

Experimental Characterization of Separated Flows – A Review

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this paper is to summarize the state of knowledge in experimental research focusing on separated flows. Owing to the breadth of this field, several specific cases have been selected as examples. Including are: (i) separated flows around blunt bodies and inclined bodies of revolution; (ii) the flow structure and turbulence associated with flow separation in turbulent boundary layers subjected to adverse pressure gradients (APG); and (iii) the flow structure around airfoils undergoing oscillatory pitching with amplitude high enough to cause dynamic stall. Samples of recently obtained velocity, vorticity, and pressure distributions of dynamic stall are also provided to demonstrate the complexity of this phenomenon, and the ability of PIV to resolve it. The discussion highlights the impact of recent advances in optical measurement techniques, including 2D-, stereo-, tomographic- and holographic-PIV on our abilities to characterize 3D flow structures in great detail. Time-resolved volumetric data can also be used for calculating the unsteady pressure field, enabling direct comparisons between flow structure and forces. Ongoing efforts to reduce the adverse effects of experimental errors using the Navier Stokes Equations are also mentioned.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Experimental studies involving separated flows span a broad range of fields, too many to summarize in a single document. Hence, Chapter 2 of the present document focuses on studies where detailed understanding of the flow structure and turbulence are critical for understanding the processes involved. Included are boundary layer separation induced by adverse pressure gradients in turbulent boundary layer, the flow around blunt bodies, and the complex flow structure around airfoils subjected to pitching oscillations high enough to cause dynamic stall. Over the last twenty five years, measurement techniques available to the research community have evolved from point sensing using, e.g. hot wire anemometry (HWA) and laser doppler velocimetry (LDV), as well as qualitative visualization methods using, e.g. smoke or oil film on surfaces, which were prevalent until the mid 1990s, to imaging-based planar and volumetric measurement techniques, that are dominant these days. The hardware and software for performing 2D and 3D Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV) measurements are now commercially available from multiple companies, and several books ¹ now provide comprehensive information about the procedures involved, from the imaging equipment, particle seeding, and data analysis procedures. Yet, implementation of PIV-based techniques requires careful preparations, e.g. image filtering in a noisy background, proper seeding, and assessment of data to determine whether it achieves the desired accuracy and resolution. For example, for three-dimensional time-resolved data, one can determine directly how well it

satisfies the equations of motion (continuity and momentum), and then develop methods to correct/interpolate it accordingly. Such techniques are subjects for ongoing research, as discussed in the conclusions.

2.0 SUMMARY OF PAST RESEARCH

2.1 3D Separated Flows Behind Blunt bodies and Inclined Bodies of Revolution

While considerable efforts have been invested in characterizing the flow and turbulence around inclined bodies of revolution, most of these experiments date back to the mid 1990s, and except for a few preliminary efforts to implement PIV (Fu et al. ²), most of the measurements involved point sensors (Meier & Kreplin ³, Chesnakas & Simpson ⁴⁻⁶, Goody et al.⁷ and Goody et al.⁸, Wetzel & Simpson ⁹ and Wetzel et al. ¹⁰), and surface flow visualizations (Han & Patel ¹¹). Recent related studies have been mostly based on various forms of numerical simulations. In contrast, there have been numerous PIV measurements around and behind blunt bodies with a broad range of geometries, from spheres (Brücker ^{12,13}), cylinders (Williamson ¹⁴, Kitzhofer et al. ¹⁵), finite length cylinders (Provansal et al. ¹⁶), etc.

