

Development of a Magnesium and Zinc Hall-effect Thruster

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This paper describes what are believed to be the first demonstrations of Hall-effect thrusters operating on magnesium and zinc propellant. Pathfinding experiments were performed using consumable anodes that were machined from solid magnesium and zinc, which sublimated under the heat load from the discharge plasma and delivered propellant gas to the thruster. Therefore the magnesium and zinc anodes served as the acceleration electrode and also served as the propellant supply. A retarding potential analyzer was used to obtain plume diagnostics during early operation of the experiments, showing reasonable acceleration of the propellant ions. Two main issues were expected and encountered with the solid magnesium and zinc anodes – 1) the zinc anode displayed localized melting causing liquid zinc to accumulate in the discharge channel and 2) the crude scheme did not feature any means to actively control the sublimation rate of the metal propellant. A new porous anode with internal propellant reservoir was designed and built that could be refilled with either propellant, eliminating liquid intrusion into the discharge channel. A scheme developed earlier for bismuth thrusters was employed wherein shim anodes were implemented to shift discharge current to and from the main anode to control the main anode temperature and hence the metal propellant sublimation rate. Results are reported showing stable operation of a thruster using a porous anode with magnesium propellant for more than 100 minutes. Also demonstrated was the ability of the shim anode scheme to actively control the propellant mass flow rate.

I. Introduction

STARTING in 2004 the Ion Space Propulsion (Isp) Lab at Michigan Tech has worked to develop Hall thrusters that can operate using bismuth as a propellant.¹⁻³ Bismuth was chosen for a number of reasons, including its vapor pressure, atomic weight, and ionization potential. Some of the more general reasons for using metal propellants are that they have a significant advantage in energetics and cost savings over traditional propellants such as xenon.⁴ Also, ground testing of metal propellants is significantly less expensive due to the metals of interest being solid at room temperature. Hall-effect thrusters that use inert gaseous propellants require expensive cryogenic

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pumping systems, whereas operating a thruster using a metal propellant only requires a pumping system that is capable of keeping up with the cathode mass flow (assuming the cathode is operated using an inert gas).

In the method used by Massey et al¹ to operate a bismuth Hall thruster, bismuth was stored in a hollow anode that served as a reservoir within the thruster discharge channel. The anode had a porous vapor diffuser that kept the heated liquid bismuth reservoir inside the hollow anode. Naturally occurring waste heat from the thruster discharge was used to drive direct evaporation from the anode/reservoir into the discharge channel where the bismuth vapor could be ionized and accelerated away from the anode. The evaporation rate of the bismuth is governed by the reservoir temperature and the vapor escape area. Since it was not feasible to mechanically vary the vapor escape area through the reservoir, the mass flow rate was to be controlled by varying the reservoir temperature within the thruster. The evaporation rate, then, is governed by the vapor pressure of the liquid metal and the goal was to maintain the proper reservoir temperature that, when combined with the vapor escape area, yielded the correct value of mass flow.²

The concept employed by Massey et al used a segmented anode design to achieve closed-loop control of the bismuth reservoir temperature. The thermal control mechanism employed three separate anodes – the traditional main anode in the back of the discharge channel and two “shim” anodes that are electrically and thermally isolated from the main anode near the exit plane. Fig. 1 shows a cut-away view of the anode locations.

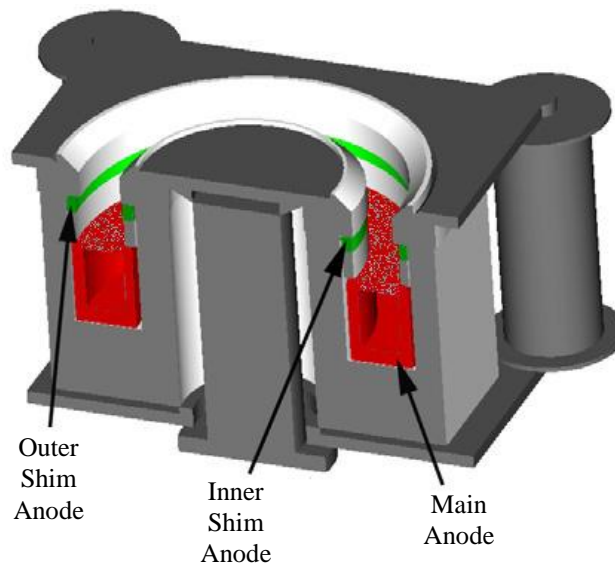


Fig. 1. Cut-away view of a modified BPT-2000 Hall-effect thruster, showing the location of the shim anodes and main anode. The cavity within the main anode is filled with metal propellant feedstock, with the porous face allowing metal vapors to diffuse into the discharge chamber.¹

The main anode served three purposes – as a propellant diffuser, as an acceleration electrode, and as a reservoir of liquid bismuth. Electron current from the discharge plasma that naturally attaches to the anode was then used to heat the anode/reservoir at a rate of approximately 10% of the total thruster power, driving the direct evaporation of propellant into the chamber. Main anode temperature could then be controlled by sharing the plasma discharge current with the shim anodes on the inner and outer wall. By varying the shim voltage with respect to the main anode, the plasma current and, hence, the thermal load could be shared between the shims and main anode, thus controlling the main anode temperature and the evaporation rate.²

Unfortunately bismuth thruster development posed numerous problems that require technical advancements in material properties in order to have dependable thruster operation. Because of these problems bismuth thruster operation was limited to numerous tests of approximately 10-30 minutes duration. During these short tests the shim anode concept for propellant flow control was never conclusively demonstrated. However, the principle of using the shim/main anode scheme to control main anode temperature was proven in separate tests using xenon as propellant so that the mass flow rate could be controlled independently of anode temperature. Kieckhafer recorded plume diagnostics and thrust measurements of a BPT-2000 thruster modified to contain separate shim and main anodes and

found little change in thruster performance when shifting the discharge current between the main anode and the shim anodes.^{5,6}

While bismuth was the metal of choice for early work on condensable propellant thrusters at MTU, other metals could provide different performance advantages for certain missions. In particular, the light metals zinc and magnesium may be suitable candidates for use as Hall thruster propellants. Magnesium and zinc have a number of physical and energetic properties that make them amenable for use as a propellant, while also possessing thermal properties that can avoid many of the technological issues encountered with bismuth thrusters. A comparison of traditional propellants, krypton and xenon, as well as the metal propellants of interest is shown in Table 1.

