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AUTHORITY

AFATL ltr, 17 Oct 1975
STUDY OF HEAT TRANSFER AND EROSION IN GUN BARRELS

SCHOOL OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING
GEORGIA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

TECHNICAL REPORT AFATL-TR-73-69
MARCH 1973

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Study Of Heat Transfer And Erosion In Gun Barrels

S. Shelton
A. Bergles
P. Saha

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FOREWORD

This report details the work performed under the direction of Dr. S. V. Shelton at the School of Mechanical Engineering, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia, under Contract No. F08635-70-C-0129 with the Air Force Armament Laboratory, Eglin Air Force Base, Florida 32542. Lieutenant William S. Bulpitt (DLDL) was program manager for the Armament Laboratory. This effort was conducted during the period from 15 July 1970 to 15 July 1972. The first 12 months were devoted to modeling the heat transfer mechanism in gun barrels; during the second 12 months this model and its results were used to aid in understanding erosion in gun barrels and its reduction by particle seeding (TiO₂) of the propellants.

This report is divided into two parts. Part I - Analytical Model of Heat Transfer in Gun Barrels consists of Section II through VI, and Part II - Particle Seeding Effects on Gun Barrel Heat Transfer and Erosion consists of Sections VII through XI.

This technical report has been reviewed and is approved.

DALE M. DAVIS
Director, Guns and Rockets Division
ABSTRACT

This study models the combustion, solid propellant movement, gas dynamics, projectile dynamics, transient boundary layer, heat transfer, and barrel metal temperatures in a gun barrel. This is accomplished by rigorous development of the coupled partial differential equations and carrying out a detailed numerical solution to these equations. Comparison of barrel temperature solutions to experimental data is shown. Erosion mechanisms are discussed in the light of these solutions. This model is then used to study hypotheses concerning the heat transfer, temperature, and erosion effects of submicron size solid particle additives (TiO$_2$) to gun propellants. A mechanism not previously studied offers excellent theoretical results in explaining the reduced erosion.

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English notations

- **e**: internal energy per unit mass
- **G'**: function defined by Equation (83),
- **H**: profile shape factor, $\delta^*/\gamma$
- **H'**
- **H'**: function defined by Equation (84),
- **H''**
- **H''**
- **h**: enthalpy per unit mass
- **h**
- **h** mean heat transfer coefficient
- **h_m**: mean heat transfer coefficient at the inner surface, $(h^n_{ij} + h^{n+1}_{ij})/2$
- **J**: mechanical equivalent of heat
- **J**: axial position of a nodal point in finite difference grid
- **L_0**: initial piston distance from tube head end
- **L_p**: piston distance from tube head end at any instant
- **L_t**: tube length
- **M**: molecular weight of gas
- **M_p**: piston mass
- **m_s_i**: initial charge of propellant
- **n**: time in finite difference grid
- **n**: reciprocal of exponent in power-law velocity profile
- **p**: pressure
- **Pr**: Prandtl number
- **q'': heat flux or rate of heat transfer per unit area
- **R**: tube inside radius
NOMENCLATURE (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English notations</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$R_o$</td>
<td>tube outside radius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_g$</td>
<td>gas constant, $R_u / \mu$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_u$</td>
<td>universal gas constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Re_{\theta}$</td>
<td>Reynolds number based on momentum thickness, $\frac{\rho_f U_\theta}{\mu_f}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r$</td>
<td>radial distance from tube axis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_b$</td>
<td>linear speed of burning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{bt}$</td>
<td>total burning surface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$St$</td>
<td>Stanton number, $\left(\frac{h}{\rho_u U_c}\right)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$s$</td>
<td>entropy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T$</td>
<td>one-dimensional gas temperature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_o$</td>
<td>explosion temperature</td>
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<tr>
<td>$T_w$</td>
<td>tube wall temperature</td>
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<tr>
<td>$T_\infty$</td>
<td>free stream gas temperature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_f$</td>
<td>film temperature, $(T_\infty + T_{w,i})/2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_{w,i}$</td>
<td>inner surface temperature of tube wall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t$</td>
<td>time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U$</td>
<td>one-dimensional velocity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_p$</td>
<td>piston velocity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_\infty$</td>
<td>free stream velocity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$u$</td>
<td>velocity within boundary layer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\nu$</td>
<td>specific volume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_o$</td>
<td>initial chamber volume</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\dot{V}_{ds}$</td>
<td>volume rate of decrease of solids</td>
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NOMENCLATURE (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English notations</th>
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<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>potential of propellant per unit mass, ( \frac{R \cdot T_0}{(\gamma - 1)} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( w_{st} )</td>
<td>initial web thickness of a solid particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>axial distance from tube head end</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greek notations</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha )</td>
<td>thermal diffusivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \beta )</td>
<td>coefficient of thermal expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \gamma )</td>
<td>ratio of specific heats, ( \frac{c_p}{c_v} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta E )</td>
<td>additional energy available per unit mass during conversion of solids into gases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta f )</td>
<td>change of function ( f )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \delta )</td>
<td>boundary layer thickness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \delta^* )</td>
<td>displacement thickness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( n )</td>
<td>covolume in Equation of state (6), Part I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( n, \xi )</td>
<td>characteristic directions corresponding to positive and negative value of ( \lambda ) respectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \phi )</td>
<td>function defined by Equation (61), Part I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \theta )</td>
<td>momentum thickness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \kappa )</td>
<td>thermal conductivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \lambda )</td>
<td>arbitrary multiplier to determine ( n, \xi ) characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \lambda_m )</td>
<td>( m )th root of Equation (151), Part II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \mu )</td>
<td>viscosity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( n_s )</td>
<td>volume fraction of solids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \rho_s )</td>
<td>one-dimensional gas density</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \rho_s )</td>
<td>density of propellant material</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Greek notations

- $\rho_f$: gas density at film temperature $T_f$
- $\rho_m$: mixture density, $[\nu_s \rho_s + (1-\nu_s)\rho_g]$
- $\tau_w$: wall shear stress
- $\zeta$: characteristic direction along a particle path

Subscripts

- $f$: value at film temperature $T_f$
- $g$: value for gas
- $i$: value at inner surface of tube wall
- $o$: initial value
- $p$: value at piston base
- $s$: value for solids
- $w$: value for wall material
- $\omega$: free stream value

Superscripts

- $'$: corresponding non-dimensional form

Special notations

- $()$: first estimated value of a function after time $\Delta t'$
- $^\prime$: second estimated value of a function after time $\Delta t'$
- $'$: differentiation with respect to $r$
- $n$ : value at node $n,j$ in time-space finite difference grid
- $D_{Dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$

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SECTION I

SUMMARY

The objective of this study is to (1) provide a mathematical model which can be used to predict the performance and heat transfer characteristics of guns, or devices which produce high pressure and temperatures in an enclosed but expanding volume by burning solid propellant and (2) utilize this model to study the heat transfer and erosion effects of adding solid micron size particles, such as titanium dioxide, to the propellant.

The internal ballistic model is developed by deriving the time-dependent one-dimensional conservation equations, including the effect of skin friction and wall heat transfer. A boundary layer analysis is carried out by deriving the boundary layer momentum equation for a non-steady, developing compressible flow in a tube. As a first approximation, the profile shape fraction (ratio of the displacement thickness and the momentum thickness) is assumed to be a constant. The conduction heat transfer equations for the tube itself are written and coupled with this boundary layer heat transfer analysis. Two limiting cases of solids velocity, namely (1) the same velocity as the combustion gases and (2) zero velocity, are considered.

Numerical techniques are used to solve the above equations together with the equation of state of the combustion gas and to determine all the ballistic properties, namely pressure, velocity, gas density, gas temperature, volume fraction of solids, and the boundary layer thickness at each point along the length of the tube at every time step. The heat transfer coefficient at the inside surface of the tube is obtained from Colburn's analogy and the tube wall temperature is determined simultaneously, and coupled with, the interior ballistic solution.
Results are obtained for a typical set of input data which show that the final projectile velocity and the time of travel for the two extreme cases of solids velocity are quite close. The total heat loss to the tube wall is found to be five to six percent of the input energy. Very high values of the heat transfer coefficient (50 kcal/m²·sec·°K on the average) are found, which produce peak tube wall surface temperatures of 800 to 1000°K near the projectile standing position.

Excellent agreement between predicted and experimentally measured single shot tube wall temperatures are found. This agreement is produced without the use of experimentally measured interior ballistics data such as chamber pressure versus time.

Repetitive firing calculations were made for ten to fifty repeated firings with the tube heat transfer analysis yielding tube wall temperatures. For fifty firings over a three second period (0.060 second/firing) the inside tube wall peak temperature reaches 1500°K. Repeated firing bursts would produce temperatures high enough to cause melting of a very thin layer of metal. This verifies the importance of heat transfer in the gun tube erosion process.

The possible effects of solid micron size particles on the heat transfer from the combustion gases to the tube wall are investigated. A review of the existing literature concerning experimental measurements on dusty gases reveal that a reduction in wall friction and convective heat transfer is possible in many cases. In fact, reductions up to 30 percent have been measured, but no experimental heat transfer or friction data at the Reynolds number, particle loading, and particle size applicable to the gun tube problem are available. If it is assumed that the particles cause a reduction of the convective heat transfer coefficient of 20 percent, the inside
tube wall temperature is reduced by about 100°K, which appears as insufficient to cause a significant reduction in erosion.

All data on wear-reducing gun propellant additives reveal that a coating remains on the tube wall after numerous firings. A study of the insulation effect of micron size particles forming a packed bed in the surface roughness crevices of the tube wall showed that the tube metal temperatures would be reduced by up to 300°K. This occurs for a surface roughness of ten microns. It is found that sufficient particle loadings are contained in propellants used in actual practice to supply this coating material.

This insulation mechanism hypothesis is upheld by all calculations and is concluded to be the most probable predominate wear-reducing mechanism of wax with Titanium dioxide particles. This deposition of particles should therefore be optimized.
PART I: ANALYTICAL MODEL OF HEAT TRANSFER IN GUN BARRELS
SECTION II

INTRODUCTION

Definition of the Problem

Devices which produce high pressure in an enclosed but expanding volume by burning combustible mixture of gases or solid propellant with the objective of performing work are common in practice. Internal ballistics of these devices, for example the problem of the gun, have been solved experimentally since the fourteenth century when gunpowder first came into use [1]. But surprisingly enough, an analytical solution which may be used to accurately predict the performance of such devices has not been found. This lack of mathematical model compels a designer to choose the comparatively expensive path of experimentation, although only limited information can be obtained from these experiments. Moreover, a large number of experiments have to be performed before a set of optimum design parameters can be determined for a particular purpose, and still the final result remains in question as to whether a truly optimum condition has been achieved.

The problem of internal ballistics requires a modeling of the fluid flow phenomena and heat transfer to the wall inside the expanding volume. For simplicity, throughout this work we shall be restricted to the special geometry of a closed cylindrical tube with a sliding piston.

*Number in [ ] refers to the reference in Bibliography.
at one end, as shown in Figure 1. The combustible mixture is burnt inside the enclosed volume whereby the pressure is increased and the piston is set into motion. The products of combustion which flow down the cylinder behind the piston impart a considerable amount of its energy to the piston and a fraction is lost to the tube wall. This cools the combustion gases and modifies the pressure and flow conditions.

While heat transfer has some effect on the ballistic properties, this is probably more important with respect to the material properties of the tube. Since the combustion gases are usually at a temperature of 2000-3000°K, after repeated use of the device at high frequency the wall temperature of the tube may reach a value high enough to cause appreciable wear as the piston slides down the tube. A model of heat transfer, which can be used to predict the wall temperature, will help a designer to choose the optimum design parameters which will minimize the erosion rate.

The purpose of the present research is, therefore, to provide a working analytical model which shall be able to predict all the ballistic properties, namely velocity, pressure, temperature and density of the combustion gas mixture as a function of space and time. The heat loss to the tube wall shall be considered and the temperature distribution at the wall shall be determined. This model will then allow study and optimization of various parameters without expensive trial and error experimentation.
Figure 1. Schematic of the Piston-Cylinder Arrangement
Related Work

Theoretical solutions to the problem of interior ballistics have been attempted since the days of Lagrange who in 1793 first tried to determine the spatial distribution of pressure, density and gas velocity in the tube at all times after the combustion. The work available until now can be divided into two broad categories:

1. Semiempirical solutions which may have practical utility in the study of familiar devices.
2. Exact theories which attempt to include the predominate phenomena up to a certain order of magnitude by formulating a simple mathematical model of the flow.

Semiempirical Solutions

The major works in this area with special application to the guns using solid propellant are described in references 1 and 2. The main purpose of these works is to obtain a solution which matches with the experimental values of peak chamber pressure and muzzle velocity of the projectile. Only a few of the number of solutions shall be discussed here.

Isothermal Solution. The solution as described by Corner [2] is based on the following assumptions:

1. The propellant stays in the chamber burning under the tube head end (breech) pressure and the rate of burning is proportional to that pressure.

2. During the period of burning of the propellant, the progressive cooling of the combustion gases due to the work done on the projectile can be approximated by taking a mean gas temperature over this time
interval, corresponding to an effective mean force constant \( \lambda \).

(3) Uniform gas density and linear velocity distribution in the space between the tube head end and piston base.

(4) Resistance to motion of the projectile can be taken into account by introducing an increased effective projectile mass instead of actual mass.

(5) The covolume \( \gamma \) (volume correcting term in the equation of state of the combustion gas) is equal to the specific volume of the propellant material.

The expressions for breech pressure \( P \), projectile velocity \( V \), and projectile distance from breech face \( x \), are given as a function of "convenient variable" \( f \), the form factor \( \beta \), the force constant \( \lambda \), burning rate \( \beta \), and central ballistic parameter \( M \). The central ballistic parameter \( M \) itself is a function of \( \lambda \), \( \beta \), initial mass and web size of propellant, effective projectile mass, and tube diameter. The form factor \( \beta \) depends on the geometrical shape of the propellant and the variable "\( f \)" goes from one to zero as the propellant is burnt. Other parameters, namely \( \lambda \), \( M \) and \( \beta \) are chosen following a trial and error procedure until good agreement is obtained with the experimental values of peak pressure and muzzle velocity. The solution, however, does not take into account the heat loss to the tube wall.

Coppock's Solution [2]. This is an extension to the isothermal solution described above with the following modifications:

(1) Instead of taking a mean gas temperature during burning, the analysis takes into account the kinetic energy of the projectile and that of the gases, assuming that the combustion gases are uniform in density
between the breech and the projectile and that their velocity at any point is proportional to the distance from the breech face. The total heat loss to the tube wall up to a particular instance of time is assumed to be a certain fraction of the total kinetic energy of the projectile and the gases at that instant. In practice, the effect of heat loss is incorporated in the energy equation by a proper choice of $\gamma$ (ratio of specific heats at constant pressure and constant volume).

(2) The gases have a constant covolume $\eta$, not necessarily equal to the specific volume of the propellant material.

From the observed peak pressure it is possible to back-calculate the central ballistic parameter $M$, and thence the burning rate $\beta$.

The solution is superior to the isothermal solution because there is only one arbitrary parameter, namely the burning rate $\beta$, whose value is selected so that the peak pressure matches the experimental data. Moreover, the model takes into account the heat loss to the tube wall, though in a crude fashion.

**Goldie's Solution** [2]. The solution follows Coppock's solution described above with the only modification that the projectile is assumed to be motionless until a "shot-start pressure" is produced inside the chamber. If there is any resistance to motion at later times, the effect is simulated by a change in effective shot weight.

Apart from these solutions, there are solutions which attempt to use a better relationship between the burning rate and the corresponding pressure. But the solutions still need trial and error of one or more variables to match experimental data. Besides, there is no guarantee as to how good the solutions will be when prediction of performance of
a new device is desired. Also no information regarding the ballistic properties in between the breech face and the projectile is available from any of these models. Even a recent publication [3] fails to provide such informations.

Exact Theories

As mentioned earlier, Lagrange took the initiative to solve the one-dimensional problem of interior ballistics in 1793. He introduced the "Lagrange approximation" which assumes that the gas velocity at any instant increases linearly with distance along the tube, from zero at the tube head end to the full projectile velocity at the back of the piston. It is further assumed that all the propellant charge is in gaseous form from the start and at any time the gas density is the same at all points. It can be shown from the equation of continuity that if gas density is independent of position, the velocity distribution is linear; but the converse is not necessarily true.

In other work, Hugoniot in 1889 used the theory of waves of finite amplitude developed by Riemann in 1858, with the assumption that all the propellant was completely burnt when the piston began to move. He followed the resulting wave of rarefaction on its journey to the tube head end. The method was extended by Gossot and Liouville to follow the wave as it travels back to the piston after being reflected from the tube head end. Finally, Love [4] carried the analysis as far as the third wave traveling toward the breech and Pidduck [4] applied Love's solution in the special case of internal ballistics. But all these solutions, though completely analytical, hold good under two important assumptions:
(a) Instantaneous combustion.

(b) Adiabatic expansion of each element of gas.

The assumptions may be applicable for the devices which use gaseous fuel as propellant, say automobile engines, but for the devices using solid propellant the assumptions are far from the real situation. In this case, gradual burning of the propellant must be considered.

Analytical work based on most realistic assumptions has been done by Carriere [5]. For simplicity he assumed the propellant to be stationary in the combustion chamber at the time of burning which is a good assumption for cast propellant in a rocket-motor. From the basic concept of conservation of mass, momentum and energy, he derived three partial differential equations expressing gas density, gas velocity and entropy as a function of time and distance. He transformed those equations into three ordinary differential equations along three characteristic directions in the time-space co-ordinate. Then with proper choice of the equation of state for the combustion gas, he followed what is commonly known as the "method of characteristics" to determine the gas properties at any time and position. The effect of frictional losses and heat loss to the tube wall were disregarded in the analysis.

The problem of heat loss to the tube wall has been studied by Hicks and Thornhill in England. A fairly elaborate description of their method has been given in both references [1] and [2]. This work is also based on the Lagrange approximation of linear velocity distribution and uniform gas density in between the breech face and the piston.

It can be shown that at high velocity, heat is mainly transferred to the tube wall by convection. It is also evident that a boundary layer
is formed at the inner surface of the tube. The heat transfer rate per unit area through the boundary layer can be given as \( h(T_g - T_s) \), where \( h \), \( T_g \) and \( T_s \) are the film heat transfer coefficient, temperature of the gas, and temperature of the inner surface of the tube respectively. All three quantities depend on time as well as position along the tube.

Hicks and Thornhill considered the flow in the boundary layer to be the same as the flow over a flat plate. In internal ballistic applications the flow is in the turbulent region most of the time. Therefore, they used the analogy solution, as extended by Von Karman to cover Prandtl number other than unity, to obtain a relation between the heat transfer coefficient \( h \) and wall shear stress \( \tau_w \). To get the wall shear stress they first found a "best" power law for the velocity profile (non-dimensionalized with respect to the shear velocity \( \sqrt{\tau_w/\rho} \)) inside the boundary layer which was capable of giving the local wall shear stress \( \tau_w \) within three per cent of the value that could be obtained by using more rigorous logarithmic form of the velocity profile when applied to steady and uniform flow situations. Then they used the boundary layer momentum integral, including the terms due to non-steady and non-uniform nature of the flow, and used the "best" power law found earlier to obtain the local wall shear stress at all points. The heat transfer coefficient \( h \) is then easily calculated from the analogy solution. They, however, omitted one boundary condition that the boundary layer thickness at the base of the piston be zero at all times.

The heat transfer in the tube wall has been calculated by using the differential equation for unsteady heat conduction with proper boundary conditions. For the case studied by Hicks and Thornhill, i.e.
the first round of firing from a cold gun, the curvature effect of the wall was neglected as the temperature rise was confined within one millimeter of the inside surface. Consequently, there was no heat loss from the outer surface of the tube which remained at ambient temperature. The heat conduction along the length of the barrel was also neglected. Knowing the tube material properties, namely thermal conductivity and diffusivity, it was possible to obtain the temperature distribution at the inner surface of the tube along the length at all times. The free stream values of the gas velocity, density and temperature were taken from the one-dimensional ballistic solution.

It has been indicated in reference [2] that frictional pressure drop is small compared to the inertia pressure drop needed to accelerate the gas. But no analysis until now indicates quantitatively the effect of skin friction on the ballistic properties. Even the heat transfer solution has not been fed back to study its effect on the one-dimensional solution.

Present Investigation

In the light of available theories, it is clear that a good one-dimensional solution is first required to replace the Lagrange approximation, or at least check its validity for the particular problem. The first and most formidable difficulty in writing down the one-dimensional continuity, momentum and energy equations during the burning of the solid propellant is due to the uncertainty of the relative velocity between the gas phase and the solid phase. It is extremely difficult to estimate the drag exerted on the burning solid particles by the accelerating
combustion gases. Therefore, two limiting cases of the solids velocity have been considered in the present work:

Case I. The solid particles move at the same velocity as the gas phase.

Case II. The solid particles remain at their initial positions throughout the period of burning.

For both cases the conservation of mass, momentum and energy results in four coupled partial differential equations expressing volume fraction of solid $v_s$, gas density $\rho_g$, gas velocity $U$, and pressure $P$ as a function of axial distance $x$ and time $t$. The heat release due to gradual burning of the propellant is taken into account. A typical propellant geometry, namely a hollow cylinder, is considered whereby the total burning surface remains constant, although this assumption is not essential.

The ballistic properties at the internal points are calculated from these equations after writing the same in finite difference form. But to obtain the properties at the two ends, namely the tube head end and the piston base, the equations are transformed into ordinary differential equations along the characteristic directions. The covolume of the gas is assumed to be constant, and experimental data for burning rate is used. As one of the initial conditions, it is assumed that the piston does not start until a certain specified pressure is reached inside the chamber and thereafter the piston does not experience any resistance to motion.

The boundary layer momentum integral for a non-steady, non-uniform, developing flow inside a tube is derived. The profile shape factor $H$
(ratio between the displacement thickness $\delta^*$ and momentum thickness $\theta$) is introduced and the Ludwig-Tillmann [6] friction factor is used. As a first approximation, the shape factor is assumed to be constant in the present work. The flow is in the high Reynolds number region for which the boundary layer thickness is small compared to the tube radius. It is therefore legitimate to replace the free stream values of gas density and velocity by the values obtained from the one-dimensional solution neglecting the boundary layer thickness.

The local heat transfer coefficient $h$ is calculated by using Colburn's analogy [7] between heat and momentum transfer. It covers Prandtl numbers other than unity and is simple to use. The values of viscosity and gas density at the film temperature are used. The heat transfer in the tube wall is computed from the unsteady one-dimensional (radial) heat conduction equation with appropriate boundary conditions. The wall temperature is also found as a function of axial distance and time.

The heat loss term is entered into the one-dimensional energy equation and a comparison of ballistic properties is made with the solution without heat loss. Effect of wall shear stress is also included. The ballistic efficiency of the piston-cylinder arrangement is compared by varying different design parameters.
SECTION III

MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS

The mathematical analysis consists of two major parts:

1) One-dimensional analysis with gradual burning of the solid propellant, including the effect of heat transfer and skin friction.

2) Formulation of the boundary layer problem and determination of heat transfer to the tube wall.

As outlined in the previous chapter, the present analysis is carried out for two extreme cases of solid velocity. In the first case, it is assumed that a burning solid particle moves with the same velocity as the combustion gases. In the second case, however, the solid particles are assumed to be stationary at their initial positions throughout the period of burning. Henceforth these two cases are referred as Case I and Case II, respectively.

One-Dimensional Analysis Including Heat Transfer and Skin Friction

Case I

The assumptions, other than that regarding the solids velocity, which are made to simplify the model are as follows:

1) At any instance of time, the linear speed of burning $r_b$ is the same for all the solid particles and it is a function of the
average pressure in the chamber (space in between the tube head end and the piston base).

(2) The solid propellants are single perforated circular cylinders in shape whereby the total burning surface remains constant during the whole period of burning.

(3) The burning rate is fast enough to consider that the temperature of the remaining solids at any instance of time remains constant at the initial temperature.

(4) The propellant material is incompressible and its coefficient of thermal expansion is negligible.

(5) The piston starts to move only when the chamber pressure reaches a certain value $P_o$, and thereafter the resistance to its motion is negligible compared to the pressure force exerted on it by the combustion gases in the chamber.

The conservation equations are as follows (for derivation see Appendix I):

Solid continuity:

$$\frac{\partial v_s}{\partial t} + u_s \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial x} + v_s \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial s} + \dot{V}_d = 0$$

(1)

Gas continuity:

$$\frac{\partial \rho_g}{\partial t} + u_g \frac{\partial \rho_g}{\partial x} + \frac{\rho_g}{(1-v_s^2)} \frac{\partial \rho_g}{\partial s} = \frac{\rho_g}{(1-v_s^2)} \dot{V}_d$$

(2)

Momentum:
\[ \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{\rho_m} \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \frac{2\tau_w}{\rho_m} \]  

Energy:

\[ v_s \rho_s \frac{Dh_s}{Dt} + (1 - v_s) \rho_g \frac{Dh_g}{Dt} - \frac{DP}{Dt} \]

\[ = \rho_s \left( N + \frac{P}{\rho_g} - h_g \right) \dot{V}_d - \frac{2h_i}{R (T - T_{\text{w}, i})} + \frac{2\tau_w}{R} \]  

where \( \dot{V}_d \) is the volume rate of decrease of solids per unit cylinder volume and is given by:

\[ \dot{V}_d(x, t) = \left( \frac{S_{\text{bt}}}{A_p} \right) \frac{v_s(x, t) r_b}{L_p} \int_0^x v_s(x, t) \, dx \]  

The equation of state of the gas is:

\[ P(v_g - \eta) = \frac{R T}{g} \]

or,

\[ P \left( \frac{1}{\rho_g} - \eta \right) = \frac{R T}{g} \]  

where the gas constant \( R_g \) is obtained from the ratio of the universal gas constant \( R_u \) and the molecular weight of the gas \( M \).

