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THE KINETICS OF LASER PULSE VAPORIZATION  
OF URANIUM DIOXIDE BY MASS SPECTROMETRY

Chuen-hong Tsai  
(Ph.D. thesis)

November 1981

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**The Kinetics of Laser Pulse Vaporization of Uranium Dioxide  
by Mass Spectrometry**

*Chuen-horng Tsai*

*Ph.D. Thesis*

Materials & Molecular Research Division  
Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory  
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Berkeley, CA 94720

This work has been supported by the Director, Office of Energy Research, Office of Basic Energy Science, Materials Science Division of the U.S. Department of Energy under contract No. W-7405-ENG-48.

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**by Mass Spectrometry**

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*U.S. Department of Energy*



*Prof. D. R. Olander*

*Chairman of Committee*

**ABSTRACT**

Safety analyses of nuclear reactors require knowledge of the evaporation behavior of  $\text{UO}_2$  at temperatures well above the melting point of 3140 K. In this study, rapid transient heating of a small spot on a  $\text{UO}_2$  specimen was accomplished by a laser pulse, which generates a surface temperature excursion. This in turn vaporizes the target surface and the gas expands into vacuum.

The surface temperature transient was monitored by a fast-response automatic optical pyrometer. The maximum surface temperatures investigated range from 3700 K to 4300 K. A computer program was developed to simulate the laser heating process and calculate the surface temperature evolution. The effect of the uncertainties of the high temperature material properties on the calculation was included in a sensitivity study for  $\text{UO}_2$  vaporization. The measured surface temperatures were in satisfactory agreements.

A quadrupole mass spectrometer was used to identify and analyze the major vapor species in the vaporizing flow, and to measure the rate of evaporation from the target

surface. The information yielded the partial vapor pressure of each species and the composition in the vapor jet. For the partial pressure of  $\text{UO}_2$ , the pressure-temperature relation  $\log p(\text{atm}) = 26.81 - 26089/T(\text{K}) - 5.594 \log T(\text{K})$  best fits to the experimental results. This p-T relation falls inside the confidence limits recommended in the literature assessment report.

The degree of ionization in the hot vapor was estimated from the mass spectrometer measurement of thermionic ions compared with the neutral molecules. The result was in good agreement with the calculation based on Sha's equation and effective "unisolated" ionization potential.

No dimer signal of any vapor molecule was measured, indicating the absence of condensation in the highly supersaturated vapor leaving the surface.

A shock wave structure is developed by laser pulsing on a  $\text{UO}_2$  target in an ambient inert gas. This structure was photographed during the laser pulse. By applying the Mack disk formula, the total vapor pressure corresponding to maximum temperature was obtained. The resulting low vapor pressure and low heat of vaporization deduced from this measurement is attributed to excessively high surface temperature measured due to nonequilibrium radiation from the hot vapor.

Additional diagnostics of the phenomenon included collection of the vapor blow-off on disks followed by neutron activation to determine the angular distribution of the vaporization process. The extent of droplet production was also investigated by disk collection. Liquid droplets are observed, but the quantity of  $\text{UO}_2$  they contained was insignificant compared to the total mass evaporated.

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# The Kinetics of Laser Pulse Vaporization of Uranium Dioxide by Mass Spectrometry

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Safety analyses of nuclear reactors require knowledge of the evaporation behavior of  $\text{UO}_2$  at temperatures well above the melting point of 3140 K. In this study, rapid transient heating of a small spot on a  $\text{UO}_2$  specimen was accomplished by a laser pulse, which generates a surface temperature excursion. This in turn vaporizes the target surface and the gas expands into vacuum.

The surface temperature transient was monitored by a fast-response automatic optical pyrometer. The maximum surface temperatures investigated range from ~3700 K to ~4300 K. A computer program was developed to simulate the laser heating process and calculate the surface temperature evolution. The effect of the uncertainties of the high temperature material properties on the calculation was included in a sensitivity study for  $\text{UO}_2$  vaporization. The measured surface temperatures were in satisfactory agreements.

A quadrupole mass spectrometer was used to identify and analyze the major vapor species in the vaporizing flow, and to measure the rate of evaporation from the target surface. The information yielded the partial vapor pressure of each species and the composition in the vapor jet. For the partial pressure of  $\text{UO}_2$ , the pressure-temperature relation  $\log p(\text{atm}) = 26.81 - 26089/T(\text{K}) - 5.594 \log T(\text{K})$  best fits to the experimental results. This p-T relation falls inside the confidence limits recommended in the literature assessment report.

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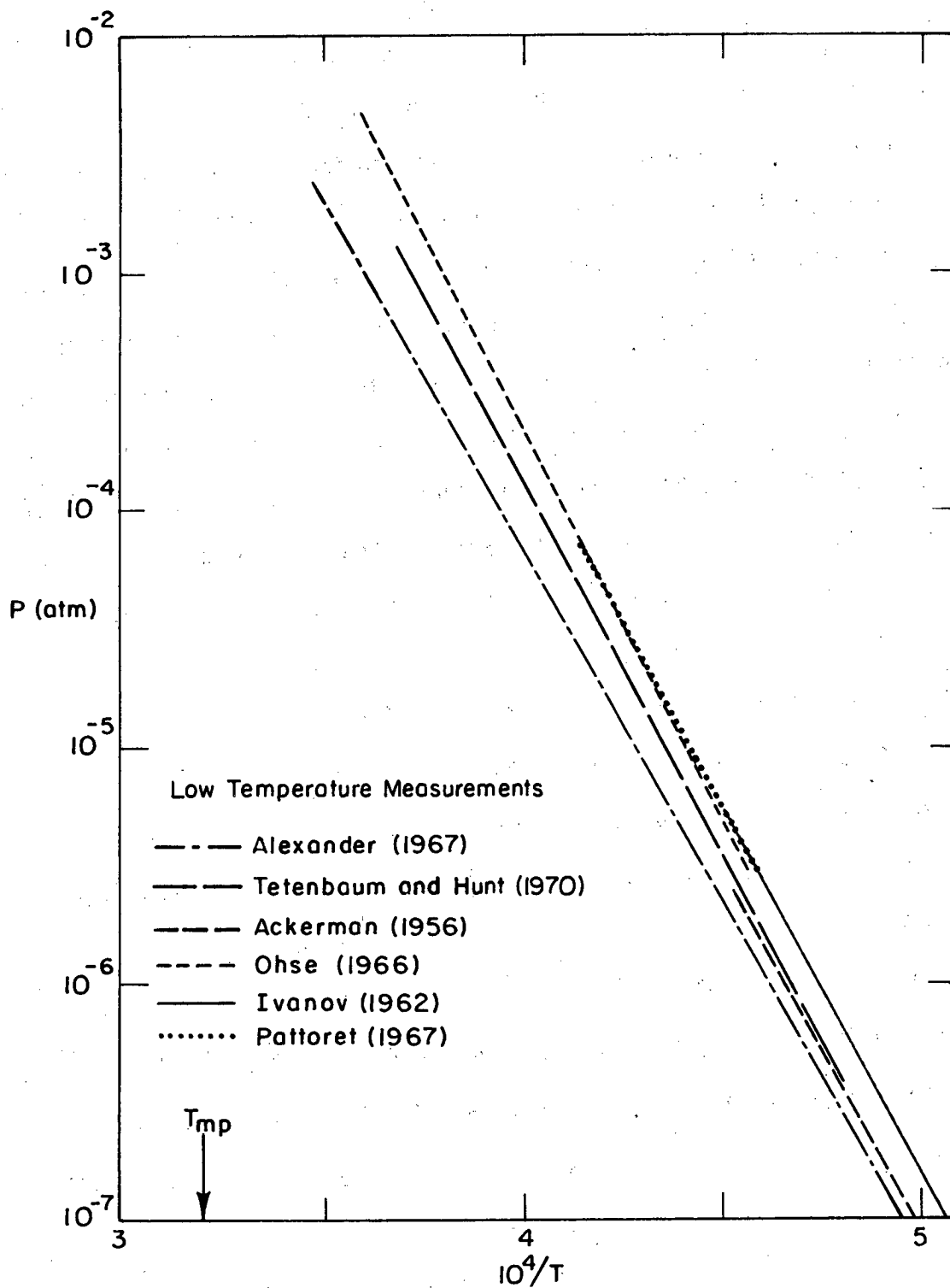
## I. INTRODUCTION

The analysis of a hypothetical core disassembly accident (HCDA) plays an important role in liquid metal fast breeder reactor (LMFBR) safety analysis. Most theoretical analyses originate from a two-dimensional coupled neutronics-hydrodynamics computer code "VENUS" developed by Sha and Hughes[1] or the modified version of it[2,3], in which the termination of a power excursion is assumed to be due to heating and to the negative temperature coefficient of reactivity (due to the Doppler effect) and due to the core expansion driven mainly by the fuel vapor pressure. The analysis of such excursions generally consists of three phases[3]: accident initiation (voiding, meltdown etc.), reactor disassembly (hydrodynamic effects) and containment evaluation (energy-work conversion). The equation of state of the fuel material, which contributes to the last two phases, incorporates the hydrodynamic calculation as the driving force for neutronic disassembly and the conversion of thermal to mechanical energy resulting in the release of deposited energy after termination of the excursion. The peak fuel temperatures in these calculations range from 4000 K to 5000 K, a temperature range where limited knowledge of fuel vapor properties exists to support such analysis.

Currently used in the analysis are the extrapolations from the static measurements performed well below the temperature range of interest[4-10], based upon a few thermophysical or thermochemical models (see Appendix A for the assessment of these models). Fig. 1.1 and Table 1.1 summarize some of the low temperature static measurements. They agree fairly well in magnitude up to ~2500 K, but differ considerably in the enthalpy of vaporization  $\Delta H_{\text{vap}}$ .

Measurements in the temperature range of 4000 K to 5000 K are desirable because

- (i) the present scatter of the input data in the variance analysis leads to an uncertainty of about one order of magnitude (see Appendix A),
- (ii) the conventional measurement techniques, such as the Knudsen effusion and transpiration methods, fail not only because of a lack of high melting crucible materials, but because of a departure from molecular evaporation[11],



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Fig.1.1 Low Temperature Measurements of  $UO_2$  Vapor Pressure

**TABLE 1.1**Saturation Vapor Pressure - Temperature Relation of  $\text{UO}_2$  at Low Temperature Region

Vapor Pressure $\log P(\text{atm}) = -A/T(\text{K}) + B$		Sublimation		Temperature Range (K)	Reference
A	B	$\Delta H^\circ$ kcal/mol	$\Delta S^\circ$ cal/mol-K		
29305	7.539	134.1	34.5	2000 - 2940	Alexander [4]
31284	8.610	143.1	39.4	2080 - 2705	Tetenbaum & Hunt [5]
29961	7.955	137.1	36.4	1600 - 2200	Ackermann [6]
33180	9.545	151.8	43.7	2200 - 2800	Ohse [7]
32146	9.222	147.1	42.2	1920 - 2220	Ivanov [8]
30850	8.60	141.2	39.3	1890 - 2420	Pattoret [9]
27426	7.373			3175 - 3390	Reedy & Chasanov [10]

- (iii) equilibrium saturation data may not well represent the transient behavior in HCDA,
- (iv) direct measurements can help establish a reliable theoretical model for eventual HCDA analysis,
- (v) measurements in the temperature range up to 5000 K can improve further extrapolation to the critical region when it is needed, and

There have been proposed several dynamic pulse heating techniques: electrical resistive [12,13], electron beam [14-16], neutron pulse [17,18] and laser beam [19-27]. Reviews and discussions of various techniques can be found in Refs. 21 and 28. All the dynamic heating techniques are characterized by:

- a temperature range between 4000 K and 5000 K
- evaporation times in the order of millisecond range
- surface recession velocities between 1 and 100 cm/sec.

With the conventional (low-rate) methods, the composition of the evaporating surface is constant during the evaporation process. In the laser pulsing techniques, however, the high evaporation rates and the incongruity of  $\text{UO}_2$  vaporization causes the composition of the evaporating surface to change with time, giving vapor pressures which are different from the equilibrium pressures corresponding to the bulk composition. A computer program was developed to simulate the laser heating process and the surface temperature evolution. This program also considers solid-state diffusion coupled with the heat conduction process. A sample calculation for  $\text{UO}_2$  is given in Section II.3. A sensitivity study of the effect of the uncertainties of the high temperature material properties on the calculation is also presented.

In the experimental portion of the study, laser surface heating is adopted to attain  $\text{UO}_2$  peak surface temperatures from just above the melting temperature (3600 K) up to 4300 K. The surface temperature transient is monitored by a fast-response automatic optical pyrometer. Under ultra-high vacuum, the evaporated molecules are ejected from the surface and form a collision-free Knudsen flow. A quadrupole mass spectrometer is used to identify and analyze the various vapor species in the flow, and to measure the vaporization rate of each species from



the surface. This information yields the partial vapor pressure and the composition in the vapor jet. From the double-peaked mass spectrometer signals, one from high energy ions and the other from neutral molecules, the degree of ionization in the hot vapor is estimated. The formation of polymers (especially dimers) in the ejected vapor is investigated.

Because laser-induced vaporization under an ambient atmosphere is analogous to a free-jet from a sonic orifice, a shock structure is developed by laser pulsing on a solid in an ambient inert gas. This luminous shock can be photographed by a conventional camera. Applying the Mach disc formula, the total vapor pressure corresponding to the maximum surface temperature is obtained.

Additional diagnostics of the phenomenon include collection of the vapor blow-off to determine the extent of droplet production (either by direct emission from the molten surface or by condensation in the rapidly cooling vapor plume) and examination of ion emission from the surface.

## II. MATHEMATICAL SIMULATION OF TRANSIENT LASER HEATING AND VAPORIZATION OF SOLIDS

### II.1. INTRODUCTION

When laser radiation is incident on an absorbing material, all of the resulting effects, such as phase changes (melting and vaporization), thermal stress, thermal radiation and shock waves from the surface and mass transport in the bulk, are associated with the surface temperatures, temperature gradients and composition gradients generated by the transient energy input. The laser energy absorption and conduction is considered as a macroscopic heat transfer process because the laser pulse/material heating time (msec) is far longer than the time for electronic relaxation and transfer of energy to the lattice phonons ( $\sim 10^{-13}$  sec). In addition to the heat conduction problem, the composition redistribution during the transient due to the incongruent evaporation has to be considered when the target material is a compound.

Although laser surface heating technique has been applied for years [29-27] to thermophysical property investigation of liquid phase urania, there has been no attempt to calculate the thermal evolution of a solid urania subject to intense laser impingement.

Ohse et al [22] relied mainly on the pyrometric measurement of surface temperature and surface oxygen depletion was not considered. Their only temperature profile calculation [23] was an adaptation of the Dabby and Paek [29] model. This model assumes a prior (known) steady state surface temperature, called the "evaporation temperature", for the purpose of investigating the influence of the sub-surface temperature profile on the pyrometric measurement of surface temperatures (i.e. the difference in emitted thermal radiation intensity between a uniformly heated sample and the one with non-uniform temperature profile).

At first, Bober et al relied on the gasdynamic model to interpret vapor temperature [19], then switched to the pyrometric measurement [30]. The surface oxygen depletion and oxygen-to-uranium ratio profile was calculated based on the "forced congruent evaporation" model by Breitung [31] assuming a prior steady state, followed by a step temperature change which rapidly

develops a steady state composition profile near the evaporating surface. The basic requirements for the forced congruent evaporation model are the steady state temperature and sufficient time for oxygen diffusion in the solid to reach steady state. These conditions are not met in  $\mu$ -sec transient heating because the characteristic time for oxygen diffusion process is in the same order as the temperature evolution; consequently the asymptotic stationary "congruent" evaporation condition is not obtainable.

In this study, a mathematical model of heat and mass transfer in uranium oxide subject to laser irradiation is developed and solved numerically. It can easily be modified for other surface or near-surface heat sources or/and other solid materials. In the uranium-oxygen system, oxygen is the preferentially vaporizing component, and as a result of the limited mobility of oxygen in the solid, an oxygen deficiency is set up near the surface. Because of the bivalent behavior of near-stoichiometric uranium oxide, the heat transfer problem and the oxygen diffusion problem are coupled and a numerical method of simultaneously solving the two problems in a semi-infinite solid is studied. The temperature dependence of the thermal properties and oxygen diffusivity, as well as the effect of surface ablation, leads to considerable non-linearities in both the governing differential equations and the boundary conditions. The method is based on the earlier analysis by Olstad and Olander [32,33], but the generality of the problem is expanded and the efficiency of the numerical scheme is improved.

## II.2. MATHEMATICAL MODEL

Consider a semi-infinite slab occupying the region  $z \geq 0$ , which is irradiated by a laser pulse. One-dimensional heat conduction, one-dimensional ablation (no radial liquid movement), a planar melting front beneath the surface, and one-dimensional oxygen diffusion are assumed. Melting is treated implicitly via the heat capacity term and heat of vaporization term (see Appendix D section 2). Although the laser spot size on the surface is usually small (-5mm diameter), it is still orders of magnitude larger than the characteristic penetration depth of heat conduction and component depletion by diffusion in most materials, especially refractory materials such as uranium oxide. Transient vaporization due to laser heating is based on the Hertz-Langmuir vacuum vaporization formula because the decrease in surface stoichiometry and the ablation rate can only be quantified based on this assumption. However, allowance is made for backscattering of vaporized molecules by collisions in the vapor adjacent to the surface. The vapor plume created by vaporization is assumed to be transparent to the incident laser radiation.

Either penetration of laser radiation (near-surface volumetric heating) or surface heating is allowed. This option is designed not only to accommodate different optical properties of the materials subject to laser radiation, but also for application of the calculation scheme to other heating techniques, such as exploding wires, electron beam bombardment, energetic ion impingement heating and neutron and gamma ray pulse heating, which have been proposed for the acquisition of thermochemical data or which drive often transient heating phenomena, such as those in pulsed fusion reactors.

### II.2.1 Mass Balance Equation

Due to the low diffusion coefficient of uranium ions in  $\text{UO}_2$  compared with the diffusion coefficient of oxygen ions, the uranium ions are considered to form an immobile lattice through which oxygen can migrate.

The mass balance equation of oxygen in the solid phase is:

$$\frac{\partial C_o}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} j_o^d \quad (2-1)$$

where  $C_o$  = mass concentration of oxygen atom in the solid, g/cm<sup>3</sup>

$j_o^d$  = oxygen diffusive flux in the solid, g/cm<sup>2</sup>-sec.

To account for the possibility of significant ablation from the interphase boundary, we make the following coordinate transformation:

$$x = z - vt \quad (2-2)$$

where  $x$  is the distance from the moving boundary,  $z$  is the coordinate from the original surface, and  $v$  is the ablation (surface recession) velocity.

After the coordinate transformation, the balance equation of oxygen becomes:

$$\frac{\partial C_o}{\partial t} - v \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} j_o^d \quad (2-3)$$

Rearranging this equation, we have:

$$\frac{\partial C_o}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} j_o^d + v \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} \quad (2-4)$$

### II.2.2 Energy Balance Equation

The general energy balance equation for the solid, assuming that oxygen is the only mobile component, is:

$$\rho \frac{\partial \hat{U}}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial q}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (j_o^d \bar{h}_o) + Q_v \quad (2-5)$$

where  $\rho$  = mass density, g/cm<sup>3</sup>

$\hat{U}$  = specific internal energy, J/g

$q$  = heat flux, W/cm<sup>2</sup>

$\bar{h}_o$  = partial specific enthalpy of oxygen, J/g

$Q_v$  = volumetric heat source, W/cm<sup>3</sup>.

For the heat conduction through a condensed, incompressible medium with mobile oxygen and immobile uranium, the specific internal energy  $\hat{U}$  is a function of temperature  $T$  and concentration  $C_o$  only. Therefore,

$$\frac{\partial \hat{U}}{\partial t} = \left( \frac{\partial \hat{U}}{\partial C_o} \right)_T \left( \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial t} \right) + \left( \frac{\partial \hat{U}}{\partial T} \right)_{C_o} \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \right) \quad (2-6)$$

Assuming no mechanical work is done,

$$\hat{U} = \hat{H} = (\bar{h}_o C_o + \bar{h}_U C_U) / \rho \quad (2-7)$$

where  $\bar{h}_U$  = partial specific enthalpy of uranium, J/g

$C_U$  = mass concentration of uranium atom in the solid, g/cm<sup>3</sup>

Since  $\bar{h}_U$  and  $C_U$  are independent of  $C_o$  (because of the assumption that uranium atoms are immobile),

$$\left(\frac{\partial \hat{U}}{\partial C_o}\right)_T = \bar{h}_o / \rho \quad (2-8)$$

Similarly,

$$\left(\frac{\partial \hat{U}}{\partial T}\right)_{C_o} = \left(\frac{\partial \hat{H}}{\partial T}\right)_{C_o} = C_p \quad (2-9)$$

where  $C_p$  is the constant pressure specific heat in J/g-K. Therefore, equation (2-6) becomes:

$$\frac{\partial \hat{U}}{\partial t} = \frac{\bar{h}_o}{\rho} \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial t} + C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \quad (2-10)$$

Substituting Eq. (2-10) into Eq. (2-5) and using the coordinate transformation of Eq. (2-2), we have:

$$\rho C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} - \rho C_{pV} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + \bar{h}_o \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial t} - \bar{h}_o v \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} = - \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (j_o^d \bar{h}_o) + Q_v \quad (2-11)$$

Multiplying Eq. (2-4) by  $\bar{h}_o$  and substituting the result into Eq. (2-11) yields:

$$\rho C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} - \rho C_{pV} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = - \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} - j_o^d \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \bar{h}_o + Q_v \quad (2-12)$$

### II.2.3 Oxygen Diffusive Flux and Heat Flux

Taking into account the Soret and Dufour effects, the mass and heat fluxes are given by:

$$j_o^d = - D_o \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} - \frac{D_o Q^* C_o}{RT^2} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \quad (2-13)$$

$$q = - \frac{D_o Q^*}{M_o} \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} - k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \quad (2-14)$$

where  $D_o$  = diffusion coefficient of oxygen in uranium oxide, cm<sup>2</sup>/sec

$Q^*$  = heat of transport of oxygen in uranium oxide, J/mole

$R$  = gas constant = 8.314 J/K-mole

$M_o$  = atomic weight of oxygen = 16 g/g-atom

$k$  = thermal conductivity, W/cm-K

## II.2.4 Initial and Boundary Conditions

The two balance equations (2-4) and (2-12) are coupled through the two fluxes  $j_o^d$  and  $q$ . In order to solve those two partial differential equations, we need two initial conditions and four boundary conditions.

The initial conditions are:

$$T(x,0) = T_o \text{ and } C_o(x,0) = C_o^o \quad @ \ t=0 \quad (2-15)$$

where  $T_o$  is the initial temperature before laser impingement

and  $C_o^o$  is the initial mass concentration of oxygen.

The boundary conditions are:

(i) at the moving interphase boundary,  $x = 0$ :

As a result of preferential vaporization and the finite supply rate from the bulk, oxygen is depleted at the surface and a concentration gradient is set up inside of the oxide which drives a flux of oxygen atoms towards the surface. The diffusion flux at the surface is given in Eq. (2-13) except all the quantities are evaluated at  $x=0$ .

The mass balance for oxygen atoms at the interphase boundary gives:

$$j_o^d = j_o^g + vC_o^s \quad @ \ x=0 \quad (2-16)$$

where  $C_o^s$  is the mass concentration of oxygen atom of the solid at the surface,  $j_o^g$  is the total vaporization mass flux of oxygen in the gas phase. The latter is:

$$j_o^g = - (3\Phi_{UO_3} + 2\Phi_{UO_2} + \Phi_{UO} + \Phi_O + 2\Phi_{O_2})M_o \quad (2-17)$$

The surface recession velocity,  $v$ , is the ratio of the evaporation mass flux of uranium-bearing species  $j_U^g$  and the mass concentration of uranium atom in the solid  $C_U$ ,

$$v = - j_U^g / C_U = (\Phi_{UO_3} + \Phi_{UO_2} + \Phi_{UO} + \Phi_U)M_U / C_U \quad (2-18)$$

The sign convention is that a flux (mass or heat) is positive if it is in the positive  $x$  direction.

The fluxes are relative to the moving boundary.

The Hertz-Langmuir vaporization rate of species  $i$ ,  $[\Phi_i]_L$  is:

$$[\Phi_i]_L = \frac{P_i}{\sqrt{2\pi M_i R T_s}} \quad \text{mole/cm}^2\text{-sec} \quad (2-19)$$

where  $T_s$  is the surface temperature and  $P_i$  is the equilibrium pressure of species  $i$  over the solid at the surface composition and temperature. The vaporization coefficient is assumed to be unity. The vacuum vaporization formula of Eq. (2-19) is strictly valid only if the vapor plume in front of the solid is collisionless. However, many theoretical investigations [34-36] have shown that even in a collision-dominated vapor plume, the net vaporization rate is at least 82% of that given by Eq. (2-19) (i.e. the fraction of the forward vaporization flux backscattered to the surface is <18%). Thus, the vaporization rates are given by:

$$\Phi_i = (1-\beta)[\Phi_i]_L \quad (2-19a)$$

where  $\beta$  is the backscattering coefficient, 0.18.

Combining Eqs. (2-13) and (2-16), we have:

$$-D_o \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=0} - \frac{D_o Q^* C_o}{RT^2} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=0} = j_o^g + v C_o^s \quad (2-20)$$

The heat flux in the solid at the interphase boundary is balanced by the heat loss carried by the vaporizing species (ablation), the radiation heat loss and the heat flux input from the laser (for surface absorption only), i.e.,

$$(q)_{x=0} = - \sum_i M_i \Phi_i \Delta H_i^v - \epsilon_t \sigma (T_s^4 - T_b^4) + Q_s \quad (2-21)$$

where  $\Delta H_i^v$  = heat of vaporization of species  $i$ , J/g

$T_b$  = the ambient temperature (usually room temperature), K

$\epsilon_t$  = total hemispherical optical emissivity

$\sigma$  = Stefan-Boltzmann constant =  $5.6686 \times 10^{-12}$  J/cm<sup>2</sup>-sec-K<sup>4</sup>

and  $Q_s$  = surface heat source, W/cm<sup>2</sup>.

If the heat source incident on the surface is considered to penetrate into the solid, the volumetric heat source term  $Q_v$  in the energy equation is nonzero and the surface heat source term  $Q_s$  in the boundary condition is zero. Conversely, if the heat source is considered as a surface source,  $Q_s$  is nonzero and  $Q_v$  is zero.

Combining Eqs. (2-14) and (2-21), we have:



$$-\frac{D_o Q^*}{M_o} \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=0} - k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=0} = - \sum_i M_i \Phi_i \Delta H_i^v - \epsilon_i \sigma (T_s^4 - T_b^4) + Q_s \quad (2-22)$$

The boundary condition Eqs. (2-20) and (2-22) can be solved for  $\partial C_o / \partial x$  and  $\partial T / \partial x$  explicitly:

$$\left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)_{x=0} = \frac{\sum_i M_i \Phi_i \Delta H_i^v + \epsilon_i \sigma (T_s^4 - T_b^4) - Q_s + \frac{Q^*}{M_o} (j_o^g + v C_o^s)}{k - \frac{D_o (Q^*)^2 C_o^s}{M_o R T_s^2}} \quad (2-23)$$

$$(i = UO_3, UO_2, UO, U, O, O_2)$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} \right)_{x=0} = \frac{-\frac{k}{D_o} (j_o^g + v C_o^s) - \frac{Q^* C_o^s}{R T_s^2} [\sum_i M_i \Phi_i \Delta H_i^v + \epsilon_i \sigma (T_s^4 - T_b^4) - Q_s]}{k - \frac{D_o (Q^*)^2 C_o^s}{M_o R T_s^2}} \quad (2-24)$$

(ii) far from the evaporating surface in the solid ( $x = \infty$ ):

$$T(\infty, t) = T_o \text{ and } C_o(\infty, t) = C_o^o \quad (2-25)$$

## II.2.5 Oxygen Diffusion and Heat Conduction Equations

Substituting the fluxes, Eqs. (2-13) and (2-14), into the partial differential equations (2-4) and (2-12), we obtain the two boundary value problems to be solved for T and  $C_o$ :

$$\frac{\partial C_o}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( D_o \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} + \frac{D_o Q^* C_o}{R T^2} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) + v \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} \quad (2-26)$$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\rho C_p} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{D_o Q^*}{M_o} \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} + k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) + \left( \frac{D_o}{\rho C_p} \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} + \frac{D_o Q^* C_o}{\rho C_p R T^2} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) \frac{\partial \bar{h}_o}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + \frac{Q_v}{\rho C_p} \quad (2-27)$$

$$\text{I.C.: } T(x, 0) = T_o \text{ and } C_o(x, 0) = C_o^o \text{ @ } t=0 \quad (2-28)$$

$$\text{B.C.: } \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)_{x=0} = \frac{\sum_i M_i \Phi_i \Delta H_i^v + \epsilon_i \sigma (T_s^4 - T_b^4) - Q_s + \frac{Q^*}{M_o} (j_o^g + v C_o^s)}{k - \frac{D_o (Q^*)^2 C_o^s}{M_o R T_s^2}} \quad (2-29)$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial C_o}{\partial x} \right)_{x=0} = \frac{-\frac{k}{D_o} (j_o^g + v C_o^s) - \frac{Q^* C_o^s}{R T_s^2} [\sum_i M_i \Phi_i \Delta H_i^v + \epsilon_i \sigma (T_s^4 - T_b^4) - Q_s]}{k - \frac{D_o (Q^*)^2 C_o^s}{M_o R T_s^2}} \quad (2-30)$$

$$T(\infty, t) = T_o \text{ and } C_o(\infty, t) = C_o^o \text{ @ } x=\infty \quad (2-31)$$

## II.2.6 Approximate Conservation Equations

In this study, an approximate solution is obtained by assuming that  $Q^*$  and  $\partial \bar{h}_o / \partial x$  are zero; in other words, the thermal diffusion (Soret and Dufour effects) of oxygen is neglected and the oxygen diffusion does not transport any energy. Dependence of the physical properties of the solid or liquid on oxygen concentration is neglected, but their temperature dependence is accounted for. Also, the ablation heat term  $\sum_i M_i \Phi_i \Delta H_i^v$  is approximated by  $j_{tot} \Delta H_{vap}$ , where  $\Delta H_{vap}$  is the heat of vaporization from  $P_{tot}$ - $T$  relation ( $P_{tot}$  is the total vapor pressure of  $UO_2$ ) and  $j_{tot}$  is the total vaporization flux.

$$j_{tot} = \sum_i M_i \Phi_i \quad (2-32)$$

The validity of these approximations has been tested and found to be acceptable.

In reality, it is the oxygen-to-uranium ratio, O/U, in which we are interested rather than the oxygen concentration  $C_o$ . Let us define the oxygen-to-uranium ratio  $r = \frac{C_o/M_o}{C_U/M_U}$ . Since the concentration of uranium  $C_U$  is assumed constant, we can obtain equations for  $r$  simply multiplying the equations involving  $C_o$  by  $\frac{M_U}{M_o C_U}$ . Also, the optical absorbtivity can be increased by a preheating technique (see section III.1.3) which eliminates sub-surface heating, so that we can drop the volumetric heat source term  $Q_v$ . For laser surface heating,  $Q_s$  in the boundary condition can be expressed as  $(1-R)q_p(t)$ , where  $R$  is the reflectivity of solid surface to the laser light and  $q_p(t)$  is the laser power density on the surface at time  $t$ .

With the above simplifications and variable change, the governing equations become:

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (D_o \frac{\partial r}{\partial x}) + v \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} \quad (2-33)$$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\rho C_p} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}) + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \quad (2-34)$$

$$\text{I.C.: } T(x,0) = T_o \text{ and } r(x,0) = r_o \quad (2-35)$$

$$\text{B.C.: } (\frac{\partial T}{\partial x})_{x=0} = \frac{1}{k_s} [j_{tot} \Delta H_{vap} + \epsilon_s \sigma (T_s^4 - T_b^4) - (1-R)q_p(t)] \quad (2-36)$$

$$(\frac{\partial r}{\partial x})_{x=0} = - \frac{1}{D_o^s} (\frac{j_o^s M_U}{C_U M_o} + v r_s) \quad (2-37)$$

$$T(\infty, t) = T_o \text{ and } r(\infty, t) = r_o \quad (2-38)$$

where  $r_s$  and  $r_o$  are the oxygen-to-uranium ratios of the solid at the surface and in the bulk, respectively.

The species evaporation rates  $\Phi_i$  which contribute to the total ablation rate  $j_{tot}$  are obtainable from Eqs. (2-19) and (2-19a) if the partial vapor pressures of all gaseous species are known functions of surface temperature and surface O/U ratio. The  $\Phi_i$  also determine the ablation velocity  $v$  by Eq. (2-18) and the oxygen vaporization flux by Eq. (2-17). The vaporization terms in the boundary conditions couple the heat conduction and oxygen diffusion problems. The objective of the calculation is the  $\Phi_i$  which are related to the signals detected by the mass spectrometer in the vacuum experiment. In addition, the calculation produces the temperature of the surface  $T_s$  which is also measured by the optical pyrometer. Both  $\Phi_i$  and  $T_s$  are functions of time, and are measured from the time of impingement of the laser on the surface.

The standard classical reference on the conduction heat transfer analysis is the book by Carslaw and Jaeger[37], in which a number of exact solutions are given for semi-infinite solids that are subjected to a variety of initial and surface conditions. In almost all of the problems for which an exact solution is possible, the thermal properties  $k$ ,  $\rho$  and  $C_p$  are taken to be constant. In addition, the problems amenable to analytic solutions have linear initial and boundary conditions. However, in our case, the considerable nonlinearities resulting from the temperature-dependent thermal properties, the convectivelike term appearing from coordinate transformation, and the nonlinear boundary conditions containing the strong temperature-dependent ablative and radiation heat loss terms, make exact solution impossible.

The system of Eqs. (2-33) - (2-38) is solved numerically by the method described in Appendix B. The most commonly used numerical method for solving this kind of problem is the finite difference method[38-42]. Although it has been found that the finite difference method is not very efficient for highly nonlinear problems, it turns out to work quite well with a smoothly-varying heat source which drives the transient, with a predictor-corrector scheme for constructing a good initial guess for the iterations and by the use of varying time and space

increments.

The material properties of  $\text{UO}_2$  required in the analysis are given in Appendix D. They are permitted to vary with temperature but not with oxygen-to-uranium ratio. The overall effect of the vaporization process is to make the surface of the urania hypostoichiometric. Although the diffusivity of oxygen in solid  $\text{UO}_{2-x}$  has not yet been measured, it is almost certainly composition-dependent and larger than that in  $\text{UO}_2$ . However, the surface is melted very shortly at the initiation of a high energy laser pulse, and the diffusivity of oxygen in liquid  $\text{UO}_{2-x}$  is the important quantity. Its value is completely unknown but it is doubtful that concentration effects are as important as temperature effects in the liquid range.

### II.3 SAMPLE ANALYSES FOR $\text{UO}_2$ VAPORIZATION

Two computer programs have been developed in this study. The program "STAR" (Surface Temperature And composition Ratio calculation) is for the materials which vaporize incongruently, so that the surface composition changes are coupled with a temperature transient. In this program, one-dimensional time-dependent heat conduction and diffusion equations are solved considering melting, the moving boundary, ablation, and radiation heat losses. The program "SURFT" (SURFace Temperature calculation) is for the materials which vaporize congruently so that no diffusion process is involved and only one-dimensional heat conduction equation with the moving boundary and ablation and radiation heat losses is solved.

Depending on the laser high voltage used to achieve different energy levels, the laser output has different pulse shape. These are shown in Fig. 2.1 for 10 joules and 30 joules pulses. The power density for use in Eq. (2-36) is determined from the pulse energy and the normalized laser pulse shape by the method described in Section III.2.1. Table C.1 of Appendix C shows an example of the input deck of the program "STAR" with total laser energy of 10 joules and the pulse shape shown by the solid line in Fig. 2.1.

Fig. 2.2 shows the results of the "STAR" computer run for 10 joules. The initial temperature ( $T_0$ ) is 1600 K. The surface composition depletion is about 1.95 at 10 joules and as low as 1.75 at 30 joules. The maximum surface temperature from "STAR" is 3954 K for 10 joules and 4607 K for 30 joules. Corresponding to these surface temperatures, the "forced congruent" model[31] gives surface compositions of about 1.89 at 3954 K and about 1.57 at 4607 K. Fig. 2.3 shows the temperature and O/U distribution in the  $\text{UO}_2$  at the time that the maximum temperature is achieved. The oxygen-depleted zone is seen to extent to a depth of  $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$ .

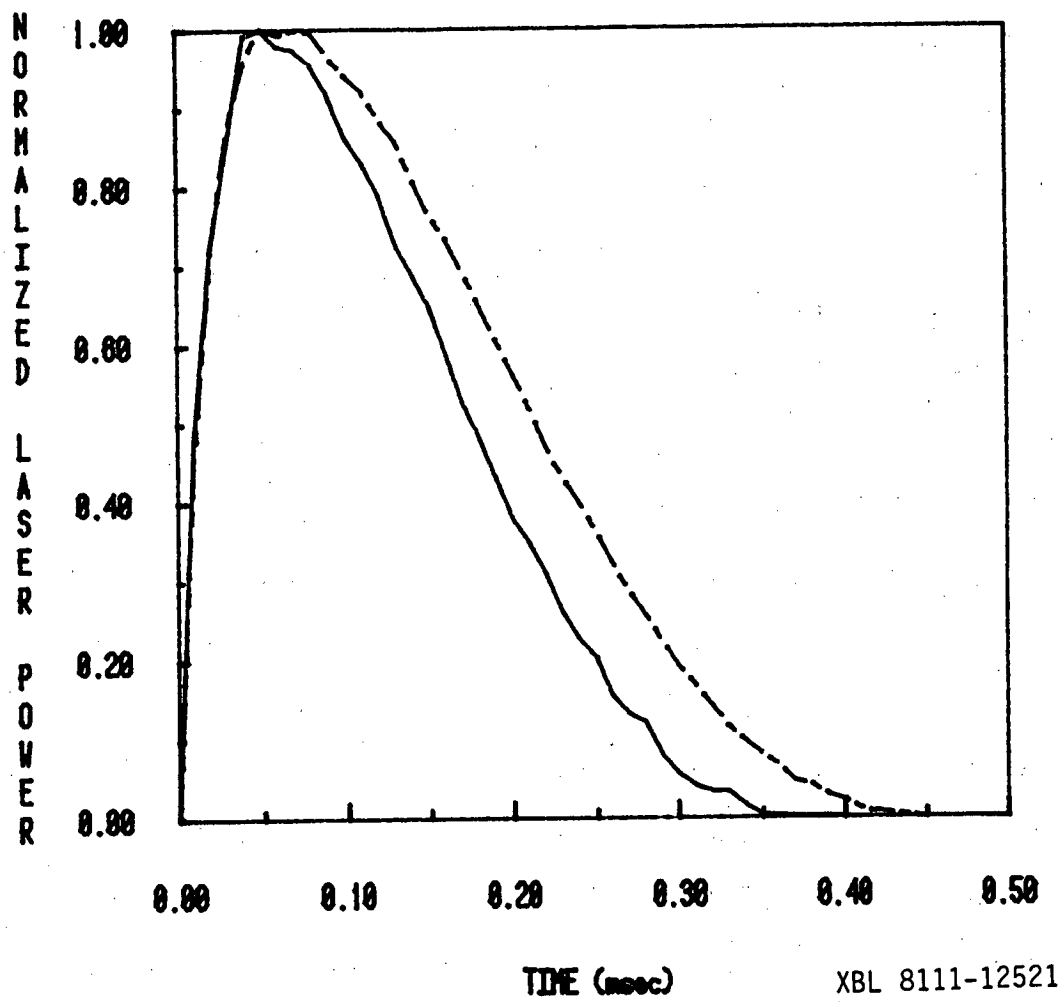


Fig. 2.1 Normalized Laser Temporal Shape

—— 7.32 < E < 10.6 joules

- - - - 11.4 < E < 16.8 joules

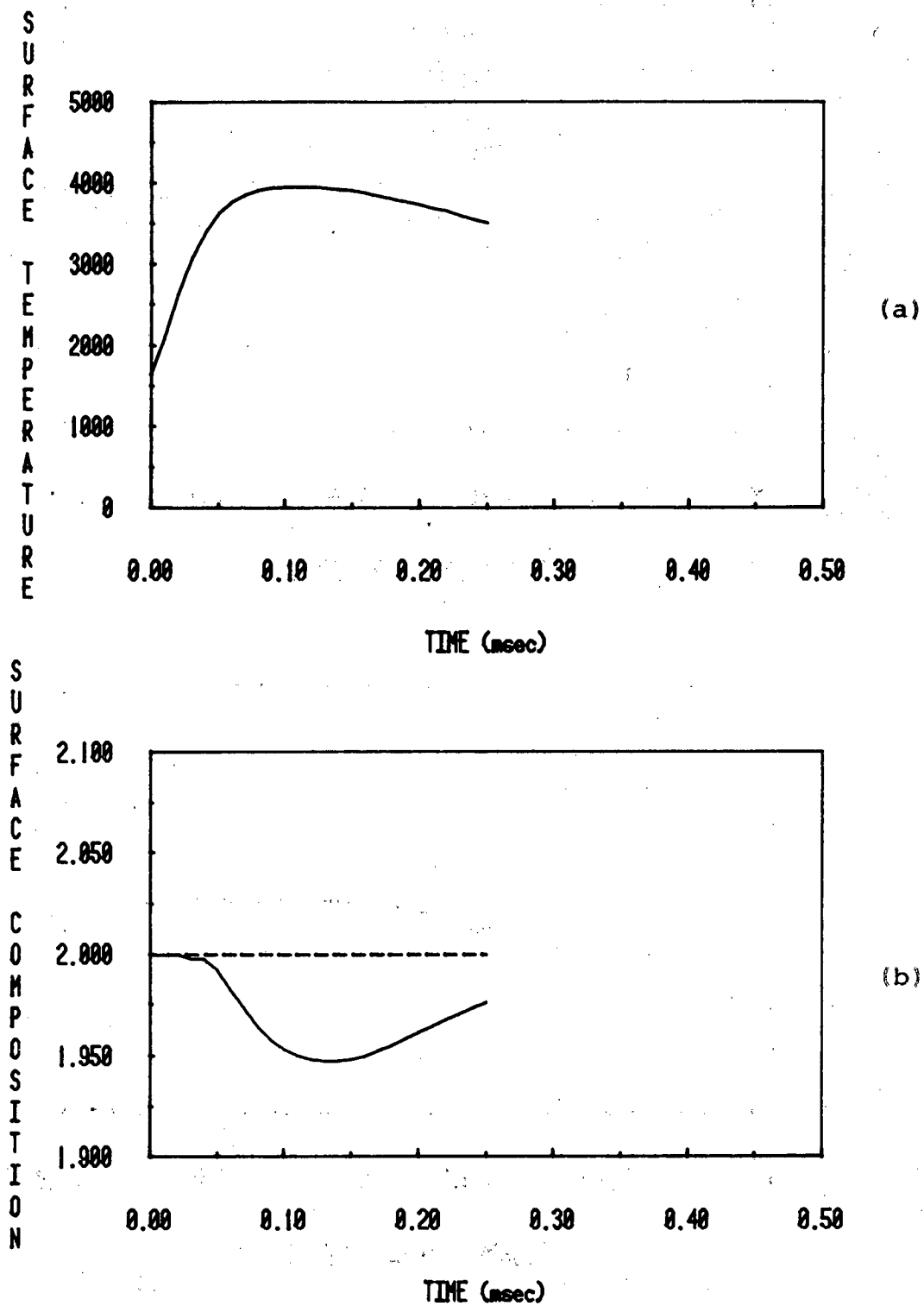
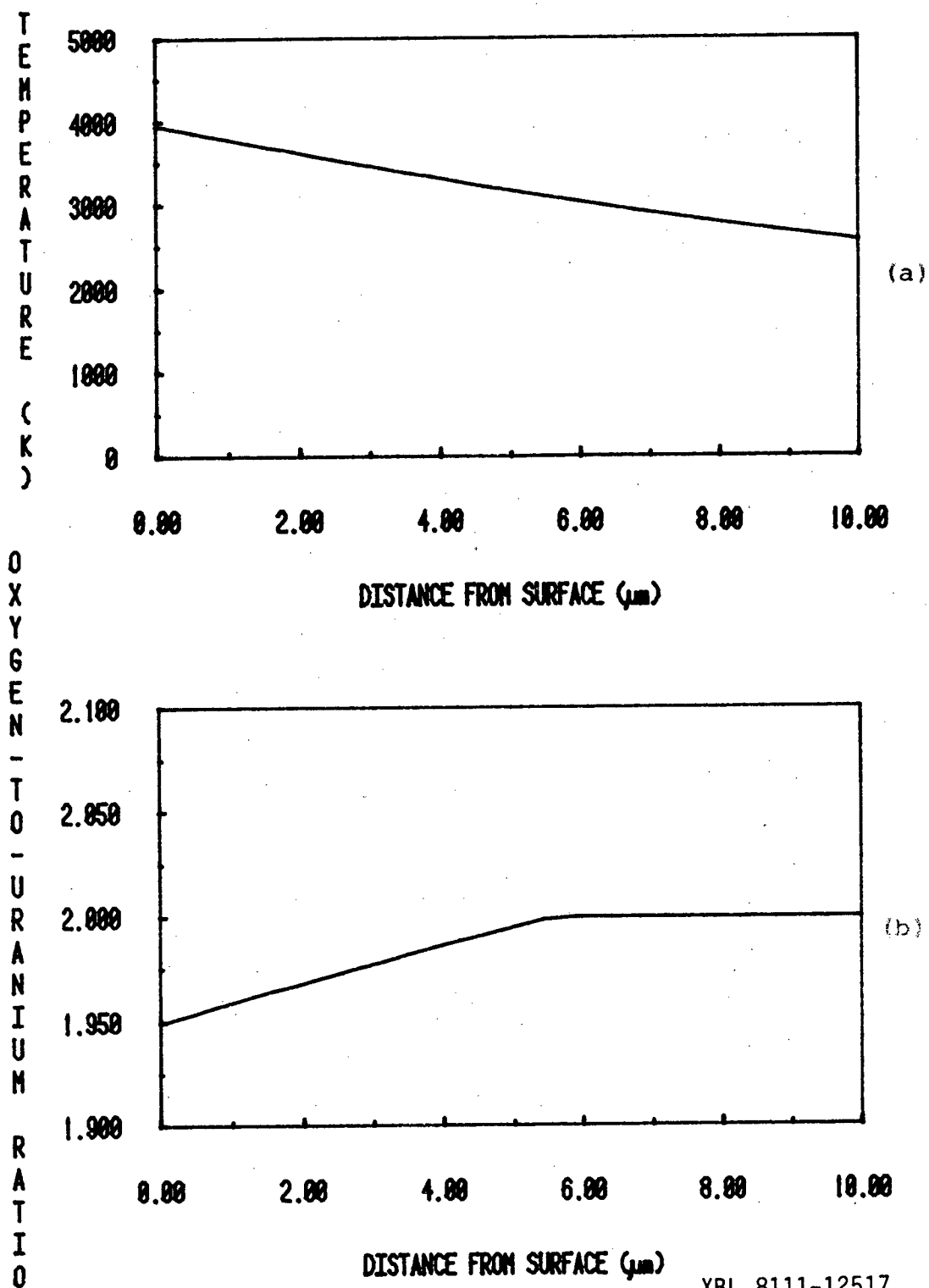


Fig. 2.2 (a) The Surface Temperature Transient and (b) The Surface Composition Transient for a 10 J Laser Pulse on  $\text{UO}_2$

XBL 8110-12279



XBL 8111-12517

Fig. 2.3 (a) Temperature Distribution and (b) Oxygen-to-Uranium Ratio Profile in  $\text{UO}_2$  Subject to a 10 J Laser Pulse (at Maximum Surface Temperature)



## II.4 SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF THE PROPERTY UNCERTAINTIES

Some of the material properties of liquid  $\text{UO}_2$  provided in Appendix D have not been precisely measured. A sensitivity study is to investigate the effect of these property uncertainties on the calculation described in the previous sections. The method of uncertainty analysis selected for use with STAR code is the Response Surface Method (RSM) [107,108].

### II.4.1 Background of Response Surface Method

Any of the output variables of a computer code may be termed a "response". The response of the output variables to the input variables defines a surface termed "response surface". The response surface method of uncertainty analysis is based on a systematic sampling of the true response surface which is then approximated by a polynomial equation in the input variables.

Let  $Y(z_i)$  denote the code response as a function of  $z = z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k$  input variables. The Taylor's series expansion about any point  $\mu_i$  is then given by:

$$Y(z_i) = Y(\mu_i) + \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\partial Y(\mu_i)}{\partial z_i} (z_i - \mu_i) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\partial^2 Y(\mu_i)}{\partial z_i^2} (z_i - \mu_i)^2 + \sum_{i,j>i}^k \frac{\partial^2 Y(\mu_i)}{\partial z_i \partial z_j} (z_i - \mu_i)(z_j - \mu_j) + \text{higher order terms} \quad (2-39)$$

It has been shown that a range of plus and minus one standard deviation ( $\pm 1\sigma$ ) in the input variable uncertainties permit construction of a sample surface small enough so that the true response surface can be reasonably approximated by a second order polynomial. Furthermore, multiplying and dividing each term of Eq. (2-39) by one standard deviation,  $\sigma_i$ , of the appropriate variable leads to the following form of the equation:

$$Y(z_i) = Y(\mu_i) + \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\partial Y(\mu_i) \sigma_i}{\partial z_i} \frac{(z_i - \mu_i)}{\sigma_i} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\partial^2 Y(\mu_i) \sigma_i^2}{\partial z_i^2} \frac{(z_i - \mu_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2} + \sum_{i,j>i}^k \frac{\partial^2 Y(\mu_i)}{\partial z_i \partial z_j} \frac{\sigma_i \sigma_j}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} \frac{(z_i - \mu_i)(z_j - \mu_j)}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} \quad (2-40)$$

Now, let us define the response parameters as follows:

$$C_0 = Y(\mu_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
C_i &= \frac{\partial Y(\mu_i)}{\partial z_i} \sigma_i \\
C_{ii} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 Y(\mu_i)}{\partial z_i^2} \sigma_i^2 \\
C_{ij} &= \frac{\partial^2 Y(\mu_i)}{\partial z_i \partial z_j} \sigma_i \sigma_j \\
x_i &= \frac{z_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}
\end{aligned} \tag{2-41}$$

Then Eq. (2-40) is simplified to a normal form:

$$Y(x_i) = C_o + \sum_{i=1}^k C_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^k C_{ii} x_i^2 + \sum_{i,j>i}^k C_{ij} x_i x_j \tag{2-42}$$

where  $x_i$  are dimensionless standard deviations.

The procedures of the analysis then come as follows:

- (1) Select a base case problem.
- (2) Make a choice of the output responses to be investigated and input variables to be perturbed.
- (3) Design a pattern of input variable perturbation (to be described in the next section); run the problem as many times as the design dictates, each time varying the input variables according to the pattern.
- (4) Generate the response surface equations from the results of the runs.
- (5) Solve the response surface equations for the response parameters  $C$ 's; estimate the mean and variances of the responses (second order mean  $\mu = C_o + \sum_{i=1}^k C_{ii}$  and variance

$$\sigma_y^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k C_i^2 + \sum_{i,j>i}^k C_{ij}^2.$$

- (6) Estimate the fractional contributions of the input variables to the response variance

$$(FC_i = C_i^2 / \sum_{i=1}^k C_i^2).$$

#### II.4.2 Input Variables Perturbation Pattern

The design of the perturbation pattern chosen for this study is called Two Level Factorial design [108]. "Two level" refers to the fact that each factor (input variable) is evaluated at two different values (e.g. plus and minus one standard deviation). "Factorial" means that factor will be perturbed simultaneously, rather than the usually used "one-at-a-time" perturbation, with permutations of the original pattern used to obtain a sufficient number of runs. Each run generates one point on the response surface  $Y$ , and if  $n$  runs are required, a set of  $n$  equations with the form of Eq. (2-42) and coefficients either  $+1$  or  $-1$  is constructed to solve for the  $C$ 's.

#### II.4.3 Sensitivity Study for $UO_2$ Vaporization

The material properties chosen as uncertain input variables for sensitivity study are chosen as the thermal conductivity, the oxygen diffusion coefficient and the heat of vaporization for liquid phase  $UO_2$ . All the other properties are considered relatively accurate compared to these three factors. The output variables to be investigated are the maximum surface temperature and the surface composition at the time when surface temperature is maximum. Table 2.1 lists the value of the input variables used in the computer runs and the response of each run.

The next step is to generate the response surface equations for the perturbation pattern shown in Table 2.1:

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_1 &= C_0 + C_1 + C_2 + C_3 + C_{11} + C_{22} + C_{33} + C_{12} + C_{23} + C_{13} \\
 y_2 &= C_0 - C_1 + C_2 - C_3 + C_{11} + C_{22} + C_{33} - C_{12} - C_{23} + C_{13} \\
 y_3 &= C_0 + C_1 - C_2 + C_3 + C_{11} + C_{22} + C_{33} - C_{12} - C_{23} + C_{13} \\
 y_4 &= C_0 - C_1 + C_2 + C_3 + C_{11} + C_{22} + C_{33} - C_{12} + C_{23} - C_{13} \\
 y_5 &= C_0 - C_1 - C_2 - C_3 + C_{11} + C_{22} + C_{33} + C_{12} + C_{23} + C_{13} \\
 y_6 &= C_0 - C_1 - C_2 + C_3 + C_{11} + C_{22} + C_{33} + C_{12} - C_{23} - C_{13} \\
 y_7 &= C_0 + C_1 + C_2 - C_3 + C_{11} + C_{22} + C_{33} + C_{12} - C_{23} - C_{13}
 \end{aligned} \tag{2-43}$$

where subscript 1 denotes thermal conductivity, 2 denotes oxygen diffusion coefficient, and 3 denotes heat of vaporization.

