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2D SIMULATION OF UNSTEADY
PHENOMENA ON A ROTOR

by

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1. UNSTEADY AERODYNAMICS : ONE OF THE KEY FACTORS ON A ROTOR ?

The intense commercial competition facing the Aeronautical World is only a reflection of the problems and needs of the present period. It imposes large industrial mutations and guides the technological choices. The rotorcraft industry does not escape to this general trend, where the key words are :

- Performance increase. Energy saving.
Operating envelope (both civil and military) wider in a very diversified environment. Operating costs reduced. Greater operating safety. Better «man/machine» interface.

Such are the present great trends in the helicopter world (Ref 1)

They impose :

- good calculation and experimental methods to solve technical problems.
- a fundamental knowledge of basic phenomena governing helicopter operation.

As regard rotors, the diversity and complexity of prediction methods are at the measure of the physical phenomena involved in rotary wing operation and limit their use (reference 2). With these methods, particularly for the aerodynamic aspects, it is possible to have a thorough knowledge of rotors (reference 3) and set-back the opera-

ting limits of the conventional helicopter (reference 4).

It is a passionating and often mysterious field of investigation !

From the large amount of studies conducted in the last ten years, we shall retain, for our purpose, this noteworthy fact :

«In the calculation of rotors, nobody cannot ignore any longer the unsteady effects».

The comparison between theoretical calculations and flight or wind tunnel test results, the determination of loads and performance (references 5 through 8), the solution of dynamic problems (references 9 through 13), the development of new formula (reference 14) demonstrate how the notions of steady aerodynamics are insufficient and sometimes not acceptable.

Unfortunately, rotor aerodynamics present a great complexity due to its powerful coupling with the rotor blade and head aeroelasticity factors (references 15 and 16) and also because it is dependent on many interacting and hardly dissociable parameters (reference 17) : unsteady flow, 3-D effects, compressibility, induced velocity field.....

This explains the difficulty of isolating each aerodynamic parameter to know its influence and define its significance, this being required to define rotor models allying simplicity and accuracy.

2. ROTOR UNSTEADY AERODYNAMICS : The various approaches.

The combination of rotation and forward motions, pitch cyclic control, flapping and drag motions together with blade elastic deformations, results in a periodic modulation, both in amplitude and direction, of the attack velocities on every blade section. To this modulation are superimposed fluctuations due to blade interactions with each other and various disturbances. Therefore, the helicopter rotor is a very unsteady device, due on the one hand, to the motion of lifting bodies (blades) and, on the other hand, to the variations in velocity of the fluid surrounding these bodies (Figure 1).

With the passage from the «ring» type methods, based on momentum considerations (reference 18) to models taking into account each blade and its wake (reference 18), it has been possible to take into account progressively part of these unsteady phenomena.

Thus, usual methods are generally linear methods dealing with perfect fluids and calling on lifting lines or surfaces with rigid wake while associating simplified limit conditions (small disturbances) with the solution of Laplace's equation or wave equation for the velocity potential

(Reference 20). In reality, these methods are accurate for medium tip speed ratios only. They lose their accuracy for hover or low speed conditions (particularly if the rotor is highly loaded), for which the unsteady distribution of loads is strongly affected by the near wake. (Reference 21). Therefore, wake distortions, due to self-induction or mutual interactions of the various vortex-generating components, impose for calculations, either the equilibrium of wakes or, in a simpler manner, the use of more realistic «prescribed wakes» (Reference 22)

Further, these methods loose, their efficiency for high speeds and/or highly loaded rotors, due to significant non-linearities appearing both on the advancing blade (transsonic disturbances) and retreating blade (dynamic stall).

With the modern digital methods it is possible, for supercritical flows, to deal with cases of increasing complexity (Reference 23). On the contrary, it sums that the processing of retreating blade non-linearities should, to be efficient, call on experimental or semi-empirical elements obtained by two-dimensional simulation of the retreating blade dynamic stall in the form of corrections made to the linear concept (Reference 24).

3. THE TWO-DIMENSIONAL SIMULATION : A tool or a trap for the designer ?

In spite of the progress made in the study of laminar, or even turbulent, boundary layers (Reference 25) these methods are still of a too fundamental nature to be used directly by the designer.

Therefore, the two-dimensional simulation will be a powerful tool allowing the experimental determination of aerodynamic unsteady factors, which cannot be calculated.

Usually, rigs with harmonic oscillation are used, this simplifying the experimental procedures and offering a practical interest when the rotor model solves, the rotor response equations through a linear system calling on a harmonic break-down of the azimuthal variation (Ref. 20)

4. CONDITIONS OF TWO-DIMENSIONAL SIMULATION

If the linear principle of superimposition effect for the various motions is admitted, and if the radial flows occurring on a blade are neglected, 2D-unsteady simulation may be made for every motion corresponding to the various blade degrees of freedom.

In this paper, we shall discuss the pitch harmonic oscillations only.

The various similitude parameters to be observed are :

4.1 OF A GEOMETRICAL OR DYNAMIC NATURE:

- airfoil geometry
- mean angle of attack α_m and pitch oscillation amplitude α values. Which should correspond to the usual values of collective and cyclic pitches as well as to blade responses to the airloads.
- reduced oscillation frequency as the time derivatives of the airfoil angle of attack are proportional to the frequency and as, in the linear theory, aerodynamic coefficients are depending on these time derivatives and furthermore as the action of unsteady wakes on the chordwise pressure distribution is expressed also, more or less explicitly, in terms of the reduced fre-

Further, modern airfoils are defined at present using steady methods (References 26 and 27). Therefore, experimental the results obtained on harmonic oscillation rigs provide valuable data on aerodynamic and the dynamic behaviour of airfoils used on rotor blades. However, the results, obtained in this manner, must be processed prudently. Emphasis should be placed on the fact that by studying elementary harmonic motions, such as oscillations in pitch (References 28 through 30), plunging (References 28 and 29), and lead-lag motions (References 31 and 32), it is attempted to solve a highly non linear problem (dynamic stall) according to a linear concept. At last, it is to be pointed out that indicial type motions may be better adapted to the reality of some rotor configurations (Vortex type interactions) and to some mathematical solution procedures (step-by-step solution in azimuth) (Reference 33).

quency (for instance, Theodorsen's function) (Reference 34).

The envelope of mean angle of attack variations should exceed the airfoil steady stall angle.

Amplitude and reduced frequency are linked by the type of simulation to be made. If the blade forced response problem is studied, large amplitudes (cyclic pitch) will have to be used at reduced frequencies corresponding to the rotor fundamental frequency (1Ω). Then, the reduced frequency is linked to the Mach number (figure 2). On the contrary, to deal with dynamic problems linked to the blade stability under torsion loads, low amplitudes will be used but at higher frequencies, ranged up to the level corresponding to first torsional mode of rotor blades (ω_θ).

4.2 LINKED TO COMPRESSIBILITY

The Mach numbers met on the retreating blade is to be simulated.

4.3 LINKED TO VISCOSITY

- Reynolds number related to the chord.
- Position of forced or natural boundary layer transition.

5. THE C.E.A.T. OSCILLATION TEST SET-UP

Result of the experience acquired over several years, this set-up meets the similitude requirements stated above (Reference 35).

5.1 THE C.E.A.T. «S-10» WIND-TUNNEL

The tests have been conducted in the S-10 subsonic wind-tunnel of the C.E.A.T. in Toulouse. This wind-tunnel, in which the stagnation pressure is equal to atmospheric pressure, gives a maximum speed of 140 m/sec. and has a rectangular test section (2.2 m x 1 m) (figure 3).

