Vibration suppression of advanced space cryocoolers — an overview

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ABSTRACT

Mechanical cryocoolers represent a significant enabling technology for precision space instruments by providing cryogenic temperatures for sensitive infrared, gamma-ray, and x-ray detectors. However, the vibration generated by the cryocooler's refrigeration compressor has long been identified as a critical integration issue. The key sensitivity is the extent to which the cooler's vibration harmonics excite spacecraft resonances and prevent on-board sensors from achieving their operational goals with respect to resolution and pointing accuracy. To reduce the cryocooler's vibration signature to acceptable levels, a variety of active vibration suppression technologies have been developed and implemented over the past 15 years. At this point, nearly all space cryocoolers have active vibration suppression systems built into their drive electronics that reduce the peak unbalanced forces to less than 1% of their original levels. Typical systems of today individually control the vibration in each of the cryocoolers lowest drive harmonics, with some controlling as many as 16 harmonics.

A second vibration issue associated with cryocoolers is surviving launch. Here the same pistons and coldfingers that generate vibration during operation are often the most critical elements in terms of surviving high input acceleration levels. Since electrical power is generally not available during launch, passive vibration suppression technologies have been developed. Common vibration damping techniques include electrodynamic braking via shorted motor coils and the use of particle dampers on sensitive cryogenic elements.

This paper provides an overview of the vibration characteristics of typical linear-drive space cryocoolers, outlines the history of development and typical performance of the various active and passive vibration suppression systems being used.

Keywords: vibration suppression, cryocoolers, particle dampers, electrodynamic braking

1. INTRODUCTION

Space cryocoolers are miniature refrigerators designed to cool sensitive components to cryogenic temperatures. Typical temperatures range from the boiling point of liquid Nitrogen at 77 K (-321°F), down to the boiling point of liquid Helium at 4 K (-453°F). Cryogenic temperatures enable the operation of many space-science devices such as infrared detectors and focal planes, solid-state gamma-ray detectors, and emerging superconducting technologies.

Many near-term and future space-instrument programs within NASA and the DoD depend upon the successful application of long-life, low-vibration space cryocoolers. Cooler-generated vibration was identified early as a particularly important parameter for most space applications, and research on cryocooler vibration suppression reached a high level in the early 1990s after the first Oxford coolers became available.

The key sensitivity is the extent to which cooler-generated vibration excites spacecraft resonances that prevent onboard sensors from achieving operational goals with respect to resolution or pointing accuracy. The lowest vibration levels are achieved with cryocoolers, such as turbo-Brayton or sorption J-T coolers, that operate at frequencies far removed from spacecraft structural resonances. Turbo Brayton coolers incorporate tiny high-speed turbines running at 200,000 to 800,000 rpm, while sorption J-T coolers use solid-state compressors operating a frequencies less than one cycle per hour. However, most space coolers, including Stirling and pulse tube coolers, incorporate compressors with fundamental drive frequencies in the range of 30 to 60 Hz and generate vibratory forces at that frequency and its multiples.

Figure 1 illustrates the classic Oxford-style Stirling cooler that is the basis of most modern space cryocoolers. This original unit weighs approximately 3.9 kg, is about 20 cm in length, and draws approximately 30 W of electrical power to produce 0.8 W of cooling at 80 K. The key feature of the Oxford-style cooler is the use of linear-motion elements within the compressor and displacer that are suspended on spring flexures to avoid any rolling or sliding.
The absence of friction, wear, and lubricants is critical to achieving the multi-year operational life associated with space cryocoolers.

As noted in Fig. 1, the moving piston and displacer shafts are driven via moving coils in a permanent-magnet field, similar to the drive of a conventional loudspeaker. The required fixed-frequency, variable-stroke mechanical motion is generated by applying an alternating current through the coils at the selected drive frequency—typically a fixed frequency in the range of 30 to 60 Hz; the frequency is chosen to optimize the thermodynamic performance of the cooler. To achieve high motor drive efficiency, the moving piston assembly is then tuned to have its mechanical resonance at this operating frequency.

To achieve acceptably low vibration levels, most Oxford-style space cryocoolers incorporate some sort of vibration suppression system based on momentum cancellation using head-to-head compressors and displacers or electrically driven active counterbalances. Figure 2 presents an example vibration spectra of the first commercially available Oxford-style linear compressor, both with and without momentum cancellation. Note that cancellation can be quite effective at the fundamental drive frequency, but tends to be less effective at the higher harmonics.

