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Enlighten: Theses <u>https://theses.gla.ac.uk/</u> research-enlighten@glasgow.ac.uk A THEORETICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION INTO THE COMPONENT LOSSES IN THE WORKING PASSAGES OF TURBO MACHINERY.

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# SUMMARY

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#### Introduction.

It is the function of the elements in a turbine or compresson stage to effect the transformation of energy from one form to anot with the minimum loss. In the past losses and efficiencies in th elements and stages of turbo-machinery have been defined and measu in a variety of different ways each associated with the designer c research worker in a particular field. The steam turbine designe has in the main been concerned with high speed flow in impulse or fifty degree reaction stages. In the gas turbine plant the degree of reaction varies not only from stage to stage but with blade hei within a particular stage and in axial flow compressors the designe has been concerned with low speed flow, where for many application the working fluid could be regarded as incompressible.

Present day trends are towards steam turbine stages with vari amounts of reaction in the moving blade and to compressor stages w with rising operating Mach numbers, the working fluid can no longe be regarded as incompressible.

#### Summary.

The enthalpy loss in a blade element, which is the net loss of high grade energy caused by friction forces, is shown to consist of a basic friction loss plus an auxiliary loss which accounts for the "heating" effect of the friction work. The auxiliary loss is positive for compressions and negative for expansions. Relations are derived between the enthalpy loss and other methods commonly us to express the irreversibilities in the blade elements. The equal involved are applicable to static or moving elements in axial flow turbines or compressors with high or low speed flow.

Factors affecting turbine or compressor stage efficiencies ar accounted for by (a) defining an efficiency for the flow process i the stage and by (b) using the concept of blading (diagram) effici It is shown that, while the "total to static" stage efficiency is directly proportional to the blading efficiency, the "total to tot stage efficiency is almost independent of blading efficiency if th process efficiency and blading efficiency are high.

Expressions are developed for the blading efficiency and load factor in a stage for any given reaction effect in the rotor blade It was found that the conditions for maximum blading efficiency co best be obtained in terms of a criterion which is called here the "reaction coefficient". This analysis will fill the gap between existing theories applying to the impulse blade and the fifty degr reaction blade.

In most of the previous work in this field of blading researce use is made of "atmospheric" air in a wind tunnel. It was apprece that a steam circuit could readily be adapted as a variable densit tunnel. Hence, using superheated steam as the working fluid, it decided to explore the flow and loss characteristics for a small rectangular nozzle and impulse blade pair over a range of Reynolds number and Mach number. An impact tube and traversing gear were designed to operate in a relatively high pressure and temperature stream and were so arranged that the entire exit area of either th nozzle or blade could be completely traversed.

A considerable amount of calculation is however involved in

relating the local impact tube readings to local values of efficien and in converting these local values into mean effective values. Hence a procedure is given here which will ease this transformation and will take account of compressibility effects, of variable densi flow and of supersonic flow with the possibility of a shock wave formation upstream of the impact tube.

The nozzle loss is confined to a thin wall boundary layer with isentropic flow elsewhere in the nozzle. The larger blade loss, which is very sensitive to quite small amounts of reaction or compression in the blade passage, is greatest on the convex side of th blade. For this small nozzle, the stream attains a constant efflu angle in only a small central core of the flow with large variation in angle as the nozzle boundaries are approached. This efflux angle pattern remains unchanged with varying Reynolds number and subsonic Mach number. When the Mach number increases beyond unity however, the pattern changes so that the stream conforms more to th geometric outlet angle.

The observed variation in blade loss coefficient at high Reynolds number is compared with other similar work and confirms that a critical Reynolds number exists at 2 x  $10^5$  below which value there is a substantial increase in blade loss.



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## A THEORETICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION INTO

## THE COMPONENT LOSSES IN THE WORKING PASSAGES OF

## TURBO MACHINERY

#### THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF

## PHILOSOPHY

BY

# JOHN H. NEILSON B.Sc., A.M.I.Mech.E.

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Contents.

	Page.
Summary.	iv.
Index of Figures and Plates.	xii.
Nomenclature.	xiii.
Introduction.	xvii,
Review.	xxii.

Part 1 (a).	Methods of obtaining the high grade	
	energy exchanged between the working	
	fluid and its surroundings in flow	
	and non flow processes with particular	ı
	reference to the effect of friction	
	in the steady flow process.	1.
Section 1.	Processes without friction.	2.
Summary.	مرور های از این ا	9.
Section 2.	The steady flow process with friction	
	in the elements of turbo-machinery.	10.
Summary.	القال شلك كارت العال المال محد سرب الحد الخلية فسأر جنية خرب محد مرب وحد خرب محد خرب فحد خرب فحد فري فري فري و	19.
Part 1 (b).	Losses and loss coefficients in axial	
	flow turbo-machinery elements - a	
	review of the methods used to express	
	losses in blade elements and their	
	interrelationships.	21.
Section 1.	The axial flow turbine blade element.	22.
Section 2.	The axial flow compressor blade	
	element.	25.
Summary.	يتعال 1965 خاط بالك كريت عدي حال بالك بلغو معلي 1966 مده الاس الله الله بلغة الله عن الله عليه الله عليه الله ا الله الله الله الله الله الله ا	28.
Part 1 (c).	Efficiencies in axial flow turbine	
	and compressor stages A method of	
	expressing the efficiency of the flow	
	process in the stage and the inter-	
	relationships between the process	
	efficiency, the stage efficiency and	
	the blading efficiency.	31.

I.

Section 1.	Efficiencies in the turbine stage.	Page. 32.
Summary.	المؤود بوست بهاج تبادل والجه ترسب تهابغ البابع كردار الباب منسب تعالم الباب منسب تعالم والبار بالباب منجو والجار الباب الباب الباب الباب الباب	44.
Section 2.	The axial flow compressor stage.	47.
Summary.	عامه بلطارة ميزية براجة لطام مريج عند زمان محمد ذما محم مدم محم مدم محم عدم محمد مالك بليد مريد معلم فرغا الك	54.
Part 1 (d).	Conditions for maximum blading	
	efficiency in axial flow turbines	
	and compressors - factors affecting	
	the choice of design parameters for	
	the stage.	56.
Summary.	المراجع المراجع المراجع المراجع ا	66.
Part 2 (a).	The determination in a static test rig	
	of local total head efficiency of	
	expansion and of stream condition by	
	means of an impact tube.	71.
Summary.	والمتر القابل والجار حامت المتلك والمحر المتلك والمحر المحمد ماست مستر حمام والجار الالك المحل المتلك المتلك المحل الجمع والجار متلك والجار	86.
Part 2 (b).	The conversion of local values of	,
	efficiency and of efflux angle into	•
	mean effective values.	87.
Summary,	عواول متنبه عنه عالت ومتد بالبار حرارا مزور وسد اللبار ومار ومار ومار ومار ومار ومار ومار وم	94.
Part 3.	An experimental investigation into the f	low
	of superheated steam through a small	
	nozzle and impulse blade pair yeilding	
	results on flow pattern and efficiency	-
	with varying Reynolds number and Mach	
	number.	96.
	Object of the experimental work.	97.
	Description of the apparatus.	98.
	Limitations set by the experimental	·
	rig on the applicability of the	
	experimental results.	117.
	Test programme, calculations and	
	results.	118.
Series 1.	Test conditions.	124.
	Specimen calculations, and tables for	•
	tests 1 and 1A.	125.
	- · · · ·	

īi

		Page.
Series 1.	Final results.	144.
Series 2.	anna baga apaga apaga apaga abaga apaga abaga	151.
	Test conditions.	153.
	Final results.	155.
Series 3.		164.
	Test conditions groups 1, 2 and 3.16	6 -168.
	Specimen calculations (group 3).	169.
	Final results.	170.
	Effect of supersonic Mach number on	
	efflux angle.	174.
Discussion of	results.	176.
Conclusions.		188.
Bibliography.		191.
Appendix 1.		194.
NED DISCOULT THE	Specimen tables of observed and deri	
	results series 2 tests 1 and 1A.	196.
	Specimen tables of observed and deri	
	results series 3 (group 3).	211.
Appendix 2.	see separat	e book.
	Contents of Appendix 2.	
Series 1.	Tables of observed and derived resul	ta
		2 - 32.
Series 2.	Tables of observed and derived resul	Lts
	for tests 2 - 6 and 2A - 6A.	33 - 83.
Series 3.	Tables of observed and derived resul	
	for groups 1 and 2.	84 -103
Appendix 3.	An examination of the variation of	
	loss coefficients with Mach number	
·	and Reynolds number with a particula	r
	reference to the existance of critic	
	values of these parameters.	218.
Summary.		234.

iii

### Introduction.

In the thermodynamic design of turbines and compressors it is essential firstly to decide on the basic features of the In turbines. for example, one must determine whether machine. high specific mechanical energy output is the aim or whether one may sacrifice some of this high specific output for an increase in gross stage efficiency. It is then necessary to decide on such factors as blade speeds, stream velocities and degree of reaction or compression. Formerly in steam turbine practice the blading was either of pure impulse design or a 50° reaction design, and for these cases the principles on which the rotor speeds and steam velocities were determined were widely known and practiced. With the advent of the gas turbine plant however, more use is being made of blading where the degree of reaction is other than 50° or zero, both in the turbine and compressor, and this trend is finding its way into present day steam turbine practice. Once the obove mentioned design features have been established, it is necessary to have available data on friction coefficients. efflux angles etc. and these are normally obtained from experimentation the proposed blading. With the development of the gas turbine plant and especially with the axial flow compressor, this work has usually been done in atmospheric wind tunnels, where air, passing into the atmosphere through the proposed blading, is examined with impact or pitot tubes and yawmeters.

iv

#### Purpose of the Present Work.

In the turbine or compressor stage the stage loss is a loss of mechanical work energy which is affected by the loss of high grade energy in the elements of the stage. These element losses are due to the effect of friction forces and it is necessary to understand fully the nature of a friction loss and to be able to correlate the various ways in which the irreversibilities in the elements may be expressed. Fart of the loss of mechanical work in the stage can however be dissociated from the friction losses in the elements and depends on the form of the stage velocity triangles. In turn the form of the velocity triangles is dependent on the initial choice of such design parameters as the degree of reaction and the loading factor for the stage.

When dealing with efficiencies in the turbine stage it is desirable to separate friction effects from effects associated with the form of the velocity triangles. It is the object of the present work to redefine the efficiencies associated with the stage so as to separate these effects and to do so in such a manner that the concepts may be applied to either the compressor or the turbine stage.

Due to the increasing interest in stages which are not either of an impulse or a fifty degree reaction design it is proposed to analyse the influence on the stage efficiency of degree of reaction, blade speed to jet speed ratio and loading factor. The analysis should be comprehensive enough to embrace turbine stages designed for any positive or negative degree of reaction and the theory evolved should be applicable to the compressor stage.

In most of the previous work in this field of blading research use has been made of "atmospheric" air in a wind tunnel. It was appreciated that a steam circuit could readily be adapted as a variable density tunnel. Hence it was decided to explore the flow and loss characteristics for a small rectangular nozzle and blade pair using superheated steam as the working fluid. This entailed more attention to the design of the instumentation compared with the "atmospheric" tunnel but the scheme allowed for testing over a wider range of conditions.

v

### Part 1.

Using the concept of high and low grade energy the net useful high grade energy released by unit mass of working fluid in any steady flow process is shown to be -  $\int VdP - \int fv_r$ , where V is the specific volume of the working fluid, dP the elemental change in pressure, f the friction force per unit mass and v, the relative velocity of the working fluid, the term  $\int fv_r$  being the friction work done in the process. Comparing an adiabatic steady flow process with a similar isentropic process the net loss of useful high grade energy, which is often referred to as the enthalpy loss is shown tie  $(fv_r + )dP (V - V_s)$  where  $V_s$  is the isentropic specific volume Thus the enthalpy loss is divided into a basic friction work loss term plus an auxiliary loss term which accounts for the heating. The auxiliary term is positive for effect of the friction work. compressions and negative for expansions.

The enthalpy loss is related to other methods used to express the irreversibilities in blade elements. Relationships are derived between the enthalpy loss, the total head pressure loss, the increase in entropy, the enthalpy loss coefficient, the total head pressure loss coefficient, the blade velocity coefficient, the blade drag coefficient and the efficiency of the expansion or compression process in the blade. The equations involved are applicable to static or moving elements in axial flow turbines and compressors with high and low speed flow.

Two stage efficiency definitions are used in turbine work, the total to static stage efficiency is the criterion of performance where the exhaust kinetic energy is degenerated by friction and the total to total stage efficiency is used where the exhaust kinetic energy is not degenerated. These stage efficiencies are derived as functions of (a) a blading or diagram efficiency and (b) an efficiency for the steady flow process in the stage. The diagram efficiency depends on the form of the stage velocity triangles which in turn depends on the choice of design parameters for the stage. These design parameters are the blade speed to jet speed ratio, the degree of reaction based on the inlet total head condition of the working fluid and the loading factor. The efficiency of the expansion process in the stage depends on the friction losses in the elements and is derived in terms of the loss coefficients in the static and moving blade rows.

It is shown that the total to static stage efficiency is directly proportional to the blading efficiency while the total to total efficiency is sensibly independent of blading efficiency provided that both the blading efficiency and process efficiency are high.

The axial flow compressor stage efficiency is also derived in terms of a blading efficiency and in terms of and efficiency for the compression process in the stage.

Having shown that the turbine stage efficiencies are dependent on the blading efficiency, an analysis is given of the way in which the blading efficiency varies with speed ratio and degree of reactic It was found that the blading efficiency and loading factor could best be expressed in terms of (a) the blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio and (b) a reaction coefficient for the stage, define as the ratio of the reaction effect in the moving blade to the

vii

kinetic energy available at inlet to the moving blade. The relationships between this reaction coefficient, the total head degree of reaction and other ways in which degree of reaction is sometimes defined are derived and the relative merits of the different definitions discussed. The variation of loading factor and blading efficiency is presented in graphical form. The optimum speed ratio for any given reaction coefficient is obtained along with the value of the maximum blading efficiency. The analysis is developed for stages where the degree of reaction is positive, zero, or negative and it is shown that when a stage is designed for maximum blading efficiency the value of the blading efficiency increases and the loading factor decreases as the degree of reaction is increased.

The way in which the blading efficiency of a compressor stage depends on the design parameters of the stage can be seen by looking upon the compressor stage as a similar turbine stage in which all of the stage velocities are reversed in direction.

#### Part 2.

The Determination in a static test rig of Local Total Head Efficiency of Expansion and of Stream Condition by means of an Impact Tube and the Conversion of Local Values into Mean Effective Values.

The material herein is associated with the experimental methods of obtaining efficiency and efflux angle. Even when dealing with the "incompressible" flow of air through blading there is a considerable amount of calculation involved in relating the local.

viii

impact tube or pitot tube readings to local values of efficiency and further in converting these local values into mean effective values. The calculations become even more complex when account must be taken of compressibility effects, of variable density flow and of supersonic flow with the possibility of a shock wave formation upstream of the impact tube. Hence in this section a procedure is given which will ease the transformation of the local impact tube readings into local efficiency and local stream conditio: and finally will allow these local values to be correctly converted into mean effective values.

Part 3.

An Experimental Investigation into the Flow of Superheated Steam through a Small Nozzle and Impulse (zero pressure drop) Blade yielding results on Flow Pattern and Efficiency with Varying Reynolds Number and Mach Number.

In this section experiments are described in which the flow and loss characteristics of a small nozzle and impulse blade pair were investigated using superheated steam as the working fluid. The nozzle is of rectangular cross-section and was made to suit a standard set of impulse blading. An impact tube and traversing gear were designed so that the entire exit area of either the nozzle or blade could be completely traversed. By this means local values of total head pressure and efflux angle were obtained at nozzle and blade outlet for a range of Reynold's number covering subsonic and supersonic Mach numbers. The results were converted to mean effective values of efficiency and efflux angle by the methods

ix

described in Part 2. and serve partly as an example of the application of these methods to blading research. It was found that the greater part of the total loss across the nozzle and blade pair occurs in the "parallel" passage of the blade and that this loss is very sensitive to quite small amounts of reaction or compression in the blade passage. The nozzle loss is confined to a thin wall boundary layer with isentropic flow elsewhere in the nozzle. The boundary layer in the blade passage is more pronounce than in the nozzle and is thickest on the convex side of the blade. The efficiency of both the nozzle and of the nozzle and blade pair rise with increasing Mach number as the value of unity is approache At low Mach numbers there is a rise in nozzle officiency as the Mach number decreases but the efficiency of the nozzle and blade pair, where the losses are greater, does not show this characterist For this small nozzle, the stream attains a constant efflux angle in only a small central core of the flow, with large variations in angle as the nozzle boundaries are approached. This offlux angle pattern remains unchanged with varying Reynolds number and subsonic The efflux angles in the central core however rise Mach number. slightly with increasing Mach number up to unity. As the Mach number progressively increases beyond unity the efflux angle pattern changes so that there is less variation in angle across the nozzle and the stream conforms more and more to the geometric outlet angle.

The tests on the impulse blade indicate a sharp rise in blade loss as the chord Reynolds number is reduced to  $2 \times 10^5$ . In

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appendix 3 the variation of loss coefficient at high Reynolds number is compared with similar work by Armstrong  $^{40}$  and helps to confirm his conclusion that a critical Reynolds number exists at 2 x  $10^5$ , below which value there is a substantial increase in blade loss.

хi

Fig.	Page.	Fig.	Page.	Fig.	Page
1.	f 2.	38	99.	67.	203.
2.	" 10.	39,	105.	68.	204.
3.	" 15.	40.	106.	69.	215.
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5.	" 22+	42.	108.	71.	220.
6.	" 25.	43.	109.	72.	. 221.
7+	<b>H</b> 32.	44.	113.	73.	222.
8.	" 36.	45.	119.	74.	228.
9.	" 40 <b>.</b>	46.	120.	<b>7</b> 5•	231.
10.	" 45.	47.	122,		
11.	* 47%	48.	134.	Plate.	Page
12.	" 48.	49.	135.	1.	100.
13.	<b>#~51</b> .	50.	146.	2.	100.
14.	." 57+	51.	147.	3.	102.
15, & 1	L6. " 58.	52.	148.	J• 4•	103.
17,18 8	19." 59.	53.	149.	+• 5• '	110.
20 & 21	L. # 60.	54.	150.	6.	112.
22,23 8	e 24." 61.	55.	157.		
25 & 20	5 62.	56.	158.	- <mark>- The State Construction of State Constru</mark>	
27.	" 64.	57.	159.		
28 & 29	9. 73.	58.	160.		
30.	74.	59.	161.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
31.	. 77.	60+	162.		
32.	78.	61.	163.		
33.	79.	62.	171.		
34.	80.	63.	172.		
35.	81.	64.	173.		
36.	84.	65.	175.		
37.	88.	66.	195.		

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xiì

xiii

# Nomenclature.

Ъ		Breadth.
$\sigma_{\rm D}$	-	Drag coefficient.
с <sup>т</sup>	فالبلغ والمتعاد متتناب المحبة بالمائي	Lift coefficient.
c <sub>p</sub> ·		Specific heat at constant pressure.
٦ <sup>-</sup>		Mean diameter.
da		Elemental area.
DH	1996 Merit anni 4440 699	Heat drop.
e		Specific internal energy.
f		Force of friction.
fda	ayaan ormah oloft ilkis yange	Fraction of the elemental area da.
fV	waak angé génér anan débu	Ratio of actual to isentropic specific volume.
F	بالله الله <sup>بران</sup> من الإر	Force normal to vane.
G		Reaction coefficient.
Gra.	مدد جي الزار دونه	Compression coefficient.
ຮັ	ater milit deği desi mes	Acceleration due to gravity.
Ħ		Specific enthalpy.
H.M.	D	Hydraulic mean diameter.
h	متكار وارتبار الكري كماه	Blade height.
j.	and affile the same pairs	Incidence.
J		Mechanical equivalent of heat.
ĸ		Blade velocity coefficient.
М		Mass or Mach number.
m	المت ورق المت الباب الإلي	Mass flow rate.
P/c	<b></b>	Pitch to chord ratio.
₽	هد ده دن چر د.	Pressure.
P <sub>1</sub>		Inlet total head pressure static tests.
$\mathbf{P}_{2}^{-}$	ملاجد فيسو كارته الخبر الإرجاء	Exit static pressure " "
P <sub>3</sub>		Exit total head pressure " "
$\mathbf{P}_{4}^{-}$	میں: میں اسر ویں	Static pressure after a normal shock jump
•		at exit static tests.
P5		Total head pressure after a normal shock jump
-		at exit static tests.
Q		Heat quantity.
R	مورو تورو منه وينزر واورق	Degree of reaction or gas constant.

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Ro		Total head degree of reaction.	V
Re	<del>الله ال</del> ابل من حد وال	Degree of compression, Matal band degree of compression	
Roc	and a set of the second second	Total head degree of compression.	
Rn	anda anya diigo sine ninë -	Reynolds number.	
r	واليري التحك والمراري الألمان	Radius.	
S		Blade velocity.	
t/c		Maximum thickness to chord ratio.	
T	1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 1	Temperature.	
t		time.	
u	nen mir sign ane alti	Radial velocity of the working fluid.	
v	الرت الذار سم شرار کار	Specific volume.	
v	andre daale onde oor 1 dejt.	Absolute velocity of the working fluid.	
V <sub>a</sub>	and don over the line	Axial velocity or accoustic velocity.	
vr	paran <b>alih</b> angia junja majak	Relative velocity of the working fluid.	
$\mathbf{v}_{W}$	ani ata ma am dis	Absolute whirl or tangential velocity of the	
		working fluid.	
WI	laith and ann dan 1990	Specific work input.	
WD	tille also districtions	Specific work output.	
Ŷ		Total head pressure loss coefficient.	
2		Work done or loading factor,	
٤		Enthalpy loss coefficient.	
$\varphi$ or	· 9	Entropy.	
8	عد ذب بي بدر برد	Isentropic index.	
$\omega_{\Delta}^{0}$	ana ana ana ang ang ang ang ang ang ang	Angular velocity of blade or vane.	
ω	aine gant dişi ilmi allığı.	Absolute angular velocity of the working fluid.	
L		Angle between the absolute velocity vector leaving	
		the nozzle blade and the plane of rotation, in a	
		turbine stage and angle between the absolute	
		velocity vector entering the stator blade and the	
		plane of rotation, in a compressor stage.	
		Referred to as the nozzle outlet angle and stator	
		blade inlet angle respectively also local	
		efflux angle in static tests.	
ß		Angles between the relative velocity vectors	
) <b>*</b>		associated with the moving blade and the plane of	
		rotation. Referred to as the "blade" angles.	
		TELEVICE CUTCHER AND A SUM AND A TOTOLOGY	

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xiv

φ	ana an	Angle between tangent to vane and the radius.
<i>.</i> 9	ماري وييل لارن ويبي ويلو	Gas deflection.
м	ara hais ind the sur-	Coefficient of viscosity.
- X	jijan) ilitti ugus una ngan	Isentropic index.
Ņ	inne mile met big war	Blade speed to jet speed ratio or density.
´σ-	and and interaction	Blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio.
p'	بالألفاز الباقارة بإعراب فجربت	Blade speed to jet speed corresponding to the stage
		total head heat drop.
Ţ,	] 	Blade speed to tangential jet speed corresponding
-		to the stage total head heat drop.
Ь	den alle alle alle alle alle alle alle al	An imporical coefficient.
n	مرجد وليزير وري جويل البلان	Efficiency.
hts		Total to static stage efficiency.
het		Total to total stage efficiency.
ha	یکی میروند دیکر اینیو میرو میرو دیکر اینی میرو دیکر میرو دیکر اینی میرو دیکر اینیو دیکر اینی میرو دیکر اینیو دیکر اینی میرو این	Blading or diagram officiancy.
100	ality in companying the states	Total head efficiency of expansion in nozzle
10		and blade pair, static tests.
2-	i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	Total head efficiency of expansion in nozzle
2 n		static tests.
٤	4. Die kuniek solaat dienie wegen	Profix designating summation.
x		Donotos a mean value of x.

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xv

Subscripts.

- ( )<sub>SY</sub> ---- denotes "system".
- ( )<sub>SU</sub> ----- denotes "surroundings".
- ( ), ---- denotes "with friction".
- $()_{\alpha}$  ----- denotes compression.
- ( ), ---- denotes total head condition.
- ( )<sub>r</sub> ----- denotes velocity or condition relative to the moving blade.
- ( )<sub>s</sub> ----- denotes condition after an isentropic process in general.
- ( )<sub>ss</sub> ----- denotes condition after an isentropic process in the stage.
- ( )<sub>N</sub> ----- denotes "for the nozzle blade" in a turbine stage.
- ( )<sub>D</sub> ----- denotes "for the diffuser or stator blade" in a compressor stage.
- ( )<sub>R</sub> ----- denotes "for the rotor blade" in turbine or compressor stages.
- ( )<sub>s</sub> ----- denotes "for the stage" in turbines or compressors.
- ( )<sub>n</sub> ----- denotes nozzle outlet -- static tests.
   ( )<sub>h</sub> ----- denotes blade outlet -- static tests.

xvi

#### Introduction.

Since the impetus given to blading research by the advent of the gas turbine plant, and especially by the compressor unit there has been an increasing interest in turbines and compressors of widely differing types. These types include the radial and axial flow turbine or compressor and the use of the shock wave in supersonic compressors. Against this varied background it is necessary to be clear as to the nature and effect of losses in the working passages in turbo machinery and as to how the losses may best be determined experimentally.

The principal parts in turbines and compressors are the static elements which act as nozzles or diffusers and the moving elements which as well as being nozzles or diffusers are agents for the transfer of mechanical energy. The function of the static elements is the interchange of enthalpy and kinetic energy while that of the moving elements is the interchange of enthalpy on the one hand with kinetic and mechanical energy on the other. The principal factors affecting the efficiency of these energy interchanges, may be grouped under two headings.

These are:-

- (1) Those which cause the degeneration of high grade kinetic energy into low grade energy.
- (2) Those involved in the design and operation of the turbine or compressor and which influence the conversion of high grade energy to mechanical work energy.

The degeneration of high grade energy affects both the moving and static elements and the losses to which the elements are

xvii

liable under this heading are:-

(a) The boundary layer or skin friction loss:-

This loss is characterized by a velocity gradient in the flow in the vicinity of the solid boundaries.

(b) <u>Turbulent flow loss</u>:-

This type of loss can effect the region within the boundary layer as well as the main stream and is due to random velocity variations with time, which are superimposed on the main velocity of flow. These random velocities cause an interchange of mass between adjacent streams lines with the result that shear stresses are set up within the body of the fluid.

## (c) Eddy Motion or vorticity losses :-

This is caused by small variations in static pressure normal to the principal direction of the flow resulting in secondary circulatory motions being imposed on the main flow. The kinetic energy for these secondary motions reduces the energy of the main stream.

(d) <u>Losses due to the separation of the boundary layer</u>:-Under certain circumstances especially in decelerating flow the low energy boundary layer separates from the wall and is energised by the main flow. This results in momentum mixing with

consequent loss.

(e) <u>Shock losses at the entrance to the elements</u>:-These losses are due to misalignment of the fluid stream and blade inlets causing eddy formations. xviii

#### (f) Discontinuity losses:-

These losses are inherent in shock discontinuities or sudden changes in pressure, specific volume, temperature and velocity and occur only in supersonic flow. These losses (a) to (f) are known as reheat losses due to the fact that as the kinetic energy disappears, the stream is "heated" by an energy quantity equal to that of the lost kinetic energy.

Losses under the second heading are :-

### (g) Deviation losses:-

This loss is due to the variation in the direction of the fluid flow from the direction dictated by the solid boundaries of the machine elements and affects the transfer of mechanical energy only.

#### and

### (h) Leaving losses:-

These are losses in the amount of mechanical energy transferred because of the retention in the fluid stream of kinetic energy.

Other parasitic losses are those due to disc friction, windage and leakage of the working fluid past the machine elements.

(1) Those due to the geometry of the machine elements.

For example, the shape of the cross sections normal to the flow, the curvature of the axis of the elements, and the surface finish of the boundaries.

xix

(2) Those due to the properties of the working fluid. For example:- pressure, temperature, density, velocity, and viscosity.

The object of the investigation is to analyse the effect of these losses on the efficiency of energy transformation, to determine the conditions for maximum mechanical energy transfer from or to a working fluid, to establish a technique for measuring losses in machine elements with variable density flow and to apply the technique to determine losses in a nozzle and blade pair.

With regard to the effect of friction, an attempt has been made to show the basic nature of a frictional process, and to distinguish the friction work from the net loss of useful energy which is usually loosely called the loss or friction loss. An analysis is made for the general case of the flow of the working fluid through a radial flow machine and the equations developed, with suitable madification, may then readily be applied to any type of stationary or moving element. Particular reference is made to the effect of friction on the energy transfer terms in turbo machinery and to the different effects of friction in expansion and compression processes.

A section of theory is devoted to the efficient transfer of mechanical energy. In it a criterion is given which determines the best operating speed of the rotor blade for any given amount of reaction or compression in the blade passage. In the theory it is found to be convenient to define a term called "Reaction"

XX

Coefficient" and the criterion mentioned above is given as a function of this Reaction Coefficient. The conflicting factors of high specific mechanical energy output and blading efficiency are discussed for turbine blades with reaction or compression in the blade passage and for compressor blading.

In testing for the effect of friction in turbine or compressor elements. if the total head condition of the working fluid entering the machine element is known, a traverse of the outlet area with an impact tube will allow local values of the loss in total head pressure to be obtained. In the experimental work here the machine elements used are a small rectangular nozzle and blade pair with superheated steam as the working fluid and the arrangement is such that the density of the steam in the test section may be readily controlled and varied. The object is to test the nozzle and blade pair for friction losses and efflux angles under various operating conditions and, taking a broader view, to establish a method of translating the results of the traverse readings into mean values of efficiency and efflux angle which would be applicable to any type of machine To this end a section is devoted to the determination element. of local efficiency and local state point of the fluid from the observed impact tube readings. These local values over the cross-section of the flow are then reduced to mean effective The method used applies generally in that the effect values. of large density change within the element and the effect of supersonic speeds may be accounted for.

xxi

#### Roview.

The problems presented by the flow of the working fluid through the elements of turbo machinery have been tackled from wany viewpoints and with increasing intensity since the turn of the century. On the theoretical side the classical theories of potential flow, based on Euler's equations of motion for a non viscous fluid, represented a major step forward in an attempt to describe by mathematics the nature of fluid flow past and around solid boundaries. These equations were used, for example, to calculate the pressure distribution around cylinders, spheres, and aerofoils and gave results which were found to be in substantial agreement with observations. Various anomalies were however apparent and these were suspected to be due to the neglect of fluid friction. The Navier Stokes equations of motion, which account for fluid friction, were found to be capable of solution in only a few simple cases.

Prandtl was the first to give a practical approach to the problem of fluid friction and to its effect on fluid flow. He divided the flow around bodies into regions where friction could be neglected and where the classical theories of potential flow could be applied and into regions where friction had to be accounted for, these he referred to as boundary layers. Even at this stage Frandtl's theories were the results of mathematical treatment confirmed by observation.

The initial experimental work was of course associated with steam turbines. In 1910 Briling d investigated loss characteristics

xxii

for plate type impulse turbine blades. Using a static test rig he determined the effect of different blade inlet forms and of steam deflection on the blade velocity coefficient. The coefficient was shown to decrease with increasing steam deflection for a given inlet form.

The most systematic approach to finding experimental coefficients in the early days was due to the work of the Steam Nozzle Research Committee of the Institution of Mechanical This Committee was formed in 1914 with the initial Engineers. aim of providing much needed information on the efficiency of typical steam turbine nozzle forms. The bulk of the experimental work took place between 1921 and 1930 and is summarized in the sixth and final report<sup>2</sup>. In the Committee's apparatus the impulse principle was used to obtain a nozzle velocity coefficient. The momentum of the steam jet issuing from the nozzle was measured by the force exerted by it on a flat plate which was placed at right angles to the direction of the jet. Great care was taken to ensure that all of the jet momentum was absorbed at the plate and. since the plate had to be at right angles to the mean direction of the jet, preliminary experiments to determine the efflux angle of the jet were necessary. This efflux angle was initially measured by a metal vane placed in the jet. Tests were made on "cast in" impulse nozzles, "built up" impulse nozzles. Parsons blade type nozzles and on elementary nozzles with a straight axis. In the bulk of the experiments the efflux angle was always less than the nominal outlet angle of the nozzle. In addition it was found that as the pressure ratio across the

xxiii

nozzle was decreased the efflux angle increased and so approached a value nearer the geometric outlet angle. The difference between the efflux angle and the geometric angle was found to depend on the nozzle plate thickness and it was thought that the proximity of the flat surface, inclined at a small angle to the stream at outlet, caused a suction effect on the jet. Thus with the curved type of outlet in the Parsons nozzles or with a chamfered outlet the deviation of the jet from the geometric angle In general the nozzle velocity coefficient was not so great. was found to decrease with increasing steam velocity from low velocities up to approximately 800 ft/sec. to remain fairly constant to about 1600 ft/sec and to increase there after. The minimum values of the coefficient were found to be sensitive to the length of the parallel portion, a large parallel portion being detrimental. It was also found that a roughness on the nozzle profile. produced by machining a screw thread on the nozzle had an adverse effect on the coefficient. In an interesting series of experiments on straight elementary nozzles with different inlet forms, it was found that at high velocity (about 2,000 ft/sec) a nozzle with sharp inlet had a velocity coefficient almost as high as a similar nozzle with a rounded inlet.

The impulse plate method of the Committee's apparatus was used in an improved form by Giffen and Orang<sup>3</sup> in work preceeding 1939 but not published until 1946. The object of this was to investigate the rising characteristic of nozzle velocity coefficient with decreasing steam velocity at low speeds as

xxiv

obtained by the Nozzle Research Committee and the results were in apparent disagreement with those obtained by the Committee.

In a Parsons Memorial Lecture in 1939  $\mathrm{Guy}^4$  describes experiments with which he was associated wherein the vane method of measuring efflux angle was dispensed with and a yawmeter used to find local values of efflux angle at the exit of typical steam nozzles. He again found that the mean efflux angle increased with increasing steam speed and found that at higher velocities the mean efflux angle is given very closely by  $\sin^{-1}$  opening/pitch.

In 1940 Dollin<sup>5</sup> used the reaction principle to obtain steam nozzle efficiency. He supported the nozzles in a static testing machine in such a way that they had limited freedom of torsional and axial movement and by means of balances measured the forces necessary to restore the nozzles to their original position. This was claimed to be superior to the impulse plate method because, in addition to giving efficiency, it also gave mean efflux angle. The results of tests on a group of reaction nozzles showed that, as the pressure ratio was decreased, the nozzle efficiency continuously increased up to the critical pressure ratio. Also the mean efflux angle was always greater than that given by sin<sup>-1</sup> opening/pitch and indeed decreased slightly with decreasing pressure ratio.

Stodola<sup>6</sup>also gives the results of efflux angle tests but in this case on single convergent parallel nozzles with overcritical expansion. The nozzles were mounted in a nozzle holder with the axis of the nozzle pointing vertically upwards

XXV

and the outlet face of the nozzle machined off obliquely to the axis. The efflux angle distribution was apparently obtained by photographing the steam jet and making measurements from the photographs. The results show that for small pressure ratios, in the region of 0.2, the nozzle angle increased by as much as 44 degrees at the inner or shorter boundary with a small positive or negative deviation at the outer boundary.

A considerable impetus to blading research came however with the advent of the gas turbine plant. The need for a compressor which would be efficient at wide operating conditions led to a great deal of work on compressor blading. The principal contribution is that of Howell<sup>7</sup> in his paper "Fluid Dynamics of Axial Compressors" in which he pays particular attention to the variation of blade loss with incidence of the gas stream. Air was used as the working fluid in wind tunnels with cascades of wooden blades, and detailed traverses were made of the outlet flow areas of the cascade with pitot or impact tubes and yawmeters. Thus for a given compressor cascade average values, usually the arithmetic mean values, of total head loss and of stream deflection were obtained for various tunnel settings or incidence angles of the inlet stream. This in turn gave the permissable range of efficient operation of the cascade, since points of positive or negative stall were obtained by the above methods. In addition the total loss at a given incidence was divided into a profile loss or skin friction loss which could be measured at the mid height of the cascade, a secondary loss due to - trailing

xxvi

vortices formed by unequal static pressure distribution within the blade passage and an annulus loss due to skin friction at Fluid speed effects on the loss characteristics the annulus walls. in compressor cascades were allowed for by making use of criteria known as critical and maximum Mach number. Critical Mach number is reached at inlet to the blading when, at a given incidence. there is a distinct increase in loss as the inlet speed is raised. Maximum Mach number is obtained when the cascade chokes and the losses are so great that there is no pressure rise in the blading. Maximum Mach number was found to increase continuously from large negative incidence to large positive incidence. Critical Mach number on the other hand increases from large negative incidence to approximately zero incidence and decreases thereafter. The progressive increase in loss between critical and maximum Mach number is expressed in a simple graphical form in terms of the actual inlet Mach number and the efficiency at critical Mach number. Proceeding from the results of his research Howell evolved rules of procedure which are the present day basis of subsonic compressor design. Details of these are given in papers by Howell<sup>8</sup> and by Howell and Bonham<sup>9</sup>.

Todd<sup>10</sup> in his paper "Practical Aspects of Cascade Wind Tunnel Research" gives details of low speed and high speed (up to Mach No. of one) wind tunnels and of the methods and instruments used in observing flow pattern and loss. The methods given in this paper are substantially the same as those used by other investigators including Howell. The success of the cascade work

xxvii

on compressor blading led to an appreciation of the need for more information on turbine blading. Ainley<sup>11</sup> in his paper "The Performance of Axial Flow Turbines" gives results of similar cascade wind tunnel testing on turbine-blade sections. The work on turbine blading is however not as comprehensive as that on compressor blading and is often limited to cascade testing and subsequent modification of a proposed blade section until a suitable profile is obtained. Attempts have been made. notably by Weske<sup>12</sup> and Carter<sup>13</sup> to correlate the results of cascade testing with the classical theories. mentioned previously. of potential flow in order to obtain a logical procedure of calculation which would relate the known basic laws to the performance of a turbine or compressor stage. These methods have still to obtain widespread recognition and experimental work is still the basis of the design.

A feature of all cascade wind tunnel work is the use of the pitot tube or impact tube to measure local total energy leaving the blade. The tube itself has been the subject of much investigation notably by Todd <sup>10 & 14</sup> and Hodkinson<sup>15</sup>. With suitable precautions it gives an accurate method of obtaining local values of blade loss. In a supersonic stream, however, modification must be made to the observed impact tube pressure to obtain the stream total head pressure, due to the formation of a detached shock wave in front of the impact tube hole. Details of these modifications are given by Bairstow<sup>16</sup> and Durand<sup>17</sup>.

The volume of present day knowledge on the behaviour of turbine and compressor elements is considerable. The future needs of industry will nevertheless demand an increasing research programme on blading elements. The effects of high and low deflection and of varying degrees of reaction in turbine blades. the effects of blade form and pitch especially in supersonic compressors, the effects of compressibility, Reynolds number. secondary flows and of radial equilibrium are some of the subjects requiring further investigation. One disadvantage of cascade wind tunnels is that the test sections normally operate at one pressure and usually the exhaust from the cascade is to the This atmospheric exhaust has many obvious advantages. atmosphere. but it does preclude testing to find the effects of large density In addition the design of a variable density wind tunnel change. with its associated compressor is relatively difficult and is The apparatus used here, while not giving the task oxpensive. flexibility of variable change inherent in the atmospheric cascade tunnel, does give a simple way of obtaining a variable density test section using a steam boiler plant in place of a compressor circuit.

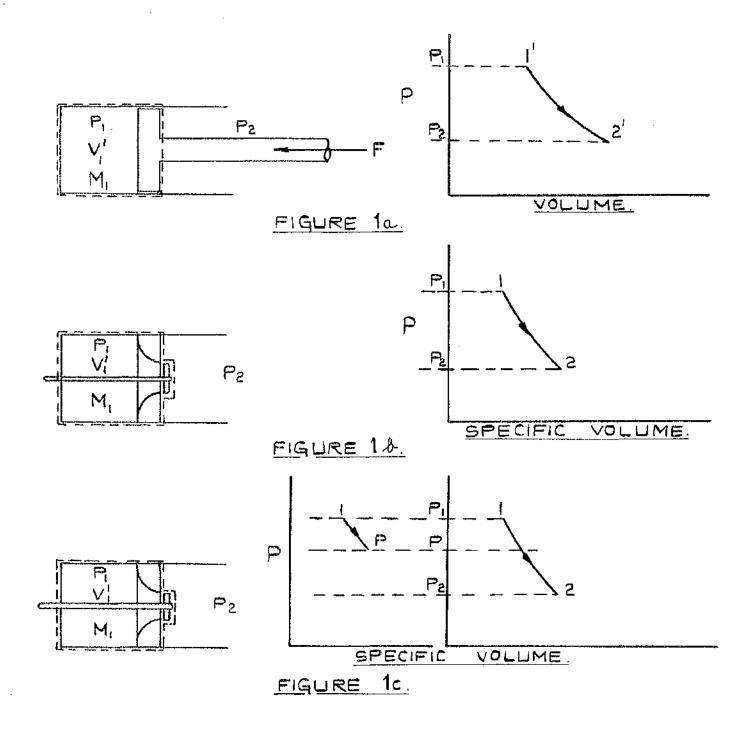
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# PART 1 (a).

Methods of obtaining the high grade energy exchanged between the working fluid and its surroundings in flow and non flow processes with particular reference to the effect of friction in the steady flow process.

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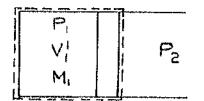


FIGURE 1d.

FIG. 1.

## Part 1 (a).

Methods of Obtaining the high grade energy exchanged between the Working Fluid and its surroundings in Flow and Non-flow processes with particular reference to the effect of friction in a Steady Flow Process.

In turbines and compressors we are concerned in the main with the steady flow process and in particular with the transfer of mechanical work energy from or to the working fluid. Since the relationships between kinetic energy changes, mechanical work transfer terms and the changes in the properties of state of the working fluids in steady flow processes, are but one particular (though extremely important) application of more general laws, it is fruitful to consider the methods available for obtaining energy transfer in different processes.

#### Section 1 - Processes without friction.

Consider a cylinder fitted with a "weightless" piston where the space between the piston and the cylinder head is filled with  $M_1$  lbs of a perfect gas at pressure  $P_1$  and specific volume  $V_1$ . (Figs la, b, c, and d). The volume of gas involved is then  $V'_1 = M_1 V_1$ . The original boundary of the system is shown by the dotted lines and the pressure of the fluid in the surroundings of the system is  $P_2$  ( $P_2 < P_1$ ) In considering the subsequent behaviour of the gas in the system we shall presume that no heat crosses the system boundary and that effects of friction may be neglected.

In case (a) (fig. 1a) suppose that the gas expands slowly to  $P_2$  so that at all times equilibrium is established between the gas and its surroundings. This means that a variable restraining force (F) must be maintained at the piston rod, of such a magnitude that this force, together with the force exerted on the piston by the fluid surroundings, is only slightly less than the gas force on the piston. The total

2,

work done by the gas which appears entirely as displacement work at the piston (the fluid boundary) is given by

$$\frac{P_1 V_1' - P_2 V_2'}{\gamma - 1} = M_1 \left( \frac{P_1 V_1 - P_2 V_2}{\gamma - 1} \right)$$
(1).

This total work may be divided into useful external work done on the force  $\mathbb{F}_{i}^{\times}$  and into work which is absorbed by the surrounding fluid at the fluid boundary. The useful external work is then

$$M_{1} \left[ \left( \frac{P_{1} V_{1} - P_{2} V_{2}}{\gamma - 1} \right) - P_{2} (V_{2} - V_{1}) \right]$$
(2).

and this equation may be rearranged to give

$$M_{1} \qquad (\frac{P_{1} V_{1} - P_{2} V_{2}}{\gamma - 1}) - M_{1} (1 - (\frac{P_{2}}{P_{1}})^{\frac{1}{\gamma}}) P_{2} V_{2} \qquad (3).$$

In case b and c (fig 1b and c) a stop is fitted to the piston and the gas in the system is initially contained in a rigid closed vessel. We shall presume that the piston is fitted with a suitably shaped nozzle, which may be opened or closed instantaneously, and that at the nozzle exit an ideal impulse rotor is fitted, which is capable of absorbing all of the kinetic energy supplied to it. Suppose that the nozzle is opened allowing the pressure inside the vessel to fall. In practice, if the vessel is large compared with the throat area of the nozzle, and if the nozzle is suitably designed we may assume isentropic expansion in the vessel and in the nozzle.

Let M, P and V be the instantaneous mass, pressure and specific volume of the gas remaining in the vessel sometime after the nozzle is first opened. Then  $\frac{M}{M_1} = \left(\frac{P}{F_1}\right) \frac{1}{8}$  and  $\frac{dM}{dP} = \frac{1}{8} \frac{M_1}{(P_1)} \frac{1}{8}$   $P \frac{1-8}{8}$  (4). By applying the steady flow energy equation to the instantaneous ejection of mass 5M through the nozzle, the elemental kinetic energy generated at the nozzle exit, when the pressure inside

the vessel is P, is given by

$$5M = \frac{\sqrt{8}-1}{\sqrt{8}-1} (PV - P_2 V_2)$$
 (5).

Hence the total kinetic energy generated at nozzle exit, as the pressure inside the vessel falls from  $P_1$  to  $P_1$  is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} P \\ P_{1} \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{8-1} \begin{pmatrix} M_{1} \\ P_{1} \end{pmatrix}^{\frac{1}{8}} \qquad (P) \frac{1-8}{8} (PV_{1} (\frac{P_{1}}{P})^{\frac{1}{8}} - P_{2}V_{2}) dP \qquad (6).$$

this gives

$$\frac{M_1 V_1}{8-1} (P_1 - P) - M_1 \frac{8}{8-1} (1 - (\frac{P}{P_1})^{\frac{1}{8}}) P_2 V_2 \qquad (7).$$

and is identical with the work obtained at the turbine. <u>Case b.</u> If the pressure inside the vessel is allowed to fall to P<sub>2</sub>, then from equation 7 it can be shown that the total kinetic energy is given by

$$M_{1} \left( \frac{P_{1} V_{1} - P_{2} V_{2}}{\delta - 1} \right) - M_{1} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{P_{2}}{P_{1}} \right)^{\frac{1}{\delta}} \right) P_{2} V_{2}$$
(8).

which is identical with equation 3. In this event all of the original  $M_1$  lbs of gas whether finally inside or outside the vessel, has expanded from 1 - 2.  $M_1 \left(1 - \left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right)\frac{1}{7}\right)$  is the mass which has discharged from the vessel and has been exhausted against the back pressure  $P_2$ . Rogers and Mayhew<sup>18</sup> approach the problem of case (b) by applying the unsteady flow energy equation and they show that the kinetic energy (or turbine work) is equal to the decrease of internal energy of the gas in the vessel minus the enthalpy of the fluid which has left the vessel. It can of course be shown that this gives the same result as that derived in equation 8.

<u>Case c.</u> If the process is stopped by closing the nozzle when the pressure inside the vessel reaches P, then the total kinetic energy generated can be shown from equation 7

to be

Here  $M_1(\frac{P}{P_1})\overline{7}$  is the mass which remains inside the vessel and has expanded from 1 - P (fig lo).  $M_1(1 - (\frac{P}{P_1})\frac{1}{7})$  is the mass which has expanded from 1 - 2 and has been discharged against the back pressure  $P_2$ .

In cases a and b all of the original mass of gas expands from the initial state (1) to the final pressure  $P_{2}$ . The total high grade energy released appears entirely as displacement work in (a) and as a combination of displacement work and kinetic energy in (b). For either case the total high grade energy released is given by  $\int_{SY} PdV$ , where P is the pressure of the gas in the system (SY) and dV is the elemental In (a) and (b) the displacement change in total volume. work done, by the gas in the system, on the fluid surrounding the system is  $M_1 \left(1 - \left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right)^{\frac{1}{\delta}}\right) P_2 V_2$ . Here  $M_1$  (1 -  $(\frac{P_2}{P_1})^{\frac{1}{\delta}}$ )  $V_2$  is the total volume of surrounding fluid which is displaced and  $P_2$  is the constant pressure of This displacement work at the the fluid in the surroundings. fluid boundary can be written as  $\int PdV$ , where P is the pressure SUof the surrounding fluid and dV the total elemental change in volume at the surroundings. This boundary displacement work. which is absorbed by the surrounding fluid, is not in general useful work and the useful high grade energy released, (equations 3 or 8), may be written as PdV — PdV (10).

In case (c) where the process ceases when the pressure in the vessel is P, the system may be divided into two parts. The first part being that which contains the mass,  $M_1(\frac{P}{P_1})\frac{1}{8}$ , which is finally left in the vessel, and has expanded from 1 - P. The second is that containing the mass,  $M_1(1 - (\frac{P}{P_1})\frac{1}{8})$  which

is finally outside the vessel having expanded from 1 - 2. Although no single pair of properties can be used to describe the final state of the gas in the system, the total high grade energy released is obtained by finding  $\int PdV$  for each of the parts of the system (equation 9). Thus for case (c) the useful high grade energy released is given by

+	∫ ₽dV	- (	PdV
Q	utside the		SU
	C	+ PdV mass finally outside the vessel.	mass finally outside the

In the general case a system may be divided into a number of parts and in addition the system may be in contact with surrounding fluid at a number of points, at each of which the fluid pressure may be different, and indeed at each point the fluid pressure may vary during the process. For this general case the useful high grade energy released will be given by

In case (d), (fig ld) the weightless piston is initially fitted with a stop. If the stop is suddenly removed the gas in the system is subjected to a free unrestrained expansion and directional kinetic energy will be released in various amounts throughout the system. Referring again to cases (b) and (c), the rate at which the process proceeds depends on the size of the nozzle in relationship to the vessel, and in thermodynamics the energy relationships are independent of the time taken for a process to be completed. Thus in case

(d) removal of the stop at the weightless piston is equivalent to replacing the piston with a nozzle of the same The process proceeds at a rapid rate and approach area. velocity will be generated in the vessel as well as at the In practice the directional kinetic energy will nozzle exit. be reabsorbed as random molecular energy but, if one postulates that viscous drag forces will be absent. then case (d) is the same thermodynamic problem as cases a, b, or c, The system in case (d) cannot be conveniently divided into two parts as in case (c), and to obtain the high grade energy released, at any given time, (by using equation 11) the pressure-volume history of all the elements of the system would have to be accounted for.

1.

In a steady flow process a mass of gas, contained within a system boundary, already possesses kinetic energy as the system moves towards a control volume. During this approach to the control volume the properties of state of the gas remain constant and there is no deformation of the system boundary. Within the control volume all of the elements of mass in the system suffer the same series of pressure volume changes. Again in the exhaust the properties of state remain constant. The total high grade energy released is given by

### ' PdV. SY

To obtain the useful high grade energy released, one must consider the displacement work done on the system by the fluid boundary at inlet, where the pressure is constant at  $P_1$ , as well as the work done by the system on the fluid boundary at exhaust, where the pressure is constant at  $P_0$ .

Thus from equation 11 the net displacement work absorbed by the fluid surroundings is

$$\leq \left[ \left( \operatorname{Pav} \right] = - \operatorname{P}_{1} \left( \operatorname{av}_{1} + \operatorname{P}_{2} \left( \operatorname{av}_{2} = - \operatorname{P}_{1} \operatorname{v}_{1} + \operatorname{P}_{2} \operatorname{v}_{2} \right) \right]$$

and the useful high grade energy released is  $\begin{pmatrix}
PdV + P_1 V_1 - P_2 V_2 = - \\
SY \end{pmatrix} VdP \qquad (12).$ 

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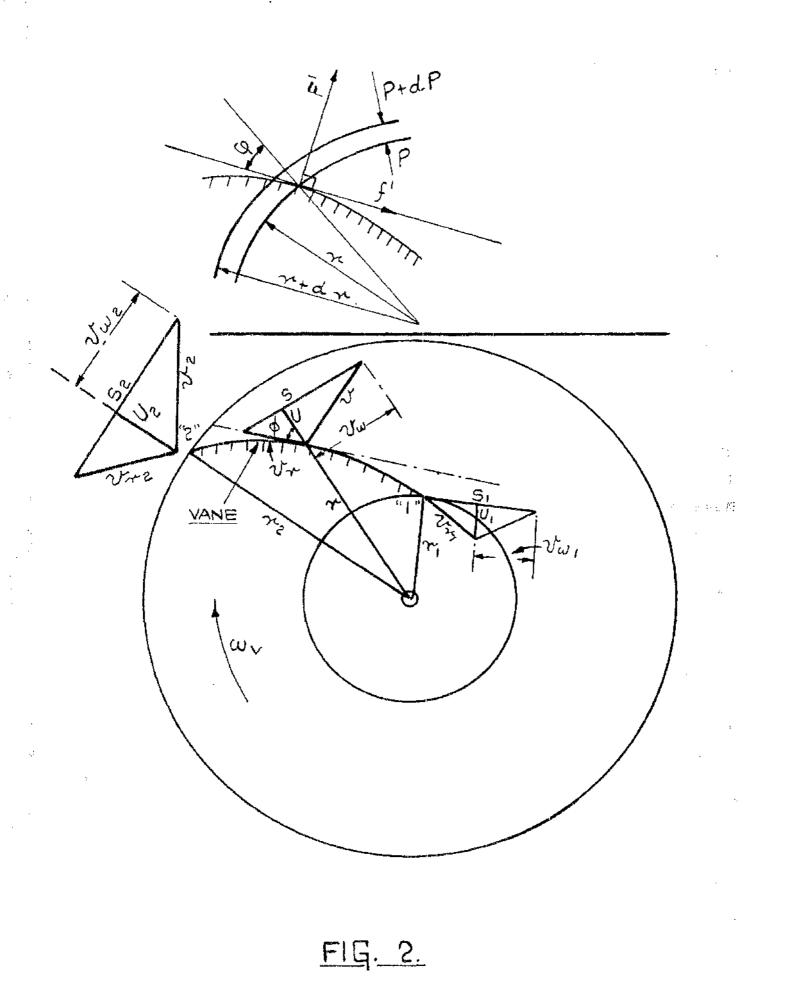
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#### Section 1 - Summary.

There are a number of ways for obtaining work done and kinetic energy changes in closed systems and in open systems with steady and unsteady flow. These include the non-flow energy equation, the steady and unsteady flow energy equations. These relationships have been applied here, to processes where friction may be neglected, to illustrate the meaning that may be attached to areas on the pressure volume diagram in all of these systems.

It is shown that, when any of the elements of mass, which together comprise the total mass within a system, suffer a pressure-volume change the summation of (PdV for all such elements gives the total high grade energy released in the process. This high grade energy may appear as a combination of mechanical shaft work, displacement mechanical work, displacement work done at the fluid boundary on the surrounding fluid, and in increase of directional kinetic energy, which is retained by some or all of the elements of mass.

A distinction is made between the total high grade energy released in the process and the useful high grade energy released. The useful high grade energy released being the total high grade energy less the displacement work done on the fluid surrounding the system. This useful high grade energy for any flow or non-flow process is given by equation 11 and for the particular case of a steady flow process equation 11 reduces to  $- \sqrt{VdP}$ .



Section 2. - The steady flow process with friction in the elements of Turbo Machinery.

In all actual turbo-machinery elements there is some degeneration of high grade energy to low grade molecular energy by friction forces. In the previous section we have seen how the high grade energy involved in a process may be obtained. In this section the influence of friction on the relationships derived in section la will be considered by studying a steady flow process through the rotor blades of a centrifugal machine (Fig. 2.).

