HEAT TRANSFER AND PRESSURE DISTRIBUTIONS
ON RE-ENTRY NOSE SHAPES
IN THE VKI LONGSHOT HYPersonic Tunnel

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Heat transfer and pressure distributions have been made on five vehicle nose shapes in the VKI Longshot free piston wind tunnel at M=15 and 20. The flow parameters achieved closely simulate aerodynamic re-entry conditions. The models used in the study were a 50°-80° biconic configuration, with sharp- and blunt-nosed versions and a sharp-nosed version with a machined roughness, and a hemisphere configuration with a smooth and a sand-blasted rough surface. These configurations resemble the stable shapes of turbulent and laminar ablating nose cones. Preliminary comparisons have been made with the state-of-the-art engineering predictions. Some discussion about the state of the boundary layer is included.
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FOREWORD

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This technical report has been reviewed and is approved.

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SUMMARY

Heat transfer and pressure distributions have been made on five vehicle nose shapes in the VKI Longshot free piston wind tunnel at M=15 and 20. The flow parameters achieved closely simulate aerodynamic re-entry conditions. The models used in the study were a 50°-8° biconic configuration, with sharp- and blunt-nosed versions and a sharp-nosed version with a machined roughness, and a hemisphere configuration with a smooth and a sand-blast rough surface. These configurations resemble the stable shapes of turbulent and laminar ablating nose cones. Preliminary comparisons have been made with the state-of-the art engineering predictions. Some discussion about the state of the boundary layer is included.
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1. INTRODUCTION

Many investigations of the heat transfer and pressure distributions on re-entry nose shapes have been made in the past. However little experimental data exists on models tested in truly re-entry simulated conditions of high Mach number and high Reynolds number conditions. Measurements of heat transfer on smooth and rough hemispherical and conical bodies will aid predictions of the performance of the ablation method of heat protection. A laminar ablating nose takes on a hemispherical stable shape. In the turbulent case a biconic shape with roughly a 50° forebody with an 8° degree skirt is formed after a long period (Ref. 1).

Some of the outstanding problems necessary to predict ablation recession rates, for instance, are involved with not only verifying the theories used for heat transfer prediction but also knowing the location of the transition of the laminar boundary layer to a turbulent boundary layer on both smooth and rough blunt forebodies.

The current state of the art techniques for predicting laminar heat transfer rates over nose shapes (Ref. 1) involve the use of the laminar stagnation point correlation of Fay and Riddell (Ref. 2) with a local similarity solution (Ref. 3). For turbulent flows then the reference enthalpy method of Eckert (Ref. 4) or Spalding-Chi (Ref. 5) for flat plates is used or a calculation based on the Vaglio-Laurin (Ref. 6) correlation which accounts for pressure gradients.

The models used in experimental study are of two basic types, a hemisphere and a 50°-8° biconic configuration. Both a smooth and an intermediate (sand-blasted) roughness surface was used in the former case. For the biconic shape both sharp- and blunt-nosed smooth models were tested as well as a sharp-nosed version with a very deep waffle-iron-like roughness machined into its forebody. Heat transfer and pressure distributions were
measured on these models in the M=20 flow of the V.K.I. Longshot tunnel. The aerodynamic conditions in this wind tunnel nearly simulate the conditions actually obtained on a re-entering missile during its most critical maximum heating and deceleration phase.

The temperatures at the outside edges of the boundary layers formed on these blunt models are very high, of the order of 2000-2500°K, compared to the wall temperature at ambient conditions. These aerodynamic conditions are beyond those previously compared with the above-mentioned predictions for heat transfer. The gas in the boundary layer is in a vibrationally excited state. Because of the high temperature, the Reynolds numbers on the surface are low, despite the high Reynolds number of the stream. Under such advanced and realistic conditions achieved in these tests, it will be possible to check the ability of the current theories to predict the heat transfer rate on nose cones ablatting in a high enthalpy stream.

2. EXPERIMENTAL APPARATUS

2.1 Models

Five instrumented models fabricated and supplied by AVCO were tested in the Longshot flow. These models were derivatives of two basic shapes, one a biconic and the other a hemispherical model. The biconic model had a 50° half-angled conical forebody of 4 in. surface length and an 8° half-angled afterbody leading to a 7 in. diameter base. The hemisphere model had a diameter of 7 in.

The biconic shape was tested in three forms. A sharp-nosed model with a smooth wall (called model A in this report), a sharp-nosed model with the forebody roughened with a waffle-iron pattern machined deeply into the surface (B) and a blunt-nosed model (C) with a nose radius of 0.75 in and a smooth surface. The hemisphere was tested in two forms. One a smooth model (D)
and the other a model roughened with a sand-blasted finish (E). Photographs of models B, C, D and E are shown in Fig. 1.

The models were fitted with pressure taps and heat transfer gauges, whose positions are shown in Fig. 2 and listed in Table 1. For each model the meridian containing the pressure taps was at 180 degrees from the meridian containing the heat flux gauges. Because of instrumentation limitations only 10 heat transfer measurements and 7 pressure measurements could be made in one Longshot test.

2.2 Heat transfer instrumentation

The flux gauges were fabricated of 0.004 in thick copper disc bonded to an insulating holder as shown in Fig. 3. A chromel-alumel thermocouple junction approximately 0.0015 inches in diameter was formed by spot welding the 0.001 inch diameter thermocouples to the backface of the copper disc. All gauges were contoured to the local body configuration. The discs had a diameter of 0.125 inches except for the rough biconic model (B) which had gauges with disc diameters of 0.110 inches.

Calibration of typical heat flux assemblies were obtained in the AEDC radiant heat flux calibration facility. The purpose of the calibration was to obtain, for a given set of standard material properties, the gauge assembly effective thickness to be used in the heat flux data reduction analysis. Of six gauges tested the average nominal percent deviation is a reduction of 5% in thickness, although the maximum deviation varied from +4.0% to -12.6% in thickness.

For determining the calibration factor of a gauge, the following material properties, supplied by AVCO, of oxygen-free high conductivity copper and chromel-alumel thermocouples were used. The values were averaged over a temperature range from 295°C to 325°C.
Density = 558 lb/ft³
Specific heat = 0.915 B.Th.U./lb/°F
dT/dV = 44.2°F/mV

Using Equation B.2 (Appendix B) the calibration constant for a calorimeter with a disc of 0.004 inch thick will be 0.752 B.Th.U./sec. Taking the 5% reduction in thickness into account the calibration constant for a 0.004 inch thick gauge used in the data reduction programme (see Appendix B) was 0.715. Gauges with discs of differing measured thickness were corrected proportionally to that dimension.

Output signals from the calorimeter gauges were generally recorded on Tektronix oscilloscopes using Polaroid cameras. Four channels used some pre-amplification using D.C. amplifiers built at V.K.I. Two channels used in tests on models A and B were recorded on a CEC oscillograph after amplification by CEC D.C. amplifiers. All this instrumentation was calibrated at frequent intervals.

Early tests were carried out in Longshot on gauges with stainless steel calorimeters of 0.001 thickness supplied by AVCO. These tests showed the gauges to be fragile. The heat conduction losses to the thermocouple wires was expected to cause large corrections to the theoretical calibration. These gauges were rejected in favour of copper calorimeters used throughout these tests.

