# Chapter 9 Flow over Immersed Bodies

# **Basic Considerations**

Recall separation of drag components into form and skinfriction



### Streamlining: One way to reduce the drag

#### Make a body streamlined:

 $\rightarrow$  reduce the flow separation $\rightarrow$  reduce the pressure drag  $\rightarrow$  increase the surface area  $\rightarrow$  increase the friction drag

 $\rightarrow$  Trade-off relationship between pressure drag and friction drag



Trade-off relationship between pressure drag and friction drag

Benefit of streamlining: reducing vibration and noise

### **Qualitative Description of the Boundary Layer**

Recall our previous description of the flow-field regions for high Re flow about slender bodies



FIGURE 9.4 Development of boundary layer and distribution of shear stress along a thin, flat plate. (a) Flow pattern in boundary layers above and below the plate. (b) Shear-stress distribution on either side of the plate.



 $\tau_w$  = shear stress

#### $\tau_w \propto$  rate of strain (velocity gradient)



Boundary layer theory is a simplified form of the complete NS equations and provides  $\tau_w$  as well as a means of estimating  $C_{form}$ . Formally, boundary-layer theory represents the asymptotic form of the Navier-Stokes equations for high Re flow about slender bodies. As mentioned before, the NS equations are  $2<sup>nd</sup>$  order nonlinear PDE and their solutions represent a formidable challenge. Thus, simplified forms have proven to be very useful.

Near the turn of the century (1904), Prandtl put forth boundary-layer theory, which resolved D'Alembert's paradox. As mentioned previously, boundary-layer theory represents the asymptotic form of the NS equations for high Re flow about slender bodies. The latter requirement is necessary since the theory is restricted to unseparated flow. In fact, the boundary-layer equations are singular at separation, and thus, provide no information at or beyond separation. However, the requirements of the theory are met in many practical situations and the theory has many times over proven to be invaluable to modern engineering.

The assumptions of the theory are as follows:



The theory assumes that viscous effects are confined to a thin layer close to the surface within which there is a dominant flow direction (x) such that  $u \sim U$  and  $v \ll u$ . However, gradients across  $\delta$  are very large in order to satisfy the no slip condition.

Next, we apply the above order of magnitude estimates to the NS equations.

$$
\begin{array}{c}\text{Chapter 9}\\6\end{array}
$$

$$
u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu \left( \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right)
$$
  
\n1 1 1 \varepsilon \varepsilon<sup>-1</sup> \varepsilon<sup>2</sup> 1 \varepsilon<sup>-2</sup>  
\n
$$
u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \mu \left( \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} \right)
$$
  
\n1 \varepsilon \varepsilon 1 \varepsilon<sup>2</sup> 1 \varepsilon<sup>-1</sup>  
\n
$$
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0
$$
  
\n1 1

Retaining terms of O(1) only results in the celebrated boundary-layer equations  $\Delta$ 

$$
u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}
$$
  
\n
$$
\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} = 0
$$
  
\n
$$
\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0
$$
 parabolic

Some important aspects of the boundary-layer equations:

1) the y-momentum equation reduces to

$$
\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} = 0
$$

i.e., 
$$
p = p_e = \text{constant across the boundary layer}
$$
  
from the Bernoulli equation: edge value, i.e.,  
 $p_e + \frac{1}{2} \rho U_e^2 = \text{constant}$   
i.e.,  $\frac{\partial p_e}{\partial x} = -\rho U_e \frac{\partial U_e}{\partial x}$ 

Thus, the boundary-layer equations are solved subject to a specified inviscid pressure distribution

- 2) continuity equation is unaffected
- 3) Although NS equations are fully elliptic, the boundary-layer equations are parabolic and can be solved using marching techniques



+ appropriate initial conditions  $(\hat{\omega})$  x<sub>i</sub>

There are quite a few analytic solutions to the boundarylayer equations. Also numerical techniques are available for arbitrary geometries, including both two- and threedimensional flows. Here, as an example, we consider the simple, but extremely important case of the boundary layer development over a flat plate.