In the flow of any real fluid through the blades of turbinesor compressor elements the properties and velocity of the fluid are not constant over any given cross-section in As the fluid molecules pass through the blade the flow. 4 passage, those molecules in immediate contact with the blade surface are at rest relative to the blade. Thus there is relative motion between layers of molecules resulting in momentum transfer from one layer to another. This involves resistance to the flow and results in a drag force on the blade. Hence in any real flow, friction results in an uneven distribution of properties and velocity normal to the mean direction of the flow. In addition, it is the difference in static pressure at a given cross-section between the concate and convex sides of the blades, that results in blade lift.

In an account of blading performance for axial flow turbines and compressors by Shepherd <sup>19</sup>, the lift and drag forces on the blade are related to the change of whirl velocity between inlet and outlet, to give the work energy transferred. Since friction is involved it follows that the whirl components of velocity are not uniform over the inlet or outlet cross-section and the use of average values of these velocity components is implied in Shepherd's analysis. Thus Shepherd combines the effects of a non uniform distribution of fluid properties with the essentials of a one dimensional

flow treatment.

As a general example of a steady flow process with friction consider the motion of a working fluid through the rotor blades of a centrifugal compressor. The arrangement is shown in fig 2. The fluid enters at radius  $r_1$  at the rate of m lb/sec and leaves at radius  $r_2$ . The rotor vane is defined by the path 1 - 2, lying between the inner and outer radii and  $\omega_V$  is the angular velocity of the vane. At radius r let

- u = the radial velocity of the fluid.
- s = the tangential velocity of the vane.
- $\omega$  = the absolute angular velocity of the fluid.
- $v_w$  = the absolute tangential velocity of the fluid.
- v, the velocity of the fluid relative to the vane.
  - v = the absolute velocity of the fluid.
  - V = the specific volume of the fluid.
  - $\varphi$  = the angle between the tangent to the vane and the radius r.

and b = the breadth of the passage.

We shall presume that the properties and velocities are constant with angular position at a given radius, a state which is approached as the number of blade passages is increased. In such a one dimensional treatment it is then necessary to presume that the force of friction is concentrated at the boundary (see Rogers and Mayhew <sup>20</sup>).

Thus at radius r

let f<sup>1</sup> = the total friction force tangential to the vane. and F<sup>1</sup> = the total force normal to the vane. As each element of mass arrives at radius r its acceleration along and perpendicular to the radius may be shown to be

 $\frac{du}{dt} - \omega^2 r$  and  $r \frac{d\omega}{dt} + 2u\omega$  respectively.

Thus for a continuum of particles passing through radius r the radial and tangential external forces on the fluid are m (du -  $\omega$  <sup>2</sup>rdt) = F<sup>1</sup> sin  $\varphi$  - f<sup>1</sup>cos  $\varphi$  - dP2  $\overline{\sigma}$  rb

and m (rdw + 2uwdt) =  $F^{1}\cos \varphi + f^{1} \sin \varphi$  respectively. This gives the radial force per unit mass flow as  $du - \omega^{2}rdt = F \sin \varphi - f\cos \varphi - \frac{dP2 \pi rb}{m}$  (13). and the tangential force per unit mass flow as  $rd\omega + 2u\omega dt = F \cos \varphi + f \sin \varphi$  (14). Where F and f are forces per unit mass flow. The elemental work input at radius r per unit mass is obtained from equation 14 as

 $dWI = (rd\omega + 2u \ \omega dt) r \omega_{V} \qquad (15).$ now  $v_{W} = \omega r$ ,  $dv_{W} = \omega dr + rd\omega$  and  $udt = dr \qquad (16).$   $\therefore dWI = (rdv_{W} + v_{W}dr) \omega_{V} \qquad (17).$ 

This well known relationship is given by Hunsaker and Rightmire<sup>21</sup>. In their generalized approach to the problem the external forces are obtained by considering the momentum of particles entering and leaving a control volume and the rate of change of momentum is referred to two arbitrary directions mutually at right angles. In the analysis shown here some simplification is obtained by choosing at the outset reference directions along and at right angles to the radius. Since however this involves a moving coordinate system, account must be taken in equations 13, and 14 of centrifugal and coriolis accelerations. (Shapiro<sup>22</sup>). For turbines and compressors the control volume is the space within an annulus concentric with the axis of rotation. In Hunsaker's analysis it is assumed that the momentum within the control volume does not vary with time and that the velocity and direction of the fluid are uniform entering and leaving the control surfaces, that is at the inner and outer radii of the annulus. These assumptions are in accord with the provisions stated earlier when dealing with a one dimensional flow with friction . From the geometry of the velocity triangle at r,  $u^2 + (s - v_w)^2 = v_n^2$  or in differential form

 $\therefore s dv_W + v_W ds = \omega_V (r dv_W + v_W dr) = u du + s ds + v_W dv_W - v_r dv_r$ (18).

Hence from 17  $dWI = \omega_V (rdv_W + v_W dr) = vdv + sds - v_r dv_r$ \_ (19). Equation 17 is an exact differential  $\therefore WI = (s_2 v_{W_2} - s_1 v_{W_1}) = \frac{v_2^2 - v_1^2}{2} + \frac{s_2^2 - s_1^2}{2} + \frac{v_{r_1}^2 - v_{r_2}^2}{2}$ (20). From 16, and using the mass flow equation, 13 and 14 may be expressed as  $du - \frac{v_W}{v} \frac{dr}{r} = F \sin \varphi - f \cos \varphi - \frac{dPV}{u}$ (21). and  $dv_{W} + v_{W} \frac{dr}{r} = F \cos \varphi + f \sin \varphi$ (22). Eliminating F from 21 and 22 gives  $udu - v_W^2 \frac{dr}{r} = u \tan \varphi \, dv_W + uv_W \tan \varphi \, \frac{dr}{r} - dPV - \frac{fu}{\cos \varphi}$ (23). now u tan  $\varphi$  = s - v<sub>w</sub>, u = v<sub>r</sub> cos  $\varphi$  and  $\frac{dr}{r} = \frac{ds}{s}$ . Hence from 23 udu +  $\mathbf{v}_{W} d\mathbf{v}_{W} = s d\mathbf{v}_{W} + \mathbf{v}_{W} ds - dPV - f\mathbf{v}_{w}$ (24). Hence from 19  $dPV + fv_r = dWI - vdv$ (25). and  $dPV + fv_n = sds - v_n dv_n$ (26). Equations 25 and 26 apply to any steady flow process with friction. There is no restriction in the proof to adiabatic flow and the equations may be used where there is a combination of friction and heating from a reservoir external to the system. The steady flow energy equation gives (27). dH - dQ = dWI - vdv(28). or de + PdV + VdP - dQ = dWI - vdv where dH and de are the changes in enthalpy and internal energy in the process and dQ is the heat supplied from an external reservoir.

Interpretation of equation 25 for steady flow compression and expansion processes.

For a compression process from 1 - 2, equation 25 gives  $\int_{1}^{2} dPV + \int_{3}^{2} fv_{r} = WI + \frac{v_{1}^{2} - v_{2}^{2}}{2}$ (29). WI +  $\frac{v_1^2 - v_2^2}{2}$  is the total high grade energy absorbed in the compression and  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  fv is the friction work. Thus of the total high grade energy utilized in the process a proportion of it, the friction work, is degenerated and  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ dPV \end{pmatrix}$  gives that part of the high grade energy used, which is usefully employed in creating the pressure rise. For an expansion process equation 25 is best written as  $- dPV = dWD + vdv + fv_{n}$ (30. or for an expansion from 1 - $\int_{2}^{1} dPV = WD + \frac{v_{2}^{2} - v_{1}^{2}}{2} + \int_{1}^{2} f v_{r}^{2}$ (31). where  $\begin{pmatrix} \bot \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  dPV is a positive area on the P-V diagram. In section 1A it was shown that for an isentropic steady flow process -  $\int dPV$ , (equation 12), gave the useful high grade energy released. The total high grade energy released being the sum of the useful high grade energy and the work absorbed by the fluid surroundings. In considering equations 30 or 31 a further distinction must be made. The term may again be regarded as the total useful high grade energy which is ever released during the expansion process. However during the process a part of this energy is degenerated by friction to low grade energy so that the net useful high grade energy released is  $\int_{2}^{1} dPV - \int_{1}^{2} fv_{r} \text{ or } WD + \frac{v_{2}^{2} - v_{1}^{2}}{2}$ Comparison of an adiabatic steady flow process with friction and a similar diabatic process without friction.

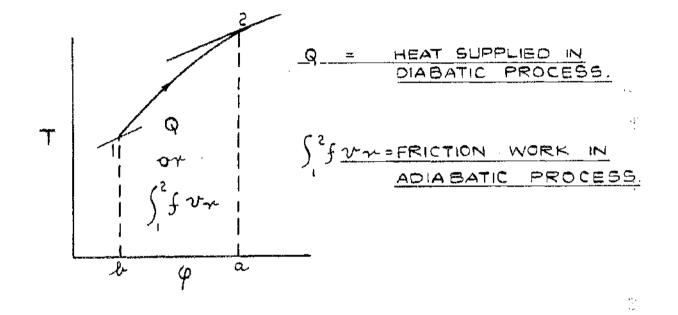


FIG. 3.

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ing RV RV Suppose that in the diabatic process the heat supplied from an external reservoir is such that the path traced out by the state point of the working fluid is the same as that in the adiabatic process.

Hence from 25 for the adiabatic,  $\int_{1}^{2} dPV + \int_{1}^{2} fv_{r} = \int_{1}^{2} (dWI - vdv)_{f} - (32).$ and for the diabatic  $\int_{1}^{2} dPV = \int_{1}^{2} (dWI - vdv)_{f=0}$  (33). For a compression process since  $\int dPV$  is common 32-33, or  $\int dPV$  $\int_{\tau}^{2} fv_{r}$ , gives the extra high grade energy required to effect the pressure rise./2 For an expansion  $\int_{1}^{-} fv_{r}$  is the loss of useful high grade energy released. From 27 for the adiabatic  $dH = (dWI - vdv)_{f}$ (34). and for the diabatic  $dH - dQ = (dWI - vdv)_{f = 0}$ (35). Since dH is common 34 - 35 = 32 - 33 gives  $\int_{1}^{2} dQ = \int_{1}^{2} fv_{r}$ (36). i.e. the friction work in the adiabatic process is equal to the low grade heat energy supplied in the diabatic process.

Hence referring to figure: 37 the area a 2 1 b on the  $T/\varphi$  diagram represents the heat supplied in the diabatic process or the friction work in the adiabatic process.

Interpretation of the "non-flow" energy equation applied to a system which is subjected to an adiabatic one dimensional steady flow process with friction.

For an adiabatic steady flow process with friction equations 28 and 25 give

 $o = de + PdV - fv_n$ 

15.

(37).

 $\int_{1}^{2}$  PdV, and this quantity of high grade energy is obtained by depleating the store of internal energy of the system. Equation 37 may be written as

 $o + fv_{n} = de + PdV$ 

In the form of equation 38 the friction term appears along with the external heat term suggesting that in its effect friction is of the same nature as heat. In equation 37 on the other hand friction appears as a work term. In fact friction is the mechanism whereby high grade work energy is degenerated to low grade energy and as is shown in the comparison of the diabatic and adiabatic process the effect on the working fluid, of the low grade energy created, is the same as that of supplying the same amount of heat from an external reservoir. (see equation 36).

In present day concepts heat is considered as energy in transfer across the boundary of a system. With this definition there should be no need to refer to "external" heat since all of the heat entering the system must come from an external source. In a one dimensional treatment of fluid friction the friction force occurs at the boundary and the low grade energy created could be considered as crossing into the system at the boundary. Since in the actual process however, friction occurs within the body of the fluid there would appear to be room for the terms internal heating or reheating.

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(38).

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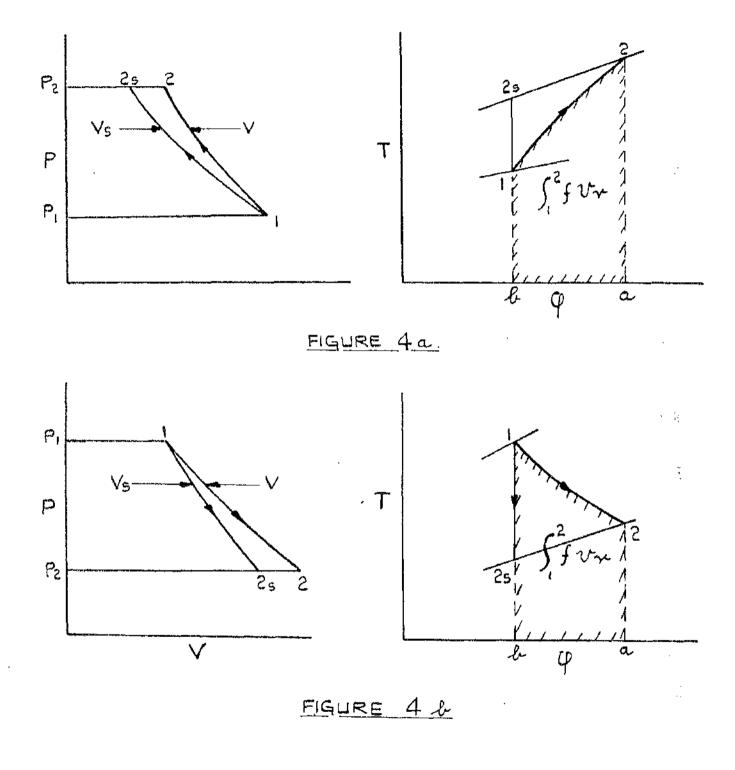


FIG. 4.

The adiabatic steady flow process in axial flow turbo-				
<u>machinery el</u>				
Equation 27				
	dH + vdv = dWI (39).			
or	$H_{0_2} - H_{0_1} = WI$ (40).			
	nge in total head enthalpy is equal to the			
work input.				
For axial flow elements where there is no appreciable radial				
_	ons 25, 26, and 27, which are alternative			
+	for the net useful high grade energy, give			
dH +	$v_r dv_r = 0$ (41). - H <sub>0</sub> = 0 (42).			
or H <sub>02r</sub>	$-H_{0_{lr}} = 0$ (42).			
i.e. the rel	ative stagnation enthalpy remains constant across			
the moving blade row, the relative stagnation enthalpy being that				
obtained by complete diffusion of the relative velocity.				
From 25, 26 and 27 the total high grade energy involved may be				
expressed as :-				
For Carcompression:-				
the total high grade energy absorbed is				
the total high grade energy absorbed is WI + $\frac{\mathbf{v_1}^2 - \mathbf{v_2}^2}{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{dPV}{1} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{fv_r}{r} = \frac{v_r}{2} - \frac{v_r}{2} = H_2 - H_1 $ (43)				
and for an e				
the net user 2	ul high grade energy released is $2 (1) (2) = v (2) = v$			
$WD + \frac{v_2 - v_1}{2}$	$\frac{2}{1} = \int_{2}^{1} dPV - \int_{1}^{2} fv_{r} = \frac{v_{r_{2}}^{2} - v_{r_{1}}}{2} = H_{1} - H_{2} - (44)$			
Comparison o	<u>f an adiabatic flow process and a similar</u>			
isentropic process for axial flow elements.				
Consider an adiabatic steady flow process (1 - 2) and				
an isentropi	c process from the same inlet state point to the			

an isentropic process from the same inlet state point to the same final pressure. (see figures 4A and 4B). For the isentropic compression process the high grade energy absorbed is

$$WI_{s} + \frac{v_{1}^{2} - v_{2}^{2}}{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 2s & v_{r_{1}}^{2} - v_{r_{2s}}^{2} \\ dPV_{s} = \frac{v_{r_{1}}^{2} - v_{r_{2s}}^{2}}{2} = H_{2s} - H_{1} \quad (45). \end{cases}$$

and for the isentropic expansion the useful high grade energy released is

$$WD_{s} + \frac{v_{2s}^{2} - v_{1}^{2}}{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & v_{r_{2s}}^{2} - v_{r_{1}}^{2} \\ 2s & dPV_{s} = \frac{v_{r_{2s}}^{2} - v_{r_{1}}^{2}}{2} = H_{1} - H_{2s}$$
(46).

From 43 and 45 the extra high grade energy required in adiabatic compression compared with the isentropic compression is

$$43 - 45 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{r}} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{d\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}_s)}{\mathbf{r}} = \frac{\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{r}_{2s}} - \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{r}_{2}}}{2} = \mathbf{H}_2 - \mathbf{H}_{2s} - \mathbf{H}_2 - \mathbf{H}_{2s}$$

and this is a loss of initial high grade energy. For the expansions the loss of useful high grade energy released is

$$46 - 44 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{fv}_{r} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{dP}(\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}_{s}) = \frac{\mathbf{v}_{r_{2s}}^{2} - \mathbf{v}_{r_{2}}^{2}}{2} = \mathbf{H}_{2} - \mathbf{H}_{2s} - \mathbf$$

The loss of useful high grade energy in 47 and 48 is known as the enthalpy loss.

Referring to figures 4a and 4b the enthalpy loss may be divided into the basic friction work loss in the process,  $\left( \int_{1}^{2} fv_{r} = \text{area a21b on the T/$\nabla$ diagram$}, plus an auxiliary \right)_{1}^{2}$ loss term,  $\left( \int_{1}^{2} dP(V - V_{s}) = \text{area 122}_{s} \text{ on the P/V or T/$\nabla$}\right)$ diagrams, which is the result of the "heating" effect of the friction work. Kearton<sup>23</sup> refers briefly to this division of the enthalpy loss for compressions. For the expansion process, fig 4b, the auxiliary term is negative showing that the increase in specific volume causes some of the basic friction work loss to be returned as useful high grade energy. In similar expansion and compression processes therefore, where the basic friction work is the same, the loss of high grade energy will be greatest in the compression processes.

#### Section 2 - Summary.

In a steady flow process in the elements of turbo-machinery the friction work is given by  $\left( f \mathbf{v}_r \right)$  where f is the friction force per unit mass and v, the velocity of the working fluid Friction is the mechanism by relative to the moving blade. which high grade energy is degenerated to low grade energy. The low grade energy produced is equal in magnitude to the friction work and causes an increase in the internal energy and in the specific volume of the working fluid. This "heating" effect of friction is the same as that which would occur in a diabatic process without friction where the heat supplied from an external reservoir is equal in magnitude to In a steady flow compression process, the friction work. where one is interested in the efficient utilization of available high grade energy to create a pressure rise, the friction work is that proportion of the total high grade energy used. which is degenerated and does not produce pressure rise. The high grade energy which is usefully absorbed is given by (dPV. For the steady flow expansion process the term dPV gives the total useful high grade energy ever produced during the

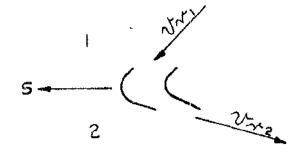
the total useful high grade energy ever produced during the process. During the process however, part of this energy, the friction work, is degenerated and the difference  $(-\int VdP - \int fv_r)$  is the net useful high grade energy released. Comparing a steady adiabatic flow process with a similar isentropic process, the loss of useful high grade energy is given by

$$\int fv_r + \int dP(v - v_s).$$

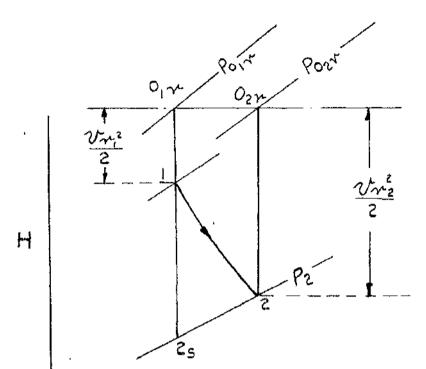
The "heating" effects of the basic friction work loss causes an increase in the specific volume of the working fluid so that the actual specific volume (V) is greater than the isentropic specific volume  $(V_g)$ . Hence the loss of high grade energy may be divided into a friction work term plus an auxiliary loss term reflecting this heating effect of the friction work. In compressions the auxiliary loss term is positive so that friction results in more high grade energy being required. In expansions the auxiliary loss term is negative and there is a return of some of the friction work as useful high grade energy.

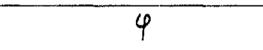
# PART 1 (b).

Losses and loss coefficients in axial flow turbo-machinery elements - a review of the methods used to express losses in blade elements and their interrelationships.



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ADIABATIC EXPANSION (1-2) IN THE ROTOR BLADE OF A TURBINE STAGE.

FIG. 5.

Part 1 (b).

Losses and Loss Coefficients in Axial Flow Turbo-Machinery Elements. - A review of the methods used to express losses in blade elements and their interrelationships. Section 1,-The axial flow turbine blade element. Consider a steady adiabatic expansion in the rotor blade of an axial flow turbine stage from inlet state point 1 to the state point 2. (fig 5). The loss of useful high grade energy known as the enthalpy loss is given by equation 48 as  $\int_{1}^{2} fv_{r} - \int_{2}^{1} dP(V-V_{s}) = \frac{v_{r_{2s}}^{2} - v_{r_{2}}^{2}}{2} = H_{2} - H_{2s}$ dividing by  $\frac{v_{r_{2}}^{2}}{2}$  this gives

$$\frac{\frac{n_2 - n_{2s}}{2}}{\frac{v_{r_2}}{2}} = \frac{\frac{1}{v_{r_2}}}{\frac{v_{r_2}}{v_{r_{2s}}}} - 1$$
(49).

The ratio  $\frac{H_2 - H_{2S}}{v_{r_{2/2}}^2} = \xi \text{ is known as the enthalpy loss}$ coefficient. The ratio  $\frac{v_{r_2}}{v_{r_{2S}}} = K \text{, is the blade velocity}$ coefficient and the ratio  $\frac{v_{r_2}^2}{v_{r_{2S}}^2} = \int \text{or is the relative}$ 

total head efficiency of expansion in the moving blade. Equation 49 gives the relationship between these methods of expressing the loss as

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{H_2 - H_{28}}{v_{r_2/2}^2} = \frac{1}{\kappa^2} - 1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{r_1}} - 1 \qquad (50).$$

The irreversibility in the expansion may also be expressed

as the increase in entropy during expansion i.e. as

 $\rho_2 - \rho_{2s}$  or  $\rho_2 - \rho_1$ . For this adiabatic process the the change in entropy is entirely due to internal friction effects and is sometimes called the internal entropy change. It can be shown that, where such an irreversible increase in entropy occurs in a cycle, the loss of cycle work is given by the product of the change in entropy and the lowest temperature at which heat is rejected in the cycle.

From figure 5 assuming the relationships for a perfect gas the entropy increase is given by

 $\int_{2} - \int_{2s} = c_{p} \log_{e} \frac{T_{2s}}{T_{2s}}$ Equation 42 gives  $H_{o_{2r}} = H_{o_{1r}}$  or  $T_{o_{2r}} = T_{o_{1r}}$  and, while there is no change in relative total head temperature across the moving blade row, the drop in relative total head pressure affords another way of expressing the loss. From 51 To  $T_{o_{1r}} = P_{o_{1}} \frac{p_{o_{1}}}{2r} = \frac{p_{0}}{2r}$ 

$$= c_{p} \log_{e} \left(1 + \frac{p_{01r} - p_{02r}}{p_{02r}}\right) \frac{8-1}{8} \qquad (52).$$

This relates the entropy increase with the enthalpy loss and with the loss in relative total head pressure. This loss in relative total head pressure furnishes a useful method of determining losses in practice and is usually expressed as a total head pressure loss coefficient defined as

$$Y = \frac{{}^{p} \circ_{1r} - {}^{p} \circ_{2r}}{\frac{1}{3} / {}^{2} v_{r_{2}}^{2}}$$
(53).

Substituting in 52 for the enthalpy loss and total head pressure loss from 50 and 53 respectively gives

$$\mathcal{P}_{2} - \mathcal{P}_{2s} = -c_{p} \log_{e} \left(1 - \frac{\xi \frac{v_{r_{2}/2}}{c_{p} T_{2}}\right)$$
$$= c_{p} \log_{e} \left(1 + \frac{v_{1}}{2} \frac{\rho_{2} \frac{v_{r_{2}}^{2}}{r_{2}}\right) \frac{\sqrt[3]{-1}}{\sqrt[3]{2}} \qquad (54).$$

24.

This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{2} - \varphi_{2s} &= -c_{p} \log_{e} \left(1 - \xi \frac{y-1}{2} M_{2}^{2}\right) \\ &= c_{p} \log_{e} \left(1 + \frac{y \frac{y}{2} M_{2}^{2}}{\left(1 + \frac{y-1}{2} M_{2}^{2}\right)^{\frac{y}{y}}\right)} \frac{y-1}{y} \qquad (55). \end{aligned}$$

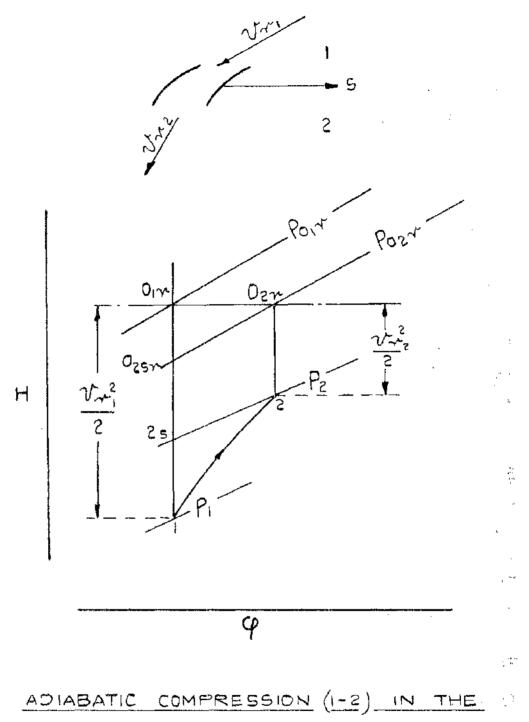
Where  $M_{2r}$  is the relative outlet Mach number. Equation 52 relates the losses while equation 55 relates the corresponding loss coefficients. Useful approximate relationships may be obtained from these equations using the series expression for log (1 + x) where x is small. Hence approximately from 52 and 55

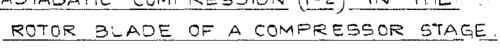
$$\therefore \ \mathcal{P}_{2} - \mathcal{P}_{2s} = \frac{H_{2} - H_{2s}}{T_{2}} = R \left( \frac{p_{o_{1r}} - p_{o_{2r}}}{p_{o_{2r}}} \right) = \mathcal{E} R \frac{\chi}{2} M_{2r}^{2}$$

-

$$\frac{Y_{R}}{(1 + \frac{y-1}{2} - \frac{w_{2r}}{w_{2r}})}$$
(56).

Hence approximately  $Y = \xi \left(1 + \frac{y-1}{2} M_{2r}^{2}\right) \xrightarrow{y-1}$ (57). and when  $M_{2r} < 1$   $Y = \xi \left(1 + \frac{y}{2} M_{2r}^{2}\right)$ (58). and for incompressible flow  $Y = \xi$ (59). A further method of expressing the irreversibility in the blade is the use of a blade drag coefficient (C<sub>D</sub>). This is given in terms of the pressure loss coefficient (Y) as  $C_{\oplus} = Y p/c \frac{\cos^{3} \sqrt{m}}{\cos^{2} \sqrt{2}}$ (60).





<u>FIG. 6.</u>

where p/c is the pitch to chord ratio for the blade,  $\measuredangle_m$  the mean direction of the fluid as it passes through the blade and  $\measuredangle_2$  the fluid efflux angle, the angles being measured from the axial direction.

The enthalpy and total head pressure loss coefficients are sometimes defined as

$$\mathcal{E}_{s} = \frac{H_{2} - H_{2s}}{\frac{1}{2} v_{r_{2s}}^{2}}$$
(61).

and  $Y_{s} = \frac{p_{o_{1r}} - p_{o_{2r}}}{\frac{1}{2} / 2s v_{r}^{2}}$ 

If these definitions are used relationships similar to those above are obtained but in terms of the relative isentropic outlet Mach number M<sub>2</sub>

Section 2 - The axial flow compressor element.

Consider an adiabatic steady flow compression process in the rotor blades of an axial flow compressor stage from the inlet state point 1 to state point 2 (fig 6). In the compression 1 - 2 the loss of high grade energy compared with an isentropic compression from state point 1 to the same outlet static pressure is given by equation 47 as Enthalpy loss =  $H_2 - H_{28}$  (63).

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In compressions however one is often concerned with the energy absorbed in the actual adiabatic process in reaching the final outlet total head pressure. Compared with an isentropic compression from state point 1 to the outlet total head pressure the loss is given by

"total head" enthalpy loss =  $H_{o_{2r}} - H_{o_{2sr}}$  (64).

The general expression for enthalpy loss is given in equation 47 as

$$\int \mathbf{f} \mathbf{v}_{r} + \int d\mathbf{P} (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}_{s})$$

(62).

In equations 63 and 65 the friction work term is common (as is the entropy increase) but because the specific volume  $V_2$  is greater than the specific volume  $V_{2s}$  the auxiliary loss term is greater in 64. Hence  $H_{02r} - H_{02sr} > H_2 - H_{2s}$ In compressions either of these definitions of enthalpy loss

may be used and they are related approximately by the expression

$$H_{o_{2r}} - H_{o_{2sr}} = \frac{T_{or}}{T_2} (H_2 - H_{2s})$$
 (65).

For the compression the enthalpy loss coefficient is defined

as

s 
$$\mathcal{E}_{c} = \frac{\mathbf{n}_{o_{2r}} - \mathbf{n}_{o}}{\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{v}_{r_{1}}^{2}}$$

ТĴ

2sr

Thus 
$$\xi_{e} = \frac{H_{o_{2r}} - H_{o_{2sr}}}{\frac{1}{2} v_{r_{1}}^{2}} = 1 - \frac{H_{o_{2sr}} - H_{1}}{H_{o_{1r}} - H_{1}} = 1 - \text{fore}$$
(50d)

where yore is the relative total head efficiency of compression for the moving blade. The total head pressure loss coefficients for a compression is defined as P - P.

$$Y_{0} = \frac{{}^{+} \circ_{1r} - {}^{+} \circ_{2r}}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_{1} v_{r_{1}}^{2}}$$
 (53c).

By methods similar to that for an expansion process it may be shown that the entropy increase is related to the enthalpy and total head pressure losses by the relationship

and substituting in 52c for the enthalpy and pressure losses from 50c and 53c gives

### Part 1(b) - Summary.

The loss of useful high grade energy in a rotating turbine blade passage is variously expressed as an increase in entropy, a blade velocity coefficient, an enthalpy loss coefficient or as a total head pressure loss coefficient. The relationships between these various methods for expressing the loss are given in equations 50 and 55. They may be applied to a static nozzle or blade row in which case the relative velocities, Mach numbers etc become absolute values. Approximate relationships between the coefficients which suffice in many applications are given in equations 56 to 59.

The method by which the loss in the blade row is expressed has historical associations with the techniques of loss measurement available at the time to the research worker. The earliest method was that used by the steam turbine designer in which "he "worked back" from overall test figures to determine the efficiencies of the elements. Later the impulse plate method was used to determine the total force of the jet issuing from a nozzle or blade. Here the loss was expressed as a nozzle or blade velocity With the advent of the gas turbine, with its coefficient. associated pitot tube technique for loss determination. the losses are given as a total head pressure loss coefficient. When comparing data from these sources it should be borne in mind that the steam turbine data may be obtained from high speed tests whereas the gas turbine cascade tests are usually for Mach numbers less than 0.5. Before making a comparison therefore, Mach number effects should be accounted for by applying equation 57. In addition, results from tests using the impulse plate method give three dimensional loss in the blade. Horlock<sup>24</sup>, who has previously summarized for the turbine nozzle or moving blade the relationships given in this section, points out that the results apply to an imaginary two dimensional flow having the same flow rate and overall losses as the actual stream. In a three dimensional

flow there is a small discrepancy between the square of the velocity coefficient and the total head efficiency. This discrepancy increases with decrease in nozzle efficiency. Values for this discrepancy are given by Kearton <sup>25</sup>.

With regard to the total head efficiency of the nozzle or blade row Kearton<sup>26</sup> uses a different method to express the He splits the total loss into two parts. The first 1088. part is the loss of kinetic energy between the outlet of the previous row and the immediate inlet to the row under This loss is accounted for by using a consideration. carry over coefficient The remainder of the total loss is then attributed to effects within the blade passage. Horlock points out that this division of the total loss is artificial since the boundary layer behaviour within the blade is dependant on the entry flow. In addition it has been shown here that the bulk of the blade passage loss is given by  $\int fv_r$  and the average value of  $v_r$  within the passage is affected by the entry velocity.

Loss coefficients and efficiencies for axial flow compressor blading are defined in this section and their inter-relationship is given in equations 50c and 55c, the corresponding approximate forms are given in equations 56c and 59c. Most of the present data on compressor blade loss is for low speed flow (Mach number < 0.5) where the loss is expressed as a total head pressure loss coefficient. However there is a tendency at present for the operating Mach numbers to greatly exceed 0.5. This in turn necessitates high speed cascade testing where it may be convenient to express the loss as an enthalpy loss coefficient.

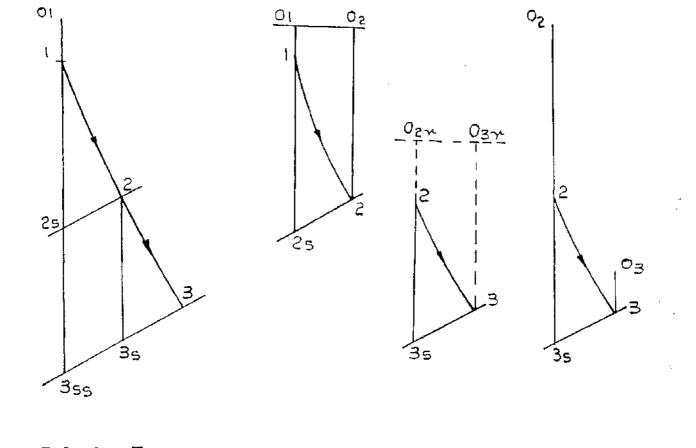
In turbine and compressor rotor blade elements (figs 5 and 6) the high grade energy released (or absorbed) in the process is given by the enthalpy difference  $H_1 - H_2$  (or  $H_2-H_1$ ) and for each case the loss of high grade energy is given by

 $H_2 - H_{2s}$ . On the other hand the quantities  $H_{0_{1r}} - H_2$ (and  $H_{o_{1}} - H_{1}$ ) which appear in the definitions of relative total head efficiency cannot be expressed in terms of high grade energy associated with the moving blade. The loss in the rotor blade however depends largely on the term  $\int fv_n$  which suggest that the blade be examined in a static test rig, where the pressure and temperature at inlet are the same as those for the moving blade, but where the inlet velocity is made equal to the actual inlet relative velocity. In this case the quantities  $H_{0_{1_{n}}} - H_2$  and  $H_{0_{1_{n}}} - H_1$  are the high grade energy released or absorbed respectively in the static test rig, in expansion or compression from or to the total head pressure. Again in the compressor element (figure 6) two definitions for enthalpy loss are given. These are the enthalpy loss  $H_2 - H_{2s}$  and the "total head" enthalpy loss The relationship between them is given in Hogr - Hogrs equation 65. The total head loss has a meaning in terms of high grade energy only for a simulated static test on the These points are referred to again in the element. definitions of efficiency given in the next section.

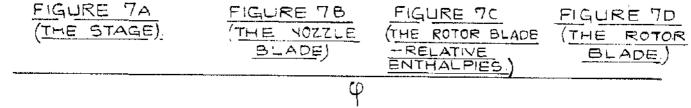
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31.

Efficiencies in axial flow turbine and compressor stages. ----A method of expressing the efficiency of the flow process in the stage and the interrelationships between the process efficiency, the stage efficiency and the blading efficiency.



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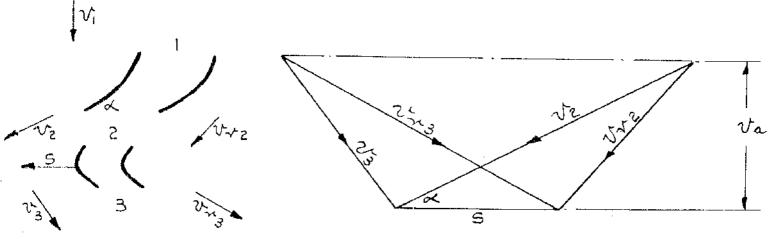


FIGURE 7E

THE AXIAL FLOW TURBINE STAGE.

FIG. 7.

#### Section 1. - Efficiencies in the Turbine Stage.

The function of the following section is to correlate the various ways in which the efficiency of a turbine stage may be defined and to relate these efficiencies to the losses in the individual elements which comprise the stage. Definitions of the efficiency of a turbine stage depend on the application for which the stage is intended. The function of most turbine stages, one possible exception being the turbine of a turbo-jet engine, is the efficient production of mechanical work energy and stage efficiency definitions reflect this fact. In all turbine stages however one is concerned with a steady flow process in the stage and in the elements which comprise the stage. At the outset here an efficiency definition for the steady flow process is given which is applicable either to the nozzle row, the moving blade row or to the stage, and which is independent of the use made of the stage.

Consider the turbine stage shown in figure 7. The working fluid enters the turbine nozzle at condition 1, total head condition OL, and expands adiabatically to the state point 3 at outlet from the moving row.

#### (1) The efficiency of expansion.

The efficiency of the expansion process in the nozzle (N), or in the rotor blade (R) or in the stage (s) may be defined as

Net useful high grade energy released in adiabatic expansion from the inlet condition to the exhaust pressure.

Useful high grade energy released in isentropic expansion from the inlet condition to the exhaust pressure.

Hence from equation 44

for the nozzle (fig 7B)

$$\mathcal{J}_{N} = \frac{H_{1} - H_{2}}{H_{1} - H_{2s}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{H_{2} - H_{2s}}{H_{1} - H_{2}}}$$
(66).

For the rotor blade (fig 7D)

$$\int_{R} = \frac{H_2 - H_3}{H_2 - H_{38}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{H_3 - H_{38}}{H_2 - H_3}} \quad (67).$$

and for the stage (fig 7A)

$$\gamma_{s} = \frac{H_{1} - H_{3}}{H_{1} - H_{3ss}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{H_{3} - H_{3ss}}{H_{1} - H_{3}}}$$
(68).

Expression for the stage efficiency of expansion in terms of the losses in the elements.

The increase in entropy for the stage is

$$p_3 - p_{3ss} = p_3 - p_{3s} + p_2 - p_{2s}$$

m

Hence from equation 56

$$H_3 - H_{3ss} = H_3 - H_{3s} + \frac{*3}{T_2} (H_2 - H_{2s})$$
 (69).

Hence from 68 and 69

$$\int_{S} = \frac{1}{\frac{T_{3}}{T_{2}} (H_{2} - H_{2B}) + H_{3} - H_{3B}}$$

$$1 + \frac{H_{1} - H_{3}}{H_{1} - H_{3}}$$
(70).

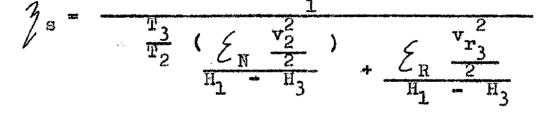
and from 67, 68, and 70

$$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{T_2}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}N}} = \frac{1}{(1-R)} + (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}R} - 1)R$$
(71).

where R is the degree of reaction for the stage

defined as 
$$R = \frac{H_2 - H_3}{H_1 - H_3}$$
 (72).

alternatively from 70 and 50



(73).

In many instances one is more concerned with the final high grade energy available at the end of a process rather than with the energy released during the process.

The final available high grade energy is obtained by rearranging equation 44 as

$$H_{o_1} - H_2 = WD + \frac{v_2^2}{2}$$
 (74).

H<sub>ol</sub> being the enthalpy corresponding to the state point ol reached after isentropic diffusion of the inlet absolute

velocity.

The total head efficiency of expansion for the nozzle rotor blade, or stage, may be defined as

Final available high grade energy obtained in adiabatic expansion from the inlet total head state to the exhaust pressure.

Final available high grade energy obtained in isentropic expansion from the inlet total head state to the exhaust pressure.

This gives

/o⁼

for the nozzle (fig 7B).

$$\gamma_{\rm oN} = \frac{H_{o_1} - H_2}{H_{o_1} - H_{2s}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{H_2 - H_{2s}}{H_{o_1} - H_2}}$$
(75).

for the rotor blade (fig 7D).

$$\int \sigma R^{-} \frac{H_{o_2} - H_3}{H_{o_2} - H_{3s}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{H_3 - H_{3s}}{H_{o_2} - H_3}}$$
(76).

and for the stage (fig 7A).

$$\gamma_{os} = \frac{H_{o_1} - H_3}{H_{o_1} - H_{395}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{H_3 - H_{395}}{H_{o_1} - H_3}}$$
(77).

Hence from 69

$$\frac{1}{708} = \frac{1}{\frac{T_3}{T_2} (H_2 - H_{2s}) + H_3 - H_{3s}}$$
(78).  
1 + 
$$\frac{\frac{T_3}{T_2} (H_2 - H_{2s}) + H_3 - H_{3s}}{H_{01} - H_3}$$

from 75 this gives

$$\frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_3}{T_2} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} - 1\right) \left(1 - Ro\right) + \frac{H_3 - H_{3S}}{H_{0_1} - H_3}}$$
(79).

Where Ro, the "total head" degree of reaction is defined as

Ro = 
$$\frac{H_2 - H_3}{H_0 - H_3}$$
, (80).

From 67

$$\frac{1}{2 \circ s} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_3}{T_2} (\frac{1}{2 \circ N} - 1) (1 - Ro) + (\frac{1}{2 - 1}) Ro}$$
(81).

Alternatively from 78 and 50  

$$\int_{06}^{2} \frac{1}{\frac{T_{3}}{T_{2}}} \left( \frac{\xi_{N}}{\frac{V_{2}^{2}}{T_{2}}} + \frac{\xi_{R}^{\frac{v_{2}^{2}}{2}}}{\frac{\xi_{R}}{H_{o_{1}} - H_{3}}} \right) + \frac{\xi_{R}^{\frac{v_{2}^{2}}{2}}}{\frac{1}{H_{o_{1}} - H_{3}}}$$
(82).

In figure 70 the appropriate relative total head enthalpies for the expansion process in the rotor blade are shown. It will be noted that the definition of total head efficiency of expansion for the moving blade, given by equation 76, is not the same as the relative total head efficiency ( $2_{or}$ ) which is related to the loss coefficients for the blade in equation 50. As has been pointed out previously the enthalpy drop  $H_{o_{1r}} - H_2$  cannot be expressed in terms of the release of high grade energy and the relative total head efficiency should be regarded as the total head efficiency of expansion obtained in a simulated static test rig.

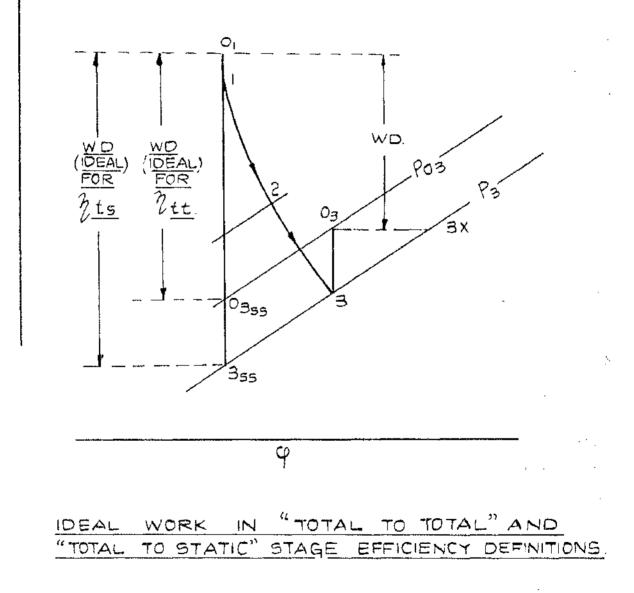


FIG. 8.

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# (3) Stage efficiency - the turbine as a producer of mechanical work energy.

The efficiencies of expansion in the stage, which are related above to the irreversibilities in the flow through the elements of the stage, are concerned with the production of high grade energy. This high grade energy is a combination of mechanical work energy and kinetic energy and in the design of the stage one tries to ensure that as much as possible of the high grade energy appears as mechanical work.

The stage efficiency (distinct from the efficiency of expansion in the stage) is defined as

#### 7 = <u>Actual mechanical work output</u> Ideal mechanical work output

The actual mechanical work output is given from equation 40 as  $H_{O_1} - H_{O_3} = WD$ . The ideal mechanical work output depends on the history of the exhaust kinetic energy after the working fluid leaves the moving row. This kinetic energy  $(\frac{3}{2})$  is known as the leaving kinetic energy, or carry over kinetic energy. The total to static stage efficiency.

For single stage turbines which are not fitted with an exhaust diffuser, or for partial admission stages of steam turbines, where in each case the exhaust kinetic energy is degraded by friction, the final condition of the working fluid is given by the state point 3x (figure 8). The stage

enthalpy loss is increased by  $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ . and the ideal work output is  $H_{0,1} - H_{3ss}$ .

For this case the stage efficiency is known as the "total to static" efficiency (  $2_{\rm ts}$ ) and is given by

 $\int ts = \frac{WD}{(ideal)} = \frac{H_{o_1} - H_{o_3}}{H_{o_1} - H_{3ss}} = \frac{1}{H_3 - H_{3ss} + v_3^2}$ 1 + H<sub>07</sub> - H<sub>03</sub>

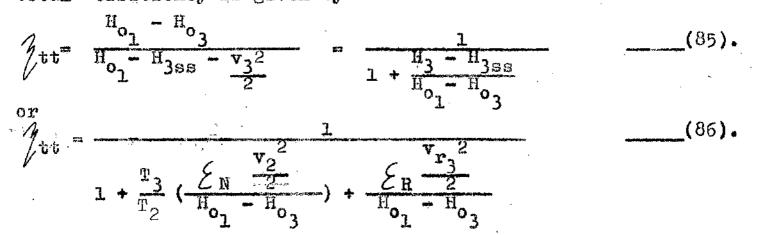
36.

:**(83)**.

$$\frac{1}{2 \text{ ts}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_3}{T_2} \left(\frac{\xi_N}{H_{o_1} - H_{o_3}}\right) + \frac{\xi_R}{H_{o_1} - H_{o_3}} + \frac{\frac{v_3^2}{2}}{H_{o_1} - H_{o_3}} + \frac{\frac{v_3^2}{2}}{H_{o_1} - H_{o_3}}}$$
(84).

The total to total stage efficiency.

For cases where the exhaust kinetic energy is not degraded, e.g. in a single stage turbine fitted with an exhaust diffuser, or in a multistage turbine where the nozzle blades are designed to absorb the leaving kinetic energy, the effective stage exhaust pressure is  $P_{0,3}$ . (fig. 8). The ideal work output is then given by an isentropic expansion from state point OL to the total head exhaust pressure  $P_{0,3}$ . This is given approximately by  $H_{0,1} - H_{3ss} - \frac{v_3^2}{2}$ and the stage efficiency which is known as the "total to total" efficiency is given by



This definition of total to total stage efficiency in terms of the loss coefficients of the elements is due to Hawthorne<sup>27</sup>. <u>Special application of the total to total efficiency.</u> For the particular case of a typical stage in a multistage turbine, which is designed for a constant carry over velocity, the total to total efficiency given by 85 reduces to

$$2 t t = \frac{H_1 - H_3}{H_1 - H_{388}} = 2 s$$
 (87).

i.e. the total to total efficiency is then identical with the efficiency of expansion in the stage.

(4) The blading or diagram efficiency.

For a given ideal stage isentropic heat drop, H<sub>01</sub> - H<sub>385</sub>, the total head efficiency of expansion in the stage determines the high grade energy made available. It is the function of the rotor blade to convert some of this high grade energy into mechanical work energy. The blading or diagram efficiency is defined here as

1.0.

i.e.  

$$\tilde{\gamma}_{B} = \frac{WD}{H_{o_{1}} - H_{3}} = \frac{H_{o_{1}} - H_{o_{3}}}{H_{o_{1}} - H_{3}} = 1 - \frac{\frac{V_{3}^{2}}{2}}{H_{o_{1}} - H_{3}}$$
(88).

This definition of blading efficiency differs somewhat from that normally used for impulse stages. but is considered by the writer to have a wider application for both turbine and compressor stages. A comparison with the usual impulse definition is given in subsection 6.

(5) Relationships between the expansion efficiency, the blading efficiency and the stage efficiencies.

From 83, 87 and 77

$$\frac{7}{7} \text{ts} = \frac{H_{o_1} + H_{o_3}}{H_{o_1} - H_{3ss}} = \frac{H_{o_1} - H_{o_3}}{H_{o_1} - H_3} \times \frac{H_{o_1} - H_3}{H_{o_1} - H_{3ss}} \\
\frac{1}{7} \text{ts} = \frac{7}{7} B \times \frac{7}{7} \text{os} \quad (89).$$
From 85 and 77

 $\frac{\frac{7}{00} - \frac{3}{H_{01} - H_{355}}}{\frac{1}{1 - \frac{\sqrt{3^2/2}}{2}}}$  $\gamma_{tt} = \frac{H_{o_1} - H_{o_3}}{H_{o_1} - H_{3ss}}$ (90). and from 88 and 77

$$(1 - \gamma_B) \gamma_{OS} = \frac{v_3^{2/2}}{\Pi_{O_1} - \Pi_{3SS}}$$
 (91).

Hence from 90 and 91

$$\gamma_{tt} = \frac{\gamma_{0B}}{1 - (1 - \gamma_B)} \frac{\gamma_{0B}}{\gamma_{0B}}$$
 (92).

or from 89  

$$\eta t t = \frac{\eta t s}{1 - \eta o s + \eta t s} = \frac{\eta o s}{\frac{1}{\eta B} (1 - \eta s) + \eta o s}$$
 (93).

(6) Design parameters and the "impulse" stage.

Consider an axial flow turbine stage where the axial velocity is constant. (figure 7).

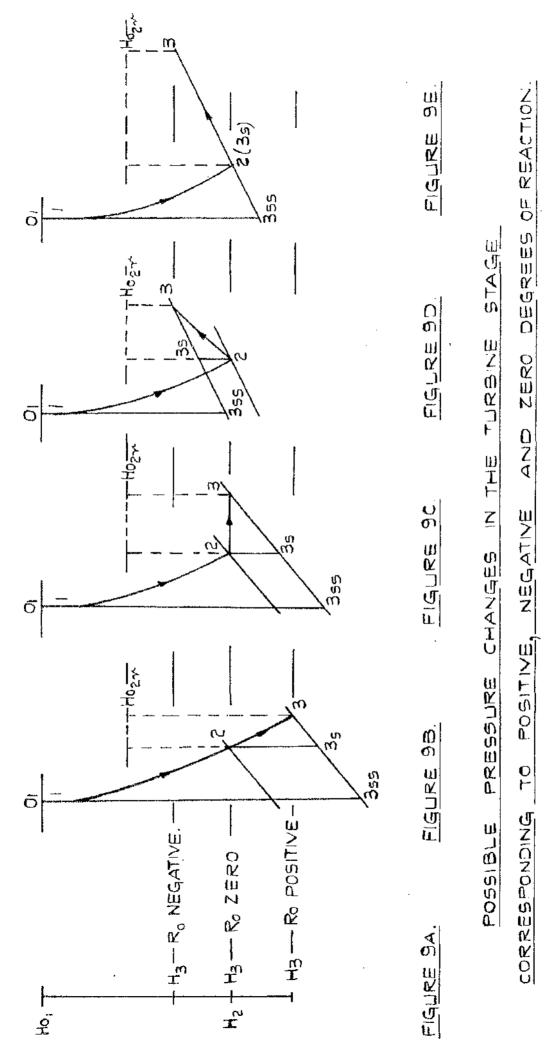
<u>Design Parameters</u>. Important design parameters for the stage are :-The total head degree of reaction, Ro =  $\frac{H_2 - H_3}{H_0 - H_3}$ 

The blade speed to jet speed ratio,  $\sqrt{-\frac{9}{v_2}}$ 

The work done factor or loading factor,  $Z = \frac{WD}{s^2/2}$ The blading or diagram efficiency,  $\frac{7}{B} = \frac{WD}{H_{o_1} - H_3}$ 

If values of Ro and /2 are chosen for the stage then the stage velocity triangles may be drawn to an unknown scale. Thus the initial choice of Ro and /2 determines all the velocity ratios in the stage, from which the loading factor and blading efficiency may also be obtained. The total head degree of reaction may be negative, zero or positive corresponding to the velocity ratio  $r_3/v_{r_2}$  being < 1, = 1 or > 1 respectively.

Enthalpy changes in the stage. If any one of the stage velocities or any one of the energy quantities involved in the design parameters (e.g. the blade speed or the specific



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work output) is chosen, then the magnitude of all velocities and energy quantities for the stage are determined. This being so the enthalpy changes across the nozzle row and moving blade row are known. In figure 9A enthalpy levels corresponding to positive, negative and zero degrees of reaction are shown. When the degree of reaction is positive the quantity  $H_2 - H_3$  is known as the reaction effect. For negative degrees of reaction the quantity  $H_3 - H_2$  is called here the compression effect.

<u>Pressure changes in the stage.</u> The pressure changes across the nozzle and blade row depend in the first instance on the location of the process in the H /  $\rho$  field. When however the initial state point is known the enthalpy changes and element losses are the controlling factors. Possible pressure changes corresponding to positive and zero degree of reaction are shown in figures 9B and 90 respectively. For negative degrees of reaction possible pressure changes are shown in figures 9D and 9E. To encompass these possibilities the total head efficiency of expansion for the stage is best retained in the form of equation 79. i.e. as

$$\int_{0S}^{T} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_3}{T_2} \left(\frac{1}{f_{0N}} - 1\right) \left(1 - R_0\right) + \frac{H_3 - H_{3S}}{H_{01} - H_3}}$$
(79).

In this equation the expression

$$\frac{H_3 - H_{3s}}{H_{0_3} - H_3} = Ro \left(\frac{H_2 - H_{3s}}{H_2 - H_3} - 1\right)$$
(94).

is the fractional stage loss occuring in the moving blade. <u>Ro positive figure 9B.</u> For positive values of Ro equation 94 gives

$$\frac{H_3 - H_{3B}}{H_{0_1} - H_3} = Ro \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{R}} - 1 \right)$$
(95).

where  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}$  is the efficiency of expansion in the moving blade.

Ro = 0. figure 9C. For zero degree of reaction equation 94 gives  $H_2 - H_{20}$   $H_2 - H_{20}$ 

$$\frac{n_3 - n_{3s}}{n_{o_1} - n_3} = \frac{n_2 - n_{3s}}{n_{o_1} - n_3}$$
(96).

where  $H_2 - H_{3s}$  is the isentropic enthalpy drop in the moving blade. This enthalpy drop corresponds to the pressure drop required to maintain a constant relative velocity in the moving blade passage. The zero reaction stage may be regarded as a special case of a stage with a pressure drop in the moving blade where the efficiency of expansion in equation 95 is zero.

<u>Ro negative, figure 9D.</u> Where Ro is negative there is a pressure rise in the moving blade passage and equation 94 may be written

$$\frac{H_3 - H_{38}}{H_{01} - H_3} = - \operatorname{Ro} \left(1 - \frac{H_{38} - H_2}{H_3 - H_2}\right) = - \operatorname{Ro} \left(1 - \frac{7}{2} \operatorname{eR}\right) \quad (97).$$

where  $\int_{cR} is$  the efficiency of compression in the rotor blade. When the degree of reaction is negative it is better to work in terms of a degree of compression defined as

$$R_{00} = \frac{H_3 - H_2}{H_{0_1} - H_3}$$
 (98).

in which case equation 97 reduces to

$$\frac{H_3 - H_{3s}}{H_{o_1} - H_3} = R_{oc} (1 - \frac{7}{2}cR)$$
(99).