Letting  $\mu = C_0 + C_{11} + C_{22} + C_{33}$ , which is equal to the mean, Eq. (2-43) can be expressed as

a matrix equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \\ y_5 \\ y_6 \\ y_7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ C_1 \\ C_2 \\ C_3 \\ C_{12} \\ C_{23} \\ C_{13} \end{bmatrix} \quad (2-44)$$

After Gaussian elimination, Eq. (2-44) becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ C_1 \\ C_2 \\ C_3 \\ C_{12} \\ C_{23} \\ C_{13} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \frac{1}{2}(y_1 - y_2) \\ \frac{1}{2}(y_1 - y_3) \\ \frac{1}{2}(y_4 - y_2) \\ \frac{1}{4}(y_1 + y_5 - y_2 - y_3) \\ \frac{1}{4}(y_4 + y_5 - y_2 - y_6) \\ \frac{1}{4}(y_1 + y_2 - y_4 - y_7) \end{bmatrix} \quad (2-45)$$

Therefore, the coefficients  $\mu$ ,  $C_i$ 's can be solved:

$$\begin{aligned} C_{13} &= \frac{1}{4}(y_1 + y_2 - y_4 - y_7) \\ C_{23} &= \frac{1}{4}(y_4 + y_5 - y_2 - y_6) \\ C_{12} &= \frac{1}{4}(y_1 + y_6 - y_3 - y_4) \\ C_3 &= \frac{y_4 - y_2}{2} - C_{23} + C_{13} \\ C_2 &= \frac{y_1 - y_3}{2} - C_{12} - C_{13} \\ C_1 &= \frac{y_1 - y_2}{2} - C_3 - C_{12} - C_{13} \\ \mu &= y_1 - C_1 - C_2 - C_3 - C_{12} - C_{13} - C_{23} \end{aligned} \quad (2-46)$$

Applying Eq. (2-46) to the responses maximum surface temperature and surface composition at this temperature respectively can yield the response mean and the coefficient  $C$ 's, from which the variances and the fractional contributions of the three input variables to the variance

can be calculated. The result is shown in Table 2.2. Fig. 2.4 Shows a mean and variance of a surface temperature with time for 10 joules laser energy. Fig. 2.5a & b plot the theoretical means of maximum surface temperature and surface composition at this temperature against laser incident energy respectively, with a band of variances estimated. As expected, uncertainties in  $k$  and  $\Delta H_v$  have the greatest effect on the thermal response while the uncertainty in  $D_0$  affects principally the O/U ratio.

TABLE 2.1

Input and Output Variables (Responses) of Sensitivity Study  
for Laser Evaporation of  $\text{UO}_2$

Run#	$E_i$ (joules)	Input Variable			Response	
		$x_1^*$	$x_2^{**}$	$x_3^{***}$	$T_s^{\max}$ (K)	$(O/U)_{T_s^{\max}}$
I-1	10	+1	+1	+1	3865	1.9691
I-2		-1	+1	-1	4155	1.9290
I-3		+1	-1	+1	3895	1.9020
I-4		-1	+1	+1	4016	1.9531
I-5		-1	-1	-1	4195	1.7997
I-6		-1	-1	+1	4052	1.8658
I-7		+1	+1	-1	3973	1.9549
II-1	16.8	+1	+1	+1	4159	1.9206
II-2		-1	+1	-1	4430	1.8468
II-3		+1	-1	+1	4206	1.7966
II-4		-1	+1	+1	4260	1.8979
II-5		-1	-1	-1	4502	1.6547
II-6		-1	-1	+1	4320	1.7421
II-7		+1	+1	-1	4308	1.8829
III-1	30	+1	+1	+1	4550	1.8069
III-2		-1	+1	-1	4827	1.6969
III-3		+1	-1	+1	4639	1.5954
III-4		-1	+1	+1	4623	1.7860
III-5		-1	-1	-1	4952	1.4638
III-6		-1	-1	+1	4732	1.5559
III-7		+1	+1	-1	4737	1.7283

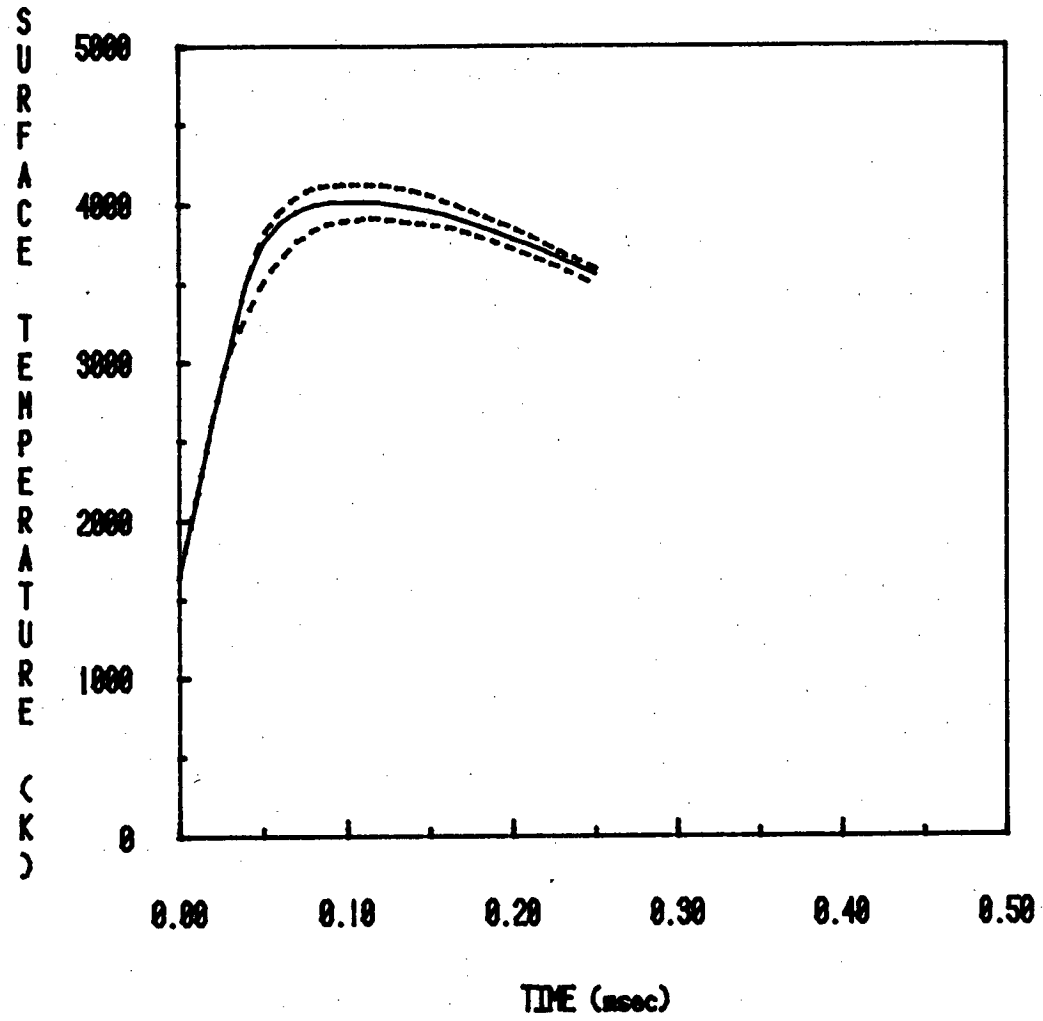
\*  $x_1=+1$ :  $k = 0.044 \text{ W/cm-K}$ ;  $x_1=-1$ :  $k = 0.031 \text{ W/cm-K}$

\*\*  $x_2=+1$ :  $D_o = 1.59 \times 10^{-2} e^{-2516/T}$ ;  $x_2=-1$ :  $D_o = 3.03 \times 10^{-1} e^{-24800/T} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$

\*\*\*  $x_3=+1$ :  $\Delta H_v = 1959 \text{ J/g}$ ;  $\Delta H_v = 979.5 \text{ J/g}$

**TABLE 2.2****Measured Variances of the Responses from STAR Code**

Energy (joules)	Maximum Surface Temperature (K)					Oxygen-to-Uranium Ratio				
	mean	variance	% contribution			mean	variance	% contribution		
			k	D <sub>o</sub>	ΔH <sub>v</sub>			k	D <sub>o</sub>	ΔH <sub>v</sub>
10	4018	107	65	2	33	1.9185	0.0463	2	79	19
16.8	4318	105	32	7	61	1.8195	0.0832	20	78	2
30	4738	124	14	19	67	1.6396	0.1224	3	85	12

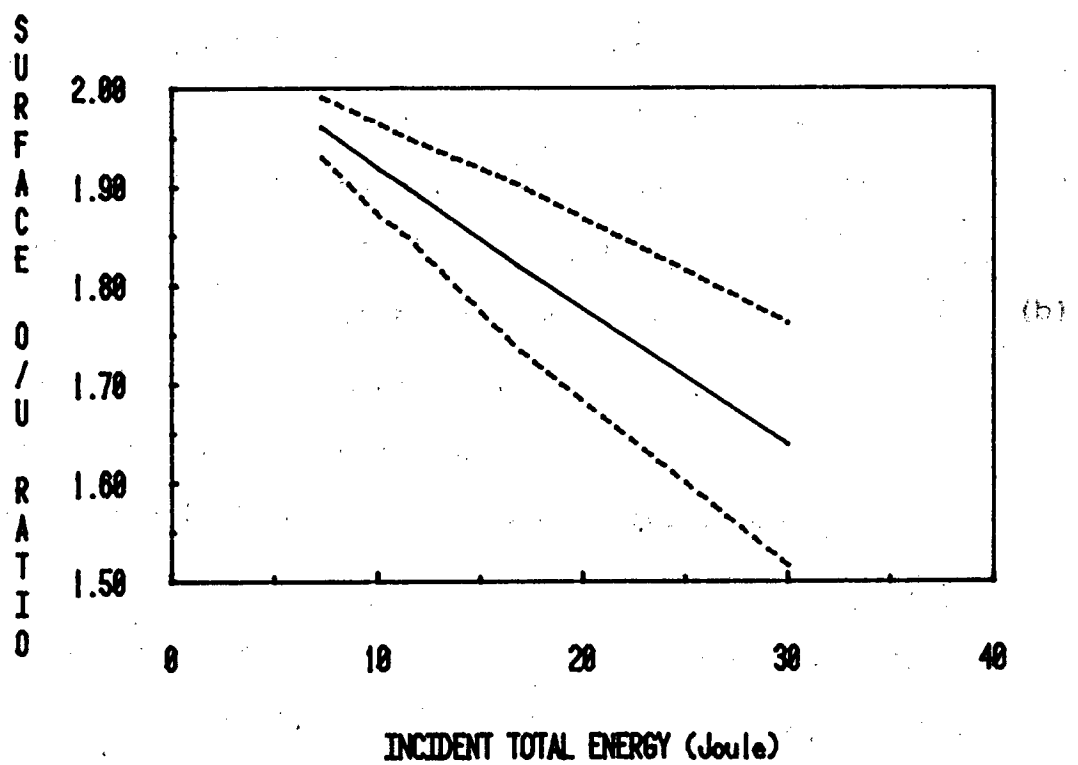
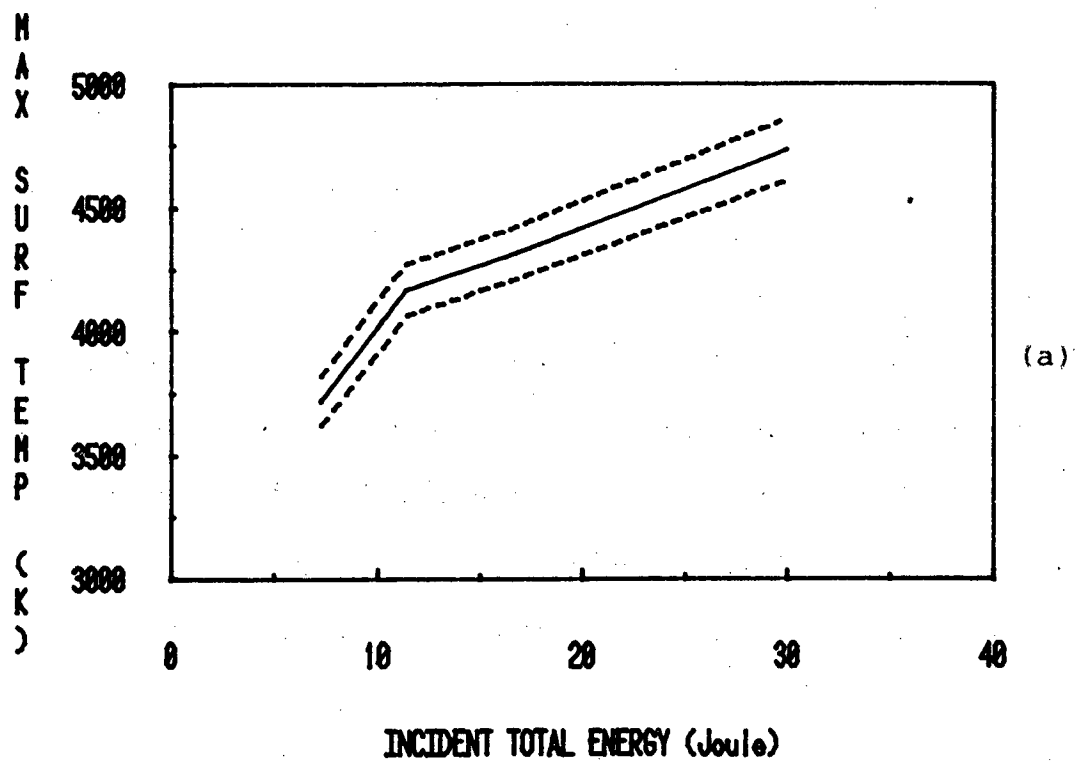


————— Mean of Theoretical Calculation  
----- Confidence Limits of Theoretical Calculation

XBL 8111-12510

Fig. 2.4 Mean and Variance of Surface Temperature Transient for a 10 J Laser Pulse from Sensitivity Analysis





XBL 8111-12511

Fig. 2.5 Theoretical Mean of (a) Maximum Surface Temperature and (b) Surface Composition at Maximum Surface Temperature versus Incident Laser Energy

### III. EXPERIMENTAL

#### III.1. APPARATUS

##### III.1.1 Overall

The overall system can be divided into five parts: the laser system, the target vacuum chamber, the detector vacuum chamber, the optical pyrometer and the transient data recording device. Each part of the system will be described in detail in subsequent sections. Fig. 3.1 shows a sketch of the system set-up and Fig. 3.2 is an overall view.

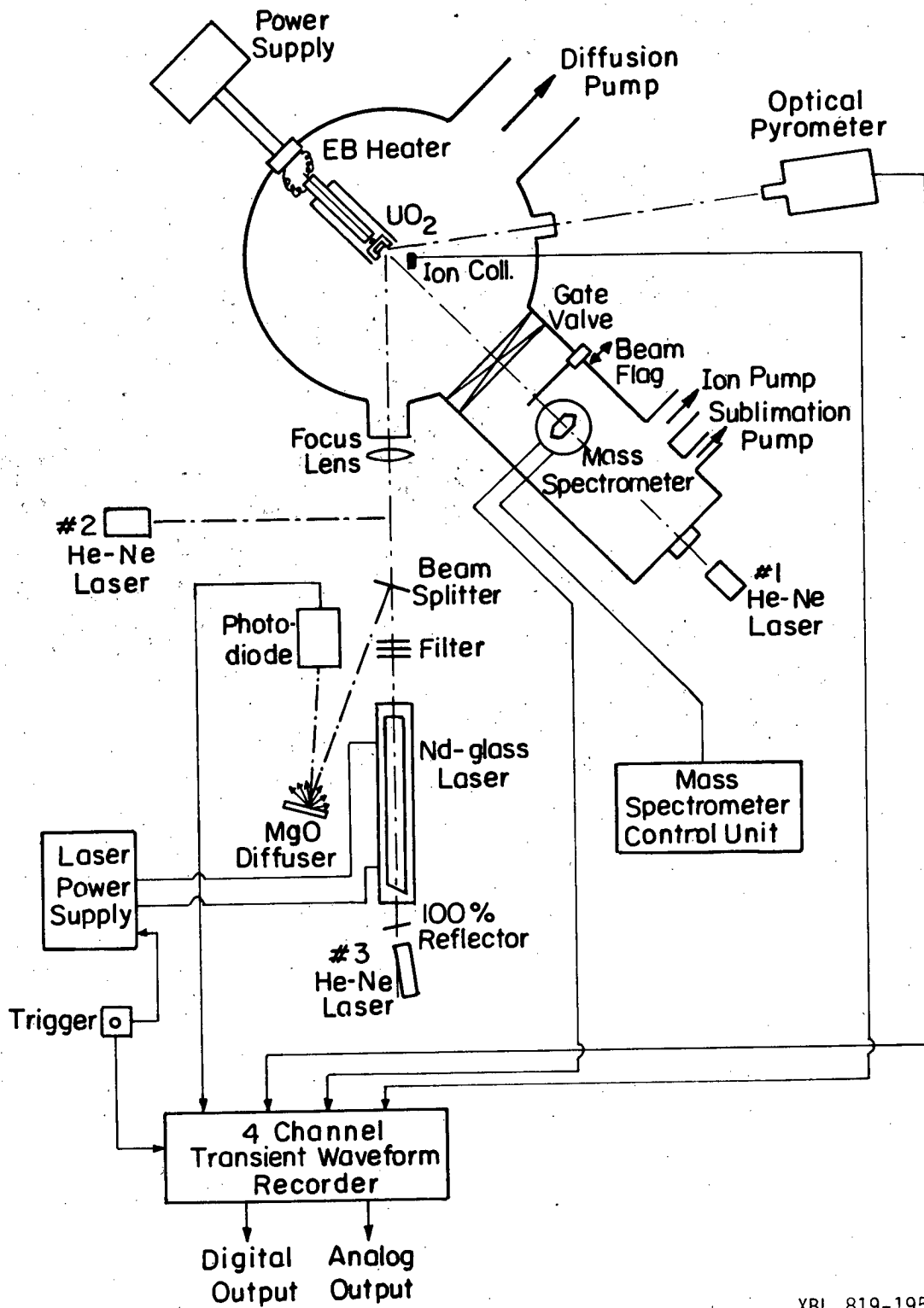
The whole system is aligned with the help of three He-Ne CW gas lasers. Their functions are:

- (#1) positions the electron bombardment heater holding the  $\text{UO}_2$  target by shooting from the window in the end of the mass spectrometer chamber through the ionizer, the two collimating apertures and onto the target.
- (#2) aligns the 100% rear mirror reflector and the plane output reflector (-8% reflection) in the Nd-glass laser cavity for efficient pumping by shooting from the front end of the Nd-glass laser cavity (for the complete alignment procedure see Ref. 43).
- (#3) aligns the Nd-glass laser on the target by shooting from the rear end of the Nd-glass laser, through the laser rod, the optical components, and hitting the same spot as gas laser #1. The optical pyrometer is aligned by focusing it on the same spot illuminated by gas lasers #1 and #3.

Since the three He-Ne gas lasers and the optical pyrometer are sitting on very stable and precisely adjustable Hercules tripods respectively, the alignment procedure, although tedious and time consuming, could be done very accurately.

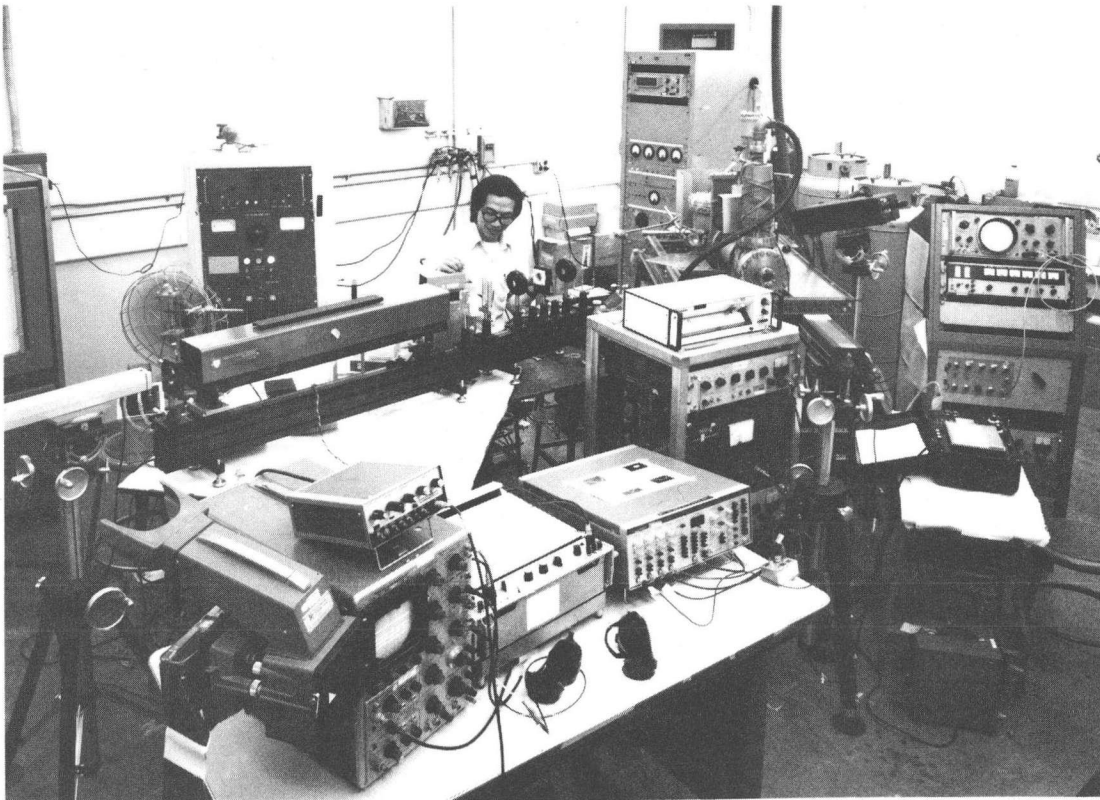
##### III.1.2 Laser System

The laser system is composed of an American Optical 1.06  $\mu\text{m}$  Nd-glass laser with rod replaced by an Owens-Illinois ED-2-3 silicate glass rod doped with 3%  $\text{Nd}^{+3}$  ions (concentration



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Fig. 3.1 The Apparatus Setup of the Laser-Induced Vaporization Study by Mass Spectrometry



CBB 818-7826

Fig. 3.2 Photograph of the Experimental Apparatus.  
(From left to right: He-Ne Laser, Nd-glass Laser, Laser Power Supply on the back, Photodiode, Vacuum System, Electron Beam Heater Power Supply on the back, Optical Pyrometer, Mass Spectrometer Controller. On the front table are Scope, X-Y Plotter, and Transient Waveform Recorder.)

of  $0.91 \times 10^{20}/\text{cm}^3$ ). The rod diameter is 1/2 inches and total length is about 20 inches so that the rod length-to-diameter ratio is optimized at 40 for maximum efficiency [43,44]. The rod is distilled-water-cooled on the outside as are the ends. The laser is optically pumped by two linear xenon flashtubes closely coupled to the laser rod with a highly reflective silver reflector. "Conventional" mode is used in this experiment, which means that the laser pulse width is governed by the flash discharge duration ( $\sim 200 \mu\text{sec}$ ). The laser output energy used is about 20 joules and the energy incident on the target can be varied by a set of neutral density filters right following the output reflector. The measured beam divergence is around 12 milliradians and the spot size on the target, after passing through a 100 cm beam correcting lens and a 20 cm focusing lens, is an ellipse with minor and major radii of 3.3 and 4.7 mm. The laser beam is partially split to a MgO diffuser and detected by a calibrated Korad KD-1 photodiode, the signal from which is recorded by the first channel of Biomation 1015 transient recorder (to be described later). This gives the laser energy trace and the power as a function of time (normalized power shape as well).

### III.1.3 Target Chamber

The target chamber is pumped to  $10^{-7}$  torr by a 500 liters/sec, 6-inch NRC vacuum diffusion pump with a Granville-Phillips liquid nitrogen cold trap. The  $\text{UO}_2$  target is mounted on a tungsten cap on the head of an electron bombardment heater.  $\text{UO}_2$  sample is a 1.18 cm diameter, 1 mm thickness wafer, cut from the pellets provided by General Electric Co., and the surface exposed to laser is polished by silicon carbide abrasives and diamond paste to  $\sim 6 \mu\text{m}$  roughness. The tungsten holder is heated from a heated tungsten filament, and the  $\text{UO}_2$  sample is then heated by thermal conduction. The electron bombardment heater as shown in Fig. 3.3 is mounted on a rotary feed-through fixed on the vacuum flange so that the target could be rotated after each shot to provide fresh areas for subsequent laser pulses. The heater served to (i) heat  $\text{UO}_2$  up to  $\sim 2400^\circ\text{C}$  for mass spectrometer calibration and (ii) preheat the sample to  $\sim 1400^\circ\text{C}$ , the ductile-to-brittle transition temperature of  $\text{UO}_2$  [45], in order to avoid sample cracking resulting from the large thermal stress induced by laser heating; at this

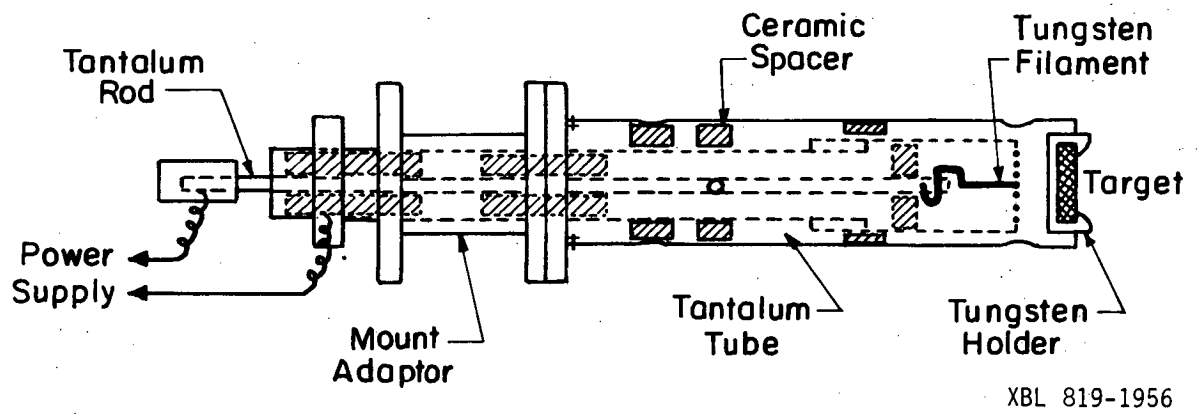


Fig. 3.3 Electron Beam Bombardment Heater

temperature, the light absorption cut-off of  $\text{UO}_2$  is also shifted to a wavelength of  $1.3 \mu\text{m}$  [46] (longer than that of Nd-glass laser  $1.06 \mu\text{m}$ ) which avoids in-depth heating by laser radiation penetration into the sample. A pair of collimating apertures, one of 1 mm diameter located at 4" from the target and one of 3.2 mm diameter at 8" from the target, is mounted along the molecular beam axis to ensure that the ionizer only "sees" a 1 mm diameter spot on the target in both calibration and laser experiments. A Farady-cup ion detector consisting of a copper plate, a -90 volt battery and a  $10 \text{ M}\Omega$  resistor in parallel with a  $2 \mu\text{f}$  capacitor and a  $50 \Omega$  resistor is used to detect the ion signals from the partially ionized gas ejected from the laser heated target. The ion current is recorded by the fourth channel of the waveform recorder. Two shield plates are mounted on feed-throughs of each side of the chamber to protect the glass windows for laser beam entry and for temperature measurement from being coated during calibration. They are removed by feed-throughs prior laser pulsing.

#### III.1.4 Detector Chamber

The detector chamber is pumped by a 200 liters/sec ULTEK ion pump and a Varian titanium sublimation pump. With the gate valve closed, the detector chamber is kept under vacuum of  $10^{-10}$  torr. During experimental runs with the gate valve open, the pressure increases to  $10^{-8}$  torr range. The mass spectrometer ionizer is located 40 cm from the target. A beam flag mounted on a linear feed-through is positioned between the collimating aperture and the ionizer for blocking the molecules emitted from the target during mass spectrometer calibration (to be described in the later section) in order to measure the background signals. The detector is an EAI Quad 250 quadrupole mass spectrometer (see Fig. 3.9) with its axis perpendicular to the molecular beam path (i.e. perpendicular to the normal to the target surface), so that the detector is molecular-beam-density sensitive. A small percentage of the molecules passing through the ionizer is ionized by the electrons emitted from one of the dual tungsten filaments. Some of the ions are then accelerated by the ion potential at the entry of the quadrupole structure and focused by an electrostatic focusing lens into the quadrupole section. The quadrupole as a "mass filter" has applied R.F. and D.C. fields which allows only those ions

within a specific range of charge-to-mass ratios with stable orbits to reach the end of the structure and be detected by a Bendix electron multiplier. The current signal produced at the electron multiplier output, which is spread out to much longer pulse width than the laser pulse due to the time of flight and the velocity distribution of the molecules and shifted a time delay due to the transit time of the ions through the quadrupole, is recorded in the third channel of the transient waveform recorder.

### III.1.5 Optical Pyrometer

The target surface temperature is measured by a PYRO "Photomatic" I automatic optical pyrometer manufactured by Pyrometer Instrument Company, Inc. The instrument is divided into two parts: (1) The optical unit which consists of a high sensitivity photo multiplier tube, an interference filter for wavelength of  $6500 \pm 100 \text{ \AA}$ , a high voltage power supply and preamplifier, a set of three range filters, an objective lens, a reference standard lamp and a modulating oscillator, (2) The electronic unit which consists of a temperature indicating meter, scale range selector and indicator lights, function switch knob, a null balance control, a recorder jack and a controller jack[47]. The two units are connected by a cable.

The pyrometer has two modes of operation: automatic and transient. The automatic mode was used for preheating and mass spectrometer calibration when steady state temperatures were measured. In this mode, it operates on the same principle as the disappearing filament pyrometer except an auto-adjusting feedback electronic null-balance system replaces the human eye in comparing the target source radiation with the internal reference lamp.

The transient mode bypasses the internal lamp and operates as an optical system coupled directly to a photo multiplier. Since the power supply in the as-received optical unit was not regulated, an external regulated, high stability FLUKE power supply was used in transient mode operation. In this mode, the unit has a response on the order of nanoseconds, thus allowing measurements of temperature transients in the range of milliseconds. These are recorded by the second channel of the transient waveform recorder. The target focusing is adjustable from 8" to infinity. The target size-to-focal distance relationship is governed by the



equation:

$$D = \frac{x}{400} \quad (3-1)$$

where  $D$  = target diameter in inches

$x$  = distance in inches between target and objective lens.

In this experiment, corresponding to  $x$  of 19.25 inches, the target diameter was about 0.048 inches or 1.22 mm. After taking into account the  $45^\circ$  incidence, the major axis of the pyrometric viewing spot on the target was about 1.73 mm.

### III.1.6 Transient Data Recording

A 4-channel transient waveform recorder manufactured by Gould Inc., the Biomation Model 1015, is used to capture the signals from the laser power photodiode, the optical pyrometer, the mass spectrometer and the ion detector. It has four input channels each with 1024 words memory capacity so that it can record four different signals simultaneously. The fastest sampling rate of this device is  $10 \mu\text{sec/sample}$  (or 100 kHz). The recorder is triggered by the same signal which triggers the laser flashtubes. It then samples and digitizes the input signals by A/D converters, and stores the counts in the memory. The signals are then retrieved later through built-in D/A converters by a X-Y plotter at a slower rate. A unique capability of this device is its ability to record the signal preceding the trigger time. This "pretrigger recording" feature ensures recording of the leading baseline and rise of a signal. This device also greatly reduces the systematic error inherent in analyzing the photographed signals monitored by an oscilloscope[48].

## III.2. SYSTEM CALIBRATION

### III.2.1 Laser Parameters

The laser parameters characterizing the process of laser-material interactions normally include (i) temporal pulse shape (ii) radial power intensity distribution and (iii) pulse energy. These parameters are part of the input to the computer code described in Chapter 2 and need to be known in each experiment.

#### III.2.1.1 Temporal Laser Pulse Shape:

The time variation of the laser power during each shot is measured by a Korad KD-1 photodiode. This device was calibrated with a Korad K-J2 calorimeter, which was pre-calibrated by the manufacturer. The photodiode output gives a voltage  $V(t)$  from which the laser power as a function of time can be obtained from the following effective pulse width:

$$t_{\text{pul}} = \frac{E}{P_{\text{max}}} = \int \frac{P(t)}{P_{\text{max}}} dt = \int \frac{V(t)}{V_{\text{max}}} dt \quad (3-2)$$

where  $E$  = the incident total energy of the pulse in joules,

$P(t)$  = the incident power at time  $t$  in watts,

$P_{\text{max}}$  = the incident maximum power in watts,

$V(t)$  = the voltage output of the photodiode at time  $t$  in volts,

and  $V_{\text{max}}$  = the maximum voltage output of the photodiode.

The relation is valid as long as the responsivity of the photodiode is linear. The integration  $\int V(t)/V_{\text{max}} dt$  over the pulse can be obtained from the photodiode and  $E$  from the calorimeter (after correcting for window transmission), then the Eq. (3-2) yields  $P_{\text{max}}$ . For the normalized laser pulse shapes shown in Fig. 2.1,  $t_{\text{pul}} = 0.1685$  msec and 0.2067 msec; For a laser shots of 10 and 30 joules,  $P_{\text{max}}$  is 60 kW and 150 kW respectively. The incident power at any time can be obtained from the linear relation of  $P$  and  $V$ :

$$P(t) = V(t) \frac{P_{\text{max}}}{V_{\text{max}}} \quad (3-3)$$

### III.2.1.2 Radial Laser Power Intensity Distribution in the Beam:

The laser beam intensity profile across the radius must be known to determine the peak power density at the center of the beam spot where the surface temperature is measured and the signal measured by the mass spectrometer arises. In the measurements on iron and zirconium hydride [48] and the preliminary measurements on  $\text{UO}_2$  [49], a low energy Ruby laser was used; a Gaussian shape of the beam was assumed and the manufacturer's value of divergence angle was accepted. However, it is believed that the intensity distribution from a high power Nd-glass laser has broader wings than a Gaussian because the beam is composed of several components of different divergence angles [50]. Therefore the focal spot calculation after a single-element aspheric lens that assumes a single divergence angle can be misleading. Consequently, the focal spot intensity distribution has to be determined experimentally.

The conventional way of obtaining this information from measurement of an exposed spot on film is not adequate because this technique needs preliminary densitometry of the film and the method by which it is developed. In addition, at high exposures the film saturates in the center of the spot, giving an artificially flattened profile. Another method of determining the radial power profile is by measuring the energy passing through pinholes of various sizes. This technique yields good results on the focal spot size but it is limited by the diffraction limit. In the present work, a knife-edge technique has been used for this measurement [51,52]. In this procedure a sharp-edge razor blade is moved across the focal plane by a micrometer at an angle of 45 degrees and the transmitted energy as a function of blade-edge position is measured with the laser calorimeter (Fig. 3.4). The transmitted energy curve is then differentiated and fitted to a parabolic distribution, assuming axial symmetry. Fig. 3.5 shows the computer fit of the normalized intensity profile  $I(r)/I_p$ , where  $I(r)$  is the energy density at radius  $r$ ,  $I(r) = \int q(r,t)dt$ ,  $q(r,t)$  being the power density at radius  $r$  and time  $t$ , and  $I_p$  is the energy density at center  $r=0$ ,  $I_p = \int q_p(t)dt$ ,  $q_p(t)$  being the central power density at time  $t$ .

Since  $E = \text{total energy of one pulse} = \int I(r)2\pi r dr$ ,

$$\frac{E}{I_p} = \int \frac{I(r)}{I_p} 2\pi r dr = A_{\text{eff}} \quad (3-4)$$

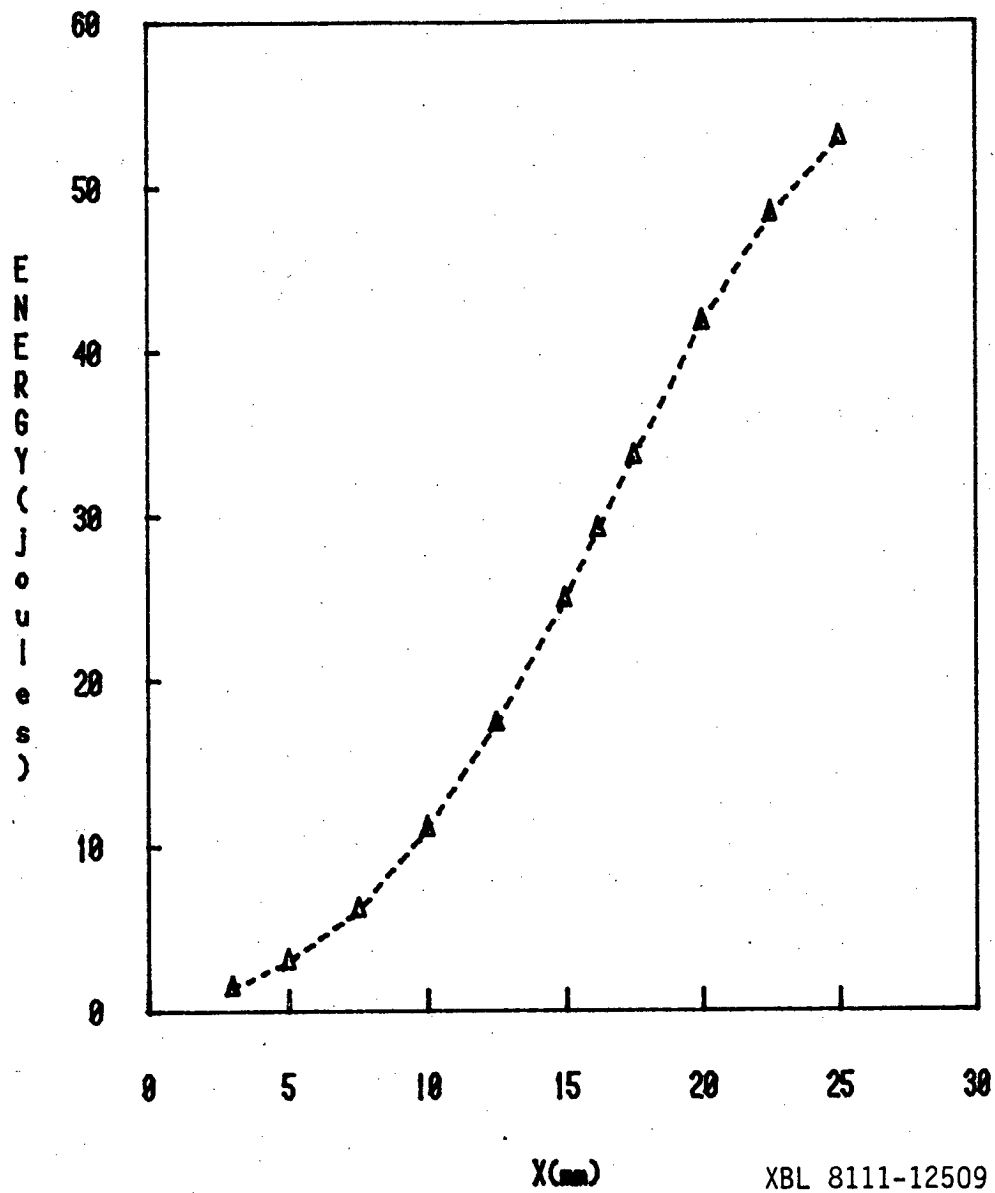
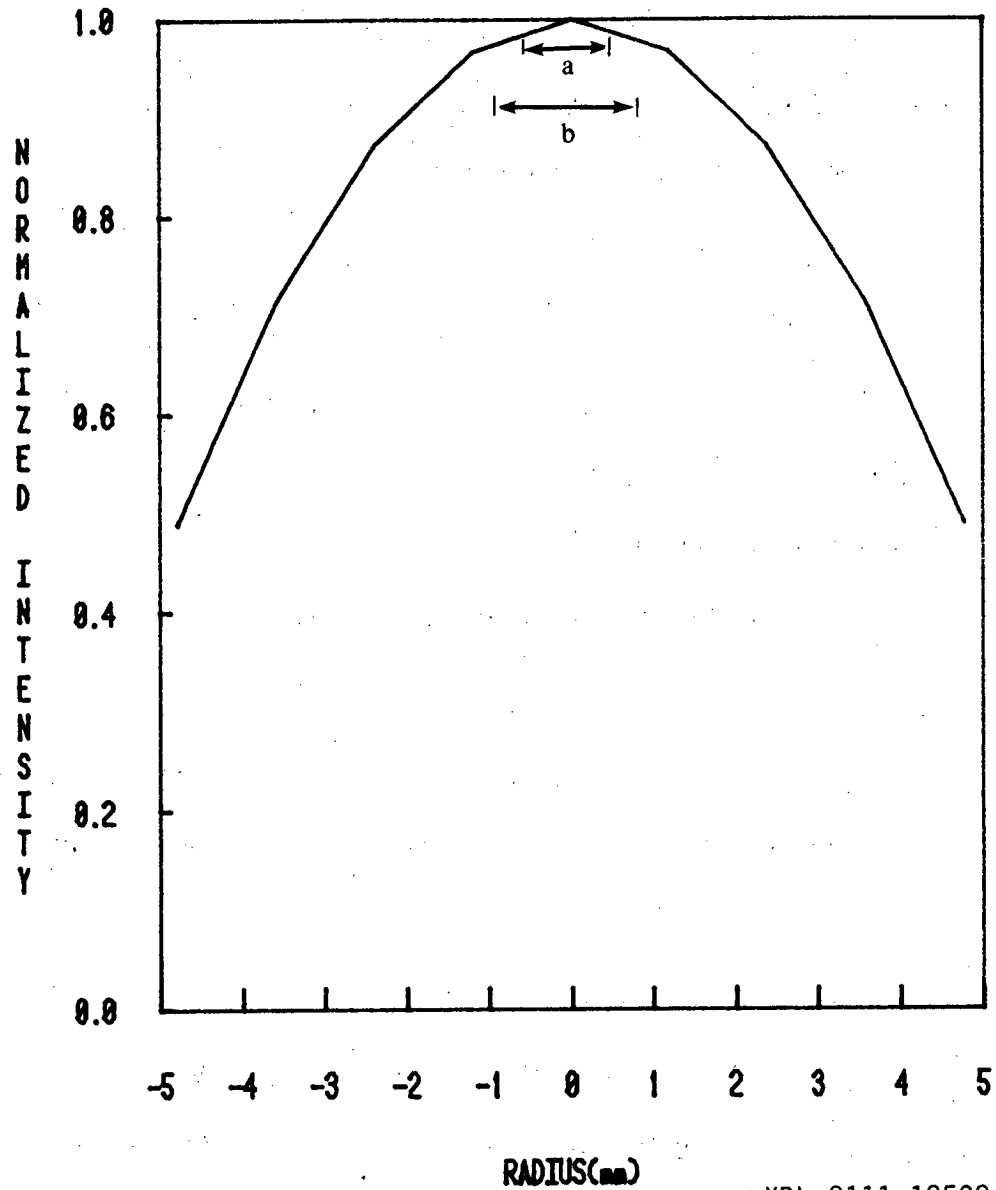


Fig. 3.4 Transmitted Energy versus Knife-edge Position in Laser Radial Power Distribution Measurement (x is the knife-edge position in the direction of micrometer motion at 45° to the laser beam path.)



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Fig. 3.5 Normalized Laser Radial Power Intensity Distribution from Knife-edge Measurement (along major axis)

a: mass spectrometer viewing spot (-1 mm diameter)

b: optical pyrometer viewing spot (-1.73 mm diameter)

where  $A_{\text{eff}}$ , the "effective" area defined above can be obtained by integrating the normalized intensity profile. For the focused laser spot shown in Fig. 3.5, in which  $45^\circ$  angle of incidence is already taken into account,  $A_{\text{eff}}$  is equal to  $0.4964 \text{ cm}^2$ . This is the area which would be illuminated by a spatially uniform laser pulse of power density  $q_p(t)$  and give the total energy in the real pulse. The mass spectrometer and optical pyrometer viewing spots are also indicated in Fig. 3.5.

Then the central energy density is equal to the ratio of total energy to the effective area, or  $E/A_{\text{eff}}$ . Since  $I_p = \int q_p(t) dt$ ,

$$\frac{I_p}{q_p^{\text{max}}} = \int \frac{q_p(t)}{q_p^{\text{max}}} dt = \int \frac{P(t)}{P_{\text{max}}} dt = t_{\text{pul}} \quad (3-5)$$

where  $q_p^{\text{max}}$  is the maximum (in  $t$ ) central power density in  $\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$ .

Combining Eqs. (3-4) and (3-5), the central maximum power density is:

$$q_p^{\text{max}} = \frac{E}{A_{\text{eff}} t_{\text{pul}}} \quad (3-6)$$

This quantity serves as the scale factor for the normalized laser power pulse shapes shown in Fig. 2.1 and thereby gives the power density source  $q_p(t)$  for the theoretical calculation based on Eq. (2-36).

### III.2.1.3 Incident Laser Total Energy:

The total energy output of each pulse from the Nd-glass laser can be determined from the measured photodiode voltage signal of each shot with the aid of a calibration relation. Let  $E_o$  be the laser pulse energy after the filters and the beam splitter. To calculate the energy incident on the target, corrections for absorption by the optical components such as the lenses and the glass windows have to be made. The neutral density filters are placed between the laser output reflector mirror and the beam splitter so that the energy measured from the photodiode output has already accounted for this attenuation factor. If the transmissivity of the lens is  $\tau_{\text{lens}}$  and the transmissivity of the window is  $\tau_{\text{window}}$ . Then the energy incident on the target is

$$E = E_o \tau_{\text{lens}} \tau_{\text{window}} \quad (3-7)$$

Fig. 3.6 shows such a calibration, which relates the maximum voltage from the photodiode ( $V_{\max}$ ) and the incident laser energy (E).

### III.2.2 Optical Pyrometer Calibration

A THERMOGAGE dual pyrolytic graphite cavity at NASA-Ames Research Center was used as a black body source for calibration of the automatic optical pyrometer used in the experiments. The "true" temperatures were read by a manual optical pyrometer calibrated by the National Bureau of Standards. Both pyrometers were focused on the same spot in the black body cavity. At each cavity current setting, the "true" temperature was marked and, when the range switch was on the second and third scales, the voltages from the transient output jack on the optical unit was recorded by a digital voltmeter. The procedure was repeated for temperatures up to 3000 K, the limit of the black body source. Above 3000 K, an extrapolation procedure was established by using the absorbing glass formula:

$$A_{lh} = \frac{1}{T_l} - \frac{1}{T_h} \quad (3-8)$$

where  $T_l$  is the temperature reading at lower scale,  $T_h$  is the temperature reading at higher scale for the same voltage reading and  $A_{lh}$  is the relative "A-value" of lower scale absorbing glass to that of higher scale. An average value of  $A_{lh}$  was obtained over the voltage range where the temperature readings in scales 2 and 3 were both available. Then the "mean  $A_{lh}$  value" was used to determine  $T_h$  for the higher voltage range from measured  $T_l$  in scale 2 by solving Eq. (3-8).

Fig. 3.7 shows the result from which one can obtain the "brightness" temperature of the target for a particular measured voltage. The calibration curve was fitted to the following formula:

$$\log V_T = \log \frac{C}{e^{a/T} - 1} = \log C - \log (e^{a/T} - 1) \quad (3-9)$$

The value  $a = 21994$  K was determined, which has good agreement with the Plank equation:

$$\log N_\lambda = \log \frac{C_1 \lambda^{-5} / \pi}{e^{C_2 / \lambda T} - 1} = \log (C_1 \lambda^{-5} / \pi) - \log (e^{C_2 / \lambda T} - 1) \quad (3-10)$$

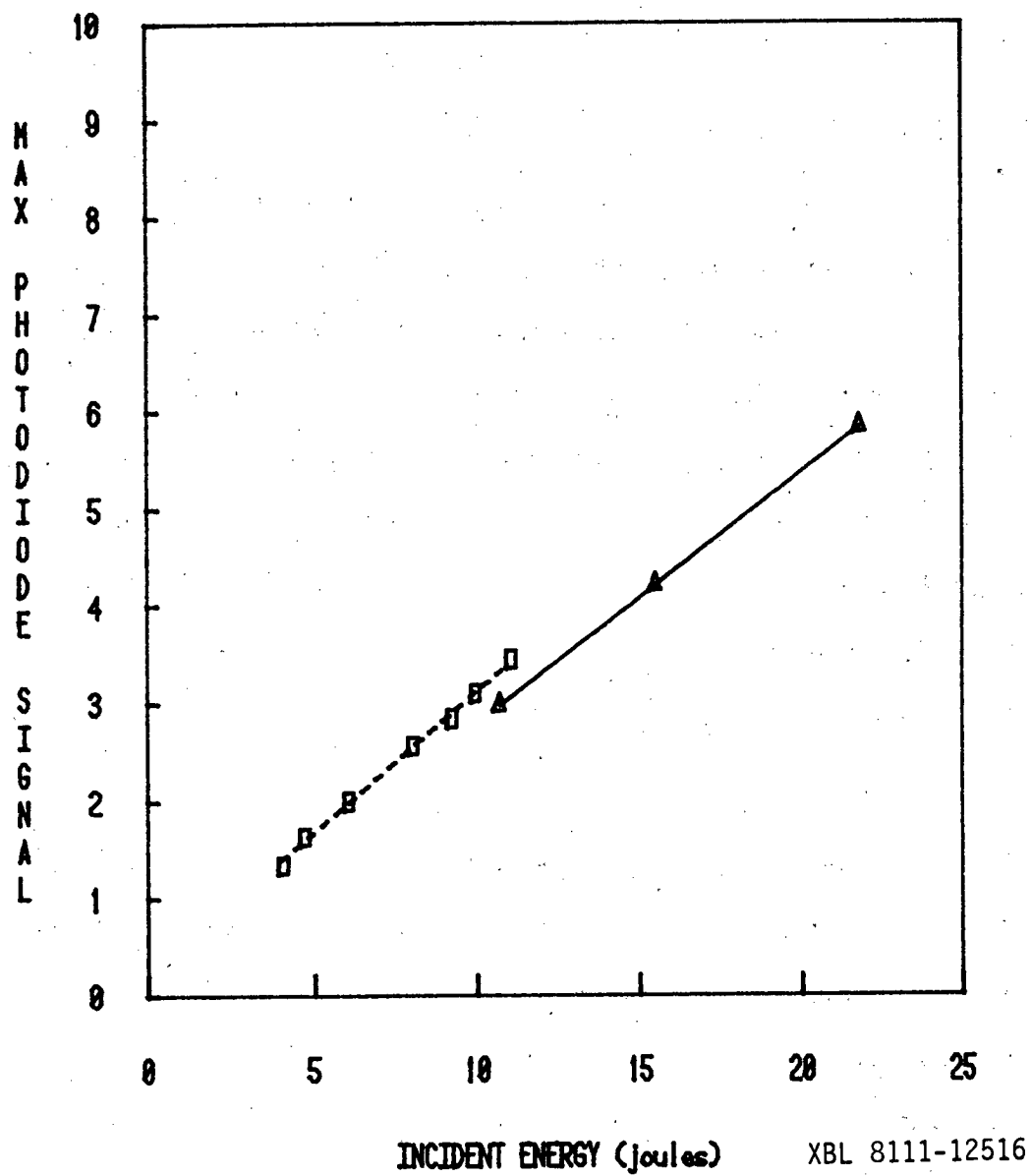


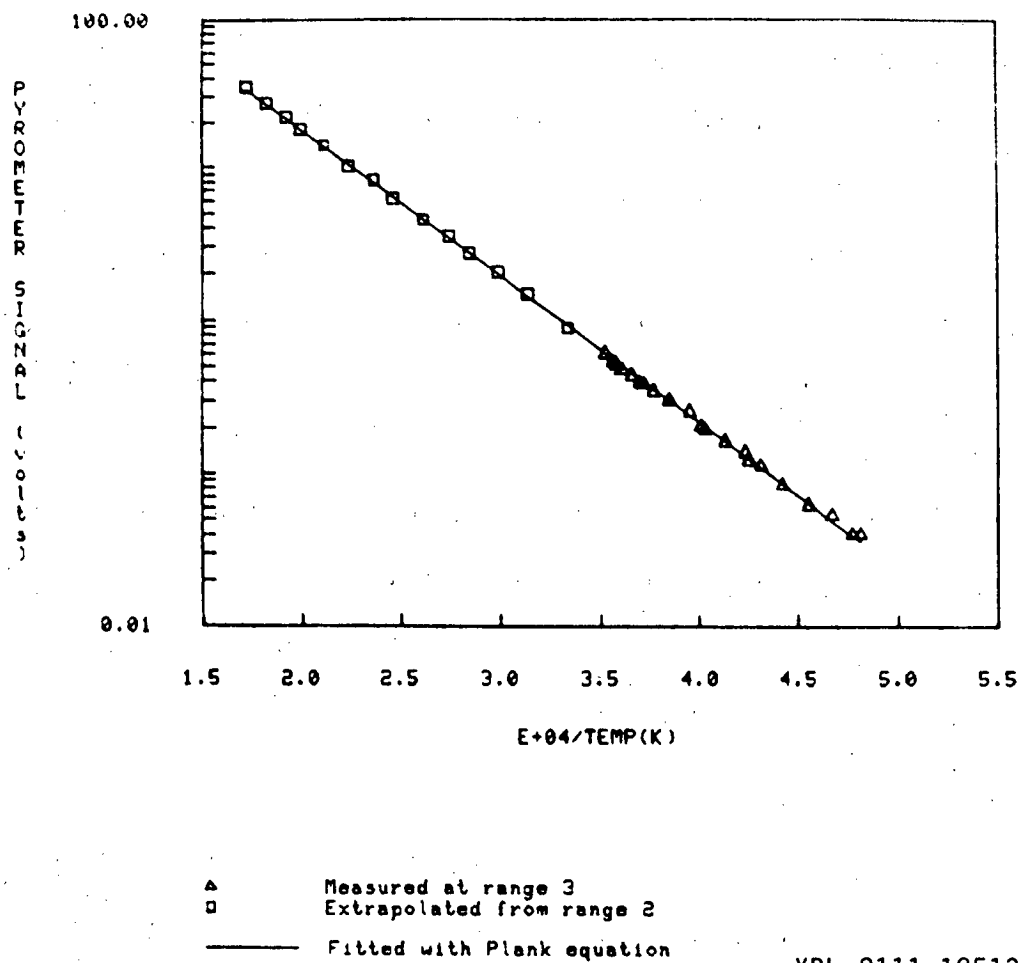
Fig.3.6 Photodiode Calibration for Laser Energy Measurement

□ Laser Voltage = 3000 volts

△ Laser Voltage = 3500 volts



## Optical Pyrometer Calibration



XBL 8111-12513

Fig. 3.7 Optical Pyrometer Calibration for Temperature Measurement

in which  $C_2/\lambda = 1.438/6500 \times 10^{-8} = 22100$  K. In order to account for the non-unity emissivity from non-black body radiation, the correction to "real" temperature is made with the formula:

$$\frac{1}{T_o} = \frac{1}{T_b} + \frac{\lambda}{C_2} \ln \epsilon_\lambda \quad (3-11)$$

where  $T_o$  is the black body temperature,  $T_b$  is the "brightness" temperature,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the thermal radiation detected (6500 Å),  $C_2$  is a constant (1.438 cm-K) and  $\epsilon_\lambda$  is the optical emissivity at wavelength  $\lambda$  (see Appendix D).

There has been only one attempt to measure the optical emissivity at a wavelength of 6500 Å [53]. To estimate the uncertainty in the temperature measurement arising from an uncertainty in the optical emissivity, a 10% error in  $\epsilon_\lambda$  will lead to a 43.5 K error in T at 3000 K and 122 K error at 5000 K.

