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(NASA-TM-84829) COMPUTATION OF HIGH
REYNOLDS NUMBER INTERNAL/EXTERNAL FLOWS
(NASA) 28 p HC A03/MF A01 CACL 01A

N82-29262

July 9, 1982

Unclas

G3/02 24002

TO: Shirley Peigara

FROM: Norma Brennan, Director, Editorial Department

A back-up paper is enclosed for the following Synoptic:

Author(s): Michael C. Cline
Richard G. Wilmoth

Title of Synoptic: "Computation of High Reynolds Number Internal/External
Flows" (Log No. J12892)

Title of Back-up Paper: Same as above

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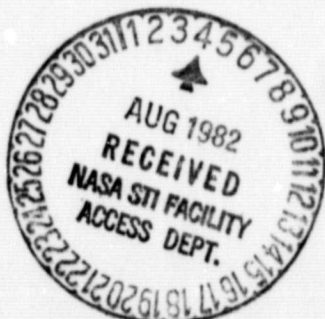
Journal: AIAA Journal

Scheduled Issue: February 1983

Norma Brennan

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Enclosure



JUL 13 1982

COMPUTATION OF HIGH REYNOLDS NUMBER INTERNAL/EXTERNAL FLOWS

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/October 1981/

Backup Document for AIAA Synoptic Scheduled
for Publication in the AIAA Journal, February 1983

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COMPUTATION OF HIGH REYNOLDS NUMBER INTERNAL/EXTERNAL FLOWS

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Abstract

A general, user oriented computer program, called VNAP2, has been developed to calculate high Reynolds number, internal/external flows. VNAP2 solves the two-dimensional, time-dependent Navier-Stokes equations. The turbulence is modeled with either a mixing-length, a one transport equation, or a two transport equation model. Interior grid points are computed using the explicit MacCormack scheme with special procedures to speed up the calculation in the fine grid. All boundary conditions are calculated using a reference plane characteristic scheme with the viscous terms treated as source terms. Several internal, external, and internal/external flow calculations are presented.

Introduction

The computation of high Reynolds number flows has become a major tool in the analysis and design of aerospace vehicles. While Navier-Stokes solutions for complete vehicle configurations are still beyond the limits of present-day computers, computational techniques are used routinely in the analysis and design of various individual components, e.g., airfoils, wing-body combinations, inlets and nozzles. Most of these analyses use either purely inviscid or the so-called patched viscous-inviscid techniques due to their greater computational efficiency and ease of use over the more exact Navier-Stokes solution methods. These approximate techniques often yield

results of surprisingly high accuracy.¹ However, their use is generally limited to problems involving weak viscous-inviscid interactions or to strong interactions that are sufficiently well understood to be modeled empirically.

Navier-Stokes (N-S) solution methods, on the other hand, are not subject to these fundamental limitations and are applicable to more general classes of flow problems. However, the N-S methods have not found widespread use for design purposes due primarily to their expense and difficulty of use. Computer run times of several hours are not uncommon in solving a high-Reynolds number problem in which the viscous layer must be well resolved. Furthermore, application of N-S methods is often viewed by the engineer as an art requiring extensive knowledge of the numerical algorithm and considerable trial and error to obtain a correct, converged solution. The latter is often the result of attempting to use a N-S computer code which has been written to solve a very specific class of problems and may not be sufficiently general, well-documented, and user-oriented. Clearly, as more efficient N-S algorithms and larger, faster computers become available, more attention must be given to the development of user-oriented N-S codes if they are to receive practical application.

The purpose of this paper is to describe a N-S computer program, VNAP2,² which has evolved over a period of several years for solving a relatively wide class of steady and unsteady, internal and external flow problems. VNAP2 is a modified version of VNAP³ and solves the two-dimensional (axisymmetric), time-dependent, compressible Navier-Stokes equations. Both single and dual flowing streams may be solved. The flow boundaries may be

arbitrary curved solid walls, inflow/outflow boundaries, or free-jet envelopes. Turbulent as well as laminar and inviscid flows may be treated. Some typical internal and external flow geometries that may be solved are shown in Fig. 1. Although the VNAP2 code has been applied mainly to nozzle and inlet flows, the relatively general treatment of geometries and flow boundaries allows a variety of other problems to be solved, e.g., airfoils, flow-through nacelles, free-shear flows and free-jet expansions.

In this paper, the methodology used in developing VNAP2 as a user-oriented, production-type computer program is presented and some results obtained in solving a variety of flow problems are shown. The problems selected represent those of engineering interest for which VNAP2 is primarily intended. The purpose of the results shown here is not to demonstrate the "best" or most accurate Navier-Stokes calculation that may be possible for each case separately, but to demonstrate collectively the application of a single Navier-Stokes code to several different, highly-complex, high Reynolds number flows. Thus, while some of the results could likely be improved by refinements in the numerical and physical modeling, they do illustrate, to a great extent, that engineering applications of Navier-Stokes solutions are possible.

Description of the Method

Overall Methodology

The different techniques employed here were selected to provide a dependable and robust solution procedure. As a result, the use of new and somewhat untested techniques were avoided where possible.

Governing Equations

The VNAP2 code solves the two-dimensional (axisymmetric), time-dependent, Navier-Stokes equations. The turbulence is modeled using either a mixing-length, a one transport equation or a two transport equation model. The mixing-length model employs the Launder et al⁴ model for free shear layers and the Cebeci-Smith⁵ model for boundary layers. The one equation model is that of Daly⁶ while the two equation model is the Jones-Launder⁷⁻¹⁰ model. For details of these turbulence models, including boundary conditions, see Ref. 2. VNAP2 employs an explicit artificial viscosity to stabilize the calculations for shock waves. The artificial viscosity is divided into a first coefficient which multiplies the normal velocity gradients and a second coefficient which multiplies the cross stream or shear gradients. The first coefficient is the main contribution of the artificial viscosity while the second coefficient is kept as small as possible. In addition, both coefficients are multiplied, by the Mach number squared, when the Mach number is less than 1.0 to drive the artificial viscosity to zero in the boundary layer of a supersonic flow. This helps to insure that the molecular and turbulent viscosities dominate the solution near the wall, as well as away from the shock. This artificial viscosity is employed only in the vicinity of shock waves and is used in place of the fourth-order smoothing usually employed by MacCormack.¹¹ For details of the governing equations see Ref. 2.

Physical and Computational Flow Spaces.