If the efficiency of compression in the blade passage is zero then there is no pressure rise in the blade passage and we are dealing with the zero pressure drop impulse stage. (figure 9E). Equation 99 then gives

$$\frac{H_3 - H_{38}}{H_{0_1} - H_3} = \frac{H_3 - H_2}{H_{0_1} - H_3} = R_{00}$$
(100)

The zero pressure drop impulse stage should therefore

be regarded as a special case of a stage designed to have a compression effect in the blade passage, where the efficiency of compression is zero.

In such an impulse stage the blade passage loss is often expressed in terms of a blade velocity coefficient defined as  $K = \frac{v_r_3/v_{r_2}}{r_2}$ . It will be noted that this definition for the zero pressure drop blade is identical with  $K = \frac{v_r_3/v_r_3}{r_{33}}$  which is the

general definition used in equation 50. For the zero pressure drop impulse stage the usual definition of blading efficiency is

$$\gamma'_{B} = \frac{H_{o_{1}} - H_{o_{3}}}{H_{o_{1}} - H_{2}}$$
 (101).(Kearton<sup>28</sup>).

Hol - H2 being the kinetic energy available to the moving

blade.

while from equation 88

For the total to static efficiency in the stage this gives  $2/25 = 2/20N \times 2/2B$  (102) This relationship is similar in form to the expression given here for total to static efficiency (equation 89) which may also be applied to the zero pressure drop impulse stage. This is

 $\frac{7}{1 \text{ ts}} = \frac{7}{2 \text{ os}} \times \frac{7}{1 \text{ B}}$  (89). Equation 101 may be shown to give

$$\frac{1}{7B} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{v_3^2/2}{H_{o_1} - H_{o_3}}}$$
(104).

42.

It will be seen from equation 103 that the usual definition of blading efficiency for the impulse stage includes a term to account for the blade passage loss. Thus when using this definition it is assumed at the outset that it will not be possible to recover, as useful pressure rise, some of the energy associated with the compressor effect available to the rotor blade, so that all of the available compression effect becomes irreversible enthalpy loss. 43.

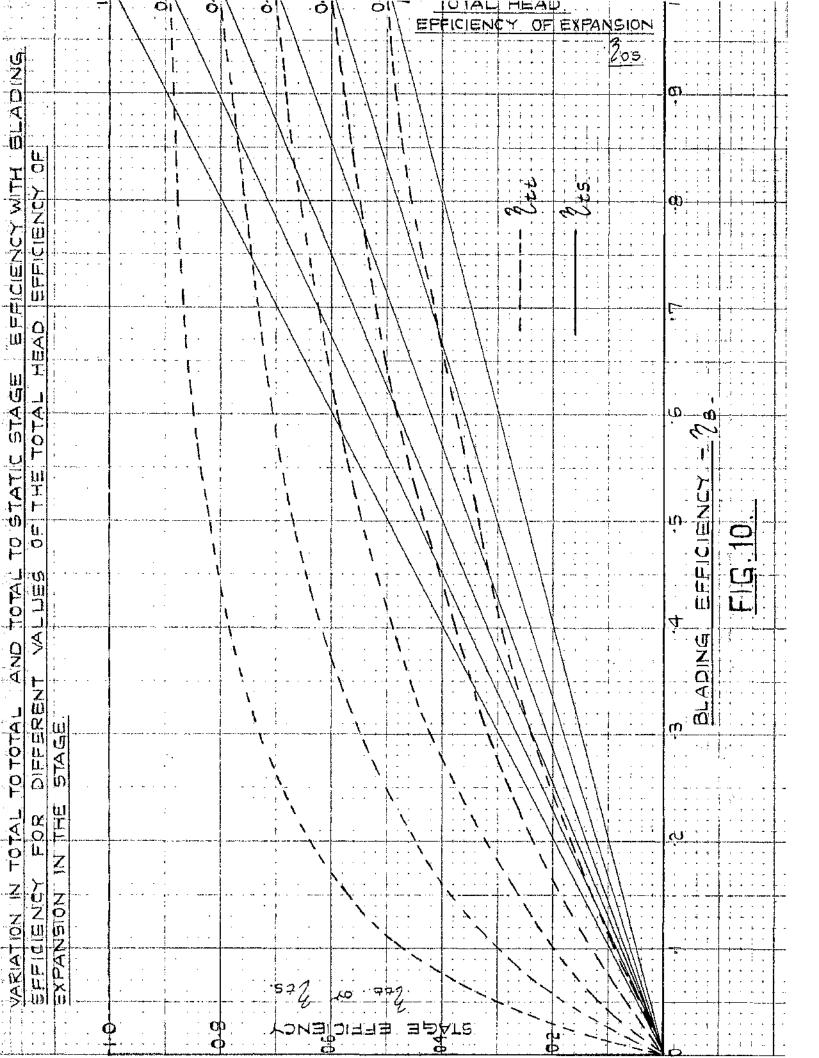
#### Section 1 - Summary.

Definitions of efficiency of expansion (equation 68) and of total head efficiency of expansion (equation 77) for a turbine stage are given, which account for the irreversibilities of the flow process in the stage and which are independent of the application for which the turbine is intended. Since the definitions are for the flow process they may be applied to the individual elements of the stage. The efficiency of expansion for the stage is given in terms of the element efficiencies and degree of reaction in equation 71 and is related to the loss coefficients of the elements in equation For the total head efficiency of expansion in the stage 73. the corresponding relationships are given in equations 81 and 82. where equation 81 involves the total head degree of reaction.

Thus for a given total head stage isentropic heat drop  $(H_{o_1} - H_{355}, \text{figure 7})$  the total head efficiency of expansion determines the total amount of high grade energy made available to the rotor blade. The blading or diagram efficiency, defined in equation 88, then determines the proportion of this high grade energy which appears as mechanical work energy, the remainder being retained by the working fluid as leaving kinetic energy.

Two definitions of stage efficiency (as distinct from efficiency of expansion in the stage) are given. Here one is concerned with the ratio of actual to ideal work obtained in the stage. In applications where the leaving kinetic energy is degraded the total to static stage efficiency is the criterion of performance and where the exhaust kinetic energy is not degraded the total to total stage efficiency is used. The relationship between the total to total stage efficiency and the loss coefficients in the elements is due to Hawthorne<sup>27</sup> and is given here in equation 86.

The total to static and total to total stage officiencies are related to the blading efficiency and total head stage



efficiency of expansion in equations 89 and 93. It will be seen that if the total head efficiency of expansion is assumed constant then as the blading efficiency increases both stage efficiencies also increase. Hence from the point of view of stage efficiency it is desirable to design the turbine stage for maximum blading efficiency.

The actual variation in the stage efficiencies with blading efficiency, for different values of the total head efficiency of expansion, is shown in figure 10. It will be noted that, whereas the total to static stage efficiency varies directly with the blading efficiency, the rate of change of total to total stage efficiency depends on the blading efficiency range. For high values of blading efficiency (above say 0.6) the variation in total to total efficiency is small. This variation does however increase as the efficiency of expansion decreases.

It has been shown that a choice of total head degree of reaction and of blade speed to jet speed ratio determine the form of the stage velocity triangles and the blading efficiency. It follows from this that as the blading efficiency varies, the deflection suffered by the gas in the blading elements will change. The effect of this variation in gas deflection on the loss coefficients in the elements, should be taken account of in assessing the variation in stage efficiencies with blading efficiency.

There are two possible definitions of an impulse stage. The "pure" impulse stage should be taken as one where the degree of reaction is zero. In practice this means that a pressure drop across the blade passage is necessary to maintain the relative velocity constant within the passage. The traditional impulse stage, where there is no pressure drop across the moving blade, should be regarded as a special case of a blade which is designed to utilize an increase in enthalpy (or compression effect) in the blade passage, but where the efficiency of the compression process is zero.

#### Section 2. - The Axial Flow Compressor Stage.

## The axial flow compressor stage as a "reversed" turbine stage.

Consider the axial flow turbine stage shown in figure 11A. As discussed in the previous section a choice of total head degree of reaction, blade speed to jet speed ratio and specific work done determines all the velocities and enthalpy changes in the stage. If all the stage velocities are somehow maintained in magnitude but reversed in direction the stage will operate as a compressor stage in which the enthalpy increases in the rotor and stator blades will be equal in magnitude to the corresponding enthalpy drops in the turbine Using the nomenclature of the turbine stage the stage. velocities of the corresponding compressor stage are shown It will be noted that the enthalpy increases in figure 11B. in the elements of the compressor stage are determined by the choice of total head degree of reaction, blade speed to jet speed ratio and specific work output for the turbine stage. The pressure changes in the elements of the stages depend on the element losses as well as on the enthalpy changes in Thus, while we may consider that the velocities the elements. of the compressor stage are the reverse of those in the turbine stage, neither stage is reversible in the thermodynamic sense.

A complete comparison between the stages is obtained if the turbine is fitted with an exhaust diffuser to utilize the leaving kinetic energy  $v_3^2/2$ . The exhaust diffuser of the turbine stage is equivalent to the inlet guide or nozzle blades, which preceed the rotor blade, in the compressor stage.

It will be noted that (a) the velocity  $({}^{v}_{3})$  entering the compressor stage rotor blade is equivalent to the velocity entering the turbine stage diffuser and (b) the velocity  $({}^{v}_{1})$  leaving the compressor stage diffuser is equivalent to the velocity of approach to the turbine stage nozzles. This

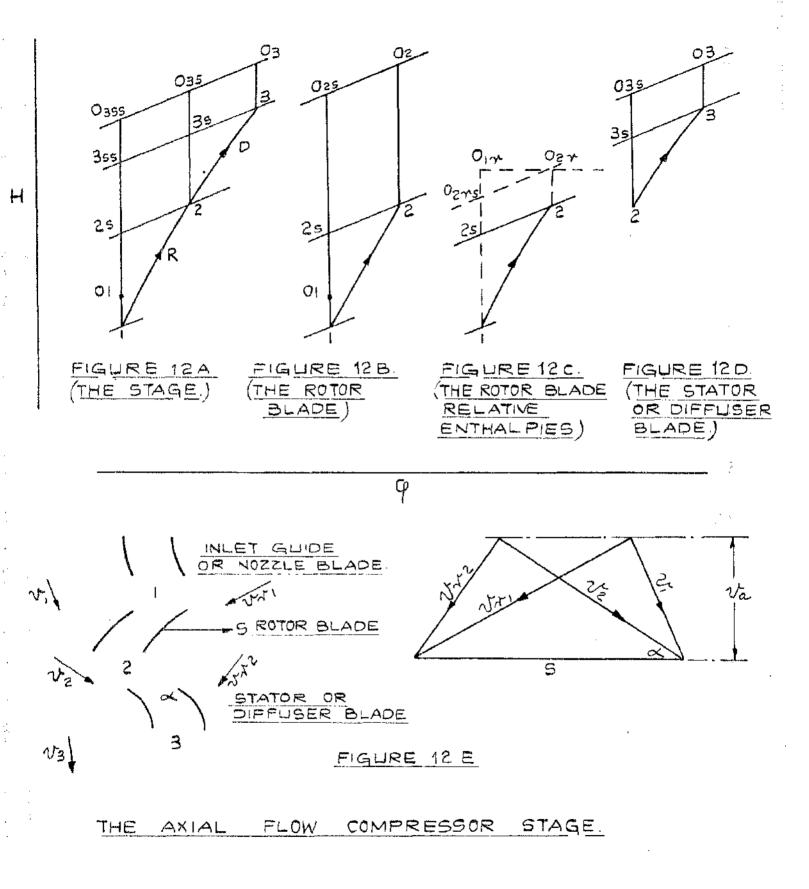


FIG. 12.

velocity does not appear in the velocity triangles. Efficiencies in the axial flow compressor stage.

Consider the axial flow compressor stage shown in figure 12. The working fluid enters the rotor blade (R) at condition 1. and leaves at condition 2. The fluid passes through the diffuser blade (D) leaving this blade at condition 3. In the rotor blade, stator blade or in the stage we are interested in the efficient utilization of available high grade energy. The high grade energy available to the rotor blade or to the stage is the kinetic energy at 1 plus the work input to the rotor blade. The high grade energy available to the diffuser blade is the kinetic energy leaving the rotor blade. In either of the elements or in the stage part of the total high grade energy initially available remains at outlet as directional kinetic energy when the compression process ceases.

(1) Efficiency of compression.

For any one element or for the stage the efficiency of the compression process may be defined as

> Total high grade energy absorbed during isentropic compression from the inlet condition to the <u>exhaust pressure.</u> Actual total high grade energy absorbed in

Actual total high grade energy absorbed in adiabatic compression from the inlet condition to the exhaust pressure.

Hence from 43

for the diffuser blade (figure 12D)

$$\gamma_{\rm cD} = \frac{H_{3\rm s} - H_2}{H_3 - H_2} = 1 - \frac{H_3 - H_{3\rm s}}{H_3 - H_2} \qquad (66c).$$

for the rotor blade (figure 12B)

$$\gamma_{cR} = \frac{H_{2s} - H_{1}}{H_{2} - H_{1}} = 1 - \frac{H_{2} - H_{2s}}{H_{2} - H_{1}}$$
(670).

and for the stage (figure 12A)

$$\gamma_{cs} = \frac{H_{3ss} - H_{1}}{H_{3} - H_{1}} = 1 - \frac{H_{3} - H_{3ss}}{H_{3} - H_{1}}$$
(68c).

### 2. Total head efficiency of compression.

If at outlet of either of the elements or of the stage the remaining kinetic energy is absorbed in a reversible manner the pressure attained is the maximum actual pressure possible from the process. The actual exhaust total head pressure is thus the maximum pressure which can be reached in the actual process when all of the available high grade energy at inlet is absorbed. In the total head efficiency of compression a comparison is made between the actual available high grade energy at inlet and the ideal high grade energy, which should be available at inlet, to attain the same total head pressure.

Thus the total head efficiency of compression for either element or for the stage is defined as

Yec Total high grade energy required at inlet to attain in pressure of the actual process. Actual total high grade energy required at inlet to attain in adiabatic compression the actual exhaust total head pressure.

Thus for the diffuser blade (figure 12D)

$$\int_{0 \text{ cD}}^{H_0} \frac{H_0 - H_2}{H_{03} - H_2} = 1 - \frac{H_{03} - H_0}{H_{03} - H_2}$$
(750).

for the rotor blade (figure 12B)

$$\int_{OCR}^{H_{O_{2S}} - H_{1}} = 1 - \frac{H_{O_{2}} - H_{O_{2S}}}{H_{O_{2}} - H_{1}} = 1 - \frac{H_{O_{2}} - H_{O_{2S}}}{H_{O_{2}} - H_{1}}$$
(76c).

and for the stage (figure 12A)

$$\int_{OCS} = \frac{H_{03SS} - H_{1}}{H_{03} - H_{1}} = 1 - \frac{H_{03} - H_{03SS}}{H_{03} - H_{1}} \qquad (77c).$$

Relationships between the element efficiencies of compression and the stage efficiencies of compression.

Using equations 65 and 56c it may be shown that approximately

$$H_{3} - H_{3ss} = H_{3} - H_{3s} + \frac{T_{3}}{T_{2}} (H_{2} - H_{2s})$$
  
and  
$$H_{0_{3}} - H_{0_{3ss}} = H_{0_{3}} - H_{0_{3s}} + \frac{T_{0_{3}}}{T_{2}} (H_{2} - H_{2s})$$
(69c).  
Hence for the efficiency of compression in the stage 68c and  
69c give  
$$H_{1} - H_{1} + \frac{T_{3}}{T_{2}} (H_{2} - H_{2s})$$
(69c).

$$\frac{7}{2_{CS}} = 1 - \frac{H_3 - H_{3S} + T_2 (H_2 - H_{2S})}{H_3 - H_1}$$
(70c).

This may be expressed in terms of the element efficiencies given in equations 66c and 67c as

$$\frac{1}{2}_{CS} = 1 - ((1 - \frac{1}{2}_{OD}) (1 - Rc) + \frac{T_3}{T_2} (1 - \frac{1}{2}_{CR}) Rc)$$
 (71c).

where Rc is the degree of compression for the stage defined as

$$Rc = \frac{H_2 - H_1}{H_3 - H_1}$$
(72c).

alternatively  $%_{cs}$  may be expressed in terms of the total head enthalpy loss coefficients (equation 50c). It is shown in equation 65 that approximately

$$H_2 - H_{2s} = \frac{T_2}{T_{o_{2r}}} (H_{o_{2r}} - H_{o_{2sr}}) = \frac{T_2}{T_{o_{2r}}} \mathcal{E}_{cR} \frac{v_{r_1}^2}{2}$$

and

$$H_3 - H_{3S} = \frac{T_3}{T_{0_3}} (H_{0_3} - H_{0_{3S}}) = \frac{T_3}{T_{0_3}} \mathcal{E}_{OD} = \frac{v_2^2}{2}$$

Hence from 70c

m

$$\mathcal{J}_{cs} = 1 - \left[\frac{T_3}{T_{o_3}} \left(\frac{\mathcal{E}_{cD}}{H_3 - H_1}\right) + \frac{T_3}{T_2} \left(\frac{T_2}{T_{o_2}} \left(\frac{\mathcal{E}_{oR}}{H_3 - H_1}\right)\right)\right]$$
(73c)

By similar methods the corresponding relationships may be obtained for the total head efficiency of compression. These are

2

$$\lambda_{\text{ocs}} = 1 - \frac{H_{o_3} - H_{o_{38}} + \frac{T_{o_3}}{T_2} (H_2 - H_{2s})}{H_{o_3} - H_1}$$
(78c).

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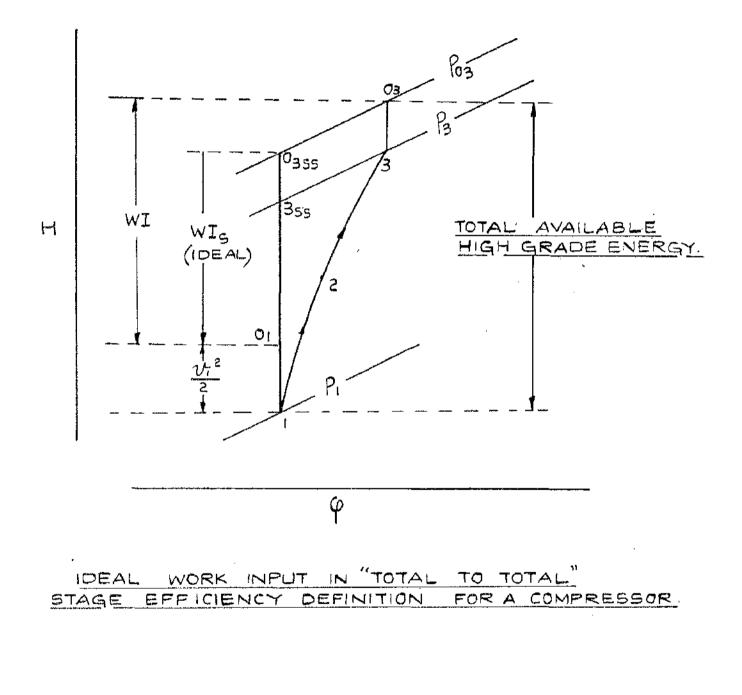


FIG. 13.

or  

$$\frac{1}{2000} = 1 - \left[ (1 - \frac{1}{2000}) (1 - Roc) + \frac{T_{0}}{T_2} (1 - \frac{1}{2}cR) Roc \right]$$
 (81c)

where the total head degree of compression is defined as

R	$00 = \frac{H_2 - H_1}{H_2 - H_1}$		(80c)
and locs 1 -	$\left[\frac{\xi_{0D}}{H_{03} - H_{1}}\right]$	-) + $\frac{T_2}{T_2}$ ( $\frac{T_2}{T_2}$	$\left(\frac{\sum_{0R} \frac{v_{r_1}}{2}}{H_{0_3} - H_1}\right)$ (820)

3. Blading efficiency, total to total and total to static efficiency in the compressor stage.

Blading efficiency. In the design of a turbine stage it is desirable to arrange for a high value of the blading efficiency. The velocity triangles for the stage and the blading efficiency are fixed by a choice of total head degree of reaction, blade speed to jet speed ratio, and specific work done, the blading efficiency being a function of degree of reaction and blade speed to jet speed ratio only. Thue for a given specific work output a choice of blading efficiency for the stage in effect means choosing a value for the stage If this same design is used as a compressor leaving velocity. stage, by maintaining the magnitude of the velocities but reversing their directions, the work input in the compressor stage will be equal in magnitude to the work output in the turbine stage, and the inlet absolute velocity (v<sub>1</sub> figure 13) to the compressor stage rotor blade will be determined by the initial choice of blading efficiency.

The blading or diagram efficiency for the compressor stage is defined as  $\frac{\sqrt{1}}{\sqrt{1}} = \frac{\sqrt{1}}{\sqrt{1 + \sqrt{1}^2}} = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}}$ (88c).

Thus the blading efficiency for the compression stage gives

the proportion of the total high grade energy, available at inlet to the stage, which is mechanical work energy. The total to total efficiency for the compressor stage.

While the efficiencies of the compression process in the stage have involved the total high grade energy available to the stage, it is with the efficient use of mechanical work energy that we are mainly concerned.

The total to total efficiency for the compressor stage is defined as

Minimum work input required to attain the  $\int_{ctt} = \frac{\text{Minimum work input required to reach the stage.}}{\text{Actual work input required to reach the same}}$ Thus  $\int_{ctt} = \frac{\text{WIS}}{\text{WI}}$  (see figure 13). or  $\int_{ctt} = \frac{H_{0,3} - H_{0,1}}{H_{0,3} - H_{0,1}} = 1 - \frac{H_{0,3} - H_{0,1}}{H_{0,3} - H_{0,1}}$ (85c).

and the efficiency may be expressed in terms of the loss coefficients in the elements as

$$\int_{\text{ctt}} = 1 - \left( \frac{\xi_{\text{oD}} \frac{v_2^2}{2}}{H_{o_3} - H_{o_1}} + \frac{T_{o_3}}{T_2} \left( \frac{T_2}{T_{o_{2r}}} - \frac{\xi_{\text{eR}} - \frac{r_1}{2}}{H_{o_3} - H_{o_1}} \right) \right) - (86c).$$

If the total to total stage efficiency is applied to a typical stage in a multistage compressor where the "carry over" velocity is constant then

$$\gamma_{\text{ett}} = \frac{H_{o_{388}} - H_{o_{1}}}{H_{o_{3}} - H_{o_{1}}} = \frac{H_{388} - H_{1}}{H_{3} - H_{1}} = \gamma_{cs}$$
 (87c).

i.e. the total to total stage efficiency is the same as the efficiency of compression in the stage.

The total to static efficiency in the compressor stage. In the case of a single stage turbine one has a choice of fitting or not fitting an exhaust diffuser. For the single stage compressor however the inlet nozzle or guide vanes are an essential part of the stage. The roll of these nozzle vanes for a typical stage in a multistage compressor is assumed by the preceeding stage. Hence there is no parallel in the compressor stage for the total to static efficiency of the turbine stage.

Relationship between blading efficiency, total to total stage efficiency and total head efficiency of compression in the compressor stage.

vr 21

From 85c and 77c

$$\int \text{ott} = \frac{\frac{1 - \frac{v_1^2 / 2}{H_{0_{3SS}} - H_1}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{0CS}} - \frac{v_1^2 / 2}{H_{0_{3SS}} - H_1}}$$
(90c).

and from 88c and 77c

 $\frac{1 - \frac{7}{B}}{\frac{7}{000}} = \frac{\frac{v_1^2/2}{H_0 - H_1}}{\frac{1}{355}}$ (91c).

This gives

$$\eta_{\rm ctt} = 1 - \frac{(1 - \eta_{\rm ocs})}{\eta_{\rm B}}$$
 (93c).

Hence from the stage efficiency view-point it is desirable to work with high values of blading efficiency, which means in effect operating the stage with a low approach velocity at inlet to the rotor blade.

#### Section 2 - Summary.

An analogy between the axial flow turbine and compressor stage is given, which is a useful tool with which to study the effect in the compressor stage of the stage design The compressor stage is considered as a similar parameters. turbine stage where the velocity vectors of the turbine stage are reversed in direction. If the two design parameters. the total head degree of reaction and the blade speed to jet speed ratio are chosen for the turbine stage then the form of the velocity triangles, the blading efficiency and the loading factor are determined for both the turbine stage and its compressor counterpart. This approach facilitates the interpretation of the role of the compressor stage For example, it is evident that the inlet guide elements. or nozzle blades of the compressor stage are equivalent to the exhaust diffuser of the turbine stage. The analogy would be complete for a turbine and similar compressor stage where there were no losses in the elements, so that each stage was also reversible in the thermodynamic sense. Then the pressure drops associated with the turbine stage would be equal in magnitude to the corresponding pressure increases in the compressor stage.

In dealing with efficiencies in the compressor stage, the proceedure adopted is the same as that used in the turbine stage. Definitions are given of the efficiencies of the compression process in the elements and in the stage, and the interrelationships between the stage and element efficiencies are developed. The total head efficiency of compression in the stage is given in equation 97c and is related to the element losses in equations 81c and 82c.

In the total head efficiency of compression we are concerned with the high grade energy available at inlet to the stage to effect a pressure rise. This high grade energy is the sum of the work input to the stage and the kinetic energy generated in the inlet nozzle blades, which preceed

The proportion of kinetic energy to work energy the stage. in the available high grade energy depends on the initial choice for the blading efficiency of the stage. Since however we are particularly concerned with the work energy absorbed. a definition of total to total stage efficiency is given which is the ratio of the minimum to the actual work required to attain the maximum possible stage pressure. (equation 85c). A relationship between the total to total stage efficiency. the blading efficiency and the total head efficiency of compression in the stage is given in equation 93c. It will be seen that, for a constant total head efficiency of compression, the stage efficiency increases as the blading efficiency increases.

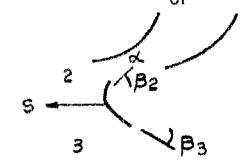
With regard to the total to total stage efficiency it will be noted that the definition given here is similar to one which is sometimes called the "total head efficiency of the stage". This latter efficiency is however usually applied from the state point at inlet to the stationary nozzle blades and would therefore take account of losses in these blades.

In a turbine stage the total to static efficiency is the criterion of performance where there is no exhaust diffuser. In a compressor stage however, kinetic energy must be generated at inlet to the rotor blade and hence the equivalent in the compressor stage of the turbine exhaust diffuser must always be present. There is thus no parallel in the compressor stage for the total to static efficiency of the turbine stage.

# PART 1 (d).

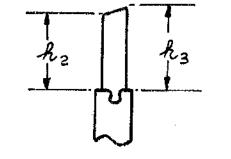
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Conditions for maximum blading efficiency in axial flow turbines and compressors - factors affecting the choice of design parameters for the stage.

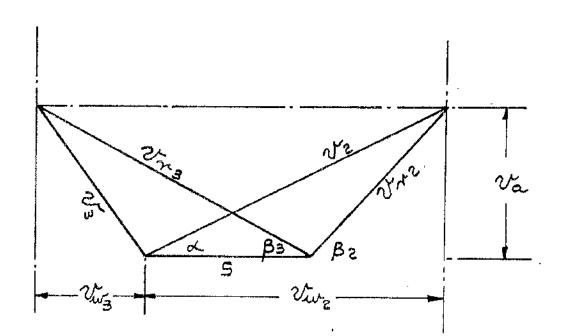


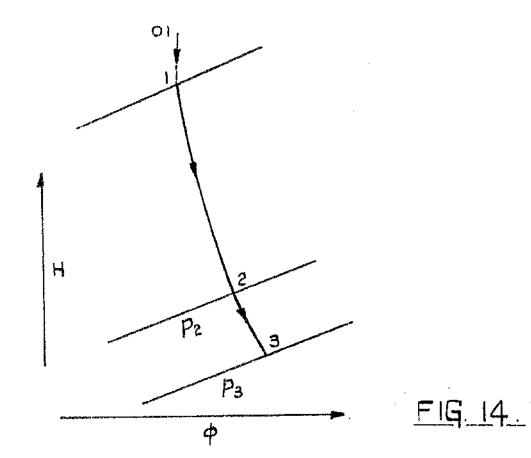
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## Part 1 (d).

Conditions for maximum blading efficiency in axial flow turbines and compressors - factors affecting the choice of design parameters for the stage.

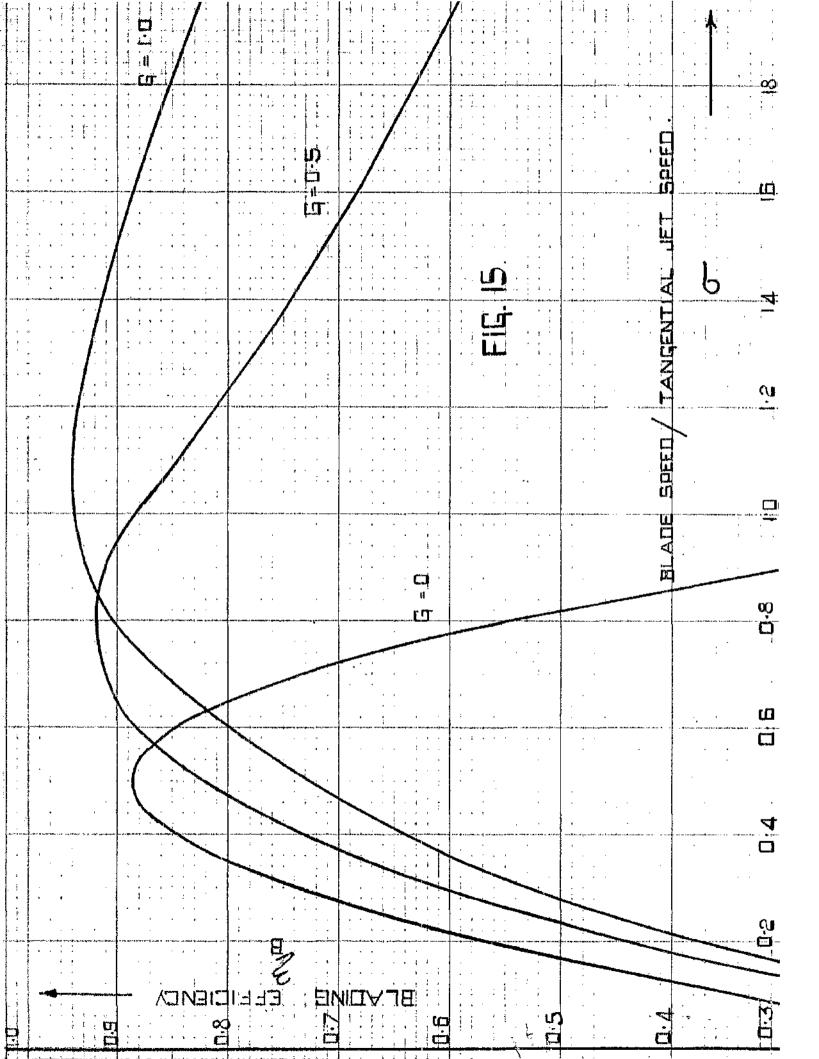
(1). The blading efficiency. Consider the axial flow turbine stage shown in figure 14. We shall presume that the stage axial velocity is constant, which means that the blade heights at inlet and outlet are adjusted to nullify the effect of the change in specific volume across the moving blade. The reaction effect in the moving blade is

 $H_2 - H_3 = \frac{v_{r_3}^2 - v_{r_2}^2}{2}$  and we shall define a reaction coefficient (G) given by

$$G = \frac{H_2 - H_3}{H_{0_1} - H_2} = \frac{\frac{v_1^2 - v_2^2}{2}}{\frac{v_2^2}{2}}$$
(105).

The work done is given by WD = s ( $v_{r_3} \cos \beta_3 + v_{W_2} - s$ ) (106). From 105  $v_a^2 + (v_{r_3} \cos \beta_3)^2 - (v_a^2 + (v_{W_2} - s)^2) = G v_2^2$   $\therefore v_3 \cos \beta_3 \frac{G v_{W_2}^2}{\cos 2} + (v_{W_2} - s)^2$  (107). Hence from 106 WD = s ( $\int \frac{G v_{W_2}^2}{\cos^2 4} + (v_{W_2} - s)^2 + v_{W_2} - s$ ) (108). using the blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio

 $\int = s/v_{W_{\mathcal{D}}}$  this gives



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$$WD = \nabla v_{W_2}^2 \left( \int \frac{G}{\cos^2 \lambda} + (1 - \nabla)^2 + 1 - \nabla \right) \quad (109).$$
  
=  $\frac{s^2}{\nabla} \left( \int \frac{G}{\cos^2 \lambda} + (1 - \nabla)^2 + 1 - \nabla \right)$ 

The high grade energy available to the moving blade is

$$H_{0_1} - H_3 = \frac{v_2^2}{2} (1 + 4) = \frac{v_W_2^2}{2 \cos^2 4} (1 + 4) = \frac{(110)}{2 \cos^2 4}$$

Hence from 109 and 110 the blading or diagram efficiency is given by

Thus the blading efficiency depends on abla, abla and G and we shall henceforth treat the nozzle angle  $\checkmark$  as a constant, (taken as 20° throughout). Hence for a given value of G,  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{B}}$  is a function of  $\nabla$  only and we can find the speed ratio for maximum blading efficiency ( $2_B$ max) by differentiating  $3_B$  with respect to  $\sqrt{2}$  and equating to zero. Hence for maximum blading efficiency for a given reaction (for  $\max \tilde{\chi}_B$ ) =  $\frac{1}{2} \frac{G}{2}$ (112).The maximum value of the blading efficiency is obtained by substituting 112 for  $\overline{V_{-}}$  in 111, this gives  $\frac{1}{2}$  Bmax =  $\frac{G + \cos^2 \alpha}{1 + G}$ (113).The variation of  $\mathcal{J}_B$  and  $\mathcal{T}$  for various values of G is shown in figure 15. The maximum value of the blading efficiency increases with increasing values of the reaction coefficient and the variation is shown in figure 16. Form of the velocity triangles when the stage is (2). designed for maximum blading efficiency.  $v_{r_3} \cos \beta_3 = v_{W_2} \int \frac{G}{\cos^2 \alpha} + (1 - U)^2$ From equation 107, (114).

58.

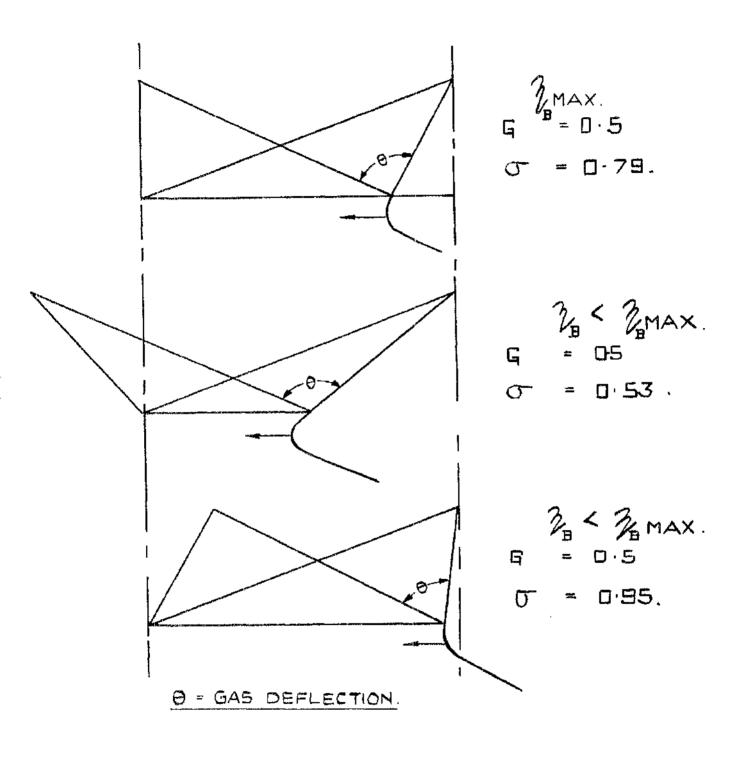
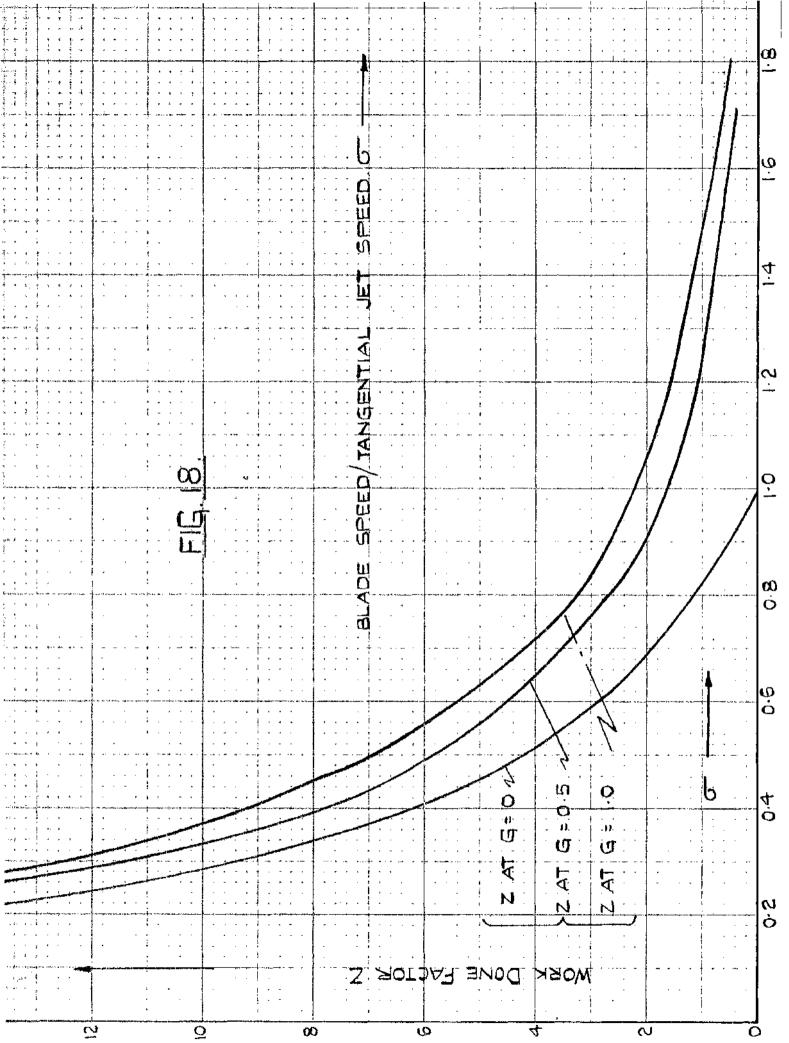


FIG. 17.

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and at maximum blading efficiency  $\sqrt{1}$  is given in 112 as a

function of G. Substituting in 114 for  $\overline{\bigcup}$  gives  $v_{r_3} \cos \beta_3 = v_{W_2} \sqrt{\frac{G}{\cos^2 \varkappa} + (\frac{1 - \cos^2 \varkappa}{2})^2} = s.$  (115). Thus at maximum  $\mathcal{J}_B$  the outlet whirl velocity  $v_{W_3}$  is zero and only the inlet whirl component  $v_{W_2}$  is removed. The form of the velocity triangles when the stage is designed to operate above and below  $\nabla = \frac{1 + \overline{\cos^2 x}}{2}$  is shown in

figure 17 for a given reaction coefficient. (3). The work done factor or loading factor for the stage. The work done or loading factor for the stage is defined

as 
$$Z = WD / \frac{s^2}{2}$$
  
from 109 this gives  
 $Z = \frac{2}{\sqrt{1-\frac{G}{\cos^2 \alpha}}} + (1-\sqrt{1-2})^2 + 1 - \sqrt{1-2}$  (116).

i.e. Z is a function of G and  $\overline{f}$ . The variation in Z with (7 is shown in figure 18 for different reaction When the stage is designed for maximum coefficients. blading efficiency the value of the work done factor is obtained by substituting 112 for U in 116, this gives.

$$Z_{\text{at max } 7B} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{1 + \cos^2 \alpha}{2} + 1 - \sqrt{2} \right) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{1 + \cos^2 \alpha}{2} + 1 - \sqrt{2} \right) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{1 + \cos^2 \alpha}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2}{\left( \frac{1 + \cos^2 \alpha}{2} \right)}$$
(117).

The work done factor at maximum blading efficiency is a function of G only and is twice the reciprocal of the blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio for maximum blading The relationship of equation 117 is given in efficiency. graphical form in figure 19.

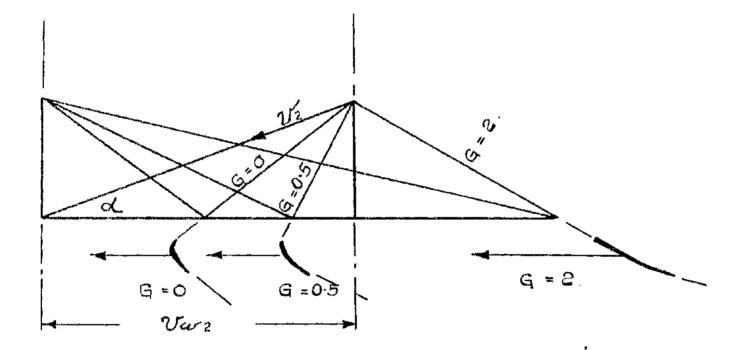
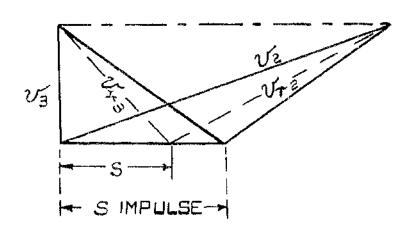


FIG.20.

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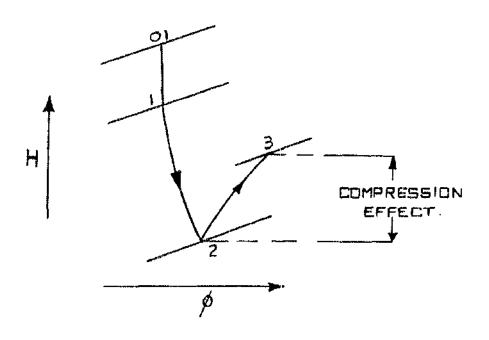


FIG. 21.

Thus when the stage is designed for maximum blading efficiency for a given reaction coefficient, the work done factor decreases with increasing reaction coefficient, and hence when efficiently utilizing a given blade speed the specific work output decreases as the reaction coefficient rises. An impulse blade therefore gives a large specific work output with a low blading efficiency, and a reaction blade gives a small specific work output with a higher blading efficiency, when each is operating at the same blade speed.

At maximum blading efficiency the work output given in equation 109 reduces to

$$WD = s v_{W_2} = v_{W_2}^2 \left(\frac{1 + \cos^2 \alpha}{2}\right)$$
 (118).

If the whirl velocity at inlet to themoving blade is maintained constant, then as the reaction coefficient increases we get more output work per pound but this also means a progressively increasing blade speed. (See figure 20). (4). Compression in the rotor blade passages of a turbine stage.

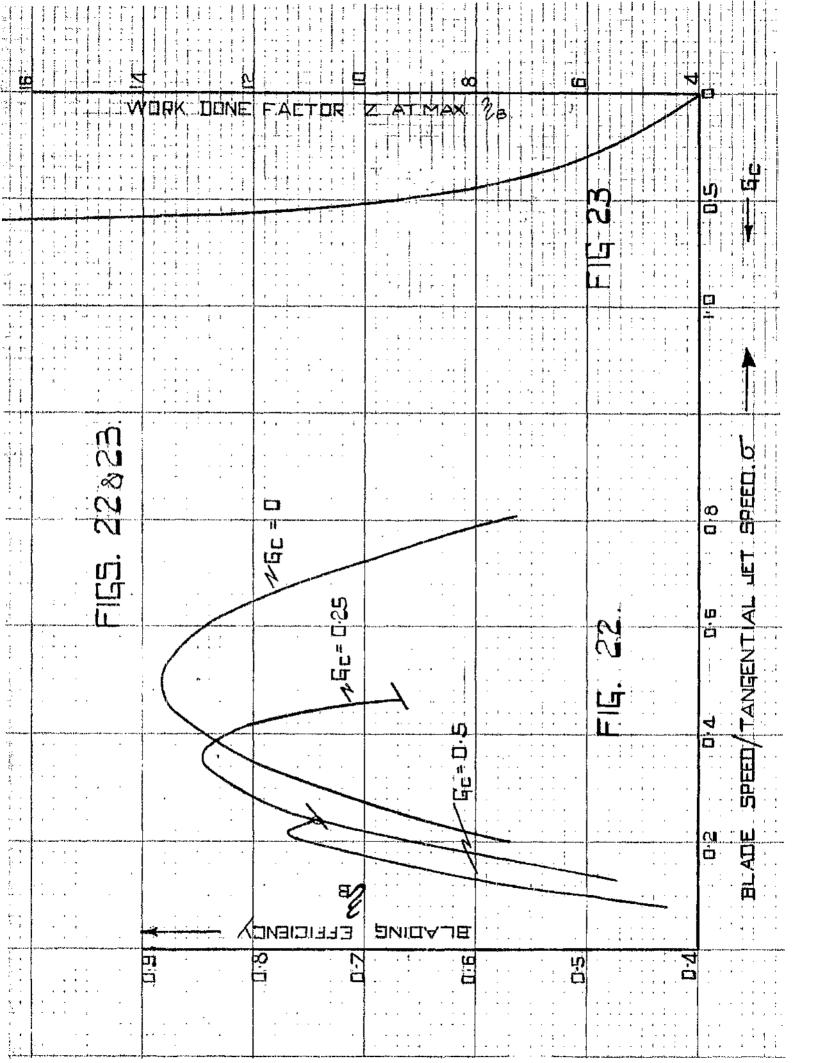
The effect of various amounts of compression in the rotor blade passage can be studied from figure 21, where the blade speed is reduced below that required for zero degree of reaction. For negative degrees of reaction, where  $v_{r_3} < v_{r_2}$ , a compression coefficient (G<sub>c</sub>) may be defined as

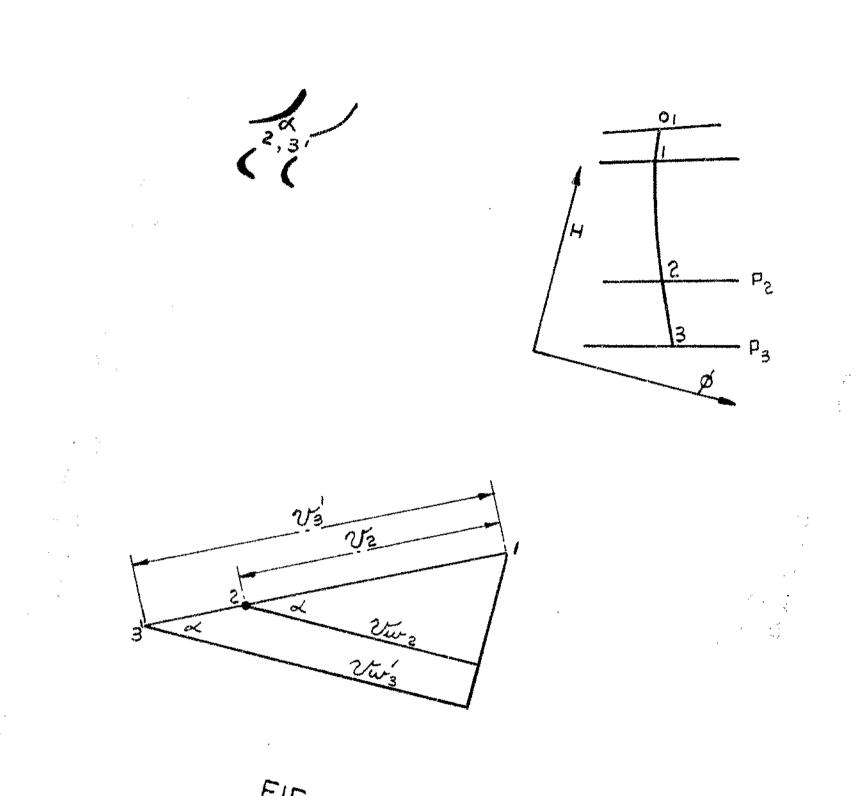
$$G_{c} = \frac{v_{r_{2}}^{2} - v_{r_{3}}^{2}}{v_{2}^{2}/2}$$
(119).

As before it may be shown that the blading efficiency is given by

$$\frac{7}{7}_{B} = \frac{2 \overline{U} \cos^{2} \alpha}{1 - G_{c}} \left( \int (1 - \overline{U})^{2} - \frac{G_{c}}{\cos^{2} \alpha} + 1 - \overline{U} \right) (120).$$

60.





F16. 24.

The condition for maximum blading efficiency is

and the work done factor at maximum blading efficiency is given by

$$z = \frac{4\cos^2 x}{\cos^2 x} \qquad (122).$$

The variation of  $\mathcal{J}_B$  with  $\nabla$  for various values of  $G_c$  is shown in figure 22 and it will be observed that the maximum blading efficiency reduces substantially as  $G_c$  increases. In addition, as  $G_c$  is increased, the permissable variation in  $\nabla$ , about

(for max  $\mathcal{T}B$ ), to avoid a serious fall in blading efficiency is considerably reduced. The work done factor at maximum blading efficiency is shown in figure 23 and increases as the compression coefficient increases.

(5). Relationship between the reaction coefficient (G), the total head degree of reaction (R) and the degree of reaction (R).

Consider the stage enthalpy changes shown in figure 24. The total head degree of reaction is defined as,

$$R_{0} = \frac{H_{2} - H_{3}}{H_{0_{1}} - H_{3}}$$
(80).

and the reaction coefficient as

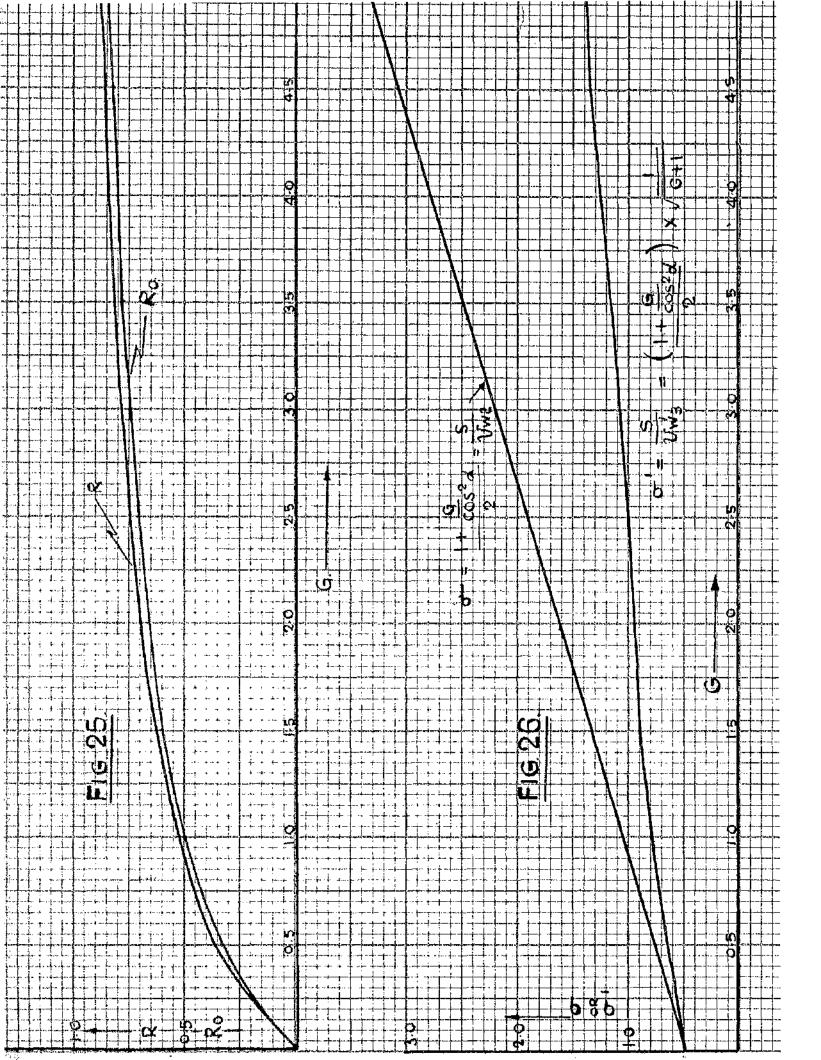
$$G = \frac{H_2 - H_3}{H_{o_1} - H_2}$$
(105).

Thus the reaction coefficient and total head degree of reaction are related by the expression

$$G = \frac{Ro}{1 - Ro} \text{ or } Ro = \frac{G}{1 + G}$$
 (123).

The usual definition of degree of reaction is

$$R = \frac{H_2 - H_3}{H_1 - H_3}$$
 (72).



This definition is useful only when applied to a typical stage in a multistage turbine where the carry over velocity is constant. In such a case the stage enthalpy change  $H_1 - H_3$ is identical with the stage work output. Thus from equations 105 and 109,

$$R = \frac{H_2 - H_3}{WD} = \frac{G v_2^2/2}{\sqrt{\cos^2 x} v_2^2 \sqrt{\frac{G}{\cos^2 x}} + (1 - \sqrt{2})^2 + 1 - \sqrt{2}}$$
(124).

Thus R is in general a function of G and  $\overline{\phantom{a}}$ . When designing at maximum blading efficiency however equation 124 gives

 $\frac{R}{(\text{for max } \gamma_B)} = \frac{G}{\cos^2 \chi + G}$ (125). For a "50 degree" reaction blade, R = 0.5, G = 0.884and hence  $\frac{G}{2}$ 

$$\overline{(\text{for Max } \mathcal{Z}_B)} = \frac{1 + \cos^2 \alpha}{2} = 1$$

The relationships between Ro, G and R given in equations 123 and 125 are shown in graphical form in figure 25. (6). The blade speed to jet speed ratio.

The blade speed to jet speed ratio,  $\rho = \frac{s}{v_2}$  is related to the blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio by

 $p = \nabla \cos \alpha$  (126).

A speed ratio defined by

$$p' = \frac{s}{v_{3}'}$$
 (127)

is however sometimes used, where the velocity  $v'_3$  is the velocity which would be attained in expansion in a nozzle, in which the nozzle heat drop is equal to the stage total head heat drop  $H_{o_1} - H_3$ . i.e.  $v'_3 = 223.8 \sqrt{H_{o_1} - H_3}$ . The equivalent blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio

would be defined as 
$$\sqrt{-}' = \frac{s}{v_{W'_3}}$$
 (128).

where  $v_{W_3}'$  is the tangential component of the velocity  $v_3'$ assuming that the nozzle outlet angle is the same as that for the nozzle of the stage under consideration (see figure 24). The speed ratios given in equations 126, 127 and 128 may be related to the total head degree of reaction for the stage. Thus  $\frac{p'}{p} = \frac{p'}{\sqrt{p}} = \frac{v_2}{v_3'} = \sqrt{1-Ro}$  (129).

Hence when the stage is designed for maximum blading efficiency equation 1.29 gives

$$\nabla = \left(\frac{1 + \frac{1}{2}}{2}\right) \quad \sqrt{1 - Ro} = \left(\frac{1 + \frac{1}{2}}{2}\right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + G}}$$
(130).

