

Engineering Applications of Jet Impingement Associated with Vertical Launching System Design

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Abstract

In the course of missile system design, jet plume impingement is encountered in designing airframe as well as launchers, requiring careful investigation of its effect on the system. In the present paper, recent works on such topic are presented to demonstrate usefulness of CFD results in helping design the hardware. The jet impinging flow structure exhibits such complex nature as shock shell, plate shock and Mach disk depending on the flow parameters. The main parameters are the ratio of the jet pressure to the ambient pressure and the distance between the nozzle and the wall. In the current application, the nozzle contour and the pressure ratio are held fixed, but the jet impinging distance is varied to illuminate the characteristics of the jet plume with the distance. The same methodology is then applied to a complex vertical launcher system (VLS), capturing its flow structure and major design parameter. These applications involving jets are thus hoped to demonstrate the usefulness and value of CFD in designing a complex structure in the real engineering environment.

Key Word : jet impingement, CFDS scheme, VLS internal flow, VLS system design

Introduction

Supersonic jets occur in the exhausts from rocket motors and in various other situations. When the jets impinge on solid objects, such as parts of a missile launcher or the ground surface, high temperature and pressure loads can be produced. And these impingement flows are generally found to be extremely complex. The key feature of the flow field is a plate shock near the opposing wall. Between the plate shock and the solid surface is a region of subsonic and transonic flow similar to the shock layer produced by a blunt body in supersonic flow. The study of the jet and its structure has been conducted for many years both experimentally [1]-[12] and numerically [13]-[20]. Kitamura and Iwamoto [17] studied numerically supersonic impingement jet using axi-symmetric assumptions. And Sakakibra and Iwamoto [18] also investigated numerical study of oscillation mechanism for the under-expanded jet impinging on plate. They showed flow fields for different nozzle-plate spacing, uncovering pressure oscillation, frequency, and separation bubble. Recently, Hong and Lee [19] presented numerical simulations of jet plume impingement onto a duct using Navier-Stokes equations. Lee et al [20] also gave numerical solutions of a VLS type internal missile launcher including supersonic jet impingement.

VLS-type flow patterns are extremely complex and hard to obtain numerical solutions [21]. Specific review for each of these works will be omitted here for brevity except to mention that

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fully three-dimensional Navier–Stokes simulations have rarely been carried out despite the wealth of research activities.

In the current presentation, dependency of jet impingement flow structure on the nozzle–plate distance was examined while the other parameters were fixed. Also attention is paid to see how well steady-state method fairs compared to unsteady version of the code. The steady-state version with variable CFL number is quite helpful in cutting down the computational turn-around time to provide timely data for the system engineers. A validation case was added to show the accuracy of present method against a well-known experiment [8]. VLS flow was then computed, yielding vital flow information for system designers and manufacturers.

Numerical Method

The CFDS, termed as the Characteristic Flux Difference Splitting, numerical method for the three-dimensional Navier–Stokes has been applied to various complex flows and validated over the past few years [22]. The CFDS method shares common flux-difference ideas with those in Ref. [23] and Ref. [24]. Here for the sake of introduction, a brief description is given; details can be referred to Ref. [22].

The governing Navier–Stokes equations employed in the generalized coordinate system (ξ, η, ϕ) are expressed for the conservative variable vector as

$$J^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{Q}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} (\widehat{\mathbf{F}} + \widehat{\mathbf{F}}_v) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} (\widehat{\mathbf{G}} + \widehat{\mathbf{G}}_v) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} (\widehat{\mathbf{H}} + \widehat{\mathbf{H}}_v) = 0 \quad (1)$$

where J^{-1} is the Jacobian of the transformation, \mathbf{Q} is the conservative variable vector, $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}$, $\widehat{\mathbf{G}}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{H}}$ are inviscid flux vectors, and $\widehat{\mathbf{F}}_v$, $\widehat{\mathbf{G}}_v$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{H}}_v$ are viscous flux vectors. The inviscid fluxes are linearized and split for upwind discretizations by

$$\Delta_\xi \mathbf{F} = \widetilde{\mathbf{A}} \Delta \mathbf{Q} = (\widetilde{\mathbf{A}}^+ + \widetilde{\mathbf{A}}^-) \Delta \mathbf{Q} \quad \text{and} \quad \widetilde{\mathbf{A}}^\pm = \overline{\mathbf{M}} \overline{\mathbf{T}} \overline{\mathbf{A}}^\pm \overline{\mathbf{M}}^{-1} \overline{\mathbf{T}}^{-1} \quad (2)$$

