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Study of Induced EHD Flow by Microplasma Vortex Generator

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Abstract—For flow control, plasma actuators have the advantages of no moving parts. An experimental study was carried out to generate vortices using a microplasma actuator. Also, a 3-D numerical simulation code was developed to calculate the flow generated by the microplasma actuator. The numerical simulation used the Suzen–Huang model coupled with Navier–Stokes equations. Our microplasma actuator has a thin dielectric layer with a thickness of 25 μm between the grounded and high-voltage energized electrodes, which enables to drive our device at less than 1 kV. The high-voltage and grounded electrodes have both holes. In the series of experiments, an ac voltage with an amplitude 1 kV and a frequency of 20 kHz was applied to the electrode. The induced flow was visualized using an Nd: YVO₄ 532-nm laser, and the flow velocity was measured using the particle tracking velocimetry (PTV) method. Incense smoke was utilized as a tracer particle. The electrohydrodynamic (EHD) flow was induced around the holes of high-voltage electrode, thus vortices appeared above these holes. In order to study the basic phenomena of the flow, one and four holes were isolated from the electrode; thus, the phenomena could be observed in a simplified version of the electrode. The 3-D numerical simulation code showed similar results both in values and flow configuration compared with the experimental results.

Index Terms—Electrohydrodynamic (EHD) flow, microplasma, numerical simulation.

I. INTRODUCTION

THE conventional actuators used on aircraft could be replaced with plasma actuators that are a safe and efficient alternative due to their lack of moving parts, simple construction, and fast response due to the electric field. The dielectric barrier discharge (DBD) plasma actuators developed by various researchers are conventionally energized at voltages of tens of kilovolts [1]–[6]. Such high voltages are difficult to insulate and require a large-sized power supply. For flow control applications, we have developed a microplasma vortex generator that can be energized at only 1 kV.

The electrohydrodynamic (EHD) phenomenon occurs through the momentum transfer from ions accelerated by an electric field to neutral molecules by collision [1]–[5]. This can be achieved using DBD or corona discharge. In the case of

high-speed flow control, corona discharge was used [6]–[14]. Turbulent boundary layer separation control, steady airfoil leading-edge separation control, oscillating airfoils dynamic stall control, and circular cylinder wake control are applications of particular flow control [15]–[20]. The microsized plasma actuator could be used for surface flow modification, such as separation flow control or drag reduction [21]–[24].

Microplasma is a type of DBD nonthermal plasma that proved to be a more economical and ecological replacement of conventional technologies for surface treatment of various materials, indoor air treatment, biomedical applications, or flow control [25]–[29].

In microplasma actuators, because of the small dimensions, it is difficult to obtain experimental observations and measurements. In this study, numerical simulations were carried out in order to investigate the flow velocity near the electrode surface where the experimental measurements were difficult to carry out.

The numerical simulation of the flow modification was carried out using the Suzen–Huang model [30], [31]. The model considers the electric potential of the plasma actuator as the combination of the potential of the external electric field and the potential of charge density of the plasma. Thus, the resultant potential can be calculated and furthermore the body-force. In the Navier–Stokes equations, the body force is introduced as forcing term in order to obtain the flow [30]–[32]. The most common models for the numerical simulations of plasma actuators are the plasma fluid model and the particle-in-cell model [33]–[42]. The Suzen–Huang model is close to the physical phenomena of the plasma actuator and was also used by other researchers [38]–[40].

Our first approach in modeling the microplasma actuator consisted of a simulation code based on the Suzen–Huang model for 2-D flow [43].

The study carried out in this article is still a fundamental one, and possible applications of this vortex generator could be drag reduction. The aim of this article is to investigate the fundamental phenomena of microplasma vortex generator and validate a numerical simulation code.

II. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

Despite the requirement of low discharge voltage, the microscale plasma actuator has the advantage of easy integration due to its small size. Fig. 1 shows images and the schematic of the DBD microplasma actuator vortex generator. A perforated plate (topside electrode) is placed above a