**Figure 1.** Cross-section showing the internal construction features of the classic Oxford 80 K cryocooler.

**Figure 2.** Vibration spectrum generated by a BAe 80K Oxford-style, linear-drive compressor with a 40-Hz drive frequency.
To achieve high levels of suppression over a broad frequency range has been found to require the use of active vibration control incorporated into the cooler drive electronics. With this approach the momentum cancellation is actively managed, using feedback based on measured residual vibration forces or accelerations. Because of this need for momentum cancellation, most modern-day cryocoolers involve integral head-to-head compressors such as that shown schematically in Fig. 3.

1.1 Cryocooler Drive Electronics

Although a cryocooler is often thought of as a mechanical device, a major fraction of its design and cost is the drive and control electronics. In addition to providing power to drive the cooler, space cryocooler electronics are generally tasked to provide a number of functional capabilities such as closed-loop vibration control, closed-loop temperature control of the cryogenic stage, and acquisition and conversion of cooler performance data into digital form for telemetry to the ground. Incorporation of these diverse functions into the electronics often involves embedded processors, digital logic, digital communication interfaces, and sensitive analog circuits.

Figure 4 is a photograph of a typical space cryocooler drive electronics unit, this one for a space pulse tube cryocooler with head-to-head pistons in a single compressor housing as illustrated in Fig. 3. For this cooler, the electronics are tasked with driving two compressor motors and carrying out the many control and data acquisition functions just described.

Figure 3. Schematic of modern, dual-piston pulse tube space cryocooler.

Figure 4. Typical space cryocooler drive electronics.
2. MEASURING COOLER-GENERATED VIBRATION

Before examining the details of cryocooler vibration control it is useful to understand how vibration is defined and measured for space cryocoolers. Cooler-generated vibration is defined in terms of the peak vibratory force imparted by the cooler into its supports when rigidly mounted. This force is the reaction force to the moving masses within the cooler that undergo peak accelerations during various phases of the cooler’s operational cycle. The accelerations can be from controlled motion, such as the reciprocating motion of the compressor pistons, or natural vibratory resonances of the cooler’s elastic structural elements. Although the level of vibratory force that is acceptable is a strong function of the specific application, a value on the order of 0.2 N (0.05 lbs) has gained acceptance as a reasonable design goal.

To measure cooler-generated vibration, specialized vibration dynamometers have been developed, such as the six-degree-of-freedom unit illustrated in Fig. 5. Most cryocooler dynamometers use high-sensitivity piezoelectric load cells to measure vibratory forces in a frequency range from 10 to 500 Hz with a typical force sensitivity of 0.005 N (0.001 lb), and a full-scale force capability of 445 N (100 lbs). During operation, the forces (Fx, Fy and Fz), generated in each of the cooler’s three axes are simultaneously recorded in real time using a spectrum analyzer.

The results of vibration measurements can be summarized for a variety of operational conditions including different compressor or displacer strokes, coldblock temperatures, and drive frequencies. For space coolers with advanced closed-loop vibration suppression systems, characterizing the effectiveness of these systems is a common objective.

Single-Piston Compressor. Figure 6 displays the measured forces of a later generation of the single-piston, Oxford-style compressor shown earlier in Fig. 1. Because the vibration output is a series of discrete harmonics at the cooler drive frequency and multiples thereof, Fig. 6 displays these harmonic levels in all three axes and the vibratory moment about the spindle axis (Mz). Note that the vibration is highest in the piston drive axis (Fz), but that the vibration in the lateral (x and y) cross-axes is just as high or higher for the dominant lateral modes in the 200 to 400 Hz range; this is typical for linear-drive cryocoolers. Normally, single-piston compressors such as the one illustrated here would be used in head-to-head pairs to cancel the primary drive-axis harmonics.

Dual-Piston Compressor. Figure 7 displays the measured forces of a representative dual-piston compressor, this one with an integral pulse tube expander as was illustrated in Fig. 3. Notice that the fundamental harmonic is well suppressed in the drive axis, but otherwise the vibration signature is similar in level to the single-piston compressor shown in Fig. 6.

To achieve higher levels of vibration attenuation than that shown in Fig. 7 requires active vibration control that is closed-loop on either force or acceleration measurements.

