Fluid Mechanics Viscous pipe flows

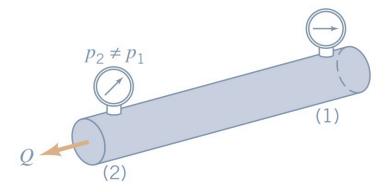
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Slides by Jakob Hærvig (AAU Energy) and Jacob Andersen (AAU Build)

Types of pipe flows

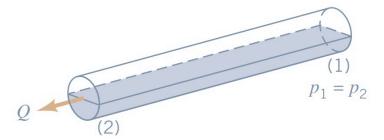
Various pipe flow types exist, each with *distinct* physics

• Single phase pipe flows

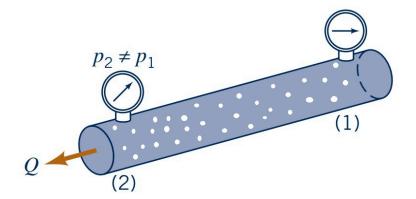


- Completely filled with liquid (or gas)
- \circ Pressure difference (p_2-p_1) drives flow

• Open channel pipe flow



- Partially filled with liquid
- Gravity drives flow
- Multiphase pipe flow



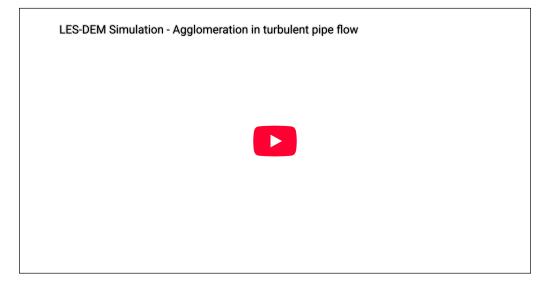
- Either partially or full of liquid (or gas)
- Gravity drives flow
- Complex physics (bubbles, particles, droplets etc)

Much research focuses on complex multiphase flows (including own PhD)

Numerical simulations provide details on the process, which *can be difficult to capture experimentally*.

- Turbulent pipe flow
- Solid particles with $d_p=10\,\mu\mathrm{m}$
- Particle agglomeration (sticking) occurs due to van der Waals and electrostatic forces

Video: Agglomeration of particles in a turbulent pipe flow



Why look at viscous pipe flows?

For which applications are viscous pipe flows important?

Viscous pipe flows are important in applications where fluid viscosity significantly affects pressure drop, energy losses, and flow behavior. Here are the main areas:

1. Water Supply and Wastewater Systems

- City water distribution networks
- Sewage and stormwater pipelines
- Irrigation systems
 - Viscous effects determine pumping requirements and pipe sizing.

• 2. Oil and Gas Industry

- Crude oil transport through long-distance pipelines (oil can be highly viscous).
- Natural gas pipelines (viscous friction dominates pressure drop).
- Offshore and subsea flowlines.

3. Chemical and Process Industries

- Transport of viscous fluids like syrups, paints, polymers, and chemicals.
- Cooling and heating systems in reactors (viscosity affects heat transfer too).
- Food industry (chocolate, honey, dairy, sauces).

4. Energy and Power Systems

- Steam and water circulation in power plants.
- District heating/cooling networks.
- Hydraulic systems in machinery (oil viscosity affects performance).

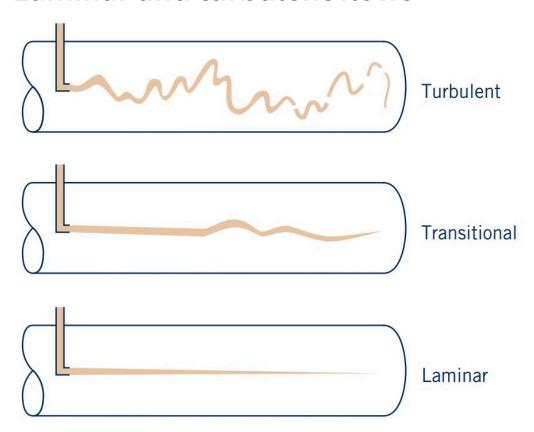
5. Biomedical Applications

- Blood flow in arteries, veins, and medical devices (blood is a viscous fluid).
- Drug delivery systems using catheters and microtubes.

6. Microfluidics & Advanced Tech

- Lab-on-a-chip devices (very small channels where viscosity dominates over inertia).
- Inkjet printing and 3D printing (flow of inks, resins, or melts).

