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Free-flight testing in high-speed wind tunnels

by Bain Dayman, Jr



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FREE-FLIGHT TESTING IN HIGH-SPEED WIND TUNNELS

by

Bain Dayman, Jr

Jet Propulsion Laboratory,
California Institute of Technology,
Pasadena, California, USA

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Professor Wilbur C. Nelson of The University of Michigan is the editor.

SUMMARY

The adaptation of free-flight techniques to testing in a conventional wind tunnel was made operational recently at the California Institute of Technology Jet Propulsion Laboratory. This AGARDograph describes this technique in enough detail that it can be applied to other facilities with a minimum amount of development. Examples and results of many applications are included in order to demonstrate the need and advantages for using this free-flight technique.

RESUME

L'adaptation des techniques de vol libre aux essais en tunnel aérodynamique a atteint l'état de marche au California Institute of Technology Jet Propulsion Laboratory. L'AGARDograph ci-dessous présente la technique en détail suffisant pour qu'on peut l'appliquer à d'autres installations avec une mise au point minimum. On a donné des exemples et les résultats des applications diverses afin de démontrer la nécessité et les avantages d'emploi de cette technique en vol libre.

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NOTATION

a	model acceleration
A	model reference area = $\frac{1}{4}\pi d^2$
b_i	non-linear coefficients in C_L
cg	center of gravity
c_i	non-linear coefficients in C_D
C_D	local drag coefficient = drag/qA
C_{DD}	drogue drag coefficient (based on drag area)
$C_{D \text{ eff}}$	effective drag coefficient of an oscillating model
C_{D0}	total drag coefficient at zero angle of attack
C_L	local lift coefficient = lift/qAd
$C_{L\alpha}$	lift slope at zero angle of attack (per radian)
C_m	local pitching moment coefficient = (pitching moment)/qAd
$C_{m\alpha}$	pitching moment slope at zero angle of attack
$(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$	effective pitching moment slope of an oscillating model
$C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}$	effective dynamic damping coefficient (assumed constant during a cycle of oscillation) = $\left[\frac{\partial C_m}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial C_m}{\partial \dot{\alpha}} \right] \frac{V_\alpha}{d}$
$(C_{N\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$	effective normal force slope coefficient (per radian) of an oscillating model = (normal force slope)/qAd
d	model base (reference) diameter
E	Legendre canonical form of the elliptic integral of the second kind
f	frequency of oscillation (cycles per second)
F	Legendre canonical form of the elliptic integral of the first kind
g	acceleration due to gravity
I	model moment of inertia
I_c	calibrating body moment of inertia

k	=	$-\frac{\rho_0 r_m}{C_{m\alpha} + r_m \rho_0^2}$
K		wire torsional constant
l		model length
m		mass of free-flight model
M		freestream Mach number
M _D		dynamic damping term = $(C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}) qA \frac{d^2}{V_\infty}$
M _S		static damping term = $(C_{D \text{ eff}} - C_{L\alpha}) q \frac{A}{V_\infty}$
N		number of oscillation cycles
p _B		base pressure
p _r		freestream static pressure
p ₀		freestream total pressure
P' ₀		pitot pressure
q		freestream dynamic pressure
r _C		ballast core radius of hypothetical spherical shape
r _m		non-linear coefficient in C _m
r _S		outside radius of hypothetical spherical shape
r _B		base radius of cone model
r _N		nose radius of spherical blunted cone model
R		correction factor for non-linear pitching moment effect on reduction for dynamic stability coefficient
Re		freestream unit Reynolds number
R _d		freestream Reynolds number based on model diameter
S		length of useful trajectory of free-flight model
t		time

T_0	freestream stagnation temperature
T_w	model wall temperature
T_∞	freestream static temperature
V	model longitudinal velocity relative to freestream
V_m	model longitudinal velocity relative to ground
V_∞	freestream flow velocity relative to ground
W	weight of free-flight model = mg
x	longitudinal location of model relative to ground
x_{cg}	center-of-gravity location (from nose of model) ($)_M$ measured; ($)_{th}$ calculated
x_{cp}	center-of-pressure location (from nose of model)
X	distance model travels longitudinally relative to freestream
X_0	value of X at some arbitrary initial condition
X_L	distance X for one quarter oscillation cycle (linear pitching moment)
X_N	distance X for one quarter oscillation cycle (non-linear pitching moment)
y	lateral location of model relative to ground
Δy	peak-to-peak model swerve motion
α	angle of attack
α_{env}	angle-of-attack oscillation envelope
α_0	initial oscillation envelope
$\bar{\alpha}_0$	effective oscillation envelope
α_t	angle of attack oscillation envelope at time t
α_x	angle of attack oscillation envelope at distance x
δ^2	root-mean-squared angle of attack
θ	angle between freestream velocity vector and model centerline
θ_0	θ at arbitrary initial condition ($X = X_0$). Also, equivalent to $\bar{\alpha}_0$

$\delta\theta$	amplitude decay during a half cycle of oscillation
ρ	gas freestream density
σ	cone apex half-angle
$\bar{\chi}$	hypersonic viscous interaction parameter based on cone surface conditions and model length = $M_c^3 (C_c/R_{lc})^{1/2}$ where C_c is the Chapman-Rubesin coefficient, and $()_c$ represents cone surface conditions
ψ	angle of yaw
Ω	distance oscillation frequency; radians (2π cycles) per unit distance (X) of model travel
(\cdot)	derivative with respect to time
$()'$	derivative with respect to distance

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1. INTRODUCTION

The need for and the advantages of support interference-free aerodynamic data has been recognized from the very start of aerodynamic testing. Also, the attainment of realistic model motion during free-flight trajectory has always been an important requirement. As flight vehicles become more complex and expensive, the greater becomes the need for a better understanding of the factors which go into the design of the actual vehicle and the manner in which they affect its predicted performance. Consequently, a great deal of effort has been put into observing the motion of bodies having all six-degrees-of-freedom and obtaining valid interference-free data.

During the past four years at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, a considerable amount of effort has been put into developing the techniques of free-flight testing in conventional wind tunnels and the acquisition of useful quantitative data. A conventional wind tunnel is defined as a tunnel having starting times in the order of a second and run times of at least several seconds. In order to explain the reasons for this development program, it would be useful to give a brief chronological description of free-flight testing over the years.

Both internally- and externally-mounted stores have been dropped from supported models during subsonic wind tunnel tests for many years. The free-flight motion of these stores was studied with the aid of medium-speed movie cameras. Attempts were made to obtain quantitative data from setups which were essentially qualitative in nature. Nevertheless, a better understanding of the store-drop problems was achieved which aided the development of techniques for successful release of stores from full-scale aircraft. There is no doubt that this use of the free-flight technique was essential for minimizing both the cost and time in arriving at the final satisfactory design.

Many subsonic vertical wind tunnels^{1,2*} have been used for model spin tests and recently for dynamic stability studies on several re-entry shapes with and without trailing devices such as drogue parachutes. The spin tests were a powerful tool in developing and proving the design of airplanes.

However, it was in the ballistic ranges³⁻⁶ that the large variety and high quality of data retrieval techniques were developed from free-flight models in ground-based facilities under controlled conditions. In addition to the aerodynamic coefficient

* Reference 2 contains references to several vertical spin tunnels and to many other free-flight testing techniques

data (drag, lift and pitching moment slope, and dynamic stability), information was obtained on the wake structure⁷. This wake information (ablation, transition, diffusion, electrical properties, etc.) is being obtained currently in specialized facilities⁸⁻¹⁰.

Shock tunnels^{11,12} are also used to measure drag and static stability derivatives. Low Reynolds number drag information at high Mach numbers has been obtained in both arc-discharge tunnels^{13,14} and in a low-density hyper-velocity wind tunnel¹⁵. Movies have been made of vehicle motion characteristics when dropped from airplanes. Actual flight tests¹⁶, dependent mainly upon internal instrumentation, have produced a large quantity of valuable data, but usually of below-desired quality. The information gained per dollar is extremely low compared with that from ground-based facilities, and the time scale is not only large, but unpredictable. Nevertheless flight data are valuable for purposes of validation. Sometimes, it is the only way to obtain certain information because it is impractical or even impossible to simulate the necessary conditions in ground-based facilities.

Recently a new approach to obtaining actual flight data made use of the "sky-diving" technique. The motion of spheres dropped from an airplane was studied by a sky-diver filming the descent from close range¹⁷. Until parachute deployment, the sky-diver has considerable control over both descent velocity and lateral position.

The use of magnetic suspension as a technique for obtaining interference-free data in a wind tunnel, was initiated quite some time ago^{18,19}. Recently, the capability of this technique has been extended from only drag measurements to lift and static stability^{20,21}. Pressure measurements^{22,23} are made on magnetically supported models as well as wake characteristics studies²⁴.

The free-flight technique as presented in this report was successfully employed²⁵ as early as 1954. Here simple models (from which drag measurements were made) were blown out of tubes against the airstream in a vertical supersonic wind tunnel. The high-speed wind tunnel free flight testing technique is intended only to complement the many other interference-free and supported-model testing methods. Also, it serves to validate or show limitations in the information obtained in wind tunnels with supported models. This, in itself, is a very valuable capability.

2. DESCRIPTION OF MOTION STUDIES*

2.1 Detailed History During One Cycle of Oscillatory Motion

A description of the data obtained from a model during one complete cycle of oscillation serves as an introduction to the many basic types of vehicle motion studies that are practical in a conventional wind tunnel. Both the angle of attack and velocity can be precisely determined by the use of high-speed (5000 frames/sec) motion pictures.

Although the model can be gun-launched, the use of the wire-release technique is usually satisfactory. The model size should be fairly large in order to obtain a

* Some expressions used in this section may be unclear. They will be defined in later sections during the discussion of specific aspects of the free-flight techniques

relatively large film image and to limit (by means of a low ratio of mass to moment of inertia) the oscillation to slightly more than one complete cycle. In this manner, some 300 separate frames of model motion during one cycle of oscillation can be obtained. Very detailed analysis during a small portion of the trajectory can be made. The angle of attack can be measured to about ± 0.1 deg and the model location to about 0.1% of model length. An example of an angle-of-attack history²⁶ is shown in Figure 1(a). Note should be taken of the negligible data scatter. The picture quality obtainable is shown in Figure 1(b).

By spinning up the models prior to gun-launch, the models can be given desired rate of roll about the axial centerline. In this case, it is necessary to record the model motion in the horizontal plane, as well as the usual vertical plane. In general, when the models are not specifically given roll rates, their motion is contained entirely in the vertical plane, and pictures of one plane are adequate.

2.2 Drag Studies

The presence of a sting support affects the model base pressure. At low Mach numbers, the base pressure can be a substantial portion of the total drag, especially for low form-drag models. Thus, under an appreciable range of testing conditions, it becomes virtually impossible to measure the total drag of certain models accurately (say, within $\pm 2\%$) when they are supported on a sting. For purposes of illustration, Table I indicates the importance of the base-pressure drag on several cones. For simplicity, skin friction was neglected. The base pressure was taken as one-half the freestream pressure; this is not exactly the actual case, but is probably within a factor of two of the usual condition. These are certainly adequate assumptions to point out the importance of an error in the base pressure when correct total drag is a test requirement.

It is readily apparent that a 10% error in the base pressure, which can be a realistic situation because of sting interference, can cause a significant error in the total drag at the lower Mach numbers. The base-pressure effect on total drag is considerably more serious, and extends further into the higher Mach number region as the cone becomes more slender.

2.2.1 Zero Angle of Attack

Figure 2 shows a typical actual size film image and an enlargement of a cone model used for drag data. Examples²⁸ of free-flight cone drag data appear in Figure 3(a) (the effect of Mach number) and Figure 3(b) (the effect of nose bluntness). Because of their relatively high acceleration, it was not practical to use the simplified ds/dt versus t approach in making the drag measurements. The $\log_e (1 + V_m/V_\infty)$ versus X approach²⁹ is required because of the substantial variation of dynamic pressure on the model during the free-flight trajectory. Figure 4 demonstrates the linearity obtained from the drag data reduction using this more universal method. Figure 5 shows an example for drag reduction when the model has low ($< 10 g$) acceleration.

2.2.2 Oscillatory Motion

In many cases, drag is required from oscillating models. For slender models, the drag can be a strong function of angle of attack. In order to obtain the average drag

during one oscillation cycle, it is desirable to analyze the linear motion during several complete cycles. This permits considerable relaxation of the position measurement requirements. For example, the model axial location need be measured only at zero angle of attack. The design of the models should be such that the oscillation amplitude is essentially unaffected by the various factors contributing to decay (lift, drag, and dynamic damping). This allows for extremely simple data reduction without compromising final data accuracy. Of course, the suggested design requirement is not a necessity; but if deviations (i.e., the amplitude of oscillation varies during trajectory or the model has high acceleration) do occur, the simplified approach to data reduction may not be adequate. This is not necessarily a disadvantage, because a slight complication in the data reduction may be more than offset by the simplification of model design or the ability to obtain a wider variety of data during a single trajectory. The variation of velocity with angle of attack is quite noticeable in Figure 6, where the velocity is compared with the local angle of attack.

The drag at zero angle of attack may be deduced from the total average drag at several amplitudes of oscillation in a manner similar to that used in ballistic ranges; the total drag is a linear function of the square of the oscillation envelope and, hence, the data may be extrapolated to zero angle.

2.2.3 *Decaying Oscillatory Motion*

Trajectories of slender models designed especially for dynamic stability studies are expected to have substantial decay in the oscillatory envelope and consequently will have a large variation in the average drag from the beginning to the end of the flight. The effective average drag coefficient as a function of some particular angle-of-attack amplitude is not the ultimate in accuracy, but drag as a function of several angle-of-attack amplitudes can be obtained during a single flight³⁰. The variation of $\log_e (1 + V_m/V_\infty)$ with X (and amplitude) is shown in Figure 7 and the resulting total drag coefficients for this type of trajectory is shown as a function of the square of the angle-of-attack envelope in Figure 8.

2.2.4 *Low Reynolds Number*

The accurate measurement of drag at low Reynolds numbers is extremely complicated due to the magnitude of the force involved. It is difficult to build, maintain, and successfully use appropriate balances. However, by free-fighting small models (as small as 0.05 in. D, or even smaller for spherical models) at low tunnel dynamic pressures (about 0.1 lb/in.² abs.), it is practical³¹ to measure drag levels down to 10^{-4} lb to within $\pm 2\%$. Figure 9 presents a drag study of slender cones at low Reynolds numbers.

Interference effects on the base pressure due to the presence of a sting support is normally expected. An example of such an interference appears in Figure 10. An increase in the ratio of the sting to model base diameter from 0.25 to 0.50 doubles the base pressure for this particular case. It is possible that the most significant effect of the sting interference is not limited to the base area. As the boundary-layer thickness on cones in low Reynolds number flow can be on the order of the model radius, a pressure disturbance on the base may feed forward through the subsonic portion of the thick boundary layer and consequently distort the boundary layer on the cone surface. The magnitude of the resulting effect on drag and stability data

has not yet been determined. This effect should not be assumed to be negligible until so demonstrated.

A similar situation exists in the use of low density wind tunnels where the boundary-layer thickness may be about half of the nozzle radius. Any variation in the test chamber (plenum) pressure affects the nozzle exit Mach number³². The only way that this could occur would be for the pressure variation to feed upstream into the nozzle through the subsonic portion of the boundary layer and change its characteristics. A change in Mach number from this cause is shown in Figure 11.

2.2.5 *Undistorted Configuration*

In order to study airplane configurations experimentally in wind tunnels, it is usually necessary to alter the basic shape in the region of the base to accommodate a sting support and balance (Fig.12). The effect of this alteration can be studied by the use of the free-flight technique. Another similar problem is the study of boat-tailing effects on drag. In many instances, this study is limited by the presence of the sting and the housing of the balance. Consequently, the desired variation of the boat-tailing cannot be achieved. This problem, which also applies to pitching moment studies, can be solved by free-flight testing.

2.3 Static Stability Studies

2.3.1 *Basic Static Stability*

The one cycle angle-of-attack history of Figure 1(a) can be used to obtain pitching-moment slope data. The large number of accurate data points may even permit the determination of the local pitching moment throughout the angle-of-attack oscillation. An even higher degree of accuracy for the effective pitching moment slope can be achieved by having several complete cycles of oscillation recorded during the trajectory. Rather than requiring an extremely careful curve fit to the single cycle of data, only the times (or distances) at several successive zero angles of attack are then needed. Figure 13 shows a typical example of non-decaying angle-of-attack history for a model having over five cycles of oscillation. The effect of oscillation amplitude on the pitching moment slope³⁰ appears in Figure 14.

The models designed for free-flight testing in a wind tunnel usually do not swerve (vary in a lift direction away from a zero-lift trajectory) enough to determine accurately the lift-curve slope as is typically done in a ballistic range. But, by placing the center of gravity at several locations, the center-of-pressure location, as well as the normal force slope, can be determined³¹ (Fig.15).

2.3.2 *Low Reynolds Number*

As with the measurement of drag at low Reynolds number, there is considerable difficulty in developing and using balances for measurement of very small magnitudes of pitching moment. Effective pitching moment, as deduced from the oscillation frequency, can be measured for values as low as 10^{-5} in.lb to within 5%. Figure 15 is an example of such data, the smallest r.m.s. moments measured being about 1.5×10^{-4} in. lb.

2.3.3 Effects of Hysteresis

Some shapes have flow characteristics which may be a function of the angle of attack and the motion history. Separation ahead of a step or a flare is a typical example of such flow. Ablation and mass injection can also have a significant effect on flow over a body. At low Reynolds numbers, the boundary layer ahead of a flare (Fig.16) is likely to be separated^{33,34}. The amount of separation at a particular angle of attack may depend upon the direction in which the angle is approached, and at what rate.

One way of investigating the effect of boundary-layer separation hysteresis on static stability is the free-flight technique, where the pitching moment slope can be determined to within 2%. The oscillation amplitude can be controlled, and the oscillation frequency can be varied.

2.3.4 Lifting Bodies

It is practical to study the motion of a lifting body by the use of the free-flight technique in a conventional wind tunnel. It is not particularly important whether the trajectory is longitudinal (as with a zero-lift body) or lateral. In either case the motion can be adequately photographed on high-speed movie film. However, for the lifting body, the use of a full-frame rather than half-frame camera is required as the entire viewing area (not just the horizontal center-line region) must be recorded. The lifting body can be wire released. A possibly more satisfactory method would be to employ some sort of a simple, quick-release model holder located at the floor of the test section. The shock waves from such a device would not intersect with the crucial region of the model trajectory except at low Mach numbers or low lift-to-drag ratio bodies. This technique permits direct measurement of the interference-free trim angle, lift-to-drag ratio, and drag.

2.4 Dynamic Pitch Damping

Although it may be practical to measure dynamic damping at high amplitudes of oscillation by using models cross-supported on gas or mechanical (ball or roller) bearings, the effect of the disturbances caused by the support is not always negligible. In such cases, it is necessary to rely upon the free-flight technique for such data in order to at least establish a confidence level for the supported model. Many damping studies have been made for oscillation amplitudes up to 90 deg and a few up to 150 deg. In Figure 17 are shown two cases of damped motion at high amplitudes of oscillation; one is for a model having very small and the other (slender cone) having fairly large dynamic stability damping. Figure 18 gives some typical results³⁰ of the damping coefficient for a 10-deg half-angle sharp-nose cone at moderate angle-of-attack envelopes.

The practicality of this technique for obtaining dynamic damping in pitch can be illustrated by describing hypothetical results for two extremes in model design: Model A (minimum radius of gyration) - light-weight foam shape, ballasted with a gold sphere at the center of gravity; Model B (maximum radius of gyration) - thin-shell aluminum shape, ballasted at the forward tip with gold. The hypothetical model and test conditions are as follows:

$\sigma = 10 \text{ deg}$ (cone half-angle)
 $r_N/r_B = 0$ (sharp nose)
 cg at 50% of model length
 $\alpha_0 = 0.1 \text{ rad}$ (initial angle-of-attack amplitude)
 $S = 2 \text{ ft}$ (length of wire-release trajectory)
 $M = 8$
 $V_\infty = 3880 \text{ ft/sec}$ (900°F supply temperature).

For models with varying base diameters, the trajectories of the two methods of construction are compared in Table II. Also, the effect of an order of magnitude in the tunnel dynamic pressure on the $\frac{1}{2}$ in. D Model A is shown. In all cases, the dynamic-damping effect on the amplitude is based upon an assumed value of $C_{mq} = C_{m\dot{\alpha}} = -2$. Low radius of gyration and high tunnel dynamic pressure are important requirements for the measurement of dynamic damping. For gun-launched models, having trajectories in both directions across the viewing area, the values for t and N are doubled, and the values for $(\alpha_t/\alpha_0)_{env}$ are squared.

2.5 Flow Discontinuity Effects

The effect of flow non-uniformities, such as a gust or a nuclear blast upon the motion of a vehicle, can be studied in detail. A pressure-gust can be simulated in a wind tunnel by the use of a flow-turning wedge. The effects of small pressure disturbances on free-flighted cones have been observed. A nuclear blast condition could be created by use of "electrically exploding" wires, an explosive charge, or by aiming a shock tube at the wind tunnel model trajectory region.

2.6 Multibody Studies

Definitive experimental studies of the motion of bodies while in the aerodynamic influence of other bodies are virtually non-existent. The use of free-flight techniques makes it practical to study the motion of conditions such as: removal of base cover on re-entering vehicles; separation of launch vehicle stages; flight of a salvo of closely spaced missiles. An example of the motion of two closely spaced, gun-launched slender cones is shown in Figure 19.

One simple device³⁵ that can be used to separate a tandem configuration (two models in series) while in free-flight is shown in Figure 20(a). The rod is free to slide within the forward spherical ballast. The vertical wire used for wire-launch goes through the ballast sphere and through a hole in the left-hand end of the rod. In this position the rod is in a forward position, thus forcing the wire fingers together. The trailing cone is centered on the right-hand end of the rod with the fingers squeezed into holes on the cone nose. In this manner, the trailing cone is held in position against the base of the forward cone. When the vertical wire breaks within the forward model, the rod springs aft due to the spring-action of the fingers, allowing the models to separate. A flight example of the separation of these tandem cones is shown in Figure 20(b).

2.7 Drogued Configurations

Up to now, the motion study of drogued configurations has been hampered by the effects of support interference (see Figure 21 for an example of the severe shock wave patterns caused by a single small transverse wire support) and the lack of complete motion simulation. Both simple drag studies and the more complicated motion studies of drogued configurations have been carried out³⁶. An example of the effect of a small drogue body upon the angle-of-attack history of the main (forward) body is shown in Figure 22. The drag of a trailing sphere without support interference is shown in Figure 23.

2.8 Base Measurements

The presence of any type of support has been shown to affect model base pressure and heating. Much of the theoretical work being done in this field also lacks definitive experimental data. With the free-flight models, telemetry is relatively simple because of the low accelerations (< 100 g). A variety of releases, including gun-launch and wire-release, can be used. Examples of base pressure data obtained by the wire-release³⁷ and the gun-launch³⁸ are shown in Figure 24.

2.9 Wake Studies

2.9.1 Optical

Two techniques are practical for obtaining schlieren pictures of free-flight model wakes. For non-oscillating models (which, for this purpose, are wire-released into their trajectory), one 4 in. \times 5 in. spark schlieren photograph can be taken per flight. For the JPL optical system the model image size is quite large, about 1/6 actual size. Examples of such wake schlierens³⁹ are in Figure 25. However, since the spark technique is not practical for an oscillating model, use is made of high-speed schlieren movies on 35 mm half-frame film. In this case, the film image is about 1/30 actual size. A schlieren sequence of an oscillating cone wake taken on high-speed (4000 frames/sec) 35 mm film³⁰ is shown in Figure 26. In spite of the small model film image (0.03 in. base diameter), the resolution is surprisingly good. Model diameters up to 3 in. have been used in order to improve the definition and increase the number of pictures per cycle.

It has been customary to support a model from the side, rather than from the base, in order to observe wake properties. Under most conditions, this is not a satisfactory approach for such data. Comparisons⁴⁰ of cone wakes with and without single-transverse wire support (0.020 in. D wire for 1.5 in. D cone) are shown in Figure 27. At $M = 2$, when the wake of the free-flight cone appears to be turbulent, the presence of the wire support has negligible effect on the wake shape; at $M = 4.7$, the wire substantially alters the laminar wake*. A similar wire interference effect,

* It should not be assumed that the presence of a wire has no effect on a turbulent wake just because there is no major effect on the schlieren-observed wake shape. Detailed pitot and static pressure probing in the wakes of large cones with turbulent boundary layers at $M = 4$ indicate appreciable differences in the pressure profile between those taken in the plane of the supporting wire and cross-wise to the wire⁴¹. The wire diameter was 0.7% of the model base diameter. The optical wakes of these wire-supported models compared favorably with the equivalent free-flight wakes.

movement of the wake neck toward the model, has been noticed for sphere models. The variation of the sphere wake neck location with wire diameter is shown in Figure 28. The schlieren pictures indicate that the flow field in the plane of the wire support has no obvious major disturbance due to the wire. But, as can be seen in Figure 21, the flow field in the plane normal to the wire support is severely disturbed by the presence of the wire. Hence, it is not surprising that a seemingly insignificant wire support can materially alter the wake shape.

The effect of model ablation on the free-flight wake can be conveniently studied. The use of low temperature ablators such as carbon dioxide or "moth balls" permit sufficient variation in the mass ratio for meaningful studies. Even intricate models capable of ejecting gas through the surfaces are feasible.

2.9.2 Surveys

Pressure surveys, and perhaps temperature or hot-wire surveys can be made through the wake of a free-falling, heavily ballasted model. Two-inch diameter, lead-filled aluminum cones weighing several pounds have been dropped, and near-vertical pitot pressure surveys have been made through the wake at various stations aft of the base. This technique will give realistic, interference-free measurements at locations considerably downstream of the wake neck. How close to the base such probing can be done must be carefully investigated for each particular case (model shape, Mach and Reynolds numbers, probe geometry, etc.). Two methods are available to assess the degree of interference. Recourse may be made to the use of high-speed 35 mm film schlierens and/or the history of the telemetered base pressure as the model drops down and its wake becomes clear of the probe.

The pressure probe can be designed for a response time on the order of 1-2 millisecc. As the vertical travel is only 0.08 in. during 2 millisecc after the model has already dropped two inches, this lag time is acceptable. An example of a pressure survey through a cone wake⁴² is illustrated in Figure 29. This free-fall technique is very useful when the axial acceleration is less than the acceleration due to gravity, but becomes less productive as the model axial acceleration increases.

3. MODEL LAUNCHING

3.1 General

For free-flight testing in conventional wind tunnels, the models can be launched into free-flight trajectories in several ways. The two most common techniques are wire-release and gun-launch. Another technique which has important advantages, as well as severe limitations, consists of dropping the model through the flow. Additional techniques are used for both specialized and general applications at other facilities.

3.2 Wire-Release

The model can be supported on a wire strung across the test section at the forward end of the viewing area⁴³. Normally the wire is in the same plane as the windows. If it is desired to have a wire support in a plane orthogonal to a window, either of

two cautions must be observed. The window must be recessed from the flow or protected in some manner such that the ruptured wire will not come in contact with the window, for if it does, damage to the window may occur. This window damage can be prevented by substituting monofilament string for the wire, such as 0.040 in. diameter fishing line. It is necessary to knot the string inside the model in order to create a stress point; when an impulse load is added to the normal tension load, the string will break within the model.

The wire normally used for launching is piano wire ranging from 0.008 to 0.026 in. diameter, notched on one side only to a depth of 0.003 to 0.007 in. at a point within the model. Should the stagnation temperature be above 300°F, it is preferable to use a high-temperature steel wire. Although the piano wire has a higher yield strength at room temperature, at elevated temperatures it is substantially weaker than the high-temperature steel wire. At stagnation temperatures above 1000°F, and when the heat input to the wire is high enough to cause the wire to break at its intersection with the model bow shock wave, it is necessary to use a hollow-tube (e.g., 0.036 in. diameter, 0.006 in. wall thickness, and a 0.001 in. circumferential notch), which is internally cooled with either water or some gas such as nitrogen or air.

A shield can be used to cool a model which is located in a flow having a high stagnation temperature. This wedge-shaped shield can encompass the model, but can even be located entirely upstream of the model. Gaseous nitrogen ejected from this shield over the model will cool the model down to about 0°F. Liquid nitrogen ejected over the model will cool the model to approximately -320°F. The shield is rapidly removed from the flow just prior to model launch. The depth of the notch on the wire or tube must be increased in order to retain a proper strength balance of the wire between the cooled notch region and the remainder of the wire which is at a higher temperature. If this is not done the notch may be the strong point, and the rupture of the wire will occur at another location.

Table III lists several wire-tunnel conditions which have been proven to be operational at JPL. It will serve as a basis for incorporating such a launch technique without an undue amount of development.

A typical wire-launch installation is shown in Figure 30. A shield, from which either liquid or gaseous nitrogen can be ejected over the model for cooling purposes, is shown in the down position. This shield can be raised completely out of the flow in 0.1 to 0.2 seconds. The wire tension and the impulse load to rupture the wire is generally applied in either of two methods. Originally weights were used to preload the wire and then additional weights were dropped (about 6-8 in.) in order to supply the impulse load. The current method uses a pneumatic piston for both the tension preload and the wire-breaking impulse load. An example of a wire-release model flight is shown in the high speed movie sequence of Figure 31.

It is not necessary to rupture a support wire by the use of tension acting at a pre-determined stress point. Another very satisfactory method would be to explode the wire, or at least a limited region of it, by using electrical energy. Controlled wire rupture by the use of electrical energy at a desired region (pyro-fuse) has been successfully developed by Lockheed-California Company⁴⁴ for use in a shock tunnel. This technique can be readily adapted to conventional wind tunnels.

3.3 Gun-Launch

The resulting trajectory of a wire-launch model is once across the viewing area in a downstream direction. By launching a model upstream against the air flow, both an upstream and a downstream trajectory across the viewing area are obtained. To optimize the information from such a trajectory, the model must be propelled to the upstream edge of the viewing area. A trajectory which goes considerably forward of the window usually penalizes the quality of the data. A trajectory which is too short generally penalizes the data a lesser amount.

Several means can be used to propel the model forward into the test section. Consideration was given to a "pelton-type" revolving launch wheel. This, however, would require a great deal of room and a considerable degree of precisely timed actuating mechanism. Therefore, it was discarded. The use of some type of launch gun seemed to be more appropriate: pneumatic power was chosen over several other approaches such as spring or gun-powder.

The design criteria used for the pneumatic launcher are as follows:

- (i) The launcher had to be able to propel the model from a point downstream of the viewing window to the upstream edge of the window (a distance of approximately 34 in. in the JPL supersonic wind tunnel).
- (ii) The angle of attack at release could be set from 0 to 180 deg for both slender models and for short, blunt models.
- (iii) The mass of the models could vary from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 100 grams.
- (iv) Since the trajectory is determined by the model shape, mass, and tunnel dynamic pressure, the launch velocities must vary from 10 to 150 ft/sec.

Because of the structural geometry of the supersonic wind tunnel, the pneumatic launcher assembly was mounted 3 in. to the side of the tunnel centerline. In order to compensate for the gravity effect and maintain the model's flight as near centered in the viewing window as possible, the assembly was mounted 2 in. above the tunnel centerline. An alternative method would be to tilt the gun upward several degrees. The model separated from the launcher 7 in. downstream of the trailing edge of the viewing window. This was done to insure that the near-wake of the model would be free from any influence of the projecting mechanism.

In general the model is mounted on the launcher at the desired angle of attack and is secured by a set of fasteners or holding device⁴⁵ while tunnel flow conditions are established. An installation of a model at 20 deg angle of attack is shown in Figure 32. A cam-actuated micro-switch coupled to the fastener or holding device shaft, opens the holding device and also starts a high-speed camera. An event switch, synchronized with the camera, actuates the piston release mechanism approximately one quarter of a second later, starting the model on its way. This delay is necessary to allow for the high speed camera reaching the selected speed of 5000 frames/sec before the model appears in the viewing area. The picture sequence in Figure 26 shows the flight of a model released at positive angle of attack. As many as thirteen complete cycles of oscillatory model motion in a given flight have been filmed using this technique.

