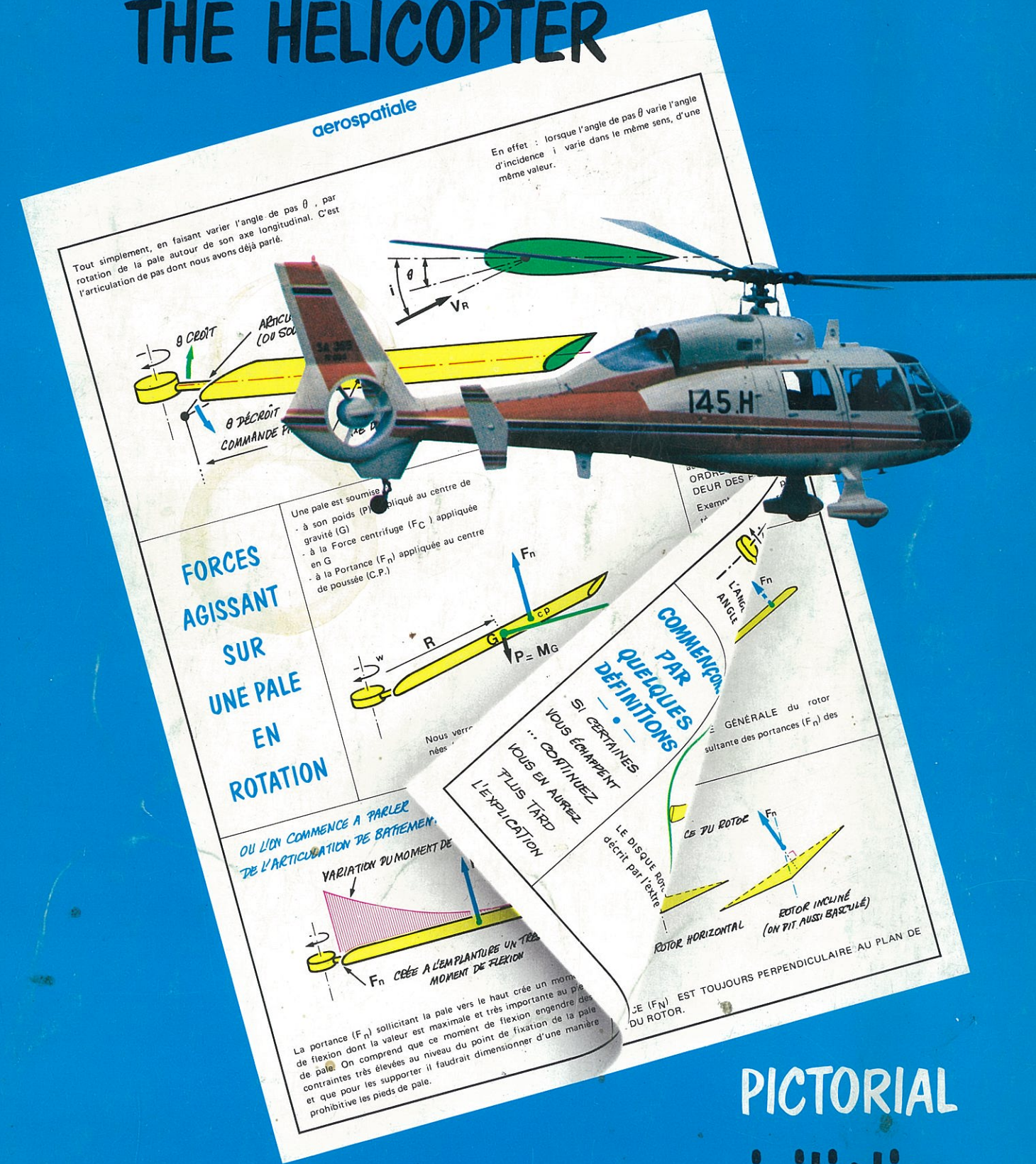


# basic theory of THE HELICOPTER





## A FEW WORDS OF PREFACE :

The helicopter, in spite of what may be said, remains a strange machine retaining for the "man in the street" (and sometimes even for the initiated) a somewhat magic and mysterious aspect. In this pages, our wish is to tear off this veil of mystery. But, it is to be well understood that in a few pages it is not possible to explain everything. Therefore we have made a choice dictated by practical considerations. Let us hope it is the right one !!!

We wish you pleasant reading and as you will see, it is not all that complicated.

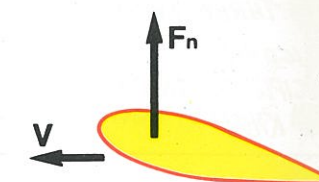
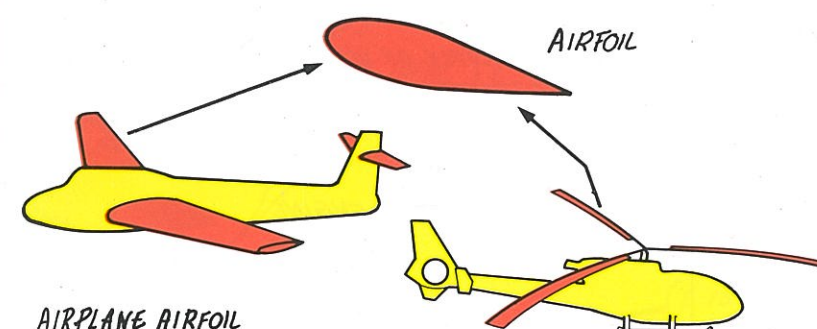
MY NAME IS  
**AÉRODYNAMIX**

I AM GOING TO READ THIS BOOKLET WITH YOU  
(I NEED IT!) YOU WILL SEE ME FROM TIME  
TO TIME IN THE FOLLOWING PAGES...



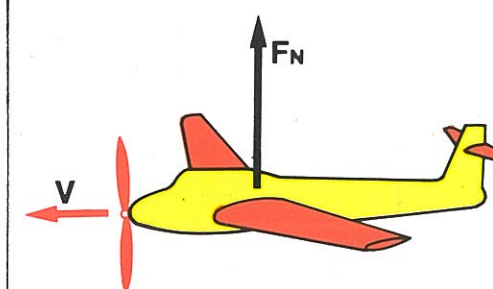
## 1. GENERAL — AIRPLANES AND ROTORCRAFT

AIRCRAFT LIFT IS PROVIDED BY AIRFOILS CALLED WINGS :

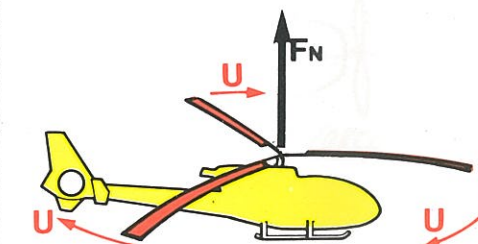


Vertical thrust  $F_N$  directed upwards, develops on such an airfoil moving through the air at  $V$  VELOCITY. It is this aerodynamic force which, in opposition to the aircraft weight, permits "heavier-than-air" aircraft to fly.

THUS, SPEED  
IS THE ESSENTIAL  
ELEMENT WHICH  
ON AN AIRFOIL  
GENERATES  
AERODYNAMIC  
FORCES  
PROVIDING  
SUSTENTATION  
SPEED = THRUST



On conventional airplanes, this velocity is provided by a propeller (or a jet engine) providing propulsion AT VELOCITY "V"

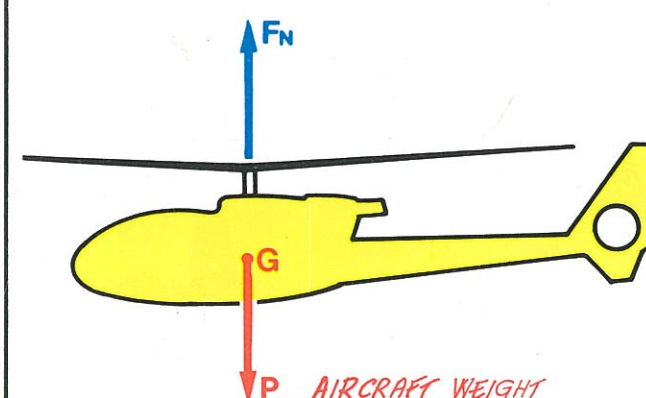


On helicopters, the velocity is provided by the rotation of the rotor which is driven at speed  $U$  by an engine. The force  $F_N$ , called ROTOR LIFT, is normal to the plane of rotation of the rotor.

• THE AIRPLANE MUST MOVE  
FORWARD AT SPEED  $V$

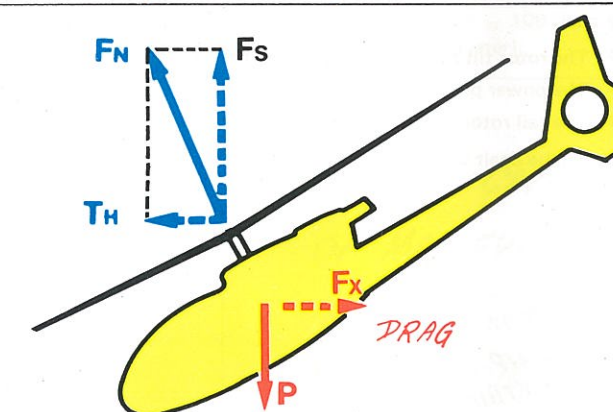
TO SUM UP, TO STAY IN THE AIR :

• THE HELICOPTER DOES NOT REQUIRE SUCH  
A FORWARD SPEED AS ITS "WING" ROTATES AT SPEED  $U$



The rotating wing enables the helicopter to fly vertically (to climb and descend) or to remain still (hovering). This feature is specific to the helicopter.

$F_N$	=	$P$	Hovering
$F_N$	>	$P$	Vertical climb
$F_N$	<	$P$	Vertical descent



However, the rotor also provides helicopter propulsion. For this purpose, it is sufficient to tilt its plane of rotation using a suitable control. Then,  $F_N$  lift consists of two forces :

- $F_S$  (lift) balancing weight  $P$
- $T_H$  (propulsive force), balancing the aircraft drag  $F_x$  and causing forward motion.



ALL AIRCRAFT WHOSE LIFT IS PROVIDED BY ROTARY WINGS, RATHER THAN BY FIXED WINGS, ARE KNOWN AS ROTORCRAFT

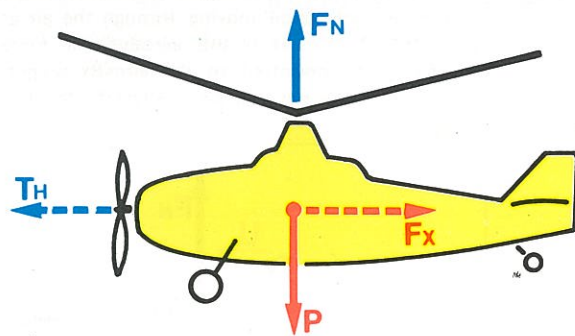
THERE ARE THREE TYPES OF ROTOR CRAFT:

- THE HELICOPTER  
THE PRINCIPLE OF WHICH  
YOU NOW KNOW
- THE AUTOGIRO
- THE GYRODYNE  
THE PRINCIPLE OF

THE PRINCIPLE OF WHICH IS SHOWN BELOW

## AUTOGIRO

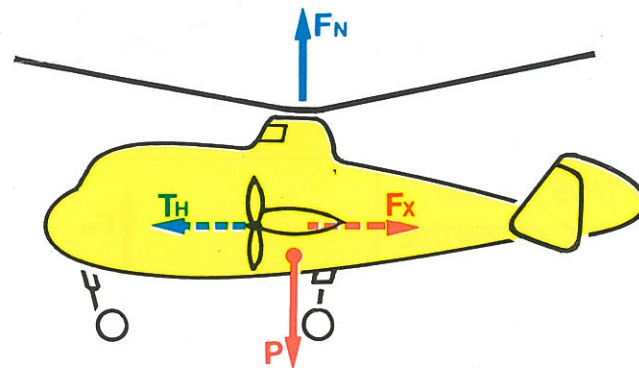
ROTOR FREE ON ITS SHAFT AND ROTATING  
UNDER THE ACTION OF THE RELATIVE WIND



The rotor is free on a shaft. A propeller drives the aircraft in forward flight. Such motion causes rotor rotation which provides the lift. As a matter of fact, the autogiro is an airplane on which fixed wings are replaced by a rotating wing. It is not capable of vertical flight or hovering.

GYRODYNE

### ROTOR DRIVEN BY AN ENGINE



The gyrodyne is an autogiro with a powered rotor allowing vertical flight as it is the case for the helicopter.

CONCLUSION :

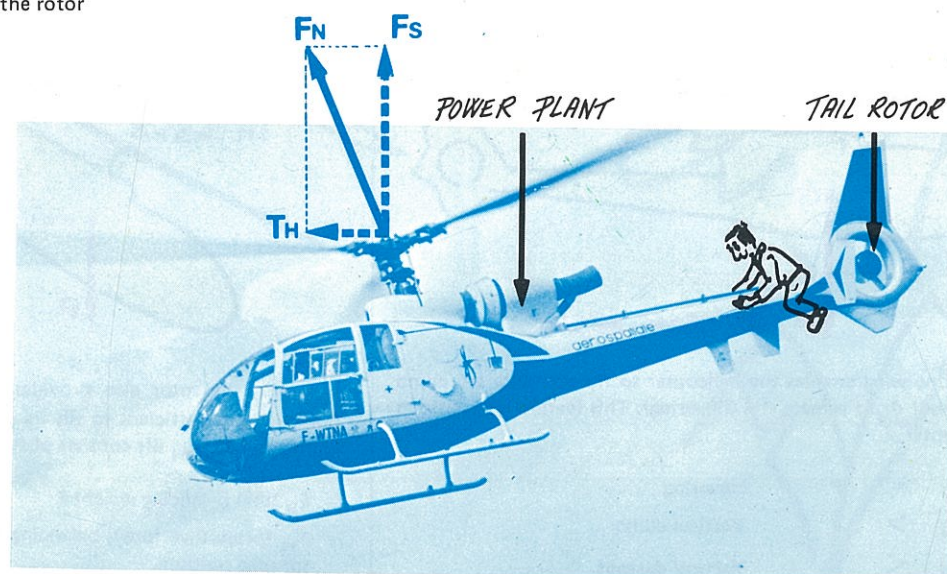
- helicopters : the rotor provides both lift and propulsion.
- autogiros and gyrodynes. The rotor provides only the lift. The propulsion is provided either by a propeller or a jet engine.

HERE IS A HELICOPTER IN FORWARD FLIGHT

Note :

- The rotor tilt providing a pulling force  $T_H$
- The power plant driving the rotor
- The tail rotor .

which will be dealt with later.

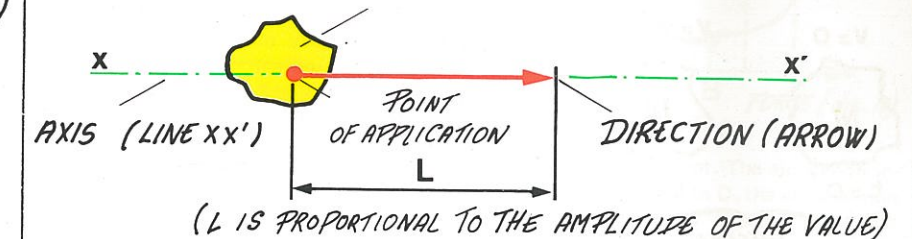


AERODYNAMIX  
IS UP TO  
SOMETHING

## 2.BASIC NOTIONS-MECHANICS AND AERODYNAMICS

## VECTORS

BODY TO WHICH IS APPLIED THE VALUE  
UNDER CONSIDERATION (FORCE, VELOCITY...)



