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Wing/Store Flutter Suppression Investigation

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The design, testing, and evaluation of active flutter suppression technology using a common wind tunnel model has been successfully completed by the U.S. and several European organizations. This paper emphasizes analytical predictions and presents test data for correlation. Several control laws were evaluated using the FASTOP computer program and a modified Nyquist criterion. Although the design and tests were conducted for a specific Mach number of 0.8, the analyses were performed at several Mach numbers to determine system effectiveness at off-design conditions.

Nomenclature

A/C	= airframe
\bar{C}	= wing chord
g	= structural damping coefficient
\bar{g}	= acceleration due to gravity
G	= control elements in the forward path of the closed loop block diagram
h	= vertical displacement
H	= control elements in the feedback path of the closed loop block diagram
K	= feedback gain
L	= distance between sensors
M	= Mach number
N	= number of encirclements of the origin made by the Nyquist plot
P	= number of poles of control system open loop transfer function
q	= dynamic pressure
S	= Laplace variable
\bar{S}	= wing span
T	= transfer function
V	= velocity
Z	= number of zeros of the characteristic equation with positive real parts
δ	= control surface displacement
Λ	= sweep angle
θ	= torsion slope
ϕ	= bending slope

Subscripts

f	= flutter
F	= filter
IA	= inboard aft
IF	= inboard forward
LE	= leading edge
OA	= outboard aft
OF	= outboard forward
ref	= reference value
TE	= trailing edge

Introduction

STARTING in 1976, the Northrop Corporation supported by the Air Force Wright Aeronautical Laboratories/Flight Dynamics Laboratory (FDL), designed, fabricated, and tested a wing/store flutter suppression system.¹ The flutter model represented an advanced lightweight fighter wing (YF-17) with three different external store configurations. To simulate symmetric flutter characteristics, the semispan flexible wing and fuselage model was designed to be wall mounted with rigid-body pitch and plunge degrees of freedom. Both leading and trailing edge control surfaces (independently actuated by electrohydraulic devices) could be used either singly or in combination for active flutter suppression. The feedback compensation was manually adjustable for various store and flight condition changes. With the cooperation of the NASA Langley Research Center, tests were conducted in the 16-ft Transonic Dynamics Tunnel to define the passive flutter speed of each wing/store configuration, and to obtain improvements in these speeds with active flutter suppression. Only single surface control laws were investigated during these tests. On four separate occasions the model with active flutter suppression was tested to speeds which exceeded the unaugmented flutter condition. A flutter velocity improvement of about 15% was successfully demonstrated.

Beginning in 1978, the model was refurbished and modified for further active flutter suppression wind tunnel investigations. The objective of the follow-on tests was to study new control laws designed by Northrop to provide a 30% improvement in the flutter speed. These control laws were designed for a particular store configuration and tunnel test condition, and used either the leading edge or trailing edge control surface acting alone or together. Through data exchange programs, ONERA (France), MBB (Germany), and B.Ae (United Kingdom) also designed control laws for this model. The Northrop Corporation mechanized these control laws and with the cooperation of NASA, conducted the tests in October 1979. The tested control laws provided significant flutter velocity increases; several increased the flutter speed by 30% or more.

Abbreviations

B.Ae	= British Aerospace
FASTOP	= Flutter and Strength Optimization Program
FS	= fuselage station
HL	= hinge line
imag	= imaginary
LEC	= leading edge control
MBB	= Messerschmitt-Bolkow-Blohm GmbH
ONERA	= Office National d'Etudes et de Recherches Aérospatiales
TEC	= trailing edge control
WS	= wing station

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This paper reports on an analytical evaluation by the FDL of control law performance at off-design flight conditions. The international control laws and two of the laws developed and tested by the Northrop Corporation were analyzed and the results are presented herein.

Discussion

This section presents a definition of the analysis methods and modeling procedures used for the stability calculations.

FDL Active Flutter Suppression Model

The FDL active flutter suppression wind tunnel model (Fig. 1) has two active surfaces available for flutter suppression and four accelerometers in the outer wing to measure the model response. The feedback signal can involve any combination of the four sensors or can include a blending of displacements, velocities, and accelerations. A schematic of the model showing planform dimensions, control surfaces, and sensor locations is provided in Fig. 2.

