

# NACA HIGH ENERGY ROCKET PROPELLANT RESEARCH IN THE FIFTIES

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Panel on Rocketry in the 1950's

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To better understand the high energy rocket propellant work at the NACA Lewis Flight Propulsion Laboratory during the fifties, we need to take a look at the origins of the work in the forties. Rocket research at the Cleveland laboratory began with the Big Switch in the fall of 1945. The laboratory had been slow in recognizing the advantages of the turbine engine.<sup>b</sup> During the war years, the work was concentrated on ad hoc problem solving for military piston engines. While the laboratory was thus engaged, others were rapidly progressing in jet engine R&D. The moment of truth came to NACA in 1945 and overnight the NACA management switched the laboratory emphasis from piston engines to jet

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<sup>b</sup>There were a few exceptions. Some may recall Eastman Jacob's "Jeep" an experimental jet engine at Langley which the author helped to operate in 1942.

engines and the staff was reorganized from stem to stern in the process. A small group was even assigned to rocket engine research.<sup>C</sup> But the political climate in Washington was such that NACA leaders in Washington did not want to proclaim publicly that they were sanctioning work on guided missiles in an aeronautical laboratory so the group was officially called the High Pressure Combustion Section. The name remained until 1949 when Abe Silverstein, taking over technical management of the laboratory, upgraded the importance and status of the rocket effort and the small group became the Rocket Research Branch.

When the rocket group first got organized in 1945 and surveyed the field, it quickly became apparent that we had a lot of catching up to do. The German work was read with great interest. The publications of the prestigious Jet Propulsion Laboratory, the U. S. leader, became our textbooks. To make a contribution so late and with so few, our leaders

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<sup>C</sup>The sweeping reorganization caught the lower-level supervisors and researchers by surprise. The author went home one night deeply engaged in writing a report on spark plug fouling to find in the morning that his desk was in another building and he was now officially engaged in rocket engine cooling research.

wisely directed that we work in lesser ploughed fields. That is why we concentrated on high-energy liquid rocket propellants, combustion, and cooling and left solid rockets to others. It has remained so to this day.

The propellant work was straightforward. We first computed the theoretical performance of candidate high energy propellant combinations and then selected the most promising for experimental evaluation. This sometimes led into more detailed investigations of propellant characteristics, starting, combustion, and cooling--technical areas being studied in parallel using more conventional propellants. Because of this interaction, and for general interest, a bibliography of the rocket papers published by NACA from 1948 through 1960 for Lewis research is given here.<sup>1-177</sup>

Although not first in the field of theoretical performance calculations of propellants, Vearl Huff and his associates made a major contribution in 1948. They developed a rapidly convergent successive approximation process for the laborous calculations.<sup>6</sup> Huff's method was ideally suited for programming on a computer, which was beginning to come into greater use, and he took full advantage of this

powerful aid. Huff, Gordon, and others explored theoretically the field of high energy propellants and provided a guide and reference framework for experimental investigators. By the end of the fifties they had published many reports<sup>1-29</sup> including a refinement to their basic calculation technique.<sup>27</sup> They developed the capability to respond rapidly to the varying needs of analyst and experimenter alike and ground out reams of machine tabulations in the process.

Paul Ordin headed the early work on high energy propellants. The first fuels he and his group investigated were hydrazine,<sup>d</sup> diborane,<sup>e</sup> and ammonia. Oxidizers were chlorine trifluoride, hydrogen peroxide, and liquid oxygen.<sup>30-33</sup>

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<sup>d</sup>The enthusiasm of rocket men sometimes led to taking calculated risks. The author recalls one Lewis man who was given a sample of hydrazine in another city and was confronted with the problem of transporting it. The stability of hydrazine was in question and it could not be readily shipped. He solved the problem by simply putting the sample in his pocket and bringing it home with him on the train.

<sup>e</sup>Our first diborane came from Buffalo Electrochemical Company and the engineer delivered it in his own car. The author remembers walking out to see it nestled in dry ice in a box on the rear seat, complete with a safety device, a whisk broom. The latter was soon put into use. As a small amount of diborane leaked past the valve and ignited, he neatly whisked the flame and problem away.