It has been shown in Appendix I that under assumptions three and four as stated earlier, the differential of enthalpy of solids per unit
mass \( h_s \) and the differential of enthalpy of gases per unit mass \( h_g \) can be given by:

\[
\frac{dh_s}{s} = \frac{1}{\rho_s} dP
\]  

(7)

\[
\frac{dh_g}{g} = \frac{(\gamma-\eta_g)}{\rho_g (\gamma-1)} dP - \frac{\gamma P}{(\gamma-1) \rho_g} dp_g
\]  

(8)

Substituting equations (7) and (8) into the energy equation (4):

\[
\frac{(1-\nu_s)(1-\eta_g)}{(\gamma-1)} \frac{DP}{Dt} - \frac{(1-\nu_s)\gamma P}{(\gamma-1) \rho_g} \frac{D\rho_g}{Dt}
\]

\[
= \rho_s (W + \frac{p}{\rho_s} - h_g) \dot{y}_d_s
\]

\[
- \frac{2h_1}{R} (T-T_{w,1}) + \frac{2T U}{R}
\]  

(9)

Using gas continuity, i.e. equation (2) to replace \( \frac{Dp}{Dt} \) in equation (9) the final form of the energy equation becomes:

\[
\frac{(1-\nu_g)(1-\eta_g)}{(\gamma-1)} \frac{DP}{Dt} + \frac{\gamma P}{(\gamma-1) \rho_s} \frac{3U}{sx} - \frac{\gamma P (\rho_s - \rho_g)}{(\gamma-1) \rho_g} \dot{y}_d_s
\]

\[
= \rho_s (W + \frac{p}{\rho_s} - h_g) \dot{y}_d_s - \frac{2h_1}{R} (T-T_{w,1})
\]

\[
+ \frac{2T U}{R}
\]
or,

\[
\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + B_1 \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = C_1 \frac{v}{d_s} - E_1 \frac{2h_1}{I R} (T-T_w) + E_1 \frac{2U}{R}
\]

where

\[
B_1 = \frac{\gamma P}{(1-v_s)(1-\eta \rho_s) g}
\]

\[
C_1 = \frac{\gamma P (\rho_s - \rho_g) + (\gamma-1) \rho_s \rho_g (w + \frac{P}{\rho_s} - h_g)}{\rho_g ((1-v_s)(1-\eta \rho_s))}
\]

\[
E_1 = \frac{(\gamma-1)}{(1-v_s)(1-\eta \rho_s)}
\]

The initial conditions of the conservation equations are:

Position of the piston, \(L_p(0) = L_0\)

\[
U(x,0) = 0, \quad P(x,0) = P_0, \quad T(x,0) = T_0, \quad \rho_g(x,0) = \rho_g_0
\]

and \(v_s(x,0) = v_{s_0}\) at \(0 \leq x \leq L_0\)

where \(P_0\) is the pressure at which the piston starts to move, and \(T_0\) is the adiabatic, stagnation flame temperature of the propellant. By knowing \(P_0\) and \(T_0\) it is possible to determine \(\rho_g_0\) from the equation of state (2.6):
Neglecting the initial mass of air in the chamber, a mass balance gives:

\[ m_{s_i} = v_{s_o} V_o \rho_s + (1-v_{s_o}) V_o \rho_{g_0} \]

or,

\[ \frac{(m_{s_i}}{V_o}) \rho_{g_0} = v_{s_o} \rho_{g_0} \]

\[ v_{s_o} = \frac{(m_{s_i}}{V_o}) \rho_{g_0} \]

\[ (m_{s_i}/V_o) \] is called the "loading density."

The boundary conditions are:

at \( x = 0 \), \( U(0,t) = 0 \)

and

at \( x = L_p \), \( U(L_p,t) = U_p(t) \)

The piston velocity \( U_p(t) \) is obtained from the equation of motion of the piston, which under the assumption five takes the following form:

\[ \frac{dU_p}{dt} = a_p = \frac{P \cdot A}{M_p} \]

The position of the piston is obtained from:
The unknowns, and the corresponding equations from which they can be calculated are listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unknown</th>
<th>Equation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volume fraction of solids, $v_s$</td>
<td>Solid continuity, (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas density, $\rho_g$</td>
<td>Gas continuity, (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Velocity, $U$</td>
<td>Momentum equation, (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure, $P$</td>
<td>Energy equation, (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas temperature, $T$</td>
<td>Equation of state, (6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The conservation equations, i.e. (1), (2), (3) and (10) are written in finite difference form, and a numerical scheme which takes into account both forward and backward space derivatives are used to calculate the corresponding unknowns, i.e. $v_s$, $\rho_g$, $U$ and $P$, at all the interior points at an advanced time by knowing the present values at and around those points. The gas temperature, $T$, is then calculated from the equation of state (6). The details of the solution technique shall be discussed in Chapter IV.

The above solution technique, however, is not applicable to the boundary points, i.e. the piston base end and the tube head end, as space derivatives on both sides of these two points are not available. This necessitates the transformation of the conservation equations to ordinary differential equations along characteristic directions, i.e. to follow the "method of characteristics" [8].
P-U Characteristic. The energy equation (10) is:

\[
\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + B_1 \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = C_I \dot{V}_d - E_I \frac{2h_I}{R} (T - T_w, i) \\
+ E_I \frac{2\tau w}{R}
\]

Multiplying the momentum equation (3) by an arbitrary constant \(\lambda\):

\[
\lambda \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \lambda \rho_m \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + \lambda \rho_m \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = - \frac{2\tau w}{R} \tag{20}
\]

Adding equation (20) to equation (10):

\[
\left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + (U+\lambda) \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \right] + \left[ \frac{\lambda \rho_m \partial U}{\partial t} + (B_1 + \lambda \rho_m) \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right] \\
= C_I \dot{V}_d - E_I \frac{2h_I}{R} (T - T_w, i) \\
+ \frac{2\tau w}{R} \left[ E_I U - \lambda \right] \tag{21}
\]

To obtain the characteristic directions, the value of \(\lambda\) shall be such that:

\[
\frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{U+\lambda} = \frac{\lambda \rho_m}{B_1 + \lambda \rho_m U}
\]

\[
\lambda_{1,2} = \pm \sqrt{B_1/\rho_m} \tag{22}
\]

25
Dividing equation (2.21) by \( \sqrt{1+(U+\lambda)^2} \) and using

\[
\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(U+\lambda)^2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{(U+\lambda)}{\sqrt{1+(U+\lambda)^2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{d}{dn, \xi}
\]

where \( n \) corresponds to \( \lambda_1 \), i.e. positive sign of \( \lambda \), and \( \xi \) corresponds to \( \lambda_2 \), i.e. negative sign of \( \lambda \), the equation (21) becomes.

\[
\frac{dP}{dn, \xi} + \lambda_1 z \rho m \frac{dU}{dn, \xi} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(U+\lambda)^2}} \left[ C_I \dot{\varphi}_d \right.
\]

\[
- E_I \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w,i}) + \frac{2\tau}{R} (E_I U-\lambda) \right]
\]

(23)

Now,

\[
\Delta n, \xi = \sqrt{\Delta x^2 + \Delta t^2} = \Delta t \sqrt{1+(U+\lambda)^2}
\]

(24)

Therefore, along \( n \)-characteristic, i.e. \( \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{u + \sqrt{B_I / \rho_m}} \):

\[
\Delta P + \rho_m \sqrt{B_I / \rho_m} \Delta U = \left[ C_I \dot{\varphi}_d - E_I \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w,i}) \right.
\]

\[
+ \frac{2\tau}{R} (E_I U-\sqrt{B_I / \rho_m}) \right] \Delta t
\]

(25)

and along \( \xi \)-characteristic, i.e. \( \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{u - \sqrt{B_I / \rho_m}} \):
\[ \Delta P = \rho_m \frac{\sqrt{E_I / \rho_m}}{\rho_m} \Delta U = \left[ C_I \dot{V}_d - E_I \frac{2h_I}{R} (T - T_{w,i}) \right. \\
\left. + \frac{2T_w}{R} (E_t U + \sqrt{E_I / \rho_m}) \right] \Delta t \] (26)

**P-p Characteristic.** By rearranging equation (9),

\[ \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} = \frac{\rho (1-\eta \rho_g)}{\gamma P} \left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \right] + \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho_s \rho_g}{(1-\nu_s) \gamma P} \left( h_s - \frac{P}{\rho_s} - W \right) \dot{V}_d \\
+ \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho_g}{(1-\nu_s) \gamma P} \left[ 2h_I \frac{1}{R} (T - T_{w,i}) - \frac{2T_w U}{R} \right] \] (27)

Dividing this equation by \( \sqrt{1+U^2} \) and using,

\[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+U^2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{U}{\sqrt{1+U^2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{d}{dt} \]

and

\[ \Delta \zeta = \sqrt{\Delta x^2 + (\Delta t)^2} = \Delta t \sqrt{1+U^2} \]

along a particle path, i.e. \( \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{U} \):

\[ \Delta \rho_g = \frac{\rho (1-\eta \rho_g)}{\gamma P} \Delta P + \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho_s \rho_g}{(1-\nu_s) \gamma P} \left( h_s - \frac{P}{\rho_s} - W \right) \dot{V}_d \Delta t \\
+ \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho_g}{(1-\nu_s) \gamma P} \left[ 2h_I \frac{1}{R} (T - T_{w,i}) - \frac{2T_w U}{R} \right] \Delta t \] (28)
Characteristic. From equation (2)

\[
\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = - \frac{(1-v_s)}{\rho g} \left[ \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} \right] + \frac{\left( p_s - p \right)}{\rho g} \dot{v}_d \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} \tag{29}
\]

Substituting this expression for \(\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}\) in solid continuity (1):

\[
\frac{\partial v_s}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial x} - \frac{v_s(1-v_s)}{\rho g} \left[ \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} \right] + \left( \frac{v_s p_s + (1-v_s) p}{\rho g} \right) \dot{v}_d s = 0 \tag{30}
\]

Proceeding in the same fashion as for the \(P-p_g\) characteristic, one obtains:

Along a particle path, i.e. \(\frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{U}\):

\[
\Delta v_s = \frac{v_s(1-v_s)}{\rho g} \Delta p - \frac{p_m}{\rho g} \dot{v}_d s \Delta t \tag{31}
\]

The procedure of solving the above characteristic equations are discussed in Chapter IV.

Case II

In this case the solid propellant particles are assumed to be stationary at their initial positions throughout the period of burning. The linear speed of burning \(r_b\), is same for all the solid particles and is a function of the average pressure in the space between the tube head end and the initial position of the piston \(L_0\). The rest of the assumptions are the same as those for Case I.

The conservation equations in this case are (See Appendix I for derivation):
Solid continuity:

\[ \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial t} + \dot{v}_{ds} = 0 \]  \hspace{1cm} (32)

Gas continuity:

\[ \frac{\partial \rho_g}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial \rho_g}{\partial x} + \rho_g \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = \frac{(\rho - \rho_s)}{(1-v_s) \rho_g} \dot{v}_d + \frac{\rho U}{(1-v_s) \rho g} \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial x} \]  \hspace{1cm} (33)

Momentum:

\[ \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{\rho_g} \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \frac{\rho_s U}{(1-v_s) \rho_g} \dot{v}_d - \frac{2 \tau_w}{(1-v_s) \rho g R} \]  \hspace{1cm} (34)

Energy:

\[ (1-v_s) \rho_g \frac{Dh}{Dt} - (1-v_s) \frac{DP}{Dt} = \rho_s (\dot{W} + \frac{P}{\rho_s} + \frac{U^2}{2} - h_g) \dot{v}_d \]

\[ - \frac{2hi}{R} (T - T_{W,i}) + \frac{2 \tau_w U}{R} \]  \hspace{1cm} (35)

As none of the solid particles moves beyond \( L_0 \), \( \dot{v}_{ds} \) can be expressed as:

\[ \dot{v}_{ds} = \left( \frac{S_b}{A_p} \right) \frac{v_s h_b}{\int_{L_0}^{L_0} v_s dx} \]  \hspace{1cm} (36)
The same equation of state, i.e. equation (6) is used and by successive use of equation (8) and (33) the final form of the energy equation (35) becomes:

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + B_{II} \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} &= C_{II} \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial x} + \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)} \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial x} \\
&- E_{II} \frac{2h}{R} (T-T_w, i) + E_{II} \frac{2\tau U}{R} 
\end{align*}
\]

where

\[
B_{II} = \frac{\gamma \rho P}{(1-\eta \rho)}
\]

\[
C_{II} = \frac{\gamma P (\rho_s - \rho)}{\rho_s} + (\gamma - 1) \frac{\rho_p}{\rho_s} \left( \frac{W + \frac{P}{\rho} + \frac{U^2}{2} - h}{g} \right)
\]

\[
E_{II} = E_I = \frac{(\gamma - 1)}{(1-\nu_s)(1-\eta \rho)}
\]

The initial and boundary conditions are the same as those for Case I.

The characteristic equations are also required to calculate the ballistic properties at the two ends.

P-U Characteristic. The procedure is exactly same as Case I. Multiplying the momentum equation (34) by an arbitrary constant \( \lambda \), and adding to the energy equation (37) one obtains:
\[ \left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + (U+\lambda) \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \right] + \left[ \lambda \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + (B_{II} + \lambda \rho U) \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right] \]

\[ = C_{II} \dot{v}_s + \frac{B_{II} U}{1-\nu_s} \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial x} - \frac{\rho_s U}{(1-\nu_s)} \dot{v}_s \]

\[ - \frac{2h}{R} E_{II} (T-T_{T+w,i}) + \frac{2\tau_{w}}{R} \left[ E_{II} U - \frac{\lambda}{1-\nu_s} \right] \]  

\text{(41)}

The characteristic directions are such that:

\[ \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{U+\lambda} = \frac{\lambda \rho}{B_{II} + \lambda \rho U} \]

\[ \lambda_{1,2} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{B_{II}}{\rho \gamma}} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{\gamma \rho}{\rho (1-\nu_p)}} = \pm \alpha \]

\text{(42)}

From solid continuity, i.e. equation (32)

\[ \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial t} = -\dot{v}_s \]  

\text{(43)}

By adding and subtracting \[ \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)(U+\lambda)} \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial t} \] on the right hand side of equation (41)

\[ \left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + (U+\lambda) \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \right] + \lambda \rho \left[ \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + (U+\lambda) \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right] \]

\[ = \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)(U+\lambda)} \left[ \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial t} + (U+\lambda) \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial x} \right] - \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)(U+\lambda)} \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial t} \]

\[ + C_{II} \dot{v}_s - \frac{\rho_s U}{(1-\nu_s)} \dot{v}_s - E_{II} \frac{2h}{R} (T-T_{T+w,i}) + \frac{2\tau_{w}}{R} \left[ E_{II} U - \frac{\lambda}{1-\nu_s} \right] \]  

\text{(44)}
Dividing equation (2.44) by $\sqrt{1+(U+\lambda)^2}$ and using

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(U+\lambda)^2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{(U+\lambda)}{\sqrt{1+(U+\lambda)^2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{d}{d\eta, \xi}$$

yields the relation:

$$\frac{dP}{d\eta, \xi} + \lambda, \rho g \frac{dU}{d\eta, \xi} = \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)(U+\lambda)} \frac{d\nu_s}{d\eta, \xi}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(U+\lambda)^2}} \left[ \left( C_{II} - a \frac{\rho U_s}{(1-\nu_s)} + \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)(U+\lambda)} \right) \frac{d\nu_s}{d\eta, \xi} \right]$$

$$- \frac{2h}{R} \left( T-T, \lambda \right) + \frac{2\tau}{R} \left( E_{II} U - \frac{\lambda}{(1-\nu_s)} \right)$$

(45)

Therefore, along $\eta$-characteristic, i.e. $\frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{U+a}$:

$$\Delta P + \rho g \Delta U = \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)(U+a)} \Delta \nu_s$$

$$+ \left[ C_{II} - a \frac{\rho U_s}{(1-\nu_s)} + \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)(U+a)} \right] \frac{d\nu_s}{d\eta, \xi} \Delta t$$

$$- \frac{2h}{R} \left( T-T, \lambda \right) \Delta t + \frac{2\tau}{R} \left[ E_{II} U - \frac{a}{(1-\nu_s)} \right] \Delta t$$

(46)

and along $\xi$-characteristic, i.e. $\frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{U-a}$:
\[ \Delta P - \rho g \Delta U = \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)(U-a)} \Delta \nu_s \]

\[ + \left[ C_{II} + \frac{\rho_s U}{(1-\nu_s)} + \frac{B_{II} U}{(1-\nu_s)(U-a)} \right] \dot{v}_d \Delta t \]

\[ - \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w,i}) \Delta t + \frac{2w}{R} \left[ E_{II} U + \frac{a}{(1-\nu_s)} \right] \Delta t \quad (47) \]

**P-\rho g Characteristic.** Using equation (8) in equation (35) an alternative form of energy equation is:

\[ \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} = \frac{\rho (1-\nu_{ps})}{\gamma P} \left[ \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nu \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} \right] \]

\[ + \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho s g (h_s - w - \rho \frac{P}{g} - \frac{U^2}{2})}{(1-\nu_s) \gamma P} \dot{v}_d \]

\[ + \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho s g}{(1-\nu_s) \gamma P} \left[ \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w,i}) - \frac{2 \tau w}{R} \right] \quad (48) \]

Proceeding in exactly the same manner as for Case I, along a particle path, i.e. \( \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{U} \):

\[ \Delta \rho = \frac{\rho (1-\nu_{ps})}{g \gamma P} \Delta P + \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho_s g (h_s - w - \rho \frac{P}{g} - \frac{U^2}{2})}{(1-\nu_s) \gamma P} \dot{v}_d \Delta t \]

\[ + \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho s g}{(1-\nu_s) \gamma P} \left[ \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w,i}) - \frac{2 \tau w}{R} \right] \Delta t \quad (49) \]
$v_s$ at the piston base is always zero after the piston starts moving and $v_s$ at the tube head end can be obtained from equation (32) alone.

**Boundary Layer Analysis**

The boundary layer part of the entire analysis did not receive much attention in the past because of the nonsteady and nonuniform nature of the free stream flow. The flow is generally in the turbulent region with pressure gradient in the direction of the flow and a large temperature difference across the boundary layer. Also, in Case I a gas-solid mixture flows down the tube; hence the analysis is more complicated. A number of attempts [8, 10, 11, 12] have been made in the past to model the mechanism of heat transfer in a gas-solid mixture with various solid particle sizes and loading ratios ($w_s/w_g$). It has been found that the effect of the solids on convective heat transfer is prominent for micron-size particles whereas for millimeter size the effect is not appreciable. The present problem deals with the solid propellant of millimeter size and most of the time it burns out completely long before the piston reaches the end of the tube. It has also been found from the study of Hicks and Thornhill [2] that the boundary layer thickness is small compared to the tube radius. Therefore, to simplify the model, it is assumed that the solids always stay in the core of the flow and never enter into the thin boundary layer at the wall.

In the present study, an integral approach is preferred to a differential approach to keep the model relatively simple and tractable. The boundary layer momentum integral for the nonsteady and nonuniform compressible flow inside a tube as derived in Appendix II is:
\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho (U_\infty - u) r \, dr \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \alpha u(U_\infty - u) r \, dr \right) + \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \alpha (U_\infty - u) r \, dr \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial x} \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial x} \right) \]

\[ = \left( R\delta - \frac{\delta^2}{2} \right) \left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \rho_f \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial t} + \rho_f U_\infty \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial x} \right] \]

\[ + \tau_w R \]  \hfill (50)

Defining \( \delta^* \) = Displacement thickness

and \( \eta \) = Momentum thickness

such that,

\[ \rho_f U_\infty \int_{R-\delta^*}^{R} 2\pi r \, dr = \int_{R-\delta^*}^{R} \rho 2\pi r(U_\infty - u) \, dr \]

or,

\[ \rho_f U_\infty \delta^* (1 - \frac{\delta^*}{2R}) = \int_{R-\delta^*}^{R} \rho r(U_\infty - u) \, dr \]  \hfill (51)

and

\[ \rho_f U_\infty^2 \int_{R-0}^{R} 2\pi r \, dr = \int_{R-0}^{R} \rho 2\pi r u(U_\infty - u) \, dr \]

or,

\[ \rho_f U_\infty^2 \delta (1 - \frac{\delta}{2R}) = \int_{R-0}^{R} \rho u (U_\infty - u) \, dr \]

\[ \rho_f U_\infty^2 \delta (1 - \frac{\delta}{2R}) = \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho u (U_\infty - u) \, dr \]  \hfill (52)

and using the definition of the profile shape factor \( H = \frac{\delta^*}{\delta} \), and for a thin boundary layer \( \frac{\delta}{2R} << 1 \), \( \frac{\delta^*}{2R} << 1 \), \( \frac{\delta}{2R} << 1 \), \( \frac{\delta}{2R} << 1 \), the momentum integral equation (50) becomes,
\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \rho_f U_\infty \Phi \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \rho_f U_\infty^2 R \right] + (\rho_f U_\infty \Phi) \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial x} \\
= R \delta \left[ \frac{3P}{3x} + \rho_f \frac{3U_\infty}{3t} + \rho_f U_\infty \frac{3U_\infty}{3x} \right] + \tau W R 
\]

or,

\[
\rho_f U_\infty \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + \rho_f U_\infty \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} + \rho_f \Phi \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial t} + U_\infty \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} + \rho_f \frac{U_\infty^2}{\partial x} \\
+ 2 \rho_f U_\infty \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} + U_\infty \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} + \rho_f \Phi \frac{U_\infty}{\partial x} + \rho_f \frac{U_\infty^2}{\partial x} \\
= R \delta \left[ \frac{3P}{3x} + \rho_f \frac{3U_\infty}{3t} + \rho_f U_\infty \frac{3U_\infty}{3x} \right] + \tau W R 
\]  

(53)

Dividing equation (53) by \( \rho_f U_\infty \Phi \):

\[
\frac{1}{\rho_f U_\infty \Phi} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{U_\infty} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{\rho_f} \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial t} + \frac{U_\infty}{\rho_f \Phi} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} + 2 \frac{U_\infty}{\Phi} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} + \frac{2U_\infty}{\rho_f \Phi} \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial x} + \frac{3U_\infty}{\partial x} \\
= \frac{6}{\rho_f U_\infty \Phi H^2} \left[ \frac{3P}{3x} + \rho_f \frac{3U_\infty}{3t} + \rho_f U_\infty \frac{3U_\infty}{3x} \right] + \frac{\tau W}{\rho_f U_\infty \Phi} 
\]  

(54)

From the study of steady compressible turbulent boundary layers by Reshotko and Tucker [13], it is likely that for moderate Mach number flow encountered in this problem (\( M < 1.5 \)), the percentage change in the shape factor, i.e. \( \frac{\partial H}{\partial t} \), is small compared to the percentage change in momentum thickness, \( \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} \). As a first approximation, therefore, the shape factor, \( \Phi \), is assumed to be a constant. A more rigorous approach would be to derive another auxiliary equation, say moment of momentum.
integral [14] to obtain an expression for \( \frac{\partial H}{\partial t} \). However, derivation of such an equation for the nonsteady case is extremely complicated and therefore neglected in the present work.

For thin boundary layers, \( U_\infty = U \); \( T_\infty = T \) and the film temperature,

\[
T_f = \frac{T + T_{film}}{2}
\]  

(55)

The gas density at the film temperature, \( \rho_f \), can be evaluated from the equation of state (6), and the final form is:

\[
\rho_f = \frac{\left(\frac{T}{T_f}\right)\rho_g}{1 + \eta_p \left(\frac{T}{T_f} - 1\right)}
\]  

(56)

Equation (54) finally becomes:

\[
\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = -\frac{U}{H} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} + \frac{\tau_w}{\rho_f U H} - \theta \left[ \frac{1}{\rho_f} \frac{\partial \mu_f}{\partial t} + \frac{U}{\rho_f H} \frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{U} \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + \frac{(H+2)}{H} \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right]
\]

\[
+ \frac{\delta}{\rho_f U H} \left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \rho_f \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + \rho_f U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right]
\]  

(57)

The initial condition is: \( \theta(x,0) = 0 \).

The boundary condition at the piston end is \( \theta(L_p, t) = 0 \), which is obvious from the fact that all the particles at the piston base are at the full piston velocity all the time. The condition at the tube head end shall be established later.

It is assumed that the entire flow is in the turbulent region and the wall shear stress can be obtained from the Ludwieg-Tillmann
friction factor [6], which was developed from a series of experiments with all types of pressure gradients. The original expression which holds good for incompressible flow with small temperature differences across the boundary layer is:

\[ C_f = \frac{\tau_w}{\frac{1}{2} \rho \mu U_\infty^2} = 0.246 \times 10^{-0.678H} \left( \frac{\rho \mu \theta}{\mu_\infty} \right)^{-0.268} \]  \hspace{1cm} (58)

In the present work, the expression is slightly modified by using the fluid properties \((\rho, \mu)\) at the film temperature, \(T_f\), instead of the free stream temperature, \(T_\infty\), to take into account the effect of property variation across the boundary layer. The expressions for local friction coefficient, \(C_f\), and local shear stress at the tube wall, \(\tau_w\), used in the present work are:

\[ C_f = 2A \frac{1}{(Re_\theta)^B} \]  \hspace{1cm} (39)

\[ \tau_w = A \rho \mu U_f^2 \frac{1}{(Re_\theta)^B} \]

where

\[ A = \frac{0.123}{10^{0.678H}} \hspace{1cm} B = 0.268 \hspace{1cm} Re_\theta = \frac{\rho \mu \theta}{\mu_f} \]

Using the above expression for wall shear stress in equation (57), and multiplying equation (57) by \((1+B)\theta^B\):
\[
\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = - \frac{U}{H} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} + (1+B) \frac{\mu}{H} \frac{B}{\rho_f} U (1-B) \\
- (1+B) \left[ \frac{1}{\rho_f} \frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial t} + \frac{U}{\rho_f H} \frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{U} \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + \frac{(H+2)}{H} \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right] \\
+ (1+B) C_1 \left[ \frac{1}{\rho_f U} \frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{U} \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right]
\]

(60)

where

\[ \theta = \theta (1+B) \quad \text{or,} \quad \theta = \frac{1}{(1+B)} \]

and,

\[ C_1 = \frac{\delta}{\theta} \]

At the tube head end, \( U = 0 \) and the equation (60) becomes:

\[
\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = -(1+B) \theta \left[ \frac{1}{\rho_f} \frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial t} + \frac{U}{\rho_f H} \frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{U} \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + \frac{(H+2)}{H} \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right] \\
+ (1+B) \theta C_1 \left[ \frac{1}{\rho_f U} \frac{\partial \rho_f}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{U} \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right]
\]

(62)

and at \( t = 0, \theta = 0 \). This implies that at the tube head end, \( \theta \), i.e. momentum thickness or boundary layer thickness is zero at all times.

The equation (60) is applicable to both Case I and II for computing momentum thickness \( \theta \), and thence the friction coefficient,
C_f, at each station in the axial direction at each time step.

**Heat Transfer Analysis**

As the flow is in the turbulent region, the analogy between the momentum transfer and the heat transfer provides the easiest way to determine the heat transfer coefficient, h_i, at the tube wall. Because of its simplicity, Colburn's analogy [7] has been used for Prandtl numbers other than unity as follows:

\[ \text{St Pr}^{2/3} = \frac{C_f}{2} \]

or,

\[ h_i = \rho_f U_e \left( \frac{C_f}{2} \right) \frac{Pr^{2/3}}{} \]

where \( Pr = \frac{\mu C_p}{k} \) and all properties are evaluated at \( T_f \).

The heat transfer in the tube wall is considered as a one-dimensional (radial) unsteady heat conduction problem in a hollow cylinder. Longitudinal heat conduction is neglected because the temperature gradient in the radial direction is expected to be steeper by several order of magnitude than in the axial direction. The differential equation can be written as [15]:

\[ \frac{\partial T_w}{\partial t} = \alpha_w \left[ \frac{\partial^2 T_w}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial T_w}{\partial r} \right] \]

(64)

The material properties will be assumed constant with respect to temperature. The boundary conditions are:
at \( r = R \), \( \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[ h_i (T_s - T_{w,i}) \right] = - \frac{k}{\rho} \frac{\partial T_w}{\partial r} \bigg|_{r=R} \\

at \( r = R_0 \), \( \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left[ h_o (T_{w,o} - T_{amb}) \right] = - \frac{k}{\rho} \frac{\partial T_w}{\partial r} \bigg|_{r=R_0} \quad (65) \\

at \( t = 0 \), \( T(r) = T_{amb} \)

It is possible to solve equation (64) numerically and obtain the temperature at the inner surface of the tube \( T_{w,i} \) at each station along the length of the tube at each time step. The local heat transfer rate to the wall per unit surface area is given by \( h_i (T - T_{w,i}) \), and integrating over the entire surface and the time, the total heat transfer to the tube wall can be determined. The values of local wall shear stress \( \tau_w \), heat transfer coefficient \( h_i \), and inner surface temperature \( T_{w,i} \) as calculated from (59), (63) and (64) are used in the one-dimensional analysis for the subsequent time step.