In spite of the simple geometry, the flow structure behind e.g. spheres, is extremely complicated and Reynolds number dependent. The wake structure behind spheres at low Reynolds numbers has been of particular interest owing to its impact on transport of particles in the ocean and the atmosphere. Considerable fraction of what is known on this wake has been derived from numerical simulations (e.g. Johnson & Patel ¹⁷; Yun et al. ¹⁸). Until recently, experiments aimed at characterizing the vortical structure of the wake behind sphere involved qualitative flow visualizations using dye or smoke (Sakamoto & Haniu ¹⁹, Leweke *et al.* ²⁰; Chrust et al. ²¹). Prior to the availability of 3D measurement techniques, Brücker ¹² used spatio-temporal reconstructions of the 3D wake based on time-resolved 2D PIV data in a transverse plane to characterize the 3D wake structure. Subsequently, 2D PIV and 3D particle tracking velocimetry (PTV) have been used by Doh et al. ²² and Jang & Lee²³. Recent experiments involving volumetric 3D measurements using tomographic PIV were reported by Terra et al.²⁴, van Hout *et al.*²⁵, and Eshbal et al. ¹³. The latter combined snapshots of tomographic PIV measurements with time-resolved planar PIV data to reconstruct the 3-D vortex shedding cycle in the wake of the sphere. They showed that the wake consisted of both a primary vortex chain shed from the sphere, and secondary vortices generated as the sphere's separating shear layer interacted with the counter-rotating longitudinal vortices extending downstream from the sphere.

2.2 Flow Separation by Adverse Pressure Gradient in Boundary Layers

A comprehensive review of the state of knowledge on boundary layer separation 30 years ago was provided by Simpson ²⁶. Boundary layer separation could be caused either by a sharp change in surface slope, e.g. a downstream facing step (e.g. Troutt et al. ²⁷, Le et al. ²⁸), or by adverse pressure gradient (APG). The latter have been harder to characterize or model due sensitivity of the locations of separation and reattachment to small changes in pressure gradient (Simpson et al ²⁹). These studies showed that prior to separation, the turbulent boundary layer (TBL) decelerated and thickened until the separation point, where the wall shear stress vanished. The size of the separation bubble increased with the magnitude of pressure gradients (Alving & Fernholz ³⁰). Separated regions have been typically characterized by complex 3D flows even when the boundary conditions

were two dimensional, due, e.g., to effects of side walls in water/wind tunnels and diffusers (Malm et al. ³¹, Ashjaee & Johnston ³², Cherry et al. ³³, Duquesne et al. ³⁴) or end effects (tip or hub) on lifting surfaces (Moss & Murdin ³⁵, Broeren & Bragg ³⁶ and Délerly ³⁷).

In controlled experiments, the adverse pressure gradients were commonly created by installing a curved wall on the other side of the surface being investigated (Simpson et al. ³⁸, Simpson et al. ²⁹, Weiss et al. ³⁹, Mohammed-Taifour & Weiss ⁴⁰). Another approach was to install a porous cylinder and apply suction (e.g. Dianat and Castro ⁴¹) or adopt a variety of means to minimize the end effects (Thompson & Whitelaw ⁴²). Attempts to avoid 3D effects by studying axisymmetric flows (Dengel & Fernholz ⁴³) did not eliminate the circumferential nonuniformities (Délerly ³⁷). Due to the fluctuations in the location of the separation, past measurements involving point sensors encountered flow in both directions at the same place, leading to introductions of parameters, e.g. intermittency, defining the fraction of time with forward flow (Simpson *et al.* ³⁸, Simpson ⁴⁴). Other notable studies by Simpson's group attempting to develop scaling laws for the mean velocity profiles in separated flows have been Simpson ⁴⁵ and Agarwal & Simpson ⁴⁶. It should be noted that intermittent reverse flow did not necessarily implies that the flow was separated, leading to questions how to determine whether separation actually occurred. The typically accepted condition defining separation in an unsteady flow has been a zero shear stress and a local streamwise velocity equal to the bulk velocity of the separated flow domain (Sears & Telionis ⁴⁷). Several other dynamical systems-based methods to define separation have been discussed e.g. in Surana et al. ^{48,49}.

Considerable efforts have also been invested in characterizing the turbulence in separated flows. Simpson ⁴⁴ classified the distributions of Reynolds stresses in 2D (mean sense) separated flows as a three-layer system, with a viscous low Reynolds stress region near the wall, an outer layer containing large scale turbulent structures that were prevalent outside of the separated region, and an overlap layer between them. As an inflection point developed in the APG region, the elevation of maximum turbulence production moved away from the wall, and turbulence transport was directed towards the wall (Krogstad & Skåre ⁵⁰, Lee & Sung ^{51,52}). Quadrant analysis in the APG region upstream and within the separated region has also been the focus of several studies (Krogstad & Skåre ⁵⁰, Song & Eaton ⁵³, and Elyasi and Ghaemi ⁵⁴). In the inflected APG boundary layer, sweeps were dominant below the inflection point, and ejections above it.

