POLAR ORBIT ELECTROSTATIC CHARGING OF OBJECTS IN SHUTTLE WAKE*

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A recent survey of DMSP data has uncovered several cases where precipitating auroral electron fluxes are both sufficiently intense and energetic to charge spacecraft materials such as teflon to very large potentials in the absence of ambient ion currents. In this paper we provide analytical bounds which show that these measured environments can cause surface potentials in excess of several hundred volts to develop on objects in the orbiter wake for particular vehicle orientations.

INTRODUCTION

We consider an object in the wake of a spacecraft flying at an altitude of a few hundred kilometers in low polar earth orbit. We suppose that the object is charged to large negative voltages with respect to the ambient plasmas by an intense current, perhaps of order 10^{-8} amps/cm^2, of multi-kilovolt electrons. Our objective is to estimate upper bounds on the ion current attracted by the object, and lower bounds on its electric potential.

We assume that the plasma consists predominantly of O^+ at a concentration of about 10^5/cm^3 and a thermal energy per particle kT ~ 0.1 eV. The speed of the satellite V_0 is 8 x 10^5 cm/sec, corresponding to O^+ flow energy $1/2\ M_O\ V_0^2$ = 5.12 eV per particle, and a ratio $V_0/\sqrt{2\ kT/M_O}$ = 8. The plasma may also contain H^+, again with kT ~ 0.1 eV, but with a smaller Mach number, $V_0/\sqrt{2\ kT/M_H} \approx 2$. In the considerations that follow we assume that the vehicle is in eclipse and that no spacecraft generated plasmas surround the vehicle.

The estimates are based on orbit limited theory collection by a shadowed, ion attracting object in a cold flowing plasma. Initially, thermal effects are not considered; it is anticipated that such neglect is justified for high Mach number flows, especially if the negative potential on the collecting object is very much larger than kT. Supposing that thermal effects are negligible, it is then argued that the theory provides an upper bound on collected ion current, or equivalently, a lower bound on the potential to which the object becomes charged. Because H^+ ion speeds are not very much less than flow velocities, thermal effects on H^+ collection will be further considered later in the paper.

For ionospheric plasmas with negligible hydrogen concentration, energetic electron currents to the wake side object can be neutralized only by attracted O^+ ions. For a one meter object shadowed by a ten meter shuttle,

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we find that the magnitude of the minimum voltage for attracting O^+ ions is about 500 volts. In contrast, space charge limited collection of O^+ ions through a ten meter radius sheath requires about 4 KeV to neutralize a current of 10^{-8} amp/cm^2 of energetic electrons.

The effect of H^+ is to lower the voltage threshold for orbit limited collection to several tens of volts, but H^+ concentrations much larger than 100/cm^3 are required to neutralize energetic electron currents as large as 10^{-8} amps/cm^2 if potentials more negative than 100 volts with respect to the ambient plasma are to be avoided.

THEORY

Consider a sphere of radius a at a potential -V shadowed by a disk of radius R_0 at a distance ℓ from the sphere center. The geometry is axisymmetric, with the symmetry axis defined by the line connecting the centers of the sphere and disk parallel to the plasma flow velocity $\vec{V}_0$.

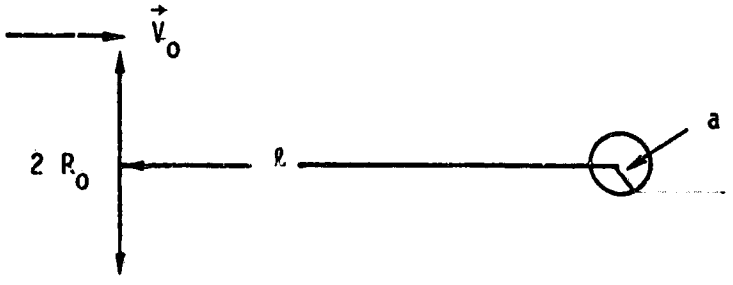

Figure 1. Geometry for ion collection.

To proceed further, we assume that the electrical potential is spherically symmetric about the center of the collecting sphere, and that the potential field is unaffected by the shield. In reality, the configuration of electric potential is much more complex, being strongly shielded by the plasma in the upstream direction and extending over substantial distances into the wake of the shield. Thus, by invoking the assumption of spherical symmetry one overestimates the upstream range of the potential and thereby the collected current.

