

equal. Dilatation effects scale roughly with M_e^2 ; at higher Mach numbers the extra term can be of the same order as, say, the production term. In such cases the rate of strain clearly is not small and calls the accuracy of the first-order model into question.

The choice of Reynolds number in compressible flow is critical, since differences amounting to a factor of 20 can arise at a Mach number of 5 depending on whether wall or freestream values of density and viscosity are specified. The evidence^{3,13} suggests that low-Reynolds-number influence is located in the viscous superlayer, implying the use of freestream values. In these terms nozzle flows do not exhibit low Reynolds numbers. Mixing lengths predicted without dilatation and low-Reynolds-number corrections (Fig. 2) are high primarily because of the favorable pressure gradients. The effect of a low-Reynolds-number correction is to increase the results of Fig. 2 by a small factor whose magnitude depends upon the definition of Reynolds number employed.

Conclusions

The evidence of Coles' profiles for zero pressure gradient suggests that even in the absence of transitional effects a rise in mixing length will occur at low Reynolds numbers. The persistence of transitional effects (e.g., overshoot of the power-law exponent, reduced wake strength) results in a further increase. The effect of acceleration as such is to retard the growth of the boundary layer, and hence the wake component, and if there are no further complicating effects the mixing length remains high. We propose that the low values found by Bushnell et al. on supersonic nozzle walls are a result of a further complicating effect, the modification of turbulence structure by bulk dilatation in highly-accelerated compressible turbulent boundary layers.

Acknowledgment

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Scaling of Interactions of Cylinders with Supersonic Turbulent Boundary Layers

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Introduction

THE upstream extent of the disturbed flowfield induced by a cylindrical protuberance (or hemi-cylindrically blunted fin) in a supersonic turbulent boundary layer has been studied experimentally by many investigators.¹⁻¹³ In the past, protuberances have generally been classified as small or large² "on the basis of their height, h , relative to the 99% velocity boundary layer thickness δ ." A protuberance is generally considered to be large if it produces the "asymptotic result," a condition occurring when further increases in h do not increase the extent of the disturbed flowfield. It has been noted² that "the asymptotic result is obtained rather quickly for $h > \delta$." In contrast, in a recent study³ at a freestream Mach number M of 5.3, cylindrical protuberances of different diameters D were classified as being small if $h < D$ and large if $h > 2D$. However, no physical explanation was offered for the latter result, nor mention made as to whether it should be interpreted as a general conclusion.

This apparent contradiction raises questions of which geometric and flow parameters are physically significant, and under what conditions is the asymptotic result obtained. These are the questions addressed by this Note. In addition, a simple approach is outlined for estimating if a cylindrical protuberance of given dimensions will generate the asymptotic result. In the following discussion, the incoming boundary layer is assumed turbulent. A laminar boundary layer does not change the basic approach, but does modify the quantitative result, as will be mentioned later.

Discussion

Physically, the asymptotic result occurs when the root shock structure is isolated from the free end by a two-dimensional central region in which the leading edge surface pressure P_w is equal to the freestream pitot value P_{t_2} . This condition is sketched in Fig. 1a. Typically, it occurs when h/htp is about 2-3, where htp is the asymptotic triple point height. Increasing h further only increases the extent of the central region, with no effect on the root region. Decreasing h , as shown in Fig. 1b, eliminates the central region, causing an interaction between the root and free-end flowfields. This, in turn, results in a reduction of asymptotic centerline upstream influence Lu .

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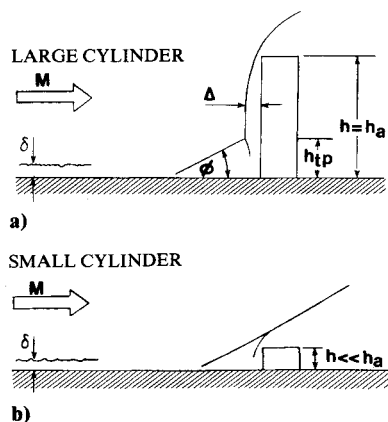


Fig. 1 Schematic of shock structure for a) "large" and b) "small" cylinders.

