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ADVANCED THRUST CHAMBER FOR SPACE MANEUVERING PROPULSION

Tasks II and III - Thrust Chamber Segment Evaluations
Final Report

H. G. Diem
R. P. Pauckert
Rocketdyne
A Division of North American Aviation, Inc.
Canoga Park, California

July 1967

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Research and Technology Division
Edwards Air Force Base, California
Air Force Systems Command
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Research and Technology Division
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ADVANCED THRUST CHAMBER FOR SPACE MANEUVERING PROPULSION

Tasks II and III - Solid Wall and Tube Wall Segment Evaluations

H. G. Diem
R. P. Pauckert

July 1967
FOREWORD

(U) This technical report presents the results of the effort under Tasks II and III of the program titled "Advanced Thrust Chamber for Space Maneuvering Propulsion". The Task I studies of the program were conducted during the period 16 May to 15 August 1966 and are reported in AFRPL-TR-66-701. The Task II and III experimental phases of the program were conducted during the period 16 May 1966 to 15 June 1967. The program was authorized by the USAP Rocket Propulsion Laboratory under Contract AF04(611)-11617. The Air Force Program Manager is Mr. W. W. Wells, RPREC.

(U) This publication was prepared by Rocketdyne, a division of North American Aviation, Inc., as Report R-6730-1.

(U) This technical report has been reviewed and is approved.

W. W. Wells, AFRPL Program Manager
An analytical and experimental study was conducted to evaluate the most critical design aspects of the advanced LF_2/LH_2 propulsion system concept selected under previous contract AF04(611)-10745. These design aspects were associated with the toroidal thrust chamber of the aerospike engine which produced 30,000 pounds of thrust. Combustion chamber performance, heat transfer characteristics, regenerative cooling capability, and structural integrity were investigated and demonstrated by testing segments of the complete chamber.

The experimental efforts were first conducted with water-cooled segments and resulted in the selection of a near-optimum injector/combustion chamber configuration. An injector having an impinging fan orifice pattern together with a combustion chamber which converged continuously from the injector to the throat was found to give high C* efficiency while maintaining heat transfer rates within the capability of a two-pass regenerative cooling system design. It was also demonstrated that gases for turbine operation could be withdrawn from the combustion chamber through the injector without seriously degrading injector performance. The properties of these topoff gases were found to be relatively independent of chamber pressure.

Two tube-wall segments were designed for two-pass cooling on the basis of the solid-wall segment results. These segments demonstrated regenerative cooling over the 9:1 throttling range. Chamber performance in excess of 99 percent C* efficiency over the throttle range was achieved. Three dynamic throttling tests demonstrated injector stability over the critical low-to-middle thrust range.

Two structural segments were fabricated using lightweight rib and honeycomb support structure. These segments were cycled from 0 to 650 psig more than 15 times using hydraulic pressure to simulate chamber pressure. Analytical and experimental data agreed closely and indicated that throat area variations over the throttling range would be less than 3 percent for chambers using either the rib or honeycomb designs.
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SECTION I
INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY

1. GENERAL

A study was conducted under sponsorship of AFRPL during the 1965 calendar year to define an advanced optimized LH₂/LH₂ space maneuvering propulsion system (Contract AF04(611)-10745). The mission of primary interest, which defined the propulsion system requirements, was that of intercept and rendezvous with passive and evasive target satellites. The system gross weight was selected as 20,000 pounds to be adaptable to the present Titan IIIC launch vehicle.

The study defined an optimum engine configuration that utilized concentric thrust chambers. The outer primary thrust chamber of 30,000 pounds thrust incorporated the toroidal-aerodynamic spike design concept. The inner secondary thrust chamber of 3300 pounds thrust was of a bell design. The thrust chambers were fed from independent turbopumps which were driven by tapoff gases from each of the thrust chambers. Each of the thrust chambers were throttled over a 9:1 thrust range which gave the engine system an overall throttle ratio of 81:1. The configuration is illustrated in Fig. 1.

Figure 1. Engine System Configuration
(U) Since the potential mission performance capability gains of this propulsion system concept were very attractive, a demonstration of critical design features was considered desirable. Because the toroidal-aerospike thrust chamber was the single most unique concept and was the primary basis for the engine design, demonstration effort was concentrated in this area.

2. CONCEPT

(C) The thrust chamber concept consists of a toroidal combustion chamber with inner and outer regeneratively cooled walls. These are joined together by an annular injector. The outer wall extends past the throat region to form an expansion shroud. The tubes forming the inner wall are extended past the throat and are contoured to form the primary nozzle expansion surface. The configuration is illustrated in Fig. 1a.

![Figure 1a. Toroidal Aerospike Thrust Chamber Configuration](image)

(C) The integrity of the combustion chamber is achieved by a lightweight structural arrangement where the separating loads due to the chamber pressure are resisted by inner and outer body structures which are supported intermittently around the chamber by combustion chamber baffles. The baffles, in addition to providing a structural support, serve as compartmentation devices to assure combustion stability.
The basic design parameters of the 30K toroidal-aerospike thrust chamber are listed below. These parameters provided the baseline for all hardware design and test evaluations of this program.

- Propellants: $\text{LH}_2/\text{LO}_2$
- Thrust (max): 30,000 lbs
- Chamber Pressure: 650 psia to 70 psia
- Mixture Ratio: 13:1

The toroidal chamber evaluation approach was to test a segment of the complete chamber as illustrated in Fig. la. The segment represents approximately 1/47 of the complete toroid circumference. Combustion performance, heat transfer, and structural evaluations was accomplished on the segment. Previous testing at Rocketdyne has shown that results from segments duplicate those obtained with the complete 360-degree toroid. Segment testing permitted the desired test data to be obtained at reduced hardware costs and with relative experimental ease.

3. PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

The program was divided into three primary tasks. Task I extended the studies of Contract AF04(611)-10745 to determine the mission performance capabilities of heavier and larger gross weight space maneuvering vehicles that can be adapted to Saturn IB and growth versions of the Titan IIIC launch vehicles. Also, for the 20,000-pound gross weight vehicles defined previously in Contract AF04(611)-10745, the orbital life capabilities beyond the previously established requirement of 14 days were determined. The results of these studies were reported separately as report ARPL-TR-66-301 and are therefore not included in this report.

The basic goal of Tasks II and III was the demonstration of the critical features of the toroidal thrust chamber, while delivering high performance at the operating parameters defined above. The specific objectives of the Tasks II and III were as follows:

1. Demonstrate high combustion efficiency (97 percent of theoretical shifting $c^*$ over the design throttling range of 9:1)
2. Determine the effect of chamber contour and injector characteristics on performance and heat flux distribution
3. Demonstrate the feasibility of supplying temperature-controlled chamber tapoff gas (simulating turbopump requirements) by regulating the injector mixture ratio distribution
4. Demonstrate the ability to regenerativey cool the chamber
5. Demonstrate that the lightweight support structure can maintain the nozzle throat size within an acceptable tolerance
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(U) Task II. called Solid Wall Segment Evaluation. included objectives 1, 2 and 5 above. Task III. called Tube Wall Segment Evaluation. included objectives 1, 4 and 3.

1. PROGRAM APPROACH

(U) The approach for conducting Tasks II and III is illustrated in Fig. 2. The objectives of Task II were accomplished using solid wall, water cooled hardware. Injector performance, heat transfer, and hot gas tapoff evaluations were conducted over the throttle range using these relatively inexpensive components. These results provided for selection of the best combustion chamber geometry and injector configuration for the tube wall evaluations of Task III.

(U) Task III had three parts consisting of tube wall throat insert evaluation, complete tube wall segment evaluation, and structural segment evaluation (Fig. 2). The tube wall throat inserts provided verification of the heat transfer results of the solid wall tests in the critical throat region and defined initial test conditions for the cooled segments. The tubes of the inserts were hydrogen cooled while the opposite side was water cooled to obtain additional heat transfer data.

(U) Following the throat insert testing, regeneratively cooled thrust chamber segments were tested using the best injector from the previous segment tests.

(U) Two lightweight structural segments were fabricated and pressure tested. These segments differed from each other in that a rib-type backup structure was used on one segment while honeycomb was used in the structure of the other segment.

5. SUMMARY OF RESULTS

(C) During the 12 month program period, 153 hot firings of solid wall and tube wall segments were conducted. In addition, mechanical structural testing of two segments with lightweight support structures was accomplished. All program objectives were successfully accomplished as a result of this testing.

(C) Under Task II, 128 water-cooled solid-wall segment firings were made in which numerous variations of combustion chamber geometry and injector pattern were evaluated. This testing, supplemented by company sponsored effort, evolved a chamber configuration which had a throat heat flux approximately 50 percent below that of earlier configurations while still maintaining relatively high performance. The configuration, called "contour G", had a continuously converging chamber wall from injector to throat which promoted maximum boundary layer growth in a very short chamber length. The distance from injector to throat was 1.2 inches. The maximum values of throat heat flux were 22.2 Btu sec.-in.² at 670 psi chamber pressure.
Figure 2. Segment Test Configurations

- **TUBE WALL THREAT INSERT**
- **COMPLETE TUBE WALL SEGMENT**
- **SOLID WALL SEGMENT**
- **STRUCTURAL SEGMENT**
All solid wall segment tests were conducted with ambient hydrogen for the injector. Relatively high \( C^* \) efficiency (96.5 percent of shifting) was achieved with the contour 6 chamber and an impinging fan injector pattern. Analytical predictions indicated this performance would be increased several percent when heated hydrogen from the cooling jacket (\( \sim 650^\circ \text{F} \)) was used instead of ambient hydrogen. (This was subsequently verified in Task III).

Also as part of Task II, the feasibility of supplying temperature controlled chamber tapoff gas (simulating turbopump power requirements) was demonstrated. Nine tests were conducted. In seven of these tests, temperatures were varied over a range of 160°F to 170°F by adjustment of a tapoff probe through the injector face. For a given adjustment setting of the probe, the tapoff gas temperature was shown to be relatively insensitive to variation of chamber pressure over a range of 200 to 385 psia. At temperatures near the design point (1700°F), the effect of tapoff on performance was shown to be negligible.

Under Task III, 20 firings were conducted with full tube wall segments of the contour 6 configuration and the impinging fan injector. \( C^* \) efficiencies in excess of 90 percent were achieved with stable combustion over the complete throttle range (650 psia to 70 psia) when the segment was operated regeneratively. The hydrogen temperature entering the injector manifold on these tests was approximately 650°F. The higher fuel injection temperature improved the injector performance significantly over that achieved with ambient hydrogen.

Results of the Task III cooling evaluation demonstrated the feasibility of regeneratively cooling the 30K toroidal combustion chamber with a two-pass cooling circuit. Successful cooling was achieved at full chamber pressure (650 psia) using essentially rated flow (75% over cooling) and at full throttled conditions (70 psia) using less than rated flow. These are the two most critical operating conditions. The heat input to the chamber dropped off almost linearly with chamber pressure when heated hydrogen was injected in place of ambient hydrogen at throttled conditions. This was due to reduced wall heat input near the injector end resulting from increased combustion efficiency.

Also as part of Task III, two lightweight toroidal chamber support structure designs were evaluated. One design utilized a rib type support structure while the second utilized honeycomb. Segments approximately 21 inches in length comprising 5 baffle compartments were fabricated and tested by hydraulically applying simulated chamber pressure. Pressure loadings were applied over the complete range of chamber pressure (650 psia to 70 psia) in numerous cycles on each segment. The measured deflections agreed closely with analytical predictions which correspond to calculated throat area variations of approximately 2.6 and 2.9 percent for the rib and honeycomb designs respectively. These variations are well within the original targeted design value of 10 percent.
1. GENERAL

The solid-wall segment evaluation phase of the program was directed to take maximum advantage of the simplicity and reliability of water-cooled segments to determine performance and heat transfer characteristics of various injector and combustion chamber geometries. Previous experience with chambers having circular cross-sections was extended on this program to include new chamber contours and injector orifice patterns. Injector mixture ratio bias for heat flux control and turbine tapoff gas provision was also investigated during this phase of the program. The goal of the solid-wall segment evaluation was to demonstrate an injector/combustion chamber configuration which will provide high (97 percent or greater) e* efficiency over a throttling range of 9:1 while maintaining heat fluxes within the limits of the regenerative-cooling capability of an engine system.

The general approach to the evaluation included the following steps:

1. Chamber Geometry Characterization
2. Basic Injector Characterization
3. Injector Mixture Ratio Bias and Hot Gas Tapoff Evaluation

The chamber geometry characterization was initiated by conducting tests with the circular chamber to verify previous data obtained with this chamber. Slight modifications were made to the injector orifice pattern to eliminate fan impingement on the narrow walls of subsequent chambers. Alternate chamber configurations selected on the basis of previous and current results were then tested to determine the optimum chamber geometry from the standpoints of performance (e*) and heat transfer.

The basic injector characterization testing included evaluation of variations in the orifice pattern of the basic triplet injector and evaluation of an alternate injector pattern. The alternate pattern was selected on the basis of comparative, single-element, water/helium spray tests and test experience from other programs. The injector tests aided in the selection of the best injector/chamber combination for the subsequent tube-wall segment evaluations of Task III.

Injector mixture ratio bias testing included determination of the effect of fuel injection at the periphery of the injector on the heat flux and performance in the chamber. The tapoff gas evaluation included extraction of hot gas, suitable for engine turbine power, from the combustion chamber.
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2. DESIGN DESCRIPTION

(U) The philosophy upon which the design of the solid-wall segment hardware was based involved: (1) maximum use of existing hardware, (2) maximum interchangeability of hardware during the solid wall segment testing and in the subsequent tube evaluation phase of the program. This approach is illustrated in Fig. 3. The new injector design (1) was readily adaptable to either the existing circular chamber, the alternate solid-wall chambers (6 and 3), or the tube-wall segment (10). The alternate injector differed from injector (1) only in the orifice configuration and both were, therefore, interchangeable. The adapters (2 and 5) were simple, uncooled sections to position the injector face exactly at the chamber entrance. The water-cooled throat section (4) could be used with any of the alternate chamber sections. The circular chamber included a throat and short diverging nozzle. The tube-wall throat sections (8 and 9) of Task III were designed to be compatible with the alternate chamber sections.

a. Segment Assembly

(C) The solid-wall segment assembly (shown in Fig. 4) consisted of the injector, adapter, chamber, and nozzle subassemblies, together with closure rings and mounting hardware. The width of the segment was 3 inches, and was representative of approximately 1/7 of the total circumference of the toroidal engine. The double-bolted configuration permitted removal of the injector without disturbing the chamber and nozzle, or removal of the nozzle or chamber without disconnecting the propellant feed system from the injector. A coverplate was bolted to the aft closure ring to seal the assembly for pressure checking purposes. A photograph of the assembly is shown in Fig. 5 and an exploded view of the components is presented in Fig. 6.

b. Injectors

(U) Concept description. The successful design of a predictably performing rocket engine injector requires a thorough understanding of the fluid dynamic and chemical kinetic processes which govern the combustion process. Minor variations in injector design or operation can result in large changes in the thrust chamber performance, stability, and heat transfer environment. The infinite number of possible variations in injector design makes direct correlation between the mechanical features of the injector and its resultant behavior a difficult task. The problem, however, may be simplified by recognizing that the process of propellant injection takes place in the form of a spray which may be described in terms of fundamental physical parameters. The spray characteristics, defined in terms of the degree of propellant atomization and distribution, provide the basis for establishing design criteria for injectors, and are the foundation from which specific application to any design requirement is established. The basic characteristics which describe the quality of the injector spray and the many design factors which influence this figure-of-merit permit the establishment of the injector design approach.

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Figure 4. Solid-Wall Segment Assembly
Figure 5. Water Cooled Solid-Wall Segment
The specific injector designs for this program were controlled primarily by the following basic requirements:

1. The injector must be capable of at least a 9:1 throttling ratio.
2. The injector must be capable of high performance over the entire operating range.
3. The injector should feature simplicity and reliability, particularly from an overall propulsion system standpoint.

Two basic injector concepts were selected for evaluation in the program. The two designs incorporated the following basic element arrangements: (1) triplets (two liquid streams impinging on a central \( \text{G} \) stream); and (2) impinging fans (two liquid fans impinging on a central \( \text{G} \) stream). Typical elements for the two injector types are shown schematically in Fig. 7.

Triplet Injector Pattern. The triplet injector pattern was the concept previously selected for the Maneuvering Satellite engine defined in Contract AF04(611)-10745. This basic pattern, which has previously undergone \( \text{L} \)/\( \text{G} \) segment testing under company sponsorship with promising results, was the basic pattern used in the Task II test program. It was used in the thrust chamber contour (geometry) characterization testing and was also used to initiate the injector characterization testing.

The previous investigations indicated that the atomization characteristics are a function of the relative gas-to-liquid velocity and the quantity of gas available to atomize a given mass of liquid. Thus:

\[
\text{Drop Size} = f \left( V_{\text{gas}}, W_{\text{gas}}, V_{\text{liq}}, W_{\text{liq}} \right)
\]

From this criterion, a basic gas-liquid triplet element evolved. A basic doublet self-impinging stream element was known to produce a spray field of liquid drops and ligaments of a given size depending upon the jet velocity and jet diameter. Previous investigations showed that by superimposing a high velocity gas flow upon this spray field, the resulting drop size could be substantially reduced. Thus, cold-flow studies were conducted at Rocketdyne to determine the level of velocity required to significantly alter the degree of atomization if the gas flow originated from a point source centrally located between the doublet streams. In addition, the gas-jet spreading characteristics and, therefore, the impingement point, the impingement angle, and orifice diameters were studied.

Cold-flow results for the triplet pattern indicated that a triplet element could be used to atomize liquid propellants effectively. In addition, the results indicated that the spray-field was completely enveloped by the gas and that, at the high gas momentums, good gas-liquid distribution resulted.
Figure 7. Basic Injector Configurations
Impinging-Fan Pattern. The cold-flow analysis data obtained prior to the program for the triplet (gas/liquid) injector pattern suggested that the liquid condition was important to the efficient utilization of the gas to produce liquid atomization. The triplet results indicated that a significant portion of the initial injectant gas momentum was not being effectively used. Schlieren photographs showed that, at lower gas momentum, the liquid at the point of impingement resembles an impenetrable body. Therefore, from an aerodynamic standpoint, the most optimum design would be one that results in a liquid-spray field which allows gas penetration at the impingement point. The spray field which is most susceptible to gas penetration is one which is in the form of a thin, unstable liquid fan. Thin fans are desirable because they: (1) result in maximum liquid shear forces per unit surface area, (2) are dynamically unstable due to surface tension forces, and (3) have nonaxial components of velocity which will promote the disintegration of the fan into ligaments and drops.

Cold-flow models employing several differing injection techniques for producing thin liquid fans were evaluated (prior to this program). One technique which was evaluated was the fan-impinging pattern. This pattern produced excellent liquid-fans which were very uniform in mass distribution and could be controlled directionally. Each injector element contained two sets of opposing doublets and a centrally located gas orifice. The doublets were employed to produce liquid fans whose flat side faced the central gas orifice or orifices. The liquid fans and the gas stream in turn impinged at a central common location. Comparison of impinging-fan injector cold-flow photographs with the triplet photographs showed that the impinging-fan design produced a higher degree of liquid atomization at significantly lower gas momentums than that of the triplet.

Injector Design. The injector subassembly is shown in Fig. 8 and 9. Liquid fluorine enters the injector through two parallel inlets and is manifolded through the injector body to the injector face. The injector body and face were made of copper. Gaseous hydrogen enters the steel core through a single inlet; the other inlet shown is an instrumentation tap. The hydrogen manifold is formed by the gap between the core and the injector body.

The injector basic triplet orifice pattern, which is an O-F-0 arrangement, is shown in Fig. 10. Fourteen elements are staggered on the 1 x 3-inch face of the injector. The oxidizer orifices are arranged so that the resulting fans are canted to avoid impingement on the walls of the narrow chambers. The spray pattern of this injector is shown in Fig. 11, in which the fine atomization and uniform distribution characteristics of this injector pattern are indicated. An important parameter related to injector performance is the quantity \( \dot{W}_0/\dot{W}_pV_p \) where \( \dot{W}_0 \) and \( \dot{W}_p \) are the oxidizer and fuel flowrates, respectively, and \( V_p \) is the fuel injection velocity. A graph of \( C^* \) efficiency vs this parameter will generally indicate a maximum value of efficiency; i.e., an optimum value for the parameter. The method
Figure 9 - Top View of Injector
of varying the parameter in this program was to enlarge the size of the GH2 orifices. The initial diameter of the orifices was 0.037 inch. The orifices were enlarged in two steps to 0.043 inch and then to 0.055 inch.

The alternate basic injector pattern (impinging fan) is shown in Fig. 12. In this pattern, two pairs of LF2 orifices each formed fans on either side of the GH2 orifice. The result of this double impingement was that less hydrogen velocity was required to atomize the LF2 to the same degree as in the triplet so that the injector operated well with a lower pressure drop through the GH2 orifices. Also, since the LF2 impingement over the GH2 orifice occurred over a length (normal to the line through the LF2 orifices), it was expected that better atomization and mixing could be obtained by replacing the single GH2 orifice with 2 or more orifices of equivalent area. Single element evaluations of the impinging fan pattern were made using water to simulate the LF2 and gaseous helium to simulate the GH2. The resulting spray patterns indicated improved atomization, compared with the triplet, at low simulated GH2 velocities.

Several designs for basic impinging fan injectors were made. The design selected for its simplicity consisted of a single row of 10 elements on a flat face. Each element included a single GH2 orifice. The face of this injector is shown in Fig. 13. The resulting water spray pattern is depicted in Fig. 14. Atomization was further enhanced when a gas was injected to simulate the hydrogen flow. The method of feeding the pattern was essentially the same as for the triplet injector.

The above basic injector patterns were both of 1 inch width by 3 inch length. Additional variations of these basic patterns were designed and fabricated during the program period under company sponsorship. Two of these designs shown in Fig. 15, were the 14 element triplet and the 14 element impinging fan. Both of these designs were of 2" width and required special adapter rings for installation into the wider combustion chambers. In other design details, the two injectors were similar to the 1" width designs described above.

Provision for Mixture Ratio Bias. An investigation of heat transfer rate control by biasing the mixture ratio of the injector such that the edges of the injector operated at a lower mixture ratio than the core was conducted. Two design concepts were devised to accomplish this: (1) modifying the nominal injector design; (2) modifying the injector-to-chamber adapter design.

The modification of the injector was made so that the method of injection would most nearly simulate engine operation. One injector was successfully modified in accordance with this philosophy. However, since the initial injector design did not provide for this type of injection, the clearance between propellant manifolds was small. The primary features of this design are shown in Fig. 16. Gaseous hydrogen bias manifolds were drilled in the injector face parallel to the LF2 manifolds. The GH2 bias manifolds were connected
Figure 15. Single Row Impinging Fan Injector
Figure 14. Spray Pattern for Impingement Fouls Injector
Figure 15. Injector Design Variations

to the primary GH$_2$ manifold by relatively large drilled passages. From the GH$_2$ bias manifolds, the hydrogen flowed through small axial-metering holes near the edge of the injector. Mixture ratio bias control was obtained by varying the number and size of the metering holes. Hole sizes were varied to provide bias flows to 12 to 30 percent of the total H$_2$ flow.

The design shown in Fig. 17 provided for mixture ratio bias injection through the modified injector/chamber adapter. Advantage was taken of the fact that the adapter extended slightly into the combustion chamber. This extension was converted into GH$_2$ manifolds on both contour sides of the injector. Gaseous hydrogen entered the manifolds through external fittings on the adapter. The adapter flow was, therefore, independent of the injector flow which permitted considerable flexibility in the test program.

Injector Provision for Hot Gas Tapoff. Engine fabrication and operation can be simplified by eliminating the conventional gas generator and using hot gases tapped from the combustion chamber as the turbine driving fluid. These gases may be tapped from the vicinity of the combustion chamber wall or from the injector. The construction of the injector was such that obtaining tapoff gases from this source appeared the most feasible. Thrust chamber gas tapoff was considered as an alternate, but this concept was not investigated because of the highly successful results obtained with the injector tapoff configuration.

The purposes of the tapoff tests were to demonstrate (1) structural integrity of the injector while withdrawing hot gases through the injector face; (2) that combustion chamber performance was not strongly affected by this method of obtaining tapoff gas, and (3) that the tapoff gas properties were reasonably constant at all chamber pressures.

In this configuration shown in Fig. 18, the combustion chamber hot gases were mixed with the GH$_2$ flowing through the annular gap between the tapoff tube and injector body. The combined gases then exited through the tapoff tube. The temperature of the tapoff gas depended
Figure 16 - Injector for Mixture Ratio Bias
Figure 17. Adapter for Mixture Ratio Bias
Figure 18. Injector Tapoff Configuration
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upon the width of the annular gap and the position of the end of the tapoff tube with respect to the injector face. As the tapoff tube was retracted behind the injector face, a greater percentage of hydrogen from the manifold entered the tapoff tube and the tapoff gas mixture ratio and final temperature was reduced. Increasing the annular gas gap also resulted in more \( \text{GH}_2 \) entering the tapoff tube relative to the amount of combustion chamber gas entering. However, as the gap was increased, more hydrogen flowed into the combustion chamber through the gap, thus affecting the injector mixture ratio distribution and possibly affecting performance.

(U) This injector tapoff configuration resulted in substantially constant tapoff gas mixture ratio because the hydrogen manifold pressure was almost directly proportional to chamber pressure. The variation of tapoff gas temperature and molecular weight with mixture ratio is shown in Fig. 19.

(U) The results of the tapoff test series are discussed on page 70.

c. Combustor Body and Nozzle

(C) The effect of combustor body geometry on performance and heat transfer rates was evaluated in the solid-wall segment configuration. The high specific impulse of the \( \text{FO}/\text{H}_2 \) propellant combination, together with the attendant high combustion temperature and gas specific heat product, results in high heat flux conditions imposed on the wall surface compared to propellants such as \( \text{N}_2\text{O}/\text{N}_2\text{H}_4 \) + UDMH and \( \text{O}_2/\text{RP}-1 \). Control of boundary layer growth and alteration of combustion chamber size was required to achieve an optimum balance between coolant bulk temperature rise, reduced throat and nozzle peak heat flux, and performance.

(C) Five contours or geometries were selected for evaluation based on previous program results. These contours, shown on Fig. 21, had a common injector-to-throat distance of 3 1/2 inches, except for contour D which had a 5 inch distance. All utilized the 1 inch wide injector configurations. The chamber contour characteristics are summarized in Table 1. All chambers were fabricated from solid copper material.

