BOUNDARY-LAYER TRANSITION DETECTION BY THERMOGRAPHY AND NUMERICAL METHOD AROUND BIONIC TRAIN MODEL IN WIND TUNNEL TEST

by

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Methods of diagnosing aerodynamic characteristics are constantly developing in order to conduct the precise and energy efficient wind tunnel testing of transport vehicles in the prototype design early stages. This is of a special importance when facing the time/cost consumption problems of detection of the transition zone over the simplified design of the high-speed train. Herein the applied thermodynamics found a very significant role in the field of experimental aerodynamics. With the intention of detecting the boundary-layer transition zone the following measurements were applied: the infrared thermography, flow visualization, and drag force measurements. In addition, the CFD was applied to predict the flow behaviour and transition zone, solving PDE consisting of the Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes equations, energy equation, and the equation of state for an ideal gas employing density-based solver. The thermal imaging defined the transition zone by simple application, and fast recognition, while the transition bounds were defined in the analysis. The flow visualization confirmed thermography results and the method itself as favourable, especially in the most expensive early phases of redesigning for aerodynamically optimized and energy efficient solutions. The numerical method was confirmed by the experiments, resulting in acceptable differences in the definition of the transition zone. For a better understanding of the phenomenon, the overlapped implementation of the presented methods focused on forced convection showed as the best solution. Based on the experiences of this research, development of the additional equipment and adjustments will be introduced in the future experiments.

Key words: aerodynamics, wind tunnel, heat transfer, thermography, numerical simulation, flow visualization

Introduction

In the experimental aerodynamics, the most advanced and sensitive test phases are those related to the boundary-layer research. Nowadays, facing the problems of energy
consumption, during wind tunnel (WT) testing, researchers introduced well-known infrared thermography (IRT) into investigating the set of the wind tunnel measuring and visualizing methods. The goal of this work was primarily to investigate the applicability of the thermodynamic method – IRT [1], for flow description and boundary-layer transition detection in the experimental practice in the small low-speed WT of the Military Technical Institute (VTI) [2-6] and by the CFD. In addition, the aim was to observe the possibilities of application of the high-speed train testing [4] for defining the requirements for future adjustments, developments of the model, set-up, and the equipment. The expected outcomes were – the reduction of test time, energy consumption, and costs in the early stages of prototype designing.

The multidisciplinary research was performed on the simplified model of the high-speed train (SHST). The SHST was intentionally made simple for the purpose of changes of design parameters, reproduction, easy fabrication and in order to reflect the bio-inspired design [7].

The modern trends in measurements of the boundary-layer and the flow field are focused on non-destructive, energy efficient experimental methods. The high-quality methods are the methods such as the Laser-Doppler anemometry [5], the holographic interferometry [3], the particle image velocimetry (PIV) [8], and IRT. The IRT, for example, is applied in different areas of science and technology, such as fluid dynamics [9, 10], insulation monitoring of the industrial facilities [11, 12], humidity monitoring of buildings, museums and heritage buildings, civil objects energy efficiency detection, the detection of the processes in installations (heating/cooling and electric), inside and out of the rigid walls, studying of the artefacts, inspection of the structure of construction materials, smart machines, surveillance and military use, and medicine (IR mammography). In practices, IRT is used for testing in the free flight and in the wind tunnels [1, 13], mostly at high subsonic and supersonic velocities. The CFD is playing a very significant role as the verified and reliable method for flow behaviour prediction around the complex models of vehicles [14], but also for the state-of-the-art large eddy simulations of transient flows or investigation of the boundary-layer and wake behaviour of the bionic designs and surfaces (birds, insects, etc.).

Up to now, no universal either experimental or computational method has been found, and it can be said that the best method in research of turbulence phenomenon is actually a set of the overlapping multidisciplinary methods.