A more recent hotwire and PIV based study involving a boundary layer with adverse pressure gradients followed by a flap (Couvrier et al. ⁵⁵) provided a comprehensive picture on the distributions and causes for turbulence production and transport. Above the mean border of the separated zone, production of streamwise velocity fluctuations, in particular streamwise contraction, was the dominant contributor in the upstream part of the separated region. Further downstream, flapping of the shear layer became more important, and affected the production rate of the Reynolds shear stress and wall-normal velocity fluctuations.

Coherent structures have also been investigated both numerically and experimentally. The mechanisms and role of low speed streaks based mostly on DNS results was summarized by Lee & Sung ⁵². The experimental data showed that large scale turbulent motions were dominated by breathing motions of the separated bubble, and shedding of spanwise vortices (Kiya & Sasaki ⁵⁶, Cherry et al. ⁵⁷, Hillier & Latour ⁵⁷, Mohammed-Taifour & Weiss ⁴⁰). Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD), which has become a popular method for analysing and

interpreting PIV data, also showed that the first and most dominant POD mode was associated breathing motion (Mohammed-Taifour & Weiss⁴⁰). The Strouhal number for this contraction and expansion of the separation was very low ($St \sim 0.01$, Weiss *et al.*³⁹), while values for the shear layer rollup and shedding were higher ($St \sim 0.35$), in agreement DNS results by Na & Moin⁵⁸. POD modes containing multiple singularities (foci and saddle points) for a plane parallel to a diffuser wall were discussed in Duquesne *et al.*³⁴. Dominance of the first POD modes has also been observed in shock-induced separation (Humble *et al.*⁵⁹), geometry-induced separation (Thacker *et al.*⁶⁰), and adverse pressure gradient induced separation (Elyasi and Ghaemi⁵⁴). The latter study involved applications of 2D and tomographic PIV to characterize the turbulence and 3D coherent structures associated with intermittent 3D separation in a predominantly 2D diffuser. Conditional sampling by matching the separation points prevented data smearing. Their Reynolds stresses peaked in the shear layer, consistent with previous studies (e.g. Song & Eaton^{53,61}). Within the separation bubble the Reynolds stresses were low, also consistent with Simpson²⁶ and Cuvier *et al.*⁵⁵. Since their APG-induced separation occurred on a flat surface (as opposed to a flap), Elyasi and Ghaemi⁵⁴ did not observe high initial streamwise velocity fluctuations, in contrast to Cuvier *et al.*⁵⁵, where the separation was sharp.

2.3 Separated Flows Behind Airfoils Undergoing Pitching Oscillations

The interest in the flow around airfoils undergoing oscillatory pitching, with and without concurrent heaving, has been driven in part by attempts to use them as a means of bio-inspired propulsion^{62,63}, and in part to investigate flutter and flow induced vibrations. Findings associated with heaving were summarized by⁶⁴. Of the large body of literature on this topic, the discussion in this paper has been restricted mostly to studies of flow structure generated by oscillatory pitching. Classical qualitative flow visualizations of the vortices in the wake of a foil pitching at small amplitudes were introduced by Koochesfahani⁶⁵. As summarized by McCroskey⁶⁶, as the oscillation amplitude increased, a phenomenon typically referred to as dynamic stall developed. On a 2D sinusoidally pitching airfoils, this phenomenon typically involved delay of the stall to higher incidence angles during an upstroke and consequently, a much higher lift and pitching moments relative to a steady flow. This process also involved formation and shedding of organized vortex structures on the suction side of the foil.

