

Tuned passive control of combustion instabilities using multiple Helmholtz resonators

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Abstract

In this work, tuned passive control is used to damp unstable combustion systems, with particular emphasis on systems which exhibit multiple unstable modes. Helmholtz resonators are used as passive dampers. The frequency at which they offer maximum damping is varied by altering their geometry; in this work, geometry changes are achieved by varying the area of the Helmholtz resonator neck. For each unstable mode exhibited by the combustion system, a separate Helmholtz resonator has its neck area tuned. Two algorithms are developed, one for identifying the characteristics of all modes present in real time, and another for tuning the neck areas of the Helmholtz resonators. These algorithms are successfully implemented in numerical simulations of a longitudinal combustor exhibiting two unstable modes. The algorithms result in both modes being stabilised as long as two Helmholtz resonators are used. Experiments are then conducted on a Rijke tube with its upper part split into two branches of differing lengths, shaped like a ‘Y’. The differing lengths give rise to two unstable modes at different frequencies. A Helmholtz resonator is attached to each branch; the neck area of both can be varied by means of an ‘iris’ valve, which opens and closes like a camera lens. On implementing the procedure for tuning the neck areas, both unstable modes are stabilised, and stability is maintained for large changes in operating condition. This confirms that the procedure developed is sufficiently robust for use in real combustion systems exhibiting multiple unstable modes.

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1. Introduction

The drive for low NO_x emissions means that gas turbine combustors (in both stationary power gas turbines and aero-engines) are being operated under lean premixed conditions. This makes them particularly susceptible to damaging combustion instabilities. Combustion instabilities are self-excited oscillations generated by the interaction between acoustic waves and combustion. Unsteady heat release generates acoustic waves; these propagate within the combustor and reflect from boundaries to arrive back at the combustion zone, where they cause more unsteady heat release. Under certain conditions, this feedback can result in large and damaging self-excited oscillations [1].

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Typically, combustion instabilities are attenuated using either active or passive control by breaking the coupling between unsteady heat release and acoustic waves [2,3]. Active control techniques involve a control system and use a dynamic actuator such as a loudspeaker or fuel supply valve. The actuator ‘perturbs’ the state of the combustion system according to measurements to interrupt the coupling between the pressure and the heat release. If the way in which the actuator responds to the measurements has been designed correctly, the system will be stabilised. Active controllers are fast responding, as actuation occurs on the time scale of the instabilities. However, at industrial-scales, fuel modulation is the most viable form of actuation, and the bandwidth of the fuel valve becomes a limiting effect. Active control also has the potential to make the system more unstable.

Passive control techniques generally add acoustic damping to the combustion system. They are unlikely to make the system more unstable, but tend to be effective only over a narrow frequency range and are unable to respond to changes in operating conditions. Helmholtz resonators (HRs) have been widely used as acoustic dampers [4]. Their damping mechanism is primarily due to thermo-viscous and vortex shedding losses [5–7]. At resonance, a large volume of fluid in the chamber compresses and expands periodically, while a mass of the fluid in the neck vibrates. The resonant frequency of HRs is given approximately by $\omega^2 = c^2 S / V l_{\text{eff}}$ [8], where S and l_{eff} are the neck area and effective length of the neck, respectively, V is the cavity volume and c is the ambient speed of sound. The fact that the resonant frequency depends on the geometry allows it to be tuned via geometry changes [9–15].

Tuned passive control involves using a control system to tune passive devices, such as HRs, in response to changes in the operating conditions. The feature of tunability overcomes the main disadvantage of traditional passive control. Moreover, actuation only needs to be on the time scale of the changes in operating condition, which is typically much slower than the time scale of the instability. The required actuator bandwidth is therefore small, representing a major advantage over active control. Tuned passive control approaches therefore combine many of the advantages of active and passive control.

The resonant frequency of a HR can be varied by adjusting the cavity volume, the neck area or the neck length. Several authors [9,12,14] have developed HRs with a variable cavity volume. A volume-variable resonator may be the easiest to implement in practice, but at low frequencies becomes unnecessary bulky [16]. In addition, serious sealing issues can arise. HRs with adjustable neck areas have also been considered, although not widely [11,13].

In this paper, HRs are used for passive control. They are tuned to the measured modal frequencies by varying their neck areas. This avoids the sealing issues that occur when the volume or neck length is varied and also allows for more compact system. Special attention is paid to systems which exhibit multiple unstable modes and therefore need multiple HRs to be tuned in order to achieve stability. An algorithm for characterising multiple unstable modes online is firstly developed, as described in Section 2; this presents a particular challenge as FFT-based approaches do not promote fast-tracking of frequency shifts at low frequencies. A two-stage algorithm for tuning the HR neck areas online according to the characterisation of the modes is developed in Section 3. The performance of these algorithms is evaluated using a numerical model of an unstable combustion system with attached HRs in Section 4. Finally, in Section 5, we experimentally demonstrate that a simple combustion system with multiple unstable modes can be stabilised by tuning the neck areas of multiple HRs.

2. The online algorithm for characterising modes

The frequencies of combustion instabilities tend to be close to the acoustic resonance frequencies of the combustion system, with the pressure oscillations occurring in the corresponding mode shape [17]. To effectively control combustion instabilities, the characteristics of the unstable modes (such as frequency and amplitude) need to be known. To identify these in real time, as is needed for tuned passive control, an online mode-identification algorithm has been developed. It is performed in the time domain and allows faster tracking of changes due to changes in operating condition than would be possible using an FFT, particularly at low frequencies. Zinn and Neumeier [18,19] developed a similar algorithm and applied it with considerable success to active control of combustion instabilities. We now develop an algorithm for tuned passive control, which utilises increases in computing speeds over the last decade.

