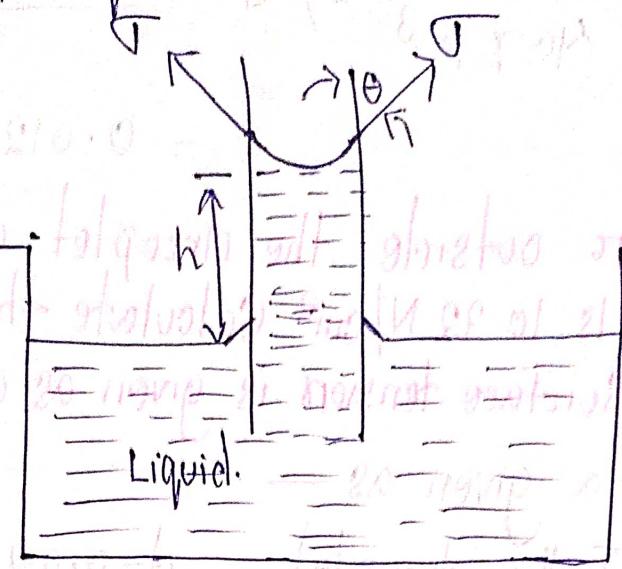
$$= 0.725 + 10.32$$

$$= 11.045 \text{ N/cm}^2.$$

Capillarity: —

→ Capillarity is defined as a phenomenon of rise or fall of a liq. Surface in a small tube relative to the adjacent general level of liq. when the tube is held

Vertically in liq.



The rise of liq. Surface is known as capillary rise while the fall of the liq. Surface is known as capillary depression.

- Unit - cm or mm of liq. lift shear sig. diff.
- Its value depends upon the specific weight of the liq.,  
i) diameter of the tube.  $\propto \frac{1}{D}$
- ii) Surface tension of the liq.

Assignment:

- i) what is mass and weight density.
- ii) what do you mean by FMM and its classification.
- iii) what is specific volume.
- iv) what is specific gravity.

v) what is Viscosity.

vi) what is kinematic Viscosity.

vii) what is Surface tension.

viii) what is Capillarity.

## Chapter - 11 Fluid Pressure & Its measurement

Syllabus: —

2.1 Definition and Units of Fluid pressure, density and pres head.

Fluid pressure = Intensity of fluid

Surface Pres = Weight of fluid

Volume Pres = Weight of fluid

Fluid pres at a point: —

Consider a small area  $dA$  in large mass of fluid.

→ If the fluid is stationary then the force exerted by the surrounding fluid on the area  $dA$  will always be perpendicular to the surface  $dA$ .

→ Let "dF" is the force acting on the area  $dA$  in the normal direction.

→ Then the ratio of  $dF/dA$  is known as the intensity of pres

→ It is represented by "P".

$$P = \frac{dF}{dA}$$

If the force is uniformly distributed over the area.

(A) Then pres at any point is given by —

$$P = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{\text{Force}}{\text{Area}}$$

Force or pres Force  $\Rightarrow F = P \times A$

## Units of pressure -

- 1)  $\text{kgF/m}^2$  and  $\text{kgF/cm}^2$  — M.K.S.
- 2)  $\text{N/m}^2$  or  $\text{Newton/m}^2$  — SI

$\text{N/m}^2$  is known as pascal represented by "Pa"

$$1 \text{ kPa} = 1 \text{ kilo pascal} = 1000 \text{ N/m}^2.$$

$$1 \text{ bar} = 100 \text{ kPa} = 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2.$$

Q.1 A hydraulic press has a ram of 30 cm diameter and a plunger of 4.5 cm diameter. Find the weight lifted by the hydraulic press when the force applied at the plunger is 500 N.

Solution → Data given as —

$$\text{dia of ram} = D = 30 \text{ cm} = 0.3 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{dia of plunger} d = 4.5 \text{ cm} = 0.045 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Force on plunger } F = 500 \text{ N.}$$

$$\text{Weight} = W$$

$$\text{Area of ram} = A = \frac{\pi}{4} D^2 = \frac{\pi}{4} (0.3)^2 = 0.0706 \text{ m}^2$$

$$\text{Area of plunger} a = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 = \frac{\pi}{4} (0.045)^2 = 0.00159 \text{ m}^2$$

$$\text{Prc Intensity due to plunger} = \frac{\text{Force of plunger}}{\text{Area of plunger}} \\ = \frac{500}{0.00159} \text{ N/m}^2.$$

due to Pascal's law the intensity of prc will be equally transmitted in all direction.

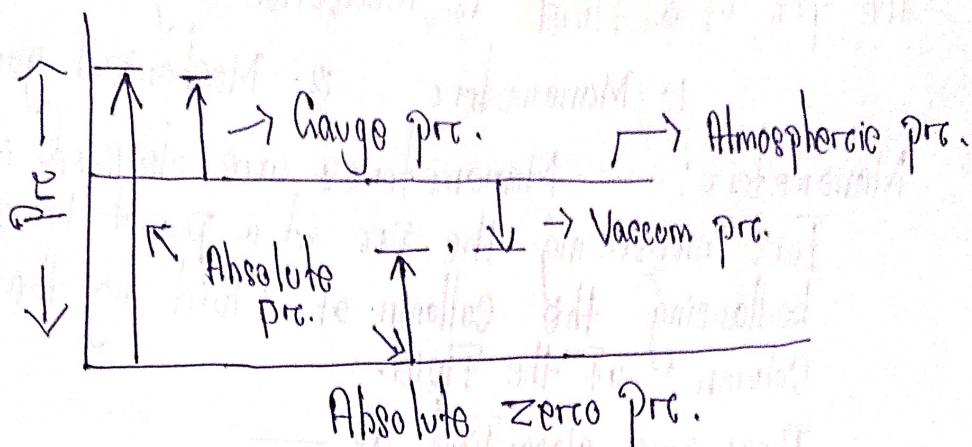
$$\text{Prc Intensity of ram} = \frac{500}{0.0159} = 314465.4 \text{ N/m}^2.$$

$$\text{Prc Intensity at ram} = \frac{Wt}{\text{Area of ram}} = \frac{W}{A} = \frac{W}{0.07068} \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$\frac{W}{0.07068} = 314465.4.$$

$$W = 22.222 \text{ kN.}$$

## Absolute, Gauge, atmospheric and Vacuum prc:



### i) Atmospheric prc:

The atmospheric air exerts a normal prc upon all surfaces with which it is in contact and known as atm prc.

### ii) Absolute prc:

It is defined as the prc which is measured with reference to absolute Vacuum prc. or absolute zero prc.

### iii) Gauge prc:

It is defined as the prc which is measured with the help of a prc measuring instrument in which the atm prc is taken as datum. The atm prc in the scale is marked as zero.

### iv) Vacuum prc:

It is defined as the prc below the atm prc.

Mathematically:—

$$\text{abs prc} = \text{atm prc} + \text{gauge prc.}$$

$$P_{\text{abs}} = P_{\text{atm}} + P_{\text{gauge.}}$$

$$\text{Vacuum prc} = \text{atm prc} - \text{abs prc.}$$

$$P_{\text{vacuum}} = P_{\text{atm}} - P_{\text{abs.}}$$

## Pressure measuring Instrument:

The prc of a fluid is measured by following devices -

Pie  
→

1. Manometers
2. Mechanical gauge.

1) Manometers: — Manometers are defined as the device for measuring the prc at a point in a fluid by balancing the column of fluid by the same another column of the fluid.

They are classified as —

- i) Simple Manometer.
- ii) Differential Manometer.

2) Mechanical gauge: — Mechanical gauges are defined as the device used for measuring the prc by balancing the fluid column by the spring or dead weight, common used mechanical prc gauges are —

- i) Diphagream prc gauge.
- ii) Bourdon tube prc gauge.
- iii) Dead Weight prc gauge.
- iv) Bellows prc gauge.