The works of Raffel *et al.*⁶⁷ and Wernert *et al.*⁶⁸ represented early efforts to use 2D PIV for characterizing the flow field on the suction side of a NACA 0012 airfoil under deep dynamic stall conditions. Instantaneous snapshots of data were used for observing the characteristic four phases of the stall process, namely attached flow, development of the dynamic stall vortex, post-stall vortex shedding, and reattachment of the boundary layer. During an upstroke, a stall vortex formed near the leading edge of the foil (will be referred to as LEV), grew to a large fraction of the suction side, and then migrated downstream. At maximum incidence, the large vortex was shed, and replaced by a series of co-rotating vortices originating from the leading edge along the shear layer defining the upper edge of the separated region. Concurrently, the backflow in the aft part of the foil entrained opposite-sign vorticity originating from pressure side from the near wake of the foil. The latter will be referred to as trailing edge vortex (TEV). During down stroke the enclosed circulating vortex/region reformed but its strength was smaller, and it migrated faster than that forming during the upstroke. Both trends were consistent with prior observations⁶⁹, which also showed that this vortex caused a considerable increase in lift. At low incidences this vortex started migrating downstream and the forward part of the suction side flow reattached to the surface of the foil. In a follow-up paper, Wernert *et al.*⁶⁸ compared their findings to results of numerical

predictions showing reasonable agreement. Related considerations associated with phase averaging of highly unsteady data were discussed by Wernert and Favier⁷⁰. Samples of dynamic stall obtained recently in our laboratory are presented in the next chapter.

A more recent PIV-based study involving combined plunging and pitching for a range of frequencies, amplitudes, and Reynolds numbers was performed by Fenercioglu and Cetiner⁷¹. They showed that the primary flow features, which were dominated by leading and trailing edge-generated vortices, was weakly dependent on the Reynolds number, but varied substantially with the Strouhal number. Another recent combined numerical-experimental study of a pitching foil was performed by Gharali and Johnson⁷². In addition to using a control volume analysis to estimate the lift and drag forces, they also utilized the phase-averaged PIV data to calculate the pressure distribution by integrating the Reynolds Equations assuming, a 2D flow, and Bernoulli's Equation for boundary conditions. The phase averaged data showed the formation of the LEV and TEV, and that both contributed to the lift force. The number of LEVs increased but the strength of each vortex decreased with reduced frequency, $k = \pi fc/U$, where f is the oscillation frequency, c is the chord-length, and U the freestream velocity. Increasing k also affected the phase delay between the angle of dynamic stall and that corresponding to maximum LEV circulation. Mackowski and Williamson⁷³ measured the thrust and efficiency as well as the vorticity distributions behind an airfoil undergoing oscillatory pitching. They also measured the unsteady forces on the foil and compared them to classical linear theories. Interestingly, while the linear theories overpredicted the thrust, the amplitude and phase of the unsteady component were predicted accurately. Hence, the authors concluded that the thrust force generated by the pitching foil was insensitive to the vortical structure in its wake.

3.0 SAMPLES OF RECENT DATA OF DYNAMIC STALL

This section provides samples of velocity, vorticity and pressure distributions around an oscillating NACA 0012 foil, which were recorded recently in our laboratory, highlighting some of the above-mentioned processes associated with dynamic stall. The experiments have been performed in a refractive index-matched water tunnel, where the refractive index of the fluid, a concentrated aqueous solution of sodium iodide is matched with that of the acrylic foil. This setup has enabled detailed observations in multiple systems, from turbomachines (e.g. Chen et al.⁷⁴) to rough wall boundary layers (Hong et al.^{75,76}), etc. The foil chordlength is 50 mm, its span is 189 mm, the free stream velocity is 1.03 m/s, the Reynolds number is 4.5×10^4 , the frequency is 2.77 Hz, resulting in a reduced frequency of 0.411, and the incidence angle varies between 5 to 20 degrees. The data has been recorded using stereo-PIV. The time-resolved 2048x2048 pixel images have been acquired at 1250 Hz, resulting in 463 realizations per cycle. In all cases, the vectors are diluted by for clarity. Owing to the refractive index matching, the measurements are performed on both sides of the foil simultaneously. Consistent with previous findings, the results show the delayed stall during the upstroke (Figure 1a), the formation and growth of an LEV near the maximum angle (Figures 1a & b), the substantially larger separated region during early phases of the downstroke (Figure 1c), the downstream migration of the vortex but its massive presence close to and at the end of the downstroke (Figures 1d and e), and the attachment of the flow to the leading edge during early phase of upstroke (Figure 1f)

