MCE2121
ADVANCED FLUID MECHANICS

LECTURE NOTES

Module-IV

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Module IV

Design and Testing of Models: Design of an Experiment, Dimensional Analysis, Complete Set of Dimensionless Parameters, Dimensional Analysis, Scale effect, Distorted Models, Practical Significance of Key Modeling Parameters, Design of Models and Model Tests.

Diffusion: Equations of Fluid Dynamics for a Mixture of Fluids, Dispersion of Pollutants in a Fluid Medium, Coefficient of Mass Transfer.

Lecture Note 1

Dimensional Analysis

1.1 Introduction

In engineering and science, dimensional analysis is the analysis of the relationships between different physical quantities by identifying their base quantities (such as length, mass, time, and electric charge) and units of measure (such as miles vs. kilometers, or pounds vs. kilograms vs. grams) and tracking these dimensions as calculations or comparisons are performed. Converting from one dimensional unit to another is often somewhat complex. Dimensional analysis, or more specifically the factor-label method, also known as the unit-factor method, is a widely used technique for such conversions using the rules of algebra.

The concept of physical dimension was introduced by Joseph Fourier in 1822. Physical quantities that are of the same kind (also called commensurable) have the same dimension (length, time, mass) and can be directly compared to each other, even if they are originally expressed in differing units of measure (such as inches and meters, or pounds and Newton's). If physical quantities have different dimensions (such as length vs. mass), they cannot be expressed in terms of similar units and cannot be compared in quantity (also called incommensurable). For example, asking whether a kilogram is greater than, equal to, or less than an hour is meaningless.

Any physically meaningful equation (and likewise any inequality and in equation) will have the same dimensions on its left and right sides, a property known as dimensional homogeneity. Checking for dimensional homogeneity is a common application of dimensional analysis, serving as a plausibility check on derived equations and computations. It also serves as a guide and constraint in deriving equations that may describe a physical system in the absence of a more rigorous derivation.

Many practical flow problems of different nature can be solved by using equations and analytical procedures, as discussed in the previous modules. However, solutions of some real flow problems depend heavily on experimental data and the refinements in the analysis are made, based on the measurements. Sometimes, the experimental work in the laboratory is not only time-consuming, but also expensive. So, the dimensional analysis is an important tool that helps in correlating analytical results with experimental data for such unknown flow problems. Also, some dimensionless parameters and scaling laws can be framed in order to predict the prototype behavior from the measurements on the model. The important terms used in this module may be defined as below;

Dimensional Analysis: The systematic procedure of identifying the variables in a physical phenomena and correlating them to form a set of dimensionless group is known as dimensional analysis.

Dimensional Homogeneity: If an equation truly expresses a proper relationship among variables in a physical process, then it will be dimensionally homogeneous. The equations are correct for any system of units and consequently each group of terms in the equation must have the same dimensional representation. This is also known as the law of dimensional homogeneity.

Dimensional variables: These are the quantities, which actually vary during a given case and can be plotted against each other.

Dimensional constants: These are normally held constant during a given run. But, they may vary from case to case.

Pure constants: They have no dimensions, but, while performing the mathematical manipulation, they can arise.

Let us explain these terms from the following examples: -

Displacement of a free falling body is given as,

$$S = S_O + V_O t + \frac{1}{2} g t^2$$

where, V_0 is the initial velocity,

g is the acceleration due to gravity,

t is the time,

S and S_O are the final and initial distances, respectively. Each term in this equation has the dimension of length [L] and hence it is dimensionally homogeneous.

Here, S and t are the dimensional variables,

g, S_O , and V_O are the dimensional constants and 1/2 arises due to mathematical manipulation and is the pure constant.

