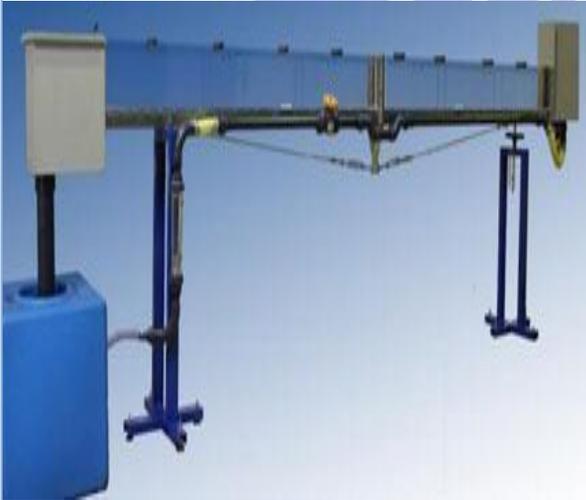




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**HYDRULIC ENGG.
LAB MANUAL**

LIST OF EXPERIMENTS

1. To determine the coefficient of drag by stokes law for sphere.
2. To study the phenomenon of cavitation in pipeflow.
3. To determine the critical Reynolds number for flow through commercial Pipes.
4. To determine the coefficient of discharge for flow over a broad crested weir.
5. To study the characteristics of a hydraulic jump.
6. To study the scouring phenomenon around a bridge pier model.
7. To determine headloss dueto various pipe fittings.

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Experiment:01

- **AIM:** To determine the coefficient of a drag by Stoke law for spherical bodies.

- **THEORY:**

- When a body moves through any fluid, it experiences resistance, which acts in a direction opposite to that of the motion of the body. This resistance is called the drag force (F_D) and it depends on the size of the body, velocity with which it moves and the viscosity of the fluid. According to Stoke, the drag force acting on a sphere moving through a fluid due to its weight is given by the following expression:

$$F_D = 3\pi\mu v_o D \quad (i)$$

- Where D is the diameter of sphere, μ is the viscosity of fluid, v_o is called the terminal fall velocity. Terminal velocity is defined as the velocity attained by a body in falling through a fluid at rest, when the drag force on the body is equal to the submerged weight of the body. It may be noted that Eq. (i) is applicable only if Reynolds number (Re), defined as D/v , is less than 0.2. Further, the various forces acting on the sphere falling in an infinite fluid of mass density ρ with a velocity U

Where

W = weight of the sphere acting vertically downwards

$$= \text{specific weight} \times \text{volume of the sphere} = \frac{\pi}{6} D^3 (\rho_s g)$$

$$F_B = \text{buoyant force acting upward} = \text{weight of fluid displaced by the body} = \frac{\pi}{6} D^3 (\rho_f g)$$

F_D = the drag force acting upward.

Here, ρ_s is the mass density of the sphere and, ρ_f is the mass density of the fluid.

Drag force plus the buoyant force must be equal to the weight of the sphere, i.e. for equilibrium condition $F_D + F_B = W$

$$\left(\frac{\pi}{6} D^3 (\rho_f g) + F_D \right) = \frac{\pi}{6} D^3 (\rho_s g)$$

$$F_D = \frac{\pi}{6} D^3 g (\rho_s - \rho_f) \quad (ii)$$

The term $\frac{\pi}{6} D^3 g (\rho_s - \rho_f)$ represent the submerged weight of the fluid.

Equating Eqs. (i) and (ii), we get

$$3\pi\mu U_o D = \frac{\pi}{6} D^3 g(\rho_s - \rho_f)$$

$$U_o = \frac{D^2}{18\mu} g(\rho_s - \rho_f) = \frac{D^2}{18\mu} (\rho_s - \rho_f) \quad \text{(iii)}$$

Equation (iii) is the required expression for terminal velocity.

Also, drag force acting on the body moving in a fluid of density ρ_f is given by the following expression.

$$F_D = C_D A \frac{\rho_f U_o^2}{2} \quad \text{(iv)}$$

Where C_D is the coefficient of drag and A is the projected area of the object on a plane normal to the direction of flow. For a sphere, projected area $A = \frac{\pi D^2}{4}$

$$C_D = \frac{24}{Re}, \text{ where } Re = \frac{\rho_f U_o D}{\mu} \quad \text{(v)}$$

Thus, coefficient of a drag C_D varies with Reynolds number.

- Experiment has shown that Eq. (v) holds good for $Re < 0.2$, and the sphere is falling in an infinite fluid. If the fluid is not infinite in extent but is confined with a container (finite dimension), then the resistance to motion is increased, and in such a case the modified value of drag coefficient, as given by the following expression, should be used:

$$C_D = \frac{24}{Re} \left(1 + 2.4 \frac{D}{D_1}\right) \quad \text{(vi)}$$

- Where D_1 is the smallest lateral dimension of the container and D is the diameter of the sphere.

