

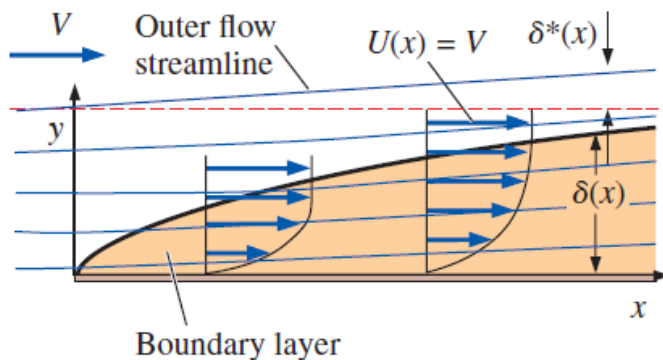
Today, we will:

- Discuss **displacement thickness** in a laminar boundary layer
- Discuss the **turbulent** boundary layer on a flat plate, and compare with laminar flow
- Talk about boundary layers with **pressure gradients**

d. Displacement thickness, δ^*

Definition:

δ^* = the distance that a streamline just outside the BL is deflected away from the wall due to the effect of the BL; the distance in which the outer flow is “displaced” away from the wall.

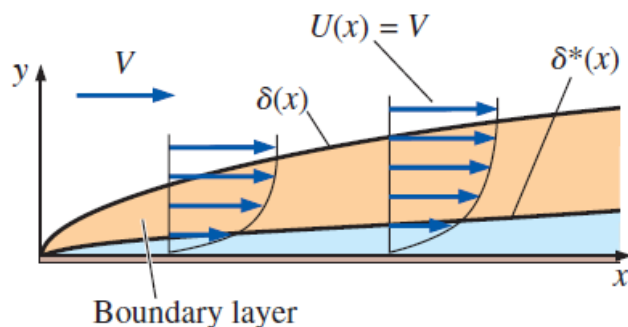


Note: Neither δ nor δ^ are streamlines. In fact, streamlines cross lines of δ and δ^* .*

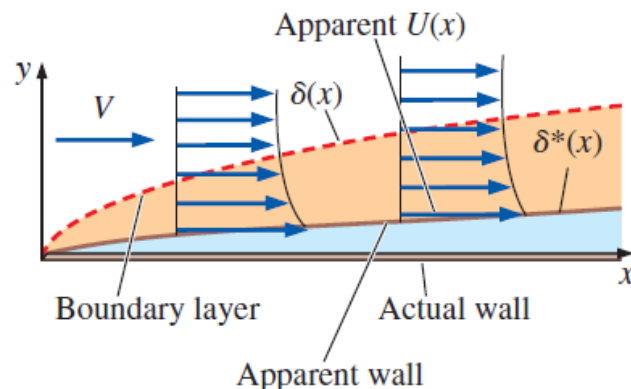
Alternate Definition:

δ^* = the imaginary increase in wall thickness seen by the outer flow, due to the presence of the BL. [The outer flow “feels” like the wall is thicker than it actually is.]

Actual wall case:



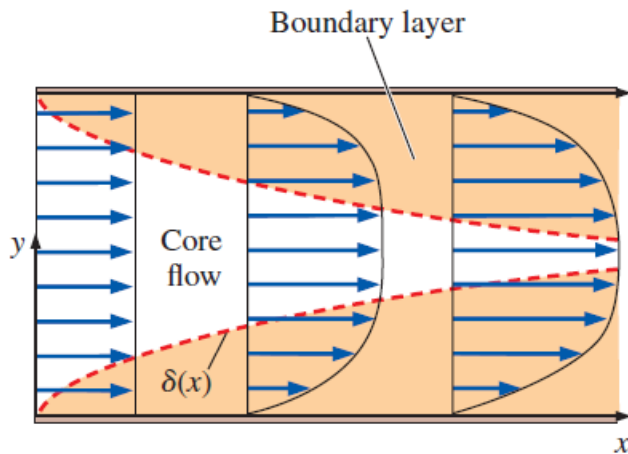
Apparent wall case:



