

Fig. 3 Solar absorptivity of second surface mirrors at high angles of incidence.

solar absorptivity is based only on the energy impinging on the quartz.

An interesting result observed during these calculations is that for incidence angles greater than 86° (on the face) total capture of the refracted ray occurs if the first and second surfaces of the quartz are out of parallel by less than 0.13° . This is a change of 0.002 in. in 1 in. Since the tolerance on the mirrors is ± 0.002 in., the 0.13° criteria is satisfied for a mirror whose thickness decreases uniformly from 0.008 in. at one edge to 0.006 in. at the opposite edge. A mirror meeting this criteria is probably unlikely. However, as the angles of incidence become greater than 86° , the probability of total capture of the refracted ray increases. Mirrors having these geometrical characteristics would exhibit a solar absorptivity higher than that shown in Fig. 3 for angles of incidence between 86° and 89° .

The calculated results explain the hills and valleys of the measurements shown in Fig. 1. Referring to the equations¹ the solar absorptance is greatest at the downward (relative to the incoming ray) mirror edge and decreases rapidly as the opposite edge is approached. The measurement patterns are not ideal because the mirrors are not necessarily in the same plane and one mirror can shade the next at the high incidence angles. Also, measurements indicate that some mirrors bulge at the center as a result of more RTV adhesive at the center than at the corners.

Celestarium

The purpose of the celestarium measurements was to indicate an increase in absorptance and not the magnitude of the absorptance. If it is arbitrarily assumed that the maximum spike (Fig. 1) is representative of an average solar reflectance of 0.925 ($\alpha = 0.075$) at $\beta = 72.5^\circ$ and the other spikes are assumed proportional to this reflectance, then the results superimposed on Fig. 3 are obtained. The celestarium data supports the calculated trend.

NEMS Radiator

The calculated solar adsorptance for the NEMS H_2O radiator based upon the flight temperatures during a period of constant solar intensity is also shown in Fig. 3. Because of outgassing contamination these results are not truly representative of the solar absorptance of the second surface mirrors.

However, like the celestarium measurements, they do indicate the same trend as that calculated by wave theory and does indicate that, despite the contamination, the controlling solar absorptance of the radiator is that of the mirrors.

Conclusions

Test and calculations indicate an increase rather than a decrease in solar absorptance of second surface mirrors at angles of incidence greater than 80° . In practical applications, this effect will be insignificant because, although the solar absorptance is high, the projected area is compensatingly small, resulting in an insignificant increase in the solar or albedo load. However, a spin-stabilized spacecraft can expose second surface mirrors to all angles of incidence. Also, reflected solar energy from a planet or other spacecraft surface could impinge predominantly in the region of high angles of incidence. If a large area is involved, the total load could be significant. Also, if the spacecraft trajectory is toward the sun, the additional loading would become progressively larger. Obviously, a concentration of solar energy in this high absorptance region could have a disastrous effect on a thermal design if overlooked.

More tests are needed to authenticate the calculated results, but to the author's knowledge, none are currently planned. It is recommended that, until better solar absorptivity data is available, the calculated results be used for design purposes.

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Launch Vehicle Trajectory Optimization including Rotational Dynamics

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Nomenclature

$C_{N\alpha}$	= pitching moment coefficient
D	= drag force
F_c	= control force
g	= acceleration due to gravity
g_0	= sea-level acceleration due to gravity
h	= altitude
I	= vehicle attitude angle
J	= performance index
L	= lift force
M_c	= control moment
MI	= moment of inertia about pitch axis
Re	= radius of earth
S	= reference area
T	= thrust
v	= magnitude of inertial velocity
v_R	= relative velocity

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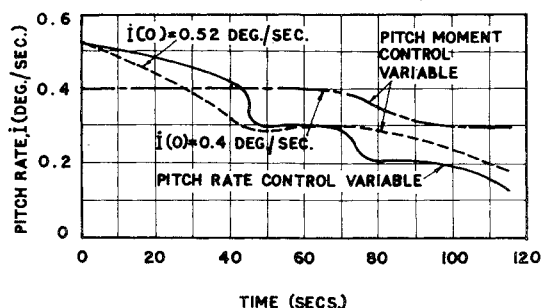


Fig. 2 Comparison of pitch-rate history with pitching moment and pitch rate as control variables.

