

# **Science A Physics**

## **Lecture 8: Fluid Dynamics and Light**

## Aims of today's lecture

- 1. The Continuity Equation
- 2. Bernoulli's Equation
- 3. The Venturi Effect
- 4. The Ray Model of Light
- 5. Reflection
- 6. Refraction
- 7. Total Internal Reflection

### **Fluid Mechanics**





- In the previous, when looking at the hydraulic machine, it was necessary to look at a branch of fluid mechanics called hydrostatics; that is, we considered fluids which are stationary or in equilibrium.
- In this lecture, we are going to look at the other branch of fluid mechanics called fluid dynamics; that is, fluids which are moving.
- We are going to look at several important ideas, the first of which is called the continuity equation.

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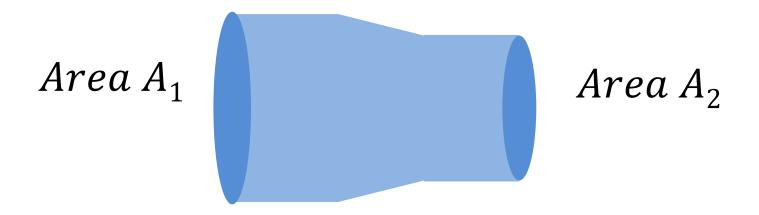




- You may have noticed that the speed, v, of water from a garden hose, or tap, depends on the cross-sectional area A.
- As gravity accelerates the flow, the cross-sectional area must decrease.
   Let's see why.

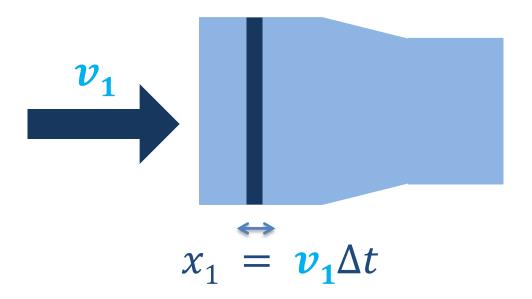
• If there is no accumulation of mass, the rate of what goes in must also be the rate of what comes out.





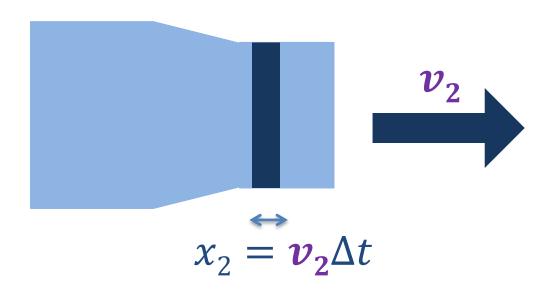
- Consider the flow of a fluid through a pipe with varying cross-section.
- Assume that the fluid is incompressible

• In a short time  $\Delta t$ , the mass travels a distance  $x_1 = v_1 \Delta t$ .



• So the volume  $\Delta V$  passing through  $A_1$  during  $\Delta t$  is  $area \times length = A_1 v_1 \Delta t$ 

• In the same time, the distance travelled through the narrower section is  $x_2 = v_2 \Delta t$ ,



so the volume  $\Delta V$  passing through  $A_2$  during  $\Delta t$  is  $area \times length = A_2 v_2 \Delta t$ 

Conservation of mass now relates the two terms:

$$\Delta m = density \times volume$$

$$= \rho \Delta V$$

$$= \rho A_1 v_1 \Delta t = \rho A_2 v_2 \Delta t$$

This leads to the continuity equation

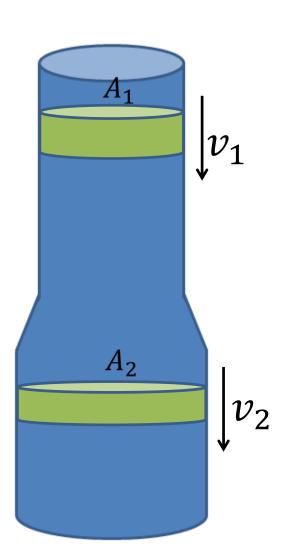
$$A_1 v_1 = A_2 v_2$$

(for an incompressible fluid).

 The product of speed, v, and area A is known as the volume flow rate, as it represents the volume of water flowing through a section of the tube per second

$$\frac{\Delta V}{\Delta t} = vA$$

The volume flow rate will be constant at all points.

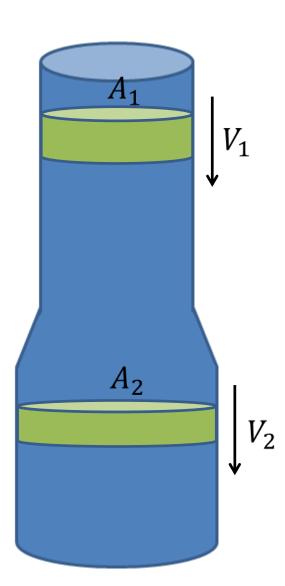


 We can also calculate the mass flow rate using the relationship between mass, volume and density;

$$m = \rho V$$

$$\frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} = \rho \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta t} = \rho v A$$

The mass flow rate will be constant at all points.