2.1. Theory for the mode-identification algorithm

The mode-identification algorithm is based on the principle that integrating the product of a signal and a sinusoid over a period of the sinusoid extracts the component of the signal at the frequency of the sinusoid. Following the approach of Neumeier and Zinn [19], the measured pressure signal $P(t)$ is assumed to consist of N modes at frequencies Ω_n . It is then assumed that there is a dominant mode at frequency Ω_d . The pressure variation due to this dominant mode is denoted by $P_d(t)$. Since this mode dominates the measured pressure, it is initially assumed that $P(t) \approx P_d(t)$, which gives that $P(t)$ and its first derivative, $\dot{P}(t)$ can be expressed as

$$P(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N (A_n \sin \Omega_n t + B_n \cos \Omega_n t) \approx A_d(t) \sin \Omega_d t + B_d(t) \cos \Omega_d t \quad (1)$$

$$\dot{P}(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N \Omega_n (A_n \cos \Omega_n t - B_n \sin \Omega_n t) \approx \Omega_d (A_d(t) \cos \Omega_d t - B_d(t) \sin \Omega_d t) \quad (2)$$

If the frequency of this mode, Ω_d , was known then the amplitude components of the dominant mode $A_d(t)$ and $B_d(t)$ could be determined by the short-time Fourier-like integrals shown in Eq. (3), where $T_d = 2\pi/\Omega_d$ and $j = \sqrt{-1}$.

$$H(j\Omega_d, t) = \frac{2}{T_d} \int_{t-T_d}^t P(\theta) e^{-j\Omega_d \theta} d\theta = B_d(t) - jA_d(t) \quad (3)$$

Because the dominant frequency is not known, an estimation of it, denoted by ω_d (with corresponding period τ_d) is used to perform the short-time Fourier-like integrations. The integration components, $s_d(t)$ and $c_d(t)$, are then taken to be approximations to $A_d(t)$ and $B_d(t)$:

$$G(j\omega_d, t) = \frac{2}{\tau_d} \int_{t-\tau_d}^t P(\theta) e^{-j\omega_d \theta} d\theta = c_d(t) - js_d(t) \quad (4a)$$

$$c_d(t) = \frac{\omega_d [(\dot{P}(t) - \dot{P}(t - \tau_d)) \sin \omega_d t + \omega_d (P(t) - P(t - \tau_d)) \cos \omega_d t]}{\pi(\omega_d^2 - \Omega_d^2)} \quad (4b)$$

$$s_d(t) = \frac{\omega_d [(\dot{P}(t) - \dot{P}(t - \tau_d)) \sin \omega_d t - \omega_d (P(t) - P(t - \tau_d)) \cos \omega_d t]}{\pi(\omega_d^2 - \Omega_d^2)} \quad (4c)$$

If ω_d converges to Ω_d , it can be seen from Eqs. (3) and (4a) that the amplitude components of $c_d(t)$ and $s_d(t)$ will converge to $B_d(t)$ and $A_d(t)$, respectively. Therefore, the signal defined as $p_d^s(t) = s_d(t) \sin \omega_d t + c_d(t) \cos \omega_d t$ is an approximation to the signal of the dominant mode, $P_d(t) = A_d(t) \sin \Omega_d t + B_d(t) \cos \Omega_d t$. Note that we perform the numerical integrations fully for $s_d(t)$ and $c_d(t)$ at each time step, unlike the approach used by Neumeier and Zinn [19].

Eliminating $\dot{P}(t) - \dot{P}(t - \tau_d)$ from Eqs. (4b) and (4c) gives Ω_d in terms of ω_d ,

$$\Omega_d^2 = \left(\omega_d^2 + \frac{\omega_d^2}{\pi} \frac{[P(t) - P(t - \tau_d)]}{[s_d(t) \cos \omega_d t - c_d(t) \sin \omega_d t]} \right) \quad (5)$$

Eq. (5) can be iteratively used to determine the frequency of the dominant mode of $P(t)$. A relaxation coefficient is used in practice to ensure smoother convergence. Eq. (4) then allows the amplitude and the phase of this mode to be iteratively deduced. Once the characteristics of the dominant mode have converged, the dominant mode is subtracted from the pressure signal $P(t)$. The remaining signal, $P(t) - P_d(t)$, is then used to characterise the next most dominant mode, following the same procedure as above. This modal identification and subtraction procedure can be repeated several times so that many modes are characterised.

2.2. Performance of the mode-identification algorithm

The mode-identification algorithm was applied to a pressure signal measured on the experimental unstable combustion rig at the University of Cambridge [20]. Because the rig was undergoing limit cycle oscillations, the nonlinearity limiting the amplitude meant that both the instability frequency and its first harmonic were strongly present. A sample rate of 5000 Hz was used and the algorithm was switched on at time 3.1 s. The results are shown in Fig. 1. Both modes are characterised with channel 1 representing the dominant mode and channel 2 the first harmonic. The frequencies and amplitudes of these two modes are time-dependent and shown in Fig. 1(a) and (b), respectively, with FFT results shown in Fig. 1(c) for comparison. The dominant

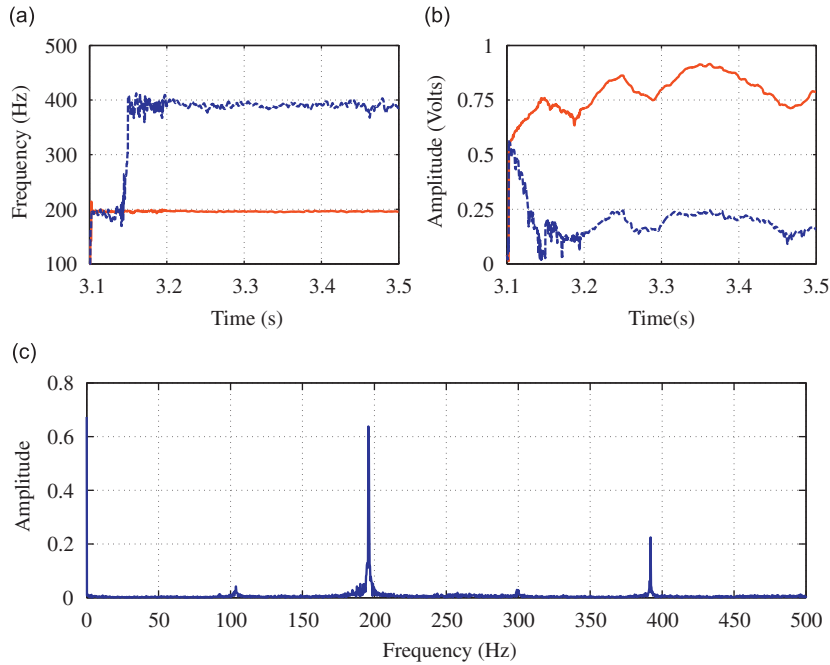


Fig. 1. (a) Modal frequencies predicted by the algorithm, (b) modal amplitudes predicted by the algorithm, (c) FFT analysis of the pressure signal. The pressure signal was measured on the unstable combustion rig at the University of Cambridge: —, dominant mode; ---, secondary mode.

