

Chapter 1

The Flat Plate at Shallow Incidence

1.1 Introduction

This chapter investigates ability of turbulence models to reproduce the flow over flat plates at shallow angles of incidence. This case poses significant relevance to sail flows due to the formation of a separation bubble at the leading edge of the type that regularly appears in sail flows. Such bubbles are always present for downwind sails and are common for genoas with thin headfoils. This type of leading edge bubble may also be present for various thin airfoils such as those often used for turbine blades. Validation will be carried out through comparison to wind tunnel results compiled by Crompton [1] and particular attention will be paid to the structure of the leading edge bubble and the recovery of the turbulent boundary layer after reattachment.

1.1.1 Flow structure

The general structure of the flow past a flat plate at incidence is illustrated in Figure 1.1. At zero incidence the forward stagnation point rests on the tip of the leading edge, the plate divides the flow cleanly and laminar boundary layers develop immediately on either side of the plate. As the angle of attack is increased the stagnation point moves to the pressure side of the plate and fluid is forced back around the leading edge due to the pressure difference that exists across the tip. If the leading edge is sharp then the flow is forced to detach at the leading edge. Immediately after separation a shear layer forms that rapidly undergoes transition into a turbulent shear layer provided the Reynolds number is not unrealistically small (for creeping flows the flow may not separate). This shear layer curves back towards the plate due to its high entrainment rate (causing the layer to thicken) and suction on the upper surface near the leading edge. For shallow angles of incidence (typically $< 7^\circ$) the shear layer reattaches some distance, X_R , downstream of the leading edge. At the reattachment point the shear layer bifurcates and a portion of the flow is directed upstream to form the recirculation region. The remainder (which is the majority) of the fluid in the shear layer progresses downstream and gradually develops into a turbulent boundary layer. This region downstream of the reattachment point is known as the recovery region where the boundary layer attempts to recover to a state of turbulent equilibrium. This region is of particular significance to sail flows since the structure of the boundary layer during recovery dictates not only the local pressure coefficient but also the size and structure of any trailing edge separation regions that may form downstream. Consequently the nature of the boundary layer after reattachment can have

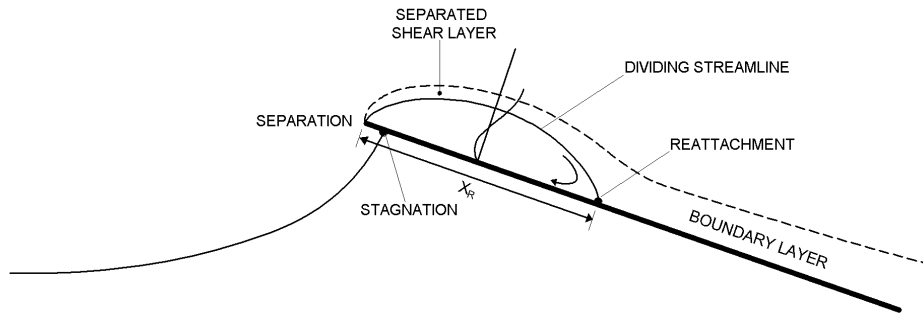


Figure 1.1: Schematic of the flow past a flat plate at shallow incidence.

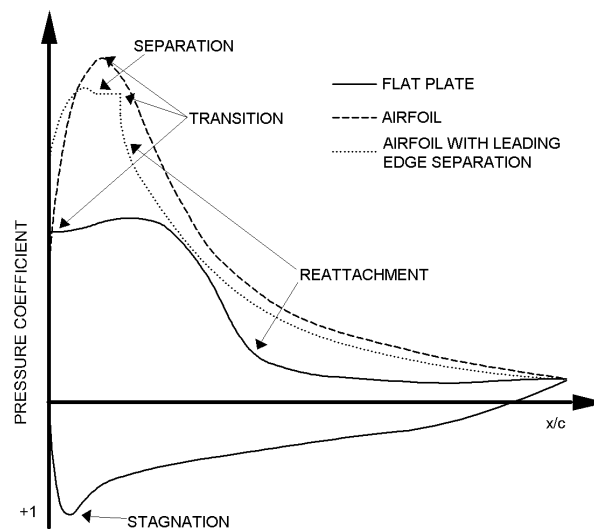


Figure 1.2: Typical pressure coefficient plots.

a significant impact on the lift coefficient.

A typical pressure coefficient distribution for a flat plate at shallow incidence is illustrated in Figure 1.2. Also presented are typical pressure coefficient plots for a generic airfoil and an airfoil with a leading edge separation bubble. The flat plate experiences a significantly smaller suction peak at the leading edge compared with the airfoils due to its inability to sustain any attached flow in this region. Reattachment occurs approximately at the conclusion of the adverse pressure gradient that exists over the aft half of the bubble.

1.1.2 The thin airfoil bubble

The separation bubble that forms due to the inability of the boundary layer to remain attached around the sharp leading edge is known as the "thin airfoil bubble". The shear layer that develops in the thin airfoil bubble is immediately unstable and turbulent transition occurs rapidly after separation at the leading edge. Crompton [1] reported that in all cases transition occurred upstream of $x/c = 0.025$ and that intermittency was observed well upstream of this point. Consequently it is hypothesised that eddy

viscosity models (which effectively predict instantaneous transition to turbulence) can be applied much more suitably to the thin airfoil bubble than to flows that involve regions of laminar flow.

Newman and Tse [2] found that above a Reynolds number of 2.5×10^5 the reattachment length was insensitive to changes in Reynolds number. Crompton [1] found Reynolds number insensitivity of the reattachment length above a Reynolds number of approximately 10^5 . This limit increased slightly as the incidence reduced due to greater viscous effects in the shallower separation bubbles. The reattachment length is primarily dependent on the rate of turbulent entrainment in the shear layer. At low Reynolds numbers as the Reynolds number is increased so does the entrainment rate and hence the reattachment length shortens. As the Reynolds number is increased further the maximum entrainment rate is reached as shear layer enters a state of turbulent equilibrium. At this point the reattachment length begins to lengthen again due to a reduction of shear layer thickness associated with increasing Reynolds number (due to lower diffusive effects resulting in lower shear layer spreading rates). At approximately 10^5 this thickness reduction becomes negligible and the shear layer profile (and hence also the reattachment length) becomes independent of Reynolds number.

Crompton's results also show that between a Reynolds number of 0.53×10^5 and 2.13×10^5 the transition point is independent of Reynolds number and fixed at approximately $2 \pm 2.5\%$. This implies that the mechanism initiating transition is not driven by the freestream flow (since this is significantly dependent on Reynolds number) but instead transition occurs very close to the leading edge due to a process called shear layer flapping [3] where alternate vortices are shed from the origin of the shear layer. Crompton [1] detected low frequency unsteadiness at too large a scale to be associated with the large eddies and concluded that vortical structures, of the type associated with shear layer flapping, must be present.

Since the reattachment process is always a turbulent one, the downstream recovery of the turbulent boundary layer can be expected to be only weakly dependent of Reynolds number. However the within the separation bubble Reynolds number dependence can be expected. As the shear layer bends towards the surface the normal velocity fluctuations are damped by the impending wall. Also as the shear layer bifurcates at the reattachment point the large eddies are split into pairs of smaller eddies. These two effects contribute to a drop in turbulent shear stress around the reattachment point. The reversing fluid is subject to a strong favourable pressure gradient and subsequently it accelerates and reaches a maximum velocity of approximately $0.4U_1$ at approximately half way along the length of the bubble. This favourable pressure gradient also has a stabilising effect on the reverse flow boundary layer and a significant drop in turbulence intensity was recorded over this region [1]. Corresponding to this drop in turbulence intensity the velocity gradients near the surface reduce and become more laminar-like, the favourable pressure gradient is initiating relaminarisation. Near the front of the separation bubble the pressure gradient is adverse to the reversing flow and the laminar-like boundary layer is prone to separate. Consequently a small secondary separation bubble develops near the leading edge. The length of this separation bubble varies with both angle of incidence and Reynolds number. The Reynolds number dependence is caused by the relaminarisation process in the reversed flow boundary layer which itself is dependent on the local velocity and hence also the freestream Reynolds number.