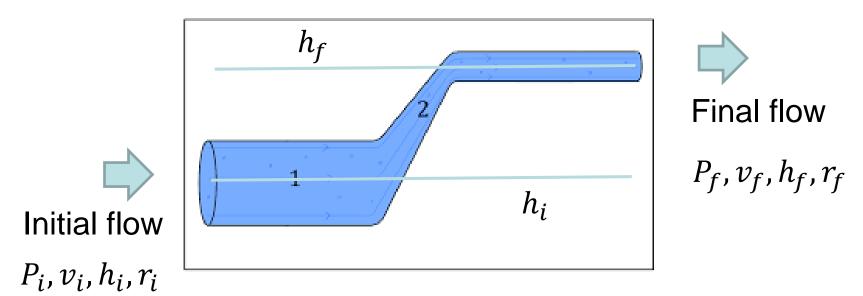




Daniel Bernoulli 1700-1782

## 2. The Bernoulli Equation

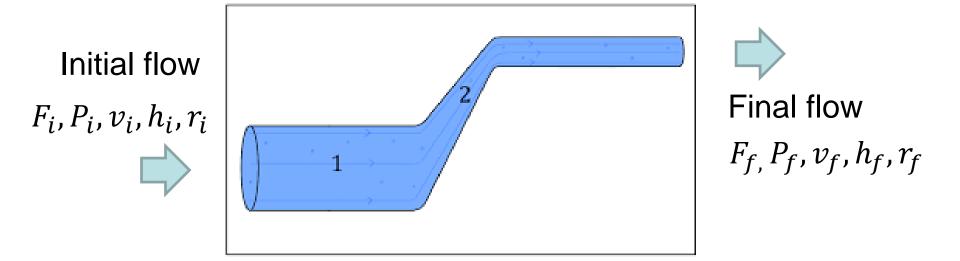
Consider water 'flowing up hill'. Can we determine the new parameters?



Assume incompressible fluid.

Conservation of mass.

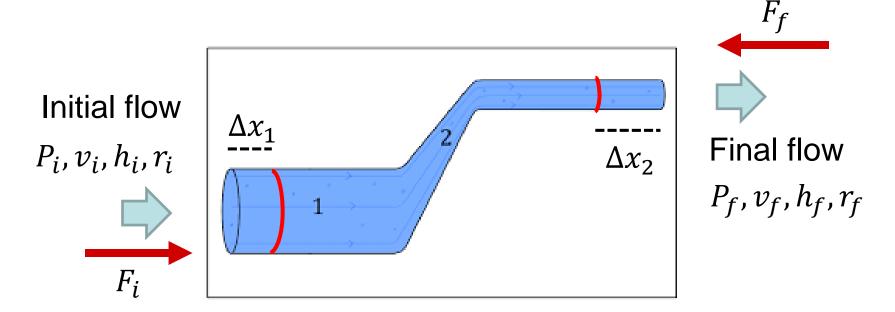
Conservation of energy.



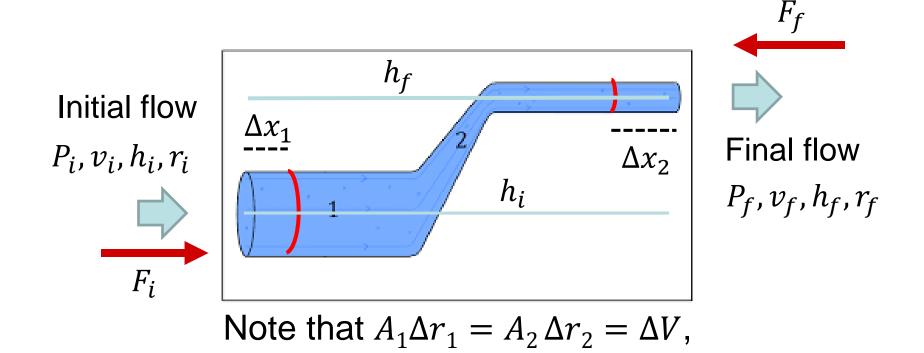
### The Work-Energy Theorem

$$\Delta K = W_{net}$$

- $\Delta K$  is the change in kinetic energy of the volume of fluid we consider during the motion we're considering,
- $W_{net}$  is the net work done by the forces acting on our system.



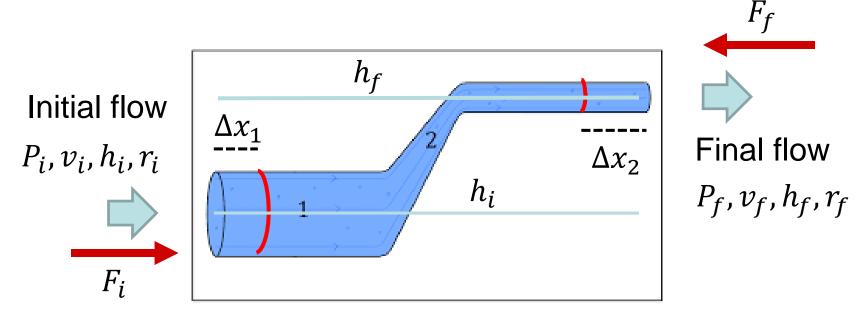
- At each end, there is a force  $F_{ext} = pA$  due to external pressure.
- The forces at the two ends are different, and in opposite directions.
- As  $work = force \times distance$ , the work is  $W = p_1 A_1 \Delta x_1 p_2 A_2 \Delta x_2$



so 
$$W = (p_1 - p_2) \Delta V$$
.