Element	Atomic Mass (amu)	Melting Temp. (°C)	1st Ionization Potential (eV)
Magnesium	24.3	650.0	7.646
Zinc	65.39	419.53	9.394
Bismuth	208.98	271.4	7.2856
Krypton	83.8	-157.38	13.9996
Xenon	131.3	-111.79	12.1298

Table 1. Propellant comparison between the metals of interest, as well as common propellants.⁴

Assuming an acceleration potential of 300 V and given the physical attributes of magnesium and zinc, magnesium would be ideal for missions requiring a specific impulse of approximately 4000 s whereas zinc suits missions near 2400 s. As an added benefit, Martian and lunar studies have shown that magnesium is found in Martian and lunar regolith,^{7,8} allowing for the possibility of re-fueling an exhausted propellant supply in space. While high- I_{sp} operation of magnesium and zinc thrusters may be attractive for deep space missions, the light metals could also be used to achieve moderate specific impulse of 1,500 – 2,000 s using a low-voltage direct-drive scheme that could significantly reduce thruster system mass for earth orbital missions.

The main challenge in using any condensable propellant is design of the feed system. While gaseous propellants such as xenon and krypton can easily be transported through plumbing and metered using well established technology, a condensable supply system requires power to drive the phase change from solid-to-vapor and some method for controlling the rate of delivery of evolved propellant vapors. Furthermore, because of the metallic nature of candidate condensable propellants, the entire feed system must be at high temperature and any wetted components will likely be electrically connected to the anode and, hence, at high potential. For early work with bismuth these cumulative challenges proved insurmountable for the MTU development effort for two reasons: (1) many components of the bismuth feed system needed to be maintained at temperatures over 800°C and, at these temperatures, material failure was an ever present issue most notably at junctions of dissimilar materials, and (2) because the feed system contained bismuth in the liquid state the material failures led to destructive propellant leaks – a difficulty compounded by bismuth’s expansion upon freezing. Magnesium and zinc have thermal properties that should avoid the main difficulties encountered with bismuth.

For an evaporative feed system, the propellant supply rate is governed by the feedstock vapor pressure and the surface area of evaporation. Fixing the surface area to be commensurate with the anode dimensions of a 2-kW Hall thruster, Fig. 2 shows the evaporation rate and, hence the propellant feed rate of bismuth, magnesium, and zinc as a function of temperature. Immediately apparent is the fact that magnesium and zinc have vapor pressures (and thus evaporation rates) that are some three to four orders of magnitude greater than bismuth. This means that the feed system components for a magnesium or zinc supply system can be considerably cooler than that of a bismuth system. The horizontal dashed line of Fig. 2 indicates a mass flow rate of 1 mg/s, which is approximately equal to what is required of a 2-kW-class Hall thruster. In order to supply 1 mg/s bismuth must be maintained at approximately 600°C, while magnesium and zinc require only 400 and 300°C respectively. Another key factor making magnesium and zinc easier to use than bismuth is evident when considering the melting temperature of the solid metal as shown in Fig. 2. Since bismuth melts at 271°C the propellant feedstock will be in the liquid phase when evolving vapors at 600°C to produce 1 mg/s. However, both magnesium and zinc have melting temperatures significantly higher than the temperature required to evaporate 1 mg/s. Thus, a magnesium or zinc feed system need not handle any liquid metal – the vapors will sublimate directly from the solid at a rate sufficient to operate the thruster.

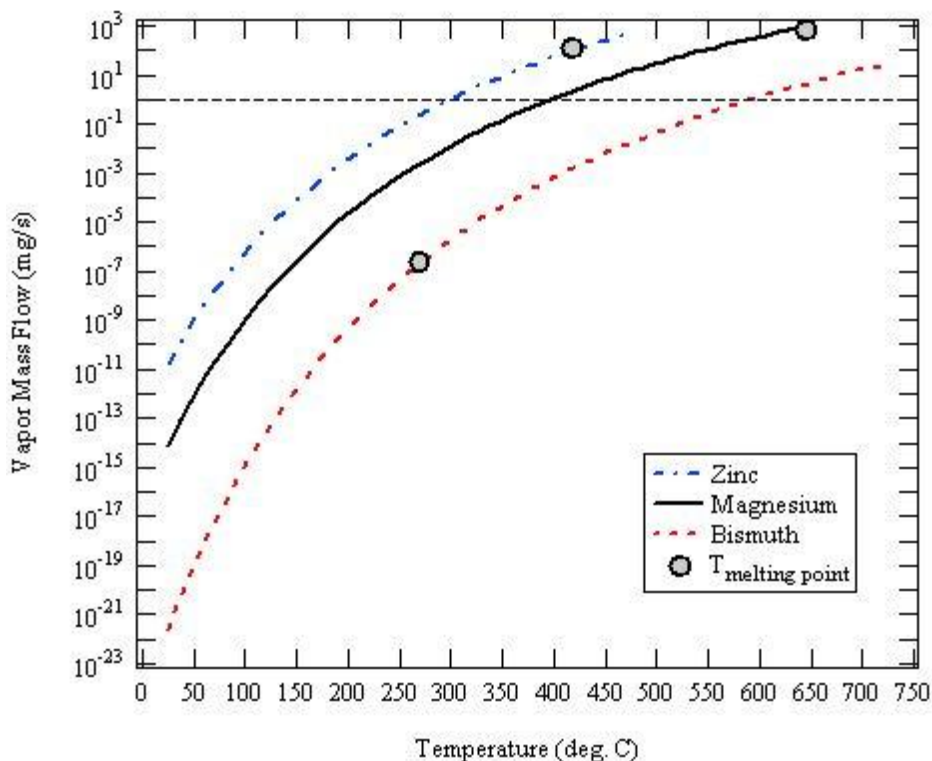


Fig. 2. Mass flow as a function of temperature for bismuth, magnesium, and zinc with the horizontal dashed line indicating the temperature that each propellant must be to evaporate at 1 mg/s.⁴

II. Goal of Study

The goal of the research reported here was to demonstrate the ability to operate a magnesium and zinc Hall-effect thruster by directly sublimating propellant from solid magnesium and solid zinc. The preliminary findings will be presented from pathfinding experiments that were performed with consumable anodes. Following the initial results, data is presented from a hollow/porous anode design while implementing shim anodes in the discharge channel to control the propellant temperature.

III. Description of Apparatus

The thruster used for the experiments reported here was a modified Aerojet BPT-2000 Hall-effect thruster. While the overall geometry and magnetic circuitry of the BPT-2000 was preserved, the interior boron nitride (BN) body and anode structure were modified to accommodate the inner and outer shim anodes as well as the new magnesium, zinc, and porous anodes.⁹ The main thruster components and anodes are shown in Fig. 1.