(U) The circular wall contour A chamber (shown in schematic cross section in Fig. 20) was divided into six axial heat transfer measurement regions. Of these locations, three (I through III) were considered as nozzle regions and three (IV through VI) as chamber regions. Each location in the nozzle consisted of a single independent coolant passage (0.201 inch diameter), whereas in the chamber, each location consisted of five passages (0.125 inch diameter) fed in parallel. The coolant passages were designed to receive the heat transferred from the curved wall side of the chamber; the end plates were cooled separately. This chamber configuration was available at the start of the program.
Figure 19. Predicted Molecular Weight and Combustion Temperature for LF$_2$/GH$_2$.
The contour B and C chambers, which were newly designed for this program, are shown in schematic cross section in Fig. 22. Each chamber, and nozzle was divided into 18 axial heat transfer measurement regions, as shown. Of these locations, 10 passages (1 through 10) were located in the chamber section. Each location consisted of a single water inlet passage which divided into two smaller passages to provide coolant along the contour and side walls of the chamber. The diameter of the coolant passages which extract heat from the chamber walls was 0.166 inch. Near the throat (passages 11 through 15), the diameter of the passages was reduced to 0.136 inch.

The copper nozzle was designed to fit both the contour B and contour C combustion chambers. The nozzle entrance half-angle was 30 degrees and the exit half-angle was 15 degrees. The expansion area ratio was 4:1. A photo viewing the nozzle entrance is shown in Fig. 23.

Contours D and E were designed to investigate the effects of nozzle length and convergence angle on performance and heat transfer rates. Contour E, as shown in Fig. 24, consisted of two sections to facilitate fabrication. The basic nozzle used with Contours B and C had a 70-degree entrance angle and a 15-degree divergence angle. Contour E was designed to accommodate the basic nozzle with the converging and diverging sides reversed.
Figure 21. Solid-Wall-Segment Contours
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contour</th>
<th>Injector-Throat Distance, inches</th>
<th>Nominal Convergence Angle, degrees</th>
<th>Maximum Contraction Area Ratio</th>
<th>Expansion Nozzle Wall Shape</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Curved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Straight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Straight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>Straight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>Straight</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 22a. 30-Degree Chamber and Nozzle Cross Section (Contour B)

Figure 22b. Parallel-Wall Chamber and Nozzle Cross Section (Contour C)
Figure 23. Solid Wall Segment Throat Section
Figure 24. Water Cooled Contour E
On the basis of the heat transfer data obtained with the Contour C chamber, it was determined that adequate cooling in the combustion chamber could be obtained with fewer water-coolant holes which were recessed further from the hot-gas chamber wall than in the contour C chamber. This design permitted simpler and more rapid fabrication techniques to be employed. Because of the increased water coolant hole spacing, it was possible to deep drill the holes and thus avoid the core-and-collar fabrication technique required for previous chambers. The chamber section (straight wall) had four water cooling passages which were individually supplied. Contour D differed from contour E only in length. Contour E was converted to contour D by adding another 1.5-inch long straight-walled section to the chamber.

The copper surface of the nozzles generally experienced progressive roughening, particularly after the first few tests. To determine whether the nozzle surface material or roughness influences the heat transfer rates, nozzles were plated with 0.3 mils of chromium and 1.0 mils of nickel. The results of the tests are discussed in Section II. 7.f.

In addition to the combustion chamber contours described above, two additional geometries were designed under company sponsorship to further evaluate the effects of chamber convergence angles. These contours, shown on Fig. 25, each had a 3 1/2 inch distance from injector to throat. Contour F utilized the 1-inch injector configurations and has a continuous 6 degree convergence from injector to the nozzle approach section which had a 15 degree convergence. Contour G utilized the 2 in. wide injector configurations and had a continuous 15-degree convergence from the injector to the throat. Both contours utilized the same nozzle configuration which had been previously designed for contours B through E. Wall coolant passage design was the same as for contour E described above.

Figure 25. Additional Chamber Contours
3. SOLID WALL SEGMENT DESIGN ANALYSIS

(U) Heat transfer and performance analyses were conducted for the solid-wall segment model. These analyses were accomplished to ensure compatibility of the model with the thermal environment and to provide the theoretical data required for the reduction and analysis of the test data.

a. Thermal Analysis

(U) Injector Face. The heat transfer analysis of an injector can be divided into several broad primary categories: (1) heat load imposed by the combustion process, (2) cooling capabilities of the propellants, (3) the physical and thermal characteristics of the injector material, and (4) geometry considerations. This separation is primarily for convenience of discussion since the various aspects of the problem are actually closely interrelated. The last three items can be grouped under the general heading of injector-cooling capability.

(U) The determination of the local heat flux at the injector face is the most difficult portion of an injector heat transfer analysis. The difficulty arises in attempting to predict both the flow field near the injector face and the properties of the recirculating gases since these factors are greatly affected by the injector orifice geometry. Although analytical prediction of the heat load to the injector is not yet possible, there are existing experimental data for use in estimating reasonable values. Hot-firing experience at Rocketdyne tends to indicate that the injector heat fluxes are approximately equal to the local chamber wall values.

(U) Using the aforementioned criterion combined with the thrust chamber heat transfer analyses, an injector face heat flux of about 2 to 4 Btu/in.\(^2\)-sec at 650-psia chamber pressure was estimated. A nominal value of 3 Btu/in.\(^2\)-sec was utilized in the subsequent analysis. If it is further assumed that the average injector heat flux level equals the local chamber wall value throughout the throttling range, a heat flux of about 0.5 Btu/in.\(^2\)-sec at 70-psia chamber pressure (9:1 throttling) will result.

(U) Previous copper-faced injectors tested to date have shown endurance over the range of required thrust chamber conditions using ambient temperature gaseous hydrogen (~ 60 F) and liquid fluorine. The only question remaining was whether sufficient cooling could be achieved using heated hydrogen such as would occur during regenerative operation with the tube wall segments of Task III.

(U) An analysis was conducted using a digital computer program to ascertain material temperature profiles in the region of the hydrogen orifices. A single orifice was elected for study, and the convective cooling capability of the hydrogen in the orifice was calculated from the relation (Ref. 1):
where

\[ N_{N_{u}} = 0.024 \left( \frac{N_{Re}}{N_{Pr}} \right) \left( \frac{T_{B}}{T_{W}} \right) \phi_{E} \]

\[ \phi_{E} = 1.8 \left( \frac{L}{D} \right)^{-0.15} \text{ for } \frac{L}{D} < 27 \]

This latter factor is important for the small L/D values encountered in injector orifices.

The results of the analysis for full-thrust conditions indicated that the maximum face temperature was about 1100 F, which was well below the melting point of copper (~ 1080 F).

The hydrogen temperature, as it enters the injector, may increase as throttling occurs so that the injector face will tend to operate at a higher temperature than the full-thrust case. A preliminary analysis indicated that the maximum face temperature under these conditions could be marginal; however, previous test results to date at these conditions have not indicated any overheating.

Combustion Chamber and Nozzle. There were three primary thermal considerations in the design of the water-cooled copper chambers and nozzles: (1) to ensure that adequate water velocity was obtained to prevent wall burnout; (2) the coolant passages must be close enough to the combustion surface to prevent large temperature differentials and excessive wall surface temperatures, and (7) the water bulk temperature rise must be sufficiently high to ensure accuracy in the temperature rise measurements. The above three criteria were utilized in the design under previous test programs. The present solid-wall segment designs are capable of handling a throat heat flux of 56 Btu/in.\(^2\)-sec based on copper-wall temperature limitations. The nozzle and combustion zone can handle about 44 Btu/in.\(^2\)-sec because of the slightly larger spacing between holes and the combustion surface.

A detailed heat transfer analysis was also conducted to determine the temperature distribution in the throat region of the water-cooled segments. The temperature distributions were determined for a range of gas-side film coefficients and were used in obtaining the change
in the throat area from thermal conditions during firing. This area change is used in the data analysis and its determination is presented in detail in Appendix A.

b. Performance Analysis

Analyses were conducted to determine the throat discharge coefficient and the nozzle thrust coefficient for the solid-wall segment. These quantities were used to obtain experimental values of $c^*$ from measured chamber pressure, thrust, and flow rate. Chemical reaction kinetics and boundary-layer theoretical results were combined with the potential flow analysis for the nozzle.

The flow field for the segment nozzle was first computed to obtain the potential flow discharge coefficient and inviscid thrust coefficient for equilibrium flow of fluorine/hydrogen combustion products with the design mixture ratio and a chamber pressure of 650 psia. A transonic solution was first generated.

The supersonic flow field was computed using the right characteristic from the throat flow solution as a starting line for a plane flow method of characteristics solution using a digital computer program. The flow field was computed using a variable properties solution for equilibrium flow of $F_2/H_2$ (nozzle mixture ratio = 1/4 and $P_c = 650$ psia). The nozzle was a plane flow, 15 degree, straight-wall nozzle with an area ratio of 4. (The 30 degree nozzle was also subsequently analyzed). The impulse function across the input line and wall pressures were integrated to obtain the nozzle thrust coefficient based on geometric throat area. Flow properties along the nozzle wall were computed for calculation of viscous wall drag and boundary layer displacement thickness.

The following is a summary of the results of the inviscid performance calculations (for the 15 degree nozzle).

| Ideal thrust coefficient ($C_p$ ideal) | 1.616 |
| Computed thrust coefficient ($C_p$ computed) | 1.596 |
| Geometric efficiency ($\eta C_F = \frac{C_p^{computed}}{C_p^{ideal}}$) | 0.988 |
| Potential discharge coefficient, $C_w$, computed mass flow/ideal mass flow | 0.997 |

Application of the boundary layer equations was made to predict the skin friction drag, the boundary layer thickness at the throat, and nozzle discharge coefficient in the plane-flow models. The boundary layer approach utilized the integral momentum and energy equations to form an analytical model. The considerations included the incorporation of a pressure gradient term in the momentum equation, a nonadiabatic wall condition, compressible flow conditions, and a variable boundary layer velocity profile. The handling of the
integral energy and momentum forms was accomplished with a finite difference solution. This approach has been formulated into an IBM digital computer program.

(c) Experimental discharge coefficients (Ref. 2) are illustrated in Fig. 26 as a function of the nondimensional quantity, $L/D \left[ A_0 (A_e - A_r) \right]$. If it is assumed that the experimental discharge coefficients are also valid for plane-flow models where the end affects are negligible and that the axisymmetric "B" term can be replaced by the throat gap for a plane-flow case, the solid-wall segments discharge coefficients can be compared to the predicted experimental values. For the parallel-wall (contour C) chamber, the $L/D \left[ A_0 / (A_e - A_r) \right] = 1.2$; thus, the corresponding experimental discharge coefficient is 0.998. The theoretical value is also approximately 0.998 at a chamber pressure of 650 psia.

(U) The frictional drag along the chamber and nozzle walls can be related to a thrust coefficient decrement as follows:

$$\Delta C_F^{FB, L} = \frac{F_D}{P_c A_t}$$

where

$\Delta C_F = $ decrement of thrust coefficient

$F_D = $ frictional drag, pounds

$P_c = $ chamber pressure, psia

$A_t = $ geometric throat area, in.$^2$

(U) The frictional thrust coefficient efficiency is defined as:

$$\eta C_F^{(Drag)} = \frac{\Delta C_F^{FB, L}}{C_F^{(Ideal)}}$$

where

$C_F^{(Ideal)} = $ ideal thrust coefficient based on chemical equilibrium composition

(c) The thrust coefficient efficiency based on frictional considerations for the nominal (650 psia) chamber pressure was 98.1 percent.
Figure 26. Experimental Throat Discharge Coefficients
Finally, an analysis of the solid-wall test segment was made to determine the performance loss due to a lack of chemical equilibrium in the nozzle flow field. The approximated reaction kinetic (ARK) technique was used to determine the performance losses. For this analysis, the gases were assumed to remain in complete chemical equilibrium until the expansion rate becomes too great for the maintenance of chemical equilibrium and "freezing" occurs. After freezing occurs, the composition was assumed to remain fixed throughout the rest of the nozzle. The freezing point was determined using the Bray freezing criterion. In using the Bray criterion, the expansion rate at each point in the nozzle was compared with the expansion rate required to maintain chemical equilibrium.

To determine the expansion rate at each point in the nozzle, the results of the method of characteristics solution of the flow field was used to break the flow field up into streamtubes. A computer program was used to conduct an ARK analysis on each of these streamtubes, determine the freezing point, and then determine the final exit conditions for each streamtube. An integration across the exit area of the momentum and pressure of each streamtube was then performed to determine the performance of the nozzle.

The results of the two-dimensional analysis indicate kinetic efficiencies ranging from 100 percent at full thrust to 94 percent for fully throttled operation. The expansion rate results in a significant performance loss at low chamber pressures, even though the final area ratio is only 4.0. At higher chamber pressures the freezing area ratio approaches the final area ratio of 4.0 and the losses become insignificant. In a nozzle designed for high performance, the kinetic loss can be reduced significantly by proper design of the initial diverging section of the nozzle. This was not attempted for the test nozzle.

Similar analyses to the above were conducted on the plane flow, 30 degree, straight-wall nozzle with an area ratio of 5.45. The discharge coefficient, drag efficiency, and geometric efficiency are shown for the range of chamber pressures in Fig. 27. The kinetic efficiencies ranged from .995 at 650 psia chamber pressure to .962 at 70 psia chamber pressure.

A detailed stress analysis was conducted to determine the effects of thermal and pressure induced forces on the throat gap during segment operation. The analysis is described in Appendix A. The conclusions drawn from the analysis were: 1) the throat gap deflections resulting from pressure forces and from thermal growth of the entire nozzle block were negligible, 2) significant throat gap variations do result from the steep thermal gradients at the nozzle surface as shown in Fig. 28.
Figure 27. Calculated Nozzle Efficiencies
Figure 28. Throat Shrinkage Resulting from Thermal Loads

Throat Gas-Side Film Heat Transfer Coefficient
Btu/in.\(^2\) - sec.-F

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A. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

a. Test Stand Description

(U) Experimental firings were conducted on test stand Victor in the Propulsion Research Area fluorine facility. A schematic flow diagram is shown in Fig. 29. Liquid fluorine was obtained by condensation of GF₆ (supplied from manifolded 400-psi shipping cylinders) in a liquid nitrogen heat exchanger and was stored in a prechilled, 43-gallon, LN₂-jacketed run tank. Fluorine condensation and transfer procedures, developed over several years, were carried out routinely and without difficulty. Following completion of a set of firings, LF₂ remaining in the tank was allowed to gasify back into the supply bottles.

(U) The fluorine flow system was chilled with jacketed LN₂ from the condenser to within a few inches of the injector, including all valves and flowmeters. Filtered helium was used for fluorine tank pressurization.

(c) The schematic line between the 43-gallon LF₂ tank and the main oxidizer valve shown in Fig. 29 represents two identical supply lines, differing only in the sizes of the installed flowmeters; one line served for flowrates corresponding to chamber pressures of 70 to 300 psia and the other for flowrates corresponding to pressures of 300 to 650 psia.

(U) Gaseous hydrogen was supplied from the area tank farm through a suitable pressure-regulating system. Gaseous nitrogen purges were used on both the oxidizer and fuel sides.

b. Instrumentation

(U) A schematic diagram indicating instrument locations is shown in Fig. 30. Redundant measurements were made of most of the important experimental parameters to increase data reliability. The particular transducers used are described below.

(U) (1) Thrust. The thrust chamber mount was supported on flexures which allow free movement parallel to the engine axis, restrained in the thrust direction by a Baldwin-Lima-Hamilton double-bridge load cell (Model U-382).

(U) (2) Pressure. All pressures were measured with bonded strain gage transducers (Taber "Teledyne" Series 206).

(U) (3) Flowrate. Hydrogen flowrate was measured by a sonic venturi meter. Fluorine flowrate was measured by two turbine flowmeters in series (Fischer-Porter Models 1/2-2 and 1/2-9) in each of the oxidizer supply lines.
Figure 29  Schematic Flow Diagram of Test Stand Victor Propulsion Research Area, as Used in LF₂/GH₂ Experimental Program
Figure 30. Test Instrumentation Schematic
Temperature. Liquid fluorine temperatures were measured with two shielded platinum resistance bulbs in each line (Rosemount Model 176), immersed in the liquid stream, one upstream of the first flowmeter and the other downstream of the second. Hydrogen temperatures in the venturi plenum were measured with iron-constantan thermocouples. Differential inlet-outlet temperatures of the water coolant were measured with three-element, chromel-alumel thermopiles.

c. Data Recording

All pressure, temperature, and flow measurements were recorded on tape during each firing by means of a Beckman Model 210 Data Acquisition and Recording System. This system acquires analog data from the transducers, which it converts to digital form in binary-coded decimal format. The latter were recorded on tapes which were then used for computer processing.

The Beckman Data Acquisition Unit sequentially samples the input channels at a rate of 5025 samples per second. Programmed computer output consists of tables of time vs parameter value, printed out as the instantaneous values at approximately 10-millisecond intervals during the firing or, for extended firings, as the instantaneous values at preselected intervals (or "slices") throughout the firing, together with calibration factors, zero readings, and related data. The same computed results are machine plotted and displayed as CRT outputs on appropriately scaled and labeled grids.

Primary data recording was on the Beckman 210 System. In addition, the following auxiliary recording systems were employed:

1. An eight-channel Brush Mark 200 recorder was used in conjunction with the Beckman unit primarily to establish time intervals for computer data reduction and, additionally, for "quick-look" information on important parameters.

2. Two CEC, 36-channel, direct-reading oscillographs were used as backup for the Beckman 210 System and for recording of coolant water flowrates (which were not recorded on the Beckman).

3. Direct-inking graphic recorders, either Dynalog rotary chart or Esterline-Angus strip chart, were used to set pre-run propellant supply pressures to monitor chilldown time, to provide "quick-look" information, and as secondary backup to the Beckman and oscillograph recorders.

5. SOLID WALL SEGMENT TESTING

During the Solid Wall Segment Evaluation, a total of 128 tests were conducted under the contract. These tests were performed to investigate the effects of combustion chamber and injector variations on the heat transfer and performance characteristics of the segment and to demonstrate the feasibility of tapping hot combustion chamber gases
through the injector for use as a turbine drive fluid. A breakdown of the number and purpose of these tests, together with the range of chamber pressure investigated, is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

SOLID WALL SEGMENT TEST SUMMARY (c)

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<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>No. Tests</th>
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<tr>
<td>Mixture Ratio Bias Effects</td>
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<td>475-518</td>
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</table>

(U) Some overlapping of the various areas existed; for example, the contour characterization tests provided baseline reference point data for the other areas of investigation.

(c) Table 3 is a summary of the operating conditions and performance results for the data producing tests conducted for the solid wall segment evaluation. The column headings refer to the following parameters:

- **Purpose**: Primary test objective. C - contour evaluation, I - injector characterization, B - mixture ratio bias, T - tapoff
- **Chamber**: one of the five chamber contours described in Fig. 21.
- **Injector**: 1, 4 Triplet injectors with 0.037 in. dia. GH<sub>2</sub> orifices
  1-A Triplet injector with 0.043 in. dia. GH<sub>2</sub> orifices
  1-B Triplet injector with 0.55 in. dia. GH<sub>2</sub> orifices
  1-B-1 Triplet injector 1-B with tapoff port
  3 Impinging Fan Injector (single row)
- **Duration**: time from attainment to 90 percent of chamber pressure to decay to 90 percent of chamber pressure
- **P<sub>c</sub>**: stagnation chamber pressure
- **W<sub>T</sub>**: total propellant flowrate (excluding tapoff gas)
- **MR**: mixture ratio, oxidizer/fuel (excluding tapoff gas)
- **F**: measured thrust
- **A<sub>t</sub>**: geometric area of throat
- **C*<sub>theo</sub>**: theoretical value of C* at listed P<sub>c</sub> and MR
- **(π C*<sub>P</sub>)/C*<sub>theo</sub>**: ratio of experimental C* based on P<sub>c</sub> to C*<sub>theo</sub>
- **(π C*<sub>F</sub>)/C*<sub>theo</sub>**: ratio of experimental C* based on F to C*<sub>theo</sub>
### Table 3
PERFORMANCE DATA SUMMARY

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<th>$w_{th}$ lb/sec</th>
<th>$A_t$ in$^2$</th>
<th>$C_{th}^*$ ft/sec</th>
<th>$\langle C^* \rangle_p$ ft/sec</th>
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<th>$B_{th}$ stress x10$^4$</th>
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*Tapoff thrust effect not measured
The measured values (averaged where multiple instrumentation is used) of chamber pressure, propellant mixture ratio (O/F), total propellant flowrate, segment throat area, and thrust level are presented. The theoretical C* efficiency based on chamber pressure and mixture ratio is tabulated together with the calculated values of C* based on both chamber pressure and thrust measurements. The experimental gas film throat heat transfer coefficients are also tabulated for each test.

Reproductions of typical CRT (Cathode Ray Tube) plots of chamber pressure and thrust are shown in Fig. 31 and 32. The cutoff characteristic was peculiar to the facility LP2 valve used. For performance calculations, more precise values of these parameters were obtained from the on-line printout values of the Decker data which provided finely incremented point-to-point data as well as time-averaged data over any specified time increment.

6. PERFORMANCE DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of the performance data was directed toward determining the effects of thrust level, chamber contour, and injector pattern on the characteristic velocity efficiency, η_c*, of the segment. The goal of this effort was to obtain an injector/chamber combination having a C* efficiency in excess of 97 percent over the entire throttling range. The methods of analysis of the test data included application of factors to account for heat losses, throat discharge coefficient, drag, reaction kinetics, nozzle flow divergence, nozzle throat shrinkage, segment base pressure, and static-to-stagnation chamber pressure conversions.

a. Analysis Method

The basis of comparison of combustion performance is characteristic velocity (C*) efficiency (percent of theoretical shifting equilibrium characteristic velocity). Characteristic velocity was calculated by two independent methods, one based on measured chamber pressure and the other on measured thrust. Standard equations were used, with corrections applied for energy losses and for departures from ideal, one-dimensional flow which were calculated by the methods described in Ref. 3.

Calculations Based on Chamber Pressure. Characteristic velocity efficiency based on chamber pressure is defined by the following equation:

\[ \eta_{C*} = \frac{(P_c)_o (A_t)_{eff}^z}{(\dot{w}_T) (C*)_{theo}} \]  

(1)
Figure 31. CRT Plot of Chamber Pressure vs Time
Figure 32. CRT Plot of Thrust vs Time
where

\( \frac{V_{c^*}}{c_{\text{theo}}} \) = theoretical characteristic velocity based on shifting equilibrium

Equation 1 may therefore be written as follows:

\[
\frac{V_{c^*}}{c_{\text{theo}}} = \frac{P_c A_t g f_p f_{\text{dis}} f_{FR} f_{HL} f_{TE}}{(\dot{W}_o + \dot{W}_f) (c^*)_{\text{theo}}}
\]

where

- \( P_c \) = measured static pressure at start of nozzle convergence, psia
- \( A_t \) = measured geometric throat area, in.\(^2\)
- \( g \) = gravitational acceleration, ft/sec\(^2\)
- \( \dot{W}_o \) = oxidizer weight flowrate, lb/sec
- \( \dot{W}_f \) = fuel weight flowrate, lb/sec
- \( (c^*)_{\text{theo}} \) = theoretical \( C^* \) based on shifting equilibrium, ft/sec
- \( f_p \) = factor correcting observed static pressure to throat stagnation pressure
- \( f_{\text{dis}} \) = factor correcting throat area for effective discharge coefficient
- \( f_{TE} \) = factor correcting throat area for thermal expansion effects
- \( f_{FR} \) = factor correcting measured chamber pressure for frictional drag of combustion gases at chamber wall
- \( f_{HL} \) = factor correcting measured chamber pressure for heat losses from combustion gases to chamber wall

For \( C^* \) based on chamber pressure, the applicable corrections are as follows:

1. **Correction for measured static chamber pressure to stagnation pressure.** Measured static pressure at start of nozzle convergence is normally corrected to throat stagnation pressure by assumption of no combustion in the nozzle and application of the isentropic flow equations. At high
contraction ratios, however, such as those in the present chambers (ranging from 8 to 18), the static/stagnation pressure ratio is very nearly unity, so that no specific correction is necessary.

2. Correction for heat loss to chamber walls. The applicable correction is obtained from measured heat flux to the coolant water by use of the following expression (Ref. 3):

\[
f_{HL} = 1 + \left[ \frac{1}{\eta C_s^2} \right] \left[ \frac{Q}{W_T} \right] \left[ \frac{1}{C_p T_c} \right]^{1/2}
\]  

where

- \( f_{HL} \) = heat loss correction factor
- \( Q \) = measured total heat flowrate (Btu/sec) to chamber walls and coolant, from injector face to plane of the throat
- \( W_T \) = measured total propellant flowrate (lb/sec)
- \( C_p \) = specific heat of combustion gas, frozen equilibrium (Btu/lb/R)
- \( T_c \) = theoretical chamber temperature at test condition, R

3. Correction for drag loss. In high contraction ratio chambers, gas velocity in the combustion chamber is very low, hence this loss is negligibly small and no specific correction was used.

4. Correction for throat discharge coefficient. Application of the theoretical and empirical correlations for throat discharge coefficient described in the previous subsection 3 to the throat of the present thrust chambers resulted in a discharge coefficient of 0.998.

5. Correction of throat area for thermal expansion effects. The magnitude of this correction is a function of the gas side film heat transfer coefficient and, therefore, depends on the injector/chamber geometry and the chamber pressure. The value of the correction therefore was necessarily determined for each configuration and test condition. The calculation method is described in Appendix A.

(U) Calculations Based on Thrust. The alternate determination of \( C^* \) efficiency is based on the following defining equation:

\[
\eta_{C^*} = \frac{P_{vac} \ W}{(C_p)^{vac} W_T C^* \text{theo}}
\]
where

\[ F_{\text{vac}} = \text{vacuum thrust, corrected, lb} \]
\[ g = \text{gravitational acceleration, ft/sec}^2 \]
\[ (C_p)_{\text{vac}} = \text{theoretical shifting thrust coefficient (vacuum)} \]
\[ \dot{W}_T = \text{total propellant weight flowrate, lb/sec} \]
\[ C^*_{\text{theo}} = \text{theoretical shifting-equilibrium characteristic velocity, ft/sec} \]

By application of suitable corrections to measurements of thrust made at sea level, corrected values of vacuum thrust may be obtained. With these values, which include allowances for all important departures from ideality, theoretical thrust coefficients may be used for calculation of \( C^* \), i.e., \( C_F \) efficiency is 100 percent if there is no combustion in the nozzle, if chemical equilibrium is maintained in the nozzle expansion process, and if energy losses from the combustion gases are accounted for.