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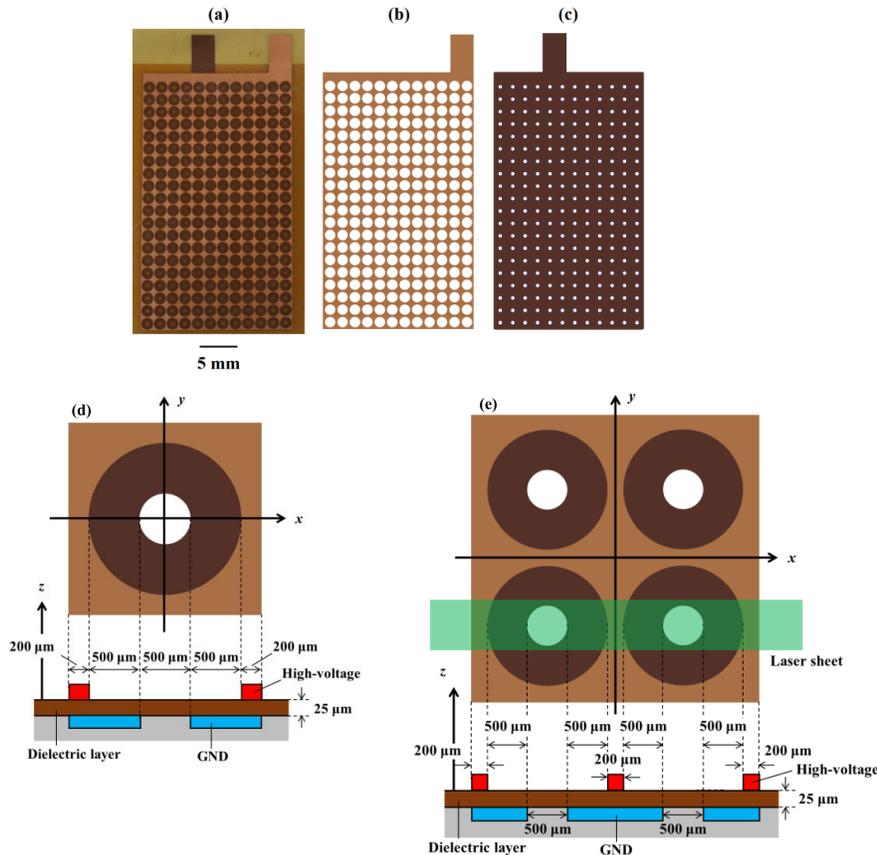


Fig. 1. Microplasma vortex generator. (a) Image of microplasma vortex generator. (b) Image of the topside electrode. (c) Image of the bottom-side electrode. (d) Schematic of the one-hole measurement setup. (e) Schematic of four-hole measurement setup.

perforated plate electrode (bottom-side electrode) having a 25- μm -thick dielectric layer between them, as shown in Fig. 1(a)–(c). The holes size for the topside electrode was 1.5 mm, and for the bottom side, it is 0.5 mm.

Due to the microscale gap, a high electric field ($10^7\sim 10^8$ V/m) could be obtained at the topside electrode by application of a voltage of 1 kV. Such a low voltage is easy to insulate or control and contributes to the miniaturization of the system.

In order to study the basic phenomena of the flow, one and four holes were isolated from the electrode; thus, the phenomena could be observed in a simplified version of the electrode, as shown in Fig. 1(d) and (e).

The flow was visualized by using the particle tracking velocimetry (PTV) [44]. Approximately, 0.3- μm tracer particles were used as incense smoke. The Nd:YVO₄ 532-nm laser was utilized to visualize the flow. The experimental setup is shown in Fig. 2. The phenomena induced by the microplasma actuator were measured with a high-speed camera of 1280×128 pixel resolution. The recording frequency was set to 4000 Hz. The PTV results within the area of $-2 \text{ mm} \leq x \leq 2 \text{ mm}$ and $0 \text{ mm} \leq z \leq 2.0 \text{ mm}$ with a resolution of 0.2 mm in the x - and z -axes were obtained manually using two consecutive images taken at each state. The applied ac voltage had an amplitude voltage of 1 kV and a frequency of 20 kHz.

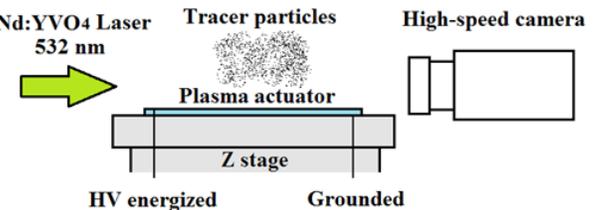


Fig. 2. Flow velocity measurement experimental setup. Tracer particles were used to visualize the flow.

III. RESULTS

The experiments were carried out for one- and four-hole setups, and the measurement were carried out along the x -axis and z -axis and for a given value of the y -axis, as shown in Fig. 1(d) and (e).

Because of the complexity of the flow and also due to small size of microplasma vortex generator, the experiments are difficult to carry out and obtain data to characterize the flow. Thus, in order to have more information about the flow, numerical simulations were carried out.

A. Experimental Results

Experiments carried out for one-hole setup showed initial vortices near the center of the hole at 5 ms, as shown in the images and corresponding PTV results from Fig. 3. The

