SECONDARY FLOW IN AN ANNULAR CASCADE

OF HIGH TURNING. ANGLE TURBINE BLADES

Ву

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ABSTRACT

C)

Approximately half of the aerodynamic losses in a turbomachine blade row are attributed to cascade secondary losses. Looking at the existing literature on secondary flows, there is a lack of detailed experiments carried out on annular cascade of high turning angle turbine blades.

The purpose of this investigation was to construct and carry out detailed experiments on a unique large scale annular cascade of high turning angle turbine blades. Cascade tests, at a Reynolds number based on the blade chord of 3 x 10^5 to 6 x 10^5 , consisted of inlet and exit flow parameters traverses, blade passage pressure distributions and flow visualization. The results, presented in the form of contours and radial distributions, were analysed and compared with the results of previous investigations.

The tests showed that the flexibility designed into the cascade rig has achieved the purpose of tailoring the inlet flow conditions according to the test requirements. The total pressure loss contours revealed a large single loss region at the middle of the blade passage. The yaw angle contours showed regions of significant flow underturning and overturning in the main stream. Good agreement was found between the measured cascade secondary loss coefficient and those calculated from the available correlations.

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· NOMENCLATURE

Symbols	Description
a ·	Speed of sound
c ,	Blade chord
c_L	Lift coefficient
CLI	Zweifel lift coefficient (defined in Table 2)
Cp _s	Static pressure loss coefficient
Cpo	Total pressure loss coefficient
Ε .	Voltage
h ,	Blade span
Н	Shape factor
M	Mach number
Ν .	Blade passage area ratio
P	Static pressure
P _o	Stagnation pressure
r	Radial coordinate
R	Reference radial direction
R_{N}	Reynolds number
s .	Streamline direction .
S	Blade pitch
ν	Absolute flow velocity
Va	Axial flow velocity
χ^4	Total blade losses
Yp	Blade profile losses
Ys	Blade secondary losses

Inlet boundary layer losses

. Y1*

G.

x,y,z, u,v,w Secondary velocities in x, y and directions Blade loading parameter (Eqn. 28). Flow yaw angle measured with the axial direction Flow yaw angle measured with the plane of the leading edge, i.e., edual to (90°-a) Blade angle with respect to the axial direction Circulation Passage secondary circulation (Eq. 9) Tailing filament circulation (Eq. 10) Trailing shed circulation (Eq. 11) Y Flow pitch angle A Increment Boundary layer thickness at which the absolute velocity is equal to 99% of the free stream velocity Boundary layer displacement thickness Total turning angle N Vorticity normal to the streamline Tangential direction Fluid viscosity Streamwise vorticity passage secondary vorticity (Eq. 13) Trailing filament vorticity (Eq. 14) Trailing shed vorticity (Eq. 15) Trailing shed vorticity (Eq. 15)		
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Trailing shed vorticity (Eq.15)		Trailing filament vorticity (Eq.14)
	•	Trailing shed vorticity (Eq.15)
		Constant = 3.14159
,		

	759 1.3 (3)
ρ	Fluid density
Σ	Summation
φ	Angle between the normal to the Bernoulli surface and the principal normal to the streamlines (Fig. 2)
Ψ	Secondary flow stream function
Ω	Vorticity vector
L.E.	Leading edge
T.E.	Trailing edge
B.H.P.	Brake horsepower
c.f.m	Cubic feet per minute
p.s.i.	Pounds per square inch
r.p.m.	Revolutions per minute
r.m.s.	Root mean square
Subscripts .	
*	Ctannation
. 0	Stagnation
1	Passage inlet
2	Passage exit
a	Axial
i	Inter
0	Outer
m ,	Mean
s '	Static
т .	Total

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Successful aerodynamic design of a turbomachine depends mainly on the accurate estimation of the losses and on the understanding of the different parameters influencing them. Losses in a turbomachine can broadly be divided into three main groups. The Irst group is the profile losses associated with the skin friction over the blade surfaces. The second group is the annulus losses due to the skin friction on the inner and outer walls of the annulus. The third group is the secondary losses resulting from the interaction between the blade ends and the boundary layer on the annulus walls. This last group can be further subdivided into four areas of importance:

- Cascade secondary losses due to the effect of turning the annulus boundary layer.
- 2. Corner losses as a result of the flow in the corner formed by the blades and the annular walls.
- 3. Clearance losses caused by the fluid flow through the clearance between the tip of the rotating blade rows and the annular walls.
- 4. Mainstream secondary losses due to the vortices trailing from the blades.

An attempt has been made in Fig. 1 to show these losses in a pictorial fashion.

Approximately half of the aerodynamic losses in a turbomachine blade row are attributed to the secondary losses and in particular to "cascade secondary losses". Thus to further improve the performance of turbomachines, especially considering the trend towards using high turning angle turbine blades of low aspect ratio, it is necessary that the cause, mechanism, and effects of cascade secondary flow be thoroughly understood. The effects of secondary flow on turbomachine performance are mainly in the associated vortices which cause dissipation of energy and tend to promote separation in the corner between the blades and the annulus walls. Also circulatory flows within the passage cause the fluid to leave the blade rows at angles other than the design angle and therefore cause downstream blade rows to operate off the design point.

Over the past two decades a significant amount of theoretical and experimental studies has been made to investigate the secondary flow phenomena. Several theoretical models, empirical formulae and correlations have been proposed for the calculation of the secondary flow losses in turbine cascades. However, the difficulty in using any of these existing models and correlations is a lack of detailed cascade data that can serve as an experimental reference for the evaluation of any assumptions used in

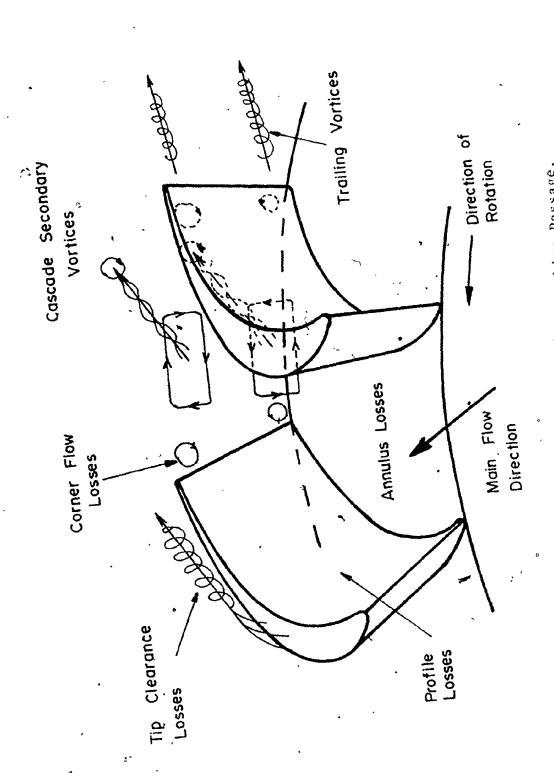


Fig. 1 The Losses Occurring in a Turbomachine Passage.

their derivation, and for the computation of the aerodynamic losses predicted by the correlations.

Turbine research at McMaster University was initiated in 1971 by the design of a series of high turning angle turbine blade profiles (~130°) by Malhotra [37]. One of these blade shapes was tested by Stannard [38] over a range of pressure ratios in a rectilinear blow-down wind tunnel. In 1973, Myachin [36] designed a large scale (7.5:1 with respect to blade dimensions in the rectilinear cascade) annular cascade rig, and proposed several studies to be conducted for the investigation of the secondary flow phenomenon in high turning angle cascades. In 1975, the author with the cooperation of El Shammaa* started the design simplifications and construction of the annular cascade rig.

It is the purpose of this study to carry out detailed experiments on the annular cascade rig and to present, discuss and analyze the experimental results with the hope of providing a better understanding of the flow field within, a high turning angle turbine passage.

To establish in which directions a contribution could best be made, the present study began with a review of the current knowledge concerning secondary flows in turbomachinery. This review, which is given in Chapter 2, covered the basic secondary flow equations, the inviscid techniques for predicting streamwise vorticity, the methods in use for computing secondary losses and finally the available experimental

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measurements in turbine cascades.

The experimental apparatus and instrumentation are described in Chapters 3 and 4. The annular cascade rig consisted mainly of an inlet section, a test section and an exit section connected to a fan. For the test section a modern design of turbine blades was used having a turning angle of 128°30', a span of 190.5 mm and an axial chord of 188.5 mm. The exhaust fan permitted test section inlet velocity up to 47m/s, which provided realistic blade chord Reynolds numbers in the range of 3x10⁵ to 6x10⁵.

In Chapter 5, a brief outline of the preliminary experiments has been given, together with the scope of the tests performed on the rig. The experimental work started with an inlet flow study which is described in Chapter 6. The objective of this investigation was to measure the inlet flow conditions and make the necessary adjustments to produce uniform flow angle and velocity at the inlet to the cascade.

In Chapter 7, the blade passage pressure distribution is presented and compared with the two-dimensional potential flow distribution. The exit flow parameters were measured for different inlet speeds and the results given in Chapter 8 in the form of loss contours and flow angle changes. Qualitative information is also presented in the form of photographs showing particle deposits on the blade and annular surfaces as a result of smoke filament flow visualization studies.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

tascade secondary flow results from the imbalance between the pressure gradients imposed by the main stream on the boundary layer fluid, and the centrifugal force of the low velocity boundary layer fluid. Thus the low momentum boundary layer fluid turns through a larger angle than the free stream fluid. A component of vorticity is therefore produced in the streamwise direction, resulting in both radial and tangential perturbations of velocity at the exit from the blade rows which are proportional to the magnitude of the entry vorticity and the turning angle.

Over the past two decades a significant amount of material has been accumulated both in theory and experiment into the investigation of secondary flow in turbomachines. Several excellent reviews have been made including those by Lakshminarayana [1]*, Hawthorne [2], Dunham [3] and Horlock [4]. In this chapter the secondary flow basic equations will be presented, followed by the present state of the theoretical and experimental studies with special emphasis on turbine cascade tests.

^{*} Numbers in brackets designate references.

2.1 Secondary Flow Equations

Squire and Winter [5] established the basis for the current theoretical approach to secondary flow in a turbomachine. They pointed out that although the non-uniformity that causes the secondary flow is created by viscous effects, the secondary flow itself can be considered inviscid. They solved the equations of motion for steady, inviscid and incompressible flow to obtain an expression for the streamwise component of vorticity (Fig. 2) at the exit of the cascade, in the form:

$$\xi_2 = -2\eta_1 \varepsilon \tag{1}$$

This expression is only valid for small turning angles (up to 90°), constant area flow and high aspect ratios. Squire and Winter also defined a secondary flow stream function,

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} = -\xi_2 \tag{2}$$

The radial and tangential components of the velocity perturbation at the cascade exit can be found by differentiating the stream function,

$$v = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} ; \quad w = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}$$
 (3)

Hawthorne [6] derived a more general expression for the change in streamwise vorticity along a streamline in steady, inviscid and incompressible flow in the absence

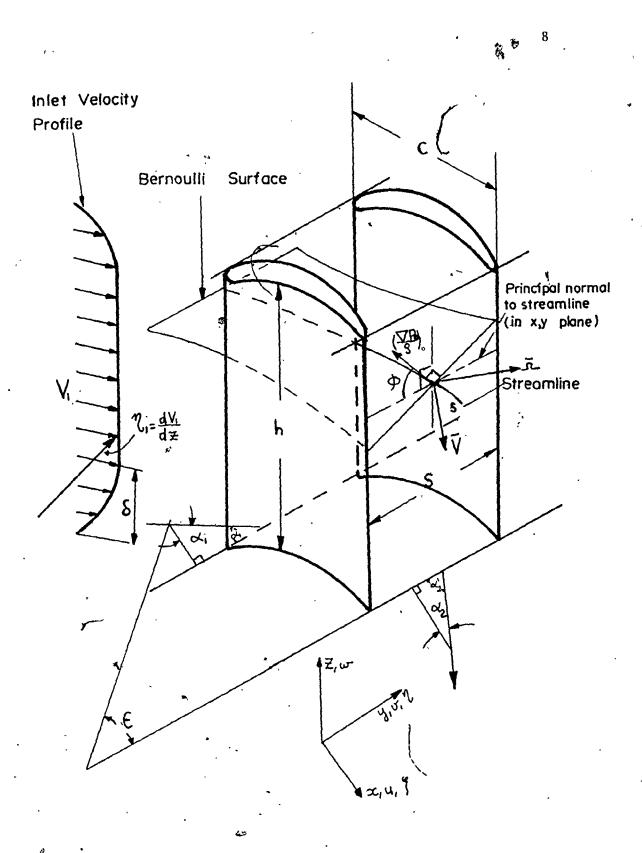


Fig. 2 Definition of Flow and Passage Parameters.

body forces,

$$\left(\frac{\xi}{V}\right)_2 - \left(\frac{\xi}{V}\right)_1 = -2 \int_{1}^{2} |\operatorname{grad}\left(\frac{P_o}{\rho}\right)| \frac{\sin \phi}{V^2} d\varepsilon$$
 (4)

Hawthorne pointed out that it is possible to solve for secondary vorticity if (a) the secondary flow occurs in planes which are normal to the average direction of flow, (b) the secondary vorticity is normal to these planes, (c) the secondary flow may be treated as a two-dimensional plane flow superimposed on the main flow, and (d) the behaviour of the Bernoulli surfaces and streamlines is known. The first three assumptions can be met only in cascades of low turning angle.

Preston [7] obtained the results of the Squire and Winter analysis [5] and of Hawthorne's analysis [6] by a relatively simple method in which he made use of Kelvin's theorem in the form "For an inviscid fluid the circulation in a circuit moving with the fluid remains constant".

By treating the secondary flow as a three-dimensional perturbation of a quasi two-dimensional flow approaching a bend, Hawthorne [8] was able to show another method of obtaining the components of vorticity as defined in Equation (4). Morris [9] extended Hawthorne's [6] analysis and showed that secondary vorticity can be generated not only through the action of a non-uniform flow field on curved streamlines; but also whenever the flow kinetics are such

that the vector curl $(\overline{V}x\overline{\Omega})$ has a component in the streamwise direction.

Another approximate expression for the streamwise vorticity developed in a cascade has been given by Loos [10], which takes into account the excessive turning of the flow in the wall boundary layer and is perhaps the most useful relation to the turbomachinery designer. By assuming the axial velocity to be unchanged Loos derived the following expression:

$$\xi_2 - \xi_1 = \frac{\eta_1}{\cos \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2} \left[\alpha_2 - \alpha_1 + \frac{\sin 2\alpha_2 - \sin 2\alpha_1}{2}\right]$$
 (5)

He also modified Squire and Winter's formula for diverging or converging cascade flow as follows:

$$\xi_2 = -\frac{(N-1/N)}{\ln N} \eta_1 \varepsilon \qquad (6)$$

where N is the blade passage area ratio.

Ehrich [11] developed a theory for predicting the secondary flow in a cascade of twisted blades and obtained the following expression for the secondary stream function,

$$\nabla^2 \psi = 2\varepsilon \left(\frac{dV}{dy}\right) + V \left(\frac{d\varepsilon}{dy}\right)$$
 (7)

Louis [12] has provided an interesting development of the basic equations (1 to 4) to allow for the effect of viscosity.

The secondary vorticity equations presented so far,

describe the secondary flow developed in the channel between the blades, but it is not the only vorticity that exists in the downstream flow. Hawthorne [13], and Hawthorne and Armstrong [14] provided further expressions for the vorticity components downstream of a cascade in the following form:

(i) Due to cascade secondary flow, "the cascade secondary vorticity" of circulation

$$\Gamma_{ps} = \frac{dV}{dz} \left(-V \oint \frac{ds}{V} + \frac{S}{2} \frac{\sin 2\alpha_2 - \sin 2\alpha_1}{\cos \alpha_1} \right)$$
(9)

(ii) Due to stretching of the vortex filament, initially perpendicular to the entry stream, "the trailing filament vortices of circulation",

$$r_{tf} = \frac{dV}{dz} V \oint \frac{ds}{V}$$
 (10)

(iii) Due to change of circulation along the blade span, "trailing shed vortices of circulation",

$$\Gamma_{ts} = -S\cos\alpha_1 \frac{dV}{dz} (\tan\alpha_2 - \tan\alpha_1)$$
 (11)

The arithmetical summation of these circulations has some physical significance in that it is theoretically possible to calculate the worticity knowing the circulation and hence solve the stream function equation to obtain the change in the outlet flow angle.

2.2 Theoretical Investigations

Approximate solutions for the secondary vorticity fields have been classified by Hawthorne [15]. The two parameters of importance are the magnitude of the entry shear and the deflection of the flow. Thus four kinds of flow can be considered depending on the relative magnitude of these two parameters. Of particular interest is the small shear, large deflection flow case in which a primary irrotational flow contorts the Bernoulli surfaces and the vortex filaments found in the approaching shear flow. The vortex filaments are stretched and twisted by the primary flow thus inducing the secondary flow. This type of flow is referred to as the "secondary flow approximation" and is the one most commonly used to describe secondary flows in turbomachines.

Hawthorne [16], basing his analysis on the secondary flow approximation solved Equation (2) for a plane cascade by using a rapidly convergent series. Expressions for the change in average outlet angle α_2 for low turning cascades were presented.

Although the secondary flow approximation has given a real insight into the behaviour of the flow in cascades, the approximation loses validity for cascades accepting a steep inlet velocity profile, for example, in regions close to the wall. Thus the distortion of the Bernoulli surface, spanwise flows and the effects of viscosity should be taken

into account. Lakshminarayana and Horlock [17] showed that for moderate turning angles in which the inlet vorticity is unchanged through the cascade, the Bernoulli distortion (ϕ) due to an incremental flow turning ($\Delta \varepsilon$) is given by the expression:

$$\phi = \frac{\Pi}{2} - \frac{\eta_1 (\Delta \varepsilon)^2 C}{2 \varepsilon V}$$
 (11)

By substituting Equation (11) into Equation (4) and assuming that the stagnation pressure varied only in the spanwise direction they obtained the following expression:

$$(\frac{\xi}{V})_2 - (\frac{\xi}{V})_1 = -2 \int_0^{\varepsilon} \frac{\eta_1(\Delta \varepsilon)C}{V} \cos(\frac{\eta_1(\Delta \varepsilon)C}{2 \varepsilon V}) d\varepsilon$$
 (12)

In Ref. [17], the spanwise displacement of the flow and the viscous effect were taken into consideration, but the analysis was restricted to compressor cascades which involved low turning angles.

Recently Bardon, Moffatt and Randall [18] estimated the secondary flow effects on gas outlet angles in rectilinear cascades with moderate turning angles (less than 60°). They used the equations given in Ref. [6] and [17] and by means of a finite-difference stepwise procedure they solved the equations for vorticity, stream function, secondary velocities and exit angle change. They presented several correlations for assessing the spanwise

variation of the gas exit angle.

Hawthorne and Armstrong [19] developed an analysis for predicting the angle change in moderate turning cascades taking into consideration the displacement effect after the cascade trailing edge.

Came [20] and Marsh [21], presented two simple derivations for the components of vorticity defined by Hawthorne [14]. An expression was obtained for the difference in the time taken for fluid particles to travel over the blade pressure and suction surfaces, and which was used to define the three components of vorticity for one blade pitch and for unit blade span in the form:

$$\frac{\xi_{ps}}{\eta_1} = \frac{\cos^2 \alpha_m}{\cos \alpha_1} \left(\tan \alpha_1 - \tan \alpha_2 \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin 2\alpha_1 - \sin 2\alpha_2}{\cos \alpha_1}$$
 (13)

$$\frac{\xi_{tf}}{\eta_1} = -\frac{\cos^2 \alpha_m}{\cos \alpha_1} (\tan \alpha_1 - \tan \alpha_2)$$
 (14)

$$\frac{\xi_{ts}}{\eta_1} = \cos\alpha_1 \left(\tan\alpha_1 - \tan\alpha_2 \right) \tag{15}$$

Analysis of secondary flow in an annular cascade has also been carried out by Hawthorne and Novak [2] and Dixon [22] for axial inlet flow but with variation of the outlet flow angle α_2 along the span (now taken as r). They resolve the secondary vorticity ξ_2 into tangential and axial components, the former ($\xi_2 \sin \alpha_2$) causing a radial gradient of axial velocity and the latter leading to an

equation for a Stokes stream function describing the radial (r) and tangential (θ) velocities in the trailing edge plane of the form:

$$\nabla^2 \psi = -\xi_2 \cos \alpha_2 \tag{16}$$

The three-dimensional boundary Tayer theory has been applied to the problem of secondary flow in several papers. Loos [23], Herzig and Hansen [24] studied the incompressible three-dimensional laminar boundary layer over a flat plate for curved free streamlines in the plane of the plate. Loos solved the equations for a specific case where the free streamlines had a parabolic shape. Herzig and Hansen extended the analysis to obtain exact solutions for general streamline paths, removing the previous restriction of small turning, by simply representing the blade contour with an approximate polynomial. Johnston [25] introduced his well-known triangular plot for three-dimensional turbulent boundary layers generated by secondary flow. He found, based on experimental evidence, that the cross flow in the outer part of the boundary layer may be given by the expression:

$$\left(\frac{\mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{V}}\right) = -2 \varepsilon \left(1 - \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{V}}\right) \tag{17}$$

2.3 Experimental Investigations

There exists a large amount of experimental data relating to secondary flow, but mostly restricted to low

turning angle cascades. Some experiments were specifically aimed at checking the theory; several other results revealed facets of the physical phenomena and the effect of cascade and flow parameters on flow losses.

To verify the theory as presented, Squire and Winter [5] obtained good agreement between Equations (1,2 &3) and their tests conducted on a 94.8° deflection channel. However they concluded that the secondary flow approximation broke down near the wall where the viscous effects become significant. Hawthorne and Armstrong [14] and [19] compared their analysis with experiments performed on turbine blades placed in a rectangular cross-section wind tunnel. Good correlation was found between the measured and calculated outlet angle variation. Lakshminarayana [17] also found good agreement between the calculated outlet angle and tests conducted on an 82° turning angle cascade. Other investigations to verify the secondary flow theory can be found in the review papers [1] and [4].

perspective it is perhaps worth mentioning the fact that the prediction of turbine profile losses due to the nominally two-dimensional boundary layers on the blade surfaces, is in itself a challenging problem. The profile losses are of course influenced by many factors which affect the development of the blade boundary layer. These include the large variations in velocity and the resulting pressure gradients

along the blade surface, the highly curved blade surfaces which either tend to suppress the boundary layer turbulence (on the suction surface) or promote it (on the pressure surface), surface roughness, trailing edge thickness, incidence and transition on the blade surface. profile losses (and secondary losses) correlations for turbine blading were presented by Ainley and Mathieson [26] for different cascade geometry. Ainley's correlations are still widely used in modern gas turbine design. Binsley [27] presented contours of profile losses for different inlet and exit angles at optimum pitch to chord ratios. Recently Denton [28] reviewed seven methods of predicting the profile losses, compared the losses with 79 cascade results and finally concluded that none of them predicted the losses accurately. Neverthless, some progress could be made by obtaining the losses from calculation of the velocity distribution and the boundary layer growth on the blade surfaces and in the wake.

Secondary flow in a cascade may be presented by the local outlet angle change $(\Delta\alpha_2)$ and a loss coefficient (ΔP_0) . These parameters may be expected to be a function of V_1 , δ_1 , H_1 , C, h, S, ρ , μ , a, ξ_1 and the flow geometry [4]. These independent parameters can be grouped into non-dimensional forms to give:

$$\tilde{\Delta}\alpha_{2}, \Delta P_{0} = f\left(\frac{z}{C}, R_{N}, M, \frac{\delta_{1}}{C}, H_{1}, \frac{\xi_{1}\delta_{1}}{V_{1}}, \frac{h}{C}, \frac{S}{C}, C_{L}\right)$$
(18)

Here the lift coefficient (C_L) or the other blade-loading parameter represents the most important effect of flow geometry.

Dunham [3] has found from a survey of experimental data, a correlation showing the effect of aspect ratio (h/C) and lift coefficient (C_L) on ΔP_o . He also presented a tentative expression for the inlet boundary layer effect and derived the following correlation for ΔP_o (average) based on experimental results:

$$\Delta P_{o}(av) = \frac{C}{h} \frac{\cos \alpha_{2}}{\cos \beta_{1}} \frac{C_{L}^{2}}{(S/C)^{2}} \frac{\cos^{2} \alpha_{2}}{\cos^{3} \alpha_{m}} (0.0055 + 0.078 \sqrt{\frac{\delta_{1}}{C}})$$
 (19)

The first term in the boundary layer function shown in parenthesis is the downstream wall boundary component and the second term is the vortex core loss component. Dunham concluded however that his correlation for losses has to be verified by experiments on turbine cascades particularly with high turning angles.

Brown [29] investigated the secondary flow phenomena in rectilinear cascades with 132° deflection. He obtained the variation of the exit flow angle from the cascade and pressure loss coefficients as a function of the blade span. The measured secondary losses were ten times smaller than the predicted losses using various correlations. It should be noted that this is the largest deflection (132°) which has been investigated experimentally according to the

literature.

Recently Came [30] presented secondary loss measurements for various inlet boundary layer thickness and inlet angle for a large turbine cascade with a maximum turning angle of 85°. Came presented his measurements in the form of loss contours and spanwise variations as a function of the inlet conditions. He defined the secondary losses as a function of the inlet boundary layer losses and introduced the following correlation,

$$\Delta P_{o} = \left(\frac{\dot{C}_{L}}{S/C}\right)^{2} \frac{\dot{\cos}^{2}\alpha_{2}}{\cos^{3}\alpha_{m}} \frac{\cos\alpha_{2}}{\cos\beta_{1}} (0.25 \text{ Y}_{1}^{*} + 0.009 \frac{C}{h})$$
 (20)

where Y₁ defines the inlet boundary layer losses.

Dunham's correlation [19] was also shown to be in good agreement with Came's experimental results.

In order to understand the physical nature of the secondary flow in a cascade, flow visualization studies have been carried out often in conjunction with pressure measurements. Rohlik and others [31] performed experiments on an annular turbine nozzle cascade using three different blade profiles. Detailed data were taken including surveys of total pressure and exit angle in the free stream, wake and boundary layer regions immediately downstream of the cascade. Flow visualization techniques included surface flow studies (by means of hydrogen sulfide and paint traces) and smoke flow studies. They showed clearly how low energy

1

air originating in the outer wall boundary layer was swept not merely onto the blade suction surface but all the way down the trailing edge towards the hub until it was finally discharged near the inner wall. In these cases, the tip secondary loss was very small and the hub secondary loss considerably larger. To what extent the profile loss was affected was not known. Herzig [32] and Turner [33] reported similar studies on annular cascades with the aim of explaining the fundamental aspects of the boundary layer flows in turbomachines.

Sjolander [34] performed experiments in an annular cascade of turbine nozzle guide vanes with two main objectives: firstly to try to develop a better understanding of the endwall boundary layer by a combination of flow visualization and experimental measurements and secondly to try to make the measurements sufficiently complete that they could be used as a test case for endwall boundary layer calculation schemes. He clearly demonstrated that even in a situation where the overall pressure gradients are strongly favourable, local areas of adverse pressure gradient could still result in boundary layer separations which had a significant influence on the rest of the flow.

Recently, Langston and others [35] carried out detailed measurements of the subsonic flow in a large scale plane turbine cascade (ϵ = 110°) to evaluate the three-

dimensional nature of the flow field. Flow visualization was done on the blade and endwall surfaces, and measurements were carried out at eight different axial planes through the cascade. The characteristics of the endwall boundary layer were presented showing that three-dimensional separation is an important feature of endwall flow.

2.4 Conclusions

After reviewing the state of the art on secondary flow, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- The growth of secondary vorticity in cascades and changes in outlet angles due to secondary flow, can be calculated reasonably well for weak shear flows and moderate deflections (say up to 80°).
- 2. Although the flow pattern associated with secondary losses is understood, the magnitudes of the losses are still open to discussion and verification.
- 3. Annular cascades with high deflection angles should be investigated to define the secondary flow parameters in turbine bladings.
- 4. More attention must be given to the measurement and calculation of wall boundary layers in cascades.
- 5. Finally it is necessary to broaden the applicability of the theoretical models so that they can be applied to multistage machines.

CHAPTER 3

1

THE ANNULAR CASCADE RIG

In order to meet many of the flow/conditions felt in a full amnular cascade with high turning angles, a unique three dimensional testing rig was designed [36] with the aim of carrying out detailed investigations of both free stream and secondary flows. In the basic design of the testing rig the following principles were laid down:

- 1. The design required an annular model to provide for the maximum conditions of similarity between the model flow and that which takes place in a twisted cylindrical passage i.e., the preservation of the radial flow component.
- 2. The largest possible model scale to be chosen in order to provide maximum room within the blade passages for detailed investigations of both flow and wall pressure distributions.
- 3. To provide uniform inlet flow conditions to the test section and to measure the influence of the inlet section on the downstream parameters.
- 4. To minimize the influence of the outlet section on the upstream conditions.

To achieve these goals, the inlet and exit sections had walls of the specific design shown in Fig. 3. Fig. 4

CAPTIONS FOR FIGURES 3 TO 9

- 1. The Bellmouth Entrance
- The Turning Cascade
- 3. The Plane Cascade
- '4. The Inlet Section
- 5. The Test Section
- 6. The Exit Section
- 7. Annular Traversing Segments
- 8. The Test Section Leading Edge
- 9. The Test Section Trailing Edge
- 10. The Plenum Chamber
- 11. Auxiliary Fan Speed Control
- 12. Barometer
- 13. Multitube Manometer for Blade Passage Pressure Measurements
- 14. Provision for Inlet Flow Control (Sec. 6.3)
- 15. Micromanometers for Both Main and Boundary Layer Flow Measurements
- 16. Gas Bottles for the Smoke Probe
- 17. Chambers for Future Boundary Layer Control

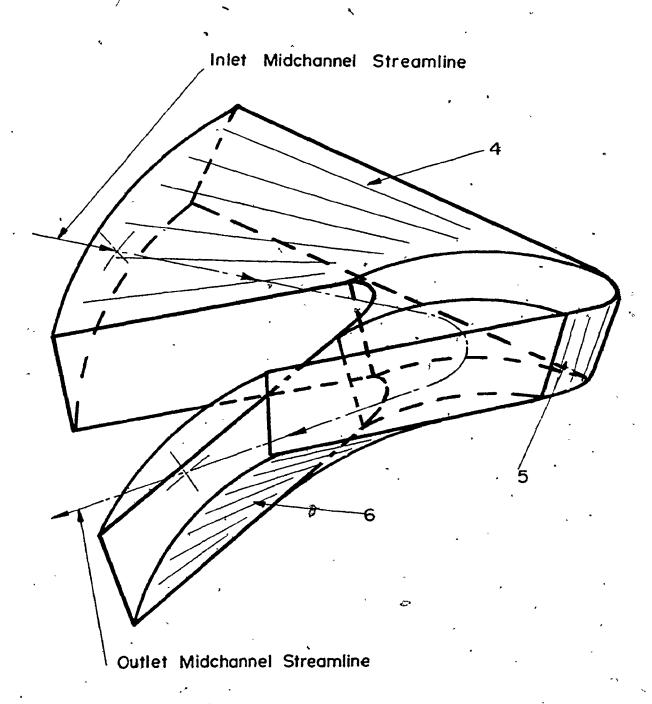
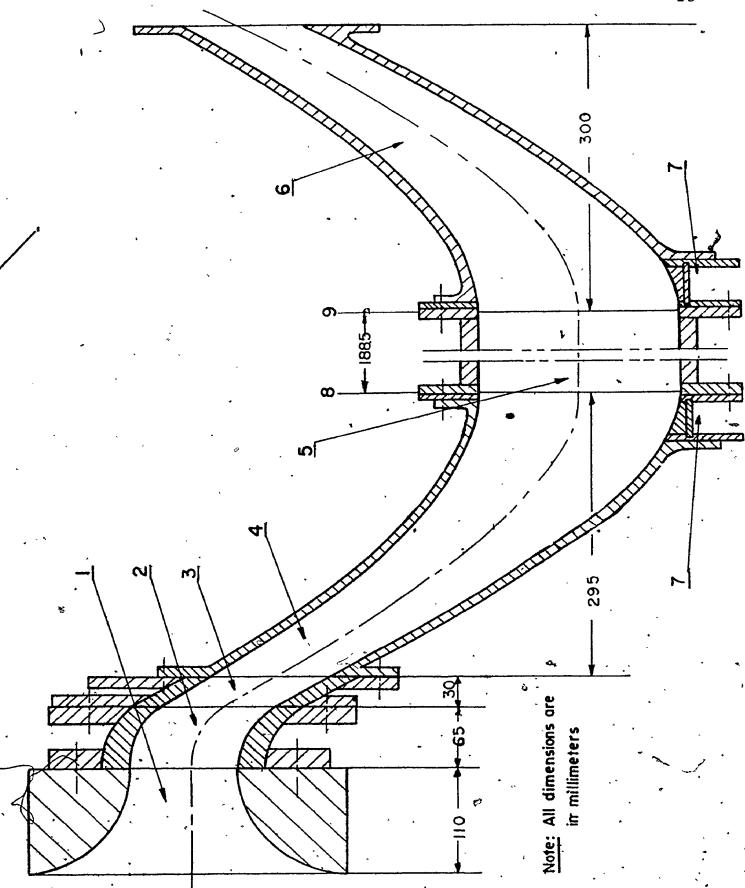


Fig. 3 The Inlet and Exit Section Walls



Plane of the Cross Section View of the Annular the Mid Channel Stream Tube. Cascade Rig Generated

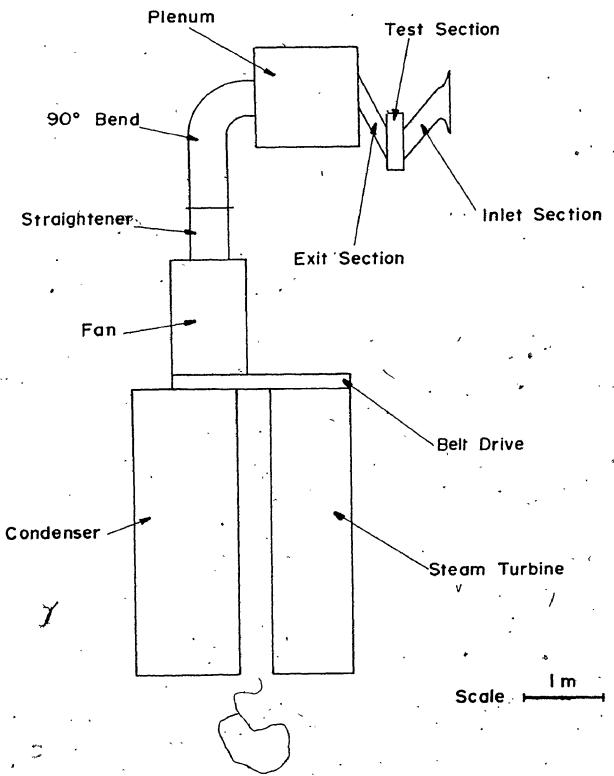
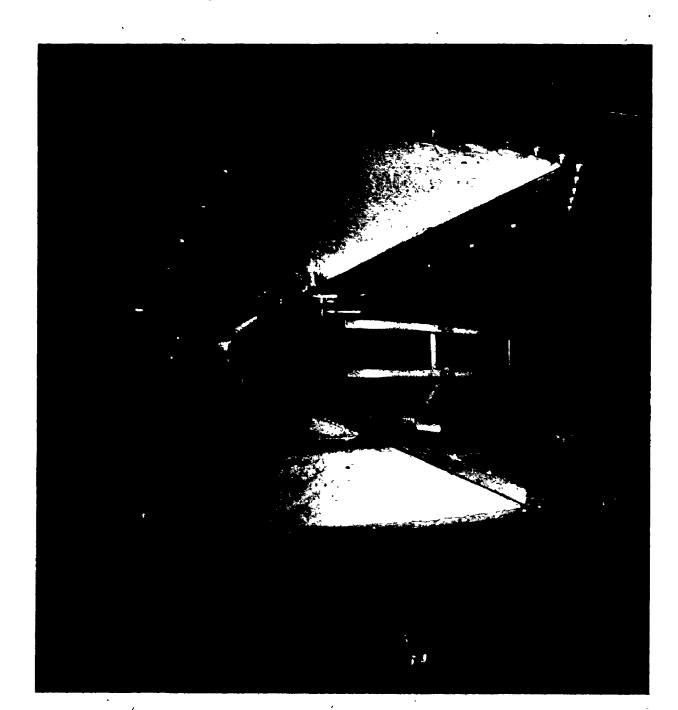


Fig. 5 Test Facility General Layout







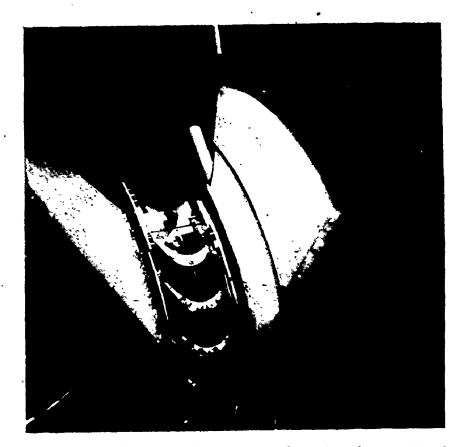


Fig. 8 The Annular Cascade Rig (Top View)

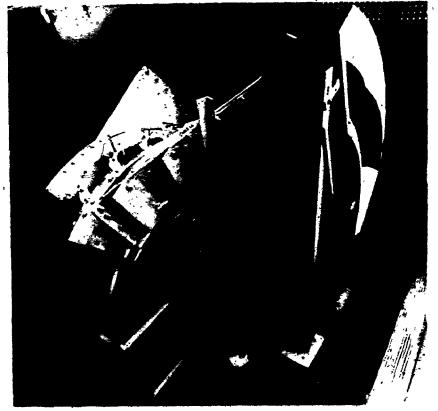


Fig. 9 The Cascade Rig Showing the Inlet Traversing Station.

is a cross-sectional view showing the test facility which consisted of three main parts:

- 1. An inlet section, including a bellmouth entrance and space for supplementary cascades, which provided a 64° inlet air angle.
- 2. A test section which was composed of a 45° segment of an annular cascade. The test section housed four blades circumferentially spaced at 15° with a turning angle of $128^{\circ}30^{\circ}$.
- 3. An outlet section which was connected to an exhauster fan.

