



# Design of Pre-Combustion Chambers for Hybrid Propellant Rocket Motors and Related Aspects

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**Hybrid Propellant Rocket Motors (HPRM) are advancing fast technologically in the last few years. These improvements are finally increasing its competitiveness in the launch market around the world. But yet, some topics still requires more deep studies, such as the pre-chamber design. A low amount of literature references explore deeply this subject. This work proposes a low computational cost algorithm that predicts the minimum pre-chamber length with a vaporization model and through a feed-system coupled instability model. This type of analysis is a key tool to minimize the rocket weight, size and losses. In addition, it can be coupled with internal ballistics codes. Furthermore, a comparison of the results were made with real hybrid motors to guarantee reliability of the results. This comparison allowed to propose a range of  $L_{pc}/d_{pc}$  from 0.26 to 0.66 in order to have complete vaporization.**

## I. Nomenclature

$A$	=	area
$C_D, C^*, C_c$	=	discharge coefficient, characteristic velocity and contraction coefficient
$c$	=	characteristic dimension
$c_p$	=	specific heat at constant pressure
$c'$	=	boundary-layer delay time coefficient
$D$	=	mass diffusivity
$d$	=	diameter
$h$	=	heat transfer coefficient
$K, K_c$	=	mass transfer coefficient and cavitation weighting parameter
$k$	=	thermal conductivity
$L$	=	length
$M$	=	molecular weight
$\dot{m}$	=	mass flow rate
$Nu$	=	Nusselt number
$n$	=	number of moles
$Oh$	=	Weber number
$P$	=	pressure
$Pr$	=	Prandtl number
$q$	=	heat
$Re$	=	Reynolds number
$R, R_u$	=	specific and universal gas constant
$r, r_{in}$	=	radius and radius of the orifice inlet fillet
$S$	=	drag coefficient
$Sc, Sh, SMD$	=	Schmidt number, Shearwood number and Sauter Mean Diameter
$T$	=	temperature

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$t, t_f$	=	time and gas film thickness
$V$	=	volume
$v$	=	velocity
$We$	=	Weber number
$Z$	=	term for the account of the sensible heat
$z$	=	exponent of the $Z$ term
$\alpha\alpha_d$	=	growth in oscillation amplitude and correction factor for uni-directional mass transfer
$\beta$	=	ratio of average chamber pressure by twice the pressure drop
$\phi$	=	equivalence ratio
$\lambda$	=	latent heat of vaporization of the droplet
$\kappa$	=	weighting factor
$\mu, \nu$	=	dynamic and kinematic viscosity
$\rho$	=	density
$\mathcal{T}$	=	relation of residence times
$\tau$	=	residence time

### Uppercscripts

\* = characteristic parameter

### Subscripts

$c$	=	chamber related
$d$	=	droplet related
$ex$	=	experimental parameter
$f$	=	fuel related
$g$	=	gas related
$i$	=	injector orifice related
$L$	=	liquid phase related
$ox$	=	oxidizer related
$m$	=	mean vapor-gas mixture related
$p$	=	grain port related
$pc$	=	pre-combustion chamber, or pre-chamber, related
$r$	=	related to a whole process (e.g., injection, atomization, mixing and combustion)
$t$	=	nozzle throat related
$th$	=	theoretical parameter
$v$	=	vapor phase related
1, 2	=	upstream property (e.g., tank or manifold) and downstream property (e.g., combustion chamber)

## II. Introduction

IN hybrid propulsion, generally, a liquid oxidizer is injected inside the combustion chamber to react with a solid fuel. In order to combust, the oxidizer has to vaporize and the fuel has to liquefy and vaporize. These characteristics, allied with low regression rates, in comparison with solids, make the combustion chambers of hybrid motors relatively large, mainly in comparison with liquid propellant rocket engines. This disadvantage is one of the most impacting point that prevents hybrid rockets to be more competitive in the market, even though it is a promising technology [1–3].

The components responsible to provide enough residence time for the oxidizer and the fuel are the pre and post-combustion chambers, respectively. The pre-chamber grants that the oxidizer is fully injected, atomized and vaporized. In case the pre-chamber is too small, combustion instabilities and nonuniform burn of the grain may appear. On the other hand, if it is too large, heat transfer losses and an increase in weight become significantly high [1, 4–6].

## A. Overview of Methods for Rocket Chamber Design

In general, literature provides only empirical relations to calculate the pre-combustion chamber length ( $L_{pc}$ ) and some researches designs it numerically, with the aid of CFD (Computational Fluid Dynamics) softwares [7]. [1] recommends, as a rule of thumb, that the pre-chamber L/D is about 0.5, also used in [8]. [4, 5] presents a model that results in a pre-chamber length required to suppress feed-system coupled combustion instabilities. However, in order to decrease computational costs, in comparison with CFD, and increase accuracy, in comparison with empirical relations, a vaporization model could be employed with the objective of predicting the  $L_{pc}$ . In this type of application, the length required for the droplets breakups can be neglected due to the Reynolds, Ohnesorge and Weber numbers usually obtained [9]. Therefore, a reasonable  $L_{pc}$  is the length for complete vaporization.

Vaporization models are widely employed in liquid propulsion systems [10]. In [11] it is presented two simple models, one with no combustion and other with combustion. In addition, a third (and more accurate) model is shown, which is a one-dimensional vaporization-controlled combustion model. In [12–16], it is shown a one-dimensional model capable of even predicting the characteristic velocity ( $C^*$ ) efficiency based on percentage of vaporized propellant at the end of the chamber. The works [17–19] presents a one-dimensional vaporization model capable of calculating the characteristic length ( $L^*$ ), considering even the chemical reaction rate. Other works presented some additional contributions, such as turbulence intensity influence [20, 21], droplets thermal expansion and deformation due to drag [22], vaporization of a group of droplets, sub-critical vaporization and others [23]. The works published by [24–26] validates the model presented by [12–16] with interesting discussions and added a empirical correlation to calculate the length to vaporize 95% of the propellant. In addition, the works [27–29] discussed more deeply some parameters of the model presented by [17–19], presented validations in comparison with more real engines and with various propellant mixtures and proposed a new propulsive parameter important for the  $L^*$ , the  $\phi^*$ .  $\phi^*$  is called characteristic equivalence ratio and it is defined as the equivalence ratio ( $\phi$ ) required to reach the minimum  $L^*$  for a given chamber pressure and propellant mixture. Also, those last three works came with the same conclusions in comparison with [24–26], that the droplet size is the main parameter that controls the chamber length, and in order to decrease the required length, the droplets size, injection velocity, final gas velocity and contraction ratio must decrease and chamber pressure and initial droplet temperature must increase. All of these models and other discussions are presented in [10].