The store configuration selected for the test and for the design of the control laws was an AIM-7S missile mounted on an outboard wing pylon and an empty tip launcher rail (Fig. 1). This configuration was selected because of the clearly defined flutter condition in previous tunnel tests. The violent nature of flutter for this configuration presented a challenging case for evaluating the effectiveness of a store flutter suppression system.

Analysis Procedures

The automated flutter analysis module of the FASTOP Program² with the subsonic doublet lattice option³ was used to perform the unaugmented flutter calculations, and to obtain unsteady aerodynamic forces for the active flutter suppression analysis. For these calculations, two rigid body

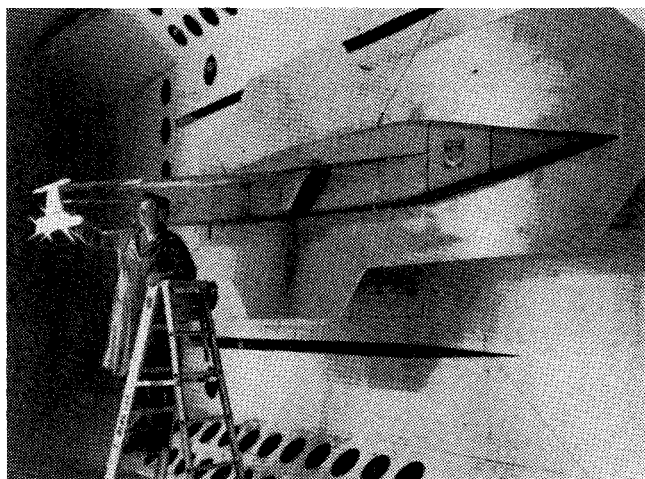


Fig. 1 Active flutter suppression wind tunnel model with AIM-7S missile.

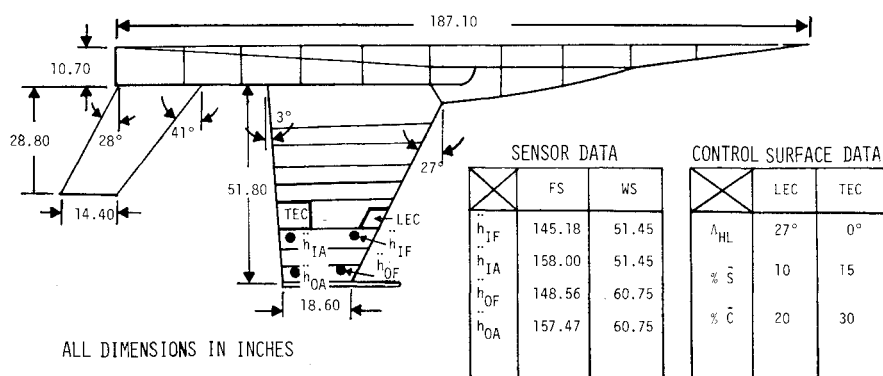


Fig. 2 Model planform dimensions.

modes (plunge and pitch), the first seven elastic modes, and a control surface mode were used. All modes used in the analysis had been tuned to match ground vibration test results.

The aerodynamic representation of the flutter model consisted of seven panels that were subdivided into 195 boxes (8 on the forward fuselage, 140 on the wing, 22 on the launcher, 9 on the leading edge surface, and 16 on the trailing edge surface). Both the forward fuselage and the tip launcher rail were represented as flat plates. Aerodynamic interference between the store/pylon and the wing was neglected during these studies. Trend studies were performed by varying the Mach number from 0.6 to 0.95; results at $M=0.8$ are compared with the available test data.

Frequency domain analyses were conducted using the control system interaction program⁴ developed for earlier active flutter suppression studies.⁵ This program uses a modified Nyquist criterion to determine the augmented aircraft stability characteristics.