Given the foregoing assumptions, the maximum ion current drawn by the sphere occurs when the distance between the shield and collector is infinite. Then, in accordance with orbit limitec theory, which also overestimates collected currents, the current of ions of a particular species intercepted by the sphere is given by

$$I_i = \pi e N_i V_0 [b_i^2 - R_0^2] \qquad (1)$$

where N_i is the density of the species i in the unperturbed plasma and the maximum impact parameter b_i is determined from

$$V_0 b_i = va \qquad \text{conservation of angular momentum} \qquad (2)$$

$$\frac{1}{2} M_i V_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} M_i v^2 - eV \qquad \text{conservation of energy} \tag{3}$$

where M_i is the ion mass, e the electron ion charge, and v the speed of the ion at the collector. Finally the collection current is

$$I_i = \pi e N_i V_0 \left[\left(1 + \frac{2\ eV}{M_i V_0^2} \right) a^2 - R_0^2 \right] \tag{4}$$

with a collection threshold at

$$eV = \frac{1}{2} M_i V_0^2 \left[\frac{R_0^2}{a^2} - 1 \right] \tag{5}$$

For a pure O^+ plasma ($1/2\ M_i V_0^2 \sim 5$ eV) and with $R_0/a \simeq 10$, the voltage threshold for the onset of collection occurs at about 500 volts. A current density of 10^{-8} amps/cm^2 corresponds roughly to maximum observed levels of intensity of energetic precipitating electrons ($E > 1$ KeV) (refs. 1-3). For $N_0 \sim 10^5$ cm^{-3}, the collected ion current is a sufficiently steep function of voltage that neutralization of the electron current of 10^{-8} amps/cm^2 occurs only slightly above the threshold.

The voltage threshold for hydrogen ion collection is $eV_H \sim 30$ volts for $R_0/a = 10$. Below 300 km altitude the H^+ concentrations are <100 cm^{-3}, and would not contribute substantially to the neutralization of electron energetic electron currents as large as 10^{-8} amps/cm^2. Instead at the 500 volt threshold for O^+ collection, the collected H^+ current is only $I_H \simeq 2 \times 10^{-10}$ amps/cm^2 for $N_H^+ = 100$ cm^{-3}, $R_0/a \sim 10$. Thus for $H^+ \sim 100$ cm^{-3} to effectively control the charging by energetic electrons, it is necessary, but perhaps not sufficient, that the charging currents be less than 2×10^{-10} amps/cm^3. Of course, at higher altitudes where the H^+ concentrations are greater, the effect of H^+ in neutralizing charging is correspondingly greater.

The previous considerations, utilizing orbit limited theory with the shield a long distance from the collector, overestimate the collected ion current. We can also estimate the collected current with the shield at a finite distance from the collector. In this case the current is given by

$$I = \pi N\ eV_0 \left[\left(1 + \frac{2\ qV}{M\ V_0^2} \right) a^2 - R_\infty^2 \right] \tag{6}$$

where R_∞ is the ambient parameter at infinite distance which causes the ion to intersect the outer edge of the shield located at the distance $R_0 = (R_0^2 + \ell^2)^{1/2}$ from the center of the collector. To relate R_∞ to the collector potential and geometry, we must know the ion's orbit in the potential field. Suppose for this purpose that the potential is given by

$$\phi = -V_a/r \tag{7}$$

Solving the orbit equations then leads to the relation

$$\frac{R_\infty}{a} = \frac{1}{2}\left\{\frac{R_0}{a} + \left[\left(\frac{R_0}{a}\right)^2 + \frac{4\ eV}{M\ V_0^2}\left(1 - \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{R_0}{r_0}\right)^2}\right)\right]^{1/2}\right\} \tag{8}$$

In Table 1 we compare the voltage thresholds for ion collection for the two extreme cases $\ell = \infty$ ($r_0 = \infty$) and $\ell = 0$ ($r_0 = R_0$), obtained by setting I = 0 in equation (6).

Table 1. Approximate Voltage Thresholds for Ion Collection, $R/a = 10$, V_T (volts)

	$\ell = \infty$	$\ell = 0$
O^+	507	2000
H^+	31.7	120

Potentials decreasing more rapidly than 1/r for increasing r would lead to increases in the threshold voltage by even more than the factor of four given in Table 1.

