International Journal of Mechanical Engineering and Technology (IJMET)
Volume 16, Issue 1, May-June 2025, pp. 46-66, Article ID: IJMET_16_03_003
Available online at https://iaeme.com/Home/issue/IJMET?Volume=16&Issue=3
ISSN Print: 0976-6340; ISSN Online: 0976-6359; Journal ID: 4544-4179
Impact Factor (2025): 20.99 (Based on Google Scholar Citation)
DOI: https://doi.org/10.34218/IJMET_16_03_003

FLOW RESISTANCE UNVEILED: ANALYZING MAJOR LOSES IN PIPELINE SYSTEMS

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ABSTRACT

The study of fluid flow through pipelines is fundamental in engineering applications ranging from water supply systems to industrial process layouts. This research investigates the major and minor losses encountered in pipe systems due to factors such as friction, sudden expansions or contractions, bends, valves, and fittings. Using both theoretical analysis and simulation via ANSYS Fluent, the paper quantifies pressure drops under various flow conditions in pipes with different bend angles, notably 90-degree elbows. Emphasis is placed on the Darcy-Weisbach equation for major losses and empirical correlations for minor losses, allowing for precise determination of the head loss and flow efficiency. The study also explores the influence of Reynolds number, pipe roughness, and flow regime on loss coefficients. The results highlight the critical role of optimized pipe geometry and fittings placement in minimizing energy losses in fluid transport systems. This investigation not only deepens the understanding of internal pipe flow dynamics but also provides design insights for more efficient and cost-effective piping networks.

Keywords: Major losses, Minor losses, Pipe bends, Pressure drop, Head loss, Darcy–Weisbach equation, ANSYS Fluent, Flow resistance, Reynolds number, Turbulent flow, Pipe fittings, Energy dissipation.

Cite this Article: Parvani Thorat, Rushikesh Patil, Akash Patil, Sangram Patil, Shreyash Padir, Parth Salunke. (2025). Flow Resistance Unveiled: Analyzing Major Loses in Pipeline Systems. *International Journal of Mechanical Engineering and Technology (IJMET)*, 16(3), 46-66.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Pipe network is very common in industries throughout the country, where fluid and gases are transported from one point to another. The pressure loss depends on the type of flow of the fluid in the network, pipe material, and the fluid flowing through the pipe. When any fluid flows through a pipe, the velocity adjacent to the pipe wall is zero and the velocity gradually increases from the wall. Maximum velocity is observed at the centre of the pipe. Due to increase in the velocity gradient, shear stresses are produced in the fluid due to its viscosity. This viscous action attributes to loss of energy which is commonly known as loss due friction or frictional loss. William Froude stated the following laws of fluid friction under turbulent flow. For a turbulent flow, frictional resistance is: 1. Directly proportional to Vn, where n varies between 1.5 and 2. 2. Proportional to fluid density. 3. Proportional to surface area in contact. 4. Independent of the pressure 5. Dependent on the nature of the surface in contact. If losses are minute in a pipe network then the efficiency is higher. Moreover, all networks should be designed to undergo minimum loss.

Minor losses in pipes come from changes and components in a pipe system. This is different from major losses because those come from friction in pipes over long spans. If the pipe is long enough the minor losses can usually be neglected as they are much smaller than the major losses. Even though they are termed “minor”, the losses can be greater than the major losses, for example, when a valve is almost closed the loss can be almost infinite or when there is a short pipe with many bends in it. There are three types of forces that contribute to the total head in a pipe, which are elevation head, pressure head, and velocity head. Minor losses are directly related to the velocity head of a pipe, meaning that the higher the velocity head there is, the greater the losses will be.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Ackeret et al [1] discussed special features of internal flow. He concluded that there is a predominant role played by the equation of continuity, especially if compressibility is involved. If the width of the duct is not growing too fast along its length, separation is followed by reattachment. He observed that in case of internal flow also, three-dimensional boundary layers can appear as in external flow. We have applied equation of continuity to pipes of different geometry when fluid is flowing through it. Celata et al [2] investigated the possibility of wall roughness effects and geometric deviations for micro tubes ranging from 31 to 326 micro meters. The intent was to model how accurately fluid flow behaved in accordance with the classical Hagen-Poiseuille flow for different diameter micro tubes, and to possibly see around what size deviation from this accepted flow model occurred. An uncertainty analysis was carried out for the Darcy equation, and a slip parameter was incorporated into the laminar velocity profile equation to extrapolate a modified Darcy equation. By this we have simulated the pipes having different geometry. Hager and Dupraz et al (1985) [3] derived a theoretical equation for obtaining the coefficient of contraction in terms of the contraction ratio, the inlet angle of the contraction and the length ratio of the contracted reach. The flow conditions were those of transitional flow from subcritical to supercritical passing through critical at the minimum depth point through the contraction length. They verified their expression experimentally. Based on this, we have calculated loss coefficient by conducting experiment on different pipes and compared the results with ANSYS results. Laursen et al (1970) [4] studied the contraction coefficient at sudden expansion at bridge locations. Four distinct flow zones (accretion, contraction, expansion and abstraction) were identified and discussed. It was found that the contraction coefficient varies between 0.7 for about 30% contraction ratio and 1.0 for no contraction. The use of different constrictions for peak discharge measurement by indirect methods was discussed by Matthi (1976) and was outlined in French (1986). We have calculated the loss coefficient and had observed the variations by considering different pipe geometry. 6 Kindsvater, Carter and Lacy et al (1953) and Kindsvater and Carter et al (1955) [5] carried out an experimental investigation to address the effects of different types of contractions on discharge characteristics. Formica (1955) tested experimentally the various design for channel transition (contraction and expansion). The main results of Formica work are reported in Chow (1959). Basing on this we have conducted the experiment for different discharge for a certain volume. Rathakrishnan et al and Sreekanth et al [6] studied flows in pipe with sudden enlargement. They concluded that the non-dimensional base pressure is a strong function of the expansion area ratios, the overall pressure ratios and the duct length-to-diameter ratios. They showed that for a given overall pressure ratio and a given area ratio, it is possible to identify an optimal length-to-diameter ratio of the enlargement that will result in maximum exit plane total pressure at the nozzle exit on the symmetry axis (i.e. minimum pressure loss in the nozzle) and in a minimum base pressure at the sudden enlargement plane. By this study, we have come to know that as the diameter of the pipe changes for a given length, pressure variation is observed. Wick et al [7] has studied the effect of boundary layer on sonic flow through an abrupt cross sectional area. He observed experimentally that the pressure in the corner of expansion was related to the boundary layer type and thickness upstream of the expansion. He considered boundary layer as a source of fluid for the corner flow. Based on this concept of boundary layer, we have observed the variations in velocity from the centre of the pipe to the extreme walls. At the centre, the velocity is found to be maximum. Due to the relative motion between the fluid molecules, a decrease in the velocity is observed from the centre to pipe walls. At the pipe wall, the fluid molecules come to rest due to the direct contact between fluid molecules and pipe wall. The fluid layer next to this has a velocity nearer to zero and it thereby varies from layer to layer.