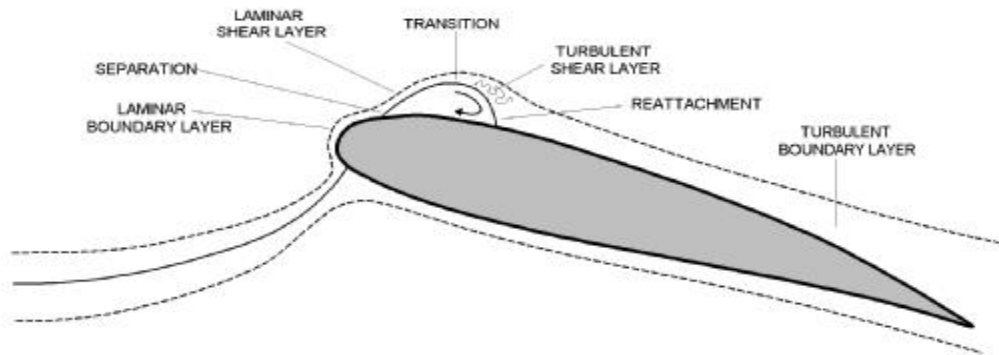


Figure 1.3: The short airfoil bubble (not to scale).

1.1.3 The short bubble

Airfoils with rounded leading edges may also exhibit separation near the leading edge (as in the airfoil case in Figure 1.2). These bubbles form due to separation of the laminar boundary layer at the onset of an adverse pressure gradient near the leading edge. Such bubbles are referred to as “short bubbles” and have been reported to have distinctly different characteristics to separation bubbles of the type illustrated in Figure 1.1 [4]. A typical short bubble is illustrated in Figure 1.3. As illustrated, transition typically occurs at the onset of the adverse pressure gradient over the rear portion of the bubble. Consequently a laminar shear layer develops that can extend across up to 60% of the bubble length. After transition the shear layer thickens rapidly and curves back towards the airfoil surface where it reattaches.

Flows involving the short separation bubble pose several difficulties for turbulence models. The boundary layer that exists between the forward stagnation point and the separation bubble is laminar and generally turbulence models predict early transition to turbulent flow in this region. As an example, for flat plate boundary layers under zero pressure gradient, turbulence models will predict transition to occur at a Reynolds number that is at least an order of magnitude lower than in reality [5]. Consequently for airfoil simulations involving short separation bubbles the calculated boundary layer is likely to be turbulent upstream of the separation point. Consequently the solution will exhibit an unrealistic increase in skin friction due to the high shear of turbulent boundary layers compared with laminar ones. More troublesome is the fact that a turbulent boundary layer has much steeper velocity gradients near the surface and is hence more resistant to flow separation than a laminar layer. Therefore the short bubble is likely to be delayed, if not omitted entirely, in CFD simulations. Should the boundary layer in the CFD simulation remain laminar up until separation it is likely that transition will occur in the shear layer almost immediately after detachment, upstream of the desired location. Consequently the shear layer will grow much faster which will cause the shear layer to reattach much earlier than in reality where the shear layer is laminar over the forward section of the bubble. Transition models, such as the transition version of the $k-\epsilon$ model designed by Wilcox [6], have had moderate success at predicting the correct transition location for some simple flows. Transition models typically use different model coefficients for the turbulent transport equations in the three separate regions of the flow; the laminar region, transition region and the turbulent region. Tuning such a model is a difficult task and the position where transition occurs can be quite unpredictable between different flows due to the influence of the

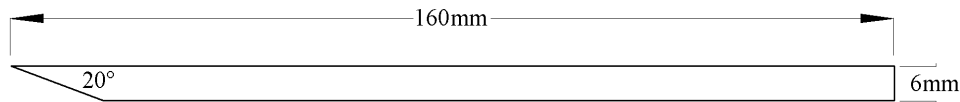


Figure 1.4: Flat plate dimensions.

local pressure gradient. In the case of the short bubble, transition actually occurs within the shear layer which poses additional difficulties to tuning the model since the coefficients are usually calibrated using boundary layer flows. It is also likely that within short separation bubbles some degree of relaminarisation (reverse transition) will occur because the reversed flow is driven by a favourable pressure gradient. This relaminarisation process is another phenomenon that most turbulence models struggle to predict correctly.

1.1.4 Experimental data

Of the experimental results concerned with the flat plate at shallow incidence the thesis by Crompton (2001), "The Thin Aerofoil Leading Edge Bubble" [1], is the most detailed. Through the use of Laser Doppler Anemometry (LDA) insight into the structure of the leading bubble was provided. Detailed LDA measurements were also taken of the developing turbulent boundary layer in the recovery region. As well as LDA measurements, surface pressures were recorded through static pressure tapings and flow visualization was used to determine the reattachment lengths, X_R , of the separation bubbles.

The wind tunnel model used in the experiments has a chord length of 160mm and a span of 800mm giving an aspect ratio of 5 which was sufficient to provide nominally two-dimensional flow. In order to provide enough stiffness to minimise deflection and to facilitate the pressure tapings, the plate was constructed out of 6mm steel plate, giving a thickness to chord ratio of 3.75%. The leading edge of the plate was chamfered at 20 degrees in order to provide a sharp leading edge. The geometry of the leading edge can have significant influence on the separated shear layer. Ideally for a sharp leading edge the flow will separate at any departure from zero incidence. However in reality there must be some roundedness to the leading edge which allows the boundary layer to remain attached through small departures from zero incidence.

The experiments were carried out over a range of Reynolds numbers in order to investigate the influence of Reynolds number. The primary investigation was at a Reynolds number of 2.13×10^5 , it is at this Reynolds number that comparison between the experiments and CFD have been made.

The experimental data is provided for angles of attack, $\alpha = 1$ to 5, in 1 degree intervals. At $\alpha = 1$ the leading edge bubble is small and similar in length to chord ratio to leading edge bubbles experienced in downwind sail flows. At 5 degrees the flow is separated for the majority of the length of the plate and at 7 degrees the shear layer fails to reattach.

1.1.5 The CFX model

Crompton's flat plate was modelled with thickness using the geometry described in Figure 1.4. The thickness and asymmetry of the plate influences the flow to a degree where it is necessary to use the true geometry, rather than an infinitely thin plate for which grid generation would be simpler. The asymmetry of the plate creates a lift force even at zero degrees of incidence and which causes the flow

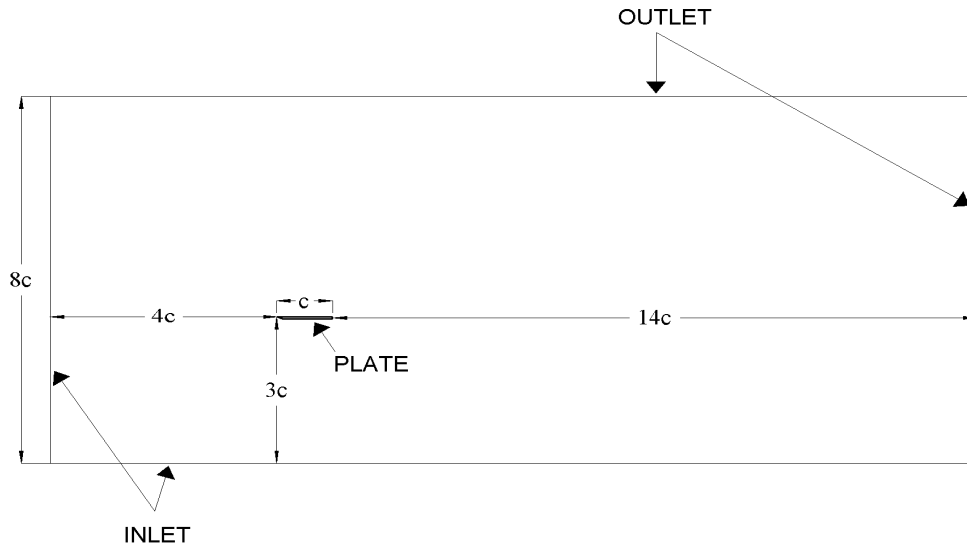


Figure 1.5: Details of the domain for the flat plate.

to curve upwards (in the direction of the lift axis) near the leading edge of the plate and consequently a small leading edge separation bubble forms at zero degrees. The so-called 'ideal' angle of incidence, where laminar boundary layers are able to develop on both surfaces without leading edge separation, is likely to occur at a small negative angle.