# **Quantitative Relations for the Laminar Boundary Layer**

Laminar boundary-layer over a flat plate: Blasius solution (1908) student of Prandtl



We now introduce a dimensionless transverse coordinate and a stream function, i.e.,

$$
\eta = y \sqrt{\frac{U_{\infty}}{vx}} \propto \frac{y}{\delta}
$$
  

$$
\psi = \sqrt{vxU_{\infty}} f(\eta)
$$
  

$$
u = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \eta} \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial y} = U_{\infty} f'(\eta) \qquad f' = u/U_{\infty}
$$

$$
v = -\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{vU_{\infty}}{x}} (\eta f' - f)
$$

substitution into the boundary-layer equations yields

$$
ff'' + 2f''' = 0
$$
 Blasius Equation  

$$
f = f' = 0
$$
 @  $\eta = 0$   $f' = 1$  @  $\eta = 1$ 

The Blasius equation is a  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  order ODE which can be solved by standard methods (Runge-Kutta). Also, series solutions are possible. Interestingly, although simple in appearance no analytic solution has yet been found. Finally, it should be recognized that the Blasius solution is a similarity solution, i.e., the non-dimensional velocity profile  $f'$  vs.  $\eta$  is independent of x. That is, by suitably scaling all the velocity profiles have neatly collapsed onto a single curve.

Now, lets consider the characteristics of the Blasius solution:







$$
\tau_{w}=\frac{\mu U_{\infty}f''(0)}{\sqrt{2vx/U_{\infty}}}
$$

i.e.,  $c_f = \frac{2c_w}{\rho U_{\infty}^2} = \frac{0.004}{\sqrt{Re_x}} = \frac{0}{x}$ 0.664 U 2 c x 2 w f  $=\frac{2\tau_{\rm w}}{\rho U_{\infty}^2} = \frac{0.664}{\sqrt{\rm Re_x}} = \frac{\theta}{\rm x}$ ∞ see below

$$
C_f = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L c_f dx = 2c_f(L)
$$

$$
= \frac{1.328}{\sqrt{Re_{L}}}
$$

Other:

$$
\delta^* = \int_0^{\delta} \left(1 - \frac{u}{U_{\infty}}\right) dy = 1.7208 \frac{x}{\sqrt{Re_x}}
$$
 displacement thickness

measure of displacement of inviscid flow to due boundary layer

$$
\theta = \int_{0}^{\delta} \left(1 - \frac{u}{U_{\infty}}\right) \frac{u}{U_{\infty}} dy = 0.664 \frac{x}{\sqrt{Re_x}}
$$
 momentum thickness

measure of loss of momentum due to boundary layer

H = shape parameter = 
$$
\frac{\delta^*}{\theta}
$$
 = 2.5916

# **Quantitative Relations for the Turbulent Boundary Layer**

2-D Boundary-layer Form of RANS equations 0 y v  $\frac{u}{x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} =$ +  $\partial$  $\partial$ 

$$
u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{p_e}{\rho}\right) + v\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} - \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\overline{u'v'}\right)
$$
  
requires modeling

Momentum Integral Analysis

Background: History and Modern Approach: FD

To obtain general momentum integral relation which is valid for both laminar and turbulent flow

For flat plate or δ for general case  $\infty$  For flat plate or  $\delta$  for general case<br> $\int ($ m $\mbox{omentum equation} + (u - v)\mbox{continuity} \, dy$  $y=0$ 

$$
\frac{\tau_w}{\rho U^2} = \frac{1}{2} c_f = \frac{d\theta}{dx} + (2 + H) \frac{\theta}{U} \frac{dU}{dx}
$$
\n
$$
- \frac{dp}{dx} = \rho U \frac{dU}{dx}
$$
\nflat plate equation  $\frac{dU}{dx} = 0$ \n
$$
\theta = \int_0^{\delta} \frac{u}{U} \left( 1 - \frac{u}{U} \right) dy
$$
\nmomentum thickness\n
$$
H = \frac{\delta^*}{\theta}
$$
\nshape parameter\n
$$
\delta^* = \int_0^{\delta} \left( 1 - \frac{u}{U} \right) dy
$$
\ndisplacement thickness

Can also be derived by CV analysis as shown next for flat plate boundary layer.