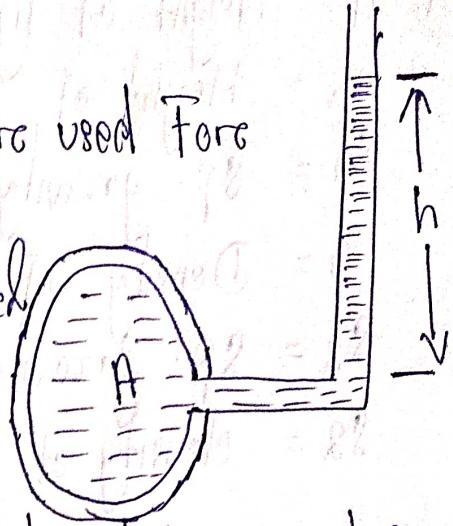
Simple Manometers: — A simple manometer of a glass tube has one of its ends connected to a point where prc is to be measured and other end remains open to atm.

Common type of Simple Manometers are —

- i) piezometers.
- ii) U-tube Manometers.
- iii) Single column Manometers.

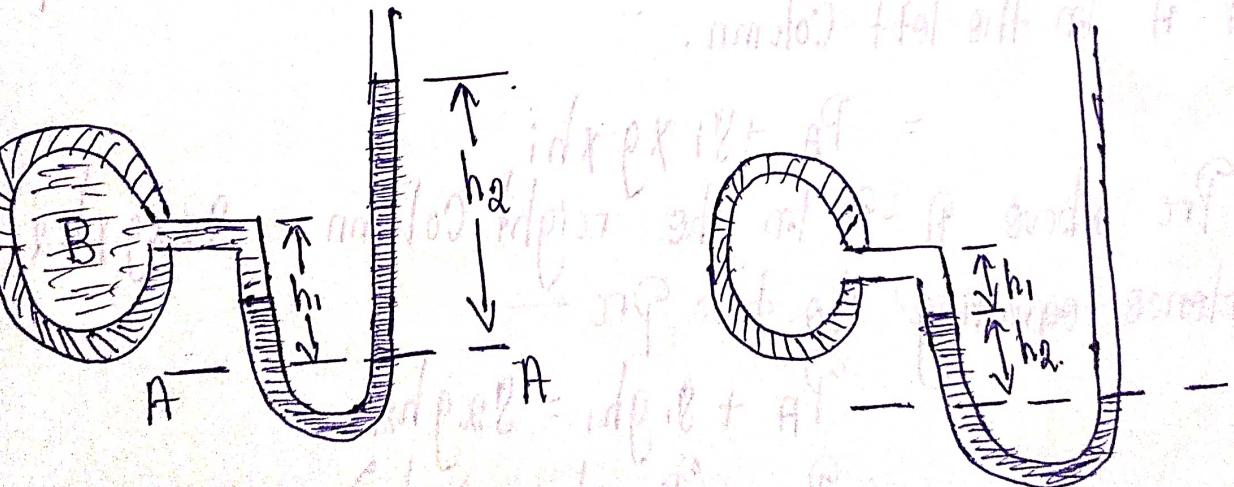
## Piezometer:

- It is the simple form of Manometers used for measuring gauge pressure.
- One end of the Manometer is connected to the point where pressure is to be measured and other end is open to the atm.
- The rise of liquid gives the pressure head at the point A.
- Then pressure at A



## U-tube Manometers:

It consists of glass tube bent in U-shape. One end of which is connected to a point at which pressure is to be measured and other end remains open to the atm.



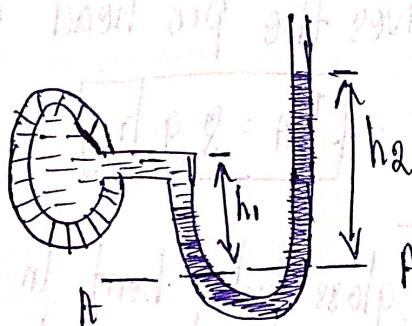
(a) Force gauge  $P_r$ :

(b) Force Vacuum  $P_r$ :

## (a) Force gauge $P_r$ :

Let be the point which is to be measured, whose value is  $P$ . The datum line is A-A'.

- $h_1$  = Height of light lig. above the datum line.  
 $h_2$  = Height of heavy lig. above the datum line.  
 $s_i$  = Sp. gravity of lig. light.  
 $s_i$  = Density of light lig. =  $1000 \times s_i$   
 $s_2$  = Sp. gravity of heavy water.  
 $s_2$  = density of heavy weight =  $1000 \times s_2$



(a) For gauge prc.

Pr is same in a horizontal surface. Hence prc above the horizontal datum Surface line A-A in the left Column and in right Column of U-tube manometers should be same prc above A-A in the left Column.

$$= P_A + s_i \times g \times h_1$$

Prc above A-A in the right Column =  $s_2 \times g \times h_2$ .

Hence equating the two prc —

$$P_A + s_i g h_1 = s_2 g h_2$$

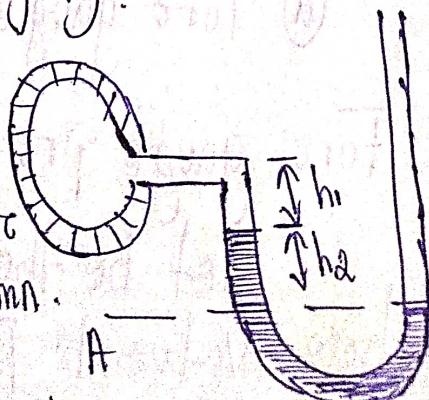
$$P_A = (s_2 g h_2 - s_i g h_1)$$

(b) For Vacuum Prc:

For measuring Vacuum Prc the level of the heavy lig. In the manometer. Then prc above A-A in the left Column.

$$s_2 g h_2 + s_i g h_1 + P_A$$

Prc head in the right Column above A-A



Pr<sub>c</sub> above A-A in the left column —

$$\rho g h_2 + \rho_1 g h_1 + P$$

Pr<sub>c</sub> head in the right column above A-A = 0

$$\rho g h_2 + \rho_1 g h_1 + P = 0$$

$$P = -[\rho g h_2 + \rho_1 g h_1]$$

- Q. The right limb of a simple U-tube manometer containing mercury is open to the atmosphere while the left limb is connected to a pipe in which a fluid of sp gr 1.80.g. The centre of the pipe is 12 cm below the level of mercury in the right limb. Find the prc of Fluid in the pipe if difference of mercury level in the two limbs is 20 cm.

Sol<sup>n</sup> → Data given as —

$$sp\ g\ ravity\ of\ fluid\ S_1 = 0.9\ g/cm^3$$

$$Density\ of\ fluid = S_1 = 0.9 \times 1000$$

$$= 0.9 \times 1000$$

$$= 900\ kg/m^3$$

$$sp\ g\ r\ of\ mercury = 13.6\ g/cm^3$$

$$Density\ of\ mercury = S_2 = 13.6 \times 1000 = 13600\ kg/m^3$$

Difference of mercury level  $h_2 = 20\ cm = 0.2\ m$ .

Height of Fluid from A-A  $h_1 = 20 - 12 = 8\ cm = 0.08\ m$ .

Let  $P = Pr_c$  of Fluid in Pipe.

Equating the above prc. we get —

$$P + \rho_1 g h_1 = \rho g h_2$$

$$P + 900 \times 9.81 \times 0.08 = 13.6 \times 1000 \times 9.81 \times 0.2$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P &= (13.6 \times 1000 \times 9.81 \times 0.2) - (900 \times 9.81 \times 0.08) \\
 &= 25977 \text{ N/m}^2 \\
 &= 2.597 \text{ N/cm}^2. \quad \underline{\text{Ans}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Q.2

### Assignment:

A small U-tube manometer containing mercury is connected to a pipe in which fluid of sp. gr. 0.8, and having vacuum  $P_{rc}$  is flowing. The other end of the manometer is open to atm. Find the vacuum  $P_{rc}$  in pipe, if the difference of mercury level in the two limbs is 40 cm and the height of fluid in the left from centre of pipe is 15 cm below.

### Single column Manometers:

Single column Manometers is a modified form of U-tube manometers. In which a reservoir having a large cross-sectional area.