The objective of modified Nyquist theory is to determine if any of the complex roots of the characteristic equation, $1 + G(S)H(S) = 0$, have positive real parts. In this equation, $G(S)$ is the product of all elements in the forward path of the control system, and $H(S)$ is the product of the elements in the feedback loop. Stability can be determined and evaluated using the expression $N = Z - P$, where N is the number of encirclements of the origin made by the plot, Z is the number of zeros of the characteristic equation (factors of the numerator) with positive real parts, and P is the number of poles of the characteristic equation (factors of the denominator) with positive real parts. For a stable system, Z must always be zero which implies that the modified Nyquist plot must encircle the origin P times in a negative (counterclockwise, $N = -P$) direction. If the aircraft speed is below flutter onset, there are generally no poles in the function $G(S)$. The poles of $H(S)$ with positive real parts can be determined from inspection. For the control laws reported herein, there are no poles with positive real parts in $H(S)$. As a result, any clockwise encirclement of the origin would indicate a control system-induced instability. If the aircraft speed is above flutter onset, there will be poles with positive real parts. As a result, there must be one counterclockwise encirclement for each of these poles for the system to be stable.

Results

Results of analyses on five different control laws that were tested in the wind tunnel⁶ are presented in this section. Analyses were performed at Mach numbers varying from 0.6 to 0.95 to evaluate the off-design characteristics of each control law. The passive and system-on instabilities obtained from the projected test data are also included in the figures for correlation.

Northrop N3 Control Law

A block diagram of the Northrop N3 control law is shown in Fig. 3. By using three sensors, a torsion dominated signal

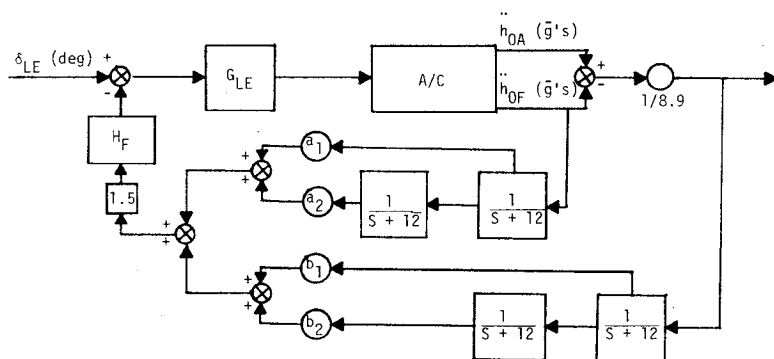


Fig. 5 Block diagram of Northrop N1 control law.

$$G_{LE} = \frac{896640. (S + 24.) (S + 260.)}{(1. + .036S) (1. + .0106S) (S^2 + 204.S + 28900.) (S^2 + 616.S + 193600.)}$$

$$H_F = \frac{S^2 + 21.S + 45590.}{S^2 + 299.S + 45590.} \cdot \frac{S}{(1 + .03S) (1 + .015S)} \cdot \frac{69700.}{S^2 + 264.S + 69700.} \cdot \frac{S^2 + 305410.}{S^2 + 552.S + 305410.} \cdot \frac{S}{S + 10}$$

$$a_1 = -17.0$$

$$b_1 = 268.0$$

$$a_2 = 402.0$$

$$b_2 = 1284.0$$

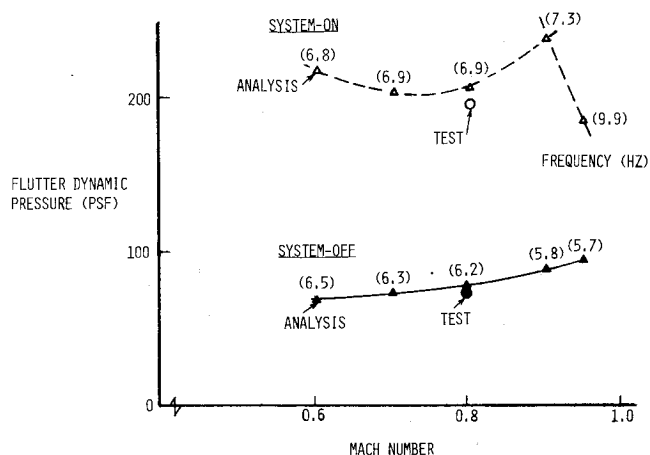


Fig. 6 Mach number effects on flutter, Northrop N1 control law.

