

Instructor's Solutions Manual

to accompany

MODERN COMPRESSIBLE FLOW

Third Edition

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CHAPTER 1

$$1.1 \quad \rho = \frac{p}{RT} = \frac{(5.6)(2116)}{(1716)(850)} = \boxed{0.00812 \text{ slug/ft}^3}$$

$$v = \frac{1}{\rho} = \boxed{123 \text{ ft}^3/\text{slug}}$$

$$1.2 \quad \rho = \frac{p}{RT} = \frac{(10)(1.01 \times 10^5)}{(287)(320)} = \boxed{11.0 \text{ kg/m}^3}$$

$$n = \frac{p}{RT} = \frac{(10)(1.01 \times 10^5)}{(1.38 \times 10^{-23})(320)} = \boxed{2.87 \times 10^{26}/\text{m}^3}$$

$$\eta = \frac{pv}{RT} = \frac{p}{\rho RT} = \frac{(10)(1.01 \times 10^5)}{(11.0)(8314)(320)} = \boxed{0.0345 \frac{\text{kg-mole}}{\text{kg}}}$$

1.3 From the definition of enthalpy,

$$h = e + p v = e + RT \tag{A1}$$

For a calorically perfect gas, this becomes

$$c_p T = c_v T + RT, \text{ or } \boxed{c_p - c_v = R}$$

For a thermally perfect gas, Eq. (A1) is first differentiated

$$dh = de + R dt$$

or,

$$c_p dT = c_v dT = R dt$$

or,

$$\boxed{c_p - c_v = R}$$

$$1.4 \quad s_2 - s_1 = c_p \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} - R \ln \frac{p_2}{p_1}$$

$$(a) \quad R = 1716 \text{ ft-lb/slug}^\circ\text{R}$$

$$c_p = \frac{\gamma R}{\gamma - 1} = \frac{(1.4)(1716)}{0.4} = 6006 \text{ ft-lb/slug}^\circ\text{R}$$

$$s_2 - s_1 = (6006) \ln (1.687) - (1716) \ln 4.5$$

$$s_2 - s_1 = \boxed{559.9 \text{ ft-lb/slug}^\circ\text{R}}$$

$$(b) \quad R = 287 \text{ joule/kg}^\circ\text{K}$$

$$c_p = \frac{\gamma R}{\gamma - 1} = \frac{(1.4)(287)}{0.4} = 1004.5 \text{ joule/kg}^\circ\text{K}$$

$$s_2 - s_1 = (1004.5) \ln (1.687) - 287 \ln (4.5)$$

$$s_2 - s_1 = \boxed{93.6 \text{ joule/kg}^\circ\text{K}}$$

$$1.5 \quad \frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$p_2 = p_1 \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} = 1800 (400/500)^{\frac{1.4}{0.4}}$$

$$p_2 = \boxed{824.3 \text{ lb/ft}_2}$$

$$\rho_2 = \frac{p_2}{RT_2} = \frac{824.3}{(1716)(400)} = \boxed{0.0012 \text{ slug/ft}^3}$$

$$1.6 \quad \text{Volume of room} = (20)(15)(8) = 2400 \text{ ft}^3$$

$$\text{Standard sea level density} = 0.002377 \text{ slug/ft}^3$$

$$\text{Mass of air} = (0.002377)(2400) = \boxed{5.70 \text{ slug}}$$

$$\text{Weight} = \text{Mass} \times \text{acceleration of gravity} = (5.7)(32.2) = \boxed{184 \text{ lb}}$$

1.7

$$(a) \quad dp = -\rho V dV$$

$$\text{and} \quad d\rho = \rho \tau dp, \text{ or } dp = \frac{d\rho}{\rho \tau}$$