- Bernoulli's equation for incompressible flow is written as,

$$\frac{p}{\rho} + \frac{1}{2} V^2 + gz = C$$

Here, p is the pressure, V is the velocity, z is the distance, ρ is the density and g is the acceleration due to gravity. In this case, the dimensional variables are pV z , and , the dimensional constants are g C , and ρ and 1/2 is the pure constant. Each term in this

equation including the constant has dimension of $[L^2T^{-2}]$and hence it is dimensionally homogeneous.

Buckingham pi Theorem

The dimensional analysis for the experimental data of unknown flow problems leads to some non-dimensional parameters. These dimensionless products are frequently referred as pi terms. Based on the concept of dimensional homogeneity, these dimensionless parameters may be grouped and expressed in functional forms. This idea was explored by the famous scientist Edgar Buckingham (1867-1940) and the theorem is named accordingly.

Buckingham pi theorem, states that if an equation involving k variables is dimensionally homogeneous, then it can be reduced to a relationship among (k−r) independent dimensionless products, where r is the minimum number of reference dimensions required to describe the variable. For a physical system, involving k variables, the functional relation of variables can be written mathematically as,

$y = f(x_1,x_2,\ldots\ldots x_k)$ ……………………………………………..(1)

In Eq. (1), it should be ensured that the dimensions of the variables on the left side of the equation are equal to the dimensions of any term on the right side of equation. Now, it is possible to rearrange the above equation into a set of dimensionless products (pi terms), so that

$\pi_1 = \varphi(\pi_2, \pi_3, \ldots \ldots . \pi_{k-r})$…………………………………………..(2)

Here, $\varphi(\pi_2, \pi_3, \ldots \ldots . \pi_{k-r})$is a function of π_2, through π_{k-r} . The required number of pi terms is less than the number of original reference variables by r . These reference dimensions are usually the basic dimensions ML T , and (Mass, Length and Time)

Determination of pi Terms

Several methods can be used to form dimensionless products or pi terms that arise in dimensional analysis. But, there is a systematic procedure called method of repeating variables that allows in deciding the dimensionless and independent pi terms. For a given problem, following distinct steps are followed. Step I: List out all the variables that are involved in the problem. The 'variable' is any quantity including dimensional and non-dimensional constants in a physical situation under investigation. Typically, these variables are those that are necessary to describe the "geometry" of the system (diameter, length etc.), to define fluid properties (density, viscosity etc.) and to indicate the external effects influencing the system (force, pressure etc.). All the variables must be independent in nature so as to minimize the number of variables

required to describe the complete system. Step II: Express each variable in terms of basic dimensions. Typically, for fluid mechanics problems, the basic dimensions will be either ML T , and or FL T , and .

Dimensionally, these two sets are related through Newton's second law (F =ma) so that

F= MLT^{-2} = e.g. ρ= ML^{-3} or ρ =FL^{-4} T^2 = It should be noted that these basic dimensions should not be mixed.

Step III: Decide the required number of pi terms. It can be determined by using Buckingham pi theorem which indicates that the number of pi terms is equal to (k −r), where k is the number of variables in the problem (determined from Step I) and r is the number of reference dimensions required to describe these variables (determined from Step II).

Step IV: Amongst the original list of variables, select those variables that can be combined to form pi terms. These are called as repeating variables. The required number of repeating variables is equal to the number of reference dimensions. Each repeating variable must be dimensionally independent of the others, i.e. they cannot be combined themselves to form any dimensionless product. Since there is a possibility of repeating variables to appear in more than one pi term, so dependent variables should not be chosen as one of the repeating variable.

Step V: Essentially, the pi terms are formed by multiplying one of the non-repeating variables by the product of the repeating variables each raised to an exponent that will make the combination dimensionless. It usually takes the form of $x_i x_1^a x_2^b x_3^c$ where the exponents a,b, and c are determined so that the combination is dimensionless.

Step VI: Repeat the 'Step V' for each of the remaining non-repeating variables. The resulting set of pi terms will correspond to the required number obtained from Step III.

