Numa Manson on Velocity Deficits and Detonation Stability

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1 The Poitiers Investigations of Velocity Deficits

Professor Manson and his students studied velocity deficits and velocity fluctuations in rigid tubes in great detail.

The earliest theoretical prediction for the velocity deficits in tubes was by Zeldovich [1] in 1940. He proposed that the drag exerted on the wall by the fluid between the shock and Chapman-Jouguet (C-J) plane was responsible for the deficits. The model showed that the deficits increased with decreasing tube diameter for a given mixture, but it under-predicted their magnitude considerably. The work on high explosives by Jones [2] and by Eyering, Powel, Duffey, and Parlin [3] arrived at a similar conclusion, but it was the lateral expansion of the gases following the rupture of the charge casing that was proposed to be responsible for energy losses and the associated velocity deficits. Kistiakowsky et al. [4] made precise detonation velocity measurements for a variety of combustible mixtures and showed that the velocity decreases with decreasing tube diameter and varies linearly with the reciprocal of the tube diameter.

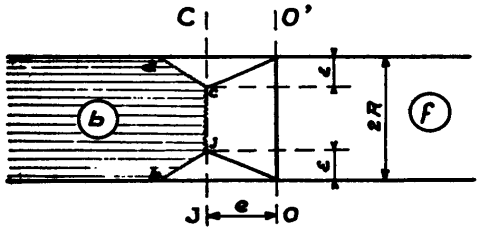

Figure 1
Model of the detonation wave with wall effects proposed by Manson and Guénoche [5]

Professor Manson and his colleague Guénoche [5] proposed yet another hypothesis. They postulated that chemical reactions in the reaction zone of the wave were inhibited or significantly modified in a layer of thickness ε adjacent to the tube walls. An attempt was made to modify the hydrodynamic theory of detonation by assuming different heats of reaction in the wall layer and the circular core of radius R-ε, where R is the tube radius. The basic wave concept is illustrated in Fig. 1. As ε tends to R, the reaction is such that the detonation wave can no longer be maintained and propagation ceases. Thus, the limiting tube diameter $2R_l$ approaches a value of 2ε in the limit. In their analysis, an approximate relation between the detonation velocity and heat of reaction was obtained using the Chapman-Jouguet method to yield:

$$D = D_{th} \bullet \sqrt{\left(1-\frac{\varepsilon}{R}\right)^2 + \left[1+\left(1-\frac{\varepsilon}{R}\right)^2\right]\left(\frac{D_l}{D_{th}}\right)^2} \qquad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

where D is the wave velocity in a tube of radius R, D_{th} is the theoretical Chapman-Jouguet velocity, and D_l is the limiting wave velocity when ε tends toward R; that is, when the charge diameter becomes equal to the limiting diameter $2R_l$. For $R >> R_l$ and $\varepsilon \cong R_l$, the above expression can be simplified to the following:

$$D \cong D_{th}\left(1-\frac{R_l}{R}\right) \qquad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

which again shows an increasing velocity deficit with decreasing tube diameter. These investigators tested their hypothesis using the data from experiments in round tubes for C_2H_2-O_2 and C_3H_8-O_2 mixtures at various fuel/oxygen ratios. An important outcome of their work was the conclusion that the detonability limits were not simply a function of the mixture properties alone. The specification of the lower and upper concentration limits must be accompanied by an associated tube diameter. In their own words, "to determine the lower and upper

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limits of detonation, C_i and C_s, means that we are really determining the limiting diameters for mixtures of concentrations C_i and C_s."

Professor Manson and his students developed an experimental method to estimate the detonation velocity in an infinite diameter tube. Basically, the velocity of detonation, D, for a given mixture at specified initial conditions is measured in several tubes of different diameter, φ. In the experiments, the velocity deficit was seen to increase with decreasing tube diameter. An estimate of the propagation velocity for an infinite size tube, D_∞, was then obtained by plotting D as a function of the reciprocal of the tube diameter, φ^{-1}, and extrapolating the resulting straight line through the data points to a value for D at $\varphi^{-1} = 0$.

The above-described method was employed by a number of Manson's students. Brochet, for example, conducted a series of tests using stoichiometric C_3H_8-O_2 and C_2H_4-O_2 mixtures with nitrogen dilution at atmospheric pressure for N_2/O_2 ratios ranging from 0 to 3.76 (corresponding to air) [6]. Steel tubes having inside diameters of 6, 12, 21, 36 and 52 mm were employed. The detonation velocities were measured using ionization probes. D_∞ was estimated for a given degree of nitrogen dilution and was found to increase as the extent of dilution decreased. The influence of initial pressure on the detonation velocity was studied in a second set of tests using tubes of 4.6, 28 and 44 mm diameter and initial pressures up to about 3 atm. When the method was applied to these data, the values for D_∞ were found to increase with initial pressure.

Pujol later extended the D_∞ pressure dependence work using stainless steel tubes and the same mixtures, but he included C_3H_8-C_2H_4-H_2-O_2 mixtures as well [7]. He also studied the dependence of detonation velocity on initial temperature for temperatures up to 450 K and for various combinations of initial pressure and temperature. Tubes of 12.5 mm and 53 mm were used for this purpose. The detonation velocity was observed to decrease with increasing temperature. In addition, Pujol found that the internal surface finish of the tube had a definite influence on the slope of the line in the D (φ^{-1}) plot, but he did not quantify the effect.

Boislève was the first student to apply the method to brass tubes of rectangular cross section having a

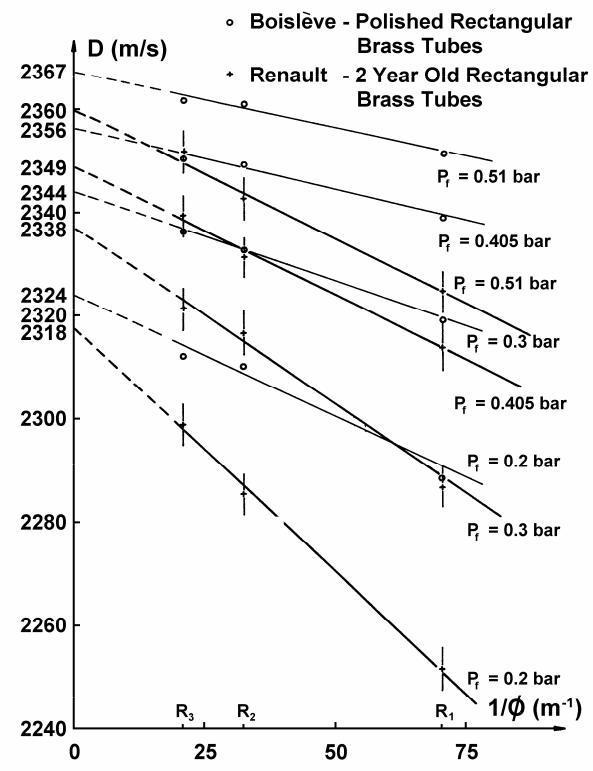

Figure 2
Detonation velocity versus φ^{-1} for polished and rough brass tubes of rectangular cross section for stoichiometric C_3H_8-O_2 mixtures at 292 K [9]