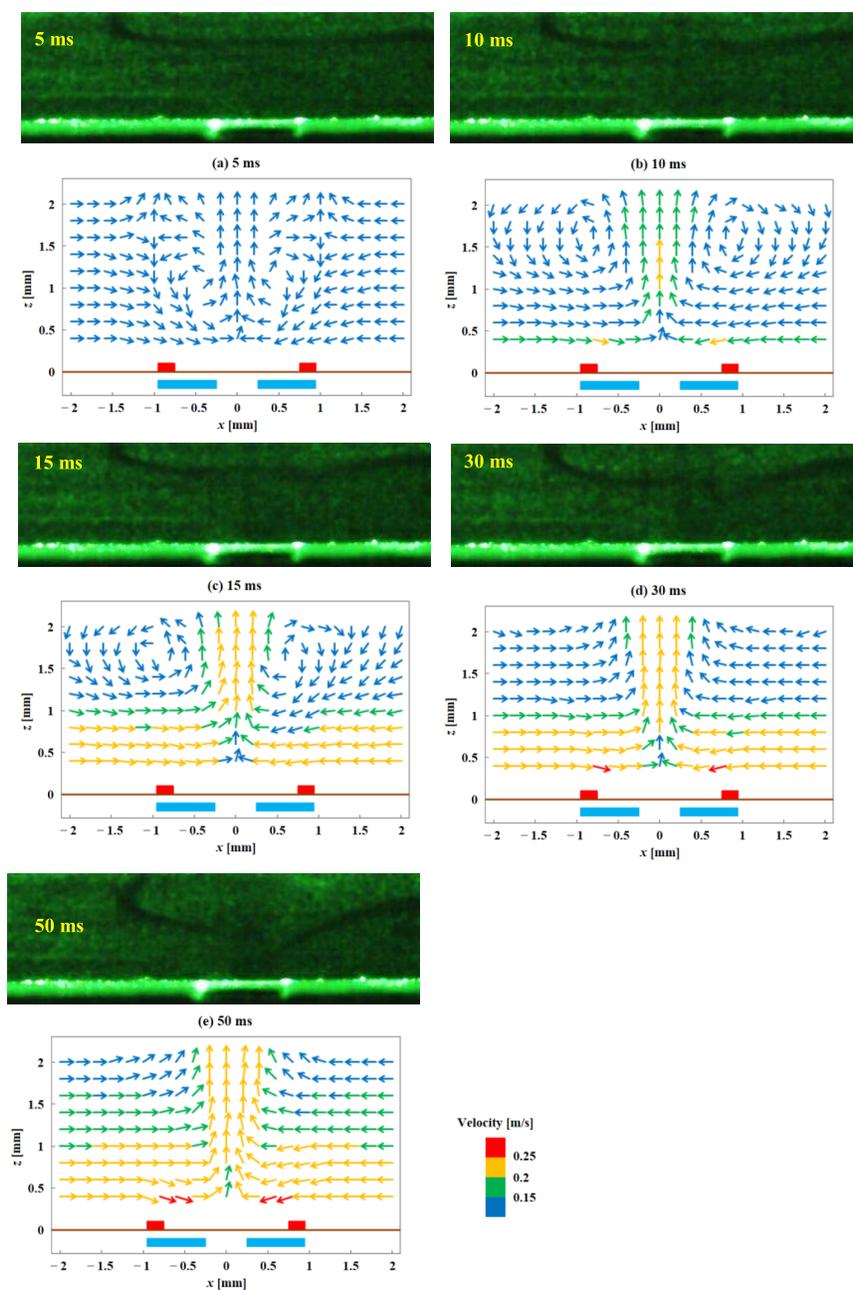


Fig. 3. Flow generated by one-hole setup at (a) 5, (b) 10, (c) 15, (d) 30, and (e) 50 ms. Above: actual flow. Bottom: corresponding PTV results.

measurements were carried out along the x -axis and z -axis and for y -axis value corresponding to the center of the hole. With the lapse of time to vortices to move up and toward extremities and at 50 ms, an upward flow at the center was measured. The maximum flow velocity was about 0.3 m/s and was measured at 30 and 50 ms near the edges of the hole. Due to the geometry of the microplasma vortex generator and also because of the microplasma light emission inside the hole, the flow could not be measured. The experiments were carried out only on a single xz plane; thus, a complete image of the flow is not available. We have already studied another type of microplasma actuator that has symmetry on the y -axis [43]; thus, the flow characteristics were the same along the y -axis. Further experimental research with this type

of vortex generator will be carried out to measure the flow on various plane coordinates.

The experimental results obtained for the four-hole setup are shown in Fig. 4. The phenomena that occurred at 5 ms show vortices above each hole and with the lapse of time smaller vortices in the center part between the holes and bigger vortices at the extremities at 30 and 50 ms. A higher intensity flow of about 0.3 m/s was measured at 30 and 50 ms near the edges of the holes and at more than 1.6 mm up from the center. In the center part at 50 ms up to 1.6 mm, the flow is composed of two vortices with a flow speed of about 0.15 m/s. The vortices have almost the same pattern from 5 to 50 ms. At more than 1.6 mm, the flow in the center is upward flow.