In May 1948, the Lewis laboratory held a conference on its latest fuels research. Nine papers were presented: two on knock-limited performance of piston engines by some die-hard investigators, six on fuels for turbojets and ramjets, and one on diborane as a rocket fuel.<sup>178</sup> Both theoretical and experimental performance of diborane was presented; the latter with hydrogen peroxide and liquid oxygen as oxidizers. Deposits of boron oxides were encountered and discussed but their significance with regard to later events was not fully realized. Several years later boron hydrides as high energy fuels for jet engines were the focus of a major effort by the Navy (Project ZIP). One of the problems that contributed to its demise was the gluey combustion products of boron that stuck to turbine blades like ice to a wing.<sup>179</sup>

In the late forties, we became intrigued with the ultimate stable oxidizer, liquid fluorine. Our early investigations gave us a healthy respect for this powerful oxidizer which others had already tested in gaseous form. Ordin wanted to use it as a liquid oxidizer and was, we believe, the first to do so. William Rowe devised a fancy

rig that served both as a rocket oxidizer system for the test and the fluorine transport trailer. The fluorine tank was suspended on a weigh beam and immersed in a liquid nitrogen bath. The gaseous fluorine from the supplier, Harshaw Chemical Company in Cleveland, was fed directly to the propellant tank and liquefied. Working with local authorities, the best route and time were selected to minimize risk of collision during transport. In the dark hours of early morning, the caravan travelled the streets of Cleveland to the laboratory led by a police car, then a NACA car, the trailer, another NACA car with a police car bringing up the rear. It worked well without mishap.

Of all the fuels he could have chose, Ordin selected diborane for his first experiments with liquid fluorine. Huff's calculations showed the specific impulse to be high, the density to be high, and there would be no deposit problems from boron fluorides. The hooker was the combustion temperature which peaks at nearly 5400 degrees Kelvin at 300 pounds per square inch chamber pressure<sup>3</sup>. On our first attempt, the engine melted so rapidly that we believed that we had achieved every one of those 5400 degrees Kelvin. Ordin and Howard Douglass finally succeeded in operating an engine

long enough to measure performance but it required some ingenuity. They had to surround the diborane jet with a flowing sheath of helium to prevent the fluorine from reacting with the diborane at the injector face and burning the wall in the process.<sup>34</sup> After that we became somewhat disenchanted with diborane as a fuel. We saw no reasonable way to cool a diborane-fluorine engine for diborane is not very good as a coolant. Interest in diborane continues, especially as a space-storable fuel,<sup>180-183</sup> but it is still handicapped by cooling problems. (NASA has a current contract with Rocketdyne on this problem.)

Our first experience with fluorine only intensified our interest. We worked with fluorine throughout the fifties. We used it neat with ammonia-hydrazine,<sup>35</sup> ammonia,<sup>36, 38</sup> and hydrazine.<sup>47</sup> Our biggest effort with fluorine, however, came in the second half of the decade in using it with liquid hydrogen.<sup>f</sup>

We also became interested in oxygen bifluoride but did not obtain enough to use it in a rocket engine. Instead we

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<sup>f</sup> Sometime around the mid-fifties Ordin was carried away in another of those laboratory reorganizations and the experimental propellant work was continued by Howard Douglass, George Kinney, Edward Rothenberg, William Tomazic, and others.

turned to fluorine-oxygen mixtures for use with hydrocarbons. Fluorine added to oxygen looked like a promising way to boost the performance of oxygen-JP (jet fuel) engines for rocket boosters. Best performance comes from mixtures where the fluorine-oxygen atom ratio matches the carbon-hydrogen atom ratio. Many experiments were conducted on this combination from 1953 to 1958.<sup>37, 40, 41, 43, 45</sup>

As any student of rocket propulsion quickly finds, liquid hydrogen is an ideal rocket fuel for obtaining high thrust per pound expended. Tsiolkovsky, the Russian rocket pioneer, considered hydrogen-oxygen in 1903 and Goddard in 1909. By the latter forties interest in hydrogen was fairly strong. Dr. Herrick Johnston, his assistants, and students were deeply involved in the study of hydrogen properties and liquefaction and established a rocket laboratory in 1946. By the end of the forties Ohio State University,<sup>184</sup> Jet Propulsion Laboratory,<sup>185</sup> and Aerojet Engineering Corporation<sup>186, 187</sup> had conducted rocket experiments with hydrogen. The largest of these activities was the Navy sponsored work at Aerojet which has recently been documented<sup>188</sup> Aerojet built a hydrogen liquefaction plant, pumped liquid hydrogen, and operated a 3000 pound thrust rocket by 1949.



