

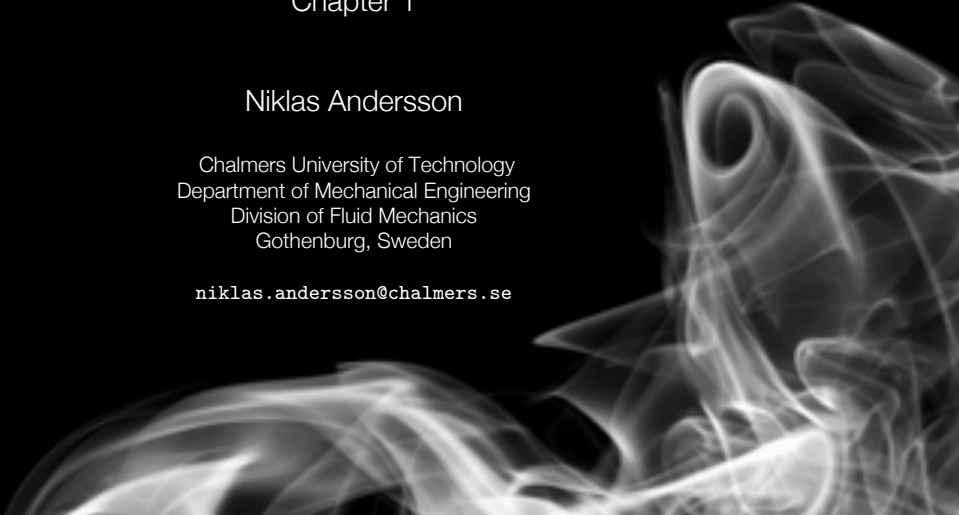
Compressible Flow - TME085

Chapter 1

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Compressible Flow

*"Compressible flow (**gas dynamics**) is a branch of fluid mechanics that deals with flows having **significant changes in fluid density**"*

Wikipedia



Gas Dynamics

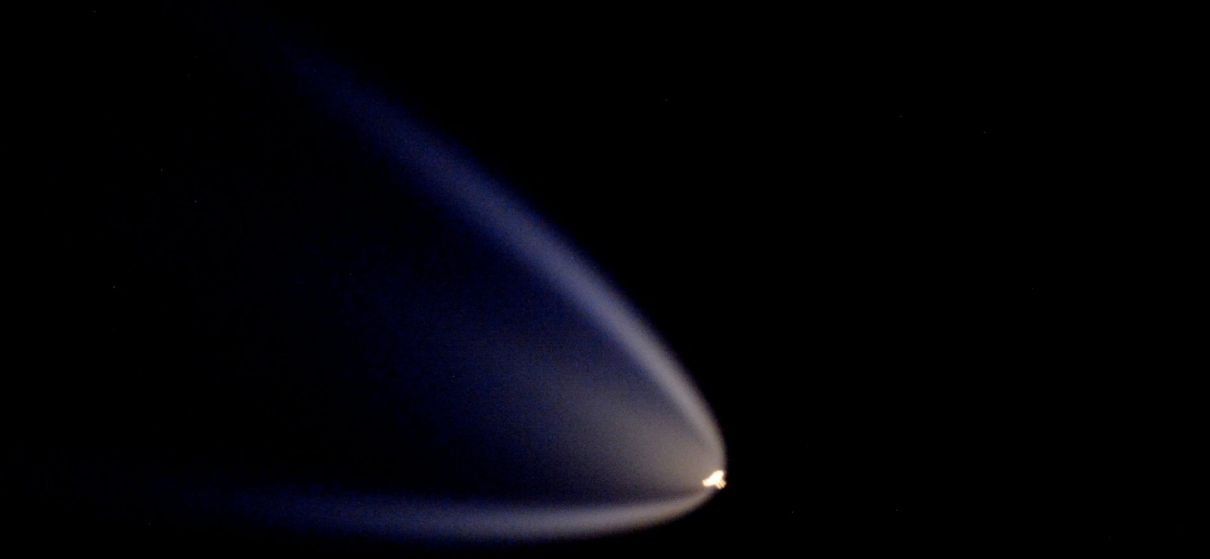
*"... the study of **motion of gases** and its effects on physical systems ..."*

*"... based on the principles of **fluid mechanics** and **thermodynamics** ..."*

*"... gases flowing around or within physical objects at speeds comparable to the **speed of sound** ..."*