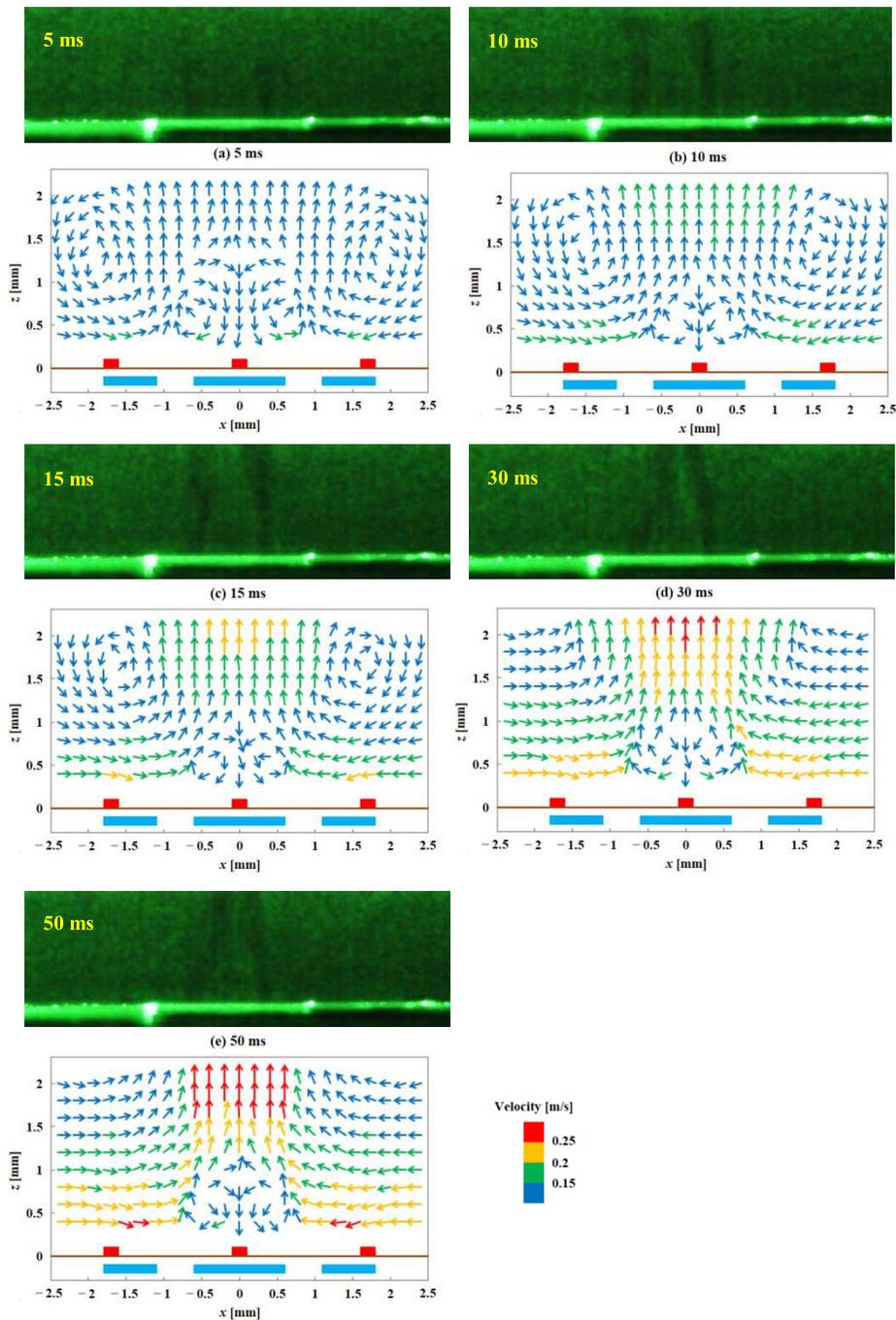


Fig. 4. Flow generated by four-hole setup at (a) 5, (b) 10, (c) 15, (d) 30, and (e) 50 ms. Above: actual flow. Bottom: corresponding PTV results.

Comparing the one- and four-hole results, it can be observed that in the case of one-hole setup, the flow is only upward flow, but in the case of four-hole setup, also, some vortices could be observed even after 50 ms. The flow was measured in the xz plane above two holes, but all the four holes are influencing the flow pattern. The complexity of the flow is higher than in the case of one-hole setup.

The flow could not be measured inside the holes and also above the electrodes up to about 0.2 mm; thus, numerical simulations were carried out.

B. Simulation Results

Numerical simulations could give more information about the phenomena near the active electrodes. The Suzen–Huang model [30], [31] was used for developing the simulation code. According to the model, the EHD force is given as

$$\vec{f} = \rho_c \cdot \vec{E} \quad (1)$$

where f is the body force per unit volume, ρ_c is the net charge density, and E is the intensity of the electric field.

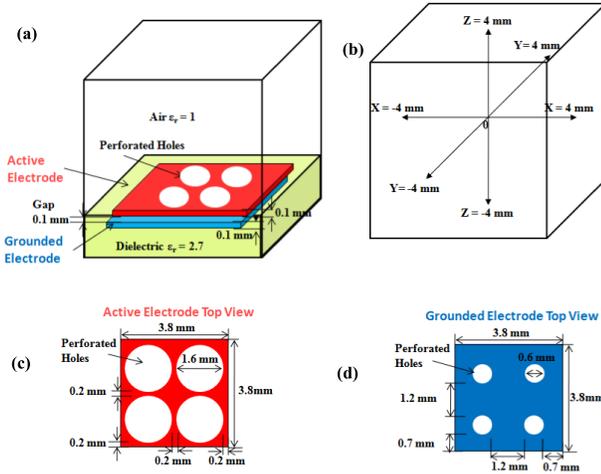


Fig. 5. Computational geometry. (a) 3-D arrangement of the computational geometry. (b) Coordinates. (c) Top view of the active electrode. (d) Top view of the grounded electrode.