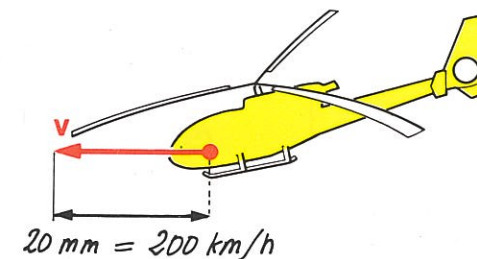
Any physical value (force, velocity, acceleration ..... ) may be shown as a vector characterized by a point of application, an axis, a direction and an amplitude.  
In the case of a force, the origin of the vector is the point of application of the force.

BUT, IT IS A TRAP!  
I WAS PROMISED THAT THERE  
WOULD BE NO FORMULAS.



### EXAMPLES OF VECTORS

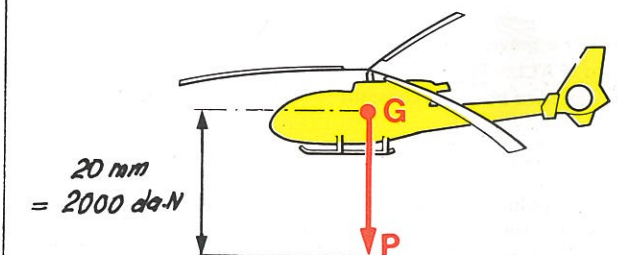
"SPEED" VECTOR



The forward speed  $v$  of a helicopter may be entirely characterized by a vector indicating :

- The axis and direction of motion of the aircraft.
  - The speed (amplitude of the value)
- Here 1 mm = 10 km/h

"FORCE" VECTOR



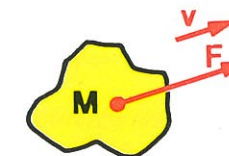
Similarly, weight P of a helicopter, applied to the center of gravity G, is entirely defined by a vector. Here, 1 mm = 100 da.N (The da.N unit for measuring forces will be dealt with later).

## 2.1 NOTIONS OF MECHANICS

MASS,  
FORCE,  
VELOCITY,

All theoretical studies of the helicopter are based on these 3 physical features.

THE ESSENTIAL  
POINTS WILL NOW  
BE REVIEWED

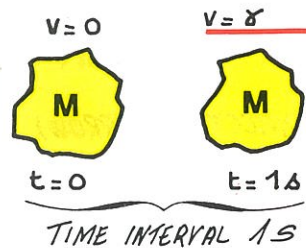


Mass, force and velocity are values that cannot be dissociated :  
Thus, the body of mass  $M$ , pulled by force  $F$ , moves at speed  $v$ .

ANY CAUSE CAPABLE  
OF MODIFYING  
THE VELOCITY OF  
A BODY OR  
OF CAUSING ITS  
DISTORTION IS  
CALLED A FORCE



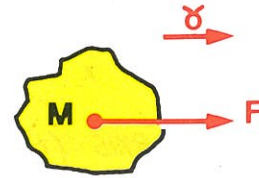
Accordingly, a force is required in order to change the velocity of a body.  
This is the principle of inertia.



In 1 second, the velocity of body M increases from value 0 to value  $\gamma$ .  
•  $\gamma$  is the ACCELERATION communicated to the body. It is measured in : meters per second<sup>2</sup> (or m/s<sup>2</sup>)

This brings us to the basic law of dynamics :

$$F = M\gamma$$



- The inertia of a body is proportional to its mass M : a force F is required to induce acceleration  $\gamma$  in a mass M.

This formula is used for the definition of the unit of measurement of force : THE NEWTON (N)

$$1 \text{ N} = 1 \text{ Kg} \times 1 \text{ m/s}^2$$

1 Newton communicates to a mass of 1 kilogram 1 m/s<sup>2</sup> of acceleration.

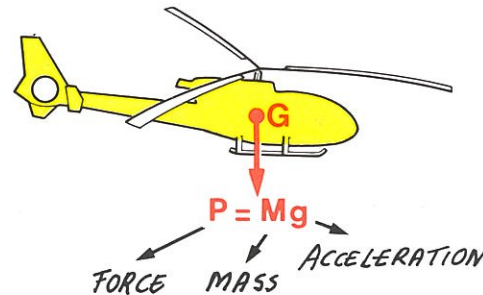
A VERY SPECIAL FORCE:

### GRAVITY

Weight is the gravitational force which causes bodies to FALL. The ACCELERATION (g) communicated to bodies is constant :

$$g = 9,81 \text{ m/s}^2$$

Gravity is applied to the center of gravity G of bodies (this will be dealt with later).  
EXAMPLE : at its maximum mass of 2900 kg, the Dauphin (SA 360) helicopter weighs :  
 $P = 2900 \times 9,81 = 28449 \text{ N}$  or 2844,9 daN.

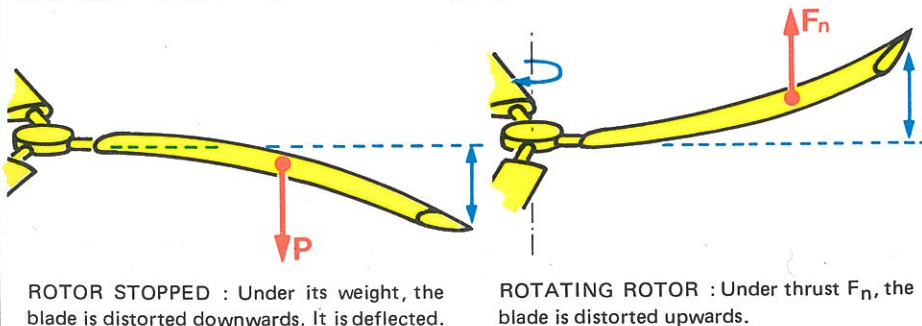


LET US RECALL THE DEFINITION OF A FORCE:

A FORCE IS CAPABLE OF CHANGING THE VELOCITY OF A BODY (AS WAS PREVIOUSLY DEMONSTRATED) OR TO CAUSE ITS DISTORTION (SEE BELOW)

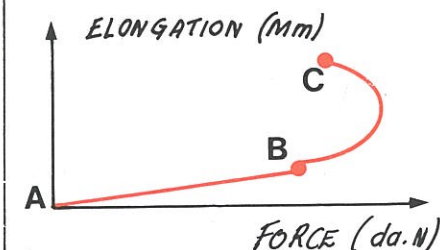
When a force is applied to a RESTRAINED body (not free to move), it cannot act as a motion (Dynamic manifestation) but, instead, through the distortion of that body (static manifestation).

### EXAMPLE OF DISTORTION: ROTOR BLADES



ELASTIC DISTORTION TO FAILURE. The diagram shows the distortion under TENSION of a steel bar submitted to an increasing force.

- From A to B : elastic distortion.
- From B : Permanent set
- C : Failure of steel bar.

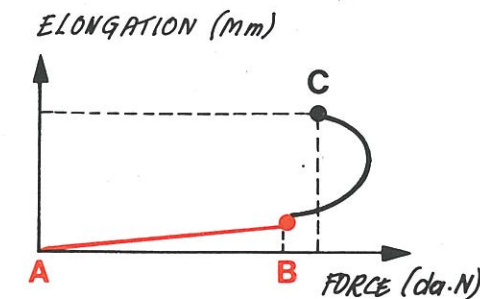


### DISTORTION UNDER TENSION

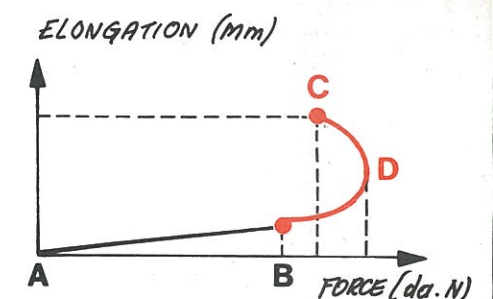
This example of distortion under TENSION has been selected to show the behaviour of a body stressed by an increasing force. There are other types of distortion under :

- compression.
- shear.
- torque.
- bending.

However, in its principle, the distortion mechanism remains similar. Let us give it a closer look.



In the elastic distortion area (from A to B) the elongation is proportional to the force, if the force is cancelled the body is restored to its initial shape. The point B corresponds to the yield strength of the body. The yield strength is measured in daN/mm<sup>2</sup>.

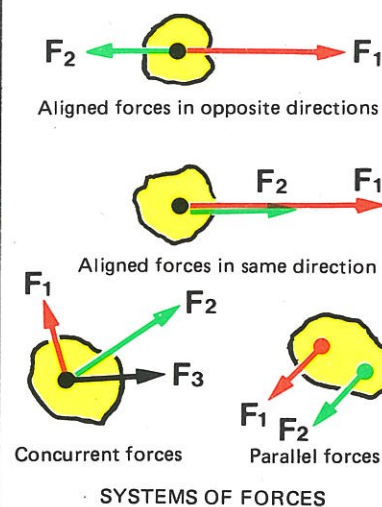


From B, the set is permanent. The elongation increases faster than the force. In D, the cross-section of the steel bar decreases (REDUCTION OF AREA) and elongation continues while the force decreases. The failure occurs at C. The ultimate strength is expressed in daN/mm<sup>2</sup>.

IT WILL BE SEEN LATER HOW FATIGUE PHENOMENA LOWER THE POINT OF FAILURE (FATIGUE LIMIT)

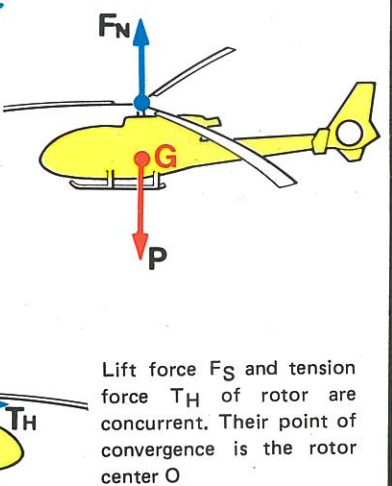
### SYSTEMS OF FORCES AND RESULTANTS

Several forces act simultaneously on a same body and constitute a system of forces.



### TWO EXAMPLES:

Weight P of helicopter and rotor lift  $F_n$  are two opposed forces.



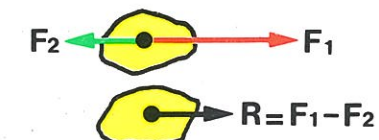
Lift force  $F_s$  and tension force  $T_H$  of rotor are concurrent. Their point of convergence is the rotor center O.

A system of forces can be replaced by a single equivalent force producing the same DYNAMIC EFFECT as the system of forces.

This single force is THE RESULTANT of the system.

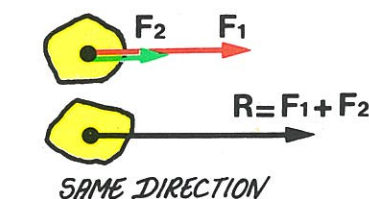
### RESULTANT R OF 2 ALIGNED FORCES

#### OPPOSITE FORCES

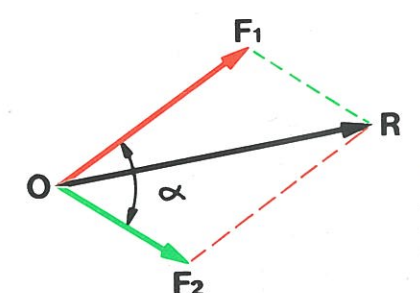


BODY IN EQUILIBRIUM IF  $F_1 = F_2$ ,  $R = 0$

...



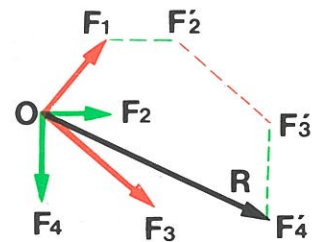
### RESULTANT OF TWO CONCURRENT FORCES



Geometrical construction of resultant : R is the diagonal of the parallelogram constructed from  $F_1$  and  $F_2$ . The smaller the angle  $\alpha$ , the larger the resultant R.



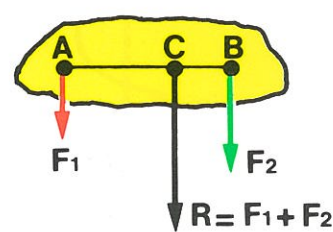
What if the system consists of more than 2 concurrent forces ? Instead of constructing successive parallelograms, it is simpler to draw from  $F_1$ .....



other vectors equipollent to  $F_2, F_3, F_4$  (i.e.  $F_2, F_3, F_4, \dots$ )  
R is defined by the end of the last equipollent vector.

### RESULTANT OF 2 PARALLEL FORCES

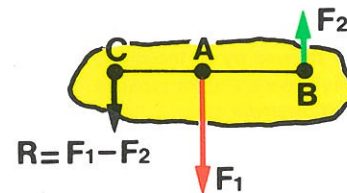
• SAME DIRECTION



The point of application C of resultant R is given by the relation :

$$F_1 \times CA = F_2 \times CB$$

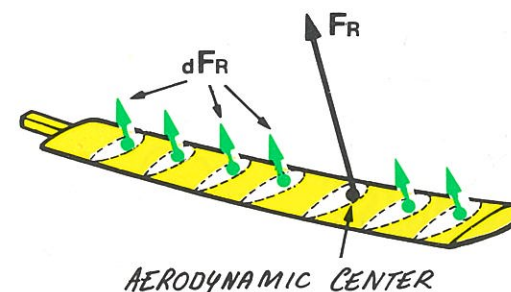
• OPPOSITE



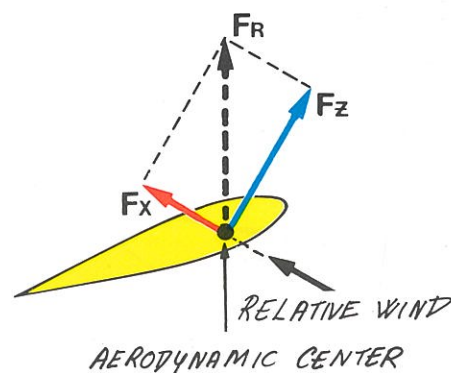
When several forces are replaced by a resultant force R, SUCH FORCES ARE COMPOSED. The composition of forces permits to study their global effect.

Inversely, THE BREAKDOWN OF A FORCE into 2 or several elementary forces permits us to ANALYSE the effect in definite directions representative of the action of such forces.

### LET US PUT THESE NOTIONS IN CONCRETE FORM



Every component of a rotating rotor blade is acted upon by an elementary aerodynamic force  $dF_R$ . All these forces are parallel and codirectional. Their resultant  $F_R$  (global effect of elementary forces) is applied to the aerodynamic center of the blade.

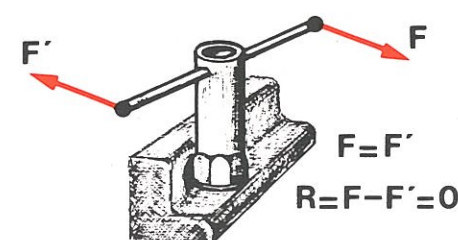


For analyzing the effect of  $F_R$  on a blade, this force may be broken down into two concurrent forces :  $F_z$ , normal to the direction of the relative wind (lift) and  $F_x$  parallel to the relative wind (drag).