The physical flow space geometry is shown in Fig. 2. The flow is from left to right. The upper boundary, called the wall, can be either a solid boundary, a free jet boundary, or an arbitrary subsonic (normal to the

boundary) inflow/outflow boundary. The lower boundary, called the centerbody, can be either a solid boundary or a plane (line) of symmetry. The geometry can be either a single flowing stream or, if the dual flow space walls are present, a dual flowing stream. The dual flow space walls, shown in Fig. 2, may begin in the interior and continue to the exit (inlet geometry), may begin at the inlet and terminate in the interior (afterbody geometry), as shown in Fig. 2, or may begin and end in the interior (airfoil geometry). All of the above boundaries may be arbitrary curved boundaries provided the y coordinate is a single value function of x . This single value function of x requires dual flow space walls, that begin or terminate in the interior, do so with pointed ends. The points can be very blunt, but cannot be vertical walls. The left boundary is a subsonic, supersonic, or mixed inflow boundary while the right boundary is a subsonic, supersonic, or mixed outflow boundary or a subsonic inflow boundary.

The physical space grid has the following properties: one set of grid lines are straight and in the y direction with arbitrary spacing in the x direction; the second set of grid lines approximately follow the wall and centerbody contours; the Δy spacing of these grid lines is arbitrary at one x location and is proportional to those values at any other x location.

The x, y physical space is mapped into a rectangular ζ, η computational space as shown in Fig. 2. The mapping is carried out in two parts - the first part maps the physical space to a rectangular computational space while the second maps the variable grid computational space to a uniform grid computational space. Both the upper and lower dual flow space walls collapse to the the same grid line in the computational space, as shown in

Fig. 2. The flow variables at the grid points on the upper dual flow space wall are stored in the regular solution array while the variables at the lower dual flow space wall are stored in a dummy array. These flow variables are continually switched between these two arrays during the calculation. For details of the transformations, see Ref. 2.

Interior Grid Points

The interior grid points are computed using the unsplit MacCormack scheme.¹² The governing equations are left in nonconservation form. In order to improve the computational efficiency for high Reynolds number flows, the grid points in fine part of the grid may be subcycled. This is accomplished by first computing the grid points in the coarse part of the grid for one time step Δt . Next, the grid points in the fine grid are calculated k times, where k is an integer, with a time step $\Delta t/k$. The grid points at the edge of the fine grid require a special procedure, because one of their neighboring points is calculated as part of the coarse grid. Except for the first subcycled time step, this point is unknown. However, the values at t and $t+\Delta t$ are known from the coarse grid solution and, so, the values between t and $t+\Delta t$ are determined by linear interpolation.

In order to further improve the computational efficiency, a special procedure is employed to increase the allowable time step in the subcycled part of the grid. This procedure allows the removal of the sound speed from the time step C-F-L condition. Procedures that accomplished this have been proposed by Harlow and Amsden¹³ and MacCormack.¹⁴ The procedure of Harlow and Amsden is an implicit scheme that removes the sound speed, in both the x and y directions, by an implicit treatment of the mass equation and the

pressure gradient terms in the momentum equations. MacCormack's procedure is explicit and removes the sound speed in only one direction.

(MacCormack's procedure also includes an implicit procedure to remove the viscous diffusion restriction from the time step C-F-L condition.) Because explicit schemes are easier to program for efficient computation on vector computers and because high Reynolds number flows usually required fine grid spacing in only one direction, it was decided to use a procedure similar to that of MacCormack.

MacCormack's procedure is based on the assumption that the velocity component, in the coordinate direction with the fine grid spacing, is negligible compared to the sound speed. This allows the governing equations to be simplified. MacCormack then applies the Method of Characteristics to these simplified equations. However, for flows over bodies with large amounts of curvature as well as many free shear flows this assumption is questionable. Because VNAP2 is intended to be a general code for solving a wide variety of problems, this assumption was felt to be too restrictive. Therefore, this procedure differs from that of Ref. 14 in that the velocity component, in the coordinate direction with the fine grid spacing, is not assumed to be small. The numerical algorithm, however, does assume that the flow in the y direction is subsonic.

The procedure here is to separate the governing equations into two parts. The first part consists of the Mach line characteristic compatibility equations while the streamline compatibility equations and all viscous terms make up the second part. Because the sound speed limitation is due to the first part, the second part can be computed by the standard MacCormack scheme. The first part of the governing equations is solved by a special

procedure. This special procedure consists of selecting an increased time step based on $\Delta y/|v|$ instead of $\Delta y/(|v|+a)$ where v is the velocity component in the y direction and a is the sound speed. The Mach line characteristics are then extended back from the solution point at the increased time step. These characteristics will intersect the previous solution plane outside the computation star of the MacCormack scheme. By calculating these characteristic intersecting points, special differences using this increased domain of dependence can be determined and used in the first part of the governing equations. These special differences use a larger Δy than the MacCormack scheme and, therefore, are less accurate. However, this procedure is only used in boundary or free shear layers where the viscous terms dominate the solution. This special procedure decreases the computational time for high Reynolds number flows by factors of 5 to 10 over flows that are not subcycled. For details of this procedure, see Ref. 2.

Left Boundary Grid Points

The left boundary (see Fig. 2) can only be an inflow boundary. For supersonic inflow all flow variables are specified. For subsonic inflow, there are two different boundary condition options. The first specifies the total pressure p_T , total temperature T_T , and flow angle θ as proposed by Serra.¹⁵ The second condition specifies the x and y velocity components u and v , respectively, along with the density ρ and was shown to be correct for a well-posed problem by Oliger and Sundström.¹⁶ For a discussion of the relative merits of these two boundary conditions, see Ref. 2. Following the ideas of Moretti and Abbett,¹⁷ all the unspecified dependent variables are computed using a reference plane characteristic scheme. The viscous terms

are treated as source terms. For mixed subsonic-supersonic inflow, VNAP2 checks the Mach number at each grid point to determine the correct boundary condition. The u , v , and ρ boundary condition includes a nonreflecting option to eliminate the trapping of waves in subsonic, steady flows (see Ref. 2 for details).

Right Boundary Grid Points

The right boundary (see Fig. 2) can be a supersonic outflow boundary or a subsonic inflow/outflow boundary. The subsonic inflow option is required for cases with flow separation at the right boundary. For supersonic outflow, all the variables are extrapolated. For subsonic outflow, the static pressure p is specified and the remaining variables are calculated using a reference plane characteristic scheme. If subsonic reverse flow occurs at the right boundary, inflow boundary conditions must be specified. This is accomplished by leaving p equal to the specified exit pressure and specifying ρ and v . This inflow boundary condition is also discussed by Olinger and Sundström.¹⁶ These boundary conditions include the nonreflecting procedure of Rudy and Strikwerda.¹⁸ For mixed subsonic-supersonic outflow, VNAP2 checks the Mach number to determine the correct boundary condition.

Wall Grid Points

The wall boundary (see Fig. 2) can be a free-slip boundary, a free-jet boundary, a no-slip boundary, or an arbitrary inflow/outflow boundary. For the free-slip option, the wall slope is the boundary condition and the remaining variables are calculated using a reference plane characteristic scheme. For the free-jet boundary option, the static pressure is specified and the code determines the free-jet boundary. For the no-slip boundary,

the velocity components are set to zero while either the temperature is specified or the temperature gradient is set to zero (adiabatic wall). The density is calculated by the reference plane characteristic scheme. For the arbitrary inflow/outflow boundary, the static pressure is specified. If the flow across the boundary is outflow, the remaining variables are determined by the reference plane characteristic scheme. If inflow occurs, the velocity component tangent to the boundary and the density are specified while the normal velocity component is determined using the reference plane characteristic scheme. A nonreflecting boundary condition option is included.