The magnetic field was not considered in calculations. The electric field is given as

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla V \quad (2)$$

where V is the potential. From Gauss' law

$$\nabla(\epsilon \cdot \vec{E}) = \rho_c \quad (3)$$

and

$$\nabla(\epsilon \cdot \nabla V) = -\rho_c \quad (4)$$

where ϵ is permittivity that was calculated as the product of relative permittivity ϵ_r and the permittivity of free space ϵ_0 . The charge density considers the potential V and the Debye length λ_D

$$\frac{\rho_c}{\epsilon_0} = \left(-\frac{1}{\lambda_D^2} \right) V. \quad (5)$$

From (1) and (5), the body force is calculated. Because of the atmospheric pressure microplasma and consequently weakly ionized gas particles, the potential V was considered in the Suzen–Huang model as being composed of the potential ϕ of the external electric field, and the potential φ potential of the net charge density

$$V = \phi + \varphi. \quad (6)$$

Thus, two independent equations can be written

$$\nabla(\epsilon_r \cdot \nabla \phi) = 0 \quad (7)$$

$$\nabla(\epsilon_r \cdot \nabla \varphi) = \frac{-\rho_c}{\epsilon_0}. \quad (8)$$

Considering

$$\frac{\rho_c}{\epsilon_0} = \left(-\frac{1}{\lambda_D^2} \right) \varphi \quad (9)$$

(8) will become

$$\nabla(\epsilon_r \cdot \nabla \rho_c) = \frac{\rho_c}{\lambda_D^2}. \quad (10)$$

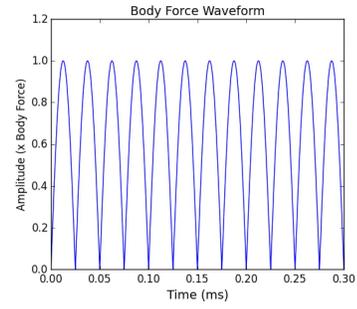


Fig. 6. Body force waveform.

Equations (7) and (10) are solved, and thus, we can calculate de body force

$$\vec{f} = \rho_c \cdot \vec{E} = \rho_c (-\nabla \phi). \quad (11)$$

The harmonic mean of the permittivity of the dielectric material that covers the grounded electrodes with $\epsilon_{rd} = 4$ and air with $\epsilon_{r\text{air}} = 1$ was calculated for the conservation of the electric field [30]. For the potential ϕ , the outer boundary conditions were

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} = 0; \quad \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = 0; \quad \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} = 0. \quad (12)$$

For the potential φ , the outer boundary conditions were

$$\rho_c = 0. \quad (13)$$

As written in (10), we calculated the charge distribution over electrodes covered with dielectric material by considering these electrodes as source charge. The value of the source charge in our calculations was $\rho_c = 0.0075 \text{ C/m}^3$. Also, $\lambda_D = 0.00017 \text{ m}$ for the air, and $\lambda_D = \infty$ for the dielectric [31]. By assuming the embedded electrode as a source for the charge density, solution of (10) automatically results in a charge density distribution on the surface above the embedded electrode similar to the distribution observed in experiments, and the model does not require prescription of a charge density distribution on the surface and, thus, makes the modeling of generic actuator geometries, including generic shapes and orientations of electrodes straightforward [31]. Equation (11) was solved, and the body forces F_x , F_y , and F_z on x -, y -, and z -axes, respectively, were obtained. Furthermore, F_x , F_y , and F_z were introduced in the Navier–Stokes equations (14)–(16) in order to obtain the flow

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \\ = \frac{-1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + v \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} \right) + F_x \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \\ = \frac{-1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + v \left(\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial z^2} \right) + F_y \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial w}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \\ = \frac{-1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + v \left(\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial z^2} \right) + F_z. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

