Assessment of Turbulence–Chemistry Interaction in Hypersonic Turbulent Boundary Layers

L. Duan and M. P. Martin
University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742

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Studies of the turbulence–chemistry interaction are performed in hypersonic turbulent boundary layers using direct numerical simulation flowfields under typical hypersonic conditions representative of blunt-body and slender-body hypersonic vehicles, with supercatalytic and noncatalytic wall conditions in pure air. Nondimensional governing parameters, the interaction Damköhler number and the interaction relative heat release, are proposed to measure the influence of turbulence–chemistry interaction on flow composition and temperature. Both a priori and a posteriori studies are performed to assess the effect of turbulence–chemistry interaction on chemical production rates and mean and turbulent flow characteristics. It is found that the governing parameters provide good metrics for estimating the intensity of turbulence–chemistry interaction.

Nomenclature

\begin{align*}
\rho &= \text{density, kg/m}^3 \\
\sigma_{ij} &= \text{shear stress tensor, } 2\mu S_{ij} - \frac{2}{3}\mu\delta_{ij}\delta_{kl}, \text{ Pa} \\
\rho &= \text{heat capacity at constant pressure, J/(K \cdot kg)} \\
C_v &= \text{heat capacity at constant volume, J/(K \cdot kg)} \\
c &= \text{concentration, mol/m}^3 \\
E &= \text{total energy, J/m}^3 \\
H &= \text{shape factor, } \delta'/\theta, \text{ dimensionless} \\
h &= \text{specific enthalpy, J/kg} \\
h^o &= \text{heat of formation, J/kg} \\
J &= \text{diffusive mass flux, kg/m}^2 \cdot \text{s} \\
K_{eq} &= \text{equilibrium constant} \\
k &= \text{reaction rate coefficient} \\
Le &= \text{Lewis number, dimensionless} \\
M &= \text{Mach number, dimensionless} \\
s &= \text{total number of species, dimensionless} \\
ns &= \text{total number of species, dimensionless} \\
p &= \text{pressure, } \sum \rho(R/M)_iT, \text{ Pa} \\
\rho &= \text{turbulent kinetic energy, } (u'^2 + v'^2 + w'^2)/2, \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2 \\
\rho_T &= \text{heat flux, } -\kappa(\partial T/\partial x)_j, \text{ J/(m}^2 \cdot \text{s}) \\
Re_x &= \text{Reynolds number, } \rho_0 u_0 \theta/\mu_0, \text{ dimensionless} \\
Re_{e2} &= \text{Reynolds number, } \rho_0 u_0 \theta/\mu_e, \text{ dimensionless} \\
Re_{e3} &= \text{Reynolds number, } \rho_0 u_0 \theta/\mu_0, \text{ dimensionless} \\
S_{ij} &= \text{strain rate tensor, } \frac{1}{2}(\partial u_i/\partial x_j + \partial u_j/\partial x_i), \text{ s}^{-1} \\
T &= \text{temperature, K} \\
T_s &= \text{activation temperature} \\
T_r &= \text{recovery temperature, } T_s (1 + 0.9 \times [(y - 1)/2]\mu_2), \text{ K} \\
u &= \text{friction velocity, m/s} \\
W &= \text{molecular weight, kg/mol} \\
w &= \text{chemical production rate, kg/m}^3 \cdot \text{s} \\
Y &= \text{species mass fraction, dimensionless} \\
\gamma &= \text{specific heat ratio, } C_p/C_v, \text{ dimensionless} \\
\delta &= \text{boundary-layer thickness, mm} \\
\delta^* &= \text{displacement thickness, mm} \\
\theta &= \text{momentum thickness, mm} \\
k &= \text{mixing thermal conductivity, J/(K \cdot m \cdot \text{s})} \\
\mu &= \text{mixure viscosity, kg/(m \cdot \text{s})} \\
\nu &= \text{stoichiometric coefficient, dimensionless}
\end{align*}