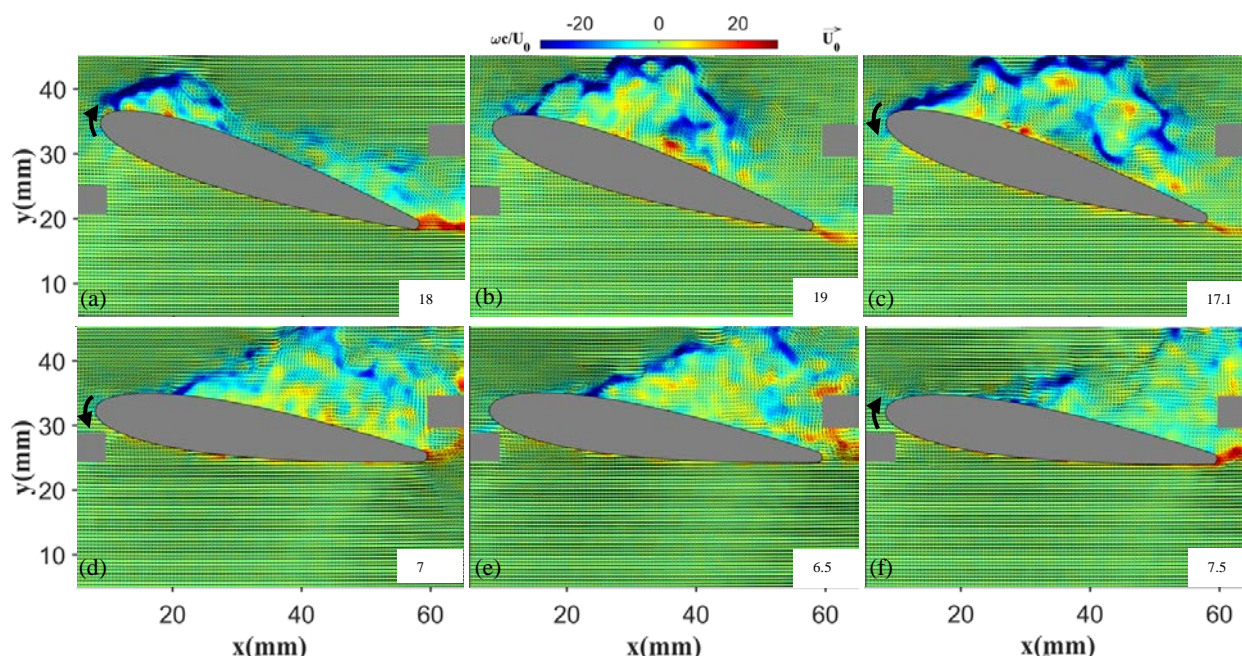


Figure 1: Sample instantaneous vorticity (color contours) and velocity (vectors) distributions around an oscillating airfoil showing the evolution of dynamic stall. The arrows near the leading edge show the direction of motion, and the inserts show the incidence angles in degrees. Vectors are diluted by 2:1 for clarity.

Assuming a predominantly 2D flow, the time-resolved data can be used for calculating the pressure distribution by integrating the material acceleration of the fluid. Details about the procedures for performing omni-directional integration, which is aimed at reducing the effect of experimental errors in acceleration, are provided in Liu and Katz^{77,78} for 2D flows, and in Wang et al.⁷⁹ and Zhang et al.⁸⁰ for 3D flows. The latter parallel-line, omni-directional integration is performed using GPUs to accelerate the data processing rate. This procedure also includes means to evaluate the data quality based on the local magnitude of the curl of the pressure gradient (should be zero) and reduce the weight of specific integration paths with errors exceeding acceptable thresholds. The calculated pressure distribution corresponding to the data in Figure 1 is presented in Figure 2. Other recently introduced methods for instantaneous pressure calculations, which are based on solving the Pressure-Poisson Equation, are discussed and summarized by Van Oudheusden⁸¹, and a comparative discussion about uncertainty is provided in Wang et al.⁷⁹ A recent effort to compare the performance of a series of different pressure measurement techniques is discussed van Gent et al.⁸².