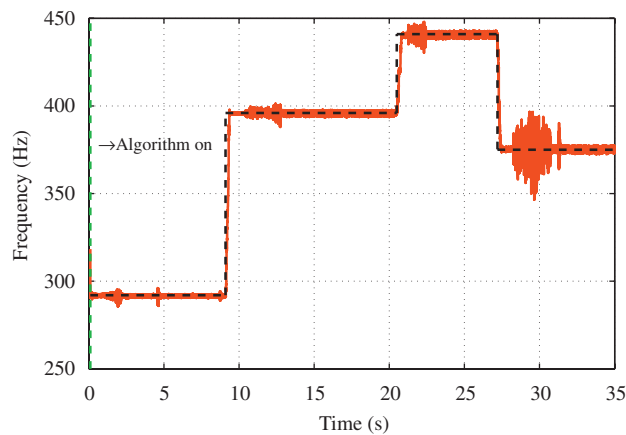


Fig. 2. Comparison between the loudspeaker forcing frequency and predicted frequency by the online mode-identification algorithm: ---, forcing frequency; —, predicted frequency by the algorithm.

mode is characterised within 5 ms and the first harmonic component within 50 ms. The online algorithm is seen to reliably characterise both modes in terms of their frequencies and amplitudes.

A key feature of the algorithm is that it can rapidly track large changes in operating condition. This was demonstrated using a pressure signal measured in a cuboid-shaped tube with one end closed and one end open. The tube contained a loudspeaker, whose forcing frequency varied significantly with time. The mode-identification algorithm was applied to the pressure measurement. The actual forcing frequency and the predicted dominant frequency are shown in Fig. 2. The frequency predicted by the online algorithm closely tracks the changes in the forcing frequency with a very small time delay.

Thus it has been shown that the mode-identification algorithm can both identify the essential features of multiple modes, and track their changes in real time.

3. Two-stage tuning algorithm

In order to use the information obtained about the modes present to rapidly tune the neck areas of the HRs, a two-stage control algorithm was developed. The idea is that a separate HR is tuned for each separate mode, although this could be extended to tuning a set of HRs for each mode. The algorithm consists of an initial tuning stage and a fine-tuning stage, as shown schematically in Fig. 3. In the initial tuning stage, the modal frequency, as predicted by the mode-identification algorithm, is used to obtain a fast estimate of the optimum neck radius. The fine-tuning stage then involves performing an online search to find the neck radius that minimises the modal amplitude. Fine-tuning is needed because the presence of a HR results in a shift in the mode frequency and hence the mode shape which is difficult to predict; amplitude minimisation is the most reliable way of obtaining the optimum neck radius.

The initial tuning stage is designed to give a quick response to variations in the frequency of the combustion instabilities as the operating conditions change. It uses the modal frequency provided by the mode-identification algorithm to estimate the optimum neck radius via the linear HR equation $\omega^2 = c^2 S / V l_{\text{eff}}$. At each time step, the ‘initial guess’ is used only if the predicted frequency differs from the previously stored resonant frequency by more than a specified value.

The fine-tuning stage involves minimising the modal amplitude. The modal amplitude is provided by the mode-identification algorithm and a revised Newton–Raphson algorithm is used to perform the minimisation, as shown in Eq. (6).

$$r_{n+1} = r_n - \alpha \frac{\frac{\partial \hat{p}(r_n)}{\partial r}}{\left| \frac{\partial^2 \hat{p}(r_n)}{\partial r^2} \right|} \quad (6)$$

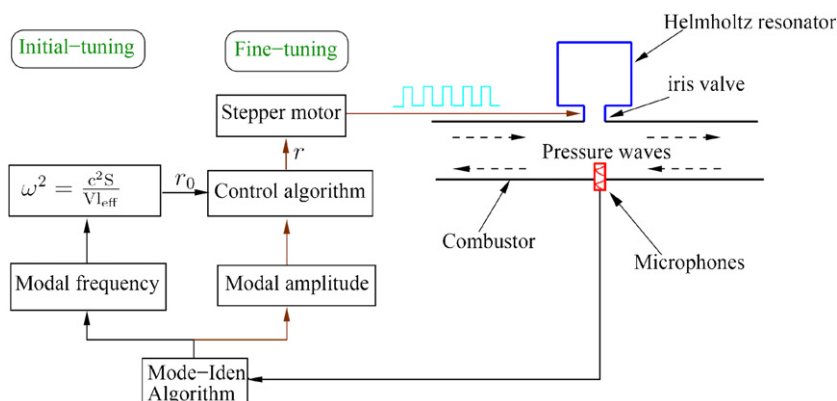


Fig. 3. Two-stage control scheme to tune HR neck radius.

Here, r is the neck radius of the resonator, α is a relaxation coefficient and \hat{p} is the pressure modal amplitude. The relaxation coefficient avoids divergence. The full forms of $\partial\hat{p}/\partial r$ and $\partial^2\hat{p}/\partial r^2$ can be found in Ref. [12]. Note in Eq. (6) the condition of $\partial^2\hat{p}_{(r_n)}/\partial r^2 > 0$ is necessary to guarantee finding a pressure amplitude minima other than maxima.

4. Numerical model with two unstable modes

The online mode-identification algorithm and two-stage tuning algorithm are now used to demonstrate tuned passive control in a numerical model. An axial combustion system with a choked upstream end and open downstream end is simulated as shown in Fig. 4. The combustor has two Helmholtz resonators, HR₁ and HR₂, attached; the neck areas of both can be varied.