Work  $(W_{grav})$  is also done by gravity in raising the mass of fluid through a height  $h_f - h_i$ .

$$W_{grav} = - mg(h_f - h_i).$$



The total work done is then

$$W_{net} = W + W_{grav}$$

= 
$$(p_1 - p_2) \Delta V - mg(h_f - h_i)$$
.

As energy is conserved,  $W_{net}$  must be equal to the

difference in kinetic energy of the system:

$$W_{net} = \Delta KE = \frac{1}{2}mv_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_1^2.$$

## Bernoulli's Equation — Energy Conservation

#### **Collecting everything together:**

$$W_{net} = \Delta KE$$
 
$$(p_1 - p_2) \Delta V - mg(h_f - h_i) = \frac{1}{2}mv_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}mv_1^2$$

• For liquids, density is usually more convenient than mass:  $m=\rho \ \Delta V$ .

Substituting for m in the equation so far gives

$$(p_1 - p_2) \Delta V - \rho \Delta V g(h_f - h_i) = \frac{1}{2}\rho \Delta V v_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}\rho \Delta V v_1^2.$$
 
$$(p_1 - p_2) - \rho g(h_f - h_i) = \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2$$

## **Bernoulli's Equation**

$$(p_1 - p_2) - \rho g(h_f - h_i) = \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho g h_i + p_1 \right| = \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho g h_f + p_2$$

## **Bernoulli's Equation**

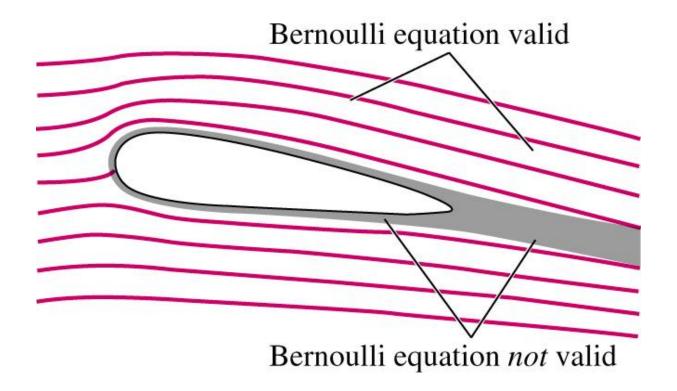
$$p_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho g h_i = p_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho g h_f = constant$$

- Consider what happens if the velocity increases whilst the height remains constant.
- As the flow rate increases, the pressure must decrease; therefore:
  - where the flow speed is high, the pressure is low.
  - where flow speed is low, pressure is high.

## **Bernoulli's Equation—Its Limitations**

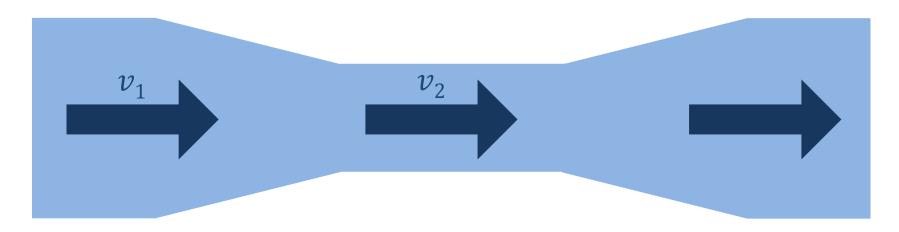
- Assumes an incompressible fluid, or at least that the variations in density are small.
  - Not used for gases when the pressure changes are significant.
- Requires steady flow with negligible friction.
- Only valid along a streamline.

### **Bernoulli's Equation—Its Limitations**



- Streamlines are tangent to the fluid's velocity vector at each point.
- Let's now consider some applications for the Bernoulli equation, one of which is the Venturi effect, named after an Italian.

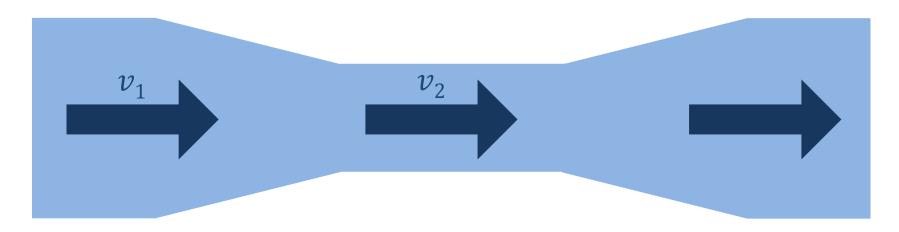
### 3. The Venturi Effect



Q. Is the pressure in the middle section of the pipe higher or lower than at the edges?

The continuity equation says  $A_1v_1=A_2v_2$ .

