

Fig. 2 Comparison of theories with experiment for a wing with partial-span flap: 50% inboard flap span,  $AR=6$ ,  $\lambda=0.5$ ,  $A_{c/4}=9.67$  deg,  $M_\infty=0$ , and  $N=40$ .

comparison of the theories for a wing of  $AR=6$  with 50% inboard flap span. The flapped section data are given in Ref. 13 and the clean section data are taken from Ref. 12. Again, the present improved method predicts results in good agreement with experiment. Prandtl's method is seen to produce lower lift in this case. Examination of the numerical results indicates that while Prandtl's theory produces slightly lower downwash over the flapped span, it gives much lower upwash over the outboard clean span which is due to the strong trailing vortices from the inboard flapped section. This is probably the aspect-ratio effect, because as the aspect ratio is increased to 10, Prandtl's theory predicted higher lift.

### Concluding Remarks

An improved nonlinear lifting-line theory has been presented with applications. The new theory, which allows the use of nonlinear section data, predicts aerodynamic characteristics of wings of moderate to high aspect ratios with or without sweep in better agreement with experiment than Prandtl's theory. The theory can be used to convert the airfoil characteristics to wing characteristics.

### Acknowledgment

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## Prediction of Tethered-Aerostat Response to Atmospheric Turbulence

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### Introduction

WITHIN recent years, aerodynamically shaped tethered balloons (aerostats) have been used as "skyhooks" and instrument-carrying elevated platforms. For example, the skyhook applications have included balloon logging<sup>1</sup> and experiments in ship-cargo unloading<sup>2</sup>; platform applications include telecommunications relay,<sup>3</sup> optical surveillance,<sup>4</sup> and atmospheric measurements.<sup>5</sup>

For all of these examples, the operational advantages of utilizing an aerostat are compromised by its inherent unsteadiness in atmospheric turbulence. A tethered-aerostat system is useful only if this unsteadiness is small enough to allow it to perform its tasks.

In 1970, DeLaurier<sup>6</sup> developed an analysis by which the first-order station-keeping stability of a tethered aerostat could be predicted. This was applied to the configuration design of the Family-II aerostat (Fig. 1), and experiments confirmed the theoretical predictions of first-order stability throughout its flight envelope.<sup>7</sup> However, first-order stability only guarantees steadiness in steady winds. Although it is a necessary condition for minimal response to turbulence, it is not sufficient.

In order to address this problem, DeLaurier<sup>8</sup> developed an analysis by which the rms lateral response of a tethered aerostat may be predicted. This Note describes the development of a corresponding longitudinal analysis, and the application of both analyses to an example Family-II aerostat.

### Method of Analysis

The spectral approach was used for this work, where the cable-aerostat system's transfer functions to a spectral component of turbulence were combined with an atmospheric-turbulence power-spectrum function to obtain power functions of the system's responses. Then, by integration, mean square values for the responses were obtained. This is analogous to the aircraft turbulence-response analysis described by Etkin,<sup>9</sup> where turbulence was considered to be "frozen" with respect to the atmosphere, and the vehicle was excited by flying through it.

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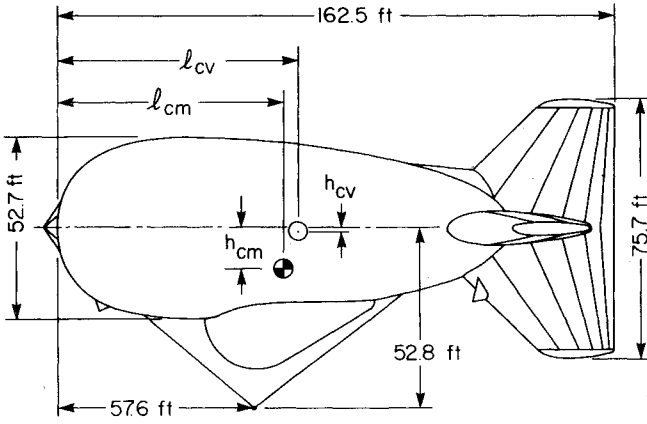


Fig. 1 Side view of the SN 204 Family-II aerostat.