- Due to large cross sectional area of the reservoir, for any variation of  $P_{rc}$  the change in the liquid level in the reservoir will be very small which may be neglected and hence the  $P_{rc}$  is given by the height of liquid in the other limb.
- The other limb may be vertical or inclined.
- Thus there are two types of Single column Manometers-
  - 1) Vertical Single column Manometers.
  - 2) Inclined Single column Manometers.

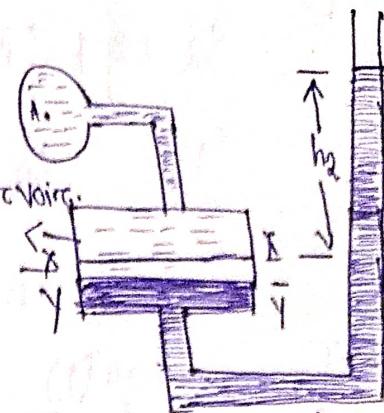
## → Vertical Single column Manometers: —

### Vertical Single column Manometers

Let  $x-x$  be the datum line in the reservoir and if the right limb of the manometer. When it is not connected to the pipe.

→ When the manometer is connected to the pipe, due to high  $P_A$  at A. the heavy lig. in the reservoir will be

pushed downward and will rise in right limb.



[Vertical Single Column Manometer]

$Ah_2$  = Fall of heavy lig. in reservoir.

$h_2$  = Rise of heavy lig. in right limb.

$h_1$  = Height of Centre of pipe above  $x-x$ .

$P_A$  =  $P$  at A, which is to be measured.

$A$  = Cross-sectional area of the reservoir.

$a$  = Cross-sectional area of the light limb.

$S_1$  = Sp. gravity of lig. in pipe.

$S_2$  = Sp. gravity of heavy lig. in reservoir & right limb.

$\rho_1$  = Density of lig. in pipe.

$\rho_2$  = density of lig. in reservoir.

Fall of heavy lig. in reservoir will cause a rise of heavy lig. level in the right limb.

$$A \times Ah = \alpha h_2.$$

$$\boxed{Ah = \frac{\alpha h_2}{A}} - (1)$$

Now Consider the datum line Y-Y as shown in Fig.

Then  $P$  in the right limb above Y-Y =  $\rho_2 \times g \times CAh + h_2$

$P$  above the left limb above Y-Y =  $\rho_1 \times g \times CAh + h_1$ ) fr

Equating these pr we have: —

$$S_A \times g \times (Ah + h_2) = S_1 \times g \times (Ah + h_1) + P_A$$

$$P_A = S_A g (Ah + h_2) - S_1 g (Ah + h_1)$$

$$= Ah [S_A g - S_1 g] + h_2 S_A g + h_1 S_1 g.$$

but From eqn(1)

$$Ah = \frac{\alpha h_2}{A}$$

$$P_A = \frac{\alpha h_2}{A} [S_A g - S_1 g] + h_2 S_A g - h_1 S_1 g.$$

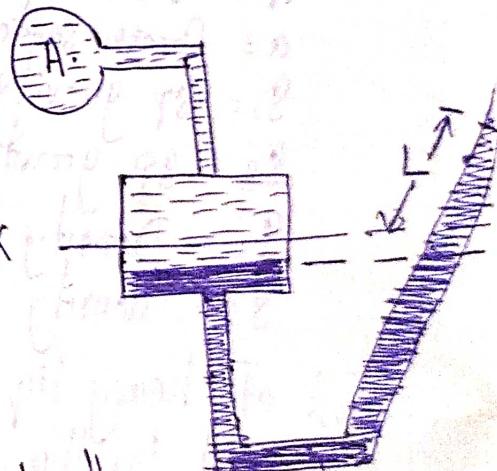
As the area  $A$  is very large as compared to a hemispherical ratio  $\alpha/A$  becomes very small and can be neglected!

$$\boxed{P_A = h_2 S_A g - h_1 S_1 g}$$

Inclined Single Column Manometers:

Inclined Single Column Manometers is more sensitive.

→ Due to Inclination the distance moved by the heavy lig. in the right limb will be more.



Let  $L$  = Length of heavy lig. moved in the right limb.

$\theta$  = Inclination of right limb with horizontal.

$h_2$  = Vertical rise of heavy lig. in right limb from  $= L \sin \theta$ .

From the eqn the pr at A —

$$P_A = h_2 S_A g - h_1 S_1 g.$$

Substituting the value of  $h_2$  we get.

Q.1 A Single Column Manometer Is Connected to a pipe Containing a lig of sp. grs 0.9. Find the prc In the pipe IF the area of the reservoir is 100 times the area of the tube For the manometers reading . The sp gr of mercury is 13.6.

Solution → Data given as —

$$S_1 = 0.9.$$

$$S_2 = 13.6 \text{ kg/m}^3.$$

$$S_2 = 13.6$$

$$S_2 = 13.6 \times 1000.$$

Density  $\frac{A}{A}$

$$\frac{\text{Area of reservoir}}{\text{Area of the right limb}} = \frac{A}{A} = 100.$$

Height of the lig  $h_1 = 20 \text{ c.m.} = 0.2 \text{ m.}$

Rise of mercury in the right limb  $= h_2 = 40 \text{ c.m.} = 0.4 \text{ m.}$

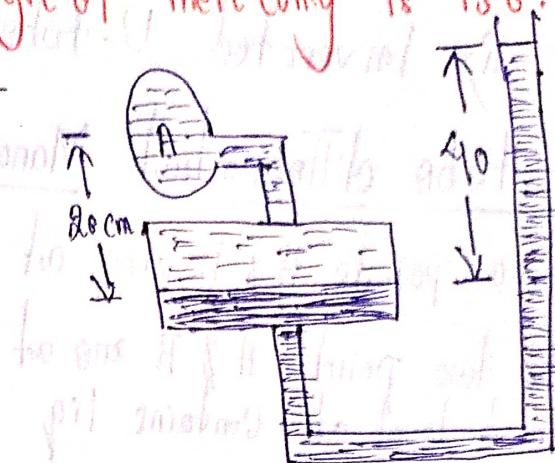
Using eqn we get —  $P_A = \text{prc in Pipe.}$

$$\begin{aligned} P_A &= \frac{a}{A} h_2 [S_2 g - S_1 g] + h_2 S_2 g - h_1 S_1 g \\ &= \frac{1}{100} \times 0.4 [13600 \times 9.81 - 900 \times 9.81] + 0.4 \times 13600 \times 9.81 \\ &= 52184 \text{ N/m}^2 \\ &= 5.21 \text{ N/cm}^2. \end{aligned}$$

### Differential Manometer:

Differential Manometers are the device used for measuring the difference of prc betn two points in a pipe or in two different pipes.

→ A differential manometer consists of a U-tube containing a heavy lig whose two ends are connected to the points.



whose difference of pressure is to be measured.  
Most commonly types of differential manometers: —

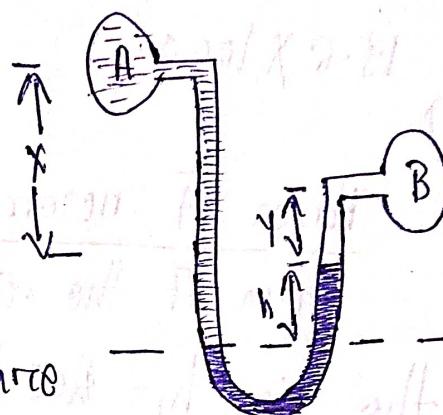
i) U-tube differential manometer.

ii) Inverted U-tube differential Manometer.

➤ U-tube differential Manometer: —

Two points A & B are at different level —

Let the two points A & B are at different level also contains liquid of different sp. gr.



→ These points are connected to the U-tube differential manometer.

→ Let the pressure at points A & B are

$$P_A \text{ & } P_B$$

Let  $h$  = difference of mercury level in the U-tube.

$y$  = distance of the centre of B from the mercury level in the right limb.

$s_1$  = density of liquid at A.

$s_2$  = " " " at B.

$s_g$  = " " heavy liquid are mercury.

Taking elastum line at X-X.

Pressure above X-X in the limb =  $s_1 g(h+x) + P_A$

When pressure  $P_A$  = Pressure at A.

Pressure above X-X in the right limb =  $s_g x g h + s_2 x g y + P_B$

Whereas pressure  $P_B$  = Pressure at B.