**Non-dimensionalization**

Before proceeding to the solution technique that can be applied to solve the equations derived so far, it is advantageous to non-dimensionalize the equations to obtain a general solution for the geometrically similar devices with the same initial conditions. The non-dimensionalized parameters are:

- Axial distance, \( x' = \frac{x}{L_t} \)
- Pressure, \( P' = \frac{P}{P_0} \)
- Temperature, \( T' = \frac{T}{T_0} \)

41
Density,
\[ \rho' = \rho / \rho_0 \]

Velocity,
\[ U' = U / U_0 \quad U_0 = \sqrt{p_0 / \rho_0} \]

Time,
\[ t' = \frac{t_0}{L_t} \]

Linear speed of burning,
\[ r_b' = r_b / U_0 \quad (66) \]

It can be noted that:

\[ \dot{\nu} = \frac{U_0}{L_t} \left( \frac{S_b}{\eta P} \frac{v_s r_b'}{L_t} \right) = \frac{U_0}{L_t} \dot{\nu} \]

\[ h_g = \frac{p_0}{\rho_0} \left( \frac{p'(\gamma - \eta P)}{\rho_0} \right) = \frac{p_0}{\rho_0} h_g' \]

\[ W = \frac{R_T g_0}{(\gamma - 1)} = \frac{p_0}{\rho_0} \left( \frac{g_0}{P_0} \frac{R T_0}{(\gamma - 1)} \right) = \frac{p_0}{\rho_0} W' \]

\[ \tau_w = A \rho f U^2 \frac{1}{(Re_b)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \frac{p_0}{\rho_0} A \rho f U^2 \frac{1}{(Re_g)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \]

and, \( \eta P \) is a constant non-dimensional quantity.

Finally, non-dimensional forms of the conservation equations are:

**Case I**

Continuity of solids:

\[ \frac{\partial s}{\partial t'} + U' \frac{\partial s}{\partial x'} + v_s \frac{\partial U'}{\partial x} + \dot{\nu} = 0 \]

Continuity of gases:
\[
\frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t'} + U' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x'} + \frac{\rho'}{1-v_s} \frac{\partial U'}{\partial x'} = \frac{(\rho_s - \rho')}{1-v_s} \dot{v}_d'
\] (72)

Momentum:

\[
\frac{\partial U'}{\partial t'} + U' \frac{\partial U'}{\partial x'} = - \frac{1}{\rho_m} \frac{\partial P'}{\partial x'} - D_1' \frac{\rho_{fu} U'^2}{\rho_m} \left( \frac{1}{(Re_0)^B} \right) \] (73)

Energy:

\[
\frac{\partial P'}{\partial t'} + U' \frac{\partial P'}{\partial x'} + D_2' \frac{\partial U'}{\partial x'} = C_1' \dot{v}_d' - D_2' h_1 (T-T_{inj}) + D_1' \frac{\rho_{fu} U'^3}{(Re_0)^B} \] (74)

where,

\[
B_1' = \frac{\gamma P'}{(1-v_s)(1-\eta_p_0)} \frac{\rho'}{g_o} \] (75)

\[
C_1' = \frac{\gamma P'(\rho_s - \rho') + (\gamma-1) \rho_s g_o \left( \frac{v'}{\rho_s} + \frac{P'}{\rho_s} - h' \right)}{\rho'(1-v_s)(1-\eta_p_0)} \] (76)

\[
E' = \frac{(\gamma-1)}{(1-v_s)(1-\eta_p_0)} \] (77)

\[
D_1' = 2A \left( \frac{L_R}{L} \right) \] (78)

\[
D_2' = 2 \left( \frac{L_R}{L} \right) \frac{J}{\rho_o U_o} \] (79)
Equation of state:

\[ T' = \frac{P' \rho_{g'}}{\rho_{g} g'} \left( \frac{1-n_p}{g_o} \right) \]  \hspace{1cm} (80)

Characteristic equations:

Along \( n' \), \( \xi' \) characteristic, i.e. \( \frac{dt'}{dx'} = \frac{1}{U' \sqrt{B_{T}'/\rho_m}} \),

\[ \Delta P' + \rho_m \sqrt{B_{T}'} / \rho_m \quad \Delta U' = C_1' \nu_{d_s}' \Delta t' - D_2'E' h_1(T-T_{w,i}) \Delta t' \]

\[ + D_1' \left[ E'U' + \sqrt{B_{T}'} / \rho_m \right] \frac{\rho_f'u'^2}{(Re_0)^2} \Delta t' \]  \hspace{1cm} (81)

Along a particle path, i.e. \( \frac{dt'}{dx'} = \frac{1}{U'} \),

\[ \Delta g' = G' \Delta P' + H_1' \nu_{d_s}' \Delta t' + D_2' \left[ \frac{(\gamma-1)\rho_{g}'}{(1-v_s)\gamma P'} \right] h_1(T-T_{w,i}) \Delta t' \]

\[ - D_1' \left[ \frac{(\gamma-1)\rho_{g}'}{(1-v_s)\gamma P'} \right] \frac{\rho_f'u'^3}{(Re_0)^2} \Delta t' \]  \hspace{1cm} (82)

where,

\[ G' = \frac{\rho_{g}'(1-n_p)\rho_{g}'}{\gamma P'} \]  \hspace{1cm} (83)

\[ H_1' = \frac{(\gamma-1)\rho_{g}'(h_{g'} - w') - P'}{\rho_s (1-v_s)\gamma P'} \]  \hspace{1cm} (84)
Again along a particle path, i.e. \( \frac{dt'}{dx'} = \frac{1}{U'} \),

\[
\Delta \upsilon_s' = \frac{\upsilon_s (1-\upsilon_s)}{\rho_g} \Delta \rho' - \frac{\rho_n'}{\rho_g} \upsilon_{d_s}' \Delta t'
\]

(85)

**Case II**

Continuity of solids:

\[
\frac{\partial v_s'}{\partial t'} + \upsilon_{d_s}' = 0
\]

(86)

Continuity of gases:

\[
\frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t'} + U' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x'} + \rho_g \frac{\partial \upsilon'}{\partial x'} = \frac{(\rho_s' - \rho_g')}{(1-\upsilon_s')} \upsilon_{d_s}' + \frac{\rho_s' U'}{(1-\upsilon_s')} \frac{\partial \upsilon_s}{\partial x'}
\]

(87)

Momentum:

\[
\frac{\partial \upsilon'}{\partial t'} + U' \frac{\partial \upsilon'}{\partial x'} = - \frac{1}{\rho_g} \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x'} - \frac{\rho_s' U'}{(1-\upsilon_s')} \upsilon_{d_s}' - \frac{D_1' (1-\upsilon_s') \rho_{f'} \rho_g (\nu_{f'}) B}{(\nu_{f'}) B}
\]

(88)

Energy:

\[
\frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t'} + U' \frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial x'} + B_{II} \frac{\partial \upsilon'}{\partial x'} = C_{II} \upsilon_{d_s}' + \frac{B_{II} U'}{(1-\upsilon_s')} \frac{\partial \upsilon_s}{\partial x'}
\]

\[
- D_2' E' h_{II} (T-T_w,1) + D_1' \frac{\rho_{f'} U'^3}{(Re_f) B}
\]

(89)

where,
\[ B_{II}' = \frac{\gamma P'}{(1-\eta_P \rho_o \rho')} \] (90)

\[ C_{II}' = \frac{\gamma P'(\rho_s' - \rho_s) + (\gamma - 1)\rho_s' \rho_s' (\mathbf{u}' + \frac{P'}{\rho_s'} + \frac{u'^2}{2} - h')}{(\gamma - 1)\rho_s' (1-\eta_P \rho_o \rho')} \] (91)

\[ \text{Characteristic equations:} \]

Along \(\eta', \xi'\) characteristic, i.e. \(\frac{dt'}{dx'} = \frac{1}{U'_{II'}/\rho'_{II'} g} \)

\[ \Delta P' \rho'_{II'} \sqrt{\gamma - 1}/\rho'_{II'} \Delta U' = \frac{b_{II'} U'}{(1-\nu_s) (U'_{II'}/\rho'_{II'})} \Delta v_s 
+ \frac{C_{II'} U'_{II'} \rho_s' (1-\nu_s)}{(1-\nu_s) (U'_{II'}/\rho'_{II'})} \Delta v_s 
+ \left[ \frac{D_{II'} \rho_{II'} \sqrt{\gamma - 1}/\rho'_{II'}}{(1-\nu_s) (U'_{II'}/\rho'_{II'})} \right] \Delta v_s 
- D_2 \cdot E_i h_i (T - T_{w_i}) \Delta t' 
+ D_1 \left[ E' U' + \frac{1}{(1-\nu_s) \sqrt{\gamma - 1}/\rho'_{II'}} \right] \Delta t' \] (92)

Along a particle path, i.e. \(\frac{dt'}{dx'} = \frac{1}{U'} \),
\[ \Delta p' = \Delta p + H_{II} \dot{\gamma}_{s} \Delta t' + D_{1} \left[ \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho' \dot{E}'}{(1-\nu_{s})\gamma p} \right] h_{1}(T-T_{w,1}) \Delta t' \]

\[ - D_{1} \left[ \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho' \dot{E}'}{(1-\nu_{s})\gamma p} \right] \frac{\rho' U'^{3}}{(Re_{B})^{B}} \Delta t' \]

\[ (93) \]

where

\[ H_{II}' = \frac{(\gamma-1) \rho' \dot{E}'}{(1-\nu_{s})\gamma p} \left( \frac{h' - W' - \frac{p'}{\rho} - \frac{U'^{2}}{2}}{(Re_{B})^{B}} \right) \]

\[ (94) \]

**Boundary Layer Equation**

Using the non-dimensional momentum thickness, \( \theta' = \frac{\theta}{R} \) and all the non-dimensionalized parameters listed in (66), the boundary layer equation (60) becomes:

\[ \frac{\partial \theta'}{\partial t'} = \sum' + (1+B) \left( \frac{L}{H} \right) \left( \frac{U'}{H} \right) \left( \frac{B}{\rho f B} \right) \theta' (1-\theta) \]

\[- (1+B) \theta' \left[ \frac{1}{\rho f} \frac{\partial \rho f'}{\partial t'} + \frac{U'}{H} \frac{\partial \rho f'}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{U'} \frac{\partial \rho f'}{\partial \theta} + \frac{H+2 \rho f'}{H} \frac{\partial \rho f'}{\partial \theta} \right] \]

\[ + (1+B) \theta' \left[ \frac{1}{\rho f} \frac{\partial \rho f'}{\partial t'} + \frac{1}{U'} \frac{\partial \rho f'}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial \rho f'}{\partial \theta} \right] \]

\[ (95) \]

where

\[ \theta' = \theta (1+B) \quad \text{or} \quad \theta' = \theta (1+B) \]

\[ (96) \]
Now \( u' \), \( \rho ' \) and \( P' \) are taken from the one-dimensional solution and \( \rho_f' \) is obtained from the non-dimensional form of equation (56) i.e.:

\[
\rho_f' = \frac{(\frac{2T}{T + T_w}) \rho_g'}{1 + \eta \rho_g' \left( \frac{\frac{2T}{T + T_w} - 1}{g_{0}g'} \right)}
\]

(97)
SECTION IV

SOLUTION PROCEDURE

Solution of Interior Points

As there is no analytical solution to the set of coupled non-linear partial differential equations derived in the previous chapter, numerical techniques have been used to solve the conservation equations along with the boundary layer momentum integral equation and the equation of state of the combustion gas. The differential equations are written in finite difference form and MacCormack's version [16] of Lax-Wendroff two step method [17] is followed. The procedure is shown by an example below:

Let,

\[
\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -c \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}
\]

(98)

where \(c\) is a constant.

Equation (3.1) can be written as,

\[
\begin{align*}
{u}_j^{n+1} &= {u}_j^n - c \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} (u_j^{n+1} - u_j^n) \\
{u}_j^{n+1} &= {u}_j^n - c \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x} (-u_j^{n+1} - u_j^{n+1})
\end{align*}
\]

(99)

and finally,

\[
{u}_j^{n+1} = k_j \left[ {u}_j^{n+1} + {u}_j^{n+1} \right]
\]
where $u_{j}^{n+1}$ and $u_{j}^{n+1}$ are the first and second estimated value of $u_{j}^{n+1}$.

The integer $n$, and $j$ denote the time and axial position of a nodal point shown in Figure 2. If $c$ is a variable, i.e. $c(u)$, $c(u)_{j}^{n+1}$ is used in the second estimation of $u_{j}^{n+1}$. It can be recognized that both forward and backward space derivatives have been taken into account.

**Case I**

Using the MacCormack scheme, the non-dimensionalized conservation equations, i.e. (71) through (74) can be written as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\nu_{s}^{n+1}_{j} &= \nu_{s}^{n}_{j} - \nu_{s}^{n}_{j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x'_{o}} (\nu_{s}^{n}_{j} - \nu_{s}^{n}_{j}) - \nu_{s}^{n}_{j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x'_{o}} (\nu_{s}^{n}_{j+1} - \nu_{s}^{n}_{j}) \\
&\quad - \left[ \frac{\nu_{s}^{n}}{\rho d s} \right]_{j}^{n} \Delta t', \\
\rho_{s}^{n+1}_{j} &= \rho_{s}^{n}_{j} - \nu_{s}^{n}_{j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x'_{o}} (\rho_{s}^{n}_{j} - \rho_{s}^{n}_{j+1}) \\
&\quad - \frac{\rho_{s}^{n}_{j}}{(1-\nu_{s}^{n}_{j})} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x'_{o}} (\nu_{s}^{n}_{j+1} - \nu_{s}^{n}_{j}) + \frac{\rho_{s}^{n}_{j}}{(1-\nu_{s}^{n}_{j})} \left[ \frac{\nu_{s}^{n}}{\rho d s} \right]_{j}^{n} \Delta t', \\
\nu_{s}^{n+1}_{j} &= \nu_{s}^{n}_{j} - \nu_{s}^{n}_{j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x'_{o}} (\nu_{s}^{n}_{j} - \nu_{s}^{n}_{j}) \\
&\quad - \frac{1}{\rho_{s}^{n}_{j}} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x'_{o}} (\nu_{s}^{n}_{j+1} - \nu_{s}^{n}_{j}) - \frac{\nu_{s}^{n}}{\rho d s} \Delta t'.
\end{align*}
\]
Figure 2. Numerical Scheme for Interior Points

Figure 3. Scheme for End Points
\[ p_{j}^{n+1} = p_{j}^{n} - u_{j}^{n} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_{o}} \left( p_{j+1}^{n} - p_{j}^{n} \right) - \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_{o}} \left( u_{j+1}^{n} - u_{j}^{n} \right) \]

\[ + \frac{C_{t}^{n}}{j} \dot{v}_{d_{s}}^{n} \Delta t' - E_{j}^{n} D_{2} \ddot{q}_{j}^{n} \Delta t' \]

\[ + E_{j}^{n} \frac{PGF_{2}}{j} \Delta t' \]  

(103)

where,

\[ \dot{v}_{d_{s}}^{t} = \frac{S_{b}^{t}}{A_{p}} \frac{\nu_{s}^{r_{b}}}{f_{s}^{r_{b}}} \int_{0}^{r_{p}} p_{s} d x' \]  

(104)

\[ \ddot{q}^{n} = h_{i} (T - T_{W, i}) \]  

(105)

\[ ULF = \frac{D_{1}^{r_{f}} U_{r_{f}}^{2}}{\rho_{m} (R_{e_{f}} B)} \]  

(106)

\[ PGF = \frac{D_{1}^{r_{f}} U_{r_{f}}^{3}}{\rho_{m} (R_{e_{f}} B)} \]  

(107)

Thus, for all the nodal points (except the last point adjacent to the piston base) the first estimation regarding the ballistic properties after a time increment \( \Delta t' \) is made by knowing the present values of the properties at the point of interest and at its forward nodal point. The second estimation is done as follows:
\[\begin{align*}
\tilde{v}^{n+1}_{s_j} &= \tilde{v}^n_{s_j} - \tilde{u}^{n+1}_{s_j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_0} (\tilde{v}^{n+1}_{s_j} - \tilde{v}^n_{s_j}) \\
- \tilde{v}^{n+1}_{s_j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_0} (u^{n+1}_{s_j} - u^n_{s_j}) - \nu_{s_j}^n \Delta t' \\
\tilde{\rho}^{n+1}_{g_j} &= \tilde{\rho}^n_{g_j} - \tilde{u}^{n+1}_{g_j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_0} (\tilde{\rho}^{n+1}_{g_j} - \tilde{\rho}^n_{g_j}) \\
- \frac{\tilde{\rho}^n_{g_j}}{(1-\tilde{\nu}_{s_j}^{n+1})} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_0} (u^{n+1}_{g_j} - u^n_{g_j}) + \frac{(\rho' - \rho^n_{g_j})}{(1-\tilde{\nu}_{s_j}^{n+1})} \nu_{s_j}^n \Delta t' \\
\tilde{u}^{n+1}_{j} &= \tilde{u}^n_{j} - \tilde{u}^{n+1}_{j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_0} (\tilde{u}^{n+1}_{j} - \tilde{u}^n_{j}) \\
- \frac{1}{\tilde{\rho}_{m_j}^{n+1}} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_0} (\tilde{p}^{n+1}_{j} - \tilde{p}^n_{j}) - \text{ULF} \nu_{s_j}^n \Delta t' \\
\tilde{p}^{n+1}_{j} &= \tilde{p}^n_{j} - \tilde{u}^{n+1}_{j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_0} (\tilde{p}^{n+1}_{j} - \tilde{p}^n_{j}) \\
- \tilde{E}^n_{j} \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x_0} (\tilde{u}^{n+1}_{j} - \tilde{u}^n_{j}) + \tilde{c}^n_{j} \nu_{s_j}^n \Delta t' \\
- \tilde{E}^n_{j} D_2^n \tilde{v}_{j}^{n+1} \Delta t' + \tilde{E}^n_{j} \text{PGF} \nu_{s_j}^n \Delta t' \\
\text{and finally,} \\
\nu_{s_j}^{n+1} &= \left[ \nu_{s_j}^{n+1} + \nu_{s_j}^{n+1} \right] \\
\text{(112)}
\end{align*}\]
\[ p_{j}^{n+1} = \lambda_{j} \left( \rho_{j}^{n+1} + \tilde{p}_{j}^{n+1} \right) \] (113)

\[ u_{j}^{n+1} = \lambda_{j} \left( u_{j}^{n+1} + \tilde{u}_{j}^{n+1} \right) \] (114)

\[ p_{j}^{n+1} = \lambda_{j} \left( p_{j}^{n+1} + \tilde{p}_{j}^{n+1} \right) \] (115)

From the equation of state (80):

\[ T_{j}^{n+1} = \frac{p_{j}^{n+1}}{\rho_{j}^{n+1}} \frac{1 - \eta \rho_{o} g_{j}^{n+1}}{(1 - \eta \rho_{o})} \] (116)

Similarly, to calculate the momentum thickness at a nodal point after increment \( \Delta t' \), equation (95) is written as:

\[
\bar{\gamma}_{j}^{n+1} = \bar{\gamma}_{j}^{n} - \frac{C_{1}}{U_{j}^{n}} \left[ \frac{1}{p_{j}^{n+1} \rho_{j}^{n+1}} \right] \left( \rho_{j}^{n+1} - \rho_{j}^{n} \right) + \frac{1}{H \rho_{o}^{n} x_{o}^{n}} \frac{\Delta t'}{x_{o}^{n}} \left( \rho_{j+1}^{n} - \rho_{j}^{n} \right)
+ \left( \frac{1 - C_{1}}{U_{j}^{n}} \right) \left( u_{j}^{n+1} - u_{j}^{n} \right) + \frac{(H + 2)}{H} \left( C_{1} \right) \frac{\Delta t'}{x_{o}^{n}} \left( u_{j+1}^{n} - u_{j}^{n} \right)
+ (1 + B) \frac{C_{1}}{p_{j}^{n+1} \rho_{j}^{n}} \frac{\Delta t'}{x_{o}^{n}} \left( p_{j+1}^{n} - p_{j}^{n} \right)
\] (117)

54
where

\[ D_3' = (1+B) \frac{A}{H} \frac{L}{R} \left( \frac{L}{R} \right) \frac{\mu f_j^n B}{g_o (T_o)} \]  

(118)

taking

\[ u_f = \frac{T_f m}{g_o (T_o)} \]

(119)

m being a suitable constant.

The densities \( \tilde{\rho}_f^n \) and \( \tilde{\rho}_f^{n+1} \) are calculated from equation (97) with the assumption,

\[ \left( \frac{T}{T_f} \right)_{j+1} = \left( \frac{T}{T_f} \right)_j \]

again,

\[ \tilde{\phi}_j^{n+1} = \tilde{\phi}_j^n - \frac{1}{H} \frac{\Delta t'}{x_0} \left( \tilde{\phi}_j^{n+1} - \tilde{\phi}_j^{n+1} \right) + D_3' \frac{\tilde{\phi}_j^{n+1}}{(\tilde{\phi}_f_j^n)^b} \Delta t' \]

\[ - (1+B) \frac{\tilde{\phi}_j^{n+1}}{\rho_f_j^n} \left[ \frac{1}{\rho_f_j^n} (\tilde{\phi}_f_j^{n+1} - \tilde{\phi}_f_j^n) + \frac{1}{H \rho_f_j^n} \frac{\Delta t'}{x_0} (\tilde{\phi}_f_j^{n+1} - \tilde{\phi}_f_j^{n+1}) \right] \]

\[ + \frac{(1-C_1)}{U_j^{n+1}} \left( \frac{U_j^{n+1} - U_j^n}{x_j} + \frac{( \frac{H+2}{H} - C_1 }{x_0} (\tilde{U}_j^{n+1} - \tilde{U}_j^{n+1}) \right] \]

\[ + (1+B) \frac{C_1}{\rho_f_j^n} \frac{\Delta t'}{x_0} \left[ \tilde{p}_j^{n+1} - \tilde{p}_j^{n+1} \right] \]

(120)
finally,

\[ \theta_{1}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \theta_{1}^{n+1} + \theta_{1}^{n+1} \right] \quad (121) \]

and,

\[ \theta_{j}^{n+1} = \left[ \theta_{j}^{n+1} \right] \left( \frac{1}{1+B} \right) \quad (122) \]

The heat transfer coefficient after time \( \Delta t' \), \( h_{i,j}^{n+1} \) can be calculated using equations (59) and (63). The new inner surface temperature \( T_{w,i,j}^{n+1} \) is obtained from the solution of equation (64) using the mean heat transfer coefficient,

\[ h_{m} = \frac{h_{i}^{n} + h_{i}^{n+1}}{2} \]

The same procedure is followed for Case II starting with appropriate conservation equations, namely equations (86) through (89), same equation of state (80) and boundary layer momentum equation (95). The only points of differences are: (1) no solid particles beyond \( L' \) and (2) the burning rate \( r_{b} \) is chosen corresponding to the average pressure in the space between the tube head end and \( L_{o} \).

**Solution for Boundary Points**

It has been stated earlier that to calculate the ballistic properties at the tube head end and at the piston base end, one needs the characteristic equations. Typical characteristic directions are shown in Figure 3. Let, at any time \( t' \), the piston be at position 1 with
velocity $U'_{p,1}$. Its position and velocity after time $\Delta t'$ can be calculated by using equations (18) and (19) as follows:

$$U'_{p,2} = U'_{p,1} + \frac{1}{U_o} \left( a_p \Delta t \right)$$

and

$$\Delta L' = \frac{1}{L_t} \left[ \frac{U_{p,1} \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} a_p (\Delta t)^2}{p,2} \right]$$

where,

$$a_p = \frac{P_{p,m}}{M} = \frac{P_{m}}{P_{p,m}} \quad (P_{p,m} \text{ is mean of } P_1 \text{ and } P_2)$$

Then the $\eta'$-characteristic is traced back using the appropriate expression:

for Case I: $\Delta x' = (U' + \sqrt{B_{I}^1/\rho_{m}^1}) \Delta t'$

for Case II: $\Delta x' = (U' + \sqrt{B_{II}^1/\rho_{g}^1}) \Delta t'$

The point $X$ is thus determined and all the properties are interpolated between the nodal points in each side. Pressure at point 2 is calculated by applying equation (81) for Case I, and equation (92) for Case II,

for Case I, $P_2' = P_2' - \rho_m' \sqrt{B_{I}^1/\rho_{m}^1} (U_{p,2}' - U_{X}' + C_{L}' \psi_{d}' \Delta t' - D_2'E_1^' h_{1} (T-T_{w,1}) \Delta t' + D_1'E_2^' \left[ E'U'\sqrt{B_{I}^1/\rho_{m}^1} \right] \rho_f U'^2 (Re_0)^B \Delta t' \right)$
for Case II,  
\[ P_2' = P_{X}^- = P_{g}^- + \rho' \sqrt{B_{II}^2 / \rho'} \left( U_{p,2}^- - U_{X}^- \right) \]

\[ + \frac{B_{II}' U'}{(1-v_s)(u' + B_{II}' / \rho')} \left( v_{s,2}^- - v_{s,X}^- \right) \]

\[ + \left[ C_{II}' - \sqrt{B_{II}' / \rho'} \frac{\rho_s'^{1/2}}{(1-v_s)} + \frac{B_{II}' U'}{(1-v_s)(u' + B_{II}' / \rho')} \right] \dot{v}_{d,s} ' \Delta t' \]

\[ - D_{2}' E_{h} (T_{T_{w,1}}) \Delta t' + D_{1}' \left[ E' U' - \frac{1}{(1-v_s)} \sqrt{B_{II}' / \rho'} \right] \]

\[ \frac{\rho_f U_{f,2}'}{Re_{f}^{'8}} \Delta t' \]  \hspace{1cm} (126)

The gas density and volume fraction of solids at the new base point 2 are determined from characteristic equations along a particle path as follows:

for Case I and II,

\[ \rho_{g,2}^- = \rho_{g,1}^- + G'(P_2'^{-} - P_1^-) + H_{1,II} ' \dot{v}_{d,s} ' \Delta t' \]  \hspace{1cm} (127)

for Case I,

\[ v_{s,2}^- = v_{s,1}^- + \frac{v_s (1-v_s)}{\rho_s^-} \left( \rho_{g,2}^- - \rho_{g,1}^- \right) - \frac{\rho_{m}'}{\rho_{g}^-} \dot{v}_{d,s} ' \Delta t' \]  \hspace{1cm} (128)

for Case II,

\[ v_{s,2}^- = 0 \]  \hspace{1cm} (129)

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For both points 1 and 2, the momentum thickness is zero, which implies that both friction factor and film heat transfer coefficient at point 1 and 2 are infinitely large. Therefore, the last two terms of equations (82) and (93) have been deleted while writing the equation (127). For the same reason, in equations (125) and (126) the values for $h_1(T-T_w,1)$ and $\frac{\rho U'^2}{(Re_0)^{1/2}}$ are taken corresponding to the nodal point adjacent to the first base point 1. All the coefficients used in equations (124) through (128) are mean values between point 2 and X or point 2 and 1 depending on the characteristic used. The properties at point 2 are first assumed to be the same as point 1 and then iteration is carried on until the values converge within the specified limit.