The various experimental campaigns have been run at $M = 0.12 - 0.2 - 0.3$ et 0.4 , this corresponding to representative Reynolds numbers ranging from 1.1×10^6 to 3.9×10^6 for a 0.4 m. chord.

5.2 OSCILLATING TEST RIG.

The original test rig developed has better performance than conventional systems. Its interest lies in the production of a harmonic motion with a negligible distortion rate, taking into account the large loads applied to the wing and due to :

- inertia loads at high oscillation frequencies
- aerodynamic loads giving very large pitching moment variations around the stalling angles of attack, specially for large amplitudes.

The essential part of the rig (figure 4) is a mechanical unit, pressure lubricated, placed on one side of the wing and secured on the wind-tunnel wall outside the test section. It converts the uniform rotating motion of a hydraulic motor vertical shaft (maximum power : 8 kw) into an oscillating angular motion of a horizontal shaft.

This output shaft is extended by a cone having two functions :

- its base, flush with the test section wall, constitutes a protection plate for the airfoil ; a P.T.F.E. seal is provided between the fixed wall and the cone base to prevent leakage.
- it ensures the mechanical link with the wing.

Oscillation amplitude, adjustable from 0 to $\pm 6^\circ$, is measured by two sensors located on the oscillation axis

on either side of the wing. Due to the models used, permissible amplitudes are :

$$\bar{\alpha} = \pm 6^\circ \text{ at } f = 8 \text{ Hz and } \bar{\alpha} = \pm 1^\circ \text{ at } f = 40 \text{ Hz}$$

The complete mechanical unit can rotate inside a fixed framework. With this rotation, it is possible to set the airfoil mean angle of attack α_m through a remote control arm actuated by the wind-tunnel scale.

At last, motion governing is made through a tachometer generator, located on the driving shaft, and its signal controls the hydraulic motor servo-valve, which has a high bandwidth (100 Hz) and is located against the motor to ensure the best possible response time of the governing system.

5.3 AIRFOIL MODELS

Models are two-dimensional wings, having a span of 1 metric and a chord of 0.4 metric, placed horizontally in the centre of the test section, between the side walls of the wind tunnel. They are installed without protection plate and a 2 mm. clearance at their sides allow their oscillations without contact with the walls.

These wings must have a maximum torsional rigidity. They are filled with polymethane foam, a light material with reduced inertia. The structure consists of a metal framework, ensuring flexural rigidity, and includes a fluid bearing supporting a fixed shaft (located at 25 % of chord) secured to the test section walls and around which the model oscillates. The wing is covered by a resin impregnated glass fibre skin ensuring torsional rigidity and produced in a mould made to final dimensions.

5.4 INSTRUMENTATION AND DATA SYSTEM

Miniature differential pressure transducers are used. They are located within the wing so that their sensitive diaphragm is parallel to the oscillation direction, thus they are not affected by accelerations. Each transducer is located near two pressure ports to which it is connected. The wings produced to date are provided with 13 transducers measuring the differential pressure between the upper and lower surfaces at the same chordwise position along a cross-section corresponding nearly to the mid wing section. The pipe length between the pressure ports and transducers limits the bandwidth of measures, but checks have shown that it remains greater than 200 Hz on all the transducers, which is sufficient for our purpose.

Figure 5 shows details of transducer installation. Each transducer box is imbedded in a flexible elastomer to prevent wing stresses interactions.

The pressure sensor signals are transmitted to a 14-track magnetic recorder, then processed, using the Fourier's analysis method, over several successive periods as regard the oscillation frequency and its various harmonics. The processed results are then filtered and the continuous term and the first three harmonics only are retained. With this procedure, the non-repeatability of phenomena is not a problem, while sufficiently accurate and consistent results are obtained if only global aerodynamic coefficients are considered.

Figure 6 shows an example of pressure measurement and the result obtained by this data processing method and the result.

These pressure measurements are supplemented by the use of hot films which, it is well known (reference 36). Constitute a powerful tool for the qualitative study of boundary layer local behaviour. These hot films, placed perpendicular to the flow, are bonded on the model

upper surface together with their associated resistances closing the electric bridge (figure 7). Having a bandwidth exceeding 1000 Hz, they are very sensitive to the condition of the surrounding boundary layer. The transition angle of attack α_T may be detected without any ambiguity (figure 7 - upper curve) as it corresponds to a significant increase in the mean signal level.

These hot films are also very sensitive to local speed fluctuations, they allow the determination of areas where large variations exist such as vortex phenomena, bubble or full stall (figure 7, lower curve).

The angle of attack α_{BF} which corresponds to the beginning of the fluctuations is, generally close to stall.

This last phenomena not being strictly periodic, a better representation is obtained by computer processing of the signals accented on photographic paper, and magnetic tape. Further, the time average and standard deviation, calculated from 100 points of about 15 successive periods, are determined. Thus, the characteristic angle of attack α_T and α_{BF} are defined from the «standard deviation VS. angle of attack» curve.

6. ANALYSIS OF GLOBAL UNSTEADY RESULTS

6.1 PRACTICAL EFFECTS OF DYNAMIC STALL

The tests on oscillating models are essentially related to what, by convention, is called «dynamic stall». We will come back later on the physical phenomena covered by this term and on the attempts made to explain them. We shall take the dynamic stall definition from reference (37) :

«A set of aerodynamic phenomena occurring when an airfoil is submitted to aerodynamic conditions variable in time, and resulting in lift loss or sudden increase in pitching moments which characterize stall configurations»

The dynamic effects being quantified with respect to the airfoil steady aerodynamic characteristics, the angle of attack is an input value generally used.

Figure 8 summarizes the conventional influence of the unsteady flow for various values of the mean angle of attack α_m for the SA 13109-1.58 airfoil, all other parameters being fixed.

It is noted :

- the existence of lift and moment hysteresis loops, small or negligible at mean angle of attack smaller than the steady stall angle and at low frequency but becoming really significant when α_m is close to this angle or greater.
- Maximum lift values greater than the steady value, mainly at oscillations close to the steady stall angle. This increase in C_N max reflects quantitatively the beneficial influence of the unsteady effects and stall delay.

- The appearance of a moment stall before lift stall.
- The existence of maximum nose-down moments (C_M max.) which, at high mean angle of attack, are greater than the steady moments and reflect quantitatively the prejudicable effect of the dynamic stall on blades.
- At last, the appearance of a rigidity and, particularly, of an aerodynamic damping due to the fact that the moment and motion are out-of-phase.

The algebraical area of the moment loops is proportional to the net work of aerodynamic forces during a cycle, and thus it is possible to quantify the aerodynamic damping. Under some conditions, the moment cycle is running clockwise. The work of aerodynamic forces is then positive, this corresponding to a negative aerodynamic damping and may have prejudicable effects on the blade torsional stability.

Thus, the maximum normal lift C_N max, the maximum nose down moment C_M max. and the reduced aerodynamic damping S^* are the three global values, having a practical interest for the designer.

Therefore, let us review briefly the effect of the various parameters on these values.

6.2 EFFECT OF AIRFOIL SHAPE

As in steady aerodynamics, the airfoil shape has obviously a great influence on aerodynamic characteristics. As a rule, when several airfoils are compared, their «unsteady flow» classification is identical with that in «steady flow»

On figure 9, the «thickness law» effect may be noted for two airfoils having the same mean-line and the same leading edge radius. Thinning-down lowers the C_N max. level and advances the appearance of large C_M max. When angle of attack increases. «Instability pockets» appear also sooner. Figure 10 shows the beneficial effect of thickness and camber on the angle of attack at the beginning of instability.