yielding

$$J^{-1} \frac{\delta \mathbf{Q}}{\Delta t} + \widetilde{\mathbf{A}}^+ \nabla_\xi \mathbf{Q} + \widetilde{\mathbf{A}}^- \Delta_\xi \mathbf{Q} + \widetilde{\mathbf{B}}^+ \nabla_\eta \mathbf{Q} + \widetilde{\mathbf{B}}^- \Delta_\eta \mathbf{Q} + \widetilde{\mathbf{C}}^+ \nabla_\phi \mathbf{Q} + \widetilde{\mathbf{C}}^- \Delta_\phi \mathbf{Q} = 0 \quad (3)$$

where $\delta \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{Q}^{(n+1)} - \mathbf{Q}^{(n)}$ and the overbar means the associated variable is space-averaged over the interval, $[j, j+1]$. $\overline{\mathbf{M}}$ or $\overline{\mathbf{M}}^{-1}$ is a transformation matrix between the conservative variable vector \mathbf{Q} and the primitive variable vector, say, $\widetilde{\mathbf{Q}}$. $\overline{\mathbf{T}}$ or $\overline{\mathbf{T}}^{-1}$ is defined to be a transformation matrix between the primitive variable vector $\widetilde{\mathbf{Q}}$ and the characteristic variable vector, say, $\widetilde{\widetilde{\mathbf{Q}}}$.

The strength of current CFDS formulation is to enable one to switch the difference equation from the conservation form

$$\frac{J^{-1}}{\Delta t} \delta \mathbf{Q} + \overline{\mathbf{M}} \overline{\mathbf{T}} \overline{\mathbf{A}} \overline{\mathbf{M}}^{-1} \overline{\mathbf{T}}^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{Q} = 0 \quad (4)$$

to characteristic form

$$\frac{J^{-1}}{\Delta t} \delta \widetilde{\widetilde{\mathbf{Q}}} + \overline{\mathbf{A}} \Delta \widetilde{\widetilde{\mathbf{Q}}} = 0 \quad (5)$$

rather easily written here for one-dimensional case for the sake of simplicity. When the eigenvalue becomes zero in Eq. (5), there is no convective wave information traveling to that point as occurs in the stagnation line. Since the CFDS formulation also splits the eigenvalue as

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^+ + \mathbf{A}^- \quad (6)$$

this splitting is also susceptible to carbuncle problem [25–28] when \mathbf{A} becomes zero. Thus it

is necessary to prevent the eigenvalue component from becoming zero. This has been done via

$$\lambda = \lambda^+ + \lambda^{-1} = (\lambda^+ + \epsilon) + (\lambda^- + \epsilon) \tag{7}$$

with a proper choice of ϵ in the literature. An alternative formulation for the flux term instead of Eq. (2) to cure the shock instability is proposed:

$$\Delta_\epsilon \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}I_{\frac{1}{2}} - \mathbf{F}I_{-\frac{1}{2}} \tag{8}$$

where

$$\mathbf{F}I_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2} [\mathbf{F}_j + \mathbf{F}_{j+1} - |\tilde{\mathbf{A}}| (\mathbf{Q}_{j+1} - \mathbf{Q}_j)] \tag{9}$$

Here, $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$ is the same form in Eq. (2). The last term Eq. (9) $|\tilde{\mathbf{A}}| (\mathbf{Q}_{j+1} - \mathbf{Q}_j)$ means numerical dissipation and $|\tilde{\mathbf{A}}|$ equals $\overline{\mathbf{M} \mathbf{T} |\mathbf{A}| \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{T}^{-1}}$. The flux definition in Eq. (9) is very similar in form to the Roe's flux definition. In the present study for supersonic jet impingement calculations, the entropy fixing formula in Eq. (9) employed are

$$|\lambda| = \left(\frac{\lambda^2 + \epsilon^2}{2\epsilon} \right) \text{ if } |\lambda| < \epsilon, \text{ and} \tag{10}$$

with $\epsilon = \text{constant}$.