The original launch system supported the model on a piston-sabot within the launch tube and projected the models at 0 deg angle of attack only. Examination of the high-speed movies indicated that the models were being influenced by the bow shock of the launch tube and would pitch or yaw as they passed through this shock. To correct this, the supporting piston-sabot combination was extended to release the model upstream of the bow shock from the launch-tube. Another problem was a resonant-air condition in the interior of the tube which at times could blow the model off the support before launch if it was not firmly held in position. This approach was abandoned in favor of supporting the models in the airstream, as shown in Figure 32. Modifications were also made in the method of releasing the piston. This included an air-actuated auxiliary piston in conjunction with the launch tube.

Development was concentrated next on the support and release of the models at discrete angles of attack. The difficulties encountered in supporting the model at angle of attack, for instance, were shock interference from adjacent tunnel structure and a force-moment couple during the acceleration phase. Both of these problems were solved with the use of a triangular-shaped blade, placed on the launch gun rod (Fig.33). This type of support gives maximum side-load resistance to shock waves from the diffuser centerbody leading edge. This centerbody is a slender, metal plate spanning from the tunnel floor to the ceiling, along the length of the contraction section. The same support also resists the vertical-force couple by extending into the plastic model and holding it firmly in place. Figure 33 illustrates the triangular support which was used for angles of attack that varied from 0 to 30 deg. While this method of supporting is adequate for cones, other model shapes may require further support development. It was found that it is not absolutely necessary to recess the model when launching with the pneumatic gun. The model can be held on a concave support and launched against the airstream in a manner similar to that used by a shot-putter. In this case the model is held against the form-fitted support with a rubber band or nylon string. This tie is then cut by a razor blade when the launch-stroke is about at the half-way point. The model is free to release itself from the launch tube at the end of the stroke. Although it is convenient to launch models in this manner up to angles of attack of 120 deg, yaw motion is likely to be introduced in addition to the planned pitch motion. Then pictures taken in two planes (ideally orthogonal) are required to reduce the data during the trajectory. The recessed models very rarely have non-planar trajectories. That is to say, the motion is confined to the vertical plane for releases up to 90 deg angle of attack.

In order to prevent the model holder from rotating about the launch tube axis during the launching, the tube was fabricated from square tubing. The piston was then made to seal by incorporating vacuum-formed square cups of polyethylene sheet plastic. The various sections of the pneumatic launch tube are shown in Figure 34. The drive-piston packing seals off the exhaust ports near the end of the stroke, which is accompanied by an increase of pressure in the tube. A combination of a pneumatic dash pot and a coiled spring is used to stop the acceleration rod*. This system is effective in decelerating the piston and rod assembly within 1 in. (from a velocity of 100 ft/sec to rest). This deceleration has been adequate for most models tested.

Bench calibrations have been performed to evaluate the system's repeatability at various piston-supply pressures. The calibration equipment consists of two

* This rod is actually a hollow-tube in order to minimize the mass which must be decelerated at the end of the stroke

photo-multiplier tubes, light sources, and an oscilloscope. The plotted data of supply pressure versus velocity are shown in Figure 35, with an insert of a typical trace from the oscilloscope. With this information, it is possible to predict the pressures required to project the models at desired velocities. A first approximation (which neglects friction) for the required pressure is based upon the equations of motion, Section 4.2, using the model's velocity (V_m):

$$P = \frac{V_m^2(m + m_1)}{2S_1A_1} \quad (1)$$

where A_1 = area of launch-tube piston
 m = mass of free-flight model
 m_1 = mass of launch-tube accelerating parts (piston, rod, model holder)
 S_1 = length of launch-tube piston stroke.

In order to utilize the wind tunnel more efficiently, several launch assemblies can be installed, thus allowing two or more launches per tunnel entry. A remote-loading launch gun may be preferable. The wind tunnels at the Ballistic Research Laboratories use a gun incorporating a technique for landing several models during a single tunnel entry⁴⁶. At Arnold Engineering Development Center (AEDC) a launch gun has been developed which can be retracted from the tunnel flow to be reloaded with a model without interrupting the flow⁴⁷.

3.3.1 Spinning Models

Models can be gun-launched with desired roll rates⁴⁸. Cone models have been launched with spin rates up to 200 revolutions per second. Substantially higher rates have been demonstrated during bench tests but have not yet been required for actual model tests. Initial angles of pitch at launch have varied from zero to 30 deg. Launch success is not decreased by the incorporation of spin.

Spin is achieved by an air-driven motor. This small motor (about 1 in. D by 1 in. long, mounted on the end of the launch rod) is adjustable in angle of pitch. The pre-launch spin rate is indicated by a magnetic pick-up incorporated in the motor. The air to the motor is automatically disconnected when the launch gun first begins to drive the rod forward. A setup of this system is shown in Figure 36. The air jet tube is used to give the model desired amounts of yaw rates. This additional capability makes it possible to vary the pitch-yaw motion history of a spinning model through a wide spectrum. Similar techniques for launching spinning models are used by the Naval Ordnance Laboratory⁴⁹ and the Ballistic Research Laboratories⁵⁰.

3.4 Vertical Drop

Under some conditions, dropping the model from the top of the test section is a very useful technique. This approach has been successfully applied to spherical¹⁵ and conical models⁵¹ in the AEDC wind tunnel facilities. In order for the vertical-drop to be useful, the acceleration due to the drag force cannot be substantially greater than the gravity acceleration.

If the physical arrangement of a wind tunnel is such that a model can be dropped into the flow from above the test section and the model can be conveniently caught below the test section, the vertical-drop is very valuable for a model having drag acceleration small compared to that of gravity. An intricate model, such as one containing considerable amounts of internal mechanism (properly packaged telemetry equipment, etc.) can be flown many times without serious damage to the instrumentation*.

3.5 Vertical Tunnel

When it is practical to closely match the model drag force with the model weight, a vertical tunnel is very useful in the study of model dynamic stability. This technique has been successfully used in the arc-heated wind tunnel at the NASA Ames Research Center for the study of ablation effects on very short, high-drag model configurations⁵³. The model is held against a hollow sting with a monofilament line. Once the tunnel has reached the desired operating conditions, the protective shield is removed laterally from ahead of the model. Then, when steady-state ablation is achieved, the monofilament line is electrically burned at the model base and the sting is quickly retracted, leaving the model in free-flight. Orthogonal-plane cameras are used to record the motion of the flights, which can be several seconds long.

4. MODELS

4.1 General

Due to the low accelerations (usually less than 100 g) that models are subjected to in a conventional wind tunnel free-flight test, there is a large variety of applicable model design and construction techniques. This low acceleration is in direct contrast to the high acceleration for a ballistic range test (approximately 10^5 g). Before discussing the major model designs which are currently in use, it would be appropriate to go into the effects of the various model mass characteristics (mass, center of gravity, and moment of inertia) which affect the model motion during its free-flight trajectory. The significance of model design parameters upon the trajectory will then become apparent.

4.2 Simplified Equations of Motion

In order to guide the preparation of a test program, simplified planar-motion equations are adequate. They are based upon linearized theory and small amplitude of oscillation with the dynamic pressure on the model remaining constant during the entire trajectory (the model velocity is negligible compared to the freestream flow velocity). The following equations describe the trajectory as a function of the model mass and flow characteristics:

Model
acceleration:
$$a = \frac{qAC_{D\text{eff}}}{W} g \quad (2)$$

* Heavily-instrumented models can be caught with no internal damage and minor external even when flown under conditions of high axial acceleration. Such a special model catcher has been developed for use in the General Dynamics San Diego wind tunnels⁵²

Model velocity
after traveling
distance S :

$$v_m = \left(\frac{2SqAC_{Deff}}{m} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (3)$$

Time to travel
distance S :

$$t = \left(\frac{2Sm}{qAC_{Deff}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (4)$$

Cycles of oscillation
while traveling
distance S :

$$N = \frac{1}{\pi} \left(- \frac{C_{m\alpha}}{C_{Deff}} S \frac{d}{2I} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (5)$$

Frequency of
oscillation (c/s):

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(- \frac{AdqC_{m\alpha}}{I} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (6)$$

Peak-to-peak
model vertical
motion:

$$\Delta y = \frac{2\alpha_0 I}{md} \left(\frac{C_{L\alpha}}{C_{m\alpha}} \right) \quad (7)$$

Angle-of-attack
oscillation envelope
at end of distance S :

$$\left(\frac{\alpha_t}{\alpha_0} \right)_{env} = e^{\frac{t}{2} \left(\frac{M_D}{I} + \frac{M_S}{m} \right)} \quad (8)$$

4.3 Materials

A great number of solid materials can be used to build free-flight models. The material density can range from light-weight plastics to platinum. A list of practical and familiar materials is included in Table IV. The specific heats and the thermal conductivities of the metals are included as well as the densities of all materials. The thermal properties aid in the choice of a material for models which are to have wall temperatures differing from adiabatic. The three light metals (magnesium, beryllium, aluminum) are good choices for light-weight model shells whether the models are adiabatic, cooled, or heated.

Materials that are usually used for the model core are lead, copper (adiabatic models at high temperature), and gold (the optimum choice for the maximum ratio of mass to moment of inertia). The choice of material for the core, as well as for the model-shell, is generally limited to plastics or malleable metals which minimize damage to the wind tunnel structure. The use of hard materials such as chromium, steel tungsten, platinum, or hevimet should be avoided even though they do have certain advantages. Since a model can contain several different metals, the thermal expansion coefficient is listed in Table IV in order to point out possible problems when the model wall temperature during the test is different from room temperature.

4.4 Equations for Body Mass Characteristics

Equations useful in computing model mass, center of gravity, and moment of inertia are presented. In model design it is necessary to have a suitable total weight, proper center-of-gravity location, and an upper or lower limit for the moment of inertia. Additional information may be found in Reference 55.

4.4.1 Mass: $m = \rho \int dx dy dz$

4.4.1.1 Circular cylinder

Solid: $m = \rho \pi r^2 h$

Thin wall: $m = \rho \pi d t h$ (open ends).

4.4.1.2 Circular cone

Solid: $m = \frac{1}{3} \rho \pi r^2 h$

Thin wall: $m = \rho \pi r t (r^2 + h^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ (open base).

4.4.1.3 Sphere

Solid: $m = \frac{4}{3} \rho \pi r^3$

Thin wall: $m = 4 \rho \pi r^2 t$.

4.4.1.4 Ellipsoid

Solid: $m = \frac{4}{3} \rho \pi a b c$

Thin wall: $m = \frac{4}{3} \rho \pi t (a b + a c + b c)$.

4.4.2 Center of Gravity: $X_{cg} = \frac{1}{V} \int x dV$

4.4.2.1 Circular cone

Solid: $X_{cg} = \frac{1}{4} h$ from base

Thin wall: $X_{cg} = \frac{1}{3} h$ from base (open base).

4.4.2.2 Truncated Circular Cone

Solid: $X_{cg} = \frac{h}{4} \frac{(R^2 + 2rR + 3r^2)}{(R^2 + rR + r^2)}$ from base

Thin wall: $X_{cg} = \frac{h}{3} \frac{R + 2r}{R + r}$ (open ends).

4.4.2.3 Hemisphere

$$\text{Solid: } X_{cg} = \frac{3}{8} r \text{ from base}$$

$$\text{Thin wall: } X_{cg} = \frac{1}{2} r \text{ (open base).}$$

4.4.2.4 Segment of a sphere

$$\text{Solid: } X_{cg} = \frac{3}{4} \frac{(2r - h)^2}{(3r - h)} \text{ (from sphere center)}$$

$$\text{Thin wall: } X_{cg} = \frac{1}{2} h \text{ (flat, open base body).}$$

4.4.2.5 Hemi-ellipsoid

$$\text{Solid: } X_{cg} = \frac{3}{8} \text{ length of semi-axis normal to base from base}$$

$$\text{Thin wall: } X_{cg} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ length of semi-axis normal to base from base (open base).}$$

4.4.3 Moment of Inertia: $I = \int x^2 \rho \, dm$

4.4.3.1 Circular cylinder (about an axis through c.g. perpendicular to axis of symmetry)

$$\text{Solid: } I = \frac{m}{12} (3r^2 + h^2)$$

$$\text{Thin wall: } I = \frac{m}{2} (r^2 + \frac{1}{6} h^2) \text{ (open ends).}$$

4.4.3.2 Right circular cone (about an axis through its c.g. and perpendicular to axis of symmetry)

$$\text{Solid: } I = \frac{3}{80} m (4r^2 + h^2)$$

$$\text{Thin wall: } I = m \left(\frac{r^2}{4} + \frac{h^2}{18} \right) \text{ (open base).}$$

4.4.3.3 Sphere (about a diameter)

$$\text{Solid: } I = \frac{2}{5} mr^2$$

$$\text{Thin wall: } I = \frac{2}{3} mr^2 .$$

4.4.3.4 Ellipsoid (about semi-axis c)

$$\text{Solid: } I = \frac{m}{5} (a^2 + b^2)$$

$$\text{Thin wall: } I = \frac{m}{5} \left(\frac{a^3b + a^3c + b^3a + b^3c + 3a^2bc + 3ab^2c}{ab + ac + bc} \right) .$$

4.4.3.5 Hemisphere (about an axis through c.g. perpendicular to axis of symmetry)

$$\text{Solid: } I = \frac{83}{320}mr^2$$

$$\text{Thin wall: } I = \frac{5}{12}mr^2 \text{ (open base).}$$

Symbol Definition for Model Mass Characteristics

a, b, c	semi-axes of ellipsoid
d	diameter
h	height
m	mass
r	radius
R	base radius of truncated cone
t	wall thickness
V	volume of material

4.5 Design and Construction

Numerous methods of model design and construction have already been successfully employed. As the maximum acceleration experienced by the models prior to and during the data acquisition period are usually below 10^2 g, the models can be of very delicate, yet simple, construction. For example, the center of gravity can be located near the forward end of the model. In addition, airplane models having delicate surfaces can be easily built and successfully tested. Construction of the Apollo abort configuration (re-entry vehicle with tower and escape rocket) is not difficult, even though the tower design consists of a fine skeletal framework. These examples serve to illustrate the wide variety of materials and model configurations which can be used because of the low loads that models experience during free-flight testing (launch and trajectory) in a wind tunnel.

The acceleration of the models should not be so low as to have the flight path drop out of view before sufficient information is acquired. On the other hand, too high an acceleration will decrease the number of high-speed movie frames of the flight below the desired number (say 200 frames at 4000 frames/sec). If a steady light source is used for the movies, the model image may be elongated due to excessive model movement during one frame (60-80 μ sec exposure). Model acceleration and the resulting flight time and velocity (relative to ground) at the termination of a wire-release trajectory are shown in Figures 37, 38, and 39. These values also apply to each half of a gun-launch trajectory.

The model design can be somewhat complicated when dynamic stability and/or pitch-moment data are desired. This becomes evident from the approximate equations of motion. The amplitude decay and the number of oscillation cycles during the model's travel across the viewing area are all a function of the model size and the ratio of the model mass to the moment of inertia about its center of gravity. For similarly

constructed models, a decrease in model size results in an increase in both the amplitude decay (or growth) and the number of cycles of oscillation during a certain distance (relative to ground) that the model travels.

In order to obtain the required ratio of mass to moment of inertia, the model shape can be a thin shell or else a very light-weight solid material (such as 2 lb/ft³ polyurethane foam) with a spherical core of lead or, preferably gold. The size of the core can be chosen to optimize the ratio m/I . For purposes of illustration, Figure 40 shows the variation of the value $r_s(m/I)$ with r_c/r_s for various diameters of spherical models ($\frac{1}{2}$ in. to 3 in. diameter) made of a heavy core, such as lead or gold, at the center of a light-weight substance. Polyurethane foam can be used such that the density of the core is 100 or 200 times the density of the homogenous outer shell. Usually it is desirable to choose a somewhat larger ratio of r_c/r_s than optimum for maximum $r_s m/I$ in order to increase the model weight and thus increase the total flight time.

The most simple model can be formed out of a single piece of material, usually aluminum or magnesium. The base of the model can be hollowed out in order to place the center of gravity at the desired location. An example of this type of construction is in Figure 41(a). In order to increase the number of cycles of oscillatory motion while the model is in the viewing area, it is necessary to increase the ratio of the model mass to the moment of inertia (m/I). This is done by adding a core of some relatively soft but dense material such as copper, lead or gold. Figure 41(b) shows an aluminum model with a copper cylindrical slug for ballast. Usually the shell can be made as thin as 1% of the local diameter. Using the process of electrolysis, 1 in. diameter models have been made with copper shell of 0.003 in. thick wall.

Models are often constructed of some plastic material and then ballasted with a lead or gold core. Originally, models were cast from polyurethane foam (Fig. 41(c)), but, due to the lack of ability to duplicate the foam density and uniformity from model to model, injection-molded polystyrene model construction was developed. Not only were the injection-molded models considerably more uniform, they were stronger and took far less time to construct. By experiment, it was found that models could be molded with walls as thin as 0.015 in. which, when compared with a polyurethane-foam model of the same shape, had less than one half the mass (before ballast was added). Injection-molding presses are shown in Figure 42. The smaller one shown is hand operated and is used principally for sample runs or small models. It will inject up to $\frac{3}{4}$ oz of polystyrene per cycle. Only up to 20 models per hour can be made with this small press. It is limited to models which have a diameter below $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. The larger press is semi-automatic and, with this one, it is possible to make in excess of one-hundred models per hour. The ability to inject 3 oz of polystyrene makes it possible to mold larger models. Figure 43 shows the various molding dies required for one type of model and Figure 41(d) shows a typical completed model with a section removed.

4.6 Measurement of Mass Characteristics

An item of major importance to the quality of the final data is the measurement of the mass characteristics of the models. The care required for satisfactory measurements is more severe than for ballistic range models because the wind tunnel models are, as a rule, very light-weight.

4.6.1 Mass

Fortunately, the availability of precision analytical balances makes very accurate determination of the model mass convenient. However, extreme caution should be exercised in applying the measured model reference lengths to the data reduction process. Since the linear dimensions are obtained at room temperature, coefficient-of-expansion corrections must be included in order to compensate for the different-from-room model temperature which may exist during the flight trajectory. This temperature consideration must also be applied to the moment of inertia measurement, and, if not in dimensionless form, to the model center-of-gravity location.

4.6.2 Center of Gravity

The instrument for locating the model center of gravity consists of two analytical balances⁴⁵ each capable of measuring to 0.1 mgm. One balance is used to measure the mass. The left-hand beam of the other balance has been altered to provide a reference pad and platform to support the model (Fig.44). The accuracy to which the balance point could be determined was markedly improved by the addition of a microscope for viewing the pointer. Precision ball bearings ranging in diameter from 0.250 in. (1.047 gm) to 1.000 in. (65.690 gm) were used to calibrate the system. A series of bars, rods, tubes, and flat plates were then used to demonstrate the degree of accuracy when the center-of-gravity measurement system was applied to a typical model. This result is shown in Figure 45. The inaccuracies of this system are within 1% for calibrating bodies as light as 0.3 gm. As the weight increases the accuracy increases, and for model weights of 10 gm, the error is insignificant.

4.6.3 Moment of Inertia

The instrument complex⁴⁵ for measuring the moment of inertia is composed of a wire and its overhead support, model support, light source, photo cell, electronic frequency divider, and a counter (Fig.46). The sensitivity of this system for measuring the oscillation period of a model is ± 0.2 msec. Viscous effects on the system do not appear to be significant. There is generally no need for performing this measurement in a vacuum. An atmospheric-pressure, still-air environment is usually adequate.

Calibration of this system is accomplished by inserting precision shapes, such as discs, rods, tubes, and flat plates, for which the moments of inertia have been calculated (based upon their dimension and mass). In order to increase the overall accuracy of the system the model holder should be of minimum moment of inertia. This is especially true for the very small and light models. The reference period of the system and model holder, with no model in place, is determined at frequency intervals. This provides a comparison when the same procedure is followed during the measurement of the actual models. The calibrating bodies are designed to bracket the expected moments of inertia of the free-flight models and should be of the same weight and the same general shape or length. Such an approach minimizes both the effect of wire tension on the wire torsional constant and the effect of viscosity. Although both of these effects are usually small (less than 1%), it is always desirable to eliminate any possible source of error.

The results of an extensive calibration study are presented in Figure 47. Here the effect of the calibrating body weight on the wire torsional constant can be seen.

Regardless of the shape of the calibrating body, the data fall within a 1% band throughout the entire range of weights. Using data in the form in Figure 47, the equation used to obtain the moment of inertia of a model is

$$I = K_{(m+h)} t_{(m+h)}^2 - I_h \quad (9)$$

where I = model moment of inertia

I_h = model holder moment of inertia

$K_{(m+h)}$ = wire torsional constant for model in holder

$t_{(m+h)}$ = oscillation period for model in holder.

An acceptable, but somewhat less accurate, alternative approach is simply to plot the square of the oscillation period against the calculated moments of inertia for the calibrating bodies, arbitrarily setting the empty holder condition to zero moment of inertia. If the calibration points plot up as a straight line (see Figure 47), then the equation

$$I = I_c \left[\frac{t_{(m+h)}^2 - t_h^2}{t_{(c+h)}^2 - t_h^2} \right] \quad (10)$$

where I_c = calibrating body moment of inertia

$t_{(c+h)}$ = oscillation period for calibrating body in holder

t_h = oscillation period for empty holder,

can be used to calculate the model moment of inertia. If the curve is not linear, then the values of the model moment of inertia can be interpolated from the faired data points.

5. DATA ACQUISITION

5.1 General

The types of data which can be obtained from free-flight testing fall into three general categories: model motion studies, flow field studies, and telemetry information. The basic aerodynamic coefficients (drag, static and dynamic stability, and lift) are deduced from motion studies in much the same manner as is done in normal ballistic range testing. The flow field studies can be of two distinct types, visual and probe surveys. Telemetry is used to determine model base pressure and heating, and can also be employed to deduce model motion characteristics from accelerometer data. To date, visual model motion studies form the bulk of information gathered from free-flight testing. Nevertheless, the other types of information are extremely important and do depend, in many cases, upon interference-free testing techniques.

5.2 Model Motion Studies

The model motion is normally recorded on movie film at 2000 to 5000 frames per second. The larger 35 mm film generally is preferred to 16 mm film. If only several views of the model (up to ten) are required during its trajectory, discreet views as a function of time may be superimposed upon a single large film sheet (11 in. x 14 in.)

by the use of a multiple strobe light. This procedure has two distinct advantages: (i) all of the motion is recorded on a single sheet of film, and (ii) the model image appears full-scale rather than at a greatly reduced scale for the usual parallel light movie film system.

Two electronic-type means are also used in order to record the model motion. An electronic-visual system, such as a cathode-ray tube follower unit, can be used to measure axial displacement from which the acceleration, and consequently the pertinent coefficients, can be determined. In order to have the model independent of any visual access, the model can be instrumented with accelerometers which use telemetry techniques to transmit the information^{5,6}.

5.2.1 Non-Planar Motion

When the model motion is not planar, such as would be expected for spinning models, it is necessary to record its motion in two planes in order to obtain the aerodynamic characteristics from film data.

To install an orthogonal optical system in an open jet wind tunnel, generally minor modifications are required^{4,6}. But for a two-dimensional tunnel having a flush-walled test section, modifications become more difficult.

Rather than perform major alterations on the upper and lower walls in the test section of the JPL Supersonic Wind Tunnel, in order to make a two-plane parallax-free optical system, the conventional horizontal optical beam was split in two parts and re-directed through the vertical windows. Figure 49 shows the mirror system which generates an "X" optical path inside the test section. Due to hardware limitations, it was not possible to have these two planes at right angles to each other. However, the included angle of 60 deg does not significantly degrade the determination of the model angular orientation relative to that with an orthogonal system. Simple trigonometric functions convert the data to the normal orthogonal system. Then conventional ballistic range techniques (linearized aerodynamics) can be used to reduce the data⁴.

5.3 High-Speed Movies (HSM)

5.3.1 Film Size and Frame Rate

Since the image size is $2\frac{1}{2}$ times larger, the use of 35 mm film* is preferred to 16 mm. The 5000 frame/sec speed of the 35 mm half-frame is more than adequate for free-flight motion studies. There does not seem to be any requirement for the 8000 frame/sec rate achievable with the 16 mm film. One advantage of a high frame speed is to minimize the model motion during the exposure time of each frame if a steady light source is being used. At 5000 frames/sec the film frame exposure time is about 67 μ sec. With a model velocity relative to ground of 100 ft/sec, this would result in model movement of 0.08 in. during an exposure. This is a large amount since model-position reading accuracy on the film is about 0.01 in. This model motion during exposure can be decreased well below the film reading error by using a multi-flash strobe light having 1-2 μ sec exposure. The reluctance pickup on the movie camera sprocket is used to synchronize the strobe with the camera shutter.

* For many types of tests 70 mm, even at its lower frame rate, may be the optimum choice

5.3.2 Lighting

The model can be front-lighted if multiple exposures are desired upon a single sheet of film. Due to the usual model curvature, this type of illumination does not give optimum contrast between the model edges and the dark background. If multiple exposures on a single picture are not desired, then the model should be back-lighted in preference to front-lighting. Back-lighting, either silhouette or schlieren, outlines the model adequately. The silhouette lighting gives the highest and most consistent definition between the model edges and the background. However, the schlieren lighting for defining the flow field about the model is usually a desirable capability and is required for certain tests. The multiple strobe equipment which is capable of 500-1000 consecutive flashes at a rate of 5000 per second can be used either to silhouette the model or to create the schlieren lighting. The silhouette effect can be achieved by either of two approaches. The first employs light from schlieren system light-house with the knife-edge cut-off removed. The second takes advantage of a ground glass which is illuminated by a light source, and can be located outside the viewing area away from the camera.

When it is required to observe reference marks on the model, white marks are put on a black model. The front lighting will make it possible to observe these reference marks without decreasing the contrast between the model edge and the back lighting. This technique is required for spinning models.

5.3.3 Trajectory Reference Marks

For convenience in film reading, a precision grid of fine, taut wires (0.010-0.020 in. diameter) can be incorporated in one of the viewing areas. This grid serves both to locate the model in space and to determine the model attitude. By having a grid cover the entire viewing area, distortions which can occur in the optical system and photographic processing are not serious since the model measurements can always be related to known reference lines in the immediate vicinity of the model image. An example of the actual size of a recorded image and a subsequent enlargement are in Figure 2.

5.3.4 Film Emulsion Type

Surprisingly enough, a high-speed film emulsion is not required for this application. The lighting, either steady or strobe, is of high enough intensity such that the choice of a medium speed (ASA \approx 100) is the best choice. This is a compromise between the contrast of a high speed film and the fine grain of a low speed film. Perhaps the lighting may vary enough from various wind tunnel facilities that the optimum film choice will have to be evaluated. Serious consideration should always be given to the lower speed films.

5.3.5 Camera and Location

Any of the several high speed (greater than 1000 frames per second) motion picture cameras can be used for recording the model motion during its trajectory across the viewing areas. In testing, the camera must be started up at the proper time relative to the trajectory. Allowance should be made to have the film transport process come up to full steady speed at the time the model trajectory is first recorded. It is important to have provisions for putting accurate timing marks on the film. In

addition, it is desirable to have the camera shutter synchronized with the strobe light.

The camera is normally located outside of the wind tunnel flow channel. Should the size of a tunnel permit, it may be useful to install a camera within the tunnel at the downstream end of the model trajectory in order to view the model motion along its axis of motion. The camera outside the tunnel can be incorporated in the schlieren system. Using the schlieren system in conjunction with the movies, parallax can be eliminated. Otherwise, a correction must be made for parallax. This is a simple matter if the camera distance from the model is large compared to the length of the viewing area and the camera axis is normal to the model trajectory.

5.4 Wake Studies

5.4.1 Optical

As schlieren and shadowgraph techniques are quite widely used, there is no need to go into the specific details here. The other additional requirement is for timing the optical spark source to obtain a picture of the flow field when the model is in a desired location or attitude. The use of a high speed movie camera greatly simplifies this timing problem, but only at the cost of degradation in the quality of the data. The use of a single large sheet of film will give excellent optical definition. The timing of the spark source for trim-angle trajectories can be done by employing a timing delay at launch or by a photocell system which lies in a plane normal to the data plane and intersects the model trajectory.

5.4.2 Survey Probe

There are several major criteria which must be established in order to obtain valid data. The instrument (pressure, temperature, etc.) must have response times of no more than several milliseconds. The data accuracy required and the extent of the data desired during the model trajectory determine the maximum instrument response time. The instrument must be designed such that the portions immersed in the model wake do not disrupt the interference-free flow conditions upstream of the probe leading edge (see Figure 29). This minimum interference requirement is not compatible with minimum response time. Therefore, compromises must be made. In the case of a pressure probe, the transducer container should be located just above the initial wake position and a pressure probe is "offset" to the desired location in the wake. Care must be exercised in the calibration of the instrument. Usually the sensitivity is stable, so the level is the only item requiring on-the-spot calibration. This can generally be done by traversing the instrument into the undisturbed free-stream or by having a dual-probe system, one being used for establishing a reference pressure but having a very long response time. The remaining required information is knowledge of the model position relative to the instrument as a function of the instrument reading. High speed movies, taken in the normal manner, along with correlating timing identifications take care of this requirement.

5.5 Base Studies

Since a sting, or any other physical support such as wires and side mounts, is likely to alter the flow in the base region, it is necessary to use an interference-free technique, such as free-flight, in order to measure valid model base conditions

(pressure and heat transfer). This can be done very conveniently by the use of telemetry techniques. Since the model maximum acceleration rarely exceeds 100 g, it is relatively simple to design, build, and operate telemetry systems including the measuring transducers, compared to the problems which would be involved in taking similar measurements in a ballistic range model, where the accelerations can exceed 10^5 g. A typical setup for a gun-launch free-flight base pressure telemetry test is shown in Figure 51.

A typical telemetry package (0.80 in. long by 0.80 in. diameter, weighing about 10 gm) with its pressure transducer is shown in Figure 52. Its circuit diagram and details of its design⁵⁸ appear in Figure 53. The electronic circuit used is a colpitts oscillator, consisting of a printed circuit inductor, a pressure sensitive capacitor, two small mercury cells, and other circuit components of the micro-miniature pellet type construction. The inductor also serves as the transmitter antenna. A frequency range of 98-118 Mc is used. Further details on this system can be found in Reference 58. This telemetry technique is also operational at AEDC⁵¹ and the NASA Ames Research Center⁵⁹.

A sample oscilloscope trace from a gun-launch free-flight base pressure trajectory is shown in Figure 54. In addition, a reference run is presented in which the pressure sensor is sealed off. In order to increase the accuracy of the interference-free base pressure measurement, the initial reference pressure can be lowered to the expected value of the desired base pressure measurement. The use of the wire-release technique can also be used to obtain interference-free base pressure values. However, this method does not permit any convenient control over the magnitude of the reference pressure. The reference pressure can be measured by a minimal interference pitot tube which can be rapidly removed from the flow just prior to model release. An example of data using this approach is in Figure 29. By replacing the pressure transducer with a heat meter, the same telemetry package can be used to measure base heating.

It may be necessary to use telemetry along with probes mounted on the model base in order to make measurements in the wake region between the model base and the wake neck. This is due to the possibility that any protrusion into this region from downstream will disturb the flow. Although the use of telemetry eliminates the interference problems caused by an externally mounted probe, it may not be adequate because of the possible interference from the probe which extends aft from the base. In any case, the base pressure can be measured and observed in order to indicate the presence of flow disturbance caused by any probe within the wake. Optical studies should not solely be used to give a qualitative indication as to whether or not a probe within the wake region disturbs the flow being studied.