While many works make use of vaporization models on liquid propulsion, there is a lack of studies in this field in hybrids. This work intends to implement an algorithm, based on [12–16], to analyze and design pre-combustion chambers of HPRMs with liquid oxidizers. Besides that, other factors influencing the design of the pre-chamber are discussed. Additionally, the results were obtained for a nitrous oxide ( $N_2O$ ), or dinitrogen monoxide, since it is one of the most used oxidizers in hybrid propulsion and a validation was made with motors that uses this oxidizer.

$N_2O$  is used mostly due to be storable, self-pressurizing, green, nontoxic, etc. However, it has some disadvantages such as lower specific impulse, in comparison with Liquid Oxygen (LOx), two-phase flow, low critical point, etc [30].

## III. Injection System

### A. Aspects of Design

One of the main parameters while designing the injection system is the Sauter Mean Diameter (SMD or also known as  $D_{32}$ ), which is a measurement of the ratio of the volume to the surface area of the spray (the mass mean diameter also are commonly used, but it is around 15% to 25% larger than the SMD) [31]. Also, the environment is an atmosphere rich in oxidizer with lower temperature than the adiabatic flame temperature, since there is no fuel (then, no combustion) in the pre-chamber.

The equation below presents the SMD model used for the showerhead injector (plain-orifice atomizer), and its variation with the injector pressure drop is shown in Fig. 1b, which is from Merrington and Richardson's experiments [31]:

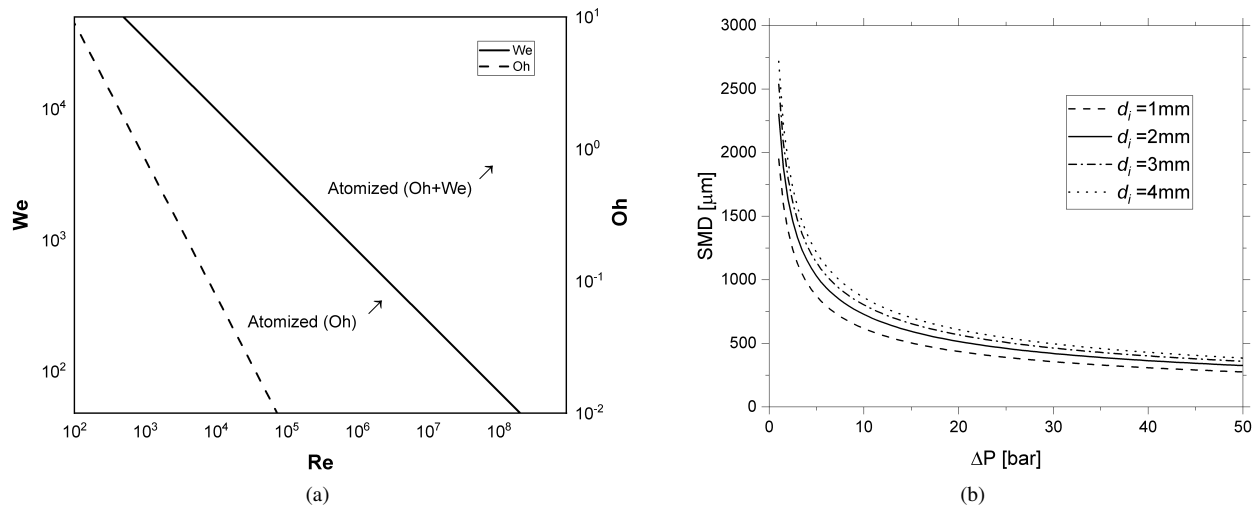
$$SMD = \frac{500d_i^{1.2}\nu_L^{0.2}}{v_i} \quad (1)$$

where  $d_i$  is the orifice diameter,  $\nu_L$  is the liquid kinematic viscosity and  $v_i$  is the injection velocity, which is defined below for an incompressible fluid through the continuity equation:

$$v_i = \sqrt{\frac{2\Delta P}{\rho_L}} = \sqrt{\frac{2P_2 - P_1}{\rho_L}} \quad (2)$$

where the subscripts 1 and 2 are for upstream and downstream, respectively,  $\rho_L$  is the liquid density and  $\Delta P$  is the pressure drop along the injector orifice, in general around 20% of the chamber pressure. Additionally, there are three main dimensionless parameters that describes the behavior of the injected fluid. Oh is the Ohnesorge number, which compares the viscosity influence with the injected droplet deformation forces. Another two important parameters that characterizes the breakup process are the Reynolds number (Re), which compares the inertia force with the viscous force, and the Weber (We), which compares the inertia force to the surface tension force [9, 23, 31–33]. Those non-dimensional numbers are related by the following relation and graph:

$$We = (OhRe)^2 \begin{cases} Re = \frac{\rho v_i c}{\mu} \\ Oh = \frac{\mu}{\sqrt{\rho \sigma d_i}} \\ We = \frac{\mu v_i^2 d_i}{\sigma} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$



**Fig. 1** (a) SMD in function of  $\Delta P$  for constant  $\rho_L = 1011.2 \text{ kg/m}^3$  and  $\nu_L = 1.2332 \cdot 10^{-07} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ , (b) Atomization transition regions of the injected propellant in function of We, Re and Oh, adapted from [34].

where  $\rho$ ,  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are the fluid density, dynamic viscosity and surface tension, respectively,  $c$  is the characteristic dimension (in case of an injector orifice,  $c = d_i$ ). The great majority of rocket injectors are located in the atomized regions shown in Fig. 1a, this is the reason that no breakup processes (that may occur before the atomization) are being discussed in this work.

The discharge coefficient is the ratio between the theoretical and experimental mass flow rates. In case of oxidizers such as  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , the flow inside the injector is under cavitating condition [31]. This means that the discharge coefficient ( $C_D$ ) is related only to cavitation number. In case of non-cavitating oxidizers, such as LOx, its vapor pressure is low [35] and the cavitation number tends to zero, then the  $C_D$  is calculated through [31]:

$$C_D = \frac{\dot{m}_{th}}{\dot{m}_{ex}} = \left[ 1.23 + \frac{58 (L_i/d_i)}{Re} \right]^{-1} \quad (4)$$

where  $\dot{m}_{th}$  and  $\dot{m}_{ex}$  are the theoretical and experimental mass flow rates, respectively, and  $L_i$  is the orifice length. The equation above is valid for the range of  $L_i/d_i$  from 2 to 5 and Re from 100 to  $1.5 \cdot 10^5$ .

## B. Aspects of Two-Phase Oxidizers Injection

In case of cavitation condition,  $C_D$  is defined as:

$$C_D = C_C \cdot \sqrt{K_c} = \left[ \left( \frac{1}{0.62} \right)^2 - \frac{11.4 r_{in}}{d_i} \right]^{-0.5} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{p_1 - p_v}{p_1 - p_2}} \quad (5)$$

where  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$  and  $p_v$  are the upstream, downstream and vapor pressures, respectively, and  $r_{in}$  is the radius of the orifice inlet fillet. Also,  $K_c$  is a cavitation weighting parameter and  $C_C$  is a contraction coefficient [36]. The equation for  $C_C$  works for sharp-edge and rounded injector orifice inlet. In addition, it works only for  $0 \leq r_{in}/d_i \leq 0.14$ , since higher values of  $r_{in}/d_i$  will not form a vena contracta.