This entropy fixing is used when grid aligned normal shock is detected. However, the original formulation in Eq. (2) is used for other grid points. For turbulent flow effect, Baldwin-Lomax model is employed.

Results and Discussions on Jet Impingement

Supersonic jet impingement cases are run for a chamber condition of pressure $P_t=1200$ psia and temperature $T_t=2950$ K, respectively. The pressure ratio P_r is 1.87, the exit Mach is 2.93 and the height H is variable. Figure 1 shows the jet impingement layout with the nozzle diameter of $D=32.6$ mm, and the nozzle-plate spacing H . The three main parameters are Mach number at the nozzle exit plane, the pressure ratio between the jet exit plane and the ambient, and the distance between the nozzle and the wall. For the present problem, the computational grid

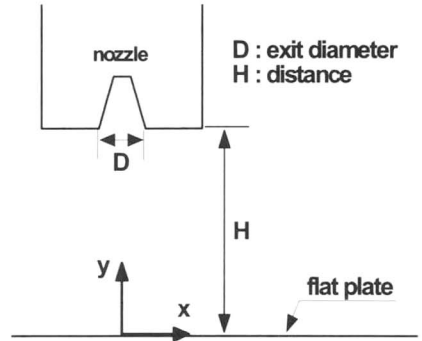


Fig. 1. Computational model.

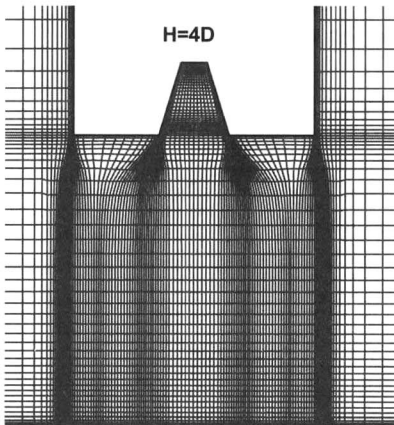


Fig. 2. (a) Grid topology in symmetric plane.

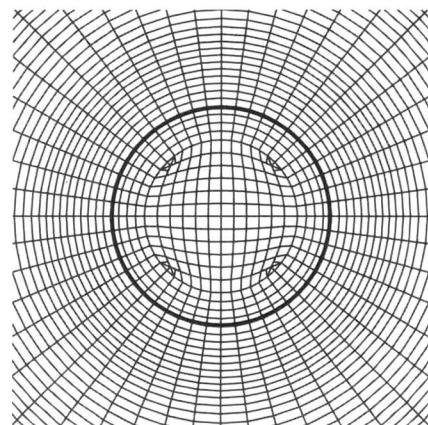


Fig. 2. (b) Grid in cross sectional plane.

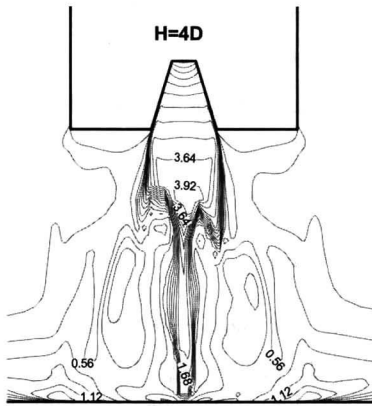


Fig. 3. Mach contours in symmetric plane without eigenvalue fixing.

Mach number contours contaminated with shock instability, so-called "carbuncle phenomenon" in symmetric plane. When a supersonic jet plume exhausts against the plate, strong normal shock is formed upon the plate. If the grid system used in numerical computation is aligned with this normal shock, the shock instability occurs which is cured by fixing small eigenvalues in numerical dissipation terms in the flux. Figure 4 shows Mach contours displaying shock shell, plate shock and Mach disk for various H . As the distance H increases the shock structures are also changed, but the distance between the plate and standing normal plate shock remains nearly the same.

consists of 310,000 grid points and seven blocks. Also overlap grid technique is used at block interfaces. Figure 2(a) shows grid in symmetric plane and Fig. 2(b), in cross-sectional plane parallel to the plate. A circle with bold line as shown in Fig. 2(b) represents the size of nozzle exit. This grid system without singular line helps improve solution quality and convergence. The computation domain starts from the nozzle throat with Mach 1.0 condition. The boundary conditions of this nozzle throat are calculated from isentropic relations and perfect gas law.