The mean flow is assumed to be steady and one-dimensional, undergoing a change only across the flame. The flow fluctuations are modelled as being due to plane acoustic waves travelling in opposite directions. The wave strengths are denoted by $R_a(t)$, $L_a(t)$, $R_{b1}(t)$, $L_{b1}(t)$, $R_{b2}(t)$, $L_{b2}(t)$, $R_{b3}(t)$ and $L_{b3}(t)$ in the different combustion regions, as shown in Fig. 4. Entropy and vorticity contributions are neglected, and the acoustic waves are assumed to behave linearly with respect to the mean flow. The equations for the flow fluctuations upstream and downstream of the flame are given by

$$p'_a(x, t) = R_a\left(t - \frac{x}{\bar{c}_a + \bar{u}_a}\right) + L_a\left(t + \frac{x}{\bar{c}_a - \bar{u}_a}\right) \tag{7a}$$

$$u'_a(x, t) = \frac{1}{\bar{\rho}_a \bar{c}_a} \left[R_a\left(t - \frac{x}{\bar{c}_a + \bar{u}_a}\right) - L_a\left(t + \frac{x}{\bar{c}_a - \bar{u}_a}\right) \right] \tag{7b}$$

$$p'_{bi}(x, t) = R_{bi}\left(t - \frac{x}{\bar{c}_b + \bar{u}_b}\right) + L_{bi}\left(t + \frac{x}{\bar{c}_b - \bar{u}_b}\right) \tag{7c}$$

$$u'_{bi}(x, t) = \frac{1}{\bar{\rho}_b \bar{c}_b} \left[R_{bi}\left(t - \frac{x}{\bar{c}_b + \bar{u}_b}\right) - L_{bi}\left(t + \frac{x}{\bar{c}_b - \bar{u}_b}\right) \right] \tag{7d}$$

where p denotes the pressure, u is the flow velocity, ρ is the density, c the speed of sound and subscript i denotes the zone downstream of the flame. An over-bar denotes a mean value and a prime denotes a perturbation.

The combustor boundaries are modelled using pressure reflection coefficients. The Marble and Candel [21] expression is used for the choked upstream end and the value -0.98 is used at the open downstream end. The flame is assumed to be sufficiently short compared to the acoustic wavelength that it can be modelled as a thin sheet. The acoustic wave strengths either side of the flame and the heat release fluctuation are related by applying the linearised flow conservation equations across the flame and assuming a form for the flame transfer function, $H(\omega) = Q(\omega)/u(\omega)$, where $Q(\omega)$ is the Fourier transform of the heat release fluctuation $Q'(t)$ and $u(\omega)$ is the Fourier transform of the velocity fluctuation $u'(t)$ just upstream of the flame. It is assumed that the heat release fluctuation cannot exceed 20% of mean heat release, i.e. a capping is imposed. This heat release saturation provides a nonlinear mechanism by which a limit cycle occurs in the case of a combustion instability.

The acoustic wave strengths either side of each HR are related by combining the flow conservation equations and a nonlinear model of the HR damping. Mass and pressure continuity across each HR hold. The pressure loss across the neck of each HR is due to the nonlinear effect of the ‘jets’ formed. This loss can be

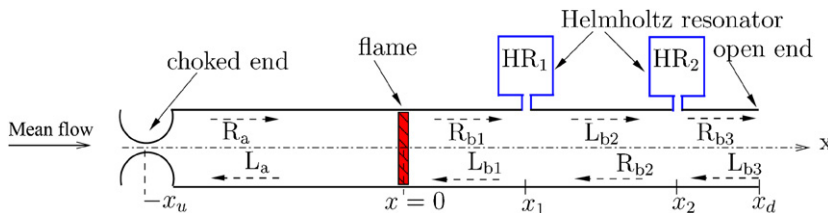


Fig. 4. A schematic of the combustor used in the numerical model.

expressed in terms of a dynamic head loss, as shown in Eq. (8), where $\Delta p'$ is the pressure difference across the neck, $u'_h(t)$ is the acoustic flow velocity moving across the neck and K is the discharge coefficient taking account of the nonlinear loss. This model has been used in several previous studies [5,7,12,22].

$$\Delta p' = \bar{\rho}_i l_{\text{eff}} \frac{\partial u'_h(t)}{\partial t} + K \bar{\rho}_i u'_h(t) |u'_h(t)| \quad (8)$$

Thus the end boundary conditions and the flow conservation equations across the flame and the HRs provide enough information to solve for each of the eight wave strengths in Fig. 4. The resulting matrix equation is shown in Eq. (9), where A denotes the cross section area of the combustor, \bar{M} the mean mach number, S the neck area of HR, u'_{HR} the velocity perturbation at the resonator neck and the \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} coefficient matrixes are shown in the Appendix.

$$\mathbf{X} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} L_a(t) \\ R_{b1}(t) \\ L_{b1}(t) \\ R_{b2}(t) \\ L_{b2}(t) \\ R_{b3}(t) \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{Y} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} L_a \left(t - \frac{2x_u}{\bar{c}_1(1-\bar{M}_1^2)} \right) \\ L_{b1} \left(t - \frac{x_1}{(\bar{c}_2 - \bar{u}_2)} \right) \\ R_{b1} \left(t - \frac{x_1}{(\bar{c}_2 + \bar{u}_2)} \right) \\ L_{b2} \left(t - \frac{(x_2 - x_1)}{(\bar{c}_2 - \bar{u}_2)} \right) \\ R_{b3} \left(t - \frac{2(x_d - x_2)}{\bar{c}_2(1-\bar{M}_2^2)} \right) \\ R_{b2} \left(t - \frac{(x_2 - x_1)}{(\bar{c}_2 + \bar{u}_2)} \right) \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{Q'}{A\bar{c}_1} \\ 0 \\ \frac{-\bar{\rho}_2 \bar{c}_2 S_1 u'_{\text{HR1}}(t)}{A} \\ 0 \\ \frac{-\bar{\rho}_2 \bar{c}_2 S_2 u'_{\text{HR2}}(t)}{A} \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

The geometry of the combustor and the form of the flame transfer function [20] can be varied to give a combustion system which is either stable or unstable (with either one unstable mode or multiple unstable modes). For unstable systems, fluctuations grow exponentially in time until the heat release capping results in saturation into a limit cycle.