Applicable corrections to measured thrust are specified in the following equation:

\[
\eta_{C^*} = \frac{(F + P_a A_c g (C_p)_{\text{theo}} \dot{w}_0 \dot{w}_F (C^*)_{\text{theo}})}{(C_p)_{\text{theo}} (\dot{w}_0 + \dot{w}_F) (C^*)_{\text{theo}}}
\]  

where

\[ F = \text{measured thrust, pounds} \]
\[ P_a = \text{ambient pressure, psia} \]
\[ A_c = \text{area of nozzle exit, in.}^2 \]
\[ g = 32.17 \text{ ft/sec}^2 \]
\[ (C_p)_{\text{theo}} = \text{theoretical shifting thrust coefficient (vacuum)} \]
\[ \dot{w}_0 = \text{measured oxidizer weight flowrate, lb/sec} \]
\[ \dot{w}_F = \text{measured fuel weight flowrate, lb/sec} \]
\[ (C^*)_{\text{theo}} = \text{theoretical shifting equilibrium characteristic velocity, ft/sec} \]
\[ \phi_{FR} = \text{correction for frictional losses} \]
\[ \phi_{DIV} = \text{correction for nozzle divergence} \]
\[ \phi_{HL} = \text{correction for heat losses to chamber and nozzle walls} \]
\[ \phi_k = \text{correction for chemical kinetic losses} \]
(U) For C* based on measurement of thrust, the applicable corrections are as follows:

(U) **Correction for Frictional Drag.** This factor corrects for the energy losses due to drag forces resulting from the viscous action of the combustion gases on the thrust chamber walls. Its magnitude, which is the integral of the local friction forces over the chamber and nozzle inside walls, was determined by means of a boundary-layer analysis utilizing the integral momentum equation for turbulent flow. This analysis accounts for boundary-layer effects from the injector to the nozzle exit by suitable description of the boundary layer profile and local skin friction coefficient. This analysis was conducted as described in the previous subsection 3.

(U) **Correction for Nozzle Divergence.** The one-dimensional theoretical performance calculations assume that flow at the nozzle exit is uniform and parallel to the nozzle axis. The correction factor, $\phi_{DIV}$, allows for nozzle divergence, i.e., for nonaxial flow and for nonuniformity across the nozzle exit plane. It was calculated by means of a computer program which utilized the axisymmetric method of characteristics for a variable property gas. Computation begins with a transonic analysis using series expansions of the differential equations of motion near Mach 1 to calculate the irrotational flow field. This provides a characteristic line for use in the analysis of the supersonic portion of the nozzle. The resulting pressures are integrated over the given geometry. This analysis was conducted as described in the previous subsection 3.

(U) **Correction for Chemical Kinetic Losses ($\phi_C$).** These losses account for energy which is not recovered by recombination of disassociated species in the combustion products. The losses were calculated according to the method described in the previous subsection 3.

(U) **Correction for Heat Losses ($\phi_{HL}$).** The correction for heat losses was based on the method of Ref. 3.

$$
\phi_{HL} = \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{1}{18} \right) \left( \frac{Q}{\dot{W}_T} \right) \left( \frac{205}{g} \right) \right]^{1/2}
$$

where

- $\phi_{HL}$ = heat loss correction factor
- $I_s$ = measured specific impulse, seconds
- $Q$ = measured heat loss (Btu/sec) between injector face and nozzle exit
- $\dot{W}_T$ = measured total propellant flowrate, lb/sec
- $\zeta = 1 - (T_e/T_c)$
- $T_e$ = gas temperature at nozzle exit, R
- $T_c$ = gas temperature in combustion chamber, K

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(C) **Correction for Base Pressure.** Pressure measurements at various locations on the base of the water-cooled segments indicated that for the higher values of chamber pressure (i.e., 300 psia) an aspiration of the base was occurring which required a thrust correction of approximately 0.7 percent. These measurements and data are described in Appendix B.

b. **Analysis Results - Contour Effects**

(U) Five combustion chamber contours (A through E) were evaluated during the contract effort. The performance, based on chamber pressure measurements, of each of the contours when tested with the same triplet injector configuration is shown in Fig. 33. While only performance values based on chamber pressure were plotted, values for both chamber pressure and thrust measurement methods are shown in Table 3. Generally good agreement was obtained between the values obtained with the two methods. Comparison of the performance of the five contours is shown on Fig. 34.

(C) The efficiency curves of the "rounded" chambers (contours A and B) exhibit a minimum point at approximately 350 psia which is not evident with contour C. In the latter, there is no significant variation in C* efficiency over the entire pressure range tested from its average value of 98 percent.

(U) To explain these results, a convenient parameter for indicating variation in chamber contour is used which shows the fraction of "excess" width:

\[
\frac{W_2 - W_1}{W_1}
\]

where

- \(W_1\) = width of injector (1 inch in all cases)
- \(W_2\) = maximum width of combustion chamber
- \(W_2 = 3\) inches in Contour A
- \(W_2 = 2\) inches in Contour B
- \(W_2 = 1\) inch in Contour C

(U) Variation in C* efficiency with this parameter is shown in Fig. 35 for three levels of chamber pressure. Atomization of LE₂ in a triplet gas-liquid element occurs in two stages, (1) primary atomization at the point of gas-liquid impingement where atomization results from LE₂ impingement and gas impingement, and (2) secondary atomization after the gas-liquid impingement; the rate of further atomization being a function of many variables including the available time for gas-liquid interaction.
Figure 33. Effect of Chamber Pressure on C* Performance on Contours A through E.
Figure 34. Comparison of $C^*$ Performance for Contours A through E.
Figure 35. Variation of C* Efficiency With Chamber Contour Parameter
In contours A and B, the diverging chamber allows the GH₂ to expand around the fluorine so that secondary atomization is restricted. As chamber pressure (LF₂ flowrate) is reduced, the primary atomization becomes less effective because of the reduced LF₂ injection velocity. However, below a certain chamber pressure the amount of fluorine vaporized in the injector becomes significant so that the fluorine injection velocity actually increases with reduction of chamber pressure. The result is that primary atomization is improved and performance increases as chamber pressure is reduced. Improved primary atomization would also result from the introduction of heated GH₂ into the injector as in the actual operating condition for the tube-wall thrust chamber (note this effect was subsequently demonstrated in the tube-wall segments tests of Task III).

Bringing the chamber walls progressively closer to the injector spray (contours A, B, and C) increased the effectiveness of secondary atomization and subsequent spray distribution by restricting the lighter GU₂ from expanding around and away from the impinging LF₂ streams. However, as the chamber wall was contoured to further intersect the elements of the spray (i.e., contour E) secondary atomization was impaired and large droplets tended to accumulate on the chamber wall. A progressive lowering in performance can be expected in modifying the chamber contour such that increased interaction occurs. Conversely, the slight improvement of performance in contour D compared to contour E is attributable to the reduction in interaction obtained by lengthening the chamber.

As will be discussed in the heat transfer analysis section, the conditions which promote interaction also tend to result in initiation of boundary layer growth close to the injector, a condition desirable for reduction of chamber heat flux. To test these effects, a contour was fabricated and tested under company sponsorship which converged continuously from the one inch wide injector to the nozzle inlet section (contour F). As anticipated, the increased interaction in this segment configuration resulted in a reduction of performance below the contour E value. The Cₚ efficiency of this modified contour was approximately 95 percent.

c. Effect of Hydrogen Injection Velocity

The degree of liquid atomization produced by the triplet injector configuration is a function of the hydrogen injection momentum which, at a given flowrate, is directly dependent upon injection velocity. An optimum hydrogen injection velocity is one which results in the best degree of LF₂ atomization. The hydrogen orifices of the triplet injector (D = 0.0372 inch) result in an injection Mach number of 0.9 using ambient temperature GH₂. Two enlargements of the orifices, to give successive injection Mach number of 0.65 and 0.4, were evaluated. Performance results in contour C are shown in Fig. 36, in which Cₚ efficiencies of each of the injector configurations are plotted. Decrease in hydrogen injection Mach number from 0.9 to 0.65 resulted in a 3-percent performance degradation (98 to 95 percent); the single firing at Mach number 0.4 indicated no significant further performance decrease.
Figure 36 - Variation of $\eta_{C2}^*$ Efficiency With $OH_2$ Injection Mach Number, Triplet Injector, Chamber Contour C.
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(C) Correlation of performance results exhibited by liquid-gas-liquid triplet injectors was made in terms of the ratio of liquid mass to be atomized to the energy available for atomization (the gas momentum):

\[ \frac{\dot{m}_0}{\dot{m}_F V_F} \]

(C) At constant mixture ratio, \( \frac{\dot{m}_0}{\dot{m}_F} \), only the hydrogen gas velocity, \( V_F \), influence this parameter. The triplet injector results are summarized in Fig. 37 showing \( C^* \) efficiency as a function of the parameter. The general shape of the curve shown agrees with \( L_0/GH_2 \) data obtained in other programs using triplet injector designs. In these related programs, maximum efficiencies with this injector type occurred when the parameter, \( \frac{\dot{m}_0}{\dot{m}_F V_F} \), was in the \( 1.5 \times 10^{-3} \) to \( 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \) range. The data in Fig. 37 suggest that, at a value of approximately \( 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \), the injector would deliver near-theoretical \( C^* \) levels (approximately 99 percent) over the entire chamber pressure range, using a chamber contour of the \( C \) type.

(C) The test conditions for the solid wall segment, employing ambient temperature hydrogen gas (approximately 540 K), prevented actual experimentation at a value of \( \dot{m}_0/\dot{m}_F V_F = 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \) because the injection Mach number limited the injection velocity obtainable. Under actual engine operating conditions, however, a value of \( 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \) could readily be achieved since, for \( H_2 \) injection temperatures on the order of 1000 K, the required injection Mach number would be approximately 0.89. The performance levels (approximately 98 percent) obtained experimentally with ambient temperature \( GH_2 \) simulate the approximate condition of heated hydrogen injection Mach number of 0.66. It will be noted later that when heated hydrogen was used in the tube-wall segment tests (Task III) performance in excess of 99 percent \( C^* \) actually was achieved over the entire chamber pressure range.

d. Alternate Injector Type

(C) As an alternate to the basic triplet injector pattern, a second injection element concept called the "impinging fan" was evaluated. This configuration, shown schematically in Fig. 12, involved the formation of two spray fans by self-impingement of two pairs of fluorine streams followed by intersection of the fans over a central, high-velocity gaseous hydrogen jet.

(C) The first impinging fan injector that was designed and fabricated consisted of 10 elements uniformly spaced along the center of the injector. A sketch of the estimated approximate fan perimeter in the plane approximately 1 inch from the injector face is shown in Fig. 38.
Figure 37: Variation of C Efficiency with Atomization Parameter, Triplet Injector
Figure 38. Approximate Fan Perimeters - 10 Element Impinging Fan Pattern
It is evident that the concentration of the liquid mass at the center of the injector has the same effect as that obtained by increasing the chamber wall separation (as in contours A and B). The lessened C* efficiency of these two contours in comparison to that of contour C indicates that this impinging fan injector design might also show performance degradation. Analysis of data from tests of this injector in contour E resulted in performance approximately 3 percent lower than that of the triplet injector. This single row impinging fan injector was designed for ease of fabrication. It provided a data point for the tradeoff between performance and simplicity.

Based on this experience, a second impinging fan injector was designed to provide improved propellant distribution. It contained a total of 14 elements, arranged in three rows on a two inch wide injector face. In addition, the 14-element injector had three axial GH2 orifices per element. The diameters of these orifices were matched to the LF2 mass distribution in the impinging fan. This injector was described earlier and is illustrated in Fig. 15.

To accommodate three rows of elements, a 2-inch injector and corresponding combustion chamber were designed. The new chamber had a contour that converged continuously at a 15 degree angle from the injector to the throat. This contour was chosen for heat transfer reasons and was called contour G. Performance of the contour G/impinging fan injector combination was approximately 96.5 percent of theoretical C*. Historically, this was the point at which a good correlation of the data in terms of the wall interaction model was obtained. Subsequent redesign of the injector to eliminate the interaction resulted in C* efficiency performance in excess of 99 percent. The first three row impinging fan injector achieved similar performance subsequently when tested with heated hydrogen in the Task III tube-wall segments by virtue of its increased hydrogen injection velocity and its ability to atomize and vaporize the LF2 to the extent that the interaction influences were greatly reduced.

e. Mixture Ratio Bias

The purpose of these tests was to determine the effects of wall film coolant on heat transfer rates and performance. Two performance data producing tests were conducted in a contour E chamber using the mixture ratio bias adapter described on Page 31. This adapter permitted independent control of the GH2 flowrates to the injector (core) and to the bias orifices. The results of these tests are presented in Table 4.
TABLE 4

MIXTURE RATIO BIAS RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chamber Pressure (psia)</th>
<th>GH₂ Bias, percent</th>
<th>Mixture Ratio, O/F</th>
<th>C* Reduction, percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>435</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>501</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(C) The large reduction in C* efficiency (from a nominal reference value of 96.5 percent) is partially attributable to off-design operation of the injector core mixture ratio. Additional testing with redesigned injectors would be required to separate this effect from the actual film cooling effect on performance although it is expected that significant performance recovery could be achieved by redesign. The data from these two tests also indicated that the relationship between performance and amount of film cooling was highly nonlinear in the region investigated.

f. Injector Tapoff

(C) Nine tests were conducted using the tapoff injector configuration described on Page 33 to demonstrate injector structural integrity, degree of injector performance degradation, and tapoff gas properties over the throttling range.

(U) The facility and instrumentation setup used for the tapoff test series are shown schematically in Fig. 39. The tapoff gas flowed into an enlarged tube which served as a plenum chamber for the sonic orifice located at the exit. The sonic orifice simulated the turbine nozzles and therefore was the flow-regulating device for the system. The mixture ratio of the tapoff gases was controlled by the annular gap between the injector and the tapoff tube and by the depth of insertion of the tapoff tube as described earlier. A series of thermocouples was installed along the length of the tube to verify that combustion had been completed prior to flowing through the sonic orifice. The measured temperature, T, of the tapoff gas was used to determine the mixture ratio and molecular weight, M, of the gas (based upon the gas properties shown in Fig. 40). For the relatively low temperatures and mixture ratios associated with tapoff gases, the molecular weight is nearly independent of pressure. The pressure measurement, P, was used in the following equation primarily to determine the flowrate, \( \dot{W} \).

\[ \dot{W} = K C_D A P (M/29T)^{1/2} \]

where K depends upon the specific heat ratio for the gas but is approximately 0.53 for the conditions tested. The discharge coefficient is \( C_D \) and the area of the sonic orifice is represented by A.
Figure 39. Tapoff System Instrumentation Schematic
Figure 40. Molecular Weight and Combustion Temperature for LF₂/GH₂
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(U) The tests were to investigate only steady-state operation because the actual transient will depend upon the configurations of several components not included in the test hardware; e.g., control valves and turbopump. A GN2 purge was introduced into the plenum chamber and injector to eliminate transient off-mixture-ratio conditions at start. The purge was improperly sequenced during the first three tests of this series which resulted in some damage to the tapoff tubes.

(C) One of these tests was successful (no tapoff tube overheating) and resulted in a tapoff gas temperature of approximately 160°F. This was achieved with an annular gap of 0.006 inch and with the tapoff tube recessed 0.30 inch behind the injector face. On the two remaining tests, the tapoff tube burned. On the two unsuccessful tests, the GN2 purge has been terminated prematurely during the start transient. The purge termination was subsequently delayed until completion of start transition. No further difficulties were encountered thereafter and the injector, and tapoff tubes were in good condition after the subsequent test series.

(C) Because the temperature of the tapoff gases during the first test was based upon extrapolating transient data (a shielded thermocouple was used) it was decided to enlarge the annular gap to 0.012 inch. Three tests conducted with this gap size resulted in relatively low temperatures. The gap was then reduced to 0.009 inch, and tests were conducted at chamber pressures ranging from 290 to 483 psia. The tapoff gas temperature varied from 940 to 1030°F over this range of pressures. Test conditions and results are summarized in Table 5.

(C)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Number</th>
<th>Gap, inches</th>
<th>Recess, inches</th>
<th>Chamber Pressure, psia</th>
<th>Gas Temperature, F</th>
<th>Tapoff Flow, percent</th>
<th>C* percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>113</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>112</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>1600*</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>1020</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>93.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>129</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>940</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>92.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>131</td>
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<td>0.30</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>1030</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>91.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>117</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>90.5</td>
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<td>118</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>468</td>
<td>400</td>
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<tr>
<td>116</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>90.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Extrapolated
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(C) Data from the first two tests with relatively high tapoff gas temperature indicate that high injector performance can be maintained by the proper combination of annular gap and tapoff tube insertion depth. It should be noted that the design gas temperature for the engine is in this range (1500°F).

g. Feed System Stability

(C) Feed system stability is related to the injector pressure drops. Because the gaseous hydrogen pressure drop varies almost linearly with flowrate, a relatively high \( \text{GH}_2 \) injection pressure drop is maintained over the entire throttle range. The pressure drop on the fluorine side of the injector would vary with the square of the flowrate if the fluorine were liquid throughout the throttle range. This would result in a variation of 81:1 in \( \Delta P \) over the throttling range of 9:1. For a design pressure drop of 160 psi at full thrust this would result in an \( \text{LF}_2 \) pressure drop of only 2 psi when throttled to the lowest thrust level.

(U) Fortunately, as the chamber is throttled the heat input to the fluorine (Btu/lb) from the combustion gases and (in the regeneratively cooled chamber) from the heated \( \text{GH}_2 \) increases and results in partial gasification of the \( \text{LF}_2 \). Only a small amount of vaporization is necessary to significantly increase the pressure drop and stabilize the oxidizer injection system. If this vaporization begins to occur at a sufficiently high thrust level such that the \( \text{LF}_2 \) pressure drop is adequate for stability, the system will be stable over the entire throttling range.

(C) Solid wall segment tests conducted early in the program with ambient temperature \( \text{GH}_2 \) experienced feed-system-coupled instabilities on tests attempted below approximately 170 psia. The magnitude of these oscillations was reduced by orificing the facility so that operation at chamber pressures as low as 65 psia was possible although oscillations were intermittently present on some of the tests. Under a company sponsored effort, the three-row triplet injector was operated at thrust levels down to less than 8 percent of rated thrust. The resulting variation of pressure drop and chamber pressure is shown in Fig. 41. Almost all of the \( \text{LF}_2 \) was vaporized at the lowest chamber pressure (the percent vaporization increases rapidly for throttling ratios greater than approximately 8:1) with resulting stable operation. It will be shown in Section IV that stable operation over the throttling range resulted when an injector with an even lower nominal value of \( \Delta P_{\text{inj}}/P_c \) was used in a tube wall segment with the heated hydrogen fed into the injector.
h. Significant Performance Results

(C) The results of the solid wall segment test evaluation program have demonstrated important trends in the effects of contour shape on the C* efficiency and that high efficiencies can be obtained by taking advantage of these effects. The importance of H₂ injection velocity was also shown to be significant, and the magnitude of the C* efficiency attainable (99 percent) with heated hydrogen was accurately predicted. Mixture ratio bias tests, while of a preliminary nature, did indicate that significant performance losses could result from application of this method of heat transfer rate control. The injector tapoff test results indicated that, by proper selection of geometric parameters, high performance and constant tapoff gas properties could be maintained over the chamber pressure range tested (290 to 485 psia).
7. HEAT TRANSFER ANALYSIS

Analysis of the test data was directed towards determining the effect of various parameters on the heat transfer rates throughout the thrust chamber and, particularly, at the throat of the nozzle. The effects of chamber geometry, injector pattern, propellant injection velocities, mixture ratio bias, hot gas tapoff, and surface effects were evaluated. A summary of experimental parameter variations is shown in Table 6.

The method of analyzing the heat transfer data is first discussed followed by presentation of the results for each of the above effects.

a. Method of Analysis

The heat transfer test data included the coolant water flowrate and overall bulk temperature rise for each transverse water coolant passage in the chamber nozzle. The water flowrates were measured with turbine flowmeters, and the bulk temperature rises were determined with chromel-alumel thermopiles installed to measure directly the difference between the inlet and outlet temperatures at each passage.

The heat transfer rate into each water passage is given, in terms of the water flowrate \( m \) the water specific heat \( C_p \), and the water bulk temperature rise \( \Delta T_w \) by:

\[
Q = m C_p \Delta T_w
\]

The average chamber heat flux in the region of each coolant passage is obtained by associating a one-dimensional gas-side heat transfer area with the passage and dividing the heat transfer rate into the passage by the appropriate area:

\[
\frac{Q}{A} = \frac{m C_p}{A} \Delta T_w
\]

The coolant-side film coefficient is computed using the relation:

\[
h_c = 0.023 \left( \frac{k}{D} \right)^{0.8} \left( \frac{V}{D} \right)^{0.4} \left( \frac{P}{k} \right)^{0.4} \]

where \( k \), \( \rho \), \( \mu \), and \( V \) are the thermal conductivity, density, viscosity and velocity respectively of the coolant water.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variation</th>
<th>Range (psia)</th>
<th>Number of Tests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Throat Convergence Angle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 degree - Contour E</td>
<td>316-604</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 degree - Contour C</td>
<td>65-511</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combusion Chamber Contour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round - Contour A</td>
<td>305-616</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curved - Contour B</td>
<td>106-566</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straight - Contour C, D, and E</td>
<td>65-604</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Converging - Contour F and G</td>
<td>63-666</td>
<td>80</td>
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<tr>
<td>Combusion Chamber Length</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.5 in. - Contour E</td>
<td>316-604</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.0 in. - Contour D</td>
<td>303-559</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>Injector Pattern (Basic)</td>
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<td>Triplet</td>
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<td>Contour C</td>
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<td>Contour E</td>
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<tr>
<td>Impinging Fan</td>
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<td>Contour C</td>
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<td>Hydrogen Injection Velocity</td>
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<td>Chamber Wall Surface Condition</td>
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<td>Nickel Plating</td>
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<td>Chrome Plating</td>
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<td>$GF_{2}$ vs $L_{2}$ Injection</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contour E - Triplet</td>
<td>20-49</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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A coolant -side wall temperature, $T_{WC}$, assuming forced convection with no nucleate boiling is then computed from the bulk temperature, $T_B$, as:

$$T_{WC} = T_B + \frac{q/A}{h_c}$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

If this value exceeds the coolant saturation temperature, $T_{SAT}$, the coolant-side is assumed to be in a nucleate boiling regime and the coolant-side wall temperature is found by the relation:

$$T_{WC} = T_{SAT} + 50$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

Otherwise, the value for forced convection given by Eq. 10 is used. An average gas-side film coefficient is then obtained for each passage using the one-dimensional equation:

$$h_g = \frac{q/A}{(T_{AW} - T_{WC}) - \frac{L}{k_w} q/A}$$  \hspace{1cm} (12)

$X$ and $k_w$ are the effective thickness and thermal conductivity, respectively, of the wall between the chamber and the cooling passage. The adiabatic wall temperature, $T_{AW}$ is obtained from the actual combustion temperature by the relation:

$$T_{AW} = T_c \left( 1 + \frac{3}{N_{PR}} \frac{Y-1}{2} \frac{M^2}{M_\infty} \right) \left( 1 + \frac{Y-1}{2} \frac{M^2}{M_\infty} \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (13)

$N_{PR}$ is the Prandtl number, $Y$ is the specific heat ratio, and $M_\infty$ is the free-stream gas Mach number.

The actual combustion temperature, $T_c$, is given in terms of the ideal combustion temperature corresponding to 100 percent combustion efficiency by:

$$T_c = T_{C_{ideal}} \eta C^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (14)

Although the coolant passage geometry is highly two-dimensional, a one-dimensional relation such as Eq. 12 will yield correct heat transfer coefficients if the proper value of the wall thickness is used. Use of the arithmetic average between the maximum and minimum "reaches" for each passage is substantiated by the conduction analysis of the segment chamber (Appendix A).
During short duration tests (2-5 seconds), the high heat-sink capacity of the copper block in the region behind the coolant passages prevents the chamber from entirely reaching steady-state operation. As a result, a slight amount of heat leaks past the coolant passage into the copper backup structure. The amount of leakage depends upon the coolant spacing and the local heat flux. For the small spacings and heat-transfer rates characteristic of the test segments, the results of a two-dimensional transient conduction analysis indicate that the amount of heat leakage should be less than 0.5 percent in the throat region and less than 2 percent in the lower heat flux regions of the combustion zone.

Heat-transfer data correlations using either the local heat flux or gas-side flow coefficient have two distinct disadvantages: (1) these parameters are functions of chamber pressure, propellant combustion, mixture ratio, and characteristic velocity efficiency; and (2) these parameters vary strongly with the local mass velocity (area ratio) and therefore increase at a rapid rate in the throat region. A more general correlating parameter can be obtained by non-dimensionalizing the heat transfer coefficient by dividing it by \( \frac{\rho V_{0}}{\mu} \) to form the Stanton number and multiplying by \( \left( \frac{C_{p} \mu}{\rho V_{0}} \right)^{2/3} \), thereby forming the Stanton-Prandtl parameter which is related to Reynolds number based upon the momentum boundary layer thickness through the modified Reynolds' analogy

\[
N_{ST} \times N_{PR}^{2/3} = \left( \frac{\rho V_{0}}{\mu} \right)^{-0.25}
\]  

(15)

where \( \delta \) is the momentum boundary layer thickness.

This relation indicates that the Stanton-Prandtl parameter is a weak function of local mass velocity and hence chamber pressure, area ratio, and characteristic velocity efficiency, and also a weak function of combustion product properties. It can be used to provide a direct indication of the local boundary layer development. The distribution of this parameter along a thrust chamber wall surface indicates which regions of the chamber contour are effective in promoting boundary layer growth.