For the tube head end,

$$U'_1, = U'_2, = 0 \quad (130)$$

and the momentum thickness and heat transfer coefficient are also zero.

The $\xi'$-characteristic is traced by using,

for Case I: \[ \Delta x' = (U' - \sqrt{B'_1/P'_m}) \Delta t' \] \quad (131)

for Case II: \[ \Delta x' = (U' - \sqrt{B'_2/P'_g}) \Delta t' \]

By knowing the properties at X' and 1', properties at point 2' are obtained in the following manner:
Case I

\[ P'_{21} = P'_{X1} + \rho'_{m} \left( \frac{B_{1}'}{\rho_{m}'} \right) (O - U'_{X1}) + C'_{II} \dot{v}_{s1} \Delta t' - D'_{E} h_{1}(T-T_{w1}) \Delta t' \]

\[ + D'_{1} \left[ E'U' + \frac{B_{1}'}{\rho_{m}'} \right] \frac{\rho'_{U1}^{2}}{(Re_{g})_{8}} \Delta t' \]

\[ \rho'_{g,2'} = \rho'_{g,1'} + G' (P'_{21} - P'_{11}) + H'_{I} \dot{v}_{s1} \Delta t' \]  

(133)

\[ v'_{s,2'} = v'_{s,1'} + \left[ \frac{v'_{s} (1-v_{s})}{\rho'_{g}} \right] (\rho'_{g,2'} - \rho'_{g,1'}) - \frac{\rho'_{m}}{\rho'_{g}} \dot{v}_{d_{s}} \Delta t' \]  

(134)

Case II

\[ P'_{21} = P'_{X1} + \rho'_{g} \left( \frac{B_{1}'}{\rho'_{g}} \right) (O - U'_{X1}) + \frac{B'_{II}U'}{(1-v'_{s})(U'-\sqrt{B'_{II} / \rho'_{g}})} (v'_{s,2'} - v'_{s,1'}) \]

\[ + \left[ C'_{II} + \frac{B'_{II} / \rho'_{g}}{(1-v'_{s})} \right] \frac{\rho'_{U1}^{2}}{(1-v'_{s})(U'-\sqrt{B'_{II} / \rho'_{g}})} \dot{v}_{d_{s}} \Delta t' \]

\[ - D'_{E} h_{1}(T-T_{w1}) \Delta t' + D'_{1} \left[ E'U' + \frac{1}{(1-v'_{s})} \sqrt{B'_{II} / \rho'_{g}} \right] \frac{\rho'_{U1}^{2}}{(Re_{g})_{8}} \Delta t' \]  

(135)

and from (2.86),

\[ v'_{s,2'} = v'_{s,1'} - \dot{v}_{d_{s}} \Delta t' \]  

(136)

The expression for \( \rho'_{g,2'} \) is obtained by replacing \( H'_{I} \) by \( H'_{II} \) in equation (133).
The iteration procedure for the tube head end is the same as that for the piston base end stated earlier.

The properties at the nodal point(s) adjacent to the base point (shown by * in Figure 3), which cannot be calculated from the Lax-Wendroff method, are determined by linear interpolation between the piston base point and the nearest point where properties have been calculated from the Lax-Wendroff method.

It is noted that the spatial interval \( \Delta x' \) is fixed for the entire solution and can be chosen arbitrarily depending upon the desired accuracy. But, for the stability of the Lax-Wendroff solution, the time interval \( \Delta t' \) must be chosen such that \( \frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x'} \) nowhere exceeds the slope of any characteristic \([17]\). This implies that at every time step,

\[
\frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x'} < \frac{\Delta x'}{|U'| + \sqrt{g'_1/\rho'_m}} \quad \text{for Case I}
\]

\[
\frac{\Delta t'}{\Delta x'} < \frac{\Delta x'}{|U'| + \sqrt{g'_1/\rho'_m}} \quad \text{for Case II}
\]

Therefore, before selecting a new time interval, the right hand side of (137) is calculated at each nodal point (including the end points) and then the lowest value is chosen as the next time step.

**Determination of Wall Temperature**

The differential equation (64) in finite difference form can be written as (see Figure 4 for notations):
Figure 4. Numerical Scheme for Determination of Tube Wall Temperature.

Figure 5. Heat Balance for a Thin Circular Element at the Inside Surface of the Tube
\[
\frac{T_{w,j}^{n+1} - T_{w,j}^n}{\Delta t} = \alpha_w \left[ \frac{T_{w,j+1}^n + T_{w,j-1}^n - 2T_{w,j}^n}{\Delta r^2} + \frac{1}{r_j} \frac{T_{w,j+1}^n - T_{w,j-1}^n}{2\Delta r} \right]
\]

or,

\[
T_{w,j}^{n+1} = \left[ 1 - \frac{2\alpha_w \Delta t}{\Delta r^2} \right] T_{w,j}^n + \frac{2\alpha_w \Delta t}{\Delta r^2} \left[ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\Delta r}{4r_j} \right] T_{w,j+1}^n - \frac{2\alpha_w \Delta t}{\Delta r^2} \left[ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\Delta r}{4r_j} \right] T_{w,j-1}^n
\]

(138)

Therefore, the temperature at any interior point in the tube wall after a time interval \( \Delta t \) can be calculated from the knowledge of present temperatures at and around the point of interest. For boundary points, however, a heat balance as described below is required:

**Inner Surface:** With reference to the Figure 5:

\[
2\pi R \frac{\Delta r}{2} \rho_w c_w \frac{\partial T_{w,j}}{\partial t} = 2\pi R h_i (T_\infty - T_{w,j}) - 2\pi (R + \Delta r) \left( \frac{\partial T_{w,j}}{\partial r} \right)_{r=R+\frac{\Delta r}{2}}
\]

or,

\[
\frac{\partial T_{w,j}}{\partial t} = \frac{2h_i}{\rho_w c_w \Delta r} (T_\infty - T_{w,j}) + \frac{2\rho_w c_w}{\rho_w c_w} \frac{\partial T_{w,j}}{\partial r} \left( R + \frac{\Delta r}{2} \right)_{r=R+\frac{\Delta r}{2}}
\]
In finite difference form,

\[ T_{w,1}^{n+1} = \left[ 1 - \frac{2a_{w} \Delta t}{(\Delta r)^2} \left( \frac{h_{m} \Delta r}{\kappa_{w}} + 1 + \frac{\Delta r}{2R} \right) \right] T_{w,1}^{n} \]

\[ + \frac{2a_{w} \Delta t}{(\Delta r)^2} \left( \frac{m_{w}}{\kappa_{w}} \right) T_{w}^{n} + \frac{2a_{w} \Delta t}{(\Delta r)^2} (1 + \frac{\Delta r}{2R}) T_{w,i+1}^{n} \]  

(139)

Similarly, for the outer surface,

\[ T_{w,o}^{n+1} = \left[ 1 - \frac{2a_{w} \Delta t}{(\Delta r)^2} \left( \frac{h_{o} \Delta r}{\kappa_{w}} + 1 - \frac{\Delta r}{2R_o} \right) \right] T_{w,o}^{n} \]

\[ + \frac{2a_{w} \Delta t}{(\Delta r)^2} \left( \frac{o_{w}}{\kappa_{w}} \right) T_{amb}^{n} + \frac{2a_{w} \Delta t}{(\Delta r)^2} (1 - \frac{\Delta r}{2R_o}) T_{w,o-1}^{n} \]  

(140)

The stability conditions [18, 19] for the equations (138) through (140) are, respectively:

\[ \Delta t \leq \frac{(\Delta r)^2}{2a_{w}} \]  

(141)

\[ \Delta t \leq \frac{(\Delta r)^2}{2a_{w} \left[ \frac{h_{m} \Delta r}{m} + 1 + \frac{\Delta r}{2R} \right]} \]  

(142)

and

\[ \Delta t \leq \frac{(\Delta r)^2}{2a_{w} \left[ \frac{h_{o} \Delta r}{o} + 1 - \frac{\Delta r}{2R_o} \right]} \]  

(143)
Very small values of $\Delta r$ (0.05 millimeter) are taken, and the selected $\Delta t$ is the least of the values calculated from the right-hand side of (141), (142), and (143).

For a thick wall and initially cold tube, the temperature wave in a single shot does not generally reach the outer surface and, therefore, equation (140) can be disregarded.

**Summary of the Procedure**

Once the piston-cylinder arrangement, the initial conditions and all other input parameters are chosen, the solution proceeds according to the following steps:

1. The time interval $\Delta t'$ is determined in accordance with expression (3.40) and the burning rate is taken corresponding to the average burning pressure.

2. The new piston position and its velocity are calculated, and using the appropriate characteristic equations as indicated earlier the new ballistic properties at both the piston base end and the tube head end are determined.

3. The interior points are solved either by the Lax-Wendroff method or by linear interpolation as discussed earlier.

4. The new heat transfer coefficient is determined from the new ballistic properties and the momentum thickness at all the nodal points. The new wall temperature is also calculated using the mean heat transfer coefficient.

5. All the calculated values are stored as the present values and reused for the next time step.
Thus the solution proceeds until the piston reaches the desired position. A computer program for the entire solution procedure was written in FORTRAN V and was run to obtain all of the results presented in the following chapter. The flow chart for the program has been shown in Appendix III. The computation time is approximately four minutes for the typical cases run on the Georgia Institute of Technology's UNIVAC 1108 machine.
SECTION V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Standard Conditions

A set of realistic, but somewhat arbitrary, conditions is chosen as the input data to the computer program, and results are obtained for both cases of solid velocities. These conditions will be referred to as "standard conditions." They are:

Tube length, \( L_t \) 2 m
Tube inside diameter, \( D \) 3 cm
Piston mass, \( M_p \) 0.326 kg

Initial conditions:

Piston position, \( L_0 \) 25 cm
Chamber pressure (piston start pressure), \( P_c \) 200 atm
Gas temperature (explosion temperature), \( T_0 \) 3000\(^0\)K
Charge of propellant, \( m_s \) 0.172 kg

Propellant properties:

Density, \( \rho_s \) 1670 Kg/m\(^3\)
Initial web thickness, \( w_{s_i} \) 0.711 mm
Type: M-10, single perforated

Gas properties:

Molecular weight, \( M \) 24
Ratio of specific heats, \( \gamma \) 1.252
Covolume, \( n \) 
0.00095 \( \text{m}^3/\text{kg} \).

Specific heat at constant pressure, \( c_p \) 
0.412 \( \text{kcal/kg} - ^0\text{K} \).

Viscosity (at 3000\(^0\text{K} \)), \( \mu_{g_0} \) 
0.00007 \( \text{kg/m} - \text{sec} \).

Thermal conductivity (at 3000\(^0\text{K} \)), \( \kappa_{g_0} \) 
0.00034 \( \text{kcal/m} - \text{sec} - ^0\text{K} \).

Tube material properties:

Thermal diffusivity, \( a_w \) 
0.126 \( \text{cm}^2/\text{sec} \).

Thermal conductivity, \( \kappa_w \) 
0.0138 \( \text{kcal/m} - \text{sec} - ^0\text{K} \).

Initial tube temperature, \( T_{\text{amb}} \) 
300\(^0\text{K} \).

The initial gas density \( \rho_{g_0} \) as calculated from equ. \( \ldots \) (2.15) is 19.14 \( \text{kg/m}^3 \) and the potential of the propellant is:

\[
W = \frac{RT_0}{(\gamma-1)} = 985.66 \text{ kcal/kg}
\]

The burning rate versus pressure data for the propellant has been taken from reference [20] and is presented in Table I. Linear interpolation is used to determine the burning rate at the desired pressure. To ensure the convergence of the solution, a single iteration on the burning rate is performed in each time step as shown in the flow diagram in Appendix III.

For Case I, the solid particles are initially assumed to be evenly distributed in the chamber. But, in Case II, a specific initial distribution, namely a constant value up to the second nodal point from the piston and then linearly to zero at the piston base, is chosen to avoid the discontinuity at \( x \) equal to \( L_0 \). This has been shown in Figure 6.
<table>
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<th>Pressure $X 10^{-5}$ Newton/m$^2$</th>
<th>Burning rate, $r_b$ m/sec</th>
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<td>20.68</td>
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<td>13785.71</td>
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</table>
Figure 6. Assumed Initial Distribution of Solid Particles in Case II
The general power-law velocity profile, i.e. \( \frac{u}{U_\infty} = \left( \frac{x}{y_c} \right)^n \) yields the following relationships [21]:

\[
\frac{c}{\delta^*} = n+1 \quad ; \quad \frac{\delta}{\delta^*} = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{n}
\]

and shape factor, \( H = \frac{n+2}{n} \).

The one-seventh profile has been used quite extensively in the past to compute the turbulent boundary layers with favorable pressure gradients [22, 23]. The same profile is assumed under the "standard conditions" and the corresponding value for the shape factor, i.e. 1.2857, is taken for the boundary layer computation.

The viscosity of the combustion gas is assumed to be proportional to the square root of the absolute temperature which implies that the value of \( m \) in (119) is 0.5. The same relation is assumed between the gas conductivity and its absolute temperature. These yield a constant value of 0.8482 for the Prandtl number of the gas.

One-Dimensional Solution

Case I. The results of the one-dimensional analysis have been presented in Figures 7 through 14. Comparison with the solution neglecting the heat transfer and skin friction shows insignificant effect of these phenomena on the ballistic properties of the piston-cylinder arrangement. But the following observations can be made from these results:

1) The Lagrange approximation of linear velocity distribution and constant gas density is not a good approximation of the real situation. It can be noted from Figure 10 that a considerable amount of time
Figure 7. Piston Path for Case I.
Figure 8. Variation of End Pressures, Piston Velocity and Mass Fraction of Solids with Time (Case I)
Figure 10. Spacewise Distribution of Velocity at Various Times (Case I)
Figure 11. Spacewise Distribution of Pressure at Various Times (Case I)
Figure 12. Spacewise Distribution of Gas Temperature at Various Times (Case I)
Figure 13. Spacewise Distribution of Gas Density at Various Times (Case I)
Figure 14. Spacewise Distribution of Volume Fraction of Solids at Various Times (Case I)
(approximately one-third of the total time) is elapsed before the velocity distribution along the length of the tube becomes linear.

The gas density, on the other hand, has always a drooping characteristic from the breech end to the piston base end (Figure 9 and 13). The same characteristic is observed for the volume fraction of solids, \( v_s \) (Figure 14).

(2) The gas pressure varies considerably along the length of the tube, and at the peak pressure, the difference between the pressures at the two ends is as high as 20 per cent of the breech pressure (Figure 8 and 11). The heat transfer to the tube wall reduces the pressure at all points, whereas the skin friction reduces the piston base pressure as the piston reaches the end of the tube. These two effects together reduce the final piston velocity to some extent.

(3) The gas temperatures at the breech and the piston base are of the same value all the time except for a short period in the beginning (Figure 9). There is, however, a sag in between the two end points due to the heat loss to the tube wall (Figure 12).

Case II. Similar results for Case II have been presented in Figures 15 through 21. A comparison with Case I reveals that the final values of piston velocity and total time of travel do not differ much from those in Case I. But the peak breech pressure can be 10 to 15 per cent higher than the corresponding pressure in Case I. This causes the propellant to burn faster. The piston base pressure, however, remains very close to the corresponding pressure in Case I except for a short period towards the end. This accounts for the slight variation in the final piston velocity between the two cases.
Figure 15. Comparison of Piston Paths in Case I and Case II
Figure 16. Comparison of End Pressures, Piston Velocities and Mass Fractions of Solids in Case I and Case II
Figure 17. Spacewise Distribution of Gas Velocity at Various Times (Case II)
Figure 18. Spacewise Distribution of Pressure at Various Times (Case II)
Figure 19. Spacewise Distribution of Gas Temperature at Various Times (Case II)
Figure 20. Spacewise Distribution of Gas Density at Various Times (Case II)
Figure 21. Spacewise Distribution of Volume Fraction of Solids at Various Times (Case II)
A couple of interesting phenomena are observed in this case of stationary solids:

(1) Just after the propellant is completely burnt, the breech pressure falls rapidly and finally becomes less than the piston base pressure. The same phenomenon was also observed by Carriere [5]. This happens because all the solid particles are assumed to stay near the breech end all the time, whereas there are no solids at the piston base. Therefore, when the solids are completely burnt, no sudden change in the pressure slope occurs at the piston base as it is observed at the breech.

(2) Due to the rapid change in the volume fraction of solids $v_s$ near $x$ equal to $L_0$, a pressure difference sufficient to produce a local gas velocity higher than the piston velocity is created (Figure 17). The gas having higher velocity slams at the back of the piston and thus increases the temperature (Figure 19). This large temperature rise is confined within a thin layer at the piston base and does not affect the rest of the gas. The oscillations observed in Figures 19 and 20 are not due to the numerical instability, but are most probably due to the sudden area change near $x$ equal to $L_0$.

**Boundary Layer and Heat Transfer Solution**

The results showing the boundary layer thickness, heat transfer coefficient, and the wall temperature for moving solids (i.e., Case I) are presented in Figures 22 through 27. As the time increases, the boundary layer thickness increases to a maximum value of approximately 20 percent of the tube radius when the piston reaches the end of the tube. This implies that the maximum value of the displacement thickness
Figure 22. Boundary Layer Growth with Time (Case I)
Figure 23. Spacewise Distribution of Heat Transfer Coefficient at Various Times (Case I)
Figure 24. Spacewise Distribution of Wall Surface Temperature at Various Times (Case 1)
Figure 25. Variation of Wall Temperature at a Particular Position with Depth at Various Times (Case I)
Figure 26. Variation of Heat Transfer Coefficients at Certain Fixed Locations with Time (Case I)
is less than three percent of the tube radius and, therefore, the assumption of a thin boundary layer is valid.

The order of magnitude of the heat transfer coefficient is extremely high due to high gas density and velocity (Figures 23 and 26). The surface temperature of the tube wall reaches as high as 1100°K, and it occurs at the initial piston position (Figures 24 and 27). The total time is so short that in spite of a very steep radial temperature gradient and high thermal diffusivity of the tube material, the temperature \( T \) surface cannot penetrate more than one millimeter into the tube wall (Figure 25). This justifies the exclusion of equation (140) from the computer program.

The heat flux, \( h_i(T-T_w) \) at certain fixed positions along the length of the tube are shown in Figure 28. Although the maximum value of heat flux could be as high as 350,000 kcal/m\(^2\)-sec, these types of fantastically high values last only for one or two microseconds. The average value of heat flux would be around 50,000 kcal/m\(^2\)-sec.

The same type of results was also obtained for Case II, and the total heat losses for both the cases are compared in Figure 29. It shows that the heat loss in Case II is about ten percent higher than that in Case I. This is mainly due to the higher gas velocity in the initial period of Case II. After this initial period, the heat transfer coefficients in the two cases are quite close.

The important results of both the cases are tabulated in Table II. A mass and energy balance detailed in Table III shows that the computational error is less than 0.5 per cent. The ballistic efficiency (i.e., the ratio of final kinetic energy of the piston and the propellant energy)
Figure 28. Variation of Heat Fluxes at Various Fixed Locations with Time (Case I)
Figure 29. Comparison of Total Heat Losses to the Tube Wall in Case I and Case II
TABLE II. COMPARISON OF RESULTS FOR TWO LIMITING CASES OF SOLIDS VELOCITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Case I (solids moving)</th>
<th>Case II (solids stationary)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time of travel (second)</td>
<td>0.002465</td>
<td>0.002448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final piston velocity (m/sec)</td>
<td>1242.3</td>
<td>1271.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak breech pressure (atmosphere)</td>
<td>6450</td>
<td>7200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak surface temperature (°K)</td>
<td>1067</td>
<td>1270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ballistic efficiency (%)</td>
<td>35.47</td>
<td>37.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total heat loss (kcal)</td>
<td>8.64</td>
<td>9.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat loss in percentage of input energy (%)</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>5.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE III. MASS AND ENERGY BALANCE FOR CASE I and CASE II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Case I</th>
<th>Case II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Initial Conditions:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propellant charge</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td>0.172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(kg)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propellant energy</td>
<td>169.53</td>
<td>169.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(kcal)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Final Conditions:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total gas mass (kg)</td>
<td>0.1716</td>
<td>0.1713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas internal energy</td>
<td>90.10</td>
<td>87.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(kcal)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas kinetic energy</td>
<td>9.90</td>
<td>8.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(kcal)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piston kinetic energy</td>
<td>60.13</td>
<td>62.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(kcal)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat loss (kcal)</td>
<td>8.64</td>
<td>9.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total energy (kcal)</td>
<td>168.77</td>
<td>168.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Error in Mass Balance (%)</strong></td>
<td>-0.233</td>
<td>-0.407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Error in Energy Balance (%)</strong></td>
<td>-0.450</td>
<td>-0.460</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

99
has also been presented. The total heat loss to the tube wall is found to be five to six percent of the input energy and about 15 percent of the final piston kinetic energy.

Parameter Variation

Because of the large number of independent design parameters, no general correlation is attempted here. Only a few important parameters are varied for Case I to study their effect on the ballistic as well as heat transfer solution, and the important results are presented in Table IV.

Initial Chamber Pressure, $P_o$

The selection of initial chamber pressure, i.e., piston start pressure is quite arbitrary as it is very difficult in practice to determine the exact pressure at which the piston starts to move. Therefore, two different initial chamber pressures (100 atm and 300 atm) other than the standard 200 atm are considered, and the solution neglecting the heat transfer and skin friction is presented in Figure 30. The peak breech pressure and the final piston velocity are very much the same for all the three cases of different piston start pressures. Only the time of travel is prolonged as the initial pressure decreases. It is obvious that the heat transfer solution would be very close for all the three initial pressures because of close ballistic properties. This implies that the piston start pressure has insignificant effect on the overall performance of the device.
Figure 30. Variation of Breech Pressure and Piston Velocity with Time for Various Piston Start Pressures (Case I)
Profile Shape Factor, $H$

In this effort the profile shape factor, $H$, is assumed to be a constant throughout the entire solution; however, this may not be true in the real situation. For non-uniform steady flow, a favorable pressure gradient lowers the value of $H$ [24] whereas in uniform steady flow an increase in flow Mach number increases $H$ [13]. In the present case, however, it is difficult to predict its probable variation. Therefore, two different values of shape factor (1.4 and 1.2222), corresponding to the one-fifth and the one-ninth velocity profile, are taken and the results are compared with those for $H$ equal to 1.2857. It is clear from Figure 31 that lower values of $H$ cause higher values of boundary layer thickness and heat transfer coefficient, i.e. the viscous effect of the fluid is higher. Because of this, the total heat loss to the tube wall and the peak inner surface temperature go up as the shape factor decreases. However, at $H$ equal to 1.2222, these values do not exceed the corresponding values for the standard conditions by more than ten percent. The total heat losses to the tube wall for the three different values of shape factor are compared in Figure 32.

Tube Inside Diameter, $D$

The tube inside diameter is varied keeping the loading density $(m_{s_i}/V_o)$, and the piston mass per unit area $(M_p/A_p)$ constant. Two tube diameters (2cm and 4cm) are selected with appropriate propellant charge $m_{s_i}$ and piston mass $M_p$. The results are shown in Figure 33. It can be noted from Table IV that, although an increase in tube diameter means an increase in the total heat loss, the heat loss per unit input energy decreases with larger tube diameter. This is due to decrease in

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Figure 31. Comparison of Boundary Layer Thickness and Heat Transfer Coefficient for Various Profile Shape Factors at 0.002337 sec (Case I)
Figure 32. Comparison of Total Heat Loss to the Tube Wall for Various Profile Shape Factors (Case I)
Figure 33. Comparison of Breech Pressure, Piston Velocity, and Total Heat Loss to the Tube Wall for Various Tube Diameters with Same Loading Density and Same Piston Mass per Unit Area (Case I)
the surface to volume ratio. In other words, for ballistically similar devices, the increase in tube diameter reduces the heat loss per unit mass of gas and this accounts for the slightly better ballistic results obtained for the 4-cm-diameter tube.

Propellant Charge, \( m_{sp} \)

Two different values of the propellant charge (0.15 kg and 0.19 kg) are chosen apart from the standard value of 0.172 kg, and the results are presented in Figure 34. It is obvious that an increase in propellant charge improves the ballistic efficiency of the device. At the same time this increases the peak pressure, heat transfer coefficient, and the peak surface temperature which put a limit on the propellant charge.

Piston Mass, \( M_p \)

Piston mass plays an important role in the problem of internal ballistics. Therefore, besides the standard mass of 0.326 kg, two other pistons having masses equal to 0.2 kg and 0.5 kg are considered. The results are shown in Figure 35. The heavier the piston, the slower it moves, thereby leaving less room for the combustion gas to expand which causes an increase in the peak pressure. Although the heavier piston moves slower, the ballistic efficiency of the device is improved and therefore suitable for the application where energy conversion is of prime interest. If higher velocity is desired, a lighter piston would be chosen. The surface temperature is also lower in the case of a lighter piston due to lower pressures which lead to lower heat transfer coefficients.
Figure 34. Comparison of Breech Pressure, Piston Velocity and Total Heat Loss to the Tube Wall for Various Propellant Charges (Case 1)
Figure 35. Comparison of Breech Pressure, Piston Velocity and Total Heat Loss to the Tube Wall for Various Piston Masses (Case I)
Web Thickness, $w$

Although the web thickness is only a geometrical property of the solid particles, it is important because it determines the total burning surface for a given propellant charge. For thinner webs more surface is available for burning and consequently the pressure rise is more rapid. This aspect is clear from Figure 36 where results of three different web thicknesses (0.5 mm, 0.711 mm (standard), and 0.9 mm) are presented. A rapid pressure rise naturally accelerates the piston faster and thus improves the ballistic efficiency. This gain is neutralized by a much higher peak pressure and wall surface temperature.

Comparison with Other Work

No analytical work in the past considered the movement of the solid particles in the one-dimensional ballistic solution. Although Carriere [5] studied the problem of internal ballistics assuming the solids to be stationary, it was not possible to determine the input data and final results from his publication. Therefore, a quantitative comparison could not be made. However, an excellent qualitative agreement is observed between his results showing the piston path, piston velocity and end pressures, and the results obtained from the present analysis for the case of stationary solids. Unfortunately, no work presently exists that the spacewise distribution of the ballistic properties; therefore, no comparison can be made.