This form of the speed ratio is useful in a number of applications. For example, if the stage heat drop and blade speed are determined, equation 130 gives the total head degree of reaction for maximum blading efficiency and so determines the best way to split the available stage heat drop between the static and moving rows. If the relationships between  $\sqrt{-}$ ,  $\sqrt{-'}$  and G for maximum blading efficiency are shown in figure 26.

(7). Conditions for maximum blading efficiency in the axial flow compressor stage.

For the compressor stage shown in figure 12, a compression coefficient may be defined as 2 2

$$G_{c} = \frac{H_{2} - H_{1}}{H_{0} - H_{2}} = \frac{\frac{v_{r_{1}} - v_{r_{2}}}{\frac{2}{v_{2}^{2}/2}}$$
 (105c).

and the blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio as  $\sqrt{v_{W_2}} = \frac{s}{v_{W_2}}$  where  $v_{W_2}$  is the whirl component of the absolute

velocity entering the stator blade.

03 0з\_ 0з, 3 3 3 -Hort -H<sub>07</sub>5 ·Hov 2 0, 1 0,  $O_{1}$ FIGURE 27A FIGURE 278 FIGURE 27C. φ

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ZERO	AND	NEG	ATIVE	DEGREE	5 OF	COMPRESSION	

<u>FIG. 27.</u>

In a similar manner to that of the turbine stage it may be shown that the work input is given by

WI = 
$$\nabla v_{W_2}^2 \left( \sqrt{\frac{G}{\cos^2 \chi}} + (1 - \nabla)^2 + 1 - \nabla \right)$$
 (109c).

and the blading efficiency is

$$\int_{B} = \frac{WI}{H_{03} - H_{1}} = \frac{2 \overline{U} \cos^{2} \chi}{1 + G_{c}} \left( \int_{\cos^{2} \chi}^{G_{c}} + (1 - \overline{U})^{2} + 1 - \overline{U} \right) - (\text{mic}).$$

where  $\measuredangle$  is the stator blade inlet angle.

Thus for a given stator blade inlet angle maximum blading efficiency is obtained when

$$\int = \frac{1 + \frac{1}{2}}{2} \frac{1}{2} 

The analogy between the compression stage and the turbine stage, discussed in Part 1(c), may be used to determine the effect in the compressor stage of varying the stage design parameters. Thus the conclusions reached regarding the variation of blading efficiency and loading factor, with reaction coefficient and speed ratio for the turbine stage, may be applied to the compressor stage. These conclusions are summarized in figures 15, 16, 18, 19, 22 and 23 and when they are applied to the compressor stage it is only necessary to replace the reaction coefficient  $G_{c}$ .

The H/p diagrams for compressor stages corresponding to turbine stages with positive, zero and negative degrees of reaction are shown in figure 27. They are

- (a) a conventional compressor with compression effect in the rotor blade.
- (b) a zero degree of compression stage.
- and (c) a stage with expansion effect in the rotor blade.

While from the point of view of stage efficiency a turbine with compression in the rotor blade is liable to be inefficient, because of the greater losses associated with a diffusion process, a compressor with expansion in the rotor blade could give a more efficient compressor with a large loading factor. Shepherd<sup>29</sup> indicates that this type of compressor stage is only possible where the stage velocities are low, otherwise the operating Mach number will be such that flow separation may occur in the stator blade.

## Part 1 (d) - Summary.

For an axial flow turbine stage the blading efficiency and loading factor are derived as functions of the blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio ( $\sqrt{-}$ ), and of the reaction coefficient (G), (Equations 111 and 116). The reaction coefficient is defined as the reaction effect in the moving blade divided by the kinetic energy at inlet to the blade and is given in equation 123 as a function of the total head degree of reaction for the stage. For a given reaction coefficient and nozzle outlet angle the blading efficiency is a maximum when

$$\nabla = \frac{1 + \cos^2 \alpha}{2}$$

where  $\measuredangle$  is the nozzle outlet angle.

The variation of blading efficiency with (f) and G is shown in figure 15. It will be noted that there is a limited range of J , about that for maximum blading efficiency. within which T may be chosen without incurring a serious fall in blading efficiency. This range of  $\sqrt{-}$ , along with the value of the maximum blading efficiency increase with increase in reaction coefficient. For a given reaction coefficient. the loading factor increases with decreasing values of  $\sqrt{1}$ , (figure 18), but the choice of loading factor is in general limited to the range of  $\sqrt{1}$  within which there is no serious fall in blading efficiency. When the stage is designed for maximum blading efficiency, the value of the maximum blading efficiency and the loading factor are functions of reaction coefficient only, the value of the loading factor being twice the reciprocal of the blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio. As the reaction coefficient rises the maximum blading efficiency increases (figure 16) while the loading factor decreases (figure 19). In choosing a reaction coefficient for the stage therefore, a compromise must be made between these conflicting factors.

If the stage is designed with a small compression effect in the rotor blade a considerable rise in loading factor can be obtained. This is however accompanied by a serious fall in blading efficiency. In addition, the position with regard to blading efficiency is further aggravated if the blade speed to tangential jet speed ratio is only slightly removed from that which gives maximum blading efficiency.

The variation in the stage efficiencies with speed ratio and reaction coefficient may be studied using the results The total to static, and total to derived in this section. total stage efficiencies are related to the blading efficiency and total head efficiency of expansion in the stage by the expressions

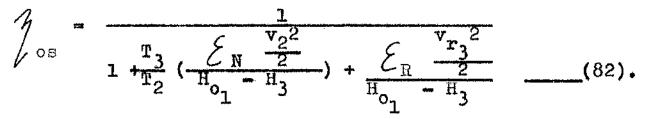
ts B X /os

and

where

 $\eta_{tt} = \frac{\eta_{os}}{\frac{1}{\eta_{B}}(1 - \eta_{os}) + \eta_{os}}$ / os is given by  $\frac{1}{7} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_3}{T_2} (\frac{1}{7 \text{ oN}} - 1) (1 - \text{Ro}) + (\frac{1}{7 R} - 1) \text{Ro}}$ (81).

or



It will be seen from equation 89 that the plots of blading efficiency, given in figure 15, may be regarded as design plots of total to static efficiency against  $\mathcal{T}$  where  $\mathcal{J}_{os}$  is unity.

It has been shown that the blading efficiency and loading factor depend primarily on the choice of reaction coefficient for the stage. (figures 16 and 19). In making this choice of reaction coefficient, the effect on the stage efficiencies may be obtained by assuming constant element

(89).

(93).

efficiencies and using  $\sum_{0.5}$  in the form of equation 81. When the reaction coefficient is thus determined, a comparison of a number of stage designs may be made, each corresponding to a blade speed to jet speed ratio within the range where the blading efficiency is sensibly constant. By this means the optimum design from the loading factor and stage efficiency viewpoint may be determined. In assessing the stage efficiencies at this point, account should be taken of the variation in the loss coefficients of the elements as the gas deflection varies. An example of the way in which gas deflection varies with [-] at constant reaction coefficient is given in figure 17. It may be shown that equation 82 can be expressed as

 $\frac{1}{1 + \frac{T_3}{T_2} \frac{\mathcal{E}_N}{1 + \mathcal{G}} + \frac{\mathcal{E}_R}{1 + \mathcal{G}}} (\mathcal{G} + \sin^2 \mathcal{L} + (1 - \nabla)^2 \cos^2 \mathcal{L})}$ and to determine  $\mathcal{I}_{tt}$  and  $\mathcal{I}_{ts}$  it only remains to substitute experimental figures for  $\mathcal{E}_N$  and  $\mathcal{E}_R$ .

Typical such results for the variation in loss coefficients with gas deflection, for blading which is designed for optimum pitch to chord ratio, are given by Soderburg<sup>30</sup>. The gas deflection and loss coefficient decrease as the blade speed to jet speed ratio rises. Thus the total head efficiency of expansion in the stage will rise continuously as the speed ratio is increased. The variation of stage efficiency with speed ratio may then be deduced from the blading efficiency graphs in figure 15 using the relationships given in equations 89 and 93. For a given reaction coefficient the total to static stage efficiency will exhibit a steeper characteristic at speed ratios below that for maximum blading efficiency and flatter characteristic above, compared with the corresponding blading efficiency curve. Rogers and Mayhew<sup>31</sup> have considered the effect of friction losses on the stage efficiency characteristic and have suggested that the

speed ratio for maximum stage efficiency may differ somewhat from that for maximum blading efficiency.

The total to total stage efficiency has been shown to be much less dependant on the blading efficiency, especially at high values of the blading efficiency. (figure 10). At values of the blade speed about that for maximum blading efficiency the total to total stage efficiency will exhibit a much flatter characteristic than the total to static efficiency.

Equation 93 may be shown to give

$$\frac{7}{2}$$
tt = 1 -  $\frac{1 - \frac{7}{00}}{7}$ ts

from which the total to total stage efficiency curve may be determined once the total to static characteristic has been established.

With regard to the definitions of degree of reaction given in this section, Shepherd<sup>32</sup> used a different approach. He defines the degree of reaction as the reaction effect in the moving blade divided by the work output in the stage, thus :-

$$R_{sh} = \frac{H_2 - H_3}{WD}$$

This is a general definition which is not restricted to stages where the velocity entering and leaving the stage is the same. The relationship between  $R_{sh}$  and G is obtained by substituting  $R_{sh}$  for R in equation 124. This gives  $R_{sh}$ as a function of speed ratio and reaction coefficient. At maximum blading efficiency  $R_{sh}$  is a function of reaction coefficient only and is given by

$$R_{sh} = \frac{G}{\cos^2 \varkappa + G}$$

Shepherd gives the blade speed to jet speed ratio for maximum blading efficiency as

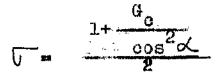
$$\int -\frac{\cos \alpha}{2(1-R_{\rm sh})}$$

and the value of the maximum blading efficiency as

 $\frac{2}{B_{\text{max}}} = \frac{\cos^2 \lambda}{1 - R_{\text{sh}} \sin^2 \lambda}$ 

Using the relationship between R<sub>sh</sub> and G for maximum blading efficiency it may be shown that these latter expressions are identical with the corresponding expressions given here in equations 112 and 113.

For the axial flow compressor stage maximum blading efficiency is obtained when



Here  $\overline{\sigma}$  is the ratio of blade speed to the tangential component of the absolute velocity leaving the rotor blade,  $\swarrow$  is the stator blade inlet angle and  $G_c$ , the compression coefficient, is the ratio of the compression effect in the rotor blade to the kinetic energy at inlet to the stator blade. The way in which the blading efficiency and loading factor for the compressor stage vary with the compression coefficient and speed ratio, can be obtained by using the analogy, between the compressor stage and similar turbine stage, discussed in the previous section.

## Part 2.

(a) <u>The Determination in a static test rig of Local Total</u> <u>Head Efficiency of Expansion and of Stream Condition</u> by means of an Impact Tube. The measurement in a static test rig of the local efficiency of expansion and of stream condition in a subsonic or supersonic stream by means of an impact tube.

The loss of high grade energy in a turbine or compressor element may vary from point to point in the exit plane of the element. The impact tube when set at zero incidence to a stream records the local value of the total head or stagnation pressure. Thus if the total head condition of the working fluid entering a nozzle or diffuser is known the tube may be used to give local losses in total head pressure at the exit plane of the element. The function of the following section is to relate the recorded value of total head pressure to the local total head efficiency of expansion in a nozzle or blade element and to the local state of the fluid when the element is examined in a static test rig used to simulate the actual operating conditions. The equations developed allow for the case where the fluid stream approaching the impact tube is supersonic, in which case the recorded stagnation pressure is less than the actual stagnation pressure of the stream due to the loss in the total head pressure across the detached shock front up-stream of the tube. The relationships allow one to determine whether the local flow is subsonic or supersonic and in either case the local total head efficiency of expansion and local specific volume is then given in graphical form as a function of the local outlet stagnation pressure of the stream and of the theoretical Mach number after expansion. The graphs are drawn for the theoretical Mach numbers at outlet from the nozzle or blade which were used in the experimental work.

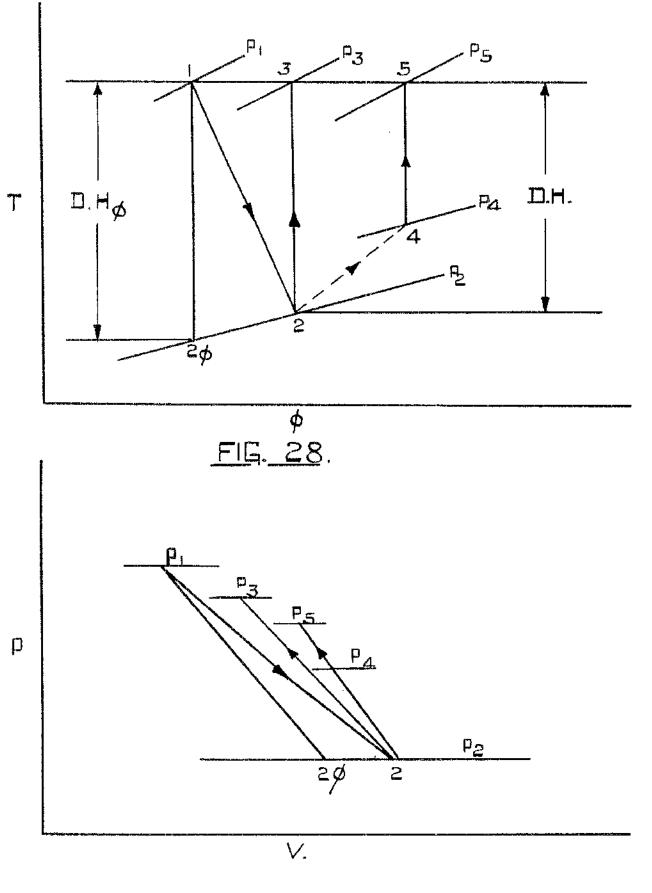
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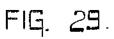
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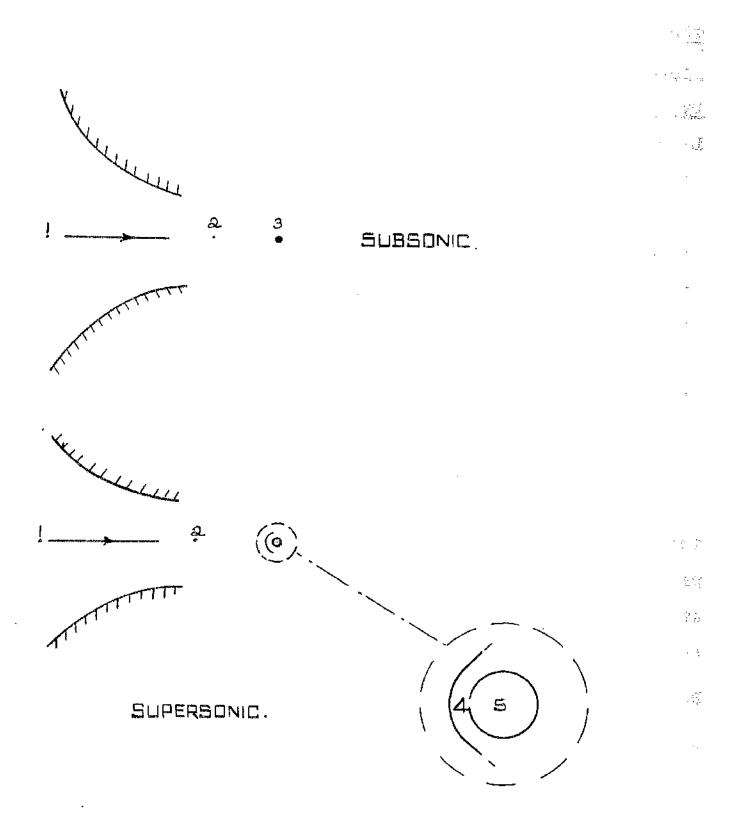




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<u>FIG. 30</u>.

75.

The measurement, in a static test rig, of the local efficiency of expansion and of steam condition in a subsonic or supersonic stream by means of an impact tube. Let M denote Mach No. velocity ft/sec. 1 Ħ specific volume ft3/1b. 13 V , t¶ pressure 1b/ft<sup>2</sup>. - 14  $\mathbf{P}^{-}$ Ŧŧ accoustic velocity. va 8 Ħ - 11 isentropic index. 3 ţţ local total head efficiency of expansion. heat drop B.T.U./lb. DH Ħ acceleration due to gravity. 캕 Ħ g

Referring to figures 28, 29 & 30, consider an expansion from the total head condition (1) (Total head pressure  $P_1$ ) to the static pressure  $P_2$ . Thus an isontropic expansion from (1) gives the state point  $2\varphi$  after expansion and an adiabatic expansion gives the point 2 with corresponding total head pressure  $P_3$ .

Hence  $\frac{v_2^2 \rho}{2g} = \frac{v}{v-1} (P_1 v_1 - P_2 v_2 \rho)$   $\therefore v_{2\rho}^2 = \frac{2gv}{v-1} P_1 v_1 (1 - (\frac{P_2}{P_1}) \frac{v-1}{v})$  $= \frac{2gv}{v-1} P_2 v_{2\rho} ((\frac{P_1}{P_2}) \frac{v-1}{v} - 1)$  (1).

$$M_{2g}^{2} = \frac{v_{2g}^{2}}{v_{a,2g}^{2}} = \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \left( \left( \frac{P_{1}}{P_{2}} \right)^{\frac{N-1}{N}} - 1 \right) \right)$$

$$also v_{2}^{2} = \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \frac{g \chi}{\gamma-1} P_{3} v_{3} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{P_{2}}{P_{3}} \right)^{\frac{N-1}{N}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \frac{g \chi}{\gamma-1} P_{2} v_{2} \left( \left( \frac{P_{3}}{P_{2}} \right)^{\frac{N-1}{N}} - 1 \right) \right)$$

$$v_{a_{2}}^{2} = g \chi P_{2} v_{2}$$

$$M_{2}^{2} = \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \left( \left( \frac{P_{3}}{P_{2}} \right)^{\frac{N-1}{N}} - 1 \right)$$

$$(3).$$

$$M_{2}^{2} = \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \left( \left( \frac{P_{3}}{P_{2}} \right)^{\frac{N-1}{N}} - 1 \right)$$

$$(4).$$

$$Since P_{1} V_{1} = P_{2} V_{2}$$

$$then from (1) and (3)$$

$$\mathcal{T} = \frac{DH}{DH_{\varphi}} = \frac{v_{2}^{2}}{v_{2\varphi}^{2}} = \frac{1 - \frac{v_{2}}{p_{3}}}{1 - (\frac{p_{2}}{p_{1}})^{\frac{y-1}{y}}}$$

from (2)  $\frac{P_2}{P_1} = \left(\frac{\gamma - 1}{2} M_{2\phi}^2 + 1\right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\beta - 1}}$ : from (5)  $\frac{1 - \left(\frac{P_2}{P_3}\right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\beta - 1}}}{1 - \left(\frac{\gamma - 1}{2} M_{2\phi}^2 + 1\right)^{-1}}$ 

(6).

(5).

also from (1) and (3)

$$\frac{7}{2} = \frac{V_2}{V_{2\phi}} \left( \frac{\left(\frac{P_3}{P_2}\right)^{\frac{\delta}{\delta}}}{\left(\frac{P_1}{P_2}\right)^{\frac{\delta}{\delta}} - 1} \right)$$
(7).

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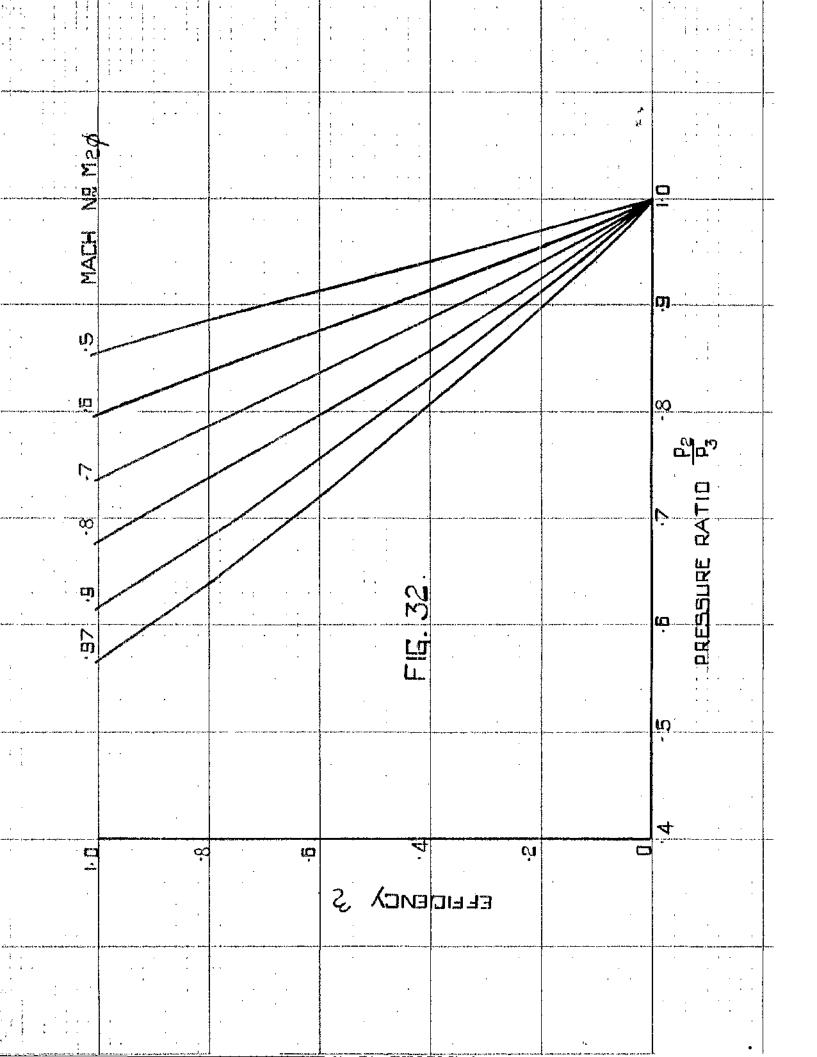
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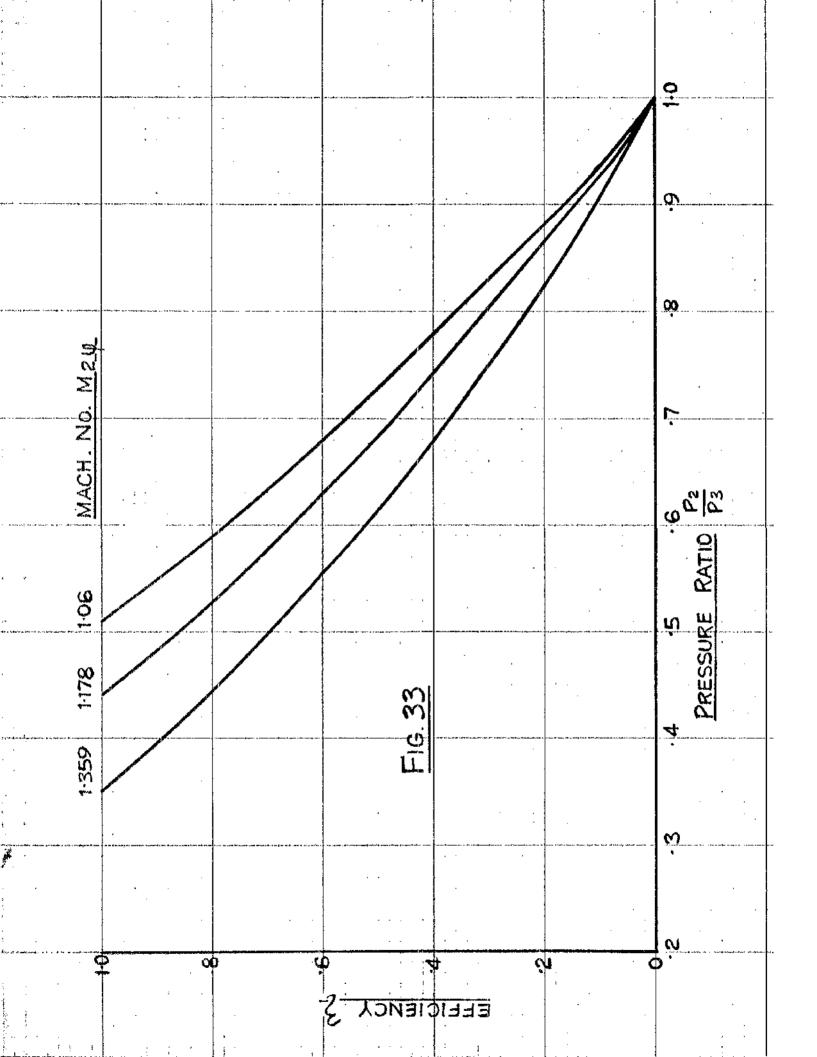
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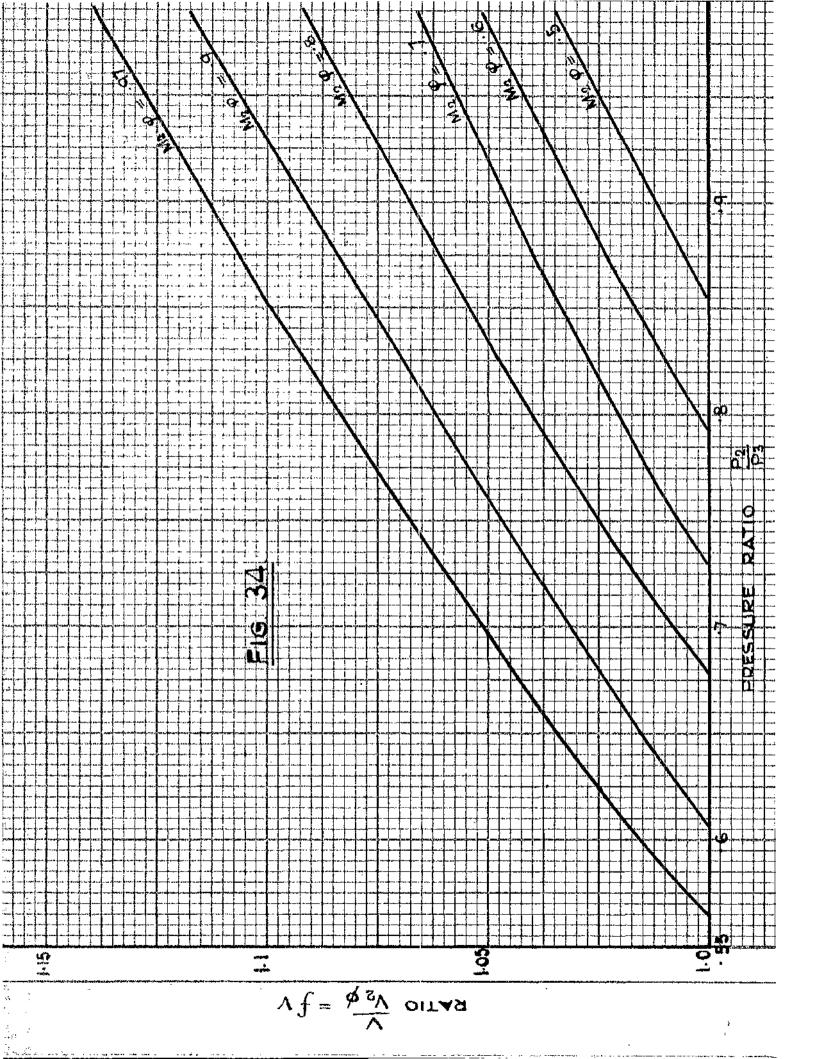


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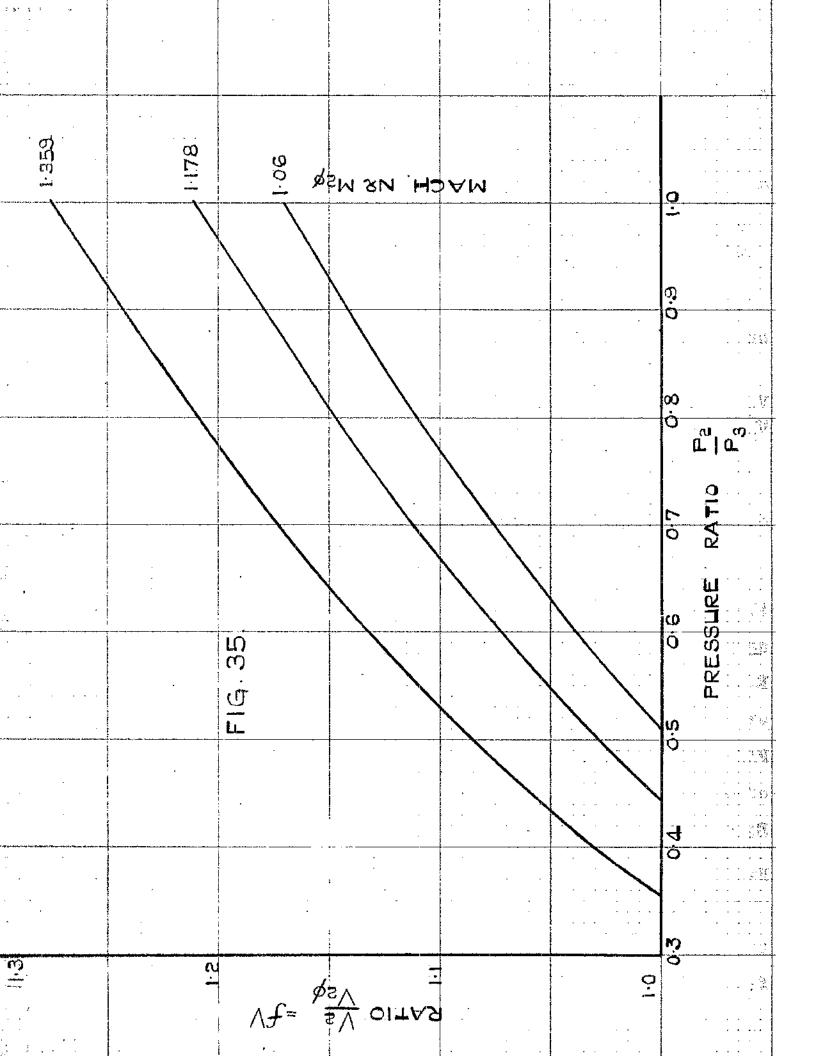


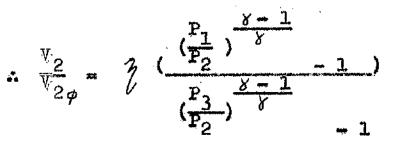
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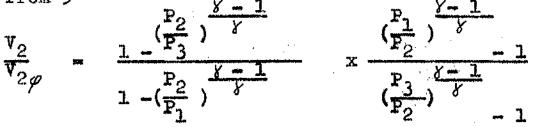


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on simplifying this gives

$$\frac{v_{2}}{v_{2\varphi}^{2}} = \frac{\left(\frac{P_{2}}{P_{3}}\right)^{\frac{y}{z}-1}}{\left(\frac{P_{2}}{P_{1}}\right)^{\frac{y}{z}-1}} + \frac{(\frac{P_{2}}{P_{1}})^{\frac{y}{z}-1}}{\frac{P_{2}}{P_{1}}\right)^{\frac{y}{z}-1}} + \frac{(\frac{P_{2}}{P_{1}})^{\frac{y}{z}-1}}{\frac{y}{z}} + \frac{(\frac{Y_{2}}{P_{1}})^{\frac{y}{z}-1}}{\frac{y}{z}} + \frac{(\frac{Y_{2}}{P_{2}})^{\frac{y}{z}-1}}{\frac{y}{z}} + \frac{(\frac{Y_{2}}{P_{1}})^{\frac{y}{z}-1}}{\frac{y}{z}} + \frac{(\frac{Y_{2}}{P_{1}})^{\frac{y}{z}-1}}{\frac{y$$

The above relationships apply with subsonic or supersonic flow at point 2. Equation (2) is plotted in Fig. 31 as  $\frac{P_2}{P_1}$ against Mach number. Equation (6) relates  $\frac{7}{2}$ ,  $\frac{P_2}{P_3}$  and theoretical Mach No. after expansion  $M_{2\rho}$ . Figs. 32 and 33 give  $\frac{7}{2}$  to a base of  $\frac{P_2}{P_3}$  for various values of  $M_{2\rho}$ . Equation (8) relates  $\frac{V_2}{V_{2\rho}}$ ,  $\frac{P_2}{P_3}$  and  $M_{2\rho}$  and these are shown in Figs 34 and 35 for various values of  $M_{2\rho}$ .

Hence by obtaining the total head pressure P3 the local total head efficiency and local specific volume can be obtained from the above relationships.

In subsonic flow the total head pressure is equal to the observed impact tube pressure, in supersonic flow however this is not so and a correction has to be made to the impact tube pressure to obtain the actual total head pressure of the stream.

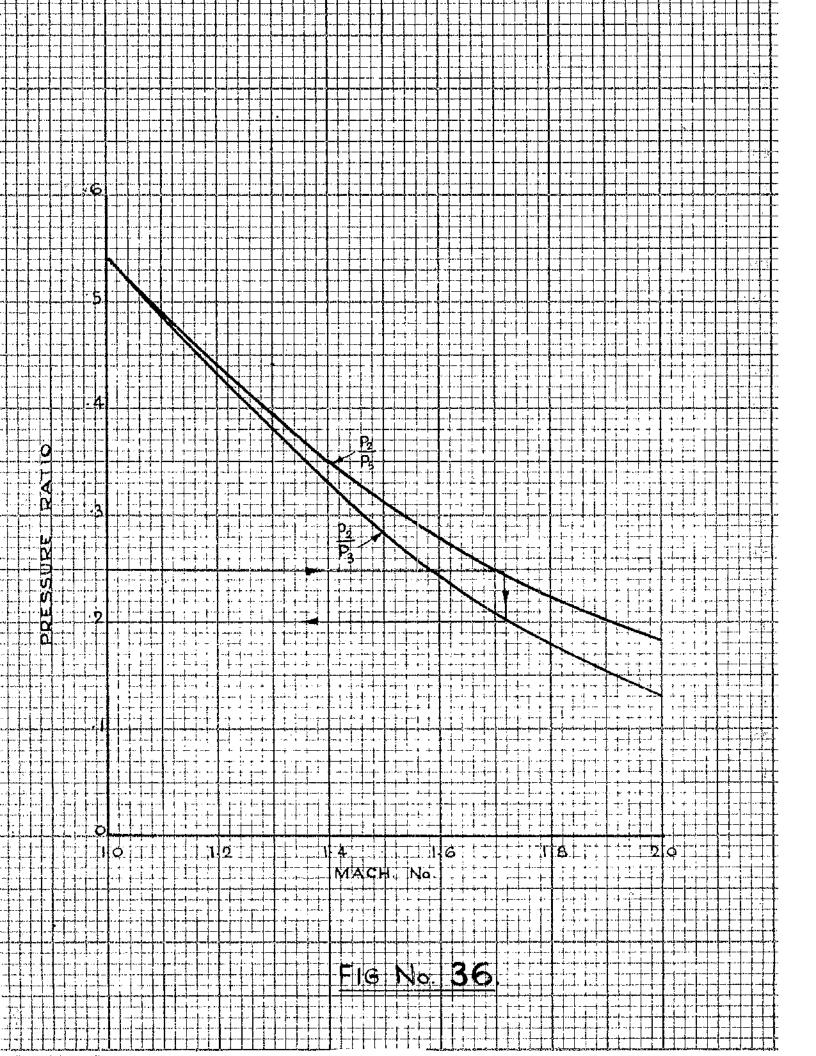
Referring to Figs. 28, 29 and 30, for supersonic flow at 2 the impact tube acts like a large angled wedge so that a detached shock front forms up-stream of the impact tube. The total shock front is made up of a series of oblique shocks at various angles to the stream. However when the impact tube hole is aligned to be in the direction of the fluid stream, the changes of state experienced by the fluid approaching the hole correspond to those of a normal shock front.

For supersonic flow then  $P_4$  and  $P_5$  are the static pressure and total head pressure respectively after a normal shock jump from a stream Mach no.  $M_2$ , and  $P_5$  is equal to the observed impact tube pressure.

Hence from the theory of the normal shock wave the Rayleigh Supersonic Pitot - Tube relationship is

$$\frac{P_2}{P_5} = \frac{\left(\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{3} + \frac{1}{3}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}}}{\left(\frac{3}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2} \times \frac{2}{3}\right)^{\frac{1}{p-1}}} \qquad (9).$$
(9).  
(Shapiro<sup>33</sup>).  
also we have that  $\frac{P_2}{P_3} = (1 + \frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2})^{\frac{-3}{p-1}}$ . (10).

Equation 9 relates the static pressure at outlet with the impact tube pressure for supersonic flow and is shown in Fig. 36. Superimposed on this graph is the relationship given by equation



10 which is general for subsonic or supersonic flow.

Fig. 36 enables one to determine if the flow is supersonic or subsonic and if supersonic to obtain from the observed impact tube pressure the actual total head pressure of the stream.

Fig. 36 is drawn for superheated steam taking  $\gamma = 1.3$ , and has been reduced in size from its more accurate and larger original for presentation here. Thus if the ratio stream static pressure/ Impact tube pressure is less than 0.545 the stream Mach number is greater than unity and the ratio  $P_2/P_3$  can be obtained as indicated. This ratio can then be used in Figs. 32 - 35 to obtain local efficiency and specific volume.

When plotting the relationships given in this section use may be made of Keenen and Kayes Gas Tables.<sup>34</sup> Table 34 for isentropic compressible flow with  $\gamma = 1.3$  gives values of total head to static temperature ratio and total head to static pressure ratio for stream Mach numbers ranging from 0 to 10. and may be used to obtain the plots of pressure ratio, total head efficiency, and volume ratio in figures 31 to 35. Table 52 gives normal shock functions from which the plot of the Ragleigh pitot tube relationship in fig 36 may be made.

#### Summary of Part 2(a)

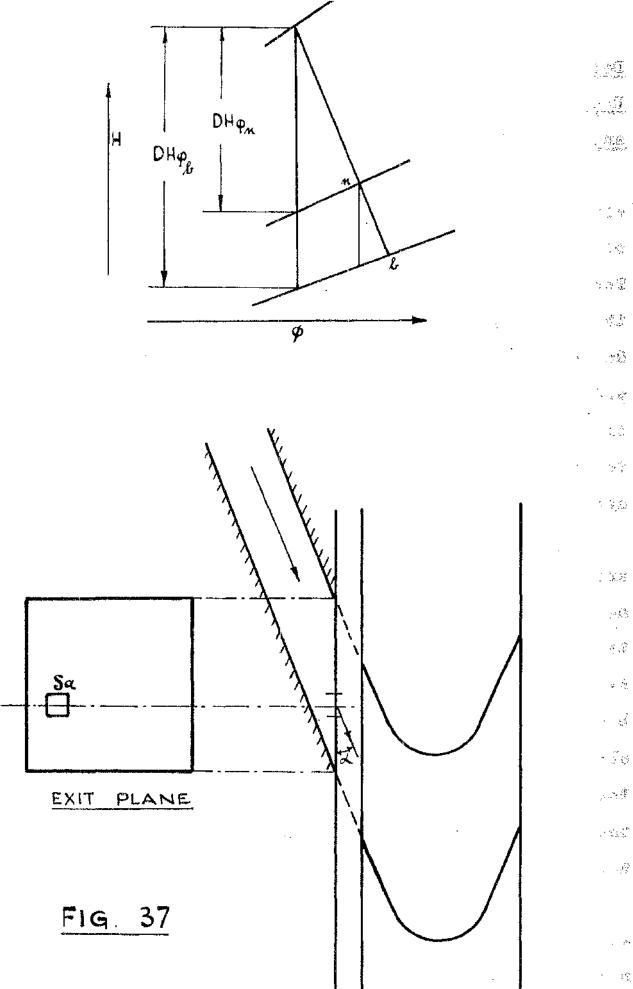
In subsonic flow the impact tube, if placed correctly in the stream at the exit plane of a nozzle or of a nozzle and blade pair, will record local values of the total head pressure of the If locally the flow is supersonic a correction must stream. be made to the observed impact tube pressure to obtain the actual total head pressure of the streem. The determination of whether or not the local flow is supersonic and the subsequent correction should this prove necessary are obtained using figure 36. The local total head efficiency of expansion and the ratio of the actual to the theoretical specific volume after expansion are shown to be functions of the pressure ratio, stream static pressure/ stream total head pressure. and of the theoretical Mach number after expansion. Hence if one plots the local efficiency and volume ratio to a base of the above pressure ratio, for the various theoretical outlet Mach numbers at which an investigation is to take place, the local total head efficiency and state point of the fluid may be readily and expressly obtained. These relationships are shown in figures 31 - 35.

# Part 2.

# (b) <u>The Conversion of Local Values of Efficiency and of Efflux</u> <u>Angle into Mean Effective Values.</u>

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Determination of the Mean or Effective Values of Efficiency of Expansion etc. from Traverses over the Exit Planes of a Nozzle and Blade Pair.

It will be appreciated that spot centre line readings of efficiency and efflux angle have to be modified to take account of two dimensional effects obtained from centre line traverses. The work of Howell<sup>7</sup> and Ainley<sup>11</sup> further emphasised the need for three dimensional traverses to account for secondary losses. Having obtained the local values of efficiency, specific volume and efflux angle from the recorded impact tube readings at any cross-section of the flow in a nozzle or diffuser it is necessary to reduce these local values to a mean effective value which will apply to the whole cross-section.

This is done below with particular reference to the nozzle and blade pair used in the experimental work but the same general method would be used in any turbine or compressor element. In terms of local values, expressions are developed for the mean total head efficiency of expansion in the nozzle or in the nozzle and blade pair. The mean efficiency in the blade itself may then be obtained and for the particular case where there is no reaction in the blading a mean blade velocity coefficient is derived. The theory is further extended to give mean efflux angles for the nozzle and blade.

Referring to figure 37, consider a nozzle and blade pair in which the isentropic heat drop in the nozzle. is  $DH_{pn}$  and in the nozzle and blade pair  $DH_{pb}$ . Suppose that traverses of the

nozzle and blade exit planes have been made and the values of local total head efficiency, specific volume and angle obtained over the areas.

> Let DH = heat drop BTU./lb. " m = mass flow lb. per sec. " v = local velocity ft. per sec. "  $\checkmark$  = local flow angle degrees. "  $\checkmark$  = local flow angle degrees. "  $\forall$  = local specific volume ft<sup>3</sup>/lb. "  $\Im$  = local total head efficiency of expansion. " da = local elemental area ft<sup>2</sup>. " fV = the volume ratio V/V<sub>p</sub>. "  $\pounds$  = summation. " K = blade velocity coefficient. "  $\overleftarrow{x}$  = a mean value of x.

also let subscripts n and b denote the nozzle and blade outlet respectively.

Then at either plane the elemental mass flow at area da is given by  $dm = \frac{v \sin \omega}{V} da$ The total mass flow is then  $m = \underbrace{\forall \ \sin \omega \ da}{V}$ But  $\frac{v^2}{v_{\varphi}^2} = \underbrace{?}_{P}$  and  $\underbrace{v}_{V\varphi} = fV$ .  $\therefore m = \frac{v_{\varphi}}{v_{\varphi}} \underbrace{?}_{P} \underbrace{?}_{P} \sin \omega \frac{da}{fV}$   $= \frac{223.8}{V} \underbrace{DH} \qquad \stackrel{1}{\Rightarrow} \sin \frac{da}{fV}$  (1). Hence at the nozzle exit  $m = \frac{223.8}{V_{\varphi}n} \underbrace{?}_{P} \underbrace{?}_{P} \underbrace{?}_{P} \underbrace{?}_{P} \sin \omega \frac{da}{fV}$ )<sub>n</sub> 1b/sec. (2). and at the blade exit

$$m = \frac{223.8 \sqrt{DH \rho b}}{V \rho b} \leq (2^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \left\langle \frac{de}{fV} \right\rangle_b 1b/sec. \qquad (3).$$

## Kinetic energy at the exit planes.

At any plane the total flux of kinetic energy is

A Total flux of kinetic energy

$$= \frac{223.8^3 \text{ DH}_{\phi}^{2}}{2gV_{\phi}} \leq \left( \frac{7}{2} \frac{1}{3} \sin \left( \frac{da}{fV} \right) \right) \text{ ft lbs/sec.}$$

Hence for one 1b,

$$K.E. = \frac{223.8^2}{2g} \frac{DH_{\varphi}}{2g} \frac{\frac{2}{7} \frac{3}{2} \sin \alpha \frac{da}{fV}}{\frac{da}{fV}} \text{ ft lbs/lb.}$$
  

$$\therefore DH = DH_{\varphi} \frac{\frac{2}{7} \frac{3}{2} \sin \alpha \frac{da}{fV}}{\frac{2}{7} \frac{3}{2} \sin \alpha \frac{da}{fV}} B.T.U./lb.$$

. The mean total head efficiency of expansion is given by

$$\overline{\overline{\chi}} = \frac{\underline{\xi} \overline{\chi}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \sqrt{\frac{da}{fV}}}{\underline{\xi} \overline{\chi}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \sqrt{\frac{da}{fV}}}$$
(5).  
Thus  $\overline{\chi}_{n} = (\frac{\underline{\xi} \overline{\chi}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \sqrt{\frac{da}{fV}}}{\underline{\xi} \overline{\chi}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \sqrt{\frac{da}{fV}}})_{n}$ (6).  
and  $\overline{\chi}_{b} = (\frac{\underline{\xi} \overline{\chi}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \sqrt{\frac{da}{fV}}}{\underline{\xi} \overline{\chi}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \sqrt{\frac{da}{fV}}})_{b}$ (7).

The mean exit velocities for the nozzle and blade are given by  $\overline{v}_n = 223.8 \sqrt{\overline{2}_n DH} \rho_n$  and  $\overline{v}_b = 223.8 \sqrt{\overline{2}_b DH} \rho_b$ It should be noted that  $\overline{2}_b$  is the mean total head efficiency of expansion for the nozzle and blade pair. The efficiency of the expansion process in the blade itself is given by

(4).

$$\overline{\overline{\mathcal{J}}}_{b} = \frac{H_{n} - H_{b}}{DH_{\varphi b} - DH_{\varphi n}}$$

$$\overline{\mathcal{J}}_{b} = \frac{DH_{\varphi b} \left(\frac{\underline{\mathcal{E}} \overline{\mathcal{J}}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \underline{\mathcal{L}} \frac{da}{fV}}{\underline{\mathcal{E}} \overline{\mathcal{J}}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \underline{\mathcal{L}} \frac{da}{fV}}\right)_{b} - DH_{\varphi n} \left(\frac{\underline{\mathcal{E}} \overline{\mathcal{J}}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \underline{\mathcal{L}} \frac{da}{fV}}{\underline{\mathcal{E}} \overline{\mathcal{J}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \underline{\mathcal{L}} \frac{da}{fV}}\right)_{n}}{DH_{\varphi b} - DH_{\varphi n}}$$

$$(8).$$

and the loss of high grade energy within the blade passage is  $DH_{\mathcal{P}b} - DH_{\mathcal{P}n} - (H_n - H_b)$  B.T.U.

: blade passage reheat loss is

$$DH_{\varphi b} - DH_{\varphi n} - \left[ DH_{\varphi b} \left( \frac{\xi \tilde{\chi}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \alpha \frac{da}{fV}}{\xi \tilde{\chi}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \alpha \frac{da}{fV}} \right)_{b} - DH_{\varphi n} \left( \frac{\xi \tilde{\chi}^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \alpha \frac{da}{fV}}{\xi \tilde{\chi}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \alpha \frac{da}{fV}} \right)_{n} \right] (9)$$

For an impulse (zero pressure drop) blade this becomes

$$DH_{\varphi n} \left[ \left( \frac{\xi \tilde{\chi}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \lambda \frac{da}{fV}}{\xi \tilde{\chi}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \lambda \frac{da}{fV}} \right)_{n} - \left( \frac{\xi \tilde{\chi}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \lambda \frac{da}{fV}}{\xi \tilde{\chi}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \lambda \frac{da}{fV}} \right)_{b} \right]$$
(10)

For the impulse blade the loss in the blade passage may be expressed as

Loss =  $(1 - K^2) \frac{\overline{v_n^2}}{2gJ} = (1 - K^2) \overline{j_n} DH_{\varphi_n}$  (11) where K is the blade velocity coefficient. Substituting for  $\overline{j_n}$  from (6) in (11) and equating to (10) gives

Effective mean exit angles.

Let the mean exit angles for the nozzle and blade be  $\overline{\prec}_n$  and  $\overline{\checkmark}_b$  respectively.

Tangential force on the blade  $-\frac{m}{g}x$  (change of tangential velocity) lbs.

-  $\frac{m}{g}$  (inlet tangential velocity + outlet tangential velocity) lbs. Hence the inlet tangential momentum flux is

$$= \frac{1}{g} \frac{\zeta}{\sqrt[V]{n}} \sin_{n} da \times v_{n} \cos_{n} ds$$
  

$$= \frac{223 \cdot 8^{2} DH \varphi n}{g^{V} \varphi n} \frac{\zeta}{(\sqrt[Z]{n} \sin \alpha_{n} \cos \alpha_{n} \frac{da}{fV}) lbs.}$$
  

$$= \frac{m}{g} \overline{v}_{n} \cos \overline{\alpha}_{n} lbs.$$
  

$$\therefore \cos \overline{\lambda}_{n} = \left(\frac{\frac{\zeta}{2} \frac{\chi}{s} \sin \alpha \cos \alpha \frac{da}{fV}}{(\frac{\zeta}{2} \frac{\lambda}{s} \sin \alpha \frac{da}{fV}) \sqrt{\frac{\chi}{2}}}\right)_{n}$$
(13).  
similarly  $\cos \overline{\lambda}_{b} = \left(\frac{\frac{\zeta}{2} \frac{\chi}{s} \sin \alpha \cos \alpha \frac{da}{fV}}{(\frac{\zeta}{2} \frac{\lambda}{s} \sin \alpha \frac{da}{fV}) \sqrt{\frac{\chi}{2}}}\right)_{b}$ (14).

## Summary of Part 2 (b).

In Part 2 (b) local values of efficiency and efflux angle are converted to mean effective values taking account of variations in mass flow per unit area throughout the exit plane element. Equation 8 gives the mean efficiency of the expansion procees based on the static state of the fluid entering the element. Equation 5 may be applied generally to obtain the mean total head efficiency of expansion in a static test on a stator or rotor blade element. In the derivation of equation 5, it is assumed that the inlet total head state of working fluid is constant over the entire inlet flow area and the ideal final kinetic energy is that which would be obtained after isentropic expansion from this total head state to the static pressure at exhaust from the element. When testing cascades of blades in a wind tunnel, the total head state at inlet to the cascade is usually uniform and the reference total head pressure is often taken as the static pressure in the settling ohamber upstream of the tunnel or nozzle.

In equations 6 and 7 the relationship for mean total head efficiency is applied at the exit plane of the tunnel or nozzle ( $\overline{2}_n$ ) or at the exit plane of the blade caseade ( $\overline{2}_b$ ). If there is a tunnel loss  $\overline{2}_n$  will be less than unity and to calculate  $\overline{2}_b$ the total head pressure at the immediate inlet to the caseade should be used. If the reference total head pressure is however taken as the static pressure in the settling chamber then the mean efficiency will include an allowance for the tunnel loss.

Expressions for the mean efflux angle at the nozzle or at the

blade exit are given in equations 13 and 14. These angles may be used in conjunction with the mean efflux velocities at the nozzle and blade exit to obtain the tangential blade force, the mean velocities being obtained using the appropriate mean total head efficiency.

In the experimental work described here, loss characteristics over a range of Reynolds and Mach numbers were obtained for a The nozzle acted as a "wind" small nozzle and blade pair. tunnel for a blade section which was essentially of impulse design and the test arrangement was such that the blade was forced to operate with zero pressure drop across the blade passage. Pitot traverses were made at the nozzle and blade exit planes and for the total head efficiency in each case the reference total head pressure was that at inlet to the nozzle. Since there was a small nozzle loss, this loss is included in the mean total head efficiency of the expansion for the blade. For this type of impulse blade the mean blade velocity coefficient, is given in equation 12, in terms of the mean total head nozzle and blade 🚳 👘 efficiencies.

# Part 3.

An experimental investigation into the flow of superheated steam through a small nozzle and impulse blade pair yielding results on flow pattern and efficiency with varying Reynolds number and Mach number.

### Object of the Experimental Work.

The underlying object is to develop an apparatus in which the methods of previous sections may be applied to typical machine elements and of course to examine these elements for flow patterns and friction factors.

It was decided to use superheated steam as the working fluid because of its availability and also due to the ease with which its density in a test section may be controlled and varied.

A nozzle of rectangular cross-section was manufactured to suit a standard set of blading which were essentially of impulse design. An impact tube and its associated traversing gear was then developed by means of which the flow patterns at either the nozzle or blade exit could be examined as near to true working conditions as possible. For this reason the tube and the traversing gear had to be of fairly robust construction so that they would operate efficiently in an atmosphere of relatively high pressure and temperature.

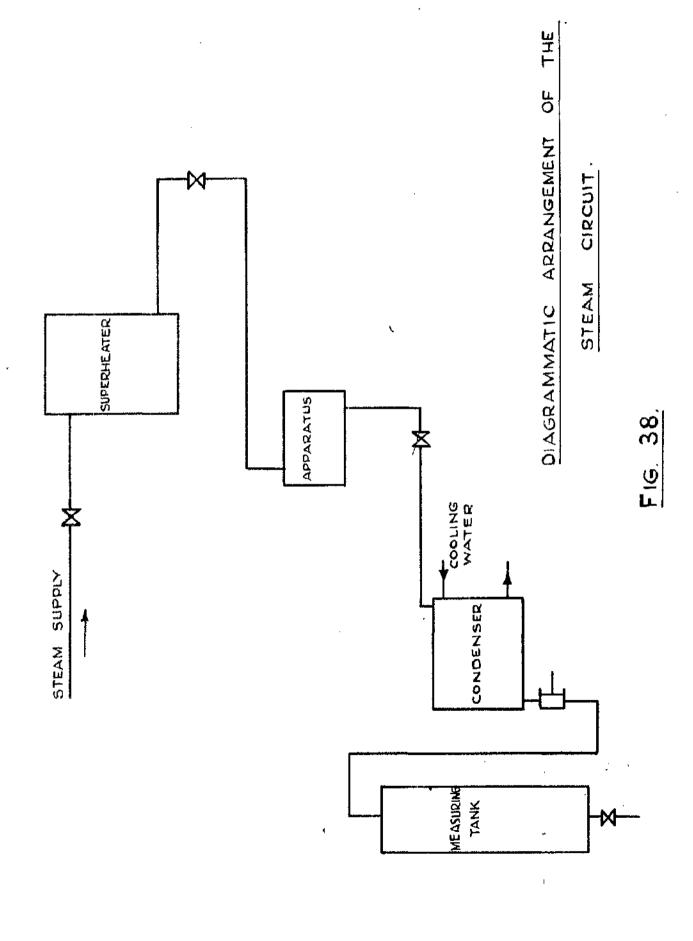
# Description of the Apparatus.