6. TRAJECTORY MOTION DATA REDUCTION

6.1 Introduction

For convenience, only the planar* trajectory runs are generally reduced. Linear pitching moment is usually assumed in order to reduce the data. The resulting dynamic

* By obtaining motion studies in orthogonal (or near-orthogonal) planes, non-planar trajectory runs caused by spinning models or by non-ideal launches can be handled by the use of normal ballistic range data reduction programs

damping stability is assumed to be an effective constant over a particular oscillation cycle during a limited oscillation range. However, as the oscillation amplitude approaches 90 deg (and can even go nearly to 180 deg), the assumption of a linear pitching moment curve is no longer valid. For such cases, a more complex theoretical approach is required as a basis to obtain dynamic stability data of acceptable accuracy. However, the actual data reduction process is not materially complicated for the non-linear pitching moment case.

In this report both the linear and non-linear pitching moment, planar trajectory data reduction approaches and procedures will be discussed. No discussion will be included on the non-planar, spinning model.

6.2 Film Reading

Orthogonal-view high-speed movie records are made of each run. The upper camera, which views the motion in the horizontal plane, is normally used only to confirm that the trajectory motion is planar and lies entirely in the vertical plane. Its field of view covers just a portion of the useful trajectory and non-parallax problems are severe. The film from the side camera, which records the model motion in the vertical plane, is used for the detailed data reduction. However, if the trajectory does not achieve the desired degree of planar motion, use can be made of the film from the upper camera in order to augment the side view for data reduction. Of course, if the model has spin, then data reduction must be accomplished by using both planes of view.

When the runs are few, it is convenient to make photographic prints for a selected number of frames from the high speed movie film. These enlargements, which can be about half of actual model size, can be read by use of a scale and protractor. But first it is necessary to construct a template the same size as the enlarged model image. This template serves to integrate the edges of the image in order to obtain the best consistency and accuracy in reading the model angle of attack and center-of-gravity location. For large quantities of data, the enlarged photograph approach is not convenient, and use of a semi-automatic film-image projection-type data reading equipment is desirable. Here again the procedure requires the use of a template to optimize the quality of the data.

Regardless of the approach used to read the film, it is usually not necessary to read every frame of data. The type of model trajectory guides the choice as to how many frames of obtained data need be read. For zero oscillation drag runs, perhaps only every tenth frame need be read. For the usual damped motion oscillating trajectories, every second or third frame is sufficient. For obtaining the best accuracy of the oscillation envelope, it is best to read the model angle for every frame of data in the region of the peak amplitude. A typical plot of oscillation amplitude for a model with highly damped motion is shown in Figure 55. A sample raw data tabulation is in Table V.

Once the raw data (model c.g. longitudinal and lateral locations, along with model angular attitude) are obtained as a function of the film frame number, it is necessary to convert it to a function of time. This is accomplished by relating the film frames to time by use of the timing marks which are put on the film edge every millisecond. If two separate rolls of film are obtained for a particular trajectory in order to record the motion in two planes, it is necessary to put additional marks on the film

in order to match the films together at just a few points during a trajectory. This serves as a direct check on any other attempt to link the two films together.

The raw data, whether it be frame, model position, or attitude versus time is then smoothed by any convenient data smoothing process. This procedure pinpoints any major film reading error and also results in data of nominally higher accuracy than can be obtained from the original raw data. The smoothed model c.g. axial position data can then be curve-fitted. This facilitates the calculation of the model horizontal velocity as a function of time or the relative distance the model travels in the airstream.

6.3 Drag Reduction

The coordinate system used for the reduction of data is one which references the model position to the moving gas media; X is the longitudinal distance between the model and the media and is the independent variable for the angular and translational equations of motion^{29, 60-62}. The instantaneous drag coefficient may be obtained directly from the translational equation of motion

$$m\ddot{x} = -\frac{1}{2}\rho V^2 AC_D \quad (11)$$

by changing the independent variable from time to distance. This results in

$$C_D = -\frac{2m}{\rho A} \frac{d[\log_e(1 + V_m/V_\infty)]}{dX} \quad (12)$$

A linear fit through a section of the $\log_e(1 + V_m/V_\infty)$ versus X data yields an effective constant drag coefficient for that section. When there are sufficient data at a range of amplitudes, due to the decay, several effective drag points as a function of various amplitudes of oscillation per flight may be obtained.

6.4 Static and Dynamic Stability Data Reduction*

For an axisymmetric body with first-order linear aerodynamic coefficients ($C_m = C_{m\alpha}\alpha$; $C_L = C_{L\alpha}\alpha$; $C_D = C_{D0}$) and small angular excursions, the equation of planar angular motion may be written as a second-order differential equation with constant coefficients:

$$I\ddot{\theta} = \frac{1}{2}\rho V^2 Ad C_m + \frac{1}{2}\rho V^2 Ad (C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}) \left(\frac{\dot{\theta}d}{v}\right) \quad (13)$$

The translational equation in the X direction (longitudinal) is Equation (11), and in the Z direction (vertical) is

$$m\ddot{Z} = \frac{1}{2}\rho V^2 C_L + mg \quad (14)$$

The solution to Equation (13) is

$$\alpha = \alpha_0 e^{\lambda X} \cos \left[\left(-\frac{\rho Ad}{2I} C_{m\alpha} + \lambda^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} X \right] \quad (15)$$

* This data reduction analysis is a condensation of that appearing in Reference 60

where

$$\lambda = \frac{\rho A}{4m} \left[C_{D0} - C_{L\alpha} + \frac{md^2}{I} (C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}) \right] \quad (16)$$

In general

$$-\frac{\rho Ad}{2I} C_{m\alpha} \gg \lambda^2 \quad (17)$$

and therefore

$$C_{m\alpha} = -\frac{2I}{\rho Ad} \Omega^2 \quad (18)$$

where Ω is the distance frequency of oscillation (2π cycles per unit distance of X). The dynamic stability coefficient may be obtained from the amplitude envelope:

$$(C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}) \frac{md^2}{I} = \frac{4m}{\rho A} \left(\frac{1}{X - X_0} \right) \log_e \left(\frac{\alpha_X}{\alpha_0} \right) + C_{L\alpha} - C_{D0} \quad (19)$$

where α_X is the particular amplitude corresponding to the distance X , and α_0 is the amplitude at $X = X_0$.

However, the conditions imposed upon this solution for the damping coefficient are, in general, too restrictive, and more applicable solutions are used. An unrestricted integral equation for determining the dynamic stability (pitch damping) coefficient from energy considerations has been developed^{61, 62}:

$$C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}} = \frac{-\frac{md}{I} \int_{-(\theta_0 - \delta\theta)}^{\theta_0} C_m(\alpha) d\theta - \int_{-(\theta_0 - \delta\theta)}^{\theta_0} C_D(\alpha) \theta' d\theta}{\frac{md^2}{I} \int_{-(\theta_0 - \delta\theta)}^{\theta_0} \theta' d\theta} \quad (20)$$

where θ_0 is the initial amplitude, $-(\theta_0 - \delta\theta)$ is the amplitude after one half cycle, C_m and C_D are functions of α , and $(C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}})$ is the effective constant damping coefficient. Using small angle assumption and assuming negligible effect of gravity in Equation (14), the terms α and θ are related by

$$\alpha = \theta + (\alpha - \theta) = \theta - \frac{\rho A}{2m} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{C_L(\alpha)}{\theta'} d\theta \quad (21)$$

Expanding $C_m(\alpha)$ in a Taylor series about θ , and considering only the first-order derivatives,

$$C_m(\alpha) = C_m(\theta) - \frac{\rho A}{2m} \frac{dC_m(\theta)}{d\theta} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{C_L(\alpha)}{\theta'} d\theta \quad (22)$$

The lift and drag coefficients will be assumed to be functions of θ directly instead of α . This is equivalent to saying the second terms in their Taylor series expansions are quite small. Since, in general, lift and drag have second-order effects on the amplitude decay, a small error in their contribution will lead to only negligible errors in the final solution for the dynamic stability coefficient. Furthermore, since the decay is very small, $\delta\theta \ll \theta_0$, in all terms except that containing the prime moment function, $C_m(\theta)$, the lower limit of integration, $-(\theta_0 - \delta\theta)$, will be replaced by θ_0 . Again, the error introduced by this approximation will be a small part of a second-order effect. Introducing these into Equation (20) results in a working form of the energy integral equation:

$$(C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}) \frac{md^2}{I} = \frac{-\frac{md}{I} \int_{-(\theta_0 - \delta\theta)}^{\theta_0} C_m(\theta) d\theta + \frac{\rho Ad}{2I} \int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta_0} \frac{dC_m(\theta)}{d\theta} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} \frac{C_L(\theta)}{\theta'} d\theta - \int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta_0} C_D(\theta) \theta' d\theta}{\int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta_0} \theta' d\theta} \quad (23)$$

In solving particular problems with this energy integral equation, it will be assumed that the model angular velocity, θ' , is a function primarily of the pitching moment, and other contributions can be neglected. In the linear case this is equivalent to the condition of Equation (17). In most physically probable situations this assumption proves excellent. In general, then, the following approximation for θ' obtained from the basic equation of motion by neglecting all terms except the pitching moment, is quite good:

$$\theta' = \pm \left[\frac{\rho Ad}{I} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} C_m(\theta) d\theta \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (24)$$

where the sign of θ' is dependent on the sign of θ_0 .

Using this expression for the angular velocity, a solution for the dynamic stability coefficient of an axisymmetric body with general lift and drag curves at any oscillation amplitude can be developed for linear and non-linear pitching moments.

6.4.1 Linear Pitching Moment: $C_m(\alpha) = C_{m\alpha}\alpha$

Integration of Equation (24) gives

$$\theta' = \pm \left[\frac{\rho A d}{I} \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta} C_{m\alpha} \theta \, d\theta \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} = \pm \left[\left(-\frac{\rho A d}{2I} C_{m\alpha} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} (\theta_0^2 - \theta^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \quad (25)$$

Arbitrary lift and drag curves may be approximated to any desired accuracy by power series in θ . For an axisymmetric body the two series will be odd and even respectively.

$$C_L(\alpha) = C_L(\theta) = C_{L\alpha} \theta + \sum_{i=1}^m b_i \theta^{2i+1} \quad (26)$$

$$C_D(\alpha) = C_D(\theta) = C_{D0} + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \theta^{2i} \quad (27)$$

Inserting these in the energy equation and performing the indicated integrations yields the following solution for a half oscillation cycle:

$$\begin{aligned} (C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}) \frac{m d^2}{I} = & -\frac{4m \Omega}{\rho A \pi} \frac{\delta \theta}{\theta_0} + \left[C_{L\alpha} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\prod_{j=1}^{i+1} \frac{2j-1}{2j} \right) b_i \theta_0^{2i} \right] - \\ & - \left[C_{D0} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2(i+1)} \left(\prod_{j=1}^i \frac{2j-1}{2j} \right) c_i \theta_0^{2i} \right] \quad (28) \end{aligned}$$

Notice that this solution is equivalent to the solution of the linear differential equation (Eqn.(19)) when the c_1 and k_1 terms are set equal to zero. By extension then, this solution provides a correction to the linear solution which will account for non-linear lift and drag over an arbitrary number of cycles. However, the corrections are based on an amplitude value which changes during the flight due to the decay. It is, therefore, necessary to define a new amplitude value to be used for calculations and data correlation. The mean-square resultant angle of attack, δ^2 , is defined as

$$\delta^2 = \frac{1}{X} \int_0^X \alpha^2 \, dX \quad (29)$$

For a constant decay which is small in comparison with the oscillatory frequency, integration gives

$$\delta^2 = \frac{\alpha_x^2 - \alpha_0^2}{4 \log_e (\alpha_x / \alpha_0)} \quad (30)$$

The mean amplitude for the flight will be defined in terms of δ^2 :

$$\bar{\alpha}_0^2 = 2\delta^2 = \frac{\alpha_x^2 - \alpha_0^2}{2 \log_e (\alpha_x / \alpha_0)} \quad (31)$$

In the limit, as the decay approaches zero, $\bar{\alpha}_0 = \alpha_0$. In the same manner that δ^2 best represents the mean square angle-of-attack, $\bar{\alpha}_0^2$ best represents the mean amplitude.

The usable solution for the dynamic stability coefficient for a body with a linear pitching moment is then

$$\begin{aligned} (C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}) \frac{md^2}{I} = & \frac{4m}{\rho A} \left(\frac{1}{X - X_0} \right) \log_e \left(\frac{\alpha_x}{\alpha_0} \right) + \left[C_{L\alpha} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\prod_{j=1}^{i+1} \frac{2j-1}{2j} \right) b_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^{2i} \right] - \\ & - \left[C_{D0} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2(i+1)} \left(\prod_{j=1}^i \frac{2j-1}{2j} \right) c_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^{2i} \right] \quad (32) \end{aligned}$$

As an example, if the lift and drag are given by the expressions

$$C_L = C_{L\alpha} \alpha + b_1 \alpha^3 + b_2 \alpha^5 \quad \text{and} \quad C_D = C_{D0} + c_1 \alpha^2 + c_2 \alpha^4 \quad (33)$$

the lift and drag terms in the solution are, respectively,

$$C_{L\alpha} + \frac{3}{4} b_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^2 + \frac{5}{8} b_2 \bar{\alpha}_0^4 \quad \text{and} \quad C_{D0} + \frac{1}{4} c_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^2 + \frac{1}{8} c_2 \bar{\alpha}_0^4 \quad (34)$$

The final forms of the damping coefficient for the linear pitching moment case is then

$$\begin{aligned} (C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}) \frac{md^2}{I} = & \frac{4m}{\rho A} \left(\frac{1}{X - X_0} \right) \log_e \left(\frac{\alpha_x}{\alpha_0} \right) + (C_{L\alpha} + \frac{3}{4} b_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^2 + \frac{5}{8} b_2 \bar{\alpha}_0^4) - \\ & - (C_{D0} + \frac{1}{4} c_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^2 + \frac{1}{8} c_2 \bar{\alpha}_0^4) \quad (35) \end{aligned}$$

The applicability of this solution for several specific lift and drag curves has been verified with an "exact" computer solution of the equations of motion. The analytical forms of the aerodynamic coefficients were entered into the program and the resulting motion computed. The value of $(C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}})$ was then calculated with the above solution using the computer decay. The deviation between the result and the input value of $(C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}})$ was less than 1% in all cases.

6.4.2 Non-Linear Pitching Moment

The oscillation frequency of a model is noticeably affected by the amount the pitching moment diverges from being linear. In addition, the effect of the dynamic

stability upon the oscillation envelope may be dependent upon the amount that the pitching moment is non-linear. A closed-form analytic solution for these effects is not a straightforward matter, and does require both a simple form of a non-linear pitching moment and simplifying assumptions in solving the equations of motion. If the pitching moment is either trigonometric or cubic in form, then a first integration yielding an expression for θ' may be performed as for the linear case. However, second integrations, such as those involved in Equation (23), generally lead to elliptic integrals of the first and second kinds.

An analysis of a cubic non-linear pitching moment of the form

$$C_m(\theta) = C_{m\alpha}\theta + 2r_m\theta^3, \quad (36)$$

where $r_m > 0$ (a destabilizing effect) will be described here*. Figure 56 shows the shapes of various cubic pitching moment curves as a function of $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$. Equation (13), neglecting all terms except the pitching moment, can be completely solved for both a linear and the cubic pitching moment. By equating distance frequencies over a quarter cycle, the effect of the non-linear moment on θ and θ' may be determined. Converting Equation (13) to distance,

$$I\theta'' = \left[\frac{1}{2}\rho Ad\right]C_m(\theta) + \theta' \frac{\rho A}{2m}. \quad (37)$$

In the linear case where $C_m(\theta) = C_{m\alpha}\theta$, by neglecting the θ' term, double integration of Equation (37) yields the quarter-cycle distance

$$X_L = \frac{1}{2}\pi \left(-\frac{2I}{\rho Ad C_{m\alpha}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (38)$$

In the non-linear cubic case, by neglecting the second-order θ' term, double integration of Equation (37) yields the quarter-cycle distance

$$X_N = \left(\frac{2I}{\rho Ad} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(-\frac{1}{C_{m\alpha} + r_m\theta_0^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} F(k, \frac{1}{2}\pi), \quad (39)$$

where $F(k, \frac{1}{2}\pi)$ is the Legendre canonical form of the elliptic integral of the first kind and

$$k^2 = -\frac{\theta_0^2 r_m}{C_{m\alpha} + r_m\theta_0^2} \quad (\text{with } \theta_0 \text{ in radians}). \quad (40)$$

An expression for the effective linear pitching moment slope, $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$, which would give the same distance period of oscillation over a quarter cycle as does the non-linear cubic moment can be obtained by setting $X_L = X_N$ and algebraically solving for $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$, letting $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$ be equivalent to $C_{m\alpha}$ for the linear case. Then

* An analysis for the sinusoidal pitching moment $C_m(\theta) = M_r \sin(r\theta)$ can be found in Reference 61

$$(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\pi^2(C_{m\alpha} + r_m \theta_0^2)}{4[F(k, \frac{1}{2}\pi)]^2} \quad (41)$$

The ratio of $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}/C_{m\alpha}$ as a function of θ_0 with $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$ as a parameter appears in Figure 57.

Figure 57 (or Equation (41)) provides a convenient method for obtaining the coefficients of a cubic pitching moment from a set of experimental data. The value of $C_{m\alpha}$ at $\alpha = 0^\circ$ can be determined by extrapolating $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$ (as obtained from Equation (18)). Oscillation data for amplitudes near zero, say $\theta_0 = 2-3$ deg, are required in addition to the large amplitude data. Then the ratios of experimental $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}/C_{m\alpha}$ as a function of θ_0 may be calculated. The factor $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$ is then obtained by matching the equivalent $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}/C_{m\alpha}$ curve in Figure 57 with the experimental ratio.

The derivation of the form of the dynamic stability term for the case of the cubic pitching moment is quite involved. The correction factor required in the reduction of dynamic stability data is generally small. Only the final results of the complete solution⁶⁰ will be given here. They are based upon the assumption that the lift and drag terms in the solution for the dynamic stability coefficient are not affected by the non-linearity of the pitching moment. Since these terms are second order, this is an acceptable simplification.

The dynamic stability data reduction equation for a cubic pitching moment is the same as Equation (28), except that a correction factor is included in the oscillation amplitude decay term. This correction factor, which can be expressed as a function of k^2 , is shown in Figure 58 as a function of θ_0 with $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$ as a parameter. The dynamic stability equation is

$$(C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}}) \frac{m d^2}{I} = R \frac{4m}{\rho A} \left(\frac{1}{X - X_0} \right) \log_e \left(\frac{\alpha_X}{\alpha_0} \right) + \left[C_{L\alpha} + 2 \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\prod_{j=1}^{j-1} \frac{2j-1}{2j} \right) b_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^{2j-1} \right] - \left[C_{D\alpha} + 2 \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2(j+1)} \left(\prod_{j=1}^{j-1} \frac{2j-1}{2j} \right) c_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^{2j-1} \right] \quad (42)$$

where

$$R = \frac{\frac{3}{2} k^2 (1 - k^2) F(k, \frac{1}{2}\pi)}{[(1 + k^2) E(k, \frac{1}{2}\pi) - (1 - k^2) F(k, \frac{1}{2}\pi)]} \quad (43)$$

6.4.3 Other Forms of the Non-Linear Pitching Moment

The destabilizing cubic form of a non-linear pitching moment gives the proper gross shape of a pitching moment over a wide range of angles of attack. But its form may not be applicable at the smaller angles of attack, say less than 30 deg. For example, a slender cone model will exhibit $C_{m\alpha}$ which increases in magnitude as the oscillation

envelope increases to 30 deg (see Figure 14). In such a region, a stabilizing form of the cubic pitching moment is required; that is $r_m < 0$ in

$$C_m(\theta) = C_{m\alpha}\theta + 2r_m\theta^3 \quad (36)$$

As per Reference 63, the effect on the $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}/C_{m\alpha}$ as a function of θ_0 is merely to make a "mirror image" about the $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}/C_{m\alpha} = 1$ line of the curves in Figure 57. This "mirror image" assumption is good for $\theta_0 \leq 90$ deg and $|C_{m\alpha}/r_m| \geq 10$.

The effect of the stabilizing cubic term in the pitching moment on the damping parameter is significantly less than the effect of a destabilizing term. But, for $|C_{m\alpha}/r_m| \geq 10$ and $\theta_0 \leq 60$ deg, the "mirror image" about $R = 1$ of the curves in Figure 58 is an adequate approximation⁶³. No more than a 1% error in the value of ζ will occur in this range of $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$ and θ_0 . Beyond these limits, the "mirror image" approximation becomes progressively worse.

A more universal form of a non-linear pitching moment would be a fifth-order equation. This will accomplish both pitching moment features of a slender cone: increasing pitching moment slope with increasing oscillation envelope for the lower range of angles; then decreasing pitching moment slope with further increase in oscillation angle, reaching a maximum value of stabilizing pitching moment near $\theta = 90$ deg. Information on free-flight data reduction for the quintic form of the non-linear pitching moment can be obtained from Reference 63.

6.5 Summary of Data Reduction Equations

6.5.1 Drag

$$C_D = -\frac{2m}{\rho A} \frac{d \left[\log_e \left(1 + \frac{v_m}{v_\infty} \right) \right]}{dX}$$

6.5.2 Pitching Moment Slope

$$(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}} = -\frac{2I}{\rho A d} \Omega^2$$

where $\Omega = 2\pi \times$ oscillation cycles per unit distance.

6.5.3 Pitching Moment

Assuming cubic pitching moment in the form

$$C_m(\theta) = C_{m\alpha}\theta + 2r_m\theta^3$$

determine ratio of $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$ by matching equivalent $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}/C_{m\alpha}$ curve in Figure 57 with $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}/[C_{m\alpha}]_{\theta_0=0}$. The value of $[C_{m\alpha}]_{\theta_0=0}$ is determined by extrapolating experimental $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$ versus θ_0 curve to $\theta_0 = 0$. Oscillation data for amplitudes near zero, say $\theta_0 = 2-3$ deg, is required in addition to the large amplitude data.

6.5.4 Center of Pressure

Obtain $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$ at the same oscillation amplitude for two or more locations of the model center of gravity. Then the distance of the center of pressure from the model nose is

$$(x_{\text{cp}})_{\text{nose}} = \frac{x_{\text{cg1}}(C_{m\alpha 2})_{\text{eff}} - x_{\text{cg2}}(C_{m\alpha 1})_{\text{eff}}}{(C_{m\alpha 2})_{\text{eff}} - (C_{m\alpha 1})_{\text{eff}}}$$

where the subscripts "1" and "2" refer to the two different center-of-gravity locations (measured from the model nose).

6.5.5 Normal Force Slope

Using the $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$ data obtained for determining the center-of-pressure location, the normal force slope coefficient is

$$(C_{N\alpha})_{\text{eff}} = \frac{d}{x_{\text{cg1}} - x_{\text{cp}}} (C_{m\alpha 1})_{\text{eff}}$$

Due to the usual model mass characteristics, it is not practical to obtain directly the effective lift curve slope, $(C_{L\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$, because the amount model swerve is generally too small (see Table III) for sufficient accuracy.

6.5.6 Dynamic Stability (Pitch Damping)

General case: static aerodynamic coefficients are non-linear

$$\begin{aligned} C_m(\theta) &= C_{m\alpha}\theta + 2r_m\theta^3 \\ C_L &= C_{L\alpha}\alpha + b_1\alpha^3 + b_2\alpha^5 \\ C_D &= C_{D0} + c_1\alpha^2 + c_2\alpha^4 \end{aligned}$$

Determine $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$ from oscillation frequency. If not practical to estimate ratio of $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$ from $(C_{m\alpha})_{\text{eff}}$ data obtained as a function of θ_0 , then use Newtonian Impact theory to estimate $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$. Use factor R (Fig. 58) on $\log_e(\alpha_x/\alpha_0)$ term to correct for non-linearity of pitching moment,

$$\begin{aligned} C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}} &= R \frac{4I}{\rho A d^2} \left(\frac{1}{X - X_0} \right) \log_e \left(\frac{\alpha_x}{\alpha_0} \right) + \frac{I}{m d^2} (C_{L\alpha} + \frac{3}{4} b_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^2 + \frac{5}{8} b_2 \bar{\alpha}_0^4) - \\ &\quad - \frac{I}{m d^2} (C_{D0} + \frac{1}{4} c_1 \bar{\alpha}_0^2 + \frac{1}{8} c_2 \bar{\alpha}_0^4) \end{aligned}$$

where R is a function of both $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$ and $\bar{\alpha}_0$ (that is, θ_0).

In any case, the coefficient $(C_{mq} + C_{m\dot{\alpha}})$ is taken to be the effective average constant over an entire cycle of oscillation and generally does vary with the oscillation amplitude.

This damping coefficient equation reduces to the linear case simply by letting $R = 1$ and $b_1 = b_2 = c_1 = c_2 = 0$.

7. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This report presents free-flight testing procedures which are now operational. The emphasis has been on those techniques used in the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) continuous-flow supersonic and hypersonic wind tunnels⁶⁴. The ideas and techniques described as relating to JPL are not necessarily unique nor original with JPL. It was just convenient to describe JPL's experience. Free-flight testing is currently being developed and used at several other establishments (see Table VI).

There are times when this free-flight technique is the most appropriate method for obtaining data. Under certain conditions it may be an expedient way for obtaining data, even though not the optimum approach. Also, it can serve to validate data obtained from models supported by some physical means. This testing technique is a valuable complement to all other useful techniques.

No attempt was made to enumerate all of the problems that have occurred in developing the techniques. Nor have all the alternate approaches, which have been either considered or used, been mentioned. Further detailed information on the use of this rapidly advancing testing technique along with typical results can be found in the included references.

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TABLE I

Analytical Comparison of Base Drag to Total Cone Drag
 $(\alpha = 0^\circ)$

Cone half-angle (deg)	M	C_{DP} (Form drag ²⁷)	C_{DB} (Base Drag)	C_{DOT} (Total Drag)	C_{DB}/C_{DOT}
10 ↓	1.25	0.144	0.457	0.601	0.76
	2	0.104	0.179	0.283	0.63
	5	0.074	0.029	0.103	0.28
	10	0.066	0.007	0.073	0.10
	20	0.064	0.002	0.066	0.03
20 ↓	1.25	0.489	0.457	0.946	0.48
	2	0.325	0.179	0.504	0.36
	5	0.259	0.029	0.288	0.10
	10	0.250	0.007	0.257	0.03
	20	0.248	0.002	0.250	0.01

TABLE II
 Example Free-Flight Model Mass Characteristics and Trajectory Parameters

Parameter	Model Types									
	(A)					(B)				
d (in.)	0.5	2	0.5	1	2	0.5	1	2	1	2
\bar{W} (gm)	2	16	128	0.34	2.8	22	0.34	2.8	0.076	0.80
m (in. ⁻¹ lb sec ²)	1.1×10^{-5}	9.1×10^{-5}	7.3×10^{-4}	2.0×10^{-6}	1.6×10^{-5}	1.3×10^{-4}	1.6×10^{-5}	1.3×10^{-4}	1.6×10^{-5}	1.3×10^{-4}
I (in. lb sec ²)	1.9×10^{-7}	6.1×10^{-6}	1.95×10^{-4}	4.9×10^{-7}	1.6×10^{-5}	5.0×10^{-4}	1.6×10^{-5}	5.0×10^{-4}	1.6×10^{-5}	5.0×10^{-4}
m/I (in. ⁻²)	60	15	3.75	4	1	0.25	4	1	1	0.25
q (lb/in. ²)	0.3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
a/g	1.5	7.4	3.7	86	21	21	86	21	43	21
V _B (ft/sec)	14	31	22	105	52	52	105	52	74	52
t (sec)	0.029	0.13	0.18	0.038	0.054	0.076	0.038	0.054	0.054	0.076
N (cycles)	17	12	8.5	4.4	2.2	2.2	4.4	2.2	3.1	2.2
f (c/s)	58	91	45	115	29	29	115	29	57	29
Δy (in.)	0.012	0.026	0.052	0.20	0.40	0.80	0.20	0.40	0.40	0.80
$(\alpha_T/\alpha_0)_{env}$ due to: Dynamics Term	0.62	0.34	0.47	0.77	0.85	0.88	0.77	0.85	0.85	0.88
Static Term	0.97	0.94	0.96	0.83	0.87	0.91	0.83	0.87	0.87	0.91
Total	0.60	0.32	0.45	0.64	0.74	0.80	0.64	0.74	0.74	0.80

TABLE III

Typical Conditions for Wire-Release System

Material	Diameter (in.)	Notch Depth (in.)	Notch Temperature (°F)	T ₀ (°F)	Preload (lb)	Impulse Load (lb)
17-9PH Stainless Steel Wire ↓	0.008	0.003	0 to Adiabatic	1000	3	10
	0.012	0.005	0 to Adiabatic	1000	7	21
	0.020	0.004	-320	600	50	30
	0.020	0.004	Adiabatic	600	27	25
	0.024	0.007	100	600	75	30
	0.024	0.007	Adiabatic	600	30	30
	0.026	0.010	-32	600	60	30
	0.026	0.006	100	600	50	30
	0.026	0.006	Adiabatic	1000	32	25
	321 Stainless Steel Tube (0.006 wall)	0.036*	0.003†	0	600	30
0.036*		0.003†	Adiabatic	600	20	30

* Internally cooled with 50 lb/in.² gauge room temperature nitrogen gas at tube inlet

† Circumferential notch

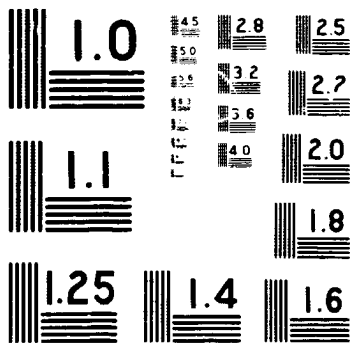
TABLE IV

Properties of Some Common Materials
(from Reference 54)

Material	Density (lb./in. ³)	Specific Heat (Btu/lb °F) at Room Temperature	Thermal Conductivity (Btu/ft ² h in. °F)	Linear Coefficient of Thermal Expansion per °F × 10 ⁻⁶	Melting Temperature (°F)
Polyurethane foam (2 lb/ft ³ mix)	0.003*				
Water	0.036				
Styrene	0.040				
Silastic rubber	0.041				
Magnesium	0.063	0.249	1100	14	1202
Beryllium	0.066	0.425	1100	7	2340
Aluminum	0.098	0.226	1740	13	1220
Antimony	0.239	0.049	131	5-6	1167
Zinc	0.258	0.093	784	9-22	787
Chromium	0.260	0.120	464	3½	3350
Tin	0.264	0.055	464	13	450
Iron	0.284	0.108	120-320	6½	2802
Cadmium	0.313	0.055	639	16½	670
Nickel	0.322	0.112	639	7½	2651
Copper	0.324	0.092	2730	9	1981
Silver	0.379	0.057	2900	11	1760
Lead	0.410	0.030	241	16	621
Mercury	0.490	0.033	58	34	-38
Uranium	0.687	0.028	186	11½	2065
Tungsten	0.697	0.034	900	2½	6150
Gold	0.698	0.031	206	8	1945
Platinum	0.775	0.032	494	5	3224

* The average density of molded models from the 2 lb/ft³ mix is about 6 lb/ft³

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MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS - 1963

TABLE V (continued)
Sample Tabulation of Free-Flight Trajectory Data

Table with columns: Frame No., X (ft.), alpha (deg), Smooth alpha (deg), X (in.), Smooth X (in.), Y (in.), Smooth Y (in.), Vm (in./sec), ln((1+V/V0)^2), Frame No., X (ft.), alpha (deg), Smooth alpha (deg), X (in.), Smooth X (in.), Y (in.), Smooth Y (in.), Vm (in./sec), ln((1+V/V0)^2).