Research background

After Prandtl, the boundary-layer was introduced to the flow field description to simplify the calculation methods, thus to bridge the Navier-Stokes and the Euler equations [15, 16]. In that sense, the flow over the surface was divided into the outer and inner boundary-layer flow. Herein, Euler and Bernoulli’s equations had been applied to the inviscid flow of the outer flow, but later on, the boundary-layer theory was employed related to the viscous flow [17, 18].

The air-flow over the surface of the flat plate (no-slip wall condition) changed its features under the influence of the frictional forces and convection, where the vortices were created only inside the boundary-layer, as shown in fig. 1 [15, 16]. The flow field of the boundary-layer, assuming zero pressure gradient and low turbulence intensity (about 0.1%), evolved from the laminar, transitional to the fully turbulent flow. The laminar flow appeared at the leading edge, firstly stable downstream, and afterwards in a form of Tollmien-Schlichting (T-S) waves. Before the flow becomes fully turbulent it experiences the turbulent spot phase filled with the new turbulent cores, concentrated at the imaginary edge [15, 16].
As for the smooth flat plate, the transition zone occurs over the length between minimal and maximal values of $c_{f_x}$, which is highly dependent on the turbulence level of the free flow and the local Reynolds number, fig. 1(a). Considering the flow over the hot model, the temperature field is similar to the velocity field and they mutually interact [15-17]. The similarity of behaviours supported the introduction of the term of a thermal boundary-layer (TBL), fig. 1(b). The concept of the TBL introduces the TBL edge, similar to the velocity boundary-layer (VBL), described by $0.99 T_\infty$. The temperature distribution, across the TBL, depends on the condition of the wall, thus it differs due to the model wall temperature (cold/adiabatic/hot). The heat transfer analysis, in the forced flow over the wall, $q$, leads to equalization of the heat transfer transmitted from the wall and heat convection. Applying the Fourier and Newton’s laws of cooling onto the wall surface, the heat flux is $q = k_{\text{fluid}} \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} = h(T_W - T_\infty)$, where the heat transfer coefficient $h = 0.5 c_f V_\infty k_{\text{fluid}}/\nu$ is dependent on $c_f$ and thermal conductivity of the fluid, $k_{\text{fluid}}$ [15-17]. In the case of the hot wall, minimal temperature occurs at the beginning, while the maximal value is achieved at the end of the flow transition. Herein, the IRT camera is measuring rightfully $\Delta T_{\text{IRT}} = (T_W - T_\infty)$. In terms of model fabrication for the IRT measurement, the main concerns are subjected to the constancy of the model wall-free flow temperature difference [13]. Mutual dependence of the velocity and temperature is described by the Prandtl number, $Pr = \frac{\mu c_p}{k}$, thus $Pr < 1$ leads to $\delta_{\text{TBL}} > \delta_{\text{VBL}}$ [15-17]. In the practices of the applied aerodynamics and thermodynamics, it is essential to determine the temperature distribution as well as the other flow parameters [2].

In further, recalling the influence of the $c_{f_x}$, one may note that $c_{f_x}$ is an essential part in production of the frictional drag force, $D_f = c_{f_x} A_p V^2/2$, and consequently, it influences the consumed power of the future heavy vehicle [15, 16], thus flow laminarization leads to $c_{f_x}$ decrease.

The radiation of the real bodies differs from the referent – blackbodies, thus the three types of radiation transfer are defined, with respect to the body of interest: absorptance, $\alpha_\lambda$, reflectance, $\rho_\lambda$, and transmittance, $\tau_\lambda$, thus $\alpha_\lambda + \rho_\lambda + \tau_\lambda = 1$, depending on the wavelength, $\lambda$ [17, 19].
real objects, considered as the grey bodies, radiate with respect to their material characteristics – emissivity and the characteristics of IR radiation. Herein the emissivity denotes the spectral emissivity coefficient – the body’s ability of radiation emission, $\varepsilon = E/E_{\text{black}} \leq 1$, and when included into the Stefan-Boltzmann equation, the total emissive power of the grey body is $E_{\text{grey}} = \varepsilon \sigma T^4$ [17, 19]. The total radiation power, in general, is expressed as a sum of three radiation sources – object, near bodies and atmosphere, in mutual interaction, reduced for the radiation transfer coefficients ($\alpha$, $\rho$, $\tau$). The phenomenon of thermal radiation is the basis of the IRT [19].