Before investigating the effectiveness of tuning the resonator neck areas for damping combustion instabilities, it is insightful to study how the variation of the resonator neck areas influences the acoustic response of the combustor. Fig. 5 demonstrates how the mode normalised amplitude, p'/p_0 , and frequency, ω/ω_0 , vary with the normalised radius of HR₁ $r_1/r_{1\text{max}}$, with the neck area of HR₂ set to zero. Here, p_0 denotes the ambient pressure and ω_0 denotes the modal frequency in the absence of any HRs. The flame transfer function $H(\omega/\omega_0)$ is chosen to generate only one unstable mode at a normalised frequency of 1.0. It is clear that the system is stabilised at some resonator neck areas. The shift in the modal frequency due to the presence of the HR is shown in Fig. 5(b), and depends on the resonator cavity volume and neck area. It is also apparent that a bad choice of neck area may result in a limit cycle with a larger amplitude.

In our work, the combustor lengths were chosen to be $x_u = 1.8$ and $x_d = 1.0$ m, and the flame transfer function was chosen to be $H(j\omega) = 3.21384 \times 10^8(j\omega + 10)/(-\omega^2 + 5000j\omega + 2500^2)$. It is worth noting that the form of $H(j\omega)$ is specifically chosen to given two unstable modes. It is not intend to be a fully accurate representation of a real flame transfer function, although several of the features such as the high frequency roll-off beginning at 400 Hz are fairly realistic. The system exhibits two unstable modes, one at 239 Hz and one at 590 Hz. The frequency response plot of the transfer function from the unsteady heat release, $Q(\omega)$ to the measured pressure, $p_{\text{ref}}(\omega)$ is shown in Fig. 6. An unstable mode is characterised by a phase increase of 180° rather than a phase decrease [20]; the two unstable modes can clearly be seen.

The pressure 50 cm downstream of the flame provides the sensor signal for the online mode-identification algorithm. The predicted frequencies are used in the initial tuning of the two HR neck radii. HR₁ is set to damp the mode with a frequency of less than 500 Hz and HR₂ is set to the mode with a frequency higher than 500 Hz. The predicted amplitudes are used in fine-tuning to minimise the pressure amplitude.

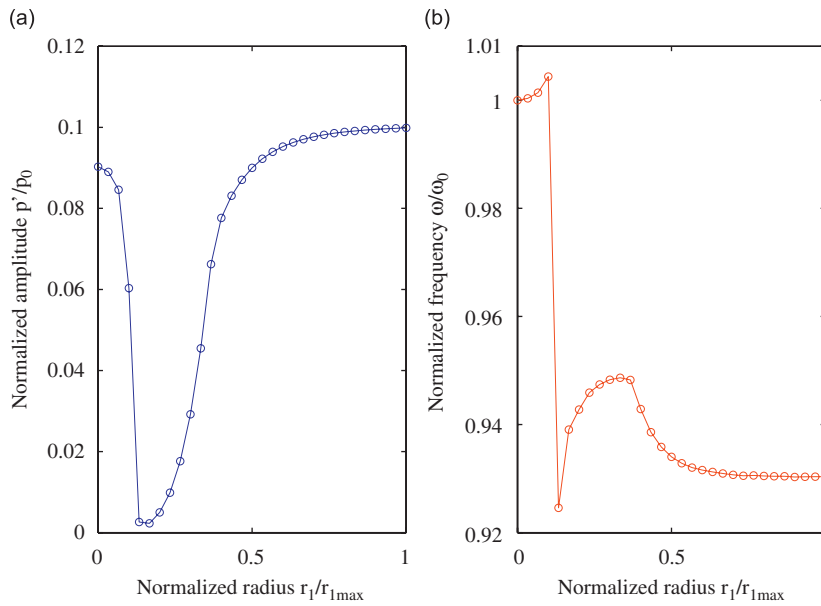


Fig. 5. The variations of the mode normalised amplitude and frequency with the resonator neck radius.

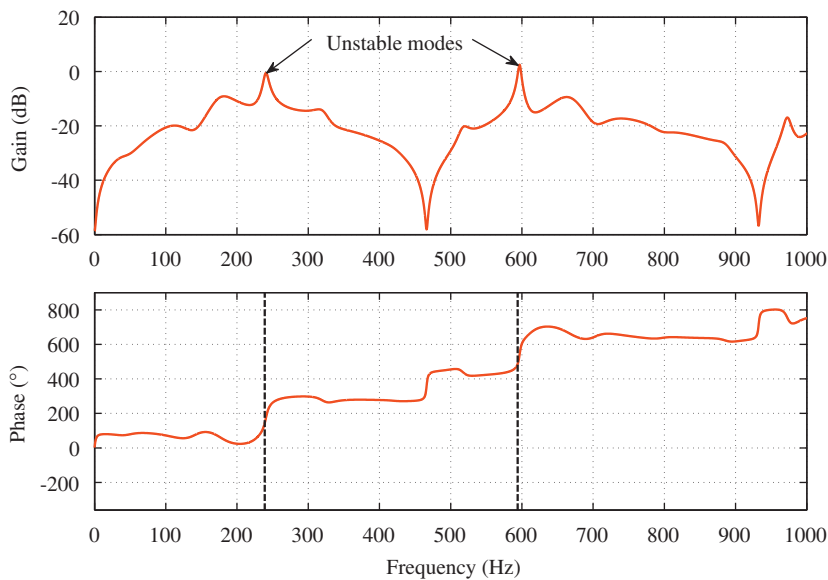


Fig. 6. The open loop transfer function, $p_{ref}(\omega)/Q(\omega)$, analysis of a combustion system.