Although many of the equations presented in this section are focused in a showerhead configuration, similar relations exists for other types of injectors and the following sections are also applied for them.

Another disclaimer is that, since  $N_2O$  is a two-phase oxidizer under saturation condition (at ambient temperature), a model for predicting the propellant mass flow rate accurately should be used. One of the most used tank emptying models is the one proposed by [37], based on the two-phase model proposed by [38]. Some years later, a correction was made on Whitmore and Chandler's model by [39]. This model is known to be the Nonhomogeneous Nonequilibrium (NHNE) model, which is a weighting between the Homogeneous Equilibrium Model (HEM) and the Single Phase Incompressible (SPI) model based on the ratio of the characteristic bubble growth time ( $\tau_b$ ) and the residence time of the liquid in the injector element ( $\tau_i$ ). The following relations describe briefly this model:

$$\text{NHNE : } \dot{m}_{NHNE} = \frac{\kappa \cdot \dot{m}_{SPI}}{1 + \kappa} + \frac{\dot{m}_{HEM}}{1 + \kappa} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \dot{m}_{SPI} = C_d \sqrt{2\rho_1 (\Delta P)} \quad ; \quad \text{SPI} \\ \dot{m}_{HEM} = C_d \rho_2 \sqrt{2 (\Delta h)} \quad ; \quad \text{HEM} \end{array} \right. \quad (6)$$

$$\kappa = \frac{\tau_b}{\tau_i} = \sqrt{\frac{P_1 - P_2}{P_v - P_2}} \quad ; \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \tau_b = \sqrt{\frac{3\rho_L}{2(P_v - P_2)}} \\ \tau_i = L_i \sqrt{\frac{\rho_L}{2(P_1 - P_2)}} \end{array} \right.$$

where  $\dot{m}_{NHNE}$ ,  $\dot{m}_{SPI}$  and  $\dot{m}_{HEM}$  are the NHNE, SPI and HEM mass flow rates, respectively, and  $\kappa$  is the weighting factor. All properties are evaluated under saturation condition in function of temperature, for upstream properties, and in function of pressure, for downstream properties and can be obtained at [40].

It is important to mention that are other tank emptying models available and all of them are described in [41] with their advantages and disadvantages, such as the ones proposed by [42]. Some discussions and analysis were made in order to understand the impact of each portion of mass flow rate, based on analytical calculations and experimental results, in [43–45]. In addition, [35] make relevant discussions about the physics of nitrous oxide and recent researches are improving two-phase models for hybrid propulsion, accounting for choked mass flow conditions [46].

## IV. Impact on Combustion Instability

### A. Feed-System Coupled Instability

A certain dependence of the pre-chamber on the feed-system coupled instability was analyzed by [4–6]. The theory was developed as an adaptation of the Summerfield theory, or  $L^*$  theory, for liquid propellant rocket engines [47]. It is based on the mass conservation equation, but for the hybrid philosophy. In addition, this model was validated experimentally with two motors, from the University of Brasilia (SARA [48]: UnB; Brazil) and Free University of Brussels (ULBHRE [49]: ULB; Belgium), with various injector types. The critical case for no chamber pressure oscillation for hybrids is:

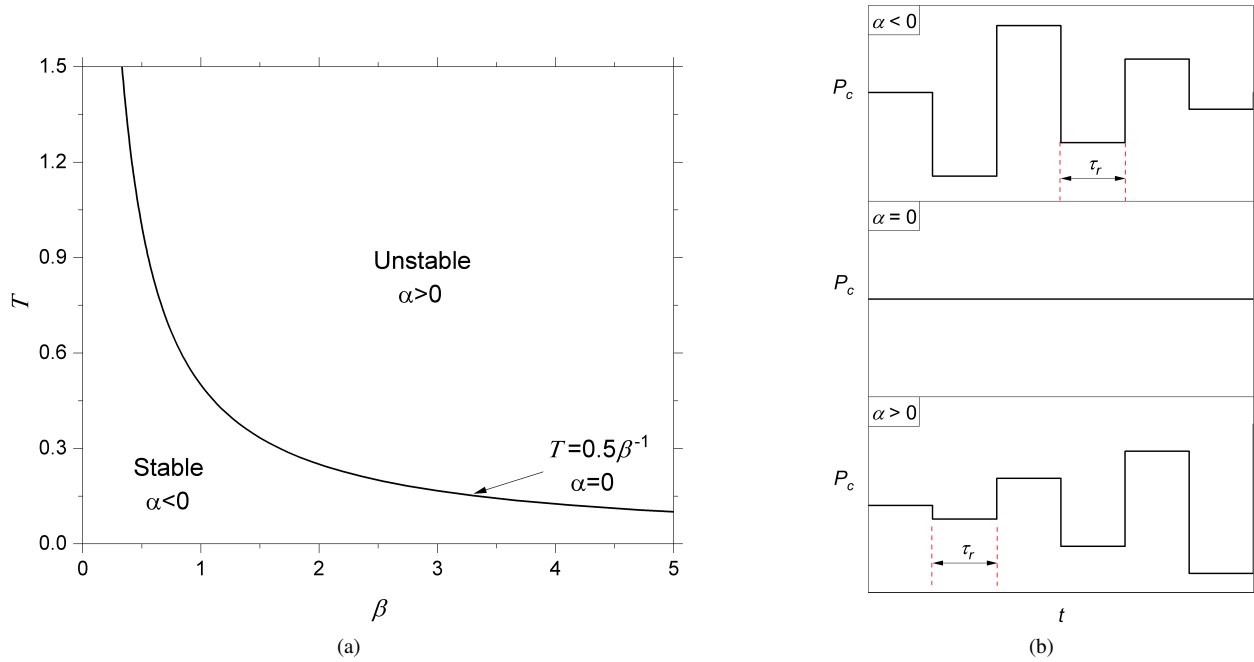
$$0.5\beta^{-1} = \mathcal{T} = \frac{\tau_{pc} + 0.5\tau_f}{\tau_r} \quad (7)$$

where  $\tau_{pc}$ ,  $\tau_f$  and  $\tau_r$  are the residence time on the pre-chamber, fuel grain and combustion chamber, respectively and defined in Eq. 9,  $\beta$  is defined as:

$$\beta = \frac{\bar{P}_c}{2\Delta P} \quad (8)$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \tau_{pc} = \frac{2L_{pc}}{v_i + v_p} \\ \tau_f = c' \frac{V_f P_c}{(2\dot{m}_{ox} + \dot{m}_f) R \bar{T}_p} \approx c' \frac{n}{(2\dot{m}_{ox} + \dot{m}_f)} \\ \tau_r = \frac{V_c C^*}{A_t R T_c} = \frac{L^* C^*}{R T_c} \end{array} \right. \quad (9)$$

