

Development of a gaseous detonation driven hypervelocity launcher

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ABSTRACT

The concept of using gaseous detonation waves to generate high-pressure propellant for a single-stage gas gun is investigated theoretically and experimentally. The advantage of this approach (in contrast to conventional light gas guns) is that the resulting launcher is inexpensive to construct and simple to operate, yet is capable of achieving velocities in excess of 3 km/s. Theoretical internal ballistics methods have been developed for the optimization of gas gun systems. A prototype detonation driven gas gun system has been developed. Performance of the gun system is optimized by formulating the detonable mixture to use as propellant, with fuel rich hydrogen/oxygen or helium-diluted hydrogen/oxygen appearing the most promising. All the parameters of the launcher design are explored using a quasi-one-dimensional Euler code to model the internal ballistics. Experimental implementation of the concept is performed with a 1.27-cm-inner-diameter (ID), 1.83-m barrel driven by the detonable gas mixture contained in a 1-m-long, 3.2-cm-ID driver. Velocities of 2.7 km/s are demonstrated with 2.5-g projectiles.

ABRÉGÉ

Le concept de l'utilisation d'ondes de détonation gazeuses dans le but de générer un combustible à haute pression pour un pistolet à gaz à stade unique est exploré théoriquement et expérimentalement. L'avantage de cette approche (en comparaison avec les pistolets conventionnels à gaz léger) est que le propulseur qui en résulte est peu coûteux à construire et simple à opérer, tout en étant capable d'obtenir des vitesses en excédent de 3 km/s. Des méthodes basées sur la balistique théorique interne ont été développées pour l'optimisation des systèmes de pistolets à gaz. Un prototype de système de pistolet à gaz actionné par détonation a été développé. La performance du système de pistolet à gaz est optimisée en formulant la mixture explosive à utiliser comme combustible, avec l'hydrogène/oxygène riche en hydrogène, ou l'hydrogène/oxygène dilué avec de l'hélium, apparaissant comme les plus prometteuses. Tous les paramètres dans la conception du propulseur sont explorés en utilisant un code d'Euler quasi-dimensionnel afin de modéliser la balistique interne. L'implémentation expérimentale du concept est exécutée avec un canon de 1,27 cm de diamètre interne et de 1,83 m de longueur, actionné par une mixture gazeuse contenue dans une chambre de 1 m de longueur et de 3,2 cm de diamètre interne. Des vitesses de 2,7 km/s sont démontrées avec des projectiles de 2,5 g.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Guns capable of reaching velocities of 3 km/s with multi-gram projectiles are usually limited to two-stage light gas guns or very high performance powder guns. These types of launchers are expensive due to the high tolerances required and large dynamic pressures generated. In this work, an inexpensive gaseous-detonation driven launcher is developed that has the potential of reaching velocities in excess of 3 km/s. Since the device does not have a pump tube, as in a two-stage gas gun, the chamber can be fabricated from readily available, low tolerance pipe (mechanical tube). Readily available gases can be used for propellant (hydrogen/oxygen/ helium), eliminating the need to store and handle powdered propellant. The resulting facility can be fabricated and assembled for less than \$1,000 US, although additional precautions are necessary due to the handling of high pressure detonable gas.

Traditionally, guns use a solid propellant charge that is ignited via a smaller primer charge. Figure 1–1 is a schematic of a conventional powder (solid propellant) gun labelling all the components of a gun system. The charge is contained inside the chamber and is loaded via the breech, a mechanical opening that allows access to the chamber. The gun represented here has chambrage, a greater chamber internal diameter d_o than barrel internal diameter (or projectile diameter) d_p . The primer,

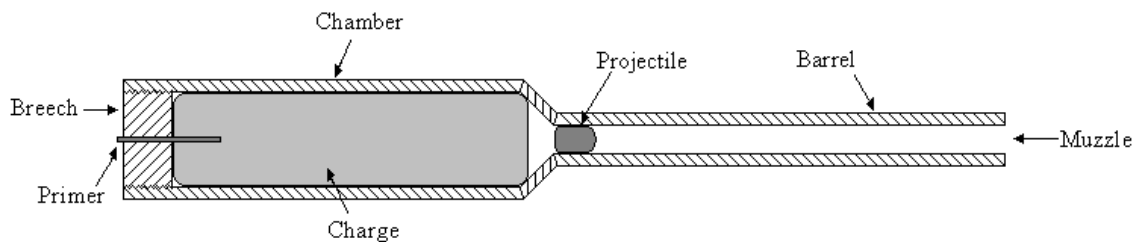


Figure 1–1: Schematic of a conventional powder gun

composed of a more sensitive propellant than the charge, is inserted into the charge, usually from the rear. The primer is ignited either through a heat source, as in a fuse for an ancient gun, or an impact, as in a firing pin for a modern gun. Once ignited, the propellant charge begins to burn producing gas, which raises the pressure in the chamber and accelerates the projectile down the barrel towards the muzzle. The rate at which gas is generated can be controlled by the choice of propellant and/or the geometry of the individual grains of propellant [4]. The pressure profile on the base of the projectile is qualitatively presented in figure 1–2 for a projectile starting at $x_p = 0$ and leaving the barrel at $x_p = x_{muz}$. It can be seen that the peak pressure occurs at some point downstream of the initial location of the projectile. The drawback of the solid propellant gun is that the propellant gas tends to have a much lower sound speed than is attainable by light gas guns. It will be shown in this work that one of the major factors contributing to high gun performance is the initial sound speed of the propellant.

In order to obtain higher initial sound speeds light gases are used as propellants. In the case of an ideal gas sound speed is given by

$$a = \sqrt{\gamma \frac{\bar{R}}{M} T} \quad (1.1)$$

where a is the sound speed, γ is the ratio of specific heats C_p/C_v , \bar{R} is the universal gas constant, M is the molar mass of the gas and T is the temperature of the gas. Since the propellant gases of a conventional powder gun contains H_2O , CO_2 , and nitrogen oxides, all relatively heavy gases, it can be seen that light gases, such as He and H_2 , have the potential of out performing these propellants. The simplest gun configuration for utilizing H_2 and He as propellants is the single stage light gas gun. Figure 1–3 is a schematic of a single stage light gas gun. Here the conventional breech has been removed and a gas handling system is connected to the chamber. The projectile is isolated from the chamber by a diaphragm. Once the desired chamber pressure is

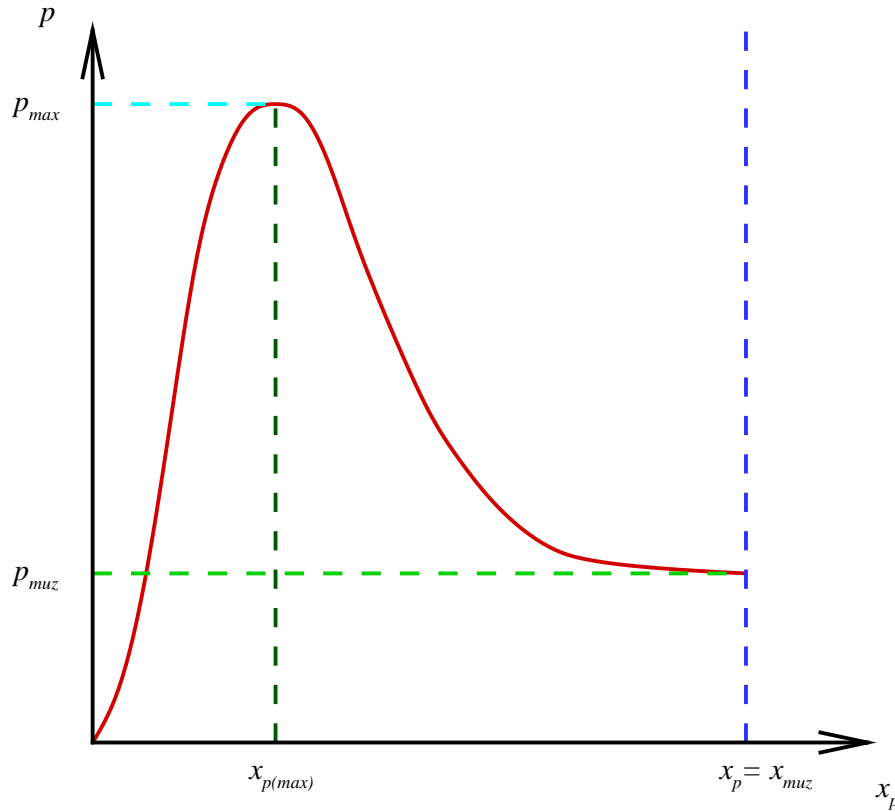


Figure 1-2: Projectile base pressure, p , as a function of projectile position, x_p , for a conventional powder gun

reached the diaphragm is ruptured and the projectile begins to accelerate. For this type of gun system the peak pressure on the projectile is the initial fill pressure and the relationship between the projectile base pressure and the projectile position is qualitatively represented by figure 1-4. It can be seen that the projectile base pressure drops quite quickly as the projectile accelerates. Whereas, it can be seen from figure 1-2, with proper propellant design, that the base pressure can be more easily

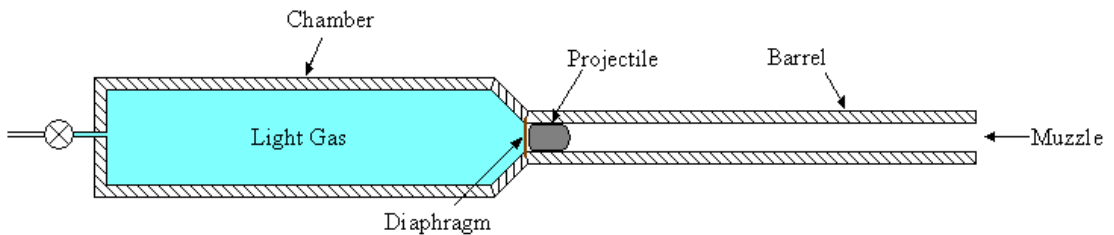


Figure 1-3: Schematic of a single stage light gas gun

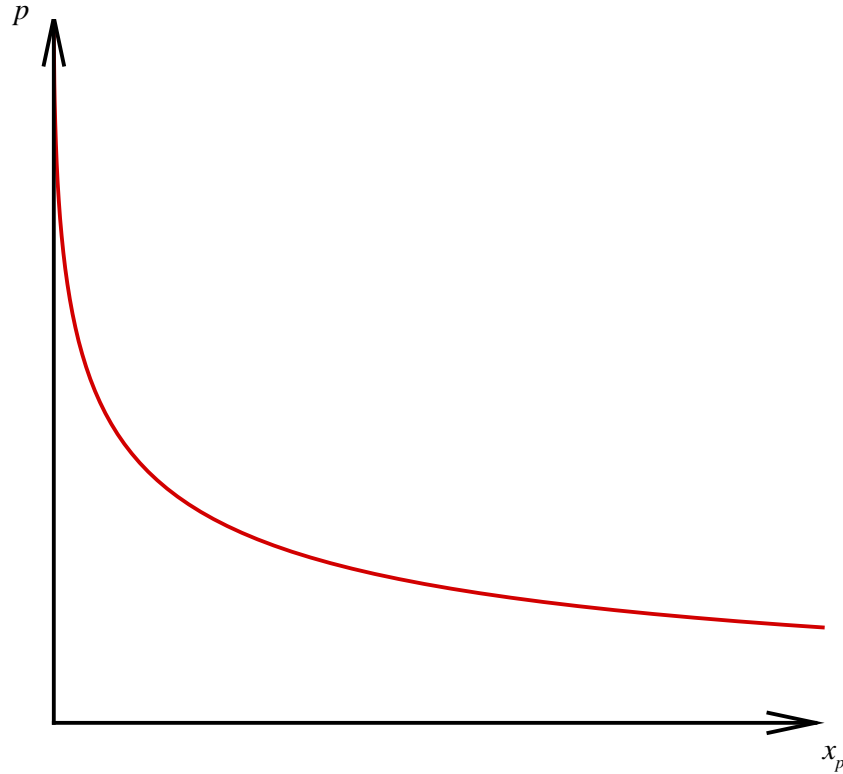


Figure 1–4: Projectile base pressure, p , as a function of projectile position, x_p , for a single stage light gas gun

controlled. Moreover, higher initial pressures are achievable by using a conventional powder gun. Furthermore, it can be seen from equation 1.1 that the initial sound speed, a_o , is a function of initial temperature, T_o . For this type of gun system raising this initial temperature can be achieved by using an external heat source, but this is inefficient and limited in the maximum gas temperature achievable, whereas powder gun propellants burn at much higher temperatures. Thus high performance powder guns can out perform the single stage light gas gun; however, the simplicity of the single stage light gas gun makes it the optimal choice for experimental work requiring projectile velocities within its performance range.

In order to utilize light gas propellants more efficiently, two stage light gas guns have been developed. A schematic of this type of gun system is presented in figure 1–5. This system is essentially a conventional powder gun, the first stage, combined with a light gas gun, the second stage. It works by accelerating a piston, with the

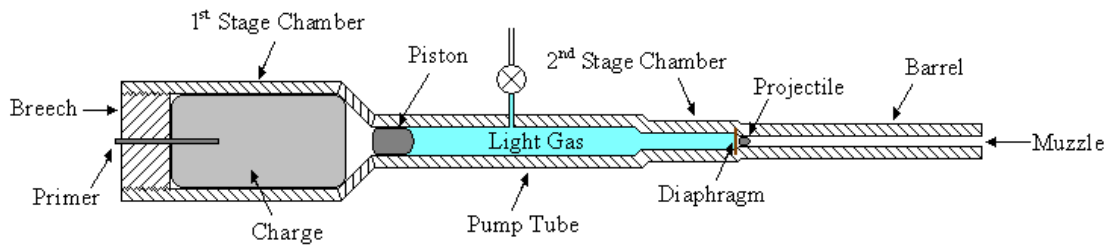


Figure 1–5: Schematic of a two stage light gas gun

products of the powder gun, in a pump tube, which increase both the temperature (and as a result, sound speed) and pressure of the light gas. These systems are very high performing but the projectile masses are quite light when compared to the size of the gun system. Furthermore, these gun systems are expensive to both build and operate. Therefore, it is desirable to design a gun system that can out perform a single stage light gas gun while maintaining its simplicity. To achieve this, the concept of a gaseous detonation driven gas gun is explored.

The concept of using a gaseous detonation as the propellant for a gas gun was suggested by [11], although no experiments were performed and the propellant selected (ethylene/oxygen/nitrogen) was limited in predicted performance to velocities of about 2.5 km/s. A unique facility was developed by [12], in which a 0.5-m-diameter, 110-m-long tube was pressurized at up to 15 atm with hydrogen/oxygen ($4\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$). Detonation in this mixture impacted on a 9.1-kg, gyro-stabilized disk (0.5-m in diameter and 6-mm thick), which was then accelerated down a 50-m-long evacuated section of tube. Velocities of 3.5 km/s were demonstrated, and the facility was used to successfully shock-synthesize diamond upon impact against carbon-rich iron targets. Finally, a Virginia-based company (Utron, Inc. [7]), claims to have developed a combustion light gas gun with muzzle velocities in excess of 4 km/s, although technical details or supporting data have yet to appear.

Figure 1–6 shows a schematic of the detonation driven gun operational process. During a launch the barrel is evacuated while the combustible mixture fills the driver

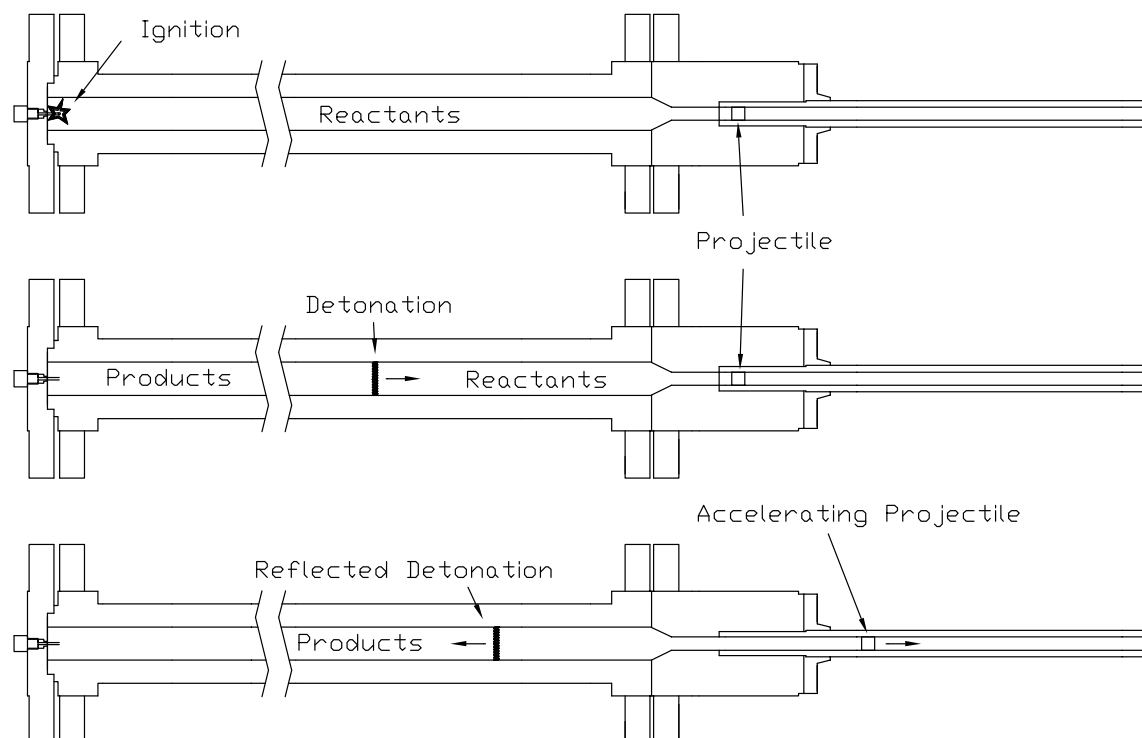


Figure 1-6: Launcher operation schematic

section using a partial pressure mixing method. Once filled and sealed off, the gases are left to mix in the driver for an additional 15 minutes. So far only stoichiometric mixtures of hydrogen and oxygen have been tested. The mixture is then ignited using a weak ignition source (model rocket match igniter) causing a detonation to propagate in the driver. The detonation products propel the projectile towards the muzzle as the reflected detonation travels back towards the breech.

In this work, the concept of the gaseous detonation-driven gas gun is further developed, with particular attention paid to optimizing the detonable mixture composition for increased velocity. Classical internal ballistics methods are explored and reworked with an emphasis on their applications to gun design optimization. A quasi-one-dimensional Eulerian CFD code is used for internal ballistics calculations. A prototype facility is constructed and tested, and the experimental performance is compared to theoretical predictions.

CHAPTER 2

Internal Ballistic Theory

In this chapter, different internal ballistic theories are investigated. These theories are developed in such a way to aid in the process of design and performance optimization. The internal ballistic problem to be investigated is that for a pre-burned propellant ideal gas (PPIG) gun. This assumes that all the propellant is burned and reaches a final state before the projectile begins to move. It will be seen that this problem is multi-dimensional and that the parameters affecting ballistic performance are often interconnected.

2.1 The Lagrange Gradient

The Lagrange Gradient is a zeroth order method used to determine the internal ballistics of a gun system. This method gives an analytical solution to the internal ballistics problem while incorporating such complexities as solid propellant geometries and burn times [4]. The drawbacks of this technique is that it only gives a good agreement with experiment for low m_g/m_p (mass of gas/mass of projectile) systems [1]. However, it is worth exploring due to its simplicity and its ability to qualitatively aid in understanding the factors that contribute to the internal ballistics problem.

This derivation for the Lagrange Gradient approximation has been included in appendix A; however, the solution for projectile velocity, u_p , for the case of a PPIG is shown here:

$$u_p(x_p) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \frac{m_g}{m_p}\right)} \frac{2A_p x_o \bar{p}_o}{m_p(\gamma - 1)} \left[1 - \left(\frac{x_o}{x_p + x_o}\right)^{(\gamma-1)}\right]} \quad (2.1)$$

where x_p is the position of the projectile in the barrel, x_o is the chamber length, \bar{p}_o is

the initial average chamber pressure, A_p is the cross-sectional area of the projectile (and chamber since this applies to a constant diameter gun) and γ is the specific heat ratio c_p/c_v . Recalling the sound speed for an ideal gas, given by equation 2.2, equation 2.1 can be non-dimensionalized to further explore the internal ballistics behaviour of gun systems.

$$a_o = \sqrt{\gamma \frac{p_o}{\rho_o}} \quad (2.2)$$

If the mass of the gas is

$$m_g = \rho_o V = \rho_o A x_o \quad (2.3)$$

then equation 2.1 becomes

$$u_p(x_p) = a_o \sqrt{\frac{m_g}{m_p \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \frac{m_g}{m_p}\right)} \frac{2}{\gamma(\gamma-1)} \left[1 - \left(\frac{x_o}{x_p + x_o}\right)^{(\gamma-1)}\right]} \quad (2.4)$$

Introducing the following non-dimensional variables

$$M_r \equiv \frac{m_g}{m_p} \quad (2.5)$$

$$\varphi \equiv \frac{x}{x_o} \quad (2.6)$$

Using these non-dimensional variables equation 2.4 can be simplified as

$$u_p(\varphi) = a_o \sqrt{2 \frac{M_r}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{3} M_r\right)} \frac{1}{\gamma(\gamma-1)} \left[1 - \left(\frac{1}{\varphi + 1}\right)^{(\gamma-1)}\right]} \quad (2.7)$$

This is a useful result because the velocity is purely a function of non-dimensional position φ , mass ratio m_g/m_p , initial sound speed a_o and specific heat ratio γ . Each

of these parameters can then be qualitatively analyzed for their effect on projectile velocity.

Equation 2.7 can be split into

$$u_p(\varphi) = \sqrt{2}a_o f(M_r)g(\gamma, \varphi) \quad (2.8)$$

Looking at $f(M_r)$ and taking the limit as M_r goes to infinity it can be shown that:

$$\lim_{M_r \rightarrow \infty} f(M_r) = \lim_{M_r \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{M_r}{(1 + \frac{1}{3}M_r)}} = \sqrt{3} \quad (2.9)$$

For practical reasons, large values of M_r are not physically attainable; therefore, M_r is more a function of design restrictions and has a maximum realistic value within these design restrictions (these design restrictions will be discussed in more details later). Therefore, it is more important to be able to see how quickly $f(M_r)$ approaches $\sqrt{3}$. This is shown in figure 2-1.

In order to determine the effects of γ , the $g(\gamma, \varphi)$ function can be examined. From equation 2.7, $g(\gamma, \varphi)$ takes the form:

$$g(\gamma, \varphi) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\gamma(\gamma - 1)} \left(1 - \left(\frac{1}{\varphi + 1} \right)^{(\gamma - 1)} \right)} \quad (2.10)$$

Since $g(\gamma, \varphi)$ is a multivariable function, the easiest way to explore it is by plotting equation 2.10 for specific γ 's. These plots are shown in figure 2-2.

It can be seen, when choosing between gases of equal sound speed, that there is a significant benefit to a gas with a lower γ . However, to obtain a $\gamma < 1.1$ is very difficult to achieve while maintaining a high sound speed [6]. Later in this thesis a more thorough analysis of potential driver gases will be undertaken using NASA's equilibrium code CEA [6].

From this exploration of the Lagrange Gradient model, it has been determined that four factors determine the performance of a constant diameter PPIG gun. These

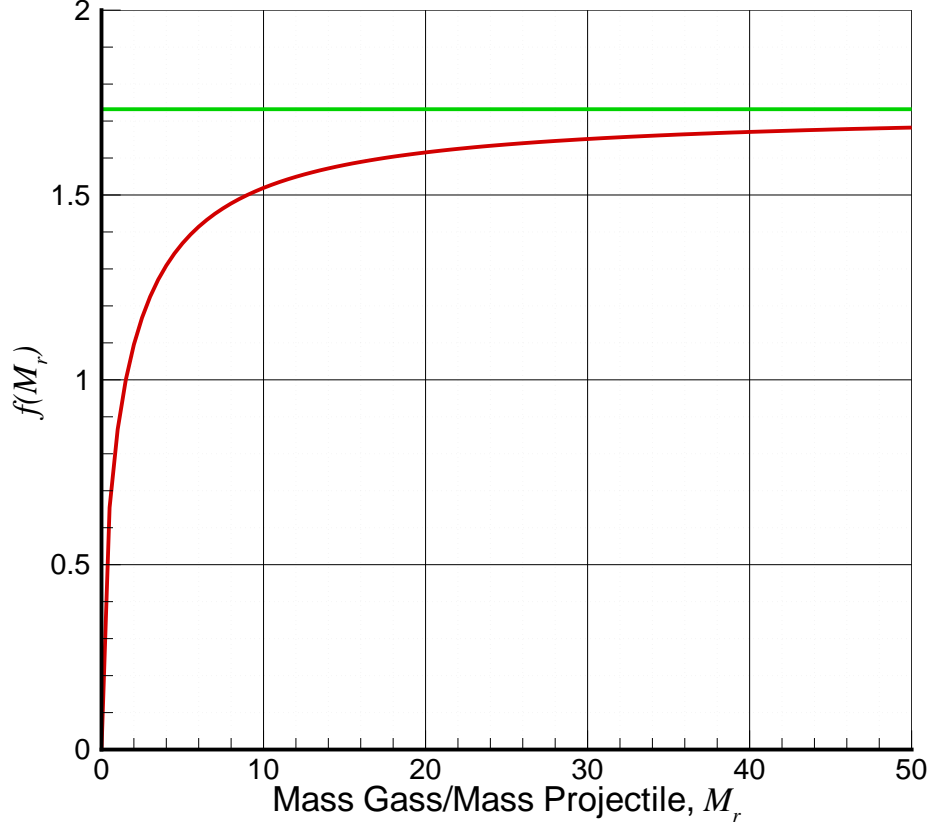


Figure 2-1: $f(M_r)$ vs. M_r

factors are the mass ratio, $M_r = m_g/m_p$, initial speed of sound, a_o , initial specific heat ratio, $\gamma = c_p/c_v$, and non-dimensional position of the projectile in the barrel, $\varphi = x/x_o$ (i.e. barrel length). Now that these factors have been identified, a general understanding of what role they take in the internal ballistics process is required.

First it has been shown that a large M_r produces better performance than a low M_r . This is because a lighter projectile will accelerate faster than a heavier one for a fixed amount of gas. Conversely, for a fixed projectile mass, a large mass of gas implies a greater overall internal energy in the system. Furthermore, it can be seen from the analysis of $f(M_r)$ that by increasing M_r of the gas by increasing the length of the chamber, x_o , there are diminishing returns. In other words, gas added further and further from the projectile will have less and less of an effect on the projectile. Thus, when approaching $x_o = \infty$, the gas will not have any influence on

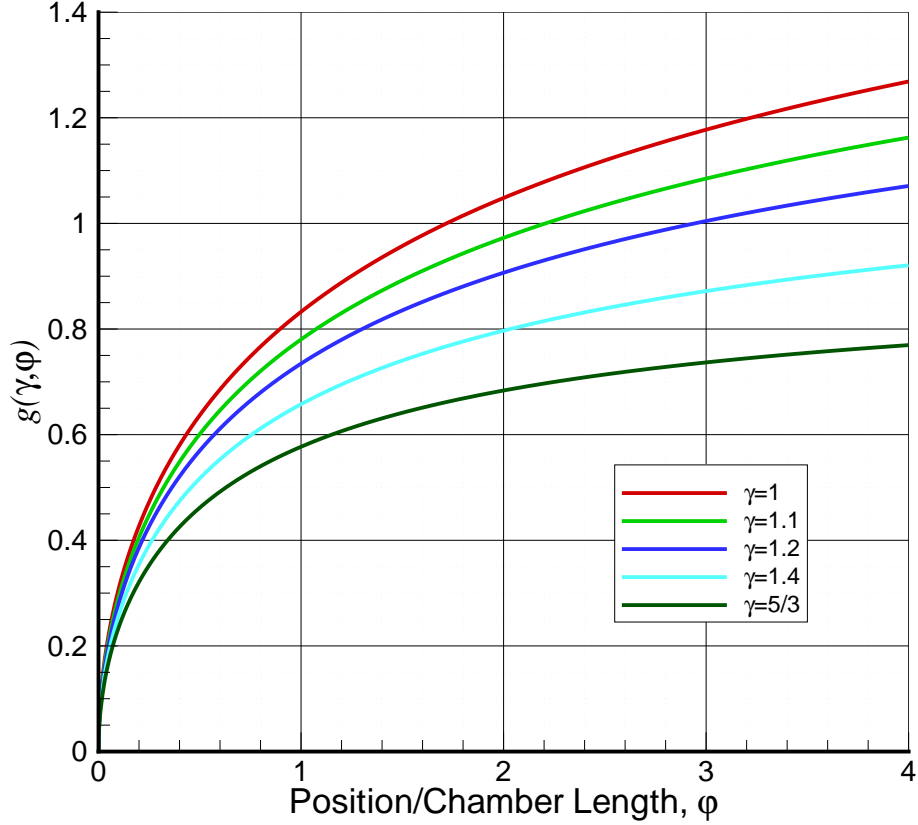


Figure 2-2: $g(\gamma, \phi)$ vs. ϕ for various γ

the projectile. It will be shown later that this effective $x_o = \infty$ can occur at very short chamber lengths depending on the initial state of the system.

Now looking at a_o , the sound speed of a gas is what determines how quickly information is transferred through the gas; the derivation of a disturbance travelling in a gas is included in appendix B. Therefore, for a high a_o , gas that is far from the projectile will have more influence on it earlier in the internal ballistics process resulting in a lower pressure decrease on the projectile as it accelerates down the barrel. It will be shown later that when wave processes are taken into consideration, the effects of the speed of sound become even more pronounced.

The specific heat ratio, γ can be a measure of the ability of a gas to store internal energy. The lower the γ for a gas the more internal energy this gas is able to store. Therefore, as the projectile travels down the barrel and the gas cools, this internal energy is released slowing this cooling process and maintaining a higher base

pressure on the projectile. From figure 2–2 it was seen that the larger φ , the more prevalent is this effect. Now, with a better understanding of these variables, more complicated internal ballistics methods can be investigated.

2.2 Simple Wave Gun

The definition of a simple wave PPIG is a gun system without chambrage that has an effectively infinite chamber length, as shown in figure 2–3. In a gun system, when the projectile starts to accelerate, rarefaction waves communicate this information upstream towards the breech end of the chamber. This rarefaction wave tells the gas to move towards the projectile to fill the void left by the projectile. In the next increment of time the projectile will be moving even faster so another rarefaction wave starts to travel towards the breech to tell the gas to move even faster to fill this new void. Once the first rarefaction reaches the breech, the volume of gas next to the breech cannot leave contact with the breech wall, thus this first rarefaction wave reflects off the breech and starts to travel back downstream towards the projectile, communicating to the gas that the end wall condition requires it to decelerate. Figure 2–4 shows these wave processes. Eventually this rarefaction wave can catch the projectile, depending on the initial sound speed and barrel length, lowering the base pressure that is pushing it. Furthermore, each subsequent rarefaction wave reduces the base pressure even more at which point the gun can no longer be considered to have an infinitely long chamber. However, the region mapped out on an $x - t$

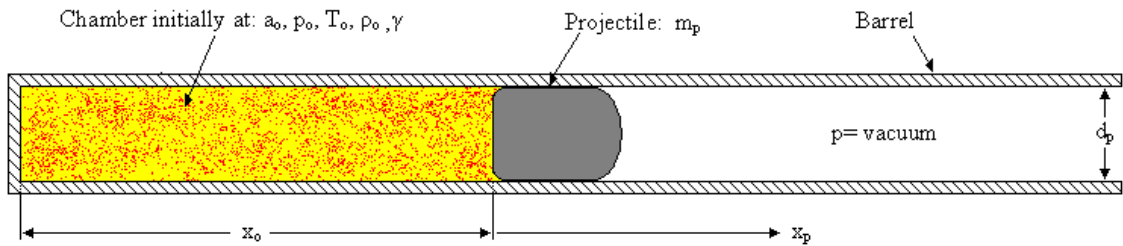


Figure 2–3: Constant diameter PPIG gun

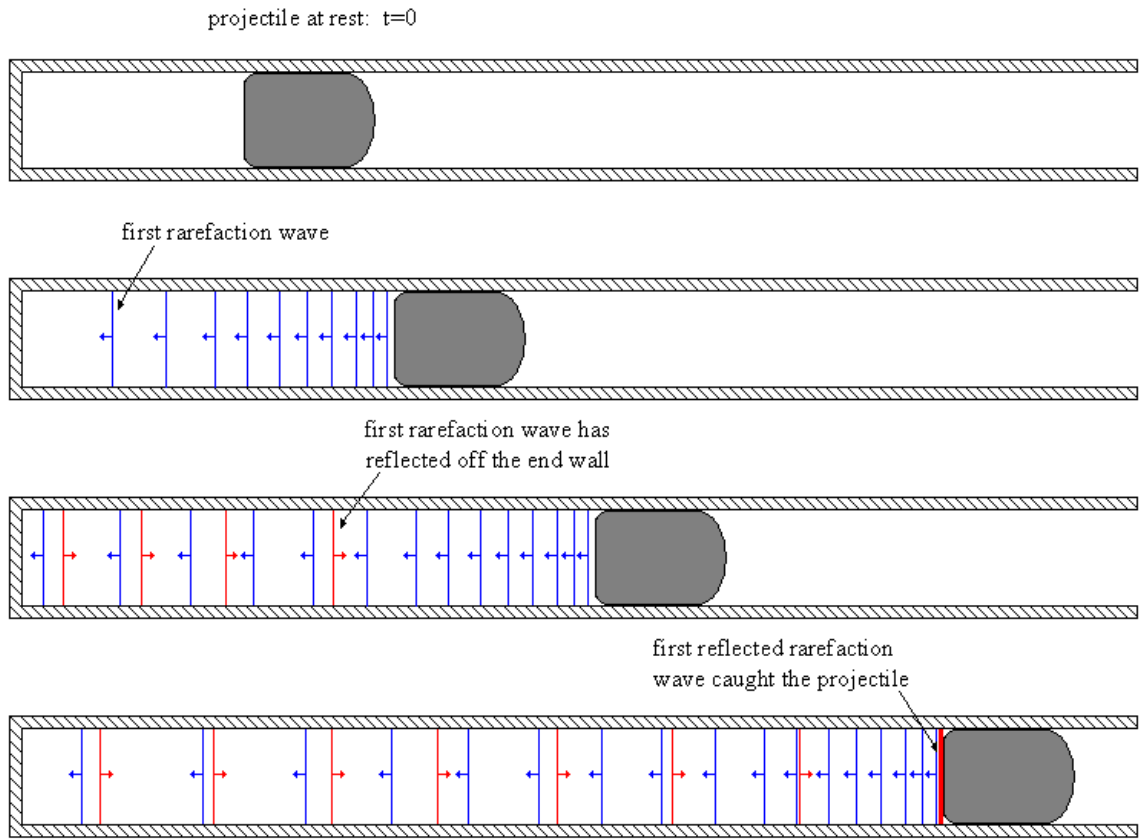


Figure 2-4: Wave processes in a constant diameter PPIG gun

diagram, as shown in figure 2-5, by the projectile path and the path of the first rarefaction is referred to as the Simple Wave Region; therefore, a PPIG gun system with an effectively infinite chamber length is considered, if it has no chambrage, a Simple Wave Gun.

The reason that SWPPIG is of interest is because once the first rarefaction reaches the projectile, increasing the barrel length beyond this point results in a more greatly diminished performance. Figure 2-6 shows this case. The SWG solution is an extremely useful design tool since it is an exact analytical solution from which many design criteria can be derived. Furthermore, these tools can still apply to chambered gun systems which must otherwise be analyzed computationally to get accurate performance predictions. However, it will be shown later that there are methods of approximating a chambered PPIG gun that has an effectively infinitely long chamber by knowing the performance of the corresponding SWPPIG gun.

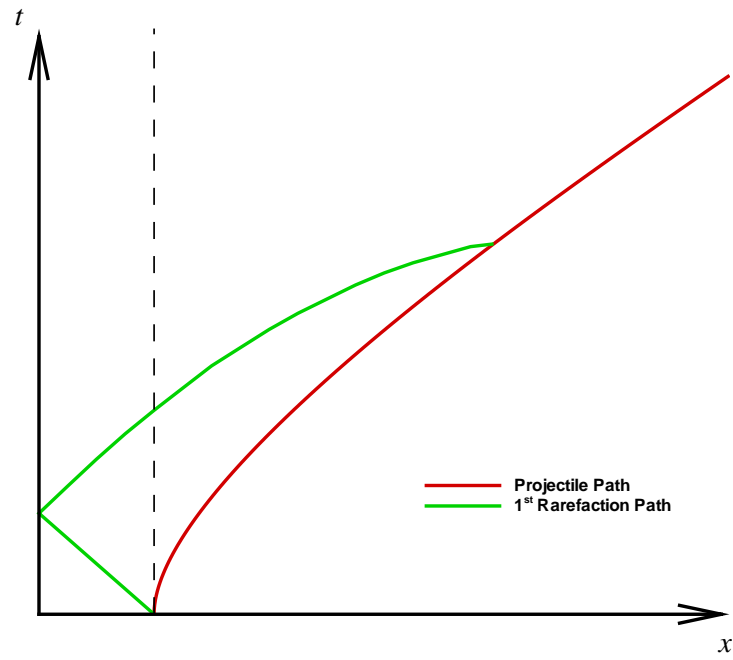


Figure 2-5: $x-t$ diagram showing the paths of the projectile and the first rarefaction wave

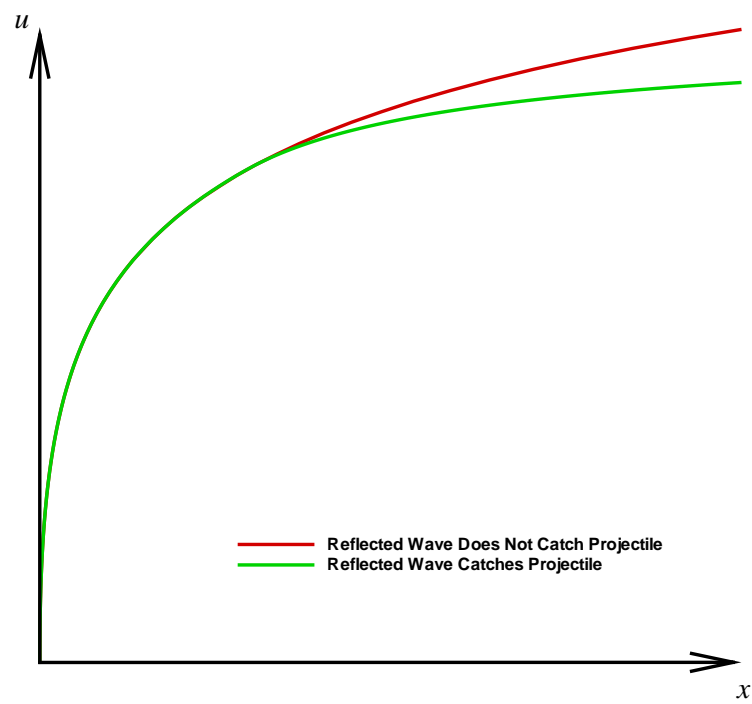


Figure 2-6: Infinite chamber length gun compared to a finite chamber length gun with the same initial conditions

The derivation of the simple wave gun is presented in appendix B; however, to follow will be detailed analysis of the resulting equation and the individual parameters that affect this solution. The solution for the simple wave gun is given in equation 2.11.

$$x_p = \frac{2m_p a_o^2}{Ap_o(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{\gamma-1} - \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o} u_p \right]}{\left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o} u_p \right]^{\frac{\gamma+1}{(\gamma-1)}}} + 1 \right\} \quad (2.11)$$

This can be non-dimensionalized in the form

$$\xi = \frac{2}{(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{\gamma-1} - \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2} \psi \right]}{\left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2} \psi \right]^{\frac{\gamma+1}{(\gamma-1)}}} + 1 \right\} \quad (2.12)$$

where ξ and ψ are defined as

$$\xi \equiv \frac{Ap_o x_p}{m_p a_o^2} \quad (2.13)$$

$$\psi \equiv \frac{u_p}{a_o} \quad (2.14)$$

Using equations 2.11 and 2.12, u_p and ψ can be solved numerically using a root solving algorithm. However, u_p and ψ can easily be solved implicitly by plotting equation 2.11 or 2.12. This has been done here for equation 2.12, which is valid for all SWPPIGs, using select values of γ and shown in figure 2-7. This is a convenient form of the solution since all the possible SWPPIGs can be mapped on a three-dimensional surface. However, by non-dimensionalizing the solution the intricacies of the design problem are lost. Returning to equation 2.11 and rewriting it in the form

$$\frac{Ap_o x_p}{m_p a_o^2} = \frac{2}{(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{\gamma-1} - \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o} u_p \right]}{\left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o} u_p \right]^{\frac{\gamma+1}{(\gamma-1)}}} + 1 \right\} \quad (2.15)$$

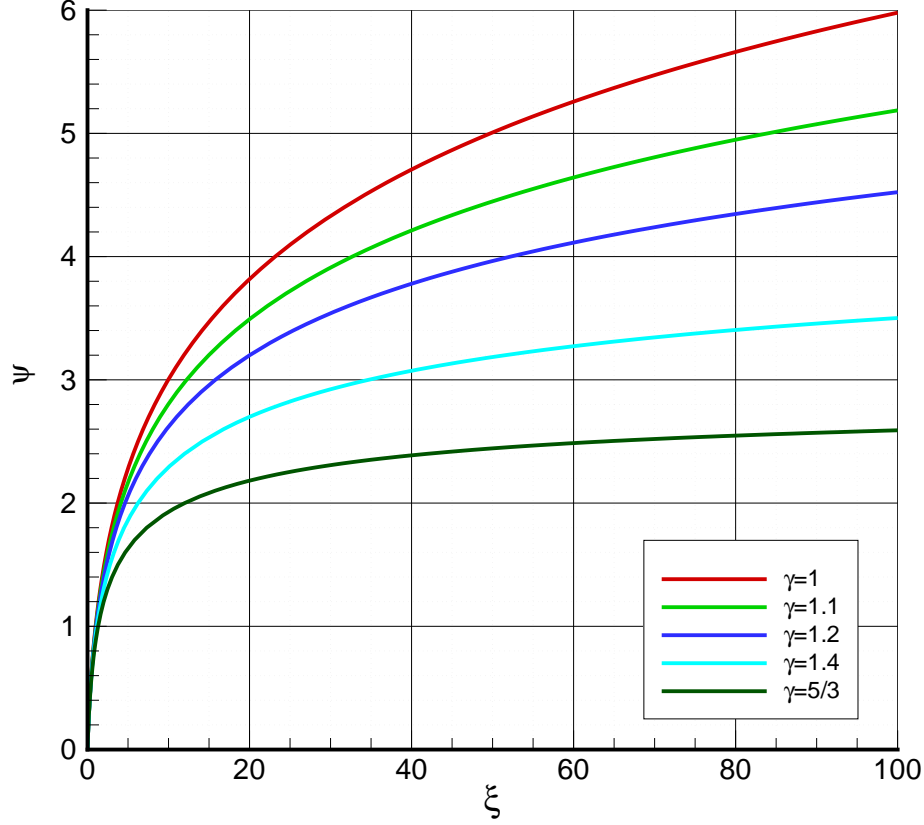


Figure 2-7: SWPPIG solutions for equation 2.12 for various values of γ

it can be rewritten in a 4 non-dimensional variable form that includes the classical variable M_r . Using the knowledge gain from examining the Lagrange gradient this new form of the equation allows a better understanding of what the maximum realistic gun performances are attainable for a SWPPIG.

Now by examining the left hand side of equation 2.15 using the definition of the speed of sound given by equation 2.2 and introducing the diameter of the projectile defined as d_p

$$\frac{Ap_o x_p}{m_p a_o^2} = \frac{d_p}{d_p} \frac{Ap_o x_p}{m_p} \frac{\rho_o}{\gamma p_o} = \frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{m_g}{m_p} \frac{x_p}{d_p} \quad (2.16)$$

Inserting equation 2.16 back into equation 2.15, a non-dimensional form can be obtained

$$\zeta = \frac{2\gamma}{M_r(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{\gamma-1} - \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2} \psi \right]}{\left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2} \psi \right]^{\frac{\gamma+1}{(\gamma-1)}}} + 1 \right\} \quad (2.17)$$

where the new non-dimensional length is defined as

$$\zeta \equiv \frac{x_p}{d_p} \quad (2.18)$$

From equation 2.17 it can be seen that some of the physicality of the design problem has been re-introduced in the form of M_r and ζ without losing the generality of a non-dimensional system. However, due to the four dimensions of the equation the solution space can no longer be represented by a single graph. However, by grouping M_r and ζ together, equation 2.17 can be plotted on a single graph as shown in figure 2-8.

The drawback of equation 2.17 is that, even though it introduces some of the physicality of the problem, there is no way of understanding how each of the design variables affects the performance of a real PPIG gun system. For a conventional gun system which uses a solid propellant powder charge, M_r is a useful tool because it is easy to measure solid propellants in terms of mass; however, for gas phase propellants the mass is obtained by measuring other factors (such as pressure and temperature for an ideal gas). It is much easier to design a PPIG using physical parameters that can be readily measured. Therefore a new system of parameters needs to be developed. By again returning to equation 2.11 and rewriting it in the form

$$\frac{Ap_o x_p}{m_p} = \frac{2a_o^2}{(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{\gamma-1} - \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o} u_p \right]}{\left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o} u_p \right]^{\frac{\gamma+1}{(\gamma-1)}}} + 1 \right\} \quad (2.19)$$

it can be shown that the left side of this equation is only a function of the mechanical characteristics of the gun system. The gas dynamic effects are thus separated from

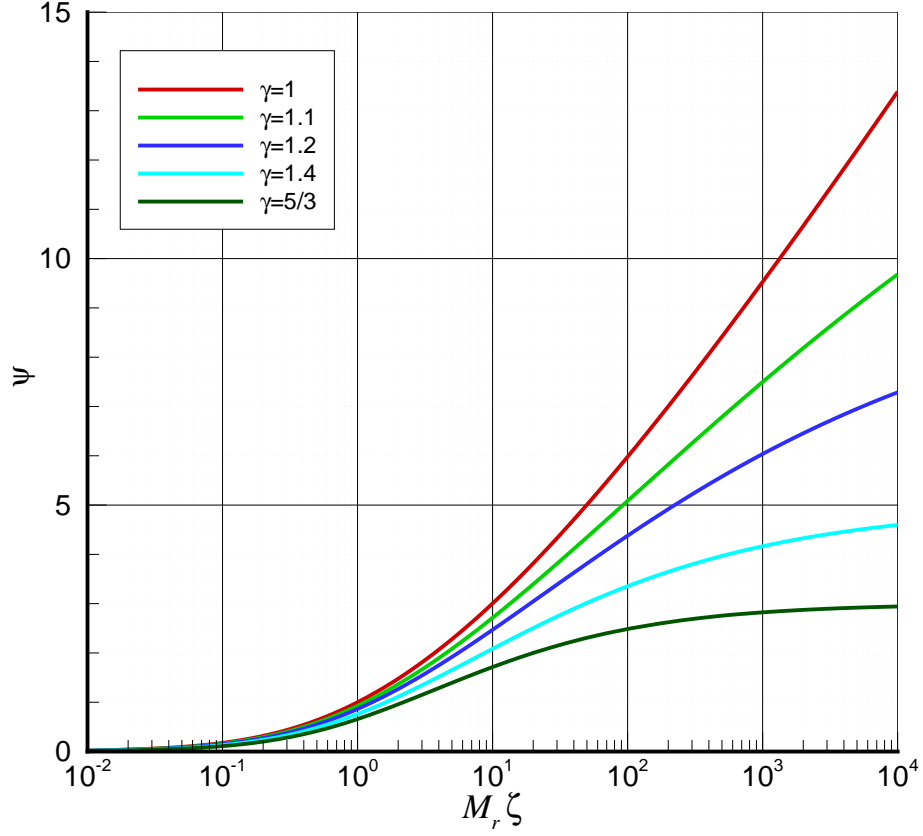


Figure 2-8: SWPPIG solutions for equation 2.17 for various values of γ

the mechanical effects which was impossible to do with equation 2.12 and not easily done with equation 2.17.

Introducing the new variables

p_{max} the maximum pressure that the gun system can safely operate under

l_p the effective length of the projectile

ρ_p the density of the projectile

and recalling the mass of the projectile is $m_p = \rho_p A l_p$ and examining the left hand side of equation 2.15 the following is obtained

$$\frac{A p_o x_p}{m_p} = \frac{p_{max} d_p}{p_{max} d_p} \frac{A p_o x_p}{\rho_p A l_p} = \frac{p_o}{p_{max}} \frac{p_{max}}{\rho_p} \frac{d_p}{l_p} \frac{x_p}{d_p} \quad (2.20)$$

Introducing the mechanical factor, M_f which is defined as

$$M_f \equiv \frac{p_{max}}{\rho_p} \frac{d_p}{l_p} \quad (2.21)$$

Thus M_f is a function of the following ratios

$$S_r \equiv \frac{p_{max}}{\rho_p} = \frac{\text{maximum pressure}}{\text{projectile density}}$$

which relates the strength of the gun system to the density of the projectile and has units of pl^3/m .

$$A_r \equiv \frac{l_p}{d_p} = \frac{\text{projectile length}}{\text{projectile diameter}}$$

which is the aspect ratio between the projectile diameter and projectile length. Furthermore the pressure ratio is defined as

$$P_r \equiv \frac{p_o}{p_{max}} = \frac{\text{initial pressure}}{\text{maximum pressure}}$$

which relates the initial pressure to the maximum design pressure. This ratio typically has values between 0 and 1. Values above 1 risk damage to the gun system and/or the projectile.

The non-dimensional position is defined as

$$\zeta \equiv \frac{x_p}{d_p} = \frac{\text{projectile position}}{\text{projectile diameter}}$$

which is the distance traveled in the barrel measured in projectile calibers.

The substitution of M_f , ζ and P_r into equation 2.19 gives

$$P_r M_f \zeta = \frac{p_o}{p_{max}} \frac{p_{max}}{\rho_p} \frac{d_p}{l_p} \frac{x_p}{d_p} = \frac{2a_o^2}{(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{\gamma-1} - \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o} u_p \right]}{\left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o} u_p \right]^{\frac{\gamma+1}{(\gamma-1)}}} + 1 \right\} \quad (2.22)$$

with u_p as a function of six variables (four non-dimensional and two dimensional); however, in the case of maximizing the performance of a gun, equation 2.22 can be reduced to a function of three variables, a_o , γ and u_p , due to the fact that A_r , S_r , ζ and P_r all have maximum realistic values. However, there is one more parameter that needs to be addressed before the SWPPIG gun can be thoroughly investigated. The question that remains to be asked is for what initial chamber length x_o does a given gun system retain an effectively infinitely long chamber?

It was presented by [1] that, for chamber length x_o , the velocity at the location where the first reflected wave catches the projectile is given as

$$\frac{Ap_o x_o}{m_p a_o^2} = \frac{2}{(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \left[1 - \frac{(\gamma - 1)}{2a_o} u_{1st} \right]^{-\frac{(\gamma+1)}{2(\gamma-1)}} - 1 \right\} \quad (2.23)$$

which in terms of M_f , ζ and P_r becomes

$$\zeta_o = \frac{2a_o^2}{P_r M_f (\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \left[1 - \frac{(\gamma - 1)}{2a_o} u_{1st} \right]^{-\frac{(\gamma+1)}{2(\gamma-1)}} - 1 \right\} \quad (2.24)$$

This equation gives the chamber length, in terms of projectile diameter, that is required for a gun system to remain a SWPPIG assuming that the projectile leaves the barrel at the instant the first reflected rarefaction catches it. Equation 2.24 is in terms of the muzzle velocity, pressure ratio, mechanical factor, initial sound speed and specific heat ratio.