Centerbody Grid Points

The centerbody boundary (see Fig. 2) can be a free-slip boundary, a no-slip boundary, or a plane (axis) of symmetry. The free-slip and no-slip boundary calculations follow the wall procedure. For flows where the centerbody is a plane of symmetry, the grid points are computed by the interior point scheme. The boundary condition is the requirement of flow symmetry.

Dual Flow Space Wall Grid Points

The dual flow space walls (see Fig. 2) can be either a free-slip or no-slip boundary. The calculations follow the wall and centerbody procedures.

Steady State Acceleration for Subsonic Flow

Because signals propagate in all directions in subsonic flows, disturbances can reflect around inside the computational grid for many time steps. This reflection of disturbances can significantly prolong the convergence to steady state. Several different procedures for accelerating the convergence to steady state for both the p_T , T_T , θ and u , v , ρ inflow boundary conditions are presented in Ref. 2. One technique that works well for very con-

plex flows is an extended interval time smoothing procedure. Here, the solution for all dependent variables on the first time step is stored. The pressure at a specified grid point is then monitored on each time step. When this pressure changes direction, the solution at the current time step is averaged with the solution at the first time step. This averaged solution replaces the current time step solution and, in addition, is stored in place of the first time step solution. This averaging procedure is continued until the flow is steady. The results for subsonic, steady flow in a converging duct are shown in Fig. 3. The top curve is for a calculation in which the initial-data surface consisted of stationary flow at the stagnation pressure and temperature. At time equal to zero, the outflow pressure was dropped from the stagnation value to the desired value, thus simulating a bursting diaphragm. The middle curve is for a calculation in which the initial-data surface was the 1-D solution generated by the VNAP2 code. The bottom curve shows the calculation employing the 1-D initial-data surface and the extended interval time smoothing. All three solutions employed the p_T , T_T , and θ inflow boundary condition. From Fig. 3, we see that both improving the accuracy of the initial-data surface and employing the extended interval time smoothing significantly improved the convergence to a steady state. As a result, both procedures are utilized in the following results.

Results

The results presented here are for six high Reynolds number flows; one internal, two external and three internal/external cases. One case in each category has flow separation, the first case concerns a shock wave/boundary layer interaction, and the last case includes transition from laminar to

turbulent flow. These cases represent very complex flows and were selected to illustrate the wide variety of flows that VNAP2 is capable of solving. Because of this wide variety of flows, there is not space to describe each of these flows in extensive detail. In addition to the flows presented here, there is a considerable number of less complex viscous as well as inviscid flows than VNAP2 can solve more accurately and with significantly less amounts of computer time. All cases were run with the unmodified VNAP2 code utilizing only a small data file. At this time, very few parametric studies to determine the optimum turbulence model parameters, initial-data surface quantities and grid point distributions, have been carried out. As a result, the accuracy and efficiency of these results do not necessarily represent the optimal use of the VNAP2 code.

Internal Flow

The internal flow case is nozzle B-3 of Ref. 19 and is the planar, converging-diverging nozzle shown in Fig. 4. The flow is from left to right with the physical space grid enclosed by the dashed line. The Reynolds number based on the throat height is 7.7×10^5 . At the left boundary, p_T is set equal to 200.6 kPa (29.1 psia), T_T is set equal to 300 K and θ is set equal to 0. At the right boundary, extrapolation is used when the flow is supersonic. When the flow is subsonic outflow, p is set equal to 101.4 kPa (14.7 psia). For subsonic inflow, in addition to specifying p , the flow angle and ρ are specified. The flow angle is linearly interpolated between the wall and centerline values while ρ is the value on the wall. The wall is a no-slip boundary and the results presented here employed the two equation turbulence model. The initial conditions consisted of 1-D, inviscid

flow that was sonic at the throat and subsonic downstream. Artificial viscosity was employed in the vicinity of the shock wave caused by the boundary layer separation.

The physical space grid, Mach number and turbulence energy contours are shown in Fig. 5. The experimental data are from Ref. 19. From Fig. 5, we see that at this pressure ratio, the flow separated creating a reverse flow region. The wall and midplane pressures are shown in Fig. 6. This calculation used a 45 by 21 grid and required 3000 time steps (30,000 subcycled time steps) and 2.1 hours of cpu time (CDC-7600) to reach steady state.

External Flow

The external flow cases are configs. 1 and 3 of Ref. 20 and are the axisymmetric, boattail afterbody flows, with solid bodies simulating the exhaust jet, shown in Fig. 7. The flow is from left to right with the physical space grid enclosed by the dashed line. The Reynolds number based on x at the left boundary is 1.05×10^7 . The first case ($\lambda = 27.0$ cm) is config. 3 while the second ($\lambda = 12.2$ cm) is config. 1. Both cases consisted of the same flow conditions. The left boundary inflow profiles of p_T and T_T for a free stream Mach number of 0.8 were determined using the same inviscid/boundary layer procedure employed by Ref. 21. The flow angle θ was set equal to 0. At the right boundary p was set equal to the free stream value. The wall is an arbitrary inflow/outflow boundary. For outflow, p is set equal to the free stream value. When inflow occurs, in addition to specifying p , u and ρ are set equal to their free stream values. The centerbody is a no-slip boundary. Both calculations employed the extended interval time smoothing. The initial conditions consisted of extending the inflow profiles downstream to the right boundary.

The physical space grid, pressure and Mach number contours for config. 3 ($\lambda = 27.0$ cm), employing the mixing-length turbulence model, are shown in Fig. 8 while the surface pressure is shown in Fig. 9. The Mach number and turbulence energy contours for config. 1 ($\lambda = 12.2$ cm), employing the two equation turbulence model, are shown in Fig. 10 while the surface pressure is shown in Fig. 11. The experimental data, for both cases, are from Ref. 20. From these figures, we see that the flow for config. 3 remained attached while separation occurred for config. 1. The mixing-length model produced slightly better results for config. 3. However, the two equation model more accurately predicted the pressure plateau in config. 1, but underpredicted the amount of upstream expansion. Swanson²¹ found that a relaxation or lag model improved the pressure plateau prediction of the mixing-length model, but at the expense of also underpredicting the amount of upstream expansion. The first grid point off of the wall was located at a $y^+ (= y \sqrt{\tau_w \rho / \mu})$ of 15 for both cases. Grid studies have shown this to be adequate for the mixing-length turbulence model, but questionable for the two equation model. The config. 3 calculation, employing the mixing-length model, used a 40 by 25 grid and required 750 time steps (15,000 subcycled time steps) and 1.0 hours of CPU time (CDC-7600) to reach steady state. The config. 1 calculation, employing the mixing-length model, used a 47 by 29 grid and required 750 time steps (17,000 subcycled time steps) and 2.1 hours of CPU time (CDC-7600) to reach steady state. The two equation model computational times were 1.4 hours for config. 3 and 3.7 hours for config. 1.

