A SURVEY OF METHODS FOR MEASURING THERMALLY INDUCED DISTORTIONS OF TEST ARTICLES UNDERGOING SOLAR THERMAL VACUUM TEST

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ABSTRACT

Recent trends in space vehicle test requirements have called for precise knowledge of small thermally induced distortions experienced either by various points on the vehicles or by deviations of surfaces from a known shape during solar thermal vacuum test. Various methods of gathering such information during test are presented in this paper. State-of-the-art application of both photographic and real time observation are discussed. The relative merits of each of the methods are compared and evaluated in their applications to different types of test articles and situations. Magnitudes of thermally induced distortions which may be expected to be routinely measurable by the various methods are presented and compared.

INTRODUCTION

In order to select the best methods of precisely measuring thermally induced distortions in test articles for various configurations and conditions, a survey of the current state-of-the-art was made. The survey includes investigation of the applicability of all reasonable methods of performing the measurements. Each method is discussed, and its applicability evaluated with respect to measurement type, test article type and environment, along with the resolution which can be ascribed to the particular instruments. A matrix summarizing the applicable channels of each method is presented as a conclusion.

PHOTOMGRAMMETRY

In the last decade and a half, nontopographic photogrammetry has been developed to routinely record and measure small distortions. Cameras suitable for operation inside of thermal vacuum chambers have been developed and used with a good degree of success. Owing to the capability of precisely locating a point on a developed plate with a comparator, accuracies of one part in sixty thousand of the largest diameter of the test article are routinely achievable. These, of course, are relative measurements. If absolute measurements are required, a suitable gauge bar is necessary which must be placed properly within the field of view of the cameras, and which will not change appreciably over the temperature range of the test.

The most important immediate application of photogrammetry to thermal vacuum testing is where knowledge of an entire surface is of interest. A photograph records the position of all points on the surface instantaneously whether the surface is in thermal equilibrium or not. No other methods can
record the changing of a flexible surface, but only the initial and final
positions when thermal equilibrium is established. Also, any line of sight
application will only give information concerning a few points rather than
the whole surface at once. It is often of interest to know how much a sur-
face such as an antenna mesh deviates from a known preset configuration such
as a paraboloid of revolution. Photogrammetry provides this knowledge accu-
rately and routinely. Also, a permanent record is taken which may be recalled
later for additional analysis without having to rerun an expensive test.

The photogrammetric process depends on affixing of a large number of
adhesive targets to the surface of the test article. Test articles which
cannot tolerate such targets or are not capable of being distinctly targetted
in some other way, are generally not measurable by photogrammetric means.
Presently, NASA is investigating the possibility of mensurating the thermo-
reflective tiles on the STS orbiter for distortion after each flight by
photogrammetric means.

The greatest drawback of this process is that the data are not available
in real time. After the plates are developed, several days are required to
measure and reduce the data. This process must be performed by highly
trained and experienced personnel, and therefore photogrammetric capabilities
are most easily acquired through a subcontractor. If many tests are to be
made, development of the capability in-house may be cost effective, but due
to the experience required on the learning curve, such development will not
come quickly.

DIRECT LINE-OF-SIGHT METHODS

For purposes of this discussion, these types of measuring techniques will
be confined to direct optical line of sight established by instrumentation
sighting through a window in the thermal vacuum chamber. The requirement
of a window adds expense for optical flatness as well as for the thickness
required for vacuum safety. All instruments employing optical line of sight
detect movement perpendicular to the line of sight. This requires that no
surfaces which bend or otherwise redirect the line of sight be used unless
their movement is independently monitored. Since the instrumentation required
to monitor the beam bending apparatus is equivalent to the instrumentation
making the measurements of interest, it is hardly advantageous to bend the
beam unless geometry requires it. Hence, the term "direct line of sight". This
is demonstrated in figure one.

The great advantage of direct line of sight (DLOS) is that initial
coarse alignment may be achieved quite easily by personnel outside the vacuum
chamber. There are two requirements to ensure meaningful DLOS performance.
The first is that all instrumentation must be mounted on stable fixtures
which are not disturbed by the movement of personnel and equipment outside
the chamber. The second is that the test article has distinctly identifiable
and precisely locatable "targets".

For measurements where orientational changes only are of interrest,
theodolites may be used. Good instruments have resolutions $1 \times 10^{-5}$ rad
for the manual types and $3 \times 10^{-5}$ rad for the electronic digital types.
The measurements are made by sighting on a suitable optical target or autocolimating with the theodolite on an optical mirror. One optical target or one mirror is necessary per rotational axis of interest.

For measurements of translation of distinct points in three-dimensional space, there are several ways of obtaining the information. A jig transit square mounted on a tooling bar with an optical micrometer may be travelled parallel to the absolute measurement of interest. Two instruments mounted on mutually perpendicular tooling bars would be required for measurement in the plane perpendicular to the DLOS. A third instrument could be sighted perpendicular to the DLOS of the first two to recover information from the remaining axis. Such a setup would require at least two vacuum windows mounted in planes at right angles. Since tooling bars are so large and massive, continuous checks are necessary to confirm that the bars themselves are not moving with respect to the vacuum chamber. Resolution of a good optical micrometer is $5 \times 10^{-6}$ M.