A VERY SPECIAL SYSTEM OF FORCES :

### TORQUE

IT IS GOING TO BE FUNNY!



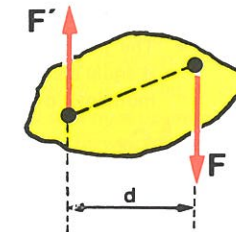
2 parallel forces ( $F - F'$ ) which are equal and opposite constitute :

A TORQUE

A torque has no resultant ( $R = 0$ ).

It causes the rotation of bodies free to rotate and distorts (twists) bodies prevented from rotating.

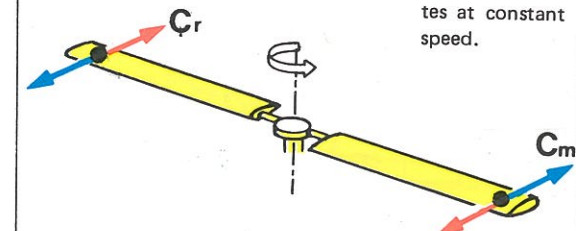
THE EFFICIENCY of a torque is characterized by its MOMENT (M) :  
 $M = d \times F$  (d is the lever arm of the torque)



The MOMENT of a torque is measured in Newton meter (m.N). Usual multiple : The deca Newton meter (m.daN).

Two torque stresses with the same moment are equal. To balance (cancel) a torque it should be opposed by a torque with the same moment.

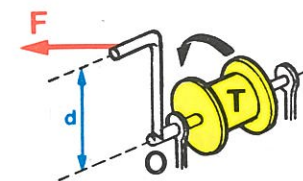
$C_m = C_r$   
The rotor rotates at constant speed.



Example : A rotor at stabilized r.p.m.  
—  $C_m$  engine torque drives the rotor.  
— Resisting torque  $C_r$  is equal and opposite. THE ROTOR IS IN EQUILIBRIUM.

### MOMENT OF A FORCE

A SINGLE force may, in some cases, cause the ROTATION of a body, in the same way as torque.

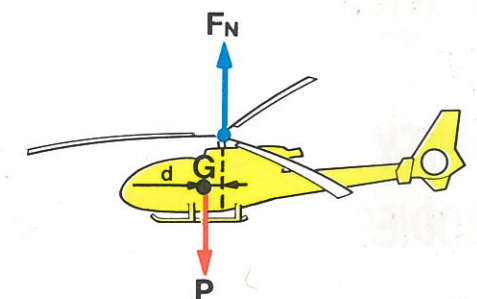


The force F, applied to the crank-arm, rotates drum T around its fulcrum O. The effect of the force in relation with point O is proportional to length d of the lever arm.

This effect is called THE MOMENT OF THE FORCE (M (o) F) ; it is measured in m.N or m.daN.

$$M(o)F = d \times F$$

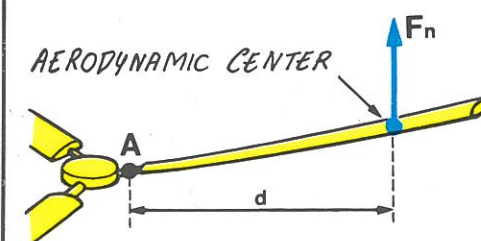
### EXAMPLE



Lift  $F_N$  of rotor has, in relation with the center of gravity G of helicopter, a moment :

$d \times F_N$  tending to tilt the aircraft forward. The aircraft tilts until  $d = 0$  ( $F_N$  and P are then aligned and the moment is zero).

### OTHER EXAMPLE

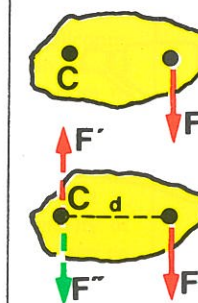


The blade thrust ( $F_N$ ) creates a BENDING moment.

$d \times F_N$  acting upon attachment point A of the blade where it induces very significant loads.

The more rigid the blade, the higher are these loads. The device (flexible hinge) used to reduce this bending moment so as to render it consistent with the strength of the materials utilized will be explained later.

### DO NOT CONFUSE THE MOMENT OF A FORCE WITH TORQUE



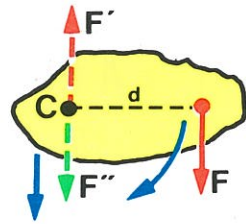
$$F = F' = F''$$

Let us analyze the effect of force F. It is possible, without changing the external condition of the body to which it is applied, to construct from C two forces ( $F', F''$ ) equal, opposed and parallel to F (such that  $F = F' = F''$ ). The resultant of  $F'$  and  $F''$  is zero ( $F' - F'' = 0$ ) and therefore the two systems are equivalent.

$$1 \text{ FORCE} = 1 \text{ TORQUE} + 1 \text{ FORCE}$$



This explanation permits to analyse the effect of force  $F$  which, as it may be seen.....



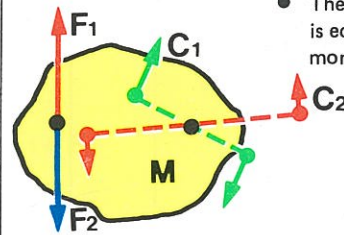
..... rotates the body around C (effect of torque  $F'$ ) and drives the body along  $F''$  (effect of force  $F''$ )

**IN CONCLUSION,  
IT MUST BE  
REMEMBERED  
THAT A FORCE  
CANNOT  
BALANCE A  
TORQUE**

Now, it is time to deal with the equilibrium of bodies. A BODY FREE TO MOVE IS IN EQUILIBRIUM WHEN ITS SPEED DOES NOT CHANGE (it may be stationary or in motion).

THE BODY M IS IN EQUILIBRIUM AS :

- $F_1 = F_2$  and, therefore,  $R=0$ .
- The moment of torque  $C_1$  is equal and opposite to the moment of torque  $C_2$ .



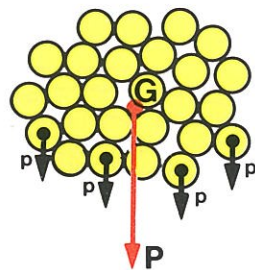
EQUILIBRIUM CONDITIONS OF FREE BODIES :

- Zero resultant of forces applied ( $R=0$ )
- Zero torque resultant.

## THE CENTER OF GRAVITY OF BODIES

A NOTE WORTHY POINT

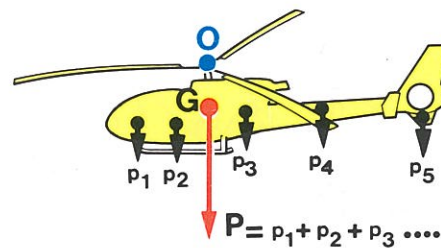
A body consists of heavy elementary particles.



Number of particles  $n$ .  
 $P = p \times n$

If elementary weights  $p$  are composed (composition of parallel forces), a resulting force  $P$  (weight of body) applied to point  $G$  (CENTER OF GRAVITY OF BODY) is obtained.

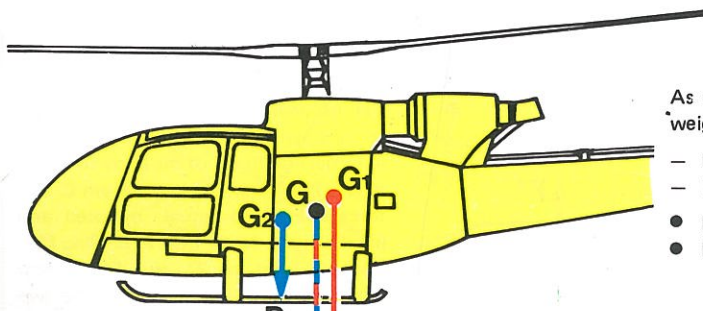
The situation is similar for a helicopter which consists of heavy assemblies and equipment.



$$P = p_1 + p_2 + p_3 \dots$$

If the weights ( $p_1, p_2, p_3 \dots$ ) of these assemblies and equipment are composed, total weight of aircraft  $P$ , applied to center of gravity  $G$  is obtained. The pattern of the various masses is designed so that  $G$  is aligned with the center of rotor  $O$ .

HOWEVER, WHILE THE CENTER OF GRAVITY OF A SOLID BODY IS FIXED, THAT OF A HELICOPTER MAY MOVE.



As a matter of fact, the total weight ( $P$ ) of aircraft is the resultant of 2 weights :

- Empty weight ( $P_1$ ). Weight of unloaded helicopter.  $P_1$  is applied to  $G_1$ .
- Load ( $P_2$ ) : Crew-passengers-freight-fuel...  $P_2$  is applied to  $G_2$ .

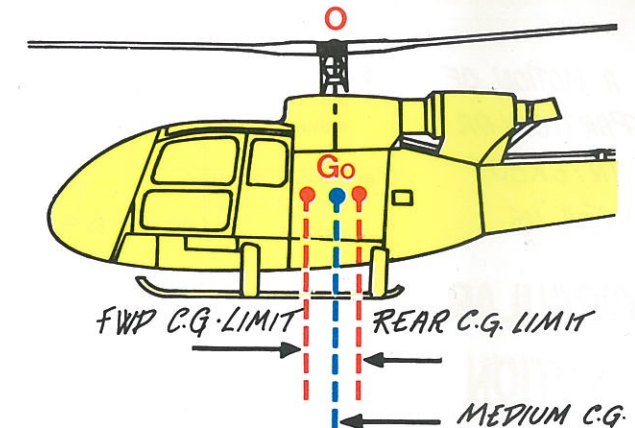
- $P_1$  is constant in amplitude and position : accordingly,  $G_1$  is fixed
- $P_2$  may vary in amplitude and position : accordingly,  $G_2$  is mobile.

$G$ , WHERE THE RESULTANT  $P = P_1 + P_2$  (TOTAL WEIGHT OF AIRCRAFT) MOVES IN RELATION WITH THE WEIGHT AND POSITION OF LOAD  $P_2$ .

$$P = P_1 + P_2$$

## THIS GIVES RISE TO THE NOTION OF HELICOPTER C.G. LOCATION

- In relation with the medium center of gravity  $G_0$  ( $G_0$  being aligned with rotor center  $O$ ), the total weight of the aircraft may be applied forward (FWD C.G.) or to the rear (Rear C.G.). When the center of gravity is moved, it creates in flight a nose down moment (FWD C.G.) or a nose up moment (rear C.G.). Such moments, which tilt the aircraft forward or rearward, adversely affect comfort (aircraft attitude) and, if they are too great, they may become dangerous for flying the aircraft. It is for this reason that helicopter manufacturers specify C.G. limits not to be exceeded.

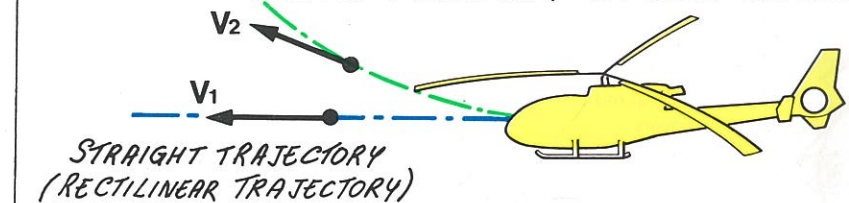


HAVING EXPLAINED FORCES,  
WE WILL NOW DISCUSS  
THEIR DYNAMIC  
EFFECT

## MOTION AND VELOCITY

A MOTION IS DEFINED BY A TRAJECTORY AND A VELOCITY

CURVED TRAJECTORY (CURVILINEAR TRAJECTORY)



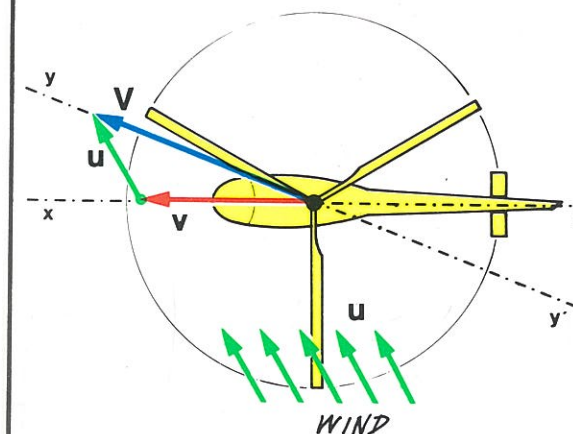
The velocity of a body is expressed in meters per second (m/s) or in kilometers per hour (km/h) :

$$V = \frac{\text{space}}{\text{Time}}$$

A velocity can be, like a force, shown as a vector indicating the direction of displacement (arrow) and the velocity value (length of the vector).

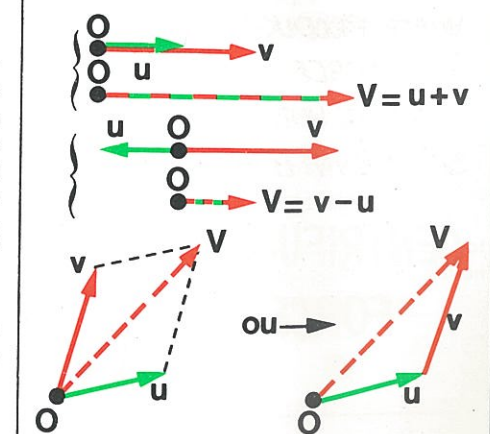
A motion is called UNIFORM when the speed or velocity is constant. In all other cases, the motion is said to be ACCELERATED : The velocity varies (increases or decreases) under the action of a force system (other than null) applied to the body in motion.

A BODY MAY BE SUBMITTED TO A SINGLE MOTION OR TO SIMULTANEOUS MOTIONS.



Example : The helicopter moves at velocity  $v$  in the axis  $x x'$ . It is deflected from its trajectory by a wind having a velocity  $U$  (drift). The resulting motion is given by the composition of vectors  $v$  and  $u$ .  $V$  is the resulting velocity of the helicopter which moves on the resulting trajectory  $y y'$ .  $v$  is the driving velocity,  $u$  the relative velocity and  $V$  the resulting velocity.

COMPOSITIONS OF VELOCITIES : VELOCITY VECTORS ARE COMPOSED LIKE FORCE VECTORS



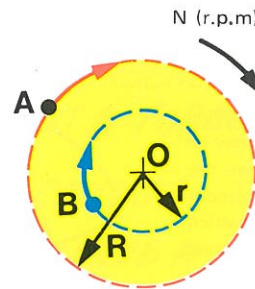


A MOTION OF  
PARTICULAR  
INTEREST  
FOR US

## CIRCULAR MOTION

All points of a body in rotation are animated with a circular motion. Their trajectory is a CIRCLE.

- Point A describes a circle of radius R.
- Point B describes a circle of radius r.



THE ROTATIONAL SPEED (N) of a body is measured in r.p.m. (revolutions per minute).

