Velocity distribution function of reactive flows derived from gas kinetic theory

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Abstract. How to accurately probe chemical reactive flows with essential thermodynamic nonequilibrium effects is an open issue. Via the Chapman-Enskog analysis, the local nonequilibrium particle velocity distribution function is derived from the gas kinetic theory. It is demonstrated theoretically and numerically that the distribution function depends on the physical quantities and derivatives, and is independent of the chemical reactions directly. Based on the simulation results of the discrete Boltzmann model, the departure between equilibrium and nonequilibrium distribution functions is obtained and analyzed around the detonation wave. Besides, it has been verified for the first time that the kinetic moments calculated by summations of the discrete distribution functions are close to those calculated by integrals of their original forms.

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Key words: Discrete Boltzmann method, Reactive flows, Detonation, Nonequilibrium effects.

1 Introduction

Chemical reactive flow is a complex physicochemical phenomenon which is ubiquitous in aerospace, energy and power fields, etc. [1,2]. It exhibits multiscale characteristics in temporal and spatial scales, incorporates various hydrodynamic and thermodynamic nonequilibrium effects [3]. The nonequilibrium effects exert significant influences on fluid systems especially in extremely complex environments [3], such as the spacecraft reentry into the atmosphere [4], multi-component reactive flow in porous media [5], fuel cells [6,7], and detonation [8]. At present, how to accurately probe, predict and analyze chemical reactive flows with essential nonequilibrium effects is still an open issue all over the world.

Actually, there are various classes of methodologies to retain the information of velocity distribution functions for fluid systems. For example, on the basis of the distribution function, Nagnibeda et al. established the kinetic theory of transport processes

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and discussed the features of complex system strongly deviating from the thermal and chemical equilibrium [3]. Besides, on the microscopic level, the distribution function can be obtained by using the direct simulation Monte Carlo [9, 10], or molecular dynamics [11, 12]. As a kinetic mesoscopic methodology, the discrete Boltzmann method (DBM) is a special discretization of the Boltzmann equation in particle velocity space, and has been successfully developed to recover and probe the velocity distribution functions of nonequilibrium physical systems [8, 13, 17].

In fact, the DBM is based on statistical physics and regarded as a variant of the traditional lattice Boltzmann method (LBM) [18–22]. Compare to standard LBMs, the DBM can address more issues, in particular to simulate the compressible fluid systems with significant nonequilibrium effects [13, 17, 23–27]. At present, there are two means to recover the velocity distribution functions. One relies on the analysis of the detailed nonequilibrium physical quantities to obtain the main features of the velocity distribution function in a qualitative way [8, 13, 14, 16]. The other is to recover the detailed velocity distribution function by means of macroscopic quantities and their spatio and temporal derivatives quantitatively, which can be derived by using the Chapman-Enskog expansion [15, 17]. The two methods are consistent [17].

In the rest of this paper, we firstly derive the nonequilibrium velocity distribution function of reactive fluid based on the Boltzmann equation. Secondly, we give a brief introduction of the DBM for compressible reactive flows. Thirdly, the DBM is utilized to investigate the kinetic moments of velocity distribution function around the detonation wave. Finally, the nonequilibrium and equilibrium distribution functions as well as their differences are obtained and analyzed.

2 Derivation of velocity distribution function of reactive fluid

Now, let us introduce the popular Bhatanger-Gross-Krook (BGK) Boltzmann equation,

\[
\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla f = \frac{1}{\tau} (f - f^{eq}) + R, \tag{2.1}
\]

where \(\tau\) denotes the relaxation time, \(t\) the time, \(f\) the velocity distribution function. The equilibrium distribution function [16] is

\[
f^{eq} = n \left( \frac{1}{2\pi T} \right)^{D/2} \left( \frac{1}{2\pi I T} \right)^{1/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}^2}{2T} - \frac{\eta^2}{2IT} \right], \tag{2.2}
\]

where \(D = 2\) denotes the dimensional translational degree of freedom, \(I\) counts extra degrees of freedom due to vibration and/or rotation, and \(\eta\) represents the corresponding vibrational and/or rotational energies. \(n, \mathbf{u},\) and \(T\) represent the particle number density, flow velocity and temperature, respectively.

