Circular cylinder drag reduction by three-electrode plasma actuators

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Abstract. The drag reduction in a circular cylinder was explored by means of a novel three electrode plasma actuator (DBDE). The DBDE actuator can reduce the drag coefficient up to a ~25% respect to the base flow drag coefficient. It has been demonstrated that, within the present experimental conditions, the DBDE actuator, for a fixed value of the power coefficient, adds a higher momentum to the flow and, consequently, produces a higher drag reduction than the DBD actuator with the same power coefficient. The actuator efficiency was analysed in terms of the momentum added to the flow revealing similar behaviour for both kind of actuators. However to produce similar levels of actuation both kind of actuators require different values of $V_{AC}$ voltages that resulted always lower for DBDE. The reduction in this high voltage value is highly beneficial as is directly related to: a lower HV AC source power requirement, a reduction in the dielectric breakdown probability of the device and a reduction in leakage currents.

1. Introduction
Flow over bluff bodies, for Reynolds number exceeding a critical value, presents vortex shedding in the wake hence resulting in a significant pressure drop on the rear surface of the body. This vortex shedding occurs over a wide range of Reynolds numbers causing structural vibrations, acoustic noise and resonance, enhanced mixing, and significant increases in the aerodynamic drag.

Active flow control techniques have been studied to improve aerodynamic performance of bluff bodies. Most of the flow actuation techniques are concentrated on the reattachment of separated flow which results in enhancing lift and/or reducing drag forces. Flow reattachment can be achieved using surface blowing to construct a pseudo streamline-shaped surface [1-2], surface suction to obtain a thinner boundary layer [3], oscillations of the body (rotary [4-5], streamwise [6] and transverse [7-8]) or synthetic jets [9-10] to utilise the effects of momentum injection into a boundary layer. However, these techniques add different kind of complexity to the system and offer in general a limited controllability in eliminating or delaying flow separation.

Recently, the use of plasma actuators has been proposed as an alternative method to control flow separation (see for instance the comprehensive review [11]). These plasma actuators use a non-thermal surface plasmas and the flowing air close to the surface of the body is ionized. As a consequence of the elastic collisions between the migrating charged particles and the neutral species of the gas, the neutrals increase their momentum giving rise to an ‘electric wind’ that takes place in the close vicinity of the wall surface. This additional body force resulting from the strong directional ion flow can
suppress flow separation as it can be used to overcome the destabilising adverse pressure gradient. Also other mechanisms like alterations of the physical properties of the gas (density, viscosity, etc.), may eventually contribute to enhance the electromechanical coupling of discharge-airflow [12-13]. The plasma actuators are technologically attractive because of their simplicity (they have no moving parts) and their very short response time (typically of the order of tens of milliseconds, see for instance [11]).

Plasma actuators can be classified considering the number of electrodes comprised and their arrangement. A first group involves devices employing two electrodes arrangements. At the same time this actuators group may be divided if we consider devices in which the electrodes are separated by a dielectric barrier, usually known as dielectric barrier discharge actuators (DBD), or devices in which the two electrodes are bared and flush mounted on a dielectric surface (BED).

The DBD actuators use periodically excited electrodes and the dielectric barrier interposed between them plays an important role in the stabilisation of the discharge. A large number of aerodynamic studies of flows actuated with DBD have been carried out (see for instance [14-19]). Typically, the DBD actuator can generate an electric wind with a velocity up to about 8 m/s. Nevertheless the plasma area extension is limited as the ionization may extend up to ~2 cm from the electrode edge. This might be a crucial drawback for large scale applications.

The BED actuators may produce distinctive gaseous discharges depending on the applied potential and the flow conditions [20], these are: unipolar coronas discharge (UC), bipolar coronas (BC) and plasma sheet discharge (PS). In any case the electrodes excitation is produced either with DC or with a periodic voltage supply. The aerodynamic performances of BED plasma actuators have been reported in previous works for different flow conditions [21-27].

