Ice Particle Transport Analysis With Phase Change for the E$^3$ Turbofan Engine Using LEWICE3D Version 3.2

Colin S. Bidwell
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Space Administration

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Cleveland, Ohio 44135

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Abstract

Ice Particle trajectory calculations with phase change were made for the Energy Efficient Engine (E³) using the LEWICE3D Version 3.2 software. The particle trajectory computations were performed using the new Glenn Ice Particle Phase Change Model which has been incorporated into the LEWICE3D Version 3.2 software. The E³ was developed by NASA and GE in the early 1980’s as a technology demonstrator and is representative of a modern high bypass turbofan engine. The E³ flow field was calculated using the NASA Glenn ADPAC turbomachinery flow solver. Computations were performed for the low pressure compressor of the E³ for a Mach 0.8 cruise condition at 11,887 m assuming a standard warm day for ice particle sizes of 5, 20, and 100 μm and a free stream particle concentration of 0.3 g/m³. The impingement efficiency results showed that as particle size increased average impingement efficiencies and scoop factors increased for the various components. The particle analysis also showed that the amount of mass entering the inner core decreased with increased particle size because the larger particles were less able to negotiate the turn into the inner core due to particle inertia. The particle phase change analysis results showed that the larger particles warmed less as they were transported through the low pressure compressor. Only the smallest 5 μm particles were warmed enough to produce melting and the amount of melting was relatively small with a maximum average melting fraction of 0.836. The results also showed an appreciable amount of particle sublimation and evaporation for the 5 μm particles entering the engine core (22 percent).

Introduction

Over the last several years work has been ongoing to develop tools to analyze aircraft configurations subjected to High Ice Water Content (HIWC) conditions (Refs. 1 to 2). The HIWC environment contains conditions outside of the FAA Appendix C (Ref. 3) Certification Envelope. The HIWC environment contains large ice or mixed phase particles (>50 μm) in very high concentrations (~10 g/m³) up to very high altitudes (~40000 ft). This HIWC environment has been responsible for many engine anomalies including engine roll backs and shutdowns (Ref. 1). Work is underway to quantify the HIWC environment and to develop ground test facilities and computational tools to assess the sensitivity of various engines to the HIWC environment. New certification rules, which will require aircraft to fly safely through these conditions, are on the horizon. It is anticipated that these new rules will generate new requirements for aircraft ice protection system design and certification and for the tools which aid in these processes. Icing computational tools, which have been successfully used in the design and certification of aircraft subject to the current FAA Appendix C icing environments, show great promise in their ability to analyze aircraft systems subject to the HIWC environment.

The development of icing computational analysis tools which produce sufficiently accurate results in a reasonable amount of computational time for turbomachinery flows has been a major challenge (Refs. 4 to 6). The use of unsteady tools to simulate the flow and particle transport in the highly time dependent turbomachinery flows was seen as impractical and as possibly unnecessary. For this reason a methodology was developed at NASA Glenn which uses the steady flow assumption commonly used in turbomachinery design tools. These methods typically model blade rows as a single blade with
circumferential symmetry and circumferentially averaged inflow and outflow boundary conditions which are generated from neighboring blade rows. These methods typically march through the turbomachinery calculating steady flow for each blade using the upstream blade outflow boundary data and the downstream inflow boundary data for the inflow and outflow boundary conditions respectively. Several passes through the engine to achieve convergence are typically employed by these methods.

The newly developed NASA Glenn “block-to-block” icing analysis method follows the same logic used in these steady flow turbomachinery design tools. Ice particle or water droplet transport properties and ice shape calculations are generated for each blade row using steady, single blade flow solutions and the outflow particle size, state, concentration, and velocity data from the upstream blade row as inflow data. The upstream blade outflow particle concentration, velocities, and state are circumferentially averaged before being passed to the downstream blade row as an inflow boundary condition. This “block-to-block” method was incorporated into the LEWICE3D Version 3.2 software. (Refs. 6 and 7).