3. CRYOCOOLER ACTIVE VIBRATION CONTROL

Some of the first work on cryocooler vibration suppression started in 1989 with the development of the cryocooler dynamometer shown in Fig. 5. This tool provided the ability to understand and quantify the cooler’s vibration, which was a critical first step to developing effective suppression techniques. The first measurement of the cooler’s harmonic structure, shown in Fig. 2, illuminated the ease with which high levels of attenuation could be achieved at the
Figure 6. Generated vibration forces of a single-piston Oxford-style compressor.

Figure 7. Representative vibration forces of a 10-cc dual-piston compressor.
fundamental drive frequency, but also highlighted the modest levels of off-axis response and the more difficult challenge associated with achieving good nulling of the higher harmonics.\textsuperscript{7}

In 1990, work by von Flotow\textsuperscript{10} and others on active vibration suppression became visible to the cooler community and space coolers were adopted as an ideal application for this emerging technology. Coolers not only had a strong need for vibration control, but they also already contained the voice-coil driven masses and drive electronics needed to implement vibration control algorithms. Thus, minimal added hardware and cost were required to implement active vibration control in cryocoolers.

In the 1991-1997 timeframe a wide variety of vibration suppression algorithms were developed and tested. Key players included Lockheed Palo Alto\textsuperscript{11}, Satcon\textsuperscript{12,13}, NASA/GSFC\textsuperscript{14,15,16}, JPL\textsuperscript{17}, Hughes\textsuperscript{18,19}, Rockwell\textsuperscript{20}, Ball\textsuperscript{21}, TRW, and MIT\textsuperscript{22}. The developed algorithms ranged from step-wise programming of the manual techniques used in the lab to achieve harmonic nulling, to sophisticated adaptive feed-forward algorithms using dedicated DSP processors. Although most algorithms focused only on vibration in the cooler drive axis, at least two investigations developed three axis vibration control.\textsuperscript{17,22} A key finding was that the cryocooler plant is quite stable, and a fast, computationally intensive algorithm is not really required for effective suppression.

Starting in the 1994 timeframe, mature versions of the adaptive feed-forward algorithms were introduced into the Lockheed and TRW flight cryocooler drive electronics.\textsuperscript{23,24,25} Although the first Oxford cryocoolers in space lacked vibration suppression, by 1997 nearly all space cryocoolers contained active vibration suppression as a standard feature.

Experience with the algorithms over the years has been quite positive, with current work centered on driving cooler costs down by further reducing the software and hardware complexity associated with the cooler drive electronics. Other recent research has focused on further reducing the off-axis vibration by refining the internal design features and tolerances used in the manufacture of the coolers.

Figure 8 illustrates the excellent suppression that has been achieved in the drive axis with algorithms designed to null various numbers of harmonics. The number of harmonics addressed varies from three or four for the simplest systems, to 16 for the most complex. Most systems are digitally based with digital waveform generation and control.
4. DESIGNING FOR AND SURVIVING LAUNCH ACCELERATION LEVELS

A second area where vibration suppression is important to space cryocoolers is in surviving launch acceleration levels. In general, space cooler compressors and displacer bodies have little difficulty meeting representative qualification-level random vibration launch environments of 0.3 g²/Hz. However, a classic problem with cryocoolers is the fragility of the coldfinger when exposed to launch loads and the sensitivity of the flexure-supported pistons to low frequency launch excitation.

4.1 Minimizing Coldfinger Dynamic Loading by Providing a Bumper or Damping

The classic problem of coldfinger fragility is driven by the fact that the structural robustness of the coldfinger is in direct competition with achieving minimum thermal parasitic loading from conduction down the coldfinger. In addition, without added damping, coldtip amplification factors (Qs) often range as high as 50 to 80. Due to emphasis on thermal optimization, most cryocoolers require an added launch restraint or added damping to survive launch when the typical coldlink interface mass is attached to the coldfinger; this added mass is often in the range of 50 to 100 g.

There are two common means of limiting launch loads on the coldfinger: coldfinger bumper assemblies, and add-on damper assemblies.