TABLE VI

**Laboratories using Free-Flight Model Testing in
Conventional High-Speed Wind Tunnels**

<i>Laboratory</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Cognizant Person</i>
AEDC von Kármán Gas Dynamics Facility	Arnold Air Force Station, Tennessee	J. Lukasiewicz
Ballistic Research Laboratories, Supersonic Wind Tunnels Branch	Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland	C. C. Bush
General Dynamics/Convair, High Speed Wind Tunnel	San Diego, California	D. P. Cumming
Jet Propulsion Laboratory, Aerodynamic Facilities	Pasadena, California	E. A. Laumann
NASA Ames Research Center, Thermo- and Gas-Dynamics Division	Moffett Field, California	V. I. Stevens
National Aeronautical Establishment, Unsteady Aerodynamics Laboratory	Ottawa, Canada	K. Orlik-Rückemann
ONERA High Speed Wind Tunnels	Châtillon-sous-Bagneux (Seine), France	P. Carriere
US Naval Ordnance Laboratories, Applied Aerodynamics Division	Silver Springs, Maryland	S. Hastings

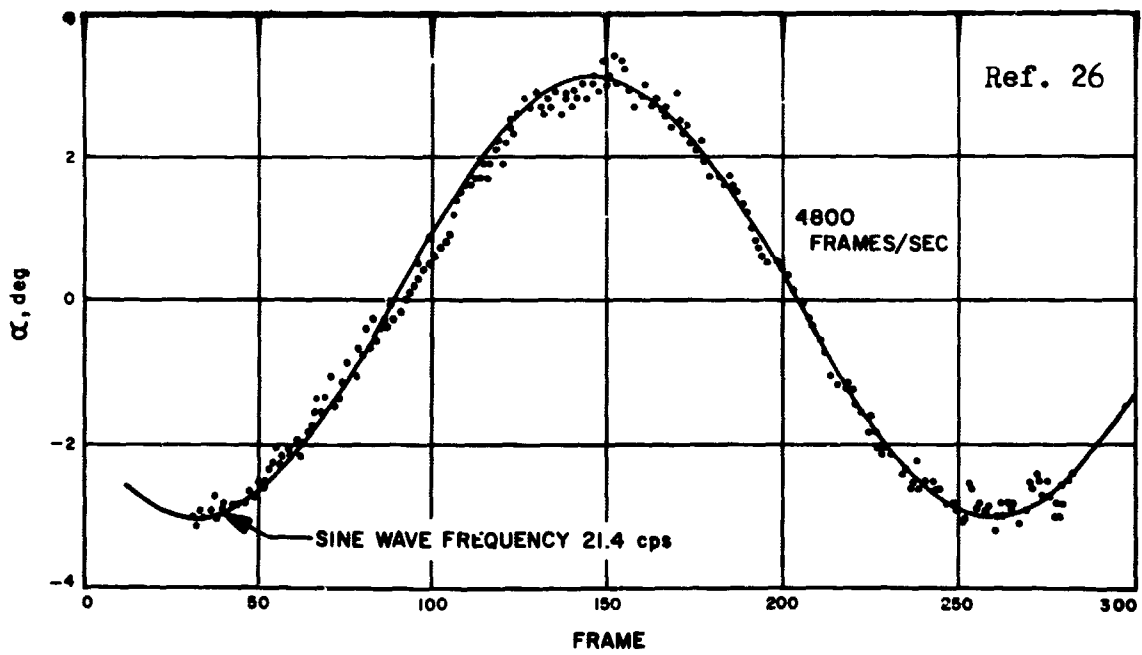
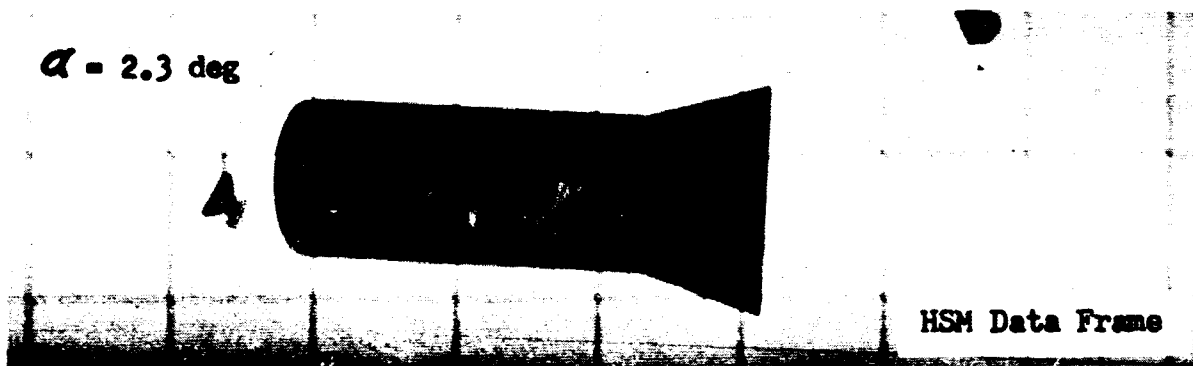
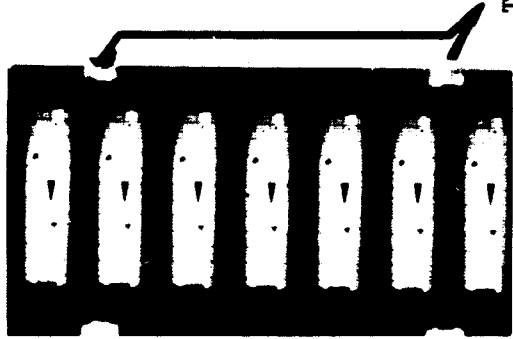


Fig. 1 Detailed angle-of-attack history



(a)

Half-Frame Pictures
on 35-mm film

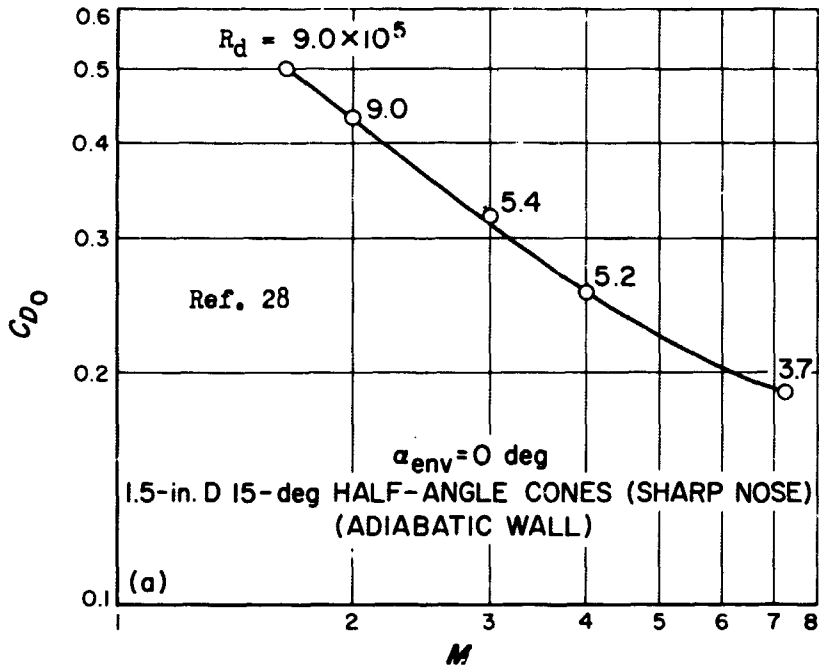
Timing Marks
1000 cps



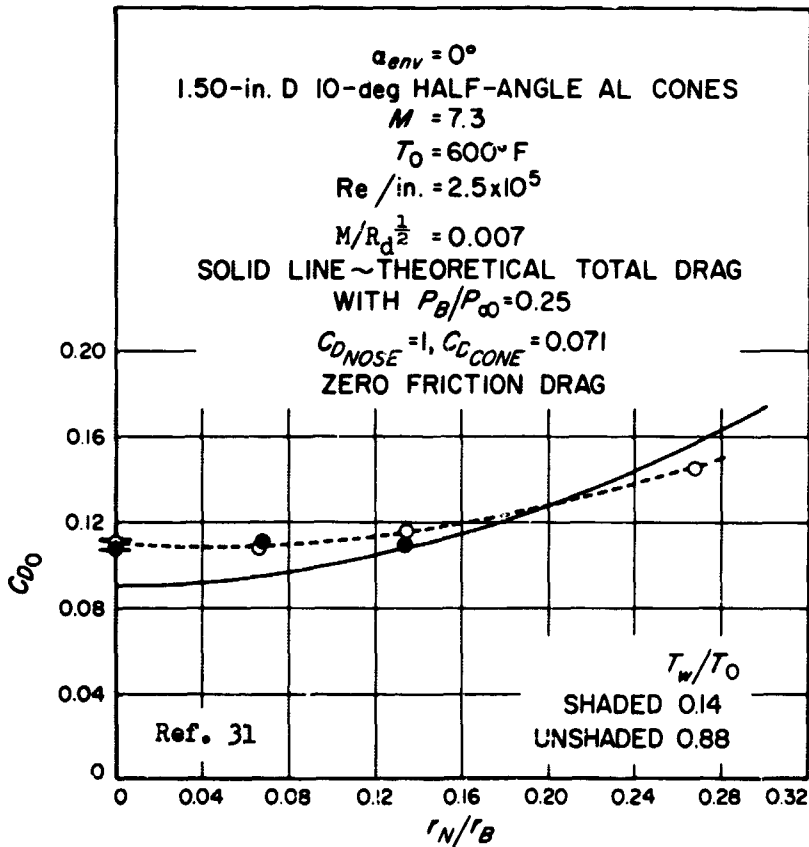
(b) Enlargement of 35-mm Half-Frame Picture
(14 D Blowup)

1-in. Grid Spacing
Superhypan Film (ASA 500) at 4800 Frames/sec
10-in. Focal Length Lens at f5.6
Model Image Size on Film is 0.038-in. Base Diameter

Fig. 2 Example of high-speed movie frame



(a) Effect of Mach number



(b) Effect of nose bluntness

Fig. 3 Typical free-flight cone drag studies

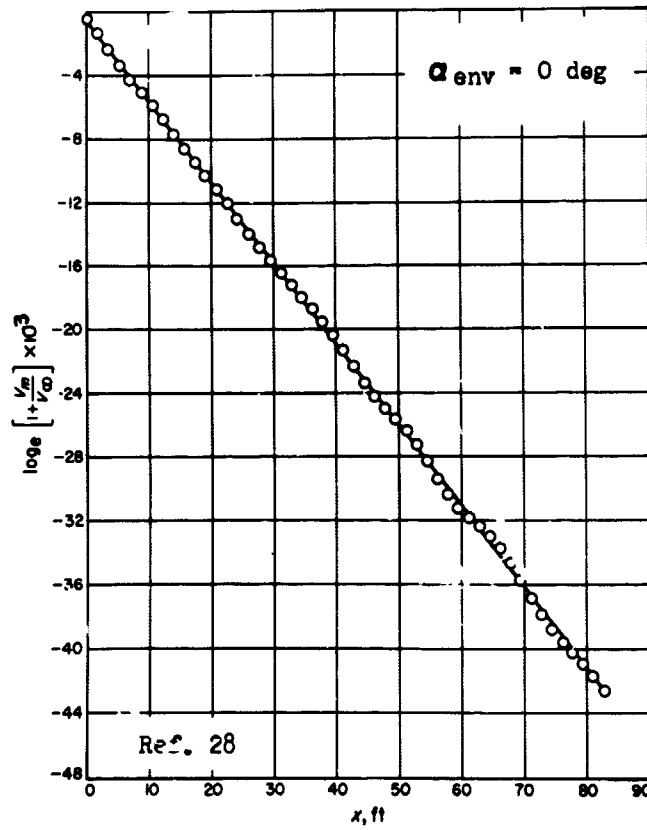


Fig 4 Typical model velocity history (high acceleration)

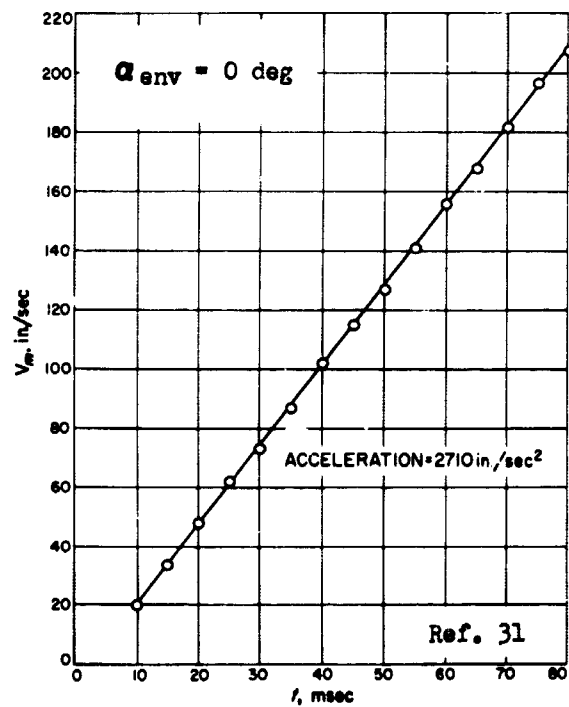


Fig 5 Typical model velocity history (low acceleration)

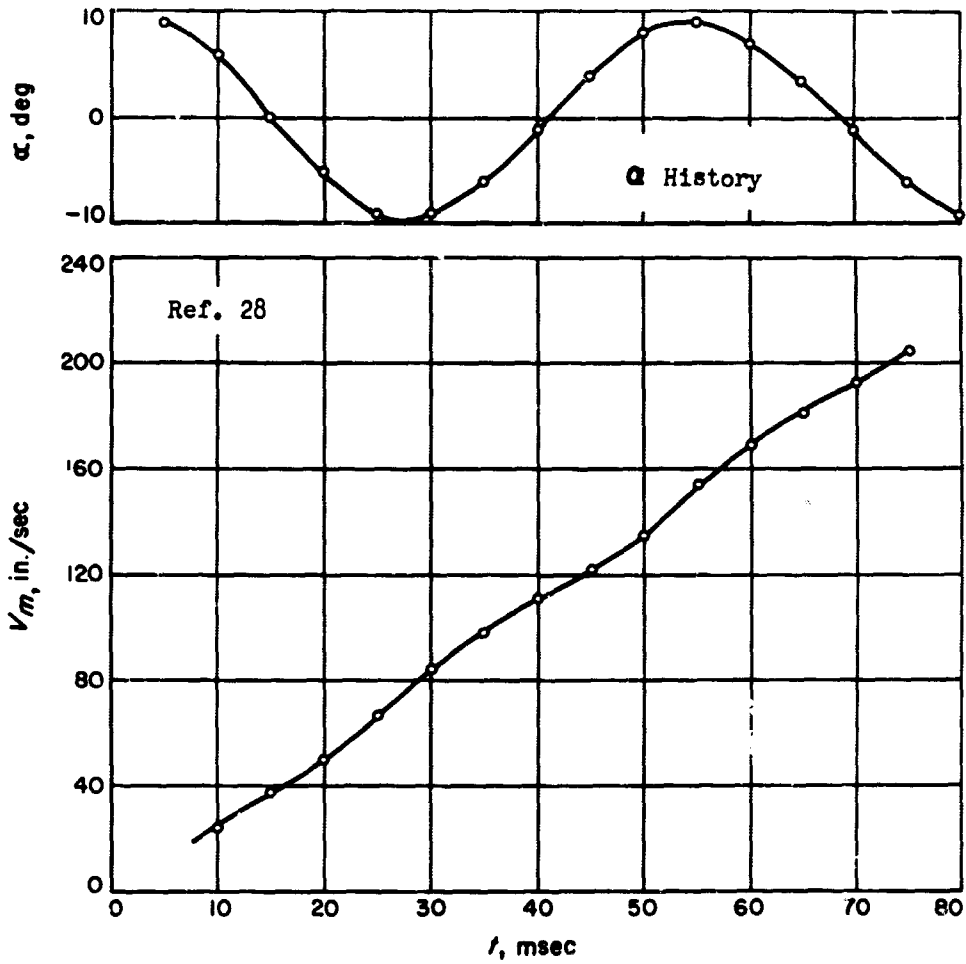


Fig. 6 Typical model velocity history (oscillating slender cone)

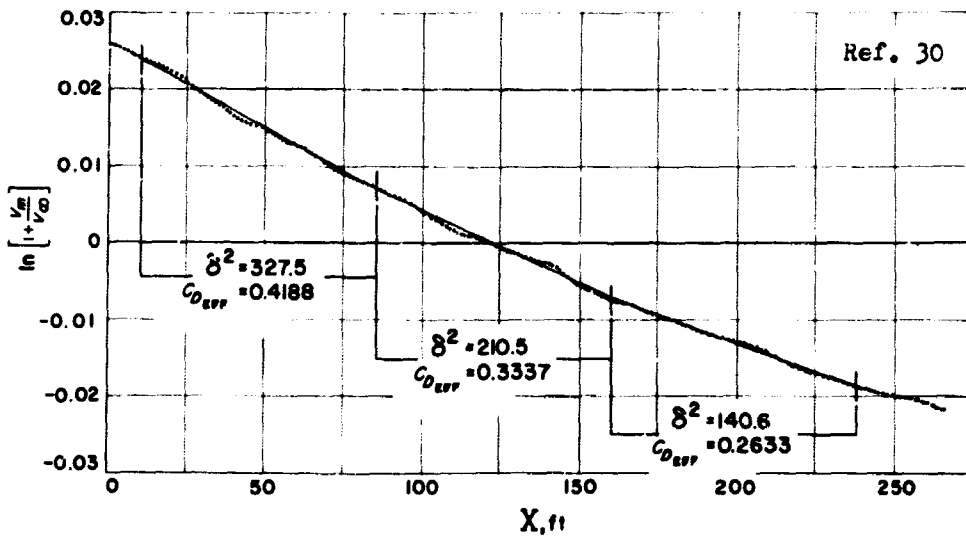


Fig. 7 Typical model velocity history (decaying oscillation amplitude)

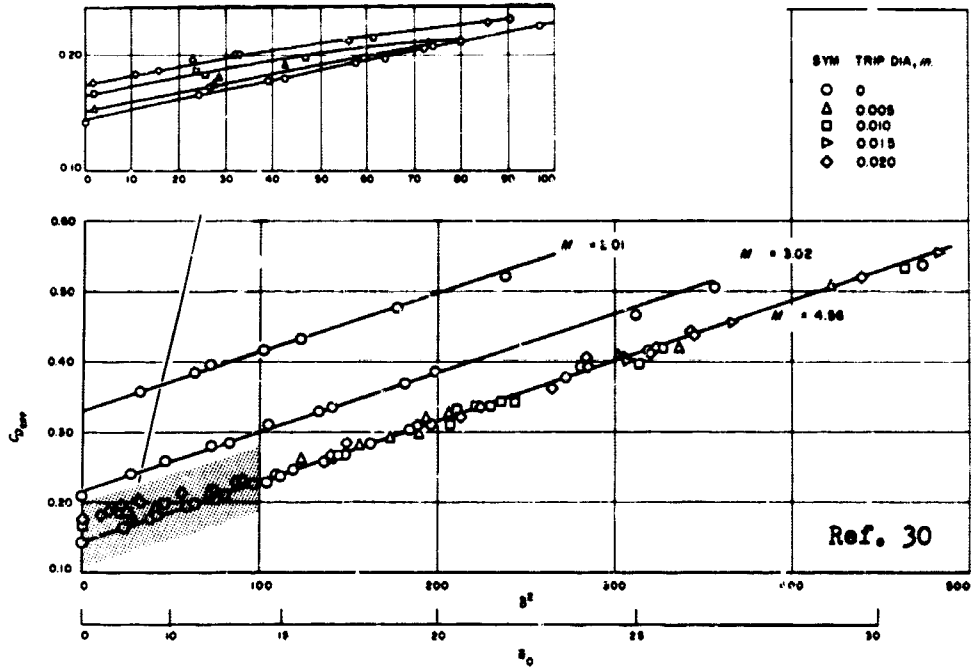


Fig. 8 Effect of oscillation amplitude on cone drag

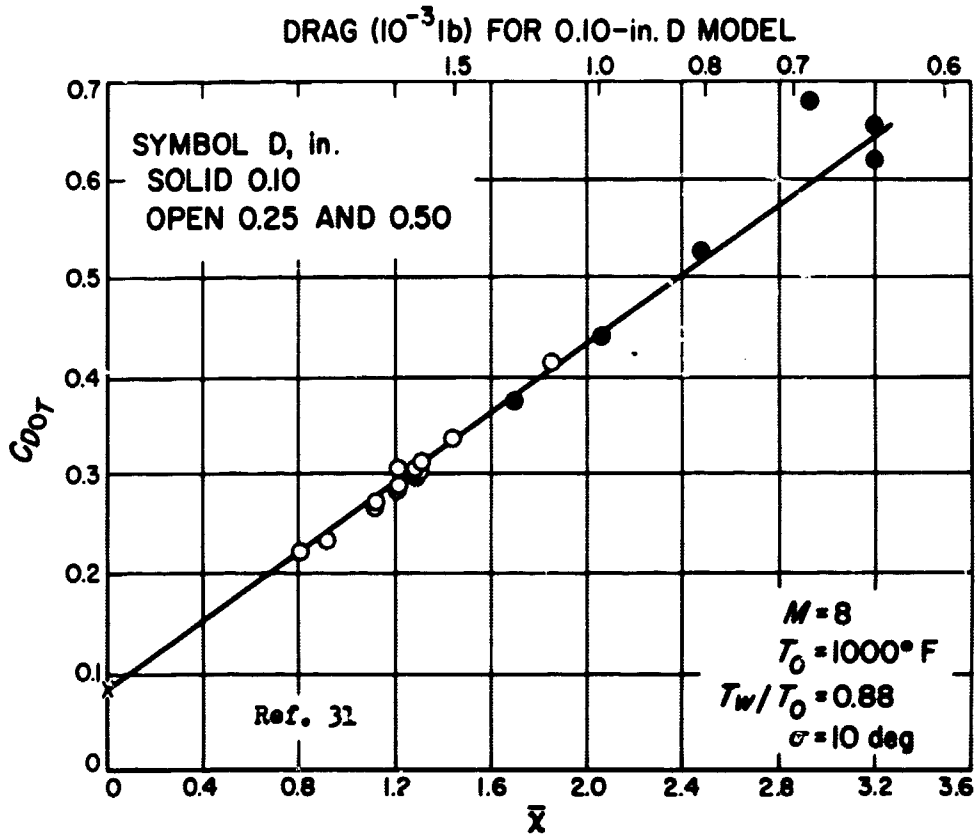


Fig. 9 Effect of hypersonic viscosity parameter on free-flight slender cone zero-lift drag coefficient

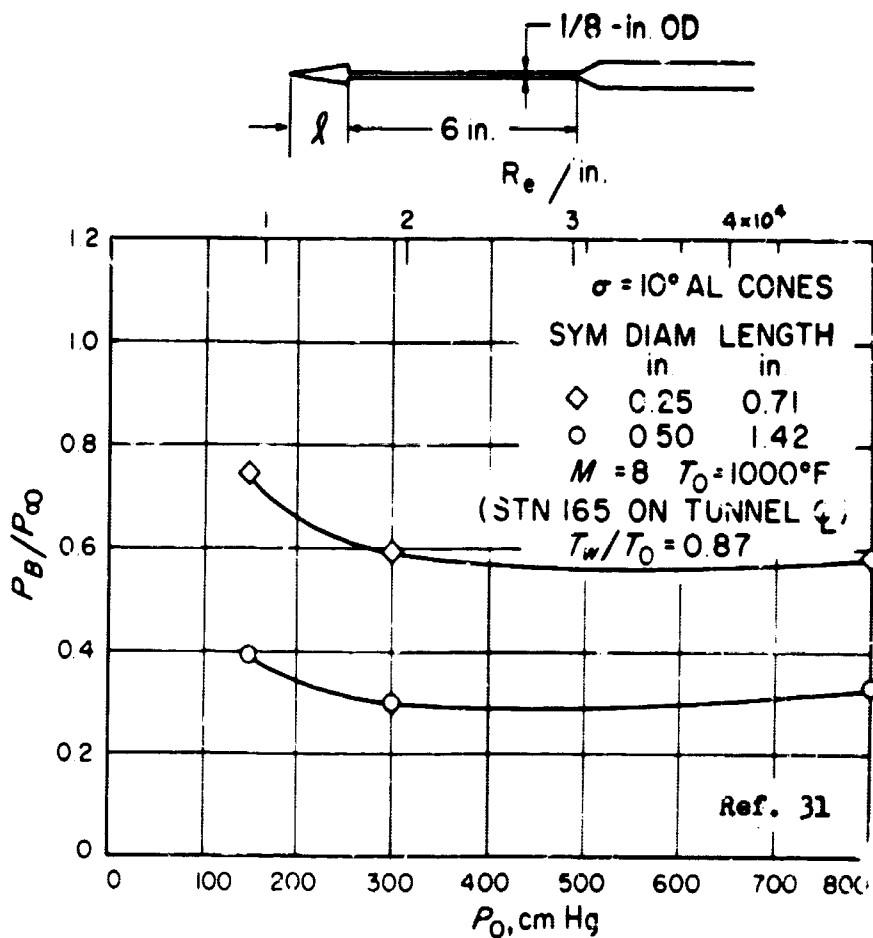


Fig. 10 Effect of sting diameter on model base pressure

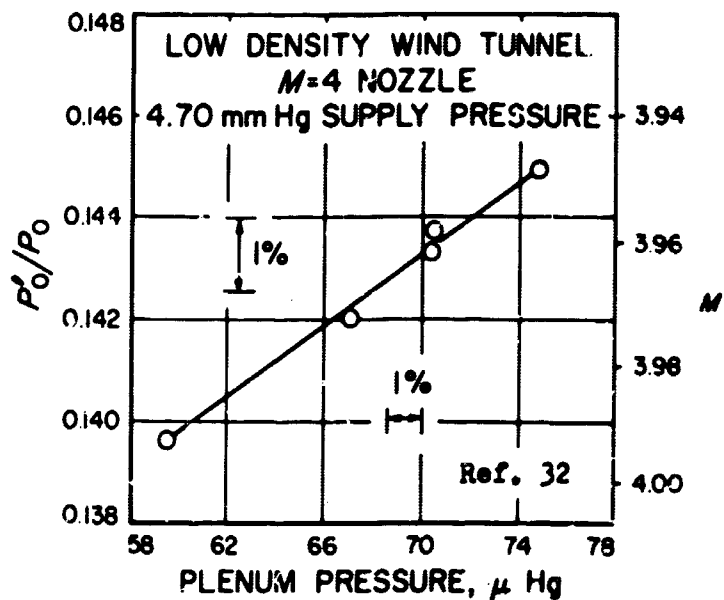


Fig. 11 Effect of plenum pressure on Mach number

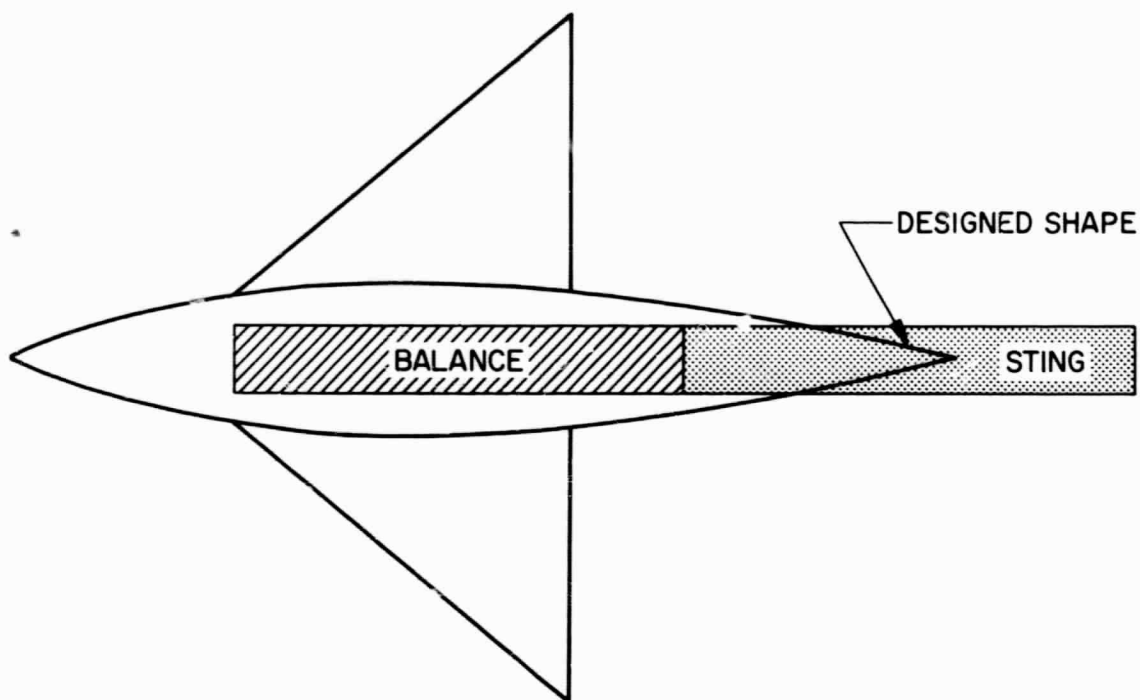


Fig. 12 Example of model aft-portion distortion required to accommodate internal balance and sting

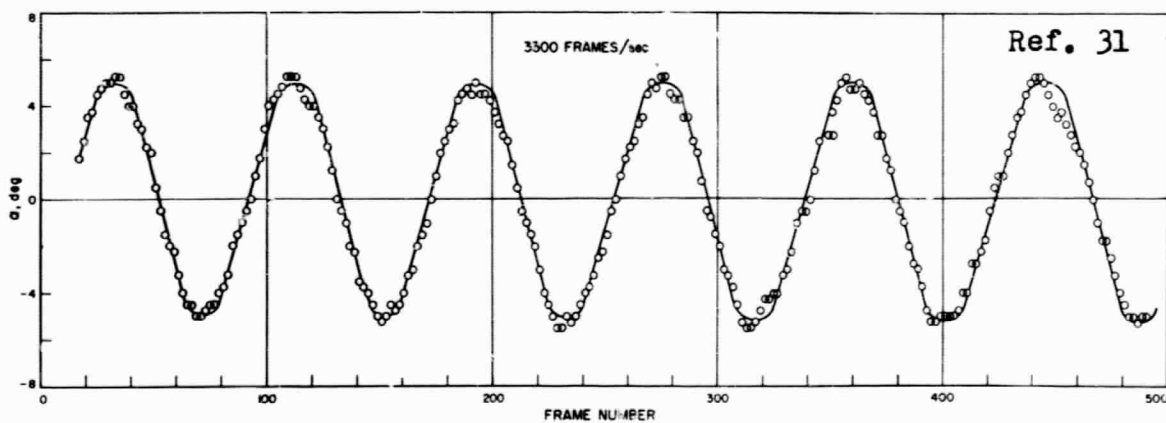


Fig. 13 Typical angle-of-attack history of a gun-launched model (constant oscillation amplitude)