2.3 Pressure instrumentation

The pressure taps mounted on the model had internal diameters of in and channel lengths of in. The length of rubber tubing of internal diameter in connecting the pressure taps to the transducer was in. The internal volume of the total pressure systems was small enough to give a pneumatic response time of less than 1 millisecond.
2.4 Measurements of the reservoir conditions

The reservoir pressure was obtained using a Kistler type 6201 gauge mounted in the wall. The signals were processed and recorded using a Kistler charge amplifier and a Tektronix oscilloscope fitted with a Polaroid camera.

The reservoir temperature was measured with a tungsten-25\% rhenium vs. tungsten-3\% rhenium thermocouple mounted in the reservoir wall. The wire diameter used was 0.010 in with a total length of approximately 0.5 in giving a response time from 5 to 10 milliseconds. Conduction loss was assessed in previous tests by using thermocouples with differing L/d ratios. The method of data reduction is described in Appendix A.

Typical traces from all the above-mentioned instrumentation are shown in Fig. 5.

2.5 Schlieren system

An 18 in conventional, single pass Toepler schlieren system equipped with high quality optical components is used. With the exception of one 24 in plane mirror to bend the light 90° (due to the vicinity of a wall near the test section) the light beam takes a Z shaped path. A single spark light source with a spark duration of 1 microsecond is used to record the visualization of the flow on either a polaroid or a sheet film. The magnification of the system is approximately 0.25. A grid made of nylon line at 1 cm intervals is placed at one of the observation windows. A grid is thus placed on each schlieren photograph. The lines are slightly out of focus, since the schlieren system is focused on the model.
2.6 The Longshot wind tunnel

The tests were carried out in the VKI Longshot free-piston wind tunnel (Ref. 7). A photograph of this facility is shown in Fig. 3. Longshot was designed by Perry and his associates at Republic Aviation specifically for the attainment of very high Reynolds number at high Mach numbers. It differs from a conventional gun tunnel in that a heavy piston is used to compress the nitrogen test gas to very high pressures and temperatures. The test gas is then trapped in a reservoir at peak conditions by the closing of a system of check valves as the piston rebounds. The flow conditions decay monotonically during 10 to 20 milliseconds running time as the nitrogen trapped in the reservoir flows through the nozzle into the pre-evacuated open jet test chamber. The maximum supply conditions currently available are 60,000 psi at 2400°K. Nozzle throat inserts giving nominal Mach numbers of 15 and 20 at the nozzle exit of 1/4 in diameter were employed in these tests.

The rough-hemisphere model is shown mounted in its test position in the Longshot working section. The shroud mounted around the model is placed to prevent disturbances arising from reflections of the flow from the back wall of the dump tank. The shroud has been proved to be effective in preventing disturbances in the test section occurring before 40 milliseconds after the peak conditions. Such disturbances were mentioned in Ref. 8. The channel sections attached to the shroud lead to the schlieren observation windows. The model is shown mounted on a sting attached to a quadrant traversing system.
3. TEST CONDITIONS

The test conditions were computed for each run using the Longshot data reduction programme (outlined in Appendix A). Table 2 summarises the tests carried out in Longshot. Measured reservoir conditions and Pitot pressures at peak conditions are given. Also tabulated are the calculated conditions of Mach number, Reynolds number, dynamic pressure and stagnation point heat transfer on a 7 in diameter hemisphere. Three basic test section conditions were used throughout. These were a high and a low Reynolds number case at M=20, and a high Reynolds number case at M=15. The low Reynolds number case, however, was repeated at several slightly differing conditions. This was done since this condition was tried for the first time during the tests, and it was wished to make sure that the lowest Reynolds number was achieved without condensation occurring.

It is seen that there is reasonable repeatability in the data. Any discrepancies are as much due to the compression cycle (since the pressure developed is very sensitive to the barrel pressure) as the scatter in measurement. The temperature is probably the least accurately measured. Some difficulties occurred with the Pitot probe, since in the M=20 runs, the probe was located very close to the nozzle turbulent boundary layer. In some cases this measurement is suspect.

Fuller details of the test section conditions are given for selected runs for each set of conditions (Table 3). The symbols and units are explained in Appendix A.
4. RESULTS

All measurements of the peak values of heat transfer and pressure are tabulated in Tables 4 to 7 and Tables 8 to 11 respectively. Schlieren photographs of all tests are shown in Fig. 8. The results from each model configuration will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

4.1 Pointed smooth bicone model (A)

Examination of the schlieren photographs of Runs 204 to 210 show that the bow shock remains attached to the nose for all cases. For the zero angle-of-attack cases, the shock wave angle is approximately 7.5° to the surface which agrees to within 1° to the theoretical results. This indicates that the flow is supersonic behind the shock.

At the α=±10 cases the shock shape again agrees with the theoretical cone tables of Jones (Ref. 9) to within 1°. This is in spite of the fact that the tables have been extrapolated to such an extent that they give subsonic conditions on the windward surface. On the leeward surface, the flow is predicted to remain in a supersonic condition. (It is interesting to note that for θ_c>20°, the shock angle to the surface increases with increasing θ_c at those high Mach numbers, a reversal of trend found at low θ_c. This is due to the rapid increase of static temperature on the cone surface with increasing θ_c.) This means that between the windward surface and the leeward surface, the flow goes from subsonic to supersonic conditions, probably through a sonic line similar to the flow around a yawed cylinder. The luminosity of the flow seen on the windward surface of these bodies is due to slight contaminants in the flow.

Figures 9 to 14 show the reduced pressure data in terms of the pressure coefficient \( c_p = \frac{p}{\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2} \). Here the dynamic pressure, \( \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \), at the nose position is used. The results are shown
compared to the tangent-cone and Newtonian theories in which the corrections outlined in Appendix C are carried out. The value of $c_p$ for the two theories for a 50° half-angle cone in a parallel flow is given by that value at which the theories cross the $s=0$ ordinate. The results are seen to agree within a few percent with the tangent-cone theory which itself is roughly 5% above Newtonian theory. Exceptions are seen in Runs 209 and 210 in which the first and third gauges give low values. It is thought that this is caused by non-linear calibration curves (see section 2.3). The results for measurements from 0 to 10 msecs after the peak are presented in these figures.

Fig. 15 show the heat transfer rates at peak conditions plotted against local Reynolds number for the zero incidence cases. Three different heat transfer predictions are compared to these results. These are the Eckert reference enthalpy laminar theory, the Sommer and Short reference enthalpy and Spalding-Chi turbulent theories. The formulae used in these predictions are listed in Appendix C. It is seen that all the theories agree reasonably well with the experiments. The trend however is best predicted by the laminar theory. Also the turbulent theories do not compare well with each other. The flow conditions on the surface of the cone as shown in the read out of the program at the end of Appendix C are $M=1.45$, $T_\infty=2280^\circ$K and Reynolds number based on the generator length, $1.15 \times 10^5$. The Reynolds number is low essentially because there is a large increase in temperature of the flow over the free-stream condition with only a small change in density. The temperature is high enough that the gas at the edge of the boundary layer is in a vibrationally excited state. Furthermore these conditions are well outside the range of conditions that these engineering theories were correlated. Even though the turbulent theories are as close to the experiment as the laminar theories, since the Reynolds number is low and the trend is better predicted by the Eckert theory, the boundary layer is more likely to be in a laminar state. Further discussion of this topic is given in section 4.3 involved with tests on the blunt cone.
Figs. 16 and 17 show the effect of incidence on the heat transfer rate. The agreement with laminar theory is fair on the "leeward" surface but poor on the windward surface. However as mentioned earlier, the extrapolations of none tables to these conditions are particularly severe and makes meaningless any attempt at making conclusions.