### Momentum Equation Applied to the Boundary Layer



 $CV = 1, 2, 3, 4$ 

 $-D = \text{drag} = b \int \tau$ x  $\boldsymbol{0}$ pressure force = 0 for  $v \ll U_0$ force on CV wall shear stress u ∼ U<sub>o</sub>

$$
\sum F_x = -D = \rho \int_1^{\infty} u(\underline{V} \cdot \underline{dA}) + \rho \int_3^{\infty} u(\underline{V} \cdot \underline{dA})
$$

$$
= \rho \left( -U_0^2 bh \right) + \rho b \int_3^{\infty} u^2 dy
$$

$$
D(x) = \rho U_0^2 bh - \rho b \int_0^{\delta} u^2 dy
$$

## next eliminate h using continuity

$$
0 = \rho \int_{1}^{1} \frac{\mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{A}}{1} + \rho \int_{3}^{1} \frac{\mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{A}}{1}
$$
  
 
$$
\rho U_{0}bh = \rho b \int_{0}^{\delta} u dy
$$
 depends on  $u(y)$   
 
$$
U_{0}h = \int_{0}^{\delta} u dy
$$

$$
D(x) = \rho b U_0 \int_0^{\delta} u \, dy - \rho b \int_0^{\delta} u^2 \, dy
$$

$$
= \rho b \int_0^{\delta} u (U_0 - u) \, dy
$$

$$
C_D = \frac{D}{\frac{1}{2}\rho U_0^2 bL} = \frac{2\frac{\delta}{\rho} u}{L_0 \underbrace{U_0} \left(1 - \frac{u}{U_0}\right) dy}_{\Theta = \text{moment}}
$$

 $\theta$  = momentum thickness

$$
C_D = \frac{2\theta}{L}
$$
  
\n
$$
C_D = \frac{D}{\frac{1}{2}\rho U_o^2 A} = \frac{b\int_a^x \tau_w dx}{\frac{1}{2}\rho U_o^2 bL} = \frac{2\theta}{L}
$$

$$
\int_{0}^{x} \frac{\tau_{w}}{2} \rho U_{o}^{2}
$$

$$
\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\tau_{w}}{2} \right) = \frac{d\theta}{dx}
$$

$$
\frac{c_f}{2} = \frac{d\theta}{dx}
$$

 $c_f$  = local skin friction coefficient

 momentum integral relation for flat plate boundary layer

$$
\theta = \int_0^{\delta} \frac{u}{u_o} \left( 1 - \frac{u}{u_o} \right) dy
$$

Approximate solution for a laminar boundary-layer

Assume cubic polynomial for u(y)

$$
\frac{u}{U_{\infty}} = A + By + Cy^{2} + Dy^{3}
$$
\n
$$
u = \frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial y^{2}} = 0 \qquad y = 0 \qquad A = 0 \qquad B = \frac{3}{2}\delta
$$
\n
$$
u = U_{\infty}; \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0 \qquad y = \delta \qquad C = 0 \qquad D = -\frac{1}{2}\delta^{3}
$$

i.e., 
$$
\frac{u}{U} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{y}{\delta} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^3
$$
  
\n $u_y = U \left(\frac{3}{2\delta} + \frac{3}{2} \frac{y^2}{\delta}\right)_{y=0} = \frac{U3}{2\delta}$   
\n $\frac{\tau_w}{\rho U^2} = \frac{1}{2} c_f = \frac{d\theta}{dx}$  momentum integral equation for  $\frac{dp}{dx} = 0$   
\n $\frac{1}{\rho U^2} \left[\mu U \frac{3}{2\delta}\right] = .139 \frac{d\delta}{dx}$   
\n $\tau_w = \mu \frac{du}{dy}$   
\n $\tau_w = \frac{4.65x}{\sqrt{Re_x}}$   
\n $\tau_w = \frac{.323\rho V^2}{\sqrt{Re_x}}$   
\n $\tau_w = \frac{.323\rho V^2}{$ 