Alternatively equation 2.24 can be solved for u_{1st} which gives

$$u_{1st} = \frac{2a_o}{(\gamma - 1)} \left\{ 1 - \left[\frac{\gamma + 1}{2a_o^2} P_r M_f \zeta_o + 1 \right]^{-\frac{2(\gamma-1)}{(\gamma+1)}} \right\} \quad (2.25)$$

This equation gives the velocity of the projectile at the instant that the first reflected rarefaction wave catches it in terms of the chamber length in calibers, the initial speed of sound, the initial specific heat ratio, and the Mechanical factor of the gun system.

Both equation 2.24 and equation 2.25 help a ballistician by approaching the design problem from different angles. Equation 2.24 determines what chamber length required to achieve a desired velocity for a given initial speed of sound, initial specific heat ratio, and mechanical factor of the gun system. This is useful when the size of the gun system is not an issue. However, if the gun system size (ζ_o) is a design factor then the initial speed of sound, the initial specific heat ratio, and the mechanical factor of the gun system are now what must be optimized in order to obtain the desired muzzle velocity given by equation 2.25.

The missing element of the above analysis is the consideration of what is the location of the projectile when the first rarefaction wave reaches the projectile. To determine this, equation 2.25 can be substituted for u_p in equation 2.22 to obtain the ζ position where the first reflection reaches the projectile as a function of M_f , a_o , γ and ζ_o :

$$\zeta_{1st} = \frac{2a_o^2}{M_f(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{\gamma-1} - \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \left[\frac{\gamma+1}{2a_o^2} P_r M_f \zeta_o + 1 \right]^{-\frac{2(\gamma-1)}{(\gamma+1)}}}{\left[\frac{\gamma+1}{2a_o^2} P_r M_f \zeta_o + 1 \right]^{-2}} + 1 \right\} \quad (2.26)$$

Thus equation 2.26 can be used in conjunction with equation 2.24 and equation 2.25 as tools in the gun optimization process. To follow will be the optimization of

the simple wave gun using real physical data.

2.2.1 The Optimization of the SWPPIG Gun System

In the previous section the equations that describe the operation of the simple wave gun were derived and the problem has been determined to be a function of the gun, the projectile and the propellant, where

$$\text{gun} = f(\zeta, \zeta_o, S_r, P_r)$$

$$\text{projectile} = f(A_r, S_r, P_r)$$

$$\text{propellant} = f(P_r, a_o, \gamma)$$

In order to optimize the gun system, each of these must be looked at individually as well as globally. First some simplification can be done by making the assumption (or place a design criteria) that the gun system is designed so that if failure occurs then it is the projectile that fails and not the gun itself. Thus S_r and P_r are no longer relevant to the gun. In summary

$$\text{gun} = f(\zeta, \zeta_o)$$

$$\text{projectile} = f(A_r, S_r, P_r)$$

$$\text{propellant} = f(P_r, a_o, \gamma)$$

Now each of these will be discussed individually.

The Gun: Part I

When designing a gun system, the design considerations that usually must be taken into account are how big and how heavy the gun system can be. It is obvious that bigger means heavier and possibly stronger and that smaller means lighter and possibly weaker. It has been shown that a longer barrel means more velocity and

also that a longer chamber means that it takes longer for the first rarefaction to catch the projectile. So it is known that the overall length of a gun system plays a significant role in the gun's performance. Therefore, how a gun's length can be optimized while performing as required must be examined. This however, due to the interconnection between all the parameters that affect the gun, must be explored after the mechanical factor has been determined.

The first step in calculating the mechanical factor is to determine the maximum pressures that a gun system can sustain. This maximum pressure is a function of geometry and material properties. It is stated in [1] that the maximum pressure at which a gun system can typically operate without yielding is approximately 900 MPa in practice. However, a maximum theoretical value can be determined using the relations for a thick walled cylinder with capped ends taken from [14]

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} \sigma_a &= p_i \frac{r_i^2}{r_e^2 - r_i^2} \\ \sigma_h &= p_i \frac{r_i^2(r_e^2 + r_i^2)}{r_e^2(r_e^2 - r_i^2)} \\ \sigma_r &= -p_i \frac{r_i^2(r_e^2 - r^2)}{r^2(r_e^2 - r_i^2)} \end{cases} \quad (2.27)$$

where r is the radial position of the stress, r_i is the interior radius of the vessel, r_e is the exterior radius of the vessel, p_i is the internal pressure in the vessel, σ_a is the axial stress at r , σ_h is the hoop stress at r , σ_r is the radial stress at r . The maximum stress given is by

$$(\sigma)_{max} = \begin{cases} (\sigma_a)_{max} &= p_i \frac{r_i^2}{r_e^2 - r_i^2} \\ (\sigma_h)_{max} &= p_i \frac{(r_i^2 + r_e^2)}{(r_e^2 - r_i^2)} & \text{at } r = r_i \\ (\sigma_r)_{max} &= -p_i & \text{at } r = r_i \\ \tau_{max} &= p_i \frac{(r_e^2)}{(r_e^2 - r_i^2)} & \text{at } r = r_i \end{cases} \quad (2.28)$$

These equations can be solved for the maximum internal pressure p_i in terms of the material yield strength, σ_y , as

$$(p_i)_{max} = \begin{cases} (p_i)_{max} = \sigma_y \frac{r_e^2 - r_i^2}{r_i^2} & \text{at } r = r_i \\ (p_i)_{max} = \sigma_y \frac{(r_e^2 - r_i^2)}{(r_i^2 + r_e^2)} & \text{at } r = r_i \\ (p_i)_{max} = \sigma_y & \text{at } r = r_i \\ (p_i)_{max} = \sigma_y \frac{(r_e^2 - r_i^2)}{(r_e^2)} & \text{at } r = r_i \end{cases} \quad (2.29)$$

It can be seen that

$$\sigma_y \frac{(r_e^2 - r_i^2)}{(r_i^2 + r_e^2)} < \sigma_y \frac{(r_e^2 - r_i^2)}{(r_e^2)} < \sigma_y \frac{r_e^2 - r_i^2}{r_i^2} < \sigma_y$$

Thus a closed end cylinder will yield in the hoop direction before it fails in any other direction; therefore, the equation for maximum pressure before permanent deformation is given by

$$(p_i)_{max} = \sigma_y \frac{(r_e^2 - r_i^2)}{(r_i^2 + r_e^2)} \quad (2.30)$$

This equation can be non-dimensionalized in a form that relates the inner diameter d_i to the wall thickness t_w

$$T_r \equiv \frac{t_w}{d_i} \quad (2.31)$$

By using the definition in equation 2.31 and recalling that $t_w = r_e - r_i$, equation 2.30 can be rearranged in the form

$$\frac{(p_i)_{max}}{\sigma_y} = \frac{T_r(T_r + 1)}{(T_r^2 + T_r + \frac{1}{2})} \quad (2.32)$$

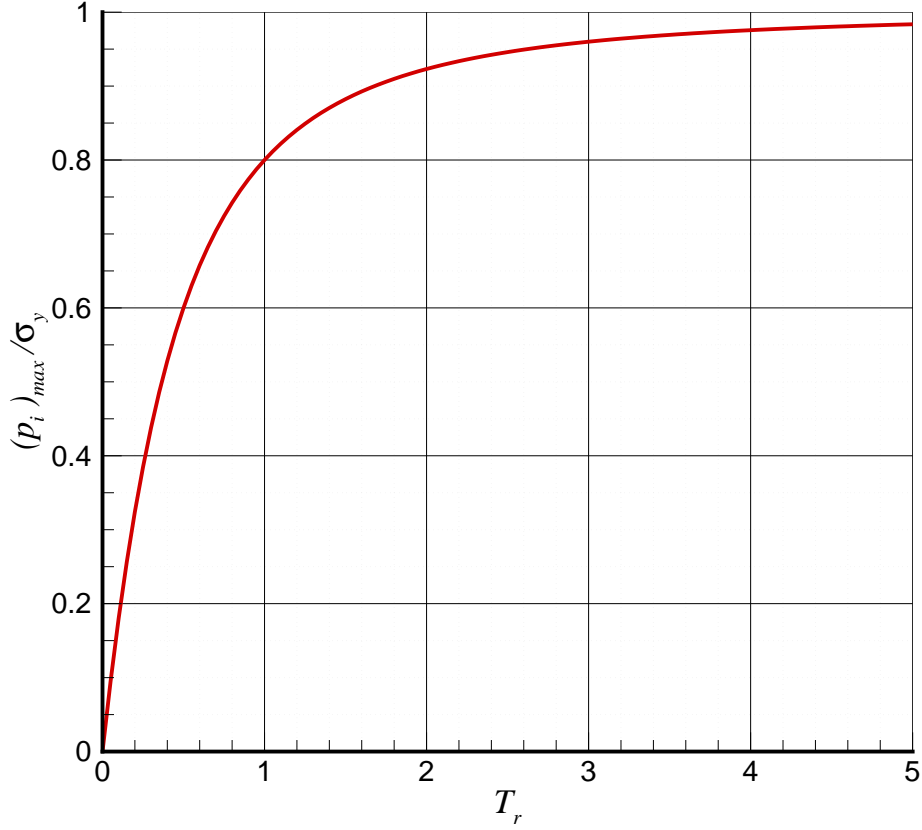


Figure 2-9: Non-dimensional maximum pressure versus the thickness to inner diameter ratio

Equation 2.32 has been plotted in figure 2-9. Furthermore it can be seen from equation 2.32 that when increasing inner diameter the wall thickness must be increased by an equal factor in order to maintain the same structural integrity regardless of the material strength of the vessel. However the mass per unit length of the vessel shell is given as

$$\rho \frac{V}{l} = \rho \pi (r_o^2 - r_i^2) = \rho \pi d_i^2 (T_r^2 + T_r) \quad (2.33)$$

which is not a function of T_r alone. Therefore, when scaling up a gun system, a greater proportion of material must be added in order to maintain the strength of the initial gun system. Equation 2.33 is plotted in figure 2-10.

Another parameter that needs to be investigated is the pressure at which a gun system will rupture. There are a number of formulas that are used to estimate the

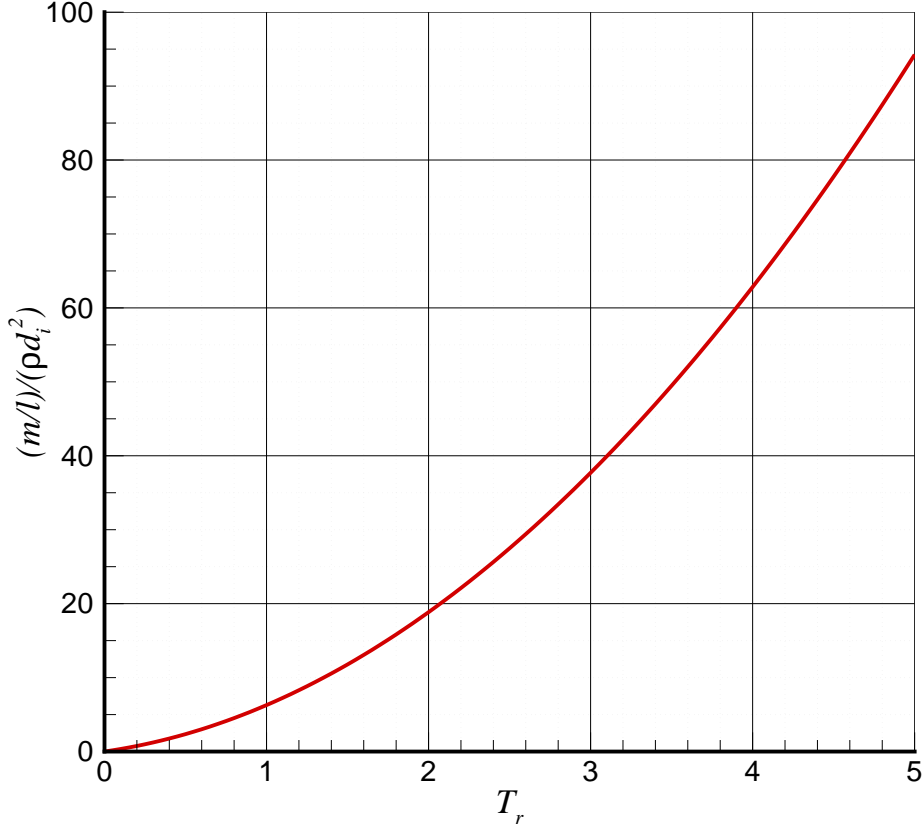


Figure 2–10: Non-dimensional mass per unit length versus the thickness to inner diameter ratio

rupture characteristics of a cylinder. Three of these formulas are presented in [14]. The first is the mean diameter formula which can be used to estimate the rupture pressure for both thick and thin walled vessels. The mean diameter formula is given as

$$(p_{burst})_1 = 2\sigma_u \frac{r_e - r_i}{r_e + r_i} = 2\sigma_u \frac{T_r}{T_r + 1} \quad (2.34)$$

Where p_{burst} is the rupture pressure and σ_u is the ultimate strength of the material.

For the very thick walled cylinder the failure pressure can be estimated using

$$(p_{burst})_2 = \sigma_u \ln \frac{r_o}{r_i} = \sigma_u \ln(2T_r + 1) \quad (2.35)$$

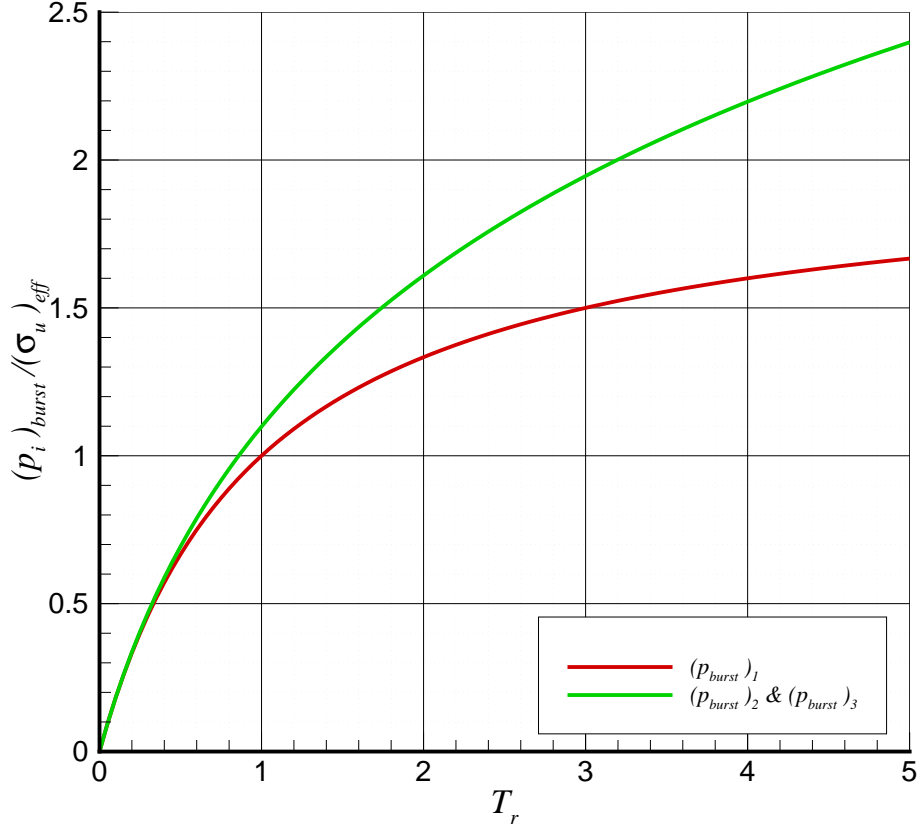


Figure 2-11: Non-dimensional burst pressure versus the thickness to inner diameter ratio

For more accuracy, models have been developed which include the effects of strain hardening in order to better estimate the rupture strength of thick wall vessels

$$(p_{burst})_3 = \frac{2\sigma_y}{\sqrt{3}} \left(2 - \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_u} \right) \ln \frac{r_o}{r_i} = \frac{2\sigma_y}{\sqrt{3}} \left(2 - \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_u} \right) \ln(2T_r + 1) \quad (2.36)$$

From the equations developed here a maximum theoretical gun pressure can be determined. Using the values for σ_y and σ_u taken from [3] for the strongest available materials, tables have been assembled in appendix C. From these tables it is reasonable to say that by utilizing high strength steel, a gun system could be made such that it could withstand static chamber pressures in the order of 1200 MPa (given that the chamber diameter is not excessively large, see appendix C). Thus 1200 MPa will be used to determine which projectile materials are the best suited for these applications. The tools developed here will be put to use later in this work during

the development of a prototype system.

The Projectile

The projectile has been determined to be a function of the aspect ratio A_r , the strength to density ratio S_r , and the pressure ratio P_r . For sake of argument when optimizing a gun system the assumption is made that it will be designed to operate in a parameter space where the projectile will not break, i.e $P_r \leq 1$. Furthermore it has been assumed that the maximum strength of the projectile is determined by the ultimate strength of the projectile material σ_u .

The S_r ratio of various materials is shown in table 2–1. Note that if σ_u for a particular material is above 1200 MPa (the theoretical maximum gun pressure) then $S_r = 12 \text{ kbar}/\rho$.

From this it can be seen that aluminium and titanium present the best options for projectile materials. However, what is not apparent from this table is that in

Table 2–1: Strength to Density Ratio for Various Materials

Material	ρ [kg/m ³]	σ_u [MPa]	S_r [bar m ³ /kg]
Steel Alloy 4340 (Normalized)	7850	1280	1.529
Stainless Alloy 17-7 (Cold Rolled)	7650	1380	1.569
Cast Iron Grade 120-90-02 (Tempered)	7100	827	1.165
Aluminium Alloy 7075 (T6 Temper)	2800	572	2.043
Copper Alloy C17200 (Solution Heat Treated and Aged)	8250	1310	1.455
Magnesium Alloy AZ31B (Rolled)	1770	290	1.638
Titanium Alloy Ti-6Al-4V (Solution Heat Treated and Aged)	4430	1172	2.646
Polycarbonate (PC)	1200	72.4	0.603
Polyetheretherketone (PEEK)	1310	103	0.786

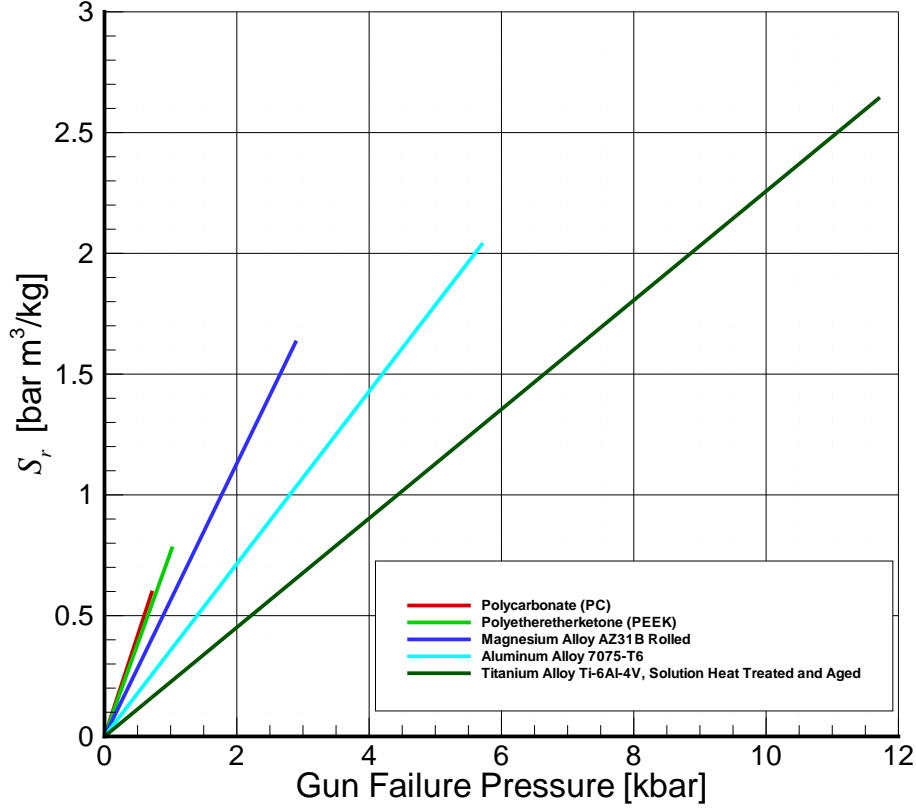


Figure 2–12: S_r vs. gun maximum design pressure

certain cases other materials are optimal. Figure 2–12 shows S_r versus gun maximum design pressure for various materials.

It can be seen from figure 2–12 that, for lower gun design pressures, lighter materials are the better choice. Furthermore, there are ranges of gun pressures that are not optimal for any material, thus the optimal S_r is not a continuous function of gun pressure. Equation 2.37 describes this for the materials presented in figure 2–12, which is then re-plotted in figure 2–13.

$$(S_r)_{opt} = \begin{cases} \frac{p_{gun}}{1.2 \text{ kg/m}^3} & \text{for } 0 \leq p_{gun} \leq 0.724 \text{ kbar} \\ \frac{p_{gun}}{1.31 \text{ kg/m}^3} & \text{for } 0.790 \leq p_{gun} \leq 1.03 \text{ kbar} \\ \frac{p_{gun}}{1.77 \text{ kg/m}^3} & \text{for } 1.39 \leq p_{gun} \leq 2.90 \text{ kbar} \\ \frac{p_{gun}}{2.8 \text{ kg/m}^3} & \text{for } 4.59 \leq p_{gun} \leq 5.72 \text{ kbar} \\ \frac{p_{gun}}{4.43 \text{ kg/m}^3} & \text{for } 9.05 \leq p_{gun} \leq 11.72 \text{ kbar} \end{cases} \quad (2.37)$$

It can be seen from figure 2–13 that there are large gaps in the gun failure pressure range that are not optimal. There is a low pressure region that includes a high strength magnesium alloy as well as the polymers, polycarbonate (PC) and polyetheretherketone (PEEK), then there is a range of non-optimum gun pressures followed by a small medium pressure region where the high strength aluminium alloy 7075-T6 is the optimum projectile material. Finally, there is an even larger gap in the gun pressure range before the high gun pressure range is reached, in which case a high strength titanium is the optimum projectile material. Thus, when designing a gun system, with figure 2–13 as a guide, once a gun operating pressure is determined the optimal projectile material can be chosen. Furthermore, it is undesirable to develop a gun system with a design pressure within the non-optimal ranges of figure

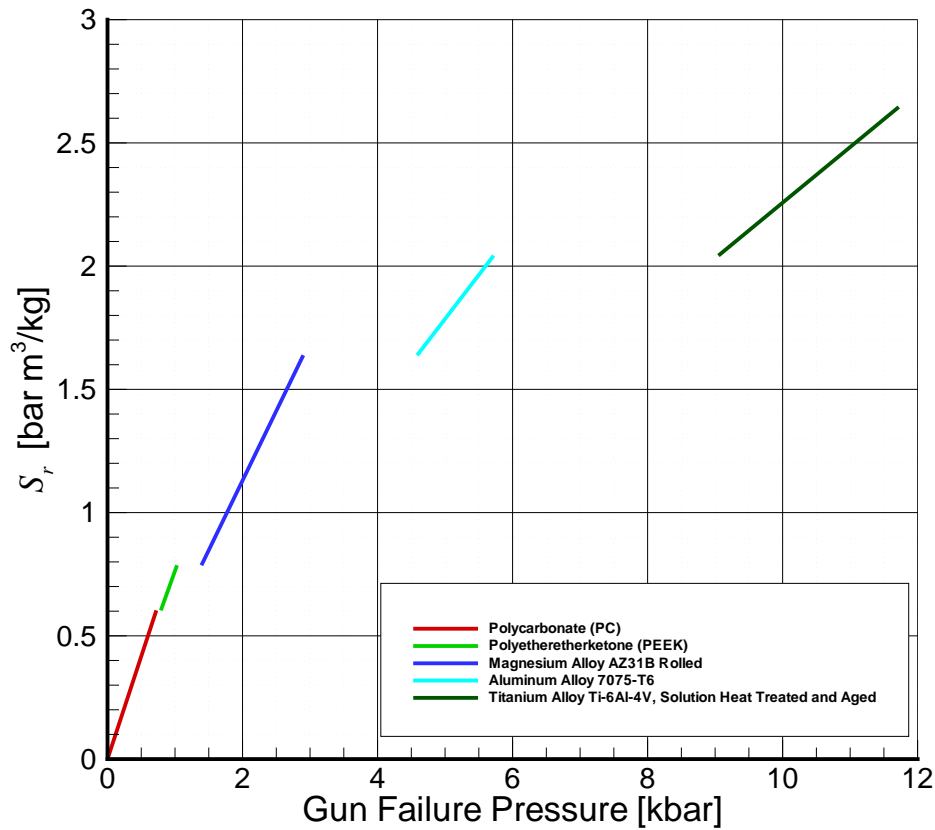


Figure 2–13: Optimal S_r vs. gun maximum design pressure

2–13. For example instead of designing a gun to operate at 4.59 kbar using high strength aluminium as the projectile material, it is better to design a gun to operate at 2.9 kbar using high strength magnesium as the projectile, resulting in a lighter gun system.

The final factor determining the operation of a projectile is its length to diameter ratio. If the projectile is made too thin then it can fail in the bore. However, it is unclear how thin a projectile can be made in practice. From the experience gained in running the projectile trials, a $A_r = 0.3$ was determined to be a safe value. This is consistent with earlier studies done at McGill [5] and [10]. However this is for small caliber projectiles (between 4.3 mm and 12.7 mm). It has been shown by [12] that for a 50 cm diameter bore, discs with an aspect ratio of 0.012 (6 mm) could be launched. However, these projectiles were levitated and spun by using an electromagnetic stator and maximum pressure experience were 300 bar, about 6% the ultimate strength of structural steel. Furthermore at 50 cm the ratio between the machine precision and the characteristic diameter is much smaller than for a small projectile. Thus, for this exercise, the smallest aspect ratio will be taken as 0.3. However, smaller aspect ratios may be attainable but, from experience, designing a system for these aspect ratios will increase the systems complexity. It is suggested that these methods be chosen as a last resort after all other avenues of improving performance have been pursued.

The result of this analysis is that maximum realistic values have been obtained for the following

$$A_r = 0.3$$

$$S_r = 2.646 \text{ [bar m}^3\text{/kg]} \text{ (titanium projectile } p_{max} = 11.72 \text{ kbar)}$$

$$P_r = 1.0$$

Thus the maximum realistic value for $M_f = 8.82$ [bar m³/kg]. The last two mechanical parameters to investigate are ζ_o and ζ_{1st} .

The Gun: Part II

Now that a range for the mechanical factor has been determined equation 2.25 and equation 2.26 can be explored for a series of M_f , a_o and γ . However, ζ_{1st} is still an unknown. Determining the losses that are experienced by a gun system during the projectile acceleration/gas expansion process is difficult to do analytically. However it was shown by [1] that the only losses that cannot be neglected (assuming vacuum in front of the projectile) are friction between the projectile and the bore and viscous and convective heat losses between the gas and the boundaries. It has been determined through experiments and operational experience for high temperature gun systems, such as 2-stage light gas guns, that the losses due to aerodynamic friction and convective heat transfer to the barrel wall results in base pressure forces equalling the friction forces at between 200 and 400 calibers down the barrel [1]. Therefore, the barrel length, ζ_b , also has a maximum realistic value. To be conservative the following analysis will use $\zeta_b = 200$ as the base line. Following the postulate that it is desirable to design a gun so that the projectile leaves the barrel at the moment the first reflected rarefaction reaches it then the goal is to optimize u_{1st} for $\zeta_{1st} = 200$.

Returning to equation 2.25 with the assumption that $P_r = 1$

$$u_{1st} = \frac{2a_o}{(\gamma - 1)} \left\{ 1 - \left[\frac{\gamma + 1}{2a_o^2} M_f \zeta_o + 1 \right]^{-\frac{2(\gamma-1)}{(\gamma+1)}} \right\} \quad (2.38)$$

The non-dimensional chamber length can be rewritten in terms of barrel length

$$\zeta_o = \zeta_o \frac{\zeta_b}{\zeta_b} = \zeta_b \frac{\zeta_o}{\zeta_{1st}} = \zeta_{1st} \Phi_o$$

where Φ_o is the new non-dimensional chamber length in terms of the barrel length and ζ_b is the non-dimensional barrel length in terms of the projectile diameter d_p . Therefore equation 2.38 can be rewritten as

$$u_{1st} = \frac{2a_o}{(\gamma - 1)} \left\{ 1 - \left[\frac{\gamma + 1}{2a_o^2} M_f \zeta_b \Phi_o + 1 \right]^{-\frac{2(\gamma-1)}{(\gamma+1)}} \right\} \quad (2.39)$$

All the mechanical elements are represented in this equation; the mechanical factor M_f , the non-dimensional chamber length Φ_o and the non-dimensional barrel length ζ_b . Thus there is an overall mechanical factor that can describe a gun system.

$$M_F = M_f \zeta_b \Phi_o = \frac{S_r}{A_r} \zeta_b \Phi_o \quad (2.40)$$

Equation 2.40 holds all the non-gas related aspects of the gun system and it is proposed here that it can be used to predict gun performance. Applying 2.40 to equation 2.39 the following is obtained.

$$u_{1st} = \frac{2a_o}{(\gamma - 1)} \left\{ 1 - \left[\frac{\gamma + 1}{2a_o^2} M_F + 1 \right]^{-\frac{2(\gamma-1)}{(\gamma+1)}} \right\} \quad (2.41)$$

Previously obtained maximum values M_f and ζ_b are used to determine a maximum realistic M_F of 100,000 kPa m³/kg. With this, equation 2.41 has been solved for a range of M_F (1 kPa m³/kg to 100,000 kPa m³/kg) in order to determine the effects of a_o , γ and M_F on equation 2.25. These plots are located in appendix D.

Figure 2–14 is a qualitative example of equation 2.41 plotted as a_o vs u_{1st} for a series of γ s with a fixed M_F . It can be seen that there is an optimal speed of sound that provides a maximum value of u_{1st} for a given γ . By looking at the figures in Appendix D it can be seen that this maximum occurs at a higher speed of sound as

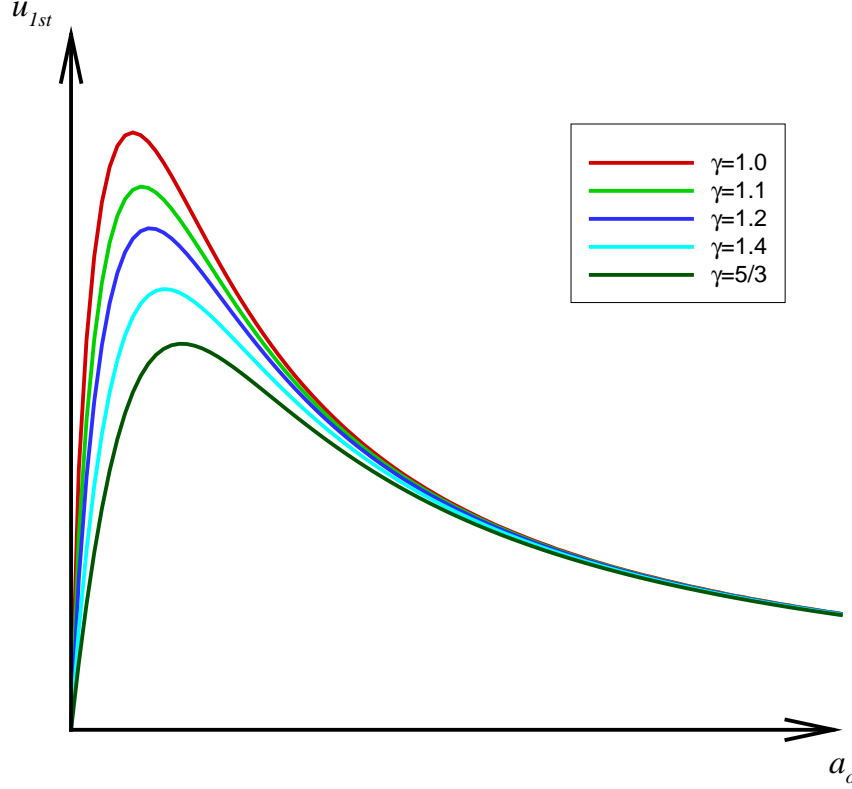


Figure 2-14: u_{1st} vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with a fixed M_f and ζ_o

M_F increases. However, the value of ζ_{1st} is still an unknown. Returning to equation 2.26 and writing it in the form

$$\zeta_{1st} = \frac{2a_o^2}{M_f(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{\gamma-1} - \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \left[\frac{\gamma+1}{2a_o^2} M_f \zeta_b \Phi_o + 1 \right]^{-\frac{2(\gamma-1)}{(\gamma+1)}}}{\left[\frac{\gamma+1}{2a_o^2} M_f \zeta_b \Phi_o + 1 \right]^{-2}} + 1 \right\} \quad (2.42)$$

It can be seen that this equation is a function of both M_f and M_F therefore in order to determine the velocity and chamber lengths that are required for the first rarefaction to occur when $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$, equations 2.42 and 2.39 must be solved simultaneously. This must be done implicitly using a root solver. The results are presented here in figures 2-15 through 2-26 which show how chamber length and

muzzle velocity (for $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$) are affected by the Mechanical factor, initial speed of sound and specific heat ratio.

It can be seen in figures 2–15 through 2–20 that there are three regimes. For a low M_f , speed of sound is only important for very low sound velocities and the specific heat ratio, γ , plays a very small role in the magnitude of u_{1st} . In the middle range the speed of sound plays a significant role in the magnitude of u_{1st} , whereas γ plays only a moderate role. However in the range of large M_f it is seen that γ has a very significant effect on the magnitude of u_{1st} . This is a very important result. It implies that by first calculating M_f then it becomes easier to determine the optimal gas required to achieve the desired gun performance.

From figures 2–21 through figure 2–26 it can be seen that for only very large values of M_f does the γ play any role in affecting the magnitude of Φ_o required for the first reflection to occur at $\zeta_{1st} = 200$. Furthermore, these curves are all very close to linear. Thus the designer can evaluate the M_f of their design, then, if a certain

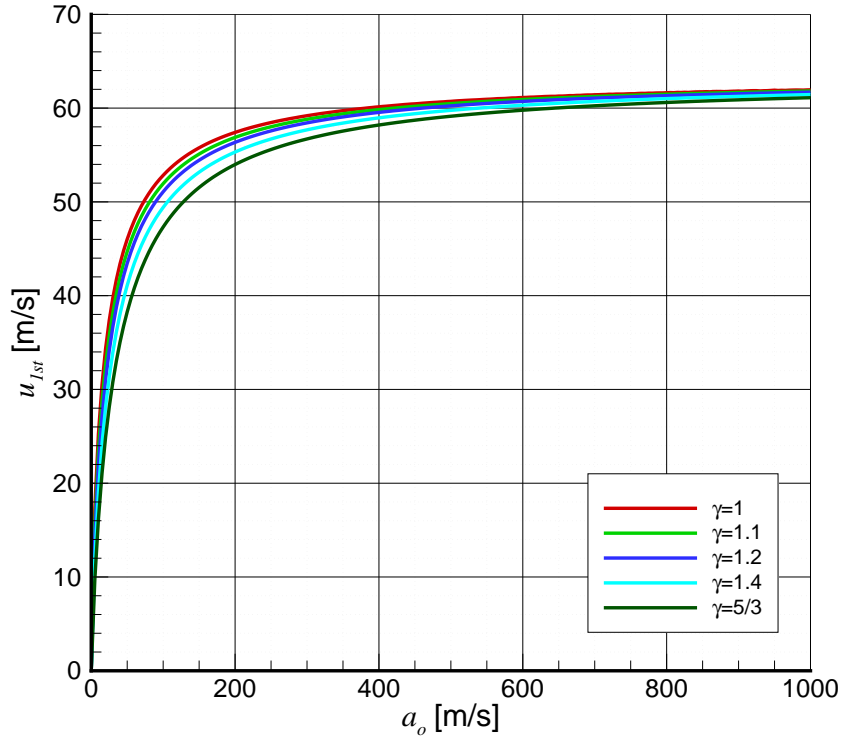


Figure 2–15: u_{1st} vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with $M_f = 10 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

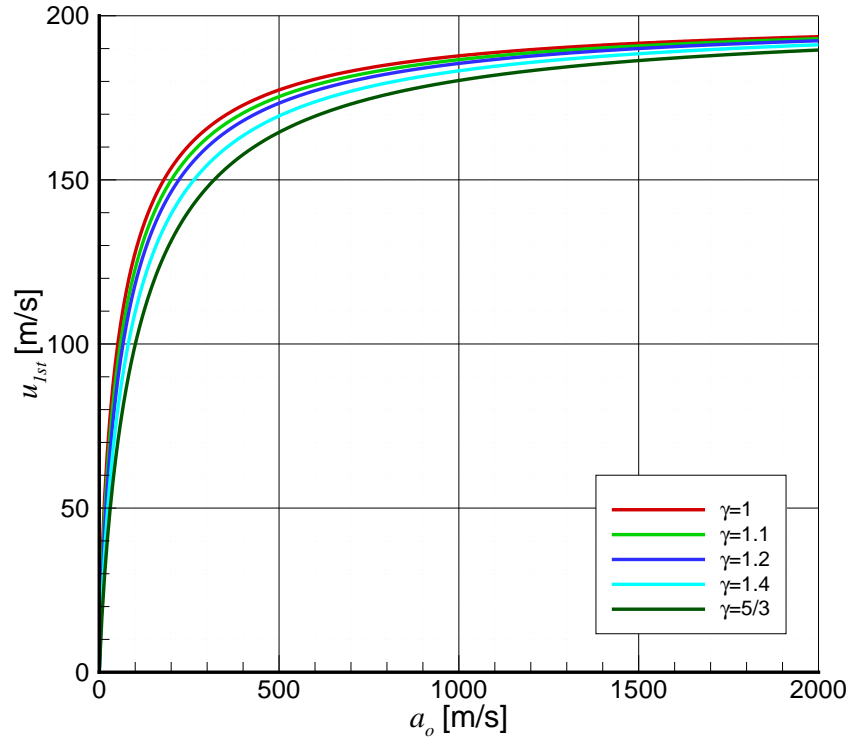


Figure 2-16: u_{1st} vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with a fixed $M_f = 100 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

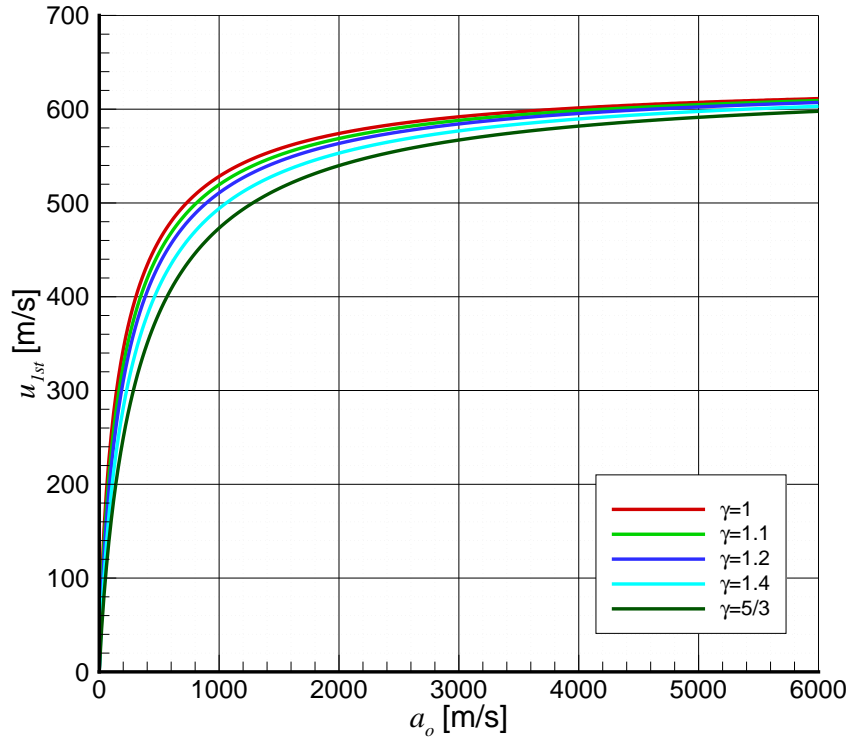


Figure 2-17: u_{1st} vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with $M_f = 1,000 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

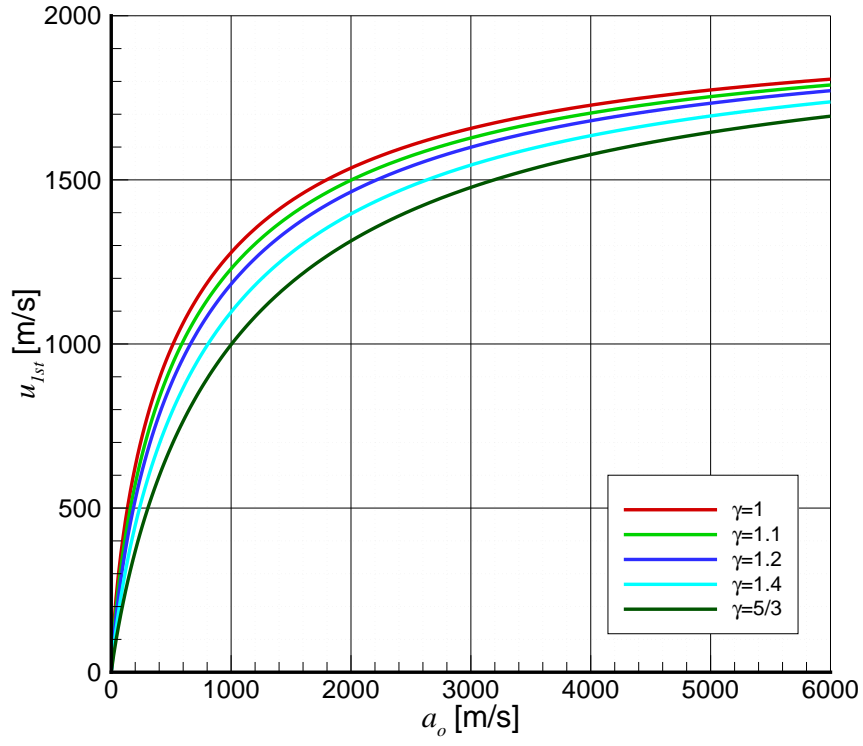


Figure 2-18: u_{1st} vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with a fixed $M_f = 10,000 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

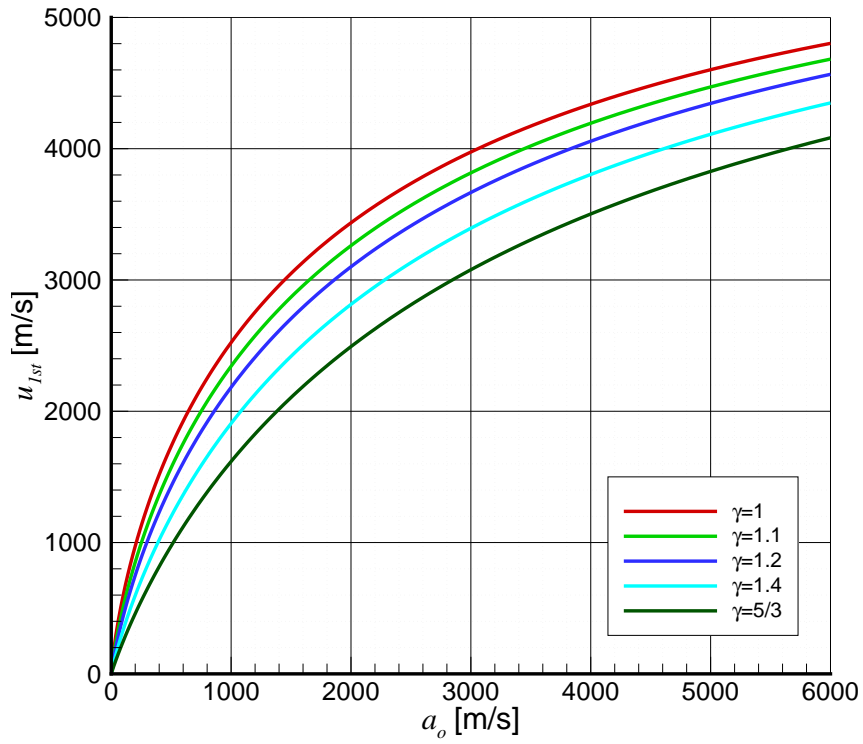


Figure 2-19: u_{1st} vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with $M_f = 100,000 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

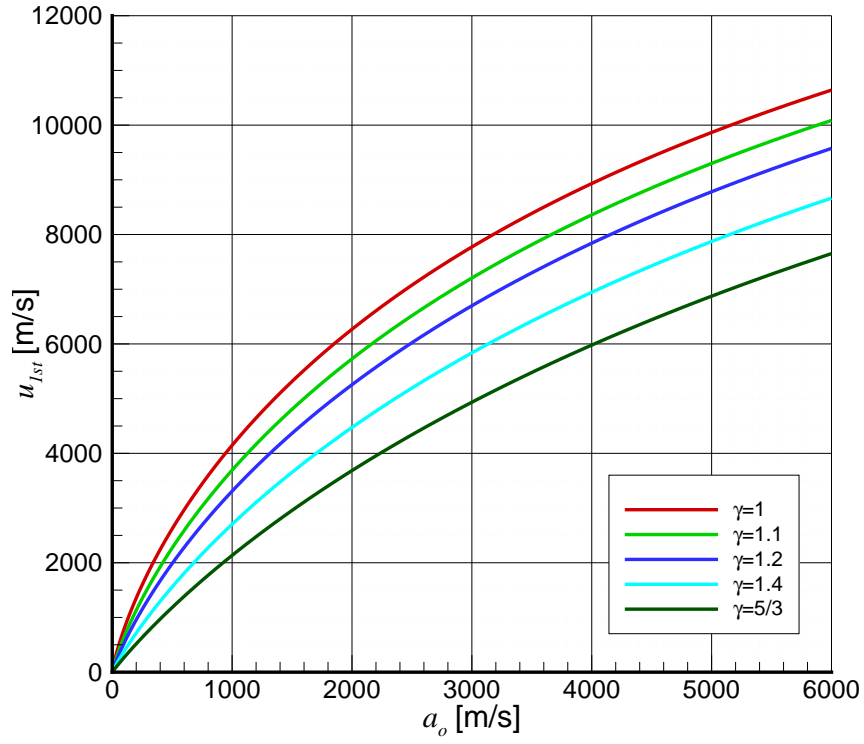


Figure 2-20: u_{1st} vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with a fixed $M_f = 1,000,000 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

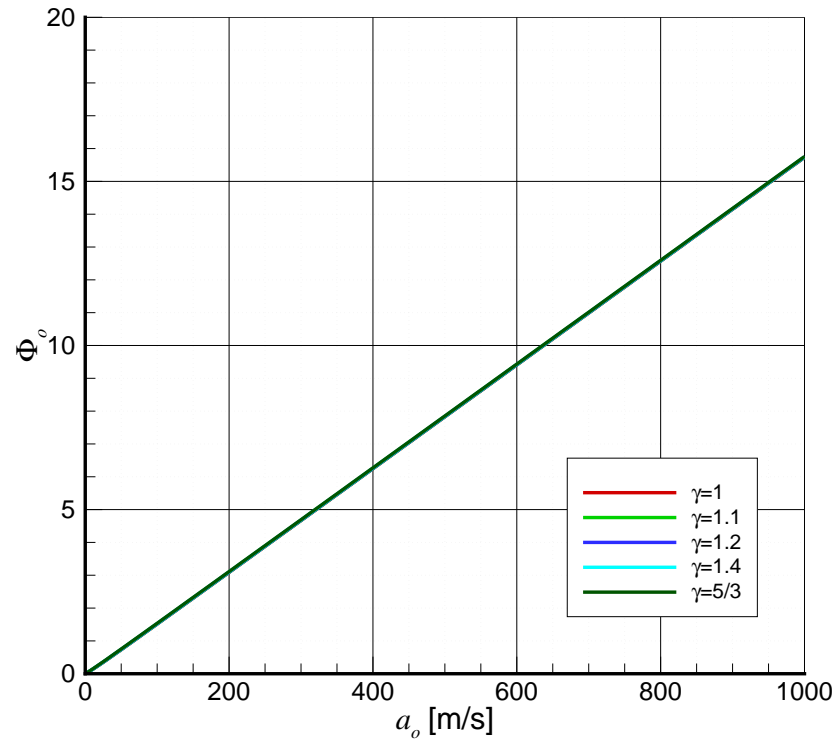


Figure 2-21: Φ_o vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with $M_f = 10 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

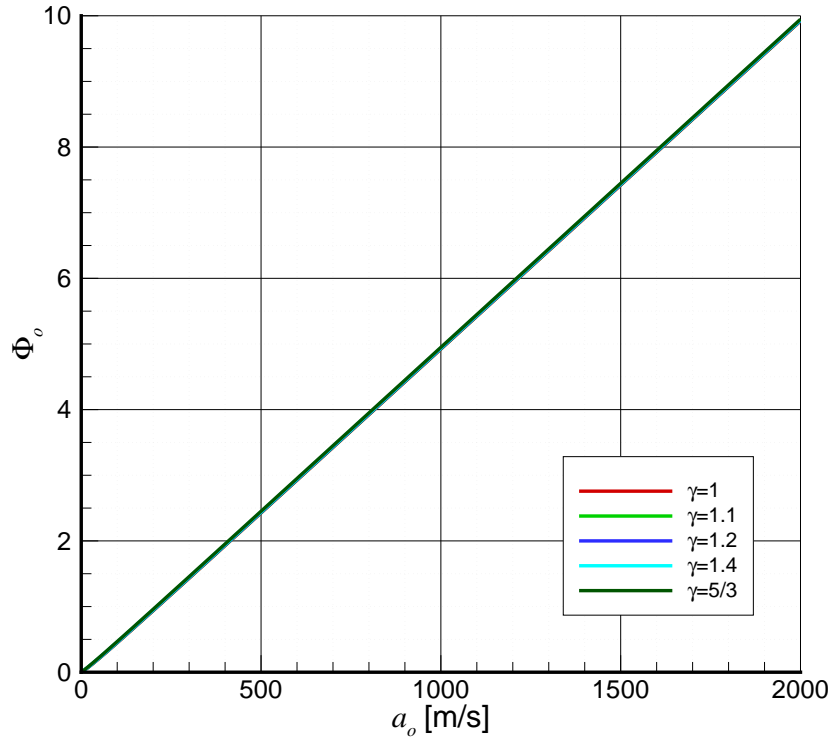


Figure 2-22: Φ_o vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with a fixed $M_f = 100 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

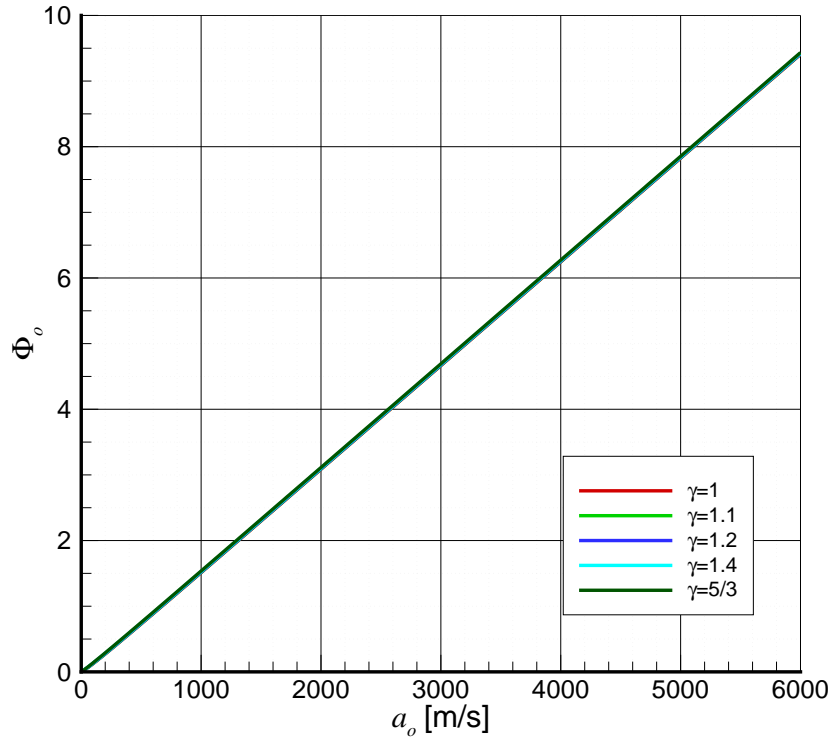


Figure 2-23: Φ_o vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with $M_f = 1,000 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

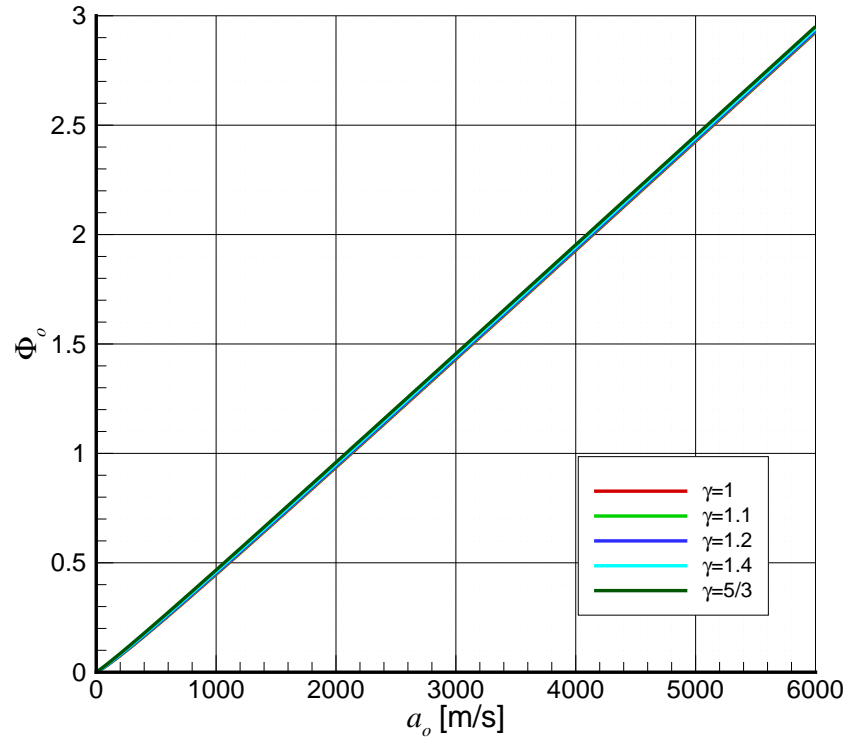


Figure 2–24: Φ_o vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with a fixed $M_f = 10,000 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

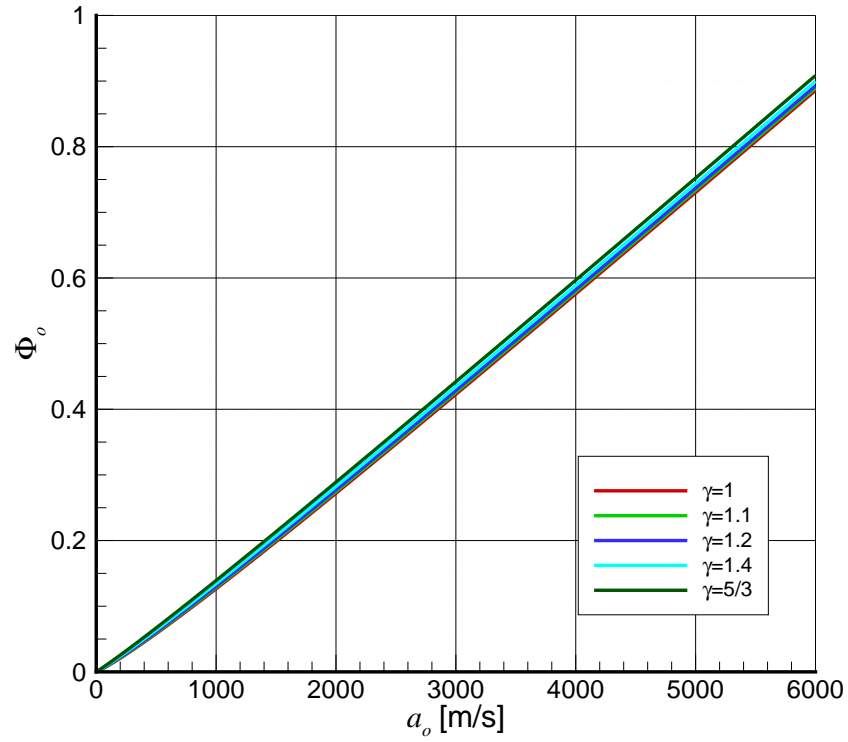


Figure 2–25: Φ_o vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with $M_f = 100,000 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

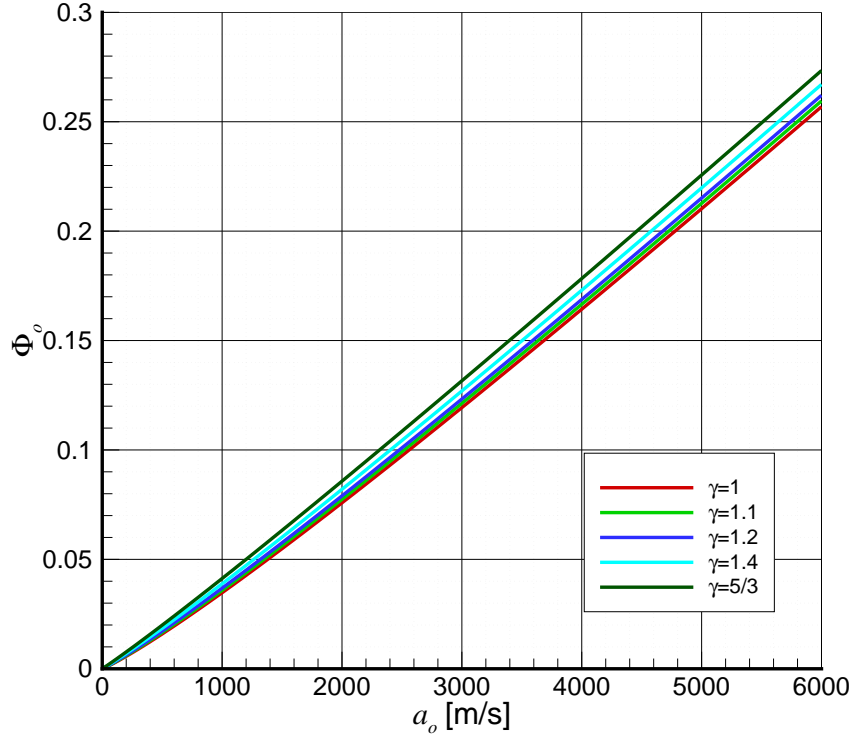


Figure 2-26: Φ_o vs. a_o for a series of γ 's with a fixed $M_f = 1,000,000 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{kg}$ with $\zeta_{1st} = \zeta_b = 200$

muzzle velocity is required, they can select the gas properties (of course they must find a real gas that will fulfill this, this subject will be discussed in a later section) that will give them this performance from figures 2-15 through 2-20. Cross referencing these gas properties with the corresponding graph in figures 2-21 through 2-26, a value of Φ_o can be obtained that will provide the desired velocity. Alternatively, if the restriction is the length of the gun system, then figures 2-21 through 2-26 can be used to determine the gas properties that are required and these can then be cross referenced with the corresponding plot in figures 2-15 through 2-20 to determine the muzzle velocity obtained with this gun-gas system. It is most likely that the initial design is either over or under designed but this tool will aid in the iterative process to determine the optimal design (or if the required performance is realistically achievable within the design restrictions placed on the gun system). These tools developed here will be used later in this work in the presentation of the prototype hypersonic gun system that has been built.