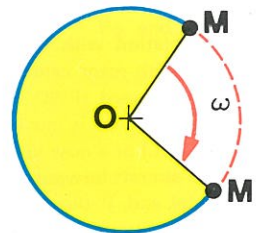
ANGULAR VELOCITY ( $\omega$ )....

$$\omega = \frac{\pi N}{30}$$

1 rev. :  $2\pi$  radians  
N (r.p.m.) =  $2\pi N$

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi N}{60} = \frac{\pi N}{30}$$

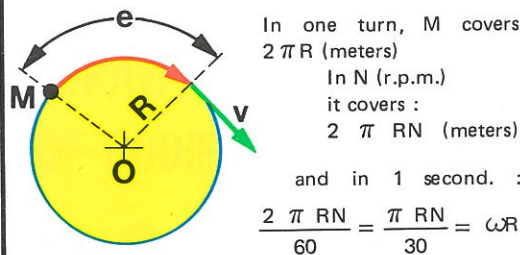
Rotational velocity is also expressed in terms of the center angle swept by radius OM of the rotating body. This is angular velocity which is measured in radians per second. (rd/s)/



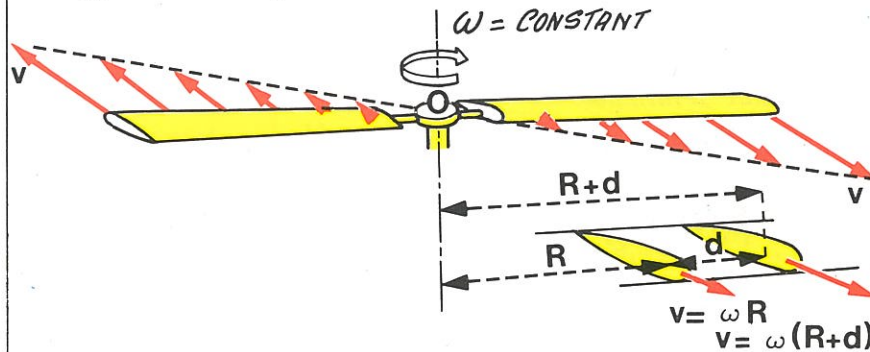
... AND CIRCUMFERENTIAL VELOCITY  
 $v = \omega R$ .

CIRCUMFERENTIAL VELOCITY IS PROPORTIONAL TO RADIUS  
(AND TO ANGULAR VELOCITY  $\omega$ )

AN EXAMPLE : diagram of velocities for a rotor rotating at constant speed.



The circular velocity (v) is the distance (e) covered in 1 second by a moving body M having a circular trajectory. It is measured in meters per second (m/s)

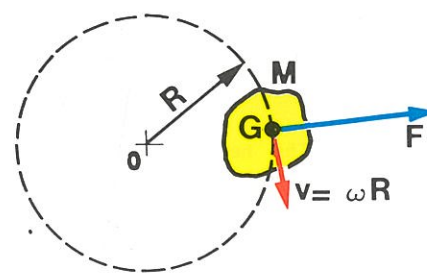


The circular velocity of blade components increases, from the root to the tip, according to their gyration radius R.

FORCES PRODUCE  
MOTION (YES)  
BUT THERE IS A MOTION  
WHICH PRODUCES  
A FORCE  
HAVING VERY  
SIGNIFICANT EFFECTS:

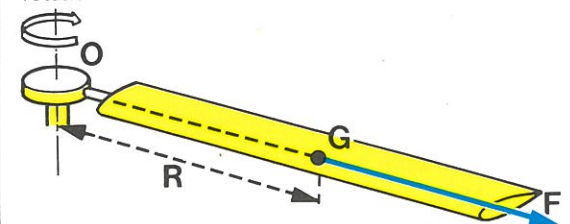
## CENTRIFUGAL FORCE

$$F = M\omega^2 R$$



It is demonstrated that a body of mass M having a circular motion of R radius and a speed «v» is submitted to a CENTRIFUGAL FORCE  $F = \frac{Mv^2}{R} = M\omega^2 R$ . This force is applied to the center of gravity G of the body.

The centrifugal force is directed toward the outside of the trajectory. Its action line passes through center of rotation "O"



Here is an idea of the amplitude of the centrifugal force applied to a rotor blade :  
(case of a SA 330 helicopter blade).

M = 70 kg - N = 265 r.p.m. - R = 4,03 m

$$F = 70 \times \left( \frac{3,14 \times 265}{30} \right)^2 \times 4,03 = 217.015 \text{ N}$$

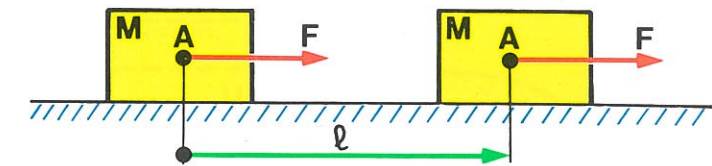
M  $\omega^2$  R

THE EFFECT THAT SUCH A FORCE MAY PRODUCE AT THE BLADE ROOT IS EASILY IMAGINED.

FORCE  
AND MOTION  
PRODUCE

## WORK AND POWER

The force F moving a body M produces WORK



WORK

- A force F which moves its point of application "A" over a distance l produce work :

$$W = F \times l$$

Work is measured in Joules (J)

$$1 \text{ J} = 1 \text{ N} \times 1 \text{ m}$$

POWER

- If work W is produced in t seconds, the power developed is :

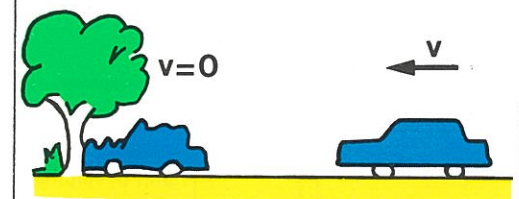
$$P = \frac{W}{t}$$

Power is measured in Watts (W).

A PECULIAR  
FORM OF  
WORK,  
"CANNED  
WORK"  
OR

## KINETIC ENERGY

A body (solid, liquid or gaseous) set in motion stores an energy called KINETIC ENERGY.



If such body suddenly stops, it releases all its kinetic energy under the form of work (here : distortion, failure...).

When the velocity of the body increases, its kinetic energy increases (it is supplied with work).  
When the velocity of the body decreases, its kinetic energy decreases (it releases work or heat).

Kinetic energy is expressed (W)

$$W = \frac{1}{2} M V^2$$

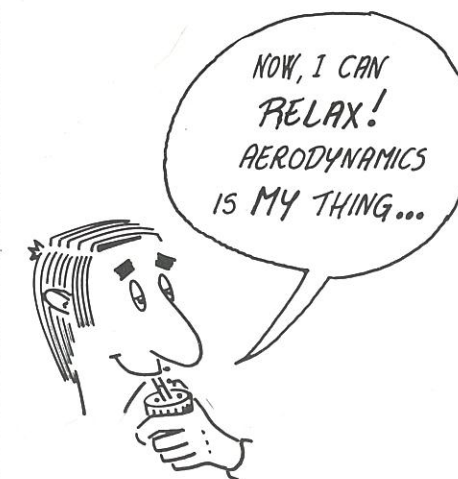


Example : a vehicle having a mass M = 700 kg runs at 90 km/h (25 m/s). Its kinetic energy is

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \times 700 \times 25^2 = 218750 \text{ J.}$$

This is the quantity of energy released during the accident.

## 2.2. NOTIONS OF AERO- DYNAMICS



## THE AIR IN MOTION

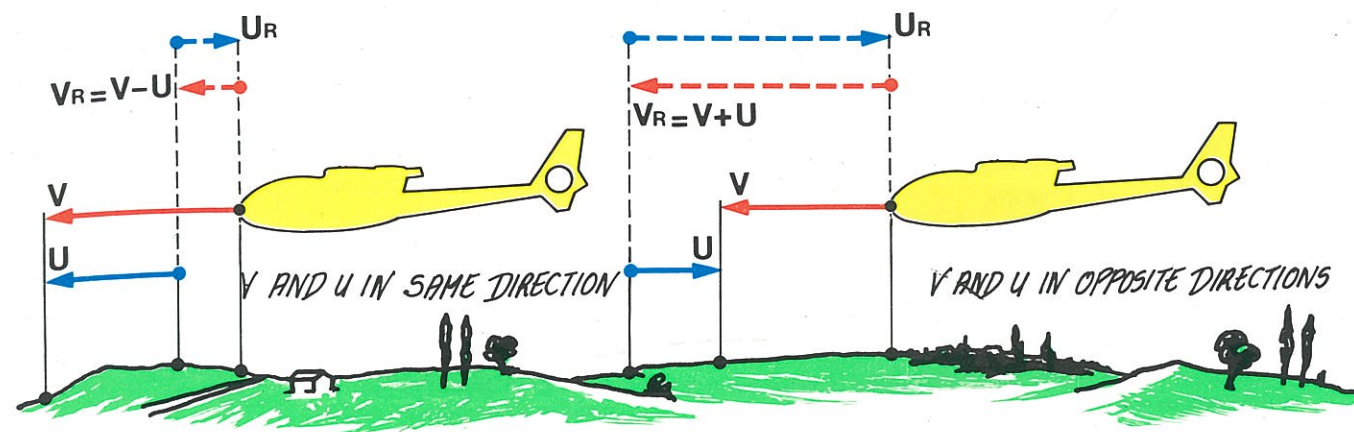
In aerodynamics, there appears the notion of relative motion. As a matter of fact, for studying the aerodynamic behaviour of a body, its motion must be considered NOT IN RELATION WITH THE GROUND (absolute motion) but IN RELATION WITH THE AIR (relative motion). Thus, we shall speak of relative velocities : Velocity of a body in relation with the air or air velocity in relation with the body (the two being equal and opposite).



LET US ILLUSTRATE  
THESE DEFINITIONS

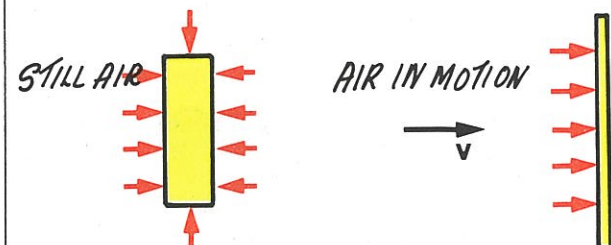
$V$  = Helicopter velocity relative to the ground  
 $V_R$  = Relative speed of helicopter

$U$  = Velocity of the air (wind) relative to the ground  
 $U_R$  = Relative speed of air (relative wind)

AIR IN MOTION  
AND  
DYNAMIC  
PRESSURE

The air (like all gases) develops energy which acts as pressure :

- STATIC Pressure ( $P_S$ ) : EXPANSION ENERGY
- DYNAMIC Pressure ( $P_d$ ) : KINETIC ENERGY OF AIR IN MOTION.



Static pressure acts in all directions.

Dynamic pressure acts in the direction of velocity.

## BUT, WHAT IS PRESSURE?

Pressure is the force of a gas acting on the unit of area.

$$P = \frac{\text{Force}}{\text{Area}} \quad \text{The unit of pressure is the Pascal (Pa) } 1 \text{ Pa} = \frac{1 \text{ N}}{1 \text{ m}^2}$$

Here is another definition of pressure :  
 Pressure is the energy of a gas contained in the unit of volume :

$$P = \frac{\text{Energy}}{\text{Volume}} \quad 1 \text{ Pa} = \frac{1 \text{ J}}{1 \text{ m}^3}$$

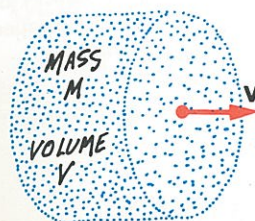
## KINETIC ENERGY AND DYNAMIC PRESSURE OF AIR

The kinetic energy of a mass of air  $M$  occupying a volume  $V$  and having a velocity  $v$  is :

$$W = 1/2 M v^2$$

or, as  $M = \rho V$  ( $\rho$  being the mass of the unit of volume) :

$$W = 1/2 \rho V v^2$$



The kinetic energy of the unit of volume is called dynamic pressure ( $P_d$ ), or :

$$P_d = 1/2 \rho \frac{v \cdot v^2}{V} = 1/2 \rho v^2$$

UNIT OF VOLUME

Accordingly, a mass of air in motion possesses both static energy (static pressure  $P_S$ ) and dynamic energy (dynamic pressure  $P_d$ ).  
 The sum of these energies represents the total energy (or total pressure  $P_t$ ).

- STILL AIR = STATIC PRESSURE ( $P_S$ )
- AIR IN MOTION = TOTAL PRESSURE ( $P_t$ )

$$P_t = P_S + P_d = P_S + 1/2 \rho v^2$$

THE TOTAL  
PRESSURE ( $P_t$ )  
OF A GAS  
IS  
CONSTANT

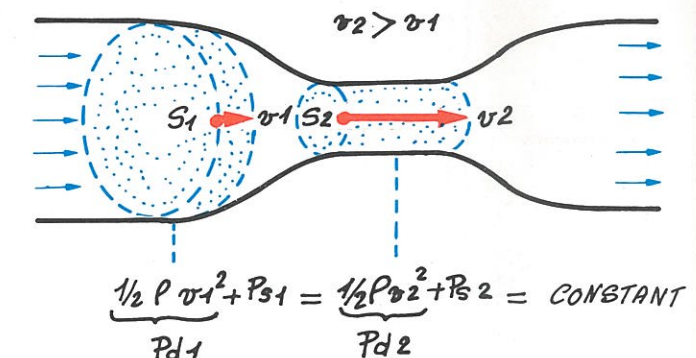
(Provided the gas receives or supplies neither heat nor work).

$P_t = P_S + P_d = \text{Constant}$ , which means that if a gas gains energy under the form of speed (increase of dynamic pressure), it loses an equal quantity of energy in the form of static pressure, and vice versa.

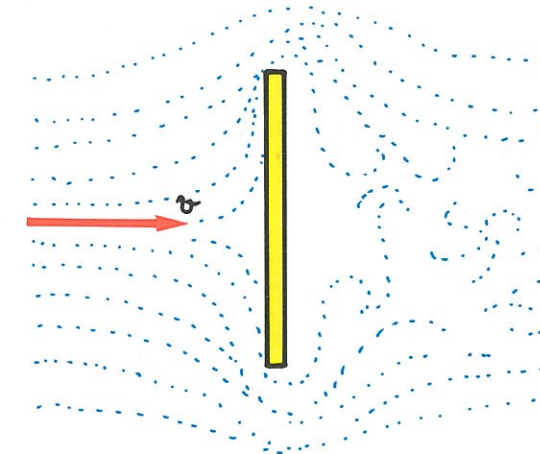
OR :

When the dynamic pressure increases, the static pressure decreases.

EXAMPLE : Variation of static and dynamic pressures in a variable cross-section duct. The airflow ( $Q = SV$ ) being constant, the airspeed ( $v$ ) increases when the cross-section ( $S$ ) decreases.



THE CROSS-SECTION DECREASES ( $S_2 < S_1$ ). THE SPEED INCREASES ( $v_2 > v_1$ ). THE DYNAMIC PRESSURE INCREASES ( $P_{d2} > P_{d1}$ ) AND THE STATIC PRESSURE DECREASES BY AN EQUAL AMOUNT

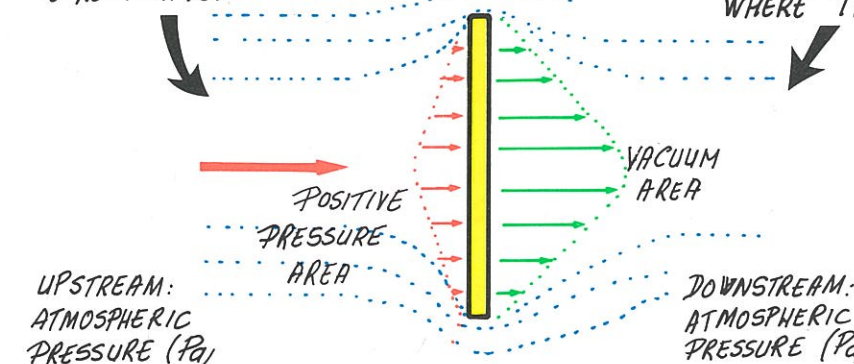
WIND  
RESISTANCE

A body forms an obstacle to the relative wind and restrains its motion. This is wind resistance. Air opposes the motion of bodies. A plate placed normal to the airflow (relative wind) restrains and deviates the mass of air which strikes it.