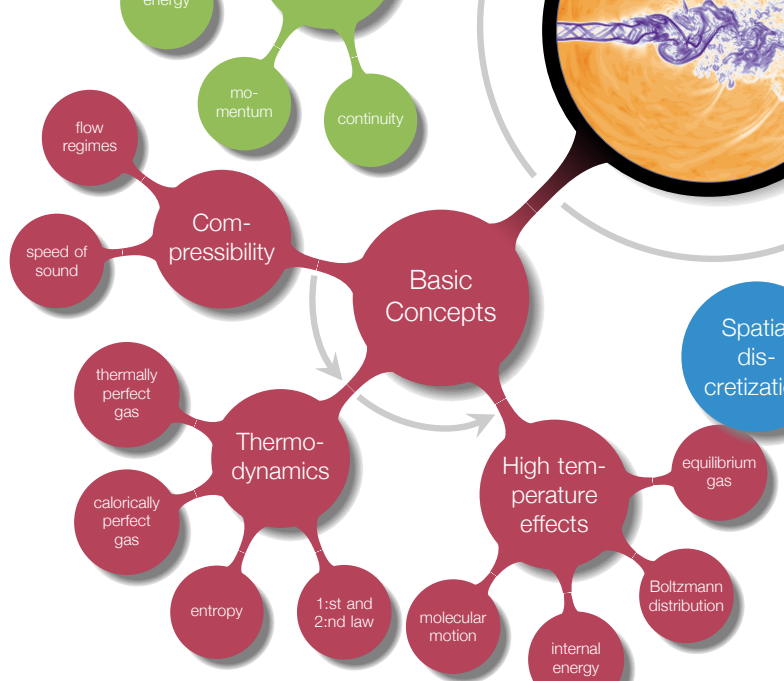
Wikipedia





Chapter 1 - Introduction

Overview

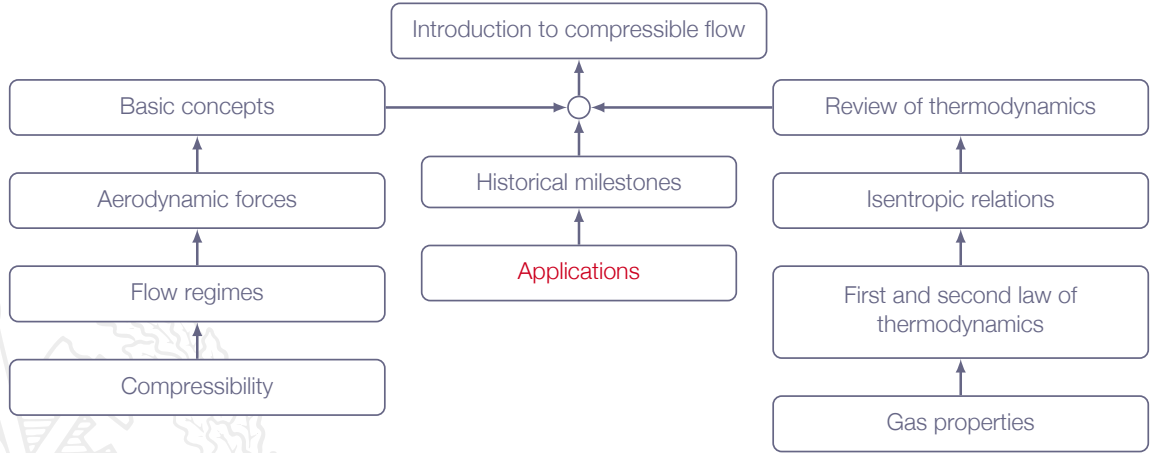


Learning Outcomes

- 1 **Define** the concept of compressibility for flows
- 2 **Explain** how to find out if a given flow is subject to significant compressibility effects
- 3 **Describe** typical engineering flow situations in which compressibility effects are more or less predominant (e.g. Mach number regimes for steady-state flows)
- 6 **Define** the special cases of calorically perfect gas, thermally perfect gas and real gas and **explain** the implication of each of these special cases

in this lecture we will find out what compressibility means and do a brief review of thermodynamics

Roadmap - Introduction to Compressible Flow



Applications - Classical

Treatment of calorically perfect gas

Exact solutions of inviscid flow in 1D

Shock-expansion theory for steady-state 2D flow

Approximate closed form solutions to linearized equations in 2D and 3D

Method of Characteristics (MOC) in 2D and axi-symmetric inviscid supersonic flows

Applications - Modern

Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD)

Complex geometries (including moving boundaries)

Complex flow features (compression shocks, expansion waves, contact discontinuities)

Viscous effects

Turbulence modeling

High temperature effects (molecular vibration, dissociation, ionization)

Chemically reacting flow (equilibrium & non-equilibrium reactions)

Applications - Examples

Turbo-machinery flows:

Gas turbines, steam turbines, compressors
Aero engines (turbojets, turbofans, turboprops)

Aeroacoustics:

Flow induced noise (jets, wakes, moving surfaces)
Sound propagation in high speed flows

External flows:

Aircraft (airplanes, helicopters)
Space launchers (rockets, re-entry vehicles)

Internal flows:

Nozzle flows
Inlet flows, diffusers
Gas pipelines (natural gas, bio gas)

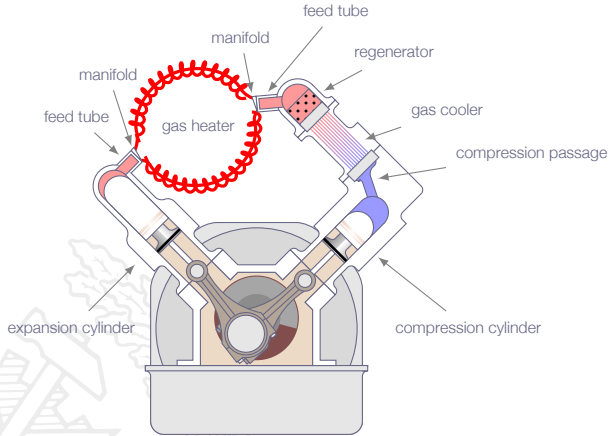
Free-shear flows:

High speed jets

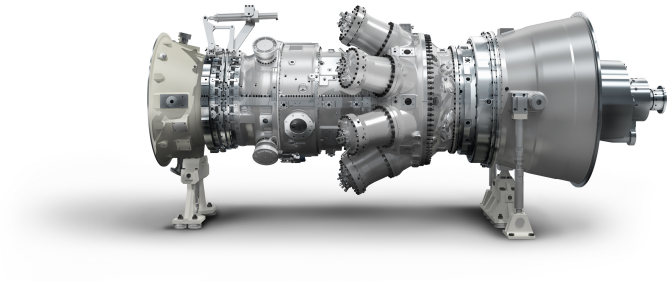
Combustion:

Internal combustion engines (valve flow, in-cylinder flow, exhaust pipe flow, mufflers)
Combustion induced noise (turbulent combustion)
Combustion instabilities