It is not always the case that a gun system will operate within its design parameters. For example, a system operating at a sound speed lower than its optimal sound speed, will not perform in the range of figures 2–15 to 2–26. Furthermore it is very possible that a gun system will be operated in the regime where the first reflected shock has reached the projectile before it exits (this will probably be unavoidable in many practical situations, i.e. low M_f systems with restrictions on chamber length). In the first case the simple wave solution will suffice in determining the performance of the gun system, however, in the latter case, the simple wave solution will not suffice in predicting performance and other methods must be used. In [1], Seigel presents an in-depth discussion on the ballistics problem for pre-burned gas guns. He develops the necessary tools to solve the problem numerically using the Method of Characteristics and presents the results in an extensive series of plots. However, for this work, a Quasi-One-Dimensional Euler code has been developed by Nicolas Ponchaut [9], and has been used extensively for evaluating the performance of various gun systems. In the remainder of this work, this code will be the principle tool for making performance predictions.

The Gas

So far the gas has only presented itself to the problem in terms of its initial speed of sound a_o and the specific heat ratio γ . However, from an engineering standpoint, these properties cannot be manipulated directly. Thus a more fundamental understanding of these parameters must be obtained. Recall that the speed of sound can be written as

$$a_o = \sqrt{\gamma R T} = \sqrt{\gamma \frac{\bar{R}}{M} T} \quad (2.43)$$

where \bar{R} is the universal gas constant and M is the molar mass of the particular propellant gas. So, the speed of sound of the gas can be seen as a function of the

temperature, T and the gas selected. Furthermore the specific heat ratio can be written as:

$$\gamma = \frac{c_p}{c_v} = \frac{c_p}{c_p - R} = \frac{c_p}{c_p - \frac{\bar{R}}{M}} \quad (2.44)$$

c_p is a function of temperature and it is also a function of the gas composition. Moreover, for non-monatomic gases, the molecular weight is also a function of temperature. This is due to either the chemical reactions or dissociation that occur at high temperatures. The effect is that these reactions or dissociations result in requirement of more energy being added to a system in order to raise its temperature. Thus choosing the appropriate gas can be a nontrivial exercise. It was shown in the previous section that a high speed of sound is essential for gun performance. In the meantime, it was also shown that, in the case of very high performing systems, the specific heat ratio is just as important. From equation 2.43 it can be seen that low molecular weight gases are key in obtaining high initial sound speeds. It can also be seen from equation 2.43 that a high gamma also increases the initial sound speed. Conversely, however, it was shown previously that a lower γ is beneficial to gun performance. Obtaining a low γ requires a gas with many degrees of freedom. Equation 2.45 shows the relation of degrees of freedom to γ for an ideal gas [8].

$$\gamma = \frac{f + 2}{f} \quad (2.45)$$

So as $f \rightarrow \infty$ $\gamma \rightarrow 1$, hence a gas with more degrees of freedom will have a lower γ than a monatomic gas. However, a gas with many degrees of freedom requires more energy to raise the temperature than a monatomic gas, which has no rotational or vibrational modes to excite. This, however, is why gases with lower γ can make desirable propellants. These gases carry this energy with them as they travel down the barrel behind the projectile maintaining the temperature as the gas expands. The result is a less severe pressure drop on the projectile than would occur in a monatomic propellant.

Thus the key to a good propellant is to find the lightest gas with as many possible excitable energy modes. However, the number of excitable energy modes must be weighed against how much energy is required to raise the resulting propellants temperature. To give the reader an understanding of what gases make the ideal propellants figures 2–27 through 2–31 have been constructed presenting the gases CO_2 , H_2O , N_2 , O_2 , Air, He, CH_4 , NH_3 and H_2 , with pressure taken to be 12000 bar (the maximum realistic pressure determined for a gun system) for the aforementioned gases.

Figure 2–27 shows the relationship between sound speed and temperature while figure 2–28 shows the relationship between temperature and the specific heat ratio. These values were obtained using the equilibrium code CEA [6].

It can be seen from figures 2–27 and 2–28 that the different equilibrium states of these gases at the different temperatures result in very interesting trends. It can be seen that for some gases, γ will drop with increasing temperatures, then rise only

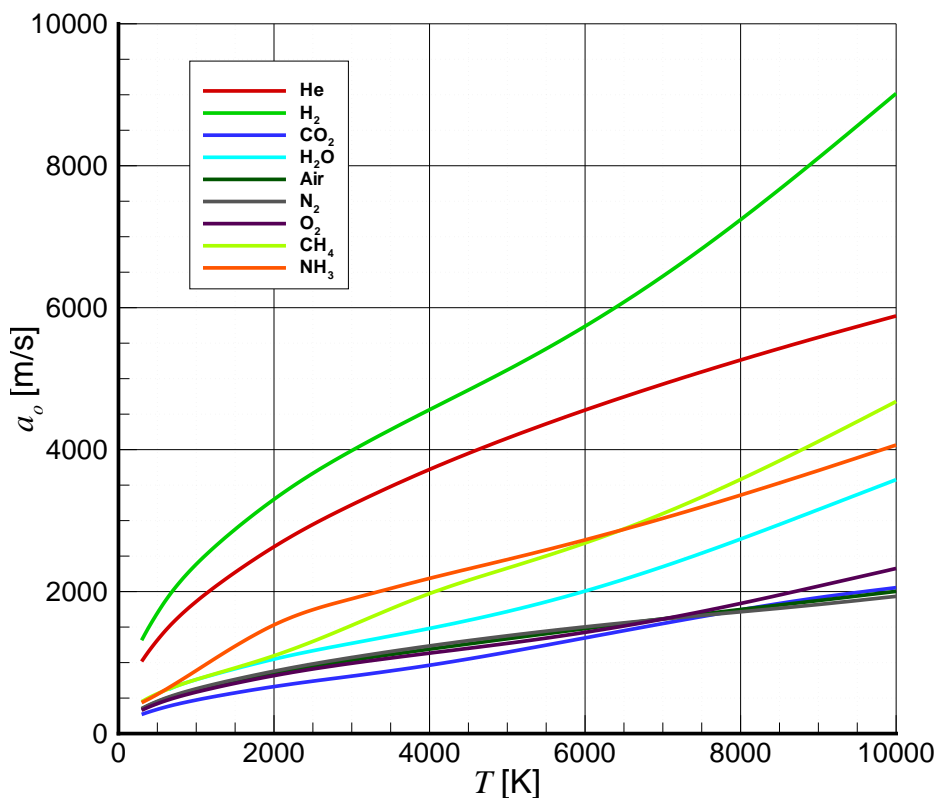


Figure 2–27: Speed of sound vs. temperature for various gases

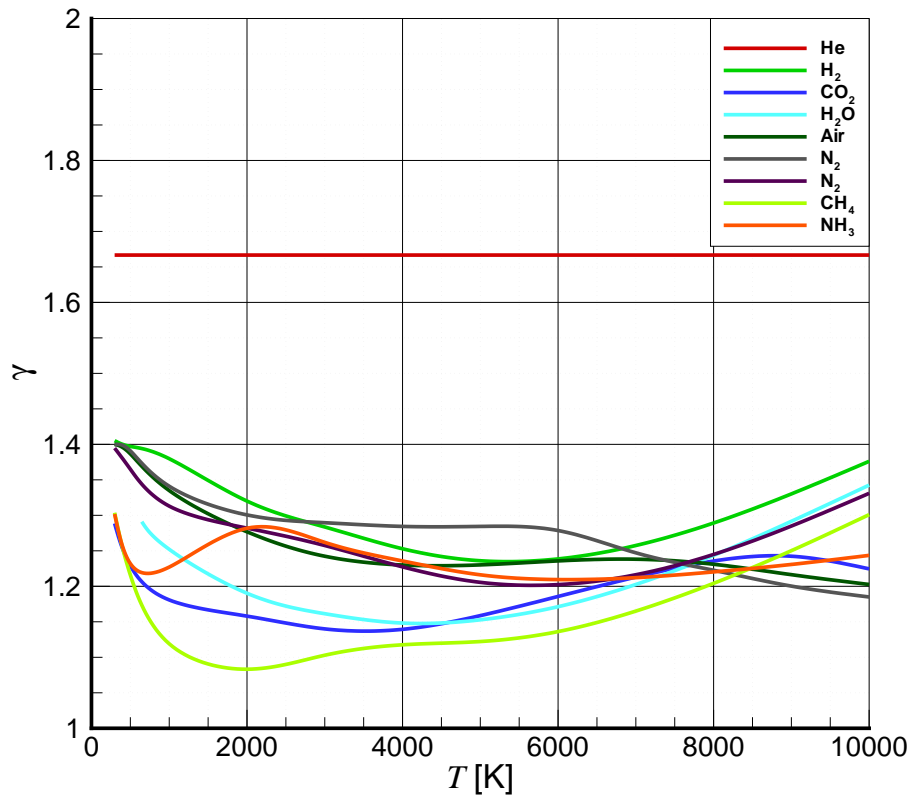


Figure 2-28: Specific heat ratio vs. temperature for various gases

to drop again (for example NH_3). For the case of sound speed, it can be seen that the rate of change will decrease only to increase again with temperature for many of the gases. It can be seen that the light gases H_2 and He have a much higher sound speed at a given temperature than the other gases. However, there are other gases that start to show improved speeds of sound at higher temperatures, i.e. CH_4 , NH_3 and H_2O . The reason these gases are investigated is that they all have low γ for a wide range of temperatures which could balance their overall performance with their relatively low sound speed. It is very easy to see that H_2 will perform the best at a given temperature, followed by He . However, these other gases are investigated because they are often present in the products of a gun system (with the exception of CH_4 and NH_3 which are investigated because of their relatively light weight and their low γ).

However, the amount of energy required to bring these gases to these states must be taken into consideration. For all the gases but H_2O , a two step process

was considered. The first is a polytropic compression, from the state $p_o = 1.013$ bar and $T_o = 298$ K, to obtain the required density and then a constant volume heating process to the required temperature and pressure. However, for the H_2O , the water starts out as liquid at $p_o = 1.013$ bar and $T_o = 298$ K, it is then raised to the boiling point and evaporated and continues to be heated until it reaches the critical temperature of water, 647.4 K, all through a constant pressure process. Once the water has reached the critical temperature, it is then compressed using the same process that the other gases underwent to reach the required density. Finally it is heated to the final state. Note that these energies are given in terms of a per volume of the gun system basis. It is assumed that the reader has a good understanding of the first law of thermodynamics, therefore the equations will not be introduced here. However the polytropic process used is the following [8]

$$W = p_1 V_1 \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1} \quad (2.46)$$

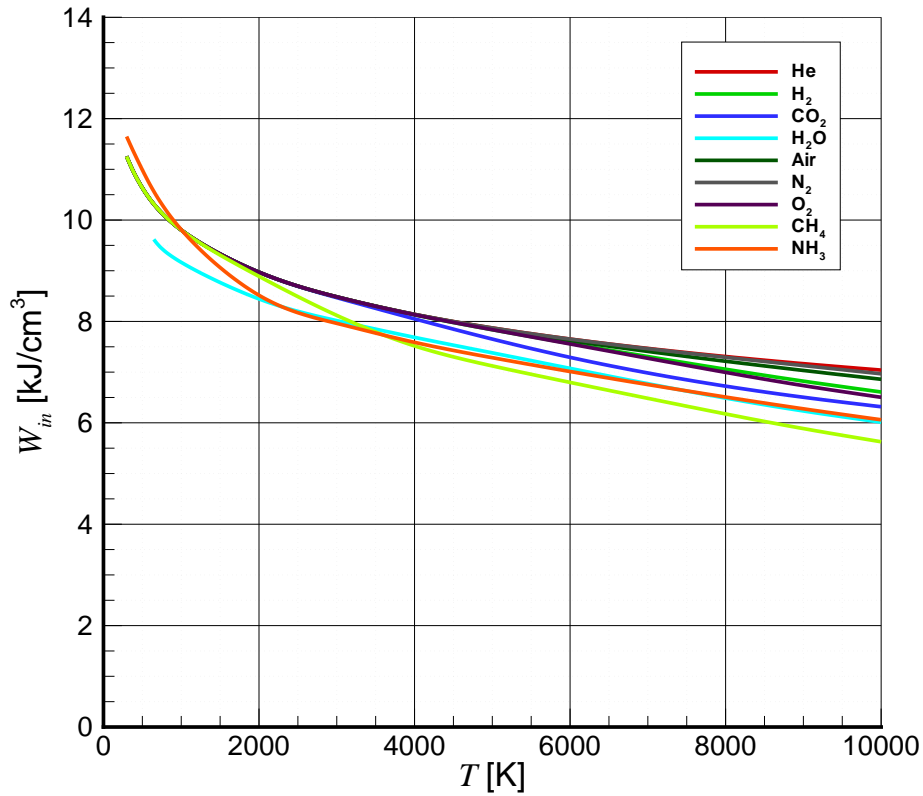


Figure 2-29: Compression work done vs. temperature on system for various gases

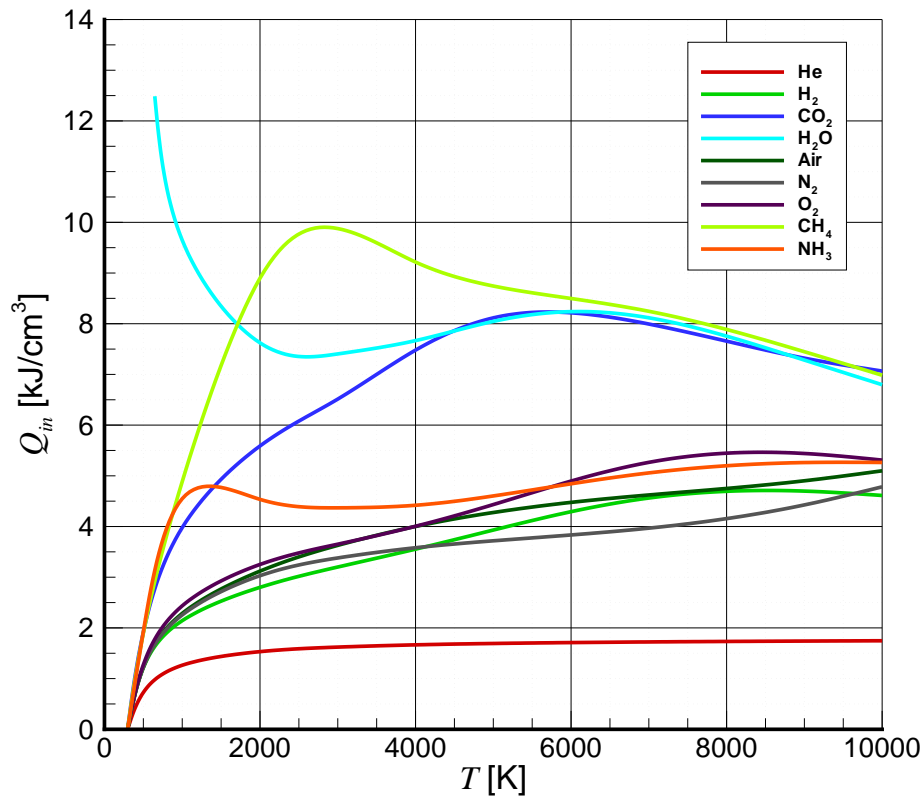


Figure 2-30: Heat added to the system to achieve final temperature vs. temperature for various gases

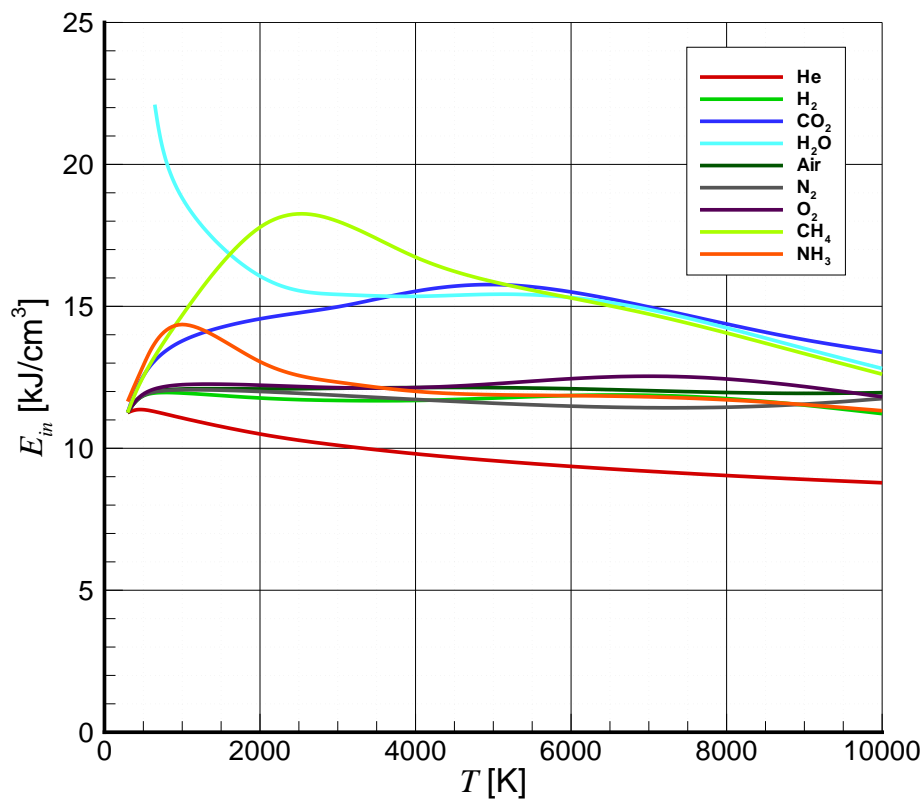


Figure 2-31: Total energy added to the system vs. temperature for various gases

It can be seen that the amount of compression work done in order to obtain the required density for the end state is quite similar for each gas, it drops with the final temperature because following the ideal gas law density drops as pressure increases for a given pressure, thus smaller initial volume of gas gets compressed into the gun chamber when the final temperature is higher. However, the thermal energy input is quite different for each gas. This is due to the different heat capacity these gases have at different temperatures. Furthermore, when a high final temperature is required, the total mass of gas is less than it would be for a lower temperature state with at $p_o = 12000$ bar. It is presented here on a per volume basis instead of a per mass basis for this reason. The chamber volume and the final pressure are constant in this investigation. Thus for a known chamber volume and an initial state of $p_o = 1.013$ bar and $T_o = 298$ K, the energy required to take this gas to the final state of $p_o = 12000$ bar is more useful in a per volume basis than a per mass basis.

From figure 2-31 it can be seen that He requires the least total energy input to reach the desired end state where CH_4 along with CO_2 require relatively large amounts energy to reach their final states. H_2O , due to the need for vaporization before the compression process, requires large amounts of energy to reach the final state especially at low temperatures where the final densities are quite high.

This introduces the question, which is a better propellant, H_2 or He? For room temperature applications, the energy input for a He or H_2 system is approximately the same. However, at higher temperatures, much more thermal energy is required to get H_2 to the same final state as He and it is not until very high, and possibly unrealistic, temperatures that the speed of sound of H_2 starts to pull away. This is also a very arbitrary demonstration, due to the fact that any vessel would melt at these temperatures. Thus any process to reach these temperatures must be done in a very short period of time. An example of this is the use of a shock to raise the temperature of a gas. The extreme of this is done using a detonation driven imploding pump tube gun to accelerate projectiles to speeds above 6 km/s [5]. This

system drives an 8 km/s shock in the pump tube. This provides a good example to compare He to H₂. The speed of sound and γ of He behind this shock is about 4500 m/s and 1.667, respectively, with a post shock temperature of about 6000 K. The same velocity shock in H₂ results in a speed of sound and γ of about 3500 m/s and 1.31, respectively, with a post shock temperature of 2650 K. This is the same driver but there is a much higher sound speed for the helium. Though the H₂ performed slightly better in experiment, it can be seen that the heating process makes a big difference in what final state is achievable. For this study, detonation is the method of propellant heating that is chosen. The propellant to be investigated is products of stoichiometric hydrogen-oxygen detonation. From figures 2–27 and 2–28 it can be seen that steam has a relatively good speed of sound for a heavier gas as well as having a promising value of γ for the temperature achieved by this form of heating (approximately $T = 4350$ K for $T_o = 298$ [6]).

2.3 The Effects of Chambrage

Now that there is a better understanding of how the other variables effect gun performance, chambrage can be discussed, see figure 2–32. By adding an area change section the performance of a PPIG can be increased. The reason for this is that when the rarefaction waves reach an increase in area section they partially reflect as compression waves [1]. These compression waves will increase the pressure on the base of the projectile when they reach it. This has the effect of the projectile having

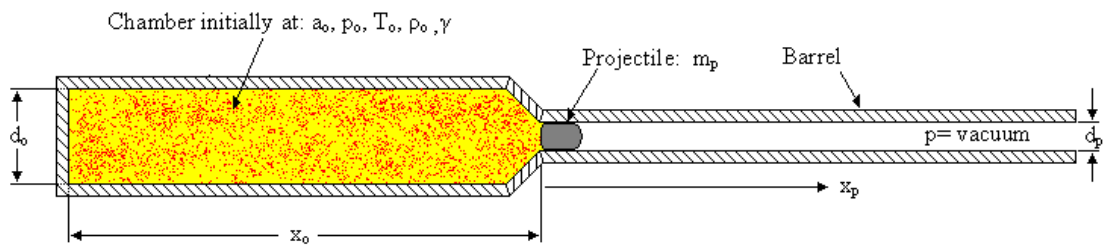


Figure 2–32: Chambered PPIG gun

a greater velocity, at a given position of travel, than the corresponding constant diameter gun. However, these wave interactions make the chambered gun much more difficult to analyze and an accurate solution can only be found computationally. Classically, the effects of area change have been approximated by calculating the M_r for the chambered gun using a method, such as the Lagrange approximation, to estimate the performance by using this modified M_r . However, Seigel [1] provides a method that can be used to obtain an even more accurate approximation than the classical methods.

If two PPIG guns of different chambrage have the same M_r , then the one with the larger chambrage will obtain a higher velocity in the early stages of acceleration, before many reflected rarefaction interact with it [1]. However, these two PPIG guns with equal M_r will converge to approximately the same projectile velocity in the latter stages of acceleration after numerous interactions with reflected rarefactions. It can be seen however, that if no rarefactions interact with the projectile then the larger chambrage will always have a greater projectile velocity. Thus for an infinitely long chamber the larger the chambrage the larger the attainable velocity for a given M_r . Furthermore, this can be extrapolated to postulate that, for a given a_o , p_o , m_p , a constant diameter gun system that has an effectively infinite chamber length will also have an effectively infinitely long chamber if chambrage is added to the system. This is important because it will allow for the estimation of a chambered gun by knowing the projectile velocity of the corresponding SWPPIG gun.

It has been shown in [1] that the relation between the escape velocity of a chambered gun and the chambrage of that gun is given as:

$$\frac{A_o}{A_p} = \frac{d_o^2}{d_p^2} = \left[\frac{v}{1 - \sqrt{\left(\frac{\gamma-1}{2}\right) (v^2 - 1)}} \right]^{\frac{2}{\gamma-1}} \left[\frac{v}{1 - \frac{2}{\gamma-1} \sqrt{\left(\frac{\gamma-1}{2}\right) (v^2 - 1)}} \right] \quad (2.47)$$

where

$$v \equiv \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \frac{u_{esc}}{a_o} \quad (2.48)$$

This approaches the value of u_{esc} for a constant diameter PPIG in the limit of $A_o/A_p \rightarrow 1$ that was derived in Appendix B. For this investigation the velocities that pertain to a constant diameter PPIG gun are taken as the reference velocities. Therefore the escape velocity for a constant diameter PPIG is presented here as

$$u_{esc(ref)} = \frac{2a_o}{\gamma - 1} \quad (2.49)$$

If equation 2.49 is normalized by a_o then the effect that the specific heat ratio γ has on the escape velocity can be explored. This has been plotted in figure 2–33. It can be seen that $u_{esc(ref)} \rightarrow \infty$ as $\gamma \rightarrow 1$.

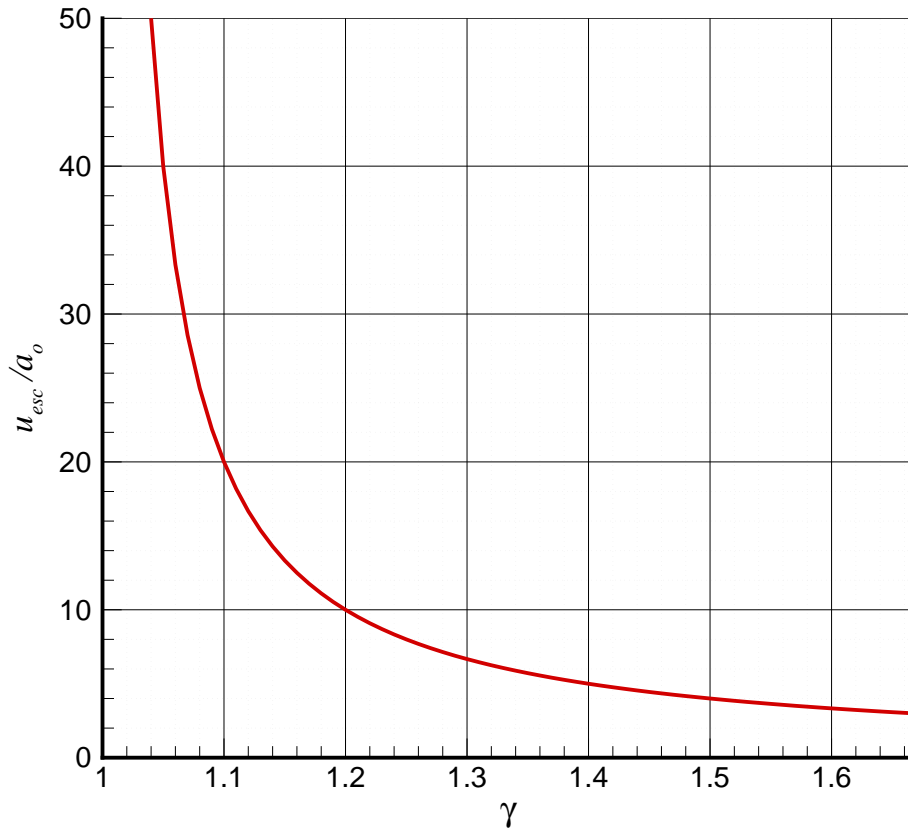


Figure 2–33: $u_{esc(ref)}/a_o$ vs. γ

It has been shown from equation 2.47 that as $d_o/d_p \rightarrow \infty$, the escape velocity approaches [1]

$$u_{esc(\infty)} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma + 1}{2}} \frac{2a_o}{\gamma - 1} \quad (2.50)$$

Normalizing this equation with equation 2.49, the percent increase in the escape velocity that is gained from infinite chambrage can be determined as a function of γ . This takes the form

$$\% \text{ increase} = 100 \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\gamma + 1}{2}} \right) \quad (2.51)$$

This has been plotted in figure 2-34. It can be seen that as $\gamma \rightarrow 1$ that there is very little gain in the escape velocity for a chambered gun. However, in order to see

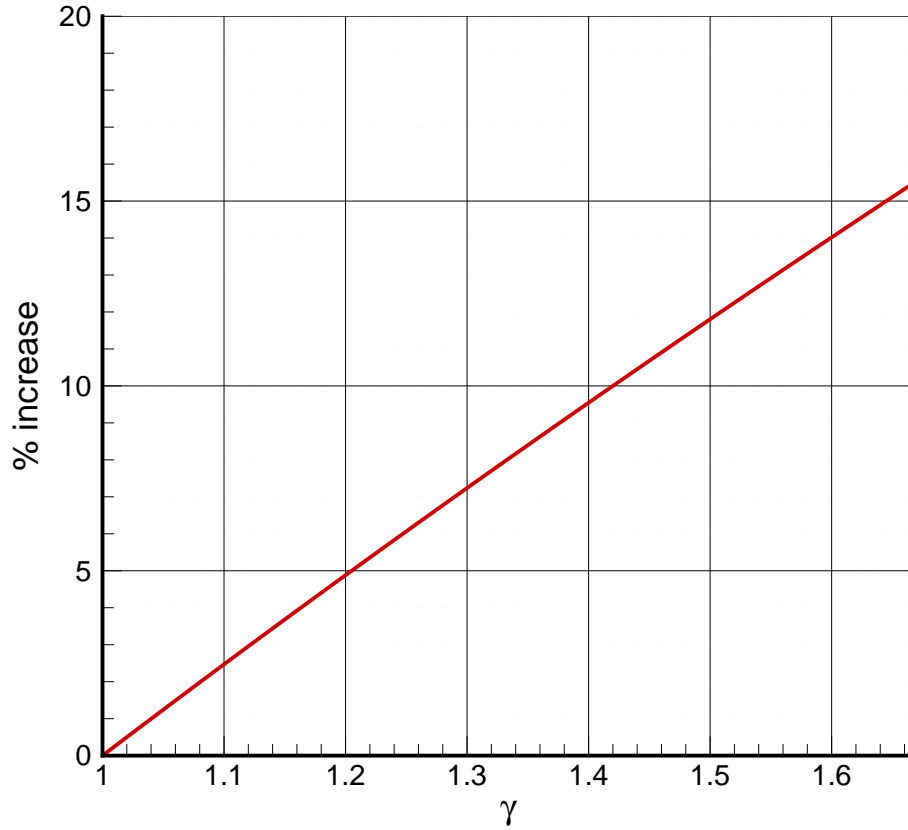


Figure 2-34: The percent increase between $u_{esc(ref)}$ and $u_{esc(\infty)}$ vs. γ

how chambrage effects chambered guns between $d_o/d_p = 1$ and $d_o/d_p = \infty$ further analysis must be done. To start, the difference in the escape velocity for infinite chambrage and the escape velocity for no chambrage, taken as the reference escape velocity $u_{esc(ref)}$, becomes

$$\Delta u_{esc(\infty)} = u_{esc(\infty)} - u_{esc(ref)} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{2}} \frac{2a_o}{\gamma-1} - \frac{2a_o}{\gamma-1} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{2}} - 1 \right) \frac{2a_o}{\gamma-1} \quad (2.52)$$

which approaches $\frac{1}{2}a_o$ as $\gamma \rightarrow 1$

Furthermore, it has been shown by [1] that the escape velocities for a given d_o/d_p takes the form

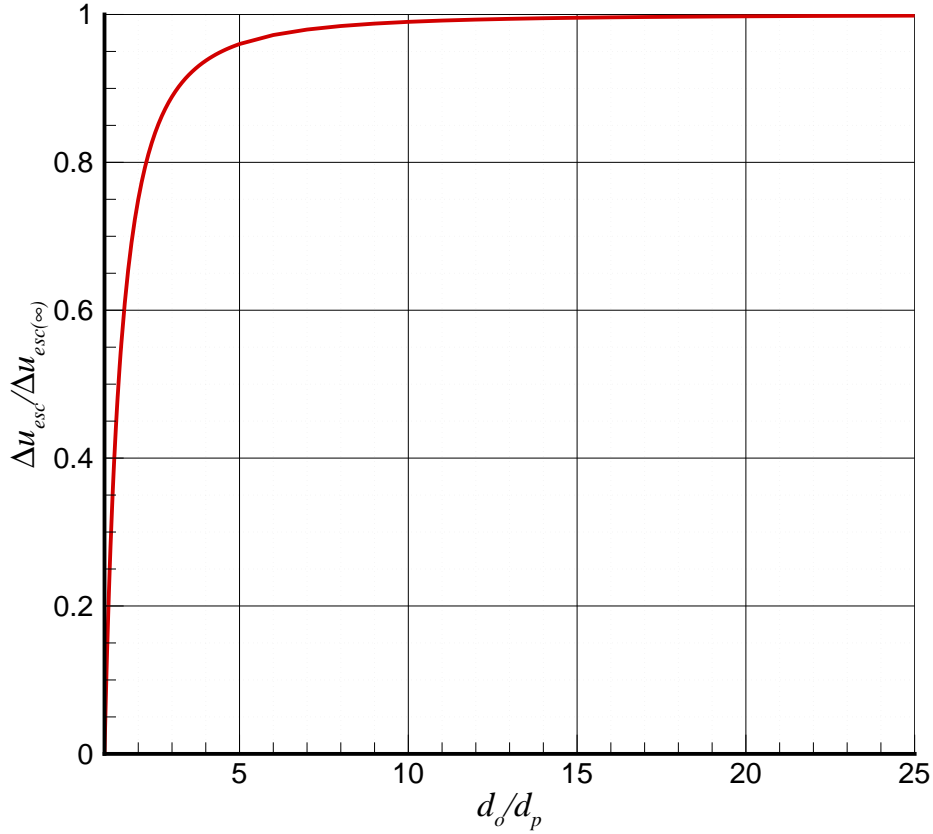


Figure 2-35: $\Delta u_{esc} / \Delta u_{esc(\infty)}$ vs. d_o/d_p

$$\Delta u_{esc} \cong \Delta u_{esc(\infty)} \left(1 - \frac{d_p^2}{d_o^2} \right) \quad (2.53)$$

Equation 2.53 has been plotted in figure 2-35, it can be seen that a $d_o/d_p \cong 2.5$ results in $\Delta u_{esc} \cong 0.90\Delta u_{esc(\infty)}$ and that by $d_o/d_p \cong 15$ a gun can be considered essentially to have infinite chambrage.

It has further been observed that the ratio between $\Delta u_p/\Delta u_{esc}$ will follow the trend

$$\Delta u_p/\Delta u_{esc} \cong \begin{cases} \frac{1}{3} \frac{\gamma u_{p(ref)}}{a_o} & \text{for } 0 < \frac{\gamma u_{p(ref)}}{a_o} < 3 \\ 1 & \text{for } \frac{\gamma u_{p(ref)}}{a_o} \geq 3 \end{cases} \quad (2.54)$$

Thus by using the solution for SWPPIG gun to determine $u_{p(ref)}$, equations 2.54, 2.53 and 2.50 can be used to estimate the velocity of a chambered PPIG with an effectively infinitely long breech. Using equation 2.53, equation 2.54 can take the form

$$\Delta u_p/\Delta u_{esc(\infty)} \cong \begin{cases} \frac{1}{3} \left(1 - \frac{d_p^2}{d_o^2} \right) \frac{\gamma u_{p(ref)}}{a_o} & \text{for } 0 < \frac{\gamma u_{p(ref)}}{a_o} < 3 \\ \left(1 - \frac{d_p^2}{d_o^2} \right) & \text{for } \frac{\gamma u_{p(ref)}}{a_o} \geq 3 \end{cases} \quad (2.55)$$

which can then be plotted for different values of d_o/d_p . This has been done and presented in figure 2-36. This figure can be used to aid in determining the effects of chambrage added to a SWPPIG.

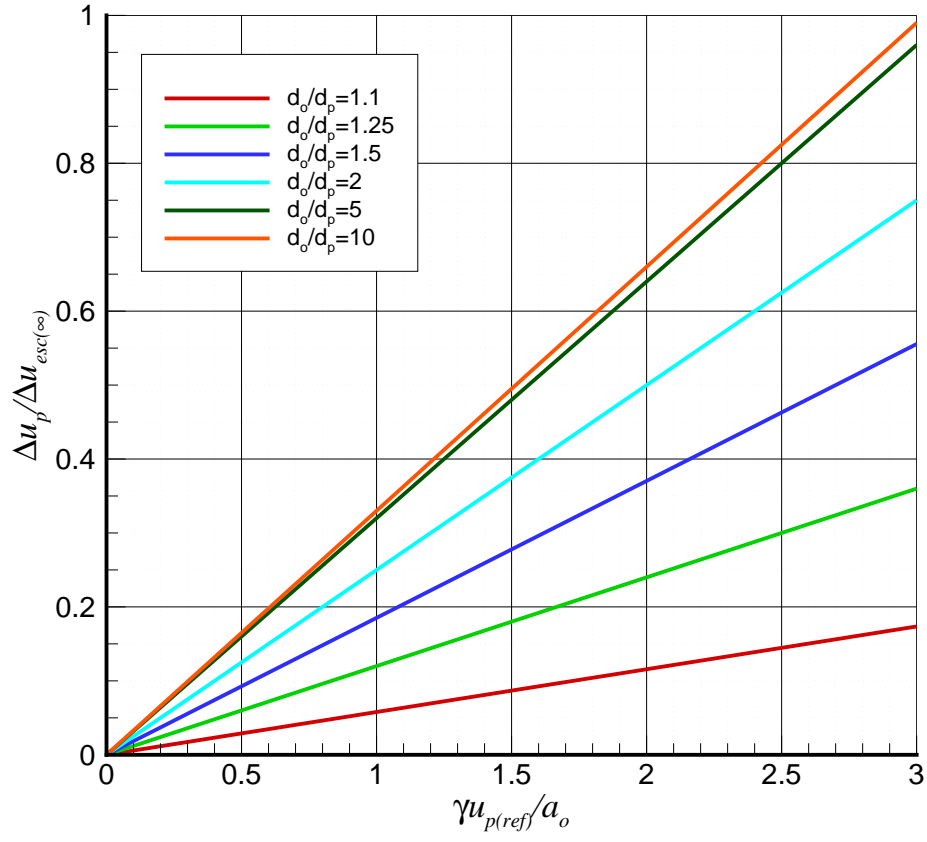


Figure 2-36: $\Delta u_p/\Delta u_{esc(\infty)}$ vs $\gamma u_{p(ref)}/a_o$ for various ratios of d_o/d_p

CHAPTER 3

Detonation Gun Prototype

The purpose of this project has been to ultimately build and test the concept of a detonation-driven gas gun. The following analysis utilizes the tools that have been developed in the previous chapter to design a working prototype. Furthermore, simulations have been done in order to predict the gun performance for the products of a stoichiometric hydrogen-oxygen detonation. Data for the products of the hydrogen-oxygen detonations are obtained by using the NASA's CEA equilibrium code [6]. This data is used as the input for the performance simulations which have been done using the code provided by Ponchaut [9]. This chapter presents the step by step design process in detail. Figure 3–1 presents a schematic of the gun system.

3.1 Gun Design

In order to keep the cost of the launcher down, readily available mechanical tubing was used in its construction. The reason for this is that the driver section needed to be long, and boring out a piece of rod stock to the diameter required would have added unwanted costs. The launcher was designed with the aid of the theory developed in chapter 2. The design specifications were for a gun with a projectile caliber of 1/2" (12.7 mm). Because the chamber section of the gun is going to experience detonation pressure, the wall must be as thick as possible. Furthermore,

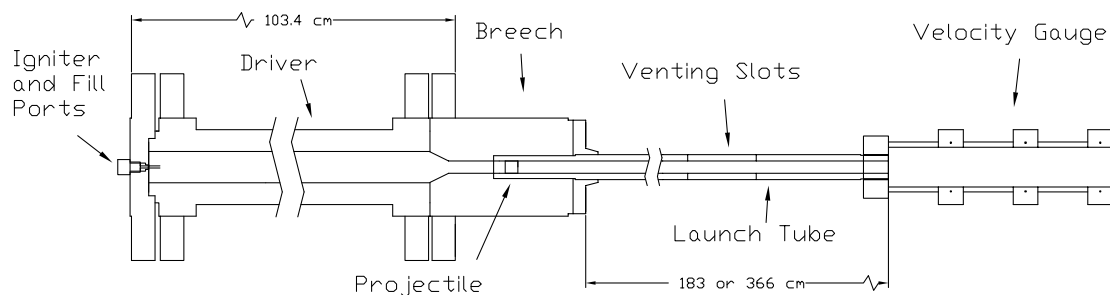


Figure 3–1: Launcher schematic

as seen previously, it is desirable to add chambrage to the gun. From figure 2-35 it can be seen that values of $d_o/d_p \geq 2$ provide a $\Delta u_{esc} \geq 0.75\Delta u_{esc(\infty)}$. The best suited mechanical tubing to be found for the driver has a 3" (76.2 mm) exterior diameter, d_e , by 1.25" (31.75 mm) inner diameter, d_i , and is approximately 40.75" (1.035 m) long. This tube has the wall thickness to inner diameter ratio of $T_r = 0.7$. The yield strength and ultimate strength of this steel are 350 MPa and 420 MPa (cold worked steel alloy 1020), respectively. From equation 2.32 from in chapter 2, the maximum pressure this section, to be referred to as the driver, can sustain without permanent deformation is 2464 bar. Using equation 2.36 from chapter 2 to determine the burst pressure, 4128 bar is obtained. With equation 2.33 from chapter 2, along with the density of the steel (7850 kg/m³), the mass per unit length of the driver section was determined to be 29.6 kg/m. Thus the total mass of the section is approximately 30.6 kg.

The section where the projectile sits will experience the extremely high pressure of a reflected detonation wave; therefore, this section is required to have more strength than the rest of the chamber. Though not true to the definition of breech, this part of the gun will be referred to as the breech through-out this work. The breech has been machined from 4" (101.6 mm) diameter mild steel rod stock to the gun caliber, 1/2" (12.7 mm). This has a thickness to inner diameter ratio of $T_r = 3.5$ which corresponds to a yield pressure of 3392 bar. Furthermore, the burst pressure of this section is determined to be 9805 bar. Due to the thickness of the walls and the relatively small ID, this section has approximately double the mass per unit length, at 62.6 kg/m, than the driver. At 6" (152.4 mm) of length the breech weighs approximately 9.5 kg. It is important that this section does not weigh too much because it must be easy to manually manoeuvre during a gun operation cycle.

Finally, the best choice of barrel material to be found was a 1" (25.4 mm) outer diameter by 1/2" (12.7 mm) inner diameter tube made from a chrome-moly steel (alloy 4130) with yield and ultimate strengths of 435 MPa and 670 MPa, respectively.

This has a thickness to weight ratio of $T_r = 0.5$ which was deemed enough since most of its length will experience pressure far below its failure pressure. The yield and burst pressures were calculated to be 2610 bar and 4703 bar, respectively. The mass per unit length of the barrel was calculated as 2.98 kg/m, implying that it weighs approximately 5.4 kg per 6' (182.88 m) length.

It was found during the operation of the launcher that on high initial pressure experiments, swelling of the barrel occurred where the detonation reflects off the projectile. This was compounded by the ablation of barrel material by the hot detonation products expanding down the barrel behind the projectile. This was predicted but was more severe than expected, see figure 3-2, therefore the breech was expanded to allow for a hardened steel barrel extension of 1.75" OD and 0.5" ID designed to absorb the high pressure of the reflected detonation. The purpose of the hardening was not only to provide strength, but to also add brittleness and allow the piece to crack if it fails, and not ruin the entire breech at the same time. This piece has a thickness to inner diameter ratio of $T_r = 1.25$ and the material used is 4140 alloy steel. Being conservative and not taking into account the added strength from the heat treatment process the yield, and ultimate strength are taken to be 417 MPa and 590 MPa, respectively. This gives the barrel extension an approximate yield pressure



Figure 3-2: Before and after of a barrel expanded by multiple high pressure gun cycles

of 3540 bar and a burst pressure of approximately 7801 bar.

Table 3–1: Failure Characteristics of the Gun Parts

Gun Part	σ_y [MPa]	σ_u [MPa]	T_r	p_{max} [bar]	p_{burst} [bar]
Driver	350	420	0.7	2464	4128
Breech	350	420	3.5	3392	9805
Barrel	435	670	0.5	2610	4703
Barrel Extension	417	590	1.25	3540	7801

Table 3–2: Mass/Length Ratio of the Gun Parts

Gun Section	ρ [kg/m ³]	d_i [cm]	T_r	m/l [kg/m]
Driver	7850	3.175	0.7	29.6
Breech	7850	1.27	3.5	62.6
Barrel	7850	1.27	0.5	2.98
Barrel Extension	7850	1.27	1.25	11.2

These values have been summarized in tables 3–1 and 3–2. They will be referred to later in this chapter to aid in the estimation of the gun performance. This gun is constructed by having flanges welded to all the tubing in order for all the pieces to be assembled together. Appendix E provides a complete set of part drawings for the gun system.

3.2 Propellant Modeling

Before undertaking the design and construction of a detonation driven gas launcher, it is important to identify an optimal propellant. In order to obtain an approximation for the performance of the launcher, the assumption is made that the detonation product reaches equilibrium (i.e constant volume conditions) before allowing the projectile to accelerate (as per Seigel’s pre-burned propellant ideal gas gun PPIG gun [1]). In the previous chapter, a detailed analysis of the properties of different gases at different temperatures was done. From this it was seen that steam, as a product of chemical reaction, has good performance characteristics as compared

to another product often associated with combustion, CO_2 . Therefore hydrogen-oxygen systems are the propellant systems of most interest to be investigated for this prototype. Tables 3–3 through 3–5 show the properties for the detonation products at the CV state, along with the CJ detonation pressures and the pressures of the reflected wave, which are the peak pressures on the system [6].

