# **Problem of Dynamic Stall Simulation Revisited**

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Simulating dynamic stall characteristics in subscale wind-tunnel tests often presents an insolvable problem. At stall the peak velocity on the airfoil is several times larger than the freestream velocity, causing compressibility effects to be unusually large. Consequently, simulation requires testing at the full-scale Mach number and Reynolds number, a capability beyond the means of most test facilities. An additional problem is presented by wall interference in so-called two-dimensional dynamic stall tests. Subscale test results are examined against this background of simulation problems.

#### Nomenclature

c = reference length, airfoil chord

d = cylinder diameter

f = frequency

 $L = \text{wing lift, coefficient } C_L = L/(\rho_\infty U_\infty^2/2)S$ 

l = sectional lift, coefficient  $c_l = 1/(\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^2/2)c$ 

 $M_{\infty}$  = freestream Mach number m = sectional pitching moment,

coefficient  $c_m = m/(\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^2/2)c^2$ 

p = roll rate

 $Re = \text{Reynolds number}, R_c = U_{\infty}c/\nu_{\infty}, R_d = U_{\infty}d/\nu_{\infty}$ 

 $R_{\rm eff}$  = effective Reynolds number

 $r_N$  = airfoil nose radius

S = reference area, projected wing area

t = timeU = velocity

x =distance from the leading edge

z = translatory coordinate, Fig. 7

 $\alpha$  = angle of attack

 $\alpha_0$  = time-average  $\alpha$  value

 $\Delta$  = amplitude

 $\theta$  = perturbation in pitch  $\nu$  = kinematic viscosity

 $\xi$  = dimensionless x coordinate, x/c

 $\rho_N$  = dimensionless nose radius,  $r_N/c$ 

 $\rho_{\infty}$  = air density

 $\omega$  = angular frequency,  $2\pi f$ 

 $\bar{\omega}$  = dimensionless frequency,  $\omega c/U_{\infty}$ 

# Subscripts

LP = local peak

N = nose

W = wall

1, 2 = numbering subscripts

 $\infty$  = freestream conditions

Derivative Symbols

 $\dot{z} = \partial z/\partial t$ 

#### Introduction

In N a recent workshop on high-alpha vehicle dynamics, the results shown in Fig. 1 were presented for the NACA-0012 airfoil. Repeating the old test, using a smaller model, c = 2 instead of 4 ft, had not reproduced the sharp lift peak present

in the old results.<sup>2</sup> A suggested possible reason for this was a larger side wall interference for the larger model. If this was correct, our interpretation of the old experimental results,<sup>2</sup> and the associated description of the dynamic stall flow processes,<sup>3</sup> could be incorrect. This provided the incentive to revisit the problem of dynamic stall simulation in subscale tests.<sup>4</sup> In addition to applying the unsteady flow concepts developed in Refs. 3 and 4 to the experimental results in Fig. 1, this article describes for the first time how the moving wall effect on transition lowers the effective Reynolds number for turbulent static stall, with associated changes of the dynamic stall characteristics; in some cases leading to laminar dynamic stall.

#### Discussion

Past simulation experience will be reviewed in order to determine the true reason for the difference in Fig. 1 between the experimental dynamic stall characteristics for the 2-ft and 4-ft chord models of the NACA-0012 airfoil.

### Wall Interference

Figure 1 shows the stall to be of the same type for both chord sizes. The 9% larger  $c_i$  below stall for the 4-ft chord compared to the 2-ft chord could have been caused by the expected larger two-dimensional top-and-bottom wall interference, as suggested in Fig. 1. Reducing the measured static and dynamic lift of the 4-ft model by 9% gives the results shown in Fig. 2. In the absence of (any difference in) two-dimensional wall interference the results below stall should be the same for both models. The effects of differences in Reynolds number and in Mach number are expected to be insignificant below stall.

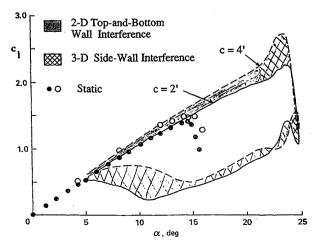


Fig. 1 Effect of model size on dynamic stall characteristics. Oscillating airfoil in a  $7-\times 10$ -ft wind tunnel.