 $C_f = \frac{1.29}{\sqrt{Re_L}}$   $\qquad \qquad \frac{1.33}{\sqrt{Re_L}}$ 1.33

$$
C_f = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\rho U^2 bL} \int_0^L \tau_w(x) dx
$$
  
span length

total skin-friction drag coefficient

Approximate solution Turbulent Boundary-Layer

 $Re<sub>t</sub>$  ~ 3 X 10<sup>6</sup> for a flat plate boundary layer  $Re_{crit}$  ~ 500,000  $\frac{d^{2}f}{2} = \frac{d^{2}f}{dx^{2}}$ d 2  $\frac{c_f}{c} = \frac{d\theta}{dt}$ 

as was done for the approximate laminar flat plate boundary-layer analysis, solve by expressing  $c_f = c_f(\delta)$  and  $\theta = \theta(\delta)$  and integrate, i.e.

assume log-law valid across entire turbulent boundary-layer



or 
$$
\left(\frac{2}{c_f}\right)^{1/2} = 2.44 \ln \left[ \text{Re}_{\delta} \left(\frac{c_f}{2}\right)^{1/2} \right] + 5
$$
  
\n $c_f \approx .02 \text{ Re}_{\delta}^{-1/6}$  power-law fit  
\nNext, evaluate  
\n
$$
\frac{d\theta}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{\delta} \frac{u}{U} \left(1 - \frac{u}{U}\right) dy
$$

can use log-law or more simply a power law fit

$$
\frac{u}{U} = \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{1/7}
$$
\n
$$
\theta = \frac{7}{72}\delta = \theta(\delta)
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \qquad \tau_w = c_f \frac{1}{2}\rho U^2 = \rho U^2 \frac{d\theta}{dx} = \frac{7}{72}\rho U^2 \frac{d\delta}{dx}
$$
\n
$$
\text{Re}_{\delta}^{-1/6} = 9.72 \frac{d\delta}{dx}
$$
\nor\n
$$
\frac{\delta}{x} = .16 \text{Re}_x^{-1/7}
$$
\ni.e., much faster growth rate than laminar\n
$$
\delta \propto x^{6/7} \text{ almost linear} \qquad \text{boundary layer}
$$
\n
$$
c_f = \frac{.027}{\text{Re}_x^{1/7}}
$$
\n
$$
C_f = \frac{.031}{\text{Re}_L^{1/7}} = \frac{7}{6} C_f(L)
$$

faster

Alternate forms given in text depending on experimental information and power-law fit used, etc. (i.e., dependent on Re range.)

Some additional relations given in texts for larger Re are as follows:

Total coefficient

Total  
shear-stress coefficient 
$$
C_f = \frac{.455}{(\log_{10} Re_L)^{2.58}} - \frac{1700}{Re_L}
$$
 Re > 10<sup>7</sup>  
 $\frac{\delta}{L} = c_f (.98 \log Re_L - .732)$ 

Local shear-stress coefficient





Finally, a composite formula that takes into account both the initial laminar boundary-layer (with translation at  $Re_{CR}$  = 500,000) and subsequent turbulent boundary layer is  $C_f = \frac{.077}{R_0^{1/5}}$ L  $f = \frac{Re_L^{1/5}}{Re_L}$ 1700  $C_f = \frac{.074}{.1/5} - \frac{1700}{.5}$  10<sup>5</sup>  $10^5$  < Re <  $10^7$ 

## **Drag of 2-D Bodies**

First consider a flat plate both parallel and normal to the flow



where  $C_p$  based on experimental data



**FIGURE 11.3** Flow past a flat plate.



$$
C_{Dp} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\rho V^2 A^S} \int (p - p_{\infty}) \underline{n} \cdot \hat{i} dA
$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{A_S} \int C_p dA$   
= 2 using numerical integration of experimental data

 $C_f = 0$ 

For bluff body flow experimental data used for  $c_D$ .

In general,  $\text{Drag} = f(V, L, \rho, \mu, c, t, \varepsilon, T, \text{etc.})$ from dimensional analysis



scale factor



Figure 10.23 Pressure distributions around a cylinder for subcritical, supercritical, and inviscid flows.