Table 3–3: Constant Volume (CV) explosion states for various initial pressures of the $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ reaction

p_o [atm]	ρ_{CV} [kg/m ³]	p_{CV} [bar]	T_{CV} [K]	a_{CV} [m/s]	γ_{CV}
10	4.9115	104.88	3914.30	1557.2	1.1355
25	12.279	269.61	4089.96	1582.0	1.1398
50	24.557	550.00	4222.00	1599.8	1.1427
75	36.836	834.18	4300.58	1609.7	1.1442
100	49.110	1120.56	4355.00	1616.5	1.1452

Table 3–4: Chapman-Jouquet (CJ) detonation states for various initial pressures of the $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ reaction

p_o [atm]	ρ_{CJ} [kg/m ³]	p_{CJ} [bar]	T_{CJ} [K]	a_{CJ} [m/s]	γ_{CJ}
10	9.0049	205.68	4138.86	1614.1	1.1407
25	22.490	528.96	4334.25	1640.9	1.1448
50	44.954	1079.41	4483.77	1659.9	1.1474
75	67.412	1637.29	4571.15	1670.4	1.1488
100	89.868	2199.76	4632.84	1677.5	1.1496

Table 3–5: Reflected Chapman-Jouquet (RCJ) detonation states for various initial pressures of the $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ reaction

p_o [atm]	ρ_{RCJ} [kg/m ³]	p_{RCJ} [bar]	T_{RCJ} [K]	a_{RCJ} [m/s]	γ_{RCJ}
10	19.612	507.02	4684.54	1717.27	1.1407
25	48.862	1304.90	4921.42	1748.52	1.1448
50	97.522	2664.29	5101.56	1770.50	1.1474
75	146.14	4042.86	5206.75	1782.71	1.1488
100	194.74	5432.86	5280.34	1790.86	1.1496

Even though it is assumed that the CV conditions drive the projectile, the CJ and RCJ conditions are used to determine the maximum operating pressure of

the gun system. The CJ pressure is used to determine what maximum pressure is sustainable by the gun parts. Even though this pressure acts in very short pulse, as a precaution, it is used to determine the maximum safe operating pressure for the gun. The RCJ pressure is used to determine the best projectile material that should be used for the gun. It can be seen that there are three characteristic pressures for this system. By cross-referencing tables 3–3 to 3–5 with table 3–1 it can be seen that, if the projectile is made from aluminium alloy 7075-T6 ($\sigma_u = 572$ MPa), 100 atm initial fill pressure can be considered the maximum safe pre-detonation pressure. Thus the actual driving pressure is approximately 4.8 times lower than the actual design maximum pressure for the projectile and approximately half the maximum design pressure for the gun system. This is the major drawback of using a detonation to energize the propellant gas because of the lower than optimal driving pressure. However, this must be weighed against the simplicity of the concept.

Now that the system has been defined, an estimation of the gun performance can be made by using the theory developed in the previous section. If the projectile mass is to be approximately 3.2 grams made from aluminum alloy 7075-T6, then the effective projectile length is 0.902 cm and the $A_r = 0.71$. Thus using the reflected detonation pressure at 100 atm pre-detonation pressure to determine the maximum performance of the gun, the S_r is the CV pressure at this fill pressure divided by the density of the 7075-T6. This gives an $S_r = 40.02$ kPa m³/kg. Therefore the mechanical factor for this projectile gun system is $M_f = 56.37$ kPa m³/kg. This will be used to predict the performance of the gun system for the pre-detonation pressures shown in tables 3–3 to 3–5. However, the pressure ratio P_r has yet to be determined for these fill pressures. Using the CV pressure at 100 atm initial pressure as the reference pressure, the P_r 's are given in table 3–6.

Using the initial sound speeds and γ 's in table 3–3 along with the corresponding pressure ratios in table 3–6 and the mechanical factor determined for the gun system,

Table 3–6: Pressure ratio $P_r = p_o/(p_o)_{max}$ for various initial pressures of the $2H_2+O_2$ reaction

p_o [atm]	p_{CV} [bar]	P_r
10	104.88	0.0936
25	269.61	0.2406
50	550.00	0.4908
75	834.18	0.7444
100	1120.56	1.000

performance predictions can be made. Recalling that the performance characteristics for the SWPPIG gun must be determined before the effects of chambrage can be estimated. First, the location of the first reflected rarefaction interacting with the projectile must be determined. This can be determined by using equation 2.26 from chapter 2 and realizing that the ζ_o for this system is $40.75''/0.5''=81.5$. Table 3–7 gives the location of the first reflected wave interaction for each of the fill pressures of interest.

Table 3–7: ζ_{1st} and x_{1st} for various initial pressures of the $2H_2+O_2$ reaction

p_o [atm]	ζ_{1st}	x_{1st} [m]
10	30.42	0.386
25	80.75	1.026
50	175.16	2.225
75	280.26	3.559
100	393.97	5.003

It can be seen that at pre-detonation pressures above 50 atm the prototype gun, firing a 3.2 g projectile, should operate in the regime where the first reflected wave does not reach the projectile if the barrel is 6' (1.8288 m). Therefore, in this range the methods developed in chapter 2 can be used to give a good approximation of the performance of the gun. However, at the lower pressures this is not the case. The results of the SWPPIG gun calculations for velocity along with the add velocity due to chambrage are presented in table 3–8.

Table 3–8: $u_{p(ref)}$ and u_p for various initial pressures of the $2H_2+O_2$ reaction

p_o [atm]	$u_{p(ref)}$ [m/s]	u_p [m/s]	% diff.
10	964.6	1115.4	15.64
25	1385.8	1603.2	15.69
50	1781.0	2061.0	15.72
75	2042.3	2363.8	15.74
100	2240.5	2593.5	15.75

It can be seen that the addition of chambrage for this case should give approximately a 15% improvement over a constant diameter PPIG gun at the same initial pressure. Furthermore, the maximum achievable velocity for this gun system firing a 3.2 gram projectile is approximately 2600 m/s for a 6 foot barrel. However, this is an ideal calculation and ignores losses; therefore, it should be expected that actual results will be lower than the values in table 3–8. To follow will be a more accurate approach to calculate muzzle velocity for this gun system.

3.3 Performance Modeling

Using the results from CEA, calculations were made with a CFD code provided by [9]. The code is a quasi-one-dimensional Eulerian solver that implements the SLIC scheme (Slope Limiter Centered) and is capable of handling smooth changes in area. The code is initialized by inputting the geometric parameters of the launcher (the cross-sectional area of driver and launch tube, a function modeling the area change, and the mass of projectile) and the properties of the propellant (initial pressure, density and γ for a CV explosion). The pressure upstream of the projectile is also an input and is set to vacuum for these calculations. The inputs for the geometry of the driver section are fixed at 3.175 cm ID and 103.45 cm length, while the barrel ID is 1.27 cm. The area change is set to converge linearly over an angle of 42° with respect to the centerline of the driver.

These simulations were done for the range of pre-detonation pressures from 10 atm to 100 atm and the masses 2.5 g, 2.7 g, 2.9 g, 3.1 g, 3.3 g. The results are displayed in the form of $x - t$ and $x - u_p$ diagrams for a specific pre-detonation

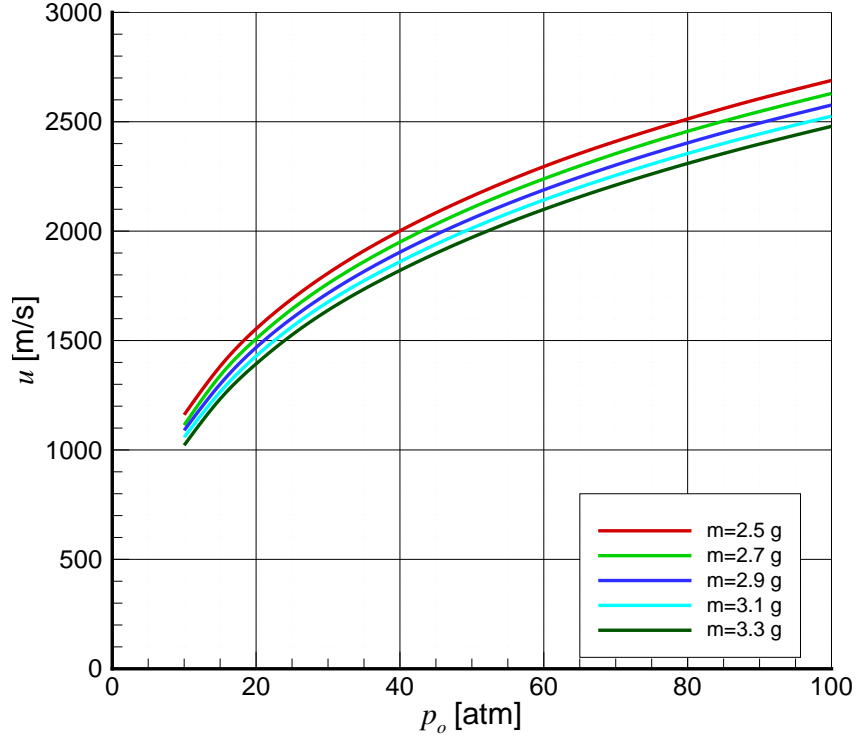


Figure 3-3: Muzzle velocity vs. pre-detonation pressure for a 6 foot barrel ($\zeta = 288$)

pressure in appendix F. Furthermore, each graph displays a curve for each of the masses investigated. Finally figure 3-3 shows the velocity as a function of pressure for a 6 foot barrel ($\zeta = 144$) and figure 3-4 shows the same function for a 12 foot barrel ($\zeta = 288$). It can be seen that there is a large predicted improvement for using the larger barrel length. However, it will be seen from the results that the predictions in [1] hold true and that the improvement at these barrel lengths is negligible due to losses.

Table 3-9: Comparison between analytical and computational methods for determining u_p for various initial pressures of the $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$ reaction

p_o [atm]	u_p [m/s]	u_p [m/s]	% diff.
	Analytical	Computational	
10	1115.4	1038.8	6.87
25	1603.2	1546.9	3.51
50	2061.0	1994.9	3.21
75	2363.8	2287.1	3.24
100	2593.5	2506.0	3.37

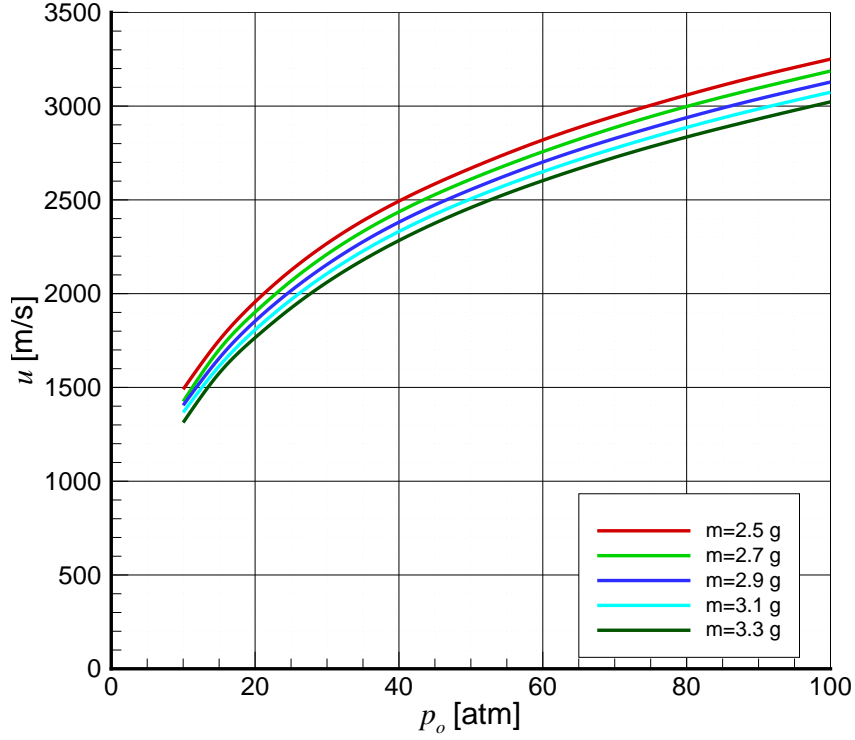


Figure 3-4: Muzzle velocity vs. pre-detonation pressure for a 12 foot barrel ($\zeta = 288$)

A comparison of the results obtained by the Euler code with those in table 3-8 are presented in table 3-9. It can be seen that the results for computational and analytical methods were quite close, and the larger discrepancies at 10 atm pre-detonation pressure were expected because it was determined that at this pressure, the first reflection has reached the projectile a fair distance before it exits the barrel. Table 3-9 shows that the analytical method gives a good estimate of velocity for the chambered gun, as long as the corresponding SWPPIG can be considered infinitely long. This is an important result, because the difference in computational time between the methods is quite significant; on the order of a second for the analytical method and on the order of tens of minutes for the computational method. This is a 3 orders of magnitude difference in computational time.

CHAPTER 4

Experiment and Results

Experiments were undertaken in order to verify the results obtained from modelling. Initially these experiments used a 6' (183 cm) long barrel; however, it was observed that at overly high initial fill pressures the projectile itself can break. Hence it was postulated that increasing the length of the launch tube could be the most efficient way of increasing projectile velocity as predicted by the performance calculations. However, the barrels of 12' (366 cm) length that were tested proved to be disappointing as a result of losses. Further investigations were done to determine the effects of ignition location. In order to avoid a reflected detonation on the projectile, igniting the mixture from the breech end with the detonation traveling back towards the back flange was tested. A wide range of projectile materials and geometries were also tested in order to determine how to optimize performance. The highest velocity obtained for this gun prototype was 2700 m/s using a 2.5 gram aluminium alloy 7075-T6 projectile with the 12' barrel and an initial fill pressure of 100 atm. The complete set of experimental information is tabulated in appendices H through J.

4.1 Diagnostics

Initially, the velocity measurement system used was an array of shock pins designed to pick up the projectiles bow shock. The drawback of this system was that it would not allow for evacuation of the barrel since it requires a gaseous medium to work. Furthermore, even though this system worked well for Szirti in [5], the lower velocities inherent to this gun system cause the projectile to be unresolved in the noise from the expanding propellant gases. Therefore this system was discarded after shot 6. The signal for shot 6 is displayed in figure 4-1.

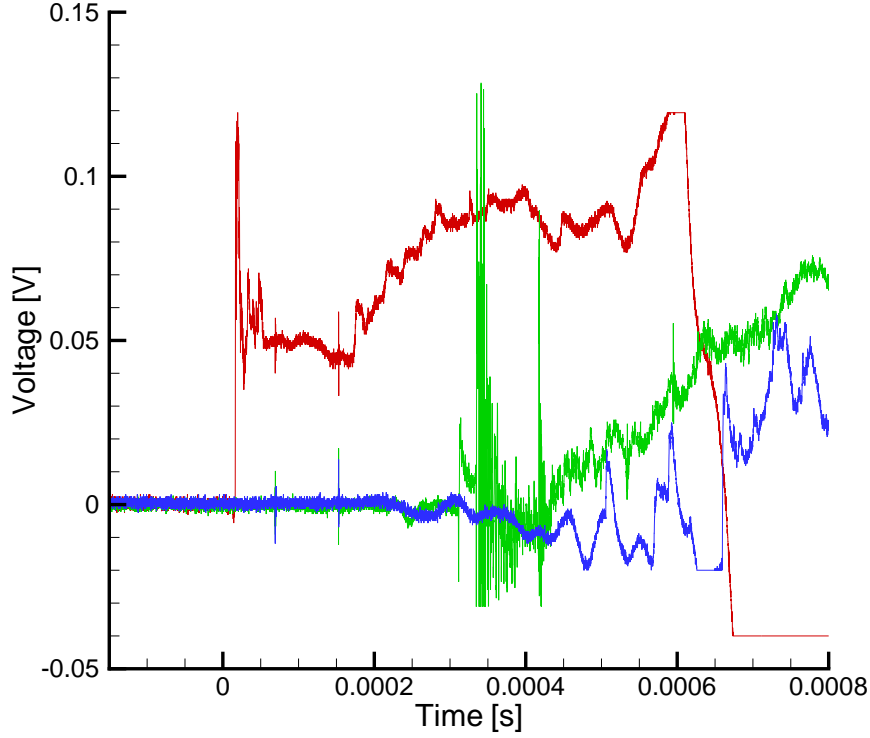


Figure 4-1: Signal from shock pin array

It was decided to use a system based on the concept developed by Bogdanoff et al. in [2]. This concept is based on Faraday's law. By placing a magnet on board the projectile and having this projectile pass through a coil of wire results in a change in the magnetic field, which causes an electromotive force to be induced in the coil [13]. This is a result of conservation of energy. The current is induced in order to maintain the initial magnetic field before the introduction of the external magnetic field to the coil system (this is Lenz's Law [13]).

Faraday's Law is expressed as

$$\varepsilon = -N \frac{d}{dt} \left(\int \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} \right) = -N \frac{d}{dt} (BA \cos \theta) \quad (4.1)$$

Where ε is the electromotive force (emf) and is measured in Volts (V), N is the number of coils, B is the magnetic field, A is the area encircled by the coils and θ is the angle between the magnetic field vector and the normal vector to the area. It can be seen that Faraday's law states that the emf is proportional to the rate of

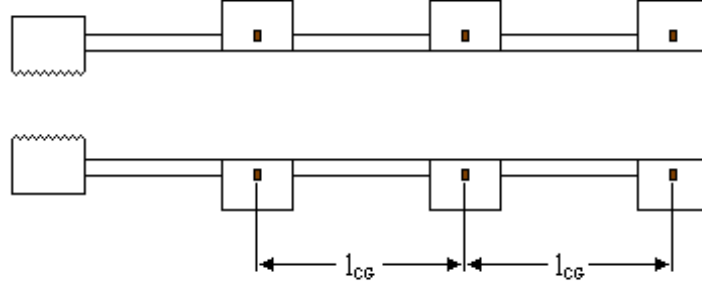


Figure 4–2: Schematic of coil gauge concept 1

change of the magnetic flux $\int \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A}$ through the coil. From equation 4.1 it can be seen that an emf can be induced through the following processes [13]:

- The magnitude of \vec{B} changes with time;
- The area enclosed by the coil, A , changes with time;
- The angle, θ , between the magnetic field, \vec{B} , and the normal vector of the coil changes with time.

Two coil gauge concepts were built and tested for this project. The first involves a series of coil rings through which the projectile passes after it leaves the barrel.

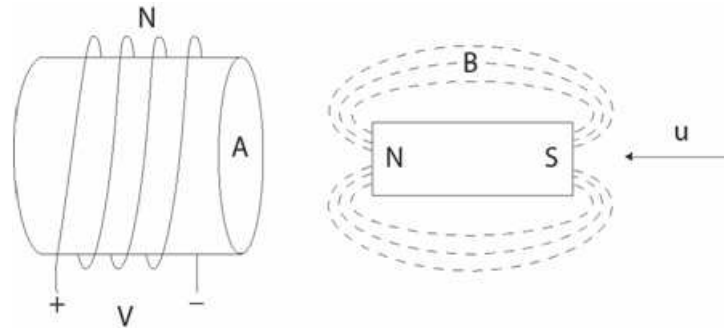


Figure 4–3: Magnet passing through the coil gauge, coil gauge concept 1

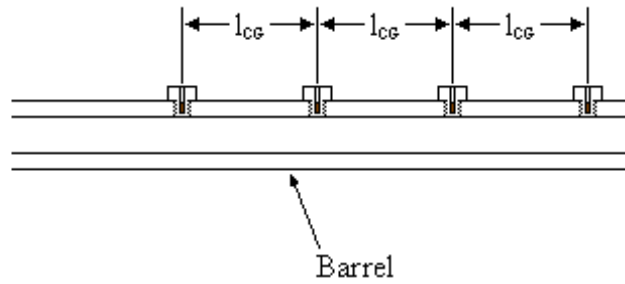


Figure 4-4: Schematic of coil gauge concept 2

This concept is displayed in figure 4-2 and figure 4-3. Furthermore, this concept was tested using helium gas as a propellant and these detail are included in appendix G. The second concept involves a probe being inserted directly into the barrel with the normal vector of the coil perpendicular to the projectiles flight path. This is presented in figures 4-4 and 4-5. As the magnetic field of the projectile interacts with the coil, an emf is induced as implied by equation 4.1. If these coils are set a specified distance apart, then velocity can be inferred by the times measured between these signals. The distance between the coils is represented by l_{CG} in figures 4-2 and 4-4.

The advantage of the first coil gauge concept is that the poles of the magnet are in line with the normal of the coil. Furthermore, the projectile passes through

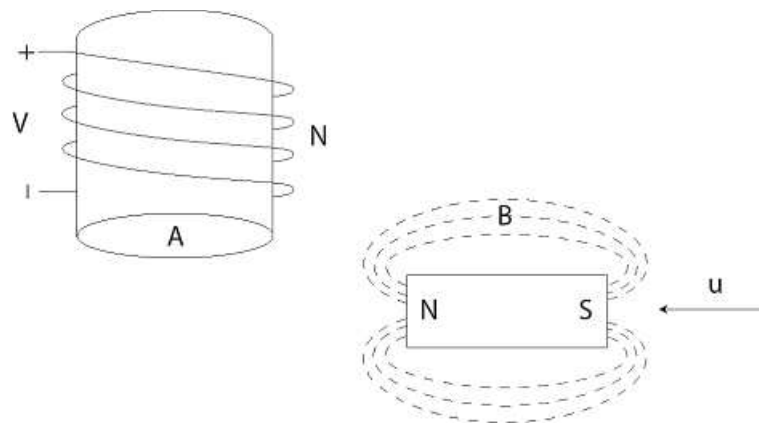


Figure 4-5: Magnet passing perpendicular to coil gauge, coil gauge concept 1

the coil, which allows for the largest possible signal to be produced. For the second coil gauge system, the pole of the magnet is perpendicular to the normal of the coil and therefore, from equation 4.1, a smaller signal is expected. However, the second system has the benefit of taking up less space in the apparatus and it is much easier to exchange one of the probes than it is to disassemble and fix one of the rings in the first concept.

Figure 4–6 is a sample signal from the first concept and figure 4–7 is a sample signal from the second concept. It can be seen that the signal is 2 magnitudes larger for the first concept when compared to the second concept. Furthermore, in the second concept, the signal can become lost in the noise due to the small magnitude as can be seen in figure 4–8. As a result, it was decided that the first concept was a better choice for this application.

This diagnostic also can aid in the verification of a projectile's survival during launch. Figure 4–9 shows a signal that is not as consistent as that in figure 4–6. On further investigation of the figure 4–9, it can be seen that the magnitude of the signal

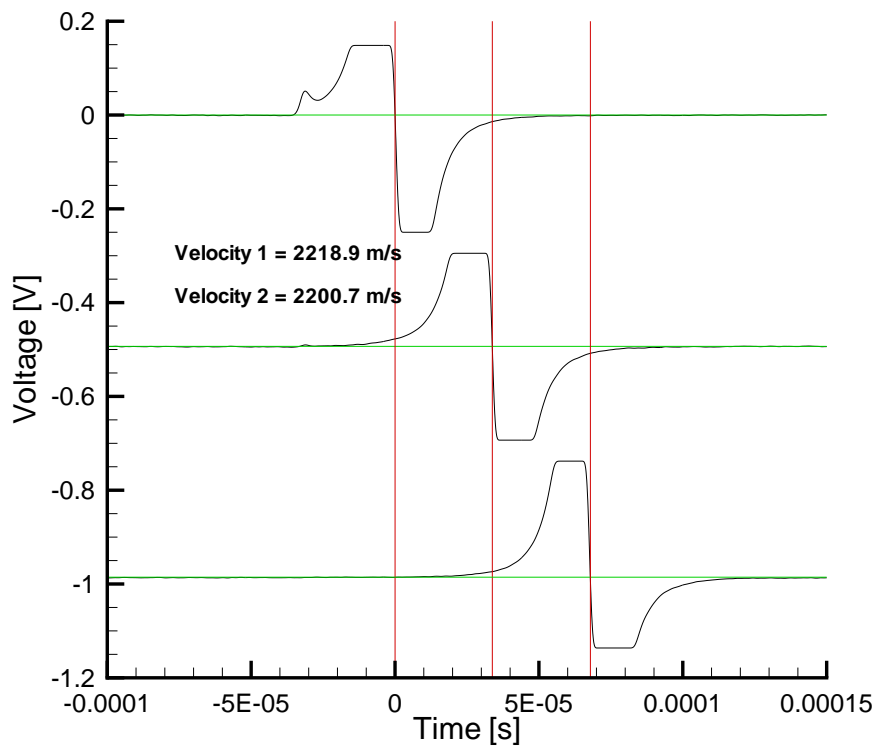


Figure 4–6: Signal from coil gauge concept 1

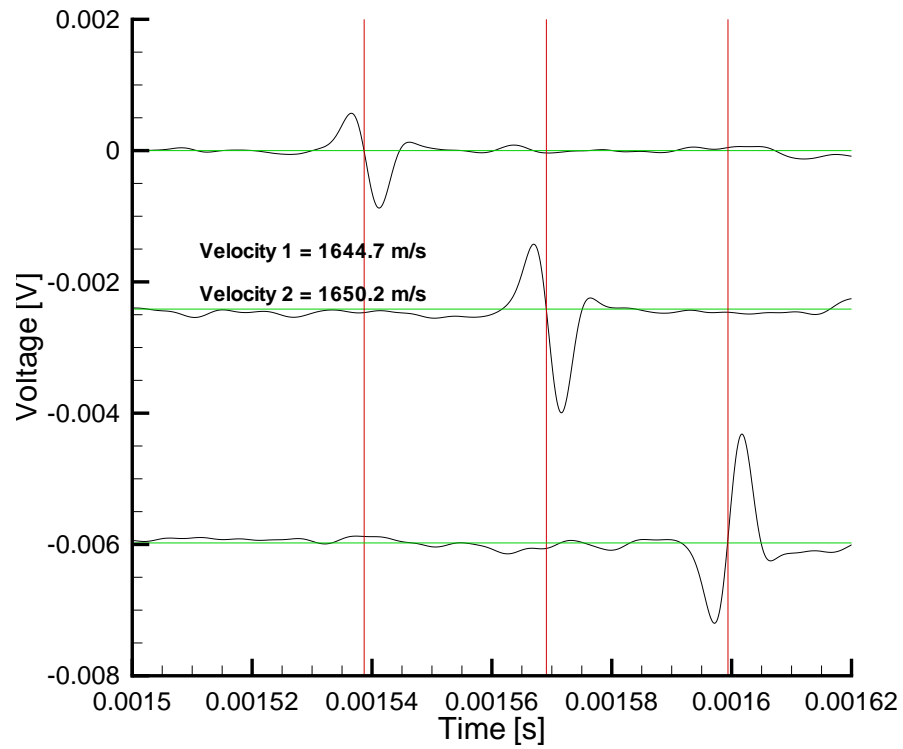


Figure 4-7: Signal from coil gauge concept 2

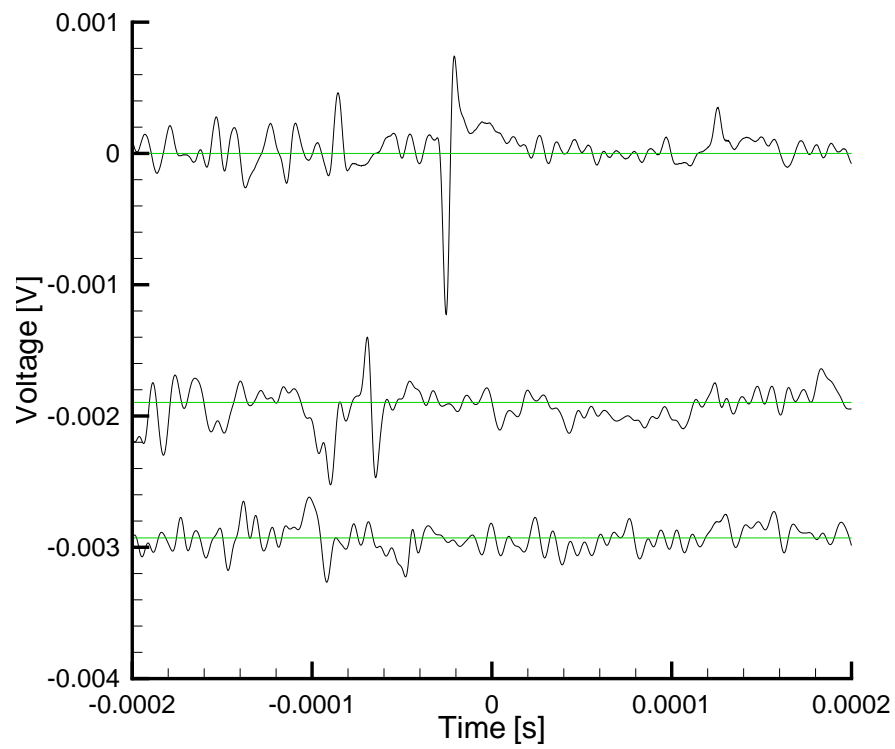


Figure 4-8: Signal lost in noise, coil gauge concept 2

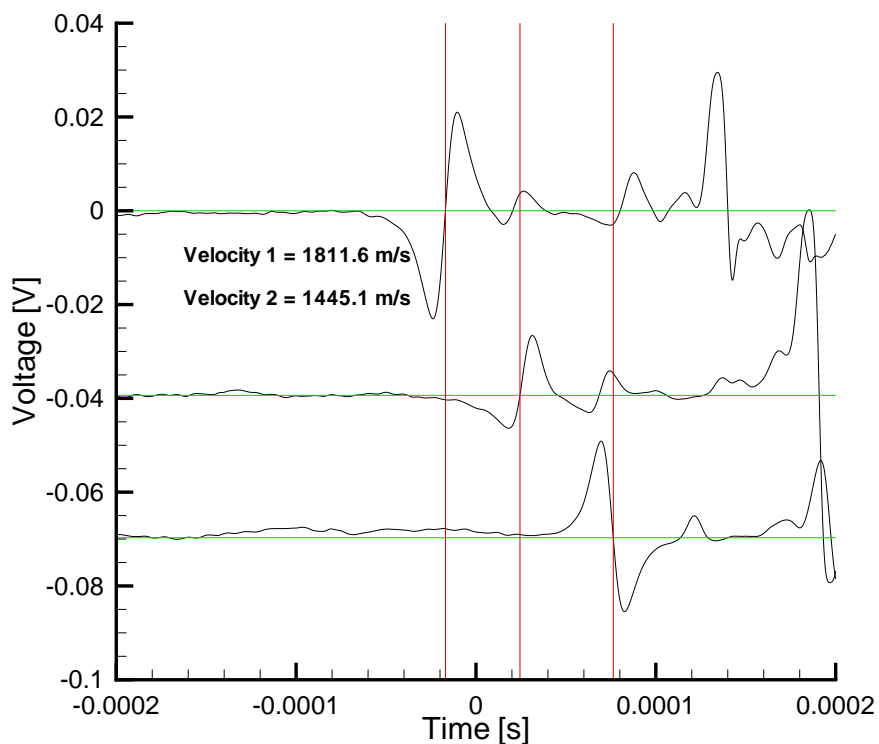


Figure 4-9: Signal from broken projectile, coil gauge concept 1

is changing from coil to coil, which is not evident in figure 4-6. Furthermore it can be seen that the polarity of the signal has changed from coil 2 to coil 3. This would indicate a tumbling magnet as it passes through the coil gauge. This is evidence of

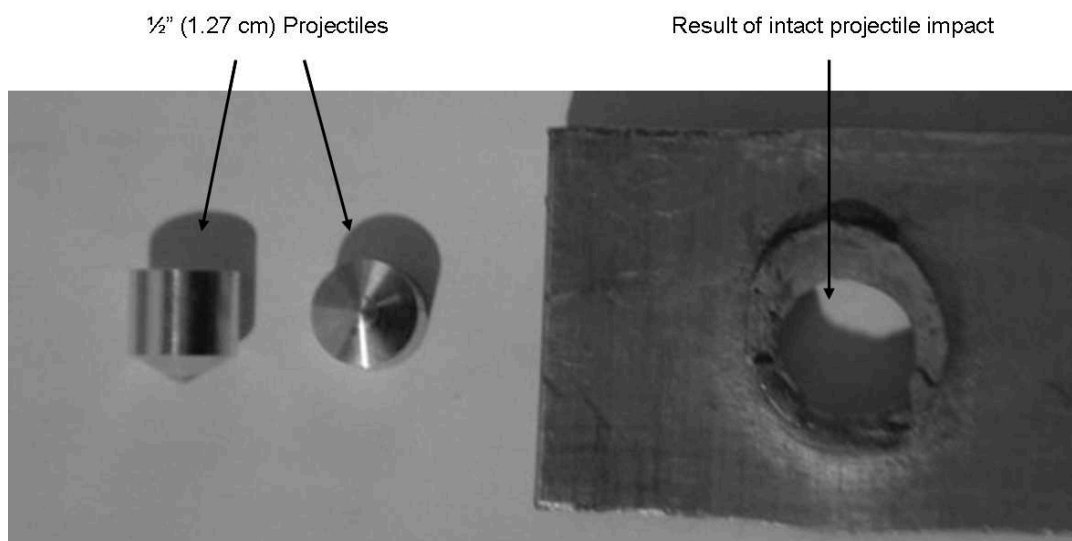


Figure 4-10: Witness plate indicating an intact projectile

a broken projectile, which is further supported by the loss of velocity between coils 2 and 3. If the projectile was just tumbling, the velocity should not drop as much over such a short distance (7.5 cm). Thus this system, along with the witness plate that catches the projectile, can be used to verify projectile integrity without the use of a high speed camera. Figure 4–10 shows the typical impact of an intact $\frac{1}{2}$ " (1.27 cm) diameter projectile on a witness plate, whereas figure 4–11 shows the impact pattern of a fragmented projectile. However, to be certain of projectile integrity high speed photography is essential. For that reason, a large portion of the trials for this project were photographed using a HSFC Pro Image-Intensified camera with a COOKEScope strobe for a light source. This system was interconnected with the coil gauge velocity diagnostic in order to synchronise the triggering of the camera with the projectile exiting the muzzle of the barrel. This allows for accurate timing

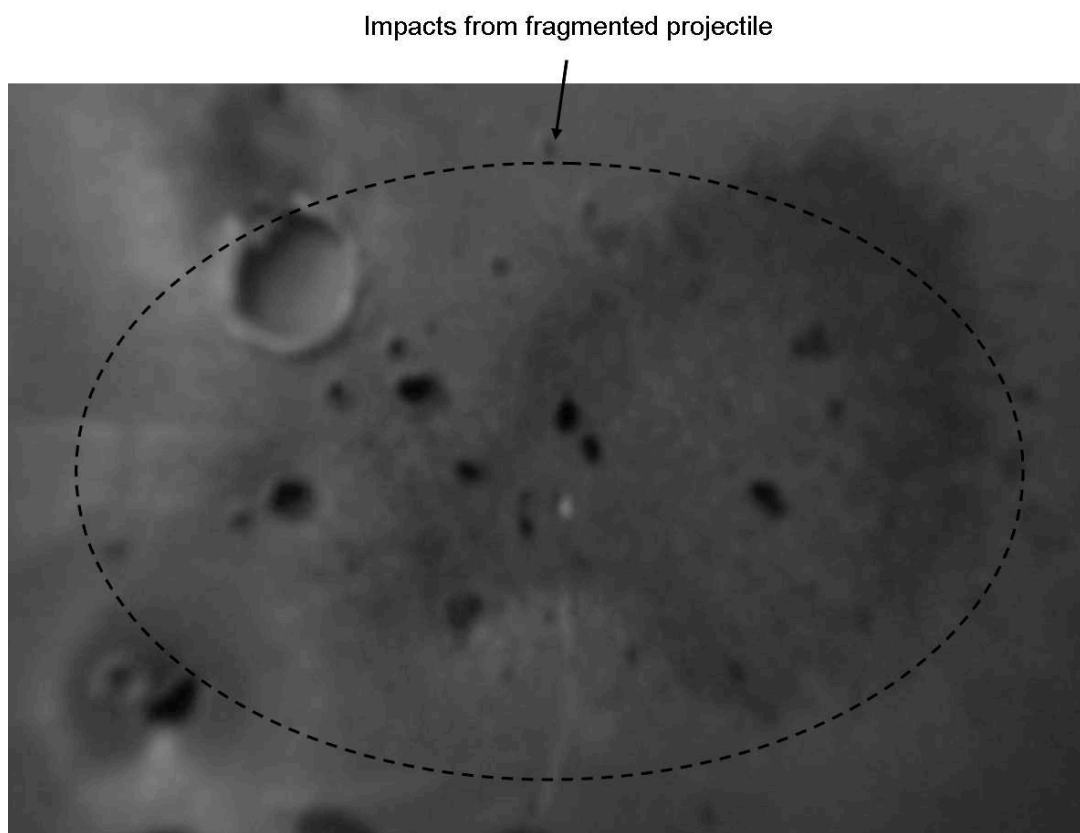


Figure 4–11: Witness plate indicating a fragmented projectile

for the camera, which is essential for still photography of an event that is measured in microseconds. Thus the events were measured and observed using a combination of the coil gauge and high speed photography. Figure 4-12 shows a typical image of an intact projectile in flight, whereas figure 4-13 shows an image of a projectile fragmented by the forces of the launch.

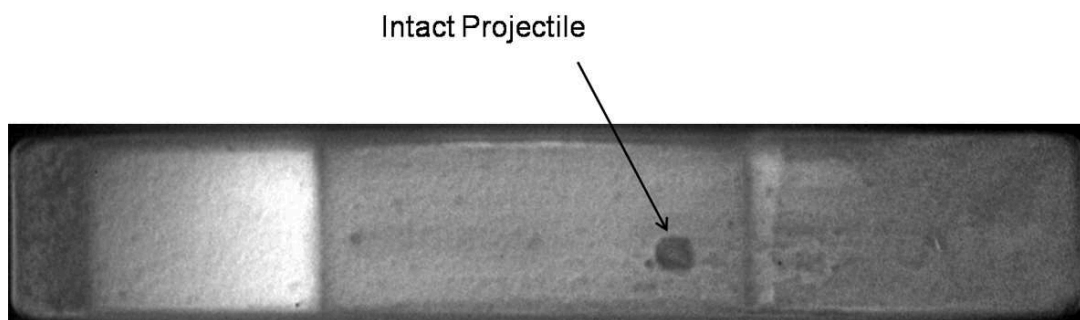


Figure 4-12: Image of an intact projectile

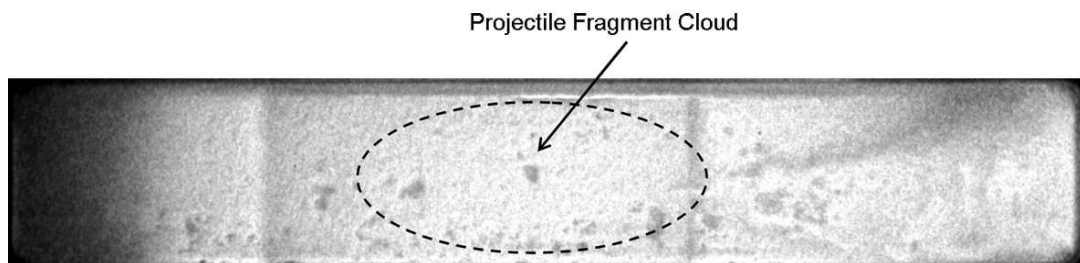


Figure 4-13: Image of a fragmented projectile

4.2 Projectiles

Through the course of these experiments, attempts were made to optimize the projectile performance. This was done by varying the geometry of the projectile as well as the material. Materials tested were Lexan (PC), aluminium, aluminium Alloy 7075-T6, and titanium. Due to the increased mass of the aluminium and titanium projectiles extra material was removed. There were 6 basic types of geometries tested. These are displayed in figure 4-14

Projectile Type 1 was used with the shock pin array velocity measuring system. Projectile Type 2 was the prototype projectile for the Coil Gauge concept. It uses a band of flexible magnet (ferrite bonded with synthetic rubber) around its circumference. Projectile Type 3 was a composite projectile with an aluminium disc screwed to a Lexan backing with a rare earth (Neodymium-Iron-Boron) magnet. Projectile Type 4 is a blunted projectile with the rare earth magnet inserted from the front. Projectile Type 5 is a conical projectile with the magnet inserted from the front. Projectile Type 6 is a conical projectile with the magnet inserted from the back.

There are three possible operations applied to these projectiles. The first is the addition of a Bridgman cup, the purpose of which is to prevent blow by of gases by expanding to create a seal between the projectile and the barrel. For the most part this was achieved by plunging a 1/2" ball mill to the required depth (l_{BC}), however, some projectiles used a 7/16" ball mill. The second procedure was applied to reduce mass. This involved creating a partial cone, as represented in figure 4–14 by the Type 4 projectile (though type 4 may be totally blunt). The final operation was also applied in order to reduce mass. This involved plunging a 3/8" ball mill in the back

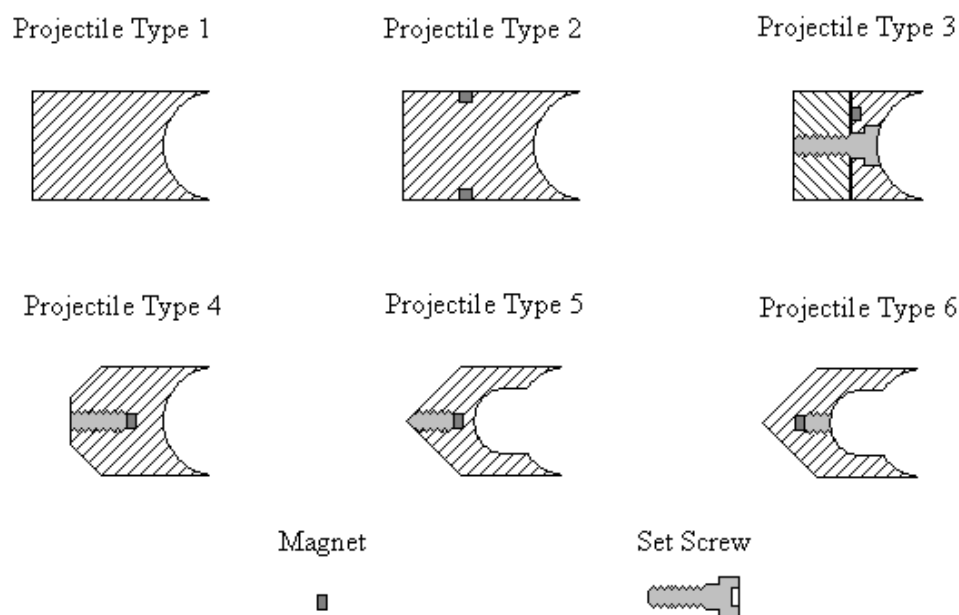


Figure 4–14: Projectile Geometries

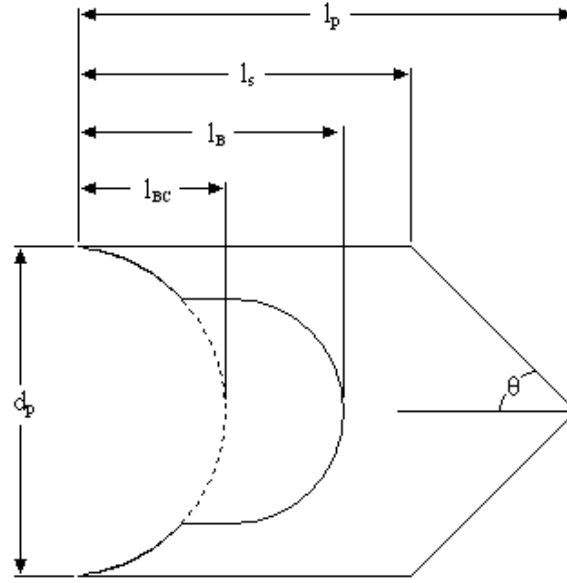


Figure 4–15: General representation of the projectile

of the projectile to the required depth (l_B). This is represented in figure 4–14 by both Type 5 and Type 6 projectiles. Figure 4–15 is a general representation of the projectile with l_p as the total projectile length, l_s as the projectile shoulder length, l_{BC} as the depth of the Bridgman cup, l_B as the material removal bore depth and θ as the half angle of the cone (or partial cone for Type 4 projectiles). All the projectile data for each trial is tabulated in appendix H.

4.3 Experimental Details

The shot procedure involves inserting the diaphragm and pressure checking the gun system with helium. This is done without the projectile and barrel attached so that if the diaphragm was to break, then the projectile would not discharge, which would result in the loss of this projectile. The pressure check allows the system to be tested for leaks that would result in the detonable gas venting from the driver. Even though the gun system is contained within a safety chamber to protect the lab from this situation, it is still an important safety step and it adds certainty to the pre-detonation pressure. Once the check has been done the helium is vented.

Next the projectile is inserted in the barrel and held in place with a drop of cyanoacrylate glue. For most of the trials the projectile has a rare earth magnet inserted inside it as part of the diagnostic system. The exception to this were the first six trials that used a shock pin system to measure velocity and the first 4 experiments using the coil gauge velocity system. These trials used refrigerator magnets rings around the circumference of the projectile.

Once the projectile is inserted, the barrel is attached to the breech and then the entire system is sealed in the safety chamber. Once the safety chamber is sealed the gun filling procedure starts. For most trials the gun was filled with a stoichiometric mixture of hydrogen and oxygen. This was done by a partial pressure filling method where a slug of hydrogen is first injected to pressure p_1 . Once the pressure is stabilized a slug of oxygen is injected, taking the mixture to $2p_1$. Finally a second slug of hydrogen is injected bringing the pressure to desired pre-detonation pressure, $3p_1 = p_{fill}$. Once filling was completed, the gun was sealed from all but the pressure gauge, here a 4000 psi Omega pressure transducer. The remaining gas in the fill lines is vented to the outside in order to leave no detonable mixture in the filling system. The gas is then left to mix for a period of 15 minutes to allow for uniformity throughout the driver. This procedure is represented by figure 4-16.

In the last minutes of the mixing process the test section is evacuated using a vacuum pump. This is done in order to lessen the effects of the bow shock (note, even though there is no air ahead of the projectile there can still be propellant blow by). Once evacuation is complete and the driver gas mixed, the gun can be fired. For the majority of the trials the mixture is ignited from the fill end using an electric model rocket motor igniter and a 30 Volt DC power source. However, ignition from the breech end was also investigated in order to lessen the initial pressure on the projectile. All the initial gun data is presented in table form in appendix I.

Once the gun has fired, the propellant gases are vented from the safety and test chambers. Furthermore, shop air is injected into the gun from the fill port driving any

residual water out of the gun system in order to prevent rusting and contamination of the next trial. This process can be done comfortably in a period of 2 hours hence, multiple trials can be done in a single day. The velocity data for these trials are presented in appendix J.