The damping effect of the two HRs is presented in Fig. 7; this shows the effect of turning the HRs on one at a time, then deactivating them and turning them both on simultaneously. Both unstable modes at 239 and 590 Hz are initially present. The 239 Hz mode has the larger growth rate, and when the amplitude of this mode has grown large enough to cause saturation, nonlinear effects mean that the 590 Hz mode no longer grows and the 239 Hz mode dominates completely in the first limit cycle. When tuning of HR₁ is activated at $t = 1$ s, the dominant mode at 239 Hz is quickly eliminated. The 590 Hz mode is shifted slightly in frequency and begins to grow until saturation occurs and a larger amplitude limit cycle is established. Tuning the neck area of HR₂ begins at $t = 2$ s; the recently established mode at 605 Hz disappears. At $t = 3$ s, both HR₁ and HR₂ are turned off so that the original unstable mode at 239 Hz grows and re-dominates in the new limit cycle. At $t = 4$ s, both

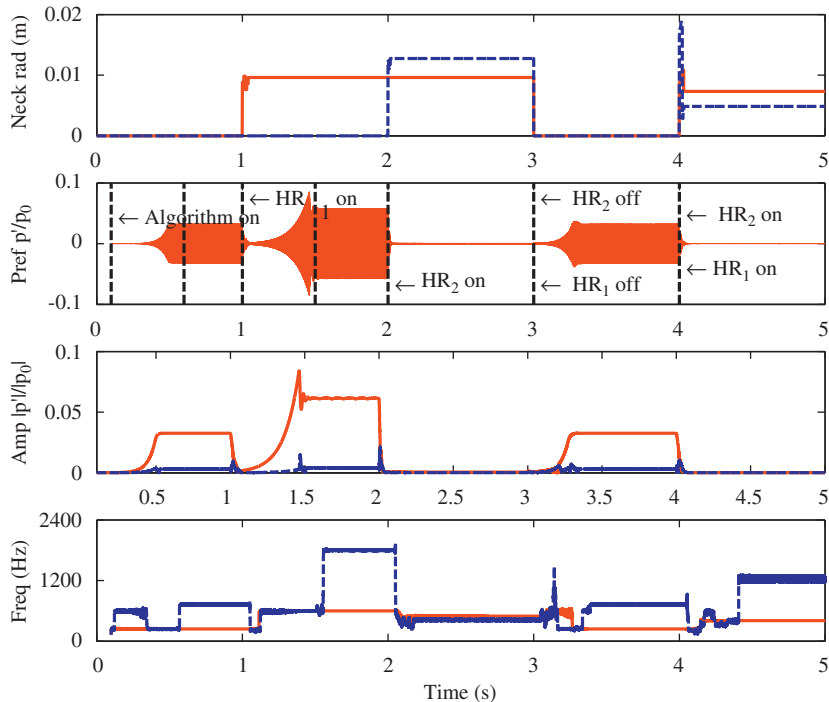


Fig. 7. Numerical demonstration of the effect of tuned passive control on the numerical model: —, dominant mode CH1; ---, secondary mode CH2.

HR₁ and HR₂ are turned on simultaneously. Both neck areas are simultaneously tuned and both the instabilities are sufficiently damped. It is noted that the optimum radius for the dominant mode is slightly different to that previously obtained; this is likely to be due to the different mode shape shifts that occur when both resonators are tuned simultaneously. It is apparent that with multiple unstable modes, multiple HRs are needed, especially when the modal frequencies are widely spaced.

This numerical simulation demonstrates that multiple unstable modes in combustion system can be attenuated by tuning neck areas of multiple HRs. This confirms that the online mode-identification algorithm and the two-stage tuning algorithm provide an effective and reliable combination for tuned passive control of combustion instabilities.

5. Experimental implementation

We now seek to apply our tuned passive control strategy experimentally in a self-excited combustion system. The Rijke tube [23,24] is a simple and widely studied example of self-excited combustion system. It is typically a straight open-ended tube, with heat source, such as a flame inside. The requirements for instability are that there must be an air flow through the tube (e.g. due to natural convection), the heat source has to be in the upstream half of the tube, and the boundary losses must not be excessive.

In our work, in order to generate multiple modes, a novel Rijke tube which splits into two upper branches, shaped like a ‘Y’, was used, as shown in Fig. 8. The two upper branches had different lengths, and these provided a mechanism by which two instability frequencies (which were non-harmonic) could be obtained. The dimensions of the upper branches are $12 \times 6 \times 50$ and $12 \times 6 \times 90$ cm, respectively, with the bottom ‘stem’ being $12 \times 8 \times 30$ cm. Attached to each upper branch was a HR with an adjustable neck. The volumes and neck lengths of both HRs were $1.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$ and $1.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$, respectively. The end correction used for the effective neck length, l_{eff} was 1.7 times of the neck radius.

The neck areas of the two HRs were both varied using ‘iris’ valves. The neck areas of both resonators can be approximately varied from 2.0×10^{-4} to 1.33×10^{-2} and from 1.0×10^{-4} to $5.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2$, respectively. Iris

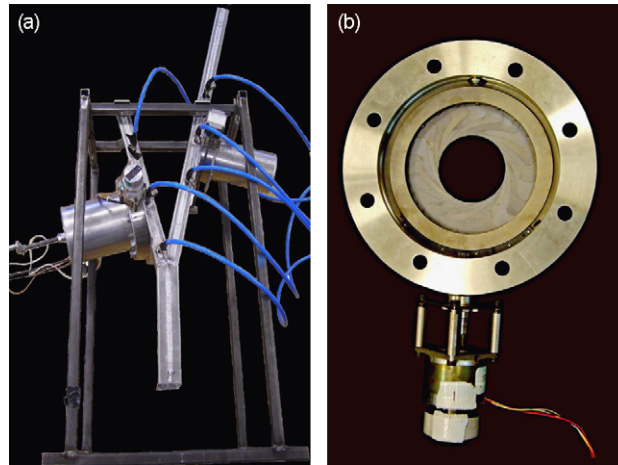


Fig. 8. The experimental apparatus in the Y-shape Rijke tube test: (a) the experimental Y shaped Rijke tube with two HRs attached, (b) the ‘iris’ valve used to vary the neck area.