The main drawback of BED plasma actuators is that the electrical discharge may become rather unstable under certain atmospheric conditions. For instance, corona-to-arc transition have been detected in some cases when the relative air humidity exceeded a threshold of about 55% [28].

More recently [29], a new group of plasma actuators consisting in three electrodes devices has been developed (TED). Figure 1 shows the arrangement where two electrodes are flush mounted on the air exposed surface (upper electrodes (1) and (3)), and a third one is placed on the opposite side of the insulating surface (lower electrode, (2)). If the electrode (3) and the electrode (2) are grounded biased while the upper electrode (1) is at an AC voltage a typical surface dielectric barrier discharge is formed between electrodes (1) and (2), as is schematically showed in figure 1a. In this case the TED actuator works like a conventional DBD actuator.

On the other hand when the electrode (1) is at an AC voltage and a high enough DC voltage is applied to the electrode (3) one can produce different discharges, depending on the polarity of the DC voltage $V_{DC}$. Thus for $V_{DC} < 0$ a luminescent plasma sheet (named sliding discharge, SD) that occupies the whole electrode gap is produced (see figure 1c), and if $V_{DC} > 0$ a discharge that visually looks like a DBD (see figure 1b), but with different electrical and mechanical characteristics, is established. Both discharge regimes are as stable as the DBD discharge and have the advantage that they allow large-scale applications because the discharge extension may be increased up to the gap between electrodes (1) and (3) [30-32].

![Figure 1. Different plasma actuators. a) Dielectric Barrier Discharge actuator (DBD), b) Three Electrode Device with $V_{DC} > 0$ (TED-DBDE), c) Three Electrode Device with $V_{DC} < 0$ (TED-SD)](image-url)
In the TED actuators the induced electric wind morphology is strongly dependent on the polarity of the DC voltage applied to electrode (3). When $V_{DC} < 0$, and the sliding discharge (SD) takes place, two induced jet flows, with origin at the electrodes proximity, result directed towards the inter-electrode space. In this case the global induced flow direction also dependent on the applied AC voltage. By varying the AC voltage value the global plume like flow direction and span angles almost lying in the range $0$-$180^\circ$ referred to the dielectric surface (see figure 1c). More detailed experiments concerning induced flow by the SD actuator can be found in [32].

On the other hand if we consider a TED actuator with a positive DC component applied to electrode (3) the induced electric wind direction (figure 1b) is coincident with that observed in a single DBD actuator (figure 1a) but the positive DC voltage allowed to increase the induced electric wind, respect to the case $V_{DC} = 0$, without a noticeable increase in the electrical power consumption [31]. This last configuration will be referred as enhanced dielectric barrier discharge or DBDE actuator.

The objective of this work is to determine the capability of DBDE plasma actuators to reduce the aerodynamic drag experienced by a circular cylinder in uniform translation. We are especially interested in comparing, for this flow configuration, the performance of the DBDE actuation with the more traditional DBD ones [33-35].

To undertake this analysis we performed two different set of experiments. One of them has as objective to characterise the induced electric wind when the plasma actuator is applied in quiescent air. We focus our attention in the difference between the cases $V_{DC} = 0$ (DBD) and $V_{DC} > 0$ (DBDE). This set of experiments were done mounting the plasma actuator on a flat plate in order to simplify the measurement of the induced velocity. Electrical measurements complete this study. In a second set of experiments we analyse the modifications produced in the aerodynamic drag exerted on a circular cylinder (within the Re range of $6.10^3 < Re < 13.10^3$) by either DBD or DBDE actuators.

2. Experimental set-up

2.1. Induced flow in quiescent air and electrical measurements

A scheme of the experimental set up is shown in figure 2. In order to analyse the induced electric wind in a quiescent air the plasma actuator was mounted in a dielectric flat plate.