The jet impinging distance H is varied with discrete values of $3D$, $4D$, $5D$, and $6D$ to illuminate the characteristics of the jet plume with the distance, while Pr is fixed at 1.87. Figure 3 shows

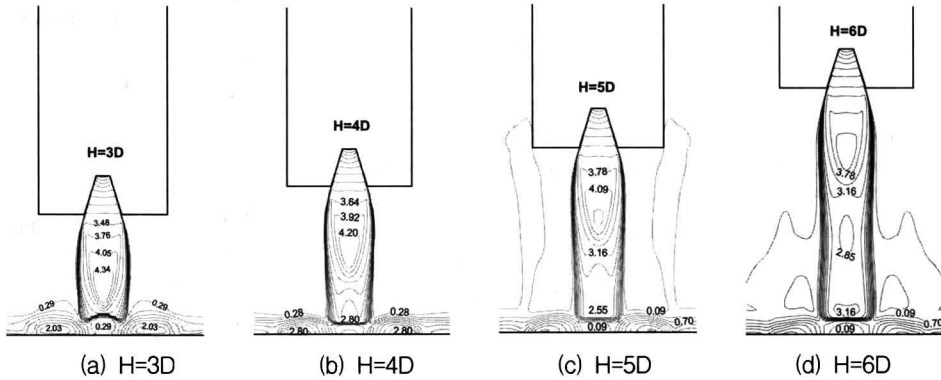


Fig. 4. Mach contours in symmetric plane for various distance H .

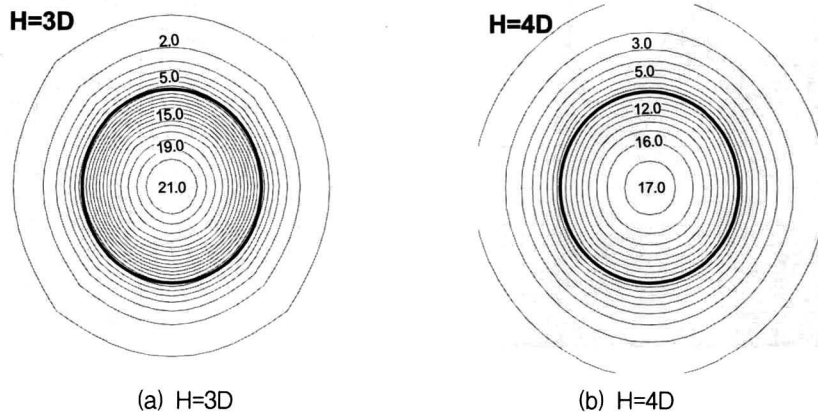


Fig. 5. Pressure distributions on the flat plate (in atmospheric unit.)

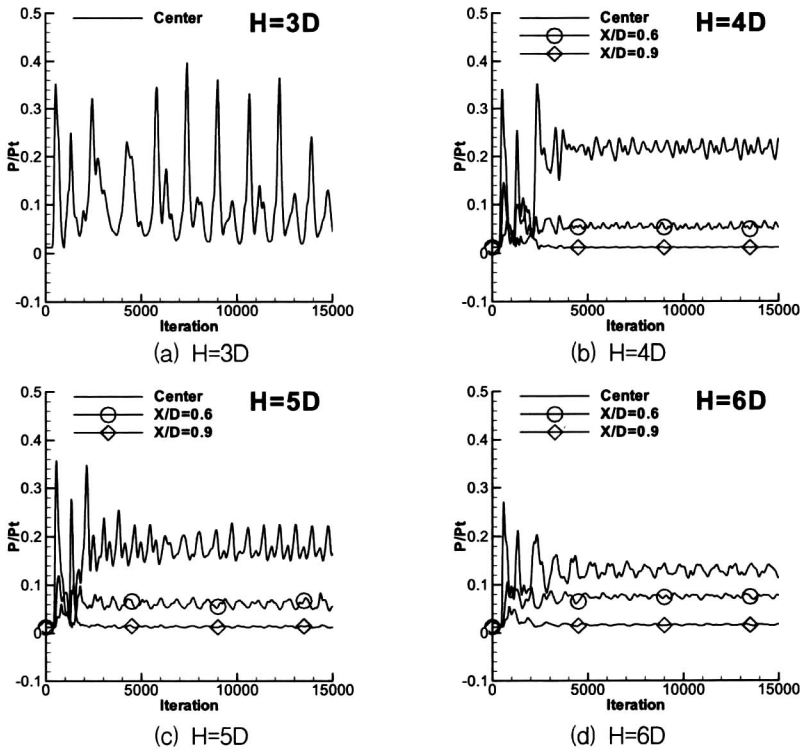


Fig. 6. Pressure history for different heights of H.