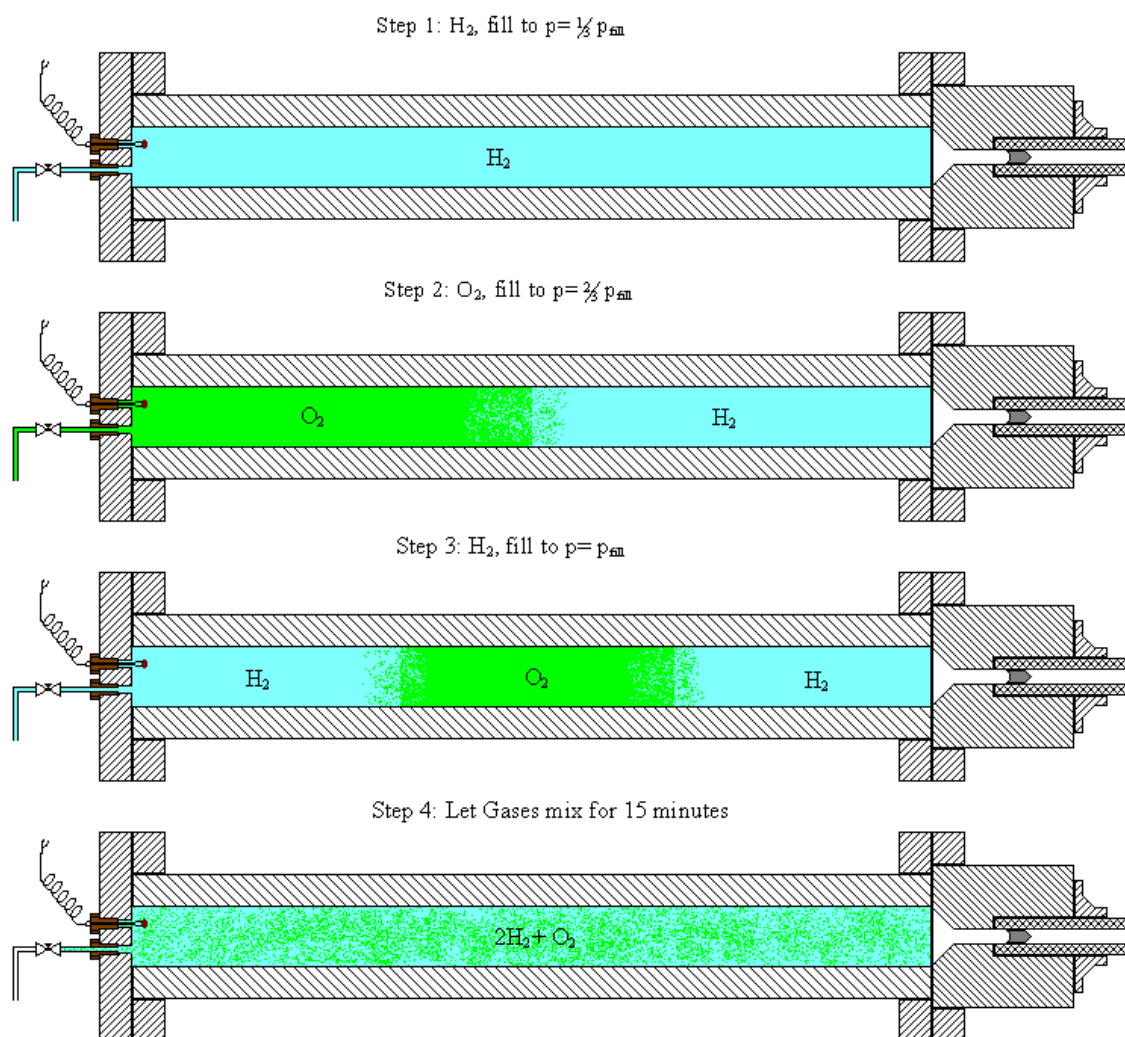


Figure 4-16: Schematic of the fill procedure

4.3.1 Facility Images

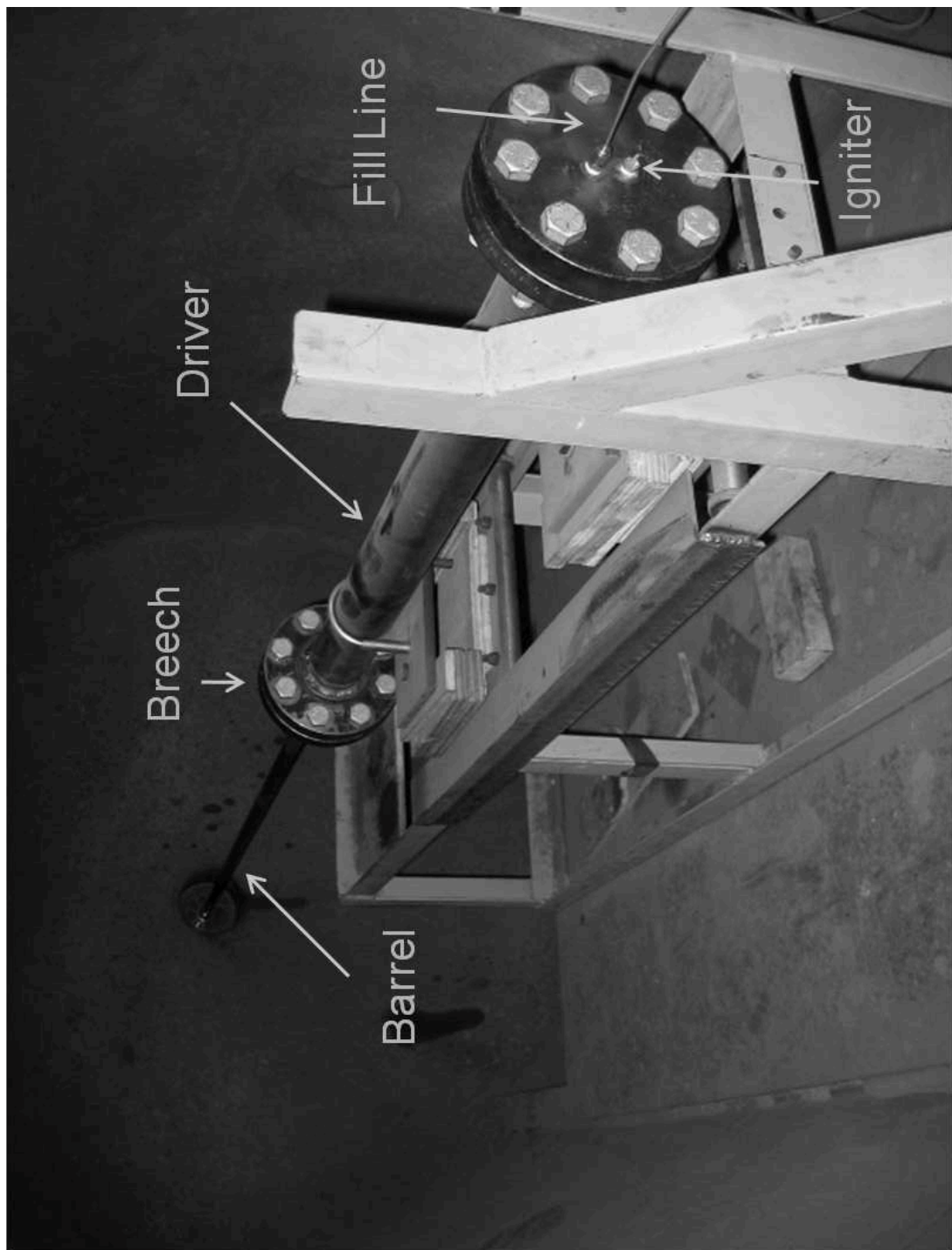


Figure 4-17: Image of the guns system



Figure 4-18: Image of the coil gauge system

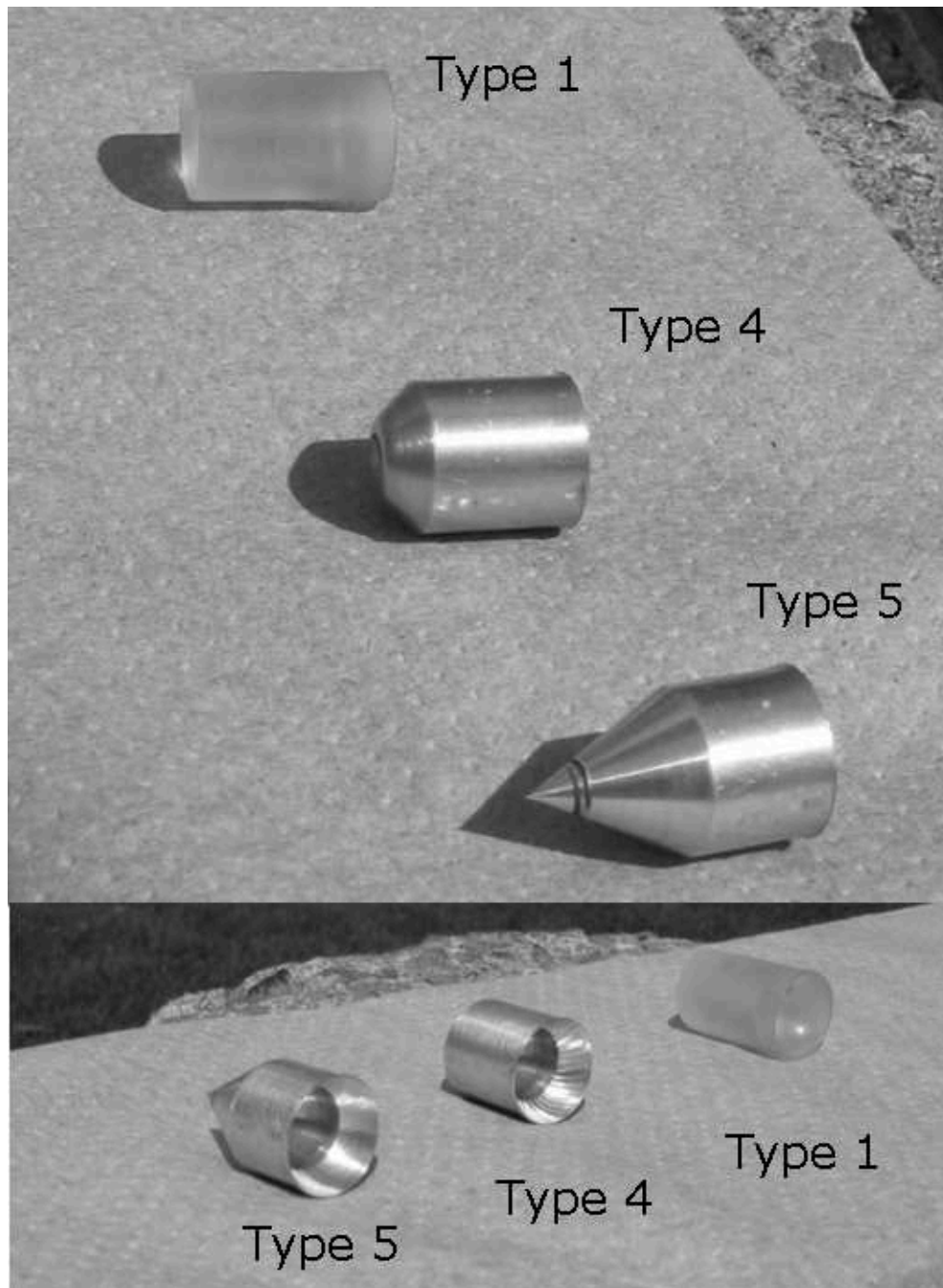


Figure 4-19: Image of various projectiles

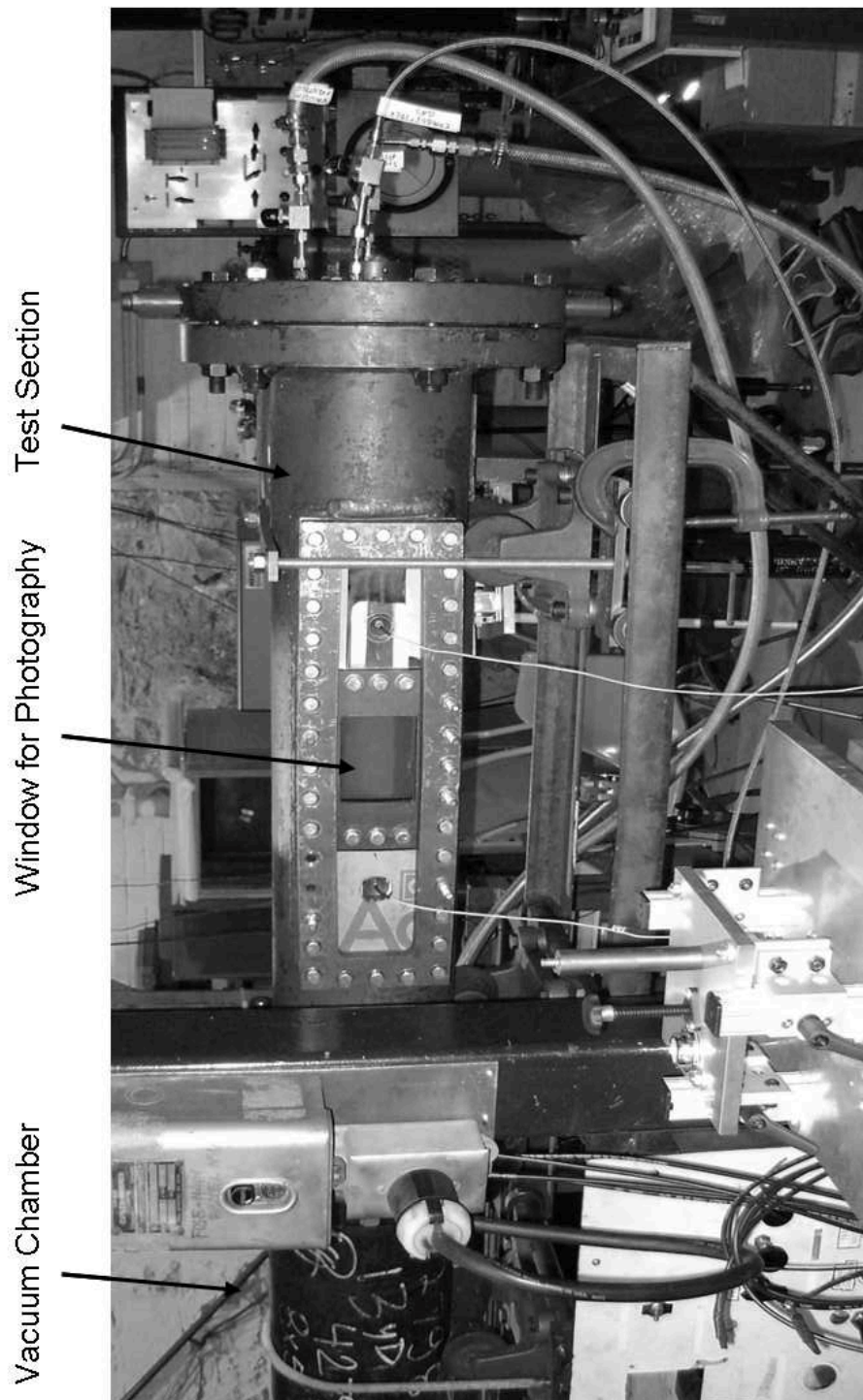


Figure 4-20: Image of the test section

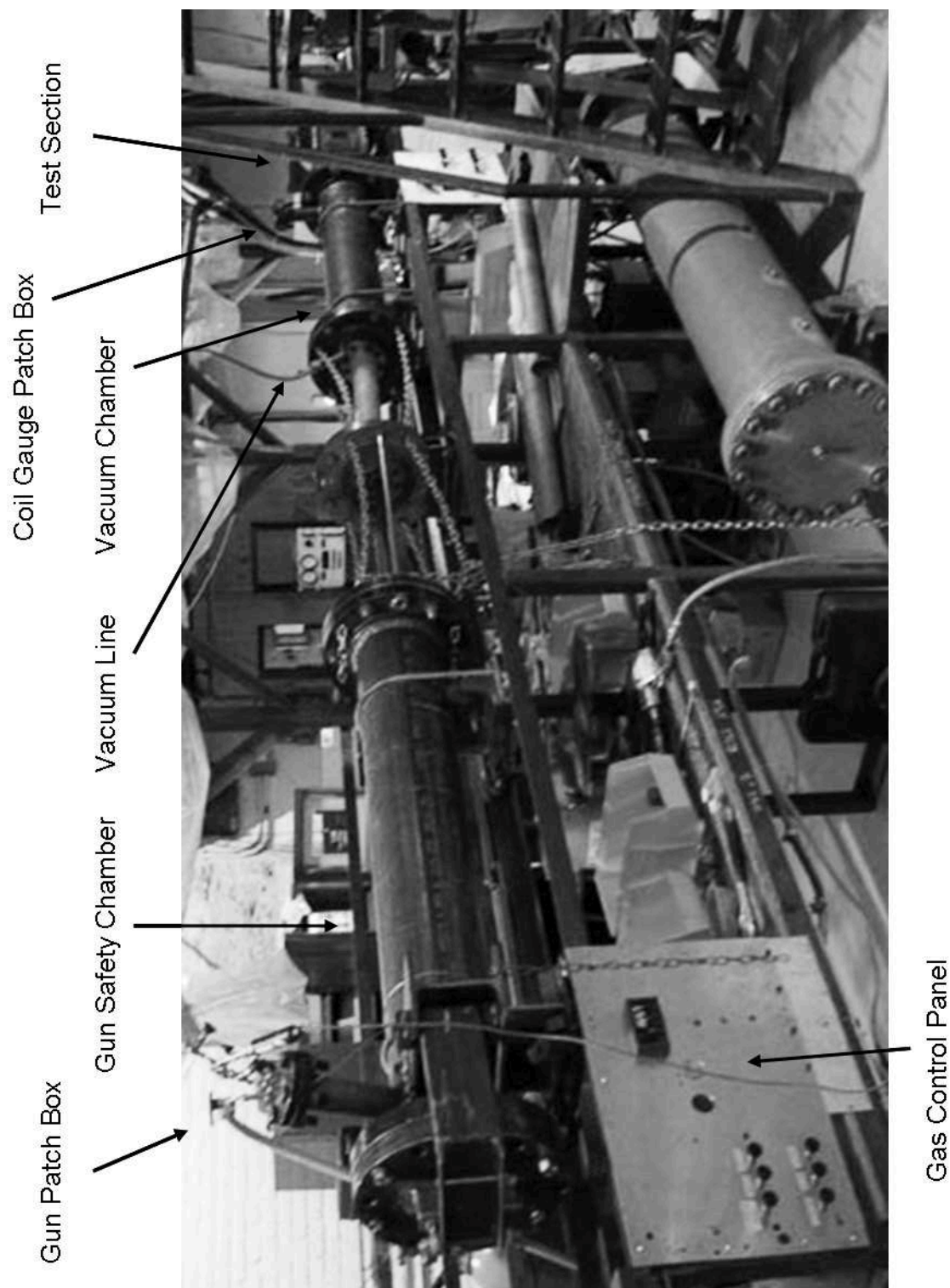


Figure 4-21: Image of the gaseous detonation driven gun facility

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Results: 6 foot (183 cm) Barrel

The 6 foot (183 cm) barrel gun trials consisted of tests for performance by varying both mass and pre-detonation pressure. The varying mass experiments were done keeping the pre-detonation pressure fixed at 62.5 atm. The results for these experiments compared with the Euler code performance calculations are presented in figure 4–22, while figure 4–23, compares the results of the fixed projectile mass of 3.2 g over a range of pre-detonation pressures.

From figure 4–22 it can be seen that by making the projectile too light (essentially making it too fragile) will cause it to break, whereas figure 4–23 shows that by increasing the pre-detonation pressure above the pre-determined maximum safe pressure can result in projectile failure.

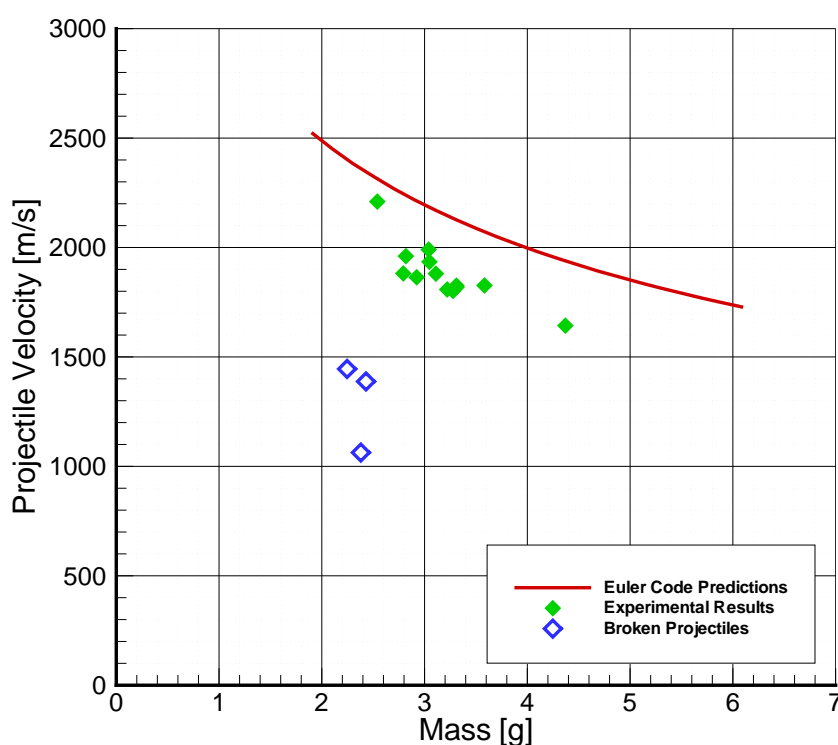


Figure 4–22: Muzzle velocity vs. projectile mass for the 6' (183 cm) barrel at 62.5 atm pre-detonation pressure

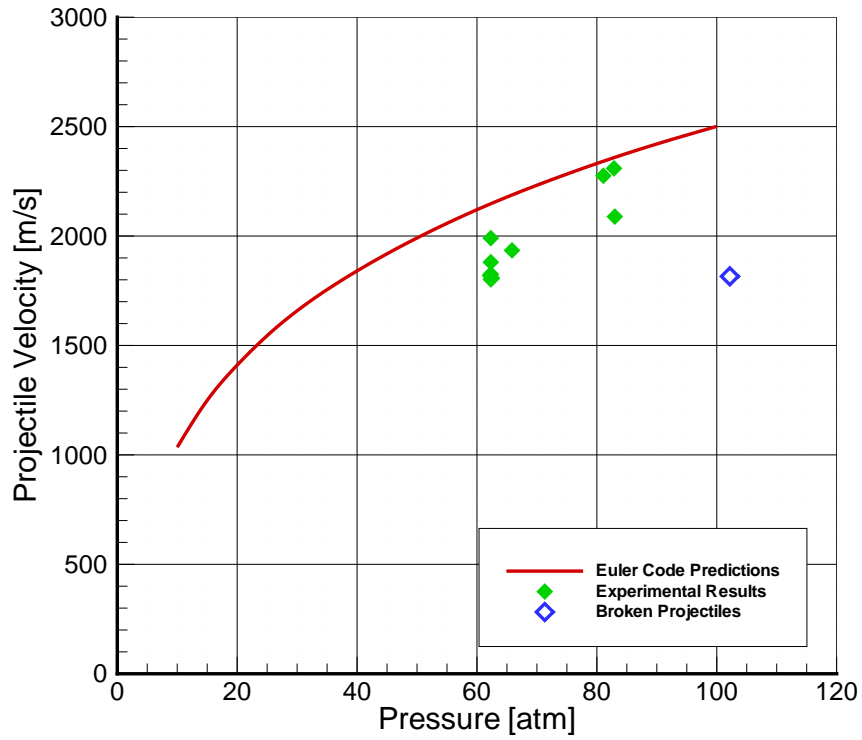


Figure 4-23: Muzzle velocity vs. pre-detonation pressure for 6' (183 cm) barrel and projectile mass of 3.2 g

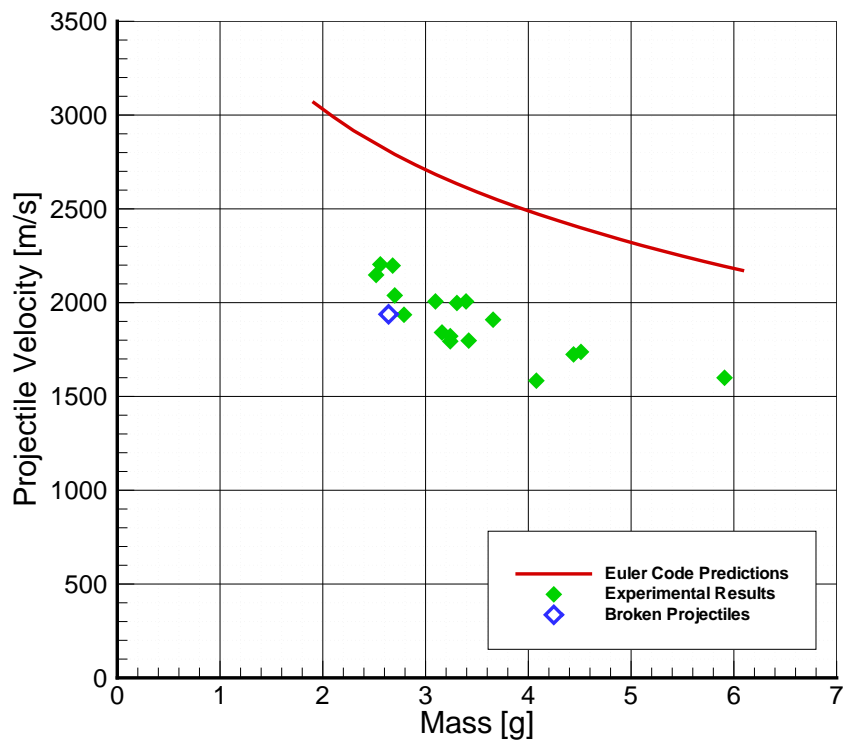


Figure 4-24: Muzzle velocity vs. projectile mass for the 12' (366 cm) barrel at 62.5 atm pre-detonation pressure

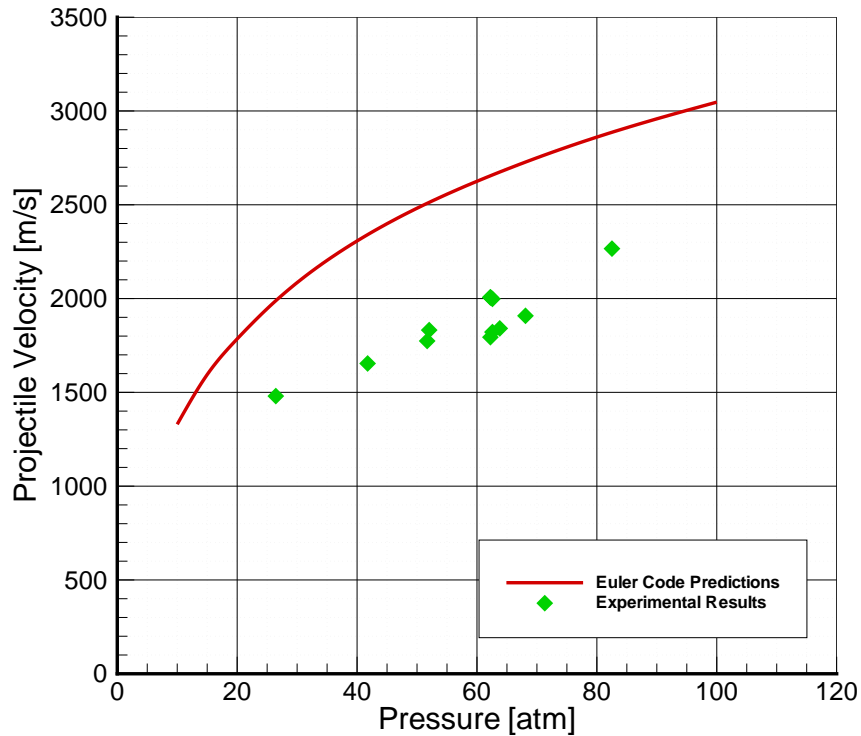


Figure 4-25: Muzzle velocity vs. pre-detonation pressure for 12' (366 cm) barrel and projectile mass of 3.2 g

4.4.2 Results: 12 foot (366 cm) Barrel

The 12 foot (366 cm) barrel gun trials consisted of the same tests that were done for the 6 foot barrel. The varying mass results are presented in figure 4-24 and the varying pressure results are presented in figure 4-25.

It can be seen from figures 4-24 and 4-25, when compared to figures 4-22 and 4-23, that there seems to be a larger discrepancy in the predicted results and those actually obtained. However, the trend for the lighter projectiles breaking seems to remain.

4.4.3 Results: Ignition Location

The results of the ignition location trials are displayed in figure 4-26. These trials used the 12' barrel and 3.2 g projectiles and were done over a range of pressures. From figure 4-26 it can be seen that there is a definite drop in muzzle velocity when ignition occurs at the breech end of the gun system.

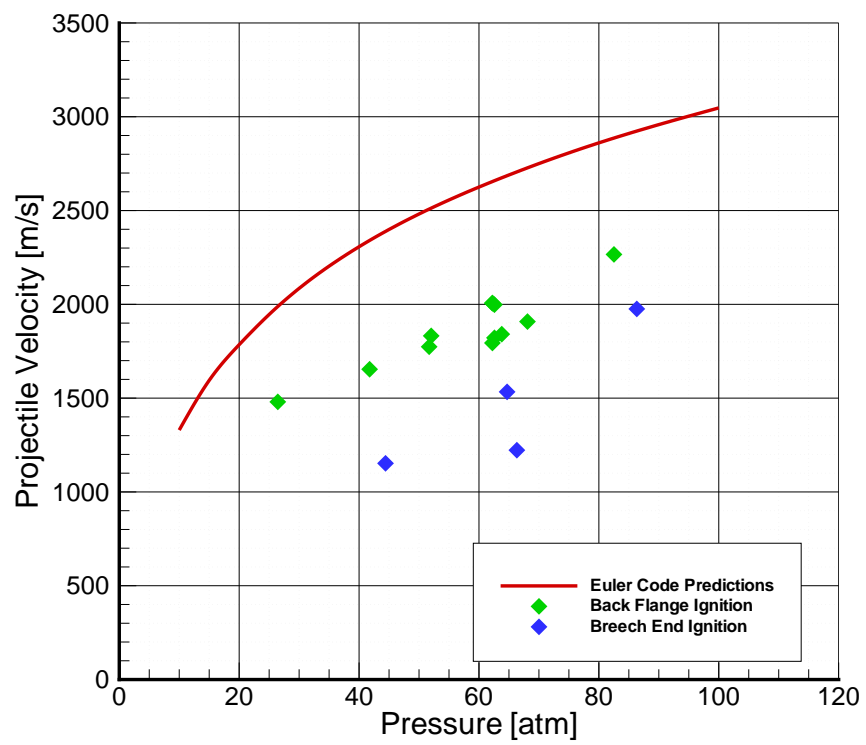


Figure 4-26: Comparison of different ignition locations, 12' barrel, 3.2 g projectile and 62.5 atm pre-detonation pressure

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

5.1 Experimental Results

From the experimental results it seems that there is almost no benefit from increasing the barrel length. This is further confirmed when plotting figures 4–23 and 4–24 together on the same plot. This has been done and presented in figure 5–1. This result seems to coincide with previous results [1] where the losses result in a maximum effective barrel length. However, for this prototype, this seems to occur at barrel lengths even less than $\zeta = 200$ since the results are approximately the same for the 183 cm ($\zeta = 144$) and the 366 cm ($\zeta = 288$) barrel. This is possibly due to the very high initial temperatures of this mixture, as high as 4350 K, since heat loss is driven by gradients in temperature. Furthermore, this could also be due to the

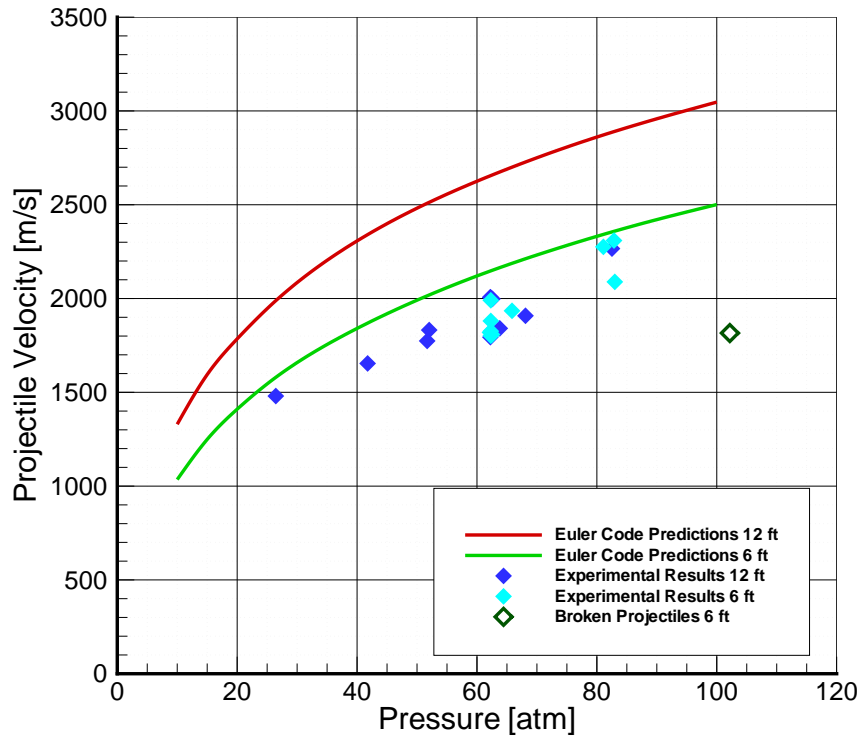


Figure 5–1: Muzzle velocity vs. pre-detonation pressure comparing the 6' and 12' barrels and projectile mass of 3.2 g

transitions along the length of the barrel that the projectile must pass through. If these are not perfectly in alignment, then the projectile could be slowed as it passes through them.

To account for convective and frictional losses, an empirical study was done by Seigel in [1] to estimate these effects. It was postulated that these losses are a function of both ζ and the quantity $\gamma u_p/a_o$. Experiments were done with bore diameters ranging from 0.22" to 4" and the actual velocities obtained were between 10,000 and 23,000 ft/s (3048 to 7010 m/s). This study was done for a range of ζ from 100 to 250. A polynomial fit for this correlation was determined from the figure presented by Seigel in [1]. This correlation relates the ideal velocity $u_{p(ideal)}$ to the velocity that is affected by losses. It should be noted that the effect of ζ is assumed constant for this correlation, but in reality under predictions of the velocity should be expected toward $\zeta = 100$ and over predictions of the velocity should be expected toward $\zeta = 250$. The resulting correlation is given by equation 5.1 and has been plotted in figure 5-2.

$$\frac{u_p}{u_{p(ideal)}} = c_1\Theta^6 + c_2\Theta^5 + c_3\Theta^4 + c_4\Theta^3 + c_5\Theta^2 + c_6\Theta + c_7 \quad (5.1)$$

with

$$\Theta \equiv \frac{\gamma u_{p(ideal)}}{a_o} \quad (5.2)$$

and

$$c_1 = -7.051449 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$c_2 = 7.879114 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$c_3 = -3.423272 \times 10^{-2}$$

$$c_4 = 7.109132 \times 10^{-2}$$

$$c_5 = -8.037788 \times 10^{-2}$$

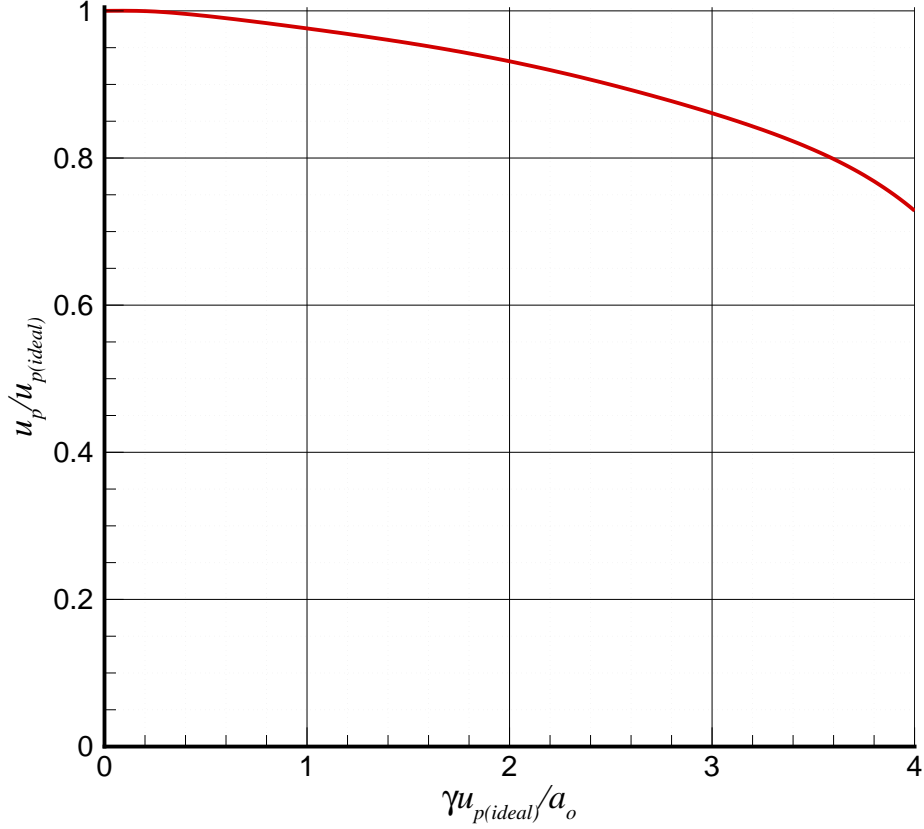


Figure 5-2: Correlation between $u_p/u_{p(ideal)}$ and $\gamma u_{p(ideal)}/a_o$, accounting for the frictional and convective losses, valid for ζ between 100 and 250

$$c_6 = 1.248579 \times 10^{-2}$$

$$c_7 = 1.0$$

This correlation can be used to recalculate the predicted velocity by using the ideal calculations done in Chapter 3. This has been done for the results for the 6 foot barrel ($\zeta = 144$) and figures 4-22 and 4-23 are re-plotted in figures 5-3 and 5-4. The same has been done for the 12 foot barrel ($\zeta = 288$) and figures 4-24 and 4-25 are re-plotted in figures 5-5 and 5-6.

It can be seen in figures 5-3 and 5-4 that the correlation given by equation 5.1 accounts for approximately 1/3 to 1/2 of the discrepancy between the predicted ideal velocity and the experimental results. However, the temperature of the mixture ($3\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 + 8\text{He}$) used by [1] are in the range of 2700 K [6]. In comparison, the temperature of the mixture used for these experiments ranges from 3900 K at 10 atm pre-detonation pressure to 4350 at 100 atm pre-detonation pressure (see table

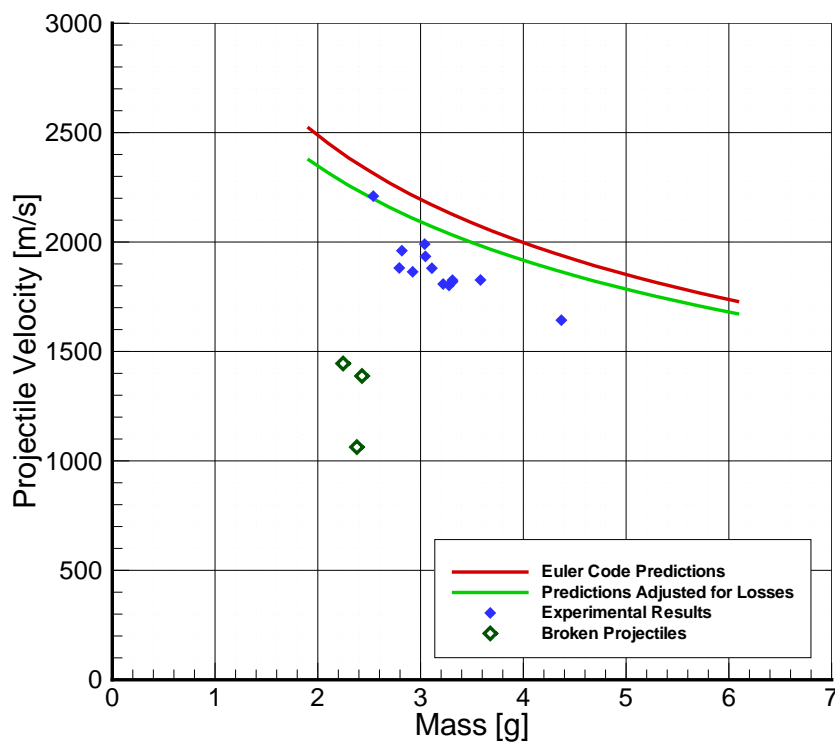


Figure 5-3: Muzzle velocity vs. projectile mass for the 6' barrel at 62.5 atm pre-detonation pressure, accounting for the frictional and convective losses

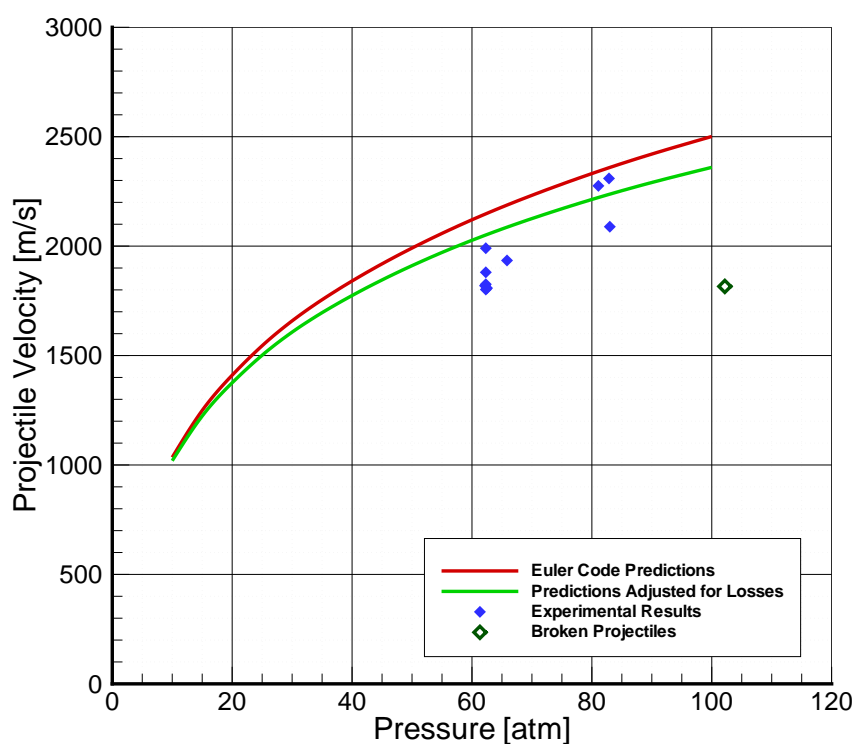


Figure 5-4: Muzzle velocity vs. pre-detonation pressure for 6' barrel and projectile mass of 3.2 g, accounting for the frictional and convective losses

3–3). For the pre-detonation pressure of approximately 62.5 atm in figure 5–3 the CV temperature is approximately 4250 K. This is approximately 60% higher than the initial temperature in the experiment that was used to develop this correlation.

From figures 5–5 and 5–6 it can be seen that the discrepancy in actual velocity and the velocity obtained by the correlation is much larger for the 12 foot barrel than it is for the 6 foot barrel. Furthermore, the correlation represents a much smaller percentage of the discrepancy between the predicted ideal velocity and the experimental results. However, this would be expected since the correlation is not valid for this barrel length as the losses are a function of ζ which the correlation ignores.

Finally for figures 5–3 and 5–5 the experimental pressures range from 62.2 atm to 63.5 atm. From figures 3–3 and 3–4 this equates to approximately $\pm 0.5\%$ discrepancy in velocity. Furthermore, for figures 5–4 and 5–6 the mass ranges from 3.0 g to 3.4 g, which from figure 3–3 and 3–4 equates to approximately $\pm 1.0\%$ discrepancy.

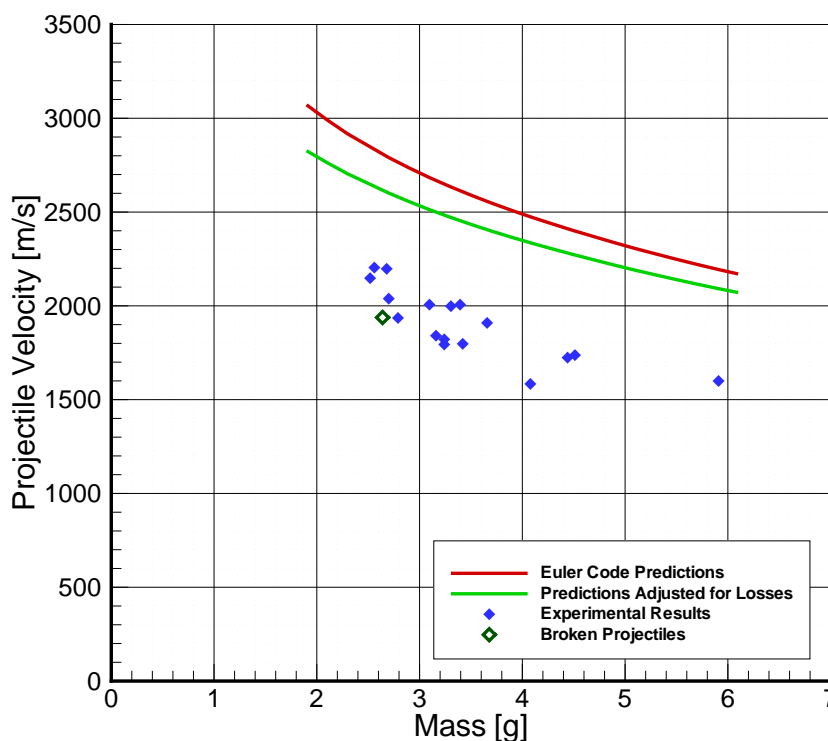


Figure 5–5: Muzzle velocity vs. projectile mass for the 12' barrel at 62.5 atm pre-detonation pressure, accounting for the frictional and convective losses

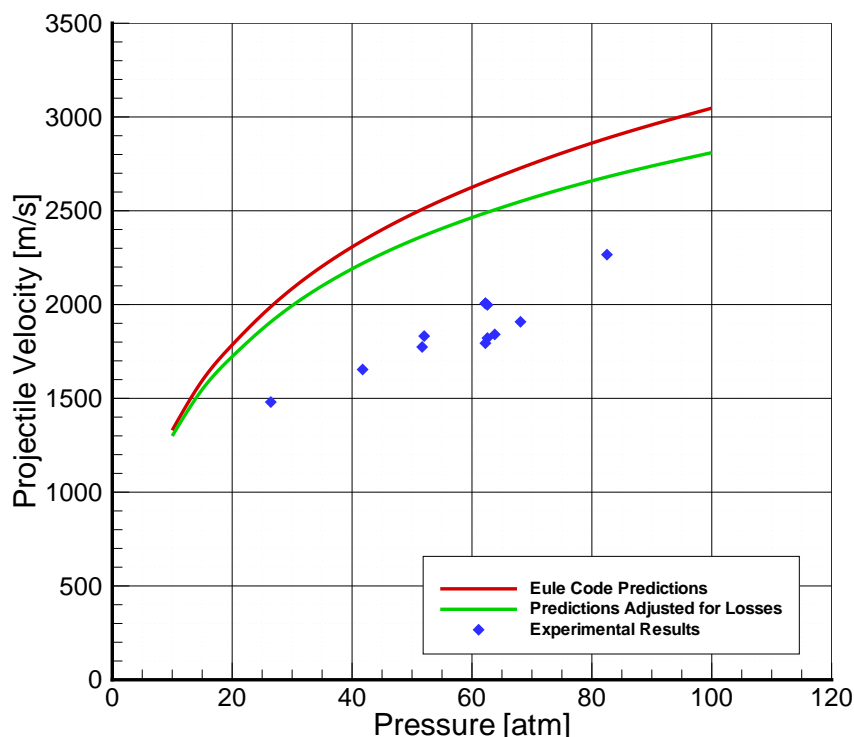


Figure 5-6: Muzzle velocity vs. pre-detonation pressure for 12' barrel and projectile mass of 3.2 g, accounting for the frictional and convective losses

Thus the discrepancy in velocity that is seen in figures 5-3 through 5-6 most likely comes from frictional and convective losses.

Projectile Survival

One of the issues that had to be overcome over the course of these experimental trials was the survival of the projectile. Table 5-1 shows the projectiles that were confirmed to have broken during the trials. It can be seen that for Lexan (PC) projectiles, pre-detonation pressure above 50 atm risks projectile failure. To overcome this, it was decided to try composite projectiles using an aluminium disc attached to a Bridgman seal made of Lexan (Type 3). These, however, proved not to be strong enough to survive at initial pressures in the order of 60 atm. Thus it was decided to use projectiles made entirely of aluminium. These proved to be able to survive up to 90 atm fill pressures when using a blunted configuration (Type 4); however, when using conical projectiles the mass that had to be removed from the body of the

Table 5–1: Broken projectile data

Shot #	Material	Mass [g]	Angle θ	Fill Pressure [bar]	Bored	Seal
8	PC	2.49	90°	72.39	No	Yes
9	PC	2.56	90°	76.88	No	Yes
10	PC	2.54	90°	77.29	No	Yes
13	PC	2.25	90°	61.98	No	Yes
15	Al+PC	2.38	90°	61.98	No	Yes
16	Al+PC	2.43	90°	61.98	No	Yes
17	PC	2.29	90°	52.40	No	Yes
21	Al	2.99	(90+45)°	102.53	Yes	Yes
24	Al	2.71	30°	82.81	Yes	Yes
41	Al 7075	2.75	20°	62.05	Yes	Yes
43	Al 7075	2.64	30°	62.05	Yes	Yes
46	Al 7075	2.63	20°	51.71	Yes	Yes
58	Ti	3.36	20°	63.09	Yes	Yes
62	Al 7075	2.78	20°	41.37	Yes	Yes
69	Al 7075	4.41	20°	65.91	Yes	Yes
84	Al 7075	5.67	30°	75.98	Yes	Yes

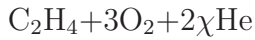
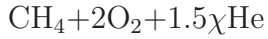
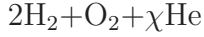
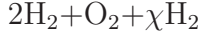
projectile to keep the mass down caused failure to occur at pre-detonation pressures above 64 atm. Therefore it was decided to use the aluminium alloy 7075-T6 as the projectile material. These projectiles proved to be able to survive fill pressures up to 100 atm for 60° projectiles with a Bridgman seal but and no extra material removal (See Shot 064 in appendix I). However, the lower angle projectiles (below 30°) the projectiles proved very fragile when material was removed to reduce their mass.

To try and compensate for the fragility of the projectiles, trials were done testing the effect of ignition location. However, igniting at the breech location results in both lower performance and inconsistent results as seen from figure 4–26.

5.2 Potential Maximization of the Gun System Performance

From the experimental results it seems that changing the length of the barrel, which initially seemed the best way to improve gun performance, resulted in no increase in muzzle velocity. Thus all the mechanical routes have been explored that can possibly increase gun performance. Therefore, the only thing left to be done is optimizing the propellant gas. It was seen in Chapter 2 that light gases such as

helium and hydrogen make the best propellants. Therefore, instead of using steam as the propellant, it is possible to use this steam to heat one of these light gases in order to improve performance. To follow is a study of this concept, investigating the use of



The coefficient C_χ is chosen so that for a given χ the ratio between the products of the reaction and the diluents is equal between each of these mixtures. Furthermore a reference state needs to be chosen to be able to estimate improvements gained by this optimization. This state has been chosen to be $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$ at 100 atm initial pressure and 298 K initial temperature. Furthermore all the calculations were done using the target mass of 3.2 g using aluminium 7075-T6 ($\sigma_u = 572$ Mpa) as the projectile material and assume a 2 m barrel.

The first step in the process was to determine the performance of the gun system and calculate all the states corresponding to the CJ detonation pressure of 2400 bar [6]. Here the strength of the projectile is ignored and the performance calculations only take the mass of the projectile into consideration. The pre-detonation, constant volume and reflected CJ detonation pressures are tabulated in appendix K along with the CV temperature, speed of sound and γ , which are used as inputs for the Euler Code [9]. It can be seen that for the majority of these mixtures the reflected detonation pressure is slightly higher than the ultimate strength of aluminium 7075-T6. Therefore this is the optimal projectile material for the gun system. This follows the criteria in Chapter 2 that states the projectile should be designed to fail before

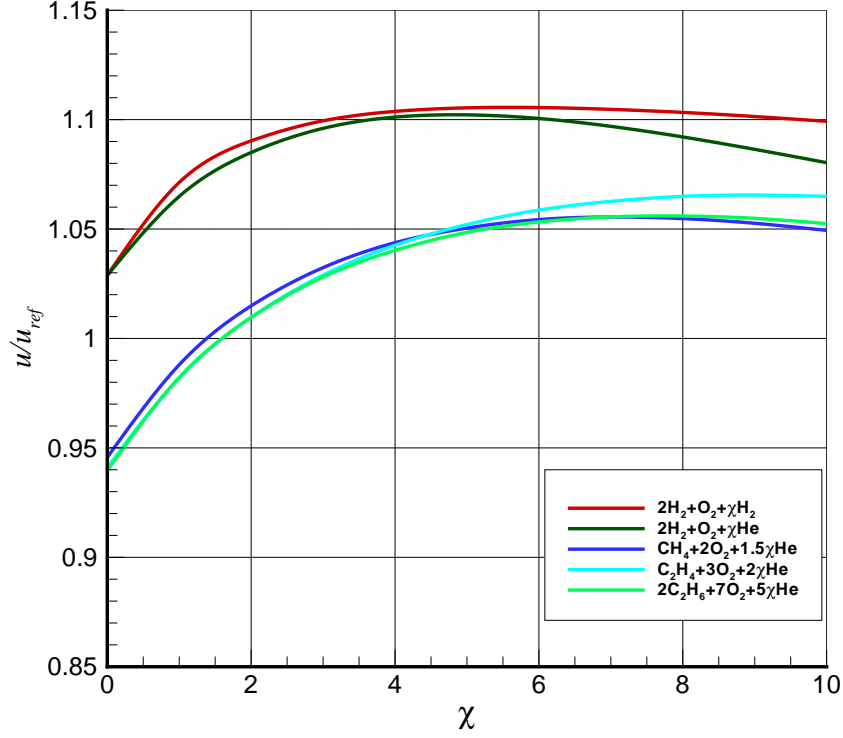


Figure 5–7: Muzzle velocity vs. mixture composition for a 2 m barrel, projectile mass of 3.2 g and CJ detonation pressure of 2400 bar

the gun. The results of these computations are presented in figure 5–7. It can be seen that $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ systems diluted with either H_2 or He perform quite well when compared to the hydrocarbons diluted with He .

Now the strength of the projectile is taken into account and the states corresponding to the reflected detonation pressure of 5720 bar have been calculated [6]. The pre-detonation, constant volume and CJ detonation pressures are tabulated in appendix L along with the CV temperature, speed of sound and γ , which are used as inputs for the Euler Code [9]. The results of the computations are presented in figure 5–8. It can be seen that $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ systems diluted with either H_2 or He still perform quite well when compared to the hydrocarbons diluted with He . However it can be seen when figure 5–8 is compared with figure 5–7 that $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+\chi\text{H}_2$ systems perform even better than $\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+\chi\text{He}$ for a fixed reflected detonation pressure than they do for a fixed CJ pressure.

Due to the reality that these gases are only available at certain pressures and gas handling systems are also limited in their maximum pressure, performance of the system with fixed initial fill pressures must be explored. Since the fill pressure for $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ corresponding to a reflected detonation pressure of 5720 bar has a corresponding CJ pressure lower than the 2400 bar determined to be the maximum safe internal pressure for the gun, then this will be taken as the reference fill pressure. Thus the calculations are redone with the fill pressure fixed to 106.44 bar [6]. The constant volume, CJ detonation pressures and reflected detonation pressures are tabulated in appendix M along with the CV temperature, speed of sound and γ , which are used as inputs for the Euler Code [9]. The results of the computations are presented in figure 5–9. It can be seen that in this case that $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+\chi\text{H}_2$ performs the worst and that it is the hydrocarbon systems that perform the best. This is due to the much higher CV pressures achieved by the hydrocarbon system for than a $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+\chi\text{H}_2$ system of equivalent pre-detonation pressure.