Internal/External Flow

The first two cases are the two external flow cases presented above, but with the solid simulators replaced by the exhaust jets. The geometry is shown in Fig. 12 with the physical space grid enclosed by the dashed lines. The left external boundary, wall and right boundary are the same as the external cases. At the left internal boundary, p_T is set equal to 132.4 kPa (19.2 psia), T_T is set equal to 300 K and θ is set equal to 0. The free stream pressure is 65.2 kPa (9.45 psia). The centerbody is the flow centerline, while the dual flow space walls are no-slip boundaries. Again, both calculations employed the extended interval time smoothing. Only the two equation turbulence model was employed for these two cases. The initial conditions for these cases consisted of the external flow solutions presented above along with the 1-D, inviscid flow solution for the nozzle.

The physical space grid and Mach number contours for config. 3 ($l = 27.0$ cm) are shown in Fig. 13. The external surface pressure is shown in Fig. 14 while the total pressure profiles for the shear layer, produced by the interaction between the exhaust jet and the external flow, are shown in Fig. 15. The Mach number contours for config. 1 ($l = 12.2$ cm) are shown in Fig. 16. The external surface pressure is shown in Fig. 17 while the total pressure profiles for the shear layer are shown in Fig. 18. The experimental data, for both cases, are from Refs. 20 and 22. From Figs. 14 and 17, we see that the computed solutions, for both cases, underpredicted the shear layer spreading rate. The same trends were found in results generated by a patched method.²³ The config. 3 calculation used a 40 by 38 grid and required 300 time steps (40,000 subcycled time steps) and 5.6 hours of CPU time to reach steady state. The config. 1 calculation used a 47 by 42 grid

and required 300 time steps (40,000 subcycled time steps) and 9.0 hours of CPU time (CDC-7600) to reach steady state. The rather lengthy CPU times for these two cases are due to the large viscous terms in the center of the shear layer, where the grid is very fine, severely limiting the time step. This problem is less severe near a wall where the turbulent viscosity is small. The authors are currently investigating ways of removing this stability limit on the time step.

The last case is the NACA 1-89-100 inlet of Ref. 24 and is shown in Fig. 19. The flow is from left to right with the physical space grid enclosed by the dashed line. The Reynolds number based on the maximum external diameter is 6.1×10^6 . At the left boundary, p_T was set equal to 101.4 kPa (14.7 psia), T_T was set equal to 294.4 K and θ was set equal to 0. The free stream pressure is 66.5 kPa (9.64 psia) which produces a free stream Mach number of 0.8. The wall is the arbitrary inflow/outflow boundary and uses the same boundary conditions as the previous two cases. At the right external boundary, the pressure was set equal to the measured values. In the experiments of Ref. 24, the internal flow rate was controlled by a throttling mechanism well downstream of the right boundary. In order not to compute this rather extensive flow region, a value of pressure was specified at the right internal boundary such that the inviscid, 1-D mass flow equalled the experimental value. The centerbody is the flow centerline, while the dual flow space walls are no-slip boundaries. The extended interval time smoothing was employed. The initial conditions consisted of 1-D, inviscid flow.

The physical space grid, Mach number and turbulence energy contours are shown in Fig. 20, while the surface pressure is shown in Fig. 21. The experimental data are from Ref. 24. From the turbulence energy contours in Fig. 20, we see that the flow over the inlet is initially laminar, but quickly becomes turbulent. The flow transitions first on the interior surface. Reference 24 did not give the transition locations. The surface pressures in Fig. 21, are for the first 6% of the inlet. This small area of interest, combined with the thin laminar boundary layer, required a very fine grid spacing in both coordinate directions. Because of the fine grid spacing in the x direction, the subcycling option was not used. The differences in surface pressure, between theory and experiment, at the inlet tip are probably the result of too coarse a grid. The difference, between theory and experiment, near the internal, right boundary is most likely due to the approximate treatment of the internal flow at this boundary. This calculation was also made using the mixing-length turbulence model, however, this model significantly overpredicts the level of turbulence upstream of the inlet. This is because the downstream blockage due to the presence of the inlet creates a weak shear layer profile upstream of the inlet that extends a large distance in the cross stream direction. Therefore, the mixing length model predicts very large mixing lengths. This produces turbulent viscosities, upstream of the inlet, that are several orders of magnitude larger than the molecular value. As a result, the mixing-length model solution is not presented here. This calculation used a 53 by 44 grid and required 3000 time steps and 1.0 hours of CPU time (CDC-7600) to reach steady state.

Conclusions

A general, user oriented computer program for computing high Reynolds number flows has been presented. Six high Reynolds number flow calculations were described. These computed results show that practical Navier-Stokes applications are possible. However, these results also indicate the need for better turbulence modeling for separated flows and more efficient solution algorithms for very nonuniform grid point distributions.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by the Propulsion Aerodynamics Branch of the NASA Langley Research Center (LRC) and the U.S. Department of Energy. The authors would like to thank R. C. Swanson and L. E. Putnam of the LRC and B. J. Daly of the Los Alamos National Laboratory for many helpful discussions.