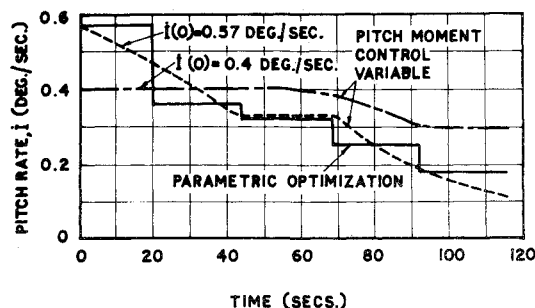


Fig. 3 Comparison of pitch-rate history with pitching moment and discretized pitch-rate as control variables.

comparisons are made with parametric optimization with discretized pitch-rates as parameters. Here, $\dot{i}(0)$ comes to be 0.57 deg/sec, instead of the given value of 0.4 deg/sec. This figure also shows that the pitch-rate control variable results differ significantly from the results of the present analysis.

The final altitude in all the above cases is the same (400 km) to an accuracy of 0.01 km. The injection is horizontal. The velocity with the discretized pitch-rate concept is the highest and is 7.812 km/sec. This velocity is decreased to 7.808 km/sec when the continuous pitch-rate control variable smoothes out the discretized profile. However, in both the cases we have a discontinuity at the initial time. When this is removed by using pitching moment as the control variable, the final velocity is 7.783 km/sec, showing a reduction of about 30 m/sec. These results show that the inclusion of the rotational dynamics can be important in the study of trajectory optimization. This formulation removes various kinds of discontinuities present in the other formulations, and shows a reduction in the final performance. An ideal control system is used in this formulation. This can be modified to include the control system delays and other realistic factors.

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Shock Interference Peak Heating Measurements using Phase Change Coatings

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Nomenclature

h	= heat transfer coefficient
M	= Mach number
n	= exponent, Eq. (1)
p	= pressure
PC	= phase change coating data, Fig. 3.
R	= Reynolds number
t	= time
T	= temperature
TC	= thermocouple data, Fig. 3
θ_{SL}	= shear-layer angle relative to local surface inclination

Subscripts

p	= peak
pc	= phase change
s	= stagnation
t	= total
w	= wall
$1,2,3,$ $4,5$	= regions of flowfield, Fig. 1

Introduction

THE phase change coating technique¹ has been used to obtain peak heating measurements in shock interference flow regions with high surface shear and heating.²⁻⁴ This technique provides heat transfer coefficients which are determined by measuring the time for a point on the surface to reach the phase change temperature of the thin fusible coating. These values of time and temperature are then used with the solution to the transient one-dimensional heat conduction equation by assuming a step increase in heat input to ascertain the heat transfer coefficient. Motion picture photography is used to record the phase change pattern, and a precision clock is used to record the time required for the phase change to occur.

The purpose of this Note is to discuss some of the problems encountered in applying the phase change coating technique and to present new shock interference peak heating data which illustrates these problems. A 5.08-cm diameter hemisphere-cylinder made of silica based epoxy was tested at Mach 6 for freestream Reynolds numbers of 3.3 to 25.6 million per meter. Flat plate shock generator angles varied from 5° to 25°. A sketch of the shock interference pattern is shown in Fig. 1. This shock pattern consists of a plane shock intersecting the curved bow shock of the hemisphere thus creating a shear layer (type III interaction, Ref. 3) which attaches to or interacts with the hemisphere boundary layer causing high local pressure and heat transfer. Heating data obtained on a 5.08-cm diameter thin wall stainless steel hemispherical model instrumented with thermocouples every 5 deg on the vertical center line is also presented for the purpose of comparing the phase change technique with the thermocouple-calorimeter method.

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