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Aerodynamic Characteristics of an Aerospace Vehicle During a Subsonic Pitch-Over Maneuver

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#### Abstract

Time-dependent CFD has been used to predict aerospace vehicle aerodynamics during a subsonic rotation maneuver. The inviscid 3D3 $U$ code is employed to solve the $3-\mathrm{D}$ unsteady flowfield using an unstructured grid of tetrahedra. As this application represents a challenge to time-dependent CFD, observations concerning spatial and temporal resolution are included. It is shown that even for a benign rotation rate, unsteady aerodynamic effects are significant during the maneuver. Possibly more significant, however, the rotation maneuver creates flow asymmetries leading to yawing moment, rolling moment, and side force which are not present in the quasi-steady case. A series of steady solutions at discrete points in the maneuver are also computed for comparison with wind tunnel measurements and as a means of quantifying unsteady effects.


## Introduction

NASA's Access to Space Study ${ }^{1}$ recommended the development of a fully Reusable Launch Vehicle (RLV) ${ }^{2}$ to replace the aging Space Shuttle. A method of reaching this goal is to develop a vehicle which does not rely on expendable boosters to reach orbit, a so-called Single-Stage-to-Orbit (SSTO) vehicle. ${ }^{3}$ One of the SSTO configurations being investigated is the Vertical Take-off and Vertical Landing (VTVL) configuration. ${ }^{3}$ In one concept, the VTVL vehicle, upon completion of it's mission in low Earth orbit, reenters nose first, decelerates to subsonic speeds, and then performs a rotation maneuver ${ }^{4-6}$ to land vertically.

Figure 1 presents a schematic of the last portion of a typical VTVL entry. The pitch-over maneuver, which occurs near Mach 0.2, is characterized by high angle of attack, unsteady, vortical flow. Accurately predicting vehicle performance during this aerodynamic pitch-over maneuver is quite challenging. While ground-based facilities can predict the vehicle's aerodynamics at discrete points during the maneuver, accounting for the unsteady effects in a wind tunnel is difficult. ${ }^{7}$ Time-dependent Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) offers another means of analyzing the pitch-over maneuver. The ma-

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Figure 1: Transition to landing for a VTVL vehicle.
jority of work in unsteady CFD has, however, been restricted to small amplitude, harmonic variations in angle of attack in support of aeroelastic flutter predictions. ${ }^{8}$

The objective of the present work is to apply unsteady CFD methods to the problem of predicting VTVL vehicle aerodynamics during an un-powered pitch-over maneuver. The inviscid 3D3U code of Batina ${ }^{9}$ is employed to solve the $3-\mathrm{D}$ unsteady flowfield with unstructured grids. As this application represents a new challenge to unsteady CFD, observations concerning grid resolution, temporal resolution and the suitability of assuming flowfield symmetry are discussed. A series of steady solutions at discrete points in the maneuver are also computed for comparison with wind tunnel measurements and as a means of quantifying unsteady effects.


Figure 2: VTVL vehicle shown with a coarse symmetry plane mesh.

## Geometry

Figure 2 presents the geometry examined. The forebody is an 8 degree half-angle sphere cone with nose radius equal to 0.3 of the base radius. The aft body, beginning at the 85 percent fuselage station, is a cylinder with a partially squared-off cross-section producing flat "slices" extending from the base of the vehicle to approximately the 60 percent fuselage station. The geometry has been non-dimensionalized so that half the width of the base is one unit and the radius of the cylindrical portion is 1.12. The vehicle is 7.16 units long, giving a fineness ratio of 6.4 using a base diameter of 2.24 . A more thorough description of the vehicle is given by Woods. ${ }^{10}$

## Computational Mesh

The underlying surface definition database was generated from structured surface patches obtained using GRIDGEN, ${ }^{11}$ GridTool, ${ }^{12}$ and simple analytical methods. The unstructured surface and flowfield grids were then generated using FELISA ${ }^{13}$ and TETMESH. ${ }^{14}$

Two different options for the computational domain were employed: one modeling the complete vehicle and another modeling only half of the vehicle, assuming symmetry across the pitch-plane (see Figure 2). Table 1 details the symmetric-vehicle grids, showing number of points, etc., while Table 2 provides similar information for the full-vehicle grids. All of the results shown in this paper are the result of using the coarsest meshes: Mesh 1 F and Mesh 1S. This is for the sake of consistency and completeness since the matrix of runs on the finer meshes is not as complete as that on the coarser meshes due to resource limitations. Some of the finer mesh solutions are, however, incorporated in the grid resolution results.