III. OBJECTIVES

• Calculate the minor losses (due to sudden expansion, sudden contraction and bend) in lab and find the co-efficient of loss for their geometry. • Modelling of different pipe geometry like elbow, sudden enlarge, sudden contract pipe etc. in ANSYS software. • Simulation of fluid flow through these pipes. • Calculation of minor losses with the help of ANSYS. • Comparison of ANSYS obtained results with experimental obtained results.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This project can broadly be divided into the following stages. 1) Identifying the problem statement and formulating objectives. 2) Preparation for project: a. This includes all preparatory things like literature review, data collection from laboratory etc. b. Laboratory practical that are to be undertaken for this project are frictional losses in pipes of different geometry. c. Various models of pipes are to be modelled in ANSYS Software for the analysis and comparison of the results from laboratory and ANSYS. 3) Optimization of result: a. Flow analysis for fluid flowing through different pipe geometry using data obtained from practical, theoretical and ANSYS methods. b.Comparison between ANSYS and experimental results.

V. MINOR LOSSES IN PIPE:

Minor losses in pipes come from changes and components in a pipe system. This is different from major losses because those come from friction in pipes over long spans. If the pipe is long enough the minor losses can usually be neglected as they are much smaller than the major losses. Even though they are termed “minor”, the losses can be greater than the major losses, for example, when a valve is almost closed the loss can be almost infinite or when there is a short pipe with many bends in it. There are three types of forces that contribute to the total head in a pipe, which are elevation head, pressure head, and velocity head. Minor losses are directly related to the velocity head of a pipe, meaning that the higher the velocity head there is, the greater the losses will be. Units for minor losses are in length, such as feet or meters, the same as any of the three types of head. A separate head loss coefficient, k, can be determined for every element leading to minor losses. K is a dimensionless parameter to help determine head loss. The coefficient is then multiplied by the velocity head to get the head loss as shown below, Head loss = head loss coefficient × velocity head $h = k \times v\ 2g$ Where, h is the head loss □ □ is the loss coefficient. □ □ is the velocity □ □ is the acceleration due to gravity Each, geometry of pipe entrance has an associated loss coefficient. The minor loss of energy (or head) happens in the following cases: 1. Loss of head due to bend in the pipe. 2. Loss of head due to sudden expansion. 3. Loss of head due to contraction. 4. Loss of head due to different pipe fitting. 5. Loss of head due to entrance of a pipe. 15 3.3.1 Loss of head due to sudden expansion: Expansions are defined when the flow in a pipe goes from a small area to a larger area and the velocity slows down. It is the exact opposite for contractions, the flow goes from a larger pipe to a smaller one and the velocity increases. The loss or energy is due to turbulence, or eddies, formed at the point where the pipe sizes change. Because of sudden change in diameter across the pipe from D 1 to D 2 , the fluid flowing through the pipe is not fit to the unexpected change of the boundary. Thus, the flow separates from the boundary and turbulent eddies are formed as indicated in fig 3.1. The loss of head happens because of the creation of these eddies.

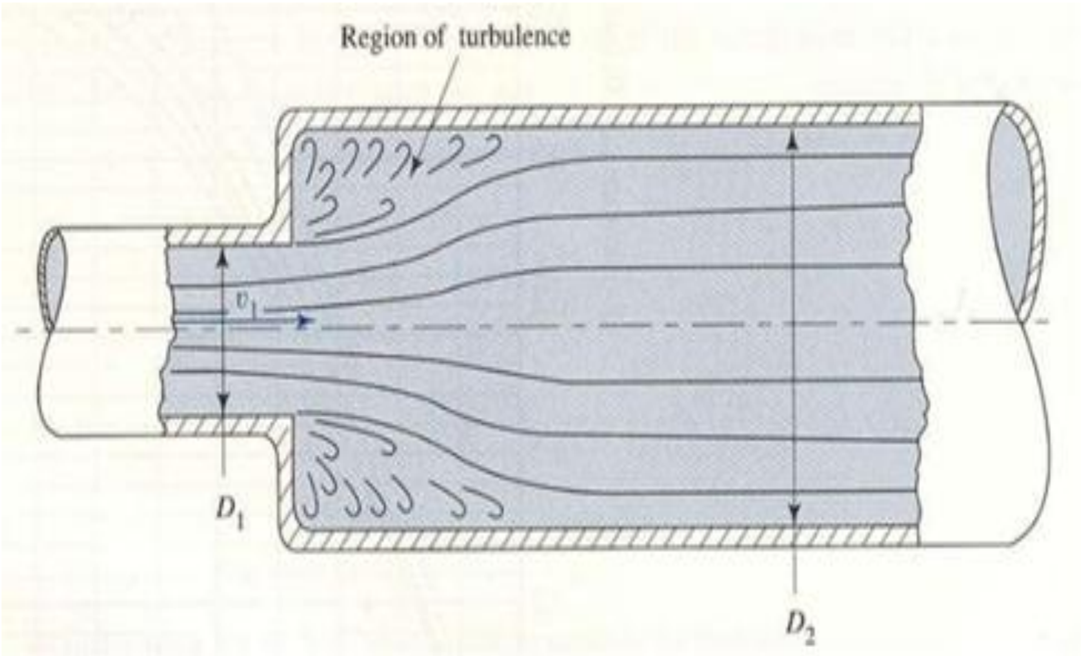


Fig. 1.