Step VII: After obtaining the required number of pi terms, make sure that all the pi terms are dimensionless. It can be checked by simply substituting the basic dimension (M, L , and T) of the variables into the pi terms.

Step VIII: Typically, the final form of relationship among the pi terms can be written in the form of Eq. (.1) where, Π1 would contain the dependent variable in the numerator. The actual functional relationship among pi terms is determined from experiment.

Illustration of Pi Theorem

Let us consider the following example to illustrate the procedure of determining the various steps in the pi theorem.

Example (Pressure drop in a pipe flow)

Consider a steady flow of an incompressible Newtonian fluid through a long, smooth walled, horizontal circular pipe. It is required to measure the pressure drop per unit length of the pipe and find the number of non-dimensional parameters involved in the problem. Also, it is desired to know the functional relation among these dimensionless parameters.

Step I: Let us express all the pertinent variables involved in the experimentation of pressure drop per unit length (Δp_l) of the pipe, in the following form;

$\Delta p_l = f(D, \rho, \mu, V)$ …… ……. ……. ……. ……(3)

where, D is the pipe diameter, ρ is the fluid density, μ is the viscosity of the fluid and V is the mean velocity at which the fluid is flowing through the pipe.

Step II: Next step is to express all the variables in terms of basic dimensions i.e. M,L and T . It then follows that

$$\Delta p_l = ML^{-2}T^{-2};$$
$$D = L;$$

Step III: Apply *Buckingham theorem* to decide the number of *pi terms* required. There are five variables (including the dependent variable Δp_l) and three reference dimensions. Since, $k = 5$ and $r = 3$, only *two pi terms* are required for this problem.

Step IV: The repeating variables to form pi terms, need to be selected from the list ,ρ, μ and V . It is to be noted that the dependent variable should not be used as one of the repeating variable. Since, there are three reference dimensions involved, so we need to select three repeating variable. These repeating variables should be dimensionally independent, i.e. dimensionless product cannot be formed from this set. In this case, D, ρ and V may be chosen as the repeating variables.

Step V: Now, first *pi term* is formed between the dependent variable and the repeating variables. It is written as,

$$\pi = \Delta P_I D^a V^b \rho^c$$

Since, this combination need to be dimensionless, it follows that

$$(ML^{-2}T^{-2})(L)^a(LT^{-1})^b(ML^{-3})^c = M_0L_0T_0$$

The exponents a , b and c must be determined by equating the exponents for each of the terms M , L and T i.e.

For M : $1 + c = 0$

For L : $-2 + a + b - 3c = 0$

For T : $-2 - b = 0$

The solution of this algebraic equations gives $a = 1$; $b = -2$; $c = -1$. Therefore,

$$\pi_1 = \frac{\Delta P_1 D}{\rho V^2}$$

The process is repeated for remaining non-repeating variables with other additional variable (μ) so that,

$$\Pi_2 = \mu . D^d . V^e . \rho^f$$

Since, this combination need to be dimensionless, it follows that

$$(ML^{-1}T^{-1})(L)^d (LT^{-1})^e (ML^{-3})^f = M^0 L^0 T^0$$

Equating the exponents

For M : $1 + f = 0$

For L : $-1 + d + e - 3f = 0$

For T : $-1 - e = 0$

The solution of this algebraic equation gives $d = -1$; $e = -1$; $f = -1$. Therefore

$$\Pi_2 = \frac{\mu}{\rho V D}$$

Step VI: Now, the correct numbers of *pi terms* are formed as determined in "Step III". In order to make sure about the dimensionality of *pi terms*, they are written as,

$$\Pi_1 = \frac{\Delta p\, D}{\rho V^2} = \frac{(ML^{-2}T^{-2})(L)}{(ML^{-3})(LT^{-1})^2} = M^0 L^0 T^0$$

$$\Pi_2 = \frac{\mu}{\rho V D} = \frac{(ML^{-1}T^{-1})(L)}{(ML^{-3})(LT^{-1})(L)} = M^0 L^0 T^0$$

Step VII: Finally, the result of dimensional analysis is expressed among the *pi terms*

$$\frac{D\,\Delta p}{\rho V^2} = \varphi\frac{\mu}{\rho V D} = \varphi\frac{1}{\mathrm{Re}}$$

It may be noted here that Re is the Reynolds number.

