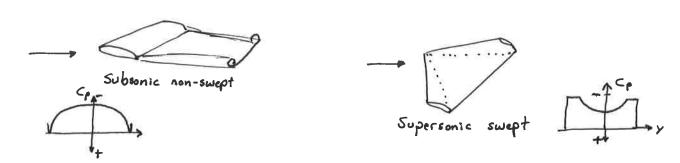
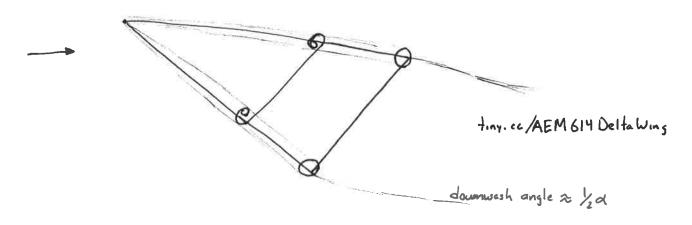
Lesson 29 High AOA + LEX

# Slender Delta Wings in subsonic flow

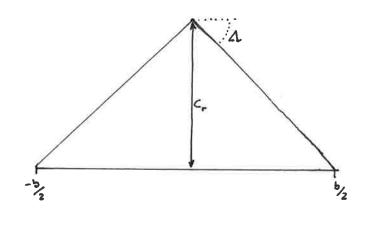
Behavior is different from higher AR or rectangular non-swept planforms.



As the LE sweep angle increases in a subsonic flow, a change in the flow occurs. Leading edge vorticies form along the leading edge.



Geometry



$$\lambda = 0$$

$$\tan \Lambda = \frac{C_r}{b/2} \quad \text{and} \quad S = \frac{b \cdot C_r}{2}$$

$$AR = \frac{b^2}{S} = \frac{b^2}{bC_2} = \frac{b^2}{bb/2} \tan \Lambda \frac{1}{2}$$

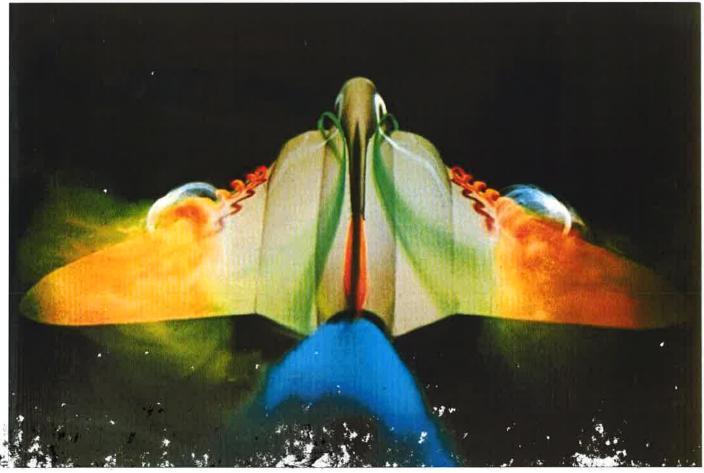
$$AR = \frac{4}{100} = \frac{4}{100}$$

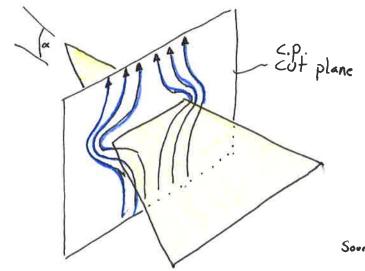
Leading Edge Vorticies used to increase effective ADA range of aircraft.











Source: McCornick 1995

The normal component of velocity is Variate. The cut plane flow geometry is self similar and follows a velocity potential gov'equ.

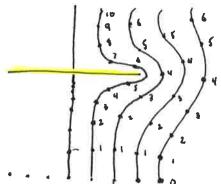
$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2} = 0 \quad \text{on the C.p.}$$

You should be thinking the following:

- · Potential functions have no drag and no separation.
- . Thus, the lift should be zero!! But the lift isn't zero!

Although the C.P. shape is self similar, the actual wing increases width as the flow moves from the vertex to trailing edge. An increasing amount of fluid is being affected, so lift (being a momentum term derivative wit time) is non zero.

Another way to view this process is that the potential flow "trapped" or "slowed" the equal time spacing along streamlines. There is an "apparent mass" associated with this operation.



Not all particles exit the given domain in equal time

The C.P. lift component is equal to the C.P. velocity Va and multiplied by the change in apparent mass.