In addition, using turbulent flow analogies between energy and momentum transfer, the Stanton-Prandtl parameter can be closely related to the skin friction coefficient. For flow over a flat plate

\[
N_{ST} \times N_{PR}^{2/3} = \frac{C_{f}}{2}
\]  

(16)

This relationship is affected by the presence of free-stream turbulence, pressure gradients, and surface roughness. However, based upon this simplified relationship of Eq. 16, typical experimental values of skin friction coefficient vs length Reynolds number can be used to indicate approximate values of \( N_{ST} \times N_{PR}^{2/3} \).
Since none of the coolant passages are located exactly at the nozzle throat, several methods were considered for extrapolating measured average heat transfer rates to obtain throat peak values. The method adopted involves plotting the average values of $N_{ST} \times N_{PR}^{2/3}$ vs area ratio on both the upstream and downstream sides in the throat region. A typical plot is shown in Fig. 42. Local average values of the Stanton-Prandtl parameter are plotted over the area ratio region associated with each passage. A predicted continuous distribution is obtained by a graphic integration, and the throat peak value is determined. A throat peak gas-side film coefficient adjusted to a mixture ratio of 13.0 is obtained from the relation:

$$h_{peak} = \left( N_{ST} \times N_{PR}^{2/3} \right) \left( \frac{m_{total}}{A_{throat}} \right) (c_p)$$  \hspace{1cm} (17)

The throat peak heat flux for a wall temperature of 1600°F is computed by:

$$\frac{q}{A} = h_{peak} (T_{AW} - 1600)$$  \hspace{1cm} (18)

b. Contour Variations

The contour variables investigated were the convergence angle, the contour curvature, and the distance from the injector to the throat. The influence of convergence angle is seen by comparing contour C and E data. Data from contours A, B, and C provide information to compare combustion chamber curvature effects. The results of the tests of contour D and E indicate the effects of chamber length. For each of these comparisons, a common injector was used (basic triplet) so that this influence would not be present. (For contour geometries, refer to Figures 20, 21, 22, 24, and 25).

(c) Throat Convergence Angle (15 degree vs 30 degree). A comparison of the data from contours C and E presented in Fig. 43 show a substantial reduction in the local heat transfer rates in the convergence section, throat, and low-area-ratio diverging region of the nozzle for the 15-degree converging angle nozzle over the 30-degree converging angle values. However, it appears that this reduction should not be attributed to the reduced convergence angle, but rather to the accompanying increase in convergence section length. The length from the start of convergence to the throat is approximately 2.1 inches for contour E and only 1.3 inches for contour C. The local heat transfer rate distribution is plotted as a function of length along the contour from the start of convergence for the 30-degree and 15-degree chambers in Fig. 44. This shows that, at the same convergence length from the start of convergence, the 15-degree chamber rates are similar to the 30-degree rates. The gas-dynamic start of convergence does not correspond exactly to the geometric point (plotted) and may explain the displacement between the curves in Fig. 44.
Figure 43. Effect of Convergence Angle on Nozzle Heat Transfer for 3.5 Inch Chamber Length Segment
Figure 44. Comparison of 15- and 30-Degree Throat Convergence Angle Heat Transfer Rates - Effect of Length Along Contour From Start of Convergence
Since the heat transfer rate distributions for both configurations show rapid reduction in the local Stanton-Prandtl number beginning at the start of convergence and continuing into the nozzle, it is probable that the lower throat region heat transfer rates of the 15-degree chamber resulted from the additional convergent length. The fact that the local heat transfer rates fall off rapidly in the convergence section indicates that the favorable pressure gradient plays an important part in stabilizing the boundary layer and in promoting its growth.

The NgT x Np^2/3 profiles for the identical nozzle portions of contours B and C were found to be essentially the same (Fig. 45) indicating that there were no lasting effects resulting from the differing upstream combustion-zone geometries. Contour A did not have a separate nozzle section nor did the expansion region continue much beyond the throat. The basic flow convergence appears to start approximately one inch upstream of the throat where it is seen (Fig. 46) that the data tend to coalesce markedly. The NgT x Np^2/3 parameter then decreases rapidly as the throat is approached, and the flow is rapidly accelerated. The resulting throat heat transfer rates for contour A are slightly higher than the values for the 15-degree convergence half-angle nozzle geometry of contour E.

Combustion Chamber Length. Combustion chamber lengths of 3.5 and 5.0 inches (axial distance from injector to throat) were tested with the 15-degree convergence-angle throat section. Heat transfer measurements were obtained for these two configurations (contour D and E) in the throat region only, since the combustion zone sections used with these configurations were uncooled in the initial test configurations. The throat-region heat transfer rates for the two combustor lengths tested are compared in Fig. 47 and no significant difference was observed for these two particular geometries.

c. Injector Types and Variations

The effects of two injector characteristics (the injector face pattern and the H_2 injection velocity) were investigated.

 Injector Pattern (Triplet vs Fan). One test was conducted with the impinging fan injector in contour C (the straight wall chamber with a 30-degree converging angle nozzle). Seven tests were conducted with thin injector in the contour E (straight wall chamber with a 15-degree converging angle nozzle).

Heat transfer data for the entire combustion zone and nozzle were obtained for the contour C firing. The heat transfer rates are compared to those obtained with the triplet injector in the same contour in Fig. 48. The variation with length was very similar for both injector types, although the magnitudes differ, indicating that the tests were a valid comparison of injector effects. The combustion-zone heat transfer rates with the impinging fan injector were reduced 50 to 60 percent from those obtained with the triplet injector. At the throat, the impinging
Figure 45. Effect of Combustion Chamber Contour on 30-Degree Nozzle Heat Transfer Rates
Figure 46. Variation in Heat Transfer Parameter with Axial Distance for Contour A

Axial Distance From Throat - Inches
Figure 47. Effect of Combustion Chamber Length on Nozzle Heat Transfer Parameter for 15-Degree Convergence Angle Segment
Figure 48: Effect of Injector Type on Heat Transfer Parameter Profile in Contour C
(C) fan injector exhibited a heat transfer rate 37 percent lower than the triplet. Near the nozzle exit, the values for the two injectors were similar.

(C) The data obtained from the contour E firings with the triplet were limited to the nozzle region only, since the combustion zone was uncooled. As shown in Fig. 49 the first, or furthest upstream impinging fan data point was appreciably below the data band for the triplet injector. However, the impinging fan data agreed with the triplet injector data in the vicinity of the throat. Except for locations close to the injector and close to the nozzle exit, the heat transfer parameter profiles with the impinging fan injector were comparable for both contours C and E.

(C) Hydrogen Injection Velocity. The effect of hydrogen injection velocity on heat transfer rates was investigated by enlarging the hydrogen orifices of the triplet injector. The nominal \( \text{GH}_2 \) injection Mach number, under segment test conditions with ambient \( \text{GH}_2 \), was approximately 0.9. The orifices were enlarged in two steps: first to provide a \( \text{GH}_2 \) injection Mach number of approximately 0.65 and again later to provide an injection Mach number of 0.40. All three injection conditions were tested in the combustion zone, and the 0.9 and 0.4 Mach numbers were also tested in contour E.

(U) The resultant combustion-zone heat transfer data for contour C is presented in Fig. 50. The combustion-zone rates exhibited the same characteristic with no apparent effect of the reduced injection velocity afforded by the larger hydrogen injection orifices.

(C) The effect of \( \text{GH}_2 \) injection velocity on the nozzle heat transfer rates in contour C is shown in Fig. 51. Assuming that the data for \( \text{M}_{\text{GH}_2} = 0.4 \) represent the midlocus of the corresponding data band, it may be concluded that, within the range of velocities and chamber pressures investigated, reducing the velocity had a moderate effect on the heat transfer rates in the nozzle converging section, but only a very slight effect in the throat and diverging sections. Similar trends may be seen in Fig. 32 in which the Mach 0.9 and 0.4 data are compared for the contour E configurations.

d. Mixture Ratio Bias

(U) As part of the heat transfer investigation under Task II of the program, experimental evaluations were conducted to establish the effect of injector mixture ratio bias on the combustion zone and nozzle-region heat transfer rates. Four hot firings were conducted, one in the chamber contour C and three in contour E.

(C) Combustion zone rates were only available for the firing in contour C. These rates were in general the same as those without mixture ratio bias except for a rise in the local rates near the injector. The nozzle region heat transfer parameters for the mixture ratio bias evaluations are presented in Fig. 53 and 54. The nozzle region values for 12, 21,
Figure 49. Triplet and Impinging Fan Injectors Comparison of Heat Transfer Parameter Profiles in Contour E Chamber
Figure 50. Effect of GH₂ Injection Velocity on Combustion Zone Heat Transfer Parameter, Contour C
Figure 51  Effect of GH₂ Injection Velocity on Nozzle Region Heat Transfer Parameter, Contour C
Figure 52  Effect of \( \text{GH}_2 \) Injection Velocity on Nozzle Heat Transfer Parameter - Contour E
Figure 53. Effect of Mixture Ratio Bias on Nozzle Heat Transfer Parameter - Contour E.
Figure 54. Effect of Mixture Ratio Bias on Nozzle Heat Transfer Parameter, Contour C
(c) and 30 percent fuel diverted along the walls in contour E are shown in Fig. 53. For these runs, there was an indicated reduction of approximately 20 percent in throat and overall nozzle rates. Similarly, for contour C, a 12-percent reduction is indicated in Fig. 54. These values of heat transfer rate reduction are referred to the average data without mixture ratio bias. The reduction does not appear to be proportional to the bias flowrate; the reduction with 30-percent bias flow appears to be similar to that with the 12-percent flow on the contour E tests. The throat data values probably represent nearly the same actual value within the limits of repeatability.

e. Hot Gas Tapoff

(c) As discussed in detail in the previous section on Performance Data Analysis, 9 tests were conducted for evaluation of hot gas tapoff using a contour E chamber and a triplet injector. Tapoff flows of 1.1 to 1.5 percent with tapoff temperatures of 1600 to 335 F were achieved.

(c) The tapoff flows resulted in no apparent change in heat transfer. The results of the tests all fell within the previous data band for contour E. Figure 55 shows the results of two tapoff tests plotted on the previous data band. The no-tapoff data points are for a test with the particular injector used for the tapoff tests series but without tapoff flow and further substantiate the results obtained.

f. Surface Plating

(c) Two nozzle sections were chrome and nickel plated respectively to determine the effect of the surface conditions on the heat transfer rates. Previous periodic measurements of the copper surface roughness in the nozzle portion of the chamber indicated a roughness range of approximately 60 to 250 microinches (r.m.s.). This could account for a convective film coefficient increase of approximately 20 percent.

Two tests were conducted with the chrome plated nozzle in the contour C configuration. Most of the chrome in the converging portion of the nozzle was depleted during these tests, and no valid comparative data were obtained.

(c) Seven tests were conducted with a nickel-plated nozzle in a contour E configuration. All seven tests were conducted at similar chamber pressures (approximately 400 psia) with very good reproducibility of the data as shown in Fig. 56. There was no apparent trend of heat transfer rates increasing with time. Post test inspection of the nickel nozzle, furthermore, indicated that essentially none of the nickel plating was lost although the surface roughness had increased slightly.

(U) The heat transfer rates measured with the nickel nozzle were found to lie on the lower edge of the band of all other contour E data; i.e., there was no significant reduction in the heat transfer rates resulting from use of the nickel-plated nozzle.
Figure 55. Effect of Tapoff on Heat Transfer

Contour E

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Figure 56. Effect of Nickel Plating on Nozzle Heat Transfer Parameter, Contour E
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g. Gaseous F\textsubscript{2} vs Liquid F\textsubscript{2} Injection.

(C) To evaluate the effect on heat transfer of gaseous fluorine injection as compared to the usual cryogenic injection of fluorine, a 1 inch basic triplet injector was modified and tested. The modification consisted of enlarging the fluorine orifices which resulted in the injector momentum ratio of oxidizer to fuel injection streams being non-optimum for high performance. The results of the tests nevertheless provided an approximate indication of the effect on heat transfer and are compared to a similar test of liquid fluorine injection in Fig. 57. The data indicated higher rates near the injector for gaseous fluorine but no significant difference between gaseous and liquid fluorine over the remainder of the contour.

h. Additional Chamber/Injector Variations

(U) The results from the evaluation of contours A, B, C, D, and E indicated the importance of increase in chamber convergence length for effective boundary layer growth and reduction of heat transfer rates in the throat region. To further investigate this effect, two additional chamber contours or geometries were evaluated under company sponsorship. These contours were designated F and G and are illustrated in Fig. 25.

(C) Contour F. The three tests of contour F with a triplet injector yielded the $N_t x N_p^{2/3}$ distribution shown in Fig. 58. The flow attached to the wall near the third passage of the straight convergence. The abrupt change in convergence angle from the chamber to the nozzle section apparently disrupted the flow and sharply increased the local heat transfer rates at the entrance to the nozzle section. Throat heat transfer rates were at most 5 percent higher than contour E rates with the same nozzle section. These results showed the importance of a smooth continuous convergence to the throat.

(C) Contour G. In order to increase the chamber length used for boundary layer growth over that of previously tested contours and, hence, reduce throat region heat transfer rates, contour G, which converged continuously from a two inch injector width at an angle of 15 degrees, was fabricated. To achieve the required full injection, a two-inch wide three row impinging fan injector was also fabricated (Fig. 15). It was anticipated that this combined injector-combustion chamber configuration would give the maximum boundary layer growth achievable within the 3.5 inch length combustion chamber.

(C) A series of tests ranging in chamber pressure up to 645 psia was conducted with contour G. The distribution of the Stanton-Prandtl parameter along the chamber for this test series is shown in Fig. 59. This is compared with the throat region distribution of contour B obtained during earlier testing. Examination of Fig. 59 indicates that the impingement and flow attachment point as indicated by the peak value of the Stanton number has been moved substantially upstream with contour G. Because of this and although contours B and G have similar Stanton number profiles downstream of this point, the throat value for
Figure 57. Effect of Gaseous Fluorine on the Distribution of Heat Transfer Parameter Along Contour E
Figure 58: Distribution of Heat Transfer Parameter for Contour F

- $\Delta P_c = 401$, MR = 12.85
- $P_c = 488$, MR = 12.60
- $P_c = 537$, MR = 12.20

Axial Distance From Throat - Inches
Figure 59. Distribution of Heat Transfer Parameter for Contour G
(C) contour G is substantially lower. The contour G throat value of 0.002 is less than half of the value of 0.0046 obtained for contour B at the same operating conditions. The measured heat flux distributions for several contour G tests are shown in Fig. 60.

(C) The variation in the throat Stanton-Prandtl parameter with chamber pressure is shown in Fig. 61. The slope of -0.35 indicates a variation in the local heat flux with chamber pressure of q/\alpha \propto P^{0.65} as shown in Fig. 62. Since this exponent is 0.8 - 1.0 for turbulent flow, it is apparent that the boundary layer in the throat is not turbulent. The local heat flux was plotted vs chamber pressure for each Stanton-Prandtl number along the chamber and the exponent in \( q/\alpha \propto P^N \) was determined. The distribution of these exponents is shown in Fig. 63. The high values near the injector are indicative of a detached or poorly attached flow. Downstream of the impingement and attachment point where the exponent is approximately 0.8, the flow is turbulent. In the throat region, due to the large favorable pressure gradient and high degree of wall cooling, the boundary layer is stabilized and driven into a laminar regime. This phenomenon of "reverse transition" has been observed recently by several investigators and reported in the open literature. Since the pressure gradient is highest in the throat region, the laminarization of the boundary layer is likely to be localized in that region. However, several observers have found that the laminar boundary layer persists well into the supersonic region of the nozzle. For the subject contour, the high expansion rate downstream of the throat (30 degree expansion angle) results in a final transition to a turbulent boundary layer.

(C) The Stanton numbers from Fig. 61 were used to compute throat heat fluxes over the 9:1 throttling range. The heat flux varies from 22.2 Btu/in²·sec at the nominal operating point to 5.3 Btu/in²·sec at the 9:1 throttling point (Fig. 62).

i. Summary of Significant Results

(C) The 15-degree nozzle convergence angle chambers resulted in significantly lower throat region heat transfer rates as compared to the 30-degree chambers. This effect was believed due to the increased length from the start of the convergent ramp for boundary layer growth. In order to provide a longer convergent ramp for boundary layer growth, the contour G chamber was fabricated and tested. This configuration resulted in the lowest measured throat heat flux of 22.2 Btu/in²·sec at the \( P_c = 650 \) psia design point (mixture ratio = 13.0, \( T_w = 98 \) percent, \( T_{WG} = 1600 \) °F). A comparison of the throat gas side film coefficients for each of the contours tested is shown in Fig. 64. These results were of primary importance in the cube wall segment design for Task III since the throat (peak) heat flux level determines the required coolant tube size and/or number of coolant passes.
Figure 60 . Heat Flux Distribution for Contour G
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Figure 6.1 - Variation in Heat Transfer Parameter with Chamber Pressure - Contour G

\[ \text{ Stanton Number } \times \text{ Prandtl Number} \]

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Figure 62: Throat Heat Flux versus Chamber Pressure - Contour 6

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Figure 63. Distribution of Exponent $n$ ($Q/A \propto P_c^n$) Along Contour $G$ (P_{c, Range 300 - 650 psia)}
Figure 64. Comparison of Peak Gas Side Film Coefficients for Water-Cooled Contours
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(C) No effect on throat region heat transfer rates was observed when the constant area combustion zone length was increased by 1.5 inches (contour D vs contour E). This result most likely occurred because there was no change in the nozzle convergence angle or length between the two compared contours. Increase of combustion chamber length by increase of the convergence section, however, would likely result in further reduction in throat region heat transfer. This was subsequently verified on other tests with variations of contour G.

(C) Tests of the impinging fan injector in contour C yielded combustion zone heat transfer rates significantly lower than for the triplet injector. As a result, the throat peak value was reduced by 37 percent. However, when tested with the 15 degree convergence nozzle, the impinging fan and triplet injector showed comparable throat heat transfer rates. The same result was observed for the two injector types with contour G.

(C) On contour E tests with mixture ratio bias, in which a significant percent of hydrogen flow was introduced along the chamber walls from the injector face, no reduction in combustion zone heat transfer rates was observed. However, some reduction was noted in the throat region. Because of the increased stabilized boundary layer with contour G, it is anticipated that injector mixture ratio bias would be more effective in reducing local combustion zone heat transfer rates with this geometry.

(C) The total heat inputs for contours B, C, E, and G are shown in Fig. 65 over the design throttle range of 9:1. The heating rates did not fall off linearly over the whole chamber pressure range (650 to 70 psia) because of the proportionally larger heating rates near the injector at the lower chamber pressures. These data, together with those of Fig. 64, were used in the tube wall segment design for Task III. Measured bulk temperature rises, or total heat inputs, during the subsequent tube wall segment testing were compared with the predicted values of Fig. 65 to provide for final design verification (discussed on Page 144).
Figure 65. Comparison of Total Heat Input to Various Contours
SECTION 1:

TASK III: TUBE-WALL SEGMENT EVALUATION

1. GENERAL

This task utilized the information and data obtained in Task II to design and demonstrate the capabilities of the tube-wall toroidal segment. Specific objectives of Task III tube-wall testing were:

1. Demonstrate the performance, durability, and regenerative-cooling capability of the tube-wall thrust chamber segments
2. Demonstrate by structural testing that the deflection of segment lightweight support structure as a function of operating loads can be maintained within design limits

To accomplish these objectives, Task III tube-wall segment testing was conducted in three phases:

1. Tube-wall throat section segment firings to demonstrate the regenerative-coolant tube design in the region of maximum heat flux (throat region) prior to testing the complete tube-wall segment
2. Tube-wall segment firings to demonstrate regenerative-cooling capability and performance over the 9:1 throttling range
3. Support structure mechanical loading tests to determine the structural characteristics of lightweight structural support specimens. Two types of structure were evaluated, honeycomb and rib structure.

The contour-evaluation data of Task II were used to specify the internal dimensions of the Task III hardware. The best injector configuration, determined from the solid-wall tests, was used with the tube-wall throat inserts and the tube-wall segments. The heat transfer data obtained with the solid wall hardware specified the coolant velocities and number of passes required for the tube-wall configurations.

2. TUBE-WALL THROAT INSERTS

The tube-wall throat insert represented an intermediate step between the solid-wall and tube-wall segments. The purpose of the inserts was to provide a relatively inexpensive means of verifying the tube-wall design in the most critical area, the throat region.
a. **Design Description**

(C) Hardware for the tube-wall throat section evaluation testing was assembled by using injectors, injector adapters, and combustion chamber sections from the Task II firing program. To these components, a tube-wall throat test section was attached (Fig. 66). The tube-wall throat test section was similar to the all-water-cooled throat section used in Task II, with the exception that one-half of the double expansion contour was replaced by a separate block of material assembled with longitudinally oriented, constant-diameter tubes defining that contour and simulating the prototype, regenerative-cooling circuit. The other contour wall and side walls were of solid-wall construction with water-coolant passages entering through the side of the insert. From the side of the insert, the water-cooled passages run parallel to the side wall, across the nozzle, parallel to the opposite side wall, and out the opposite side of the throat insert. Each of the eight passages was a separate circuit to isolate different heat fluxes within the throat section.

(C) The regenerative tubes on the nozzle contour wall were hydrogen cooled. They were located over a support body and brazed in place. Each end of the tubes was fed from separate manifolds which ran out the side of the insert section. Pressure and temperature instrumentation ports were provided in each manifold. Coolant within the throat tubes could be flowed in either direction.

(C) Two throat insert configurations were designed corresponding to tubes of different materials and sizes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Diameter and Wall Thickness</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nickel</td>
<td>0.093 OD by 0.024 wall (32 required)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stainless Steel</td>
<td>0.062 OD by 0.024 wall (48 required)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(C) The tubes were of constant cross section which duplicated the full-tube design configuration at the throat.

(C) The stainless-steel tube design was a conventional approach which required the fabrication processes of tapering, forming to contour, flattening, and brazing into an assembly. The tube size was basically for a two-pass design, but coolant flow rate on the throat insert tests could be varied to simulate any number of passes.

(C) The nickel-tube design utilized a relatively thick wall of high conductivity material to distribute heat around the tube. The design was analyzed using a thermal analyzer type computer program to determine the temperature distribution around the tube. The tubes were analyzed for the maximum heat flux condition at the throat. It was found that for the expected heat flux level, the tube outer diameter should be about twice the tube inner diameter or less if any heat distribution benefit was to be obtained. If the outer tube diameter was very much
Figure 66. Regenerative Nozzle Wafer
greater than this limit, it was found that the outer-wall temperatures became excessive. Isotherm profiles for the thick-wall, nickel-tube design are shown in Fig. 67. It is seen that the peak wall temperatures is about 1600 F with a back-wall temperature of ~ 900 F.

(C) The use of either type of design appeared quite feasible from the heat transfer standpoint. The thick-wall tube concept allowed for a large reduction in the number of tubes and coolant passes required for adequate cooling. A sizeable saving in tube pressure drop (as much as half) was also achievable. A slight weight penalty for the thrust chamber, however, would result for thick tube design.

(U) These insert details, with the exception of the structural collar, are shown for the nickel-tube design in Fig. 68. In this figure, the tubes are shown after brazing to the backup member. The two tube covers are shown in the premachined configuration used for the brazing operation. The assembly, bolted together for brazing, is shown in Fig. 69. After this braze cycle, the assembly was machined to fit into the structural collar.

(U) The complete nickel tube-wall insert assembly is shown on Fig. 70. The large inlet tubes are the hydrogen coolant manifold inlets; the smaller tubes are the inlet and outlet tubes for the water cooling passages.

(U) The combustion chamber and nozzle insert assembled for testing is shown on Fig. 71.

b. Testing and Data Analysis

(C) For very low hydrogen temperatures, the effect of hydrogen temperature on heat transfer rates is quite significant. Therefore, to simulate the first-pass flow conditions, the liquid hydrogen was heated prior to entering the insert. The amount of preheating depended upon the degree of heating expected in the combustion zone of the chamber, since the tubes only include the converging-diverging portion of the nozzle near the throat. To simulate a range of preheating conditions, the test facility was provided with the features shown in Fig. 72. Both liquid and gaseous hydrogen were provided and combined in a mixing chamber when very low-temperature hydrogen was required. The use of a LN$_2$ heat exchanger in the gaseous hydrogen line was found to be a more satisfactory method of providing hydrogen at temperatures above 200 R. The hydrogen flowrate for this latter configuration was measured accurately by a sonic venturi prior to chilling in the heat exchanger. The same venturi was used to measure the flowrate of the GH$_2$ when it was mixed with LH$_2$ in the mixing chamber. This GH$_2$ flowrate measurement was added to the LH$_2$ flowrate measured by the turbine flowmeter to obtain the total hydrogen flow.
**Figure 67. Cross-Sectional Temperature Distribution in Nickel Tube**

- **$P_c$**: 650 psia
- **$T_{AW}$**: 4140 F (FILM COOLING)
- **$T_{H_2}$**: 700 F (LAST PASS)
- **$h_g$**: 0.00408 IN.²·SEC·F
- **$h_{c}$**: 0.026 IN.²·SEC·F

**Tube Dimensions**
- $d_i$: 0.045 INCH
- $d_o$: 0.093 INCH
- $b_w$: 0.024 INCH
Figure 69: Assembled Tube Wall Throat Core
Figure 70. Nickel Tube-Wall Throat Insert
CRES Tube-Wall Throat Insert Tests. The CRES tube-wall throat insert was completed and water-flow checks were performed. The pressure drop vs flow data agreed fairly well with the predicted values. As shown in Fig. 73, the measured pressure drops were lower than the estimated values.

Testing of the stainless tube-wall insert was conducted with contour G chamber configuration and the 2-inch-wide impinging fan injector. This chamber configuration was chosen because of low heat transfer rates obtained during previous water-cooled segment testing. A total of five tests were conducted with the insert, and the results are summarized in Table 7. As noted, the measured heat input for the hydrogen-cooled tubes agreed relatively well with that of the water-cooled side of the nozzle thus verifying the previous solid-wall heat transfer measurement method.

The fifth test of the CRES tube insert was conducted at a chamber pressure of 642 psia with chilled hydrogen as the coolant. Fourteen of the tubes were found to be eroded after the test. Analysis of the data indicated a chamber pressure overshoot was responsible for the tube damage. Motion pictures of the test and other test data indicated that the failure occurred early in the test. The chamber pressure rose to 835 psia, an excessive value for this design, during the start and maintained this pressure for a sufficient duration for the 0.012-inch thick CRES tube walls to reach thermal equilibrium.

The ultimate and yield strength of 347 CRES from Ref. 4 are shown in Fig. 74. Although the stainless has very high strength at low temperatures, the strength falls to virtually zero above 2100 F, a temperature which is well below its melting point. The internal pressure stress of the stainless tubes was approximately 3000 psi. Referring to Fig. 74, the ultimate strength of the tube falls below this operating level at temperatures above 2040 F.

During the chamber pressure overshoot on the failure test, the throat heat flux was estimated to be 41 Btu/in.²/sec. At this heat flux, the wall temperature was determined to be approximately 2200 F; sufficiently high to cause failure of the tubes. Under normal operating conditions, however, the CRES coolant tubes would be expected to operate satisfactorily.