4.2 Pointed rough biconic model (B)

The heat transfer distributions on the rough model are shown plotted in Figs. 18-20. It is seen that there is a considerable scatter of data along the model. The scattered heat transfer rates and pressure measurements (shown in Fig. 21) obtained with this model indicate that there is appreciable viscous-inviscid interaction of the flow over the sensors, which are buried below the tops of the roughness elements. The low values, for instance, could occur if the sensors are in a separation region. Excluding these low values, the results show a definite trend towards the turbulent boundary layer theories. This is particularly seen in the test at M=15 (Fig. 20) in which the laminar and turbulent theories are more separated.

Several interesting features can be seen from the schlieren pictures of Fig. 8, Runs 211 to 214. In all cases, the bow shock remains attached to the nose. Shock waves emanating from the roughness elements can be seen in the shock region of Run 214. This M=15 case gave higher density levels than the other cases, allowing the gradients to be seen more clearly.

4.3 Blunt smooth biconic model (C)

Fig. 22 shows the reduced pressure data in terms of the pressure coefficient $c_p$, for the peak values of each of Run 284 to Run 287. Shown plotted are the theories of Belotzerkovskii (Ref. 11) for the spherical nose, and the tangent-cone theory of Appendix C for the cone surface. A dotted line shows the probable pressure variation after the overexpansion region aft of the nose.
It is seen that the pressure recovers from the overexpansion near gauge number 4. The data for the zero incidence case and the leeward surface agree very well with the predictions shown. However, for the windward case, the measurements are somewhat lower than the tangent-cone theory. This could be caused by the high cross-flow on this surface, enhanced by the subsonic flowfield.

Fig. 23 shows the reduced heat transfer data, non-dimensionalised by the measured stagnation point heat transfer predictions for the zero-incidence cases, Run 284 and 287. The results are compared with the laminar similarity theory of Lees (Ref. 3) uncorrected for conicity effects and also the Eckert reference enthalpy method. In these cases, the experiments agree well with these laminar theories. Also the stagnation point heat transfers for these cases agree well with the theory of Fay and Riddell (Ref. 2). This lends support to the supposition that the data on both the blunt and pointed cones are in fact laminar.

The heat transfer data for the yawed cone is shown in Fig. 24 compared with a line drawn through the unyawed cone data of Fig. 23. It is seen that the heat transfer rates for the windward side are much closer to the zero angle of attack results than those measured on the leeward side. This is a similar trend as seen in the pressure distributions of Fig. 22.

The schlieren photographs in Fig. 8 for Runs 284 to 287 show similar effects to that seen in the photographs for the pointed body except in the now detached shock at the nose. Similarly the shock shapes suggest that supersonic flow is found on all surfaces except the windward surface.
4.4 Hemisphere models (D,E)

Figure 25 shows the distribution of pressure non-dimensionalised by an estimated stagnation pressure for all five tests on smooth and rough hemispheres and compared with the theory of Belotserkovskii (Ref. 11) corrected for conicity. It is seen that agreement is excellent. The Pitot pressures have been plotted as the hemisphere stagnation point value. It is seen that these pressures are about 5% higher than suggested by the hemisphere data. These high readings may be explained by the Pitot probe sensing the pressure in the "overshoot" region of the nozzle turbulent boundary layer region as measured in Longshot previously in Ref. 12. This can explain the high degree of scatter obtained in the measurements of Pitot pressure.

The heat transfer measurements for the smooth hemisphere have been compared with the similarity theory of Lees (Ref. 3) corrected for conicity and with a rough correction to align the theory with the pressure curve of Belotserkovskii (Ref. 11) instead of Newtonian theory (Fig. 26). The measurements were non-dimensionalised with respect to the theoretical value of heat transfer rate of Fay and Riddell (Ref. 2). Within 30 degrees of the stagnation point, the measurements are seen to be considerably higher than theory. These results are in disagreement with earlier measurements on a wooden hemisphere model at M=15 reported in Ref. 8 and with the measurements on the stagnation point of model C.

A possible reason why the wooden model results gave a different result than in these tests is that the calorimeter gauge was not contoured to the surface. It was assumed at the time that for these large model radii, the disc contouring becomes unimportant. However this discrepancy is puzzling. The differences are too great and are too coincidental to be explained by uncalibrated gauges. These gauges also appeared not to be damaged or eroded during a shot. Possible suggestions are tunnel contaminants or free-stream turbulence, although this does not explain why such
good results were obtained with the 0.75 in radius nose of model C. After 30°, then the results agree very well with the similarity theory of Lees, thus indicating that the flow is laminar.

Fig. 27 shows the results of the rough model displayed in a similar fashion to the smooth model data. Again very high stagnation point heating rates are obtained. High heating rates are seen also generally around the cone, which could be ascribed to either turbulent flow or laminar flow undergoing mixing by the roughness without going turbulent. The highest relative heat transfer rates are found in the M=15 case. This is the most likely case that turbulent flow could be promoted.

The shock stand-off distances from the nose of models C, D and E, as measured from the schlieren pictures of Fig. 8 are shown plotted in Fig. 28 and compared with the theory of Van Dyke as presented in Ref. 19. The comparison is shown to be very good.
5. CONCLUSIONS

Tests have been carried out on 3 biconic and 2 hemisphere models in an M=15 and 20 flow in the VKI Longshot. The data has been compared, preliminarily, with simplified theories to assess their quality. The following conclusions can be made from the comparisons.

1. Pressure data on 50° cones and hemispheres agree very well with tangent-cone and the Belotserkovskii theory respectively. An exception was found on the windward side of the 50° blunt cone when lower pressures than expected were found. This was probably caused by cross-flow enhanced by locally subsonic flow behaviour, or due to the severe extrapolation used in the theory.

2. High quality and spatially smooth heat transfer data was obtained on all models except the very rough biconic model. There is some doubt as to whether the cone data is laminar or turbulent due to the similarity in predictions of laminar and turbulent theories at the Longshot flow conditions at M=20. The evidence weighs more heavily with the presence of laminar flow due mainly to the better prediction in trend of the experimental results by the Eckert reference enthalpy method. Heat transfer measurements on the rough models give good indications that transition to turbulent flows has occurred, especially in the M=15 cases.

3. Stagnation point heat transfer on the blunt cone agreed very well with Fay and Riddell, but some discrepancies have been found with the 7 in hemisphere results.

4. Shock shapes on the conical models and shock stand-off distances from the spherical caps of all the blunt-nosed models agree very well with predictions.
A general conclusion is that useful laminar and turbulent boundary layer heat transfer, pressure and flow visualization data has been achieved on nose shapes in a flow simulating aerodynamic re-entry conditions.

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APPENDIX A

A Short Description of the Longshot Data Reduction Programme

A computerised data reduction programme has been devised by Richards, Culotta and Enkenhus and is in general use in Longshot. The details will be written up in a future report. It is appropriate to give a brief description of the method in this report for understanding the results.

In attaining very advanced test conditions, which simulate re-entry flight, the V.K.I. Longshot free-piston wind tunnel displays some unusual features. During a test, dense real nitrogen is trapped in, and allowed to escape from, a constant volume reservoir into a conical nozzle to provide a high Reynolds number, high Mach number test flow. It has been shown theoretically and experimentally (Ref. 13) that the reservoir and test section parameters measured in Longshot can be described accurately by an exponential decay function, \( f \), of the form:

\[
f(t) = \exp(a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2)
\]

A.1

where \( t \) is the time in milliseconds from the peak value of \( f \).