Remarks

If the difference in the number of variables for a given problem and number of reference dimensions is equal to unity, then only one Pi term is required to describe the phenomena. Here, the functional relationship for the one Pi term is a constant quantity and it is determined from the experiment

$$\Pi_1 = \text{Constant} \qquad (6.1.15)$$

The problems involving two *Pi* terms can be described such that

$$\Pi_1 = \varphi(\Pi_2) \qquad (6.1.16)$$

Here, the functional relationship among the variables can then be determined by varying Π_2 and measuring the corresponding values of Π_1 .

Lecture note 2

Diffusion

2.1 Diffusion

Diffusion is the net movement of molecules or atoms from a region of high concentration (or high chemical potential) to a region of low concentration (or low chemical potential) as a result of random motion of the molecules or atoms. Diffusion is driven by a gradient in chemical potential of the diffusing species.

A gradient is the change in the value of a quantity e.g. concentration, pressure, or temperature with the change in another variable, usually distance. A change in concentration over a distance is called a concentration gradient, a change in pressure over a distance is called a pressure gradient, and a change in temperature over a distance is a called a temperature gradient. The word diffusion derives from the Latin word “diffundere” which means "to spread way out".

A distinguishing feature of diffusion is that it depends on particle random walk, and results in mixing or mass transport without requiring directed bulk motion. Bulk motion, or bulk flow, is the characteristic of advection. The term convection is used to describe the combination of both transport phenomena.

2.2 Diffusion in the context of different disciplines

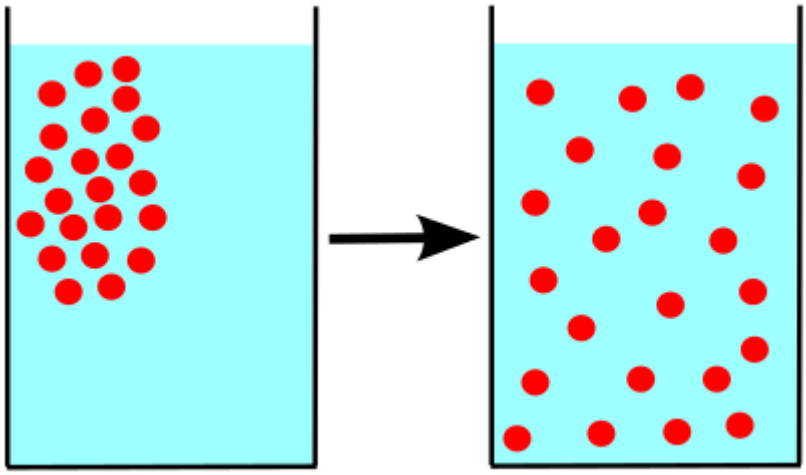
The concept of diffusion is widely used in: physics (particle diffusion), chemistry, biology, sociology, economics, and finance (diffusion of people, ideas and of price values). However, in each case, the object (e.g., atom, idea, etc.) that is undergoing diffusion is “spreading out” from a point or location at which there is a higher concentration of that object.

There are two ways to introduce the notion of diffusion: either a phenomenological approach starting with Fick's laws of diffusion and their mathematical consequences, or a physical and atomistic one, by considering the random walk of the diffusing particles.

In the phenomenological approach, diffusion is the movement of a substance from a region of high concentration to a region of low concentration without bulk motion. According to Fick's laws, the diffusion flux is proportional to the negative gradient of concentrations. It goes from regions of higher concentration to regions of lower concentration. Sometime later, various generalizations of Fick's laws were developed in the frame of thermodynamics and non-equilibrium thermodynamics.