The boundary layer and heat transfer analysis of Hicks and Thornhill [2] assumed the Lagrange approximation and omitted the zero boundary layer thickness condition at the piston base. The values of
Figure 36. Comparison of Breech Pressure, Piston Velocity and Total Heat Loss to the Tube Wall for Various Web Thicknesses (Case I)
### TABLE IV. RESULTS FOR VARIOUS INPUT PARAMETERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>m&lt;sub&gt;SI&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
<th>M&lt;sub&gt;p&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
<th>w&lt;sub&gt;SI&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of travel (millisecond)</td>
<td>2.467</td>
<td>2.462</td>
<td>2.484</td>
<td>2.456</td>
<td>2.340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak breech pressure (atmosphere)</td>
<td>6440</td>
<td>6460</td>
<td>6400</td>
<td>6500</td>
<td>4470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak surface temperature (°K)</td>
<td>1114</td>
<td>991</td>
<td>1059</td>
<td>1071</td>
<td>985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ballistic efficiency (%)</td>
<td>35.37</td>
<td>35.63</td>
<td>34.52</td>
<td>35.94</td>
<td>32.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total heat loss (kcal)</td>
<td>9.09</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>11.60</td>
<td>8.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat loss in percentage of input energy (%)</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>7.58</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>5.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
heat transfer coefficient for a typical case (input data not indicated), as presented in reference 2, are lower than the values obtained for the typical case in the present study, by a factor of approximately two. The reason could be due to entirely different input data and different boundary layer thickness condition at the piston base. However, the value of peak surface temperature and the location when it occurs are in good agreement with the study of Hicks and Thornhill.

A very recent analysis on convective heat transfer in gun barrels [25], which is also based on the Lagrange approximation, indicates that the heat flux at the inside surface of the barrel can be as high as $2.7 \times 10^5 \text{kcal/m}^2\text{-sec}$. This value is quite close to the expected maxima shown in Figure 28 for the typical case.
In order to compare results with experimental temperature data gathered at Eglin Air Force Base, Florida, conditions other than the Standard conditions were run with the following input conditions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tube length, $L_t$</td>
<td>2m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tube inside diameter, $D$</td>
<td>3 cm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piston Mass, $M_p$</td>
<td>0.326 kg</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Initial conditions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Piston position, $L_o$</td>
<td>25 cm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chamber pressure (Piston start pressure), $P_o$</td>
<td>200 atm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas temperature (explosion temperature), $T_o$</td>
<td>3000°K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change of propellant, $m_{si}$</td>
<td>0.140 kg</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Propellant properties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Density, $\rho_s$</td>
<td>1670 kg/m$^3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial web thickness, $w_{si}$</td>
<td>0.7366 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>M-10, single perforated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gas Properties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Molecular weight, $M$</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of specific heats, $\gamma$</td>
<td>1,252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-volume, $\eta$</td>
<td>0.00095 m$^3$/kg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific heat at constant pressure, $c_p$</td>
<td>0.412 kcal/kg°K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viscosity (at 3000°K), $\mu_{go}$</td>
<td>0.00007 kg/m/sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermal conductivity (at 3000°K), $\kappa_{go}$</td>
<td>0.000034 kcal/m/sec°K</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Tube material properties:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Thermal diffusivity, } a_v &= 0.062 \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec} \\
\text{Thermal conductivity, } \kappa_v &= 0.0138 \text{ kcal/m} \cdot \text{sec} \cdot \text{deg} \cdot \text{K} \\
\text{Initial tube temperature, } T_{\text{amb}} &= 300^\circ \text{K}
\end{align*}
\]

The burning rate was again taken from Table I, and only Case I was taken, i.e., the solids move with the gas.

The results of this calculation are shown in Figures 37 through 43, and agree extremely well with experimental data for the peak wall temperature taken by Eglin Air Force Base. The calculated maximum wall temperature shown in Figure 43 is \(1020^\circ\text{K}\) at \(x = 25\) cm. The experimental maximum measured at Eglin was approximately \(1000^\circ\text{K}\). No measured parameters such as chamber pressures were input to the program to calculate this wall temperature. The only necessary input conditions are propellant, gun, and loading parameters listed at the beginning of this section. These Eglin conditions are obviously more realistic than the original standard conditions due to the smaller propellant loading (140 grams instead of 172 grams). The peak head and chamber pressure is approximately 58,000 psi, as seen from Figure 38.

This excellent agreement verifies the accuracy of the detailed ballistic and heat transfer model developed here and used without the aid of experimental ballistic data.
Figure 37. Piston Position Versus Time (Case I, Sliding Conditions)
Figure 40. Gas Temperature Versus Axial Location at Various Times (Case I, Eglin Conditions)
Figure 41. Tube Inside Wall Temperature Versus Axial Distance at Various Times (Case 1, Eglin Conditions)
Figure 42. Tube Temperatures Versus Radial Distance at Certain Fixed Times (Case I, Eglin Conditions)
Figure 43. Tube Inside Wall Temperature Versus Time at Several Locations (Case I, Eglin Conditions)
SECTION VI

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn in the context of the results presented in Part I.

1. The Lagrange approximation of linear velocity distribution and uniform gas density along the length of the tube is not a good representation of the real case. It takes a considerable amount of total time before the velocity distribution can be linear. Furthermore, the gas density cannot be called uniform at any time.

2. There is a large pressure gradient along the length of the tube and at the peak condition the difference between the pressures at the two ends can be as high as 20 to 30 percent of the maximum pressure.

3. As the piston moves, the gas temperature continuously decreases with almost a uniform spacewise distribution. For the case of stationary solids, however, a steep spacewise temperature rise is observed at the back of the piston.

4. While the final ballistic results are essentially the same for the two extreme cases of solids velocity, the peak pressure in the case of stationary solids is about 10 to 15 percent higher than in the case of moving solids.

5. The maximum boundary layer thickness can be on the order of 20 percent of the tube radius in typical cases. For ballistically similar devices the ratio of the maximum boundary layer thickness to the tube radius increases as the tube diameter is reduced. Therefore,
the assumption of a thin boundary layer may not hold good for very small diameter tubes.

6. The order of magnitude of the heat transfer coefficient and the heat flux at the inner surface of the tube is extremely high. Average values of 50 kcal/m²·sec⁻⁰·₉ and 50,000 kcal/m²·sec for the heat transfer coefficient and the heat flux, respectively, can be expected for typical cases. The maximum values can be five to six times higher than the average values but the maxima do not last for more than a few microseconds.

7. The tube inner surface temperature can reach 1000°K for typical cases, and it occurs near the initial piston position. The time of travel is so short that, even with the extremely high values of heat fluxes and high thermal properties of tube material, the temperature wave cannot penetrate more than one millimeter into the tube wall.

8. The total heat loss to the tube wall is five to six percent of the input energy for typical cases and has only a minor effect on the final ballistic results. The same conclusion is valid for the skin friction.

9. The piston start pressure, although difficult to determine in practice, does not pose any real problem due to its insignificant effect on the ballistic solution.

10. Improvement in ballistic efficiency can be brought about by increasing the propellant charge and the piston mass or by reducing the wall thickness. In each of these cases, there exists an adverse effect of higher peak pressure and higher wall temperature. Therefore,
great care should be taken to obtain the optimum design conditions.

11. The heat transfer model is verified by the limited wall temperature data available at this time. This agreement is gained without the use of experimentally measured interior ballistic data such as chamber pressure versus time, as used in other analyses [25].
PART II - PARTICLE SEEDING EFFECTS ON GUN BARREL
HEAT TRANSFER AND EROSION
SECTION VII
INTRODUCTION

The seeding of gun propellants with additives, such as TiO$_2$ in a wax matrix, appears to be an effective method of reducing gun barrel erosion [26, 27, 28, 29, 30]. The mechanism by which this is accomplished has not, however, been satisfactorily explained. This makes it impossible to optimize the effect or properly predict it without expensive and time consuming trial-and-error experiments.

Since gun barrel erosion has been shown to be primarily tube temperature [31] and thereby heat transfer, sensitive, the quantitative heat transfer model developed in the previous section will be used to test various possible mechanisms by which additives might reduce the temperature of the gun tube.

The fact that the reduced erosion is primarily a temperature phenomena rather than a chemical phenomena is substantiated not only by reference 31 but also by reference 29 which shows an increase in CO due to a wax additive. Reference 31 shows the CO increase should increase rather than reduce chemical erosion. The fact that erosion is actually reduced by the TiO$_2$ - wax additive causes one to search for a reduced heat transfer mechanism created by the additive.

This is carried out by looking at (1) temperatures reached under repetitive fire conditions, (2) experimental results from dusty gas heat transfer experiments usually related to gas-cooled nuclear reactors, and (3) insulation effects of particles imbedded in valleys of the barrel surface roughness.
SECTION VIII
REPETITIVE FIRE ANALYSIS

Introduction

Since rapid fire aircraft cannons are of primary interest in this effort, the wall temperatures predicted in the foregoing single-shot analysis are not directly applicable. Since this wall temperature is the parameter of most interest, a repetitive fire analysis is carried out here to determine what peak temperatures actually occur in aircraft cannons. This allows one to determine if the temperatures are sufficiently high to cause melting of a thin layer of metal on the inside of the barrel.

Model

In carrying out a repetitive fire analysis, one is immediately confronted with the gun emptying problem, i.e., calculating the gas flow properties and gas to metal heat transfer rates after the projectile leaves the tube but before the next projectile is fired. The previous single-shot analysis is not applicable because it assumes a solid projectile base closes the tube at all times.

Rather than attempt to solve this complex problem, it was decided to carry out the calculations using an upper and lower limit on the heat transfer during this emptying or soaking period. Since the total heat transfer during this time was expected to be small, it was hoped that these two limits would put a rather small bracket on the actual results.
An upper limit is obviously taken if one assumes that the gas temperature and heat transfer coefficient remain at their values which existed at the time the projectile left the tube. After the projectile leaves, the gas temperature will be reduced, the gas pressure will be reduced, and the gas velocity will decay to zero. Each of these factors will tend to reduce the heat transfer to the barrel below this assumed upper limit.

A lower limit is certainly given by assuming that the inside of the barrel is suddenly insulated from the gases at the instant the projectile leaves the barrel. This assumes that no heat is transferred from the hot gases to the barrel during the soak period between shots.

The gas temperature and heat transfer coefficient as a function of axial distance and time were taken from the single shot analysis and repetitively applied during each and every shot while the projectile was moving down the barrel. The conduction analysis was started at the time of the initial shot and successively calculated each \( \Delta t \) during the firing period and the soaking period. Since the metal temperature, \( T_w \), at any \( t + \Delta t \) depends on the metal temperature profile \( T_w(r) \) at \( t \), this conduction calculation must be carried on continuously with the repetitive heat transfer coefficient, \( h_i(t) \), and gas temperature, \( T_\infty(t) \), being repeated for each firing cycle, as detailed in Chapter IV, except that the wall temperatures are not reset to \( T_{\text{amb}} \) at the beginning of each firing.

One should note that this model does not assume that the total heat transferred during each cycle is the same from one cycle to the next because the wall temperature, \( T_{w,i} \), is increasing from cycle to cycle, thereby reducing \( (T_\infty - T_{w,i}) \) and the heat transfer.
Conduction Series Solution During Soaking

For short cyclic firing times (i.e., 0.010 second or less) the conduction solution during soaking was carried out by the finite difference technique detailed in Chapter IV. However, at larger cyclic firing times (i.e., up to 0.060 second), the number of time steps required during the soak period was so large that the computer computation time was excessive. Therefore, a closed form series solution was developed and used during the time period from the instant the projectile left the barrel to the time the next shot was initiated. This series solution was made possible during soaking due to the constant heat transfer coefficient, \( h_i \), with respect to time. This parameter is not constant with time during the firing itself.

Taking the conduction equation and applying it at some specific axial location during the nth soaking period:

\[
\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \tau^2} - \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{\rho c} \left[ \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \right] = 0
\]

and separating variables, one finds that the solution may be expressed as

\[
T_w - T_{amb} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left[ A_m J_0 (\lambda m r) + B_m Y_0 (\lambda m r) \right] e^{-\lambda m \alpha t}
\]

where \( J_0 \) and \( Y_0 \) are zero order Bessel functions of the 1st and 2nd kind, respectively, and \( A_m \) and \( B_m \) must be found from the boundary and initial conditions which, for the lower limit case of zero heat transfer during soaking, are:

\[
\frac{\partial T_w}{\partial r} = 0 \text{ at } r = r_i
\]
where \( t_n \) is the time when the nth projectile leaves the tube and the nth soak period begins and \( f(r) \) is the temperature distribution with respect to \( r \) existing at that time.

Applying these boundary conditions to (146), one finds:

\[
T_w - T_{\text{amb}} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} C_m \frac{\lambda_m J_1 (\lambda_m r)}{\lambda_m w J_1 (\lambda_m r_o) - h_o J_0 (\lambda_m r_o)}
\]

\[
= \frac{\lambda_m Y_1 (\lambda_m r)}{\lambda_m w Y_1 (\lambda_m r_o) - h_o Y_0 (\lambda_m r_o)} \frac{2}{\lambda_m Y_1 (\lambda_m r_o) - h_o Y_0 (\lambda_m r_o)} e^{-\lambda_m \alpha_w t}
\]

where \( U, \) and \( Y, \) are first order Bessel functions of the 1st and 2nd kind, respectively, \( \lambda_m \) is the \( m \)th root of the equation:

\[
\frac{\lambda_m J_1 (\lambda_m r)}{\lambda_m w J_1 (\lambda_m r_o) - h_o J_0 (\lambda_m r_o)} - \frac{\lambda_m Y_1 (\lambda_m r)}{\lambda_m w Y_1 (\lambda_m r_o) - h_o Y_0 (\lambda_m r_o)} = 0
\]

and \( C_m \) is calculated by use of the function in equation (149):

\[
C_m = \frac{1}{N_m} \int_{r_i}^{r_o} \frac{r R_o (\lambda_m, r) f(r) \, dr}{R_o (\lambda_m, r)}
\]

where:

\[
R_o (\lambda_m, r) = \frac{J_0 (\lambda_m r)}{\lambda_m w J_0 (\lambda_m r_o) + h_o J_0 (\lambda_m r_o)} + \frac{Y_0 (\lambda_m r)}{\lambda_m w Y_0 (\lambda_m r_o) + h_o J_0 (\lambda_m r_o)}
\]

\[
N_m = \int_{r_i}^{r_o} \frac{r R_o^2 (\lambda_m, r) \, dr}{r_i}
\]
Using an \( r_i \) of 3 cm and an \( r_o \) of 6 cm the first five roots of equation (151) are:

\[
\begin{align*}
\lambda_1 & = 3.1965 \\
\lambda_1 & = 6.3275 \\
\lambda_1 & = 9.4522 \\
\lambda_1 & = 12.5844 \\
\lambda_1 & = 15.7230
\end{align*}
\]

and only five terms were retained in the series. Accuracy was checked by comparing the results from the series solution containing five and ten terms with the finite difference solution results. This comparison showed that five terms yielded sufficient accuracy.

**Results**

Results of the repetitive fire calculations were carried out for two firing rates: 0.010 second between firings and 0.060 second between firings. Since the projectile is in the tube for less than 0.003 second, the soaking times are about 0.007 and 0.057 second for the two firing rates, respectively.

The results for three axial locations are shown in Figures 44 through 46 for the 0.010 second firing time with the heat transfer coefficient \( h_i \) during soaking at its upper limit which is equal to its value at the time the projectile leaves the tube, denoted by \( h_{i,\text{last}} \). These are for ten repetitive firings.
Figure 44. Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature Versus Time at Axial Location of 25 cm (Upper Limit)
Figure 45. Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature Versus Time at Axial Location of 12 cm (Upper Limit)
Figure 46. Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature Versus Time at Axial Location of 83 cm. (Upper Limit)
Figures 47 through 49 show the same results assuming zero convective heat transfer during soaking, i.e., \( h_z \) equal zero which is the lower limit. These sets of curves then bracket the upper and lower limits for the inside wall temperature. At an axial location of 25 cm, which sees the highest temperature (Figure 24), the upper limit case after ten firings show a maximum temperature of about 1600\(^\circ\)K compared with the lower limit case of about 1500\(^\circ\)K. This is a small bracket (8 percent) and shows that assumption concerning the heat transfer during the soaking period has little effect on the maximum wall temperature of interest. Therefore, at a given axial position, subsequent calculations assumed zero heat transfer from the combustion gas to the tube walls from the time projectile \( n \) leaves the tube to the time projectile \( n+1 \) passes that axial position.

Results using this lower limit assumption for the lower cyclic firing time of 0.060 second/round are shown in Figures 50 through 55 for 50 repetitive firings at the same three axial positions as shown for the previous case in Figures 44 through 49.

Figure 50 shows the wall temperature as a function of time at the high temperature axial position of 25 cm. Figure 51 shows the temperature profile inside the tube wall at this same axial position at four different times. These same type of curves are repeated at the two other axial positions of 12 and 84 cm in Figures 52-53 and Figures 54-55, respectively.

With the longer soaking periods between firings, the maximum temperature after 50 cycles is about 1400\(^\circ\)K. It is seen from the wall temperature versus time graphs that the peak temperature during each cycle rises very slowly after the initial 10 rounds. Also, it is seen from the radial temperature distribution inside the tube wall that the outside tube temperature has not risen significantly after the 50 rounds.
Figure 47. Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature Versus Time at Axial Location of 25 cm (Lower Limit)
Figure 48. Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature Versus Time at Axial Position of 12 cm (Lower Limit)
Figure 49. Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature Versus Time at Axial Location of 83 cm (Lower Limit)
Figure 50. Repetitive Fire Wall Temp of 25 cm (0.060 second f
Figure 50. Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature Versus Time at Axial Position of 25 cm (0.060 second firing)

(The reverse of this page is blank.)
Figure 51. Variation of Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature with Depth at Axial Position of 25 cm at Various Times

(The reverse of this page is blank)
Figure 52. Repetitive Filling of 12 cm (0.0

(The re
Figure 52. Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature Versus Time at Axial Position of 12 cm (0.060 second firing)

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(The reverse of this page is blank.)
Figure 53. Variation of Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature with Depth at Axial Position of 12 cm at Various Times

(The reverse of this page is blank.)
Figure 54. Repetitive Fire With a Reversal of 84 cm (0.060 s).
Figure 54. Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature Versus Time at Axial Position of 84 cm (0.060 second firing)

(The reverse of this page is blank.)
Figure 55. Variation of Repetitive Fire Wall Temperature with Depth at Axial Position of 84 cm at Various Times
Of course, with soaking time between series of 50-round bursts the outside wall temperature would rise and result in higher inside wall temperatures as well.
SECTION IX

PARTICLE SEEDING EFFECT ON TURBULENT BOUNDARY LAYER HEAT TRANSFER

Introduction

The section will be devoted to a discussion of the physical phenomena whereby certain additives (e.g., small titanium dioxide particles in a wax matrix dramatically reduce erosion in gun barrels. The limited open literature documents the effectiveness of several additives; however, no consistent physical explanation is offered, and no satisfactory mathematical model has been proposed.

Since hot gas erosion rates appear to be strongly dependent on temperature level, an effort has been made to relate erosion reduction to a reduction of the barrel inner surface temperatures. Some mechanism must be presented which attenuates the heat transfer from combustion products to the gun barrel. Three distinct possibilities have been considered:

1. The additive significantly alters combustion gas properties so as to reduce combustion gas temperatures and/or heat transfer coefficients.

2. The additive particles reduce the turbulence level near the wall, thereby reducing the heat transfer coefficient.

3. The particles and/or wax matrix deposit on the wall, forming a protective coating which insulates the metal from the hot gas.
Effects of Additive on Combustion Products

The work by Lenchitz et al [29] indicates that TiO$_2$ is not involved in the combustion process, as the heat of reaction remains essentially the same when relatively large amounts of the micronized additive are included with the propellant. On the other hand, the addition of about 10 percent by weight of wax decreased the heat of reaction by about 10 percent. This is apparently due to a combination of reaction of wax with the explosion products and prevention of complete combustion of the propellant. Less reduction in heat of reaction is observed when TiO$_2$ is added to the wax, suggesting that the TiO$_2$ inhibits the interaction between the wax and combustion products of the propellant. There seems to be a trade-off between heat of reaction and quantity of gas such that the pressure is unaffected by the additives; hence, the interior ballistic properties are observed to be nearly the same.

From the heat transfer standpoint, the effects of interest are a probable lowering of the adiabatic flame temperature and a change in composition of the combustion gases. In addition, the gas temperature could be reduced due to sensible heating of the TiO$_2$ particles and wax [34].

The magnitude of this cooling due to the inert particles having to be heated to the flame temperature can be approximated by an energy balance on the gas-particle mixture. Since the heat transfer to the particles is equal to the heat transfer from the gas:

\[ Q_{part} = -Q_{gas} \] (155)

Using:

\[ Q_{part} = C_p \text{gas} M_{gas} \Delta T_{part} \] (156)
\[ Q_{\text{gas}} = c_{\text{p, gas}} M_{\text{gas}} \Delta T_{\text{gas}} \]  

in Equation (155)

\[ \Delta T_{\text{gas}} = c_{\text{p, part}} + M_{\text{part}} \Delta T_{\text{part}} / c_{\text{p, part}} M_{\text{gas}} \]  

Since the combustion gas temperatures are around 2000\(^\circ\)K and the particles start out at ambient temperature, \(\Delta T_{\text{part}}\) is about 1700\(^\circ\)K. Using \(c_{\text{p, gas}}\) of 0.412 k cal/kg\(-\circ\)K, \(c_{\text{p, part}}\) of 0.23 k cal/kg\(-\circ\)K, and \(M_{\text{part}}/M_{\text{gas}}\) of 0.05:

\[ \Delta T_{\text{gas}} = -28\,^\circ\text{K} \]

This is obviously much too small of a gas temperature drop to result in a significant tube wall temperature reduction.

**Effects of Particle Seeding on Turbulent Heat Transfer**

There has been considerable interest in recent years in the fluid mechanical and heat transfer characteristics of suspensions, both liquid-solid and gas-solid. Gas-solid flows, for example, have been extensively studied during the past 15 years in connection with pneumatic conveying of solids, coolants for gas-cooled nuclear reactors, etc.

**Liquid-Solid Suspensions**

The technology of drag reduction phenomena dates back to 1945 when it was discovered that under turbulent flow conditions, gasoline-aluminum soap gels exhibited much less hydraulic resistance than untreated gasoline [35]. Since then, hierarchies of drag reduction effects have been found in liquids containing low molecular weight micelle-type additives, high
molecular weight polymers, and particulates. The decrease in drag or pressure drop is usually attributed to the non-Newtonian nature of the suspension. The solids absorb energy from the stream, thereby decreasing the turbulence level possibly to the point of laminarizing the flow.

In spite of the more than 400 references in the open literature, it seems that practical exploitation of this technology area has not yet been realized. Furthermore, there is relatively little information available regarding the heat transfer characteristics of these suspensions. The natural temptation, however, is to assume that heat transfer will be reduced in accordance with the analogy between heat and momentum transfer.

**Alteration of Transport Properties of Particle Seeding.**

It is appropriate at first to turn to experience on the dynamics of dense clouds of particles or dusty gases. The classical Einstein relation for an incompressible fluid containing solid spheres gives the viscosity as [36]

\[
\mu_m = \mu_g (1 + 2.5\alpha)
\]

where \(\mu_m\) and \(\mu_g\) are the viscosity of the mixture and pure gas respectively and \(\alpha\) is the volume fraction of solids. In order to estimate the increase in viscosity due to solids addition, assume that \(\text{TiO}_2\) is added in the large proportion of 20 percent by weight of propellant. Presume that the propellant undergoes complete combustion. The volume fraction of \(\text{TiO}_2\), for no relative velocity between phases, is then

\[
\alpha = \frac{M_s/P_s}{M_s/P_s + M_g/P_g} = \frac{M_s}{M_g} \frac{P_g}{M_g} = 0.2 \times \frac{0.05}{300} = 0
\]
where $M$ is the mass of the solids, $(\ )_s$, or gas, $(\ )_g$. In other words, the loading ratio is too low to cause any significant increase in viscosity. Even if the local concentration at the wall were much higher, it is probable that the density would be sufficiently elevated so that the Reynolds number would be increased rather than decreased. The usual description of dusty gas flows is that the particle addition results in a flow of higher effective Reynolds number [37, 38]. The heat transfer coefficient would then be expected to increase.

This is consistent with theoretical and experimental work which suggests that particle-particle interactions, which could increase viscous drag, are negligible for particle volume fractions less than 0.05 [39].

Studies of Gas-Solids Suspensions (>10 $\mu$ Particles)

During the past 15 years several studies have been reported of heat transfer to (or from) gas-solid suspensions, with particle sizes generally in the 30 to 200$\mu$ range and with relatively large loading ratios. The results have been applied to numerous industrial applications, including coal-fired boilers, heat recovery equipment, solid propellant rockets, and gas-cooled nuclear reactors. Numerous investigators have reported a decrease in local heat transfer coefficients at low solids loading ratios. This observation is of direct interest to the present study.

Farber and Morley [40] made average measurements of heat transfer from a steam-heated tube to air-alumina catalyst mixtures. No consistent trend of decreasing coefficient can be discerned in the data, which exhibit considerable scatter at low loading ratios. It was noted that bulk temperature rises were lower (and $\Delta T_{im}$'s higher) with the
suspensions than for pure air; however, this effect was more than compensated for by the increased heat transfer coefficient, i.e., the heat transfer rate was always greater with solids addition.

One of the few analytical attempts was reported by Tien [4] who considered the case of mass loading ratios lower than about 1.0. A linear increase in local coefficient with loading ratio was predicted. In addition, the solid particles were expected to have negligible effect on heat transfer far downstream from the thermal entrance. Average predictions compared reasonably well with the data of Farber and Morley.

Farber and Depew [42] took average data which demonstrated a distinct decrease in coefficient at low loading ratios; however, no particular notice was taken of this behavior. The overall technique thus precludes a clear look at what is happening to the local heat transfer coefficient.

Depew and Farber [43] subsequently reported local data which clearly demonstrated decreases in heat transfer coefficients at low loading ratios, as shown in Figure 57. A theoretical analysis qualitatively predicted this decrease; however, the predicted decrease became negligible as the particle size was reduced to 30 microns, a trend which was contrary to the data. Tien and Quan [44] also took local data (Figure 57) which demonstrated the decrease in coefficient at low loading ratios. It was speculated that the particles altered the flow field.

Briller and Peskin [45] reported average measurements of heat transfer to gas-solids mixtures and suggested that there was no observable increase in heat transfer. This conclusion is perhaps justified considering the inordinately large scatter in data; however, a closer examination
Figure 55. Heat Transfer Coefficient Variation with Particle Loading (Briller and Peskin)

Figure 57. Heat Transfer Coefficient Variation with Particles Loading (Depew and Tien)
of the cooling data shown in Figure 56 suggests a distinct decrease in the coefficient at low loading ratio since the heating data exhibited no particular dependence on $M_s/M$. This could suggest that decreases are more pronounced with cooling.

Soo [46] has developed an interesting analogy explanation for the effect of solids on heat transfer at low loading ratios. The decrease in friction factor[44] in the presence of solid particles (Figure 58) is attributed to reduced mixing length due to dissipation by the solid particles. Upon introduction of the reduced shear stress into the Reynolds analogy, a Nusselt number - loading ratio expression is determined which is similar to the experimental behavior, as shown in Figure 59. While this approach is interesting, it serves only to express one dependent variable in terms of another; hence, little insight is given into the mechanism of transport process reduction.

Rossetti and Pfeffer [47] have recently reported friction data which are of interest in the application of the analogy concept. As illustrated in Figure 60, when glass beads of 10 to 60μ were added to air at Reynolds numbers of 10,000 to 25,000, friction factor reduction up to 75 percent was observed in horizontal test sections.* In order to clarify this effect, turbulence intensities were measured at the pipe centerline. The intensity of turbulence was always greater with solids addition, an effect which is in direct conflict with the drag reduction. It was postulated that the interaction of particles with the turbulence eddies actually occurs very close to the wall and that at the wall the turbulence decreases.