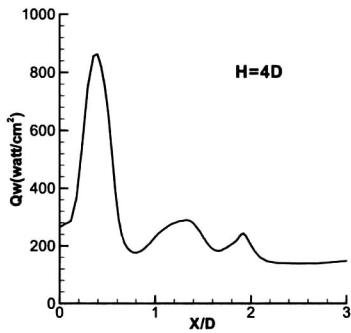


Fig. 7. Heat flux distributions in radial direction for H=4D.

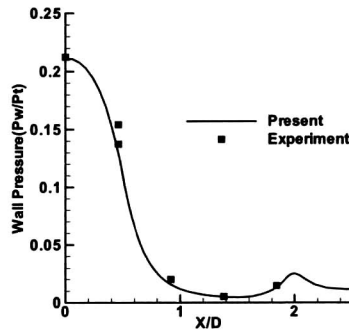


Fig. 8. Pressure distributions in radial direction for H=4D.

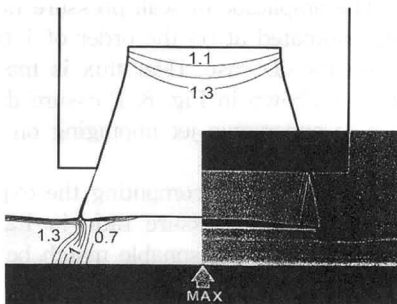


Fig. 9. Mach contours in symmetric plane for H=0.5D, Left: present computation, Right: experiment [8].

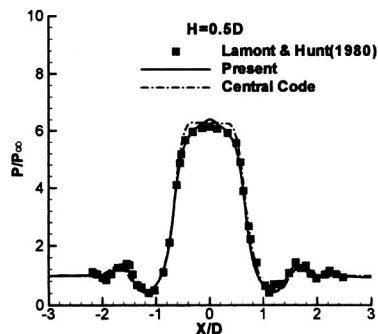


Fig. 10. Pressure distributions in radial direction for H=0.5D.

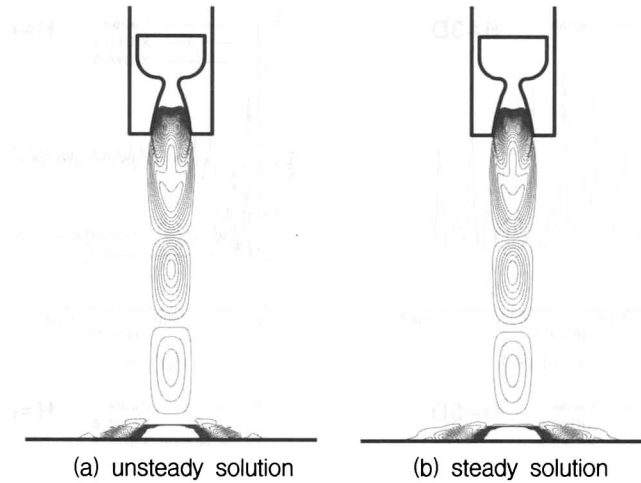


Fig. 11. Comparison of pressure contours between unsteady and steady solution.

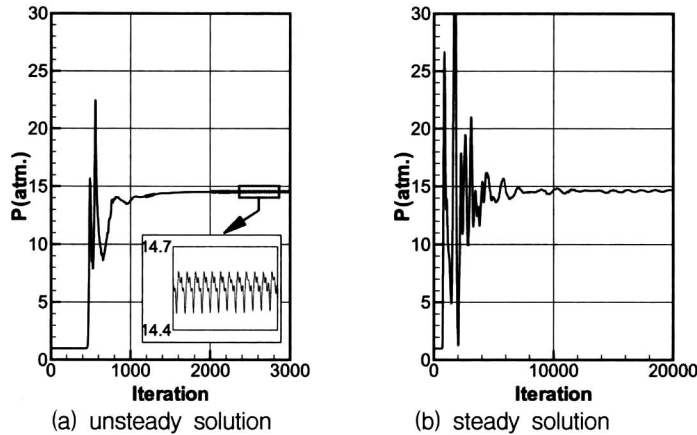


Fig. 12. Pressure history comparison between unsteady and steady solution.

