

# Lecture 22: Introduction to Unsteady Gas Dynamics

ENAE311H Aerodynamics I

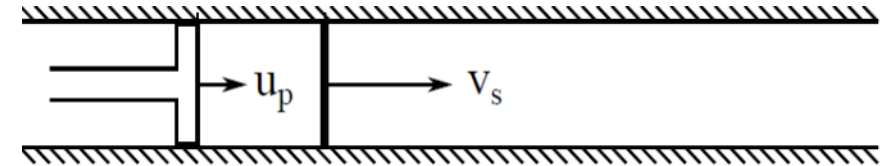
Christoph Brehm

# Propagating shock waves

Consider a constant area duct, with a piston that is impulsively started to  $u_p$  at  $t = 0$  (with zero velocity before that).

We note the following:

- Since the flow won't have time to respond in a smooth fashion, a shock wave must propagate ahead of the piston at a speed  $v_s > u_p$ .
- The flow conditions behind the shock are uniform, so the fluid velocity must be equal to the fluid velocity,  $u_p$ .
- The shock speed will be precisely that required to accelerate the flow to  $u_p$ , according to the normal-shock relations.



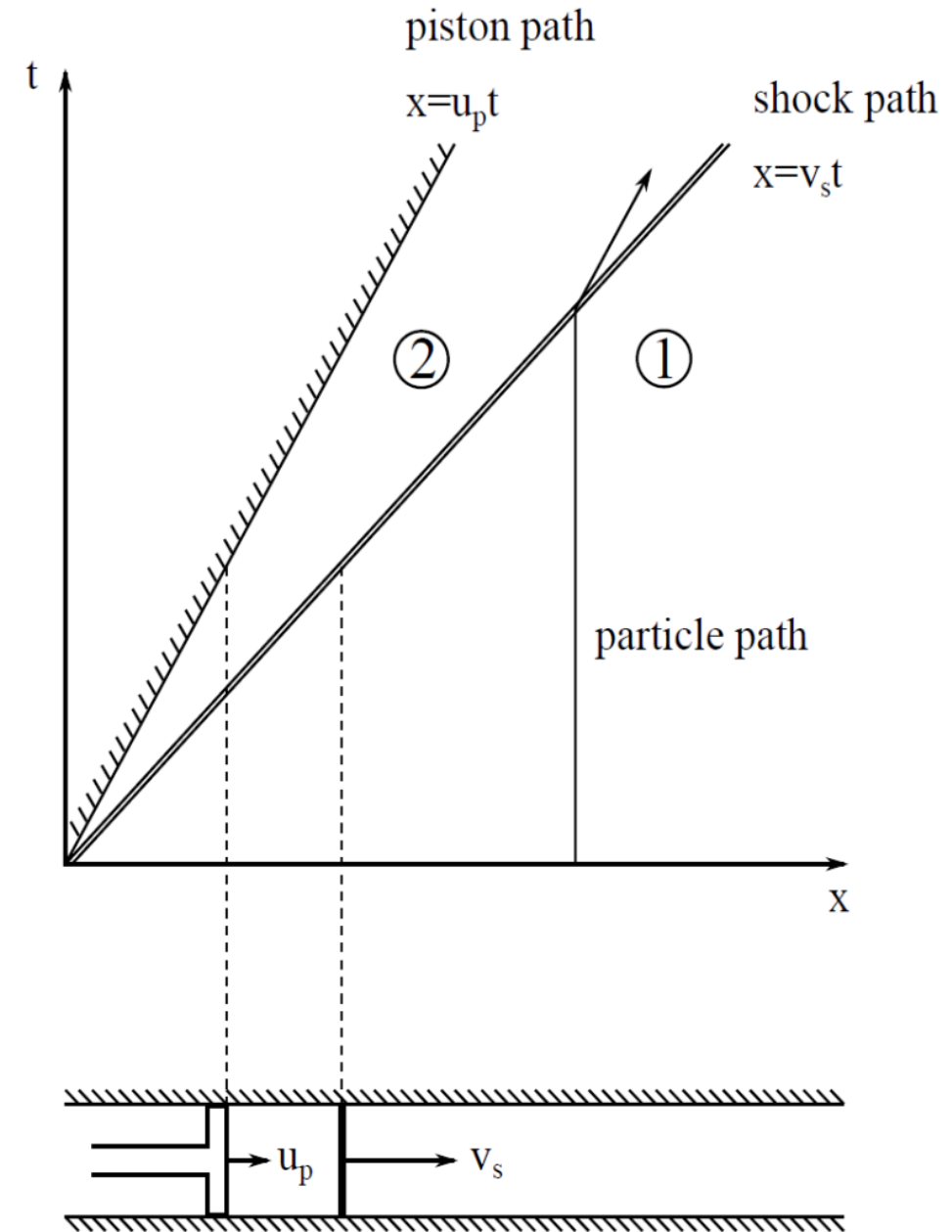
# Propagating shock waves

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We note the following:

- A useful way to visualize such unsteady, one-dimensional flow phenomena is through an x-t diagram (note the similarity to the 2-D flow over a compression corner).
- Knowing the conditions in region 1 and the shock speed,  $v_s$ , all conditions in region 2 can be determined using the normal – shock relations. One further expression that will be useful relates the pressure jump to the piston speed:

$$u_p = a_1 \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{2/\gamma}{(\gamma + 1) \frac{p_2}{p_1} + \gamma - 1} \right)^{1/2}.$$



# Propagating shock waves

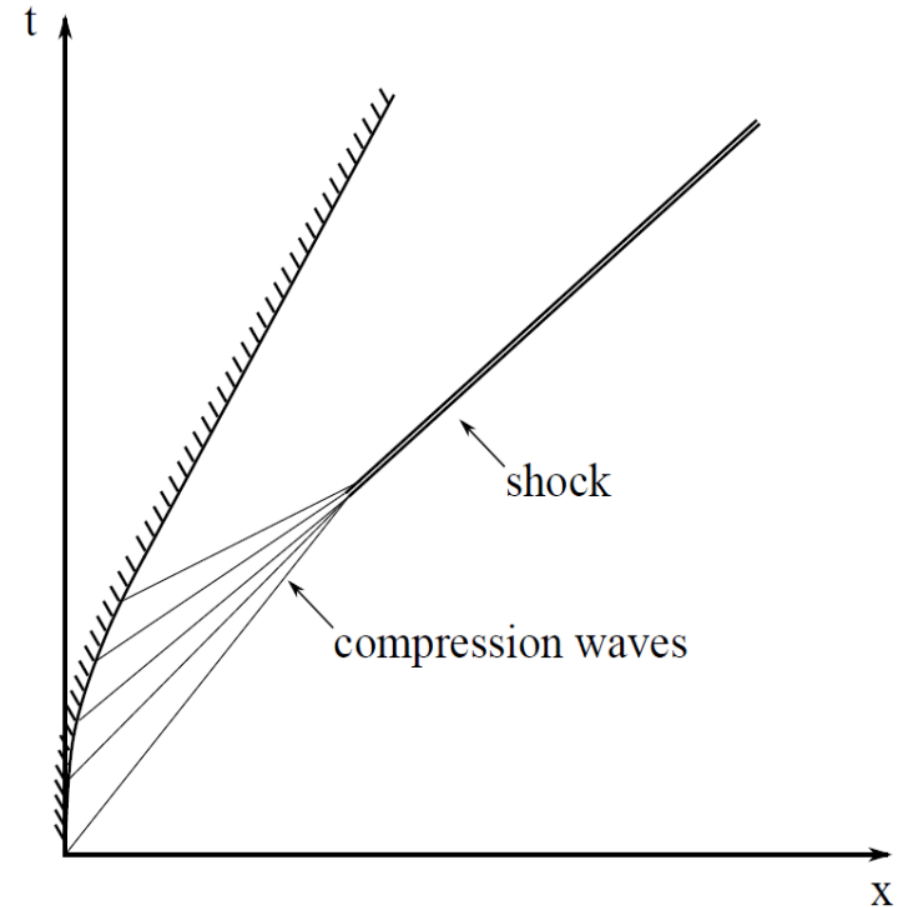
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- Even if the piston acceleration is gradual, the compression waves will eventually coalesce to form a shock wave.