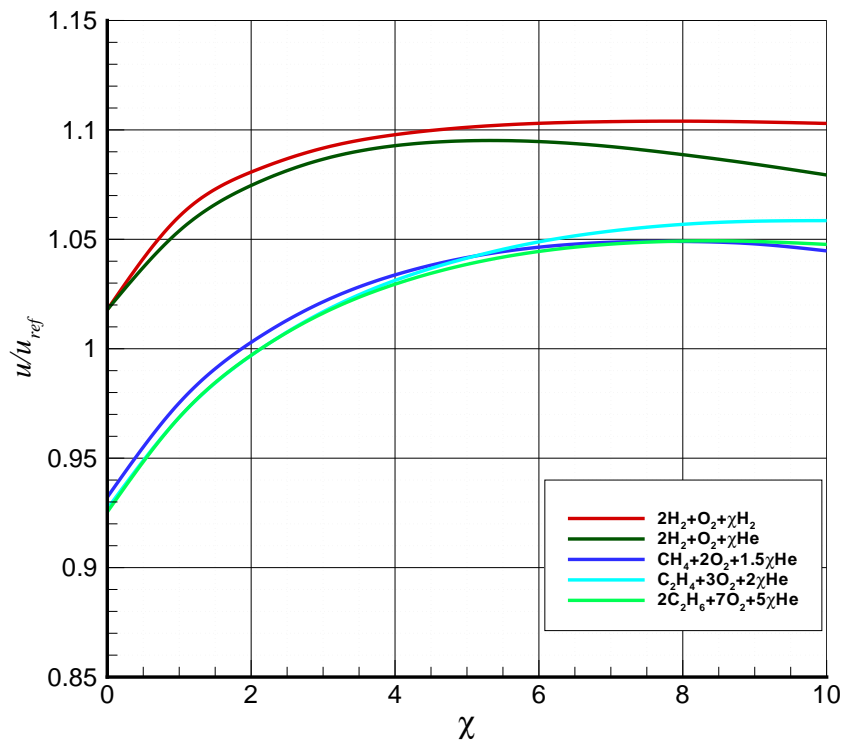


Figure 5–8: Muzzle velocity vs. mixture composition for a 2 m barrel, projectile mass of 3.2 g and reflected detonation pressure of 5720 bar

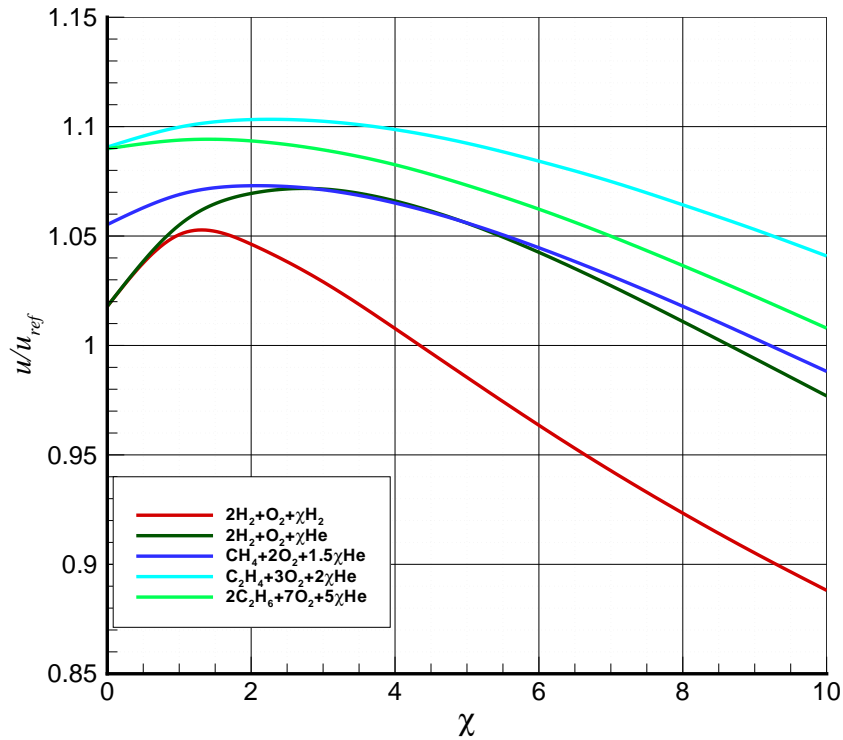


Figure 5–9: Muzzle velocity vs. mixture composition for a 2 m barrel, projectile mass of 3.2 g and pre-detonation pressure of 106.44 bar

Figures 5–7 through 5–9 fix the CJ pressure, reflected CJ pressure, and fill pressure, respectively. Each factor taken individually does not describe the gun system on its own. Figure 5–10 combines figure 5–7 and figure 5–8 so that both the criteria $p_{RCJ} \leq 5720$ bar and $p_{CJ} \leq 2400$ bar are met. However, if the system initial pressure is also a criteria, here defined as $p_{fill} \leq 106.44$ bar, then the system performance as a function of the mixture is represented by figure 5–11. It can be seen that figure 5–10 is almost identical to figure 5–8 but for the curve of $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+\chi\text{H}_2$ above $\chi = 7$ with the best performance given by $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+9\text{H}_2$. However figure 5–11 shows that if the initial fill pressure is an issue, then $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+2.75\text{He}$ is the optimal mixture, followed closely by $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2+16.5\text{He}$.

These results show that depending on what aspect of the system is the limiting factor, be it the gun, the projectile or the gas handling system, there are different mixtures that are the optimal for the system. However, this analysis has shown that the fact that there is a detonation in the system is itself a limitation on performance.

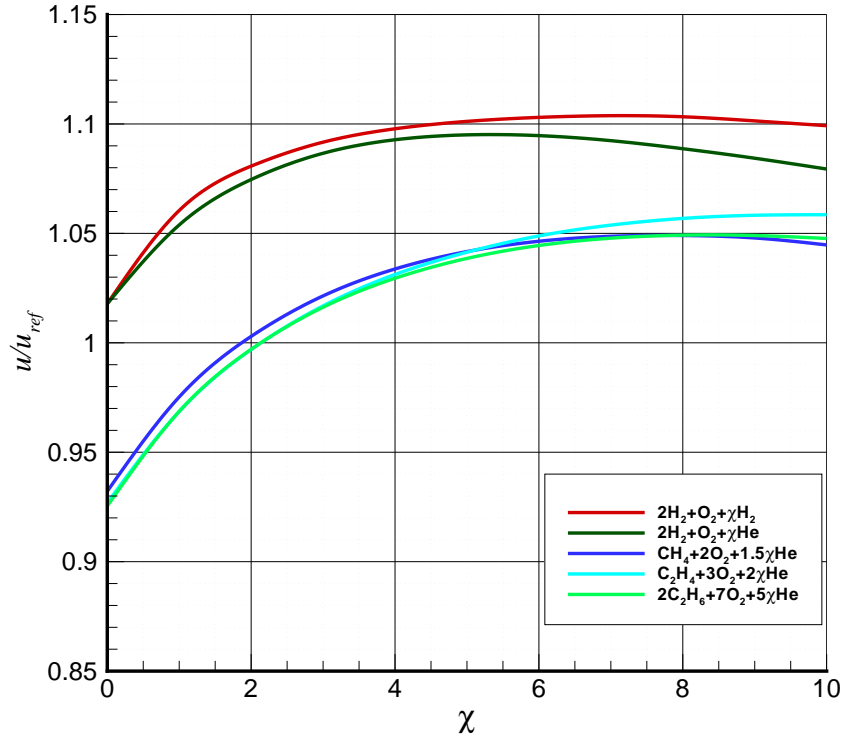


Figure 5–10: Muzzle velocity vs. mixture composition for a 2 m barrel, projectile mass of 3.2 g and the criteria $p_{RCJ} < 5720$ bar and $p_{CJ} < 2400$ bar

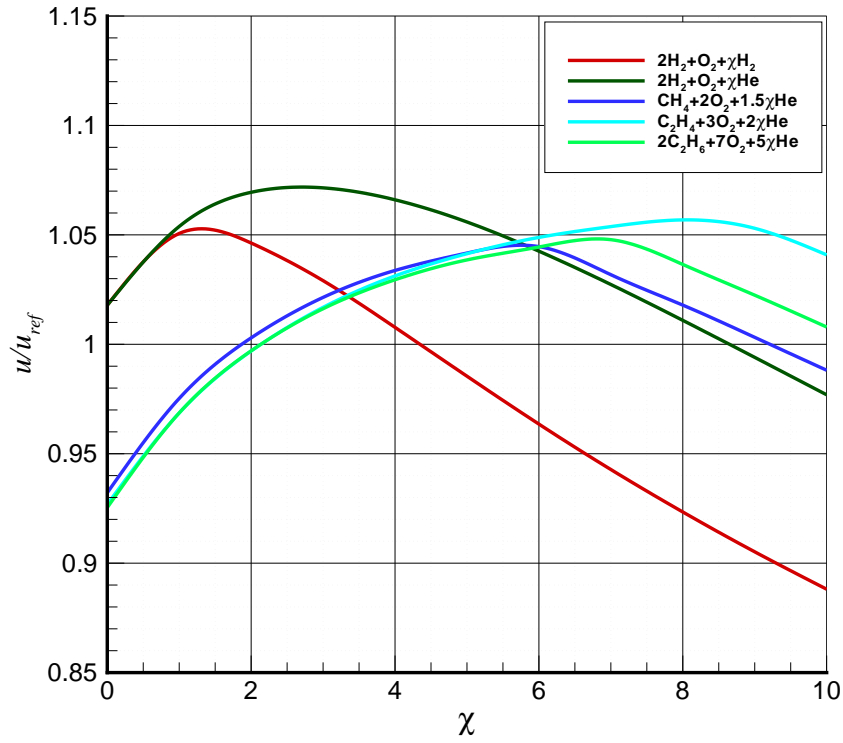


Figure 5–11: Muzzle velocity vs. mixture composition for a 2 m barrel, projectile mass of 3.2 g and the criteria $p_{RCJ} \leq 5720$ bar, $p_{CJ} \leq 2400$ bar and $p_{fill} \leq 106.44$ bar

If these mixtures are combusted in a manner that prevents detonation then a CV pressure of 2400 bar is the limiting factor. The pre-detonation, CJ detonation, and reflected detonation pressure are tabulated in appendix N along with the CV temperature, speed of sound and γ , [6] which are used as inputs for the Euler Code [9]. It can be seen that if a detonation was to occur then, projectile failure is certain and there is a good possibility that the entire system could fail due to the excessively high CJ and Reflected CJ pressures. However, as an exercise in maximizing the performance of this system, figure 5–12 shows the results of these numerical simulations.

It can be seen that all mixtures perform much better in this mode of combustion, with the best performance being almost identical for $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+\chi\text{H}_2$ and $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+\chi\text{He}$ below $\chi=6$. Furthermore these calculations were done assuming an aluminium alloy 7075-T6 projectile with a strength ratio of $S_r = 0.857 \text{ bar m}^3/\text{kg}$ for this system. However, since the peak pressure is 2400 bar, then the high strength aluminium alloy AZ31B can be used for the projectile which has a strength ratio of

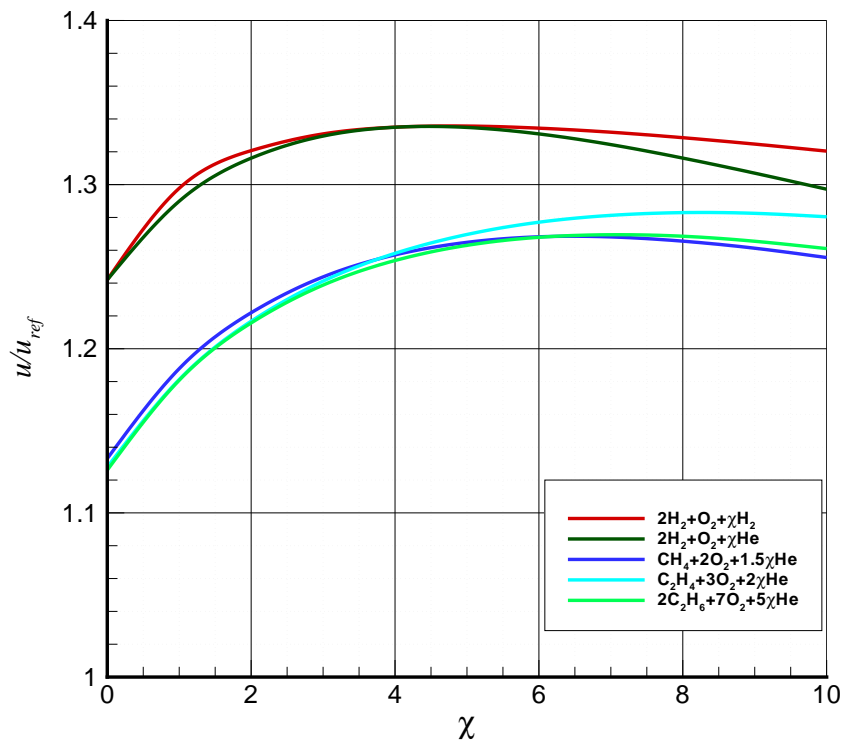


Figure 5–12: Muzzle velocity vs. mixture composition for 2 m barrel, projectile mass of 3.2 g and a CV explosion pressure of 2400 bar

$S_r = 1.356 \text{ bar m}^3/\text{kg}$ in this case. Thus a magnesium projectile of the same geometry as the aluminium projectile in these simulations will have a mass of 2.023 g. Taking this into account, the gun system can achieve velocities in excess of 150% of the reference state of $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ at a fill pressure of 100 atm and initial temperature of 298 K. This can be achieved by using either $7\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ at $p_{fill}=298.4 \text{ bar}$ and 298 K or $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+4\text{He}$ at $p_{fill}=228.9 \text{ bar}$ and 298 K [6]. At first glance it would seem that the latter mixture is better choice due to the lower fill pressure, however, when comparing the CV temperatures of these cases, 2740 K for the $7\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ mixture and 3590 K for the $2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2+4\text{He}$ mixture [6], it should be expected that the convective heat losses from the former mixture would be less than those for the latter mixture.

CHAPTER 6

Conclusion

The theoretical methods developed in this work have provided the tools required to develop a detonation-driven gas gun. These methods have proven to generate results that are in good agreement with the numerical modelling. The resulting prototype achieved a maximum velocity of 2700 m/s with a 2.5 g aluminium alloy 7075-T6 projectile. The experimental results were approximately 85% of the predicted values. This was determined to be primarily a result of frictional and convective losses. The analysis shows that there is potential to improve the performance of the system by utilizing stronger materials and by using $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 + 9\text{H}_2$ as the propellant. If the system is optimized for the high strength titanium alloy Ti-6Al-4V, which was determined to be the optimal projectile material, initial chamber pressures of twice that of the prototype can be achieved. If $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 + 9\text{H}_2$ is used as the propellant, calculations show that there is the potential to improve the gun performance by 8% over a $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$ propellant at the same constant volume pressure.

Finally, there is even greater potential in improving performance by using a constant volume explosion rather than a detonation to heat the propellant. It was shown that the reflected detonation on the projectile results in the driving pressure to be approximately 4.5 times less than the peak pressure on the projectile. Thus, by achieving the CV state without detonating the mixture, a gun system optimized for a titanium alloy Ti-6Al-4V projectile has the potential of achieving driver pressures of approximately 10 times those of the prototype.

In closing, the use of detonable gas as the driver for a single stage gas gun appears a viable and economical alternative to two-stage gas guns. The launcher can be fabricated at a cost approximately two orders of magnitude lower than a two-stage gas gun of equivalent velocity and projectile mass capability. Furthermore, the

use of readily available gases permits bypassing issues related with acquiring and storing solid propellants (and associated initiators). However, there is the need for high pressure gas handling systems in order to operate this type of gun system.

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APPENDIX A

Lagrange Gradient

This derivation follows the same principles as those shown in [4] but here it is done for a PPIG whereas in [4] it was derived for the case of a burning solid propellant.

The underlying assumption in the Lagrange Gradient derivation is that at any time t , the density in the volume is uniform throughout, i.e. there are no spatial gradients. In a gun system there is a chamber (where the propellant gas is stored before launch), the projectile, and the bore (the tube through which the projectile will travel during launch). The Lagrange Gradient also assumes that there is no chambrage (a difference in area between the chamber and the bore). Considering the gas in the chamber under these assumptions then the density can be written as

$$\rho = \rho(x_g, t) \tag{A.1}$$

Where x_g is the position in the gas behind the projectile. It can be seen that after $t = 0$ and the projectile starts to move the gas will also start to move. Thus there is a need to find the relationship between the velocity of the projectile and the velocity of the gas.

Starting from continuity

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_g}(\rho u_{x_g}) = 0 \tag{A.2}$$

where u_{x_g} is the velocity of the gas at position x_g . Expanding the above and applying

the uniform density assumption results in

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \rho \frac{\partial u_{x_g}}{\partial x_g} = 0 \quad (\text{A.3})$$

which when isolating the ρ terms (and knowing that ρ is only a function of t) gives

$$\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial u_{x_g}}{\partial x_g} \quad (\text{A.4})$$

Starting with a fixed amount of gas with mass m_g the density can be written as

$$\rho(t) = \frac{m_g}{V(t)} \quad (\text{A.5})$$

where $V(t)$ is the gas volume at any time t . If the cross sectional area, A , is constant through the chamber and bore then

$$V(t) = Ax_p(t) \quad (\text{A.6})$$

where $x_p(t)$ is the position of the base of the projectile. Substituting these expressions for density and volume into equation A.4, the following is obtained

$$\frac{1}{x_p} \frac{\partial x_p}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial u_{x_g}}{\partial x_g} \quad (\text{A.7})$$

Integrating equation A.7 gives

$$\frac{1}{x_p} \frac{\partial x_p}{\partial t} \int_0^{x_g} dx_g = \int_0^{u_{x_g}} du_{x_g} \quad (\text{A.8})$$

and relationship between the gas velocity and the projectile velocity (where $dx/dt = u_p$) is obtained

$$u_{x_g}(x_g) = \frac{u_p}{x_p} x_g \quad (\text{A.9})$$

It can be seen from equation A.9 that the gas particle velocity varies linearly, with the slope u_p/x , from the breech face to the projectile base and, as stated in [4], is a primary assumption of the Lagrange approximation.

Using this relation, the kinetic energy of the gas driving the projectile can now be investigated. This is given as

$$KE_g = \frac{1}{2}m_g u_{x_g}^2 \quad (\text{A.10})$$

But since m_g can be written as a function of volume and density (by rearranging equation A.5) then equation A.10 can be rewritten as

$$KE_g = \frac{1}{2}\rho A \int_0^{x_p} u_{x_g}^2 dx_g \quad (\text{A.11})$$

substituting equation A.9 into the above gives

$$KE_g = \frac{1}{2}\rho A \int_0^{x_p} \frac{u_p^2}{x_p^2} x_g^2 dx_g \quad (\text{A.12})$$

which when evaluated becomes

$$KE_g = \frac{1}{6}\rho A x_p u_p^2 \quad (\text{A.13})$$

and the total kinetic energy (ignoring recoil and recalling that $m_g = \rho A x$) is

$$KE_{tot} = KE_p + KE_g = \frac{1}{2}m_p u_p^2 + \frac{1}{6}m_g u_p^2 \quad (\text{A.14})$$

This is an important result and will be used in the following derivation for $u_p(x)$. Assume that the reservoir of gas in the chamber is initially at p_o and ρ_o . If the process that accelerates the projectile is isentropic the pressure at any time t can be related

to the initial pressure using the isentropic relation.

$$\frac{p}{p_o} = \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_o} \right)^\gamma = \left(\frac{v}{v_o} \right)^{-\gamma} \quad (\text{A.15})$$

where v is the specific volume of the gas and the ratio of the specific heats of the gas is given as γ . The volume of the gas driving the projectile $V(x_p)$ is given as

$$V(x_p) = (x_p + l)A \quad (\text{A.16})$$

where l is the chamber length. In terms of specific volume this is

$$v(x_p) = (x_p + l) \frac{A}{m_g} \quad (\text{A.17})$$

Substituting this into the isentropic relation an expression for the average chamber pressure is obtained

$$\frac{\bar{p}}{\bar{p}_o} = \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_o} \right)^\gamma = \left(\frac{v}{v_o} \right)^{-\gamma} \quad (\text{A.18})$$

Now, if the work done on the system is given as

$$W = A \int_{x_o}^{x_p} \bar{p} dx_p \quad (\text{A.19})$$

then the left hand side of equation A.19 is equal to the change in kinetic energy of the system which is just

$$W = \Delta K E_{tot} = \frac{1}{2} \left(m_p + \frac{1}{3} m_g \right) [u_p^2(x_p) - u_p^2(x_o)] \quad (\text{A.20})$$

Substituting this and equation A.18 into equation A.19 the following is obtained

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(m_p + \frac{1}{3} m_g \right) [u_p^2(x_p) - u_p^2(x_o)] = A \bar{p}_o \int_{x_o}^{x_p} \left(\frac{x_p + l}{x_o + l} \right)^{-\gamma} dx_p \quad (\text{A.21})$$

Evaluating this integral results in

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(m_p + \frac{1}{3} m_g \right) [u_p^2(x_p) - u_p^2(x_o)] = A\bar{p}_o \frac{[(x_p + l)^{(1-\gamma)} - (x_o + l)^{(1-\gamma)}]}{(1-\gamma)(x_o + l)^{-\gamma}} \quad (\text{A.22})$$

Taking $u_o = 0$ at $x_o = 0$ further simplification gives

$$\frac{1}{2} m_p \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \frac{m_g}{m_p} \right) u_p^2(x_p) = \frac{A l \bar{p}_o}{(\gamma - 1)} \left[1 - \left(\frac{l}{x_p + l} \right)^{(\gamma-1)} \right] \quad (\text{A.23})$$

Solving for $u_p^2(x)$

$$u_p^2(x_p) = \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \frac{m_g}{m_p} \right)} \frac{2 A l \bar{p}_o}{m_p (\gamma - 1)} \left[1 - \left(\frac{l}{x_p + l} \right)^{(\gamma-1)} \right] \quad (\text{A.24})$$

Thus the solution for the projectile velocity given by the Lagrange Gradient approximation is

$$u_p(x_p) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \frac{m_g}{m_p} \right)} \frac{2 A l \bar{p}_o}{m_p (\gamma - 1)} \left[1 - \left(\frac{l}{x_p + l} \right)^{(\gamma-1)} \right]} \quad (\text{A.25})$$

APPENDIX B

Simple Wave PPIG

This is a summary of the derivation presented by Seigel in [1]. Before tackling the derivation of the simple wave gun model, one must first have some understanding of how acoustic disturbances travel in a gas. This is due to the fact that changes in the gas, during the internal ballistics process, are a result of the acoustic disturbances travelling in the propellant. Though these disturbances are infinitesimal when taken individually, the sum of these disturbances cause finite changes in the propellant.

From figure B-1 it can be seen that the thickness of the gas layer changes over the duration dt of the wave passage. Therefore the mass of gas in a layer of gas traversed by a wave is given as

$$A(u_D - u)\rho dt = A(u_D - u - du)dt(\rho + d\rho) \quad (\text{B.1})$$

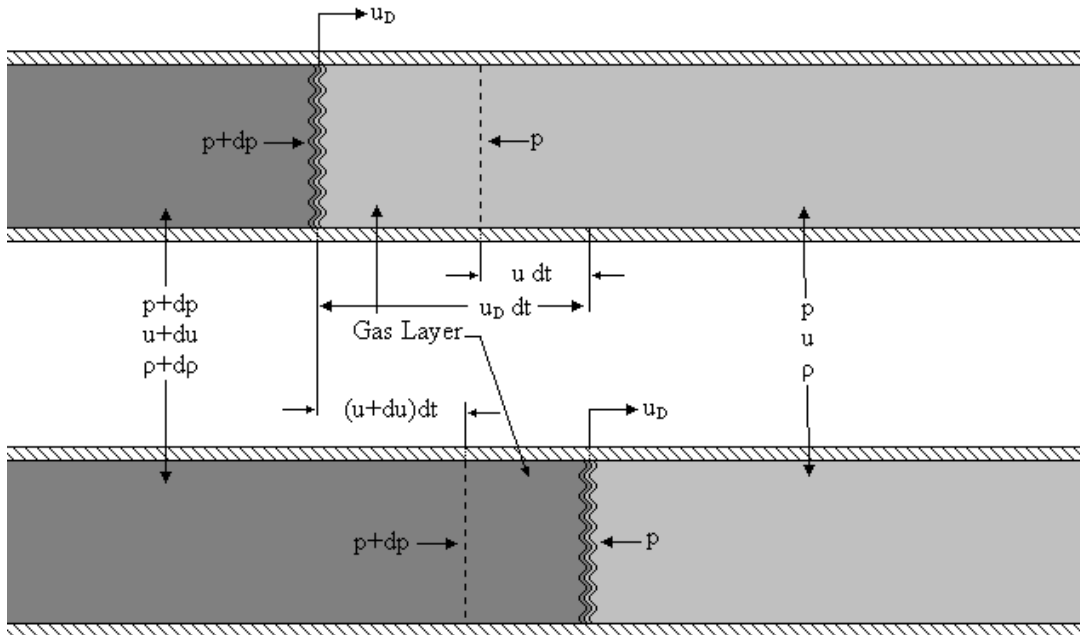


Figure B-1: Disturbance propagating through a gas in a tube

where

u_D = Disturbance velocity

A = Cross-Sectional Area of the Tube

This is the Continuity Equation for a disturbance in a gas.

From figure B-1 it can be seen that during the passage of the disturbance wave, a pressure value of $p + dp$ acts on the left side of the layer. Whereas, the ambient pressure p acts on the right side of the layer. Therefore the net pressure acting on the gas layer is dp . This pressure variance across the disturbance results in an acceleration of the gas layer which by applying Newton's Law the layer gives

$$Adp = A(u_D - u)\rho dt \frac{du}{dt} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

This is the Momentum Equation for a disturbance travelling in a gas

Solving the mass equation for du the following is obtained

$$du = \frac{d\rho}{\rho + d\rho}(u_D - u) \quad (\text{B.3})$$

Substituting this into the momentum equation and solving for $dp/d\rho$ the following is obtained, for small $d\rho$

Solving for du our mass equation becomes

$$\frac{dp}{d\rho} = (u_D - u)^2 \quad (\text{B.4})$$

Since the wave is assumed to be an acoustic wave then the sound speed is defined as

$$a^2 = \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial \rho} \right)_s \quad (\text{B.5})$$

Thus from equation B.4

$$a^2 = (u_D - u)^2 \quad (\text{B.6})$$

which implies that

$$(u_D - u) = a \text{ or } (u_D + u) = a \quad (\text{B.7})$$

From this it can be seen that the conservation of momentum equation becomes

$$dp = a\rho du \quad (\text{B.8})$$

across a $u + a$ disturbance wave or

$$dp = -a\rho du \quad (\text{B.9})$$

across a $u - a$ disturbance wave.

The quantity $a\rho$ can be seen as the acoustic inertia. It is the mass per unit time traversed by a disturbance wave. It can be seen from equations B.8 and B.9 that for a small $a\rho$, a small change in pressure results in a given velocity change. However, for large $a\rho$, the pressure change must be large to produce the same velocity change.

Rewriting these equations in terms of changes occurring while traveling along a disturbance rather than across a disturbance gives

$$dp + a\rho du = 0 \quad (\text{B.10})$$

along a $u + a$ disturbance path or

$$dp - a\rho du = 0 \quad (\text{B.11})$$

along a $u - a$ disturbance path.

These are the characteristic equations for a gas travelling in a constant diameter tube. The equations can be rewritten in the form of the “Riemann Function”.

$$d\sigma = \left(\frac{dp}{a\rho} \right)_s \quad (\text{B.12})$$

Thus the characteristic equations become

$$du + d\sigma = 0 \quad (\text{B.13})$$

along a characteristic line of slope $dx/dt = u + a$, and

$$du - d\sigma = 0 \quad (\text{B.14})$$

along a characteristic line of slope $dx/dt = u - a$. The $u + a$ and $u - a$ characteristic lines are thus the paths of disturbances.

For an infinitely long chamber equation B.10 represents what is known as the simple wave, This is the region swept out on a $t - x$ diagram by the first rarefaction disturbance produced by an accelerating projectile and when this wave, reflected from the breech wall, catches up with, and interacts with, this projectile.

From the definition of σ equation B.13 can be rewritten as

$$du + \frac{dp}{a\rho} = 0 \quad (\text{B.15})$$

which upon integration becomes

$$u + \int \frac{dp}{a\rho} = 0 \quad (\text{B.16})$$

which in the form of the Riemann function becomes

$$u + \sigma = \sigma_o \quad (\text{B.17})$$

Where the velocity, u , is taken to be zero when $p = p_o$ and $\sigma = \sigma_o$

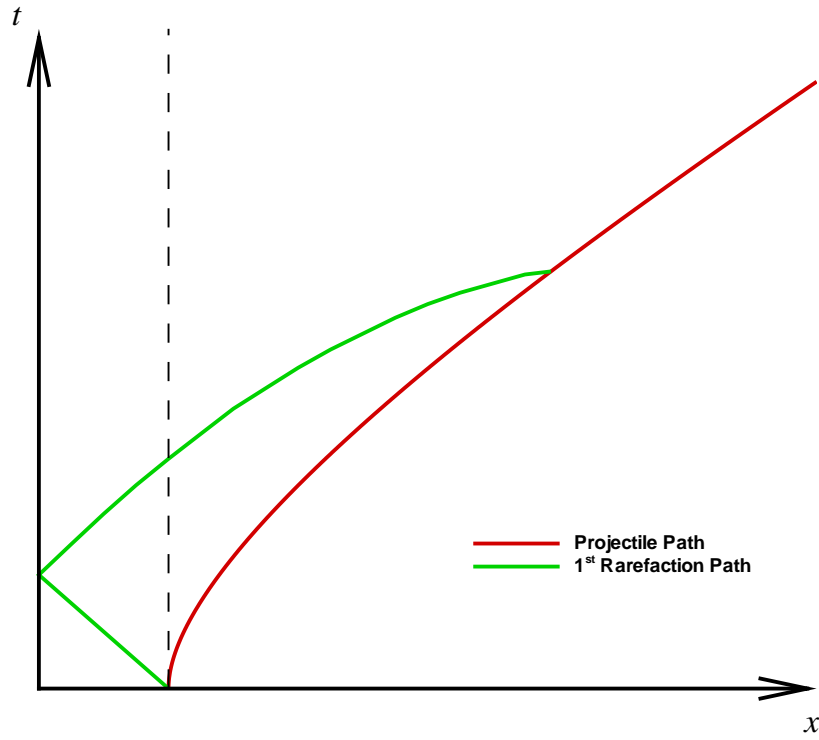


Figure B-2: $x-t$ diagram showing the paths of the projectile and the first rarefaction wave

Returning to the equation for traveling along an $u + a$ characteristic

$$dp = -a\rho du \quad (\text{B.18})$$

which when integrate gives

$$u = \int_p^{p_0} \frac{dp}{a\rho} \quad (\text{B.19})$$

It is seen that the velocity of the gas expanding from rest at the initial pressure p_0 in a constant diameter, infinite chamber gun, depends only on the relationship between the pressure and the acoustic impedance.

For an ideal gas undergoing an isentropic process the following relations apply

$$p = \rho RT \quad (\text{B.20})$$

$$p = \rho^\gamma \frac{p_0}{\rho_0} \quad (\text{B.21})$$

The acoustic impedance becomes

$$a\rho = \frac{\gamma p_0}{a_0} \left(\frac{p}{p_0} \right)^{\frac{\gamma+1}{2\gamma}} \quad (\text{B.22})$$

For an ideal gas, the sound speed is

$$a^2 = \frac{\gamma p}{\rho} = \gamma RT \quad (\text{B.23})$$

and the Riemann function becomes

$$\sigma = \frac{2a}{\gamma - 1} \quad (\text{B.24})$$

where $\sigma = 0$ at $a = 0$

Substituting equation B.22 into equation B.15 and performing the integration with $p = p_o$ at $u = u_o = 0$ the following is obtained

$$\frac{p}{p_o} = \left(1 - \frac{(\gamma - 1)}{2a_o}u\right)^{\frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \quad (\text{B.25})$$

Furthermore the maximum (escape) velocity can be determined in the limit of $p/p_o \rightarrow 0$ This can be shown to be

$$u_{esc} = \frac{2a_o}{\gamma - 1} \quad (\text{B.26})$$

From this it can be seen that as $a_o \rightarrow \infty$ or $\gamma \rightarrow 1$ that $u_{esc} \rightarrow \infty$.

Recalling Newton's Law

$$m_p \frac{du}{dt} = pA \quad (\text{B.27})$$

From equation B.25 and equation B.27 the following is obtained

$$u \left(1 - \frac{(\gamma - 1)}{2a_o}u\right)^{-\left(\frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1}\right)} du = \frac{p_o A}{m_p} dx \quad (\text{B.28})$$

This can be integrated with $u = 0$ at $x = 0$ to obtain

$$x = \frac{2m_p a_o^2}{Ap_o(\gamma + 1)} \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{\gamma-1} - \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o}u\right]}{\left[1 - \frac{(\gamma-1)}{2a_o}u\right]^{\frac{\gamma+1}{2(\gamma-1)}}} + 1 \right\} \quad (\text{B.29})$$

This is the Simple Wave Gun solution for an ideal gas.

APPENDIX C

Gun Materials

Table C-1: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 1020 (Hot Rolled)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 210 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 380 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	19.95	36.19	36.22	33.45
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	80.77	152.0	154.1	142.3
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	126.0	253.3	263.4	243.3
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	152.1	325.7	348.2	321.6
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	168.0	380.0	417.5	385.6
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	193.8	506.7	611.6	564.9

Table C-2: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 1020 (Cold Worked)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 350 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 420 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	33.26	40.00	40.03	44.94
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	134.6	168.0	170.3	191.2
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	210.0	280.0	291.1	326.8
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	253.4	360.0	384.8	432.0
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	280.0	420.0	461.4	518.0
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	323.1	560.0	676.0	758.9

Table C-3: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 1020 (Annealed)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 295 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 395 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	28.03	37.62	37.65	40.69
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	113.5	158.0	160.2	173.1
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	177.0	263.3	273.8	295.9
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	213.6	338.6	361.9	391.1
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	236.0	395.0	434.0	469.0
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	272.3	526.7	635.7	687.0

Table C-4: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 1020 (Normalized)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 345 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 440 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	32.78	41.90	41.94	46.17
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	132.7	176.0	178.4	196.4
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	207.0	293.3	305.0	335.7
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	249.8	377.1	403.2	443.8
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	276.0	440.0	483.4	532.1
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	318.5	586.7	708.2	779.6

Table C-5: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 1040 (Hot Rolled)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 290 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 520 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	27.56	49.56	49.56	46.03
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	111.5	208.0	210.8	195.8
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	174.0	346.7	360.4	334.8
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	210.0	445.7	476.5	442.5
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	232.0	520.0	571.3	530.6
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	267.7	693.3	836.9	777.3

Table C-6: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 1040 (Cold Worked)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 490 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 590 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	46.56	56.19	56.23	63.07
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	188.5	236.0	239.2	268.3
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	294.0	393.3	409.0	458.7
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	354.8	505.7	540.6	606.3
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	392.0	590.0	648.2	727.0
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	452.3	786.7	949.6	1065.0

Table C-7: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 1040 (Annealed)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 355 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 520 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	33.73	49.56	49.56	51.47
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	136.5	208.0	210.8	218.9
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	213.0	346.7	360.4	374.3
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	257.1	445.7	476.5	494.8
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	284.0	520.0	571.3	593.2
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	327.7	693.3	836.9	869.1

Table C-8: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 1040 (Normalized)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 375 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 590 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	35.63	56.19	56.23	56.31
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	144.2	236.0	239.2	239.6
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	225.0	393.3	409.0	409.5
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	271.6	505.7	540.6	541.3
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	300.0	590.0	648.2	649.1
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	346.2	786.7	949.6	950.9

Table C-9: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 4140 (Annealed)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 417 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 655 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	39.62	62.38	62.43	62.57
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	160.4	262.0	265.6	266.2
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	250.2	436.7	454.0	455.0
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	302.0	561.4	600.2	601.5
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	333.6	655.0	719.6	721.2
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	384.9	873.3	1054.2	1056.5

Table C-10: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 4140 (Normalized)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 655 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 1020 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	62.24	97.14	97.22	97.88
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	251.9	408.0	413.6	416.4
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	393.0	680.0	707.0	711.8
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	474.3	874.3	934.6	941.0
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	524.0	1020.0	1120.6	1128.2
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	604.6	1360.0	1641.6	1652.9

Table C-11: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 4140 (Oil Quenched and Tempered)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 1570 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 1720 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	149.2	163.8	163.9	187.9
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	603.8	688.0	697.4	799.2
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	942.0	1146.7	1192.2	1366.2
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	1137.0	1474.3	1576.0	1806.0
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	1256.0	1720.0	1889.6	2165.3
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	1449.2	2293.3	2768.2	3172.1

Table C-12: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 4340 (Annealed)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 472 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 745 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	44.85	70.95	71.01	70.98
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	181.5	298.0	302.1	302.0
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	283.2	496.7	516.4	516.2
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	341.8	638.6	682.6	682.4
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	377.6	745.0	818.5	818.2
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	435.7	993.3	1199.0	1198.6

Table C-13: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 4340 (Normalized)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 862 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 1280 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	81.91	121.9	122.0	125.8
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	331.5	512.0	519.0	535.4
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	517.2	853.3	887.2	915.2
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	624.2	1097.1	1172.9	1209.9
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	689.6	1280.0	1406.2	1450.6
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	795.7	1706.7	2060.1	2125.1

Table C-14: Tube Strength for steel Alloy 4340 (Oil Quenched and Tempered)

$\rho = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 1620 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 1760 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1294.7d_i^2$	153.9	167.7	167.7	193.8
0.25	$7706.7d_i^2$	623.1	704.0	713.6	824.6
0.5	$18496.1d_i^2$	972.0	1173.3	1219.9	1409.7
0.75	$32368.2d_i^2$	1173.1	1508.6	1612.7	1863.5
1	$49323.0d_i^2$	1296.0	1760.0	1933.6	2234.3
2	$147969.0d_i^2$	1495.4	2346.7	2832.6	3273.2

Table C-15: Tube Strength for Stainless Alloy A440 (Annealed)

$\rho = 7800 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 415 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 725 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [kg/m]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1286.5d_i^2$	39.43	69.05	69.10	65.20
0.25	$7657.6d_i^2$	159.6	290.0	294.0	277.4
0.5	$18378.3d_i^2$	249.0	483.3	502.5	474.2
0.75	$32162.1d_i^2$	300.5	621.4	664.3	626.8
1	$49008.8d_i^2$	332.0	725.0	796.5	751.6
2	$147026.5d_i^2$	383.1	966.7	1166.8	1101.0

Table C-16: Tube Strength for Stainless Alloy A440 (Tempered)

$\rho = 7800 \text{ kg/m}^3, \sigma_y = 1650 \text{ MPa}, \sigma_u = 1790 \text{ MPa}$					
T_r	$\frac{m}{l} [\text{kg/m}]$	$(p_i)_{max} [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_1 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_2 [\text{MPa}]$	$(p_f)_3 [\text{MPa}]$
0.05	$1286.5d_i^2$	156.8	170.5	170.6	195.8
0.25	$7657.6d_i^2$	634.6	716.0	725.8	832.9
0.5	$18378.3d_i^2$	990.0	1193.3	1240.7	1423.9
0.75	$32162.1d_i^2$	1194.8	1534.3	1640.2	1882.3
1	$49008.8d_i^2$	1320.0	1790.0	1966.5	2256.8
2	$147026.5d_i^2$	1523.1	2386.7	2880.9	3306.2

Table C-17: Mass per unit length for Steel Alloys [kg/m]

T_r	$d_i = 0.5''$	$d_i = 1''$	$d_i = 2''$	$d_i = 4''$	$d_i = 8''$	$d_i = 16''$
0.05	0.2088	0.8353	3.3412	13.365	53.460	213.84
0.25	1.2430	4.9721	19.888	79.553	318.21	1272.9
0.5	2.9832	11.933	47.732	190.93	763.71	3054.8
0.75	5.2207	20.883	83.531	334.12	1336.5	5346.0
1	7.9553	31.821	127.28	509.14	2036.6	8146.2
2	23.866	95.464	381.85	1527.4	6109.7	24438

Table C-18: Mass per unit length for steel Alloy A440 [kg/m]

T_r	$d_i = 0.5''$	$d_i = 1''$	$d_i = 2''$	$d_i = 4''$	$d_i = 8''$	$d_i = 16''$
0.05	0.2075	0.8300	3.3199	13.280	53.119	212.48
0.25	1.2351	4.9404	19.762	79.046	316.19	1264.7
0.5	2.9642	11.857	47.428	189.71	758.85	3035.4
0.75	5.1874	20.750	82.997	332.00	1328.0	5311.9
1	7.9046	31.619	126.47	505.90	2026.6	8094.3
2	23.714	95.856	379.42	1517.7	6070.8	24283

APPENDIX D

Results for u_{1st} as a function of a_o for different M_F and γ

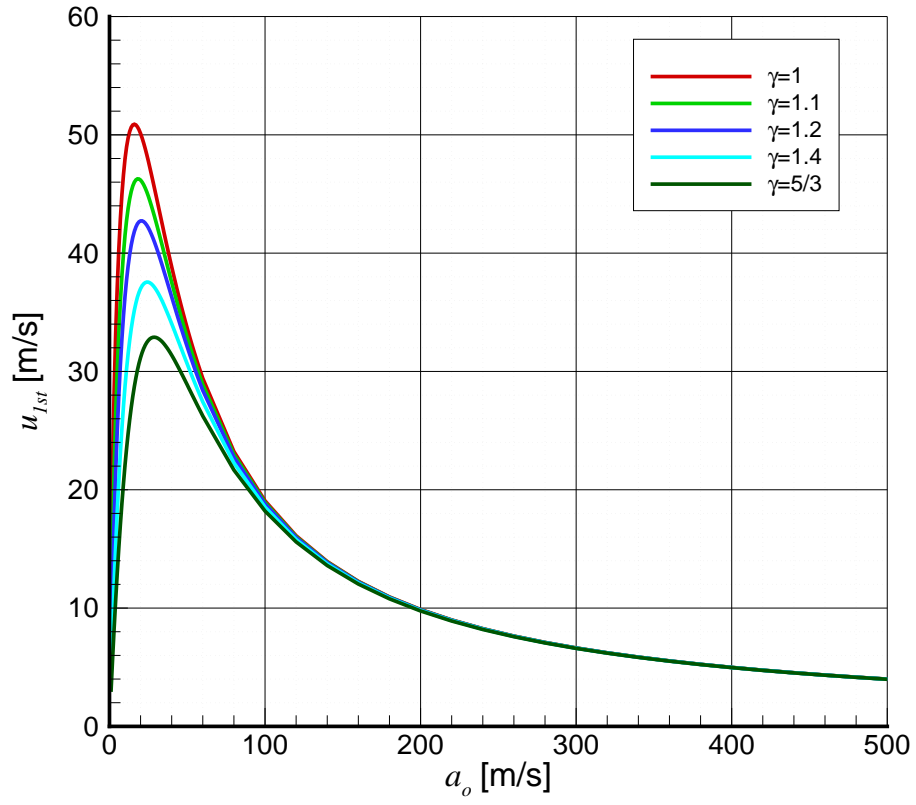


Figure D-1: u_{1st} vs. a_o for different γ and $M_F = 1 \text{ kPa m}^3/\text{kg}$

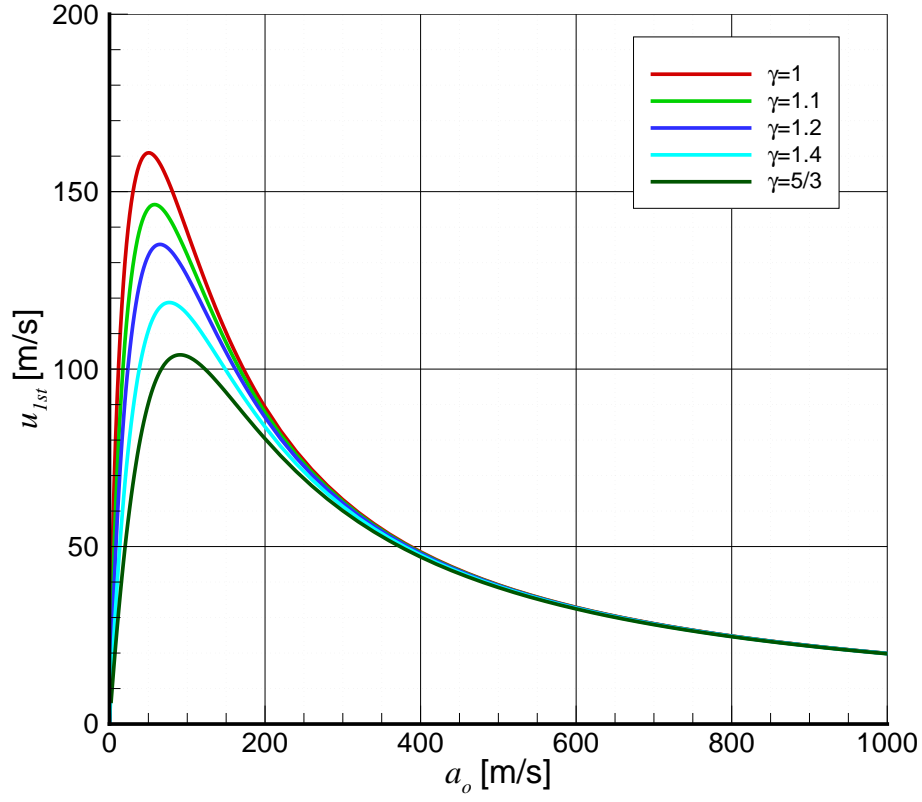


Figure D-2: u_{1st} vs. a_o for different γ and $M_F = 10 \text{ kPa m}^3/\text{kg}$

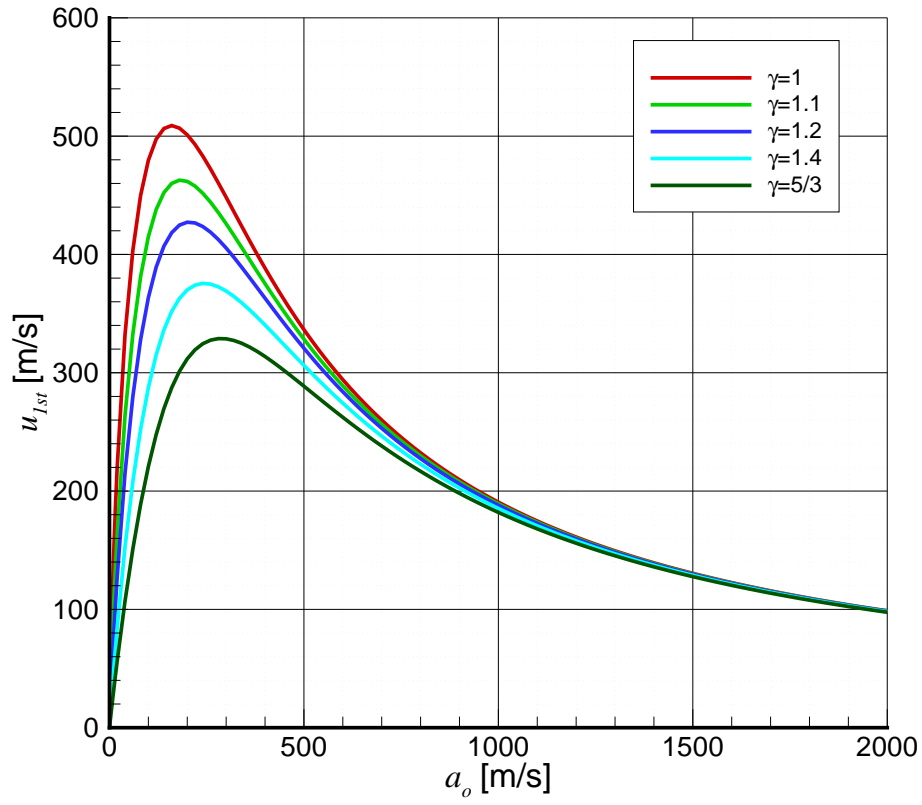


Figure D-3: u_{1st} vs. a_o for different γ and $M_F = 100 \text{ kPa m}^3/\text{kg}$

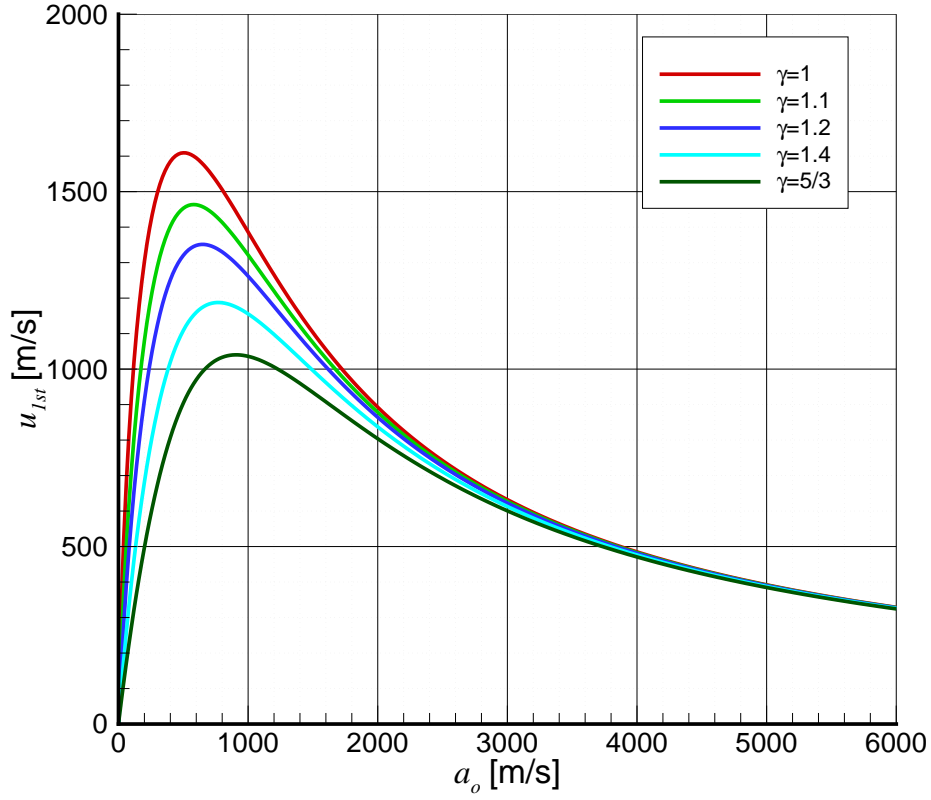


Figure D-4: u_{1st} vs. a_o for different γ and $M_F = 1,000 \text{ kPa m}^3/\text{kg}$

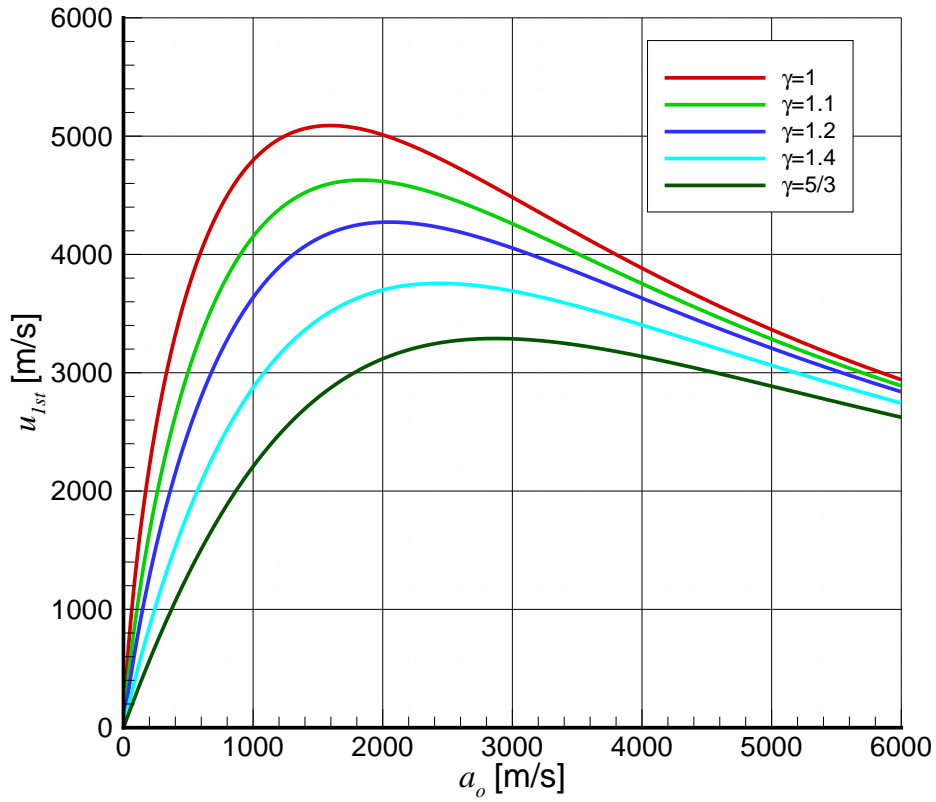


Figure D-5: u_{1st} vs. a_o for different γ and $M_F = 10,000 \text{ kPa m}^3/\text{kg}$