This phenomenon is demonstrated by the AERODYNAMIC SPECTRUM : The air-flow is materialized by smoke.

IN THIS AREA THE AIRFLOW IS RESTRAINED

HERE IS AN AREA OF RELATIVE VACUUM WHERE THE AIRFLOW INCREASES



LET US HAVE A CLOSER LOOK AT THIS !

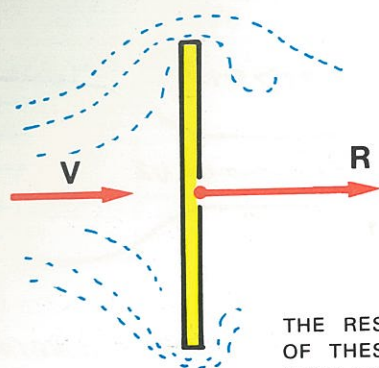
- On the forward surface of the plate, where the airflow decreases, the dynamic energy is converted into static pressure. The pressure exerted on the forward surface exceeds the atmospheric pressure ( $P_S > P_a$ ).
- On the rear surface of the plate, there is a relative vacuum area where the airflow increases. The dynamic pressure increases and the static pressure decreases.

$$P_S < P_a : \text{VACUUM}$$

Vectors represent the relative static pressure  $P_S - P_a$ . This pressure is negative in the vacuum area.

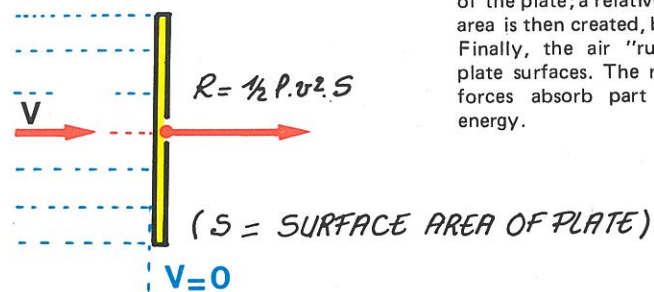


Thus, the forward surface of the plate is submitted to a pressure which tends to push it and the rear surface to a vacuum tending to aspirate it.



THE RESULTANT OF THESE PRESSURE FORCES IS THE WIND RESISTANCE : R

### VALUE OF R



If the airflow striking the plate was not deflected, its entire kinetic energy would be converted into pressure and the expression of R would be.

$R = \frac{1}{2} \rho \cdot v^2 \cdot S$  ( $\frac{1}{2} \rho \cdot v^2 =$  dynamic pressure) .....

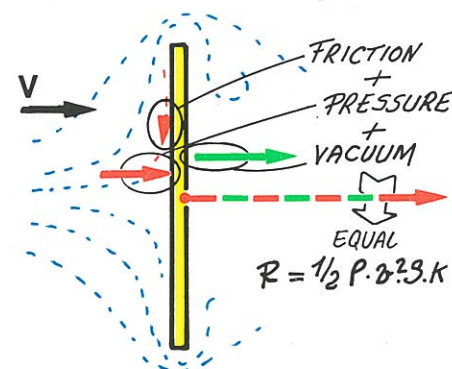
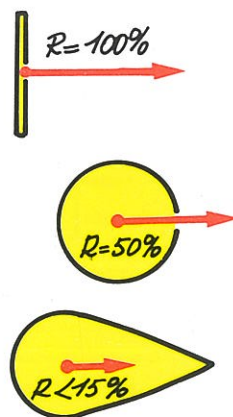
..... But, the airflow is deflected and the mass of air flows at a speed which is reduced but not null, along the sides of the plate; a relatively large vacuum area is then created, behind the plate. Finally, the air "rubs" against the plate surfaces. The resulting friction forces absorb part of the kinetic energy.

### LET US SUM UP...

Let us illustrate the effect of the body's shape on wind resistance R.

If the wind resistance is rated at 100 percent in the case of a circular plate.

..... The wind resistance is only rated at 50 percent for a sphere having the same diameter, and drops below 15 percent for a stream-lined body.



Considering these effects, the basic expression of R becomes :

$$R = \frac{1}{2} \rho \cdot v^2 \cdot S \cdot K$$

K : being a factor covering :

- The body's shape (the body's shape has an effect on the airflow and, therefore on the value of the pressure loads).
- The body's surface condition (i. e. the friction forces).

### AND CONCLUDE :

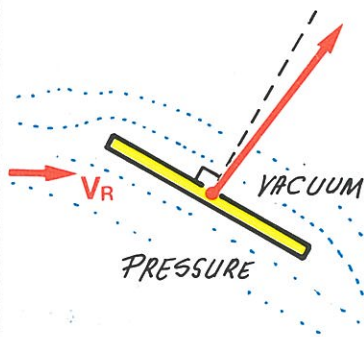
$$R = \frac{1}{2} \rho \cdot v^2 \cdot S \cdot K$$

The air resistance is proportional :

- to the air density  $\rho$
- to the square of wind velocity  $v^2$
- to the body's surface S
- to the factor K covering the body's shape and surface condition.

### HOW TO OBTAIN A LIFTING SURFACE

Wind resistance is a necessary evil. As a matter of fact, although it opposes the movement of bodies, it contains an energy which may be mastered and directed.



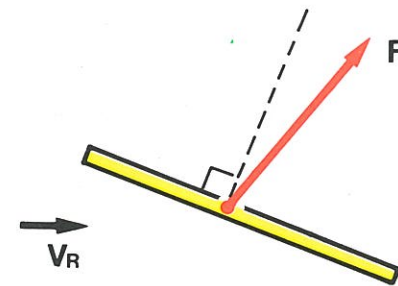
$$R(\text{ou } F_R) = \frac{1}{2} \rho \cdot v^2 \cdot S \cdot K$$

Without forgetting to our previous conclusions, let us tilt the plate with respect to the relative wind  $v_R$  we shall still note :

- A pressure area
- A vacuum area.

However, the resultant R (which will henceforth be called  $F_R$ . (The resultant aerodynamic force) is directed upwards.

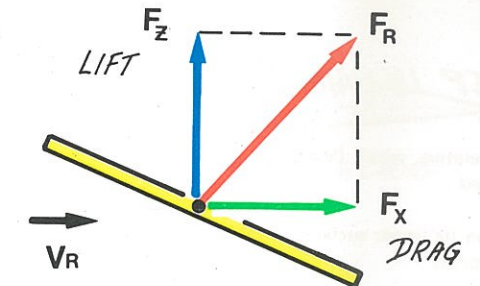
### ANALYSIS OF $F_R$



Note that the aerodynamic resultant ( $F_R$ ) is not normal to the plate as the pressure forces would tend to place it, but tilted rearward under the action of the friction forces.

$F_R$  may be broken down into two forces :

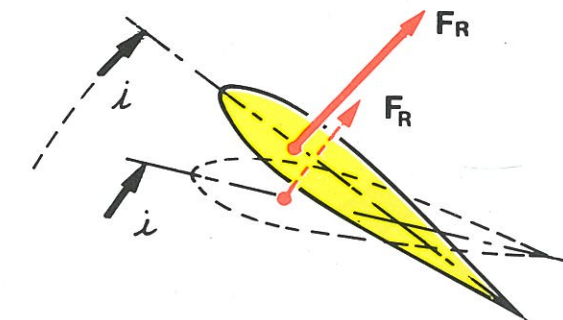
- $F_Z$ , normal to the relative wind  $V_R$ . This is liftcap which raises the plate.
- $F_X$ , parallel to the relative wind. This is DRAG, which restrains the plate's motion.



This is the principle of airfoil surfaces, i.e. of surfaces capable of converting the relative speed of air into a lift force. Now, we shall deal with airfoils specially designed in the wind tunnel for increasing lift and reducing drag.

### FROM "FLAT" AIRFOILS TO STREAMLINED AIRFOILS

Helicopter rotor blades and airplane wings are airfoils specially designed for developing lift forces. To obtain lift the airfoil must be inclined with respect to the relative wind. The angle "i" of the relative wind with respect to the airfoil is called ANGLE OF ATTACK.



The value of the angle of attack "i" affects the amplitude of aerodynamic resultant  $F_R$  : if i increases,  $F_R$  increases.

This new notion leads us to reconsider the factor K, which, in the expression already given of  $F_R$  does not cover the body's position relative to the relative wind, and to substitute a factor  $C_r$  introducing this effect. The resulting final expression of  $F_R$  is :

$$F_R = \frac{1}{2} \rho \cdot v^2 \cdot S \cdot C_r$$



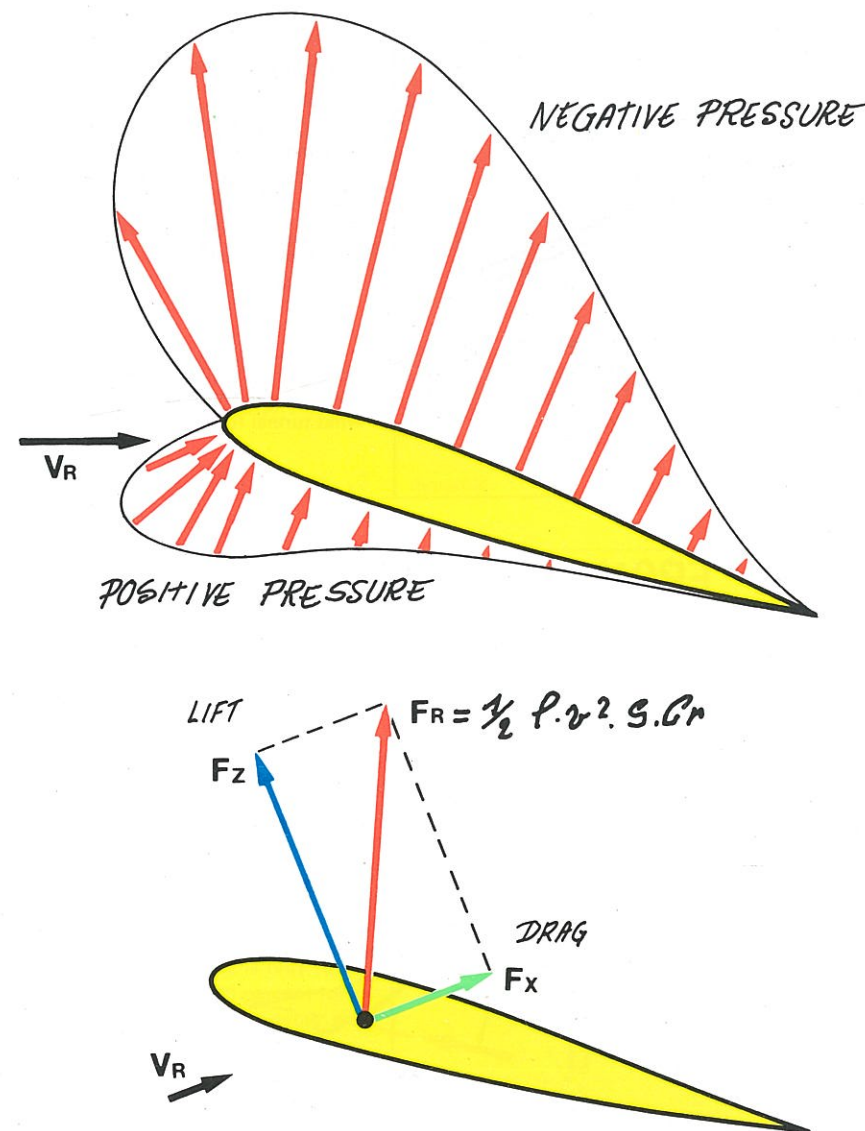
## KEEP IN MIND

In relative wind ( $V_R$ ), an airfoil is submitted :

- on its upper surface, to negative pressure forces
- on its lower surface, to positive pressure forces whose resultant, called AERODYNAMIC RESULTANT ( $F_R$ ) consists of two forces which may be measured in a wind tunnel :
  - LIFT ( $F_z$ ), normal to the relative wind. It is a force acting in the right direction : it supports the airfoil.
  - DRAG ( $F_x$ ), parallel to the relative wind. It is a harmful force : it restrains the airfoil and absorbs energy uselessly.

Keep also in mind that the negative pressure forces acting on the upper surface of the airfoil have a major effect (Refer to the pressure diagram). Indeed, they provide 70 percent of the lift.

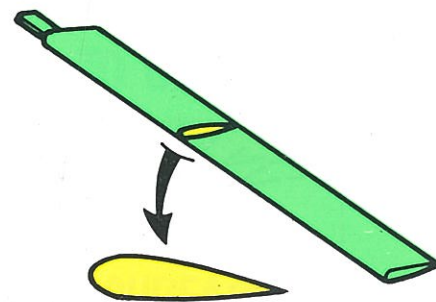
Diagram of positive and negative pressures acting on an airfoil.



## LET US TALK ABOUT AIRFOILS

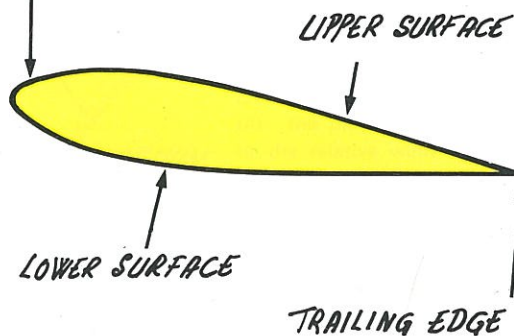


## PROFILE OF A HELICOPTER ROTOR BLADE



The profile of an airfoil (rotor blade-airplane wing) determines its aerodynamic behaviour.

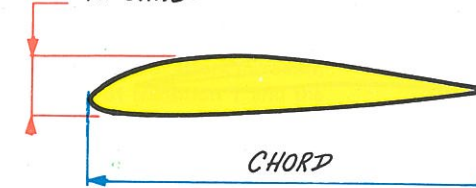
## LEADING EDGE



MAIN COMPONENTS OF AN AIRFOIL.

## DEFINITIONS RELATING TO AIRFOILS

## THICKNESS



The ratio :  $\frac{\text{THICKNESS}}{\text{CHORD}}$

is called "THICKNESS RATIO"

The thickness ratio is expressed in percentage of the chord.  
(Example : 12 percent thickness ratio).

The REFERENCE CHORD is the line drawn between the leading and trailing edges. It acts as a base for the definition of the airfoil shape.



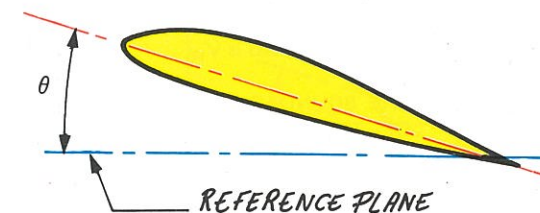
The MEDIAN LINE is the geometric locus of points equidistant from the upper and lower surfaces.



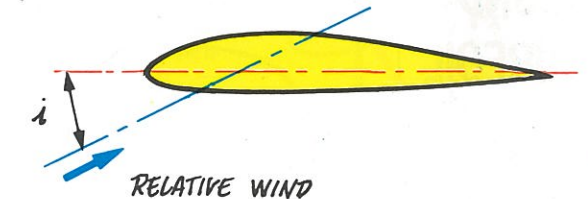
## PITCH ANGLE

AND ...