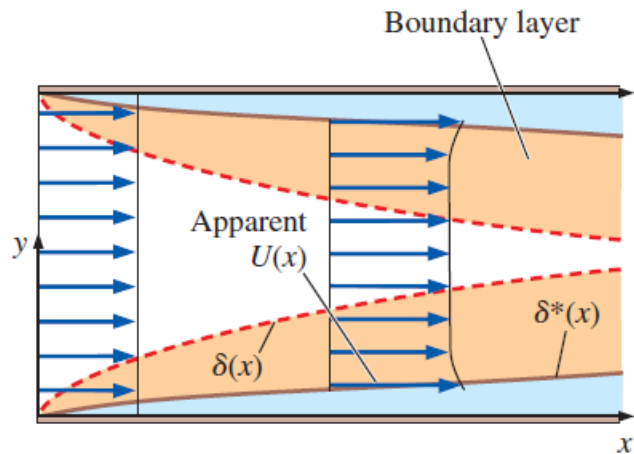
Practical example of the usefulness of displacement thickness: **Wind tunnel design.**

In these exaggerated drawings, as the BL grows along the walls of the wind tunnel, the speed in the core flow $U(x)$ must *increase* because the core flow “feels” like the wind tunnel walls are converging, due to the displacement thickness effect.

Actual wall case:

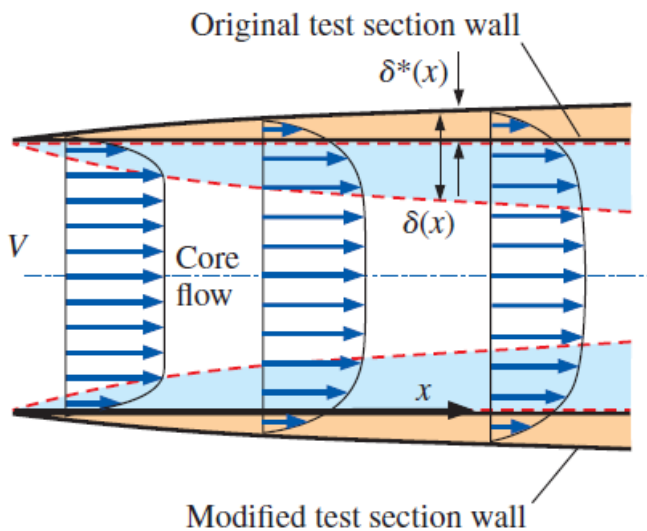


Apparent wall case:

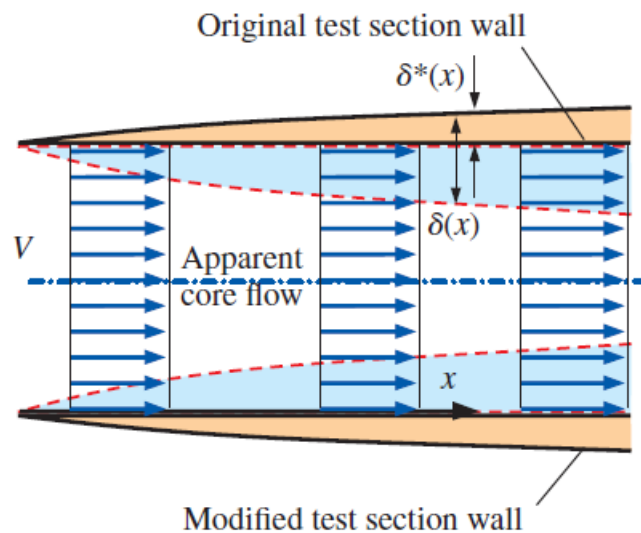


To avoid this effect, and to keep $U(x)$ constant, we would need to make the wind tunnel walls diverge out with downstream distance by the amount of the displacement thickness δ^* :