6.3 EFFECT OF COMPRESSIBILITY

The wind tunnel maximum flow velocity ($M = 0.4$) does not allow the appearance of transsonic troubles on the airfoil upper surface. However, it is sufficient to achieve supercritical configurations.

Figure 11 shows, at reduced iso-frequency, that compressibility lowers the angle of attack at the beginning of instability and limits the C_N max level achieved. This phenomenon would be still more pronounced at iso-frequency.

6.4 EFFECT OF REDUCED FREQUENCY

The single parameter representing the unsteady flow in linear conditions, the reduced frequency, is also a fundamental parameter in non-linear conditions. In fact, stall delay depends directly on the reduced frequency. Thus, figure 12 shows that it is possible to achieve C_N max values all the more greater than the frequency is higher

(For the OA 209 airfoil, the maximum normal lift value is 1.28 in steady conditions at $M = 0.12$). The increase in frequency delays also the beginning of instability. However, the aerodynamic damping and moment values depend on the shape of the hysteresis loops. Then, the other parameters (α_m and $\bar{\alpha}$) are to be considered, the dynamic stall phenomena being different if they are occurring with increasing or decreasing angle of attack.

6.5 EFFECT OF OSCILLATION AMPLITUDE

In the linear theory, the aerodynamic loads are proportional to the amplitude (reference 34). This explains why, at moderate reduced frequencies corresponding to small out-of-phase values, only one linear curve reflects the variation of C_N max versus α max. (figure 13). In dynamic stall conditions, highly non-linear, the effect of amplitude becomes significant. At iso- α max (same type of stall), it is possible to achieve higher C_N max by an increase in amplitude. This is due to the fact that the angular velocity $\dot{\alpha}$ is proportional to $\bar{\alpha}$. The beneficial effect of an increase of $\bar{\alpha}$ on stall delay is well known (references 38 and 39).

As regard the effect of $\bar{\alpha}$ on the stability, it is more difficult to identify. Indeed, amplitude should be associated with the mean angle of attack, the unsteady phenomena varying in a different manner according to the position of the steady flow stall angle relative to the range of angle of attack analysed.

7. ANALYSIS OF LOCAL AERODYNAMIC PHENOMENA ON OSCILLATING AIRFOILS

7.1. LOCAL MEASUREMENTS : PHYSICAL FACTS AND SEMANTIC PROBLEMS

The pressure measuring method offers the great advantage of giving the chordwise pressure distribution, even if it does not allow reaching the C_D in unsteady conditions, this pressure distribution being a basic data in the understanding of phenomena.

Figure 14 shows, as an example, the differential pressure variation, measured by the 13 transducers, during a cycle for two different oscillation frequencies. It is to be noted that sometimes there is a lack of accuracy in the measurement of absolute pressures.

Hot films give an excellent qualitative indication of the boundary layer condition. There is no ambiguity in the determination of transition phenomena. As regard separation, the distinction, significant in unsteady conditions, between reverse flow and separation should be kept in mind (Ref. 40). This question, well discussed from the theoretical aspect (Ref. 41), raises great problems for an experimental approach. The simple hot films, which were at our disposal, were not sufficient to describe accurately the phenomena. It would have been necessary to have, in addition, directional hot-wire probes to determine reverse flows, as this has been done in the noteworthy

experiments described in reference 42.

As the distinction between reverse flows and flow separation areas of high turbulence could not be established, we have identified all these phenomena by the general term «B.F» (Beginning fluctuations). The angles of attack α BF can be with the previous reserves, assimilated roughly to the angles of attack causing local separation of the boundary layer.

7.2. DYNAMIC STALL ON OSCILLATING AIRFOILS

Many papers dealing with this subject. We shall retain only the excellent synthesis given in references 39 and 43. The actual variation in differential pressures during a cycle is shown on figure 15. The mean oscillation angle of attack ($\alpha_m = 15^\circ$) is, in this case, close to the steady stall angle of attack ($\alpha_{ss} = 15.4^\circ$) of the BV 23010 - 1.58 airfoil.

In these phenomena, the process is as follow :

- When the angle of attack increases, the development of a suction area on the leading edge upper surface contributes, as in steady conditions, to the lift increase.
- When the angle of attack exceeds the steady stall point, lift still continues to increase. This is due to the existence, in the leading edge vicinity, of an organized Vortex system which can be shown by hydrodynamic visualisation (Ref. 44).

Furthermore, the Vortex system presence leads to an increase in slope ($\frac{dC_N}{d\alpha}$).

- The BV 23010-1.58 airfoil having a trailing edge stall in the present experimental conditions, the alteration of aerodynamic conditions in this airfoil area, leads to a moment stall ($\alpha = 18.3^\circ$) immediately followed by the vortex motion towards the trailing edge. This increases the value of the nose-down moments.
- The vortex motion results in the loss of the negative pressure area, the lift stall being achieved only when the vortex has moved some distance towards the trailing edge ($\alpha = 21.3^\circ$).
- When the angle of attack decreases, the flow is fully separated. The loss of the main vortex leads to a reduction in the amplitude of the negative moment. A secondary vortex appears at the leading edge (between $\alpha = 18.8^\circ$ and 13.1°). This results in a slight lift increase but, particularly, in a secondary loop in the moment cycle, which positively contributes to damping.
- At last, flow separation ceases at angles of attack smaller than that of steady stall.

On Figure 16, relative to the same experimental conditions, it is possible to precise this variation by associating the upper surface absolute pressure measurements to the variation in global aerodynamic coefficients. The trailing edge type stall is proved by the fact that the moment stall occurs before the fluctuations (characterizing the turbulence associated with reverse flow and/or separation) reach the $x/c = 0.12$ station. Lift continues to increase until the vortex, having moved away from the leading edge, reaches the $x/c = 0.12$ station. The loss of suction, following this motion, results in a lift decrease, while the vortex moving towards the rear of the airfoil causes a rearward motion of the aerodynamic centre and the development of large nose-down moments. The vortex velocity, estimated from the motion of the overspeed peak, has been found to be equal to $0.2 V_\infty$.

By using hot films, it has been possible to show that when the above phenomena occur, the boundary layers were turbulent over the greatest part of the airfoil. In fact, transition is occurring rapidly when the angle of attack increases, although the unsteady effects, reflected by the reduced frequency increase, induce hysteresis phenomena, clearly visible on figure 17.

When the angle of attack increases, the laminar-to-turbulent flow transition occurs at an angle of attack greater than that corresponding to steady conditions. Conversely, on decreasing angle of attack, the passage from turbulent to laminar flow occurs at a smaller angle of attack.

This hysteresis phenomena, showing up at $M = 0.2$, is noted again at $M = 0.3$, but at a lower global angle of attack level, due to the increase in local velocities resulting from the increase in upstream Mach number.

These hysteresis phenomena may be evaluated by a calculation of the unsteady boundary layers (Ref. 45).

The unsteady stall process, and sometimes, its kind strongly depend on motion parameters: amplitude, reduced frequency, mean angle of attack, as it may be seen on figures

18 to 20. Although the stall delay is, as it is well known, an increasing function of angular velocity $\dot{\alpha} > 0$, and reduced frequency is presented as the main parameter, it is not useless to emphasize the fact that dynamic stall strongly depends on the way the rate of change is achieved. On figure 18, the amplitude influence is shown for an oscillation at constant reduced frequency about the static stall angle of attack for the BV 2310 - 1.58 airfoil.

The amplitude seems to have a pronounced effect on the vortex system intensity and on the moment in the cycle when it leaves the leading edge to move over the upper surface.