All the measured reservoir and test section pressures and heat transfer rates* are curve fitted to this formula using a least-squares method (Fig. A.1). The differences between the measured and re-generated values using equation A.1 are found to be within reading error.

The supply temperature is measured with a thermocouple with a long time response*. Use is made of a formula which connects the temperature explicitly with supply pressure (see Ref. 13).

---

* Actual traces of reservoir pressure and temperature and Pitot and wall pressures are shown in Fig. 5.
as it decays from a constant volume reservoir to calculate the temperature variation backwards in time from a time when the thermocouple is assessed to be giving the true temperature (Fig. A.2). Conduction losses from the wire and radiation losses from the gas are taken into account to assess the true supply temperature. This difficult temperature measurement will be the object of a further future report by Richards and Enkenhus.

The test gas expands from the reservoir until it becomes a perfect gas in the test section. The density of the gas during the early stages of expansion is high enough that freezing of the internal energy modes does not occur and thus the expansion can be considered as being in equilibrium. A concept of equivalent perfect supply conditions, described in Ref. 1, is used to facilitate the calculation of the test flow parameters.

Supplying the basic recorded oscilloscope or oscillograph deflections and instrumentation calibration data from Longshot’s fast response instrumentation, the programme can calculate supply pressure and temperature, Pitot pressure and surface heat transfer and pressure on models. If the two supply conditions and a test section Pitot pressure is supplied, the programme calculates the free stream conditions including Mach number, Reynolds number and dynamic pressure (as described in Ref. 14), the stagnation point heat transfer (Ref. 1 and as in Appendix D) and the test gas condensation temperature (Ref. 15).

A typical set of data obtained in this present series of tests is shown on the next few pages.

The first part of the programme for each measurement gives the calibration constants and the trace deflections, Y divisions (cm or mm) at equal time intervals (as indicated by T) from an easily identifiable position on the trace. Y RAW gives the raw data, Y CORR the smoothed data. Except in the case of the reservoir temperature, the difference between Y RAW and Y CORR is seen to be very small. Comparison of Y RAW and Y CORR under
reservoir temperature illustrates the extrapolation method used. The values agree at the later times in the runs, when the thermocouple has reached its equilibrium temperature, but deviate vastly in the early times showing the slow response of the thermocouple. This difficult measurement is the least accurate of those made in the Longshot, but is considered to be within an error of ±5%.

The second part of the programme ("quantities measured in Longshot") summarises all the measurements at times from the peak measured conditions using the appropriate curve fit of the actual data to Equation A.4. If a Pitot pressure, \( p_{t2} \), is given then for the wall pressures an extra row, \( YP \) is given which gives the pressure non-dimensionalized to the dynamic pressure, \( \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \), which is itself approximated using the formula:

\[
\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 = 0.543 p_{t2}
\]

This formula is true for a perfect gas at hypersonic speeds, but the Pitot pressure measured in Longshot is different from a perfect gas value by about 1% (the actual correction is given in Fig. of Ref.) due to the gas being vibrationally excited behind the normal shock wave formed ahead of the Pitot probe. Thus \( YP \) is approximately 1% lower than the true value. This is well within the limits of the measurements and since it is used only as a rough guide, it has not been thought necessary to make the correction.

The third part of the programme ("Longshot test conditions") reads out at the time intervals from the peak the following variables: measured reservoir pressure, \( PO (psi) \); measured reservoir temperature, \( TO (°K) \); measured Pitot pressure, \( PITOT (psi) \); calculated Mach number; equivalent perfect pressure, \( POP (psi) \); equivalent perfect temperature, \( TOP (°K) \); Reynolds number per ft; local freestream pressure, \( P (psi) \); freestream temperature, \( T (°K) \); freestream density, \( RH0 (slugs/ft^3) \); stream velocity, \( V(ft/sec) \); dynamic pressure, \( QD (lb/ft^2) \); stagnation point
heating on a 7 in diameter spherical surface, \( Q \) (Btu/ft\(^2\)sec); true stagnation temperature, \( T_{2R} \) (°K); and the temperature at which condensation would occur at that free-stream pressure and expansion rate, \( \text{CONDENSATION} \) (°K). These parameters adequately define all the parameters necessary for application to predictive procedures. Care should be taken in that the accuracy of the values printed out should not be inferred from the six significant figures shown. The accuracy is controlled by the accuracy of the measurements inferred in section 2.
LONGSHOT DATA REDUCTION, RUN 286

NITROGEN DRIVER AND TEST GAS, PISTON WT. = 7.5 LB., P4 = 5000 PSI, P1 = 24.7 PSI.
DATA PROCESSING, (ZERO TIME DATUM AT POSITION ON TRACE INFLUENCED BY RE-REFLECTED SHOCK)

RESERVOIR PRESSURE
CALIB. CONSTANTS, GAUGE = 47.62 PSI/MV, SCOPE = 24.6 MV/DIV
T MSECS 2.0 4.0 6.0 8.0 10.0 12.0 14.0 16.0 18.0 20.0
Y DIVS 47.50 42.70 38.80 35.80 33.20 31.20 29.70 28.30 27.00 25.40
Y RAW 55647 50020 45652 41937 38892 36549 34792 33152 31629 29754
Y CORR 55164 50069 45784 42180 39153 36616 34502 32755 31330 30193
AO = 0.1102E 02 A1 = -0.5411E-01 A2 = 0.9376E-03
SLOPE = -0.05036-0.04661-0.04286-0.03911-0.03556-0.03161-0.02786-0.02411-0.02036-0.01661

RESERVOIR TEMPERATURE
CALIB. CONSTANTS, SCOPE = 1.163 MV/DIV, HEAT LOSS = 1.12
T MSECS 0.0 2.0 4.0 6.0 8.0 10.0 12.0 14.0 16.0 18.0 20.0
Y DIVS 0.00 19.00 23.20 23.80 23.80 23.60 23.40 23.20 22.80 22.70
Y CORR 2445 2361 2288 2227 2161 2108 2061 2020 1983 1952 1924

PITOT PRESSURE AT 7.5 DOWNSWEEPT OF NOZZLE AND 4.6 FROM CENTRELINE
CALIB. CONSTANT, GAUGE = 0.3049 PSI/MV
T MSECS 2.0 4.0 6.0 8.0 10.0 12.0 14.0 16.0 18.0 20.0
Y DIVS 23.80 21.80 20.30 19.80 18.80 16.30 14.80 15.10
Y RAW 7.43 6.81 6.34 5.63 5.22 4.62 4.37 4.39
Y CORR 7.37 6.85 6.39 5.86 5.58 5.23 4.91 4.82 4.35 4.11
AO = 0.2071E 01 A1 = -0.3760E-01 A2 = 0.2358E-03
SLOPE = -0.03666-0.0371-0.03477-0.03383-0.03288-0.03194-0.03100-0.02995-0.02911-0.02817

WALL PRESSURE FROM PRESSURE TAP NO. 1
CALIB. CONSTANT, GAUGE = 0.1970 PSI/MV
T MSECS 2.0 4.0 6.0 8.0 10.0 12.0 14.0 16.0 18.0 20.0
Y DIVS 19.50 18.00 16.90 15.70 14.40 14.00 13.10 12.50 12.00 11.40
Y RAW 3.8415 3.5460 3.3292 3.0928 2.8368 2.7550 2.5806 2.4821 2.3246 2.2458
Y CORR 3.8391 3.5595 3.3054 3.0873 2.8981 2.7966 2.5706 2.4521 2.3427 2.2462
AO = 0.1426E 01 A1 = -0.0417E-01 A2 = 0.5454E-03
SLOPE = -0.03959-0.03741-0.03523-0.03305-0.03086-0.02868-0.02650-0.02432-0.02214-0.01995
QUANTITIES MEASURED IN LONGSHOT RUN UA 286
(ZERO TIME AT PEAK CONDITIONS)

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### PITOT PRESSURE, PSI, 7.5 FROM NOZZLE EXIT AND 4.6 FROM CENTRE LINE

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LONGSHOT TEST CONDITIONS, RUN NO. 286 AT 7.5 IN. FROM NOZZLE EXIT, AND 4.6 FROM CENTRELINE

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H.T. DECAY COEFF. . . . . . -0.4748E-01 0.4800E-03
TURB. -0.4995E-01 0.4794E-03 STAG -0.4560E-01 0.5807E-03
APPENDIX B

Data Reduction of Calorimetric Heat Transfer Data

As in the previous appendix, this data reduction programme has been perfected in the last few months this time by Culotta and Richards and will again be the subject of a future report.