Pressure distributions on the flat plate are presented in Fig. 5 corresponding to $H=3D$ and $4D$. Pressure contours form exact circle in spite of using the rectangular grid in the core zone. Figure 6 represents pressure history as a function of numerical iterations. The unsteady nature of wall pressure fluctuations due to bouncing of the plate shock is uncovered for high pressure ratio of 1.87. As the plate is placed closer to the nozzle, the pressure fluctuates more vigorously and oscillates with large amplitude with respect to a mean value. The maximum pressure level at the plate is achieved when the distance is about $4D$ high. The amplitude of wall pressure fluctuations subsides as the distance increases; the frequency being estimated at on the order of 1 to 10 kHz. Figure 7 shows heat flux distributions in radial direction for $4D$ case. Heat flux is maximum at about $X/D=0.5$ and pressure drops rapidly in this region as shown in Fig. 8. Pressure distribution in the radial direction in Fig. 8 shows a typical pattern in supersonic jet impinging on flat plate, with the single peak at the jet center.

Accuracy of the forgoing results is also indirectly verified from computing the experimental flow of Lamont and Hunt [8], where the exit Mach is 2.2, the pressure ratio is 1.2, and the nozzle-plate distance is $0.5D$. Comparisons in Figs. 9 and 10 show reasonable match between the computed and the experiment.

A second motor plume with the chamber pressure of 1500 psia, temperature of 2970K and nozzle diameter of 18.2 cm was computed. The pressure ratio is 2.33, the exit Mach is 2.93 and the height H is $7.34D$. Purpose is to compare the steady-state solutions obtained with variable

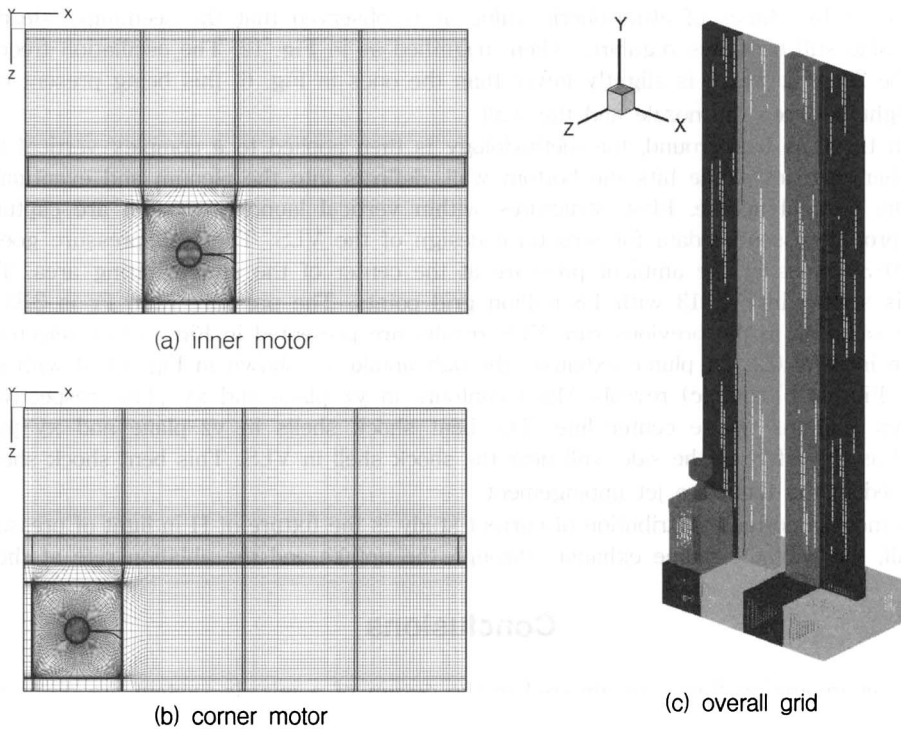


Fig. 13. Computational grid topology for VLS.