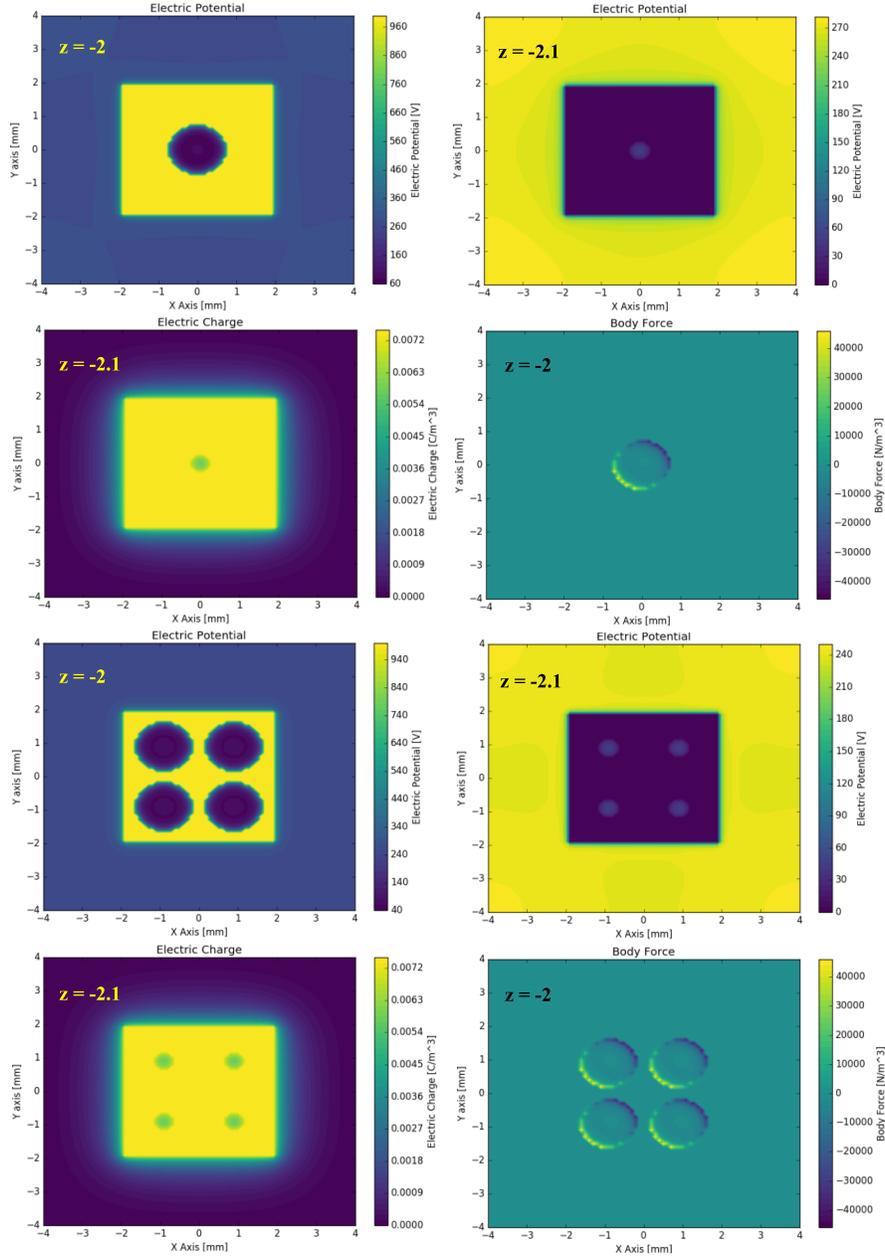


Fig. 7. Electric field, electric charge, and body force for one- and four-hole setups.

The flow velocity has the components u , v , and w on the x -, y -, and z -axes, respectively. In (14)–(16), ρ is the fluid density and ν is the kinematic viscosity. We calculated the dynamic viscosity μ

$$\mu = \rho \cdot \nu. \quad (17)$$

Thus, taking the value of air density $\rho = 1.177 \text{ kg/m}^3$ and kinematic viscosity $\nu = 1.57 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, dynamic viscosity is $\mu = 1.8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg/m} \cdot \text{s}$.

The boundary conditions were considered closed boundaries. The computational geometry is shown in Fig. 5.

The dimensions of the grid were $8 \times 8 \times 8 \text{ mm}^3$ with $81 \times 81 \times 81$ grid nodes. The electrodes were centered on the xy plane; thus, the distance from the electrode edges to

the limits of the computational domain on the xy plane was 2.1 mm. The electrodes were 0.1 mm in thickness and also the dielectric layer in between. For the xyz computational domain, 0 was considered in the center, as shown in Fig. 5. In the xz plane, the grounded electrode was placed from -2.2 to -2.1 mm on the z -axis. The high-voltage electrode was placed from -2 to -1.9 mm on the z -axis.

The simulation conditions were chosen to be close to the experimental one already shown in Fig. 1. The experiments were carried out by energizing the exposed electrodes with an ac waveform having amplitude 1 kV and 20 kHz. The “push–push” theory was considered in the numerical simulations; thus, the body force magnitude and direction obtained in the positive and negative half-cycles were very