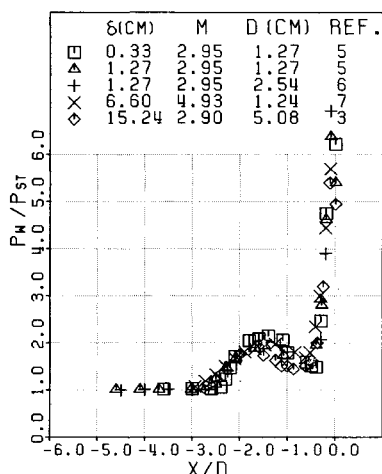


Fig. 2 Use of D as an upstream distance scaling parameter.

Following the approach of Westkaemper,¹ h_{tp} can be approximated by the expression

$$h_{tp} = (Lu - \Delta)\tan\phi \quad (1)$$

where Δ is the bowshock detachment distance and ϕ the mean angle of the centerline oblique shock wave. Westkaemper estimated ϕ using an expression developed by Truitt¹⁴ for the pressure rise ΔP occurring in the interaction of a lambda footed bow shock wave and a turbulent boundary layer on a flat plate, namely

$$\frac{\Delta P}{q} = \frac{K}{(M \cdot Re)^{0.2}} \quad (2)$$

where q is the freestream dynamic pressure and Re the local Reynolds number. An empirical constant K was found by Truitt to be about 5.6. Knowing M and ΔP , oblique shock wave relations can be used to obtain ϕ . This technique was tested by the present authors on eight different experiments in which Schlieren photographs of the asymptotic root shock structure had been taken, and it was found that ϕ could be predicted to within ± 2 deg. Some uncertainty exists since a microsecond spark photograph "freezes" a shock structure which is known to be highly unsteady.⁶

The key parameter needed for estimating h_{tp} is the asymptotic centerline upstream influence Lu . Experiments carried out at Princeton, together with results from other studies, show that Lu depends primarily on D and only weakly on δ . Centerline pressure distributions, from the Princeton study^{5,6} and others,^{3,7} plotted in Fig. 2, illustrate this over a wide range of boundary layer thicknesses. In this figure, the wall pressures are normalized by the undisturbed freestream static value P_{st} . X , the distance along the cen-

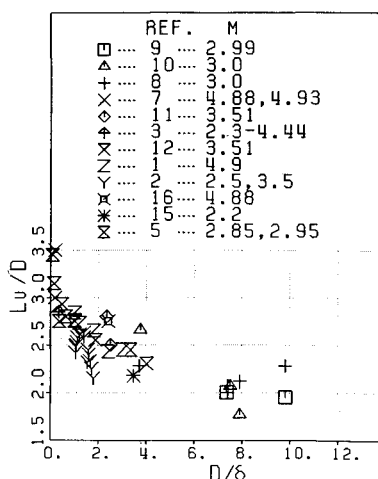


Fig. 3 Upstream influence as a function of D/δ .

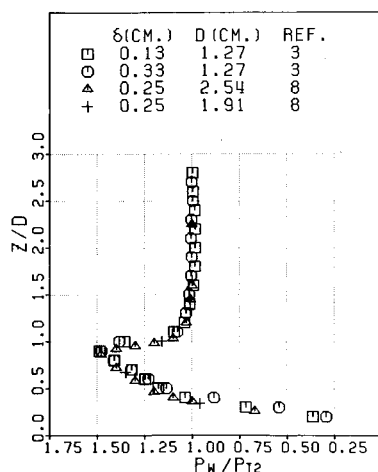


Fig. 4 Dependence of triple point height on D .

terline, is measured from the fin leading edge and is negative in the upstream direction.

The effect on Lu of changes in M is not entirely clear. Δ depends on M and D , but is typically a small proportion of Lu . In Ref. 2, tests were made over the range of $2.5 \leq M \leq 4.5$, and a trend of increasing Lu with increasing M was observed. On the other hand, measurements made over the range $2.3 \leq M \leq 4.44$, and reported on in Ref. 3, show no significant effect of M on Lu . This apparent contradiction may be due to the fact that in changing M , δ changes, which alters the ratio D/δ . It was observed in the Princeton study that, for fixed M and δ , Lu is primarily dependent on D , but also weakly dependent on D/δ . Other experiments exhibit a similar trend, as shown in Fig. 3. The data points on this figure were estimated from either surface oil patterns or pressure or heat transfer rate distributions. Using different techniques introduces some scatter, but does not mask the basic trend.