Equating the two pressures, we have —

$$s_1 g(h+x) + P_A = s_g x g h + s_2 x g y + P_B$$

$$P_A - P_B = s_g x g h + s_2 x g y + P_B$$

$$= h \times g [s_2 - s_1] + s_2 g y - s_1 g x.$$

Difference of  $P_{\text{at}}$  at A & B -

$$h \times g [s_2 - s_1] + s_2 g y - s_1 g x.$$

Two points A & B are at same level

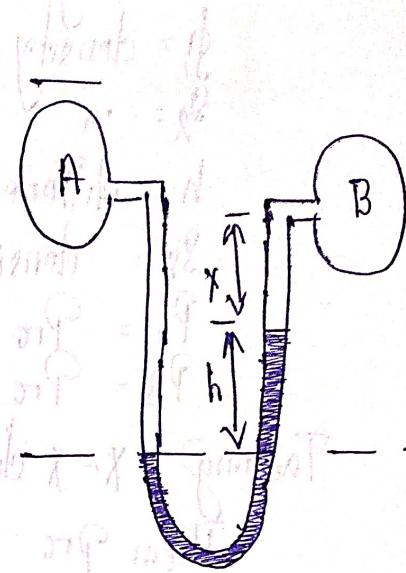
In the given Fig A & B are the same level and contains the same liq. of density  $s_1$ .

$P_{\text{at}}$  above x-x in right limb -

$$s_2 g x h + s_1 g x x + P_B$$

$P_{\text{at}}$  above x-x in left limb -

$$P_A \times g x (Ch+x) + P_A$$



Equating the two  $P_{\text{at}}$ :

$$s_2 g x h + s_1 g x x + P_B = P_A \times g x (Ch+x) + P_A$$

$$P_A - P_B = s_2 g x h + P_A g x - P_A g x (Ch+x)$$

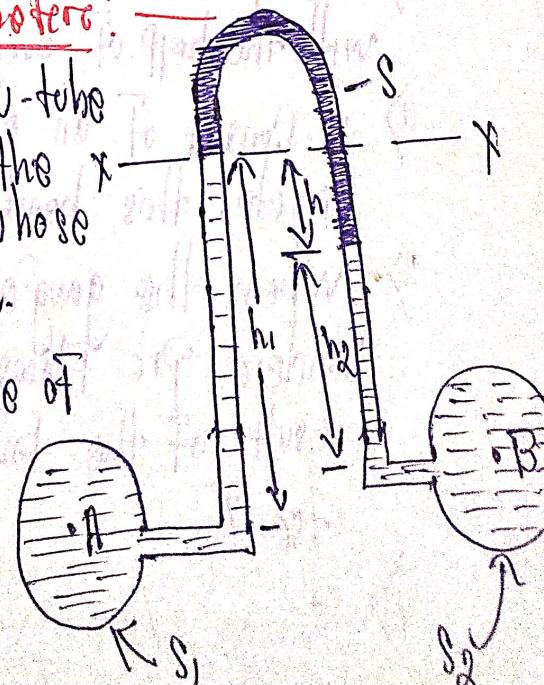
$$= g x h (P_B - P_A)$$

### Inverted V-tube differential Manometer

It consists of an inverted U-tube containing a light liq. The two ends of the V-tube are connected to the points whose difference of  $P_{\text{at}}$  is to be measured.

→ It is used for measuring difference of low  $P_{\text{at}}$ .

→ Inverted V-tube manometer connected to the point A & B.



→ Inverted U-tube manometers connected to the points A & B

Let the  $P_{rc}$  at A is more than the  $P_{rc}$  at B.

Let  $h_1$  = Height of liquid in the left limb below datum line X-X.

$h_2$  = Height of liquid in the right limb.

$\rho_1$  = density of liquid at A;

$\rho_2$  = " " " " B.

$h$  = difference of height liquid.

$S_s$  = density of liquid.

$P_A$  =  $P_{rc}$  at A.

$P_B$  =  $P_{rc}$  at B.

Taking X-X datum line:

Then  $P_{rc}$  in the left limb below X-X =  $P_A - S_1 g h_1$

" " " right " " X-X =  $P_B - S_2 g h_2 - S_3 g h$

Equating the two  $P_{rc}$

$P_A - S_1 g h_1 = P_B - S_2 g h_2 - S_3 g h$

$P_A - P_B = S_1 g h_1 - S_2 g h_2 - S_3 g h$

Burden tube  $P_{rc}$  gauge:

1) The  $P_{rc}$  above or below the atm  $P_{rc}$  may be easily measured with the help of burden tube  $P_{rc}$  gauge.

2) It consists of an elliptical tube ABC bent into an arc of a circle. this bent up tube is called burden tube.

3) When the gauge tube is connected to the C, the fluid under  $P_{rc}$  flows into the tube of the burden tube as a result of the increased  $P_{rc}$  tube tends to straighten itself.

4) Since the tube is increased in a circular cover therefore it tends to straighten itself.

$$\frac{P_A - P_B}{S_0 g} = X \left[ \frac{S_h}{S_0} - 1 \right]$$

$$h = X \left[ \frac{S_h}{S_0} - 1 \right]$$

Case-II. If the differential manometer contains a liquid lighter than the liquid flowing through the pipe.

Where  $S_1 = \text{sp. gravity of lighter liquid in V-tube manometer}$ .

$S_0 = \text{" " fluid flowing through in V-tube "}$ .

$X = \text{difference of lighter liquid columns in V-tube}$ .

The value of  $h$  is given by — 
$$h = X \left[ 1 - \frac{S_1}{S_0} \right]$$

Case-III → Inclined Venturi meter with differential V-tube manometer.

Let the differential manometer contains heavier liquid.

Then  $h$  is given as —

$$h = \left[ \frac{P_1}{Sg} + z_1 \right] - \left[ \frac{P_2}{Sg} + z_2 \right] = X \cdot \left[ \frac{S_h}{S_0} - 1 \right]$$

Case-IV — Similarly for inclined Venturi meter in which differential manometer contains a liquid which is lighter than the liquid flowing through the pipe. Then —

$$h = \left[ \frac{P_1}{Sg} + z_1 \right] - \left[ \frac{P_2}{Sg} + z_2 \right]$$

$$h = X \left[ 1 - S_1 / S_0 \right]$$

### Limitations:

1) Bernoulli's eqn has been derived under the assumption that no external force except the gravity force is acting on the liquid. But in actual practice some external forces always act on the liquid when effect the flow of liquid.

2) If the liquid is flowing in a curved path the energy due to Centrifugal force should also be taken into account.

Pitot-tube: — It is a device used for measuring the Velocity of fluid at any point in a pipe or a channel.

→ It is based on the principle that if the velocity flow at a point becomes zero, the P.E. there is increased due to conversion of the kinetic energy into P.E. energy.

The pitot tube consists of a glass tube bent at right angles. Considering two points 1 & 2 at the same level, such as stage 2 & 1, the inlet of pitot-tube and 1 is the far away from tube.

