See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/327136695

Hasanuzzaman_ICEFM_2018_conference_proceedings

Conference Paper · July 2018

	15	reads 9	
2 authors:			
	Gazi Hasanuzzaman Brandenburg University of Technology Cottbus - Senftenberg 2 PUBLICATIONS 0 CITATIONS SEE PROFILE		Christoph Egbers Brandenburg University of Technology Cottbus - Senftenberg 206 PUBLICATIONS 658 CITATIONS SEE PROFILE

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



Turbulent Pipe Flow at High Reynolds Numbers View project

Influence of Micro-Blowing on Turbulent Structures in Boundary Layer Flows View project

Experimental investigation of active control in turbulent boundary layer using uniform blowing

Gazi Hasanuzzaman^{1*}, Sebastian Merbold¹, Vasyl Motuz¹, Christoph Egbers¹, Christophe Cuvier² and Jean-Marc Foucaut²

¹ Brandenberg University of Technology, Department of Aerodynamics and Fluid Mechanics, Cottbus, Germany

² Univ. Lille, Laboratoire de Mécanique des Fluides de Lille Kampé de Fériet, Lille, France

* corresponding.hasangaz@b-tu.de

Abstract

Turbulent Boundary Layer (TBL) was perturbed with a upstream blowing with an uniform rate where magnitude of the blowing was varied as a small fraction of free stream velocity (U_{∞}). In order to identify the changes in the flow downstream, Stereo Particle Image Velocimetry (SPIV) was used to measure the flow field, where two orientation of SPIV arrangement was used to measure the plane parallel and perpendicular to the principal flow direction. Measurement was taken in a wide variation of Reynolds number based on momentum thickness such as $\text{Re}_{\theta,SBL} = 7495 \sim 18094$. Present proceedings discuss the requirement of such experiment, experimental setup and procedure followed by a description of the database acquired with the present measurement.

1 Introduction

Turbulence is considered as a major barrier problem in fluid driven transportation sector e.g aviation and shipping industry. For subsonic CTOL aircrafts, skin friction drag contributes almost 50% of the total drag (Kornilov (2015)). Therefore, a novel drag reduction technique that can achieve a substantial friction reduction over the wall can contribute a significant fuel cost abatement. In the course of several drag reduction drag reduction effects compared to the passive techniques. Moreover, a general consensus from our cognition of presently available literature indicate that blowing can potentially reduce skin friction by as large as 50% (Hwang (2004)). Besides, several methods are in practice in order to actively or passively manipulate the wall bounded flows with a common goal to reduce the skin friction.

The concept of active manipulation of the boundary layer goes back to early forties of the last century. First documented flow manipulation experiment using blowing was found from Schlichtling (1942a) where he used the blowing from upstream slot of a subsonic aerofoil. Subsequently, several other researches about blowing from a transpired surafce established the potential of the blowing in reducing friction drag for incompressible TBL. Notables are Mickley et al. (1954), Mickley et al. (1957), Black and Sernecki (1965) and Rotta (1970). A good review on the stated experiments can be found from Jeromin (1970). Nevertheless, considerable amount of laboratory experiments and numerical simulations regarding blowing has provided ample of data but growing consensus regarding large and very large scale structures in turbulent wall bounded flows has constrained the renewal of such experiments. Beside the engineering application of blowing on aerodynamic and hydrodynamic machines (e.g. aeroplanes, submarines, high speed trains and automobiles) it is also analogous to determine the relevance of such method to the turbulent flows. Therefore, rather looking into the mean parameters of the TBL with blowing, time dependent analysis of valid high Reynolds number measurements are necessary.

Flow manipulation experiments about incompressible TBL primarily focuses in two principle aspects namely amount of friction drag reduction and time dependent study of turbulence parameters. Although reported numerical results at comparatively low Reynolds numbers, incompressible TBL at $Re_{\theta} = 700$, Kametani and Fukagata (2011) presented a very interesting outcome that a small magnitude of uniform

blowing $(0.1\% U_{\infty})$ can cause significant amount of statistical alteration to the mean flow. In addition, blowing is not only sustainable within the near wall region but can cause significant upsurge of hairpin like structures all the way through the outer region. This happens simultaneously with the reduction of friction drag of the downstream region.

In experiments, general feasibility of uniform blowing in the field of friction drag reduction is mostly considered as a local phenomena. But with increased computational capacity, we receive a complete description of the flow field through numerical simulation. Therefore, overall estimation of the friction drag along an incompressible TBL was found possible by Stroh et al. (2016). As such, a detail description of the upstream influence from blowing along the TBL was provided. A significant finding from their result is that the finite length of affected area through a very small amount of uniform blowing can be persistent for the complete spatial growth of TBL.