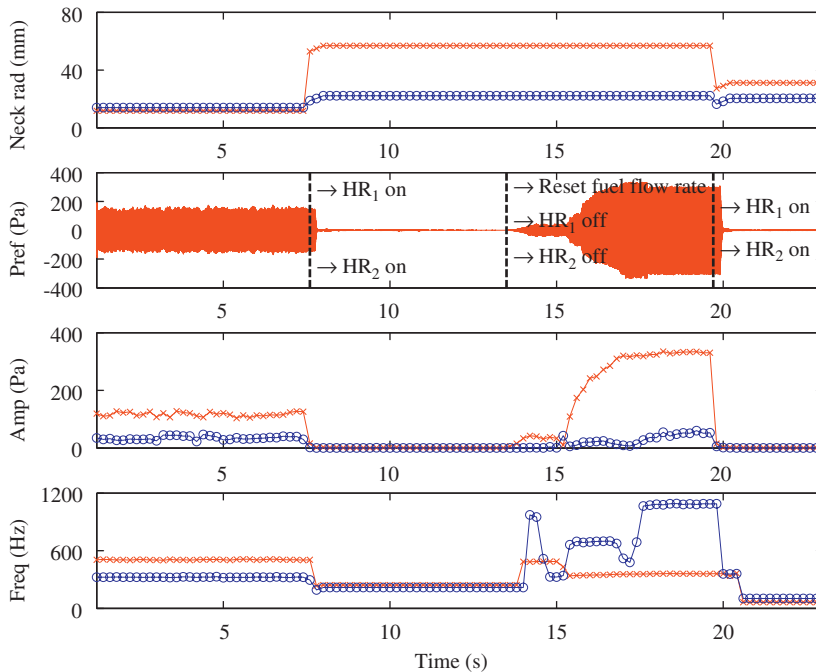


Fig. 9. The effect of tuned passive control on the Y-shape Rijke tube: $-\circ-$, HR1, $-\times-$, HR2.

valves operate much like a camera lens, achieving a variable opening via rotating overlapping leaves. The ‘iris’ valves were driven by stepper motors, as shown in Fig. 8. Each stepper motor is controlled by three square waves output from a computer. As the stepper motor rotates, the iris valves open or close. The iris valve blades are made from graphite coated stainless steel so that they can withstand relatively high temperatures. A methane-fueled Bunsen burner is used to provide a laminar flame, which heats a fine gauze of 10×5 cm. The flame and gauze both lie in the lower half of the tube, with the flame 7.0 cm from the lower tube end. With heating in place, the unstable modes are generated, with wavelengths corresponding to modeshapes within each branch. The pressure at 33 cm from the bottom ‘stem’ end was fed into the mode-identification algorithm. The online mode-identification algorithm and the two-stage neck area tuning algorithm were implemented in

LabVIEW 8.0, with the data acquisition system consisting of a NI PCI-6229 card and two BNC 2090 connectors.

In Fig. 9, we show a sequence in which combustion instabilities establish themselves, occurring with a dominant modal peak at a frequency of 496 Hz and a secondary peak at a frequency of 328 Hz. The online mode-identification algorithm is switched on, followed by the passive tuning algorithm for both HRs at $t = 7.5$ s. HR₁ is attached to the short branch and set to damp the dominant mode, while HR₂ is attached to the long branch and is set to damp the secondary mode. The neck areas of HR₁ and HR₂ are quickly tuned, and the instabilities die away. Both HRs are deactivated at $t = 12$ s. By altering the fuel flow rate, two new modes at 355 and 1020 Hz grow and the mode at 355 Hz becomes the new dominant mode. At time $t = 19.5$ s, the two resonators are switched on again. They retune their neck areas to the new modes so that these modes are quickly eliminated. The damping results in a sound pressure level reduction of more than 50 dB, as shown in Fig. 10.

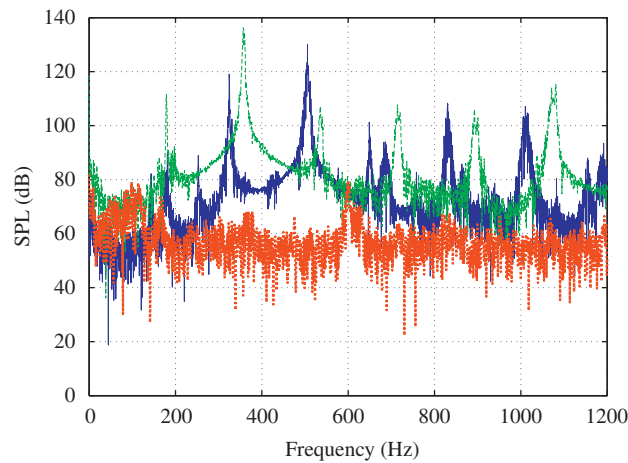


Fig. 10. Pressure spectra showing the typical damping effect of tuned passive control in the Y-shape Rijke tube test: —, first limit cycle; ---, second limit cycle; ···, after control.

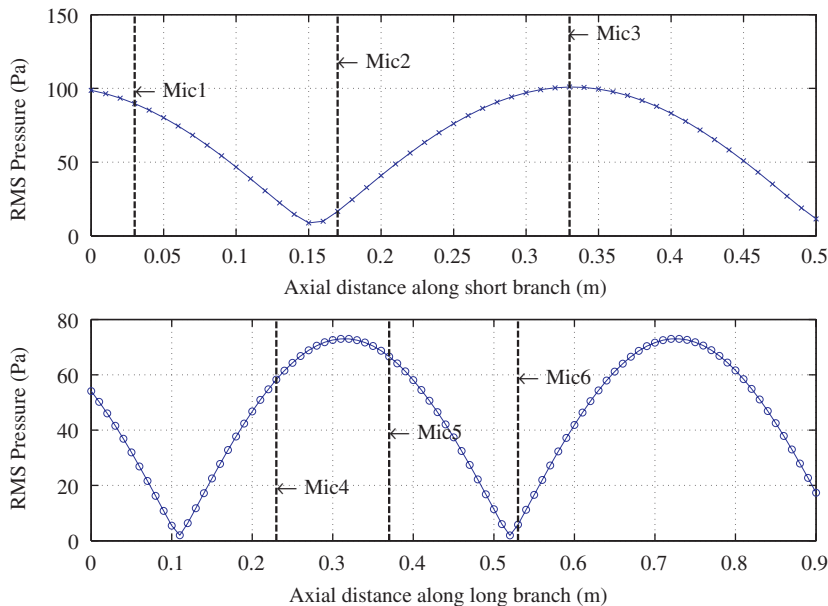


Fig. 11. Mode shape along each branch at the first limit cycle.