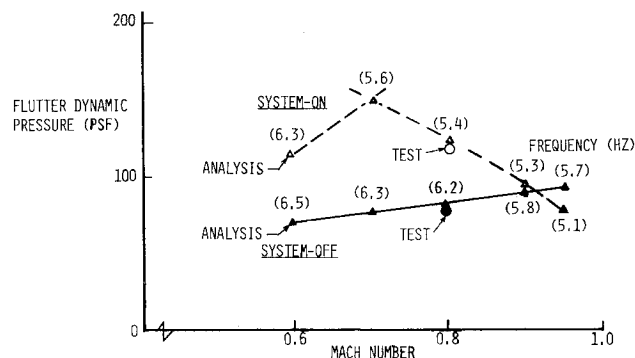
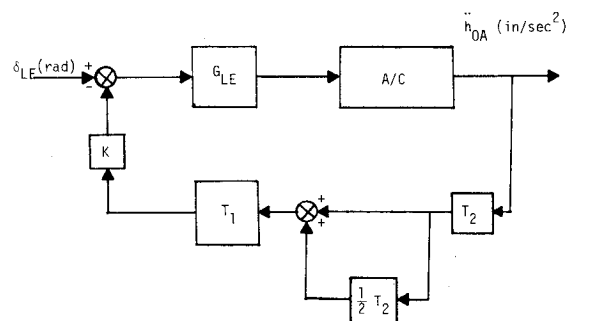


Fig. 8 Mach number effects on flutter, ONERA control law.



$$K = .0009479$$

$$T_1 = \frac{.07958S}{(.0001759S^2 + .01015S + 1.) (.0001759S^2 + .02451S + 1.) (.07958S + 1.)}$$

$$T_2 = \frac{2.S}{.2125S^2 + 2.S + 1.}$$

$$G_{LE} = \frac{896640. (S + 24.) (S + 260.)}{(1 + .036S) (1 + .0106S) (S^2 + 204.S + 28900.) (S^2 + 616.S + 193600.)}$$

Fig. 7 Block diagram of ONERA control law.

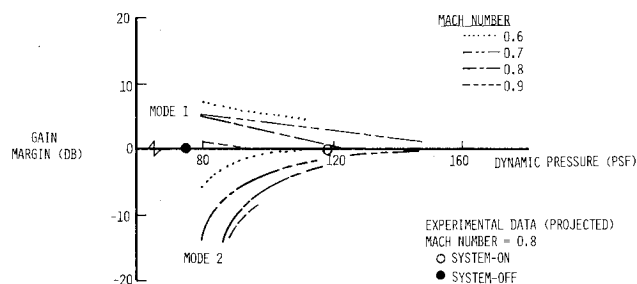


Fig. 9 Calculated gain margins with Mach number, ONERA control law.

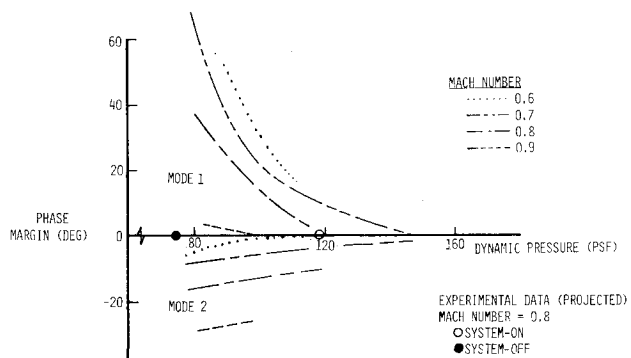


Fig. 10 Calculated phase margins with Mach number, ONERA control law.

Fig. 11 Block diagram of B.Ae control law.