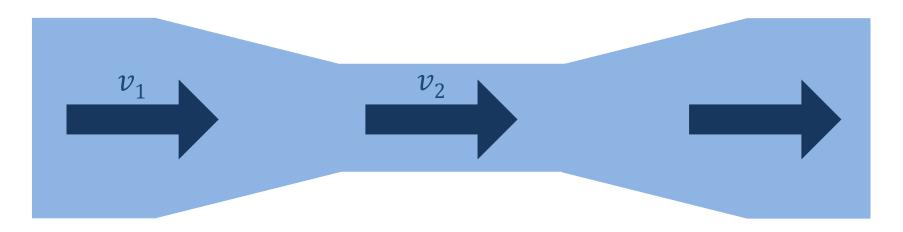
 $A_1 > A_2$ , so it follows that  $v_1 < v_2$ , as before.



Q. Is the pressure in the middle section of the pipe higher or lower than at the edges?

Now use **Bernoulli's equation**:

$$p_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho g h_i = p_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho g h_f$$

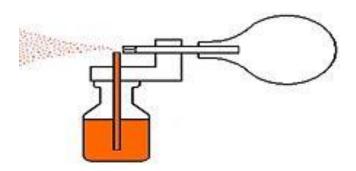


Q. Is the pressure in the middle section of the pipe higher or lower than at the edges?

$$p_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 = p_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2$$

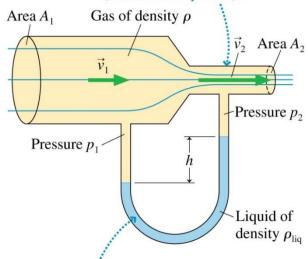
Because  $v_1 < v_2$  , it follows that  $p_1 > p_2$ .

Pressure is **lower** in the central section.



 When a fast gas stream is injected into the atmosphere and across the top of the vertical tube, it is forced to follow a curved path up, over and downward on the other side of the tube.

1. As the gas flows into a smaller cross section, it speeds up (equation of continuity). As it speeds up, the pressure decreases (Bernoulli's equation).



2. The U tube acts like a manometer. The liquid level is higher on the side where the pressure is lower.



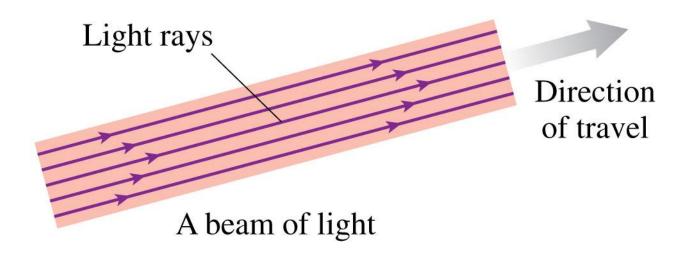
Giovanni Venturi 1746-1822

- Venturi tubes measure gas speeds in environments such as chemistry laboratories, wind tunnels, and jet engines.
- The gas-flow speed can be determined from the liquid height h.

## **Our Progress thus Far**



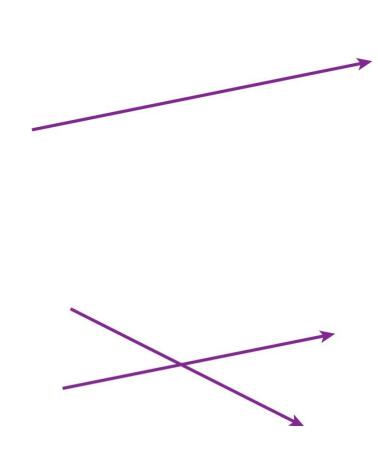
- We are going to briefly look at the idea of light, not in great detail though, as light really is quite mysterious, if you think long enough about what it actually is.
- Instead, we are going to consider briefly the ray model of light (which is quite useful), and which can be used to understand a very interesting application of light that is relevant to electrical engineering, namely fibre optic cables.



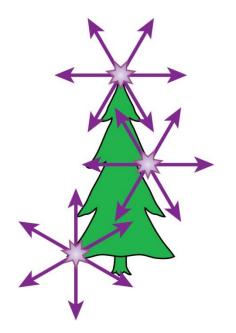
- Let us define a light ray as a line in the direction along which light energy is flowing.
- Any narrow beam of light, such as a laser beam, is actually a bundle of many parallel light rays.



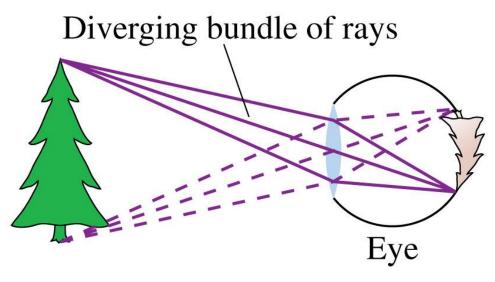
 You can think of a single light ray as the limiting case of a laser beam whose diameter approaches zero.