At low frequency ($\bar{\alpha} = \pm 3^\circ$), vortex is very diffuse and seems to leave the leading edge at the top of cycle. Although the negative pressures are at a general higher level than in steady conditions (this explaining the C_N max. increase), stall is similar to a quasi-static stall as it is shown by the pressure curve at $x/c = 0.12$ of figure 18.

At the highest amplitude ($\bar{\alpha} = \pm 6^\circ$), vortex is more intense but it leaves the leading edge sooner in the cycle (but at an angle of attack greater than $\alpha = 18^\circ$). Stall has a more pronounced dynamic character. The mechanism is the same for the SA 13109 - 1.58 airfoil and explains the results shown on figure 13 where the vortex intensity at $\bar{\alpha} = \pm 6^\circ$, induces, at the same maximum angle of attack, very high values of C_N max. but, introduces also, by moving over the upper surface, very strong nose-down maximum moments.

Figure 19 shows the strong effect of frequency on the various stall processes. At the lowest reduced frequency ($k = 0.02$), we find again a generalized stall having a quasi-static characteristic, with a boundary layer separation at $x/c = 0.12$, occurring soon after the static stall angle of attack.

When the reduced frequency increases, there is a general out-of-phase condition in the «moment stall/ separation at $x/c = 0.12$ / lift stall» sequence, all these phenomena occurring on increasing angle of attack at $k = 0.13$ and on decreasing angle of attack at $k = 0.26$.

This out-of-phase condition explains the beneficial effect of reduced frequency on C_N max. and on the angle of attack at the beginning of instability. The C_N max. level, reached in stall conditions, depends on the possible formation of secondary vortices on the leading edge, the stall in decreasing angle of attack conditions having also a prejudicial effect on stability.

Figure 20 shows, at iso-amplitude, the combined effect of frequency and mean angle of attack on trailing edge stall for the OA 209 airfoil, at oscillations close to or greater than the static stall angle of attack ($\alpha_{ss} = 12.8^\circ$).

The hot films characterize the separation up-motion from the trailing edge towards the leading edge, while overspeeds indicate the Vortex passage. It is noted that the frequency increase, at a given α_m , delays the separation motion and Vortex appearance. The increase in mean angle of attack offsets the whole sequence which, then, occurs sooner in the cycle. All the stalls corresponding to these experimental cases occur on increasing angle of attack, except the lift stall at $\alpha_m = 12^\circ$ and $k = 0.146$.

8. DYNAMIC STALL AND PREDICTION METHODS

As nobody can calculate accurately the static stall, it is obvious that the problem is still more insoluble for dynamic conditions. A judicious approach to the problem, particularly if it should maintain a practical character for the designer, cannot be, therefore, entirely theoretical (Ref. 46).

- We will mention only, as reference, the digital resolution methods for the complete Navier Stokes equations.

In fact, although these methods exceed the natural limitations of the potential and boundary layer theories (Ref. 47), they are very cumbersome from the programming aspect and applicable to very low Reynolds numbers only.

- The «unsteady potential methods» should allow by associating simplicity and relative accuracy, the calculation of unsteady flows occurring before the dynamic stall. Figure 21 shows the results obtained, in compressibility conditions, using a model developed by Mc Croskey (ref. 48). The contributions due to the camber and airfoil thickness effects are calculated using «steady» methods. The unsteady effects are related to the angle of attack only, and calculated using the oscillating flat plate solution (Theodorsen's function for the linear formula). A non-linear formula of this model greatly improves the accuracy of results, for an angle of attack close to the static stall angle. The improvement is spectacular in the leading edge area. This formula consists in retaining terms of the second order in the Bernoulli's General equation.

The wake action is expressed no longer in the form of an explicit function of the reduced frequency (Theodorsen's function) but using digital integrals expressing the reduced frequency and the chordwise position of the point considered on the airfoil.

Beside its prediction accuracy of the pressure distribution, it has been possible with this model to impute part of the stall delay beyond the static stall to the effects of the unsteady perfect fluid. This idea, developed by Carta (ref. 49) for a flat plate and checked by Mc Croskey (ref. 48) for a symmetric airfoil, may be extended to a cambered airfoil, as shown on figure 22. It may be seen that, with respect to steady conditions, the unsteady effects reduce the pressure gradients over the whole airfoil. Therefore, this may

explain partially the stall delay.

- The «discrete potential vortex» methods give additional information as they take into account a leading edge vortex system.

These methods are full of promises (ref. 50). However, they are cumbersome, and often it is necessary to call on experimental data to determine the moment of vortex appearance.

- The boundary layer methods

If they do not allow the direct calculation of dynamic stall, they give, however, additional information on stall delay. Mc Croskey has shown (ref. 45 and 46) that, due to the pressure gradients at high angle of attack, the unsteady effects are negligible near the leading edge but significant for the calculation of boundary layers on the airfoil rear section. From this it results that the laminar «loci of vanishing wall shear» varies very little in laminar flow conditions (leading edge area), but has a strong hysteresis in turbulent at the rear of airfoil. This explains also partially the stall delay.

For additional information, it is necessary to consider a coupling between the inviscid and viscous flows in the separation area (Ref. 51).

- Synthetisation methods

Their purpose is to correlate, in the most simple manner, the experimental results to «extend» the potential calculations in the stall conditions. Figure 23 shows, for airfoils, having trailing edge dynamic stall characteristics, a simple synthetisation, calling on angular velocity and acceleration, to express the local boundary layer separation. Linear laws have been established for other Mach numbers and by applying them it is possible to follow the separation point motion towards the leading edge versus the airfoil movement.

Studies are in progress to determine the correlation between the moment of vortex start and the separation point motion law.

Figure 24 shows the appreciable effect of the introduction of unsteady stall in a linear calculation method of rotor loads (ref. 24). The method used here, calls on parameter ($\dot{\alpha}$) only. Obviously, results would be still further improved if the parameter ($\ddot{\alpha}$) was also considered.

9. CONCLUSIONS

Through the experiments conducted on models oscillating about the pitch axis, it is possible to describe partially the unsteady effects on a rotor. The set-up, made by C.E.A.T, has allowed the solution of the methodological problems raised by this kind of experiment.

The research work made has allowed the determination of unsteady characteristics for many airfoils and the explanation of the trailing edge stall unsteady process.

The prediction models developed are based on simple perfect fluid models and synthetisation of experimental results. Through them, it has been possible to demonstrate the relative influence of the perfect fluid and boundary layers on stall delay. The synthetisation of boundary layer separation results seems to be an element full of promise in the establishment of a practical model of trailing edge stall delay for the airfoils presently used by Aerospatiale.

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SYMBOLS

<p>b : airfoil semi-chord, m</p> <p>c : airfoil chord, m</p> <p>$C'(k) = F + iG$, Theodorsen function</p> <p>C_M : quarter-chord pitching moment coefficient</p> <p>$C_{M \max}$: maximum negative pitching moment coefficient</p> <p>C_N : normal force coefficient</p> <p>$C_{N \max}$: maximum positive normal-force coefficient</p> <p>C_p : instantaneous pressure coefficient</p> <p>$\Delta C_p = C_{p \text{ lower}} - C_{p \text{ upper}}$, instantaneous differential pressure coefficient</p> <p>f : frequency of airfoil oscillation, Hz</p> <p>$k = \frac{\pi f c}{U_\infty}$, reduced frequency</p> <p>M : Mach number</p> <p>p : static pressure</p> <p>p_T : total pressure</p> <p>$Re = \frac{U_\infty c}{\nu}$, Reynolds number</p> <p>$S^* = \frac{\phi C_M d \alpha}{-\frac{\pi^2}{2} \bar{\alpha} k}$ Damping ratio</p>	<p>t : time</p> <p>U_∞ : free-stream velocity, m/s</p> <p>V : local velocity, m/s</p> <p>$V^* = \frac{V}{U_\infty}$ reduced local velocity</p> <p>x : chordwise coordinate measured from the leading edge, m</p> <p>$X = \frac{x}{c}$</p> <p>α : angle of attack</p> <p>α_m : mean angle of attack</p> <p>$\bar{\alpha}$: oscillatory amplitude</p> <p>$\hat{\alpha}, \ddot{\alpha}$: angular speed and acceleration</p> <p>β : Flapping angle</p> <p>θ : Torsional angle</p> <p>ψ : Blade azimuthal position</p> <p>$\omega = 2\pi f$ oscillatory frequency rd/s</p> <p>Ω : rotor rotational frequency</p> <p>ρ : density kg/m³</p>
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SUBSCRIPTS

