

Technical Notes

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Criterion for Vortex Periodicity in Cylinder Wakes

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The Strouhal number for the vortex shedding from a circular cylinder mounted normal to the freestream is shown in Fig. 1 as a function of Reynolds number. The experimental results¹⁻⁹ define a unique Strouhal number (within the data scatter) only for $Re < 0.2 \times 10^6$ and $Re > 3.5 \times 10^6$. Until Roshko showed otherwise,¹ it was generally believed that the periodic von Kármán-type vortex street could not exist at supercritical Reynolds numbers. Roshko showed that the harmonic vortex shedding reappeared at $Re \geq 3.5 \times 10^6$, with a shorter wavelength, higher frequency. These results were confirmed later by Jones et al.,² who also found that the harmonic vortex shedding started at $Re \geq 3.5 \times 10^6$. The various nonunique harmonic results in the transcritical region $0.2 < Re \times 10^{-6} < 3.5$ are discussed in Ref. 10, where it is shown that model vibration, measurement in the near wake, misinterpretation of spectral results, and possible effects of cavitation in water-tunnel tests all may serve to explain the measured anomalous Strouhal numbers. Also included in Fig. 1 is the "center frequency" computed by Theisen⁹ for the transcritical Reynolds number region using the spectral characteristics measured by Fung.¹¹ It can be seen that this center-frequency curve provides a smooth transition from subcritical to supercritical Strouhal numbers.

Seeing the results in Fig. 1, one asks, of course, the reason for the disappearance of vortex periodicity in the transcritical region $0.2 < Re \times 10^{-6} < 3.5$. Based on the critical review in Ref. 10 of the available experimental evidence, one concludes that the reason is that at transcritical Reynolds numbers, the separated flow region on a circular cylinder lacks two-dimensionality. Although Reynolds number is a very important parameter, it is not sufficient by itself to determine whether the flow on the cylinder is supercritical or subcritical. Surface roughness can decrease the critical Reynolds number by almost one order of magnitude¹² (Fig. 2), and wind tunnel turbulence has a similarly large effect¹³ (Fig. 3). Figure 4 summarizes the effect of roughness on the Reynolds number boundaries of the transcritical region.¹⁴ With the definition of "smooth" used by Schechenyi,¹⁵ i.e., $(\delta/d)_{\text{smooth}} = 3.5 \times 10^{-5}$, Fig. 4 indicates that the transcritical region for a smooth cylinder extends from $Re < 2.5 \times 10^5$ to $Re > 2 \times 10^6$, the same Reynolds number range for which definite vortex periodicity is lacking (Fig. 1).

Figure 4 illustrates how sensitive the transcritical Reynolds number boundaries are to roughness. Considering the spanwise variation of model roughness, as well as of wind tunnel turbulence, one cannot, of course, expect the separated

flow region to be truly two-dimensional for transcritical Reynolds numbers. This conclusion is supported further by the results of Humphreys¹³ showing the boundary-layer transition process on a circular cylinder to be highly three-dimensional with a spanwise wave or cell pattern playing an important role. According to Theisen's theoretical and experimental results,⁹ the two-dimensionality needs to extend

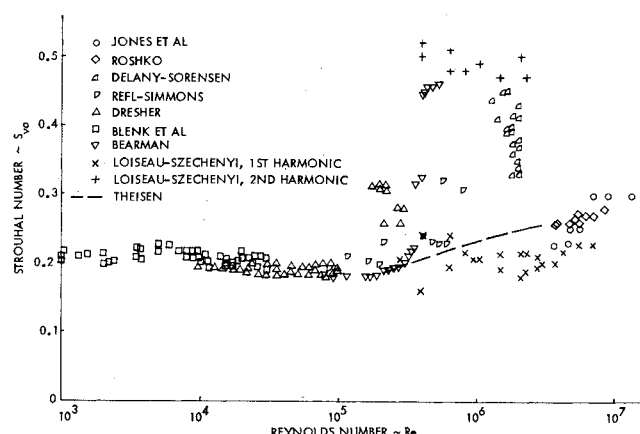


Fig. 1 Strouhal number for vortex shedding off a circular cylinder normal to uniform incompressible flow.

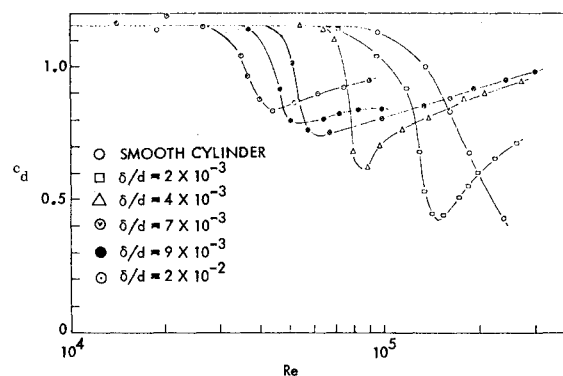


Fig. 2 Effect of roughness on cylinder drag (Ref. 12).