Also the observed fall velocity U is corrected in Eq. (iii) by using the following expression in order to get all the fall velocity corresponding to infinite fluid medium:

$$\text{Corrected velocity, } U_o = U \left(1 + 2.4 \frac{D}{D_1}\right) \quad \text{(vii)}$$

Where D_1 is the diameter of container.

- EXPERIMENTAL SET-** The setup consists of a transparent vertical cylinder. A hopper with a valve is

Provided at the bottom of the cylinder to collect the sphere. The cylinder is supported by four vertical posts and fixed to a stable. A vertical scale is fixed on the surface of a cylinder. The cylinder is filled with highly viscous fluid such as glycerin.

• **PROCEDURE:**

1. Measure the diameters of sphere and note down their materials.
2. Determine the mass of the sphere on electronic balance.
3. Mark two lines on the cylinder for measurement of the vertical distance (L) for the determination of terminal velocity. The upper lines should be at a depth of 100 mm or more from the free surfaces so that the terminal velocity is achieved.
4. Hold the sphere with a finger and a thumb and bring it with up to the fluid level. Leave the sphere gently (with the sphere before dropping it).
5. Note down the time taken by the sphere in falling through distance L.
6. Repeat steps (4) and (5) for other diameter of sphere (Set 1).
7. Repeat step (4) to (6) for sphere of other material (Set 2).

• **OBSERVATIONS AND CALCULATIONS:**

Liquid in the cylinder = Mass

density of liquid $\rho_f =$

Kinetic viscosity of liquid at T °C

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, $v =$

Diameter of cylinder, D_1

= Distance of fall, $L =$

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Material of sphere

RunNo.	DiameterD	Projected area, A	Mass density, ρ	F_D	U_o	$C_{Dbyeq (iv)}$	$Re=$	$C_{Dbyeq (v)}$
1.								
2.								
3.								

- **GRAPH:** Plot C_D versus Re as abscissa on an ordinary graph paper.

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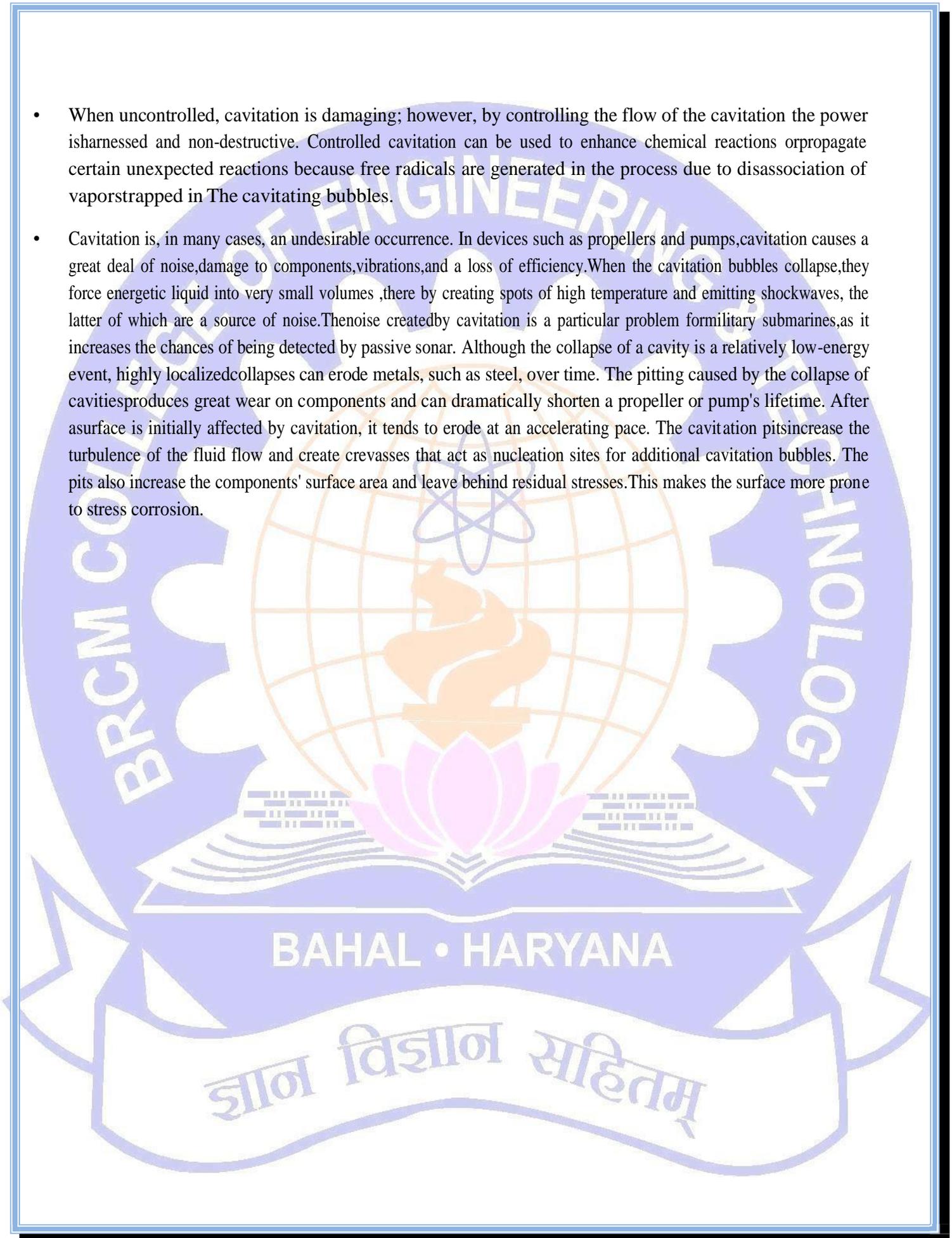
Experiment: 02