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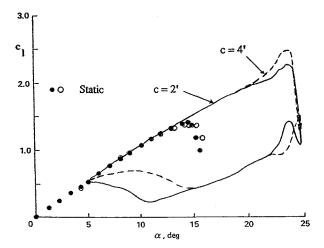


Fig. 2 Effect of model size on dynamic stall characteristics after adjustment for two-dimensional top-and-bottom wall interference.

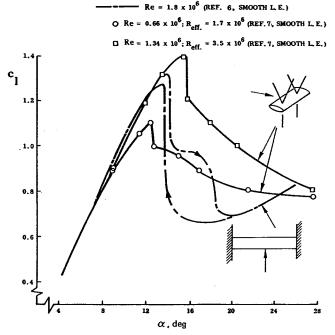


Fig. 3 Effect of side walls on static stall characteristics.

The adjusted dynamic stall results for the 4-ft model shown in Fig. 2 lead to the same description of the dynamic stall phenomenon<sup>3</sup> as the old results<sup>2</sup> shown in Fig. 1. The question that needs to be resolved is whether or not the remaining difference between the dynamic stall overshoot characteristics of the two models could be caused by three-dimensional side wall interference,5 which is suggested in Fig. 1. The static experimental results for the NACA-0012 airfoil<sup>6,7</sup> shown in Fig. 3 indicate that side wall interference had a negligible influence on the measured  $c_i(\alpha)$  characteristics. If the tunnel turbulence levels in the two tests were the same, Fig. 3 would indicate that the side wall interference decreased  $c_{l_{max}}$ . This is not unreasonable, as the "tip vortex" generated by the flow separation in the corner, formed by the airfoil and side-wall surfaces<sup>8</sup> (Fig. 4), could not be expected to be as effective as a free tip vortex in venting the leading-edge flow separation on the airfoil.

In any case, Fig. 3 shows clearly that the three-dimensional side wall interference definitely did not increase static  $c_{lmax}$ , a result in agreement with the static characteristics in Fig. 1, when corrected for two-dimensional wall interference (Fig. 2). Note that the  $c_l(\alpha)$  characteristics in Fig. 3 coincide below stall,  $\alpha < 8$  deg. As the dynamic  $c_l$  peak is generated by the "spilled" leading-edge vortex,<sup>9</sup> it is difficult to see how the

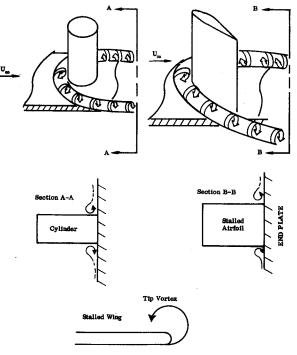


Fig. 4 Side-wall-generated vortex.8

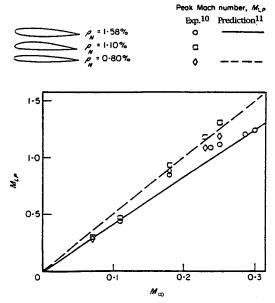


Fig. 5 Peak Mach number on airfoil profiles at  $\alpha = 15$  deg.

side wall interference, if it does anything, could but diminish the generated lift. In the dynamic case, the corner-generated tip vortex does not become free from the airfoil leading edge (Fig. 4), contrary to the case for the tip vortex in the absence of a side wall, when it is free to follow the "spilled" leading-edge vortex in its downstream travel along the airfoil chord. The conclusion to be drawn is the same as earlier in the case of static stall, i.e., side wall interference can not be expected to increase dynamic  $c_{l_{\rm max}}$ .

Thus, although side-wall interference is definitely a problem of considerable concern, <sup>4,5</sup> it cannot explain the data trend in Fig. 2. It must have been caused by differences in test Mach number or in Reynolds number.