The domain dimensions are illustrated in Figure 1.5. At the inlet cartesian velocity components are specified according to the angle of incidence. Freestream turbulence intensity is set at 0.05% which was the maximum value measured in the tunnel while the experiments were carried out [1]. At the outlet a zero static pressure gradient boundary condition was imposed.

The grids were generated in ICEM-HEXA. Three levels of refinement were used and the grids are referred to as coarse, medium and fine with 11920;49625 and 202435 cells respectively. A grid convergence study is presented in Section 1.2.1. At each refinement level the number of nodes along every block boundary was doubled. The medium grid is illustrated in Figure 6. In order to achieve a y^+ of approximately 1.0 the near wall spacing was set at $6.25 \times 10^{-5}c$. Particular care was taken to provide high quality cells around the leading edge and at the tip the cells have an aspect ratio of 1 : 1, the tip region is illustrated in the close-up view in Figure 1.6. Further down the chord very high aspect ratio cells are used in order to resolve the large flow gradients normal to the wall and at the trailing edge the aspect ratio reduces to 1:10.

1.2 Results

The primary purpose of the validation study is to obtain an understanding of the ability of turbulence models to reproduce the leading edge separation bubbles of the type experienced in sail flows. It is hoped that through this study it will be possible to determine what influence the leading edge bubble has on the accuracy of sail simulations.

At 1 degree of incidence the leading edge bubble is of similar length to chord ratio to typical downwind

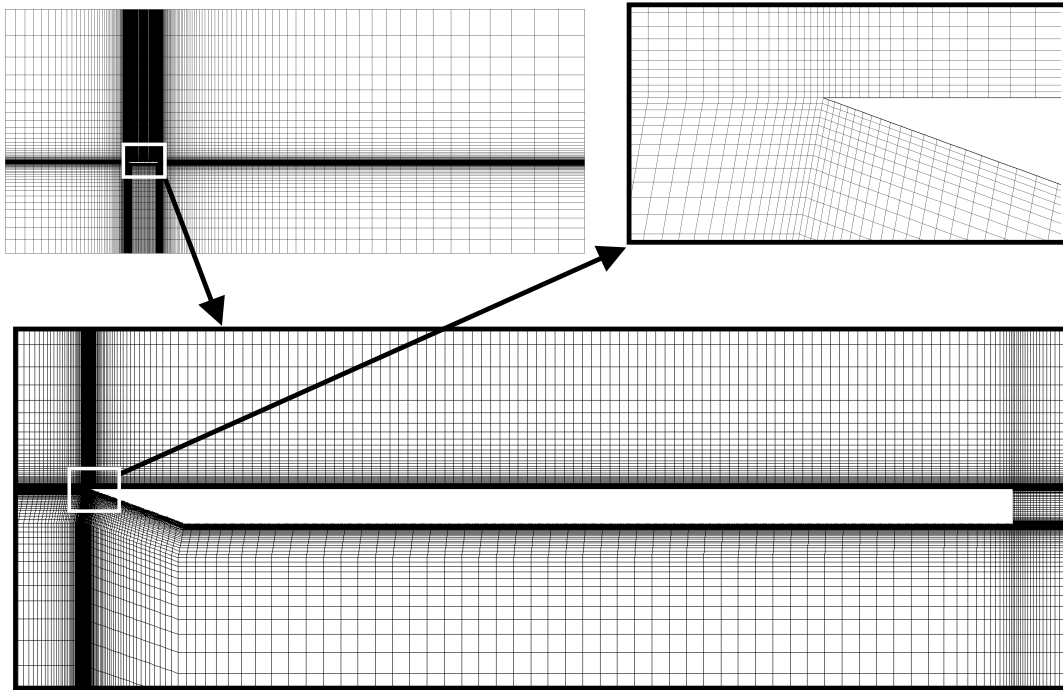


Figure 1.6: Computational grid for the flat plate (medium resolution).

sail flows and the pressure distribution was more comparable to sail flows than the other cases. Therefore, for the purpose of relevance, the validation study focuses on the case at 1 degree of incidence. At this angle the leading edge separation bubble stretches across the first 14% of the chord length (i.e. $X_{R=c} = 0.14$). Since the bubble is quite small fewer velocity measurements were taken within the bubble than the cases at higher angles. Consequently it was decided to also investigate the case of $\alpha = 3$ in order to gain a better understanding of the flow within the separation bubble. At this higher angle of incidence the reattachment length, $X_{R=c} = 0.47$, i.e. the flow is separated over almost half of the plate.

1.2.1 Grid convergence study

The grid convergence study was performed solely at $\alpha = 3$ and only with the SST turbulence model. Since $\alpha = 3$ involves a larger separated region than $\alpha = 1$ it is likely to be more prone to grid dependency. Therefore provided the grid independence is achieved for $\alpha = 3$, the same grid should be suitable for the $\alpha = 1$ case. Lift and drag coefficients are presented in Figure 1.7 for the sequence of grids. The force coefficients are plotted against $1/N[m]$ which is a measure of the grid spacing where N^2 is the total number of cells in the grid.

As the grid is refined there is a clear convergence of the lift and drag coefficients. The lift from the medium grid solution is within 0.015% of the fine grid solution and drag is within 0.0055%, this indicates that the solutions are independent of the grid and subsequent refinement is unlikely to result in any increased accuracy of the solution. Since forces are integrated properties there is a possibility that the grid convergence illustrated in Figure 1.7 could have occurred fortuitously. To confirm that this is not the case the surface pressure distributions for the three grids are presented in Figure 1.8. Note that the spike in the pressure coefficient on the pressure side of the plate is caused by the shoulder at the end of

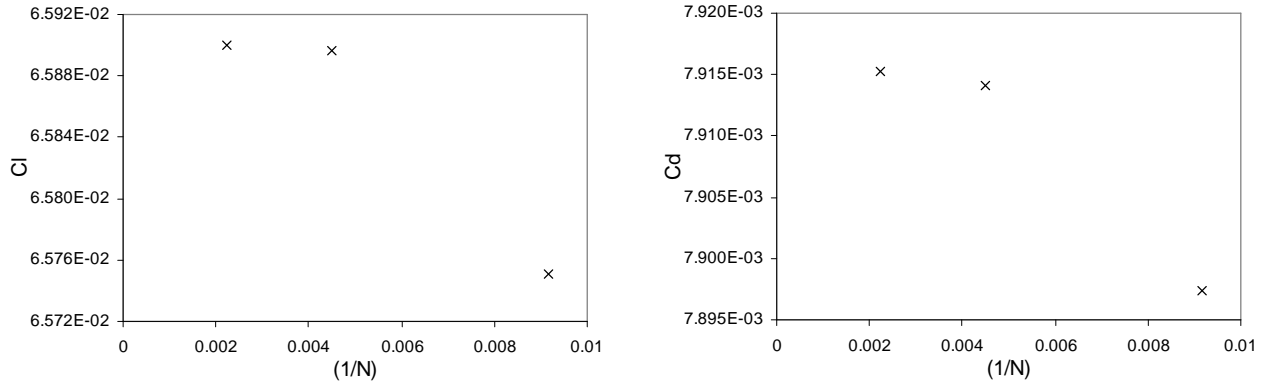


Figure 1.7: Grid convergence of the lift and drag coefficients.

