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## Twist Distributions for Swept Wings, Part 3

In Part 1 we defined and provided examples of lift distributions. Part 2 examined stalling patterns of various planforms and introduced the notion that sweep angle and coefficient of lift can affect the angle of attack of outboard wing segments. Three consistent themes have been underlying the discussion thus far: (1) achieve and hopefully surpass the low induced drag exemplified by the elliptical lift distribution without creating untoward stall characteristics, (2) reduce adverse yaw created by aileron deflection without adversely affecting the aircraft in pitch, and (3) maintain an acceptable weight to strength ratio. In Part 3 we will describe a method of achieving the second goal.

### Sweep and twist

Figure 1 (reprint of Figure 8, Part 2) shows the increasing upwash which affects outboard segments of a swept untwisted wing as it produces lift. Although exaggerated in the diagram, the overall tendency is clear and does appear in practice.

While there are several ways of reducing the tendency for the wing tip to stall, like careful consideration of airfoils or addition of wing fences, there are advantages to imparting some twist to the wing in the form of washout (leading edge down).

Figure 2 illustrates the case where the wing is twisted such that each wing segment has the same angle of attack as related to the oncoming air flow. Since the increasing upwash ahead of the wing is directly proportional to the amount of lift produced by inboard wing segments, this illustration is obviously accurate for only one aircraft velocity and attitude. The general concept is, however, very important.

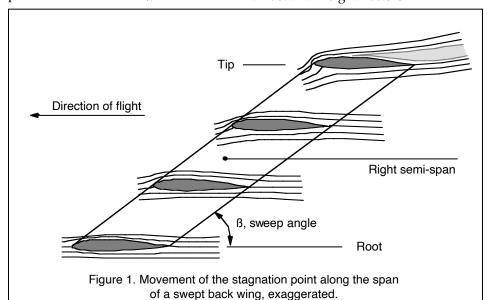
#### **Vectors**

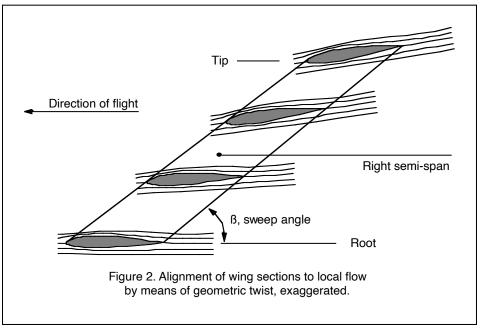
Mass, length, pressure and time can be defined by single real numbers. The length of a spar for a two meter sailplane, as an example, may be 39 inches. As there is a unit of measurement, inches in this case, the spar length is a scalar quantity. The number which provides the magnitude, 39, is considered a scalar.

Force, on the other hand, has both a magnitude and a direction, and is therefore classified as a vector quantity. A five pound brick resting on a table in a gravitational field may be represented as shown in Figure 3A and 3B. If another five pound brick is placed on the first brick, the situation

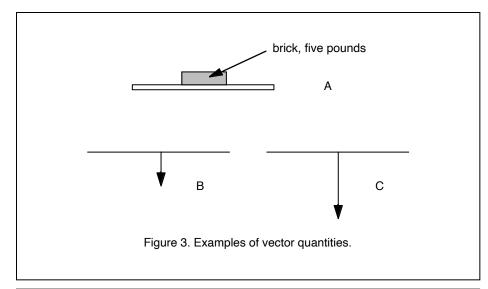
can be depicted as in Figure 3C. Note that the arrowhead always indicates the direction of the force, while the length of the line indicates the magnitude of the force.