In this case the electrode arrangement consisted in two flat aluminium foils (electrodes (1) and (3)) flush mounted on the surface of a polymethyl methacrylate flat plate (150 mm x 350 mm, thickness of 3 mm) and a third one disposed at the opposite side (electrode (2)). Electrode (2) was buried in order to inhibit discharges on this dielectric plate side. The electrodes dimensions are 50 $\mu$m thickness, length 300 mm (in the z direction, see figure 2) and width 5 mm. The inter-electrode gap between electrodes (1) and (3) was 28 mm.

A variable DC power supply ($V_{DC}$ in the range $+10 \div +20$ kV, 10 W) biased positively electrode (3). Another variable AC sine voltage power supply (frequency: $f = 8$ kHz, zero mean value; peak to peak voltage $V_{AC}$ up to 20 kV) was applied to electrode (1). The AC power supply consisted in a function generator coupled to an audio amplifier (of 150 watt) that fed a high voltage transformer coil [36]. The electric current flowing in the system, $I_d(t)$ and $I_s(t)$, were measured with shunt resistances ($R = 50\Omega$) connected to an oscilloscope with 60 MHz of analogical bandwidth and 1Gs/s of sampling rate. The AC voltage applied to electrode (1), and the DC voltage applied to electrode (3) were measured with a HV probe (1000 $\times$ / 3.0 pF / 100M$\Omega$).
The set-up was placed horizontally in the test section of a low speed wind tunnel with a square test section of 450 mm x 450 mm (850 mm length) in order to avoid external flow perturbations.

One pressure probe (Pitot tube in figure 2) was mounted on the dielectric surface, placed in front of electrode (1) at \( x = 15 \) mm, and \( y = 0.48 \) mm. This probe was made of electrically insulating glass tube (internal diameter: \( ID = 0.97 \) mm, outer diameter \( OD = 1.3 \) mm) and was connected by mean of a tygon tube to a low differential pressure transmitter (0 to 30 Pa, accuracy of 0.4% full scale). The reference pressure value was measured at the test section but far away from the electrodes.

2.2. Aerodynamic drag measurement

In this study the electrodes were mounted on a PMMA cylinder that was 40 mm in diameter \( D \) (length \( L = 300 \) mm). The cylinder was a hollow tube with a 3-mm thick wall.

The electrode arrangement consists in three electrodes flush-mounted on the cylinder surface (two couple electrodes (1)-(2) and one electrode (3), see figure 3a). The electrodes dimensions were 50 \( \mu \)m thickness, length 300 mm (in the \( z \) direction) and width 5 mm. All the electrodes were parallel to the cylinder axis (see figure 3a) and the inter-electrode gap between electrodes (1) and (3) was 28 mm.

Our experimental device was placed in an open low speed wind tunnel (0-5 m/s) with a square test section of 450 mm x 450 mm (850 mm length) with the cylinder axis placed perpendicular to the main flow (\( U_0 \)) and oriented such that the electrode (3) occupied the rear stagnation point (\( \theta = 0 \)) and the pairs of electrodes (1) and (2) occupied positions \( \theta = 90^\circ \) and \( \theta = -90^\circ \) respectively (see figure 3a).

We have measured the drag exerted on the cylinder by means of a balance that enable us to detect changes of 10 mN in the force. The cylinder was hanged from this balance by two supports (fixed on both cylinder ends through pieces of nylon entering in the hollows of the tube) and the force was detected by equilibrating the moment of the drag force with the moment of the weights of the balance. (an outline of the wind tunnel and aerodynamic drag balance is shown in figure 3b). The blockage ratio was 8.9% and no correction has been applied to the drag data for blockage effects.
3. Results.