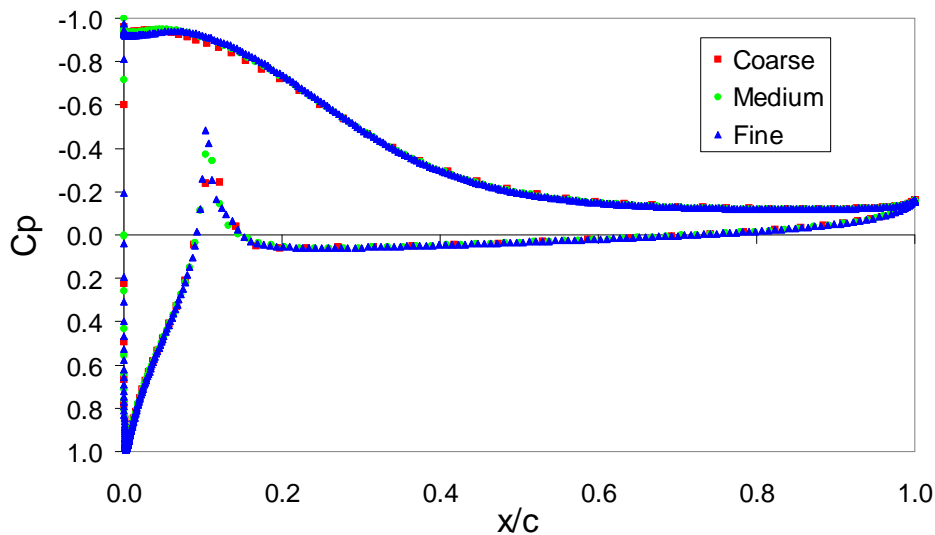


Figure 1.8: Grid convergence of the surface pressure coefficients ($Re = 3$).

the chamfer.

The C_p curves for the medium and fine grid lie almost directly upon one another, the fine grid solution has slightly less suction at the leading edge, however this effect is minimal. Since the fine grid and medium grid solutions are virtually identical the medium grid was chosen as the most suitable grid, and has been used for all subsequent simulations.

1.2.2 Comparison at $Re = 1$

Boundary layer profiles in the leading edge bubble

Boundary layer velocity profiles were measured by Crompton at 9 different chordwise locations along the plate using LDA. The measurement stations are located at $x/c = [0.031; 0.125; 0.25; 0.375; 0.5; 0.625; 0.75; 0.875]$. As can be seen in Table 1.1 the reattachment lengths, X_R , computed using the SST and $k-\epsilon$ models differ from the value determined by Crompton. The SST model overpredicts X_R by 5.8% and the $k-\epsilon$ model overpredicts X_R by 24.0%.

	X_R
Crompton	0.14
SST	0.1486
k_i	0.1841

Table 1.1: Reattachment lengths for the fat plate at $\alpha = 1$:

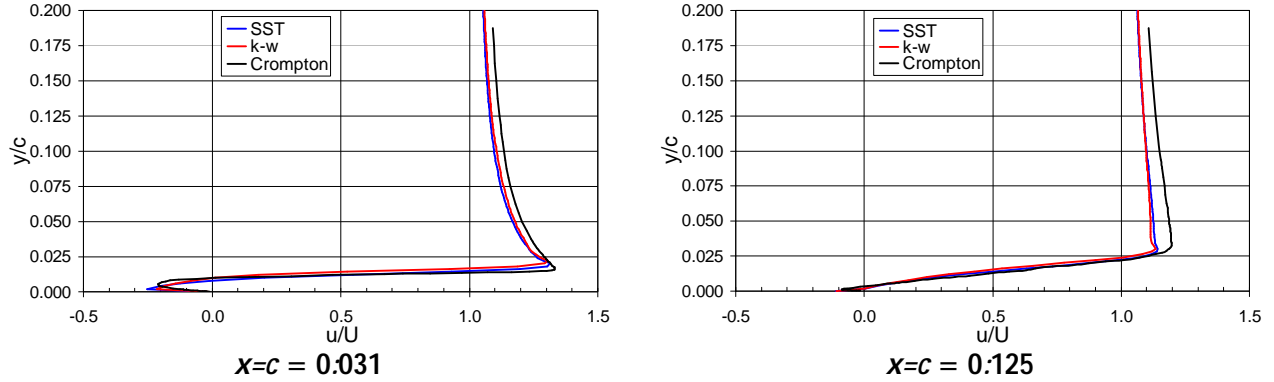


Figure 1.9: Chordwise velocity profiles within the leading edge bubble ($\alpha = 1$):

In order to make better comparison of the boundary layer profiles the measurement stations are scaled by X_R so that for each model the station is in the same position relative to the reattachment point. For $\alpha = 1$ only the first two measurements stations are within the leading edge bubble, these profiles are illustrated in Figure 1.9.

The portion of the fluid that is forced upstream at the reattachment point to form the recirculation region is accelerated by the favourable pressure gradient and forms a reversed boundary layer. Crompton reported a maximum reversed velocity of $0.4U_1$; whereas the CFD results predict much slower velocities with the SST model at $0.290U_1$ and the k_i model at $0.284U_1$. The reversed flow velocities are much larger than usually experienced within separation bubbles, for example within short airfoil bubbles the reversed flow is typically below $0.2U_1$ [1]. The reason for the high velocities in the fat plate case is the high entrainment rate in the shear layer which in turn provides energy to the reversed flow through momentum balance. The CFD results predict a lower peak in the turbulent kinetic energy in the shear layer which is analogous to a lower entrainment rate. This is discussed further in Section 1.2.3 where the kinetic energy profiles within the separation bubble are presented.

Boundary layer profiles within the separation bubble are presented in greater detail in Figure 1.10. The reversed boundary layer is driven by a strong favourable pressure gradient which provides some degree of stabilisation and the shape of the boundary layer profiles in the experimental results indicate that relaminarisation is occurring. This effect is illustrated in Figure 1.10, where the experimental results have very "laminar-like" profiles. In comparison, the CFD results cannot emulate the relaminarisation process and consequently predict much steeper near-wall velocity gradients.

One of the direct consequences of the more turbulent-like boundary layer profiles predicted by the CFD results is their resistance to separation. In the CFD results the reversed boundary layer remains attached all the way to the leading edge and there is no secondary separation of the type reported by

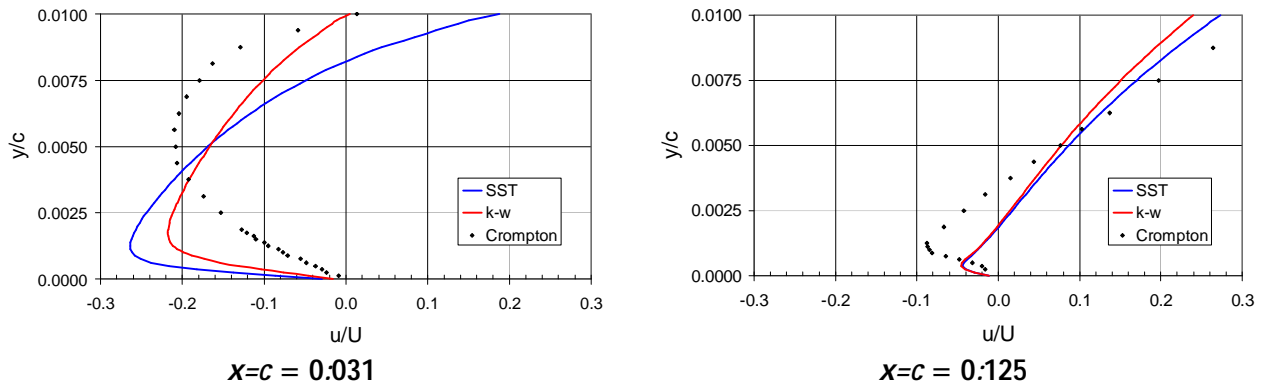


Figure 1.10: Near-wall chordwise velocity profiles within the leading edge bubble ($\alpha = 1$):

Crompton. Crompton suggests that the form of this bubble has significant influence on the development of the shear layer near the leading edge and consequently its influence is likely to spread well downstream [1].