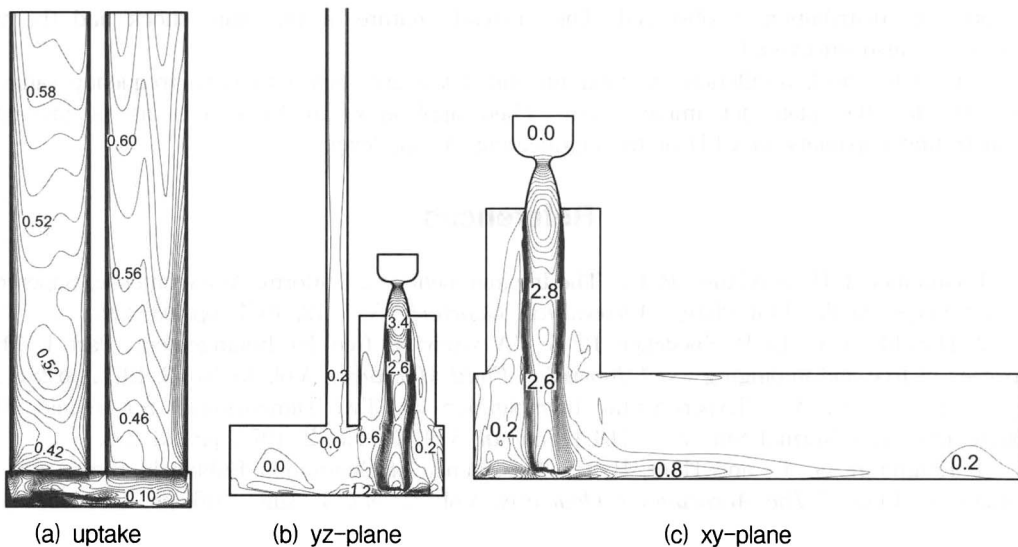


Fig. 14. Mach contours in VLS internal planes with Mach interval 0.2.

CFL number for different grid spacing with the time-accurate unsteady solutions using the inner iterations [29], displaying good agreement between the two sets of numerical solutions. The number of grid points are 800,000 due to increased height between the nozzle and the wall. Figure 11 compares the pressure contours which are plotted with 0.06 interval between 0 and 3 atm. The unsteady calculation utilizes 20 sub-iterations. Figure 12 also compares the convergence history of wall pressure at the center side by side. Initially the steady code solutions display more violent behavior than the unsteady code solutions, but overall the two sets of solutions converge to the

same value of 14.5 times of atmospheric value. It is observed that the seemingly steady-state pressure value still oscillates regularly when magnified as in Fig. 12. The oscillation frequency is found to be 2.8 kHz which is slightly lower than the ones in Fig. 6; this being present case has longer height between the nozzle and the wall.

With these as background, the methodology is then applied to a complex vertical launcher system where the jet plume hits the bottom wall, deflects into the plenum and eventually exits through the vertical uptake. Flow structures within vertical launcher system are captured and solutions provide essential data for structural design of the VLS. The wall pressure goes up as high as 20-30 times of the ambient pressure at the center of the plume-hitting area. The grid topology is shown in Fig. 13 with 1.8 million grid points. The pressure ratio P_r is 2.33 and H , 7.34D; the same as in the previous run. VLS results are presented in Figs. 14 at selected planes with Mach interval 0.2. Jet plume exhausts through uptake as shown in Fig. 14(a) with speed of Mach 0.6. Fig. 14(b) and (c) reveals Mach contours in yz -plane and xy -plane respectively and both planes contains nozzle center line. The bent shock shells in yz -plane and xy -plane are considered as the effect of the side wall near the shock shell in VLS. This bent shock shells were not observed in the flat plate jet impingement.

The most important contribution of current study is the fixture of H in light of pressure level at the wall, the way the plume exhausts through the uptake and the ablation rate at the wall.

Conclusions

The jet impinging flows encountered in the design of a missile system are discussed with the purpose of uncovering physics associated with the flow and providing vital data for system engineers. The jet impingement creates the plate shock which may be difficult to capture with Roe-type flux-difference method. Depending on the nozzle-wall distance, single or double peak wall pressure distribution is observed. The unsteady nature of the plate shock and the wall pressure are also uncovered.

The plate shock oscillations moving up and down are shown to have frequency range of 1-10 kHz for flat plate jet impingement. Then application to VLS flow as is presented, demonstrating capability of CFD at the engineering design level.

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