* It is noted that the reduction is real since the suspension friction factor is evaluated on the basis of the gas-phase density. Use of a suspension density will always yield a reduced friction factor.
Figure 58. Effect of Particles on Pressure Drop (Soo46)

Figure 59. Heat Transfer Correlation for 30-μm Glass Particles at Pipe Flow Reynolds Number 3x10^4 (Soo)

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Figure 60. Friction Factor Ratio as a Function of Loading Ratio for 30μ Particles (Rossetti and Pfeffer)
Brandon [48] has also pointed out the need for wall turbulence measurements as a necessary step toward understanding friction and heat transfer behavior of gas-solids suspensions.

Survey Conclusions.

A detailed examination of the data suggests that the following conclusions can be drawn from the experimental studies cited above.

1. The decrease in heat transfer coefficient is generally larger with smaller particles [44].
2. The percentage decrease in \( h \) is smaller with higher Reynolds numbers [44].
3. The loading ratio at which the minimum \( h \) occurs seems to decrease as particle size is reduced; however, increases in Reynolds number shift the minimum to higher values of loading ratio [44].
4. The decrease in \( h \) is greater for lead particles than for glass particles [44].
5. Thermal entrance lengths are larger for glass particles than for lead particles, and are considerably larger for smaller particles. In all cases, however, the entrance length was increased over the pure gas value [44].
6. The decrease in heat transfer coefficient at low loading ratios appears to be more pronounced with cooling than with heating [45].
7. Several available analytical and semi-analytical studies of heat transfer and friction do not satisfactorily account for the observed reduction in heat transfer and friction at low loading ratios [41,46,49].

Observation 1 is encouraging as it suggests that still smaller particles (<30\( \mu \)) would exhibit greater decreases in \( h \). However, observations 2 through 5 are either nebulous or suggest a trend in the opposite
direction to what is desired to explain reduced heat transfer in gun tubes with seeding. Observation 6 is favorable; however, the data are too limited to draw firm conclusions. Finally, it is noted from observation 7 that the theory is of little help in suggesting what will happen with micron-size additives.

**Studies of Gas-Solids Suspensions (~1μ Particles)**

Particles in the size range of more direct interest have been employed in studies relating to augmentation of heat transfer in gas-cooled nuclear reactors. The general idea has been to add graphite to the helium coolant in such proportions as to appreciably increase the coolant specific heat and the heat transfer coefficient. Graphite is the normal additive since it will pose few problems for the circulating equipment; regardless of the size of addition, the particles shortly pulverize to an average size less than 1μ.

Schuderberg et al [50] summarized an extensive program at Babcock and Wilcox to study the characteristics of dispersions of micron-size graphite particles. Friction factors at higher Reynolds numbers dropped below the nominal value. It was suggested that flow turbulence was suppressed by the suspended particles. By analogy, heat transfer should be affected to a comparable extent. Unfortunately, the heat transfer tests were done only with loading ratios considerably in excess of unity.

Woodcock and Worley [51] summarized extensive English studies of boiler performance in a gas-cooled nuclear reactor system, where the CO₂ coolant was loaded with graphite. Only loading ratios greater than 4 were considered, and the average heat transfer coefficient for
the tube bank always increased. One interesting aspect of their work was that the effective particle sizes appeared to be much larger than those of the basic particle. It is doubtful, however, that the loading ratios encountered with barrel wear-reducing additives are high enough for the mixture to exhibit this effect.

One of the more serious difficulties encountered with gas-graphite suspensions is the deposition of the solids on cold surfaces [52]. This is apparently due to a combination of Brownian motion and electrostatic effects. For the present application, this observation suggests that particle concentration near the wall will be relatively high. It would seem, however, that the high velocities and short firing times would tend to limit the buildup of as heavy particle layer as is experienced in gas-cooled reactor system tests. The effects of any particle buildup will be examined in the next section of this report.

The IITRI Analysis

In 1966 the Illinois Institute of Technology Research Institute was awarded a contract by Picatinny Arsenal to explain the mechanism by which an additive reduces gun barrel erosion. While the primary emphasis in this investigation was devoted to tests with a vented chamber, an analytical model was also developed as described in the summary report by Remaly and Stanley [52].

The basic premise of this model is that reduced erosion is related to a reduction in heat transfer from the gas to the metal. Following the qualitative explanation offered for reduction of transport rate with solid-liquid and gas-solid suspensions, turbulent damping was hypothesized. The gas particles were assumed to be in simple harmonic motion; the
particles then interact with the gas through a dashpot that represents the drag. The equations of motion were then solved numerically for various spectra of turbulence. The output parameter of interest is the loss of turbulent kinetic energy due to injection of the particles. The rate of energy loss was then computed for various particle diameters (0.1 to 10 microns), densities (2 to 8 g/cc), and concentration (2 to 9 percent by weight). Computations were limited by computer running time to the first three cycles of gas oscillation (about 100 μsec). Typical increases of 5 percent were found in the boundary layer thickness.

The computations indicated that turbulent damping increases with particle diameter, density, and concentration. Typical results are shown in Figure 61. The experimental program was then designed to provide at least a qualitative verification of the analytical model.

Controlled Firing Tests

IITRI Tests

Remaly and Stanley [52] tested the effects of various propellant additives in a 37 mm vented chamber. Additive effectiveness was by measuring wear of an orifice-type plug.

A variety of additives was tested for multiple firings since weight loss data from single shots were inconclusive. No wax was utilized in tests presented in this report, and the additives were introduced in such a fashion that good mixing with the explosion products was obtained.

All of the additives (TiO₂, talc, WO₃, and microballoons) were found to be effective in reducing erosion of the orifice insert. The data shown in Figure 62 are typical of the results obtained. Low density
Figure 62. Cumulative Weight Loss Versus Shot Number (Remaly and Stanley)
materials were found to be the most effective in contrast to the results of the model described in the previous section. Furthermore, small particles gave greater erosion reduction, which was again an effect opposite to that predicted (Figure 61). A re-examination of the model was thus suggested. This leads one to suspect that the basic premise of turbulence alteration may not be correct.

One of the incidental observations of these tests was concerned with a residue in the orifice insert. This propellant residue was apparently substantial since soaking in a chlorinated hydrocarbon solvent was necessary to remove it before the weight was recorded. While no indications of the thickness, composition, or influence of the residue on erosion were given, it seems reasonable to expect that the residue could play a role in reducing the erosion.

Picatinny Arsenal Tests

The Swedish Additive, titanium dioxide or tungsten trioxide in a wax matrix, was adopted for U.S. military application in 1961. This additive was highly effective in reducing (up to 90 percent) bore erosion in a variety of gun barrels. The empirical results of previous tests reported by Swedish consultants indicated that many metal compounds have wear-reducing properties. The percentage composition of the metal compound and wax and the location of the coated cloth liner were found to be important.

Several reasons were suggested for the effectiveness of the additive. The wax component vaporizes and forms a cool insulating gas layer along the wall, the metal oxide particles in the flow have a high reflectivity and reduce radiant heat transfer from the propellant gas to the tube, and the metal oxide particles form a protective coating on the tube wall.
so as to reflect heat away from the surface.

Extensive tests were undertaken at Picatinny Arsenal to evaluate various additives and suggest a mechanism for reduced erosion which is consistent with the test firing data. The first major report issued is by Wolff [26] who described extensive tests with 90 and 105mm tank ammunition. The results of a preliminary series of tests with WO$_3$ wax additive and a full series of test with TiO$_2$ wax additive are summarized in Figure 63. Control tests with no additive and with wax additive only are also indicated. The general conclusion is that any additive is better than ordinary untreated ammunition. The Swedish-type additives are definitely superior to the other laminar coolant. The TiO$_2$ additive seems to be better than the WO$_3$ additive; however, a larger number of firings for the WO$_3$ would seem to be necessary to confirm this finding. Most surprising perhaps is the observation that the plain wax is also reasonably effective.

This report is strictly empirical and does not pursue the mechanism of barrel wear reduction. The mechanism advanced by the Swedish consultants concerning reflection of radiation is not a reasonable explanation because the radiative heat transfer from the gas to the tube is negligible compared to the convective heat transfer. The maximum radiative heat transfer is given by:

$$q_{\text{rad}} = \sigma (T_{\text{gas}}^4 - T_w^4)$$  \hspace{1cm} (161)

which for $T_w$ of 500°K and $T_{\text{gas}}$ of 2000°K yields a $q_{\text{rad}}$ of 20.6 kcal/m$^2$-sec compared with the average convective heat flux calculated in Part I of 50,000 kcal/m$^2$-sec.
Figure 63. Comparison of Tube Wear Versus Number of 105mm APDS-T, M392 Rounds Fired in M68 Gun Tubes (Wolff)
On the other hand, the existence of a residue on the barrel wall is significant. The coating was readily removed before measurements were made. For the main series of tests a chemical analysis indicated that the coating was mainly TiO$_2$.

Subsequent tests at the Picatinny Propellants Laboratory were reported by Lenchitz et al [36]. Their conclusions relating to the effect of additives on the combustion products is given early in this section of the report. While this effect tends in the right direction, the coating effect of the additive appears to be of greater significance. Lenchitz and his co-workers suggested that the wax is the prime factor in building up an effective insulating coating. The role of TiO$_2$ was considered to be that of strengthening and permitting proper dispersion of the wax. The test results with a 3/8-inch vented chamber (see Table V) abstracted from their work was used to justify this conclusion:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Proportions</th>
<th>Erosivity mg at 16,000 psi (5-shot average)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M-2 Propellant</td>
<td>35g</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propellant + TiO$_2$</td>
<td>35g + 2g</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propellant + wax</td>
<td>35g + 2-4g</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propellant + wax/TiO$_2$</td>
<td>35g + 4g</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The wax is clearly indicated as the major erosion reducer. In addition to small chemical effects, the thermal insulation of the carbonized wax was
considered to be important.

Taking an overall look at the Piatinny Arsenal test, it is reasonable to conclude that barrel wear reducing additives produce a deposit on the tube wall which thermally insulates the metal from the hot combustion gases. This is consistent with the observation that either wax alone, TiO$_2$ (WO$_3$) alone, or TiO$_2$/wax (WO$_3$/wax) reduces erosion. In all cases a deposit was noticed on the barrel. The IITRI tests mentioned previously are in substantial agreement for the effects of TiO$_2$ and WO$_3$ as well as for talc and microballoons. It now remains to demonstrate that thin layers of any of these materials can produce sufficient reduction in metal temperature to inhibit erosion.


SECTION IX

MECHANISMS FOR REDUCED EROSION WITH TiO$_2$ PARTICLES

Introduction

In light of the repetitive firing analysis and the survey of the dusty gas heat transfer literature, the possible mechanisms by which reduced erosion may result from TiO$_2$ seeding of the propellant was studied for their plausibility. The fact that the repetitive firing analysis showed that temperatures on the inside surface of the barrel may reach the metal melting temperature plus the findings in the literature led to concentrating efforts on two wall temperature reducing mechanisms. The first to be discussed is the reduced heat transfer coefficient resulting from the particles reducing the turbulence level and the second is the insulation of the tube wall by particles forming a packed bed in the crevices of the tube surface roughness.

Reduced Heat Transfer Coefficient

As shown in the previous section, the literature in the dusty gas area does not include any experimental data for the Reynolds numbers range ($\approx 10^8$) and particle size (<1 micron) applicable to the present gun problem. Also, all experimental work has been carried out at steady conditions, while the gun flow is highly unsteady.

However, it can be seen from Figures 56 through 60 that a reduction in the heat transfer coefficient of around 20 percent has been demonstrated in several cases. There are also indications that the higher Reynolds numbers and smaller particle sizes may lead to an even higher
reductions in the heat transfer coefficient, \( h \), particularly at light loadings. It may thereby be argued that a 20 percent reduction in \( h \) might occur with the addition of TiO\(_2\) to gun propellants. There is evidence that it might possibly occur but no experimental proof that it does. The plausibility of a 20 percent reduction in \( h \) causing a sufficient reduction in the wall temperature to produce a reduced erosion rate was studied.

The model and program for calculating heat transfer and temperatures in the tube presented in Section II was used for this calculation. The \( h \) which the program calculated was reduced by 20 percent and this reduced \( h \) was used in the heat conduction analysis to find the tube wall temperature.

The results are shown in Figure 64 where the wall surface temperature is displaced as a function of time. The peak temperature at the hottest location (\( x=25 \text{ cm} \)) is shown to be about 950\(^\circ\)K compared to 1050\(^\circ\)K from the normal heat transfer coefficient results shown in Figure 27.

This 100\(^\circ\)K drop which would result for the 20 percent lower \( h \) value would appear to be large enough to substantially reduce the erosion.

This is particularly true when we consider that the temperature-related erosion mechanism would be expected to have somewhat of a threshold temperature. Above this threshold temperature the metal would possibly be liquid so as to erode away easily, whereas below this temperature the metal would be solid with strength to resist erosion. This 100\(^\circ\)K reduction could bring the metal surface below this threshold temperature and thereby substantially reduce the temperature-related erosion. The remaining erosion would be primarily related to other mechanisms such as chemical or friction. This could explain the factor of 10 reduction in erosion rate experienced in tests using TiO\(_2\) additives, however, many assumptions would have to be verified to inclusively show this.
Figure 64. Variation of Wall Surface Temperature at Certain Fixed Locations with Time (Case I, 20 percent Reduced Heat Transfer Coefficient)
Insulation Effect

In order to assess what the effect an insulating layer of TiO₂ particles forming on the tube surface would have on the wall temperature, the model and computer program were modified. The increased thermal resistance was included in a new effective convective heat transfer coefficient \( h_{\text{eff}} \) given by:

\[
    h_{\text{eff}} = \frac{h}{1 + h(AL/K)_{\text{ins}}} \tag{162}
\]

where \( AL \) is the thickness of the insulating layer and \( K_{\text{ins}} \) is the thermal conductivity of the insulation.

The order of magnitude of \( AL \) can be found by considering the surface roughness of the tube wall and assuming the interstices are filled with TiO₂ particles. These interstices are on the order of 5 to 10 microns (0.0002 to 0.0004 inches) into which the micron size TiO₂ particles can be packed forming a packed bed 5 to 10 micron thick. The order of magnitude of the thermal conductivity for packed beds is around \( 4 \times 10^{-4} \) kcal/sec-m-°K. This low value for packed beds is due to the voids existing between the individual packed particles.

The results of the calculations for a single shot firing are shown in Figures 65 and 66 assuming 5 and 10 microns for \( AL \), respectively. This calculation should be compared with Figure 27 in Section II which is the identical case without insulation. It can be seen that the effect of TiO₂ particles embedded in the surface roughness crevices is to lower the peak metal surface temperature from about 1050°K shown in Figure 27 to 175°K.
Figure 66. Variation of Surface Temperature at Certain Fixed Locations with Time (Case I, 5-Micron Insulation)
825°K for 5 microns of insulation or 650°K for 10 microns of insulation. This is a very substantial decrease of 225°K and 400°K in the metal temperature and should account for the decreased erosion rate.

In order to further assess the plausibility of this hypothesis, a calculation has been carried out to determine the mass of TiO₂ particles necessary to coat the tube with a 5-micron-thick layer. Taking the barrel dimensions used throughout this work of 200 cm in length and 3 cm inside diameter, along with a packed bed TiO₂ density of 4 gm/cm³, yields a mass of 3.8 gm of TiO₂. For the propellant loading of 172 gm, this is about a 2 percent loading fraction compared to typical loading fractions of 5 percent. Therefore, there are adequate TiO₂ particles in the propellant so that after only a few firings the interstices of the surface roughness can be filled with an insulating layer of TiO₂ particles.
SECTION XI

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn from the findings presented in Part II of this report.

1. Repeated firings every 60 milliseconds produced increasing gun tube wall temperatures to $1500^\circ$K after fifty firings. At this time (3 seconds) the thermal wave does not reach the outside of the 1.5-cm-thick wall. Repeated firing bursts could produce temperatures high enough to cause melting of a very thin layer of metal inside the tube. Even after 50 firings, the temperature drops very rapidly with increasing distance from the inside wall surface, i.e., with a surface temperature of $1500^\circ$K, at a depth of 0.1mm below the surface the temperature is typically below $800^\circ$K.

2. A review of the existing literature concerning experimental measurements on dusty gases reveal that a reduction in wall friction and convective heat transfer is possible in many cases of lightly loaded dusty gases. Reductions up to 30 percent have been measured in some cases. However, no experimental measures of any kind are available which are applicable to the gun tube gas flow problem.

3. Available experimental data on gun propellant additives containing micron size particles all produce evidence of a deposit on the inside surface of the gun tube.

4. If a reduction of the heat transfer coefficient of 20 percent were caused by the presence of micron-size particles in the
combustion gases, the inside wall temperature would be reduced by about 100°K. This 20 percent reduction is considered possible, but experimental evidence of this reduction applicable to this specific problem is not available.

5. Insulation of the tube wall from the hot combustion gases can result from the micron-size particles becoming packed into the metal surface roughness crevices. These crevices have dimensions on the order of five to ten microns; therefore, the packed bed of particles in these crevices form an insulating layer of five to ten microns thickness between the wall and the gases. Taking typical values, this insulation layer can reduce the tube metal temperature by up to 300°K. This hypothesis is supported in many ways, and it is felt that it represents the mechanism by which gun tube erosion is reduced when TiO$_3$ particles are added to propellants. Therefore, in order to minimize erosion in gun tubes, this deposition of any insulating particles into the surface roughness crevices should be optimized.
APPENDIX I

DERIVATION OF CONSERVATION EQUATIONS

A control volume approach has been taken for the derivation of the conservation equations. In Figure 37 a control volume having a cross-sectional area $A_p$ and length $\Delta x$ has been shown. The volume fraction of solids per unit length is $\nu_s$, or in the other words, $\nu_s$ is the fraction of the total cross-sectional area $A_p$ occupied by the solids. Therefore, $(1-\nu_s)$ is the fractional area occupied by the gases at any position and time.

Due to the assumptions regarding the burning rate of the solids (same for all the particles at a particular instant) and the constant total burning surface $S_{b_t}$, it is easy to estimate the burning surface available in the chosen control volume,

$$S_L = S_{b_t} \frac{\nu_s A_p \Delta x}{\int_0^{L_p} \nu_s A_p dx} \quad (I-1)$$

Therefore, the rate of gas produced (by mass) from the solids (or, rate of decrease of solids by mass) within the control volume is given by,

$$\rho_s S_L r_b = \rho_s S_{b_t} \frac{\nu_s \Delta x r_b}{\int_0^{L_p} \nu_s dx} \quad (I-2)$$
Figure 1-1. Schematic of Control Volume Chosen for the Derivation of Conservation Equations.

Figure 1-2. A Typical Solid Particle Assumed in the Present Study.
Case I (Solid particles moving at gas velocity)

**Continuity of solids.**

Rate of increase of solid mass in c.v. = Rate of solid flowing in - Rate of solid flowing out - Rate of gas produced in c.v.

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \rho_s A \phi \Delta x \right) = \left( \rho U A \phi \right) \bigg|_x - \left( \rho U A \phi \right) \bigg|_{x+dx} - \rho_s S_{b_t} \int_0^1 \frac{\phi}{s} \Delta x
\]

or,

\[
A_p \rho_s \left[ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \phi U_s \right) \right] + \rho_s S_{b_t} \int_0^1 \frac{\phi}{s} \Delta x = 0
\]

with \( U_s = U_g = U \),

\[
\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \phi \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + \frac{S_{b_t}}{A_p} \int_0^1 \frac{\phi}{s} \Delta x = 0
\]

or,

\[
\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \phi \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + \phi = 0
\]  \hspace{1cm} (I-3)

**Continuity of Gases.**

Rate of increase of mass of gas in c.v. = Rate of gas flowing in - Rate of gas flowing out + Rate of gas produced in c.v.

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g A \Delta x \right] = \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g A U \right] \bigg|_x - \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g A U \right] \bigg|_{x+dx} + \rho_s S_{b_t} \int_0^1 \frac{\phi}{s} \Delta x
\]

or,

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g A \right] = \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g A U \right] \bigg|_x - \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g A U \right] \bigg|_{x+dx} + \rho_s S_{b_t} \int_0^1 \frac{\phi}{s} \Delta x
\]
\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ (1-v_s) \rho \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ (1-v_s) \rho \ U \right] = \rho_s \left( \frac{V_p}{A_p} \right) \int_0^l \frac{v_s r_b}{p v_s} \, dx
\]

Using equation (I-3) and \( U_s = U_g = U \):

\[
(1-v_s) \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + (1-v_s) \ U \ \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + \rho \ \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = (\rho_s - \rho_g) \ \dot{V}_d
\]

or,

\[
\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + U \ \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + \frac{\rho}{(1-v_s)} \ \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = \left( \frac{\rho_s - \rho_g}{(1-v_s)} \right) \ \dot{V}_d
\]  \hspace{1cm} (I-4)

A general equation of continuity can be obtained by considering the gas-solid mixture as a whole which gives,

Rate of increase of mass of gas-solid mixture in c.v. = Rate of gas-solid mixture flowing in - Rate of gas-solid mixture flowing out

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ v_s \rho A \right] + (1-v_s) \rho \ A \Delta x = \left[ v_s \rho U A + (1-v_s) \rho U A \right]_x
\]

\[
- \left[ v_s \rho U A + (1-v_s) \rho U A \right]_{x+dx}
\]

or,

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ v_s \rho + (1-v_s) \rho \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ v_s \rho U + (1-v_s) \rho U \right] = 0
\]  \hspace{1cm} (I-5)

**Momentum Equation.**

Rate of increase of momentum in c.v. + Momentum flux out - Momentum flux in = \( \sum \) External forces
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \nu_s \rho_s U + (1-\nu_s) \rho_g U \right] A_p \Delta x + \left[ \nu_s \rho_s U^2 + (1-\nu_s) \rho_g U^2 \right] A_p \bigg|_{x+dx}

\left. \right. - \left[ \nu_s \rho_s U^2 + (1-\nu_s) \rho_g U^2 \right] A_p \bigg|_x

= P A_p \bigg|_{x} - P A_p \bigg|_{x+dx} - 2\pi R \Delta x \tau_w

or,

\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \nu_s \rho_s + (1-\nu_s) \rho_g \right] U + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \nu_s \rho_s U + (1-\nu_s) \rho_g U \right] = - \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \frac{2\tau_w}{R}

Using equation (I-5):

\left[ \nu_s \rho_s + (1-\nu_s) \rho_g \right] \left[ \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right] = - \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \frac{2\tau_w}{R}

Now, mixture density \( \rho_m = \nu_s \rho_s + (1-\nu_s) \rho_g \)

\therefore \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = - \frac{1}{\rho_m} \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \frac{2\tau_w}{\rho_m R} \quad (I-5)

Energy Equation.

Rate of increase of energy in c.v. = Energy flux flowing in - Energy flux flowing out + Rate of increase of energy due to conversion of solids into gases in c.v.

- Rate of work done by the gas-solid mixture - Rate of heat loss to the tube wall

or,

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\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \left( v_s \rho_s \left( e_s + \frac{u^2}{2} \right) + (1-v_s) \rho_g \left( e_g + \frac{u^2}{2} \right) \right) A \right]_{\Delta x} = \left[ \left( v_s \rho_s \left( e_s + \frac{u^2}{2} \right) U_s + (1-v_s) \rho_g \left( e_g + \frac{u^2}{2} \right) U_g \right) A \right]_{x+dx} \\
- \left[ \left( v_s \rho_s \left( e_s + \frac{u^2}{2} \right) U_s + (1-v_s) \rho_g \left( e_g + \frac{u^2}{2} \right) U_g \right) A \right]_{x+dx} \\
+ \rho_s S_b \frac{v_s r_b \Delta x}{t} \int_{0}^{L} \rho U dx \\
\Delta E = \left[ \frac{A_p}{\rho_g} \left( v_s \rho_s U_s \frac{P}{\rho_s} + (1-v_s) \rho_g U_g \frac{P}{\rho_g} \right) \right]_{x+dx} \\
- \left[ \frac{A_p}{\rho_g} \left( v_s \rho_s U_s \frac{P}{\rho_s} + (1-v_s) \rho_g U_g \frac{P}{\rho_g} \right) \right] \\
2\pi R \Delta x h_1 (T-T_{w,1}) \\

where, \( \Delta E = \) Additional energy release per unit mass due to conversion of solids into gases,

\( = c_v T_0 - c_s T_s = W - c_s T_s \) (I-6)

Using the definition of enthalpy for solids and gas, i.e.

\( h_s = e_s + \frac{P}{\rho_s} \) ; \( h_g = e_g + \frac{P}{\rho_g} \)

\[ \frac{3}{3t} \left[ v_s \rho_s (c_s - \frac{P}{\rho_s}) + (1-v_s) \rho_g (h_g - \frac{P}{\rho_g}) \right] + \frac{3}{3x} \left[ v_s \rho_s h_s U_s + (1-v_s) \rho_g h_g U_g \right] \\
+ \frac{3}{3x} \left[ v_s \rho_s \left( \frac{U_s^2}{2} + (1-v_s) \rho_g \frac{U_g^2}{2} \right) \right] \\
+ \frac{3}{3x} \left[ v_s \rho_s \left( \frac{U_s^2}{2} U_s + (1-v_s) \rho_g \frac{U_g^2}{2} U_g \right) \right] = \rho_s \left( \frac{S_b}{A_p} \right) \frac{v_s r_b \Delta E}{t} \int_{0}^{L} \rho U dx \\
- \frac{2h_1}{R} (T-T_{w,1}) \]
Using \( U_s = U_g = U \),

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \nu \rho_s h_s + (1-\nu_s) \rho h \right] - \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \nu \rho_s h_s U + (1-\nu_s) \rho h U \right] \\
+ \frac{U^2}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \nu \rho_s s + (1-\nu_s) \rho s \right] - \nu \rho_s \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \nu \rho_s U + (1-\nu_s) \rho U \right] U \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} \\
+ \frac{U^2}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \nu \rho_s s + (1-\nu_s) \rho s \right] + \nu \rho_s \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \nu \rho_s U + (1-\nu_s) \rho U \right] U^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\
- \rho_s \dot{v}_d \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \Delta E - \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w,i})
\]

Using the general equation of continuity (I-4) and the momentum equation (I-5):

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ \nu \rho_s h_s + (1-\nu_s) \rho h \right] - \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \nu \rho_s h_s U + (1-\nu_s) \rho h U \right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{\partial P}{\partial s} + U \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \\
= \rho_s \dot{v}_d \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \Delta E - \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w,i}) + \frac{2T U}{R}
\]

On differentiation and by use of continuity of solids (164) and continuity of gases (I-3):

\[
\nu \rho_s \left[ \frac{\partial h_s}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial h_s}{\partial x} \right] + (1-\nu_s) \rho \left[ \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right] = \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \\
= \rho_s \dot{v}_d \frac{\partial}{\partial s} (\Delta E + h_s - h) - \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w,i}) + \frac{2T U}{R}
\]

Using the notation \( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \)

and \( h_s = c_s T_s + \frac{\rho}{\rho_s} \), finally:
\[ \nu_s \frac{Dh_s}{Dt} + (1-\nu_s)g \frac{Dh_g}{Dt} - \frac{DP}{Dt} = \rho_s \frac{d}{ds} \left( W + \frac{P}{\rho_s} - h_s \right) - \frac{2h_i}{T-T_{w_i}} \]

\[ + \frac{2w}{R} \]

\[(I-7)\]

**Case II (Solid particles stationary at their initial positions)**

**Continuity of Solids.**

Rate of increase of solid mass in c.v. = Rate of solids flowing in - Rate of solids flowing out - Rate of gas produced in c.v.