3.1. Induced electric wind and power consumption

The morphology of the induced flow in the case of the DBD actuator has been widely studied [19,37-39]. The DBD induces a depression above the right edge of electrode (1), and then the fluid is accelerated tangentially to the wall towards electrode (3). In the case of the three-electrode device actuator with $V_{DC}>0$, it seems that the depression occurs above the whole discharge region, (i.e. between electrodes (1) and (3)). It was previously demonstrated that when a positive DC component is applied to electrode (3) the induced momentum increase, respect to the momentum induced by a DBD actuator (i.e. $V_{DC}=0$), whatever the $x$ position [31]. This increase also occurred downstream of the visible discharge extension. This behaviour was associated to alterations of the asymmetric character of the induced flow in the DBD actuators (the negative DBD discharge, occurring during the negative half cycle, resulted in a faster velocity than the positive one, [38]). The velocity increase when $V_{DC}>0$ due to the acceleration of the negative space charge created by the DBD in the negative half-cycle results higher than the velocity reduction during the DBD positive half-cycle, producing a higher time-averaged velocity.

In the present work a single DBDE actuator has been mounted on a flat plate in order to characterise the induced flow in terms of the applied voltages ($V_{DC}$ and $V_{AC}$) and the consumed electrical power ($P$). The same geometrical parameters that those considered for the cylinder flow control case have been used (i.e. dielectric thickness, electrodes dimensions and inter-electrode gap between electrodes (1) and (3)). For the flat plate tests we have measured the induced flow velocity at fixed point in all the considered cases to characterise the induced flow (complete velocity profiles can be found in [31]). For the DBD and DBDE actuators we will adopt the following nomenclature: $DBD_I$ and $DBDE_{IE}$, where the subscripts $I$ and $E$ indicate the applied $V_{DC}$ and $V_{AC}$ voltages respectively.

Figure 4 shows the velocity ($U_j$) measured at $x=15$ mm and $y=0.48$ mm versus $V_{AC}$, without the DC component (DBD actuator case) and with $V_{DC}=+12$ kV (named $DBDE_{12}$) and +16 kV (named $DBDE_{16}$). This figure enables to show that the induced electric wind velocity increases with the applied DC component value.

We also can observe that the same induced values of $U_j$ observed for the DBDE actuator can be achieved with a DBD actuator but applying higher values of $V_{AC}$. For instance if we consider the DBDE actuator with $V_{DC}=16$ kV and $V_{AC}=15$ kV (named $DBDE_{16}$) the induced flow velocity results $U_j \approx 1.9$ m/s, and if we consider a single DBD actuator with $V_{AC}=17$ kV (named $DBD_{17}$) the
induced velocity has been resulted almost the same. Bellow we will discuss what does this higher V_{AC} value mean in terms of the actuator electrical power consumption.

It is worth nothing that the upper limit for the V_{DC} value was ~16 kV because under our experimental conditions (i.e. electrodes radii and inter-electrode gap) an increase of V_{DC} beyond this upper limit will produce sparking between electrodes (1) and (3).

![Figure 5. Electrical power consumption (P) as a function of V_{AC} with V_{DC} as a parameter for the DBD and DBDE actuators](image)

Figure 5 shows the electrical power consumption (P) versus V_{AC}, for a single DBD actuator and for a single DBDE actuator considering several positive values of V_{DC}. It shows that for a fixed value of V_{AC} an increase in the applied V_{DC} value produce a slight increase in the electrical power consumption. For instance with V_{AC} = 15 kV, P \approx 3.6 W for a single DBD (i.e. V_{DC} = 0, DBD_{15}) whereas P \approx 4.1 W for a single DBDE actuator with V_{AC} = 15 kV and V_{DC} = 16 kV (DBDE_{15}E_{16}) resulting in a power consumption increase of ~12%. In general the increase in the electrical power consumption, with the increase in V_{DC}, was confined within the range ~5÷15%.

On the other hand we can observe that in all the cases the electrical power increases with V_{AC} according to a parabolic function \[ P = K(V_{AC} - V_0)^2, \] been \[ K = 5.73 \times 10^{-8} \frac{W}{V^2} \] and \[ V_0 = 7.58 \times 10^3 V \] for the single DBD actuator under the present experimental conditions.