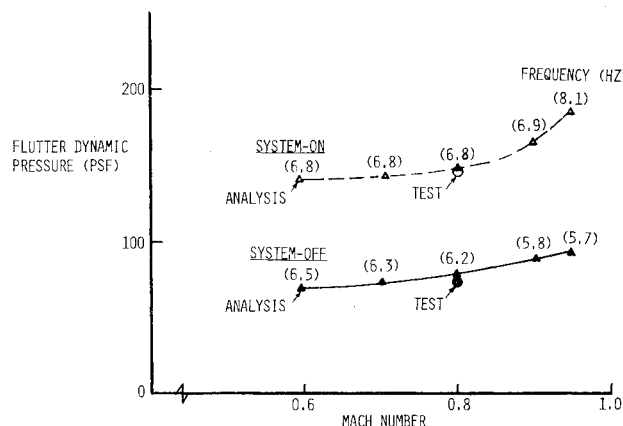
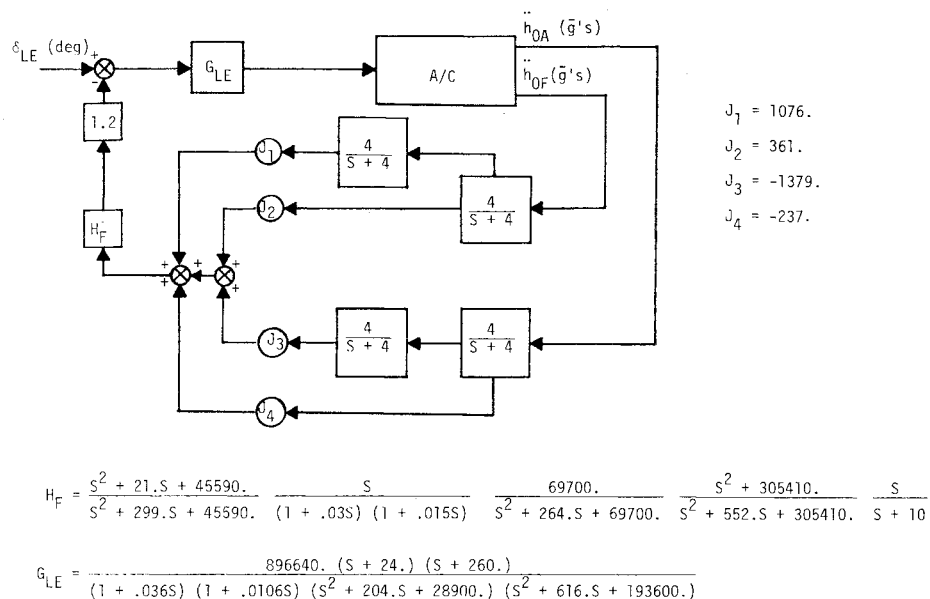


Fig. 12 Mach number effects on flutter, B.Ae control law.

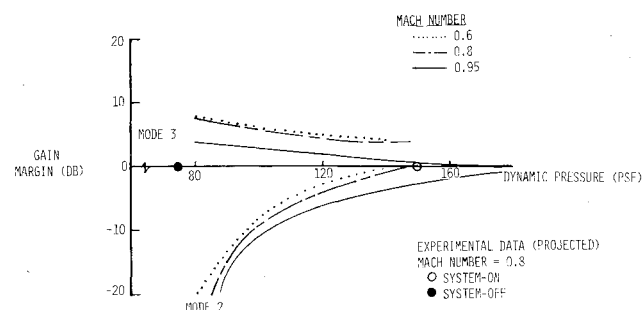


Fig. 13 Calculated gain margins with Mach number, B.Ae control law.

The Mach number trend for this control law is provided in Fig. 8. The control law is most effective at $M=0.7$ where a 95% improvement in flutter dynamic pressure above the passive case is predicted. For Mach numbers less than 0.7, calculations predicted an instability in the torsion mode, while at Mach numbers greater than 0.7, the instability occurs in the bending mode. Also, analysis shows that increasing dynamic pressure at a constant Mach number, causes a phase lead to be introduced into the system. This effect, along with the Mach number effect, results in decreasing instability frequencies with increasing Mach number and a change to the lower frequency bending mode.

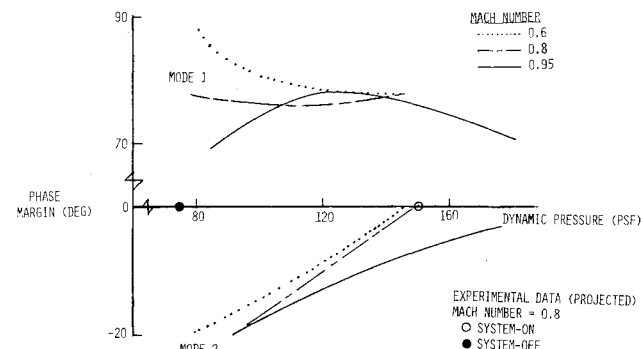


Fig. 14 Calculated phase margins with Mach number, B.Ae control law.