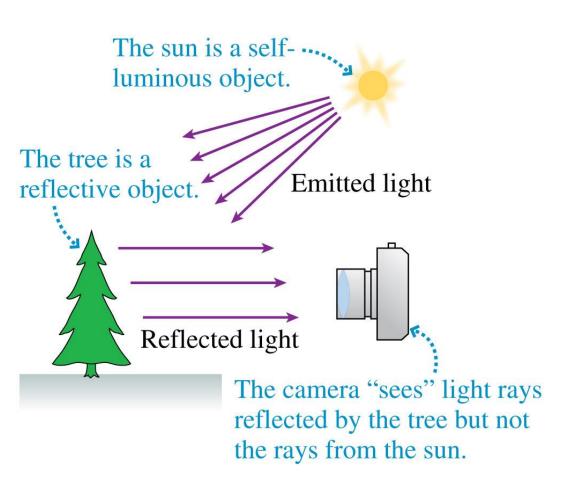
- Light travels through a transparent material in straight lines called light rays.
- The speed of light is v = c/n, where n is the index of refraction of the material.
- Light rays do not interact with each other.
- Two rays can cross without either being affected in any way.



- An object is a source of light rays.
- Rays originate from every point on the object, and each point sends rays in all directions.

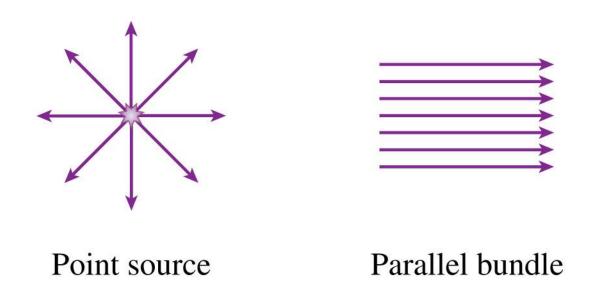


 The eye 'sees' an object when diverging bundles of rays from each point on the object enter the pupil and are focused to an image on the retina.



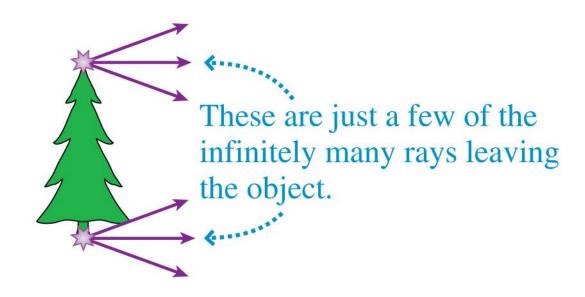
- Objects can be either self-luminous, such as the sun, flames, and lightbulbs, or reflective.
- Most objects are reflective.

# The Ray Model of Light



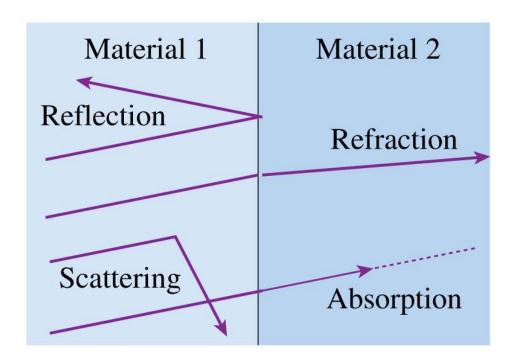
- The diverging rays from a point source are emitted in all directions.
- Each point on an object is a point source of light rays.
- A parallel bundle of rays could be a laser beam, or light from a distant object.

# The Ray Model of Light



- Rays originate from every point on an object and travel outward in all directions, but a diagram trying to show all these rays would be messy and confusing.
- To simplify the picture, we use a ray diagram showing only a few rays.

# The Ray Model of Light



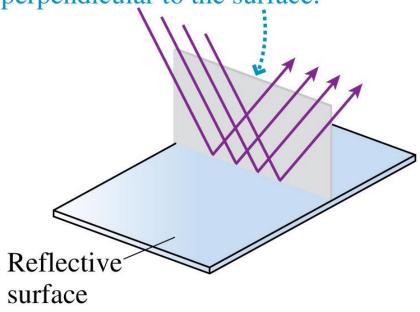
Light interacts with matter in four different ways:

- At an interface between two materials, light can be either reflected or refracted.
- Within a material, light can be either scattered or absorbed.
- Let's look at reflection and refraction in more detail.

# 5. Reflection

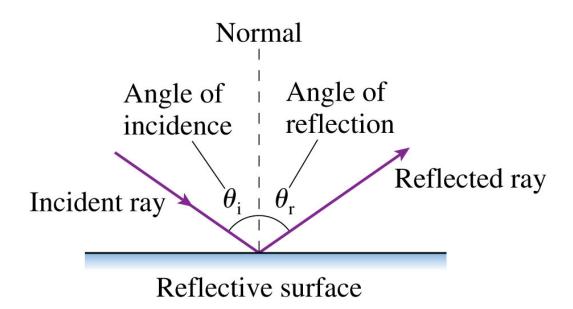
### Reflection

The incident and reflected rays lie in the plane of incidence, a plane perpendicular to the surface.