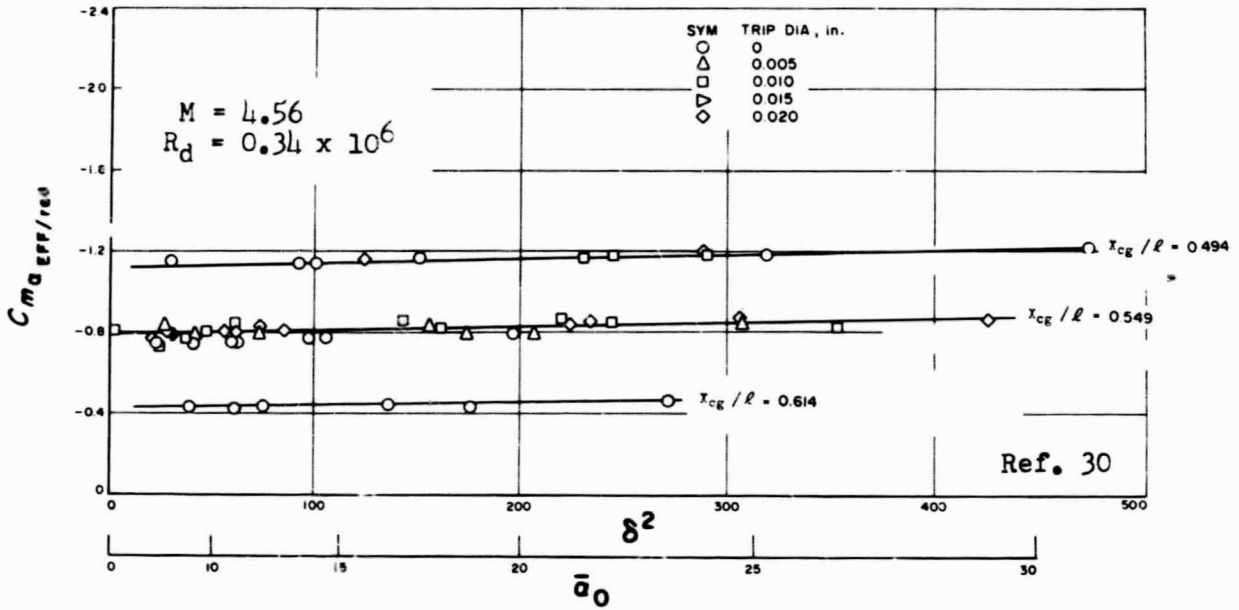


Fig. 14 Effect of oscillation amplitude on pitching moment slope

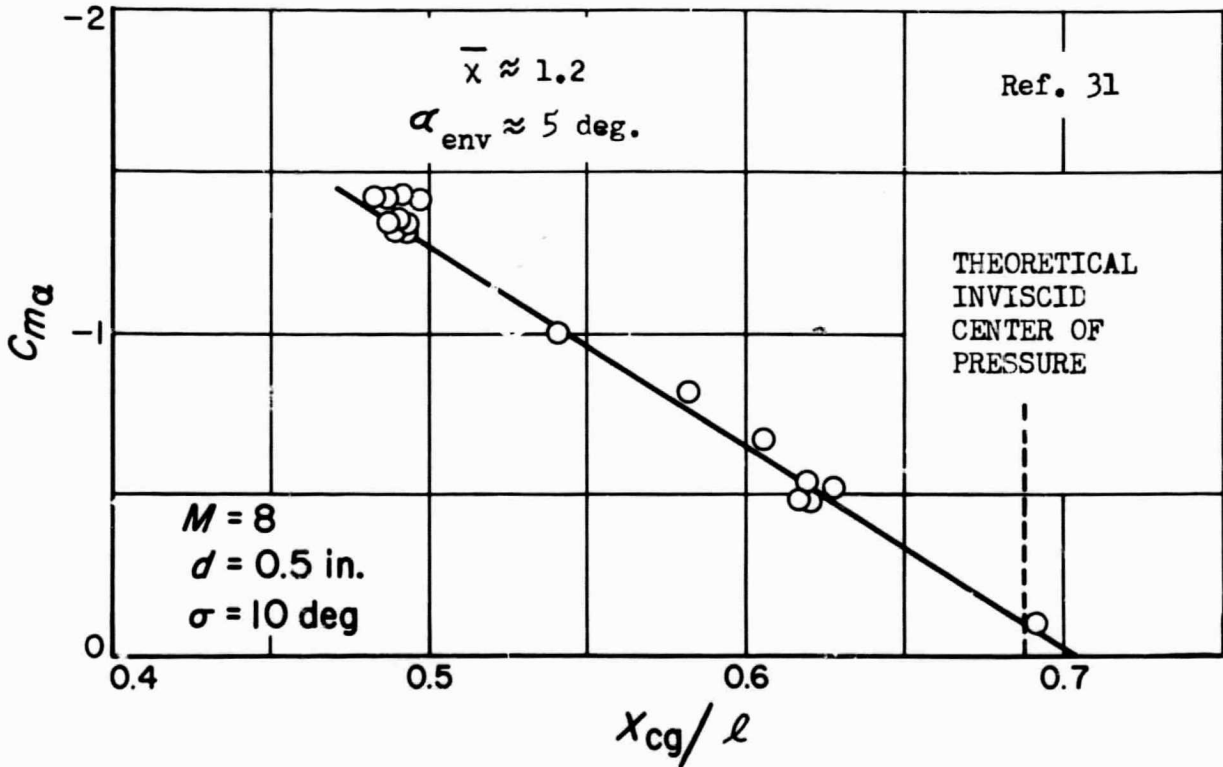
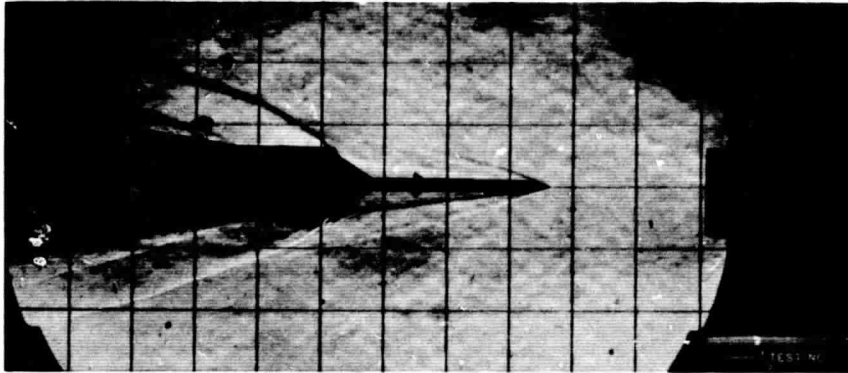
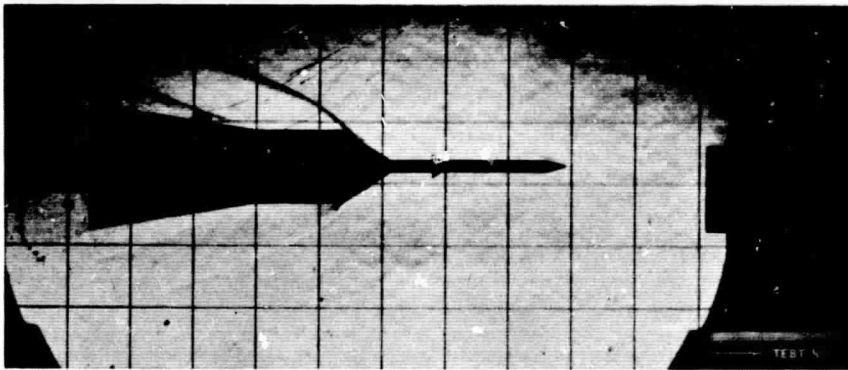


Fig. 15 Effect of cone center-of-gravity location on pitching moment slope



$$T_w/T_\infty = 5.4$$



$$T_w/T_\infty = 1.1$$

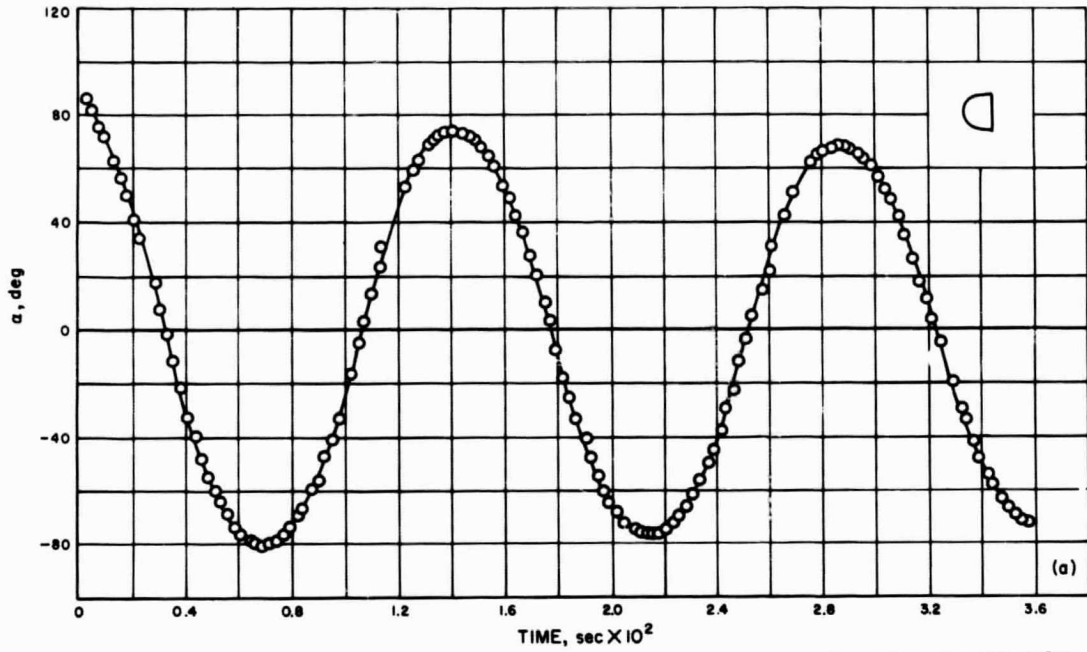
$$M = 5.1 \quad R_d = 4.7 \times 10^5$$

$$\alpha = \psi = 0^\circ$$

Altitude Simulation $\approx 175,000$ ft

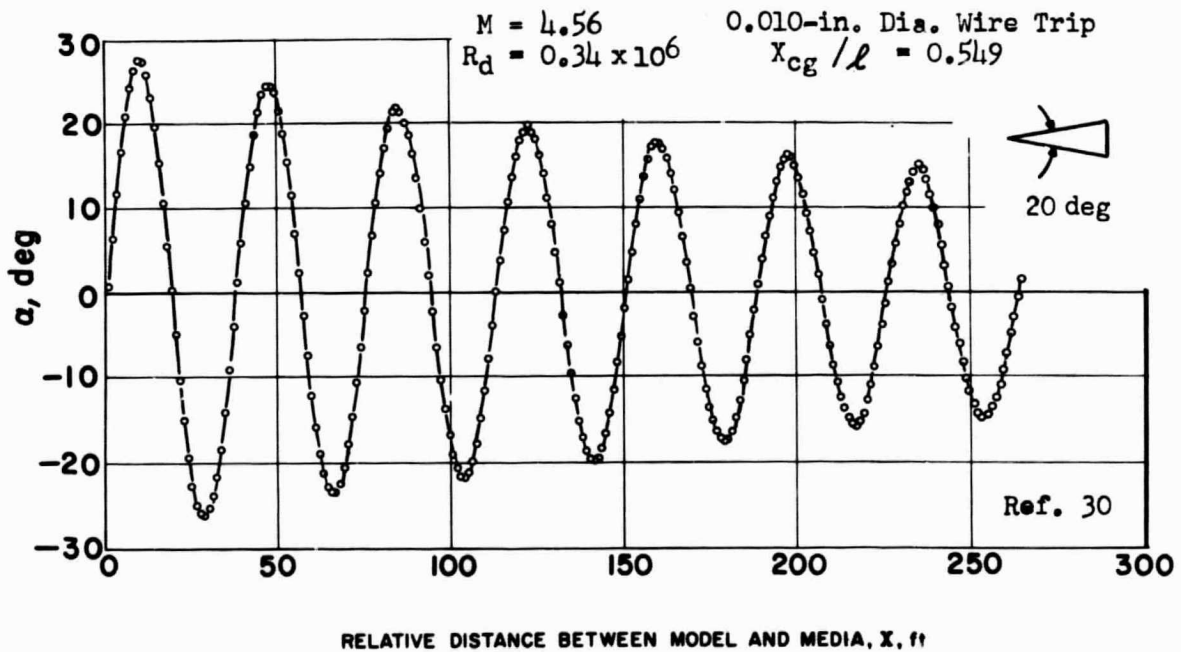
SCHLIEREN OF FLOW FIELDS

Fig. 16 Effect of model wall temperature on boundary layer separation



Ref. JPL TR 32-380

(a) High drag shape



(b) Low drag shape

Fig. 17 Examples of decaying motion for high oscillation amplitudes

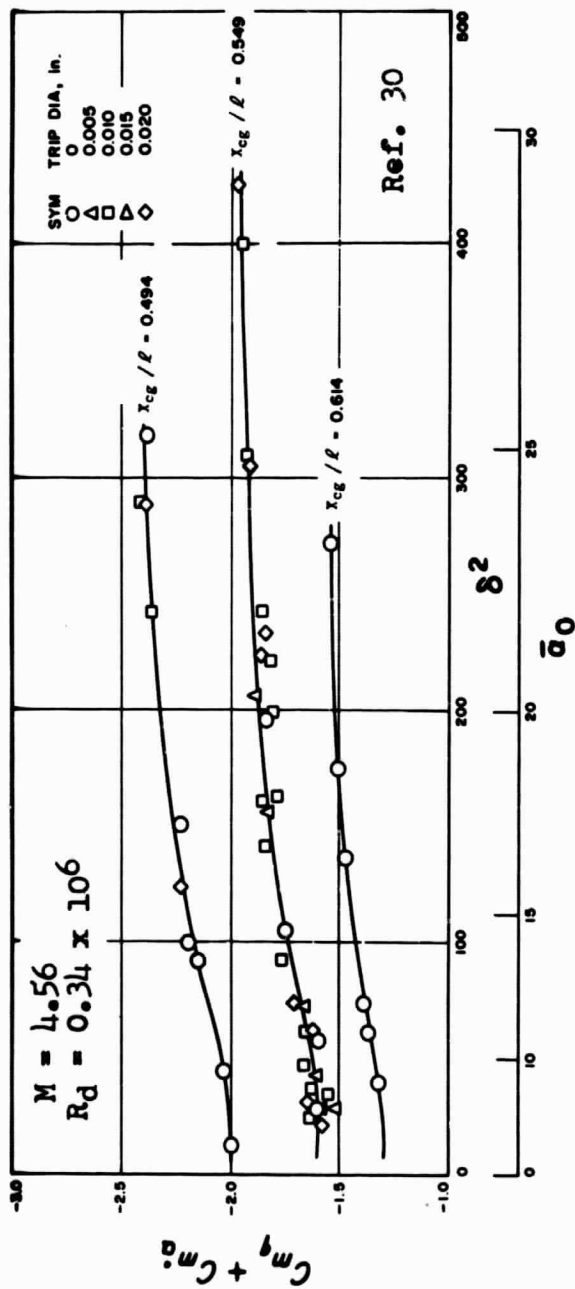
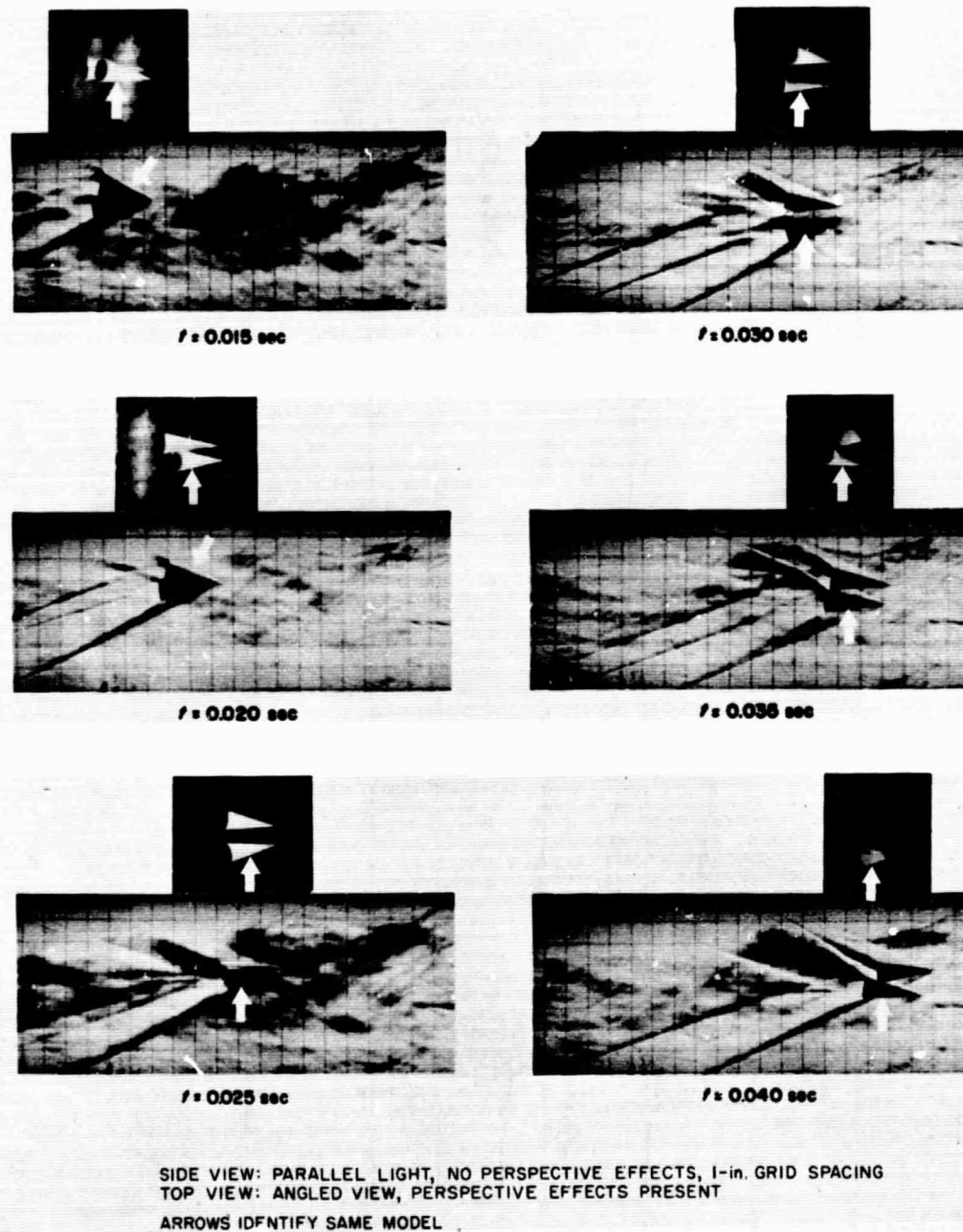
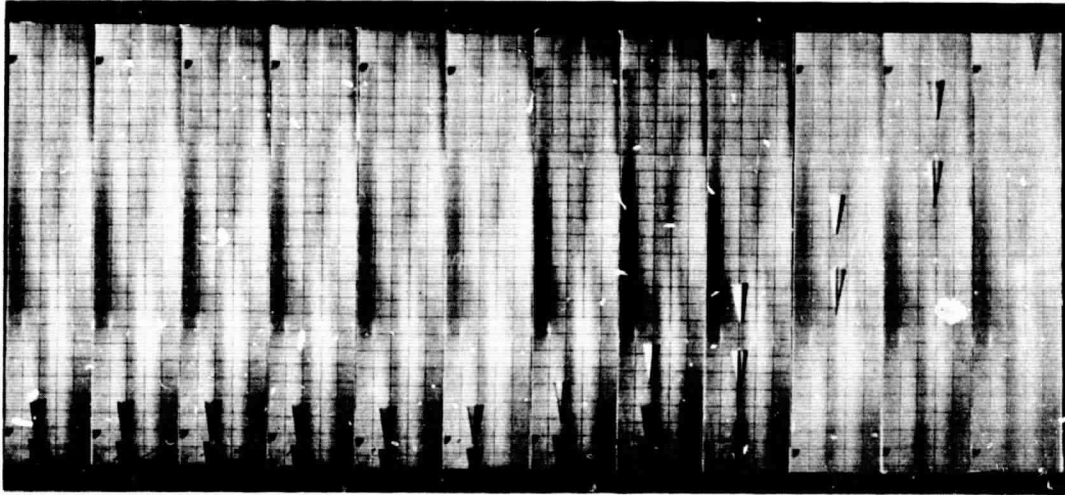


Fig. 18 Effect of oscillation amplitude on cone dynamic stability

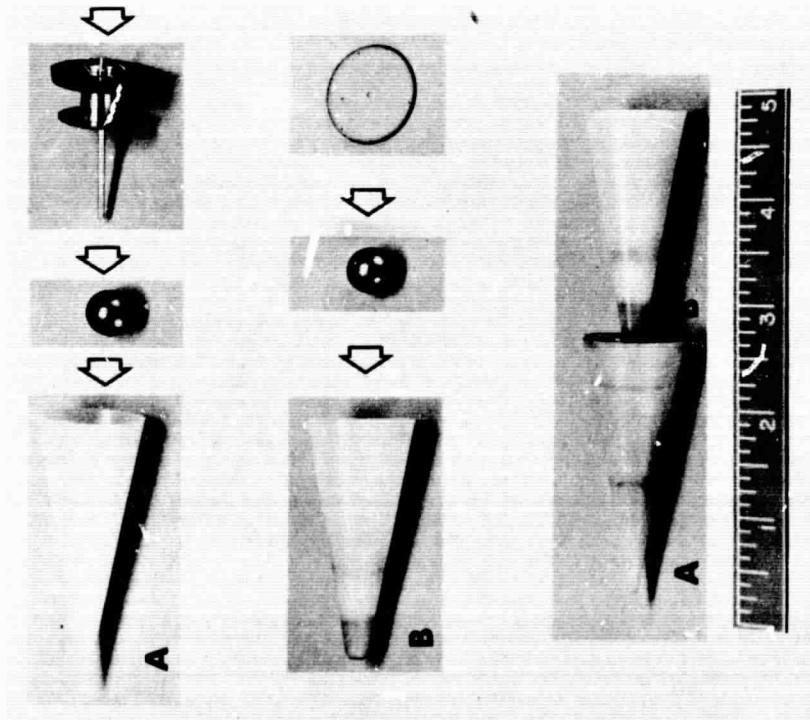
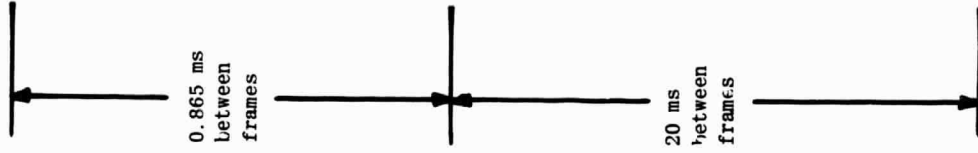


Ref. 28

Fig. 19 Example of a dual-cone salvo gun-launched into a free-flight trajectory

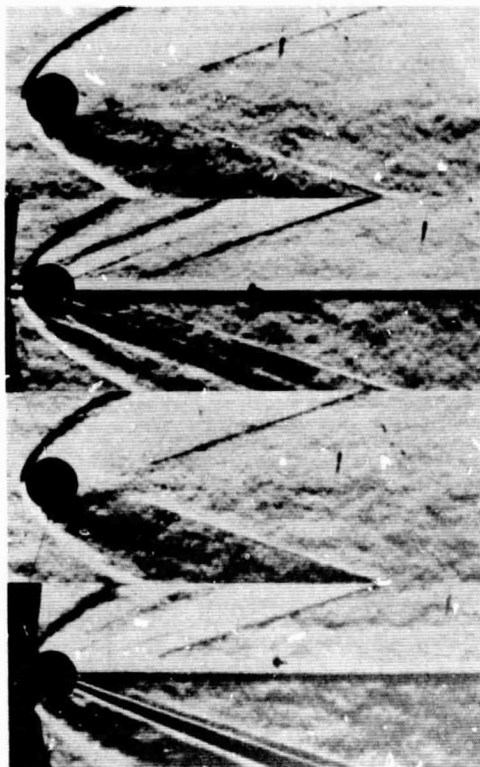


4630 frames/sec
M = 4½



Ref. 35

Fig. 20 Example of tandem-body equipment and flight



WIRE ORIENTATION	L/d
NO WIRE	1.22
HORIZONTAL	1.00
VERTICAL	0.98
HORIZONTAL AND VERTICAL	—

Ref. 39

M = 3
 SUPPLY PRESSURE = 150 cm Hg
 $R_d = 5.3 \times 10^5$
 MODEL DIAMETER = 1½ in.
 WIRE DIAMETER = 0.020 in.

Fig. 21 Effect of support wire orientation on flow pattern about sphere

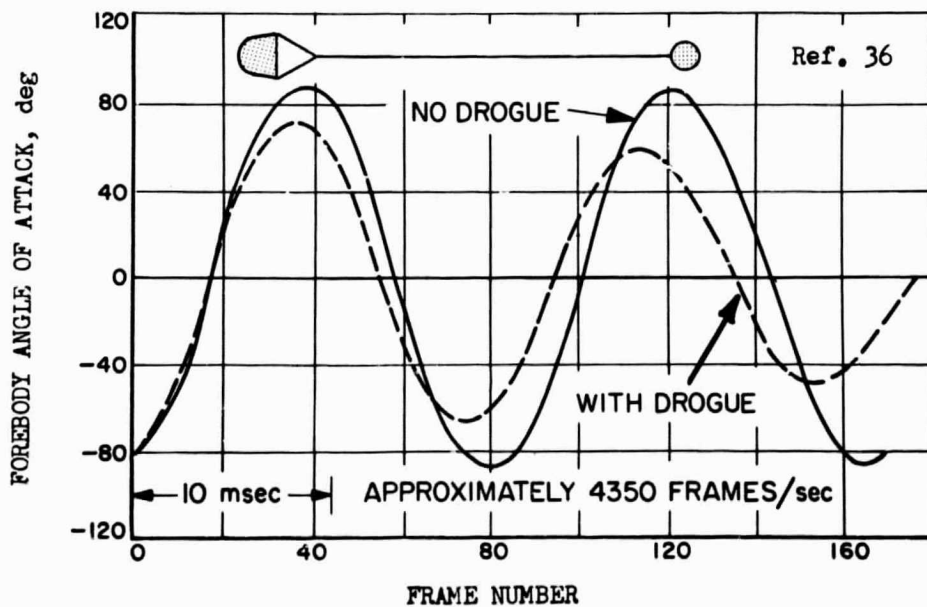


Fig. 22 Effect of a trailing drogue on forebody angle-of-attack history

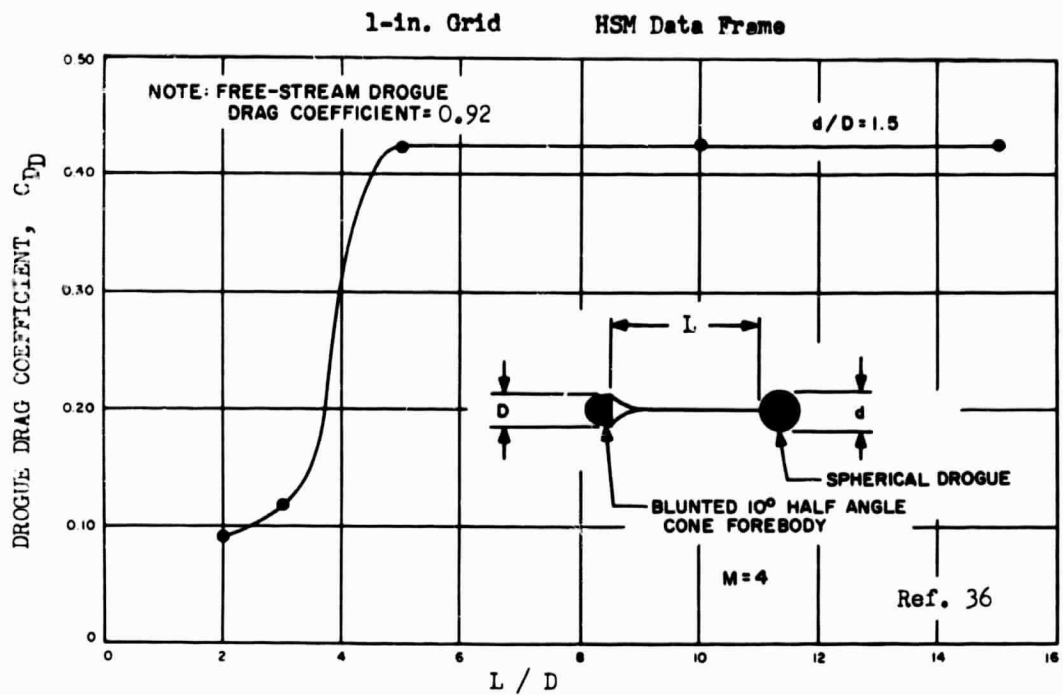
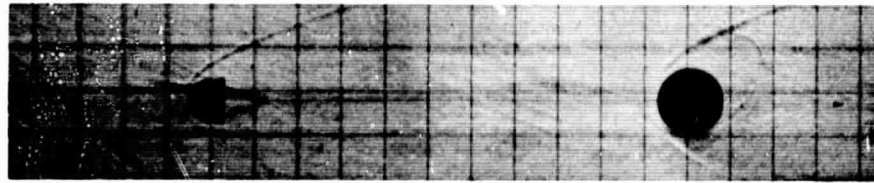


Fig. 23 Effect of tow-line length on drogue drag

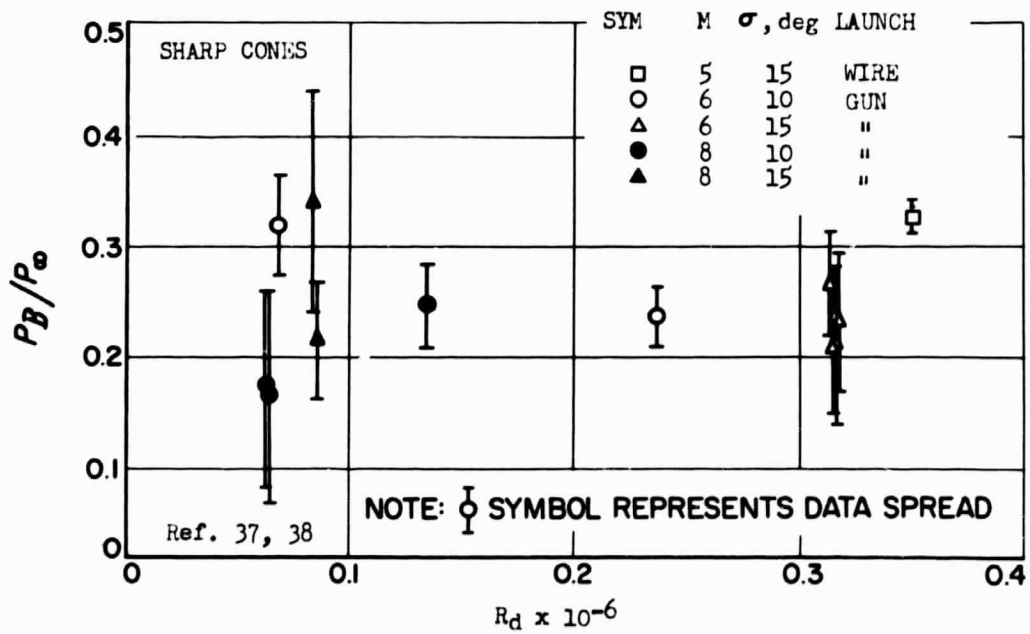
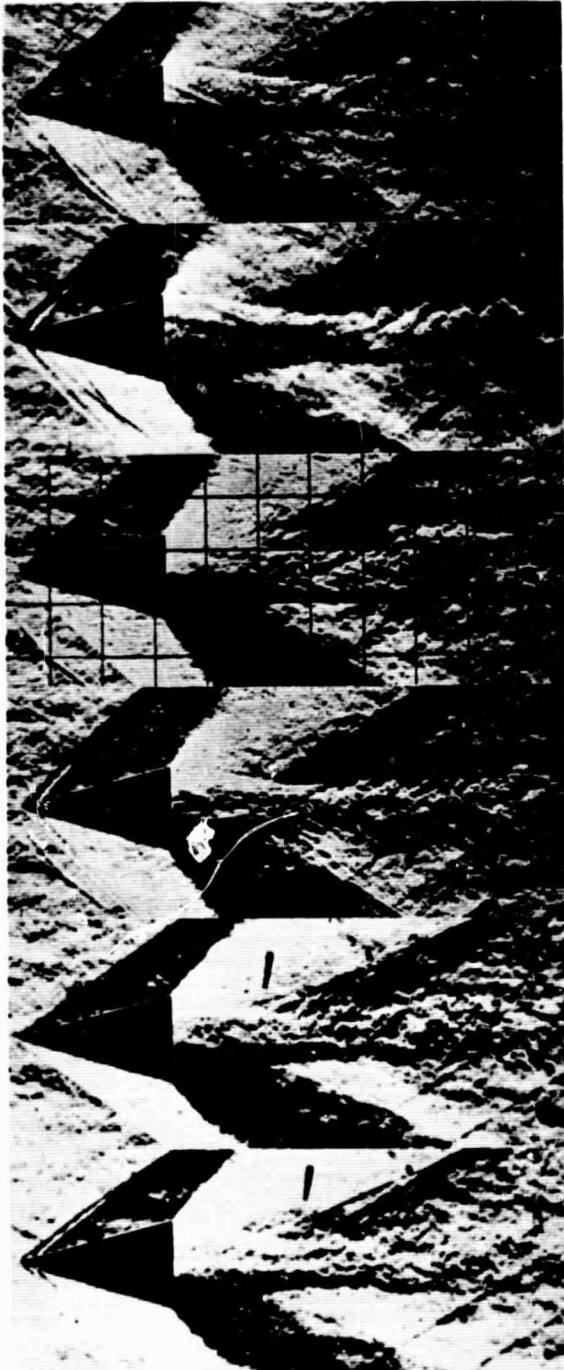