#### **Compressibility Effects**

The test results shown in Figs. 1 and 2 were obtained in a nonpressurized test section. Consequently, when changing the

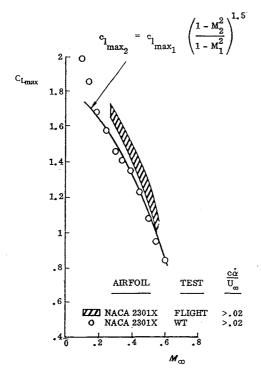


Fig. 6 Effect of freestream Mach number on maximum lift.

model size only one of the two scaling parameters, Reynolds number and Mach number, could remain the same. Considering the fact that the local peak Mach number  $M_{\rm LP}$  at stall can be almost an order of magnitude larger than the freestream Mach number, as is illustrated in Fig. 5 by experimental data<sup>10</sup> and prediction,<sup>11</sup> incompressible dynamic stall has little practical application. For example, Fig. 5 shows that even for  $M_{\infty} = 0.1$  the peak Mach number exceeds the "incompressible" limit  $M_{LP} = 0.4$ . It is shown in Ref. 12 that the dimensionless nose radius  $\rho_N = r_N/c$  is the correct scaling parameter for the static lift maximum. It is also shown that increasing the subsonic Mach number will produce an apparent decrease of the effective nose radius,  $\rho_N \sim (1 - M_{\infty}^2)^{1.5}$ resulting in a rapid decrease of the static and dynamic lift maximum<sup>13,14</sup> (Fig. 6). In order to keep the Reynolds number the same in the two tests, the test Mach number would have had to be roughly twice as high for the smaller model as for the larger one, resulting in a data trend in agreement with that shown by the experimental results in Fig. 2.

#### **Reynolds Number Effects**

The alternative to introducing different compressibility effects is to keep the Mach number the same and conduct the tests at different Reynolds numbers. Judging by past experience, 4.15 this will result in significantly different dynamic stall characteristics. The question is whether the difference would be of the type shown in Fig. 2. It is described in Ref. 4 how the different damping-in-plunge measured at low 16.17 and high 18 Reynolds numbers can be explained by the moving wall effects on the boundary layer (Fig. 7), effects very similar to those measured on a rotating circular cylinder. 19 Figure 7 illustrates how the plunging and pitching airfoils will have opposite moving wall effects during the plunging downstroke  $\dot{z}/U_x$  and the pitching upstroke  $\theta$ , in both cases for increasing effective angle of attack.

These moving wall effects on transition were used in Ref. 15 to explain the anomalous subscale test results obtained by Carta. 20 Like Rainey 17 earlier, Carta failed to measure the negative damping in plunge that Liiva 18 observed in his tests, performed at an order of magnitude higher Reynolds number. Not only did Rainey and Carta fail to measure the negative damping expected at full scale Reynolds numbers, the measured damping was actually 50–100% higher in the stall region

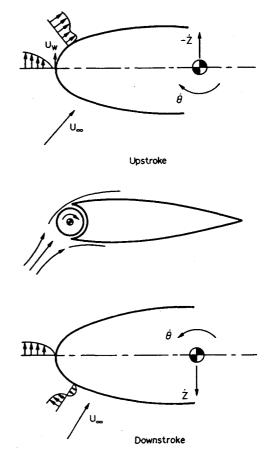


Fig. 7 Leading-edge-jet effect on an airfoil describing pitching or plunging oscillations.  $^3$ 

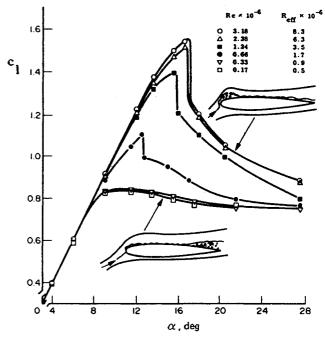


Fig. 8 Effect of Reynolds number on  $c_l(\alpha)$  of a NACA-0012 airfoil.<sup>7</sup>

than in the attached flow region. Instead of catching the discontinuous lift loss occurring at higher Reynolds numbers, as in Liiva's test, e.g.,  $Re = 0.66 \times 10^6$  for the experimental results<sup>7</sup> in Fig. 8, in Carta's and Rainey's tests the moving wall effect on the plunging downstroke had an effect equivalent to increasing the Reynolds number, elevating the lift from, e.g., that for  $Re = 0.33 \times 10^6$  to that for Re = 0.66 or  $1.34 \times 10^6$ . This caused the area enclosed by the plunging loop to be larger than for attached flow, resulting in the higher

measured damping. The Reynolds number  $R_{\rm eff}$  in Fig. 8 attempts to account for the effect of wind-tunnel turbulence.