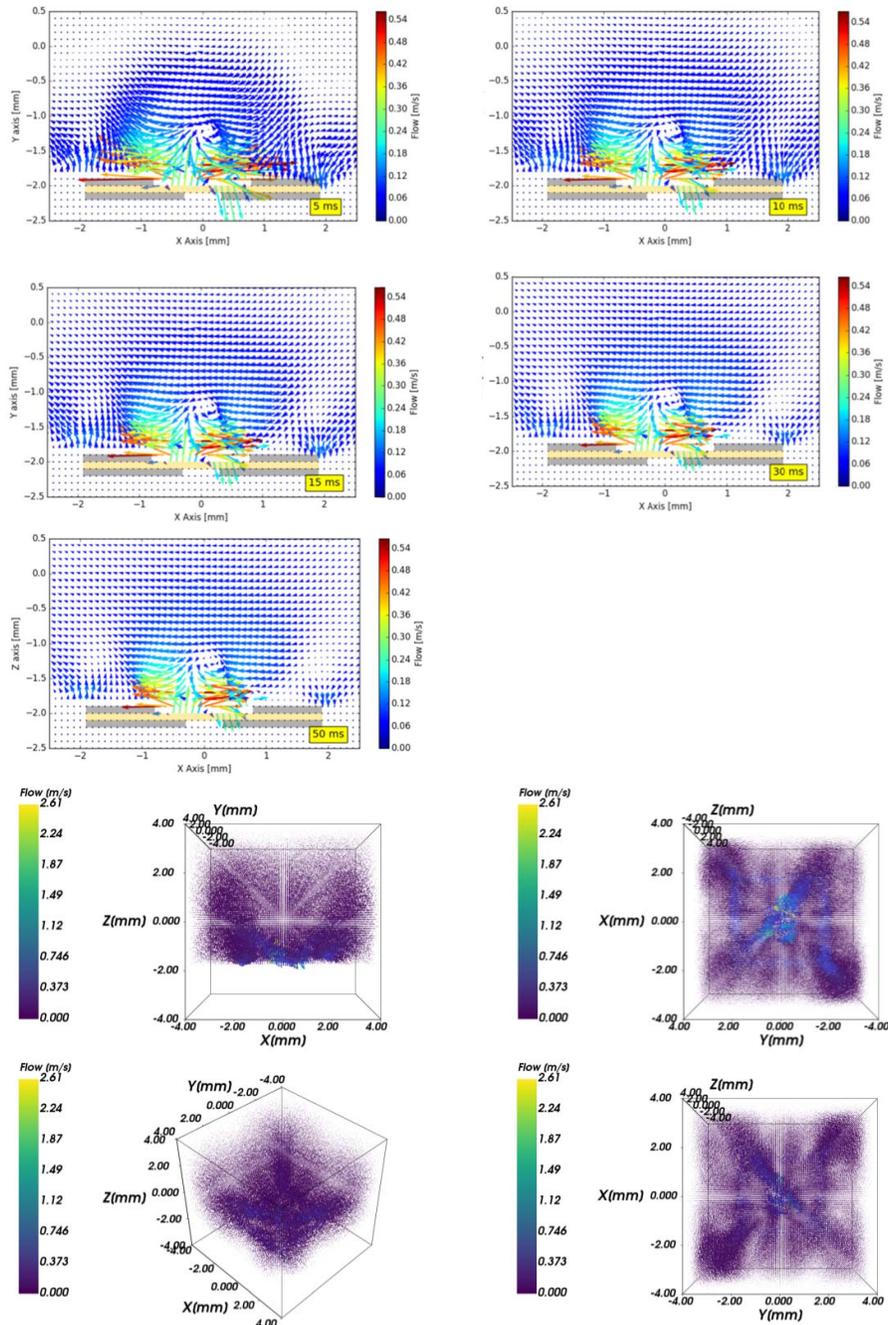


Fig. 8. Flow for one-hole setup. The 2-D figures show the flow for the xz plane and for the y at 0 (center). The 3-D figures show the flow at 50 ms from various view angles.

similar [15], [32]. Therefore, for computational simplicity, we considered the double rectified sine wave as the waveform of the body force, as shown in Fig. 6.

The finite difference method was used for the discretization of the equations that were computed before solving the Navier–Stokes equations. The maximum values of the external electric field, charge, and, furthermore, body force are shown in Fig. 7. The highest intensity of body force was obtained near the edges of the holes.

The Julia programming language was used for all the simulations [45]. The Navier–Stokes equations were solved

using the projection method in primitive variables on a collocated mesh. The time step was $2.5 \mu\text{s}$.

For the one-hole setup, the flow is shown in Fig. 8. The initial stages of the phenomena are shown at 5 ms. The 2-D plots show the flow on the xz plane at $y = 0$. At the edges of the hole, contra-rotating vortices form and create another vortex that results in upward flow, as shown in the experimental results. The maximum intensity of the flow in 2-D plots was about 0.54 m/s. The experimental data could be obtained starting from about 0.4 mm above the electrode, where the flow value was 0.3 m/s. In the same region,