Combining:

$$\frac{d\rho}{\rho \tau} = -\rho V dV$$

$$d\rho = -\tau \rho^2 V dV$$

$$\frac{d\rho}{\rho} = -\tau \rho V dV$$

$$\boxed{\frac{d\rho}{\rho} = -\tau \rho V^2 \frac{dV}{V}}$$

$$(b) \quad \tau_s = \frac{1}{\gamma p} = \frac{1}{(1.4)(1.01 \times 10^5)} = 7.07 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{N}$$

$$\frac{d\rho}{\rho} = \tau_s \rho V^2 \frac{dV}{V} = -(7.07 \times 10^{-6})(1.23)(10)^2(0.01)$$

$$\frac{d\rho}{\rho} = \boxed{-8.7 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$(c) \quad \text{Here, } \frac{d\rho}{\rho} \text{ will be larger by the ratio } \left(\frac{1000}{10}\right)^2.$$

$$\frac{d\rho}{\rho} = (-8.7 \times 10^{-6}) \left(\frac{1000}{10}\right)^2 = \boxed{-8.7 \times 10^{-2}}$$

Comment: By increasing the velocity of a factor of 100, the fractional change in density is increased by factor of 10^4 . This is just another indication of why high-speed flows must be treated as compressible.

CHAPTER 2

2.1 Consider a two-dimensional body in a flow, as sketched in Figure A. A control volume is drawn around this body, as given in the dashed lines in Figure A. The control volume is bounded by:

1. The upper and lower streamlines far above and below the body (ab and hi, respectively.)
2. Lines perpendicular to the flow velocity far ahead of and behind the body (ai and bh, respectively).
3. A cut that surrounds and wraps the surface of the body (cdefg).

The entire control volume is abcdefhia. The width of the control volume in the z direction (perpendicular to the page) is unity. Stations 1 and 2 are inflow and outflow stations, respectively.

Assume that the contour abhi is far enough from the body such that the pressure is everywhere the same on abhi and equal to the freestream pressure $p = p_\infty$. Also, assume that the inflow velocity u_1 is uniform across ai (as it would be in a freestream, or a test section of a wind tunnel.) The outflow velocity u_2 is not uniform across bh, because the presence of the body has created a wake at the outflow station. However, assume that both u_1 and u_2 are in the x direction; hence, $u_1 = \text{constant}$ and $u_2 = f(y)$.

Consider the surface forces on the control volume shown in Figure A. They stem from two contributions:

1. The pressure distribution over the surface, abhi,

$$- \iint_{abhi} p \, dS$$

2. The surface force on def created by the presence of the body

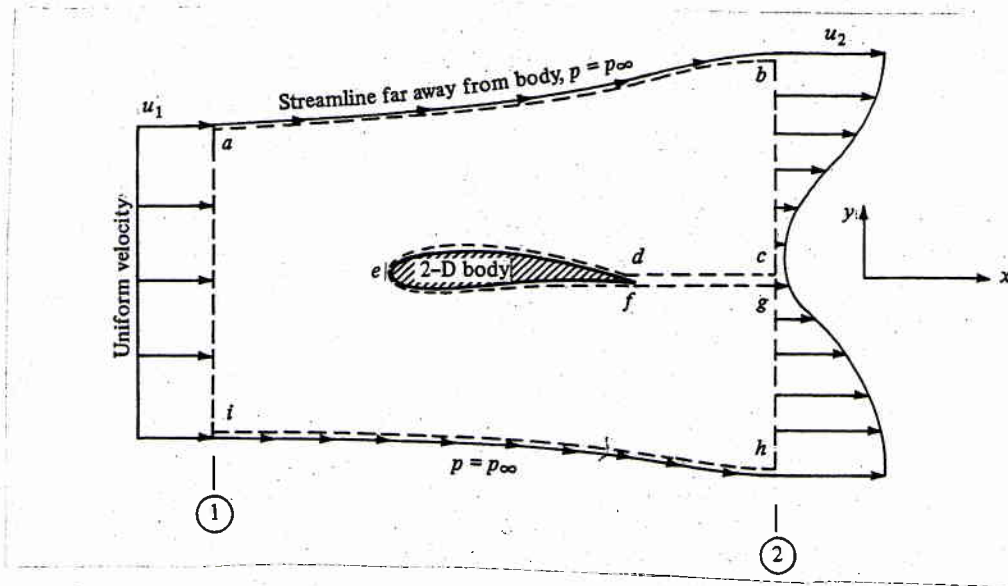


Figure A

The surface shear stress on ab and hi has been neglected. Also, note that in Figure A the cuts cd and fg are taken adjacent to each other; hence any shear stress or pressure distribution on one is equal and opposite to that on the other; i.e., the surface forces on cd and fg cancel each other. Also, note that the surface on def is the equal and opposite reaction to the shear stress and pressure distribution created by the flow over the surface of the body. To see this more clearly, examine Figure B. On the left is shown the flow over the body. The moving fluid exerts pressure and shear stress distributions over the body surface which create a resultant aerodynamic force per unit span \mathbf{R}' on the body. In turn, by Newton's third law, the body exerts equal and opposite pressure and shear stress distributions on the flow, i.e., on the part of the control surface bounded by def. Hence, the body exerts a force $-\mathbf{R}'$ on the control surface, as shown on the right of Figure B. With the above in mind, the total surface force on the entire control volume is

$$\text{Surface force} = - \iint_{abhi} p \, dS - \mathbf{R}' \quad (1)$$

Moreover, this is the total force on the control volume shown in Figure A because the volumetric body force is negligible.

Consider the integral form of the momentum equation as given by Equation (2.11) in the text. The right-hand side of this equation is physically the force on the fluid moving through the control volume. For the control volume in Figure A, this force is simply the expression given by Equation (1). Hence, using Equation (2.11), with the right-hand side given by Equation (1), we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \iiint_V \rho \mathbf{V} \frac{dV}{V} dv + \oint_S (\rho \mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{S}) \mathbf{V} = - \iint_{abhi} p d\mathbf{S} - \mathbf{R}' \quad (2)$$

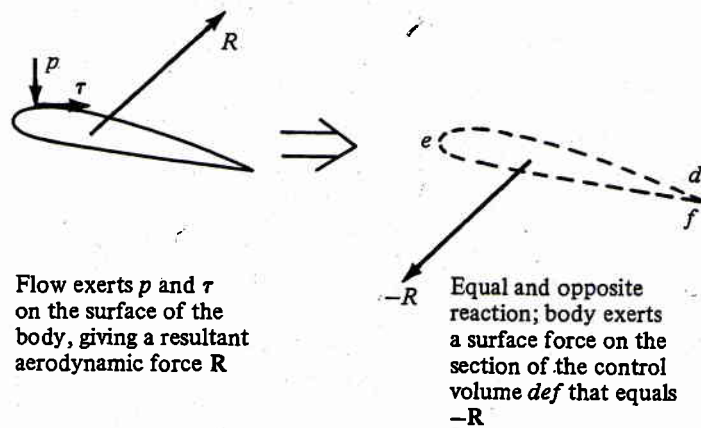


Figure B

Assuming steady flow, Equation (2) becomes

$$\mathbf{R}' = - \oint_S (\rho \mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{S}) \mathbf{V} - \iint_{abhi} p d\mathbf{S} \quad (3)$$

Equation (3) is a vector equation. Consider again the control volume in Figure A. Take the x component of Equation (3), noting that the inflow and outflow velocities u_1 and u_2 are in the x direction and the x component of R' is the aerodynamic drag per unit span D' :

$$D' = - \oint_S (\rho \mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{S}) u - \iint_{abhi} (p dS)_x \quad (4)$$

In Equation (4), the last term is the component of the pressure force in the x direction. [The expression $(p dS)_x$ is the x component of the pressure force exerted on the elemental area dS of the control surface.] Recall that the boundaries of the control volume $abhi$ are chosen far enough from the body such that p is constant along these boundaries. For a constant pressure.

$$\iint_{abhi} (p dS)_x = 0 \quad (5)$$

because, looking along the x direction in Figure A, the pressure force on $abhi$ pushing toward the right exactly balances the pressure force pushing toward the left. This is true no matter what the shape of $abhi$ is, as long as p is constant along the surface. Therefore, substituting Equation (5) into (4), we obtain

$$D' = - \oint_S (\rho \mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{S}) u \quad (6)$$

Evaluating the surface integral in Equation (6), we note from Figure A that:

1. The sections ab , hi and def are streamlines of the flow. Since by definition \mathbf{V} is parallel to the streamlines and $d\mathbf{S}$ is perpendicular to the control surface, along these sections \mathbf{V} and $d\mathbf{S}$ are perpendicular vectors, and hence $\mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$. As a result, the contributions of ab , hi and def to the integral in Equation (6) are zero.