\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho_s A_s v_s \Delta x) = 0 - 0 - \rho_s S_{b_s} t \int_0^L \nu_s dx \]

or,

\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} v_s = \frac{S_{b_s}}{A_p} \int_0^L \nu_s dx \]

\[(I-8)\]

**Continuity of Gases.**

Rate of increase of mass of gas in c.v. = Rate of gas flowing in - Rate of gas flowing out + Rate of gas produced in c.v.

\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) A_p \rho g \Delta x \right] = \left[ (1-\nu_s) A_p \rho U g \right] x - \left[ (1-\nu_s) A_p \rho U g \right] x+dx \]

\[ + \rho_s S_{b_s} \frac{\nu_s r_b \Delta x}{L_p} \int_0^L \nu_s dx \]

or,
\[
\frac{3}{\delta t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho \frac{\partial \dot{v}_s}{\partial x} \right] + \frac{3}{\delta x} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho \frac{U}{g} \frac{\partial \dot{v}_s}{\partial x} \right] = \rho_s \left( \frac{S_b}{\delta p} \right) \int_{0}^{L} \frac{\nu_s r_b}{\delta x} \, dx = \rho_s \dot{v}_s \text{(I-9)}
\]

Putting \( U = U \) and using equation (I-8):

\[
(1-\nu_s) \left[ \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + \rho \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right] + \rho \dot{v}_s - \rho \frac{\partial \dot{v}_s}{\partial t} = \rho_s \dot{v}_s
\]

or,

\[
\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + \rho \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = \frac{(\rho_s - \rho)}{(1-\nu_s)} \dot{v}_s + \frac{\rho U}{(1-\nu_s)} \frac{\partial \dot{v}_s}{\partial x} \text{(I-10)}
\]

**Momentum Equation.** As the solids are at rest, the free as volume in the control volume shown in Figure 37 is taken as the new control volume in the following derivation. It is assumed that the solids are at the core of the flow and the skin friction at the surface of the solid particles is negligible.

Rate of increase of momentum in c.v. + Momentum flux out - Momentum flux in = \( \Sigma \) External forces

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) A \rho \rho U \Delta x \right] + \left[ (1-\nu_s) A \rho \rho U^2 \right] \bigg|_{x} - \left[ (1-\nu_s) A \rho \rho U^2 \right] \bigg|_{x+dx}
\]

\[
= \left[ (1-\nu_s) A \rho \right] \bigg|_{x} - \left[ (1-\nu_s) A \rho \right] \bigg|_{x+dx}
\]

\[
+ P A \rho \Delta x \frac{\partial (1-\nu_s)}{\partial x} - 2\pi R \Delta x \tau_w
\]

or,
Using equation (1-9) and putting \( \frac{\partial U}{\partial g} = U, \)

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ (1-\gamma) \rho \frac{U}{g} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ (1-\gamma) \rho \frac{U}{g} \right] &= -\frac{2 \tau_w}{R} \\
\rho \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} &= -\frac{2 \tau_w}{R}
\end{align*}
\]

or,

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} &= -\frac{1}{\rho_g} \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \frac{\rho \frac{U}{g}}{(1-\gamma) \rho} \dot{V}_s - \frac{2 \tau_w}{R} \\
&= -\frac{1}{\rho_g} \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \frac{\rho \frac{U}{g}}{(1-\gamma) \rho} \dot{V}_s - \frac{2 \tau_w}{R}
\end{align*}
\]

Energy Equation. The same control volume as used in the derivation of momentum equation is taken.

Rate of energy increase in c.v. = Energy flux flowing in - Energy flux flowing out + Rate of energy increase due to gas coming into the c.v. from the solids

- Rate of work done by the flowing gas
- Rate of heat loss to the tube wall

or,
\[
\frac{3}{\beta t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_p \left( e_g + \frac{U^2}{2} \right) \right] = \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_p \left( e_g + \frac{U^2}{2} \right) \right]_x
\]

\[ - \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_p \left( e_g + \frac{U^2}{2} \right) \right]_{x+dx} \]

\[ + \rho_s S_b \int_0^t \frac{v_s \Delta x r_b}{p v_s dx} W \]

\[ = \rho_s \left( \frac{t}{t} \right) \frac{v_s r_b}{p v_s dx} W - \frac{2h_f}{R} (T-T_w,1) \]

or,

\[ \frac{3}{\beta t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_p \left( e_g + \frac{U^2}{2} \right) \right] + \frac{3}{\beta x} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_p \left( e_g + \rho \frac{P}{g} \right) \right] \]

\[ = \rho_s \left( \frac{t}{t} \right) \frac{v_s r_b}{p v_s dx} W - \frac{2h_f}{R} (T-T_w,1) \]

Put \( U = U \) and \( h_g = e_g + \rho \frac{P}{g} \),

\[ \frac{3}{\beta t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g (h_g - \rho \frac{P}{g}) \right] + \frac{3}{\beta x} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g h_g \right] + \frac{1}{\beta t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g U^2 \right] \]

\[ + \frac{1}{\beta x} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_g U \right] W = \rho_s v_d \cdot W \]

\[ - \frac{2h_f}{R} (T-T_w,1) \]

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Using equations (1-9) and (1-11)

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_s h \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_s h U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right] - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) P \right] + \rho_s \tilde{v}_d s \frac{U^2}{2} \\
+ \rho_s \tilde{v}_d s \left\{ -P \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} (1-\nu_s) - \frac{2\tau w}{R} \right\} = \rho_s \tilde{v}_d s \frac{U}{R} - \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w_s})
\end{align*}
\]

Using equation (1-8)

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_s h \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ (1-\nu_s) \rho_s h U \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right] - (1-\nu_s) \left\{ \frac{3P}{\partial t} + U \frac{3P}{\partial x} \right\} \\
= \rho_s \tilde{v}_d s (W + \frac{P}{\rho_s} + \frac{U^2}{2}) - \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{w_s}) + \frac{2\tau w}{R} \frac{U}{R}
\end{align*}
\]

or,

\[
(1-\nu_s) \rho_s \left\{ \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right\} + \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \left\{ (1-\nu_s) \rho_s \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right\} + \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \left\{ (1-\nu_s) \rho_s \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right\} \\
- (1-\nu_s) \left\{ \frac{3P}{\partial t} + U \frac{3P}{\partial x} \right\}
= \rho_s \tilde{v}_d s (W + \frac{P}{\rho_s} + \frac{U^2}{2})
\]

\[
2h_i \frac{1}{R} (T-T_{w_s}) + \frac{2\tau w}{R} U
\]

Using equation (1-9) and notation \( \frac{D}{Dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \), finally:

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Computation of Burning Surface

A typical solid particle, a single perforated cylinder in shape, is shown in Figure 38.

Let,

\[ r_i = \text{initial inner radius of the particle} \]
\[ r_o = \text{initial outer radius of the particle} \]
\[ l = \text{length of the particle} \]
\[ n = \text{total number of the particles in the chamber} \]

Therefore, total initial burning surface = \( 2\pi (r_i + r_o) l n \). It is assumed that combustion gas is produced from both inner and outer cylindrical surfaces of a particle but not from two ends. If \( r_b \) is the linear speed of burning, which is assumed to be same for all the particles at a particular instant, the total burning surface after time \( \Delta t \) is

\[
2\pi \left[ (r_i + r_b \Delta t) + (r_o - r_b \Delta t) \right] l n
\]

\[ = 2\pi (r_i + r_o) l n \]

It is clear that for hollow cylindrical particles the total burning surface is constant and can be given by:

\[
\frac{Dh}{g Dt} - \frac{DP}{d t} = \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_s} \left( W + \frac{P}{\rho_s} + \frac{U^2}{2} - h_0 \right)
\]

\[
- \frac{2h_i}{R} (T-T_{wi}) + \frac{2t_w}{R} U
\]

(I-12)
\[ S_{bt} = \frac{2\pi (r - r_i)^2}{\rho_s (r_o - r_i)} \ln \frac{\rho_s}{\rho_i} \]

\[ \frac{2m_{s_1}}{\rho_s w_{s_1}} \]

where

- \( m_{s_1} \) = initial mass of solids
- \( \rho_s \) = solid mass density
- \( w_{s_1} \) = initial web thickness of a solid particle

**Expressions for Enthalpies of Solids and Gases**

For any pure substance, \( h = h(P,T) \)

\[ dh = \left( \frac{\partial h}{\partial P} \right)_T dP + \left( \frac{\partial h}{\partial T} \right)_P dT \]  

(I-14)

From thermodynamics, \( dh = Tds + v dP \)

\[ \left( \frac{\partial h}{\partial P} \right)_T = T \left( \frac{\partial s}{\partial P} \right)_T + v \]  

(I-15)

Again from Gibb's form of first law of thermodynamics,

\[ dG = -s \,dT + v \,dP \]  

(I-16)

As Gibb's function \( G \) is a property of the system, \( dG \) must be an exact differential
Now, coefficient of thermal expansion, \( \beta = \frac{1}{\nu} \frac{\partial v}{\partial T_p} \)

\( \therefore \) Equation (I-15) becomes,

\[
\frac{\partial h}{\partial P} = -T\beta v + v = v(l-T\beta)
\]

\( \therefore \) Equation (I-14) becomes,

\[
\frac{\partial h}{\partial P} = v(l-T\beta) \frac{\partial P}{\partial P} + c_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial T} = v(l-T\beta)
\]

**Solids**

For solids, \( c_p \) is equal to \( c_s \) and it has been assumed that the temperature of the solids \( T_s \) remains constant throughout the period of burning.

\[
\therefore dh = c_s \frac{1}{\rho_s} (l-T_s \beta_s) \frac{\partial P}{\partial P}
\]

It has also been assumed that the coefficient of expansion for solids \( \beta_s \) is negligible.

\[
\therefore dh = \frac{\partial P}{\partial \rho_s}
\]

and

\[
h_s = c_s T_s + \frac{P}{\rho_s}
\]
Gases

The equation of state for the combustion gas at high pressure can be taken as,

\[ P \left( v - \eta \right) = R \frac{T}{g} \]

where, the covolume \( \eta \) is a constant.

Now,

\[ p \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial T} \right)_{P} = R \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \]

\[ \therefore \beta_g = \frac{1}{\gamma} \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial T} \right)_{P} = R \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \]

From equation (I-18)

\[ dh = v_g \left[ 1 - \frac{R T}{\gamma} \right] dP + c_p dT \]

or,

\[ dh = \gamma dP + c_p dT \]

Now, the specific heat at constant pressure, \( c_p = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1} R_g \) yields,

\[ dh = \gamma dP + \frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1} R_g dT \]

Differentiating equation (I-21) and using \( v_g = 1/\rho_g \):

\[ R_g \frac{dT}{\rho_g} = \frac{1}{\rho_g} - \eta dP - \frac{P}{\rho_g^2} d\rho_g \]
Equation (I-23) becomes,

\[ dh_g = \frac{(\gamma-\eta \rho_g)}{\rho_g (\gamma-1)} dP - \frac{\gamma P}{(\gamma-1) \rho_g} d\rho_g \] (I-24)

From equation (I-22)

\[ h_g = \eta P + c_p T \]

\[ = \eta P + \frac{\gamma}{(\gamma-1)} P \left( \frac{1}{\rho_g} - \eta \right) \]

\[ = \frac{(\gamma-\eta \rho_g)}{(\gamma-1) \rho_g} P \] (I-25)
APPENDIX II

DERIVATION OF BOUNDARY LAYER MOMENTUM EQUATION

With reference to Figure 39, the boundary layer momentum integral equation is derived as follows:

Equation of Continuity

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} 2\pi r \Delta x \rho \, dr = \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} 2\pi r \rho u \, dr \right]_x - \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} 2\pi r \rho u \, dr \right]_{x+dx} + \hat{m}_{BC} \tag{II-1}
\]

Momentum Equation (x-directional)

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} 2\pi r \Delta x \mu \, dr = \hat{m}_{BC} u_x - \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} 2\pi r \rho u^2 \, dr \right]_x + \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} 2\pi r \rho u^2 \, dr \right]_{x+dx} \nonumber
\]
\[
= \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} 2\pi r P \, dr \right]_x - \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} 2\pi r P \, dr \right]_{x+dx} + 2\pi(R-\delta)\left( \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial x} \Delta x \right)P - 2\pi R \Delta x \tau \omega \tag{II-2}
\]
Figure 69. Schematic of Boundary Layer Growth in a Tube With a Sliding Piston at one End
Using the expression for $\dot{m}_{BC}$ from equation (II-1), equation (II-2) becomes,

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} (\rho u r) dr - U_\infty \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho r dr - \int_{R-\delta}^{R} (\rho u r) dr + \int_{R-\delta}^{R} (\rho u^2 r) dr \\
- \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} (P r) dr + (R-\delta)P \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right]_{R-\delta} \tau_w \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right]
\]

(II-3)

Now, for thin boundary layer, radial component of velocity is very small and consequently,

\[
\frac{\partial P}{\partial r} = 0
\]

(II-4)

Also, as $U_\infty \neq f(r)$,

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} U_\infty \rho r dr = U_\infty \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho r dr + \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho r dr \right] \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial t}
\]

(II-5)

and

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} U_\infty (\rho u) dr = U_\infty \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho u dr + \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho u dr \right] \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial x}
\]

(II-6)

Using relations (II-4), (II-5), and (II-6), finally

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho (U_\infty - u) r dr + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho u (U_\infty - u) r dr - \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho r dr \right] \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial t} \\
- \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho u r dr \right] \frac{\partial U_\infty}{\partial x} = \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho r dr \right] \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \tau_w R
\]

(II-7)
now,

\[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} r \, dr = R\delta - \frac{\delta^2}{2} \]

and using \( \rho_f \), i.e. gas density corresponding to the film temperature, as the average density in the boundary layer, the equation (II-7) becomes,

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho(U-u)r \, dr + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho u(U-u)r \, dr + \left[ \int_{R-\delta}^{R} \rho (U-u)r \, dr \right] \frac{3U_{\infty}}{3x} = (R\delta - \frac{\delta^2}{2}) \left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \rho_f \frac{\partial U_{\infty}}{\partial t} + \rho_f U_{\infty} \frac{\partial U_{\infty}}{\partial x} \right] + \tau_w \]

(II-8)

The equation (II-8) is the required momentum integral equation for a nonsteady, nonuniform, and developing compressible flow in a tube.
APPENDIX III

FLOW CHART FOR THE SINGLE SHOT COMPUTER PROGRAM

Main Program

Start

Read input data and calculate all the non-dimensionalizing and other constants

Calculate the average chamber pressure, total unburnt solids by volume and by mass

Determine the new time increment \( \Delta t' \) by applying (137)

\[ kP = 1 \]

Burning pressure = Average chamber pressure

Calculate the burning rate corresponding to the burning pressure from Table I

Calculate the piston displacement and velocity after time \( \Delta t' \)

Call subroutine \&P to determine the ballistic properties at the piston base after time \( \Delta t' \)
Average base pressure = \( \frac{1}{2} \) (calculated value at \( t+\tau \) + present value at time \( t \))

Calculate the piston displacement and velocity based on average base pressure

Replace old values of piston position and velocity by new values

Is percentage difference between the new and the old value of the piston displacement less than 0.0001?

Yes

Call subroutine WP to determine the ballistic properties at the tube head end

Calculate the first estimated values of \( v', \rho', U', P' \) at all the nodal points at time \( t' + \Delta t' \) using (100), (101), (102) and (103) for Case I and corresponding expressions for Case II

Calculate the second estimated values using (108), (109), (110), and (111) for Case I and similar equations for Case II

Average the two estimated values to obtain the final values at time \( t' + \Delta t' \)

Find free stream temperature \( T \) using the equation of state (6)
Interpolate between the base point and the nearest nodal point to determine the properties at the point(s) where finite difference scheme could not be applied.

KP = 2

Burning pressure = \( j_2 \) (average chamber pressure at \( t+\Delta t \) average pressure at \( t \))

Calculate average chamber pressure at \( t+\Delta t \) from the calculated pressures at all points.

Is KP equal to 2? No

Calculate momentum thickness at all the nodal points using (117), (120), (121), and (122) and interpolate the point(s) adjacent to the base point.

Calculate the friction coefficient and the heat transfer coefficient at all points at time \( t'+\Delta t' \) using (59) and (63).

Compute heat loss to the tube wall during the time interval \( \Delta t' \) based on the conditions at time \( t \).

Call subroutine HTW to calculate the wall temperature at time \( t'+\Delta t' \) using the average value of heat transfer coefficient.
Replace the old values of time, piston position, ballistic properties, momentum thickness and heat transfer coefficient by new values.

Has the piston reached the end of the tube?

Yes

Calculate the ballistic efficiency and write the final results.

Stop
Subroutine BP

The purpose of the subroutine is to calculate the ballistic properties at the piston base at time \( t' + \Delta t' \) knowing the properties at all the points at time \( t' \), and the velocity and the position of the piston at time \( t' + \Delta t' \). The following flow diagram should be read along with Figure 3.

1. **Start**
2. Except the velocity at point 2, assume all the properties at point 2 and point X to be same as point 1
3. Determine the position of point X using (124) and calculate the properties at that point by linear interpolation
4. Calculate the mean values of all the coefficients of (125) or (126) in between points 2 and X
5. Calculate the pressure at point 2 using (125) or (126)
6. Determine the mean values of all the coefficients of (127) and (128) in between points 1 and 2
7. Calculate the gas density and the volume fraction of solids at point 2 using (127) and (128)
Replace the old values of the properties at point 2 by the new values.

- Is percentage difference between the old and the new values for the pressure and the gas density at point 2 less than 0.0001?
  - Yes
  - Is difference between the old and the new values of the volume fraction of solid at point 2 less than 0.00001?
    - Yes
    - Calculate the temperature at point 2 from the equation of state (6).
    - Return
  - No
- Return
Subroutine WP

This subroutine is called to calculate the properties at the tube head end at time \( t' + \Delta t \). The logic is same as that for subroutine BP and the flow diagram should also be read along with Figure 3.
Calculate the temperature at point 2 using the equation of state (6)
Subroutine HTW

The purpose of the subroutine is to calculate the wall temperature at a particular station along the length of the tube at time $t+\Delta t$, knowing the temperature distribution at the present time $t$, and the mean heat transfer coefficient $h_m$ over the time interval $\Delta t$. In the following flow diagram, $\Delta t$ is the time step selected in the main program whereas $\Delta \bar{t}$ is the time step selected in accordance with the stability condition for the temperature calculation.

Start

TIMEl=0

Select $\Delta \bar{t}$ from (142) or (143)

Is $\Delta \bar{t}$ less than $(\Delta t-\text{TIMEl})$?

No

Replace $\Delta \bar{t}$ by $(\Delta t-\text{TIMEl})$

Yes

Calculate TNEW(1), i.e. new inner surface temperature after the time interval $\Delta t$ using (139)

K=2

Calculate TNEW(K), i.e. new temperature for subsequent layers using (138)

$ABCD=TNEW(K-1)-TNEW(K)$
ITI - Is A3CD less than 0.1?

Yes

TIM1 = TIM1 + Δt

Replace the old values of the wall temperatures by the calculated values

Yes

Is TIM1 less than Δt?

No

K = K + 1

Return
### APPENDIX IV

**SINGLE SHOT COMPUTER PROGRAM INPUT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>Pressure at which experimental burning rates are input (nt/m(^2))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUR</td>
<td>Burning rate at PR pressure (m/sec)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TUBEL</td>
<td>Tube Length, also reference length (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XNI</td>
<td>Nondimensional projectile starting position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI</td>
<td>Nondimensional axial tube step size</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIAT</td>
<td>Tube diameter (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MASSP</td>
<td>Projectile mass (kg)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PØ</td>
<td>Shot start pressure (nt/m(^2))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TØ</td>
<td>Propellant flame temperature (°K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSP</td>
<td>Ratio of gas specific heats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WM</td>
<td>Propellant molecular weight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETA</td>
<td>Co-volume of gases (m(^3)/kg)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DENS</td>
<td>Propellant solid density (kg/m(^3))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHARØ</td>
<td>Initial propellant mass (kg)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BETAS</td>
<td>Zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEBT</td>
<td>Propellant web thickness (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MN</td>
<td>Gas viscosity at TØ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPG</td>
<td>Specific heat of gas (kcal/kg -°K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CØNG</td>
<td>Thermal conductivity of gas at TØ (kcal/m -sec-°K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>Boundary layer velocity profile parameter, for one seventh profile = 1.2857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbol</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Ludwig - Tillman friction factor parameter $= 0.286$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROUT</td>
<td>Tube outside radius (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIN</td>
<td>Tube inside radius (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DELR</td>
<td>Tube wall radial step size for numerical conduction solution (m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIFFU</td>
<td>Thermal diffusivity of metal ($m^2/sec$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO4DUC</td>
<td>Metal thermal conductivity (kcal/m - sec - °K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAMB</td>
<td>Ambient air temperature (°K)</td>
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<tr>
<td>H0</td>
<td>Heat transfer coefficient for tube outside surface (kcal/m$^2$ - sec)</td>
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<tr>
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All data is to be input in format form to conform with read and format statements as follows. An example is also shown.
READ 199, (PR(IJ)), BUR(IJ), IJ = 1,20
199 FORMAT (4(E12.2, F8.1),)

READ 200, TUBE2, XN, PI, DIAT, MASSP
200 FORMAT (5F16.4)

READ 201, Pφ, Tφ, RSP, WM, ETA
201 FORMAT (E16.3, F16.1, F16.4, F16.2, F16.6)

READ 202, DENS, CHARØ, BETAS, WEBT
202 FORMAT (F10.1, 2F10.3, F10.2)

READ 203, MU, CPG, ÇONG, H, B
203 FORMAT (5F16.7)

READ 204, RØUT, DELR, DIFFU, ÇONDUC, TAMB, HØ
204 FORMAT (6F13.7)

READ 101, UNi(1), UNBI, PRNI(1), PRNB1, DENN1(1),
       DENNB1, TEMNI(1), TEMNBI
101 FORMAT (8F9.2)
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APPENDIX V
SINGLE SHOT COM4PUTER PROGRAM LISTING
DIMENSION U,'lIZý))1)PRt1C2UjlDLENN.1(2j1),TE'sN)1(20I),VFSI(201),p
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AT2E2(01)

RFI*T1(21 I s

6[11(2wl) E2Et2L.l ) L)[P)F1(201) 9UEtF2(201 )[)DEN*2F(201 IPLE.N2F21201 f
DIMENSION I$P(4#5UJJ),TG(4p500)

*

I4C~FJE~.iJb.L IALs--RIAV.
~CDM~t

COKM1ON /Mi3PlvPC/RSP9,ETAL)O
CON4MCN iSIRP eflLD.IipLLR&N I
1HlREfMTI3DE NFl

*DSVi.jMV43lfl1.
INI OF tvj 1 _VFAIor

I

-- M -S

4 6
CONMON /MRAUT/TIMEP(5(UI,1T'.X1(6OO),TWX2(60O),TýX3(6O'fl9TWýX ( OO)9

COMMON /MOP!f./KT
/MHBPw~P/ TO, TEM'-N1 TENlh!