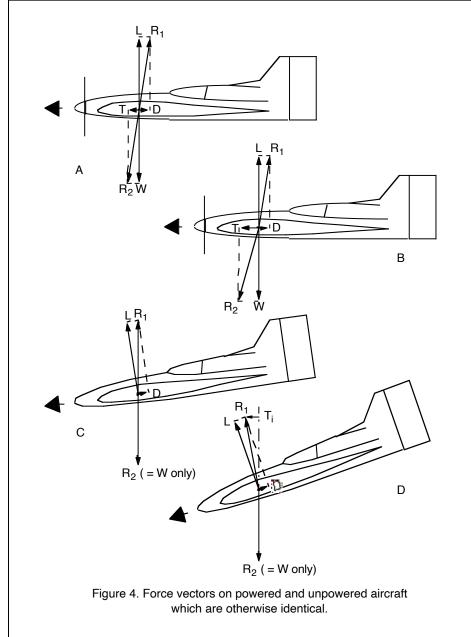
Figure 4 provides an illustration of the vectors involved in sustained, constant velocity flight. The upper illustration depicts a powered aircraft in straight and level flight. The weight of the aircraft, W, is counteracted by the generated lift, L. The drag, D, is counteracted by the generated thrust, T. There is a single vector, R<sub>1</sub>, which can represent the combined lift and drag forces, and a single vector R<sub>2</sub> which can represent the combined thrust and weight vectors.





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These two resultant vectors are calculated by constructing a parallelogram using the two known vectors. R<sub>1</sub> and R<sub>2</sub> are of equal magnitude and opposite direction in this case, and the aircraft is therefore flying at a constant velocity. If thrust is increased, as shown in Figure 4B, the T vector length increases, indicating increased thrust, thus changing the shape of the parallelogram. R<sub>2</sub> becomes longer and rotates forward. The drag force D then increases as the aircraft velocity increases. Once drag and thrust are equal, the aircraft velocity will once again be constant.

The lower illustrations in Figure 4 depict the case of a powerless aircraft of the same design. It is in gliding flight. In Figure 4C the aircraft is moving forward at a constant velocity and slight downward angle. There is no engine to generate thrust so the weight W alone forms R<sub>2</sub>. Now consider the flight path and note that the lift vector is ninety degrees to the air flow and the drag vector is parallel to the air flow. (This is the same as seen in the previously described powered example.) The resultant vector, R<sub>1</sub>, is of exactly the same magnitude as R<sub>2</sub> and in the opposite direction, so the aircraft is flying at constant velocity.

If the nose of the glider is pointed more downward, as in Figure 4D, the flight path rotates in relation to the weight vector. The lift and drag vectors continue being perpendicular and parallel to the air flow, respectively, and so they rotate as well. R<sub>1</sub>, the resultant of the lift and drag vectors, rotates forward as one would intuitively expect. There is now an "induced thrust," T<sub>1</sub>, which will accelerate the aircraft until the drag force increases to exactly counter it. When R<sub>1</sub> equals the weight (R<sub>2</sub>), the aircraft will once again be traveling at a constant velocity.

#### **Induced thrust**

We've used the term "induced thrust" in the previous paragraph, and there are some readers who may not believe that such a thing exists, despite having a knowledge of "induced drag." Perhaps one of the best examples of "induced thrust" is the action of a winglet. A very large number of aerodynamics texts describe winglets in detail, so we will not do so here. What we want to bring into focus is the production of induced thrust by the winglet.

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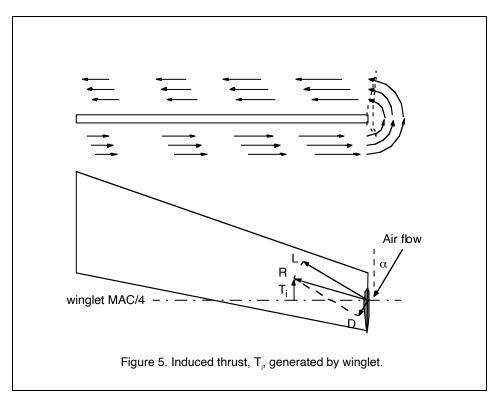
The upper illustration of Figure 5 shows a wing from the rear, with the winglet structure defined by phantom lines. The air flow is shown traveling outboard along the bottom surface of the wing and inboard across the upper surface. The velocity of this movement is generally greater near the wing tip as shown by the lengths of the lines.

