PHYS 1P22/92 Prof. Barak Shoshany Spring 2024

12. Fluid Dynamics

12.1 Flow Rate and Its Relation to Velocity

• The (volumetric) flow rate *Q* is the volume of fluid passing through a surface per unit time:

$$Q \equiv \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta t}$$
, or just $Q \equiv \frac{V}{t}$

• If *A* is the cross-sectional area and a length *d* of fluid passes through in time *t* then

$$V = Ad \implies Q = \frac{V}{t} = \frac{Ad}{t}$$

• Let $\overline{v} \equiv d/t$ be the average fluid velocity, then:



- Consider an **incompressible** fluid flowing through a pipe with flow rate *Q*.
- Pop Quiz: Given $Q = A\overline{v}$, what happens when the cross-sectional area decreases?
- Answer: Since the flow rate *Q* must be constant:

$$Q_1 = Q_2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad A_1 \bar{v}_1 = A_2 \bar{v}_2$$

- This is called the continuity equation. If A decreases then \bar{v} must increase, and vice versa.
- Example: Flow through a nozzle.



- Problem: A nozzle with radius r_2 is attached to a garden hose with radius $r_1 > r_2$. The flow rate is Q. Calculate the speed of the water in the hose and nozzle.
- Solution: We have $A_1 = \pi r_1^2$ and $A_2 = \pi r_2^2$. Then





- Problem: Calculate the speeds if $r_2 \approx 0.250$ cm, $r_1 \approx 0.900$ cm, and $Q \approx 0.500$ L/s.
- Solution: $1 L = 10^{-3} m^3$, $1 cm = 10^{-2} m$, so:

$$\bar{v}_1 = \frac{Q}{\pi r_1^2} \approx \frac{0.5 \text{ L/s}}{\pi (0.9 \text{ cm})^2} = \frac{0.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3/\text{s}}{\pi (0.9 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m})^2} = \frac{0.5 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi \cdot (0.9 \times 10^{-2})^2} \frac{\text{m}^3/\text{s}}{\text{m}^2}$$

\$\approx 1.96 \text{ m/s}\$

$$\bar{v}_2 = \frac{Q}{\pi r_2^2} \approx \dots = \frac{0.5 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi \cdot (0.25 \times 10^{-2})^2} \frac{\text{m}^3/\text{s}}{\text{m}^2} \approx 25.5 \text{ m/s}$$



Speed vs. radius

• This is a general result: speed is inversely proportional to the square of the radius.

 $v \propto \frac{1}{r^2}$

• Example: Blowing a candle with open mouth vs. pursed lips.

Branching flow

- Sometimes the flow branches, e.g.: cardiovascular system.
- In this case, the continuity equation $A_1 \bar{v}_1 = A_2 \bar{v}_2$ applies for the sum of the flow rates:

 $n_1 A_1 \bar{v}_1 = n_2 A_2 \bar{v}_2$

 n₁ and n₂ are the number of branches on sides 1 and 2.



Problem: Blood flows through the large aorta and smaller capillaries. When the aorta flow rate is $Q_1 \approx 5.0$ L/min, the speed of blood in the capillaries is $\bar{v}_2 \approx 0.33$ mm/s. If the average diameter of a capillary is $D_2 \approx 8.0$ µm, calculate the number of capillaries in the blood circulatory system.

Solution:
$$n_1 = 1$$
 (only one aorta). From $n_1 A_1 \bar{v}_1 = n_2 A_2 \bar{v}_2$ and $Q_1 = A_1 \bar{v}_1$
 $n_2 = \frac{n_1 (A_1 \bar{v}_1)}{A_2 \bar{v}_2} = \frac{n_1 Q_1}{A_2 \bar{v}_2} \approx \frac{(1) \cdot (5.0 \text{ L/min})}{\pi \cdot (0.5 \cdot 8.0 \text{ µm})^2 \cdot 0.33 \text{ mm/s}}$
 $= \frac{(5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3/60 \text{ s})}{\pi \cdot (0.5 \cdot 8.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m})^2 \cdot 0.33 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m/s}}$
 $= \frac{5 \times 10^{-3}/60}{\pi \cdot (0.5 \cdot 8.0 \times 10^{-6})^2 \cdot 0.33 \times 10^{-3}} \frac{\text{m}^3/\text{s}}{\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{m/s}} \approx 5.0 \times 10^9$

12.2 Bernoulli's Equation

Fluid and energy

- We saw that if A decreases, \bar{v} increases. Where does the extra kinetic energy come from?
- Energy is conserved:

 $E_{\text{kinetic}} + E_{\text{potential}} = \text{constant}$

- If kinetic energy increases, potential energy must decrease.
- Pressure contributes to potential energy through work: W = Fx = PAx
- So pressure must decrease if velocity increases.