The E³ engine (Refs. 8 to 10) was selected as a test case for the newly developed “block-to-block” method incorporated into LEWICE3D Version 3.2. The E³ was developed by NASA and GE in the early 1980’s as a technology demonstrator. The engine was chosen because it is representative of a modern high bypass turbofan engine, the geometry and experimental data were publicly available and flow solutions were readily available.

### Nomenclature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Area, m²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Ice particle diameter, μm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E³</td>
<td>Energy Efficient Engine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGV</td>
<td>Inlet Guide Vane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LWC</td>
<td>Liquid Water Content, g/m³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR</td>
<td>Impingement Rate, g/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Ice particle temperature, K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SF</td>
<td>Scoop Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Velocity, m/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>β</td>
<td>Impingement efficiency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Analytical Method

#### Grid and Flow Calculations

GRIDGEN was used to develop the three-dimensional grids for the geometry (Ref. 11). The ADPAC flow solver (Refs. 12 to 14) was used to generate the flow solution for the analysis. The ADPAC code is a three-dimensional, finite volume based, Reynolds Averaged Navier-Stokes flow solver. The code computes flows on complex propulsion system configurations using multi-block body fitted grids. The method employs a “mixing-plane” procedure to pass boundary condition data between grid blocks for the steady state flows. The code supports parallel computing and uses a Baldwin-Lomax based turbulence model.

#### LEWICE3D

The LEWICE3D ice accretion code was used for the ice particle trajectory calculations. This grid based code incorporates particle trajectory, heat transfer and ice shape calculation into a single computer program. The code can handle generic multi-block structured grid based flow solutions, unstructured grid based flow solutions, simple Cartesian grids with surface patches, and adaptive grids with surface
patches. The latter two methods allow the use of generic panel code input which, when combined with LEWICE3D, is a computationally efficient method for generating ice shapes. The code can handle overlapping and internal grids and can handle multiple planes of symmetry. Calculations of arbitrary streamlines and trajectories are possible. The code has the capability to calculate tangent trajectories and impingement efficiencies for single drops or drop distributions using area based collection efficiency methods. Ice accretions can be calculated at arbitrary regions of interest in either a surface normal or tangent droplet trajectory direction. The program can run on a variety of single processor and parallel computers, including Unix, Linux, and Windows (Microsoft Corporation) based systems.

Version 3.2 of the LEWICE3D software which incorporates several new features was used for the analysis. These features include a new particle splash and bounce algorithm, the Glenn Ice Particle Phase Change Model (Ref. 5) which tracks ice particle or water drop state, a geometry handling scheme which allows complex mirroring, transformation and relative motion of input grid blocks and a new algorithm which calculates block-to-block collection efficiencies and particle properties. These new additions enable users to analyze HIWC conditions and to calculate collection efficiency with water or ice particle phase change, splash and bounce effects through turbo-machinery.

Analysis

The E$^3$ analysis included the calculation of flow and ice particle transport properties. The results for the flow are presented along with particle analysis for 5, 20, and 100 μm ice particle sizes.

The grid structure used for the flow and particle analysis is shown in Figure 1. The grid contained 12 structured, abutted grid blocks with a total of 327,583 nodes. The steady, viscous flow solution was generated for a Mach 0.8 cruise condition at 11998 m assuming a standard warm day. Flow vectors along the centerline of the axi-symmetric solution are shown in Figure 2.