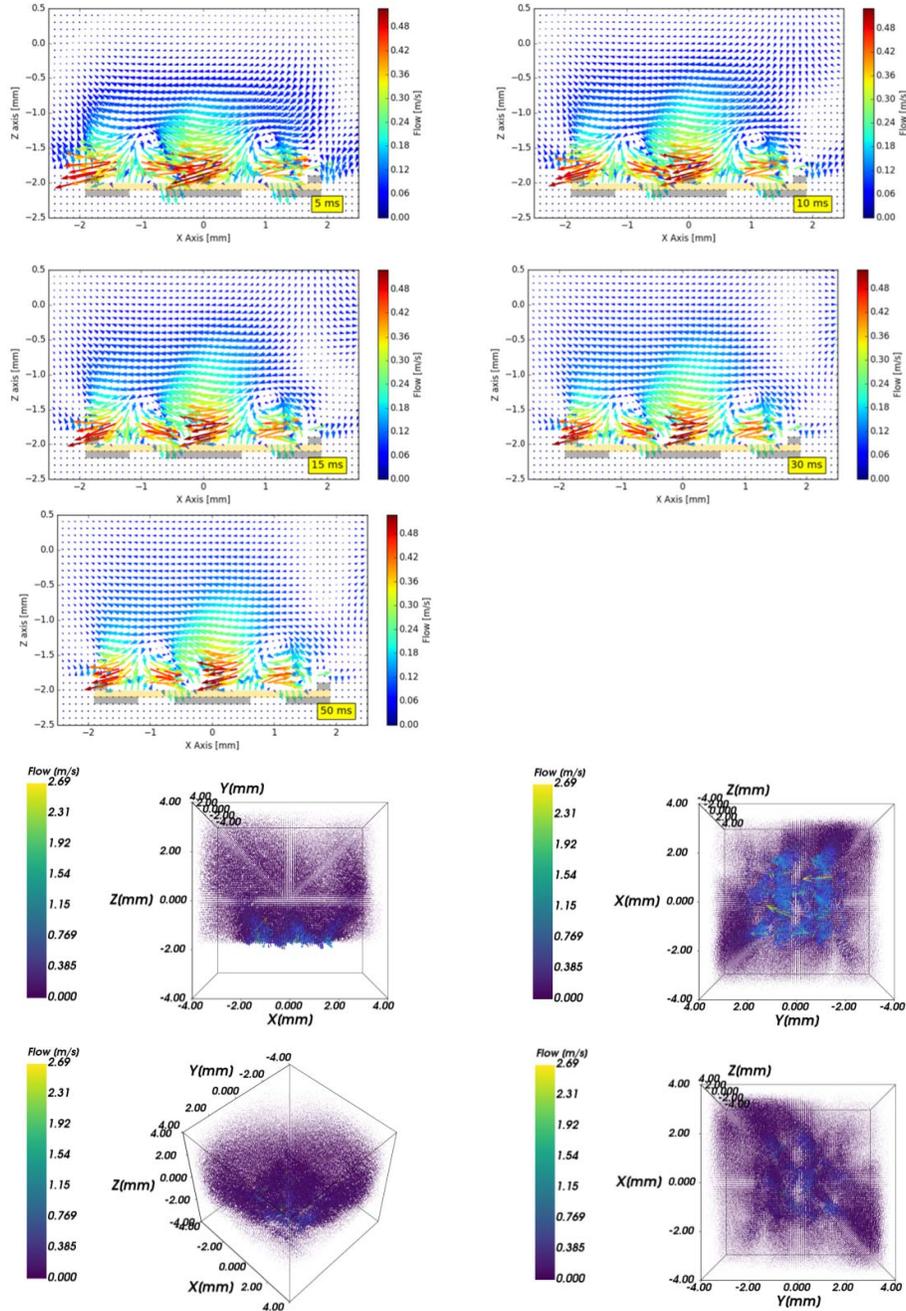


Fig. 9. Flow for four-hole setup. The 2-D figures show the flow for the xz plane and for the y at -0.9 mm. The 3-D figures show the flow at 50 ms from various view angles.

the simulated value was 0.36 m/s. For the experimental data, the maximum value was 0.3 m/s, but the flow could not be measured inside the hole, where the flow has a higher value due to the intense plasma region.

The 3-D plots at 50 ms show a complete image of the flow generated by the one-hole setup. The highest intensity of the flow was calculated to be 2.61 m/s inside the hole and near the hole's edge. The flow shows a pattern of contra-rotating vortices, each vortex placed above the half of the holes' edge. Because the experiments were carried out capturing the flow only in a plane on the zx coordinates, this phenomenon could not be observed.

The results for the four-hole setup are shown in Fig. 9. The flow shown in the 2-D plots has similar patterns with what was measured in experiments. In the experimental results shown in Fig. 4 at 50 ms, the flow has, in the center part, two vortices with a maximum flow speed of about 0.15 m/s. Also, in Fig. 9, it can be observed two vortices with a flow speed of about 0.2 m/s for the simulated data. A complete view of the flow is shown in the 3-D plots at 50 ms. The numerical simulation showed the complexity of the flow; because the experimental results were only obtained for a limited xz plane, a complete comparison between experimental and numerical simulation results will be carried out in future research.

IV. CONCLUSION

The basic phenomena of the microplasma vortex generator were studied experimentally and by numerical simulation. The following conclusions were obtained.

- 1) The experimental results showed, for one- and four-hole setups, a maximum flow intensity of 0.3 ms. For the one-hole setup, an upward flow at the center of the hole was measured considering only a 2-D xz plane. The measurements carried out for four-hole setup in a 2-D xz plane over only two holes showed vortexes in the middle part above the electrode between the holes and upward flow above the vortexes.
- 2) The numerical simulations showed that the flow in some parts inside the hole has 2.61 and 2.69 m/s for the one- and four-hole setups, respectively. A more complete and complex view of the flow was shown by the 3-D plots.

Future research will be carried out to experimentally investigate a more accurate 3-D representation of the flow and to fully validate the numerical simulation.

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