- **AIM:** To study the phenomenon of cavitation in pipe flow

- **THEORY:**

- **Cavitation** is the formation and then immediate implosion of cavities in liquid – i.e. small liquid-free zones ("bubbles") – that are the consequence of forces acting upon the liquid. It usually occurs when a liquid is subjected to rapid changes of pressure that cause the formation of cavities where the pressure is relatively low.
- Cavitation is a significant cause of wear in some engineering contexts. When entering high pressure areas, cavitation bubbles that impinge on a metal surface cause cyclic stress. This results in surface fatigue of the metal causing a type of wear also called "cavitation". The most common examples of this kind of wear are pump impellers and bends when a sudden change in the direction of liquid occurs. Cavitation is usually divided into two classes of behavior: inertial (or transient) cavitation and non-inertial cavitation.
- Inertial cavitation is the process where a void or bubble in a liquid rapidly collapses, producing a shockwave. In man-made objects, it can occur in control valves, pumps, propellers and impellers.
- Non-inertial cavitation is the process in which a bubble in a fluid is forced to oscillate in size or shape due to some form of energy input, such as an acoustic field. Such cavitation is often employed in ultrasonic cleaning baths and canals observed in pumps, propellers, etc.
- Since the shock waves formed by cavitation are strong enough to significantly damage moving parts, cavitation is usually an undesirable phenomenon. It is specifically avoided in the design of machines such as turbines or propellers, and eliminating cavitation is a major field in the study of fluid dynamics.
- Hydrodynamic cavitation describes the process of vaporization, bubble generation and bubble implosion which occurs in a flowing liquid as a result of a decrease and subsequent increase in pressure. Cavitation will only occur if the pressure declines to some point below the saturated vapor pressure of the liquid. In pipe systems, cavitation typically occurs either as the result of an increase in the kinetic energy (through an area constriction) or an increase in the pipe elevation.
- Hydrodynamic cavitation can be produced by passing a liquid through a constricted channel at a specific velocity or by mechanical rotation through a liquid. In the case of the constricted channel and based on the specific (or unique) geometry of the system, the combination of pressure and kinetic energy can be created when the hydrodynamic cavitation caverns downstream of the local constriction generating high energy cavitation bubbles.
- The process of bubble generation, subsequent growth and collapse of the cavitation bubbles results in very high energy densities, resulting in very high temperatures and pressures at the surface of the bubbles for a very short time. The overall liquid medium environment, therefore, remains at ambient conditions.

- When uncontrolled, cavitation is damaging; however, by controlling the flow of the cavitation the power is harnessed and non-destructive. Controlled cavitation can be used to enhance chemical reactions or propagate certain unexpected reactions because free radicals are generated in the process due to disassociation of vapor trapped in the cavitating bubbles.
- Cavitation is, in many cases, an undesirable occurrence. In devices such as propellers and pumps, cavitation causes a great deal of noise, damage to components, vibrations, and a loss of efficiency. When the cavitation bubbles collapse, they force energetic liquid into very small volumes, thereby creating spots of high temperature and emitting shockwaves, the latter of which are a source of noise. The noise created by cavitation is a particular problem for military submarines, as it increases the chances of being detected by passive sonar. Although the collapse of a cavity is a relatively low-energy event, highly localized collapses can erode metals, such as steel, over time. The pitting caused by the collapse of cavities produces great wear on components and can dramatically shorten a propeller or pump's lifetime. After a surface is initially affected by cavitation, it tends to erode at an accelerating pace. The cavitation pits increase the turbulence of the fluid flow and create crevasses that act as nucleation sites for additional cavitation bubbles. The pits also increase the components' surface area and leave behind residual stresses. This makes the surface more prone to stress corrosion.