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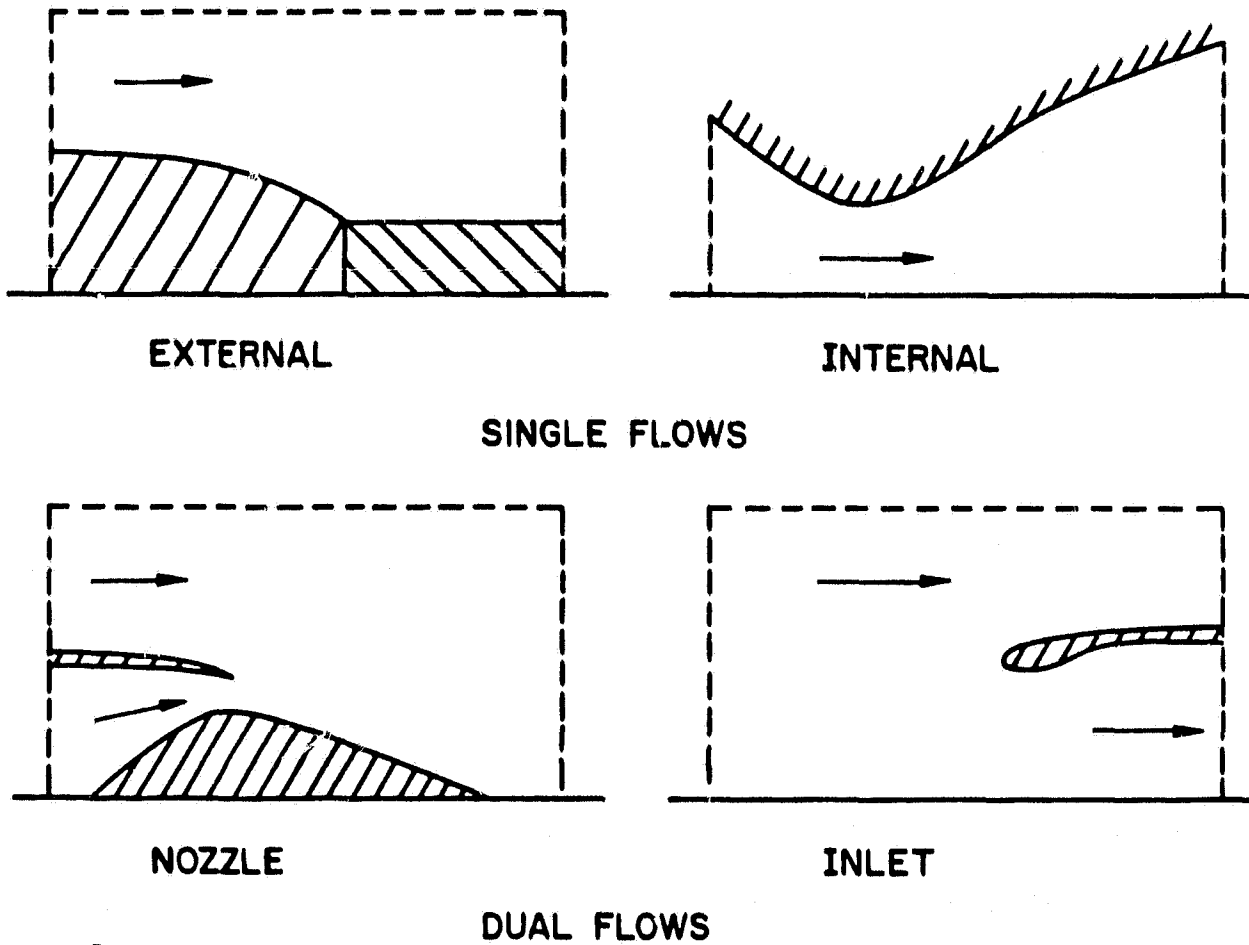


Fig. 1. Typical internal, external and internal/external geometries.

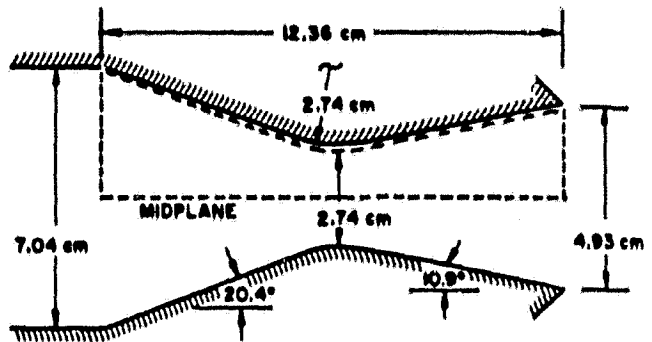
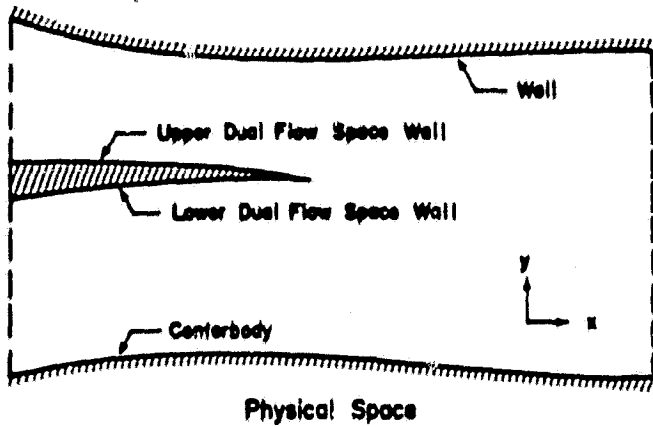


Fig. 4. Internal flow geometry.

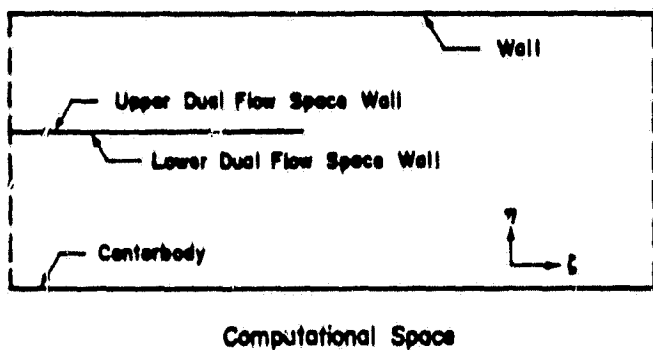


Fig. 2. Physical and computational spaces.

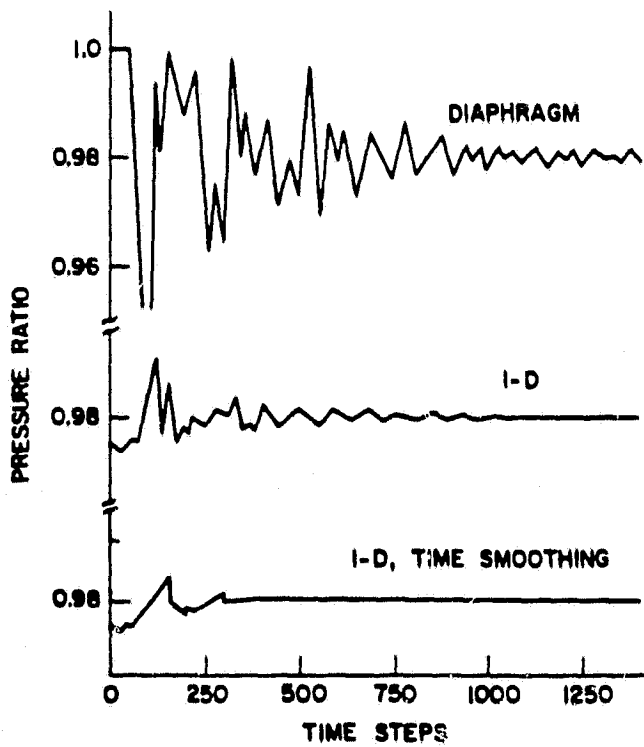


Fig. 3. Pressure ratio vs time step for subsonic flow in a converging duct.