Table 1: Symmetric-vehicle grids.

|  | Mesh 1S | Mesh 2S |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Nodes | 6,634 | 27,912 |
| Tetrahedra | 32,374 | 157,599 |
| Boundary nodes | 2,596 | 5,183 |
| Boundary triangles | 5,188 | 10,362 |
| Average vehicle spacing | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Average farfield spacing | 3.5 | 3.5 |
| Radius of farfield | 3.5 | 3.5 |

Table 2: Full-vehicle grids.

|  | Mesh 1F | Mesh 2F |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Nodes | 11,222 | 51,179 |
| Tetrahedra | 60,597 | 308,108 |
| Boundary nodes | 2,781 | 3,789 |
| Boundary triangles | 5,554 | 7,570 |
| Average vehicle spacing | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Average farfield spacing | 3.5 | 3.5 |
| Radius of farfield | 3.5 | 3.5 |

## Far-Field Boundary

Even with non-reflecting boundary conditions, farfield boundary placement can affect the solution for bodies producing lift. For the results presented, the farfield boundary condition is applied on a sphere which is $3-1 / 2$ body lengths from the vehicle's center. As a spot-check of the effect of the far-field boundary placement, two other grids were generated with the far-field location at 5 and 7 body lengths from the vehicle's center. At moderate-to-high angles of attack, the change in far-field placement produced no appreciable affect on the aerodynamic coefficients; thus, the 3.5 body length meshes were used to minimize the resources necessary for the solution.

## Symmetry Assumptions

Flowfields about symmetric configurations at high angles of attack, even with zero side-slip, often involve asymmetric, vortex-dominated, flowfields. ${ }^{15-18}$ As reviewed by Newsome et al, ${ }^{19}$ inviscid simulations can offer some indication of this viscous-dominated phenomenon through the numerical viscosity required by the scheme. Hence, solutions are compared for both steady and unsteady conditions modeling the complete vehicle and those which impose flowfield symmetry across the pitchplane.

## Numerical Method

The 3D3U code of Batina ${ }^{9}$ was used exclusively in this study. The 3D3U code was originally developed to study harmonically pitching wings and wing-bodies in transonic flow. The code can incorporate aeroelastic effects through assumed mode shapes, coupled with a deforming mesh via the linear spring analogy.

Inviscid fluxes can be computed with any of the following flux functions: Roe's flux-difference splitting, ${ }^{20}$ Lou and Steffen's AUSM scheme, ${ }^{21}$ van Leer's fluxvector splitting, ${ }^{22}$ or Einfeldt's HLLE scheme. ${ }^{23}$ Secondorder flux reconstruction is achieved via van Leer's MUSCL (a.k.a Kappa) scheme ${ }^{24}$ using node averaged variables according to Batina ${ }^{9}$ or Frink ${ }^{25}$ with Mulder and van Leer's continuously-differentiable, flux limiting. ${ }^{26}$ This provides global, second-order, spatial accuracy for all flux functions except the HLLE flux function which cannot use higher order reconstruction of this form.

First-order temporal accuracy in a global sense is accomplished through forward Euler time stepping with any of three implicit time integration schemes: ${ }^{9}$ GaussSeidel, Jacobi, and Point-Jacobi; or the explicit, MStage, Runge-Kutta time stepping scheme of Turkel, Schmidt, and Jameson. ${ }^{27}$

For this study, the code was applied to a transient, large-amplitude motion at a fairly low Mach numberrepresenting a significant departure from cases which the code was originally intended. Due to this new, demanding application, a grid study and a time-step study will be presented.

The following defaults were used for the computed results in this study, unless otherwise noted: Roe's fluxdifference splitting, an eigenvalue limiter threshold value of 0.3 , second-order flux reconstruction using a $\kappa$ of 0.5 , and Gauss-Seidel implicit time integration with a CFL number of one million.