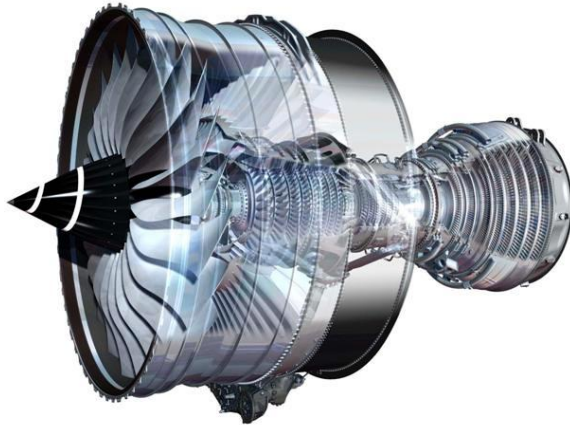
Applications - Stirling Engine



Applications - Siemens GT750



Applications - Rolls-Royce Trent XWB



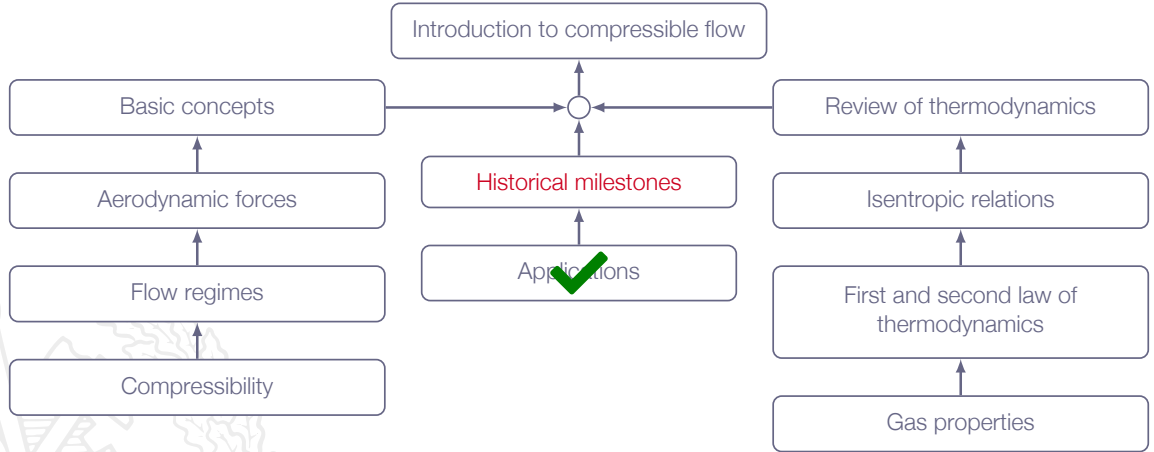
Applications - Airbus A380



Applications - Vulcain Nozzle



Roadmap - Introduction to Compressible Flow



Historical Milestones

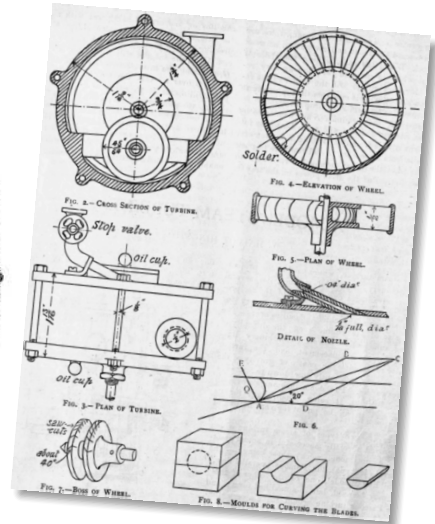
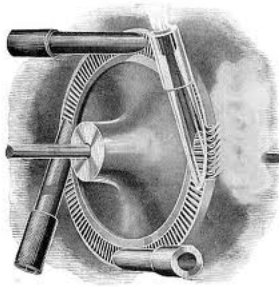


1893 C.G.P. de Laval, first steam turbine with supersonic nozzles (convergent-divergent). At this time, the significance was not fully understood, but it worked!



1947 Charles Yeager, flew first supersonic aircraft (XS-1), M 1.06

Historical Milestones - C.G.P. de Laval (1893)



Historical Milestones - Charles Yeager (1947)

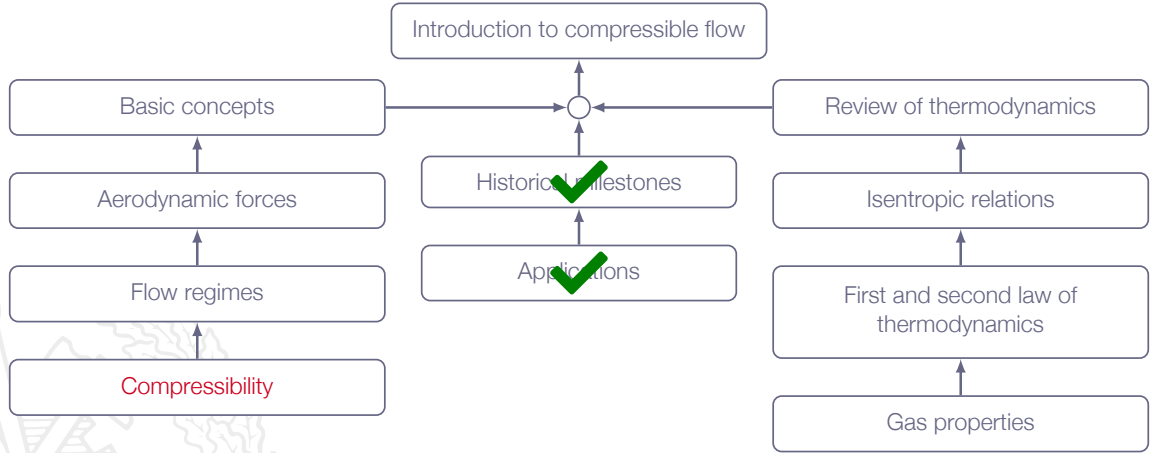


Modern Compressible Flow

Screeching rectangular supersonic jet



Roadmap - Introduction to Compressible Flow



Chapter 1.2

Compressibility

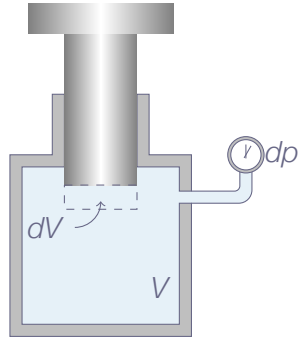


Compressibility

$$\tau = -\frac{1}{\nu} \frac{\partial \nu}{\partial p}, \quad (\nu = \frac{1}{\rho})$$

Not really precise!

Is T held constant during the compression or not?



Compressibility

Two fundamental cases:

Constant temperature

Heat is cooled off to keep T constant inside the cylinder

Adiabatic process

Thermal insulation prevents heat exchange



Compressibility

Isothermal process:

$$\tau_T = -\frac{1}{\nu} \left(\frac{\partial \nu}{\partial \rho} \right)_T$$

Adiabatic reversible (**isentropic**) process:

$$\tau_S = -\frac{1}{\nu} \left(\frac{\partial \nu}{\partial \rho} \right)_S$$

Air at normal conditions:

$$\tau_T \approx 1.0 \times 10^{-5} \quad [m^2/N]$$

Water at normal conditions:

$$\tau_T \approx 5.0 \times 10^{-10} \quad [m^2/N]$$

Compressibility

$$\tau = -\frac{1}{\nu} \frac{\partial \nu}{\partial p} \text{ where } \nu = \frac{1}{\rho} \text{ and thus}$$

$$\tau = -\rho \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) = -\rho \left(-\frac{1}{\rho^2} \right) \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial p}$$

$$\tau_T = \frac{1}{\rho} \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial p} \right)_T$$

$$\tau_S = \frac{1}{\rho} \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial p} \right)_S$$

Compressibility

Definition of compressible flow:

If p changes with amount Δp over a characteristic length scale of the flow, such that the corresponding change in density, given by $\Delta \rho \sim \rho \tau \Delta p$, is **too large to be neglected**, the flow is compressible (*typically* $\Delta \rho / \rho > 0.05$)

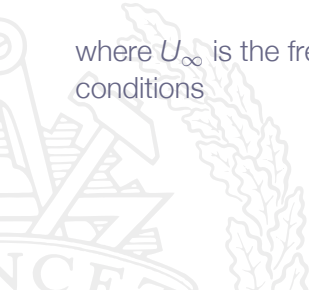
Note! Bernoulli's equation is restricted to incompressible flow, *i.e.* it is **not valid** for compressible flow!