Fig. 24 Free-flight base pressure

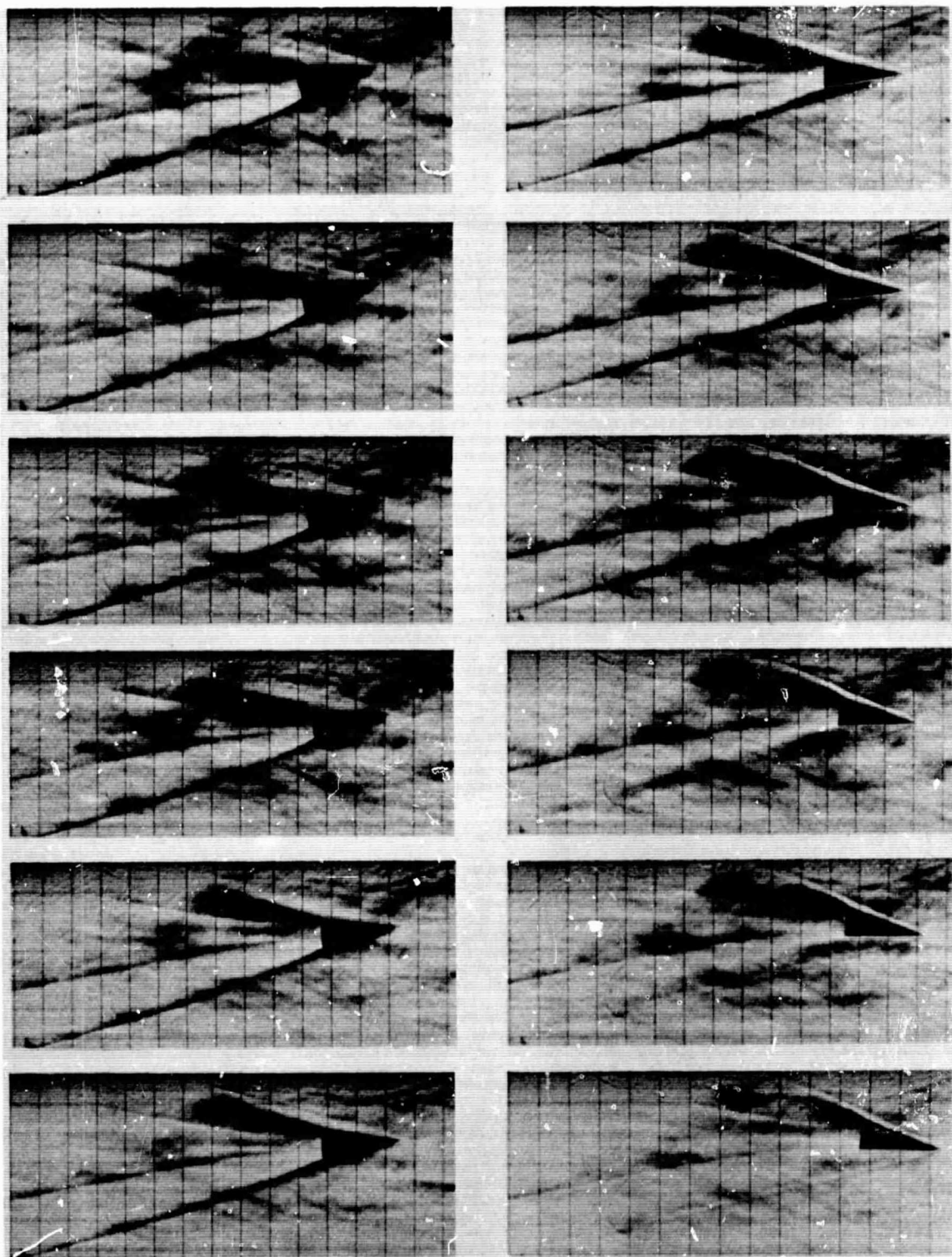


Model Boundary Layer	Mach No.	Supply Pressure (cm Hg)	R_d
Laminar	1.61	60	4×10^5
Turbulent	1.61	60	4×10^5
Laminar	1.58	120	8×10^5
Turbulent	1.58	120	8×10^5
Laminar	1.92	140	8×10^5
Turbulent	1.93	140	8×10^5

Ref. 39

30-deg Apex Angle
 $1\frac{1}{2}$ -in. D Base

Fig. 25 Effect of Mach number on free-flight cone wakes



0.75 msec Between Pictures

1-in. Grid Spacing

Ref. 30

Fig. 26 Schlieren wake study of an oscillating cone

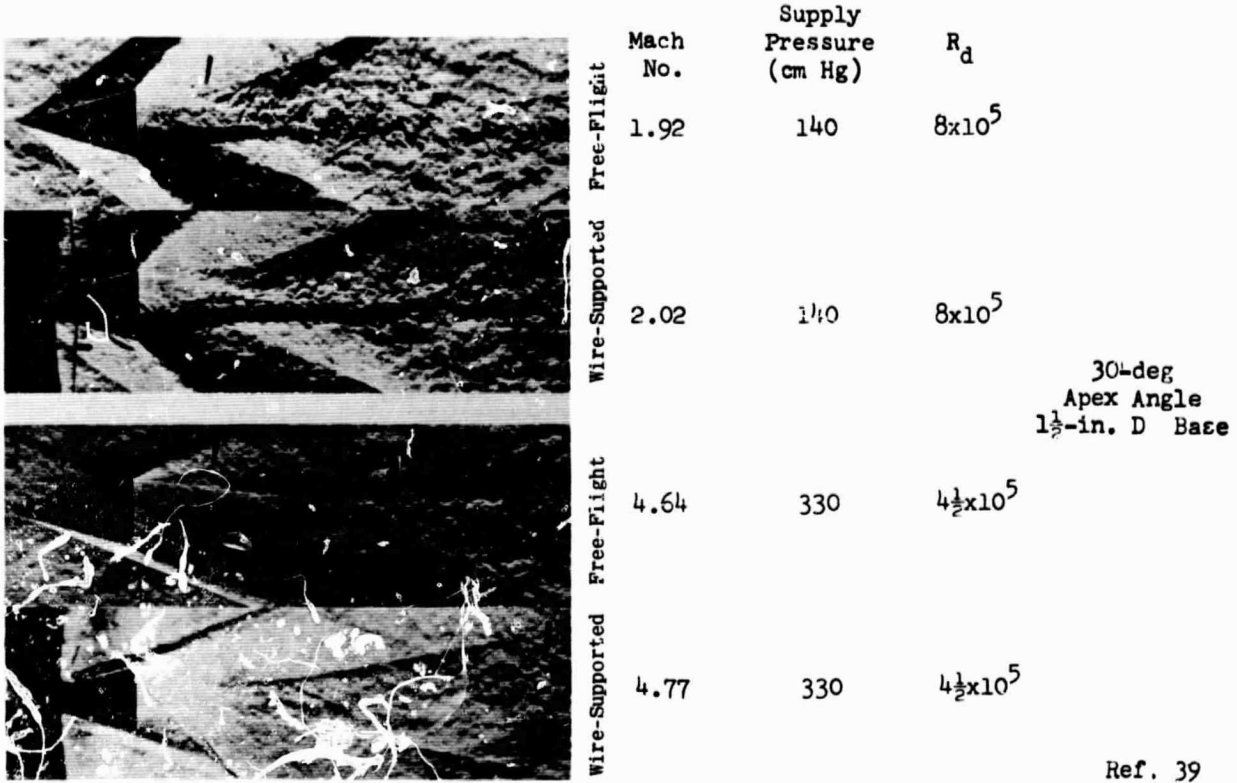
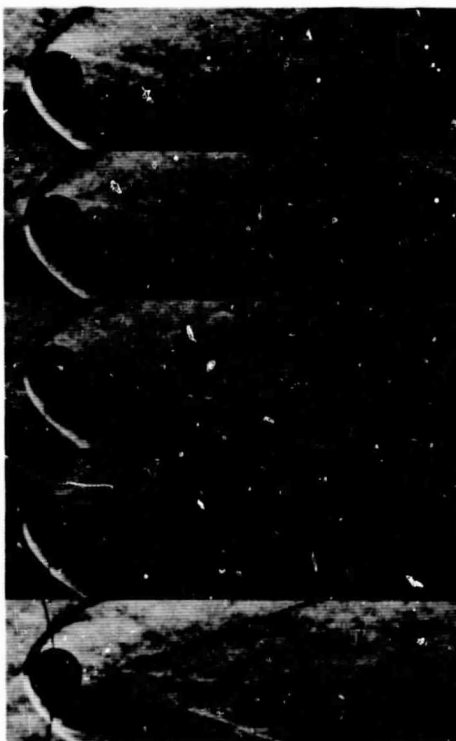


Fig. 27 Effect of wire support on cone wake



Wire Diam., in

0

0.005

0.010

0.020

0.040

$M = 3$
 $R_d = 2.3 \times 10^5$
Diameter = $1 \frac{1}{2}$ in.

Ref. 39

Fig. 28 Effect of diameter of vertical wire support on optical sphere wakes

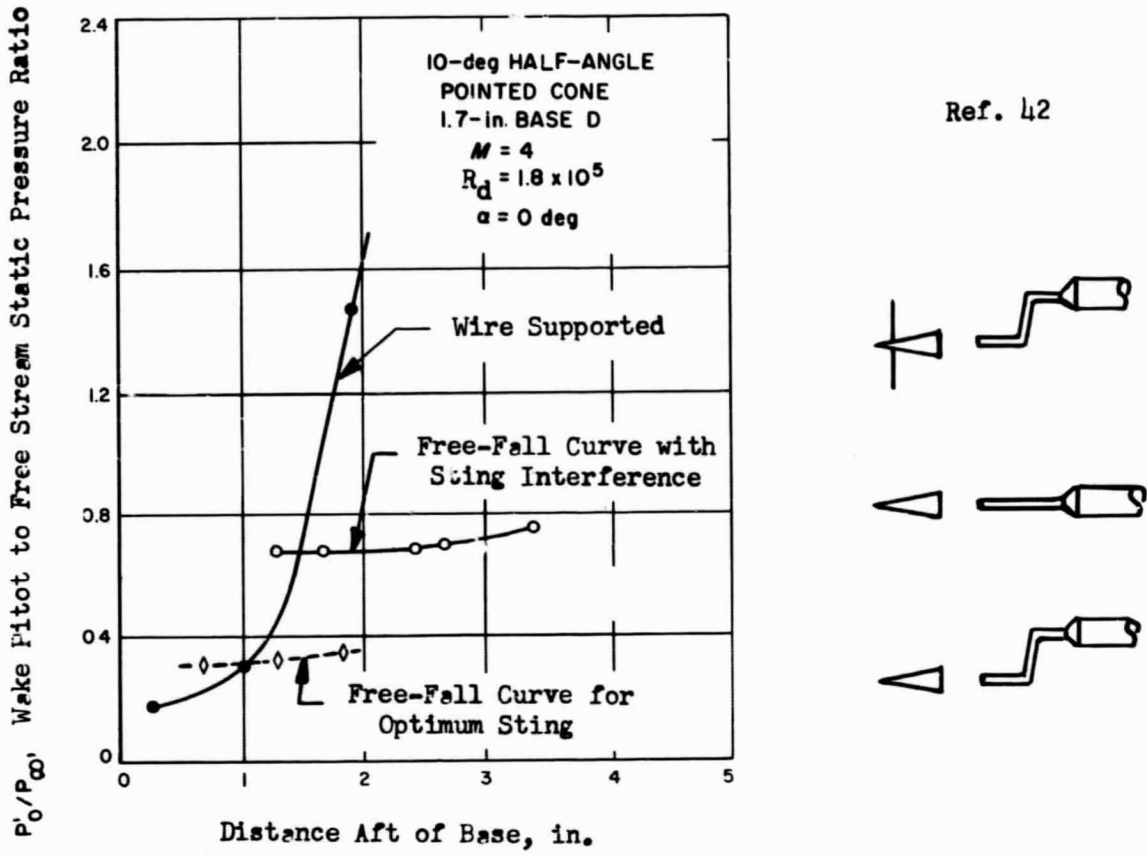
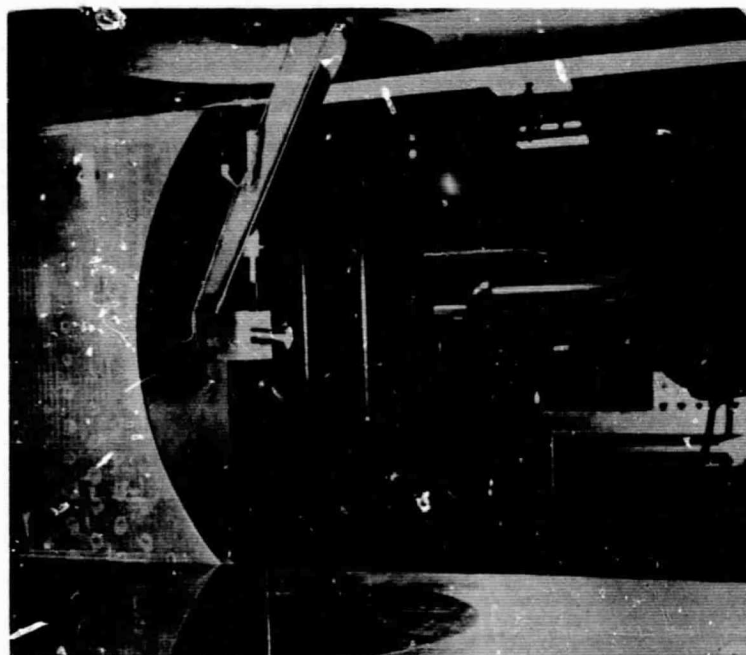
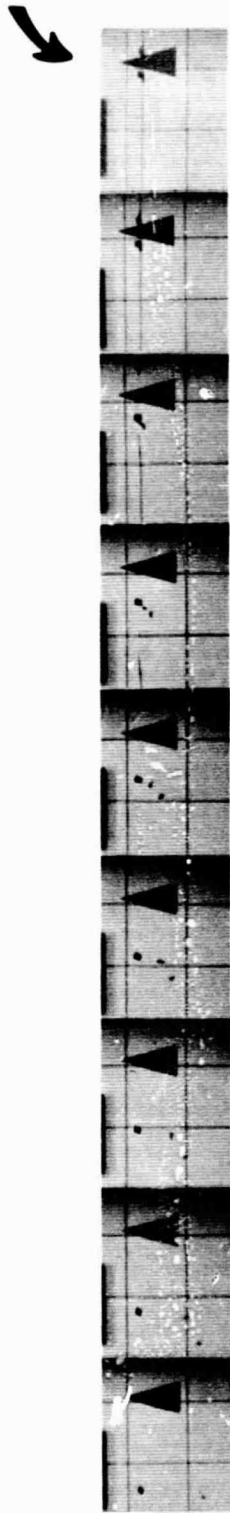


Fig. 29 Centerline pitot-pressure survey through wake of free-fall cone

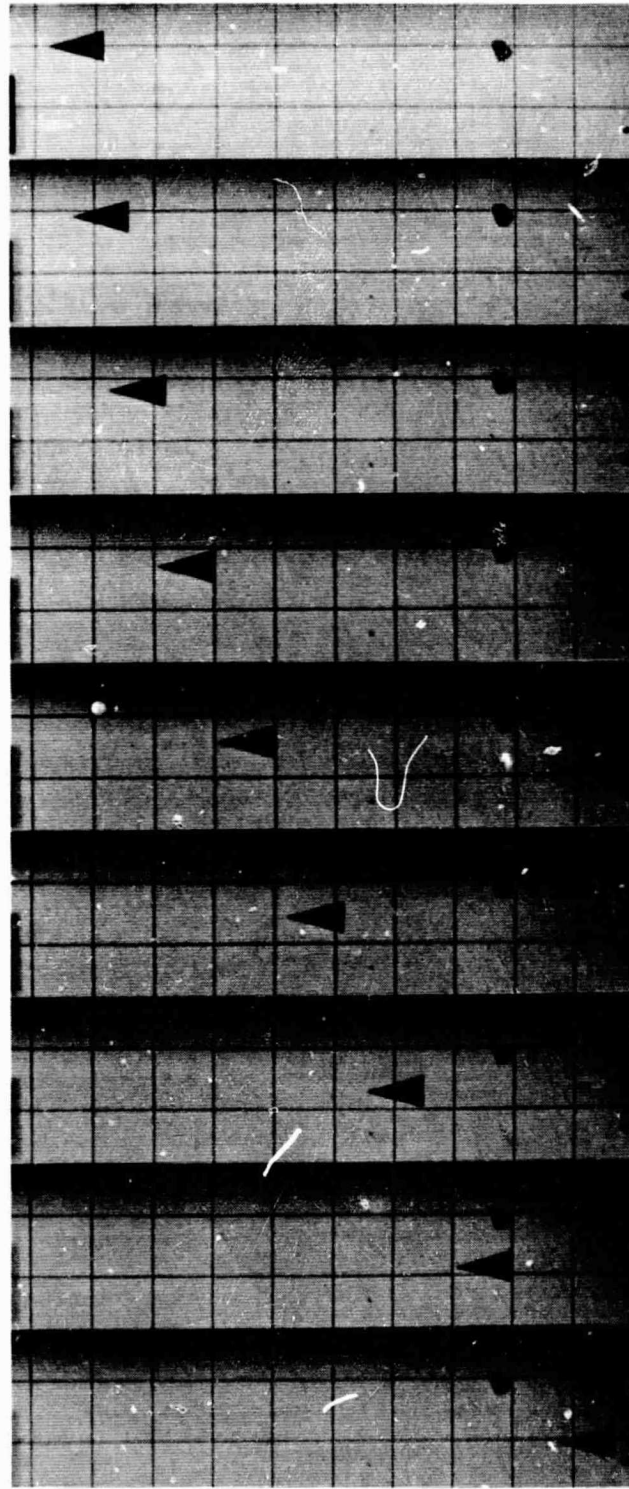


Ref. 35

Fig. 30 Wire-launch installation of model for free-flight test in hypersonic wind tunnel with cooling shield down



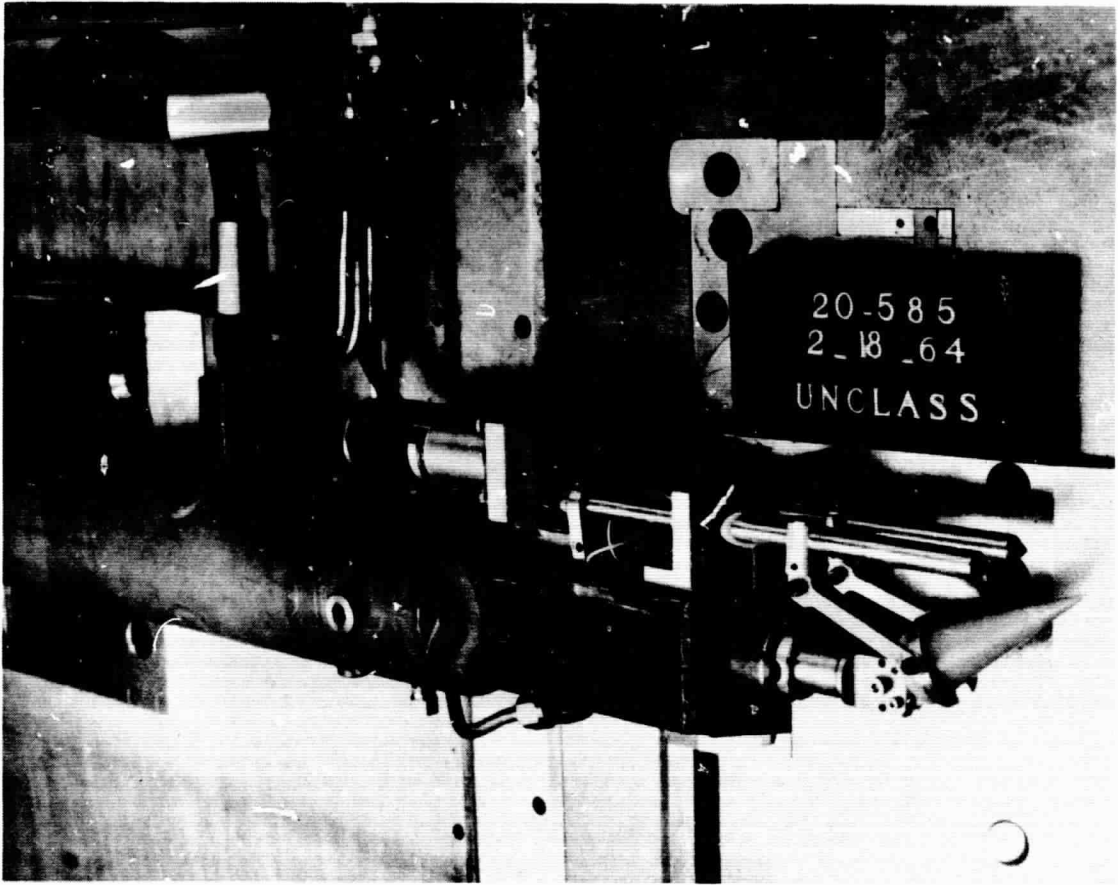
Every other
frame shown



Every 20th frame shown
1-in. Grid Spacing
3600 Frames / in.

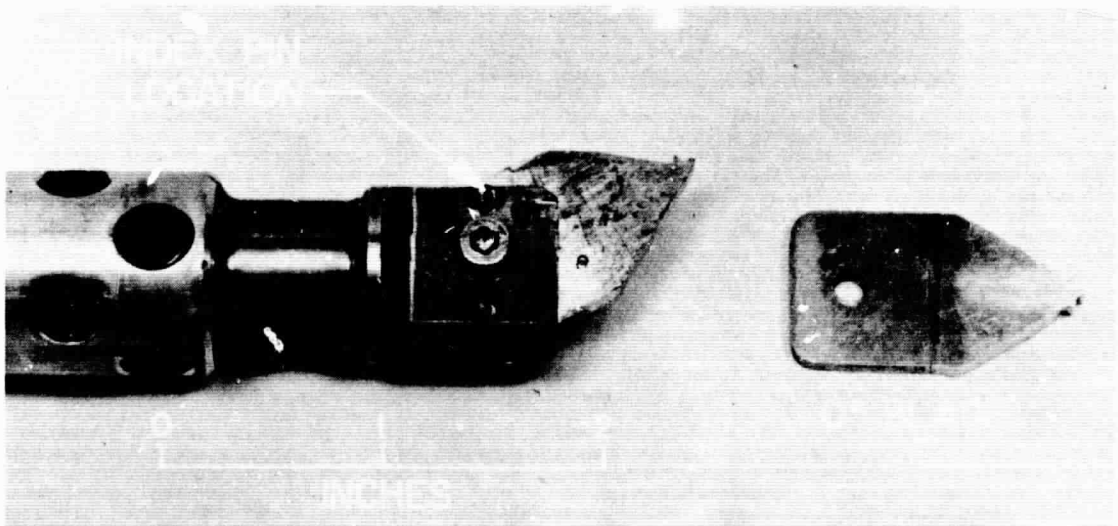
Ref. 31

Fig. 31 High speed movie sequence of wire release and complete model trajectory



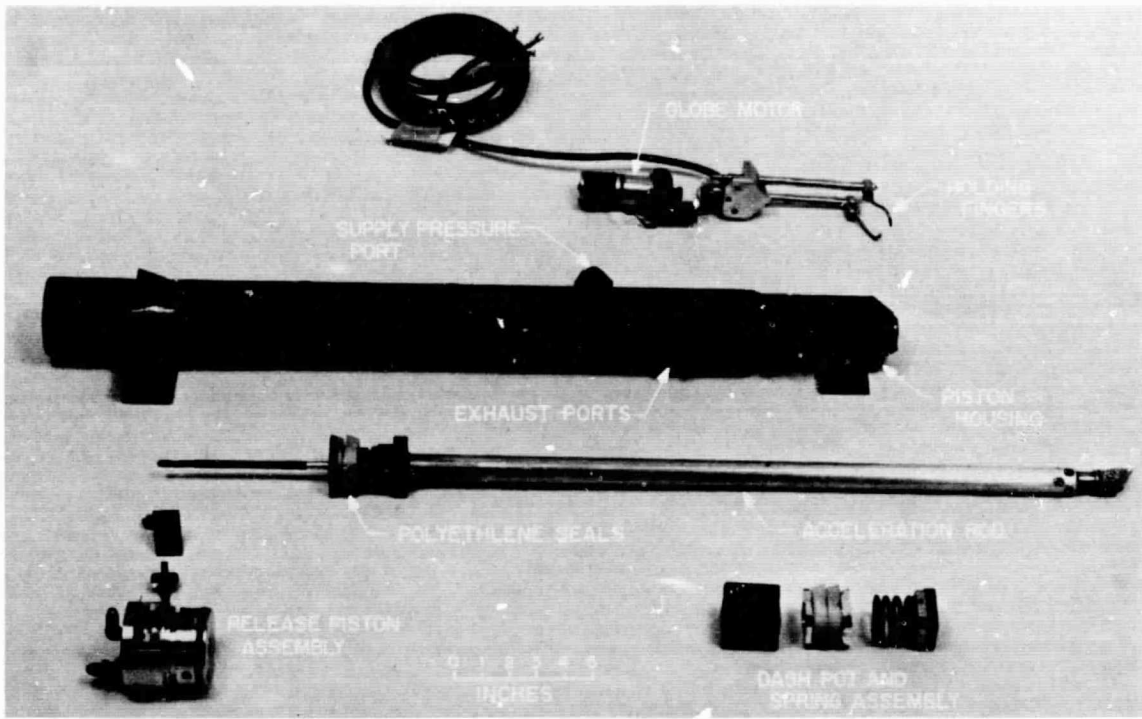
Ref. 45

Fig. 32 Pneumatic launch gun for externally mounted models



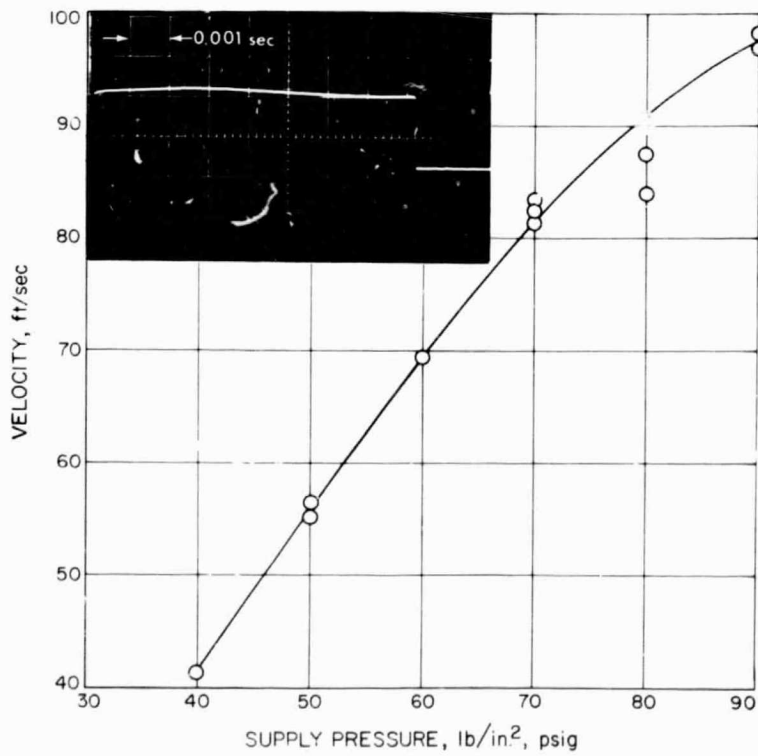
Ref. 45

Fig. 33 Triangular-shaped blade support for cone models



Ref. 45

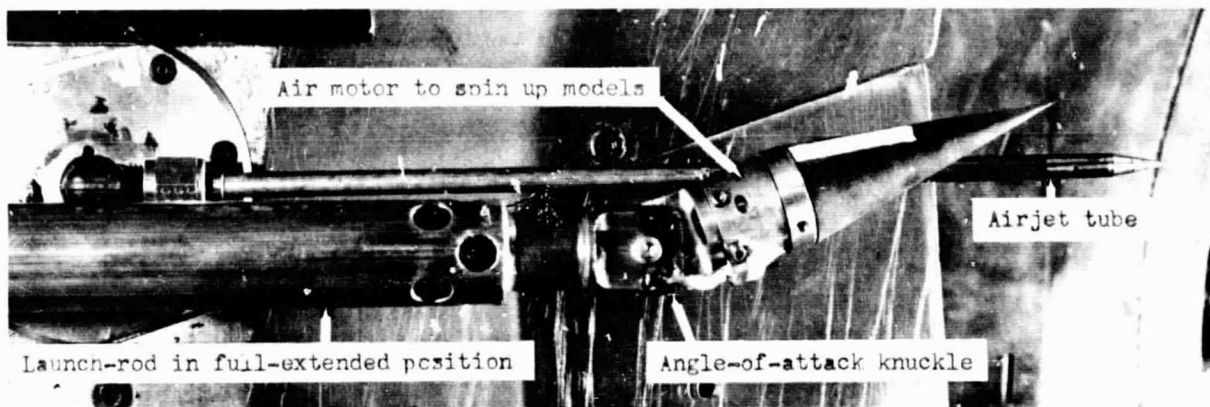
Fig. 34 Components of pneumatic launcher



Ref. 45

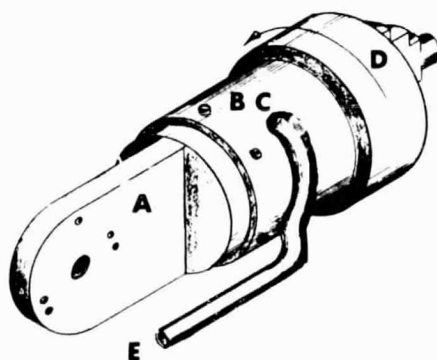
Fig. 35 Typical example velocity versus chamber pressure for pneumatic model launcher

 Tunnel flow



(a) Test section installation

- A** Air motor knuckle base
- B** Impeller
- C** Housing
- D** Model support
- E** Air inlet tube