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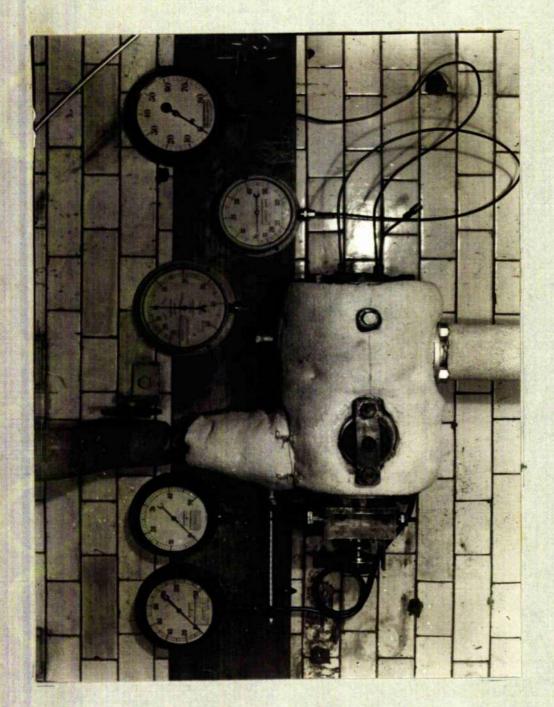


Plate 1.

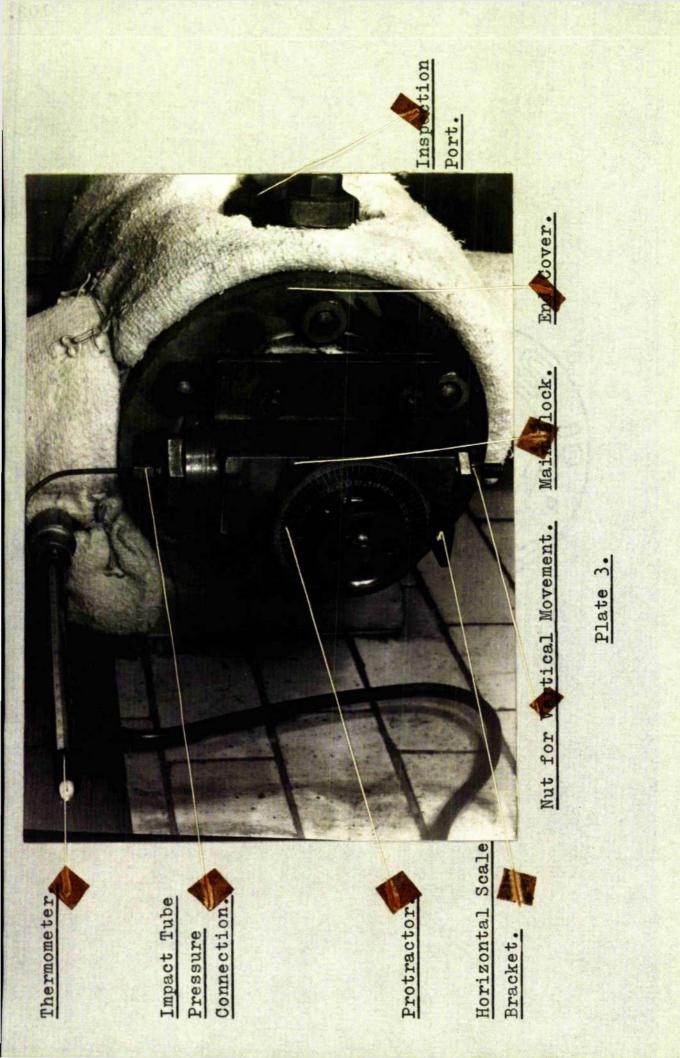
General View of the Apparatus.

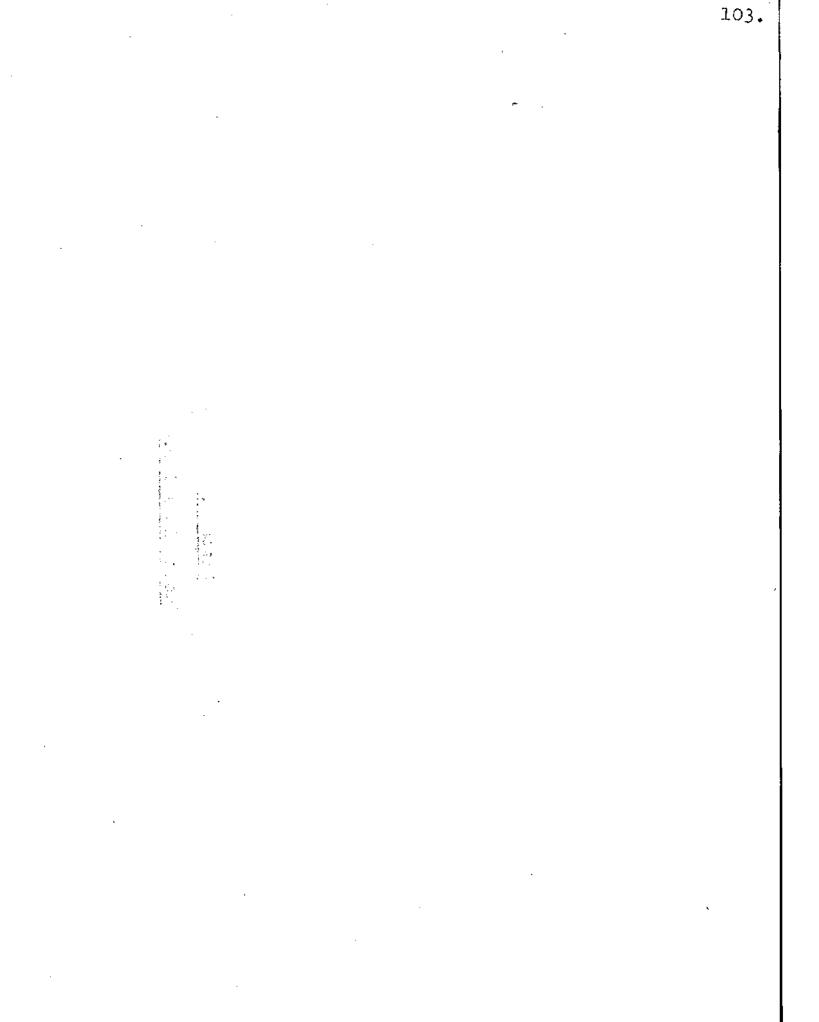
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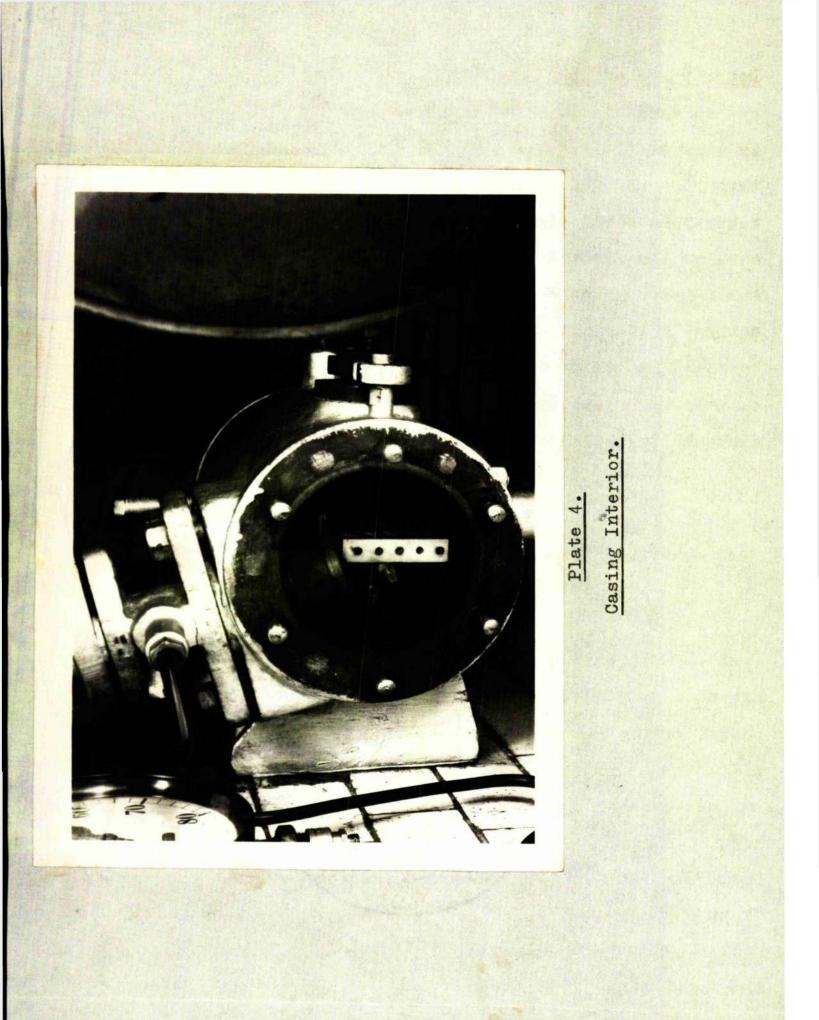
Traversing Gear Mounted on End Cover.

Plate 2.





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#### Description of the Apparatus.

A diagramatic arrangement of the steam circuit is shown in Fig. 38 (Page. 99). Wet steam is passed from a boiler through a gas fired superheater to a casing which contains the nozzle and blade elements. After passing through this test section the steam is exhausted to a surface condenser and the condensate may be measured in a graduated vessel. Throttle control valves are fitted before and after the superheater and between the casing and the condenser. By this arrangement considerable variation of the inlet state of the steam and of the exhaust pressure may be obtained.

The principal parts are :-

Va(1) The casing.

(2) The nozzle and blades.

(3) The impact tube traversing gear.

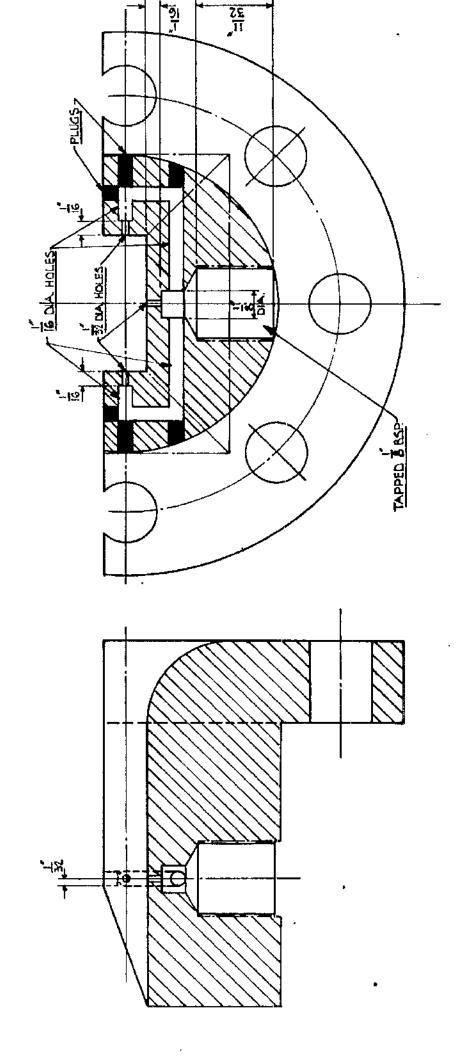
The casing is shown on Plates 1,2,3, & 4, and is a cast iron pipe eight inches internal diameter by fourteen inches long fitted with a nozzle box, two end cover plates, a side inspection port, an exhaust opening and an arrangement for mounting the blades known as the blade carrier;

The nozzle box attaches to the steam supply pipe and is offset from the vertical at an angle of 15°. It is fixed to the casing by four studs which, passing through elongated holes, allow lateral movement of the nozzle box and hence of the nozzle position within the casing. The nozzle box is fitted with a thermometer.

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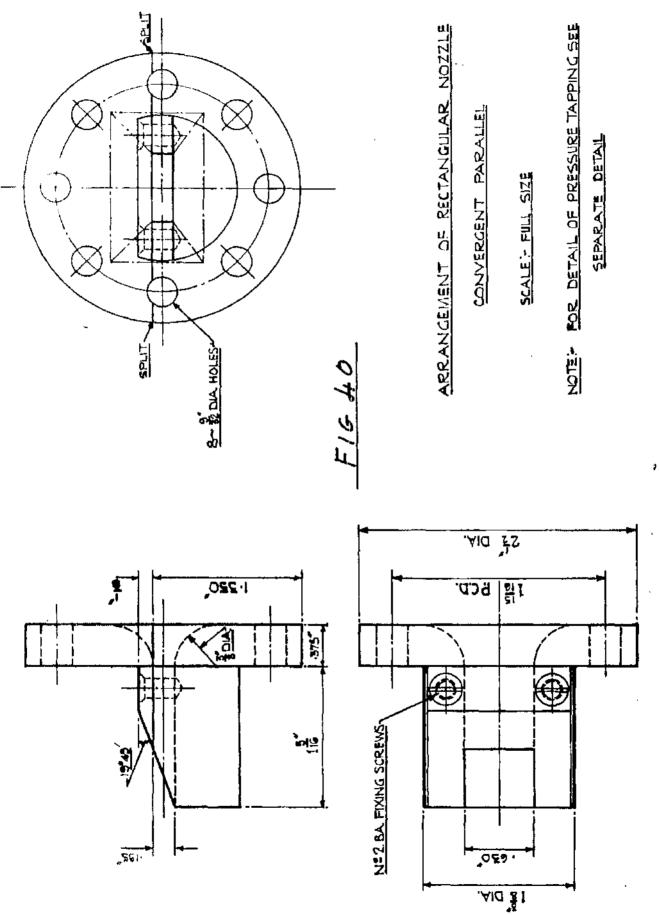
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DETAIL OF PRESSURE TAPPING

SCALET TWICE FULL SIZE

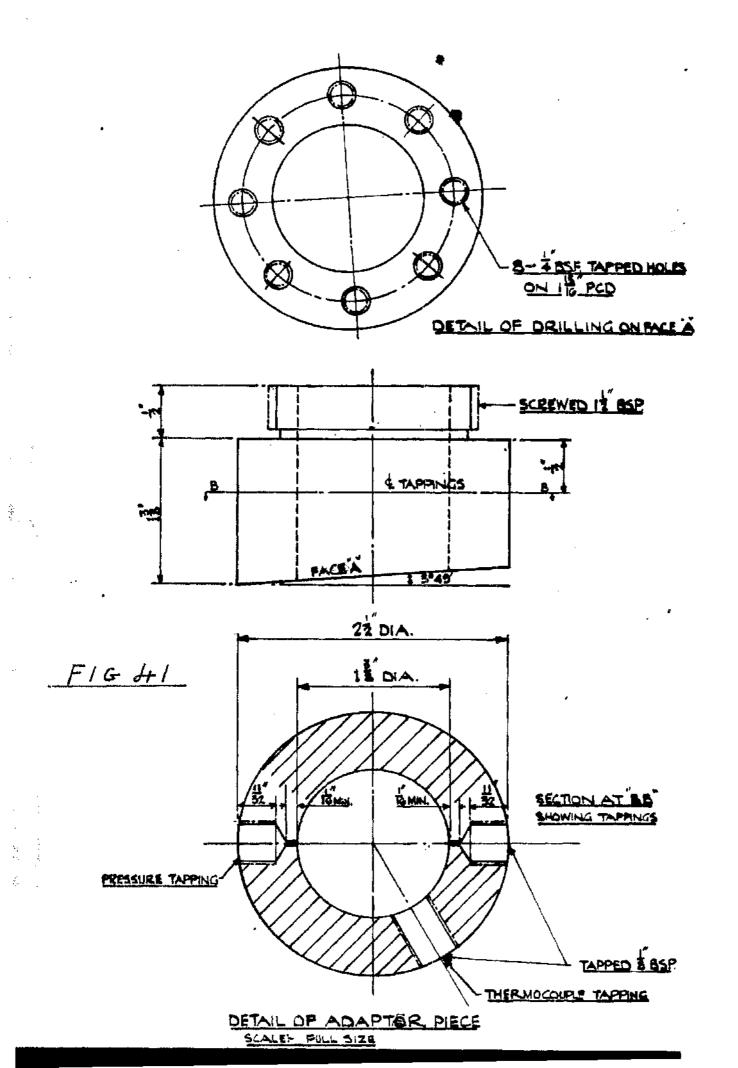
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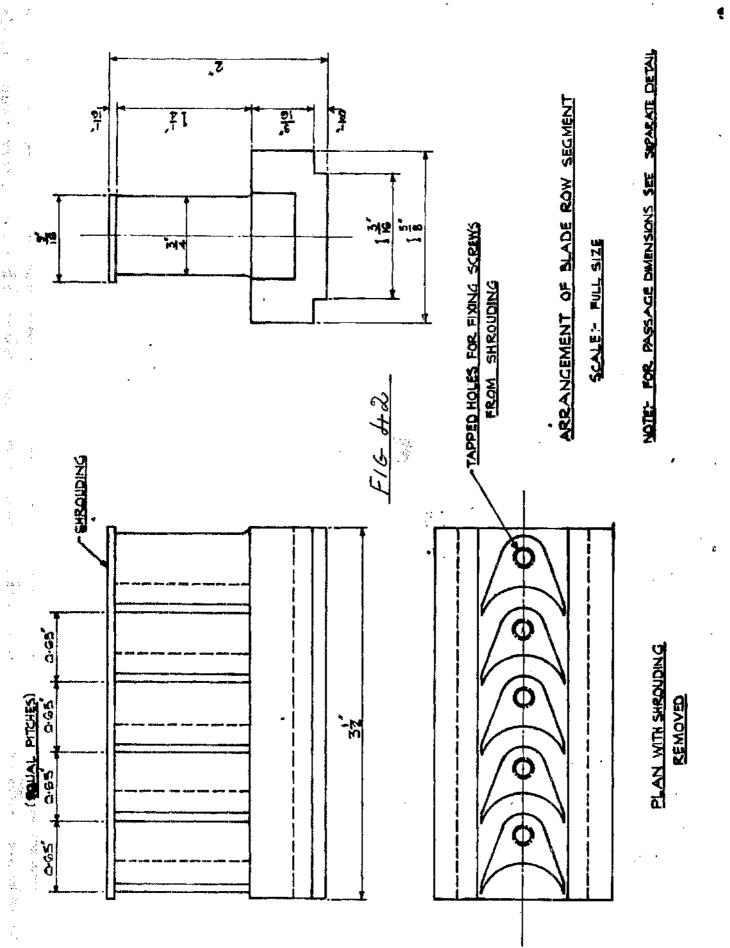
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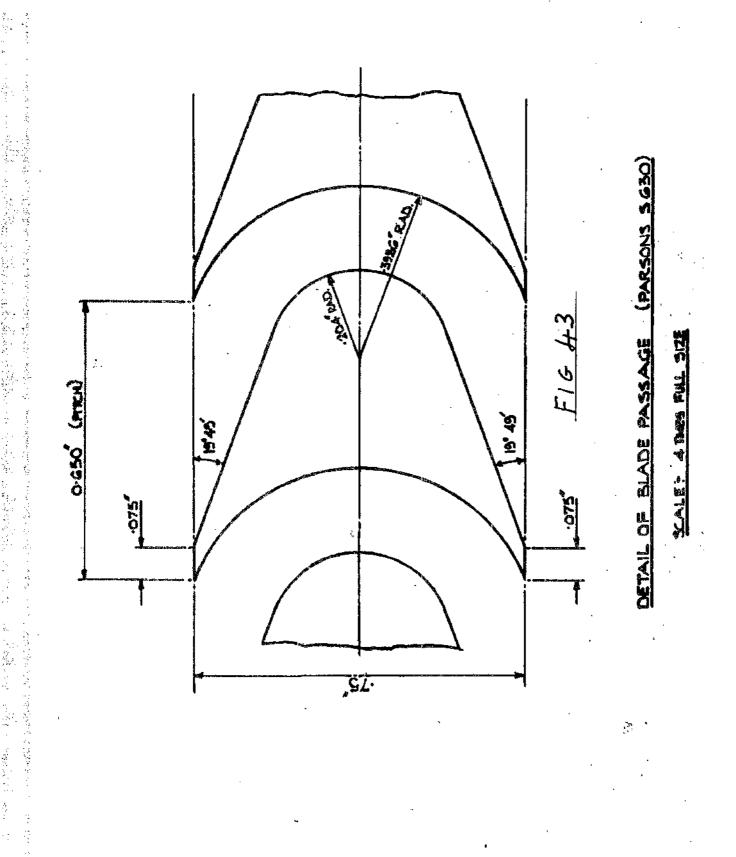
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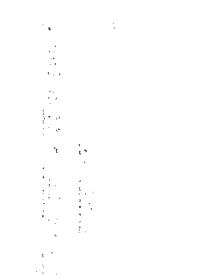
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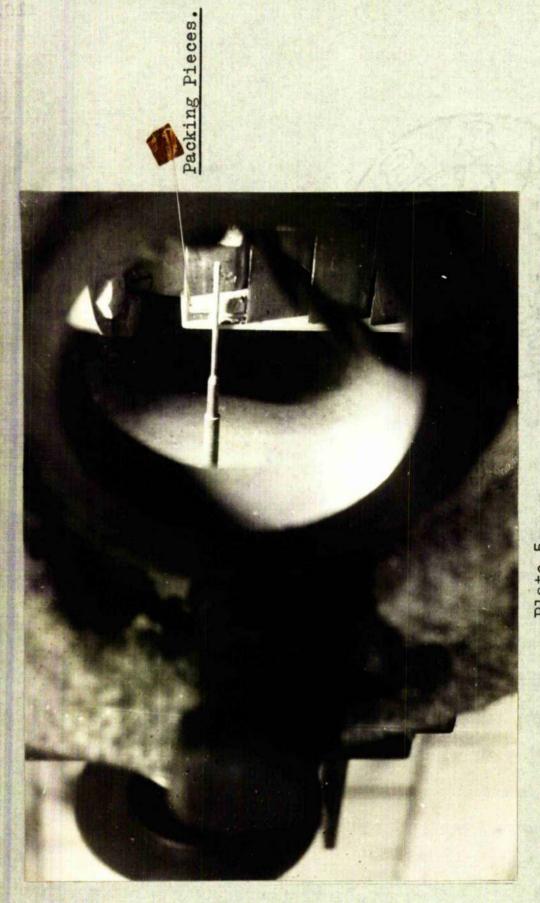


Plate 5.

View Through Inspection Port.

One end cover has a rectangular opening and four stude for mounting the traversing gear. The other cover has pipe connections for pressure tappings from the nozzle.

The blade carrier, Plate 4, is a lever arrangement mounted within the casing and pivoted on screwed trunnions, which pass through the wall of the casing.

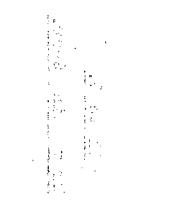
The other end of the lever has a vertical face on which the blading is fixed by friction plates fastened by four screws. Lateral movement of the blading is obtained by varying the relative position of the two trunnions while the vertical position depends on where the blades are clamped to the carrier face.

The nozzle is convergent parallel of rectangular section and is shown on Plate 4, and on Figs. 39 & 40, (Pages 105 & 106). It was manufactured in two parts to facilitate machining. The nozzle is mounted onto the nozzle box through an adapter piece so that the nozzle outlet angle is equal to the blade inlet angle of  $19^{\circ} - 49'$ . The adapter piece Fig. 41, (Page 107) is fitted with a static wall pressure tapping and with a tube which measures the total head pressure at inlet to the nozzle passage walls at exit and lead to one chamber. Thus the average nozzle exit pressure is obtained.

The blading used was a Parsons set of essentially impulse design and is shown on Plates 4 & 5 and on Figs. 42 & 43.

Packing pieces were introduced into the blade passages

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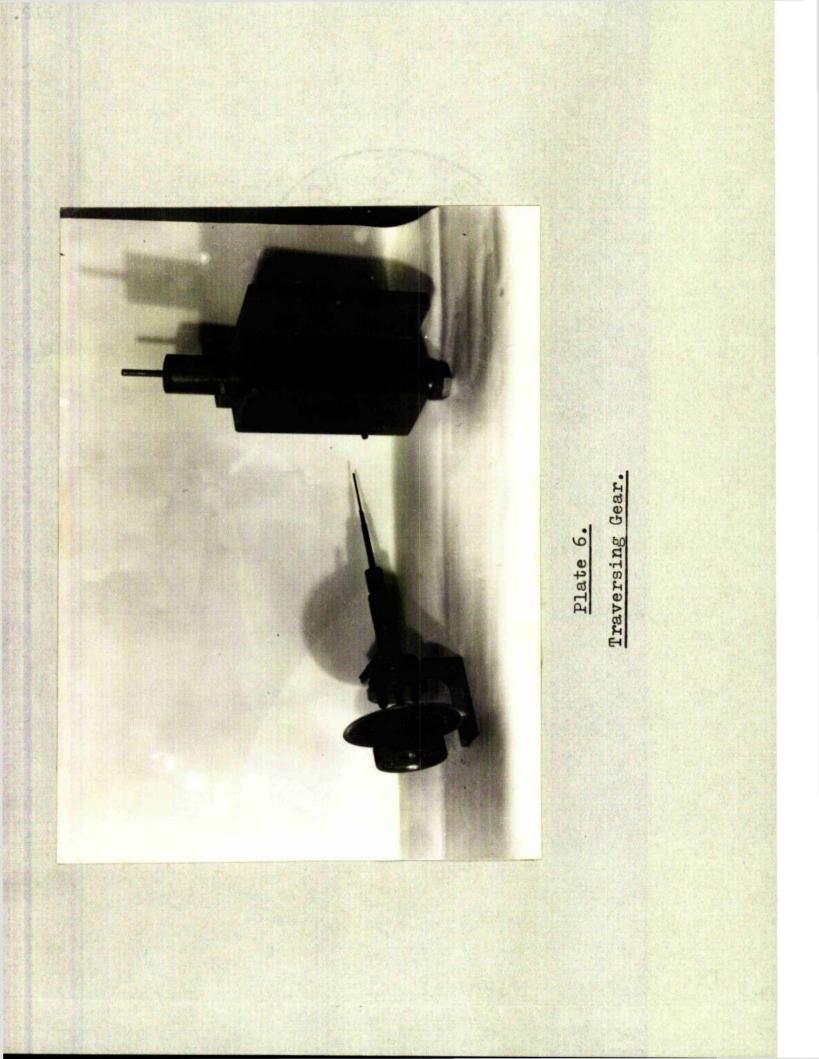
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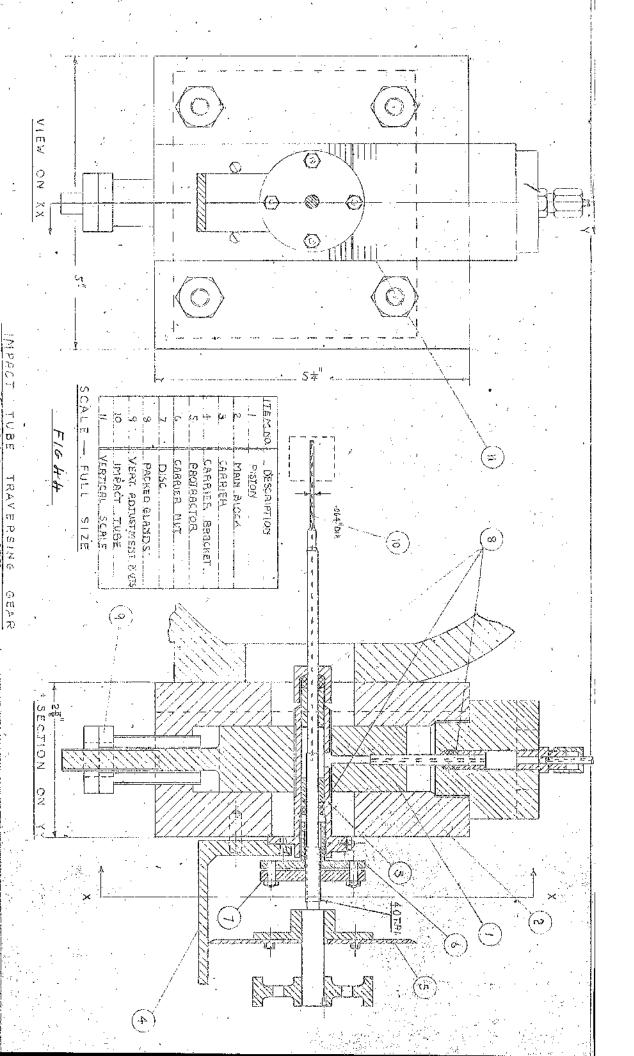
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so that the effective blde height could be varied. The packing pieces are shown in position on Plate. 5. The impact tube traversing gear is shown on Plate 6 (Page 12) and in the drawing on Fig. 44. The traversing gear is designed so that the impact tube hole can be located at any point in the exit. plane of the nozzles or blades. Thus it must be capable of vertical and horizontal movement as well as being able to rotate. The main block (item 2) is clamped to the end cover facing the nozzle and has a vertical hole machined in it into which a piston (item 1) is lapped. At right angles to the axis of the piston near the middle of its length there is a screwed hole. This hole takes the impact tube carrier (item 3). The impact tube runs through the carrier and is located centrally in the carrier by sleeves. Pressure packing glands (item 8) are fitted at both ends of the carrier. Item 6, the carrier nut is screwed into the carrier and controls the pressure on the gland packing. Bollted to the carrier nut is a disc (item 7) which is screwed internally with 40T.P.I. and which engages with a screwed portion of the impact tube. Thus rotation of the impact tube causes a horizontal movement of the tube. This movement is measured on a scale scribed on the face of the carrier bracket (item 4).

A protractor is fitted to measure the angular position of the impact tube hole and a knurled nut is used to rotate the tube.

Vertical movement is obtained by two nuts (item 9) which can be arranged to push up or pull down the piston. The piston,

carrier, impact tube and carrier bracket move as one unit.

The impact tube (item 10) consists of four lengths of tubing of increasing diameterbrazed together. The largest is a length of steel bar screwed for a part of its length with a 40 T.P.I. thread. The portion of the tube within the fluid stream is made of hypodermic tubing 0.0625" external diameter and with an impact hole 0.010" diameter at  $\frac{2}{5}$ " from its end.

The pressure at the impact hole is communicated through the tubing to approximately the centre of impact tube and is released into a chamber within the cerrier. This chamber is pressure sealed by packing glands mentioned previously. The chamber is connected through a vertical hole in the piston to a tube brazed to the top of the piston. The tube is pressure sealed in a large nut which screws into the top of the main block. Hence the impact tube pressure can be taken off from a simplex coupling at the top of the large nut. By this means the impact tube pressure may be observed without any direct pipe coupling onto the impact tube itself. In addition the parts of the tube used in the operation remain cool for handling.

Considerable attention was paid to the alignment of the protractor relative to the impact tube hole. The protractor was set so that when the impact tube hole was at T.D.C. the zero mark on the protractor was at B.D.C. The impact tube was then clamped in a V-block and placed in a Hilger projector with the hole at approximately 90° from T.D.C. The outline of the tube was magnified on the screen 50 times and the impact hole showed up clearly. The tube was then rotated until the reflection on the screen showed the hole to be equidistant from the edges of the tube. Thus the hole was accurately positioned at  $90^{\circ}$ to T.D.C. The V-block was then placed on a surface table and by means of a height gauge the protractor was set so that the  $0^{\circ}$  and  $180^{\circ}$  marks were at  $90^{\circ}$  to T.D.C. The protractor was then clamped to the tube by the three screws provided.

The pressures recorded were taken from wall tappings at the nozzle inlet and at the nozzle outlet, and also from the impact tube and from a tapping in the casing. In addition a fixed impact tube was placed upstream of the nozzle inlet but it was found that the velocity head here could be neglected and readings from the inlet nozzle wall tappings were taken to give the inlet total head pressure.

## Preparation of the apparatus for testing.

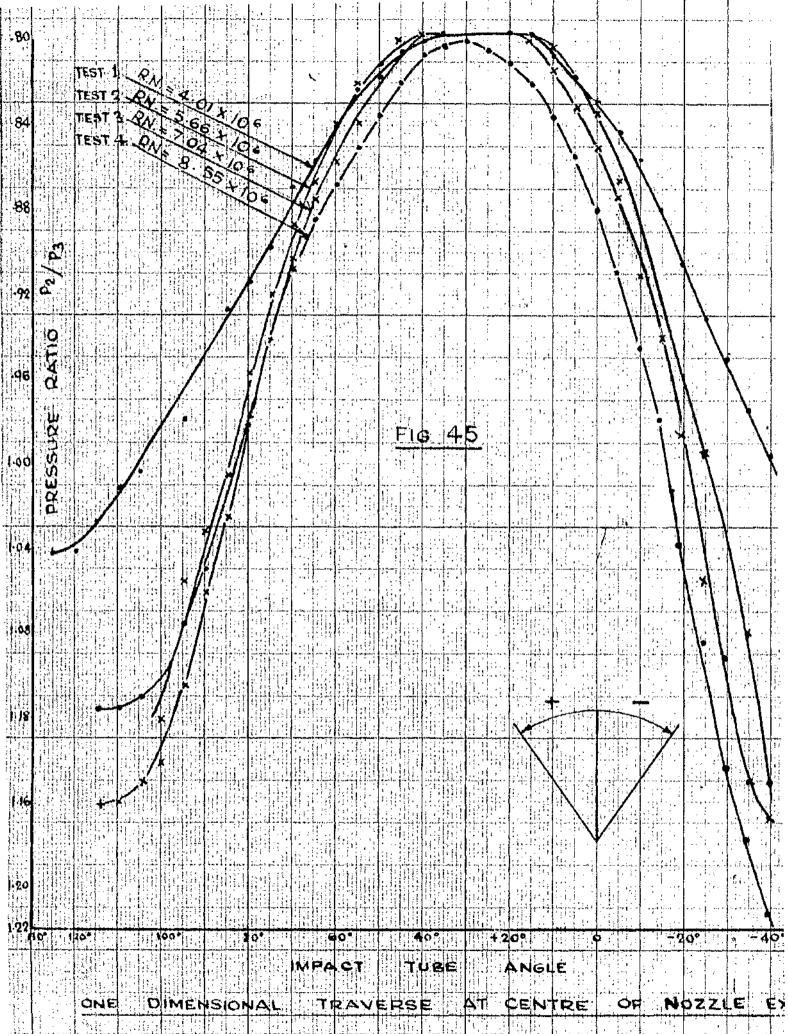
The nozzle was screwed into position so that the exit plane of the nozzle was vertical and parallel to the axis of the casing. Horizontal and vertical lines 0.10<sup>d</sup> apart were scribed on the nozzle face to divide the exit area regularly. Allowance was made for the fact that the actual flow area to be traversed would be lower than the exit face of the nozzle due to the clearance between the face and the hypodermic tubing. The traversing gear was then bolted to the end cover and corresponding horizontal and vertical lines were scribed on the carrier bracket and on the main block. The pressure gauges were accurately calibrated and a special large scale test gauge was used for the impact tube pressure. The procedure for examining the flow at the blade exit was similar to that at the nozzle exit.

## Limitations set by the experimental rig on the applicability of the experimental results.

(a). It should be noted that the packing pieces which control the effective blade height were adjusted at each blade test so that the static pressure at the nozzle outlet was equal to that at the blade outlet. Thus the blade passage is forced to operate as a zero pressure drop impulse blade (figure 9E). The observed variation of loss with Reynolds number and Mach number will therefore apply to such a zero pressure drop impulse stage, one example of which is the partial admission stage in a steam turbine. Here the turbine disc runs in a constant pressure medium, the static pressure on either side of the disc being maintained the same by drilling balance holes through the disc.

(b). The nozzle outlet pitch was made equal to the blade pitch so that the steam flow covers one blade pitch only and the whole blading cascade does not therefore run full in the pitchwise direction. This is particularly important when considering the observed variation in efflux angle in the pitchwise direction, as the variation would be influenced by neighbouring blades running full of steam.

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## Test Programmo

A preliminary investigation of the characteristics of the impact tube was first made with the impact tube hole situated at the centre of the nozzle exit. Figures 45 and 46 show exper imental readings of the variation of pressure round the impact tube, for various Reynolds numbers and Mach numbers, as the position of the hole is varied by rotating the tube. The correct alignment of the impact tube hole with the absolute direction of the stream is essential if the maximum impact tube pressure is to be observed.

The local direction of the stream was found by rotating the tube in one direction and observing an angle at some suitable arbitrary pressure. The tube was then rotated in the opposite direction until the same pressure was obtained, the new angle being noted. The direction of the stream is then the mean of these two angles and by positioning the tube at this angle the correct total head pressure is obtained.

This is more accurate than rotating the tube until the maximum pressure is observed due to the relative flatness of the top of the curve and the time necessary for the fluid pressure to build up inside the tube.

The dependance of loss on Reynolds number and Mach number indicates a main test series which would show the variation of loss with these parameters. Since the blades were essentially impulse in design, it was decided to test as near to pure impulse conditions as possible. Thus a preliminary test was

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arranged during which the blade packing pieces which control the effective height of the blades were adjusted so that there was no pressure drop within the blade passage. During this operation the flow pattern at the blade outlet was observed with firstly a small amount of reaction in the blade passage and secondly with a small amount of compression in the passage. The test conditions along with graphs of exit velocity distribution along a horizontal centre line for the nozzle and blade are shown on Fig. 47 for this preliminary test. The main tests are grouped into three series and for simplicity test conditions, results and calculations for each series are given separately.

123.

Series 1 on page 124.

Series 2 on page 151.

Series 3 on page 164.

In all the series the steam remains superheated during expansion to avoid the complication of either supersaturation<sup>35</sup> or wetness. In each series specimen experimental observations, calculations and derived tables only are given here. A complete set of experimental and derived tables is given in appendix 2. The symbolism used in the presentation of the test results is the same as that in Part 2 (a) (page 75) and in Part 2 (b) (page 90).

## Series 1.

In this series the exit Mach number was kept constant at 0.6 and the Reynolds number varied by changing the inlet nozzle pressure. There are in total eight three dimensional tests, four at the nozzle and four at the blade exit flow area. The nozzle tests are numbered 1 - 4 and the blade tests 1A - 4A. The nozzle test conditions are given in the following table. The blade test conditions vary only slightly from these due to daily variations in barometric pressure.

	e politica program de la setembre est		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4
$P_1 = 24.3 \ lb/in^2$	$P_1 = 35.15 \ lb/in^2$	$P_1 = 44.15 \text{ lb/in}^2$	P <sub>1</sub> =54.32 lb/ir
P <sub>2</sub> = 19.3 1b/in <sup>2</sup>	P <sub>2</sub> =28.0 lb/in <sup>2</sup>	$P_2^{\circ} = 35.15 \text{ lb/in}^2$	P <sub>2</sub> =43.25 10/11
H <sub>1</sub> =1229.2BTU/1b	H <sub>l</sub> =1229,2BTU/1b	H <sub>l</sub> =1229.2BTU/1b	H <sub>l</sub> =1.229.2BTU/:
Ϋ <sub>1</sub> = 380 <sup>0</sup> F	$T_{1} = 383.6^{\circ}F$	¶ <sub>1</sub> = 386.7°F	T <sub>1</sub> = 389.8°F
™2 <b>,</b> == 0.6	<sup>M</sup> 2 <b>φ</b> <sup>=</sup> 0.6	<sup>M</sup> 2¢ <sup>= 0.6</sup>	™2 <b>¢</b> 0.6
Reynolds number 4,01 x 10	Reynolds number 5.66 x 10	Reynolds number 7.04 x 10 <sup>4</sup>	Reynolds number 8.55 x 10

On the following pages the results and calculations for tests 1 and 1A are given in detail. The remaining tests results and tables of calculations are given in appendix 2 (pages 2-32). The calculations are concerned with the determination of the effective values as described in Part 2. Specimen Results and Calculations ----- Series 1.

<u>Pest 1</u>

Barometric pressure 29.22 ins Hg = 14.3 lb/in<sup>2</sup>

 $P_{1} = 24.3 \text{ lb/in}^{2} \qquad \frac{P_{2}}{P_{1}} = 0.796 \text{ A } M_{2} = 0.6 \text{ from Fig 31}.$   $P_{2} = 19.3 \text{ lb/in}^{2} \qquad \frac{P_{2}}{P_{1}} = 0.796 \text{ A } M_{2} = 0.6 \text{ from Fig 31}.$ 

 $H_1 = 1229.2 \text{ BTU/1b}$   $DH_{\phi} = 20.74 \text{ BTU/1b}$  $T_1 = 380^{\circ} \text{F}$   $T_{2\phi} = 334.5^{\circ} \text{F}$ 

$$V_{2\rho} = \frac{1.253 (H_1 - DH_{\rho} - 835)}{P_2} = 24.25 \text{ ft}^3/1b$$

$$v_{2\phi} = 223.8 \sqrt{DH_{\phi}} = 1020 \text{ ft/sec.}$$

viscosity  $\mu_{2\varphi} = 3.26 \times 10^7$  lb sec/ft<sup>2</sup> from appendix 1 Fig. 66 (also ref. 36). Reynolds number  $R_n = \frac{1 \times 1020 \times 10^7}{24.25 \times 32.2 \times 3.26} = 4.01 \times 10^6$ 

Reynolds number  $R_n = \frac{24.25 \times 32.2 \times 3.26}{24.25 \times 32.2 \times 3.26} = 4.01 \times 10^{-10}$ 

Test 1A

Barometric pressure 29.32 ins Hg = 14.37 lb/in<sup>2</sup>  

$$P_1 = 24.37 \ lb/in^2$$
  $P_2$   
 $P_2 = 19.39 \ lb/in^2$   $P_1 = 0.796$   $\therefore M_2 = 0.6$   
 $H_1 = 1229.25 \ BTU/lb$   $DH_{\phi} = 20.58 \ BTU/lb$   
 $T_1 = 380^{\circ}F$   $T_{2\phi} = 334.9^{\circ}F$   
 $V_{2\phi} = 24.15 \ ft^3/lb$   $v_{2\phi} = 1015 \ ft/sec$ 

 $M_{2_{0}} = 3.27 \times 10^{7}$  lb. sec/ft<sup>2</sup> R<sub>n</sub> = 3.99 x 10<sup>6</sup>

Measured flow 14.1 gallons in  $1\frac{1}{4}$  hours. The observed readings of impact tube pressure  $P_3$  and efflux angle are given on pages126and127for tests 1 and 1A, in <u>Table 1</u>.

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TEST IA. TABLE -23 STATION 0 2 3 34 -VERTICAL STATION P3 x P3 x A3 x P3 x × P3 × P3  $\propto \beta_3 \propto$ p3 .**x** lbs/ \* · lay ° lbs/n " Iby ls, 20.47 10 20.57 3 20.7 5 12 19.77 10 19.87 10 20.27 10 22.37 10 21.87 6 21.57 2.5 20.47 2.5 20.27 3 20.57 3 20.97 24.5 21.07 7 23.17 12.5 23.17 13 23.07 12 22.47 10.5 2097 7 20.77 10 21.97 24 20.07 7 20.37 7 20.47 7 21.27 7.5 23.07 19 2407 21 2407 24 2417 24 2387 24 23.57 18 2337 20 23.27 24 2 -2 21.07 33 2277 33 2357 35 2407 37 2417 37 2397 36 5 2397 36 2407 37.5 2297 375 2887 40 -12 2027 64 21.07 64 22.57 61 22.87 61 23.87 55 23.97 54 23.67 54 23.47 54 23.47 54 23.57 53.5 22.07 52 20.7 82 20 47 82 5 21 27 81 21.47 80 20.57 81 19.77 81 -2 19.67 82 14.1 galls. /14 his.

Table 2 is shown for tests 1 and 1A on pages 129 and 130.

In this table the observed readings are converted to pressure ratio  $\frac{P_2}{P_3}$  and to local values of efficiency of expansion. The values of efficiency are obtained from the pressure ratio using the graphefor  $M_{2\phi} = 0.6$  in Fig 32 (page 78). Flow area covered by each impact tube reading.

128

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Typical diagrams or maps of the nozzle and blade exit flow areas are given in Figs 48 and 49 (pages134 & 135 ). In a locality where the rate of change of impact tube pressure was large it was necessary to take more readings. Hence the flow area is split up into smaller areas each represented by one impact tube reading. Where the stations are close together an area factor f(da) is introduced. These area factors are shown in the diagrams. Since the basic stations are 0.1 inches apart the basic elemental area is da = 0.01 in<sup>2</sup> and any smaller elemental area is given by f(da) x 0.01 in<sup>2</sup>.

On pages 131 and 132, table 3 for tests 1 and 1A are given. This table gives the figures for the calculations of  $\xi 2^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \measuredangle \frac{fda}{fV}$  which is proportional to the mass flow given by equation 1 page90.

The table shows local values of

- (1) 3 3 ---- from table 2
- (2) sin & \_\_\_\_\_ from table 1
- (3) f(da) ----- from the area factor diagram.
- (4) fV from Pig. 34. (page 80).

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On pages 137 and 138 table 4 for tests 1 and 1A are given. These enable one to calculate the mean values of nozzle efficiency, efficiency of expansion for the pair, blade velocity coefficient and blade loss.

The table gives local values of

(1)  $\frac{1}{7}$  from table 2. (2)  $\frac{1}{7}$  sin  $\frac{fda}{fV}$  from table 3.

For each station the product  $2^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \alpha \frac{f da}{f V}$  is given and the products are summated. <u>Test 1</u>  $\leq 2^{\frac{3}{2}} \sin \alpha \frac{f da}{f V} = 16.407$ 

From equation 6 page 91.

$$\overline{\chi}_{n} = \left(\frac{\xi \chi^{2} \sin \lambda \frac{f da}{IV}}{\xi \chi^{2} \sin \lambda \frac{f da}{IV}}\right)_{n} = \frac{16.407}{18.239} = 0.900$$

Similar calculations taking account only of variations along the vertical centre line give

$$\overline{\tilde{I}}^{n} = \frac{2.798}{2.878} = 0.972$$

Test 1A  $\xi \frac{\gamma^{3/2}}{\gamma^{1}} \sin \chi \frac{f da}{fV} = 8.060$ 

From equation 7 page 91 the mean efficiency of the pair  $\frac{3}{2}$  is

$$\bar{\eta}_{\rm b} = (\frac{\xi \eta' \sin d \frac{10 \, {\rm d}}{{\rm fV}}}{\xi \eta' \sin d \frac{{\rm fd} {\rm d}}{{\rm fV}}})_{\rm b} = \frac{8.060}{10.367} = 0.778$$

and  $\overline{2}_{b} = \frac{1.441}{1.756} = 0.820$ 

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TABLE 4.

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From equation 12 page 92 the mean blade velocity coefficient.

$$K = \int \left( \frac{\xi \sqrt{2}^{3/2} \sin \alpha \frac{f da}{f V}}{\xi \sqrt{2}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \alpha \frac{f da}{f V}} \right)_{b} - \left( \frac{\xi \sqrt{2}^{3/2} \sin \alpha \frac{f da}{f V}}{\xi \sqrt{2}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \alpha \frac{f da}{f V}} \right)_{n}$$

$$K = \sqrt{\frac{0.778}{0.900}} = 0.920$$

Similarly  $K_{e} = \sqrt{\frac{0.820}{0.972}} = 0.920$ 

The blade loss = 
$$(1 - K^2) \overline{j}_n$$
 DH $\varphi$   
=  $(1 - 0.865) \ge 0.900 \ge 20.58 = 2.50$  BTU/1b

and the blade loss  $\xi = (1 - 0.844) \ge 0.972 \ge 20.58 = 3.12$  BTU/1b.

<u>Table 5</u> for tests 1 and 1A are given on pages 141 and 142. These tables enable one to calculate mean efflux angles. The tables show the local values of (1)  $\sqrt[2]{\frac{1}{2}}$  from table 2 (2) cos  $\mathcal{A}$  from table 1 (3)  $\sqrt[2]{\frac{1}{3}}$  sind  $\frac{fda}{fV}$  from table 3 for each station the product  $\sqrt[2]{cos \mathcal{A} sin \mathcal{A} \frac{fda}{fV}}$  is given and the products are summated.

### <u>Test 1</u>

$$\frac{2}{7}\cos 4 \sin 4 \frac{fda}{fV} = 14.512, \frac{2}{7}\sqrt{\frac{f}{fV}} \sin 4 \frac{fda}{fV} = 18.239.$$
  
 $\overline{7}n = 0.9000.$ 

From equation 13 page 93.

$$\cos \overline{\lambda}_{n} = \left(\frac{\xi \eta}{\xi \eta} \frac{\sin \lambda \cos \lambda \frac{f da}{f V}}{\sqrt{\xi \eta} \frac{1}{2} \sin \lambda \frac{f da}{f V} \sqrt{\eta}}\right)_{n}$$
$$= \frac{14.512}{0.95 \times 18.239} = 0.838.$$
$$\therefore \overline{\lambda}_{n} = 33^{\circ}.$$

Test 1A

$$\frac{\xi 2 \cos \lambda \sin \lambda}{\overline{fV}} = 6.505, \quad \frac{\xi}{2} \frac{1}{2} \sin \lambda \frac{fda}{fV} = 10.367$$

$$\overline{2}_{b} = 0.788$$
From equation 14 page 93.

$$\cos \lambda_{\rm b} = \frac{0.883 \times 10.367}{0.44.7^{\circ}} = 0.71.$$

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= 14.5125

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### Mass flow calculations and results for tests 1A to 4A.

The table below gives experimental mass flow readings for tests 1A to 4A along with the function  $\xi 7^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \lambda \frac{fda}{fV}$  for each test from table 3.

Also shown are the calculated mass flow figures obtained as follows:-

$$\frac{\text{For test 4A.}}{\text{DH}_{p}} = 20.55 \text{ BTU/1b.} \text{H}_{1} = 122925 \text{ BTU/1b.}$$

$$\frac{\text{V}_{2}}{\text{V}_{2}} = \frac{1.253(\text{H}_{1} - \text{DH}_{0} - 835)}{43.25} = 10.81 \text{ ft}^{3}/1\text{b.}$$

$$\frac{\text{da}}{\text{da}} = \frac{0.01}{144} \text{ ft}^{2}$$

From equation 3 page 91.

$$m = \frac{223.8 \sqrt{DH} \varphi}{V_{2} \varphi} \times \xi \gamma^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \zeta \frac{da}{fV}$$

$$m = \frac{223.8 \sqrt{DH} \varphi}{V_{2} \varphi} \times da \times \xi \gamma^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \zeta \frac{fda}{fV}$$

$$= \frac{223.8 \sqrt{20.55}}{V_{2} \varphi} \times \frac{.01}{144} \times 10.6425 = .0692 \text{ lb/sec.}$$
The actual measured flow is  $\frac{31.5 \times 10}{1.25 \times 3600} = .0700 \text{ lb/sec.}$ 

Series 1 Mass flow measurements.

Test No.	14	2A	3A	4A
Measured flow per 17 hrs.(Galls)	14.1	50.1	25.2	31.5
22 <sup>2</sup> sindfda	10.367	10,906	10.591	10.6425
Measured flow lb/sec.	0.0313	0.0449	0.0560	0.0700
Calculated flow 18/sec.	0.0303	0.0464	0.0561	0.0692
% age difference	-3.20	+3.34	+0.18	-1.14

# Series 1 ---- Final Results.

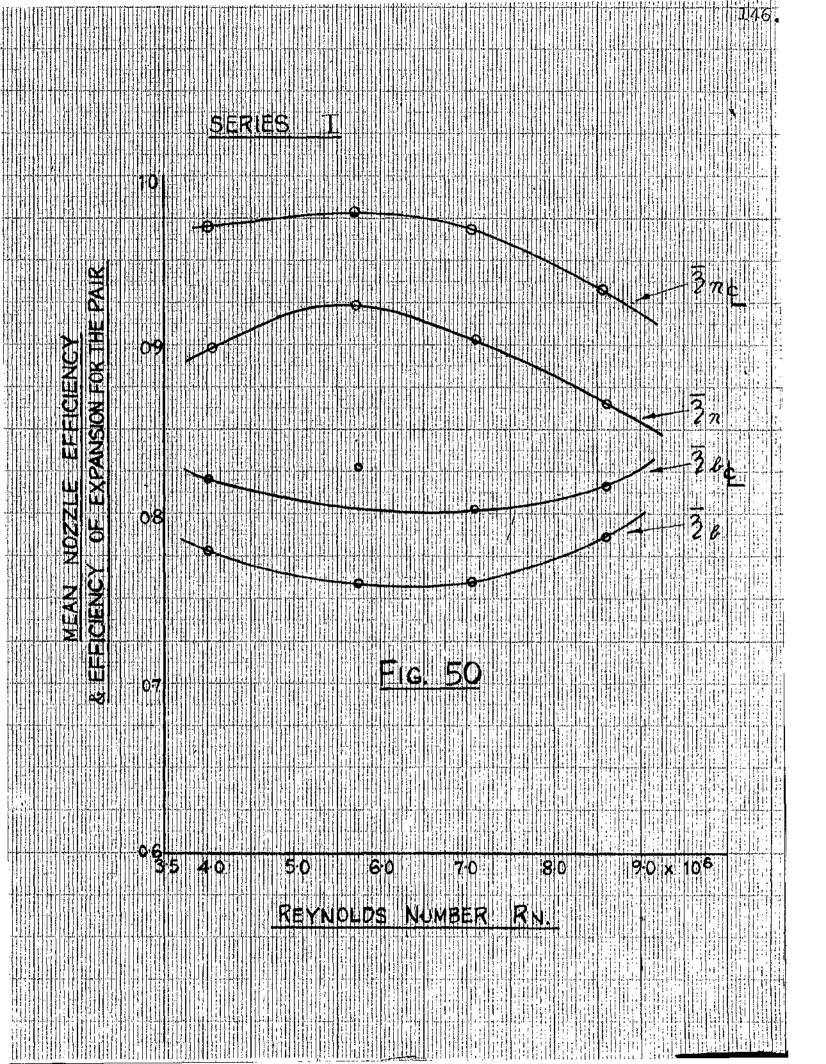
The results for the series 1 tests are shown in the table on page 145. From these results the following graphs have been drawn and are shown in subsequent figures.

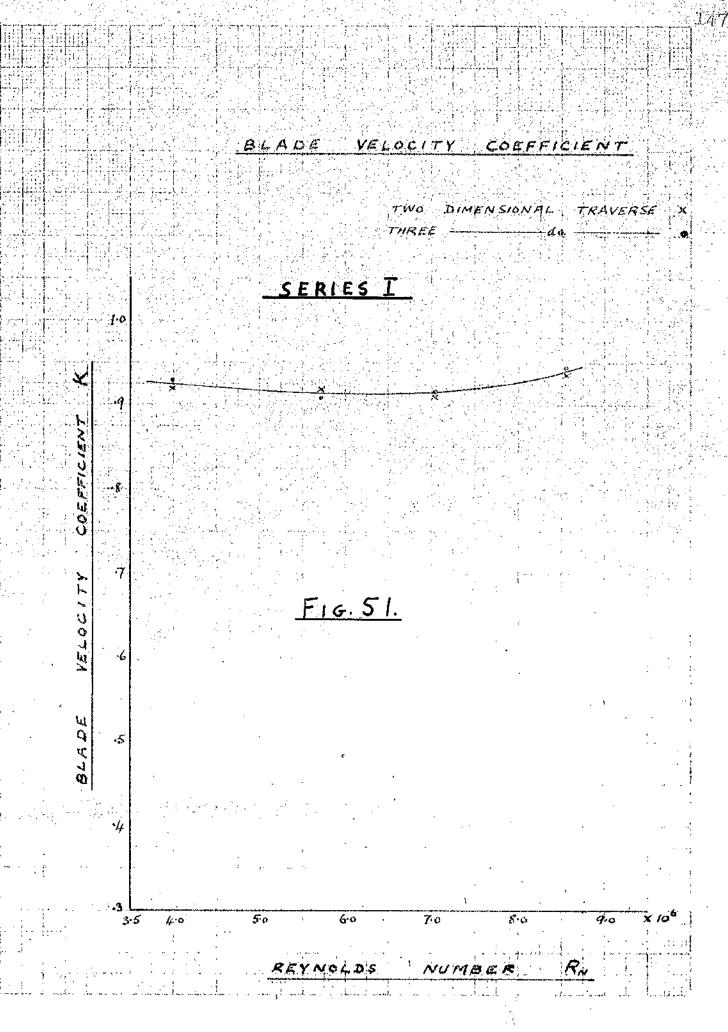
 Mean nozzle efficiency and efficiency of expansion for the pair to a base of Reynolds number. Fig. 50 (page 146).