The optical pyrometer is sighted into the target vacuum chamber through a glass window. A correction for absorption by this component can be made by measuring the radiation from a tungsten strip lamp with and without the glass window. The "A-value" of the glass can be obtained through the equation:

$$\frac{1}{T_1} = \frac{1}{T_2} + A \quad (3-12)$$

where  $T_1$  is the temperature reading without the glass,  $T_2$  is the temperature reading with the glass and A is a constant of the glass. Having a series of  $T_1$ 's and  $T_2$ 's the average value of constant A can be obtained as  $-3.6325 \times 10^{-6}$ . Then, in the real measurement, the true temperature  $T_t$  can be obtained from the black body temperature  $T_o$  from the optical pyrometer after correcting for non-unity emissivity by:

$$\frac{1}{T_t} = \frac{1}{T_o} + A \quad (3-13)$$

Combining Eqs. (3-11) and (3-13), if  $T_b$  is the temperature "read" from the optical pyrometer, the "true" temperature after correcting for emissivity and glass window is

$$\frac{1}{T_t} = \frac{1}{T_b} + \frac{\lambda}{C_2} \ln \epsilon_\lambda + A \quad (3-14)$$

### III.2.3 Mass Spectrometer Calibration

The vapor emitted by the hot target was detected by a quadrupole mass spectrometer, which accepted the vapor flow of a molecular beam. The mass spectrometer is shown in Fig. 3.8. An electron beam gun (Fig. 3.3) was used to heat up a  $\text{UO}_2$  wafer under vacuum to generate a steady state molecular beam for both mass location and intensity calibration. The hot calibration was used instead of a  $\text{UO}_2$ -filled Knudsen cell calibration performed before the laser experiments [49] for the following reasons: (i) The alignment of the system was not disturbed (ii) the same sample surface condition prevailed (iii) the mass spectrometer drift was eliminated because the mass peaks could be tuned just before the laser shot (iv) the dependence of the signal on the surface area was eliminated.

The  $\text{UO}_2$  surface temperature was quite uniform spatially during the calibration ( $\pm 10$  K), and was varied from  $1760^\circ\text{C}$  to  $2045^\circ\text{C}$  as measured by the automatic optical pyrometer (in the Auto mode). The mass spectrometer signal during calibration was measured by a Keithley 410 Micro-microammeter. The system was tuned to mass numbers 286 ( $\text{UO}_3$ ), 270 ( $\text{UO}_2$ ), 254 ( $\text{UO}$ ), 238 ( $\text{U}$ ) and 32 ( $\text{O}_2$ ). For each data point, the net signal from vaporization was determined from the difference in signals without and with the beam flag in the detector chamber blocking the beam.

The mass spectrometer settings used for calibration as well as for the laser runs were:

$V_{\text{electron}}$	=	70 v	=	electron potential
$V_{\text{ion}}$	=	11 v	=	ion potential relative to the ionizer
$V_{\text{focus}}$	=	27 v	=	ion focusing potential
$V_{\text{multiplier}}$	=	-2500 v	=	electron multiplier potential
$V_{\text{extractor}}$	=	40 v	=	electron extraction potential
$I_{\text{extractor}}$	=	0 mA	=	collected electron current
$I_{\text{emission}}$	=	1 mA	=	ionizer emitted electron current

The resolution was adjusted so that the valley between adjacent mass peaks for 270, 254 and 238 just touched the base line. The ion potential was adjusted to avoid mass peak splitting

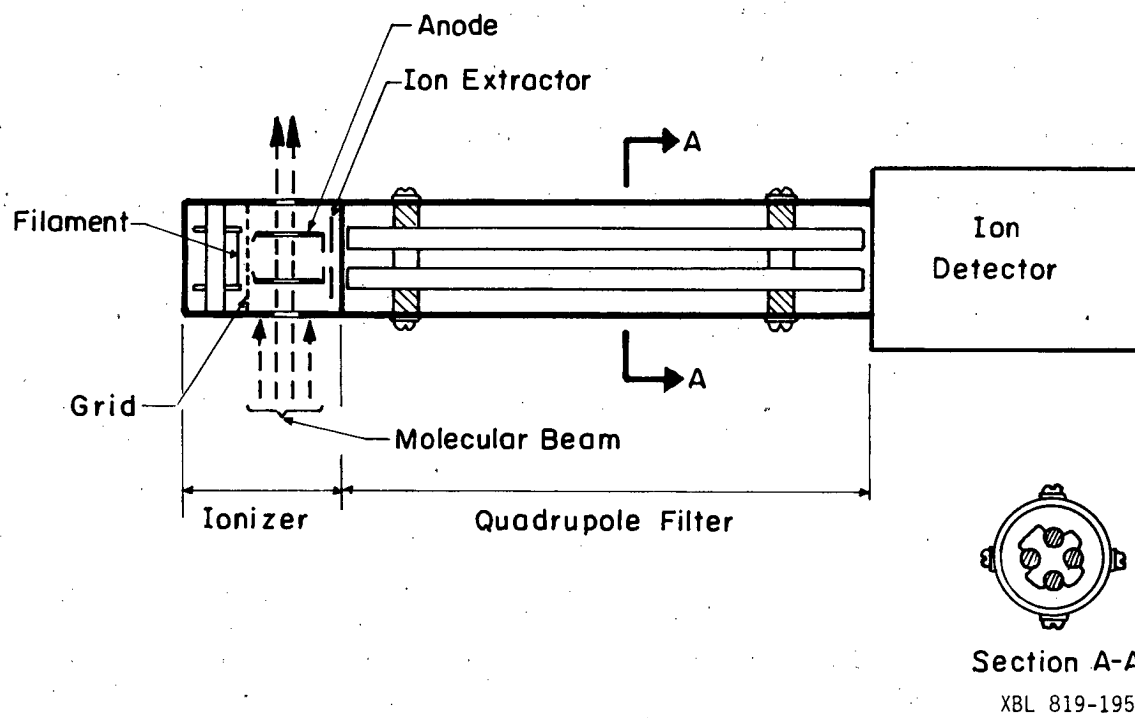


Fig. 3.8 Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer

and the rest of the voltage settings were chosen to obtain the biggest signals. The result plotted as  $\log(ST)$  versus  $1/T$  are shown in Fig. 3.9. From the slopes of the curves in Fig. 3.9, the heats of sublimation of 182.5 kcal/mol for  $UO_3$ , and 144 kcal/mol for  $UO_2$  were obtained; the literature gives 143 kcal/mol for  $UO_2$ [5]. Since the slopes of the  $UO$  and  $U$  lines are close to that of  $UO_2$ , it is believed that they both represent the fragments of dissociative ionization (cracking) of  $UO_2$ .

For a steady state source and free molecular flow, the average molecular density of the beam reaching the ionizer  $n$  (in molecules/cm<sup>3</sup>) is proportional to the ratio of the pressure (in atm) and the temperature (in K) on the sample surface:

$$n = K_g K_u \frac{P}{T} \quad (3-15)$$

where the proportionality constant consists of a unit conversion factor  $K_u$  (from atm/K to molecules/cm<sup>3</sup>), and a geometric constant  $K_g (= \frac{A_s}{4\pi l^2})$ , in which  $A_s$  is the surface area of the source, and  $l$  is the distance between the source and the detector.

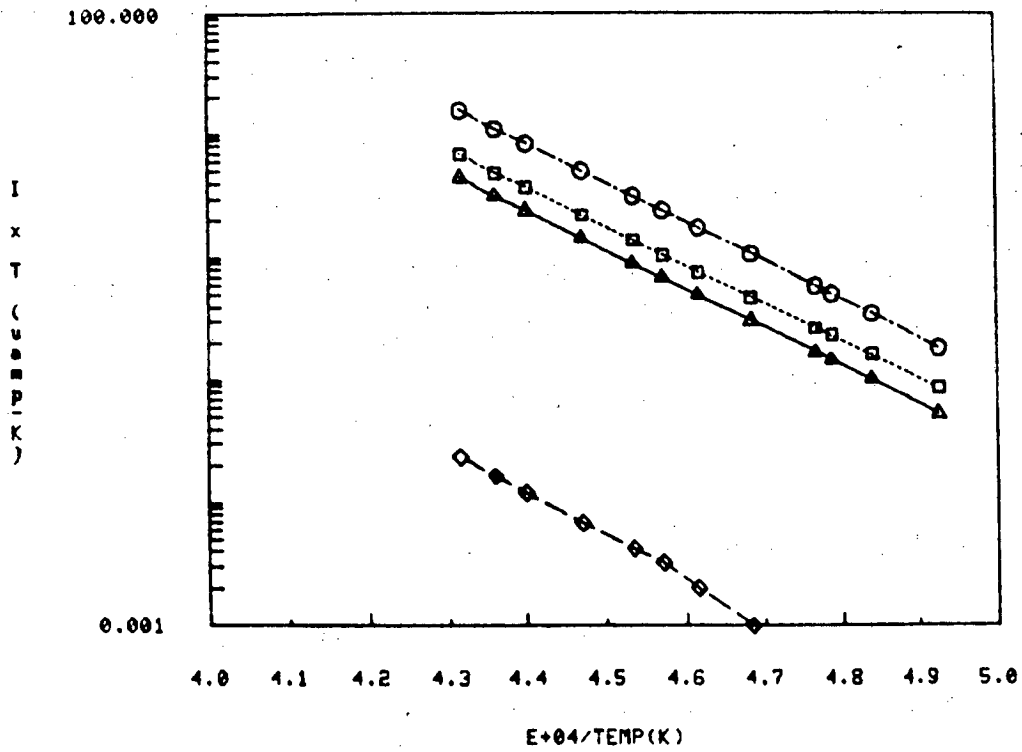
The output current signal from the mass spectrometer  $S$  (in amps) is proportional to the molecular density of the species detected:

$$S = K_{MS} \sigma \gamma n \quad (3-16)$$

where  $K_{MS}$  (amp-cm) consists of the characteristic parameters of the mass spectrometer ( $= I_e L F_q G$ ,  $I_e$  being the emission electron current of ionizer filament (in amps),  $L$  being the length of the electron sheet (in cm),  $F_q$  being the fraction of the ions actually reaching the electron multiplier through the quadrupole compared to the total ions produced in the ionizer, and  $G$  being the electron multiplier gain [54]),  $\sigma$  is the ionization cross section (in cm<sup>2</sup>/molecule) and  $\gamma$  is the average number of secondary electrons emitted at the first dynode for each ion collected (in electrons/ion).\*

The vapor in equilibrium with  $UO_2(s)$  is composed of six species, namely  $UO_3$ ,  $UO_2$ ,  $UO$ ,

\*In order to make the units consistent, a factor of magnitude unity with units of ions/electron has to be applied because one ion is produced once a molecule is ionized by an electron.



MASS SPECTROMETER CALIBRATION

- ▲ U
- ◻ UO
- UO<sub>2</sub>
- ◊ UO<sub>3</sub>

XBL 8111-12514

Fig. 3.9 Mass Spectrometer Calibration

U, O and O<sub>2</sub>. Of these, UO<sub>3</sub>, UO<sub>2</sub> and UO are the most abundant. Upon impact by high energy electrons in the ionizer, UO<sub>3</sub> neutral molecules may fragment and produce lower mass ions, such as UO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>, UO<sup>+</sup>, U<sup>+</sup>; Similarly UO<sub>2</sub> molecules may fragment and produce UO<sup>+</sup>, U<sup>+</sup>; finally UO can crack to U<sup>+</sup>. The ions produced from the same mass of neutral species (e.g. UO<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup> from UO<sub>3</sub>) are called "parent ions", while those produced from higher mass neutrals (e.g. UO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> from UO<sub>3</sub>) are called "fragment ions". The measured current of some mass is the sum of the parent ions and fragment ions from higher mass.

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{The contribution of } i^+ \text{ ions} \\ \text{from ionization of } i \text{ neutral} \end{array} = [n_i \sigma_i \gamma_i F_{ii}] K_{MS}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{The contribution of } i^+ \text{ ions from} \\ \text{ionization and fragments of } k \text{ neutral} \end{array} = [n_k \sigma_k \gamma_i F_{ki}] K_{MS}$$

where  $F_{ii}$  = fraction of  $i^+$  ions from ionization of  $i$  neutral

$F_{ki}$  = fraction of  $i^+$  ions from ionization of  $k$  neutral ( $m_k > m_i$ )

$n_i(n_k)$  = molecular density of  $i(k)$  neutral in the ionizer,  $\text{cm}^{-3}$

$\sigma_i(\sigma_k)$  = total ionization cross section of  $i(k)$  neutral

$\gamma_i$  = first dynode efficiency for  $i^+$  ion.

The signal of  $i^+$  ions measured will be the sum of the parent ions and fragments from higher mass neutrals. Using the notations: 3 = UO<sub>3</sub>, 2 = UO<sub>2</sub>, 1 = UO and 0 = U, the signal of  $i^+$  is:

$$S_{i^+} = K_{MS} [n_i \sigma_i \gamma_i F_{ii} + \sum_{k>i}^3 n_k \sigma_k \gamma_i F_{ki}] \quad (3-17)$$

$$i = 3, 2, 1, 0$$

Applying Eq. (3-15) to each species  $i$ , we have:

$$n_i = K_g K_u \frac{P_i}{T} \quad (3-18)$$

Therefore

$$S_{i^+} = K_{MS} K_g K_u \gamma_i \left[ \frac{P_i}{T} \sigma_i F_{ii} + \sum_{k>i} \frac{P_k}{T} \sigma_k F_{ki} \right] \quad (3-19)$$

Multiplied by  $\frac{T}{\sigma_2 \gamma_i}$  where  $\sigma_2$  is the  $\sigma$  for UO<sub>2</sub>, Eq. (3-19) becomes

$$S_{i+T} = K\sigma_{2\gamma_i} [P_i C_i F_{ii} + \sum_{k>i} P_k C_k F_{ki}] \quad (3-20)$$

where  $K = K_{MS}K_gK_u$  and  $C_i =$  relative total ionization cross section of neutral  $i$  to that of  $UO_2 (= \sigma_i/\sigma_2)$

For the uranium bearing species produced by  $UO_2$  vaporization:

$$S_3T = K\sigma_{2\gamma_3}P_3C_3F_{33} \quad (3-21)$$

$$S_2T = K\sigma_{2\gamma_2}[P_2C_2F_{22}+P_3C_3F_{32}] \quad (3-22)$$

$$S_1T = K\sigma_{2\gamma_1}[P_1C_1F_{11}+P_2C_2F_{21}+P_3C_3F_{31}] \quad (3-23)$$

$$S_0T = K\sigma_{2\gamma_0}[P_0C_0F_{00}+P_1C_1F_{10}+P_2C_2F_{20}+P_3C_3F_{30}] \quad (3-24)$$

By dividing Eqs. (3-21), (3-23) and (3-24) by Eq. (3-22), the ratios of the signals can be expressed as:

$$\frac{S_3}{S_2} = \frac{\gamma_3}{\gamma_2} \frac{\left(\frac{P_3}{P_2}\right)C_3F_{33}}{C_2F_{22}+\left(\frac{P_3}{P_2}\right)C_3F_{32}} \quad (3-25)$$

$$\frac{S_1}{S_2} = \frac{\gamma_1}{\gamma_2} \frac{\left[\left(\frac{P_1}{P_2}\right)C_1F_{11}+C_2F_{21}+\left(\frac{P_3}{P_2}\right)C_3F_{31}\right]}{C_2F_{22}+\left(\frac{P_3}{P_2}\right)C_3F_{32}} \quad (3-26)$$

$$\frac{S_0}{S_2} = \frac{\gamma_0}{\gamma_2} \frac{\left[\left(\frac{P_0}{P_2}\right)C_0F_{00}+\left(\frac{P_1}{P_2}\right)C_1F_{10}+C_2F_{20}+\left(\frac{P_3}{P_2}\right)C_3F_{30}\right]}{C_2F_{22}+\left(\frac{P_3}{P_2}\right)C_3F_{32}} \quad (3-27)$$

The current ratios  $S_3/S_2$ ,  $S_1/S_2$ ,  $S_0/S_2$  for different temperatures can be obtained from the calibration curves in Fig. 3.9. The pressure ratios  $P_3/P_2$ ,  $P_1/P_2$ ,  $P_0/P_2$  can be obtained from the thermophysical calculations for the congruently vaporizing compositions for different temperatures. The  $C$ 's are from Pattoret[55]:

$$(\sigma\gamma)_0/(\sigma\gamma)_1/(\sigma\gamma)_2/(\sigma\gamma)_3 = 1.15 : 0.80 : 0.55 : 0.38 \quad (3-28)$$

The relative electron multiplier gain is expected to be inversely proportional to the square root of the ion mass[54], that is:

$$\gamma_0 : \gamma_1 : \gamma_2 : \gamma_3 = 1.065 : 1.031 : 1 : 0.972 \quad (3-29)$$

Therefore,

$$C_3 = 0.710, C_2 = 1, C_1 = 1.406, C_0 = 1.962 \quad (3-30)$$



An optimal set of  $F_{ij}$ 's can be obtained by fitting Eqs. (3-25)-(3-27) to the data in Fig.

3.9, which yields:

$$F_{33} = 0.080$$

$$F_{32} = 0.600$$

$$F_{31} = 0.220$$

$$F_{30} = 0.100$$

$$F_{22} = 0.610$$

$$F_{21} = 0.232$$

$$F_{20} = 0.158$$

$$F_{11} = 0.900$$

$$F_{10} = 0.100$$

and the constant  $K\sigma_{2\gamma_2} = 1.6 \pm 0.5$  amp-K/atm.

For the geometry we have with 1 mm diameter cell orifice, 40 cm cell-to-ionizer distance, we have  $K_g = 3.9 \times 10^{-5}$ . The unit conversion factor  $K_u = 7.32 \times 10^{21}$  molecules/cm<sup>3</sup>-K/atm. Therefore, the mass spectrometer instrumental constant is  $K_{MS}\sigma_{2\gamma_2} = 5.5 \times 10^{-18}$  amp-cm<sup>3</sup>.

Table 3.1 shows the comparison of this work with the fragmentation fractions measured by Blackburn[56] and Pattoret[55]. Our result agree quite well with those of Pattoret[55].

**TABLE 3.1****The Fragmentation Fractions of U-O System**

	Blackburn	Pattoret	This work
$F_{33}$	0.104	0.200	0.080
$F_{32}$	0.438	0.600	0.600
$F_{31}$	0.458	0.160	0.220
$F_{30}$	0.000	0.040	0.100
$F_{22}$	0.500	0.625	0.610
$F_{21}$	0.500	0.281	0.232
$F_{20}$	0.000	0.094	0.158
$F_{11}$	0.667	0.880	0.900
$F_{10}$	0.333	0.120	0.100

### III.3 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

The experiments are performed in the following manner:

- (1) Polish the target as described in section III.1.3.
- (2) Mount the target on the electron bombardment heater and install in the target chamber.
- (3) Evacuate the target chamber.
- (4) Open the gate valve to the detector chamber (which is always kept under vacuum).
- (5) Align the system and the Nd-glass laser as described in section III.1.1.
- (6) Turn on the Nd-glass laser power supply and set voltage.
- (7) Check the alignment by shooting the Nd-glass laser through an aperture and on a polaroid film. Shoot #3 gas laser through the same path. Adjust the optical components and shoot the Nd-glass laser until the two lasers illuminate on the same spot.
- (8) Align and focus the optical pyrometer on the target with the #3 gas laser shooting on the target, so that the optical pyrometer will measure the surface temperature of the center of the Nd-glass laser focal spot.
- (9) Preheat the target with the electron bombardment heater. Measure the target temperature with the auto mode of the optical pyrometer. Stabilize the temperature at 1600 K, which is the initial specimen temperature for temperature transient calculation.
- (10) Set the optical pyrometer to the transient operate mode.
- (11) Connect the photodiode, the optical pyrometer, the mass spectrometer and the ion collector to the transient waveform recorder.
- (12) Install the neutral density filters between the Nd-glass laser and the beam splitter as the laser energy is desired.
- (13) Tune the mass spectrometer control to the mass of the species to be measured.
- (14) Estimate the voltage of each signal to be measured and set the full scale of each channel of the transient recorder to attain highest sensitivity.

- (15) "Arm" the transient recorder at the "Ready" mode for data recording.
- (16) Trigger the Nd-glass laser.
- (17) The transient recorder should record 4 signals for the experiment and stop recording after receiving a pre-set delayed triggering signal.
- (18) Switch the mass spectrometer control to monitor another species.
- (19) Repeat step (14) to (18) for all the vapor species of interest thus completing the run for one laser energy.
- (20) Install different numbers of filter or change the laser power supply voltage to get another laser energy and repeat steps (13) to (19).

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### IV.1 SURFACE MORPHOLOGY

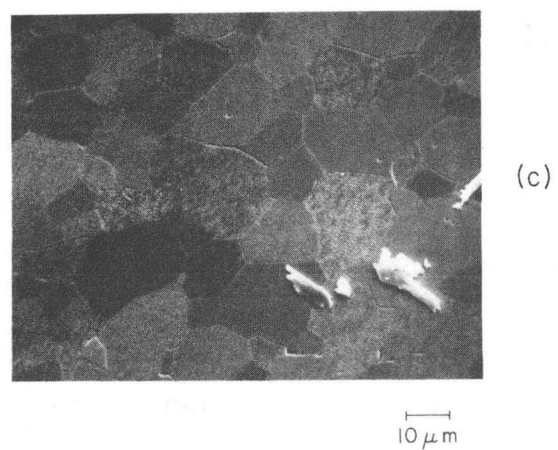
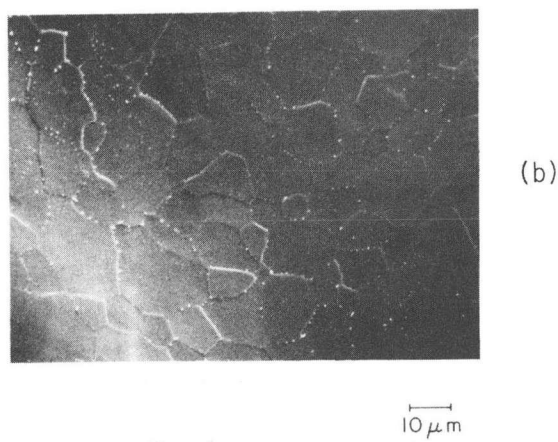
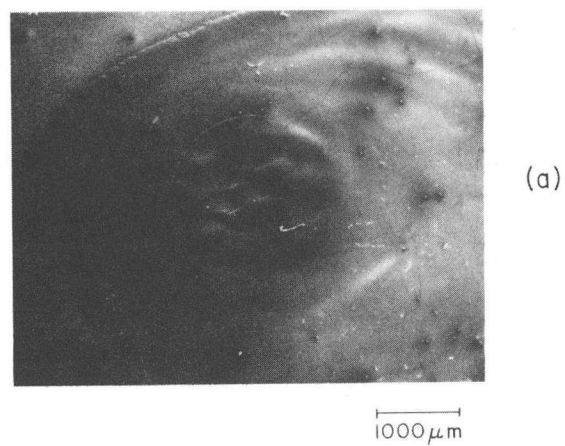
#### IV.1.1 Melting

The laser-irradiated  $\text{UO}_2$  sample surface was examined by scanning electron microscope. Fig. 4.1a shows a typical laser-irradiated area (produced by a 28 Joules pulse). A ring structure on the sample surface is observed within the previously molten area. The ring structure is attributed to the radial propagation of a central disturbance on the liquid surface in the form of capillary waves[57]. The discontinuous quasi-periodic liquid displacement from the center of the "pool" due to the recoil forces of the evaporating material is believed to be the driving mechanism of this disturbance.

Melting out to an ellipse of major radius 3.8 mm and minor radius 2.4 mm is measured with lower magnification optical microscope. According to one-dimensional thermal analysis computer code "STAR" (see chapter II), the maximum surface temperatures at the observed major and minor ellipse boundaries, corresponding to the measured laser radial intensity distribution (section III.2.1), are 4160 K and 4270 K respectively. The fact that they are much higher than the melting temperature of  $\text{UO}_2$  is believed to be due to the requirement of some in-depth melting for visual characteristics of a previously molten surface.

#### IV.1.2 Surface Stoichiometry

Figs. 4.1b and 4.1c show the  $\text{UO}_2$  surface under higher magnification by SEM inside and outside of the previously molten zone, respectively. Both surfaces have been thermally etched by the laser irradiation and show distinct grain structures. Various surface analyses were used to determine the nature of the white dots appearing mostly along the grain boundaries in the laser irradiated area (Fig. 4.1b). The surface concentration of the aggregates decreases with radius from the center of the ellipse, showing that they are associated with the surface temperature distribution. Such precipitates might be expected from the surface depletion of oxygen due to the preferential evaporation of this element (as  $\text{UO}_3$ , see chapter II). However,



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Fig. 4.1 Scanning Electron Microphotographs of (a) & (b) previously molten and (c) non-molten  $\text{UO}_2$  Surface following bombardment by a 28 J Laser Pulse

computer simulation of the surface temperature and composition evolution during the laser power transient shows that, the surface stoichiometry decreases to 1.78. However, the O/U ratio is predicted to remain in the single phase  $\text{UO}_{2-x}$  region, so precipitation of uranium metal should be thermodynamically impossible.

SEM-EDAX elemental analysis was not capable of distinguishing the white particles from the matrix, because (i) SEM-EDAX is not sensitive to oxygen, and (ii) the particles are in sub-micron range while SEM electron beam size is tens of microns. Scanning Auger microscope (SAM) circumvented these two difficulties; in addition, another advantage of SAM is the shorter Auger electron penetration ( $10 - 30 \text{ \AA}$ ) compared to about  $1 - 10 \mu\text{m}$  x-ray penetration from EDAX, which permits measurement of the "surface" stoichiometry. The shallow Auger penetration depth is small in comparison to the  $\sim 15 \mu\text{m}$  oxygen depletion depth during the vaporization transient.

Figs. 4.2a and 4.2b show the Auger electron spectra from the matrix and the particle, respectively, after ion sputtering sufficient to remove all carbon peaks. Comparing the two spectra suggests that the particles are not pure uranium metal because they show no difference in the relative peaks of uranium and oxygen. This observation is consistent with the calculation of the surface O/U relative to the lower phase boundary of the oxygen-uranium system; there remains, however, the question of what the particles are.

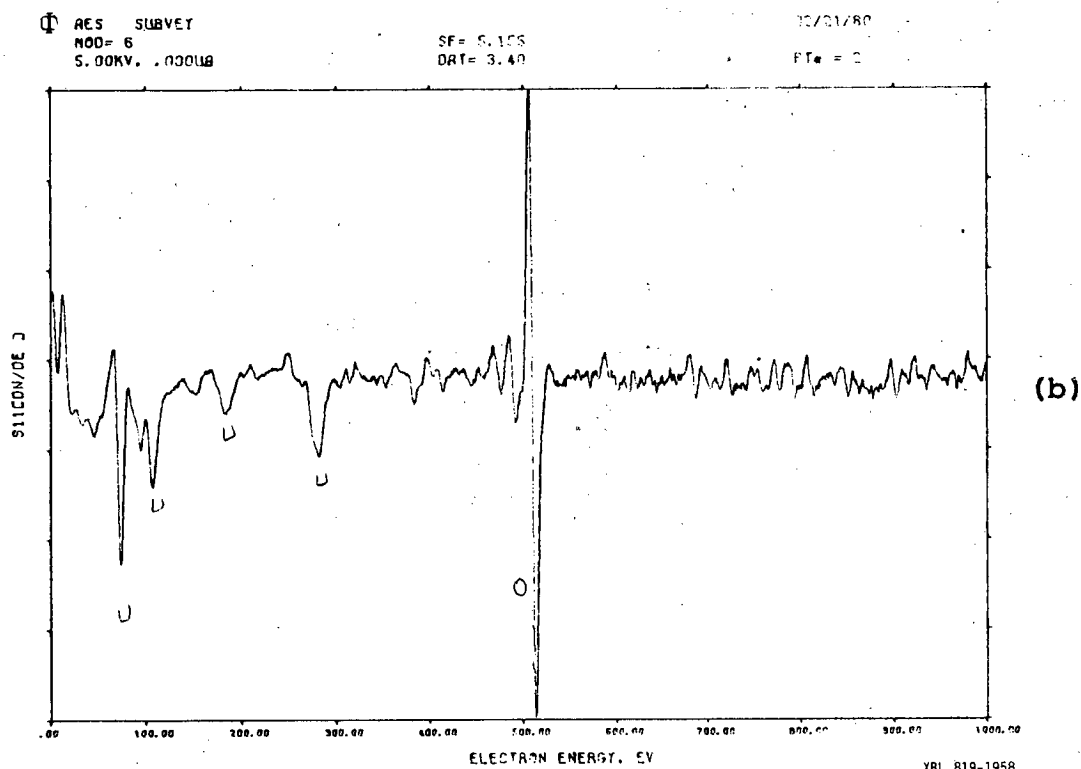
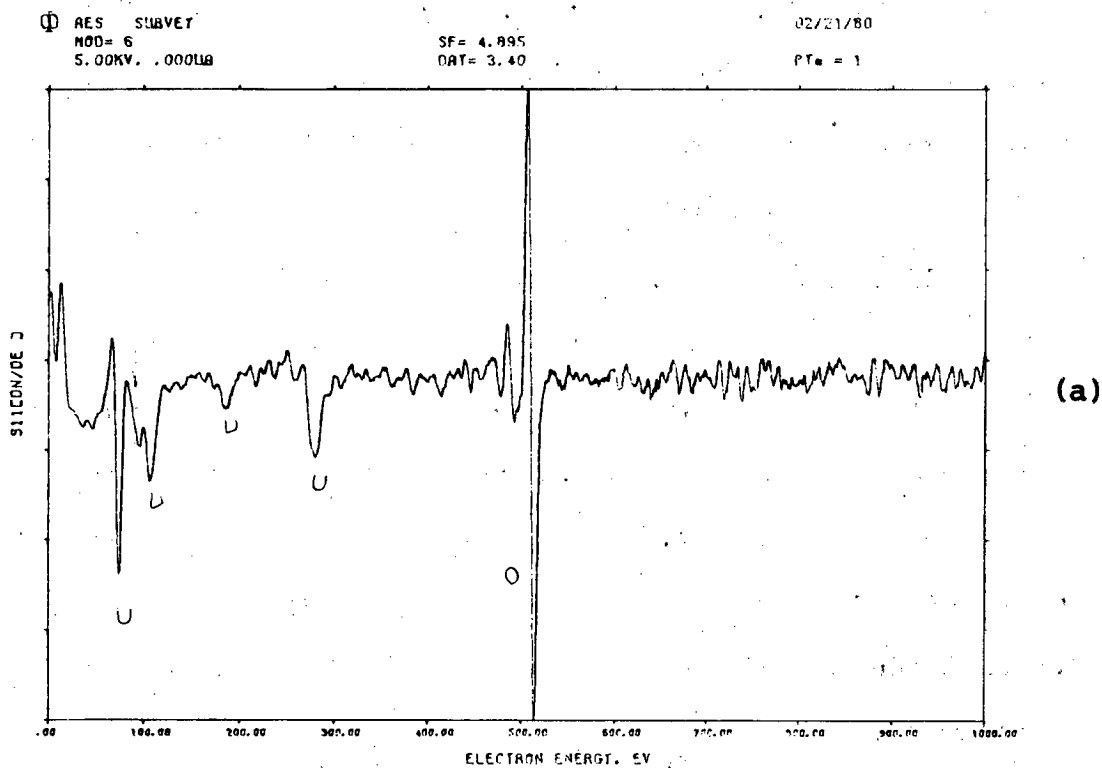


Fig. 4.2 Auger Electron Spectra from (a) the Matrix and (b) the Particals in Laser irradiated area (Fig. 4.1(b))

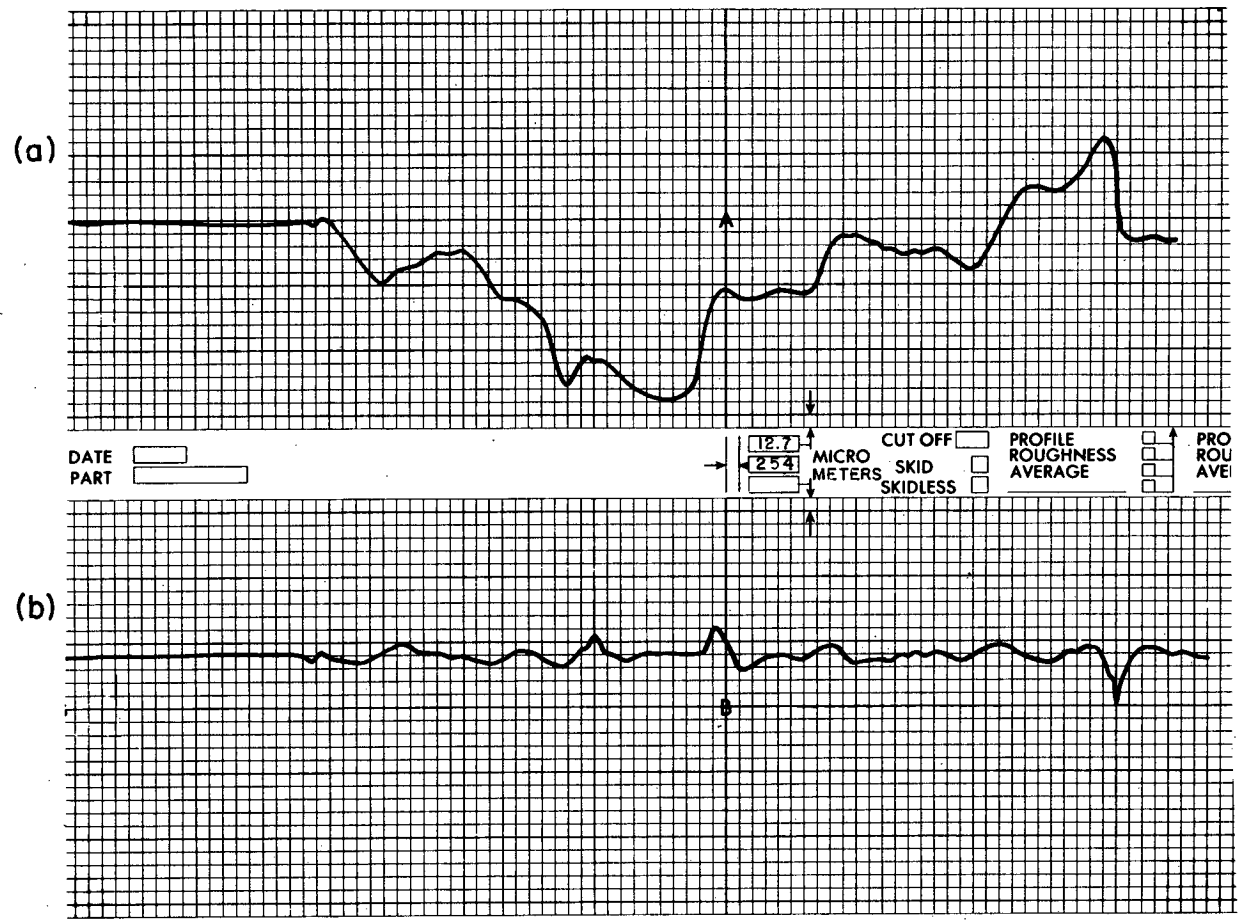


## IV.2 CRATER DEPTH MEASUREMENT

The removal of the target material by high power laser creates a crater at the focal spot as seen from Fig. 4.1. Ready[58] has experimentally determined the depths of this kind of crater and related these measurements to the surface temperatures. Ohse[22] also adopted this measurement technique, correlating the peak central surface temperature measured by an optical pyrometer with the central depth measured by inductive sensor tip scanning across the crater profile.

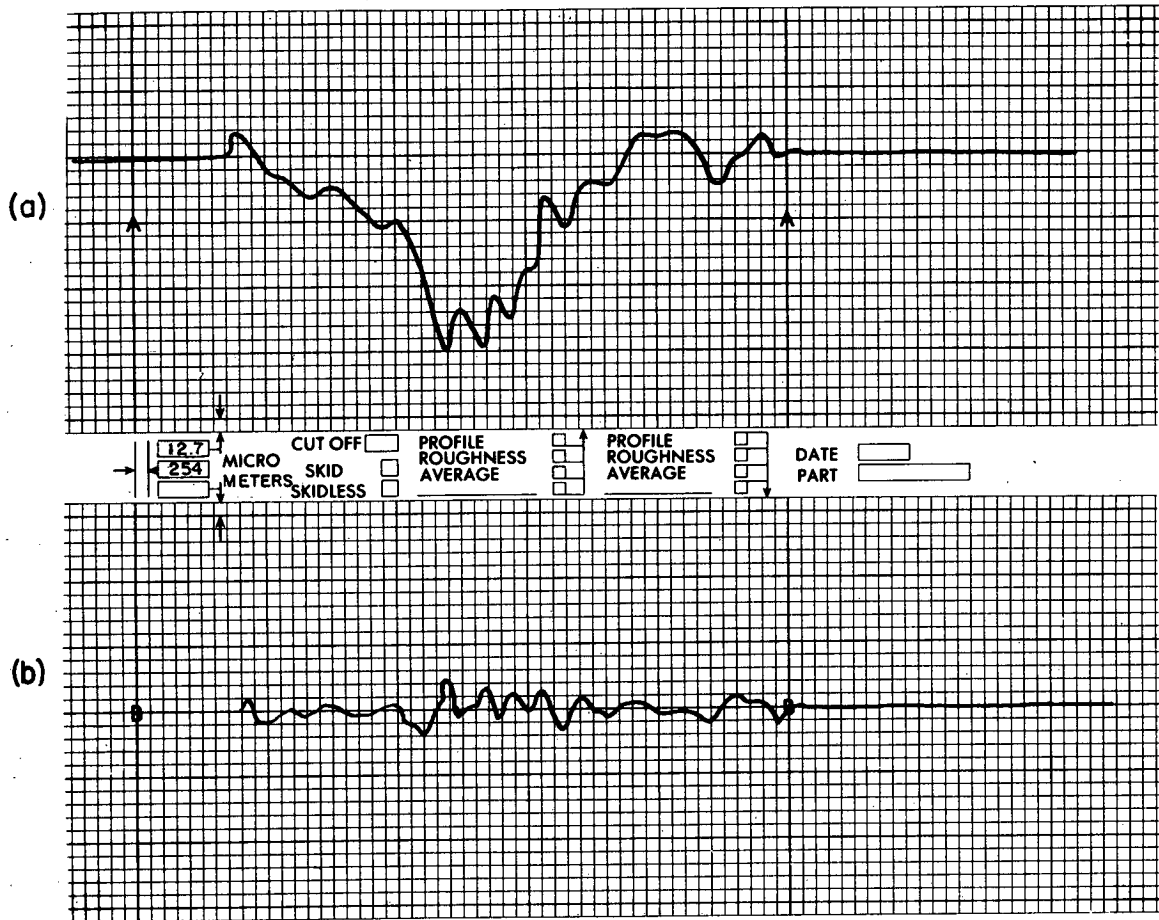
In this study, the crater profile was also measured by an inductive sensor along the axes of the elliptical shape of crater. Figs. 4.3 and 4.4 show this measurement along the major and minor axis respectively for a sequence of five shots of 28 joules each. The total amount of  $UO_2$  evaporated computed by integrating the crater profile was about 55 mg; this is a factor of 7 higher than the figure from the theoretical calculation (7.9 mg) for the five shot sequence, based upon Langmuir vaporization incorporating the calculated surface temperatures.

The liquid movement, which is seen microscopically in Fig. 4.1 and confirmed by the raised rim on the edge of the crater in Figs. 4.3 and 4.4, is probably one of the reasons for this discrepancy. Chunk sputtering due to the high power laser bombardment[65] or microexplosions beneath the surface due to high porosity sample[22] may also be explanations.



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Fig. 4.3 (a) Crater Depth Profile along the Major Axis  
(b) Surface Roughness Reference



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Fig. 4.4 (a) Crater Depth Profile along the Minor Axis  
(b) Surface Roughness Reference

### IV.3 VAPOR YIELD MEASUREMENT

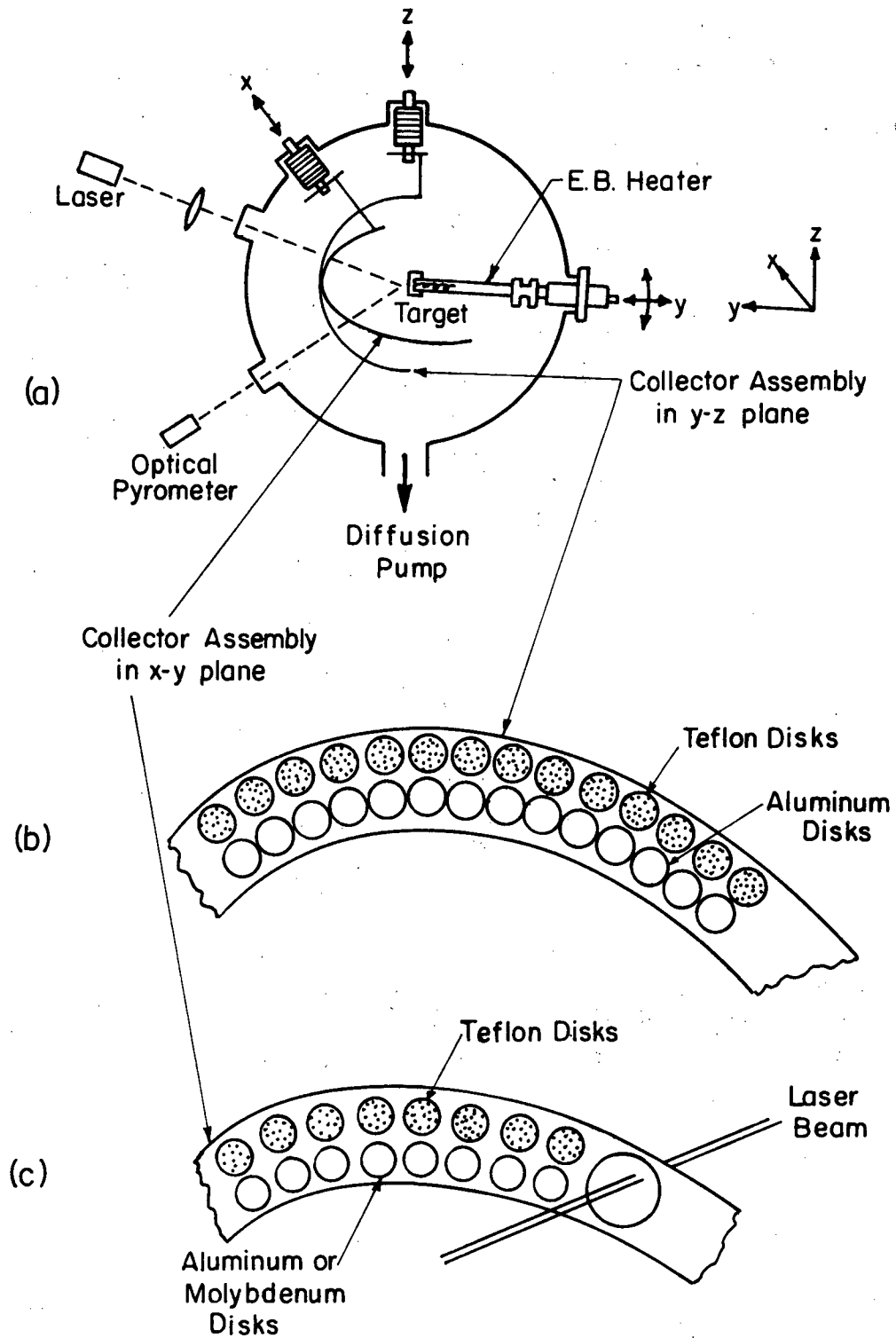
A radioactive tracer technique was used by Varsi[59] for the measurement of the amount of material ablated by high intensity laser radiation as well as the angular distribution of the particles emitted from a copper single crystal. The same idea was applied here, except that, instead of using a radioactive tracer, collected uranium (with 0.715% natural abundance of uranium 235) was activated in the TRIGA Reactor and the yield obtained by  $\gamma$  counting of fission product radioactive decay.

As shown in Fig. 4.5a, b and c, two arrays of small teflon\* disks and aluminum disks were placed around the target by a collector assembly mounted in the y-z plane ("out-of-plane" Fig. 4.5b) in run #A-1 and in the x-y plane (containing the laser beam and the target normal, or "in-plane" Fig. 4.5c) in run #A-2 to collect part of the ejected  $\text{UO}_2$  from laser-heated spot. The collector disks were half inches diameter, arranged in arrays of about  $10^\circ$  angular resolution. The collector assembly was 3 inches away from the target.  $\text{UO}_2$  target was subject to five laser shots of energy 28 joules each in run #A-1, and two shots of 26 joules each in run #A-2.

The teflon disks were irradiated in the Berkeley Research Reactor\*\* and the amount of  $\text{UO}_2$  was determined by counting the fission products radioactivity with a 3" by 3" NaI(Tl) scintillation detector and a 1024 multichannel analyzer. Calibrated standards consisting of known amount of uranium from uranyl nitrate solution deposited on teflon disks were used to determine the absolute magnitude of the quantity of uranium deposited on the disks by the laser vaporization process. Prior to assembling the stack of disks and the standards in the reactor capsule, the disks were sprayed with a plastic coating to prevent loss of uranium by abrasion or loss of neutron-induced radioactivity by recoil from the thin uranium layer. By this technique, not only could the angular distribution be determined but also the total amount of  $\text{UO}_2$  vaporized in one pulse. The results are shown in Table 4.1.

\*Teflon was employed to minimize the background due to activation of the disk proper. A "blank" teflon was also irradiated with the samples to obtain the background counts, which came out to be less than 1% of the sample counts.

\*\*Two hours of irradiation under flux of  $5 \times 10^{12}$  n/sec-cm<sup>2</sup> at 1 MW full power and one week cooling before counting.



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Fig. 4.5 The Collector Assembly for Angular Distribution Measurement and Liquid Droplet Collection Inspection

**TABLE 4.1****The Amount of  $\text{UO}_2$  Collected from Neutron Activation Analysis**

Angle (deg)	Run #A-1 $m(\mu\text{g})$	Run #A-2 $m(\mu\text{g})$
85	16.85	5.82
75	20.58	8.06
65	23.26	9.75
55	26.06	-
45	32.69	-
35	36.51	-
25	42.11	22.47
15	49.95	27.66
5	55.79	32.68
0	60.39	33.75
5	53.06	32.34
15	46.49	29.76
25	46.23	24.27
35	47.07	19.75
45	42.65	16.55
55	32.87	12.93
65	29.10	11.07
75	26.07	8.37
85	19.64	5.67
$M_{\text{tot}}^{**}$	8.8	4.2

\*  $m_0$  is the amount of  $\text{UO}_2$  collected on the disk at a direction normal to the surface (zero degree);  $m_0 = 60.39 \mu\text{g}$  for run #A-1 and  $33.75 \mu\text{g}$  for run #A-2.

\*\*  $M_{\text{tot}}$  (in mg) is the total mass after integrating over a hemisphere.

The amount of  $\text{UO}_2$  collected in each teflon disk (m) ranged from  $5 \mu\text{g}$  to  $60 \mu\text{g}$ , which corresponds to about  $40 \text{ \AA}$  to  $480 \text{ \AA}$  thicknesses of  $\text{UO}_2$  if uniformly deposited. Table 4.1 shows that even the disks at angles close to  $90^\circ$  from the surface normal collected significant amounts of  $\text{UO}_2$ . This phenomenon, which would not occur for a cosine angular distribution is usually called "tails" of the distribution and is believed to be due to collisional effects [60].

From the geometry of the collection disks system and the angular distribution of emitted  $\text{UO}_2$  determined, integration over the hemisphere gives the total quantity of  $\text{UO}_2$  vaporized by the laser pulse.

$$M_{\text{tot}}(\text{exp}) = \frac{2\pi L^2}{\pi a^2} \int_0^{\pi/2} m(\theta) \sin\theta d\theta \quad (4-1)$$

where  $m(\theta)$  is the collected vapor mass on the disk at angle  $\theta$  with respect to the surface normal (presumably axisymmetric),  $L$  is the distance between the disk and the vaporization surface and  $a$  is the disk radius.

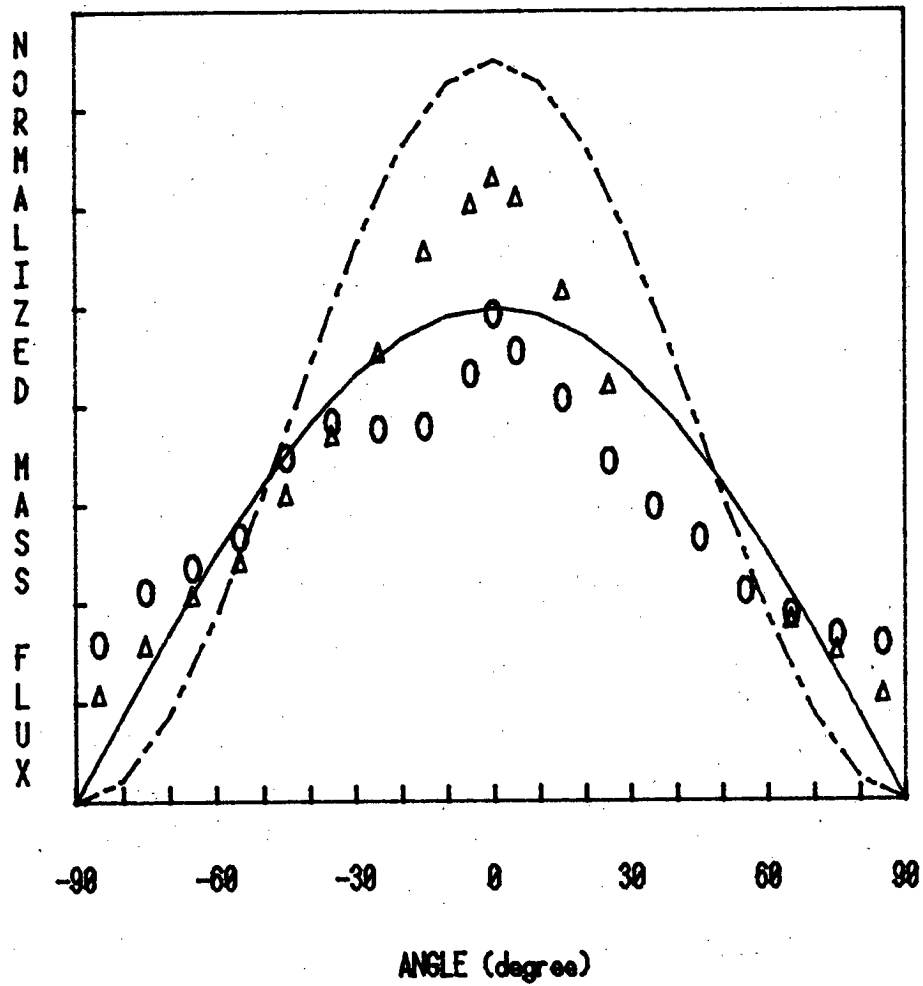
Total amounts of  $\text{UO}_2$  evaporated can also be theoretically calculated based upon the Langmuir vaporization formula and the surface temperature radial profiles as follows:

$$M_{\text{tot}}(\text{theory}) = \int_0^\infty \int_0^a \Phi(r) 2\pi r dr dt \quad (4-1a)$$

where  $\Phi(r)$  is the mass evaporation rate ( $= \frac{(1-\beta)p(T_s)\sqrt{M_{\text{UO}_2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi RT_s(r)}} \text{ ing/cm}^2\text{-sec}$ ) and  $T_s(r)$  is calculated from the STAR code with laser radial profile measured in Sec. III.2.1.2.

From the mass distribution in Table 4.1, Eq. (4-1) gives the amounts of  $\text{UO}_2$  evaporated as 8.8 mg in run #A-1 and 4.2 mg in run #A-2, compared to the theoretical calculation of 7.9 mg and 3.9 mg in each run, respectively, from Eq. (4-1a). The results are quite consistent except that the measured values are about 10% higher.

The angular distributions normalized with respect to the total amounts of material evaporated ( $M_{\text{tot}}(\text{exp})$ ) are shown in Fig. 4.6. Also shown for comparison are  $\cos\theta$  and  $\cos^2\theta$  distributions suggested for Knudsen effusion and supersonic free-jet expansion respectively. This figure shows that the mass flux angular distribution can be approximated by  $\cos^n\theta$  distribution



— cosine distribution  
 - - - cosine square distribution  
 O in-plane measurement  
 Δ out-of-plane measurement

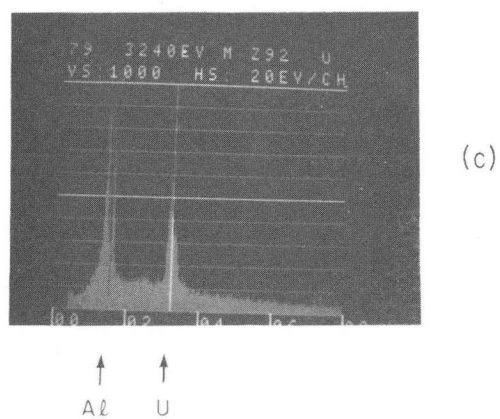
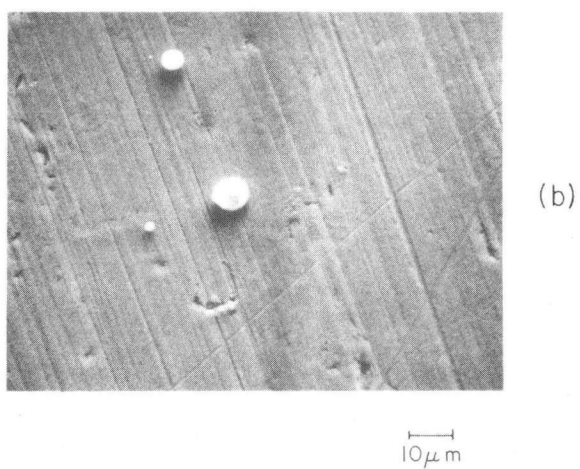
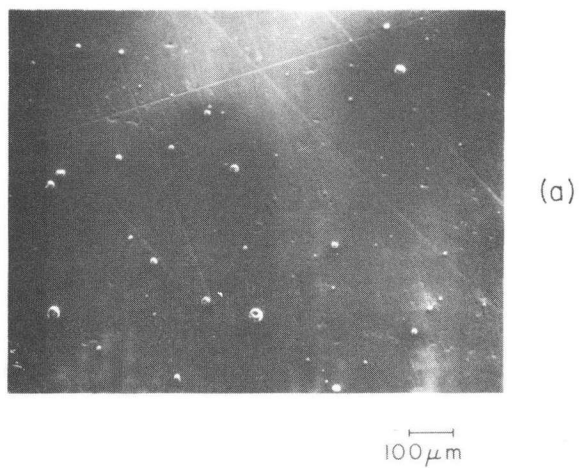
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Fig. 4.6 Angular Distribution of the Laser Blow-off



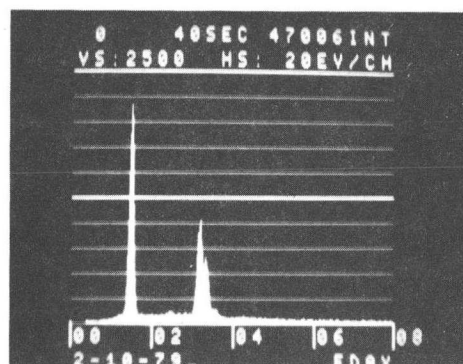
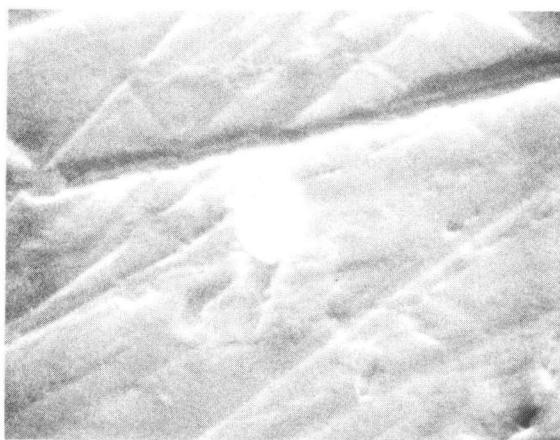
where  $n$  is between 1 and 2. It suggests that the flow might have gone through a transition to collision dominated flow (see Appendix E).