## Coefficient Definitions

Describing the aerodynamics of the VTVL vehicle during the pitch-over maneuver requires specification of the force and moment coefficients as a function of angle of attack. The aerodynamic coefficients: normal force, $C_{N}$, axial force, $C_{A}$, and pitching moment, $C_{m}$, are defined relative to the vehicle's stability axes as shown in Figure 3(a). The normal force coefficient, $C_{N}$, is positive in the z-direction while the axial force coefficient, $C_{A}$, is defined positive in the x -direction. Using the right hand rule, crossing the $z$-axis into the $x$-axis, gives the positive orientation for the pitching moment coefficient, $C_{m}$. The remaining aerodynamic coefficients: side force, $C_{Y}$, and yawing moment, $C_{n}$ are defined as shown in Figure $3(\mathrm{~b})$.

(a) Normal and axial forces, pitching moment.

(b) Side force and yawing moment.

Figure 3: Orientation of force and moment coefficients.

A positive rolling moment, $C_{l}$, is given by the right hand rule about the x -axis.

For this vehicle the stability axes, located at the center of gravity, was given as $(4.3885,0,0)$. The reference length for the moment coefficients is the base radius, 1.12; and the reference area for all the non-dimensional coefficients, using the base radius, is 3.94 .

## Pitch-Rate Schedule

The pitch schedule chosen for this study is shown in Figure 4. The maneuver is the first half of a sine function. The vehicle is assumed to be in steady flight at 17.5 degrees angle of attack, Mach 0.2. At time zero, the vehicle begins the pitch-over maneuver, reaching a maximum pitch rate exactly half way through the maneuver and finishing at a 180 degree angle of attack. For this study, the time to complete the maneuver, $T_{f}$, was chosen as 90 seconds, giving a maximum rotation rate of 3.1 degrees per second at 45 seconds through the maneuver. For simplicity, it is assumed that the freestream Mach number (0.2) remains constant throughout the maneuver.


Figure 4: Definition of pitch-over maneuver.

## Resolution Studies

Since this is the first time the 3D3U code has been run to predict a transient motion, both a grid convergence and time step convergence study were performed.

## Spatial

Figure 5 represents steady results for an angle of attack range from 0 to 90 degrees using a coarse and a fine grid. As alluded to earlier, the effects of grid resolution on the separation lines is significant. This is due to the fact that this is an "inviscid" simulation and the

(a) Normal force coefficient.

(b) Axial force coefficient.

(c) Pitching moment coefficient.

Figure 5: Grid convergence study.
only viscosity present is due to the numeric discretization; and, as the grid is refined, the amount of numerical viscosity decreases, yielding a more nearly inviscid solution. Since the flow takes longer to separate on the refined grid due to less numerical dissipation, the force coefficients are lowered due to the smaller area of low pressure, separated flow on the leeward portions of the vehicle.

As the figure clearly shows, the solution is not gridconverged by any measure. The question of grid convergence of an inviscid solution for a flow problem involving separated flow does not have a true answer since the governing equations are not correct. Without modeling the Navier-Stokes equations, the solutions obtained can, and should only be used qualitatively.

## Temporal

Figure 6 shows effect of successively refining the time step. The three time steps chosen were $1 / 60$ th, $1 / 120$ th, and $1 / 240$ th of a second. (The $1 / 120$ th data is the unmarked line bounded by the $1 / 60$ th and $1 / 240$ th lines-only disguishable around 45 degrees angle of attack.) Since the time stepping scheme is formally firstorder accurate and the code was run in an implicit timestepping mode, a significant effect was expected for variation of the time step; but, as Figure 6 shows, the only effect occurred in the 30 to 60 degree angle-of-attack range of the maneuver. This implies that except for that region, the initial time step chosen was small enough to resolve the flow in a global sense. The time-dependent results presented were computed using the $1 / 240$ th second time step and are considered to be temporarily converged.


Figure 6: Time step convergence study: normal force coefficient for various time steps, Mesh 1F.