Actual wall case:

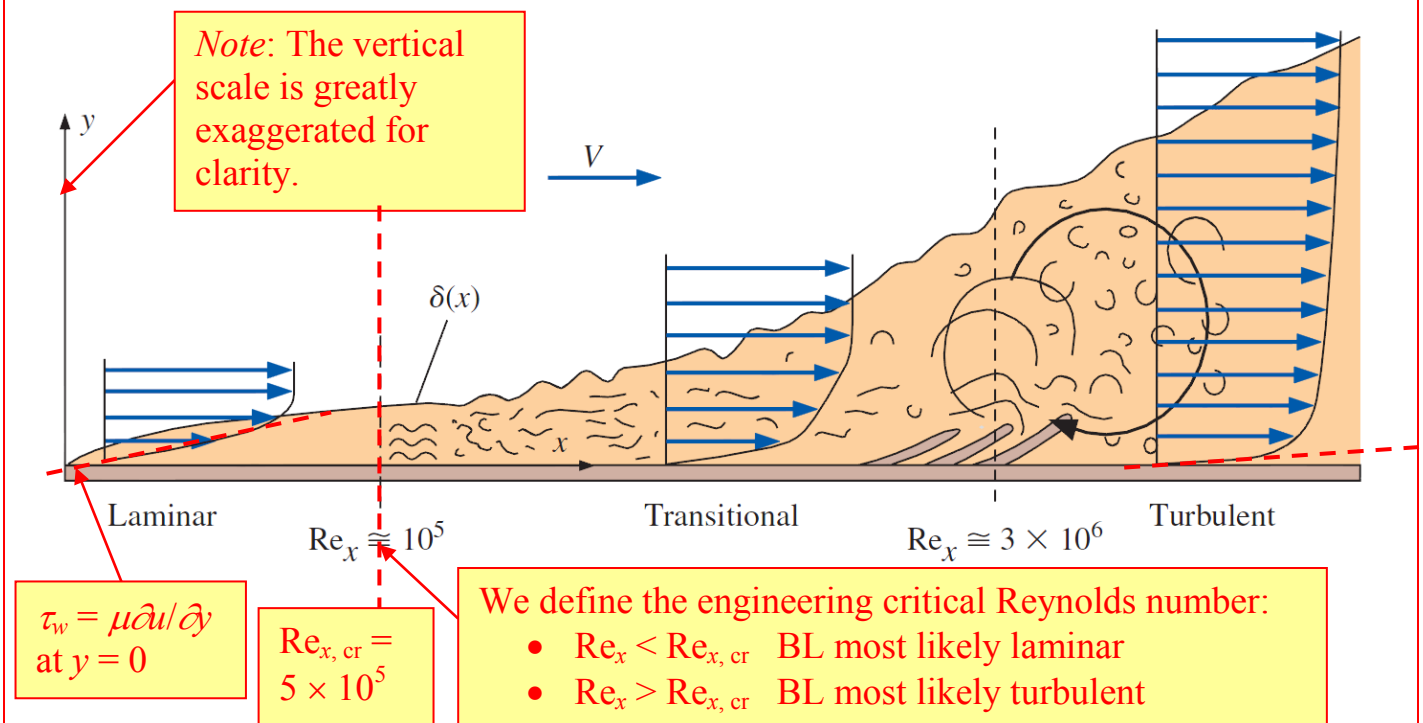


Apparent wall case:

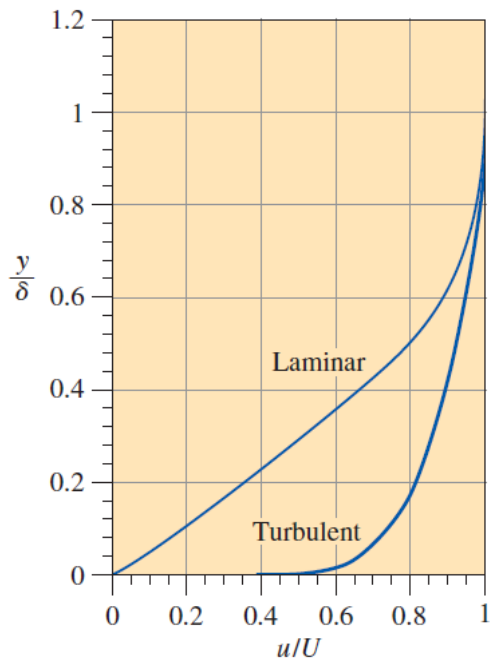
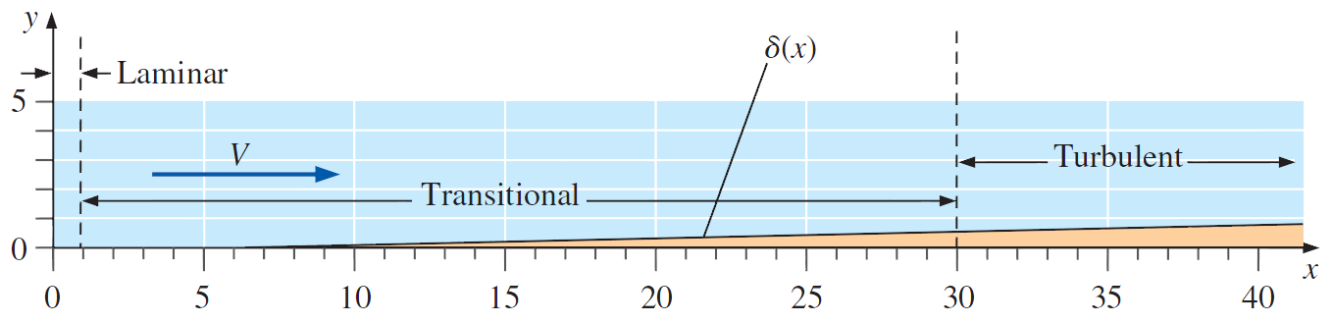


6. Turbulent Boundary Layer on a Flat Plate

Since $Re_x = Ux/\nu$ increases with x (distance down the plate), eventually Re_x gets big enough that the BL transitions from laminar to turbulent. Here is a schematic of the process:



Here is what the actual BL looks like to scale:



The time-averaged turbulent flat plate (zero pressure gradient) boundary layer velocity profile is much *fuller* than the laminar flat plate boundary layer profile, and therefore has a larger slope $\partial u / \partial y$ at the wall, leading to greater skin friction drag along the wall.

Note: This is a nondimensional plot in terms of u/U vs. y/δ . The actual turbulent BL is of course much *thicker* than the laminar one in physical dimensions, as sketched above.

Quantities of interest for the turbulent flat plate boundary layer:

Just as we did for the laminar (Blasius) flat plate boundary layer, we can use these expressions for the velocity profile to estimate quantities of interest, such as the 99% boundary layer thickness δ , the displacement thickness δ^* , the local skin friction coefficient $C_{f,x}$, etc. These are summarized in Table 10-4 in the text.

TABLE 10-4

Column (b) expressions are generally preferred for engineering analysis.

Summary of expressions for laminar and turbulent boundary layers on a smooth flat plate aligned parallel to a uniform stream*