We next ask whether thermal effects on H^+ collection will substantially alter our estimates of minimum potential required for current neutralization. For this purpose we neglect shadowing of the collector by the spacecraft and assume orbit limited collection of H^+ ions. The orbit limited collection by a sphere at potential -V in a warm flowing plasma is given by Kanal's expression (ref. 4)

$$I = \pi a^2\ N\ eV_0\left[\left(1 + \frac{2\ kT}{M\ V_0^2} + \frac{2\ eV}{M\ V_0^2}\right)\ \mathrm{erf}\left(\sqrt{\frac{M}{2\ kT}}\ V_0\right)\right.$$

$$\left. + \frac{1}{V_0}\sqrt{\frac{2\ kT}{\pi M}}\ \exp\left(-\frac{M\ V_0^2}{2\ kT}\right)\right] \tag{9}$$

For H^+, $M\ V_0^2/2\ kT \sim 3$ and the collected current does not differ substantially from the cold plasma result

$$\frac{I}{\pi a^2} \simeq N_e\ V_0\left(1 + \frac{2\ eV}{M\ V_0^2}\right) \tag{10}$$

Thus, for V ~ 500 volts, N ~ 100 cm^{-3},

$$I/\pi a^2 \approx 1.3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ amp/cm}^2 , \tag{11}$$

and this extreme overestimate of collected H^+ current is still substantially less than the maximum observed charging currents.

So far, we have estimated upper bounds on selected ion current by invoking orbit limited theory. To ascertain how much the estimated bound might exceed actual current collection, let us consider space charge limited collection of O^+ ions by a one meter sphere through a spherically symmetric sheath of ten meter radius, the latter radius representing the radial extent of a wake. The Langmuir-Blodgett theory for space charge limited collection of O^+ by a sphere permits the required voltage to be estimated from (ref. 5)

$$j = 1.37 \times 10^{-8} \frac{V^{3/2}}{(\alpha a)^2} \tag{12}$$

For $j = 10^{-8}$ amp/cm^2, a = 100 cm, and an outer emission radius of 10^3 cm, equation (12) with $\alpha^2 = 30$ gives

$$V \simeq 3.6 \text{ kV} \tag{13}$$

DISCUSSION

Simple theoretical considerations have been invoked to estimate upper bounds on the ion current collected by a shadowed object subjected to intense fluxes of energetic electrons. In the course of these estimates, many complicating factors associated with geometry, vehicle potentials, field asymmetries, and charging properties of materials have been ignored. It is appropriate to ask whether any of the effects that have been neglected may substantially alter the magnitude of current drawn by an object located in the wake of an ionospheric spacecraft.

The effect of secondary emission would be to increase the effective current to the object. While secondary emission may be small for primary electron energies ~10 KeV, it may be substantial for softer components of the precipitating electron spectrum, including those reflected from the dense atmosphere.

The effect of a shuttle potential and field asymmetries is difficult to determine. One might argue that a potential on the shuttle increases its effective size and decreases current to a shadowed object; one might also argue that the fields around the shuttle focus more ions into the near wake where the object is located. The theoretical resolution of these questions will require multidimensional calculations of electric fields and ion trajectories in those fields. The required techniques will be embodied in the POLAR code, now under development at S-CUBED.

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WAKES AND DIFFERENTIAL CHARGING OF LARGE BODIES IN LOW EARTH ORBIT

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Highlights of earlier results by the author and others using the author's Inside-Out WAKE code on wake structures of LEO spacecraft are reviewed. For conducting bodies of radius large compared with the Debye length (large inverse Debye number), a high-Mach-number wake develops a negative potential well. Quasineutrality is violated in the very near wake region, and the wake is relatively "empty" for a distance downstream of about one-half of a "Mach number" of radii. There is also a suggestion of a core of high density along the axis. We report recent work on very large bodies in LEO.

A comparison of rigorous numerical solutions with in-situ wake data from the AE-C satellite suggests that the so-called "neutral approximation" for ions (straight-line trajectories, independent of fields) may be a reasonable approximation except near the center of the near wake. This approximation is adopted here for very large bodies.