Plans for experimenting with hydrogen at Lewis began in the early fifties as part of our high energy propellant program. We wanted to work with high energy propellants using larger engines and longer times than had been done previously. The high energy combinations of particular interest were hydrogen-oxygen, hydrogen-fluorine, and ammonia-fluorine but we were hampered by the lack of adequate facilities. At a November 1952 meeting of the Special Subcommittee on Rocket Engines, Walter Olson and the author described a \$8.5 million facility which was primarily for high energy propellants but would also be useful for high-availability, low-cost propellants. The proposed facility<sup>189</sup> was unique in four features: 1) the thrust for high energy propellants was to be 20,000 pounds, 2) fluorine was to be generated and liquefied at the site and hydrogen was to be liquefied at the site, 3) special exhaust gas treatment, designed from results of NASA research, would remove hydrogen fluoride from the exhaust, and 4) silencing equipment would muffle the noise

of rocket operation. The Subcommittee endorsed the research program and facility proposal<sup>g</sup>

By the time it was authorized, the facility had been considerably pared down in cost and capability including elimination of the second feature. However, we retained the capability to operate 20,000 pound thrust fluorine-hydrogen rockets and the scrubbing and silencing features.<sup>h</sup>

The facility was placed into operation in 1956 and performed as designed. The engines exhausted into a large duct. Over 50,000 gallons of water per minute, in hundreds of sprays, absorbed the hydrogen fluoride and completely

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<sup>g</sup>Subcommittee membership was: M. J. Zucrow, Chairman, Lt. Col. L. F. Ayers, USAF, R. B. Canright, R. B. Foster, S. L. Gendler, P. R. Hill, Eugene Miller, G. E. Moore, T. E. Myers, J. H. Sheets, J. L. Sloop, R. J. Thompson, P. F. Thompson, P. F. Winternitz, D. A. Young, Cdr. K. C. Childers USN, Capt. Levering Smith USN, and B. E. Gammon (sec'y). Cdr. Childers and Capt. Smith were unable to attend the November 13-14, 1952 meeting.

<sup>h</sup>In negotiations for the facility with NACA Headquarters and with the Bureau of the Budget, we were considerably aided by the hearty endorsement of M. J. Zucrow. In addition to being Chairman of the NACA Special Subcommittee on Rocket Engines, Zucrow as past chairman of the Panel on Propulsion and Fuels of the Research and Development Board and was familiar with rocket facilities and needs.<sup>190</sup>

muffled the noise. The water was held in a tank and later treated with calcium hydroxide and the inert calcium fluoride precipitate was hauled away. We were ahead of the environmentalists.<sup>i</sup>

The supply problems for fluorine and liquid hydrogen were eventually resolved. Hans Newmark of Allied Chemical was interested in fluorine manufacture and transport for rockets and developed a safe method for transporting liquid fluorine. Earlier we had requested and received authorization for a small hydrogen cryostat for making liquid hydrogen and it was placed into operation. About the same time we obtained surplus military equipment of greater capacity. Later, and because of interest in liquid hydrogen for aircraft, we were able to get liquid hydrogen trucked in from an Air Force plant in Painsville, Ohio. During these developments, however, we had to resort to operating first with gaseous hydrogen.<sup>48</sup>

During the build-up of facilities, Huff made a major contribution to experimental testing. About 1952 he proposed

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<sup>i</sup>George Kinney, a key man in the rocket effort, was detached from research to be the principal design engineer of the new facility. He did an outstanding job of making it a success. (A brief description of the facility is in references 48 and 193).

that the rocket's own exhaust could be used in an ejector action to simulate altitude performance of rocket nozzles. With this technique we could test large area ratio nozzles that are characteristic of upper stage engines. Moreover, the concept fitted neatly into plans for scrubbing and silencing the exhaust. Huff, Fortini, and others experimentally tried the concept and it works.<sup>49, 52, 58, 60</sup>