Loss of energy is a result of turbulence. Measure of turbulence relies upon the difference in the pipe diameters. Head loss, Where,

h e = loss in head due to expansion. V1 =velocity at D1.

Loss due to sudden contraction: Sudden contractions are defined when the area of the pipe diameter reduces suddenly along the length of the channel (at the 90-degree plot). The downstream velocity will be higher than the upstream velocity. The streamlines cannot follow the abrupt change of geometry and hence gradually converge from an upstream section of the larger tube. However, immediately downstream of the junction of contraction of area, the cross-sectional area of the stream tube becomes the minimum and less than that of the smaller pipe. This section of the stream tube is known as vena-contracta, after which the stream widens again to fill the pipe. The flow pattern after the vena-contracta is similar to that after an abrupt enlargement, and the loss of head is confined between section 1-1 and section 2-2. Therefore, we can say that the loss due to contraction is not for the contraction itself, but due to the expansion followed by the contraction.

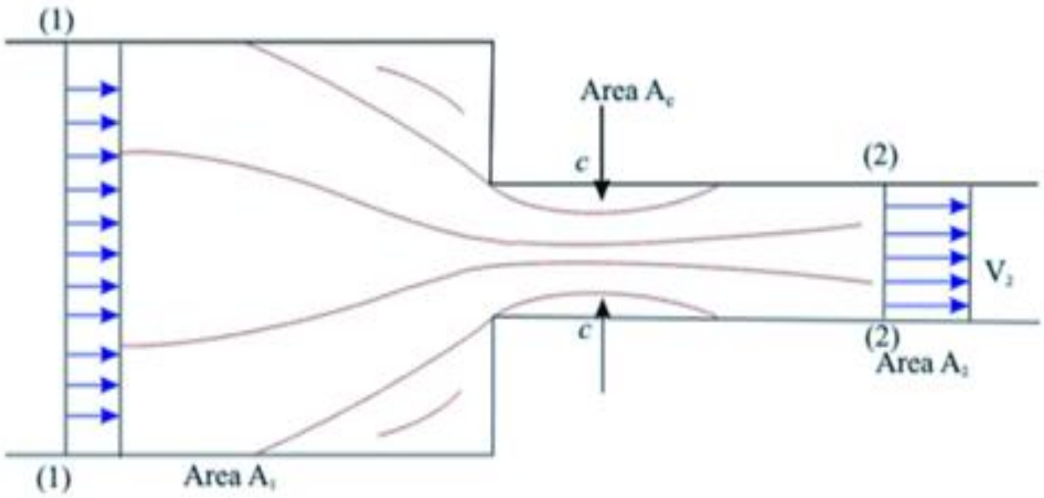


Fig. 2.

Loss of head due to bend in pipe: Bends are provided in pipes to change the direction of flow through it. An additional loss of head, apart from that due to fluid friction, takes place in the course of flow through pipe bend. The fluid takes a curved path while flowing through the pipe bend as shown.

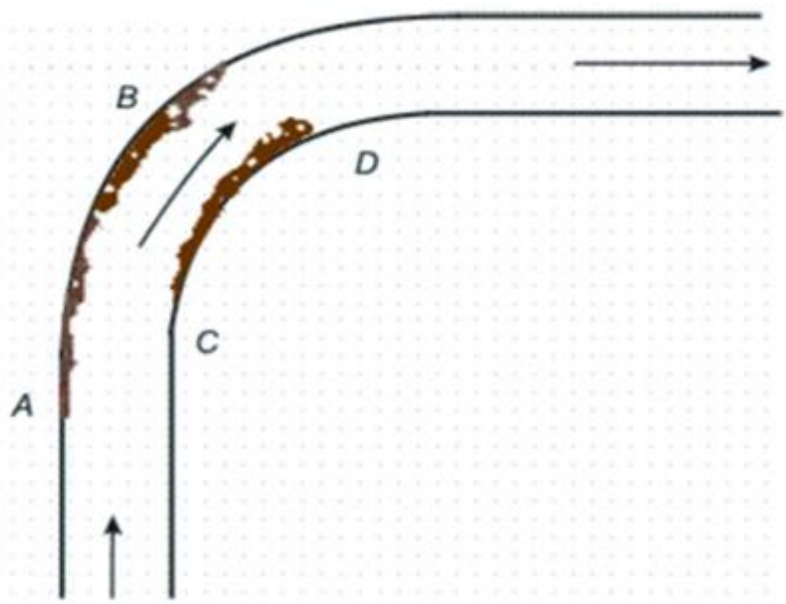


Fig 3.

Whenever a fluid flows in a curved path, there must be a force acting radially inwards on the fluid to provide the inward acceleration, known as centripetal acceleration. Fluid particles in this region, because of their close proximity to the wall, have low velocities and cannot overcome the adverse pressure gradient and this leads to a separation of flow from the boundary and consequent losses of energy in generating local eddies. Losses also take place due to a secondary flow in the radial plane of the pipe because of a change in pressure in the radial depth of the pipe.