Subscripts

\begin{align*}
b &= \text{backward reaction} \\
f &= \text{forward reaction} \\
s &= \text{chemical species} \\
w &= \text{wall variables} \\
x, y, z &= \text{streamwise, spanwise, and wall-normal directions for spatial coordinates} \\
\delta &= \text{boundary-layer edge} \\
\infty &= \text{freestream}
\end{align*}

Superscript

\begin{align*}
+ &= \text{inner wall units}
\end{align*}

I. Introduction

The boundary layers on hypersonic systems, including reentry capsules and airbreathing vehicles, are turbulent and chemically reacting. Fluctuations in temperature and species composition cause fluctuations in species production rate \( w_i(T, \epsilon) \). Because of the nonlinear dependence of \( w_i \) on its parameters, we have

\[ w_i(T, \epsilon) \neq w_i(\bar{T}, \bar{\epsilon}) \]

and the difference is referred to as turbulence–chemistry interaction (TCI), where the overbar indicates a mean quantity.

It is well established today that in the field of combustion TCI significantly influences the turbulent mixing and the reaction of fuel and air at high speeds and is important for predicting many flow quantities such as reaction rates and ignition delay [1–7]. The equivalent information is not yet known for hypersonic boundary layers. As a result, existing Reynolds-averaged Navier–Stokes (RANS) calculations for hypersonic boundary layers have neglected the interrelationship between chemistry and turbulence, and the error introduced by such a simplification is largely uncertain.

Direct numerical simulations provide a vast amount of accurate data and have been used to analyze turbulent boundary layers at high Mach numbers. Most of the direct numerical simulation (DNS) studies have been carried out at low-enthalpy, nonreacting conditions. For example, DNS of nonreacting turbulent boundary layers have been performed by Guarini et al. [8] at Mach 2.5; Pirozzoli et al. [9] at Mach 2.25; Maeder et al. [10] at Mach 3, 4.5, and 6; Duan et al. [11] at Mach 5 with wall-to-freestream temperature ratio varying from 1 to 5.4; Duan et al. [11] with freestream Mach number varying from 3 to 12; and Dong and Zhou [12] with Mach number

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*Visiting Graduate Student, Department of Aerospace Engineering, Student Member AIAA.

†Associate Professor, Department of Aerospace Engineering, Senior Member AIAA.
of five species: N₂, O₂, NO, N, and O. The flow conditions for RANS are given in Table 1. Figure 1 shows the entire computational domain for RANS calculation and the DNS subdomain identified to explore turbulence–chemistry interaction for both conditions. To investigate the influence of species boundary conditions on TCI, we consider both supercatalytic and noncatalytic surface-catalytic models for each flow condition. The supercatalytic and noncatalytic surface-catalytic models used in the current analysis are representative of the extreme conditions that might happen at the surface of a reentry flight. The details of surface-catalytic model and species boundary conditions are discussed in Sec. III.B. For simplicity, we refer to wedge35 with supercatalytic wall as wedge35supercata and to wedge35 with noncatalytic wall as wedge35noncata. Similar definitions are used for wedge8. Table 2 lists the boundary-layer edge conditions and wall parameters for all DNS cases.

### III. Simulation Details for DNS

#### A. Governing Equations, Constitutive Relations, and Numerical Methods

The governing equations, constitutive relations, and numerical method for DNS of chemically reacting flow are described in detail in our previous paper [18]. Therefore, only a cursory description is given here.