Boundary layer profiles downstream of reattachment

A comparison of the boundary layer profiles downstream of the reattachment point is presented in Figure 1.11. In general the CFD results compare well with the boundary layer profiles measured by Crompton. From Figure 1.11 it is evident that the wind tunnel results give slightly fuller boundary layer results than the CFD however this effect is difficult to quantify and it is hard to assess the structure of the different boundary layers.

In Figure 1.12 the boundary layer profiles at $x/c = 0.25$ and 0.875 are presented using a log scale for the boundary layer height. Also plotted is a typical turbulent boundary layer at zero pressure gradient (ZPG) [7] as well as the log law of the wall (reference equation in introduction) and the viscous sublayer profile (reference equation in introduction). The profiles in Figure 1.12 illustrate the recovery of the boundary layer. At $x/c = 0.25$ the experimental and CFD results have boundary layer profiles that lie underneath both the log-law of the wall and the ZPG profile, i.e. the velocities in the sublayer and log-law regions are slower than would be expected for a typical turbulent boundary layer. This effect is partially due to the slight adverse pressure gradient that the boundary layer must work against. However the low velocities in the log-law region must also be attributed to the reattachment process and in both the experimental and CFD results the boundary layer is in a recovery phase. At the reattachment point the normal u -velocity gradient ($\partial u / \partial y$) is zero at the wall (zero shear) and consequently the near wall does not have the characteristic sharp increase of velocity known as the sublayer region. This near-wall behaviour influences the entire velocity profile and at reattachment velocity profiles have a more linear profile with significantly lower velocities than for a typical turbulent boundary layer. A boundary layer profile soon after reattachment is presented in Figure 1.13, the profile is approximately linear over the lower 75% of the boundary layer height (\pm). This profile is for the $\alpha = 3$ case at $x/c = 0.5$ which was the only angle of attack where a measurement station was positioned soon after reattachment.

Also evident in the log profiles of Figure 1.12 is that the near-wall velocities are much slower compared with typical turbulent boundary layer profiles. This is a lag effect from the reattachment process. As the boundary layer develops downstream it is the outer region that forms first and drives the development

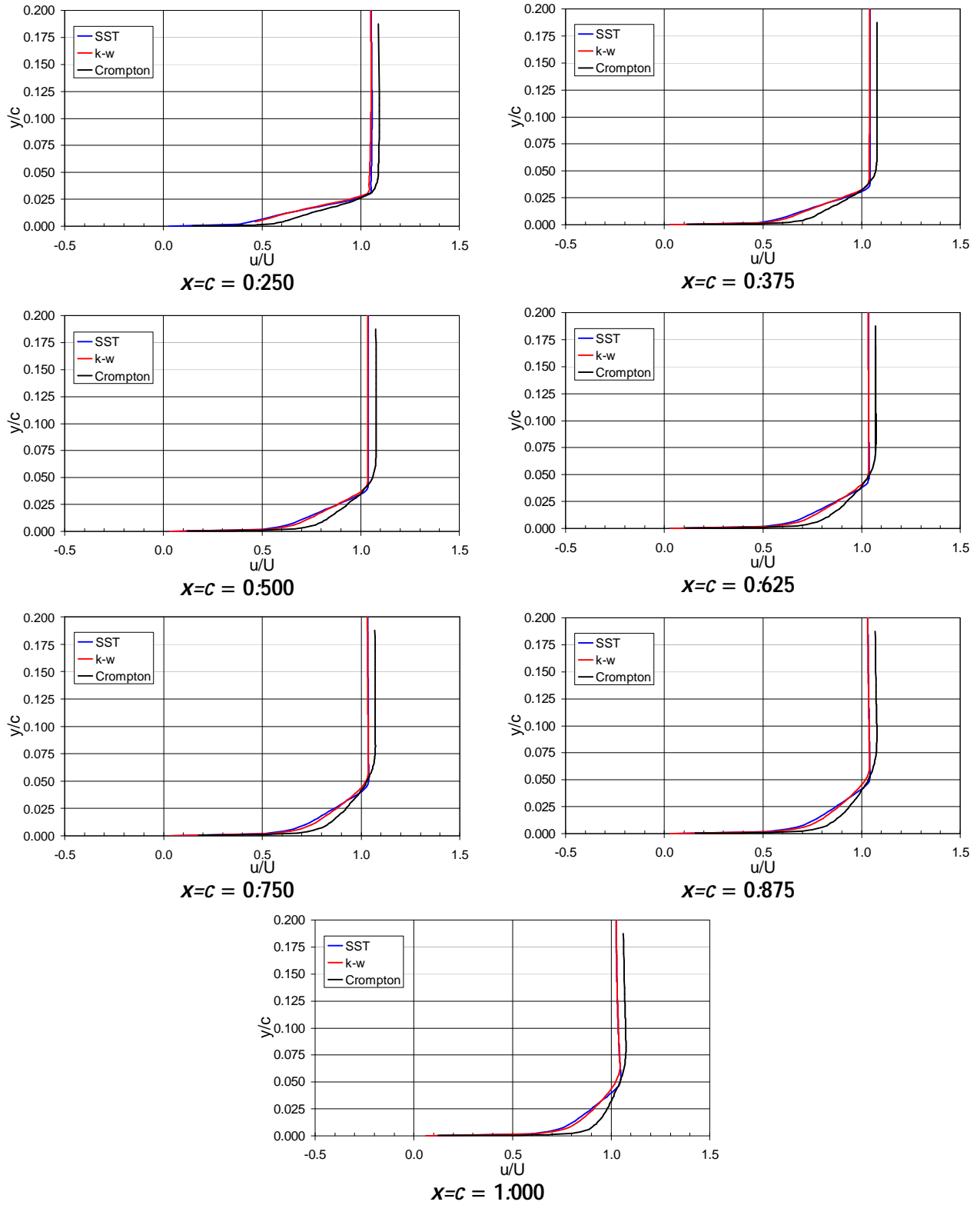


Figure 1.11: Chordwise velocity profiles downstream of reattachment ($\mathcal{R} = 1$):