From the atomistic point of view, diffusion is considered as a result of the random walk of the diffusing particles. In molecular diffusion, the moving molecules are self-propelled by thermal energy. Random walk of small particles in suspension in a fluid was discovered in 1827 by Robert Brown. The theory of the Brownian motion and the atomistic backgrounds of diffusion were developed by Albert Einstein. The concept of diffusion is typically applied to any subject matter involving random walks in ensembles of individuals.

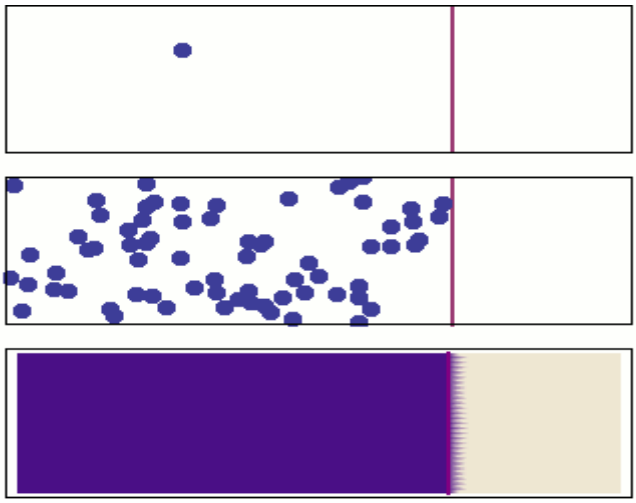
Biologists often use the terms "net movement" or "net diffusion" to describe the movement of ions or molecules by diffusion. For example, oxygen can diffuse through cell membranes so long as there is a higher concentration of oxygen outside the cell. However, because the movement of molecules is random, occasionally oxygen molecules move out of the cell (against the concentration gradient). Because there are more oxygen molecules outside the cell, the probability that oxygen molecules will enter the cell is higher than the probability that oxygen molecules will leave the cell. Therefore, the "net" movement of oxygen molecules (the difference between the number of molecules either entering or leaving the cell) is into the cell. In other words, there is a net movement of oxygen molecules down the concentration gradient



[Diffusion is a process in physics. Some particles are dissolved in a glass of water. At first, the particles are all near one top corner of the glass. If the particles randomly move around ("diffuse") in the water, they eventually become distributed randomly and uniformly from an area of high concentration to an area of low concentration, and organized (diffusion continues, but with no net flux).]

2.3 Fick's laws of diffusion

Fick's laws of diffusion describe diffusion and were derived by Adolf Fick in 1855. They can be used to solve for the diffusion coefficient, D. Fick's first law can be used to derive his second law which in turn is identical to the diffusion equation.



(Fig 2.1 Molecular diffusion from a microscopic and macroscopic point of view)

From this figure, initially, there are solute molecules on the left side of a barrier (purple line) and none on the right. The barrier is removed, and the solute diffuses to fill the whole container. Top: A single molecule moves around randomly. Middle: With more molecules, there is a clear trend where the solute fills the container more and more uniformly. Bottom: With an enormous number of solute molecules, randomness becomes undetectable: The solute appears to move smoothly and systematically from high-concentration areas to low-concentration areas. This smooth flow is described by Fick's laws.

Fick's first law relates the diffusive flux to the concentration under the assumption of steady state. It postulates that the flux goes from regions of high concentration to regions of low concentration, with a magnitude that is proportional to the concentration gradient (spatial derivative), or in simplistic terms the concept that a solute will move from a region of high concentration to a region of low concentration across a concentration gradient. In one (spatial) dimension, the law is:

$$J = -D\frac{d\varphi}{dx}$$

Where

J is the "diffusion flux," of which the dimension is amount of substance per unit area per unit time, so it is expressed in such units as mol m^{-2} s^{-1}. J measures the amount of substance that will flow through a unit area during a unit time interval.