For this case, the "frozen-field" assumption is again used, with the conceptual change that the vehicle is excited by the field passing around it at a mean wind speed  $U_0$ . Therefore, for aerostats whose lateral dimensions are small compared with their longitudinal dimensions, the turbulence field within the region of the aerostat, and with respect to its mass center, is given by

$$u_g = CU_0 \exp(i\omega t) \quad (1)$$

$$v_g = BU_0 \exp(i\omega t) \exp(i\omega x/U_0) \quad (2)$$

$$w_g = AU_0 \exp(i\omega t) \exp(i\omega x/U_0) \quad (3)$$

where  $x, y, z$  are the traditional body-fixed wind axes<sup>10</sup>;  $u_g, v_g, w_g$  are the turbulence-spectrum velocity components in the negative  $x, y$ , and  $z$  directions, respectively;  $A, B, C$  are magnitudes of the components;  $t$  is time; and  $\omega$  is the spectrum frequency, which is given by

$$\omega = -2\pi U_0/\lambda \quad (4)$$

where  $\lambda$  is the spectrum wavelength.

Furthermore, the "long-wavelength" assumption<sup>9</sup> was applied, where it is assumed that the most energetic spectrum wavelengths are at least eight times longer than the length of the vehicle. This means that the axial variations of  $v_g$  and  $w_g$  are nearly linear within the length of the aerostat, and that the turbulent forcing may be obtained by using the vehicle's stability derivatives. For example, the  $w_g$  excitation is given by

$$X_g = X_\alpha \alpha_g + X_{\dot{\alpha}} \dot{\alpha}_g + X_q q_g + X_{\dot{q}} \dot{q}_g \quad (5)$$

$$Z_g = Z_\alpha \alpha_g + Z_{\dot{\alpha}} \dot{\alpha}_g + Z_q q_g + Z_{\dot{q}} \dot{q}_g \quad (6)$$

$$M_g = M_\alpha \alpha_g + M_{\dot{\alpha}} \dot{\alpha}_g + M_q q_g + M_{\dot{q}} \dot{q}_g \quad (7)$$

where  $X_g, Z_g$  are the turbulence forces in the  $x$  and  $z$  directions, respectively;  $M_g$  is the turbulence moment about the  $y$  axis;  $X_\alpha, X_{\dot{\alpha}}, Z_q, M_{\dot{q}}$ , etc. are the dimensional stability derivatives<sup>10</sup>; and

$$\alpha_g = A \exp(i\omega t) \quad (8)$$

$$q_g = -i\omega A \exp(i\omega t) \quad (9)$$

$$\dot{\alpha}_g = i\omega A \exp(i\omega t) \quad (10)$$

$$\dot{q}_g = \omega^2 A \exp(i\omega t) \quad (11)$$

Similarly, equations for the  $u_g$  and  $v_g$  excitation were obtained. These were then nondimensionalized and added to the

nondimensional first-order unforced cable-aerostat dynamic equations of Refs. 6 and 7. For this case, the cable's dynamics were ignored, and it was thus modeled by a massless, dragless rod. The particular solutions of the resulting equations gave the system's transfer functions which, for the  $w_g$  excitation, had the form

$$x/\alpha_g = |x/\alpha_g| \exp(i\omega t) \exp(i\delta_x) \quad (12)$$

$$\theta/\alpha_g = |\theta/\alpha_g| \exp(i\omega t) \exp(i\delta_\theta) \quad (13)$$

$$\Delta T/\alpha_g = |\Delta T/\alpha_g| \exp(i\omega t) \exp(i\delta_T) \quad (14)$$

where  $x$  is the change in aerostat axial displacement;  $\theta$  is the change in aerostat pitch angle;  $\Delta T$  is the change in tether tension; and  $\delta_x, \delta_\theta, \delta_T$  are the phase angles for the  $x, \theta$ , and  $\Delta T$  variations with respect to  $\alpha_g$ .