The apparent mass in the C.P. is

$$m' = \pi \frac{b^2}{4} \rho dx \Rightarrow \frac{dm'}{dx} = \pi \frac{b^2}{4} \rho dx \frac{db}{dx}$$

The local lift coefficient is (after reduction)

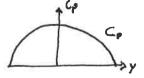
This gives (for a flat wing)

$$\Delta P = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \cdot \frac{2\alpha}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{2\gamma}{b(\alpha)}\right)^2}} \cdot \frac{db(x)}{dx}$$

Converting to a conscal coordinate system, an  $\theta = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{2y}{b}\right)^2}$ 

$$\frac{\Delta p}{g} = \frac{2\alpha}{\sin \theta} \frac{db}{dx}$$

This gives an elliptical spanwise loading!



$$C_{L_{a}} = \frac{\pi A}{2}$$

This analysis is good for small angles and small AR.

according to the small angles and small AR.

## Actual Delta Wings create vorticies along the LE.

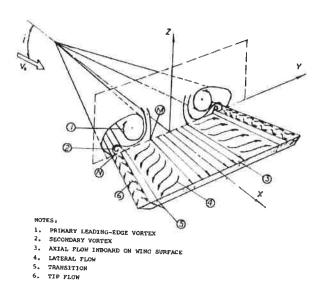
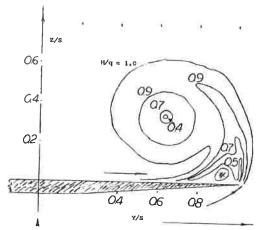


Figure 3. Flow distribution of a sharp-edge delta wing showing primary and secondary leading-edge vortices.



The vorticies are regions of low pressure occurring only on the upper surface.

In 2D, the flow pattern :



Vortex lift is produced from the leading edge suction

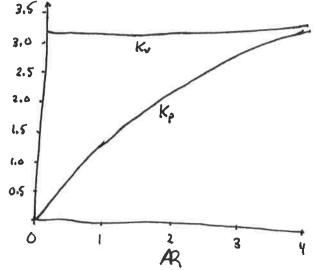
Pulhemus (NASA TN D-3767) provides

$$CD = CDo + Kp \cdot \sin(\alpha)^{2} \cdot \cos(\alpha) + Kv \cdot \sin(\alpha)^{3}$$

CL = Kp sind cos2 + Kr cos a sin2 a

Potential flow lift separated vertex lift

prev. page



Kp = Chy littin, Surhue theory

TA

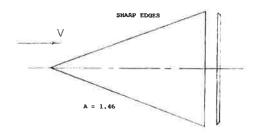
TA

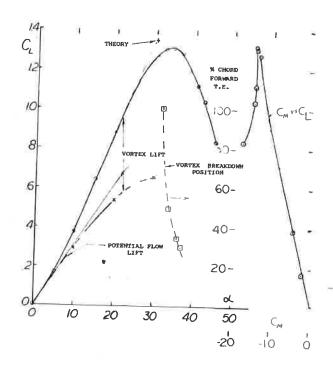
COS

Kr = L

TTA

### Aerodynamic Force Analysis





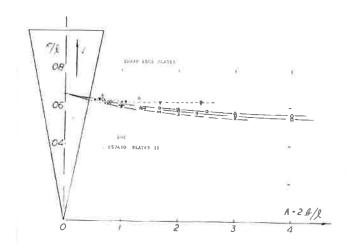
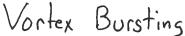
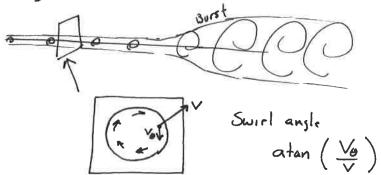


Figure 12. Aerodynamic center of delta wings derived from experimental results.

The a.c. is theoretically at  $\frac{2}{3}$ c for AR  $\approx 0$ .

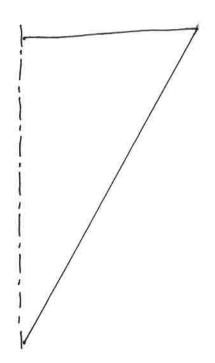
Vortex lift provides the majority of Ca as of increases beyond 20° (depending on configuration)





When the swirl angle is large, an instability forms with the result of a significantly larger size and a lower swirl velocity. This is the vortex equivalent of hydroulic jump in an open channel or a shock in supersonic fluid.

Vortex bursting is troublesome for designers. The borst point is sensitive to design parameters and operational parameters.