VI. INTRODUCTION TO ANSYS

ANSYS is a general-purpose finite element modelling package for numerically solving a wide variety of mechanical problems. These problems include static/dynamic, structural analysis (both linear and nonlinear), heat transfer, and fluid problems, as well as acoustic and electromagnetic problems. ANSYS is the standard FEA technique in Mechanical Engineering Department also used in Civil and Electrical Engineering, as well as in the Physics and Chemistry departments. ANSYS provides a cost-effective way to explore the performance of products or processes in a virtual environment. This type of product development is termed virtual prototyping. With virtual prototyping techniques, users can iterate various scenarios to optimize the product long before the manufacturing is started. This enables a reduction in the level of risk, and in the cost of ineffective designs. The multifaceted nature of ANSYS also provides a means to ensure that users are able to see the effect of a design on the whole behaviour of the product, be it electromagnetic, thermal, mechanical etc. 3.4.1 Generic Steps for Solving Any Problem in ANSYS Like solving any problem analytically, we need to define our solution domain, physical model, boundary conditions and the physical properties in ANSYS. You then solve the problem and present the results, compare to numerical methods, the main difference is an extra step called mesh generation. This is the step that • Build Geometry • Define Material Properties • Generate Mesh • Apply Loads, and boundary conditions • Obtain Solution • Present the Results Build Geometry: In this stage construct a two or three-dimensional representation of the object to be modelled and tested using the work plane coordinate system within ANSYS. Define Material Properties: Now that the part exists, define a library of the necessary materials and material properties that compose the object (or project) being modelled. This includes thermal and mechanical properties of the object. Generate Mesh: At this point ANSYS understands the makeup of the part. Now define how the modelled system should be broken down into finite pieces. Apply Loads: Once the system is fully designed, the last task is to apply the system with constraints, such as physical loadings or boundary conditions. Obtain Solution: In this step we obtain the solution. In this step we need to understand within what state (steady state, transient… etc.) the problem must be solved. Present the Results: After the solution has been obtained, there are many ways to present ANSYS results, choose from many options such as tables, graphs, and contour plots. 3.4.2 ANSYS Fluent Features a) Efficient and Flexible Workflow Fluent is fully integrated into the ANSYS Workbench environment, a platform designed for efficient and flexible workflows, CAD associatively and powerful capabilities in geometry modelling and meshing. The built-in parameter manager makes it easy to rapidly explore multiple design options. b) Go Faster with High Performance Computing (HPC) With HPC, ANSYS Fluent delivers CFD simulation solutions faster so that engineers and designers can make better decisions sooner in the design cycle. While ANSYS HPC provides linear scalability on systems with tens of thousands of processors, there is more to HPC than just the number of cores. ANSYS also optimizes processor architecture, algorithms for model partitioning, optimized communications and load balancing between processors to deliver results in breath-taking speed on a wide variety of simulation models. c) Turbulence Modelling ANSYS Fluent software places special emphasis on providing a wide range of turbulence models to capture the effects of turbulence accurately and efficiently. Several innovative models such as the Menter–Langtry γ–θ laminar–turbulent transition model™ are available only in Fluent. d) Fluid-Structure Interaction Fluent models the effects of solid motion on fluid flow by coupling with ANSYS structural mechanics solutions through the Workbench unified user environment. Fluent users enjoy robust and accurate two-way FSI without the need to purchase, administer or configure third party coupling and pre- and post-processing software. e) Heat Transfer & Radiation Fluent handles all types of radiative heat exchange in and between fluids and solids, from fully and semi-transparent to radiation, or opaque. You can choose from a variety of spectral models to account for wavelength dependencies in a simulation and to account for scattering effects. 3.5

COMPUTATIONAL FLUID DYNAMICS: 3.5.1 DEFINITION AND HISTORY:

Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) is the use of computer-based simulation to analyse systems involving fluid flow, heat transfer and associated phenomena such as chemical reaction. A numerical model is first constructed using a set of mathematical equations that describe the flow. These equations are then solved using a computer programme in order to obtain the flow variables throughout the flow domain. 3.5.2 GOVERNING EQUATIONS The governing equations of fluid flow represent mathematical statements of the conservation laws of physics. Each individual governing equation represents a conservation principle.

APPLICATIONS OF CFD:

The earliest adopters of CFD were the aerospace, automotive and nuclear industries. Further growth and development in CFD and its ability to model complex phenomena along with the rapid increase in computer power have constantly widened the range of application of CFD. CFD is applied in a wide range of industries including mechanical, process, petroleum, power, metallurgical, biomedical, and pharmaceutical and food industries. CFD techniques have been applied on a broad scale in the process industry to gain insight into various flow phenomena, examine different equipment designs or compare performance under different operating conditions. Examples of CFD applications in the chemical process industry include drying, combustion, separation, heat exchange, mass transfer, pipeline flow, reaction, mixing, multiphase systems and material processing. 3.5.4

ADVANTAGES OF CFD

• No restriction to linearity.

• Complicated physics can be treated.

• Time evaluation of flow can be obtained. • It has the potential of providing information not available by other means.

• Computational investigation can be performed with remarkable speed. Designer can study the implications of hundreds of different configurations in minimum time and choose the optimum design.

• It gives detailed and complete information. It can provide the values of all the relevant variables (pressure, velocity, temperature, concentration, turbulence) throughout the domain of interest. 3.5.5

DISADVANTAGES

• Truncation errors

• Boundary condition problems

• Computer costs

• Computer storage & speed

CFD ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) study of the system starts with the construction of desired geometry and mesh for modelling the dominion. Generally, geometry is simplified for the CFD studies. Meshing is the discrete process of the domain into small volumes where the equations are solved by the help of iterative methods. Modelling starts with the describing of the boundary and initial conditions for the dominion and leads to modelling of the entire system. Finally, it is followed by the analysis of the results, discussions and conclusions. The complete

CFD analysis procedure can be divided into the following six stages. a) Initial thinking It is very important to understand as much as possible about the problem being simulated in order to accurately define it. This stage involves collecting all the necessary data required for the simulation including geometry details, fluid properties, flow specifications, and boundary and initial conditions. b) Geometry creation The geometry of the flow domain is created using specialised drawing software. Usually, 2-D sketches are first drawn and 3-D tools are then used to generate the full geometry. c) Mesh generation In this stage the continuous space of the flow domain is divided into sufficiently small discrete cells, the distribution of which determines the positions where the flow variables are to be calculated and stored. Variable gradients are generally more accurately calculated on a fine mesh than on a coarse one. A fine mesh is therefore particularly important in regions where large variations in the flow variables are expected. A fine mesh, however, requires more computational power and time. The mesh size is optimised by conducting a mesh independence test whereby, starting with a coarse mesh, the mesh size is refined until the simulation results are no longer affected by any further refinement. d) Flow specification Flow specification involves defining the fluid physical properties, flow models, boundary conditions, and initial flow conditions, as determined in the initial thinking stage.