Fig. 5 shows the test rig layout and Fig. 6 to 9 give views of the rig and the auxiliary equipment. A brief description of each part will be given in the following sections and detailed description of the rig can be found in Reference 36 and Appendix A.

3.1 <u>Test Rig Entrance</u>

The inlet of the test rig consisted mainly of a bell-mouth-entrance followed by a turning cascade and finally a plane cascade.

3.1.1 The Bellmouth Entrance

A bellmouth entrance (Fig. 10) was constructed out of wood to divert the flow to the inlet section. The bellmouth extended over an arc of 53° and had a wall radius of 100 mm.

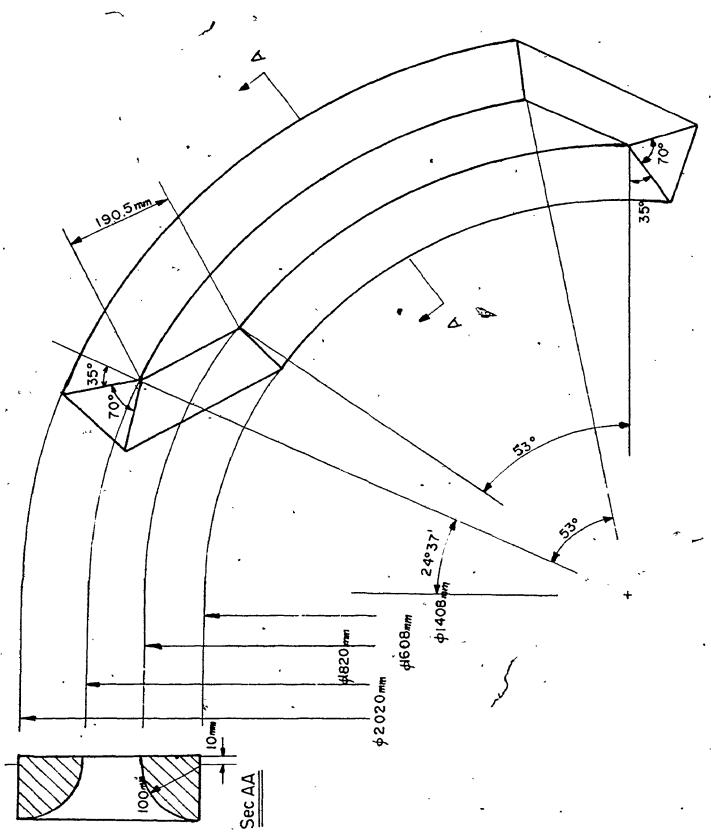


Fig. 10 The Bellmouth Entrance

3.1.2 The Turning Cascade

A turning cascade was designed with the object of turning the flow from the bellmouth section to an exit angle of 64°. This was achieved by means of 21 curved blades equally spaced on a circular arc of 53° (Fig. 11). The side walls of the turning cascade was manufactured out of wood by laminating wood sections and then contouring them to the proper dimensions.

3.1.3 The Plane Cascade

Following the turning cascade a plane cascade was provided with the main object of ensuring that the streamline surfaces were planes and inclined at 64° to a plane passing through the blade leading edge. This was done by introducing 21 flat blades (Fig. 12). The inner and outer walls of this cascade were in fact an extension of those of the inlet section (Fig. 4), but it was decided to make this part separate for ease of manufacture and to facilitate installing the blades. Similar to the turning cascade the outer walls of the plane cascade section were manufactured out of wood.

For rigidity reasons and to facilitate installation, it was decided to make the curved and plane blades as one piece fabricated from 1 mm aluminum sheet. Fig. 13 shows a typical blade composed of two sections, after being cut to size and rolled to the proper curvature.

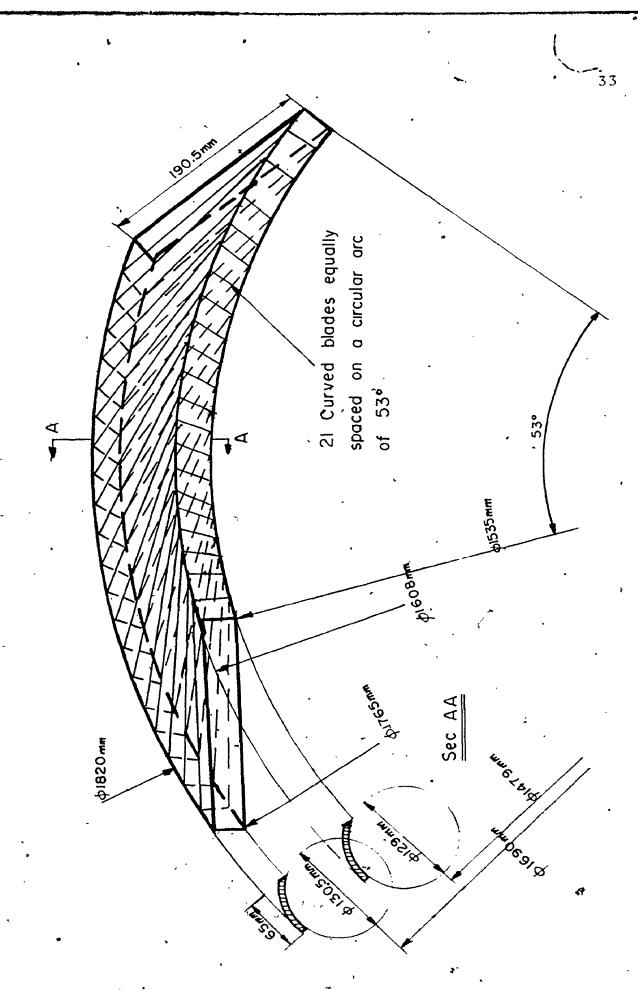


Fig. 11 The Turning Cascade Section

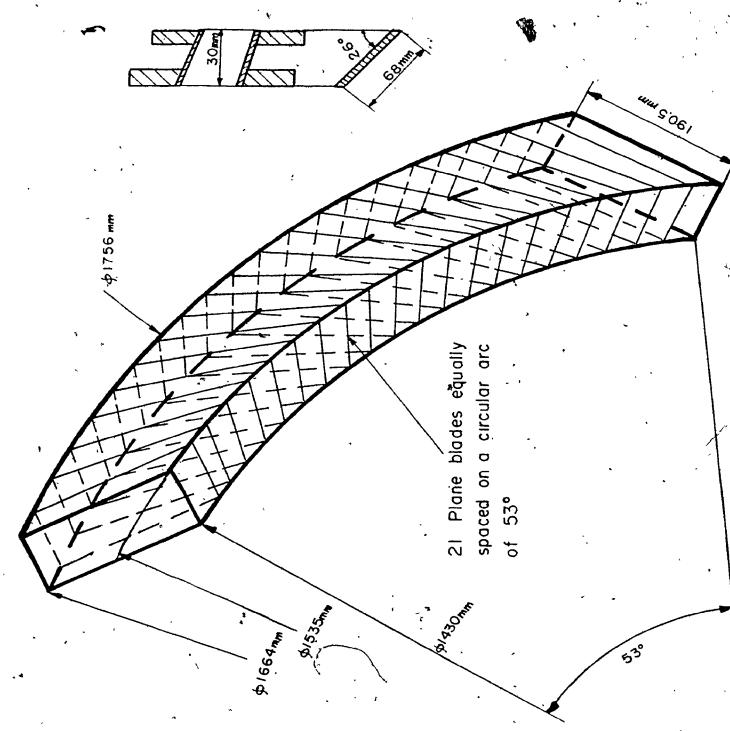


Fig. 12 The Plane Cascade Section

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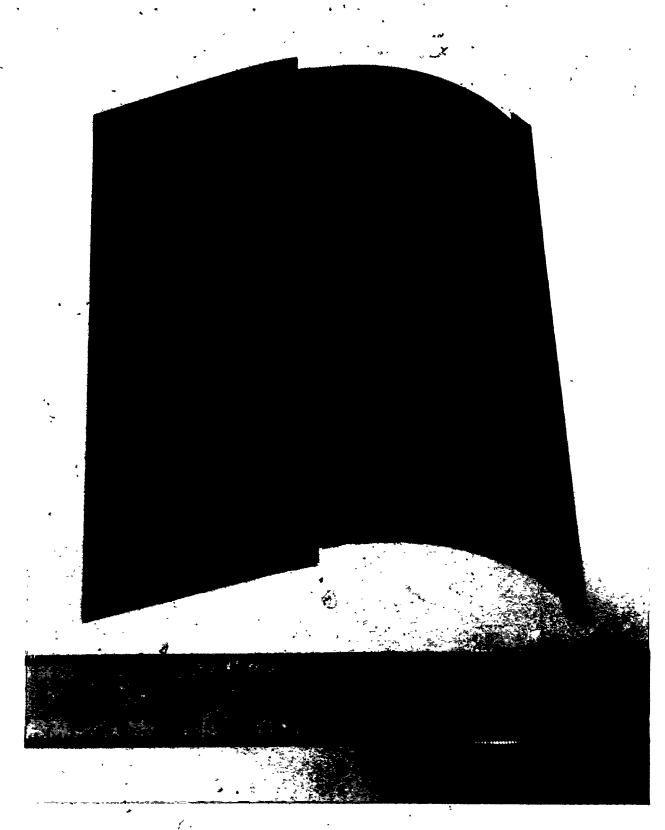


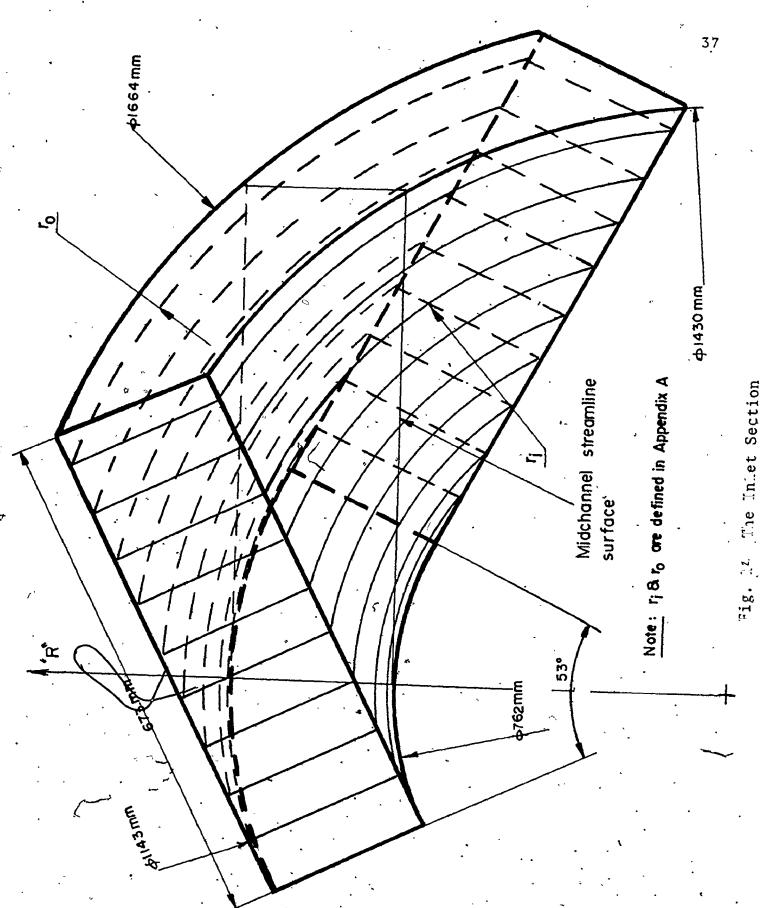
Fig. 13 Test Rig Entrance Blade

3.2 The Inlet Section

The inlet section was designed to produce uniform pressure, velocity and flow angle fields at the entrance of the cascade. In order to achieve this design the annular boundary walls of the inlet section were generated by the rotation of a rectangle, inclined at 64° to the leading edge plane, through an angle of 53°. The inlet section circumferential pitch (53°) was made larger than the test section circumferential pitch (45°) in order to reduce the side walls effect on the center blade passage (Fig. 14). It should be noted that the axial cross sections of the inlet passage were of equal areas.

Due to the complexity of the inlet section geometry, it was decided to manufacture a male mould first and then cover it with F.R.P.*. The inlet section plug was made out of layers of wood, which were cut oversize at each section of the inlet and stacked on top of each other in a certain fashion so as to represent a step oversize plug. The plug was then finished to the inlet section dimensions by a pattern maker. The F.R.P. cover (5 mm thick) was then made in three parts: an inner and an outer part to enable one to extract the plug and to facilitate surface finishing, and a 90° sliding annular segment designed to be part of the inner wall and used for inlet flow traversing (see Appendix A for a drawing of the inlet section flange).

^{*} Fibre Reinforced Plastic



3.3 The Test Section

The cascade test section, as shown in Fig. 15 to 17 was a 45° segment of an annulus with an inner radius of 381 mm, an outer radius of 571.5 mm and a length of 193.5 mm. The annular section consisted mainly of three blade passages (15° each), designed with the object of providing the proper working conditions in the center blade passage, within which the measurements were to be made. The geometrical parameters of the annular cascade section are given in Table 1. The test section consisted of the blades and the annular walls.

3.3.1 The Blades

The profile of the blades selected for testing was cylindrical and of the "flat-back" type in which the region of the blade suction surface downstream of the throat was flat (Fig. 18 and 19). This blade profile was designed by Malhotra [37] and used recently by Stannard [38] for two dimensional testing at high pressure ratios. Four blades were manufactured by the Division of Mechanical Engineering, National Research Council at Ottawa. Two blades which constituted the center blade passage were made out of clear acrylic plastic, and the other two, used as side walls, were made out of aluminum. After the blades were instrumented (Chapter 4), the end walls were contoured using a numerically controlled milling machine in the



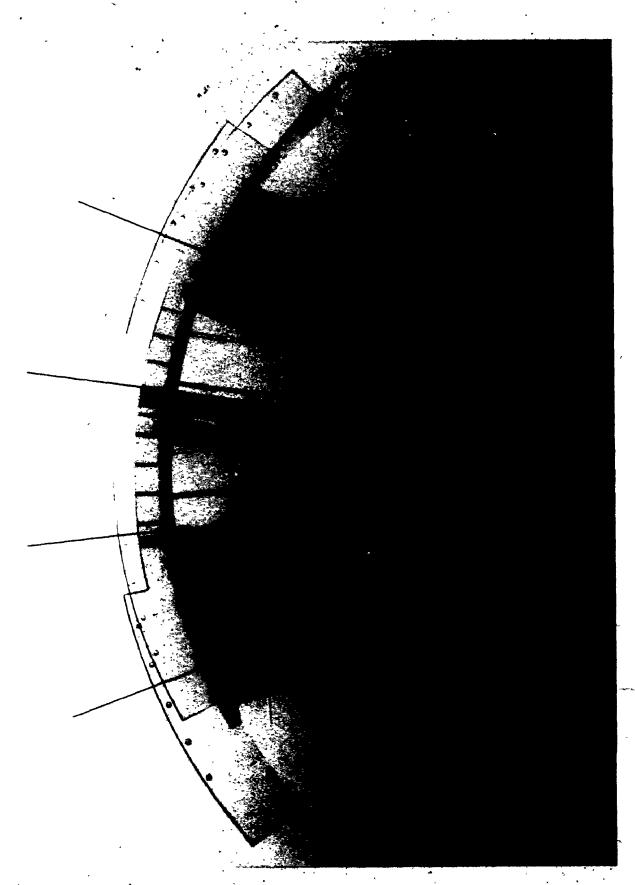


Fig. 16 Test Section Leading Edge

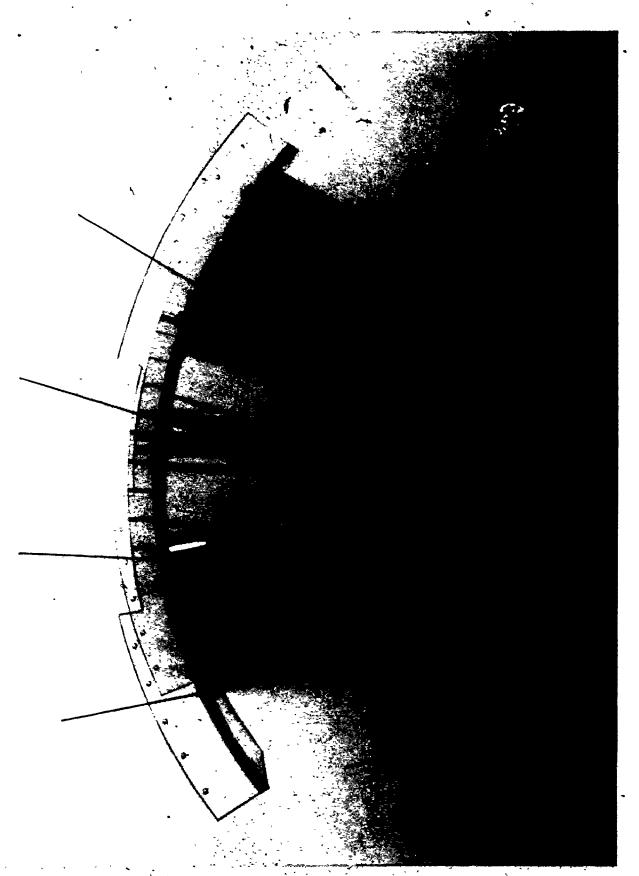


Fig. 17 Test Section Trailing Edge

Table I
Geometrical Parameters
of the Rig

Middle diameter to blade height ratio	5.0
Pitch to chord ratio at the middle diameter	- 0.66
Blade aspect ratio ,	1.0
Blade axial chord	188.5 mm
Blade turning angle	128 ⁰ 30'
Blade inlet angle	64 ^Q
Blade exit angle	64.5°
Blade Zweifel lift coefficient	1.0
$\{C_{LZ} = 2 \cos^2 \alpha_m \frac{S}{C} (\tan \alpha_1 - \tan \alpha_2)\}$	

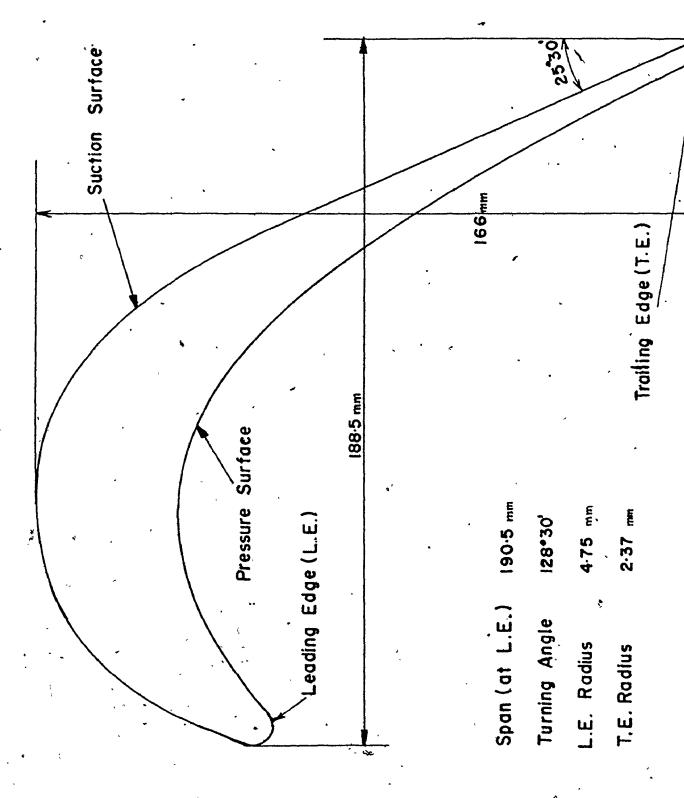
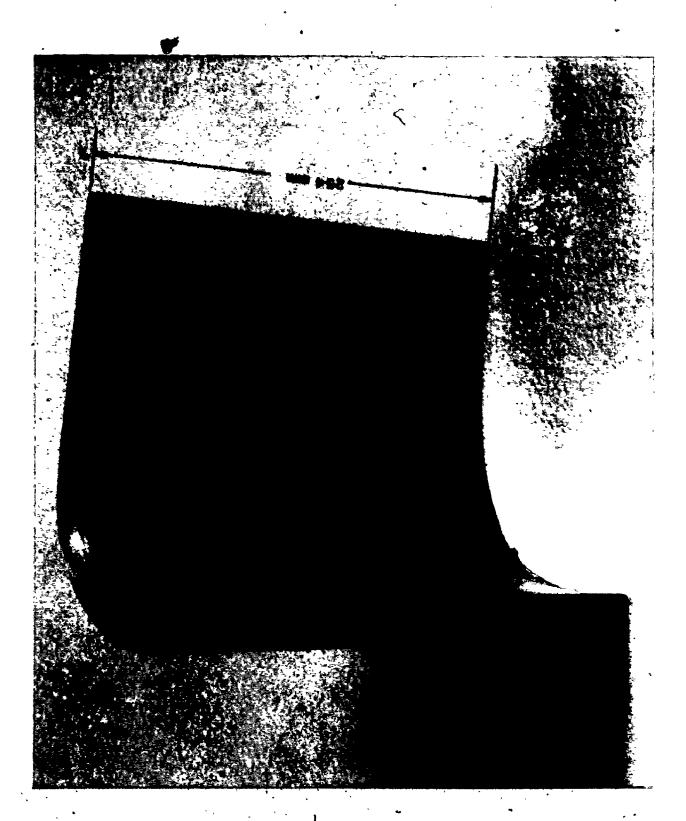


Fig. 18 The Blade Profile



11g. 19 The Annular (ascade Rig Blade

Canadian Institute of Metalworking at McMaster University.

3.3.2 The Annulus

In order to allow for observation of the flow within the test passage, the annulus walls of the cascade were manufactured from 12 mm clear acrylic plastic. Figs. 20 and 21 show the geometry of the annulus at the leading and trailing edge respectively. The passage center at inlet was chosen as the reference radial direction "R". The positioning of the blades into the annulus was made with the radial directions of the leading edge generatrixes lying in one vertical plane. As a result of this positioning, the trailing edges were tilted about 6.5° from the local radial direction at exit, and had a span of 196.5 mm compared with 190.5 mm at the leading edge.

A computer program was prepared in order to describe the test section geometry, i.e., blade coordinates, blade and wall intersections and passage area at each axial location. The results are given in Appendix B.

3.4 The Exit Section

The exit section was designed to provide a non-gradient stream of potential flow and a constant outlet angle along the radius (64.5°) . In order to achieve this design, the exit section walls were formed by the rotation of straight lines inclined at $64^{\circ}30$ ' to the trailing edge

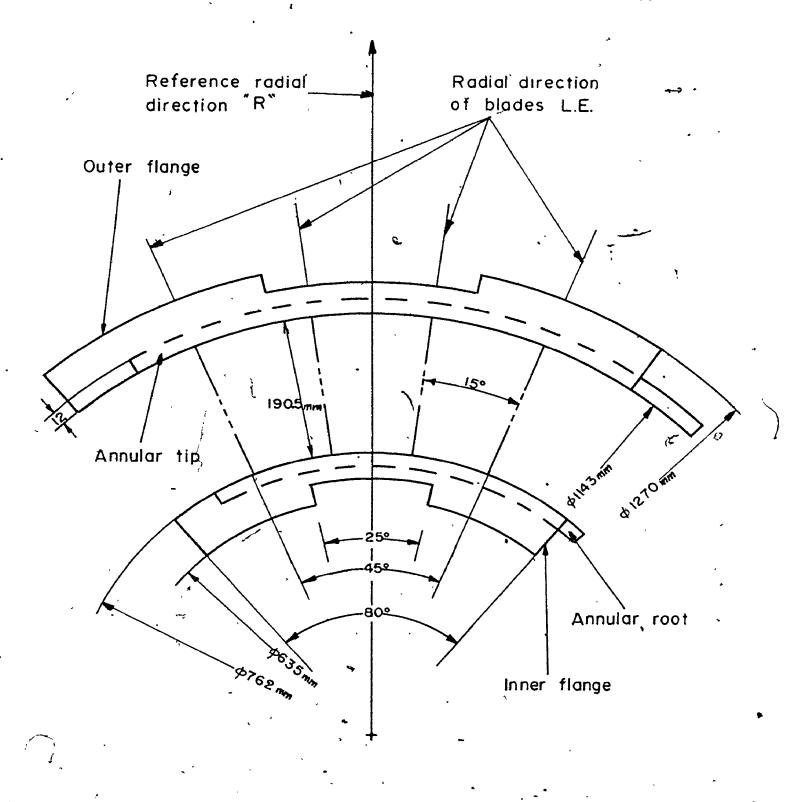


Fig. 20 Test Section Leading Edge Geometry

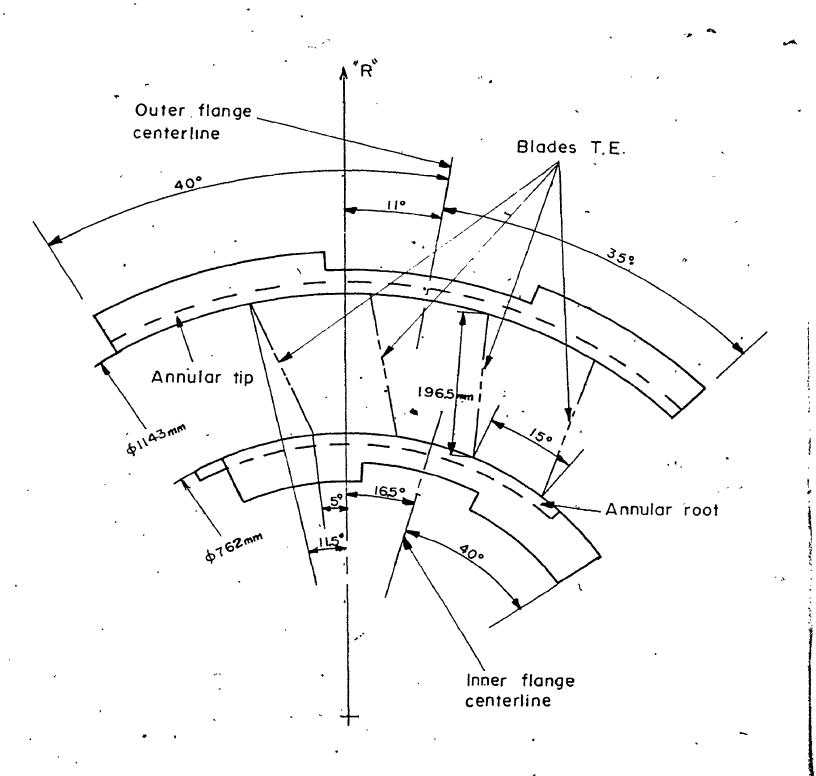


Fig. 21 Test Section Trailing Edge Geometry

plane (Fig. 22). The length of the exit section was such as to allow for the attainment of reasonably uniform flow parameters in the exit plane.

The exit section was manufactured with the same procedure described for the inlet section, except for the mould which was manufactured out of high density foam with the aid of the numerical control machine. However some difficulties were encountered with the foam construction method, especially when making the F.R.P. cover. In order to avoid these difficulties and to reduce time and cost, it was decided to construct the inlet plug (manufactured after the exit plug) out of wood by a pattern-maker (Sec. 3.2).

3.5 The Air Supply

exhauster fan capable of delivering 10920 c.f.m. of air against a 6 inch static head of water at 1282 r.p.m. and 18.6 B.H.P. The prime mover was a Greenwood and Batley steam turbine producing 20 H.P. at its maximum speed of 3000 r.p.m. The steam turbine was selected as the motive power due to the availability of the power transmission equipment and as experience had shown that it was capable of providing a nearly constant fan speed with variations less than 1% over runs of six hours duration. The fan speed was controlled by means of a Heenan and Froude water brake dynamometer

directly coupled to the turbine. To provide for a more efficient operation of the fan a straightener section with a by-pass control was fitted to the fan inlet. Due to floor space limitations, a sheet metal 90° bend was installed between the straightener and the plenum chamber. The plenum chamber (4x5x4 feet) provided the connection between the bend and the exit section of the test rig. The provision of the exit section of the test rig into the plenum chamber side, was made taking into consideration that it was approximately centered with respect to the circular opening provided for the 90° bend (Fig. 85 Appendix A). In order to isolate the test rig from vibrations, due to the power plant and fan, the exit section was connected to the plenum chamber through rubber joints and metal hold-down strips (Fig. 86, Appendix A).

CHAPTER 4

INSTRUMENTATION

In analysing the flow through a blade passage, the primary requirements are to define the static and total pressure fields within the passage and to measure or calculate the flow velocity and direction. Further information which tends to show global effects can often be obtained using flow visualization techniques.

The instrumentation provided for the three dimensional test rig can be divided into the following areas:

- . 1. Instrumentation of the blade passage.
 - 2. Instrumentation for mainflow traverses upstream and downstream of the cascade.
 - 3. Instrumentation for boundary layer traverses upstream and downstream of the cascade.
 - 4. Flow visualization instrumentation.

4.1 Blade Passage Instrumentation

A total of 130 static pressure taps were installed in the blades and annular surfaces forming the center blade passage. Some aspects of the blade passage instrumentation can be seen in Fig. 15. Fig. 23 defines the axial locations of the blades and annular walls static pressure taps.

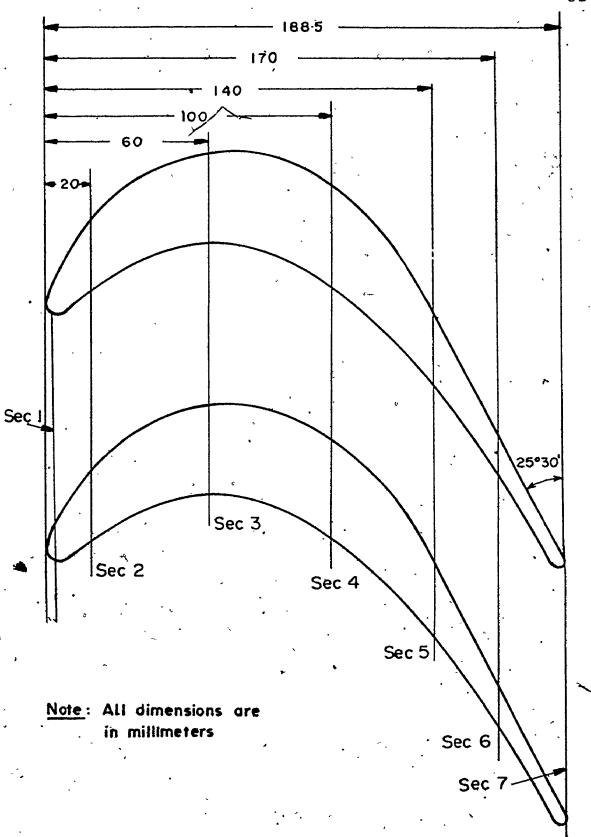


Fig. 23 Test Section Measuring Stations.