Property	Laminar	(a) Turbulent ^(†)	(b) Turbulent ^(‡)
Boundary layer thickness	$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{4.91}{\sqrt{\text{Re}_x}}$	$\frac{\delta}{x} \cong \frac{0.16}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/7}}$	$\frac{\delta}{x} \cong \frac{0.38}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/5}}$
Displacement thickness	$\frac{\delta^*}{x} = \frac{1.72}{\sqrt{\text{Re}_x}}$	$\frac{\delta^*}{x} \cong \frac{0.020}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/7}}$	$\frac{\delta^*}{x} \cong \frac{0.048}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/5}}$
Momentum thickness	$\frac{\theta}{x} = \frac{0.664}{\sqrt{\text{Re}_x}}$	$\frac{\theta}{x} \cong \frac{0.016}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/7}}$	$\frac{\theta}{x} \cong \frac{0.037}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/5}}$
Local skin friction coefficient	$C_{f,x} = \frac{0.664}{\sqrt{\text{Re}_x}}$	$C_{f,x} \cong \frac{0.027}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/7}}$	$C_{f,x} \cong \frac{0.059}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/5}}$

Note that $C_{f,x}$ is the *local* skin friction coefficient, applied at only *one* value of x .

To these we add the integrated **average skin friction coefficients** for *one side* of a flat plate of length L , noting that C_f applies to the entire plate from $x = 0$ to $x = L$ (see Chapter 11):

Laminar:
$$C_f = \frac{1.33}{\text{Re}_L^{1/2}} \quad \text{Re}_L \lesssim 5 \times 10^5 \quad (11-19)$$

Turbulent:
$$C_f = \frac{0.074}{\text{Re}_L^{1/5}} \quad 5 \times 10^5 \lesssim \text{Re}_L \lesssim 10^7 \quad (11-20)$$

For cases in which the laminar portion of the plate is taken into consideration, we use:

$$C_f = \frac{0.074}{\text{Re}_L^{1/5}} - \frac{1742}{\text{Re}_L} \quad 5 \times 10^5 \lesssim \text{Re}_L \lesssim 10^7 \quad (11-22)$$

Turbulent flat plate boundary layers with wall roughness:

Finally, all of the above are for *smooth* flat plates. However, if the plate is *rough*, the average skin friction coefficient C_f increases with roughness ε . This is similar to the situation in pipe flows, in which Darcy friction factor f increases with pipe wall roughness.