The second set of aluminum disks shown in Fig. 4.5 collected some of the vapor plume for scanning electron microscope examination. This test was intended to determine whether the vapor blowoff consisted solely of a molecular vapor or also contained a condensed phase. Figs. 4.7 and 4.8 show scanning electron micrographs of the aluminum disks in run A-1 and A-2, respectively. It is evident that there is condensed-phase agglomerates of  $\text{UO}_2$  on the disks, some with donut shape and some spherical -- suggesting that they were liquid globules before striking the disks. The radii of the frozen droplets range from  $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$  to  $15 \mu\text{m}$ . Elemental analysis (EDAX) results, shown in Figs. 4.7c and Fig. 4.8b,c, show large peaks of uranium on the particulate phase and little uranium on the matrix (from condensed vapor). The particles on the surface are principally uranium, most likely in the form of  $\text{UO}_2$ . Two interpretations of this result are possible: either (a)  $\text{UO}_2$  liquid-droplet ejection directly from the melt occurs, or (b) liquid droplets are formed by condensation in the highly superaturated vapor plume. The mass of  $\text{UO}_2$  as particles was calculated from their size and spacing on the collector surfaces. The mass associated with the particles (estimated from the optical microscope observation) is at most 1% of the total  $\text{UO}_2$  collected on each disk. Therefore, the formation of liquid droplets does not affect the angular distribution measurement, nor the interpretation of the vaporization as a molecular process. However, further investigation of droplet formation may help in understanding the vaporization and vapor expansion processes.

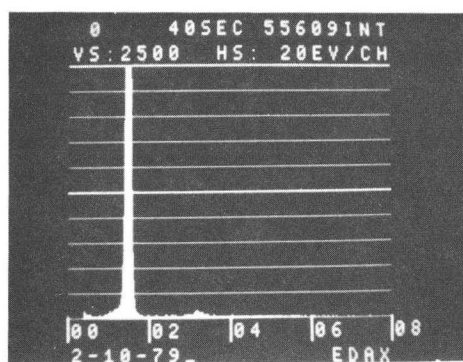


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Fig. 4.7 Aluminum Disk Collector Surface following Run #A-1  
(a) & (b) Scanning Electron Microphotographs  
(c) EDAX Analysis of the white spot



↑    ↑  
Al    U



↑    ↑  
Al    U

XBB 801-351

Fig. 4.8 Aluminum Disk Collector Surface following Run #A-2  
(a) Scanning Electron Microphotograph  
(b) EDAX Analysis of the white spot in (a)  
(c) EDAX Analysis of gray surface

#### IV.4 FREE-JET PHOTOGRAPHY

The high Mach number\* shock waves have been observed and investigated for years. When a relatively low pressure atmosphere experiences a sudden compression from a high pressure wave, a compression wave is formed and propagates along the streamline. It finally reaches the boundary where a density discontinuity (shock wave) occurs. The nozzle jet expansion is a typical example. The shock wave structure, characterized by the barrel shock boundary and the normal shock (or Mach disc) boundary, has been shown to be related to the flow properties (e.g. the pressure jump, Mach number) of the jet. By photographing\*\* the shock structure created by the laser-induced free jet, one can measure the saturation total vapor pressure of the materials evaporated by laser pulse. This method has been found quite successful in measuring the high temperature vapor pressure of graphite [60]. The same apparatus was used for  $\text{UO}_2$ .

##### IV.4.1 Experimental Apparatus

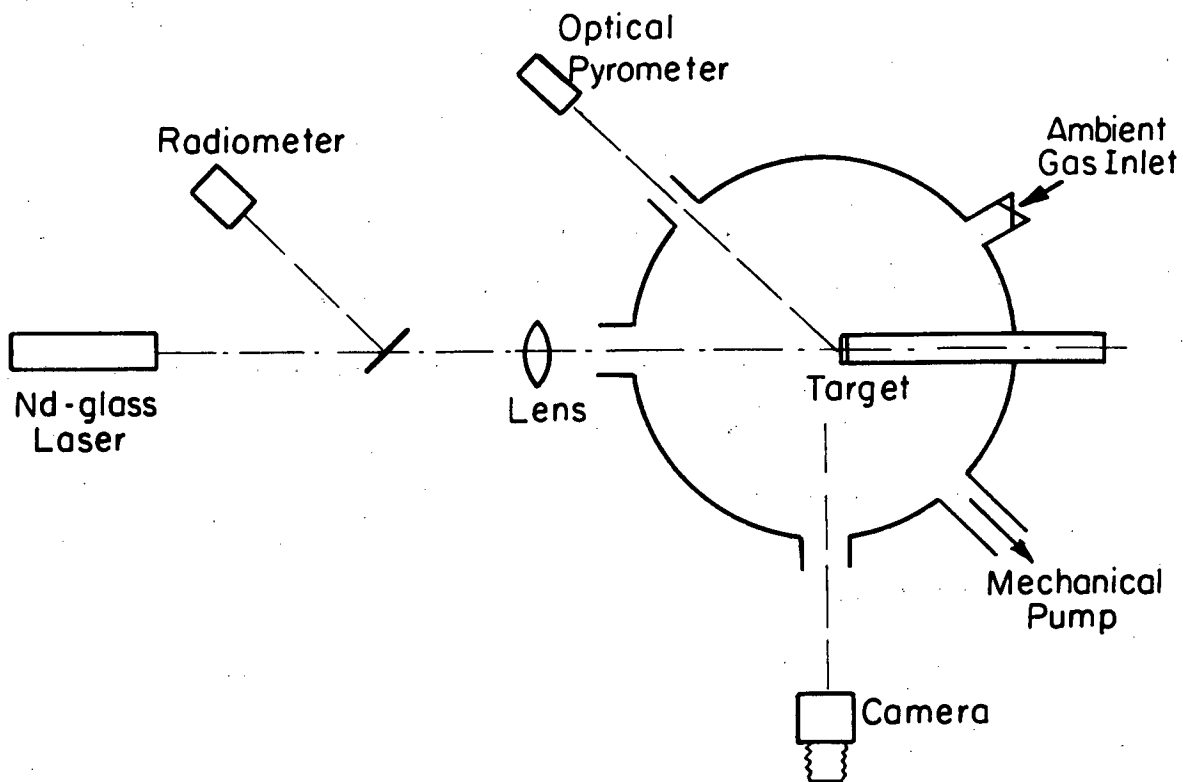
A sketch of the apparatus set up is shown in Fig. 4.9. The solid sample is heated by a normal mode Nd-glass laser pulse of msec duration to develop the visible shock structure. The background gas pressure is varied from shot to shot at levels between 1 atm and a few microns, in order to get the best image of Mach disc geometry on the pictures. It is found that the result is independent of the type of ambient gas used, air or Argon. A conventional camera is used to obtain time-integrated images of the evaporating  $\text{UO}_2$  free-jet structure. The barrel shock and the normal shock (Mach disc) appear as well-defined boundaries on the photos. The analogy of laser induced flow to the free-jet expansion from a sonic orifice is supported not only by the similarity of the shock characteristics observed, but also confirmed by a molecular velocity measurement with a time-of-flight mass spectrometer [61].

The surface temperature transient was measured by a pre-calibrated wide-band silicon

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\*Mach number is defined by the ratio of the fluid velocity to the sound velocity.

\*\*The self-luminosity of the jet is believed to be caused by emission from excited molecular species in the flow.



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Fig. 4.9 Experimental Apparatus Setup for Mach Disk Photographic Measurement

photodetector pyrometer. The maximum displacement of the standing normal shock from the vaporizing surface (i.e., the position of the outer boundary of the Mach disc image) corresponding to the time at which peak surface temperature and pressure occur. This has been justified by time-resolved photographs framing camera[60]. The maximum total vapor pressure is then interpreted from the Mach disc formula[60] by analogy with a free jet expansion from a sonic orifice (see Appendix F):

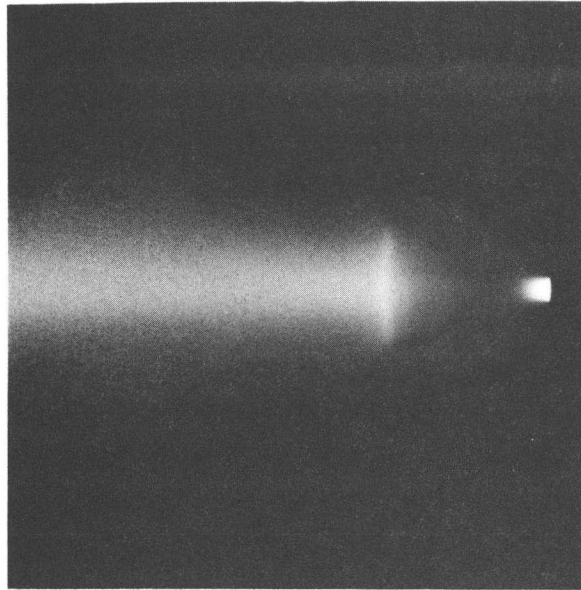
$$\frac{x}{d} = 0.67 \left( \frac{p_o}{p_\infty} \right)^{1/2} \quad (4-2)$$

where  $x$  is the axial distance between the Mach disc and the orifice,  $d$  is the sonic orifice diameter,  $p_o$  is the total (reservoir) pressure, and  $p_\infty$  is the ambient (background) pressure.

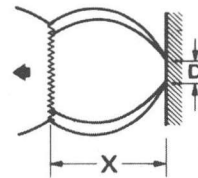
In applying Eq. (4-2) to laser pulsing of solids, the following identifications are made: (i) the "orifice diameter" is the spot size on the solid illuminated by the laser, and (ii) the "reservoir" pressure is the total vapor pressure on the solid surface.

#### IV.4.2 Results and Discussion

Fig. 4.10 shows the barrel shock and Mach disc typical of this type of laser-generated aerodynamic flow. Table 4.2 shows the results deduced from the photos and Eq. (4-2) as well as the temperatures measured by the pyrometer and the temperatures calculated by the computer code "STAR" described in chapter II. The total energy of the laser pulse and its temporal shape are obtained from a radiometer signal, and are then used as the input for the computer code. A uniformly distributed power profile on the target was assumed. The vapor pressures plotted against temperatures are shown in Fig. 4.11, compared with extrapolations of low temperature measurements (see Appendix A). The discrepancy of about a factor of 2 to 4 deviation for temperatures above 4000 K is believed to be due to nonequilibrium radiation from the hot  $\text{UO}_2$  vapor in the plume, which is apparently very rich in excited gaseous species emitted from the surface. This emission has been observed spectroscopically by side-viewing a rapid scanning spectrometer onto the vapor alone. It is also doubtful that the "reservoir" pressure in the Mach disc formula represents the total vapor pressure on the surface. In accordance with



$$\frac{X}{D} = 0.67 \left( \frac{P_0}{P_1} \right)^{1/2}$$



XBB 770-12666

Fig.4.10 Typical Photograph of  $UO_2$   
Vapor Plume Structure.

TABLE 4.2

The Total Vapor Pressure of  $\text{UO}_2$  by Free-Jet Photography Method

Shot #	Pulse Energy $E_i$ (J)	Peak Power Density* ( $10^5 \text{W/cm}^2$ )	Maximum Temperature (K)		O/U** at Max Temp	Vapor Pressure (atm)	
			$T_{\text{exp}}$	$T_{\text{calc}}$ **		$P_{\text{exp}}$	$P_{\text{calc}}$ **
47	3.65	0.60	3396	3390	1.976	0.16	0.22
50	4.49	0.74	3643	3640	1.958	0.38	0.54
53	4.90	0.81	3766	3730	1.948	0.48	0.75
55	6.78	1.12	3984	3980	1.896	0.74	1.5
61	17.53	2.89	4926	4690	1.337	2.1	6.2
67	38.71	6.39	5764	5250	1.133	3.2	13.0
68	43.83	7.24	5917	5290	1.110	3.6	13.8

\* Peak power density is given by  $Q_p = P_{\text{max}}(1-R)/A$ , where  $P_{\text{max}}$  = peak power =  $E_i/5.074 \times 10^{-4}$ ,  $R$  = reflectivity of  $\text{UO}_2$  to Nd-glass laser = 0.05 and  $A$  = evaporation surface area =  $0.113 \text{ cm}^2$ .

\*\* From computer code "STAR", allowing for oxygen depletion at the surface. The pressure is that at the maximum temperature of all uranium-bearing species over  $\text{UO}_{2-x}$ , where  $2-x$  is the O/U ratio of the surface at the time of the maximum temperature.



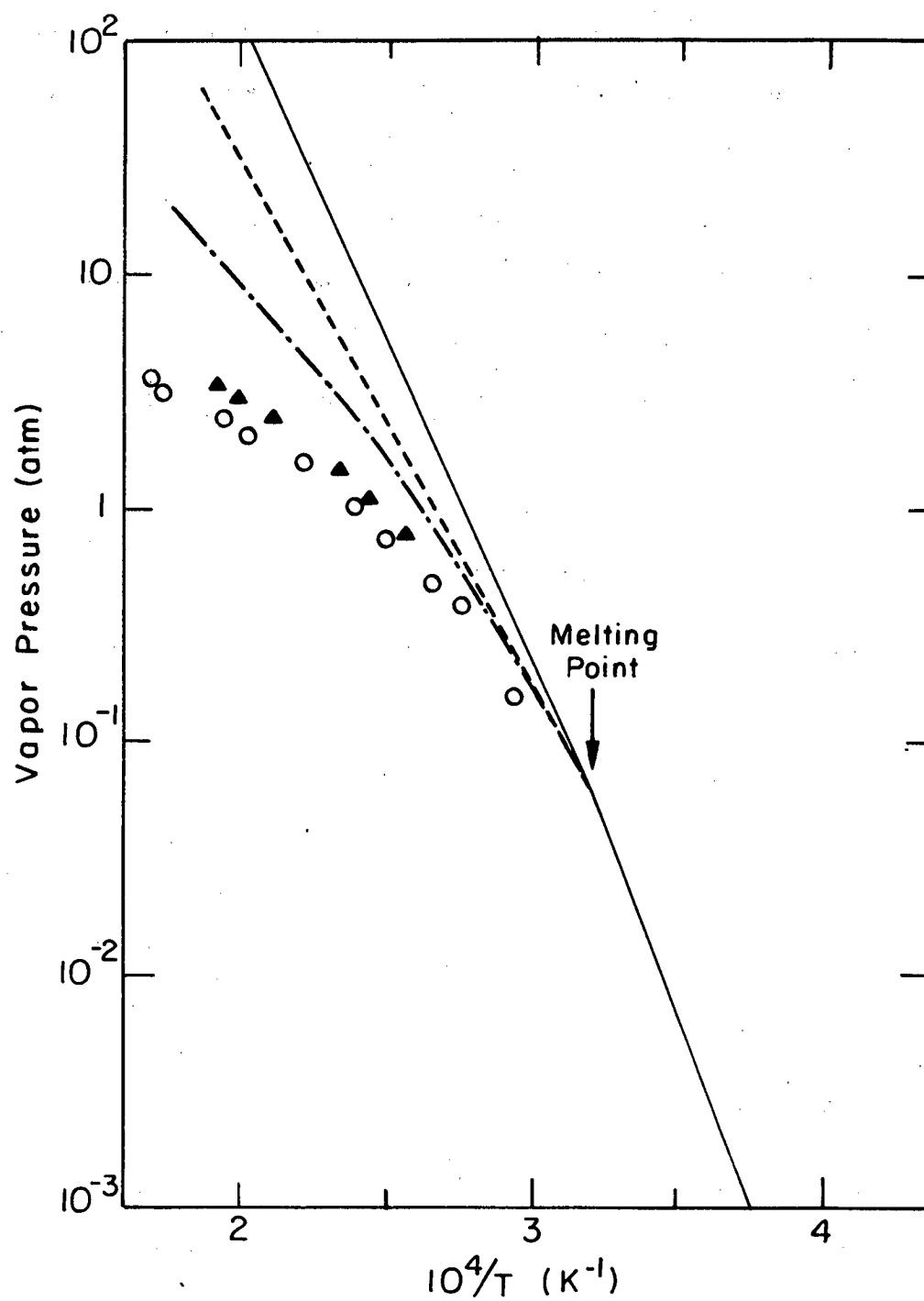


Fig. 4.11  $\text{UO}_2$  total vapor pressures

- averaged extrapolation from low temperature
- - - equilibrium total vapor pressure of  $\text{UO}_{2.00}$  from [82]
- · - vapor pressure from [82] including O/U depletion
- $\circ$  photographic measurements
- $\Delta$  photographic measurements with calculated temperatures

Anisimov's model[34], a nonequilibrium layer exists between the surface and the zone when continuum flow starts. The pressure drops about a factor of 5 across this layer of a few mean free paths thickness before the vaporizing molecules can accelerate to the local velocity of sound and reach hydrodynamic equilibrium.

The same type of experiment has been recently carried out by Ohse[62], in which the orifice diameter was corrected by an effective area considering the radial evaporation flux distribution and the pressure was also corrected assuming an adiabatic expansion process. The results are about a factor of 5 higher than the values reported here, and this discrepancy is relatively insensitive to the temperature. The influence of the light from the hot vapor on the measured temperature was also reported in Ref. 62, in which the pyrometrically measured temperature increases with background pressure for a constant laser energy.

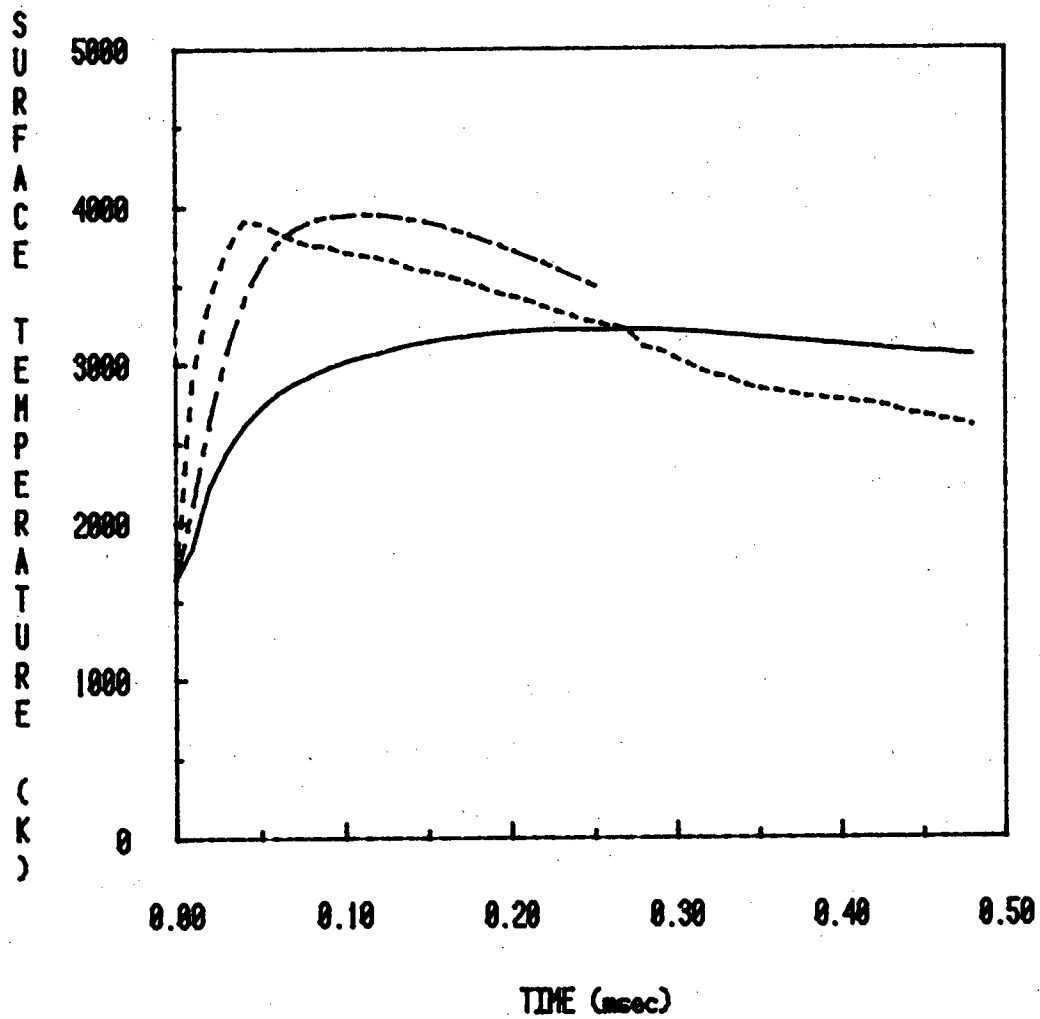
#### IV.5 TEMPERATURE MEASUREMENT

The surface temperature of each experiment is measured by a automatic optical pyrometer operated in the transient mode. The time response of the photomultiplier at this mode is normally in the nanosecond range; however, the external RC time constant connected to this optical unit is in tenth of millisecond range, the same order as the temperature transient, so the raw temperature trace has to be corrected for the external RC circuit.

For a current source connecting to a RC circuit with resistance R and capacitance C, the relation between the input current I(t) and the output voltage V(t) is the following:

$$I(t) = C \frac{dV(t)}{dt} + \frac{V(t)}{R} \quad (4-3)$$

In our case, the resistance R is the input resistance of the transient recorder, 1 M $\Omega$ , and the capacitance C is the summation of the input capacitance of the transient recorder, 25 pf, and the line capacitance, -275 pf. After this correction, the voltage R $\times$ I(t) is used to obtain the temperature transient through Fig. 3.7. Fig. 4.12 shows a typical temperature trace with time. The solid line and dashed line are the temperature before and after correction for RC time constant, respectively. Also shown in the figure is the surface temperature calculated from the computer program STAR for that particular experimental run. The maximum surface temperature of the experiment and the calculation agree quite well but they show different time characteristics. The measured temperature tends to rise faster than the calculation, while they both cool at the same rate. Fig. 4.13 shows a comparison of the maximum surface temperatures of experiment and calculation as function of input laser total energy.



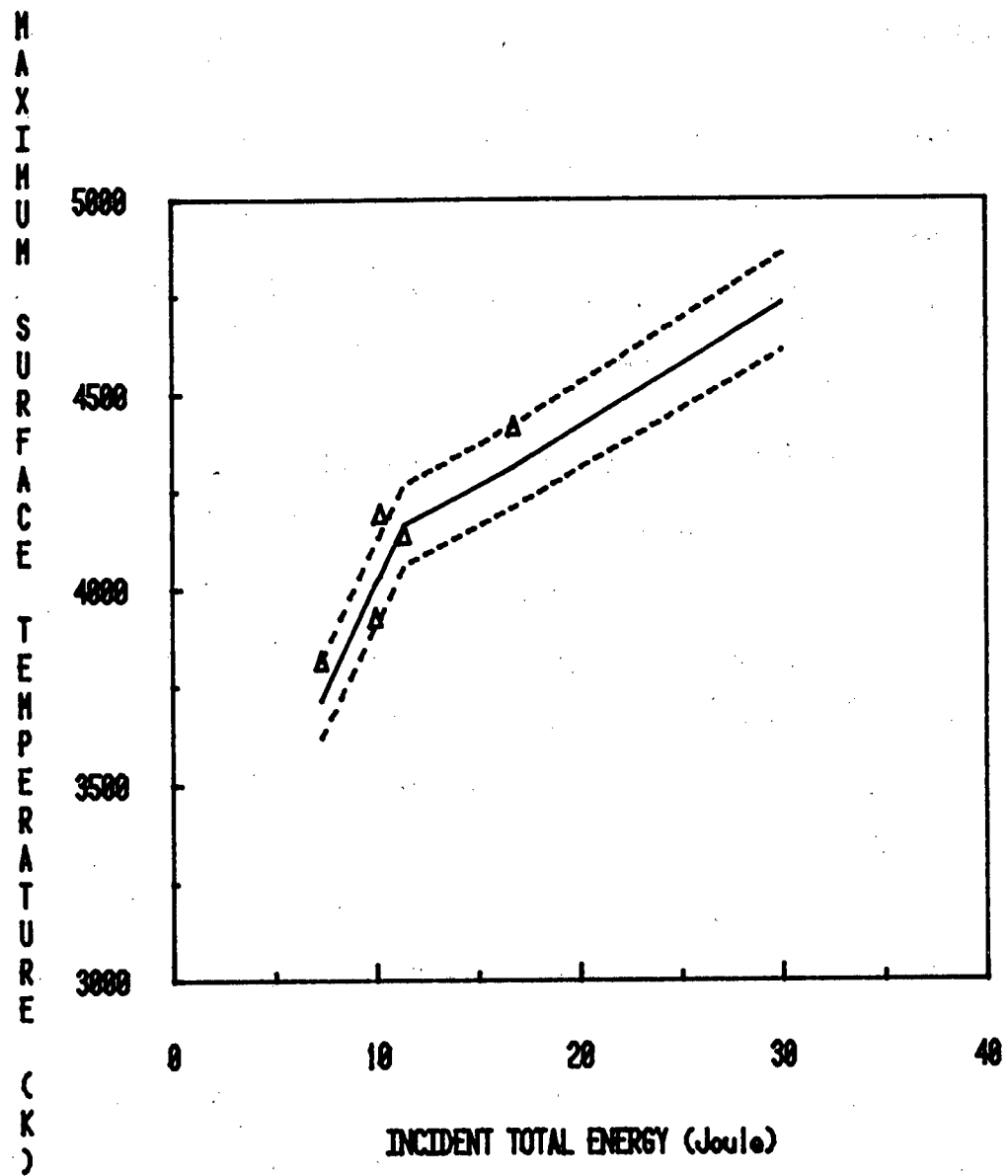
RUN #I-5 on 06/23/81

EI = 10 Joules

———— Experiment before RC correction  
----- Experiment after RC correction  
- · - · - Theoretical

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Fig. 4.12 Surface Temperature Transient for 10 J Laser Pulse



——— Theoretical Mean  
 - - - - - Confidence Limits  
 Δ Experimental

XBL 8111-12519

Fig. 4.13 Calculated and Measured Maximum Surface Temperature

## IV.6 MASS SPECTROMETER MEASUREMENT

### IV.6.1 Molecular Density in the Ionizer

#### IV.6.1.1 Theory:

The molecular density in the ionizer from a vaporizing surface of transient surface temperature  $T_s(t)$  is derived by Olstad[48]:

$$n(t) = \frac{\alpha(1-\beta)lA_s}{k} \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k}\right)^{3/2} \int_0^t \frac{p(T_s)}{T_s^{5/2}(t-\tau)^4} \exp\left(\frac{-ml^2}{2kT_s(t-\tau)^2}\right) d\tau \quad (4-4)$$

where  $\alpha$  = condensation coefficient (assumed = 1)

$\beta$  = backscattering coefficient due to the collisions between the vaporizing molecules (= 18% based on Anisimov's calculation[34])

$l$  = distance from source to the ionizer (= 40 cm)

$A_s$  = surface area viewed by mass spectrometer ( $\approx 0.79 \text{ cm}^2$ )

$k$  = Boltzmann constant

$m$  = mass of the molecule detected

$p$  = partial pressure of the molecule detected at temperature  $T_s$

$T_s$  = the surface temperature

$\tau$  = time of emission of the molecule from the source surface

$t$  = time of arrival of the molecule at the ionizer at distance  $l$ .

The calculation was based on the assumptions:

- (1) the vapor is in thermal equilibrium with the vaporizing surface,
- (2) the vaporization is Hertz-Langmuir; or, the rate of vaporization is given by Eq. (2-19) assuming unit vaporization (condensation) coefficient,
- (3) the velocity distribution of the vaporizing molecules is Maxwellian,
- (4) the angular distribution is cosine,

- (5) the expansion of the molecular flow from source to the ionizer is free of collisions, or free molecular flow.
- (6) the collisional effect is taken into account through the backscattering factor  $\beta$ .

The verification of these assumptions will be discussed later with the experimental results.

For the steady state condition such as that used in the mass spectrometer calibration (section III.2.3), the steady state density is:

$$n = \frac{\alpha(1-\beta)A_s p(T)}{4\pi l^2 kT} \quad (4-5)$$

Comparing with Eq. (3-16), we have the unit conversion factor  $K_u = 7.32 \times 10^{21}$  molecules/cm<sup>3</sup>-K/atm and the geometric constant  $K_g = \frac{A_s}{4\pi l^2} = 3.9 \times 10^{-5}$  with unity condensation coefficient.

#### IV.6.1.2 Experimental Interpretation:

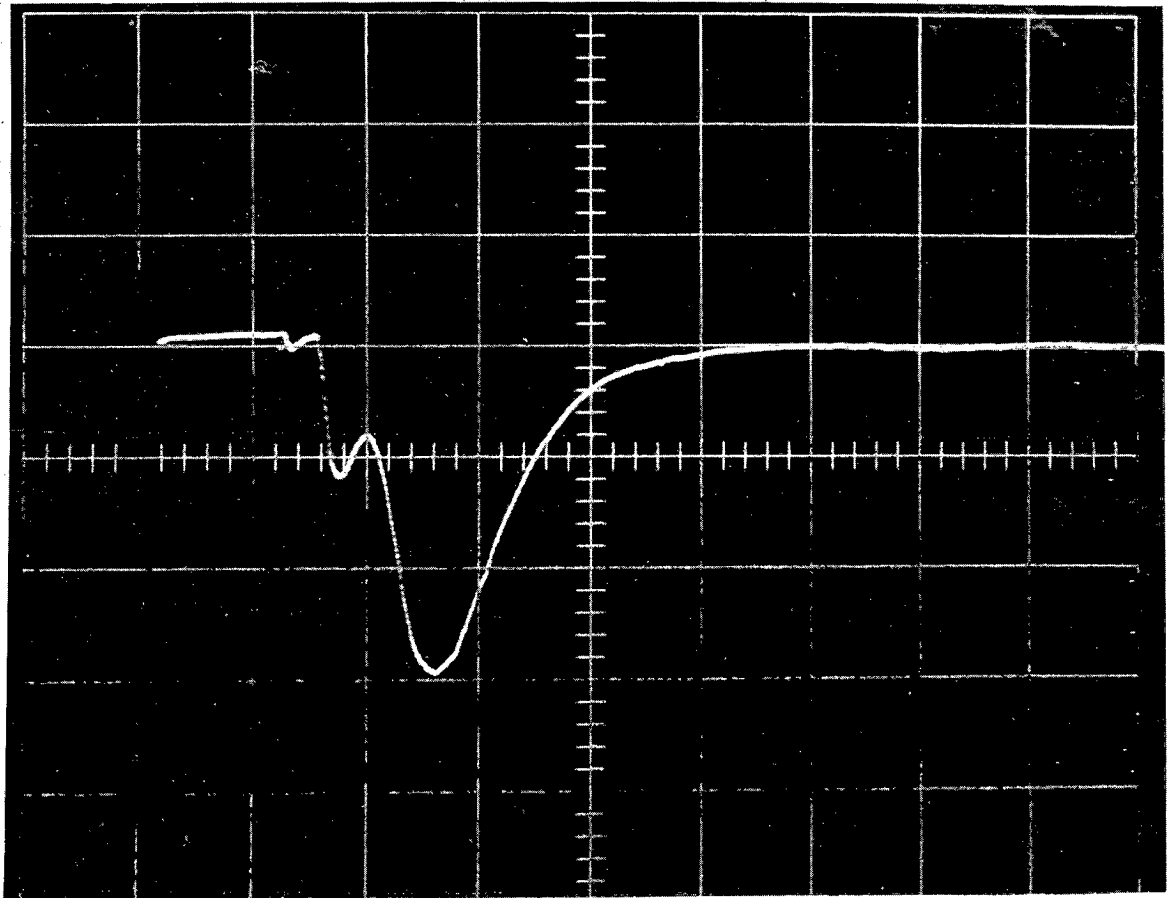
Since the sweep frequency of the mass filter for sweep mode operation is limited by the transit time of the ions through the quadrupole structure, the mass control is tuned to monitor one mass at each laser shot. Fig. 4.14 shows a typical measured raw  $UO_2^+$  signal by the mass spectrometer when it is tuned for mass 270. Therefore, in order to obtain the informations for each laser energy and temperature transient, four separate shots are needed to detect the four uranium bearing species, namely, U, UO,  $UO_2$ , and  $UO_3$ . After recording the output voltage signals of all the species, the following steps should be taken to yield the molecular densities of the measured neutral species in the ionizer:

- (1) Correction for the RC time constant of the external circuitry:

Beginning with the voltage measured as a function of time by the transient recorder  $V_{ms}(t)$ , and given the external circuit as shown in Fig. 4.15, the current  $I_{emp}(t)$  out of the electron multiplier is given by:

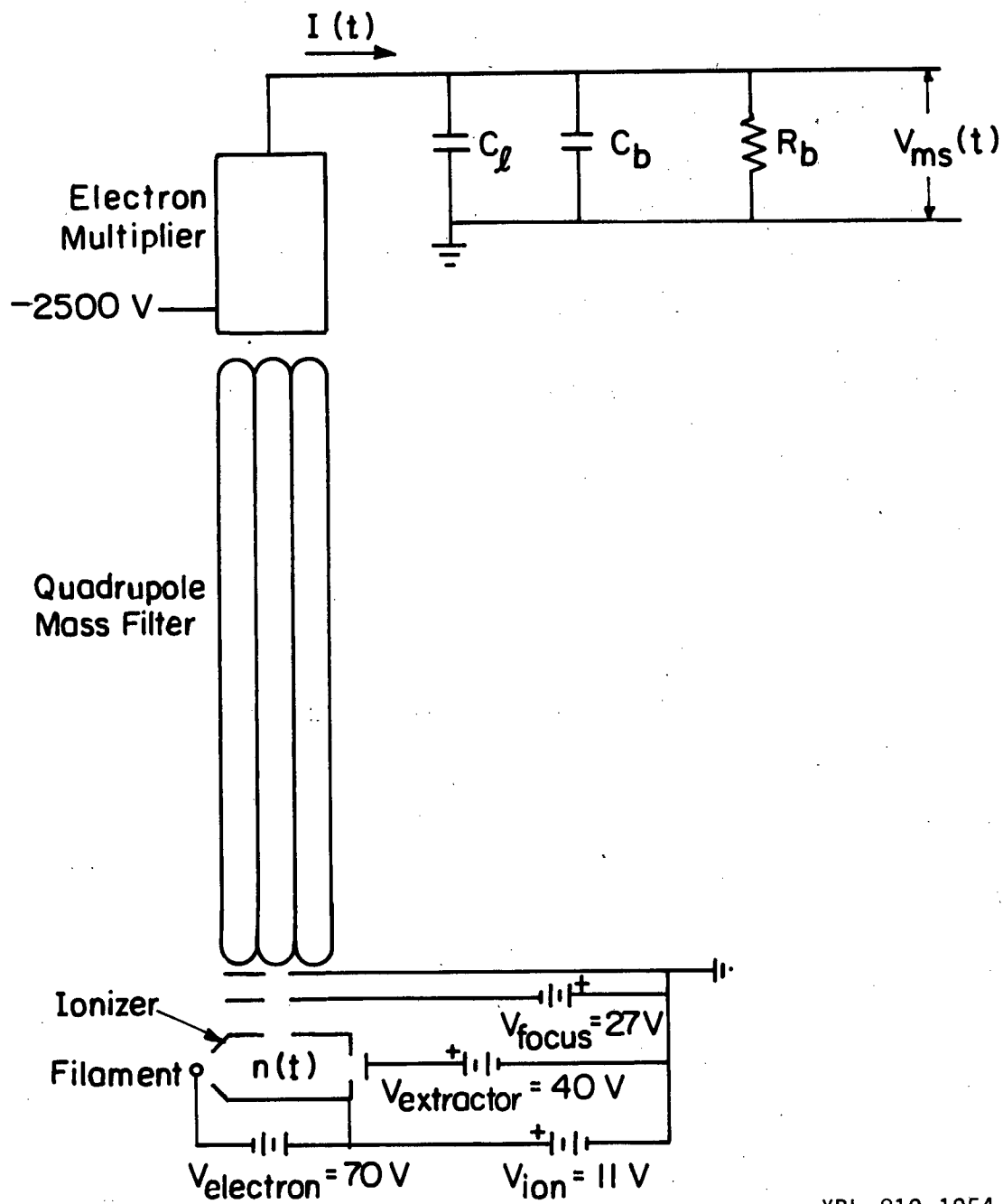
$$I_{emp}(t) = (C_l + C_b) \frac{dV_{ms}(t)}{dt} + \frac{V_{ms}(t)}{R_b} \quad (4-6)$$

where  $C_l$  = the capacitance of the cable lines



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Fig. 4.15 Electrical Circuit of Mass Spectrometer Ionizer and External Circuit for Signal Recording

$C_b$  = the input capacitance of the transient recorder

$R_b$  = the input resistance of the transient recorder.

(2) Correction for the electron multiplier efficiency:

The rate of the ion collected by the first dynode of the electron multiplier  $I_{fd}$  is given by

$$I_{fd}(t) = \frac{I_{emp}(t)}{G\gamma} \quad (4-7)$$

where  $G$  = electron multiplier gain

$\gamma$  = number of secondary electrons emitted at the first dynode for each ion collected.

(3) Correction for the ion drift time and efficiency of the quadrupole structure:

The ions produced in the ionizer per unit time  $I_{ion}$  is given by

$$I_{ion}(t) = \frac{I_{fd}(t + t_d)}{F_q} \quad (4-8)$$

where  $t_d$  = drift time of ions from ionizer through quadrupole

(acceleration time before quadrupole is neglected)

$F_q$  = the fraction of ions reaching the electron multiplier

compared to the total ions produced in the ionizer.

The drift time  $t_d$  can be calculated from the ion kinetic energy entering the quadrupole

$eV_{ion}$ :

$$eV_{ion} = \frac{1}{2} m \left( \frac{L_q}{t_d} \right)^2 \quad (4-9)$$

where  $V_{ion}$  = ion potential relative to the ionizer

$e$  = ion charge

$m$  = ion mass

$L_q$  = length of quadrupole structure (= 14 cm)

Solving for  $t_d$  gives

$$t_d = L_q \left( \frac{m}{2eV_{ion}} \right)^{1/2} \quad (4-10)$$

or

$$t_d = 1.01 \times 10^{-5} \left( \frac{M}{11} \right)^{1/2} \quad (4-11)$$

in which  $t_d$  is in second and  $M$  is the molecular weight in g/mole.

In  $\text{UO}_2$  system,  $t_d$

- = 0.0468 msec for  $\text{U}^+$  (mass 238)
- = 0.0484 msec for  $\text{UO}^+$  (mass 254)
- = 0.0499 msec for  $\text{UO}_2^+$  (mass 270)
- = 0.0513 msec for  $\text{UO}_3^+$  (mass 286).

(4) Correction for the ionization cross section and the fragmentation pattern:

For  $\text{UO}_2$  vaporization where  $\text{UO}_3$ ,  $\text{UO}_2$ ,  $\text{UO}$  and  $\text{U}$  neutral species are present in the vapor and cracking fragmentation occurs by electron impact, the ions produced in the ionizer are attributed to the sum of the ionization of the neutrals of the same mass and the fragments from the neutrals of higher mass.

Similar to the section III.2.3 for steady state condition, the production rate of the ions  $i^+$  from step (3)  $I_{i^+}$  is given by:

$$I_{i^+}(t) = [\sigma_i F_{ii} n_i(t) + \sum_{k>i}^3 \sigma_k F_{ki} n_k(t)] I_e L \quad (4-12)$$

where  $\sigma_i$  ( $\sigma_k$ ) = total ionization cross section of  $i$  ( $k$ ) neutral

$F_{ii}$  = fraction of  $i^+$  ions from  $i$  neutral

$F_{ki}$  = fraction of  $i^+$  ions from  $k$  neutral ( $m_k > m_i$ )

$n_i$  ( $n_k$ ) = molecular density of  $i$  ( $k$ ) neutral in the ionizer.

$I_e$  = emission electron current of ionizer filament

$L$  = length of the electron sheet

Combining step (1) to (4) yields:

$$\frac{1}{G \gamma_i F_q} \left[ (C_i + C_b) \frac{dV_i(t+t_d)}{dt} + \frac{V_i(t+t_d)}{R_b} \right] = [\sigma_i F_{ii} n_i(t) + \sum_{k>i}^3 \sigma_k F_{ki} n_k(t)] I_e L \quad (4-13)$$

Rearranging Eq. (4-13) gives, for each species  $i$ ,

$$V'_i(t) = \tau_{RC} \frac{dV_i(t+t_{di})}{dt} + V_i(t+t_{di}) = K_{MS} \sigma_i \gamma_i R_b [C_i F_{ii} n_i(t) + \sum_{k>i}^3 C_k F_{ki} n_k(t)] \quad (4-14)$$

where  $\tau_{RC} = R_b (C_1 + C_b)$

$K_{MS} = I_e L F_q G =$  mass spectrometer instrumental constant

$\sigma_2 =$  ionization cross section of  $UO_2$

$C_i =$  relative total ionization cross section of  $i$  neutral to that of  $UO_2 (= \sigma_i / \sigma_2)$

$\gamma_i =$  first dynode efficiency for  $i^+$  ion.

For  $UO_2$  vaporization, the measured voltage signals from the transient recorder  $V_i(t)$  ( $i=0, 1, 2, 3$ ) determine the molecular densities of the neutral molecules  $U, UO, UO_2,$  and  $UO_3$  at any time  $t$  by the numerical solutions of the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} V'_3(t) &= \tau_{RC} \frac{dV_3(t+t_{d3})}{dt} + V_3(t+t_{d3}) \\ &= K_{MS} \sigma_2 \gamma_3 R_b [C_3 F_{33} n_3(t)] \end{aligned} \quad (4-15)$$

$$\begin{aligned} V'_2(t) &= \tau_{RC} \frac{dV_2(t+t_{d2})}{dt} + V_2(t+t_{d2}) \\ &= K_{MS} \sigma_2 \gamma_2 R_b [C_2 F_{22} n_2(t) + C_3 F_{32} n_3(t)] \end{aligned} \quad (4-16)$$

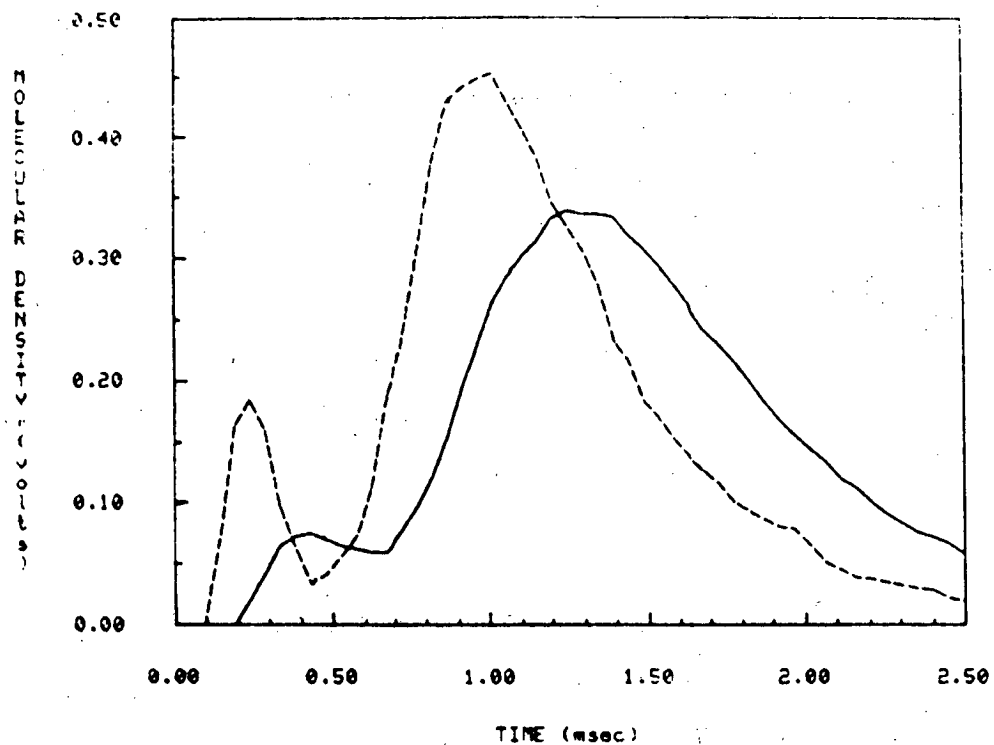
$$\begin{aligned} V'_1(t) &= \tau_{RC} \frac{dV_1(t+t_{d1})}{dt} + V_1(t+t_{d1}) \\ &= K_{MS} \sigma_2 \gamma_1 R_b [C_1 F_{11} n_1(t) + C_2 F_{21} n_2(t) + C_3 F_{31} n_3(t)] \end{aligned} \quad (4-17)$$

$$\begin{aligned} V'_0(t) &= \tau_{RC} \frac{dV_0(t+t_{d0})}{dt} + V_0(t+t_{d0}) \\ &= K_{MS} \sigma_2 \gamma_0 R_b [C_0 F_{00} n_0(t) + C_1 F_{10} n_1(t) + C_2 F_{20} n_2(t) + C_3 F_{30} n_3(t)] \end{aligned} \quad (4-18)$$

For each time  $t$ , Eqs. (4-15) - (4-18) are solved for  $V'_0, V'_1, V'_2,$  and  $V'_3$ . Then  $n_0, n_1, n_2$  and  $n_3$  are determined from the second equalities in these equations. The instrumental constant  $K_{MS} \sigma_2 \gamma_2$  is determined from the steady state calibration (Sect. III.2.3).

#### IV.6.1.3 Results:

Fig. 4.16 shows the comparison of the raw mass spectrometer signal  $V(t)$  with the result of the RC time constant and drift time correction  $V'(t)$  in Eq. (4-14). The signal shows two time peaks; the first one is attributed to the fast ions with 11 eV energy (to be discussed in a later section), while the second one is due to thermal molecules. In solving for the transient molecular densities by means of Eqs. (4-15) to (4-18), the first peaks are not included in  $V'(t)$  since the ions are not created in the ionizer by electron impact. In the correction, the transient



RUN #II-1 on 7/04/81  
SPECIES MEASURED -- UO2  
—— Measured  
----- Corrected

XBL 8111-12512

Fig. 4.16 A Measured  $\text{UO}_2^+$  Signal before and after correction for RC time constant and ion drift time

recorder input resistance is  $1\text{ M}\Omega$ , the transient recorder input capacitance is 25 pf and the line capacitance is about 175 pf, so the RC time constant for the mass spectrometer signals is about 0.2 msec. The drift time for the ions are given in Eq. (4-11). The fragment ratios  $F_{ij}$ 's, relative ionization cross section  $C_i$ , relative electron multiplier gain  $\gamma_i$  are from section III.2.3.

Six sets of experiments were carried out for mass spectrometric measurement. Table 4.3 shows the measured maximum molecular density of the uranium bearing species. Also shown are the calculations by Eq. (4-4) based on Blackburn's equilibrium model for the partial pressures and the calculated temperature transients by STAR code. Because of the uncertainties of the fragmentation pattern, the results for the species U, UO, UO<sub>3</sub> are relatively unreliable compared to UO<sub>2</sub>. For example, U mostly comes from the fragmentation of UO<sub>2</sub>, which has 4 orders of magnitude higher theoretical density. Moreover, the results for  $n_{\text{UO}_3}$  are relatively reliable compared to those of  $n_{\text{UO}}$  and  $n_{\text{U}}$  because UO<sub>3</sub> ions are always parent ions. Fig. 4.17 shows a typical UO<sub>2</sub> molecular density with time compared to the theoretical calculation. Aside a time shift of about 0.25 msec, the experimental result has very similar time response with the theoretical one. Also shown in Fig. 4.17 is an arrow of theoretical time of maximum molecular density if the flow is collision-dominated hydrodynamic flow[63]. The time response will also be narrower for hydrodynamic flow[63]. Therefore, it is concluded that the free-molecular flow is the adequate one to describe the gasdynamic flow expansion in the problem of interest.

Table 4.4 shows the ratio of  $n_{\text{UO}_3}^{\text{max}}$  to  $n_{\text{UO}_2}^{\text{max}}$ , and  $n_{\text{UO}}^{\text{max}}$  to  $n_{\text{UO}_3}^{\text{max}}$  from experiments compared with the calculations based upon the partial pressures from three different theoretical models[81,82,109]. The calculations from Blackburn[82] and Breitung[81] are consistent with the experiments. The sensitivity of calculated  $n_{\text{UO}_3}^{\text{max}}/n_{\text{UO}_2}^{\text{max}}$  and  $n_{\text{UO}}^{\text{max}}/n_{\text{UO}_3}^{\text{max}}$  to the uncertainties of material properties is estimated to be  $\pm 50\%$  from the sensitivity study described in section II.4.3. The error of measured  $n_{\text{UO}_3}^{\text{max}}/n_{\text{UO}_2}^{\text{max}}$  ratio is estimated to be  $\pm 50\%$ , while the error of measured  $n_{\text{UO}}^{\text{max}}/n_{\text{UO}_3}^{\text{max}}$  ratio may be more than 100% due to fragmentation.

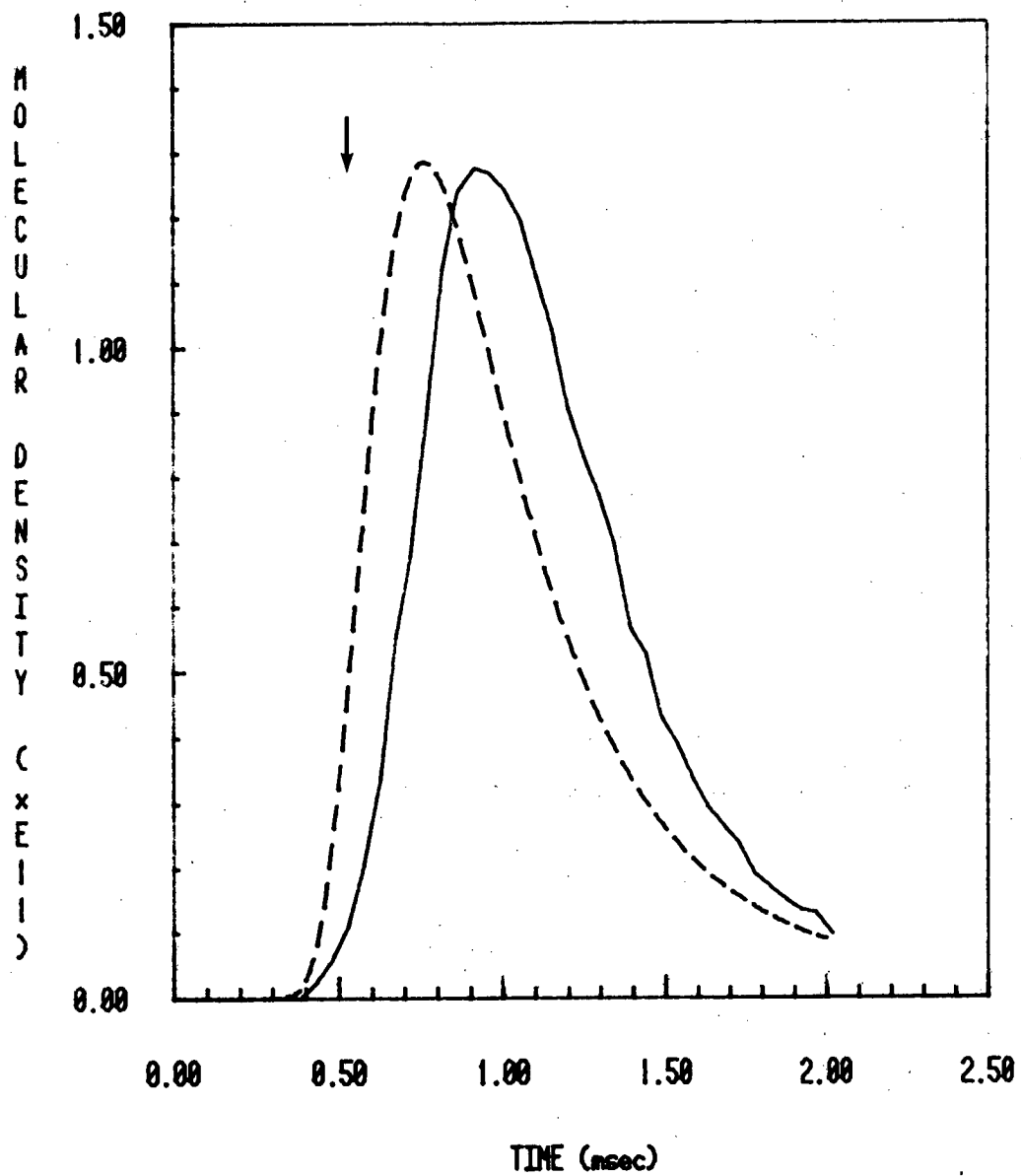
Table 4.5 shows the time of maxima of the UO<sub>2</sub> and UO<sub>3</sub> signals compared with the theoretical calculation based on Blackburn's model. The measured time of maxima are bigger

TABLE 4.3

## Maximum Molecular Density of Experiment compared with Theory

RUN#	E <sub>i</sub> (J)	Theory*					Experiment				
		T <sub>s</sub> <sup>max</sup> (K)	n <sub>UO<sub>3</sub></sub> <sup>max</sup> (×10 <sup>-11</sup> )	n <sub>UO<sub>2</sub></sub> <sup>max</sup> (×10 <sup>-12</sup> )	n <sub>UO</sub> <sup>max</sup> (×10 <sup>-10</sup> )	n <sub>U</sub> <sup>max</sup> (×10 <sup>-9</sup> )	T <sub>s</sub> <sup>max</sup> (K)	n <sub>UO<sub>3</sub></sub> <sup>max</sup> (×10 <sup>-11</sup> )	n <sub>UO<sub>2</sub></sub> <sup>max</sup> (×10 <sup>-12</sup> )	n <sub>UO</sub> <sup>max</sup> (×10 <sup>-10</sup> )	n <sub>U</sub> <sup>max</sup> (×10 <sup>-9</sup> )
I	10.6	4016	.2699	.2047	.4283	.0218	3913	.1959	.1893	.5541	.2336
II	10.25	3983	.2475	.1746	.3302	.0151	3769	.1969	.1282	.4759	.5215
VI	11.4	3963	.2799	.1985	.3756	.0172	4115	.2131	.1653	.2143	.5441
VII	16.8	4225	.4333	.4238	1.3300	.1047	4412	.2193	.3198	.4866	2.4630
VIII	7.32	3684	.1373	.0683	.0722	.0018	3813	.0988	.0454	.0563	.4435
IX	10.2	3971	.2497	.1750	.3259	.0146	4088	.1969	.1714	.5551	.2893

\* Theoretical Calculation is based on Blackburn's calculation [82] for partial pressures of each species.