Note that the transfer functions are uncoupled between longitudinal and lateral responses, where the total longitudinal response is due both to  $u_g$  and  $w_g$  excitation, and the lateral response is due solely to  $v_g$ . Furthermore, the lateral solution, as described in Ref. 8, gives values for the lateral displacement variation  $y$ , the change in heading angle  $\psi$ , and the roll angle  $\phi$ .

The power functions for the dynamic response to turbulence were obtained from the magnitudes of the transfer functions and power functions for the atmosphere's turbulence components  $P_u(\omega)$ ,  $P_v(\omega)$ , and  $P_w(\omega)$ . For example, the longitudinal functions are

$$P_x(\omega) = |x/u_g|^2 P_u(\omega) + |x/\alpha_g|^2 P_w(\omega)/U_0^2 \quad (15)$$

$$P_\theta(\omega) = |\theta/u_g|^2 P_u(\omega) + |\theta/\alpha_g|^2 P_w(\omega)/U_0^2 \quad (16)$$

$$P_T(\omega) = |\Delta T/u_g|^2 P_u(\omega) + |\Delta T/\alpha_g|^2 P_w(\omega)/U_0^2 \quad (17)$$

Finally, the rms values for the responses were obtained from the square roots of the power-function integrals. For example

$$x_{rms} = \left[ \int_0^\infty P_x(\omega) d\omega \right]^{1/2} \quad (18)$$

$$\theta_{rms} = \left[ \int_0^\infty P_\theta(\omega) d\omega \right]^{1/2} \quad (19)$$

$$\Delta T_{rms} = \left[ \int_0^\infty P_T(\omega) d\omega \right]^{1/2} \quad (20)$$

where

$$(u_g)_{rms} = \left[ \int_0^\infty P_u(\omega) d\omega \right]^{1/2} \quad (21)$$

$$(w_g)_{rms} = \left[ \int_0^\infty P_w(\omega) d\omega \right]^{1/2} \quad (22)$$

### Numerical Example

The analysis was applied to SN 204 of the Family-II series of aerostats, whose physical characteristics are given in Ref. 7. Also, the atmospheric-turbulence power functions were obtained from Teunissen<sup>11</sup> who uses the von Karman model along with equations and graphs for the intensities,  $\bar{u}_g^2, \bar{v}_g^2, \bar{w}_g^2$ , and scale lengths,  $L_x, L_y, L_z$ . For this particular case, the cable length is 1000 ft and is tethered at sea level on smooth terrain. From Ref. 11, this gives

$$\bar{u}_g^2 = \bar{v}_g^2 = \bar{w}_g^2 = 0.0004 U_0^2 \quad (23)$$

$$L_x = 650 \text{ ft} \quad L_y = L_z = 325 \text{ ft} \quad (24)$$

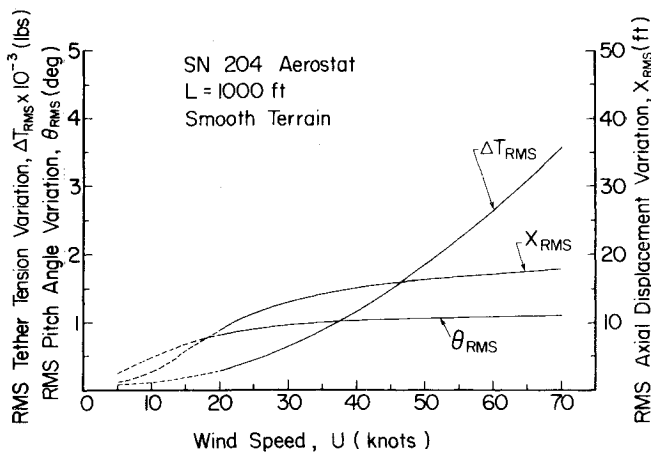


Fig. 2 Predicted rms longitudinal response to atmospheric turbulence.

