## András Sóbester Alexander I J Forrester

# Aircraft Aerodynamic Design Geometry and Optimization

## Aerospace Series

Editors Peter Belobaba, Jonathan Cooper and Allan Seabridge



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## AIRCRAFT AERODYNAMIC DESIGN

#### **GEOMETRY AND OPTIMIZATION**

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Figure 7.13 CST approximation errors over the set of SC(2) aerofoils using the general aerofoil class function ( $\sqrt{x(1 - x)}$ ) on the right and an SC(2)-family-specific class function on the left. Reproduced from Powell (2012).

Chapter 8

<u>Figure 8.1 Aspect ratios from the extremely low – the</u> <u>Vought V-173 'Flying Pancake' (just over one!), with</u> <u>wingtip-mounted propellers – to high – the Alenia C-</u> <u>27J Spartan, bottom left – and low – Alenia Aermacchi</u> <u>M-346 Master (photographs by A. Sóbester).</u>

Figure 8.2 Big jets with high aspect ratio wings. The wings of the Boeing 747-400 (top left, Group V, Code E, span ~55 m) and the Airbus A330 (bottom left, Group V, Code E) are visibly more slender than those of the Airbus A380 (top right, Group VI, Code F, span ~80 m), the latter designed up against the upper boundary of Group VI/Code F. There are fewer geometrical constraints on long-range, strategic bombers, such as the Boeing B-52 (bottom right) (photographs by A. Sóbester).

<u>Figure 8.3 Fighter jet planforms: low aspect ratio</u> <u>wings on the Boeing F/A-18E Super Hornet (left) and</u> <u>on the McDonnell Douglas F-15C Eagle (right). Note</u> <u>also the leading edge extensions on the Hornet</u> <u>(photographs by A. Sóbester).</u>

Figure 8.4 Tapered wings. Sub-unity taper ratio on the Shorts Tucano (left,  $\lambda < 1$ ) and reverse taper ( $\lambda > 1$ ) on the wings of the Republic XF-91 Thunderceptor (photographs by A. Sóbester and US Air Force).

<u>Figure 8.5 Forward-swept outboard wing segments</u> on the experimental Grumman X-29 (photograph by US Air Force).

<u>Figure 8.6 The Boeing B-47A, the world's first swept-</u> <u>wing bomber (photograph by US Air Force).</u>

<u>Figure 8.7 SNCASO Trident I. This 1950s</u> <u>experimental aircraft powered by turbojets and a</u> <u>rocket was able to achieve Mach 1.55 in spite of</u> <u>having zero sweep (photograph by A. Sóbester).</u>

Figure 8.8 Geometry of a swept wing: a normal and a streamwise section through the plane of a straight, plane wing pivoted to obtain a sweep  $\Lambda$ .

Figure 8.9 Consider an aircraft flying horizontally at sea-level conditions and different Mach numbers, from the zero abscissa to the 1000 m abscissa point. The small triangles spaced at 100 m represent its path and the circle centred on each triangle is the wave front (recorded at the moment the aircraft <u>reached the end of the 1 km segment) of the</u> <u>disturbance created by the aircraft in that point. The</u> <u>aircraft has no effect on the free stream outside of</u> <u>the cone defined by the wavefronts.</u>

Figure 8.10 Eurofigher Typhoon – the Mach 2 cone of the nose superimposed upon the planform of the aircraft ( $\mu = \arcsin(1/2) = 30^\circ$ ).

Figure 8.11 The angle of attack envelope of the X-29 forward swept-wing research aircraft (angle of attack versus airspeed at a range of load factors) and the aircraft in high angle of attack flight (as shown by the smoke generated for visualization purposes) – both courtesy of NASA, plot from Bauer et al. (1995).

Figure 8.12 Panavia Tornado ADV (F3), a Mach 2.2 long-range variable-sweep interceptor with its wings at  $\Lambda = 67^{\circ}$ , their highest sweep setting, the lowest being  $\Lambda = 25^{\circ}$  (photograph by A. Sóbester).

<u>Figure 8.13 NASA oblique wing aircraft: OWRA</u> (Oblique Wing Research Aircraft) unmanned demonstrator (left) and the AD-1, a subsonic, manned research aircraft from 1979 (NASA images).

Figure 8.14 Swept-wing aircraft turning on a taxiway around its port main landing gear (MLG). The space required is greater than the span of the aircraft, by a margin known as *swept-wing 'growth'*.