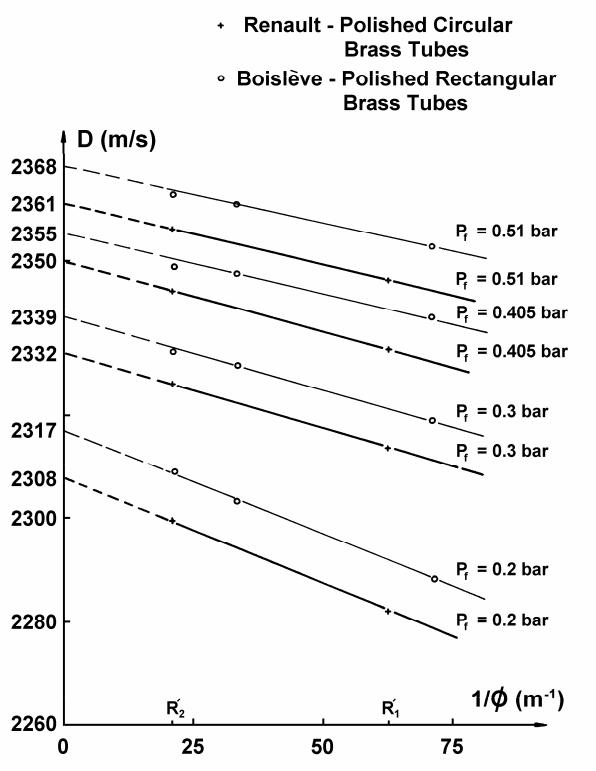

Figure 3
Detonation velocity versus φ^{-1} for polished brass tubes of circular and rectangular cross section for stoichiometric C_2H_4-O_2 mixtures at 292 K [9]

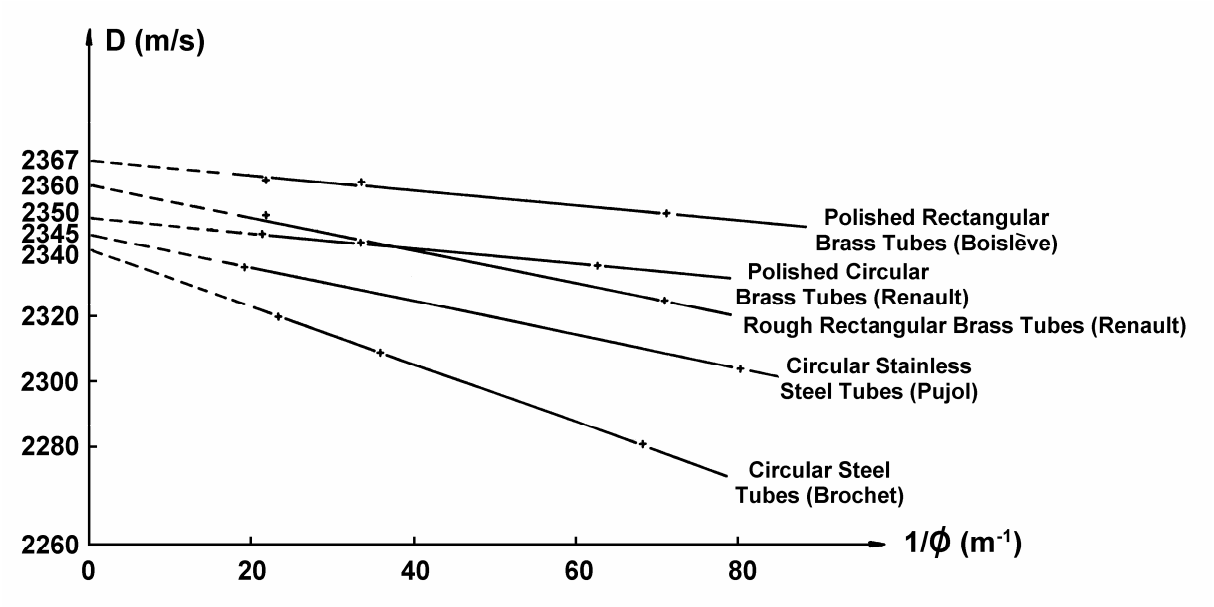

Figure 4
A compilation of detonation velocity results for tubes of rectangular and circular cross section having various surface finishes. The mixtures were C_3H_8-O_2 at 292 K [9].

polished or 'mirror' finish [8]. Tubes measuring 10 mm x 23 mm, 22 mm x 48 mm, and 34 mm x 72 mm in cross section were employed in the study. A 'reference diameter' (essentially, the hydraulic diameter) was calculated for each tube. The mixtures employed were stoichiometric C_3H_8-O_2 and C_2H_4-O_2 at initial pressures of 0.2, 0.3, 0.405, and 0.51 bar. D_∞ was estimated for each initial pressure condition and always found to be somewhat larger than the value for D_∞ obtained for round steel tubes. The values were systematically higher by about 1% for C_3H_8-O_2 mixtures and 0.4% for C_2H_4-O_2 mixtures. Boislève also applied the method to estimate the detonation pressure P_b for an infinite size tube by plotting P_b as a function of φ^{-1} and extrapolating to $\varphi^{-1} = 0$. The estimated pressures were found to be a few percent higher than $P_{C\text{-}J}$, but they were lower than those estimated for round tubes.

Renault attempted to clarify the respective roles of tube cross section and surface finish on the estimation of D_∞ in two carefully designed sets of experiments building on the earlier work of his colleagues. [9]. In the first series of tests, the same three rectangular brass tubes employed by Boislève were used. However, after two years of prior use, the original mirror finish had disappeared and the tubes were noticeably rough. When the tests were repeated for stoichiometric C_3H_8-O_2 at the same initial pressures, the measured propagation velocities for all initial pressures were notably lower than what had been reported earlier by Boislève. The slopes of the lines in the $D(\varphi^{-1})$ plots were considerably steeper and the resulting D_∞ values were lower. These trends are shown for the propane-oxygen system in Fig. 2. The steeper slopes were likely the result of the increased tube roughness being more significant for the smaller tubes. The second series of experiments was conducted with brass tubes of circular cross section (16 and 48 mm diameter) having the same mirror finish as Boislève's original rectangular brass tubes. When the $D(\varphi^{-1})$ plots were compared to those for the polished rectangular tubes used by Boislèeve, the slopes were nearly identical for a given initial pressure, but the velocities were about 20 m/s lower for the circular tubes. Figure 3 shows typical results for the ethylene-oxygen system. Given that the surface finishes were identical, the differences in D_∞ for a given initial pressure were clearly due to geometrical effects. For either tube geometry, the slopes of the lines steepen as the tube wall roughness increases; polished brass yields the minimum slope, while steel gives the highest slope. The value of D_∞ therefore depends on both the tube cross-sectional geometry and surface roughness. A compilation of key results from Manson's students appears in Fig. 4 for low-pressure propane-oxygen.