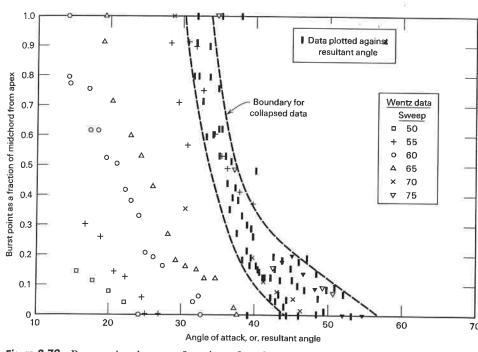


Figure 3.76 Burst point data as a function of angle of attack and resultant angle.

### Vortex Bursting



The F-18 had a significant development issue with the LEX strake vortex bursting and interacting with the canted verticles. The vortex created large stresses and eventually fatigue issues.

tiny.cc/AEM614F18HARV

5:00 - 7:00

8:50 -

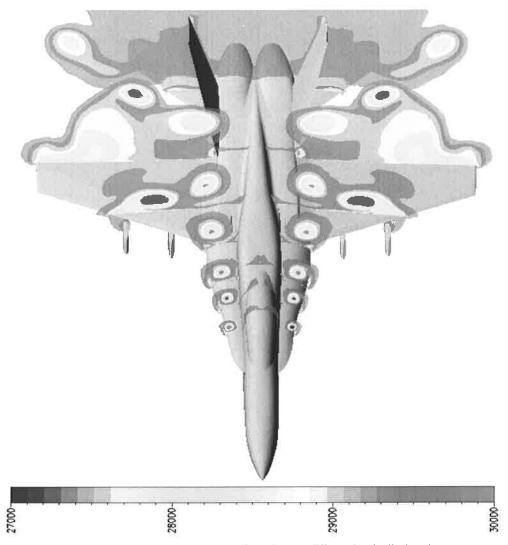


Fig. 4. Total pressure contours on cross-flow planes at different longitudinal stations.

Another vortex is generated at the tip of the wing that trails downstream away from the vertical tail. As the vortical flow crosses the leading edge of the vertical tail, a smaller vortex develops at the root of the tail underneath the primary LEX vortex. The tail vortex exists totally at the outer surface of the vertical tail and it is rotating in the opposite direction to that of the primary LEX vortex.

The surface pressure coefficient on the upper and lower surfaces of the LEX at different fuselage stations (FS) at  $\alpha = 30^{\circ}$  are shown in Fig. 5. The results are compared with HARV flight-test data (Fisher et al., 1990) at three different FS. The spanwise coordinate is normalized by the span of the LEX at every FS, such that the normalized coordinate is zero at the leading edge of the LEX and one at the intersection with the fuselage. Two suction peaks are shown in the pressure distribution. The suction peaks correspond to the core of the primary and secondary LEX vortices, respectively. The pressure peaks and the positions of the vortex core of the primary vortex are accurately captured at all stations. However, the pressure peak of the secondary vortex at the aft position is overestimated. The figure shows the outboard motion of the core of the leading-edge vortices as the flow travels downstream. This is indicated form the outboard spanwise motion of the primary suction peak.

Three-dimensional and front view snapshots of the F/A-18 aircraft and the instantaneous streamlines of the LEX and wing vortices at four different angles of attack are shown in Fig. 6. The figure also shows the surface static pressure on the aircraft surfaces. The flow field at these high angles of attack is characterized by highly unsteady spiral flow, massive

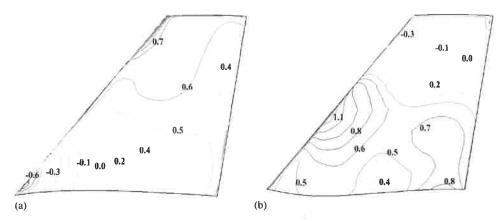


Fig. 9. Contour lines of pressure coefficient,  $-C_p$ , over the surfaces of the vertical tail. (a) Inboard surface; (b) outboard surface.

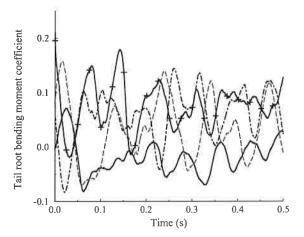


Fig. 10. The time history of the tail rbm coefficient: ---,  $\alpha = 25^{\circ}$ ; ---,  $\alpha = 30^{\circ}$ ; ---,  $\alpha = 35^{\circ}$ ; +--+,  $\alpha = 40^{\circ}$ .