Figure 8.15 Typical constraint diagram reflecting the initial climb requirement. The curve separating the feasible (white) and the infeasible (grey) region of the thrust-to-weight versus wing loading space is the nominal constraint boundary. The additional boundaries show the impact of changes to the nominal (target) values of some key parameters on the location of this boundary. Figure 8.16 Typical constraint diagram reflecting take-off distance requirements. The larger of the two superimposed grey triangles is the zone in which a design would violate the constraint on the maximum take-off roll length. The continuous lines either side of the corresponding boundary indicate the sensitivity of the location of this boundary to the target length. The 50 ft obstacle clearance feasibility constraint (which can be read off the graph in a similar way) is less restrictive, and therefore inactive in this particular case.

Figure 8.17 A selection of aeroplanes in thrust-toweight versus wing loading space at take-off conditions. The colours of the discs representing each aeroplane indicate the length of their International Standard Atmosphere (ISA), maximum take-off weight and take-off distance, while their size is proportional to their initial rate of climb under the same conditions.

Figure 8.18 Illustration of the definitions of the two scaling factors we shall use in our objects instantiated from the LiftingSurface class. myChordFunctionAirliner is a user-defined function describing the spanwise variation of the chord length, as explained in Section 8.5.4 – it is supplied as one of the illustrative examples to allow the reader to test the capabilities of the LiftingSurface class (see Listing 8.1 for its definition).

Chapter 9

<u>Figure 9.1 Aircraft with high, swept wings, featuring</u> <u>pronounced anhedral. Clockwise from top left:</u> <u>Harrier (AV8-B), Airbus A400M, British Aerospace</u> <u>BAe-146, Ilyushin Il-76 (photographs by A. Sóbester).</u> Figure 9.2 Aircraft with polyhedral wings. Anticlockwise from top: Jodel D18, Vought F4U-1D Corsair and the Mahoney Sorceress, a staggered biplane designed for the Reno Air Races (photographs by A. Sóbester).

<u>Figure 9.3 Multisegment flaps on the polyhedral wing</u> of a Vought Corsair (photograph by A. Sóbester).

Figure 9.4 CAD rendering of a box wing unmanned aircraft – an example of  $\Gamma(\varepsilon)$  varying linearly between the end of the zero dihedral lower half of the wing and an upper half that can be viewed, from a purely geometrical standpoint, as having 180° dihedral.

<u>Figure 9.5 Local dihedral angle variation defined</u> <u>along a wing-attached, spanwise coordinate axis c, to</u> <u>model deformed shapes for fluid-structures</u> <u>interactions studies (Boeing 787-8; photographs by A.</u> <u>Sóbester).</u>

Figure 9.6 Two wings (transonic transport on the left, box wing on the right) illustrating a conventionally orientated Cartesian system with its origin at the root of the leading edge and an additional curvilinear dimension  $\epsilon$  attached to the leading edge.

<u>Figure 9.7 The first step of building the box wing: a</u> <u>simple straight, plane wing with a NACA 5310</u> <u>section.</u>

<u>Figure 9.8 Step 2 of generating a box wing: the basic</u> <u>wing is folded back onto itself through a linear</u> <u>transition.</u>

<u>Figure 9.9 Folded wing with aerofoil section camber</u> <u>transition at the folding point – both elements of the</u> <u>wing have positive camber.</u>

Figure 9.10 Completed box wing.

<u>Figure 9.11 Blended winglets on an Embraer ERJ</u> <u>190-200LR (photograph by A. Sóbester).</u>

Figure 9.12 A simple, two-variable parameterization of a blended winglet geometry. Sweeps of the variable controlling the tip tangent (left) and the variable controlling the transition point (right).

Figure 9.13 Scimitar winglet generated by combining two instances of the parametric blended winglet. The two component winglets differ on the starting point of their transition, the wingtip tangent, as well as on the overall scaling factor.

Figure 9.14 Commuter-class turboprop wing sketch.

<u>Figure 9.15 Constraint diagram of the commuter</u> <u>airliner design example.</u>  $C_{\rm D}^{\rm para}$  <u>denotes parasitic drag</u>,  $C_{\rm D}^{\rm ind}$  <u>stands for induced drag</u>.