Calorimeter gauges are constructed of a thin disc of copper bonded to an insulated holder. Thermocouples with a wire diameter smaller than the thickness of the disc are bonded (either welded or soldered) to the back face of the copper disc. The thermocouple senses the average temperature rise of the disc as it heats in the test flow. The heat transfer rate, \( q \), can then be determined from the following equation:

\[
q = k_c \frac{dV}{dt}
\]

where \( k_c \) is the gauge calibration constant
\( \frac{dV}{dt} \) is the slope of the thermocouple output variation with respect to time.

The calibration constant, \( k_c \), is best determined experimentally using a rapidly applied and calibrated heat source. However, it can be calculated from knowledge of the calorimeter thickness \( b \), the density \( \rho_d \) and specific heat, \( c_d \) of the disc material and the thermocouple response parameter \( \frac{dT}{dV} \), using the following equation:

\[
k_c = b \rho_d c_d \frac{dT}{dV}
\]

It must be assumed however that there are no heat conduction losses to the holder or to the thermocouple, the disc thickness is not changed by the welding or soldering of the thermocouple, the temperature is uniform over the volume of the disc.
The order of magnitude of the time constant, $\tau$, for the calorimeter may be assessed from:

$$\tau = \frac{\rho c_d b^2}{2k}$$

where $k$ is the thermal conductivity.

For the testing of a model at rest in a steady flow, equation B.1, is simple to apply for calculating the heat transfer rate from the raw thermocouple output data. The heat transfer rate would be expected to be constant and thus the output will vary linearly with time. It is a simple matter to make a linear least error fit to the data points to achieve the measurement. The method depends upon an assumed knowledge of the variation (but not the level) of the heat transfer with time. In this case it remains constant.

For varying flow conditions alternative methods must be found. More usual methods are to make a polynomial curve fit to the raw data and then to differentiate the formula thus obtained. Often poor results are obtained. If a large order polynomial is chosen although an accurate curve fit to the data is achieved, the derivative can fluctuate wildly about its true variation due to very small errors in reading the data. If a small order polynomial is chosen to eliminate these effects, there is a risk of losing important detail. In general, differentiating a polynomial curve fit to data is usually unsatisfactory.

A new data reduction technique has been devised which uses an extra piece of information to allow the reverse, but more accurate process of the integration of equation B.1. The extra information is the knowledge of the variation (but again not the level) of the heat transfer rate, given in the form of Equation A.1, calculated from the calibrated test section from the Longshot data reduction programme (Appendix A). Three engineering calculations of the heat transfer rate (i.e. the laminar and turbulent heat transfer rate at a fixed position on a flat plate and
the stagnation point heating rate on a sphere), are made in this
latter programme, and the coefficients \( a_1 \) and \( a_2 \) of equation B.1
are determined. These are read out at the very end of the programme
as shown in Appendix A. Trial values of the heat transfer at zero
time \( q(t=0) = f(t=0) = e^{a_0} \) are made and equation B.1 is integrated
with this complete information for \( q \). The calculated transient
temperature variation thus obtained is compared with the measured
thermocouple output. The value of \( q(t=0) \) that provides the best
comparison of the temperature variations is considered the correct
value. The remainder of the variation of \( q \) with time is then cal-
culated and read out. The numerical integration is carried out
using a Runge-Kutta-Gill-Simpson routine and the search proce-
dure used converges very rapidly.

The above technique is analogous to the method described
above for dealing with constant heat transfer data. To summarise,
in both methods an assumption is made about the variation (but
not the level) of the required parameter, in this case the heat
transfer rate. There is no reason why this method cannot be ex-
tended to data achieved from more complicated unsteady test
section conditions than in Longshot when an appropriate equation,
alogous to equation A.1, must be used to describe the heat
transfer variation.

To illustrate the technique a typical output from the
computer is shown later. A.1 and A.2 are the coefficients defining
the slope and curvature data as read from the last line in the
Longshot data reduction programme for the appropriate case (i.e.
stagnation, laminar, turbulent heat transfer case). \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \)
are the oscilloscope calibration in mV/cm or mV/mm and the gauge
calibration in \( \frac{\text{B.Th.U.}}{\text{mV}} \). \( Q_0 \) is the value of heat transfer
rate in \( \text{B.Th.U.}/\text{ft}^2\text{sec} \) at zero time at each iteration step until
convergence is obtained. (It is seen that convergence is reached
almost immediately). \( Q(T_1) \) is the final value of heat transfer
rate at zero time (peak value). \( T \) is the time from peak condi-
tions in ms. \( Y_{\text{EXP}} \) is the measured oscilloscope deflection
(cm or mm). \( Y_{\text{CALC}} \) is the equivalent calculated value with the
best fit to the measured data as outlined above. ERR is the difference between Y EXP and Y CALC. (This value is generally within reading errors as can be seen in the example). Q is the heat transfer rate (B.Th.U./ft²/sec) at time T. For Q(T₁) then since the calculation starts at T = 0, then ERR = 0.

DATA REDUCTION OF CALORIMETER HEAT TRANSFER GAUGES, RUN 286, GAUGE 0

A₁ = -0.49980E-01  A₂ = 0.48050E-03  K₁ = 0.10100E 00  K₂ = 0.73200E 00
Q₀ = 0.149792E 03
Q₀ = 0.149792E 03
CONVERGENCE
Q(T₁) = 0.14979E 03

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APPENDIX G

Prediction of Heat Transfer Rate
on a Sharp 50° Half-Angle Cone

A computer programme was written by Richards and Sischken to estimate the laminar and turbulent flow over a 50° half-angle cone in a hypersonic conical flow. The equations used are described below.

1. Calculation of the test section conditions

The initial data of the equivalent perfect supply conditions \((T_0)_{perf}\) and \((D_0)_{perf}\) and the Mach number at an arbitrary, but known position, in the tunnel are supplied as basic input data to the programme. These values are obtained from the Longshot data reduction programme.