(b) Schematic of air motor

Ref. 48

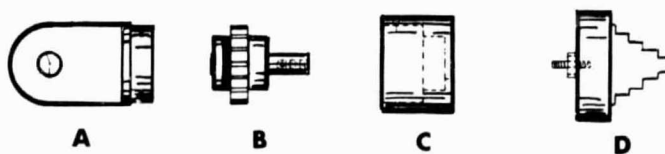


Fig. 36 Launcher for spinning models

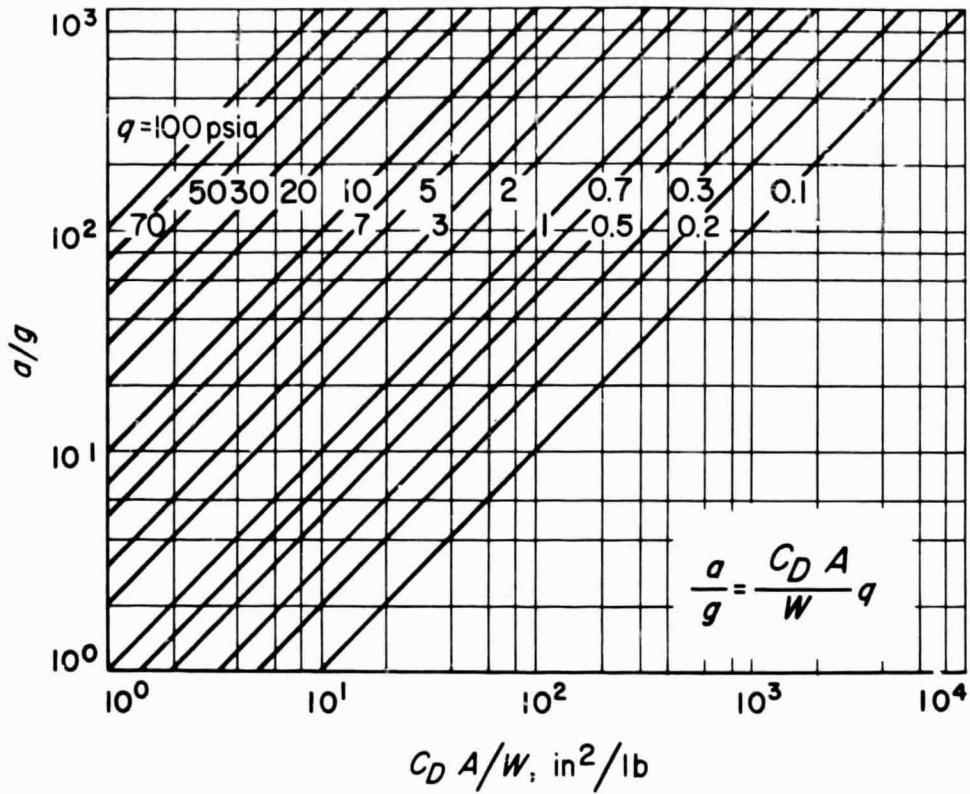


Fig. 37 Model acceleration versus ballistic coefficient

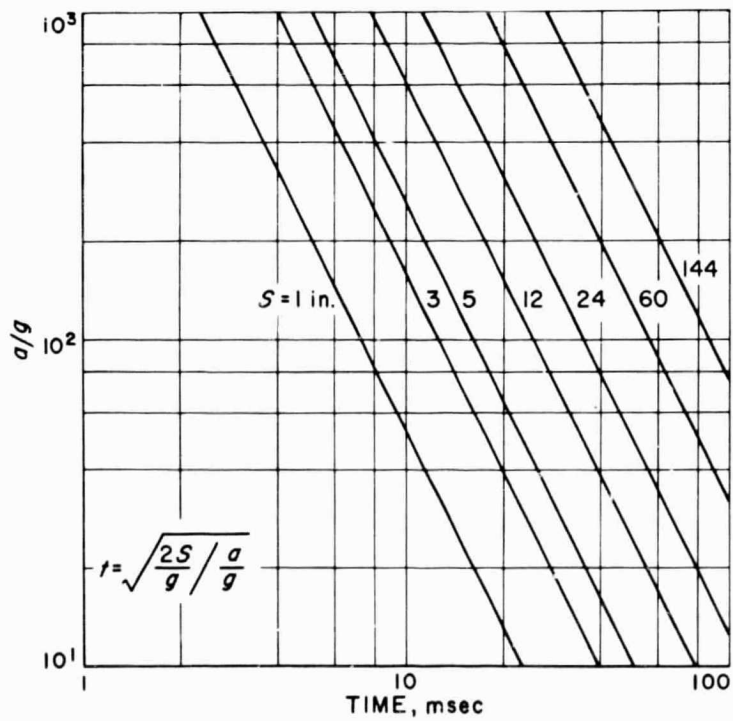


Fig. 38 Time for model to travel various distances

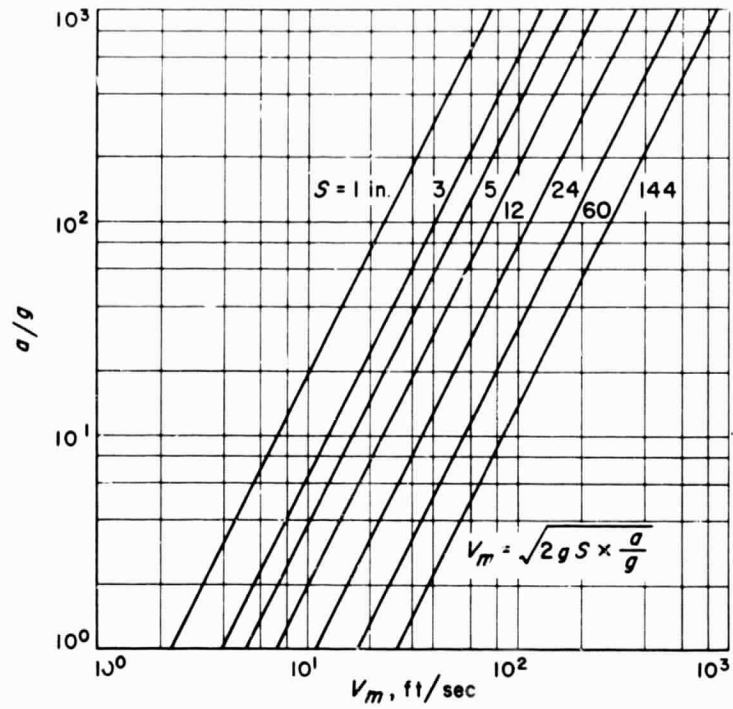


Fig. 39 Model velocity after traveling various distances

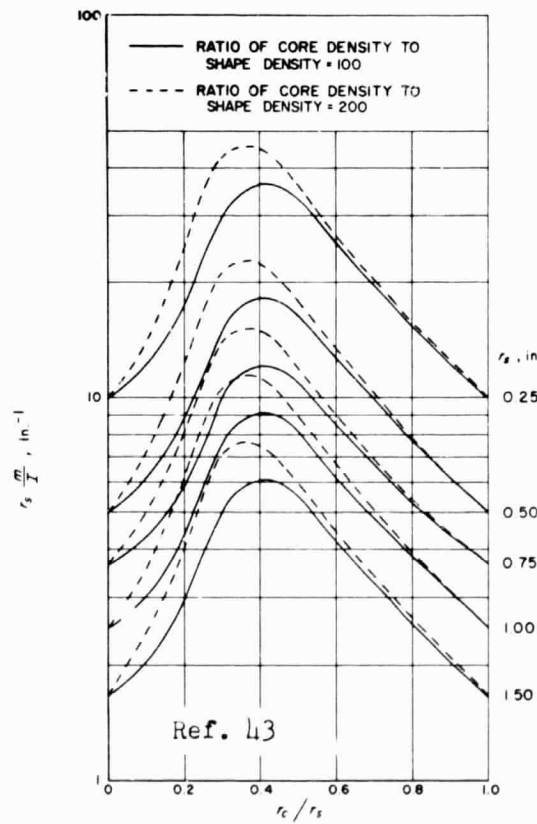
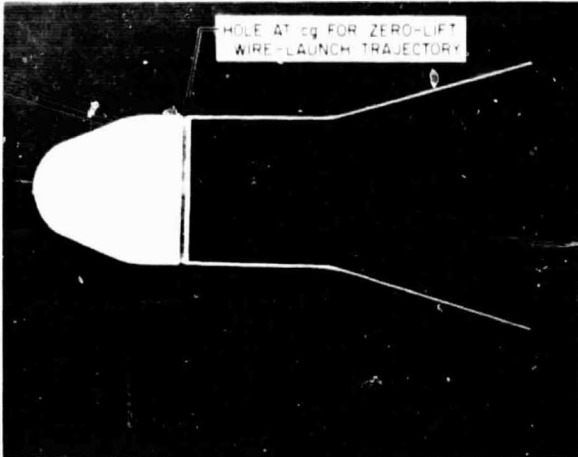
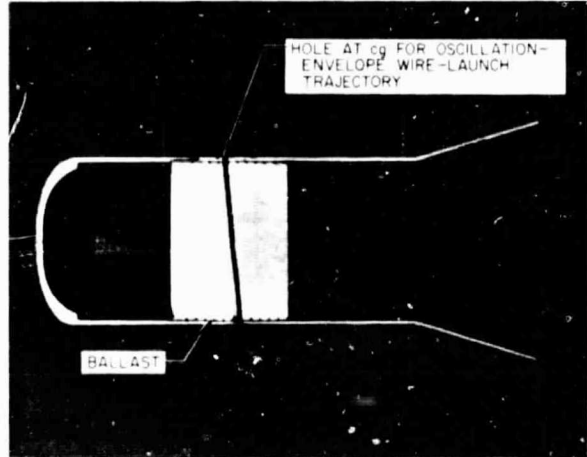


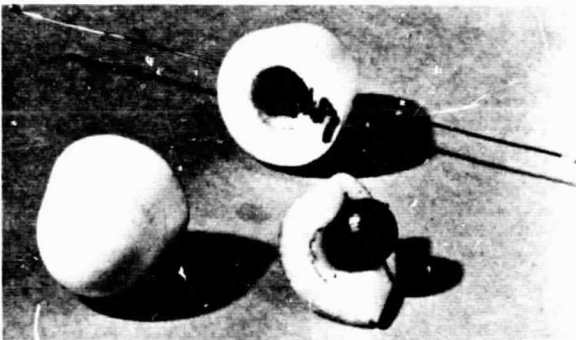
Fig. 40 The ratio $r_s m/I$ versus r_c/r_s for a spherical model



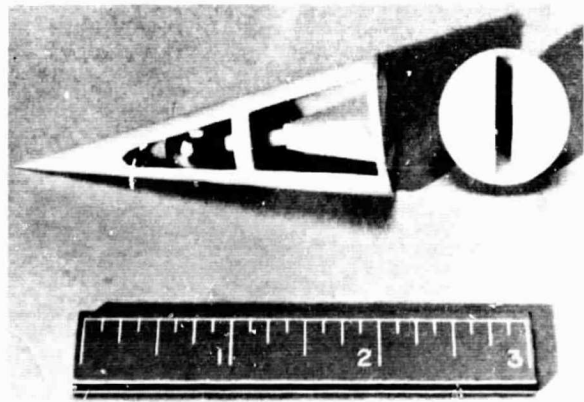
(a) Hollowed-out Aluminum model
($d_{cyl} = 1$ in.)



(b) Hollowed-out Magnesium model
ballasted with Copper slug
($d_{cyl} = 1.1$ in.)



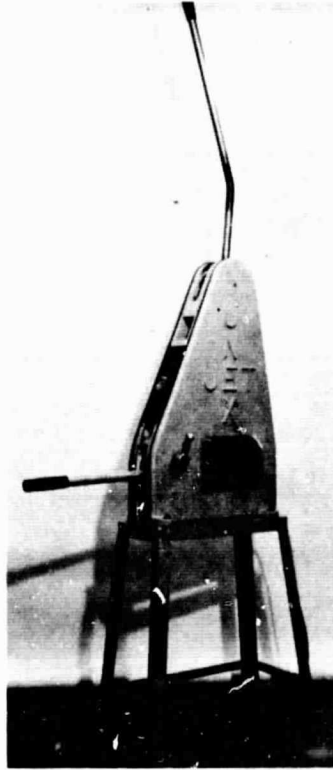
(c) Cast foam model ballasted with
0.45 in. D Lead sphere
($d_B = 1$ in.)



(d) Molded Plastic model ballasted with
0.45 in. D Lead sphere
($d_B = 1$ in.)

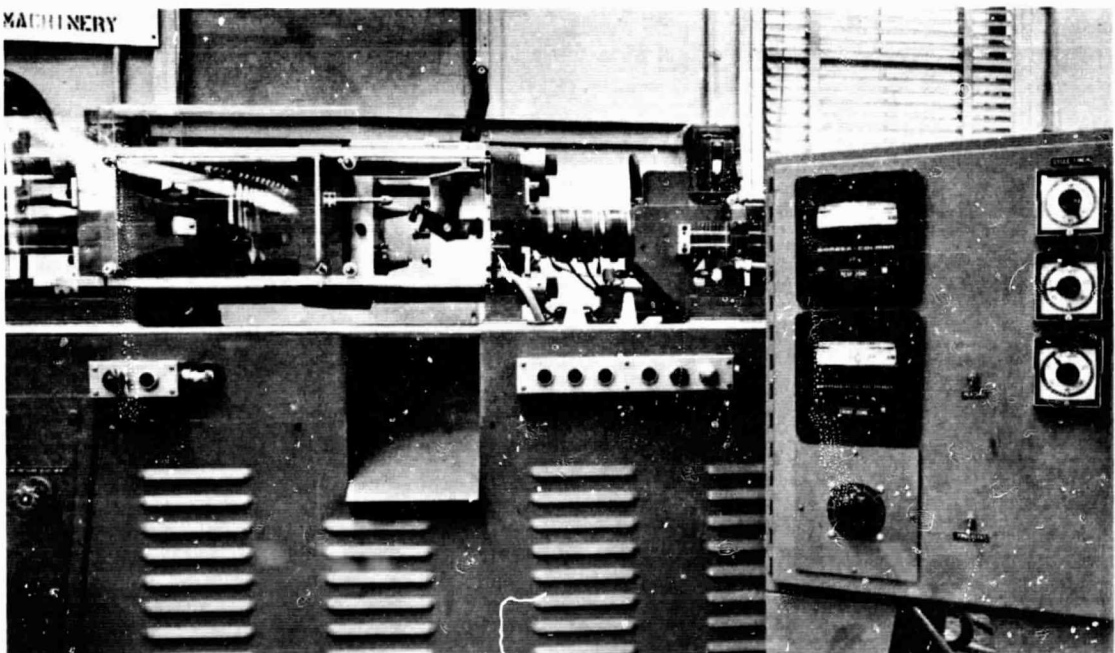
Ref. 28

Fig.41 Examples of model construction techniques



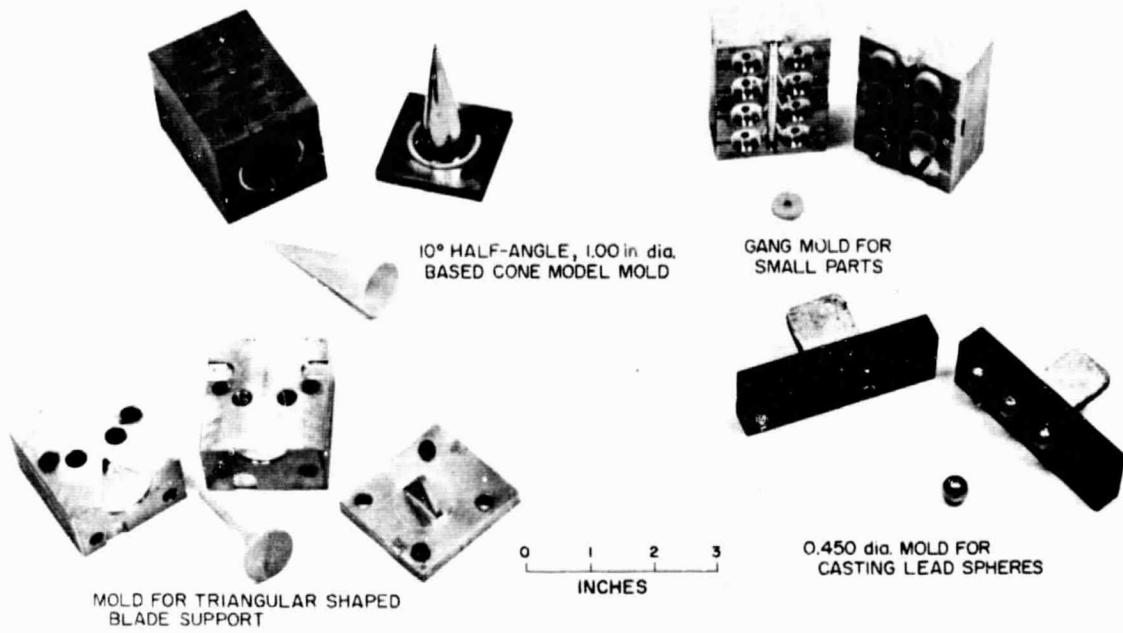
Ref. 45

Small (3/4 oz Capacity)



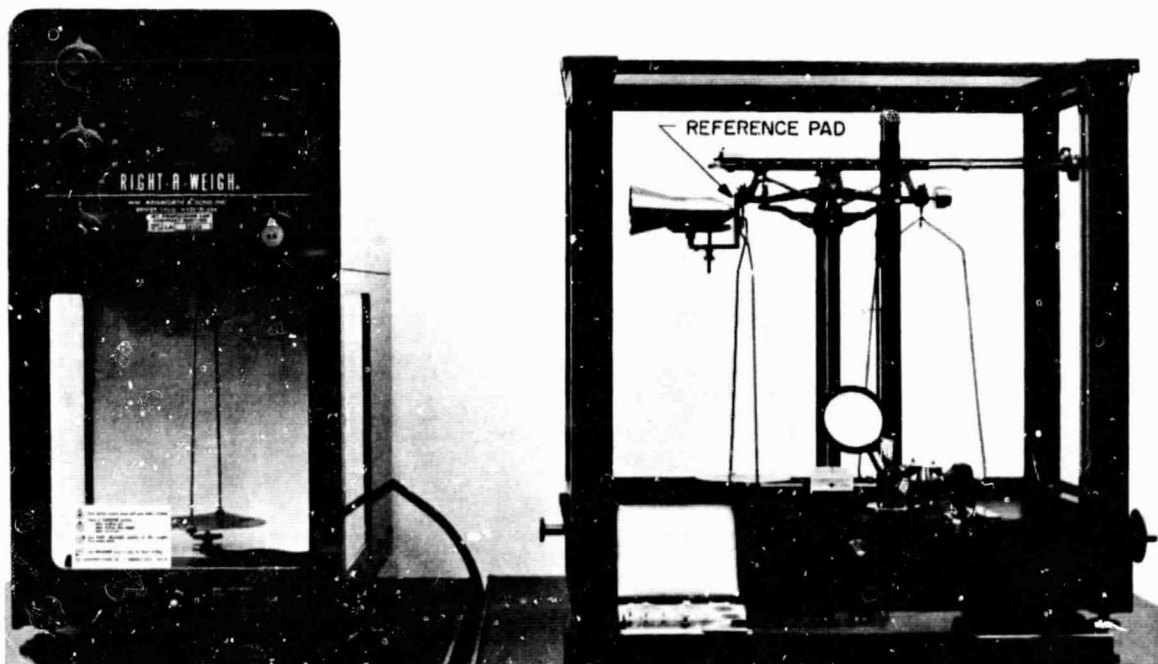
Large (3 oz Capacity)

Fig. 42 Injection molding presses



Ref. 45

Fig.43 Typical polystyrene model molding dies



Ref. 45

Fig.44 Analytical balances for locating the center of gravity

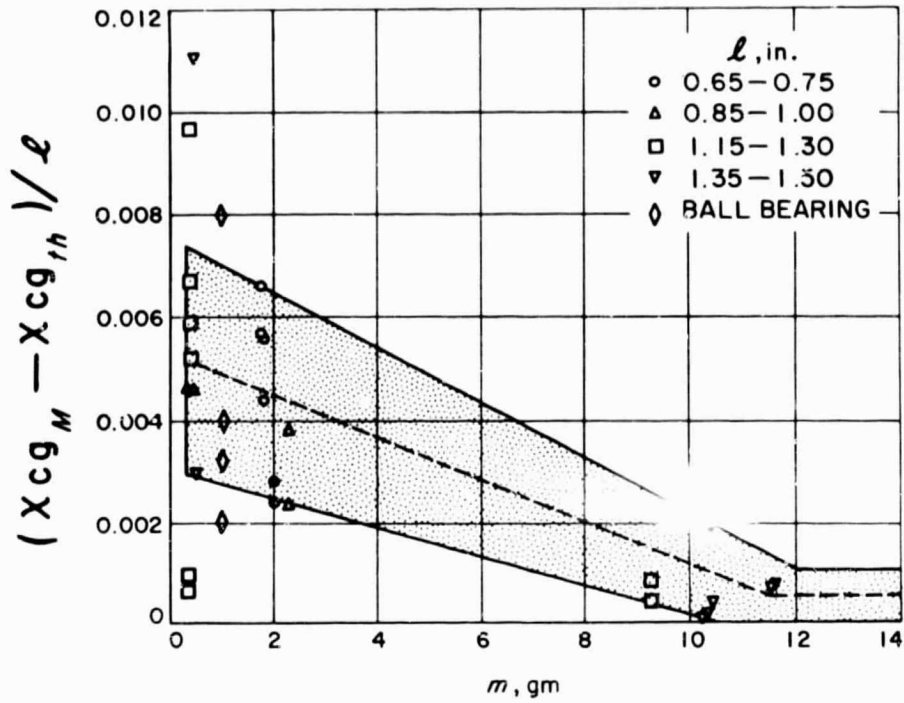
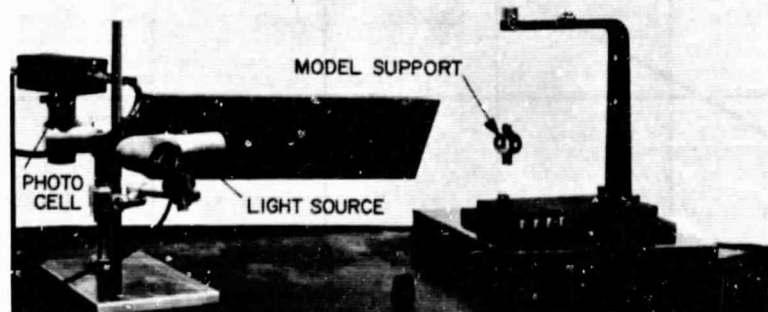
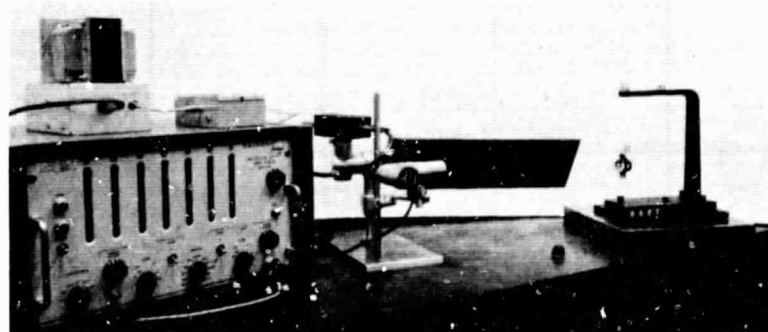


Fig. 45 Center-of-gravity measurement errors for constant cross-section calibration models