## Results

## Steady Flow

As a means to examine the unsteady effects of the pitch-over maneuver itself, steady flow at selected angles of attack were computed. Figure 7 shows a comparison of two aerodynamic coefficients with the experimental data of Woods ${ }^{10}$ for angles of attack from 0 to 60 degrees. The computed results agree well at small angles of attack, and diverge from the experimental results as the angle of attack increases due to the different position of the leeside separation line-a viscous phenomenon. As discussed earlier, since the computed results are modeling inviscid flow the only mechanism for flow separation is the numerical dissipation in the scheme. Thus, the exact location of the computed separation line is highly grid and scheme dependent. Since the leeside separation line runs almost the entire length of the vehicle, a slight deviation can make a large difference in the integrated coefficients.


Figure 7: Comparison of steady results with experiment of Woods. ${ }^{10}$

## Unsteady Flow

Figure 8 compares aerodynamic coefficients from both steady and unsteady calculations. The solid line represents the unsteady results and the symbols are

(c) Pitching moment coefficient.

Figure 8: Comparison of steady and unsteady aerodynamic coefficients.
the steady flow results. (Recall Figure 4 for the pitch rates and accelerations corresponding to each angle of attack.) Readily discernible is that the steady and unsteady aerodynamic coefficients are significantly different. The pitching moment coefficient appears to have the least quantifiable deviation, whereas the unsteady axial force coefficient has a completely different qualitative pattern than that for quasi-steady flow. The normal force coefficient appears to have the time lag behavior expected in moderately unsteady flow: showing the same general qualitative trend throughout the angle-of-attack range, but with the unsteady results lagging behind the steady results.

As a method of more closely examining the integrated aerodynamic coefficients' behavior, coefficient of pressure contours are shown in Figure 9. This figure shows contours on the vehicle and on the pitch plane for several angles of attack. The steady results are shown on the left and the instantaneous, unsteady results are shown on the right. Most notable is the side of the vehicle's forebody: the unsteady case has consistently higher pressures than the steady case at all angles of attack. A similar trend is also reflected in the symmetry plane contours: here the unsteady case has a generally higher pressure where the vehicle is rotating into the oncoming flow with a more severe expansion in the base region as compared to the steady results.

## Flow Asymmetry

Figure 10 shows a comparison between a symmetrically modeled vehicle and a fully modeled vehicle for an angle-of-attack range between 20 and 60 degrees for steady flow. As borne out by the figure, within the accuracy of the computation, there appear to be no appreciable asymmetries in the steady flow. (Note the expanded scales for the side force and yawing moment coefficient.)

However, for the unsteady case, asymmetric flow is apparent in Figure 11. This figure shows differences between symmetric vehicle and full vehicle for unsteady flow. Figure 11 also shows the appearance of a side-force, yawing moment, and rolling moment previously reported by Woods ${ }^{10}$ although at much lower overall values. In addition, for this study, the most significant manifestations of the asymmetries occur in the 90 to 135 degree angle of attack range whereas the most pronounced differences in the normal force coefficient occur in the 30 to 60 degree range. (Note: Woods ${ }^{10}$ did not perform tests above 60 degrees angle of attack for this geometry and flow condition.)

## Concluding Remarks

The objective of the present work was to focus an unsteady CFD method on the problem of predict-


Figure 9: Comparison of steady and unsteady coefficient of pressure distributions.


Figure 9: Concluded.


Figure 10: Steady asymmetries in the flow.
ing VTVL vehicle aerodynamics during the pitch-over maneuver. This was accomplished through the use of the inviscid 3D3U code with unstructured grids. Even though the simulation was performed using an inviscid flow solver, predictions for steady-state cases agreed with experimental results at the low angles of attack. A series of steady solutions at discrete points in the maneuver were computed and it was shown that even for the unrealistically slow pitch-over rate studied, unsteady effects were large. More importantly, the rotation maneuver appears to create flow asymmetries leading to yawing moments, rolling moments, and side forces which are not significant in the quasi-steady case.

As this is an exploratory study, there is certainly room for future work. The following is just a handful of extensions which would be necessary to create an effective design tool: incorporating viscous effects, allowing movable control surfaces, coupling a six-degree-offreedom rigid body dynamics solver, adding control law,
and possibly incorporating grid-adaptive capabilities.

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Figure 11: Unsteady asymmetries in the flow.

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