The LEWICE3D ice particle analysis required several cloud input conditions and modeling parameters. The ice particle analysis assumed a free stream relative humidity of 0 percent and a free stream particle concentration of 0.3 g/m$^3$. The ice particles were assumed to be completely frozen and at the ambient temperature of the surrounding air (229.3 K). A simple particle impact and bounce model was used for this analysis because no model exists for the bounce and breakup of ice crystals typical of the HIWC environment. The simple particle bounce model assumed no breakup and no deposition. This was considered to be a reasonable assumption for a completely frozen ice particle. A coefficient of restitution of 1.0 and a coefficient of dynamic friction of 0.0 were used for the impact particle reflection model which yielded a lossless impact. This model was employed for all particle impacts in the engine and hence there was no buildup of ice. The ice particles were transported from the free stream through the compressor and out the compressor exit boundaries. Impingement efficiencies are reported for various surfaces. These were the net values that impinged upon the surface and do not represent the amount of ice that accreted on the surface. The actual values of accretion for all surfaces were zero because of the impact model employed (no deposition). Due to the bouncing model employed (multiple reflection and no deposition) the net amount of impingement on the engine solid surfaces (i.e., walls, blades, spinners, splitter lips, etc.) will be higher than that entering the engine. The amount of mass exiting the engine through the exit boundaries will however equal the amount entering the engine. The values are merely reported to give the reader information as to the amount and location of ice particle impingement.

It is worthwhile to report the definitions and equations used for the particle analysis. These include collection efficiency or impingement efficiency ($\beta$), average collection efficiency ($\beta_{ave}$), impingement rate (IR), and scoop factor (SF). Impingement efficiency is a non-dimensional measure of the mass flux for a surface and is dependent upon the amount of convergence or dispersion of particles in a flow and the orientation of the surface relative to the particle paths. An impingement efficiency of one means the particle flux rate is equal to the free stream particle flux rate. A value less than one means the particle flux rate is less than the free stream particle flux rate and a value greater than one means that the surface particle flux rate is greater than the free stream level. The average collection efficiency is defined as:
\[ \beta_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \beta_n \times A_n}{A_{\text{wetted}}} \]  

Where \( N \) is the number of surface elements with nonzero impingement and \( \beta_n, A_n \) are the collection efficiency and area of surface element \( n \), respectively. The wetted area of the element is the sum of the area of the elements which have non-zero impingement for which we have the equation:

\[ A_{\text{wetted}} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} A_n \]  

The impingement rate for a surface is defined as:

\[ IR = \beta_{\text{avg}} \times LWC_\infty \times V_\infty \times A_{\text{wetted}} \]  

Where \( LWC_\infty \) is the free stream liquid water content and \( V_\infty \) is the free stream speed. The free stream catch fraction or scoop factor (SF) is defined as the ratio of the mass impinging on a component divided by the mass available in the free stream for an area equal to the area bounded by the highlight of the inlet lip. The scoop factor is then:

\[ SF = \frac{IR}{IR_\infty} \]  

The free stream impingement rate (IR\( \infty \)) is defined as the rate at which the particles pass through an area traced out by the highlight of the inlet lip (\( A_\infty \)) traveling at the free stream speed (\( V_\infty \)) with an average collection efficiency of 1 and an LWC matching that of the free stream (LWC\( \infty \)). The average collection efficiency for a surface is then:

\[ \beta_{\text{avg}} = \frac{IR \times A_\infty}{IR_\infty \times A_{\text{wetted}}} = SF \times \frac{A_\infty}{A_{\text{wetted}}} \]  