The test section conditions can then be obtained using the perfect gas relations:

\[
T_1 = T_0 \left(1 + \frac{M^2}{5}\right)^{-1} \quad (^oK) \tag{C.1}
\]

\[
P_1 = P_0 \left(1 + \frac{M^2}{5}\right)^{-7/2} \quad (lb/in^2) \tag{C.2}
\]

\[
\rho_1 = \frac{P_1}{RT_1} \quad \text{(slug/ft\textsuperscript{3})} \tag{C.3}
\]

\[
u_1 = \sqrt{\frac{RT_1}{ho_1}} \quad \text{(ft/sec)} \tag{C.4}
\]

\[
u_1 = M_1 \quad \text{(ft/sec)} \tag{C.5}
\]

\[
\nu_1 = \frac{93.527 T_1^{3/2}}{T_1 + 102.7} \times 10^{-8} \quad \text{(lb/ft\textsuperscript{3}sec)} \tag{C.6}
\]

\[
Re_1 = \frac{\rho_1 u_1}{\nu_1} \quad \text{(ft\textsuperscript{-1})} \tag{C.7}
\]
2. Calculation of inviscid flow over a cone

The cone tables of Jones (Ref. 9) for γ=1.4 were used to determine the conditions on a cone. For various angles of attack, the tables give the parameters:

\[
\begin{align*}
    &u_c, a_c, p_c, \rho_c, p_s, \frac{1}{2} \rho_1u_1^2 \sin^2 \theta, \frac{1}{2}
    
\end{align*}
\]

as functions of \( M \) and \( \theta_c \). Here the subscript \( c \) denotes the conditions on the cone surface and subscript \( s \) the conditions at the shock. The range of applicability of Ref. is \( 1.5 < M < 20 \) and \( 5^\circ < \theta_c < 40^\circ \). This means that for the model under test, extrapolations had to be made from \( \theta_c = 40^\circ \) to \( 50^\circ \).

The tabulated values of the parameters listed above were fitted to a quadratic power series with \( M \) and \( \theta_c \) as the independent variables. The power series was:

\[
f = A_1 + A_2 \theta_c + A_3 \theta_c^2 + (A_4 + A_5 \theta_c + A_6 \theta_c^2)M + (A_7 + A_8 \theta_c + A_9 \theta_c^2)M^2, \quad C, \theta
\]

The coefficients \( A_1, \ldots, A_9 \) were obtained by initially fitting quadratics to three sets of data in one of the independent variables. The latter coefficients thus obtained were then cross fitted to quadratics in the other independent variable to obtain the final values of the coefficients, \( A_1, \ldots, A_9 \). The technique is in effect a two-dimensional interpolation procedure.

Three subroutines were made each for the case of \( \alpha=0 \) and \( \alpha=\pm10^\circ \) (called SLE1, SLE2 and SLE3 respectively).

The pressure on the cone as calculated in this fashion gives the tangent cone value. The modified Newtonian value of pressure is given by \( \rho_1u_1^2 \sin^2(\theta+\alpha) \).
3. Calculation of conicity effects

Two primary corrections are necessary to account for conicity. One is based on one-dimensional flow considerations, the other on two-dimensional flow considerations.

Regarding the first correction, consider a hypersonic, conical, perfect gas flow. The energy equation for this flow is:

\[ h_0 = c_p T_1 + \frac{u_1^2}{2} \]  

where \( h_0 \) is the reservoir enthalpy and \( c_p \) is the specific heat at constant pressure.

For hypersonic flow \( c_p T_1 \) is very small compared to \( h_0 \), and thus \( u_1 \) becomes nearly constant. Most of the internal energy has been converted to kinetic energy, and the change in Mach number comes mainly from a change in \( T_1 \), hence a change in \( a_1 \).

The continuity equation (\( \rho_1 U_1 A = \) constant, where \( A \) is a stream tube area) then gives an expression for the density variation, \( \rho \), at any streamwise position, \( x \), in a conical flow field:

\[ \frac{\rho}{\rho_1} = \sigma^{-1} \]  

where \( \sigma = \frac{A}{A_1} = \left(1 + \frac{x}{L_n}\right)^2 \)  

here subscript 1 refers to conditions at a reference position, \( L_n \) is the distance from the source point to this position.

Assuming an isentropic expansion: \( p/p_1 = \sigma^{-\gamma} \)

Equation of state: \( T/T_1 = \sigma^{1-\gamma} \)

\[ \frac{1-\gamma}{2} \]

Sound speed: \( a/a_1 = \sigma \)
Equations C.10 to C.14 can then be used to calculate the stream conditions at any longitudinal position in the expanding flow, knowing the conditions at another position. Refs. and have shown that the Longshot flow in the nozzle is truly conical with its source point located at the nozzle throat.

The second correction factor to account for conicity arises since the flow angle changes by an angle, \( \Delta \alpha = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{D + x} \) at a distance \( y \), from the centre-line of the nozzle, and \( x \) downstream of the reference plane.

The application of these two corrections to determine the conditions on an arbitrary position on a cone are carried out using the interpolation equations (C.8) from the cone table data using the following information for the basic parameters \( M \) and \( \theta_c \) and for the other freestream parameters. The freestream conditions (including \( M \)) are taken as those that would exist at the same position in the test section if the model were removed. The cone angle to be used to apply the interpolation equations is taken to be \( \theta_c - \Delta \alpha \). (For a model at zero incidence, referred to the nozzle centre-line, the correct application of the tables should be by using the values obtained on a cone of half-angle, \( \theta_c \), at an angle of attack \( \Delta \alpha \). However little improvement would be made for this interpretation, since \( \Delta \alpha \) is small compared to \( \theta_c \).) The method has been shown to work well in the results and discussion of this report. The success is due to the closeness with which the bow-shock lies to the surface of the cone.

4. Heat transfer rate predictions

Laminar

The Eckert reference (intermediate) enthalpy method is used (Ref. 4). The reference temperature, \( T^* \) is given by:

\[
T^* = T_c + 0.5 (T_w - T_c) + 0.22 (T_r - T_c) \quad \text{C.15}
\]
The equivalent perfect value of $T_r$ is used in the calculation and hence the application of equation C.15 is equivalent to applying the reference enthalpy method. $T_r$ is obtained from:

$$T_r = T_c + r \frac{u^2}{2c_p}$$  \hspace{1cm} C.16

where $r$ is the recovery factor having a value of $Pr^{0.5}$ and $Pr$ is the Prandtl number taken to have a value of 0.715.

The incompressible skin friction formula used was the Blasius equation:

$$c_f = \frac{0.664}{\sqrt{Re_s}}$$ \hspace{1cm} C.17

where $c_f$ is the local skin friction and $Re_s$ is the Reynolds number at station $s$.

The heat transfer rate can then be calculated from:

$$q = \rho^* u_c c_p \frac{c_f}{2} k_R (T_r - T_w)$$ \hspace{1cm} C.18

where $\rho^*$ is the density at the edge of the boundary layer calculated at the reference temperature $T_r^*$, $u_c$ is the velocity at the edge of the boundary layer, $k_R$ is the Reynolds analogy parameter, and $(T_r - T_w)$ is the driving temperature for the equation, $c_f$ is the skin friction at reference temperature conditions.

For laminar flow, $k_R$ is normally taken as $Pr^{-2/3}$ and the skin friction coefficient, is calculated from equation 17. In this equation, the Reynolds number is given by:

$$Re_s = \frac{1}{k_M} \left\{ (Re_s)^{n-1} + \frac{\rho^* u_c}{\mu_c} \Delta s \right\}$$ \hspace{1cm} C.19

$k_M$ is the Mangler transformation factor, used to transform a skin friction law from a two-dimensional to an axisymmetric case (the
flow over an axisymmetric body has a thinning action on the boundary layer. $k_M$ has a value of 3 for laminar flow.

The term in the brackets is an accumulative Reynolds number, used in this varying flow field. $(Re_s^n)_{n-1}$ is the accumulative Reynolds number at the last computation step, $\Delta s$ is the step size. $\rho_c^*$ and $\mu_c^*$ are the density and viscosity of the flow on the cone calculated at the reference temperature. $\mu_c^*$ is given by equation C.6.