In an earlier investigation of differential charging of small nonconducting bodies due to plasma flows, it was found that the scale of the voltage difference between the upstream and downstream surfaces ("front" and "wake" surfaces of a nonconducting body) due to a high-Mach-number plasma flow is governed by the ion drift energy. Hence kilovolt potential differences may occur in the solar wind, for example, between a spacecraft and a piece of insulated material in its near wake.

Recent work has concerned the "wake-point" potential of very large nonconducting bodies such as the Shuttle Orbiter. Using a cylindrical model for bodies of this size or larger in LEO (body radius up to 10^5 Debye lengths), approximate solutions are presented based on the neutral approximation (but with rigorous trajectory calculations for surface current balance). There is a negative potential well if the body is conducting, and no well if the body is nonconducting. In the latter case the wake surface itself becomes highly negative. The wake-point potential is governed by the ion drift energy.

LARGE-BODY WAKE STRUCTURE: CONDUCTING BODIES

Parker's wake-theory computer model for pillbox shapes (Inside-Out Method for warm ions - see refs. 1-3) was applied by the author and others in a number of wake calculations. High-voltage sheaths and wakes of large bodies require special numerical techniques (see refs. 3 and 12 for generalization to 3-D geometries, CLEPH code).

Wake of Moderately-Large Conducting Body in LEO

First we present highlights of earlier results obtained (1976, see refs. 1-2) in a problem involving the wake of a large body in LEO, 100 Debye lengths in radius. The body is in the form of a disk oriented normal to the flow. For two cases (figs. 1a and 1b) the parameter values are:

Case 1		Case 2
$\phi_o = -4$	(dimensionless potential in units of kT/e)	$\phi_o = -4$
$\lambda_D^{-1} = 100$	(inverse Debye number = ratio of body radius to Debye length)	$\lambda_D^{-1} = 100$
$M = 4$	(ion Mach number)	$M = 8$

This size of moving body is larger than had been treated prior to 1976 by trajectory-following, i.e., realistic, calculations. The results show what may be expected for the wake structure of large bodies in general. The problem of a large body requires more effort (computer time and judicious selection of numerical parameters) than that of a smaller body. The solutions shown, therefore, are intended to be illustrative rather than accurate. The Inside-Out Method was used (refs. 1-3).

Poisson-Vlasov iteration was applied (refs. 1,2), starting with the neutral-approximation ion density as an initial guess. A nominal number of trajectories, 512, was used at all grid points. The grid is similar to fig. 2a with z>0.

The profiles of n_i, n_e, and ϕ (dimensionless ion density, electron density and potential) are shown in figure 1a for Case 1. Tabulated values are given in reference 2. The wake is essentially "empty" of both ions and electrons between z=0 and z=1, and begins to fill up between z=2 and z=3, where z denotes the distance downstream in units of the body radius.

Two sets of ion-density profiles are shown on the left side of figure 1a, the unlabeled profiles for the final iteration, and the profiles labeled "A" for the previous iteration. Comparison of the n_e-profiles with the n_i-profiles labeled "A" (to denote that the ϕ-profiles and n_e-profiles in the figure are derived from these) indicates that the quasineutrality assumption is valid everywhere outside a cone-shaped region near the wake surface; the cone height along the axis is between one and two radii. This is in accord with expectation for a large body. Near the wake surface, however, quasineutrality is violated because the effective Debye length is large. The similarity of the n_i-profiles labeled "A" and the n_e-profiles in figure 1a is a consequence of near-quasineutrality.

Despite possible inaccuracies, one may infer certain physical conclusions from figure 1a, namely, (a) the suggestion of a core of high (approximately ambient) density of ions and electrons on the axis, and (b) the occurrence of a potential well in the near wake, defined as a region with ϕ-values below -4. The shading in the two lowest ϕ-profiles denote cross sections of this well. The wake-surface normalized fluxes are 1.1×10^{-8} ("A") and 2.4×10^{-7} (final) for ions, and 4.3×10^{-3} for electrons. The electron current density is less than exp(-4), as would be expected in the presence of a potential well.

The region of wake disturbance probably extends more than 6 radii downstream, and between 2 and 3 radii in the transverse direction.