# Propagating expansion waves

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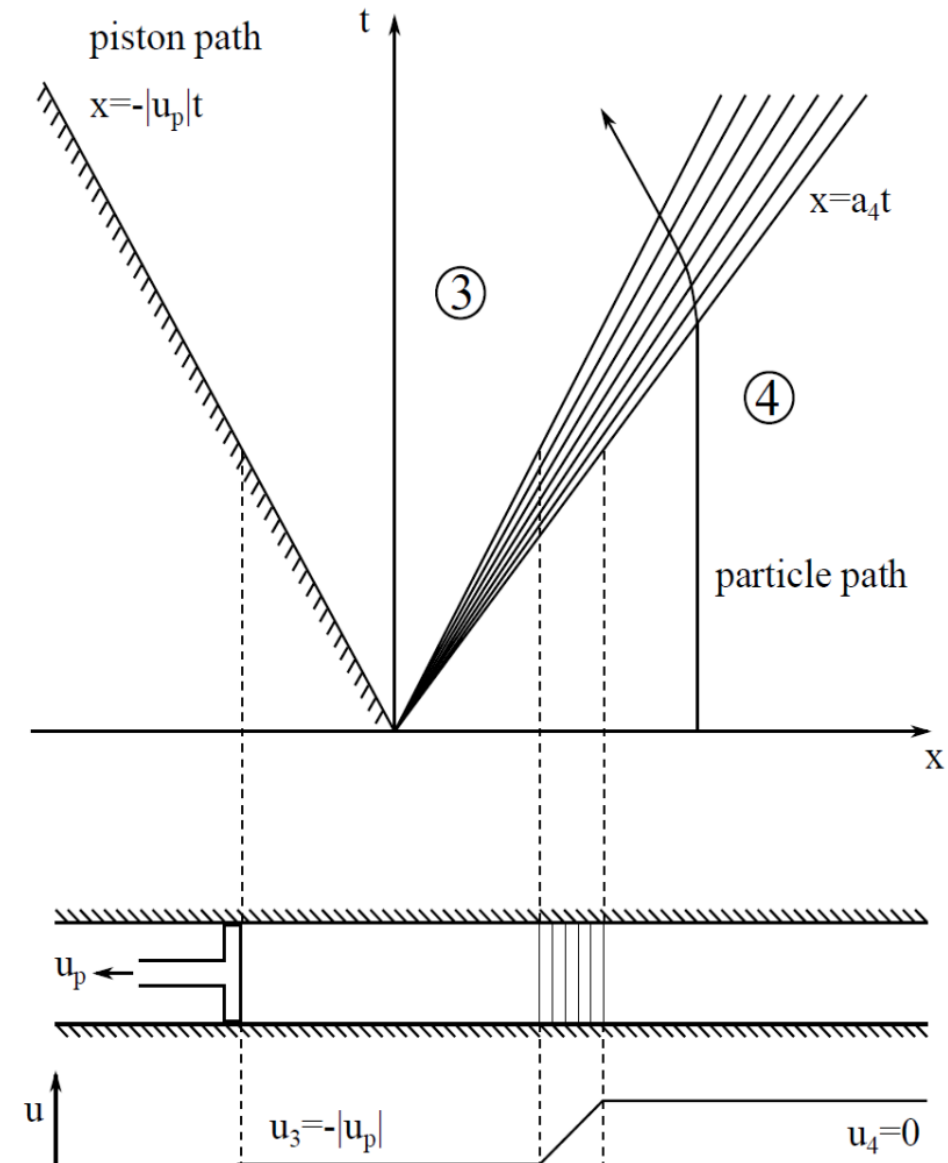
We now note the following:

- An expansion wave must propagate into the fluid.
- Since a finite expansion wave is forbidden by the second law of thermodynamics, we must have a gradual (isentropic) expansion through a centered expansion fan. This can again be represented in an x-t diagram.
- The leading wave will have a propagation speed of  $a_4$ . For all other waves, the propagation speed (in the lab frame) is

$$c = a_4 + \frac{\gamma + 1}{2} u,$$

where  $u$  is the local fluid velocity. Since the final velocity matches the piston speed, the terminal wave propagates at

$$c_{terminal} = a_4 - \frac{\gamma + 1}{2} |u_p|.$$



# Propagating expansion waves

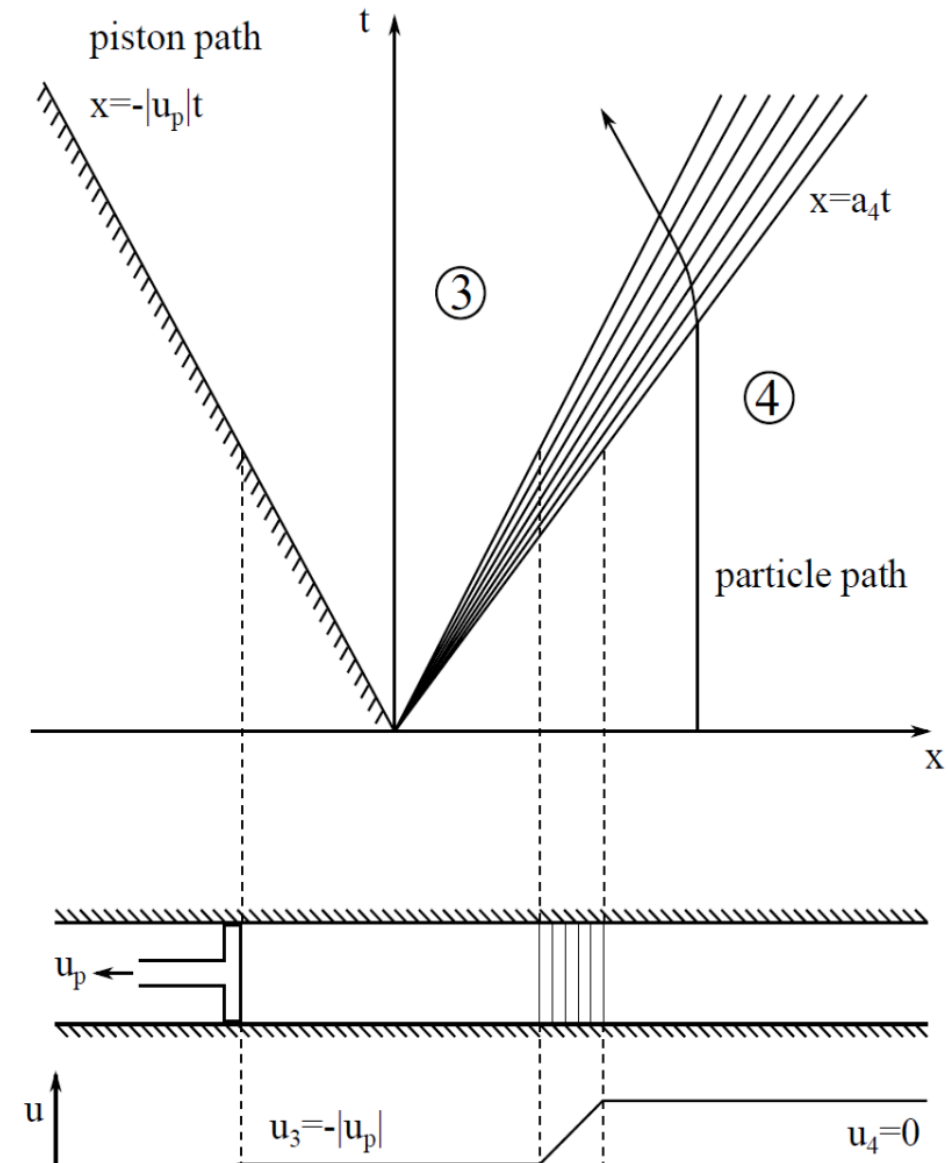
Now imagine that the piston is impulsively withdrawn away from the fluid at speed  $|u_p|$ , rather than accelerated into it.