Brossard and Charpentier de Coysevox [10] later tried to apply the method to responding PVC tubes, but they obtained results considerably different from those for rigid tubes. An attempt to explain the velocity deficits in terms of the energy transferred to the tubes through elastic deformation met with limited success.

2 The Poitiers Investigations of 'Vibratory Phenomena' and Wave Stability

Manson first reported that gaseous detonations in round tubes exhibit 'vibratory phenomena' during the mid 1940s [11]. He proposed that the frequency of these vibrations was equal to the fundamental transverse acoustic frequency of the tube. When experiments were conducted for CO + $0.5O_2$ mixtures in rigid tubes ranging in diameter from 0.362 cm to 2.54 cm, the frequency of luminous striations observed in streak photographs was found to be in excellent agreement with the predicted acoustic frequency. The same conclusion was reached for H_2-O_2, C_2H_2-O_2, and CH_4-O_2 mixtures in tubes up to 4.1 cm in diameter. The experiments also showed that the vibrational frequency was inversely proportional to the tube diameter. In some experiments, higher vibrational frequencies were observed and these were shown to correspond to the second acoustic frequency of the tube. In a later investigation, an attempt was made to relate the local propagation velocity of the wave to the vibratory phenomena [12]. In that study, experiments were carried out in round steel tubes 25-30 m long having diameters of 6, 12, 14.6, 20, 28, 36, 44, and 52 mm. The combustible mixtures were nitrogen-diluted C_3H_8-O_2 and C_2H_4-O_2 for a range of equivalence ratios and degrees of dilution. The propagation velocities were measured using ionization probes, while the vibratory phenomena were recorded using a streak schlieren system. The 'local' detonation velocity, D_l, was defined as that measured over a distance of 0.5 m, while the 'average' velocity, D_m, was that measured over a distance of at least 5 m. Care was taken to ensure that the measurements were not influenced by the initiator.

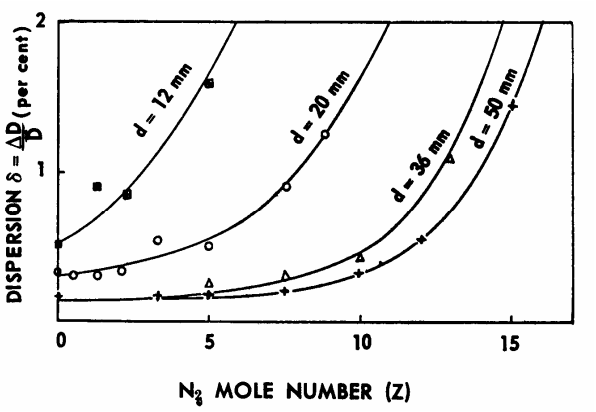

Figure 5
Relative deviation δ versus nitrogen mole number Z for $C_3H_8 + 5O_2 + ZN_2$; P_o = 1 atm and T_o = 298 K [11]

The velocity 'deviation' δ was defined as $\Delta D/D$ where ΔD is the maximum deviation between D_l and D_m and D is the average of these velocities, $(D_l + D_m)/2$. The experimental results showed that for any given mixture, δ increases as the tube diameter d decreases. Equivalently, for a given tube and stoichiometric ratio, δ increases as the degree of dilution increases. Figure 5 shows the measured velocity deviations for $C_3H_8 + 5O_2 + ZN_2$ mixtures with $0 \leq Z \leq 14.7$. A value of δ less than 0.4% was considered to be insignificant and the wave was considered to be 'stable'. The data indicate that δ becomes larger than 0.4% for Z = 3.5 in the 20 mm tube, for Z = 9 in the 36 mm tube, and for Z = 10.5 in the 52 mm tube. These tests showed that the detonation reaction zone must be lengthened (through nitrogen dilution) as the tube diameter increases in order for local velocity deviations and the onset of instability to become apparent.

Figure 6 is a collection of steak schlieren photographs showing vibratory phenomena for $C_3H_8 + 5O_2 + ZN_2$ mixtures with varying degrees of N_2 dilution. For low values of Z, very high frequency vibrations were observed in the burned gases accompanied by low values of velocity deviation. As Z was increased, the velocity deviation increased and

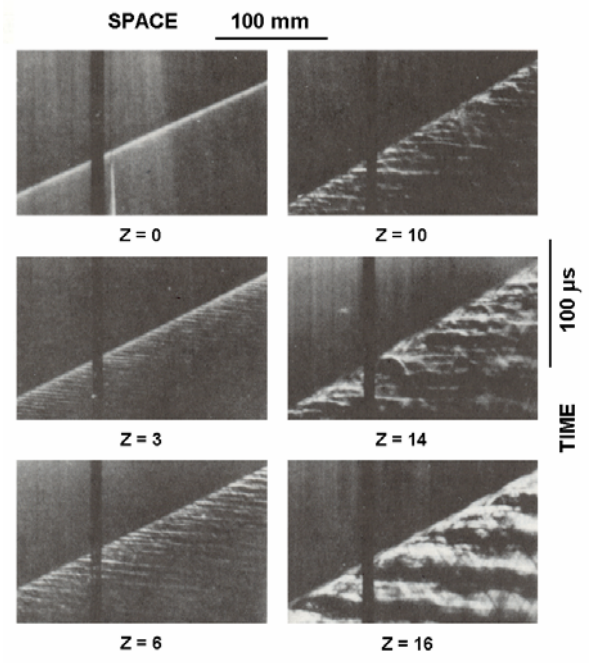

Figure 6
Streak schlieren photographs of detonations showing instability evolution in $C_3H_8 + 5O_2 + ZN_2$ mixtures as Z increases; d = 20 mm, P_o = 1 atm, T_o = 298 K [11]

striations appeared in the photographs having a frequency equal to the fundamental frequency of the transverse vibrations. At some higher value of Z, the detonation was seen to decelerate and the shock and flame separate. This was followed by detonation reformation some time later, a process that repeated every 50-60 mm. Each reformation was accompanied initially by high-frequency striations followed by a step-wise transition to the fundamental frequency that persisted for a short time before the next shock/flame decoupling took place. The authors concluded that the increasing instability of detonation was related to the increasing velocity deviations and that the C-J representation of a detonation was only valid for stable detonations, defined as those for which D_l and D_m agreed to within ± 0.2%. They also proposed that the mode number of the transverse oscillations might be a suitable scale of intrinsic instability.