The equations describing the unsteady motion of a reacting fluid are given by the species mass, mass-averaged momentum, and total energy conservation equations, which, neglecting thermal nonequilibrium, are

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (p u_j + J_{ij}) &= w_j \\
\frac{\partial p u_j}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} (p u_j u_k + p \delta_{ij} - \sigma_{ij}) &= 0 \\
\frac{\partial E}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left( (E + p) u_j - u_i \sigma_{ij} + q_j + \sum_s \sum_i J_{ij} h_s \right) &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

The thermodynamic properties of high-temperature air species for evaluating total energy E and species enthalpy h_s are computed by NASA Lewis Research Center curve fits [19]. Mixture transport properties μ and κ for evaluating stress tensor σ_ij and heat flux q_j are calculated using the Gupta–Yos mixing rule [20, 21]. Fick’s diffusion model with unity Lewis number is used for calculating species diffusion flux J_{ij}. The gas-phase reaction mechanism and the formula for evaluating species production rate w_j are introduced in detail in Sec. IV.

For numerical discretization, we use a linearly and nonlinearly optimized fourth-order-accurate weighted essentially-nonoscillatory method [22, 23] for convective terms, which is a high-order shock-capturing scheme with optimal bandwidth efficiency and minimum numerical dissipation. We use a fourth-order-accurate central difference scheme for viscous terms and third-order-accurate low-storage Runge–Kutta method [24] for time integration, as in Martín [25] and Duan and Martín [18].

![Fig. 1 DNS subdomain from RANS solution for the study of turbulence–chemistry interaction. The Reynolds number Re_s = \rho_u \cdot u \cdot s / \mu, where s is the distance between the leading edge of the lifting body and the location of the DNS subdomain.](image-url)
B. Initial and Boundary Conditions

The initial DNS flowfield is obtained by first exacting the mean profiles from the RANS calculation at the location indicated in Fig. 1 and then superimposing the fluctuating field. The fluctuating field is obtained by transforming that of an incompressible turbulent boundary-layer DNS using well-established scaling laws. The details of this initialization technique are introduced by Martín [25].

On the wall boundary, nonslip conditions are used for the three velocity components. The wall temperature is prescribed and kept isothermal. The flow condition on the top boundary are fixed edge conditions which are extracted from the RANS calculation. Periodic boundary conditions have been used in the streamwise and spanwise directions.

We consider two extreme cases for species boundary conditions. The first case is so-called noncatalytic wall, which assumes no atom recombination and minimal enthalpy recovery at the surface. The species boundary condition for a noncatalytic wall is

$$
\frac{\partial Y}{\partial n} = 0
$$

(2)

where $n$ is the unit vector in the wall-normal direction.
The other extreme case is the so-called supercatalytic wall, which assumes infinitely fast atom recombination and maximum enthalpy recovery at the surface. In this case, the chemical composition at the wall recovers to that in the freestream and the species boundary condition is simply

\[ Y_s;w = Y_s;\infty \tag{3} \]

Note that \( Y_s;\infty \) is the flow composition for the cold air upstream of the leading-edge shock and may be different from the postshock boundary-layer edge composition \( Y_s;\delta \).

### C. Numerical Simulation Parameters

The computational domain size and grid resolution are determined based on the characteristic large length scale \( \delta \) and the characteristic small near-wall length scale \( z_\kappa \), respectively. The computational domain is chosen to be large enough to contain a good sample of the large scales, while the grid resolution is fine enough to resolve the near-wall structures [25]. The domain size \( (L_x \times L_y \times L_z) \), the grid size \( (\Delta x \times \Delta y \times \Delta z) \), and the number of grid points \( (N_x \times N_y \times N_z) \) are given in Table 3. We use uniform grids in the streamwise and spanwise directions as \( \Delta x^+ \) and \( \Delta y^+ \) and geometrically stretched grids in the wall-normal direction, with \( z_k = z_\kappa (\alpha^{k-1} - 1)/(\alpha - 1) \).

### Fig. 3 Convergence study for wedge35supercata with varying grid size, \( N_x \times N_y \times N_z \).

### Fig. 4 Mean profiles for a) temperature and b) O mass fraction.
Fig. 5  rms of fluctuations in a) temperature and b) O mass fractions.