**Turbulent**

Two theories were used: the Sommer and Short reference enthalpy method (Ref. 17) and the Spalding-Chi method (Ref. 5).

The Sommer and Short method was applied in a very similar fashion to the laminar Eckert reference method. However the Sommer and Short reference temperature is given by:

$$T^* = T_c (1 + 0.035 M^2 + 0.45 (T_w/T_c - 1))$$  \hspace{1cm} C.20

The turbulent recovery temperature is given by:

$$T_r = T_c + (Pr)^{1/3} \frac{u^2}{2 c_p}$$  \hspace{1cm} C.21

The incompressible skin friction law used was the Karman-Schoenherr implicit equation (Ref. 38):

$$\sqrt{\frac{c_f'}{c_f}} = \frac{0.242}{\log(Re_s \frac{c_f'}{c_f})}$$  \hspace{1cm} C.22

and

$$c_f = \frac{0.557 c_f'}{0.557 + 2(c_f')^{1/2}}$$  \hspace{1cm} C.23

$c_f'$ is the average skin friction coefficient and $c_f$ is the local skin friction coefficient. The above simple equation is a best
fit to the universal skin friction curve.

There is much uncertainty about the value of the Reynolds analogy factor, $k_R$ (see Ref. ). An average value of $k_R = 1.08$ was chosen for this study. In the turbulent version of equation C.19, the Mangler transformation factor, $k_M$, has a value of 2 (Ref. 4).

The Spalding-Chi method (Ref. 5) was applied by obtaining the localskin friction, $c_f$, from the tabulated data given in Ref. 5 using input values of $Re_s$ (turbulent version of equation C.19), $M_c$ and $T' = T_v/T_c$. A quadratic series was used to calculate $c_f(Re_s)$.

The heat transfer equation used was:

$$ q_w = \rho c_v c_p \frac{c_f}{2} k_R (T_r - T_w) $$
HEAT TRANSFER RATE ON CONE, RUN 205, AT 0.0 MSECS FROM PEAK, ALPHA = 0.8 DEGREES, TIP AT 0.001IN ABOVE CENTRE LINE

EQUIVALENT PERFECT CONDITIONS
T0 = 0.320485E 04 DEG K
P0 = 0.683708E 05 PSI
M = 0.200050E 02
THETC = 0.500000E 02 DEG
TW = 0.295000E 03 DEG K
PR = 0.715000E 00

FREE STREAM CONDITIONS (11) AT TIP OF CONE
T = 0.305662E 02 DEG K
P = 0.142700E 01 PSI
RHO = 0.162546E 04 SLUGS/FT**3
U = 0.841607E 04 FT/SEC
MU = 0.508279E 07 LBS/SEC/FT**2
RE = 0.259146E 07

CONE CONDITIONS AT TIP (EQUIVALENT PERFECT)
TE = 0.227811E 04 DEG K
PE = 0.499599E 01 PSI
RHOE = 0.983668E 04 SLUGS/FT**3
UE = 0.462182E 04 FT/SEC
MU = 0.508279E 07 LBS/SEC/FT**2
RE = 0.184705E 01

NON-DIMENSIONAL PRESSURE COEFFTS. NEWTONIAN= 1.173, TANGENT CONE= 1.249
SHOCK ANGLE TO SURFACE= 7.43 DEGREES
REAL GAS VALUE, CP = 0.3884E 01

CALCULATION OF HEAT TRANSFER IN ZERO PRESSURE GRADIENT

REYNOLDS ANALOGY FACTOR = 1.100
REF. TEMP., ECKERT = 1464.2, SOM-SHORT = 1552.7, DEG K

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CALCULATION WITH CORRECTION FOR CONICITY

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APPENDIX D

Heat Transfer on a Sphere and a Blunt 50° Half-Angle Cone

Stagnation point heat transfer

The theory of Fay and Riddell (Ref. 1) is used to predict the stagnation point heat transfer. The formula used is:

\[ q = 0.763 \Pr^{-0.5}(\frac{\rho_u \mu}{\rho_e \mu})^{0.5} \left( \frac{\rho_u}{\rho_e} \right) 0.1 \left( \frac{d u}{ds} \right)^{1/2}_0 \left[ h_e - h_v \right] \]

Using a modified Newtonian theory, the velocity gradient at the stagnation point of a body with radius, \( R_n \), is given by:

\[ \frac{du}{ds} = \frac{1}{R_n} \sqrt{\frac{2p_{t2}}{p_e}} \]

where \( p_{t2} \) is the stagnation pressure. Subscript \( e \) refers to conditions just outside the boundary layer, subscript \( w \) to wall conditions and subscript \( 0 \) to the stagnation point.

The total enthalpy \( h_e \) was assumed equal to the value in the nozzle reservoir, calculated for real nitrogen from the measurements of \( p_0 \) and \( T_0 \). The wall enthalpy \( h_w \) was taken with sufficient accuracy to correspond to \( T_w = 293 \)°K. The viscosity of nitrogen was found from Sutherland's formula (Eqn. C.6) with the value of \( T_e \), the static temperature behind the shock calculated from \( h_e \), taking into account the departure from a perfect gas due to vibrational excitation (Ref. 14). The stagnation point pressure, \( p_{t2} \), was measured and the densities \( \rho_e, \mu_e \) were then obtained from \( p_{t2} \) and \( T_e, T_w \) using the perfect gas law. A Prandtl number of 0.715 was assumed.

Curves taken from the Lees similarity theory (Ref. 3) are used to predict the heat transfer rate, in relation to the stagnation point heat transfer downstream of the stagnation point for these body shapes.
TABLE 1. POSITION OF INSTRUMENTATION

MODELS A, B, D & E ARE GIVEN IN FIG. 2.

MODEL C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GUAGE</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>12</th>
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<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>4.35</td>
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<td>6.35</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.91</td>
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<td>3.19</td>
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TABLE 2 SUMMARY OF TEST CONDITIONS AT NOSE OF MODELS
AT TIME T = 0 ms/sec FROM PEAK

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<tr>
<th>RUN</th>
<th>MODEL</th>
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<th>T₀</th>
<th>PITOT</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Re×10⁻⁶</th>
<th>qₐ</th>
<th>Q</th>
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<td>37,600</td>
<td>2246</td>
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<td>19.5</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>383</td>
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<td>59,300</td>
<td>2450</td>
<td>8.5</td>
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<td>72.2</td>
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<td>289</td>
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<td>37,600</td>
<td>2246</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>364</td>
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<td>290</td>
<td>E</td>
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<td>58,340</td>
<td>2400</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>646</td>
<td>70.0</td>
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<td>6.14</td>
<td>2253</td>
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</table>

* Estimate - measurement not taken

Units: P₀ and pitot in lb/in²; dynamic pressure q₀ in lb/ft²
T₀ °K; Re ft⁻¹; stagnation point heat transfer, Q, B Th U / ft²·sec.
LONGSHOT TEST CONDITIONS, RUN NO. 285 AT 7.6 IN. FROM NOZZLE EXIT,
AND 4.6 FROM CENTRELINE