Compressibility - Mach Number

The freestream Mach number is defined as

$$M_{\infty} = \frac{U_{\infty}}{a_{\infty}}$$

where U_{∞} is the freestream flow speed and a_{∞} is the speed of sound at freestream conditions



Compressibility

Assume incompressible flow and estimate the maximum pressure difference using

$$\Delta p \approx \frac{1}{2} \rho_{\infty} U_{\infty}^2$$

For air at normal conditions we have

$$\tau_T = \frac{1}{\rho} \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial p} \right)_T = \left\{ p = \rho R T \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial p} \right)_T = \frac{1}{R T} \right\} = \frac{1}{\rho R T} = \frac{1}{p}$$

(ideal gas law for perfect gas $p = \rho R T$)

Compressibility

Using the relations on previous slide we get

$$\frac{\Delta\rho}{\rho} \approx \tau_T \Delta p \approx \frac{1}{\rho_\infty} \frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty U_\infty^2 = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty U_\infty^2}{\rho_\infty R T_\infty}$$

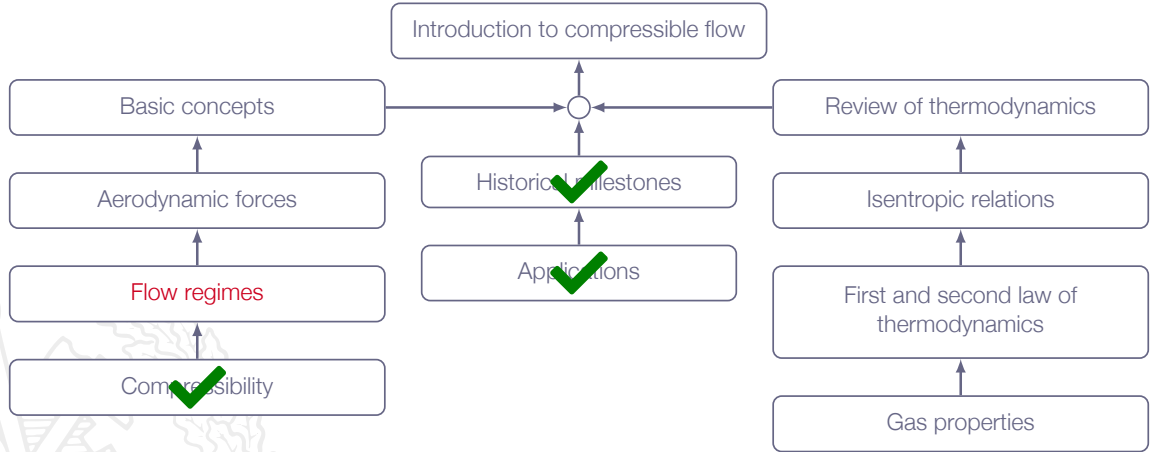
for a calorically perfect gas we have $a = \sqrt{\gamma R T}$

which gives us $\frac{\Delta\rho}{\rho} \approx \frac{\gamma U_\infty^2}{2 a_\infty^2}$

now, using the definition of Mach number we get:

$$\frac{\Delta\rho}{\rho} \approx \frac{\gamma}{2} M_\infty^2$$

Roadmap - Introduction to Compressible Flow



Chapter 1.3

Flow Regimes



Flow Regimes

Incompressible

$$M_{\infty} < 0.1$$

Subsonic

$$M_{\infty} < 1 \text{ and } M < 1 \text{ everywhere}$$

Transonic

case 1: $M_{\infty} < 1$ and $M > 1$ locally
case 2: $M_{\infty} > 1$ and $M < 1$ locally

Supersonic

$$M_{\infty} > 1 \text{ and } M > 1 \text{ everywhere}$$

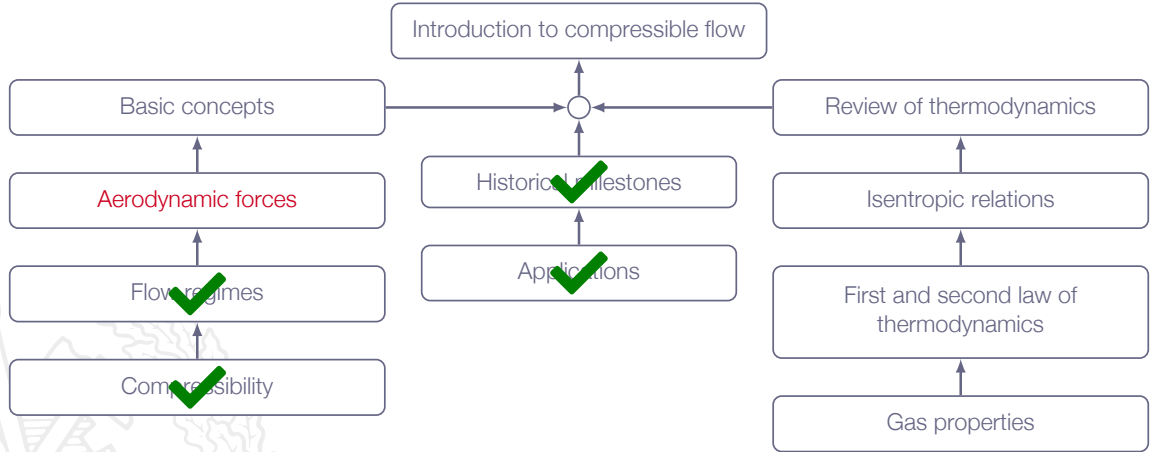
Hypersonic

supersonic flow with high-temperature effects

Compressible

Local Mach number M is based on local flow speed, $U = |\mathbf{U}|$, and local speed of sound, a

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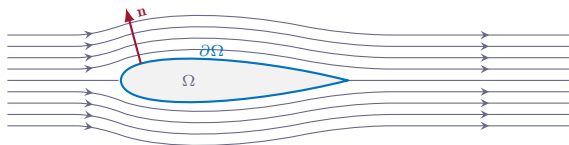


Chapter 1.5

Aerodynamic Forces



Aerodynamic Forces



- Ω region occupied by body
- $\partial\Omega$ surface of body
- $\mathbf{n}$ outward facing unit normal vector

Aerodynamic Forces

Overall forces on the body due to the flow

$$\mathbf{F} = \iint (-p\mathbf{n} + \boldsymbol{\tau} \cdot \mathbf{n}) dS$$

where p is static pressure and $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is a stress tensor



Aerodynamic Forces

Drag is the component of $\mathbf{F}$ which is **parallel** with the freestream direction:

$$D = D_p + D_f$$

where D_p is drag due to pressure and D_f is drag due to friction

Lift is the component of $\mathbf{F}$ which is **normal** to the free stream direction:

$$L = L_p + L_f$$

(L_f is usually negligible)