Ref. 45

Fig. 46 Instrument for measuring model moment of inertia

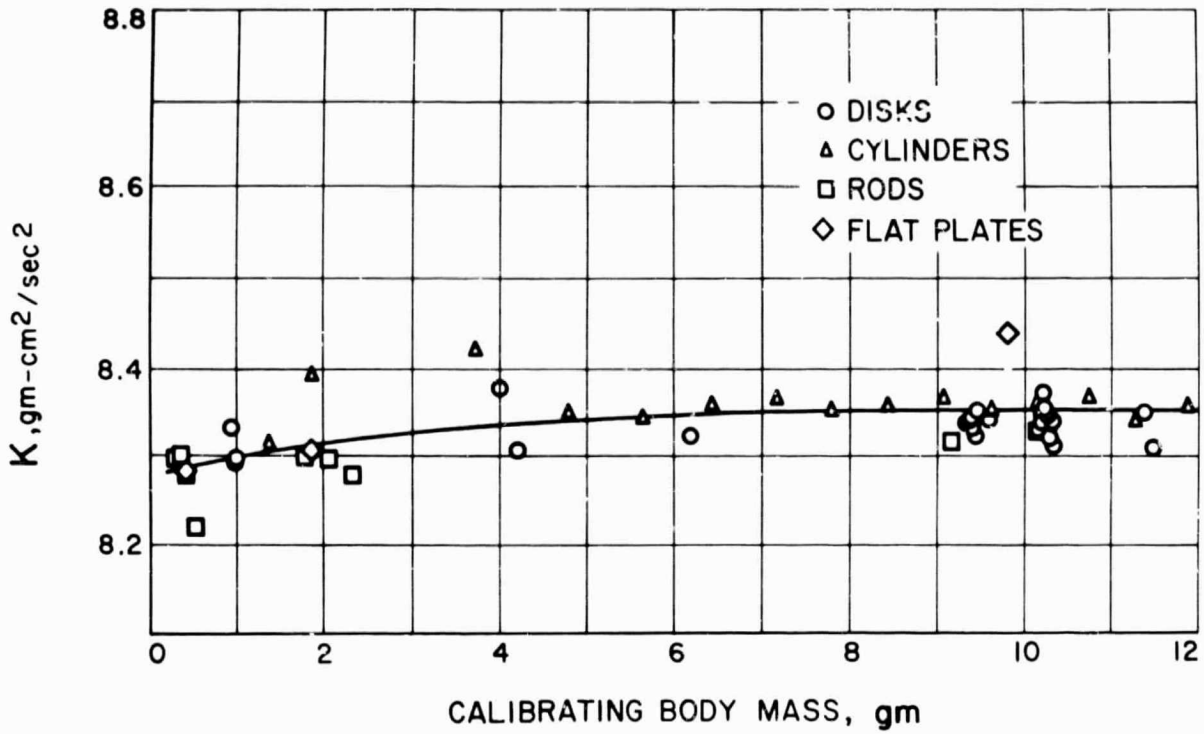


Fig. 47 Wire torsional constant calibration for moment of inertia measurements

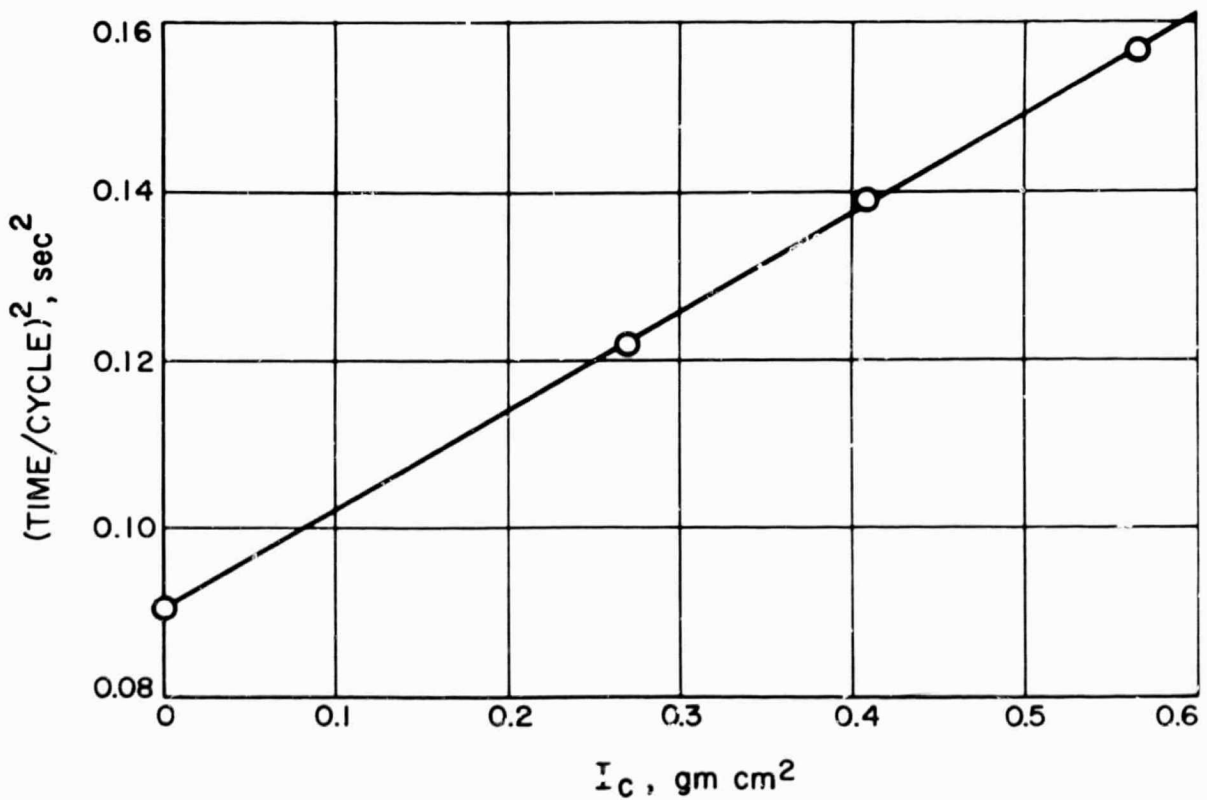


Fig. 48 Typical moment of inertia calibration for heavy models

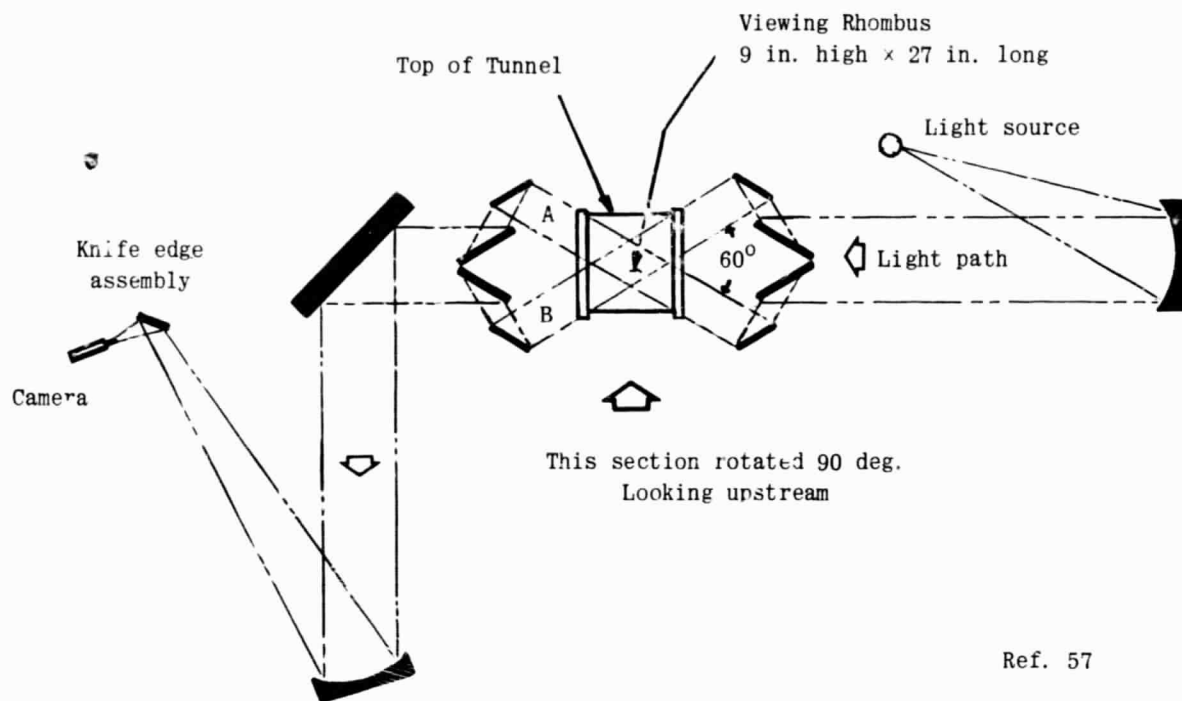


Fig. 49 Optical system for viewing non-planar free-flight motion

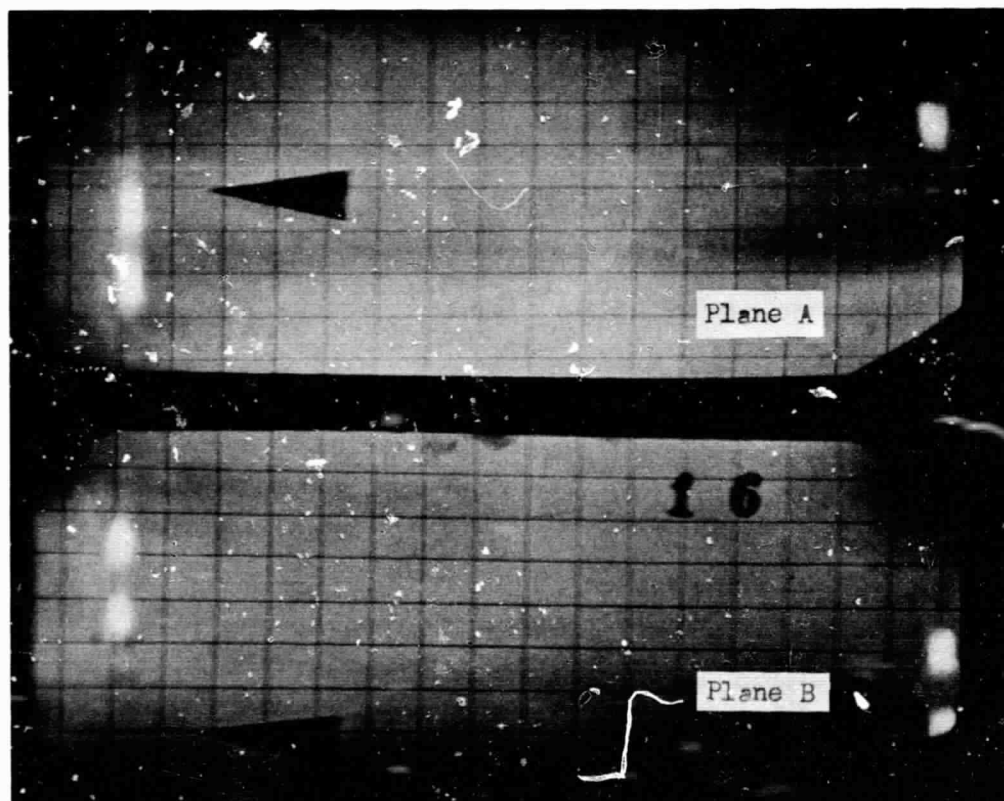
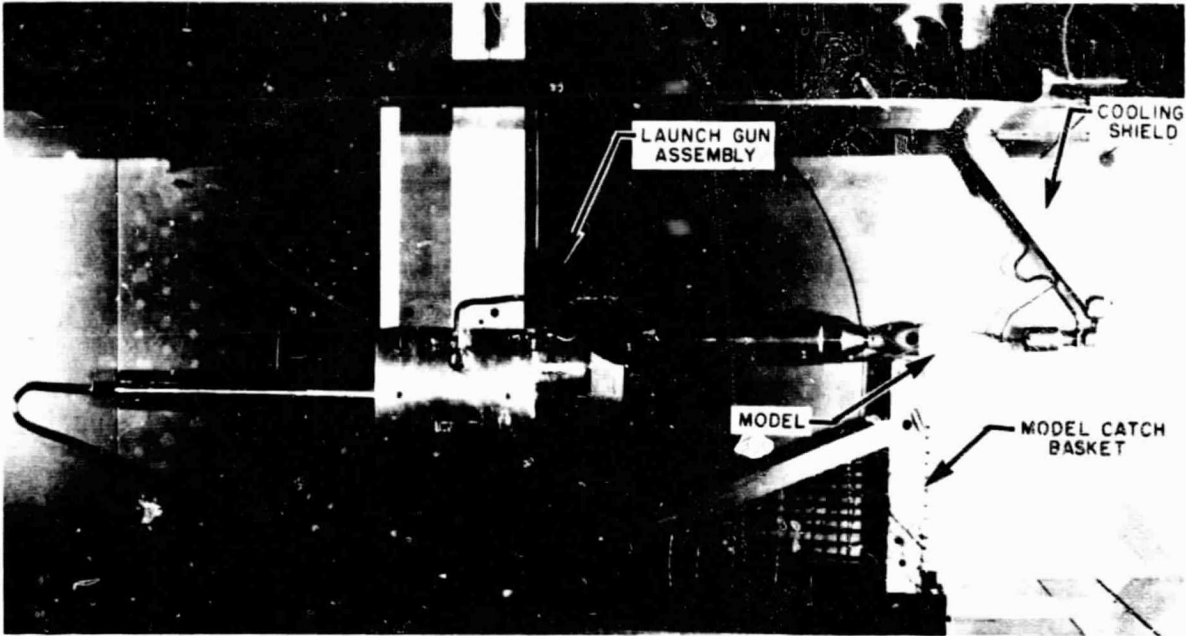
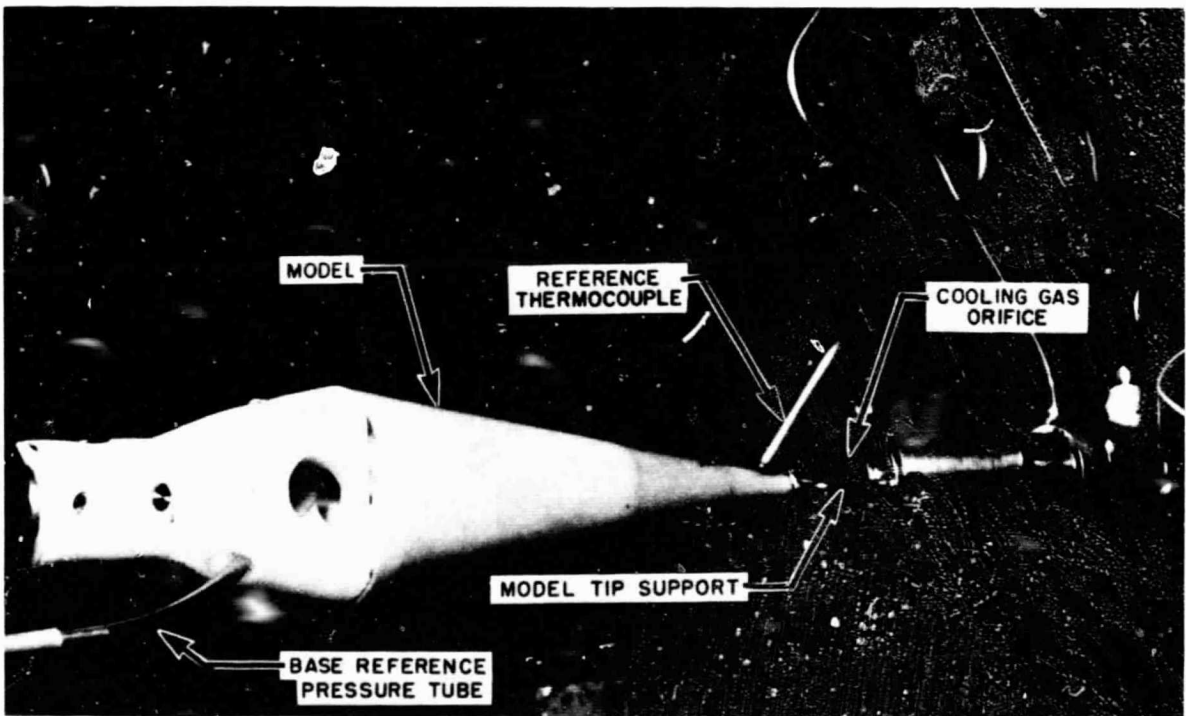


Fig. 50 Example of model photo using non-orthogonal two-plane optical system



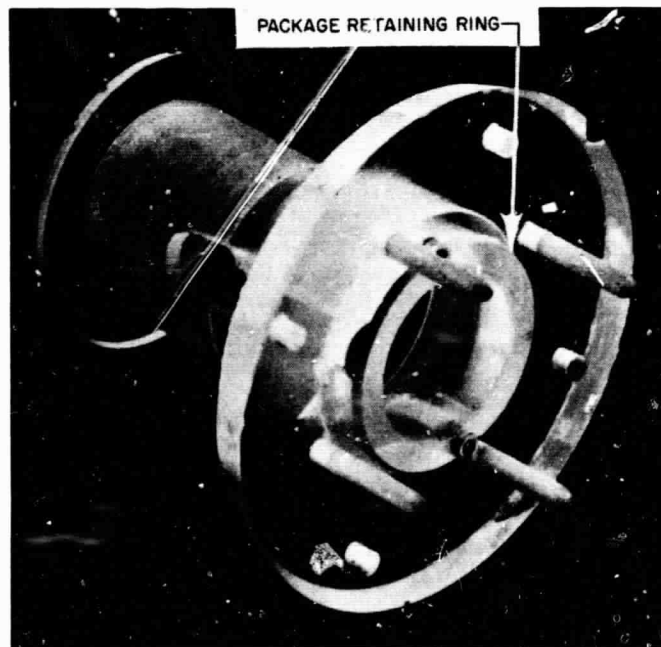
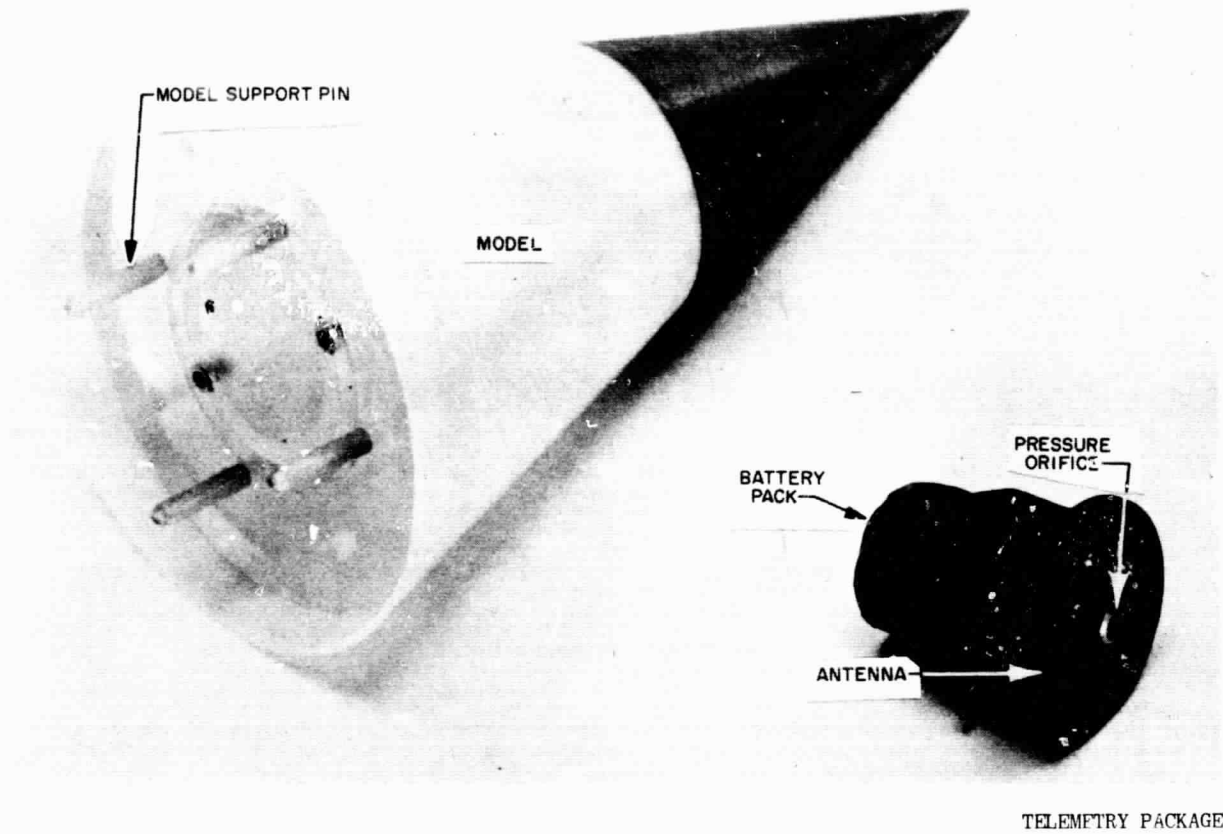
Complete Installation



Close-up of Model Region

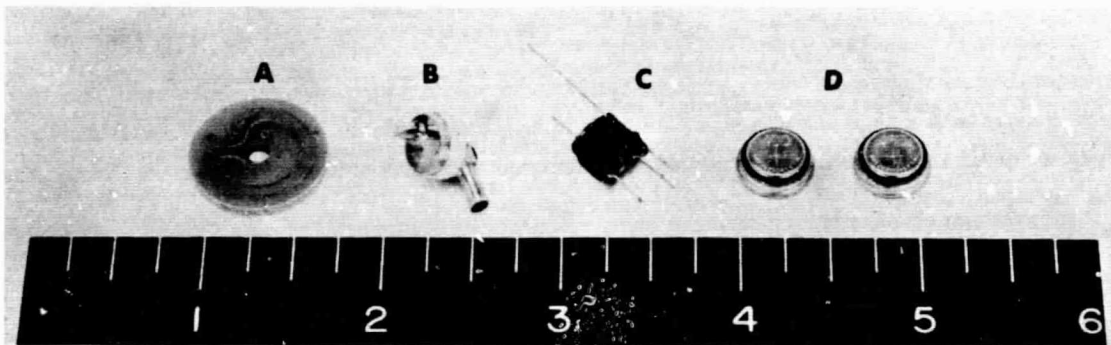
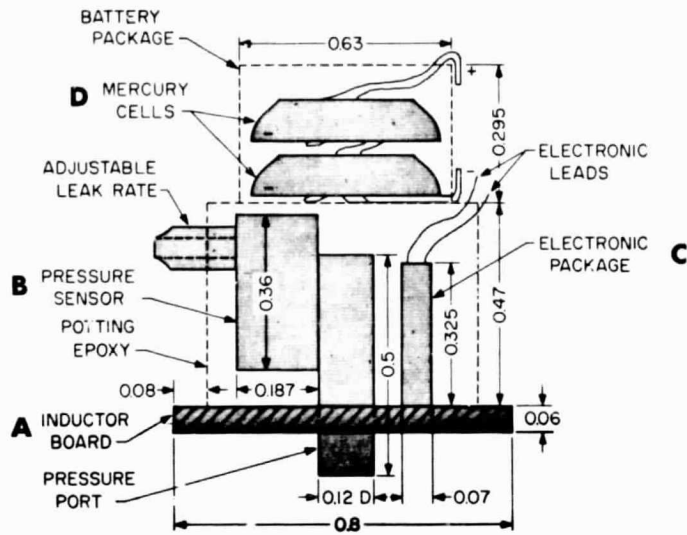
Ref. 38

Fig. 51 Gun-launch installation for base pressure telemetry model

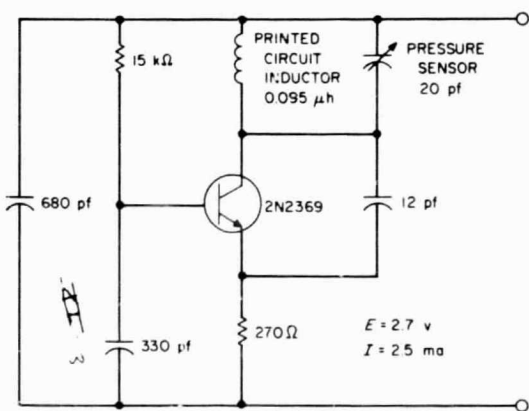


TELEMETRY PACKAGE HOLDER

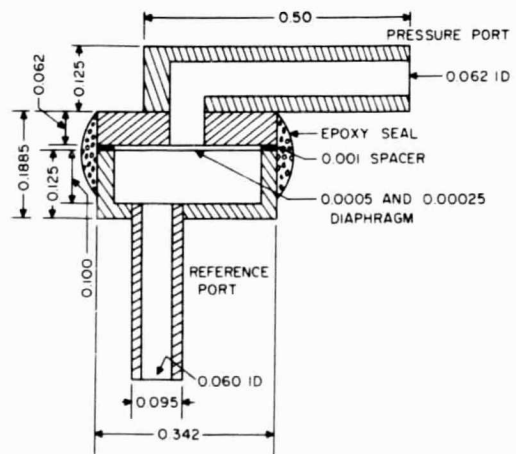
Fig. 52 Free-flight base pressure telemetry package



(a) Pressure telemetry components layout



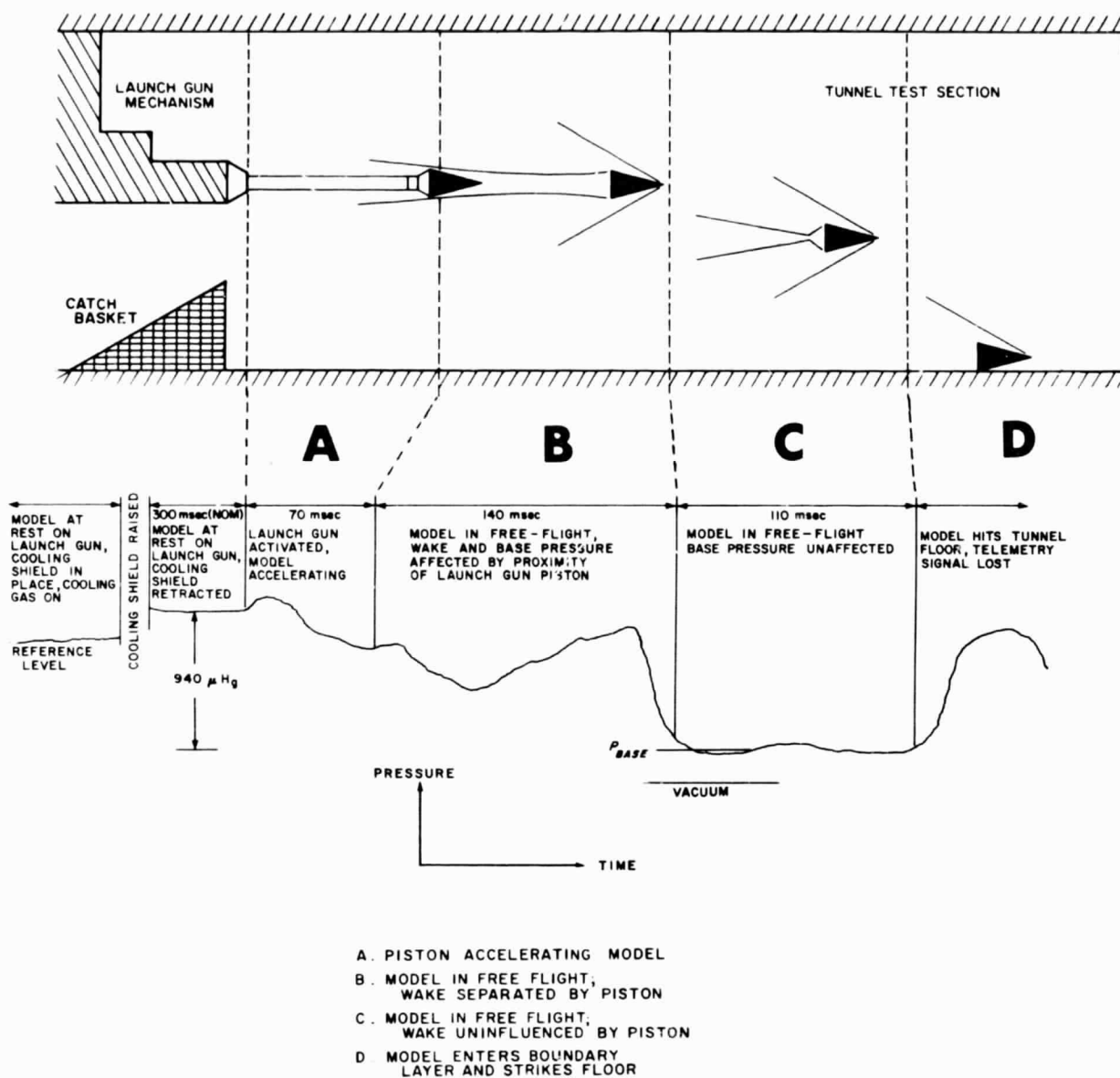
(b) Schematic diagram of telemetry oscillator



(c) Pressure sensor

ref. 58

Fig. 53 Details of pressure telemetry system



Ref. 38

FREE FLIGHT DATA
 ANTENNA TARE (PRESSURE SENSOR PLUGGED)



Fig. 54 Telemetry pressure data curve with corresponding model flight position

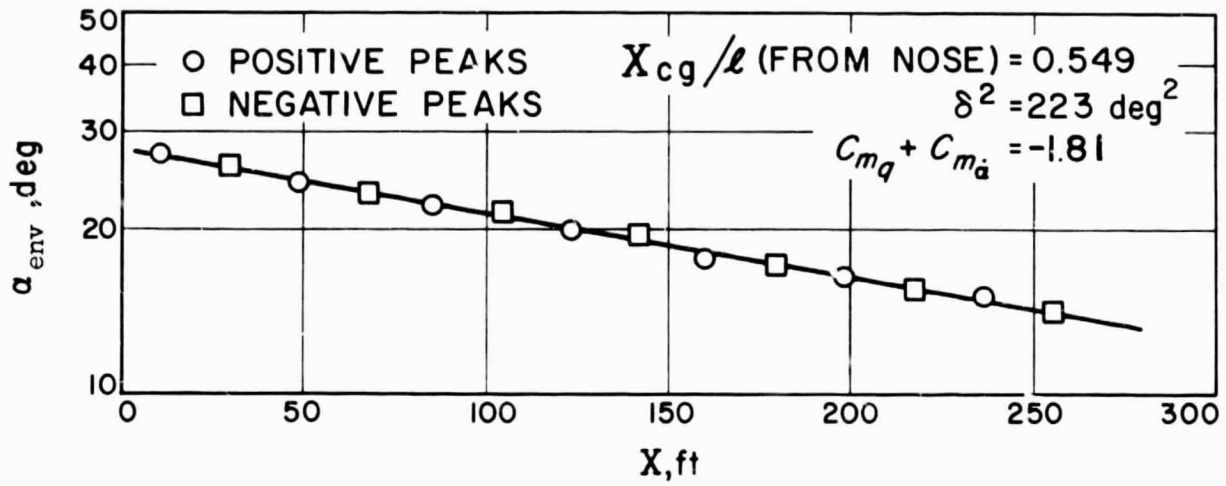


Fig. 55 Cone amplitudes for decaying oscillatory motion

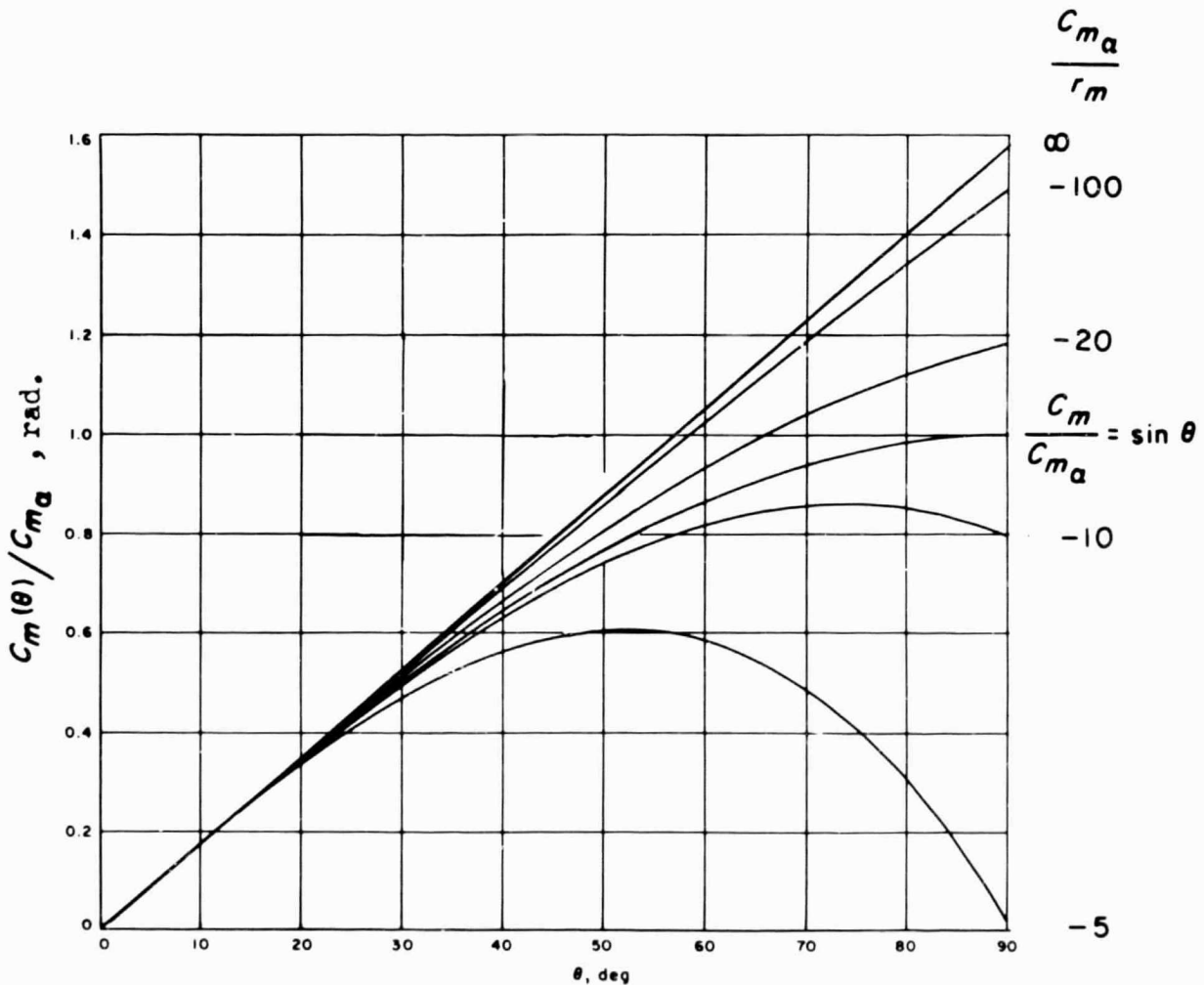


Fig. 56 Shapes of cubic pitching moment curves

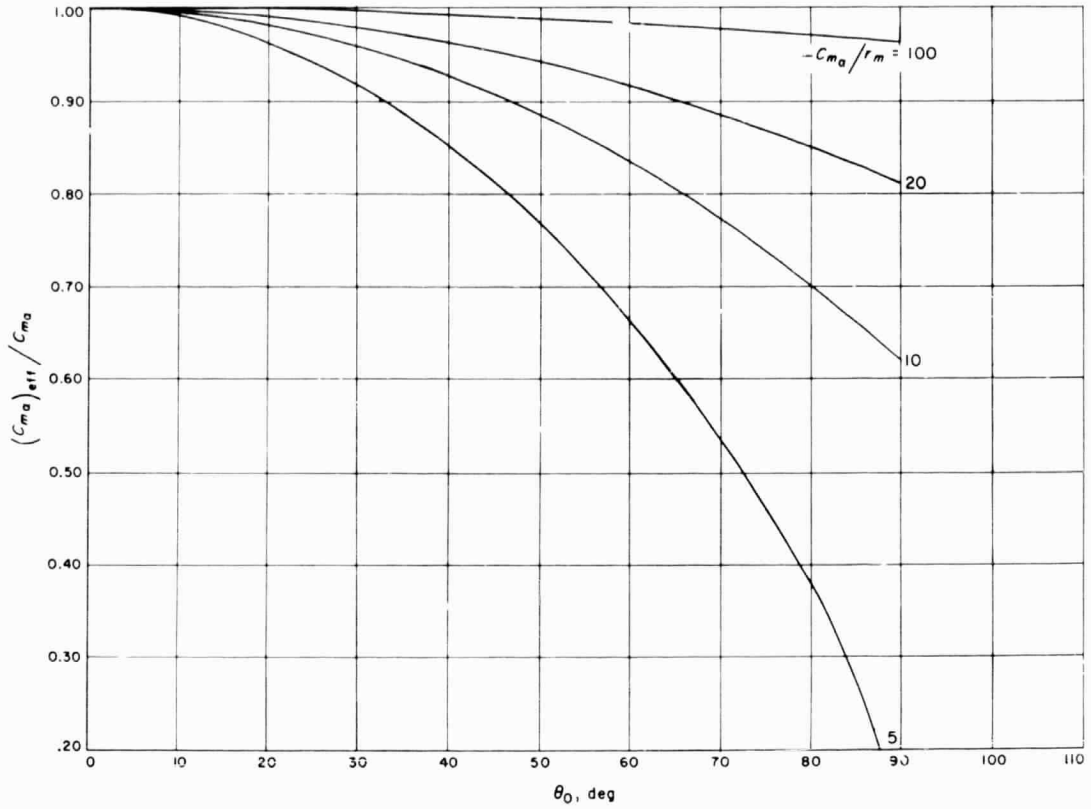


Fig. 57 $(C_{m\alpha})_{eff}/C_{m\alpha 0}$ versus θ_0 with varying $C_{m\alpha}/r_m$

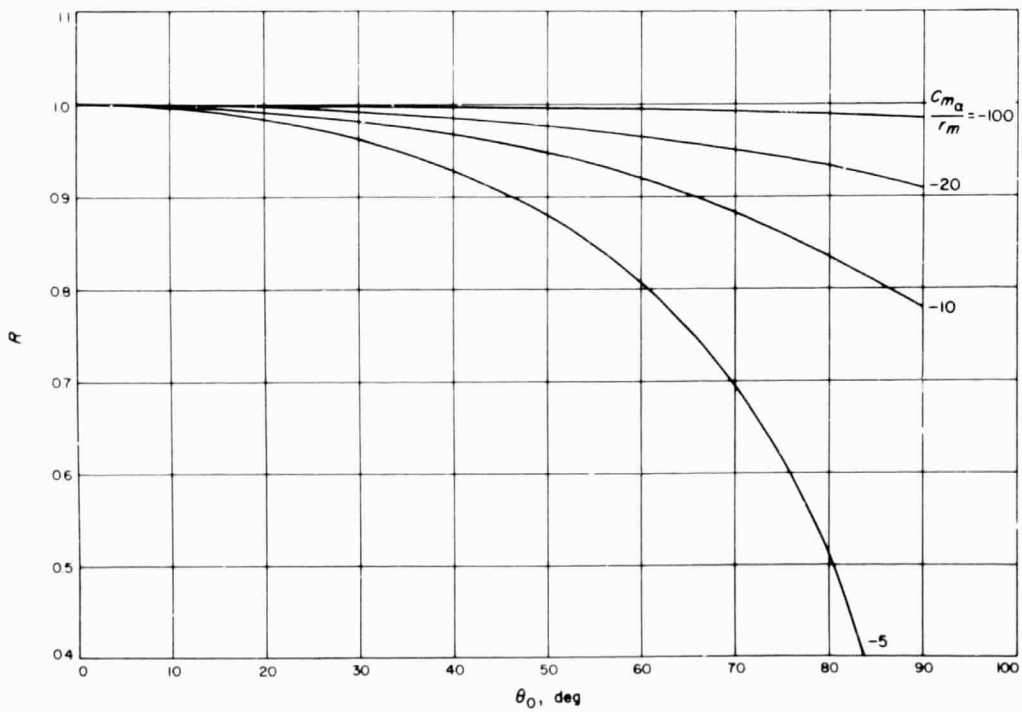


Fig. 58 Correction factor for effect of non-linear pitching moment on dynamic stability data reduction

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