## ANGLE OF ATTACK



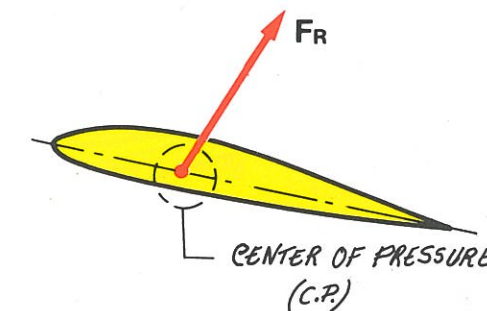
The pitch angle ( $\theta$ ) is the angle formed by the airfoil chord with a fixed reference plane. For a helicopter blade, this plane of reference is normal to the rotation axis of the rotor.



The angle of attack ( $i$ ) is the angle formed by the airfoil chord with the direction of the relative wind.

## THE CENTER OF PRESSURE

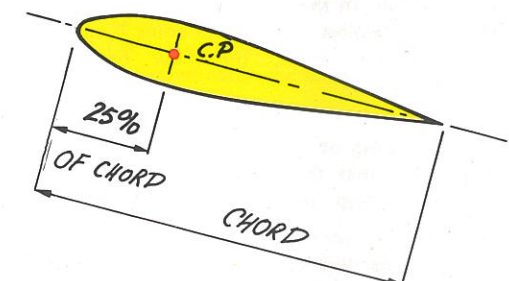
It is the point where the aerodynamic resultant force  $F_R$  is applied.



The location of the center of pressure (C.P.) with respect to the airfoil chord varies according to the type of airfoil under consideration and for asymmetrical airfoils with respect to the angle of attack ( $i$ ).

In the case of symmetrical airfoils (whose median line coincides with the chord) :

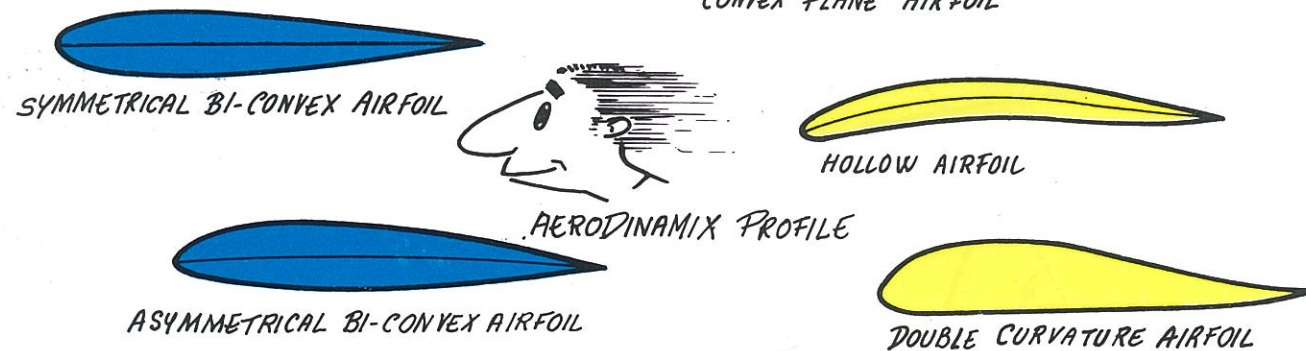
EXAMPLE: NACA 00.12 AIRFOIL



The center of pressure is fixed (independently of the angle of attack) and located at 25 percent of the airfoil chord.



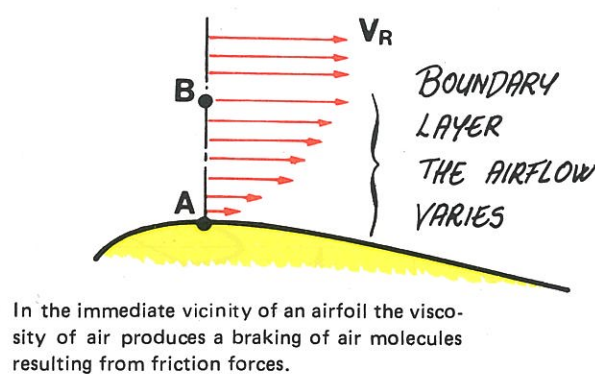
## THE MAIN COMMON AIRFOILS



The symmetrical bi-convex airfoil is, the airfoil par excellence for metal helicopter rotor blades for the following reasons : Ease of manufacture and constant stability : as a matter of fact, the fixity of the center of pressure, coinciding with the blade hinge axis, avoids any unwanted moment. The new techniques of production (composite blades) allow asymmetrical bi-convex airfoils which have better aerodynamic qualities.

## THE AIR FLOW AROUND AN AIRFOIL

## BOUNDARY LAYER



In A, air molecules adhere to the airfoil. The speed of air flow is zero.

From A to B, friction forces decrease and the air velocity increases.

In B, the air flow is no longer affected by friction. Its speed is  $V_R$ .

THE BOUNDARY LAYER IS THE AIRFILM OF THICKNESS AB WHERE THE FLOW VELOCITY VARIES.

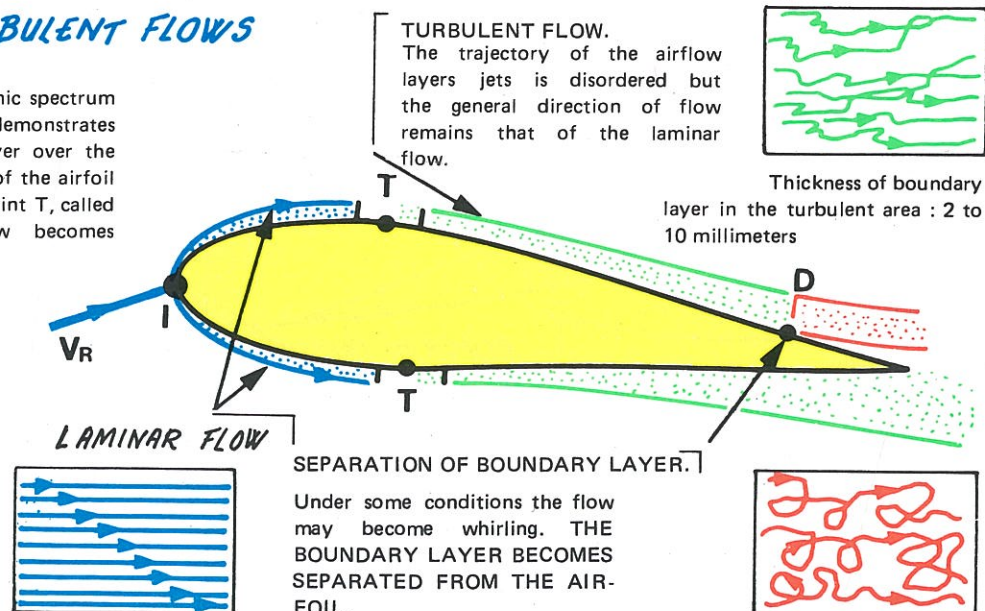
**FUNCTION OF BOUNDARY LAYER :** THE STATIC PRESSURE FORCES WHICH CREATE ON AN AIRFOIL THE RESULTANT AERODYNAMIC FORCE ( $F_R$ ) CAN HAVE EFFECT ONLY WHEN THERE IS A BOUNDARY LAYER STICKING TO THE AIRFOIL

## LAMINAR AND TURBULENT FLOWS

The examination of the aerodynamic spectrum (air flow materialized by smoke) demonstrates the existence of a boundary layer over the whole airfoil. In the first section of the airfoil the flow is laminar. Then, from point T, called the transition point, the flow becomes turbulent.

I is the point of impact. It is from there that the air flow is divided in two parts by the airfoil.

The airflow layers are parallel to each other. Thickness of boundary layer in laminar flow area is some 1/10 of millimeter.

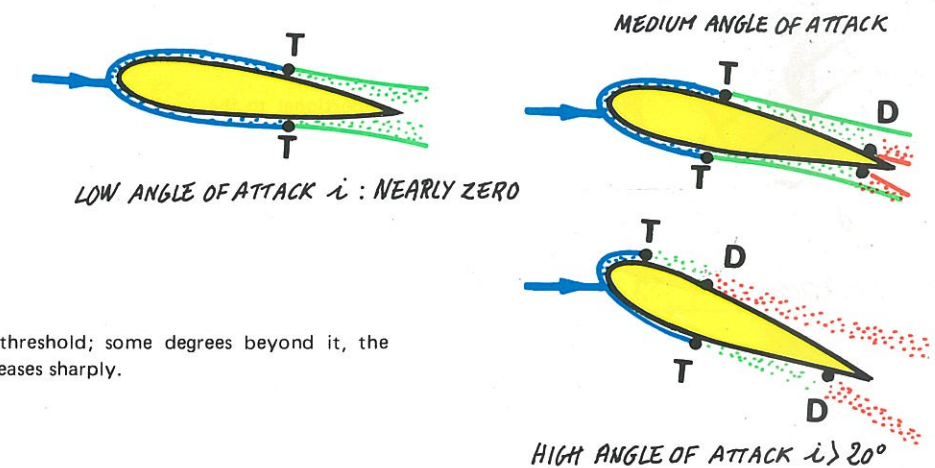


## EFFECT OF THE ANGLE OF ATTACK ON AIRFLOW

When the angle of attack increases, the point of transition T and the point of separation of the boundary layer D move towards the leading edge. The displacement of these points is not very significant up to a relatively high angle value (variable according to the type of airfoil but generally exceeding  $20^\circ$ ).

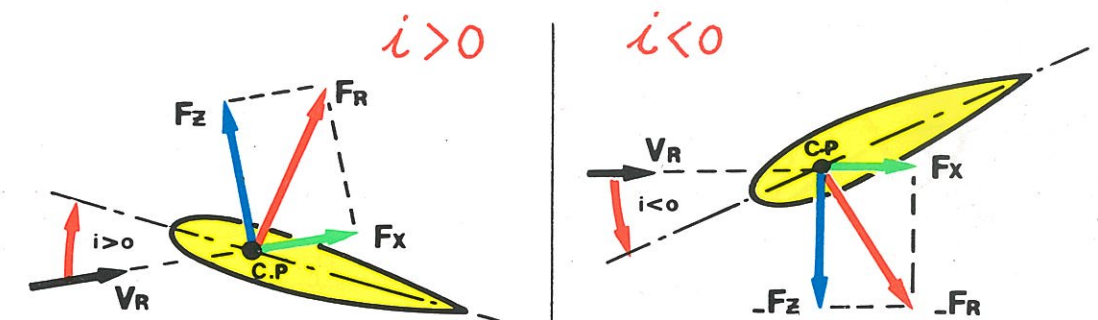
A critical airflow area begins at this threshold; some degrees beyond it, the boundary layer is separated and lift decreases sharply.

THIS IS KNOWN AS STALLING



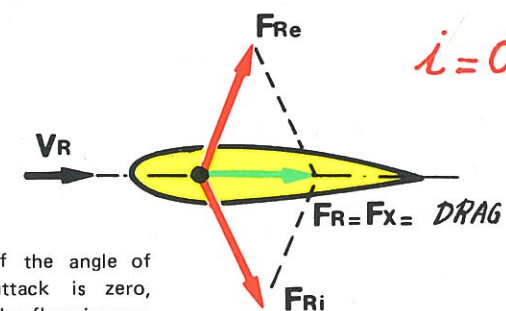
## ANALYSIS OF THE AERO-DYNAMIC RESULTANT

$F_R$

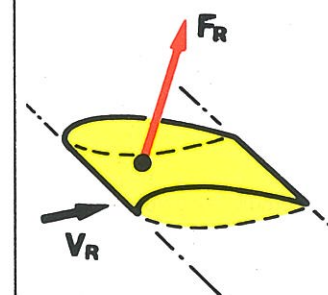
EFFECT OF THE ANGLE OF ATTACK ON THE DIRECTION OF  $F_R$ 

We have seen that the aerodynamic resultant  $F_R$ , applied at the center of pressure (C.P.) is inclined rearwards and directed upwards when the angle of attack is positive (i.e. when the relative wind  $V_R$  attacks the airfoil on its lower surface).

If the angle of attack  $i$  is NEGATIVE, the phenomenon is inverted :  $F_R$  is directed downwards and the airfoil is pulled downwards by a force  $-F_z$  which may be called NEGATIVE LIFT.



If the angle of attack is zero, the flow is symmetrical (for a symmetrical airfoil) on the upper and lower surfaces. The pressure forces on the upper and lower surfaces are equal and admit 2 symmetrical resultants ( $F_{Re}$  and  $F_{Ri}$ ). In this case, the general resultant ( $F_R$ ) is parallel to the airflow. This is drag. The lift is null.

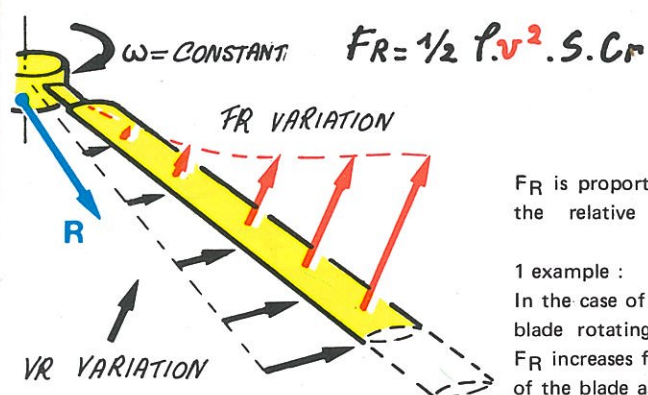
FACTORS AFFECTING THE VALUE OF  $F_R$ 

Let us consider a blade section of a helicopter rotor and examine every term of the expression :

$$F_R = 1/2 \rho v^2 \cdot S \cdot C_r$$

$F_R$  is proportional to  $\rho$  (air density). As  $\rho$  depends on the atmospheric pressure and the ambient temperature,  $F_R$  varies with these two data. Particularly,  $F_R$  decreases when the altitude increases.





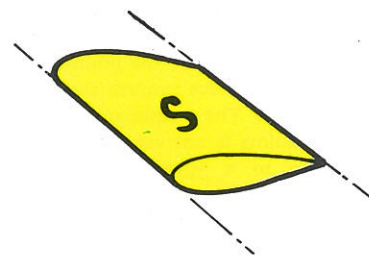
$F_R$  is proportional to the square of the relative wind velocity  $V_R$ .

1 example :  
In the case of an UNTWISTED rotor blade rotating at constant velocity,  $F_R$  increases from the root to the tip of the blade as  $V_R$  increases with the rotation radius  $R$ . This variation of  $F_R$  is troublesome. The applicable remedy is :

BLADE TWIST

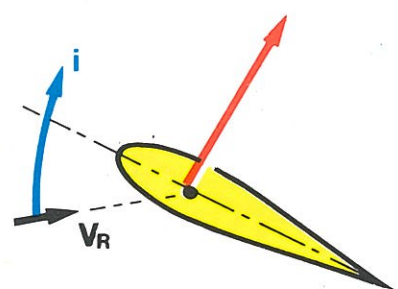
$$F_R = \frac{1}{2} \rho \cdot v^2 \cdot C_r$$

$F_r$  is proportional to the surface area  $S$  of the blade section.



Value  $S$  is constant for a blade having a given profile.

$$FR = \frac{1}{2} P \cdot v^2 \cdot S_{Cr}$$



THE VALUE OF  $F_R$   
DEPENDS ON THE  
ANGLE OF ATTACK  $i$ .