Let  $P_1 = \text{P.E. at point 1.}$

$V_1 = \text{Vel. of Fluid at point 1.}$

$P_2 = \text{P.E. at point 2.}$

$V_2 = \text{Vel. of Fluid at point 2.}$

$H = \text{Depth of tube in the liquid.}$

$h = \text{Rise of the liquid in the tube above Free Surface.}$

Applying Bernoulli's theorem

$$\frac{P_1}{\rho g} + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} + z_1 = \frac{P_2}{\rho g} + \frac{V_2^2}{2g} + z_2$$

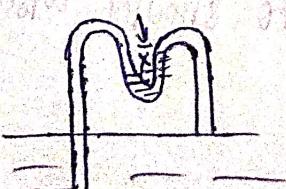
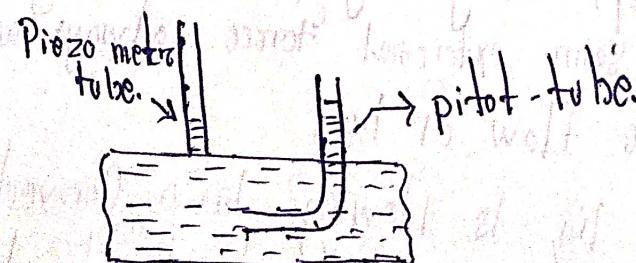
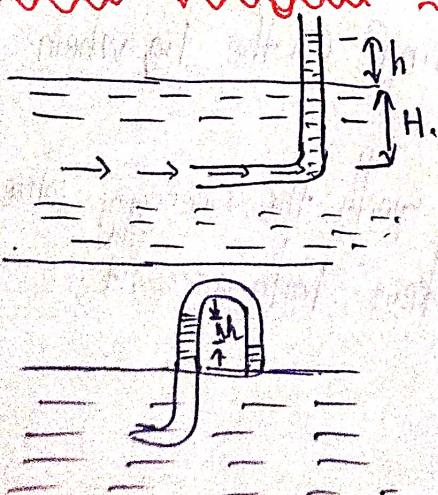
$$H_1 + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} + z_1 = h + H_2$$

$$V_1 = \sqrt{2gh}$$

Actual Velocity

$$V_{act} = C_V \sqrt{2gh}, \text{ where } C_V = \text{Coefficient of pitot.}$$

Different arrangement of pitot-tube:



(7)

Eg.1 Water is flowing through a pipe of 5cm dia under prc of 29.43 N/cm² and with mean velocity 2m/s. Find the total head or total prc energy per unit weight of the water at a cross-section which is 5m above the datum line.

Sol<sup>n</sup> → Data given as: —

$$\text{dia of pipe (d)} = 5\text{cm} = 0.05\text{m}$$

$$\text{Pressure } P = 29.43 \text{ N/cm}^2 = 29.43 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$\text{Velocity (v)} = 2 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\text{Datum head } z = 5\text{m}$$

$$\text{Total head} = \text{Prc head} + \text{kinetic head} + \text{datum head}$$

$$= \frac{P}{\rho g} + \frac{V^2}{2g} + z$$

$$= \frac{29.43 \times 10^4}{1000 \times 9.81} + \frac{2^2}{2 \times 9.81} + 5$$

$$= 35.204 \text{ m}$$

Eg.2 The water is flowing through a pipe having diameter 20 cm & 10 cm at sec 1 & 2 respectively. The rate of flow through pipe is 35 lit/s. The section 1 is 6m above datum and sec 2 is 4m above datum. If the prc at sec 1 is 39.24 N/cm². Find the Intensity of prc. at section 2.

Sol<sup>n</sup> → At section 1 →  $P_1 = 39.24 \text{ N/cm}^2$ ,  $D_1 = 20 \text{ cm}$ .

$$D_1 = 20 \text{ cm} = 0.2 \text{ m}$$

$$A_1 = \frac{\pi}{4} (0.2)^2 = 0.0314 \text{ m}^2$$

$$P_1 = 39.24 \text{ N/cm}^2$$

$$z_1 = 6 \text{ m}$$

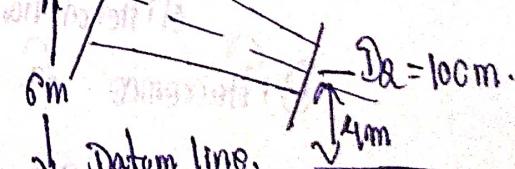
At section - 2.  $D_2 = 0.1 \text{ m}$ ,

$$A_2 = \frac{\pi}{4} (0.1)^2 = 0.00785 \text{ m}^2$$

$$z_2 = 4 \text{ m}$$

$$P_2 = ?$$

Rate of Flow  $Q = 35 \text{ lit/s.} = 35 \text{ } \mu \text{m}^3/\text{s}$



Now,  $Q = A_1 V_1 = A_2 V_2$ .

$$V_1 = \frac{Q}{A_1} = \frac{0.35}{0.0314} = 1.114 \text{ m/s.}$$

$$V_2 = \frac{Q}{A_2} = \frac{0.035}{0.00785} = 4.456 \text{ m/s.}$$

Applying Bernoulli's eqn at Section 1 & 2, we get —

$$\frac{P_1}{\rho g} + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} + Z_1 = \frac{P_2}{\rho g} + \frac{V_2^2}{2g} + Z_2.$$

$$\frac{39.84 \times 10^4}{1000 \times 9.81} + \frac{(1.114)^2}{2 \times 9.81} + 0 = \frac{P_2}{1000 \times 9.81} + \frac{(4.456)^2}{2 \times 9.81} + 4.$$

$$P_2 = 40.27 \text{ N/cm}^2$$

Eg. 3. A horizontal Venturi meter with inlet and throat diameters 10 cm and 15 cm respectively is used to measure the flow of water. The reading of differential manometer connected to the inlet & throat is 20 cm of mercury. Determine the rate of flow. Take  $C_d = 0.98$ .

Soln → Data given as: —

$$\text{dia of inlet } - d_1 = 30 \text{ cm.} = 0.3 \text{ m.}$$

$$a_1 = \frac{\pi}{4} (0.3)^2 = 706.85 \text{ cm}^2.$$

$$\text{dia of throat } - d_2 = 15 \text{ cm}$$

$$a_2 = \frac{\pi}{4} (15)^2 = 176.7 \text{ cm}^2.$$

$$C_d = 0.98.$$

differential manometer =  $x = 20 \text{ cm}$  of mercury.

Difference of pressure head  $h = x \left[ \frac{s_h}{s_o} - 1 \right]$

$$s_h = \text{sp gravity of mercury} = 13.6$$

$$s_o = \text{sp " " " water} = 1$$

$$h = s_o \left[ \frac{13.6}{1} - 1 \right] = 13.6 \times 12.6 = 252 \text{ cm of water.}$$

discharge through Venturi meter is given by eqn —

$$Q = C_d \frac{a_1 a_2}{\sqrt{a_1^2 - a_2^2}} \times \sqrt{2gh}$$

$$= 0.98 \frac{706.85 \times 176.7}{\sqrt{2 \times 9.81 \times 252}} = 125.$$

Orifices:— Orifice is a small opening of any cross-section [such as triangular, rectangular etc] on the side or at the bottom of a tank, through which a fluid is flowing.

→ It is used for measuring the rate of flow of fluid.

Applying Bernoulli's theorem at 1 & 2 —

$$\frac{P_1}{\rho g} + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} + z_1 = \frac{P_2}{\rho g} + \frac{V_2^2}{2g} + z_2, \quad H.O = 0 + \frac{V_2^2}{2g}, \quad V_2 = \sqrt{2gh}.$$

Orifice Coefficient:— The coefficients of orifice are —

1) Co. of Velocity  $C_v$ . 2) Co. of Contraction  $C_c$  3) Co. of discharge  $C_d$ .

1) Co. of Velocity  $C_v$  — it is defined as the ratio between the actual vel of a jet of liquid at Vena Contracta and the theoretical vel of jet.

→ denoted by  $C_v$ .

$$C_v = \frac{\text{Actual vel of jet at Vena-Contracta}}{\text{Theoretical velocity}} = \frac{V}{\sqrt{2gh}}$$

where  $V$  = actual vel.

$C_v$  = Co. of Vel.

$\sqrt{2gh}$  = theoretical vel.

$C_v$  ranges 0.95 to 0.99 for diff orifices depending on shape & size.

2) Co. of Contraction ( $C_c$ ) — it is defined as the ratio of the area of the jet at Vena-Contracta to the area of the orifice.

→ denoted by  $C_c$ .

$a$  = area of the orifice.

$a_c$  = area of the Vena-Contracta.  $C_c = \frac{a_c}{a}$

$$C_c = \frac{a_c}{a}$$

The value of  $C_c$  varies from 0.61 to 0.69 depending on shape & size of orifice.

Co. of discharge :— It is the ratio of actual discharge from an orifice to the theoretical discharge from the orifice.

→ denoted by  $C_d$ .

→ If  $Q$  is actual discharge &  $Q_t$  is theoretical discharge then.

$$C_d = \frac{Q_{act}}{Q_{th.}}$$

$$C_d = \frac{\text{act vel} \times \text{act area}}{\text{Th. vel} \times \text{Th. area.}}$$

$$C_d = C_v \cdot C_c$$

Range, 0.61 to 0.95 but for general purpose 0.62.