**Experimental set-up**

The experimental procedure was divided into the separate measurements of the aerodynamic drag of the SHST model with the ground effect, temperature distribution measurement, and the visualization of the flow of the oil emulsion.

The WT T-32, in question, is the small low-speed WT of the VTI. The WT T-32 is the closed-circuit WT with semi-opened test section [2-4]. The test section has 2 m long elliptic shape (1.8 × 1.2 m). The maximal operational velocity is 60 m/s, ±0.1 m/s, $TF = 1.14$, under atmospheric temperature and pressure [2-4]. The SHST model and the ground model, in form of a flat plate, were fixed independently on clearance of 8 mm, and stationary during tests, as shown in fig. 2.

![Figure 2. The SHST set-up in the test section of the WT T-32 [2, 4]](image)

The SHST model was designed under the requirements of simplicity, bionics [20], experience [2-4] and recommendations [9, 13], fig. 2. The model has flat sides and sharp edges to emphasize the flow behaviour, tracing the influences of geometry parameters and easy manufacturing. The software PRO/Engineer WF 4 created the SHST numerical model after it was manufactured from 1 m long piece of linden, 60 × 75 mm in cross-section and the nose radius for elongation parameter of $l/h = 3$ (to reflect the bio-inspired design). The nose tip displacement from the ground model leading edge was 0.6 m. The SHST model was painted black and its surface was sandblasted.

The six-component external balance T. E. M. 366 of pyramidal type, in the WT T-32, supported the SHST model and measured its drag force, $D_f$, in a range of ±550 N, 0.02% front strut (FS), fig. 2 [2].

The emitted radiation from the model depends on surface temperature, where the IRT camera records, calculates, and represents surface temperature data in a form of colourful image – a thermogram. The IRT camera FLIR E40 SC, of industrial class, measured temperatures on the visible surfaces in the range of $T = 253-393$ K, ±2% (thermal sensitivity <0.07 °C at 30 °C), image frequency 30 Hz and IR resolution 320 × 240. The set-up in the wind tunnel for thermal imaging is shown in fig. 3 [19]. The FLIR Researcher software recorded the thermograms, and open source software – Paint Net emphasized the details.
The calculated output signal from the object, considered as the blackbody at $T_{\text{obj}}$, is

$$U_{\text{obj}} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{\text{obj}} \tau_{\text{obj}}} U^T - \left[ \frac{1 - \varepsilon_{\text{obj}}}{\varepsilon_{\text{obj}}} \right] U_{\text{refl}} - \left[ \frac{1 - \tau_{\text{atm}}}{\varepsilon_{\text{obj}} \tau_{\text{atm}}} \right] U_{\text{atm}}$$

where $U^T$ denotes measured IRT camera output, $U_{\text{refl}}$ and $U_{\text{atm}}$ - theoretical output voltages for the blackbody of $T_{\text{refl}}$ and $T_{\text{atm}}$, respectively, obtained by the calibration [19]. The accuracy of the IRT measurement depends on the inputs, thermal sensitivity, scanning speed, image resolution, and intensity resolution [1, 13, 19]. In addition, the quality of the thermal imaging depends on conductivity and emissivity of the observed surfaces, and relative position of the influencing reflections from the environment to the IRT camera.

The flow visualization was made with the oil emulsion (paraffin oil: 30 ml, olean acid: 5 ml, and 10 g of TiO$_2$) [3, 4].

**Numerical set-up**

The numerical study served to predict the flow around the SHST, after adjustments which had the acceptable influence on the results. The applied CFD software was the ANSYS Fluent 12, the control volume based method for calculation of the flow parameters [16, 21, 22]. Compared to the real wind tunnel set-up, the numerical domain resembled the shape of an elliptic cylinder, equal the test section cross-section of the T-32, but prolonged up to 6 m, fig. 4.