where  $\bar{P}_c$  is the average chamber pressure,  $\bar{T}_p$  is the average temperature in the port,  $v_p$  is the velocity in the port,  $\dot{m}_{ox}$  and  $\dot{m}_f$  are the oxidizer and fuel mass flow rates, respectively,  $V_c$  and  $T_c$  are the chamber volume and temperature, respectively,  $L_{pc}$  is the pre-chamber length,  $R$  is the gas constant,  $V_f$  is the port volume ( $A_p \cdot L_f$ ),  $n$  is the number of moles in the gas and  $c'$  is a boundary-layer delay time coefficient, which also is a correction factor obtained experimentally. In general,  $c'$  is approximately 0.55 [50], but it may vary (e.g., 2.05 was used in [4]). Physically,  $\tau_{pc}$  is the time for the whole oxidizer injection, atomization and vaporization process to occur,  $\tau_f$  is the time necessary for the boundary-layer properties to adjust to any changes in the oxidizer flux, similar to the boundary-layer lag, and  $\tau_r$  is the time for the gases to flow through the entire combustion chamber. The following graph shows the stability criterion for HPRM, where  $\alpha$  (best described at [4–6]) represents the growth in oscillation amplitude, schematically shown below:



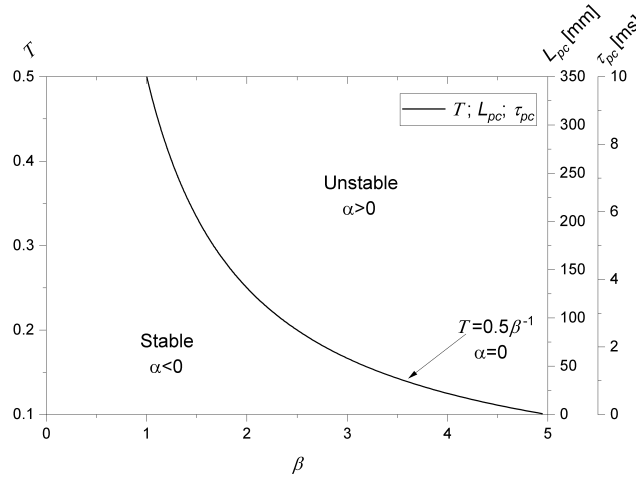
**Fig. 2 (a) Stability criterion for HPRMs, adapted from [5], (b) Scheme of chamber pressure oscillations in function of  $\alpha$ , adapted from [10].**

As it is possible to analyze in Figs. 2a and 2b, the critical condition is when  $\alpha = 0$ , but if any perturbation is induced, it may increase the chamber pressure indefinitely. In addition, it is commonly assumed that a maximum 5% of oscillations means that the combustion is stable [3]. Eq. 7 is derived from the following relation [5], in which it is also possible to analyze the role of  $\alpha$ :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha + \tau_r^{-1} = -\beta \tau_r^{-1} \left\{ e^{-\alpha \tau_{pc}} \cos(\tau_{pc} \omega) + e^{-\alpha(\tau_{pc} - \tau_f)} \cos[(\tau_{pc} - \tau_f) \omega] \right\} \\ \omega = \beta \tau_r^{-1} \left\{ e^{-\alpha \tau_{pc}} \sin(\tau_{pc} \omega) + e^{-\alpha(\tau_{pc} - \tau_f)} \sin[(\tau_{pc} - \tau_f) \omega] \right\} \end{array} \right. \quad (10)$$

## B. Pre-Chamber Impact

In order to understand better how the pre-chamber impacts on the stability, a generic motor was evaluated. Assuming constant  $\tau_f = 5\text{ms}$ ,  $\tau_r = 25\text{ms}$ ,  $v_i = 70\text{m/s}$  and  $v_p = 0.24\text{m/s}$ , the following graph could be obtained:



**Fig. 3 Example of impact of  $L_{pc}$  and  $\tau_{pc}$  on motor combustion instability.**

Above, an example is shown how some design parameters impact directly on the motor's stability. With this example, a natural correlation between pre-chamber size and, consequently, the residence time with the combustion stability is observed.

A common way to avoid feed-system coupled instabilities is by using a cavitating venturi in the feed line. In this way, the combustion chamber is isolated from the feed system. However, using nitrous oxide is not recommended to implement a cavitating venturi, since it may suffer an explosive decomposition reaction. To overcome this issue, a choked injector is also capable of isolating the feed system [35].

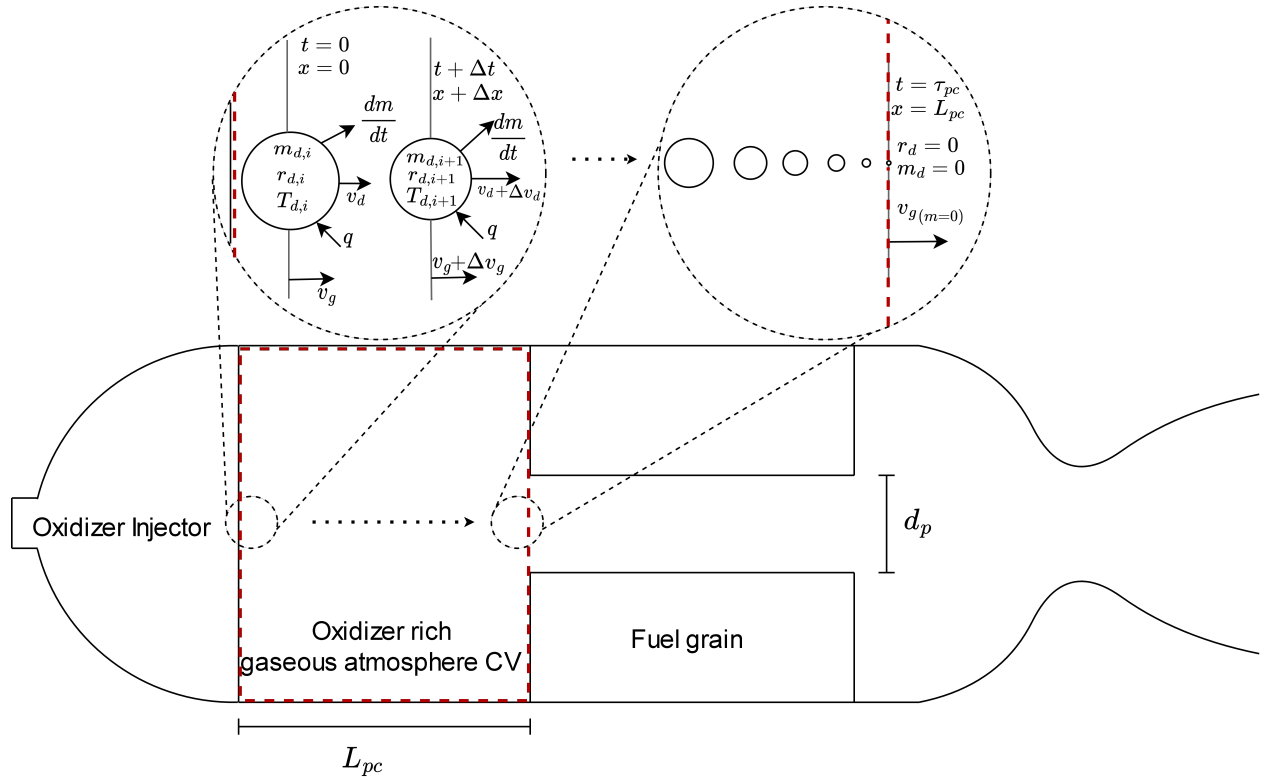
## V. Vaporization-Based Mathematical Model