James and Meyn (1994) used a  $6 \times 8$  transducer array. James and Meyn (1994) showed that the density of the transducer array affects the integration of the buffet loads on the vertical tail. The results compare well with the experimental data over wide range of angles of attack. The maximum rbm occurs around the  $30^{\circ}$  angle of attack. That is when the vortex breakdown is completely ahead of the leading edge of the vertical tail. At higher angles of attack, the rbm decreases due to the diffusion of the vortex breakdown flow before it impinges upon the vertical tail. At low angles of attack ( $\alpha < 25^{\circ}$ ), there is still substantial amount of buffet. This buffet occurs even when the onset of vortex breakdown is downstream of the vertical tail. This observation suggests that the vortex breakdown may not be the only source of vertical tail buffeting of fighter aircraft. This was also observed experimentally by Gursul and Xie (1999). Several unsteady phenomena may contribute to the tail buffeting at lower angles of attack, such as vortex shedding, wakes from different parts of the aircraft, unsteady flow separation from the leading edge of the vertical tail (as observed in Fig. 4), and adverse feedback form the unsteady location of the onset of vortex breakdown.

#### 4.3. Unsteady pressure at 45% chord and 60% span

Several publications have reported experimental and flight-test data at the 45% chord and 60% span point on the vertical tail. Thus, the unsteady pressure history at this point was monitored and analyzed for comparison. This would insure that results from different sources of tests and flight data have a common point for comparison. The time histories of the inboard, outboard, and differential unsteady pressure coefficients at the 45% chord and 60% span point are shown in Fig. 12. The figure indicates that the inboard surface of the tail experienced larger amplitude of fluctuation

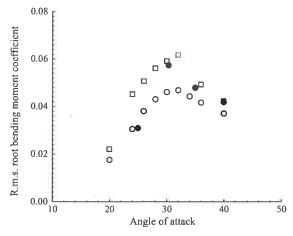


Fig. 11. RMS of tail rbm coefficient: ○, full-scale model (James and Meyn, 1994); □, full-scale model (Pettit et al., 1994); •, present computation.

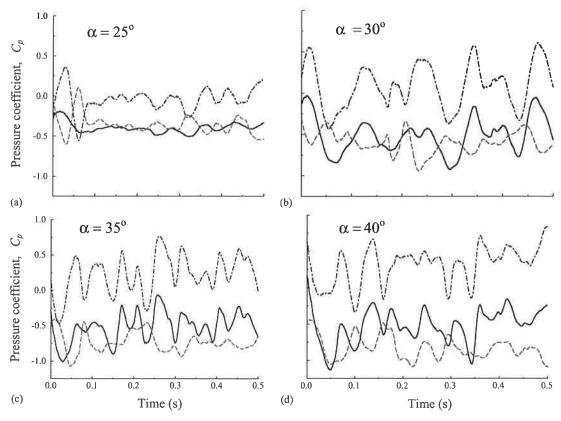


Fig. 12. The time histories of pressure coefficients on the vertical tail at 45% chord, 60% span: ——, inboard pressure; ——, outboard pressure; ——, differential pressure.

than the outboard surface, except at 25° angle of attack. This indicates that the inboard surface of the vertical tail has a more significant contribution in the unsteadiness of the problem than the outboard surface.

The r.m.s. of inboard, outboard and differential pressure coefficients are shown in Fig. 13. The results are compared with flight-test data, full-scale and 16%-scale wind-tunnel data of Meyn et al. (1994). The results compare well with the

High AOA problems.

tiny.cc/AEM614 Hish AOA

· Wing rock: The delta wing exhibits a nonlinear roll moment behavior lead in, to a limit cycle oscillation. tiny.co/AEM614 WingRock F5



- · Vortex interaction + Burstin, F18 verticle tail
- · Spins
- · Non-linear Aerodynamics, coupled with Inertial coupling.
- · High Drag

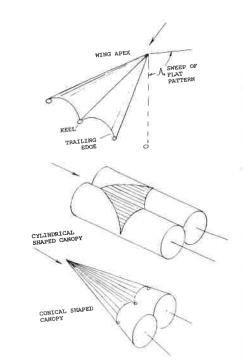


Figure 32. Geometry characteristics of parawings.

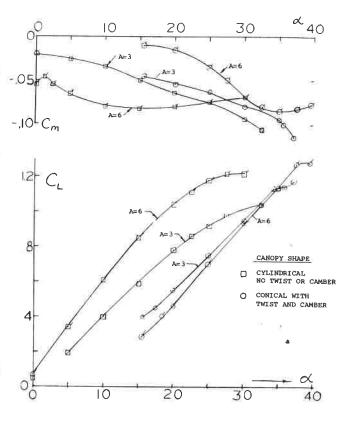


Figure 33. Lifting and moment characteristics of two-lobed parawings, A = 3 and 6.