On the right-hand side of Eq. (2.1), \(R\) is the chemical term describing the change rate of the distribution function due to chemical reactions. In this paper, a two-step reaction
scheme is employed to mimic the essential dynamics of a chain-branching reaction of detonation [28]. Here, the following qualifications are assumed: the time scale of molecular relaxation < the time scale of chemical reaction < the characteristic time scale of the system. Then, the chemical reaction term can be obtained as

\[
R = f_{eq} \times \left[ -\frac{D+1}{2T} + \frac{|v-u|^2}{2T^2} + \frac{\eta^2}{21T^2} \right] \frac{2Q\lambda'}{D+I}, \tag{2.3}
\]

where \(Q\) indicates the chemical heat release per unit mass of fuel, \(\lambda'\) is the change rate of the mass fraction of chemical product.

Via the Chapman-Enskog analysis, we derive the first-order approximation formula of the velocity distribution function of reacting flows through the macroscopic quantities and their spatial and temporal derivatives,

\[
f = f_{eq} - \tau \left[ \frac{\partial f_{eq}}{\partial \rho} \left( \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + v_a \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r_a} \right) + \frac{\partial f_{eq}}{\partial T} \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + v_a \frac{\partial T}{\partial r_a} \right) + \frac{\partial f_{eq}}{\partial u_\beta} \left( \frac{\partial u_\beta}{\partial t} + v_a \frac{\partial u_\beta}{\partial r_a} \right) \right] + \tau \left( \frac{\partial f_{eq}}{\partial T} \right)_{R}, \tag{2.4}
\]

in terms of

\[
\frac{\partial f_{eq}}{\partial \rho} = f_{eq} \times \frac{1}{\rho}, \tag{2.5}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial f_{eq}}{\partial T} = f_{eq} \times \left[ -\frac{D+1}{2T} + \frac{|v-u|^2}{2T^2} + \frac{\eta^2}{21T^2} \right], \tag{2.6}
\]

and

\[
\frac{\partial f_{eq}}{\partial u_\beta} = f_{eq} \times \frac{(v_\beta - u_\beta)}{T}. \tag{2.7}
\]

Note that the change rate of temperature consists of two parts, i.e.,

\[
\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \bigg|_R = \frac{2T \frac{\partial u_a}{\partial r_a} - u_a \frac{\partial T}{\partial r_a}}{D+I}, \tag{2.8}
\]

on the right-hand side of which the first term describes the part caused by the heat release of chemical reactions,

\[
\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \bigg|_R = \frac{2Q\lambda'}{D+I}, \tag{2.9}
\]

and the other two terms reflect the parts due to the spatial gradients of velocity and temperature.
Therefore, Eq. (2.4) can be simplified as
\[
f = f^{eq} - \tau \left[ \frac{\partial f^{eq}}{\partial \rho} \left( \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + v_\alpha \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r_\alpha} \right) + \frac{\partial f^{eq}}{\partial T} \left( -\frac{2T}{D+1} \frac{\partial u_\alpha}{\partial r_\alpha} - u_\alpha \frac{\partial T}{\partial r_\alpha} + v_\alpha \frac{\partial T}{\partial r_\alpha} \right) + \frac{\partial f^{eq}}{\partial u_{\beta}} \left( \frac{\partial u_\beta}{\partial t} + v_\alpha \frac{\partial u_{\beta}}{\partial r_\alpha} \right) \right]. \tag{2.10}
\]

It can be inferred from Eq. (2.10) that the chemical reaction term is eliminated, so it has no contribution to the velocity distribution function directly.

## 3 Discrete Boltzmann method

In this work, the BGK DBM is used to mimic and measure the nonequilibrium reactive flows \[16\]. The discretization of the model in particle velocity space takes the form
\[
\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial t} + v_i \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial r_\alpha} = \frac{1}{\tau} (f_i - f^{eq}_i) + R_i, \tag{3.1}
\]
where \( f_i \) and \( f^{eq}_i \) represent the discrete distribution function and its equilibrium counterpart, respectively. \( v_i \) denotes the discrete velocity with \( i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, N \), and \( N = 16 \) is the total number of discrete velocities. Here a two-dimensional sixteen-velocity model is employed, see Fig. 1.