2. The cuts cd and fg are adjacent to each other. The mass flux out of one is identically the mass flux into the other. Hence, the contributions of cd and fg to the integral in Equation (6) cancel each other.

As a result, the only contributions to the integral in Equation (6) come from sections ai and bh. These sections are oriented in the y direction. Also, the control volume has unit depth in the z direction (perpendicular to the page). Hence, for these sections, $dS = dy(1)$. The integral in Equation (6) becomes

$$\oint_S (\rho \mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{S}) u = - \int_i^a \rho_1 u_1^2 dy + \int_h^b \rho_2 u_2^2 dy \quad (7)$$

Note that the minus in front of the first term on the right-hand side of Equation (7) is due to \mathbf{V} and $d\mathbf{S}$ being in opposite directions along ai (station 1 is an inflow boundary); in contrast, \mathbf{V} and $d\mathbf{S}$ are in the same direction over hb (station 2 is an outflow boundary), and hence the second term has a positive sign.

Before going further with Equation (7), consider the integral form of the continuity equation for steady flow. Applied to the control volume in Figure A, this becomes

$$- \int_i^a \rho_1 u_1 dy + \int_h^b \rho_2 u_2 dy = 0$$

or,

$$\int_i^a \rho_1 u_1 dy = \int_h^b \rho_2 u_2 dy \quad (8)$$

Multiplying Equation (8) by u_1 , which is a constant, we obtain

$$\int_i^a \rho_1 u_1^2 dy = \int_h^b \rho_2 u_2 u_1 dy \quad (9)$$

Substituting Equation (9) into Equation (7), we have

$$\oint_S (\rho \mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{S}) u = - \int_h^b \rho_2 u_2 u_1 dy + \int_h^b \rho_2 u_2^2 dy$$

or

$$\oint_S (\rho \mathbf{V} \cdot d\mathbf{S}) u = - \int_h^b \rho_2 u_2 (u_1 - u_2) dy \quad (10)$$

Substituting Equation (10) into Equation (6) yields

$$D' = \int_h^b \rho_2 u_2 (u_1 - u_2) dy \quad (11)$$

Equation (11) is the desired result of this section; it expresses the drag of a body in terms of the known freestream velocity u_1 and the flow-field properties ρ_2 and u_2 , across a vertical station downstream of the body. These downstream properties can be measured in a wind tunnel, and the drag per unit span of the body D' can be obtained by evaluating the integral in Equation (11) numerically, using the measured data for ρ_2 and u_2 as a function of y .

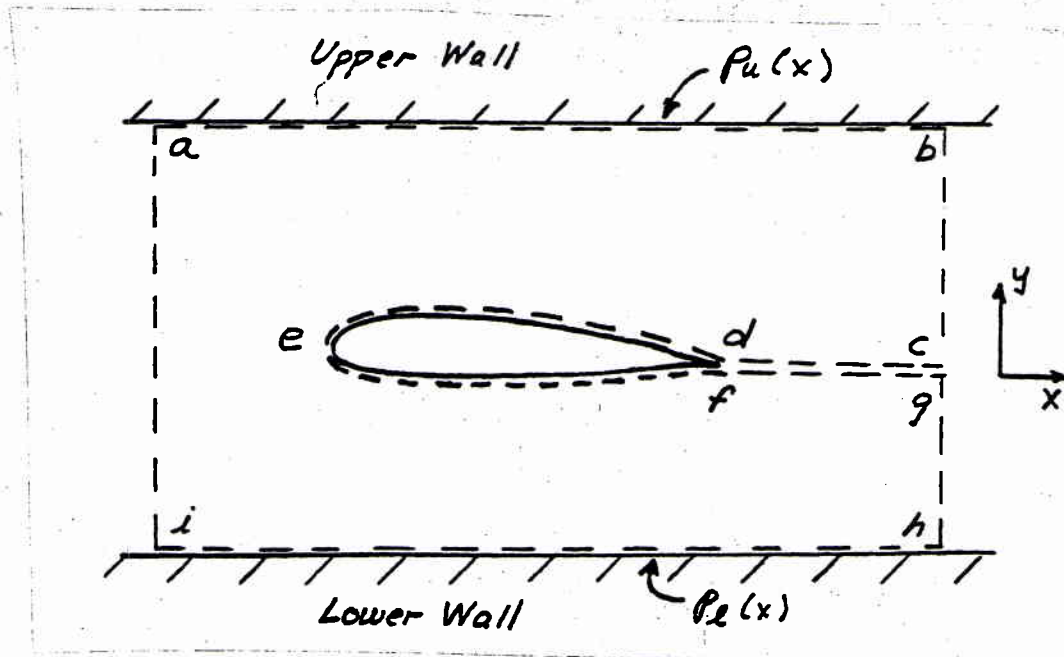
Examine Equation (11) more closely. The quantity $u_1 - u_2$ is the velocity decrement at a given y location. That is, because of the drag on the body, there is a wake that trails downstream of the body. In this wake, there is a loss in flow velocity $u_1 - u_2$. The quantity $\rho_2 u_2$ is simply the mass flux; when multiplied by $u_1 - u_2$, it gives the decrement in momentum. Therefore, the integral in Equation (11) is physically the decrement in momentum flow that exists across the wake, and from Equation (11), this wake momentum decrement is equal to the drag on the body.