For given incoming flow conditions, the discussion above shows that h_{tp} , and therefore h_a (the height needed to generate the asymptotic result), depend primarily on D and to second order on D/δ . Measurements of leading edge pressures on different diameter fin models with different incoming boundary layers show this to be the case. Data from the Princeton study and from Ref. 8 are shown in Fig. 4 where Z is measured up the leading edge from the fin root. In these cases, in which $3.8 \leq D/\delta \leq 10$, the root shock wave structure is predominantly above the boundary layer edge. At lower values of D/δ , the root shock structure will be immersed in the boundary layer and h_{tp} increases (i.e., Fig. 17 of Ref. 5), but to first order it is still mainly dependent on D .

If h_a is taken as being $3h_{tp}$, then for the examples shown in Fig. 4, the required values of h_a would vary from 9 to 24 δ .

However, in terms of D , the required h_a is $2.4D$ in all four cases. For a given δ , doubling D will approximately double both the absolute values of Lu and htp . In turn, this will double the required value of h_a , but the ratio h_a/D will remain the same. The main effect of δ lies in its second-order influence on Lu .

h_a will also depend on the protuberance shape. For fixed flow conditions, experiments at Princeton show that Lu for a flat faced fin of thickness t is approximately twice that for a hemi-cylindrically blunted fin with $D=t$. Since ϕ stays the same, both htp and the required h_a for the former are about twice those of the latter. For a given value of δ , h_a/δ will differ by a factor of 2 for the two cases, whereas h_a/htp will be about the same.

The ideas above explain several apparent anomalies existing in the literature. For example, Waltrup et al.,¹⁵ observed the asymptotic result at an h/δ of about 10, whereas Price and Stallings,³ who tested five sweptback fin models in the range $0.17 \leq h/\delta \leq 1.07$ found that it had already occurred at the lowest value of h/δ . Waltrup's flow conditions input to Eqs. (1) and (2) gave $htp = 1.9$ cm (or 4.3δ), suggesting that the asymptotic result would occur at 2-3 times this height (i.e., around 9-13 δ), which was the case. For Price and Stallings' flow, the equations give $htp = 0.07\delta$ so that it was not surprising that even at an h/δ of 0.17 the asymptotic result had already occurred.

In the fully laminar case, recent measurements by Hung and Clauss¹³ show that Lu also scales with D , and typically is between 9 and 12 D . In addition, the exponents of M and Re and the constant K in Truitt's relation [i.e., Eq. (2)] will differ from those for turbulent flow.

Concluding Remarks

The ratio h/δ is not the physically relevant parameter when determining if a given protuberance will generate the asymptotic flowfield. Physically, the latter occurs when the fin height h is of order 2-3 htp and, since for a given flow htp depends primarily on D , the important parameter is h/D . A unique value of h/D , valid for arbitrary conditions, cannot be specified since htp depends also on M and Re .

Acknowledgments

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Supercritical Swirling Flows in Convergent Nozzles

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Introduction

IT has generally been assumed that the topic discussed in this Note has already been more than adequately covered in numerous papers (fairly comprehensive lists of references are given in Refs. 1 and 2). Previous authors, however, have apparently overlooked the fact that the quasicylindrical theory for compressible swirling flow in convergent-divergent nozzles leads to a paradox when applied to convergent nozzles. Accordingly, the present Note sets out to describe this paradox and to present a simple theory for supercritical swirling flow in convergent nozzles. Some results for mass flux and thrust coefficients are also given.

For nonswirling supercritical flows it is generally assumed that one-dimensional theory is equally applicable to convergent and convergent-divergent nozzles. The theory is found to give good results when the area change is gradual and the nozzle wall curvature small. It has also been generally accepted, at least implicitly, that the quasicylindrical theory for swirling compressible flow is equally applicable to both types of nozzle. There has been considerable difficulty, though, in defining a suitable choking criterion for swirling nozzle flows. Many previous investigators³⁻⁵ have used the concept of maximum-mass-flux to obtain a choking criterion. Norton et al.⁶ and Carpenter and Johannesen,^{1,2} however, made no additional assumptions about choking beyond those usually made for quasicylindrical theory. The latter showed that the maximum-mass-flux criterion is not strictly valid but gave reasonable results for most swirling flows in convergent-divergent nozzles. They also showed that, owing to the

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