At $M=0.8$, the augmented instability was analytically predicted to occur at 123 psf, which is 3% higher than the projected test result. The analysis shows the performance of the control law to decrease with increasing Mach numbers above 0.7 and predicts a control system induced instability at $M=0.95$. The improvement in the dynamic pressure stability boundary at $M=0.8$ was calculated to be 50%, while test data were projected to show a 59% increase. Figures 9 and 10 show the calculated gain and phase margins, respectively, for the ONERA control law.

B.Ae Control Law

A block diagram of the B.Ae control law is shown in Fig. 11. This law uses two outboard accelerometers (\ddot{h}_{OA} and \ddot{h}_{OF}) and four gains acting on the displacement and velocity outputs of the two accelerometers. The four gains were developed using optimal control theory. The design provides a feedback signal to the leading edge servo which approximates a velocity feedback of the flutter mode and gives minimum control surface movement. A series of filters is also included in the control law to avoid adverse interactions with other modes.

The trend of the closed-loop flutter dynamic pressure vs Mach number for the B.Ae control law is shown in Fig. 12. The system-on boundary shows a substantial increase in the flutter speed with increasing Mach numbers. The calculations show an increase in flutter dynamic pressure that varies from 79 to 100% over the Mach number range investigated. In all cases, it is the torsion mode that becomes unstable. At $M=0.8$, the projected test data showed the active system

Control law	Surface	Sensors	Calculated q_f , psf	Experimental
System-off (passive)	82	75
Northrop N3	LE	$\ddot{h}_{OA}, \ddot{h}_{OF}, \ddot{h}_{IF}$	177	176
Northrop N1	LE	$\ddot{h}_{OA}, \ddot{h}_{OF}$	207	197
ONERA	LE	\ddot{h}_{OA}	123	119
B.Ae	LE	$\ddot{h}_{OA}, \ddot{h}_{OF}$	147	146
MBB	TE	$\ddot{h}_{OF}, \ddot{h}_{IA}, \ddot{h}_{IF}$	131	111

dynamic pressure with the active system-on was 48% based on test data, and 60% based on analysis. Figures 17 and 18 present the gain and phase margins, respectively, for the MBB control law.

Analysis Summary

Table 1 presents a summary of the control surfaces and sensors used, the instabilities predicted by analysis and the projected test results at $M = 0.8$ for each control law analyzed. In all cases, the instabilities were predicted by calculations to be higher in dynamic pressure than the test data indicated. This is attributed to the use of calculated control surface aerodynamic loads which would be expected to be higher than experimental values.

Variations in Mach number were shown to have a significant effect on control law performance. Changing the Mach number from the design condition was shown to be either beneficial or detrimental, depending on the control law. For several cases, variations in Mach number resulted in a change of the principal structural mode involved in the instability. In some cases, control system-induced instabilities in both low and high frequency modes were predicted at off-design Mach numbers. For this model, increasing Mach number added phase lead to the system, while increasing dynamic pressure provided either phase lead or phase lag depending on the control law. For those cases where a change in the mode of instability occurs, it is attributed to a combination of these two effects (lag resulted in higher frequency

mode instabilities while lead resulted in lower frequency instabilities). For an operational system, the gain and phase would have to be adjusted based on flight conditions to improve the stability margins.

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INJECTION AND MIXING IN TURBULENT FLOW—v. 68

By Joseph A. Schetz, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Turbulent flows involving injection and mixing occur in many engineering situations and in a variety of natural phenomena. Liquid or gaseous fuel injection in jet and rocket engines is of concern to the aerospace engineer; the mechanical engineer must estimate the mixing zone produced by the injection of condenser cooling water into a waterway; the chemical engineer is interested in process mixers and reactors; the civil engineer is involved with the dispersion of pollutants in the atmosphere; and oceanographers and meteorologists are concerned with mixing of fluid masses on a large scale. These are but a few examples of specific physical cases that are encompassed within the scope of this book. The volume is organized to provide a detailed coverage of both the available experimental data and the theoretical prediction methods in current use. The case of a single jet in a coaxial stream is used as a baseline case, and the effects of axial pressure gradient, self-propulsion, swirl, two-phase mixtures, three-dimensional geometry, transverse injection, buoyancy forces, and viscous-inviscid interaction are discussed as variations on the baseline case.

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