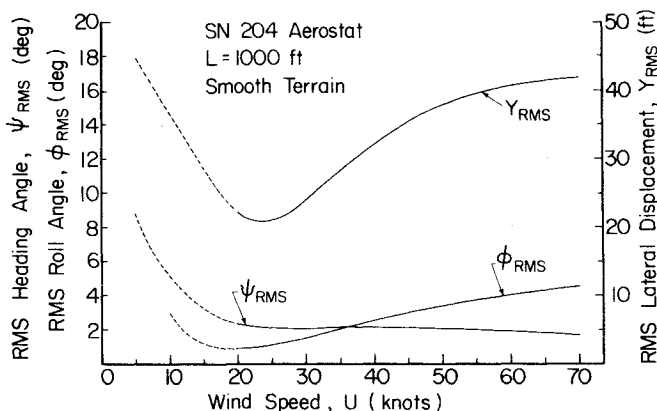


Fig. 3 Predicted rms lateral response to atmospheric turbulence.

and the resulting responses for a wind-speed range of 5 to 70 knots are given in Figs. 2 and 3. Note that the long-wavelength assumption is violated at  $U_0$  below 20 knots. Therefore the dashed portions of the curves are only qualitative variations.

Upon comparison of Figs. 2 and 3, one sees that lateral displacement,  $y_{rms}$ , is generally twice the magnitude of the axial displacement,  $x_{rms}$ ; similarly, the heading angle,  $\psi_{rms}$ , is approximately twice as sensitive to turbulence as the pitch angle variation,  $\theta_{rms}$ . This behavior was qualitatively observed during the SN 204's flight tests. Furthermore, the  $w_g$  excitation was over twice as effective as  $u_g$  for producing axial responses, and was nearly 10 times as effective in producing pitch responses. Finally, it was found that  $\Delta T_{rms}$  was due primarily to  $\Delta \theta_{rms}$  so that

$$\Delta T_{rms} \cong \frac{\rho U_0^2 S}{2} C_{L\alpha} \Delta \theta_{rms} \quad (25)$$

Note the alarming increase in  $\Delta T_{rms}$  with  $U_0$ , even for this "smooth-terrain" case. It is clear that configuration redesign to lower  $\theta_{rms}$  would reduce the required cable safety factor, and hence its weight and drag.

### Concluding Remarks

The most important restrictions on the physical model are the long-wavelength assumption and the massless, dragless cable assumption. For aerostats the size of the SN 204, these constrain the validity of this analysis to wind speeds above 20 knots and cable lengths less than 1500 ft. Within this envelope, however, the physical model is well justified, and the analysis should predict an aerostat's behavior with reasonable accuracy.

Currently, this analysis is being used to develop aerostat configurations that will have minimum response to turbulence and hence maximum station-keeping ability. The results from this work will be the subject of a future report.

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## Thrust Augmenting Ejector Analogy

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**T**HURST augmentation sometimes has been viewed by those not directly involved as a violation of basic principles, i.e., something for nothing. This is probably because the total momentum at the ejector exit is greater than the input momentum, a situation which is intuitively disquieting. It is the purpose of this Note to illustrate the same effect in terms of colliding railroad cars and thereby to put thrust augmentation and some of the attendant details on a more intuitive footing. This is a timely objective since a prototype aircraft employing thrust augmentation is currently under construction by Rockwell International for the U.S. Navy.

A schematic of a thrust augmenting ejector is shown in Fig. 1. The primary nozzle is placed within the ejector shroud and expels high-pressure air. The mixing of the surrounding air with the primary air causes a low-pressure region downstream of the nozzle exit which causes ambient air to be entrained into the ejector. The primary and entrained flows are mixed

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