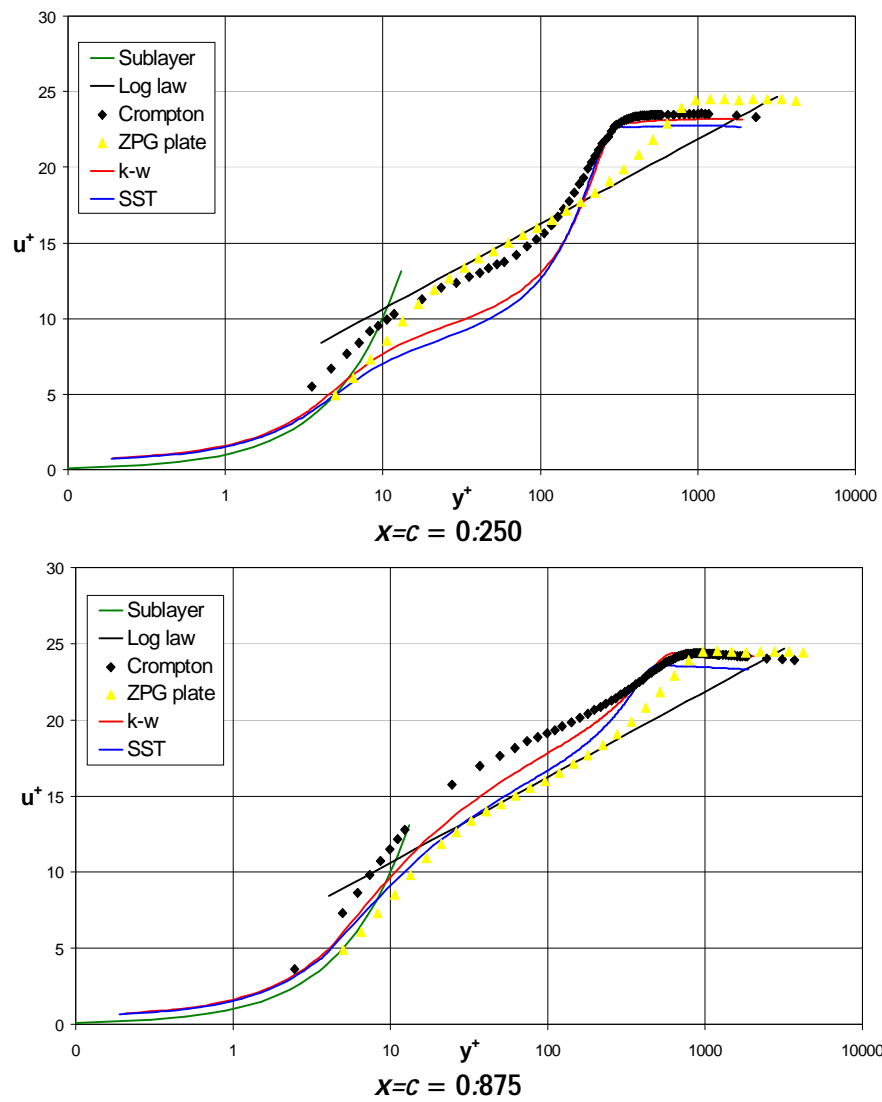


Figure 1.12: Chordwise velocity profiles downstream of reattachment (log scale, $Re = 1$):

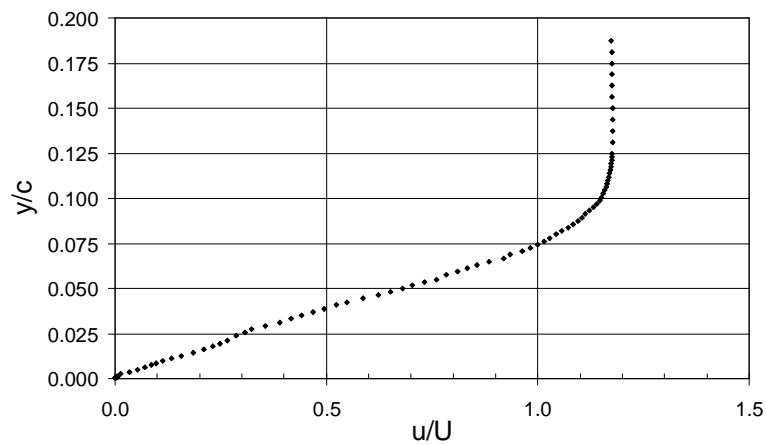


Figure 1.13: Boundary layer profile just after reattachment (Crompton) at $Re = 3$ and $x=c = 0.5$:

of the inner structure through the inwards entrainment of momentum. Unfortunately the experimental results do not have enough resolution to extend down throughout the viscous sublayer. However from the data that is available it appears that the sublayer in the experiments is has lower velocities than the CFD results. The CFD results overpredict the velocity magnitude near the wall and produce sublayer profiles more typical of equilibrium boundary layer flows. In the development of these turbulence models the model constants were calibrated to predict the correct asymptotic behaviour of both the flow variables for simple homogenous boundary layers. Consequently when applied to flows such as this, where the boundary layer structure is quite different to simple boundary layer flows, they struggle to predict the correct near-wall behaviour.

Looking again at the results for $x/c = 0.25$ (Figure 1.12) the profiles predicted by the CFD also have lower velocities through the log-law region than the experimental results. This is a combination of the lower velocities that CFD predicts around reattachment and also because the CFD experiences slower recovery after reattachment.

At $x/c = 0.875$ there is a slightly favourable pressure gradient and as expected the experimental results show an accelerated boundary layer (greater velocities than in the ZPG profile). It appears that through the log-region the boundary layer has recovered and is showing the typical response to the favourable pressure gradient. Within the viscous sublayer the velocities are still much lower than in the ZPG profile. In the log-law region the CFD results show slightly sluggish boundary layers despite the favourable pressure gradient, this would indicate that the influence of reattachment point extends further downstream in the CFD than in the experiments. Slow post reattachment recovery of boundary layers is a common trait of turbulence models. So, Lai and Yoo [8] observed similar post-reattachment behaviour for the flow past a backward facing step. For this case wall function based models were found to produce better results in the recovery region than Low Reynolds Number models. This is because wall functions, which are based on local-equilibrium arguments, force the flow to asymptote to the log law-of-wall.

Figure 1.12 shows that the k_i/ϵ model predicts profiles that are slightly closer to the profiles measured by Crompton than the SST model which seems to have a slower recovery from reattachment. However the differences are small.

Pressure distributions

The pressure coefficient plot for the flat plate at $\theta = 1$ is presented in Figure 1.14. In the experimental data the pressures continue to decrease downstream of the leading edge and has reached a minimum pressure at $x/c = 0.045$. Conversely the CFD results have a lower suction peak that is flatter and does not experience the gradual decrease in pressure over the forward half of the separation bubble that is seen in the experimental results. The leading edge radius is known to have an effect on the local pressure coefficient with more rounded tips enabling the flow to remain attached longer resulting in greater suction peaks. However Crompton paid special care to get a sharp leading edge and furthermore roundedness does not explain the differences between the two turbulence models. The pressures within the leading bubble are related to the curvature of the shear layer (higher streamline curvature = lower pressure) and the experimental data has a shorter and fatter leading edge bubble which explains its higher suction peak. Additionally the secondary separation bubble that is present only in the experiments increases shear layer growth near the leading edge and hence contributes to the suction peak.

Another notable feature of Figure 1.14 is that between $x/c = 0.1$ and $x/c = 0.2$ the k_i/ϵ model

predicts lower pressures than both the SST model and the experimental data. This is due to model overpredicting the length of the separation bubble. When the C_p curves are normalised with the reattachment length the comparison is good with the only significant difference being the large suction at the leading edge in the Crompton data.

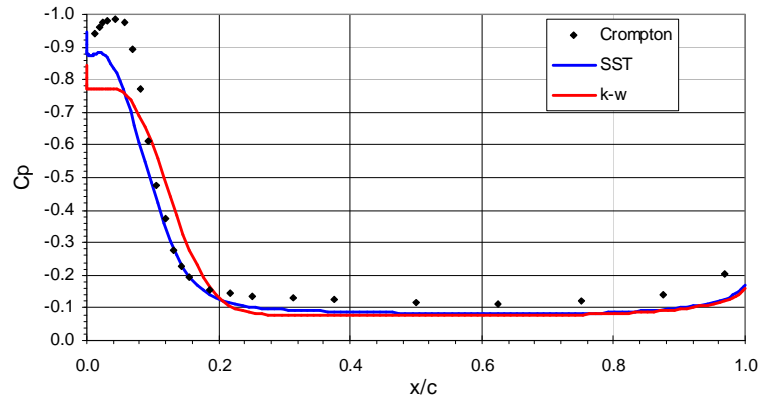


Figure 1.14: Pressure coefficient plot ($Re = 1$).