3 Cellular Structure - The True Nature of the Detonation Front Revealed

It was once thought that spinning detonations, as first reported by Campbell and Woodhead [13] in the mid 1920s, were an anomaly seen only near the detonability limits. However, during the late 1950s it became evident that spinning detonation was a limiting case of the universal cellular structure of detonation. Denisov and Troshin [14] used smoke foils to record this structure in the Soviet Union, while White [15] in the United States obtained interferometric photographs showing the non-steady 'turbulent' nature of detonation. Although they did not realize it at the time, the vibratory phenomena observed as striations in the streak schlieren photographs by Manson and his coworkers were merely another expression of the cellular character of detonation waves. It took the community some time to inter-relate the various experimental observations and to formulate a coherent picture of the wave front. During the 13th Symposium on Combustion in 1970, Professor Oppenheim chaired a panel discussion in which Professors Manson and Strehlow presented their current views on detonation [16]. Professor Manson emphasized that "*Above all, the front of the detonation wave is not planar.* In fact, it never appears as a single shock wave, but is made out of a system of oblique shock waves of different intensities, as a consequence of which the combustion front is not planar and the motion of the combustion front is not unidirectional." Professor Strehlow presented smoke foils showing the formation and extinction of transverse waves during the propagation of H_2-O_2-Ar detonation from one mixture to another and stated, "It is hoped that observations of both the appearance and disappearance of transverse waves will allow us to gain more insight into the mechanism which causes their occurrence on propagating detonations." A plethora of studies during the succeeding decade attempted to understand the intricacies of the cellular structure and to measure the cell size for various fuel-oxidizer-diluent systems [17, 18].

4 The Impact of Manson's Work on the Author's Research

When the author began his fundamental work on gaseous detonation, it was readily appreciated by researchers in the field that the critical conditions for detonation propagation, as well as the velocity deficits during supercritical propagation, were the consequence of an intimate competition between the post-shock rates of gasdynamic expansion and chemical energy release occurring within the detonation front. The rate of expansion depends on the nature of the boundaries defining the physical system (e.g., shape and dimensions of the geometry, compressibility or motion of walls, viscous boundary layer growth, etc.). The rate of energy release depends on the physical and chemical properties of the mixture that are responsible for the complex makeup of the front. In the case of the experiments in rigid tubes conducted in Manson's laboratory, it was the boundary layers that were responsible for the expansion imposed on the wave and the resulting velocity deficits.

Fay [19] and later Dabora [20] had used the elemental induction-zone length as the characteristic wave thickness in their 'nozzle' analyses to estimate velocity deficits. In those analyses, the increase ξ in the area of the post-shock 'stream tube,' evaluated over some distance Δ deemed to be characteristic of the global rate of chemical reaction, was proposed to be the cause of the observed velocity deficits. However, the deficits predicted by Fay were significantly smaller than those observed, suggesting that the elemental induction-zone length was not an appropriate choice for Δ. In other studies, a calculated 'chemical relaxation distance' or the 'gross thickness of the front' estimated from Schlieren photographs was employed.

Since these early efforts, the universal cellular character of detonation had been revealed and a few correlations suggested that the controlling chemical kinetic length was on the order of the detonation cell size.

Mitrofanov and Soloukhin [21] had proposed correlations linking the critical tube diameter d_c and the critical channel width w_c to the cell width, λ. It had also been shown by Edwards et. al. [22] that reinitiation of a diffracting wave commences at a fixed multiple of cell widths from an abrupt area change. Perhaps, now that a reasonably well defined global chemical kinetic length scale had been identified, the stream tube concept warranted renewed consideration. The author's work on critical conditions and velocity deficits is described in Sections 4.1 and 4.2, respectively. The velocity deficit results of Professor Manson's students are discussed in the context of the author's findings in Section 4.3.

4.1 Critical Conditions, Stability, and Velocity Deficits for Yielding Tubes

Experimental Setup

In these experiments, the gasdynamic expansion imposed on the wave is due to the wall motion, as opposed to the boundary layers in Manson's work. Ethylene-air detonations were observed propagating in seamless, extruded, polyethylene tubes of 0.89-m diameter. In most tests, an established detonation in a 7.82-m long steel driver of the same diameter was allowed to transmit to the polyethylene tube. The detonation in the driver was initiated using either a high-explosive charge or a 1.5-m long slug of oxyacetylene. In selected tests, the driver was not used and initiation of detonation was brought about instead by a high-explosive charge positioned at one end of the tube, as shown in Fig. 7. The rate of expansion imposed on the wave was controlled by varying the thickness of the polyethylene wall (1, 5, or 10 mil, where a mil is 0.0254 mm). The wall material surface densities are given in Table 1. The rate of chemical reaction, i.e., the detonation cell size, was controlled by adjusting the mixture composition. Composition and homogeneity of the mixture were monitored by an infrared analyzer to produce a mixture within ± 0.05% C_2H_4 of the target concentration. The diagnostic methods included pressure transducers and ionization probes. The pressures and velocities from these sensors confirmed success or failure of propagation and yielded velocity data in cases of successful propagation. The detonation structure was recorded near the driver exit using smoked foils. Cinematographic records were obtained using high-speed cameras. The experimental procedure was to carry out 'Go' - 'No-Go' tests for a given polyethylene wall thickness until the critical mixture composition had been identified. The process was then repeated for the other wall thicknesses. Complete details are provided elsewhere [23, 24].

Figure 7
Apparatus used for the study of critical conditions, velocity deficits, and detonation stability

Experimental Results

Selected frames from a high-speed cine record, showing successful transmission of detonation from the driver and subsequent propagation in the yielding tube, are presented in Fig. 8. The luminous front has a 'texture' attributable to the cellular structure of the wave. It can be seen that the scale of this texture increases as the wave enters the yielding confinement as a result of the increased reaction-zone length brought about by the lateral expansion. Conditions in this test were marginal as evidenced by the spinning behaviour of the wave toward the end of the tube. These observations are reminiscent of the striations observed in Manson's streak schlieren photographs. The detonation becomes noticeably unstable as critical conditions are approached. In the case of the smallest wall thickness, each time the wave propagated over one of the support hoops the perturbation was sufficient to cause local failure and subsequent re-establishment of detonation in a manner similar to the decoupling and explosive recoupling phenomena reported by Manson in tubes. In one test for

which a driver was not used, the initiated wave was seen to propagate steadily for 15 tube diameters and then fail abruptly upon encountering the first support hoop.