### Classification:

i) According to the size:

    i) Small orifice [if the head of liquid above the centre of orifice is more than 5 times the depth of orifice]

    ii) Large Orifice [if head is less than 5 times the depth of orifice]

ii) According to shape:

    1. Circular 2. Triangular 3. Rectangular 4. Square.

iii) According to the shape of upstream edge:

    i) Sharp edged orifice ii) Bell mounted orifice.

iv) According to nature of discharge:

1. Free discharge orifices

2. Drowned or submerged orifices —

    i) Partially submerged orifice ii) Fully submerged orifice.

### Orifice meter or Orifice plate:

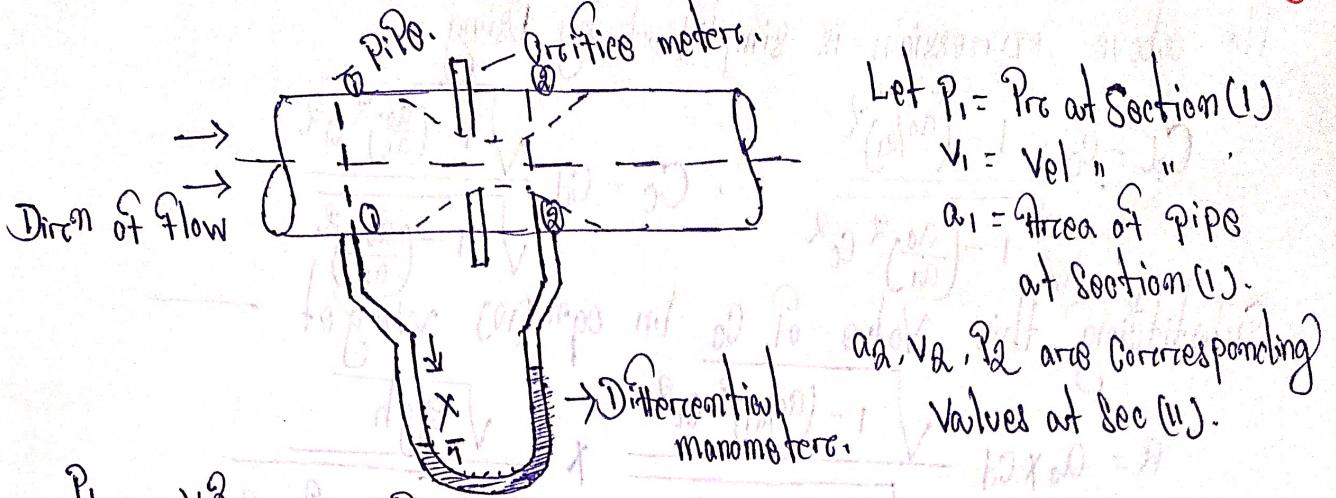
i) It is a device used for measuring the rate of flow of fluid through a pipe.

ii) It is cheaper as compared to Venturi meters.

iii) It also works on same principle with Venturi meters.

iv) It consists of a flat circular plate which has a sharp edge called orifice, which is concentric with the pipe.

v) The Orifice dia is kept generally 0.5 times the dia of pipe, though it may vary 0.4 to 0.8 times the pipe dia.



Let  $P_1$  = Pressure at Section (1)

$V_1 = V_{el}$

$a_1$  = Area of pipe  
at Section (1).

$a_2, V_2, P_2$  are Corresponding

Values at Sec (2).

$$\frac{P_1}{\rho g} + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} + z_1 = \frac{P_2}{\rho g} + \frac{V_2^2}{2g} + z_2.$$

$$\left[ \frac{P_1}{\rho g} + z_1 \right] - \left[ \frac{P_2}{\rho g} + z_2 \right] = \frac{V_2^2}{2g} - \frac{V_1^2}{2g}.$$

but  $\left[ \frac{P_1}{\rho g} + z_1 \right] - \left[ \frac{P_2}{\rho g} + z_2 \right] = h$ . = differential head.

$$h = \frac{V_2^2}{2g} - \frac{V_1^2}{2g} \quad \text{or} \quad 2gh = V_2^2 - V_1^2. \quad \text{or} \quad V_2 = \sqrt{2gh + V_1^2}. \quad (i)$$

Now Section (2) is at the Vena Contracta and  $a_2$  represents the area  
at the Vena Contracta.

If  $a_0$  is the area of orifice, then we have.  $C_C = \frac{a_2}{a_0}$ .

Whence  $C_C = C_o \cdot \text{of Contraction}$ .  $a_2 = a_0 \cdot C_C$  — (ii)

By Continuity eqn —  $a_1 V_1 = a_2 V_2$  or  $V_1 = \frac{a_2}{a_1} V_2 = \frac{a_0 C_C}{a_1} V_2$  — (iii)

Substituting the values of  $V_1$  in eqn (i) we get —

$$V_2 = \sqrt{2gh + \frac{a_0^2 C_C^2 V_2^2}{a_1^2}}$$

$$V_2^2 = 2gh + \left( \frac{a_0}{a_1} \right)^2 C_C^2 V_2^2$$

$$V_2^2 = \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{a_0}{a_1} \right)^2 C_C^2 \right] = 2gh$$

$$V_2 = \sqrt{2gh} / \sqrt{1 - \left( \frac{a_0}{a_1} \right)^2 C_C^2}$$

$$\text{Discharge } Q = V_2 \times a_2 = V_2 \times a_0 C_C = \frac{a_0 C_C \sqrt{2gh}}{\sqrt{1 - \left( \frac{a_0}{a_1} \right)^2 C_C^2}}$$

The above expression is simplified by Using -

$$C_d = C_c \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{a_0}{a_1}\right)^2}$$

$$\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{a_0}{a_1}\right)^2} C_c^2$$

$$C_c = C_d \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{a_0}{a_1}\right)^2}$$

$$\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{a_0}{a_1}\right)^2} C_c^2$$

Substituting this Value of  $C_c$  in eqn (w) we get -

$$Q = a_0 \times C_d \times \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{a_0}{a_1}\right)^2} C_c^2 \times \frac{\sqrt{2gh}}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{a_0}{a_1}\right)^2}}$$

$$= \frac{C_d a_0 \sqrt{2gh}}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{a_0}{a_1}\right)^2}}$$

$$= C_d a_0 a_1 \sqrt{2gh}$$

Notes → Where,  $C_d = \text{Coef. of discharge for Orifice meter.}$

The Value of  $C_d$  is less as Compared to Venturi meter.

# Flow through pipe chapters - 5

(13)

## Pipe:

Pipe is a closed Conduit, generally of Circular Cross-Section used to carry Water or any other fluid.

- When the pipe is running full, the flow is under pressure but if the pipe is not running full, the flow is under pressure [culverts Sewer pipes]

Loss of Fluid Friction: — The frictional resistance of a pipe depends upon the roughness of the inside surface of the pipe more the roughness more the resistance.

→ Friction is known as fluid friction and the resistance is known as frictional resistance.

## According to Darcy:

- i) Frictional resistance varies with sq. of the Velocity.
- ii) Frictional resistance varies with natural surface.
- iii) Among various laws, the Darcy - weisbach formula & chezy's formula.

## Loss of energy in pipes:

When a fluid is flowing through a pipe, the fluid experiences some resistance due to which some of energy is lost —

## which I had in form of Energy losses:

- i) Major Energy losses — Due to friction it is calculated by a darcy - weisbach formula pipe & chezy's formula.
- ii) Minor Energy losses — Due to sudden expansion of pipe.
  - iii) Sudden Contraction of pipe.
  - iv) Bend in pipe.
  - v) Pipe fittings etc.
  - vi) An obstruction of pipe.

Darcy - weisbach Formula: — The loss of head in pipes due to friction

Calculated by darcy weisbach eqn.

where  $h_f$  = loss of head due to friction.

$$h_f = \frac{4fV^2}{2gd}$$

F = Co. of friction [Function of Reynolds numbers]

$$= 16/\rho g \text{ For } Re < 2000 \text{ [Viscous Flow]}$$

$$= \frac{0.079}{Re^{1/4}} \text{ For } Re \text{ Varying From 1000 to 10^6}$$

$L$  = Length of the pipe.