The assumptions made on the mathematical model are listed below:

- 1) No combustion and chemical reactions, since there is no fuel in pre-chamber;
- 2) No breakup processes (atomized section of Fig. 1a);
- 3) Spherical droplets;
- 4) Constant thermophysical properties of the gas inside pre-chamber;
- 5) One-dimensional model;
- 6) Turbulence effects are neglected;
- 7) No droplets interactions;
- 8) Only convective heat transfer is considered;
- 9) Transient model in a steady state motor operation;
- 10) Use of liquid oxidizers;
- 11) Cavitating, choked flow in injectors is not being considered;
- 12) All droplets are injected with the same size, velocity and temperature.

In addition to the assumptions above, showerhead injectors are being taken in consideration in this work. However, other types of injectors are applicable to this theory.

The vaporization model is mainly ruled by the mass and energy conservation laws and by the interaction between the liquid of the droplet with the vapor film and the vapor film with the gas atmosphere. These interactions depend on thermophysical parameters and are ruled by the mass transfer, heat transfer, droplet heating rate, droplet acceleration and gas velocity equations [12–16, 24–26, 51]. This system of equations and how each equation acts on the droplet inside the pre-chamber are shown below:



**Fig. 4** Scheme of how each of governing equations acts on the vaporizing droplet inside a oxidizer rich gaseous atmosphere Control Volume (CV).

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \frac{dm}{dt} = A_d K \alpha_d P_d & ; \quad \text{Mass transfer} \\ q = h A_d (T_{pc} - T_d) Z & ; \quad \text{Heat transfer} \\ \frac{dT_d}{dt} = \frac{q - \frac{dm}{dt} \lambda}{m c_{p,L}} & ; \quad \text{Droplet heating rate} \\ \frac{dv_d}{dt} = - \frac{3 S v_{rel}^2 \rho_m}{8 r_d \rho_L} & ; \quad \text{Droplet acceleration} \\ v_g(x) = \frac{\dot{m}_{th}}{\rho_g \pi r_p^2} \left( 1 - \frac{\dot{m}_{ox}(x)}{\dot{m}_{ox}(m=0)} \right) & ; \quad \text{Gas velocity} \end{array} \right. \quad (11)$$

where  $m$  is the droplet mass,  $A_d$ ,  $P_d$ ,  $T_d$  and  $r_d$  are the surface area, partial pressure, temperature and radius of the droplet ( $r_d = \text{SMD}/2$ ), respectively,  $K$  is the mass transfer coefficient,  $h$  is the heat transfer coefficient,  $T_{pc}$  is the temperature inside pre-chamber,  $\alpha_d$  is a correction factor for uni-directional mass transfer,  $Z$  is a term for the account of the sensible heat taken up by the diffusing vapor,  $\lambda$  is the latent heat of vaporization of the droplet at temperature  $T_d$ ,  $c_{p,L}$  is the specific heat at constant pressure of the droplet in liquid phase,  $v_d$  is the droplet velocity,  $v_{rel}$  is the relative velocity,  $\rho_m$  is the vapor-gas mixture density,  $v_g$  and  $\rho_g$  are the gas velocity and density, respectively,  $r_p$  is the grain port area and  $\dot{m}_{ox}$  is the mass flow rate of vaporization of the oxidizer.

The mass transfer coefficient,  $K$ , is obtained below:



$$K = \frac{\text{Sh} M_v D}{2 r_d R_u \bar{T}} \quad (12)$$

where  $M_v$  is the molecular weight of evaporating species,  $D$  is the coefficient of mass diffusivity,  $R_u$  is the universal gas constant (8.31446 J/(molK)),  $\bar{T}$  is the mean temperature ( $\bar{T} = (T_c + T_L) / 2$ ) and Sh is the Shearwood number, which is calculated through Ranz Marshall relation [52]:

$$\text{Sh} = 2 + 0.6 \sqrt[3]{\text{Sc}} \sqrt{\text{Re}} \quad (13)$$

where Sc is the Schmidt number, which is defined by:

$$\text{Sc} = \frac{\mu_m}{\rho_m D} \quad (14)$$

where  $\mu_m$  is the mean  $\mu$ , which is calculated as shown in Eq. 18 (but for  $\mu$ ). The correction factor for uni-directional mass transfer is defined as:

$$\alpha_d = \frac{P_{pc}}{P_d} \ln \left( \frac{P_{pc}}{P_{pc} - P_d} \right) \quad (15)$$

The parameter  $Z$  is calculated through:

$$Z = \frac{z}{(e^z - 1)} \quad (16)$$

where  $z$  is calculated by:

$$z = \frac{\frac{dm}{dt} c_{p,L} t_f}{4 \pi k_m r_d (r_d + t_f)} \quad (17)$$

where  $t_f$  is the gas film thickness and  $k_m$  is the mean value of thermal conductivity, calculated below:

$$k_m = \left( 1 - \frac{P_d / P_{pc}}{2} \right) k_d + \frac{P_d / P_{pc}}{2} k_g \quad (18)$$

where  $k_d$  and  $k_g$  are the thermal conductivity of the droplet and gas, respectively. The heat transfer coefficient,  $h$ , is calculated through Ranz Marshall relation [52], but for Nusselt number (Eq. 20):

$$h = \frac{\text{Nu} k_m}{d_d} \quad (19)$$

$$\text{Nu} = 2 + 0.6 \sqrt[3]{\text{Pr}} \sqrt{\text{Re}} \quad (20)$$

where  $d_d$  is the droplet diameter ( $d_d = \text{SMD}$ ) and Pr is the Prandtl number, which is calculated below:

$$\text{Pr} = \frac{c_{p,m} \mu_m}{k_m} \quad (21)$$

where  $c_{p,m}$  is the mean  $c_p$ , which is calculated as shown in Eq. 18 (but for  $c_p$ ).