 Reflection occurs when light interacts with a smooth surface, such as a mirror or a piece of polished metal, as shown above.

### Reflection



#### The law of reflection states that:

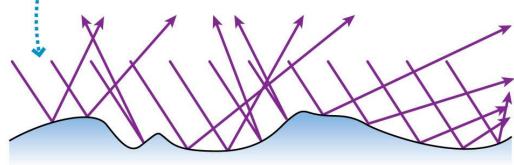
- 1. The incident ray and the reflected ray are in the same plane normal to the surface, and
- 2. The angle of reflection equals the angle of incidence:

$$\theta_r = \theta_I$$

### **Diffuse Reflection**

- Most objects are seen because of their reflected light.
- For a 'rough surface', the law of reflection is obeyed at each point, but the irregularities of the surface cause the reflected rays to leave in many random directions.
- This situation is called diffuse reflection.
- It is how you see this slide, the wall, your hand, your friend, and so on.

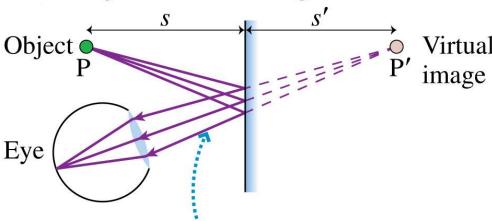
Each ray obeys the law of reflection at that point, but the irregular surface causes the reflected rays to leave in many random directions.



Magnified view of surface

# Reflection, and The Plane Mirror

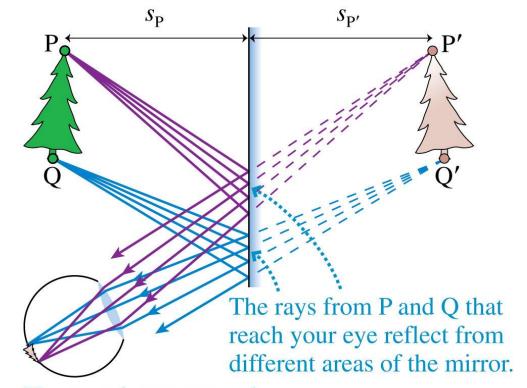
Object distance Image distance



The reflected rays *all* diverge from P', which appears to be the source of the reflected rays. Your eye collects the bundle of diverging rays and "sees" the light coming from P'.

- Consider P, a source of rays which reflect from a mirror.
- The reflected rays appear to come from P', the same distance behind the mirror as P is in front of the mirror.
- That is, s' = s.

## Reflection, and The Plane Mirror



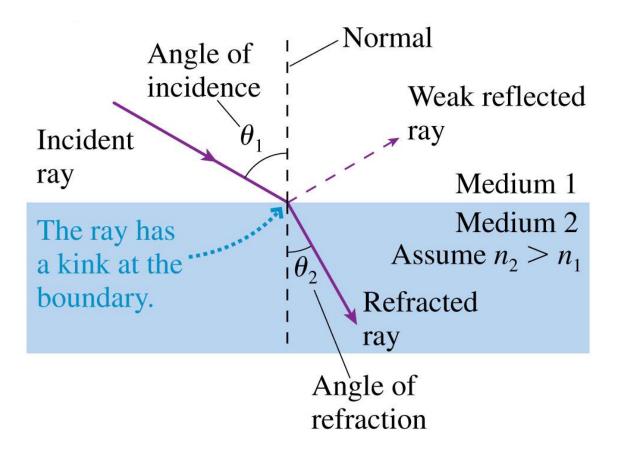
Your eye intercepts only a very small fraction of all the reflected rays.

 Let's now consider the next type of interaction that light can undergo with matter, namely refraction.

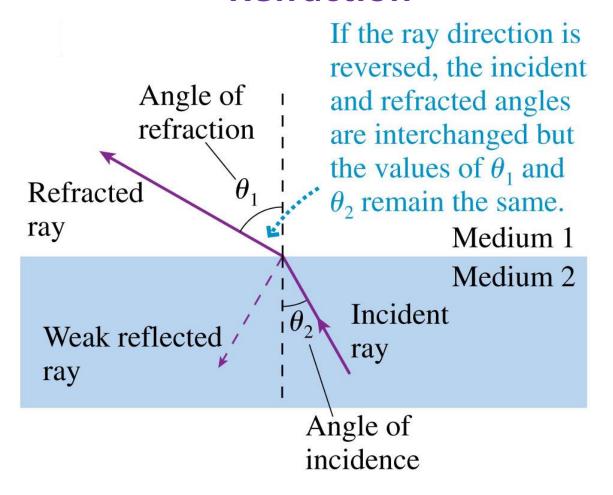
Two things happen when a light ray is incident on a smooth boundary between two transparent materials:

- 1) Part of the light reflects from the boundary, obeying the law of reflection.
- 2) Part of the light continues into the second medium. The transmission of light from one medium to another, but with a change in direction, is called refraction.