Fig. 6 Turbulent and laminar chemical production rates for wedge35 a) N₂, b) O₂, c) NO, d) N, and e) O.
To assess the adequacy of the domain size, streamwise and spanwise two-point correlation for the streamwise, spanwise, and wall-normal velocity components are plotted. Figure 2 plots the streamwise and spanwise two-point correlations at $z/\delta = 15$ and $z/\delta = 0.1$ for wedge35superca. The two-point correlations drop to zero for large separations, indicating the computational domain is large enough to contain a good sample of the large scales. Similar results can be shown for other cases. Note that cases with lower $T_w/T_r$ require larger flow domains as a result of heat transfer effects, as described in [26].

The grid resolution can be assessed by grid-convergence study. Figures 3a–3d plot the mean temperature, mean species mass fraction, rms temperature, and rms species mass fraction with different numbers of grid points for wedge35superca. All the corresponding curves collapse to within 1%, indicating the grid is fine enough to converge the results. Grid convergence has been checked for all the other cases.

The averages of all the turbulence statistics are computed over streamwise and spanwise directions of each field; then an ensemble average is calculated over fields spanning around one nondimensional time unit. The time is nondimensionalized by $\delta/u_\tau$, which corresponds to around 20 large-eddy turnover time. Both Reynolds and Favre averaging are used. The Reynolds average $\bar{f}$ over the $x$ and $y$ directions will be denoted by $\bar{f}$, or $\langle f \rangle$, and fluctuations about this

![Figure 3a](image1.png)  
![Figure 3b](image2.png)  
![Figure 3c](image3.png)  
![Figure 3d](image4.png)  
![Figure 3e](image5.png)  

**Fig. 7** Turbulent and laminar chemical production rates for wedge8 a) $N_2$, b) $O_2$, c) NO, d) N, and e) O.
mean will be denoted by \( f' \). The Favre average over the \( x \) and \( y \) directions, \( \bar{f} \), is a density-weighted average:

\[
\bar{f} = \frac{\rho f}{\rho}
\]

(4)

Fluctuations about the Favre average will be denoted by \( f'' \).

At the selected flow conditions, the temperature is high enough to partially dissociate the flow, as shown in Figs. 4a and 4b) where the mean temperature and the mass fractions of atomic oxygen are plotted. In addition, Figs. 5a and 5b show that the levels of fluctuation magnitude in both temperature and species compositions for all cases.

IV. Chemical Production Term

A. Gas-Phase Reactions for Earth Atmosphere

For gas-phase reactions, the gas-phase reactions in DNS are modeled using an air five-species mechanism: \( \text{N}_2, \text{O}_2, \text{NO}, \text{N}, \) and \( \text{O} \) with Arrhenius parameters [27], shown as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{N}_2 + \text{M} &\rightleftharpoons 2\text{N} + \text{M} \\
\text{O}_2 + \text{M} &\rightleftharpoons 2\text{O} + \text{M} \\
\text{NO} + \text{M} &\rightleftharpoons \text{N} + \text{O} + \text{M} \\
\text{N}_2 + \text{O} &\rightleftharpoons \text{NO} + \text{N} \\
\text{NO} + \text{O} &\rightleftharpoons \text{O}_2 + \text{N}
\end{align*}
\]

(5)

The reacting mechanism represents the realistic reactions of air before ionization happens, which is a good approximation at
temperatures less than about 10,000 K. The corresponding equilibrium constants are computed from the Gibbs free energy as functions of temperature and then fitted to Park [27] expressions.