The droplet acceleration is derived from the Stokes drag law for a spherical object and the drag coefficient  $S$  is calculated through [53]:

$$S = 27 \text{Re}^{-0.84} \quad (22)$$

The above equation was derived for Re from 6 to 400, but [12] tested it successfully for propellant droplets for numbers until 2000. In addition, other equations for  $S$  exists, such as the one presented by [54].

The vapor-gas mixture density  $\rho_{vg}$  is calculated through:

$$\rho_{vg} = \frac{P_c \bar{M}}{R_u T_m} \quad (23)$$

where  $\bar{M}$  and  $T_m$  are the average molecular weight between vaporizing droplet and gas and it is calculated through:

$$\bar{M} = \left(1 - \frac{P_d/P_{pc}}{2}\right) M_d + \frac{P_d/P_{pc}}{2} M_g \quad (24)$$

where  $M_d$  and  $M_g$  are the molecular weight of the droplet and gas, respectively.

To solve the governing equations, a fourth order Runge-Kutta numerical method is used. In addition, the gaseous and liquid properties of the oxidizer are obtained through fittings and interpolations from data available at the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) [40].

A computational algorithm was built in order to calculate the whole process described in the previous section. The algorithm is represented by the following flowchart:

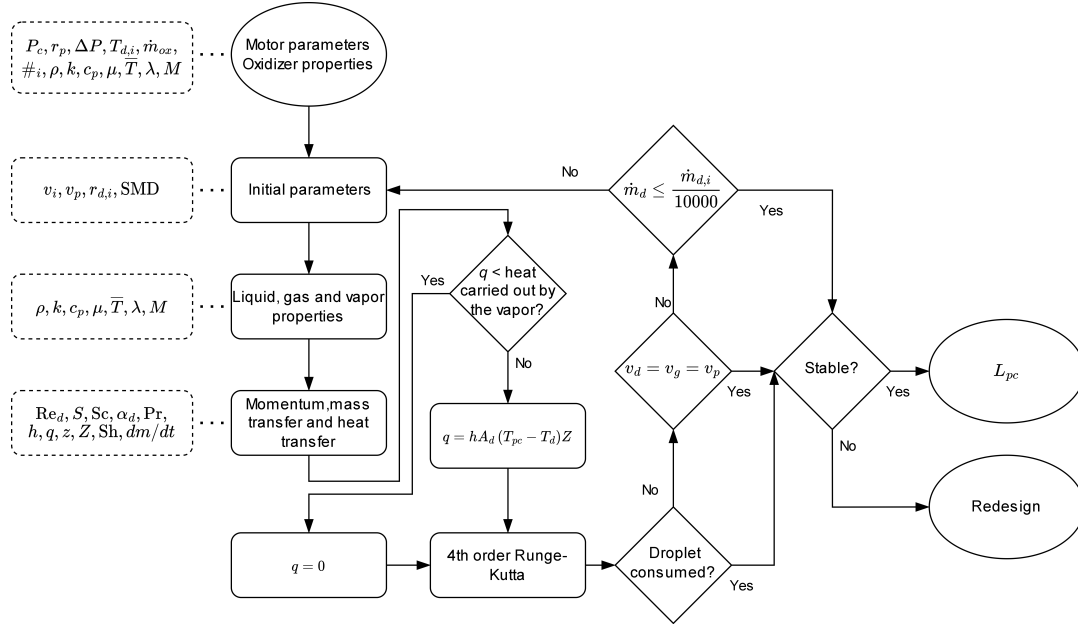


Fig. 5 Algorithm flowchart.

As it is seen above, there are three convergence criteria (by droplet consumption, mass transfer and gas and droplet velocity). In addition, if the system is stable, the pre-chamber is calculated. Otherwise, if it is not stable, the motor must be redesign.

## VI. Results, Validation and Discussions

The algorithm reproduced test conditions presented at [4–6] and compiled in the table below:

Table 1 Parameters of the tested conditions

#	$L_{pc}$ , mm	$P_c$ , bar	$\Delta P$ , bar	$\dot{m}_{ox}$ , kg/s	$\tau_{pc}$ , ms	$\tau_f$ , ms	$\tau_r$ , ms
1	56.6	25.2	24.7	0.211	7.5	6.1	26.7
2	157.6	39.0	15.2	0.396	11.9	4.3	38.2
3	56.6	42.4	9.5	0.379	4.5	4.9	22.8
4	56.6	40.7	10.3	0.432	3.9	4.2	19.4
5	102.5	16.5	30.0	0.380	4.0	2.5	36.5
6	102.5	16.8	30.7	0.390	3.9	2.5	37.1
7	102.5	24.0	21.6	0.540	5.1	2.4	36.5
8	102.5	22.7	23.1	0.576	4.8	2.1	32.3

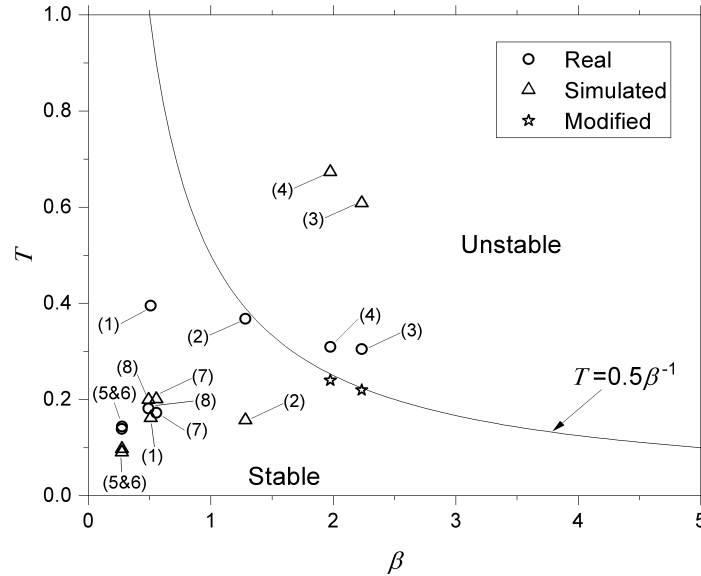
In the table above, tests from 1 to 4 are from the UnB motor (SARA) and from 5 to 8 are from ULB (ULBHRE). The port diameter and fuel grain lengths, for SARA and ULBHRE respectively, are 34, 30 and 101, 107.5mm. In addition, SARA tests were conducted with 16 injectors (6 with mm and 10 with 2mm) and ULBHRE tests with, from 5 to 6, with 11 injectors (with 1.4mm) and, from 7 to 8, with 21 injectors (with 1.4mm), all of them showerhead. In [4–6] other injector types were also tested. In case of SARA motor, the algorithm was executed with the 2mm injector orifice, since it produces larger droplets (Eq. 1) and, consequently, requires a longer pre-chamber.