<u>Figure 9.16 BAe Jetstream 31, seen here in the livery</u> of the UK's National Flying Laboratory (courtesy of <u>G-NFLA).</u>

<u>Figure 9.17 Three design points of the BAe Jetstream</u> <u>31 against the constraint boundaries of the commuter</u> <u>turboprop design example.</u>

Chapter 10

<u>Figure 10.1 One-sided difference error when</u> <u>approximating  $\partial L \partial x_0$  using Equation 10.4.</u>

<u>Figure 10.2 AlgoPy's computational graph of the</u> <u>forward part of Listing 10.2.</u>

Figure 10.3 The Bézier spline aerofoil for which the derivatives of q with respect to its surface are to be obtained. The circled control points are those for which the *z*-coordinate will be varied via an inverse design process in Section 10.4.

<u>Figure 10.4 Derivatives of panel(x,alpha,Re) with</u> <u>respect to aerofoil surface coordinates.</u>

<u>Figure 10.5 Derivatives of the Bézier spline aerofoil</u> <u>surface with respect to the control points (compare</u> <u>with the Bernstein polynomials in Figure 3.7).</u>

<u>Figure 10.6 A Ferguson spline aerofoil defined by</u> <u>A<sup>upper, lower</sub> = 0.0, 0.0, B<sup>upper, lower</sub> = 1.0, 0.0, T<sup>lower</sup></u><u>A</u> = 0.0, -0.025, T<sup>upper</sup><u>A</u> = 0.0, 0.03, T<sup>lower</sup><u>B</u> = 0.75, 0.0, T<sup>upper</sup><u>B</u> = 0.9, -0.03.</u></sup></sup>

Figure 10.7 Derivatives of the Ferguson spline aerofoil surface with respect to the leading and trailing edge points (A and B), and leading and trailing edge tangents ( $T_A$  and  $T_B$ ) (compare with the basis functions in Figure 3.12).

Figure 10.8 Derivatives of the Ferguson spline aerofoil surface with respect to the definition in Figure 7.2, showing the intuitive nature of this parameterization (i.e. the variables have clear associations with the shape of the aerofoil). Note that although some parameters have the same effect on the shape, they will, naturally, have different effects on the flow.

<u>Figure 10.9 Derivatives of a NACA 4412 aerofoil</u> <u>surface with respect to the four-digit definition; that</u> <u>is,  $z^{\max}_{cam}$ ,  $x_{mc}$  and  $t_{max}$ .</u>

<u>Figure 10.10 Initial, target and optimized *c*<sub>P</sub> profiles</u> from the inverse design process in Listing 10.9.

<u>Figure 10.11 Initial and optimized aerofoils from the</u> <u>inverse design process in Listing 10.9.</u>

Chapter 11

<u>Figure 11.1 Ferguson spline aerofoils with varying</u> <u>T<sup>upper</sup><sub>A</sub>, produced by Listing 11.7.</u>

<u>Figure 11.2 XFOIL-calculated drag coefficients for</u> <u>Ferguson spline aerofoils with varying T<sup>upper</sup>A</u>, <u>produced by Listing 11.7. The curve fit is a 'moving</u> <u>least squares' – for example, see Forrester and Keane</u> (2009).

Chapter 12

<u>Figure 12.1 SUHPA in flight during the 2013 Icarus</u> <u>Cup at Sywell Aerodrome (piloted by Bill Brooks;</u> <u>power-plant, Guy Martin; photograph by Fred To).</u>

<u>Figure 12.2 SUHPA in flight. Note the high aspect</u> <u>ratio and low thickness/chord, highlighting the</u> <u>importance of the aero-structural trade-off (piloted by</u> <u>Bill Brooks; power-plant, Guy Martin; photograph by</u> <u>Fred To).</u>

Figure 12.3 Planform of SUHPA after the threevariable NACA 44xx optimization (Listing 12.1).

Figure 12.4 Aerofoils and corresponding pressure profiles after the three-variable NACA 44xx optimization (Listing 12.1).

<u>Figure 12.5 Aerofoils and corresponding pressure</u> <u>profiles after the five-variable NACA xxxx</u> <u>optimization.</u>

<u>Figure 12.6 Aerofoils and corresponding pressure</u> <u>profiles after the nine-variable Ferguson spline-based</u> <u>optimization.</u>

<u>Figure 12.7 Aerofoils and corresponding pressure</u> <u>profiles after the 27-variable Ferguson spline-based</u> <u>optimization.</u>