D is the **diffusion coefficient** or **diffusivity**. Its dimension is area per unit time, so typical units for expressing it would be m^2/s.

φ (for ideal mixtures) is the concentration, of which the dimension is amount of substance per unit volume. It might be expressed in units of mol/m^3.

x is position, the dimension of which is length. It might thus be expressed in the unit m.

D is proportional to the squared velocity of the diffusing particles, which depends on the temperature, viscosity of the fluid and the size of the particles according to the Stokes-

Einstein relation. In dilute aqueous solutions the diffusion coefficients of most ions are similar and have values that at room temperature are in the range of 0.6×10^{-9} to $2 \times 10^{-9} m^2/s$. For biological molecules the diffusion coefficients normally range from 10^{-11} to $10^{-10} m^2/s$.

In two or more dimensions we must use ∇, the del or gradient operator, which generalises the first derivative, obtaining

$J = -D\nabla\varphi$

Where *J* denotes the diffusion flux vector

The driving force for the one-dimensional diffusion is the quantity $-\partial\varphi/\partial x$, which for ideal mixtures is the concentration gradient. In chemical systems other than ideal solutions or mixtures, the driving force for diffusion of each species is the gradient of chemical potential of this species.

Fick's second law predicts how diffusion causes the concentration to change with time. It is a partial differential equation which in one dimension reads

$$\frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial t} = D\frac{\partial\varphi^2}{\partial x^2}$$

Where

- φ is the concentration in dimensions of [(amount of substance) length^{-3}], example mol/m^3; $\varphi = \varphi(x,t)$ is a function that depends on location x and time t
- t is time [s]
- D is the diffusion coefficient in dimensions of [length^2 time^{-1}], example m^2/s
- x is the position [length], example m

In two or more dimensions we must use the Laplacian $\Delta = \nabla^2$, which generalises the second derivative, obtaining the equation.

2.4 Application of Fick's Law

Equations based on Fick's law have been commonly used to model transport processes in foods, neurons, biopolymers, pharmaceuticals, porous soils, population dynamics, nuclear materials, plasma physics, and semiconductor doping processes. Theory of all voltammetric methods is based on solutions of Fick's equation. Much experimental research in polymer science and food science has shown that a more general approach is required to describe transport of components in materials undergoing glass transition. In the vicinity of glass

transition the flow behaviour becomes "non-Fickian". It can be shown that the Fick's law can be obtained from the Maxwell–Stefan equations of multi-component mass transfer. The Fick's law is limiting case of the Maxwell–Stefan equations, when the mixture is extremely dilute and every chemical species is interacting only with the bulk mixture and not with other species. To account for the presence of multiple species in a non-dilute mixture, several variations of the Maxwell–Stefan equations are used. See also non-diagonal coupled transport processes (Onsager relationship).

2.5 Coefficient of Mass Transfer

In engineering, the mass transfer coefficient is a diffusion rate constant that relates the mass transfer rate, mass transfer area, and concentration change as driving force

$$k_c = \frac{\dot{n}_A}{A\,\Delta C_A}$$

- k_c is the mass transfer coefficient [mol/(s·m^2)/(mol/m^3)], or m/s
- $\dot{n}_A$ is the mass transfer rate [mol/s]
- A is the effective mass transfer area [m^2]
- ΔC_A is the driving force concentration difference [mol/m^3].

This can be used to quantify the mass transfer between phases, immiscible and partially miscible fluid mixtures (or between a fluid and a porous solid). Quantifying mass transfer allows for design and manufacture of separation process equipment that can meet specified requirements, estimate what will happen in real life situations (chemical spill), etc.

Mass transfer coefficients can be estimated from many different theoretical equations, correlations, and analogies that are functions of material properties, intensive properties and flow regime (laminar or turbulent flow). Selection of the most applicable model is dependent on the materials and the system, or environment, being studied.

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