$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$$
 (Snell's law of refraction)

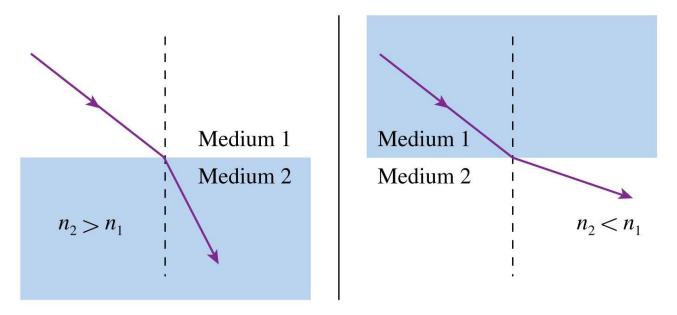


$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$$
 (Snell's law of refraction)

TABLE 23.1 Indices of refraction

Medium	n
Vacuum	1.00 exactly
Air (actual)	1.0003
Air (accepted)	1.00
Water	1.33
Ethyl alcohol	1.36
Oil	1.46
Glass (typical)	1.50
Polystyrene plastic	1.59
Cubic zirconia	2.18
Diamond	2.41
Silicon (infrared)	3.50

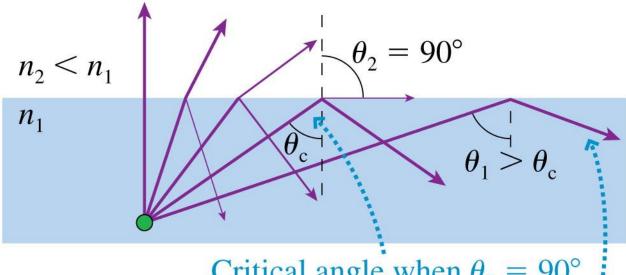
$$n = \frac{c}{v_{\text{medium}}}$$



- When a ray is transmitted into a material with a higher index of refraction, it bends toward the normal.
- When a ray is transmitted into a material with a lower index of refraction, it bends away from the normal.
- As light rays move from a material with a high refractive index to a low refractive index, as the angle of incidence gets bigger, the transmission of the rays get weaker, reaching a point where total internal reflection occurs.

The angle of incidence is increasing.

Transmission is getting weaker.



Critical angle when  $\theta_2 = 90^{\circ}$ 

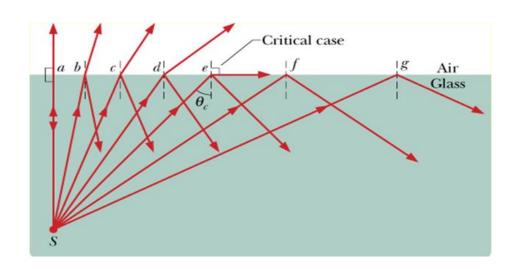
Reflection is getting stronger.

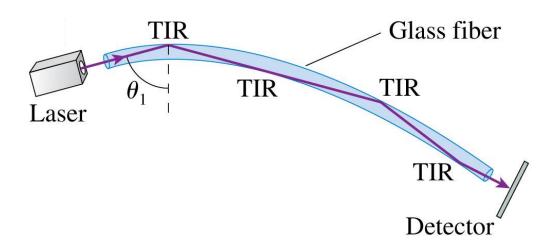
Total internal reflection occurs when  $\theta_1 \ge \theta_c$ .

- When a ray crosses a boundary into a material with a lower index of refraction, it bends away from the normal.
- As the angle  $\theta_1$  increases, the refraction angle  $\theta_2$  approaches 90°, and the fraction of the light energy transmitted decreases while the fraction reflected increases.
- The critical angle of incidence occurs when  $\theta_2 = 90^\circ$ :

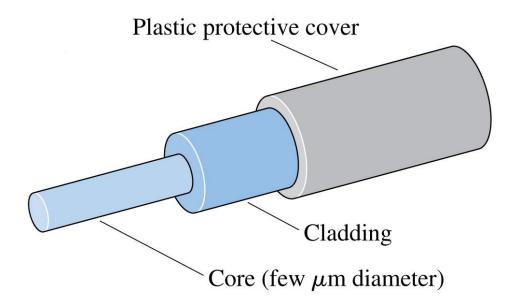
$$\theta_{\rm c} = \sin^{-1} \frac{n_2}{n_1}$$

• The refracted light vanishes at the critical angle and the reflection becomes 100% for any angle  $\theta_1 > \theta_c$ .





- The most important modern application of total internal reflection (TIR) is optical fibres.
- The light 'bounces its way down' the tube, as if it were inside a pipe.
- We can use the light to carry 'information'.