Experiment: 03

- **AIM:** To determine the critical Reynolds number for flow through commercial pipes.
- **THEORY:**
 - Depending upon the relative magnitude of inertia and viscous forces, the flow of fluid in a pipe may be either laminar or turbulent. In laminar flow, viscous effects are more predominant than the inertial effects. But when the velocity of flow is increased, the flow becomes turbulent as shear and normal stress are added to the flow. A convenient measure of the two types of flow is Reynolds number, denoted by Re . It is defined as the ratio of inertia force to the viscous force and is given by the expression VD/ν , where V is the average velocity of flow, D diameter of pipe, and ν is the kinematic viscosity of the fluid. For pipes, if $Re < 2000$, flow is laminar and for $Re > 4000$ the flow is turbulent. For Re lying between 2000-4000, the flow is in the transition state, which refers to the change of flow from laminar to turbulent occurring in some limited region of flow.
 - Osborne Reynolds was the first who demonstrated the existence of the two types of flow, viz. laminar and turbulent, experimentally. Reynolds injected dye as filament at the center of a transparent tube and studied its behavior. He observed that at low flow velocities, the dye remained in the form of straight and stable filament so steadily that it hardly seemed to be in motion. This corresponds to laminar flow conditions. With the increase in velocity of flow, a critical state was reached at which the filament of dye showed signs of irregularities and began to waver. This shows that the flow is no longer laminar but in transitional state. With further increase in velocity of flow, the dye completely diffused over the cross section of the tube and mixed with water. This corresponds to the turbulent flow conditions.
 - The velocity at which the flow changes from laminar to turbulent is called the upper critical velocity, and the corresponding Reynolds number as the upper critical Reynolds number. The velocity at which the flow changes back from turbulent to laminar is called the lower critical velocity, and the corresponding Reynolds number as the lower critical Reynolds number. The upper critical Reynolds number is not a fixed quantity as it depends upon a number of factors such as initial disturbance of flow, the shape of entry to the tube, etc. On the other hand, the lower critical Reynolds number is well established and its value is usually about 2000.
- **EXPERIMENTAL SETUP:**

- The set up consists of a constant head supply tank mounted on a steel plate and placed on MS stand. A Perspex tube is attached to the tank to visualize the different flow conditions. The tank has the provision for supplying dye through a needle at the center of the tube in the form of a jet. The entry of water in Perspex tube is through an elliptical bell mouth then trancesoas to have a smoothen try to the flow. Water is supplied to the tank through an inlet valve provided in the supply pipeline. A regulating valve is provided on the downstream side of the tube to regulate the flow gradually. A collecting tank is provided to measure the discharge. Alternatively, smaller discharge can be measured in the cylinder.

PROCEDURE:

1. Open the inlet valve slightly and maintain constant head in the supply tank by adjusting the inflow. Let the flow become steady.
2. Inject dye slowly and study its characteristic/behavior.
3. Measure discharge.
4. Increase the discharge slightly by opening the outlet valve. Again maintain constant head in the supply tank.
5. Repeat the above step for different discharges till dye gets completely diffused over the cross section of the tube.

(Encircle the reading for which the dye filament wavers for the first time near the outlet end of the tube.)

6. Repeat the experiment with decreasing rate of flow and encircle the reading for which the dye filament wavers for the last time near the outlet end of the tube, as the flow changes back from laminar to turbulent.

OBSERVATIONS AND CALCULATIONS:

Diameter of Perspex tube, d =

Area of conduit, a =

Temperature of water, T

$^{\circ}\text{C}$ =

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Kinematic viscosity of water at T = Area

of collecting tank, A =

- Increasing discharge

RunNo.	Discharge, Q	$V = \frac{Q}{a}$	$Re = \frac{Vd}{\nu}$	Characteristic of dye	Remarks
1.					
2.					
3.					

- Decreasing discharge

RunNo.	Discharge, Q	$V = \frac{Q}{a}$	$Re = \frac{Vd}{\nu}$	Characteristic of dye	Remarks
1.					
2.					
3.					

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Experiment: 04

- **AIM:**To determine the coefficient of discharge of a Broadcrested weir.