Physically, the DBM is approximately equivalent to a continuous fluid model plus a coarse-grained model for discrete effects. Meanwhile, the DBM is roughly equivalent to a hydrodynamic model plus a coarse-grained model of thermodynamic nonequilibrium behaviors. For the sake of recovering the NS equations in the hydrodynamic limit,
the discrete equilibrium distribution functions \( f_{i}^{eq} \) are required to satisfy the following relationship,

\[
\int \int f^{eq} \Psi \, dv \, d\eta = \sum_{i} f_{i}^{eq} \Psi_{i},
\]

(3.2)

with the particle velocities \( \Psi = 1, v, (v \cdot v + \eta^2), vv, (v \cdot v + \eta^2) v, vvv, (v \cdot v + \eta^2) vv, \) and the corresponding discrete velocities, \( \Psi_{i} = 1, v_{i}, (v_{i} \cdot v_{i} + \eta_{i}^2), v_{i}v_{i}, (v_{i} \cdot v_{i} + \eta_{i}^2) v_{i}, v_{i}v_{i}v_{i}, (v_{i} \cdot v_{i} + \eta_{i}^2) v_{i}. \)

Furthermore, one merits of the DBM is to capture nonequilibrium information described by the following (but not limited to) high-order kinetic moments

\[
M_{2}(f_{i}) = \sum_{i} f_{i} v_{i}v_{i},
\]

(3.3)

\[
M_{2}^{eq}(f_{i}^{eq}) = \sum_{i} f_{i}^{eq} v_{i}v_{i},
\]

(3.4)

\[
M_{3,1}(f_{i}) = \sum_{i} f_{i} (v_{i} \cdot v_{i} + \eta_{i}^2) v_{i},
\]

(3.5)

\[
M_{3,1}^{eq}(f_{i}^{eq}) = \sum_{i} f_{i}^{eq} (v_{i} \cdot v_{i} + \eta_{i}^2) v_{i},
\]

(3.6)

\[
\Delta_{2} = M_{2}(f_{i}) - M_{2}^{eq}(f_{i}^{eq}),
\]

(3.7)

\[
\Delta_{3,1} = M_{3,1}(f_{i}) - M_{3,1}^{eq}(f_{i}^{eq}),
\]

(3.8)

where the \( M_{2} \) and \( M_{3,1} \) are the kinetic moments of the distribution functions, \( M_{2}^{eq} \) and \( M_{3,1}^{eq} \) denote the corresponding equilibrium counterparts, \( \Delta_{2} \) and \( \Delta_{3,1} \) are the differences between them. Here, \( \Delta_{2} \) represents the nonorganized momentum flux and \( \Delta_{3,1} \) nonorganized energy flux. In fact, \( \Delta_{2} \) and \( \Delta_{3,1} \) correspond to the viscous stress tensor and heat flux, respectively.

In addition, the second-order Runge-Kutta scheme is used for the time derivative in Eq. (3.1) and the second-order non-oscillatory and non-free parametric dissipative difference scheme [29] for the spatial derivatives.

4 Verification and validation

In this section, let us verify the consistency of theoretical and numerical results of the nonequilibrium manifestations of reactive flows. For this purpose, firstly, we simulate a reaction process in a uniform resting system. In order to possess a high computational efficiency, only one mesh grid is used for this simulation. The inflow and outflow boundary conditions are set in the \( x \) direction, and the periodic boundary condition is adopted in the \( y \) direction. It is found that the simulated nonequilibrium physical quantities ( \( \Delta_{2} \) and \( \Delta_{3,1} \)) remain zero during the chemical reaction, which means that the chemical reaction does not contribute to the nonequilibrium effects directly. Therefore, in the process
of the chemical reaction, the deviation of velocity distribution function $f$ from its equilibrium counterpart $f^e$ is zero, i.e. $f = f^e$. This result is consistent with the aforementioned theory that the distribution function depends on the physical quantities and derivatives, and is independent of chemical reactions directly, see Eq. (2.10).

For the purpose of further validation, the one-dimensional (1-D) steady detonation is simulated. The initial configuration, obtained from the Hugoniot relation, takes the form

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\rho, u_x, u_y, T, \xi, \lambda) \big|_L = (1.38836, 0.57735, 0, 1.57855, 1, 1), \\ (\rho, u_x, u_y, T, \xi, \lambda) \big|_R = (1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0), \end{array} \right.$$ 

where the subscript $L$ indicates $0 \leq x \leq 0.0025$, and $R$ indicates $0.0025 < x \leq 0.55$. The Mach number is 1.74. To ensure the resolution is high enough, the grid is chosen as $N_x \times N_y = 11000 \times 1$, the space step $\Delta x = \Delta y = 5 \times 10^{-5}$, and the time step $\Delta t = 2 \times 10^{-6}$, the specific-heat ratio is $\gamma = 1.66$, the chemical heat release is $Q = 1$. Furthermore, the inflow and/or outflow boundary conditions are employed in the $x$ direction, and the periodic boundary condition is adopted in the $y$ direction.