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Fig. 4.17 The  $\text{UO}_2$  Molecular Density from Mass Spectrometer Signal — compared to the free-molecular flow calculation  
(The arrow shows the time of maximum density from gasdynamic expansion model.)



TABLE 4.4

The Ratios of Maximum  $\text{UO}_3$  Density to  $\text{UO}_2$  and Maximum  $\text{UO}$  Density to  $\text{UO}_3$

RUN#	$E_i$	$n_{\text{UO}_3}^{\text{max}}/n_{\text{UO}_2}^{\text{max}}$				$n_{\text{UO}}^{\text{max}}/n_{\text{UO}_3}^{\text{max}}$			
		Theory (1)	Theory (2)	Theory (3)	Experiment	Theory (1)	Theory (2)	Theory (3)	Experiment
I	10.6	.132	.294	.967	.103	.159	.224	.0079	.283
II	10.25	.142	.319	1.004	.154	.133	.194	.0072	.242
VI	11.4	.141	.296	.953	.129	.134	.221	.0079	.100
VII	16.8	.102	.215	.748	.069	.307	.493	.015	.222
VIII	7.32	.201	.381	1.161	.218	.053	.108	.0039	.057
IX	10.2	.143	.313	.992	.115	.131	.199	.0072	.282

\* Theory<sup>(1)</sup>: Blackburn's Calculation [82]

Theory<sup>(2)</sup>: Breitung's Calculation [81]

Theory<sup>(3)</sup>: Leibowitz's Calculation [109]

**TABLE 4.5****Time of Maximum of UO<sub>2</sub> and UO<sub>3</sub> Signals**

RUN#	E <sub>i</sub> (J)	Time of Max of n <sub>UO<sub>2</sub></sub>		Time of Max of n <sub>UO<sub>3</sub></sub>		Ratio of Time of Max	
		Theory	Experiment	Theory	Experiment	Theory	Experiment
I	10.6	0.74	1.25	0.76	1.30	0.97	0.96
II	10.25	0.73	1.01	0.75	1.10	0.97	0.92
VI	11.4	0.76	1.10	0.78	1.35	0.97	0.82
VII	16.8	0.75	1.30	0.78	1.45	0.97	0.90
VIII	7.32	0.77	1.05	0.79	1.30	0.97	0.81
IX	10.2	0.74	1.15	0.76	1.30	0.97	0.89

$$* \left( \frac{M_{\text{UO}_2}}{M_{\text{UO}_3}} \right)^{1/2} = \left( \frac{270}{286} \right)^{1/2} = 0.97$$

than calculation as pointed out earlier. However, the ratio of the two is quite consistent with a calculation based on the square root of the mass ratio.

#### IV.6.2 Gas Phase Composition

The gas phase composition can be calculated from the partial pressures of the vapor species by the following equation:

$$(O/U)_{\text{gas}} = \frac{p_O + 2p_{O_2} + p_{UO} + 2p_{UO_2} + 3p_{UO_3}}{p_U + p_{UO} + p_{UO_2} + p_{UO_3}} \quad (4-19)$$

In estimating the vapor composition from experiment, we assume that the vapor composition of the vapor adjacent to the target surface can be approximated by the vapor composition in the ionizer (within  $\pm 5\%$  estimated error), which is further approximated by the following equation:

$$(O/U)_{\text{ionizer}} = \frac{n_{UO} + 2n_{UO_2} + 3n_{UO_3}}{n_U + n_{UO} + n_{UO_2} + n_{UO_3}} \quad (4-20)$$

The contributions of oxygen atoms and oxygen molecules were estimated to be not more than 5%. The result is shown in Table 4.6.

#### IV.6.3 Fast Ions

As seen in Fig. 4.14, there are two time maxima detected for all the species except  $UO_3$ , for which the concentration is probably too small to be measurable. The first peak is believed to arise from hot ions emitted with the vapor cloud. The qualitative justification comes from the following observations: (i) Only the first peak is measured when the filament current in the ionizer is turned off, (ii) A huge signal is measured by the ion probe described in section III.1.3. The quantitative interpretation is difficult because the biased acceleration of ions by the collecting plate alters the random motion flux-density relation in the ejected vapor cloud.

The calculation by Karow[64] based on Sha's equation and effective "un-isolated" ionization potential shows that the degree of ionization due to thermal effects is 2.8% at 4500 K. The partially ionized gas does not attain plasma characteristics (quasi-neutrality and collective

**TABLE 4.6****The Oxygen-to-Uranium Ratio in the Gas Phase**

RUN#	$E_i$ (J)	Theory		Experiment	
		$T_s^{\max}$	$(O/U)_{\text{gas}}^*$	$T_s^{\max}$	$(O/U)_{\text{gas}}^{**}$
I	10.6	4016	2.146	3913	2.063
II	10.25	3983	2.152	3769	2.091
VI	11.4	3963	2.141	4115	2.096
VII	16.8	4225	2.105	4412	2.035
VIII	7.32	3684	2.192	3813	2.150
IX	10.2	3971	2.148	4088	2.069

\* Calculated from Eq. (4-19) and based on Blackburn's partial pressure calculation.

\*\* Estimated from Eq. (4-20).

behavior) at temperatures less than 5000 K. The absorption of the laser energy by a partially ionized vapor is dominated by the inverse Bremsstrahlung process of the interaction between the laser photons and the free electrons in the vapor[65]. According to the Bremsstrahlung absorption theory[66], assuming all the ions are singly charged, and that ionization is 2.8% at 4500 K, the absorption coefficient is  $0.0328 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for  $1.06 \mu\text{m}$  Nd-glass laser and  $0.0076 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for  $0.65 \mu\text{m}$  optical pyrometer. Assuming an absorbing layer of  $0.5 \text{ mm}$ [23], the absorption of  $1.06 \mu\text{m}$  laser light is 0.16% and that of  $0.65 \mu\text{m}$  radiation is 0.04%. Therefore the interference of the partially ionized vapor with the laser or with the optical pyrometer measurement is not likely to be important. However, Karow[30] proposed that, instead of the inverse Bremsstrahlung absorption which is usually in the eV range, bound-bound absorption in the visible spectral range is the mechanism responsible for the interference of the ionized vapor with the thermal radiation. According to his calculation, based on a smeared quasi-continuous energy spectrum for the vapor molecules, the uranium oxide vapor becomes optically thick and the pyrometric temperature measurement becomes unreliable when the temperature is higher than 4200 K[30,53].

From the double-maxima mass spectrometer signals, we can estimate the degree of ionization of the hot vapor. The relative magnitude of the raw signals does not directly reflect this percentage of thermionic emission because the mass spectrometer does not have the same detection efficiency for the ions and the neutral molecules. This difference is attributed to the following two factors: (i) The neutral molecules need to be ionized in order to be detected, while the ions do not, and (ii) The mass spectrometer has different extraction efficiencies (defined as the percentage of ions passing through the entry of the quadrupole structure compared to the total number of ions in the ionizer) for two groups of ions due to different velocity distributions.

The absolute ionization cross sections of uranium-bearing species have not been measured. However, the ionization efficiency of most of the molecules is in the order of  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-4}$ . The ionization efficiency of the ions is of course equal to one. In order to estimate the

extraction efficiency of ions, one has to consider the forces exerted on the ions in the ionizer. There are two principal forces from the electric potential difference in the ionizer [110]: one is due to the electric field between the filament and the electron collector (see Fig. 4.15), which tends to divert lower speed ions from a trajectory to extraction hole and results in lower extraction probability for low speed ions; the other one is due to the electric field set up by the electric potential difference between the focus electrode and the ionizer cage, which gives slow ions higher extraction efficiency than fast ones [110]. This extraction efficiency, or bias function as it is called, has been determined experimentally in Ref. 110, and the effect of the beam temperature due to the fact that the mass spectrometer is optimized at lower temperature was treated in Appendix B of the cited reference. The temperature of the neutral molecules is assumed equal to the surface temperature, which is in the range of 3600 to 4300 K. The "temperature" of the thermal ions is represented by the mean energy of the ions. It has been found [111,65] that thermal ion energies increase with increasing laser power density in proportion to approximately the 0.33 power for high atomic mass materials. From ion energy measurement given in Ref. 65, it is estimated that the thermal ions have a mean energy of approximately 30 eV. Taking into account the deceleration of the ions due to the ionizer cage relative to ground, the average ion energy in the ionizer is about 19 eV. According to Ref. 110, the extraction efficiency for ions from 4000 K neutral molecules is about 80% and about 1% for 19 eV thermonic ions.

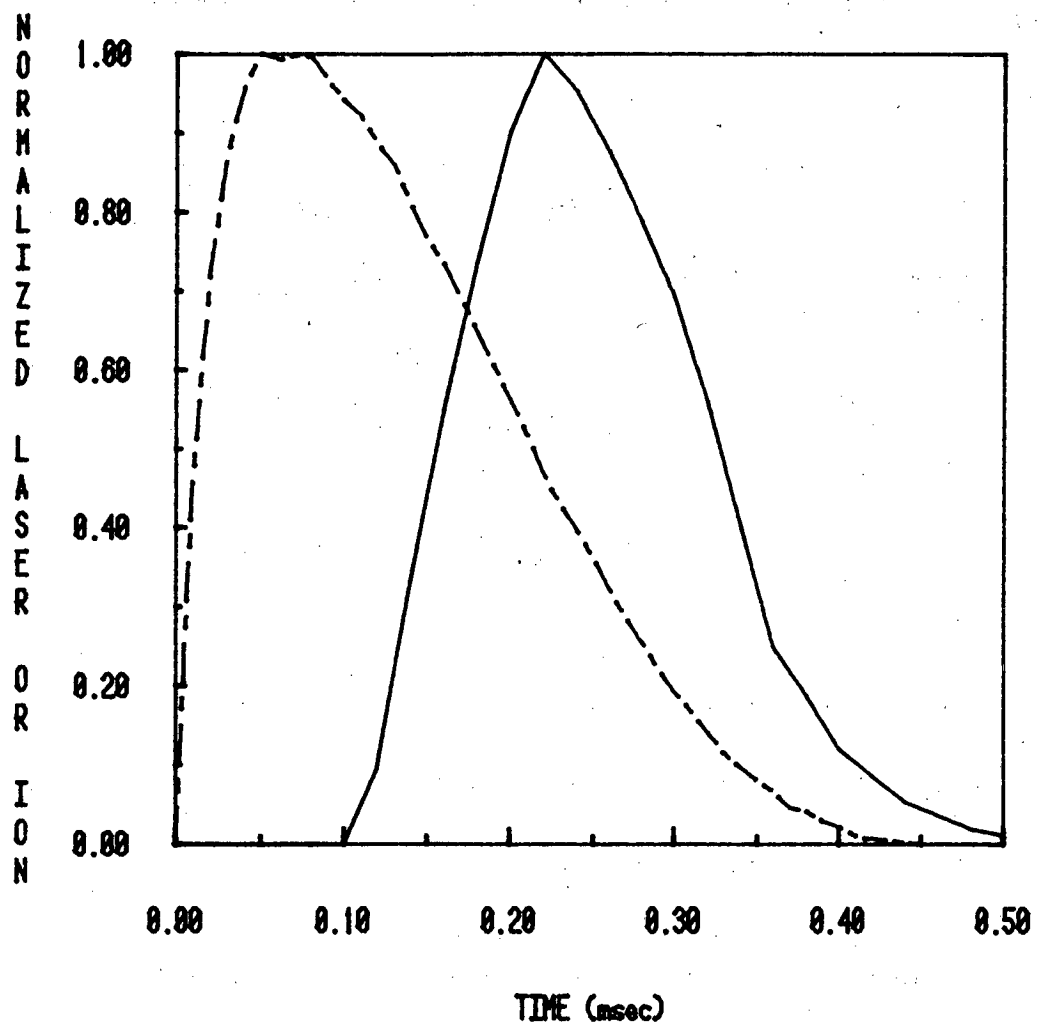
Combining factors (i) and (ii), the degree of ionization of  $\text{UO}_2$  gas in the partially ionized vapor is shown in Table 4.7. Also shown in the Table is the degree of ionization calculated by Karow [64].

Because of the 11 eV potential imposed on the ionizer cage, the ions detected by the mass filter should have energies slightly higher or equal to 11 eV. This expectation is consistent with the observation that the times of maxima for the first peaks of  $\text{U}^+$ ,  $\text{UO}^+$  and  $\text{UO}_2^+$  signals have the same ratio as that of the square root of the masses. Also, it is shown in Fig. 4.18 that the normalized ion signal follows quite well the shape of the normalized laser pulse, and the time of maximum differs for 0.14 msec, which is exactly the transit time of  $\text{UO}^+$  ions from the tar-

**TABLE 4.7****The Estimated Degree of Ionization from Mass Spectrometer Signals**

RUN#	$E_i$	$T_s^{\max}$	UO <sub>2</sub> Signal		% of Ionization*	% of Ionization <i>calc[64]</i>
			ion peak	neutral peak		
I	10.6	4016	0.05	0.68	0.8	1.82
II	10.25	3983	0.18	0.45	4.1	1.78
VI	11.4	3963	0.18	0.56	3.2	1.76
VII	16.8	4225	0.34	1.24	2.7	2.28
VIII	7.32	3684	0.08	0.17	4.6	1.32
IX	10.2	3971	0.31	0.61	5.0	1.77

\* Ionization fraction for neutral molecules in the ionizer is assumed to be  $10^{-4}$ .



———— Ion Signal  
----- Laser Pulse

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Fig. 4.18 The Mass Spectrometer Signal with zero Ionizer Filament Current compared to the Laser Pulse (species measured:  $\text{UO}^+$ )



get surface to the ionizer with 11 eV energy. Consequently, although the thermionic fast ions have an energy distribution as reported in Ref. 65, because of the filtering effect of ion potential the fast ions will not disturb the measurement of the neutrals. This filtering effect justifies the interpretation procedures described in the last section by simply eliminating the first peak from thermionic emission.

#### **IV.6.3 Dimers**

The mass spectrometer is tuned to mass 540 for  $(\text{UO}_2)_2$  and 508 for  $(\text{UO})_2$  to examine the dimer formation. No signal was measured at either mass even when the resolution was reduced to cover a mass range of about  $\pm 20$  a.m.u.

#### IV.7 VAPOR PRESSURE - TEMPERATURE RELATION

In reactor safety application, the format of the material equation of states is usually expressed in the form of either pressure - energy relation or pressure - temperature relation. A pressure - temperature relation for the total pressure of  $\text{UO}_2$  is recommended as [67]:

$$\log p = 29.65 - 34933/T - 5.641 \log T \quad (4-21)$$

where  $p$  is in atm and  $T$  is in K.

Therefore, the same kind of relation as:

$$\log p = A + B/T + C \log T \quad (4-22)$$

is assumed to fit the experiment results for the parameters  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$ . In doing the fitting, Eq. (4-4) is used to calculate the maximum  $\text{UO}_2$  molecular density and then compared with the experimental values as shown in Table 4.3.

Depending on the temperature transients used in Eq. (4-4), the following relations prove to be the best fit for the partial pressure of  $\text{UO}_2$ :

$$\log p = 26.81 - 26089/T - 5.594 \log T \quad (4-23)$$

provided that the temperature transients calculated from the computer program STAR described in Chapter II is used, and

$$\log p = 24.22 - 24238/T - 5.033 \log T \quad (4-24)$$

provided that the temperature transients measured by optical pyrometer is used. The results are shown in Fig. 4.19. About 50% discrepancy between two equations results from the difference in the temporal shape of the temperature transients as shown in Fig. 4.12.

Also shown in the figure are the calculation based on Blackburn's model for the temperature and oxygen-to-uranium ratio calculated from STAR code, and a band of limits recommended in Ref. 67 from assessing the published theoretical calculations and measurements in the literature. Notice that the limits given are for total pressures. The relation given in Eq. (4-23) is in good agreement with the calculation based on Blackburn's model. Both of the fitted equations fall inside the limits. The results of the Mach disk photographic measurement (Sect. IV.4) is also shown in Fig. 4.19 for comparison.

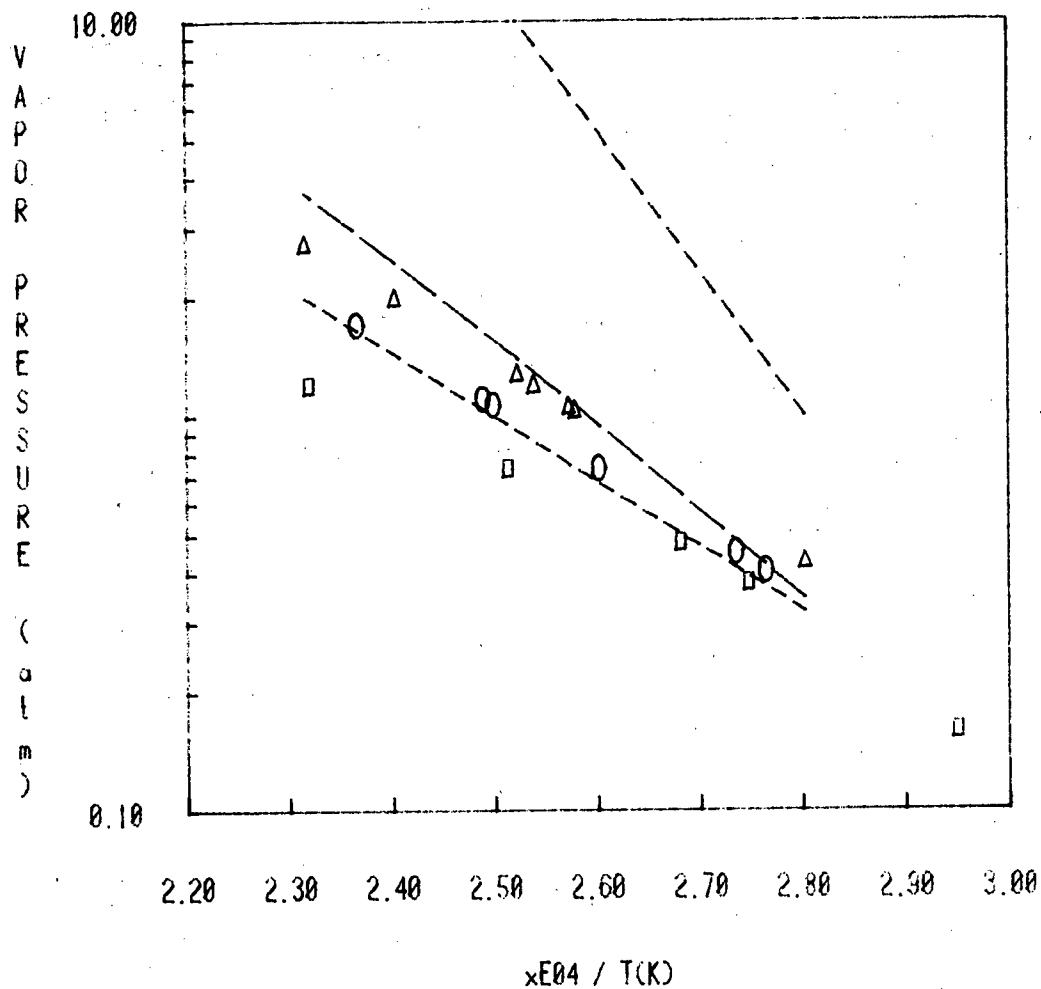


Fig. 4.19 The Pressure - Temperature Relation for  $UO_2$

— — — Blackburn's Model for  $UO_2$  partial pressure

----- recommended limits of total vapor pressure in Ref. [67]

$\Delta$  This work fitted to eq. (4-23) for  $UO_2$  partial pressure (calculated temp)

$\circ$  This work fitted to eq. (4-24) for  $UO_2$  partial pressure (measured temp)

$\square$  Mach disk Photographic measurements for total pressure (measured temp)

## V. CONCLUSION

A computer code was developed to simulate the laser heating process and calculate the surface temperature transient. The sensitivity study of the effect of uncertainties of the high temperature material properties resulted in about 3% variance for the surface temperature calculation and about 40% variance for surface O/U ratio depletion. The uncertainties in the thermal conductivity and the heat of vaporization have the greatest effect on the thermal response, while the O/U ratio is principally controlled by the diffusion coefficient.

The pyrometrically measured temperatures are in good agreement with the calculation in the mass spectrometric experiment, while in the photographic technique, the measured temperatures are higher than the calculation for temperatures above 4000 K. The excessively high temperature in the photographic measurement is believed to be due to the radiation contribution from the hot vapor when an ambient gas is present. It is concluded that the pyrometric temperature measurement is feasible up to 4000 K in ambient pressure and at least 4225 K in vacuum.

The Mach disk photographic measurement of total vapor pressure showed good agreement with theoretical prediction in temperatures below 4000 K, but a factor of 2 to 4 lower than theory above that. The low vapor pressure is partly attributed to the excessively high measured temperatures and probably partly from the wrong interpretation of "reservoir" pressure in applying the sonic orifice analogy to the vaporization process.

The mass spectrometric technique is the only way of identifying different vapor species from vaporization of solids, measuring the evaporation rate of each of them, and deducing the vapor composition. Thus it is the only way of directly checking whether vaporization is an equilibrium process. The results of the vapor pressure and the vapor composition deduced from the experiments favor the Blackburn's model for calculating the equilibrium partial pressure of each species compared to the other calculations in the literature. It also suggests that the equilibrium vaporization, after taking into account the oxygen depletion on the surface, successfully describes the vaporization process in the sub-millisecond transient, and the transient

calculation presented here is more suitable than either the congruent or the "forced congruent" calculations.

The measured time-of-arrival and the width of the mass spectrometric signals compared to the free molecular model (collisionless expansion) and hydrodynamic model (collision-dominated continuum flow) suggest that the free molecular expansion best represents the expansion process in vacuum. The fact that no dimers of any species were measured also suggests that collisions are negligible in the expansion into vacuum. On the other hand, the Mach disk structure observed in pulse vaporization under ambient background pressure is well represented by the supersonic flow expansion model.

A time delay is observed from the mass spectrometric signals compared to the theoretical calculation based upon free molecular model. However, the fact that the ratio of time of maximum of  $\text{UO}_2$  signal to  $\text{UO}_3$  signal is in satisfactory agreement with the square root of the mass ratio suggests that the time delay is not due to the expansion process or the detector. Therefore, the possibility of a time delay due to the surface processes, such as surface diffusion, formation of compound molecules, etc., which are not considered in the theoretical calculation, should be considered.

The mass spectrometric measurement also provides a way of measuring the degree of ionization of the high temperature gas ejected from the surface. The result is in good agreement with the thermionic calculation based on Sha's equilibrium model.

## APPENDIX A: THEORETICAL EXTRAPOLATIONS OF UO<sub>2</sub> VAPOR PRESSURE

Simple direct extrapolation according to the second law is not reliable because of the scatter of the measured values of the heat of sublimation and the multispecies nature of UO<sub>2</sub> vaporization. There are, however, three theoretical approaches to predict the thermodynamic equation of state in the temperature range where no experimental data are available from well-established information in the low temperature range. These theories are the Principle of the Corresponding States (PCS), the Significant Structure Theory of Liquids (SST) and the Law of Mass Action (LMA). A brief description of each of the approach and a summary of the calculations on UO<sub>2</sub> are presented here.

In dealing with the first two approaches one should keep in mind that, although the critical region of UO<sub>2</sub> is not of interest for HCDA analysis, critical point data are useful in establishing a thermodynamically consistent set of data in the temperature range of interest (4000 K - 5000 K).

### A.1 Principle of Corresponding States:

The basis of the theory states that the thermodynamic properties of fluids are universal functions of the "reduced" variables of state<sup>+</sup> (such as pressure, volume, temperature, internal energy, enthalpy etc.). The concept was originally proposed by Hirschfelder et al [68] after examining the equations of state of a number of fluids in the neighborhood of their critical points. The idea of applying this principle is that the critical constants may be estimated on the basis of experimental data from a region remote from the critical point. These predicted critical constants are then used to predict the equation of state in the intermediate range where experimental data are not available. More specifically, if the pressure, volume and temperature of a mole of material are denoted by P, V and T respectively, and their values at the critical point are P<sub>c</sub>, V<sub>c</sub> and T<sub>c</sub>, the reduced quantities are:

$$P_r = \frac{P}{P_c} ; V_r = \frac{V}{V_c} ; T_r = \frac{T}{T_c} \quad (\text{A-1})$$

<sup>+</sup>The "reduced" variable of state is defined as the ratio of the variable to its value at the critical point.

The Principle of Corresponding States has been generalized by Riedel[69] by stating that the compressibility factor  $Z$  defined as  $\frac{PV}{RT}$  should be a universal function of  $V_r$ ,  $T_r$  and  $\alpha$ , where  $\alpha$  is defined as the slope of the reduced vapor pressure-temperature curve at the critical point, or  $\alpha = \left(\frac{dP_r}{dT_r}\right)_{T_r=1}$ ; that is

$$Z = \frac{PV}{RT} = Z(V_r, T_r, \alpha) \quad (\text{A-2})$$

and the proposed critical compressibility factor  $Z_c$  is:[69]

$$Z_c = \frac{P_c V_c}{RT_c} = 1/(1.90+0.26\alpha) \quad (\text{A-3})$$

The reduced saturated vapor pressure of a fluid is a universal empirical function of reduced temperature  $T_r$ :[69]

$$\ln P_r = \alpha \ln T_r - 0.0838(\alpha - 3.75)(36/T_r - 35 - T_r^6 + 42 \ln T_r) \quad (\text{A-4})$$

Menzies[70] and Meyer and Wolfe[71] have applied Eqs. (A-3) and (A-4) and the fitted empirical vapor pressure-temperature relation in the low temperature range is:

$$\ln P(\text{atm}) = 83.804 - 76800/T - 4.34 \ln T \quad (\text{A-5})$$

by assuming 0.27 and 0.272, respectively for  $Z_c$  in Eq. (A-3).

The values of  $P_c$ ,  $V_c$ ,  $T_c$  and  $Z_c$  are listed in Table A.1.

This method is basically equivalent to extrapolating the measured vapor pressure over solid (Eq. (A-5)) by many orders of magnitude to the critical region. The weakness of direct extrapolation remains. Kapil[72] has proposed another method of determining critical constants, hoping to avoid the large extrapolations and to obtain a single set of critical constants which would be consistent with all the available low temperature data. This method is based on the universal relation of reduced density versus reduced temperature for a given  $Z_c$  as tabulated from Hougen, Watson and Ragatz[68] and the measured (i) melting temperature (ii) volume expansion coefficient of liquid (iii) liquid density at melting temperature from Christian-sen[73] to iterate and obtain a self-consistent set of critical constants ( $V_c, P_c, T_c$ ). Using various values of  $Z_c$  and the corresponding critical constants along with Riedel's vapor pressure equa-

tion (A-4), a vapor pressure equation can be written and then "extrapolated down" to the low temperature region where experimental data are available. Finally, by comparing to the experimental data (from either Ohse[7] or Tetenbaum and Hunt[5]) a specific set of critical constants is proposed, as shown in Table A.1.

According to Kapil, since the low temperature experimental data is used strictly within the range in which it is measured, in contrast to the large extrapolations of this data in the earlier methods, the chosen set of critical constants is practically insensitive to the source of data used. In addition, the major uncertainty in the use of the Principle of Corresponding States arises from the lack of a good estimate of the critical compressibility  $Z_c$  of the material, and it is explicitly "solved" in this method, while it is arbitrarily guessed in the earlier methods.

By adopting Booth's scheme[74], Browning, Gillan and Potter[75] proposed another method which combines Eqs. (A-3) and (A-4) with the law of rectilinear diameters:

$$\frac{\rho_l + \rho_v}{2} = AT + B \quad (\text{A-6})$$

where values of A and B are determined from measured values of liquid density and expansion coefficient at the melting point, assuming  $\rho_v$  to be negligible. From Christiansen's[73] liquid  $\text{UO}_2$  data, A and B are calculated  $-4.5885 \times 10^{-4}$  and 5.8076 respectively.

With reduced volume and temperature, Eq. (A-6) becomes

$$\frac{1}{V_r^l} + \frac{1}{V_r^v} = \left(\frac{CT_c}{V_c}\right)T_r + \frac{D}{V_c} \quad (\text{A-7})$$

The liquid density is given by Guggenheim[76]

$$\frac{1}{V_r^l} = 1 + 0.85(1 - T_r) + (0.53 + 0.2\alpha)(1 - T_r)^{1/3} \quad (\text{A-8})$$

By iterating Eqs. (A-3), (A-4), (A-7) and (A-8), starting with an estimated critical temperature and using the measured vapor pressure and liquid density at the melting temperature[75],  $P_c$ ,  $V_c$ ,  $T_c$  and  $Z_c$  are solved, as listed in Table A.1.

Browning, Gillan and Potter[75] have also examined the effect of Ohse's[7] and Tetenbaum and Hunt's[5] vapor pressure data and the results (as shown in Table A.1) concluded that



the effect of changing the vapor pressure data is rather small.

After having the critical quantities, the saturation vapor pressure-temperature relation below the critical point can be obtained by Eq. (A-4). Fig. A.1 shows the results from the sources listed in Table A.1.

## A.2 Significant Structures Theory of Liquids:

The assumption of this theory, which was originally proposed by Eyring [77], is that the thermodynamic partition function for the liquid may be expressed as an average of the partition functions for the solid and the gas. The theory has been quite successful for materials similar to  $\text{UO}_2$  (e.g. alkali halides NaF etc.) [78]. According to the theory, each molecule in the liquid is partly in a solid-like and partly in a gas-like environment and the partition function  $Z_l(V, T)$  for a mole of liquid at temperature  $T$  and volume  $V$  can be written as a weighted geometrical mean of partition functions for the solid  $Z_s$  and for the gas  $Z_g$ , i.e.

$$Z_l(V, T) = Z_s^{NV_s/V} Z_g^{N(V-V_s)/V} \quad (\text{A-9})$$

where  $N$  is the Avogadro's number and  $V_s$  and  $V$  are respectively the molar volume of the solid at the melting point and of the liquid in the state of interest.

The partition function for the "solid-like" molecules in the liquid can be written as [78]

$$Z_s = \exp\left(-\frac{E_s(V/V_s)^\gamma}{kT}\right) \left[1 + n_h \exp\left(\frac{aE_s}{n_h kT}\right)\right] \left(\frac{kT}{h\nu_s}\right)^{3\mu} \quad (\text{A-10})$$

where  $E_s$  is the binding energy per molecule,  $n_h = n(V - V_s)/V$  is the number of additional quasi-equilibrium positions of solid-like molecule in the liquid than in the solid,  $\nu_s$  is a mean vibrational frequency,  $\mu$  is the number of atoms per molecule ( $=3$  for stoichiometric  $\text{UO}_2$ ) and  $\gamma, n, a$  are three free parameters in this model.

The partition function of the "gas-like" molecules is given by the product of translational, vibrational, rotational and electronic partition functions as:

$$Z_g = Z_g^{\text{tr}} Z_g^{\text{vib}} Z_g^{\text{rot}} Z_g^{\text{elec}} \quad (\text{A-11})^*$$

\*In Ref. A.13, Gillan did not take into account the partition function for electronic states which was then in-

where  $Z_g^{\text{tr}} = (2\pi mkT)^{3/2} \frac{eV}{Nh^3}$

$$Z_g^{\text{vib}} = \prod_i \exp\left(-\frac{h\nu_i}{2kT}\right) / [1 - \exp\left(-\frac{h\nu_i}{kT}\right)]$$

$$Z_g^{\text{rot}} = 8\pi IkT/h^2\sigma \quad (\text{for linear molecules})$$

and  $Z_g^{\text{elec}} = g_0 + g_1 \exp\left(-\frac{E_1}{kT}\right)$

Having constructed the partition functions for the liquid, the Helmholtz free energy is given by

$$F(V,T) = -kT \ln Z_l(V,T) = -NkT \left[ (V_g/V) \ln Z_s + ((V-V_g)/V) \ln Z_g \right] \quad (\text{A-12})$$

All the other thermodynamic functions can then be found from  $F$  by applying standard formulae to Eq. (A-12).

Browning, Gillan and Potter [75] have applied this theory on  $\text{UO}_2$ . In determining the binding energy  $E_s$  and the mean vibrational frequency  $\nu_s$  of "solid-like" molecules, they used both low temperature vapor pressure data of Ohse [7] and Tetenbaum and Hunt [5]. The three free-parameters were determined by matching the available data associated with the melting transition: melting temperature, volume change on fusion and entropy of fusion with the experimental values. The critical constants were then estimated by the measured liquid expansion coefficient together with the law of rectilinear diameters. The result is also listed in Table A.1 for comparison with the Principle of Corresponding States. They concluded that (i) the Significant Structures results are much more sensitive to the vapor pressure data than those from the theory of Corresponding States (ii) the critical volumes are uniformly greater by about 50% (iii) the values of  $Z_c$  are about 25% higher. The vapor pressure-temperature relation for liquid  $\text{UO}_2$  by taking the derivative of Helmholtz free energy (Eq. A-12) with volume is shown in Fig. A.2.

Fischer et al. [79] have also applied Significant Structures theory to predict the critical constants, based on Ohse's low temperature data. They included an excess enthalpy (assumed to

be due to Frenkel defects) in the solid-like partition function and assumed non-linear  $\text{UO}_2$  molecules with higher electronic entropy. Furthermore, they used the vapor pressure and the liquid volume at the melting temperature, and the heat of fusion to determine the three free parameters. The results are shown in Table A.1 in the form of critical constants and in Fig. A.2 as the vapor pressure-temperature relation.

### A.3 Law of Mass Action:

The basic assumption of applying the Law of Mass Action on the vaporization process is thermodynamic equilibrium at the phase boundary; that is, the vaporizing gaseous species from a condensed phase is in thermodynamic equilibrium with the condensed phase. For instance, the general vaporization reaction from a solid or liquid metal oxide is:



This reaction includes also the vaporization of pure metals ( $A=B=0$ ). For thermodynamic equilibrium the law of mass action gives

$$\Delta G_T = \Delta G_{f,T}^0[\text{MO}_A] + RT \ln \frac{P_{\text{MO}_B}}{a_{\text{MO}_A} P_{\text{O}_2}^{(B-A)/2}} = 0 \quad (\text{A-14})$$

where  $P_{\text{MO}_B}$  = vapor pressure of gaseous  $\text{MO}_B$

$a_{\text{MO}_A}$  = activity of the metal oxide in the condensed phase  $\text{MO}_A$

$\Delta G_{f,T}^0[\text{MO}_A]$  = free energy of formation of the condensed  $\text{MO}_A$  at temperature  $T$

$\Delta G_{f,T}^0[\text{MO}_B]$  = free energy of formation of the gaseous  $\text{MO}_B$  at temperature  $T$

With  $\overline{\Delta G_{\text{O}_2}} = \text{oxygen potential} = RT \ln P_{\text{O}_2}$ , the relation

$$RT \ln P_{\text{MO}_B} = RT \ln a_{\text{MO}_A} + \Delta G_{f,T}^0[\text{MO}_A] - \Delta G_{f,T}^0[\text{MO}_B] + \frac{B-A}{2} \overline{\Delta G_{\text{O}_2}} \quad (\text{A-15})$$

is then used to calculate the vapor pressure of each of the gaseous species  $\text{MO}_B$ .

Breitung, following Rand and Markin's technique [80], has applied this method to calculate the equilibrium partial pressures of  $\text{UO}_3(\text{g})$ ,  $\text{UO}_2(\text{g})$ ,  $\text{UO}(\text{g})$ ,  $\text{U}(\text{g})$ ,  $\text{O}(\text{g})$  and  $\text{O}_2(\text{g})$  for vaporization of condensed  $\text{UO}_{2\pm x}$  [81] and to estimate the tolerable uncertainty of the equation of state of liquid  $\text{UO}_2$  [21] due to the scatter of the free energy of formation of the gaseous species.

Blackburn[82] has also applied this model, although in a slightly different way, to perform the same calculation.

In both calculations, the oxygen potential as a function of stoichiometry and temperature are required. This is also calculated by the law of mass action for the equilibrium reactions among the cations and anions in the condensed phase with oxygen gas. The equilibrium conditions near stoichiometric  $\text{UO}_2$  are used to solve for the oxygen potential.

Fig. A.3 shows the two calculations for stoichiometric  $\text{UO}_2$ . The difference between the two is attributed to the use of different thermodynamic functions of the gaseous species[83]. Also shown in Fig. A.3 are the results of both calculations based on Breitung's forced congruent vaporization model[31], assuming depletion of surface stoichiometry due to preferential vaporization of oxygen compared to uranium and eventual "congruent" vaporization at a given steady state temperature when the gas composition is identical to the bulk composition.

#### A.4 Discussion:

The basic assumptions for the Principle of the Corresponding States concerning the microscopic behavior of the materials are (i) the potential energy of two particles is a function only of their separation i.e. the Lennard-Jone type of potential, (ii) the potential energy of entire N-particle system is the sum of the potential energy of all possible pairs of particles and (iii) the partition functions are evaluated by classical statistical mechanics. However,  $\text{UO}_2$  is believed to be ionic and the intermolecular forces do not quite meet the assumptions stated. Therefore the prediction by the Corresponding States seems to lack the necessary theoretical foundation for application to  $\text{UO}_2$ .

The results of the Significant Structures Theory have the disadvantage of strong dependence of the input low temperature data, as shown in Table A.1. Since all the vapor pressure measurements in low temperature region agree quite well, a model which effectively magnifies this small discrepancy is not considered to be acceptable. Nevertheless, by comparing the results of Gillan[78] and Potter[75] in which the only difference was the inclusion of the elec-

tronic term in gas partition function, it seems reasonable to say that because the latter has smaller inconsistency with different low temperature data, more accurate informations on gas properties might compensate for this weakness in the theory.

The results from the Law of Mass Action show very strong effects of the gaseous thermodynamic data used. As shown in Table A.2, a linear temperature dependence of the free energy of formation is assumed. Due to the scatter of these data, this method is not reliable until more measurements in the higher temperature region are available. By comparing Fig. A.2 and Fig. A.3, it is found that Blackburn's result agrees surprisingly well with Gillan's and Potter's SST calculations and with Tetenbaum and Hunt vapor pressure data, while Breitung's calculation is much higher than any other calculation. The Breitung's calculation with forced congruent model (Fig. A.3) exhibits positive curvature while negative curvature is expected as the critical point is approached.

By comparing the results of three different methods applied to  $\text{UO}_2$ , the following conclusions can be drawn:

- (1) The application of the Principle of Corresponding States is the least feasible due to the lack of theoretical foundation.
- (2)  $Z_c$  values of 0.27 is valid only for Van der Waals bonded organic compounds. From the results of the alkali halides [78], which have the same ionic structure as  $\text{UO}_2$ , the higher value of 0.31 from the Significant Structures Theory seems to be acceptable.
- (3) The importance of the electronic excitation state of  $\text{UO}_2$  is not only involved in the heat capacity, but in the vapor pressure assessment as well.
- (4) Although the Law of Mass Action may have the strongest theoretical basis of the three, it is not reliable unless more precise gaseous thermodynamic data is available. In view of the ease of application in the vaporization problem we are dealing with, this model is strongly preferred.

- (5) In the future applications, the effect of change in stoichiometry and the addition of fission products can be included in the Significant Structures Theory and the Law of Mass Action, but not in the Principle of Corresponding States.
- (6) In reassessing the theoretical models, liquid  $\text{UO}_2$  properties just above the melting points need to be reconfirmed and more precisely determined.
- (7) None of the theoretical models at this moment give satisfactory predictions.
- (8) The theoretical calculation in the present stage plays two roles: (i) as preliminary information required in the HCDA analysis until the direct measurement becomes available, (ii) to accompany the direct measurements for a reliable data basis for final analysis. In the ultimate stage, due to the experimental difficulties, the complete equation-of-state will not rely on the direct measurement; therefore, direct measurement plays a role by helping to assess the validity of the theoretical models and eventually, to produce an appropriate and more reliable model for use in HCDA analyses.

**TABLE A.1**

**Critical Constants of UO<sub>2</sub> Using the Principle of Corresponding States and the Significant Structures Theory of Liquid**

Author(s)	Ref	Model	Low Temp Data	Critical Constants			
				T <sub>c</sub> (K)	V <sub>c</sub> (cm <sup>3</sup> /mol)	P <sub>c</sub> (atm)	Z <sub>c</sub>
Menzies (1966)	70	PCS	Ackermann	8000	89.8	2000	0.27
Meyer & Wolfe (1964)	71	PCS	Ackermann	7300	85.5	1900	0.272
Booth (1968)	74	PCS	Ohse	6723	98.7	1404	0.2513
Kapil (1976)	72	PCS	Ohse	6744	98.5	1404	0.25
Potter (1977)	75	PCS	Ohse	6723	98.7	1404	0.2513
			T & H	6820	98.4	1380	0.2426
Gillan (1975)	78	SST	Ohse	6960	164	1070	0.308
			T & H	9332	163	1450	0.308
Fischer (1976)	79	SST	Ohse	7560	166	1210	0.316
Potter (1977)	75	SST	Ohse	7320	152	1256	0.318
			T & H	8840	158	1424	0.310

TABLE A.2

## Thermodynamic Properties of Gaseous Uranium Oxides

Species	Formation Reaction	Free Energy $\Delta G_{f,T}^{\circ}$ (J/mol)	Reference
UO <sub>3</sub> (g)	$U(l) + \frac{3}{2}O_2(g) = UO_3(g)$	-830920 + 79.53T -845910 + 87T -920380 + 113.65T -837200 + 81.21T -873800 + 93.56T -836800 + 81.17T	Ackermann[84] Alexander[85] Rand & Markin[80] Ackermann[86] Bober[21] Leibowitz[87]
UO <sub>2</sub> (g)	$U(l) + O_2(g) = UO_2(g)$	-508600 + 17.75T -516550 + 23.86T -508600 + 22.81T -486830 + 2.09T -483480 + 7.95T -124900 + 21.86T - 116.2logT -486600 + 2.09T	Ackermann[84] Rand & Markin[80] Ackermann[88] Ackermann[88] Ackermann[88] Bober[21] Leibowitz[87]
UO(g)	$U(l) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) = UO(g)$	-43325 - 48.56T -45500 - 46.97T -36840 - 43.12T -18420 - 65.30T -32650 - 57.77T -32640 - 57.74T	Ackermann[84] Rand & Markin[80] Blackburn[82] Ackermann[88] Ackermann[88] Bober[21], Leibowitz[87]
U(g)	$U(l) = U(g)$	488920 - 112.2T 482650 - 109.25T 497170 - 112.3T 491855 - 113.02T 447060 - 109.2T 491620 - 113T	Pattoret[89] Rand & Markin[80] Ackermann[88] Ackermann[88] Blackburn[82] Bober[21], Leibowitz[87]
O(g)	$\frac{1}{2}O_2(g) = O(g)$	256370 - 67.27T 250300 - 66.8T 257400 - 67.6T 256250 - 67.24T	Ackermann[88] Hultgren[90] Bober[21] Leibowitz[87]



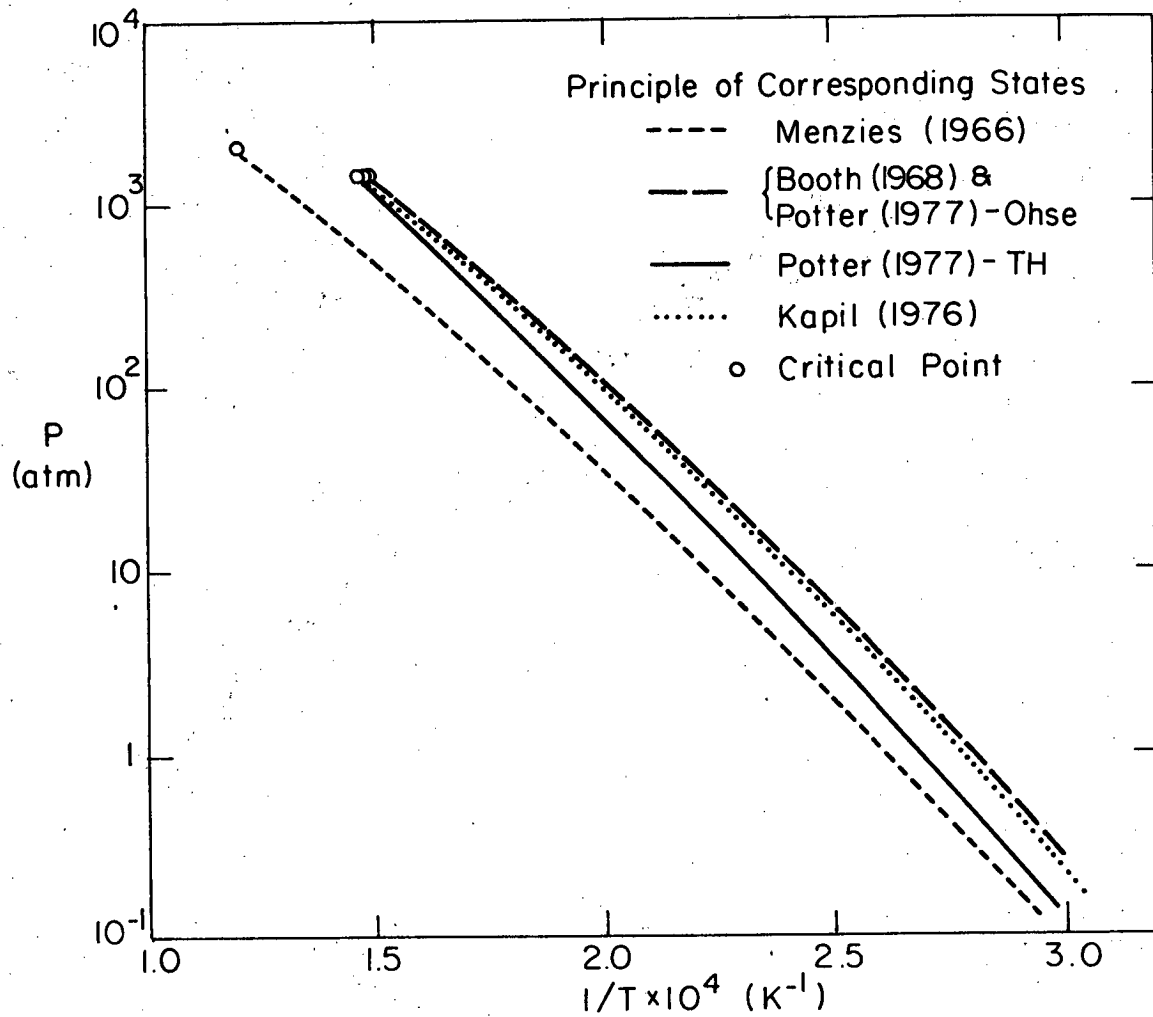
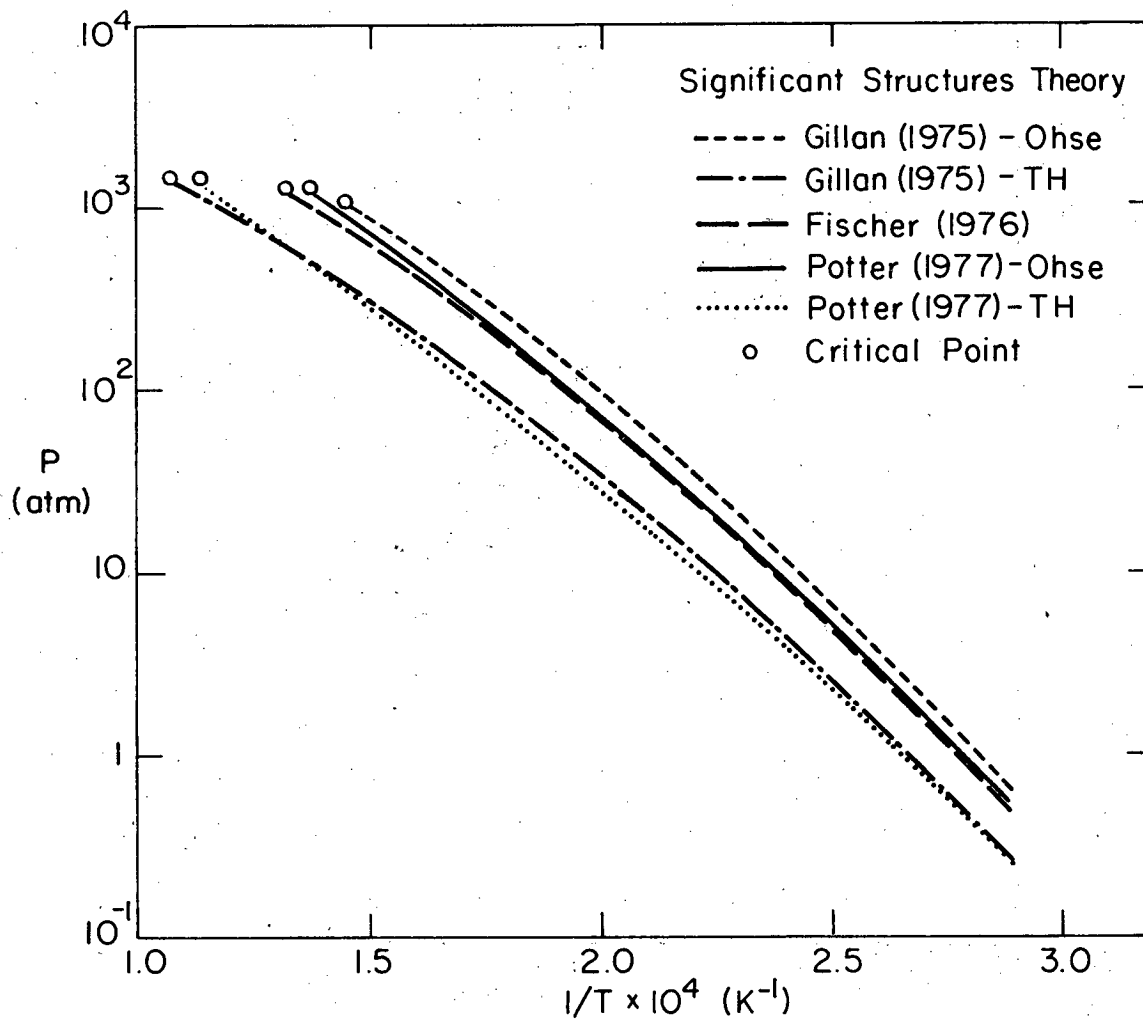
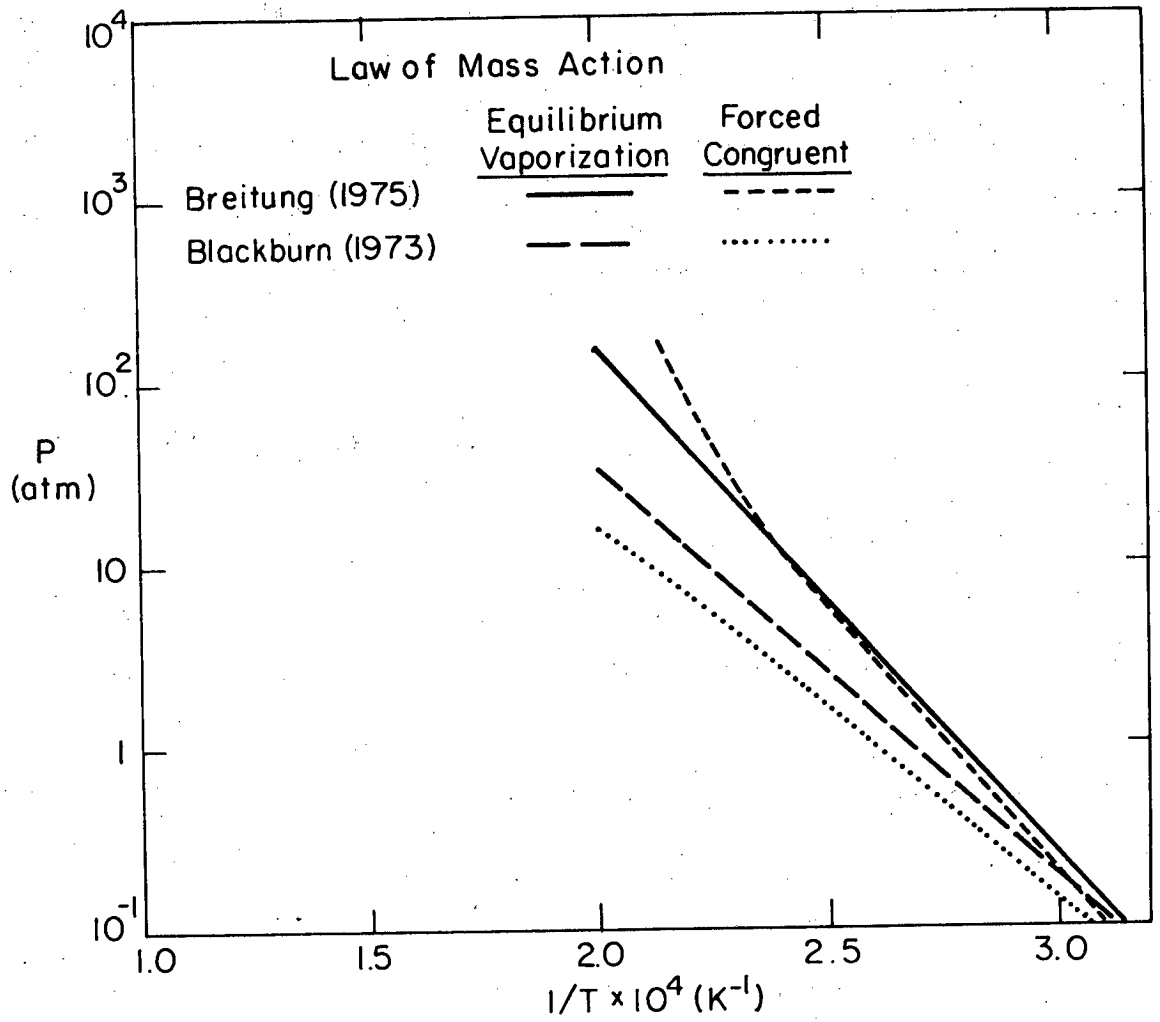


Fig. A.1 Vapor Pressure - Temperature relation based on the Principle of Corresponding States



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Fig. A.2 Vapor Pressure - Temperature relation based on Significant Structures Theory



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Fig. A.3 Vapor Pressure - Temperature relation based on the Law of Mass Action

## APPENDIX B: NUMERICAL SOLUTION METHOD

### B.1 Non-dimensionalization of Conservation Equations

Because of the non-linearity of the governing differential equations (2-32) and (2-33) and the boundary condition equations (2-35), (2-36) and (2-37), analytical solution is not possible. Before the numerical methods are applied, Eqs. (2-32) - (2-38) are non-dimensionalized. By introducing appropriate characteristic composition  $\bar{r}$ , characteristic temperature  $\bar{T}$ , characteristic time  $\bar{t}$  and characteristic length  $\bar{x}$ , we can define:

$$Y = \frac{r}{\bar{r}}; \quad \Theta = \frac{T}{\bar{T}}; \quad \tau = \frac{t}{\bar{t}}; \quad \chi = \frac{x}{\bar{x}} \quad (\text{B-1})$$

In the problem formulated in the beginning of the section, especially for  $\text{UO}_2$ , the characteristic quantities were taken as:

$$\bar{r} = r_o; \quad \bar{T} = T_o; \quad \bar{t} = t_{\text{pul}}; \quad \bar{x} = \left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right)_m^{1/2} (t_{\text{pul}})^{1/2} \quad (\text{B-2})$$

where  $r_o$  = initial oxygen-to-uranium ratio

$T_o$  = initial temperature, K

$t_{\text{pul}}$  = effective laser power pulse width =  $\int P(t) dt / P_{\text{max}} = E / P_{\text{max}}$ , sec

$E$  = incident laser energy, Joules

$P_{\text{max}}$  = maximum laser power, Watts

and "m" means that the properties are evaluated at the melting temperature.