Although magnesium and zinc cathodes were demonstrated, the electron source that was used when operating the thruster tests reported was a laboratory cathode fabricated in the Isp Lab with a LaB₆ thermionic emitter. The cathode was operated on argon for all tests reported here. The cathode body is made of titanium and measures approximately 25 mm in diameter by 100 mm long. The cathode orifice is 4 mm in diameter and the propellant used was argon. A tungsten keeper electrode was placed approximately 3.5 mm from the cathode face. A schematic of the cathode can be seen in Fig. 3

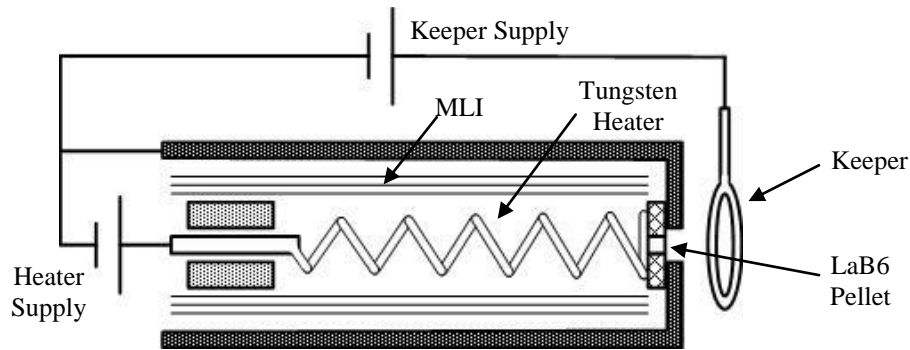


Fig. 3. LaB₆ laboratory cathode built in the Isp Lab.

Pathfinding experiments were conducted to demonstrate the ability to directly sublime magnesium and zinc from solid metal surfaces within a Hall thruster for use as a propellant supply. The objective of those experiments was merely to sublime a sufficient mass flow of metal vapors to sustain the plasma discharge, hence no mechanism was incorporated to control the supply rate. The first anode that was used in the thruster was made from magnesium and was machined from solid magnesium plate as shown in Fig. 4a. Tabs were included on the anodes for mechanical and electrical connection. For the target flow rates, each magnesium anode had enough propellant to operate the thruster for approximately one hour. In subsequent tests, anodes were made by sandwiching multiple magnesium plates together for extended operation. The magnesium anode location within the thruster is shown in Fig. 4b.



Fig. 4. Images of a) three consumable magnesium anodes and b) a single magnesium anode inside the discharge channel of the thruster with the front plate and BN ring removed.

In addition to the consumable anodes, another anode – similar in design to that shown schematically in Fig. 1 - was manufactured with a porous diffuser and the capability to be refilled. The porous anode was utilized in combination with shim anodes in experiments to control the evaporation rate. Since the mass flow of metal propellants is a function of two controllable parameters, the open surface area and propellant temperature, the porous anode was designed so that the open area of the pores when combined with the anode temperatures reported by Kieckhafer⁶ would produce the correct target mass flow rates. The porous anode was tested only with magnesium.

IV. Experimental Results and Discussion

A) Thruster Operation using Magnesium Plate Anodes

To operate the thruster using consumable magnesium plate anodes the anode was first heated with approximately 650 W using two sets of resistive heaters. The resistive body heater was wrapped around the BN body and made up 290 W of the total heater power required. The anode heater was in a BN housing behind the anode and made up the remaining 360 W of heater power. The heater locations, thermocouple location, and consumable anode location are shown in the schematic in Fig. 5. The thermocouple was placed on the thruster's center axis in the middle of the center pole.

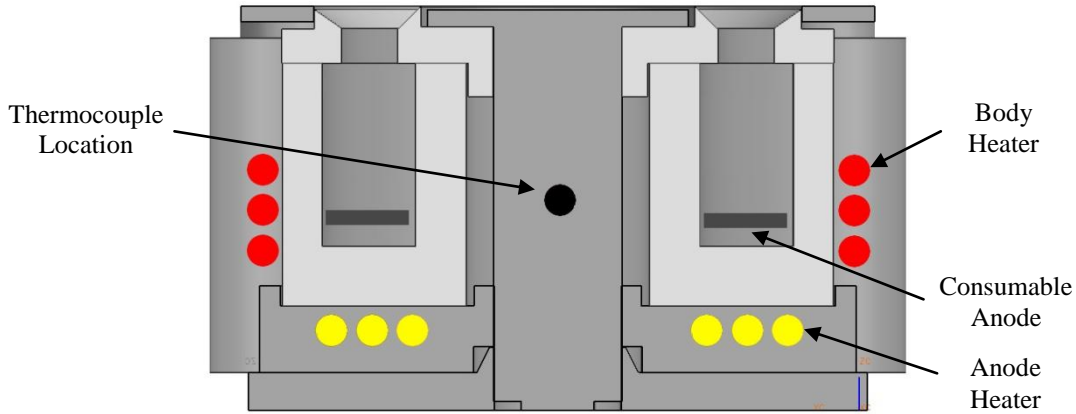


Fig. 5. Thruster cross-section showing the anode, thermocouple, and resistive heater locations.

The anode was heated for 60 minutes while at a 100 V potential with respect to cathode, which was grounded. Then the anode voltage was increased to 150 V to light the thruster. Once a plume was established, both resistive heaters were turned off. The anode power supply was then current-limited rather than voltage-limited as is customary for gas-fed thrusters. The current-limited mode was used to prevent thermal runaway of the discharge: as the consumable anode became overly hot and the evaporation rate increased, the current-limited mode would cause the thruster discharge voltage to decrease and hence would reduce the thermal power to the consumable anode. In voltage-limited operation an overly hot anode would cause greater mass flow and, hence greater current. Increased current at constant voltage would increase the thermal power input to the anode and further increase the mass flow causing runaway. For most of the experiment the anode current was held at 4 or 5 A while the magnet current was constantly adjusted to maintain thruster operation. Because the voltages and currents were adjusted manually, these values varied throughout the experiment as investigators explored the criteria necessary to maintain a discharge sustained only by plasma heating. Despite open loop operation and lack of anode temperature control, it proved surprisingly easy to maintain thruster operation for more than 60 minutes, as shown in Fig. 6.