4.1.1 Blade Instrumentation

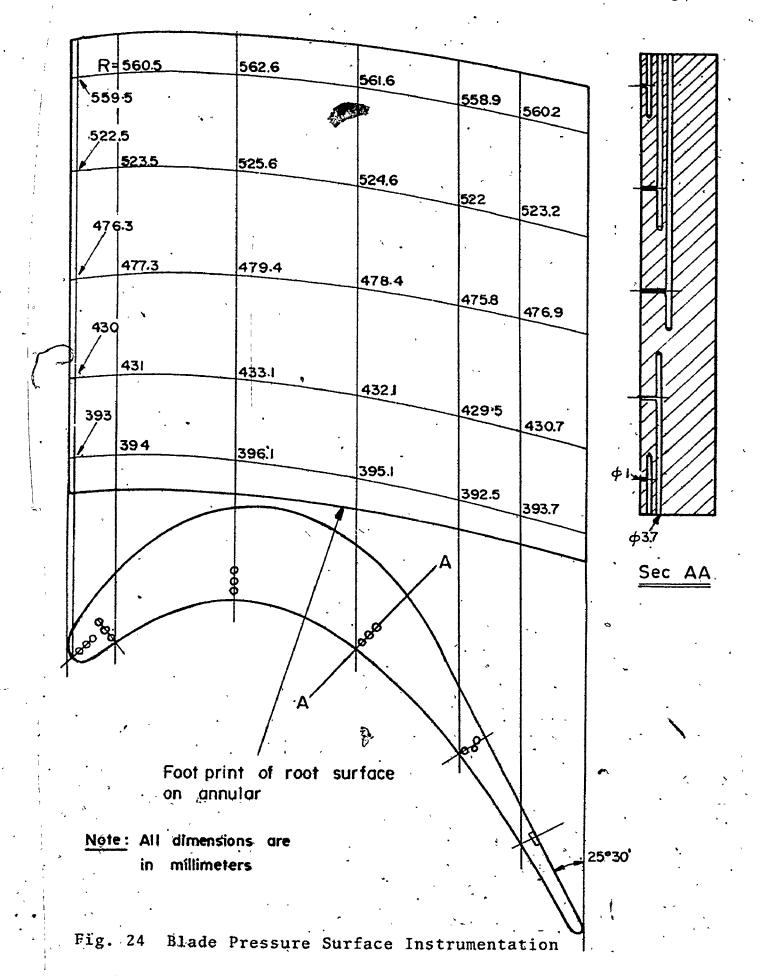
Static taps, 1 mm diameter, were drilled at the different measuring sections, perpendicular to one blade pressure surface and the next blade suction surface respectively according to the radial ordinates given in Figs. 24 and 25. The first measuring section, positioned so that the tap was installed on the blade leading edge, served for measuring the total pressure at the cascade inlet. The next five sections permitted the measurement of the pressures over the blade surfaces. The static pressure taps in sections 1 to 5 were then communicated to the root or tip surface of the blade through larger holes of 3.7 mm diameter (Sec. A.A, Fig. 24). Stainless steel tubes (50 mm long) were press fitted in each of these holes through corresponding holes drilled in the annular walls. At section 6, due to the small thickness of the blades, the pressure taps were communicated with grooves milled into the back of each blade surface. Hypodermic stainless steel tubes with a 1 mm diameter hole facing the pressure tap were bent, as shown in Sec. B.B, Fig. 25, and then cemented in the grooves. The surface of the blades was then refinished to its original contour.

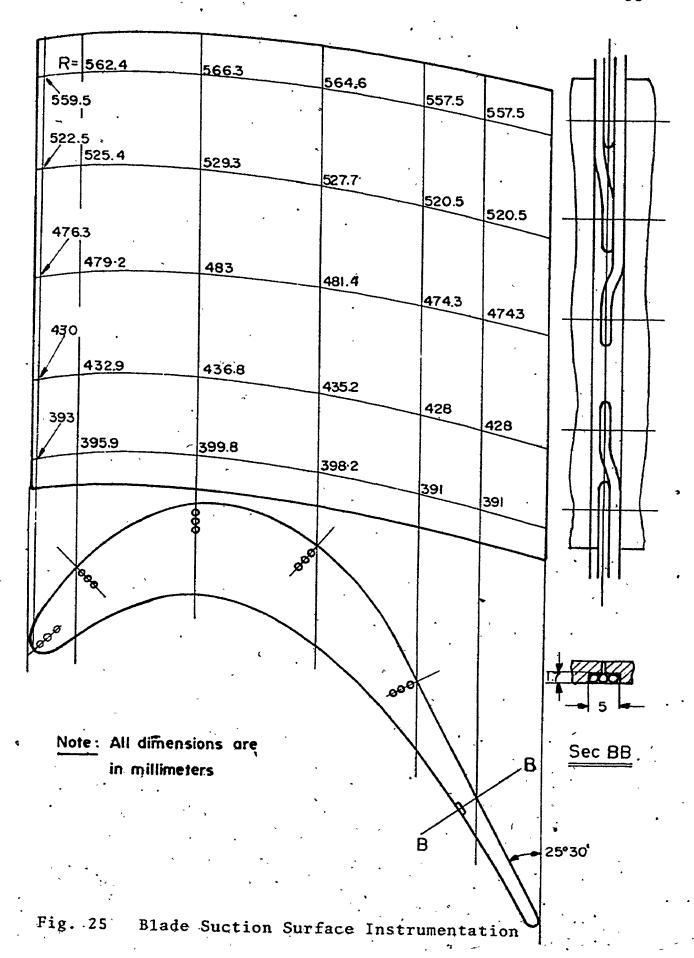
4.1.2 Annulus Instrumentation

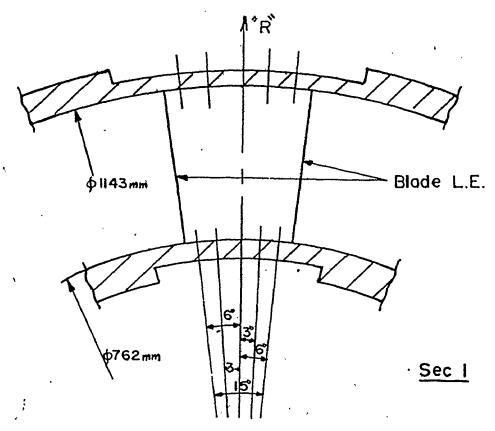
The angular positions of the static pressure taps

for the annular root and tip surfaces are shown in Fig. 26.

Continued on page 60.







Note: Please refer to Fig. 23 for the axial locations of sections 1 to 7)

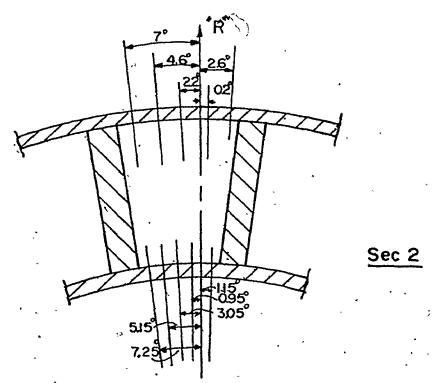
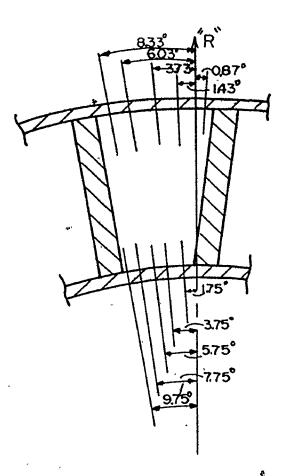


Fig. 26(a) Annular Wall Instrumentation



Sec 3

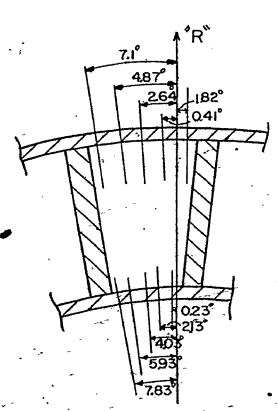
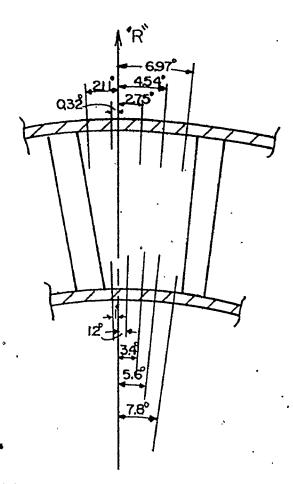
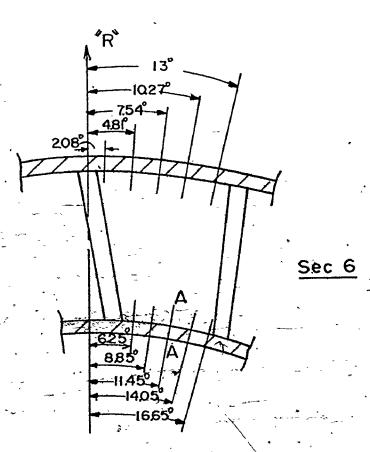


Fig. 26 (b)

Sec 4



*Sec 5





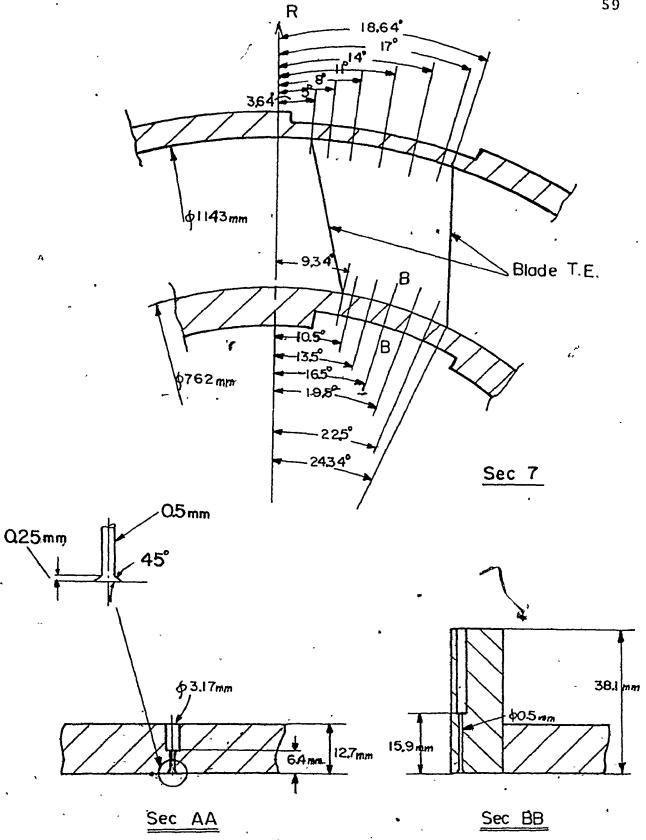


Fig. 26 (d)

All the locations are given with respect to the reference radial direction at the leading edge plane. The pressure taps provided for measuring sections 2 to 6 are shown in Sec. A.A of Fig. 26. Sec. B.B shows the tap installation at the leading and trailing edge plane.

All the stainless steel tubes, projecting through the cascade annular walls, allowed for a simple connection between the static pressure taps and a multitube water manometer*. The manometer capacity was limited to 36 tubes, while as stated previously, a total of 130 readings were necessary to define the pressure distribution within the blade passage. Therefore a scanning board was designed so that one could make the measurements in four stages. These included 35 readings on each of the annular walls and 30 readings on each of the blade surfaces. The steady state condition achieved by the power source permitted the measurement to be carried out in a continuous fashion with a negligible change in the flow conditions.

4.2 Main Flow Instrumentation

The main flow field measurements were made using a United Sensor three dimensional probe. The probe had a prism shaped sensing head with a diameter of 1/8 inch to

^{*} Model 10397 T.E.M. Instruments, Crawley, England.

^{**} Model DA-125

facilitate its entry into the test rig. The main body of the probe was made of 1/4 inch stainless steel tube for added strength and rigidity. The probe, shown in Fig. 27, was designed with five sensing taps. The first was a forward hole which measured total pressure accurately to ⁺ 1/2% over an angular range of ⁺ 10°. Two lateral pressure taps were used for measuring static pressure and yaw angle, and two pressure taps above and below the center hole were used for the measurement of pitch angle up to - 40°. Flow measurements with the three dimensional probe were performed By rotating the probe axis until the pressure indicated by the side holes were equal. The yaw angle was then measured from a suitable reference direction. The center hole, the two pitch holes and one of the yaw hole pressures were then recorded. By means of the calibration curve supplied by the manufacture (Appendix C), the pitch angle, total pressure and static pressures were calculated. . It should be noted with reference to the calibration chart that the total pressure reading was insensitive to pitch angle variation up to + 30°.

The traversing gear used, shown in Fig. 27, allowed both a linear and a rotation motion. The linear motion with a range of 250mm and an advance of 0.05 inch per revolution was used to traverse the flow radially. A turntable with a 360° travel and an accuracy of $\frac{1}{2}$ 0.2° was used to measure the yaw angle. In order to traverse the main flow upstream and downstream

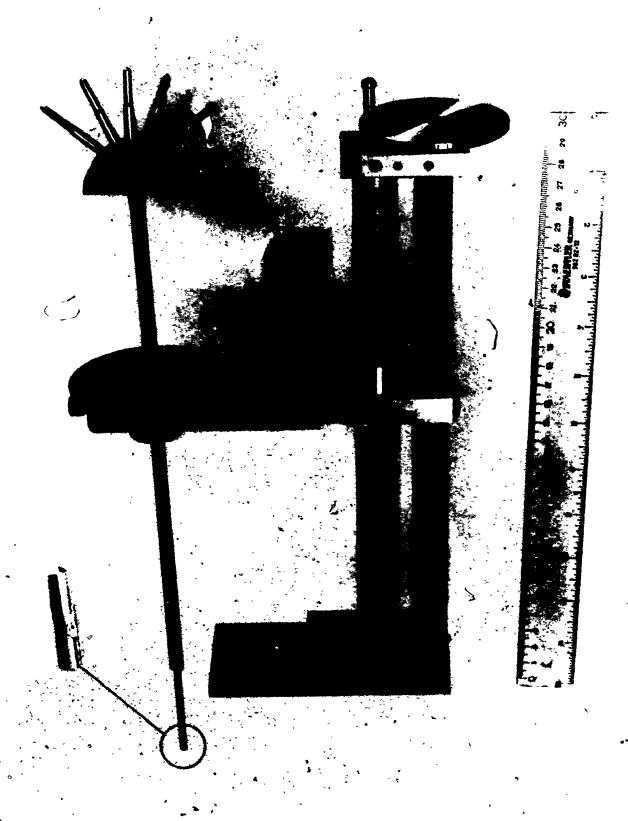


Fig. 27 The Traversing Gear and the Three-Dimensional Probe

of the cascade, the traversing mechanism was mounted on the sliding annular segment in the inlet and exit section flanges (See Figs. 83 and 84, Appendix A). By moving the sliding segment, the flow parameters could be traversed in the circumferential direction up to $\frac{1}{2}$ 25° with a 0.5° increment. Pressure measurements were made by means of three micromanometers having oil as the working fluid (specific gravity 0.826), which could read accurately to .001 inch of oil.

4.3 Boundary Layer Instrumentation

Special boundary layer probes were designed and constructed in order to measure the boundary layer thicknesses on the inner and outer walls, upstream and downstream from the cascade. Fig. 28 shows the probes which were made by. sliding small hypodermic stainless steel tubes into each other to obtain the desired reduction in area and shape without sacrificing rigidity. The tip of each probe was flattened and the crank-like design of the probe head was used to reduce stem and support effects on the measurements. Because of the wall effect, boundary layers are far more sensitive in this regard than free stream flows. Pressure taps were drilled in the wall of the inlet section in the same plane as the tip of the probe to measure wall static pressures. The total and static pressures were combined to yield the boundary layer velocity profile. For the exit

Note: All dimensions are in millimeters

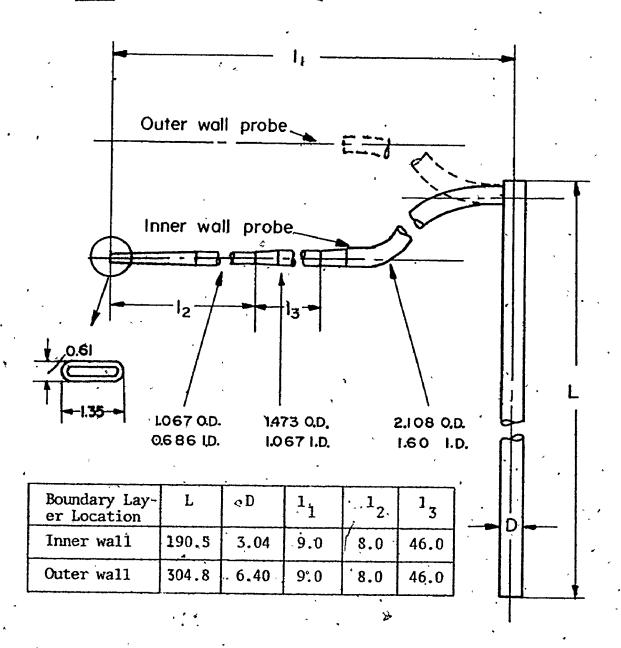


Fig. 28 Boundary Layer Probe

section, static taps in section 7 (Fig. 23) were used for this purpose. The boundary layer traverses were made employing the same traversing mechanism and manometer used for the main flow measurements.

4.4 Flow Visualization Instrumentation

The flow visualization was performed by means of a low speed smoke probe (Fig. 29) designed by the Low Speed Aerodynamic Laboratory at The National Aeronautical Establishment in Ottawa (Ref. 39).

The probe was designed so that two jets one of anhydrous ammonia and the other of sulphur dioxide gas were emitted from the probe at approximately 90° to each other. The gas jets mixed in the free air just beyond the probe tip to produce a dense white cloud of ammonia sulphite smoke. This smoke generator was easily controlled and adjusted on or off by needle valves installed in the gas lines. The probe was installed in the same position used for mainflow and boundary layer instrumentation at the cascade inlet. Due to the toxic nature of the produced smoke, precautions were taken to adequately ventilate the testing area.

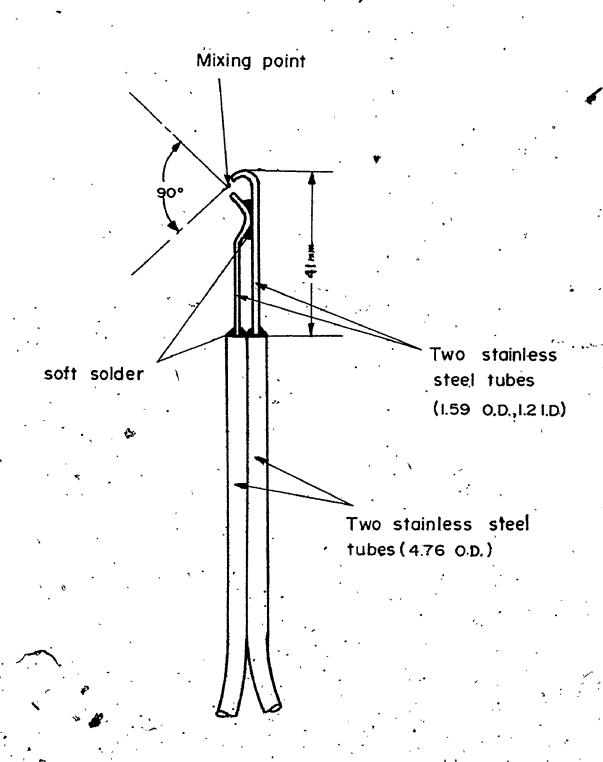


Fig. 29 The Smoke Probe

CHAPTER 5 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

In this chapter a brief outline of the experimental methods and the scope of the measurements will be given.

5.1 Vibration Tests

The dynamic stability of the annular cascade rig, especially at the test section (made of acrylic plastic), was analysed at different fan speeds. Using a dynamic pick-up coupled to a microphone amplifier and to a Fourier Analyser, it was possible to measure the frequency and amplitude of vibrations at the test section in the x, y and In the original installation it was found that the amplitude of vibration in the axial direction was about 0.19 mm at a fan speed of 700 r.p.m. The vibrations' in the rig appeared to be periodic in nature and to be generated by some flow instability in the system. 'This' flow induced vibration was traced to the 90° bend downstream of the plenum chamber. Further investigation showed that, by allowing some air to flow in the by-pass located at the entrance to the fan, the amplitude of vibrations was reduced by a factor of 5.7 for the same general operating conditions. With this simple adjustment the operation of

the cascade rig was very stable at all available test speeds.

5.2 Cascade Inlet Operating Speeds

With the by-pass in operation, the cascade inlet velocity range was 23 m/s to 47 m/s corresponding to a fam speed range from 600 to 1300 r.p.m. These operating speeds gave a R_N based on the blade chord of $3x10^5$ to $6x10^5$. It should be noted that, in the technical literature the range of R_N for secondary flow investigations is normally between 10^5 and 10^6 . Tests showed that the power source and the fam stability were such that for continuous runs of six hours duration the fam speed did not change more than 1% with a negligible effect on the inlet flow conditions

5.3 Inlet and Exit Measuring Stations

The inlet and exit flow conditions were obtained at two traverse stations located at a distance of 27.5 mm upstream and downstream of the cascade test section. It should be recalled that in the present test configuration two sliding annular segments were provided to perform these traverses (see Appendix A). Figs. 30 and 31 defined the measuring stations, the circumferential traversing locations and the footprints of the leading and trailing edge of the blades in the corresponding measuring stations. Standard practice dictated that the inlet measure-

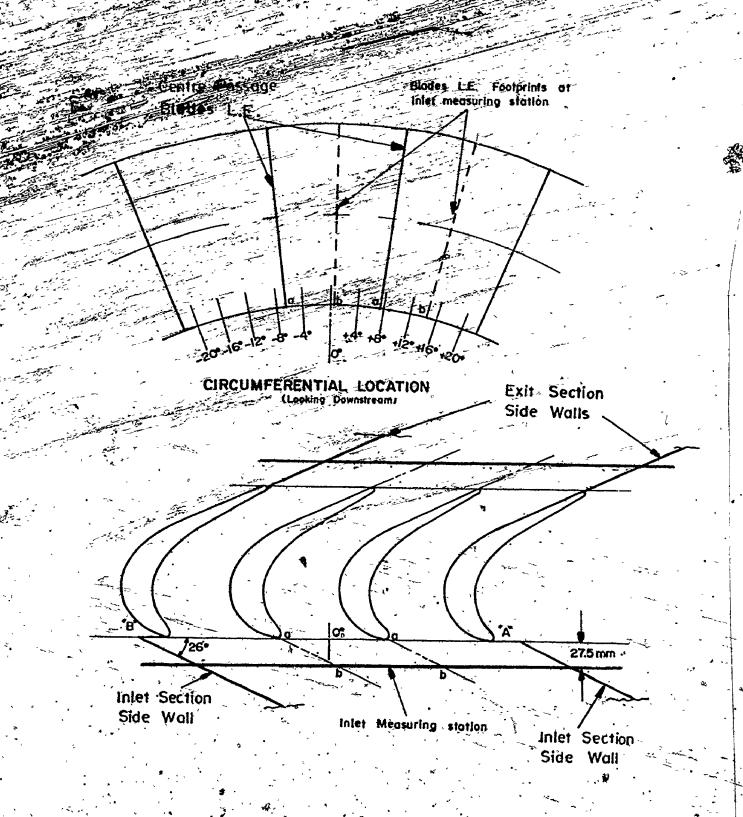
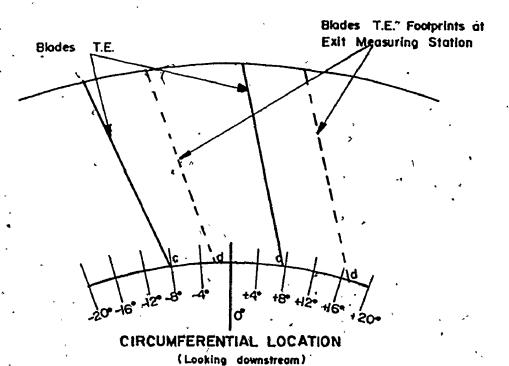
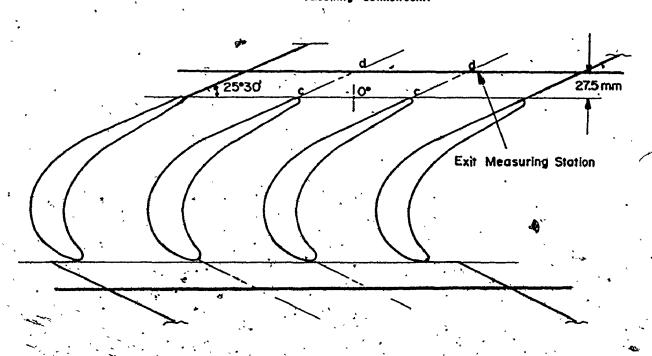


Fig. 30 The Inlet Measuring Station





ments should be taken at a distance of at least two leading edge radii upstream of the cascade (the L.E. radius for the present cascade was 4.75 mm), or in a region where the flow was undisturbed by the leading edge effect. The measuring stations in the present test rig were selected taking into account the complexity of the geometry of both the inlet and exit sections. Further intrusion of the measuring stations into the inlet and exit sections would have eliminated the possibility of providing a measuring station which could accurately scan in a radial direction at a constant circumferential position.

5.4 Scope of the Tests

The annular cascade tests can be summarized as follows:

- (i) For a fan speed of 700 r.p.m., a complete set of radial and circumferential inlet flow traverses were obtained in order to define the effect of the leading edge on flow parameters and to find the optimum inlet conditions to the center blade passage. This work is described in Chapter 6.
- (ii) The pressure distributions over the center blade passage which were formed typically of two blades and two annular surfaces were measured. The results which are given in Chapter 7 are presented in terms of pressure contours and pressure variations along both the span and the chord of

the cascade.

- (iii) For three different speeds covering the fan operating range, complete inlet and exit main flow, and boundary layer traverses were carried out. The inlet flow parameters were defined and contours of exit total pressure losses and flow angles were derived. The spanwise variations of the exit flow parameters and pressure losses in the cascade were calculated and are presented in Chapter 8.
- (iv) The results of flow visualization tests using smoke injected at the inlet measuring station into the cascade are also described in Chapter 8.

CHAPTER 6

DETERMINATION OF THE INLET FLOW TO THE CASCADE

In any wind tunnel investigation, the quality of the flow in the working section determines the degree of confidence which could be placed on the experimental measurements. This was particularly true in the present tests since it was known that secondary flow generated by highly curved turbine blades was very sensitive to inlet flow conditions. At the entrance to the testing cascade the inlet flow conditions called for uniform pressure, velocity and flow angle fields in both the radial and circumferential directions.

The main objectives of the inlet flow study presented in this chapter, were twofold:

- 1. To determine the optimum inlet conditions utilizing those experimental measures which have been designed into the test rig, in order to effect adjustments of the flow parameters at the inlet section to the cascade.
- 2. To define the upstream influence of the blade leading edges on the circumferential flow field.
- Fig. 30 in Chapter 5, defined the inlet measuring station and the circumferential traversing locations. The flow yaw angle used in this chapter has been taken to be

the angle between the flow direction and the leading edge plane (i.e., 90° - α).

The graphical representation of the experimentally measured data in this chapter includes smoothly drawn curves which are considered to represent average values of the parameter at each location.

6.1 Yaw Angle Distribution

With the aid of the three-dimensional probe, traverses were made at different radial and circumferential positions to obtain the yaw angle distribution. In the radial direction the flow angle appeared to vary at most over a range of $^{+}$ 2° across the annulus (Fig. 32). circumferential direction the yaw angle varied periodically. for all radii as shown in Fig. 33. It could be noticed from this variation that the peaks corresponded to positions traversed across the footprint of the blade leading edges and the valleys coincided with the center of the blade passages. A more complete circumferential traverse of yaw angle is shown in Fig. 34 at midradius. yaw angles measured at a circumferential position of 24° (Point A, Fig. 30) with respect to those measured at a position of -120 (Point B, Fig. 30) were caused by the difference in the geometry of the two side walls.

The leading edge effect on yaw angles was verified by means of a two-dimensional analysis carried out with the

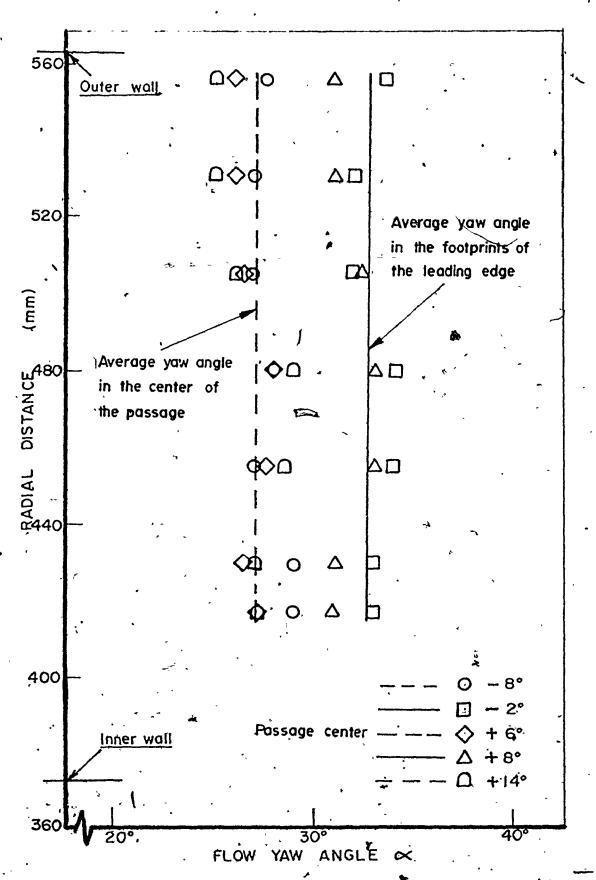
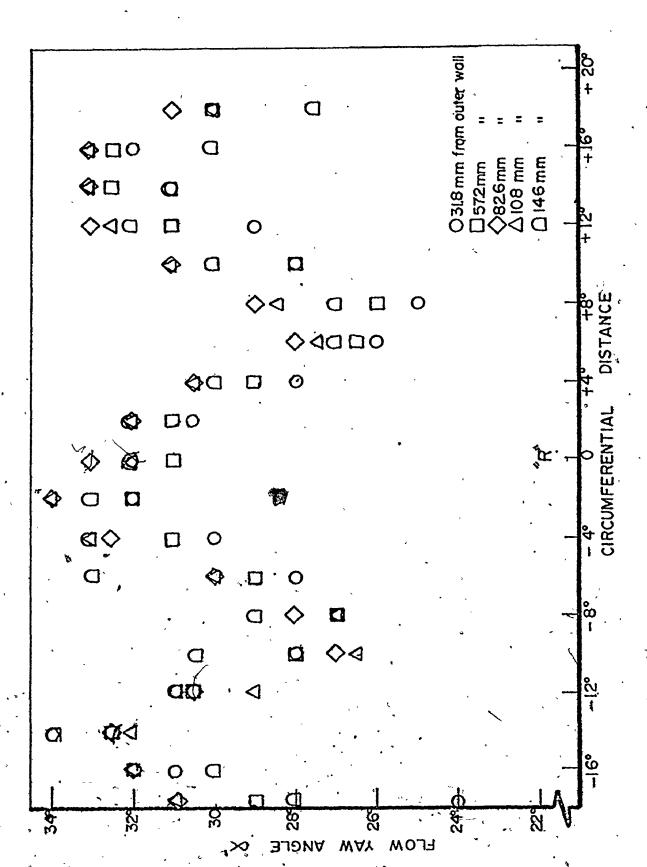


Fig. 32 Radial Distribution of Yaw Angle.

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Circumferential Distribution of Flow Yaw Angl

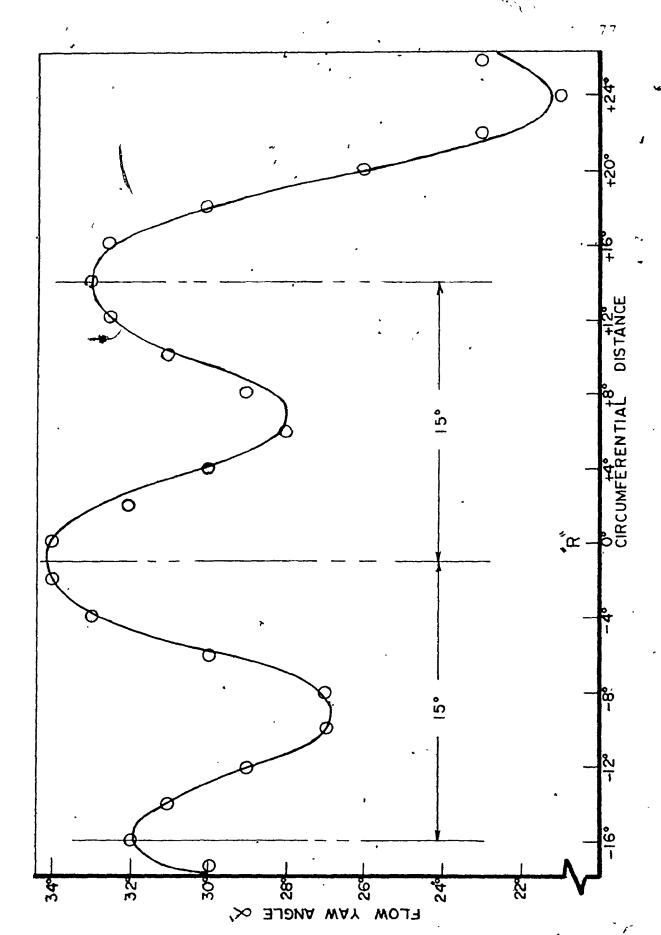


Fig. 34 Circumferential Distribution of Flow Yaw Angle at Midradius.

and of a potential field plotter employing carbon coated paper and silver paint. The equipotentials were drawn at midradius geometry as shown in Fig. 35 and the flow angles measured by drawing perpendiculars to the equipotentials at the inlet measuring station. The potential flow angle distribution (Fig. 36) agreed quite well with the experimental vaw angle.

6.2 Inlet Velocity Distribution

Figures 37, 38 and 39 show the flow velocity distribution in the radial and circumferential directions. In the radial direction a negative velocity gradient was found from the inner wall to the outer wall (Fig. 37). The curves in Fig. 37, which indicated typical average values have not been extended into the wall areas because the three dimensional probe did not have the same degree of accuracy when used near the walls of which it was capable when used in the free stream. Fig. 38 shows the circumferential distribution of velocity at different radii. The effect of the leading edge on velocity was to decelerate the flow in the positions across the footprints of the blade leading edges, thus giving a cyclic velocity variation similar to the one obtained for the yaw angles. A more complete circumferential velocity distribution is given in Fig. 39 at midradius. It can be seen that a circumferential velocity gradient existed between the two side walls and once again

^{*} to solve Laplace's Equation for 2-D imcompressible flow.