<p>u : upper surface</p> <p>ℓ : lower surface</p> <p>∞ : free stream</p> <p>DS : dynamic stall</p> <p>SS : static stall</p>
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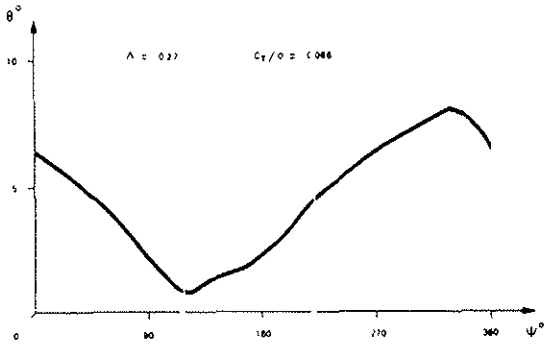


FIGURE 1 : TYPICAL TORSIONAL BLADE MOTION

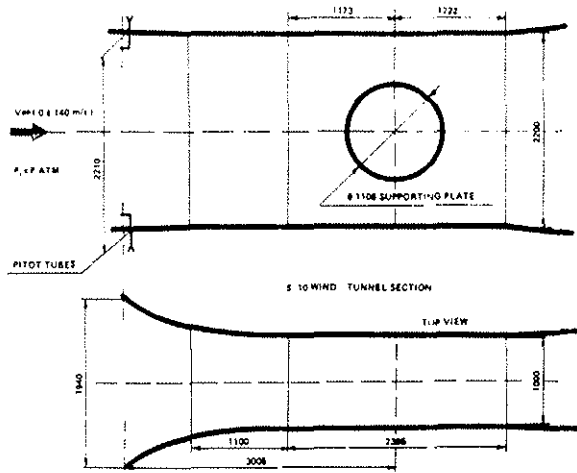


FIGURE 3 : TEST SECTION CHARACTERISTICS

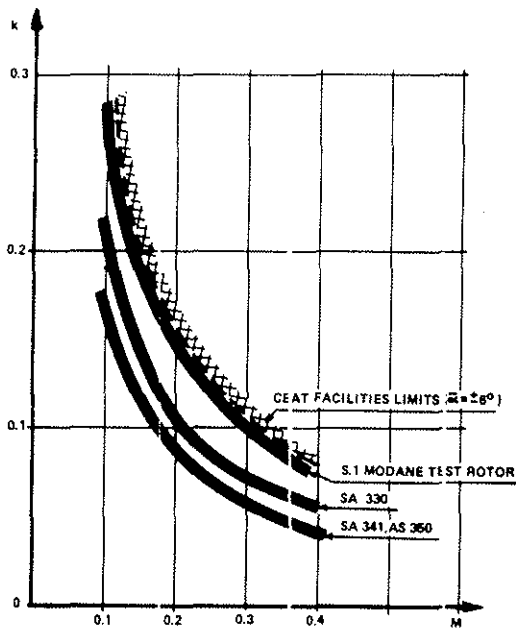


FIGURE 2 : CEAT RIG REDUCED FREQUENCY SIMULATION MAIN ROTOR (1Ω)

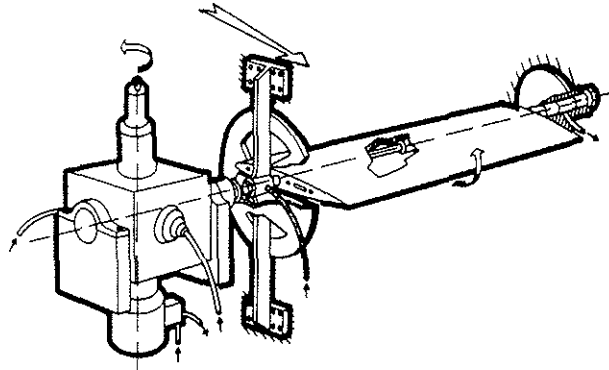


FIGURE 4 : PITCH OSCILLATING MECHANISM (S. 10 TOULOUSE)