Figure 3 shows the particle impact locations, impingement efficiency, and particle impact temperatures for the 5 \( \mu \)m particle case. From the ice particle trajectory impact points and impingement efficiency shown in Figures 3(a) to (c) we can see that impingement occurs throughout the low pressure compressor. The ice particle trajectory impact point plot (Fig. 3(a)) displays the impact locations for the particles calculated in each of the blocks for the “block-to-block” method. This plot illustrates the density and location of the impacting particles used in the “block-to-block” method (each impact is represented by a red triangle). The engine schematic shown in Figure 1(c) is useful in clarifying the various elements which receive impingement. The peak value of average impingement efficiency for the various surface elements listed in Table 1 was for the inlet lip #1 (0.17). The scoop factors were relatively small for the 5 \( \mu \)m particle for the various surface components shown in Table 1 (<6 percent). The amount of mass entering the inner core was 16.126 g/m\(^3\) which yielded a scoop factor of 0.0679. Figure 3(d) shows the temperature distribution of the impacting particles. As can be seen from the plot the impact temperatures of the particles increase as they pass through the compressor. The lowest impact temperatures from Figure 3(d) are observed on the spinner while the highest were observed on splitter lip #2 and the aft support strut. As the ice particles transport through the warming environment of the engine they increase in temperature and in some cases sublime or melt and evaporate. The maximum average particle temperature for the 5 \( \mu \)m ice particle was 273.29 K (slightly above the freezing temperature of water) and
occurred on splitter lip #2 (Table 1). From the table we can also so that there was a small amount of melting at the splitter lip #2 because the average melting fraction for splitter lip #2 was less than one (0.836). The melting fraction is defined as the percentage of ice mass to total mass. A melting fraction of one means the particle is totally frozen. A melting fraction of zero means that the particle is totally water. We can also see from Table 1 that there was an appreciable amount of particle sublimation and evaporation for the 5 \( \mu \)m ice particles entering the engine core (~22 percent).

The particle impact, impingement efficiency, and temperature results for the 20 \( \mu \)m particle case are shown in Figure 4. As for the 5 \( \mu \)m ice particle the 20 \( \mu \)m ice particle revealed impingement throughout the low pressure compressor although the impingement area was larger for the 20 \( \mu \)m particle (Figs. 3(c) and 4(c)). For most of the components the impingement rates were higher for the 20 \( \mu \)m particle than for the 5 \( \mu \)m particle due to particle inertia (Tables 1 and 2). Larger particles, which have larger inertia, are more resistive to changes in direction due to flow gradients than smaller particles which results in the larger particles being less apt to avoid obstacles. The amount of mass entering the inner core was 10.509 g/m\(^3\) which yielded a scoop factor of 0.0443. The mass entering the core for the 20 \( \mu \)m particle was smaller than for the 5 \( \mu \)m particle because the larger particles were less able to negotiate the turn into the inner core due to their larger inertia. The peak value of average impingement efficiency for the various surface elements listed in Table 2 was for splitter lip #2 (0.3865). The scoop factors were larger for the 20 \( \mu \)m particle than for the 5 \( \mu \)m particle due to particle inertia. The maximum value of scoop factor for the 20 \( \mu \)m particle was for the fan blade (0.3870). From the temperature distributions in Figure 4(d) and Table 2 we see that the maximum average temperature for the 20 \( \mu \)m particle was 270.38 K which occurred on splitter lip #2. This was less than that for the 5 \( \mu \)m particle and is due to the thermal mass of the 20 \( \mu \)m particle being larger and hence more resistive to temperature change. We also see from Table 2 that there was no melting of the 20 \( \mu \)m particle and that there was a very small amount of sublimation for some of the elements.

The particle impact, impingement efficiency, and temperature results for the 100 \( \mu \)m particle case are shown in Figure 5. For most of the components the impingement rates were higher for the 100 \( \mu \)m particle than for the 20 and 5 \( \mu \)m particles due to particle inertia (Tables 1 to 3). The amount of mass entering the inner core was 0.181 g/m\(^3\) which yielded a scoop factor of 0.0008. The mass entering the core for the 100 \( \mu \)m particle was smaller than for both the 5 and 20 \( \mu \)m particles because the larger particles were less able to negotiate the turn into the inner core due to their larger inertia. The peak value of average impingement efficiency for the various surface elements listed in Table 3 was for IGV #1 (0.9368). The scoop factors were larger for the 100 \( \mu \)m particle than for the 20 and 5 \( \mu \)m particles due to particle inertia. The maximum value of scoop factor for the 100 \( \mu \)m particle was for the fan blade (0.8248). From the temperature distributions in Figure 5(d) and Table 3 we see that the maximum average temperature for the 100 \( \mu \)m particle was 253.09 K which occurred at the exit of the inner core. This was less than that for the 20 and 5 \( \mu \)m particles and is due to the larger thermal mass of the 100 \( \mu \)m particles. We also see from Table 3 that there was no melting and sublimation of the 100 \( \mu \)m particle for any of the elements.