Case 2 (fig. 1b) is similar to Case 1 except that the Mach number is increased from M=4 to M=8. The next-to-final and final-order ion densities are labeled "A" and unlabeled, respectively. On comparing these, the convergence seems fairly good at z=0.5 and z=1 radii downstream. Again, the disturbance extends beyond z=5, so that the downstream boundary should be moved further than z=6 radii downstream.

Despite possible inaccuracies, the consistency is such that physical conclusions may be drawn as follows. In this case the wake is seen to remain empty further downstream than in the M=4 case. In addition, the suggestion is much stronger that there is a central core of ambient density for both ions and electrons along the axis. Moreover, the potential well is wider and longer than in the M=4 case, although the depth is about the same. The normalized wake-surface fluxes are 7.4×10^{-30} ("A") and 4.2×10^{-30} (final) for ions, and 3.7×10^{-3} for electrons. The electron flux is slightly less than the M=4 value, and is again less than exp(-4).

The conical region behind the disk where quasineutrality breaks down is now longer than in the M=4 case, extending to between z=4 and z=5 radii along the axis.

The region of wake disturbance is probably longer than 6 radii downstream, as in the M=4 case, but may not extend beyond about 2 radii in the transverse direction.

Theory-Experiment Comparison for AE-C Satellite

Next, we note that Parker's wake theory computer model has been applied by Samir and Fontheim (ref. 4) in a comparative study of ion and electron distributions in the wakes of ionospheric satellites. From a comparison between the theory and ion measurements on the AE-C satellite, Samir and Fontheim show that theory and experiment agree fairly well in the "angle-of-attack" range between 90° and 135°. (The upstream and downstream directions are defined by 0° and 180°, respectively.) A significant finding is the fact that in that angular range even the "neutral approximation" for ions (straight-line trajectories, independent of electric fields) gives fair agreement with the measurements. (In the near-wake maximum rarefaction zone near 180°, both the neutral approximation and the self-consistent solution underestimate the measured ion densities - inferred from probe currents - by orders of magnitude. Electron data obtained by the Explorer 31 satellite also shows an underestimation near 180° by the Parker wake theory, although less pronounced.)

The largest ratio of body-radius-to-Debye-length (that is, the inverse of the Debye number) treated by Samir and Fontheim (ref. 4) is R_D=162, in one of the AE-C cases.

Figures 2a, b (from ref. 4) illustrate the geometry of the AE-C ion measurement, and the ion results for inverse Debye number 162. The locations of the ion current observation points, and of the numerical grid points at which densities were calculated, are shown in figure 2a. The geometry of the theoretical model is that of a pillbox cylinder with its axis parallel to the flow, while the true geometry is that of a pillbox cylinder in a "cross-flow," that is, with its axis perpendicular to the flow. In spite of this, the theory-experiment comparison is deemed by Samir and Fontheim to be meaningful, in view of uncertainties in the calculations and estimated measurement errors. (The depth in the direction of the flow is the same for both the satellite and the model, and the cross sections presented to the flow are nearly the same.) The current probe moves on a circular arc at a radial distance of about 1.5 satellite radii.

In figure 2b, the measured angular profile is shown together with the neutral approximation (zero-th iteration) and the self-consistent solution (15-th iteration). The self-consistent solution is closer to the experimental profile, in the angular range 90° - 147°, than the neutral approximation. Near 180°, the self-consistent solution is 2 to 3 orders of magnitude below the measured data, while the neutral approximation is about 10 orders of magnitude lower.

However, in their overall comparison assessment, Samir and Fontheim state that the neutral approximation describes the observed profiles more and more accurately as the inverse Debye number (ratio of body radius to Debye length) becomes large. This is justified physically based on the expectation that charge separation effects become weaker as the body size increases. This is equivalent to the setting-in of the quasineutrality regime, at sufficiently large inverse Debye numbers.

Wake of Very Large Conducting Body in LEO: Recent Results

We now treat the wake of a much larger conducting body, larger than any treated previously. In this case the self-consistent calculation becomes computationally relatively expensive. However, a reasonable approximation is afforded through the use of the "neutral approximation" for ions. That is, the ion trajectories governing ion space charge density are treated as if the ions were uncharged and unaffected by the field. The electron space charge density is assumed to be given by the "Boltzmann factor", that is, the exponential of the repulsive dimensionless potential. To some extent this approximation is supported by the Samir and Fontheim in-situ comparison discussed above. In any case it is qualitatively valuable and leads to physical insights with a minimum of computational expense. This approximation was used by Kiel et al (ref. 11). (We compute current balance later using rigorous trajectories.)