2 High Reynolds Number Measurement

Since Theodorsen (1952) illustrated the existence and classification of different structures present in the wall bounded shear flows, extensive research effort has been imparted in the study of structures in turbulent flows. In other words, 'Coherent Motions' in the outer layer of wall bounded shear flows has received monumental attention as their dynamical nature was difficult to study due to the limitation of existing measurement technique. It was widely accepted that the dynamics of these coherent motions was relatively similar and independent from the flow Reynolds number. Maximum kinetic energy was believed to be from the influence of the inner layer. Contrary to such belief, using Hot Wire Anemometry (HWA) measurements at high Reynolds number TBL flows, Hutchins and Marusic (2007) showed that outer scaled large structures becomes more influential as the Reynolds number increases. In addition, they have also showed that sufficient scale separation of the fluctuation data is required in order to obtain a distinction between inner and outer layer peak (both fluctuation and spectra). That occurs at a minimum Reynolds number of $\text{Re}_{\tau,SBL} = \delta u_{\tau}/v$, u_{τ} is the shear velocity and δ is the boundary layer thickness at $U_{\infty} = 99\%$).

In connection to the flow control/manipulation experiments in TBL, most often measurement/simulation data available is based on low Reynolds number flows. On the other hand, most of the engineering applications are at very high Reynolds number. General aviation is operated upto and beyond $\text{Re}_c = 10^7$ (Chord Reynolds number, $\text{Re}_c = U_f c/v$, U_f is the flight speed and c indicates the chord number. This is quite similar to the characteristics length based Reynolds number in TBL). Most often low Reynolds number measurements are justified with the fact that most of the turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) is the contribution from viscous layer. As the Reynolds number increases, the share of TKE contribution from viscous layer keep reducing and share from the logarithmic layer keep increasing. Smits et al. (2011) described such phenomena using high Reynolds number HWA measurements where pre-multiplied TKE was used to describe the TKE contribution from different layers. Although, PIV measurement is limited to reach the near wall regions but at sufficiently high Reynolds number overlapping and logarithmic layer becomes more important in terms of turbulent structure analysis.

As a consequence to such hypothesis, an experimental study was designed to verify the idea of energy transfer manipulation using uniform blowing. In addition, a suitable scaling parameter for the mean profiles and Reynolds stresses will be sought. Therefore, flow manipulation using uniform blowing experiments at sufficiently high Reynolds numbers were conducted within the framework of European High-Performance Infrastructures in Turbulence (EuHIT) Project, 'Enhanced Turbulent Outer Peak using Uniform Micro-Blowing (ETOP-MBT)'. The experiment was a joint experiment between Department of Aerodynamics and Fluid Mechanics, Brandenburg University of Technology and Laboratoire de Mécanique des Fluides de Lille Kampé de Fériet (LMLF), University of Lille.

3 Boundary Layer Wind Tunnel

LMLF boundary layer facility is particularly suitable for high resolution measurements at high Reynolds numbers of turbulent boundary layer over flat plate. Wind tunnel used for this experiment has a closed loop configuration which is particularly suitable for non-intrusive optical measurements such as Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV).

Test section of the wind tunnel is 20.6 m long with a cross section of $1 \times 2 \text{ m}^2$ e.g. in vertical and transverse length. As the test section has an optical access from all sides along the complete length of it,



(a) XY plane

(b) YZ plane

Figure 1: (Left) SPIV arrangement for XY plane, (Right) for YZ plane, in both cases flow is coming from left to right relative to the reader

therefore, non-intrusive optical measurement was also possible. Longitudinal axis (axis x) is parallel to the bottom wall and to the incoming flow where boundary layer develops. Transverse and vertical axis is referred as axis z and y respectively. Incoming air to the plenum chamber was passing through a airwater heat ex-changer in order to provide a near iso-thermal flow where efficiency is kept within $\pm 0.15^{\circ}C$. Subsequently, air through the guide vanes undergoes a relaminarization process via honeycomb screens and grids. Thereafter, contraction takes place with a ratio of 5.4 : 1.