The mesh of 1,270,607 mixed cells, with the prisms in the inflation layer, was built by introducing the two bodies of influence for better quality, following the criterion of the height of the first layer, $30 < y^* < 300$ (cell skewness from 0.2 – 0.5, over 27 – 10% of total cell quantity, respectively). The mesh was selected from the series, performed for the selected numerical set-up: non-adapted (final mesh), the first and second time adapted boundary, adapted to specific $y^*$ interval, adaption of the forebody region, and third time adapted boundary. In this order of mesh refinements, relative increase of calculation duration per unit iteration was nearly exponential on relative mesh size increase, in relation to the final mesh. The final
mesh answered both criteria, the requirements of \( y^+ \) and calculation duration, in contrast to the others (\( y^+ = 5 – 30 \)).

The compressible flow was modelled with the density-based solver, to obtain the temperature distribution over the surfaces \([18, 21, 22]\). The operational and boundary conditions were defined in accordance with the real test: inlet as pressure-far-field, outlet as pressure outlet, test section walls of aluminium (upper and lower), ground model as a wooden wall, SHST model as a wall of CaCO\(_3\) (paint component with similar thermal characteristics), and the others – the symmetry walls, fig. 4.

The turbulence was solved employing mutually the Spalart-Allmaras (S-A) model and energy equation. In general, the S-A model is used for the wall-bounded and boundary-layer flows. It is created to resolve the viscosity-affected regions for meshes providing either \( y^+ = 1 \) or \( y^+ \geq 30 \), throughout a single conservation equation with built damping functions \([18, 21, 22]\). The S-A model was selected for its simplicity and time/cost efficiency for large mashes, compared to the others. The solving method involved the implicit scheme, the Roe flux-difference splitting scheme flux type, and the Green-Gauss node based method of discretization as well as the second order functions. The use of full multi-grid (FMG) initialization, for the subsonic flow, was aimed at better determination of the beginning solution, and faster convergence.

**Results and discussion**

The thermogram in fig. 5, showing the temperature non-uniformity at the equilibrium state, originated from the thermal reflexes (from the SHST and other bodies) and holding the three significant zones used for result corrections. Figure 6 shows the uncorrected thermogram of the wind-on phase scene, at \( V = 50 \text{ m/s}, T = 296 \text{ K} \).

In case of the partial coating of SHST with the emulsion, the flow spread the coating from the nose to the tail, leaving the imprint of five flow regions, as shown in fig. 7.

![Figure 5. Temperature distribution over the SHST in the equilibrium state](image)

![Figure 6. Thermal image of the test scene (\( V = 50 \text{ m/s}, T = 293.15 \text{ K} \))](image)
The experimentally visualized traces and the numerically obtained pathlines, coloured by temperature, are shown in fig. 8. The main difference was indicated in the central side view, where the oil traces showed slightly more inclined paths. Therefore, for achieving the more realistic results, the investigations in the field of \( y^+ = 1 \) are necessary, together with the application of the enhanced wall treatment or the SST based transition model, with the support of the advanced IT resources.

Figure 7. Flow visualization after partial covering with the oil emulsion \((V = 50 \text{ m/s})\)

Figure 8. Flow pattern and flow pathlines, coloured by temperature, \((V = 50 \text{ m/s}, \text{Re} \approx 237000)\)

Figure 9 shows the local values of \( T, c_p, \rho, M, \) and \( \text{Pr} \) along the centre line, estimated by the CFD. The transition region along the centre line began at \( x = 0.17 \text{ m} - 0.19 \text{ m} \) from the nose tip. The end of the transition region was at \( x \approx 0.41 \text{ m} \). In the present case, \( \delta_{\text{turb}} \approx 2-3 \text{ mm}, \delta_{T \text{ turb}} \approx 5 \text{ mm} \). Good correlation with flow imprint, fig. 7, verified the CFD method.