Calculation of the numerical solution When all the information required for the simulation has been specified, the CFD software performs iterative calculations to arrive at a solution to the numerical equations representing the flow. The user needs also to provide the information that will control the numerical solution process such as the advection scheme and convergence criteria. f) Results analysis Having obtained the solution, the user can then analyse the results in order to check that the solution is satisfactory and to determine the required flow data. If the results obtained are unsatisfactory, the possible source of error needs to be identified, which can be an incorrect flow specification, a poor mesh quality, or a conceptual mistake in the formulation of the problem.

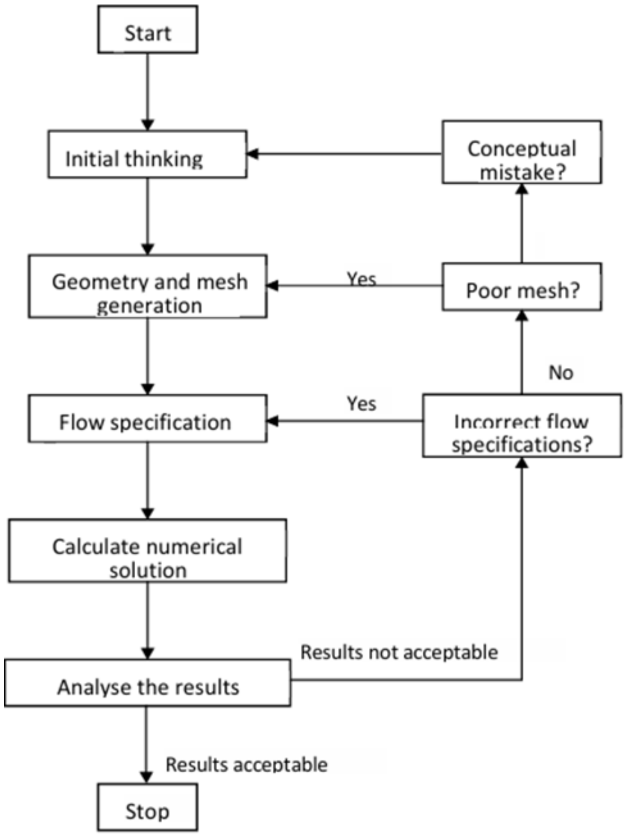


Fig. 4.

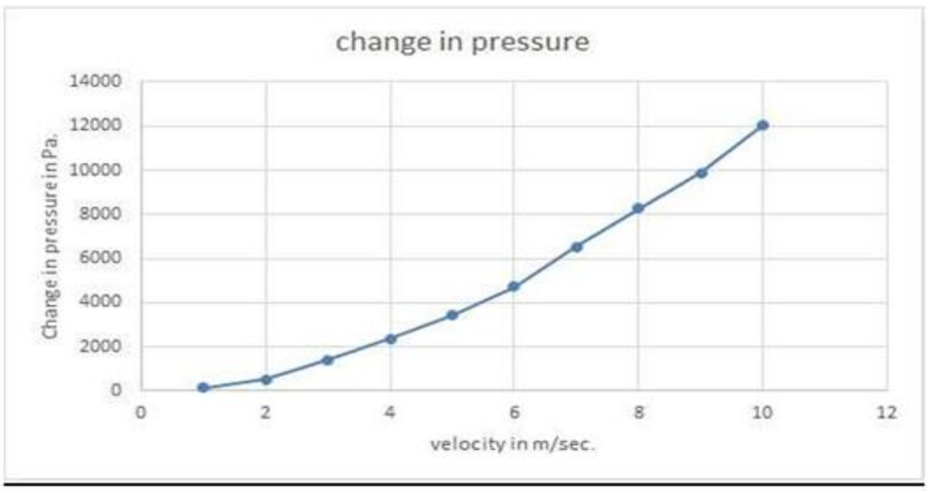
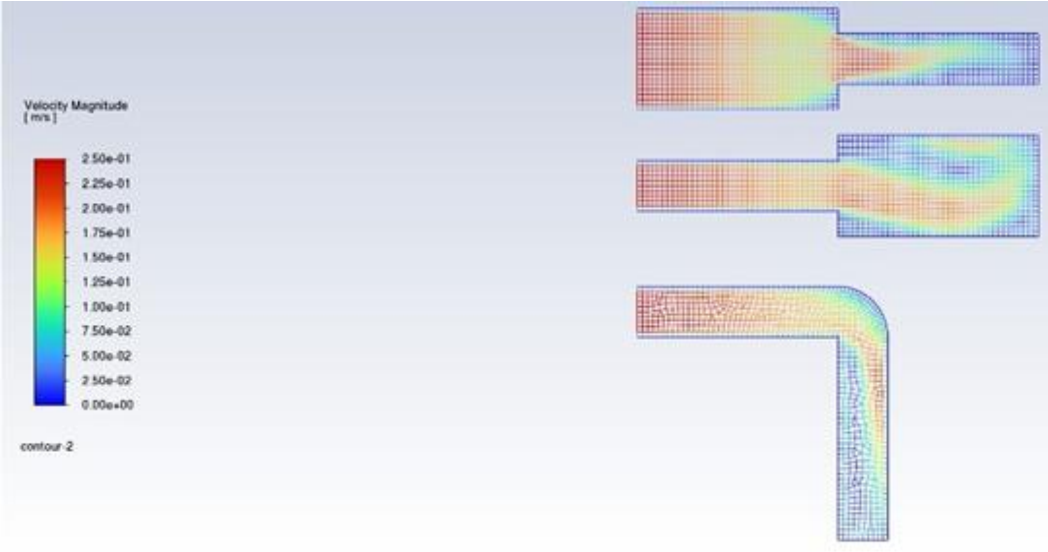


Fig. 5. Variation of pressure difference at different velocity


Velocity Magnitude
[m/s]
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2.25e-01
2.00e-01
1.75e-01
1.50e-01
1.25e-01
1.00e-01
7.50e-02
5.00e-02
2.50e-02
0.00e+00
contour-2

Fig . 6.