The potential distribution in the wake of a conducting satellite, in the form of a long cylinder with its axis normal to the flow, assumed to have a dimensionless potential of 3 kT/e, is shown in figures 3a, b and c, for bodies with inverse Debye numbers ranging from 10 to 10^5, and flow Mach numbers 2, 5 and 8. Figure 3a shows how the wake potential profile varies with inverse Debye number, for fixed Mach number = 8. The profiles for inverse Debye numbers 10, 10^2 and 10^3 are similar to results obtained earlier for a sphere by Kiel et al (see fig. 5 of ref. 11). The Kiel et al (ref. 11) results are for inverse Debye numbers up to 10^3. We have extended the solutions to 10^5. The wake potential profile has a negative minimum for inverse Debye numbers greater than about 10. The magnitude of the minimum is about 7, 10, 14 and 19, respectively, for inverse Debye numbers 10^2, 10^3, 10^4 and 10^5. Figure 3b shows how the wake potential profile varies with Mach number, for fixed inverse Debye number = 10^5. The depth of the potential minimum clearly increases with both increasing Mach number and inverse Debye number. Figure 3c shows equipotential contours for Mach number = 8 and inverse Debye number = 10^5.

These results would be applicable to the Shuttle Orbiter (inverse Debye number about 10^4) if it were a conducting body. However, most of its surface (about 97%) is covered with nonconducting tiles. Hence it must be treated as a large nonconducting body in LEO. The differential charging of such bodies is treated in the remainder of this paper.

WAKE STRUCTURES AND DIFFERENTIAL CHARGING OF SMALL AND LARGE NONCONDUCTING BODIES DUE TO PLASMA FLOWS

Differential Charging

Differential spacecraft charging takes place when the spacecraft surface is partly or entirely insulating and the charged-particle fluxes vary from point to point over the surface. In the familiar case of photoelectric emission from a sunlit

insulated area, due to electrons escaping from it the sunlit area tends to become positively charged relative to the surrounding dark areas (refs. 5-7). Another mechanism of differential charging, which is less familiar and appears to have been treated only very recently (ref. 8), is that due to the relative motion between a nonconducting spacecraft and the external plasma (e.g., a spacecraft in the ionosphere or in the solar wind). The fluxes of ambient ions and electrons on the wake surface are not the same as on the front surface. For high velocities of relative motion compared with the mean ion thermal velocity, whether this occurs in the ionosphere (due principally to spacecraft motion) or in the solar wind (due principally to plasma motion), there is a significant differential in the ion fluxes, but a negligible differential for the electrons. Since the net current density must vanish locally at each surface point in the steady state, this plasma-flow effect leads to a larger negative equilibrium potential on the wake surface than on the front surface. If there is photoemission as well on the front surface (as in the solar wind), this differential charging is enhanced. As shown below, this plasma-flow effect can generate differences between the front and wake surface potentials amounting to many kT/e (where T is the temperature, k is Boltzmann's constant, and e is the electron charge), together with a potential barrier for electrons. The potential difference can be expected to be of the order of volts in the ionosphere, and one kilovolt in the solar wind, that is, of the order of the ion drift energy (ref. 8).

Even weak differential charging can interfere with measurements of, say, weak ambient electric fields or low-energy particle spectra, and it can create electron potential barriers which can return emitted photoelectrons or secondary electrons to the surface and lead to erroneous interpretations of the data (ref. 9). This type of electron potential barrier is distinct from, and should not be confused with, the more familiar space-charge potential minimum which can be produced by emitted-electron space charge (ref. 10) and is not due to differential charging. The barrier produced by differential charging effects may be more important than the potential minimum caused by space charge.

The next section results show what may be expected: (a) in the ionosphere for small insulated objects, small meteroids, or small parts of a spacecraft (e.g., a painted antenna) located within the wake region of a moving spacecraft, and (b) in the solar wind for an entire spacecraft, or small natural bodies in the solar system. Following the next section, the wake structure and differential charging of very large nonconducting bodies in Low Earth Orbit will be treated.