- **APPARATUS REQUIRED:**

- 1) A channel or flume to provide a flow passage.
- 2) A broad crested weir.
- 3) Hook-gauge to measure the head over the crest over the crest of weir.
- 4) A collecting tank to fit with a pyrometer, to the discharge over the weir and to find out actual discharge.
- 5) Stopwatch to note the time of collection of water for a known rise of water level in the collecting tank.
- 6) Meter scale to measure the internal plan dimensions of the collecting tank.

- **PROCEDURE:**

Start the experiment by pressing start button with default values of length of the collecting-tank, width of the collecting tank, pause the experiment after few cycles and note the observation.

- **Observation:01**

- 1) Open the control valve and allow the water level to rise up to the skill level of the weir.
- 2) Adjust the tip of the hook gauge such that it coincides with water surface and note the reading on hook gauge scale as h_1 in cm/s.

- **Observation:02**

- 1) Operate the control valves such that water flows over the weir to some height.
- 2) Again adjust the tip of the hook gauge such that it coincides with water surface and note the water level by means of hook gauge as h_2 .

- **Observation3:**

- 1) Note the time required for known rise of water level.
- 2) Keeping the length and width of the collecting tank as default values repeat the experiment by adjusting flow of water and hook gauge.

Calculation:

Theoretical discharge, $Q_t = 1.705 L H^{3/2} \text{ in m}^3/\text{sec}$ Where,

L = Length of the weir measured parallel to width of channel in meters

H = Constant head over the crest on the upstream of channel in meters. $H = (h_2 - h_1)$.

Actual discharge, $Q = \text{Internal plan area of collecting tank} \times \text{rise in collecting tank} / \text{time of collection (t)} \text{ in m}^3/\text{sec}$.

Internal plan area of the tank, $A = L \times B = \text{Actual}$

discharge, $Q_a = A \times H_r =$

T = Time taken for

rise of 10 cms, $H = \text{Rise of water (10 cms)}$

Then, Co-efficient of discharge $C_d = Q_a / Q_t =$

Graph:

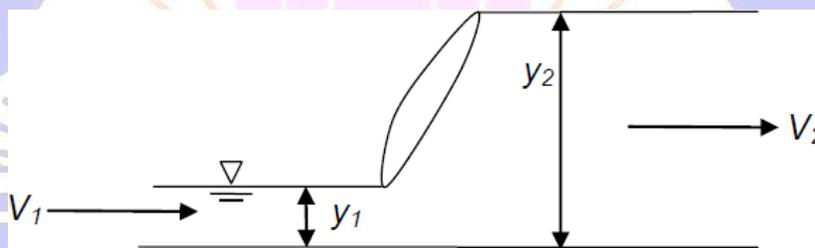
Draw a graph between Q and $H^{3/2}$ taking $H^{3/2}$ on the x-axis.

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EXPERIMENTNO-0 5

- **AIM:** To study the characteristics of a hydraulic jump on a horizontal floor and sloping glacis including friction blocks.
- **THEORY:**
 - Hydraulic jump, also known as a standing wave, is the sudden rise of water level that takes place due to the transformation of unstable (supercritical) flow to stable (subcritical) flow. Hydraulic jump occurs whenever the depth of flow is less than the critical depth. The flow situations where the hydraulic jump may occur are: The channel width is suddenly increased or decreased, steep channel bottom slopes suddenly change to a flat slope, flow below a sluice, flow at the foot of a spillway, etc.
 - The flow in a hydraulic jump is rapidly varied and is accompanied by large scale turbulences, in which a portion of the energy possessed by the flowing water gets dissipated as heat energy. If this energy is not allowed to dissipate, it may cause damage to downstream protection work or natural erodible bed of the channel, causing deep scour and sometime even failure of the structure constructed on the channel. The phenomenon of hydraulic jump is used in the design of hydraulic structure as a mean of energy dissipation device. Consider hydraulic jump formation in a rectangular channel of unit width, take two sections immediately before and after the formation of jump. The depth before jump (say y_1) is called initial depth or pre-jump. After the jump at y_2 is called sequent depth or post-jump depth.



Hydraulic Jump

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- The momentum equation for hydraulic jump in rectangular channel and can be expressed as

$$\frac{y_2}{y_1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(-1 + \sqrt{1 + 8Fr_1^2} \right) \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{y_2}{y_1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(-1 + \sqrt{1 + 8Fr_2^2} \right) \quad (i)$$

Fr_1 = incoming Froude's number, i.e. Froude's number just before jump formation. Fr_2 =

outgoing Froude's number, i.e. Froude's number just before jump

formation. Fr_1 and Fr_2 can be written as

$Fr_1 =$

$$\frac{q}{\sqrt{gy_1^3}} \text{ and } Fr_2 = \frac{q}{\sqrt{gy_2^3}} \quad (ii)$$