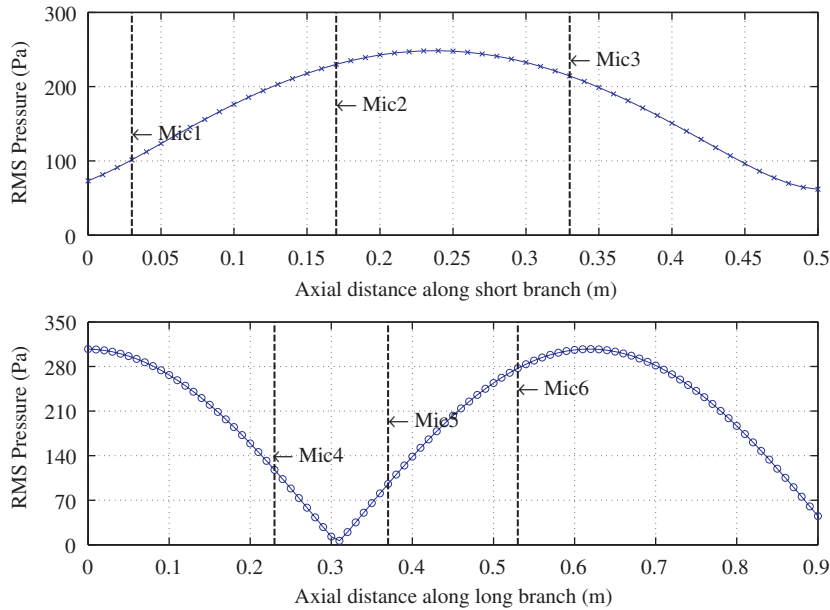


Fig. 12. Mode shape along each branch at the second limit cycle.

The modeshapes within the two branches were measured during each of the two limit cycles, using the two microphone technique [25]. Six G.R.A.S. $\frac{1}{4}$ in Free field Microphones (Type 40BF) were used to measure pressure perturbations at different locations along both branches. They were attached to side arms along the branches, with the semi-infinite line technique used to obtain thermal insulation without distortion from acoustic reflections. The sound speed was obtained using local temperature measurements, and the mean flow speed was neglected. The mode shapes are shown in Fig. 11 (for the first limit cycle) and Fig. 12 (for the second). As expected, both mode shapes exhibit a pressure node near the open end. Note that the pressure mismatch between the two branches at the lower end is probably caused by the rapid area change at the join making the straight duct assumption invalid.

6. Discussion and conclusions

It has been shown that tuned passive control of combustion instabilities can be achieved by tuning the neck areas of Helmholtz resonators. The technique developed in this work placed emphasis on the ability to tune in real-time multiple Helmholtz resonators to damp multiple instability modes in the presence of varying operating conditions.

To identify the frequencies and amplitudes characterising the unstable modes present in a given combustion system, an online mode-identification algorithm was developed. This is a time-domain approach to identify and track modes online, faster than would be possible using an FFT. The frequencies and amplitudes for each separate mode are fed into a two-stage control algorithm for tuning the Helmholtz resonator neck areas (a separate resonator is currently tuned for each mode). This algorithm consists of two stages, an initial tuning and a fine-tuning stage. The initial tuning stage gives a fast response to operating condition changes, while the fine-tuning performs an online minimisation of the modal amplitude.

The tuned passive control approach was firstly demonstrated on a numerical simulation of a longitudinal combustor with two unstable modes. It successfully damped both modes, confirming that the approach was numerically viable. It was then applied to a novel Rijke tube with two upper branches (a Y-shape), which exhibited multiple unstable modes. The Helmholtz resonator neck areas were varied by means of 'iris' valves, which operate like camera lenses. Again, the tuned passive control approach successfully eliminated both of the unstable modes.

In all, the tuned passive control approach developed by the authors was able to rapidly track the changes in the frequencies and modal amplitudes of combustion instabilities in real time. It was thus able to damp these instabilities by varying Helmholtz resonator neck areas on the time scale of operating condition variations.

It is acknowledged that the temperature in real combustion systems, particularly in gas turbines, would make use of actuators such as the iris valve more of a technical challenge. Moreover, a mean flow through the resonators would be required for cooling purposes. This effect has not been included in the current work. Nonetheless, the mode-identification algorithm and the principle of tuned passive control has been shown to be robust and effective, and it would now be interesting to adapt it for real industrial applications.

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Appendix A. Matrices X and Y

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 + \bar{M}_1 \left(2 - \frac{\bar{u}_2}{\bar{u}_1} \right) - \bar{M}_1^2 & 1 + \bar{M}_1 \frac{\bar{\rho}_1 \bar{c}_1}{\bar{\rho}_2 \bar{c}_2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1 - \gamma \bar{M}_1}{\gamma - 1} + \bar{M}_1^2 - \bar{M}_1^2 (1 - \bar{M}_1) \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\bar{u}_2^2}{\bar{u}_1^2} - 1 \right) & \frac{\bar{c}_2 1 + \gamma \bar{M}_2}{\bar{c}_1 \gamma - 1} + \bar{M}_1 \bar{M}_2 \frac{\bar{\rho}_1}{\bar{\rho}_2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1 - \bar{M}_1}{1 + \bar{M}_1} \left(1 + \bar{M}_1 \left(2 - \frac{\bar{u}_2}{\bar{u}_1} \right) + \bar{M}_1^2 \right) & - \left(1 - \bar{M}_1 \frac{\bar{\rho}_1 \bar{c}_1}{\bar{\rho}_2 \bar{c}_2} \right) & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1 - \bar{M}_1}{1 + \bar{M}_1} \left(\frac{1 + \gamma \bar{M}_1}{\gamma - 1} + \bar{M}_1^2 - \bar{M}_1^2 (1 + \bar{M}_1) \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\bar{u}_2^2}{\bar{u}_1^2} - 1 \right) \right) & \frac{\bar{c}_2 1 - \gamma \bar{M}_2}{\bar{c}_1 \gamma - 1} + \bar{M}_1 \bar{M}_2 \frac{\bar{\rho}_1}{\bar{\rho}_2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.98 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.98 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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