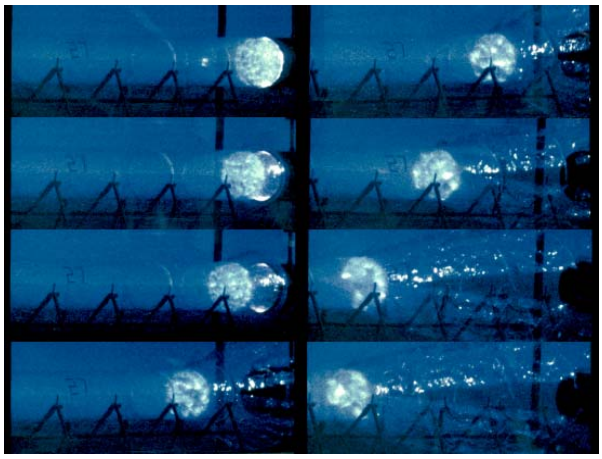

Figure 8
Cine frames showing propagation of detonation in a 10-mil plastic tube for 3.90% ethylene-air. $D/\lambda \cong 4.1$

According to Fay [19], the subsonic flow in the globally steady (in shock-fixed coordinates) reaction zone adjusts so that each stream tube experiences the same fractional increase in area between the frontal shock and any location behind the shock prior to the sonic plane. For the present yielding wall configuration, this means that the stream tube area increase for each annular stream tube is equal to that for the yielding tube itself. The latter can be calculated knowing the wall trajectory. For this purpose, a cylindrical piston analogy was adopted in which the piston is the yielding wall material and the driving force is the pressurized gas in the post-shock region of the detonation wave. Complete details are available in References [23, 24]. The cell length L_c is calculated using the correlation $d_c = 13\lambda$ linking the cell width to the critical tube diameter d_c and a cell aspect ratio $\lambda/Lc = 0.7$. The correlation for d_c proposed by Moen et al. [25] for C_2H_4-air mixtures is then used: $d_c = k u_s [0_2]^a [C_2H_4]^b \exp(E/RT)$ where u_s, $[0_2]$, $[C_2H_4]$, and T are the post-shock relative particle velocity (m/s), the oxygen and ethylene concentration (moles/l) and the temperature (K) behind a shock of Chapman-Jouguet (C-J) strength. The exponents *a* and *b* are taken from the proposed induction-time formula of Hidaka et al. [26]. A two-parameter fit to the experimental data is then used to yield the kinetic rate factor $k = 5.65 \times 10^{-10}$ s·mole/l and the effective activation energy E = 37.2 kcal/mole, respectively. The results of this exercise, summarized in Table 1, show that the critical conditions for propagation are characterized by a value for ξ near 20% for all three wall thicknesses investigated, suggesting that the nature of the critical chemical-gasdynamic balance is identical for the various degrees of confinement.

Table 1
Summary of critical conditions for propagation of C_2H_4-air detonations in circular tubes with yielding walls

Nominal Wall Thickness T (mil)	Critical C_2H_4 Concentration (%)	Theoretical Detonation Velocity $V_{C\text{-}J}$ (m/s)	Mass of Yielding Wall m/A (kg/m^3)	Critical Cell Length L_c (mm)	Critical Stream Tube Area Increase ξ (%)
1	4.70	1696	0.0242	129	17.6
5	4.15	1637	0.124	236	22.3
10	3.90	1606	0.220	313	23.2

Under supercritical conditions, the wave propagates with a velocity deficit that is a function of the gasdynamic expansion imposed on the wave. The deficit can be predicted using Dabora's version [20] of Fay's 'nozzle' analysis and using the detonation cell length once again as the characteristic reaction-zone length. The resulting expression for the deficit is:

$$\frac{\Delta V}{V_{C-J}} = 1 - \left(\frac{(1-\nu)^2}{(1-\nu)^2 + \gamma_2^2 (2\nu - \nu^2)} \right)^{1/2} \qquad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

where $\nu = \xi/(1+\gamma_2)/(1+\xi)$. Here, γ_2 is the ratio of specific heats of the detonation products.

In the case of the 10 mil wall thickness, the support hoops for the tube did not perturb the wave noticeably as critical conditions were approached. The measured velocity deficit under marginal conditions was approximately 10±2%, in good agreement with the value of 9.5% given by Eq. (3) using the critical value for ξ in Table 1. The measurement of velocity deficits near critical conditions for the 1 mil and 5 mil wall thicknesses was not possible because of the undulating motion of the wave induced by the support hoops.

4.2 Critical Conditions and Velocity Deficits for Rigid/Yielding Channels

Experimental Details

A second series of experiments was carried out in the laboratory to investigate the universality of the 20% critical area criterion and to measure velocity deficits under supercritical conditions for a different range of chemical-kinetic and gasdynamic-expansion time scales [23, 24]. The apparatus (Fig. 9) was designed to avoid disturbances of the type caused by the support hoops in the large-scale experiments. It consisted of an initiator section, a linear detonation tube, and a test section. The initiator section was filled with equimolar oxyacetylene. The detonation tube and test section were of square cross section (62 mm x 62 mm) and contained a nitrogen-diluted C_2H_2-O_2 mixture. All tests were conducted at 1 atm initial pressure. A ball valve separated the mixtures until moments before ignition. Following spark ignition, the resulting detonation in the initiator section transmitted through the open ball valve to the test mixture in the linear tube. After equilibrating over a 1.64-m length, the wave emerged into one of three interchangeable test sections. In one test section, a single steel wall had been milled from the tube leaving a three-sided channel. A pair of parallel walls had been removed in the second test section. Three walls had been machined away in the third test section, leaving rigid confinement on only one side.

Each rigid boundary that had been removed was replaced by one of five thin yielding materials (see Table 2) including: a paraffin coated paper (A), a common variety of stationery paper (B), a polyethylene plastic, and two types of high-strength acetate plastic (A and B). Most experiments employed paper A or acetate A. Using this apparatus, the rate of gasdynamic expansion imposed on the detonation wave could be regulated by varying the number of yielding walls (one, two, or three) and/or the surface density of the yielding wall material. The presence of boundary layers on the rigid surfaces introduced additional expansion. The rate of chemical reaction was again controlled by the mixture composition. The test mixture was $2C_2H_2 + 5O_2 + 5\beta N_2$ for $3.5 \le \beta \le 6.5$.