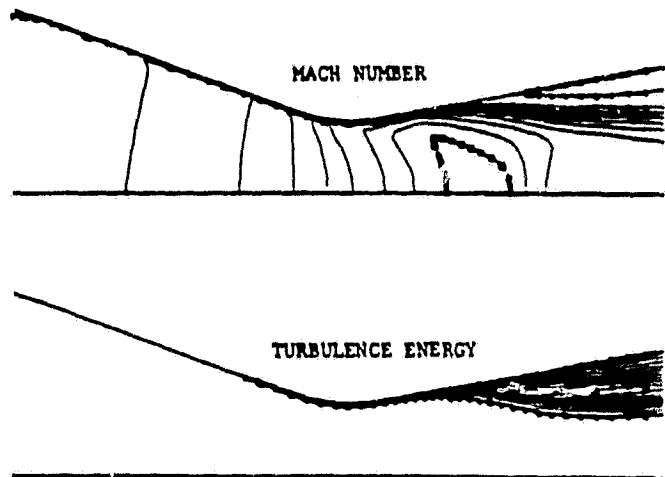


Fig. 5. Internal flow physical space grid, Mach number and turbulence energy contours.

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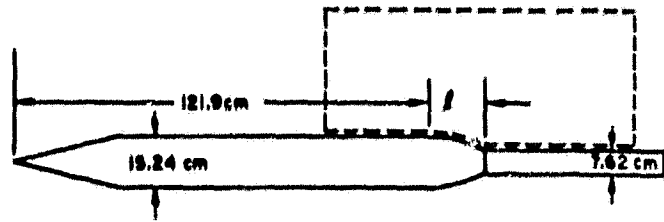


Fig. 7. External flow geometry.

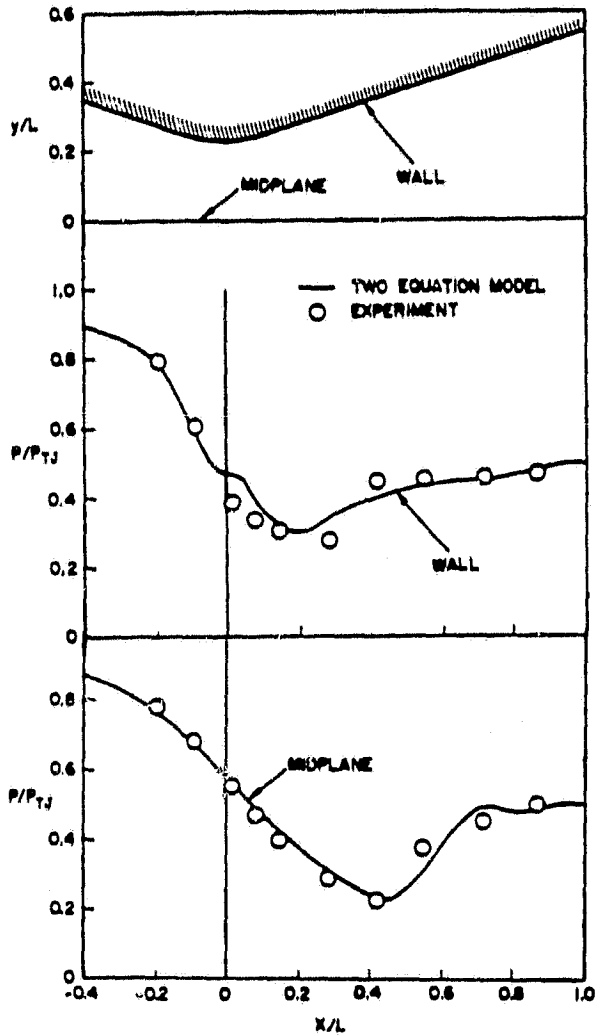


Fig. 6. Internal flow wall (top) and midplane pressure ratio ($L=5.98$ cm).

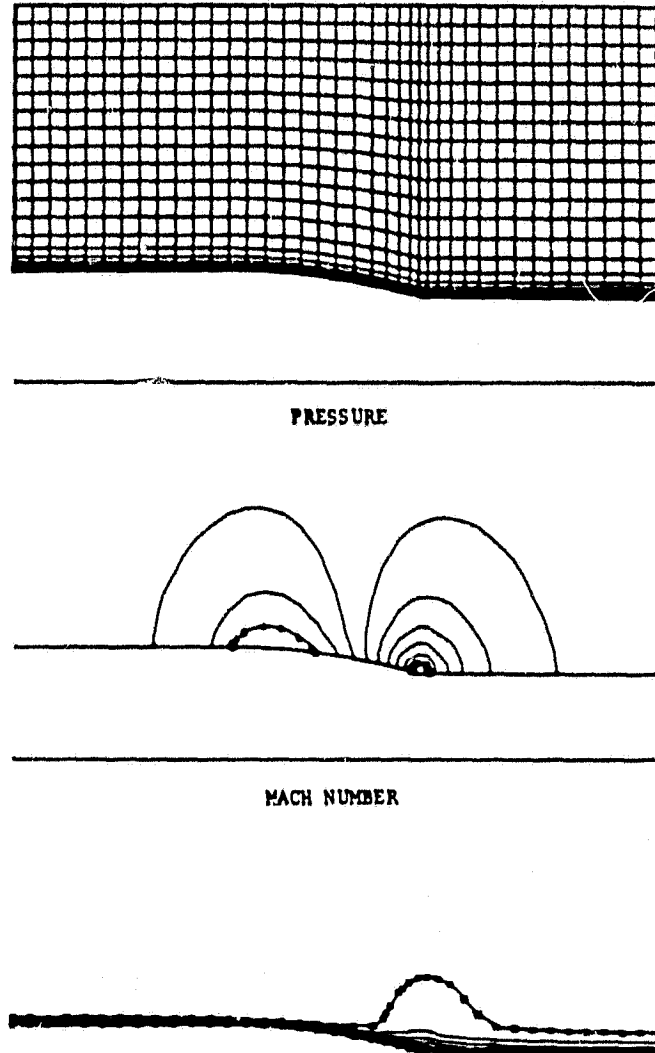


Fig. 8. External flow (config. 3) physical space grid, pressure and Mach number contours.

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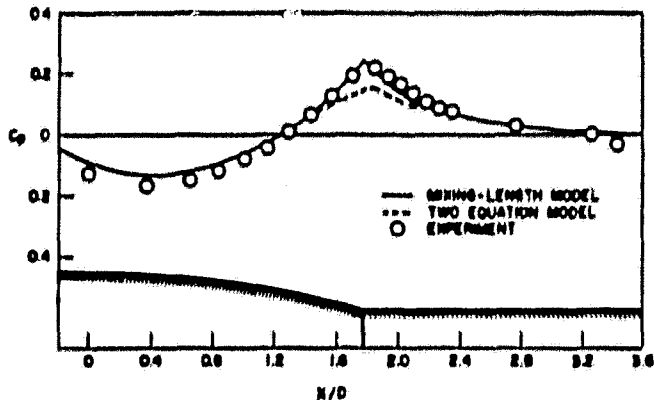


Fig. 9. External flow (config. 3) surface pressure coefficient ($D=15.24$ cm).