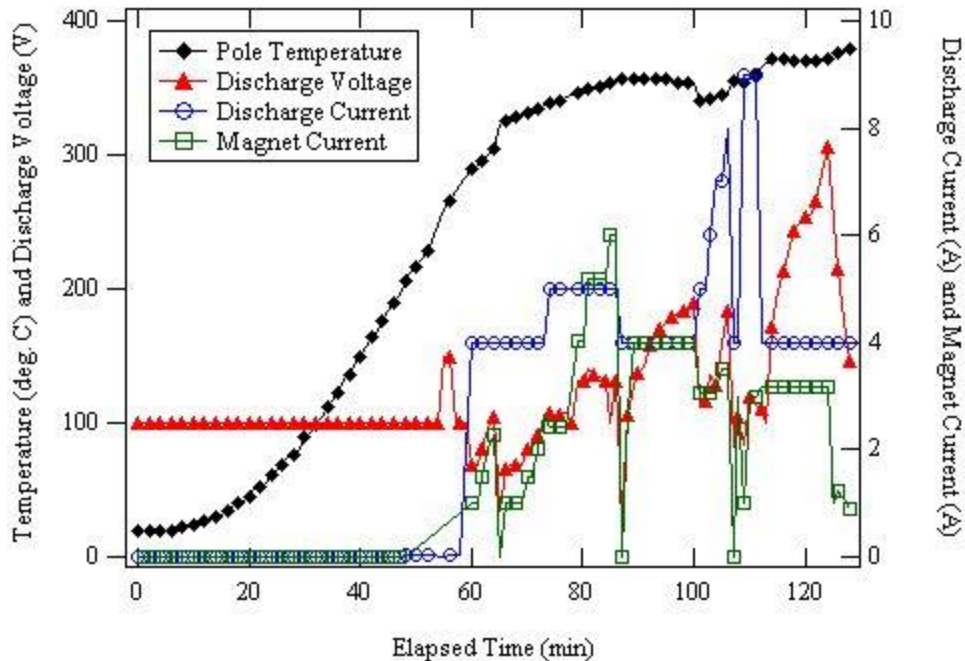


Fig. 6. Magnesium thruster data while operating using two consumable anodes.

Since the propellant mass flow is directly coupled with the anode temperature and no attempts were made to control the anode temperature, the magnesium mass flow varied greatly, causing the discharge voltage of the thruster to vary between about 100 and 300 V during each experiment. Also, the geometry of the anodes limited the propellant supply for the thruster to remain functional at about 2 mg/s for approximately 30 min/anode. Post-test inspection showed that the anode sublimed nearly uniformly around the circumference, with a wear-through point causing eventual mechanical failure. A picture of the thruster operating using magnesium is shown in Fig. 7. As is apparent in the image, using the consumable magnesium anodes it was possible to maintain a plasma discharge; however, it wasn't possible to achieve any plume structure.

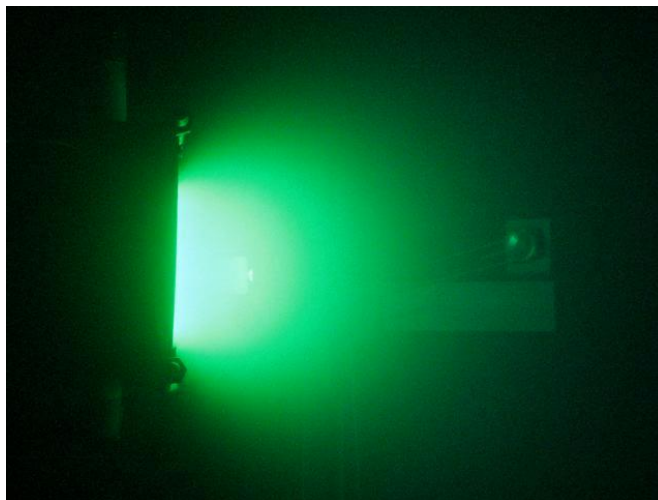


Fig. 7. Hall-effect thruster operating using magnesium propellant with an argon cathode.

A retarding potential analyzer (RPA) was used to determine the ion energy during each thruster experiment. The probe that was implemented was a four-grid RPA, as shown in the schematic of Fig. 8.

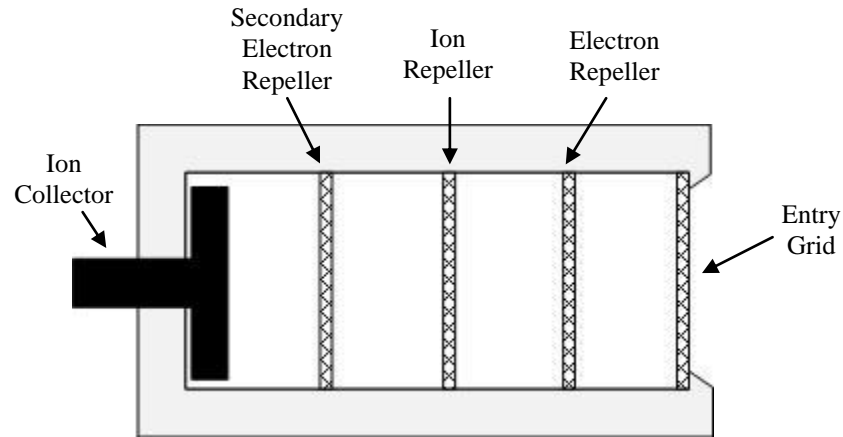


Fig. 8. Four-gridded retarding potential analyzer showing the grid locations.

The first grid in the RPA, at the probe entrance, was electrically floating. The second grid was biased negatively with respect to plasma potential to ensure that only ions are allowed to enter the probe. The third grid is the ion repeller. The grid was biased from 0 to 300 V with respect to ground to filter the ions that can enter the probe. As the grid potential is increased, only ions with a sufficient amount of energy can pass through. The fourth grid is biased with a negative potential to prevent any secondary electrons from escaping from the collector when it is struck with the high energy ions. Typical RPA probe current vs. repeller voltage sweeps and the derivatives of the sweeps during magnesium thruster operation are shown in Fig. 9 and Fig. 10. The RPA was placed 1 m downstream of the thruster on the thruster axis when recording data. Despite an uncertain value of magnetic field and open-loop operation of the thruster, the RPA data show reasonable acceleration of the propellant ions.

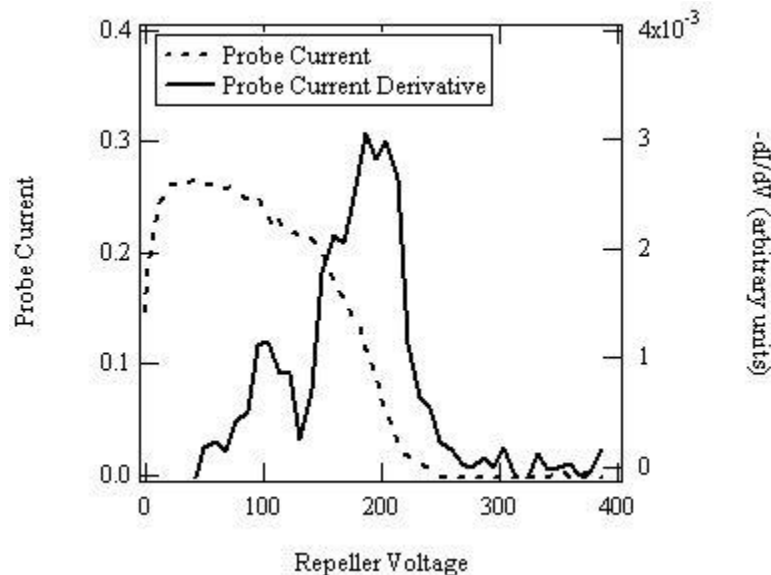


Fig. 9. Retarding potential analyzer I-V sweep and derivative of probe current with respect to repeller voltage with 190 V and 4 A on the anode and 4 A of magnet current during magnesium operation.