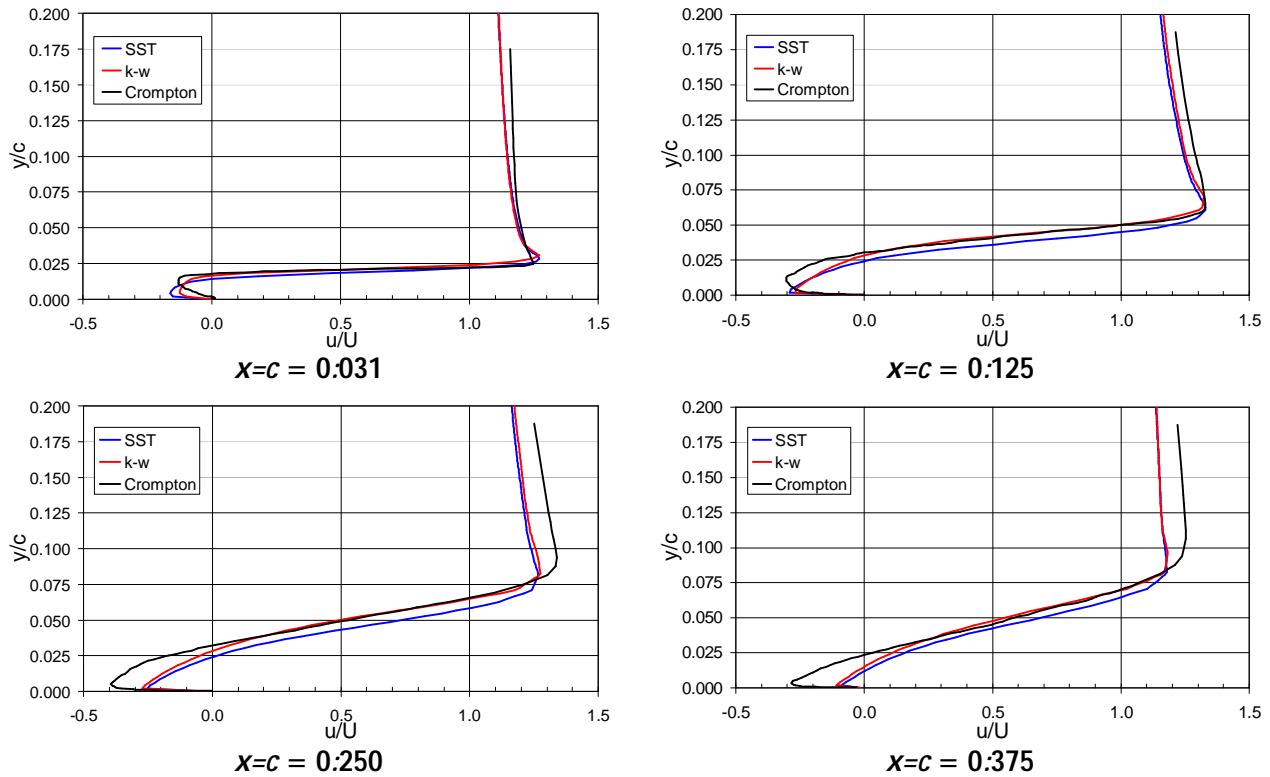


Figure 1.15: Chordwise velocity profiles within the leading edge bubble($Re = 3$):

1.2.3 Comparison at $Re = 3$

Boundary layer profiles in the leading edge bubble

The reattachment lengths for the $Re = 3$ case are presented in Table 1.2. The SST model underpredicts X_R by 6.4% and the k_i model overpredicts X_R by 8.4%. Once again the chordwise positioning of the profiles presented in this chapter are scaled by X_R :

	X_R
Crompton	0.47
SST	0.4374
k_i	0.5096

Table 1.2: Reattachment lengths for the flat plate at $Re = 1$:

Velocity Profiles within the separation bubble are presented in Figure 1.15. Looking first at the measurement station closest to the reattachment point ($x/c = 0.375$); CFD predicts much lower reversed velocities than the experimental results. The measurement station at $x/c = 0.25$ coincides with approximately the mid length of the leading edge bubble, here the velocities are at their greatest, both at the outside edge of the shear layer and also in the reversed flow region. In the reversed flow region $u = -0.393U_1$ for the experimental results whereas the SST model predicts $u = -0.252U_1$ and the k_i model predicts $u = -0.271U_1$. At this measurement station the reversed boundary layer in the experiments is beginning to show laminar-like features and is notably thicker than the CFD results. By $x/c = 0.125$ there is much less reversed flow which is primarily due to mass flow in the direction normal

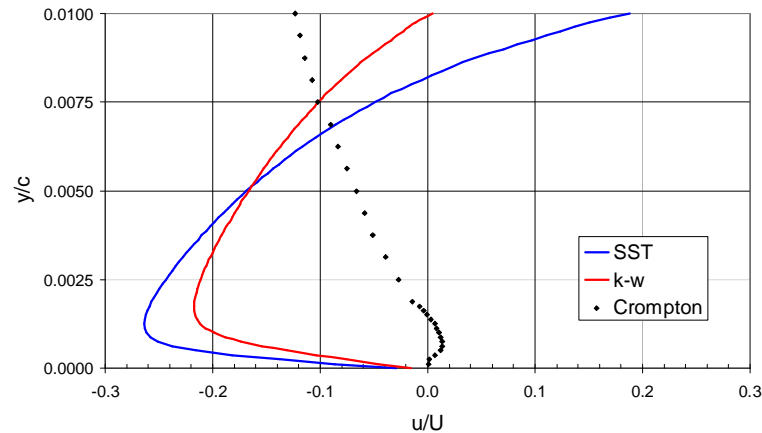


Figure 1.16: Near wall chordwise velocity profiles at $x/c = 0.031$ ($\theta = 3^\circ$):

to the plate but in the case of the experimental results the presence of an adverse pressure gradient also plays a role. At $x/c = 0.031$ the secondary separation bubble shows its presence in the experimental results close to the wall. The CFD results do not have this feature and the near wall flow is reversed all the way to the leading edge. A close-up of the near wall region, showing the secondary bubble (in the experimental results), is presented in Figure 1.16.

Turbulent kinetic energy profiles in the leading edge bubble

Further insight into the structure of the leading edge bubble can be gained from the profiles of turbulent kinetic energy, k ; that are presented in Figure 1.17. At $x/c = 0.031$ the experimental results show two peaks in the turbulent kinetic energy profile. The lower peak is associated with the secondary separation bubble that is not present in the CFD results. At the outer edge of the secondary separation bubble there is a region of high mean shear which increases production of turbulent kinetic energy. The second peak occurs at the point of inflection in the velocity profile in the outer shear layer which is also a region of high mean-shear. This second peak in kinetic energy is much stronger than the first as it is driven by the large velocities around the leading edge of the plate. This peak is much larger in the experimental results compared with the CFD, with the maximum turbulent kinetic energy 2.5 times greater than the SST model and 4.0 times greater than the $k-\epsilon$ model. It is believed that the large peak in k for the Crompton data is due to two effects. Firstly the unstable shear layer flapping causes additional entrainment of kinetic energy and is a source of intermittency, and secondly the secondary recirculation bubble enhances the mean-shear in the leading edge region which increases the production of turbulent kinetic energy. Both of these effects are not accounted for in the CFD results. The SST model predicts more turbulent kinetic energy in the shear layer than the $k-\epsilon$ model which is surprising since the SST relation is designed to limit the production of k . The SST model uses the $k-\epsilon$ model across the inner portion of the boundary layer out to the defect layer and the model blends to $k-\omega$ by the outer edge of the boundary layer. Within the leading edge bubble the SST model blends to $k-\omega$ across the inner region of the bubble and so it is the ω -equation that is solved across the shear layer. Therefore it appears that the ω -equation predicts a lower rate of dissipation of turbulent kinetic energy (ϵ or $\omega^2 = k$) than the ϵ -equation in the $k-\epsilon$ model (note that in the SST model the ω -equation is written in terms of ϵ).