- (2) The blade velocity coefficient to a base of Reynolds number. Fig. 51 (page 147).
- (3) Blade passage loss to a base of Reynolds number. Fig. 52 (page 148).
- (4) Typical graphs showing velocity distribution for the nozzle and blade exit along a vertical centre line.
   Figs. 53 and 54 (pages 149 & 150 ).
- (5) Typical graphs shown variations of efflux angle at nozzle and blade exit along a vertical centre line.
   Figs. 53 and 54 (pages 149 & 150 ).

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Reynolds No. x 10 <sup>6</sup>	4.01	3.99	5.66	5.72	7,04	7.04	8.55	8.55
Z n	.900		.926	n	.908		.872	
ī <sub>b</sub>	<u>,</u>	.778		.762	1	.762		.778
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Z	33 <sup>0</sup>	44.70	33 <sup>0.</sup>	44.4 <sup>0</sup>	32.5°	44.60	38°	44.1
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ĸŧ		•920		•9 <b>19</b>	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	.911		•936
Blade loss <b>⊈</b>		3.12	,	3.20		3.41		2.41





<u>SERIES T</u> BLADE LOSS FIG.52. TIYO . T (b) B.Th. W. /IS X 3

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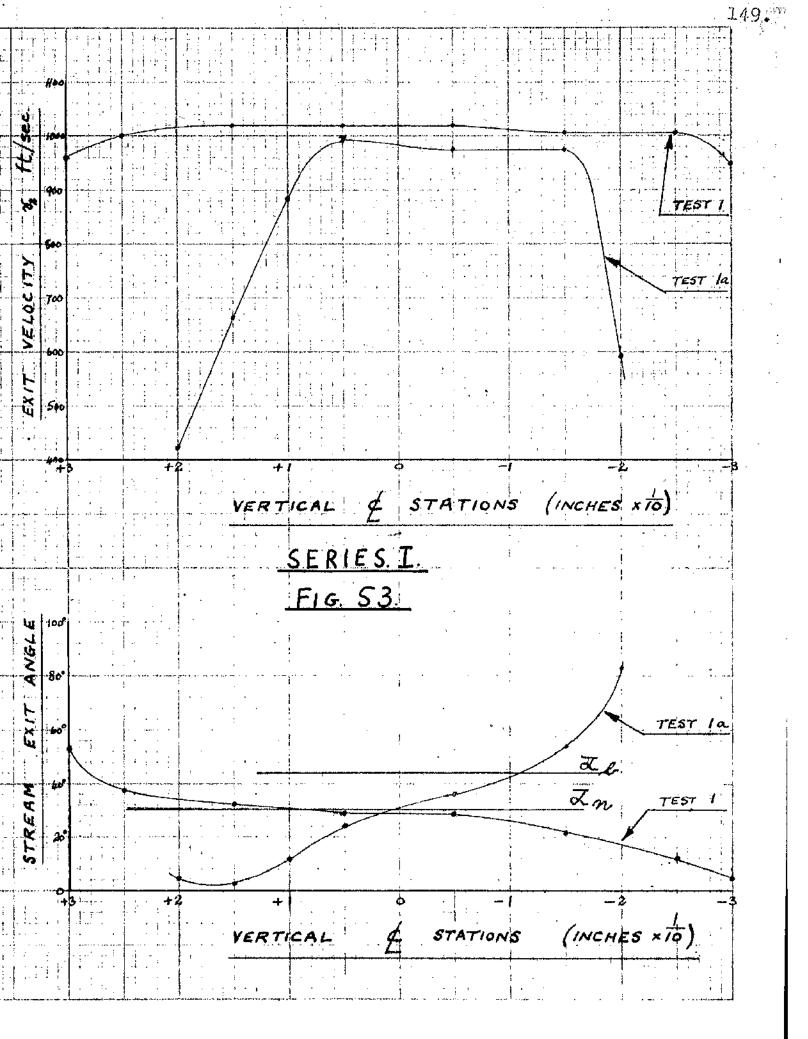
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<u>Series 2</u>

In this test series the exit Mach number is varied within the subsonic region. There are twelve three dimensional tests, six at the nozzle and six at the blade exit. The nozzle tests are numbered 1 - 6 and the blade tests 1A - 6A. The exit Mach numbers taken are 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, and 0.97. For the tests in the range  $M_{2p}$  equal to 0.5 to 0.8 the inlet nozzle pressure is 24.3  $1b/in^2$  which is the same as in test 1 series 1. The back pressures are chosen to give the correct exit Mach numbers from Fig. 3L (page 77). In the tests at  $M_{2p} = 0.9$  and 0.97 the inlet pressure was raised above 24.3  $1b/in^2$  so as to prevent the expansion entering the wet field.

The test conditions are shown in the table on page 153. The calculation of the effective values takes the same form as in series 1 except that for the values of local efficiency the graphs in Fig. 32 (page 78) must be used.

Specimen calculations for tests 1 and 1A are given in appendix 1 (page 197), and tables 1 to 5 for tests 1 and 1A are given in appendix 1 pages 199to210. The remaining tables of observed and derived results for tests 2 to 6 and 2A to 6A for series 2 are given in appendix 2 (pages 33 to 83).

The final results for series 2 are described on page 155.

J.     I     IA     2     2A     3     3A     4     4A     5     5A     6     6A       pressure     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     30.0     30.0     30.0     32.5     32.6       pressure     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     30.0     30.0     30.0     32.5     32.6       ressure     20.7     20.7     19.32     19.32     17.88     16.35     16.35     18.36     38.36     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.3       ressure     20.7     20.7     19.32     19.32     17.88     16.35     16.35     18.36     38.36     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30     18.30 <td< th=""><th>1 . </th><th>•</th><th></th><th>Series</th><th>5</th><th>97 9- 1-</th><th>Test Conditions</th><th><u>1111025</u></th><th></th><th>· · · ·</th><th></th><th></th><th>et da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie Serie da serie da ser Serie da serie da ser</th></td<>	1 . 	•		Series	5	97 9- 1-	Test Conditions	<u>1111025</u>		· · · ·			et da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie da serie Serie da serie da ser Serie da serie da ser
IA     2     2A     3     3A     4     4A     5     5A     6       24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     24.3     30.0     30.0     30.0     32.5       20.7     19.32     17.88     17.88     17.88     16.35     16.35     18.38     18.30     32.5       20.7     19.32     19.32     17.88     17.88     16.35     16.35     18.38     18.30     32.5       20.5     0.6     0.7     0.7     0.8     0.8     0.9     0.9     0.97						•							
24.3       24.3       24.3       24.3       24.3       24.3       24.3       24.3       30.0       30.0       30.0       32.5         20.7       19.32       19.32       17.88       17.88       16.35       16.35       18.38       18.30         20.5       0.6       0.6       0.6       0.6       0.6       0.9       30.0       32.5         20.5       19.32       17.88       17.88       16.35       16.35       18.38       18.30       18.30         20.5       0.6       0.6       0.6       0.6       0.6       0.9       0.97		per J	<b>P</b> -1	Ņ	2Å	'n	3.A		4.4	5	54	9	6A
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# Mass flows for tests 1A to 6A.

The table below gives a comparison between the actual measured flow and the flow figures calculated from the traverse readings for tests 1A to 6A. The calculations follows the same pattern as those for the mass flow figures in the series 1 tests.

Series	2.	Mass	flow	results.

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 Test No.	lA	2A	3A	4A	5A	бА
Measured flow lb/sec.	0.0288	0.0343	0.0375	0.0384	0.0494	040539
Calculated flow lb/sec.	6:0284	0.0331	0.0352	0.0380	0.0501	0.0528
%age difference	-1.39	-3,50	-6.13	-1.04	+1.42	-2.04

# Series 2 ----- Final Results.

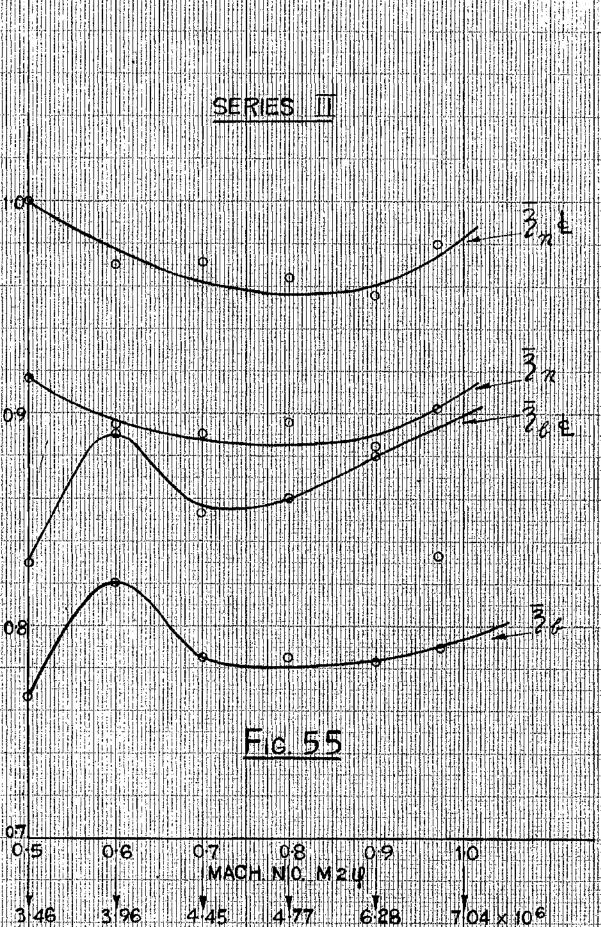
The final results for the series 2 tests are given in the table on page 156. From these results the following graphs have been drawn and these appear in subsequent figures.

- (1) The mean nozzle efficiency and efficiency of expansion for the pair to a base of Mach number Fig. 55 (page 157).
- (2) Blade velocity coefficient to a base of Mach number Fig. 56 (page 158).
- (3) Blade loss to a base of Mach number Fig. 57 (page 159).
- (4) Typical graphs of velocity distribution along a vertical centre line for the nozzle and blades Figs 58 and 59
   (pages 160 and 161).
- (5) Typical graphs of efflux angle along a vertical centre line for nozzle and blades Fig. 60 (page 162).
- (6) Table 1 for test 1A to 6A show that as the impact tube traverses in a horizontal position, there is a considerable decrease in impact tube pressure on either side of the centre line. Velocity distributions for a horizontal traverse have been calculated for these tests and typical results appear in graphical form in Fig. 61 (page 163).

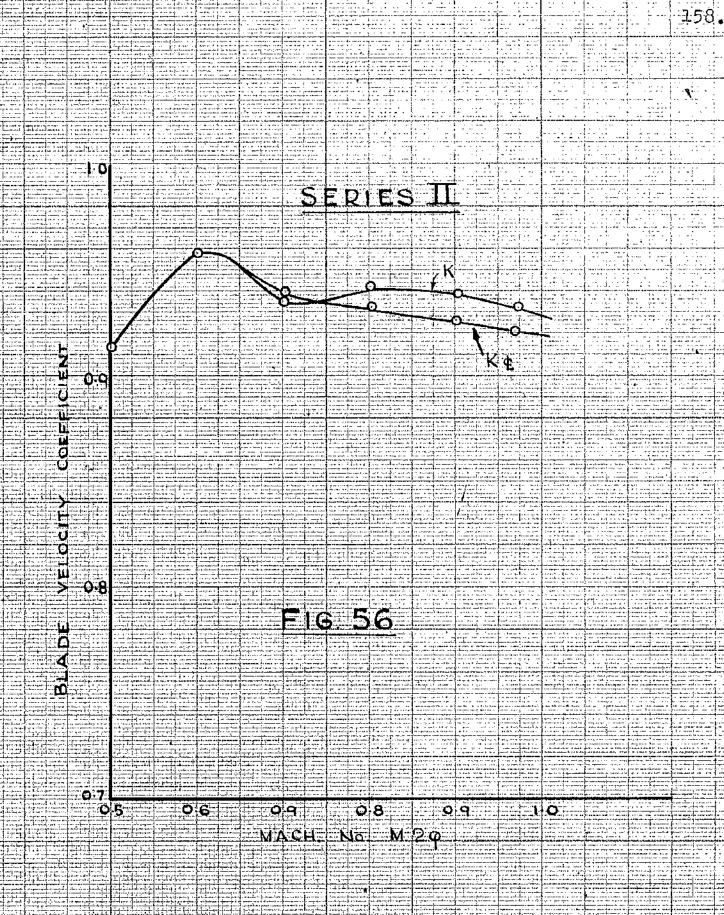
Series 2 ---- Table of final results.

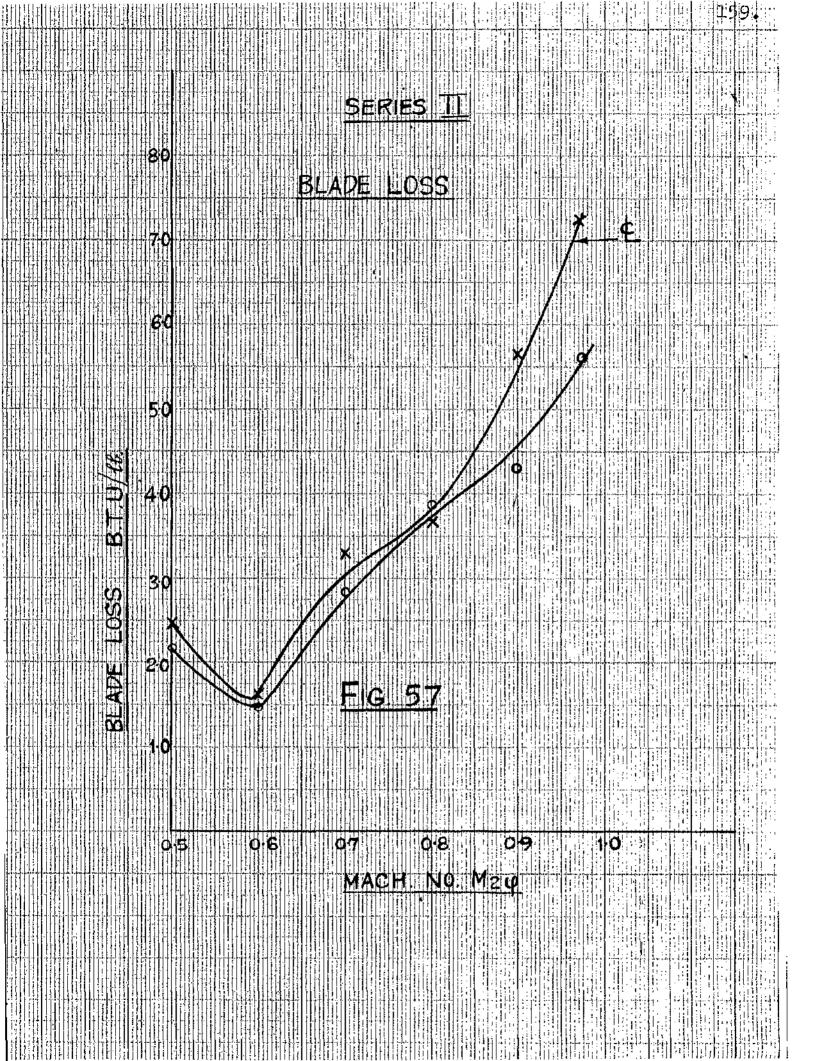
45-4 60 0.000 0.632 9.03 5.570 0.522 0.03 1.0 Ö 35-60 0.902 7.04 0.07 0.98 0 47510 0.783 176.0 4.310 0.681 0.928 6.-28 00 • • • • • 5 0 0 |36<del>+</del>58° 0.884 0.957 6.\*28 ଁ ŝ 46-46 0.935 3.900 0.785 0\*944 4.77 0.86 3.70 44 0. 0 35-240 0.965 0.897 0 0 45-15° 076.0 0.785 2.860 0.854 0.935 64.4 3,33 ŝ 0.1 35-60 0.973 0.891 4.5 0 ሶሳን 45<u>~0</u>° 0.821 0.959 2.455 0.894 L.585 3.96 0\*96 <u>त्</u>य 0.0 34-00 0.894 3.96 0.97 9.0 0 N) 44-240 0.756 0.914 2,185 116.0 3.46 0.8 2.46 0 0 33-110 0.917 3.46 ي 0 0 c++ 1 Mach No. 112 0 o ⊧≍ Blade loss Bru/lb. t Blade loss Bru/1b. Series 2. Reynolds Test No. <del>ر</del>ما م بط (مح) دمها (otx) ្តដ 4 18 <u>د</u> ÷ M  $\sim$ 

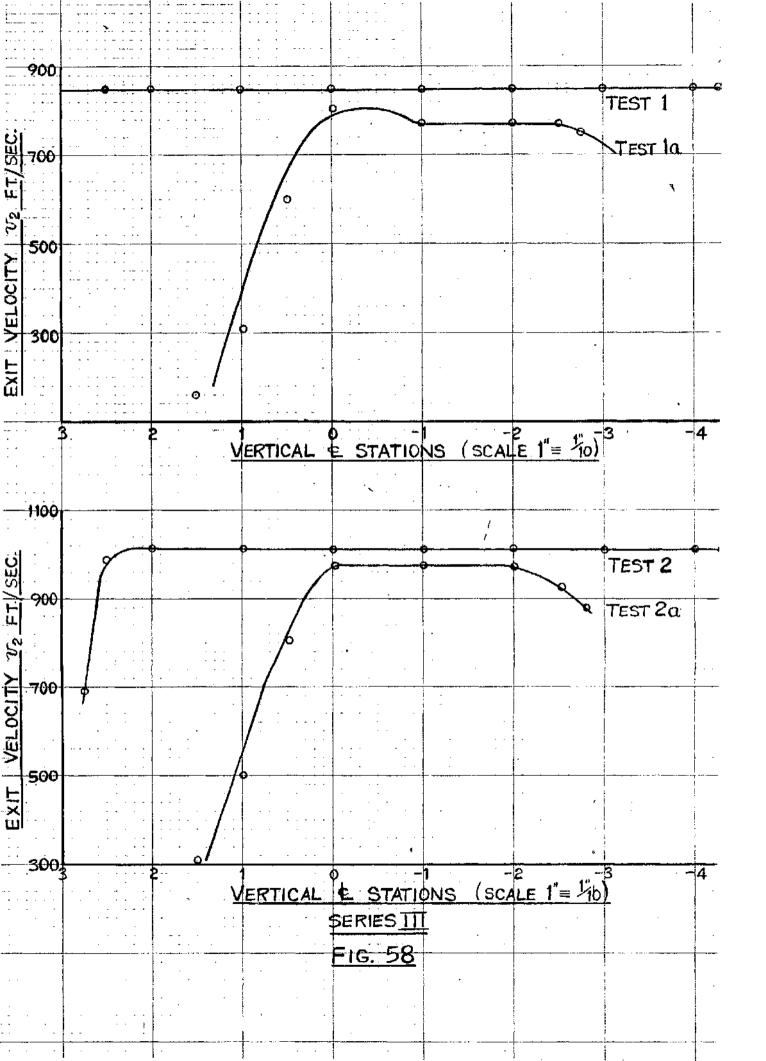


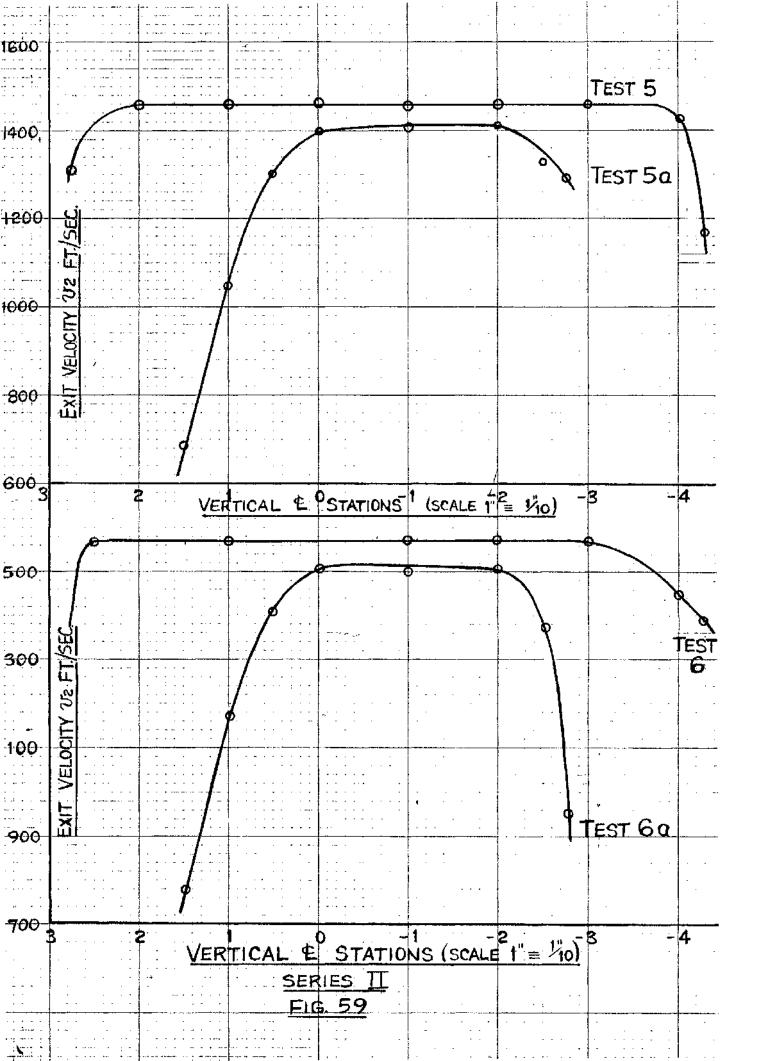


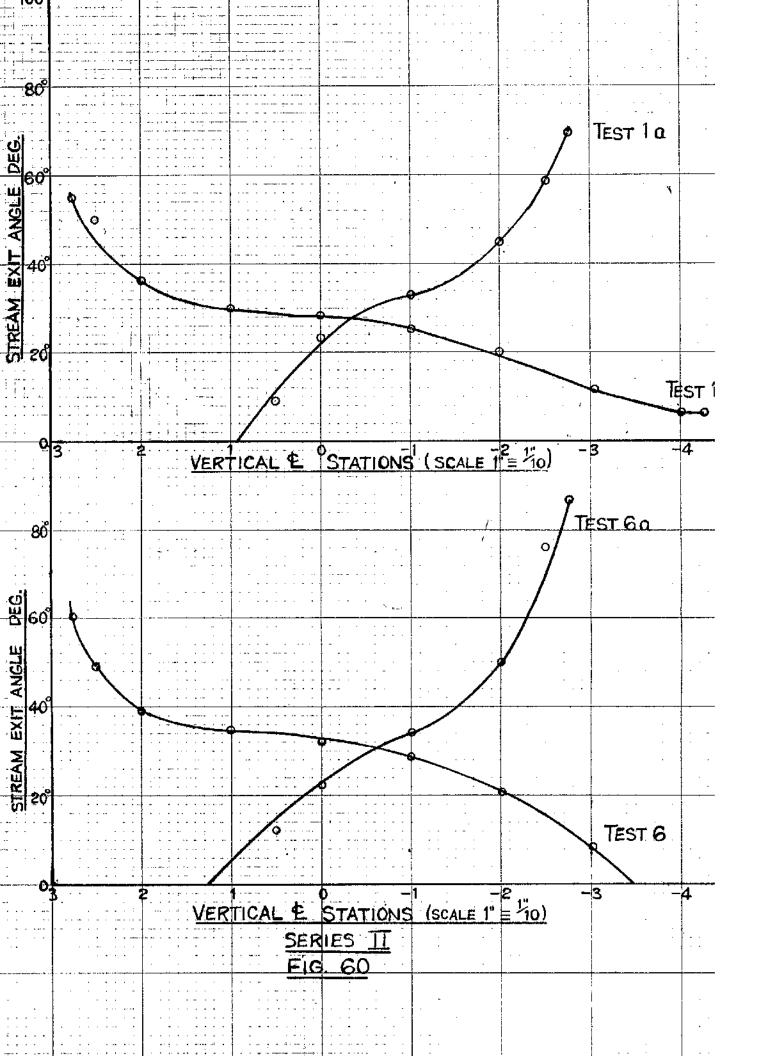
46 3 96 4 45 4 77 6 28 CORRESPONDING REYNOLDS NUMBERS











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Series 3.

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#### Series 3.

In this test series the range of outlet Mach number was extended into the supersonic field. The tests were carried out only at the blade exit and along a vertical centre line. There are three groups of tests with inlet pressures of 64.5, 53.37, and 44.45 lb/in<sup>2</sup>. In each group the maximum Mach number is obtained with a back pressure of 1 lb/in<sup>2</sup>G. and the inlet temperature is chosen to avoid expansion into the wet field at maximum Mach number. In all tests, including those in series 1 and 2 where the Mach numbers is less than unity, the back pressure in the casing and the nozzle outlet pressure were as expected equal. For this test series, in the cases where the outlet Mach number was greater than unity the nozzle outlet pressure corresponded to the critical pressure.

The test conditions for series 3 are shown in the tables on pages 166,167,168 along with the final results. Specimen calculations are given on page 169 and the graphs of the final results are described on page 170.

#### Effect of Supersonic Mach number on efflux angle.

An additional test in this series wherein the variation of nozzle efflux angle with supersonic Mach number was investigated is described on page 174.

# Series 3 ----- Test conditions and final results.

# Group 1

Inlet pressure P <sub>l</sub> lb/in <sup>2</sup>	4	64 •	5	ar a se a de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la constant de la cons de la constant de la c	чина и то «Л
Back pressure P <sub>2</sub> 1b/in <sup>2</sup>	32.5	24.5	19.5	15.5	
Mach No. $M^2 \varphi$	1.075	1.298	1.46	1.6	
Inlet Temp. Tl <sup>•</sup> F		490			
Reynolds No. (x 10 <sup>6</sup> )	11.4	11.75	11.55	11.5	
<u>7</u> °4	0.849	0,815	0.88	0.868	-
<sup>K</sup> ¢.	0,921	0.903	0.938	0.931	
Blade loss BTU/10. <b>¢</b>	9.85	16.6	12.8	.17.1	

results. Test conditions and final

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Series

Group 2

5 ura • r~f ្ឋ័ ž, ë S 30. 18.5 3.0T 1.37 102. **19.6** 1.228 22 22 10.66 10.65 .: 20.0 144 • 864 26.5 1.08 \$72 15.4 20. 10-10-33.0 0**\***0 5 S. ය**ු** ස 54.37 36-56 016. .828 **4**50 ය**ං**ස ო ი 0. 10 102°. 6.04 **0\***0∤ နှင့် စ + 794 0.7 ې چې 1.61 .879 TLL. 5\*0 0.0 46.25 ł 0.733 0.2856 6.66 4 .16 <u>ن</u> pressure Back pressure Reyrolds No. 12. Blade loss BTU/lb. **¢** Tenp. lach No. (90T E) لھ۔ اند دسم ا AT T Inles Irlet ि 0 ि हन् 9. N ۵í

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	conditions		
	19 00 19 00	his shall be all the states in the	
		A LOCAL CONTRACTOR OF A CARACTER OF A CARACT	
•	Series 3		

		Group	m e	-					
Inlet pressure									
		•			+			B B C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	
Back pressure P2 10/in.	37.6	35•2	32.43	29.7	26.84	24,84	22.45	5**6E	57°57
Mach No. M2 <b>9</b>	10 10 10	. 9 <b>.</b> 0	<i>L</i> *0	0.8	6•0	<b>76.</b> 0	1.06	1.178	1.359
Inlet Temp.					804		~ .		
Lo L		-							
Reynolds No.	16*5	6., <i>1</i> 6	7.55	8.14	8.7	8.89	9.24	9.36	9,32
7. 2	*7125	.762	.830	E78.	.851	-041	*806	325	16L*
<b>K</b>	5 5 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2	548.	116	-935	<b>.</b> 924		.896		.893
Blade loss BTU/lb. ¢	4.32	5.02	4.80	4.56	6.65	4		S	51.T

168,

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Calculations. The calculations differ slightly from those in series 1 and 2 due to the possibility of the local outlet Mach number being greater than unity. The method described in detail on pages 83 and 85 is used for dealing with this. The specimen calculations given below are for the test in group 3, with  $M_{2\sigma} = 1.359$ . The necessary tables for group 3 are given in appendix 1 pages 211 to 217. Those for group 1 and 2 are given in appendix 2 pages 84 tol03 . Group 3,  $M_{2\phi} = 1.359$ .  $P_1 = 44.45 \, lb/in^2$  $r_1 = 44.49 \pm 0/1n$   $P_2 = 15.45 \, 1b/in^2$   $r_1 = 0.347 \cdot M_2 = 1.359$  $\mathfrak{T}_{1} = 408^{\circ} \mathfrak{F}^{\circ}$  $\therefore T_{2\varphi} = 214.64^{\circ} \text{F}, \quad DH_{\varphi} = 87.55 \text{ BTU/1b},$ H<sub>1</sub> = 1240 BTU/1b. v<sub>2</sub> = 2094 ft/sec, V<sub>2</sub> = 25.7 ft/1b,  $M_{2p} = 2.71 \times 10^{-7}, R_n = 9.32 \times 10^6.$ At station 0,  $\frac{P_2}{P_c} = 0.415$ .  $\frac{F_2}{F_2} = 0.4065'$  ----- Fig. 36 (page 84 ). : 7 = 0.88 ---- Fig. 33 (page 79). From table 3  $\xi_2^2 = 1.8227$  ---- appendix 1 (page 210. From table 4  $\xi_{4}$ ?  $\sin \frac{i da}{i V} = 1.4545$  ----- appendix 1 (page 217),  $\therefore \ \overline{7}_{,b} = \frac{1.4545}{1.8227} = 0.797$  $\overline{2}_n = 1 : K_{\pm} = \sqrt{.797} = 0.893.$ Taking Blade loss  $\dot{\xi} = (1 - \kappa^2) DH_{\varphi} = (1 - .797) \times 87.55 = 17.75 BTU/1b.$ 

169.

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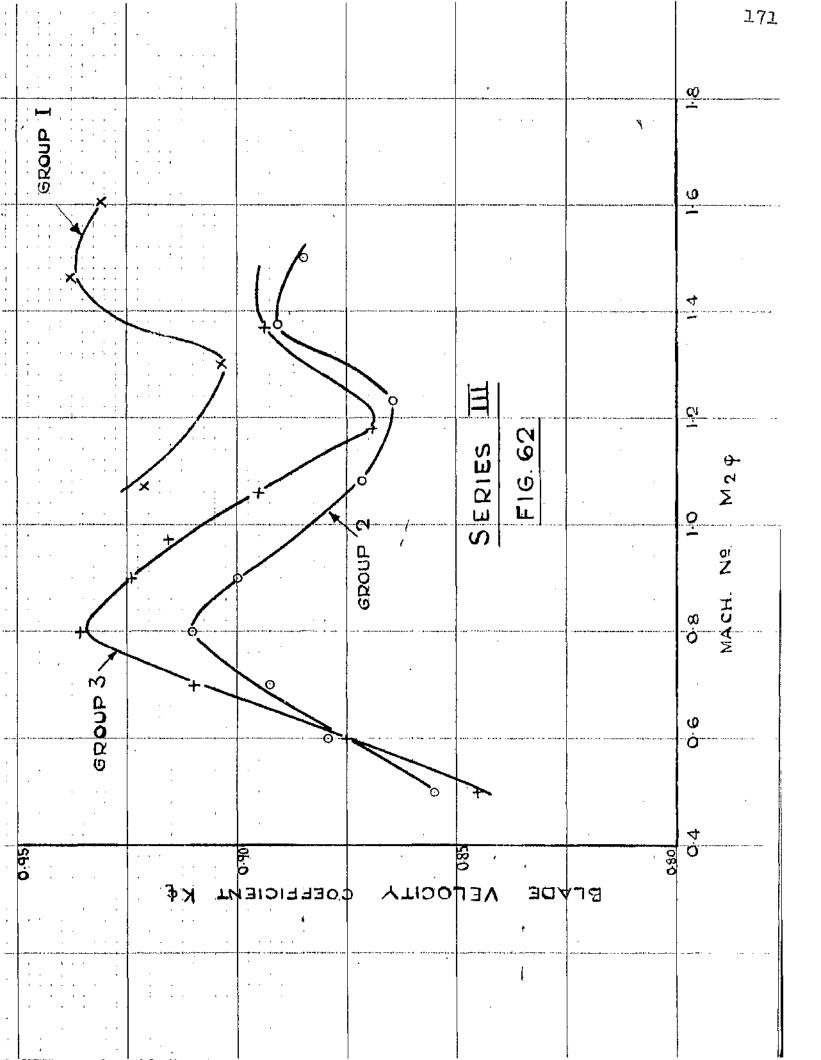
# Series 3 ---- Final Results.

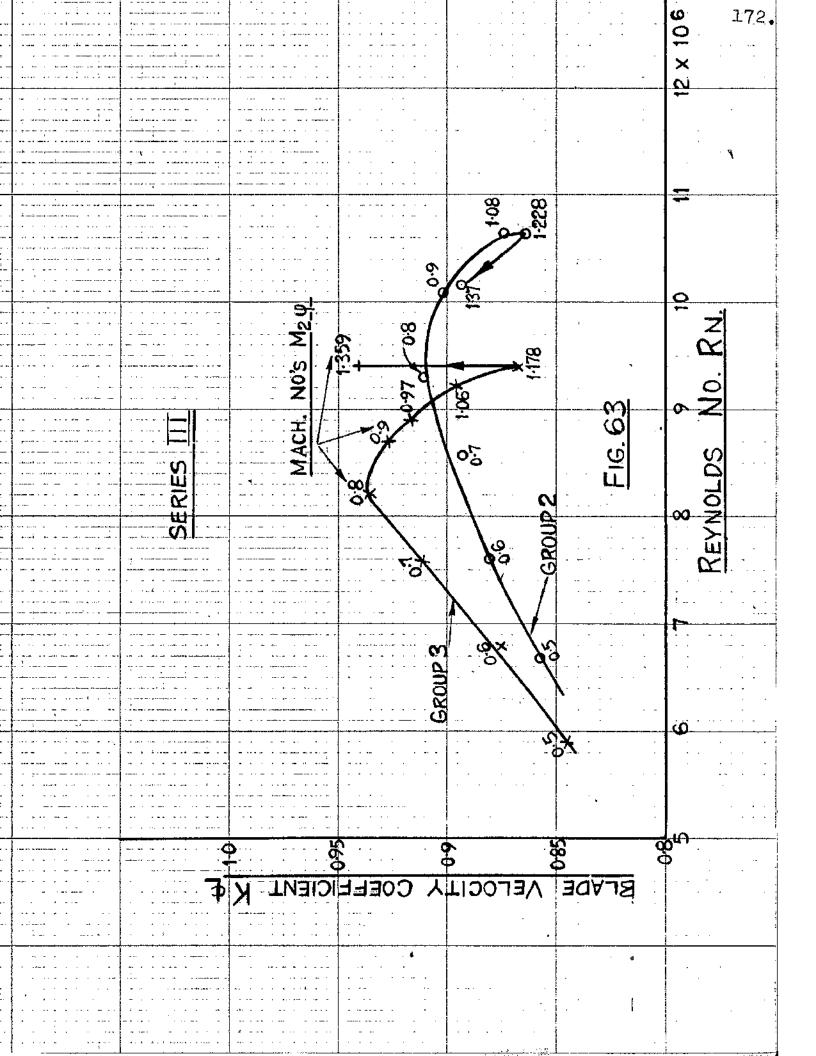
From the final average results the following graphs have been drawn.

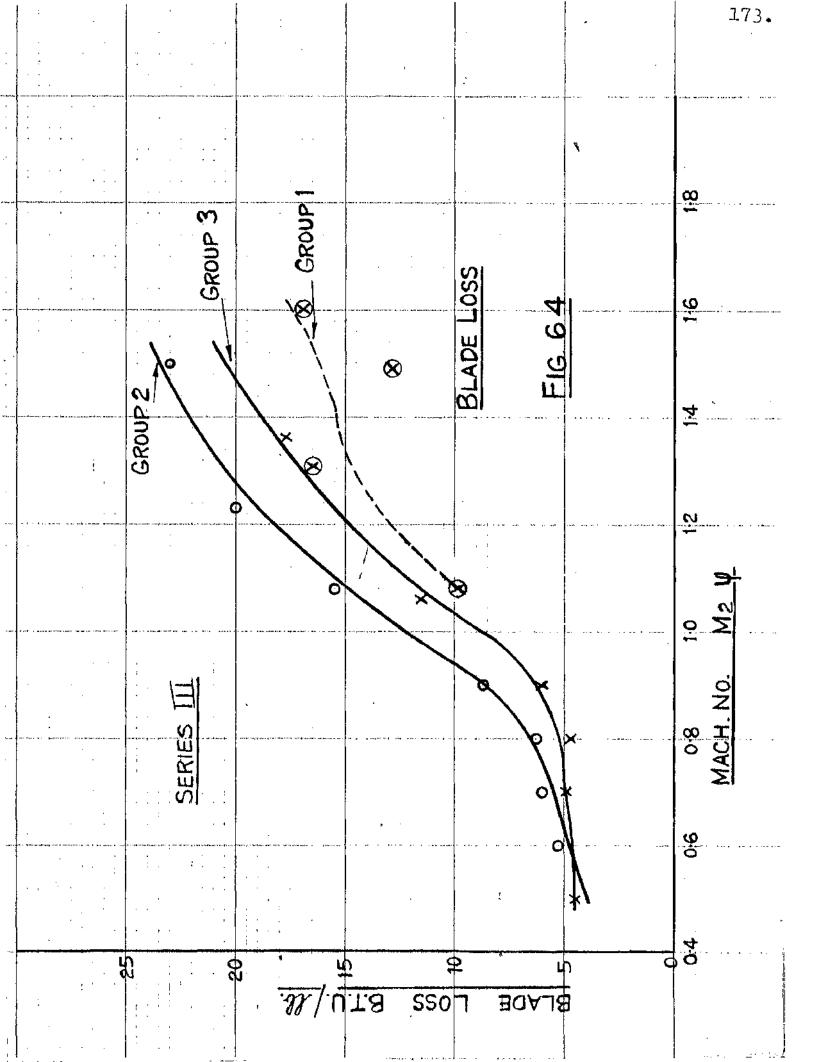
(1) The efficiency of expansion as  $\mathbb{K}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\sqrt{2}b_{\boldsymbol{\xi}})$  to a base of Mach number Fig. 62 (page 171).

(2) Blade velocity coefficient K to a base of Reynolds number.
 Fig. 63 (page 172).

(3) Blade loss to a base of Mach number Fig. 64 (page 174).







#### Effect of Supersonic Mach Number on Efflux Angle.

It was observed in series 3 that the efflux angle at any given station varied considerably as the Mach number was increased into the supersonic field. To investigate this further a traverse was made along the vertical centre line of the nozzle outlet at values of Mach number greater than unity. The results are given in Fig. 65 (page 175) and show the

change of efflux angle with Mach number for various vertical stations.

# Discussion of Results.

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#### Discussion of Results.

Part 1.

The stage efficiency of a turbine or compressor has been shown to depend on two broad considerations. The first of these is the effect of friction in the stage elements which causes the degeneration of high grade energy and the second is the choice of such design parameters as the degree of reaction or loading factor for the stage. The enthalpy loss or loss of high grade energy in a static or moving element is shown to be a composite quantity comprising a basic friction work term plus an auxiliary loss term. The friction work is equal in magnitude to the high grade energy which is degenerated to low grade energy and the auxiliary loss term is due to the "heating" effect of the low grade energy thus For a compression process the auxiliary term is positive created. while for an expansion it is negative. Comparing similar expansion and compression processes therefore, where the friction work is the same. the compression process will be less efficient than the expansion process. The enthalpy loss is related to other ways of expressing the irreversibility in the blade element and the expressions developed may be applied to static or moving clements in axial flow turbines or compressors with high and low speed flow.

The stage efficiencies in turbines or compressors are shown to be dependent on the blading or diagram efficiency as well as on the friction losses in the elements. A comprehensive theory is developed giving the variation in blading efficiency with such stage design parameters as the degree of reaction, the blade speed to jet speed ratio and the loading factor. The analysis is developed for positive, zero, or negative degrees of reaction and the speed ratio for maximum blading efficiency is obtained for any given degree of reaction. It is shown that the value of the maximum blading efficiency increases as the degrees of reaction increases. However the loading factor at maximum blading efficiency reduces as the degree of reaction increases and in

choosing design parameters for the stage account must be taken of these conflicting factors. For a turbine stage the total to static stage efficiency is used where the exhaust kinetic energy is degraded by friction and it is shown that this stage efficiency is directly proportional to the blading efficiency. The total to total stage efficiency, used where the exhaust kinetic energy is not degraded, also increases as the blading efficiency increases. It is shown however that where the friction losses in the elements are low and the blading efficiency high. the total to total stage efficiency is almost independant of blading efficiency. The characteristic variation of the two stage efficiencies with blade speed to jet speed ratio at a given degree of reaction may be deduced from the corresponding variation of blading efficiency and from the way in which the process efficiency varies as the velocity triangles change.

#### Part 2.

Having decided on the broad features of a design by determining the amount of reaction or compression. blade speeds and stream velocities to be used, it is then necessary to obtain experimentally the net friction loss in the proposed element and also the path taken by the working fluid as it passes through the element. In the section on the measurement of local efficiency by means of an impact tube. it has been shown how the tube may be used in either subsonic or supersonic flow to obtain local values of efficiency, specific volume, and efflux The observed local total head pressures across a section angle. must be converted to mean effective values at that section. To ease this transformation a method has been formulated using the theory. graphs and tables provided here. The calculations given for mean effective values represent a maximum requirement

andthey may be modified to lessen the work involved in individual applications. For example, in many cases using cascades of blades in wind tunnels the variation of density across the traverse plans may be neglected and in calculating mean efficiency the local efficiency need not be weighted for mass flow.

#### Part 3.

The technique evolved for the measurement and calculation of loss represents a method which is applicable to all types of turbo machine elements with either compression or expansion in the elements and proves effective here in its application to a nozzle and blade pair. The inherent disadvantage in the method is the length of time required both for obtaining the impact tube readings and for completing the calculations. Some considerable amount of work has been done towards reducing the time factor by introducing automatic traversing gears and calculators. (See references 37 and 38).

The advantages of using steam as a working fluid in this type of testing lie in the ease with which the inlet condition, and exhaust pressure can be varied giving a very flexible variable density tunnel and also in the simplicity of accurate flow measurement by condensation. The accuracy of the calculated mean values is difficult to assess due to the number of variables involved, but a check on the calculated mass flow rates is obtained by comparison with the observed flow figures and show a good agreement.

With regard to the experimental results it should be emphasized that these apply to the type of machine element tested that is to a single nozzle and impulse blade pair and that the losses measured exclude incidence effects. This limits the variables making the experimental work an attempt to correlate loss and flow characteristics with Reynolds number and Mach number for a constant geometry system.

The general impressions from all the subsonic test results are that, while the losses change, the general flow pattern at the nozzle or blade exit remains substantially the same with varying Reynolds number and Mach number. For the nozzle we find isentropic flow throughout the major part of the outlet area with the region of low flow and high loss confined to a small wall boundary layer, while the variation of efflux angle in the vertical direction is considerable.

At the blade exit plane the isentropic condition is nowhere realized. On the vertical centre line the velocity (Figs 53 and 54 pages149 and 150 ) reaches a constant maximum for only 40% () of the outlet height and this region is flanked by large unsymetrical boundary layers, the maximum loss being on the convex side of the blade passage. Whether these loss regions can be described as boundary layers is doubtful because they are probably caused by detachment of the true boundary layer due to the curvature of the blade passage walls. Centrifugal effects within the blade passage will result in the lowest static

pressure normal to the flow occuring at the convex surface of the blade. Hence at some subsonic Mach number a local Mach number of unity will appear firstly at the convex surface. This can result in a shock discontinuity stemming from the convex surface with consequent detachment or thickening of the boundary layer downstream from the point of origin of the shock.

181.

In the horizontal direction the blade velocity distribution (Fig. 61 page 163) as well as showing the wall loss displays regions of low efficiency on either side of the vertical centre line. This is explained by the internal distribution of static pressure formed by the curvature of the blade passage which causes circulatory motion or vortices to be imposed on the main flow. Again vertically we find the same form of efflux angle distribution as for the nozzle.

The variation of mean nozzle efficiency with Reynolds number (Fig. 50 page146) follows the same pattern for the two and three dimensional tests and show a maximum value at a Reynolds number of  $5.7 \times 10^6$ . The variation of the mean pair efficiency with Reynolds number is however in the reverse direction to the nozzle efficiency. One would expect that in a region of high nozzle efficiency, that is with a good quality jet entering the blades passage, that the loss in the blade passage would be small. Remembering however that the loss regions in the nozzle are confined to the boundary layer, with good nozzle efficiency we then have a high energy stream passing from the vicinity of the nozzle wall to the wall of the blading. A slower layer of fluid would be expected to conform more to the path dictated by the blade passage wall with consequently less disturbance to the rest of the flow. Thus we assume that regions of high velocity approaching a blade boundary will cause greater subsequent loss than regions of low velocity. The reverse would apply to the jet quality away from the boundaries. The blade velocity coefficient as would be expected follows the same pattern as the mean pair efficiency.

In the graphs of mean nozzle and mean pair efficiency with Mach number (Fig. 55 page 157) we see that the nozzle efficiency reduces with increase of Mach number up to 0.9 and then increases from 0.9 to 1.0. In the mean pair efficiency graphs, where the losses are greater, there is a similar tendency for the efficiency figures to increase as a Mach number of unity is approached. Ainley<sup>11</sup> and Todd<sup>10</sup> have reported increase in officiency as the Mach number approaches unity. They say that this is due to a local shock wave appearing first at some point on the convex surface of the blade and some way inside the passage and that as the free stream Mach number is increased the shock front moves towards the blade outlet leaving less surface in contact with the thickened boundary layer. For circular nozzles Guy<sup>4</sup> and Giffen<sup>3</sup> have each indicated a rise in efficiency at high steam speeds although they disagreed as to the form of the curve at low steam speeds.

The graphs of mean pair efficiency also indicate a rise of efficiency with increasing Reynolds number below a Mach number of 0.6 and again a rise of efficiency with increased Mach number above 0.7 with the range 0.6 to 0.7 as a transition zone. This to some extent confirms the observations of a number of observers to the effect that Reynolds number is the controlling parameter below a Mach number of 0.66 and Mach number the controlling parameter thereafter. This is again supported by the graphs of loss in Fig. 57 (page 159).

The series 3 test results plotted in Fig. 62 (page 171) show a regular pattern for the variation of centre line blade velocity coefficient with Mach number and indicate maximum values at 0.8 in the subsonic field and 1.4 in the supersonic field. To show the influence of Reynolds number the coefficients are again plotted to a base of Reynolds number in Fig. 63 (page 172). In the Mach number range 0.9 to 1.2 it will be observed that the variation in Reynolds number is small so that the reduction in blade velocity coefficient here must be solely due to Mach The effect of Reynolds number on the coefficient number effects. in this same range of Mach number can be seen by comparing the group 3 tests with the group 2 tests where the increase of Reynold number from group 3 to group 2 reduces the coefficient. The variation of centre line loss with Mach number (Fig64 page 173) shows a progressive increase of loss with Mach number.

As stated previously the pattern of efflux angles for the nozzles and blades varies very little with Reynolds number and

subsonic Mach number. In the efflux angle graphs in Figs. 53 and 54 (pages 149 and 150), the nozzle efflux angle steadies to a value of 28° over a large proportion of the vertical traverse and is almost constant with Reynolds number. In the graphs in Fig. 60 (page162 ) the corresponding steady values are 28° at Mach number 0.5 rising to 32° at Mach number 0.97. and the mean calculated values of nozzle efflux angle agree very closely with these central steady values. This small variation in efflux angle with Mach number is consistent with the results obtained by Ainley<sup>11</sup>. Ainley quotes variations in efflux angle with subsonic Mach number for various theoretical outlet angles. His results show that the jet is deflected towards the axial direction as the Mach number is increased from low subsonic values up to unity. The variation is about  $6^{\circ}$  for a theoretical outlet angle of 40° (measured from the axial direction) and the variation decreases as the theoretical axial outlet angle is increased. There is however a considerable difference of about 8° between the mean values quoted above and the geometric outlet angle and in addition the efflux angles of the nozzle or blade differ from those quoted by Guy where the formula sin<sup>21</sup> opening/pitch was said to give the mean outlet angle. It should be remembered however that in Guy's experiments the nozzles being tested were supported on either side by other nozzles running full of steam. The change in the pattern of the nozzle efflux angle distribution in the supersonic field (Fig. 65 page 175) is in

contrast to the small changes in the subsonic region. Considering the vertical centre line at the mid point of the nozzle, as the Mach number approaches unity the efflux angle is  $32^{\circ}$  with angles varying up to  $56^{\circ}$  and down to  $10^{\circ}$  at the bound&ries. As the Mach number increases to 1.5 the flow is deflected away from the boundaries towards the main stream and with increasing Mach number the vertical variation of efflux angle is reduced. Hence with increasing supersonic Mach number the efflux angle tends to follow more closely the geometric outlet angle.

In all the tests the pressure at exhaust from nozzle or blades has been taken as equal to the pressure observed in the casing and the assumption is then made that this pressure is constant along the line of the traverse. This is justified provided the variation in pressure is small due to the relative difficulty of making accurate static pressure measurements in the free stream, reliance normally being placed on wall tappings. In the subsonic tests the casing pressure and nozzle wall tappings In the supersonic tests the nozzle wall were found to coincide. tappings, as would be expected, gave the critical back pressure and the casing pressure was again taken as the static pressure along the traverse line. Stodela<sup>39</sup> has shown that the variation in static pressure at the exhaust from a convergent parallel nozzle with super critical expansion is small and in any case the impact tube measures the total energy of the stream so that a slight departure of the local static pressure from the final

back pressure means only that a little of the total energy is retained as potential energy. The transformation to kinetic energy will be complete a little further downstream with only a slight effect on efficiency.

We have seen in the section on the analysis of losses that the effective loss in turbo machine elements can be divided into The first part is the friction work or the basic loss two parts. of high grade energy which is dissipated as low grade energy. - The second part, which is positive or negative depending on the pressure gradient. represents the "heating" effect of the low grade energy on the specific volume. The internal heating will be equivalent to external heating of the same amount and is therefore distinct and separate from the basic friction work loss. One feels that it is this basic friction work loss and not the effective loss which should be related to Reynolds number and Unfortunately the measurement of the basic loss is Mach number. much more difficult than that of the effective loss, since it would entail traverse measurements through the whole expansion or compression process.

In the section on efficient mechanical energy transfer we saw, for a turbine stage, that the maximum blading or diagram efficiency rises as the degree of reaction increases. The comparative effects of a small amount of reaction and of a small amount of compression have shown in Fig. 47 (page 122) where the flow with compression appears to break down completely in the centre of the blade. Ainley <sup>11</sup> has stated for the turbine blades with which he was dealing that the loss decreased with increased reaction. Hence from the point of view of increased efficiency both in expansion in the blading and in diagram efficiency high reaction is beneficial. The upper limit on reaction will be due only to the decrease in work done factor with increased reaction.

#### Conclusions.

It is well known that where friction is involved care must be exercised in applying thermodynamic principles. It has been shown here how the expressions for the energy inter-changed between the rotor blades and the working fluid in turbines and compressors are modified in a friction process. The loss of useful energy caused by friction is shown to comprise of two parts, one of which accounts for the degeneration by friction work of high grade energy into low grade energy and the other for the effect of this low grade energy on the specific volume of the fluid. Thus the nature of any friction process may be more readily examined and it is shown here how friction affects the efficiency of similar expansion and compression processes.

Some work has already been done on the choice of design parameters for the efficient operation of both the impulse blade and 50° reaction blade. The section on maximum blading efficiency, with its concept of Reaction Coefficient, forms a comprehensive theory which will fill the gap between these two as well as embracing the operation of the axial flow compressor. The flexibility of the theory will be apparent to those who are contemplating unorthodox designs. For example it is well known that in axial flow compressors the growth of the boundary layer from stage to stage reduces the efficiency. If occasionally a stage is introduced with a little reaction in say the moving blade, an improvement in the axial velocity distribution would result.

The determination of local efficiency and efflux angle and

the conversion of these local values into mean effective values is a necessary step in the analysis of the performance of machine elements. It is suggested that the methods herein developed will ease and simplify this transformation. These methods take account of variable density and supersonic flow and may therefore be used, in individual applications, to assess the errors involved in applying quicker but less rigorous procedures.

With regard to the flow pattern in the nozzle and blade pair, there was an unexpected variation in nozzle efflux angle about the centre of the nozzle, the stream apparently paying little heed to the geometric outlet angle except in a small central core. This flow pattern remained comparatively unchanged with varying Reynolds number and subsonic Mach number. When however the Mach number was increased to values greater than unity, there was a marked straightening of the stream lines, so that with progressively increasing Mach number the stream conformed more and more to the geometric outlet angle at all sections of the nozzle.

The variation of profile and total loss coefficients with Reynolds and Mach number for the writers zero pressure drop impulse blade is compared in appendix 3 with similar research by other workers, notably  $Armstrong^{40}$ ,  $Ainley^{41}$  and  $Kearton^{42}$ . Armstrong examined the profile loss characteristics for an impulse blade at high Reynolds number and found that above a Reynolds number of  $2 \times 10^5$ , based on blade chord, the loss coefficient remains substantially constant. When however the Reynolds number is reduced from high values and approaches the  $2 \times 10^5$  region there is a sudden increase in the loss coefficient. The writers work,

which covers a similar high Reynolds number range, helps to confirm that a chord Reynolds number of  $2 \times 10^5$  is in fact a critical value of this parameter. The following conclusions regarding the variation of loss coefficients were found to be consistent with most of the experimental data given in appendix 3.

Below a Mach number of 0.66 the controlling parameter is the Reynolds number. As the Reynolds number is reduced below  $2 \times 10^5$ both the profile and the total loss coefficient show a considerable increase and above this critical value they remain substantially constant. Where the Reynolds number is high (above  $2 \times 10^5$ ) and the Mach number is above 0.66 then (a) the total enthalpy loss coefficient remains constant while the total stagnation pressure loss coefficient increases as the Mach number increases, and (b) the profile enthalpy and stagnation pressure loss coefficients are both Mach No. dependent and increase with increasing values of the Mach number.

The impact tube and traversing gear have been shown to be capable of use in relatively high pressure, temperature and density streams. Hence the arrangement may be used to test steam or gas turbine elements near to their actual working conditions, or indeed the gear may be adapted for use on actual turbines or compressors.

In general however the experimental and analytical procedures involved in testing turbo machinery elements are time consuming and repetitive. In future work it would be desirable to intoduce more labour saving devices, such as automatic traversers and integrators, and certain suggestions along these lines by other workers have already been referred to.