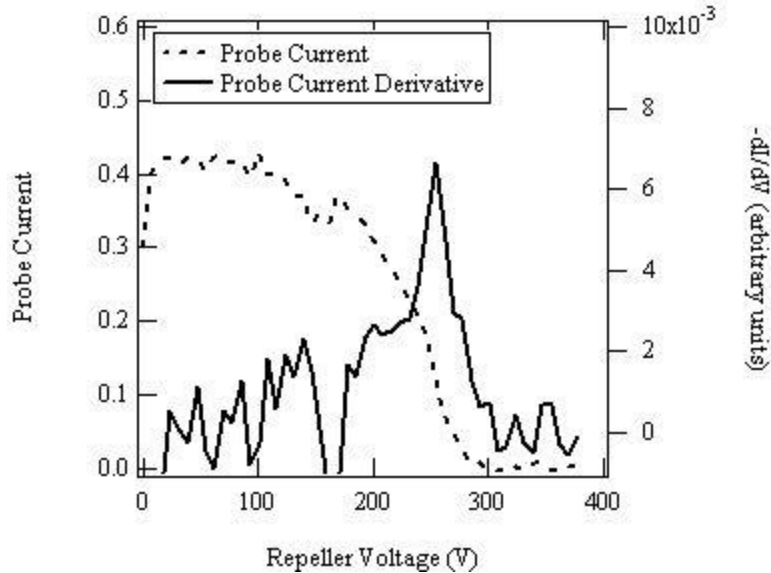


Fig. 10. Retarding potential analyzer I-V sweep and derivative of probe current with respect to repeller voltage with 257 V and 4 A on the anode and 3.2 A of magnet current during magnesium operation.

B) Thruster Operation using Zinc Anode

Since the demonstration of a Hall-effect thruster operating using magnesium proved to be a surprisingly successful task when compared with using bismuth, other metals were investigated as potential propellants. One of the few non-toxic metals that possessed the proper thermodynamic properties was zinc. After searching for flat stock zinc it proved to be more economical to buy cylindrical bar stock so a solid zinc anode was machined and integrated with the thruster.

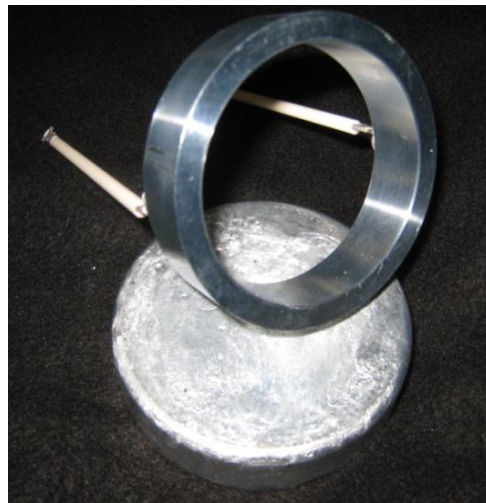


Fig. 11. Image of a consumable zinc anode before and after being machined.

To operate the zinc thruster a single resistive heater around the outside of the thruster body was used to heat the entire thruster with 370 W of power for 60 minutes. After the 60 minute warm-up period the anode voltage was increased to 400 V while current-limiting the anode power supply at 3 A. After a few minutes the thruster lit at an anode voltage of 120 V and a current of 3 A. The resistive heater was then turned off and the magnet current was increased to about 4.5 A to keep the thruster operating. Over the course of the 30 minutes that each zinc experiment

was performed the anode voltage increased from about 100 to 300 V, as shown in Fig. 12. It is reasonable to assume that increasing anode voltage at constant current corresponds to decreasing propellant mass flow.

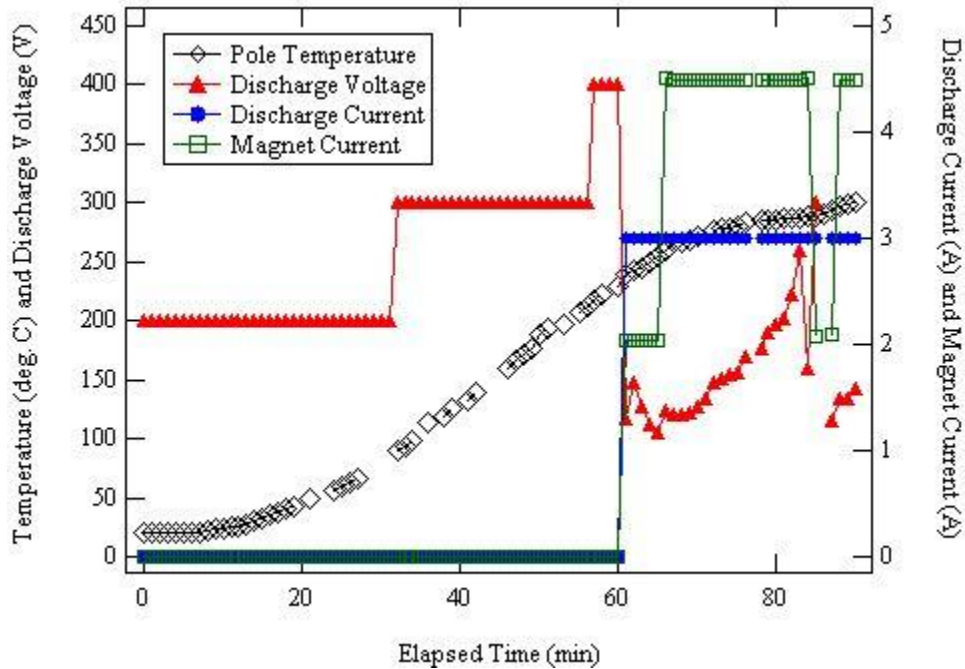


Fig. 12. Zinc thruster data while operating using a consumable anode.

The same four-grid RPA used for the magnesium experiments was placed 1 m downstream of the thruster on the thruster axis. RPA data were acquired at a few of the operating conditions while the thruster was running and are shown in Fig. 13, Fig. 14, and Fig. 15. Just as with the magnesium thruster, the RPA data from the zinc thruster shows reasonable acceleration of the propellant ions.