Figure 2 displays the kinetic moments of velocity distribution function ($M_{2,xx}$, $M_{2,xy}$, $M_{2,yy}$, $M_{3,1,x}$, $M_{3,1,y}$), the equilibrium counterparts ($M^e_{2,xx}$, $M^e_{2,xy}$, $M^e_{2,yy}$, $M^e_{3,1,x}$, $M^e_{3,1,y}$), and the nonequilibrium quantities ($\Delta_{2,xx}$, $\Delta_{2,xy}$, $\Delta_{2,yy}$, $\Delta_{3,1,x}$, $\Delta_{3,1,y}$) around the detonation front. Here $\Delta_{2,xx}$ represents twice the nonorganized energy in the $x$ degree of freedom, and $\Delta_{2,yy}$ twice the nonorganized energy in the $y$ degree of freedom. $\Delta_{3,1,x}$ and $\Delta_{3,1,y}$ denote twice
the nonorganized energy fluxes in the $x$ and $y$ directions, respectively. The dashed line is located at the position $x = 0.50375$.

In Fig. 2(a), the solid squares, circles and triangles stand for the DBM results of kinetic moments of distribution function $M_{2,xx}, M_{2,xy}, M_{2,yy}$, respectively. The hollow squares, circles and triangles represent the DBM results of the kinetic moments of equilibrium distribution function $M_{eq}^{2,xx}, M_{eq}^{2,xy}, M_{eq}^{2,yy}$, respectively. And the solid lines indicate the corresponding analytic solutions, $M_{eq}^{2,xx} = \rho (T + u_x^2), M_{eq}^{2,xy} = \rho u_x u_y$, and $M_{eq}^{2,yy} = \rho (T + u_y^2)$, respectively. With the detonation wave propagating from left to right, $M_{2,xx}, M_{2,xy}, M_{2,yy,} M_{eq}^{2,xx}$ first increase due to the compressible effect, then decrease owing to the rarefaction effect, and form a peak around the detonation front. Meanwhile, $M_{2,xy}$ and $M_{eq}^{2,xy}$ remain zero, because the detonation wave propagates forwards in the $x$ direction. In addition, as for the equilibrium kinetic moments $(M_{eq}^{2,xx}, M_{eq}^{2,xy}, M_{eq}^{2,yy})$, the DBM results are in good agreement with the analytical solutions.

In Fig. 2(b), the solid squares and circles represent $M_{3,1,x}$ and $M_{3,1,xy}$, respectively. The hallow symbols denote the equilibrium counterparts $M_{eq}^{3,1,x}$ and $M_{eq}^{3,1,xy}$. And the solid lines indicate the analytic solutions $M_{eq}^{3,1,x} = \rho u_x \left[ (D + I + 2) T + u_x^2 \right]$ and $M_{eq}^{3,1,xy} = \rho u_y \left[ (D + I + 2) T + u_y^2 \right]$. Similarly, $M_{3,1,x}$ and $M_{eq}^{3,1,x}$ ascend rapidly and then decline slowly due to the compressible and rarefaction effects, respectively. $M_{3,1,y}$ and $M_{eq}^{3,1,y}$ are still zero in the one-dimensional simulation.

In Fig. 2(c), $\Delta_{2,xx}$ expressed by the solid line with squares first increases, then decreases, and increases afterwards, so it form a high positive peak and a negative trough. Actually, Fig. 2(c) is consistent with Fig 2(a) where $M_{2,xx}$ first greater than $M_{eq}^{2,xx}$ and then less than $M_{eq}^{2,xx}$ as the detonation wave travels forwards. Physically, $\Delta_{2,xx}$ stands for twice the nonorganized energy in the $x$ direction, its positive peak and the negative trough correspond to the compression and rarefaction effects, respectively. The solid line with triangles denotes twice the nonorganized energy in the $y$ direction $\Delta_{2,yy}$, which first decreases to form a negative trough and then increases to form a low positive peak. This trend is also consistent with the results of $M_{2,yy}$ and $M_{eq}^{2,yy}$ in the Fig. 2(a). Additionally, $\Delta_{2,xy} = M_{2,xy} - M_{eq}^{2,xy} = 0$ in Fig. 2(c) is in line with $M_{2,xy} = M_{eq}^{2,xy} = 0$ in Fig. 2(a).