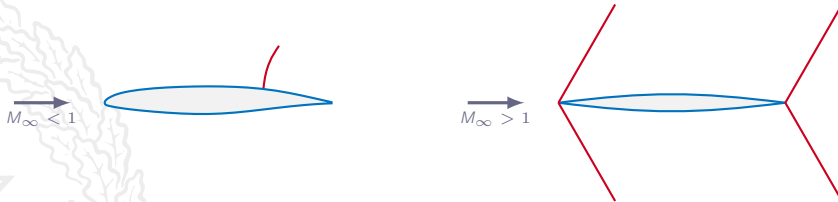
Aerodynamic Forces

Inviscid flow around slender body (*attached flow*)

subsonic flow: $D = 0$

transonic or supersonic flow: $D > 0$

Explanation: **Wave drag**



Aerodynamic Forces

Wave drag is an **inviscid phenomena**, connected to the formation of compression shocks and entropy increase

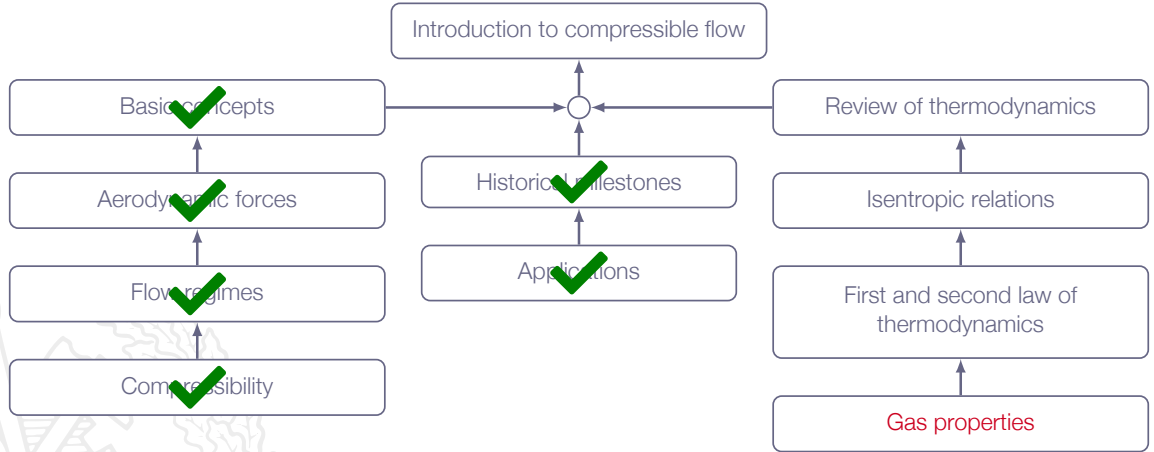
Viscous effects are present in all Mach regimes

At transonic and supersonic conditions a particular phenomena named **shock/boundary-layer interaction** may appear

shocks trigger flow separation

usually leads to unsteady flow

Roadmap - Introduction to Compressible Flow



Chapter 1.4

Review of Thermodynamics



Thermodynamic Review

Compressible flow:

” strong interaction between flow and thermodynamics ... ”



Perfect Gas

All intermolecular forces negligible

Only elastic collisions between molecules

$$p\nu = RT \text{ or } \frac{p}{\rho} = RT$$

where R is the gas constant $[R] = J/kgK$

Also, $R = R_{univ}/M$ where M is the molecular weight of gas molecules (in $kg/kmol$) and $R_{univ} = 8314 J/kmol K$

Internal Energy and Enthalpy

Internal energy e ($[e] = J/kg$)

Enthalpy h ($[h] = J/kg$)

$$h = e + p\nu = e + \frac{p}{\rho} \text{ (valid for all gases)}$$

For any gas in thermodynamic equilibrium, e and h are functions of only two thermodynamic variables (*any two variables may be selected*) e.g.

$$e = e(T, \rho) \text{ or } h = h(T, p)$$

Internal Energy and Enthalpy

Special cases:

Thermally perfect gas:

$$e = e(T) \text{ and } h = h(T)$$

OK assumption for air at near atmospheric conditions and $100K < T < 2500K$

Calorically perfect gas:

$$e = C_v T \text{ and } h = C_p T \text{ (} C_v \text{ and } C_p \text{ are constants)}$$

OK assumption for air at near atmospheric pressure and $100K < T < 1000K$

Specific Heat

For thermally perfect (and calorically perfect) gas

$$C_p = \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial T} \right)_p, \quad C_v = \left(\frac{\partial e}{\partial T} \right)_v$$

since $h = e + p/\rho = e + RT$ we obtain:

$$C_p = C_v + R$$

The ratio of specific heats, γ , is defined as:

$$\gamma \equiv \frac{C_p}{C_v}$$



Specific Heat

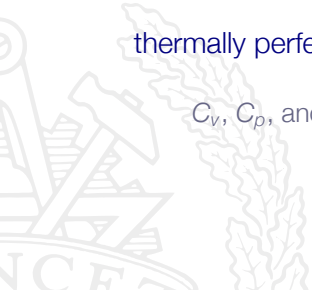
Important!

calorically perfect gas:

C_v , C_p , and γ are **constants**

thermally perfect gas:

C_v , C_p , and γ will **depend on temperature**



Specific Heat

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

$$C_p - C_v = R$$



Specific Heat

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

divide by C_v

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

divide by C_p



Specific Heat

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

divide by C_v

$$\gamma - 1 = \frac{R}{C_v}$$

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

divide by C_p

$$1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} = \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} = \frac{R}{C_p}$$

Specific Heat

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

divide by C_v

$$\gamma - 1 = \frac{R}{C_v}$$

$$C_v = \frac{R}{\gamma - 1}$$

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

divide by C_p

$$1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} = \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} = \frac{R}{C_p}$$