$F_R$  is proportional to factor C, which reflects :

- the shape of the body (profile)
- the condition of the body's surface
- **THE BODY'S ATTITUDE WITH RESPECT TO THE RELATIVE WIND (ANGLE OF ATTACK)**

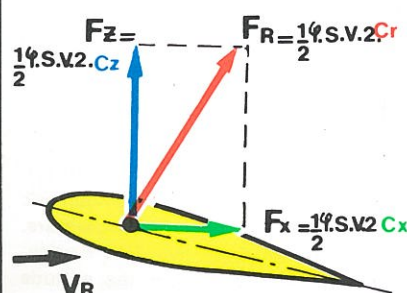
KEEP IN MIND : for a given blade,  $C_r$  varies in terms of the angle of attack " $i$ " only.

CONCLUSION:  
THERE IS ONLY  
ONE WAY  
TO CONTROL FR:  
TO VARY THE  
ANGLE OF ATTACK

The way this is achieved on a helicopter will be examined later.

### EFFECT OF ANGLE OF ATTACK VARIATION ON LIFT ( $F_z$ ) AND DRAG ( $F_x$ )

### EXPRESSION OF $F_z$ AND $F_x$

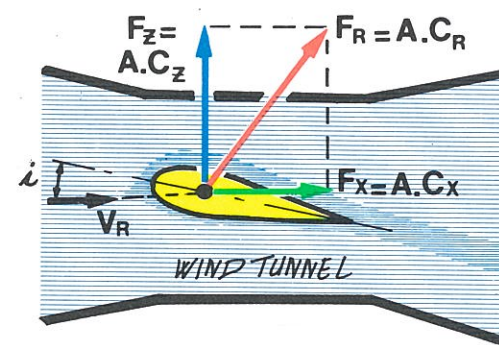


Lift ( $F_Z$ ) and drag ( $F_X$ ) are calculated using the basic formula of wind resistance and a shape and position factor determined in a wind tunnel.

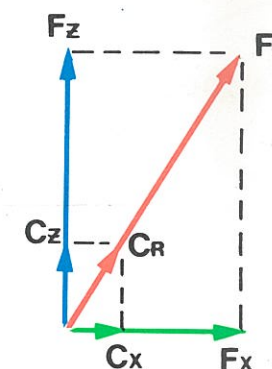
- $C_z$  IS THE LIFT FACTOR
- $C_x$  IS THE DRAG FACTOR

In the wind tunnel,  $C_Z$  and  $C_X$  are determined using aerodynamic scales measuring the drag and lift values. The test conditions are such that the term  $1/2 \rho S V^2$  . . . . REMAINS CONSTANT .

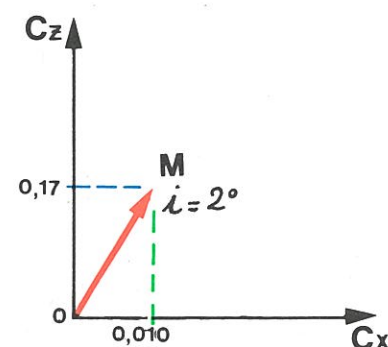
$$\text{i.e. : } \frac{1}{2} P S v^2 = A$$



The 3 following parameters, LIFT ( $F_z$ ), DRAG ( $F_x$ ) and aerodynamic resultant ( $F_R$ ) depend only on the factors  $C_Z$ ,  $C_X$  and  $C_R$  which vary with respect to angle of attack " $i$ " only.

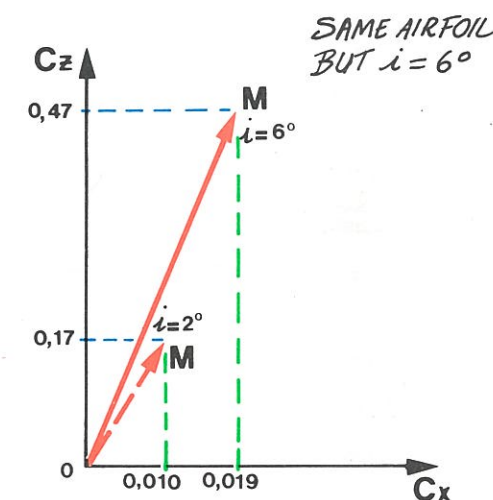


Accordingly, to design the aerodynamic features of an airfoil, it is sufficient to determine, for every angle of attack " $\alpha$ ", the  $C_Z$  and  $C_X$  data and to plot them on a graph.

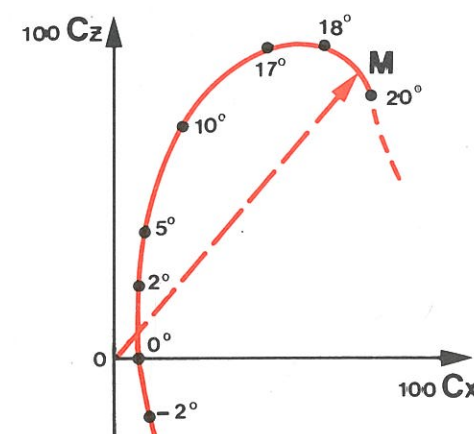


Example : Case of a symmetrical bi-convex airfoil, for  $\alpha = 2^\circ$ .

Factor  $C_r$  is represented in size and direction by vector OM.



## POLAR CURVE OF AN AIRFOIL



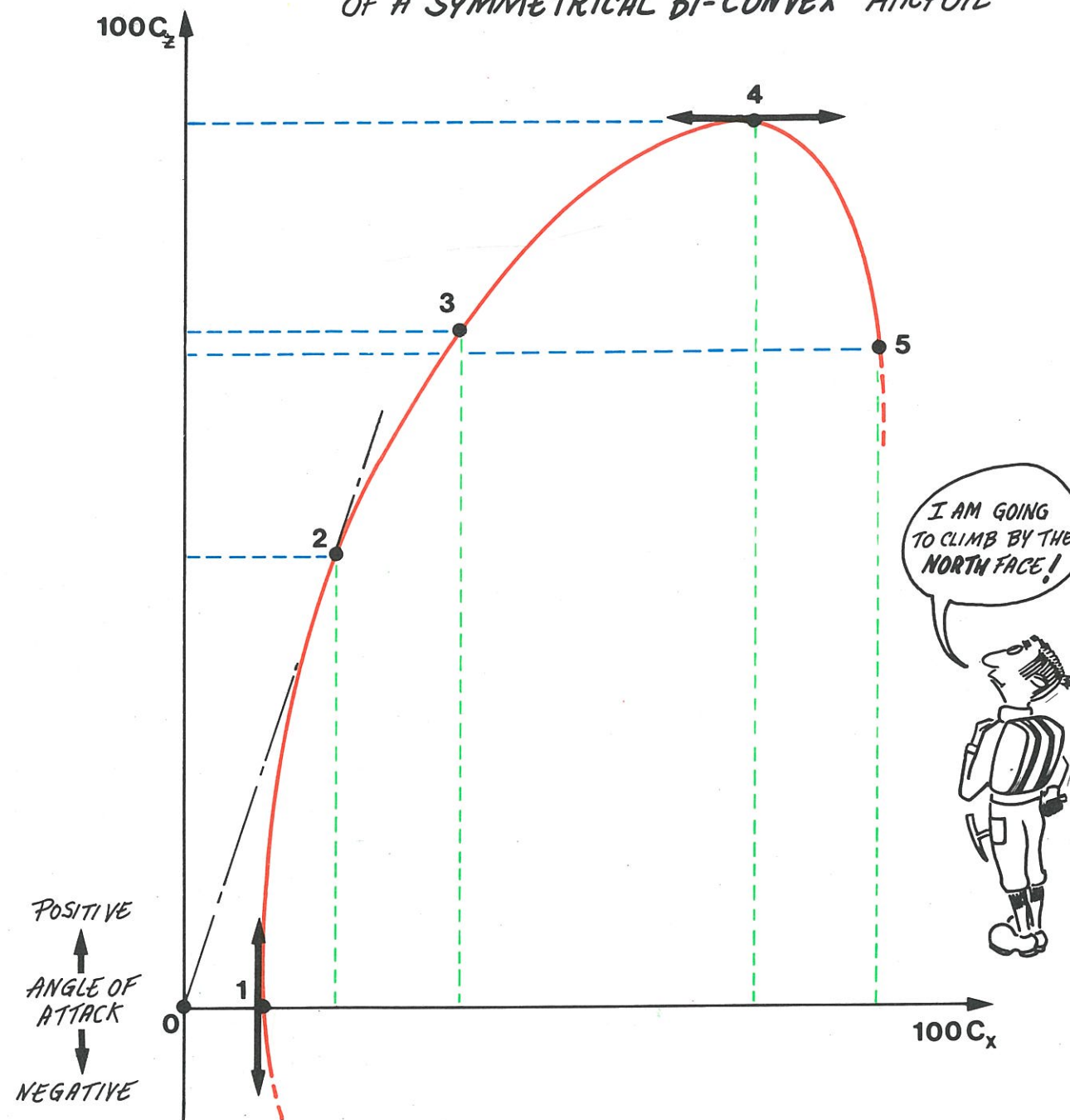
If all points M determined this way are connected, a curve called the airfoil polar curve is obtained. This curve shows how, for a given airfoil, the lift and drag vary in terms of the angle of attack.

As  $C_Z$  and  $C_X$  values are low, for the purpose of making easier the reading of the curve,  $C_Z$  and  $C_X$  are multiplied by 100. Furthermore, as  $C_X$  is much smaller than  $C_Z$ , the scale of  $C_X$  is 10 times greater than that of  $C_Z$ .

This curve is called polar as it is defined by the end of vectors OM originating from the same pole (origin O).



## THE SIGNIFICANT POINTS ON THE POLAR CURVE OF AN AIRFOIL

GENERAL SHAPE OF THE POLAR CURVE  
OF A SYMMETRICAL BI-CONVEX AIRFOIL

THE ANGLE OF ATTACK INCREASES FROM POINT 1 TO POINT 5.

- in 1 The angle of attack is zero. Lift is null and drag is minimum
  - in 4 The lift is maximum  
- from 1 to 4, lift and drag increase,  
- beyond point 4, any increase in the angle of attack produces a reduction in lift (critical area)
  - in 5 This is the stalling angle. The boundary layer separates and the lift decreases sharply.
  - in 2 This the point of maximum lift - to-drag ratio
  - in 3 This is the point of best lift to drag ratio of the airfoil. This is the optimum angle of attack for a helicopter blade. At this angle, the ratio  $\frac{C_z}{C_x^2}$  is minimum.
- at this point, the angle of attack provides maximum lift for minimum drag. The lift-to-drag ratio is defined by the ratio  $\frac{C_z}{C_x}$

## 3. BLADE AND ROTOR

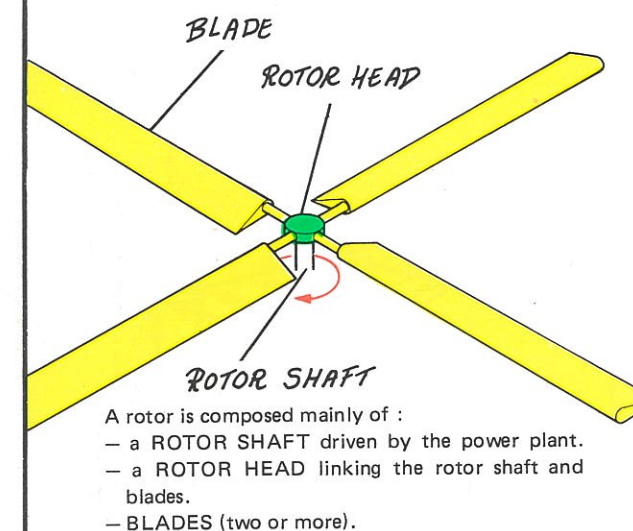
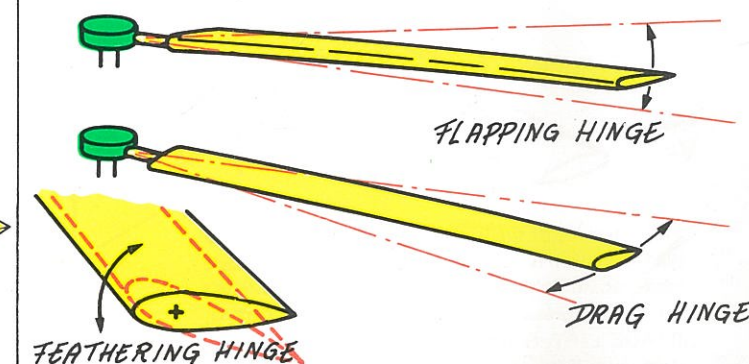
GENERAL

The MAIN ROTOR provides lift and allows forward flight.

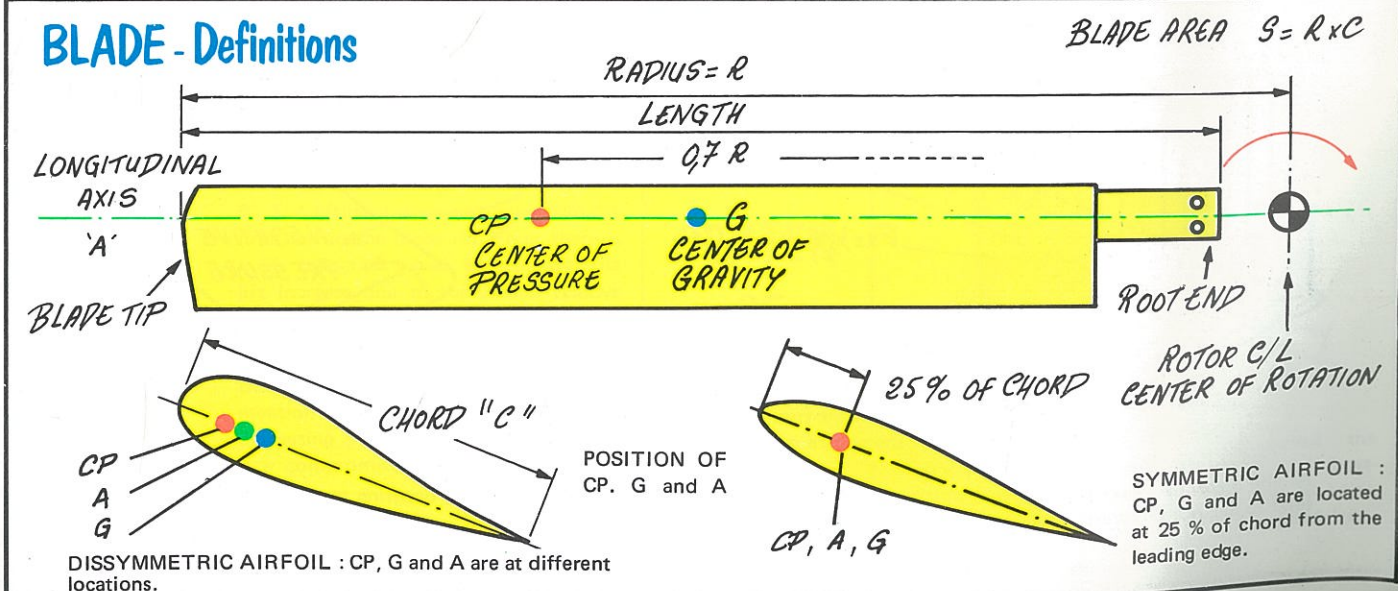


The TAIL ROTOR compensates the main rotor reaction torque and allows control of the aircraft about its yaw axis.