After the introduction of dimensionless quantities and re-arrangement, there results:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 \Theta}{\partial \chi^2} &= A_1 \frac{\partial \Theta}{\partial \tau} - A_2 \frac{\partial \Theta}{\partial \chi} - A_3 \left(\frac{\partial \Theta}{\partial \chi}\right)^2 - A_4 \\ &= A_1 \frac{\partial \Theta}{\partial \tau} + \Psi_T(\tau, \chi, \Theta, \partial \frac{\Theta}{\partial \chi}) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-3})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial \chi^2} &= B_1 \frac{\partial Y}{\partial \tau} - B_2 \frac{\partial Y}{\partial \chi} - B_3 \left(\frac{\partial Y}{\partial \chi}\right) \left(\frac{\partial \Theta}{\partial \chi}\right) \\ &= B_1 \frac{\partial Y}{\partial \tau} + \Psi_r(\tau, \chi, \Theta, Y, \partial \frac{\Theta}{\partial \chi}, \partial \frac{Y}{\partial \chi}) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-4})$$

$$\text{I.C.: } \Theta(\chi, 0) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad Y(\chi, 0) = 1 \quad (\text{B-5})$$

$$\text{B.C.: } \left(\frac{\partial \Theta}{\partial \chi}\right)_{\chi=0} = \eta_T \quad (\text{B-6})$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial Y}{\partial \chi}\right)_{\chi=0} = \eta_r \quad (\text{B-7})$$

$$\Theta(\infty, \tau) = 1 \text{ and } Y(\infty, \tau) = 1 \quad (\text{B-8})$$

where

$$A_1 = \left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right)_m / \left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right) \quad (\text{B-9})$$

$$A_2 = v\sqrt{t_{\text{pul}}}\left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right)_m^{\frac{1}{2}} / \left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right) \quad (\text{B-10})$$

$$A_3 = \frac{T_o}{k} \frac{dk}{dT} \quad (\text{B-11})$$

$$A_4 = \left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right)_m \frac{t_{\text{pul}}}{kT_o} Q_v \quad (\text{B-12})$$

$$B_1 = \left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right)_m / D_o \quad (\text{B-13})$$

$$B_2 = v\sqrt{t_{\text{pul}}}\left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right)_m^{\frac{1}{2}} / D_o \quad (\text{B-14})$$

$$B_3 = \frac{T_o}{D_o} \frac{dD_o}{dT} \quad (\text{B-15})$$

$\eta_T$  = dimensionless surface temperature gradient

$$= \frac{\sqrt{t_{\text{pul}}}\left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right)_m^{\frac{1}{2}}}{k_s} T_o [j_{\text{tot}} \Delta H_{\text{vap}} + \epsilon_r \sigma (T_s^4 - T_b^4) - (1-R)q_p(t)] \quad (\text{B-16})$$

and  $\eta_r$  = dimensionless surface composition gradient

$$= \frac{-\sqrt{t_{\text{pul}}}\left(\frac{k}{\rho C_p}\right)_m^{\frac{1}{2}}}{D_o^s r_o} \left[ \frac{j_o^g}{C_U} + v r_s \right] \quad (\text{B-17})$$

## B.2 Crank-Nicolson Finite Difference Approximation

The Crank-Nicolson finite difference method is an implicit technique in which truncated Taylor series expansions are used to approximate the derivatives in the governing differential equations. The space and time derivatives are then replaced by second order correct finite difference representations.

Let  $W_{i,n}$  and  $U_{i,n}$  denote the approximate solutions of the dimensionless temperature  $\Theta$  and the dimensionless oxygen-to-uranium ratio  $Y$  at space (dimensionless) grid  $\chi_i$  (called "grid" hereafter) and time (dimensionless) step  $\tau_n$  (called "step" hereafter) respectively. The Crank-Nicolson method assumes that [40]:

$$\frac{\partial^2 W_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}}{\partial \chi^2} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 W_{i,n+1}}{\partial \chi^2} + \frac{\partial^2 W_{i,n}}{\partial \chi^2} \right) + O((\Delta \tau)^2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x^2 (W_{i,n+1} + W_{i,n}) + O((\Delta_x)^2 + (\Delta\tau)^2) \quad (\text{B-18})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 U_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}}{\partial \chi^2} &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 U_{i,n+1}}{\partial \chi^2} + \frac{\partial^2 U_{i,n}}{\partial \chi^2} \right) + O((\Delta\tau)^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x^2 (U_{i,n+1} + U_{i,n}) + O((\Delta_x)^2 + (\Delta\tau)^2) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-19})$$

$$\frac{\partial W_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}}{\partial \tau} = \frac{W_{i,n+1} - W_{i,n}}{\Delta\tau} + O((\Delta\tau)^2) \quad (\text{B-20})$$

$$\frac{\partial U_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}}{\partial \tau} = \frac{U_{i,n+1} - U_{i,n}}{\Delta\tau} + O((\Delta\tau)^2) \quad (\text{B-21})$$

$$\frac{\partial W_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}}{\partial \chi} = \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x (W_{i,n+1} + W_{i,n}) + O((\Delta_x)^2) \quad (\text{B-22})$$

$$\frac{\partial U_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}}{\partial \chi} = \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x (U_{i,n+1} + U_{i,n}) + O((\Delta_x)^2) \quad (\text{B-23})$$

where  $\Delta_x^2 W_{i,n}$  = second order correct centered second difference of  $W_{i,n}$

$\Delta_x^2 U_{i,n}$  = second order correct centered second difference of  $U_{i,n}$

$\Delta_x W_{i,n}$  = second order correct centered first difference of  $W_{i,n}$

$\Delta_x U_{i,n}$  = second order correct centered first difference of  $U_{i,n}$

By utilizing these finite difference operators, the differential equations (B-3) and (B-4) can be approximated by the following difference equations: (for  $i \geq 2$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x^2 (W_{i,n+1} + W_{i,n}) &= A_1 \frac{W_{i,n+1} - W_{i,n}}{\Delta\tau} \\ &\quad - A_2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x (W_{i,n+1} + W_{i,n}) \right] - A_3 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x (W_{i,n+1} + W_{i,n}) \right]^2 - A_4 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-24})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x^2 (U_{i,n+1} + U_{i,n}) &= B_1 \frac{U_{i,n+1} - U_{i,n}}{\Delta\tau} - B_2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x (U_{i,n+1} + U_{i,n}) \right] \\ &\quad - B_3 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x (W_{i,n+1} + W_{i,n}) \right] \left[ \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x (U_{i,n+1} + U_{i,n}) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-25})$$

where the coefficients  $A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, B_1, B_2$  and  $B_3$  are, in general, functions of

$[\chi, \tau_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, \frac{1}{2} (W_{i,n+1} + W_{i,n})]$  and  $\tau_{n+\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2} (\tau_{n+1} + \tau_n)$ .

### B.3 Second Order Correct Centered Finite Difference Operators

There are several ways of expressing the finite difference operators  $\Delta_{\text{chi}}, \Delta_x^2, \dots$  of different degree of order of accuracy, depending on the truncated error from the Taylor series

expansion. In this section, the second order correct centered finite difference operators are discussed.

For the case of constant increment in  $\chi$ , denoted by  $\xi$ , the Taylor series expansion of  $F_{i+1}$  around  $F_i$  is:

$$F_{i+1} = F_i + \xi \dot{F}_i + \frac{\xi^2}{2} \ddot{F}_i + O(\xi^3) \quad (\text{B-26})$$

The Taylor series expansion of  $F_{i-1}$  around  $F_i$  is:

$$F_{i-1} = F_i - \xi \dot{F}_i + \frac{\xi^2}{2} \ddot{F}_i + O(\xi^3) \quad (\text{B-27})$$

Let us approximate the first derivative  $\dot{F}_i$  by the finite difference operator  $\Delta_\chi F_i$ . Then  $\Delta_\chi F_i$  can be solved from the equations:

$$F_{i+1} = F_i + \xi (\Delta_\chi F_i) + \frac{\xi^2}{2} \ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-28})$$

$$F_{i-1} = F_i - \xi (\Delta_\chi F_i) + \frac{\xi^2}{2} \ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-29})$$

These two equations yields:

$$\Delta_\chi F_i = \frac{F_{i+1} - F_{i-1}}{2\xi} \quad (\text{B-30})$$

which is correct to order of  $\xi^3/\xi = \xi^2$ .

Similarly, the second difference operator  $\Delta_\chi^2 F_i$  can be solved from the two equations:

$$F_{i+1} = F_i + \xi \dot{F}_i + \frac{\xi^2}{2} (\Delta_\chi^2 F_i) + \frac{\xi^3}{6} \ddot{\ddot{F}}_i \quad (\text{B-31})$$

$$F_{i-1} = F_i - \xi \dot{F}_i + \frac{\xi^2}{2} (\Delta_\chi^2 F_i) - \frac{\xi^3}{6} \ddot{\ddot{F}}_i \quad (\text{B-32})$$

which yields:

$$\Delta_\chi^2 F_i = \frac{F_{i+1} - 2F_i + F_{i-1}}{\xi^2} \quad (\text{B-33})$$

which is correct to order of  $\xi^4/\xi^2 = \xi^2$ .

Rather than using a constant  $\xi$  (as is usually the case), in this program  $\xi$  increases geometrically into the bulk of the solid according to the relation:

$$\xi_i = \epsilon \xi_{i-1} = \epsilon^{i-1} \xi_1 \quad (\text{B-34})$$

where  $\epsilon =$  a constant, taken to be 1.035

$\xi_i$  = grid increment following  $i$ th grid plane

$\xi_1$  = the first grid increment at the surface

The second order correct differences are considerably more complicated; however, the method of deriving the finite difference operators from the truncated Taylor series expansions is exactly the same.

From the following third-order truncated expansions:

$$F_{i+1} = F_i + \xi_i \epsilon^{i-1} (\Delta_x F_i) + \frac{(\xi_i \epsilon^{i-1})^2}{2} \ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-35})$$

$$F_{i-1} = F_i - \xi_i \epsilon^{i-2} (\Delta_x F_i) + \frac{(\xi_i \epsilon^{i-2})^2}{2} \ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-36})$$

Solving for  $(\Delta_x F_i)$ , we have:

$$\Delta_x F_i = \frac{1}{\xi_i \epsilon^{i-1}} \left[ \frac{-\epsilon^2}{1+\epsilon} F_{i-1} + (\epsilon-1) F_i + \frac{1}{1+\epsilon} F_{i+1} \right] \quad (\text{B-37})$$

which is correct to second order.

From the following fourth order truncated expansions:

$$F_{i+2} = F_i + (\epsilon+1) \xi_i \dot{F}_i + \frac{\xi_i^2 (1+\epsilon)^2}{2} (\Delta_x^2 F_i) + \frac{\xi_i^3 (1+\epsilon)^3}{6} \ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-38})$$

$$F_{i+1} = F_i + \xi_i \dot{F}_i + \frac{\xi_i^2}{2} (\Delta_x^2 F_i) + \frac{\xi_i^3}{6} \ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-39})$$

$$F_{i-1} = F_i - \frac{\xi_i}{\epsilon} \dot{F}_i + \frac{\xi_i^2}{2\epsilon^2} (\Delta_x^2 F_i) - \frac{\xi_i^3}{6\epsilon^3} \ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-40})$$

where  $\xi_i = \epsilon^{i-1} \xi_1$ .

Solving for  $(\Delta_x^2 F_i)$ , we have:

$$\Delta_x^2 F_i = \frac{2}{(\xi_i \epsilon^{i-1})^2} \left[ \frac{\epsilon^3 (2+\epsilon)}{(1+\epsilon+\epsilon^2)(1+\epsilon)} F_{i-1} - \frac{\epsilon^2 + 2\epsilon - 1}{1+\epsilon} F_i \right. \\ \left. + \frac{\epsilon^2 + \epsilon - 1}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon)} F_{i+1} - \frac{\epsilon - 1}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon)(1+\epsilon+\epsilon^2)} F_{i+2} \right] \quad (\text{B-41})$$

Applying these formulae to the variables  $W$  and  $U$  yields:

$$\Delta_x W_{i,n} = \frac{1}{\xi_i \epsilon^{i-1}} \left[ \frac{-\epsilon^2}{1+\epsilon} W_{i-1,n} + (\epsilon-1) W_{i,n} + \frac{1}{1+\epsilon} W_{i+1,n} \right] \quad (\text{B-42})$$

$$\Delta_x^2 W_{i,n} = \frac{2}{(\xi_i \epsilon^{i-1})^2} \left[ \frac{\epsilon^3 (2+\epsilon)}{(1+\epsilon+\epsilon^2)(1+\epsilon)} W_{i-1,n} - \frac{\epsilon^2 + 2\epsilon - 1}{1+\epsilon} W_{i,n} \right. \\ \left. + \frac{\epsilon^2 + \epsilon - 1}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon)} W_{i+1,n} - \frac{\epsilon - 1}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon)(1+\epsilon+\epsilon^2)} W_{i+2,n} \right] \quad (\text{B-43})$$



$$\Delta_x U_{i,n} = \frac{1}{\xi_1 \epsilon^{i-1}} \left[ \frac{-\epsilon^2}{1+\epsilon} U_{i-1,n} + (\epsilon-1) U_{i,n} + \frac{1}{1+\epsilon} U_{i+1,n} \right] \quad (\text{B-44})$$

$$\Delta_x^2 U_{i,n} = \frac{2}{(\xi_1 \epsilon^{i-1})^2} \left[ \frac{\epsilon^3(2+\epsilon)}{(1+\epsilon+\epsilon^2)(1+\epsilon)} U_{i-1,n} - \frac{\epsilon^2+2\epsilon-1}{1+\epsilon} U_{i,n} \right. \\ \left. + \frac{\epsilon^2+\epsilon-1}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon)} U_{i+1,n} - \frac{\epsilon-1}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon)(1+\epsilon+\epsilon^2)} U_{i+2,n} \right] \quad (\text{B-45})$$

#### B.4 Initial and Boundary Conditions

In the notation of the approximate solutions, the finite difference approximation to the initial conditions (B-5) are:

$$W_{i,1}=1 \text{ and } U_{i,1}=1 \text{ for all } \chi_i \text{ at } \tau_1 (=0) \quad (\text{B-46})$$

The finite difference approximation to the boundary conditions (B-6) - (B-8) are: (for  $i=1$ )

$$W'_{1,n+1} = \eta_T(\tau_{n+1}, W_{1,n+1}, U_{1,n+1}) \quad (\text{B-47})$$

$$U'_{1,n+1} = \eta_r(\tau_{n+1}, W_{1,n+1}, U_{1,n+1}) \quad (\text{B-48})$$

where  $W'_{1,n+1}$  = second order correct forward first difference of  $W_{1,n+1}$

$U'_{1,n+1}$  = second order correct forward first difference of  $U_{1,n+1}$

(The boundary conditions do not have to be evaluated at  $\tau_{n+\frac{1}{2}}$  as do the governing equations,

because time derivatives are involved in the latter but not in the former.)

For the case of constant  $\xi$ , the second order correct forward difference can be solved from the two truncated equations:

$$F_{i+2} = F_i + 2\xi F'_i + \frac{(2\xi)^2}{2} \ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-49})$$

$$F_{i+1} = F_i + \xi F'_i + \frac{\xi^2}{2} \ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-50})$$

here  $F'_i$  denotes the second order correct forward first difference instead of exact first derivative.

Eliminating  $\xi^2 \ddot{F}_i$  from the above equations, we have:

$$F'_i = \frac{1}{2\xi} (-3F_i + 4F_{i+1} - F_{i+2}) \quad (\text{B-51})$$

Similarly, for the case of varying  $\xi$  according to Eq. (B-34), the second order forward first

difference can be solved from the two truncated equations:

$$F_{i+2} = F_i + (\xi_i + \xi_{i+1})F'_i + \frac{(\xi_i + \xi_{i+1})^2}{2}\ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-52})$$

$$F_{i+1} = F_i + \xi_i F'_i + \frac{\xi_i^2}{2}\ddot{F}_i \quad (\text{B-53})$$

where  $\xi_i = \epsilon^{i-1}\xi_1$ .

The solution is:

$$F'_i = \frac{1}{\xi_i} \left[ -\frac{\epsilon+2}{\epsilon+1}F_i + \frac{\epsilon+1}{\epsilon}F_{i+1} - \frac{1}{\epsilon(\epsilon+1)}F_{i+2} \right] \quad (\text{B-54})$$

For  $i=1$ :

$$F'_1 = \frac{1}{\xi_1} \left[ -\frac{\epsilon+2}{\epsilon+1}F_1 + \frac{\epsilon+1}{\epsilon}F_2 - \frac{1}{\epsilon(\epsilon+1)}F_3 \right] \quad (\text{B-55})$$

Applying these results to the variables  $W$  and  $U$  yields:

$$W'_{1,n+1} = \frac{1}{\xi_1} \left[ \frac{-(2+\epsilon)}{1+\epsilon}W_{1,n+1} + \frac{1+\epsilon}{\epsilon}W_{2,n+1} - \frac{1}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon)}W_{3,n+1} \right] \quad (\text{B-56})$$

$$U'_{1,n+1} = \frac{1}{\xi_1} \left[ \frac{-(2+\epsilon)}{1+\epsilon}U_{1,n+1} + \frac{1+\epsilon}{\epsilon}U_{2,n+1} - \frac{1}{\epsilon(1+\epsilon)}U_{3,n+1} \right] \quad (\text{B-57})$$

## B.5 Solutions of Finite Difference Equations

The step-by-step method is used to take care of the time (dimensionless) variation. At each step, Eqs. (B-24), (B-25), (B-47) and (B-48) comprise a set of nonlinear equations that are to be solved for  $W_{i,n+1}$  and  $U_{i,n+1}$  for all  $i$ . Only an iterative technique can be used to solve a set of nonlinear equations. The Newton-Raphson's method adopted in this study to carry out the iterations was found to be quite powerful and converges well. Adoption of the predictor-corrector scheme for finding good starting values for the iterations also helps to retain both efficiency and convergency of the program with reasonable time steps.

### B.5.1 Predictor-corrector Method

The idea of the predictor-corrector method is as follows. Instead of using the results from previous step as the first guess to start the iteration, the approximate solution at half of the time step is solved by the simpler linear equations (called "predictor") which needs only the informations at previous step. Then the "corrector" is used to obtain an approximate solution

for the current step as the first guess for the following iteration involving more complicated nonlinear equations.

If the difference equation has the form:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x^2 (F_{i,n+1} + F_{i,n}) - A_1 \frac{F_{i,n+1} - F_{i,n}}{\Delta \tau} \\ = \Psi_f[\chi_i, \tau_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, \frac{1}{2} (F_{i,n+1} + F_{i,n}), \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x (F_{i,n+1} + F_{i,n})] \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-58})$$

then the predictor is: [41]

$$\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x^2 (F_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}} + F_{i,n}) - A_1 \frac{F_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}} - F_{i,n}}{\Delta \tau} = \Psi_f(\chi_i, \tau_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, F_{i,n}, \Delta_x F_{i,n}) \quad (\text{B-59})$$

which becomes a linear algebraic problem, because unknowns only appear in the left hand side in linear form.

After solving for  $F_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}$  from Eq. (B-59), the following equation for the corrector is solved: [41]

$$\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x^2 (F_{i,n+1} + F_{i,n}) - A_1 \frac{F_{i,n+1} - F_{i,n}}{\Delta \tau} = \Psi_f(\chi_i, \tau_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, F_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}, \Delta_x F_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}) \quad (\text{B-60})$$

which is also a linear problem. The solution for the corrector, denoted by  $F_{i,n+1}^{(0)}$ , is then used as the first guess for the iteration:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x^2 (F_{i,n+1}^{(k)} + F_{i,n}) - A_1 \frac{F_{i,n+1}^{(k)} - F_{i,n}}{\Delta \tau} \\ = \Psi_f[\chi_i, \tau_{n+\frac{1}{2}}, \frac{1}{2} (F_{i,n+1}^{(k-1)} + F_{i,n}), \frac{1}{2} \Delta_x (F_{i,n+1}^{(k-1)} + F_{i,n})] \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-61})$$

where  $k=1, 2, \dots$ , with repeated iteration, if necessary, to obtain the final solution.

### B.5.2 Iteration Procedure by Newton-Raphson's Method

Let us multiply Eqs. (B-6) & (B-7) by  $\xi_1$  and rewrite them in the form:

$$f_1(\vec{W}_{n+1}) = [W_{1,n+1} - \eta_T(\tau_{n+1}, W_{1,n+1})] \xi_1 = 0 \quad (\text{B-62})$$

$$g_1(\vec{U}_{n+1}) = [U_{1,n+1} - \eta_r(\tau_{n+1}, U_{1,n+1})] \xi_1 = 0 \quad (\text{B-63})$$

Let us also multiply Eqs. (B-3) & (B-4) by  $2\xi_1^2$  and rewrite them in the form:

$$f_1(\vec{W}_{n+1}) = \{\Delta_x^2 (W_{i,n+1} + W_{i,n}) - 2A_1 \frac{W_{i,n+1} - W_{i,n}}{\Delta \tau_n}$$

$$+A_2[\Delta_x(W_{i,n+1}+W_{i,n})]+\frac{A_3}{2}[\Delta_x(W_{i,n+1}+W_{i,n})]^2+2A_4\xi_1^2=0 \quad (\text{B-64})$$

$$g_i(\bar{U}_{n+1}) = \{\Delta_x^2(U_{i,n+1}+U_{i,n})-2B_1\frac{U_{i,n+1}-U_{i,n}}{\Delta\tau_n}+B_2[\Delta_x(U_{i,n+1}+U_{i,n})] \\ +\frac{B_3}{2}[\Delta_x(W_{i,n+1}+W_{i,n})][\Delta_x(U_{i,n+1}+U_{i,n})]\}\xi_1^2=0 \quad (\text{B-65})$$

where  $\bar{W}_{n+1}$  is the vector  $[W_{1,n+1}, W_{2,n+1}, \dots, W_{m,n+1}]$ ,

$\bar{U}_{n+1}$  is the vector  $[U_{1,n+1}, U_{2,n+1}, \dots, U_{m,n+1}]$ ,

and  $m$  is the number of grid beyond which the profiles are essentially constant.

Therefore, we have a set of  $2m$  nonlinear equations to be solved for  $\bar{W}_{n+1}$  and  $\bar{U}_{n+1}$ .

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f_1(\bar{W}_{n+1}) = 0 \\ f_2(\bar{W}_{n+1}) = 0 \\ \vdots \\ f_m(\bar{W}_{n+1}) = 0 \\ g_1(\bar{U}_{n+1}) = 0 \\ g_2(\bar{U}_{n+1}) = 0 \\ \vdots \\ g_m(\bar{U}_{n+1}) = 0 \end{array} \right. \quad (\text{B-66})$$

To do so, we have to start with an initial guesses  $\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)}$  and  $\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)}$ , from predictor-corrector scheme described in the last section, and then find the successive approximate solutions following the procedure:

- (i) For the first iteration of  $W$ ,  $W_{i,n+1}$  and  $U_{i,n+1}$  in the coefficient terms of Eqs. (B-62) - (B-65) are approximated by  $W_{i,n+1}^{(0)}$  and  $U_{i,n+1}^{(0)}$  and the following linear equation is solved:[42]

$$\bar{J}(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)}, \bar{h})(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(1)} - \bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)}) + \bar{F}(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)}) = 0 \quad (\text{B-67})$$

where  $\bar{J}$  is an  $m \times m$  matrix with elements  $\Delta_{ij} = \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial W_{j,n+1}}\right)_{\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)}}$  if the derivative can be

obtained analytically; otherwise, the derivative is approximated by Steffenson's

$$\text{method [42], } \Delta_{ij} = \frac{f_i(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)} + h_j \bar{e}_j) - f_i(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)})}{h_j}$$

$$h_j = f_j(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)})$$

$$\bar{h} = [h_1, h_2, \dots, h_m]$$

$$\text{and } \bar{F}(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)}) = [f_1(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)}), f_2(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)}), \dots, f_m(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(0)})]$$

The equation is then solved for  $\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(1)}$  by the Gaussian elimination method.

- (ii) For the first iteration of  $U$ , every  $W_{i,n+1}$  is approximated by  $W_{i,n+1}^{(1)}$  and  $U_{i,n+1}$  in  $B_1, B_2, B_3$  and  $\eta_r$  is approximated by  $U_{i,n+1}^{(0)}$ , and the following linear equation is solved:

$$\bar{L}(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)}, \bar{q})(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(1)} - \bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)}) + \bar{G}(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)}) = 0 \quad (\text{B-68})$$

where  $\bar{L}$  is an  $m \times m$  matrix with elements  $\Omega_{ij} = \left( \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial U_{j,n+1}} \right)_{\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)}}$  if the derivative can be

obtained analytically; otherwise, the derivative is approximated by Steffenson's method,

$$\Omega_{ij} = \frac{g_i(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)} + q_j \bar{e}_j) - g_i(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)})}{q_j}$$

$$q_j = g_j(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)})$$

$$\bar{q} = [q_1, q_2, \dots, q_m]$$

$$\text{and } \bar{G}(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)}) = [g_1(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)}), g_2(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)}), \dots, g_m(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(0)})]$$

The equation is again solved for  $\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(1)}$  by the Gaussian elimination method.

- (iii) The approximate solutions  $W_{i,n+1}^{(1)}$  and  $U_{i,n+1}^{(1)}$  from the first iteration are then used to calculate solutions for the second iteration.
- (iv) The process is repeated until the successive iterations are sufficiently close to each other; then the calculations go on to the next step after determination of the next step size.

### B.5.3 Gaussian Elimination Method

The predictor-corrector method and Newton-Raphson's method are linearization process as which deals with a nonlinear problem. After linearization, the Gaussian elimination back-substitution is found to be a very easy and efficient way to solve the system of linear equations.

To solve Eqs. (B-59), (B-60) in section B.5.1 and (B-67), (B-68) in section B.5.2, we must deal with a set of equations with the following format:

$$\begin{aligned}
b_1\delta_1+c_1\delta_2+d_1\delta_3 &= e_1 \\
a_2\delta_1+b_2\delta_2+c_2\delta_3+d_2\delta_4 &= e_2 \\
a_3\delta_2+b_3\delta_3+c_3\delta_4+d_3\delta_5 &= e_3 \\
&\dots\dots\dots \\
a_i\delta_{i-1}+b_i\delta_i+c_i\delta_{i+1}+d_i\delta_{i+2} &= e_i \quad (\text{B-69}) \\
&\dots\dots\dots \\
a_{m-1}\delta_{m-2}+b_{m-1}\delta_{m-1}+c_{m-1}\delta_m &= e_{m-1} \\
a_m\delta_{m-1}+b_m\delta_m &= e_m
\end{aligned}$$

where  $\delta_i$  denotes either the variables  $W_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}, U_{i,n+\frac{1}{2}}$  in (B-59),  $W_{i,n+1}, U_{i,n+1}$  in (B-60) or  $(\bar{W}_{n+1}^{(k)} - \bar{W}_{n+1}^{(k-1)})$  in (B-67),  $(\bar{U}_{n+1}^{(k)} - \bar{U}_{n+1}^{(k-1)})$  in (B-68),  $a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i$  denote either the coefficients in (B-59), (B-60) with Eqs. (B-42) - (B-45), and (B-56), (B-57), or the elements of Jacobin matrixes  $\bar{J}, \bar{L}$  in (B-67), (B-68), and  $e_i$  denotes the known quantities from either the previous step in Eqs. (B-59) and (B-60) or the previous iteration in Eqs. (B-67) and (B-68).

The primes in  $b_{m-1}, c_{m-1}, a_m$  and  $b_m$  are introduced because we have approximated  $\delta_{m+1}$  and  $\delta_{m+2}$  by a linear extrapolation of  $\delta_{m-1}$  and  $\delta_m$  in order to reduce the number of unknowns to  $m$ ,

$$\begin{cases}
b_{m-1} = b_{m-1} - d_{m-1}\epsilon \\
c_{m-1} = c_{m-1} + d_{m-1}(1+\epsilon) \\
a_m = a_m - c_m\epsilon - d_m\epsilon(1+\epsilon) \\
b_m = b_m + c_m(1+\epsilon) + d_m(1+\epsilon+\epsilon^2)
\end{cases} \quad (\text{B-70})$$

The system of equations (B-69) can be cast in the matrix form:

$$\vec{M}\vec{\Delta} = \vec{E} \quad (\text{B-71})$$

where  $\vec{\Delta}$  is the column vector  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_m$

$\vec{E}$  is the column vector  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m$

and  $\vec{M}$  is an  $m \times m$  quad-diagonal matrix since all elements are zero except those on the principal diagonal, one below and one and two above the principal diagonal.

$$\begin{bmatrix}
/ & & 0 \\
/ & & d \\
/ & & c \\
/ & & b \\
/ & & a \\
0 & & /
\end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix}
\delta_1 \\
\delta_2 \\
\vdots \\
\delta_m
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
e_1 \\
e_2 \\
\vdots \\
e_m
\end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B-72})$$

The idea behind the Gaussian elimination method is to remove the unknowns in a systematic way; the first equation can be used to eliminate  $\delta_1$  from the second equation, the new second equation used to eliminate  $\delta_2$  from the third equation, and so on, until finally, the new next-to-last equation can be used to eliminate  $\delta_{m-1}$  from the last equation, giving one equation with one unknown  $\delta_m$ . The unknowns  $\delta_i$  can then be found in turn by back-substitution. [42]

Generally, after  $i-2$  eliminations ( $i \geq 2$ ), we obtain the following two equations for the next elimination:

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_{i-1}\delta_{i-1} + \beta_{i-1}\delta_i + d_{i-1}\delta_{i+1} = S_{i-1} \\ a_i\delta_{i-1} + b_i\delta_i + c_i\delta_{i+1} + d_i\delta_{i+2} = e_i \end{cases} \quad (\text{B-73})$$

where  $\alpha_1=b_1$ ,  $\beta_1=c_1$ ,  $S_1=e_1$ .

Eliminating  $\delta_{i-1}$  leads to:

$$\begin{aligned} (b_i - \frac{a_i\beta_{i-1}}{\alpha_{i-1}})\delta_i + (c_i - \frac{a_id_{i-1}}{\alpha_{i-1}})\delta_{i+1} + d_i\delta_{i+2} \\ = e_i - \frac{a_iS_{i-1}}{\alpha_{i-1}} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-74})$$

$$\text{i.e. } \alpha_i\delta_i + \beta_i\delta_{i+1} + d_i\delta_{i+2} = S_i \quad (\text{B-75})$$

with the recursion relations:

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_i = b_i - \frac{a_i\beta_{i-1}}{\alpha_{i-1}} \\ \beta_i = c_i - \frac{a_id_{i-1}}{\alpha_{i-1}} \\ S_i = e_i - \frac{a_iS_{i-1}}{\alpha_{i-1}} \end{cases} \quad \text{when } 1 \leq i \leq m-2 \quad (\text{B-76})$$

After  $m-3$  eliminations, the last three equations are:

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_{m-2}\delta_{m-2} + \beta_{m-2}\delta_{m-1} + d_{m-2}\delta_m = S_{m-2} \\ a_{m-1}\delta_{m-2} + b_{m-1}\delta_{m-1} + c_{m-1}\delta_m = e_{m-1} \\ a_m\delta_{m-1} + b_m\delta_m = e_m \end{cases} \quad (\text{B-77})$$

Eliminating  $\delta_{m-2}$  from the first two equations yields:

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_{m-1}\delta_{m-1} + \beta_{m-1}\delta_m = S_{m-1} \\ a_m\delta_{m-1} + b_m\delta_m = e_m \end{cases} \quad (\text{B-78})$$

where  $\alpha_{m-1} = b_{m-1} - \frac{a_{m-1}\beta_{m-2}}{\alpha_{m-2}}$

$$\beta_{m-1} = c_{m-1} - \frac{a_{m-1}d_{m-2}}{\alpha_{m-2}}$$

$$S_{m-1} = e_{m-1} - \frac{a_{m-1}S_{m-2}}{\alpha_{m-2}}$$

Eliminating  $\delta_{m-1}$  from (B-78) yields:

$$\alpha_m \delta_m = S_m \quad (\text{B-79})$$

where  $\alpha_m = b_m - \frac{a_m \beta_{m-1}}{\alpha_{m-1}}$

$$S_m = e_m - \frac{a_m S_{m-1}}{\alpha_{m-1}}$$

Therefore, the solutions are:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \delta_m = \frac{S_m}{\alpha_m} \\ \delta_{m-1} = \frac{S_{m-1} - \beta_{m-1} \delta_m}{\alpha_{m-1}} \\ \vdots \\ \delta_i = \frac{1}{\alpha_i} (S_i - \beta \delta_{i+1} - d \delta_{i+2}) \quad 1 \leq i \leq m-1 \end{array} \right. \quad (\text{B-80})$$

## B.6 Determination of the Time Increment

The step-by-step techniques as described above can be applied to either one-step methods or multi-step methods, depending upon whether the informations from previous steps is used in formulating the next step. The multi-step methods are more efficient in the sense that they generally require fewer evaluations of the difference operators to achieve a given accuracy. The greater efficiency of the multi-step methods is obtained at the cost of introducing special provisions for changing the step size. Considering the fact that the general shape of the solutions can be closely estimated and powerful iteration method are used, the multi-step method is used, the step size is determined as follows:

Define the ratio of the truncated second order term to the first order term as:



$$d_f = \frac{|(\Delta\tau)^2 \ddot{f}|}{(\Delta\tau)|\dot{f}|} = \frac{\Delta\tau|\ddot{f}|}{|\dot{f}|} \quad (\text{B-81})$$

where  $f$  is either  $T$  or  $r$ ,  $\dot{f}$  and  $\ddot{f}$  are first and second order derivative of  $f$ , respectively.

In the present physical problem, the composition changes much slower than the temperature, so the time increment is determined by the truncated error ratio for  $W$ :

$$d_w \approx \frac{|\Delta(\frac{\Delta W}{\Delta\tau})|}{|\frac{\Delta W}{\Delta\tau}|} = \frac{|(\frac{\Delta W}{\Delta\tau})_{n+1} - (\frac{\Delta W}{\Delta\tau})_n|}{|(\frac{\Delta W}{\Delta\tau})_{n+1}|} = \frac{|\frac{W_{n+1} - W_n}{\Delta\tau_n} - \frac{W_n - W_{n-1}}{\Delta\tau_{n-1}}|}{|\frac{W_{n+1} - W_n}{\Delta\tau_n}|} \quad (\text{B-82})$$

And the criterion is that  $\Delta\tau$  is increased when  $d_w$  is less than 10%, while  $\Delta\tau$  is decreased when  $d_w$  is larger than 10%. A maximum change of three times the previous step size is permitted. Both upper and lower bounds for the permissible step size are set based on considerations of the convergence and efficiency.

## APPENDIX C: USER'S MANUAL FOR COMPUTER PROGRAMS

The programs STAR and SURFT have been developed based on the numerical scheme described in Appendix B and are coded in FORTRAN IV language. A flow chart for STAR and SURFT is shown in Fig. C.1. Variable dimensioning is used to make optimum usage of the available storage and flexible capacity controllable by the user.

The program SURFT was tested by comparing the results with two analytic solutions assuming no ablation of the surface ( $v=0$ ,  $j=0$ ), no radiation heat loss ( $\epsilon=0$ ) and constant properties  $\rho$ ,  $C_p$  and  $k$ . The heat source was assumed either rectangular or triangular. The numerical solutions are in good agreement with the analytic solutions, differing by no more than 0.1% in the calculated temperature distribution.

### C.1 Program Input Data Cards

- (1) PROGRAM INITIATION AND TITLE (2(A5,5x),6A5,5x,2A5) - One card, read in by subroutine TLCDE.

Column	Variable	Description
1-5	MODE	Problem initiation flag; "START" for initiation and "STOP" for termination
6-10	--	Blank
11-15	MTYPE	Problem type; "SURFT" for heat conduction only and "STAR" for conduction and diffusion
16-20	--	Blank
21-50	HED	Problem title for labeling output (an array of dimension 6)
51-55	--	Blank
56-65	DATE	Date of the run

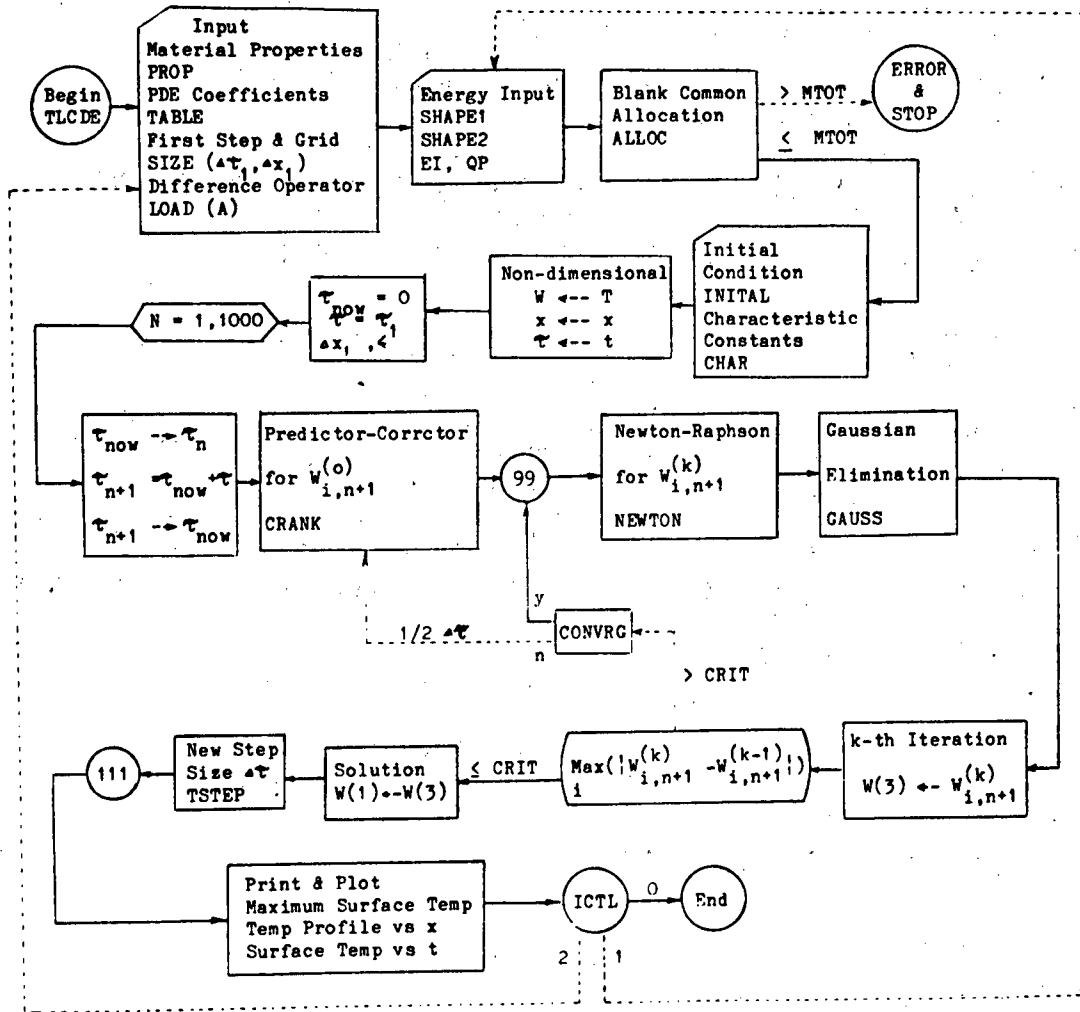
- (2) DIMENSION SPECIFICATION (2I5) - One card, read in by subroutine TLCDE.

Column	Variable	Description
1-5	NPDE	Number of partial differential equations to solve; 1 for "SURFT" and 2 for "STAR"
6-10	NGMAX	Estimated maximum number of grid points needed for space variable (normally 300)

- (3) MATERIAL PROPERTIES - read in by subroutine PROP.

- (i) ATOMIC WEIGHTS (2F10.0)

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	WA(1)	Atomic weight of component 1 (g/g-atom)



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Fig.C.1 The Flow Diagram of the Computer Program STAR and SURFT

11-20 WA(2) Atomic weight of component 2 (g/g-atom);  
zero or blank for single component materials  
or congruently vaporizing materials

(ii) OTHER PROPERTIES (4F10.0,E10.0)

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	TM	Melting temperature (K)
11-20	HSUB	Heat of sublimation of solid phase (J/g)
21-30	HFUS	Heat of fusion (J/g)
31-40	EMISS	Total normal thermal emissivity
41-50	A3RM	Coefficient A3 (1/k dk/dT) of heat conduction equation at room temperature

(iii) DIFFUSION COEFFICIENT (2(F10.0,E10.0)) - Blank for "SURFT".

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	EH	Diffusion activation energy / Gas constant of the mobile component above TM
11-20	EHEX	Pre-exponential factor of diffusion coefficient of the mobile component above temperature TM
21-30	EL	Diffusion activation energy / Gas constant of the mobile component below temperature TM
31-40	ELEX	Pre-exponential factor below temperature TM

(4) LASER PARAMETERS (F10.0,E10.0,E10.0) - One card, read in by subroutine PROP.

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	R	Reflectivity of target material to the laser light
11-20	TPUL	Effective laser pulse width (sec)
21-30	AEFF	Effective surface area (cm <sup>2</sup> ) of laser exposure spot

(5) CONTROL CARDS FOR NUMERICAL STABILITY - Two cards, read in by subroutine  
SIZE.

(i) STEP AND GRID SIZES (2E10.0,F10.0)

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	DT1	First time step size (dimensionless); also the lower limit of the following step sizes
11-20	DX1	First space grid size (dimensionless); grid sizes are geometrically increasing
21-30	EPS	Geometric factor for increasing grid sizes; a constant greater than 1 (normally 1.035)

(ii) ITERATION CONTROL (I10,E10.0)

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	ITMAX	Maximum number of iterations allowed
11-20	CRIT	Error tolerance for iteration termination

## (6) TABULATED LASER PULSE

(i) SIZE AND DIVISION OF TABULATION - One card, read in by subroutine SHAPE1.

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	SDT	Step size of tabulation
11-20	LSPUL	Number of divisions of tabulation

(ii) NORMALIZED LASER PULSE SHAPE (7F10.0) - As many cards as needed to specify the tabulated normalized pulse shape (LSPUL/7 or LSPUL/7+1), read in by subroutine SHAPE2.

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	SS(I)	Normalized digital pulse shape
...	...	...

(7) TERMINATION OF STEP DO LOOP (2E10.0) - One card, read in by the main program.

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	TSTOP	Time to stop the time step DO loop (sec)
11-20	TCYCL	Time of a cycle for repetitive pulse (sec); Default (if zero or blank) for single pulse source is set to 1.E10 which is supposed to be approximately infinite

(8) INCIDENT TOTAL ENERGY (F10.0) - One card, read in by the main program.

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	EI	Incident total laser energy (J)

(9) INITIAL CONDITIONS (F10.0) - NPDE cards, read in by subroutine INITAL.

Column	Variable	Description
1-10	WO(I)	Initial condition for ith partial differential equation; e.g. WO(1) - initial temperature and WO(2) - initial composition

(10) RESTART OR TERMINATION CARD (I1) -One card, read in by the main program.

Column	Variable	Description
1	ICTL	Control character; 0 or blank: STOP 1: same material, another run for different laser energy 2: different material, start from the right beginning

An example of the input cards for STAR is given in Table C.1.

## C.2 Subroutines to be Supplied by the User

- (1) **BNDRY**: Gives the surface condition(s) of the problem. Input the surface value(s) and output the surface gradient(s).
- (2) **ACALC**: Supplies the coefficients of the partial differential equation(s) and the forms of the function(s) PHAI ( $\Psi_T$  in Eq. (B-3) or/and  $\Psi_r$  in Eq. (B-4)).
- (3) **TABLE**: Tabulates the coefficients of the partial differential equation(s).
- (4) **INITAL**: Supplies the initial condition(s).
- (5) **CHAR**: Provides the characteristic quantities for the non-dimensionalization of the boundary value problem.
- (6) **MFLUX**: The calculation of the convective term (due to moving boundary) and the surface heat loss due to surface recession. Also, some printout formats are provided.
- (7) A function library providing the physical properties, such as **RHO** (density), **SPHT** (specific heat), **COND** (thermal conductivity), **DIF** (diffusion coefficient), etc.

### **C.3 Program Capacity**

The total blank common block storage **MTOT** has to be greater than

$$\text{NGMAX} * (\text{NPDE} * 7 + 11) + \text{LSPUL} * (3 + \text{NPDE}) + \text{NPDE} * 15$$

An error message will be generated and the run will be aborted if **MTOT** is set too small.







```

STR109 C STEP-BY-STEP NUMERICAL CALCULATION
STR110 DO 111 I=1,1000
STR111 TOLB=TNOW
STR112 IF (N,ED,1) GOTO 11
STR113 DO 3 I=1,NPDE
STR114 C(NI2+I-1)=C(NI4+(I-1)*3*NGMAX)
STR115 CALL NUMCAL(C(NI1),TNOW,DT,C(NG),M,C(N2),C(N5),LSPUL,
STR116 M,IFLAG,RMS,C(N7),C(N13),NPDE,NGMAX)
STR117 TIME=TNOW+TCH
STR118 TS=C(N7)*C(N6)
STR119 C TOTAL AMOUNT OF MATERIAL EVAPORATED
STR120 RS=(N/4)*X(RS+1)
STR121 CALL MFLUX(TIME,TS,RS,AME,AME1,AMES,IFLAG)
STR122 DAMDT=(AME-AMOLD)/(DT*TCH)
STR123 AMOLD=AME
STR124 AMEDT=AME*DT*AEFF*TCH
STR125 TAME=TAME+AMEDT
STR126 FRAC=AMEDT/TAME
STR127 C DETERMINE NEXT TIME STEP SIZE
STR128 DT=TIME*1.0E3
STR129 C MAXIMUM SURFACE TEMPERATURE
STR130 IF(TS-LT,TSMAX) GOTO 20
STR131 TSMAX=TS
STR132 LM=M+2
STR133 DO 10 I=1,NPDE
STR134 IM=(I-1)*NGMAX
STR135 DO 10 J=1,LM
STR136 JJ=IM*JJ+J-1
STR137 C(NI9+JJ)=C(NI1+J)*C(NG+1-1)
STR138 GOTO 111
STR139 C
STR140 DO 30 I=1,NPDE
STR141 IM=(I-1)*LSPUL
STR142 C(NI8+IMK-1)=(C(NI2+I-1)/TCH-TOLB)*(C(NI3)*(I-1)*
STR143 NSMAX)-C(NI2+I-1))/(TNOW-TOLB)*C(NI4+1-1)
STR144 K=K+1
STR145 GOTO 40
STR146 C
STR147 DO 40 KN=K
STR148 CALL PRFLX(TSMAX,TIMAX,C(N9),C(N10),LM,NPDE,NGMAX)
STR149 DO 4 I=1,LM
STR150 C(NI0+I-1)=C(NI0+I-1)*E4
STR151 IFRN=0
STR152 CALL PLOTIX(C(N10),C(N9),LM,IFRN)
STR153 C
STR154 IF(ICTL,ED,0,OR,ICTL,GT,2) IFRN=1
STR155 CALL PLOTIRS(C(N4),C(NB),LSPUL,KN,IFRN)
STR156 DO 51 I=1,KN
STR157 C(NI4+I-1)=C(NI4+1-1)/E3
STR158 IF(ICTL,ED,1) GOTO 88
STR159 IF(ICTL,ED,2) GOTO 99
STR160 FORMAT(11)
STR161 STOP
STR162 END
STR163 C CALL PLOTIX(C(N10),C(N9),NGMAX),LM,IFRN)
STR164 IFLAG=1
STR165 C TOTAL AMOUNT OF MATERIAL EVAPORATED
STR166 CALL MFLUX(TIMAX/1.E-3,TSMAX,RTMAX,AME1,AME2,IFLAG)
STR167 IF(DAMDT,GE,0.0) GOTO 41
STR168 TEND=TIME-AME/DAMDT
STR169 GOTO 42
STR170 41 TEND=TIME
STR171 42 CONTINUE
STR172 IF(TEND,GT,TCYCL) TEND=TCYCL
STR173 TAME1=TAME+AME*AEFF*(TEND-TIME)
STR174 TAME2=AME*TRIPUL*AEFF
STR175 WRITE (6,103) TAME,FRAC,TAME2
STR176 WRITE (6,104) TCYCL,TEND,TAME1
STR177 C SURFACE TEMPERATURE AND COMPOSITION RATIOS
STR178 C
STR179 C
STR180 50 WRITE (6,100)
STR181 WRITE (6,101) EI,OP
STR182 WRITE (6,102)
STR183 DO 70 I=1,KN
STR184 IF(I,GT,2) GOTO 60
STR185 IFLAG=IFLAG+1
STR186 CALL MFLUX(C(NI4+I-1),C(NI4+1-1),FLUX,F1,F2,IFLAG)
STR187 70 CONTINUE
STR188 DO 5 I=1,KN
STR189 C(NI4+1-1)=C(NI4+1-1)*I.E3
STR190 CALL PLOTIRS(C(N4),C(NB),KN,IFRN)
STR191 C
STR192 100 FORMAT(1H,10X,88(1H))
STR193 101 FORMAT(1H,13X,66HTHE SURFACE TEMPERATURES AND COMPOSITION RATIOS
STR194 WITH TIME FOR EI =E10.3,9H (JOULES)/
STR195 18X,4HQF =E10.3,8H (W/CM2))
STR196 2
STR197 102 FORMAT(1H,10X,88(1H))
STR198 103 FORMAT(1H,6X,64HTHE TOTAL AMOUNT OF MATERIAL EVAPORATED FROM TIME
STR199 1 INTEGRATION IS,E13.6,6H GRAMS/
STR200 26X,45HTHE TOTAL AMOUNT OF MATERIAL EVAPORATED FROM TIME
STR201 3 2X,75HTHE TOTAL AMOUNT OF MATERIAL EVAPORATED FROM MAX SURF
STR202 4 TEMP AND TPUL CALC IS,E13.6,6H SEC)
STR203 104 FORMAT(1H,0,6X,7HTCYCL =E13.6,15H SEC AND TEND =E13.6,4H SEC/
STR204 7X,66HTHE TOTAL AMOUNT OF MATERIAL EVAPORATED TAKING ACCOUNT
STR205 2T THE AMOUNT FROM TIME TO TEND IS,E13.6,6H GRAMS)
STR206 C
STR207 READ (5,200) ICTL
STR208 IF(ICTL,ED,0,OR,ICTL,GT,2) IFRN=1
STR209 CALL PLOTIRS(C(N4),C(NB),LSPUL,KN,IFRN)
STR210 DO 51 I=1,KN
STR211 C(NI4+1-1)=C(NI4+1-1)/E3
STR212 IF(ICTL,ED,1) GOTO 88
STR213 IF(ICTL,ED,2) GOTO 99
STR214 200 FORMAT(11)
STR215 STOP
STR216 END
STR217 END