Thus, the applicability of the moving wall effects measured on a rotating circular cylinder at initially laminar flow conditions to airfoil test results at similar flow conditions is well documented. Consequently, one expects that the moving wall effects on a rotating circular cylinder at initially turbulent flow conditions<sup>19</sup> (Fig. 9) can also be applied to an airfoil at similar ambient flow conditions. In the supercritical flow case, positive Magnus lift is generated at  $U_w/U_\infty < 0.1$  (Fig. 9). Magnus lift reversal occurs when the critical  $U_w/U_\infty$  - Reynolds number combination is exceeded, causing boundary-layer transition on the top side to be delayed enough to occur in the separated flow region. As a consequence, the flow separation on the top side changes from the supercritical towards the subcritical type. The associated loss of suction lift results in the observed Magnus lift reversal, e.g., for  $U_w/U_\infty > 0.1$  at  $R_d = 0.42 \times 10^6$ . For the pitching airfoil (Fig. 7), accelerated flow and moving wall effects act together<sup>3</sup> rather than opposing each other, as in the case of the plunging oscillations. The result is a very powerful influence on boundary-layer transition, as has been demonstrated for a pitching NACA-0012 airfoil<sup>21</sup> (Fig. 10).

From the above discussion, one can see how the pitch-rateinduced moving wall effect during the upstroke will decrease the effective Reynolds number, e.g., corresponding to going from the  $c_l(\alpha)$  characteristics for  $Re = 1.34 \times 10^6$  to those for  $Re \le 0.66 \times 10^6$  in Fig. 8. This is exactly the type of data trend exhibited by the experimental results in Fig. 2 when going from the 4-ft to the 2-ft wing chord. This would be expected to occur if the test conditions for the larger model were well above the critical range, e.g., at  $Re \ge 2.38 \times 10^6$ in Fig. 8, in which case a lowering of the effective Reynolds number would cause a relatively insignificant decrease of  $c_{l_{max}}$ . If the test Reynolds number for the 2-ft chord model had been lower than  $Re = 1.3 \times 10^6$ , dynamic laminar stall could have occurred, as in the case of the Magnus lift reversal in Fig. 9. This would result in a change of lift characteristics similar to going from  $Re = 0.66 \times 10^6$  to  $Re = 0.33 \times 10^6$  in Fig. 8. Note that in Fig. 8 the Reynolds number is based upon the

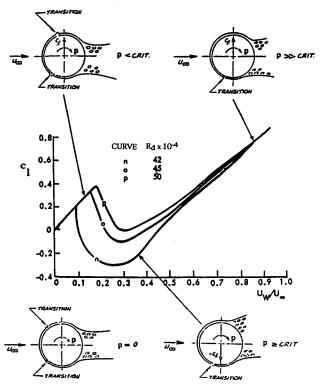


Fig. 9 Magnus lift characteristics for initially turbulent flow conditions. 19

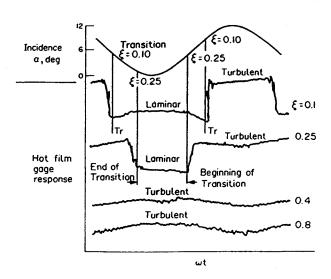


Fig. 10 Hot film response for the NACA-0012 airfoil in pitching oscillation.  $^{21}$ 

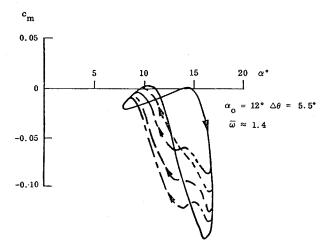


Fig. 11 Nonrepeating consecutive dynamic moment loops.<sup>22</sup>

airfoil chord, whereas it is based upon the cylinder diameter in Fig. 9.

Thus, the difference in dynamic stall characteristics for the different size models can be explained. What about the different flow reattachment characteristics? Judging by the differences between successive loops for the same airfoil<sup>22</sup> (Fig. 11), the variation of flow reattachment characteristics in Fig. 2 is to be expected even in repeat tests with the same model.

#### **Conclusions**

A careful examination of existing information in regard to the problem of dynamic stall simulation reveals that wall interference is not a likely cause of the observed difference in dynamic stall characteristics between the two tests performed with different size models, but rather a lack of the capability to simulate simultaneously both the Mach number and the Reynolds number.

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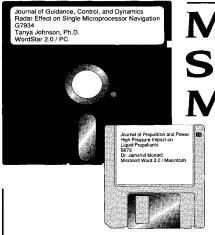
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