$$C_p = \frac{\gamma R}{\gamma - 1}$$

Specific Heat

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

divide by C_v

$$\gamma - 1 = \frac{R}{C_v}$$

$$C_v = \frac{R}{\gamma - 1}$$

$$C_p - C_v = R$$

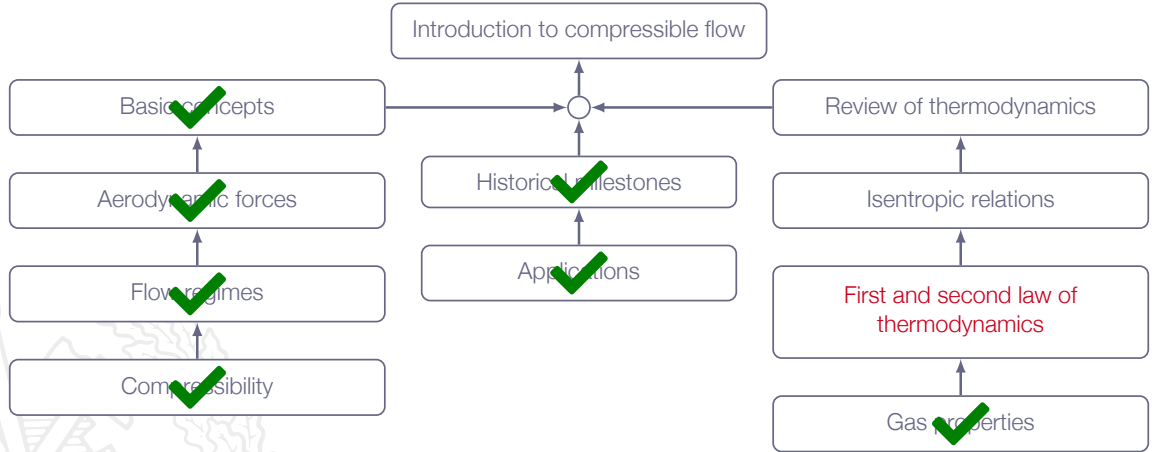
divide by C_p

$$1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} = \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} = \frac{R}{C_p}$$

$$C_p = \frac{\gamma R}{\gamma - 1}$$

valid for both thermally perfect and calorically perfect gas!

Roadmap - Introduction to Compressible Flow



First Law of Thermodynamics

A fixed mass of gas, separated from its surroundings by an imaginary flexible boundary, is defined as a **system**. This system obeys the relation

$$de = \delta q - \delta w$$

where

de is a change in internal energy of system

δq is heat added to the system

δw is work done by the system (on its surroundings)

Note! de only depends on starting point and end point of the process while δq and δw depend on the actual process also

First Law of Thermodynamics

Examples:

Adiabatic process:

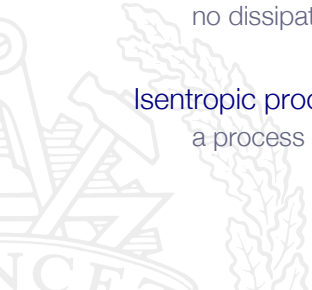
$$\delta q = 0.$$

Reversible process:

no dissipative phenomena (*no flow losses*)

Isentropic process:

a process which is both adiabatic and reversible



First Law of Thermodynamics

Reversible process:

$$\delta w = p d\nu = p d(1/\rho)$$

$$de = \delta q - p d(1/\rho)$$

Adiabatic & reversible process:

$$\delta q = 0.$$

$$de = -p d(1/\rho)$$

Entropy

Entropy s is a property of all gases, uniquely defined by any two thermodynamic variables, e.g.

$$s = s(p, T) \text{ or } s = s(\rho, T) \text{ or } s = s(\rho, p) \text{ or } s = s(e, h) \text{ or } \dots$$



Second Law of Thermodynamics

Concept of entropy s :

$$ds = \frac{\delta q_{rev}}{T} = \frac{\delta q}{T} + ds_{ir} \text{ where } ds_{ir} > 0. \text{ and thus}$$

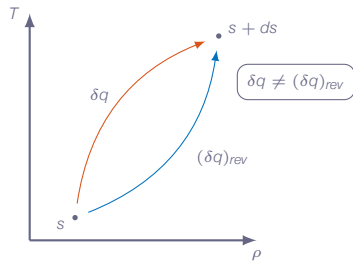
$$ds \geq \frac{\delta q}{T}$$

Second Law of Thermodynamics

Concept of entropy s :

$$ds = \frac{\delta q_{rev}}{T} = \frac{\delta q}{T} + ds_{ir} \text{ where } ds_{ir} > 0. \text{ and thus}$$

$$ds \geq \frac{\delta q}{T}$$



Second Law of Thermodynamics

In general:

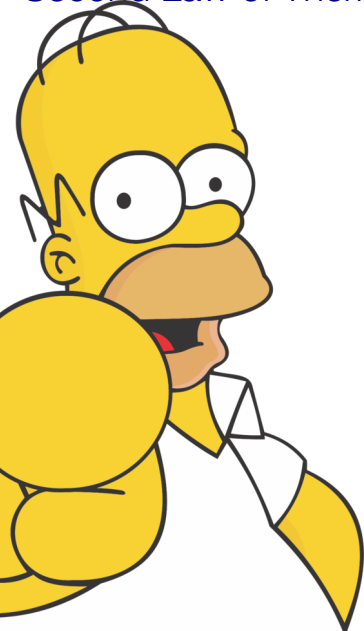
$$ds \geq \frac{\delta q}{T}$$

For adiabatic processes:

$$ds \geq 0.$$



Second Law of Thermodynamics



"In this house, we obey the laws of thermodynamics!"

Homer Simpson, after Lisa constructs a perpetual motion machine whose energy increases with time

Calculation of Entropy

For reversible processes ($\delta w = pd(1/\rho)$ and $\delta q = Tds$):

$$de = Tds - pd \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) \Leftrightarrow Tds = de + pd \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right)$$

from before we have $h = e + p/\rho \Rightarrow$

$$dh = de + pd \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) dp \Leftrightarrow de = dh - pd \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) - \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \right) dp$$

Calculation of Entropy

For thermally perfect gases, $p = \rho RT$ and $dh = C_p dT \Rightarrow ds = C_p \frac{dT}{T} - R \frac{dp}{p}$

Integration from starting point (1) to end point (2) gives:

$$s_2 - s_1 = \int_1^2 C_p \frac{dT}{T} - R \ln \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)$$

and for calorically perfect gases

$$s_2 - s_1 = C_p \ln \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) - R \ln \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)$$

Calculation of Entropy

If we instead use $de = C_v dT$ we get

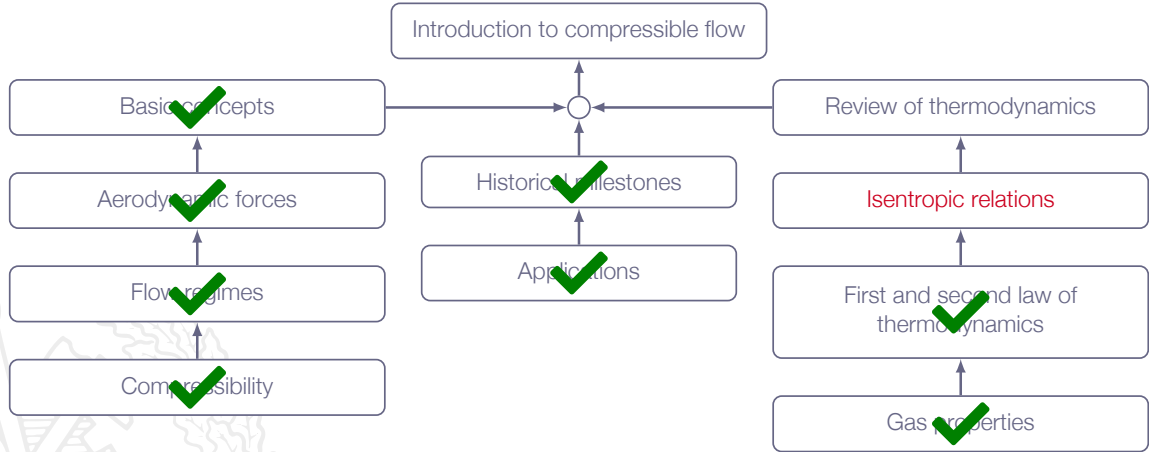
for thermally perfect gases

$$s_2 - s_1 = \int_1^2 C_v \frac{dT}{T} - R \ln \left(\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \right)$$

and for calorically perfect gases

$$s_2 - s_1 = C_v \ln \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) - R \ln \left(\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \right)$$