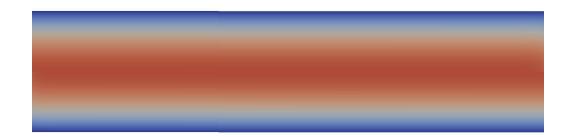
Laminar and turbulent flows



Characterised by different flow regimes:

- Turbulent flow: chaotic and irregular (mixing occurs)
- Transitional flow: between laminar and turbulent
- Laminar flow: smooth and orderly (no mixing)





Flow regime depends on Reynolds number ($\mathrm{Re}_D = U
ho D/\mu$)

- $Re_D > 4000$: Turbulent
- $2300 < \mathrm{Re}_D < 4000$: Transitional
- $\mathrm{Re}_D < 2300$: Laminar

Entrance regions and fully-developed flows

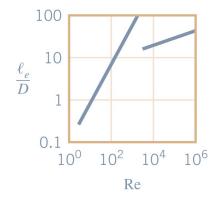
Region close to inlets

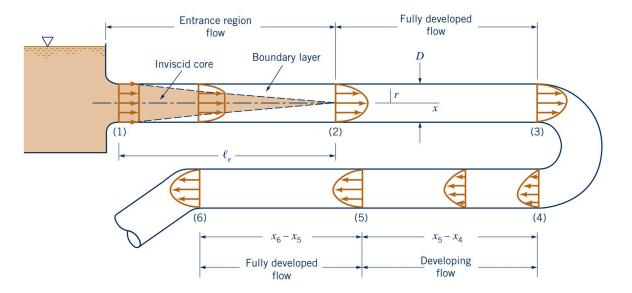
- (1): Inviscid (enters with near uniform velocity aka plug flow)
- (2): Reaches fully-developed (boundary layer reached centre)
- (3): Remains fully developed and nothing changes
- (4): Skewed and starts to develop again
- (5): Reaches fully-developed again
- (6): Remains fully-developed and nothing changes

Entrance length l_e depends on Reynolds number:

ullet Laminar: $l_e/Dpprox 0.06 \mathrm{Re}_D$

• Turbulent: $l_e/D pprox 4.4 {
m Re}_D^{1/6}$





Pressure profile in pipe flows

Pressure varies in fully-developed laminar flow linearly along the pipe

•
$$\partial p/\partial x = -\Delta p/p < 0$$

Pressure drop in pipe flows is balanced by:

- Pressure drop due to friction (viscous effects)
- Pressure drop due to acceleration/deceleration of flow (inertia effects)
- Hydrostatic pressure variation due to elevation changes

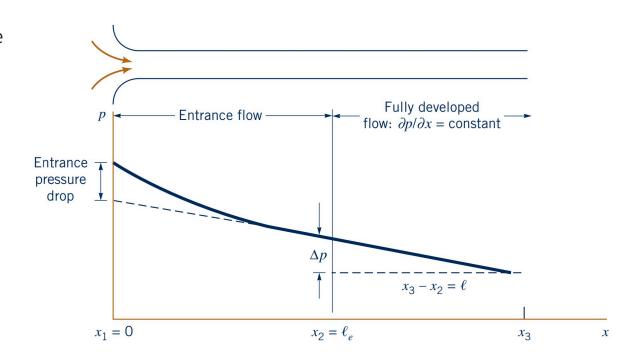
Recall from analytical solutions earlier:

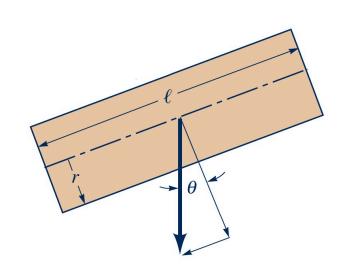
$$Q = \frac{\pi R^4}{8\mu} \left(-\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \right) = \frac{\pi D^4}{128\mu} \left(-\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \right) = \frac{\pi D^4 \Delta p}{128\mu l}$$

• *Valid* for laminar, steady, horisontal, fully-developed flow

For non-horisontal pipes:

$$Q=rac{\pi D^4(\Delta p-
ho g l {
m sin} heta)}{128 \mu l}$$





Exercise: Laminar Pipe Flow

An oil with a viscosity of $\mu=0.1\,\mathrm{Pa\cdot s}$ and density $ho=900\,\mathrm{kg/m}^3$ flows in a pipe of diameter $D=0.020\,\mathrm{m}$.