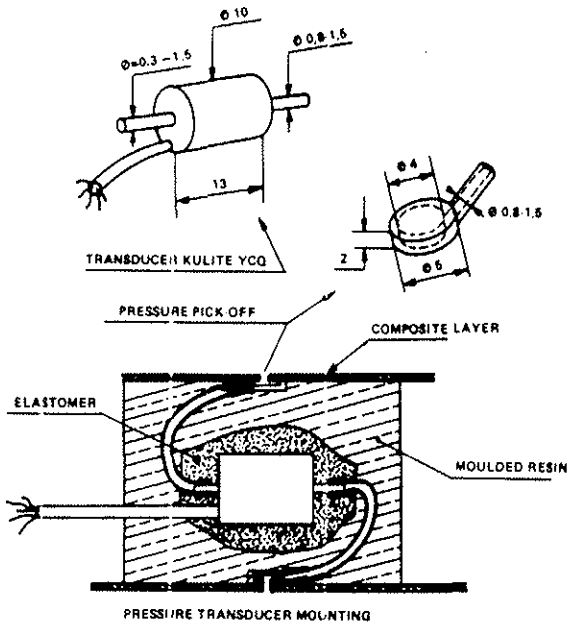


FIGURE 5 : PRESSURE TRANSDUCER MOUNTING

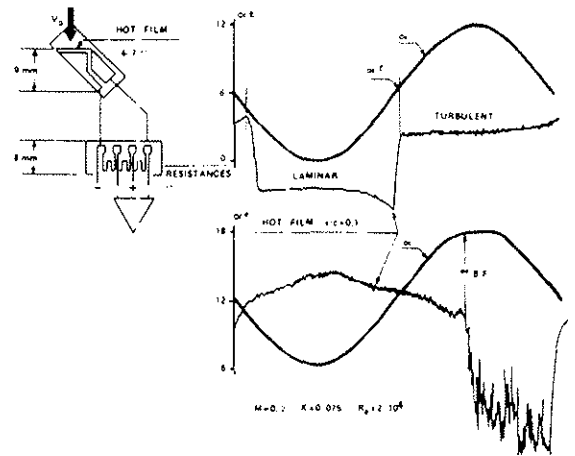


FIGURE 7 : HOT-FILM INSTALLATION AND TYPICAL DATA RECORDING

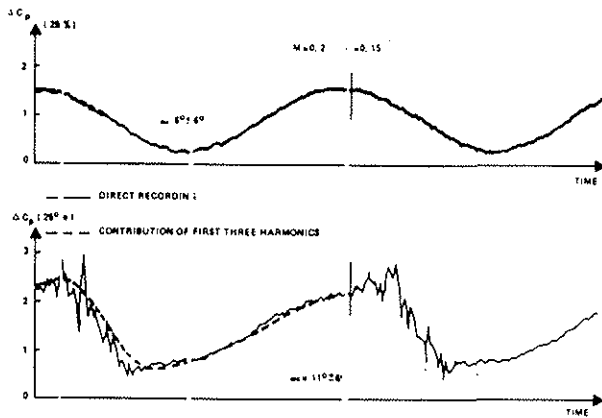
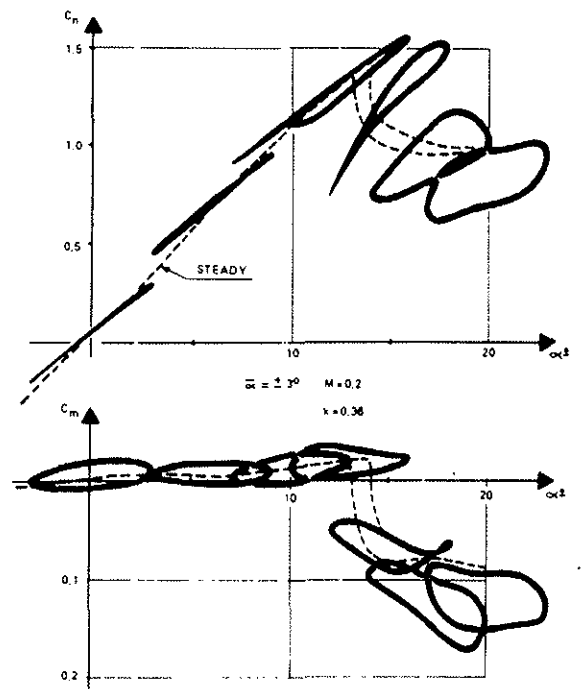