**Conclusion**

Predictions for ice particle impingement efficiency, temperature, and melting fraction were generated for the E\(^3\) low pressure compressor using the Glenn Ice Particle Phase Change Model newly incorporated into LEWICE3D Version 3.2 and a flow solution from the ADPAC flow solver. The impingement efficiency results showed that as particle size increased average impingement efficiencies and scoop factors increased for the various components. The particle analysis also showed that the amount of mass entering the core decreased with increased particle size because the larger particles were less able to negotiate the turn into the inner core due to particle inertia. The particle phase change analysis results showed that the larger particles warmed less as they were transported through the low pressure compressor. Only the smallest 5 \( \mu \)m particles were warmed enough to produce melting and the amount of...
melting was relatively small with a maximum average melting fraction of 0.836. The results also showed an appreciable amount of particle sublimation and evaporation for the 5 μm particles entering the engine core (22 percent). These results suggest that the newly developed NASA Glenn “block-to-block” icing analysis method can be a useful tool for the analysis of turbomachinery subject to the HIWC environment.

References

### TABLE 1.—E³ TRANSPORT STATISTICS FOR AN ICE PARTICLE SIZE OF 5 µm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>( \beta_{\text{avg}} )</th>
<th>Impingement rate, g/s</th>
<th>Scoop factor</th>
<th>( D_{\text{avg}} ), µm</th>
<th>( T_{\text{avg}} ), K</th>
<th>Melt Fraction( \text{avg} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Free stream capture tube</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>237.397</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>229.30</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inlet lip</td>
<td>0.1746</td>
<td>2.353</td>
<td>0.0099</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>255.75</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.8640</td>
<td>183.956</td>
<td>0.7749</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>239.40</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<td>Spinner</td>
<td>0.0927</td>
<td>1.020</td>
<td>0.0043</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>255.90</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<td>Fan blade</td>
<td>0.0432</td>
<td>12.702</td>
<td>0.0535</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>262.95</td>
<td>0.986</td>
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<td>Splitter lip #1</td>
<td>0.0856</td>
<td>1.150</td>
<td>0.0048</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>267.10</td>
<td>0.987</td>
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<td>IGV #1</td>
<td>0.0913</td>
<td>3.523</td>
<td>0.0148</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>269.55</td>
<td>0.931</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rotor #1</td>
<td>0.0744</td>
<td>1.955</td>
<td>0.0082</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>270.92</td>
<td>0.864</td>
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<tr>
<td>Splitter lip #2</td>
<td>0.1427</td>
<td>0.825</td>
<td>0.0035</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>273.29</td>
<td>0.836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inner core</td>
<td>0.6965</td>
<td>16.126</td>
<td>0.0679</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>271.99</td>
<td>0.952</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Based on capture area of 3.26 m²