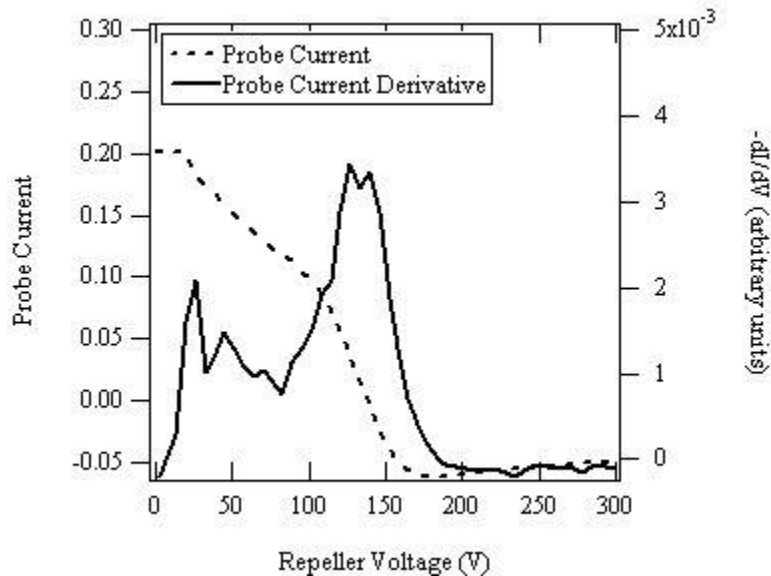


Fig. 13. Retarding potential analyzer I-V sweep and derivative of probe current with respect to repeller voltage with 180 V and 3 A on the anode and 4.5 A of magnet current during zinc operation.

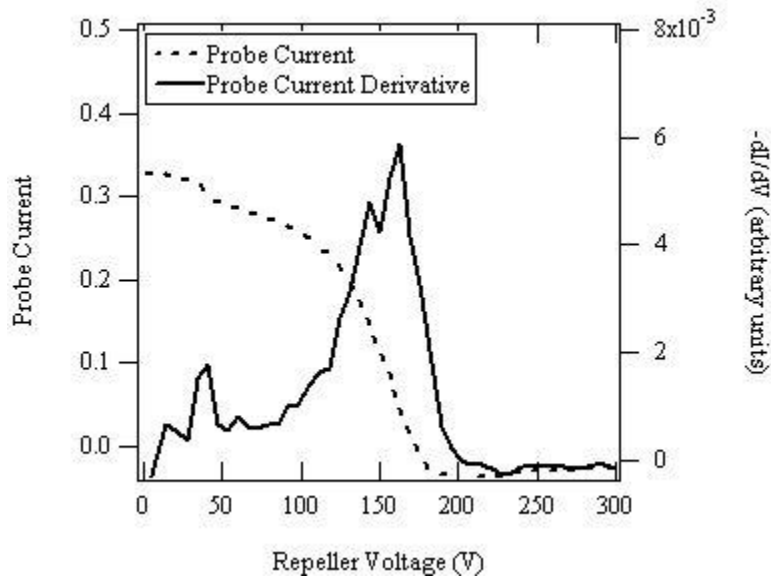


Fig. 14. Retarding potential analyzer I-V sweep and derivative of probe current with respect to repeller voltage with 200 V and 3 A on the anode and 4.5 A of magnet current during zinc operation.

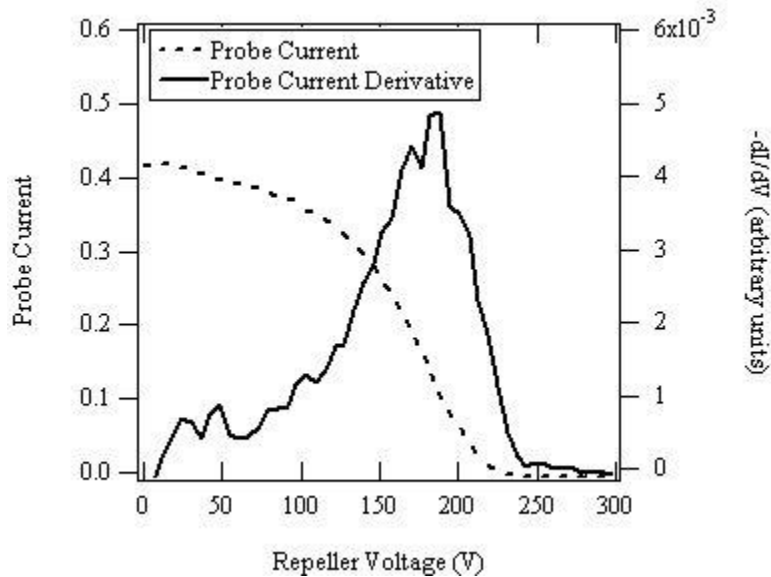


Fig. 15. Retarding potential analyzer I-V sweep and derivative of probe current with respect to repeller voltage with 220 V and 3 A on the anode and 4.5 A of magnet current during zinc operation.

As expected, the anode temperature increased due to direct anode heating from the discharge power and caused the zinc anode to melt in nearly every zinc thruster experiment. However, in the series of 30 minute zinc experiments that were performed the ions in the plume had ion energies that corresponded well with the discharge voltage of the thruster. A picture of the zinc thruster operating at an anode voltage of 260 V at 3 A is shown in Fig. 16.

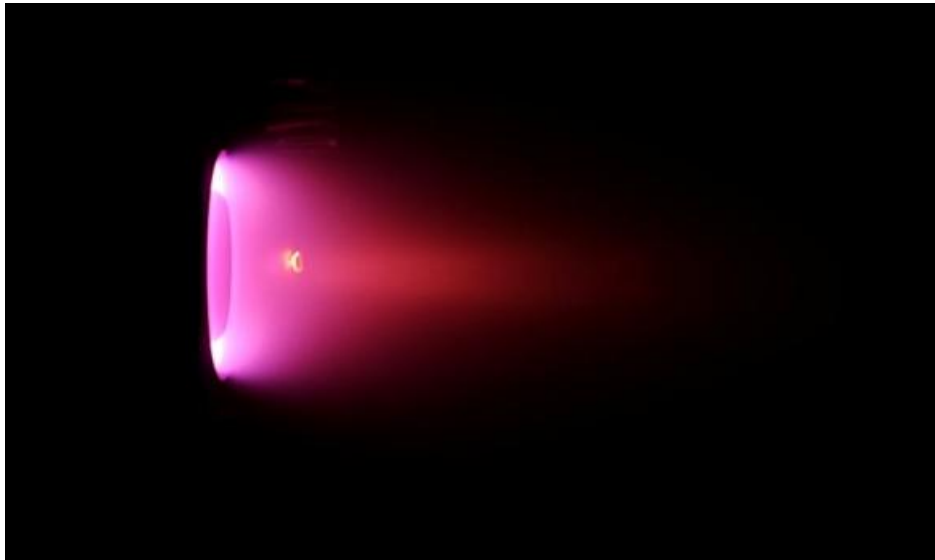


Fig. 16. Hall-effect thruster operating at 3 A of anode current and 260 V using zinc propellant with an argon cathode.