If sufficient field of view is available through windows, measurements may be made by triangulation with theodolites. Manual theodolites may be used, but the calculations required with their use are cumbersome. Digital theodolite systems have the advantage of computer interface which facilitates computation of positions of points in space once calibration is set. If a temperature independent gauge bar is not available, a normal gauge bar may be placed outside the chamber for purposes of calibration with no loss of accuracy. An important advantage of the digital theodolite is that angles are "read" automatically and the values transferred to the computer, relieving the operator of reading a vernier, thus greatly decreasing his eye fatigue.

An interesting application of theodolites may be made when the angular measurements of interest are quite small. In such a case, a lens system may be mounted on the telescope of the theodolite to convert it to a remote "microscope". In this instance, care must be taken to affix fine enough marks or scratches on the test article.

The two draw backs of all DLOS applications are optical vacuum windows which are quite expensive, and training of operating personnel.

An application of theodolites to perform stereotriangulation mensuration of a test article is shown in figure two.

**Laser Interferometry**

In contrast to DLOS instruments, laser interferometers are capable of measuring \textit{change in optical path length}, which is parallel to the optical path. Since the capability of counting interference fringes is the fundamental principal of detection, resolutions of fractions of optical wavelengths are possible. Typical resolutions of $\lambda/8$ are routinely achievable. This translates into about $8 \times 10^{-8}$ M for a Helium-Neon laser, which is the most commonly used for applications of this type. Since change in optical path is simply \textit{twice the actual "distortion"} along that path, real time readout of actual distortion values is possible. In most cases, dynamic
thermal distortions may be continuously monitored in real time, since interferometers may be rigged to count fringes equivalent to a distortion rate of several meters per minute.

Although it is not quite a "drawback", a complication of laser interferometry is that a separate beam must be used to detect change in path for each path of interest. If rotation is of interest, since it takes place in a plane, at least two beams are required for measurement about only one axis. Also, since change along the entire path is detected, if the beam must be "bent", the movement of the beam bending apparatus must be monitored by an additional beam and subtracted out in order to make the measurement of interest meaningful. Figure three shows a typical laser setup to measure the distortion of a rectangular parallelepiped. All beams may be brought in through the same window, (allowing measurement of "hidden" points), or through different windows. If a multichannel interferometer is used, all measurements may be simultaneously monitored in real time. The best way to take advantage of all data is to interface with a computer and reconstruct the motion of the test article as a whole from the path length changes detected by the interferometers.

The expense of the laser head or heads and the interferometers with their associated electronic counting equipment and computers are the only drawback to their wholesale application for distortion measurements. If the interferometers are designed properly, the vacuum windows may be of only average optical quality without affecting performance appreciably. The magnitudes of the distortions, however, must be kept quite small, < 1 cm to prevent the beams from being "lost" from the aperture of the retroreflectors. It would be impractical to attempt to measure a large number of points to "cover" a whole surface due to the amount of beams required along with the sophisticated monitoring equipment for each. These methods are best applicable therefore to structural assemblies such as trusses rather than to surfaces. Flexible members cannot be measured by laser interferometers since the retroreflectors must be rigidly mounted.

CONCLUSION

Table one shows the various types of instruments and their respective applicability for various types of measurements, test articles, and test environments. In each case, the minimum number of instruments or laser beams necessary to make the measurement is stated. Greater redundancy can, in general, increase the accuracy of any particular measurement. This may be achieved by increasing the number of instruments, provided each is aligned along an additional line of sight or optical path. Additional cameras will also increase the photogrammetric accuracy with the same proviso.
CHAMBER

THIS MIRROR MUST BE MONITORED BY THE SAME METHOD AS USED ON THE TARGET.

TARGET

INSTRUMENT TO MONITOR MIRROR

WINDOW

MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

DLOS

LOS

LOS

ONLY ONE INSTRUMENT FOR DLOS

THE DLOS ELIMINATES EXTRA MONITORING, AND SHOULD BE USED UNLESS GEOMETRY PROHIBITS.

FIG. 1 DLOS CONCEPT
FIG. 2

TYPICAL STEREOTRIANGULATION SETUP WITH THEODOLITES. COMPUTER SHOWN FOR DIGITAL ELECTRONIC THEODOLITES. GAUGE BAR MAY BE PLACED EITHER INSIDE OR OUTSIDE OF CHAMBER.
FIG. 3 TYPICAL SETUP FOR LASER INTERFEROMETRIC MENSURATION OF ONE FACE OF A RECTANGULAR PARALLELEPIPED. MINIMUM INSTRUMENTATION IS 4 SEPARATE INTERFEROMETER BEAMS (B1-B4), 4 RETROREFLECTORS (RR1-RR4) AND TWO MIRRORS (M1, M2). THIS SETUP MENSURATES MOTION IN THE PLANE OF THE FACE ONLY. FOR MOTION PERPENDICULAR TO THE FACE, ADDITIONAL BEAMS B5-B8 WITH THEIR RESPECTIVE MIRRORS AND RETROREFLECTORS ARE NEEDED. THESE BEAMS ALSO MENSURATE THE LOWER "END" FACE OF THE ARTICLE.