- Examples:
 - Shower curtain moves into shower. High-velocity stream inside shower creates lower pressure.
 - Car driving next to a truck is pulled toward it.



Bernoulli's equation

An incompressible, frictionless fluid with pressure *P*, density *ρ*, and velocity *v*, at height *h*, satisfies:

$$P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gh = \text{constant}$$

• This is actually just conservation of energy per unit volume:

$$\rho \equiv \frac{m}{V} \implies PV + \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + mgh = V(P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gh)$$

• $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ is kinetic energy, mgh is gravitational potential energy, and

$$\frac{V}{A} = x \implies PV = \frac{F}{A}V = Fx = W$$

Bernoulli's equation

• If we take a "snapshot" of the LHS at two points 1 and 2, we have:

$$P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho g h_1 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho g h_2$$

- Can be used to find quantities at 2 based on quantities at 1.
- Can rewrite in terms of **differences**:

$$(P_2 - P_1) + \frac{1}{2}\rho(v_2^2 - v_1^2) + \rho g(h_2 - h_1) = 0$$

• Sometimes one of the 3 terms vanishes. Let's see some examples.

Static fluid

• Start from
$$P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gh = \text{constant}$$

- For a static fluid v = 0, so: $P + \rho gh = \text{constant}$ or $P_1 + \rho gh_1 = P_2 + \rho gh_2$ or $P_1 - P_2 = \rho g(h_2 - h_1)$
- If $P_2 = 0$ and $h_2 h_1 = h$ we get the formula $P = \rho gh$ from ch. 11.



Constant depth

• Start from

$$P_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho g h_1 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho g h_2$$

• At constant depth $h_1 = h_2$, so terms cancel:

$$P_{1} + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_{1}^{2} = P_{2} + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_{2}^{2}$$

or $P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^{2} = \text{constant}$

• We see that if *v* increases, *P* must decrease, or vice versa.



• Air flows faster over the upper surface of a plane's wing, causing lower pressure and a net upward force or lift.

Warning! There is a common misconception that the speed difference is because the upper surface is longer. That is incorrect. The real reason is complicated and we won't cover it here.

• Sails work the same, except horizontally.



- A manometer can be used to measure velocity.
- The air entering tube 1 has nowhere to go, so it has speed $v_1 = 0$.
- The air at tube 2 just passes by with speed $v_2 > 0$, therefore lower pressure.
- From Bernoulli's equation: $P_1 P_2 = \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2$
- The pressure difference pushes the fluid up a height $h \propto \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2$, so $v_2 \propto \sqrt{\frac{2h}{\rho}}$.



12.3 The Most General Applications of Bernoulli's Equation

• Consider water flowing from the bottom of a dam. Apply Bernoulli's equation:

$$(P_2 - P_1) + \frac{1}{2}\rho(v_2^2 - v_1^2) + \rho g(h_2 - h_1) = 0$$

P₁ = P₂ because both must be atmospheric pressure (the fluid is out in the atmosphere, not inside a container):

$$\frac{1}{2}\rho(v_2^2 - v_1^2) + \rho g(h_2 - h_1) = 0$$

• Note that ρ cancels. Define $h \equiv h_1 - h_2$ and solve for v_2 :

 $v_2^2 = v_1^2 + 2gh$

• This is simply a kinematic equation for any object falling a distance *h*. In fluids, it is called Torricelli's theorem.





• Recall that **power** is energy (or work) per unit time:

$$\overline{P} \equiv \frac{\Delta E}{\Delta t}$$

- Both power and pressure are denoted P, don't confuse them! I'll use \overline{P} for power to avoid confusion, but it's not standard notation.
- In Bernoulli's equation, the terms are actually energy per unit volume:

$$P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gh = \frac{1}{V} \left(PV + \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + mgh \right) = \frac{E}{V} = \text{constant}$$

• Flow rate is $Q \equiv V/t$, so:

$$\overline{P} = \frac{E}{t} = \frac{E}{V}\frac{V}{t} = \left(P + \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gh\right)Q$$

• In other words: multiply Bernoulli's equation by *Q* to get the power.