Fig. E4.7

Potential Flow Solution:  $\psi = -U_{\infty} r - \frac{a}{r} \sin \theta$ ⎠  $\setminus$  $\overline{\phantom{a}}$  $\overline{a}$ ⎝  $\sqrt{}$  $\Psi = -U_{\infty}$   $r - \frac{a}{r}$  sin r  $U_{\infty}$   $\left(r - \frac{a^2}{\epsilon}\right)$  $^{2} = p_{\infty} + \frac{1}{2} \rho U_{\infty}^{2}$  $\frac{1}{2}\rho V^2 = p_{\infty} + \frac{1}{2}$  $p + \frac{1}{2}\rho V^2 = p_{\infty} + \frac{1}{2}\rho U_{\infty}^2$ 2 2  $2^2$ r  $p = \frac{1}{1.2} - 1 = \frac{1}{U}$  $1 - \frac{u_r^2 + u}{u_r^2}$ U 2 1  $C_p = \frac{p-p}{1}$ ∞ θ ∞  $\frac{\infty}{\infty} = 1 - \frac{u_r^2 + u_r^2}{2}$ ρ  $=\frac{p-1}{1}$  $C_p(r = a) = 1 - 4 \sin^2 \theta$   $\longleftarrow$  surface pressure r u r 1  $u_r$  $\partial$  $\phi = -\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r}$ ∂θ  $=\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \theta}$ 

#### Flow Separation

Flow separation:

 $\rightarrow$  The fluid stream detaches itself from the surface of the body at sufficiently high velocities. Only appeared in viscous flow!!

Flow separation forms the region called 'separated region'



Inside the separation region:

 $\rightarrow$ low-pressure, existence of recirculating/backflows

 $\rightarrow$  viscous and rotational effects are the most significant!

Important physics related to flow separation:

 $\rightarrow$ <sup>'</sup>Stall' for airplane (Recall the movie you saw at CFD-PreLab2!)  $\rightarrow$  Vortex shedding

(Recall your work at CFD-Lab2, AOA=16°! What did you see in your velocity-vector plot at the trailing edge of the air foil?)



 $(a)$  5°

(b)  $15^\circ$ 

 $(c)$  30 $^{\circ}$ 









FIG. 34.-Flow round sphere below critical point. (Wieselsberger.)



FIG. 35. .... Owing to a thin wire ring round the sphere, the flow becomes of the other type with turbulent boundary layer. (Wiescliberger.)

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XV. Non-steady boundary layers



Fig. 15.5a





Fig.  $15.5c$ 



Fig.  $15.5d$ 



Fig. 15.5e

Fig. 15.5f

Fig. 15.5 a to f. Formation of vortices in flow past a circular cylinder after acceleration from rest (L. Prandtl)



 $S =$  point of separation

Fig. 2.12. Diagrammatic represen-<br>tation of flow in the boundary layer near a point of separation

alternate formation and shedding of vortices also creates a regular change in pressure with consequent periodicity in side thrust on the cylinder. Vortex shed. ding was the primary cause of failure of the Tacoma Narrows suspension bridge in the state of Washington in 1940. Another, more commonplace, effect of vortex shedding is the "singing" of wires in the wind.

If the frequency of the vortex shedding is in resonance with the natural freequency of the member that produces it, large amplitudes of vibration with consequent large stresses can develop. Experiments show that the frequency of shedding is given in terms of the Strouhal number  $S$ , and this in turn is a function of the Reynolds number. Here the Strouhal number is defined as

$$
S = \frac{nd}{V_0} \tag{11-7}
$$

where  $n$  is the frequency of shedding of vortices from one side of cylinder, in Hz,  $d$  is the diameter of cylinder, and  $V_0$  is the free-stream velocity.

The relationship between the Strouhal number and the Reynolds number for vortex shedding from a circular cylinder is given in Fig. 11-10.





Other cylindrical and two-dimensional bodies also shed vortices. Consequently, the engineer should always be alert to vibration problems when designing structures that are exposed to wind or water flow.

**EXAMPLE 11-2** For the cylinder and conditions of Example 11-1, at what frequency will the vortices be shed?



Fig. 7.16 Drag versus Reynolds number for nearly two-dimensional bodies.







