

# Lecture 36, Dec 2, 2022

## Open Channel Flows

- Flows of liquid with free surface exposed to atmospheric pressure pressure
  - This free surface introduces an extra degree of freedom
  - This allows waves to form
- Waves move at a speed of  $c_0$ , which is not the same as the velocity of the individual fluid particles
- We want a control volume that moves with the wavefront
  - Assuming a wave height much less than the liquid height,  $\delta y \ll y$ , then  $c_0 = \sqrt{gy}$
  - The wave speed depends on the liquid depth; this is why tsunamis form, since water level is very deep in the ocean
- For open channel flows, we define the Froude number  $Fr = \frac{V}{\sqrt{gy}}$ , the ratio of the fluid speed divided by the wave speed; the Froude number governs the character of the flow in open channels
  - $Fr < 1$  is subcritical flow
    - \* The waves drift due to the velocity, but the wave still moves both down and upstream since the wave is able to travel faster than the fluid
  - $Fr = 1$  is critical flow
    - \* The wave velocity matches the fluid velocity, so the wavefront stays in place
  - $Fr > 1$  is supercritical flow
    - \* The waves only move downstream since the fluid pushes it down faster than it can go upstream
- Open channel flows are similar to compressible flows, in which the Mach number is used
  - In supercritical flow the wavefront is analogous to the shockwave in supersonic flow

## Compressible Flows

- Incompressibility is always only an approximation
  - The constant density assumption greatly simplifies problems
  - This is valid in a slow moving fluid
- In compressible flows we need fluid dynamics and thermodynamics
- A weak pressure wave is defined as a sound wave
  - The pressure wave is travelling at the speed of sound, but not the fluid particles
- Like in the open channel flow we again look at a control volume moving with the wavefront and assume 1D travel
  - Using continuity and momentum we get  $c^2 = \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial \rho}\right)_s$ 
    - \* Note this is at constant entropy, because the disturbance is very small and we're not adding heat
- For an ideal gas,  $\frac{P_2}{P_1} = \left(\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1}\right)^\gamma = \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1}\right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$ 
  - $\frac{p}{\rho^\gamma}$  is constant
  - $c = \sqrt{\gamma RT}$  for an ideal gas
- More generally for any fluid we can use the bulk modulus and get  $c = \sqrt{\frac{E_v}{\rho}}$
- In a truly incompressible medium,  $E_v \rightarrow \infty$  which means  $c \rightarrow \infty$
- The Mach number is defined as  $M = \frac{V}{c}$ 
  - Note this is a variable from point to point
  - We generally use  $M_\infty$ , the free stream Mach number
- We can categorize the flow based on Mach number:
  - $M_\infty \leq 0.3$  means the flow is incompressible
  - $M_\infty > 0.3$  means the flow is compressible
  - $0.8 \leq M_\infty \leq 1$  gives transonic flow

- $M_\infty \geq 5$  gives hypersonic flow

## Simplified Compressible Flows

- We will assume steady, 1D, isentropic (adiabatic and inviscid), and compressible flow
- $\rho VA$  is constant, so we have  $\frac{d\rho}{\rho} + \frac{dA}{A} + \frac{dV}{V} = 0$  as an alternative form of the continuity equation
- Pressure work can be derived as  $p_1 A_1 V_1 - p_2 A_2 V_2$
- Using RTT on energy balance, we get the compressible Bernoulli equation:  $\frac{p}{\rho} + e + \frac{V^2}{2} + gz = \text{const}$  where  $e$  is the total internal energy per unit mass
  - In terms of enthalpy  $h + \frac{V^2}{2} + gz = \text{const}$
- For high-speed flows, potential energy of the fluid is negligible; if we imagine that we can adiabatically slow the fluid to zero, then we get  $h + \frac{v^2}{2} = h_0$ , the *stagnation enthalpy* or *total enthalpy*
  - Kinetic energy converts to enthalpy
  - All the kinetic energy goes to an increase in internal energy (temperature) and pressure energy
- We can find properties of the fluid at stagnation:
  - $c_p(T - T_0) + \frac{V^2}{2} = 0 \implies T_0 = T + \frac{V^2}{2c_p}$
  - $T$  is the static temperature, the regular temperature we know
  - $\frac{V^2}{2c_p}$  is the dynamic temperature, the temperature rise in the stagnation process
  - $T_0$  is the stagnation or total temperature, the temperature we get when we bring the fluid to a stop adiabatically
  - For a very high speed flow we have  $T_0 > T$  and kinetic energy is important, but for low speed flows we have  $T_0 \approx T$  since kinetic energy is negligible
- We can get properties such as the stagnation temperature in terms of the mach number (formula in notes)
  - At very high velocities, the stagnation temperature can be significantly higher than the free stream temperature
  - Shockwaves will dissipate some of this temperature
- The rule of thumb is we must take compressibility into account when the density changes are greater than 5%
  - If we use the formula of  $\frac{\rho_0}{\rho}$  from  $M$ , we get a mach number of about 0.3 as the critical threshold

## Variation of Fluid Velocity With Flow Area

- Using the continuity equation and conservation of energy we can derive  $\frac{dA}{A} = -\frac{dV}{V}(1 - M^2)$ 
  - In subsonic flow, we get  $\frac{dA}{dV} < 0$  - velocity decreases with increasing area
    - \* We know this from the incompressible Bernoulli equation
  - In supersonic flow,  $\frac{dA}{dV} > 0$  - velocity increases with increasing area
    - \* Density rapidly decreases so the air fills the entire channel
  - In sonic flow,  $\frac{dA}{dV} = 0$  which means  $dA = 0$ 
    - \* If we have area as a function of  $x$ , then we have  $\frac{dA}{dx} = 0$ , which means the point at which we have sonic flow must be either a point of maximum or minimum area
    - \* Since  $\frac{dA}{dV} < 0$  for subsonic flow, the only way we can get this is to have a converging-diverging duct; then we get  $M = 1$  at the minimum point of the duct (the throat)
    - \* After the throat, the flow can accelerate to supersonic (this depends on the duct design and the pressure after the duct)