Figure 9. Selected flow parameters over the SHST roof, along the centre line, obtained with CFD \((V = 50 \text{ m/s}, \text{Re} \approx 237000)\)

The local temperature values on the roof, along the centre line, and the temperature distribution estimated by IRT are shown in fig. 10. The finish of transition arose at the end of
wavy oil traces, which corresponds, to the flow parameters near the spot “E”. The $T_c'$ was interpreted as an influence of the scratch on the leading edge, and it was out of interest.

The maximal temperatures, measured along the lines in fig. 11, marked in “E1-E7”, were interpreted as the ending points of the transition region from the side. The flow imprints in figs. 10 and 11 are in good correlation with the IRT readings along seven measuring lines and verified the method.

The detailed study was made in prior to the zone of the SHST nose, in which the transition started, as shown in fig. 12.

Flow visualization, from fig. 12(a), confirmed the IRT data, fig. 10, and CFD, fig. 9. Herein, the washed-out line, from the nose roof across the leading edge, was interpreted as the reattachment that occurred after the laminar separation. Besides, the traces of the T-S waves were following the leading edge and interacted with the separated and reattached flow, which
Figure 12. Flow patterns over the SHST nose; (a) flow imprint in the partially applied oil emulsion and (b) manually corrected static temperature distribution from the IRT

was represented in the cyclic local widening of the line of reattachment. Downstream, there were three different areas of the transition zone, fig. 12(a), downstream from a dashed line: the longitudinal vorticity zone, the 3-D breakdown zone in which the turbulent spots were formed, and the zone of turbulent spots, which formed water-like waves in deposits of TiO₂. Over the SHST roof, the first presence of the water-like waves was recognized just downstream from the “C’’. Therefore, the surface with higher curve gradients and thickness of the profile, the same as on the SHST roof, resulted in the narrowing of the transition zone. From fig. 12(a) it is clear that the flow collided with the hinge joint, entered into the mainstream and twisted it. The influence may be avoided by adaptations such as introducing the model sting support.

The corrected IRT data, in fig. 12(b), represented the laminar and transition regions, flow affected by the ground and the flow induced by the gap and joints. The five coloured zones differ over the side surfaces (T₁ – T₆). The portion of the flow from the ground boundary-layer was affecting the flow around the nose tip (T₃). The laminar flow was hardly detected over the roof due to low resolution, but in the approximation, it was marked between “A – C”, starting outside of the ground TBL. The zones of T₁ and T₆ from the side and just after the leading edge, were the zones of the unstable laminar flow with the laminar separation and reattachment and they were indicated by comparison with the flow visualization. The small damage at the nose leading edge caused forming of the emulsion deposit, leaving a short wake downstream. The early temperature drop and the signs of the wake were also indicated in the thermogram, both on the side and the roof, leaving a false expression of the T₃ due to 2-D representation and low resolution. The real indication of the transition beginning was noticed along the saddle-like edge length, starting from “C”, over the local roof width. The CFD indicated the saddle-like zone, covering the 3-D vortex breakdown zone (T₃ = T₂), and the arced surface on the side. Due to different geometry parameters (l/h = 3 for the roof and l/h = 7.5 on the side), the arced zone on the side did not represent the transition beginning. Just downstream from the saddle-like zone on the roof, the zone with the turbulent spots was formed throughout the middle. This zone, surrounded by the secondary vortex flow, originated from the flow over the sharp
edges of the SHST. The zones containing the turbulent spots were indicated in the areas with the locally highest temperatures. The zone of turbulent spots was blown out by the flow from the gap on the side.

In this paper, the investigations made by IRT and CFD showed the applicability of methods in conditions without the flow separation, where the transition zone was defined by the data analysis of the overlapped results. The main difficulties in defining the transition zone were set-up adaptation and the data corrections. IT resource development would contribute CFD boundary-layer tests, too.

The CFD results were also verified through drag coefficient – calculated $c_{D_{\text{CFD}}}$ = 0.3 with WT result $c_{D_{\text{WT}}}$ = 0.291, showing good data correlation, $c_{D_{\text{CFD}}} \approx 1.03 c_{D_{\text{WT}}}$.