COMMO?,0f

199 FORMATW4E12*29F895fl
n N!ATI riE16.aJW

20a

2Ul FORMAT (E16.3,Fl6.1 ,F16.4,F16.2,F16.6)
2112

FnR m AII F

11) -3

.F

10

F1

71

2U3 FORMATC5Fl6.7)
2D& EnRMATAI

-,,713lL--_______________

RATIO OF SP.HEATSasF6o49/I
MOLECULAR WT-tF6o'-2?H
209 FORMAT(17H
-L-.AE.5k&U H
H
F c=-4 &L&J
.1OHM XN1
E4 1
TUFRI F
210LFORMAT1J.J..k
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MlASSPutF593*13H (6
DIAT=,F5.4,1IHM
I
2_klUH

PRIANflTI

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POxtE8*4923HNEWTON PER 50r4
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K
IfDLU.:aE.1% DE.OC,
1FH CLI.M
2F7*593HSEC/)
...2tE.&IkiCJNFS~u* F6A-4*71 H M
CdAHARGE Eh,.3Az1*21HG
21 O4I112H
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POTENTIALtF1C.2,8H KCAL/KG/
SOLID DENSITYxF7*1*22H KG/CUo.M
1
218 FORMAT124H G.VISCOSITY(REF.TE D):,F8.6,17HKG/Ai-SEC- GJS CPu9F6*4o
CL
3HKCA' M-FC.KSL
a
ZI XAiJCg4L6X--AS-CONJDioE7
METAL CONDv9F8*6*23HKCAL
219 FORAAT(13H 14ETLoDIFFUsF1O.8,2OHSOM/SEC
213 FORV.AT (//10H TIME(ND)BF9*6,15H
IORFst

FlO.A&. I Ni

214 FORMAT
1

MIX

(115H
WNW

SOL aY MASSnF8.6,1411

PII;Tfn% VrliHr~I.FQh.17H

DIST(ND)
FEU10p0

VELINDI
JCWIl&

PRLSS(ND)
RpFYN-fl

AV*PRESS

HFATI

SOL 63Y VOL

GAS D(ND)

NLU
NO

215 FORMAT (7F11*6)
216 FO1~I4ALJIE1i1abJ.EU-2. 2E 1u. I.F1I0..21

101

FORMAT(8F9*2)

77 FORMAT(1c0169
3

PRO.IC.Eus
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BALLISTIC EF~.Ejg.F8*
1F892,20HKCALJ±INPUT F.NERGY:.F8,2s27HI(CAL
220 FORMATWS1iS.)
25U FORMATWH7

READ
READ
READ
READ
READ
READ

200, TuLEL*XN1,PIsDIAT*MASSP
201. PO9TORSPvWM.±Lj.
2U2, DENS9CHARO98L7AS,9dE6T
2039 MUCPG*CONGI4.B
2049 ROUT9DELR*DIFFUCONDUC9TAM~pH0
101,UN1(I),UN81,PRNII1),PRNB1,DENN1(1IDENNB1,TEMN1Ii19TEMNSI

216

'


AREAt=2*CHARO/DENS*WEBT---
N=XN1/P1+U0.0001
AREAP=3.1459*(DIAT**2)/4
RU=RU/WM
UNITV=SSRT(PO/ETA+RU/TO)
TIMEC=TUBEL/UNITV
DENG0=1.((ETA+RU/PO).
VT=AREAP*XN1*TUBEL
VFSl=CHARO/VT-DENG0/DENS-DENG0
DO 500 I=1,N
  500  VFS1(I)=VFSl
  VFSBI=VFSI
  DENS=DENS/DENG0
  ETADO=ETA*DENG0
  TEMS=300.0
  TIBETA=TEM5/BETAS
  RATIA=AREAAB/AREAAP
  HVS=RU/TO/(1RSP-1)*4184.
  RTO=4184.*DENG0*HVS/PO
  CALV=HVS
  RIN=DIAT/2.--
  NN=(ROUT-RIN)/DELR+0.00001
  I=NN+1
DO 251 I=1,201
  DO 251 J=1,50
251 TEMM(I,J)=TAMB
  DO 252 J=1,N
  MTK1(I)=0.
  AATK1(I)=0.
  REMT(I)=0.
  252 H(I,J)=0.
Q=0.
PRNDTL=HVS*CPG/CONG
A=0.123/(11.0**((0.678*H))
BUM1=((I+1)*RIN*UNITV*DENG0)**A
BUM2=2*A*BUM
BUM3=DENG0*CPG/UNITV/((2*PRNDTL**((2./3.1))
BUM4=1.**(A**B)
WRITE(6,217) BUM6
  217 FORMAT (F15.6)
BUM5=DENG0*UNITV*RIN
BUM6=**TUBEL/RIN
BUM7=**TUBEL/(PO*UNITV*RIN)
WRITE(6,211) TUBEL*XN1,PI,DIAT*ASSP,ETA*PRNDTL
WRITE(6,209) WM,RS,
WRITE(6,211) PO, DENG0*TO*UNITV*TIMEC
WRITE(6,212) CHARO*HEAT,DENS,CALV
WRITE(6,213) KU,CPG,CONG,H
WRITE(6,219) DIFFU,CONUC,TAMB
DO 1 IX=2,N
  UN1(IX)=UN1(1)+(UNB1-UN1(1))*(IX-1)/N
  PRN1(IX)=PRN1(1)+(PRN1(1)-PRN1(1))*(IX-1)/N
  DENV1(IX)=DENV1(1)+(DENV1-DENV1(1))*(IX-1)/N
  1 TEMN1(IX)=TEMN1(1)+TEVNU-TEM11(1)+(IX-1)/N
  M=N
  TIME1=0.
  TIMEW=0.
  KT=1
  TIMES=0.2
  IX=0
C  CALCULATION OF AVERAGE CHAMBER PRESSURE AND BURNING RATE
5 PDUMI=PRN1(1)
DO 1 5 = 2, KK
105. PDUM1 = PDUM1 + P111
AVPRN = (PDUM1 * P111) / XN1 - (M - 1) * P111 / XN1
PDUM2 = PDUM2 + P112
DO 1 6 = 3 * M
106. PDUM2 = PDUM2 + P211
AVPRL = (PDUM2 * P211) / XN1 - (M - 1) * P211 / XN1
AVPRN = AVPRN + AVPRL / 2.
DO 107 = 2, KK
107. VDOM1 = VDOM1 + VFS1(1)
TVSV = VDOM1 * P111 * XN1 - (M - 1) * P111
VDOM2 = VFS1(2)
DO 108 = 3 * M
108. VDOM2 = VDOM2 + VFS1(1)
TSVL = VDOM2 * P112 * XN1 - (M - 1) * P112
TSA = (TVSV + TSVL) / 2
PROP = DENS * AREA * PR1 / TVS / CHARO
IF (M .LT. 13) GO TO 79
TG(2, K1) = TEMN1(112) * TO
GO TO 72
73. TG(2, K1) = TEMN1 * TO
72. HP(2, K1) = H1(13)
IF (K1 .LT. 26) GO TO 700.
TG(1, K1) = TEMN1(26) * TO
GO TO 701
700. TG(1, K1) = TEMN1 * TO
701. HP(1, K1) = H1(26)
TIMEP(K1) = TIME1 * TIMEC
IF (M .LT. 81) GO TO 702.
TG(3, K1) = TEMN1(81) * TO
GO TO 703.
702. TG(3, K1) = TEMN1 * TO
703. HP(3, K1) = H1(81)
IF (M .LT. 142) GO TO 705.
TG(4, K1) = TEMN1(142) * TO
GO TO 706
705. TG(4, K1) = TEMN1 * TO
706. HP(4, K1) = H1(142)
TVX1(K1) = TEMM1(161)
TVX2(K1) = TEMM1(261)
TVX3(K1) = TEMM1(51)
TVX4(K1) = TEMM1(101)
IF (TIME1 .LT. TIMES) 564, 561, 561
IK = IK + 1
TIMESP(1K) = TIME1 * TIMEC
DO 623 IJ = 1, 51
TIM(1K, 1J) = TEMM1(261, 1J)
623. XWM(IJ) = (IJ - 1) * 0.02
JM(1K) = IJ
TIMES = TIMES + 0.2
560. IF (TIME1 .LT. TIMES) 370, 371, 371
371 WRITE(6, 213) TIME1, PROPP, AVPRN, UNB1, QT
PRINT 216
DO 90 IX = 1, M, 5
X = (1 - 1) * PI
DM(1) = VFS1(11) * DENNS + (1 - VFS1(11)) * DENNL(11)
IF (IX .EQ. 1) GO TO 89
WRITE(6, 216) X, UN1(1), PRN1(1), VFS1(11), DENN1(11), DM1(11)
1 TEMN1(11), AVTK(1), REMT(1), H1(11), TEMM1(11, 1)
GO TO 90
89 WRITE(6, 215) 1, UN1(1), PRN1(1), VFS1(11), DENN1(11), DM1(11),
ITEM111X11
9 L CONTINUE
DM111*VFS11*DENM1*(1-VFS11)*DENH11
WRITE(6,219) YN1,YN2,PRN1,VFS11,DENH11,DM1,TEMN1
TIME=TIME+J25
C SELECTION OF NEW TIME INCREMENT
37J DO 32 1=1,2
DM111=RTHF(I)*2*DM1+DM111*(DM111+DM111)
DENH111=RTVF(I)*DENH111*(DENH111+DENH111)
DENH(I)=RTVF(I)*DENH111*(DENH111+DENH111)
CALL COEF(PR1111),DENH111,VFS111,DM111,CI111,DI111,DUM1,DUM2,
IF(set)
2 UNCAR11=UN111+SQRT((1/DM111))
CALL COEF(PR1111),DENH111,VFS111,DM111,CI111,DI111,DUM1,DUM2,c111
UNCAR1=UN111+SQRT((1/DM111))
UNMAX=UNCAR11
30 12 J=2,4
IF (UNMAX-UNCAP111,12,12
11 UNMAX=UNCAR11
12 CONTINUE
IF (UNMAX-UNCAP111,13,14
13 UNMAX=UNCAR11
14 DTM=PI/UNMAX
15 TMT=DMTUBE/UNITV
KP=1
AVPR1=AVPR1+PO
AVPR2=AVPR1
123 AVPR=(AVPR1+AVPR2)/2
DO 17 IJ=1,24
IF (AVPR(PR1111),18,18
17 CONTINUE
18 BURD=BURD(IJ-11+BURD(IJ-111)*AVPR-PR1111)/(PP1111-
PR111)
BURD=BURD/UNITV
IF (TSV<=.1) GO TO 360
DSV=TSV**2*BURD/TVSV
GO TO 361
360 DSV=...`
C CALCULATION OF NEW PISTON POSITION, ITS VELOCITY AND GAS PROPS AT BASE
361 ACCL=PO*PRH1*AREAP/MASS
DELS=UN111*UNITV**DT*ACCL**(DT**2/2).
DELS=DELS/TUBE
6 XN2=YN1+DELS
UN2=UN111+ACCL**TUBE/UNITV
CALL B0*(PB+DELS*EU+VSB)
PNEW=PRB1+B1/2
ACP=X*PO*PRH1*AREAP/MASS
X=UN111*UNITV**DT*ACNF**(DT**2/2)*TUBE
IF (ABS(DONE-DELS)/DELS)<.0001)20,20,25
25 DELSN=ONE.
ACCL=ACNEW
To TO 6
24 XN2=YN1+DELS
UN2=UN111+ACNF*DT/UNITV
PNB2=PS
DENNB2=DEB
TEMN2=TEB
VFSB=VSB
C CALCULATION OF GAS PROPERTIES AT TUBE HEAD END
UN2111=0.
CALL VPRN2111,DEN2111,TEMN2111,VFS2111
C CALCULATION FOR INTERIOR POINTS START
U2E111=UN1111-DTN*UN1111*(UN1112-UN1111)/PI-DTN*(PR1112-PRP1111)/219
C

COMPUTATION OF HEAT LOSS IN TIME DELTA

IF (1.0 EQ.1) GO TO 1001
IF (1.0 EQ.0) GO TO 1002.
Q1=2.0*3.14159*RIN*PI*TUBEL*H1(1)*(TO*TEMNL1(1)-TEMP(1,1))*DT
GO TO 1003
1000 Q1=2.0*3.14159*RIN*PI*TUBEL*(1.5*PI*TUBEL)*H1(2)*(TO*TEMNL1(2)-TEMP(1,2))*DT
GO TO 1003
1001 Q1=2.0*3.14159*RIN*TUBEL*(0.5*PI*(XN1-J*PI11))*H1(1)*(TO*TEMNL1(1)-
TEMNL1(1,1))*DT
GO TO 1003
1002 Q1=0.0.
1003 Q1=Q1+Q1.
IF (1.0 EQ.1) GO TO 400.
CALL HTVI(1)

C
REINITIALISATION
TIME1=TIME1+DELTA
KT=KT+1
XN1=XN2
UNB1=UNB2
PRN1=PRN2
DENN1=DENN2
VFS1=VFS2
TEMN1=TEMN2
DO 96 1=1,K
UNI(1X1)=UN2(1X1)
PRN1(1X1)=PRN2(1X1)
DENN1(1X1)=DENN2(1X1)
VFS1(1X1)=VFS2(1X1)
MTK1(1X1)=MTK2(1X1)
96 TEMNL1(1X1)TEMNL2(1X1)
DO 53 I=2,M
53 H1(I)=H2(I)
IF (XN1-1,1) 57,7,7
7 WRITE(A,213) TIME1,PROP,AVPRN,UNB1,QT
PRINT 214
   DO 91 1=1,K+5
   X=(1X1-1)*PI
   DM1(1X1)=VFS1(1X1)*DENN1+1-VFS1(1X1)*DENN1(1X1)
   IF (1X1,1,1) GO TO 88
   WRITE(A,216) X,UNI(1X1),PRN1(1X1),VFS1(1X1),DENN1(1X1),DM1(1X1)
   ITEMNL1(1X1),AMTK1(1X1),REM1(1X1),HEL(1X1),TEMNL1(1X1)
   GO TO 91
86 WRITE(A,215) X,UNI(1X1),PRN1(1X1),VFS1(1X1),DENN1(1X1),DM1(1X1),
ITEMNL1(1X1)
91 CONTINUE
DM1=VFS1*DENN1+1-VFS1*DENN1
WRITE(A,215) XN1,UNB1,PRN1,VFS1,DENN1,DM1,TEMN1
TG(2,KT)=TEMNL1(139370)
HP(2,KT)=HI(133)
TIMEP(KT)=TIME1*TIMEC
SUBROUTINE COEF(PR, DEN, VFS, B, C, D, G, H, E)
COMMON /HCOEF/DENNS, THETA, RTAV
COMMON /MBPWPC/RSP, ETA0
DEN = DEN + VFS + DENNS + VFS
ENS = PRE*(1 - ETA0) / DENNS
ENG = RSP*(DENNS*ENG - ETA0*VFS)*TBETA
Z = (1 - VFS3*(1 - ETA0)*DENNS - RSP - ETA0*DENNS*ENG - ETA0 - RTAV) / (DENNS - ETA0)
G = DEN / (1 - VFS)*B
H = (RSP - 1)*DENNS*ENG/(ENG - RTAV)/(1 - VFS)*RSP*PRE
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE UP(PR, DEN, TEM, VSH)
COMMON /MBPWPC/RSP, ETA0
COMMON /MBPPW/DTN, PRNP1, PRNP1(201), UN1(201), DEN1(201), VFS1(201), DSV, MBPW1, MBPW1(201), TEM1(201), TEM1(201), VFS1(201)
COMMON /MBP/PRNP1, DENNP1, UNB1, UNB2, XN1, XN2, VFSB1
COMMON /MBPR/KT
COMMON /MBPPW/TO, TEMN1(201), TEMM1(201, 51)
PR2 = PRNP1
DEN2 = DENNP1
VFS2 = VFSB1
CALL COEF(PR2, DEN2, VFS2, d2, c2, d2, g2, h2, e2)
CALL COEF(PRNP1, DENNP1, VFSB1, hr1, cbl, DB1, GB1, HB1, FB1)
SB1 = VFSB1*(1 - VFSB1)/DENNP1
TB1 = DB1/DENNP1
PRX = PRNP1
DENX = DENNP1
UX = UNB1
VX = VFSB1
DX = DB1
BX = RB1
CX = CB1
FX = FB1
5 DAV = (D2 + DX)/2
BAV = (B2 + BX)/2
AV = (UNB2 + UX)/2
IF (KT.EQ.1) GO TO 50
IF (KT.GT.1) GO TO 52
50 PRX = 1.
DENX=1,
UX=0,
VSX=VS501
SKIN=0.
GO TO 3.

52 UXN=(UAV+sqrt((BAV/DAV))))*DTN
...XRN=XXN-UXN
I=XXN/PI
.J=XXN/PI.
IF(I*E)J GO TO 6
IF(I*GT.1) GO TO 7

6 PRX=PRN1(J+1)*(PRN1(J+1)+1)*(XXN-J*PI)/(XXN-J*PI)
.DENX=DLNN1(J+1)*(DENNN1-DENNN1(J+4))*(XXN-J*PI)/(XXN-J*PI)
UX=UN1(J+1)*(UN1(J+1)+1)*(XXN-J*PI)/(XXN-J*PI)
VSX=VFS1(J+1)+VFS1(J+1)*(XXN-J*PI)/(XXN-J*PI)
JJ=J+1
H1=H1(J+1)
I=I+1
TJ=TEM1(J+1)
IF(REM(J)=LE.0) GO TO 30
SKIN=DENF1(J)*1NO(J)*2)+1RFAMLJ**2B
GO TO 8.

10 SKIN=0.
GO TO 8.

7 PRX=PRN1(J+1)+(PRN1(J+1)-PRN1(J+1))*1NO-J*PI)/PI
.DENX=DENN1(J+1)+(DENN1(J+2)-DENN1(J+4))*(XXN-J*PI)/(XXN-J*PI)
UX=UN1(J+1)+(UN1(J+2)-UN1(J+1))*(XXN-J*PI)/(XXN-J*PI)
VSX=VFS1(J+1)+(VFS1(J+2)-VFS1(J+1))*(XXN-J*PI)/(XXN-J*PI)
JJ=J+2
H1=H1(J+2)
I=I+1
TJ=TEM1(J+1)
IF(REM(J)=LE.0) GO TO 40
SKIN=DENF1(J)*1NO(J)*2)+1RFAMLJ**2B
GO TO 8.

40 SKIN=0.
CALL COEF(PRX, DENX, VSX, AX, DX, DUM1, DUM2, FX1)
DAV=12+DX+1/2
BAV=(L2+BX)/2
UX=UN+2+UX+1/2
FAX=FX+2F1/2
COEAV=1CX+C2)*(VSX+VFSd1)*DSV/4
PRNNEW=PRX-DAVSORT(DAV/DAV)*1NO-BUX+DTN*COEAV-XTN*EAV-BUMTH1B
1TO*TB-TW)*DTN*BUMH*EAV*AVSORT(DAV/DAV)*SKIN
.SAV=GLdG1+G21/2
.DCOE1=H1+DSV+VFS81
.DCOE2=H2+DSV+VFS81
.DCOEAV=(DCOE1+DCOE2)/2
.DENNEW=DENNB1*GAV1, LPRNEW=PRNB1+DTN*DCOEA
.S2=VS2*(1-VS2)/DEN2
T2=D2/DEN2
R=S1*(S1+1)/2
.TAV=DSV*(TB1+VFSB1+T21+VFSB1)/2
.VFSNEW=VFSB1+SAV*(DENNEW-DENNB1-TAV)*DTN
IF(VFSNEW=LE.0) VFSNEW=0.
1FT(IABS*PRNEX-PR2/PR1)-UJU0110,10,15
10 IF(IABS*DENNNEW-DE2/DE1)-0,1000100,10,15
11 IF(IABS*VFSNEW-VS2)-0,10U112,12,15
15 PR2*PRNEW
.DEN2=DENNEW
.VS2=VFSNEW
CALL COEF(PR2, DEN2, VS2, B2, C2, D2, G2, H2, E2)
GO TO 5.

224
6. PR2=PRNEW
   DEN2=DLNNEW
   VS2=VFSNEW
   CAL1.COEF(PR2,DEN2,VS2,H2,C2,D2,G2,H2,E2)
   GO TO 11
8. PR2=PRNEW
   DEN2=DLNNEW
   T22=PR2*(1-ETADO*Den2)/(Den2*(1-ETADO))
   VFS2=VFSNEW
   RETURN

END

SUBROUTINE HTM711
DIMENSION TENT(51)
COMMON /MUT/INL,RTL*ROUT,DELT*DIEU,CONDU,:I,HO*TAMB,DL
COMMON /MHPWP/TOTEM(2,1),TEM1(2,1),TEM2(20,1)
HINNER=0
TIM1=0
DT1=(DELT**2.)/(2.*DIEU*(HO*DEL./CONDU+1.-DELT/(2.*ROUT)))
DT2=(DELT**2.)/(2.*DIEU*(HO*DEL./CONDU+1.-DELT/(2.*ROUT)))
DI*T=DI*T
IF(DTT=DT2)5,5,6
6. DI*T=DT2
5. IF(DTT=(DT-TIM1))15,15,16
16. DI*T=DT-TIM1
15. CHNT=2.*DIEU*DTT/(DELT**2.)
   TNEW(1)=1.-CHNT*DEL/TENT(1,1)+DEL/(2.*RIN1)*TEM1(1,1)+
   CHNT*DEL/TENT(1,2)*TEM1(1,2)
   TEM1(1,K)=TNEW(1,K)+CHNT*(0.5+DEL/(4.*(RIN+K-1)*DEL))
   TEM1(1,K+1)=TNEW(1,K+1)+CHNT*(0.5+DEL/(4.*(RIN+K-1)*DEL))
   A*BCD=TNEW(K-1)-TNEW(K)
   IF (ABCD .LT. 0.1) GO TO 8
   K=K+1
   IF(K.GT.NN) GO TO 8
   GO TO 10
8. TIM1=TIM1+DI*T
17. TIM1=TIM2
10. DO 7 M=1,K
7. TEM1(1,M)=TNEW(M)
APPENDIX VI

REPETITIVE FIRE COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING

This program requires input, from the single shot program, of heat transfer coefficient (HP) and gas temperature (TG) as a function of time after propellant ignition (TIMEP) at a particular x location. It calculates barrel temperatures at that x location as a function of time for repeated firings assuming HP and TG are the same for each cycle. A cyclic time of 0.060 second is taken. All units are in the metric system (meter, kilograms, seconds, kilocalorie, °Kelvin)

```
2* DIMENSION A4(16)/3.1942,6.3159,9.4099,12.576,15.7136,18,15191,21
3* 1.99861,2.1300,2.6952,1.40917,3.8,5.58953,7,6888,40.9328733,43.9687
4* 41.47,10875,50.24981/
5* END
6* DIMENSION AA(5301)
7* Conw0, ZL/ AAN+AN+CONDC+HO+DELRC
8* DIMENSION A1(5000), A2(5000), A3(10,301), A4(10)
9* DIMENSION A4(20,301)
10* REA2 300 ROUT, DELC, DIFFU, CONDC+HO*KMAX
11* 300 FORMAT(6,12,6*15)
12* TAV3=300
13* LNY=1
14* 1 DO 2 I=1,L
15* 2 TENV(I)=TAMB
16* JK=1
17* 4 DO 3 J=1,KMAX
18* 3 CONTINUE
19* JK=JK+1
20* IF (JK .EQ. 2) GO TO 4
21* 22 IPI=1
22* 23 TIME1=0
23* K0=1
24* KE=1
25* KR=1
26* 27 KI=1
27* 28 KP=1
28* 9 IF (K,6,E,KMAX) GO TO 100
29* 30 IF (K0,6,E,K) GO TO 41
30* IF (KR,6,E,K) GO TO 202
31* 32 A1(K0)=TENV(I)
32* 33 A2(K0)=TIME1
33* 34 K0=K0+1
34* 35 HI=(HP(K)+HP(K+1))/2.
36* 36 DT=TIMEP(KT+1)-TIMEP(KT)
37* 1000 TIME1=0
38* DT1=(DEL1+2,)/(2,DIFFU(HI+DEL1/CONDC+1,DEL1/(2,RIN))
39* DT2=(DEL1+2,)/(2,DIFFU(HO+DEL1/CONDC+1,DEL1/(2,ROUT))
40* DT=DT1
41* IF (ITJ=ITJ+15,5,6)
42* 6 DT=DTJ2
43* 5 IF (ITJ .EQ. 15) ITJ=15,16,16
44* 45 DT=DTJ2
45* 15 CHNT=(DTK=1,2,)/DEL1+2,)
46* 10 TME(1)=(1-CHNT*TME(1)+DEL1/CONDC+1,DEL1/(2,RIN))/TME(1)+1
47* 1CHNT*TME(1)+DEL1/CONDC+1,DEL1/(2,RIN)*TME(1)+1
48* K=2
49* 10 TME(K)=(1-CHNT)*TME(K)+CHNT*DEL1/(4*RIN+(K-1)*DEL1))
```

227
SUBROUTINE RUN(3, A*)
COMMON/RL/ AAT
AA=2F,(7.*180.)
AAE= 7979/SQRT(3)
A=1./((3+3)
AA=6/(5.296*(3)+5)*AB)
AAE=AAE+(AAH+AAF*AA)
AAJ=AAE/(AAH-AAF*AAH)
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE CMC(Z)
COMMON /RL/A
G=0.
I=1.
E=1.

IF (ABS(F), LT, 0.00001) GO TO 2
J=J+1
3=G*J(J+2)
E=E+1./J)
G=G+F
30 TO 1
2:=(2+0.22.)*((5.57721+ALOG(C/2.))+6)
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE WVC(C)
COMMON /RL/G
J=1
G=1.

IF (A3S(F), LT, 0.00001) GO TO 2
J=J+1
D=D*J(J+2)
G=G+F
30 TO 1
2 RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE TAI(TEMMP, A, AAC, AAD)
COMMON /YL/ AAK
COMMON /RL/ AZ
SINEVISION TEMP(301), AAK(301)
30 TO 10 J=1*301
3=A*TEMPP(J)/0.015
IF (G .LT. 6) GO TO 20
CALL WVC(3, AY)
90 GO TO 30
20 CALL WVC(3)
10 CALL CMC(3, AY)
30 AAK(J):=AZ/AAC-AAY/AXD
10 CONTINUE
RETURN
END
ITEM4: K+1)*CHNT+{0.5=DELR/(4.*RIN+(K-1)*DELR)}*TEM4(K-1)

ABC=NEW(K-1)-NEW(K)

IF (ABC < LT, 0.1) GO TO 8

K=K+1

IF (K<ST, NN) GO TO 80

GO TO 10

80: NEW(K)=1.-CHNT-(50*DELR/CONDC+1.-DELR/(2.*ROUT)))*TEM4(K)+CHNT

100: EL=TAH/CONDC+CHNT+(1.-DELR/(2.*ROUT)))*TEM4(K-1)

8: TIME2=TIME1+DT

TIME1=TIME1

IF (NEW(1) .NE. TF4) GO TO 912

KP=KP+1

IF (KP = NE, 3) GO TO 912

APR=TEM4(1)

A(2)=TEM4(1)

A2(2)=TIME1+TIME2-DT

K=K+1

IF (IPT .NE. 1+KE) GO TO 912

DO 913 KE=1,L

A3(K+1)=TEM4(LK)

700 CONTINUE

710: A(K)=TIME1+TIME2-DT

720: KE=KE+1

730: DO 7 4=1,K

740: 7 TEM4(4)=TEM4(4)

750: IF (TIME2 .LT. DT) GO TO 5

760: KT=KT+1

770: KR=KR+1

780: TIME1=TIME1+DT

790: GO TO 9

800: 100: WRITE (6,90) APR

820: TGAF=CTW4(K13)

830: DO 896 K=1,L

840: R(IK)=LM(K+1)=DELR+RIN

850: TEM4(LK)=TEM4(LK)=300.

860: DO 996 KE=1,L

870: AAP(KY, LK)=0.

990 CONTINUE

989: TIME2=0.06*IPT-TIME1

900: AAS=DIFFU/(10.015**2)

910: DO 221 KZ=1,16

920: TIME3=TIME2/3.

930: TIME4=TIME3

940: AAM=0.

950: BA=ABA(KZ)

960: IF (IPT .NE. 1) GO TO 20

970: CALL PADA(R+BA,TEM4,KZ)

980: CALL JADA_R(TW4,KZ)

990: AAR=(3A+2)*AAS

1000: DO 995 KY=1,L

1010: AAT=AAM*EXP(-AAR*TIME3)

1020: DO 997 KE=1,L

1030: AAP(KY,J)=AAP(KY,J)+AAN(KZ,J)*AAT

1040 CONTINUE

1050: TIME3=TIME3+TIME4

1060 CONTINUE

1070 CONTINUE

1080: DO 999 K=1,L

1090: IF (AAP(KY, J) .LT. 0.) GO TO 112

1100: BPK=-AAP(KY, J)

1110: GO TO 113

1120: BPK=0.

1130: AAP(KY, J)=AAP(KY, J)+100.*BPK

1140: AAP(KY, J)=TIME1+KY*TIME4

1150: KD=KD+1
5 DO 10 J=1,301
10 B=AE(TEM(J))/A301
16 AAE=7.979/SORT(3)
19 AAF=1.0/(B#B)
20 AAG=0.1*(57.296*(3)-45)*AAB
21 AAI=0.1*(57.296*(3)+45)*AAB
22 AAM=AAE*(AAG+AAF*AAG)
23 AAR=AAE*(AAG-AAF*AAG)
25 1C CONTINUE
26 1 AAL=(TEM(301)**2/2)*AAM(301)**2*J+10*(HO#015)/(COND*A1)**2-
27 I TEM(1)**2/2)*AAM(1)**2)
28 20 DO 30 J=1,301
25 2 AAR(KZ,J)=AAM(J)/SORT(AAL)
30 3n CONTINUE
31 RETURN
32 END

1 SUBROUTINE DATA(TEM,SIGMA,KZ)
2 COMMON/ZL/AAM,AAN,COND,H0,DELR
3 DIMENSION TEM(301),SIGMA(301),AAN(2,301),AAA(301)
4 DO 10 J=1,301
5 1 AAM(J)=TEM(J)*AAN(KZ,J)*SIGMA(J)
6 1n CONTINUE
7 AAM=1.0/2)*(AAA(1)+AAA(301))
8 20 DO 30 J=2,300
9 AAM=AAM+AAM(J)
10 2n CONTINUE
11 AAM=DELR*AAM
12 90 FORMAT(1H-2E10,4)
13 RETURN
14 END


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This study models the combustion, solid propellant movement, gas dynamics, projectile dynamics, transient boundary layer, heat transfer, and barrel metal temperatures in a gun barrel. This is accomplished by rigorous development of the coupled partial differential equations and carrying out a detailed numerical solution to these equations. Comparison of barrel temperature solutions to experimental data is shown. Erosion mechanisms are discussed in the light of these solutions. This model is then used to study hypotheses concerning the heat transfer, temperature, and erosion effects of submicron size solid particle additives (TiO₂) to gun propellants. A mechanism not previously studied offers excellent theoretical results in explaining the reduced erosion.
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Gun Barrel Heat Transfer

Gun Barrel Erosion