A direct comparison between Figures 1 and 2 show the impact of the growth and development of the vortices on the suction side on the load distribution, hence the aerodynamic pitching moment on the foil. In Figure 2a, the pressure minimum is located near the leading edge of the foil, but in Figure 2b, as the LEV grows and migrates, there are multiple pressure minima, with the largest one located in the aft part of the foil. The minimum near the

leading edge disappears as the downstroke begins and the vortex migrates to the aft part of the passage (Figure 2c). At the end of the downstroke, in Figure 2D, the pressure differences across the foil are small, and there is even a mild pressure minimum near the trailing edge of the pressure side, where the boundary layer thickens. In Figure 2e, there is a pressure minimum far from the surface, corresponding to a local presence of a large (counter-rotating) vortex. This intermittent structure does not persist once data are phase averaged. Finally, as the upstroke begins (Figure 2e), a near surface pressure minimum appears at the leading edge of the remnants of the separated region. This sequence, which provides samples from an on-going study, demonstrates the advantage in being able to characterize the causes, i.e. flow structure, and effects (pressure) as the flow around the oscillating foil evolves.

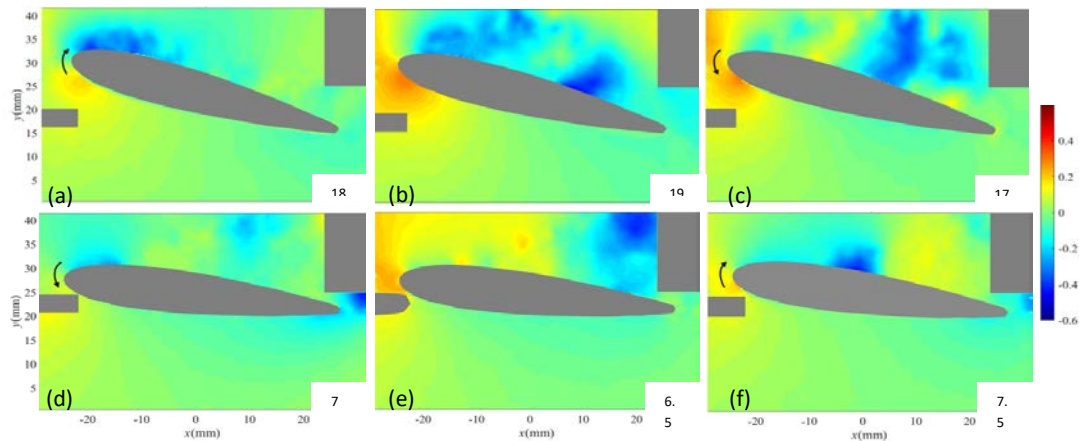


Figure 2: Instantaneous pressure (color contours) and velocity (vectors) distributions corresponding to the data presented in Figure 1.

4.0 CONCLUSIONS

The paper summarizes the state of knowledge in experimental research of separated flows around blunt bodies, in adverse pressure gradient turbulent boundary layers, and on airfoils undergoing oscillatory pitching with amplitude high enough to cause dynamic stall. Samples of recent velocity, vorticity, and pressure distributions of dynamic stall, which has been recorded recently in our laboratory, are also provided to demonstrate the complexity of this phenomenon. The discussions highlight the impact of recent advances in optical measurement techniques on our ability to characterize complex 3D flow structures in great detail. Before concluding this paper, one should mention that the development of advanced measurement techniques is an on-going process. Among the recently introduced procedures, notable ones that promise to have a great impact on characterization of separated flows are e.g.: (i) the introduction of the so-called “shake the box” Lagrangian particle tracking method for processing tomographic PIV images by Schanz et al.⁸³; (ii) interpolation of tomographic PIV data by integrating solutions to the vorticity transport equation with the experimental data⁸⁴, and (iii) introduction of holographic tomography for measuring the 3D separated flow

around roughness elements embedded in the inner part of rough wall boundary layers at a micron resolution⁸⁵.

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