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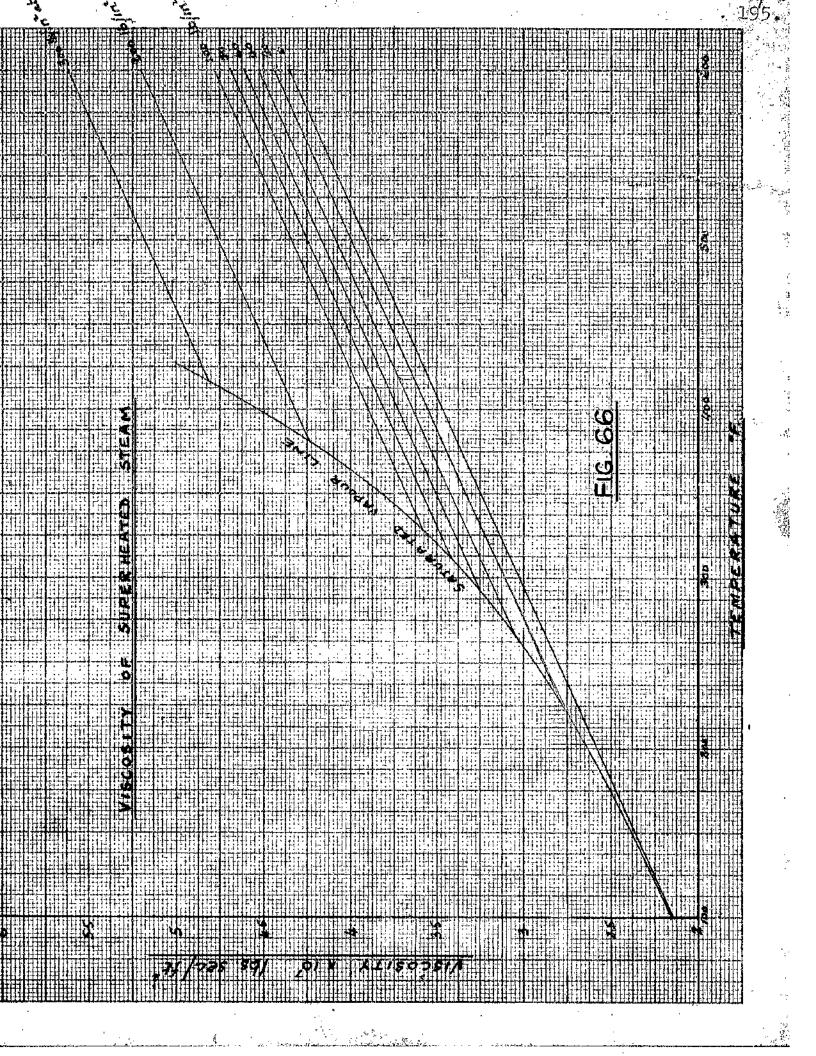
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Appendix 1.



## Specimen tables of observed and derived results Series 2.

# Tests 1 and 1A.

197.  
Specimen Calculations for test 1 and 1A Series 2.  
P<sub>1</sub> = 24.3 
$$1b/4n^2$$
 P<sub>2</sub>  
= 20.7  $1b/4n^2$  ·  $P_1^2$  = 0.652 ·  $M_2 q = 0.5$ .  
H<sub>1</sub> = 1229.25 ETU/1b. DH $q$  = 14.45 ETU/1b.  
P<sub>1</sub> = 360°F  $\pi_2 q = 348.5°F$   
 $v_2 q = 223.6 \sqrt{DH} q = 651 ft/sec.$   $v_2 q = 23ft^3/1b.$   
 $M_2 q = 3.325 \times 10^7$  1b/sec/ft<sup>2</sup>  
R<sub>n</sub> = 3.46 × 10<sup>6</sup>  
Prom Test 1 Table 3.  
 $\neq \sqrt{2^{\frac{1}{2}}} \sin 4 \frac{fda}{TV} = 19.129$ , and  $\xi_{\frac{1}{2}}\sqrt{2^{\frac{1}{2}}} \sin 4 \frac{fda}{TV} = 2.992$  (for  
varial  $\frac{\xi}{2}$ .)  
From Test 1 Table 3.  
 $\neq \sqrt{2^{\frac{1}{2}}} \sin 4 \frac{fda}{TV} = 19.129$ , and  $\xi_{\frac{1}{2}}\sqrt{2^{\frac{1}{2}}} \sin 4 \frac{fda}{TV} = 1.358$  (for  
varial  $\frac{\xi}{2}$ .)  
From Test 1 Table 4.  
 $\leq \sqrt{2^{\frac{1}{2}}} \sin 4 \frac{fda}{TV} = 17.541$  and  $\xi_{\frac{1}{2}} = 2.992$ .  
From Test 1 Rable 4.  
 $\leq \sqrt{2^{\frac{1}{2}}} \sin 4 \frac{fda}{TV} = 0.917$ .  $\overline{2} = \frac{2.992}{2.992}$ .  
From Test 1 A. Table 4.  
 $\leq \sqrt{2^{\frac{1}{2}}} \sin 4 \frac{fda}{TV} = 0.917$ .  $\overline{2} = \frac{2.992}{2.992} = 1.0$ .  
 $\overline{\chi}_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{8.467}{11.063} = 0.766$ ;  $\overline{\chi}_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1.126}{1.358} = 0.83$   
Blade velocity coefficient  $K = \sqrt{0.765} = 0.911$ .  
Blade lose =  $(1 - K^2) \overline{\chi}_n$  DH  $q = 2.185$  BTU/1b.

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Blade loss<sub>4</sub> = 
$$(1 - K_{4}^{2}) \overline{2}_{n} 4 \frac{DH}{\phi} = 2.46$$
 ETU/1b.  
From test 1 table 5.  
 $\underline{\ell} 7 \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \frac{fda}{fV} = 15.331.$   
From test 1A table 5.  
 $\underline{\ell} 7 \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \frac{fda}{fV} = 6.902.$   
Hence for the mean nozzle exit angle.  
 $\cos \overline{\lambda}_{n} = \frac{\underline{\ell} 7 \cos \alpha \sin \alpha x \frac{fda}{fV}}{\sqrt{7} n \underline{\ell} 2^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \alpha \frac{fda}{fV}} = \frac{15.331}{0.957 \times 19.129} = 0.837.$   
 $\overline{\lambda}_{n} = 33^{\circ} - 11^{4}$ 

and for the mean blade exit angle.

$$\cos \overline{\lambda}_{b} = \frac{6.902}{0.875 \times 11.083} = 0.714 : \overline{\lambda}_{b} = 44^{\circ} - 24^{\circ}$$

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VERTICAL STATIONS

204.

AREA FACTORS ( Jda) ARE ENCIDER IN THE RECTANCIES

FIG. 68

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IMPACT READINGS MARKED

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BLADE

FLOW MAP FOR

EXIT

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11:083

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$\mathbf{A}$ $\mathbf{b}$ $\mathbf{A}$ $\mathbf{b}$ $\mathbf{A}$ $\mathbf{b}$ $\mathbf{A}$		50.0	[	2887	2959	2992	2932	2817	F288	804.0		
$\mathbf{A}$ $\mathbf{h}$ $\mathbf{A}$ $\mathbf{A}$				610	1	850.	.026	·024	000.	000.		
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NA       NA <t< td=""><td></td><td>.100.</td><td>900.</td><td>846</td><td></td><td>80<b>7</b>.</td><td>161.</td><td>161.</td><td>-084</td><td></td><td>200.</td><td>.000</td></t<>		.100.	900.	846		80 <b>7</b> .	161.	161.	-084		200.	.000
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N $-3/3$ $-3/4$ $-3$ $-2$ $-1$ $0$ $1/2$		- + 00	.047	.334	<u> </u>	.342	.326	.326	./93	.049	500.	2003
$\mathbf{A}$ $\mathbf{A}$		14 :026	407 1/4	1 334	1 342		1 326	1 326	1 193	4	462 OC4	
A $A$ $b$ $A$		800.	111.	#38	.423	.423	#38	.391	242		550.	007
$M_{1}$ $-3/A_{1}$		2 24	981 7.	1 43	1 423	1 423	1 438	1871	1 242	•	730.	51 L
$M_{1}$ $-3/x$ $-5/4$ $-3$ $-2$ $-1$ $0$ $1$ $A$ $h$ <td></td> <td>Å</td> <td>841</td> <td>ASH.</td> <td>+24</td> <td>.470</td> <td>01.49.</td> <td>.# 5.#</td> <td>962.</td> <td>070</td> <td>.036</td> <td>0/0</td>		Å	841	ASH.	+24	.470	01.49.	.# 5.#	962.	070	.036	0/0
$^{4}$ $-3/4$ $-3$ $-2$ $-1$ $0$ $1$		192 256	1	1 454	1 454	1 470	1 470	1 454	1 279		.069	
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*4     -3/2     -3/2     -3/4     -3     -2     -1     0     /     2     3       A     h     A <td></td> <td>         </td> <td>2005</td> <td>960.</td> <td>165</td> <td>:205</td> <td>-1691.</td> <td>136</td> <td>040</td> <td>06</td> <td></td> <td>000</td>		       	2005	960.	165	:205	-1691.	136	040	06		000
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		314	w	2	~	<b>a</b>	-	۲- ۲	ц См		-31/2	314

<b>∀</b>	8 467									<u>الم</u>	$A = \frac{1}{2}^2 \sin \alpha \frac{\int d\alpha}{\int v}$	Þ		
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		000.	:028	77.0.	-/34		121	.070	.060		010	·0/3	+00	- <u>+</u>
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	500.	400.	420.	./2/	<i>b8/.</i>	.244	./84	.123	./20	# 11.	°.60.	150.	.020	200.
	12 :043	18	74 104	545 143	815 218	2	83- 219	836 147	8/7 1/47	788 145 817 147	6/7 100	001 17/0 LTO. 21.	250. 586. 🗱	157
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	-109	980.	./3/	-175	308	864	310	202	206	161.	./37.	680.	160.	-028
	7/5 7/52	765 1/2	234 765 172	75 234	8/7 377	8# 510 817		836 241	5.5 :238	\$23 232	817 168	817 109	165 755 735 096 817 109 817 168 823 232 5.5 238 834 241 83- 371	50 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10
	8-#0.	.036		-082	736	.234		107	680.	.057	++50.	.035	800.	.003
	66 073	71# 251	180 -51	75 110	775 776	84 278	130 894 208	8.3 130	188 113	735 078 783 113	160. 59L	14 047 765 071	36 221	16 37
	6 <b>2</b> 0.	010	900.	.003	7007	910.	120.	810.	610.	010	.012	.003	000.	
	480 046	385 226	215 227	-014	512 720. 82	$\mathbb{E}$		Pro 05. 820. 295.	575 223	H5 023	525 223	24 013 525 23 45 223 515 223	-035 -004	
	.005	906.				000	000	000	100	#00.	+004	100.	000	
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	000.	000.	000.				000	800.	100.	100.	000			
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						4	TABLE :- 4		TEST :- / A.		SERIESII			
	4.													

	15.331								hà sin l	A =		
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			995		00 820 466 1	850 <b>166</b> /	1 995 026	1 995 024	49 1 000	-3 975 001	234 998 001	
			100.	890.	C80.	.082	C80.	180.	800.	100.	000	
			19 993 008	992 082 955 993 073 49 993 008	C80 P66 1	1 994 082	1 994 083	1 992 03	54 198 04	14 977 002 135 997 003 54 998 04	134 997 002	
		1000.	910.	204	181	705	-787	.187	+160.	910	500.	200.
		134 982 011	978 208 279 982 043234 982 011	1 978 208	1 982 191	1 978 208	1 982 191	1 967 191	<b>575</b> 985 109	455 985 1025 575 985 109	100 545 344 900 244 4	00 200 200
		600.	690.	-315	.322	-322	.308	309	<del>1</del> 81.	+50.	-035	600.
		24 956 026	943 334 6 × 956 114 174 956 026	-	1 94 342	1 94 342	1 994 326	1 1946 326	1 951/193	84 151 260	48 946 DS484	2- Rea 124-68
		110.	./33	468	-383	384	-394	-360	223	.077	.043	5/0.
		144 927 041	899 438 77 921 186 444 927 041	-	1 906423	1 906 423	1 899 438	1 92/39/	1 92/242	904 91 093	-7 92 067	F2 934 037-7
	-	LE0.	162	:405	504.	-21+6.	.415	404	.250	.078	940.	020
		54 906 0SG	691 454 528 906 216 54 906 0SG	-	1 891 154	1 843 470	1 883 470	1 891 454	1 895 279	19 834 043 121 921 069 859 899 CM	12 22 069	eg 134 14
		.033	.183	۵.	544.	.433	4-33	-#33	376	980.	8 #0.	b10.
		<b>9.4 875</b> 067	842 508 + 25 24 236 at \$15 067	-	1 553 523	1 544 570	1 846 500	1 844 500	1 857 322	15 875 08 34 875 109	STS 08	10. 206 .047
		800.	./32	<i></i>	364	-358	-360	368	925	.072	620.	500.
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	5 719 038	77747758 749232 3	~	1 758 4/3	1 304 446	1 798 452	1 772 477	1 76 302	3	04 879 mil 575 788 0 45	01 628 40
			.035	+84	581.	-185	-186-	./83	180.	520.	500.	100.
	· · · · ·	· · ·	(29 292 545409 102		1 113 288	1 43288	1 656 283	1 416 296	-7 623 05/ 574 1/24		KA 679 01224 629 023	10 129 23
			800.	.066		811.	401.	.087	1 _7	700	200.	100.
			82 545 142	775 53 161 32 545 042	574 205 928 552 12	1 574 205	935 588 189	53 088 87 559 179 935 588 189	L	44 374 008234 574 012461 574 034 65	574 012	K4 3/4 00
10 How Sin in 1	Thank singly plantsin fite	Marisin Ling	Hondsin ( tap	Handsins fac	Cont Sin ( da	Roon Sind Edge	Read Sind for	Thomas in 140	Phone Sind falo	Marini ta	Man Sin ( fa	Real singly
Ris Land A	22 & A 23 & A	22 end A 1	22 Cond A	R 2 boul A	12 2 Kand A	R 2 km A	22 for A	R2 lox A	R 12 2 2	R2 los A	122 A	V 77 50
		3 1/4	3	2	-	¢	-	-2	- 3	-31/4	-3 1/2	- 3 <sup>3</sup> /4
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an Stat

6.902			ŀ					-	<b>∑</b> ¢	hi sing fdo.	A =		
0.299	0-239	0.367	0.524	0.850	H93	0.881	0.596	0.551	510	0.368	0.245	0-/83	960.0
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										_			
	100.	-012	034	.057	110.	640	.022	810.	.012	+000	+000+	<b>2</b> 00.	
	187 292 011	2 371 V58 875 391 100 678 272 061 87 292 011	875 391 100	2 31 158	1991 204	74 242 08 83 259 100 00 356 355 153 82	82 259 100	174 242 095	12/ 191 287	485 191 34	394 205 023 596 208 036 455 191 144 21 1.91 1987	394 208 123	
900	.015	540.	072	111.	14-1	./03	.076	064	190.	.032	030	.013	500.
344.433 1243	53 270 13 545 218 92 545/42 86 -5 104 65 407 055 344 23 143	82 -5 /04	92 545/1/2	13 545 218	916 63 2%	1/4 515 219 916	$\frac{2}{10}$	114 455 147	886 47 145	18 107 100	374 558 103462 391 105785 438 1071/78 407 100 886 47 145994 485 47	62 391 05	374 558 03
580	110.	+01-	152	2++ 2.	· <b>3</b> 34.	-234.	./55	15.6	.167	+1/1+	840.	180.	H4PO.
785 422 159	14 107 362 94 432 516 93 695 374 94 495 242 86 107 170 875 195 117 785 432 159	86 707 170	914 495 242	93 695 374	246 452 516	1/4 107 362	91 695 244	14 882 249	146495 254	914 695 1/31	469 095 974 713 115 914 713 120 914 695 1 31 945 495 254	\$874 713 11S	7 44 M
-111	+80	./28	011	:282	3 87	284	787	061.	18/.	-/32	980.	.073	.039
84 845 152	9/5 229 500 924 22 9 377 865 234 875 234 875 18 172 8 75 257 112 84 255 162	975 <b>H8</b> 1772	846 33 234	914 229 377	915 828 SID	3	9/5 678 24	93 <b>657 2</b> 38	107 \$57 232	104 244 165	682 13 061 854 391 096 94 875 109 924 844 1168 907 857 232 93 657 238	1854 1910 1910	90 24 (33)
.056	140.	-06S	090	·14+5	-234	181	.109	460.	990.	.059	.039	.0/2	800.
812 946 073	150 76 948	85794 081	866 94 110	88 934 176	9/6 914 278	946 208	908 24 130	132 021 86 556 047875856 071/869 97 078887 94 113 908 24 130 946 21 208 916 414 278 88 434 176 866 94 110 857 94 081 846 546 94 051 812 546 073	869 97 078	875956 271	86 156 047	6 882 021	4 956 221 6
020	-015	0/2	.006	.013	026	. O29	.024	.025	.0/5	610.	900.	100.	
SAL 834 046	199 042 53 093 024 144 993 014 444 992 027 52 99 026 696 839 046	444 946 (27)	144 993 014	53 893 024	62/ 99 042	706 908 041	75 985 033	187 195 5001 29 197 + 013 725 105 023 67 19 023 758 125 033 75 125 103 706 108 04 162	67 19 023	715 165 02	19 74 013	187 75 004	
010	110:				000.	000.	100		007	800	C00.	100-	
171 220 (220 1174	534 94 022 171 269 022	$\left[ -\frac{1}{2} \right]$			187 1 1200	364 1 200	49 1999 004 49 1999 002 364 1 200		525 775 013	544 985 215	187 193 003 28 185 006 544 925 015 525 995 013	187 993 003	
100	1:001	.001				100.	-022	200.	100	000			
100 66 281	187 - 21 108 87 97 97 004 87 99 004	187 -251 1108				187 998 004	324 998 250	187 199 00 1444999 003 41 498 005 394 1998 050 187 898 004	Hul 999 003	00 664 181			
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# Specimen Tables of Observed and Derived Results

# Series 3 (Group 3).

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FLOW AREA DIAGRAM FOR CENTRE-LINE TRAVERSE. SERIES III FIG. 69

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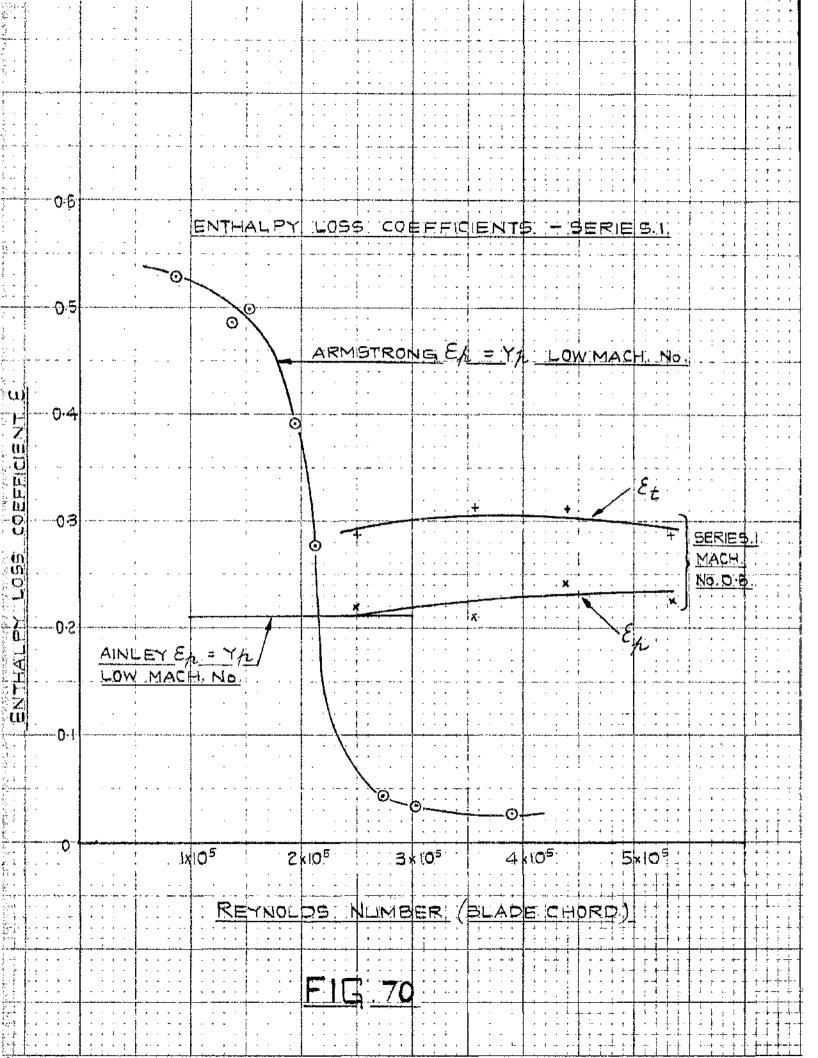
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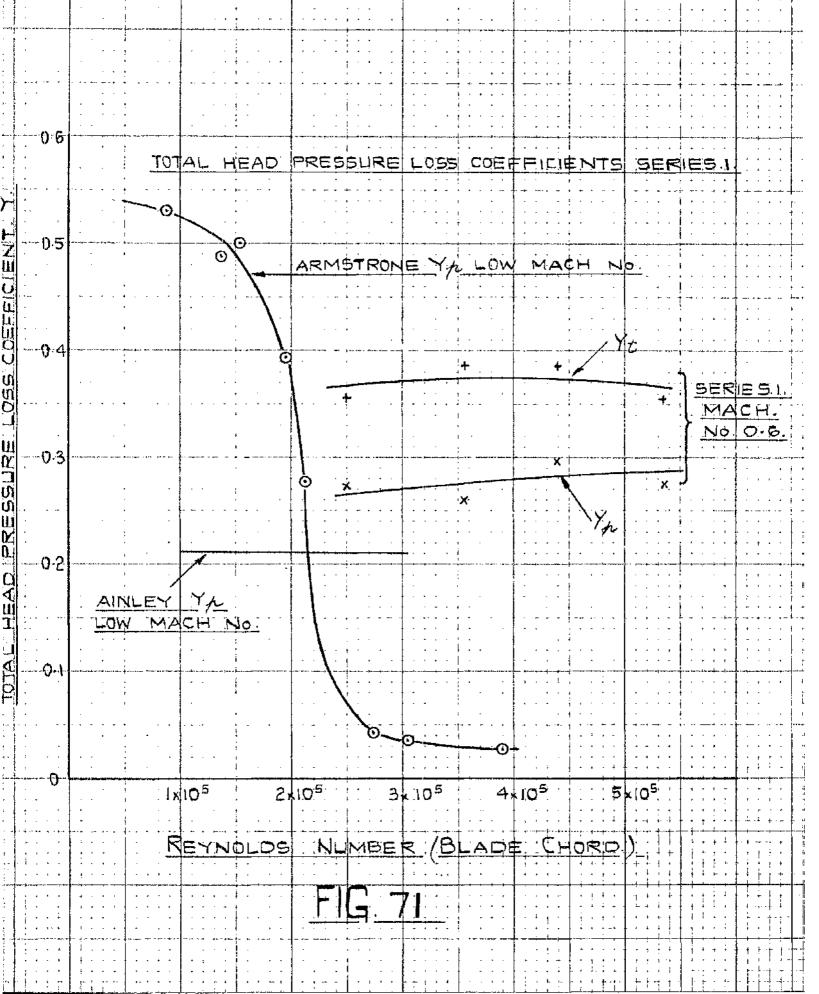
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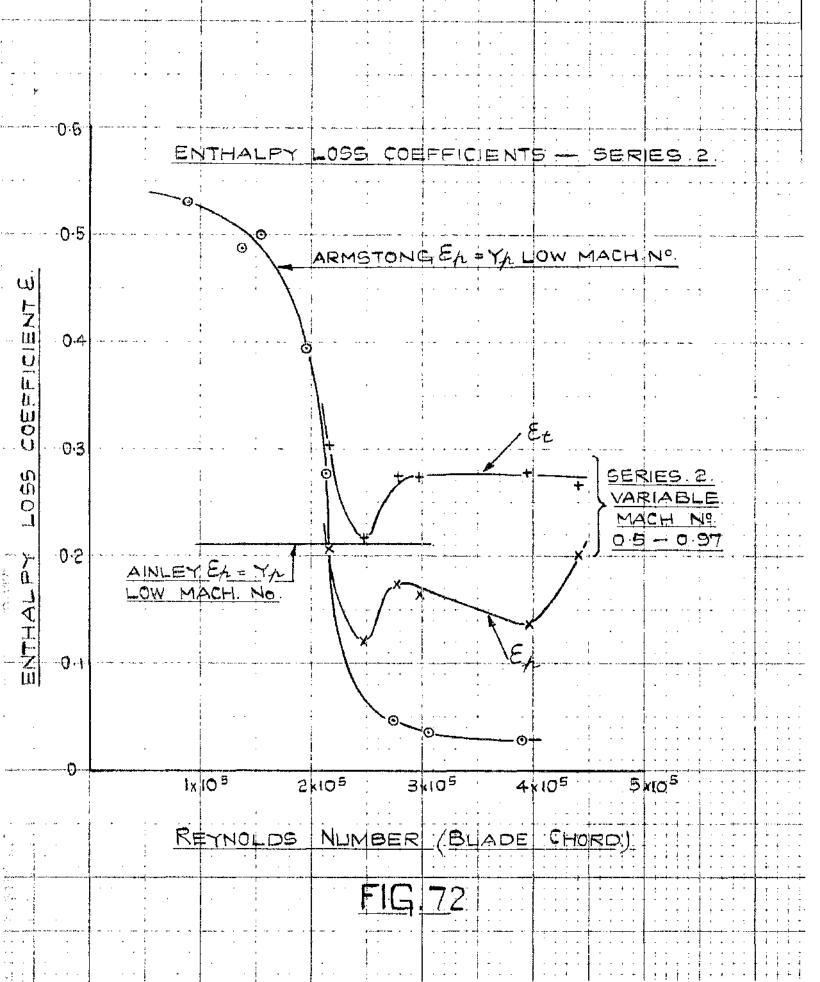
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# Appendix 3.

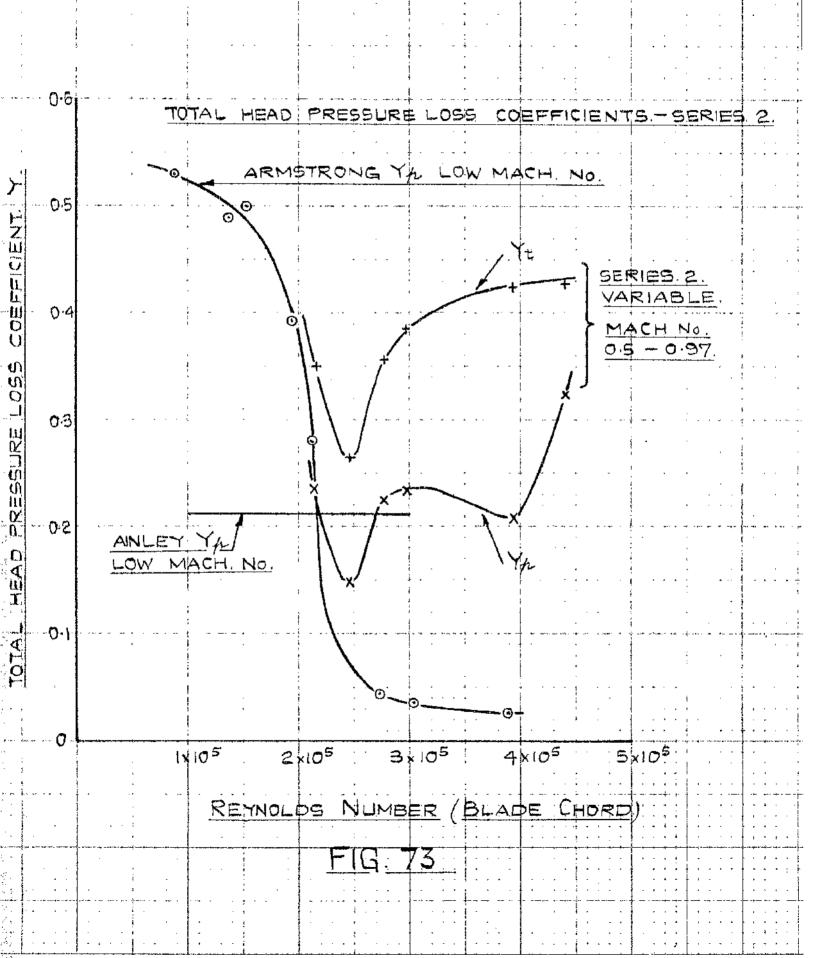
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An examination of the variation of loss coefficients with Mach number and Reynolds number with particular reference to the existance of critical values of these parameters. 





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#### Appendix 3.

An examination of the variation of loss coefficients with Mach number and Reynolds number with particular reference to the existance of critical values of these parameters.

A particular study of the variation of loss coefficients at high Reynolds number has been made by Armstrong<sup>40</sup>. Ainley<sup>41</sup> and Kearton<sup>42</sup>. To compare the writer's work with theirs, the results from test series 1 and 2 are given in the accompanying tables along with details of the geometry of the impulse blade The efficiencies of expansion for the used in the tests. blade have been converted to enthalpy loss coefficients (  $\xi$  ) and to total head pressure loss coefficients (Y) by the relationships derived in Part 1. The coefficients are given as profile or centre line coefficients (  $\mathcal{E}_p$  and  $Y_p$ ) and as total loss coefficients (  $\mathcal{E}_t$  and  $Y_t$ ), where the total loss coefficients include the profile and secondary losses. The test Reynolds numbers (previously based on a length dimension of one foot) have been calculated on a basis of blade chord. and on a characteristic dimension equal to four times the hydraulic mean depth at the outlet throat section of the blade passage.

For test series 1, where the outlet Mach number is constant at 0.6,  $\mathcal{E}_p$  and  $\mathcal{E}_t$ , and  $Y_p$  and  $Y_t$  are plotted in figures 70 and 71 respectively to a base of chord Reynolds number. The corresponding results for series 2, where the Mach number varies from 0.5 to 0.97 are given in figures 72 and 73.

#### Comparison with Armstrongs work.

In Armstrong's work air tests at low velocities were carried out on a cascade of large impulse blades. The blades were designed for good incidence characteristics with a well rounded inlet edge.

In the tests the air inlet angle was maintained constant at 35 degrees (from the axial direction) and total head profile pressure loss coefficients were obtained over a range Geometry of the impulse blade used in test series 1 & 2 (see fig 43) pitch 0.65 ins; height 0.65 ins; blade chord = axial chord, 0.75 ins; hydraulic mean depth at the outlet throat section of the blade, 0.075 ins; hydraulic mean diameter 0.30 ins; aspect ratio 0.866; pitch/chord ratio 0.866; thickness to chord ratio 0.615; inlet and outlet angle  $20^{\circ}$ ; nominal fluid deflection  $140^{\circ}$ ; opening to pitch at blade outlet = 0.30.

### Table 1.

Test results for the impulse blade from series 1 Constant Mach number 0.6.

Test No.	lA.	2A.	· 3A.	4.4.
$R_{n} (L = lft) \times 10^{6}$	3.99.	5.27.	7.041.	8,55.
$R_n$ (chord) x 10 <sup>5</sup>	2.50.	3.58.	4.40.	5.35.
R <sub>n</sub> (H.M.D.) x 10 <sup>5</sup>	1.00.	1.43.	1.76.	2.14.
Zp profile	0.820.	0.826.	0.805.	0.817
Ep profile	0.220.	0.210.	0.242,	0.223
Y <sub>p</sub> profile	0.272.	0.259.	0.298.	0,275
Y profile p (Ainley)	1994 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 1995 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 - 2004 -	0,2; 	12	میرون میروند. با این این میرون میرون این این این این این این این این این ای
Zt <sup>TOTAL</sup>	0,778.	0.762.	0.762.	0.778
Et TOTAL	0.287.	0.312.	0.312.	0.287
Y, TOTAL	0.354.	0.385.	0.385.	0.354
Y <sub>t</sub> TOTAL (Ainley)		0.6	28	na an an an an an an an an an an an an a

Test results for the impulse blade from series 2 - variable Mach number. . .

lest no.	1A.	2A.	ЗА.	4. A	5A.	бА.
Nach No.	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.97
$R_{N}$ (L = lft) x $10^{6}$	3.46	3.96	4.45	4.77	6.28	7.04
$R_{\rm N}$ (chord) x 10 <sup>5</sup>	2.16	2.48	2.78	2.98	3.94	4.40
$R_{\rm N}$ (H.M.D.) x 10 <sup>5</sup>	0.86	0.99	1.12	1.20	1.57	1.76
Zp profile.	0.83	0.894	0.854	0.860	0.881	0.832
$\mathcal{E}_{p}$ profile.	0.204	0.120	0.171	0.164	0.133	0,200
Y <sub>p</sub> profile.	0+236	0.148	0.225	0.232	0.203	0.322
Y profile. p (Ainley)	an an ann an an ann an an an an an an an		0.212		,	لىدىنىيە مەرىپىدىنىڭ تىلىرىنىيە يېرىپىدىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بىلىرىنىيە بى
Zt TOTAL	0.766	0.821	0.785	0.785	0.783	0.790
E t TOTAL	0,302	0.215	0.271	0.271	0.277	0.26
Y <sub>t</sub> TOTAL	0.350	0.265	0•356	0.383	0.422	0,429
Y, TOTAL (Ainley)	an an the state of	n an	0.628		n en sen en  anderen hon som men og an de som de so	

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of chord Reynolds number varying from 0.8 x  $10^5$  to 4.0 x  $10^5$ . The average air deflection in the tests was approximately  $68^\circ$ , and since the tests were performed at low Mach numbers the enthalpy and pressure loss coefficients may be assumed identical.

The results are shown in figures 70 to 73 and indicate an abrupt rise in loss coefficients as the Reynolds number is reduced. The critical region lies between 1.8 and 2.3 x  $10^5$ , an average value of approximately  $2.0 \times 10^5$ . In test series 1 is the writer's Reynolds numbers are greater than 2.5 x  $10^5$  (figures 70 and 71) but in series 2 (figures 72 and 73) where the lower Reynolds numbers are approaching Armstrong's critical value, the loss coefficients rise sharply confirming Armstrong is result. Below the critical Reynolds number Armstrong also found that the boundary layer growth on the convex side of the blade surface was of such a magnitude that the blade channel acted like a convergent nozzle. Ainley's loss correlation.

Ainley and Mathieson<sup>41</sup> give the results of air cascade tests at low Mach numbers. For nozzle blades (fluid inlet angle  $\measuredangle_1$  zero) and for impulse blades (fluid outlet angle  $\measuredangle_2$  = - fluid inlet angle  $\measuredangle_1$ ), they correlate the profile loss coefficient at zero incidence with the pitch to chord ratio (P/<sub>C</sub>) in the form of a series of graphs each corresponding to a different fluid outlet angle. The results are for a thickness to chord ratio (t/<sub>c</sub>) of 0.2.

A relationship is given between the opening to pitch ratio at blade outlet and the fluid outlet angle. For the writer's blade this gives a fluid outlet angle very close to the nominal inlet angle of  $20^{\circ}$ . Hence for comparison with Ainley's data, the impulse blade of series 1 and 2 has been assumed to have fluid inlet and outlet angles of  $20^{\circ}$  from the tangential direction, giving a fluid deflection of  $140^{\circ}$ .

Hence at  $t/_c = 0.2$ ,  $P/_c = 0.866$  and  $\swarrow_2 = 70^{\circ}$  (axial direction), Ainley gives  $Y_p = 0.170$ 

and for this impulse blade where t/c = 0.25

$$X_p = 0.170 \left(\frac{0.25}{0.2}\right)^{-1} = 0.212.$$

For the secondary loss in the blade passage Ainley gives

$$Y_{s} = h \left(\frac{C_{L}}{P/C}\right)^{2} \frac{\cos^{2} \angle 2}{\cos^{3} \angle m}$$
  
where  $\frac{C_{L}}{P/C} = 2 (\tan \angle 1 - \tan \angle 2) \cos \angle m$ 

$$\operatorname{Tan} \chi_{\mathrm{m}} = \frac{\tan \chi_{1} + \tan \chi_{2}}{2}$$

and  $\bigwedge$ , an empirical coefficient is given in graphical form as a function of

$$\left(\frac{A_2}{A_1}\right)^2 \times \left(1 + \frac{D-h}{D+h}\right)^{-1}$$

Here  $A_1$  is the inlet annulus area x cos  $\swarrow_1$ 

$$A_2$$
 " "outlet " "  $x \cos \lambda_2$ 

D is the mean diameter of the blade and h is the blade height.

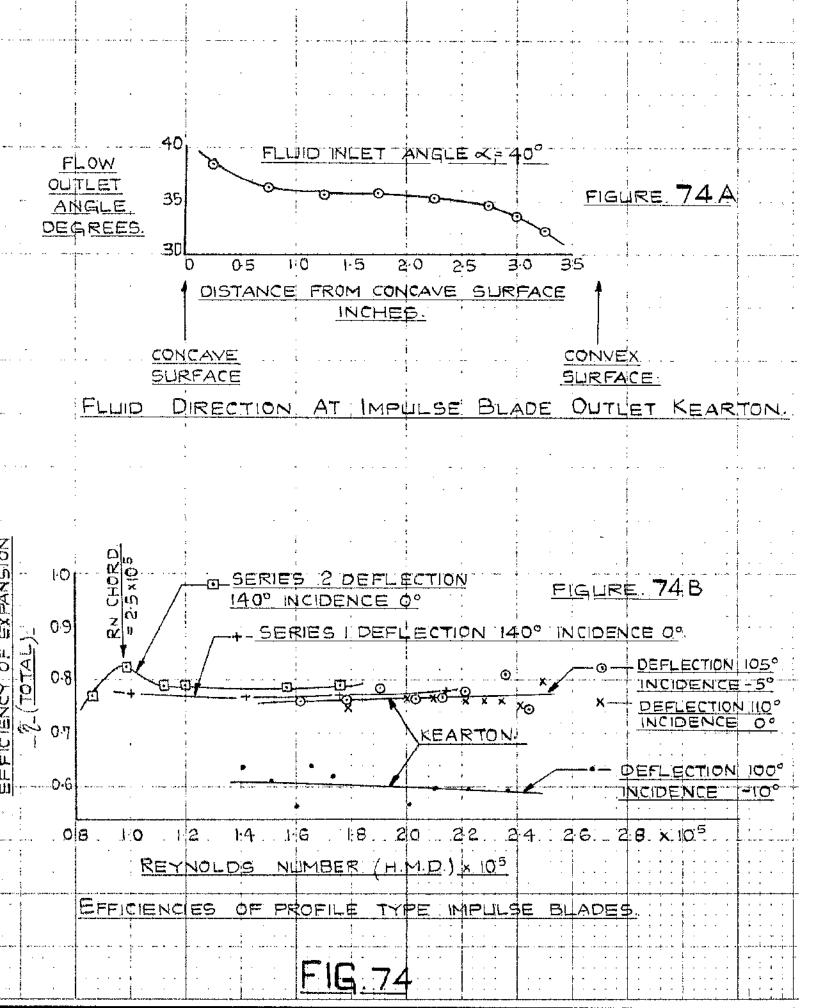
Hence for the writer's blade :-  $\swarrow_{m} = 0$ .

 $\left(\frac{O_{\rm L}}{P/c}\right)^2 \times \frac{\cos^2 \alpha_2}{\cos^3 \alpha_m} = \left[2 \left(2 \tan 70^{\circ}\right)\right]^2 \cos^2 70^{\circ} = 14.10$ and h is a function of  $\left(1 + \frac{D - h}{D + h}\right)^{-1}$ 

Using values of mean diameter from 10 in. to 40 in. and the blade height of 0.65 in., the quantity  $(1 + \frac{D - h}{D + h})^{-1}$ varies from 0.534 to 0.506. An average value of 0.52 has been used here, for which Ainley gives h = 0.0295. Hence  $Y_{B} = 0.0295 \times 14.1 = 0.416$  and therefore the estimated value of the total loss using Ainleyscorrelation as

$$Y_{+} = 0.416 + 0.212 = 0.628$$

2210



In Ainley's cascade tests the operating Mach numbers were less than 0.5 and the chord Reynolds number varied from 1 x  $10^5$  to 3 x  $10^5$ . Ainley suggests: that in this Reynolds number range there is little variation in loss coefficient but proposes however that, below his average Reynolds number of 2.0 x  $10^5$ , a correction should be applied to the overall efficiency of the turbine by assuming that the stage losses are proportional to  $R_{\rm N}$ .

Ainley's estimates of profile and total loss coefficient are shown in tables 1 and 2 and in figures 70 to 73. The prediction for profile loss corresponds favourably with the writer's value but for the total loss coefficient Ainley's method greatly overestimates the loss in this "profile type" of steam turbine impulse blade.

## Comparison with Kearton's work.

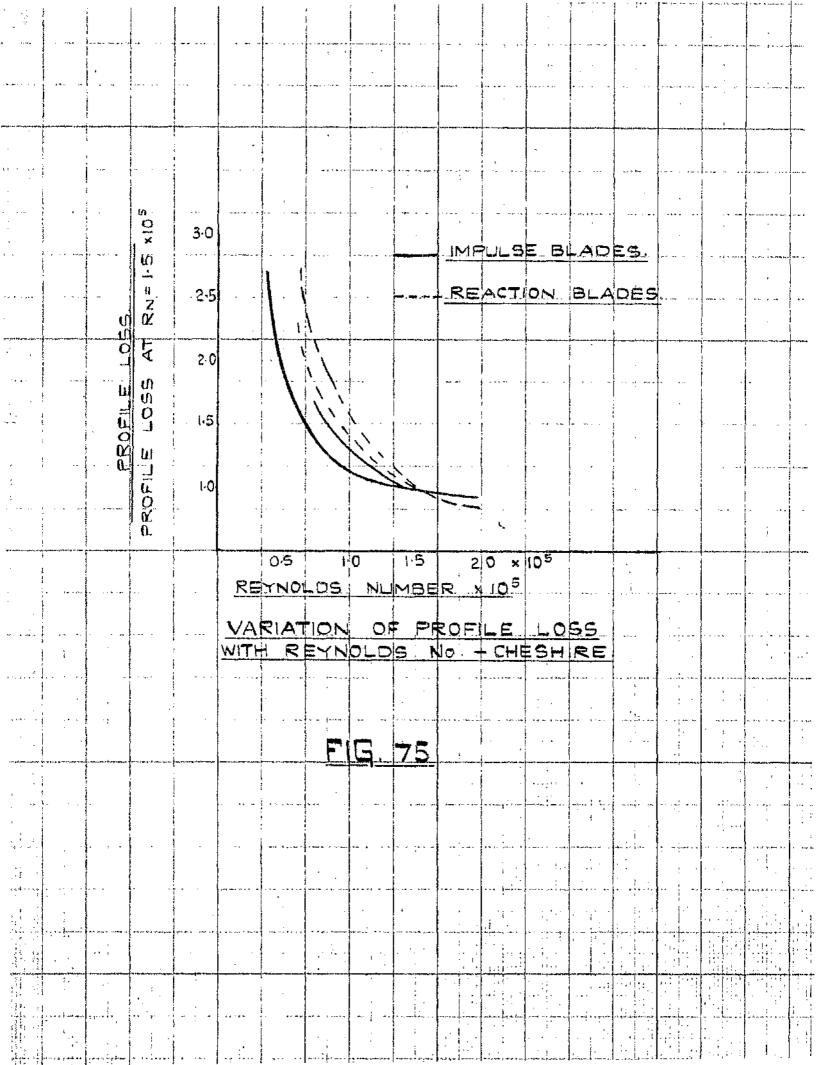
Kearton<sup>42</sup> has examined the flow and loss characteristics for model profile type impulse blades at high Reynolds numbers using air as the Working fluid. The blade had inlet and outlet angles of 35° (from the tangential direction) and the tunnel was arranged so that tests could be made with air inlet angles of 30°, 35°, 40° and 45°. Direct measurements were made of the tangential blade force, by connecting the blade cascade to weights suspended from a pulley. Total head pressure and fluid direction measurements were made at a number of stations along the blade pitch at the mid height Kearton found that, at an inlet angle of of the blade. 45°, the average outlet angle was equal to the nominal outlet angle of 35°. For the other three tunnel settings the average outlet angle was slightly greater than 35° showing a positive deviation. A typical result is shown in figure 74 A. In the pitchwise direction the outlet angle is greatest at the concave surface (positive deviation) and is least at the convex surface (negative deviation).

Like Armstrong, Kearton also observed the greatest loss in total head pressure at the convex side of the blade passage.

The variation in fluid outlet angle observed by Kearton is very similar in form to that obtained by the writer and shown in figures 53 and 54 (test la and 4a). The maximum positive or negative deviation about the mean efflux angle for the writer's blade is however greater than that observed in Kearton's tests. This is because in Kearton's experimental rig the blades adjacent to the blade passage under test were also passing piry whereas in the writer's apparatus the adjacent blades do not run full of steam. (see page 117). From figures 53 and 54 it will also be observed that the biggest loss region is on the convex side of the blade.

From the measured blade force, the air flow and assuming an average fluid outlet angle of  $35^{\circ}$ . blade velocity coefficients were calculated over a range of Reynolds number. based on the hydraulic mean diameter at the blade outlet. Kearton's results are shown in figure 74B. The velocity coefficients have been converted to efficiencies for comparison with the results from test series 1 and 2 which are also shown in the figure. When calculating the blade velocity coefficients Kearton made a correction for a small reaction effect obtained during the tests. In the writer's experiments the arrangement was such that no pressure drop occurs across the blade passage. Kearton's results apply therefore to the reaction stage while the writer's pertain to the zero zero pressure drop impulse stage.

Kearton's figures are for total loss in the blade passage at low air velocities. The lower curve corresponds to a fluid deflection of  $100^{\circ}$  and the upper curve to deflections of  $105^{\circ} - 110^{\circ}$ . One would have expected the efficiency to decrease with increase in fluid deflection but the main factor here is probably incidence effects and not fluid deflection. Both Kearton's impulse blade and that



used in series 1 and 2 are the same form of "profile" blade, where the sharp inlet edge results in poor incidence characteristics. It is Kearton's zero incidence results therefore which should be compared with those of series 1 and 2 where the incidence is also zero. It will be noted from figure 74B that these results do compare favourably, bearing in mind that Kearton's figures are for low Mach numbers and for Reynolds numbers well above Armstrong's critical Reynolds number, while those of series 1 and 2 are for high Mach numbers and that some of the figures are in the region of the critical Reynolds number.

It is worthwhile at this point to summarize the limits within which the above results are applicable.

(1). Armstrong's data applies to profile pressure loss coefficients. Low Mach number. Chord Reynolds number range 0.8 x  $10^5 - 4 \times 10^5$ . Exhibits a critical Reynolds number at approximately 2 x  $10^5$ .

(2). Ainley's data applies to profile and total loss coefficients. Mach numbers less than 0.5. No critical Reynolds number in the range  $1 \times 10^5 - 3.5 \times 10^5$  (chord). Suggests that below a Reynolds number of  $2 \times 10^5$  the turbine loss is proportional to  $R_n^{-0.2}$ .

(3). Kearton's data applies to total loss coefficients only. Low Mach number. Reynolds number based on hydraulic mean diameter but above Armstrongs critical Reynolds number. (4). Series 1. For profile and total loss coefficients. Mach number constant at 0.6. Reynolds number range  $2.5 \times 10^5 - 5.35 \times 10^5$  (chord).

(5). Series 2. For profile and total loss coefficients. Mach number range 0.5 - 0.97. Reynolds number range 2.16 x  $10^5 - 4.4 \times 10^5$  (chord).

In addition to the work quoted above some results on the variation of losses with Reynolds number are given by Cheshire<sup>43</sup> and by Soderburg<sup>30</sup>. These are:-

(6). Cheshire. Cheshire's results are shown in figure 75.

They are for profile loss coefficients in the Reynolds number range 0.5 x  $10^5 - 2 \times 10^5$ . (7). Soderburg. Soderburg gives the following relationship for the variation in total loss coefficient with Reynolds number.

$$\mathcal{E} = (\frac{10^5}{R_n})^{0.25} \times \mathcal{E}'$$

where  $\xi'$  is the total enthalpy loss coefficient at  $\mathbb{R}_n = 10^5$ .

### Appendix 3 - Summary.

Below a Reynolds number of  $1 \times 10^5$  there seems to be general agreement that the loss coefficients rise. Above 1 x 10<sup>5</sup> on the other hand Ainley's results suggest that the coefficients remain constant, while Soderburg's indicate a continuous decrease. Cheshire's figures also exhibit a considerable decrease in coefficient as the Reynolds number rises above 1 x 10<sup>5</sup>. Armstrong's critical Reynolds number at 2 x 10<sup>5</sup> is confirmed by the results of series 2 for both profile and total loss coefficients at low Mach numbers. If this figure is used as the controlling Reynolds number parameter then Ainleys data, Cheshire's results and Soderburg's relationship would all confirm an increase in losses at Above  $2 \times 10^{2}$  it Reynolds numbers below the critical value. would appear that, at low velocities, the losses are substantially constant. For example Ainley's data gives a constant loss coefficient, while Cheshire's results, in which the loss ratio curve flattens out as the Reynolds number approaches Armstrong's critical value, are not inconsistant with the losses remaining constant above 2 x  $10^5$ .

It will be noted that most of the loss coefficient results at high Reynolds numbers are obtained from tests at low Mach numbers. It has been suggested previously that a Mach number of 0.66 is a controlling parameter. Using a critical Reynolds number of  $2 \times 10^5$  and a critical Mach number of 0.66 the following conclusions are consistant with most of the above data.

1. Below a Mach number of 0.66 the controlling parameter is the Reynolds number.

- (a) below  $R_n = 2 \times 10^5$  both the profile and total loss coefficients rise. (Ainley, Armstrong, Soderburg, Cheshire, Series 2).
- (b) above R<sub>n</sub> = 2 x 10<sup>5</sup> both the profile and total loss coefficients remain substantially constant.
   (Ainley, Armstrong, Series 1, Kearton, Cheshire).

2. Above a Mach number of 0.66 and above a Reynolds number of  $2 \times 10^5$ .

(a) the total enthalpy loss coefficient & remains constant while the total head pressure loss coefficient (Y<sub>t</sub>) varies with Mach number. (Series 2).
For a constant enthalpy loss coefficient this

variation in pressure loss coefficient is expected from the relationship.

$$Y = \mathcal{E}(1 + \frac{V}{2} M^2)$$

(b) The profile enthalpy and total head pressure loss coefficients are both Mach number dependent.

#### Acknowledgments.

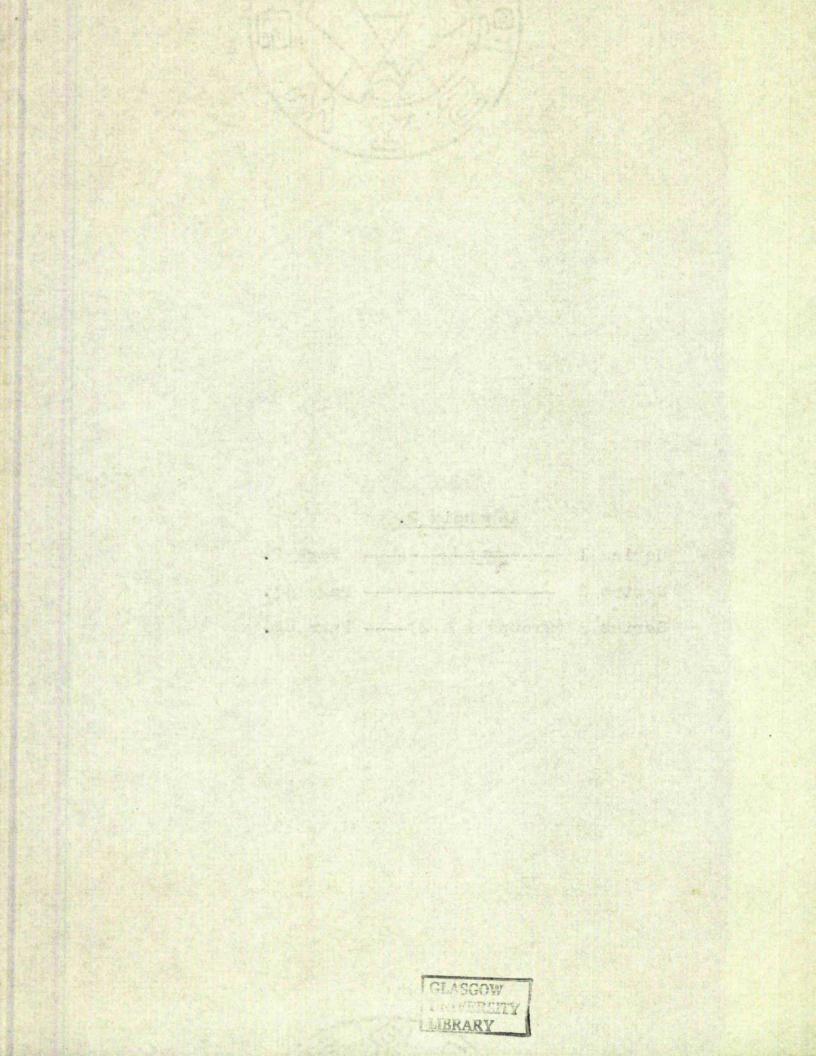
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Series	1					Page	8 2.
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Test	18	2 -	• 4
and	24	-	4A

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	Constant of the		1	1110 Inter		1					,	1	A		T-		1	1
	-			11				and the loss		1			Its/1			1	1	1
3	28.35	55	30-25	55.5	33-45	56	34-55	53	34.15	57	34.75	52	34:25	52	32.95	53	31.05	51
21	24.65	42.5	32.15	41.5	35.15	40	35.15	38.5	35-15	39.5	3515	39	35-15	39	34-25	41	32.65	4
12.	33-45	28	3495	30	35.15	30.5	35.15	31	35.15	32	35.15	32	35.15	30.5	34.75	30	\$3-55	2
12	33-65	26	34.35	26	35-15	26	36-15	27	3515	30	35-15	27.5	3545	26.5	34-45	24.5	33-55	2
-12	31.75	24	3375	25.5	35.15	25	35.15	27	35.15	27	35-15	26	35.15	25	\$4.65	23	33-35	2
-12	3.05	19.5	3525	19	35-15	19	35.15	20	35-15	20	3545	19.5	35.15	19	34.15	18.5	32-55	K
-22	2925	7	31.35	9.5	35.15	10.5	35-05	9.5	35-15	9	35.15	9	34.85	10	32-65	8	34.25	7:
-3	28.55	-3	29-55	+0.5	35-15	7.5	3485	6	3485	4.5	3485	4	3465	65	34.06	35	29+5	3.

TABLE 1 TEST 2

STATION	-	3	-2	22	-	22	-	2		1		0	1	I	2	2	-	3	3
	P3	×	p3	×	P3	ol	p,	x	P3	X	B	x	p3	×	Ps	×	Ps	x	A
	lbs/m	•	Ibs/m"	•	16g/m²		Iby "	•	they .	0	Ibelin	0	Ity.	•	1by	•	1hdin	•	los/m
2	28.6	4	29.0	4	29.0	4	30-6	4	30.6	5.5	29.8	P.5	29.3	5	28.5	5	296	24.5	29.7
12	290	2	293	2	299	2	32.5	11	32.3	7	31-5	6	30.5	3	28.6	5.5	30-2	23	30.9
1	294	0	30.2	0	31-4	9.5	33.9	16	54.5	17	36.3	16.5	33.6	14.5	54.0	9	31.1	20	32-0
te	30.2	\$.5	31.7	9	33.6	21	348	22	348	24	35.0	25	347	23-5	337	18	33-6	19.5	537
- 1/2	30.9	32	33.2	33.5	34-4	35.5	341	365	349	35.5	349	365	346	37.5	34.5	42.5	34-3	36	34.0
-12	29.3	63	31.2	63.5	33-3	59	33-4	59.5	34.6	56-5	35-0	53	35.0	52.5	34.9	52	344	53	33-4
-2	28.6	14	28.6	84	28.6	84	286	84	29.2	84	29.3	82.5	307	85	31.4	81.5	29.8	81	28.9

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A.L

Measured Flow = 20.1 galls./14 hrs.