$V$  = Mean vel of flow.

$D$  = dia of the pipe.

Chezy's formula:  $h_f = \frac{F^1}{88} \times \frac{P}{A} \times L \times V^2$

$h_f$  = loss of head due to friction.  $L$  = Length of pipe.

$P$  = wetted perimeter of pipe.  $V$  = Mean vel of flow.

$A$  = C.S area of pipe.

$$M = \frac{A}{P} = \frac{\text{area of flow}}{\text{perimeters.}}$$

$M = \frac{A}{P} = \frac{\pi d^2}{4}$

$R = \frac{d}{2}$  Hydraulic mean depth or hydraulic radius.

$$M = \frac{A}{P} = \frac{\pi d^2}{4}$$

$$\text{Substituting } \frac{\pi d}{A} = 1/M, \quad h_f = \frac{F^1}{8g} \times \frac{1}{M} \times L \times V^2$$

$$V^2 = h_f \times \frac{8g}{F^1} \times M \times \frac{1}{L}$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{F^1}{8g}} = C, \text{ where } C \text{ is Constant known as Chezy's Constant.}$$

$h_f/L = i$  loss of head per unit length.

Substituting  $V = C \sqrt{M i}$  Value of  $M$  is always  $d/4$ .

Hydraulic gradient line:  $\text{depth of submergence and elevation}$

- ▷ It is defined as the line which gives the sum of per head  $\frac{P}{w}$  & elevation head ( $z$ ).
- ▷ If a flowing fluid along a pipe w.r.t the reference line or if the line which is obtained by joining of the top of the vertical coordinate showing per head ( $P/w$ ) of a flowing fluid in a pipe from the centre of the pipe.
- ▷ It is briefly written as H.R.L.

Total Energy line: —

- ▷ It is defined as the line which gives the sum of per head, datum head & kinetic head of a flowing fluid w.r.t to some reference line or it is the line which obtained by joining the tops of all vertical coordinates showing sum of  $\frac{P}{w}$ ,  $z$  &  $\frac{V^2}{2g}$ .

Intra  
pla  
Var

In

# Impact of Jets

## Chapter-6

(15)

Introduction — Impact of jet means the force exerted by the jet on a plate which may be stationary or moving.

Various Cases of Impact of Jet are—

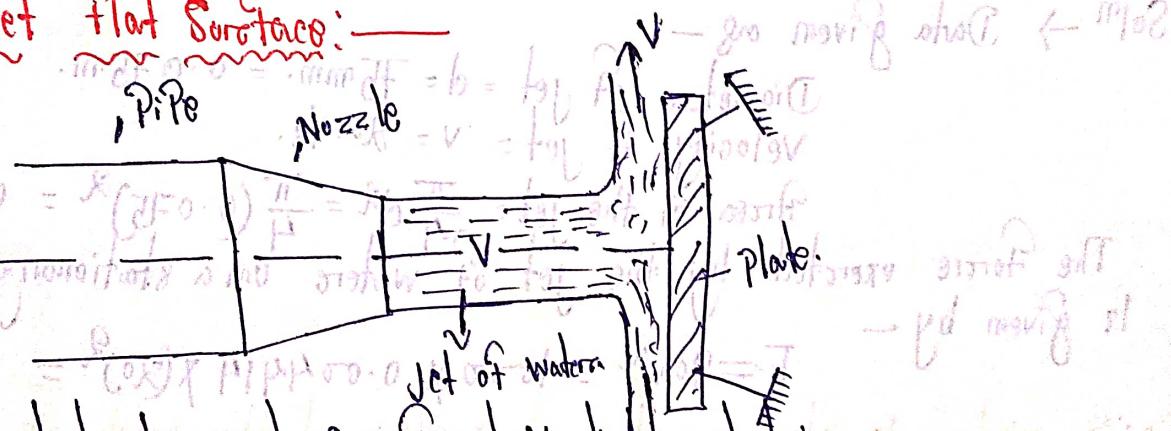
1. Force exerted by the jet on a stationary plate when—

- i) Plate is vertical to the jet.
- ii) Plate is inclined to the jet.
- iii) Plate is curved.

2. Force exerted by the jet on a moving plate when—

- i) Plate is vertical to the jet.
- ii) Plate is inclined to the jet.
- iii) Plate is curved.

Impact of Jet Flat Surface:



Force exerted by jet on fixed vertical plate:

Consider a jet of water coming out from the nozzle strikes a flat vertical plate —

Let  $V$  = Vel of the jet.

$d$  = dia of the jet.

$a$  = area of cross-section of the jet =  $\frac{\pi}{4} d^2$ .

As the plate is fixed, the jet after striking will get deflected through  $90^\circ$ .

Hence the component of the vel of jet in the dirn of jet after striking will be zero.

$F_x$  = Rate of change of momentum in the dirn of forces —

Initial momentum — Final Momentum

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{\text{mass} \times \text{initial vel} - \text{mass} \times \text{final vel}}{\text{Time}} \\
 &= \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{Time}} [\text{initial vel} - \text{final vel}] \\
 &= \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{sec}} [\text{vel of jet before striking} - \text{vel of jet after striking}] \\
 &= S_{av} [v - 0] \\
 &= S_{av} v
 \end{aligned}$$

**Note:** — In the above eqn Initial Vel minus Final Vel is taken as due to force by the jet on the plate is calculated if force exerted on this jet is to be calculated then Final Vel is taken.

**Ex.1** Find the force exerted by a jet of water of dia 75 mm on a stationary flat plate when the jet strikes the plate normally with a vel of 20 m/s.

Soln → Data given as —

$$\text{Diameter of jet} = d = 75 \text{ mm.} = 0.075 \text{ m.}$$

$$\text{Velocity of jet} = v = 20 \text{ m/s.}$$

$$\text{Area of the jet} = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 = \frac{\pi}{4} (0.075)^2 = 0.004414 \text{ m}^2.$$

The force exerted by the jet of water on a stationary vertical plate is given by —

$$F = S_{av} A = 1000 \times 0.004414 \times (20)^2 = 1766.8 \text{ N.}$$

**Ex.2** Water is flowing through a pipe at the end of which a nozzle is fitted the dia of the nozzle is 100 mm. and the head of the water the centre of nozzle from the centre of pipe is 100 m. Find the net force exerted by this jet on a fixed vertical plate. The Co. of Vel is 0.95.

Soln → Data given as: —

$$\text{Diameter of nozzle} = d = 100 \text{ mm.} = 0.1 \text{ m.}$$

$$\text{Head of water} H = 100 \text{ m.}$$

$$\text{Co. of Vel } C_v = 0.95.$$

$$\text{Area of nozzle} (A) = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 = \frac{\pi}{4} (0.1)^2 = 0.007854 \text{ m}^2.$$

Theoretical Vel of jet of water is given as  $V_{th} = \sqrt{2gH}$ .

$$= \sqrt{2 \times 9.81 \times 100} = 44.294 \text{ m/s.}$$

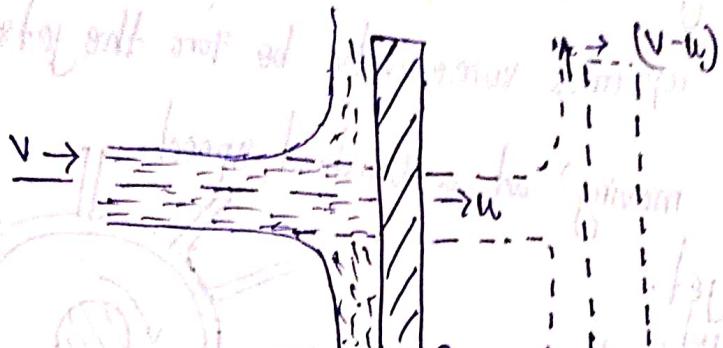
But  $C_v = \frac{\text{actual vel}}{\text{theoretical vel}}$

Actual Vel of jet of water ( $v$ ) =  $C_v \times V_{.11}$

Force exerted on a fixed vertical plate is given by —

$$F = 8av^2 = 1000 \times 0.07854 \times (12.08)^2 = 13907.2 \text{ N} = 13.9072 \text{ kN.}$$

Impact of jet on moving plate



Jet striking a flat vertical plate : —

Consider a jet of water striking a flat plate moving with a uniform vel away from the jet

Let  $V$  = Vel of the jet.