**Coldfinger Bumper Assemblies.** A coldfinger bumper assembly is a separate structural support designed to limit the maximum dynamic deflection of the coldfinger during launch vibration. To avoid imparting a static deflection or parasitic thermal conduction path to the coldfinger, the redundant structure provides bumpers that are separated away from the coldfinger by a very small gap, typically around 0.1 mm (0.004 - 0.006 inch). The gap is sized by the maximum deflection that can be withstood by the particular coldfinger without risking fatigue cracking during vibration testing and launch. Because the bumper assembly has to be in close proximity to the coldfinger, it invariably must become an integral part of the coldlink and cryogenic thermal insulation implementation. Figure 9 illustrates a typical coldfinger bumper assembly that was supplied by British Aerospace with their line of space Stirling cryocoolers in the early 1990s. The disadvantage of such a bumper assembly is that it can complicate the installation of multilayer thermal insulation (MLI) used to thermally insulate the cryocooler coldtip.

**Coldfinger Damper Assemblies.** As an alternative to the coldfinger bumper assembly, one can limit the dynamic response of the coldfinger to launch vibration inputs by adding damping to its motion. One significant source of damping is the thermal flexible braid or S-link assembly commonly used to attach the coldfinger to its load. These assemblies provide a modest degree of damping (Q=20) due to the internal rubbing that occurs between the assembly's many wires and foils; often this is enough to allow the coldfinger to survive the required launch vibration levels.

If a higher level of damping is required, an ideal means of providing it is via a shot or particle damper. Such a
damper consists of a small container of lead or tungsten shot attached to the coldfinger tip. Figure 10 illustrates the
dynamic performance of the particle damper used on the AIRS cryocooler. Notice that this damper drops the
maximum amplification (Q) of the pulse tube coldfinger from 40 to 10, a factor of four reduction. Note also that the
resonant frequency was not appreciably affected, implying that the shot mass "floats" during dynamic excitation and
does not add directly to the first-mode modal mass of the pulse-tube cold end.

5. ELECTRODYNAMIC DAMPING OF COMPRESSOR PISTONS

Most cryocooler-sized space assemblies have their resonant frequencies well above 100 Hz so that they do not
couple with low-frequency spacecraft and launch vehicle vibration modes in the 10 to 50 Hz frequency range. In sharp
contrast, cryocoolers have their fundamental drive frequency tuned in the range of 30 to 60 Hz, and commonly have
highly resonant piston and balancer vibration modes as low as 20 to 30 Hz. A particularly sensitive vibration mode is
the in-phase piston response of a dual-piston linear compressor when it is unpowered. In this mode the two pistons
travel in the same direction at the same time and do no gas compression. This mode has a strong coupling to launch
excitation and has a high amplification factor (Q≈30).

During system qualification it is important for the cryocooler's low-frequency vibration modes to be specifically
addressed, both in terms of establishing low-frequency vibration test requirements, and introducing special launch-
vibration latches or dampers for the cryocooler internal drive assemblies. For assemblies with motor drives, a favored
means of introducing launch restraint is to short the drive motor coils during launch. Alternatively, some space systems
power the coolers during launch and use closed-loop piston servo control to maintain the pistons in a centered position.

6.1 Computing Piston Response to Low-Frequency Launch Acceleration

The mechanical elements of the compressor closely approximate a classic single-degree-of-freedom spring-mass
system with its natural frequency $f_o$ (Hz) defined by its total spring stiffness $K$ (N/m) and moving mass $M$ (kg). The
degree of damping is described by the ratio $\zeta$ of the damping coefficient $C$ (N·sec/meter) to the critical damping coefficient $C_c$ (N·sec/meter), which is defined by

$$C_c = 2\sqrt{KM} = 4\pi M f_o$$

(5.1)

The fundamental equation describing the amplitude of vibration for a given launch acceleration level ($\dot{x}$) is given by

$$\frac{x}{x_o} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{[1 - \left(\frac{f}{f_o}\right)^2]^2 + [2\zeta\left(\frac{f}{f_o}\right)]^2}}$$

(5.2)

where $x =$ piston/displacer motion amplitude (o-p), meters; $x_o =$ deflection amplitude (meters) under a static acceleration of $\ddot{x}$ (i.e., $x_o = m\ddot{x}/K = \ddot{x}/(2\pi f_o)^2$); $\ddot{x} =$ launch acceleration level (o-p), m/s²; and $f =$ launch acceleration
6.2 Computing the Damping Ratio Associated with Shorted Drive Coils

When the compressor or displacer drive coils are electrically shorted, the back emf voltage developed by the drive coil generates a current proportional to the coil velocity as limited by the coil circuit resistance. This current develops a damping force \( F_e \) that opposes the coil motion and is given by:

\[
F_e = C_e \dot{x}
\]

where \( F_e = \text{electrical damping force}, \text{N} \); \( C_e = \text{electrical damping coefficient}, \text{N-s/m} \); and \( \dot{x} = \text{coil velocity}, \text{m/s} \).