4 Uniform Blowing Experiment

Upstream blowing with uniform velocity in a flat plate turbulent boundary layer was established with a perforated plate where 4514 holes with uniform diameter of 3.6 mm were constructed with staggered arrangement following the designs proposed by Hwang (2002). Although this experiment was designed for compressible flows, therefore, viscous length scale was way to smaller compared to the present experiment. In order to use the similar blowing surface design for incompressible TBL with larger length scales, necessary modifications to the blowing assembly was done compared to the design data from Hasanuzzaman et al. (2016). Perforated surface to apply uniform blowing was placed as a wind tunnel wall at the plate characteristics length of X = 18.424 m and equidistant from the tunnel side walls (e.g. perforated surface spanwise center was aligned with the tunnel spanwise center). Blowing rate is expressed as blowing fraction (F), is a ratio between the magnitude of the incoming air through the perforated surface to the U_{∞} (= $V_{blowing}/U_{\infty}$ in %) was applied at a very low velocity (0, 1, 3 and 6%) for each Reynolds number being measured.

High fidelity Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV) measurements were carried out for Reynolds number, $Re_{\theta} = 7,495$, 12541 and 18,095 (Subscript _{SBL} refer to the cases without blowing). Reynolds number is based on the free stream velocity (U_∞), momentum loss thickness (θ) and Kinematic viscosity (ν). For each Reynolds number, two particular Field of View (FoV) were realized. In order to acquire uncorrelated SPIV data for statistical analysis over the entire height of boundary layer, a plane parallel in the direction of principle flow (streamwise-wall normal) was measured at 22 cm downstream from the end of perforated surface. This set of measurements are indicated with 'XY' in the section-5. 4000 independent velocity fields with all three components were obtained with sufficient accuracy.

Similarly, for each set of Reynolds number, a plane perpendicular in the direction of principle flow (spanwise-wall normal) was also measured. Second FoV was set immediately over the perforated surface at 25% downstream from the beginning. This is termed as 'YZ' plane. In YZ plane High speed SPIV acquisition was realized in order to obtain time correlated data with sufficiently high frequency ($f_{acq} = 2$ kHz). For each Reynolds numbers and blowing ratios, 4 runs were acquired. RMS of the different velocity components scaled with the free stream velocity along ascending wall normal height as a fraction to δ is presented with Figure-2 at Re_{θ ,SBL} = 7495. We can observe that v_{RMS} is maximum at y = 0.0044 m or $y/\delta = 0.016$, which is the location where natural peak value is found at the measured Reynolds number. Blowing as an active method, is expected to add energy to the wall normal component. The addition of energy is



Figure 2: At $\text{Re}_{\theta,SBL}$ = 7495 RMS values of fluctuations normalized with U_{∞} along different wall normal height scaled with δ (measurements from YZ plane), \Box : u_{RMS}/U_{∞} , \triangleleft : v_{RMS}/U_{∞} , \bigtriangleup : w_{RMS}/U_{∞}



Figure 3: Contour plots of streamwise fluctuations at $\text{Re}_{\theta,SBL} = 7495$.

dependent on the blowing fraction (F). At the same time, wall normal component is expected to curtail the magnitude of the streamwise velocity changing the mean gradient (du^+/dy^+) of u at the near wall region $(y^+ \leq 5)$. Figure-3 indicate the contour plots of streamwise fluctuation following the space time conversion procedure from Monty et al. (2007). Here, streamwise fluctuations are normalized with U_{∞} and cartesian co-ordinates along z and x axis were normalized with δ .

Images were obtained using an SPIV setup of translation orientation (Prasad and Jensen (1995)). Afterwards, SPIV images were evaluated using an in house version of MatPIV code developed at LMLF. This was a multiple grid and multiple pass cross correlation algorithm described in Westerweel et al. (1997) and Soria et al. (1999). In order to avoid the error due to misalignment between laser light sheet and optical plane of the camera, a calibration process called safe calibration was followed (Soloff et al. (1997)). In order to avoid inherent image deformation and outlier detection Westerweel and Scarano (2005) was applied.

5 ETOP-MBT Database

Experimental boundary condition and technical details of the measurement campaign can be found in the project completion report ETOP-MBT (2016) and the details of the data repository is in the following link: https://turbase.cineca.it/init/routes/#/logging/view_dataset/82/tabfile

Access to the data in the above mentioned link is still under embargo period till September 2018.

6 Conclusion

In order to obtain spatial distribution of the streamwise velocity fluctuations presented in Figure-3, Taylors frozen turbulence hypothesis has been employed to infer the spatial velocity field from the temporal SPIV data. The blue low-speed regions surrounded by red high-speed regions are the signature of the Coherent motions in TBL. Corresponding wall normal height is within the logarithmic and the beginning of the wake. In some cases, spanwise length of such motions exceed the length of FoV. Post processing of the SPIV data is in progress. Accuracy of the results are in good agreement with literature values. Accuracy of the data is strongly depending on the accuracy of the images. Therefore, PIV error was not more then 0.1 pixels.