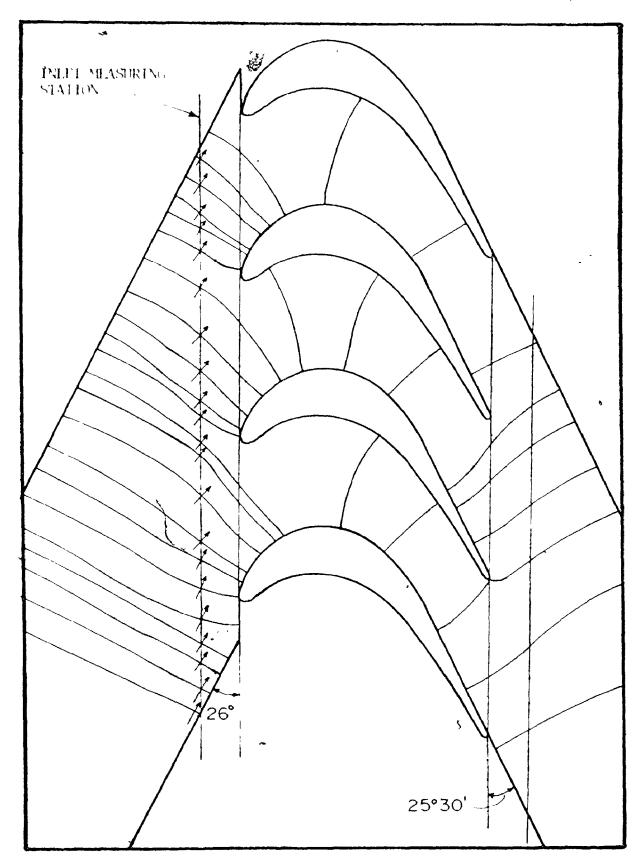
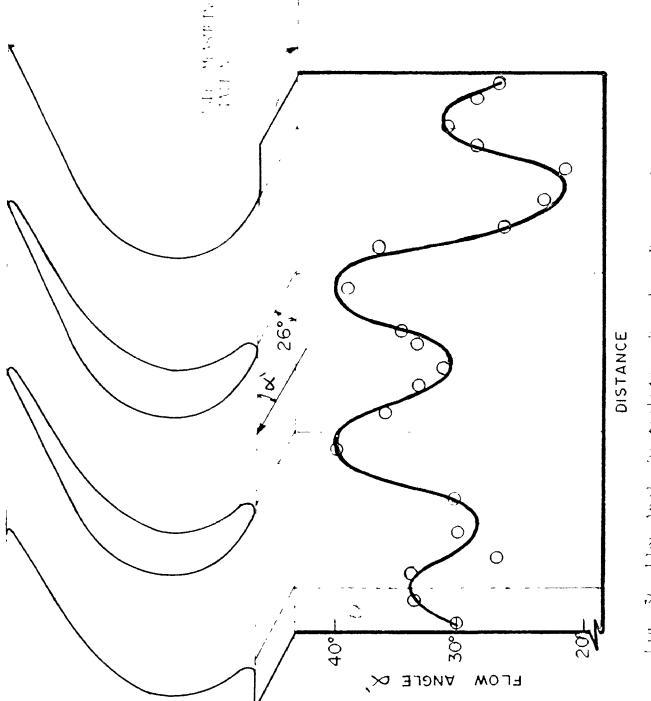
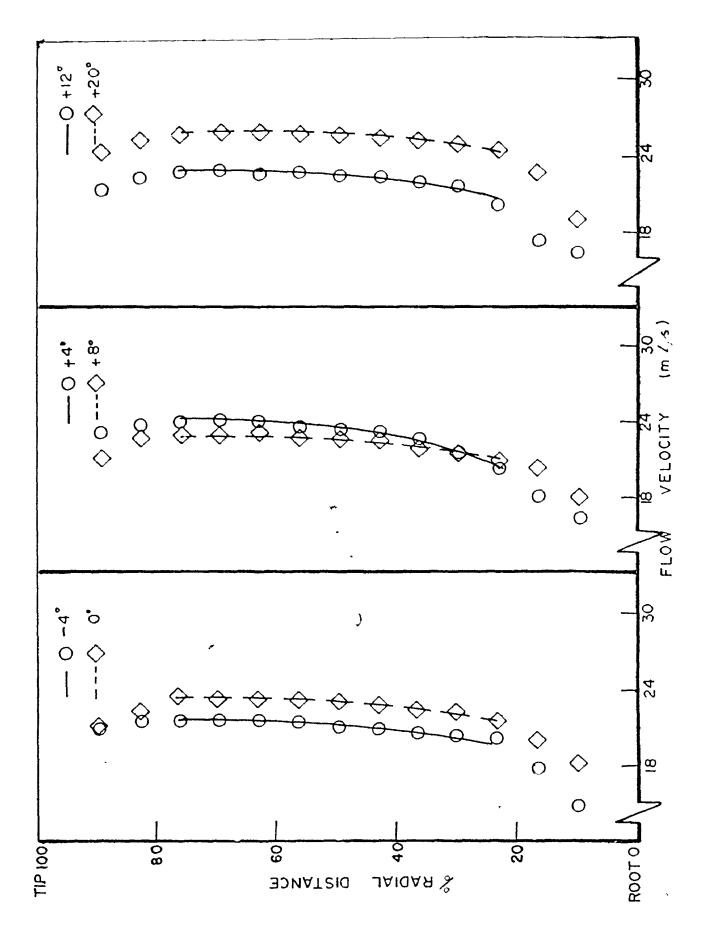


Fig. 35 Inlet Section Equipotentials at Midradius (Obtained With a Single Source and Sink for the Unadjusted Flow at the Inlet.



11g. 3c. How Angle Su tribution Based on Potential How Solution.



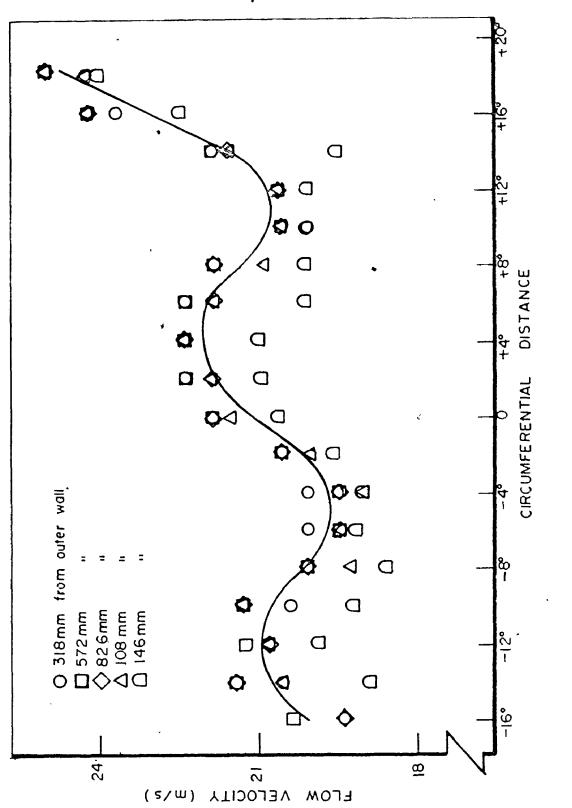
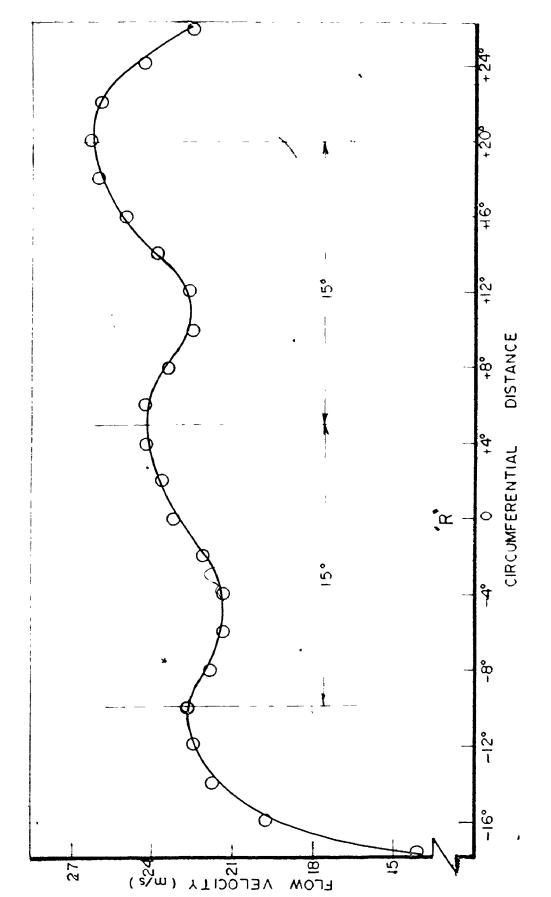


Fig. 38 Circumferential Distribution of Vilocity at Different Radii.



11g. 39 Circumferential Distribution of Velocity at Midradius,



the peaks and vallevs produced by the blade leading edges.

The radial and circumferential gradients in velocity were probably due to the three dimensional turning of the flow in the inlet turning cascade resulting in higher velocities at the larger radii. This corresponded to the outer wall in the radial direction, and to side wall \(\frac{1}{2}\) (Fig. 30) in the circumferential direction. The effects of the adjustments of the inlet section geometry, which were carried out to produce more uniform flow conditions at the cascade inlet, are presented in the following sections.

6.3 Circumferential Adjustment of the Velocity

The circumferential velocity gradient adjustment was carried out using a porous plate suction technique in one of the sliding side walls located at point B (see Fig. 30). These sliding side walls are shown in Fig. 83 of Appendix A, and were constructed at both points A and B so that a 40 gap could be used for either suction or blowing purposes. Experiments showed that it was not necessary to introduce a mean of flow control at point A. A variable speed Sheldon PH-1A exhauster was used to obtain the necessary pressure differential. The fan had a capacity of 525 cubic feet of air per minute against a 20.8 inch static head of water at 3500 r.p.m. absorbing 3 B.H.P. Initially 250

holes with a diameter of 2 mm were drilled on a triangular pitch in the sliding side wall over which a plenum chamber was constructed. A 50 mm diameter flexible hose connected the plenum chamber to the exhauster fan. (See Fig. 6)

9

Several meth of flow suction were tried and the results have been summarized in Figs. 40 to 43. Figs. 40 and 41 show the effect of suction on the vaw angle and on the velocity at midradius. Suction was obtained using 5" and 13.5" water differential pressure across the perforated plate. As expected the effect of suction was to decrease the yaw angle and the velocity gradient between the inlet section side walls. Fig. 42 compares the effect of suction on velocity by means of the perforated plate and a slot opening for the same dafferential pressure. The slot suction was produced by closing off the holes and sliding the side wall to the desired slot area. It can be seen that increasing the open area improved the circumferential velocity distribution, and that the perforated plate suction effect, with a hole area of 0.7×10^{3} mm², was almost identical to the slot suction effect with an open area of 1.9×10^3 mm². Fig. 43 shows the combined effect of suction and blockage on the velocity distribution. Inlet flow blockage was done by means of closing off the last three inlet vane passages located at the bellmouth entrance. It can be seen that the combination of suction and blockage produced almost constant peak velocities in the three test section

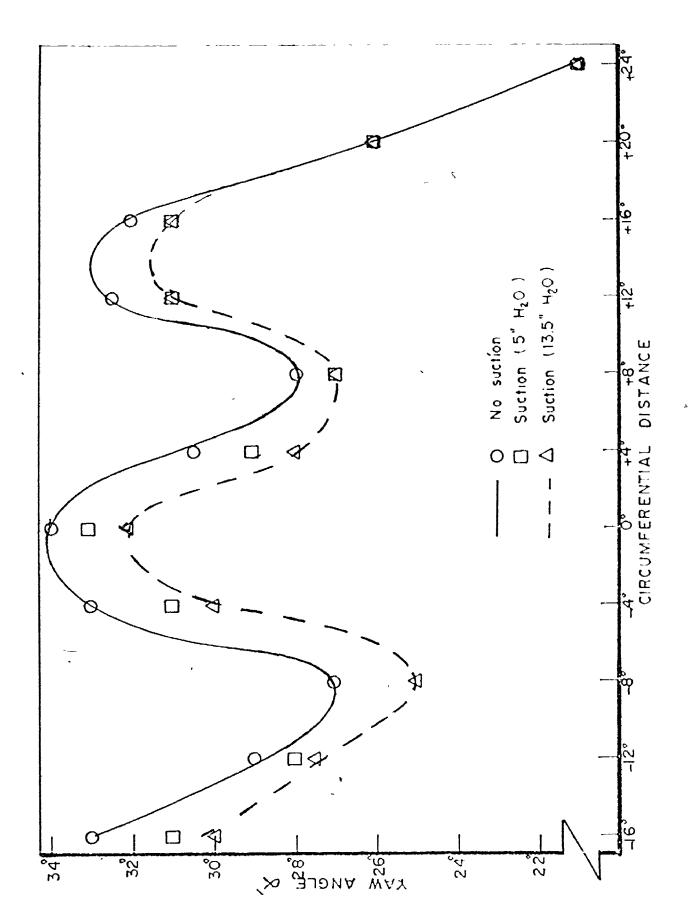
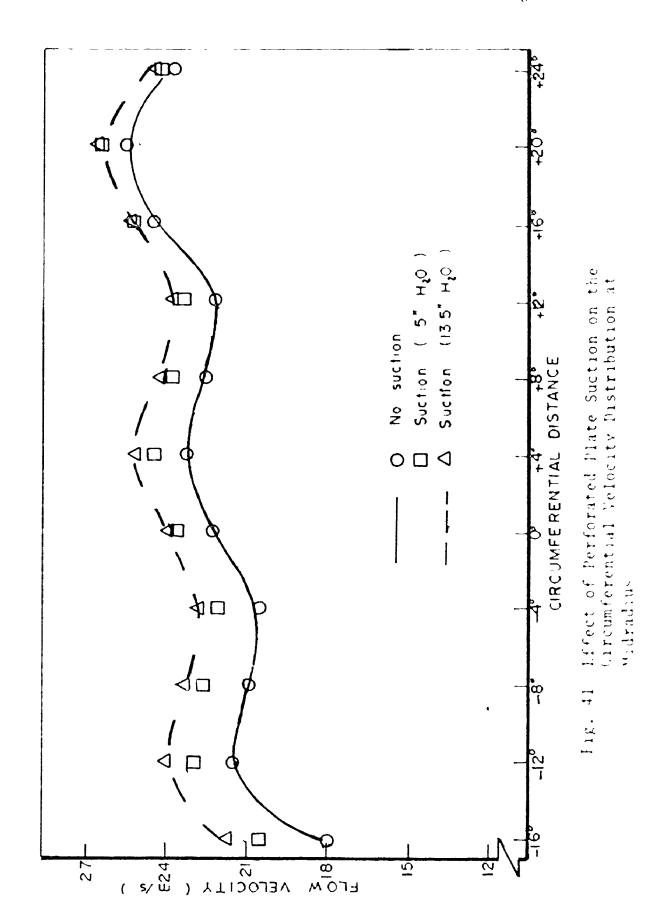
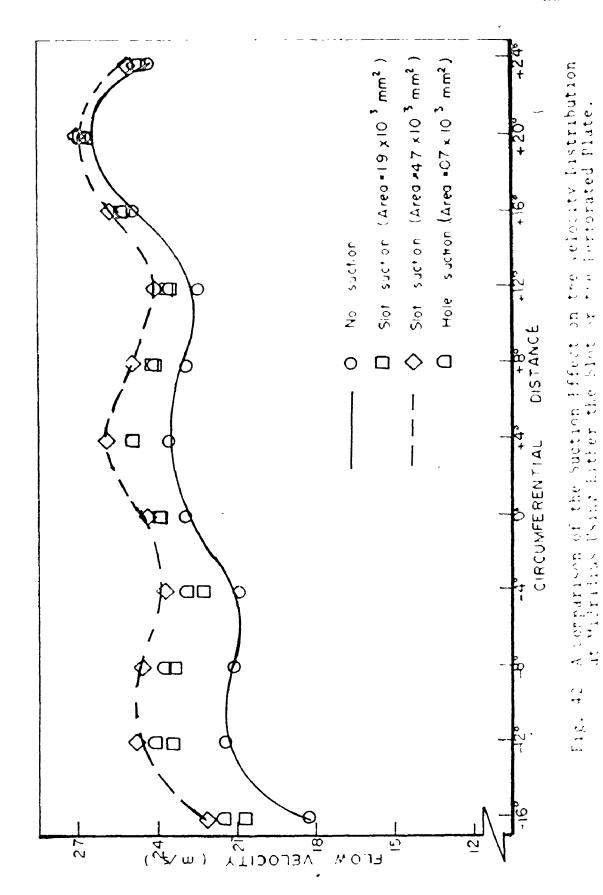
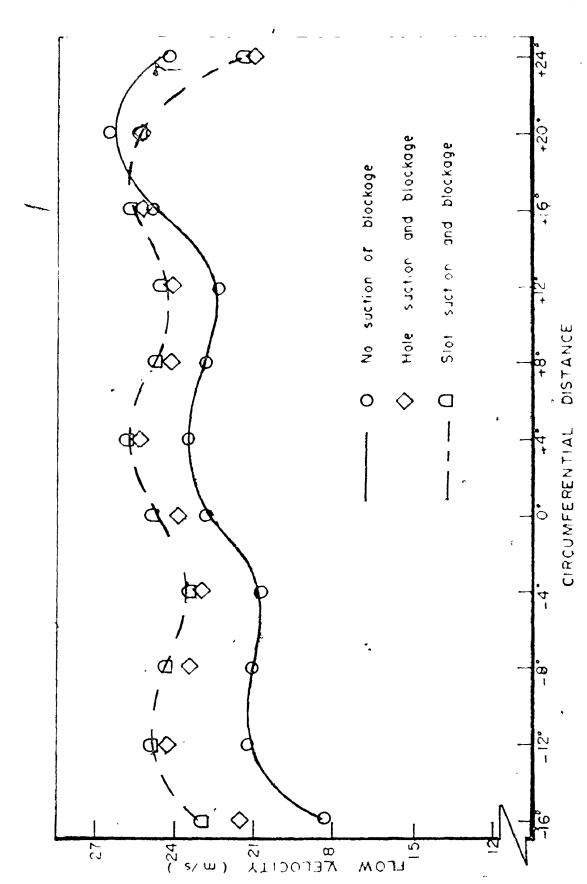


Fig. 40 Effect of Perforated Plate Suction on the Yaw Angle (a) at Midradius.







The Lffect of Suction and Inlet Blockage on the inlocated Distribution at Midradius. 118. 43

blade passages. However, it should also be noted that a gradient was still present between the circumferential position of $(+12^{\circ})$ and (-4°) which coincided with the leading edge footprints of the center blade passage.

As a result of the above tests, it was decided that the adjustment of the inlet velocity distribution would be carried out using only perforated plate suction with the hole size increased to provide an open area of 2×10^3 mm². This was considered to produce an effect approximately, equivalent to that produced by a slot open area of 4.7×10^3 mm².

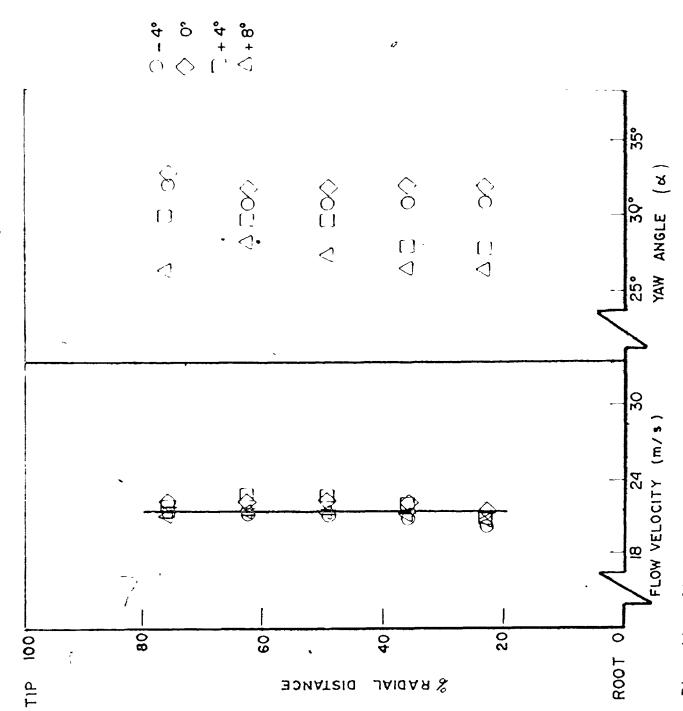
6.4 Radial Adjustment of the Velocity

The velocity gradient in the radial direction was adjusted by changing the curvature of the outer wall of the bellmouth entrance. This modification was in fact equivalent to blocking a part of the outer wall area without distorting the flow in the radial direction.

Fig. 44 shows the radial distribution of flow velocity and angle at different circumferential locations. Fig. 45 shows a radial traverse at $(0^{\circ})^{\circ}$ for two different inlet velocities and a detailed traverse at $(+4^{\circ})$ for both the main and boundary layer flow.

From these results it can be seen that the bellmouth modification gave a constant velocity in the main flow without affecting the flow yaw angle. The different boundary layer profiles observed on the inner and outer surfaces were

^{*} Reference Radial Direction



Effect of the Bellmouth Modification on the Radial Velocity Distribution and on Yaw at Inlet Flow Velocity of 21.5 m/sec. Fig. 44

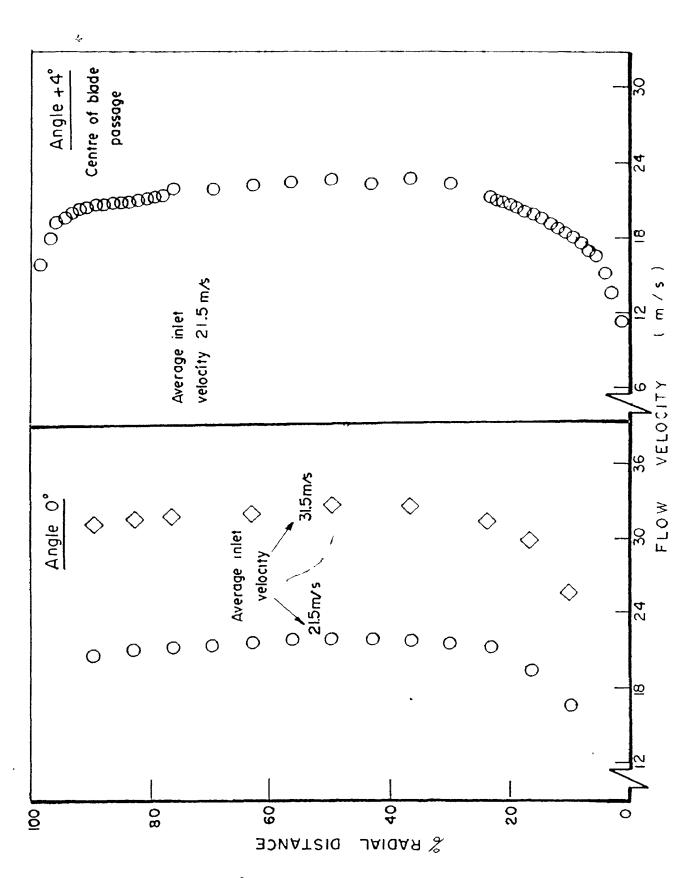


Fig. 45 The Effect of the Bellmouth Modification on the Radial Velocity Profile

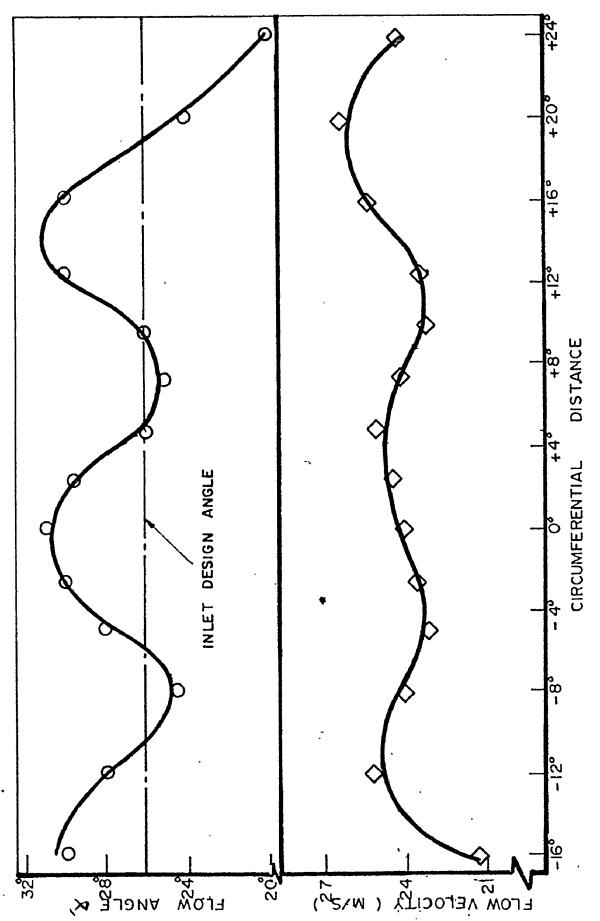
due to the difference in the geometry of the outer and inner walls.

6.5 Final Inlet How Conditions

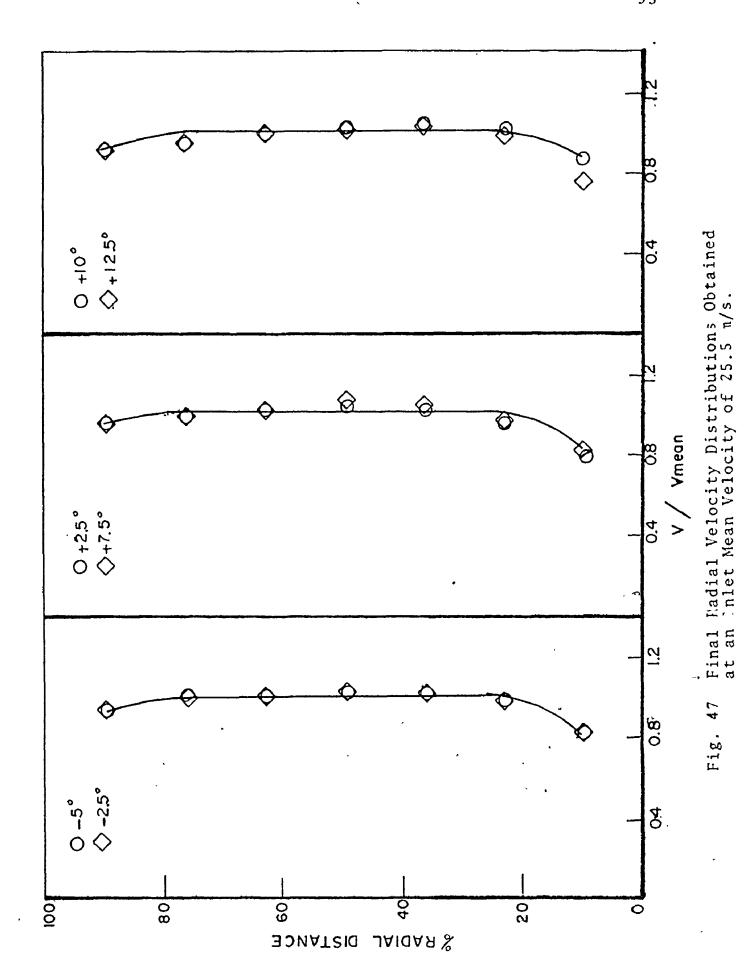
With the inlet bellmouth modified as shown in the previous section and the perforated plate hole area increased to $2x10^3$ mm², a complete inlet flow traverse in the radial and the circumferential directions, was carried out at an average inlet velocity of 25.5 m/s.

Fig. 46 shows the final distribution of flow yaw angle at the midradius height as well as the circumferential mean velocity distribution. The mean velocity was defined as the arithmetic average velocity in the radial main flow neglecting the boundary layer on the inner and outer walls. It is clear from this figure that uniform variations of flow angle and velocity have been achieved, especially in the center blade passage within which the study was to be carried out. At the selected inlet measuring station, the effect of the leading edge for the center blade passage, was to increase the flow yaw angle from 25° at the center to 30° ahead of the leading edges (the design inlet angle being 26°). In the center blade passage the flow velocity was decelerated by 7% from the center of the passage to positions ahead of the leading edges.

Fig. 47 shows the final radial velocity profiles obtained at different circumferential positions. Figs. 48



Final Circumferential Distribution of Yaw Angle and Velocity at the Midradius. Fig. 46

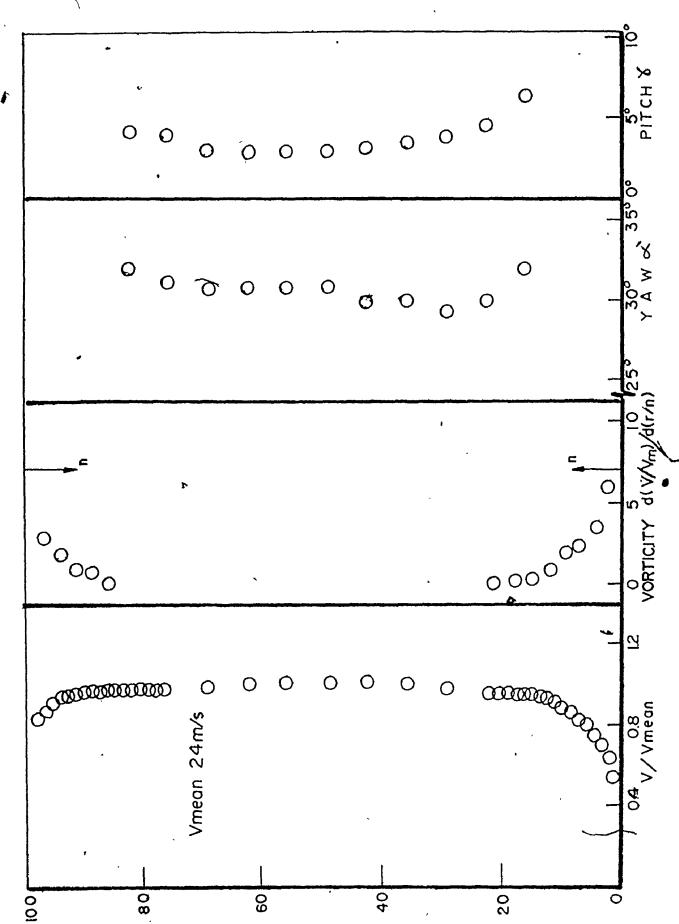


meters at three circumferential positions with respect to the center blade passage. The angles 0° and 10° are . essentially on the blade leading edges producing the center passage while 5° corresponded to the center of the blade passage. The vorticity, which has been defined as the slope of the radial velocity profile, has been drawn in a non-dimensional form. Reviewing the velocity profiles in the three locations, the velocity can be seen to be constant in the main flow and the boundary layer thinner on the outer wall than on the inner wall. The different boundary layer profile measured at 10° was probably due to the local adverse pressure gradient close to the leading edge of the blade. The yaw and pitch angles varied over a range of 2° from the inner to the outer wall.

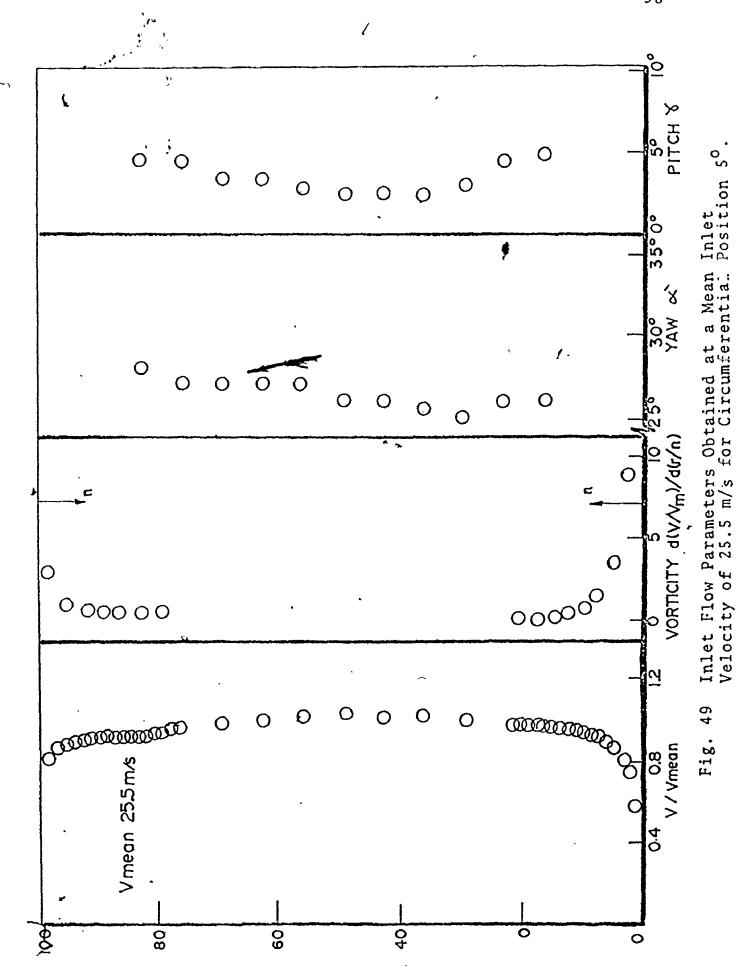
The mean inlet flow parameters at position $(+5^{\circ})$ for an average inlet velocity of 25.5 m/s are given in Table II.