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TABLE 1 TEST 2A

TABLE 1

TEST 3

STATION	-3	32		3	-	2	-	1		>	1		2	2	. 4	3	3	ź
	P3	æ	Ps	d.	R	d	B	×	B	d	Ps.	×	P.	×	R	X	P.	0
	to/ 2	•	lbs/m2	•	Ibe/12	•	1bs/m	0	Ibs/mª		Ibs/n	0	Its/m	0	Ibs/m	0	Ital -	
3	35.45	53	38.15	54	42:35	53	42-95	50	42.85	53	43-45	48-5	43.35	48.5	41.35	48	38.55	
22	36.65	39	40-45	365	44-05	395	44:15	38	44.15	39	64.15	38	44-05	38.5	42.55	40	40.15	4
は	38.15	26	41-65	28	4415	31	44.15	30.5	64.15	31.5	64.15	31.5	4415	31	42.85	30	39.95	2
12	38-45	23	41.85	24	44.15	27	44.15	21.5	64.15	29	44.15	28	44.15	27	43-05	25	41.25	24
-12	3935	23.5	41.95	24.5	44-5	26	44.15	27	44-15	27.5	44.15	27	44.15	26-5	4305	24	41.15	2
-12	36.75	17-	1405	19	43-95	23-5	43.95	20	4585	19.5	4395	19.5	43.85	18:5	42-45	18	40-15	1
-2'z	36.55	5	38.75	7	45-85	10.5	4375	9	43.25	T	4365	8	43-45	8.5	40-35	8.5	37.35	7
-3	3585	-2	3685	-2	4345	+6.5	4345	5	4315	3	43.36	2	43.15	5	\$1.75	2	3545	sec.

TABLE 1

TEST 3A

TATION	1 -	3		234	-7	22	-	2	-	1	. 4	2	1		2	:	3	•	3
	P3	×	P3	d	Þ3	×	ß	×	B	×	P3	~	ß	x	Ps	X	ß	x	Ps
	Ibs/n	•	Ibs/	•	1bs/	•	Ibs/	•	Iby .	0	Iby n	0	1byin	•	Italin		Itel in	•	1bs/m
2			35.4	-4.5	35:6	-4.5	37-4	+4.5	37.6	+2.5	36.5	-2.5	35.5	-6			366	+23	367
12	357	. 0	36.1	0	36:9	0	40-3	10	34.9	7.5	38.9	6	37.8	5	36.0	35	37.2	27.5	37-4
1	36-4	-15	37.3	-115	39.0	+7	42.1	16	42.3	15.5	41.8	15	41.1	14:5	38-0	8.5	38.0	22	344
12	37.4	4	39.1	9	41-9	19	43.0	81	43.2	235	43·3	24	42.9	22.5	41·3	7	41.2	19	41.7
-12	38.8	33.5	41.7	33	42.8	35	43.2	36	43-3	36	43.2	37	43.2	37	43.2	37	42.7	35	42.
-13	35.9	75	38.9	64.5	41.5	58.5	41.4	59	43·3	55.5	43.4	53.5	43-4	53	43-4	52	42.6	51	41.
-2				. 7	36-4	80	36.3	80	36-6	80	38.5	80.5	39.3	80	40.5	78.5	37.9	79	35.

Measured Flow = 25.2 galls. / 14 hrs.

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TEST H

STATION		3-4		3	-	2	-	1	0	•	1		2	2		3	3	,t
	P.	æ	R	×	P3	×	P3	×	B	×	R	a	B	×	R	×	A	~
	lbs/m2		lbs/ 2	•	Ibs/n2	0	Ibs/m	0	Its/in	•	1bs/m	.0	lbs/in	•	they	•	Ibs/m	
3			46 52	55	5112	53	52-12	50	51.82	55	52-32	51	52.32	52.5	50.12	50	46.6	
22	44-82	40	4932	37-5	53.32	40	53.42	38.5	53 02	40	53:32	40.5	53 62	39	51.62	39	48-52	4
12	47.02	27	51-12	53-5	54:32	30.5	54 N	34.5	53 92	34	54-02	32	5372	31	5242	29	50-12	2
*	4762	23.5	51.12	26	54 32	21	56:32	29	54.12	29	54.12	27.5	5402	25	52.12	25	4962	2
-2	47.92	26	51.02	25	56-12	24	56M	215	54-22	28	54.12	27.5	5392	26	52.02	245	4432	23
-12	47·11	20	50-52	20	53-92	19-5	53-92	20.5	53.92	20	5402	20	5362	18.5	5/-52	17:5	48.82	1
-21	44.52	T	4742	65	5362	10	53-52	9	5542	85	53-92	8.5	53-52	5	4992	9	15-82	7
-3	43-12	•	45.52	15	53-52	7.5	5347	4	53.12	3	53.22	35	52.92	5	47.52	+2	44.02	-

TABLE I TESTHA

STATION -3  $-2\frac{3}{4}$   $-2\frac{1}{2}$  -2 -1 0 1 2 3  $P_3 \sim P_3 \propto P_3 \propto P_3 \propto P_3 \propto P_3 \ll P_3 \propto P_3 \propto P_3 \propto P_3 \propto P_3 \sim P_3$  $Ibs'_{1n} \circ Ibs'_{1n} \circ Ibs'_{1$ 

Measured Flow = 31.5 galls. / 14 hrs.

	+ ++								mining
34	4	-1660	189.	PPP:	66L:	.113	199.	344	./83
	ala	206.	Lss.	\$34	-134	\$39	925.	-926	.960
0	4	·716	113	ISP-	306.	076.	ILS.	289.	1000
	ala	· 711- 058.	818	805	-813	Leg.	.\$20	LS&	106.
5	4	283	0.1	0.j	1-0	0.1	0.1	556.	076.
	R 4 R 4 R 4	118.	-14° 1.0 .796 1.0 .796 1.0 .796 1.0 .796 1.0 .818 813 .857 .687	1941. 254. 124. 208 0.1 941. 0.1 941. 0.1 941. 0.1 941.	662. 128. 306. 218. 0.1 962. 0.1 962. 0.1 962.	ELL: 658 076. Lef. 0.1 966. 0.1 966. 0.1 966. 0.1 966. 0.1 966.	Log. 038. 128. 028. 0.1 966. 0.1 966. 0.1 966. 0.1 966. 0.1 966.	175. 128. 189. 128. 556. 108. 0.1 961. 0.1 962. 585. 661.	-796. 1.0 . Bay. 955. 804. 955. 804. 956. 807. 9440. 901. 1660. 983.
	た	156.	6.1	0.j	6.	0.1	0-1	0./	956
	ala	.80S	JPT-	96L.	96L.	SPT.	96L.	gbl.	708.
	¥	ILS.	6.1	0-1	0-1	0./	0.1	1.0	.955
J	ala	018.	9bL.	96L.	96L:	APT.	96L.	apt.	108.
	4	heb.	9	0.1	0-)	0.1	0.1	586.	455
	ala	019.	gol.	96L.	92.	96L.	9bl.	PPT-	798.
5	<u><u><u></u></u><u><u></u><u><u></u><u><u></u></u><u><u></u><u><u></u></u><u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u><u></u></u></u></u></u></u>	ERL.	0-1	0.1 962.	966. 0.1 96L.	0./	1.0	0-1 9bL.	0.1
1	ala	-837	962.	9bL:	.796	962.	%L.	96L.	JPF.
-3	¥	יזעע	919.	-973	PP3.	. 021.	156.	.505.	972.
	ala	97.6.	018.	108.	-815		208.	-843	Lnb.
-34	4	175. 216. 290. 986.	919. 028. 252. Jub.	ELD. 188. 881. LES.	832 .810	·560 ·630	156. 208. 0917. 20b.	505. 868. 201. L96.	180.
1	مام	986.	sup.	L28.	-832	188.	206.	196.	186.
STATION		3	24	13-	-12	-12	-12	-21	9n7. L716. 180. 186. E-

TABLE 2 2 TEST TEST 2ª TABLE 2

34	4	.235	Say.	-560	£81.	\$28	sol.	oj!
	ak	914-	-413	128.	137	628.	יצרות	916
	4	912.	305	.435	nll	T 28.	1123	.250
3	ala	.453	434	Lob.	\$39	.823	120	97
	4	160.	\$ 90.	.420	28L	12	.935	307
~	ala	086.	926.	910	837	818	709.	868.
	R         R	-922 . 361 . 921 . 361 . 946 . 150 . 963 . 169 . 980 . 091 . 953 . 216 . 944 . 235	346	th.	die .424 Bis .924 .866 .946 .813 .909 .837 .783 .839 .774 .837 .783	810 .924 858 935 . 108 . 818 818 818 . 823 . 853 . 857 818 . 125	976.	011. 912 . 125 . 973 . 121 . 312 . 312 . 312 . 312 . 300 . 120 . 319 . 319 . 310
-	AR	-963	Stb.	.639	518.	512	908.	919-
	4	.250	161.	158.	946.	935	976.	691.
0	20	aut	568.	\$18.	806	305.	806	963
	4	.361	209	Lss.	nap.	435	899	./55
-	ala	126.	\$15	813	816	200	\$12	995
~	4	.361	929.	810	126.	nzb.	30%	590
ĩ	20	126.	198	832	010	810	\$78	986.
	4		192.	817	The the		732	590.
-21	ala	£19.	9u3	\$68.	839	028.	1718.	186
-2		421. ETP. 2513 .124 .975 . 224	à	-95- 128 527. Lob. 027. 016. HLL: 628. 282. 813. 821. 813. 821. 918. 502. 92. 92. 18. 610. 120. 302. 92. 92. 92.	015.	111:	120	590
ĩ	R 4 R 4	.973	5963	-93u	•68.	673.	· 20%	126.
3	4	590.	421.	121	345	507.	691.	590.
13	ala	986.	507. 516. 505. 156. 510. 926. DE. 516. 167. 568. 209. 518. 929. 192. 516. 691. 596. 421. ELb.	959	421. 305 .896 .520 .839 .774	128. 028. 222. 608. 507. E16.	376. 118. 128. 071. 586. 201. 976. 908. 976. 908. 908. 668 SIS. 271. 778. 282. 279. 057. 706. 691. 896.	590. 786. 590. 926. 590. 926.
STATION		2	-101	-	-103	-119	- 12	2-

		-	~			4	~		
34	4	ינוו	185.	195.	tot.	.69.	Se .	512.	10].
	ala	116.	71.8.	098.	.853	\$\$ <b>§</b> .	91.8.	Int:	116.
~	4	91L.	0778.	128.	101. 828. 888. 118.	888.	835	219.	.435
	R 4 R 4	912. 058.	978.	1961 1.0 .796 1.0 .796 1.0 .820 .871 .880 .567	Lis.	118.	Lug.	1128.	Lob.
63	4	026.	886.	0.	0.1 966: 0.1 966: 0.1 966: 0.1 966.	0.1	996-	-930	662.
.4	a a	118.	Spl:	96L.	96L:	962.	208.	608.	518.
	4	-809 -930 -811	0-1	0-)	0.1	0.1	TTP-	оль.	026.
	R 4	P08.	96L.	96L.	9bL.	96L.	008.	108.	118.
0	1 R 4	118. 018. J	0-1	0.]	1.0	0.1	996.	606.	663.
v	ala	018.	9bL:	9bL.	96L.	96L.	108.	813	518.
-	4	283.	0.1	0.]	0.]	0-1	ATT	956	-930
1	ala	318.	96L.	0.1 966:		962.	008.	108.	608.
2	2 2 4	288. 818. 528. 628.	Las. 718. 078. 978. 886. 862. 0-1 962. 0-1 962. 0-1 962. 886. 862.	0.1 962. ENL. 248. 198. 126.	0.1 9bL.	769. 558 888. LID. 0.1 962. 0.1 962. 0.1 962. 0.1 962. 0.1 962.	LLP.	802 . 966 . 804 . 956 . 813 . 909 . 807 . 940 . 809 . 930 . 871 . 612 . 941 . 273	101. 16. 527. Lob. 662. 518. 026. 118. 662. 518. 026. 608. 076. Los.
1	2/2	\$29	Spl.	9bL.	962.	962.	800	208.	Log.
3	4		n19.	.Ju3	LgL.				
-3	a  a	129.	698.	578.	078.	828.	878.	Lob.	nsb.
-34	t	798. 128. Juo. 198.	-960 -183 -869 -624	367	L96. 078. 527. 800.	\$16. 828. 202. Eps.	LIL. 808. 527. Lob.	587. Lob. HLI. 196.	160.
1	2/2	166.	096.	126.	506.	268.	Lob.	196.	117. 756. 160. 086.
STATION		8	24	-1-1	-102	-113	11	-2-	-3

TEST 3 TABLE 2

-2 -2 -

TEST 30 TABLE 2

34	4	.193	335	510	Sur.	620	Bur.	590.
9	حاط	ISP.	828.	268.	ותני	958.	3778	586.
	4	LU	253	348	169	\$50	9778	335
3	حراج	-961 -177 -958 -193	gus	526.	\$58	Pr4	856	828
50	4		(10	348	206	903	424	. 929
63	ala		. 916	. 576	. 198	- 11	510 .	690. 586. 528. 826. 929. 898. 107. 568. 507. 816. LLI. 196. 810. 966.
	R 1 R 1 R 1 R 1 R 1 R 1 R 1 R 1 R 1 R 1	570	\$22 . 189 600 . 190 . 100 . 315 . 315 . 316 . 100 . 942 189 . 335	835 . 794 . 830 . 820 . 821 . 162 . 823 . 682 . 925 . 348 . 892 . 510	812 MAS 269 . 358. 902. 198. 118. 018. 316. 218. 405. 418. 18. 288. 118.	903	876. 178 078. 928. 426. 018. 726. 018. 726. 018. 516. 218. 226. 678.	. 107
-	ala	. 056	. 930	1. 1.58	018	Bru	\$10	895
	4	-940 .275 .935 .300 .964 .165 .990 .045	057	192	316	903	424	. Sol
0	<u>a</u>  a	. 196	404	178	. 218	814	Pro .	913
	4	300	- 195	820	903	Sile.	grs .	. [1]
1-	ala	935	185	830	518	218	218	. 195
0	4	511	606	hbL	. 288	903	. 222	810
-2	01/07	. onb-	. 218.	835 .	118	718	. 6ng	. 966
				460 .			132 .	
-22	A - R 4	993 .053 .988 .055	953	155 .943 .262 .901 .460	839	098 228. 876 ANS. 0117. 90b.	. 128	993 .033
tim	4.	033	(20	. 292	. 697	. 871	150	
-24	ala	. 299	· 116	943	. 006	. 178	+ hob	
~			. 690.	155	27S .	לורים י	860	
1	Per H		912. 569 .974 120 .953 .216	. 996.	460 .275 . 900 . 669 . 839 . 004	. 906	282. Log. 027. 406. 800 626.	
STATION		2	121	-	-102	-109	-122	-2-

an in

34	4	.335	-Sto	819	543	185.	ons.	259	\$10.
~	ala	128-	168.	198.	S18.	FT8.	92.	-944	536-
	R 1 R	jng.	TLL:	9778-	620	.810	thel:	.636	Sit.
63	ala	398.	.839	\$18.	\$30	123	.835	998.	116.
			015. 168. MLL. 628. 0Mb. Log. SID. 218. Mbs. 918. 996. 208. 516. 218.	379 198 978 528 056 508 016 108 996 208 836 861 01 966	278. 058. 059. 978. 500 .978. 501 .970 .830 .820 .875	125. LLS. 018. 283. 996. 208. 846. 008 886. 866. 866. 866. 866. 866. 008.	075. 928. 766. 528. 0716. Log. 016. 108. 996. 208. 996. 208. 996. 208.	807 .9440 809 .920 .910 .924 .801 .946 .809 .930 .866 .636 .944 259	\$20. 536. 517. 116. 828. LIB. 505. 718. 668. 518. 076. Log. 086. 603.
2	ak	128.	108.	508.	109	208.	Log.	608.	118.
	1 R 4	.735	315	016.	8Lb.	\$2.6-	01P	996.	-903
-	212	128.	218.	103.	800	600	108.	108.	1118.
	4	tel:	168.	996.	816.	286	996.	126.	568.
0	ala	.835	918.	208.	008.	86L.	108.	018.	518.
-	4	120	996.	836.	1.0	\$86.	996.	.930	onb.
ī	2/2	.830	208.	86L.	96L.	862.	208.	608.	Log.
0	$\frac{R}{R_3} \hbar \frac{R}{R_3} \hbar \frac{R}{R} \hbar \frac{R}{R_3} \hbar \frac{R}{R_3}$	·736	316.	0.1	0.1 962.	82.6.	996.	076.	.930
-2	212	9178.	218.	9bl.	96L.	008.	tos.	Log.	608.
3	4	315	thas .			LzL.	189.	517.	
-3	R 4	320 325	118.	9178.	gng.	858.	958	606.	.950
-34.	¥		483 .078 .877 .584	922. 9118. 175. 029.	952. 9ng. 927. 606.	LIL. 878. 0977.	139. 958. 062.	\$10.	082 .069 .950 .230
1	2/2		.983	026.	606.	106.	916.	-913	586.
STATION		3	54	-114	-1/2	-112	-1	5277 . 908 . 910 . 816 . 27-	-3

TEST 4 TABLE 2

-17	4	.216	357	Las.	008.	.730	022.	120.
34	2/2	-455	516.	91.8.	.834	\$28.	.853	566.
	R A R A	202.	292.	-u59	681.	198	.830	522
3	arlan	12. 528. Joz. 958.	LSE. 576. 292. 500. 690. 536. 822. 126. 057. 706. 815. 818. 815. 818.	1833 .804 .827 .801 .831 .814 .841 .759 .910 .416 .405 .728 +925 .	816 .846 .809 .920 .814 .904 .810 .924 .800 .767 .836 .836 .836 .800	·810 .924 .809 .930 .809 .930 .810 .924 .817 .915 .915 .821 .821 .820	867 632 816 816 896 935 806 944 806 944 806 944 828 820 853 720	180. 866. 522. 156 MAS. 588. 001. MID. 198. 126. 181. 126.
3	4		690-	617.	Lar.	SIP	aup.	Suu
	ala		586.	016.	0778.	218.	908.	588.
	R 4 R 4 R 4 R 4 R 4 R 4 R 4	110.	.338	65L.	426.	126.	9776.	0017.
	ala	<b>LPP</b> .	Ltb.	278.	.816	018.	806	-11
	4	ナレー・	057.	718.	hob.	.930	.935	367
0	ala	296.	796.	.831	118.	808.	80%	126.
1	4	015.	91.5	198.	930	.930	168.	137
1	ala	526.	828.	228.	608.	608	918.	126.
-2	4	410. Lbb. +L1. 296. 018. 526. 102. LEb.	578	708.	968.	126.	129.	
1	ala	-937	818.	.833	918.	.810	198.	
-24	4	170.	591.			123.	865.	
1	ala	170. 166.	196.	088.	.833	078.	+L8.	'
-23	4	410. Lbb	160.	.329	the.	PST.	.310	
i	R 4 B 4	Lbb.	086.	626.	588.	278.	.933	
-3	4		591. 596. 160. 086. 1710.	960 183 929 329 880 561	431 .320 .885 .544 .833 .804	028. P27. 528. 112. 118.	428. 018. 828. 420. 566.	
1	arlan		166.	096.	186.	216.	395	
STATION		5	-102	-	-163	-102	- <u>1</u> -1	7-

2 TABLE 42 TEST

for this the for this day for the for A' Suine fide A' Sive fide 1 326 1 .934 317 2 .817 .276 2 -255 -819 2 -587 824 2 - 186 829 2 -912 799 2 .934 -108 2 976 -788 2 .941 -188 2 .941 -188 2 .646 2 .679 804 2 1 · 643 34 1 · 623 34 1 · 636 34 1 · 629 3 1 · 629 3 1 · 628 3 · 944 7 512 1 . 970 . 391 1 180 .375 1 38.070 2 .970 .113 2 .679 .061 2 .128 .061 4 -133 ·230 10075 .204 ./60 -156 24 apr 176 - 2 1216 - 129 - 2 171 - 370 - 2 120 -412. 101 1772. See 1 103. ·423 1003 -189 1-012 -163 820. 580, 1245 [10] \$ 10, 1275 -038 -028 900- 55%-1 1.039 35 111. 10.1 1.21. 587- 768. 2 005. 926. 1 805. Los 163 - 2 817. 456. 1 933 1-0112 . 363 1-004 . 383 1-007 . 394 1-003 . 384 1-006 . 369 1-615 -167 1-029 110.1 361. 1.227 900-1 227. 500/ 917--326 1.007 2.7265 2 --122. -530 1 -334 / 1 197-1 857. .530 .435 -472 197-2.771 = 18.1425 342 2 951. 1 -530 / LLT. 2 blo. 26. 2 50. 216. 15h. 2.853 .530 1 205. 1 457. 1 278. 1 .500 LII 0 5 Hi Sind. Ida 2.790 182 34 . 1992 165 34 157. 1 .342 .1365 1.001 .123 8977-·515 1 1 hsn 1 -347 1 SIS. tisn-1 757 1 ī TEST 130 1 1877. -548 1 1 827. .423 1 725. .326 1 \$57. 2.7415 508 .438 1.050 .050 1.036 .117 -203 -674 34 -785 -443 2 1 087. 906. 2 Lon. 67L. 2 005. L86. 2 0L7. 989. 1.0115 .206 1.0015 .246 · 151. 616. 2 187. 006. 1.0235 .149 1.00ps -193 679 334 1 .871 .326 1 & SII. IL & 221. SNN. 12 600. 567. 17 150. LbZ. 101. 2001 201 10-1 Eno. 220.1 5610. 5200/ 071. 510 011. 220] 1610 -123 (-050 -191 100. ho.1 thoo. sho.1 1.138 0.8565 -34 STATION -11 オー 2-12 -3 W 3

TABLE

	34	aby x	6 76 32	1 74	376	mpo r	s miles	194	132	1 10	059	\$87	
	3	the hise the At Dive the At Six the At Six the At Six the At Six the	401 +16 2 500 148 2 .711 .067 2 .302 .067 2 .146 .445 3/4 .485 .36 3/4	2050. 1801 590. [201 210. 501 510. 580. 7 501 200. [201 970. 120.] 24 187. 189. 92 16: 255. 7 100. 557. 3 250. 065. 7 501. 201. 7 10. 941.	925 299 2 138 1.008 131 1.012 1.09 1.031 .043 1.03 .070 1.02 .058	\$ 515 m3. \$ n55. 028 1 boz. 288. 1 bbz. n5b. 1 50n. 21b. 1 bn. 295.	\$ 1/5. 606. \$ 385 526 / 9/27 076. / 607. 676. / 505. 99/6. / 185. 996. \$ 1/5. 606. \$ 385 526 / 9/27 076. / 607. 676. / 505. 99/6. / 185. 996.	1003 560 1003 574 1005 574 1006 630 1006 530 1008 345 100 1909 194	13 .	22 446. 255. 91 286. 005. 7 626. 209. 7 Edd. E19. 7 166. 117. 7 506. 465.	650. Loai 601. 401	0.6485	
12	-	the the	5 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	5 1.	5 · 1 02	540	2 690	1 201	31 14	16.	4 1		
	ŝ	the se	SW.	195.	175.	-334	885	·799	2.	186.	,7/-	1.103	
	1	is the	270-1	1.03	-1-03	800	210-1	800-1 Kb.	1.007	00 <u>5</u> .			
		Surger for	1 19	1 20	1 75	1 60	1 91	·630	379	23 6	1.028 .334	65	
	2	At Sa HV A	870	50. 552	6-48 - 15 031	5. 98	10 4	900	003	6. 24	028	1.6865	
		著業は	-14 [	-12 10	-14 5	\$ 1		4	3	-14		~	
1	-	Ei.	0. h	10. 3	120	992	P03.	5 .5 T	. 31	546.	1.033 .295	1.773	
m		a fi	וחון	590	v81.	hsb.	-949	1.00.1	100	.613			
U	0	the site	18 1 .036	2 So	131	A3 /	1 St	574	.386	191 2	561.	1.768	90
TABLE	v	4 4 4 4	1. of	I tol	\$29 . \$00.	1. 24	-003 996	· 200.	[00]	5- 117	the	Li	0.90
F		tel de	-12 27	te 41-	34 41-		01-	3-11	8	-12	561. hnol 881. Snol	S	u
. 4	ī	1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1	87. 1	221. K	1 8	2	1	3 .5	5 .3	566. 4	5	1.753	f v
20		21D. ~					2. 9.	00-1 0 -9/c				10	¥ 2.
TEST	2-	tix f	510.	191 3	560. 10.1 \$ h87. 006.	375 3	· 12 565. 296 & 185. 186. 1	852 1557 76 864 862 3	1.014 .136 1.013 .275	2 564. 225. 32 545. 552.	160. 50.1	1.2285	$\sum H^{\frac{1}{2}} Sin = \frac{fda}{fv} = 10.906$
		4,4 + 4	109	· 16.	· 006.	. 296.	- 296-	100-1 100-1	1-013	. 557.	50-1	÷	Zt
	- 100	ix the	19 100 19 NO	03 16 Ju	319	mps (	- mpo	107	36	10		00	
	-2:	i kin	010. 10	20. 92	92 591. 26.1 92 591. 26.1	0 .35	·	100) .201 857 .157 36	1. 5	5-66-5	5	0.528	
		de A	1 :35	10. 10	5 0	1 .88	÷ ÷	0.00	-		0.] 0		
	-23	lix t	010.	550-	000.	151	-017	S11-	ilo.	565	.030	0.2505	
		. H	-357	וווק.	155.	ह	- 958-	\$10-1 \$10-1	1.029	. 557.	500. 201 0ED. Sol	0	
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5 TABLE 2

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+ /2	d"	-1 20555	SMS	2755 12	28-85 21	8695 34	50 28-4549	Sort	MLS	
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0	a	21-15	2405 45 2MS	2725 11	8/ SL-\$2	2945 33	28-62	SOLI	2415 8 2 2415 8 1	
2	8	0	-	6		33	50	74	82	
- 12	ď	21-75	23.8	21.15	2845 14	St-62	Bets	34.45	2295	
	5	x	0			32	51	72	78.5	
T	dr D	23.35	35.42	2745 10	287516	28-85	SWE	SEL	2015 78:5 2295 82	
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	d.	20-65	2425 H4	2605 14	2805/8	2	ZTANS	415	ST 2542	
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-1/2	b,	O Mos	O M45	20.02	23:35 15	SHIZ	21455	29.02	<b>M35 80</b>	
-13/4	8		0	-	0	25	55	74	18	
1-	a	18-45	28.41	1925 -1	2045	MK 25 2H529 8 5332 28 53 24 33	218555 2455 51 274550 2745 51 2855 50	9.5	18 45 81	
STATIONS		1/2		1/2			2-	-2 1 Bris 74 2005 76 2415 72 2255 7 2 24 16 74 2705 73 2705 71	-2%	

MACH. No. 9 TEST No :- 5a

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P=30 LB/IN2 Ab .

BAROMETRIC PRESS - 14.38.46/M2

ar.

TEMP. -

1838 LB/IN2Ab.

30 LB/IN2AD. "d MACH No.

6.0

S

TEST No :-

40 150 Sol. Are. 381 21 AS . 38 5 . 5 5 2 838 808 337.92 28/2· 574837 684 847 357 973 3% dam S S S 260. 156 769 516- 112. 805 149. 982 02. 112. 02. 116 660. 156 766 27-141 229-124 260. 111: 80E 29%. CIT 907. 799. 213 æ 3 724 889. 957 2 m 58-566-755 592 845 362 977 130 495 1.0 JE. 979. 58 76-269. 19/2 3 219. 5/9. 22. 2 dr 16.22 183 18. 199. SL 9 829. 6/2 1.0 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 2/9 2/0 819. 29/500 de 679. -615 995 6/2 " " 10.1 208 40 10 4 0. 0 0 219 2/2 2/9 -6/2 2/9 20m 223 676 -802 676 C .! . Sel. h 54. 0 0.1 0.1 6.1 6/2 1.0 1 2/9 589.186 6/2 00 219 2/6 120 21 20m 5 0-1 995 0.1 0.1 20 3000 0.1 519. 3 755 5/2 944 512 619. 219. 4464 3/9. 446-617 672 -815 836 926 -612 189.589. 1 04. 277 756 59 266 833 306 632 -94 (#2) S 631 808 58. .72 555 668 827 62 20m 1 189. (A) 1-88 306 :756 3/1. He 200 605.667.83 -34 5 - An 898 Shi 1007. 296-775-541 667 S 578 588-550. 101-211- 846-130. 90. ~ S -32 Ell. LL. SLi 2651745 316.88 953 anom 5 TTC-262 . ~ -33/4 -S 5 Sop-LLL. 746. \$73 1988-388 88 dem 5 S 5 STATIONS with 44--n -50 m -+ 3 0 3 3 1 1 1

Lo CS. 20. 737 515 618-613-813 ator 361 136 497 941 41/2 TEMP.380 5 1842 653 872 732 652 873 293 989 v 887 167. 207. 83 TU. 688. 5 975 05 935 141 757 590 697 742 771 552 763 572 761 576 783 518 872 296 245 116 935 141 817 431 749 62 127 798 679 795 824 44 979 052 136 926 65 882 659 854 673 812 at the 4/4 .677 798 686 766 804 #66 804 466 504 466 73 658 699 BAROMETRIC PRESS = 14-38 LOVIN' 41 83 677 798 444 839 WERE B B B 4 3/2 P3=1838 LB/IN2 Ab 136 926 65 88 275 761 576 522 47 702 73 618 796 679 795 667 83 65 822 648 89 3 1475 -761 576 -745 617 -681 788 -694 75 761 576-676 80 644 902-636 926-63 946 63 946 63 946 -435 93 -631 926 439 -92 1.635.93 1.635.93 236 926 139 13 13 139 92 ater apr noto 1000 273 812 467 83 84 372 692 756 669 825 664 838 636 926 635 93 635 93 1/2 P=30 LB/IN2 AD ap --45 898 639 92 0 apr 865 265 705 762 464 838 705 73 22 MACH. No. 9 ł 995 008 949 11 665 313 389 255 3 d'a 139 92 orbr 1 die 87 -11/4 apr -654 B & B & 15. 982 55 589 389 -1/2 TEST No :- 5a 954 1/0 -2 12 954 10 -134 -24 STATIONS 1/2 1 Cre -1/2 0

Test No :- 6

MACH No. -97

R =32.5 LB/IN<sup>2</sup>Ab.

TEND -BAROMETRIC PRESS - 14.3 P. 18.3 LB/MªAb. TEMP

	Contraction of the	-	1 1	A state	1	-	-	-	16 days	-	-
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Ŷ	×	8				r	M524	66	2	1	
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1.1498

TEST No :- 6

MACH No. '97

7.7 2.512/m24h

BAROMETRIC PRESS - 14-3.

101-12

3 - S - S			_	,		•		134				
°r.	-154	ま	• •	S.c	Lor:	375	57	68.	.25	125	S	s.
40	25	Pr 13	S	S	28.	183 -314	tst:	806	178.	A.P.	S	S
TEMP	3	AP -	52%	.377	665 .722 .82	762	11:		54	375	90	90.
	- ,	P3	-933	-876 -813 -377	665	643	645	948 682 681	州北	-314	30/296	196
Ab.		48	375 -933	.876	86.	991 647	iht.	846.	sthe.	986.	15%.	582 945 967
LB/IN <sup>2</sup> Ab.	7	P.	-814	406	.57	566	925.	581	945 582	563	58	582
		(#)	85.	38	-#	-	!	166	345	-	96	96.
b2= 18.3	`	the second	724	57	564	775.	564	925.	565	105	577	642 798 571
å.	0	2	-807 724	1		-		-	-		848	80%
		2ª	792.631	-St	564	564	564	564	flit	105	117	·42
	1	42		-	-		-		-	-	135	46.
4 <sup>2</sup> Ab		den	.137	544	-564	544	54		544	els.	991 556	58+
8/14		A A	.59	581.947 -544		-	-	1 66.	166-	-	164.	985
32.5LB/IN <sup>2</sup> Ab.	2	12 st	72	581	564	Set	· 564	995.	295.	195.	.566	.568
D = 3	3	R	34.	812	347	\$55	375	305	387	845	37	30
-		dem	361 778	629	185.	986579	212-128	596	602	1.12	-816	849
	34	190	361	829 hol:	:73	998.	168.	82	批	:557 b/	/3/	348 295
	-3	20m	C8. 40.		626	19.	598	\$26	656	al.	.93	348
	-12	*	40.	201.	2029-50th	:731 5 lat	674	Cot 2	949	325	Chel.	5
	1	100	.978	C46.	.80	:73/	235 685 474 548	577 642	SUL	-88-	474.	S
	- 3 3/4	(the)	S	S	770.	241	S87.	33	125	101	5	S
		z)am	S	S	426.	826.	88.	.839	<b>3</b> 33	546.	S	5
	STATIONS	3.00	23/4	21	2	-	0	1-	-2	-3	-4-	-4-

L.

TEMP.380 BAROMETRIC PRESS = 14-25 LB/INT

P=32.5 LB/IN2 AD

MACH No . 97

TEST No :- 60

P\_=183 LB/IN2 Ab.

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M	-44		-+		-3		-2		-		0		-		2		2%		24				STATION	
.174	1		X				1.046 .0298	21 103 309 25	1042 .0426	474 315 25	1.046 .0305	103 317 25	1.047 .032	374 358 25	105 .0378	3 707 187	X				Performent Af	22 Sind Jda	-3%	
-365		100-013	1000000101	312 087 156	1.04 .0117	519 179 25	1.034 .0459	6/5 309 25	1.028 -0435	695 375 25	1.028 .073	695 431 25	1.028 .0 796	695 970 25	1:04 066	5/9 707 187	7620. 940.1	403 819 .094			of JV 1245in fria	43	-3 13	
.573	185 .00266	3 450 063	145 .00537	414 087 156 -616	1.42 .0187	6/8 174 25	1017 -065	834 317 25	1.01 .0864	911 363 25	100 .0935	52 Kt 88	1006 -1253	-95 530 25	1018 .1072	826 70 7 187	103 0591	79 819 044			fv 1125ad fa	12 Sind J da	-314	
1.688	1:036 00+24	54 002 151	1-234	616 0 39	1.013 .113	-88 205 425	5261. 900.1	95 326 425	1002 2575	-99% MS 625	1.000 .273	1 438 625	1000 .339	1 545625	1007 .31	94 707 97	1022 -145	775 819 234	1.047 .0528	377 94 156	fv 12 Sind Fa	1/2 Sind face	-3	
2.955	54610- 004	1 # 25	8	1 122 625	191 00/	1 161 1	100 .326	1 326 1	1.00 .431	1 431 1	1000 .477	1 477 1	100 529	1 530 1	1:00 .511	1 482 75	1:006 .281	95 793 375	1.04 .112	5 934 25	FV 12 Sind Fda	1/2 Sind Jan	-2	
2.929	100 .0175	1 405 25	100 .0656	1 105 625	161. 02/	1 191 1	100 .342	1 342 1	1:00 431	1 1491 1	1.000 .492	1 492 1	2. dan/	151	1940 .491	1 466 75	1004 .256	966 719 375	1021 -142	\$ 906 25	Poly and File AS	the Sind for	-1	
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	501	3 094 156	1:04 -0172	625 522 139 39	1.042 .03518	48 122 625	103 .132	867 326 625	1028 -1822	431 625	8112. 81118	5 625	/20 -3335	537 625-	1031 .2199	549 743 47	1031 -1071	177 375 567 839 234			JV 1/2 Sung Side	1/2 Sinai fda	3	
-245	1		1.05 .0062	3 139 156	1010. 8401	1 142	1242 .0304	-112 309 25	104 .0539	32/ 43/ 25	1-244 .0304	434 192 25	1.03 .066	566 45 25	1-25/ .0342	259 143 187	100 01+62	2 819 094			SV 12 Sind Fas	this sead fac	34	

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tor.	10-1	-20	•		115 763	102	454 394	-			1000	è	2			1	一種	1	1	S	Fr		and the second second
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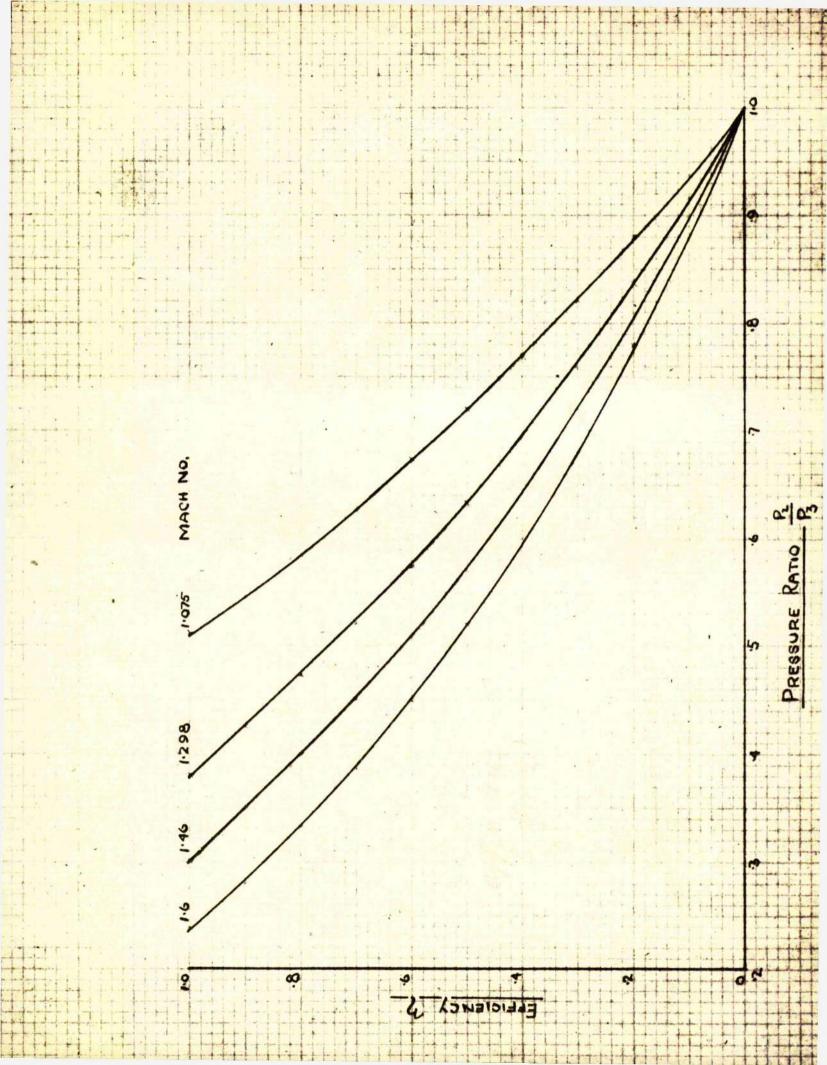
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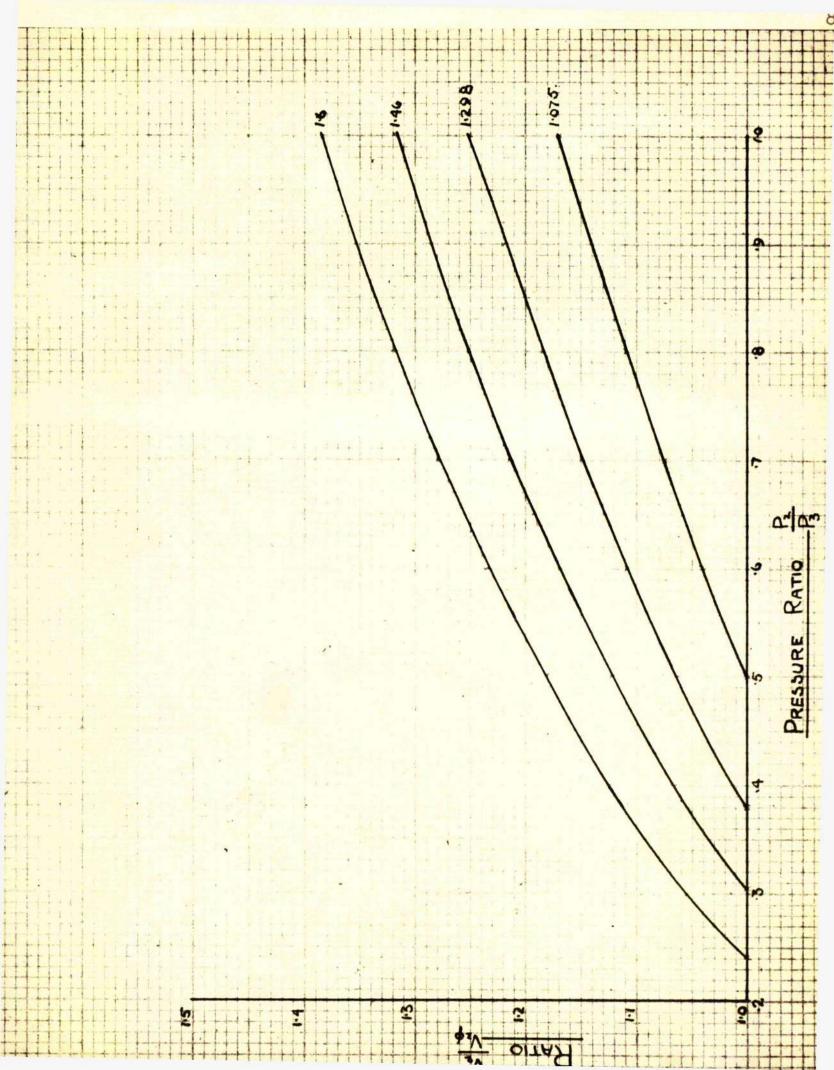
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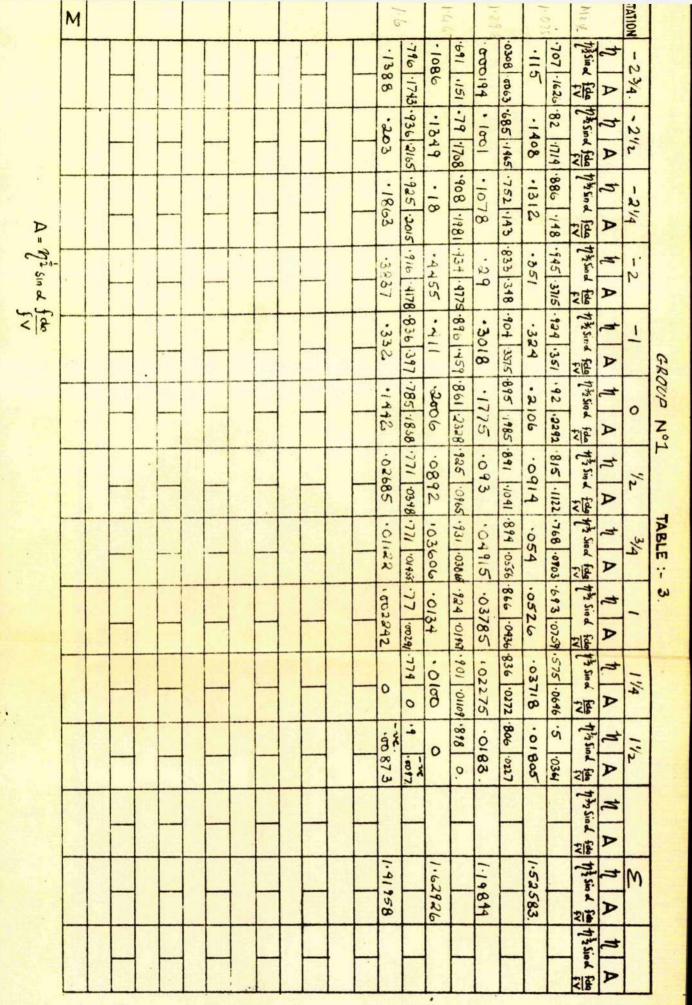
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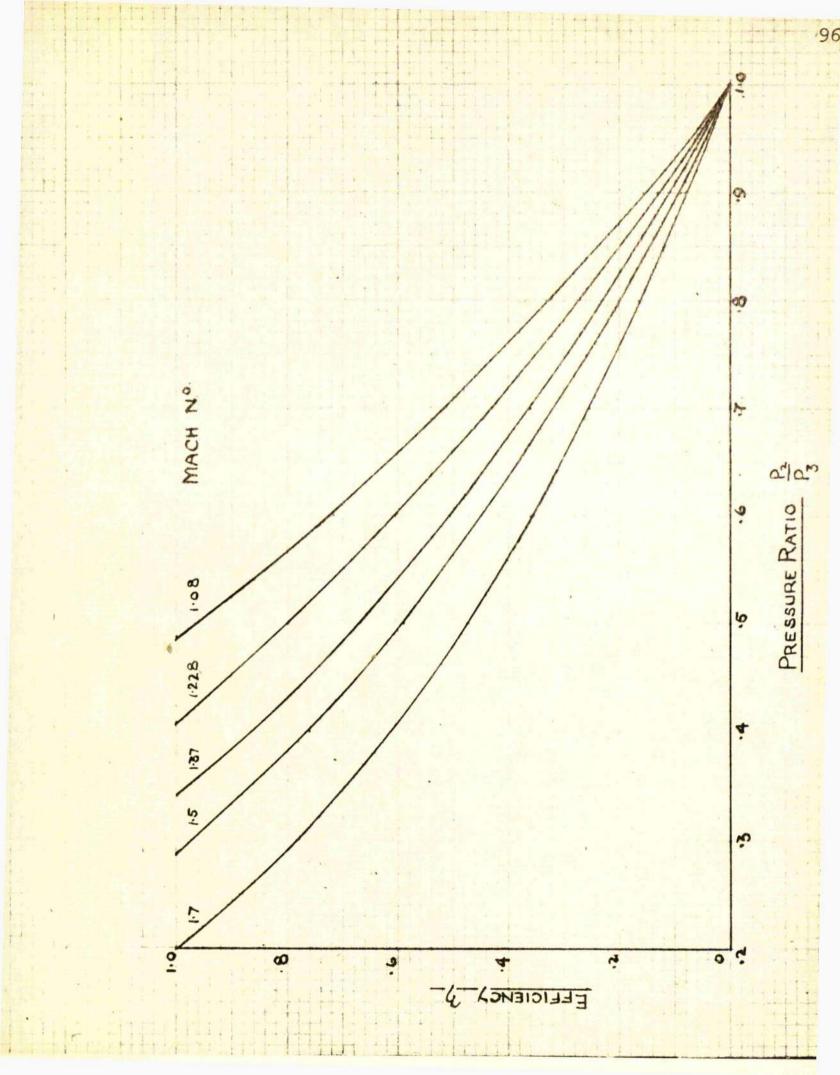
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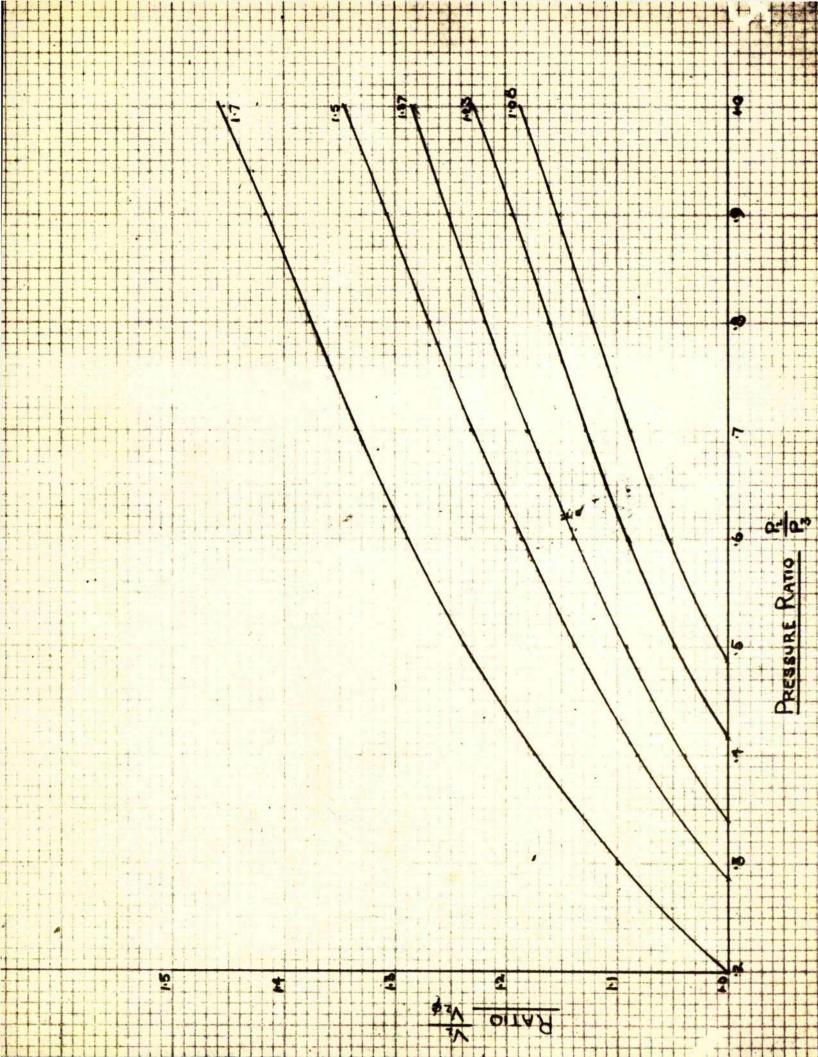
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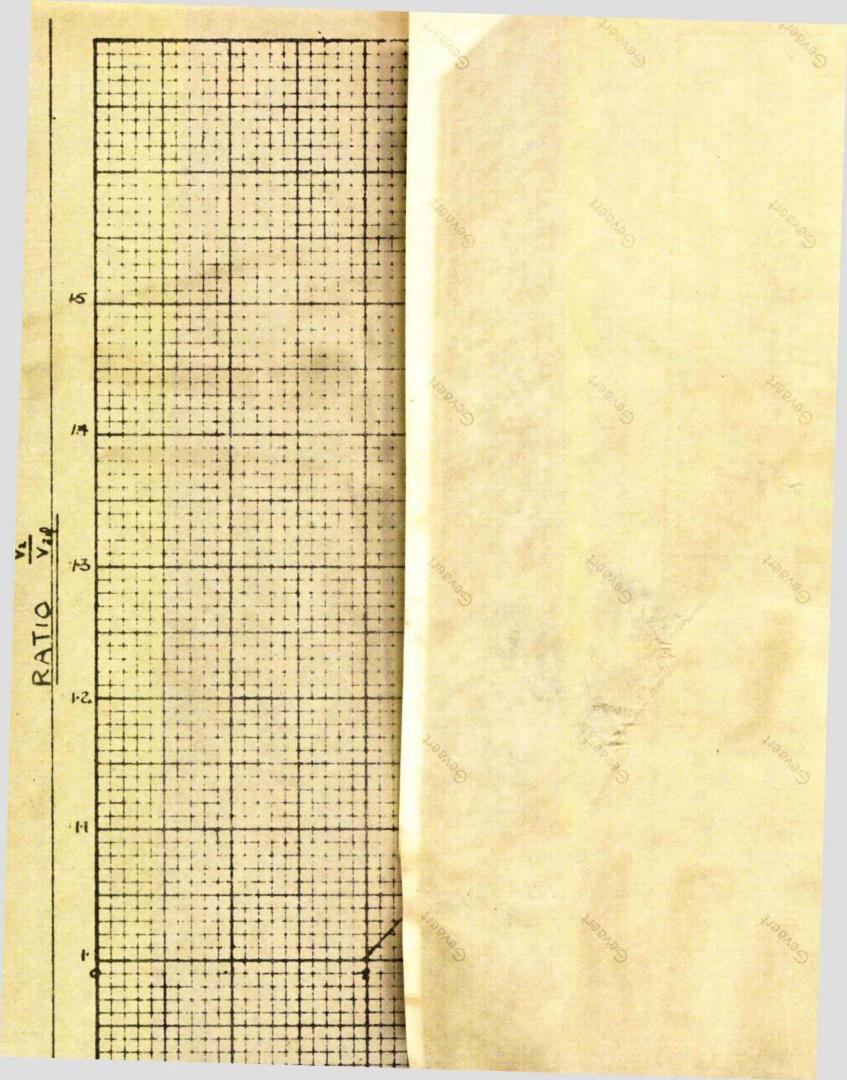
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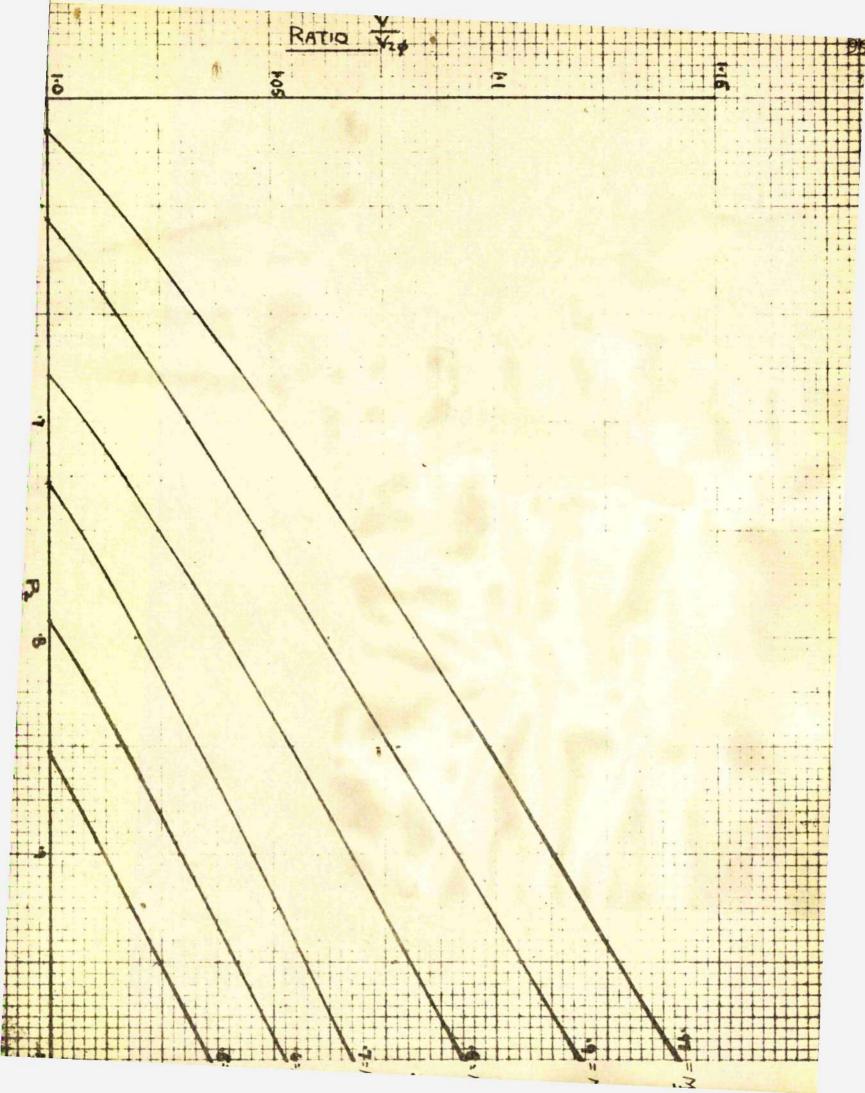
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