Now we can complete our comparison of performance of both kind of actuators, to induce a flow, considering energy consumption arguments. The analysis shows that although similar values of U_j can be achieved with both type of actuators the power consumption required by the DBDE actuator results always lower. For instance in the previously worked out example the DBDE actuator requires P \approx 4.1 W to induce a velocity of U_j \approx 1.9 m/s (DBDE_{15}E_{16}) whereas to induce the same velocity the DBD actuator consumption is P \approx 5.4 W (DBD_{15}). This example shows that the DBDE requires only the ~76% of the electrical power consumed by the DBD actuator to induce the same flow velocity. To reinforce this experimental observation Table 1 shows another examples comparing the consumed power of the DBD and DBDE actuators (P^{DBD} and P^{DBDE} respectively) to induce the same velocity U_j.
Table 1. Comparisons between the different actuators consumed power to induce the same velocity

| $U_j$(m/s) | $\text{DBD}$ | $\text{DBDE (V}_{\text{DC}} = 16 \text{kV}$ | $\text{p}^{\text{DBDE}}/\text{p}^{\text{DBD}}$ (%) |
|-----------|---------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|
|           | $V_{\text{AC}}$(kV) | $P^{\text{DBD}}$(W) | $V_{\text{AC}}$(kV) | $P^{\text{DBDE}}$(W) |                            |
| 1.9       | 17            | 5.4                          | 15                        | 4.1                     | 76                          |
| 2.3       | 18            | 6.4                          | 16                        | 4.8                     | 75                          |
| 2.6       | 19            | 7.4                          | 17                        | 5.7                     | 77                          |
| 3.1       | 20            | 9.5                          | 18                        | 6.8                     | 72                          |

In conclusion, the DBDE actuators require less power consumption to produce the same induced flow velocity. In order to highlight this behaviour, we will compare the actuators performance in terms of non-dimensional parameters. One of them is the non-dimensional momentum coefficient ($C_\mu$), defined as:

$$C_\mu = \frac{U_j^2 b}{U_0^2 D}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

Where $b$ is the characteristic height of the jet induced by the plasma actuator. The momentum coefficient evaluates the ratio between the plasma actuator added momentum ($\propto \rho U_j^2 b L$) and a characteristic momentum flow in the free stream ($\propto \rho U_0^2 D L$). Another important parameter will be the power coefficient ($C_W$) defined as:

$$C_W = \frac{P}{\frac{1}{2} \rho U_0^3 L D}$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

The power coefficient evaluates the ratio between the plasma actuator consumed electric power ($P$) and a characteristic flow of kinetic energy in the free stream flow.

Figure 6 shows the DBDE and DBDE$_{E_{16}}$ (DBDE with $V_{\text{DC}} = 16$ kV) momentum coefficient ($C_\mu$) as a function of the power coefficient ($C_W$) for different Re numbers ($\text{Re} = U_0 D / \nu$).

![Figure 6](image-url)
We can observe that for the same non-dimensional power coefficient the momentum addition to the flow is higher if we consider a DBDE actuators rather than a DBD ones. This last behaviour was observed for all the considered Re numbers.

3.2. Aerodynamic drag force

Figure 7 shows the drag force (F_D) as a function of the free stream velocity (U_0) for the base flow (i.e. without discharge) and for the flow modified by means of two single DBD actuators considering different V_AC values. It can be observed that a significant drag reduction can be achieved by means of the DBD actuation. Moreover, if the V_AC value increase the drag reduction is higher. Typically the DBD actuation can reduce the drag force within ~15÷25% for all the free stream velocity tested values.