In Fig. 2(d), $\Delta_{3,1,x}$ and $\Delta_{3,1,y}$ denote twice the nonorganized energy fluxes in the $x$ and $y$ directions, respectively. $\Delta_{3,1,x}$ and $\Delta_{3,1,y}$ are the differences between the kinetic moment $M_{3,1,x}, M_{3,1,xy}$ and their equilibrium counterparts $M_{eq}^{3,1,x}, M_{eq}^{3,1,xy}$, respectively. Obviously, $\Delta_{3,1,x}$ forms a positive peak and then a low negative trough. Because the $M_{3,1,x}$ first greater and then less than $M_{eq}^{3,1,x}$. Besides, the $M_{3,1,y}$ and $M_{eq}^{3,1,y}$ are zero, which causes $\Delta_{3,1,y} = M_{3,1,y} - M_{eq}^{3,1,y}$ to be zero as well.

Next, let us verify that the kinetic moments calculated by the summations of the discrete distribution functions are close to those calculated by integrals of their original forms at the location $x = 0.50375$. The kinetic moments calculated by the summations of the discrete distribution functions are ($\Delta_{2,xx}, \Delta_{2,xy}, \Delta_{2,yy}, \Delta_{3,1,x}, \Delta_{3,1,y}$) = (0.48449, 0,
−0.35844, 2.89123, 0), while the results of the corresponding integration counterparts are 
(Δ_{2,xx}, Δ_{2,xy}, Δ_{2,yy}, Δ_{3,1,xx}, Δ_{3,1,yy}) = (0.56488, 0, −0.27255, 2.80181, 0). The relative errors are (17%, 0%, 24%, 3%, 0%), which is roughly satisfactory. For the first time, this test demonstrates the accuracy of the nonequilibrium manifestations measured by the DBM, and validates the consistence of the DBM with its theoretical basis.

5 Recovery of velocity distribution function around detonation wave

To further perform a quantitative study of the nonequilibrium state around the detonation wave, Fig. 3(a) displays the velocity distribution function at the peak of Δ_{2,wx}, which is on the vertical dashed line in Fig. 2. It is clear that the velocity distribution function has a peak in the two-dimensional velocity space. Actually, due to the nonequilibrium effect, the velocity distribution function deviates from its local equilibrium counterpart, i.e., the Maxwellian velocity distribution function.

To further have an intuitive study of the local velocity distribution function, Fig. 3(b) shows its contours in the velocity space, which is in line with Fig. 3(a). Clearly, the peak is close to each other near the peak (especially on the left side), and becomes sparse away from the peak (especially on the right side). That is to say, the gradient is sharp near the peak (on the left side in especial), and smooth far from the peak (on the left side in especial).

To have a deep understanding of the deviation of the velocity distribution function from the equilibrium state, Fig. 3(c) depicts the difference between the nonequilibrium and equilibrium distribution functions in the two-dimensional velocity space. It is obvious that there are both positive and negative deviations around the detonation wave. Along the v_x direction, a high positive peak first appears, then decreases to form a valley, and then increases to a low positive peak.

As can be seen in Fig. 3(d), the deviation is symmetric about v_y = 0, and asymmetric about v_x = u_x. The contour plot consists of three segments along the v_x direction. The leftmost segment is in the region of the first peak, where the contour lines are approximately elliptical. The middle part is in the low valley area that seems a “moon” shape. And the rightmost one is in the low peak area, which likes a cobblestone. The contour lines between the high peak and the valley are closer to each other than those between the valley and low peak, because the gradients between the leftmost and middle parts are sharp than those between the middle and rightmost regions.