Nickel Tube-Wall Throat Insert. Water flow calibration of the nickel tube throat insert indicated an abnormally high pressure drop in the hydrogen tubes. Further examination to determine the cause of the tube blockage resulted in a sample of crystalline substance being collected from the tubes. The sample was subjected to analysis by X-ray diffraction techniques. The results of the analysis indicated that the material in the tubes was primarily SiO. After further investigation, it was concluded that the SiO entered the tubes during the water flow calibration tests. Attempts at removing the foreign material were unsuccessful, and the insert assembly was, therefore, not subjected to hot firing tests.
Figure 73. Estimated and Measured Pressure Drops for Water-Flow Calibration of the CRES Tube Throat Insert
## Table 7

CRES TUBE THROAT INSERT TEST SUMMARY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEST NO.</th>
<th>DURATION (SEC)</th>
<th>$P_c$ (PSIA) MAXIMUM</th>
<th>$P_c$ (PSIA) NOMINAL</th>
<th>$H_2$ COOLANT (LB/SEC)</th>
<th>$H_2$ SIDE</th>
<th>WATER SIDE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>.230</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
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<td>291</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>65</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>691</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>.248</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>835</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>.547</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 74. Tensile Strength of 347 CRES

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3. TUBE WALL SEGMENTS

(U) The purpose of the tube-wall segment testing was to demonstrate complete regenerative cooling capability for the thrust chamber. Two identical units were fabricated and tested. A total of twenty hot firings were conducted.

a. Design Description

(c) An isometric view of the tube wall segment assembly is shown in Fig. 75. The segment is provided with two-pass cooling of each contour wall. After cooling one side of the segment the hydrogen may be externally ducted to the opposite contour wall. The combustion chamber geometry selected for the design was the contour G which showed the lowest heat transfer rates during the previous solid wall segment tests. The injector configuration was the two inch wide impinging fan design (Fig. 15) which showed good performance with the contour G chamber. The combustion chamber converges continuously to the throat at a 17-degree angle. The nozzle diverges at 15 degrees and has an expansion area ratio of 4:1.

(c) The side walls of the segment were water cooled. This did not strongly affect the comparison of results between the test segment and an actual baffled thrust chamber because less than 5 percent of the total heat load was transmitted to the baffles which the sidewalls simulate. Each side plate had individual inlet and outlet water manifolds which were connected by drilled passages. The length and diameter of these passages were varied to ensure proper distribution of flow along the length of the chamber.

(U) The question of freezing an ice layer in the side plate water passages during the hydrogen lead period of the start sequence was subjected to a detailed thermal analysis. The analysis showed that an ice layer thickness of only 0.0034 inch would result if the water coolant flow-rate was maintained at 85 lb in./sec. The maximum time an ice layer 0.0034 inch could exist after ignition is 0.024 seconds, which is an order of magnitude faster than necessary to heat the wall to the melting point of copper. Therefore, no problem was expected during the hot firings. This was subsequently verified during testing.

(c) An exploded view of the tube-wall segment is shown in Fig. 76. This view is useful for illustrating the assembly sequence for the segment which was as follows. The tubes were electron-beam welded together and formed to the shape of the contour (Fig. 77). The tube bundle was then brazed to the structural member (strongback). The tubes and strongback were then brazed to the hydrogen manifold. Following this procedure, the side plates were electron-beam welded to the strongback and brazed to the hydrogen manifold. At the same time, the inserts were brazed to the tube bundles. The side-plate, water-manifold covers were then welded.
Figure 75. Tube Wall Segment
Figure 77. Sample EB-welded tube blanket before and after forming.
on and the assembly machined to provide a shrink fit into the round structural collar. This method of assembly provided opportunities for inspection of each critical braze joint before accessibility was lost. A completely assembled segment is shown on Figure 78.

(C) Nickel 200 was selected as the material for the hydrogen coolant tubes. This selection was made based on the favorable physical properties of this material as well as recent good tube test results with this material on other programs.

(C) The original tube design concept was that of having variable inside diameter with constant outside diameter. The tube was to be formed from a constant cross-section tube by tapering the tube to the desired internal contour, plating the tube, and grinding the plated tube to the required outside diameter (tube OD = 0.093 inch, tube ID at throat = 0.045 inch). Difficulties encountered in centerless grinding the tubes (holding concentricity tolerances), however, made this approach impractical.

(C) The final tube design selected was that of a constant outside diameter (0.093 inch) and constant inside diameter (0.045 inch). While this tube design had a higher pressure drop than a tube design with inside contouring, it did duplicate the minimum inside diameter of the critical throat region, the overall heat load to the coolant (bulk temperature rise), and the gas side tube wall temperature profile along the combustion chamber contour.

(C) Heat transfer analysis resulted in the specification of unequal numbers in tubes in the first and second passes. Seventeen first pass tubes were used compared to sixteen second pass tubes because the warmer hydrogen in the second pass of the number 2 side required a higher coolant mass velocity for a given tube wall temperature.

b. Tube Wall Segment Testing

(C) After completion of fabrication of the segments, they were hydrotested to 2000 psig and water flow calibrated. Pressure drop data agreed well with the analytical prediction as shown on Fig. 79.

(C) Twenty hot firings were conducted on the No.1 and No.2 segments, 8 tests on No.1, and 12 tests on No.2. A test summary is shown on Table 8. Initial tests were conducted with the hydrogen coolant flow ducted overboard after leaving the coolant jacket. A separate ambient hydrogen flow was provided to the injector manifold. After demonstration of satisfactory cooling in this manner, tests were conducted with the heated hydrogen from the coolant jacket routed to the injector manifold. The two sides of the segment were cooled in a parallel flow arrangement because of facility feed system pressure limitations. Tests on segment No. 1 were conducted with cold hydrogen (~100 R) entering the coolant jacket.
Figure 79. Pressure Drop vs Water Flowrate For Nickel Tube Wall Segments
### TABLE 8
**TUBE WALL SEGMENT TEST SUMMARY**
(Mixture Ratio\(_{(\text{nominal})}\) = 13:1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Segment Assembly</th>
<th>Run Number</th>
<th>Duration, seconds</th>
<th>Chamber Pressure, psia</th>
<th>Test Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. 1</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>Ambient (\text{H}_2) to injector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>275</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>89</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>413</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>537</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>91</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>640</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>92</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>662</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>93</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>568</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>94</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>372</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 2</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>Coolant (\text{H}_2) to injector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>146</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>97</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>98</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>128</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>99</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>136</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>Coolant (\text{H}_2) to injector; dynamic throttling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>101</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>Coolant (\text{H}_2) to injector; dynamic throttling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>102</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>269 to 141</td>
<td>Coolant (\text{H}_2) to injector; dynamic throttling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>103</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>286 to 94</td>
<td>Coolant (\text{H}_2) to injector; dynamic throttling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>104</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>662</td>
<td>Coolant (\text{H}_2) to injector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>105</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>307 to 71</td>
<td>Coolant (\text{H}_2) to injector; dynamic throttling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>106</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>Coolant (\text{H}_2) to injector</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
thus simulating conditions for an actual engine on the first and second pass of the outer body of the chamber. Tests on the No. 2 chamber were conducted with ambient hydrogen entering the coolant jacket which simulated the condition of the down and up passes of the chamber inner body. A flow schematic of the hydrogen coolant flow circuit is shown on Fig. 80 with indicated pressure temperature and flow measurements.

(c) Dynamic throttling was conducted on three tests by programmed control of facility propellant supply pressures in a manner such that propellant flows were reduced while maintaining mixture ratio nearly constant at 13:1. Maximum throttling was accomplished on Test No. 105 where chamber pressure was continuously varied from 307 psia to 71 psia. This was the maximum dynamic throttling range possible without extensive facility modifications. The low end of the design throttle range was evaluated particularly because of concern over potential stability problems due to the $F_2$ two-phase flow condition which occurs in the injector at the low end of the throttle range. No instability was observed on these tests even though considerable $F_2$ vaporization in the injector was indicated to have occurred. These results are more fully discussed in the section on Performance Analysis which follows.

(c) A typical chamber pressure trace on one of the throttling tests (run 103) is shown on Fig. 81. The slow starting transient which is indicated resulted from no pre-chilling of the segment hardware prior to test start. Eliminating the pre-chill aided in reducing the time for the segment to reach thermal equilibrium.

c. Tube Wall Segment Performance Analysis

(c) A summary of the performance values obtained on the segment tests are shown in Table 9. All tests, except those which were of too short a duration for performance evaluation or where instrument malfunctions on critical parameters occurred, are included. Performance values at various chamber pressure levels during throttling tests No. 103 and No. 105 are shown on Tables 10 and 11.

(U) Analysis Method. The analysis procedures for the tube wall segment tests were basically the same as outlined previously for the solid wall segment tests (Section 11). Theoretical $c^*$ was based on ambient hydrogen conditions since an energy balance takes into account the enthalpy added to the hydrogen from the cooling jacket.

(U) A change to the approach of determining the effective throat area was made, however, because of the inaccuracies in measuring the geometric throat with the contour formed by the tubes. The effective throat area ($A_{eff} = C_D A_{geom}$) was determined by calibration with $GH_2$ blowdowns using the following equation

$$\dot{W} = C_D A Po \sqrt{\frac{\gamma M_g}{RT} \frac{2}{\gamma + 1} \frac{\gamma + 1}{\gamma - 1}}$$
Side #1

Figure 80. Tube Wall Segment LH₂ Coolant Circuit

Side #2
Figure 81. Chamber Pressure vs Time for Dynamic Throttling Test No. 103
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RUN No.</th>
<th>Duration (sec)</th>
<th>Chamber Pressure (psia)</th>
<th>Total Inj. Flow Rate (lbs/sec)</th>
<th>Mixture Ratio</th>
<th>Inj. Hydrogen Condition</th>
<th>C* Theoretical (ft/sec)</th>
<th>η_c* (Percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>89</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>Ambient</td>
<td>8185</td>
<td>96.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>1.016</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>8130</td>
<td>96.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>1.192</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>8220</td>
<td>96.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>662</td>
<td>1.184</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>8280</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>568</td>
<td>1.024</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>8170</td>
<td>96.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>0.220</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>Heated</td>
<td>8005</td>
<td>99.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>265-141*</td>
<td>0.421 (max)</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>8175</td>
<td>99.4*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>286-94*</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>**</td>
<td></td>
<td>**</td>
<td>99.9-97.7*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>662</td>
<td>1.039</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>8162</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>307-71*</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>**</td>
<td></td>
<td>**</td>
<td>99.6-99.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* dynamic throttling tests
** Refer to Tables 10 and 11
### TABLE 10 SUMMARY OF THROTTLING TEST 103
(Heated H\textsubscript{2} to Injector)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$P_0$ (psia)</th>
<th>$W_t$ (lb/sec)</th>
<th>MR</th>
<th>$C^*$ Theo. (ft/sec)</th>
<th>$\eta_{C^*}(P_0)$ %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>276</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>8045</td>
<td>99.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>0.335</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>7850</td>
<td>98.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>147</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>7700</td>
<td>98.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>7790</td>
<td>97.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 11 SUMMARY OF THROTTLING TEST 105
(Heated H\textsubscript{2} to Injector)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$P_0$ (psia)</th>
<th>$W_t$ (lb/sec)</th>
<th>MR</th>
<th>$C^*$ Theo. (ft/sec)</th>
<th>$\eta_{C^*}(P_0)$ %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>307</td>
<td>0.990</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>8645</td>
<td>99.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>296</td>
<td>0.390</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>8160</td>
<td>99.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>157</td>
<td>0.320</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>8030</td>
<td>99.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>196</td>
<td>0.239</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>8005</td>
<td>99.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>7930</td>
<td>99.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>7900</td>
<td>99.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
where \( \dot{V} \), the flow rate, was measured with a calibrated sonic venturi. Necessary pressure (\( P_0 \)) and temperature (\( T \)) measurements were also taken.

(v) The previous solid wall segments evaluation required a correction to the geometrical throat area due to thermal effects during the firing. This correction, however, was not required for the tube wall segments because analysis showed negligible thermal expansion of the tube backup structure would occur during a firing.

(c)  

C* Efficiencies. As noted from the results shown in Tables 9, 10 and 11, a significant performance improvement was realized when the heated hydrogen from the cooling jacket was used in the injector. The temperature of the hydrogen entering the injector was approximately 650 F on these tests. C* efficiencies in excess of 99 percent were obtained compared to approximately 96.5 percent for the ambient hydrogen injection tests. The heated hydrogen to the injector has a two-fold benefit in improving \( \eta_{e*} \); increase of the hydrogen injection velocity and providing heat to the fluorine in the injector.

(c) Figure 82 shows \( \eta_{e*} \) plotted over the range of chamber pressures for the tube wall segment tests with heated hydrogen, for the tube wall tests with ambient hydrogen, and for the previous solid wall segment tests with ambient hydrogen. These tests were all conducted with the contour G chamber configuration and the same impinging fan injector. As shown, the ambient hydrogen performance values for the solid wall and tube wall segments agree very well at a \( \eta_{e*} \) of approximately 96.5 percent. The performance values for the tube wall segment with heated hydrogen, however, are substantially higher at approximately 99.5 percent. Several solid wall tests are also shown at the low end of the throttle range where the injection fluorine was purposely gasified by an external exchanger. These tests with the solid wall segment also showed improved performance over what was obtained with liquid fluorine injection.

(c) As discussed previously in the solid wall segment performance section (Section II, 5.c), a useful parameter for correlation of C* performance has been found to be the dynamic flow parameter \( W_0 \), \( W_f \), \( V_f \) where \( W_0 \) and \( W_f \) are the oxidizer and fuel flow rates and \( V_f \) is the fuel injection velocity. This parameter is shown plotted for all contour G solid wall and tube wall tests in Fig. 83. The performance values achieved at the flow parameter value of approximately \( 2 \times 10^{-3} \) are the tube wall segment tests with heated hydrogen. The effect of the hotter hydrogen on increasing the hydrogen injection velocity and improving performance is apparent. The variation in the flow parameter between approximately 3 to 5 on the other tests is attributed to the variation in mixture ratio within tests.

(c) An additional benefit from the heated hydrogen is the promotion of fluorine vaporization in the injector which further aids in achieving high performance as well as increasing injector pressure drop thus providing stable operation. For a 9:1 throttle range, an 81:1 change
Figure 82. C Efficiencies in Contour 0 Chambers with Impinging Fan Injector
Figure 53. Effect of O_2 Injection Velocity on Performance
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in oxidizer pressure drop is required if vaporization did not occur. The results of throttling tests 103 and 105 shown on Fig. 8a, indicate that two phase flow occurred below flow rates of approximately 0.4 lb/sec. The percent of fluorine vaporized increased as the flow decreased with approximately 50 percent being vaporized at the 70 psia chamber pressure flow rate point. No indications of stability problems occurred on these tests whereas on earlier solid wall segment tests with this chamber and injector configuration, instability resulted at the low end of the chamber pressure range when fluorine was introduced to the injector as a liquid (refer to Section 11.6).p).

d. Tube Wall Segment Heat Transfer Analysis

(1) Twenty hydrogen cooled tube wall segments were conducted and are summarized in Table 12. The first 8 tests (87-94) with segment No. 1 utilized cryogenic hydrogen cooling. The remaining 12 tests with segment No. 2 utilized ambient hydrogen cooling. On the last test of the No. 1 segment, an internal leak within the segment is believed to have occurred which permitted water from the side plates to enter the hydrogen coolant tubes prior to the firing. Freezing of the water at test start restricted the hydrogen coolant flow with resultant burnout of a number of the tubes in the throat section. Testing of the No. 2 segment was concluded on Test 106 when an injector failure occurred at start and resulted in damage to the chamber tubes. Exact cause of the injector failure was not determined, however, it may have been caused by fatigue from the large number of previous tests with this injector (76 tests).

(2) The primary quantitative experimental data which were obtained from the tube wall test segments were total heat inputs. These were obtained from measurement of the coolant flow rate and coolant enthalpy rise. This latter quantity is calculated from the initial and final coolant temperatures and pressures for hydrogen. The resulting relation for the heat input is therefore simply

\[ Q = \dot{W}_c \Delta H \] (1)

(2) In the case of ambient hydrogen cooling, the change in hydrogen specific heat was negligible over the range of temperature of interest and the heat input was calculated directly from measured quantities in accordance with equation (2)

\[ Q = \dot{W}_c \frac{c}{p} \Delta T_{BULK} \] (2)

(3) The coolant flow rates were determined from flow venturis. The bulk temperature measurements were obtained from thermocouples placed upstream, downstream, and at the return manifold of the two-pass cooling circuit (Fig. 79). A relatively slow response of the exit bulk temperature to the heat input was experienced, however. This was apparently

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Figure 84. Injector Fluorine Pressure Drop vs Flowrate for Impinging Fan Injector
### Table 12

**Tube Wall Segment Coolant Test Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test No.</th>
<th>Duration (sec)</th>
<th>$P_C$ (psia)</th>
<th>$H_2$ Coolant Flow (lb/sec)</th>
<th>Tube Wall Temp. (Throat Estimated) $F$</th>
<th>Segment No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>87</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>700</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td>730</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>.148</td>
<td>1030</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>1310</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td>1485</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>662</td>
<td>.168</td>
<td>1510</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>568</td>
<td>.148</td>
<td>1380</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>.102 (#1 side)</td>
<td>1300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>.0456</td>
<td>1150</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>.9</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>1070</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>54</td>
<td>.0457</td>
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<td>.0458</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>.0450</td>
<td>1035</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>.0457</td>
<td>800</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>.0452</td>
<td>800</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>265-142*</td>
<td>.1095 - .0460</td>
<td>1070 - 1070</td>
<td>#1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>286-94*</td>
<td>.0976 - .022</td>
<td>1200 - 1200</td>
<td>#2</td>
</tr>
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<td>104</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>662</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>2040</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105</td>
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<td>307-71*</td>
<td>.061 - .0096</td>
<td>1580 - 1519</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>106</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>1070</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Dynamic Throttling Tests
due to the influence of the water cooled end plates in conjunction with the high conductivity of the copper strong-back.

(C) A comparison of the temperature and chamber pressure traces indicated that the return manifold coolant temperature responded quickly to $P_c$ variations. This temperature measurement was, therefore, used to estimate chamber heat inputs. Since there were 17 downpass tubes as compared to 16 uppass tubes the relation for the total temperature rise is

$$T_{\text{BULK}} = \frac{33}{17} (T_{\text{FINAL}} - T_{\text{Initial}})$$

(RETURN MANIFOLD)

(U) Note that the difference in initial and final temperatures at the return manifold were utilized. This was more accurate than subtracting the inlet temperature measurement from the return manifold measurement for cryogenic H$_2$ cooling due to incomplete chilldown of the segment before ignition.

(U) The measured coolant flowrates combined with the hot-gas convective film coefficients obtained from the solid wall segment tests were used to estimate the maximum tube wall temperatures (Table 12). The coolant convective coefficient for hydrogen was estimated from Rocketdyne previous data which included wall roughness effects.

(C) Heat Transfer Results. The heat inputs to the chamber for the tests with segment No. 1 are shown in Fig. 85. Although some data scatter is noted, the results indicated that the heat input did not decrease linearly with a chamber pressure but rather was about 2 to 3 times the value corresponding to a linear decrease from maximum chamber pressure ($P_c = 650$ psia). This agreed reasonably well with the data obtained from the water-cooled copper chamber tests (Fig. 65).

(C) The most severe test for segment No. 1 was test 92 at a chamber pressure of 662 psia because of the resulting wall temperature of 1510 F.

(C) Segment No. 2 utilized ambient hydrogen as the coolant and was subjected to more severe cooling requirements than segment No. 1. Tests 104 and 105 represented the most severe conditions and were evaluated in detail. Test No. 104 was at nominal chamber pressure ($P_c = 662$ psia) with only slight overcooling for a two-pass cooling design. Test 105 was a continuous throttling test from 307 psia to 71 psia using near and less than rated coolant flowrates. The actual and design coolant flowrates as a function of chamber pressure are presented in Fig. 86. The cooling margin associated with the tests is shown in Fig. 87 for the up and downpass circuits on both sides of the segment. (The downpass circuit has a lower flowrate per tube because there are more tubes). In Test 104 ($P_c = 662$ psia), the overcooling amounted to only 3 percent in the downpass circuit. In Test 105, the coolant flow actually dropped to 87 percent of rated flow at 71 psia on the side No. 1 downpass.
Figure 85. Measured Heat Input For Tube-Wall Segment No. 1
Figure 86. Comparison of Measured and Design Flowrates for Tube-Wall Segment No. 2
Figure 87. Cooling Margin For Tube-Wall Segment No. 2
The resulting maximum tube-wall temperature were determined by two separate analytical methods. The one-dimensional method treats the tube wall as a plane slab and utilizes a simple heat balance across the wall. This method is quite satisfactory for thin-walled tubes and/or low conductivity materials such as CHES. Due to the thick-walled (0.024 inch) nickel tubes utilized in the segment design, however, it was believed more accurate to determine the wall temperature distribution by means of a thermal analyzer digital computer program.

The results of these analyses for Tests 104 and 105 are compared in Fig. 88. The more exact thermal analysis predicted a maximum surface temperature of 2040 °F for Test #104 \( (P_c = 662 \text{ psia}) \) as compared to a 1900 °F estimate using the simple one-dimensional approach. At throttled conditions the difference in the analytical results was much more pronounced. At a chamber pressure of 71 psia (Test 105), the thermal analysis program predicted a maximum wall temperature of 1519 °F which was considerably lower than the 2110 °F obtained with the simplified approach.

The reason for the large difference in results at lower chamber pressures was that a larger percentage of tube circumferential heat conduction took place at lower heat flux levels. This allowed the heat input to be distributed over the entire inner tube circumference thereby decreasing the local heat flux to the coolant with a resultant decrease in the temperature differential across the coolant boundary layer. This condition is readily apparent from the tube isotherm profiles in Fig. 89 for a chamber operating at throttled conditions (a tube isotherm profile for the full thrust condition was shown in Fig. 67). At high flux levels (i.e., high \( P_c \)) the circumferential conduction is less influential and the local heat flux to the coolant is actually higher than at the heated surface due to the smaller surface area of transfer. The result is a temperature higher than would be estimated by a one-dimensional analysis.

The most important result obtained from Tests 104 and 105 is related to the heat input to the segment as shown in Fig. 90. The heat input drops off nearly linear with chamber pressure. This is extremely important since it means that the coolant bulk temperature rise will remain relatively constant during throttling. Previous data with the copper segments and tube segment No. 1 indicated that the heat input at throttled conditions was two to three times the linear drop-off value. This would have resulted in very high coolant bulk temperature rises.

The primary difference in the test conditions of Test 105 was that heated hydrogen \( (T \approx 500 \text{ °F}) \) was injected into the chamber rather than ambient temperature \( (T \approx 70 \text{ °F}) \) hydrogen. The water-cooled copper chamber results indicated that at throttled conditions a greater proportion of the heat input was near the injector end of the chamber. It is believed, therefore, that the increased combustion efficiency obtained from the heated hydrogen injection resulted in a reduction of the wall heat transfer rates in the vicinity of the injector. A check of tests 102 and 103
Figure 89. Coolant Tube Isotherm Profile
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Figure 90. Measured Heat Input Per Tube-Wall Segment No. 2

CONFIDENTIAL

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substantiates this theory as shown in Fig. 90. Test 102 and 103 utilized hydrogen injected at a somewhat lower temperature than 105 (≈ 100 F less) and had a heat input about 25 to 50 percent greater than Test 105 at a chamber pressure of 140 psia. Verification of this rational requires further testing of the solid wall segments using heated hydrogen injection.

(c) The total heat input at nominal chamber pressure ($P_c = 650$ psia) was about 17 percent higher than estimated from the copper segment tests. Part of this increase could be due to the increased surface area of tubes (scalloped effect) as compared to the flat copper surface. The resulting hydrogen bulk temperature rise for the entire segment (rated coolant flow) is estimated at 1140 F. Assuming a 50 R inlet temperature, the hydrogen exit temperature would be 730 F. The use of ambient hydrogen during testing resulted in coolant bulk temperatures comparable (within 100 F) to those anticipated for the inner body contour of the full thrust chamber.

e. Summary of Significant Results

(c) The contour G chamber configuration with the impingent fan injector achieved $C^*$ efficiencies in excess of 99 percent with stable combustion over the entire design throttle range when operated in a regeneratively cooled configuration.

(c) Results of the cooling evaluation demonstrated the feasibility of regeneratively cooling the 30K toroidal combustion chamber with a two pass cooling circuit. Successful cooling was achieved at nominal chamber pressure ($P_c = 650$ psia) using essentially rated flow (3 percent overcooling) and at full throttled conditions ($P_c = 71$ psia) using less than rated flow. The heat input to the chamber drops off nearly linearly with chamber pressure when heated hydrogen is injected in place of ambient hydrogen at throttled conditions. This is due to reduced wall heat input near the injector end resulting from increased combustion efficiency.

4. LIGHTWEIGHT SUPPORT STRUCTURE SEGMENTS

(c) The purpose of the structural segments was to establish the structural integrity of rib and honeycomb support structures and to demonstrate, by means of mechanical loading tests, that the throat area can be maintained within 10 percent over the 9 to 1 throttling range. A comparative design analysis was conducted to select the optimum configuration. Using selected configurations, a more detailed design optimization was conducted to determine values of critical design parameters which would result in the lightest segment. The final step was the actual detailed design of combustion chambers using rib and honeycomb construction as the structural material. These design efforts as well as the fabrication and testing of segments of the chambers are described in this section.
a. Structural Support Concept Selection

The annular thrust chamber design resulting from the Maneuvering Satellite Propulsion System study (Contract AFOSR(611)-10745) utilized a C-clamp support structure. With this support structure, the resistance to the chamber pressure is provided by bending of a beam surrounding the chamber. The bending imposed is symmetrical about a plane through the center of the injector, and the thickness of the skins used for the beams is determined by the throat deflection rather than the stress on the material. The design of the C-clamp structure required the determination of the maximum allowable throat gap variation as well as the optimum (lightest) structure to limit the variation to this value.

During the present contract, detailed design analysis was conducted on the basic C-clamp structure concept as well as two alternate support structure concepts. The two alternate concepts have been designated the subsonic baffle and the subsonic bolt. The three design approaches are shown on Fig. 91 and are described in the following paragraphs.

C-Clamp Design. Inner and outer combustor walls cantilevered from the injector form the C-clamp structure. The combustor walls were constant depth compound curved honeycomb panels; however, other types of structure such as webs and plates or "egg crate" could be used. A transition section joins the outer skin of the panels to the injector. The transition section is more rigid than the panels because of its influence on throat deflection. The injector forms the final link of the structure joining the inner and outer combustion chamber walls and transmitting the bending and shear reactions from one to the other. All of the structural components would be made of INCO 718 because of its high strength and low thermal expansion properties.