We now note the following:

- The flow velocity decreases linearly through the expansion fan (and of course matches the piston speed at the trailing end).
- The strength of the expansion can be characterized in terms of the pre- and post-expansion pressures:

$$\frac{p_3}{p_4} = \left(1 - \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \frac{|u_p|}{a_4}\right)^{2\gamma/(\gamma-1)}.$$

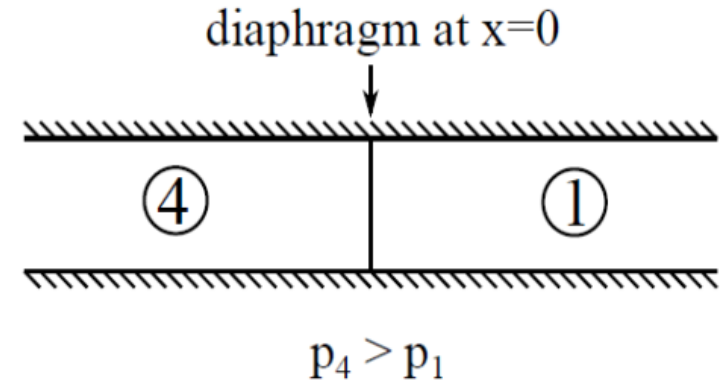
- Note that this entails a maximum velocity that the flow can achieve through an unsteady expansion.



# Shock tubes

Now consider a constant area duct with high- and low-pressure regions (possibly of different compositions) separated by a diaphragm.

If the diaphragm is suddenly burst, the unsupported pressure difference will cause the fluid interface (also referred to as the *contact surface*) to start propagating towards the low-pressure region.





# Shock tubes

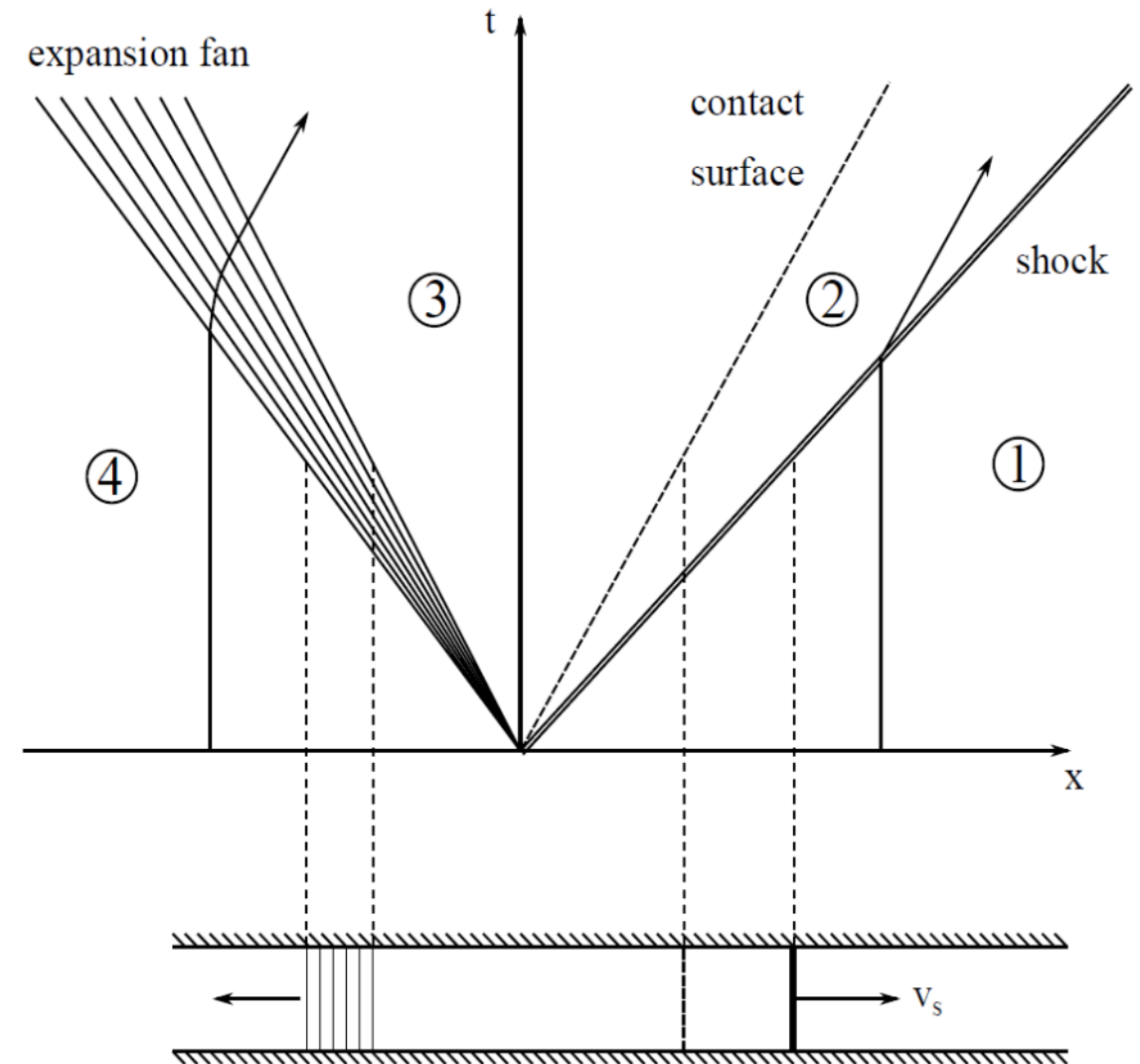
Now consider a constant area duct with high- and low-pressure regions (possibly of different compositions) separated by a diaphragm.