Finally, let us investigate the one-dimensional distribution functions and the corresponding deviations from the equilibrium states. Figures 4(a) and (b) depict the velocity distribution functions in the v_x and v_y directions, respectively. The solid lines represent the velocity distribution functions f(v_x) = ∫∫ f dv_y dη and f(v_y) = ∫∫ f dv_x dη, the dashed curves express the equilibrium counterparts f^{eq}(v_x) = ∫∫ f^{eq} dv_y dη and f^{eq}(v_y) =
Figure 3: The velocity distribution function (a) and its corresponding contour (b), the deviation of the velocity distribution function from the equilibrium state (c) and its corresponding contour (d).
\[ \int f_{\text{eq}} dv d\eta, \] respectively. Figures 4(c) and (d) show \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_x) = f(v_x) - f_{\text{eq}}(v_x) \) and \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_y) = f(v_y) - f_{\text{eq}}(v_y) \) which indicate the departures of distribution functions from the equilibrium state in the \( v_x \) and \( v_y \) directions, respectively. The following points can be obtained.

(I) In Figs. 4(a) - (b), there is a peak for each curve of \( f(v_x), f_{\text{eq}}(v_x), f(v_y), \) and \( f_{\text{eq}}(v_y) \). In Figs. 4(c) - (d), there are two peaks and a trough for \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_x) \), while a peak and two troughs for \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_y) \). Along the \( v_x \) direction, \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_x) \) forms a positive peak firstly, then decreases to form a valley, and then increases to a second positive peak. Because \( f(v_x) \) is first greater than \( f_{\text{eq}}(v_x) \), then less than \( f_{\text{eq}}(v_x) \), and finally greater than \( f_{\text{eq}}(v_x) \) again. Similarly, the relation \( f(v_y) > f_{\text{eq}}(v_y) \) or \( f(v_y) < f_{\text{eq}}(v_y) \) in Fig. 4(b) leads to the results \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_y) > 0 \) or \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_y) < 0 \) in Fig. 4(d).

(II) \( f(v_x) \) and \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_x) \) are asymmetric about the vertical dashed line located at \( v_x = u_x \), while \( f_{\text{eq}}(v_x) \) is symmetric. Physically, as the detonation evolves, the compressible effect plays a significant role in the front of the detonation wave, and the internal energy in the \( x \) degree of freedom increases faster than in other degrees of freedom, and there exists nonorganized heat flux in the \( x \) direction.

(III) In Figs. 4(b) and (d), each curve of \( f(v_y), f_{\text{eq}}(v_y) \) and \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_y) \) has a positive peak which is symmetric about \( v_y = 0 \). On the left and right parts of \( f_{\text{neq}}(v_y) \) are two identical troughs that are symmetrically distributed in Fig. 4(b). Because the period boundary condition is imposed on the \( y \) direction, the equilibrium and nonequilibrium velocity distributions in the opposite directions of \( v_y \) are symmetrical.

(IV) The nonequilibrium manifestations in Figs. 4(a)-(d) are consistent with the devia-
tions of distribution functions in Figs. [4(a)-(d)]. Specifically, the trend of $f_{neq}(v_x)$ indicates that $f(v_x)$ is “fatter” and “lower” than $f_{eq}(v_x)$, which means the nonorganized momentum flux $\Delta_{2,xx} > 0$. The trend of $f_{neq}(v_y)$ means that $f(v_y)$ is “thinner” and “higher” than $f_{eq}(v_y)$, which indicates $\Delta_{2,yy} < 0$. Meanwhile, the portion $f(v_x > u_x)$ is “fatter” than the part $f(v_x < u_x)$, which is named “positive skewness” and indicates $\Delta_{3,1,x} > 0$. And the symmetry of $f_{neq}(v_x)$ means $\Delta_{3,1,y} = 0$.

6 Conclusions

In conclusion, via the Chapman-Enskog expansion, the velocity distribution function of compressible reactive flows is expressed by using the macroscopic quantities and their spatial and temporal derivatives. The equilibrium and nonequilibrium distribution functions in one- and two-dimensional velocity spaces are recovered quantitatively from the physical quantities of the DBM, which is an accurate and efficient gas kinetic method. The departure between the equilibrium and nonequilibrium distribution functions is in line with the nonequilibrium quantities measured by the DBM. Moreover, it is for the first time to verify that the kinetic moments measured by summations of the distribution function resemble to those assessed by integrals of the original forms, which consists with the theoretical basis of the DBM. In addition, it is numerically and theoretically demonstrated that the chemical reaction imposes no direct impact on the thermodynamic nonequilibrium effects.

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