The thrust chamber coolant path consists of a two-pass circuit on both the inner and outer combustor walls. The hydrogen coolant enters the inner combustor coolant circuit from the fuel inlet manifold. It then flows through the two-pass cooling circuit, and is manifolded across the injector to the outer combustor wall where it flows through a similar two-pass circuit. The hydrogen is then fed into the distribution manifold behind the injector face. The two propellant manifolds and the tapoff manifold are positioned outside the injector body and separate from each other to prevent heat transfer from the hot gas to the two cryogenic propellents. A Higimesh face triplet injector was used for weight evaluation purposes.

C-Clamp Structure Analysis Method. The C-clamp structure resists the pressure in bending. The structure is essentially symmetrical with respect to the center of the injector. Several different operating conditions were analyzed. The Rocketdyne modification of an existing structural computational program (which utilizes the IBM 7094 Computer) was used in the analysis of the various conditions. The program allows
Figure 91. Toroidal Chamber Structures

(a) C-CLAMP STRUCTURE
(b) SUBSONIC BAFFLE STRUCTURE
(c) SUBSONIC BOLT STRUCTURE
the structure to be broken up into up to 25 regions. Each region, in turn, can be broken into laminates and variation in temperatures, coefficients of thermal expansion, and Young's Modulus can be programmed through the composite shell thickness. In addition, the above parameters plus the pressure loading can be varied from station to station along each region.

(C) The study took into account a full range of engine operating conditions including chilldown, full thrust at start and steady state, and fully throttled at start and steady state. The initial reference temperature of the structure was 70°F.

(C) Subsonic Baffle Design. This design consists of inner and outer combustor walls joined through the injector and baffles. The baffles form the major structural ties between sides, alleviating the injector of this function. The structural panels act primarily as fixed-fixed beams supported on either end by the baffles. The construction techniques and materials are the same as used on the C-clamp design.

(C) The combustion chamber coolant circuit is two-pass like that of the C-clamp. The outer combustor wall is first cooled in parallel with the baffle. The baffles require approximately 7.6 percent of the total coolant to match temperature rise and pressure drop of the outer wall. The inner wall is then cooled with the total flow. This arrangement was found to minimize thermal stress and deflection of the baffle. It also allows the use of a practical baffle coolant-tube diameter. The baffle tubes are constant circumference and flattened slightly in the convergent section of the chamber.

(C) The same injector was used for all three concepts and incorporates a Rigimesh transpiration-cooled face welded to the body. The crossover passages in the back of the injector are spaced so that oxidizer and tapoff gas can pass between them. Fluorine flows from the supply manifold through posts which pass through the Rigimesh face. The posts are flush with the injector face on the combustion chamber side and have holes drilled in them to form the oxidizer part of the triplet injector. The fuel orifices are drilled through the Rigimesh face. Tapoff is through a series of hydrogen-cooled ports located on the injector face. The fluorine and tapoff manifolds are separated from the main injector body to minimize heat conduction between the cryogen fluorine, the hot tapoff gas, and the warm injector body.

(C) As in the C-clamp design, the outer combustor wall is made removable to facilitate inspection and servicing inside the combustor. Because the injector-to-outer combustor wall joint is not in a highly loaded area, the flange and bolts can be relatively light. Any seal leakage would be hydrogen, including the baffle bolts which have double seals under each head with fuel bleed in between. The baffle provides an excellent means of indexing one side of the combustor to the other.
The combustor rings are sufficiently flexible in the hoop direction so that the baffle bolts can easily pull the two halves together, thus taking up any diametrical tolerances.

Subsonic Baffle Structure Analysis Method. The subsonic baffle backup structure acts basically as the interaction between two rings with radial ties and with a pressure between them (Fig. 92). The study has shown that if only a few baffles are used, a heavier combustion chamber is required to minimize throat area changes. For larger number of baffles (of the order of 20), the ring interaction solution reduces to essentially a fixed-fixed beam solution with the beam length equal to the developed length between the baffles (Fig. 93). The result is a reduction in overall chamber weight. An important structural conclusion can be shown by consideration of the fixed-fixed beam solution. The change in throat area is given by

\[
\frac{\Delta A}{A} = \frac{4}{45} \frac{h^4}{h^5} \frac{PR^4}{gE} \frac{1}{td^2} \frac{1}{N_B^4}
\]

where:

- \(\Delta A\) = area under the deflection shape curve for two beams, in.\(^2\)
- \(A\) = unpressurized area between two baffles, in.\(^2\)
- \(E\) = \(g \cdot 2 \pi R/N_B\)
- \(P\) = chamber pressure, psia
- \(R\) = chamber average radius, inches (The exact solution involves the use of the radii of the outer and inner rings; however, this difference is small.)
- \(g\) = initial throat gap, inches
- \(t\) = box section skin thickness, inches
- \(d\) = depth of the box section, inches
- \(N_B\) = number of baffles

Because the fractional change in throat area is reduced in proportion to the inverse of the number of baffles to the fourth power, it is possible to reduce throat area change, due to the deflection of the backup "beams" to a small value. Throat area variation then becomes essentially the deflections of the baffles and the backup structure in the area of the baffles. The combination of a honeycomb or rib backup structure with a sufficient number of baffles will yield a system that is both rigid and light in weight.
Figure 92. Two Rings With a Pressure Between Them - With Intermediate Baffle Ties
Figure 93. Fixed Fixed Beam

\[ L = \frac{2 \pi R}{N_B} \]
The thermal deflection problem is controlled relatively easily by the baffle approach. The baffle spacing is sufficiently close (20 baffles were used for this preliminary study) that the differential thermal expansion between the inner and outer shrouds is essentially not allowed to occur. The inner shroud attempts to expand and the outer shroud (through the baffles) "reacts" this expansion. In the equilibrium position, both rings increase in diameter to an intermediate position between the "manufactured" diameter and the diameter the inner shroud would attempt to assume if it were not restrained. This was found to be an advantage in minimizing the loading on the baffle bolts. The pressure loading tends to put the bolts in tension and the thermal loading tends to compress the bolts. In the actual application, the bolts will be preloaded to prevent separation of the baffle to outer shroud surfaces.

The thermal deflections and stresses were found using the "ring interaction" solution illustrated graphically in Fig. 94. First, the free thermal expansion, or contraction, of each skin of the shrouds was calculated. The hoop interaction between the inner and outer skins of each shroud was then found. In this part of the analysis, the stiffness of each skin and the stiffness of the honeycomb core were taken into account. The hoop interaction solution then gave a new "free position" for each shroud and the skin stresses from this effect. Deflections were then equalized between the inner and outer shrouds and the baffle. This portion of the solution entailed superimposing the bending and membrane deflections of each shroud (with 20 equally spaced radial loads) with the compressive deflection of the baffles. The bending stress and deflection profile between the baffles was then calculated and formed the "ring interaction" portion of the solution. The thermal deflection from the portion of the chamber downstream of the baffle was then added to this solution to give the total deflection.

Subsonic Bolt Design. The subsonic bolt structure illustrated in Fig. 91 consists of inner and outer combustor walls joined by the injector and a series of bolts in the combustion chamber. The panels are of the same construction as the C-clamp and baffle chambers. The bolts are close enough together to form essentially a line load around the combustor. The main load path is similar to that of the C-clamp except that the length of the cantilever lip is considerably reduced. This results in greatly reduced throat deflection characteristics. The injector takes more separation and bending loads than the injector used with the subsonic baffle concept. It was found that thermal and pressure deflections of the combustor panels imposed large bending stresses on the subsonic bolt. To relieve this condition, a ball socket is provided to allow the structure to rotate around the bolt ends. The bolt is indexed on both ends to control throat gap and is not preloaded.

The coolant circuit consists of the bolt coolant sleeve placed in series with the normal two-pass coolant system. The bolt is cooled before the chamber so that the cold hydrogen will cause the bolt to contract and minimize total throat deflection. The series coolant circuit also results
Figure 94. Ring Interaction Analysis; Sub-Sonic Baffle
in a more reasonable bolt coolant passage size than a parallel arrangement which would use a small percentage of the total flow. At the intersection of the bolt and the thrust chamber wall, an annular transition cooling manifold collects the coolant from the thrust chamber tubes on one side of the bolt, manifolds it around the bolt and distributes it to the tubes on the other side of the bolt. The manifold is made of nickel for good heat transfer, and the flow area around the annulus is tapered to provide adequate cooling.

(C) The injector construction and manifolding is basically the same as used for the baffle and C-clamp designs. The hydrogen inlet manifold has been transferred to the inner combustor wall to provide for bolt cooling.

(C) Chamber accessibility is provided by the removable outer combustor and subsonic bolt-coolant sleeve assembly. All seals are hydrogen seals. Sealing of the ball joints at each end of the bolt is a problem area in that the joint must be easily removable yet allow a small amount of rotation.

(U) Manufacturing of the subsonic bolt chamber is comparable to the baffle design. There are more components to fabricate but they are broken down into less complex subassemblies.

(U) Subsonic Bolt Structure Analysis Method. For the subsonic bolt approach, the backup structure carries the pressure loading primarily as "in plane" bending. The bolt "ties" the inner and outer shrouds together in a manner similar to the baffle; however, the tie is not as efficient as the baffle tie. The subsonic bolt structure reduces to essentially a C-clamp with an intermediate tie. The local structure between the bolts acts circumferentially in a manner similar to the baffle. Because of the number of bolts required (52 were used in this study), the circumferential span between bolts is less than the span for the baffle.

(U) This structure was analyzed, using the same structural computation program as the C-clamp analysis. The analysis model is shown in Fig. 95. Temperatures and the corresponding values of Young's Modulus and coefficient of thermal expansion were varied in the same manner as they were in the C-clamp analysis. The solution required an iterative approach for each condition. The bolts were represented by a radially inward load at the junction of regions 3 and 4, and a radially outward load at the junction of regions 8 and 9. Repeated solutions were made until the differential radial deflection between the two junctions was equal to the bolt stretch due to this loading minus the thermal contraction of the bolt.

(c) Results. The results of the comparative design analysis are presented in Table 13. The subsonic baffle concept stands out in its ability to restrict the variations in throat gap. The succession of concepts from C-clamp through bolt to baffle results in progressively reducing the cantilever action in the chamber.
Figure 95. Subsonic Bolt Analysis Model
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Throat Area Variation</th>
<th>Weight, Percent</th>
<th>Coolant $\Delta P$ Increase, psi</th>
<th>Coolant $\Delta T$ Increase, $^\circ F$</th>
<th>Manufacturing Ease</th>
<th>Accessibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>at Start, Percent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Full Thrust</td>
<td>Throttled</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-Clamp</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>67 bolts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subsonic Baffle</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Slightly more complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subsonic Baffle</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Same as sub-sonic bolt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Baffle and bolt concepts weighed substantially less than the C-clamp segment. The weights of the two former concepts are sufficiently close together that additional design refinements could result in a negligible weight difference between these two concepts. It should be noted, however, that if baffles are required for combustion stability control, the weight of the subsonic bolt design would increase significantly.

Because of the additional cooling required by the baffle and bolt concepts, a slight increase in coolant bulk temperature rise may be anticipated with respect to the C-clamp design. A small coolant pressure drop increase occurs in the bolt concept but not in the baffle concept because of the parallel cooling circuit in the latter.

Some additional manufacturing complexity is incurred by the baffle and bolt concept. Relative fabrication simplicity is, in fact, the primary advantage of the C-clamp concept. The other advantages of the C-clamp is its relative accessibility.

On the basis of the above results, the subsonic baffle concept was selected for further analysis. The light weight and rigidity of this concept were the most attractive features.

b. Optimization Analysis

Subsequent to the selection of the subsonic baffle structural concept, analyses were conducted to determine the optimum baffle spacing, core configuration, and baffle bolt size. The analyses were based on the use of honeycomb core material, but the results will be near optimum for both core materials.

The combustion chamber weight was optimized with respect to the back-up structure depth and number of baffles (fixed-fixed "beam" span). This was accomplished by first establishing a detailed base point design and then ratioing the weights of the skins, core material, baffles, closures, etc., in accordance with the following equation.

\[
WT_{c.c.} = WT_{s} \left( \frac{N_{B_1}}{N_{B_2}} \right) \left( \frac{d_1}{d_2} \right) WT_{c} \left( \frac{N_{B_1}}{N_{B_2}} \right) \left( \frac{d_2}{d_1} \right) + WT_{n} \left( \frac{N_{B_2}}{N_{B_1}} \right)
\]

\[
WT_{baffles} = WT_{fwd \ closure} \left( \frac{d_2 - a}{d_1 - a} \right) + WT_{aft \ closure} \left( \frac{d_2}{d_1} \right) + WT_{injector, \ manifolds, \ forward \ manifold \ body, \ and \ tubes}
\]
The equations for determining the variations of skin and core weight with the number of baffles and the backup structure depth are derived in Appendix C. The forward and aft closures are of constant thickness and, therefore, vary only with their respective depths. The remaining components of the combustion chamber are constant in weight.

It should be noted that the weight per baffle was held constant. This assumption is not strictly correct, since there could be a small weight savings per baffle with increasing number of baffles. This did not prove to be significant in the actual study, since the number of baffles for optimum weight combustion chamber designs are very close to the number of baffles for the base point design. The weight per baffle is primarily determined by the size of bolts used; therefore, it does not change until the number of baffles has been increased sufficiently to allow the use of the next smaller bolt size. The base point design was a twenty-baffle combustion chamber with one-inch deep core structure.

Baffle bolt sizing was based on pressure loading, installation loads and preloads. A thrust chamber pressure profile of full \( P_c \) from the injector to the throat plane was used to determine the applied bolt load. Since there is a complex load pattern involved in the bolt-baffle combination shown in Fig. 96, an analysis model was made to allow calculation of the bolt loads. The analog consists of a series of springs which represent the lumped flexibility of each component. The encircled numbers in Fig. 96 refer to the four-load (three bolts and the injector). The spring analogy for the first bolt and baffle combination is shown in Fig. 97.

Each spring represents a component of the structure such as the bolt. The deflection continuity lines represent the points where the separate spring systems are joined into the backup structure. The overall deflection of each spring system is dependent on the other members of the system because they are all linked together through the inner and outer backup structures. The spring analogy for one baffle is shown in Fig. 98.
Figure 96 Thrust Chamber Cross Section Showing Deflection Continuity Lines
$S_{NJ} = \text{Member Flexibility (in./#)}$

**Figure 97.** Spring Analog of Bolt Baffle Combination
Figure 98. Spring Analog of Combustion Chamber-Raffle Combination
This method was used to calculate the bolt load due to chamber pres-
sure. The installation load was also calculated. This load is due
mainly to small misalignment caused by manufacturing tolerances. The
chamber pressure and installation loads tend to separate the outer
combustion chamber-baffle joint; therefore, the bolts must be pre-
loaded to prevent separation. The maximum bolt load was then arrived
at taking into account variation in friction factor during torquing.
The resulting bolt size was 0.4375 inch diameter.

c. Segment Design

(U) This effort consisted of the detailed design of two optimized thrust
chamber segments using the subsonic baffle structural concept. The two
segments differed only in the material used to provide rigidity and
strength to the segments, i.e., honeycomb and rib structural material.

(C) Previous analysis had shown that a straight segment was a good approx-
imation to the curved compartments of the flight engine. The inner
and outer combustor walls are separable as in the flight engine. The
two halves are bolted together by three bolts per baffle, eight injec-
tor bolts per compartment and ten end plate bolts. Since the segment
is not a continuous ring as in the flight chamber, end plates were
used to cap off the two end compartments. The end plates are rigid
and do not deflect in the same manner as the baffles; therefore, a
three-compartment segment was designed and deflection and stress data
were taken primarily on the center compartment. Subsonic baffles of
rigidity approximating that of a flight baffle were provided between
the center and side compartments. A chamber pressure profile constant
at 650 psia between injector and throat and zero downstream of throat
was assumed for design purposes. As chamber contours were not final-
ized at the time, the segments were designed to a contour E (Section II)
profile with a 15-degree convergent and 15-degree divergent half-angles.
As nozzle contour, shroud contour, nozzle structure and thrust pick-up
points were undefined at this time, the interactions between combustion
chamber, nozzle, and thrust mount were not included in stress analysis.

(C) All structural components except end plates were sized for flight type
operating conditions excluding thermal stresses since the latter were
not simulated during the structural test program. Materials properties
were taken at their projected operating temperatures in the flight en-
gine. The material for all structural components except bolts is
Inconel 718 which was chosen for its high strength, low thermal expan-
sion, and relative ease of welding. The bolts were of A-286 high strength
alloy because of its availability and suitability for this application.
The structure was heat treated to 175 ksi strength after completion of
the final weldment.

(C) Stress analysis of the engine chamber wall tubes indicated that, during
hot firing, the heated tubes do not significantly stiffen the structure
(less than one percent stiffness increase because of tubes). In a room
temperature test, however, the tubes are effective and increase the
rigidity of the structure. Thus from a simulation standpoint, it was desirable to test the chamber structure without installing coolant tubes. For completeness and possible thermal testing at a future date, tube blankets were designed and fabricated for installation after the test program. Stainless steel tubing (300 series) of constant 0.0.0 inch wall x 0.093 inch O.D. was used.

(C) Two shapes of coolant tube panels were required to blanket the combustor walls. Sets of sixty-six tubes were necessary to cover the space between subsonic baffles on both the inner and outer walls of each of the three compartments. Additional sets of six shorter tubes were designed to cover the wall area downstream of the baffles. Each separate set of tubes was stacked side by side and electron beam welds were made between tubes to form panels. The tube panels were then bent to fit the chamber wall contour and formed at each end to fit into inlet and outlet manifold slots in the structure. The subsonic baffles were not covered with tubes, although they would require cooling in an actual engine.

(C) The injector consisted of an inner half representing the flight injector and an outer half representing the attach ring for the outer combustion chamber wall. The inner injector half was hollowed out and a thin Inconel -718 blank face sheet was electron beam welded on to simulate the passages and face of the flight injector. It also contained one port per compartment for pressurizing the segment. The bolted-together injector formed a backbone upon which the remainder of the structure was built. Baffles and end plates machined from plate stock were electron beam welded to the injector. The structural panel subassemblies were machined to fit and electron beam welded into the structure. This technique allowed the structural panels to be fabricated and inspected before they were installed in the structure. It also allowed the injector baffles and end plates to be released for fabrication before the structural panel design was finalized.

(U) Rib Segment Design. Several fabrication methods were considered for the rib structural panels. These included fully machined panels as well as methods of sheet metal fabrication.

(C) The latter design was selected, and the "U" channel construction technique was developed because of its inherent self-jigging properties. Each channel is rigid by itself and, therefore, minimizes distortion that would occur by welding nonrigid pieces together. Electron beam welding was chosen for its inherent controlability and minimum shrinkage effect. The structural panels were designed as subassemblies to facilitate manufacturing, allow for weld shrinkage, and permit scrapping of one panel if necessary without destroying the entire segment. (No rejections were required on either segment.)

(C) The structural panels were stressed essentially as fixed-fixed beams (Fig. 99) between baffles. The maximum stress occurs at the panel-to-baffle weld joint. Using a web spacing of 0.50 inch with 1.250-inch deep sections, the required web thickness was 0.025 for Class I welds and 0.040 for Class II welds. Web buckling was investigated and found
to be absent in this design. The skin thickness was 0.025 for Class I welds and 0.028 for Class II welds. The 0.025 Class I weld case was governed by face sheet crippling at the baffles. No attempt was made to optimize material thickness along the length of the beam.

(U) The baffle cantilever beam structure (Fig. 100) was designed to take loads in two directions. The shear loads developed by pressure loading between baffles \( (P_L) \) are distributed to the baffle bolts through two ribs (dimension \( b \)). Bending loads \( (F_m) \) and chamber pressure loads \( (P_c) \) are taken by the horizontal plates (dimension \( t \)).

(c) The cantilever portion of the baffle beam required a 0.100 face sheet thickness and a 0.060 shear web thickness on each side. The shear webs were formed by the panel closeouts. Three, 7/16-20, 200 ksi bolts were required for each baffle. The injector-to-outer combustor joint required eight, 1/4-28, 140 ksi bolts per compartment. The injector and attach flange thicknesses were the equivalent of .175-inch thick plates. Figures 101 and 102 are isometric and layout drawings respectively of the rib structural segment.

(c) Honeycomb Segment Design. To ensure that the strain and deflection measurements performed on both segments would be truly representative of the difference in structural panel construction, the honeycomb segment panel was designed to extend from the injector to the location of the seventh (throat) channel in the rib panel. Two channels, identical to the eighth and ninth channels in the rib segment, then completed the aft end of the honeycomb. The seven channels of the rib segment are directly comparable on the basis of loading, deflection, and weight with the honeycomb sandwich panel. Like the rib segment, the honeycomb design employed distinct structural panels fabricated as units, then welded into nearly identical baffles, injectors, and aft manifolds. In addition to the advantages mentioned for the rib segment, this design approach allowed development of brazing techniques on a small panel basis for the honeycomb segment.

(c) The honeycomb sandwich panel assembly included an outer and inner face sheet, forward and aft honeycomb sections, and a core splice sheet. Sheets and core sections were fabricated from Inconel 718 alloy. Naturally, the face sheets form the two flanges of a beam to transmit bending moments through the panel. The honeycomb core brazed between these sheets held them apart, thus multiplying their effective moment of inertia and stabilizing them against buckling failure.

(c) A face sheet thickness of 0.040 inch was required at the panel to baffle attachment plane assuming a Class II weld. Class I weld quality would have reduced maximum face sheet thickness to 0.024 inch, but radiographic inspection requirements for this class would not be met. Sheet thickness could have been tapered from 0.040 at the edges to 0.020 at the compartment centerline in a minimum weight design.
Figure 99. Schematic of Core Loading

Figure 100. Cantilever Loading of Baffle Bolts
Figure 101     Rib Structure Segment

Closeout

Structural Baffle

Rib Panel

Channel Ribs

EB Welded Tube Blanket
Figure 102. Structural Test Segment Rib Supports

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Two, 1/8-inch vent holes were drilled through each face sheet to permit replacement of air with an inert argon atmosphere during furnace braze. The holes were placed at low stress points in the sheets.

Honeycomb core sections resist the shear loads in the panel. The sandwich was assembled by furnace-brazing the core sections to the face sheets.

The honeycomb core designed for this simulator had a hexagonal cell size (distance across flats of hexagon) of 0.125 inch. Cell walls were .004-inch thick. It was fabricated by first passing a .004-inch thick foil ribbon through a perforating machine which formed lines of tiny holes about 0.10 inch apart. These holes allow venting of each cell during furnace brazing. The ribbon was then passed between corrugating wheels which form three sides of the hexagonal cell. By resistance welding many such corrugated foil strips together, a honeycomb core section was built up. As the core shear strength perpendicular to the ribbon direction is only some 70 percent of that parallel to the ribbon, the foil strips were oriented parallel to the injector.

Honeycomb core density was determined by the maximum shear loads occurring at the panel to baffle junction. No attempt was made to vary core density below that necessary at the panel edges, but in an engine panel, the core foil thickness could be linearly tapered by chemical milling to near zero at the panel center. Calculations indicated a required maximum core density of 35 pounds per cubic foot. The density of the delivered core sections was 40.1 pounds per cubic foot. While many combinations of hex cell size and foil ribbon thickness would produce the necessary core density, a cell size greater than .125 inch would not provide enough braze fillet area in contact with the face sheets to prevent delamination.

A critical area in the sandwich panel design is that between the core sections and the face sheets. These bonds must transmit shear loads equal to those taken by the core. Once a particular cell size and consequent bond length per unit face sheet area is chosen, bond strength is a function of braze alloy shear strength and size of the fillets formed by the alloy. As the silver based alloys usually used for brazed honeycomb bonding (aircraft applications) have insufficient strength at the relatively high required operating temperatures, a higher melting point alloy, Palniso 7 (70 Au-8 Pd-22 Ni) was investigated for the segment panels.

This alloy has an ultimate shear strength of 26,000 pounds per square inch at 1200 F, the maximum structure temperature expected. Figure 103 presents fillet size requirements versus braze alloy shear strength.

The 15-degree converging combustion chamber contour was accommodated by making a miter joint in the core. The core sections were cut on an angle and brazed to either side of a splice sheet in the panel assembly braze cycle as shown in Fig. 104.
Figure 103. Required Fillet Size vs Alloy Strength
Figure 104  Cross-Section of Honeycomb Segment
Two alternate methods of producing this angle contour were considered: (1) bending a flat honeycomb panel; and (2) machining the angle in an initially thicker section. Bending the core in one direction causes the panel to assume an undesirable saddle shape. Furthermore, the structural integrity of the resistance welds under the forces necessary to produce a 15-degree bend was in question. Corrugation wheels were not immediately available to fabricate a core of the requisite depth for a machined 15-degree angle.

In order to transmit shear loads from the honeycomb to the baffles and injector, a shear joint must be formed between these members directly, as the face sheet thicknesses are only sufficient to transmit the panel edge moment. In more lightly loaded structure, this joint is usually brazed, some percentage of the braze joint being cracked by distortion as the panel is welded into surrounding structures. As this joint is very difficult to X-ray or repair after assembly in the honeycomb segment, it was considered safer to substitute a relatively deep electron beam weld between baffle or injector and honeycomb. As the thin gauge honeycomb cannot be welded to these thick sections directly, the design incorporated a thick layer of nickel plating on the edges of the core sections. This approach was verified by sampling before assembly of the segment.

To prevent diffusion of electroformed nickel into the face sheet to baffle welds, which were stressed to full Inconel-718 allowable levels, the design included a .060-inch thick Inconel-718 closeout between the electroformed nickel and the baffle. The nickel layer was first electron beam welded to the honeycomb panel closeout to transmit shear, then the face sheets were brazed over this joint. Finally, an electron beam weld was made joining closeout and face sheet to baffle. An intermediate closeout was not necessary at the more lightly loaded honeycomb panel-to-injector weld.

Alternate methods of shear connection between honeycomb panels and surrounding structure offer weight advantages over electroformed nickel edges, but fairly extensive development sampling would be necessary to ensure comparable reliability. Brazed connections might be developed that would not be cracked by nearby welding. Oversize honeycomb core sections might be compacted at the edges to form a nearly solid edge which could be welded directly to baffle and injector.

Although a complete honeycomb structural segment was designed, analytical results as outlined below resulted in the conclusion that accurate throat gap variations for a complete honeycomb segment could be obtained by doubling the deflections measured on the honeycomb wall side of a composite segment consisting of one honeycomb side and one rib side. To reduce fabrication time and effort, therefore, only one honeycomb side (the outer wall) was fabricated in addition to the complete rib structural segment.
Two factors were determined by the analysis: (1) the equality of deflection of the inner and outer walls was established to verify the procedure of obtaining the throat gap variations by doubling the honeycomb wall deflections; (2) the effect of the moment of inertia of the inner wall on the deflections of the honeycomb outer wall.