Differential Charging of Small Nonconducting Body

In the problem treated next (see fig. 4), we assume the nonconducting spacecraft to have a "pillbox" shape, and to be in a flowing plasma, with the plasma flow along the axis, from the "front" region toward the "wake" region. The plasma is taken to be ionized hydrogen and is assumed to have a velocity of flow 4 times larger than the most probable ion thermal velocity (ion "Mach number" = 4). (In the solar wind, this Mach number would be approximately 10.) Since the unperturbed ion flux to the wake surface is about 9 orders of magnitude smaller than the corresponding ion flux to the front surface, and since the electron fluxes are about the same to the front and wake surfaces, there will be a significant differential between the equilibrium potentials at the front and wake surfaces (see below).

Using the Inside-Out Method, current densities of ions and electrons are evaluated at many points on the spacecraft surface (refs. 7-8). The local surface potentials were varied until current balance was achieved at each point.

Figure 4 shows equipotential contours around the spacecraft, obtained by numerical solution, labeled by numbers representing dimensionless values of the potential (in units of kT/e, where T is the plasma temperature, and assuming $T_i=T_e$). These potentials are obtained from Laplace's equation (space charge negligible for small bodies), where the surface potentials are obtained by the relaxation method discussed by Parker (ref. 8), under the requirement of zero net current density at all surface points. The errors in the solution shown are estimated to be under 10 percent, based on several runs giving similar answers starting from different initial guesses.

There are three regions of characteristic behavior of the potential: the "wake", the "side", and the "front". Near the "wake point," the potentials are of the order of -10 kT/e. This large negative value is associated with the reduction in ion flux due to the flow. In the side region the potentials are of the order of -3 kT/e; this is essentially the order of the equilibrium potential when there is no flow ($\sim-(kT/e)\ln(m_i/m_e)^{\frac{1}{2}}$). In the front region the potentials are of the order of -kT/e, i.e., are less negative than those on the side, because of the enhancement of the ion flux due to the flow. (Adding photoemission here would make the front potential still less negative.) The surface points are thus <u>not</u> equipotential. Note that there is a saddle point in the front region, that is, a potential barrier for electrons. This feature is caused by the interaction between the relatively large magnitude wake-point potentials and the relatively low magnitude front potentials. The dashed part of the contour labeled "-3.0" near the side surface indicates that there is more complicated fine structure (variation of potential along the side surface) than is shown in the figure. The potentials along the wake surface fall off toward the corner. The potentials along the front surface first fall with radius and then rise sharply as the corner is approached. This may be a "corner effect."

It is shown by Parker (ref. 7) that when the ion Mach number is large (in the ionosphere and solar wind), the potential difference ΔV generated by the flow should be of the order of $m_i v^2/2e$, or $0.0052 m_i(\text{amu}) v^2(\text{km/s})$ in volts, where m_i(amu) and v(km/s) denote the ion mass in atomic mass units and the flow velocity in kilometers per second, respectively. In the ionosphere, with oxygen ions and orbital velocities of the order of 8 km/s, ΔV is about 5 V. Hence one would expect a relatively small body in the ionosphere, such as a thin antenna or boom painted with nonconducting paint, or a painted or insulated object in the very near wake of a spacecraft (or the spacecraft surface itself if it is a dielectric) to become highly negatively charged to potentials of the order of volts in the ionosphere.

In the solar wind these results could apply to an entire spacecraft, since it is small in comparison with the Debye length. With protons and solar wind velocities of about 400 km/s or higher, ΔV is of the order of 1 kV. This means that one may have kilovolt potential differences between the wake and front surfaces. The electric fields due to this differential charging may significantly disturb measurements of space electric fields, or of low-energy plasma electrons, for example, on the Helios spacecraft (ref. 6). Moreover, because of this solar wind flow effect, small natural bodies in the solar system (i.e., bodies not large in comparison with the Debye length or ion gyroradius) may be expected to become differentially charged with potential differences of the order of 1 kV, independent of whether there is photoemission or not. Candidates for this effect include micrometeroids, dust, asteroids, the planet Pluto, and natural small satellites such as Mars' moon Deimos and Saturn's ring material when they are outside the bow shock (M. Dryer, personal communication, 1978).

For large bodies in flowing plasmas, space charge cannot be neglected. The wakes and differential charging of very large bodies are treated in the following section.