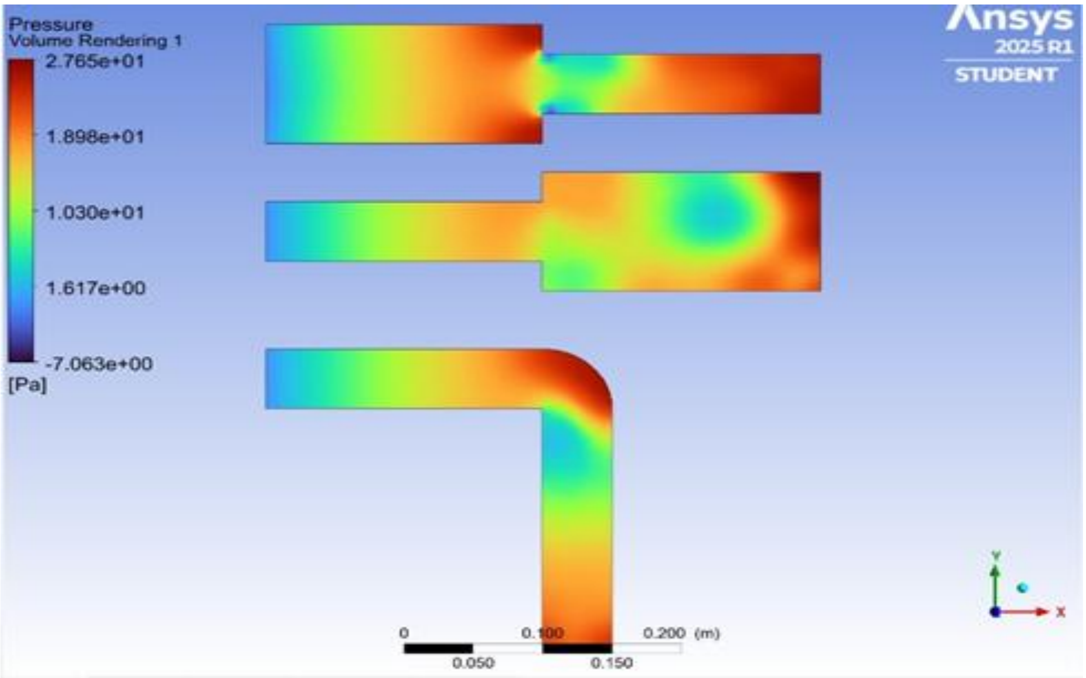

Pressure
Volume Rendering 1
2.765e+01
1.898e+01
1.030e+01
1.617e+00
-7.063e+00
[Pa]
Ansys
2025 R1
STUDENT
0
0.100
0.200 (m)
0.050
0.150

Fig. 7.

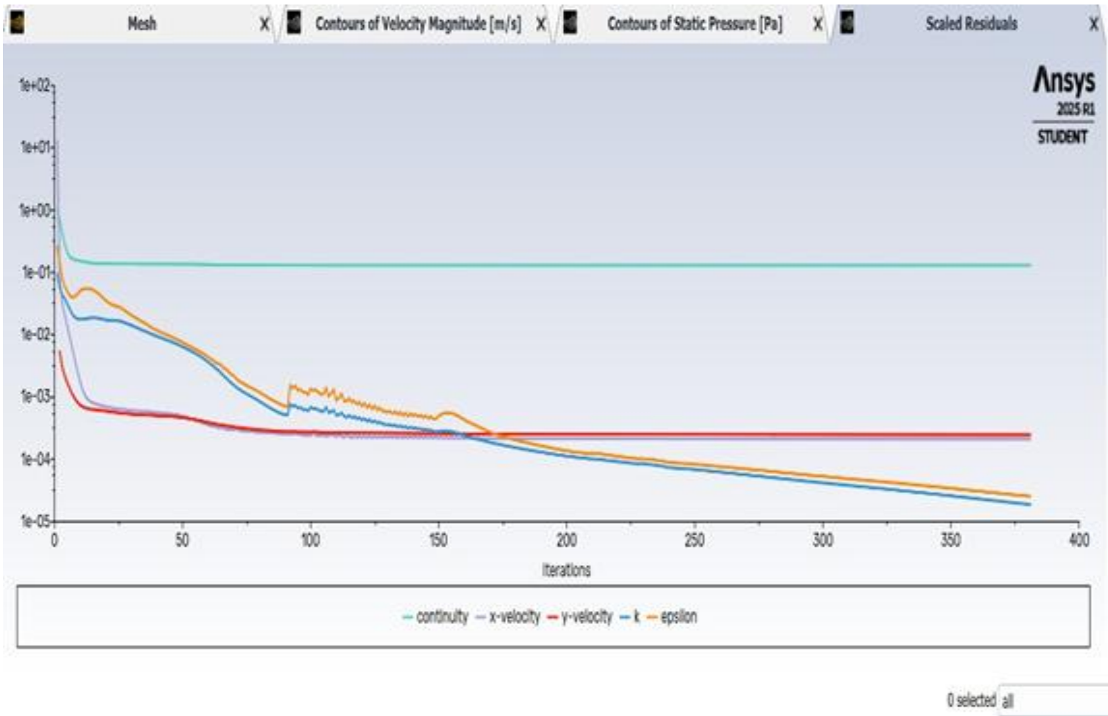
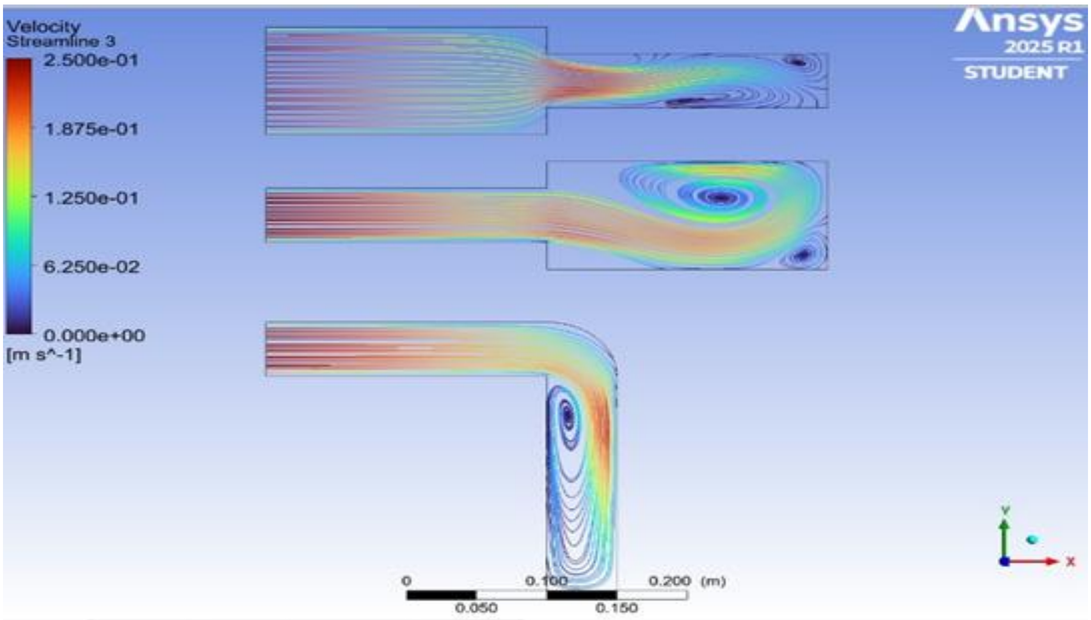