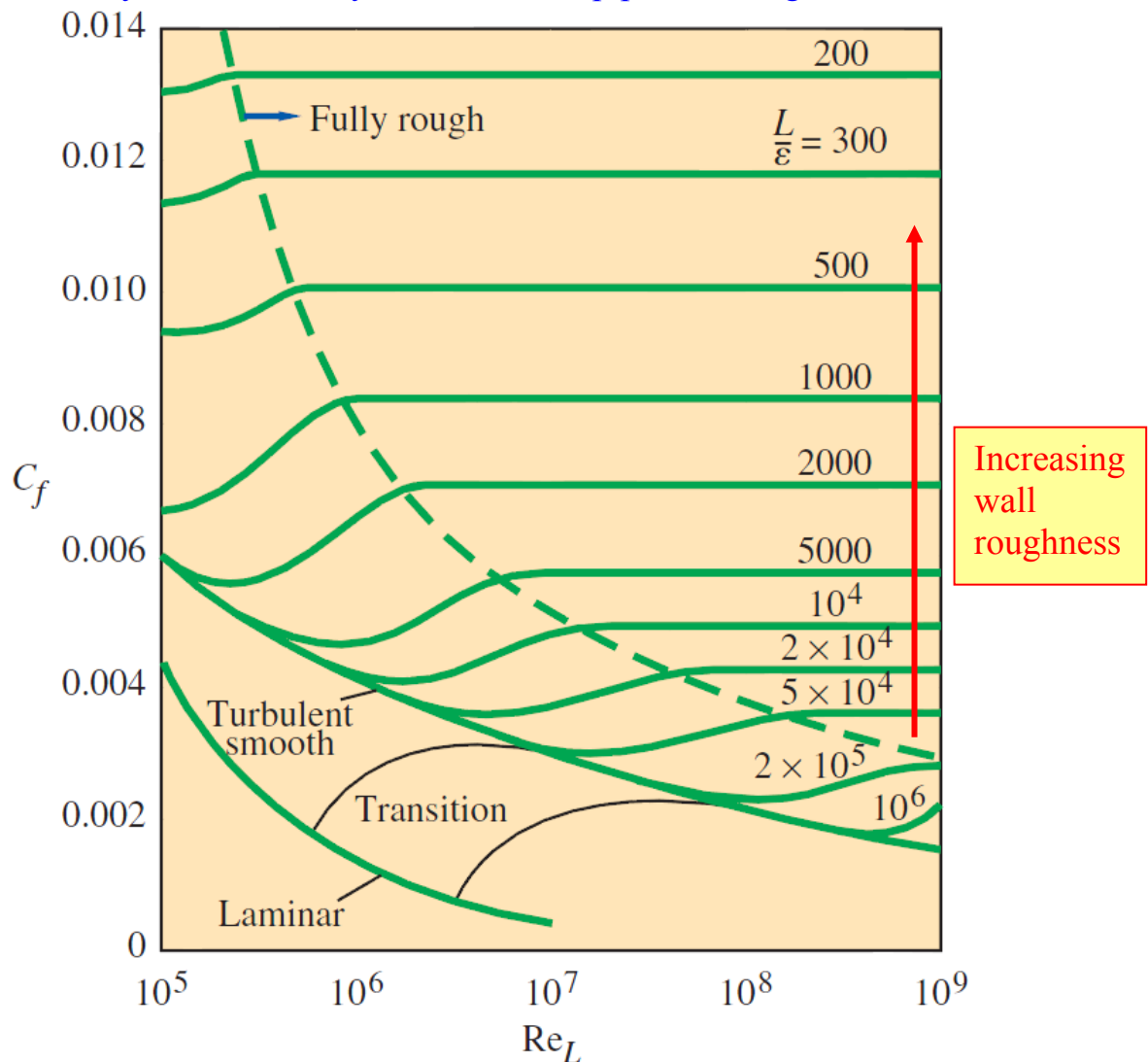


FIGURE 11-31

Friction coefficient for parallel flow over smooth and rough flat plates.

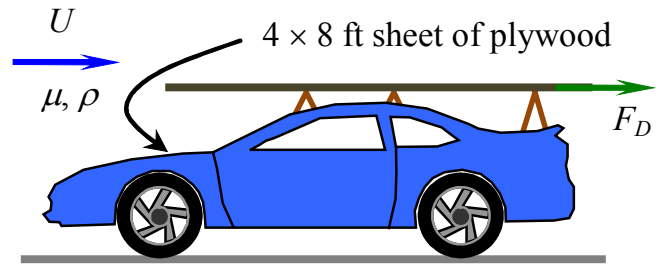
Just as with pipe flows, at high enough Reynolds numbers, the boundary layer becomes “fully rough”. For a **fully rough flat plate turbulent boundary layer** with average wall roughness height ε ,

Fully rough turbulent regime:
$$C_f = \left(1.89 - 1.62 \log \frac{\varepsilon}{L} \right)^{-2.5} \quad (11-23)$$

This equation represents the flat portions of Fig. 11-31 that are labeled “Fully rough”.

Example: Drag on a sheet of plywood (continued)

Given: Craig buys a 4×8 ft sheet of plywood at Lowe's and mounts it on the top of his car. He drives (carefully) at $35 \text{ mph} \approx 51.3 \text{ ft/s}$. The air density and kinematic viscosity in English units are $\rho = 0.07518 \text{ lbm/ft}^3$ and $\nu = 1.632 \times 10^{-4} \text{ ft}^2/\text{s}$, respectively.



To do: Estimate δ at the end of the plate ($x = L$) and the drag force on the plate for two cases: (a) smooth plate, turbulent BL, (b) rough plate ($\varepsilon = 0.050 \text{ in.}$), turbulent BL.