Running the algorithm for the 8 motors from Tab. 1, the following results were obtained:

**Table 2 Results: minimum pre-chamber length required to vaporize an injected droplet**

#	$L_{pc}$ , mm (Real)	$L_{pc}$ , mm (Simulated)	Difference, %
1	56.6	44.3	21.73 ↓
2	157.6	105.2	33.25 ↓
3	56.6	245.5	333.74 ↑
4	56.6	245.3	333.39 ↑
5	102.5	97.6	4.78 ↓
6	102.5	90.1	12.07 ↓
7	102.5	219.9	114.53 ↑
8	102.5	200.1	95.22 ↑

As it is possible to observe above, motors 1, 2, 5 and 6 could have its length decreased. However, motors 3, 4, 7 and 8 needs it to increase. It is important to mention that those results consider only the vaporization model. With the results presented in Tabs. 1 and 2, it is possible to create the stability chart, in which it is possible to compare how far, or close, the simulated motors are from the real motors. This chart is presented below:

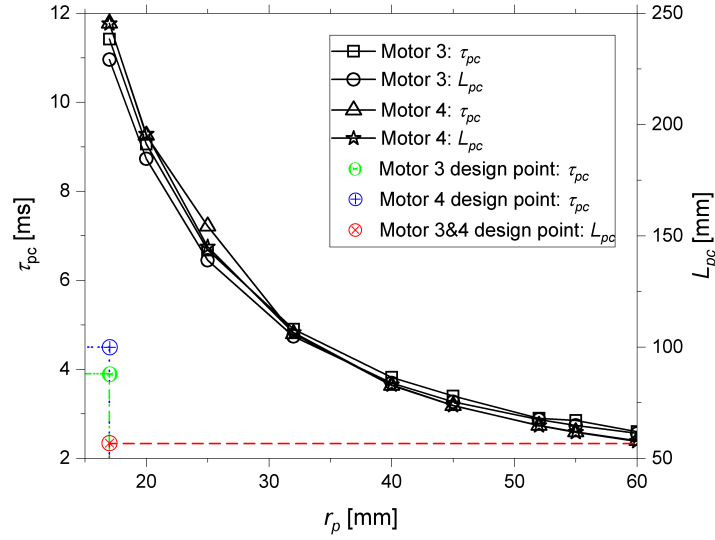


**Fig. 6 Stability chart with real and simulated motors.**

By analyzing all presented results, it was determined that the simulated motors, with the minimum pre-chamber length required to vaporize an injected droplet, are correspondent to all real motors (in terms of combustion stability). Since, by the vaporization analysis, it is possible to decrease  $L_{pc}$  in motors 1, 2, 5 and 6, it is shown in Fig. 6 that this reduction doesn't induce instabilities and this optimization is possible. On the other hand, motors 7 and 8 needs larger  $L_{pc}$  to complete the droplet vaporization, and this increase is possible since combustion would keep stable. However,

motors 3 and 4 would need an increase in the pre-chamber length to complete the vaporization, but it would still be unstable.

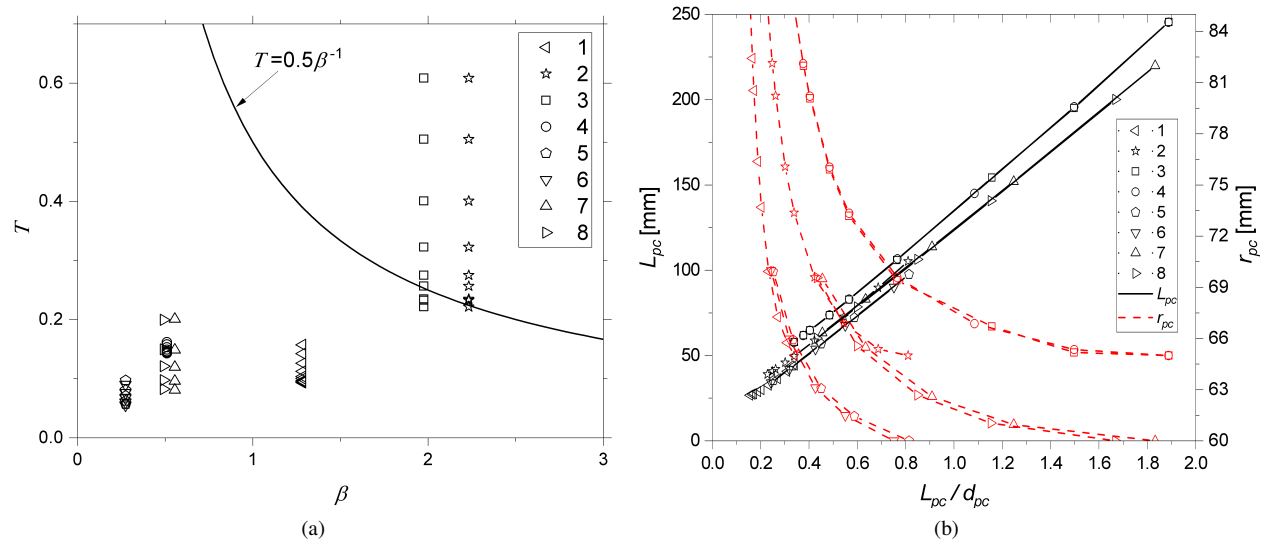
With these results, an analysis was made in order to reach a design in which the combustion would be stable for motors 3 and 4. Assuming that all other parameters are constant, this modification was easily achieved by varying the port radius. It was observed that while the port radius is increased, the required  $L_{pc}$  decreases, so as  $\tau_{pc}$ . With the increase in port radius, the motor's diameter would need to increase to maintain the same burn time and the grain length would need adjustment to maintain the original thrust. This variation of  $\tau_{pc}$  and  $L_{pc}$  in function of  $r_p$  is presented in the following graph:



**Fig. 7** Variation of  $\tau_{pc}$  and  $L_{pc}$  in function of  $r_p$ .

The calculation was made by varying the port radius on an array of values.

Additionally, this analysis of the impact of  $r_p$  was extended to the other motors. It was shown that it has lower impact on combustion stability on the other cases. However, it was also possible to discuss the recommendation of using a  $L_{pc}/d_{pc}$  of 0.5 [1]. Those verification is shown below:



**Fig. 8** Impact of  $r_p$  on (a) combustion instability and on (b)  $L_{pc}$  and  $L_{pc}/d_{pc}$ .

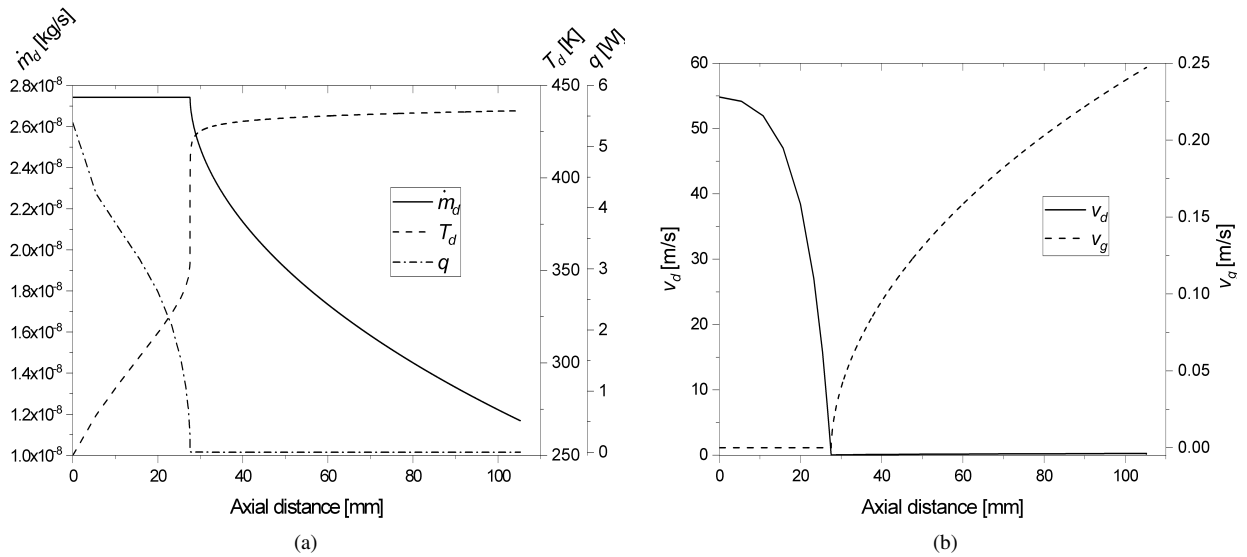
On Fig. 8a is shown the impact of  $r_p$  (each point for each motor is a different  $r_p$ ) on  $\mathcal{T}$  and how it was possible to reach stability only by varying the port radius (shown in Fig. 6). On Fig. 8b it is possible to observe that most of the values of  $L_{pc}/d_{pc}$  are concentrated between 0.25 and 0.66. In addition, the mean and median values are presented in Tab. 3. The values of  $r_{pc}$  were calculated in order to maintain the original burn times of 12s, for SARA, and 10s, for ULBHRE, and the inputs are shown in Tab. 1 and on [5, 48, 49] were used to make the internal ballistics calculations for  $N_2O$  and paraffin, considering constant oxidizer mass flow rate.

**Table 3** Values of  $L_{pc}/d_{pc}$

Parameter	Value
Mean	0.53
Median	0.38
Interval	$0.26 \leq L_{pc}/d_{pc} \leq 0.66$

The values showed in Tab. 3 were obtained excluding values from motor 3 and 4, except for the ones that make the motors stable, since they are under unstable condition. With the results presented above is valid to use the value recommended by [1]. But, since [1] suggests a range of values for the post-chamber, probably a better recommendation would be:  $0.26 \leq L_{pc}/d_{pc} \leq 0.66$ . However, this range should be used only on early phases of design. The ideal workflow is: use the theory presented in this work (vaporization + stability)  $\Rightarrow$  CFD, for validation  $\Rightarrow$  experimental verification.

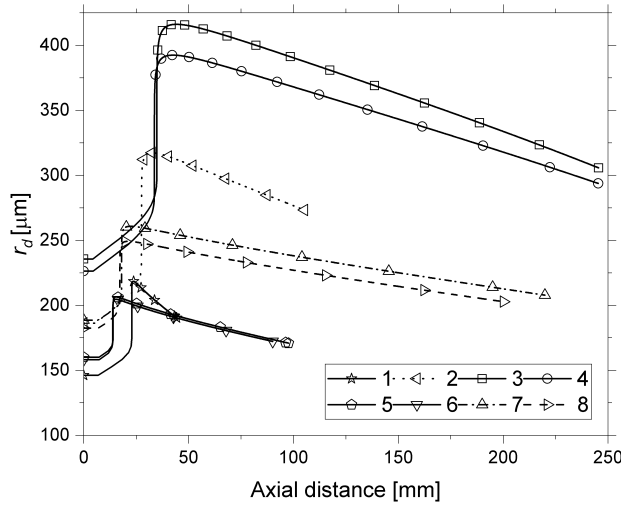
The droplet vaporization results along the axial distance, or pre-chamber length, are shown below for the motor 2:



**Fig. 9** Results for motor 2 of droplet vaporization of (a)  $\dot{m}_d = \frac{dm}{dt}$ ,  $T_d$  and  $q$ , and of (b)  $v_d$  and  $v_g$ .

As it is possible to observe in Fig. 9a, the droplet is heated up until it reaches temperature required to boil the liquid, then the heat transfer is zeroed. Initially the mass flow rate variation is low because the variation of the terms in Eq. 11 are equivalent. The droplet radius and the partial pressure both increases with the increase of the temperature, but the mass transfer coefficient and the correction factor for uni-directional mass transfer both decreases, as they are inversely proportional to the the droplet radius and the partial pressure, respectively. When the vaporization begins, the droplet radius starts to decrease and so the mass flow. Also, the droplet velocity decreases significantly through the axial distance, since the droplet first expands, increasing the drag over the droplet.

Below it is shown the droplet radius histories for all motors:



**Fig. 10 Results of droplet vaporization of droplet radius with distance.**

Although the droplets do not reach a diameter of zero in Fig. 10, it is shown in Fig. 9a that  $\dot{m}_d$  decreases significantly and the droplet velocity reaches the final gas velocity and both reaches the port velocity ( $v_d \rightarrow v_g \rightarrow v_p$ ), which are also convergence criteria besides the full droplet consumption (Fig. 5).

An intriguing grow in droplet radius is observed on the beginning of the axial distance. This is due to the thermal expansion and it happens because initially high molecular weight fluids expand thermally while not losing much mass by vaporization. In the case of low molecular weight fluids, the radius decrease immediately [16].

## VII. Conclusions

In this work it was presented an algorithm with a vaporization model capable of optimizing pre-chambers of hybrid rocket motors, by calculating the minimum length required to vaporize an injected droplet. In addition, a verification of feed-system coupled instabilities is made. Analyzing the results, it was stated a relation between the port radius, combustion instability and the pre-chamber length. Additionally, the range of  $L_{pc}/d_{pc}$  was defined as from 0.26 to 0.66. Another characteristic of the vaporization model for the hybrids is that it only depends on the injector geometry and on the oxidizer that is being used.

The presented study is a contribution to the design of pre-combustion chambers of hybrid propellant rocket motors, which is a field of interest that has a few amount of literature references available. With this algorithm, it is possible to minimize the weight, heat transfer losses, nonuniform burn of the grain and costs with tests and suppress feed-system coupled instabilities. Future works will be conducted in order to study deeply the sensibility of each design parameter. This will allow to understand more their impact and to control and optimize the pre-chamber size more accurately. Also, this theory will be extended for the post-combustion chamber.

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