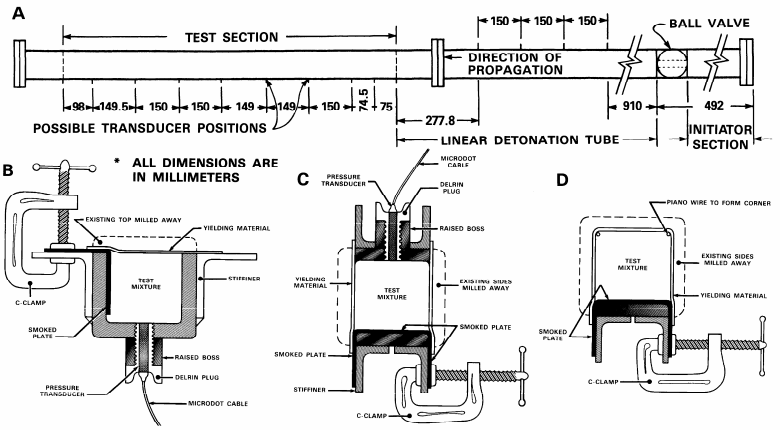

Figure 9
Apparatus used to investigate critical conditions and velocity deficits resulting from yielding confinement. A schematic diagram of the detonation tube is shown at the top (A). Test sections with one, two, and three yielding walls are shown in (B), (C), and (D), respectively.

The diagnostic methods included pressure transducers, electronic time-interval counters to measure the mean wave velocities between neighboring transducers, and smoked foils positioned in the rigid tube and on one of the non-yielding walls. The experimental procedure was to carry out 'Go' - 'No-Go' tests for a given set of boundary conditions until the critical mixture composition had been identified. Tests were then conducted with more sensitive mixtures to obtain velocity deficits under supercritical conditions.

Experimental Results

Figure 10 shows a collection of smoke records from a channel having three rigid walls and a yielding top. The records appear in order of decreasing mixture sensitivity. The first six records ($4.25 \leq \beta \leq 6.13$) show successful propagation from one end of the test section to the other. Absence of a cell size gradient suggests that the wave has adjusted quickly to the new boundary conditions and has resumed steady propagation. The records labeled G through I ($6.25 \leq \beta \leq 6.50$) show that the wave is not capable of coping with the expansion once the global rate of reaction drops below some critical rate; that is, once the detonation cell exceeds some critical size. It would appear that smoke record G corresponds to critical conditions. Failure of propagation is apparent in smoke records H and I.

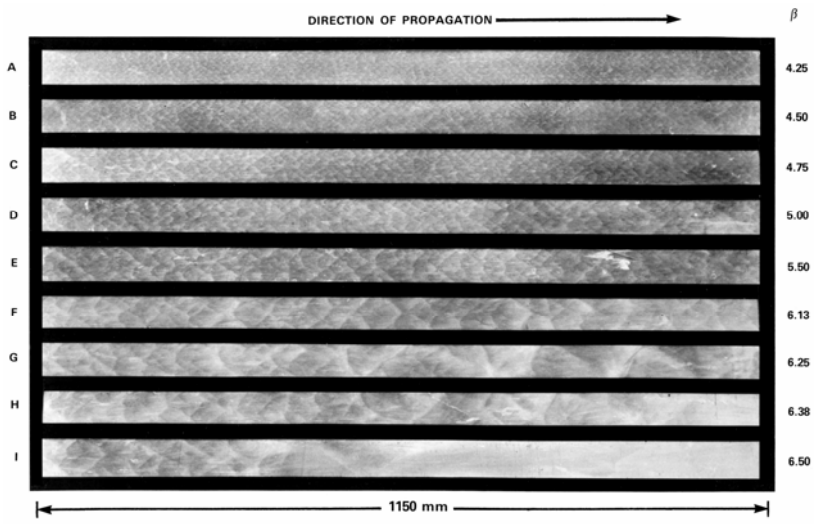

Figure 10
Series of smoke records from a square channel having three rigid walls and one acetate yielding wall. The records appear in order of decreasing mixture sensitivity with failure occurring for $\beta = 6.25$

Having identified the critical compositions and corresponding cell lengths for a number of test section configurations, the critical stream tube area increases were evaluated in a manner similar to that for the large-scale tests. These are summarized in Table 2. The only difference is that the geometry is not axisymmetric, so in the calculation of ξ each yielding wall is assumed to accelerate laterally outward and corner effects are ignored. For a single yielding wall, the results for the paraffin coated paper (A) and both acetates (A and B) reveal critical area increases slightly below the value of about 20% observed in the large-scale experiments. An insufficient number of tests was carried out to determine the critical conditions for a single yielding wall of

Table 2
Summary of critical conditions for propagation of C_2H_2-O_2-N_2 detonations in square channels with various rigid/yielding wall configurations

Number of Yielding Walls	Yielding Wall Material	Mass of Yielding Wall m/A (kg/m^3)	Critical Dilution Ratio $\beta = [N_2]/[O_2]$	Critical Cell Length L_c (mm)	Critical Stream Tube Area Increase ξ (%)
1	Acetate A	0.0381	6.25	53.1	16.6
1	Acetate B	0.0351	6.25	53.1	17.3
1	Paper A	0.0372	6.13	50.0	15.4
1	Paper B	0.0616	-	-	-
1	Polyethylene	0.0831	-	-	-
2	Acetate A	0.0381	5.75	41.3	21.8
2	Paper A	0.0372	~4.90 (5.80)	~26.0 (42.9)	~10.0 (22.8)
3	Paper A	0.0372	~4.50 (5.30)	~20.7 (32.9)	~10.9 (22.7)

either polyethylene or paper B. For two yielding walls of acetate A, the critical ξ is again close to 20%. However, for experiments involving two or three yielding walls of paper A, the critical values of ξ are well below 20%. With this wall material, it was noted that critical conditions were not repeatable from one test to the next. The outcome was also seen to depend on the elapsed time between the termination of flowing gas and initiation, suggesting that diffusion through the wall was likely the problem. This suspicion was confirmed by the smoke records, which showed that the actual cell size in the square tube was considerably larger than the anticipated one based on the known gas flow rates. Using the actual cell sizes, the calculations for these cases have been redone. The results (bracketed quantities in the table) are in better agreement with those from the other experiments.