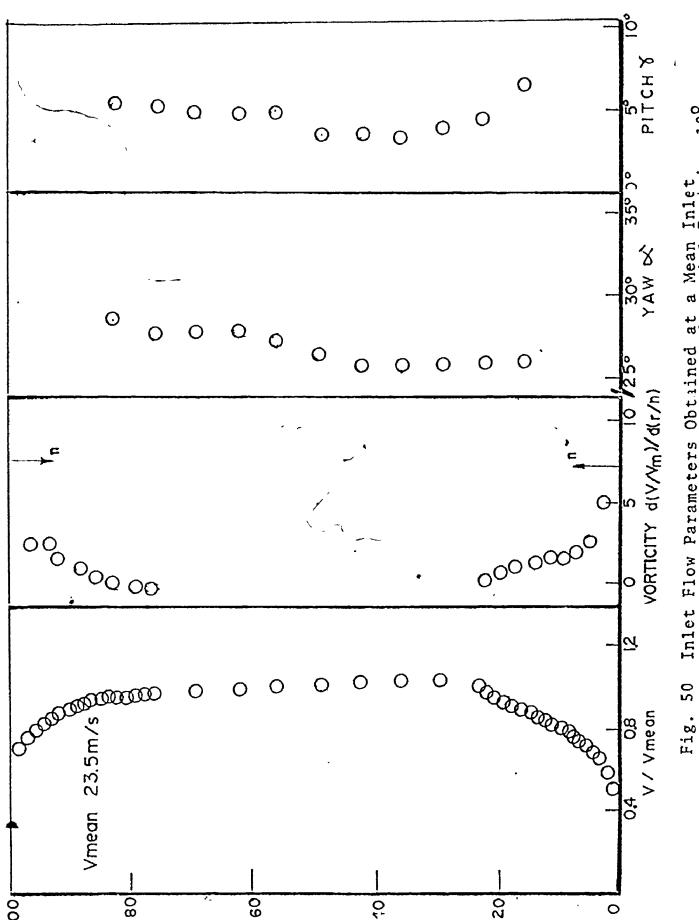
6.6 Inlet Turbulence Intensity

A significant flow parameter in all turbomachine designs is the level of free stream turbulence. The inlet turbulence intensity was measured at different radii and speeds using a normal hot wire probe*. The probe was first calibrated in the potential core of a calibration



Inlet Flow Parameters Obtained at a Mean Inlet Velocity of 25.5 m/s for Circumferential Position 0° . Fig. 48





Inlet Flow Parameters Obtained at a Mean Velocity of 25.5 m/s for lircumferential

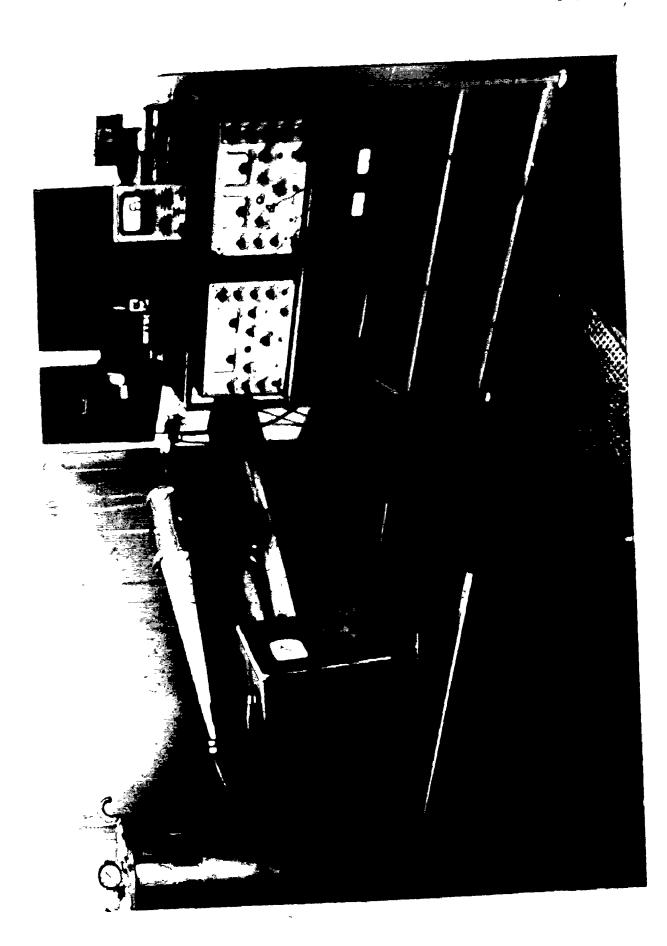
Table II

Inlet Flow Parameters for a Mean Inlet Velocity of 25.5 m/s (Fan speed 700 r.p.m.)

Flow Velocity	25.5 m/s
Reynolds Number (based on blade chord)	3.29x10 ⁵
Yaw Angle	26°
Pitch Angle	30
Total Pressure	-0.41" water (gauge)
Static Pressure •	-1.93" water (gauge)
Inner Wall Boundary Layer Thickness	25 mm
Outer Wall Boundary Layer Thickness	17 mm

Captions for Fig. 51

- Calibration nozzle 1.
- · . Hot wire probe (Type DISA # 55P14)
- Calibrating pitot static probe **5.**
- 4. Constant temperature anenometer (DISA Electronik, Type 55A01)
- Digital voltmeter (Model 7050, Fairchild 5. Instrumentation)
- R₄M.S. meter (Type 2409, Bruel and Kjaer)
- Oscilloscope (Type 564 B, Tektronix)

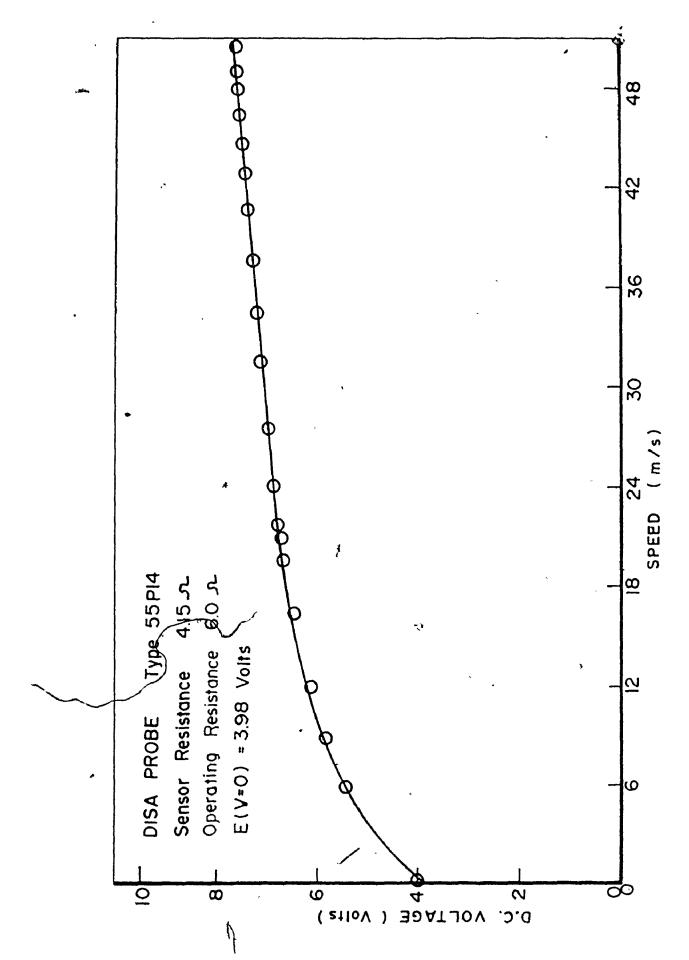


the required speed range (20 to 60 m/s). The hot wire probe calibration curve is shown in Fig. 52. The r.m.s. turbulence level was then measured at the center of the center blade passage (circumferential position +5°) from the edge of the inner boundary layer to the edge of the outer boundary layer, at different inlet speeds. The inlet turbulence intensity is shown in Fig. 53 for three different radii. The turbulence level is plotted in the form of the percentage turbulence intensity defined as follows,

% turbulence =
$$\frac{u}{V} \times 100 = \frac{V_{r.m.s.} \times 100}{V \times \frac{dE}{dV}}$$

where $V_{r.m.s.}$ is the measured r.m.s. level, and $\frac{dE}{dV}$ is the slope of the probe calibration curve at speed V.

From Fig. 53, it can be seen that at midradius the percentage of turbulence varied from 3% to 4% and that turbulence levels were higher near the outer wall as compared to the inner wall. The percentage of turbulence levels measured in actual turbomachines are typically from 6% to 9% so that one might say that reasonable inlet turbulence levels were achieved in the annular cascade rig.



Calibration Curve Obtained for the Hot Wire Probe. Fig. 52

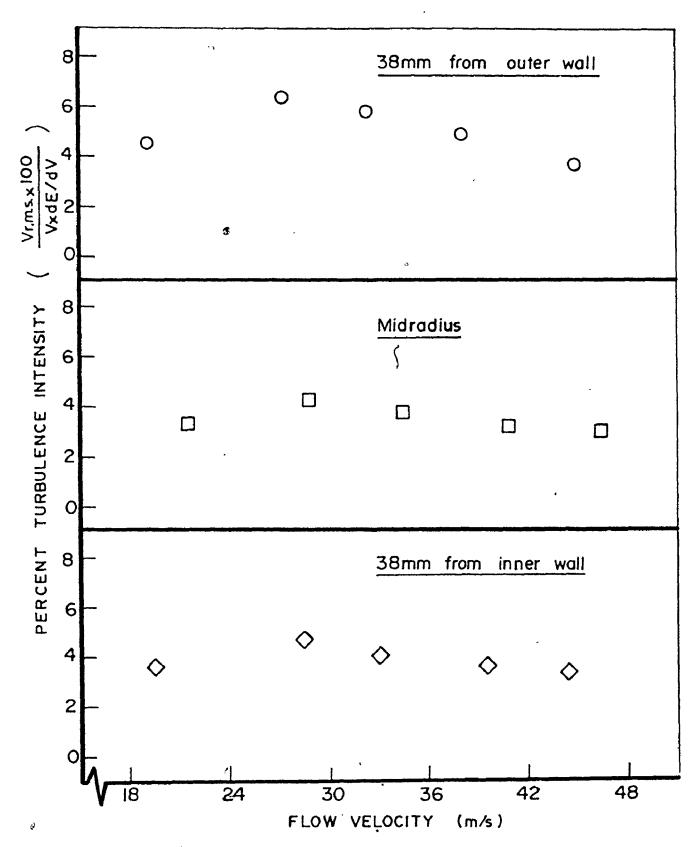


Fig. 53 Turbulence Intensity at the Cascade Inlet.

CHAPTER 7

BLADE PASSAGE PRESSURE DISTRIBUTION STUDY

Because of the relatively large number of static measuring points available, 60 on the blade surfaces and 70 on the annular surfaces, it was possible to obtain a reasonably detailed picture of the surface pressure field within the passage. Fig. 54 defines the blade passage coordinates where the static pressures have been measured. The results presented in this chapter were obtained for an inlet R_N of 4.6 x 10 based on the blade chord and corresponded to a mean velocity of 35 m/s. The static pressures were expressed in terms of a static pressure coefficient defined as:

$$Cp_{s} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\rho V_{1}^{2}}$$
 (21)

where \mathbf{P}_1 and \mathbf{V}_1 are the mean inlet static pressure and velocity at the entrance to the center blade passage and P is the measured static pressure at a point. A value of 1.0 for \mathbf{Cp}_s therefore corresponded to a stagnation point.

7.1 Passage Pressure Distribution

The distribution of Cp_{S} for the pressure and suction surfaces at 7, 27, 50, 75 and 94 percent of blade span are

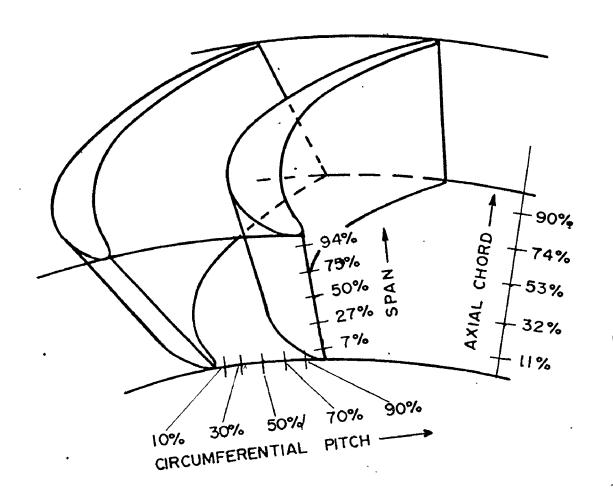


Fig. 54 Blade Passage Coordinates for Static Pressure Measurements.

shown in Fig. 55 as a function of the percentage of axial chord. Fig. 56 shows the Cp_s distribution for the annular root and tip surfaces at 10, 30, 50, 70 and 90 percent circumferential pitch starting from the pressure surface.

Normally points on the blade pressure distribution curves have been related to passage geometry. For the pressure surface, similar profiles were obtained at all spanwise locations. The pressure slowly increased (near the root) or remained constant (near the tip) up to 30 percent chord and then decreased to the trailing edge of the blades due to passage convergence. Results of Cp_s for the annular walls near the pressure surface revealed the same distribution (Fig. 56).

On the suction surface, the pressure increased for all spanwise locations up to 30 percent of the chord, decreased to a region around the throat area which occurred at 75% of the chord and finally increased up to the trailing edge. The rise in the suction surface pressure beyond the throat was noticed at all spanwise locations as shown in Fig. 55. The same trend was evident in Fig. 56, which showed a pressure increase for circumferential pitch locations higher than 70% for the annular tip and higher than 50% for the annular root. This rise in static pressure was due to the surface curvature of the blade suction surface.

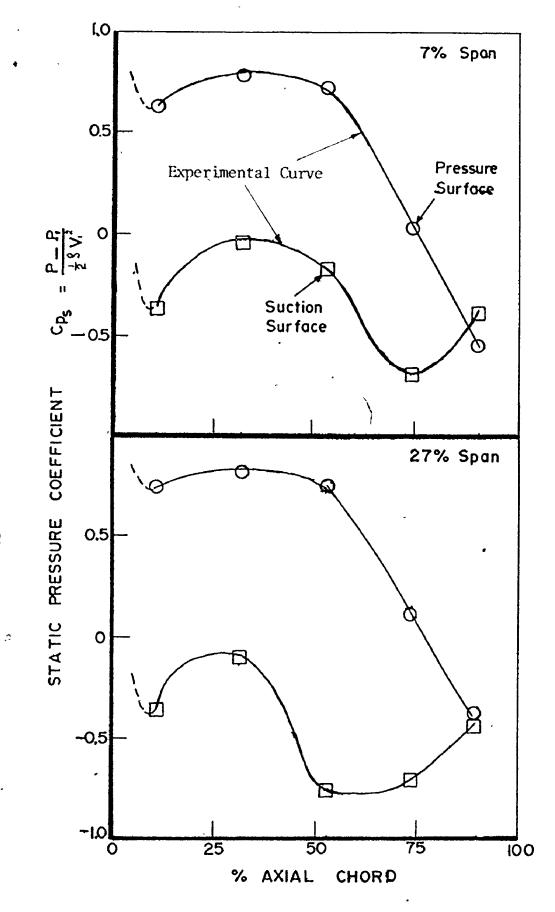


Fig. 55-a Sur P. str

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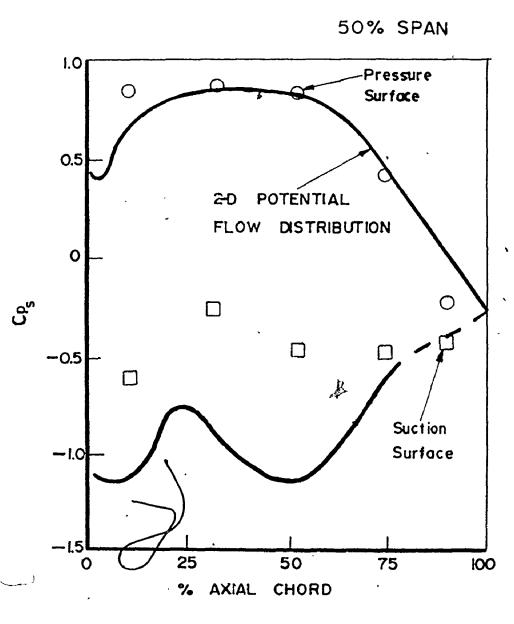


Fig. 55-b Blade Surfaces Pressure Distribution



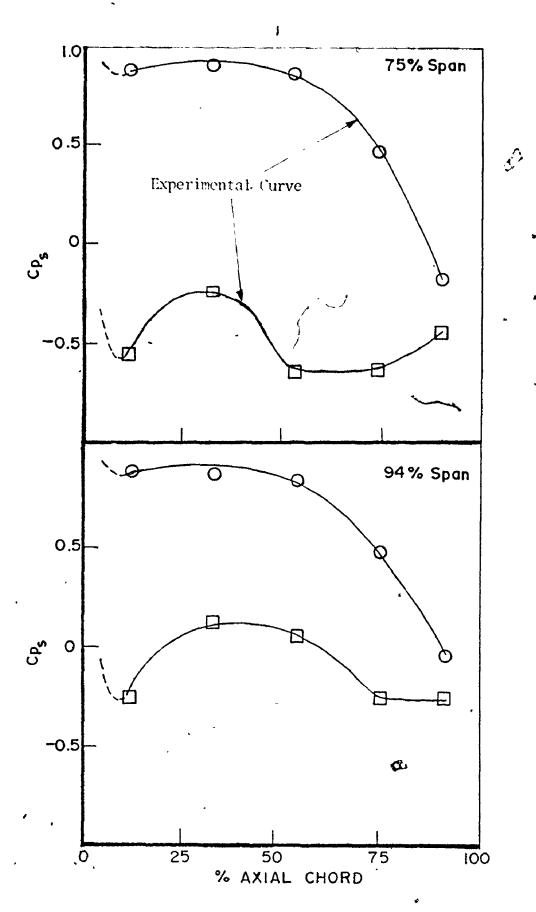
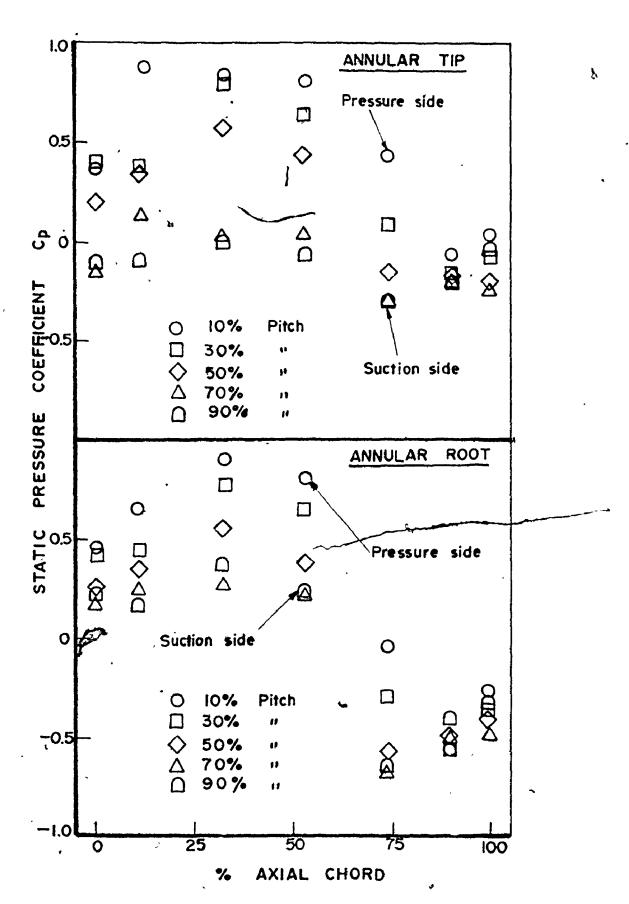


Fig. 55-c Blade Surfaces Pressure Distribution.



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7.2 Pressure Distribution Comparison with Theory

The pressure distribution data at 50% span (Fig. 55-b) was compared to the results of a two-dimensional potential flow calculation using a computer program developed by Stannard [38]. On the pressure surface very good agreement can be noticed between the measured and calculated values for all axial chord locations, except near the leading edge where the location of the stagnation point was uncertain and discrepancies were to be expected. On the suction surface a considerable deviation existed between the measured and calculated values, although the shape of the distribution was similar. The deviation started to decrease at about 50% axial chord, until good agreement was found at 75% axial chord. The main reasons for this deviation were the three-dimensionality of the flow and the roll-up of the inlet boundary layer over the suction surface and then into the blade passage as will be described in Chapter 8. The area between the curves formed by the pressure distribution on the pressure and suction surfaces is proportional to the work output of the stage and the lift coefficient for the blade profile. Calculation of the areas enclosed by the pressure and suction side data showed that, as expected the blade had a lower lift coefficient than its ideal two-dimensional counterpart...



7.3 Exit Plane Static Pressure Distribution

Fig. 57 shows the circumferential variation of Cp_s across the cascade exit at the root and tip walls. From this figure it can be noticed that the minimum pressure occurred at a position of 70% circumferential pitch from the pressure surface. A distribution similar to that of Fig. 57 was obtained by Turner [33], Sjolander [34] and Langston [35].

7.4 Blade Passage Pressure Contours

The static pressure measurements made on the annular walls are also presented in Figs. 58 and 59 in terms of isobar contours of Cp. In order to provide for a picture of the constant static pressure areas in the blade passage, an incremental ΔCp_s of 0.2 was arbitrarily selected for the annular wall contours. From the graphical presentation it should be noted that the region of minimum pressure (Region 1) on the end wall no longer occurred at the suction surface but had moved into the channel between the two blade surfaces. This low pressure region observed at each blade end can be attributed to the vortex formation in the annular passage due to the turning of the inlet end wall boundary layer. Langston [35] reported recently the same local minimum pressure in his tests conducted on a 110° turning angle turbine cascade passage. 59 also show that the pressure gradient, which is normal

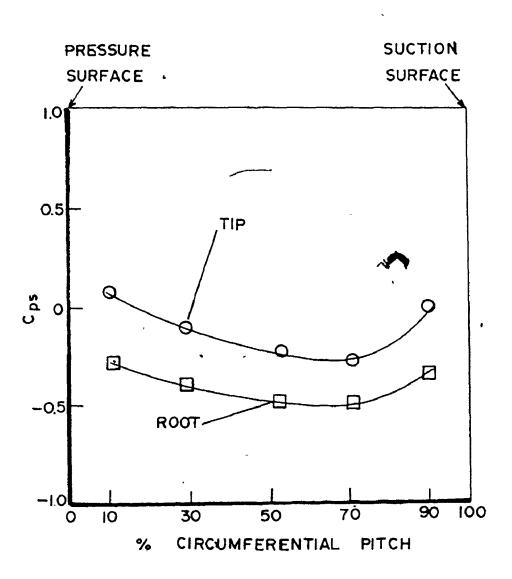


Fig. 57 Exit Plane Static Pressure Distribution.

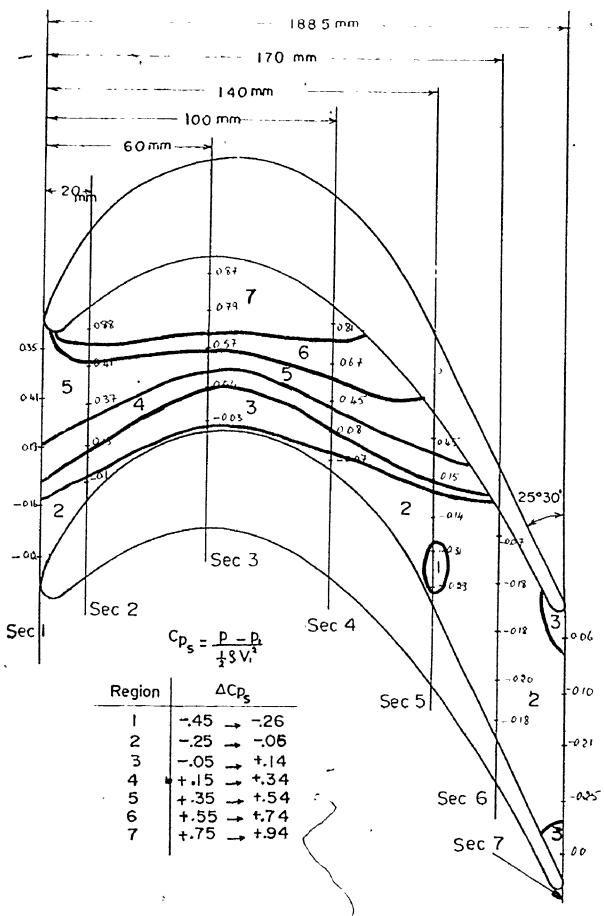


Fig. 58 Cp_s Contours for Annular Tip Walls.

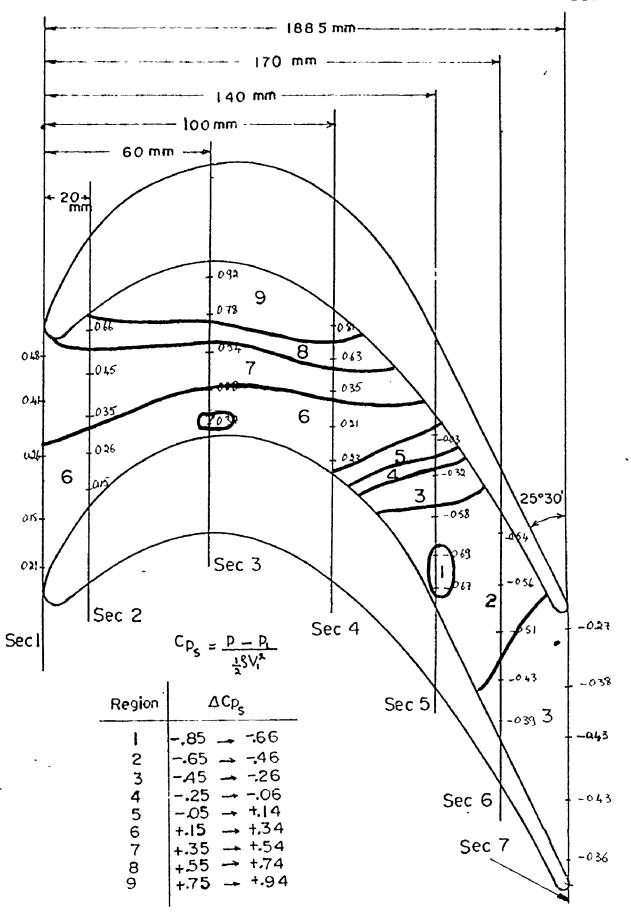


Fig. 59 Cp_S Contours for Annular Root Walls.

to the constant static pressure line, was directed almost across the passage, particularly in the downstream portion.

Fig. 60 shows the Cp_S contours for the blade suction and pressure surfaces. Once again an incremental ΔCp_S was selected arbitrarily in order to define the constant static pressure areas on the blade surfaces.

The radial pressure gradient between the annular tip and root, normally created in an annular cascade, can be observed in all of the pressure distributions and pressure contours presented in this chapter.

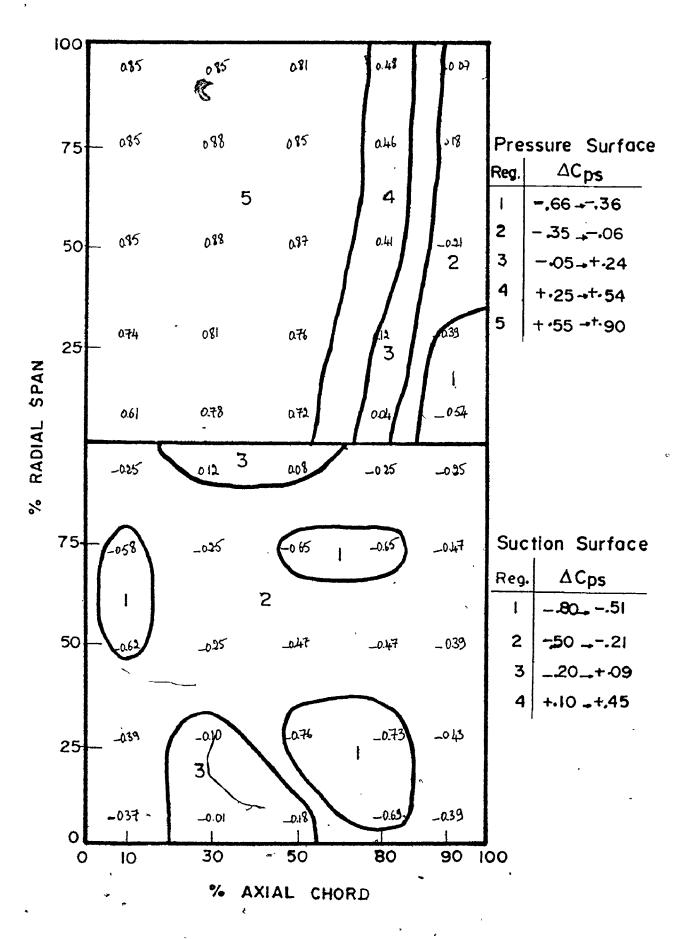


Fig. 60 Cp_s Contours for Blade Surfaces.

CHAPTER 8

A STUDY OF THE EXIT PLANE FLOW PARAMETERS

The exit plane flow parameters were determined for three inlet conditions which covered the fan operating range. The fan speeds were 600, 950 and 1300 r.p.m. corresponding to inlet Reynolds numbers based on the blade chord, of 3 x 10^5 , 4.6 x 10^5 , and 6 x 10^5 , respectively. For each test, the inlet flow conditions were determined by means of radial traverses covering the center blade passage and a circumferential traverse at the midchannel height. In order to measure the secondary losses, a flow angle and pressure survey was performed in the cascade exit plane at approximately 200 points. The results of these tests were processed by a digital computer and tabulated This section is devoted to the as shown in Appendix D. distribution of the flow parameters in the cascade exit plane and the associated energy losses in the cascade.

8.1 <u>Inlet Flow Conditions</u>

In order to ensure that the center blade passage was isolated from the remainder of the annular segment a circumferential traverse of velocity and yaw angle was

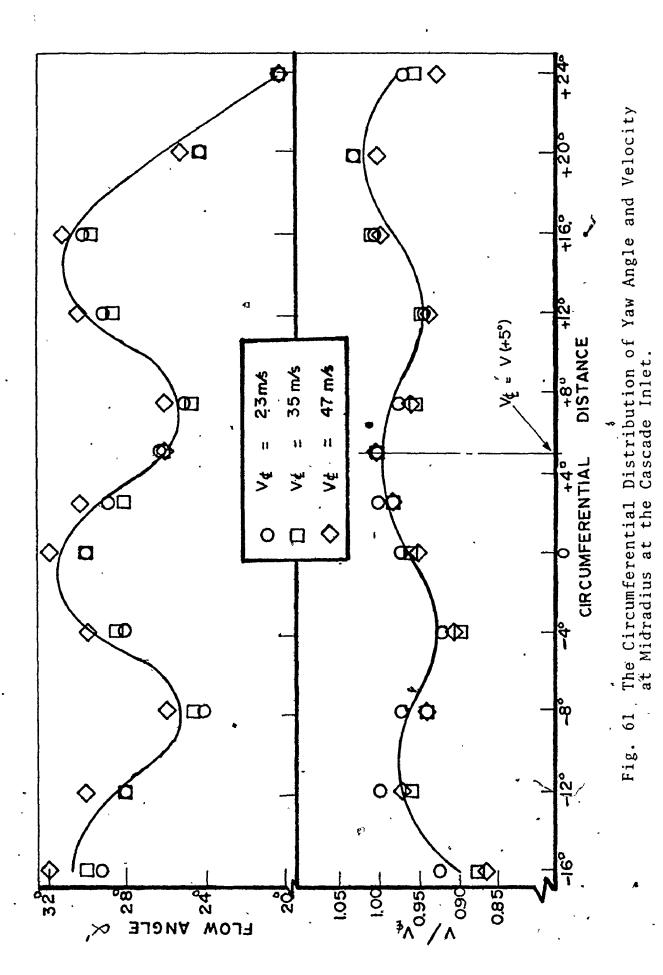
performed at midradius. Fig. 61 shows the yaw angle distribution and the velocity distribution expressed in a non-dimensional form $V/V_{\mathbb{C}}$, where $V_{\mathbb{C}}$ was the maximum velocity in the center blade passage. The same periodic distribution of angles and velocities obtained in the inlet flow study at one operating speed (Chapter 6), can be observed to occur at all test rig operating speeds (Fig. 61).

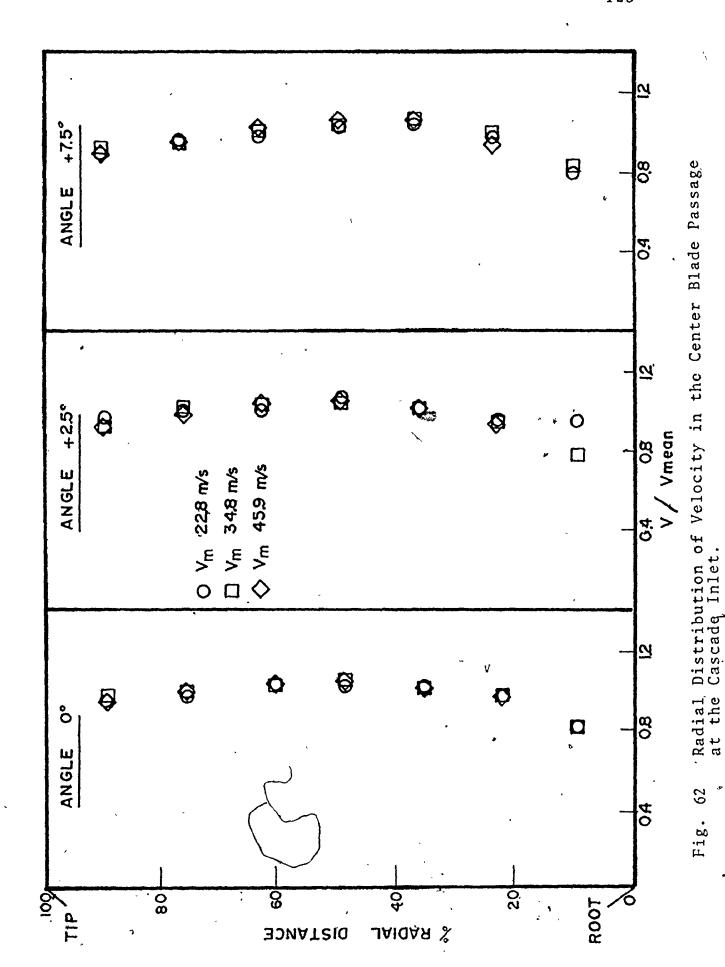
For the purpose of verifying the constant radial distribution of velocity, a main flow radial traverse was carried out at three different circumferential locations in the center blade passage (Fig. 62). Finally a complete main flow and boundary layer radial traverse was performed at the circumferential location "+5°" in the center blade passage. The results of these tests are shown in Figs. 63 and 64.

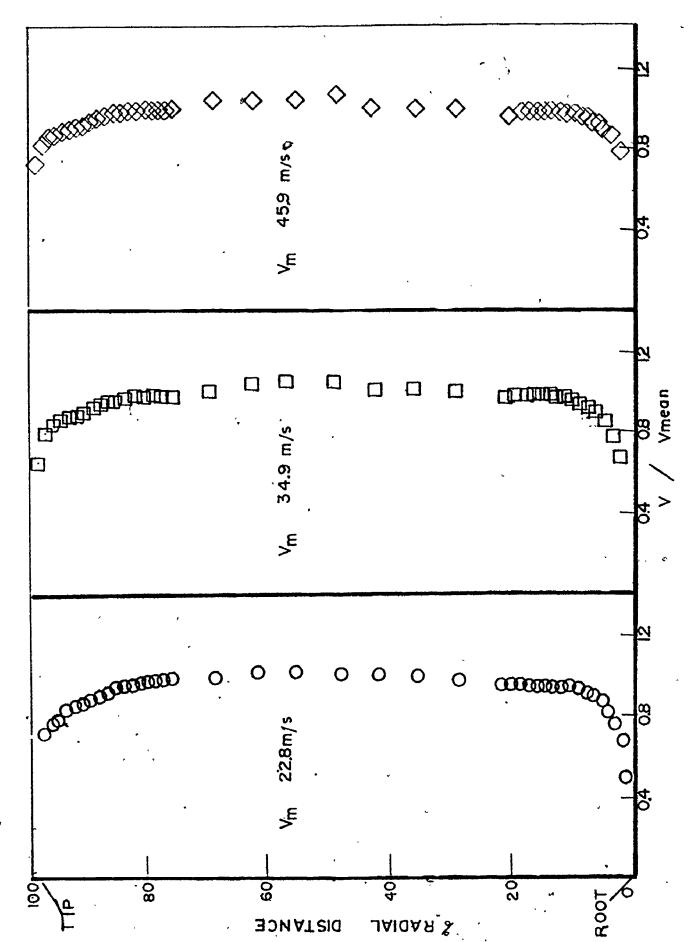
A summary of the inlet flow conditions to the annular cascade at the three different speeds has been given in Table 5 of Appendix D.