![Figure 7. Drag force (F_D) as a function of the free stream velocity (U_0) for the base flow and for the flow modified by means of DBD actuators.](image)

In order to compare the drag reduction achieved with the different kind of actuators Figure 8 shows the drag force (F_D) as a function of the free stream velocity (U_0) for the base flow (i.e. without discharge) and for the flow modified either by two single DBD or DBDE actuators. The values of V_DC and V_AC were chosen such as the induced wind velocity (U_j) in quiescent air result almost the same for both kind of actuators in each figure. So figure 8a compare the case of DBD actuators with V_AC = 17 kV (DBD_{17}) with the case of DBDE actuators with V_AC = 15 kV and V_DC = 16 kV (DBDE_{15}), and figure 8b compare the case of DBD actuators with V_AC = 18 kV (DBD_{18}) with the case of DBDE actuators with V_AC = 16 kV and V_DC = 16 kV (DBDE_{16}).

It is clear from figures 8a y 8b that if we adjust the actuators parameters (i.e. V_AC and V_DC values) in order to induce the same flow velocity we produce almost the same drag reduction on the cylinder whatever the actuator used.
Figure 8. Drag force ($F_D$) as a function of the free stream velocity ($U_0$) for the base flow and for the flow modified by means of: upper) DBD actuators ($V_{AC} = 17$ kV and $V_{DC} = 0$ kV) and DBDE actuators ($V_{AC} = 15$ kV and $V_{DC} = 16$ kV); lower) DBD actuators ($V_{AC} = 18$ kV and $V_{DC} = 0$ kV) and DBDE actuators ($V_{AC} = 16$ kV and $V_{DC} = 16$ kV);

It is useful to compare both kind of actuators considering the drag force in its non dimensional form (i.e. the drag coefficient, $C_D$):

$$C_D = \frac{F_D}{\frac{1}{2} \rho U_0^2 DL}$$

(3)

Figure 9 shows the drag coefficient ($C_D$) as a function of the power coefficient ($C_{PP}$) for the DBD and DBDE16 actuators considering two different Reynolds numbers.
Figure 9. Drag coefficient ($C_D$) as a function of the power coefficient ($C_W$) for the DBD and DBDE actuators (with $V_{DC} = 16$ kV). (upper) $Re = 8300$ and (lower) $Re = 10.560$.

The horizontal dash line ($C_D = 1.1$) represent the drag coefficient in the base flow (i.e. without plasma actuation). We observe that a considerable drag reduction can be achieved with both types of actuators. The plotted curves $C_D(C_W)$ has a very small negative slope and the curves corresponding to the DBDE actuation (dot lines) always appear below (or almost equal to) the curves associated to the DBD actuation (solid lines). This trend was also observed within all the $C_W$ and $Re$ studied ranges.

Another important parameter to compare the actuators performances is the actuator efficiency ($\eta$) defined as:

$$
\eta = \frac{(F_D^{OFF} - F_D^{ON}) U_0}{P}
$$

Where $F_D^{ON}$ and $F_D^{OFF}$ are the cylinder drag force with and without plasma actuator respectively. The actuator efficiency evaluates the ratio between the power saved as a consequence of the drag reduction ($F_D^{OFF} - F_D^{ON}$) and the electrical power required to energise the actuator ($P$).

Figure 10 shows the actuator efficiency ($\eta$) as a function of the power coefficient ($C_W$) for different Reynolds numbers. In this case we have compared the efficiency of the DBD actuators with that of the DBDE actuators with $V_{DC} = 16$ kV ($DBDE_{16}$).
Figure 10 shows the DBDI and DBDEI\(_{16}\) (DBDE with V\(_{DC}\) = 16 kV) actuators efficiency (\(\eta\)) as a function of the power coefficient (\(C_{W}\)) for different Re numbers.