Solution:

We solved this problem previously assuming that the BL remained *laminar*. We first solved for the Reynolds number at the end of the plate, $\text{Re}_x = \text{Re}_L \text{ (at } x = L) = UL/\nu = 2.515 \times 10^6$. Results: $\delta = 0.297 \text{ in.}$, $F_D = 0.165 \text{ lbf}$. Now let's repeat the calculations for a *turbulent* BL.

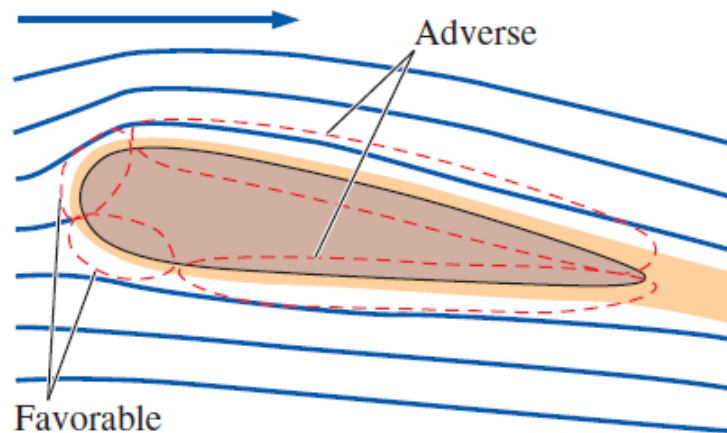
7. Boundary Layers with Pressure Gradients

a. Some definitions

For a flat plate, $P = \text{constant}$, and thus $dP/dx = 0$. We call this a **zero-pressure gradient**.

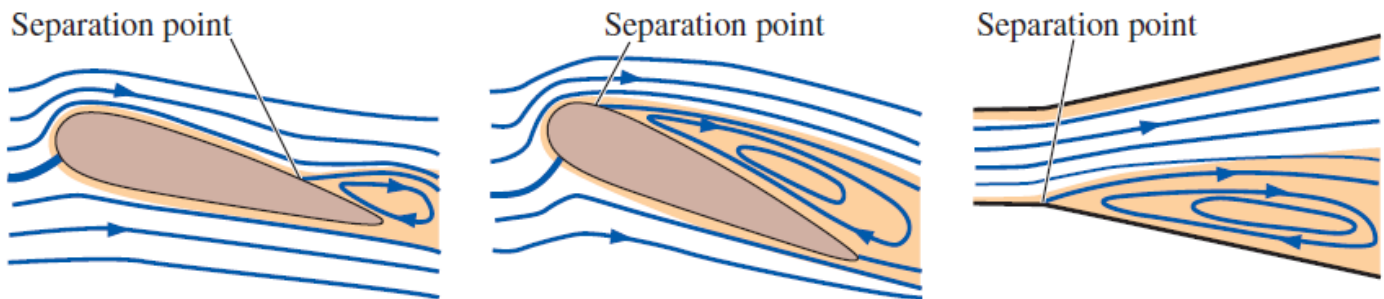
For most real-life flows, $P \neq \text{constant}$, and thus $dP/dx \neq 0$. Two possibilities:

- If $dP/dx < 0$, $dU/dx > 0$, the flow is *accelerating*. This is a **favorable pressure gradient**.
- If $dP/dx > 0$, $dU/dx < 0$, the flow is *decelerating*. This is an **unfavorable pressure gradient** (also called an **adverse pressure gradient**).



Adverse pressure gradients are *unfavorable* in the sense that they are *more likely to separate*.

Examples:



In most practical applications, we design so as to avoid flow separation if possible. For example, in a wind tunnel, the contraction has a *favorable* pressure gradient and flow separation is not likely. Therefore we typically design a very *rapid* contraction. However, the diffuser section has an *unfavorable* (adverse) pressure gradient, and is much more likely to separate. Therefore we design the diffuser with a much *slower* (smaller angle) divergence.