As we continued to increase our capability in the mid fifties, we received an extra boost from the laboratory director. Silverstein became very enthusiastic about the potentials of liquid hydrogen both as a high energy fuel for high-altitude aircraft<sup>191</sup> and as a high energy rocket fuel. With his strong backing we began to make more rapid progress in our objective to build and test lightweight, regenerative cooled hydrogen-oxygen and hydrogen-fluorine engines of 5000 and 20,000 pounds thrust.<sup>j</sup>

With characteristic confidence, Silverstein announced a propulsion conference for November 1957. Liquid hydrogen as a

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<sup>j</sup>One afternoon after work hours, Silverstein held one of his famous bull sessions. This one was a "design conference" complete with beer furnished at his own expense. From this session came his approval of our showerhead injector design which later proved so successful. A description of the injector design is in reference 48 and the chamber design in reference 56.



fuel for turbojets, ramjets, and rockets was a major topic of the conference.<sup>192</sup> The conference required much data that was yet to be obtained. To us it meant much night and weekend work to meet the tight schedule with meaningful data. To Douglass it meant a little more. He was to report on the experimental performance of hydrogen-fluorine using our lightweight regeneratively cooled chamber but he encountered an unusual amount of difficulty. He and his team worked around the clock several times and finally, in the early morning hours of the conference day, he achieved success. At the scheduled time, Douglass casually presented the performance curves with a five hour old key data point dubbed in with grease pencil.

Work continued on both hydrogen-fluorine and hydrogen-oxygen. During 1959 and using our simulated altitude technique, we operated a regeneratively cooled hydrogen-flourine engine with area ratios of 25:1 and 100:1. Actual performance was almost 100 percent of theoretical performance. Measured specific impulse was 480 lb-sec/lb., the highest attained by a chemical rocket at that time.<sup>60</sup>

The difficulties of operating with liquid fluorine, however, had not been lost on Silverstein. Later when he

witnessed a hydrogen-oxygen rocket engine operation, the sweetness of the hydrogen-oxygen combination came through to him, and to us, loud and clear. Everything worked smoothly, easily, and performance was high.

By the late fifties, interest in rocket propulsion had greatly increased and Lewis began to shift more emphasis to it. Much consideration was given to rocket propulsion for space vehicles including satellites and moon missions.<sup>193, 194</sup>

We believe that the Lewis work on hydrogen in rocket engines, although not first, was both timely and significant. We showed that lightweight, regeneratively cooled thrust chambers of 5000 and 20,000 pounds thrust could operate at very high efficiencies. We believe this work was significant in the ARPA initiation of the Centaur contract to Pratt & Whitney. Richard Canright, then with ARPA, was a member of the NACA Special Subcommittee for Rocket Engines and was very familiar with our work. Charles King and others from United Aircraft and Pratt & Whitney, who had been working with hydrogen on their own,<sup>195</sup> visited us several times. They later acknowledged the usefulness of our injector design and experimental data in their development of the XLR-15, the

first commercial liquid hydrogen-liquid oxygen engine. But perhaps the greatest contribution of the Lewis work was its key role in influencing later decisions regarding Saturn development.

When NASA was established, Silverstein was called to Washington to be the Director of Space Flight Development. The President had determined that the Army Saturn rocket was to be transferred to NASA.<sup>k</sup> In preparation for this, the NASA Associate Administrator named Silverstein to head an interagency committee to prepare recommendations on Saturn development and specifically for the selection of upper stage configurations. Wernher von Braun, then with the ABMA, was a member of the committee.<sup>1</sup>

The committee reported to the NASA Administrator on December 15, 1959. With a persuasive Chairman occupying a key position and sold on hydrogen-oxygen, it is not

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<sup>k</sup>The Saturn project was initiated 15 August 1958 by ARPA to the Army Ordnance Command to develop a 1.5 million pound thrust booster using available engines. Emphasis was on the first stage; three launchings were to be with dummy upper stages and one with a live upper stage.

<sup>1</sup>Other members were Col. N. Appold, USAF, Mr. Abe Hyatt, NASA Mr. T. C. Muse ODDR&D, Mr. G. P. Sutton ARPA, and Mr. E. Hall (Sec'y) NASA.

surprising that the group recommended that the upper stages of Saturn be hydrogen-oxygen<sup>196</sup> and it became so. Saturn and Apollo success has demonstrated the soundness of the decision.

The Lewis group worked with other propellants and on other significant improvements in rocket engines but these must await another opportunity for recounting.



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