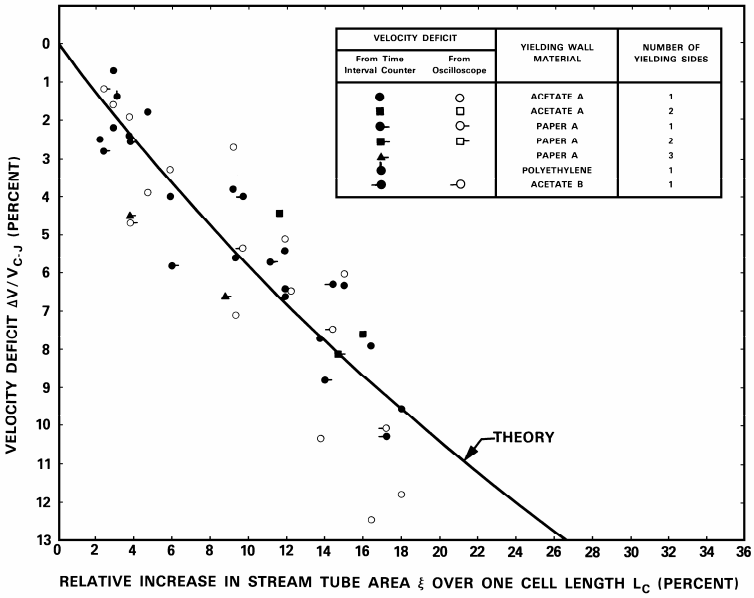

Figure 11
Experimentally measured velocity deficits, $\Delta V/V_{C\text{-}J}$, as a function of the 'stream tube' area increase ξ evaluated over one cell length L_c from tests in channels with yielding walls

Under supercritical conditions, the wave propagates at a velocity, V, lower than the theoretical velocity, $V_{C\text{-}J}$. Figure 11 shows the experimentally measured velocity deficits, $\Delta V/V_{C\text{-}J}$, plotted against the calculated values of ξ. The scatter in the data is due partly to errors in the measurement of the wave times of arrival, particularly for cases involving oscilloscope traces. It may also be due to the three-dimensional pulsating nature of the front as critical conditions are approached. The curve through the data is again based on Dabora's rendition [20] of Fay's 'nozzle' analysis [19] given by Eq. (3). The curve, plotted for $\gamma_2 = 1.2$, describes the trend of the present data quite well. If we had chosen a smaller characteristic chemical kinetic length (e.g., the induction-zone length) over which to calculate ξ, the data would have fallen well below the model prediction. In contrast, had we selected the hydrodynamic thickness of the wave (i.e., ~2-4 cell lengths according to Edwards et al. [27]), the data would have resided well above the predicted results. The reasonably good correlation is a posteriori evidence that the selection of L_c as the controlling chemical kinetic length is appropriate. The maximum velocity deficit of about 10-12% apparent in Fig. 11 is in agreement with that observed in the large-scale experiments and that proposed by Edwards et al. [22] based on the Shchelkin instability criterion [28].

4.3 Reinterpreting the Velocity Deficits from Manson's Students and Others

If the critical ξ of 20% and the variation of $\Delta V/V_{C\text{-}J}$ with ξ are of a universal nature, they must hold true for different boundary conditions. Figure 12 shows a plot, similar to the one in Fig. 11, for the data reported by Manson's students for boundary layers in tubes, as well as the data from other authors. These data cover a wide range of mixture composition, initial pressure, geometry and mechanism responsible for the expansion. Included are the Poitiers data from Brochet [6], Boislève [8], and Renault [9], as well as the data from Edwards et al. [29] for deficits resulting from viscous boundary layers in rigid circular and rectangular tubes. To calculate ξ, the boundary layer displacement thickness, δ^*, estimated by Fay [19] using Gooderum's [30] correlation has been used: $\delta^* = 0.22\eta^{0.8} (\mu_e/\rho_o V_{C\text{-}J})^{0.2}$ where ρ_o and $V_{C\text{-}J}$ are the density and velocity of the gas entering the front, and μ_e is the dynamic viscosity at the edge of the boundary layer a distance η behind the shock. The viscosity, assumed to be that at the C-J temperature, was taken from Weast and Astle [31]. When data were not available

for the temperature of interest, the viscosity was estimated by fitting a curve of the form suggested by Sutherland (e.g., see Chapman and Cowling [32]) to the available data and then extrapolating to the desired temperature.

When the data of Boislève [8] and Renault [9] were initially plotted, the intercept did not pass through zero as ξ tended to zero. In the plot of Fig. 12, these data have been shifted downward by a fixed amount (on the order of one percent as shown in the inset tables in the figure) deemed necessary to recover the intercept. This procedure is justified in terms of experimental error (i.e., the results of these authors for identical mixtures in identical tubes differ by about 1% due to variances in tube roughness).

The results from Dabora et al. [20] are for a rectangular column of gas bounded rigidly on three sides and by an inert compressible gas on the remaining side. For the purpose of calculating ξ, the explosive/inert interface deflection angles computed by Dabora and coworkers have been used. Boundary layer growth on the three rigid walls has also been taken into account. It should be noted that Dabora's data have been reprocessed so that the deficits are quoted with respect to $V_{C\text{-}J}$ rather than to the measured velocity in a rigid channel of the same dimensions. In fact, two deficits have been deduced from each of Dabora's points: one related to boundary layers in the rigid channel, and the other related to the compressibility of the boundary gas in conjunction with boundary layer growth on the rigid walls.

The cell sizes for low-pressure stoichiometric C_3H_8-O_2 and C_2H_4-O_2 mixtures, and for the stoichiometric H_2-O_2 mixture at atmospheric pressure, were deduced from the 13λ correlation using the critical tube diameter data of Matsui and Lee [33]. The 13λ correlation was also employed for the stoichiometric C_3H_8-O_2-N_2 system at 1 atm, but using the critical tube diameter data of Knystautas et al. [34]. To the author's knowledge, no cell size data are available for off-stoichiometric H_2-O_2 mixtures at atmospheric pressure. Estimates have therefore been made based on the stoichiometric H_2-O_2 cell size and the assumption that the ratio of cell size to induction-zone length is independent of composition. The induction-time formula of Schott and Kinsey [35] has been used for this purpose.

As was the case in Fig. 11, the theory of Fay [19] describes the trend of the data in Fig. 12 quite well. The maximum $\Delta V/V_{C\text{-}J}$ and ξ of about 10% and 20%, respectively, are in agreement with those from Fig. 11, adding support to the author's proposal that the critical conditions and behavior of detonation under supercritical conditions may be of a universal nature.