This figure hides in some sense that the DBDE actuation enables to improve efficiency of DBD actuators as we expected from our previous experimental results. In fact for the same power coefficient (\(C_{W}\)) we have observed a higher momentum addition and higher drag reduction when a DBDE actuation was considered (see figure 6 and 9 respectively) and consequently the expected DBDE efficiency must be higher than the DBD ones. However the differences between the drag reduction achieved with the different kind of actuators (see figure 9) are not enough to reveal this behaviour when these non-dimensional parameters are considered.

Figure 11. Drag coefficient (\(C_{D}\)) as a function of the momentum coefficient (\(C_{\mu}\)) for the DBD and DBDE actuators (with V\(_{DC}\) = 16 kV). (upper) Re = 8300 and (lower) Re = 10.560.
In this figure it can also be observed that the actuator efficiency tends to diminish (for both kinds of actuators) when momentum coefficient increase. This efficiency reduction could be explained in terms of a saturation of the actuation with the increase in $C_\mu$.

In Figure 11 we represent the drag coefficient ($C_D$) as a function of the momentum coefficient ($C_\mu$) for the DBD and DBDE actuators for a typical case.

This figure enables to show that the increase in the momentum coefficient produce a similar decrease in the drag coefficient for both kinds of actuators. However for values of $C_\mu$ higher than $C_\mu \approx 0.06$ the drag coefficient seems to reach a saturation value. The actuator efficiency decreases for higher values of $C_\mu$ is in concordance with this saturation in the actuation (i.e. a saturation in the achievable increase of the $(F_D^{OFF} - F_D^{ON})$ value for a fixed $Re$ number). In other words for the higher $C_\mu$ values the consumed electrical power increase without a noticeable increase in the cylinder drag reduction. This plateau in the function $C_D(C_\mu)$ as been theoretically predicted by an analytical study of a tangential wall jet applied to the control of separated flow past a circular cylinder[40]. It has been shown that the wall jet is very efficient in reducing drag by delaying the separation point in the range of small blowing strength because the suction force induced by the wall jet is negligible compared to the drag due to the external stream. However when the blowing strength is large this suction force finally produces an increase of the drag [40].

4. Conclusions

The drag reduction in a circular cylinder was explored by means of a novel three electrode plasma actuator (DBDE). The DBDE actuator can reduce the drag coefficient up to a $\sim 25\%$ respect to the base flow drag coefficient. It has been demonstrated that, within the present experimental conditions, the DBDE actuator, for a fixed value of the power coefficient, adds a higher momentum to the flow and, consequently, produces a higher drag reduction than the DBD actuator with the same power coefficient. For the flow configuration considered the characteristics of the actuation mechanism itself (steady momentum addition) is rather inefficient and it is very difficult to increase the drag reduction by increasing the amount of momentum due to the very small slope in the curves $C_D(C_\mu)$. For both kind of actuators the device efficiency has been analysed in terms of the power added to the flow. It has been found that the efficiency attained similar values of almost $20\%$ but at high levels of actuation the efficiency reduced to a much lower level of $2\%$. This saturation has been also observed with syntethic jets devices where it has been shown that the steady injection of momentum reduce the drag coefficient but when higher values of the momentum coefficient were considered the drag reduction reached a plateau and the efficiency actuator consequently decayed.

In the case under study the DBDE actuator does not increase appreciably the actuation efficiency respect to that achieved with DBD. However to produce similar levels of actuation both kind of actuators require different values of $V_{AC}$ voltages (always lower for DBDE). The reduction in this high voltage value is highly beneficial as is directly related to: a lower instantaneous electrical power requirement (i.e. the electrical reactive power is lower), a reduction in the dielectric breakdown probability and a reduction in the leakage currents (which are produced by loss of insulation at high voltage and frequencies).

The work was done as a first proof of concept of DBDE actuators as efficient tools to govern the flow around bluff bodies. Presently we are working on unsteady actuation, which seems to hold even more promise than steady devices in matters of efficiency.
Acknowledgement
This work has been undertaken with ANPCYT grant PICT 38070 and UBACYT grant number I017

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