Mesh
Contours of Velocity Magnitude [m/s]
Contours of Static Pressure [Pa]
Scaled Residuals
Ansys
2025 R1
STUDENT
1e+02
1e+01
1e+00
1e-01
1e-02
1e-03
1e-04
1e-05
0
50
100
150
200
250
300
350
400
Iterations
continuity
x-velocity
y-velocity
k
epsilon
0 selected
all

Fig. 8.


Velocity
Streamline 3
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1.875e-01
1.250e-01
6.250e-02
0.000e+00
[m s^-1]
Ansys
2025 R1
STUDENT
0
0.100
0.200
(m)
0.050
0.150

Fig. 9.

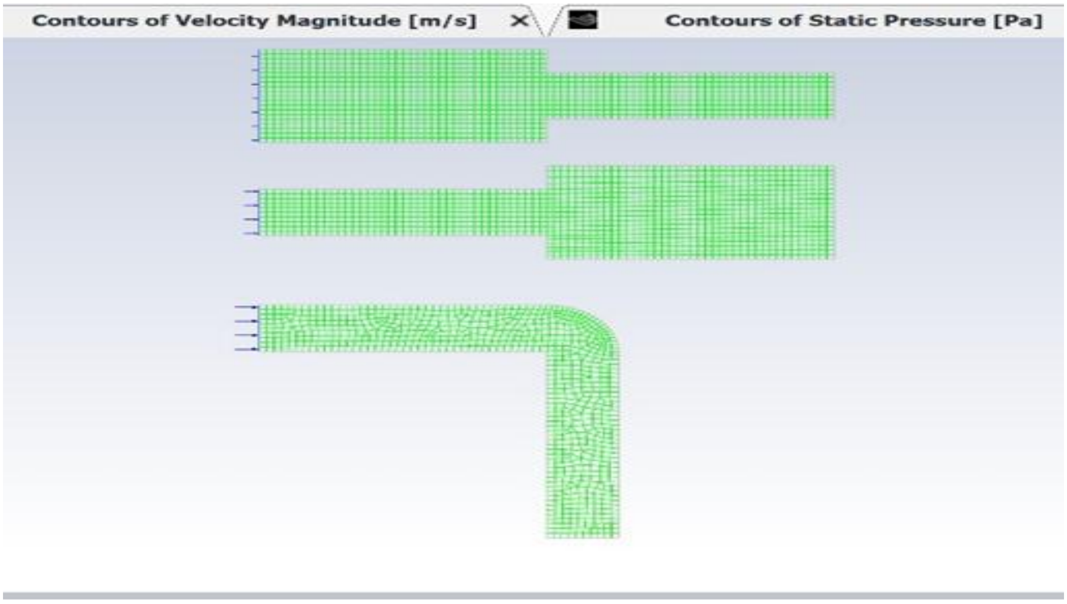

Fig. 10.

VII. RESULTS/DISCUSSIONS

The study investigated the pressure losses in fluid flow through pipes, with a focus on both major losses (due to friction) and minor losses (due to pipe fittings and disturbances like bends, valves, and expansions). A combination of theoretical analysis and ANSYS Fluent simulations was employed to understand the impact of various factors on flow performance in pipe systems.

• Major Losses

The results showed that major losses increase with both pipe length and flow velocity. As expected, the frictional resistance along the pipe caused a significant pressure drop. The pressure loss due to friction was found to be directly proportional to the length of the pipe and the square of the flow velocity. The pipe surface roughness and the Reynolds number were found to have a significant impact on the friction factor. In regions of turbulent flow, which were dominant in most of the systems tested, the friction factor rose steeply, contributing to a large percentage of the total head loss in the system.

• Minor Losses

In addition to major losses, minor losses caused by fittings, bends, valves, and sudden changes in pipe diameter played an important role in total system performance. The 90-degree bends had a particularly high impact on the pressure drop, as the sharp turns caused the flow to separate and generate turbulence and vortices, leading to significant energy dissipation. Sudden expansions and contractions in pipe diameter caused additional head losses due to flow separation. Notably, valves in partially open positions caused considerable flow disturbance, adding to the total minor loss. These minor losses often exceeded expectations, highlighting the importance of carefully considering pipe geometry and fitting arrangement during the design phase to minimize energy losses.

• CFD Simulation Observations

The CFD simulations conducted in ANSYS Fluent helped visualize the flow dynamics more clearly. The simulation results confirmed the theoretical calculations, showing that pressure drops were higher at locations where the flow underwent sudden changes, such as bends and pipe junctions. Specifically, the 90-degree elbows produced regions of flow separation, leading to pressure recovery zones that caused local turbulence and additional energy loss. These regions were characterized by recirculation zones where the fluid velocity decreased significantly, further contributing to the loss of pressure.