For incompressible flow, $\rho = \text{constant}$ and is known. For this case, Equation (11) becomes

$$D' = \rho \int_h^b u_2 (u_1 - u_2) dy \quad (12)$$

Equation (12) is the answer to the questions posed at the beginning of this section. It shows how a measurement of the velocity distribution across the wake of a body can yield the drag. These velocity distributions are conventionally measured with a Pitot rake.

2.2



Denote the pressure distributions on the upper and lower walls by $p_u(x)$ and $p_l(x)$ respectively.

The walls are close enough to the model such that p_u and p_l are not necessarily equal to p_∞ .

Assume that faces ai and bh are far enough upstream and downstream of the model such that

$$p = p_\infty \quad \text{and} \quad v = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad ai \text{ and } bh.$$

Take the y-component of Eq. (2.11) in the text:

$$L = - \oint_S (\rho \vec{V} \cdot d\vec{S}) v - \iint_{abhi} (p d\vec{S}) y$$

The first integral = 0 over all surfaces, either because $\vec{V} \cdot d\vec{S} = 0$ or because $v = 0$. Hence

$$L' = - \iint_{abhi} (p d\vec{S}) y = - \left[\int_a^b p_u dx - \int_i^h p_l dx \right]$$

Minus sign because y-component is in downward direction.

Note: In the above, the integrals over ia and bh cancel because $p = p_\infty$ on both faces. Hence

$$L' = \int_i^h p_l dx - \int_a^b p_u dx$$

CHAPTER 3

3.1 From Table A.1, for $M = 0.7$; $p_o/p = 1.387$ and $T_o/T = 1.098$. Hence,

$$p_o = p \left(\frac{p_o}{p} \right) = 0.9 (1.01 \times 10^{-5})(1.387) = \boxed{1.26 \times 10^{-5} \text{ N/m}^2 \text{ (or 1.248 atm)}}$$

$$T_o = T \left(\frac{T_o}{T} \right) = 250 (1.098) = \boxed{274.5^\circ\text{K}}$$

$$p^* = p \left(\frac{p_o}{p} \right) \left(\frac{p^*}{p_o} \right)$$

Note that p^*/p_o can be obtained from Table A.1 as the value of p/p_o for $M = 1$. Hence, from Table A.1 for $M = 1$; $p_o/p^* = 1.893$ and $T_o/T^* = 1.2$. Thus,

$$p^* = p \left(\frac{p_o}{p} \right) \left(\frac{p^*}{p_o} \right) = 0.9 (1.01 \times 10^{-5})(1.387)/1.893 = \boxed{6.66 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N/m}^2 \text{ (or 0.659 atm)}}$$

$$T^* = T \left(\frac{T_o}{T} \right) \left(\frac{T^*}{T_o} \right) = 250 (1.098)/1.2 = \boxed{288.8^\circ\text{K}}$$

$$a^* = \sqrt{\gamma R T} = \sqrt{(1.4)(287)(288.8)} = \boxed{303.2 \text{ m/sec}}$$