C) Thruster Operation using Porous Anode

After the pathfinding studies using consumable anodes demonstrated the ability to sublime sufficient propellant vapors to sustain a Hall thruster discharge, a hollow/porous anode was implemented so that investigators could perform repeated tests to explore the ability to control propellant mass flow using shim anodes. Along with the porous anode, the shims were introduced into the discharge channel to control the anode temperature, and subsequently the evaporation rate of propellant. A cross section schematic of the thruster is shown in Fig. 17.

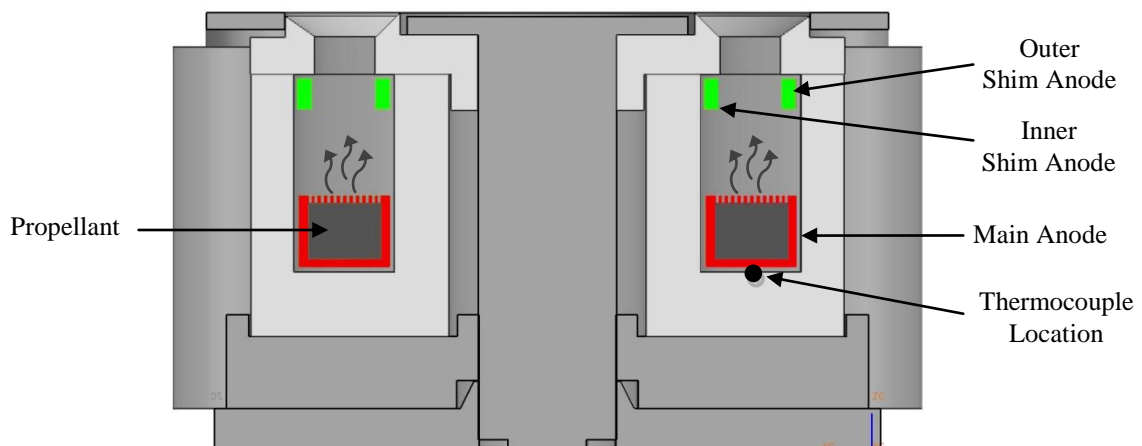


Fig. 17. Cross-section schematic of the condensable propellant thruster showing the main anode and shim anode locations.

The goal of the experiment using the porous main anode and shim anodes was twofold: (1) demonstrate the ability to stabilize the main anode temperature and thus the propellant supply rate, and (2) increase/decrease the main anode temperature and propellant supply rate in a controlled manner. To accomplish this the thruster was pre-heated using the external body heater until the main anode temperature was approximately 450 deg. C, whereupon the body heater was turned off and remained off for the duration of the test. The thruster discharge was initiated by setting both the main anode power supply and the shim power supply to current-limited mode with an initial start-up voltage of 300 V on both main and shim. The current limit on the main anode was 3 A and the shim anode was 1 A.

The discharge initiated with the main anode voltage dropping to approximately 60 V and the shim voltage to approximately 40 V. The magnet current was set to 0.6 A and was not changed during the experiment. The temporal history of discharge parameters is indicated in Fig. 18. Over the next few minutes both the main and shim anode voltages were seen to drop, which indicated the mass flow was increasing. To remedy the increased mass flow, current, and thus heat, was removed from the main anode by reducing the main anode current limit while current was added to the shim anodes by increasing their current limit. Reduction of main anode current continued until 20 minutes into the test when the main anode current was brought to zero and the shim current was set to 5.0 A. This operating condition represented a stable point for the mass flow control system: the thruster ran steadily with 125 V on the main anode and 145 V on the shims with no change of parameters for more than 10 minutes.

The stability of the mass flow control system was surprising. As seen in Fig. 18 and Fig. 19 the main and shim anode voltages varied by only a couple of volts from 22 to 35 minutes and the main anode temperature varied by less than 2°C. The heat deposited into the shims and conducted through the body of the thruster to the main anode was apparently sufficient to provide a constant mass flow. Operating the electrodes in current-limited mode likely provided some form of stabilization: slight increases in main anode temperature would produce more flow which would, in turn, cause a decrease in voltage at constant current. Thus the net power into the thruster would be reduced in effect cooling the main anode and restoring equilibrium. This same effect would be reversed wherein cooling of the main anode would result in increased voltage and power.

With stable operation established investigators addressed the second objective, which was to alter the mass flow in a controlled manner. The goal was to intentionally increase the main anode temperature, causing an increase in mass flow and hence total thruster current, then decrease the temperature and attempt to re-acquire the stable operating point. To accomplish this, the main anode was changed from current-limited mode to voltage-limited mode. At the stable point (from 22 to 35 minutes) the main anode was at 0 A and 125 V. At 35 minutes the main anode power supply was set to 140 V in voltage-limited mode. This initially caused a very slight current of about 0.2 A on the main anode – increasing the power deposition into the propellant reservoir. Simultaneously the shim anode current limit was reduced by 0.2 A to 4.8 A so that the total current remained at 5.0 A. Over the next three minutes (1) the main anode current increased from 0.2 A to 2.0 A, (2) the main anode temperature increased from 470 deg. C to 480 deg. C. and (3) the total current – shim plus main – increased from 5.0 A to 6.5 A. All of these factors indicate that the propellant supply rate was increased due to the increased thermal input to the main anode propellant reservoir.

At 38 minutes investigators attempted to reduce the propellant supply rate and return the thruster to the previously stable condition. The main anode was switched back to current-limited mode at 0.0 A and the shim anode current was set back to 5.0 A. Within two minutes the main anode cooled and the thruster discharge stabilized to its initial equilibrium point, where it remained without input from investigators. Such controlled excursions from equilibrium were repeated three more times and, each time, the results were the same and the thruster returned back to a stable operating point with constant mass flow. The overall test lasted for more than 100 minutes before being voluntarily terminated.