```

```

TLC001 C SUBROUTINE TLCODE
TLC002 C READ CONTROL STATEMENT FOR PROBLEM INITIATION
TLC003 C (NOT PROBLEM NOR MATER DEFENIT)
TLC004 C
TLC005 C COMMON/DIM /NPDE,NGMAX,LSFUL
TLC006 C DIMENSION HED(6),DATE(2)
TLC007 C DIMENSION MOD(2)
TLC008 C DATA MOD/SHSTART,SHSTOP /
TLC009 C
TLC010 C 10 READ (5,100) MODE,MYTPE,HED,DATE
TLC011 C IF(MODE.EQ.MOD(2)) STOP
TLC012 C IF(MODE.EQ.MOD(1)) GOTO 20
TLC013 C WRITE (6,300)
TLC014 C GOTO 10
TLC015 C
TLC016 C READ NO OF PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS,
TLC017 C AND DIMENSION OF MAXIMUM GRID POINTS
TLC018 C 20 READ (5,101) NPDE,NGMAX
TLC019 C IF(NGMAX.GT.0) GOTO 30
TLC020 C WRITE (6,301)
TLC021 C 30 WRITE (6,200) HED,DATE
TLC022 C WRITE (6,201) NPDE,NGMAX
TLC023 C
TLC024 C 100 FORMAT(3(65+5X),6A5+5X+2A0)
TLC025 C 101 FORMAT(2I5)
TLC026 C 200 FORMAT(1H1,5(1H*),2X,6A5+2X+5(1H*),1X,5(1H*),12X,2A5+12X+5(1H*))
TLC027 C 201 FORMAT(1H0,40H THE NUMBER OF DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS IS ,I2/
TLC028 C 1X,37H THE MAXIMUM NUMBER OF GRID PLANES IS ,I5//)
TLC029 C 300 FORMAT(/49H **ERROR** DATA DECK MUST BEGIN WITH START CARD)
TLC030 C 301 FORMAT(/46H **ERROR** NO. OF GRID PLANES MUST BE GT ZERO)
TLC031 C RETURN
TLC032 C END
TLC033 C
AL0001 C SUBROUTINE ALLOC
AL0002 C DEFINE COMMON BLOCK STORAGE ALLOCATION FOR
AL0003 C THE MAIN PROGRAM AND SUBROUTINES
AL0004 C
AL0005 C COMMON/BLUCK/MTOT
AL0006 C COMMON/DIM /N1,N2,N3,N4,N5,N6,N7,N8,N9,N10,N11,N12,N13
AL0007 C COMMON/BLKRAM/11,M2,M3,M4,M5,M6,M7,M8,M9,M10,M11,M12,M13
AL0008 C COMMON/INERT/11,L2,L3,L4,L5,L6,L7,L8,L9,L10,L11,L12,L13,L14,
AL0009 C L15,L16,L17
AL0010 C
AL0011 C PARTITION OF BLANK COMMON FOR MAIN PROGRAM
AL0012 C
AL0013 C N1 = 1
AL0014 C N2 = N1 + NGMAX**NPDE
AL0015 C N3 = N2 + LSFUL
AL0016 C N4 = N3 + LSFUL
AL0017 C N5 = N4 + LSFUL
AL0018 C N6 = N5 + LSFUL
AL0019 C
AL0020 N7 = N6 + NPDE
AL0021 N8 = N7 + NPDE
AL0022 N9 = N8 + LSFUL**NPDE
AL0023 N10 = N9 + NGMAX**NPDE
AL0024 N11 = N10 + NGMAX
AL0025 N12 = N11 + NPDE
AL0026 N13 = N12 + NPDE
AL0027 NLAST = N13 + NPDE
AL0028 C IF(NLAST.GT.MTOT) CALL ERROR(NLAST-MTOT)
AL0029 C
AL0030 C PARTITION OF BLANK COMMON FOR SUBROUTINE CRANK
AL0031 C
AL0032 C M1 = NLAST
AL0033 C M2 = M1 + NGMAX**NPDE
AL0034 C M3 = M2 + NGMAX**NPDE
AL0035 C M4 = M3 + NPDE
AL0036 C M5 = M4 + NPDE
AL0037 C M6 = M5 + NPDE
AL0038 C M7 = M6 + NPDE
AL0039 C M8 = M7 + NPDE
AL0040 C M9 = M8 + NPDE
AL0041 C M10 = M9 + NPDE
AL0042 C M11 = M10 + NPDE
AL0043 C M12 = M11 + NPDE
AL0044 C M13 = M12 + NGMAX
AL0045 C IF(M13.GT.MTOT) CALL ERROR(M13-MTOT)
AL0046 C
AL0047 C PARTITION OF BLANK COMMON FOR SUBROUTINE NEWTON
AL0048 C
AL0049 C L1 = NLAST
AL0050 C L2 = L1 + NGMAX
AL0051 C L3 = L2 + NGMAX
AL0052 C L4 = L3 + NGMAX
AL0053 C L5 = L4 + NPDE
AL0054 C L6 = L5 + NPDE
AL0055 C L7 = L6 + NPDE
AL0056 C L8 = L7 + NPDE
AL0057 C L9 = L8 + NPDE
AL0058 C L10 = L9 + NPDE
AL0059 C L11 = L10 + NGMAX**NPDE
AL0060 C L12 = L11 + NGMAX**NPDE
AL0061 C L13 = L12 + NPDE
AL0062 C L14 = L13 + NPDE
AL0063 C L15 = L14 + NPDE
AL0064 C L16 = L15 + NGMAX
AL0065 C L17 = L16 + NGMAX
AL0066 C IF(L17.GT.MTOT) CALL ERROR(L17-MTOT)
AL0067 C RETURN
AL0068 C END
SZE001 C SUBROUTINE SIZE
SZE002 C SET STEP AND GRID SIZES FOR NUMERICAL STABILITY
SZE003 C
SZE004 C (NOT PROBLEM NOR MATER DEFENIT)

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SZE005 C
SZE006 COMMON/GRID /DX1,EFS,EFS1,EFS2
SZE007 COMMON/ITER /ITMAX,CRTI
SZE008 COMMON/STEP /DII
SZE009 C
SZE010 READ (5,100) DTI,DX1,EFS
SZE011 WRITE (6,200) DTI,DX1,EFS
SZE012 READ (5,101) ITMAX,CRTI
SZE013 WRITE (6,201) ITMAX,CRTI
SZE014 C
SZE015 100 FORMAT(2E10.0,F10.0)
SZE016 101 FORMAT(110,F10.0)
SZE017 200 FORMAT(100,23HTHE NUMERICAL CONSTANTS/
SZE018 1 5X,21HTHE FIRST STEP SIZE =,E9.3/
SZE019 2 5X,21HTHE FIRST GRID SIZE =,E9.3/
SZE020 3 5X,21HTHRID INCRE FACTOR =,F9.3)
SZE021 201 FORMAT(5X,21HMAX NO OF ITERATION =,I9/
SZE022 1 5X,21HERORR TOLERANCE =,E9.3)
SZE023 C
SZE024 RETURN
SZE025 END

LDR001 C
LDR002 SUBROUTINE LOAD(A,NGMAX)
LDR003 C LOAD CONSTANT VECTORS FOR DIFFERENCE OPERATORS
LDR004 C (NOT PROBLEM NOR MATER DEPEND)
LDR005 C
LDR006 COMMON/GRID /DX1,EFS,EFS1,EFS2
LDR007 DIMENSION A(NGMAX,7)
LDR008 C
LDR009 EFS1=1,EFS
LDR010 EFS2=1,EFS,EFS**2
LDR011 I=2
LDR012 A(I,1)=2,EFS*(2,EFS)/(EFS1*EFS2)
LDR013 A(I,2)=-2,EFS**2*(2,EFS-1)/(EFS**2*EFS1)
LDR014 A(I,3)=2,EFS**2*(2,EFS-1)/(EFS1*EFS**3)
LDR015 A(I,4)=2,EFS*(1,-EFS)/(EFS**3*EFS1*EFS2)
LDR016 A(I,5)=-EFS/EFS1
LDR017 A(I,6)=(EFS-1)/EFS
LDR018 A(I,7)=1/(EFS*EFS1)
LDR019 DO 1 I=3,NGMAX
LDR020 1 A(I,J)=A(I-1,J)/EFS**2
LDR021 DO 2 J=5,7
LDR022 DO 2 I=3,NGMAX
LDR023 2 A(I,J)=A(I-1,J)/EFS
LDR024 I=1
LDR025 A(I,1)=0.0
LDR026 A(I,2)=-EFS*(2,)/EFS1
LDR027 A(I,3)=EFS1/EFS
LDR028 A(I,4)=-1/(EFS*EFS1)
LDR029 RETURN
LDR030 END
LDR031

SUBROUTINE SHAPE1
SAP101 C
SAP102 C READ SDT AND LSPUL
SAP103 C
SAP104 COMMON/DIM /N(2),LSPUL
SAP105 COMMON/PULS /SDT
SAP106 C
SAP107 READ (5,100) SDT,LSPUL
SAP108 WRITE (6,200) SDT,LSPUL
SAP109 100 FORMAT(E10.1,I10)
SAP110 200 FORMAT(1H0,25HTEMP PRINT OUT PARAMETERS/
SAP111 1 5X,4HSDT=,E7.2,4H SEC,5X,4H LSPUL=,I3)
SAP112 C
SAP113 RETURN
SAP114 END
SAP115 C

SUBROUTINE SHAPE2(SS,TT,LSPUL)
SAP201 C
SAP202 LASER NORMALIZED PULSE SHAPE
SAP203 C (NOT PROBLEM NOR MATER DEPEND)
SAP204 C
SAP205 COMMON/PULS /SDT
SAP206 DIMENSION SS(LSPUL),TT(LSPUL)
SAP207 C
SAP208 DO 1 I=1,LSPUL
SAP209 TT(I)=SDT*FLOAD(I-1)
SAP210 READ (5,101) (SS(I),I=1,LSPUL)
SAP211 WRITE (6,201)
SAP212 WRITE (6,203)
SAP213 WRITE (6,203)
SAP214 WRITE (6,204) (I,TT(I),I,SS(I),I=1,LSPUL)
SAP215 C
SAP216 101 FORMAT(7F10.3)
SAP217 201 FORMAT(1H1,55(1H**))
SAP218 202 FORMAT(1H 1X,53H HISTOGRAM OF TEMPORAL SHAPE OF PULSE FROM POWER T
SAP219 TRACE)
SAP220 203 FORMAT(1H 55(1H**)/)
SAP221 204 FORMAT(1H 10X,3HTT(,I2,3H) =,E8.2,5X,3HSS(,I2,3H) =,F6.3)
SAP222 C
SAP223 RETURN
SAP224 END
SAP225 C

FUNCTION SOURCE(TIME,FF,LSPUL)
SRC001 C
SRC002 C TEMPORAL SHAPE FROM LASER POWER TRACE
SRC003 C
SRC004 COMMON/PULS /SDT
SRC005 DIMENSION FF(LSPUL)
SRC006 C
SRC007 XI=TIME/SDT
SRC008 I=XI
SRC009 IF(I,0E,LSPUL-1) GOTO 1
SRC010

```

```

SRC011 SOURCE=FF(J,H1)+(X1-T)*(X1-T)*FF(IH2)-FF(I+1)
SRC012 RETURN
SRC013 SOURCE=0.0
SRC014 RETURN
SRC015 END

CRG001 SUBROUTINE CONVRG(W,WLAST,NIT,M,MRESET,DT,NPBE,NGMAX)
CRG002
CRG003 TEST THE CONVERGENCY OF ITERATIONS
CRG004 C (NOT PROBLEM NOR WATER DEFENT)
CRG005 C
CRG006 DIMENSION W(NGMAX*3,NPBE),WLAST(NPBE)
CRG007 C
CRG008 IF(NIT-ED,0) GOTO 2
CRG009 DO 10 I=1,NPBE
CRG010 RATIO=ABS(W(I,3+I)-W(I,2+I))/(W(I,2+I)-WLAST(I))
CRG011 IF(RATIO,GE,1.) GOTO 1
CRG012 CONTINUE
CRG013 GOTO 2
CRG014 C IF NOT CONVERGE, DT WAS TOO LARGE
CRG015 C DT REDUCED TO HALF
CRG016 DT=DT/2.
CRG017 M=MRESET
CRG018 NIT=0
CRG019 RETURN
CRG020 C IF CONVERGE (I,3) TRANSFER TO (I,2), ITERATION GOES ON
CRG021 CONTINUE
CRG022 DO 20 I=1,NPBE
CRG023 WLAST(I)=W(I,2+I)
CRG024 I=I+1
CRG025 DO 3 J=1,NPBE
CRG026 W(J,2+I)=W(J,3+I)
CRG027 CONTINUE
CRG028 RETURN
CRG029 RETURN
CRG030
CRG031

TSIF01 SUBROUTINE ISTEP(DT,DWS,N)
TSIF02 C
TSIF03 C DETERMINATION OF TIME INCREMENT BY COMPARING SUCCESSIVE TIME
TSIF04 C DERIVATIVE OF SURFACE TEMPERATURE (NOTE THAT ONLY TEMP IS USED)
TSIF05 C (NOT PROBLEM NOR WATER DEFENT)
TSIF06 C
TSIF07 DTOLD=DT
TSIF08 DMDT=DWS/DTOLD
TSIF09 IF(N,EQ,1) GOTO 1
TSIF10 DMDT=ABS(DMDT-DMDTD)/ABS(DMDT)
TSIF11 DT=DT*.1/DMDT
TSIF12 C 10% OF D(DMDT) TOLERANCE
TSIF13 IF(DT,GT,3.*DTOLD) DT=3.*DTOLD
TSIF14 IF(DT,GT,50.*DT1) DT=50.*DT1

```

```

TSIF15 IF(DT,LT,DT1) DT=DT1
TSIF16 K1=0
TSIF17 K1=K1+1
TSIF18 POWER=10.**K1
TSIF19 IF(CAINT(DT*POWER),EQ,0) GOTO 10
TSIF20 DT=AINT(DT*POWER+.5)/POWER
TSIF21 DMDTD=DMDT
TSIF22 IF(N,GT,1) RETURN
TSIF23 DT1=DT
TSIF24 RETURN
TSIF25 END

EUR001 SUBROUTINE ERROR(N)
EUR002 C
EUR003 WRITE (6+1) N
EUR004 FORMAT(/,'31H**ERROR** STORAGE EXCEEDED BY ',I6)
EUR005 STOP
EUR006 END

NCL001 SUBROUTINE NUMCAL(W,TNOW,DT,UCH,M,A,FF,LSFUL,N,I,FLAG,
NCL002 DWS,WS,WLAST,NPDE,NGMAX)
NCL003 C
NCL004 C NUMERICAL CALCULATION OF PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATION AT SOME
NCL005 C TIME STEP TNOW WITH CRANK-NICOLSON FINITE DIFFERENCE METHOD.
NCL006 C PREDICTOR-CORRECTOR SCHEME FOR THE FIRST GUESS, NEWTON-RAPHSON
NCL007 C METHOD FOR ITERATION AND GAUSSIAN ELIMINATION METHOD FOR SOLVING
NCL008 C LINEARIZED EQUATIONS.
NCL009 C (NOT PROBLEM NOR WATER DEFENDENT)
NCL010 C
NCL011 COMMON/ITER /ITMAX,CRIT
NCL012 DIMENSION W(NGMAX*3,NPDE)
NCL013 DIMENSION A(NGMAX*7)
NCL014 DIMENSION WS(NPDE),MCH(NPDE)
NCL015 DIMENSION WLAST(NPDE)
NCL016 DIMENSION FF(LSPUL)
NCL017 C
NCL018 TOLD=TNOW
NCL019 MRESET=M
NCL020 NIT=0
NCL021 T=TOLD*DT/2.
NCL022 TNOW=TDI/2.
NCL023 C
NCL024 C PREDICTOR
NCL025 NLAG=0
NCL026 CALL CRANK(W,T,DT/2.,MCH,M,A,FF,LSFUL,NFLAG,NPDE,NGMAX)
NCL027 C
NCL028 C CORRECTOR
NCL029 NLAG=1
NCL030 CALL CRANK(W,TNOW,DT,UCH,M,A,FF,LSFUL,NFLAG,NPDE,NGMAX)
NCL031 C
NCL032 I1=I+1
NCL033 DO 11 I=1,NPDE

```



```

C N16 MGS SOLUTION FROM GAUSS ELIM NGRMAX
*****
IF (NIT.GT.0.DR.IEON.GT.1) GOTO 20
DO 9 I=1,NPDE
  I=I-1
  JI=IMNGMAX
  C(N10+JI)=0.0
  C(N11+JI)=0.0
  DO 10 J=2,M
    JI=IMNGMAX+J-1
    C(N10+JI)=(A(J,5)*W(J-1,I)+A(J,6)*W(J,1,I)+A(J,7)*W(J+1,I,I))/
    DX1
  1 C(N11+JI)=A(J,1)*W(J-1,I)+A(J,2)*W(J,I,I)+A(J,3)*W(J+1,I,I)
  1 CONTINUE +A(J,4)*W(J,2,I,I)
  9 CONTINUE
  C 20
  J=1
  IER=IEON-1
  C(N2)=A(J,I)
  DO 11 I=1,NPDE
    I=I-1
    IF (I.LE.IER) GOTO 12
    C(N1+I)=W(J,2,I)
  11 GOTO 11
  12 CALL BNDY(C(N14),WCH,T,FF,LSPUL,C(N4),U,C(N6),C(N7),NPDE)
  11 CALL BNDY(C(N14),WCH,T,FF,LSPUL,C(N5),FV,C(N6),C(N8),NPDE)
  1 (N4+IER)*DX1
  C(N14+IER)=C(N14+IER)+FJ
  CALL BNDY(C(N14),WCH,T,FF,LSPUL,C(N14+IER)=FJ
  C(N14+IER)=C(N14+IER)+FJ
  C(N1+I)=A(J,2)-C(N5+IER)-C(N4+IER)/FJ*DX1
  J=J+1
  DO 13 I=1,NPDE
    I=I-1
    IF (I.LE.IER) GOTO 14
    C(N15+I)=(W(J,2,I)+W(J,1,I))/2.
    C(N9+I)=(A(J,5)*W(J-1,I)+A(J,6)*W(J,1,I)+A(J,7)*W(J+1,I,I))/
    DX1
  14 GOTO 13
  14 C(N15+I)=(W(J,3,I)+W(J,1,I))/2.
  1 C(N9+I)=(C(N9+I)+C(N10+I)*MNGMAX+J-1)/2.
  1 CALL ACALC(C(N15),WCH,T,V,C(N9),C(N12),C(N13),DPHAI,IEON,NFLAG,
  NPDE)
  1 DDX=A(J,1)*W(J-1,I,2,IEON)+A(J,2)*W(J,2,IEON)+A(J,3)*W(J+1,2,IEON)+
  A(J,4)*W(J,2,2,IEON)
  FJ=DDX*(C(N11+I)*MNGMAX+J-1)-2.*C(N12+IER)*DX1**2
  1 W(J,1,IEON)/DT-C(N13+IER)*DX1**2
  AK=A(J,1)+A(J,5)*DPHAI*DX1

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C N17 EQ.NGRMAX-3) GOTO 14
CON1=C(N1+JI)+C(N2+JI)+A(J,4))/C(N3+JI)-(C(N1+JI-1)+C(N2+JI-1)
  1 +A(J-1,4))/C(N3+JI-1)
CON2=C(N2+JI)+2.*A(J,4))/C(N3+JI)+(C(N1+JI-1)-A(J-1,4))/C(N3+JI
  1 -1)
IF (ABS(CON1/CON2).GT.0.002) MFLAG=1
14 CONTINUE
IF (MFLAG.NE.0) GOTO 1
M=J
BACK SUBSTITUTION
2 LI=MI
DO 15 I=1,NPDE
  I1=(I-1)*NGRMAX
  CALL GAUSS(C(N1+I1),C(N2+I1),C(N3+I1),A(1,4),C(N12),M)
  DO 3 J=1,LI
    W(J,NH+I1)=C(N12+J-1)
  3 CONTINUE
  15 RETURN
END
SUBROUTINE NEWTON(M,T,DT,WCH,NIT,H,A,FF,LSPUL,IEON,NFLAG,NPDE,
  NGRMAX)
C NEWTON-RAPHSON METHOD
C (NOT PROBLEM-NUR WATER DEFENT)
COMMON/GRIT /DX1,EPS,EFS1,EFS2
COMMON/DNEM/NI,N2,N3,N4,N5,N6,N7,N8,N9,N10,N11,N12,N13,N14,
  1 N15,N16,N17
COMMON C(1)
DIMENSION W(NGRMAX,3,NPDE)
DIMENSION A(NGRMAX,7)
DIMENSION WCH(NPDE)
DIMENSION FF(LSPUL)
*****
BLANK COMMON STORAGE ALLOCATION
ARRAY COEFF OF I FROM ELIM DIMENSION
N1 ALPHA COEFF OF I+1 FROM ELIM NGRMAX
N2 BETA RECUR SUM AFTER ELIM NGRMAX
N3 S BNDY GRADIENTS NPDE
N4 FC PERTURBED BNDY GRAD NPDE
N5 FLNR BUNDY VARIABLE NPDE
N6 FFO DUMMY VARIABLE NPDE
N7 FFD SEC CORR CE FIRST DIFF NPDE
N8 DDX DDX OF LAST TIME STEP NGRMAX,NPDE
N9 DDXD LAST SEC CORR CE SEC DIFF NGRMAX,NPDE
N10 DDXD COEFF OF TIME DER TERM NPDE
N11 PHAI PIE SPACE DEPENT TERMS NPDE
N12 M5 SURF VALUE OF W NPDE
N13 WJ W VALUE AT J-TH GRID NPDE

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CNK072
CNK073
CNK074
CNK075
CNK076
CNK077
CNK078
CNK079
CNK080
CNK081
CNK082
CNK083
CNK084
CNK085
CNK086
CNK087
CNK088
CNK089
CNK090

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NMT088      BK=A(J,2)+A(J,6)*DPHAI*DX1-2.*C(N12+IER)/DT*DX1**2
NMT089      CK=A(J,3)+A(J,7)*DPHAI*DX1
NMT090      C(N1-1+J)=BK-C(N2+J-2)*AK/C(N1+J-2)
NMT091      C(N2-1+J)=CK-A(J-1,4)*AK/C(N1+J-2)
NMT092      C(N3-1+J)=FJ-AK*MC(N3+J-2)/C(N1+J-2)
NMT093      IF(J,LT,4) GOTO 1
NMT094      BACK-SUBSTITUTION
NMT095      CALL GAUSS(C(N1),C(N2),C(N3),A(1,4),C(N16),H)
NMT096      L1=H*2
NMT097      DO 2 J=1,L1
NMT098      W(J,3,IEQN)=C(N16+J-1)*W(J,2,IEQN)
NMT099      RETURN
NMT100      END

SUBROUTINE GAUSS(ALPHA,BETA,S,D,WGS,H)
C
C BACK-SUBSTITUTION AFTER GAUSSIAN ELIMINATION
C
COMMON/GRID /DX1,EFS,EFS1,EFS2
DIMENSION WGS(1)
DIMENSION ALPHA(1),BETA(1),S(1),D(1)
A1=ALPHA(M-1)-D(M-1)*EFS
B1=BETA(M-1)+D(M-1)*EFS1
A11=ALPHA(M)+BETA(M)*EFS1+D(M)*EFS2
B11=BETA(M)*EFS-D(M)*EFS1
WGS(M)=(S(M)-B11*WGS(M-1))/A11
WGS(M+1)=(S(M+1)-B11*WGS(M))/A11
WGS(M+2)=WGS(M+1)*EFS1-WGS(M)*EFS
L=M-1
DO 100 J=2,L
WGS(M-J)=S(M-J)-BETA(M-J)*WGS(M-J+1)-D(M-J)*WGS(M-J+2)/
1 ALPHA(M-J)
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE ENDRY(W,S,WCH,TAU,FF,LSPUL,BC,V,FLMR,FO,NPDE)
C
C BOUNDARY CONTRIBUTION(S)
C (PROBLEM DEPENDENT BUT NOT WATER DEPEND)
C
COMMON/CHART/XCH,TCH
COMMON/LASER/EI,UP,R,TPUL,AEFF
COMMON/HOLM /TM,HSUB,HFUS,EMISS,A3RM
DIMENSION WS(NPDE),BC(NPDE),FLMR(NPDE),FO(NPDE)
DIMENSION FF(LSPUL)
TEMP=WS(1)*WCH(1)
OU=WS(2)*WCH(2)

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RDY016      T=TAU*TCH
RDY017      IFLAG=4
RDY018      CALL MFLUX(T,TEMP,OU,FLUX,FLUX1,FLUX2,IFLAG)
RDY019      HVAL=HSDI
RDY020      IF(TEMP,GE,TH) HVAL=HVAL-HFUS
RDY021      C=XCH*(MCH(2)*COND(TEMP))
RDY022      QV=FLUX*HVAL*MC
RDY023      GR=EMISS*(TEMP**1.298,2**4)*5.656E-12*MC
RDY024      RI=SOURCE*(FF*LSPUL)*C
RDY025      RC(1)=QV/RQ-R1
RDY026      FLMR(1)=QV/WS(1)*RQ/WS(1)
RDY027      V=WR(3,2)/WM(1,2)*FLUX2/RHO(TEMP)*TCH/XCH
RDY028      RC(2)=(WM(3,2)*FLUX1/(WM(2,1)*RHO(TEMP))-V*XCH/TCH*OU)*XCH/
1 (DIF(TEMP)*MCH(2))
RDY029      FLMR(2)=BC(2)/WS(2)
RDY030      FO(2)=0.0
RDY031      RETURN
RDY032      END
RDY033
RDY034

SUBROUTINE ACALC(WJ,WCH,T,V,DDX,A1,PHAI,DPHAI,IEQN,NFLAG,NPDE)
C
C COEFFICIENTS IN CONDUCTION AND DIFFUSION EQUATIONS
C (PROBLEM DEPENDENT BUT NOT WATER DEPEND)
C
COMMON/CHART/XCH,TCH
COMMON/DIFFE/EH,EHEX,ELEX
COMMON/HATP /TM,HSUB,HFUS,EMISS,A3RM
COMMON/TAB /SCON(SOO),SA1(SOO),SA3(SOO)
DIMENSION WJ(NPDE),WCH(NPDE)
DIMENSION A1(NPDE),DDX(NPDE),PHAI(NPDE)
TEMP=WJ(1)*WCH(1)
OU=WJ(2)*WCH(2)
IF(IEQN,GT,1) GOTO 2
IF(TEMP,LT,300.0-DR,TEMP,GE,TH) GOTO 10
XI=TEMP/10.0-29.0
I=XI
A1(1)=SA1(1)+(XI-I)*SA1(I+1)-SA1(I)
A1(1)=A1(1)*XCH**2/TCH
A3=SA3(1)+(XI-I)*SA3(I+1)-SA3(1)
A3=A3*WCH(1)
GOTO 20
10 A1(1)=SPHT(TEMP)/COND(TEMP)*RHO(TEMP)*XCH**2/TCH
A3=0.0
A2=VA1(1)
A4=0.0
PHAI(1)=A2*DDX(1)+A3*DDX(1)**2+A4
IF(NFLAG,GT,1) GOTO 100
CONTINUE
IF(TEMP,GE,TH) GOTO 30
A3=EL/TEMP**2*WCH(1)
GOTO 40

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RDY016
RDY017
RDY018
RDY019
RDY020
RDY021
RDY022
RDY023
RDY024
RDY025
RDY026
RDY027
RDY028
RDY029
RDY030
RDY031
RDY032
RDY033
RDY034
ACLO01
ACLO02
ACLO03
ACLO04
ACLO05
ACLO06
ACLO07
ACLO08
ACLO09
ACLO10
ACLO11
ACLO12
ACLO13
ACLO14
ACLO15
ACLO16
ACLO17
ACLO18
ACLO19
ACLO20
ACLO21
ACLO22
ACLO23
ACLO24
ACLO25
ACLO26
ACLO27
ACLO28
ACLO29
ACLO30
ACLO31
ACLO32
ACLO33

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ACL034
ACL035
ACL036
ACL037
ACL038
ACL039
ACL040
ACL041
ACL042

30 Q3=EH/TEMP**2*WUCH(1)
40 Q1(2)=XCH**2/ICH/DIF(TEMP)
   Q3=XCH*(1/2)
   Q4=0.0
   Q5=(2)=Q2*DDX(2)+Q3*DDX(2)*DDX(1)*H44
100 CONTINUE
   BPHRL=Q2+Q3*FLOOR(1EON)*DDX(1)*2.
   RETURN
   END

SUBROUTINE PFILE(TS,TIME,WX,X,M,NPDE,NGMAX)
WRITE AND PLOT PROFILES WX AT TIME
C (NOT PROBLEM NOR WATER DEPENDENT)
C (FORMAT EASY TO MODIFY IF DESIRED)
COMMON/CHART/XCH,ICH
COMMON/GRID /DX,IEFS,EFS1,EFS2
COMMON/LASER/EI,OP,R,IFUL,AEFF
DIMENSION WX(NGMAX,NPDE)
DIMENSION X(NGMAX)
WRITE (6,100)
WRITE (6,101) TS,TIME,EI,OP
WRITE (6,102)
WRITE (6,103)
DX=DX1**XCH
X(1)=0.0
DO 20 J=2,M
  X(J)=X(J-1)+EFS**X(J-2)*DX
WRITE (6,104) (X(J),J=1,M)
C
100 FORMAT(1H1,11X,105(1H*))
101 FORMAT(1H0,14X,60HTEMPERATURE AND COMPOSITION PROFILES AT MAXIMUM
  1 SURFACE TEMP,F7.1,13H DEG AT TIMAX,F7.4,3H MSEC/
  2 26X,BHFUR EI =,F7.3,14H (JULLES) OP =,F10.3,8H (W/CM2))
102 FORMAT(1H0,11X,105(1H*))
103 FORMAT(3(15X,5HX(CM)),4X,7HTEMP(K),5X,4HCOMP))
104 FORMAT(3(7X,E15.4),F9.1,F9.4))
C
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE PLOTS(X,Y,N,IFRM)
PLOT SURFACE TEMPERATURE VS TIME
DIMENSION SPECS(30),X(1),Y(1)
DIMENSION SIBEX(3),SIDEY(3)
DIMENSION RUF(500),BUFY(500)
C
SET XLIST, YLIST (IN INCHES)
SPECS(1)=1.5
SPECS(2)=1.5
C SET XRIGHT, XLEFT, YTOP, YBOT
SPECS(3)=0.5
SPECS(4)=0.0
SPECS(5)=5000.
SPECS(6)=0.0
C SET XLNGTH, YLNGTH (IN INCHES)
SPECS(7)=5.0
SPECS(8)=5.0
C SET NO. OF DIVISIONS
SPECS(9)=10.
SPECS(10)=10.
C SPECIFY TOOL
SPECS(11)=1.0
C SPECIFY INTERMEDIATE FILE NO.
SPECS(12)=99.
CALL AXLIST(SPECS)
C SPECIFY NO. OF DATA POINTS
SPECS(13)=FLOOR(N)
C SET XSKIP, YSKIP
SPECS(14)=1.
SPECS(15)=1.
C SET FONT, FONTH, SFACER, ROTATE, FONTNO
C FONT 2 FOR CHARACTERS OTHER THAN GRAPH TITLE
SPECS(17)=0.08
SPECS(18)=0.12
SPECS(19)=0.04
SPECS(20)=0.0
SPECS(21)=2.0
C SET ZONES
SPECS(24)=0.1
SPECS(25)=0.05
C ANNOTATE HORIZONTAL AXIS
SPECS(28)=2.0
SPECS(29)=2.0
SPECS(9)=5.0
CALL NOBLIR(SPECS)
C ANNOTATE VERTICAL AXIS
SPECS(28)=1.0
SPECS(29)=4.0
SPECS(10)=10.0
CALL NOBLIL(SPECS)
C CONSTRUCT TITLE FOR X-AXIS
CALL TITLEL(IHRTIME (MSEC),SPECS)
C CONSTRUCT TITLE FOR Y-AXIS
CALL TITLEL(23HSURFACE TEMPERATURE (K),SPECS)
C ALSO USE FONT 2
SPECS(22)=2.5
SPECS(23)=4.0
RULE=1.0
CALL TITLEL(RULE,27HSURFACE TEMPERATURE VS TIME,SPECS)

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FTS064 SPECS(23)=SPECS(23)-0.3
FTS065 CALL TITLE(RULE,18HFOR EI = JOULES, SPECS)
FTS066 PLOT DATA POINTS WITH SOLID LINE
FTS067 CALL P/LILI(X,Y,BUFY,SPES)
FTS068 C PLOT LINES FOR TOP AND RIGHT EDGES OF PLOT AREA
FTS069 SIDE(1)=SPECS(4)
FTS070 SIDE(2)=SPECS(5)
FTS071 SIDE(3)=SPECS(3)
FTS072 SIDE(4)=SPECS(6)
FTS073 SIDE(5)=SPECS(3)
FTS074 SIDE(6)=SPECS(3)
FTS075 SIDE(7)=SPECS(6)
FTS076 CALL SLLILI(SIDEX,SIDEY,SPECS)
FTS077 C
FTS078 C FINISH PLOT IF IT IS THE LAST ONE;
FTS079 C OTHERWISE, CALL NEXT FRAME
FTS080 IF(IFRM.EQ.1) GO TO 1000
FTS081 CALL NXIFRM(SPECS)
FTS082 RETURN
FTS083 1000 CALL GISEND(SPECS)
FTS084 RETURN
FTS085 ENI

FTX001 SUBROUTINE PLOTTX(X,Y,N,IFRM)
FTX002 C
FTX003 C PLOT TEMPERATURE PROFILE VS SPACE
FTX004 C
FTX005 DIMENSION SPECS(30),X(1),Y(1)
FTX006 DIMENSION SIDE(3),SIDEY(3)
FTX007 DIMENSION BUFY(500),BUFY(200)
FTX008 C
FTX009 C SET XDIST, YDIST (IN INCHES)
FTX010 SPECS(1)=1.5
FTX011 SPECS(2)=1.5
FTX012 C SET XRIGHT, XLEFT, YTOP, YBOT
FTX013 SPECS(3)=50.
FTX014 SPECS(4)=0.0
FTX015 SPECS(5)=5000.
FTX016 SPECS(6)=0.0
FTX017 C SET XLENGTH, YLENGTH (IN INCHES)
FTX018 SPECS(7)=5.0
FTX019 SPECS(8)=5.0
FTX020 C SET NO. OF DIVISIONS
FTX021 SPECS(9)=10.
FTX022 SPECS(10)=10.
FTX023 C SPECIFY TOOL
FTX024 SPECS(11)=1.0
FTX025 C SPECIFY INTERMEDIATE FILE NO.
FTX026 SPECS(12)=99.
FTX027 CALL XLLILI(SPECS)
FTX028 C SPECIFY NO. OF DATA POINTS
FTX029 SPECS(13)=PLDATT(N)
FTX030 C SET XSKIP, YSKIP
SPECS(14)=1.
SPECS(15)=1.
C SET FONTR,FONTH,SPACER,ROTATE,FONTNO
C FONT 2 FOR CHARACTERS OTHER THAN GRAPH TITLE
SPECS(17)=0.08
SPECS(18)=0.12
SPECS(19)=0.04
SPECS(20)=0.0
SPECS(21)=2.0
C SET ZONES
SPECS(24)=0.1
SPECS(26)=0.05
C ANNOTATE HORIZONTAL AXIS
SPECS(28)=0.0
SPECS(29)=2.0
SPECS(9)=5.0
CALL NODLIR(SPECS)
C ANNOTATE VERTICAL AXIS
SPECS(28)=1.0
SPECS(29)=4.0
SPELS(10)=10.0
CALL NODLIL(SPECS)
C CONSTRUCT TITLE FOR X-AXIS
CALL TITLE(11HX (MICRONS),SPECS)
C CONSTRUCT TITLE FOR Y-AXIS
CALL TITLE(11SHTEMPERATURE (K),SPECS)
C CONSTRUCT ANNOTATION OF GRAPH TITLE
C ALSO USE FONT 2
C SPECIFY XSTART, YSTART (INCHES)
SPECS(22)=3.0
SPECS(23)=5.0
RULE=1.0
CALL TITLE(RULE,19HTEMPERATURE PROFILE,SPECS)
SPECS(23)=SPECS(23)-0.3
CALL TITLE(RULE,19HAT MAX SURFACE TEMP,SPECS)
SPECS(23)=SPECS(23)-0.3
CALL TITLE(RULE,18HFOR EI = JOULES,SPECS)
C PLOT DATA POINTS WITH SOLID LINE
CALL P/LILI(X,Y,BUFY,SPES)
C PLOT LINES FOR TOP AND RIGHT EDGES OF PLOT AREA
SIDE(1)=SPECS(4)
SIDE(2)=SPECS(5)
SIDE(3)=SPECS(3)
SIDE(4)=SPECS(6)
SIDE(5)=SPECS(3)
SIDE(6)=SPECS(3)
SIDE(7)=SPECS(6)
CALL SLLILI(SIDEX,SIDEY,SPECS)
C FINISH PLOT IF IT IS THE LAST ONE;
C OTHERWISE, CALL NEXT FRAME
IF(IFRM.EQ.1) GO TO 1000
CALL NXIFRM(SPECS)
RETURN

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PTX085 1000 CALL GSENR(SPECS)
PTX086 RETURN
PTX087 END

PR5001 C SUBROUTINE PLOT(X,Y,N,IFRM)
PR5002 C
PR5003 C PLOT SURFACE COMPOSITION VS TIME
PR5004 C
PR5005 C DIMENSION SPECS(30),X(1),Y(1)
PR5006 C DIMENSION SIDEY(3),SIDEY(3)
PR5007 C DIMENSION BUF(500),BUF(500)
PR5008 C
PR5009 C SET XDIST, YDIST (IN INCHES)
PR5010 C SPECS(1)=1.5
PR5011 C SPECS(2)=1.5
PR5012 C .SL XRIGHT, XLEFT, YTOP, YBOT
PR5013 C SPECS(3)=2.0
PR5014 C SPECS(4)=0.5
PR5015 C SPECS(5)=2.0
PR5016 C SET XLNGTH, YLNPTH (IN INCHES)
PR5017 C XLNGTH=5.0
PR5018 C YLNPTH=5.0
PR5019 C .SL NO. OF DIVISIONS
PR5020 C .SL NO. OF DIVISIONS
PR5021 C SPECS(9)=10.
PR5022 C SPECS(10)=10.
PR5023 C SPECIFY TOOL
PR5024 C SPECS(11)=1.0
PR5025 C SPECIFY INTERMEDIATE FILE NO.
PR5026 C SPECS(12)=99.
PR5027 C CALL AXLLI(SPECS)
PR5028 C SPECIFY NO. OF DATA POINTS
PR5029 C SPECS(13)=FLOAT(N)
PR5030 C .SL XSKIPS, YSKIPS
PR5031 C SPECS(14)=1.
PR5032 C SPECS(15)=1.
PR5033 C
PR5034 C SET FONTB, FONTH, SPACER, ROTATE, FONTNO
PR5035 C FONT 2
PR5036 C SPECS(17)=0.08
PR5037 C SPECS(18)=0.12
PR5038 C SPECS(19)=0.04
PR5039 C SPECS(20)=0.0
PR5040 C SPECS(21)=2.0
PR5041 C SET ZONES
PR5042 C SPECS(24)=0.1
PR5043 C SPECS(26)=0.1
PR5044 C ANNOTATE HORIZONTAL AXIS
PR5045 C SPECS(28)=2.0
PR5046 C SPECS(29)=2.0
PR5047 C CALL NDLIB(SPECS)
PR5048 C ANNOTATE VERTICAL AXIS
PR5049 C SPECS(28)=4.0
PR5050 C
PR5051 C SPECS(29)=5.0
PR5052 C SPECS(10)=5.0
PR5053 C CALL NDLIB(SPECS)
PR5054 C CONSTRUCT TITLE FOR X-AXIS
PR5055 C CALL TITLEB(IHITIME (MSEC),SPECS)
PR5056 C CONSTRUCT TITLE FOR Y-AXIS
PR5057 C CALL TITLEL(19HSURFACE COMPOSITION,SPECS)
PR5058 C CONSTRUCT ANNOTATION OF GRAPH TITLE
PR5059 C FONT 2 ALSO
PR5060 C SPECIFY XSTART, YSTART (IN INCHES)
PR5061 C SPECS(22)=3.0
PR5062 C SPECS(23)=3.5
PR5063 C RULE=1.0
PR5064 C CALL TITLEG(RULE,27HSURFACE COMPOSITION VS TIME,SPECS)
PR5065 C SPECS(23)=SPECS(23)-0.3
PR5066 C CALL TITLEG(RULE,18HFUR EI = JOULES,SPECS)
PR5067 C PLOT DATA POINTS WITH SOLID LINE
PR5068 C CALL PFLI(X,Y,BUF,BUF,SPECS)
PR5069 C PLOT LINES FOR TOP AND RIGHT EDGES OF PLOT AREA
PR5070 C SIDEY(1)=SPECS(4)
PR5071 C SIDEY(2)=SPECS(5)
PR5072 C SIDEY(3)=SPECS(3)
PR5073 C SIDEY(4)=SPECS(3)
PR5074 C SIDEY(5)=SPECS(6)
PR5075 C SIDEY(6)=SPECS(6)
PR5076 C SPECS(13)=3.0
PR5077 C CALL SLLI(SIDEY,SIDEY,SPECS)
PR5078 C FINISH PLOT IF IT IS THE LAST.
PR5079 C OTHERWISE, CALL NEXT FRAME
PR5080 C IF(IFRM.EQ.1) GOTO 1000
PR5081 C RETURN
PR5082 C CALL NXIFRM(SPECS)
PR5083 C
PR5084 C 1000 CALL GSEND(SPECS)
PR5085 C END

PRX001 C SUBROUTINE PLOT(X,Y,N,IFRM)
PRX002 C
PRX003 C PLOT COMPOSITION PROFILE VS SPACE
PRX004 C
PRX005 C DIMENSION SPECS(30),X(1),Y(1)
PRX006 C DIMENSION SIDEY(3),SIDEY(3)
PRX007 C DIMENSION BUF(500),BUF(500)
PRX008 C
PRX009 C SET XDIST, YDIST (IN INCHES)
PRX010 C SPECS(1)=1.5
PRX011 C SPECS(2)=1.5
PRX012 C SET XRIGHT, XLEFT, YTOP, YBOT
PRX013 C SPECS(3)=50
PRX014 C SPECS(4)=0.0
PRX015 C SPECS(5)=2.0
PRX016 C SPECS(6)=1.5
PRX017 C SET XLNGTH, YLNPTH (IN INCHES)

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PRX016 SPECS(7)=5.0
PRX017 SPECS(10)=5.0
PRX020 C SET NO. OF DIVISIONS
PRX021 SPECS(9)=10.
PRX022 SPECS(10)=10.
PRX023 C SPECIFIC TUBE
PRX024 SPECS(11)=1.0
PRX025 C SPECIFY INTERMEDIATE FILE NO.
PRX026 SPECS(12)=77
PRX027 CALL MLLI(SPECS)
PRX028 C SPECIFY NO. OF DATA POINTS
PRX029 SPECS(13)=FLOAT(N)
PRX030 C SET ASKIP5, YSKIP5
PRX031 SPECS(14)=1.
PRX032 SPECS(15)=1.
PRX033 C SET FORTB,FONTH,SPACER,ROTATE,FontD
PRX034 C FONT_2
PRX035 SPECS(17)=0.08
PRX036 SPECS(18)=0.12
PRX037 SPECS(19)=0.04
PRX038 SPECS(20)=0.0
PRX039 SPECS(21)=2.0
PRX040 C SET ZONES
PRX041 SPECS(24)=0.1
PRX042 SPECS(26)=0.1
PRX043 C ANNOTATE HORIZONTAL AXIS
PRX044 SPECS(28)=0.0
PRX045 SPECS(29)=2.0
PRX046 SPECS(9)=5.0
PRX047 CALL MDLIR(SPECS)
PRX048 C ANNOTATE VERTICAL AXIS
PRX049 SPECS(28)=4.0
PRX050 SPECS(29)=5.0
PRX051 SPECS(10)=5.0
PRX052 CALL MDLIL(SPECS)
PRX053 C CONSTRUCT TITLE FOR X-AXIS
PRX054 CALL TITLEB(LHX, (MICRONS), SPECS)
PRX055 C CONSTRUCT TITLE FOR Y-AXIS
PRX056 CALL TITLEL(LHY, (MICRONS), SPECS)
PRX057 C CONSTRUCT ANNOTATION OF GRAPH TITLE
PRX058 C FONT_2 ALSO
PRX059 C SPECIFY XSTART, YSTART (INCHES)
PRX060 SPECS(22)=3.0
PRX061 SPECS(23)=3.0
PRX062 RULE=1.0
PRX063 CALL TITLEG(RULE,19HCOMPOSITION PROFILE,SPECS)
PRX064 SPECS(23)=SPECS(23)-0.3
PRX065 CALL TITLEG(RULE,19HAT MAX SURFACE TEMP,SPECS)
PRX066 SPECS(23)=SPECS(23)-0.3
PRX067 CALL TITLEG(RULE,19HFUR EI = JOULES,SPECS)
PRX068 C PLOT DATA POINTS WITH SOLID LINE
PRX069 CALL PL-LI(X,Y,BUF,X,BUFY,SPECS)
PRX070 C PLOT LINES FOR TOP AND RIGHT EDGES OF PLOT AREA
PRX071 SIDEK(1)=SPECS(4)
PRX072 SIDEK(2)=SPECS(5)
PRX073 SIDEK(3)=SPECS(3)
PRX074 SIDEK(4)=SPECS(3)
PRX075 SIDEK(5)=SPECS(3)
PRX076 SIDEK(6)=SPECS(6)
PRX077 SPECS(13)=3.0
PRX078 CALL SLLI(SIDEK,SIDEK,SPECS)
PRX079 C FINISH PLOT IF IT IS THE LAST,
PRX080 C OTHERWISE, CALL NEXT FRAME
PRX081 IF(IFRM.EQ.1) GOTO 1000
PRX082 RETURN
PRX083 CALL MXTFRM(SPECS)
PRX084 1000 CALL GISENR(SPECS)
PRX085 RETURN
PRX086 END

SURROUTINE PROF
PRF001 C
PRF002 C THE MATERIAL PROPERTIES AND LASER CHARACTERISTICS
PRF003 C (NOT PROBLEM NOR WATER DEPEND)
PRF004 C
PRF005 C COMMON/DIFFE/EH,EHEX,EL,ELEX
PRF006 C COMMON/LASER/EI,OP,N,TFUL,AEFF
PRF007 C COMMON/MATF /TM,HSUR,HFUS,EMISS,A3RM
PRF008 C COMMON/MULM /WA(5,5)
PRF009 C DIMENSION WA(2)
PRF010 C
PRF011 C (MAX NO OF COMPONENTS = 2
PRF012 C MAX NO OF ATOMS OF EACH
PRF013 C COMPONENT IN MOLECULE = 4)
PRF014 C (FOR CONGRUENT VAPORIZATION, GIVE
PRF015 C WA(1) = WM AND WA(2) = 0)
PRF016 C
PRF017 C MATERIAL PROPERTIES
PRF018 C READ (5,100) (WA(1),I=1,2)
PRF019 C WRITE (6,200) (WA(I),I=1,2)
PRF020 C READ (5,101) TM,HSUR,HFUS,EMISS,A3RM
PRF021 C WRITE (6,201) TM,HSUR,HFUS,EMISS,A3RM
PRF022 C READ (5,102) EH,EHEX,EL,ELEX
PRF023 C IF(EH.EQ.0.) GOTO 10
PRF024 C WRITE (6,202) EH,EHEX,EL,ELEX
PRF025 C
PRF026 C LASER CHARACTERISTICS
PRF027 C 10 READ (5,110) R,TFUL,AEFF
PRF028 C WRITE (6,210) R,TFUL,AEFF
PRF029 C
PRF030 C MOLECULAR WEIGHTS
PRF031 C I0 I N=1+5
PRF032 C I0 I N=1+5
PRF033 C I0 I N=1+5
PRF034 C WM(N,M)=FLOAT(N-1)*WA(1)+FLOAT(N-1)*WA(2)
PRF035 C CONTINUE
PRF036 C 100 FORMAT(2F10.0)
PRF037 C

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FRP038 101 FORMAT(AF10.0,E10.0)
FRP039 102 FORMAT(2(F10.0,E10.0))
FRP040 110 FORMAT(F10.0,2(E10.0))
FRP041 200 FORMAT(1H0,23HTHE MATERIAL PROPERTIES/
FRP042 1 5X,23HATOMIC WEIGHT OF COMP 1 =,F9.2/
FRP043 2 5X,23HATOMIC WEIGHT OF COMP 2 =,F9.2/
FRP044 201 FORMAT(1H0,4X,3H1M=,F5.0,5X,5HHSUB=,F5.0,5X,5HMFUS=,F5.0,
FRP045 5X,4HEMISS=,F5.3,5X,14H3(ROOM TEMP)=,E10.3)
FRP046 202 FORMAT(1H0,4X,3HEX=,F7.0,5X,5HEX=,F9.2,5X,3HEX=,F7.0,
FRP047 5X,5HELEX=,F9.2)
FRP048 210 FORMAT(1H0,23HLASER CHARACTERISTICS/
FRP049 1 5X,23HRS=,F5.3,5X,5HTUL=,E10.4,4H SEC,
FRP050 2 5X,5HREFP=,E10.4,4H CM2)
FRP051 C
FRP052 RETURN
FRP053 END

IIL008 C
IIL009 READ (5,100) (M0(I),I=1,NPDE)
IIL010 WRITE (6,200)
IIL011 WRITE (6,201) (I,M0(I),I=1,NPDE)
IIL012 DO 1 K=1,NPDE
IIL013 DO 1 I=1,NSMAX
IIL014 M(I,1,K)=1.0
IIL015 M(I,2,K)=1.0
IIL016 M(I,3,K)=1.0
IIL017 CONTINUE
IIL018 WRITE (6,300)
IIL019 WRITE (6,201) (I,M(I,1),I=1,NPDE)
IIL020 C
IIL021 100 FORMAT(E10.0)
IIL022 200 FORMAT(11H,10HTHE INITIAL QUANTITY (WITH DIMENSION) OF /
IIL023 201 FORMAT(11X,22HPARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EDN NO,12,2H =,F10.4)
IIL024 300 FORMAT(1H0,40HTHE INITIAL QUANTITY (DIMENSIONLESS) OF /
IIL025 C
IIL026 RETURN
IIL027 END

CHR001 C
CHR002 SUBROUTINE CHAR(40,MCH,NPDE)
CHR003 C
CHR004 C DEFINE THE CHARACTERISTIC TERMS
CHR005 C (PROBLEM DEPEND AND MAYBE WATER DEPEND)
CHR006 C
CHR007 COMMON/CHAR/XCH,TCH
CHR008 COMMON/LASER/EI,OP,R,TFUL,AEFF
CHR009 COMMON/MATP /TM,H(4)
CHR010 DIMENSION MCH(NPDE),M0(NPDE)
CHR011 C
CHR012 THERMAL DIFFUSIVITY AT MELTING TEMPERATURE
CHR013 TDIFH=COND(TM)/(RHO(TM)*SPHT(TM))
CHR014 C
CHR015 TCH=TFUL
CHR016 XCH=SORT(TDIFH*TCH)
CHR017 DO 1 I=1,NPDE
CHR018 MCH(I)=M0(I)
CHR019 WRITE (6,100)
CHR020 WRITE (6,200) TCH,XCH,(I,MCH(I),I=1,NPDE)
CHR021 C
CHR022 100 FORMAT(1H2,34HTHE CHARACTERISTIC QUANTITIES ARE: /
CHR023 200 FORMAT(11X,29HCHARACTERISTIC TIME =,E10.4,4H SEC /
CHR024 1 11X,29HCHARACTERISTIC DISTANCE =,E10.4,4H CM /
CHR025 2 (11X,25HCHARACAR QUANTITY OF PDE NO,12,2H =,F10.4))
CHR026 RETURN
CHR027 END

MFX001 C
MFX002 SUBROUTINE MELUX(TIME,T,R,F,F1,F2,IFLAG)
MFX003 C
MFX004 CALCULATION OF THE EVAPORATED MASS FLUXES (G/CM2-SEC)
MFX005 C (PROBLEM AND MATERIAL DEPENDENT)
MFX006 C
MFX007 DIMENSION M0(NPDE)
MFX008 C
MFX009 RETURN
MFX010 END
    
```

```

IIL008 C
IIL009 READ (5,100) (M0(I),I=1,NPDE)
IIL010 WRITE (6,200)
IIL011 WRITE (6,201) (I,M0(I),I=1,NPDE)
IIL012 DO 1 K=1,NPDE
IIL013 DO 1 I=1,NSMAX
IIL014 M(I,1,K)=1.0
IIL015 M(I,2,K)=1.0
IIL016 M(I,3,K)=1.0
IIL017 CONTINUE
IIL018 WRITE (6,300)
IIL019 WRITE (6,201) (I,M(I,1),I=1,NPDE)
IIL020 C
IIL021 100 FORMAT(E10.0)
IIL022 200 FORMAT(11H,10HTHE INITIAL QUANTITY (WITH DIMENSION) OF /
IIL023 201 FORMAT(11X,22HPARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EDN NO,12,2H =,F10.4)
IIL024 300 FORMAT(1H0,40HTHE INITIAL QUANTITY (DIMENSIONLESS) OF /
IIL025 C
IIL026 RETURN
IIL027 END

CHR001 C
CHR002 SUBROUTINE CHAR(40,MCH,NPDE)
CHR003 C
CHR004 C DEFINE THE CHARACTERISTIC TERMS
CHR005 C (PROBLEM DEPEND AND MAYBE WATER DEPEND)
CHR006 C
CHR007 COMMON/CHAR/XCH,TCH
CHR008 COMMON/LASER/EI,OP,R,TFUL,AEFF
CHR009 COMMON/MATP /TM,H(4)
CHR010 DIMENSION MCH(NPDE),M0(NPDE)
CHR011 C
CHR012 THERMAL DIFFUSIVITY AT MELTING TEMPERATURE
CHR013 TDIFH=COND(TM)/(RHO(TM)*SPHT(TM))
CHR014 C
CHR015 TCH=TFUL
CHR016 XCH=SORT(TDIFH*TCH)
CHR017 DO 1 I=1,NPDE
CHR018 MCH(I)=M0(I)
CHR019 WRITE (6,100)
CHR020 WRITE (6,200) TCH,XCH,(I,MCH(I),I=1,NPDE)
CHR021 C
CHR022 100 FORMAT(1H2,34HTHE CHARACTERISTIC QUANTITIES ARE: /
CHR023 200 FORMAT(11X,29HCHARACTERISTIC TIME =,E10.4,4H SEC /
CHR024 1 11X,29HCHARACTERISTIC DISTANCE =,E10.4,4H CM /
CHR025 2 (11X,25HCHARACAR QUANTITY OF PDE NO,12,2H =,F10.4))
CHR026 RETURN
CHR027 END

MFX001 C
MFX002 SUBROUTINE MELUX(TIME,T,R,F,F1,F2,IFLAG)
MFX003 C
MFX004 CALCULATION OF THE EVAPORATED MASS FLUXES (G/CM2-SEC)
MFX005 C (PROBLEM AND MATERIAL DEPENDENT)
MFX006 C
MFX007 DIMENSION M0(NPDE)
MFX008 C
MFX009 RETURN
MFX010 END
    
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MFX005 C COMMON/MULM /MH(G,5)
MFX006 C DIMENSION P(5,5)
MFX007 C
MFX008 C
MFX009 C
MFX010 C DO 9 N=1,5
MFX011 C P(N,H)=0.
MFX012 C CALL ROOT(T,R,P(3,1),P(2,1),P(1,2),P(2,2),P(3,2),P(4,2))
MFX013 C PTOT=0.
MFX014 C SD=0.
MFX015 C S1=0.
MFX016 C S2=0.
MFX017 C DO 10 N=1,5
MFX018 C DO 10 M=1,5
MFX019 C IF(N.EQ.1.AND.M.EQ.1) GOTO 10
MFX020 C P(TOT)=P(TOT)+P(N,H)
MFX021 C S1=S1+SORT(MH(N,H))*P(N,H)
MFX022 C S2=S2+FLD(1/M-1)*P(N,H)/SORT(MH(N,H))
MFX023 C
MFX024 C 10 CONTINUE
MFX025 C C=44.2/SORT(T)*0.82
MFX026 C C 44.2 = 3.5E22*260.6+.023E23 - FLUX IN B/CM2-SEC
MFX027 C F=C*SD
MFX028 C F1=CMH(2,1)*S1
MFX029 C F2=CMH(1,2)*S2
MFX030 C IF(1FLAG.LT.1.DK.IFLAG.GT.3) RETURN
MFX031 C GOTO (1,2,3),1FLAG
MFX032 C
MFX033 C 1 CONTINUE
MFX034 C WRITE (6,100)
MFX035 C WRITE (6,101) P(4,2),P(3,2),P(2,2),P(1,2),P(3,1),P(2,1),PTOT
MFX036 C RETURN
MFX037 C
MFX038 C 2 CONTINUE
MFX039 C WRITE (6,200)
MFX040 C
MFX041 C 3 CONTINUE
MFX042 C WRITE (6,300) TIME,T,R,P(4,2),P(3,2),P(2,2),P(1,2),P(3,1),P(2,1),P(2,1),
MFX043 C PTOT,F
MFX044 C
MFX045 C 100 FORMAT(1H2,6X,66HTHE EQUILIBRIUM VAPOR PRESSURES AT MAXIMUM SURFAC
MFX046 C 1E TEMPERATURE ARE//
MFX047 C 2 10X,3HP-0,3X,7HP-TOTAL
MFX048 C 3 7X,3HP-0,3X,7HP-TOTAL)
MFX049 C 101 FORMAT(1H ,4X,7E10,3))
MFX050 C 200 FORMAT(1H ,5X,6HT(SEC),3X,5HTS(K),6X,3HD/U,5X,5HP-U02,
MFX051 C 6X,4HP-U0,7X,3HP-U,6X,4HP-U0,7X,3HP-U,
MFX052 C 3X,7HP-TOTAL,7X,4HF(LUX))
MFX053 C 300 FORMAT(1H ,E11.3,F8.0,F9.4,7E10,3),E11.3)
MFX054 C
MFX055 C RETURN
MFX056 C END

SUBROUTINE ROOT(TEMP,OU,F02,F0,FU,FU0,FU02,FU03)
C CALCULATION OF PARTIAL VAPOR PRESSURES OF URANIUM-OXYGEN
C SYSTEM BASED ON BLACKBURN'S MODEL.
C MODIFIED FROM SUBROUTINE DEVELOPED BY BLACKBURN FOR MIXED OXIDE
COMMON/CC/A1,A2,A3,A4,A5,A6,A7
Y=OU-2.0
IF(Y.LT.0.) Y=0.0
O0H=SORT(OU)
OU2=OU**2
TH=3133.0
C THERMODYNAMIC DATA
GOTO 60
IF(TEMP.GT.TH) GOTO 60
OU=EXP(.78260./TEMP-13.6)
EE=EXP(1.6350./TEMP-4.96-54.0*Y*Y)
FF=EXP(4.7000./TEMP-11.25)
GG=EXP(25100./TEMP-4.92)
CUC=EXP(-187200./TEMP+33.6)
CUOC=EXP(-128700./TEMP+27.3)
CUO2C=EXP(-72400./TEMP+20.3)
CUO3C=EXP(-28500./TEMP+10.5)
GOTO 70
60 DD=EXP(.78260./TEMP-12.066)
EE=EXP(1.6500./TEMP-1.006*Y*Y)/TEMP-4.19-54.0*Y*Y)
FF=EXP(4.7000./TEMP-10.455)
GG=EXP(25100./TEMP-4.065)
CUC=EXP(-167900./TEMP+27.3)
CUOC=EXP(-108600./TEMP+20.8)
CUO2C=EXP(-51500./TEMP+13.4)
CUO3C=EXP(-5100./TEMP+12.8)
70 DEF=DD*EE*FF
FG=FF*GG
HH=DEF*GG/OU2*(3.0/OU-1.0)
PP=DEF/OU**1.5*(3.0/OU-1.0)
RR=DD/OU*(3.0*EE/OU2+.0*FG/OU)+DD/OU*(EE-FG)
SS=FG/OU+DD*(2.0/OU)+(-DD-FG)
TT=(1.0/OUH-OUH)*FF
A1=HH
A2=PP
A3=OU
A4=RR
A5=SS
A6=TT
A7=1.0-OU
G=0.0
GTEST=6
G1=GTEST
G0 20 I=1,40