3.2 $\frac{p_o}{p} = \frac{1.5 \times 10^6}{5 \times 10^4} = 30$

From Table A.1: $M = 2.866$ (linear interpolation)

Also from Table A.1: $\frac{T_o}{T} = 2.643$ (linear interpolation)

Hence,

$$T_o = T \left(\frac{T_o}{T} \right) = 200 (2.643) = \boxed{528.6^\circ\text{K}}$$

$$3.3 \quad a = \sqrt{\gamma RT} = \sqrt{(1.4)(1716)(500)} = 1096 \text{ ft/sec}$$

$$M = V/a = 3000/1096 = (2.74)$$

From Eq. (3.37)

$$(M^*)^2 = \frac{\gamma + 1}{2\left(\frac{1}{M}\right)^2 + \gamma - 1} = \frac{2.4}{2\left(\frac{1}{2.74}\right)^2 + 0.4} = 3.6$$

$$\boxed{M^* = 1.9}$$

3.4 From Table A.2, for $M_1 = 3$; $p_2/p_1 = 10.33$, $\rho_2/\rho_1 = 3.857$, $p_{o_2}/p_{o_1} = 0.3283$, and

$\boxed{M_2 = 0.4752}$. Thus,

$$p_2 = p_1 (p_2/p_1) = (1)(1.01 \times 10^5)(10.33) = 1.043 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2 \text{ (or 10.33 atm)}$$

Thus,

$$p_2 = p_1 \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \right) = (1)(1.01 \times 10^5)(10.33) = \boxed{1.043 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2 \text{ (or 10.33 atm)}}$$

$$\rho_2 = \rho_1 \left(\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \right) = 1.23 (3.857) = \boxed{4.744 \text{ kg/m}^3}$$

$$T_2 = \frac{p_2}{\rho_2 R} = \frac{1.043 \times 10^6}{(4.744)(287)} = \boxed{766^\circ\text{K}}$$

$$a_2 = \sqrt{\gamma RT_2} = \sqrt{(1.4)(287)(766)} = 554.8 \text{ m/sec}$$

$$u_2 = a_2 M_2 = (554.8)(0.4752) = \boxed{263.6 \text{ m/sec}}$$

From Table A.1, for $M_1 = 3$, $p_{o_1}/p_1 = 36.73$ and $T_{o_1}/T_1 = 2.8$. Hence:

$$p_{o_2} = p_1 \left(\frac{p_{o_1}}{p_1} \right) \frac{p_{o_2}}{p_{o_1}} = (1.01 \times 10^5) (36.73)(0.3283) = \boxed{1.218 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2}$$

$$T_{o_2} = T_{o_1} = T_1 \left(\frac{T_{o_1}}{T_1} \right) = \frac{p_1}{R\rho_1} \left(\frac{T_{o_1}}{T_1} \right) = \frac{1.01 \times 10^5}{(287)(1.23)} \quad (2.8) = \boxed{801^\circ\text{K}}$$

3.5 (a) $p_o/p = \frac{1.22 \times 10^5}{1.01 \times 10^5} = 1.21$. From Table A.1: $M_\infty = 0.53$

(b) $p_o/p = \frac{7222}{2116} = 3.413$. From Table A.1, we find this would correspond to $M_\infty = 1.45$.

However, since this is supersonic, a normal shock sits in front of the Pitot tube. Hence,

P_o is now the total pressure behind a normal shock wave. Thus we have to use Table A.2.

$$p_{o_2} / p_1 = \frac{7222}{2116} = 3.412. \text{ From Table A.2: } \boxed{M_\infty = 1.5}$$