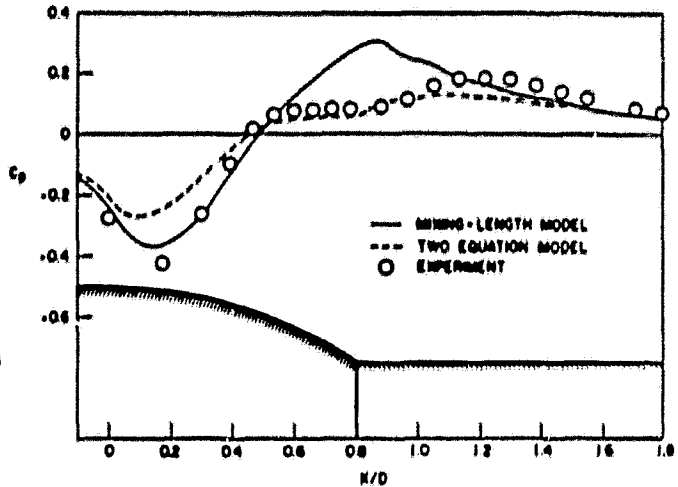


Fig. 11. External flow (config. 1) surface pressure coefficient ($D=15.24$ cm).

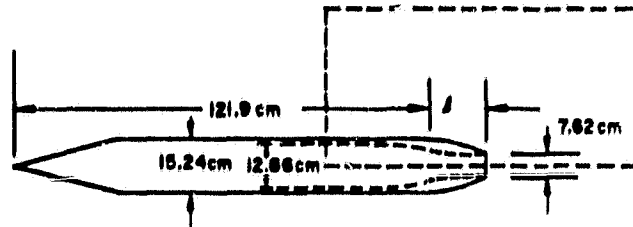


Fig. 12. Internal/external flow afterbody geometry.

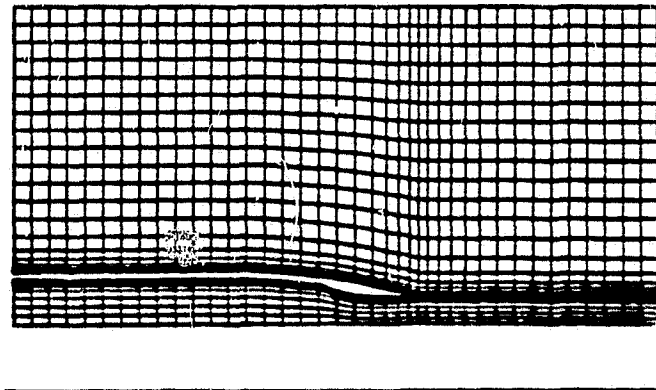
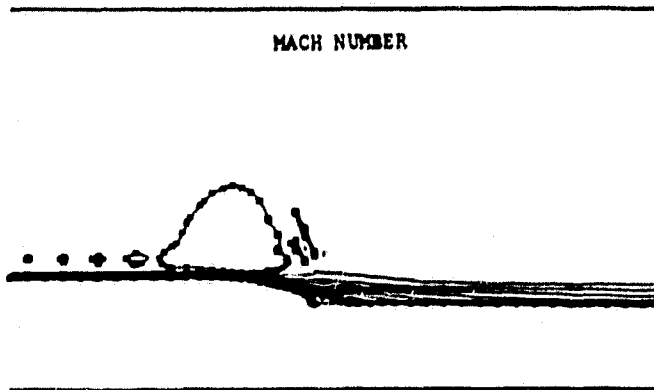


Fig. 10. External flow (config. 1) Mach number and turbulence energy contours.

Fig. 13. Internal/external flow (config. 3) physical space grid and Mach number.

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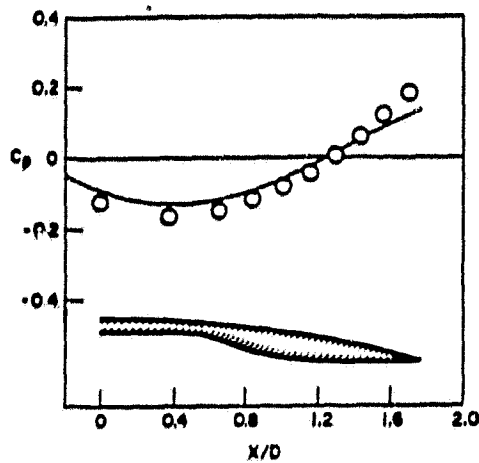


Fig. 14. Internal/external flow (config. 3) external surface pressure coefficient ($D=15.24$ cm).

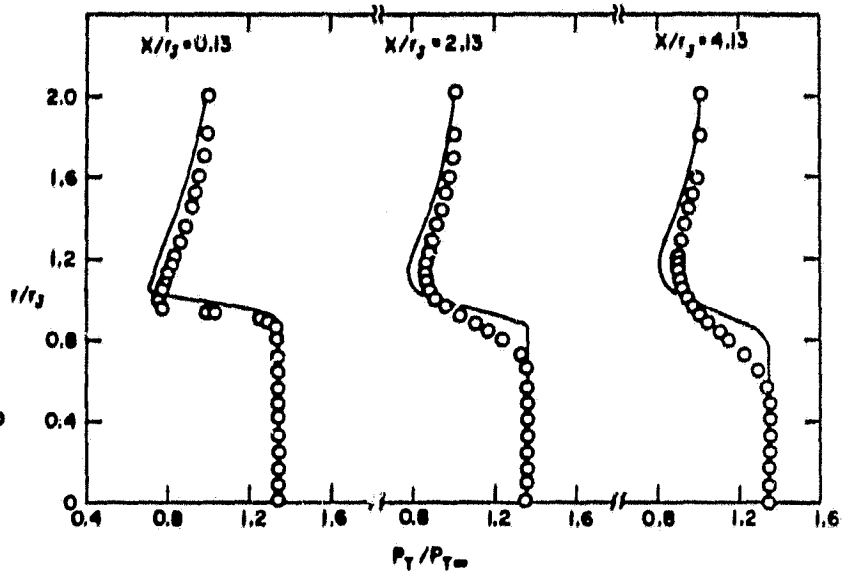


Fig. 15. Internal/external flow (config. 3) total pressure ratio profiles in the shear layer (x is measured from the exit and $r_j=3.81$ cm).

MACH NUMBER



Fig. 16. Internal/external flow (config. 1)

Mach number.