```

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U02055 U02056 U02057 U02058 U02059 U02060 U02061 U02062 U02063 U02064 U02065 U02066 U02067 U02068 U02069 U02070 U02071 U02072 U02073 U02074 U02075 U02076 U02077 U02078 U02079 U02080 U02081 U02082 U02083 U02084 U02085

U02086 U02087 U02088 U02089 U02090 U02091 U02092 U02093 U02094 U02095 U02096 U02097 U02098 U02099 U02100 U02101 U02102 U02103 U02104 U02105 U02106 U02107 U02108 U02109

DO 10 J=1,5
FN=F(G1)
FD=FF(G1)
GS=G1-FN/FD
G1=GS
IF (G1,LT,0.0) G1=10.0
10 CONTINUE
G2=G1*G1
G=G1
U2=1.0/(1.0+G2*DB/OUH62*G2*DD*EE/OU2)
U4=U2*G2*DD/OU
U6=U4*G2*EE/OU
DM=U2+2.0*U4+3.0*U6
ERELD=(OU-DM)/OU
TESTO=ABS(ERELD)
IF (TESTO,LT,1.0E-6) GOTO 50
GOTO 20
50 IF (G,LT,0.0) GOTO 40
RMCK=DM
GOTO 100
20 CONTINUE
GOTO 100
40 PRINT 2
2. FORMAT(90X,21HROOT DID NOT CONVERGE)
1.00 PD=8**4
PD=SQR(PD2)*EXP(-30103./TEMP+8.036)
PU=U4/SQR(PD2)*CUOC
PUO2=U4*CUO2C
PUO3=U4*SQR(PD2)*CUO3C
RETURN
END

FUNCTION F(X)
COMMON/CC/A1,A2,A3,A4,A5,A6,A7
F=((A1**A2)**X+A3)**X+A4)**X+A5)**X+A6)**X+A7
RETURN
END

FUNCTION FF(X)
COMMON/CC/A1,A2,A3,A4,A5,A6,A7
FF=((((G.0*A1**X15.0**A2)**X+4.0**A3)**X+3.0**A4)**X+2.0**A5)**X+A6
RETURN
END

FUNCTION RHO(TEMP)
C DENSITY OF UO2 IN G/CM3
C GIVEN BY CHASANDU(1973) AND LEIBOWITZ(1976)
DATA A,B,C,D/9.0E-6,6.0E-9,3.0E-12,10.78/
DATA T1,A1,B1/J133.,10.658,-8.3609E-4/
IF (TEMP,GE,T1) GOTO 1
RHO=D/(1.+A**B**T**C**D)**3
RETURN
1 RHO=A1+B1*TEMP
RETURN
END

U02110 U02111 U02112 U02113 U02114 U02115 U02116 U02117 U02118 U02119 U02120 U02121 U02122 U02123 U02124 U02125 U02126 U02127 U02128 U02129 U02130 U02131 U02132 U02133 U02134 U02135 U02136 U02137 U02138 U02139 U02140 U02141 U02142 U02143 U02144 U02145 U02146 U02147 U02148 U02149 U02150 U02151 U02152 U02153 U02154 U02155 U02156 U02157 U02158 U02159 U02160

FUNCTION SPHT(TEMP)
C SPECIFIC HEAT OF UO2 IN J/G-K
C GIVEN BY KERRICK AND CLIFTON (1972) - BELOW TM
C AND BY LEIBOWITZ (1971) - ABOVE TM
DATA S,ED,A1,A2,A3/535.285,1.578E5,0.2968,1.217E-5,8.750E-8/
DATA T1/J133./
T=TEMP
IF (T,GE,T1) GOTO 1
R=8.314
R=EXP(S/T)-1.
CV=A1*S**2*EXP(S/T)/T**2/R**2
SPHT=CV+2.*A2*T+A3*ED*EXP(-ED/(R*T))/(R**2)
RETURN
1 SPHT=0.503
RETURN
END

FUNCTION COND(TEMP)
C THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY OF UO2 IN W/CM-K
C GIVEN BY SCHMIDT(1971) - BELOW TM
C ASSUMED CONSTANT VALUE ABOVE TM
DATA A,B/10.80,0.0218/
DATA X,CV,D,TD/2.00E-5,299.2050./
DATA T1,T2/1200.,2860./
T=TEMP-273.
IF (T,GE,T1) GOTO 1
COND=1./(A+B*T)
RETURN
IF (T,GE,T2) GOTO 2
F=(SPHT(TEMP)-X*T-CV)/CV
Y=(1/TD)-(1/T0)*TANH((T-T0)/2.
COND=(1./(A+B*Y))*(1.+F)
RETURN
2 COND=0.037
RETURN
END

FUNCTION DIF(TEMP)
C OXYGEN DIFFUSIVITY IN UO2 IN CM2/SEC
C COEFFICIENTS READ FROM SUBROUTINE PROP
COMMON/DIFF/EH,FEH,EL,ELEX
IF (TEMP,GE,J133.) GOTO 1
FELEX*EXP(-EL/TEMP)
RETURN
1 FEH*EXP(-EH/TEMP)
RETURN
END

U02128 U02129 U02130 U02131 U02132 U02133 U02134 U02135 U02136 U02137 U02138 U02139 U02140 U02141 U02142 U02143 U02144 U02145 U02146 U02147 U02148 U02149 U02150 U02151 U02152 U02153 U02154 U02155 U02156 U02157 U02158 U02159 U02160

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## APPENDIX D: THERMODYNAMIC DATA AND MATERIAL PROPERTIES OF $\text{UO}_2$

### D.1 Density

The density of solid  $\text{UO}_2$  is given by Chasanov et al[91] as:

$$\rho = (10.98)/[1+9 \times 10^{-6}(T-273)+6 \times 10^{-9}(T-273)^2+3 \times 10^{-12}(T-273)^3]$$

for  $T < 3140$  K

(D-1)

The density of liquid  $\text{UO}_2$  is given by Leibowitz et al[92] as:

$$\rho = 10.658 - 6.3609 \times 10^{-4} T \quad \text{for } T > 3140 \text{ K}$$

where  $\rho$  is in  $\text{g/cm}^3$  and  $T$  is in K.

(D-2)

### D.2 Specific Heat

The specific heat of solid  $\text{UO}_2$  is given by Kerrisk and Clifton[93] as:

$$C_p = \frac{K_1 \theta^2 e^{\theta/T}}{T^2 (e^{\theta/T} - 1)^2} + 2K_2 T + \frac{K_3 E_D}{RT^2} e^{-E_D/RT} \quad \text{for } T < 3140 \text{ K}$$
(D-3)

where  $\theta = 535.285$  K

$$E_D = 1.578 \times 10^5 \text{ J/mole}$$

$$K_1 = 0.2968 \text{ J/g-K}$$

$$K_2 = 1.217 \times 10^{-5} \text{ J/g-K}^2$$

$$K_3 = 8.750 \times 10^{-8} \text{ J/g}$$

$$R = 8.314 \text{ J/mole-K}$$

and  $C_p$  is in J/g-K and  $T$  is in K.

The specific heat of liquid  $\text{UO}_2$  is given by Leibowitz[32] as:

$$C_p = 0.503 \text{ J/g-K} \quad \text{for } T > 3140 \text{ K}$$
(D-4)

At the melting point, the enthalpy increment exhibits a discontinuity due to the phase change. This enthalpy of the phase transition is handled by an effective heat capacity term in the vicinity of the melting temperature.[48]

The molar enthalpy of a material at temperature  $T$  can be expressed in terms of the heat of fusion and the molar heat capacity at constant pressure  $C_p$  as follows:

$$H^{\circ}(T) = \begin{cases} H_{298}^{\circ} + \int_{298}^T C_p dT' & \text{if } T < T_{mp} \\ H_{298}^{\circ} + \Delta H_f + \int_{298}^T C_p dT' & \text{if } T > T_{mp} \end{cases} \quad (D-5)$$

Define an apparent molar heat capacity  $\tilde{c}_p$ :

$$\tilde{c}_p(T) = C_p(T) + \Delta H_f \delta(T - T_{mp}) \quad (D-6)$$

so that

$$H^{\circ}(T) = H_{298}^{\circ} + \int_{298}^T \tilde{c}_p(T') dT' \quad \text{for all } T \quad (D-7)$$

Since discontinuities in material properties are not desirable in the numerical solution of the conduction equation, the heat capacity is approximated by a continuous function of temperature; instead of using a delta function to account for the heat of fusion, a Gaussian function of finite width centered at the melting point is used. Thus  $C_{pp} \equiv \Delta H_f \delta(T - T_{mp})$  is approximated by a function of Gaussian form:

$$C_{pp} = \frac{\Delta H_f}{\sqrt{\pi} \sigma_1} \exp \left[ -\left( \frac{T - T_{mp}}{\sigma_1} \right)^2 \right] \quad (D-8)$$

where  $\Delta H_f =$  heat of fusion of  $UO_2 = 274.4 \text{ J/g}$ [94]

$$T_{mp} = 3140 \text{ K}$$
[95]

$$\sigma_1 = \text{half width of the heat of fusion peak} = 50 \text{ K (arbitrary)}$$

The apparent specific heat is:

$$\tilde{C}_p(T) = C_p(T) + C_{pp}(T) \quad (D-9)$$

### D.3 Thermal Conductivity

The thermal conductivity of solid  $UO_2$  is given by Schmidt[96] as:

$$k = 1/[10.80 + 0.0218(T-273)] \quad \text{for } T < 1473 \text{ K} \quad (D-10)$$

$$k = (1+F)/(10.80 + 0.0218 \theta) \quad \text{for } 1473 \text{ K} < T < 3140 \text{ K} \quad (D-11)$$

$$\theta = [T + 1777 - (T - 273) \tanh(T - 2323)]/2$$

$$F = [C_p - 2 \times 10^{-5}(T - 273) - 0.299]/0.299$$



where  $k$  is in W/cm-K,  $T$  is in K, and  $C_p$  is in J/g-K. The thermal conductivity of liquid  $UO_2$  is assumed constant value (at melting temperature) of 0.037 W/cm-K with  $\pm 20\%$  standard deviation.

#### D.4 Vapor Pressure

A computer subroutine following Blackburn's model [82], "ROOT", is used to calculate the partial pressure of each vapor species as a function of both composition and temperature.

#### D.5 Heat of Vaporization

The heat of vaporization is assumed constant below the melting temperature:

$$\Delta H_{\text{vap}} = 2234 \text{ J/g} \quad \text{for } T < 3140 \text{ K} \quad (\text{D-12})$$

given by Bogensberger et al [98] in which the averaged vapor pressure curve of Ohse [7] and Tetenbaum and Hunt [5] was fitted to the Claysius-Clapeyton equation.

Given the heat of fusion, 274.4 J/g, from Leibowitz, et al. [99], the heat of vaporization above the melting point is:

$$\Delta H_{\text{vap}} = 2234 - 274.4 = 1959.6 \text{ J/g} \quad \text{for } T > 3140 \text{ K} \quad (\text{D-13})$$

#### D.6 Diffusion Coefficient of Oxygen

For  $T < 3140 \text{ K}$ , the diffusion coefficient of oxygen in solid  $UO_2$  is given by Belle [100] as:

$$D_o = 1.15 \exp(-28550/T) \quad \text{for } T < 3140 \text{ K} \quad (\text{D-14})$$

Since the diffusion coefficient of oxygen in molten  $UO_{2-x}$  is not available, estimates of upper and lower limits are made in this calculation. An upper estimate can be arrived at with the aid of kinetic gas theory [81]. In an ideal gas the diffusion coefficient is  $D = \frac{1}{3} \bar{l} \bar{v}$ , where  $\bar{l}$  is the mean free path and  $\bar{v}$  is the mean velocity of the gas molecules. If the interionic distance in the oxide melt ( $\sim 10 \text{ \AA}$ ) is introduced for  $\bar{l}$ , then  $D_o = 7.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$  at 3140 K and  $1.1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$  at 7560 K (the critical temperature estimated by Ohse [79]). In this case,  $D_o$  is approximately

$$(D_o)_{\text{max}} = 1.6 \times 10^{-2} \exp(-2500/T) \quad \text{for } T > 3140 \text{ K} \quad (\text{D-15})$$

where  $(D_o)_{\max}$  is in  $\text{cm}^2/\text{sec}$  and  $T$  is in K. This sets up an upper limit of diffusion coefficient at the temperature of interest, since the ions in the oxide melt cannot move unimpeded between collisions in the same way as gas molecules. Instead, molecules in the liquid migrate from one potential site to an adjacent one, remaining in each site for a certain time. A lower estimate is based upon the fact that the diffusion coefficient in the liquid oxide is higher than that in the solid.

$$(D_o)_{\min} = 3.0 \times 10^{-1} \exp(-25000/T) \text{ for } T > 3140 \text{ K} \quad (\text{D-16})$$

This equation was obtained by taking  $D_o = 1.1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$  from Belle[100] at 3140 K and  $1.1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$  at 7560 K.

### D.7 Optical Emissivity

The spectral emissivity at  $\lambda = 6500 \text{ \AA}$  is given by Held and Wilder[101] as:

$$\epsilon_{\lambda=6500\text{\AA}} = 0.83 \quad (\text{D-17})$$

which is found insensitive to the temperature over a wide temperature range (450 - 2400 K). It is proposed[92] that  $\epsilon_{\lambda=6500\text{\AA}}$  be constant up to the melting point.

Above the melting point  $\epsilon_{\lambda=6500\text{\AA}}$  is measured by Bober[53] as:

$$\epsilon_{\lambda=6500\text{\AA}} = 0.81 \text{ to } 0.87 \text{ for } 3140 \text{ K} < T < 3700 \text{ K} \quad (\text{D-18})$$

No data is available on the total hemispherical emissivity of  $\text{UO}_2$ , so an average value of 0.83 at all temperatures is adopted.

## APPENDIX E: CALCULATION OF THE TRANSITION FROM FREE MOLECULE TO COLLISIONAL FLOW IN THE VAPOR PLUME

### E.1 Introduction

In previous investigations, the free molecular flow model has been assumed in the interpretation of the mass spectrometer measurement to obtain the rate of vaporization, and ultimately the saturation vapor pressure[48]. In this model, it is assumed that the gas molecules ejected from the vaporizing surface will not undergo any collision or the collision probability is so low that the molecules are simply freely expanding into the vacuum and the molecular density decreases as the inverse of the square of the distance. It has been pointed out[102], however, that at high temperatures the vapor near the surface is so dense that the blowoff is dominated by collisional interactions of the vapor molecules. It is then experimentally verified that molecular flow breaks down at pressures exceeding  $10^{-4}$  atm[11]. It is attempted in this appendix to provide a simple method of estimating the transition from free molecular flow to collision-dominated flow.

### E.2 Model

The calculation is based on the test particle method. Basically, a test particle is chosen and the escape probability defined as the probability that the test particle does not undergo collision along the path to the ionizer of the mass spectrometer some distance away from the vaporizing source.

The assumptions of the model are:

- (i) The heated area is a circular spot of radius  $R$  over which the temperature is uniform. The vaporizing molecules (both the "test" molecule and the "background" molecules in the plume) are from the same source and possess the temperature of the surface at the time they were evaporated.

- (ii) All molecules emitted at time  $t$  are of the same speed equal to the mean speed of the Maxwellian velocity distribution characteristic of the evaporation temperature at time  $t$ .
- (iii) The vaporizing molecules have a cosine angular distribution with respect to the surface normal.

Three cases in increasing order of complexity are considered:

- (A) *Steady state evaporation source with the mean free path calculated by the hard sphere model*

Let

$$\lambda(z) = [\sqrt{2}\pi\sigma^2n(z)]^{-1} \quad (\text{E-1})$$

be the mean free path at distance  $z$  from the surface along the centerline,  $\sigma$  the collision diameter (i.e.  $\pi\sigma^2$  is the collision cross section), and  $n$  the molecular density of the vapor plume at distance  $z$ .

The molecular density from a cosine disk source of radius  $R$  with temperature  $T_0$  and equilibrium vapor pressure  $P^0(T_0)$  along the centerline is

$$n(z) = \frac{P^0(T_0)}{2kT_0} \left( 1 - \frac{z}{\sqrt{R^2+z^2}} \right) \quad (\text{E-2})$$

where an evaporation coefficient of unity is assumed.

The escape probability is

$$\begin{aligned} P_e &= \exp\left[-\int_0^L \frac{dz}{\lambda(z)}\right] \\ &= \exp\left\{-\frac{\sqrt{2}\pi\sigma^2P^0(T_0)}{2kT_0} (L+R-\sqrt{L^2+R^2})\right\} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{E-3})$$

When  $L \gg R$

$$P_e \approx \exp\left\{-\frac{\sqrt{2}\pi\sigma^2P^0(T_0)}{2kT_0} R\left(1-\frac{R}{2L}\right)\right\} \quad (\text{E-4})$$

- (B) *Unsteady state source with the mean free path given by the hard sphere model*

This case better simulates laser pulse vaporization than case (A); the surface temperature  $T_s(t)$  is a known function of time, but is constant at any time over the surface area. The escape probability  $P_e(t)$  of the test particle coming from the surface at  $t$  is

$$P_e(t) = \exp\left[-\int_0^L \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2} n(z,t') dz\right] \quad (\text{E-5})$$

where  $n(z,t')$  is the molecular density of the plume at distance  $z$  along the centerline at time  $t'$  when the test particle (having been evaporated at time  $t$ ) arrives at  $z$ ; in other words,  $t$  and  $t'$  are related by:

$$t' = t + \frac{z}{v_{tp}} = t + \frac{z}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}} \quad (\text{E-6})$$

where  $v_{tp}$  is the velocity of the test particle, taken as the root mean square velocity in equilibrium with  $T_s$ , so that  $\beta$  is equal to  $(\frac{8k}{\pi m})^{1/2}$ .

To calculate  $n(z,t')$ , consider a molecule contributing to  $n(z,t')$  coming from radius  $r'$  on the surface; this molecule was evaporated at time  $\tau$ , which is related to  $r'$  and  $t'$  by

$$t' - \tau = \frac{\sqrt{r'^2 + z^2}}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(\tau)}} \quad (\text{E-7})$$

The number of molecules leaving a surface ring element  $dA' = 2\pi r' dr'$  at radius  $r'$  per unit time at time  $\tau$  and contributing to a unit area at  $z$  is

$$\Phi(r',z,\tau)dA' = \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau)]}{kT_s(\tau)} \beta\sqrt{T_s(\tau)} \frac{z2\pi r' dr'}{(z^2+r'^2)^{1/2}} \frac{1}{4\pi(z^2+r'^2)} \quad (\text{E-8})$$

So the contribution of the surface ring element  $dA'$  to the molecular density  $n(z,t')$  is

$$dn = \sum_i \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{2kT_s(\tau_i)} \frac{zr' dr'}{(z^2+r'^2)^{3/2}} \quad (\text{E-9})$$

where  $\tau_i$ 's are the roots of Eq. (E-7). In solving the roots  $\tau_i$ 's, note that  $t'$  in Eq. (E-7) is related to  $t$  and  $z$  through Eq. (E-6).

Integrating  $dn$  over the heated surface yields:

$$n(z,t') = \int_0^R \sum_i \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{2kT_s(\tau_i)} \frac{zr' dr'}{(z^2+r'^2)^{3/2}} \quad (\text{E-10})$$

Therefore, the escape probability from Eq. (E-5) is:

$$P_e(t) = \exp\left\{-\int_0^L \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2} \int_0^R \sum_i \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{2kT_s(\tau_i)} \frac{zr' dr'}{(z^2+r'^2)^{3/2}} dz\right\} \quad (\text{E-11})$$

Define dimensionless variables:

$$\eta = \frac{z}{L}; \quad \xi = \frac{r'}{R} \quad (\text{E-12})$$

Then Eq. (E-11) becomes:

$$P_e(t) = \exp\left\{-C_b \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sum_i \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{T_s(\tau_i)} \frac{\eta\xi}{\left(\eta^2 + \frac{R^2}{L^2} \xi^2\right)^{3/2}} d\xi d\eta\right\} \quad (\text{E-13})$$

where the coefficient  $C_b$  is equal to  $\frac{\sqrt{2}\pi\sigma^2 R^2}{2kL}$ . Eq. (E-13) can be solved numerically.

Note that in the evaluation of the integrand, when  $\eta$  and  $\xi$  are given,  $T_s$  can be evaluated at time  $\tau_i$  for a given  $t$  where the former can be solved iteratively from the equation:

$$t + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}} = \tau_i + \frac{\sqrt{\eta^2 L^2 + \xi^2 R^2}}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(\tau_i)}} \quad (\text{E-14})$$

In solving Eq. (E-13), it is found profitable to transform the variable from  $\xi$  to  $\tau$ . These two are related by Eq. (E-14). Rearranging Eq. (E-14), we have:

$$\sqrt{\xi^2 R^2 + \eta^2 L^2} = \beta\sqrt{T_s(\tau)} \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}} \right] \quad (\text{E-15})$$

or,

$$\xi^2 = -\eta^2 \frac{L^2}{R^2} + \frac{\beta^2 T_s(\tau)}{R^2} \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}} \right] \quad (\text{E-16})$$

Taking the derivative with respect to  $\tau$ :

$$\frac{d\xi^2}{d\tau} = \frac{\beta^2}{R^2} \frac{dT_s(\tau)}{d\tau} \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}} \right]^2 - \frac{\beta^2 T_s(\tau)}{R^2} 2 \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}} \right] \quad (\text{E-17})$$

or,

$$d\xi^2 = \frac{\beta^2}{R^2} \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}} \right] \left\{ \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}} \right] \frac{dT_s(\tau)}{d\tau} - 2T_s(\tau) \right\} d\tau \quad (\text{E-18})$$

Since  $d\xi^2 = 2\xi d\xi$ , the integral in Eq. (E-13) becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_i \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{T_s(\tau_i)} \frac{\eta\xi}{\left(\eta^2 + \frac{R^2}{L^2} \xi^2\right)^{3/2}} d\xi d\eta \\ &= \sum_i \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{2} \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{T_s(\tau_i)} \frac{\eta}{\left(\eta^2 + \frac{R^2}{L^2} \xi^2\right)^{3/2}} d\xi^2 d\eta \end{aligned}$$

$$= \sum_i \int_0^{a_i} \int_{b_i} \frac{N(\eta, \tau)}{[D(\eta, \tau)]^{3/2}} d\tau d\eta \quad (\text{E-19})$$

where

$$D(\eta, \tau) = \frac{\beta^2 T_s(\tau)}{L^2} \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta \sqrt{T_s(\tau)}} \right]^2$$

$$N(\eta, \tau) = \frac{\eta}{2} \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau)]}{T_s(\tau)} \frac{\beta^2}{R^2} \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta \sqrt{T_s(\tau)}} \right] \left\{ 2T_s(\tau) - \frac{dT_s(\tau)}{d\tau} \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta \sqrt{T_s(\tau)}} \right] \right\}$$

and  $a_i, b_i$  are function of  $\eta$  and are the roots of Eq. (E-14) when  $\xi=1$  and  $\xi=0$  respectively.

Furthermore, the integrand can be reduced to:

$$\frac{N(\eta, \tau)}{[D(\eta, \tau)]^{3/2}} = \frac{L^3}{\beta R^2} \frac{\frac{2T_s(\tau)}{t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta \sqrt{T_s(\tau)}}} - \frac{dT_s(\tau)}{d\tau}}{T_s(\tau)^{3/2} \left[ t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta \sqrt{T_s(\tau)}} \right]} \quad (\text{E-20})$$

Therefore, the escape probability of test particle evaporated at time  $t$  will be:

$$P_e(t) = \exp\{-C_B \sum_i \int_{a_i}^{b_i} \frac{\eta}{2} \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau)]}{T_s(\tau)^{5/2}} \frac{\frac{2T_s(\tau)}{t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta \sqrt{T_s(\tau)}}} - \frac{dT_s(\tau)}{d\tau}}{t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta \sqrt{T_s(\tau)}}} d\tau d\eta\} \quad (\text{E-21})$$

$$\text{where } C_B = \frac{\sqrt{2}\pi\sigma^2 L^2}{2k\beta}$$

Note that, after replacing surface temperature  $T_s(\tau)$  with a constant temperature  $T_0$ , Eq. (E-21) reduces to Eq. (E-3), showing the consistency of the model. The numerical calculation was also checked with constant temperature and compared with the analytical result in case (A).

(C) *Corrections of the mean free path formula by the relative speed of collision:*

The mean free path in Eq. (E-1) assumes that the molecules in collision are randomly moving in all directions; however, in the problem considered here, this is not the case. Consider a "probe" molecule A moving through a gas of stationary molecules B of density  $n$ . In one second, the A molecule moves a total path length of  $v_A$  and in so doing, it will

collide with any B molecule in the volume  $\pi\sigma^2v_A$ . So the collisions of probe molecule A per second is  $\pi\sigma^2v_An$ . Now if B molecules are moving with a vector velocity  $\vec{v}_B$ , the above derivation of collision frequency with stationary B molecules will be recovered if the relative velocity  $g=|\vec{v}_A-\vec{v}_B|$  is used instead of  $v_A$ ; that is, the number of collisions per second of probe molecule of velocity  $\vec{v}_A$  with B molecules of velocity  $\vec{v}_B$  is  $\pi\sigma^2gn$ , where  $g=[v_A^2+v_B^2-2v_Av_B\cos\theta]^{1/2}$  is the relative speed. Since the distance moved by the A molecule per second is  $v_A$ , the collisions of molecule A with B molecules per unit path length of A molecule is  $\pi\sigma^2gn/v_A$  and so the mean free path of a test molecule moving in z direction in our problem will be

$$\lambda(z) = \left[ \left( \frac{g}{v_{ip}} \right) \pi\sigma^2 n(z) \right]^{-1} \quad (\text{E-22})$$

Here it is still assumed that all the background molecules in  $n(z)$  are moving in the same direction with the same velocity so that they have the same relative velocity  $g$  with the test particle.

To account for the fact that the molecules in  $n(z)$  are in fact not moving with same velocity, let us start over again from  $dn$  in Eq. (E-9), which gives the contribution of molecules from a surface ring element  $dA'$  of radius  $r'$  evaporated at the same time  $\tau_i$ . The relative velocity of these molecules with respect to the test particle is:

$$g^2 = v_{ip}^2 + v^2 - 2v_{ip}v\cos\theta \quad (\text{E-23})$$

$$\text{where } \cos\theta = \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^2+r'^2}}; \quad v_{ip} = \beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}; \quad v = \beta\sqrt{T_s(\tau)} \quad (\text{E-24})$$

Applying Eqs. (E-9) and (E-16) to the mean free path Eq. (E-15) yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\lambda(z)} &= \int \left( \frac{g}{v_{ip}} \right) \pi\sigma^2 dn \\ &= \pi\sigma^2 \int_0^R \sum_i \left[ 1 + \frac{v^2}{v_{ip}^2} - 2 \frac{v}{v_{ip}} \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^2+r'^2}} \right]^{1/2} \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{2kT_s(\tau_i)} \frac{zr'dr'}{(z^2+r'^2)^{3/2}} \\ &= \frac{\pi\sigma^2}{2k} \int_0^R \sum_i \left[ 1 + \frac{T_s(\tau_i)}{T_s(t)} - 2 \sqrt{\frac{T_s(\tau_i)}{T_s(t)}} \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^2+r'^2}} \right]^{1/2} \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{T_s(\tau_i)} \frac{zr'dr'}{(z^2+r'^2)^{3/2}} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{E-25})$$

Therefore, the escape probability

$$P_e(t) = \exp\left[-\int_0^l \frac{dz}{\lambda(z)}\right]$$



$$= \exp\left\{-\frac{\pi\sigma^2}{2k} \int_0^L \int_0^R \sum_i \left[1 + \frac{T_s(\tau_i)}{T_s(t)} - 2\sqrt{\frac{T_s(\tau_i)}{T_s(t)}} \frac{z}{\sqrt{z^2+r'^2}}\right]^{1/2} \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{T_s(\tau_i)} \frac{zr'}{(z^2+r'^2)^{3/2}} dr' dz\right\} \quad (\text{E-26})$$

Substituting with dimensionless variables in Eq. (E-12), we have:

$$P_e(t) = \exp\left\{-C_c \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sum_i \left[1 + \frac{T_s(\tau_i)}{T_s(t)} - 2\sqrt{\frac{T_s(\tau_i)}{T_s(t)}} \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\eta^2 + \frac{R^2}{L^2} \xi^2}}\right]^{1/2} \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau_i)]}{T_s(\tau_i)} \frac{\xi\eta}{(\eta^2 + \frac{R^2}{L^2} \xi^2)^{3/2}} d\xi d\eta\right\} \quad (\text{E-27})$$

where the coefficient  $C_c$  is equal to  $\frac{\pi\sigma^2 R^2}{2kL}$ .

Having made the same variable transformation as in case B, the escape probability of the test particle evaporated at time  $t$  considering relative velocity will be:

$$P_e(t) = \exp\left\{-C_c \sum_i \int_{a_i}^{b_i} \left[1 + \frac{T_s(\tau)}{T_s(t)} - 2\sqrt{\frac{T_s(\tau)}{T_s(t)}} \frac{\eta}{\frac{\beta\sqrt{T_s(\tau)}}{L} \left[t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}}\right]}\right]^{1/2} \frac{\eta}{2} \frac{P^0[T_s(\tau)]}{T_s(\tau)^{5/2}} \frac{\frac{2T_s(\tau)}{t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}}} - \frac{dT_s(\tau)}{d\tau}}{t - \tau + \frac{\eta L}{\beta\sqrt{T_s(t)}}} d\tau d\eta\right\} \quad (\text{E-28})$$

where  $C_c = \frac{\pi\sigma^2 L^2}{2k\beta}$ , and  $a_i, b_i$  are given in Eq. (E-19).

### E.3 Results

Assuming the surface temperature transients are generated by a triangular surface heat flux with the form:

$$\begin{aligned} q_s(t) &= \frac{q_p t}{\tau_1} && \text{for } 0 < t < \tau_1 \\ &= \left(\frac{\tau_2 - t}{\tau_2 - \tau_1}\right) q_p && \text{for } \tau_1 < t < \tau_2 \\ &= 0 && \text{for } t > \tau_2 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{E-29})$$

where  $q_p$  = absorbed power density at the peak of the triangular pulse

$\tau_1$  = time corresponding to the peak of the pulse

$\tau_2$  = time of the end of the triangular pulse

and assuming that there is no ablation, radiation heat loss, and the thermal properties are not temperature dependent, the heat conduction problem can be solved analytically to give the surface temperature transient as:

$$T_s(t) - T_0 = \frac{4q_p}{3k} \left(\frac{K}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} \left[ \frac{t^{3/2}}{\tau_1} - \frac{\tau_2}{\tau_1} \frac{(t-\tau_1)^{3/2}}{(\tau_2-\tau_1)} H(t-\tau_1) + \frac{(t-\tau_2)^{3/2}}{\tau_2-\tau_1} H(t-\tau_2) \right] \quad (\text{E-30})$$

where  $k$  is the thermal conductivity,  $K$  is the thermal diffusivity,  $T_0$  is the initial temperature and

$$H(t-\tau_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } t > \tau_i \\ 0 & \text{for } t < \tau_i \end{cases} \quad (\text{E-31})$$

Numerical analyses were performed for the following parameters:

$$\sigma = 3.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}$$

$$\alpha = 1$$

$$R = 0.40 \text{ cm}$$

$$L = 40 \text{ cm } (\approx \infty)$$

$$\kappa = 0.113 \text{ W/cm-K}$$

$$K = 2.6 \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$$

$$\tau_1 = 0.07 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}$$

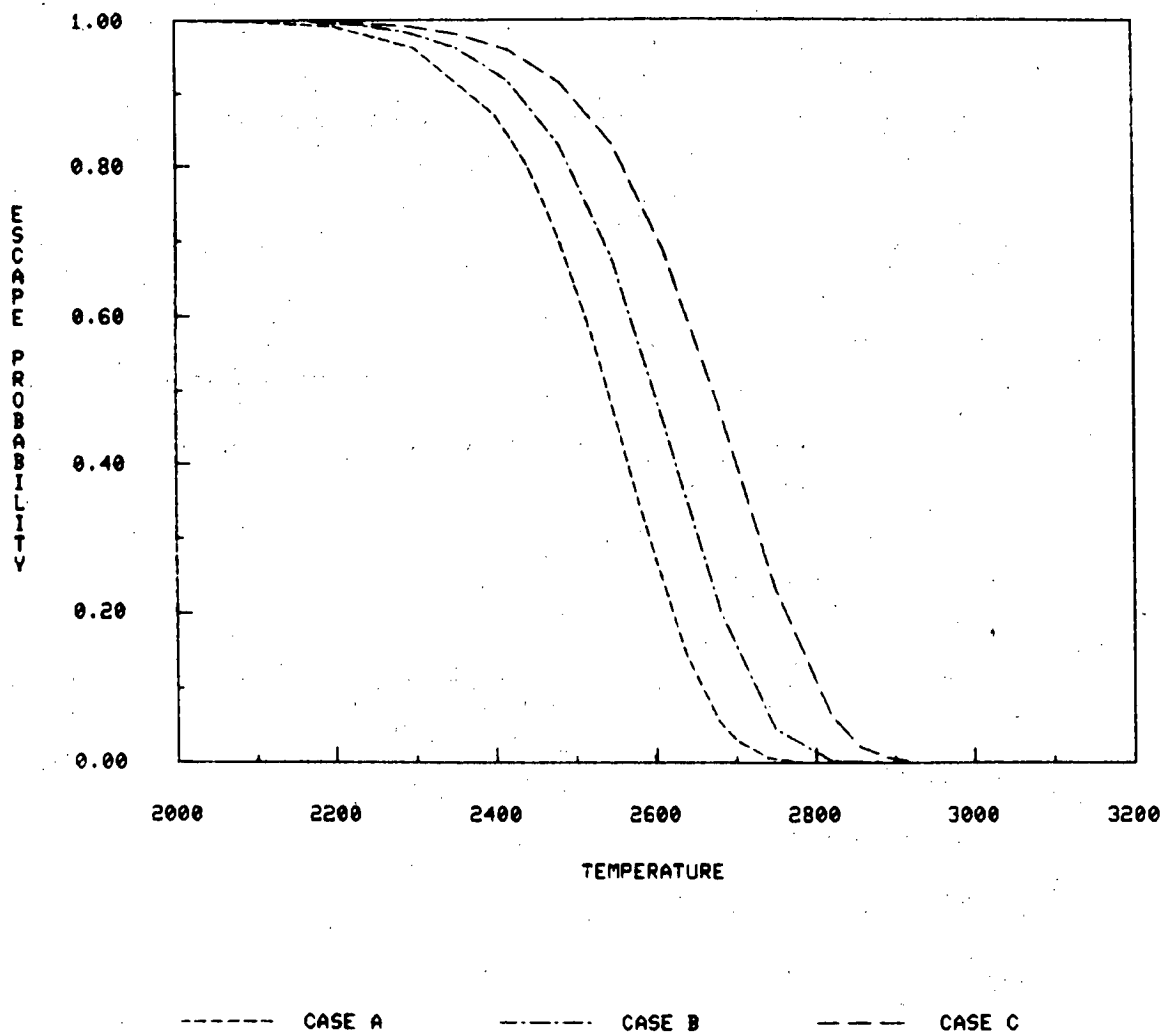
$$\tau_2 = 0.192 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}$$

$$q_p = 5 \times 10^4 \text{ to } 2 \times 10^5 \text{ W/cm}^2$$

(corresponding to the peak power densities, the maximum surface temperature are 1980 to 3720 K).

Fig. E.1 shows the escape probability of each case in Sect. E.2 as a function of temperature (in cases B and C,  $P_e$  refers to the maximum temperature). The result shows that transition to collisional flow starts at about 2100 K and becomes collision-dominating from 2800 K in case A, 2900 K in case B and 3000 K in case C. The edge shifts to higher temperature as some of the simplifying assumptions are relaxed.

## TRANSITION TO COLLISIONAL FLOW



XBL 8110-12288

Fig. E.1 The escape probability of a test particle from a vaporizing surface to the mass spectrometer

## APPENDIX F: MACH DISC FORMULA FOR THE FREE-JET FROM A SONIC ORIFICE

The Mach disc formula given by Eq. (4-2) has been derived semi-empirically for the type of shock structure shown in Fig. 4.10 using two different approaches:[104]

(I) *Pressure Matching at the normal shock front:*

Let us start with the conservation equations before and after the shock:

$$\rho_1 u_1 = \rho_2 u_2 \quad (\text{F-1})$$

$$p_1 + \rho_1 u_1^2 = p_2 + \rho_2 u_2^2 \quad (\text{F-2})$$

$$\frac{1}{2} u_1^2 + \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} \frac{p_1}{\rho_1} = \frac{1}{2} u_2^2 + \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} \frac{p_2}{\rho_2} \quad (\text{F-3})$$

where  $\rho$ ,  $u$  and  $p$  are the density, velocity and pressure respectively, subscripts 1 and 2 represent the quantities before and after the normal shock, and  $\gamma$  is the specific heat ratio (or adiabatic exponent).\*

Defining the Mach numbers as:

$$M = \text{the Mach number before the shock} = \frac{u_1}{c_1} = \frac{u_1}{\sqrt{\gamma p_1 / \rho_1}} \quad (\text{F-4})$$

$$M_2 = \text{the Mach number after the shock} = \frac{u_2}{c_2} = \frac{u_2}{\sqrt{\gamma p_2 / \rho_2}} \quad (\text{F-5})$$

where  $c_i = \sqrt{\gamma p_i / \rho_i}$  is the sonic velocity.

Then Eqs. (F-1) to (F-3) become:

$$M \sqrt{\rho_1 p_1} = M_2 \sqrt{\rho_2 p_2} \quad (\text{F-6})$$

$$p_1 (1 + \gamma M^2) = p_2 (1 + \gamma M_2^2) \quad (\text{F-7})$$

$$\frac{p_1}{\rho_1} \left( \frac{1}{2} M^2 + \frac{1}{\gamma-1} \right) = \frac{p_2}{\rho_2} \left( \frac{1}{2} M_2^2 + \frac{1}{\gamma-1} \right) \quad (\text{F-8})$$

From Eq. (F-7), we obtain the ratio of the pressure before and after the shock in terms of Mach numbers:

$$\frac{p_1}{p_2} = \frac{1 + \gamma M_2^2}{1 + \gamma M^2} \quad (\text{F-9})$$

\*Without considering the energy mode relaxation in the free-jet expansion,  $\gamma$  is assumed constant for the entire process.

The ratio of the densities is determined from (F-6) as:

$$\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2} = \frac{M_2^2 p_2}{M^2 p_1} = \frac{M_2^2}{M^2} \frac{1 + \gamma M^2}{1 + \gamma M_2^2} \quad (\text{F-10})$$

After applying Eqs. (F-9) and (F-10) into Eq. (F-8), it can be shown that the Mach number after the shock can be related to the Mach number before the shock by the following relation:

$$M_2^2 = \frac{1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} M^2}{\gamma M^2 - \frac{\gamma-1}{2}} \quad (\text{F-11})$$

In most free-jet applications the Mach number  $M$  is usually much greater than unity at the normal shock, so Eq. (F-11) can be approximated by

$$M_2^2 \approx \frac{\frac{\gamma-1}{2} M^2}{\gamma M^2} = \frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma} \quad (\text{F-12}^*)$$

The impact pressure  $p_i$  behind the shock is the sum of the static pressure and the dynamic pressure:

$$p_i = p_2 + \frac{1}{2} \rho_2 u_2^2 = p_2 \left( 1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} M_2^2 \right) \quad (\text{F-13})$$

From Eq. (F-12),  $p_i$  can be approximated by

$$p_i \approx p_2 \left( 1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} \frac{\gamma-1}{2\gamma} \right) = \frac{\gamma+3}{4} p_2 \quad (\text{F-14})$$

The pressure match downstream of the normal shock requires:

$$p_2 = p_\infty \quad (\text{F-15})$$

where  $p_\infty$  is the background pressure far down-stream.

Therefore the impact pressure is related to the background pressure by:

$$p_i \approx \frac{\gamma+3}{4} p_\infty \quad (\text{F-16})$$

The method-of-characteristics calculation [105], which was experimentally confirmed by Ashkenas and Sherman [106], yields for large  $x/D$ ,

\*Note that since the specific heat ratio  $\gamma$  is always greater than 1,  $M_2^2$  is always a positive number less than 1, which means that the velocity change across a normal shock must be from supersonic to subsonic.

$$\frac{p_{ib}}{p_o} \approx \left(\frac{\gamma-1}{2}\right)^{-\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) A^{-\frac{2}{\gamma-1}} \left(\frac{x}{d}\right)^{-2} \quad (\text{F-17})$$

where  $p_{ib}$  is the impact pressure before shock,  $p_o$  is the reservoir pressure,  $x$  is the distance between the sonic orifice and the normal shock boundary,  $d$  is the orifice diameter and  $A$  is a fitted constant depending on  $\gamma$ .

To relate the impact pressure after the shock  $p_i$  and that after the shock  $p_{ib}$ , use is made of:

$$p_i = p_2 + \frac{1}{2} \rho_2 u_2^2 = p_2 \left(1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} M_2^2\right) \quad (\text{F-18})$$

$$p_{ib} = p_1 + \frac{1}{2} \rho_1 u_1^2 = p_1 \left(1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} M^2\right) \quad (\text{F-19})$$

So, the ratio of  $p_{ib}$  to  $p_i$  is

$$\frac{p_i}{p_{ib}} = \frac{p_2}{p_1} \frac{1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} M_2^2}{1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} M^2} = \frac{1 + \gamma M^2}{1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} M^2} \frac{1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} M_2^2}{1 + \gamma M_2^2} \quad (\text{F-20})$$

For large  $M \gg 1$  and from Eq. (F-12):

$$\frac{p_i}{p_{ib}} \approx 2 \frac{1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{4}}{1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2}} = \frac{\gamma+3}{\gamma+1} \quad (\text{F-21})$$

Combining with Eq. (F-17), we obtain:

$$\frac{p_i}{p_o} \approx \left(\frac{\gamma-1}{2}\right)^{-\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left(\frac{\gamma}{2}\right) \left(\frac{\gamma+3}{\gamma+1}\right) A^{-\frac{2}{\gamma-1}} \left(\frac{x}{d}\right)^{-2} \quad (\text{F-22})$$

Combining Eqs. (F-16) and (F-22) yields:

$$\frac{p_o}{p_\infty} = \left(\frac{\gamma-1}{2}\right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left(\frac{\gamma+1}{2\gamma}\right) A^{\frac{2}{\gamma-1}} \left(\frac{x}{d}\right)^2 \quad (\text{F-23})$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{x}{d} = C(\gamma) \left(\frac{p_o}{p_\infty}\right)^{1/2} \quad (\text{F-24})$$

where  $C(\gamma) = 0.75$  for  $\gamma=5/3$

$= 0.71$  for  $\gamma=7/5$

$= 0.68$  for  $\gamma=9/7$

Eq. (F-24) is equivalent to Eq. (4-2), except that the proportional constant  $C$  is a weak function of  $\gamma$  here.

(II) *Entropy Balancing.*

From first law of thermodynamics it is easy to show that

$$\frac{dS}{R} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} \frac{dT}{T} - \frac{dp}{p} \quad (\text{F-25})$$

where  $p$ ,  $T$ ,  $S$  represent the static pressure, static temperature and molar entropy respectively,  $R$  is the gas constant and  $\gamma$  is the specific heat ratio. Then, in general, the molar entropy change between an initial state  $i$  and a final state  $f$  can be expressed as

$$\frac{\Delta S_{i,f}}{R} = \ln \left[ \left( \frac{p_i}{p_f} \right) \left( \frac{T_f}{T_i} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \right] \quad (\text{F-26})$$

The free-jet expansion is divided into three flow regions:

- (a) the jet core zone from the source to the upstream side of the Mach disc, in which the entropy production is denoted  $\Delta S_{0,1}$ ,
- (b) the normal shock jump across the upstream and downstream sides of the Mach disc, in which the entropy production is denoted  $\Delta S_{1,2}$ , and
- (c) the mixing zone behind the Mach disc where the jet molecules are mixed with the background molecules, in which the entropy production is denoted  $\Delta S_{2,\infty}$ .

In region a, the entropy production inside the jet core depends on whether the flow is continuum or free molecular. In the former case, it is found that the flow can be approximated by an isentropic process, in which  $\Delta S_{0,1} = 0$ . On the other hand, if the background density is sufficiently low so that the jet core becomes partially rarefied at large distances, i.e. the flow becomes free molecular, then the entropy production due to "free" expansion (no collision) becomes significant. Apply the freezing model to this case and divide this jet core into two parts: (i) a continuum region (in which the entropy change is zero) from the jet source to the freezing plane where the flow becomes rarefied; (ii) a rarefied region from the freezing plane to the Mach disc, in which the static temperature and the hydrodynamic speed freeze and so the Mach number remains approximately constant ( $M_f$ ), while the density continues to decrease as

the inverse square of distance. To calculate the entropy production due to this "free expansion", set  $dT = 0$  and  $dp/p = dn/n$ , then we have from Eq. (F-26):

$$\frac{\Delta S_{f,M}}{R} = -\ln \frac{n_M}{n_f} \quad (\text{F-27})$$

where  $f$  and  $M$  represent the freezing plane and the Mach disc, respectively.

Since the density is inversely proportional to the square of the distance, we have

$$\frac{\Delta S_{f,M}}{R} = \ln \left( \frac{x}{x_f} \right)^2 \quad (\text{F-28})$$

where  $x$  and  $x_f$  are the location of Mach disc and freezing plane, respectively.

In region b, the entropy production across the normal shock results from the viscous heating effect and heat transfer resulting from the temperature gradient across the shock boundary. It can be shown, from a jump condition calculation, that

$$\frac{\Delta S_{M,2}}{R} = \ln \left\{ \left[ 1 + \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma+1} (M^2 - 1) \right]^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \left[ \frac{(\gamma+1)M^2}{(\gamma-1)M^2 + 2} \right]^{-\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \right\} \quad (\text{F-29})$$

where  $M$  is the Mach number at the upstream side of the Mach disc.

For large Mach numbers, Eq. (F-29) can be written as:

$$\frac{\Delta S_{M,2}}{R} \approx \ln \left\{ \left( \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \right)^{-\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left( \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma+1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} M^{\frac{2}{\gamma-1}} \right\} \quad (\text{F-30})$$

To express the Mach number  $M$ , we have to consider the two different cases mentioned in region a. In the case of a continuum flow up to the Mach disc, the Mach number  $M$  at the Mach disc along the centerline was found empirically [105], for large  $x$ ,

$$M \approx A(\gamma) \left( \frac{x}{d} \right)^{\gamma-1} \quad (\text{F-31})$$

where  $x$  is the location of Mach disc,  $d$  is the effective sonic diameter and  $A(\gamma)$  is a constant depending upon  $\gamma$ .

Substituting into Eq. (F-30), we have

$$\frac{\Delta S_{M,2}}{R} = \ln \left[ \left( \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1} \right)^{-\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left( \frac{2\gamma}{\gamma+1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} A^{\frac{2}{\gamma-1}} \left( \frac{x}{d} \right)^2 \right] \quad (\text{F-32})$$

In the second case of a rarefied flow following the freezing plane,  $M$  is the Mach number at the freezing plane (after which the Mach number is "frozen"). From the same empirical relation as



Eq. (F-31), if  $x_f$  is large,

$$M = M_f \approx A(\gamma) \left(\frac{x_f}{d}\right)^{\gamma-1} \quad (\text{F-33})$$

where  $x_f$  is the location of the freezing plane.

Substituting into Eq. (F-30) again, we have

$$\frac{\Delta S_{M,2}}{R} = \ln \left[ \left(\frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1}\right)^{-\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left(\frac{2\gamma}{\gamma+1}\right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} A^{\frac{2}{\gamma-1}} \left(\frac{x_f}{d}\right)^2 \right] \quad (\text{F-34})$$

In region c, the jet molecules mix with the background molecules at nearly constant pressure, or  $dp = 0$ , so Eq. (F-25) becomes

$$\frac{dS}{R} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} \frac{dT}{T} \quad (\text{F-35})$$

Integrating over the whole region, we have the entropy change as:

$$\frac{\Delta S_{2,\infty}}{R} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} \int_{T_\infty}^{T_2} \frac{dT}{T} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} \ln\left(\frac{T_\infty}{T_2}\right) \quad (\text{F-36})$$

where  $T_\infty$  is the temperature far downstream and  $T_2$  is the temperature right behind the shock.

To get the temperature ratio, we use:

$$\frac{T_\infty}{T_2} = \left(\frac{T_\infty}{T_0}\right) \left(\frac{T_0}{T_1}\right) \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2}\right) \quad (\text{F-37})$$

where the ratio of  $T_0$  to  $T_1$  is:

$$\frac{T_0}{T_1} = 1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} M^2 \quad (\text{F-38})$$

where  $M$  can be the Mach number at the shock in case of continuum flow, or the Mach number at the freezing plane in case of rarefied flow (which is still equal to the Mach number at the shock because of the "frozen" Mach number), and the temperature ratio across the shock,

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} = \left[ 1 + \frac{2(\gamma-1)}{(\gamma+1)^2} \frac{\gamma M^2 + 1}{M^2} (M^2 - 1) \right]^{-1} \quad (\text{F-39})$$

then we have, for large Mach number at the shock,

$$\frac{T_\infty}{T_2} = \left(\frac{T_\infty}{T_0}\right) \frac{\left[1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} M^2\right]}{\left[1 + \frac{2(\gamma-1)}{(\gamma+1)^2} \frac{\gamma M^2 + 1}{M^2} (M^2 - 1)\right]} \approx \frac{(\gamma+1)^2}{4\gamma} \left(\frac{T_\infty}{T_0}\right) \quad (\text{F-40})$$

Substituting into Eq. (F-36), yields:

$$\frac{\Delta S_{2,\infty}}{R} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} \ln \left[ \frac{(\gamma+1)^2}{4\gamma} \left( \frac{T_\infty}{T_0} \right) \right] \quad (\text{F-41})$$

By combining the three regions, one finds the total entropy production:

$$\frac{\Delta S_{0,\infty}}{R} = \ln \left[ A \frac{2}{\gamma-1} 2^{-\frac{2\gamma-1}{\gamma-1}} (\gamma-1)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left( \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma} \right) \left( \frac{T_\infty}{T_0} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left( \frac{x}{d} \right)^2 \right] \quad (\text{F-42})$$

no matter whether the flow remains continuum upstream of the Mach disc or the flow becomes rarefied before Mach disc.

Now, the Mach disc location formula can be obtained by equating Eqs. (F-26) and (F-42), after replacing  $i$  with  $0$  and  $f$  with  $\infty$  in the former:

$$\ln \left[ \left( \frac{p_0}{p_\infty} \right) \left( \frac{T_\infty}{T_0} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \right] = \ln \left[ A \frac{2}{\gamma-1} 2^{-\frac{2\gamma-1}{\gamma-1}} (\gamma-1)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left( \frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma} \right) \left( \frac{T_\infty}{T_0} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \left( \frac{x}{d} \right)^2 \right] \quad (\text{F-43})$$

That is

$$\frac{x}{d} = C(\gamma) \left( \frac{p_0}{p_\infty} \right)^{1/2} \quad (\text{F-44})$$

where  $C(\gamma) = 0.75$  for  $\gamma=5/3$   
 $= 0.71$  for  $\gamma=7/5$   
 $= 0.68$  for  $\gamma=9/7$

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