The inner and outer bodies were mirror images of each other and differed only in that the inner body was welded to the baffles whereas the outer body was bolted to the baffles. The three outer wall-to-baffle bolts were pre-torqued to values which prevented separation of the outer wall from the baffle. Under this condition, the bolted and welded joints were identical with respect to the effect of throat gap deflections. Therefore, the inner and outer walls of a complete honeycomb segment would be expected to deflect equally.

The effects of the inner wall rigidity on outer wall deflections were analyzed by isolation of the outer wall as a free body and consideration of the forces acting on it. Forces and moments result at the following locations:

- Chamber walls
- Baffle bolts
- Injector bolts
- Baffle bearing area
- Injector bearing area

The direct effects of chamber pressure on each of the walls is independent of the outer wall since the system is in static equilibrium. Injector bolt loads are independent of the inner structural panel design. Differences in moment of inertia between the rib and honeycomb structural panels could cause approximately a 3 percent difference in baffle bolt preload. The effect of this load differential is localized to the baffle-bolt preload area.

The forces and moments transmitted to the honeycomb wall by the injector and baffles depend upon the amount that these members deflect under the loads that are transmitted to them by either direct pressure or by the inner wall. If honeycomb and rib structural panels are considered as fixed end beams between baffles, the shear, S, and moment, M, transmitted to the fixed ends of such a beam of area, A, and length, L, is dependent only on the pressure loading, P, as indicated by the equations

\[ S = PA/2 \]
\[ M = PAL^2/12 \]

The construction of the inner wall would, therefore, not affect the loads transmitted by the baffles to the honeycomb outer wall.
(U) Changing the inner wall from a honeycomb structure to a rib structure would affect the moment transmitted through the injector to the outer honeycomb wall by an amount estimated to be less than 10 percent. This would, in turn, influence the throat deflection of the honeycomb wall by less than 1.5 percent. Thus, if a deflection of 5 percent of the initial throat gap would have occurred on each wall of a complete honeycomb segment, the deflection of the honeycomb wall in the composite structure would be less than 3.08 percent. This difference, 0.08 percent or 0.0001 inch, approaches the accuracy limitations of the dial gauge instrumentation. Based on the above analytical results, it was concluded that by measuring the deflections of the honeycomb side of a composite structural segment, the data could be used to predict the deflection and throat area changes of a complete honeycomb segment. An isometric drawing of the composite structural segment is shown in Fig. 105.

d. Fabrication

(U) The fabrication activity was divided into two distinct efforts, sample fabrication and complete fabrication. In order to assure that the actual segment fabrication effort would proceed efficiently, the designs were carefully analyzed to determine the materials, processes, and techniques with which the amount of experience or data necessary to assure success was lacking. An economical sample fabrication program was then conducted in these areas to acquire the necessary techniques or obtain required design data. This approach proved quite successful in the segment fabrication task.

(U) Sample Fabrication Program. The program was primarily devoted to the development of welding and braiding techniques applicable to the specific designs.

(c) For the rib segment, "U" channel samples were welded together using electron beam and Tungsten Inert Gas (TIG) welding methods to determine which was most suitable for the application. TIG welding has the advantage of requiring less exact fitting tolerances prior to welding since the weld rod metal can bridge small surface discontinuities. However, if proper fitting tolerances can be held, the EB welding technique results in a cleaner and lighter weld since the parent welding supplies the molten weld material. The width and penetration depth of the weld are determined by control settings on the equipment. Once these proper settings have been determined by a sample weld, all channel welds are made at the same settings so that a uniform weld is rapidly made. Test samples of channels were EB welded to provide the optimum equipment settings and to determine if fit-up problems did exist. The fit-up designs and techniques proved to be quite compatible with the EB welding process and very good samples were obtained. A photograph of an EB weld sample and an enlargement of one of the channel to channel EB welds are shown in Fig. 106 and 107.

*Under previous company sponsored effort a TIB welded structural segment was fabricated and showed the weld method to be applicable but with resulting relatively heavy welds.
Figure 105. Composite Rib/Honeycomb Structural Segment
Figure 106. Sample of electron beam welded Alc Channels
Figure 107. Closeup of Electron Beam Weld in Single Rib Channels
Samples of Inconel-718 were subjected to the same thermal history as experienced by the complete segment. For the honeycomb segment, this included the braze cycle for the panel assembly. The results indicated that a heat treat to 175,000 psi (ultimate) could be achieved for the parent material and 131,000 psi for the electron beam weld. Complete results of the tests are shown in Table 14. The heat treatment consisted of 25 minutes at 1775°F, 8 hours at 1325°F, and 8 hours at 1150°F. Prior to the heat treatment, the ultimate tensile strength of the welded sample was 35,500 psi.

Several samples simulating various facets of the honeycomb structural panel design were prepared before fabrication of the segment panels was initiated. The samples included a mechanical test specimen, a sample of nickel plating into honeycomb edge-like notches, several subscale braze samples, and a full scale structural panel similar to those used in the honeycomb segment.

The honeycomb structural panel design requires electropolating and machining operations to provide a flat surface of electroformed nickel on the irregular surfaces of three edges of a honeycomb core section while masking the two faces and the fourth edge. The honeycomb core is brazed to the face sheets to form a beam structure. A braze material had to be selected which had high strength at the elevated temperatures of the thrust chamber tubes carrying the regeneratively heated hydrogen to the injector. The nickel-plated layer at the edge of the core must be electron-beam welded to Inconel-718 baffles and injector. This weld must be of sufficient strength to transmit shear loads between the core sections and the baffles.

Accordingly, the first fabrication sample involved nickel plating an Inconel-718 block with notches machined along one edge to simulate the edge of honeycomb core. It was found that the nickel deposited more rapidly on the raised points of the edges and would tend, eventually, to form inclusions of plating solution. This tendency was eliminated by an initial plating operation, a machine cut across the edge to gain a flatter surface, and a final plating and machining of the surface (Fig. 108).

The plated block was incorporated into a mechanical test specimen designed to establish the shear strength of the electron-beam weld between Inconel-718 and the plated nickel layer. The nickel-plated Inconel-718 inner block was welded between the arms of a U-shaped outer block, also of Inconel-718 as shown in Fig. 109.

Four welds were made between the plating layer and the U-shaped block, along top and bottom of the two opposite unnotched sides of the rectangular block. The notched plating specimen edge (simulating the exterior cells of the honeycomb panel) was oriented perpendicular to the welded edges so that failure of the welds would not distort the
### TABLE 14
PROPERTIES OF INCONEL-718

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ultimate Tensile Strength, psi</th>
<th>Yield Strength, psi</th>
<th>Elongation percent</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>As Received Material</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longitudinal</td>
<td>114,700</td>
<td>51,700</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transverse</td>
<td>115,600</td>
<td>50,200</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Material After Weld and Heat Treat</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longitudinal</td>
<td>179,300</td>
<td>118,300</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transverse</td>
<td>174,700</td>
<td>113,800</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Weld Joint After Heat Treat</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130,900</td>
<td>112,000</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 108. Honeycomb Edge Plating Sample
Figure 109. Nickel Plating and Weld Sample
plating over the notches. Weld penetration was sized so that the specimen would fail in shear across the welds. As the weld beads were essentially castings of molten Inconel-718 plus pure nickel, it was expected that the weld shear strength would be intermediate between that of pure annealed nickel and that of Inconel-718, a nickel base alloy.

The specimen was heat treated after weld in a cycle that produced both the high annealing temperature which will be encountered during the actual honeycomb panel braze cycle at a temperature of 1930°F and the age hardening (8 hours at a temperature of 1325°F) to be used during the panel attachment weld heat treat. Thus, any metallurgical reactions which would occur in the segment would have been duplicated in the weld sample. Before mechanical test, a thin slice through the weld cross-sections of the specimen was removed for etching and microphotography. Microscopic and fluorescent dye penetrant inspection of this section indicated that the electron beam did not completely contact the plating and the block on one of the four welds, producing incomplete fusion and penetration. As a result, a slightly wider beam was used on the actual segment welds.

The specimen was tested to failure between the platens of a testing machine. The imposed shear load simulates the load imposed on the weld by chamber pressure as shown in Fig. 110. Inspection of the parted sample indicated that diffusion bonding had occurred over part of the area between unwelded portions of the two blocks during the heat treat cycle. Corrections for this bonded area and the incomplete penetration of the fourth weld were made in the calculation of weld failure stress. The resulting ultimate weld shear strength was 40,000 psi; i.e., double the strength of nickel plating or one-fourth the strength of Inconel-718. The plating layer exhibited excellent ductility and adhesion to the inner block. Thus, the weld specimen test showed that the structural panel-to-baffle shear joint design was entirely adequate under the calculated load.

Two subscale braze samples were prepared to check aspects of the planned honeycomb panel assembly braze cycle (Fig. 111). In particular, the stack pressure and alloy characteristics (fillet size, wetting properties, and corrosiveness) were of interest. Both full and subscale panel samples were brazed in an inner retort box having a thin sheet of metal foil welded over its top. By partially evacuating the retort, any pressure up to a full atmosphere could be applied through the foil to the honeycomb-sandwich assembly. Adequate pressure must be applied to ensure contact between the core and the braze alloy foil which was tack-welded to the face sheets. Excessive pressure must be avoided to prevent crushing the core. The pressure applied was scaled from that used during lower temperature honeycomb brazing at Los Angeles Division of North American Aviation. To ensure that air would not leak into the inert argon atmosphere in the inner retort, an outer retort was placed around the inner and filled with additional argon at atmospheric pressure.
Shear Test Sample

Test Load

Structural Segment

Chamber Pressure

Figure 110. Plated Edge Joint Weld Sample
Figure III. Subscale Honeycomb Braze Samples
Shear strength data on the preferred braze alloy, Palnriro No. 7 and two alternate alloys are shown in Fig. 112. One of the subscale braze samples employed Palnriro No. 7 alloy with a thin plating of nickel on the brazed surfaces, the other used the same alloy without plating. These two samples resulted in good wetting characteristics and fillet size with no erosion of the thin-gage core foil in both subscale samples. Therefore, no specimens were brazed with alternate alloys. The thin nickel plating over the brazed surfaces did produce slightly better wetting of the surface, and was used on the full-scale panel sample. Microsections prepared from both subscale samples indicated fillet sizes between 0.006 and 0.008 inch, which were adequate for the test segment shear loads. A microsection of the nickel-plated sample braze joint is shown in Fig. 113.

A full-size honeycomb panel was then brazed. This sample was intended to verify design factors that could not be checked at subscale; e.g., whether the fixtures to be used for the segment panels were adequate to ensure braze bonds at all necessary points in the assembly. Chamfered plexiglas masks were fabricated to exclude nickel from unplated surfaces on the honeycomb core sections. Honeycomb panels with masks prior to plating are shown in Fig. 114. Core edges were plated, machined off, and replated as was done with the plating sample. The replating cycle was terminated early on the sample core sections because of time limitations. The panel assembly, consisting of inner and outer face sheets, forward and aft core sections, and a splice sheet, was sandwiched between relatively thick upper and a lower form blocks of Inconel-718 cut to the desired shape of the final panel.

Diffusion bonding between form blocks and face sheets was prevented by placing stopoff-coated parting sheets of 0.010 thick CRES foil between them. Temperature and thermal gradients were monitored by three thermocouples. The first thermocouple was placed at the periphery of the assembly, the other two were inserted through machined ports to the centers of the upper and lower form blocks. Pressure was applied to the sandwich by partially evacuating the inner retort as with the subscale samples. The plated and brazed sample panel is shown in Fig. 115. A system of holes and grooves were machined into the form blocks to permit replacement of air with inert argon throughout the perforated core cells.

Sectioning and ultrasonic inspection of the brazed panel revealed bonds at all necessary points except a small area between the outer face sheet and core near the splice sheet. A reduction of outer face-sheet bend radius together with provision for a chamfer on the core sections was made on the actual segment and resulted in complete bonding.

Segment Fabrication. The results of the sample fabrication program resulted in accomplishment of the actual segment fabrication effort with no major problems. Because of the fewer samples required for the rib segment, the actual fabrication effort on this segment was
Figure 11.2. Shear Strength of Candidate Brazing Alloys
Figure 114. Honeycomb Panels and Supports Prior to Nickel Plating
initiated and completed first. The segments are nearly identical except for the panels. The fabrication procedure for both segments was to electron beam weld the baffles and end plates to the injector in a weld fixture. This fixture also served as the restraining device for the segments during the heat treat process after the assembly had been completed. The structural panels were electron-beam welded to the baffles and injector, and an aft manifold was electron-beam welded to each side of the segments.

The chamber tubes were 0.093 D. x 0.010 wall CHES tubing. Five tubular panels were used to cover each structural wall: three panels, consisting of 66 tubes each, to cover the area between baffles, and two panels, consisting of 6 tubes each, to cover the wall from the downstream end of the baffle to the exit manifold. The tubes were electron beam welded together to form a flat panel. To keep the stack flat while welding, the tubes were held in a fixture which clamps the tube ends against a flat plate. The panels were then bent much like a piece of sheet metal to match the chamber contour. The ends of the tubes were flattened to provide a rectangular cross section for insertion into the manifold grooves.

The rib panels consisted of U-shaped channels that were stacked in closeout plates. The plates were rigidly held in a fixture during welding to keep the panel straight and hold the distance between ends. The chamber contour was built into the closeouts and is therefore maintained in the channels.

The beginning of the rib panel assembly is shown in Fig. 116. The U channels were preformed from 0.044 inch standard sheet stock by a punch and die, cut to length, and pierced with a venting hole. They were then assembled onto the milled closeouts which serve as jigs during assembly. The complete panel, fitted into the closeouts, is shown in Fig. 117. The tapped holes in the closeouts were used in bolting the assembly into the weld fixture which prevents distortion of the panel during the welding operation. The completely welded panel is shown in Fig. 118. The milled slots in the closeouts provided locations for butt welding the panels to the closeout. The closeouts were subsequently milled down, removing most of the material visible in the photographs and leaving only sufficient material for welding to the structural baffles. A closeup view of the EB welded channels and closeout is shown in Fig. 119. The uniformity of the weld is evident in this photograph. The lines between the channel welds are scribe marks used for location purposes. Dye penetrant, X-ray, and ultrasonic inspection techniques were employed on the final panel assembly.

The remainder of the parts, baffles, end plates and injector except for the exit manifolds were machined from one-inch plate stock. The exit manifolds were made from formed and welded 0.040 inch sheet. All critical mating surfaces between components were match-machined to enable close fits without extremely tight tolerances. Figure 120 shows the injector, baffles and end plates placed in the weld-heat
Figure 116. Partial Assembly of Rib Panel
Figure 117. Rib Panel Before Welding
Figure 118. Rib Panel After EB Welding
treat fixture. Three finish machined structural panels are shown in place and the other three are laying in front of the assembly. Three of the welded and formed panel tube panels are also shown. The heat-treated structure and formed tube stack are shown in Fig. 121.

Honeycomb panel construction was initiated with the high speed abrasive sawing of the honeycomb cores. The core faces were cut to final dimension using electrical discharge machining to provide burr-free surfaces for brazeing. The machined honeycomb cores were then masked with plexiglas sheets. Each panel consisted of two pieces of honeycomb. The masked face and aft honeycomb sections were then electroplated using the alternately plating-machining sequence determine during the sample fabrication program.

After the final machining operation, the two plated honeycomb sections were placed on top of the outer face sheet (which had been overlayed with braze foil) in the lower form block which served as a jig during the braze operation. Figure 122 shows the form block, core sections, and closeout plates. A 0.040 inch Inconel-718 sheet was inserted between the core sections before adding the inner face sheet and upper form block.

Figure 123 shows a complete brazed and trimmed honeycomb panel, together with its aft channel subassembly. The three honeycomb panels were bolted into the weld-heat treat fixture together with the other components and welds were made between the honeycomb and channel subassemblies at the face sheets. Figures 124 and 125 show the weld setup before and after assembly in the fixture.

The chamber pressure loads were simulated hydraulically. To contain the hydraulic pressure, a throat plug was made by pouring a low temperature molten alloy (Cerrobend) into the throat region, removing the outer wall and plug, coating the plug and segment with a silicone rubber compound (RTV-11) and reassembling the unit. The injector and end plate joints were also sealed with the rubber compound.

c. Segment Weights

During the segment fabrication, accurate weights of the individual components were recorded. These data, together with the design criteria used, provide information for comparing the weights of the rib and honeycomb segments on an as-fabricated basis. Comparisons can also be made on the basis of weight reductions resulting from many factors.

A summary of the as-fabricated weights is given in Table 15 on the basis of one compartment, i.e., segment weights between two compartment center-lines, including the fobble. On this basis, the honeycomb structural panel is 42 percent heavier than the rib panel which results in the honeycomb compartment weight being approximately 15 percent.
## TABLE 15

STRUCTURAL SEGMENT WEIGHT COMPARISON

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weight Per Compartment, lbs.</th>
<th>Rib</th>
<th>Honeycomb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(lbs)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(lbs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outer Combustor</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural Panel</td>
<td>1.703</td>
<td>2.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baffle</td>
<td>0.978</td>
<td>0.978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inj. Attach Ring</td>
<td>0.773</td>
<td>0.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exit Manifold</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel Tubes</td>
<td>0.259</td>
<td>0.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baffle Tubes</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inner Combustor</strong></td>
<td>4.770</td>
<td>5.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural Panel</td>
<td>1.703</td>
<td>2.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baffle</td>
<td>1.375</td>
<td>1.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injector</td>
<td>1.350</td>
<td>1.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exit Manifold</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel Tubes</td>
<td>0.259</td>
<td>0.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baffle Tubes</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fasteners</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Baffle Bolts &amp; Washers</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td>0.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Inj. Bolts &amp; Washers</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>9.187</td>
<td>10.621</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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greater than the rib compartment weight. The total weight of a 24-compartment thrust chamber using rib and honeycomb structures would be 220 and 255 pounds, respectively. However, several weight reductions could be accomplished as indicated in the following paragraphs.

As previously noted, some of the materials used were heavier than required by design simply because of availability of these items. In the rib structural panel, the U channels were made from 0.044-inch sheet stock although the design required only 0.040 inch for the web portion and 0.028 inch for the face sheet portion. A weight reduction of 0.600 pounds per compartment would result from use of the design values. Reduction of the Inconel sheet thickness in the honeycomb panel from 0.044 inch to the design values and reduction of the honeycomb core density from the available 40.5 lbs/ft^3 to the design 35 lbs/ft^3 would reduce the compartment weight by 0.862 pounds.

On the basis of the experience gained during the fabrication of the panels, additional weight savings can be effected. By eliminating the closeouts in all unnecessary areas, a weight reduction of 0.40 pounds could be achieved for the rib segment. By a similar elimination, where applicable, to the honeycomb segment and also removing the nickel plating in unnecessary areas the weight of each compartment would be reduced by 1.10 pounds. The segments, therefore, could have been built with present knowledge such that the compartment weights would be 8.18 and 8.66 pounds, respectively, for the rib and honeycomb structures. The honeycomb compartment would be only 6 percent heavier than the rib compartment and the complete chamber weights would be approximately 200 pounds.

Further weight reductions could be effected with the expenditure of additional effort to develop the necessary techniques. These reductions involve improved methods of joining the panels to the baffles and injectors. By eliminating the closeout construction and obtaining Class I welds to the baffle (or by utilizing an integral construction method), an additional weight savings of 1.02 pounds per compartment would be effected which would result in a thrust chamber weight of approximately 175 pounds. These results are summarized in Table 16. It may thus be concluded that the weights of the rib and honeycomb structures are fairly similar for the combustion chamber.

Structural Tests

Both the rib segment and the composite segment consisting of the rib inner body and the honeycomb outer body were subjected to a number of cycles of hydraulic pressure from 0 to 650 psig to verify their structural integrity and to obtain data indicating the effect of chamber pressure on throat area. Analytical models of both segments were formulated and used to predict the deflections under test conditions as well as under actual chamber pressure loading. The two conditions were not exactly equivalent because of the effects of the device used to contain the hydraulic pressure; in this case, the throat plug.
**CONFIDENTIAL**

**TABLE 16**

**SUMMARY OF POTENTIAL WEIGHT REDUCTIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Weight Per Compartment (lbs)</th>
<th>Honeycomb Weight Rib Weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>As-fabricated</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.19</td>
<td>10.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Using As-designed Materials</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.59</td>
<td>9.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Using State-of-art Lightening Methods</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td>8.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Class I Welds or Integral Construction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>7.72</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Details of the analytical method are presented in Appendix D. The outer body half of the chamber was modeled as a space gridwork of beam-like members. This equivalent model was analyzed by computer using the stiffness method. The same basic analytical model was used for both structures. The member section properties were varied to reflect the differences in the construction of ribbed and honeycomb core segments. The space gridwork used in the analysis is shown in Fig. 126. Pressure loads were applied to the structural model as equivalent nodal point forces and moments.

Throat area changes were determined from calculated deflections. A throat area change of 2.6 percent was calculated for the case of no throat plug for the rib structure. The corresponding change for the honeycomb construction was 2.9 percent. Both deflections were evaluated at 690 psia.

The calculated deflections at the midspan of the center compartment for both the rib and honeycomb type segments are shown in Fig. 127. The usefulness of honeycomb panels in stiffening the structure is evident in the area of the injector but results in similar deflections at the throat. For a complete thrust chamber, the actual operating throat deflections will be slightly greater than those calculated, since additional loads are introduced by the shroud pressures aft of the throat.

The use of a metal throat plug seal in the test imposed chamber loads not normally present when pressure alone is considered. The forces acting on the structure due to internal chamber pressure with and without the throat plug are shown in Fig. 128. Consideration of the free body diagram of the plug shows that the magnitude of the normal load on the converging chamber section is dependent on the frictional shear traction developed between the plug and the chamber wall. The analyses were performed for both segments using a friction factor of 0.2. Comparison of the measured mid-compartment deflections with the throat deflections calculated considering the throat plug loads is shown in Table 17.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Measured Deflection</th>
<th>Calculated Deflection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rib Structure</td>
<td>0.0077&quot;</td>
<td>0.0079&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honeycomb/Rib Structure</td>
<td>0.0071&quot;</td>
<td>0.0080&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From these data, it can be concluded that the differences in rigidity between the rib and honeycomb structural segments are small.
Figure 177. Calculated Deflections at Midspan of Segments
CASE I: LOADS WITH THROAT PLUG

FREE BODY DIAGRAM OF PLUG

\[ \Sigma F = 0 \]
\[ F_p = N \sin \beta + \mu N \cos \beta \]

CASE II: LOADS WITHOUT THROAT PLUG

Figure 126. Structural Loads With and Without Throat Plugs
For the rib structure, strain gages were placed on the outer body of the center compartment. In addition, four of the six baffle bolts were strain gaged in order to determine the bolt load variation along the baffle. The strain gage and instrumented bolt locations are shown in Fig. 129.

Throat deflections were measured by dial gages mounted on each side of the throat at three locations. The instrument accuracy of these gages was 0.0001 inch. The positions of the dial gages are also shown in Fig. 129. The test arrangement is shown in Fig. 130. The rib segment was hydrostatically cycled from 0 to 650 psig a total of 22 times with no damage to the segment. The measured bolt loads and strains are plotted versus pressure in Fig. 131 and 132. The measured total throat deflections at 650 psig were 0.0077 inch at the midspan of the center compartment and 0.0040 inch at the baffle as shown in Fig. 133. The maximum measured change in bolt load due to pressure was 2160 pounds. The maximum strain at 650 psig was 420 µin/in at location 1. (Fig. 129).

The honeycomb composite structural segment was cycled to 650 psig a total of 15 times without any damaging effects. Less extensive data were taken on this segment but the midspan total deflection was 0.0071 inch. The difference between the total measured midspan deflection for the honeycomb/rib composite segment and the complete rib segment was 0.0006 inch. The difference between the deflections of a complete honeycomb segment and a complete rib segment would be twice this value, or 0.0012 inch.

Conclusions From Structural Segments

On the basis of the data obtained during this program, it may be concluded that lightweight thrust chamber structures can be fabricated using rib or honeycomb material that will result in limiting throat area variations resulting from chamber pressure to much less than the target goal of 10 percent of the nominal throat area. The weight and rigidity data obtained for the rib and honeycomb segments indicated that these criteria would not form a strong basis for selection of either concept. Ease of fabrication for the two types of structure was also fairly similar for the segment construction but could change significantly when applied to fabrication of a complete thrust chamber.
NOTE:

- DENOTES INSTRUMENTED BOLT
- DENOTES STRAIN GAGE
△ DENOTES DIAL GAGE

SECTION A - A

(TYPICAL 3 PLACES)

Figure 129. Instrumentation for Rib Structure Segment
Figure 130. Test Setup for Structural Segments
Figure 131. Measured Bolt Load vs Pressure
For Rib Segment
218
Figure 132. Measured Strain vs Pressure for Rib Segment
Figure 133. Rib Structural Segment Throat Deflection at 650 psig
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

(c) On the basis of the analytical and experimental results obtained during this program, the following may be concluded:

1. Chamber performance ($\eta_c$) in excess of 99 percent can be achieved over the design 9:1 throttling range.

2. This performance can be maintained while limiting heat transfer rates to values compatible with a two-pass regenerative cooling configuration.

3. The heat transfer and performance characteristics of the thrust chamber depend strongly upon the geometric configuration (contour) of the chamber, the injector configuration, and the interaction between the two.

4. Hot gas for use as a turbine drive fluid can be obtained by tapping combustion chamber gases through the injector without significantly degrading combustion chamber performance.

5. The properties of these tapoff gases are relatively insensitive to throttling over the range of chamber pressures tested (290 to 483 psia).

6. Use of injector mixture ratio bias as a heat transfer control mechanism results in substantial performance losses if compensating injector redesign is not accomplished.

7. Injector stability throughout the throttle range can be achieved when the oxidizer is injected as a two-phase fluid.

8. Thrust chamber performance, heat transfer characteristics, and system stability can be investigated relatively inexpensively and with considerable flexibility using water-cooled segments.

9. Evaluation of particular regenerative cooling configurations (e.g., tube materials and dimensions) can be accomplished in tube-wall segments.

10. Throat area deflections resulting from thermal and chamber pressure loads can be reduced to small values by the structural-baffle configuration.

11. The throat area variations resulting from chamber pressure changes are analytically predictable for the subsonic baffle configuration and amount to less than 3 percent over the 0 to 100 percent chamber pressure range.
12. Chambers using rib or honeycomb as the structural material weigh approximately the same and exhibit similar throat area pressure sensitivities.