Fig. 7.12 Drag of a streamlined two-dimensional cylinder at  $Re_e = 10^6$ : (a) effect of thickness ratio on percentage friction drag; (b) total drag versus thickness when based upon two different areas.



Figure 10.24 Drag coefficients for a family of struts. (S. Goldstein, "Modern Developments in Fluid Dynamics," Dover Publications, New York, 1965.)

 $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{Z}_p}$ 

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ 



FIGURE 11-11 Coefficient of drag versus Reynolds number for axisymmetric podies. [Data sources: Abbott (1), Breevoort (4), Freeman (9), and Rouse (24).]

 $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \sum_{\mathbf{k} \in \mathcal{K}} \left( \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \right)^2 \left( \$ 

 $\label{eq:1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}$ 

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{max}}$ 

 $\mathcal{L}$ 

	Body	Ratio		$C_{\mathbf{D}}$ based on frontal area
Cube:				
				1.07
				0.81
60° cone:				
				0.5
Disk:				
				1.17
Cup:				
				1.4
				0.4
	Parachute (low porosity):			
				1.2
Rectangular plate:				
	h	b/h $\mathbf{1}$ 5	$\epsilon$	1.18 1.2
		10		1.3
	b	20		1.5
		$\infty$ h	2.0	
Flat-faced cylinder:				
		$L/d$ 0.5 ı		1.15 0.90
		d $\overline{\mathbf{c}}$		0.85
				0.87
	L	8		0.99
Ellipsoid:			Laminar	Turbulent
		$L/d$ 0.75	0.5	0.2
		$\boldsymbol{d}$ 1	0.47	0.2
		2	0.27	0.13
	$\mathbf{L}$ 1	$\ddot{\textbf{4}}$ l 8	0.25 0.2	0.1 0.08

Table 7.3 DRAG OF THREE-DIMENSIONAL BODIES AT  $Re \approx 10^5$ 



Figure 10.25 Time history of the aerodynamic drag of cars in comparison with streamlined<br>bodies. (From Hucho, W. H., Janssen, L. J., Emmelmann, H. J., 1976, "The Optimisation of<br>Body Details—A Method For Reducing The Aerod  $760185.$ 



Figure 3. Drag coefficients of "standard" passenge r cars.<br>tested either in wind tunnels on geometrically similar<br>models or by deceleration of the full-scale vehicle.<sup>5</sup>

Figure 4. Drag coefficients of several sinooth wind<br>tunnel models (tested over fixed ground plate).



Figure 2-5. Appendage decomposition (from Kirkman, et al., 1979)



Figure 2-6. Nominal boundary layer thickness in way of the DDG 51 appendages.

 $\log \epsilon$  , i.e.,  $\mathcal{M}$  ,  $\mathcal{F}$  .

### Magnus effect: Lift generation by spinning

### Breaking the symmetry causes the lift! Lift Stagnation High velocity, Stagnation points points low pressure Low velocity, high pressure

 $(a)$  Potential flow over a stationary cylinder

 $(b)$  Potential flow over a rotating cylinder

Effect of the rate of rotation on the lift and drag coefficients of a smooth sphere:



### Lift acting on the airfoil

Lift force: the component of the net force (viscous+pressure) that is perpendicular to the flow direction



Variation of the lift-to-drag ratio with angle of attack:



The minimum flight velocity:

 $\rightarrow$  Total weight W of the aircraft be equal to the lift

$$
W = F_L = \frac{1}{2} C_{L,\text{max}} \rho V_{\text{min}}^2 A \rightarrow V_{\text{min}} = \sqrt{\frac{2W}{\rho C_{L,\text{max}} A}}
$$

# **Effect of Compressibility on Drag: CD = CD(Re, Ma)**



 $C_D$  increases for Ma ~ 1 due to shock waves and wave drag

 $Ma<sub>critical</sub>(sphere) \sim .6$ 

 $Ma<sub>critical</sub>(slender bodies) \sim 1$ 

For  $U \ge a$ : upstream flow is not warned of approaching disturbance which results in the formation of shock waves across which flow properties and streamlines change discontinuously