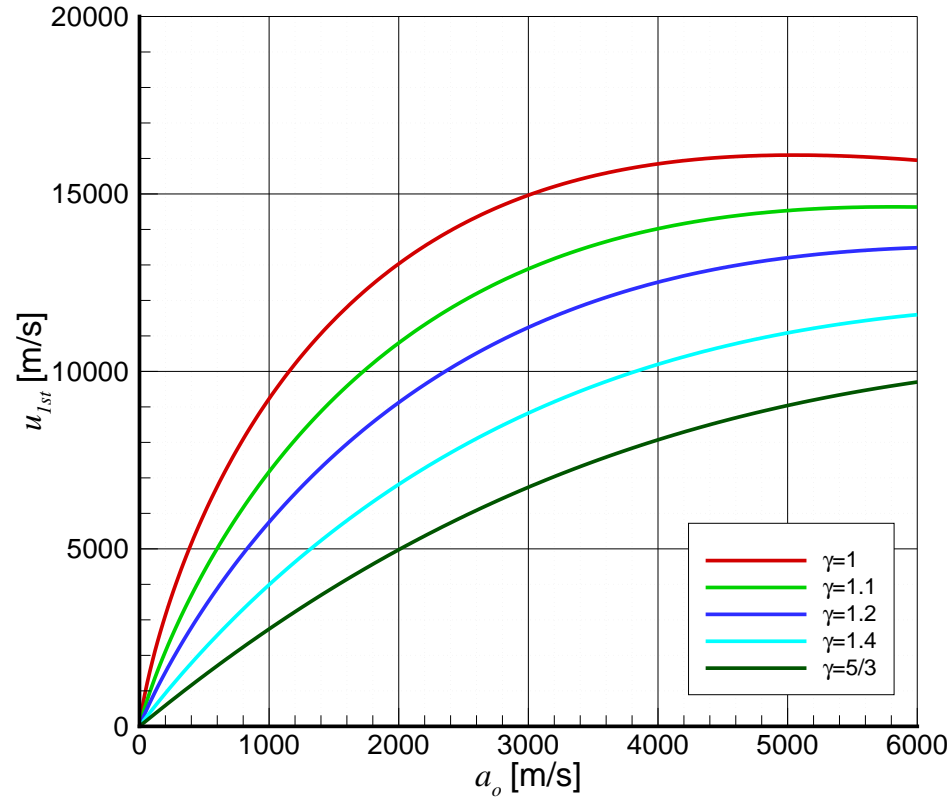


Figure D-6: u_{1st} vs. a_o for different γ and $M_F = 100,000 \text{ kPa m}^3/\text{kg}$

APPENDIX E

Prototype Design Drawings

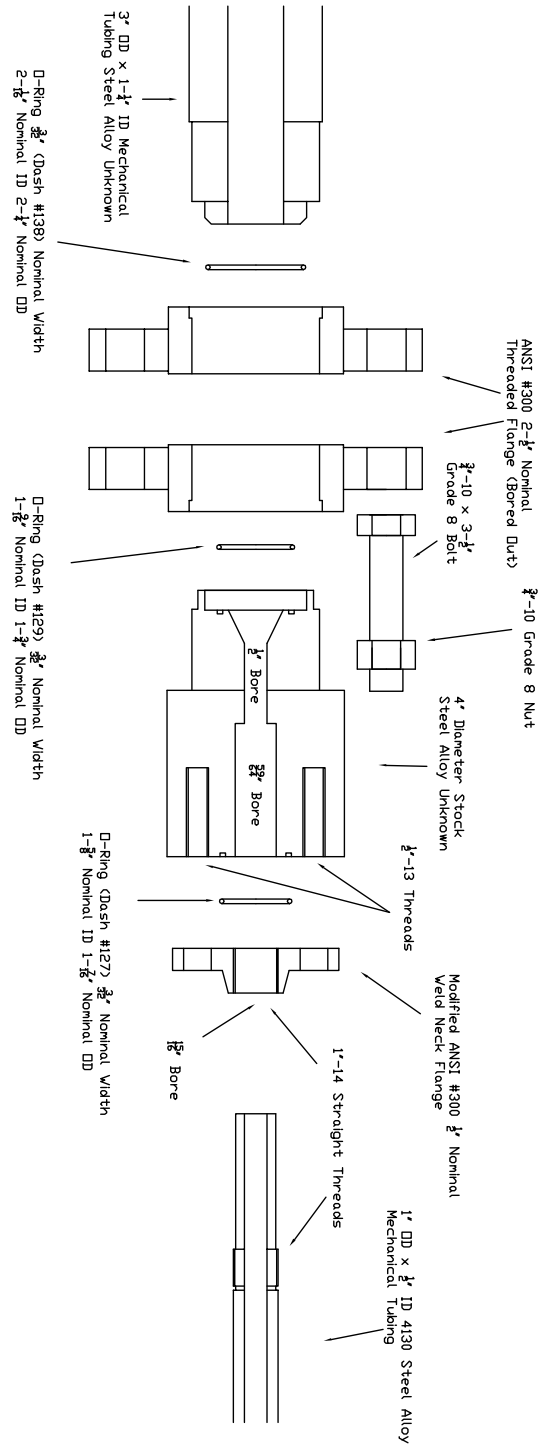


Figure E-1: Initial Breech and Driver Concept

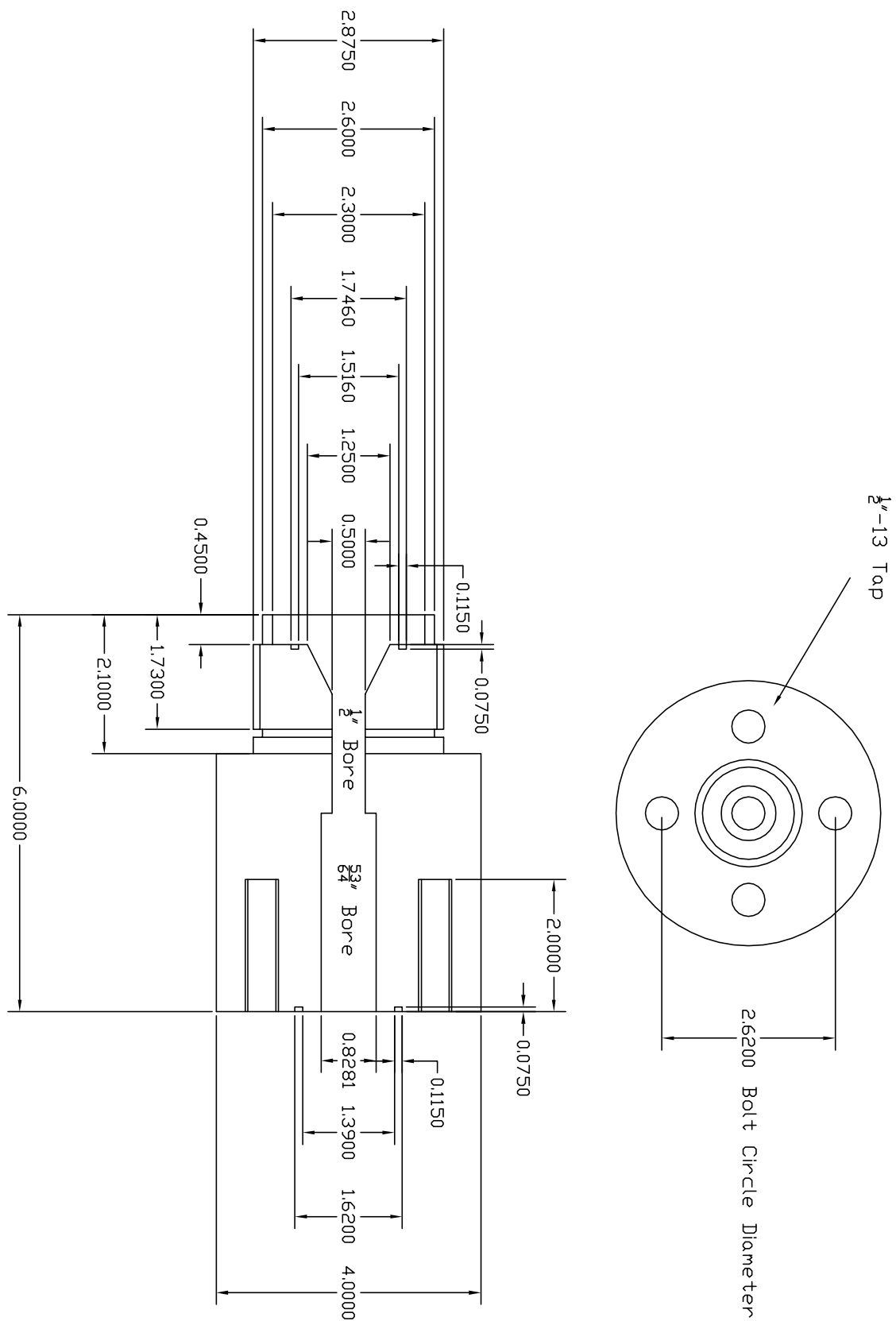


Figure E-2: Original Breech Design Dimensions (inches)

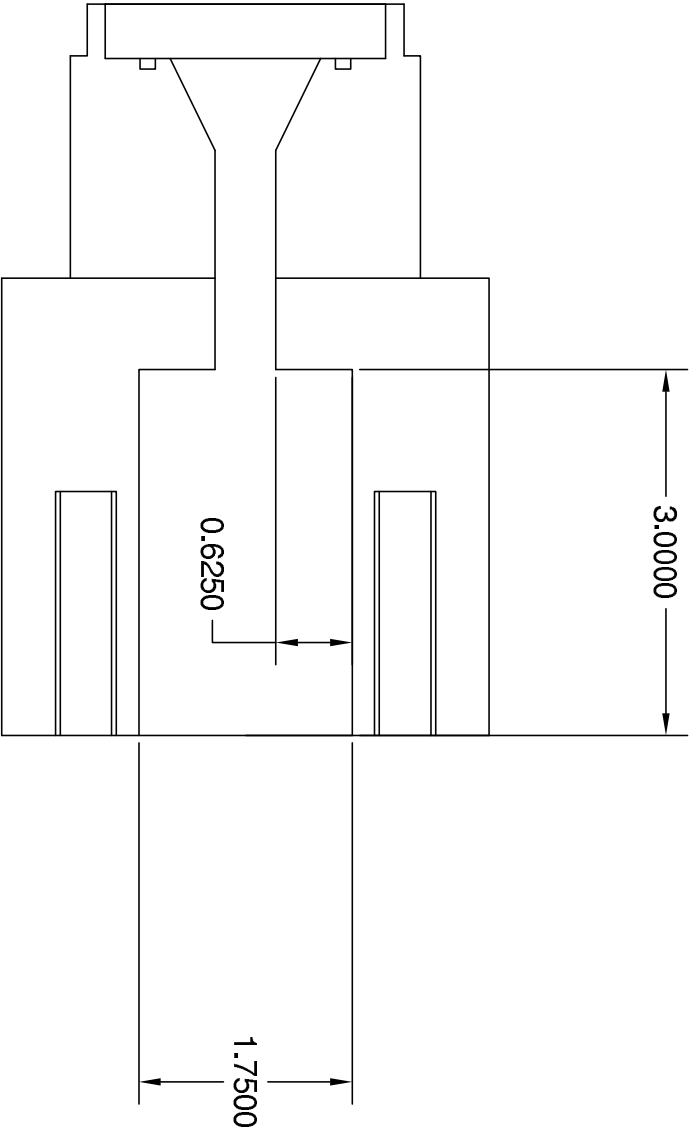


Figure E-3: Original Breech Expanded Dimensions for Barrel Extention (inches)

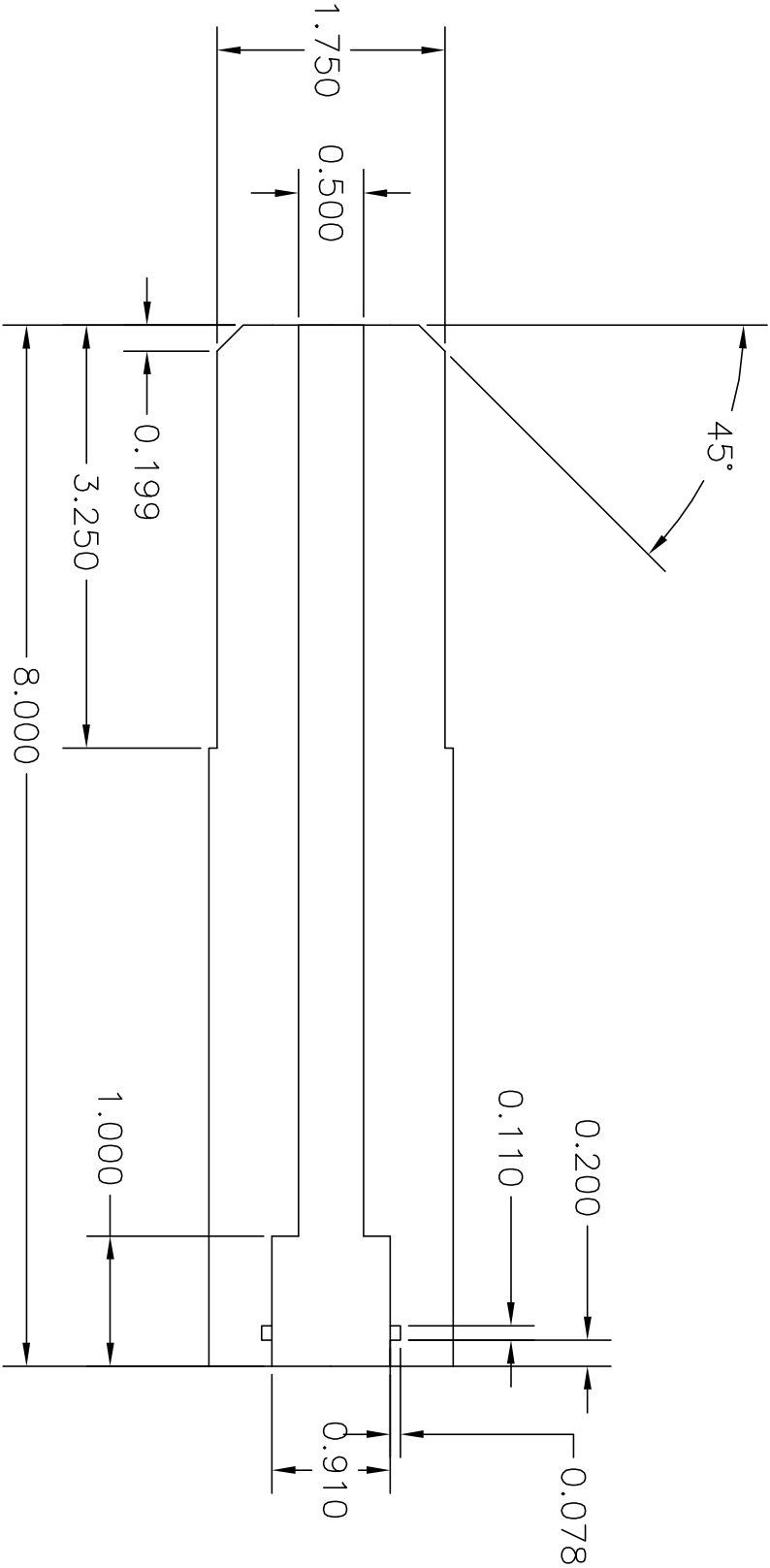


Figure E-4: Barrel Extension Dimensions (inches)

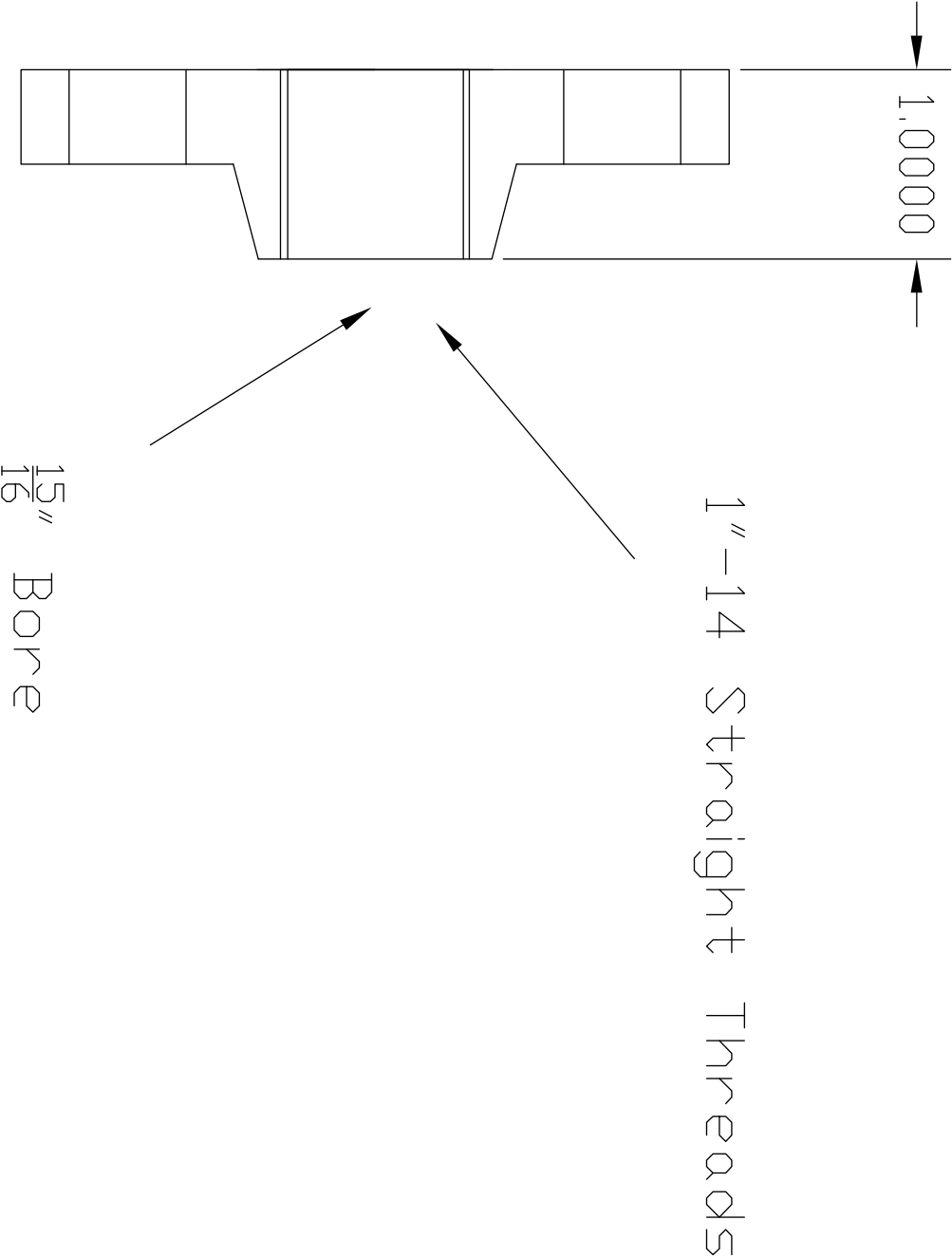


Figure E-5: Barrel Flange Dimensions (inches)

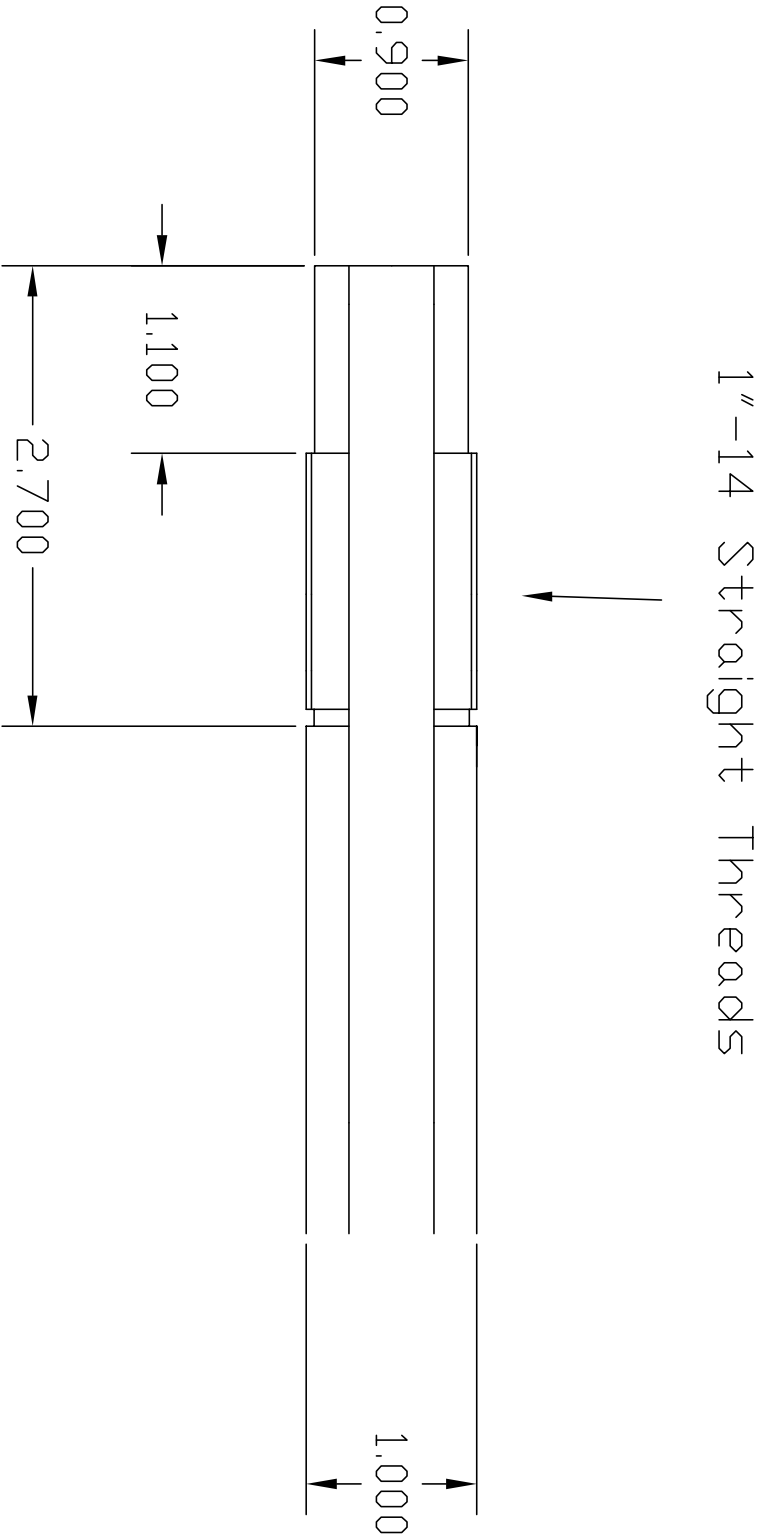


Figure E-6: Barrel Dimensions: Breech End (inches)

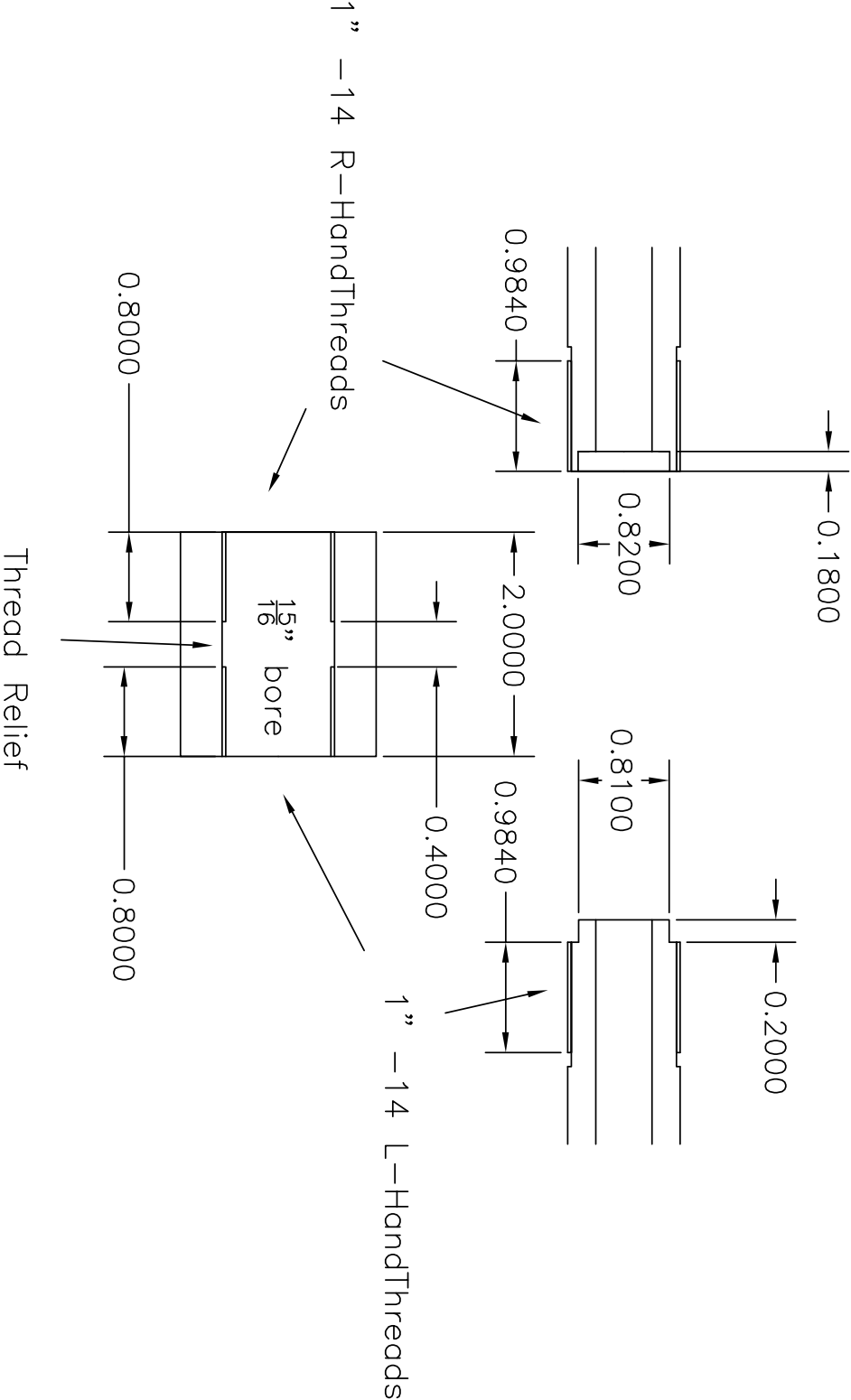


Figure E-7: Barrel and Coupler Dimensions (inches)

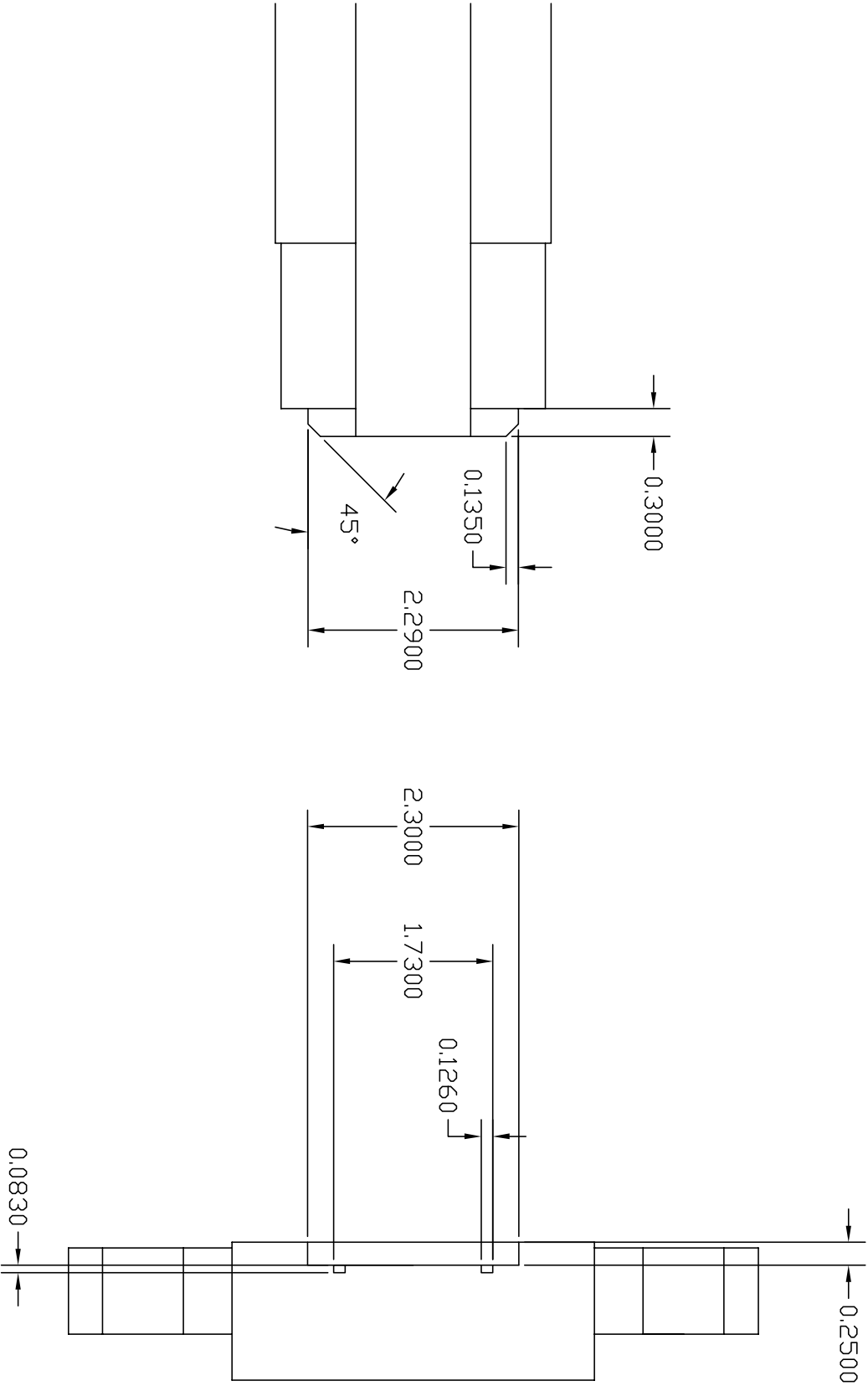


Figure E-8: Driver: Fill End Dimensions (inches)

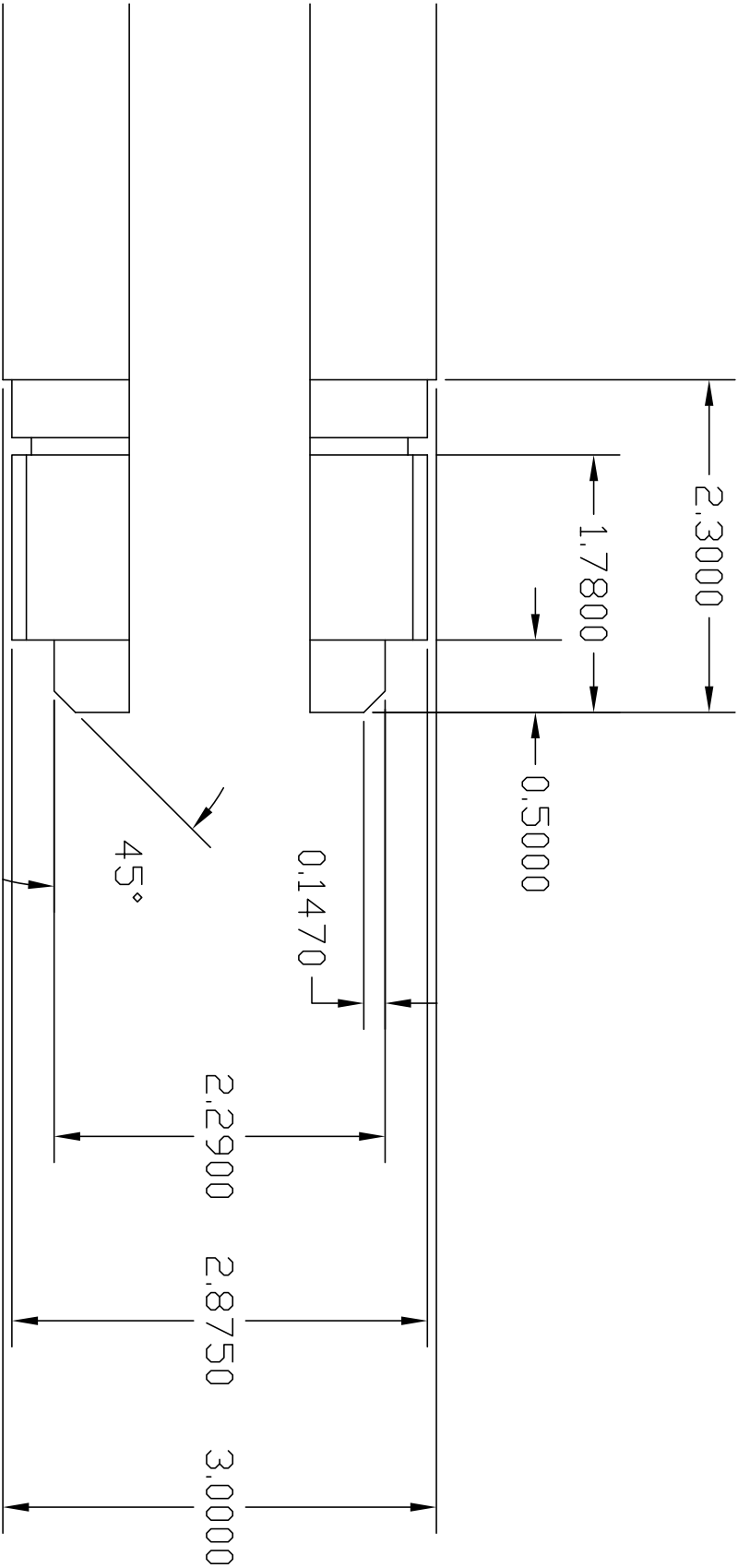


Figure E-9: Driver: Breech End Dimensions (inches)

APPENDIX F
Performance Predictions

$x - t$ Diagrams for $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$ driven gun system

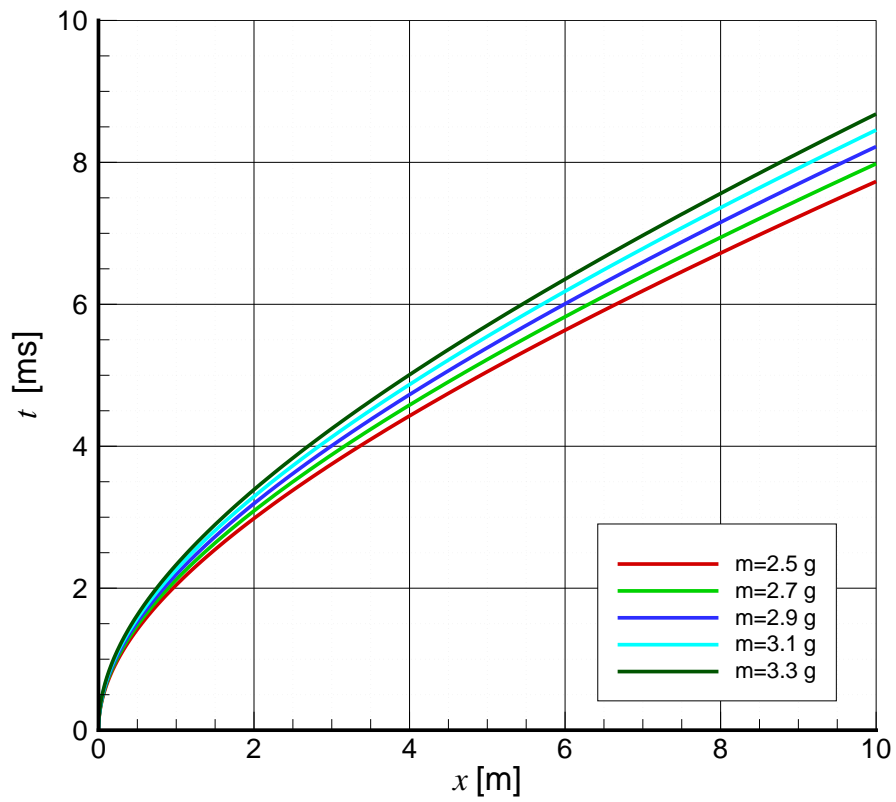


Figure F-1: $x - t$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 10 atm

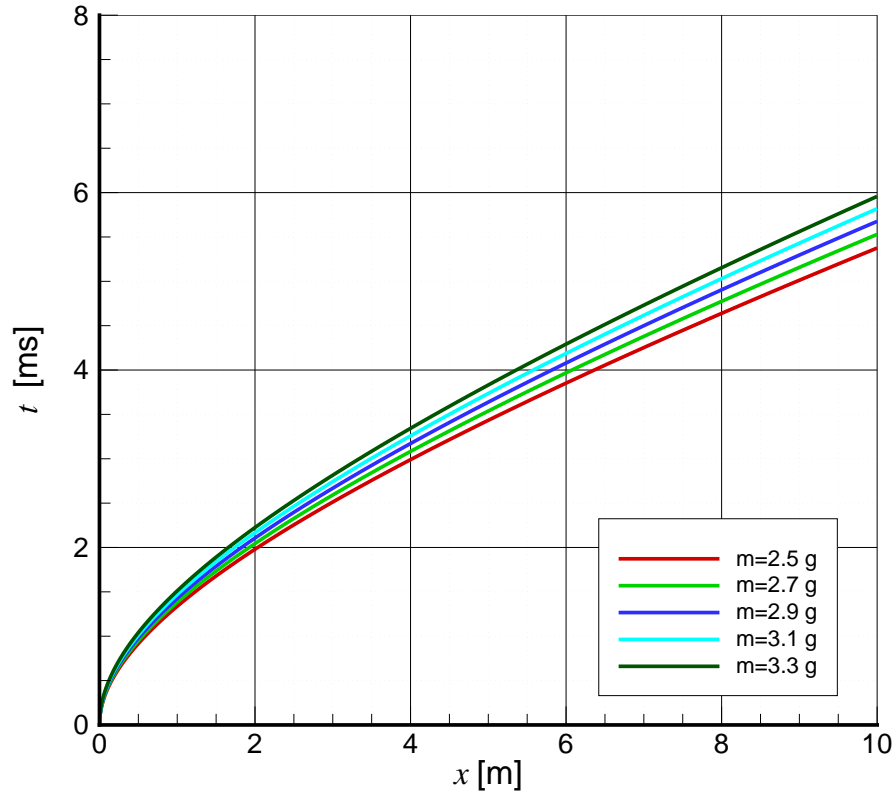


Figure F-2: $x - t$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 25 atm

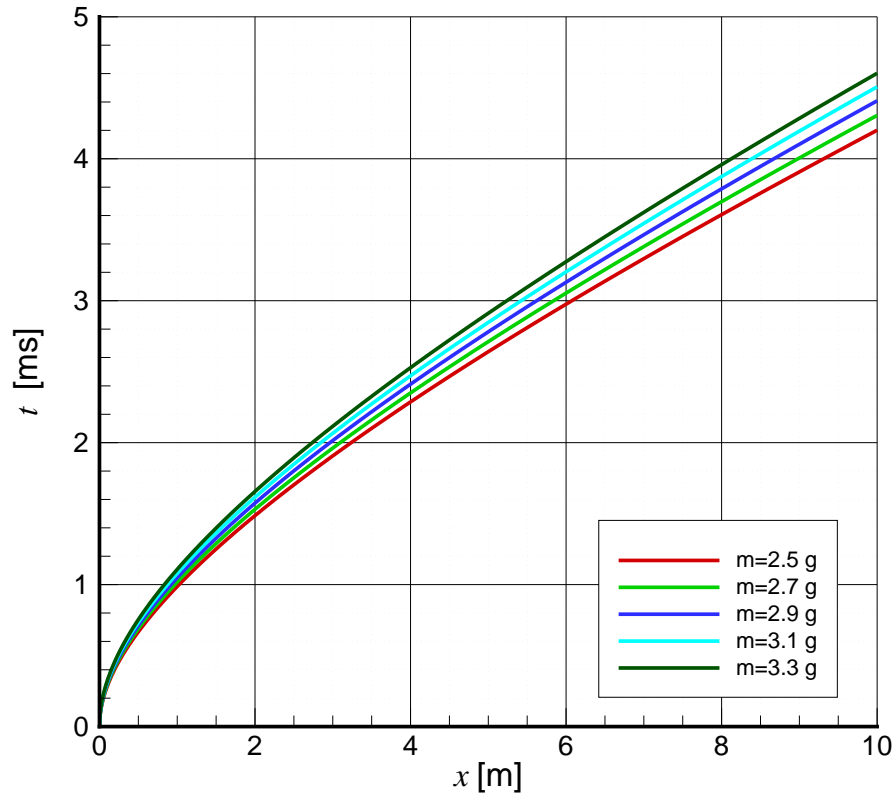


Figure F-3: $x - t$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 50 atm

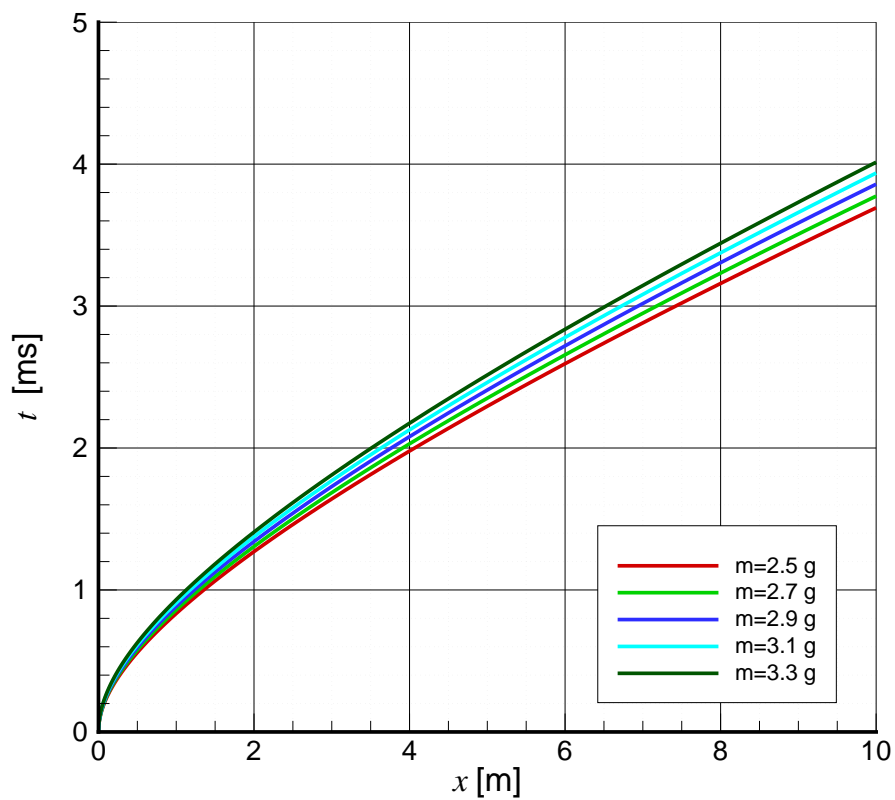


Figure F-4: $x - t$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 75 atm

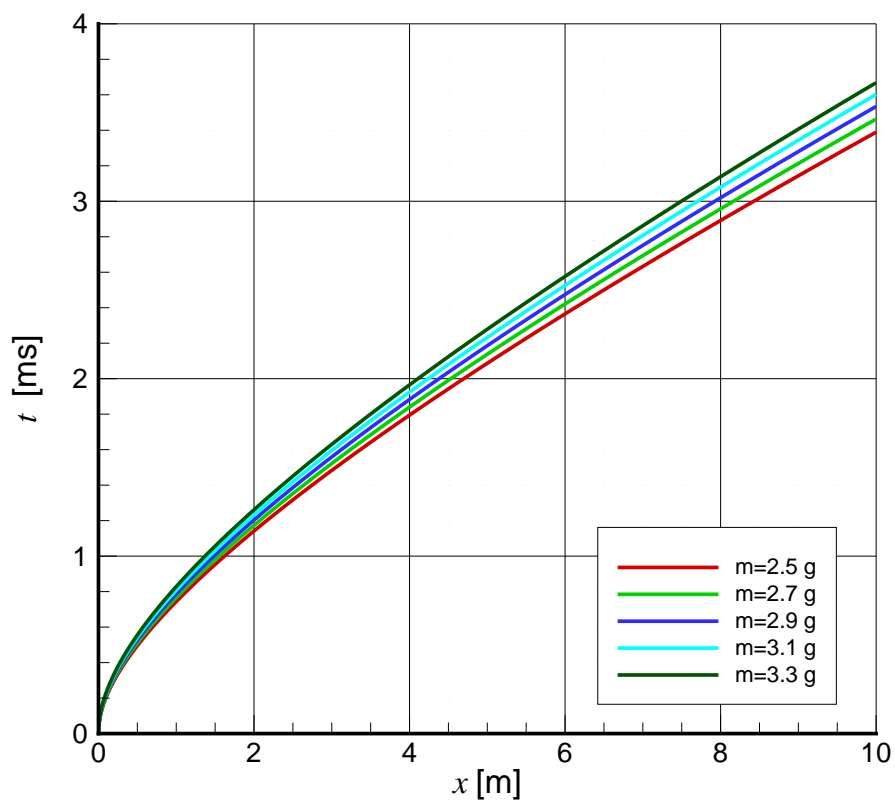
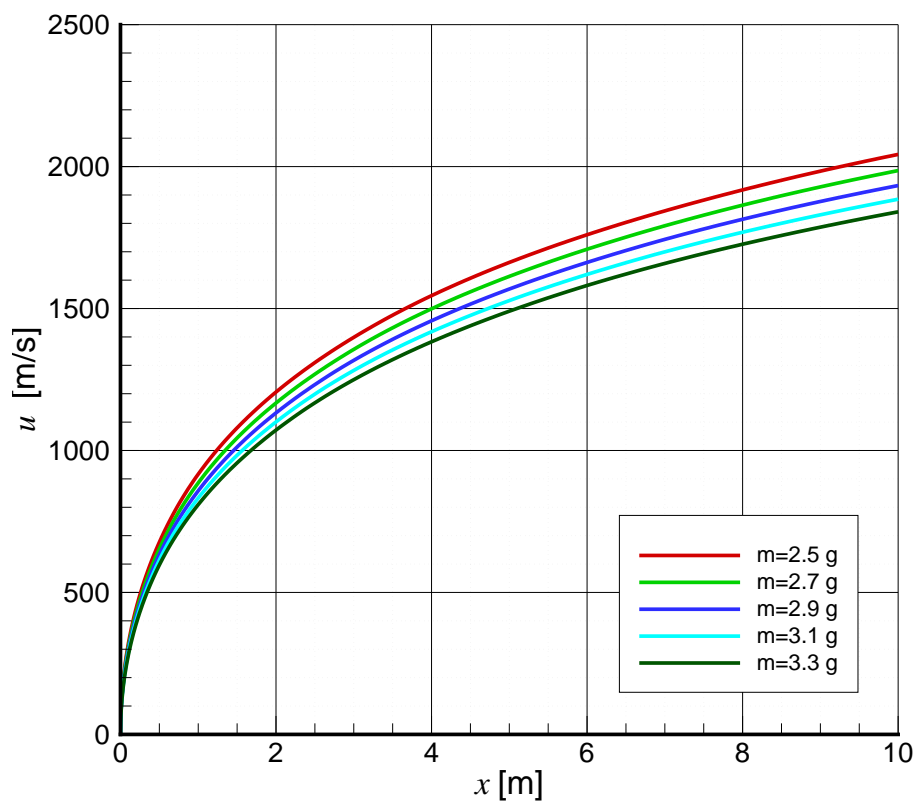


Figure F-5: $x - t$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 100 atm

$x - u_p$ Diagrams for $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$ driven gun systemFigure F-6: $x - u_p$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 10 atm

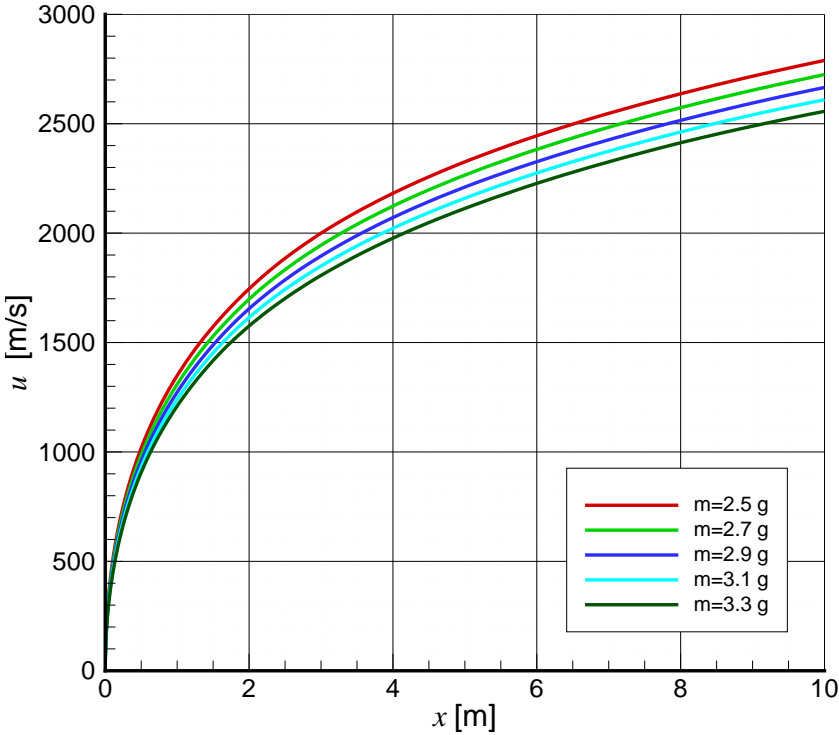


Figure F-7: $x - u_p$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 25 atm

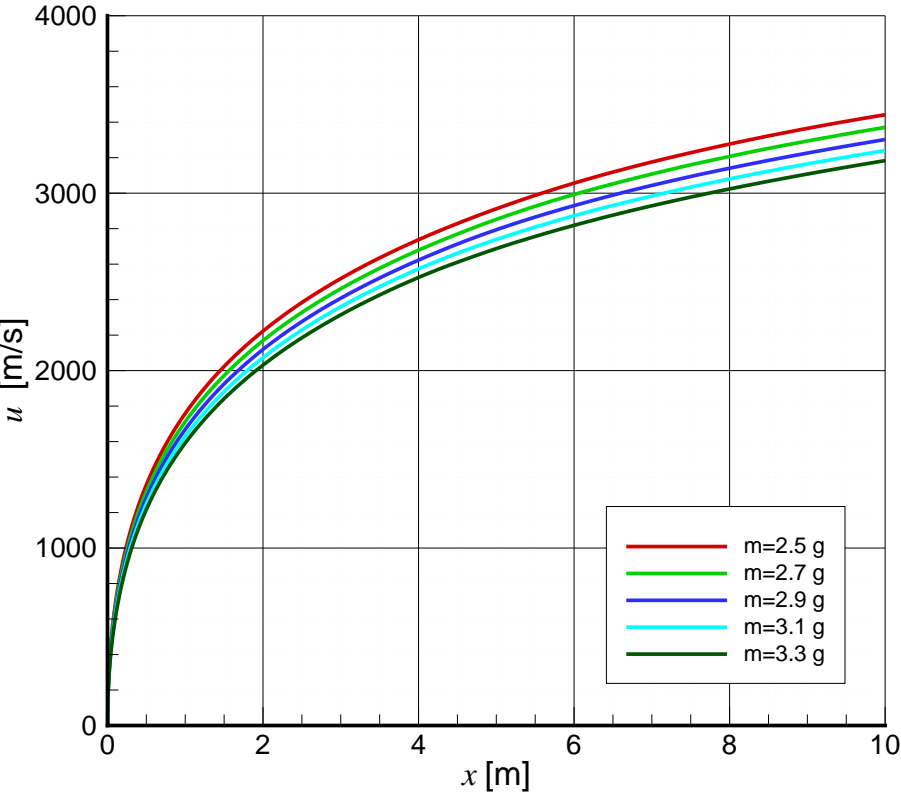


Figure F-8: $x - u_p$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 50 atm