Additionally, the simulations allowed for the visualization of velocity profiles and pressure contours, demonstrating how the flow distribution varied across the pipe cross-sections. In pipes with fittings, the flow was much more irregular compared to the smooth, steady flow in straight pipes, confirming that fittings and bends disrupt the flow, leading to inefficiencies.

• Comparative Analysis

A comparative analysis of different pipe configurations showed the significant impact of minor losses on the total head loss in the system. For example, in a system with just two 90-degree bends, the head loss was substantially higher compared to a straight pipe of the same length. The addition of valves and sudden expansions increased the total head loss even more. These findings emphasized that minor losses should not be overlooked when designing piping systems, as their cumulative effect can sometimes exceed that of the major losses, especially in compact systems or those with multiple fittings and disturbances.

• Design Implications

The findings of this study have several important implications for pipe system design. To minimize total head loss, the following design strategies were found to be most effective:

- Using long-radius bends instead of sharp 90-degree elbows to reduce turbulence.
- Minimizing sudden changes in pipe diameter (such as abrupt expansions or contractions).

- Selecting fittings that offer smooth transitions in flow, thereby reducing the formation of recirculation zones.
- Carefully positioning and sizing valves to avoid unnecessary pressure drops caused by throttling or partial opening.

These design considerations are particularly important in systems where energy efficiency and pumping cost optimization are critical. For example, in industrial or municipal water distribution networks, where energy consumption can account for a significant portion of operational costs, optimizing the layout of pipes and fittings could result in substantial long-term savings.

In conclusion, the study highlighted that both major and minor losses contribute significantly to the overall head loss in pipe systems. While major losses are more directly related to the length of the pipe and flow velocity, minor losses often have a disproportionate impact in systems with many fittings, bends, and valves. As such, comprehensive design considerations, which account for both types of losses, are essential for ensuring efficient fluid transport systems.

VIII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this research has offered a thorough investigation into the pressure losses occurring in fluid transport systems, providing invaluable insights into the factors that influence the performance and efficiency of such systems. The study focused on two primary types of losses: major losses, primarily caused by friction, and minor losses, resulting from the presence of fittings, bends, and other irregularities within the system. Through both theoretical analysis and CFD simulations using ANSYS Fluent, this study highlighted how the design and configuration of a pipeline can dramatically influence the total energy loss.

The study confirmed that major losses, which are the result of frictional resistance along the length of the pipe, are significantly impacted by factors such as the pipe length, flow velocity, and fluid properties. These losses are proportional to the length of the pipe and the square of the flow velocity, with higher flow velocities leading to higher pressure drops. The impact of Reynolds number and pipe roughness was especially notable in the turbulent flow regime, where frictional losses increased substantially. The theoretical findings were validated by the CFD simulations, which provided a clear visualization of the flow dynamics and pressure drop across different pipe configurations.

More importantly, the study brought to light the often-underestimated significance of minor losses. These losses, which arise from fittings, bends, valves, and sudden changes in pipe diameter, can contribute as much, if not more, to the overall head loss in the system. The simulations illustrated how components such as 90-degree elbows, sudden contractions, and valves create localized turbulence, flow separation, and recirculation zones, which result in increased energy dissipation. In systems with multiple fittings or high flow rates, the cumulative effect of these minor losses can surpass the major losses in magnitude, emphasizing the importance of considering the entire system design rather than focusing only on the pipe length.

The CFD results provided additional clarity on how these disturbances affect the flow within the pipe. The visualizations of velocity profiles and pressure contours confirmed that fittings and bends create regions of turbulent flow and pressure recovery zones, which disrupt the smooth flow and cause additional pressure losses. These insights are particularly valuable when designing systems that require optimal flow efficiency, such as water distribution networks, chemical processing pipes, and oil and gas pipelines.

A critical takeaway from this research is the importance of thoughtful pipe design to minimize both major and minor losses. Simple design changes—such as using long-radius bends instead of sharp 90-degree elbows, avoiding sudden changes in pipe diameter, and carefully selecting streamlined fittings—can significantly reduce energy dissipation. Furthermore, optimizing valve placement and ensuring valves are fully open can help reduce flow disturbances. These design choices, though seemingly minor, can lead to substantial improvements in energy efficiency and cost reduction over the lifetime of the system.

This research also has significant implications for industries that rely on fluid transport systems. The findings emphasize that minimizing pressure losses is not only crucial for reducing operational costs, particularly energy consumption, but also for enhancing system performance and preventing failures. In practical terms, inefficient designs can lead to increased pumping power requirements, system wear, and reduced lifespan of both pipes and pumps, resulting in higher maintenance and operational costs. Thus, understanding the sources of both major and minor losses and their cumulative effect is essential for designing more sustainable and cost-effective fluid transport networks.

The study suggests several directions for future research. Further investigation into the thermal effects on fluid properties, especially in cases where temperature variations are present, could provide a more holistic view of how these factors influence friction and flow resistance. Additionally, real-world validation of the CFD models is crucial to ensuring that the results are applicable to diverse fluid transport systems. Experimental testing could help refine the loss coefficients used for fittings and components, particularly under varying flow conditions. Moreover, exploring advanced fitting designs and innovative flow optimization techniques could open new avenues for improving system efficiency and reducing energy consumption in piping systems.

Ultimately, the research has contributed to a deeper understanding of energy losses in fluid transport systems and provides a solid foundation for future advancements in the design and optimization of piping networks. The results not only highlight the importance of careful planning in pipe layout but also stress the necessity of considering both major and minor losses when assessing system performance. With growing concerns about energy conservation and cost efficiency in various industries, these insights are invaluable for engineers and designers who aim to create high-performance, energy-efficient fluid transport systems.

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Citation: Parvani Thorat, Rushikesh Patil, Akash Patil, Sangram Patil, Shreyash Padir, Parth Salunke. (2025). Flow Resistance Unveiled: Analyzing Major Loses in Pipeline Systems. International Journal of Mechanical Engineering and Technology (IJMET), 16(3), 46-66.

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