$a$  = Area of cross-section of the jet.

$u$  = Uniform vel of flat plate.

In this case the jet strikes the plate with a rel velocity which is equal to the abs vel of jet of water minus the vel of the plate.

Hence rel vel of the jet with respect to plate =  $a \times [V - u]$ .

Mass of water striking the plate per sec —

$$= a \times \text{Area of the jet} \times \text{Velocity} = a \times [V - u]$$

Force exerted by the jet on the moving flat plate in the dirn of motion of jet —

$$F_x = \text{Mass of water striking/sec} \times [\text{Initial Vel} - \text{Final Vel}]$$

$$= a[V - u][C_v(V - u) - 0] = a[V - u]^2 [Final Vel \text{ in the dirn of jet is zero.}]$$

In this case the work will be done by the jet on plates as the plate is moving. Work done per sec by the jet on the plate —

$$= \text{Force} \times \frac{\text{distance in the dirn of force}}{\text{time}}$$

$$= F_x \times V$$

$$= a[V - u]^2 \times u$$

Q. If flat plate work done is zero

Jet strikes a series of plates: — In this case a large no of flat plates are mounted on the rim of a wheel fixed distance apart.

→ The jet strikes a plate and due to the force exerted by the jet on the wheel starts moving and the next plate mounted on the wheel app before the jet. which again exerts the force on next plate.

Thus each plate appears successively to feel the jets the jet force on each plate.

The wheel starts moving at a constant speed.

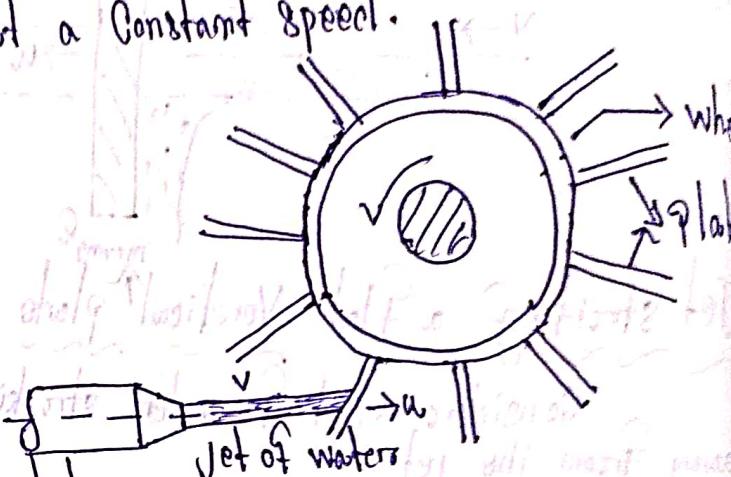
Let

$v$  = Vel of the jet.

$D$  = dia of the jet.

$A$  = Area of Cross-section.

$u$  = Vel of plate



In this Case the mass of water coming out from nozzle per sec

Sec is always in Connect with the plates when all the plates are Considered.

→ Hence mass of water/sec =  $8av$ .

The jet strikes the plate with  $\{ \text{Vel} = v-u \}$

This Force exerted by the jet in the direction of the motion of plate

$$F_x = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{Time}} [\text{Initial Vel} - \text{Final Vel}]$$

$$= 8av [(v-u) - 0]$$

$$= 8av [v-u]$$

Workdone per second by the jet on the series of the plates per sec

$$= F \times u = 8av [v-u] u$$

Kinetic energy of the jet per second  $\rightarrow \frac{1}{2} mv^2 = \frac{1}{2} (8av) v^2$

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Workdone/sec}}{\text{kinetic energy/sec.}}$$

$$= \frac{8av (v-u) u}{\frac{1}{2} 8av^2} = 2u(v-u) / v^2$$

Condition for max efficiency - For a given jet velocity  $v$ , the efficiency will be max. when.

$$\frac{d\eta}{dv} = 0, \Rightarrow d\left[\frac{\eta v^2 C(v-u)}{v^2}\right] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow d\left[\frac{2uvv - u^2}{v^2}\right] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2v - 4u}{v^2} = 0 \Rightarrow 2v = 4u \Rightarrow u = v/2$$

$$\Rightarrow v = 2u \Rightarrow \boxed{U = v/2}$$

Maximum

Efficiency:

Substituting the value of  $v = 2u$ .

We get max efficiency as  $\eta_{max} = 2u[2u-u]/(2u)^2 = \frac{1}{2} = 50\%$ .

Impact of jet on a moving curved plate when jet strikes tangentially at one of the tips:-

Consider a jet of water striking a moving curved vane tangentially at one of its tips.

In this case as plate is moving, the vel with which jet of plate is equal to the rel. vel of the jet w.r.t. the plate.

Let  $V_1$  = vel of the jet at inlet.

$U_1$  = vel " " plate "

$V_{rel}$  = rel vel of the jet & plate at inlet.

$\alpha$  = guide blade angle.

$\theta$  = vane angle made by rel vel  $V_{rel}$  with the dirn of motion

$V_w$  &  $V_f$  = components of  $V_1$  in the dirn of motion & perpendicular

to the dirn of motion of vane respectively.

$V_w$  = whrl vel at inlet.

$V_f$  = vel at inlet.

$V_2$  = vel of jet at outlet.

$V_3$  = vel of plate at outlet.

$V_{rel}$  = rel vel of jet at outlet.

$\beta$  = angle made by vel  $V_2$  with dirn of motion of vane at outlet.

$\phi$  = Vane angle at outlet.

$V_{WA}$  = Vel of whirel and outlet.

$V_{PA}$  = Vel at outlet.

The triangle ABD & EAH are called the vel triangle at inlet & outlet.  
If the vane is smooth & having vel in the dir<sup>n</sup> of motion at inlet & outlet equal we have —

$$V_1 = V_2 = U, \quad V_{rc1} = V_{rc2}$$

Now, Mass of water striking vane per sec

Where  $a$  = Area of the jet.

$$V_{rc1} = \text{Rel vel at inlet}$$

Forces exerted by the jet in the dir<sup>n</sup> of motion —

$$F_x = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{Time}} [\text{Initial Vel - Final Vel}]$$

But initial vel with which jet strikes the vane =  $V_{rc1}$ .

The component of this vel in the dir<sup>n</sup> of motion =  $V_{rc1} \cos \theta = (V_{w1} - U_1)$

Similarly the component of rel vel  $V_{rc2}$  at outlet in the dir<sup>n</sup> of motion

$$= -V_{rc2} \cos \phi = -[U_2 + V_{w2}] \quad [-\text{ve sign is taken as } V_{rc2} \text{ in opposite dirn}]$$

Substituting these values in the above eq<sup>n</sup> —

$$F_x = 8a V_{rc1} [(V_{w1} - U_1) - (U_2 + V_{w2})]$$

$$= 8a V_{rc1} [V_{w1} - U_1 + U_2 - V_{w2}]$$

$$= a V_{rc1} [V_{w1} + V_{w2}]$$

This eq<sup>n</sup> is true only when  $B$  is acute when

$$B = 90^\circ, V_{w2} = 0, F_x = a V_{rc1} [V_{w1}]$$

When  $B > 90^\circ$  (obtuse)  $F_x = a V_{rc1} [V_{w1} - V_{w2}]$

In eq<sup>n</sup>  $F_x$  is written as  $F_x = a V_{rc1} [V_{w1} \pm V_{w2}]$

Work done / sec on the vane by the jet —

$$F_x \times u = 8a V_{rc1} [V_{w1} \pm V_{w2}] \times u$$

Work done / sec Unit weight of fluid striking / sec —

$$= \frac{8a V_{rc1} [V_{w1} \pm V_{w2}] \times u}{8a V_{rc1} \times g} = \frac{[V_{w1} \pm V_{w2}] \times u}{g}$$