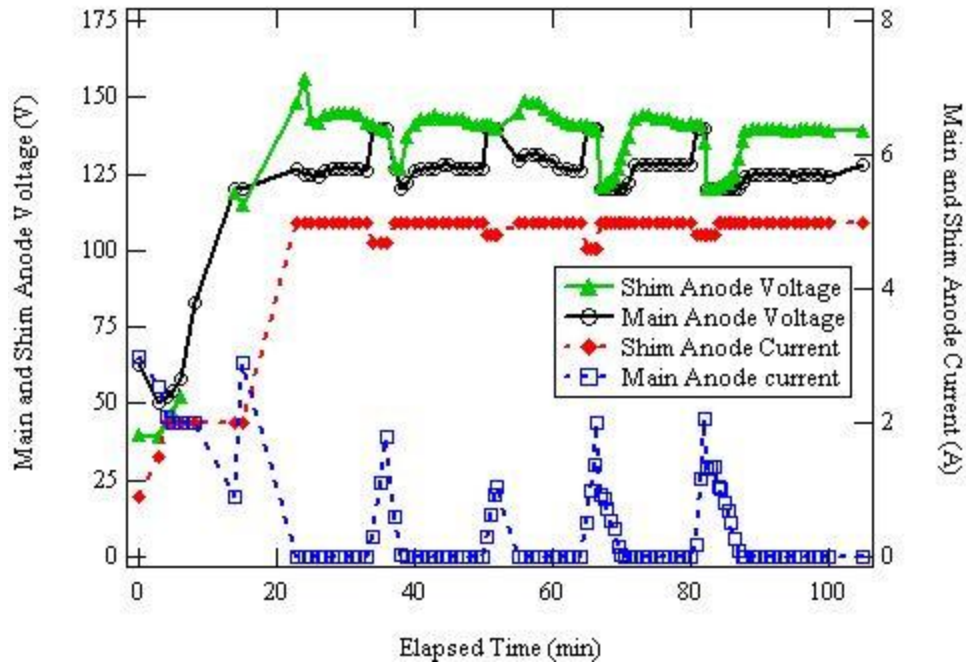


Fig. 18. I-V plot for the shim anode and main anode for the 105 minute porous anode experiment using magnesium propellant.

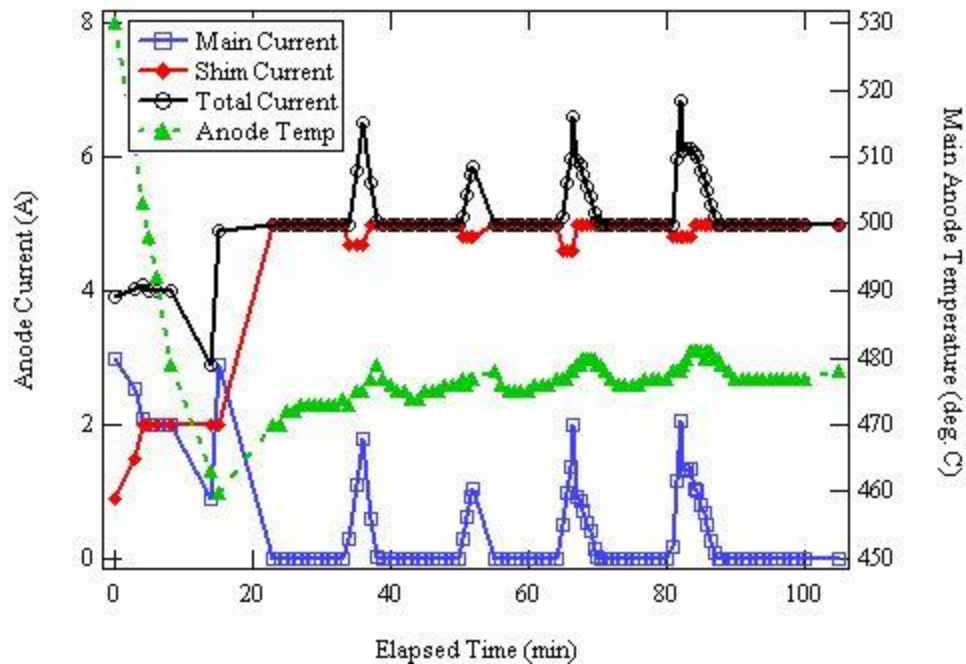


Fig. 19. Plot showing main anode current, shim anode current, and the anode temperature as current is shared between the main anode and shim anodes.

The temperature data that is reported in Fig. 19 is from a thermocouple that is spot-welded to the back of the anode, as shown in Fig. 17. As expected, the anode temperature increased each time current was shifted from the shim anode to the main anode, supporting the theory that the main anode temperature was driving an increase in propellant mass flow. Although the thermal peaks were slightly offset from the main anode current peaks and there

is a gradual increase in anode temperature over 80 minutes, the delay in peaks and gradual temperature increase are attributed to the thermocouple location on the back of the anode. The actual plasma heating, which drove evaporation, was delivered to the downstream face of the anode, thus changes in anode thermal power very rapidly caused a change in evaporation rate even though the thermocouple on the back of the anode responded with some delay. A picture of the thruster operating at 4 A and 250 V with the magnesium-filled porous anode is shown in Fig. 20.

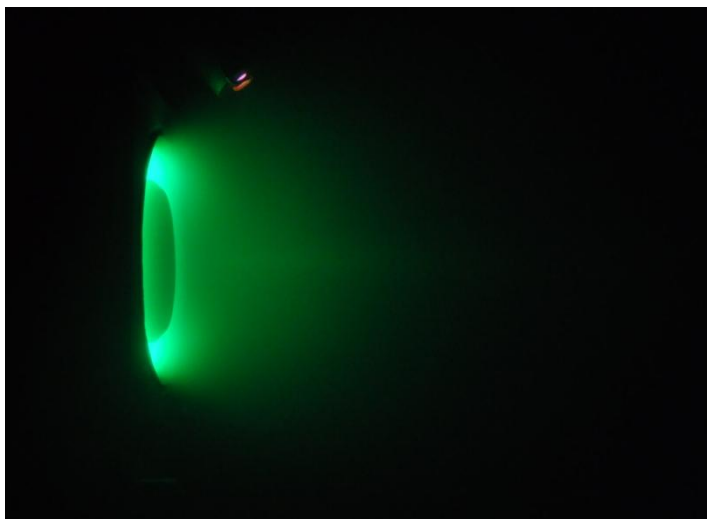


Fig. 20. Hall-effect thruster operating at 4 A of anode current and 250 V using magnesium propellant with an argon cathode.

V. Conclusions

This paper is believed to be the first reported results of Hall-effect thrusters operating on magnesium and zinc. Crude but successful pathfinding tests with consumable anodes showed that direct sublimation of metal propellant vapors from an anode using discharge plasma waste heat was surprisingly easy. The thermal properties of conventionally designed Hall thrusters are compatible with evaporation of propellant and no elevated temperatures or heaters are required beyond start-up.

Investigators also demonstrated the ability to control the propellant supply rate in an active manner utilizing separate evaporative and non-evaporative anodes to share plasma discharge current. Thermal control of the propellant reservoir and evaporator was demonstrated by operating the thruster using a porous hollow anode with inert shim electrodes intercepting a large fraction of the discharge current. This configuration proved passively stable using a combination of current- and voltage-limited supplies to maintain equilibrium. The equilibrium could be disturbed by directing a small amount of current and, hence, thermal power into the main anode. When shifting current to the main anode, the anode temperature would increase and hence increase the propellant mass flow. Shifting all of the main anode current back to the shim anodes cooled the main anode and enabled the thruster to return to the passively stable operating condition. Shifting the thruster discharge current between the main anode and shim anodes was repeated four times with consistent results.⁹

References

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