Acknowledgements

The authors of the present proceedings would like to acknowledge the financial support of the EUHIT project in the frame of its Transnational Access activity. EuHIT: "European High performance Infrastructures in Turbulence" (Grant Agreement Number 312778 within the FP7-INFRASTRUCTURES-2012-1 European Union's research and innovation funding program).

References

- Kornilov VI (2015), Current state and prospects of research on the control of turbulent boundary layer by air blowing. *Prog. Aero. Sci.* 76: 1 23
- Hwang D (2004), Review of research into concept of the micro-blowing technique for turbulent skin friction reduction (Review). *Prog. Aero. Sci.* 40: 559 575
- Hwang D (2002), Experimental study of characteristics of micro-hole porous skins for turbulent skin friction reduction. 23rd Congress of the International Council of the Aeronautical Sciences (ICAS), 8-13 September, Toronto, Canada: 1 – 7
- Hasanuzzaman G, Merbold S, Motuz V and Egbers Ch (2016), Experimental Investigation of Turbulent Structures and their Control in Boundary Layer Flow, *Fachtagung Experimentelle Strmungsmechanik*, *Cottbus*, 6. 8. September, ISBN 978-3-9816764-2-6
- Hasanuzzaman G (2002), Enhanced Turbulent Outer Peak using Uniform Micro-Blowing Technique (ETOP-MBT). *EuHIT project report*, url: https://www.euhit.org/projects/ETOPMBT

- Willert CA and Gharib M (1991), Digital particle image velocimetry. Exp. Fluids, 10, 181 193
- Prasad AK and Jensen K (1995), Scheimpflug stereocamera for particle image velocimetry in liquid flows. *Appl. Optics*, 34, 30: 7092 – 7099
- Soloff SM, Adrian RJ and Liu ZC (1997), Distortion compensation for generalized stereoscopic particle image velocimetry. *Meas. Sci. and Technol.*, 8: 1441 1454
- Westerweel J, Dabiri D and Gharib M (2000), The effect of a discrete window offset on the accuracy of cross-correlation analysis of digital PIV recordings. *Exp. Fluids*, 23, 1: 20 28
- Soria J, Cater J and Kostas J (1999), High resolution multigrid cross-correlation digital PIV measurements of a turbulent starting jet using half frame image shift film recording. *Laser and Optics Tech.*, 31, 1: 3 12
- Westerweel J and Scarano F (2005), Universal outlier detection for PIV data. *Exp. Fluids*, 39(6): 1096 1100
- Schlichtling H. (1942a), The boundary layer on a flat plate under conditions of suction and air injection (Die Grenzschicht an der ebenen Platte mit Absaugung und Ausblassen). *Luftfahrtforschung*, 19: 293 301
- Mickley HS, Ross RC, Squyers AL and Stewert WE (1954), Heat, Mass and Momentum transfer for Flow over a Flat Plate Turbulent Boundary layer, *NACA Tech. Rep.*, 3208, MIT
- Mickley HS and Davis RS (1957), Momentum transfer for flow over a flat plate with blowing, *NACA Tech. Note.*, 4017: 1 64.
- Black TJ and Sarnecki AJ, The Turbulent Boundary Layer with Suction or Injection, A. R. C. Rep., 3387: 1 70
- Rotta RJ (1970), Control of turbulent boundary layers by uniform injection and suction of fluid, *ICAS Paper* no-70-10, 1 10
- Jeromin LOF (1970), The status of Research in turbulent boundary layers with fluid injection, University of Cambridge Press
- Hutchins N and Marusic I (2007), Large scale influences in near wall turbulence, *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. A*, 365: 647-664
- Marusic I, McKeon BJ, Monkewitz PA, Nagib HM and Smits AJ, Wall-bounded turbulent flows at high Reynolds numbers: Recent advances and key issues, *Phys. Fluids*, 22, 065103:1 24
- Theodorsen T (1952), Mechanism of turbulence, in Proceedings of the Midwestern Conference on Fluid Mechanics Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
- Stroh A, Hasegawa Y, Schlatter P and Frohnapfel B (2016), Global effect of local skin friction drag reduction in spatially developing turbulent boundary layer, *Jour. Fluid Mech.*, 805: 303-321
- Kametani Y and Fukagata K (2011), Direct numerical simulation of spatially developing turbulent boundary layers with uniform blowing and suction, *Jour. Fluid Mech.*, 681: 154-172
- Smits AJ, McKeon BJ and Marusic I (2011), High Reynolds number wall turbulence, *Ann. Rev. Fluid Mech.*, 43:353-375
- Monty JP, Stewert JA, Williams RC and Chong MS, Large-scale features in turbulent pipe and channel flows, *J. Fluid Mech.*, 589: 147 – 156