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<th>T(°S)</th>
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<th>TO(K)</th>
<th>PITOT(PSI)</th>
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<td>0.89696E 01</td>
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<td>0.30985E 04</td>
<td>0.29736E 07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.39340E 02</td>
<td>0.181817E-04</td>
<td>0.82739E 02</td>
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<td>0.62234E 03</td>
<td>0.687024E 02</td>
<td>0.269564E 04</td>
<td>0.359004E 02</td>
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LONGSHOT TEST CONDITIONS, RUN NO. 291 AT 7.2 IN. FROM NOZZLE EXIT,
AND 4.4 FROM CENTRELINE

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>0.229039E 07</td>
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<td>0.367024E 02</td>
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LONGSHOT TEST CONDITIONS, RUN NO. 292 AT 8.5 IN. FROM NOZZLE EXIT,
AND 4.9 FROM CENTRELINE

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<th>PITOT(PSI)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>0.234936E 04</td>
<td>0.292399E 02</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.392094E 04</td>
<td>0.613917E 07</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.976932E-01</td>
<td>0.681124E-04</td>
<td>0.813361E 04</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.225301E 04</td>
<td>0.126923E 03</td>
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<td>0.437353E 02</td>
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**TABLE 3**  TYPICAL TEST SECTION CONDITIONS
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<th>210</th>
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<td>-10°</td>
<td>+10°</td>
<td>0°</td>
<td>0°</td>
</tr>
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<td>HIGH RE</td>
<td>HIGH RE</td>
<td>HIGH RE</td>
<td>HIGH RE</td>
<td>LOW RE</td>
<td>LOW RE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>121.5</td>
<td>105.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>124.2</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>91.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>74.1</td>
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<td>57.7</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>51.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>64.2</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>69.3</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>46.3</td>
</tr>
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<td>61.2</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>62.3</td>
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<td>39.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>37.0</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>28.6</td>
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<td>24.6</td>
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<td>7.2</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
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</table>
### TABLE 5 HEAT TRANSFER MEASUREMENTS ON MODEL B, ZERO INCIDENCE

**TIME T = 0 m.secs M = 20, 15 (B.Th.u./ft²sec.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RUN NO</th>
<th>TEST CASE</th>
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<th>212 LOW RE₁</th>
<th>213 LOW RE₂</th>
<th>214 M = 15</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>GAUGE 2</td>
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<td>20.9</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>107.3</td>
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<td>45.6</td>
<td>164.5</td>
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<td>158.4</td>
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<td>71.8</td>
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<td>67.6</td>
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<td>43.5</td>
<td>66.3</td>
</tr>
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<td>34.8</td>
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### TABLE 7  HEAT TRANSFER MEASUREMENTS ON MODELS D & E

*TIME T = 0 m secs.  M = 20(15) (B.Thu/ft²sec)*

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>290</th>
<th>291</th>
<th>292</th>
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<td>LOW RE</td>
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<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>E</td>
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<td>60.9</td>
<td>95.0</td>
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<td>179.6</td>
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<td>52.2</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td>217.7</td>
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</table>

* = suspect reading - scope in uncalibrated position
### Table 8: Pressure Measurements on Model A. Time T = 0 ms.

*M = 20, (lb/in²)*

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<th>205</th>
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<td>-</td>
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**TABLE 9  PRESSURE MEASUREMENTS ON MODEL B, TIME T = 0 msecs**

*M = 20, 15. ZERO INCIDENCE (lb/in²)*

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<th>212 LOW RE₁</th>
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**TABLE 11 PRESSURE MEASUREMENTS ON MODEL D & E, TIME T = 0 msecs**

M = 20(15) (lb/in^2)
Fig 1. Four of the models tested
**Fig. 3** Heat Flux Gauge Assembly

**Fig. 4** Pitot Probe Geometry
1. Reservoir Pressure  2. Reservoir Temperature

Calorimetric Heat Transfer Traces

Fig 5 Typical Traces from Instrumentation
**Fig. 6** THE LONGSHOT WIND TUNNEL

**Fig. 7** MODEL E MOUNTED IN TEST SECTION
b) MODEL B

FIG. 8 SCHLIEREN PHOTOGRAPHS
c) MODEL C

FIG. 8 SCHLIEREN PHOTOGRAPS
288  d) MODEL D

290  291  292
 a) MODEL E

FIG & SCHLIEREN PHOTOGRAPHS
Run 204
M = 20
θ_e = 50°
α = 0°
HIGH RE

TANGENT-CONE THEORY
NEWTONIAN THEORY

EXPERIMENT

FIG 9 PRESSURE DISTRIBUTION ON MODEL A

DISTANCE FROM TIP, 5 INS
RUN 205
M = 20
θ_c = 50°
φ_a = +10°
HIGH RE

FIG. 10 PRESSURE DISTRIBUTION ON MODEL A
RUN 207
M = 20
θ_c = 50°
α = +10°
HIGH RE

Fig 11
PRESSURE DISTRIBUTION ON MODEL A
Fig. 12
Pressure Distribution on Model A
Fig 13: Pressure Distribution on Model A

- Experiment
- Tangent Cone Theory
- Newtonian Theory

Run 209
M = 20
θ_c = 50°
α = -10°
Low RE_1
THIS PAGE IS MISSING IN ORIGINAL DOCUMENT
FIG. 15 HEAT TRANSFER ON MODEL A AT ZERO INCIDENCE

a) FIRST HIGH RE CASE
FIG. 15(a) HEAT TRANSFER RATE ON MODEL A AT ZERO INCIDENCE

b) 2nd HIGH REYNOLDS NO. CASE
FIG. 15 (cont.) HEAT TRANSFER RATE ON MODEL A
AT ZERO INCIDENCE

C) 1st LOW RE CASE
Fig. 15 (cont.) Heat Transfer Rate on Model A at Zero Incidence

2nd Low Reynolds Number Case
Fig. 16  Heat transfer rate on model A at $\alpha = +10^\circ$
FIG. 17 HEAT TRANSFER RATE ON MODEL A AT $\alpha = -10^\circ$
FIG. 18 HEAT TRANSFER ON ROUGH MODEL B AT HIGH RE CASE
Fig. 19 HEAT TRANSFER ON ROUGH MODEL B

o FIRST LOW RE CASE
Fig. 196(b) Heat transfer on rough model B

b) 2nd low Re case
FIG. 20  HEAT TRANSFER ON ROUGH MODEL B

M = 15
FIG. 21 PRESSURE DISTRIBUTION ON ROUGH MODEL B.
FIG 22  PRESSURE DISTRIBUTION ON
MODEL C, M=20.
**FIG. 23** HEAT TRANSFER RATE ON MODEL C AT $\theta = 0^\circ$

**FIG. 24** HEAT TRANSFER RATE ON MODEL C AT $\theta = -10^\circ$ to $10^\circ$
FIG 26 HEAT TRANSFER DISTRIBUTION ON MODEL D

RUN 288 - CORRECTED LIES
RUN 289 - THEORY
Fig 27 Heat Transfer Distribution

\( \frac{q}{(q_{\text{stag}})_{th}} \)

- RUN 290
- RUN 291
- RUN 292

CORRECTED LEES THEORY
Fig. 28 Shock Stand-Off Distance

\[ \frac{b}{a} \] vs Mach Number

- Present Results on Blunt Cone & Hemisphere Models (C, D & E)

Experiments Reviewed in Truitt (Ref. 19)

VAN DYKE
\[ f = e^{a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2} \]

\( f \) can be \( P_0, P_t, P, q \) etc.

**FIG. A1** CURVE FITTING PROCEDURE FOR FAST RESPONSE GAUGES.

**FIG. A2** METHOD OF DETERMINING TEMPERATURE VARIATION IN NOZZLE FROM A THERMOCOUPLE TRACE