Specific energy before jump, $E_1 = y_1 + \frac{q^2}{2gy_1^2}$

Specific energy after jump, $E_2 = y_2 + \frac{q^2}{2gy_2^2}$

Therefore, loss of energy

$$\Delta E = (E_1 - E_2)$$

Loss of energy can also be expressed as

$$\Delta E = \frac{(y_1 - y_2)^3}{4y_1 y_2} \quad (iii)$$

The height of the jump (h_j) is defined as the difference between the depth after and before the jump, i.e.

$$h_j = (y_2 - y_1) \quad (iv)$$

Length of the jump (L_j)

$$L_j = 7h_j \quad (v)$$

EXPERIMENTAL SETUP:

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- The set up consists of a recirculating and tilting rectangular flume. The sidewall of the flume are made of glass and held between vertical angle iron posts fitted to a steel bottom. The flume has bell shape dentranceto minimize the separation of flow; two honeycomb wall at the inlet to ensure uniform flow and a

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sluicgate.The in flow of water in the channel is controlled by using sluice gate provided at the entrance.A tail gate is provided at the downstream end of the flume. The flume has a two circular rail at top for positioning the pointer gauges on wooden platforms and trolleys. Water is supplied to the flume through a supply valve (delivery valve) and a venturimeter are provided in the supply pipe for regulating and measuring the discharge, respectively.

- **PROCEDURE:**

1. Start the pump and open the delivery valve gradually.
2. Adjust the delivery valve, sluice gate and the tail gate so that there forms stable hydraulic jumps in the flume.
3. Measure water depth at the prejump section and the post jump section.
4. Measure discharge by using venturimeter.
5. Repeat step(2)and(4) for other discharges by regulating the supply.

- **OBSERVATIONS AND COMPUTATIONS:**

Width of flume, B =

Pointer gauge reading at bed, y_0 =

Run No.	Discharge, q	y_2/y_1	Fr_1	y_2/y_1	h_j	L_j	E
1.							
2.							
3.							

- **GRAPH:**

1. Plot (y_2/y_1) versus Fr_1 on an ordinary graph paper. On the same plot, draw a line represented by Eq.(IV) and

note the scatter of the observed data.