FIGURE 6 TYPICAL PRESSURE TRACE AND DATA REDUCTION



SA 13108 1.58 AIRFOIL

FIGURE 8 : DYNAMIC LIFT AND MOMENT COEFFICIENTS VERSUS ANGLE OF ATTACK

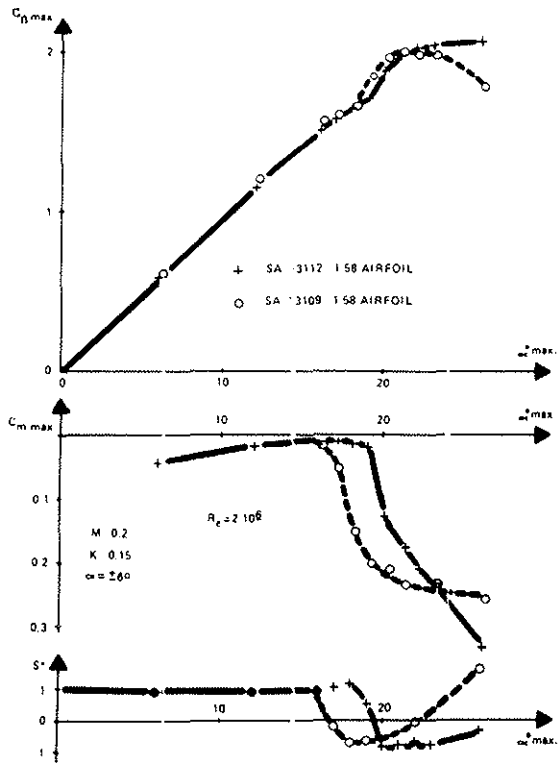


FIGURE 9 : INFLUENCE OF AIRFOIL THICKNESS ON DYNAMIC CHARACTERISTICS

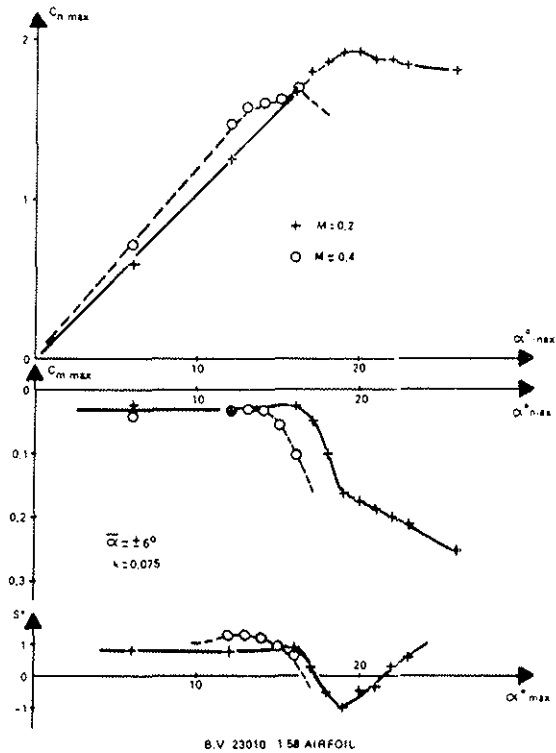


FIGURE 11 : MACH NUMBER EFFECT ON AIRFOIL DYNAMIC CHARACTERISTICS

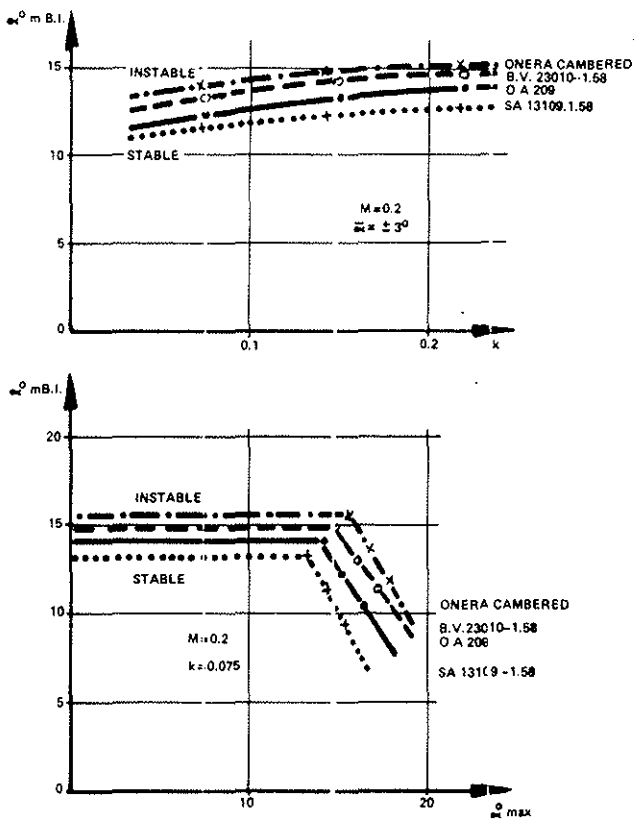


FIGURE 10 : INFLUENCE OF AIRFOIL GEOMETRY ON THE LOWER INSTABILITY LIMIT

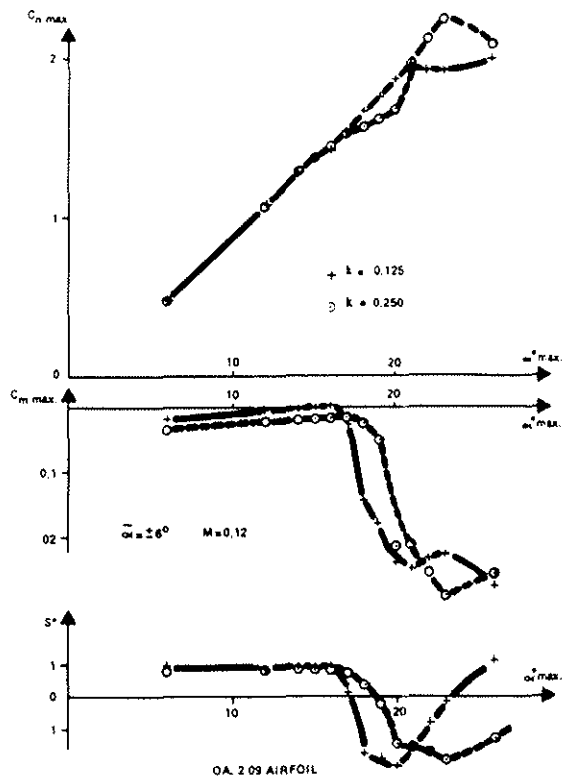


FIGURE 12 : EFFECT OF FREQUENCY ON AIRFOIL DYNAMIC CHARACTERISTICS

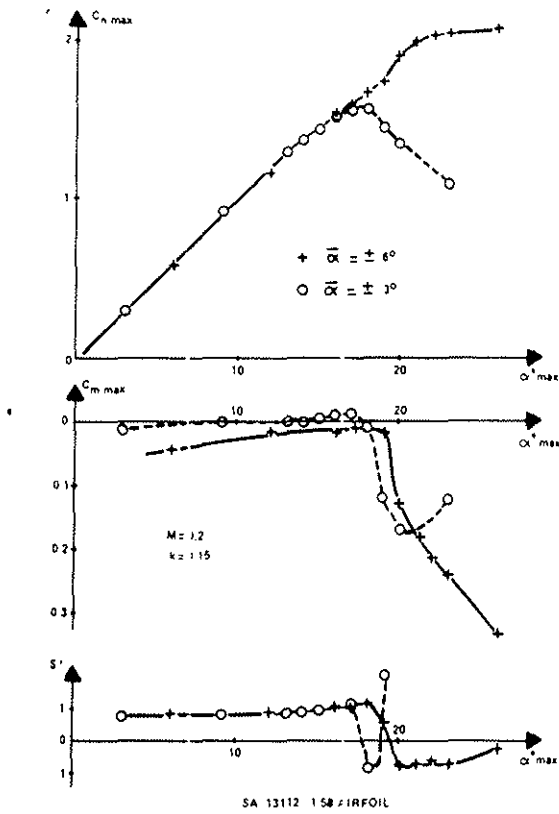


FIGURE 13 : AMPLITUDE EFFECT ON AIRFOIL DYNAMIC CHARACTERISTICS

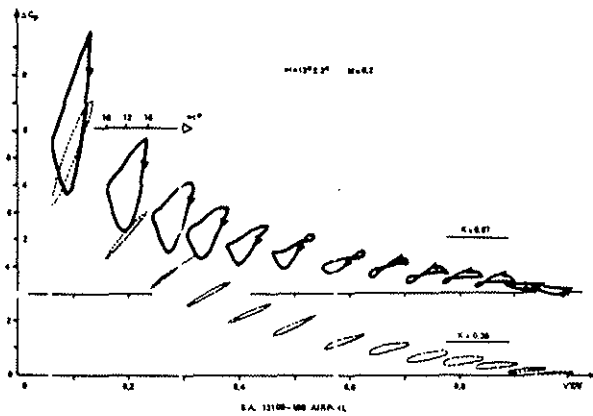


FIGURE 14 : VARIATION OF DIFFERENTIAL PRESSURES DURING A CYCLE 13 CHORDWISE POSITIONS

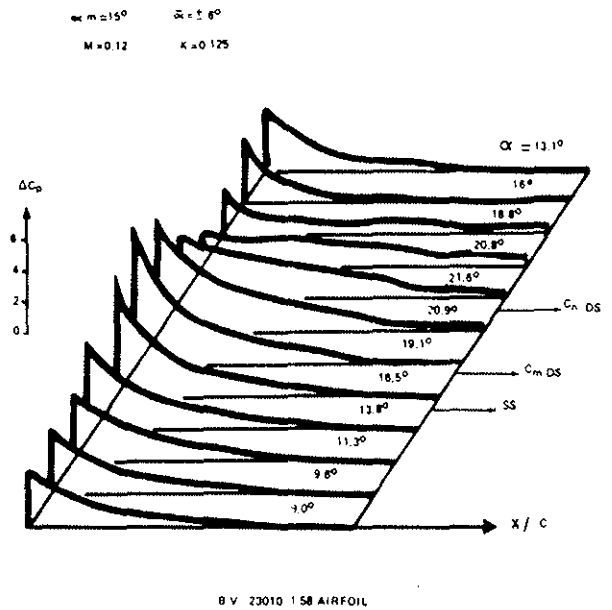


FIGURE 15 : TIME - HISTORY OF DIFFERENTIAL PRESSURE DISTRIBUTION DURING A CYCLE ABOUT STATIC STALL ANGLE