Roadmap - Introduction to Compressible Flow



Isentropic Relations

For calorically perfect gases, we have

$$s_2 - s_1 = C_p \ln \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) - R \ln \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)$$

For adiabatic reversible processes:

$$ds = 0. \Rightarrow s_1 = s_2 \Rightarrow C_p \ln \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) - R \ln \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \right) = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\ln \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \right) = \frac{C_p}{R} \ln \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)$$

Isentropic Relations

$$\text{with } \frac{C_p}{R} = \frac{C_p}{C_p - C_v} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$



Isentropic Relations

Alternatively, using $s_2 - s_1 = 0 = C_v \ln \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) - R \ln \left(\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \right) \Rightarrow$

$$\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} = \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$



Isentropic Relations - Summary

For an isentropic process and a calorically perfect gas we have

$$\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \right)^\gamma = \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

A.K.A. the **isentropic relations**



Thermodynamic Relations and Process Diagrams

Many times it's process diagrams makes it easier to understand physics

Examples of process diagrams: Ts -diagram and $p\nu$ -diagram

We will use process diagrams in the following chapters to give insights into physical processes such as shocks, heat addition and friction

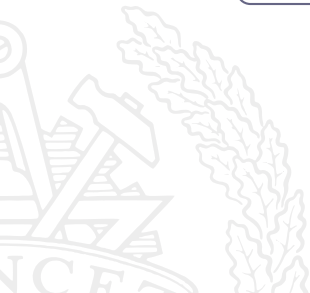


Thermodynamic Relations and Process Diagrams

From before:

$$ds = C_v \frac{dT}{T} + R \frac{d\nu}{\nu}$$

$$ds = C_p \frac{dT}{T} - R \frac{dp}{p}$$



Ts-diagram

$$ds = C_v \frac{dT}{T} + R \frac{d\nu}{\nu}$$

$$d\nu = \frac{\nu}{R} ds - C_v \frac{\nu}{RT} dT$$

$$d\nu = \frac{\nu}{R} ds - \frac{C_v}{p} dT$$

$$ds = 0 \Rightarrow d\nu < 0 \text{ for positive } dT$$

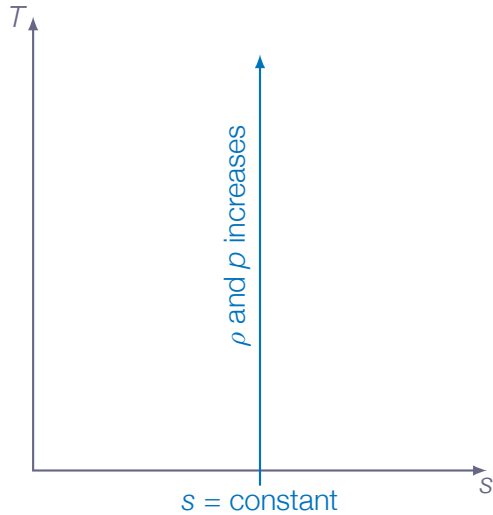
$$ds = C_p \frac{dT}{T} - R \frac{dp}{p}$$

$$dp = -\frac{p}{R} ds + C_p \frac{p}{RT} dT$$

$$dp = -\frac{p}{R} ds + C_p \rho dT$$

$$ds = 0 \Rightarrow dp > 0 \text{ for positive } dT$$

T - s -diagram



Ts-diagram - Isochoric process

$$d\nu = \frac{\nu}{R}ds - \frac{C_v}{p}dT$$

From before: ν decreases with T and p increases with T and thus for a given dT , $d\nu$ will be greater at lower T than at higher T

ν =constant lines will be closely spaced at low T and more sparse at high T

ν =constant $\Rightarrow d\nu = 0$:

$$0 = \frac{\nu}{R} \left(ds - C_v \frac{dT}{T} \right) \Rightarrow \frac{dT}{ds} = \frac{T}{C_v}$$

slope is positive and increases with temperature

Ts-diagram - Isobaric process

$$ds = C_p \frac{dT}{T} - R \frac{dp}{p}$$

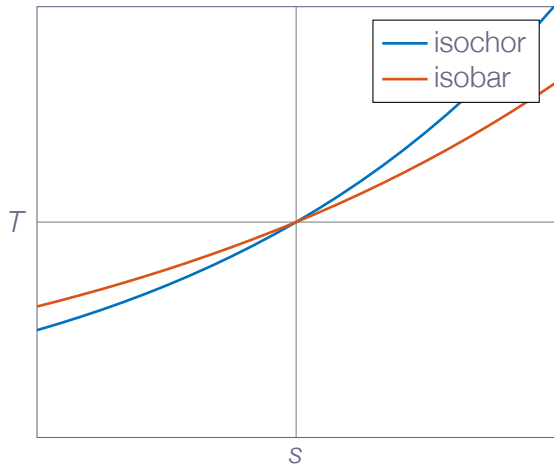
$p = \text{constant} \Rightarrow dp = 0$:

$$0 = \frac{p}{R} \left(C_p \frac{dT}{T} - ds \right) \Rightarrow \frac{dT}{ds} = \frac{T}{C_p}$$

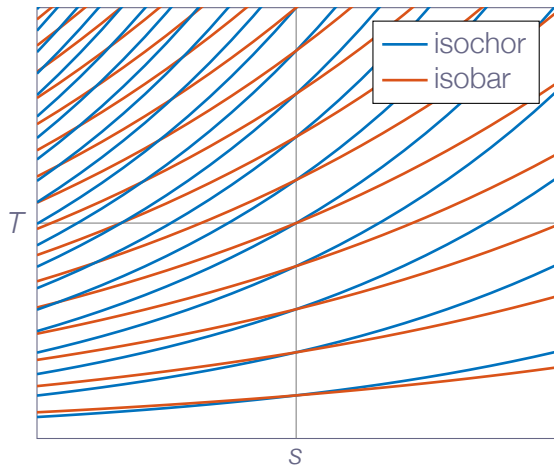
slope is positive and increases with temperature