8.2 Exit Flow Traverses

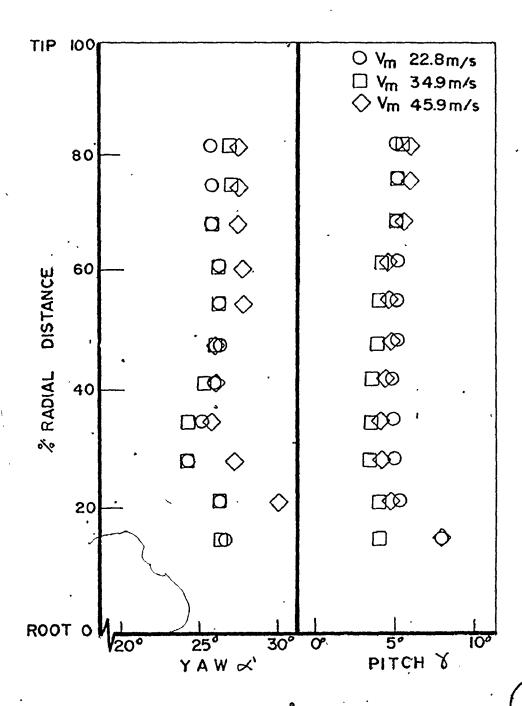
The exit main flow was traversed radially and circumferentially with the three dimensional probe, using a radial and a circumferential increment of 0.5 inches (% 13 mm) and 2° respectively. A complete survey of approximately 150 points which covered slightly more than one passage width, was completed in about 6 hours. For







Main Flow and Boundary Layer Radial Distribution of Velocity at a Circumferential Posit: on of +5°. 63 Fig.



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Fig. 64 The Radial Distribution of Both Yaw and Pitch Angle at the Circumferential Location +50 in the Inlet Plane.

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the highest fan speed 200 points were measured to check the repeatability of the exit flow distribution in the adjacent passages. At each point, the probe was first nulled in yaw, and then the yaw angle, indicated total pressure, indicated static pressure and pitch differential pressures were measured using the micromanometers. A computer program (listed in Appendix D) was prepared to process the data. The program computed and tabulated the following local flow parameters at the cascade exit.

- (a). The yaw angle (α)
- (b) The pitch angle (γ) . This was obtained by fitting a polynomial to the probe calibration curve as shown in Appendix D.
- (c) The flow velocity (V). The correction for the pitch angle effect on dynamic head was made as described in Appendix D.
- (d) The flow axial velocity $(V_a = V \cdot \cos \alpha \cos \gamma)$.
- (e) The total pressure loss coefficient defined as,

$$Cp_{o} = \frac{P_{o1}^{-P_{o}}}{\frac{1}{2} \rho V_{1}^{2}}$$
 (22)

where P_{o1} was the inlet free stream total pressure (mean average at midradius for the center blade passage circumferential locations), $\frac{1}{2} \rho V_1^2$ the corresponding dynamic pressure and P_o the total pressure measured at a point.



(f) The static pressure coefficient defined as,

$$Cp_{s} = \frac{P - P_{1}}{\frac{1}{2}\rho V_{1}^{2}}$$
 (23)

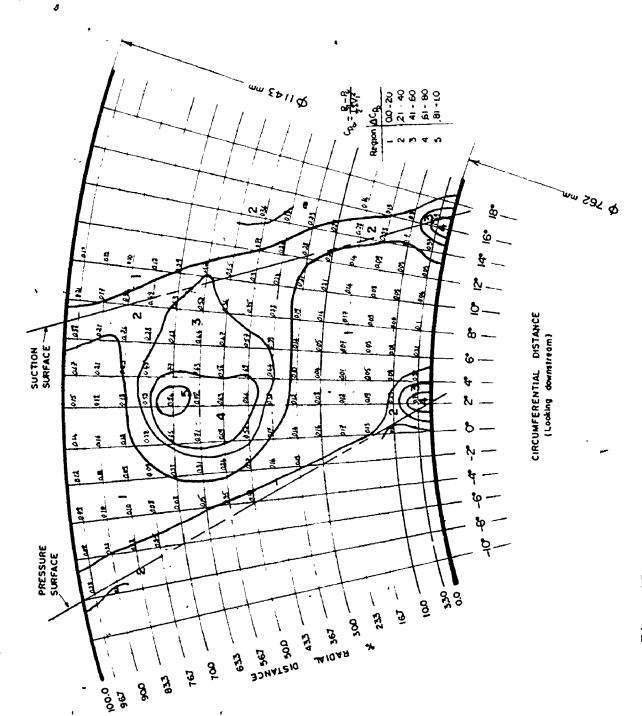
where P_1 was the inlet free stream static pressure and P the static pressure at a point.

A summary of the local flow parameters, items

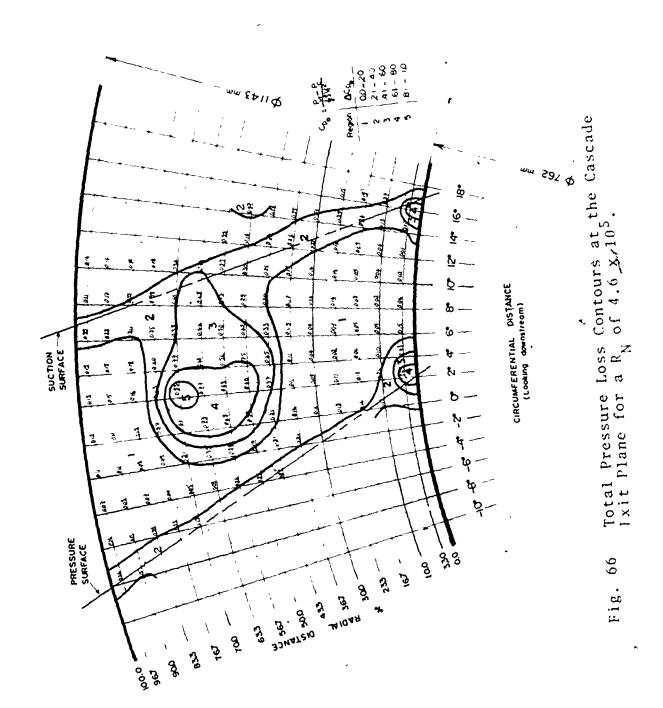
(a) to (f), is presented in Tables 6 to 8 in Appendix D for the three operating speeds.

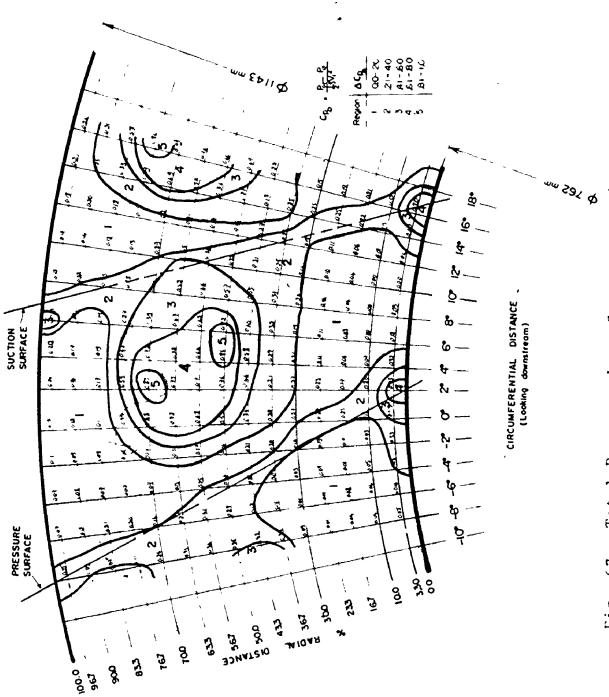
8.3 <u>Total Pressure Loss Contours</u>

Figs. 65 to 67 illustrate the total pressure loss contours measured at the cascade exit for the three operating A ΔCp_0 of 0.2 was arbitrarily selected to provide an engineering picture of the total loss distribution in the cascade exit plane. In each of these figures, a single high loss core (identified with the secondary vortex) was visible at the middle of the blade passage. The evidence provided by the contour maps made it quite clear that the material in the vortex came from the suction surface of the blades. This was consistent with the suggested origin of the core as a roll-up of the inlet inner and outer wall ~ boundary layers over the suction surface of the blades and finally moving into the blade passage. It is suggested therefore that the fluid in the upstream wall boundary layer. was mostly shed from the trailing edge of the blades as a



Total Pressure Loss Contours at the Cascade Exit Plane for a R of $3x19^5$.





Total Pressure Loss Contours at the Cascade Exit Plane for a $_{\rm N}$ of 6 x 10 $^{\rm S}$.

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vortex core loss. Fig. 68 shows schematically the sequence of this vortex formation at different and locations along the cascade.

An interesting feature of the total pressure contours was the fact that normally one expected a high loss core at each blade end corresponding to the inlet inner and outer wall boundary layers. In the present tests these areas, shown as region '5' in Fig. 67, were found at the highest test velocity to be located in the middle of the passage. For the lower inlet velocities it has been experimentally shown that the two peaks combined to give a single peak as shown in Figs. 65 and 66. In 1953 Loos [10] had speculated this behaviour for large turning angle blades, but according to the literature this fact had never been verified. Fig. 69 has been extracted from Loos's analysis and shows his expected location of the secondary vorticity pattern.

The results of three more recent tests, carried out by other researchers, were selected (starting with the lower turning angle) to verify and compare their secondary flow patterns with the present experimental results.

Sjolander [34] in his tests carried out in 1975 on an annular cascade of 50° deflection, obtained two peak losses, each near the suction surface of the blade at approximately 25% span from the end wall. Came [30] reporting on tests conducted in 1973 on a rectilinear cascade having a total deflection of 84° , found that the two

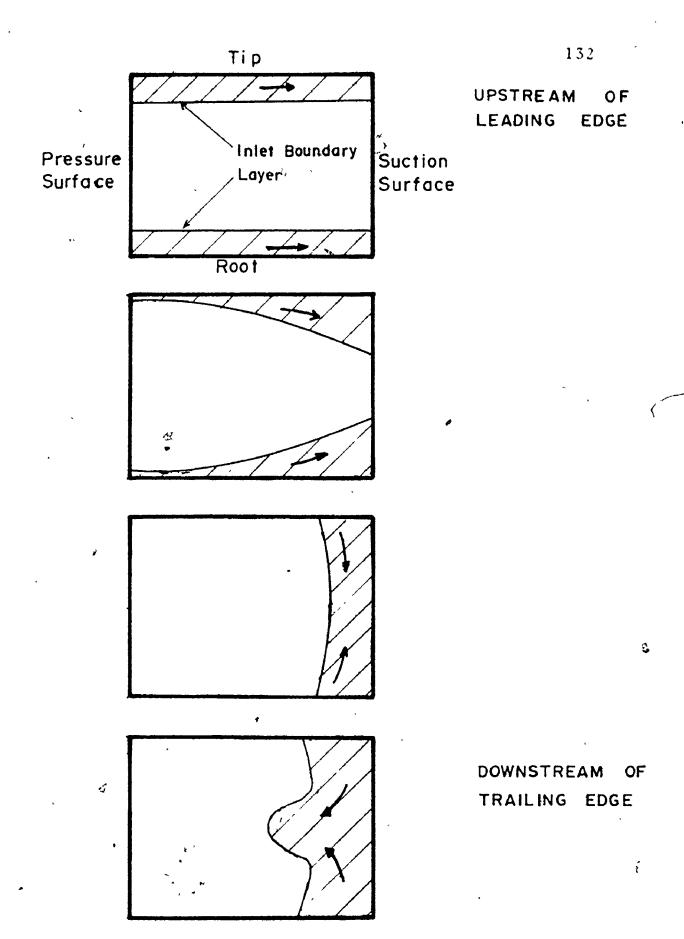


Fig. 68 A Schematic Drawing Indicating How the Inlet Boundary Layer Moves to the Suction Surface to Form a Vortex.

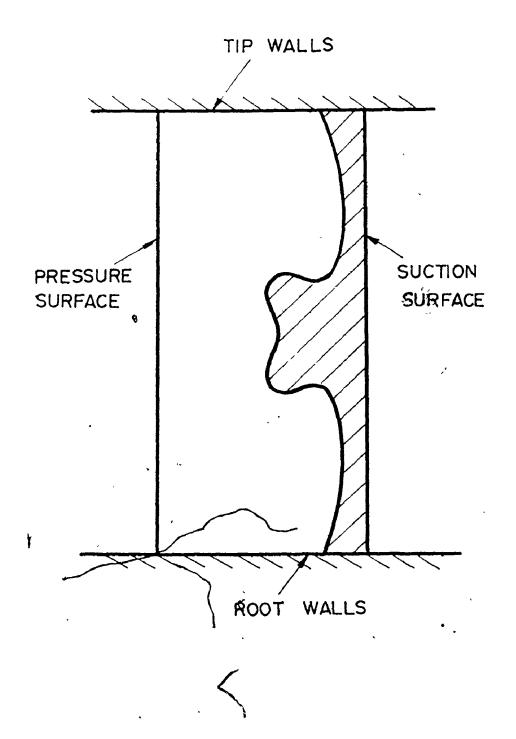


Fig. 69 The Vorticity Pattern for Very Large Turning Angles as Suggested by Loos [10].

a.

peaks grew in size and started to move away from the blade suction surface. In 1977 Langston [35] in tests done on a rectilinear cascade of 110° deflection obtained similar results to Came.

As a result of the work shown in the literature and the present experimental data it can be concluded that, as the blade turning angle increases the two peak losses combine to form one large single vortex core which is displaced from the suction surface into the middle of the passage. The overall annular cascade geometry is believed to have an effect on the shape and the displacement of this vortex. A third possible reason for the displacement of the vortex core into the middle of the passage could be due to the fact that the present blade passage had a lower pitch to chord ratio at the hub than at the tip. There was also the possibility that the geometry of the corner between the suction surface and the annular root contributed to the motion which forced the vortex to move upwards.

Examining Figs. 65, 56 and 67 further, a weaker high loss region was also seen at the inner wall in the region downstream of the trailing edge of the blades. At the outer wall similar regions were also apparent but with a loss magnitude smaller than that for the inner wall. These loss regions were caused by the growth of the new wall boundary layer. The reason for the difference in magnitude between the losses at the inner wall and the outer wall could

be attributed to two factors. The first factor was undoubtably the thicker boundary layer measured at the cascade exit inner wall when compared to that measured on the outer wall as shown in Fig. 70. The second factor could have been due to the spanwise pressure gradient in the annular cascade. This gradient might very well have been responsible for sweeping some of the low energy air in the inlet outer wall boundary layer down to the trailing edge resulting in larger hub than tip losses. Rohlik [31] observed this fact in his tests carried out on an annular cascade.

8.4 Exit Plane Yaw Angle Contours

Figs. 71 to 73 show the flow yaw angle contours measured at the cascade exit. For the presentation, a Δα of 10° was arbitrarily chosen in order to provide an overall impression of the flow angle characteristics in the exit plane. Normally due to the roll-up of the inlet boundary layer in the blade passage, a streamwise component of vorticity is created at each blade end. This vorticity component produces radial and tangential secondary velocities which result in overturning of the flow near the wall and underturning in the mainstream. The yaw angle contours revealed some new interesting features for the three test conditions. Due to the thicker inner wall boundary layer as shown in Fig. 70, more low energy fluid rolled over the blade suction surface and met the outer wall boundary layer

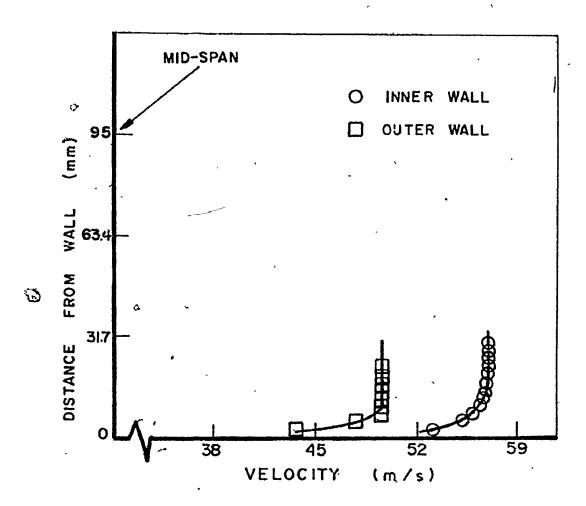
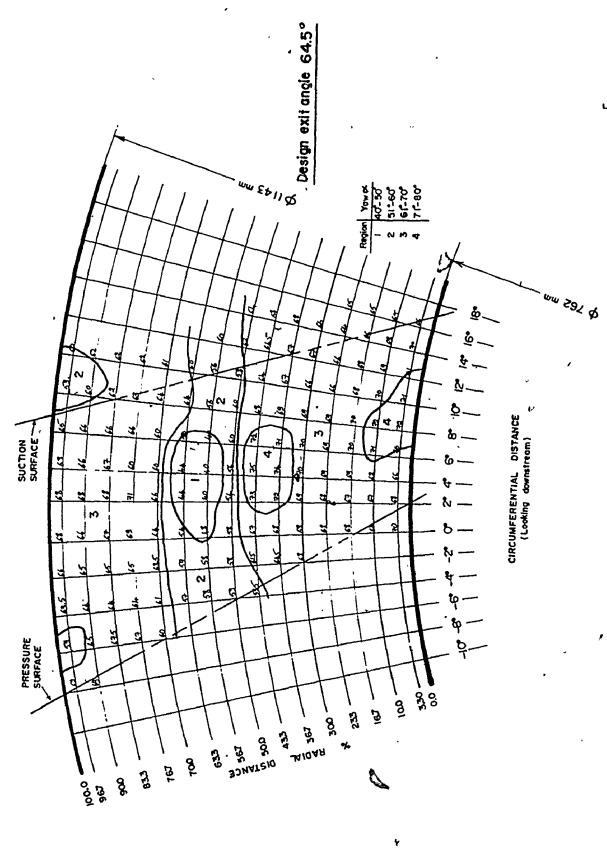
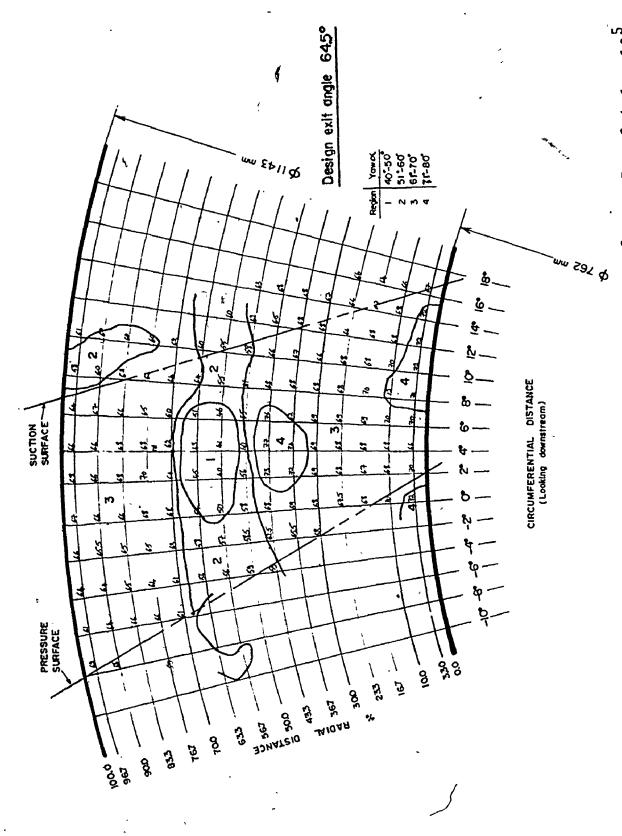


Fig. 70 Boundary Layer Profile Measured in the Plane of the Trailing Edge at a Mean Inlet Velocity of 45.9 m/s.

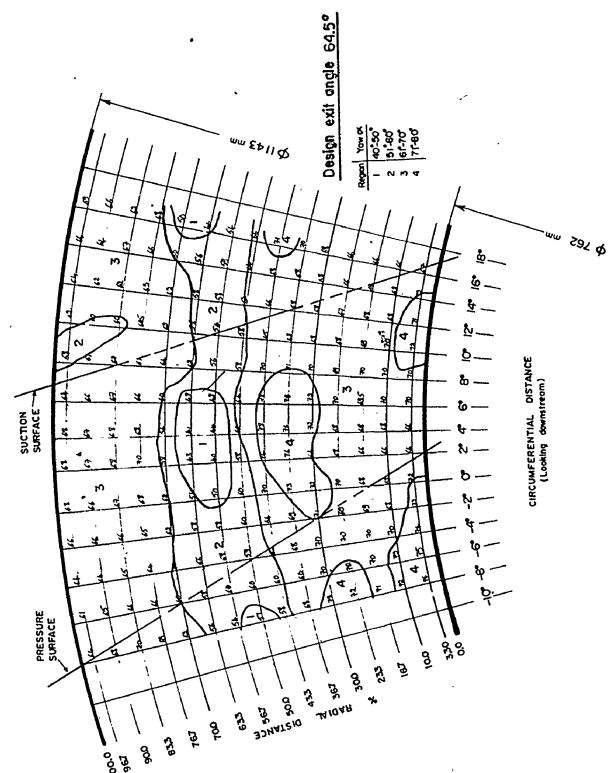


× 8 P_N of Yaw Angle Contours at the Cascade Exit Plane for a

M.A.

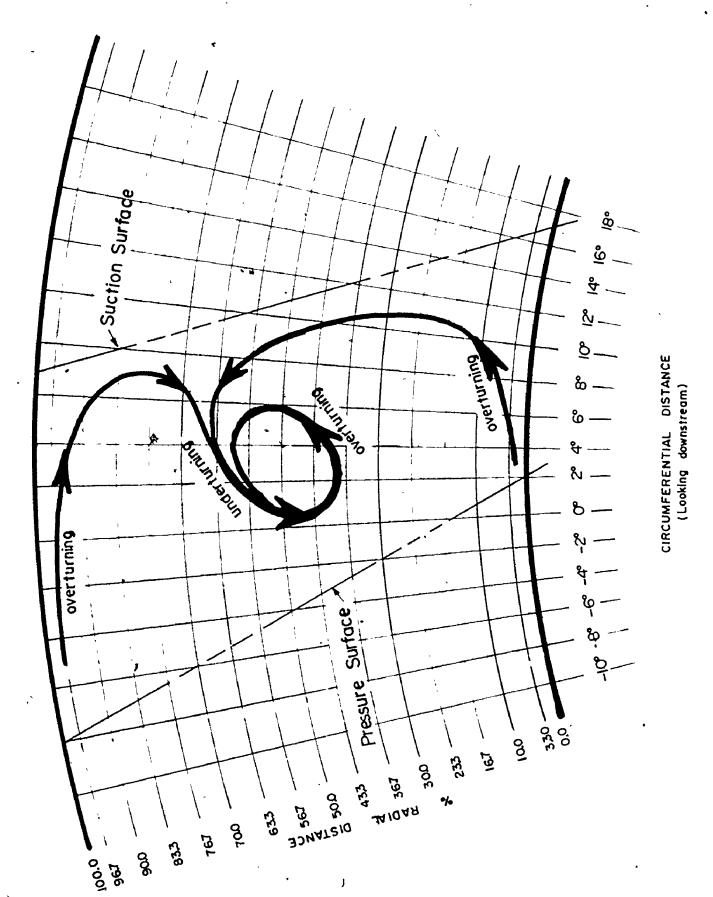


 R_{N} of 4.6 x 10^{5} ત Yaw Angle Contours at the Cascade Exit Plane for Fig.



9 Yaw Angle Contours at the Cascade Exit Plane for an $R_{
m N}$ of Fig. 73

fluid at a position above midspan (approximately 63% radial distance). This coalescence of the boundary layer fluids created a single strong vortex which resulted in a large underturning (up to 24° less than the design exit angle) at a position which was approximately 57% of the span (Region No. 1). The vortex was also responsible for a large overturning (up to 14° greater than the design angle) at a position approximately 43% of the span (Region No. 4). One also can notice the high shear experienced in this region where the flow angle changed by 35° per inch. This flow picture was verified later by flow visualization using smoke injection. It is worth mentioning in this analysis, that the flow yaw angle readings were very unstable (+5°) at 50% span at the circumferential location +2°, +4° and +6°. These locations coincided with the center of the passage It was expected that the experimental measurements made in this region, using the three dimensional probe, were subjected to much greater errors than would be found by taking readings in a 'normal' flow field. Areas of lower overturning can also be seen in the yaw angle contours near the end walls (Region 3). The presence of Region No. 4 near the hub wall only was probably due to the thicker inner wall boundary layer. Fig. 74 is an artistic interpretation of the overall flow picture as described by the yaw angle It can be seen that the sweeping of the boundary layer fluid over the suction surface of the blade and then into the passage in a certain fashion so as to create



Physical Interpretation of the Yaw Angle Contours in the Exit Plane.

significant overturning and underturning in the main flow.

In conclusion, the single passage vortex formed by the inner and outer wall boundary layer fluids resulted in significant regions of both underturning and overturning in the main stream area.

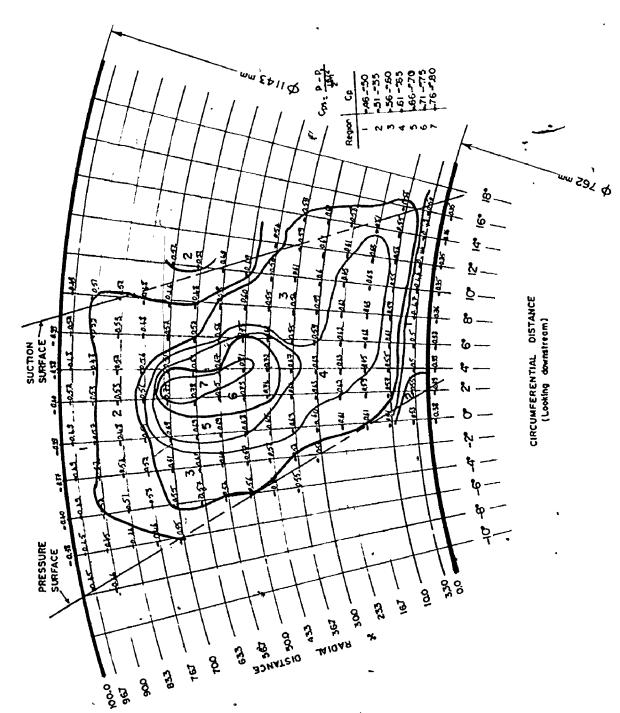
8.5 Static Pressure Contours

Fig. 75 shows the contours of static pressure coefficient Cp_{s} at the cascade exit. Seven regions of constant static pressure coefficient were selected with an equal interval of 0.05 to evaluate the flow field.

Normally if the flow were potential flow, lines of constant Cp_s would be straight lines, parallel to the blade surfaces and normal to the annular walls. The position of the low static pressure regions Nos. 6 and 7 confirmed the fact that the passage vortex dominated the flow in the middle of the passage. Langston [35] obtained similar isobars of static pressure at the cascade exit with the lowest pressure region displaced into the passage near the suction surface of the blades.

8.6 Spanwise Variation of Flow Angle and Pressure Losses

Further information about the patterns of the blade passage losses and exit angles were obtained by a further analysis involving the loss coefficients and exit flow angles. At each radial position the loss coefficients and



Contours Showing the Static Pressure Distribution in the Exit Plane of the Cascade for a $\rm\,R_{N}\,$ $\,\rm\,C.^{2}\,4.6x10^{5}.$ 75 Fig.

flow angles for the different circumferential points were averaged on a mass flow basis. This was done using the data processing program listed in Appendix D. The mass average total pressure loss coefficient at each spanwise location was defined as follows:

$$Cp_{om} = \frac{\sum_{o}^{S} Cp_{o}(Vcosacos\gamma)}{\sum_{o}^{S} (Vcosacos\gamma)}$$
(24)

where $V_a = V\cos\alpha\cos\gamma$, and Cp_o is defined in Section 8.2. A similar definition was used for the mass averaged yaw angle. These values together with the arithmetic means of yaw angles, losses, and velocity (both absolute and axial) are tabulated in Appendix D.

Fig. 76 shows the variation of the pitchwise mass averaged losses as a function of the radial distance. From this figure a single loss peak was visible at about 60 percent of the span corresponding to the peaks already presented in the loss contours (due to the secondary vortex). At a radial distance of about 10% and again at 90%, the pressure losses as defined by an average contour started to change direction to account for the pressure losses in the newly developed tip and root boundary layers. The pressure losses at the annular root were higher than that at the tip for a corresponding location due to the factors mentioned in Section 8.3. Came [30] obtained similar distributions,

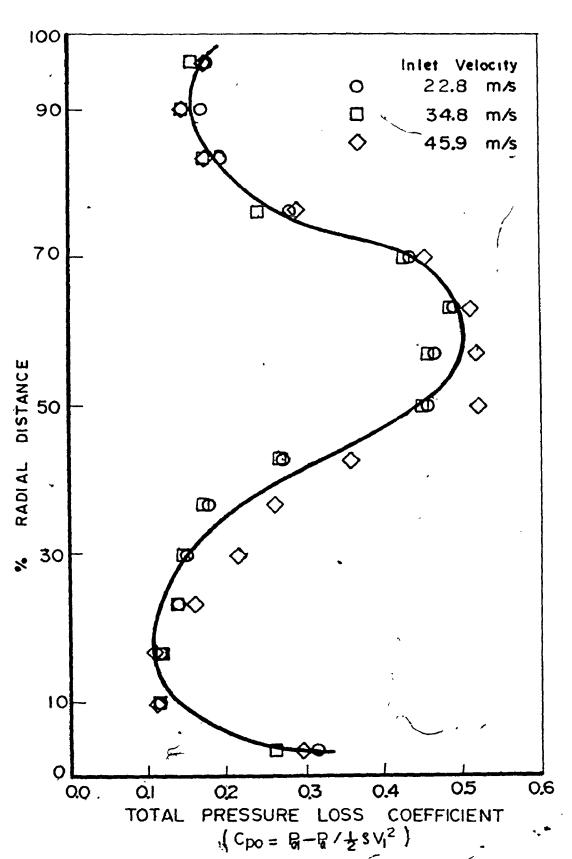


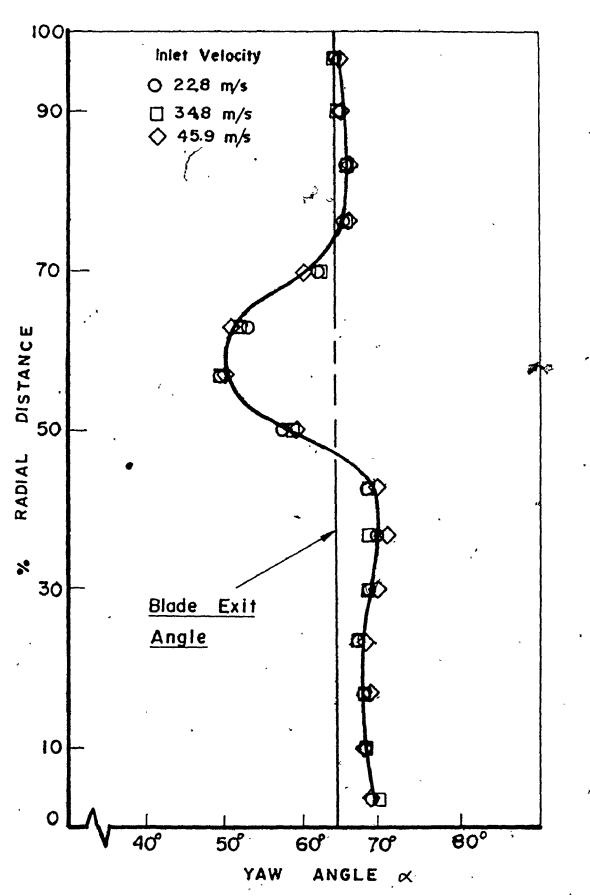
Fig. 76 Radial Variation of the Pitchwise Mass Averaged Total Pressure Loss Coefficient.

but with two peak losses in the center of the passage outside the boundary layer regions. The area under the pressure losses curve (averaged on span) represents the overall losses in the cascade including the secondary losses, end wall boundary layer losses and the profile losses on the blade surfaces. It is of interest to note at this point that the exact extent of the profile losses is difficult to define, as both profile and secondary losses interact with each other especially in a high turning angle cascade.

Fig. 77 shows the spanwise variation of the pitchwise mass average yaw angles. Again the overturning in
the lower and upper half of the passage, and the underturning in the center of the passage is quite apparent.
The distribution as hown is in general agreement with all
previous results [1, 10, 12, 14, 17, 18, 19 and 29] with
the exception being that in the present high turning angle
cascade the two regions of underturning have combined to
form a single and much stronger region of underturning
located near the center of the passage.

8.7 Comparison of the Cascade Exit Flow Angle with Existing Data

The first problem in comparing exit flow angle with other data was the choice of some single value of outlet angle change that would be useful and indicative of the measured flow pattern. The radial variation of the pitch-



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Fig. 77 Radial Variation of the Pitchwise Mass Ave

wise (or circumferential) average values could only reflect the distribution of angles across the passage exit. On the other hand, an average value of the radial distribution would have little meaning, since due to overturning and underturning of the flow the average value could be approximately equal to the design exit angle. The maximum value of overturning in the spanwise direction was somewhat unreliable due to the uncertainty in measuring flow angles with the present probe in the vicinity of the wall. However, the region of underturning occupying a considerable portion of the blade passage and clearly a function of the secondary flow might well be selected to represent the exit flow angle changes. A comparison of the calculated or measured maximum flow underturning in the radial direction is given in Table 3. tabular values presented indicated two points. One concerned the lack of experimental results in high turning angle cascades particularly the measurement of flow angles in the exit plane. Secondly, it was apparent that the degree of underturning was in some fashion proportional to the blade turning angle.

8.8 Comparison of the Cascade Overall Loss Coefficient with Existing Correlations

In order to compare the cascade secondary loss coefficient with existing data and correlations, the overall pressure loss coefficient was calculated and tabulated in

Table 3

A Comparison of Maximum Flow Underturning in the Radial Direction

References	Blade Turn- ' ing Angle	Maximum Underturning
Lakshminarayana [17]	20 ⁰	1.8.0
Dixon [22]	64,2°	4 ⁰
Rohlik et al [31]	60°	6 ⁰
Moffatt [18]	20 ⁰	1.2°
	50°	4 ⁰
Hawthorne [19]	40°	80
	100°	18 ⁰
Present tests	128 ⁰ 30'	11.5°
•		

Appendix D, along with the other exit plane parameters.