If the diaphragm is suddenly burst, the unsupported pressure difference will cause the fluid interface (also referred to as the *contact surface*) to start propagating towards the low-pressure region.

The contact surface will act as a fluid piston, causing a shock wave to propagate into the low-pressure region and an expansion wave into the high-pressure region. This can again be represented on an x-t diagram.

A contact surface is the 1-D, unsteady equivalent of a shear layer; the conditions across it are

$$\begin{aligned} p_2 &= p_3 \\ u_2 &= u_3 (= u_{cs}). \end{aligned}$$



# Shock tubes

If we treat the contact surface as an equivalent fluid piston, we can rewrite our earlier equations for the propagating shock and expansion waves as:

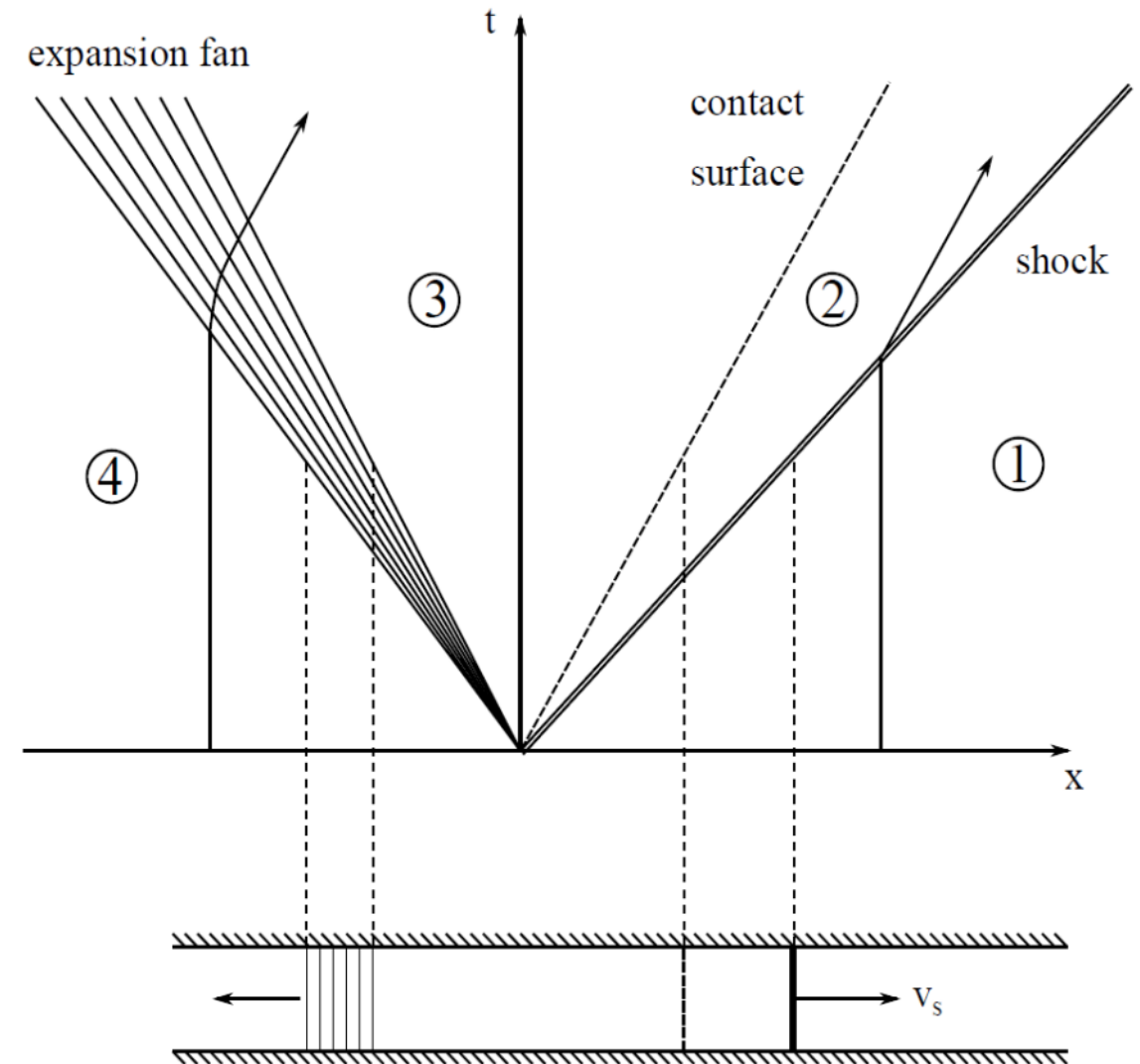
$$u_2 = a_1 \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{2/\gamma_1}{(\gamma_1 + 1) \frac{p_2}{p_1} + \gamma_1 - 1} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$u_3 = \frac{2a_4}{\gamma_4 + 1} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{p_3}{p_4} \right)^{(\gamma_4 - 1)/2\gamma_4} \right].$$

Matching pressures and velocities, we can then derive the shock-tube equation:

$$\frac{p_4}{p_1} = \frac{p_2}{p_1} \left[ 1 - \frac{(\gamma_4 - 1) \frac{a_1}{a_4} \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} - 1 \right)}{\left\{ 2\gamma_1 \left[ 2\gamma_1 + (\gamma_1 + 1) \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} - 1 \right) \right] \right\}^{1/2}} \right]^{-2\gamma_4/(\gamma_4 - 1)}.$$

This gives the shock strength ( $p_2/p_1$ ) implicitly as a function of the initial pressure ratio and sound speeds.



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This gives the shock strength ( $p_2/p_1$ ) implicitly as a function of the initial pressure ratio and sound speeds.

Once we know  $p_2/p_1$ , the shock Mach number can be derived using the shock-jump relation

$$M_s = \left[ 1 + \frac{\gamma_1 + 1}{2\gamma_1} \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} - 1 \right) \right]^{1/2}.$$

All other properties in region 2 can then be easily derived.

Shock tubes are used for studying, e.g., unsteady flow phenomena and combustion ignition. They are also used to generate high-enthalpy conditions for shock tunnels.