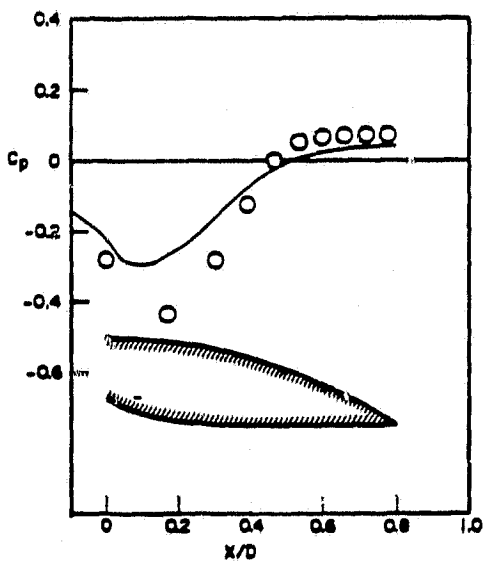


Fig. 17. Internal/external flow (config. 1) external surface pressure coefficient ($D=15.24$ cm).

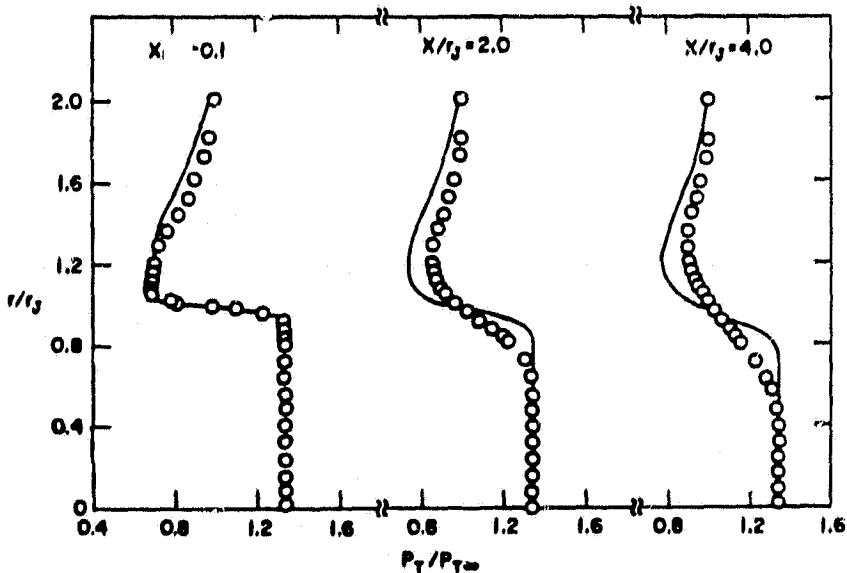


Fig. 18. Internal/external flow (config. 1) total pressure ratio profiles in the shear layer (x is measured from the exit and $r_j=3.81$ cm).

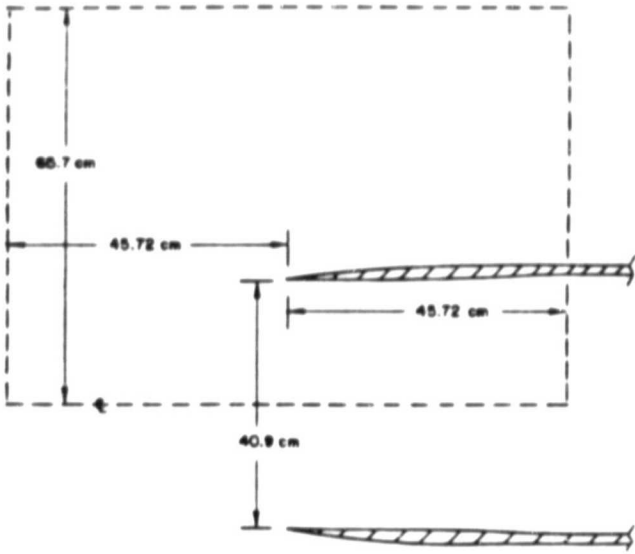
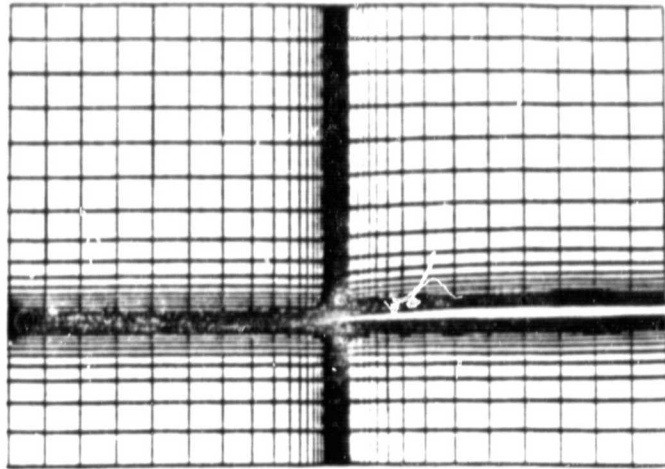


Fig. 19. Internal/external flow inlet geometry.



MACH NUMBER

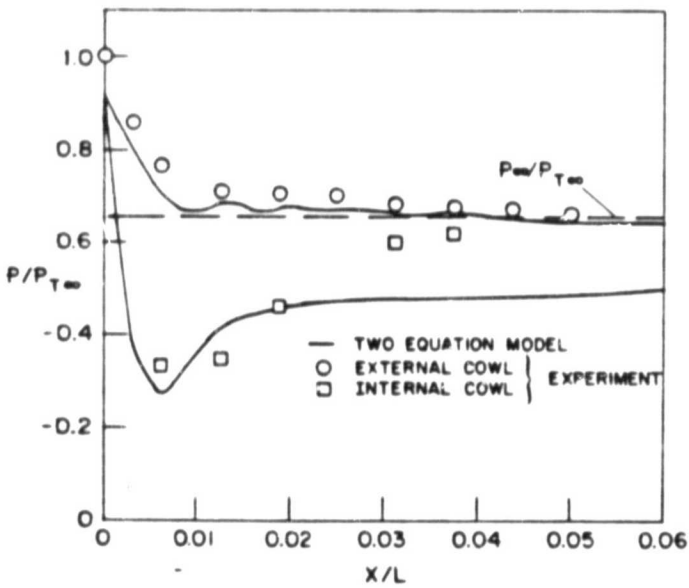
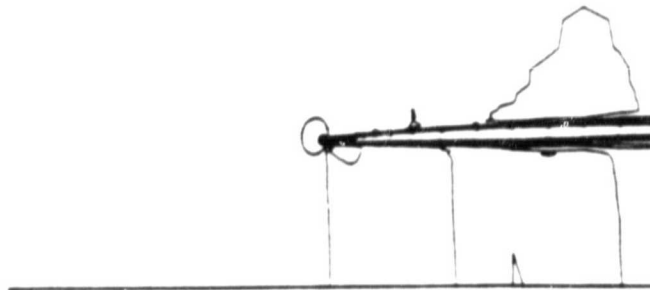


Fig. 21. Internal/external flow (inlet) surface pressure ($L=45.72$ cm).



TURBULENCE ENERGY



Fig. 20. Internal/external flow (inlet) physical space grid, Mach number and turbulence energy.