- In a practical optical fibre, a small-diameter glass core is surrounded by a layer of glass cladding.
- The glasses used for the core and the cladding have:

$$n_{core} > n_{cladding}$$

# **Summary of today's Lecture**



- 1. The Continuity Equation
- 2. Bernoulli's Equation
- 3. The Venturi Effect
- 4. The Ray Model of Light
- 5. Reflection
- 6. Refraction
- 7. Total Internal Reflection

# **Lecture 12: Optional Reading**

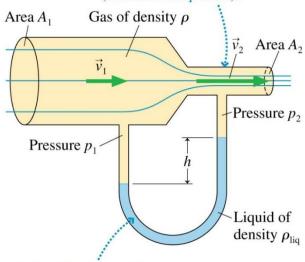


- Ch. 13.3, Pressure in Fluids; p.397-400
- Ch. 13.4, Atmospheric Pressure and Gauge Pressure; p.401
- Ch. 13.5, Pascal's Principle; p.402
- Ch. 13.8, Fluids in Motion; Flow Rate and the Eqn. of Continuity.
- Ch. 13.9, Bernoulli's Equation.
- Ch. 13.10, Applications of Bernoulli's Principle; p.412-414
- Ch. 34.2, Huygens Principle and the Law of Refraction; p.1,040-1,041

### **Home Work**

Do not forget to attempt the **Additional Problems** for this lecture before logging in to **Mastering Physics** to complete your assignments.

1. As the gas flows into a smaller cross section, it speeds up (equation of continuity). As it speeds up, the pressure decreases (Bernoulli's equation).



2. The U tube acts like a manometer. The liquid level is higher on the side where the pressure is lower.



1746-1822

- Venturi tubes measure gas speeds in environments such as chemistry laboratories, wind tunnels, and jet engines.
- ullet The gas-flow speed can be determined from the liquid height h.

 First, we need to create an equation relating the speeds and pressures using Bernoulli's equation:

equation: 
$$\frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + \rho g y_1 + p_1 = \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + \rho g y_2 + p_2$$
 Liquid of density  $\rho_{\text{liq}}$ 

Area A

Gas of density  $\rho$ 

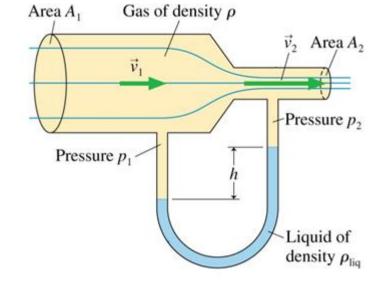
• Since  $y_1 = y_2$ 

$$\frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 + p_1 = \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 + p_2$$

 $\vec{v}_2$  Area  $A_2$ 

Pressure  $p_2$ 

 Consider the liquid. Since it is stationary (after the initial movement), we can apply Pascal's principle/law:



$$p_1 = p_2 + \rho_{liquid}gh$$

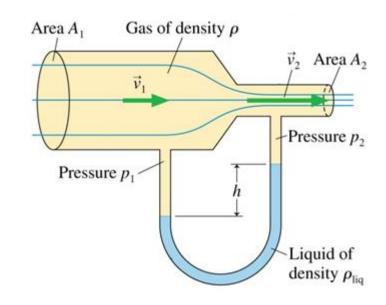
$$p_1 - p_2 = \Delta P = \rho_{liquid}gh$$

 Now we can return to Bernoulli's equation and rearrange to get

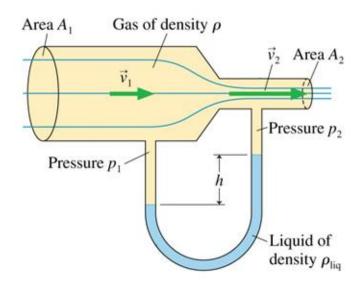
$$p_1 - p_2 = \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 = \Delta p = \rho_{liquid}gh$$

$$v_1 A_1 = v_2 A_2$$

$$v_1 = \frac{v_2}{A_1} A_2$$



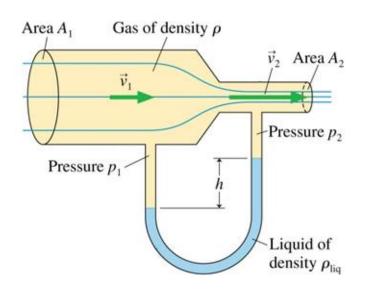
$$\frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}\rho \left(\frac{v_2^2 A_2^2}{A_1^2}\right) = \rho_{liquid}gh$$



$$\rho v_2^2 - \rho \left(\frac{v_2^2 A_2^2}{A_1^2}\right) = 2\rho_{liquid}gh$$

$$A_1^2 \rho v_2^2 - \rho v_2^2 A_2^2 = 2A_1^2 \rho_{liquid} gh$$

$$v_2^2(A_1^2\rho - \rho A_2^2) = 2A_1^2\rho_{liquid}gh$$



$$\rho v_2^2 - \rho \left(\frac{v_2^2 A_2^2}{A_1^2}\right) = 2\rho_{liquid}gh$$

$$A_1^2 \rho v_2^2 - \rho v_2^2 A_2^2 = 2A_1^2 \rho_{liquid} gh$$

$$v_2^2(A_1^2\rho - \rho A_2^2) = 2A_1^2\rho_{liquid}gh$$

$$v_1 = A_2 \sqrt{\frac{2\rho_{\text{liq}}gh}{\rho(A_1^2 - A_2^2)}}$$

$$v_2 = A_1 \sqrt{\frac{2\rho_{\text{liq}}gh}{\rho(A_1^2 - A_2^2)}}$$