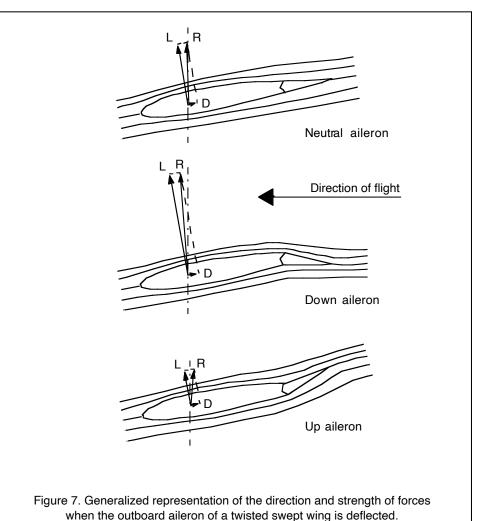
The air flow outboard of the wing tip is very close to circular, but remember, the free stream velocity is added to this circular motion, so the resultant air flow meets the winglet at an angle. The lift and drag vectors are shown in the lower illustration. Note the now familiar rotation of the resultant in reference to the winglet MAC/4 axis. (MAC/4 is the 25% chord point of the mean aerodynamic chord and is the origin for the winglet lift and drag vectors, just as for any wing segment. The MAC/4 axis and the yaw axis are in parallel planes in the presented examples.) The vector T<sub>i</sub> is the induced thrust generated by the winglet.

We can extend the notion of "induced thrust" from a winglet to the outer segment of a lifting swept wing. Consider Figure 6A. In this case, an airfoil is generating some lift while the air flow is precisely horizontal. This is a situation identical to that when an airfoil with a zero lift angle of some negative value is set in a wind tunnel at zero degrees angle of incidence to the air flow. Note that the lift vector is vertical (ninety degrees to the air flow) and the drag vector is parallel to the air flow. The resultant is rotated at an angle behind the vertical quarter chord axis. In the wind tunnel, as the airfoil angle of attack is increased, the lift vector remains perpendicular to the air flow, the drag vector remains parallel to air flow, and the axis remains vertical, perpendicular to the air flow.

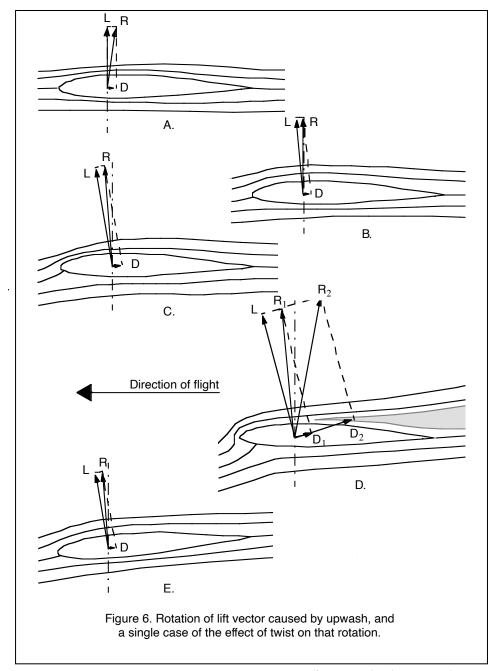
In Figure 6B, the air flow is coming from below at an angle of five degrees. The lift and drag vectors have rotated to match the air flow, and the resultant coincides with the vertical MAC/4 axis. Figure 6C shows the case where the air flow is coming up at an angle of ten degrees. The lift and drag vectors (and the resultant, of course) have rotated forward of the axis.

Figure 6D shows two situations which take place at an air flow angle of 15 degrees. We've shown a single lift





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vector and two drag vectors. If the drag is low, the resultant  $(R_1)$  remains well ahead of the axis. If the drag is excessive, however, the resultant  $(R_2)$  rotates behind the axis. This is an important concept to keep in mind.