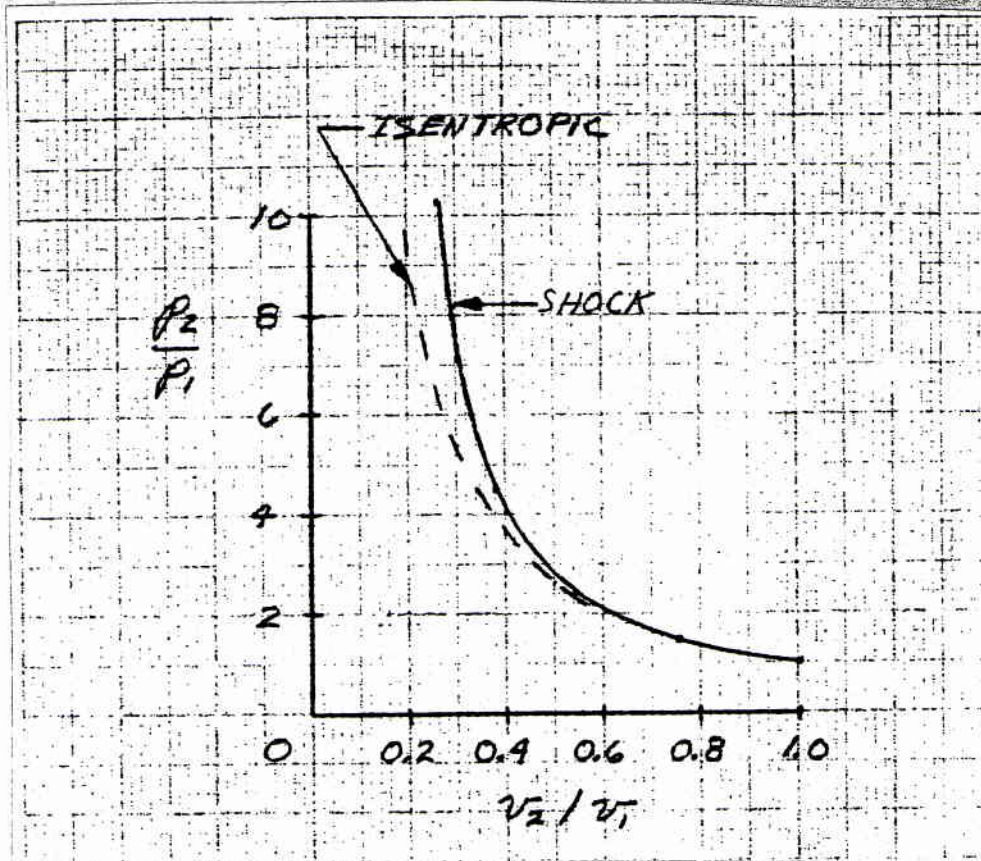
(c) $p_{o_2} / p_1 = \frac{13107}{1020} = 12.85$. From Table A.2: $\boxed{M_\infty = 3.1}$

3.6 For the shock compression, use M_1 as a parameter, along with Table A.2. For the isentropic compression, use $p_2/p_1 = (v_1/v_1)^\gamma$

NORMAL SHOCK COMPRESSION

ISENTROPIC COMPRESSION

M_1	ρ_2/ρ_1	$(\rho_2 p_1)^{-1}$ $= v_2/v_1$	p_2/p_1	v_2/v_1	p_2/p_1
1.0	1	1	1	1	1
1.2	1.34	0.745	1.51	0.75	1.50
1.5	1.86	0.537	2.46	0.50	2.64
1.7	2.20	0.455	3.21	0.40	3.61
2.0	2.67	0.375	4.50	0.30	5.4
2.5	3.33	0.30	7.13	0.20	9.51
3.0	3.86	0.259	10.3		



Note that:

- (a) For a given decrease in volume, a shock wave yields a higher pressure and therefore may be construed to be more “effective” than an isentropic compression.
- (b) On the other hand, because the entropy increases across the shock, a shock wave is less efficient than an isentropic compression. To obtain a given p_2/p_1 , it requires more work via a shock.
- (c) Note that for v_2/v_1 near unity, the shock and isentropic curves are essentially the same. This is a reflection that the entropy increase across weak shocks ($M_1 < 1.3$) is negligible.

3.7 From Table A.1 for $M_\infty = 38$, $T_0/T = 289.9$; $T_0 = (289.8)(270) = \boxed{78246^\circ\text{K}}$

This temperature is almost 8 times the surface temperature of the sun. Long before this temperature is even reached, the air will dissociate and ionize, and γ is no longer constant, nor