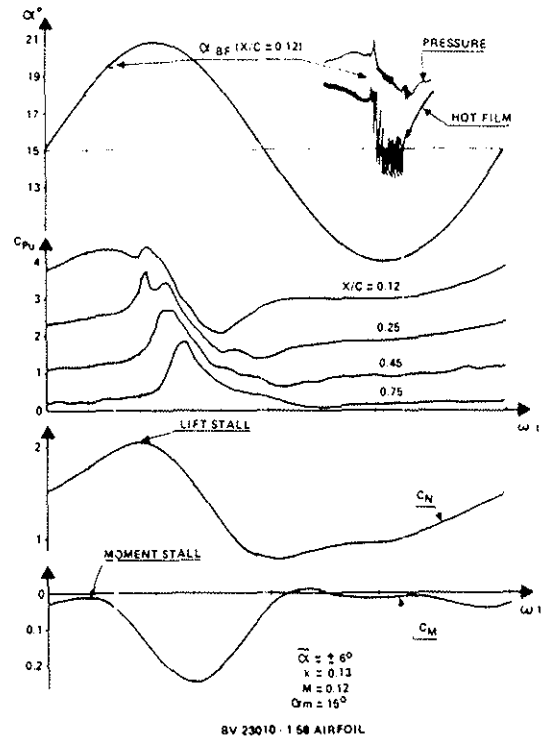


FIGURE 16 : TIME - HISTORY OF LOCAL AND GLOBAL AERODYNAMIC PARAMETERS DURING A CYCLE

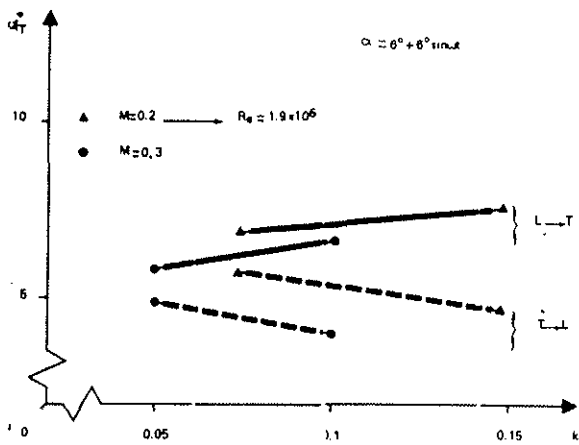


FIGURE 17 : EFFECT OF REDUCED FREQUENCY ON TRANSITION OA 209 AIRFOIL UPPER SURFACE $X/C = 0.12$

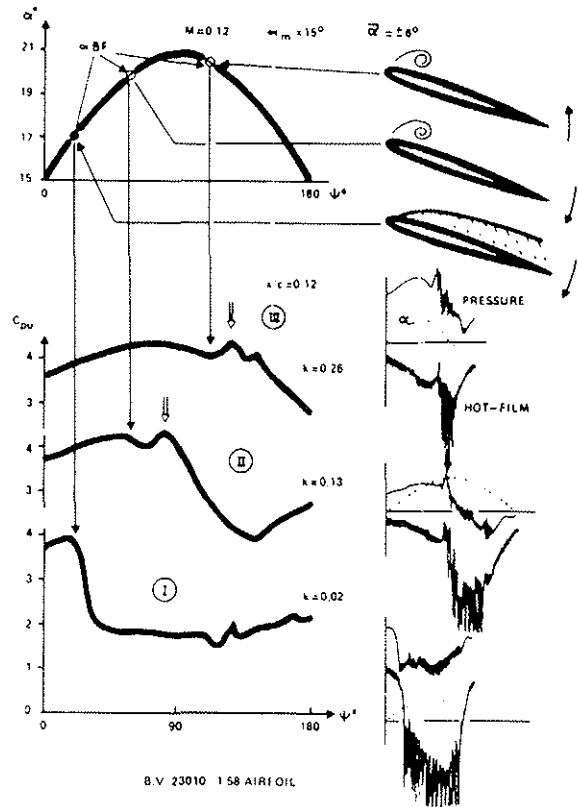


FIGURE 19 : INFLUENCE OF FREQUENCY ON STALL

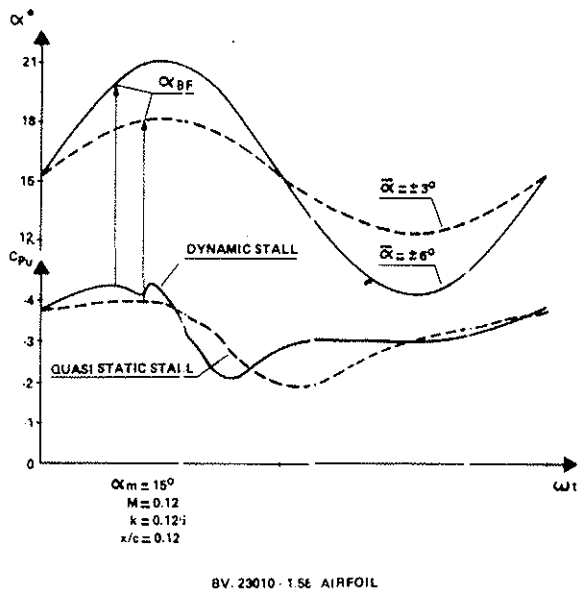


FIGURE 18 : AMPLITUDE EFFECT ON STALL

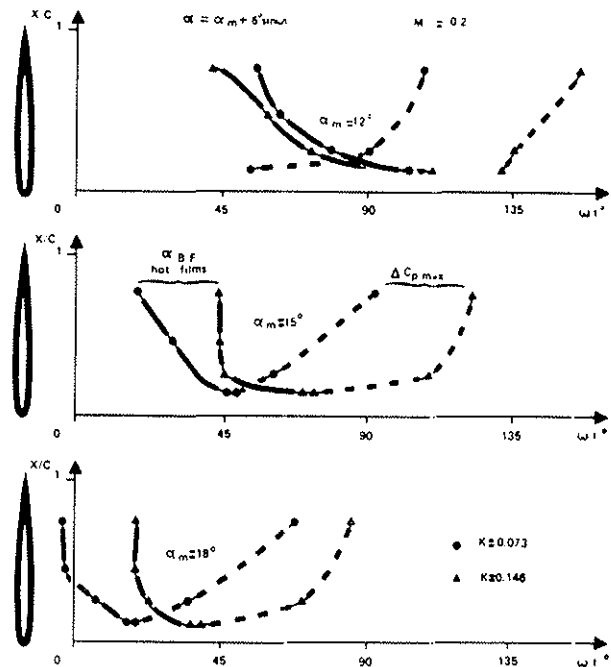


FIGURE 20 : DYNAMIC STALL PROCESS ON THE OA209 AIRFOIL

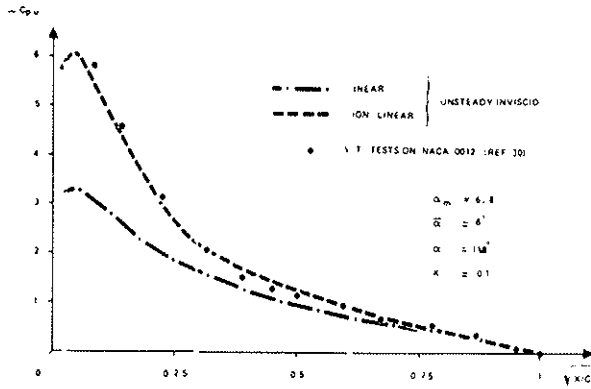


FIGURE 21 : EFFECT OF NON - LINEARITIES (INVISCID FLUID) ON UPPER SURFACE PRESSURES

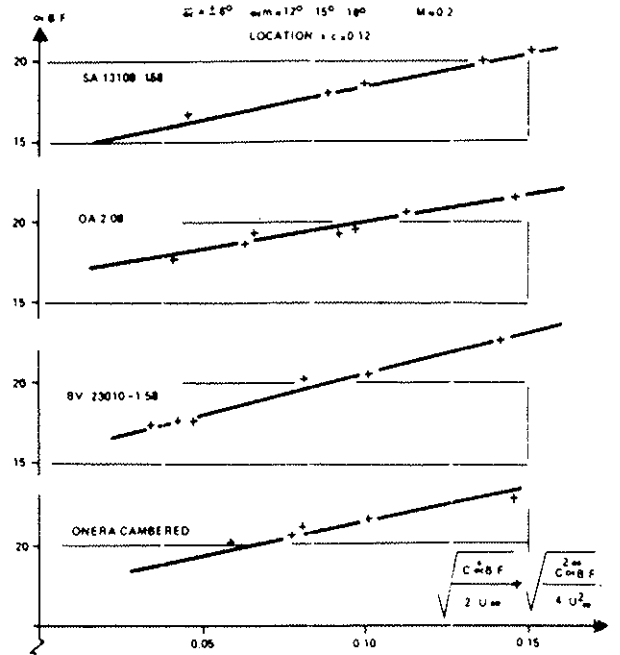


FIGURE 23 : SYNTHETIZATION OF DYNAMIC SEPARATION OCCURENCE

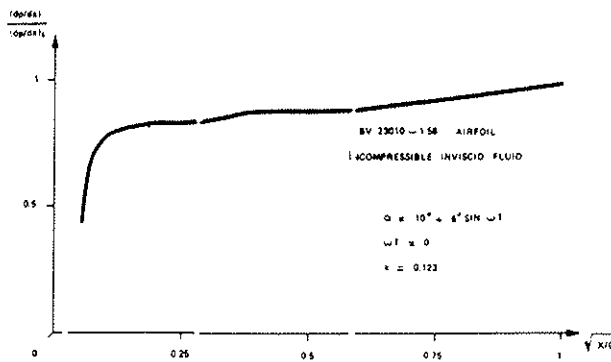


FIGURE 22 : UNSTEADY EFFECT ON PRESSURE GRADIENT

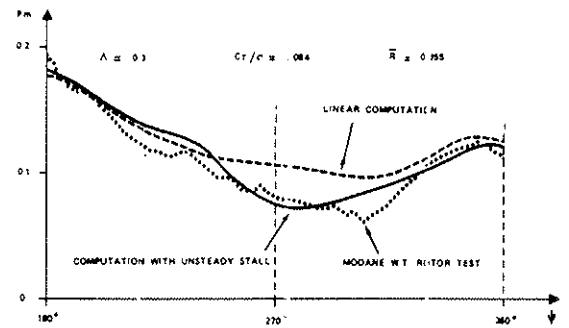


FIGURE 24 : EFFECT OF DYNAMIC STALL ON CALCULATED ROTOR LOADS