B. General Formulation for \( w_i \)

For a reaction

\[
\sum_{j=1}^{N} v_j' M_j = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \tilde{v}_i' M_i
\]

(6)

The chemical production rate \( w_i \) can be defined by the law of mass action to be

\[
w_i = W_i (v_i' - v'_j) (\omega_{ij} - \omega_{ik}) = W_i (v_i' - v'_j) (k_f \prod_{i=1}^{N} c_i^{v_i'} - k_b \prod_{i=1}^{N} c_i^{v_i''})
\]

(7)

where \( v'_j \) and \( v''_j \) are the stoichiometric coefficients of the reactants and products, respectively. \( \omega_{ij} \) and \( \omega_{ik} \) are independent of particular species and can be taken as the reaction rates of the forward and backward reactions, respectively. The forward reaction rate coefficient \( k_f \) can be determined from the Arrhenius expression:

\[
k_f = AT^b \exp\left(-\frac{T}{T'}\right)
\]

(8)

where \( A \) and \( b \) are constants. The backward reaction rate coefficient is given by

\[
k_b = \frac{k_f}{K_{eq}}
\]

(9)

where the equilibrium constant \( K_{eq} \) is a function of \( T \) and can be determined using curve fits [27].

Equations (7–9) show that \( w_i(T, c) \) depends nonlinearly on its parameters (primarily temperature). As a result, \( w_i(T, c) \) is usually different from \( w_i(\tilde{T}, \tilde{c}) \). The former can be referred as the turbulent reaction rate, in which turbulence fluctuations, including both temperature and species fluctuations, have been taken into account, and the latter can be referred as laminar reaction rate (although \( \tilde{T} \) and \( \tilde{c} \) are mean turbulent profiles), which we would obtain if there were no turbulent fluctuations. The greater the difference between the two, the more significant the TCI.

V. Governing Parameters for TCI

The difference between \( w_i(T, c) \) and \( w_i(\tilde{T}, \tilde{c}) \) is a measure of TCI intensity and indicate how chemical production rates get augmented due to turbulent fluctuation. To further predict how such augmentation effects influence the overall turbulent flowfield, we propose the nondimensional parameters based on the flow governing equations.

Finite rate chemical reactions act as sources for the production of species in species continuity equations as well as heat production in the energy equation. To estimate the species and heat production effects by TCI, we introduce species interaction Damköhler number \( Da^i_s \) and interaction relative heat release \( \Delta h^i \), which are defined as

![Fig. 9 Mean species mass fraction for various cases with and without TCI: a) wedge35supercata, b) wedge35noncata, c) wedge8supercata, and d) wedge8noncata.](image-url)
In both definitions, \( \tau_t \) is some turbulence time scale, the choice of which may be large-eddy turnover time \( \delta/U_\lambda \) or \( q/\epsilon \), which is the time scale for energy-containing eddies, and \( |w_x(T,c) - w_x(T,\tilde{c})| \) is included to measure the intensity of TCI. Positive values of relative heat release indicate endothermicity, whereas positive indicate exothermicity of the chemistry mechanism due to TCI.

The species interaction Damköhler number is the ratio of TCI species mass production during the characteristic flow time to species total mass and provides a measure of mass production effects by TCI. The interaction relative heat release is the ratio of TCI chemical heat release during the characteristic flow time to the total flow enthalpy and provides a measure of heat production effects by TCI. If the magnitude of \( Da_t^f \) is close to or larger than unity, a significant change

\[
Da_t^f = \frac{|w_x(T,c) - w_x(T,\tilde{c})| \tau_t}{\rho_x} \\
\Delta H' = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (w_x(T,c) - w_x(T,\tilde{c})) \rho_i \Delta H_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \rho_i (\rho_i + \frac{1}{2} u_i u_i)}
\]  

Fig. 10  Plots of rms of species mass fraction for various cases with and without TCI: a) wedge35supercata, b) wedge35noncata, c) wedge8supercata, and d) wedge8noncata.

Fig. 11  Plots of a) mean total density and b) rms of total density across the boundary layer with and without TCI.
in flow composition by TCI is expected. When $\bar{\Delta T'}$ is large, a large influence of TCI on the thermal field is expected.

The definitions of the species interaction Damköhler number and interaction relative heat release bear an analogy with the definitions of the Damköhler number and relative heat release by Martín and Candler [28,29], which have been found to be important parameters that govern the influence of chemistry on the turbulent flowfield.