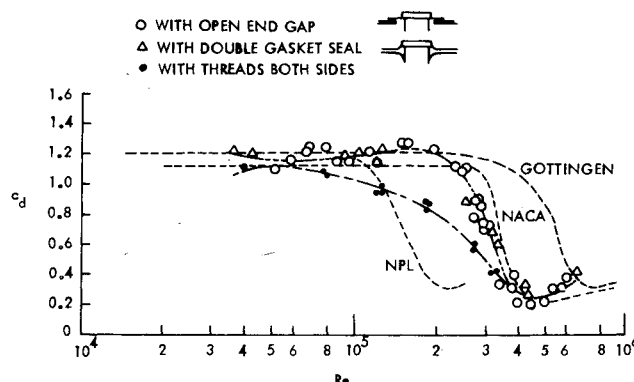


Fig. 3 Drag coefficient vs Reynolds number in different ground facilities (Ref. 13).

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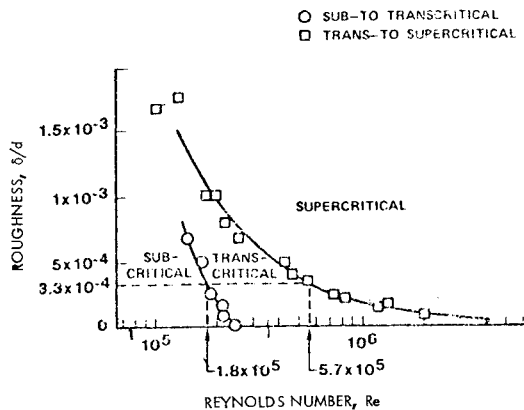


Fig. 4 Limits of flow regimes for different relative roughness sizes (Ref. 14).

over four cylinder diameters before von Kármán-type vortex shedding is established.

In summary, then, it appears that a necessary condition for the establishment of vortex periodicity in cylinder wakes is the existence of a well-defined, two-dimensional separated flow region. Consequently, one would expect that the periodic vortex shedding with the associated problems of self-excited oscillations could be eliminated by introducing three-dimensional flow disturbances that prevent the formation of a well-defined, two-dimensional flow separation geometry.

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On-Axis Velocity Component Measurement with Laser Velocimeters

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Introduction

MEASUREMENT of fluid velocities with Doppler-shifted laser light was demonstrated almost two decades ago; since then, laser velocimetry has developed into a powerful method for measuring fluid and other velocities. While it has been relatively easy to measure the two velocity components normal to the optical axis of the system, measuring the on-axis velocity component has not been as simple. Methods used for measuring the on-axis component include both reference-beam (local oscillator) and dual-beam (fringe mode) techniques. Some of the methods used in the past are discussed herein.

Fridman et al.,¹ Bossel et al.,² and Dubnistchev and Vasilenko³ used three-component, reference-beam systems with forward scattering. In these geometries, the point of measurement is illuminated by focused laser light of single color, and the light scattered by the particles in the fluid is detected by three photodetectors. The position of the photodetectors determines the velocity components measured, which are not necessarily the preferred components. The three measured velocity components are then resolved to yield the Cartesian velocity components of interest.

Fridman et al.¹ installed their detectors in front of the laser and the test section. In their system, unscattered light was focused to and heterodyned on the detectors to sense the Doppler shift. The scheme proposed by Bossel et al.² used Wollaston prisms to combine and heterodyne forward scattered light from two different directions on the photodetector. By properly choosing polarizations and Wollaston prism orientations, they devised a scheme for measuring three arbitrary velocity components. The heterodyning of light in the system of Dubnistchev and Vasilenko³ was achieved with the use of light reflected from a reflector in front of the system.

Orloff and Logan⁴ devised an optical geometry to measure a velocity component close to the on-axis component. Their arrangement uses backscattered light from one of the beams of a dual-beam velocimeter with a crossing angle of θ . The reference beam is obtained as a spurious reflection from a splitter cube and aligned with scattered radiation onto the photomultiplier tube. The measured velocity component is $\theta/4$ off the axis of the velocimeter, and for small θ , this is close to the desired on-axis component. Farmer et al.⁵ also used a similar system to measure the on-axis component in addition to two normal components. The reference-beam backscatter method generally yields large values of Doppler shifts, and thus may not be suitable for many applications.

The direct measurement of the on-axis component is also difficult with dual-beam (fringe mode) methods. One of the schemes for such a direct measurement involves crossing the forward and backward (reflected) beams, thus forming fringes perpendicular to the optical axis of the velocimeter. Because of physical and geometrical constraints, the angle between the crossing beams and hence the Doppler shift in this

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