The case of the outer segment of a twisted swept wing is shown in Figure 6E. The air flow is coming up at an angle of ten degrees and the airfoil is set at an angle of incidence of minus five degrees. As the wing section "sees" an angle of attack of five degrees, the lift is of the same magnitude as in Case 6B, but the resultant is rotated to a direction nearly identical to that of Case 6C.

It may be helpful to consider the outer September 2002 portion of a swept back wing to be a "flattened" winglet, as the effects of the two are essentially identical.

# Induced thrust and aileron deflection

And now the part you've been waiting for... Take a look at Figure 7. This illustration is of the outer segment of a twisted swept back wing with aileron installed.

When the aileron is in neutral position, the resultant vector is directly over the projected yaw axis.

When the aileron is deflected downward, the lift is increased substantially. The resultant is rotated forward of the

axis. This induced thrust actually pushes the wing forward.

When the aileron is deflected upward, the lift vector decreases in magnitude, reducing the induced thrust. (If the aileron deflection is large enough, the lift vector changes direction.) The resultant of the lift and drag vectors rotates behind the axis, pulling the wing backward.

In an aileron induced turn, adverse yaw in a swept wing planform can be reduced or eliminated entirely by means of manipulating the lift and drag vectors of the outer portion of the wing through appropriate wing twist.

When the wing tips are lifting downward, aileron deflection acts to reduce adverse yaw. This case can be envisioned by inverting the vector diagram for a (normal) upward lifting wing. We've done the inverting and placed the results in Figure 8.

#### Reducing adverse yaw

Figure 9 examines the case of the unswept wing with an elliptical lift distribution with aileron deflection for a left turn. (This diagram is a reprint of Figure 5 from Part 1.) The aileron deflection increases the drag of the wing semi-span having the downward deflected aileron and decreases the drag of the wing semi-span having the aileron deflected upward. This causes a roll to the left and a yaw to the right. This adverse yaw requires a compensating rudder deflection.

Figure 9 also examines the case of the swept wing which utilizes a lift distribution which is not elliptical but which does allow for coordinated turns by eliminating adverse yaw through induced thrust. The wing semi-span with the upward deflected aileron generates more drag than the wing semi-span with the downward deflected aileron. The wing rolls and yaws to the left. In this case no compensating rudder deflection is required.

Swept wings without a vertical surface, like many of the Horten designs, can use wing twist in conjunction with sweep to produce coordinated turns, particularly at low speed (high C<sub>L</sub>), as when thermalling. There may be some disadvantages to this methodology when flying at high speed (low C<sub>L</sub>),

but the detrimental effects can be controlled by careful design of the ailerons, including their location, size, and deflection angles.

# **Coming in Part 4**

The next installment will devote some space to the relationships between aileron configurations, wing lift distributions, and adverse and proverse yaw. And now that we have a method of reducing or eliminating adverse yaw, we can back up a bit and take a look at what wing sweep, increased upwash and wing twist can do for the first of those three points we keep mentioning, our quest to reduce induced drag.

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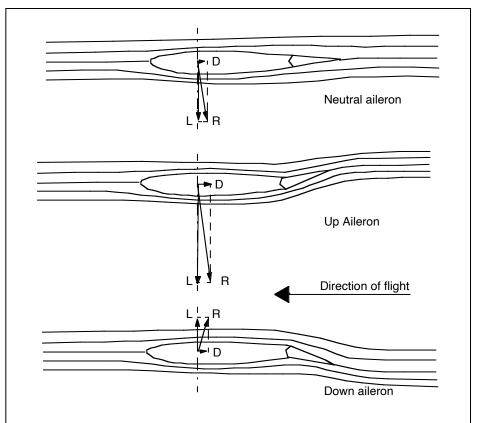


Figure 8. Generalized representation of the direction and strength of forces when the outboard aileron of a downward lifting wing segment is deflected.

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