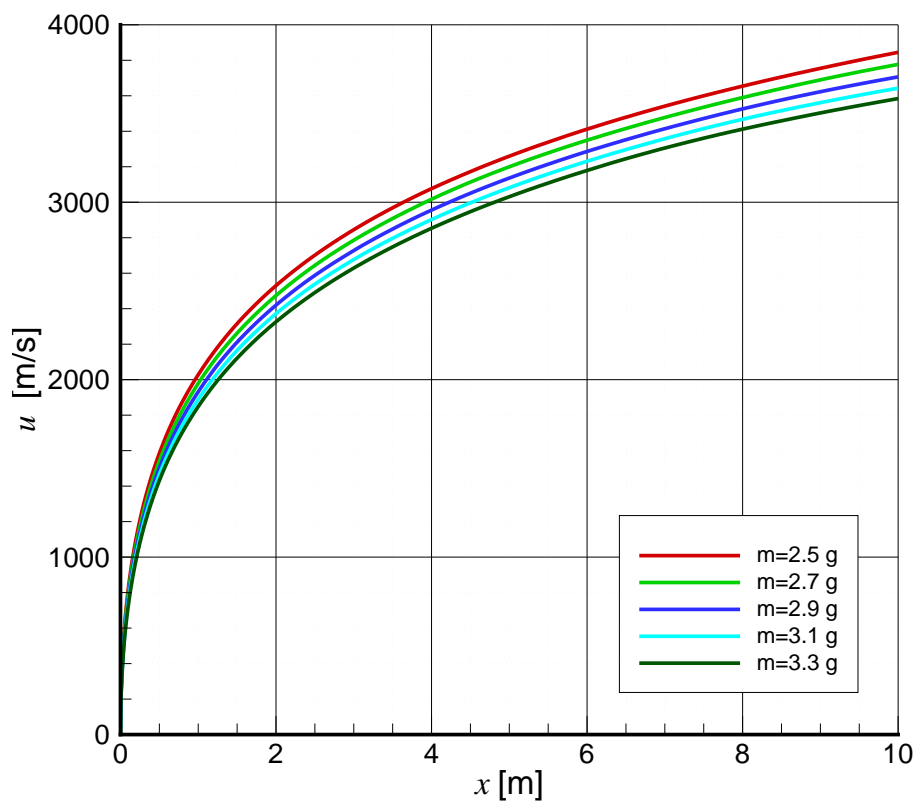


Figure F-9: $x - u_p$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 75 atm

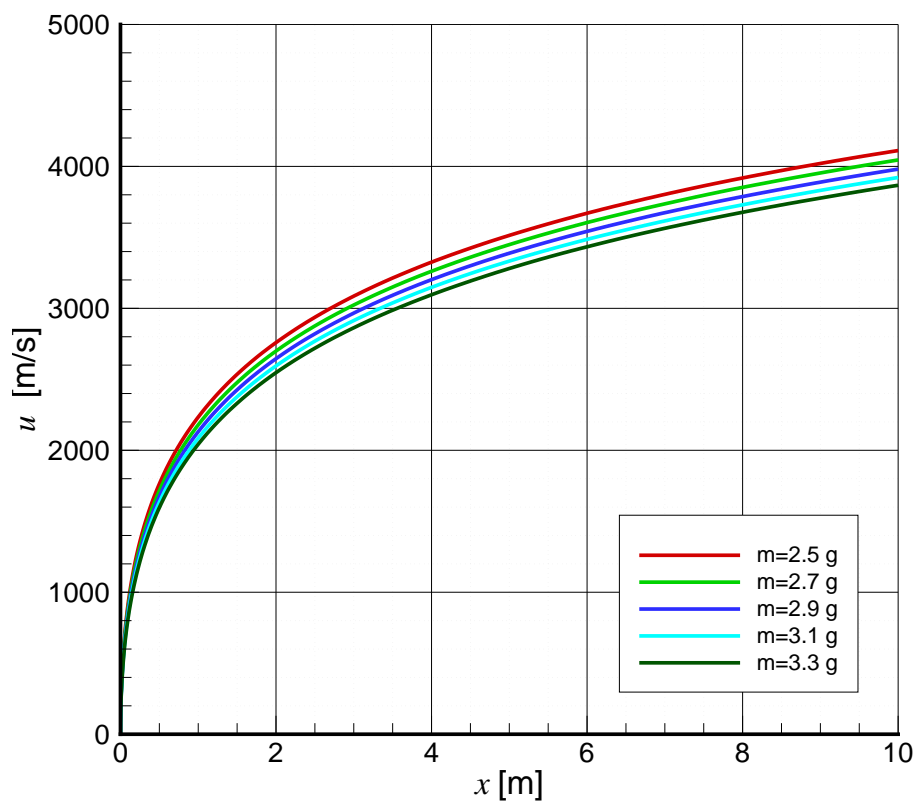


Figure F-10: $x - u_p$ diagram for various masses, predetonation pressure of 100 atm

APPENDIX G

Velocity Diagnostics Proof of Concept using Helium

Table G–1: Data for the helium shots fired into vacuum

Shot #	m_p [g]	d_p [cm]	l_p [cm]	p_o [psi]*	u_{1-2} [m/s]	u_{2-3} [m/s]	u_{ave} [m/s]
1	2.58	1.262	1.938	427	474.1	472.6	473.4
2	2.58	1.262	1.938	770	614.8	612.2	613.5
3	2.286	1.224	1.844	1040	819.7	818.8	819.3
4	2.472	1.262	1.892	1540	928.6	929.3	929.0
5**	2.273	1.247	1.905	1210	773.1	774.2	773.7
6	2.257	1.260	1.905	1840	994.7	993.4	995.6

* Gauge pressure

** Fired into air

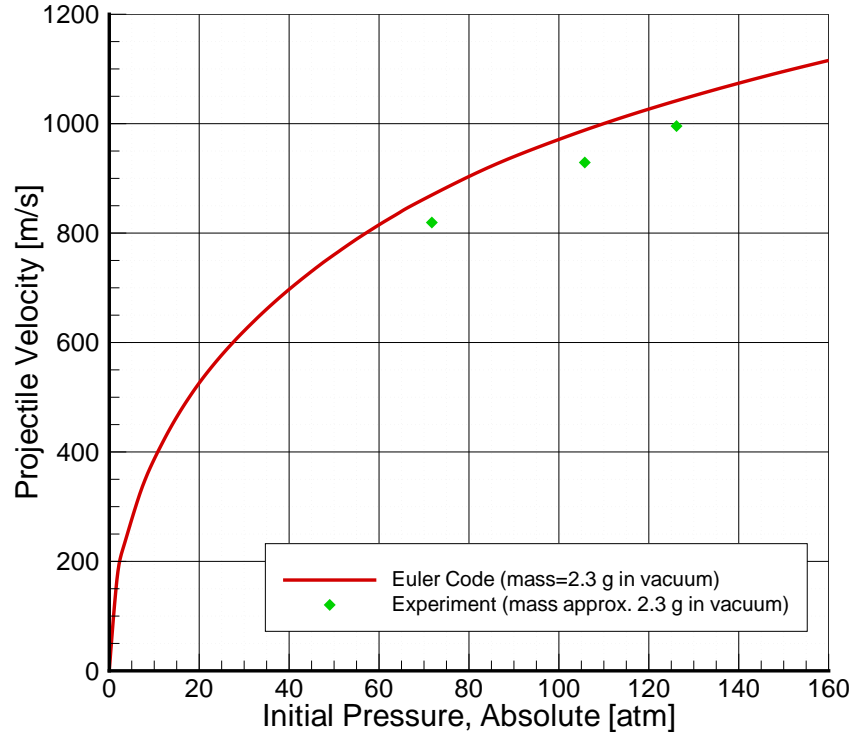


Figure G–1: Results for the helium gun calibration of the velocity coil gauge

APPENDIX H

Shot Data: Projectile

Table H-1: Projectile Data

Shot #	Mat.	m_p	θ	d_p	l_p	l_s	l_{BC}	l_B	Type
1	PC	1.580	90°	0.499	0.565	N/A	0.125	none	1
2	PC	2.323	20°	0.499	1.191	0.516	0.125	none	1
3	PC	2.319	20°	0.499	1.190	0.508	0.125	none	1
4	PC	2.356	90°	0.496	0.768	N/A	0.250	none	1
5	PC	1.913	90°	0.496	0.648	N/A	0.250	none	1
6	PC	2.310	90°	0.498	0.747	N/A	0.250	none	1
7	PC	3.371	90°	0.497	1.015	N/A	0.225	none	2
8	PC	2.490	90°	0.499	0.761	N/A	0.225	none	2
9	PC	2.560	90°	0.497	0.771	N/A	0.225	none	2
10	PC	2.540	90°	0.496	0.790	N/A	0.225	none	2
11	PC	2.270	90°	0.501	0.751	N/A	0.250	none	4
12	PC	2.282	90°	0.496	0.750	N/A	0.250	none	4
13	PC	2.246	20°	0.496	0.750	N/A	0.250	none	4
14	PC	2.335	90°	0.502	0.750	N/A	0.250	none	4
15	Al+PC	2.380	90°	0.497	0.168*	0.318*	0.250	none	3
16	Al+PC	2.430	90°	0.497	0.168*	0.318*	0.250	none	3
17	PC	2.293	90°	0.499	0.751	N/A	0.250	none	4
18	PC	2.300	90°	0.497	0.751	N/A	0.250	none	4
19	Al	3.040	(90+45)°	0.500	0.655	0.530	0.250	yes	4
20	Al	3.110	(90+45)°	0.500	0.656	0.531	0.250	yes	4
21	Al	2.990	(90+45)°	0.500	0.651	0.526	0.250	yes	4
22	Al	3.170	(90+45)°	0.500	0.648	0.523	0.250	yes	4
23	Al	3.050	(90+45)°	0.501	0.642	0.518	0.250	yes	4
24	Al	2.710	30°	0.500	0.847	0.414	0.250	yes	5
25	Al	2.540	30°	0.500	0.845	0.412	0.250	yes	5
26	Al 7075	3.237	(90+55)°	0.500	0.467	0.238	none	none	4
27	Al 7075	3.271	(90+55)°	0.500	0.469	0.252	none	none	4
28	Al 7075	3.305	(90+55)°	0.499	0.457	0.247	none	none	4
29	Al 7075	3.236	(90+55)°	0.500	0.450	0.244	none	none	4
30	Al 7075	3.431	(90+55)°	0.504	0.472	0.247	none	none	4
31	Al 7075	3.288	(90+55)°	0.500	0.459	0.246	none	none	4
32	Al 7075	3.277	(90+55)°	0.501	0.472	0.242	none	none	4
33	Al 7075	3.220	(90+55)°	0.492	0.465	0.250	none	none	4
34	Al 7075	3.310	(90+55)°	0.495	0.643	0.350	0.190	none	4
35	Al 7075	3.311	(90+55)°	0.500	0.472	0.242	none	none	4

Shot #	Mat.	m_p	θ	d_p	l_p	l_s	l_{BC}	l_B	Type
36	Al 7075	3.288	(90+55)°	0.495	0.593	0.412	0.243	none	4
37	Al 7075	3.277	(90+55)°	0.497	0.470	0.255	none	none	4
38	Al 7075	3.220	(90+55)°	0.501	0.474	0.240	none	none	4
39	Al 7075	3.310	(90+55)°	0.494	0.630	0.411	0.246	none	4
40	Al 7075	3.311	(90+55)°	0.494	0.474	0.256	none	none	4
41	Al 7075	3.310	20°	0.497	1.085	0.400	0.250	0.400	6
42	Al 7075	3.280	30°	0.496	0.830	0.400	0.250	0.300	6
43	Al 7075	3.310	30°	0.494	0.836	0.400	0.250	0.300	6
44	Al 7075	3.130	30°	0.497	0.838	0.400	0.250	0.300	6
45	Al 7075	3.240	45°	0.495	0.647	0.400	0.250	none	6
46	Al 7075	2.751	20°	0.492	1.090	0.400	0.250	0.400	6
47	Al 7075	2.700	45°	0.495	0.648	0.400	0.250	none	6
48	Al 7075	2.640	45°	0.499	0.648	0.400	0.250	none	6
49	Al 7075	2.768	60°	0.501	0.544	0.400	0.250	none	6
50	Al 7075	2.630	60°	0.500	0.546	0.400	0.250	none	6
51	Al 7075	2.680	45°	0.500	0.650	0.400	0.250	none	6
52	Al 7075	2.678	30°	0.502	0.830	0.400	0.250	0.300	6
53	Al 7075	2.519	60°	0.498	0.543	0.400	0.250	none	6
54	Al 7075	3.394	20°	0.497	1.085	0.400	0.250	none	5
55	Al 7075	3.012	30°	0.499	0.828	0.400	0.250	none	5
56	Al 7075	3.096	30°	0.500	0.837	0.400	0.250	none	5
57	Al 7075	3.384	20°	0.499	1.088	0.400	0.250	none	5
58	Ti	3.630	20°						
59	Ti	3.420	30°						
60	Ti	3.240	30°						
61	Ti	3.770	20°						
62	Al 7075	2.767	20°	0.500	1.089	0.400	0.250	0.400	6
63	Al 7075	2.854	20°	0.502	1.088	0.400	0.250	0.400	6
64	Al 7075	2.519	60°	0.493	0.547	0.400	0.250	none	6
65	Al 7075	3.140	(90+55)°	0.501	0.469	0.256	none	none	4
66	Al 7075	3.160	(90+55)°	0.500	0.457	0.227	none	none	4
67	Al 7075	3.713	30°	0.498	0.831	0.400	0.250**	none	6
68	Al 7075	3.657	30°	0.499	0.840	0.400	0.250**	0.300	6
69	Al 7075	4.413	20°	0.499	1.087	0.400	0.250**	none	6
70	Al 7075	4.440	20°	0.498	1.082	0.400	0.250**	0.300	6
71	Al 7075	3.864	30°	0.498	0.826	0.400	0.250**	none	6
72	Al 7075	3.671	30°	0.499	0.838	0.400	0.250**	0.300	6
73	Al 7075	4.512	20°	0.499	1.080	0.400	0.250**	0.300	6
74	Al 7075	4.414	20°	0.498	1.070	0.400	0.250**	none	6
75	Al 7075	6.318	30°	0.497	1.177	0.750	0.250**	0.375	6
76	Al 7075	5.909	30°	0.496	1.133	0.750	0.250**	0.375	6
77	Al 7075	7.238	20°	0.496	1.436	0.750	0.250**	0.500	6
78	Al 7075	3.805	30°	0.496	0.833	0.400	0.250**	0.300	6
79	Al 7075	4.555	20°	0.493	1.100	0.400	0.250**	0.300	6
80	Al 7075	3.583	20°	0.497	0.811	0.400	0.250**	0.300	6

Shot #	Mat.	m_p	θ	d_p	l_p	l_s	l_{BC}	l_B	Type
81	Al 7075	4.370	20°	0.495	1.063	0.400	0.250**	0.300	6
82	Al 7075	6.976	20°	0.497	1.430	0.750	0.250**	0.375	6
83	Al 7075	5.534	30°	0.497	1.170	0.750	0.250**	0.500	6
84	Al 7075	5.669	30°	0.497	1.186	0.750	0.250**	0.500	6
85	Al 7075	5.706	30°	0.498	1.183	0.750	0.250**	0.500	6
86	Al 7075	3.997	30°	0.464	0.904	0.500	0.219**	none	6
87	Al 7075	4.078	30°	0.466	0.904	0.500	0.219**	none	6
88	Al 7075	4.070	30°	0.465	0.905	0.500	0.219**	none	6
89	Al 7075	2.790	45°	0.466	0.633	0.400	0.219**	none	5
90	Al 7075	2.773	45°	0.466	0.633	0.400	0.219**	none	5
91	Al 7075	2.818	45°	0.466	0.633	0.400	0.219**	none	5
92	Al 7075	2.793	45°	0.466	0.633	0.400	0.219**	none	5
93	Al 7075	3.955	30°	0.466	0.895	0.500	0.219**	none	6
94	Al 7075	3.047	30°	0.466	0.804	0.400	0.219**	0.300	5
95	Al 7075	2.923	30°	0.466	0.804	0.400	0.219**	0.300	5
96	Al 7075	4.791	30°	0.466	1.004	0.600	0.219**	none	5
97	Al 7075	3.235	45°	0.496	0.645	0.400	0.219**	none	5
98	Al 7075	4.284	45°	0.496	0.648	0.400	none	none	5
99	Al 7075	3.280	45°	0.496	0.648	0.400	0.219**	none	5
100	Al 7075	4.299	45°	0.495	0.649	0.400	none	none	5
101	PC	3.392	45°	0.495	0.997	0.750	none	none	5
102	PC	3.350	45°	0.502	0.993	0.750	none	none	5

* Here l_p corresponds to the aluminum disc at the front of the projectile and l_s corresponds to the Lexan (PC) section making up the rear of the projectile

** Here the Bridgeman seal is machined using a 7/16 " ball mill rather than the 1/2 " ball mill

APPENDIX I

Shot Data: Gun

Table I-1: Gun Data

Shot #	Mixture	Gauge Pressure [bar]	Ignition Location	Barrel Length
1	Phi=1.5	36.20	Back Flange	6 ft
2	N/A	N/A	Back Flange	6 ft
3	N/A	N/A	Back Flange	6 ft
4	N/A	62.05	Back Flange	6 ft
5	Phi=1	82.74	Back Flange	6 ft
6	Phi=1	72.39	Back Flange	6 ft
7	Phi=1	72.39	Back Flange	6 ft
8	Phi=1	72.39	Back Flange	6 ft
9	Phi=1	76.88	Back Flange	6 ft
10	Phi=1	77.29	Back Flange	6 ft
11	Phi=1	25.79	Back Flange	6 ft
12	Phi=1	51.57	Back Flange	6 ft
13	Phi=1	61.98	Back Flange	6 ft
14	Phi=1	51.64	Back Flange	6 ft
15	Phi=1	61.98	Back Flange	6 ft
16	Phi=1	62.95	Back Flange	6 ft
17	Phi=1	52.40	Back Flange	6 ft
18	Phi=1	46.47	Back Flange	6 ft
19	Phi=1	62.12	Back Flange	6 ft
20	Phi=1	82.94	Back Flange	6 ft
21	Phi=1	102.53	Back Flange	6 ft
22	Phi=1.5	89.63	Back Flange	6 ft
23	Phi=1	81.15	Back Flange	6 ft
24	Phi=1	82.81	Back Flange	6 ft
25	Phi=1	62.60	Back Flange	6 ft
26	Phi=1	25.79	Back Flange	12 ft
27	Phi=1	41.30	Back Flange	12 ft
28	Phi=1	62.40	Back Flange	12 ft
29	Phi=1	82.60	Back Flange	12 ft
30	Phi=1	25.86	Back Flange	12 ft
31	Phi=1+2He	41.37	Back Flange	12 ft
32	Phi=1	62.12	Back Flange	6 ft
33	Phi=1	62.33	Back Flange	6 ft
34	Phi=1	62.12	Back Flange	6 ft
35	Phi=1	61.98	Back Flange	6 ft

Shot #	Mixture	Gauge Pressure [bar]	Ignition Location	Barrel Length
36	Phi=1	62.12	Back Flange	6 ft
37	Phi=1+2He	62.40	Back Flange	6 ft
38	Phi=2	62.19	Back Flange	6 ft
39	Phi=1	83.08	Back Flange	6 ft
40	Phi=1	62.05	Back Flange	12 ft
41	Phi=1	62.05	Back Flange	12 ft
42	Phi=1	62.05	Back Flange	12 ft
43	Phi=1	62.05	Back Flange	12 ft
44	Phi=1	51.71	Back Flange	12 ft
45	Phi=1	51.71	Back Flange	12 ft
46	Phi=1	51.71	Back Flange	12 ft
47	Phi=1	51.71	Back Flange	12 ft
48	Phi=1	51.71	Back Flange	12 ft
49	Phi=1	51.71	Back Flange	12 ft
50	Phi=1	62.05	Back Flange	12 ft
51	Phi=1	62.05	Back Flange	12 ft
52	Phi=1	87.56	Breech End	12 ft
53	Phi=1	62.74	Back Flange	12 ft
54	Phi=1	62.05	Back Flange	12 ft
55	Phi=1	51.71	Back Flange	12 ft
56	Phi=1	62.05	Back Flange	12 ft
57	Phi=1	51.37	Back Flange	12 ft
58	Phi=1	63.09	Back Flange	12 ft
59	Phi=1	62.05	Back Flange	12 ft
60	Phi=1	62.40	Back Flange	12 ft
61	Phi=1	41.37	Back Flange	12 ft
62	Phi=1	41.37	Back Flange	12 ft
63	Phi=1	31.03	Back Flange	12 ft
64	Phi=1	102.04	Back Flange	12 ft
65	Phi=1*	67.98	Back Flange	12 ft
66	Phi=1*	63.64	Back Flange	12 ft
67	Phi=1*	65.36	Back Flange	12 ft
68	Phi=1*	65.71	Back Flange	12 ft
69	Phi=1*	65.91	Back Flange	12 ft
70	Phi=1*	66.12	Back Flange	12 ft
71	Phi=1*	56.67	Back Flange	12 ft
72	Phi=1*	86.60	Back Flange	12 ft
73	Phi=1*	66.74	Back Flange	12 ft
74	Phi=1*	86.39	Back Flange	12 ft
75	Phi=1*	86.32	Back Flange	12 ft
76	Phi=1*	65.91	Back Flange	12 ft
77	Phi=1*	85.98	Back Flange	12 ft
78	Phi=1*	86.46	Back Flange	6 ft
79	Phi=1*	86.87	Back Flange	6 ft
80	Phi=1*	65.91	Back Flange	6 ft

Shot #	Mixture	Gauge Pressure [bar]	Ignition Location	Barrel Length
81	Phi=1*	66.19	Back Flange	6 ft
82	Phi=1*	76.32	Back Flange	6 ft
83	Phi=1*	76.32	Back Flange	6 ft
84	Phi=1*	75.98	Back Flange	6 ft
85	Phi=1*	75.29	Back Flange	6 ft
86	Phi=1*	68.60	Back Flange	12 ft
87	Phi=1*	66.19	Back Flange	12 ft
88	Phi=1*	84.74	Back Flange	12 ft
89	Phi=1*	65.78	Back Flange	12 ft
90	Phi=1*	81.84	Back Flange	6 ft
91	Phi=1*	65.98	Back Flange	6 ft
92	Phi=1*	65.98	Back Flange	6 ft
93	Phi=1.5*	67.15	Back Flange	6 ft
94	Phi=1*	65.71	Back Flange	6 ft
95	Phi=1*	65.71	Back Flange	6 ft
96	Phi=1*	86.60	Back Flange	12 ft
97	Phi=1*	86.46	Breech End	12 ft
98	Phi=1*	86.25	Breech End	12 ft
99	Phi=1*	64.53	Breech End	12 ft
100	Phi=1*	86.87	Breech End	12 ft
101	Phi=1*	66.19	Breech End	12 ft
102	Phi=1*	43.99	Breech End	12 ft

* These mixtures have 50 psi of Helium injected at the rear of the driver in order to protect the valves from experiencing the pressures of a direct detonation

APPENDIX J

Shot Data: Results

Table J-1: Velcoity data in m/s

Shot #	System	u_{1-2}	u_{2-3}	u_{3-4}	u_{ave}	Survival	l_{CG} [cm]
1	Shock Pins	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	N/A
2	Shock Pins	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	N/A
3	Shock Pins	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	N/A
4	Shock Pins	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	N/A
5	Shock Pins	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	N/A
6	Shock Pins	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	N/A
7	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	7.5
8	Coil Gauge 1	1132.9	1129.5	N/A	1131	no	7.5
9	Coil Gauge 1	1811.6	1445.1	N/A	1628	no	7.5
10	Coil Gauge 1	1582.3	1662.8	N/A	1623	no	7.5
11	Coil Gauge 1	1353.8	1356.2	N/A	1355	yes	7.5
12	Coil Gauge 1	2043.6	2038.0	N/A	2041	yes	7.5
13	Coil Gauge 1	1445.1	no data	N/A	1445	no	7.5
14	Coil Gauge 1	1820.4	1820.4	N/A	1820	yes	7.5
15	Coil Gauge 1	1168.2	957.8	N/A	1063	no	7.5
16	Coil Gauge 1	1464.8	1311.2	N/A	1388	no	7.5
17	Coil Gauge 1	997.3	1001.3	N/A	999	no	7.5
18	Coil Gauge 1	1768.9	1752.3	N/A	1761	yes	7.5
19	Coil Gauge 1	1992.6	1988.3	N/A	1990	yes	7.5
20	Coil Gauge 1	2306.3	2312.0	N/A	2309	yes	7.5
21	Coil Gauge 1	1813.3	1818.6	N/A	1816	no	7.5
22	Coil Gauge 1	2226.8	2221.6	N/A	2224	yes	7.5
23	Coil Gauge 1	no data	2275.4	N/A	2275	yes	7.5
24	Coil Gauge 1	1573.0	1595.4	N/A	1584	no	7.5
25	Coil Gauge 1	2218.9	2209.8	N/A	2210	yes	7.5
26	Coil Gauge 2	1457.7	1533.7	1449.3	1480	yes	5.0
27	Coil Gauge 2	1634.0	1677.9	1683.5	1665	yes	5.0
28	Coil Gauge 2	1886.8	2074.7	1930.5	1964	yes	5.0
29	Coil Gauge 2	no data	no data	no data	2268*	no	5.0
30	Coil Gauge 2	892.9	881.8	887.4	887	yes	5.0
31	Coil Gauge 2	no data	no data	no data	no data	unknown	5.0
32	Coil Gauge 1	1843.3	1812.8	N/A	1828	yes	7.65
33	Coil Gauge 1	1839.0	1830.0	N/A	1835	yes	7.65
34	Coil Gauge 1	1852.0	no data	N/A	1852	yes	7.65
35	Coil Gauge 1	1856.8	1834.5	N/A	1846	yes	7.65

Shot #	System	u_{1-2}	u_{2-3}	u_{3-4}	u_{ave}	Survival	l_{CG} [cm]
36	Coil Gauge 1	1922.0	1898.1	N/A	1910	yes	7.65
37	Coil Gauge 1	1751	1735	N/A	1743	yes	7.65
38	Coil Gauge 1	1826	1804	N/A	1815	yes	7.65
39	Coil Gauge 1	2137	2102	N/A	2120	yes	7.65
40	Coil Gauge 1	1798	1790	N/A	1794	yes	7.65
41	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	no	7.65
42	Coil Gauge 1	2050	2027	N/A	2039	yes	7.65
43	Coil Gauge 1	no data	1938	N/A	1938	no	7.65
44	Coil Gauge 1	1735	1723	N/A	1729	yes	7.65
45	Coil Gauge 1	1979	1968	N/A	1974	yes	7.65
46	Coil Gauge 1	1086	1108	N/A	1097	no	7.65
47	Coil Gauge 1	1875	1865	N/A	1870	yes	7.65
48	Coil Gauge 1	1995	1979	N/A	1987	yes	7.65
49	Coil Gauge 1	2027	2022	N/A	2025	yes	7.65
50	Coil Gauge 1	2207	2201	N/A	2204	yes	7.65
51	Coil Gauge 1	2194	2201	N/A	2198	yes	7.65
52	Coil Gauge 1	2125	2150	N/A	2138	yes	7.65
53	Coil Gauge 1	2151	2144	N/A	2148	yes	7.65
54	Coil Gauge 1	2010	2003	N/A	2006	yes	7.65
55	Coil Gauge 1	1836	1828	N/A	1832	yes	7.65
56	Coil Gauge 1	2013	2000	N/A	2007	yes	7.65
57	Coil Gauge 1	1780	1768	N/A	1774	yes	7.65
58	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	no	7.65
59	Coil Gauge 1	1802	1733	N/A	1798	yes	7.65
60	Coil Gauge 1	1828	1815	N/A	1822	yes	7.65
61	Coil Gauge 1	1448	1435	N/A	1442	yes	7.65
62	Coil Gauge 1	999	991	N/A	995	no	7.65
63	Coil Gauge 1	1457	1449	N/A	1453	yes	7.65
64	Coil Gauge 1	2733	2693	N/A	2713	yes	7.65
65	Coil Gauge 1	1912	1904	N/A	1908	yes	7.65
66	Coil Gauge 1	1847	1835	N/A	1841	yes	7.65
67	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	7.65
68	Coil Gauge 1	1916	1902	N/A	1909	yes	7.65
69	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	no	7.65
70	Coil Gauge 1	1726	1722	N/A	1724	yes	7.65
71	Coil Gauge 1	1817	1707	N/A	1762	yes	7.65
72	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	yes	7.65
73	Coil Gauge 1	1745	1730	N/A	1738	yes	7.65
74	Coil Gauge 1	1978	1963	N/A	1971	yes	7.65
75	Coil Gauge 1	1759	1742	N/A	1751	yes	7.65
76	Coil Gauge 1	1602	1597	N/A	1600	yes	7.65
77	Coil Gauge 1	1562	1546	N/A	1554	yes	7.65
78	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	yes	7.65
79	Coil Gauge 1	1953	1943	N/A	1948	yes	7.65
80	Coil Gauge 1	1833	1820	N/A	1827	yes	7.65

Shot #	System	u_{1-2}	u_{2-3}	u_{3-4}	u_{ave}	Survival	l_{CG} [cm]
81	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	1643*	yes	7.65
82	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	yes	7.65
83	Coil Gauge 1	1654	1661	N/A	1658	yes	7.65
84	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	no	7.65
85	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	7.65
86	Coil Gauge 1	1513	1507	N/A	1510	yes	7.65
87	Coil Gauge 1	1591	1577	N/A	1584	yes	7.65
88	Coil Gauge 1	1913	1918	N/A	1916	yes	7.65
89	Coil Gauge 1	1938	1933	N/A	1936	yes	7.65
90	Coil Gauge 1	2240	2254	N/A	2247	yes	7.65
91	Coil Gauge 1	1968	1953	N/A	1961	yes	7.65
92	Coil Gauge 1	1884	1879	N/A	1882	yes	7.65
93	Coil Gauge 1	1400	1309	N/A	1355	yes	7.65
94	Coil Gauge 1	1995	1874	N/A	1935	yes	7.65
95	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	1864*	yes	7.65
96	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	1655*	yes	7.65
97	Coil Gauge 1	2038	1913	N/A	1976	yes	7.65
98	Coil Gauge 1	no data	no data	N/A	no data	unknown	7.65
99	Coil Gauge 1	1584	1483	N/A	1534	yes	7.65
100	Coil Gauge 1	1541	1446	N/A	1494	yes	7.65
101	Coil Gauge 1	1256	1189	N/A	1223	yes	7.65
102	Coil Gauge 1	1188	1117	N/A	1153	yes	7.65

* Indicates velocities measured between two non-consecutive probes, for example

u_{1-3}

APPENDIX K

Mixture Data: Fixed CJ Detonation Pressure of 2400 bar

Table K–1: Pre-detonation pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a CJ detonation pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ + χH_2	H_2+O_2 + χHe	CH_4+2O_2 + $1.5\chi\text{He}$	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$ + $2\chi\text{He}$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$ + $5\chi\text{He}$
0	110.31	110.31	71.693	62.222	61.900
1	113.46	109.68	80.863	71.525	72.816
2	121.58	111.47	87.883	78.444	80.749
3	131.59	114.38	93.907	84.165	87.272
4	142.47	117.99	99.416	89.212	93.033
5	153.48	122.12	104.66	93.851	98.362
6	164.68	126.68	109.78	98.239	103.45
7	175.83	131.62	114.88	102.48	108.41
8	186.89	136.91	120.02	106.63	113.33
9	197.81	142.51	125.24	110.76	118.27
10	208.60	148.37	130.58	114.89	123.26

Table K–2: CV explosion pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a CJ detonation pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ + χH_2	H_2+O_2 + χHe	CH_4+2O_2 + $1.5\chi\text{He}$	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$ + $2\chi\text{He}$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$ + $5\chi\text{He}$
0	1222.60	1222.60	1212.99	1210.21	1210.44
1	1223.74	1222.17	1215.23	1212.56	1213.15
2	1225.98	1222.28	1216.92	1214.49	1215.19
3	1228.32	1222.43	1218.28	1216.09	1216.68
4	1230.86	1222.48	1219.21	1217.27	1217.86
5	1233.39	1222.40	1219.84	1218.23	1218.70
6	1235.93	1222.31	1220.20	1218.91	1219.20
7	1238.47	1222.29	1220.34	1219.41	1219.47
8	1241.04	1222.48	1220.36	1219.73	1219.63
9	1243.52	1223.00	1220.41	1219.70	1219.58
10	1245.97	1223.85	1220.43	1219.73	1219.63

Table K-3: Reflected CJ detonation pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a CJ detonation pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	5927.66	5927.66	6012.62	6027.44	6033.29
1	5914.10	5914.10	5978.14	5995.20	5995.32
2	5885.60	5898.05	5951.97	5970.03	5967.15
3	5854.40	5879.66	5928.82	5949.62	5943.60
4	5821.91	5861.01	5906.89	5931.27	5922.12
5	5791.80	5841.48	5887.09	5914.14	5902.39
6	5762.83	5821.00	5866.96	5898.10	5883.13
7	5735.39	5800.10	5847.36	5882.40	5864.84
8	5707.84	5779.68	5828.28	5866.77	5846.65
9	5681.67	5758.67	5809.48	5851.74	5828.47
10	5656.40	5737.93	5789.71	5836.74	5810.16

Table K-4: CV explosion temperature, in Kelvin, for various mixtures corresponding to CJ detonation pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	4371.93	4371.93	4310.27	4619.84	4392.53
1	4124.03	4123.42	4080.34	4387.22	4163.78
2	3702.36	3909.36	3885.03	4192.38	3970.42
3	3319.78	3715.93	3711.34	4021.69	3799.30
4	2999.17	3536.66	3552.62	3867.90	3643.64
5	2734.44	3368.29	3405.03	3726.69	3499.40
6	2515.20	3209.23	3266.16	3595.18	3364.03
7	2331.84	3058.84	3134.53	3471.44	3235.86
8	2176.60	2917.00	3009.23	3354.06	3113.80
9	2043.57	2783.75	2889.77	3242.04	2997.16
10	1928.28	2659.13	2775.97	3134.73	2885.60

Table K-5: CV explosion sound speed, in m/s, for various mixtures corresponding to CJ detonation pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	1618.5	1618.5	1340.8	1338.4	1326.3
1	1808.4	1797.5	1507.4	1495.2	1489.3
2	1921.0	1920.8	1629.5	1613.2	1610.2
3	1994.1	2010.1	1723.2	1705.5	1703.6
4	2041.0	2076.6	1797.1	1779.6	1777.9
5	2070.4	2126.5	1856.4	1840.3	1838.1
6	2088.2	2163.8	1904.6	1890.7	1887.5
7	2098.3	2190.7	1944.0	1932.8	1928.3
8	2103.0	2208.9	1976.0	1968.4	1962.2
9	2102.2	2219.5	2001.6	1998.6	1990.0
10	1928.28	2223.8	2021.4	2024.0	2012.5

Table K-6: CV explosion specific heat ratio, γ , for various mixtures corresponding to CJ detonation pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	1.1455	1.1455	1.1442	1.1527	1.1461
1	1.1603	1.1713	1.1668	1.1715	1.1673
2	1.1835	1.1960	1.1873	1.1877	1.1863
3	1.2057	1.2217	1.2078	1.2031	1.2048
4	1.2250	1.2488	1.2288	1.2184	1.2238
5	1.2409	1.2773	1.2509	1.2342	1.2436
6	1.2540	1.3066	1.2741	1.2506	1.2644
7	1.2650	1.3359	1.2983	1.2678	1.2863
8	1.2745	1.3644	1.3232	1.2858	1.3090
9	1.2830	1.3911	1.3484	1.3047	1.3324
10	1.2907	1.4156	1.3732	1.3244	1.3560

APPENDIX L

Mixture Data: Fixed Reflected CJ Detonation Pressure of 5720 bar

Table L-1: Pre-detonation pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a Reflected CJ detonation pressure of 5720 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ + χH_2	H_2+O_2 + χHe	CH_4+2O_2 + $1.5\chi\text{He}$	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$ + $2\chi\text{He}$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$ + $5\chi\text{He}$
0	106.44	106.44	68.204	59.049	58.685
1	109.64	106.08	77.371	68.242	69.472
2	118.16	108.10	84.458	75.159	77.405
3	128.56	111.27	90.599	80.917	83.988
4	139.88	115.15	96.270	86.034	89.857
5	151.58	119.58	101.69	90.771	95.322
6	163.45	124.48	107.03	95.273	100.58
7	175.36	129.80	112.38	99.647	105.73
8	187.29	135.50	117.79	103.96	110.88
9	199.15	141.55	123.31	108.26	116.07
10	210.94	147.90	129.01	112.59	121.35

Table L-2: CV explosion pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a Reflected CJ detonation pressure of 5720 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ + χH_2	H_2+O_2 + χHe	CH_4+2O_2 + $1.5\chi\text{He}$	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$ + $2\chi\text{He}$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$ + $5\chi\text{He}$
0	1178.75	1178.75	1152.42	1146.67	1145.88
1	1182.81	1180.98	1161.31	1155.15	1155.86
2	1191.09	1184.49	1168.26	1162.08	1163.46
3	1199.95	1188.54	1174.28	1167.72	1169.74
4	1209.23	1192.51	1179.75	1172.67	1175.30
5	1218.03	1196.58	1184.53	1177.18	1180.20
6	1226.74	1200.83	1189.10	1181.22	1184.76
7	1235.13	1205.24	1193.37	1184.97	1188.89
8	1243.67	1209.76	1197.42	1188.55	1192.81
9	1251.91	1214.74	1201.38	1191.83	1196.63
10	1259.98	1219.99	1203.30	1194.98	1200.47

Table L-3: CJ detonation pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a Reflected CJ detonation pressure of 5720 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	2313.79	2313.79	2280.14	2273.95	2271.97
1	2319.70	2319.15	2293.52	2286.33	2286.74
2	2331.71	2325.75	2303.98	2296.35	2297.82
3	2344.56	2333.40	2313.38	2304.59	2307.32
4	2357.86	2341.17	2322.36	2312.09	2316.08
5	2370.18	2349.30	2330.53	2319.17	2324.21
6	2382.16	2357.83	2338.84	2325.80	2332.14
7	2393.55	2366.52	2346.95	2332.28	2339.71
8	2405.12	2375.03	2354.87	2338.77	2347.24
9	2416.19	2383.80	2362.66	2345.03	2354.78
10	2426.99	2392.47	2370.87	2351.26	2362.37

Table L-4: CV explosion temperature, in Kelvin, for various mixtures corresponding to Reflected CJ detonation pressure of 5720 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	4365.12	4365.12	4300.82	4607.57	4381.75
1	4119.77	4118.18	4073.25	4377.68	4155.66
2	3700.58	3905.44	3879.62	4184.82	3964.15
3	3319.10	3713.10	3707.21	4015.59	3794.44
4	2998.94	3534.69	3549.52	3862.99	3639.89
5	2734.37	3366.97	3402.72	3722.75	3496.53
6	2515.18	3208.40	3264.50	3592.05	3361.88
7	2331.83	3058.36	3133.36	3468.96	3234.27
8	2176.60	2916.74	3008.44	3352.15	3112.66
9	2043.57	2783.62	2889.27	3240.59	2996.38
10	1928.28	2659.09	2775.62	3133.64	2885.09

Table L-5: CV explosion sound speed, in m/s, for various mixtures corresponding to Reflected CJ detonation pressure of 5720 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	1617.6	1617.6	1339.9	1337.2	1325.2
1	1805.6	1796.5	1506.3	1493.9	1488.1
2	1920.5	1919.9	1628.4	1611.9	1609.0
3	1993.9	2009.2	1722.2	1704.2	1702.5
4	2040.9	2075.8	1796.1	1778.4	1776.9
5	2070.4	2125.9	1855.6	1839.2	1837.2
6	2088.2	2163.3	1903.9	1889.6	1886.7
7	2098.3	2190.4	1943.4	1931.9	1927.6
8	2103.0	2208.7	1975.5	1967.6	1961.6
9	2104.0	2219.4	2001.2	1997.9	1989.5
10	2102.2	2223.7	2021.2	2023.4	2012.2

Table L-6: CV explosion specific heat ratio, γ , for various mixtures corresponding to Reflected CJ detonation pressure of 5720 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	1.1454	1.1454	1.1441	1.1525	1.1460
1	1.1602	1.1710	1.1665	1.1712	1.1670
2	1.1833	1.1957	1.1870	1.1873	1.1859
3	1.2056	1.2213	1.2074	1.2027	1.2045
4	1.2256	1.2485	1.2284	1.2180	1.2234
5	1.2409	1.2770	1.2505	1.2338	1.2432
6	1.2540	1.3063	1.2737	1.2501	1.2640
7	1.2650	1.3357	1.2979	1.2673	1.2859
8	1.2745	1.3642	1.3229	1.2854	1.3087
9	1.2830	1.3910	1.3481	1.3043	1.3321
10	1.2907	1.4155	1.3729	1.3240	1.3558

APPENDIX M

Mixture Data: Fixed Pre-Detonation Pressure of 106.44 bar

Table M-1: CV explosion pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a pre-detonation pressure of 106.44 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ + χH_2	H_2+O_2 + χHe	CH_4+2O_2 + $1.5\chi\text{He}$	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$ + $2\chi\text{He}$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$ + $5\chi\text{He}$
0	1178.75	1178.75	1819.64	2103.50	2112.15
1	1147.65	1185.11	1611.78	1827.40	1792.93
2	1071.58	1165.85	1481.43	1663.86	1614.28
3	992.20	1135.79	1385.12	1548.77	1491.76
4	919.29	1100.67	1307.33	1459.69	1397.95
5	854.82	1063.16	1241.00	1386.18	1321.07
6	798.56	1024.71	1182.41	1323.21	1255.20
7	749.54	986.31	1129.40	1267.61	1197.00
8	706.75	948.55	1080.68	1217.42	1144.43
9	669.09	911.90	1035.45	1171.44	1096.23
10	635.75	876.71	993.19	1128.73	1051.57

Table M-2: CJ detonation pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a pre-Detonation pressure of 106.44 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ + χH_2	H_2+O_2 + χHe	CH_4+2O_2 + $1.5\chi\text{He}$	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$ + $2\chi\text{He}$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$ + $5\chi\text{He}$
0	2313.79	2313.79	3600.31	4171.57	4188.10
1	2250.76	2327.23	3183.38	3617.25	3547.16
2	2097.77	2289.16	2921.79	3288.18	3188.47
3	1938.73	2229.82	2728.87	3056.88	2942.71
4	1792.67	2160.78	2573.58	2877.95	2755.00
5	1663.50	2087.27	2441.70	2731.05	2601.71
6	1550.83	2012.04	2325.68	2605.45	2470.87
7	1452.62	1936.72	2221.11	2494.96	2355.68
8	1366.82	1862.39	2125.25	2395.62	2251.99
9	1291.40	1789.88	2036.31	2304.86	2157.13
10	1224.65	1719.83	1953.11	2220.89	2069.31

Table M-3: Reflected CJ detonation pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a pre-detonation pressure of 106.44 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	5714.86	5714.88	9020.60	10480.2	10529.6
1	5546.30	5735.05	7930.13	9037.06	8861.12
2	5144.50	5625.39	7245.76	8179.84	7927.78
3	4729.49	5462.92	6741.19	7578.10	7287.27
4	4349.66	5318.93	6334.90	7112.28	6798.04
5	4015.08	5080.76	5989.47	6730.30	6398.08
6	3724.33	4880.43	5685.93	6402.65	6056.73
7	3471.15	4681.39	5412.12	6115.17	5756.88
8	3250.66	4486.01	5161.38	5856.61	5486.10
9	3057.24	4295.67	4929.67	5620.27	5238.99
10	2886.28	4112.96	4712.50	5401.36	5010.36

Table M-4: CV explosion temperature, in Kelvin, for various mixtures corresponding to pre-detonation pressure of 106.44 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	4365.12	4365.12	4385.08	4746.40	4502.16
1	4115.98	4118.71	4124.34	4468.09	4229.25
2	3693.83	3903.45	3911.00	4246.38	4011.19
3	3313.39	3708.52	3725.68	4057.93	3824.38
4	2995.21	3528.26	3559.18	3891.69	3658.14
5	2732.23	3359.59	3406.37	3741.47	3506.60
6	2514.03	3200.87	3264.13	3603.36	3366.22
7	2331.23	3051.27	3130.48	3474.78	3234.70
8	2176.29	2910.47	3004.15	3353.92	3110.53
9	2043.42	2778.34	2884.40	3239.50	2992.74
10	1928.20	2654.81	2770.79	3130.60	2880.71

Table M-5: CV explosion sound speed, in m/s, for various mixtures corresponding to pre-detonation pressure of 106.44 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	1617.6	1617.6	1348.4	1349.9	1336.9
1	1805.0	4796.6	1514.1	1506.2	1498.9
2	1918.7	1919.4	1634.8	1622.6	1617.9
3	1991.7	2007.8	1726.8	1713.1	1709.5
4	2038.9	2073.3	1799.0	1785.5	1781.9
5	2068.9	2122.4	1856.9	1844.5	1840.5
6	2087.2	2159.0	1903.8	1893.3	1888.3
7	2097.6	2185.6	1942.0	1934.1	1927.8
8	2102.6	2203.6	1973.0	1968.4	1960.5
9	2103.7	2214.5	1997.9	1997.3	1987.3
10	2102.1	2219.1	2017.3	2021.8	2009.1

Table M-6: CV explosion specific heat ratio, γ , for various mixtures corresponding to pre-detonation pressure of 106.44 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	1.1454	1.1454	1.1453	1.1542	1.1476
1	1.1599	1.1711	1.1684	1.1738	1.1695
2	1.1825	1.1955	1.1889	1.1901	1.1885
3	1.2044	1.2208	1.2090	1.2053	1.2068
4	1.2237	1.2473	1.2296	1.2204	1.2254
5	1.2398	1.2752	1.2511	1.2357	1.2447
6	1.2532	1.3038	1.2736	1.2517	1.2648
7	1.2645	1.3325	1.2971	1.2683	1.2860
8	1.2742	1.3606	1.3212	1.2858	1.3080
9	1.2828	1.3872	1.3457	1.3040	1.3306
10	1.2906	1.4117	1.3699	1.3230	1.3535

APPENDIX N
Mixture Data: CV Explosion Pressure of 2400 bar

Table N-1: Pre-detonation pressure pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a CV explosion pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ + χH_2	H_2+O_2 + χHe	CH_4+2O_2 + $1.5\chi\text{He}$	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$ + $2\chi\text{He}$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$ + $5\chi\text{He}$
0	213.06	213.06	139.45	121.00	120.55
1	219.65	211.80	156.86	138.65	141.35
2	236.36	215.46	170.36	151.87	156.59
3	256.14	221.46	182.08	162.90	169.22
4	277.09	228.90	192.91	172.71	180.48
5	298.38	237.41	203.32	181.80	190.99
6	319.64	246.77	213.57	190.46	201.10
7	340.67	256.85	223.83	198.89	211.04
8	361.38	267.52	234.21	207.22	220.95
9	381.76	278.67	244.75	215.52	230.92
10	401.79	290.20	255.49	223.88	241.01

Table N-2: CJ detonation pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a CV explosion pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ + χH_2	H_2+O_2 + χHe	CH_4+2O_2 + $1.5\chi\text{He}$	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$ + $2\chi\text{He}$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$ + $5\chi\text{He}$
0	4711.85	4711.85	4749.09	4759.58	4758.69
1	4706.91	4713.91	4740.60	4750.79	4748.37
2	4698.09	4713.34	4734.06	4743.44	4740.92
3	4688.73	4712.68	4729.11	4737.66	4734.92
4	4679.07	4712.24	4725.41	4733.05	4730.47
5	4669.38	4712.16	4723.03	4729.46	4727.37
6	4659.91	4712.13	4721.54	4726.68	4725.26
7	4650.56	4711.62	4720.74	4724.90	4724.13
8	4640.93	4710.13	4720.41	4723.99	4723.60
9	4631.79	4707.43	4719.77	4723.32	4723.26
10	4622.72	4703.50	4718.73	4723.27	4722.87

Table N-3: Reflected CJ detonation pressure, in bar, for various mixtures corresponding to a CV explosion pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	11637.6	11637.6	11897.7	11953.4	11962.7
1	11598.8	11616.1	11808.3	11867.5	11861.7
2	11521.3	11583.1	11740.4	11799.4	11787.4
3	11437.4	11545.4	11682.5	11744.7	11726.0
4	11350.5	11507.7	11630.2	11697.1	11672.7
5	11268.6	11469.4	11585.4	11654.5	11626.2
6	11189.3	11428.9	11542.1	11616.0	11583.1
7	11037.4	11386.6	11501.6	11580.7	11544.3
8	10965.1	11342.9	11463.3	11547.7	11507.2
9	10895.0	11295.2	11424.7	11516.5	11470.6
10	2886.28	11245.1	11383.4	11486.9	11433.6

Table N-4: CV explosion temperature, in Kelvin, for various mixtures corresponding to CV explosion pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	4496.21	4496.21	4436.03	4776.76	4527.33
1	4203.92	4224.87	4185.97	4521.97	4277.98
2	3740.50	3991.49	3974.01	4309.15	4067.71
3	3336.86	3781.49	3786.10	4123.25	3882.18
4	3006.56	3588.05	3615.01	3956.30	3713.96
5	2737.60	3407.72	3456.56	3803.47	3558.65
6	2516.57	3238.81	3308.17	3661.60	3413.46
7	2332.43	3080.53	3168.22	3528.53	3276.59
8	2176.87	2932.56	3035.77	3402.74	3146.86
9	2043.69	2794.70	2910.27	3283.16	3023.58
10	1928.33	2666.72	2791.49	3167.07	2906.34

Table N-5: CV explosion sound speed, in m/s, for various mixtures corresponding to CV explosion pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	1633.0	1633.0	1353.4	1352.6	1339.2
1	1820.3	1816.0	1523.4	1513.3	1505.9
2	1931.2	1941.1	1647.3	1633.3	1628.5
3	2000.9	2030.7	1741.8	1726.7	1722.9
4	2045.0	2096.7	1815.8	1801.4	1797.5
5	2072.7	2145.4	1874.9	1862.1	1857.6
6	2089.2	2180.9	1922.5	1912.3	1906.6
7	2098.9	2205.7	1961.0	1954.1	1946.7
8	2103.3	2221.8	1991.7	1989.1	1979.6
9	2104.1	2229.9	2015.8	2018.4	2006.2
10	2102.3	2232.1	2034.0	2042.9	2027.2

Table N-6: CV explosion specific heat ratio, γ , for various mixtures corresponding to CV explosion pressure of 2400 bar

χ	$2\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$	H_2+O_2	CH_4+2O_2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4+3\text{O}_2$	$2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6+7\text{O}_2$
	$+\chi\text{H}_2$	$+\chi\text{He}$	$+1.5\chi\text{He}$	$+2\chi\text{He}$	$+5\chi\text{He}$
0	1.1475	1.1475	1.1460	1.1598	1.1479
1	1.1641	1.1756	1.1705	1.1831	1.1710
2	1.1877	1.2023	1.1927	1.2019	1.1915
3	1.2093	1.2296	1.2144	1.2184	1.2113
4	1.2275	1.2581	1.2367	1.2339	1.2315
5	1.2424	1.2874	1.2599	1.2488	1.2524
6	1.2549	1.3169	1.2839	1.2636	1.2741
7	1.2655	1.3460	1.3088	1.2779	1.2967
8	1.2748	1.3736	1.3340	1.2926	1.3200
9	1.2832	1.3992	1.3590	1.3074	1.3436
10	1.2908	1.4225	1.3833	1.3224	1.3671