VI. Assessment of TCI in Hypersonic Turbulent Boundary Layers

A. A Priori Study

In the a priori study, the turbulent reaction rate $w(T, c)$ and laminar reaction rate $w(\bar{T}, \bar{c})$ are calculated and compared using the DNS data.

Figures 6a–6g plot the turbulent and laminar production rates of each species for wedge35 with supercatalytic and noncatalytic species boundary conditions. There are distinguishable differences between the mean turbulent and laminar production rates for both supercatalytic and noncatalytic walls. For species $N_2$, $O_2$, $N$ and $O$, the maximum relative difference is larger than 30%. Similar differences also exist for wedge8, as shown in Figs. 7a–7c.

The high sensitivity of chemical production rates to turbulence fluctuations can be understood by the fact that $w(T, c)$ depends nonlinearly on its parameters (primarily temperature), as indicated in Eq. (8), and for air reactions $T_a$ is typically an order of magnitude larger than the flow temperature.

To predict the effect of TCI on the turbulence flowfield, Figs. 8a–8f plot the interaction Damköhler number and interaction relative heat release, respectively. It is shown that $Da_l'$ for all species except $N$ and $\bar{\Delta T'}$ are at least one order smaller than unity, indicating that TCI has little influence on the overall flow composition as well as temperature and velocity field. The fact that $Da_k'$ is $\alpha(1)$ might suggest that TCI will have a significant influence on $Y_N$. However, given that $Y_N$ is very small across the boundary layer, the variation in $Y_N$ is expected to have little influence on the overall flow composition.

B. A Posteriori Study

TCI is further assessed by performing an a posteriori study. In the a posteriori study, the effect of TCI is investigated by comparing results of the original DNS with an artificial DNS, in which the effect of TCI has been neglected. The artificial DNS is performed with chemical source term $w(T, c)$ evaluated as $w(\bar{T}, \bar{c})$ while keeping all the other conditions the same.

Figures 9 and 10 plot the mean mass fraction and rms of mass fraction for all cases. It is shown that significant differences in $Y_N$ for cases wedge8supercata and wedge8noncata with and without TCI, consistent with the fact that $Da_l'$ for these cases are close to unity for most of the boundary layer, as shown in Fig. 8. Slight decreases in $Y_{NO}$ and $Y_O$ are also observed for wedge8supercata, which is consistent with the fact that $Da_l'$ and $Da_k'$ have relatively larger values for wedge8supercata than other cases. For the rms of species mass fraction, significant differences can be observed for nearly all the species. Figures 9 and 10 indicate that TCI may influence the detailed chemical compositions of the turbulent flowfield. However, Fig. 11 shows that TCI has subtle difference in both mean flow density and rms of flow density.

To further investigate the influence of TCI on flow dynamics, Figs. 12a and 12b plot the mean velocity profile and the turbulent
kinetic energy, respectively. It is shown that both the mean velocity and turbulent kinetic energy are nearly the same with and without TCI for all cases, indicating negligible influence of TCI on the velocity field.

In terms of the temperature field, Figs. 13 and 14 plot the mean temperature and the rms of temperature fluctuation for the cases wedge35 and wedge8, respectively. It is shown that there is nearly no difference in mean temperature with and without TCI for all cases, consistent with the small values of $\Delta h^T$, as shown in Fig. 8f. For the temperature fluctuation, a reduction as large as 10% is observed when TCI is included. The slightly larger decrease in $T_{\text{rms}}/\bar{T}$ for wedge35 than for wedge8 is consistent with the relatively larger value of $\Delta h^T$ for wedge35.

To demonstrate the influence of TCI on turbulent transport of momentum and heat, Figs. 15a and 15b plot normalized Reynolds shear stress and turbulent heat flux. In terms of Reynolds stress, Fig. 16 shows that for wedge8supercata and wedge8noncata the maximum variation in Reynolds mass flux due to TCI is as large as 40%, indicating that TCI influences the turbulent transport of species mass fraction and is consistent with the change in flow composition for these cases.