2. Plotagraph between h_j and Fr_1 .
3. Plotagraph between E AND Fr_1 .

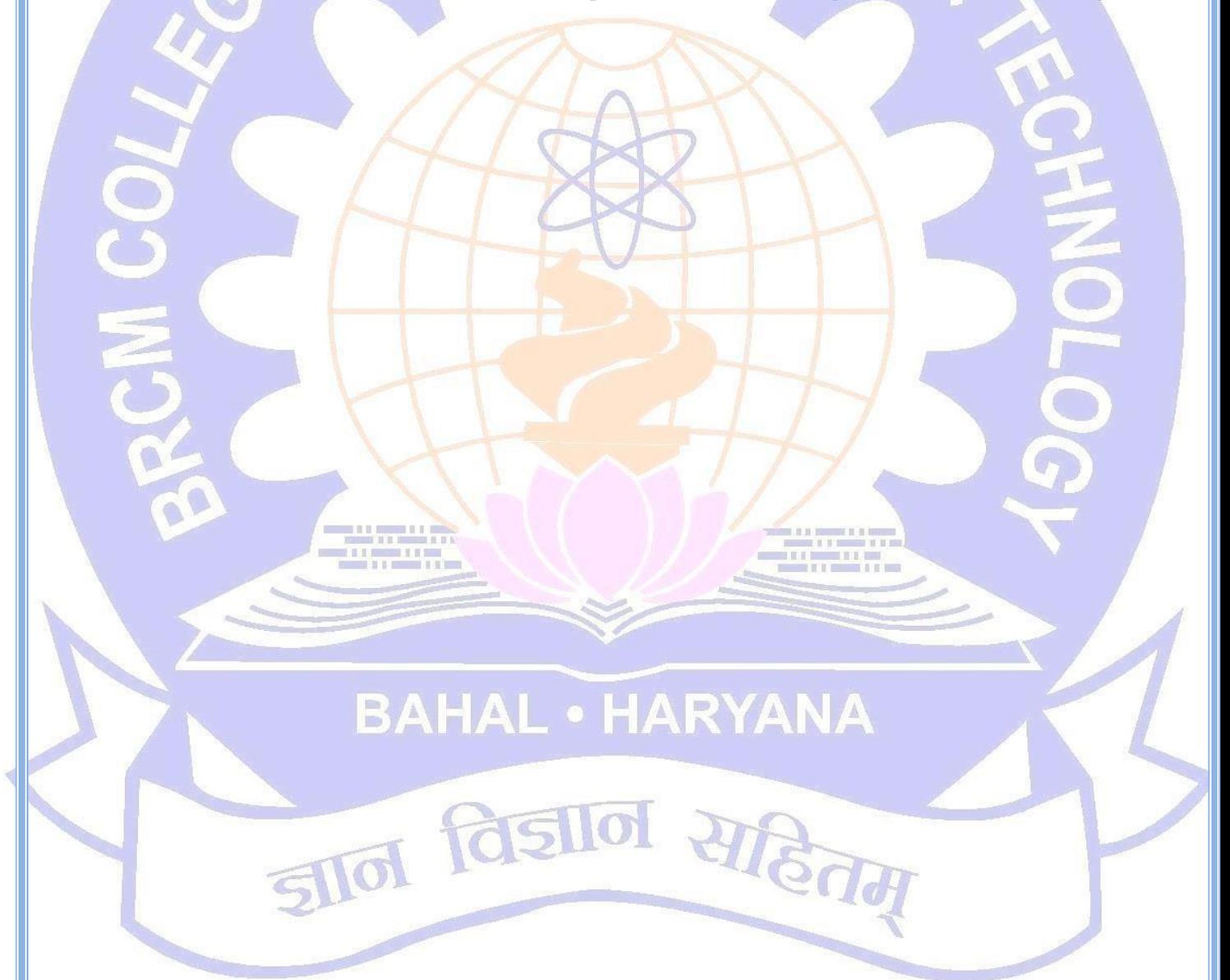


EXPERIMENTNO-06

- **AIM:** To study the scouring phenomenon around a bridge pier model
- **THEORY:-**
 - **Bridge scouring** is the removal of sediment such as sand and rocks from around bridge abutments and piers. Scour, caused by swiftly moving water, can scoop out scour holes, compromising the integrity of structure. Bridge scour is one of the three main causes of bridge failure. It has been estimated that 60% of all bridge failures result from scour and other hydraulic related causes.
 - Water normally flows faster around piers and abutments making them susceptible to local scour. At bridge openings, contraction scour can occur when water accelerates as it flows through an opening that is narrower than the channel upstream from the bridge. Degradation scour occurs both upstream and downstream from a bridge over large areas. Over long periods of time, this can result in lowering of the streambed.
 - Stream channel instability resulting in river erosion and changing angles-of-attack can contribute to bridge scour. Debris can also have a substantial impact on bridge scour in several ways. A build-up of material can reduce the size of the waterway under a bridge causing contraction scour in the channel. A build-up of debris on the abutment can increase the obstruction area and increase local scour. Debris can deflect the water flow, changing the angle of attack, increasing local scour. Debris might also shift the entire channel around the bridge causing increased water flow and scour in another location. During flooding, although the foundations of a bridge might not suffer damage, the fill behind abutments may scour. This type of damage typically occurs with single-span bridges with vertical wall abutments.
 - The examination process is normally conducted by hydrologists and hydrologic technicians, and involves a review of historical engineering information about the bridge, followed by a visual inspection. Information is recorded about the type of rock or sediment carried by the river, and the angle at which the river flows toward and away from the bridge. The area under the bridge is also inspected for holes and other evidence of scour. Bridge examination begins by office investigation. The history of the bridge and any previous scour related problems should be notified. Once a bridge is recognized as a potential scour bridge, it will proceed to further evaluation which includes field review, scour vulnerability analysis and prioritize. Bridges will also be rated in different categories and prioritize for scour risk. Future implementation of scour counter measures includes monitoring plans, inspections after flood events, and procedures for closing bridges if necessary. Alternatively, sensing technologies are also being put in place for scour assessment. The scour-sensing level can be classified into three levels: general bridge inspection, collecting limited data and collecting detailed data. There are three different types of scour-monitoring systems: fixed, portable and geophysical positioning. Each system can help to detect scour damage in an effort to avoid bridge failure, thus increase public safety. Bend way weirs, spurs and guide banks can help to align the upstream flow while riprap, gabions, articulated concrete blocks and grout filled mattresses can mechanically stabilize the pier and abutment slopes. Riprap remains the most common counter measure used to prevent scour at bridge abutments. A number of physical additions to the abutments of bridges can help prevent

scour, such as the installation of gabions and stone pitching upstream from the foundation. The addition of sheet piles or interlocking prefabricated concrete blocks can also offer protection. These countermeasures do not change the scouring flow and are temporary since the components are known to move or be washed away in a flood.