Conclusion

The presented research confirms the thermography as the desirable tool for surface temperature measurements and flow transition detection. It is complementary with the flow visualization, over the complex model geometry, and it offers high reliability, in early stages of prototyping. Flow visualization verified both IRT and CFD through a good correlation of the results in the determination of the transition zone and the flow over the model surfaces. Possibilities of application of the IRT in the wind tunnel testing are confirmed although the IR camera was of the industrial class. The IRT is a valuable method for time-cost-saving, for the most delicate research of boundary-layer transition detection. In fact, IRT, flow visualization, and CFD represent a set of methods, with an excellent ability for detection and prediction of key zones in the flow, in the early stage of the designing and concept selection process, as well as the foundation for further advanced boundary-layer investigations. The non-destructive methods proved to be reliable, affordable, and fast, requiring the minimal adaptations of the model set-up, easy for use in various positions and environmental conditions. However, this research highlighted the necessity of more precise, qualitative and quantitative analysis of the flow transiency that might be improved by implementation of the high-speed and high-resolution IRT camera, while the advanced IR resources might describe the boundary-layer flow more realistically using the CFD. Future tests will include adaptations of the test set-up – model and environment, to contribute the IRT precision. Furthermore, the introduction of additional measuring and visualizing methods, such as the smoke visualization (with a stroboscope) and PIV might significantly contribute to the analysis of the complex flow field around the SHST.

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Nomenclature

- $A$ – surface area, [m$^2$]
- $c_{D}$ – drag force coefficient, [-]
- $c_{f}$ – skin friction coefficient, [-]
- $c_{p}$ – specific heat at constant pressure, [Jkg$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$]
- $D_{f}$ – drag force, [N]
- $E$ – energy, [J]
- $h$ – heat transfer coefficient, [Wm$^{-2}$K$^{-1}$]
- $h_{x}$ – height, [m]
\[ k \] – thermal conductivity, [Wm$^{-1}$K$^{-1}$]
\[ L \] – length, [m]
\[ M \] – Mach number (= V/c), [-]
\[ Pr \] – Prandtl number (= \( \mu c_p / k = \nu / \alpha \)), [-]
\[ p \] – pressure, [Pa]
\[ \rho \] – density, [kgm$^{-3}$]
\[ \alpha \] – thermal diffusivity (=\( k / (\rho c_p) \)), [m$^2$s$^{-1}$]
\[ \alpha_{\lambda} \] – absorptance, [-]
\[ \varepsilon_{\lambda} \] – emissivity, [-]
\[ \delta \] – boundary-layer thickness, [m]
\[ \lambda \] – wavelength, [m]
\[ \mu \] – viscosity, [kgm$^{-1}$s$^{-1}$]
\[ \nu \] – kinematic viscosity, [m$^2$s$^{-1}$]

Subscripts
\[ \infty \] – free stream condition,
\[ atm \] – atmosphere,
\[ f \] – product of friction,
\[ obj \] – object
\[ refl \] – reflected,
\[ turb \] – turbulent,
\[ W \] – wall condition

Greek symbols
\[ \alpha \] – thermal diffusivity (=\( k / (\rho c_p) \)), [m$^2$s$^{-1}$]
\[ \alpha_{\lambda} \] – absorptance, [-]
\[ \varepsilon_{\lambda} \] – emissivity, [-]
\[ \delta \] – boundary-layer thickness, [m]
\[ \lambda \] – wavelength, [m]
\[ \mu \] – viscosity, [kgm$^{-1}$s$^{-1}$]
\[ \nu \] – kinematic viscosity, [m$^2$s$^{-1}$]

Acronyms
BL – boundary-layer,
CL – centre line,
IRD – infrared thermography
PIV – particle image velocimetry,
S-A – Spalart-Allmaras turbulent model
SHST – simplified model of the high-speed train,
TBL – thermal boundary-layer,
VBL – velocity boundary-layer
WT – wind tunnel

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