### TABLE 2.—E³ TRANSPORT STATISTICS FOR AN ICE PARTICLE SIZE OF 20 µm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>( \beta_{\text{avg}} )</th>
<th>Impingement rate, g/s</th>
<th>Scoop factor</th>
<th>( D_{\text{avg}} ), µm</th>
<th>( T_{\text{avg}} ), K</th>
<th>Melt Fraction( \text{avg} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Free stream capture tube</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>237.397</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>229.30</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inlet lip</td>
<td>0.2249</td>
<td>24.402</td>
<td>0.1028</td>
<td>19.99</td>
<td>245.44</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inlet capture</td>
<td>0.9572</td>
<td>200.823</td>
<td>0.8459</td>
<td>19.98</td>
<td>238.64</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spinner</td>
<td>0.0803</td>
<td>4.606</td>
<td>0.0194</td>
<td>19.97</td>
<td>250.05</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<td>Fan blade</td>
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<td>91.862</td>
<td>0.3870</td>
<td>19.97</td>
<td>250.76</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Splitter lip #1</td>
<td>0.1623</td>
<td>5.318</td>
<td>0.0224</td>
<td>19.97</td>
<td>257.26</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<td>IGV #1</td>
<td>0.2768</td>
<td>13.619</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
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<td>0.2639</td>
<td>8.590</td>
<td>0.0362</td>
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<td>Splitter lip #2</td>
<td>0.3865</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inner core</td>
<td>1.1958</td>
<td>10.509</td>
<td>0.0443</td>
<td>19.87</td>
<td>270.25</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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</table>

*Based on capture area of 3.26 m²

### TABLE 3.—E³ TRANSPORT STATISTICS FOR AN ICE PARTICLE SIZE OF 100 µm

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<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>( \beta_{\text{avg}} )</th>
<th>Impingement rate, g/s</th>
<th>Scoop factor</th>
<th>( D_{\text{avg}} ), µm</th>
<th>( T_{\text{avg}} ), K</th>
<th>Melt Fraction( \text{avg} )</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Free stream capture tube</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>237.397</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inlet lip</td>
<td>0.1820</td>
<td>83.816</td>
<td>0.3531</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>231.80</td>
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<td>1.0905</td>
<td>228.779</td>
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<td>Spinner</td>
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<td>IGV #1</td>
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<td>Splitter lip #2</td>
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<td>Inner core</td>
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<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
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*Based on capture area of 3.26 m²
Figure 1.—Surface model and grid structure for E³ flow model.
Figure 2.—Centerline velocity vectors for the $E^3$ low pressure compressor.
Figure 3.—$E^3$ particle transport results for a 5 $\mu$m ice particle.
Figure 3.—Concluded.
(a) Particle impact locations (axial view).

(b) Impingement efficiency.

Figure 4.—E$^3$ particle transport results for a 20 µm ice particle.
(c) Impingement efficiency (axial view).

(d) Particle impact temperature.

Figure 4.—Concluded.
Figure 5.—E³ particle transport results for a 100 μm ice particle.
(c) Impingement efficiency (axial view).

(d) Particle impact temperature.

Figure 5.—Concluded.
Ice Particle Transport Analysis With Phase Change for the E³ Turbofan Engine Using LEWICE3D Version 3.2

Ice Particle trajectory calculations with phase change were made for the Energy Efficient Engine (E³) using the LEWICE3D Version 3.2 software. The particle trajectory computations were performed using the new Glenn Ice Particle Phase Change Model which has been incorporated into the LEWICE3D Version 3.2 software. The E³ was developed by NASA and GE in the early 1980’s as a technology demonstrator and is representative of a modern high bypass turbofan engine. The E³ flow field was calculated using the NASA Glenn ADPAC turbomachinery flow solver. Computations were performed for the low pressure compressor of the E³ for a Mach 0.8 cruise condition at 11,887 m assuming a standard warm day for ice particle sizes of 5, 20, and 100 µm and a free stream particle concentration of 0.3 g/m³. The impingement efficiency results showed that as particle size increased average impingement efficiencies and scoop factors increased for the various components. The particle analysis also showed that the amount of mass entering the inner core decreased with increased particle size because the larger particles were less able to negotiate the turn into the inner core due to particle inertia. The particle phase change analysis results showed that the larger particles warmed less as they were transported through the low pressure compressor. Only the smallest 5 µm particles were warmed enough to produce melting and the amount of melting was relatively small with a maximum average melting fraction of 0.836. The results also showed an appreciable amount of particle sublimation and evaporation for the 5 µm particles entering the engine core (22 percent).