- Trapezoidal-shaped channels through a bridge can significantly decrease *local scour* depths compared to vertical wall abutments, as they provide a smoother transition through a bridge opening. This eliminates abrupt corners that cause turbulent areas. Spur dikes, barbs, groynes, and vanes are river training structures that change stream hydraulics to mitigate undesirable erosion or deposits. They are usually used on unstable stream channels to help redirect stream flow to more desirable locations through the bridge. The insertion of piles or deeper footings is also used to help strengthen bridges.



EXPERIMENTNO-07

- **AIM:** To determine headloss due to various pipe fittings

- **THEORY:**

- The losses of energy, or head, in full-flowing conduits can be classified into two components: (1) energy loss due to the frictional resistance of the conduit walls to flow, and (2) energy loss due to the pipe fittings and appurtenances (e.g., bends, contractions, and valves). The latter is referred to as minor, or form, loss and is associated with a change in magnitude and/or direction of the flow velocity. Generally, the more abrupt the change, the higher the associated energy loss. For long pipeline ($L/D > 2000$), the energy loss is predominantly associated with friction and minor losses are small. However, minor losses would comprise a considerable part of the total energy loss for a system that is relatively short and has a large number of fittings. Therefore, it is important for a designer to carefully consider both types of losses in the design of distribution systems.

To determine the head loss across a pipe appurtenance, consider the energy equation written between two sections: immediately before (1), and after (2) the pipe appurtenance

$$\frac{P_1}{\rho g} + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} + Z_1 = \frac{P_2}{\rho g} + \frac{V_2^2}{2g} + Z_2 + h_l \quad (i)$$

where z is the elevation of the centerline of the pipe relative to an arbitrary datum, V is flow velocity, g is the gravitational constant, p is pressure at the centerline of the pipe, ρ is the specific gravity of the fluid, and h_l is the head loss between sections 1 and 2. When only a short distance separates sections 1 and 2, h_l is a direct measure of minor loss. The velocities in equation (i) can be evaluated if the flow rate and pipe dimensions are known. If the pressure at sections 1 and 2 can be measured, the energy equation can then be used to evaluate the unknown head loss through the pipe.

The energy loss that occurs through a pipe fitting, is commonly expressed in terms of velocity head in the form

$$h_l = K \frac{V^2}{2g} \quad (ii)$$

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where K is the dimensionless minor loss coefficient for the pipe fitting, and V is the mean velocity of flow into the fitting.

Because of the complexity of flow through various fittings, K is usually determined by experiment. In this case, the head loss is calculated from manometer readings, taken before and after each fitting, and K is then determined as

$$K = \frac{h}{\frac{V^2}{2g}} \quad \text{(iii)}$$

- For contractions and expansions, an additional change in static pressure is experienced due to the change in pipe cross-sectional area through the enlargement and contraction. To eliminate the effects of this area change on the measured head losses, this value should be added to the head loss reading for an enlargement, and subtracted from the head loss reading for a contraction.

For a gate valve, pressure difference before and after a valve can be measured directly using a pressure gauge. This can be converted to an equivalent head loss using the equation.

- **Procedure:**

1. Open the bench valve, the gate valve and the flow control valve and start the pump to fill the test rig with water.
2. Bleed air, if present, from the pressure taps and the manometers by adjusting the bench and flow control valves and air bleed screw.
3. Check that all the manometer levels lie within the scale when all the valves are fully opened. Adjust the levels, if necessary, using the air bleed screw and the hand pump.
4. For a selected flow rate, record the reading from all the manometers (that are tapped before and after each appurtenance: enlargement, contraction, long bend, short bend, elbow, miter) after the water levels have steadied.
5. Determine the flow rate by accumulating a fixed volume of water in the volumetric tank with help of a stopper. Use a digital stopwatch to record time and the sight window of the bench to find the volume of water.
6. Repeat steps (4) and (5) for two more flow rates.
7. Clamp off the connecting tube to the miter bend pressure tapplings (to prevent air from being drawn into the system). Start with the gate valve fully closed and the bench valve and control valve fully open. Open the gate valve 50% of its total opening (after taking up any backlash). Record the gauge reading for the half open condition.
8. Adjust the flow rate with the control valve and measure pressure drop across the gate valve from the pressure gauge. Also, measure the volume flow rate by timed collection of water.
9. Repeat the step (8) for two more flow rates.

- **Results:**

1. Calculate head loss (h) across the fittings for each flow rate in step (4)-(6).
2. Calculate the velocity head for each flow rate. Then calculate K for each bend using equation (iii); for the contraction and the enlargement using equations (iii) and (iv); and for the gate valve using equations (iii) and (v).

3. For each pipe fitting ,plot head loss(h_l)vs. $V^2/2g$,and K vs.volumetric flowrate, Q .
4. Discuss your results. Specifically, comment on whether it is justifiable to treat the loss coefficient as a constant for a given fitting.