$C_p > C_v \Rightarrow$ isobars are less steep than isochors

T s-diagrams



T s-diagrams



$p\nu$ -diagrams

subtract

$$C_p \left[ds = C_v \frac{dT}{T} + R \frac{d\nu}{\nu} \right]$$

from

$$C_v \left[ds = C_p \frac{dT}{T} - R \frac{dp}{p} \right]$$

gives

$$ds \underbrace{(C_p - C_v)}_R = RC_p \frac{d\nu}{\nu} + RC_v \frac{dp}{p} \Rightarrow ds = C_p \frac{d\nu}{\nu} + C_v \frac{dp}{p}$$

$p\nu$ -diagrams

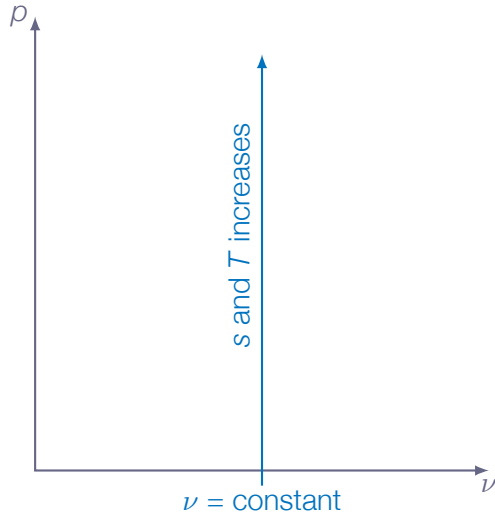
$$ds = C_p \frac{d\nu}{\nu} + C_v \frac{dp}{p}$$

$$d\nu = 0 \text{ (isochoric process)} \Rightarrow ds = C_v \frac{dp}{p}$$

entropy increases with increasing pressure

from before: temperature increases with increasing pressure

$p\nu$ -diagrams



$p\nu$ -diagrams - isentropic process

$$ds = C_p \frac{d\nu}{\nu} + C_v \frac{dp}{p}$$

$s=\text{constant}$ ($ds = 0$):

$$C_p \frac{d\nu}{\nu} + C_v \frac{dp}{p} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{dp}{d\nu} = -\gamma \frac{p}{\nu}$$

negative slope

slope becomes steeper with increased pressure and decreased ν

$p\nu$ -diagrams - isothermal process

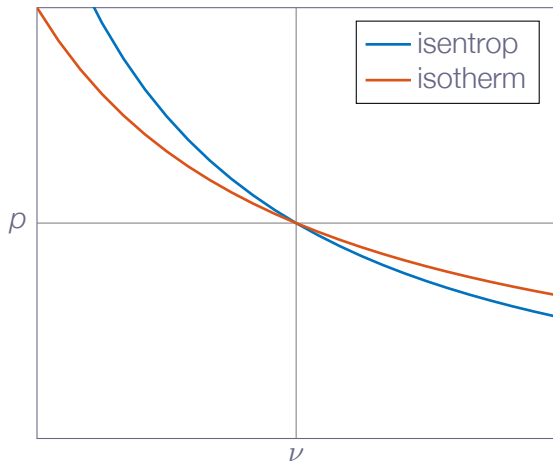
$$ds = C_v \frac{dT}{T} + R \frac{d\nu}{\nu} = C_p \frac{dT}{T} - R \frac{dp}{p}$$

$T = \text{constant}$ ($dT = 0$):

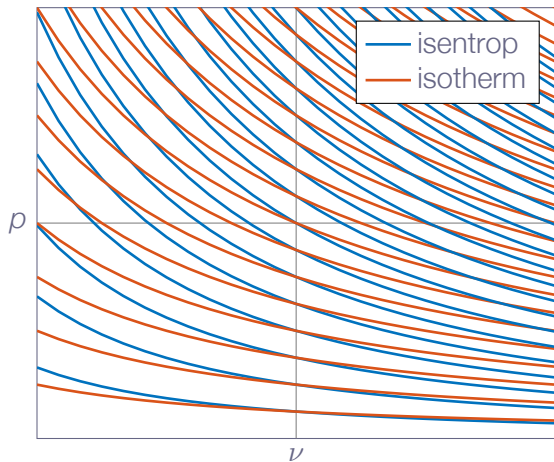
$$\frac{d\nu}{\nu} = -\frac{dp}{p} \Rightarrow \frac{dp}{d\nu} = -\frac{p}{\nu}$$

$\gamma > 0 \Rightarrow$ isentropes are steeper than isotherms

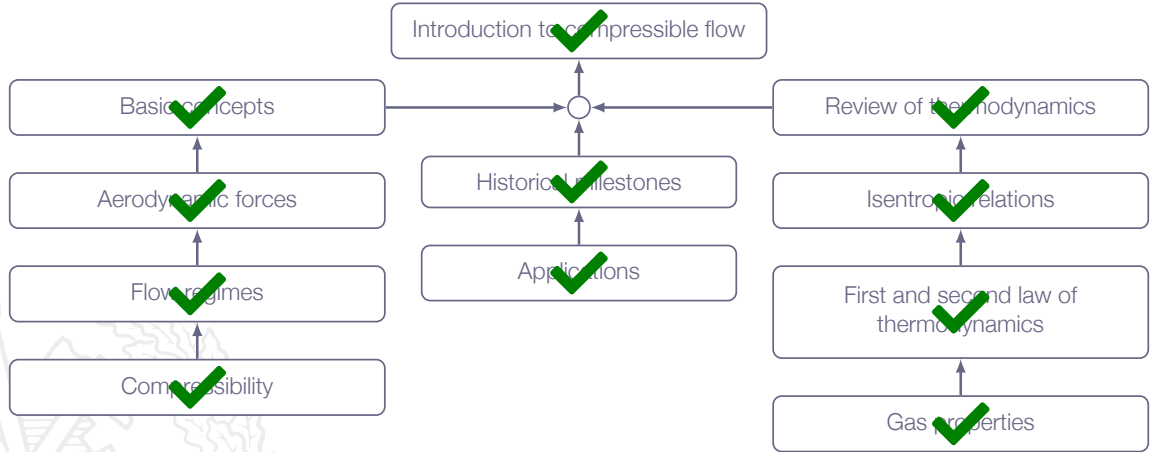
$p\nu$ -diagrams - isothermal process



$p\nu$ -diagrams - isothermal process



Roadmap - Introduction to Compressible Flow



THE SECOND LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS STATES
THAT A ROBOT MUST NOT INCREASE ENTROPY,
UNLESS THIS CONFLICTS WITH THE FIRST LAW.