The components of the electrical damping coefficient are defined by

\[
C_e = (BL)^2 \cdot R = (\text{Newton/amp})^2 \cdot \text{R}
\]

where \( B = \text{magnetic flux density in the gap (Tesla)} \); \( L = \text{length of coil wire in the gap (m)} \); and \( R = \text{total coil resistance including external wiring, ohms} \). Note that \( BL \) is the motor force constant (N/amp), which can be measured for a particular cooler drive motor. The result of shorting the drive coils thus leads to a new damping coefficient for the cooler defined by \( \zeta_{\text{total}} = \zeta + \frac{C_e}{C_c} \), where \( C_e \) is defined by Eq. 5.4, \( C_c \) is defined by Eq. 5.1, and \( \zeta \) is the measured damping ratio of the unshorted cryocooler.

6.3 Launch Motion Example

As an example, consider the BAe 50-80K cooler for which the resonance properties are summarized in Table 1. For this cooler, the electrical damping coefficient obtained by shorting the 0.77-ohm coil of the compressor, which has a motor force constant of 17 N/amp, is given by

\[
C_e = (17 \text{ N/amp})^2 \times 0.77 \text{ ohm} = 375 \text{ N-s/m}
\]

When combined with the existing compressor damping value \( \zeta = 0.14 \) and \( C_c = 169 \text{ N-s/m} \), this gives a damping ratio of \( \zeta_{\text{total}} = \zeta + \frac{C_e}{C_c} = 0.14 + \frac{375}{169} = 2.4 \). The resulting piston amplification at the cooler's resonant frequency \( (Q_o = (2\zeta)^{-1}) \) during launch is thus \((2 \times 2.4)^{-1} = 0.2\).
### Table 1. Summary of drive resonance parameters for BAe 50-80K cooler.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARAMETER</th>
<th>VALUE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compressor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Frequency, Hz</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Force Constant, N/amp</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moving Mass, g</td>
<td>270</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spring Stiffness, N/mm</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Damping Ratio, C/C_c</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Damp. Coef. (C_c), N-s/m</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 12. Compressor stroke during 3-g sine sweep at 2 octaves/min versus coil shorting resistance (BAe 50-80K cooler).](image)

To validate the predictions, the cryocooler was rigidly mounted to a launch vibration test shaker with the cooler axis parallel to the shaker motion. The piston motion was then recorded as a function of acceleration level and frequency using the cooler's built-in position measuring transducers (e.g. LVDTs). Figure 12 presents the piston amplitude measurements for a constant 3-g, 2-oct/minute sine sweep. Three curves are presented in the plot, corresponding to coils shorted, 1.0 ohm shorting resistance, and open circuit (infinite resistance). Notice the dramatic effect of shorting the drive coils on the resulting piston motion.

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The vibration generated by mechanical cryocoolers has long been identified as a critical issue associated with their integration into precision space instruments. The key sensitivity is the extent to which the cooler's vibration harmonics excite spacecraft resonances and prevent on-board sensors from achieving their operational goals with respect to resolution and pointing accuracy. To reduce the cryocooler's vibration signature to acceptable levels, a variety of active vibration suppression technologies have been developed and implemented over the past 15 years. At this point, nearly all space cryocoolers have active vibration suppression systems built into their drive electronics that reduce the peak unbalanced forces to less than 1% of their original levels. Typical systems of today individually control the vibration in each of the cryocoolers' lowest drive harmonics, with some controlling as many as 16 harmonics.

A second vibration issue associated with cryocoolers is surviving launch vibration. Here the same pistons and coldfingers that generate vibration during operation are often the most critical elements in terms of surviving high input acceleration levels. Since electrical power is generally not available during launch, passive vibration suppression technologies have been developed. Common vibration damping techniques include electrodynamic braking via shorted motor coils and the use of particle dampers on sensitive cryogenic elements. Data have been presented on the typical performance of these systems, including means of predicting the damping associated with electrodynamic breaking of the cryocoolers' linear-motor driven elements.
REFERENCES