Some evidence casting uncertainty on the idea of universal behavior is provided by Moen et al. [36]. These investigators measured velocity deficits in rigid tubes containing mixtures characterized by cellular structures with varying degrees of cellular regularity. Results were obtained for acetylene-oxygen mixtures highly diluted with argon (high cellular regularity), for ethane-oxygen mixtures (poor cellular regularity), and for acetylene-air mixtures (irregular structure). The tubes were relatively small in these experiments, ranging in diameter from 4.7 – 12.7 mm. The velocity deficit data were found to be in good agreement with the predictions based on Fay's model for the argon-diluted mixtures with regular structure, but there was a discrepancy between the experimental results and the model predictions that increased as the cellular regularity increased. Very small velocity deficits, in the 1% – 3% range, were reported for fuel-air mixtures with irregular structure. These authors believe that irregular cellular structures are associated

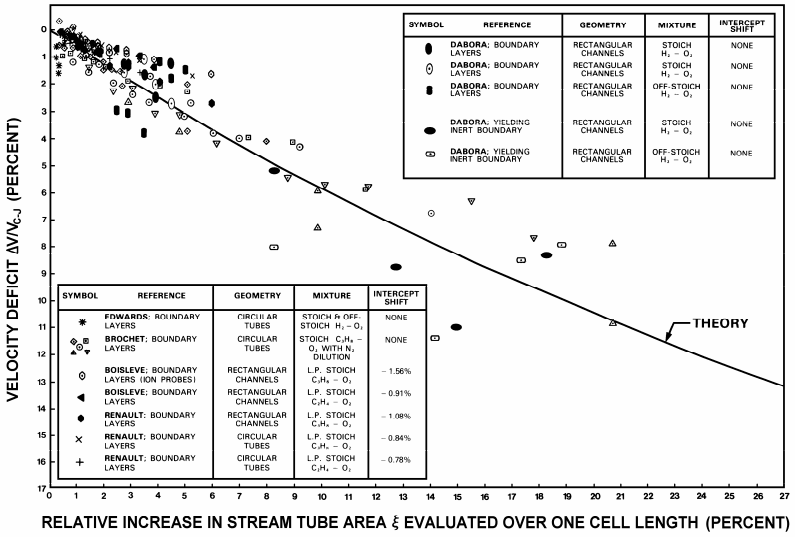

Figure 12

Measured velocity deficits, $\Delta V/V_{C\text{-}J}$, as a function of the calculated 'stream tube' area increase ξ evaluated over one cell length L_c based on the data for tubes from Manson's students, as well as the results of other investigators

with detonations having a wider spectrum of combustion instabilities that allow the wave to adjust more easily to gasdynamic modes imposed by the boundary conditions. Laberge et al. [37] have also shown that Fay's model breaks down for highly irregular cellular structures in $0.5(C_2H_2 + 5\ N_2O) + 0.5Ar$ mixtures, but again the tubes in these experiments were small. Deficits as high as 13% were measured and there was significant scatter in the data.

On the surface, the above conclusions appear to contradict the results of the yielding wall experiments conducted by the author. However, there are a number of factors, apart from cellular regularity, that might explain the differences. In the case of the field experiments with yielding polyethylene tubes, the critical conditions for the 1, 5 and 10 mil thick walls correspond to D/λ values of 9.9, 5.4 and 4.1, respectively. For the square channels, the critical conditions correspond to $W/\lambda \cong 2$ for the channel with only one yielding wall. More cells would be present under critical conditions for two and three yielding walls. Therefore, the velocity deficits under supercritical conditions in both sets of experiments were obtained for situations in which multiple cells were always present across the tube or channel. One might expect Fay's model to be valid under these circumstances. In contrast, the data of Moen et al. [36] for fuel-air mixtures are for detonations at or near single-head spin conditions. Under these conditions, the shock dynamics and flow are highly three-dimensional in nature. The boundary conditions for the two scenarios are also quite different. In the case of the yielding tubes, the expansion imposed on the reaction zone of the wave is 'clean' in that boundary layer effects are negligible and the transverse wave system is bounded by a smooth surface. The expansion in the experiments by Moen et al. is a result of the displacement thickness of the boundary layer. However, in addition to imposing a flow divergence, the boundary layer likely interacts with the transverse wave system in a complex fashion. It is well known, for example, that shock/boundary layer interactions are an important issue in aerospace design. The fact that the velocity deficits are small and virtually independent of the mixture composition in Moen's experiments also suggests that the effective reaction-zone length of the detonation may have been shortened. There is a possibility that turbulence may have dominated the combustion processes in these small tubes. Finally, Lee [38] has suggested that the polyethylene material used in the yielding wall experiments may have the effect of dampening the transverse waves. The observation that the plastic tube breaks up into long strips corresponding approximately to the cell width suggests that transverse wave mechanical energy is indeed being imparted to the walls. Weaker transverse waves are a characteristic of the regular cellular structures for which Moen et al. found Fay's model to be applicable.

There is no question that cellular regularity affects the dynamic behaviour of detonation waves. Moen et al. [36] have found that transmission of detonation through an annular orifice is significantly enhanced for irregular cellular structures. They have also shown that the 13λ correlation breaks down for low-pressure acetylene-oxygen mixtures with high argon dilution. The latter has been confirmed by Lee et al. [39]. Desbordes [40] has reported a similar result for oxyacetylene mixtures highly diluted with monatomic inert gases. Given these observations, it is highly likely that the cellular regularity will also have an influence on the velocity deficits under supercritical conditions. However, the fact that the Poitiers data for multi-headed detonations in tubes is in agreement with predictions from Fay's model, while the data of Moen et al. for single-head spin in a tube that was smaller than most of the tubes used at Poitiers are inconsistent with Fay's model, suggests that the scale of Moen's experiments may have been too small. This issue could be clarified by repeating Moen's experiments in larger tubes.

6 Closing Remarks

Professor Manson made significant contributions to the understanding of detonation stability and velocity deficits in rigid tubes. He and his students measured the velocities in various sizes of circular and rectangular tubes and used these data to estimate the detonation velocity for an infinite tube by plotting the detonation velocity against the reciprocal of the tube diameter and extrapolating the straight line through the data points to $\varphi^{-1} = 0$ (infinite tube diameter). Manson was also one of the early investigators to shed light on the cellular structure of detonation by recording and trying to interpret the origins of the striations seen in streak schlieren photographs. The author has extended Manson's work by investigating propagation of detonation in tubes and channels having yielding walls. Whereas boundary layers were responsible for the gasdynamic expansion and related velocity deficits in Manson's rigid tubes, it was the moving boundaries that caused similar effects in the author's investigations. With the benefit of a more detailed understanding of the cellular structure of detonation

waves, the author has repeated the 'nozzle' analysis of Fay and Dabora using the cell length as the relevant chemical kinetic length scale to estimate the velocity deficits resulting from moving boundaries. This approach gave reasonably good agreement between the experimental results and the model. When the modified model was applied to the data obtained by Manson's students and other investigators, it was seen to describe the trends quite well. There is experimental evidence that the model is not applicable to detonations with highly irregular cellular structures. However, much of that data were obtained in experiments using small tubes. Further work is required to more fully assess the role of cellular regularity on the critical conditions and velocity deficits for gaseous detonations.

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