To demonstrate the influence of TCI on surface skin friction, heat flux and pressure loading, Table 4 provides $C_f$, $q_w$, $q_{\text{rpm}}/q_w$, $P_w$, and $p'_{\text{rpm}}/P_w$ with and without TCI for all cases. It is shown that TCI has negligible influence on all of these quantities.

VII. Conclusions

Direct numerical simulations are conducted to assess the effects of turbulence–chemistry interaction in hypersonic turbulent boundary layers, under typical hypersonic conditions representative of blunt-body and slender-body vehicles for Earth reentry. Both supercatalytic and noncatalytic species boundary conditions are considered for each of flow conditions. A priori and a posteriori studies using DNS database show that the chemical production rate of individual species are significantly augmented by turbulent fluctuations, and TCI influences the turbulent transport of species mass fraction and the detailed chemical composition of the flow. However, in pure air, TCI has no sizable influence on most of the flow quantities, including the mean velocity and turbulent kinetic energy, Reynolds shear stress and turbulent mass flux, mean and rms of density and temperature, and surface skin friction, heat transfer, and pressure loading. Similar studies at various Mach numbers and wall temperatures have been performed and the characteristics of TCI in pure air remain as those described in this paper. In addition, it is shown that the nondimensional governing parameters, i.e., interaction Damköhler number and relative heat release, provide a good metric for estimating the influence of TCI on the turbulence flowfields.

The insignificant influence of TCI on the turbulent flow dynamics for hypersonic boundary layers is different from what have been found for many combustion flows, as described in Sec. I. Possible reasons for the difference is that for combustions flows reaction intermediates like radicals generally play an important role for the...
Table 4 Skin friction, mean, and rms of heat flux and pressure loading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>$C_f$</th>
<th>$q_w$, W/m²</th>
<th>$q_w, rms/q_w</th>
<th>\bar{p}_w$, Pa</th>
<th>$\bar{p}_w, rms/\bar{p}_w$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wedge35superca, with TCI</td>
<td>3.82 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>2.99 × 10⁷</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>2.61 × 10⁵</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wedge35superca, without TCI</td>
<td>3.81 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>2.98 × 10⁷</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>2.61 × 10⁵</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wedge35noncata, with TCI</td>
<td>3.62 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>2.32 × 10⁷</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>2.62 × 10⁵</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wedge35noncata, without TCI</td>
<td>3.63 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>2.33 × 10⁷</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>2.62 × 10⁵</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wedge8superca, with TCI</td>
<td>1.06 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>0.43 × 10⁷</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.24 × 10⁵</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wedge8superca, without TCI</td>
<td>1.07 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>0.43 × 10⁷</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.24 × 10⁵</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wedge8noncata, with TCI</td>
<td>1.04 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>0.41 × 10⁷</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.24 × 10⁵</td>
<td>0.29</td>
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<tr>
<td>wedge8noncata, without TCI</td>
<td>1.04 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>0.42 × 10⁷</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.24 × 10⁵</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Fig. 16 Turbulent mass flux $\bar{\rho}_w \bar{Y}_w / \bar{\rho}_w u_*$ for a) $N_2$, b) $O_2$, c) NO, d) $N$, and e) $O$ with and without TCI.
propagation of the overall reaction scheme, and a subtle change in the concentration of such radicals by turbulent fluctuations might substantially change the overall reaction rate and corresponding heat release rate. While for the air-reaction mechanism used in the current analysis, this is not the case. In addition, air reactions happen at significantly higher temperatures \( T > 2500 \text{ K} \) than those for typical combustion applications. As a result, higher sensible enthalpy is necessary to initialize the air reactions, and the relative importance of chemical heat release due to TCI diminishes because of the higher flow enthalpy.

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