(c) Based on the favorable results obtained to date, further work for demonstration of the complete thrust chamber is recommended. Additional tests should be conducted using full-compartment-width segments (~6 inches baffle-to-baffle distance) to further refine the contour G geometry for maximum cooling margin and to evaluate the aspects of the baffle cooling. This testing should also include bomb or pulse gun tests to evaluate the degree of inherent combustion stability of the design. Additional segment injector comparative evaluation tests should also be conducted prior to making a final selection between the triplet and impinging fan patterns. Heated hydrogen at engine injector design inlet conditions should be used on all future segment tests because of its strong influence on performance and stability.

(c) Following the above additional segment tests, design and fabrication of a full 360 degree thrust chamber should be undertaken to demonstrate the performance, stability, and regenerative cooling of the complete prototype design. This can be accomplished with a high degree of confidence as a result of the data obtained from the segment testing.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION AND RESULTING STRAINS IN THROAT REGION OF WATER COOLED COPPER SEGMENT

(U) The heating program (Ref. 5) was used to compute the temperature distribution in the throat region of the copper water-cooled test segment. The throat section and region analyzed are shown in Fig. A-1. The geometry was approximated by rectangular regions as shown in Fig. A-2.

(U) Portions of the coolant-side wall assumed to be in a nucleate boiling regime were fixed at a temperature of 700 F. For coolant-side boundaries where the wall temperature was too low for nucleate boiling, a convective film coefficient computed from the equation:

\[ h_c = 0.023 \frac{k}{D} (\frac{\rho V D}{\mu})^{0.8} (\frac{c_p}{k})^{0.4} \]

was used. The thermal conductivity of the copper wall was assumed to be 0.00462 Btu/in-sec-deg F.

(U) The temperature distribution computed for a gas-side film coefficient of 0.003 Btu/in\(^2\)-sec-deg F is presented in Fig. A-2.

On the basis of these thermal calculation results variations in the geometric throat plane resulting from the following causes were analyzed.

1. Thermo-elastic-plastic deformation which occurs as a result of the steep temperature gradients near the nozzle surface.

2. Thermal growth of the entire nozzle block arising from its average temperature increase (considered separately from the steep temperature gradient zone).

3. Deflections resulting from the variable combustion gas static pressure loading acting normal to the nozzle surfaces.

(U) The deflections arising from the above three causes were calculated separately. The total throat area change was obtained by superimposing the results of the three analyses.

Thermo-Elastic-Plastic Deformation

(U) From the general equation for total strain we have:

\[ \epsilon_T = \epsilon_E + \epsilon_p + \epsilon_{Th} \quad (1) \]
Figure A-1. Throat Region Geometry for Water-Cooled Copper Segment
Fig. A.2 - Temperature Distribution in Throat Region of Water-Cooled Copper Segment - \( t = 0.03 \) sec - Btu/lb-sec - \( \Delta t = 0.252 \) Btu/lb-sec-

\[ h_0 = 0.052 \text{ Btu/in}^2-\text{sec}^{-1} \text{deg}-\text{F} \]
Which simply states that the total strain is the sum of the elastic, plastic and thermal strain components. The first and last terms of Eq (1) may be treated as reversible. The second term is ordinarily considered as irreversible; however, for this case, it will be found that reverse plastic flow occurs as a result of temperature decay at cutoff, although not in a completely reversible manner.

Considering the first term of Eq (1), the elastic strain component, we have from the general equations of elastic strain

\[ \epsilon_x = \frac{(\sigma_x - \mu \sigma_y - \mu \sigma_z)}{E} \]
\[ \epsilon_y = \frac{(\sigma_y - \mu \sigma_x - \mu \sigma_z)}{E} \]
\[ \epsilon_z = \frac{(\sigma_z - \mu \sigma_y - \mu \sigma_x)}{E} \]

where the relationship between stress and strain is linear. Since we shall find that the thermal gradients induce stresses far in excess of the elastic limit, a similar set of equations for plastic strain would be desirable. However, the non-linearity of the relationship between tensile plastic strain and stress makes this difficult.

One analytical technique which has been devised to overcome this problem is based on the assumption of a linear relationship between the octahedral shear stress and plastic strain. While the derivation of the desired linear plastic strain equations will not be given here, Ref. 12 shows how the equations which are developed by the above assumption are given by

\[ \sigma_{xp} = \frac{(\sigma_x - \mu \sigma_y - \mu \sigma_z)}{E_{sec}} \]
\[ \sigma_{yp} = \frac{(\sigma_y - \mu \sigma_x - \mu \sigma_z)}{E_{sec}} \]
\[ \sigma_{zp} = \frac{(\sigma_z - \mu \sigma_y - \mu \sigma_x)}{E_{sec}} \]

where \( E_{sec} \) is the secant modulus of elasticity taken from the tensile-stress-strain diagram for plastic strain only. This diagram must be entered at an effective stress \( \sigma \) which represents the stress resulting from combined multiaxial load.

To determine \( \sigma \) in terms of the principal stresses, the following assumption is made: The degree of plastic action was governed by the plastic strain energy involved.

The resulting equation for the effective stress \( \sigma \), as derived in Ref. 12, is

\[ \sigma = \sqrt{(\sigma_x - \sigma_y)^2 + (\sigma_x - \sigma_z)^2 + (\sigma_y - \sigma_z)^2} \]
When the three principal stresses are known, it is then possible to calculate the plastic strains by the following steps:

1. Calculate the effective stress $\overline{\sigma}$ from Eq (8).
2. Enter the plastic stress-strain diagram for simple tension at this value of $\overline{\sigma}$ and determine $E_{sec}$.
3. Use this value of $E_{sec}$ in Eq's 5, 6, and 7 together with a value of $\mu = 1/2$ (Poisson's ratio for ideal plastic flow).

The above method is based on the deformation theory of plasticity, and is frequently used in problems of this nature because of the simplification arising from the linearized assumptions.

The solution to the present problem is complicated by the steep temperature gradients which result in variable thermal strains and material properties, and a complex cross-sectional shape. In order to accomplish a practical solution, an analytical model was established which divided the steep temperature gradient zone into a series of flat plate elements of assumed constant elevated temperature and material properties. The thermo-elastic-plastic deformation of each plate element was then calculated, based on the principal stresses. While this technique does not account for shear stresses and resulting strains which may develop in the $xy$ plane between adjacent elements, these strains induce relatively small strains in the $z$ direction.

The principal stresses in this case were seen to be the result of restraints against thermal growth imposed by the material surrounding the plate elements. Because of the complex geometric shape, the technique used was to estimate the maximum and minimum restraints in three dimensions for each element. The deformations normal to the nozzle surface arising from these maximum and minimum restraint conditions were then calculated for each element and added for the total deformation at the surface, resulting in a maximum and minimum total deformation.

All of the restraint conditions may be described as either uniaxial restraint

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_z = 0, \quad \sigma_x = f(\epsilon_x)$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

or biaxial restraint

$$\sigma_z = 0, \quad \sigma_x = f(\epsilon_x) = \sigma_y = f(\epsilon_y)$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

Substituting either of the stress states (9 and 10) into Eq (8), we find that in both cases,

$$\overline{\sigma} = \sigma_x \quad \text{or} \quad \overline{\sigma} = \sigma_x = \sigma_y$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)
or that the effective stress \( \bar{\sigma} \) for either of the assumed restraint conditions is equal to the principal stress (this is unique to these two conditions). Circumstance (11) then affords a further simplification of the analysis. Starting with the basic relationship (1) the total strain in the z direction, (normal to the nozzle surface)

\[
\varepsilon_z = \varepsilon_{z_E} + \varepsilon_{z_p} + \varepsilon_{z_{Th}}
\]

(12)

(U) Substituting values of \( \varepsilon_{z_E} \) and \( \varepsilon_{z_p} \) from Eq's (4) and (7)

\[
\varepsilon = \frac{\sigma_z - \mu \sigma_x - \mu \sigma_y}{E} + \frac{\sigma_z - \mu_p \sigma_x - \mu_p \sigma_y}{E_{sec}} + \varepsilon_{z_{Th}}
\]

(13)

(U) Considering the stress state for uniaxial restraint, (10), and substituting in (13)

\[
\varepsilon_z = \frac{-\mu \sigma_x}{E} - \frac{\mu \sigma_y}{E_{sec}} + \varepsilon_{z_{Th}}
\]

(14)

(U) Similarly, for biaxial restraint conditions (11)

\[
\varepsilon_z = -2\frac{\mu \sigma_x}{E} - 4\frac{\mu \sigma_y}{E_{sec}} + \varepsilon_{z_{Th}}
\]

(15)

(U) A relationship between \( E_{sec} \) and \( \sigma \) was obtained from the tensile stress-strain diagram. By previous identity,

\[
E_{sec} = \frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon} = \frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon_T - \frac{\sigma}{E}}
\]

(16)

(U) Since \( \bar{\sigma} = \sigma \) for the two assumed conditions of restraint,

\[
E_{sec} = \sigma/\left( \varepsilon_T - \frac{\sigma}{E} \right) = \sigma/\left( \varepsilon - \frac{\sigma}{E} \right)
\]

(17)

(U) Substituting this value for \( E_{sec} \) in Eq (14) and adding the appropriate subscripts,

\[
\varepsilon_z = \frac{-\mu \sigma_x}{E} - \frac{\mu \sigma_y}{E} \left( \varepsilon - \frac{\sigma}{E} \right)/E + \varepsilon_{z_{Th}}
\]

(18)

simplifying

\[
\varepsilon_z = \frac{[-\mu \sigma_x + \mu \left( \varepsilon - \frac{\sigma}{E} \right)]}{E} + \varepsilon_{z_{Th}}
\]

(19)
Similarly, for biaxial restraint conditions

\[ \epsilon_z = -\left[ 2 \mu \sigma_0 + 4 \mu_p \left( \epsilon_x E - \sigma_x \right) \right] / E + \epsilon_{Th} \quad (20) \]

Equations 19 and 20 express the total strain normal to the surface of each element in terms of known quantities, and include the effects of continuing elastic volume dilatation during non-ideal plastic flow.

For computation purposes, the following values were used in Eq's (19) and (20):

\[ \mu = 1/3 \]
\[ \mu_p = 1/2 \]

\[ \sigma_x = f(\epsilon, T) \] taken from the tensile stress-strain curve at the average temperature of the element, at the appropriate value of \( \epsilon_x T \)

\[ \epsilon_x T = -\eta \Delta T, \] taken from absolute expansion data

\[ \epsilon = \eta \Delta T, \] taken from absolute expansion data

\( \Delta T \) the average temperature rise of each plate element above the steady state temperature of the nozzle block. This was obtained by numerically averaging the temperature over the cross section of each element.

The resulting thermo-elastic-plastic deformation was calculated for both throat sides and the throat area variations plotted in Fig. 28.

Thermal Growth of the Entire Nozzle Block and Pressure Effects

The thermal analysis results indicated that the copper temperature at the cold side of the water passages was in the order of 120 F for \( h_g = 0.003 \) Btu/in²·sec·F. Because of the very high thermal conductivity of the copper this temperature is fairly constant over the entire nozzle block (behind the water passages to the ambient surface). A gross temperature rise of this magnitude (approximately 50F) would affect the throat area by approximately 0.1 percent.

The effect of 650 psia chamber pressure on the throat area was found to be even less significant than the effect of copper block temperature rise.
(U) The determination of performance based on thrust measurement requires consideration of base pressure effects on the segment. This effect can lead to errors in the measured thrust values.

(C) A diagram of the base of the engine showing the aft closure ring and the angular position nomenclature is presented in Fig. B-1. Extensive data were accumulated on the pressure difference with respect to ambient pressure at various locations on the base for different thrust levels. The data are presented in Table B-1 and indicated that the base pressure was quite small, especially with the 15-degree exit angle nozzle where the lower values approached the accuracy of the measurements. The pressure on the base of the ring was found to be approximately -0.03 psi. The data for the 30 degree exit nozzle indicated trends of increasing negative base pressure with increasing chamber pressure and proximity to the nozzle flow field. However, when the data are presented on the basis of a percentage contribution to the thrust, the base pressure effect varied from 0.5 to 1.0 percent with most of the data indicating a thrust reduction of 0.7 ± 0.1 percent resulting from aspiration of the base. Accordingly, the appropriate corrections were applied to the values of measured thrust.
### TABLE B-1
ENGINE BASE-PRESSURE DATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exit Angle deg.</th>
<th>Position Angle Deg.</th>
<th>Dist. From C, in.</th>
<th>$P_c$ psia</th>
<th>$P_{Base}$ psi (neg.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>0.05</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>360</td>
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<td>600</td>
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</table>
APPENDIX C

STRUCTURAL WEIGHT EQUATIONS

The variations of skin and core weight with the number of baffles and the backup structure depth are illustrated by reference to the bending and shear stress formulas. The backup structure between baffles acts as a fixed-fixed beam with uniform loading. The maximum bending moments and shear loads occur at the baffles and are given in Eq. (1) and (2) for a unit-width beam. (See nomenclature list at end of Appendix.)

\[ M = \frac{pL^2}{12} \]  \hspace{1cm} (1)

\[ v = \frac{pL}{2} \]  \hspace{1cm} (2)

The length of the beam is then inversely proportional to the number of baffles.

\[ L = \frac{2 \pi R}{N_B} \]  \hspace{1cm} (3)

\[ M = \frac{\pi^2}{3} R^2 p \frac{1}{N_B} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4)

\[ v = \pi R p \frac{1}{N_B} \]  \hspace{1cm} (5)

The variations in bending moments and shear loading are, therefore:

\[ \frac{M_2}{M_1} = \left( \frac{N_{B_1}}{N_{B_2}} \right)^2 \]  \hspace{1cm} (6)

\[ \frac{v_2}{v_1} = \left( \frac{N_{B_1}}{N_{B_2}} \right) \]  \hspace{1cm} (7)
For the honeycomb backup structure, the section modulus and bending stress are as given in Eq. (8) and (9) respectively.

\[ Z = \frac{dt}{dt} \]  \hspace{1cm} (8)

\[ \sigma_B = \frac{M}{dt} \]  \hspace{1cm} (9)

For a constant bending stress

\[ \frac{\sigma_{B_2}}{\sigma_{B_1}} = \frac{M_2}{Z_2} = \frac{Z_1}{M_1} \left[ \frac{N_{B_1}}{N_{B_2}} \right]^2 \frac{d_1 t_1}{d_2 t_2} \]  \hspace{1cm} (10)

so that the skin thicknesses and resulting weights are given by

\[ \frac{V_{t_2}}{V_{t_1}} = \frac{t_2}{t_1} = \left[ \frac{N_{B_1}}{N_{B_2}} \right]^2 \frac{d_1}{d_2} \]  \hspace{1cm} (11)

The honeycomb design is based upon the critical shear stress

\[ F_s = 1.307 \left[ \frac{\rho_{c_1}}{\rho_c} \right] 1.34 \frac{F_{su}}{d^{0.44}} \]  \hspace{1cm} (12)

For a given material, the ratio of the critical shear stresses is:

\[ \frac{F_{S_2}}{F_{S_1}} = \left[ \frac{\rho_{c_2}}{\rho_{c_1}} \right] 1.34 \left[ \frac{d_1}{d_2} \right]^{0.44} \]  \hspace{1cm} (13)
The actual shear stress is

\[
\frac{F_{S2}}{F_{S1}} = \frac{V_2}{d_2} = \frac{d_1}{N_{B1}} = \frac{d_1}{d_2} \quad (14)
\]

Solving Eq. (13) and (14) simultaneously

\[
\rho_{C2} = \left[ \begin{array}{c} N_{B1} \\ N_{B2} \end{array} \right]^{0.75} \left[ \begin{array}{c} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{array} \right]^{0.42} \quad (15)
\]

The resulting weight variation is then:

\[
\frac{W_{T2}}{W_{T1}} = \rho_{C2} = \frac{d_2}{d_1} = \left[ \begin{array}{c} N_{B1} \\ N_{B2} \end{array} \right]^{0.75} \left[ \begin{array}{c} d_2 \\ d_1 \end{array} \right]^{0.58} \quad (16)
\]
APPENDIX D

STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS METHOD

1. SPACE FRAME ANALYSIS

The thrust chamber outer body was idealized as a 3-dimensional gridwork of (beam-like) members and rigid bodies. Chamber pressure loads were simulated by applying equivalent forces and moments at the intersection of the members (node points). The individual members and rigid bodies were assembled into the equivalent structure utilizing the stiffness method, i.e., nodal equilibrium equations were written. The resulting stiffness matrix was inverted and the nodal displacements determined. The nodal displacements were then utilized to determine the individual member reactions. Many books and papers have been published on this method of analysis (Ref. 6 through 8).

The following is a brief outline of the method and a description of the analysis computer program as used at Rocketdyne:

All six degrees of freedom are allowed for each nodal point. Three-dimensional structures can be analyzed. The members must be of doubly symmetric cross section, but the principal axes of the section may be arbitrarily oriented. The influence of shear deformation and rigid bodies can be included in the analysis. The entire analysis has been programmed for the IBM system/360 Model 40-65 computers.

The forces and displacements of each member are referred to the member and the common axis systems:

![Diagram of member axis system]

The member 1-axis is the elastic line of the member, the 2 and 3-axes are along the principal axes of the cross section of the member. Each member and member axis system is referred to a common orthogonal axis system.
The forces and displacements at each end (Nodes A and B) of member AB are expressed as the \((1 \times 1)\) column vectors \([F]_M\) and \([U]_M\).

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
F_A^1 \\
F_A^2 \\
F_A^3 \\
M_A^1 \\
M_A^2 \\
M_A^3 \\
F_B^1 \\
F_B^2 \\
F_B^3 \\
M_B^1 \\
M_B^2 \\
M_B^3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

and

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
U_A^1 \\
U_A^2 \\
U_A^3 \\
\theta_A^1 \\
\theta_A^2 \\
\theta_A^3 \\
U_B^1 \\
U_B^2 \\
U_B^3 \\
\theta_B^1 \\
\theta_B^2 \\
\theta_B^3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

where

- \(F_A^i, F_B^i\) = Component of node force at A and B along the member i axis.
- \(M_A^i, M_B^i\) = Component of node moment at A and B along the member i axis.
- \(U_A^i, U_B^i\) = Component of node displacement at A and B along the member i axis.
- \(\theta_A^i, \theta_B^i\) = Component of node rotation at A and B along the member i axis.
The member forces and displacements are related by the \((12 \times 12)\) member stiffness matrix \(k_M\), i.e.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{F}_M \\
\mathbf{U}_M
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{k} \end{bmatrix}_M
\]

where

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
k_{11} & k_{12} & \cdots & k_{112} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
k_{121} & \cdots & k_{1212} \\
\end{bmatrix} = (12 \times 12) \text{ symmetric member stiffness matrix which relates forces and moments referred to member axis system.}
\]

These member stiffness matrices are derived for all the members joining node points or joining rigid bodies.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{F}_{M_1} \\
\mathbf{U}_{M_1}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{k} \end{bmatrix}_{M_1}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{F}_{M_2} \\
\mathbf{U}_{M_2}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{k} \end{bmatrix}_{M_2}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{F}_{M_N} \\
\mathbf{U}_{M_N}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{k} \end{bmatrix}_{M_N}
\]

\(N = \text{No. of members}\)
The vector rotation transformation matrix which relates the member axis system to the common axis system is used to express the member forces and displacements as components along the common axis system.

Let

\[
\{X\}_c = [\lambda] \{X\}_M
\]

\[
\{X\}_c = (3 \times 1) \text{ any vector referred to common axis system}
\]

\[
\{X\}_M = (3 \times 1) \text{ same vector referred to member axis system}
\]

\[
[\lambda] = (3 \times 3) \text{ rotation transformation matrix of direction cosines between the common and member axes.}
\]

Then the force and displacement vectors for the Nth member can be referred to the common co-ordinate system by

\[
\{F\}_c = [T] \{F\}_M \quad \text{or} \quad \{F\}_c = [T]^{-1} \{F\}_c
\]

and

\[
\{U\}_c = [T] \{U\}_M \quad \text{or} \quad \{U\}_c = [T]^{-1} \{U\}_c
\]

where

\[
[T] = \begin{bmatrix}
[\lambda] & 0 \\\n0 & [\lambda] \\
0 & 0
\end{bmatrix} = (12 \times 12) \text{ member transformation matrix}
\]
Then the member force-displacement relationship can be written

\[
\{F\}_M = [k]_M \{U\}_M
\]

or

\[
[T]^{-1} \{F\}_c = [k]_M [T]^{-1} \{U\}_c
\]

or

\[
\{F\}_c = [T] [k] [T]^{-1} \{U\}_c
\]

but \([T]\) is orthogonal, therefore

\[
[T]^{-1} = [T]^T
\]

and the member force-displacement relationship, referred to the common axis system, becomes

\[
\{F\}_c = [T] [k] [T]^T \{U\}_c
\]

which is rewritten as

\[
\{F\}_c = [k]_a \{U\}_c
\]
where

\[ \begin{bmatrix} k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} K \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T \end{bmatrix} \]

- Member stiffness matrix referred to common axis system.

\((U)\) The member stiffness matrices referred to the common axis system are computed for members 1 through \(N\):

\[ \begin{bmatrix} k \end{bmatrix}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} T \end{bmatrix}_{1} \begin{bmatrix} k \end{bmatrix}_{1} \begin{bmatrix} T \end{bmatrix}_{1} \]

\[ \begin{bmatrix} k \end{bmatrix}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} T \end{bmatrix}_{2} \begin{bmatrix} k \end{bmatrix}_{2} \begin{bmatrix} T \end{bmatrix}_{2} \]

\[ \vdots \]

\[ \begin{bmatrix} k \end{bmatrix}_{N} = \begin{bmatrix} T \end{bmatrix}_{N} \begin{bmatrix} k \end{bmatrix}_{N} \begin{bmatrix} T \end{bmatrix}_{N} \]

\((U)\) The total structure stiffness matrix for the system is constructed from those \((12 \times 12)\) member stiffnesses by summing components at the nodes and is defined as

\[ \begin{bmatrix} X_T \end{bmatrix} \]

\((N \times N)\)
The force-displacement relation for the entire structure is now expressible as

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
F_T \\
K_T \\
U_T
\end{bmatrix}
\]

As the matrix \(K_m\) is now formed, it is singular (i.e., \(\text{DET} \, K_T = 0\)) and the matrix equation has only trivial solutions. When the boundary conditions are applied (and the corresponding rows and columns of \(K_T\) removed) the unknown displacements can be found by inversion of the reduced \(K_T\) matrix

\[
\{U\} = \left[K_T\right]^{-1} \{F\}
\]

The inversion of the reduced \([K_T]\) matrix is performed by using the square-root (Choleski's) method, where the given system

\[
\{F\} = \left[K_T\right] \{U\}
\]

is replaced by the system

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
S^-T \\
S
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\{A\} \\
\{U\}
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
\{F\} \\
\{A\}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

i.e.

\[
[K] = \left[S\right]^{-T} \left[S\right]
\]
Where

\[ [S] = \text{Triangular matrix} \]

(U) When the displacements are known, the forces and stress resultants with respect to the member axis system are calculated.

2. **APPLICATION TO STRUCTURAL SEGMENTS**

(U) The thrust chamber outer body segment was idealized as a space gridwork of beam-like members. The injector, baffles, and end plates were assumed to displace as rigid bodies. The rigid bodies were supported by members whose stiffness match the geometric dimensions of the injector, baffle and end plate.

(U) The member section properties were calculated from drawing dimensions of the rib and honeycomb segments. In the analysis of the rib-type structure, the longitudinal members were assumed to have "I" beam-type sections. The transverse members were assumed to have only the combined skin section properties. In the analysis of the honeycomb segment, the members were assumed to be of rectangular cross section with the outer skins carrying the direct and bending axial loads. The properties of these members are given in Tables D-1 and D-2. The numbers refer to points shown in Fig. 126. A more rigorous method for determining equivalent section properties for plane and plate structures is given in Ref. 10 and 11.

(U) Shear deformation was considered for the members, where shear deformation factors of 1.00 and 1.20 were assumed for the "I"-type members and the rectangular members, respectively. Shear deformation is the deflection (besides the bending moment induced deflection) which is imposed by shear forces:

\[
U_s = a \int \frac{\partial U}{\partial V} V \, dx
\]

where

- \( U = \text{Deflection due to unit shear load, } V = 1 \text{ lb.}, \text{ and } U = \frac{V}{A} \text{ strain energy of the member.} \)
- \( A = \text{Cross sectional area} \)
- \( G = \text{Shear modulus (Lame's parameter)} \)
- \( V = \text{Applied shear force} \)
- \( a = \text{Shear deformation factor} \)

(U) Because the bolts used to tie the baffle sections together were preloaded the stiffness of the baffle support member used in the analysis was modified. This was done by calculating an equivalent modulus for the member.
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<tr>
<th>Member</th>
<th>Area (in^2)</th>
<th>Young's Modulus (ksi)</th>
<th>Shear Modulus (kips)</th>
<th>Shear Factor 2</th>
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**NOTE:** IF ZERO INERTIAS ARE ASSIGNED, PRINTED SOLUTIONS FOR CORRESPONDING ROTATIONS ARE WITHOUT VALUE.
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ADVANCED THRUST CHAMBER FOR SPACE MANEUVERING PROPULSION
(Unclassified Title)

Final Report on Tasks II and III

Diem, H. G. and Pauckert, R. P.

July 1967

An analytical and experimental study was conducted to evaluate the critical design aspects of a toroidal thrust chamber for an aerospike engine using LPG/LH2 propellants. Combustion chamber performance, heat transfer characteristics, regenerative cooling capability, and structural integrity were investigated and demonstrated by testing segments of the complete chamber.

The experimental efforts were first conducted with water-cooled segments and resulted in the selection of a near-optimum injector/combustion chamber configuration which was found to give high C* efficiency while maintaining heat transfer rates within the capability of a two-pass regenerative cooling system design. Withdrawal of combustion chamber gases through the injector for turbine drive was also demonstrated. Tube wall segments, designed on the basis of the solid-wall segment test results, demonstrated two-pass regenerative cooling and feed system stability over the 9:1 throttling range. Chamber performance in excess of 99 percent C* efficiency over the throttle range was achieved.

Structural segments, fabricated using lightweight rib and honeycomb support structures, were cycled from 0 to 650 psig using hydraulic pressure to simulate chamber pressure. Analytical and experimental data agreed closely and indicated that throat area variations over the throttling range would be less than 3 percent for chambers using either the rib or honeycomb designs.
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**Security Classification**

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