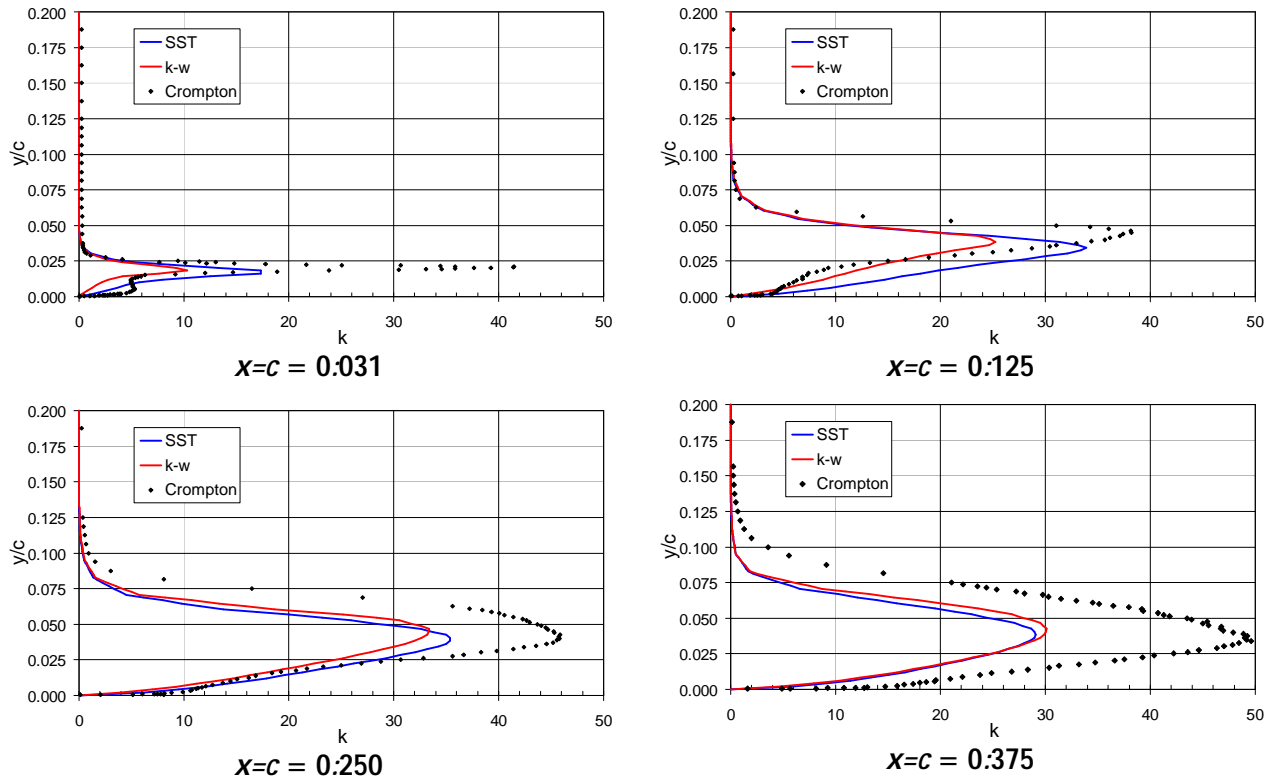


Figure 1.17: Chordwise velocity profiles within the leading edge bubble($\alpha = 3$):

For the experimental results at $x/c = 0.125$ the magnitude of the turbulent kinetic energy in the shear layer is slightly lower than at the upstream station due to the diminished effect of the secondary separation bubble which itself extends no further back than $x/c = 0.045$. The turbulent kinetic energy in the CFD results has increased for both the SST and k_i model and the SST model is in better agreement with the experimental results. In both the CFD and the experimental results the peak in turbulent kinetic energy has widened due to the thickening of the shear layer. Near the all the experimental results have lower levels of turbulent kinetic energy than the CFD which is a result of the relamination process.

Between $x/c = 0.125$ and $x/c = 0.25$ the turbulent kinetic energy keeps a relatively constant profile for the SST model. Conversely the experimental results indicate that the kinetic energy in the shear layer is still increasing and the maximum entrainment rate has not yet been reached. The SST model predicts the shear layer to reach local equilibrium prematurely, production of turbulent kinetic energy matches its dissipation and the levels of k stop increasing. Between $x/c = 0.250$ and $x/c = 0.375$ both the SST and k_i models predict a decrease in turbulent kinetic energy whereas in the experimental results k continues to increase. By this stage the k_i model has also reached local equilibrium in the shear layer, whereas the experimental results indicate the turbulent kinetic energy in the shear layer is continuing to increase. The decrease in turbulent kinetic energy predicted by the CFD results is caused by the shear layer curving back towards the wall and the deceleration of the shear layer as it approaches reattachment. The experimental results show a similar drop in vertical velocity fluctuations (v') as the shear layer bends towards the wall, however this energy is converted to transverse (w') and streamwise (u') velocity fluctuations and thus the kinetic energy levels are retained.

At $x/c = 0.375$ both the SST model and the k_i model predict peaks in turbulent kinetic energy

that are approximately 1.7 times smaller than in the experimental results. In the experimental results the kinetic energy peak is wider than the CFD indicating that the CFD results underpredict the shear layer thickness. This not surprising considering the entrainment rate is much greater in the experimental results.

In the CFD turbulent shear stress follows the same trends as the k profiles, unfortunately turbulent shear stress data was not recorded in the experiments and so no comparison could be made.

Downstream of reattachment

The low turbulent kinetic energy across the rear half of the leading edge bubble in the CFD results has considerable effects well downstream of reattachment and also within the leading edge bubble itself. As mentioned earlier the reversed boundary layer reaches much greater velocities in the experimental results. This is caused by greater entrainment which allows for higher shear layer curvature which leads to greater velocities. Similarly downstream of reattachment the boundary layers predicted by the CFD results are slower than in the experiments. This is partially a lag effect from the lower velocities predicted by the CFD in the shear layer upstream of reattachment, but it is also apparent that the CFD results recover slowly from reattachment process. Downstream of the reattachment point the kinetic energy values are again lower in the experimental results which is a legacy effect from the low values in the leading edge bubble. The higher levels of k in the experimental results enable much steeper gradients near the wall and consequently the sublayer develops more rapidly enabling the boundary layer to regain a state of local equilibrium.

1.2.4 Effect of angle of attack

Look at plots of reattachment length with angle of attack and also the pressure coefficient plots. Also look at the pressure coefficient plots normalised to X_R .

1.2.5 Summary of Results

CFD vs Experiments

1. *The experiments experience greater growth and curvature of the shear layer which bounds the leading edge bubble.*

REASON

- 2 Increased entrainment at the leading edge due to the secondary separation bubble and shear layer flapping.
- 2 Transport and production of turbulent kinetic energy dominates dissipation and hence k continues to increase along the length of the shear layer. CFD has difficulties modelling non-equilibrium flows due to the basic assumptions made in the derivation of the turbulence models.

CONSEQUENCES

- 2 Reattachment is delayed in the CFD

² Lower suction peak in the CFD

2. *The reversed flow in the leading edge bubble is subject to a favourable pressure gradient which causes relaminarisation. This effect is not present in the CFD results.*

REASON

- ² The SST and $k-\epsilon$ models are designed for fully turbulent flows and are not capable of predicting relaminarisation.

CONSEQUENCE

- ² CFD fails to predict the secondary bubble at the leading edge.

3. *Downstream of reattachment the CFD profiles recover towards turbulent equilibrium slowly compared with the experiments.*

REASON

- ² The developing boundary layer is dominated by two distinctly different spectrums of eddy scales; the scales in the outer region of the near wall that have their origin in the separated shear layer, and the scales in the inner region associated with the development of the new boundary layer.

CONSEQUENCES

- ² Velocities in the CFD boundary layer profiles are slower than in the experiments and are therefore more susceptible to separation
- ² Higher pressure coefficients in the CFD results.

SST vs $k-\epsilon$

1. The SST model captures the leading edge bubble more accurately than $k-\epsilon$; it predicts a reattachment length that is closer to the experimental value and does a better job of predicting the pressure coefficient in the vicinity of the leading edge bubble.

REASON

- ² The SST model predicts greater turbulent kinetic energy near the leading edge and therefore predicts greater shear layer growth. As a result the shear layer has more curvature and bends back towards the plate earlier than the $k-\epsilon$ model.

2. Downstream of reattachment the $k-\epsilon$ model predicts a more rapid boundary layer recovery than the SST model, however the recovery is still slower than the experimental results.

REASON

² Since there are two distinctly different length scales interacting in the recovery region a two-equation model, that operates using just one length scale ($k^1=k^2=!$); cannot be expected to perform well. The difference between the velocity profiles are small and are likely to be a result of the SST model blending to the k^2 -equation through the outer region of the boundary layer.

1.3 Comparison with other flow fields

General discussion of the significance of this test case with reference to flows that possess similar traits. Esp Sail flows. Discussion about similar test cases e.g. backward facing step.

1.4 Conclusions

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