The cascade loss coefficient mass-averaged in pitch and span was defined as:

$$Y_{T} = \frac{\Delta P_{T}}{P_{O2m} - P_{2m}} \tag{25}$$

where

$$\Delta P_{T} = \frac{\sum_{o} \sum_{o} (V \cos \alpha \cos \gamma) \Delta P_{o}}{\frac{h}{S} \sum_{o} (V \cos \alpha \cos \gamma)}$$
(26)

 ΔP_{o} = local total pressure losses = $P_{o2}-P_{01}$ P_{o2m} = mean exit total pressure = $P_{o1}-\Delta P_{T}$ P_{2m} = mean exit static pressure = $P_{1}-\Delta P_{s}$ (where ΔP_{s} was defined in the same manner as ΔP_{T} shown above).

In order to calculate the cascade secondary losses, one would normally calculate or estimate the passage profile loss. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the extent of the profile losses could not be separated from the total losses which were calculated unless detailed measurements of the velocity distributions and boundary layer growth on the blade surfaces were performed. Denton [28] in 1973 reviewed seven different profile loss correlations and concluded that none of them predicted the losses accurately. However it was decided for the present cascade, to compute

,

the profile losses by means of three different existing correlations. The correlations used gave the following values of profile losses at the maximum inlet velocity

Ainley's Correlation, 1951 [26]
$$Y_p = 0.11$$
 Baljé's Correlation, 1968 [27] $Y_p = 0.05$ Denton's Correlation, 1973 [28] $Y_p = 0.03$

An approximate value of the secondary loss coefficient was then obtained by a simple subtraction, i.e.,

$$Y_{S} = Y_{T} - Y_{P} \tag{27}$$

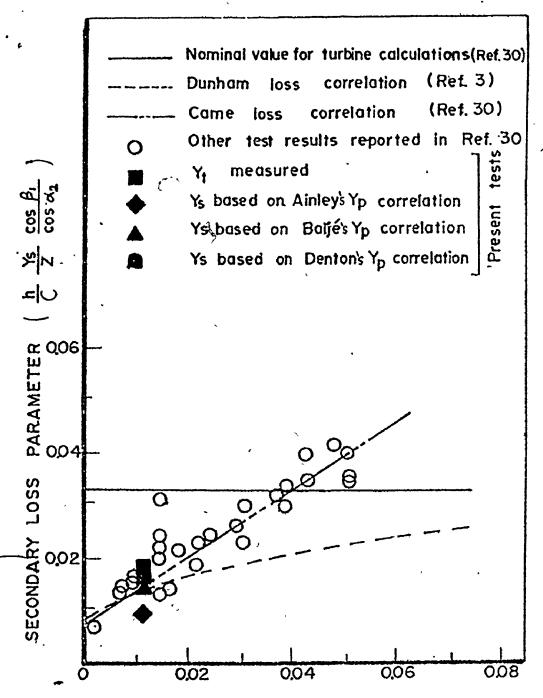
Fig. 78 shows the variation of the secondary loss parameter with the relative upstream boundary layer displacement thickness. The blade loading factor Z in the loss parameter is defined as:

$$Z = \left(\frac{C_L}{S/C}\right) \frac{\cos^2 \alpha_2}{\cos^3 \alpha_m} \tag{28}$$

where the lift coefficient $\mathbf{C}_{L}^{}$ has the form:

$$C_{L} = 2 \frac{S}{C} (\tan \alpha_{1} - \tan \alpha_{2}) \cos \alpha_{m}$$
 (29)

Shown in Fig. 78 are the nominal value of the secondary loss parameter used in turbine performance predictions, the Dunham [3] and Came [30] correlations and other test results reported in Ref. [30]. The total and secondary loss parameters found in the present study are also shown in Fig. 78. From this presentation it can be seen



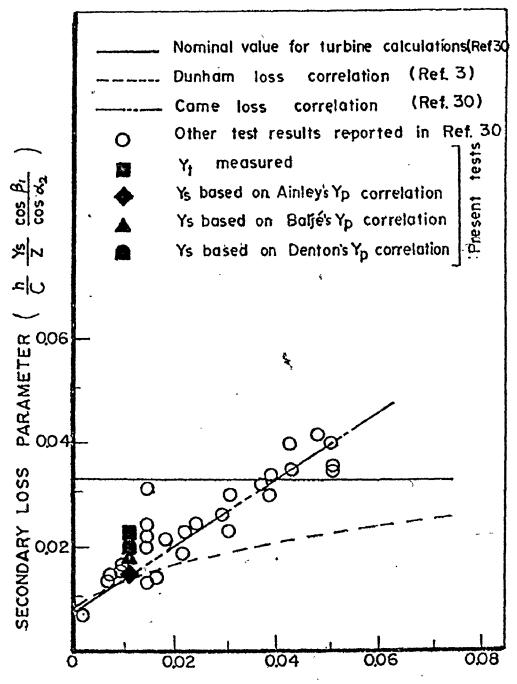
RELATIVE UPSTREAM BOUNDARY LAYER DISPLACEMENT THICKNESS (δ_{i}^{*}/c)

Fig. 78 A Comparison of the Annular Cascade Loss Coefficients with Existing Correlation.

that the present results agreed quite well with the available correlations. However it should be noted that most of the previous results listed in the literature measured the exit losses at some distance downstream from the trailing edge (about one chord length), thus including the mixing losses due to the trailing shed and trailing filament vortices. Came [30] measured the exit losses at different distances from the trailing edge and found a rising trend up to a distance equal to 120% of the chord. Langston [35] measured the cascade losses from the inlet section to the blades to a downstream location, 140% of the chord from the trailing edge, and found a significant rise in losses of 24% between 1.1 C and 1.4 C. If one assumed a factor of 1.24 to account for the effect of the mixing losses such as suggested by Langston[35], then the present experimental results could be plotted as shown in Fig. 79.

8.9 Blade Passage Flow Visualization

In order to obtain a qualitative description of the flow field in the blade passage, flow visualization using white smoke was conducted on the annular rig. Smoke was injected at the inlet measuring station, on the inner and outer wall boundary layer regions, to check the roll up of the boundary layer fluid on the blade suction surface. Fig. 80 shows a representative photograph of the deposits left by the smoke filament on the annular root and on the



RELATIVE UPSTREAM BOUNDARY
LAYER DISPLACEMENT THICKNESS (&/c)

Fig. 79 A Comparison of the Annular Cascade Loss Coefficients with Existing Correlation After Accounting for the Mixing Losses.

blade suction surface. The smoke deposits have been outlined by pencil to help identify the various areas. It is clear from these traces and also by direct observation of the smoke pattern that the low momentum boundary layer fluid started to overturn and roll over the blade suction surface between 15 and 30 percent of the axial chord. The passage vortex could be observed to form at about 50 percent of the axial chord, and resulted in a strong instability of the smoke filament at the exit plane of the cascade.



Fig. 80 Flow Visualization Using Smoke Deposits

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

With the aim of carrying out an investigation of the secondary flow phenomenon in large turning angle turbine blade cascades, a special three-dimensional annular test rig was constructed and tested. Detailed cascade tests, at a Reynolds number based on the blade chord of 3×10^5 to 6×10^5 , consisted of inlet and exit flow parameters traverses, blade passage pressure distributions and flow visualization.

The results, presented in the form of contours and radial distributions, were analysed and compared with existing correlations and previous investigations. The following general conclusions can be drawn:

- 1. The investigation of the inlet flow parameters revealed the fact that the blade leading edge disturbance was felt at the inlet measuring station in the form of cyclic variation of flow angle and velocity. This cyclic variation was in agreement with the two-dimensional potential flow solution obtained using an electric field analogue.
- 2... The scale of the test rig and the power supply available assured the proper Reynolds number range and provided

obtained in full scale machines. Sufficient flexibility was built into the rig so that the inlet flow conditions could be tailored according to the test requirements.

- 3. The pressure distributions obtained on the annular walls exhibited a low pressure region removed from the suction surface of the blade. This was attributed to the passage vortex resulting from the roll-up of the inlet boundary layer over the blade suction surface.
- 4. The pressure distributions found over the blade surfaces were compared to those obtained theoretically using a two-dimensional stream tube program developed by Stannard [38]. Good agreement was found between the experimental and theoretical pressure surface distributions. However a noticeable deviation occurred in the first 50% of the chord when one compares the results for the suction surface. This was attributed to the three-dimensionality of the flow and to the motion of the boundary layer fluid over the suction surface.
- 5. In the total pressure loss contours measured in the exit plane, only a single high loss core was visible and this occurred in the middle of the blade passage.

 The vortex formation verified for the first time the prediction made by Loos [10] in 1953 of the flow behaviour in large turning angle cascades. Other possible reasons for the coalescence of the inner and outer wall high loss

regions into a large single one were presented. These included the high blade turning angle, the general annular geometry, the thicker root boundary layer and the orientation of the blade trailing edges.

- 6. The exit yaw angle contours revealed regions of maximum flow underturning and overturning in the main stream. An interpretation of the formation of these regions was given. The same factors promoted the changes in the yaw angle as were present in the total pressure loss contours.
- 7. The cascade overall secondary loss coefficients were compared to the correlations obtained by Dunham [3] and Came [30], as well as to previous published data and good agreement was found.
 - 8. Finally the smoke visualization study gave visual evidence of the separation of the inlet boundary layer and its roll-up on the blade suction surface.

Suggestions for Further Study

As suggestions for further study, the following recommendations are presented.

1. The effect of the inlet boundary layer thickness, on the exit flow parameters and on the cascade loss coefficient, should be investigated. The test results would have particular interest with respect to the shape and location of the vortex if one could have equal inner and outer wall boundary layer thickness.

- 2. A detailed flow visualization study using the smoke technique and high speed photography could clarify some of the interpretation made in the experimental results.
- 3. A more detailed study of the end wall boundary within the annular blade passage is required.
- 4. The effect of a radial orientation of the blade trailing edges on the exit flow parameter contours should be studied. It should be recalled that the present test rig employs a leading edge radial orientation.
- 5. In order to have an accurate prediction of the secondary loss coefficient, the profile losses should be further investigated.
 - 6. The effect of the location of the exit measuring station on cascade loss coefficient should be investigated in order to generalize the existing correlations.
 - 7. Finally a theoretical model, three-dimensional in nature, has to be developed to estimate the flow overturning and underturning in large turning angle cascades.

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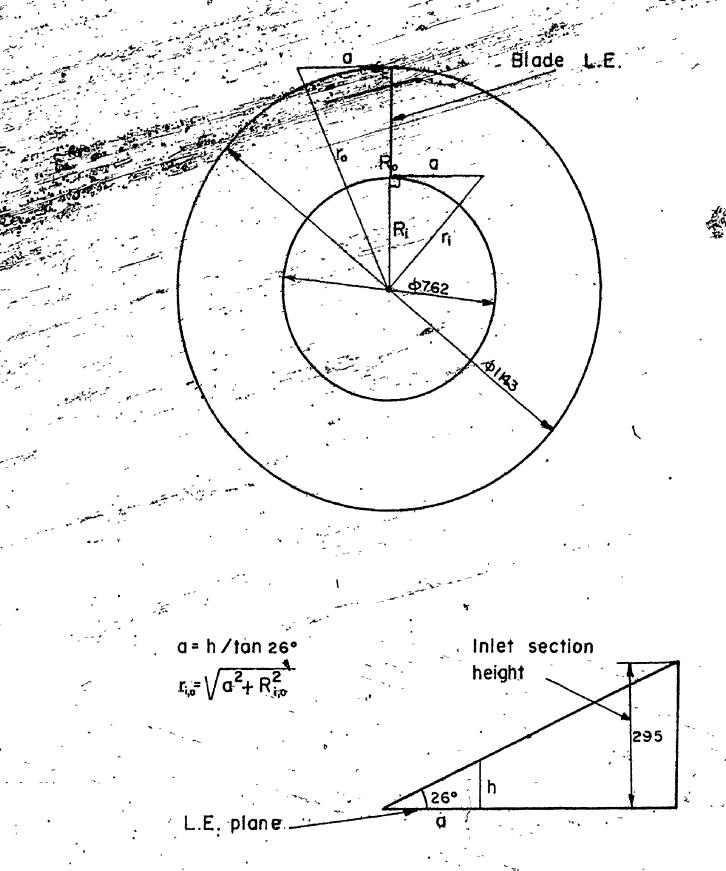
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APPENDIX A

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION REGARDING THE ANNULAR CASCADE RIG

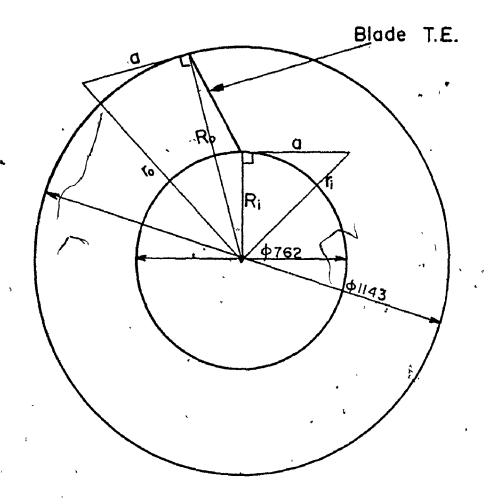
Chapter 3 gave a description of the major components of the annular cascade rig. This Appendix is included to provide additional information on the design and construction of the rig.

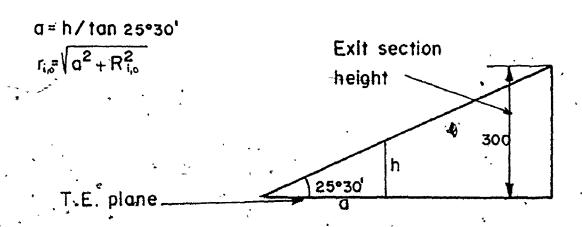
for the inlet and exit sections of the cascade were shown in Figs. 14 and 22 of Chapter 3. Figs. 81 and 82 show how these radii were calculated for a given height from the leading and trailing edge plane respectively. Figs. 83 and 84 describe the inlet and exit section flanges with the corresponding sliding segment. The sliding side walls provided in the inlet section flange for the control of the inlet flow conditions is also shown in Fig. 83. Figs. 85 and 86 show the details of the plenum chamber openings and the flexible connection used between the rig and the plenum chamber.



Note: All dimensions are in millimeters

Fig. 81 Radius Calculations for the Inlet Section Walls (See Fig. 14).





Note: All dimensions are in millimeters

Fig. 82 Radius Calculation for the Exit Section Walls (See Fig. 22).

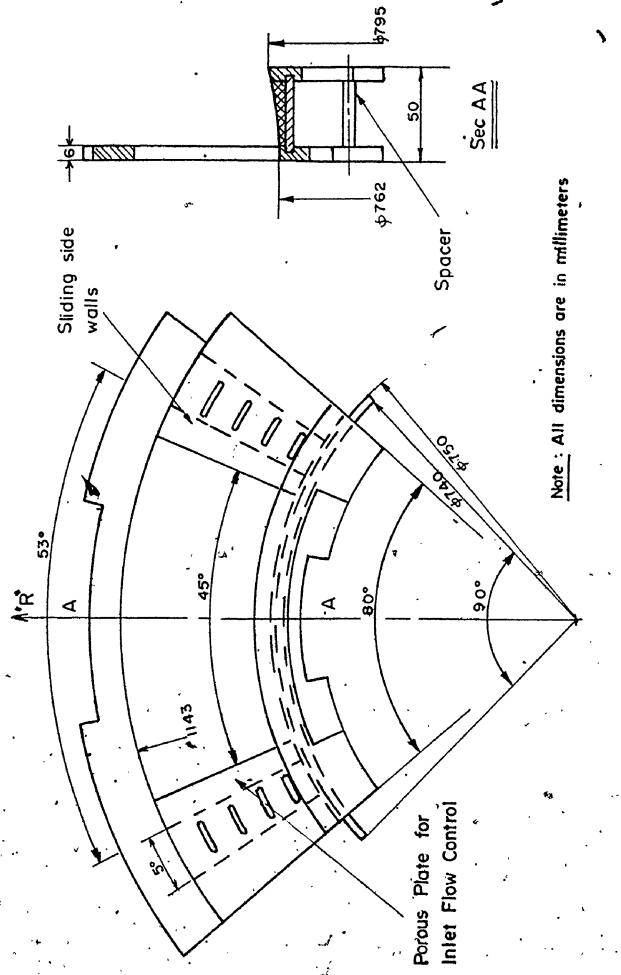


Fig. 83 Inlet Section Flange.

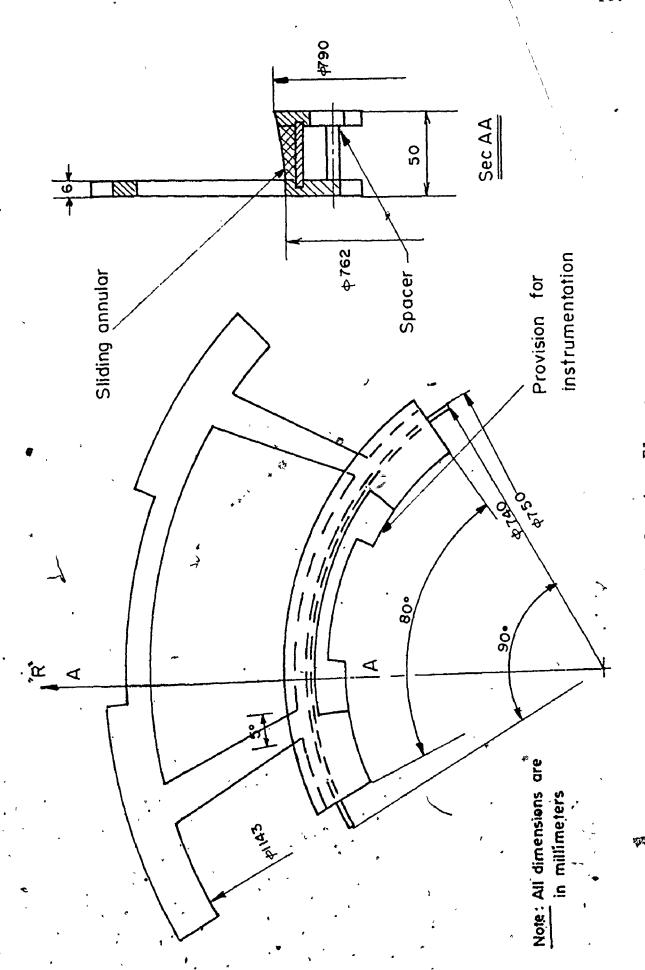


Fig. 84 Exit Section Flange.

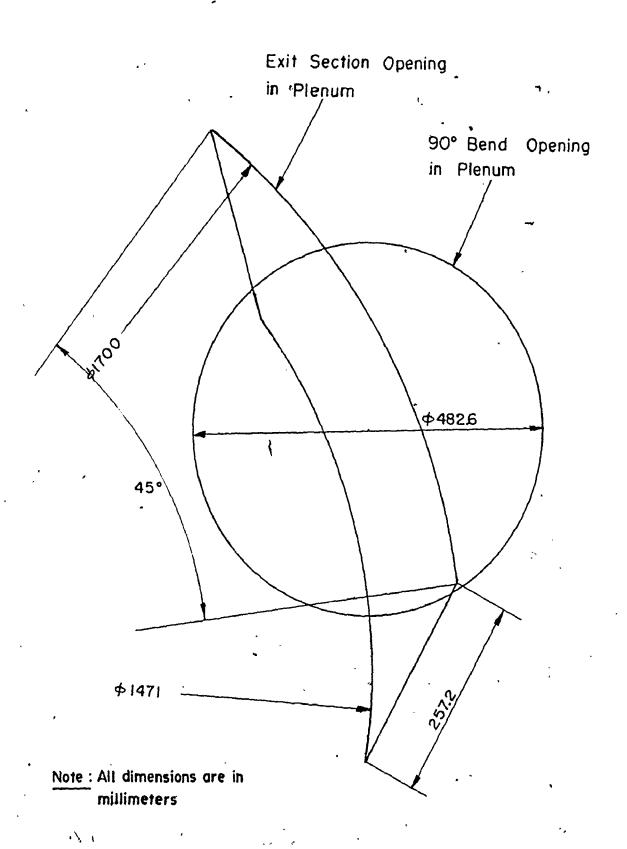
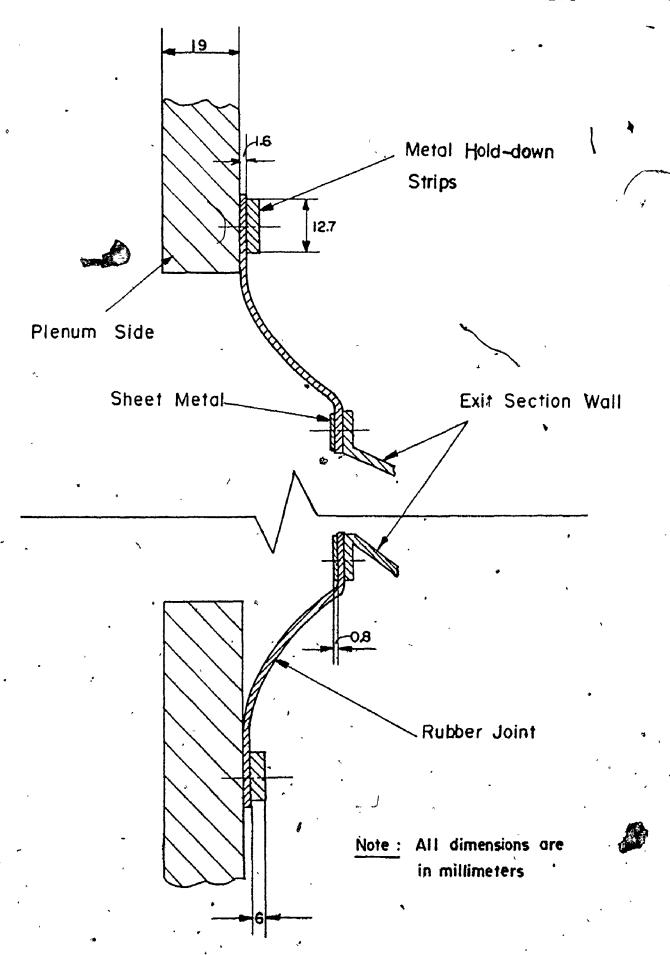


Fig. 85 Plenum Chamber Openings.

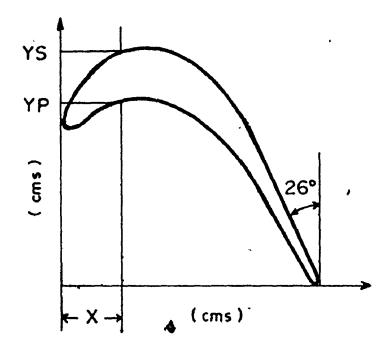


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APPENDIX B). BLADE PASSAGE GEOMETRY

Due to the complexity of the blade passage geometry, a computer program was prepared to calculate the blade coordinates, the intersection with the annular walls and the passage area at each axial location. The computer notation used to describe the blade passage geometry is given in Fig. 87.

The blade pressure and suction coordinates were first measured at different points by means of the digitizer available in the department. In order to define each blade surface, a least-square polynomial fit to the data was used and a fifth order polynomial was found to represent each surface. The blade coordinates are given in Table 4 for 51 axial sections along the blade. The program computed the angular positions of the intersection of the blade surfaces with the annular walls, as well as the positions at mean radius, for the different axial sections. This was done by projecting each point on the blade surfaces onto the leading edge plane and using the reference radial direction, defined in Fig. 20, as the zero ordinate. Finally, the passage cross-section area was calculated at each station and tabulated with the previous ordinates as. shown in Table 4.



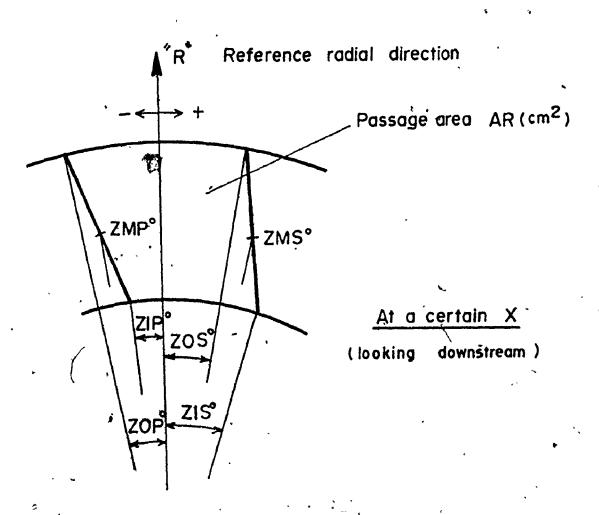


Fig. 87 Computer Notation for Passage Geometry.

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7.16	2. 3. 12	10.55	-19,12	1.45	65.6-	1.14	-9.24	2,21	173.01	
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3.6	55 0 67	3.61	13.23	-4.35	87.4	£\$.5+	5.03	-5.62	5+43	167.42
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3.7	15.51	3.10	11.33	-2.83	7.46	-3.77	7.47	-4.33	7.4.7	177.93
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45	15.CF	2.82	4. 19	5, 32	18.22	2.73	15.66	1.01	14,62	211.09
7 +	17.34	2.18	3.40	5. 32	19.43	3.52	17.02	1,56	15,42	213.82
, 5 5	17.72	1,53	2.61	7. 52	20.65	4.51	17.99	2.32	16,22	215,57
¥.	15.65	F 0 •	1.82	8. 3.3	21.87	5.13	13.95	2.97	17.03	213.33
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Table 4 ·Continued

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APPENDIX C

THREE-DIMENSIONAL PROBE CALIBRATION

Figure 88 shows the results of the three-dimensional probe calibration carried out at United Sensor Laboratories in August 1975 and repeated in February 1978. The probe was calibrated at midheight of a 76 mm passage, with a mean air velocity of 70 m/s. The probe was designed to read true static pressure (subject to the errors listed in Appendix E) when the holes are at least 10 probe diameters (i.e., $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ 31 mm) away from the boundary they project through. The calibration of the probe will remain unaffected by changes in Reynolds number (based on probe diameter) within the range 5 x 10^{3} < Re < 10^{5} [40]. For our tests the range of Reynolds number was 8.6×10^3 < Re < 1.7×10^4 , and the calibration test Reynolds number was 2.8 x 104. It can be seen from Fig. 88 that the calibration data are in good agreement although they spanned nearly a three year period. The measurements shown in this report were made using the first calibration curve. The second calibration was carried out as a check on the accuracy of the probe.

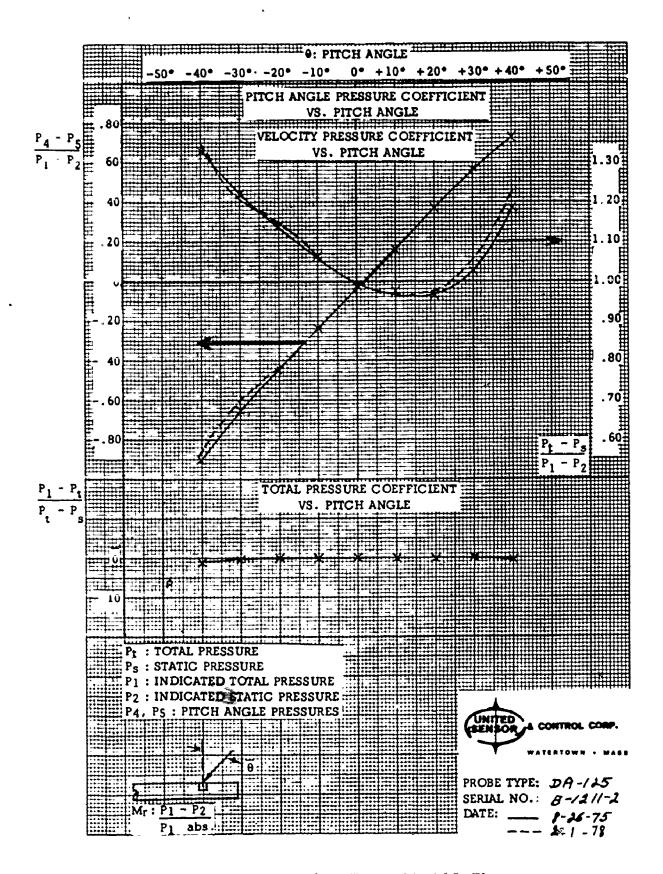


Fig. 88 Calibration Data for Type DA-125 Three-Dimensional Directional Probe.

APPENDIX D

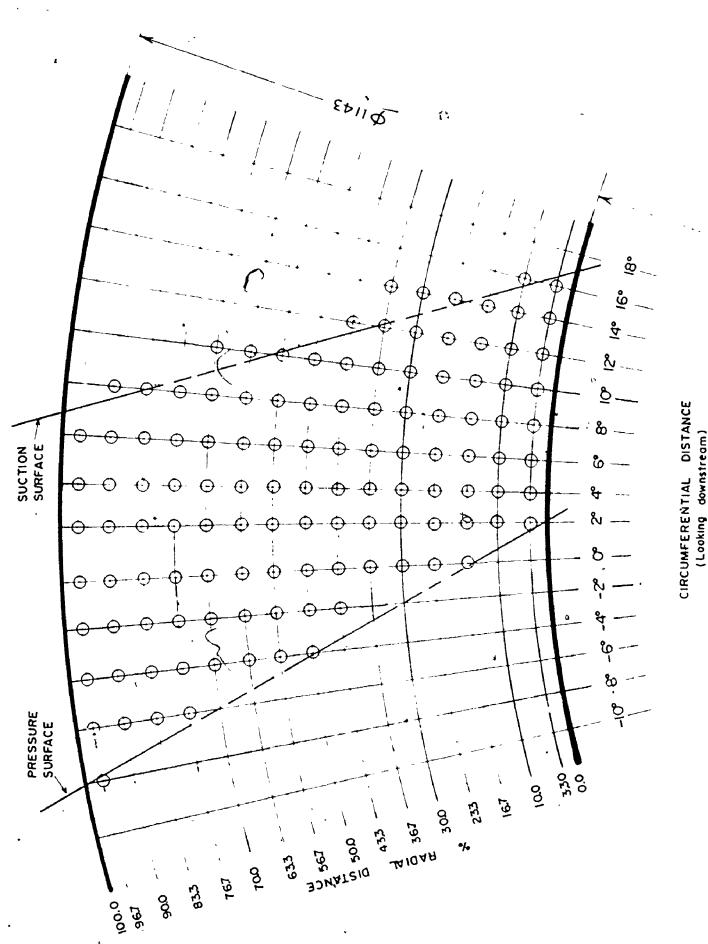
DATA PROCESSING PROGRAM

A computer program was prepared in order to process the data for the annular cascade rig. Program listing and tables of inlet and exit flow parameters are given in this Appendix.

The program started by reading the measured inlet flow conditions, exit flow conditions and useful cascade parameters as defined in the listing. Table 5 summarized the inlet flow conditions at different inlet velocities. The program then proceeded to calculate the local exit flow parameters, which were defined in Section 8.2 and in the listing, at the traverse points shown circled in This staggered selection in the radial direction was made to account for the tilted orientation of the blade trailing edge with respect to the local radial direction. The measured and calculated values of the flow parameters in the exit plane of the cascade are presented in Tables 6, 7 The radial variation of the circumferential arithmetic mean and mass-averaged yaw angle and pressure loss coefficient were then computed, followed by the calculation of the cascade average exit flow parameters. These parameters were also printed out as shown in Tables 9, 10 and 11 for the different test conditions.

Table 5
Inlet Flow Conditions

Parameters	Test #1	Test #2	Test #3
Fan Speed (r.p.m.)	600	950	1300
Free stream yaw angle (Degrees)	63.5	64	64
Free stream total pressure ("oil gauge)	-0.302	-0.623	-1.125
Free stream static pressure ("oil gauge)	-1.737	-3.873	-7.100
Mean velocity in the center blade passage (m/sec.)	22.8	34.8	45.9



ig. 89 Traversed Points in the Exit Plane Used in the Data Processing Program.