- (a) What pressure drop, p_1-p_2 , is needed to produce a flowrate of $Q=2.0\times 10^{-5}\,\mathrm{m}^3/\mathrm{s}$ if the pipe is horizontal with $x_1=0$ and $x_2=10\,\mathrm{m}$?
- (b) How steep a hill, θ , must the pipe be on to if the oil is to flow through the pipe at the same rate as in part (a), but with $p_1 = p_2$?
- (c) For the conditions of part (b), if $p_1=200$ kPa, what is the pressure at section $x_3=5$ m, where x is measured along the pipe?

Transition from laminar to turbulent flow

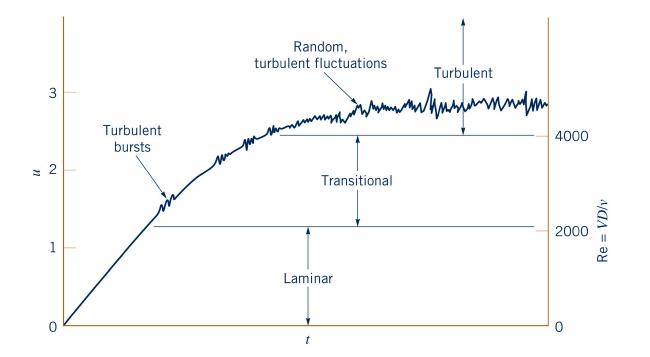
Happens gradually between Repprox 2100 and Repprox 4000

- Small *bursts* of turbulence start at $\mathrm{Re} \approx 2100$
- Bursts grow in *size* and *frequency* with increasing Re
- Increased mixing and momentum transfer occurs
- Higher heat transfer rates and pressure drop

Velocity field $oldsymbol{V}$ changes from being 1-D to 3-D

ullet Laminar: $oldsymbol{V} = v_x \cdot \hat{f i}$

ullet Turbulent: $oldsymbol{V} = v_x \cdot \hat{f i} + v_y \cdot \hat{f j} + v_z \cdot \hat{f k}$



Decomposing a turbulent flow

Consider a turbulent flow with instantaneous velocity u(t)

• *Time-averaged* velocity component \overline{u}

$$\overline{u}(x,y,z) = rac{1}{T} \int_{t_0}^{T+t_0} u(x,y,z,t) \,\mathrm{d}t$$

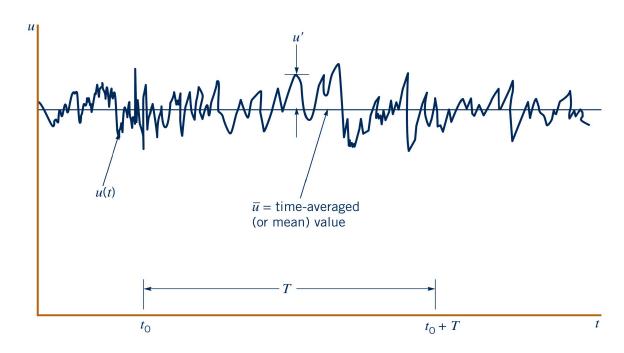
 $\circ T$ is the *averaging time period* (should be long enough to capture the relevant flow structures)

• *Instantaneous* velocity can then be decomposed as:

$$u(x,y,z,t)=\overline{u}(x,y,z)+u'(x,y,z,t)$$

• *Fluctuating* velocity component u'

$$u'(x,y,z,t) = u(x,y,z,t) - \overline{u}(x,y,z)$$



Describing turbulence

Relevant to quantify strength of fluctuations

ullet Clearly, ${\it time-averaging}$ fluctuations $\overline{u'}$ does not make sense

$$\overline{u'}(x,y,z) = rac{1}{T} \int_{t_0}^{T+t_0} u'(x,y,z,t) \, \mathrm{d}t = 0$$

• What if we take *square* fluctuations and then *time-average*?

$$\overline{(u')^2}(x,y,z) = rac{1}{T} \int_{t_0}^{T+t_0} u'(x,y,z,t)^2 \, \mathrm{d}t > 0$$

 To get "back" to same order of magnitude, we now take the square root of fluctuations

$$u_{
m rms}(x,y,z)=\sqrt{\overline{(u')^2}(x,y,z)}$$

- This is called the *root-mean-square (RMS)* of the fluctuations
- Often normalised by the time-averaged velocity to get a *relative measure*, aka *turbulence intensity*

$$I(x,y,z) = rac{u_{
m rms}(x,y,z)}{\overline{u}(x,y,z)}$$