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DATA PROCESSING PROGRAM FOR COMPUTING THE LOCAL, KADIAL AND MEAN EXIT FLOW PARAMETERS FOR THE AMPULAR CASCADE RIG THE JAITS USED IN THE ANGLES IN DECREES PRESSURES IN INCHES VELOCITY IN MOTER PE ROOM TEMPERATURE IN POOM PRESSURE IN INC THE THE PROGRAM ARE AS FOLLOWS HES OF OIL GA R PER SECON C IN DEGREES A INCHES OF ME RANKINE IF CIF THE HUMBER OF POINTS IN THE RADIAL AND ESTIONS ARE MORE THAN 15, THE COMPUTED RE CHARGED ACCORDINGLY CIRCUMFERENTIAL CIMENSION HAS INLET FREE STEAM CONDITIONS ARE AT THE CENTRE OF THE CENTRE INITION OF COMPUTER INPUT DATA
HEIGHT TO CHORD RATIO
SPACE TO CHORD RATIO
INLET BLACE ANGLE
INLET TOTAL PRESSURE
INLET STATIC PRESSURE
INLET DISPLACEMENT THICKNESS PER
ROCH TEMPERATURE
ROCH PRESSURE
NUMBER OF POINTS IN THE RAGIAL DE
NUMBER OF POINTS IN THE CIRCUMFER
NUMBER OF P ۲į PÖ1 FS1 ED FT PER CHOPE RATIO RAGIAL DIRECTION GIRCUMFERENTIAL

CEFINITION OF COMPUTER CUTPUT FARABETERS

Y ABSOLUTE VELOCITY

YA AXIAL VELOCITY

Y MEAN YAW ANGLE

YM MASS AVERAGE YAW ANGLE

PO MEAN TOTAL PRESSURE LOSS COEFFICIEN

CPC MASS AVERAGE TOTAL PRESS. E LOSO CO

YS SECONDARY LOSS COEFFICIEN

YS SECONDARY LOSS COEFFICIEN COEFFICIENT E LOSS COFFFICIENT - AS CALDULATED BY DUNHA. COFPELATION

BY

'BY -1

NULTIPLIED

DIMENSION Y(15,15),80(15,15),85(16,15),845(15,15),88(15,15),87(15,15),87(15,15),87(15,15),87(

FEGS IMPUT SATA

```
RESC(5,1) HG, SC
FORMAT(CF1J.4)
REAB(5,2) Y1, PC1, PS1, ME, RT, RP
FORMAT(GF1J.4)
REAC(5,3) H, H
FORMAT(CI1J)
DC 20 I=1, H
DC 10 J=1, H
        1
         3
                00 16 J=1,;

05 16 J=1,;

05 15 (5,4) (1,4), PC(I,4), PS(I,4), P45 (I,4)

FORMAT (4E1664)

20 (I,4) = (1,4)

05 (I,4) = (1,4)
                20(I,J) = (I,J)
25(I,J) = (S(I,J)
045(I,J) = -P45(I,J)
CONTINUE
CONTINUE
      10
20
 ũ
                PI=3.14159/170.0

PARAMETER USED IN DUNHAM CORRELATION

3S=(0.0059+5.078*SORT(DD))*+C/COS(Y1*PI)

JP1=F01-PS1
Ç
               7P1=F01-P
Y=0.0
7P05=0.3
7P05=0.3
7P05E=0.3
7P05E=0.0
Va=0.0
VA=0.0
C
               00 30 I=1,4
A(I) =0.(
B(I) =0.0
C(I)=F.3
                      ]) =[.j
                   (
                AA(I)=3.0
3B(I)=5.0
CC(I)=3.0
C(I)=0.0
E(I)=0.3
            C
C
```

```
E(I) = E(I) + VA(I, J)
CONTINUE
                     4.0
C
                                                              AA(I)=AA(I)/E(I)
33(I)=35(I)/E(I)
30(I)=CC(I)/E(I)
0(I)=C(I)/FLOAT(I)
E(I)=E(I)/FLOAT(I)
A(I)=B(I)/FLOAT(I)
G(I)=B(I)/FLOAT(I)
C(I)=C(I)/FLOAT(I)
                                                             V(1)=U(1) /; LDAT(1)
YE=YE+A(I)
DPCE=CPOE+A(I)
DPCE=CPOE+A(I)
DPCE*=CPOE+A(I)
VE=VE+C(I)
VE=VE+C(I)
/AE=VAE+E(I)
CONTINUE
                       7 0
C
                                                             CPCEM=OPCEM/VAE
VAE=OPSEM=OPSEM/VAE
VAE=VEVELCAT(M)
VAE=VEVELCAT(M)
YE=CPCEVELCAT(M)
OPCE=CPCEVELCAT(M)
OPCE=CPCECCECCAT(M)
OPCE=CPCECCECCAT(M)
OPCE=CPCECCECCAT(M)
OPCE=CPCECCECCAT(M)
OPCE=CPCECCECCAT(M)
OPCE=CPCECCCAT(M)
OPCE=CPCECCAT(M)
OPCE=C
                    C
                                                             1: 1
             1: 9
                              s_{ij}
             503
```

```
##I.E(0,117) 1,7011,4(1),4(1),54(1),6(1),7(1)

FORMAT(30x,12,FF11.3/)

TOTALTHUE

FORMAT(1H1,///,54x,*EXIT PARAMETERS*,///,5,x,*VELOCITY =*,F

11.4//)

#ITE(6,861) VAE

FORMAT(50x;*AXIAL VELCCITY =*,F11.4//)

#FITE(6,861) POET

FORMAT(50x;*TOTAL PRESSURE =*,F10.4//)

#FITE(6,862) POET

FORMAT(6,082) POET

FORMAT(6,082) POET

FORMAT(6,083) OFE

FORMAT(50x,*AEAN OFO =*,F11.7//)

#FORMAT(50x,*AEAN OFO =*,F11.7//)

#FORMAT(50x,
            113
CMPIT
             355
                                                                1
            367
              941
              9 4 2
              970
             P 30
            950
              913
```

YIH AIGLE (X)

70.33 72.03 71.00 66.03 3.3 66. 35 7 .. 30 11. .. 54.33 63.G0 65.00 69.30 100 57.30 €8. JE 71. 60 72.33 7.063 63.00- 66.00 16.7 64.33 F7. 13 59. () 73.33 73.03 68.35 55.23 54. ... 33.00 Barry 19.00 01.6. 36. J. 13.34 67.00 66.30 2 1 79.00 73. . . . 63.00 55.15 F: ()) £9.33 69. G. 72.32 71.00 59. 3 57.00 67.33 *7, n3.30 74. () 68.30 64.33 64.53 F7.33 73.03 75.00 7 7. () 51.50 . • 55. .) 59.33 29.00 52.50 54.00 53.30 53.30 58.33 43.33 43.01 46.00 55.33 56. 43 ٠,٣ * 58.00 CA.) , 43.00 542 4 + . . . 3 44.03 53.00 64.00 60.30 57.30 54.03 53.00 A 63.03 50.00 64.33 61.00 54. Cu 65.00 1.4 51.35 43.5c 53.00 71. . . 60.30 65. . . 63.33 757 55. () 57.13 64.30 62.03// 64. 67.31 56.34 67.63 5 . C 57.53 64.35 65. CJ 65.37 68.03 66.06 66.JS 9.2 65.J3 F4.30 65.03 65. J 36° -58.30 65.33 6 2.33 53.05 63. 57 25.00 69.03 65.63

CIRCUMFERENTIAL DISTANCE (From pressure side)

PITCH ANGLE (&)

-.17 .:? -.92 2.65 .15 2.00 3.60 : 10 -4. . J -13.62 -15.3J -7.73 - > . 75 . . . , . () ر رد <mark>د م د د م</mark> CU-5.11 -13.30 +22.25 -17.00 1.13 (6.7 -15. J1 -4.73 2.33 233 -6.07 -13.56 -2..47 -9.61 -3.53 -.73 2.75 -.52 --.15 -17.6. -1c.11 -5.51 3001 -5.73 -. 34 - 52 -2.15 -6.43 -12.65 -23.72 -13.94 -,72 3671 2.3. -2.55 .13 -7.04 -15.45 -27.44 -27.72 433 -1.56 · • 2. 3 . 13 ---/1 -13.10 -52.25 -17.45 500 -: ... -1. 35 - - 7 / -6.63 -13.71 -32.66 -9.73 -Q.)2 -1.45 567. -7.43 -3.33 4.39 633 - 1 - 15 - 1 - 37 - 27 - 34 - 1 - 53 -.75 -0.42 -11.33 -7.5-->.56 +13.63 - 6 4 TCD 1 -9.13 -15.25 -11.00) -10.00 Ν 757 -4.5° -11.75 -1.1 -5.15 2.55 2.35 -- 6. -6, 64 933 -2.22 -1... -1... -1.51 -1.16 سروه م -5.77 -.75 ----900 - - - 55 - 11.53 -1, 52 -5.73 -1.41 -1.53 -4, 1) 957 -2.34 -1.75 -. () -1.15 -2. 6 -4.3JECOSTITY (V)

		-					4,
19.76	- 24.26	25.27	25.23	27.34	27.49	24.93	20.48
25.17	27.52	21.75	23.14	27.53	77.57	27.51	25.35
27.35	46.97	27.50	23.59	24.63	23.4.	27.74	25.64
25.34	27.27	24, 75	27.60	2 3. 27	27, 25	27.21	25.74
27.31	24.15	24.23	27.04	27.34	25.74	25.57	25.74
27.30	27.35	22 - 14	27.62	25. 15	26.15	25.31	25.91
36.59	27.13	25.45	25.47	25.25	25.47	25.53	25.04
24.17	26.41	23.48	23.54	23.14	25.16	24.35	24.54
24.60	25.92	22.52	22.42	23.31	23.55	24.47	23.63
¿ E . 44	25.65	21.33	22.37	23.01	22.61	21,43	23.56
27.33	26.05	22.55	20.85	21.83	24.67	22.33	25.16
24.72	26. 33	27.27	25.11	23.03	23.54	25.40	23.59
24.25	27.12	27.16	26.26	25.77	25.81	25.73	24,44
24.50	25.53	26.79	25.1°	25.73	25.91	25 • 28	26.53
23.95	26.84	24.50	26.51	26.43	26.61	25.19	24.27

AXIAL VELOCITY (V_Q)

7,47	9.35	2 , 54	3.12	3.93	c.80	~.54,	3.32
9.75	13.35	3,35	8.69	4.35	3.40	3.37	10.53
13.35	19.56	11.62	9.71	3.57	11.5°	9.52	16.35
9.38	13.22	10.15	9,91	9.57	114	10.57	11.13
13.17	13.05	3. 55	3.52	3.51	15.76	3.91	16.44
13.25	3.50	7,75	3.94	9.24	3.56	9.50	9.7)
3	13.55	7.14.	5. 54	7, 5, 2	8.54	130	10.72
12,24	: ,.)=	12.46	1,, 3	12.7		10.71	12.60
12.35	15.57	1 4 4	17.5	17.7.	17.59	11.52	13.52
14.17	12.75	11.:7	15.33	17	14.65	z. 23	11.55
12.32	11.52	3.41	4.17	155	1 1	6,74	11.36
7.55	::.,=	11	10 74	7.47	11. 2	131	16.73
3.37	.1.54	11.7	11.1	3.61	1	***45	11.47
13.73	11.34	11.14	10.32	3.63	17.54	13.53	13.21
11.2.	117. 1	11	: 1.77	ر. افار و د	3.91	• 1	15.17

		•					
		TOTAL	54.78.20.3E	CCEFF	ICIENT	(C _{P₀})	
.735	.332	. 298	. 389	37	.033	• 33)	.655
.275	.082	.316	0.1	. 333	• • 0453	66	• 3 (5
.:29	.190	.051	. 0 30	.005	•679	•€85	.223
.173	.121	. 313	. 158	. 17-3"	f.133	.139	.277
. 152	. 375	. 340	.051	. 155	.238	.215	.238
.139	.117	.133	.133	.190	.276	. 2,77	. 275
.:5 "	.173	. 392	. 441	. 523	.277	. 243	.263
. 392	•175	. 5211	. 643	. 695	.570	. 354	.302
. 354	.243	.685	. 6 3 3	• 555	.465	.357	. 354
.152	.312	.799	.733	. 526	. 4 34	•521	. 417
. 336	.229	.661	> 835	.772	.417	.431	. 295
. 246	.179	.19€	. 277	. 521	.452	.277	•392
. 277	.163	. 193	.124	. 180	.225	. 243	. 337
• 2 2 2	.103	.121	•162	.100	.238	• 2 J E	•173

STATIC PRESSURE COEFFICIENT (CP_s)

. 432	.515	.427	. 4 38	• 42, 3	. 434	.521	. 4 95
54	.5 (. 439	.513	.4.7	• 4 50	.523	• 535
•63c	.573 .	. 545	.558	•531	.615	. 554	•583
.558	.543	. 545	.527	.551	.629	.552	• 5 4 2
. 336	.577	. 562	.530	.555	.576	• 573	.557
•55=	.597	15	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	. 15	.512	•543 ₅ ,-	•535
. > 1 -	, ′ 7	.610	.679	• * *	.515	. 4.12	. 455
. 70 *	.524	. 673	.76.	.712	به و رکیم	.5;2	. 451
.509 •	•525	. 553	.5 32	• * 2 *	.524	.500	. 423
.486	.571	.619	.713	` . 135	.432	• 336	.475
.477	.524	.541	• 15 45	July 2	.575	. 353	.523
. 41 4	.454	.31=	.4 1	. 53%	. > 1 =	.519	. 454
	.427	.711	. 10 16 5	• * •	• • 37	. ;) =	• 1. 72
. 357	.446	.439	/:	. 447		, 625	.515
.373	. 454	. 15	. 4.5	. 113	3	. 4 ; 2	. 4 : 3
	•	·					

• 2 2 2 .103

. 199

. 121

.15

.152

.173

. 375

YAH ANGLE (X)

72.00 72.35 72.00 67.00 70.93 72.33 3.30 70.33 £5.33 73.00 70.03 60.CC 69.00 66.00 72.00 10.0 66.33 €8.JC 57.30 % 68.30 63.00 16.7 58.JO E7. 35 58.00 69.00 73.03 64,00 66.30 54.00 233 67,50 68. () 63.00 63. LJ 68.00 R 67.31 Δ 55.30 65.30 300 63. (5 0 63. 0) 63. ... 65.10 69. 30 D 367 53.63 57.4. 63.00 58.03 74.00 62.39 69 🎎 J 72.35 Д 63.00 66.30 65.00 433 73. (0 77.00 75.00 52.50 68.00 65.JC 61.63 58.00 55.00 53.03 500 59.13 53.50 53. (J 55.00 55.00 45.03 567 43.33 41.00 0 56.19 57.33 50.00 54. (3. 45.00 43.63 51.06 64.33 60.JJ 633 55.00, 58.00 Ŝ 40.00 62.03 62.CJ 64.50 Τ 51.00 €3.00 66. () 64.00 700 Δ 63.30 65.30 62.33 767 66.00 64-03 65. (0 63.00 73.03 N 62.0J/ 66.50 65. 0J 55. (1 66.00 63.03 68.30 833 66.JJ \mathbf{C} E4.0 5 Ε 60,00 900 64.30 65.50 66°03 55.01 66.Jü 67.00 54.93 65.96 65.00 57.03 52. ú2 61.00 64. 30 62.39 96.7

CIRCUMFERENTIAL DISTANCE (From pressure side)

PITCH ANGLE (&)

of

2.00 -1.53 -1.63 . 13 330 2. (3 . 12 2.33 .12 -6.51 -11.17 -12.23 -5.32 10.0 : . . 3 -2.64 % . 32 -4.13 -4.87 -11.41 -15.63 -11.83 .23 -3.25 2. (3 16.7 -10.22 R -1.74 -7.41 -14.62 -19.63 1.20 Д 23.3 -1.35 -3.11 D -5.39 -3124 -3.75 -13.13 -15.68 30D -. 25 -1.14 -5~54 -7.18 -11.76 -13.82 -1..70 -.05 Д 36*,*7 .50 -2.74 - 94 L 7,7] 1 -4 .-1 -15.03 -19.57 -19.33 43.3 2.73 -. 37 ~5.55 -2 :05 -3u-31 -16.15 2.42 D 50.0 . 25 -9.11 -1.35 -5.73 -15.75 -33.35 -5.36 56.7 -9.53 -7.5 -2. 1. S Ţ .59 -12.14 -10.54 **-** . c . -3.29 -13.13 -22.54 -12.25 633 Д 2.10 3.34 -12.71 -6.16 -13.37 -15.43 -13.47 4.63 70D Ν 23.69 7.17 4 + 4 2 C 76.7 -4.6. -.23 -7.55 -9.95 -2.13 ·-2. 65 -,55 3.42 83.3 -4.45 - d. 3 : -9.03 -7.41 -3.00 . 33 -5.43 -5.59 -1.0 -4.53 -7. 51 90.0 -5.15 -3.51 -2.62 -2,56 -2.54 - 2 . 17 -4.57 -4. (5 96.7 1.53

CIRCUMFERENTIAL DISTANCE (From pressure side)

7

VELOCITY (V)

33.12	36.17	47.55	41.73	41.73	42.67	33.92	32.17
40.27	42.13	43.61	43.75	42.c4	43.û7	41.52	39.69
42.37	41.55	43.96	43.63	43.33	43.25	45.34	46.76
41.72	42.33	44. 35	43,45	42.44	42.90	42.13	39.66
41.91	43.22	44. 67	43.19	41.72	41.92	41.13	46.49
42.62	43.15	43.57	42.16	41.94	41.45	33.38	40.34
40.87	41.93	41.05	39.27	43.63	40.43	33.96	39.66
37.65	41.78	37.53	36.02	36.63	37.12	39.87	35.12
39.57	49.75	34.99	35.21	36.66	35.93	33.05	36.32
42.4.	39.23	34.22	35.15	34.62	35.31	34.97	36.17
42.77	41.23	35.25	33.79	33.79	37.32	35.09	37.97
38.90	43.14	41.74	33.32	35.65	37.55	35.62	36.43
33.34	41.30	42.14	40.6¢	49.67	40.23	43.25	38.24
39.77	41.77	42.22	42.13	41.13	39.79	4,,79	46.39
38.42	41.15	41.61	41.15	43.93	41.15	33.64	37.19

axiaL VELOCITY (Va)

*							
11.29	14.73	13.85	12.39	12.91	12.39	12.34	12.55
15.35	15.70	14.38	13.51	14.54	15.37	15.24	16.35
15.51	16.25	15.45	15.66	14.75	15.06	15.56	15.53
15.31	16.10	16.61	15.55	15./5	15.54	16.10	17.16
15.63	15.43	15.73	15.45	15.45	15.21	14.83	15.75
15.27	13.54	12.00	13.55	152	15.36	14.72	15.11
13.47	15.64	11.94.	0.77	9.64	1 2	15.31	16.71
17.15	21.75	1:053	07.12	1 *** 3	14.24	15.74	19.40
21. (?	21. 33	22.1º	25.45	27.€3	23. 50	47.71	21.57
23.45	2J.24	18.55	24.29	25.22	22.55	14.90	17.73
29.53	18.40	14.15	14.43	15+č1	13.43	15.35	17.33
15.72	19.75	17.33	14.30	12.54	14,55	15.19	174
15.32	17.45	27.53	15.41	15.27	15.0	15.34	17,93
17.16	15- 25	17.35	17.15	16.67	16.1	17.94	23.37
1".) 7	13.59	15. 60	16,72	15.43	15.4.	15.11	16.3.

		TOTAL	bt 72305F	COEFF	ICIENT	(Cp _o)	
. 554	.427	. 147	• 039	.021	•C11	.173	.65%
.239	• Ú9ª	. 633	. 0 24	.042	• 6 41	•125	.273
.159	.171	. 051	. 647	285	.093	.096	.242
.174	.133	. 316	.055	.138	.139	. 159	. 285
• 162	.333	. 236	• 055	.161	•150	.224	.273
.141	175	.111	.093	•1 5 8	.195	.291	. 251
.238	. 25 A	.373	. 454	. 331	• 2 3 4	. 254	. 244
. 393	.144	• 522	• 552	• 747	.616	.296	.361
.258	.239	.635	.631	• 554	•504	.325	. 285
•৩৭૩	.347	.731	.771	.624	•442	.478	.450
• 554	.208	.608	. 8 33	•773	.378	. 454	.341
.225	. 331	.094	.270 -	. 454	•4J1	. 251	• 3ê7
.216	. 373	.085	.116	.162	.187	•232	•319
147	.035	.135	. 1 16	.147	.137	. • 224	• 173
.239	. 352	. 273	. 1 67	• 119	. 1 31	. 193	.385

		STATIC	L4 5 22 114 5	i Obiri	FICIENT	(U _s)	
.549	•533	. 495	. 4.66	. 454	. 454	. 431	.5(4
.572	.554	.638	• 575	• 543	•563	.547	•563
•511	•595	. 547	• 6 14	•635	.525	. 531	• 5 : 5
•506	.524	.631	-614	. 515	•65i	.609	.575
•603	+625	.633	•539	.509	.600	.612	. 615
.531	.538	• 55 9	• 5 13	• 544	.611	•592	.587
. 73	.543	.742	.7 ::	. 694	.548	• 55:	. 534
• 55A	.5/1	.6/3	• 7:27	.:12	.747	· 6 12.	. + 4 3
. 543	.5.3	•635	· 6 : 9	.670	•553	.577	.493
.562	.61.	. =93	• 735	.537	.524	. 431	•52+
. 556	.5.7	•F33	.773	• 757	-521	. 455	.524
. 450	.528	.724	. 5 (7	.557	•555	. 475	.474
.462	.537	. = 4 5	. 1. 14	.535	.515	. 5 5 2	.513
. 145	.5:7	.56 €	.572	• 533	,4,5	•539	•512
.451	.452	.494	. 4 27	. 434	.521	. 433	.521

YAW AYGLE (X)

330 66.33 66. 10 73.23 71.43 7 2.03 71.30 72.00 67.]] 10.0 E3.03 70.C3 73.00 68.00 65.30 7]. 00 60.00 66. 11 % 16.7 58.JG 65.0C 68. () 69.53 71.63 59.35 63.00 68.00 233 74.64 68.00 59. (j 58.05 R 79.33 6:00 67.00 66.33 Α 300 72.33 64.00 72. (9 72.30 73.63 55.30 65. úù 68.00 D 36,7 58. ÚÜ 73.10 76. 10 76. (ú 78.03 71.03 63.00 68.01 Д 433 64.30 70.33 74.03 79.33 78. ú J 70.00 65.00 55.00 50.0 59.30 E0.00 50.00 58.00 62.00 64. ÚÎ 53.00 58.00 0 56.7 58.13 58.00 53.(3 43.63 44.63 48.JC 50.33 54.03 ł 633 58.00 51.00 S 56.03 43.60 41.0) 48.00 62.33 58.00 T 700 60.00 E2. 38 52. ii 58.03 56. . 3 51.00 62.33 64.00 Д 76.7 E4.0) 85. (J 70.03 66.00 63.JC 68.00 65.33 61.00 Ν C 83,3 66.33 60. C) 63.01 62.00 65. Ju 66. (0 57.00 67.00 900 67.00 65.30 54.00 67.01 66.03 66.39 56.03 51.00 96.7 54.30 61. JC 54,00 65.Ju 65.40 68. ui 63.00 64.JJ

CIRCUMFERENTIAL DISTANCE (From pressure side)

PITCH ANGLE (&)

3.30 -1.41 -.39 1. 28 1.52 · 2 · 3 .63 4.56 3.34 10.0 -4.53 . 15 -. 15 -3.22 -6.34 -9.5: -3.11 -4.59 % 16.7 -12.72 -2.56 2. (0 .19 -3,53 -9.23 -13.79 -9.43 R 23.3 -12.52 -1.42 1.37 · 3.34 -4.77 -11.99 -15.72 -5.82 300 -5.41 -1.19 2.65 . 83 -5.61 -13.55 -14.95 -7.36 D 36.7 ı -1.51 1. 32 -. 41 -4.37 -F.36 -17.35 -12.17 -3.59 433 -.55 3.41 -5.76 -14.01 -23.73 -13.73 1.52 -8.11 50.0 -9.67 -,1_ .74 -.27 -1..12 -22.13 -30.12 -17.59 D 56.7 -6.69 -1..22 -14.58 -33.27 -10.84 -5,35 -6.53 -7.59 S 63.3 -8.59 -12.21 -19.13 -14.02 T **∽**რ.ა5 -4.55 -16.33 -8.91 700 -4.72 -12.33 -20.56 +16.27 1.11 3.59 1.50 -16.18 Ν ⁷6.7 ·-·32 C -3.39 -13.32 -10.39 -6.72 4.54 7.44 -. 54 E 833 -2.52 -9.12 -3.12 -7.39 1-4.23 -.15 3.44 -3.33 900 -4.27 -5.57 -7.00 -5.07 -4.41 -,," 2.71 -6.21 96,7 -.11 -4.53 - 4. 11 -7.24 -- 5 . F j -3.70 -1.53 -5.19

VELCCITY (V

43.31	52.33	54.77	56.45	56,37	56.22	43.57	40.55
53.30	57,95	59.14	50.34	59.29	58.17	55,68	51.63
55.85	56. 96	54.44	53.09	53.41	5 d . A 5	53.79	55.76
54.55	56.63	53.00	53.63	57.46	53.55	53.27	55.44
55.12	55.56	57.42	57.J2	55.63	57.36	56.35	53.96
55.36	56.26	56.23	52.91	51.96	54.37	54.60	54.11
54.71	55.14	53.27	51.0 €	40.79	48.55	52.00	53.12
52.59	5 5. 43	51773	49.01	45.62	45.73	43.52	51.97
53.03	53.66	46.79	43.45	41. 813	47.33	50,51	51.65
55.99	53.75	46.53	46.38	46.43	48.cC	45.59	49.83
57.36	54.31	48.13	46.00	46.53	45.54	45.51	52.49
53.34	57.45	56.54	51.17	42.34	53.16	52.15	49.85
52.95	56.59	55.58	55.83	55. \$ 3	55•1c	54.58	51.33
54.36	56.74	56.19	56.77	55.54	55.12	54.89	53.63
50.34	55.10	56. (5	56.29	56.32	55.71	54.34	49.91

AX_AL VELCC.TY (-Va)

17.45	21.29	14.73	13.30	17.42	19.30	15.27	15.82
21.35	21.71	20.23	23.50	21.15	21.45	260	20.95
20.41	22.73	22.25	21.05	26.27	21.17	21.39	20.63
18.22	21.21	22. [5	20.05	25.52	21.47	21.92	22.23
16.33	24.35	17.72	17.62	13.46	20.25	2:.39	26.35
16.33	13.51	13.60	197	16.01	13.65	17.99	26.23
23.34	13.5	14.50	155	19	15.50	_1.50	21.39
26.70	21.74	25. 39	525 , 97	21.17	13.57	22.70	28.20
27.33	23. 25	23.73	35.23	33.75	29.51	23.52	34.31
32.436	27.15	27./1	22.91	34000	32.55	297	26.19
25 • •5	24. 11	21. 15	23.47	251	24.64	20.43	24.25
21.57	24.92	23.51	£ .05	15.41	18.74	21.03	24.17
21.52	23.51	22.72	21.65	21.50	23.67	21.23	24.67
23.16	24,62	22.55	22.33	21.73	21.55	22.30	25.57
22.29	26.62	24.52	22,36	21,.5	23. + 3	2,.50	21.73

	_	TOTAL	PRESSURE	COEFF	IDIE IT (Cp _o }	•
.724	.322	.119	32	. 332	.338	.397	. 3 [3
.255	.371	. კე a	664	364	16	.146	. 322
.253	.172	.336	.033	. 338	.037	.059	.217
.272	.234	.139	.135	.13:	.136	. 135	.247
.258	.258	.213	.137	. 236	.161	. 183	:255
.224	.213	. 263	.322	. 372	.247	.247	. 249
.235	.238	. 456	.532	.599	.527	. 314	.271
.339	.138	. 531	.762	. 355	.316	• 573	• 32)
.255	.254	. 682	. 7 . 7	. 543	.523	. 454	. 356
.145	.335	.724	.749	.715	.473	.523	. 443
.369	.272	. 632	· 249	.724	(). 3 3 7	. 454	. 297
.231	,071	.121	.309	•59]	.431	. 272	.381
	.u71	•986	. 1 13	.172	.138	.197	. 331
.213	.373	. 39€	. 1 21	.142	.167	. 205	. 213
.130	.373	. 371	.1.15	.126	.138	.2,1	. 443

		STATIC	PHESSURE	COEFFI	CIELT	Cps 1	
.517	.531	. 503	.5 2/	. 474	.5.2	.536	•56€
.601	6527	. 629	• 656	. 624	• 5 3 4	.533	.56]
.698	.627	.672	. 7 م کر 7	.672	• 535	. 560	.657
.652	.723	.721	• 6 45	• 553	.691	.578	.671
.67 u	•53"	.741	.7.3	. 673	• 6 35	.551	.6(4
.57i	.679	,,32	.6 19	. 623	.647	.628	• h (5
. 597	.547	.773	• 7 io	. 5 3 7	+519	.515	. 573
.52.4	. 554	.725	, ā /4	. : 3)	.705	.739	.571
.559	.597	.695	. 7 32	. 693	.547	.647	.501
,599	545	, 72 \$. 7 .5	.717	.576	.533	. 593
. 5 ' 4	.535	. 75F	. P 30	, 127	•433	. 471	.574
.534	.6.0	ኒኝ ነደ.	.612	. 671	.647	. 532	• 532
,712	.555	71	• 5 >4	·-, 523	•243	€57n	• 554
.523	.571	. 554	.614	. 59?	.574	.631	. 554
	, 77	526	. 5.72	. 546	.575	. 534	.562

. ` `		VA	Y	Ϋ́Ч	CPO	CPCH
	-	A # 3	69.23	69.21	. 314	.307
3,30	į	3.53 9.66	63.75	· 53.5°	.164	•139 .
% 100 %	27.39	1,.02	63.25	50.21	.110	.111
16.7 R	21.75	11.23	57.57	67.30	, 1 33	.139
A 23.3		9.36	58.12	65.05	.143	.151
D 30.0		9.25	68.56	64.32	• = 75	.177
A 30.	1	9.34	63.13	67.21	.293	.273
. ·	•	12.35	57.37	57.73	. 455	. 456
n 50.0	_	14.55	56.25	49.23	. 456	.476
S T 63	_	13.27	54.0 4	52.9/	.494	•439 •438
A 70		17.31	52.43	62.13	. 466	.283
N -6		10.22	65.52	65.21	. 293	.196
C E 83	Į.	10.49	65.01	65.67	.193	.171
-	0.0 25.05	10.93	65.00	64• A .	•172 •175	.171
96	5.7 25.98	13.94	64193	54. бу	• 11 7	
	,					

ð

AVERAGE EXIT FLOW FARAMETERS

VELOCITY = 25.61

AXIAL JELOCITY = 10.71

TOTAL PROCUJE = -.63

STATIC PROSSUME = -2.43

VEAN YAW = 64.35

MEAN CRO = .2111

HASS AVERAGE OFO = .221.

YOUNGAN = .1071

Table 9 Distribution of the Parameters in the Radial the Ave Flow P

					_		
		V	VA	Y	Υч	CFO	CPOH
•	3.30	38.42	12.34	70.12	7ú.JS	. 266	.250
	10.0	42.14	15.12	68.75	53.55	.169	.111
%	16.7	42.75	15.73	55.12	65.17	.119	-118
R	2 3 .3	42.44	15.38	57.31	57.27	.135	.137
Δ	30.0	42.20	15.57	65.00	57.95	.145	.145
0	36.7	41.79	15.05	63.5:	63. JS	.169	•168
Δ	43,3	40.43	13.83	69.43	63.27	•2ª5	.257
Ĺ	500	38.00	18.63	59.43	59.17	.463	.451
D	56.7	37.59	23.13	50.03	49.32	• 435	.447
\$	63,3	35.53	20.93	53.87	52.31	.492	.493
T A	٠٠٥٥	37,29	15.81	62.75	°62.57	455	•428
N	76.7	39•,9€	15.76	65 • G 1.	55.74	. 2 E J	.246
C E	833	40.39	15.48	65.75	55.65	.170	.170
	900	49.39	17.33	64.81	64.67	•143	•147
	96.7	40.15	17.37	64.75	° 54.58	.164	.151

AVERAGE EXIT FLOW PARAMETERS

VELOCITY = 40.31

AXIAL VELOCITY = 16.73

TOTAL F-FSSUPE = -1.47

STATIC PRESSURE = -1.47

MEAN YAW = 64.50

HEAN CRO = .1935

MASS AVERAGE ORD = .2003

YO COMMIN = .1654

Table 10 Distribution of the Parameters in the Ra

		. V	٧A	Y	Yu	CPO	CPOH
	3.30	51.27	17.39	69.25	. 69.15	.305	.293 (
	0.01	56,48	22.43	53.25	68.21	.161	.1)3
%	16.7	53,15	21.24	63.31	53.23	.135	.105
/ U	233	57.32	20.96	55.25	63.13	.164	•162
R A	300	56.)4	19.61	69.25	63.35	.222	.223
â	36 . 7	54.51	16.39	72.25	71.53	.263	.245
A	433	52.17	16.97	70.52	6y • 16	.399	•359
٤	50ఏ	53.11	24.31	59 . 27	59.63	.542	.519
D	56,7	49.86	29.99	51.6 u	50.33	.493	•512
I S 1	-	49.31	29.24	52,12	51.22	.510	•516
T A	700	50.34	24.03	50.51	6J.37	. 469	.457
N	76.7	52.33	21.14	55.00	65.63	. 313	•295
C E	83.3	54.77	22.01	25.12	66∙0 3	. 171	.172
_	90.0	55.52	23.11	65.25	65.14	. 1 45	.145
	96.7	54.38	22.55	~~r65.37	65.19	.175	•172

AVERAGE EXIT FLOW FANAMETERS

VELOCITY = 53.52

AXIAL VELCCITY = 22.03

TOTAL FFESSUPE = -2.91

STATIC PRESSUPE = -10.00

MEAN YAW = 64.32

"EAN CPD = .2133

MASS AVERAGE CPD = .2259

YS SUNHAM = .1531

Table 17 Distribution of the Parameters in the

APPENDIX E

ERROR ANALYSIS

In order to assess the uncertainty in the measurement and the computation of the flow parameters, Test #2 was selected to calculate typical absolute errors.

Table 12 summarizes the effect of the different errors on each measured flow parameter. The total absolute error in measuring each flow parameter was then calculated using the equation:

$$E = \sqrt{E_1^2 + E_2^2 + \dots E_n^2}$$
 (30)

where

E = total error in the measurement $E_1, E_2, ...E_n = individual errors.$

Table 13 shows the error in the calculated flow parameters. The following equation was used to compute this error:

$$E_{R} = \left[\left(\frac{3 R}{3 X_{1}} E_{1} \right)^{2} + \left(\frac{3 R}{3 X_{2}} E_{2} \right)^{2} + \dots + \left(\frac{3 R}{3 X_{n}} E_{n} \right)^{2} \right]^{1/2}$$
 (31)

where

R = result computed

 E_R = uncertainty in result R

X_n = nth variable

 E_n = uncertainty in the n^{th} variable.

From Table 13 it can be seen that the percentage error was less than $\frac{1}{2}$ 1% for the velocity, and $\frac{1}{2}$ 3 to 5% for the static and total pressure coefficients.

Table 12 Estimated Frror in the Measured Flow Parameters

Total Frior	0,028 41,0	0.028 'TE.0	0.11 850.0±		÷.	te.14 4120	1 ₀ 5.
Inc to Scale Reading	0, H.8000.	n,11.800.0.0	0,025 7150	o_Hrsonon_o_	, ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ;	, o. o. Tkg	ı
hie to Venus- cus Lifect ("H ₂ ())	-0.025	\$20.0-	±0.025	-0.025	,	ı	
Due to Wall Effect ('11,0)	,	+2.75x10 ⁻⁴ [41]	-0.013 [40]	+2.75x10 ⁻⁴ [41]	,	•	ı
The to Turbulence of fect ("H20)	+0.005 [10]	+0.005 [10]	(01) 500-01	+0,005 [40]	,	`	l l
Due to Yaw Angle Lifect ("H20)	-0.013 [41]	*0. 0008	-	-0.0008		1	,
Error Component w Parameter	al Pressure	* Static Pressure	1 Static Pressure	ch Pressure or P _S)	Angle	cmetric Pressure	oom Temperature

Table 13
Estimated Error in the Calculated Flow Parameters

Flow Parameter	Definition of Flow Parameter	Error
Pitch Differential Pressure	(P ₄ -P ₅)	† 0.047 ''H ₂ 0
Dynamic Head	(P _o -P)	÷ 0.089 "H ₂ 0
Pitch Angle	2+50(P ₄ -P ₅)/(P _o -P)	÷ 0.87°
Velocity	$4.78\sqrt{\frac{\text{Room Temp.}}{\text{Room Press.}}x(P_{o}-P)}$	† 0.3 m/sec.
Static Pressure Coefficient	$\frac{P_1 - P}{\frac{1}{2} \circ V_1^2}$	÷ 0.018
Total Pressure Coefficient	$\frac{\frac{P_{o1}^{-P_{o}}}{\frac{1}{2}\rho V_{1}^{2}}$	÷ 0.015

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APPENDIX F METRIC CONVERSION FACTORS

The author apologizes for the fact that the thesis contains mixed symbols and units including SI metric and Imperial. The Imperial units have been used to describe the power sources and the pressure measurements including manometers, traversing mechanisms, etc. The test apparatus on the other hand has been designed using metric scales. A series of conversion factors taken from the National Standard of Canada Metric Practice Guide (CAN3-Z234.1-76) are shown below to facilitate conversion where necessary.

Units used in Thesis	Equivalent in SI Units
inch	25.4 mm
inch water (20°C)	248.641 Pa
inch oil (20°C)	205.375 Pa
inch mercury (20°C)	3.374 k Pa
, p.s.i.	6.895 k Pa
c.f.m.	0.472 dm ³ /s
r.p.m.	0.0167 ,rev/s
B.H.P.	. 746 W
•	