THE ROTOR IS THE MAIN HELICOPTER COMPONENT.

The blades are linked to the rotor head by HINGES (or FLEXIBLE SECTIONS) allowing blade motions :  
- In the vertical plane (flapping hinge)  
- In the rotation plane (drag hinge)  
- about the longitudinal axis (feathering hinge)WE ARE GOING TO REVIEW ROTOR AERODYNAMICS AND MECHANICS,  
WITH PARTICULAR EMPHASIS ON THE NEED FOR HINGES (OR FLEXIBLE SECTIONS).

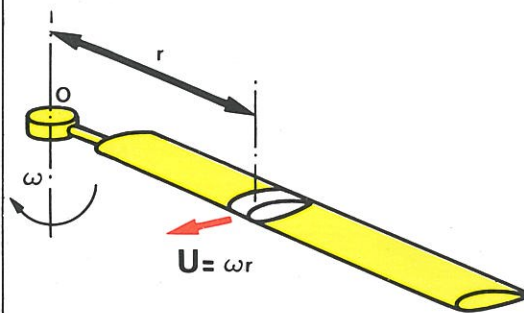
## BLADE - Definitions





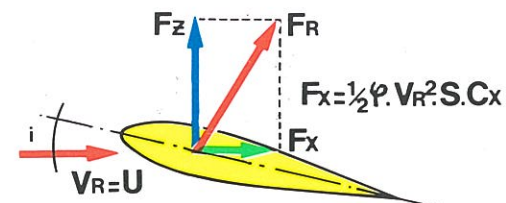
## BLADE LIFT AND DRAG

FROM BLADE  
SECTION TO  
A COMPLETE  
BLADE



Let us consider a very short blade section located at a distance "r" from the centre of rotation "O". The rotor operating at constant speed "ω", the blade section circumferential speed is  $U = \omega r$ .

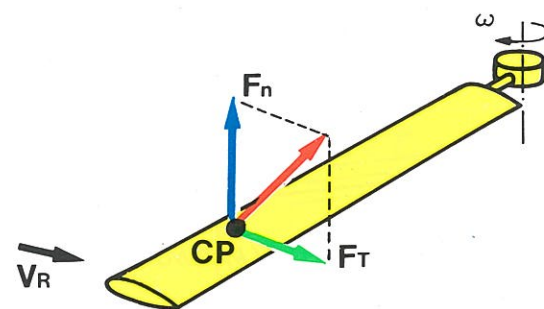
$$F_z = \frac{1}{2} \rho \cdot V_R^2 \cdot S \cdot C_z$$



This means that the blade section is operating in a relative wind having a velocity  $V_R = U$ .

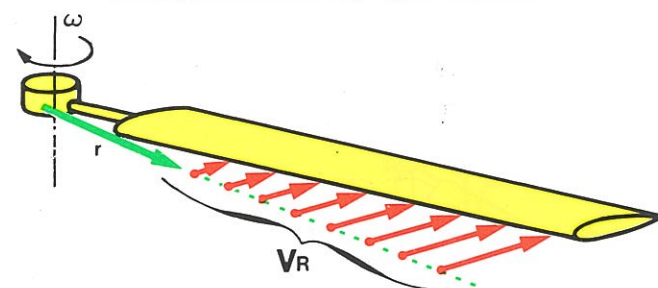
For a given angle of attack "i" the blade section is submitted to an aerodynamic load "F\_R" which may be broken down into a lift load "F\_z" acting at right angle to  $V_R$  and a drag load "F\_x" parallel to  $V_R$ .

### TOTAL LIFT AND DRAG OF BLADE



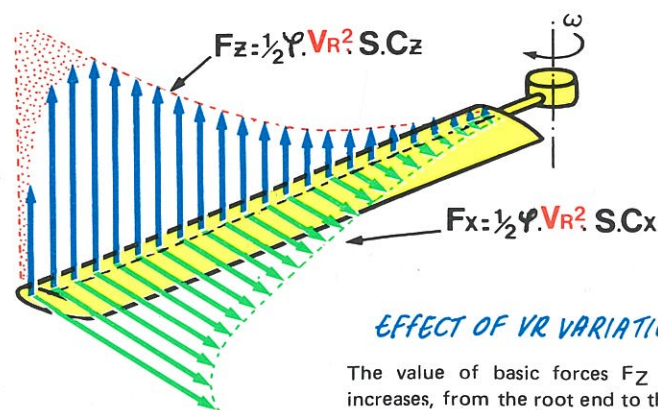
The resultant of the basic lift loads applied to every blade section is a load  $F_n$  parallel to the basic loads, equal to their sum and applied to the blade's centre of pressure "C.P.". This is the TOTAL BLADE LIFT. Similarly, the resultant of the basic drag loads is equal to their sum. This is the TOTAL DRAG "F\_T".

### VARIATION OF RELATIVE VELOCITY $V_R$ ALONG THE BLADE



From the root end to the blade tip, the blade section radius of rotation "r" INCREASES. The CIRCUMFERENTIAL SPEED (or relative velocity "V\_R") of blade sections increases proportionally to the radius:

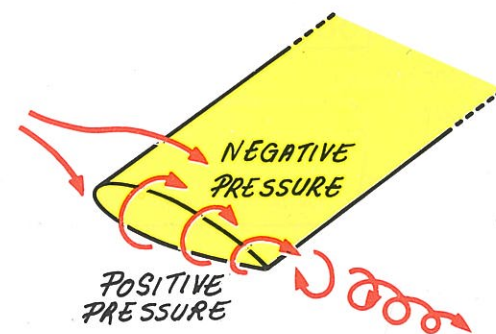
$$V_R = \omega r.$$



### EFFECT OF $V_R$ VARIATION

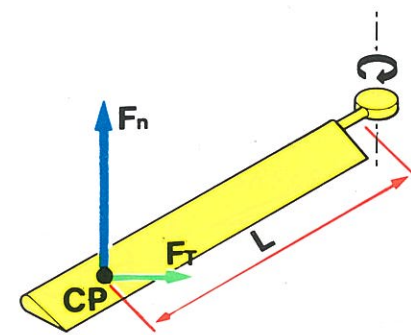
The value of basic forces  $F_z$  and  $F_x$  increases, from the root end to the blade tip, with the square of the relative velocity  $V_R$ .

At the blade tip, there is a decrease in lift caused by the tip losses which tend to balance the pressure between the lower and upper surfaces.



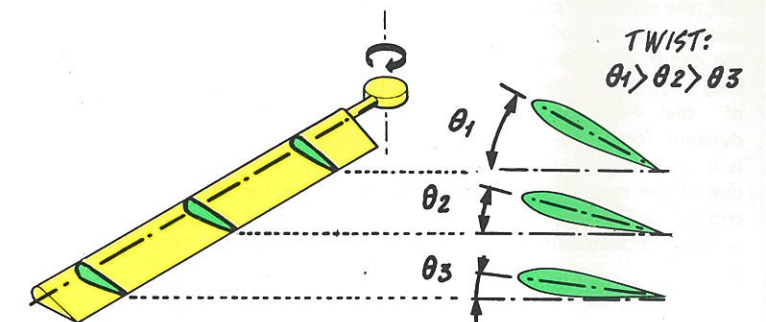
The tip losses, occurring at the blade tip, cause a decrease in lift and an increase in drag.

### WHY ARE BLADES TWISTED?



Due to the increase in lift and drag basic forces, from the root end to the blade tip, the center of pressure (C.P.) is located near the blade tip. Therefore, bending moments ( $F_n \times L$  and  $F_T \times L$ ) are applied to the root end but; from the blade strength point of view these moments are excessive.

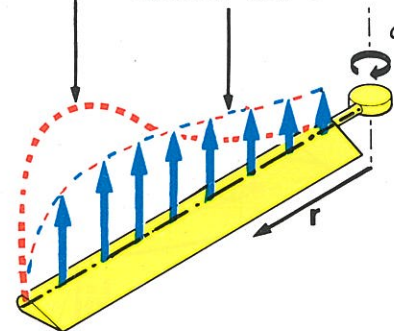
To achieve a better load distribution and reduce the bending moments, the blades are twisted, that is "distorted" about their longitudinal axis so that they operate at a high angle of attack near the rotor head and at a low angle of attack towards the blade tip where relative velocity ( $V_R$ ) is high.



The angle  $\theta$  decreases progressively from the root end to the blade tip. This decrease results in a progressive reduction in lift and drag values.

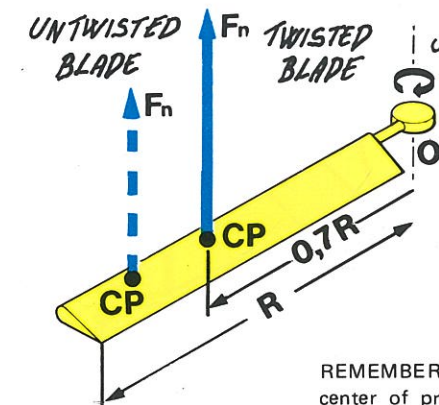
### UNTWISTED BLADE

### TWISTED BLADE



This shows a comparison of the lift distribution along the radius, on twisted and untwisted blades.

### COMPARISON OF CENTER OF PRESSURE (C.P.) LOCATION ON TWISTED AND UNTWISTED BLADES.



REMEMBER : When a blade is twisted, the center of pressure (C.P.), is nearer the center of rotation (O), thus the bending moments at the root end are reduced.

We will see later how blade twist improves rotor behaviour in autorotation.

## THE BLADE CENTER OF PRESSURE



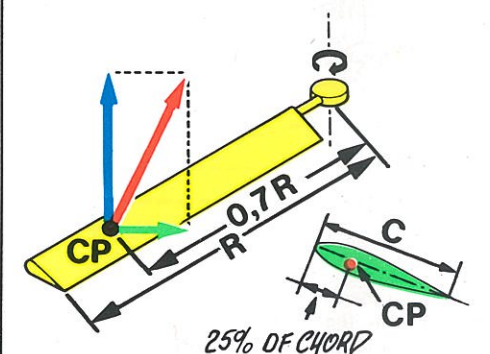
Another way of achieving an even lift distribution along the blade.

### THE TRAPEZOIDAL BLADE (used on some tail rotors)

• The lifting surface decreases from the root end to the blade tip. Thus, there is a lift reduction which compensates the lift increase due to the greater relative velocity ( $V_R$ ).

But, there are other means. Let us mention the varied blade profile and decreasing thickness. And often a blade is a compromise between these various solutions.

The blade center of pressure (C.P.) is the point where aerodynamic forces are applied.



On a SYMMETRIC BI-CONVEX airfoil, the center of pressure location is FIXED. It is located at 0.7 R from the center of rotation (R being the rotor radius) and at 25% of the chord from the leading edge.

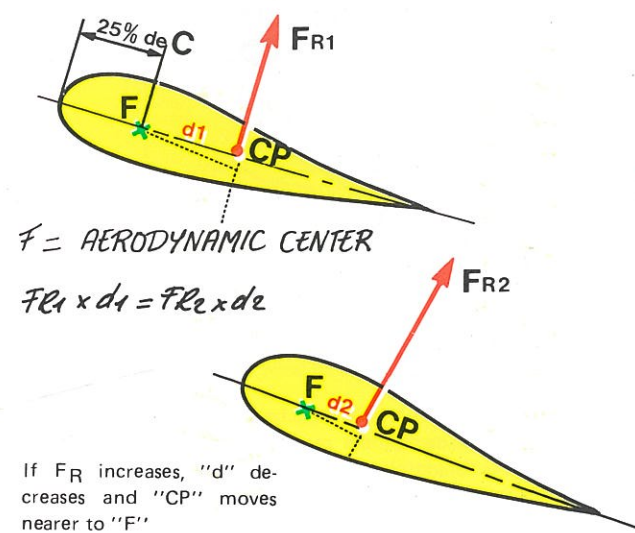


## THE DISSYMMETRIC AIRFOIL AND THE VARIATION IN CENTER OF PRESSURE LOCATION

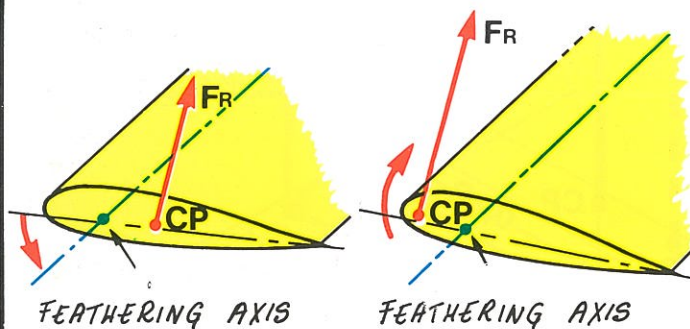
We are going to see that on a DISSYMMETRIC airfoil, the center of pressure location is variable along the chord, it moves according to the magnitude of the resultant aerodynamic force " $F_R$ ". This is a disadvantage and it is one of the reasons for the choice of SYMMETRIC airfoils for helicopter blades.

When  $F_R$  increases, the center of pressure moves towards the leading edge. In the wind tunnel, the analysis of the center of pressure location change has revealed a FIXED point which has a noteworthy characteristic. This fixed point is called the AERODYNAMIC CENTER (F), it is located at 25 % of the chord. Its characteristic is the following: THE MOMENT OF  $F_R$  RELATIVE TO THE AERODYNAMIC CENTER IS CONSTANT.

$$M = F_R \times d = \text{CONSTANT}$$



## EFFECT OF CENTER OF PRESSURE CHANGE



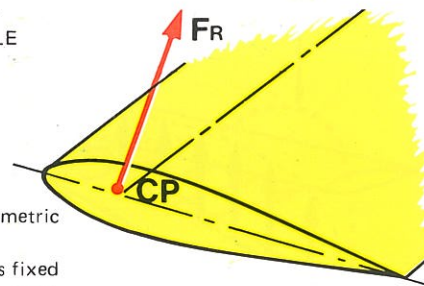
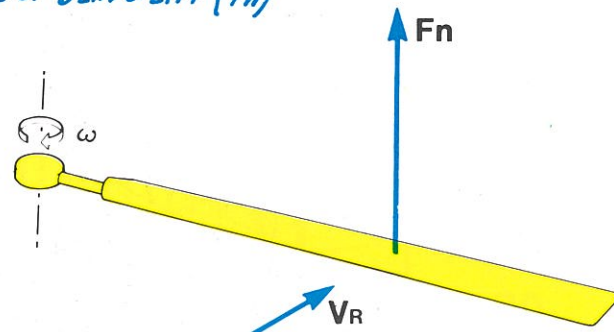
IF CP is located aft of the feathering axis,  $F_R$  produces a NOSE DOWN moment tending to decrease the angle of attack.

On the other hand, if CP is forward of the feathering axis,  $F_R$  produces a NOSE-UP moment tending to increase the angle of attack.

As we have seen, when  $F_R$  increases, the center of pressure moves towards the leading edge; therefore, in all cases, the effect of  $F_R$  is to decrease the NOSE DOWN moment or to increase the NOSE-UP moment, that is, finally to increase the angle of attack.

DISSYMMETRIC AIRFOILS ARE UNSTABLE

On the other hand, symmetric airfoils are STABLE. The center of pressure is fixed and coincides with the aerodynamic center and the feathering axis.

CONTROL OF BLADE LIFT ( $F_n$ )

Considering the lift equation  $F_n = 1/2 \rho \cdot V_R^2 \cdot S \cdot C_z$ , it can be seen that, in flight, there are only two factors allowing lift control (that is to handle the aircraft):

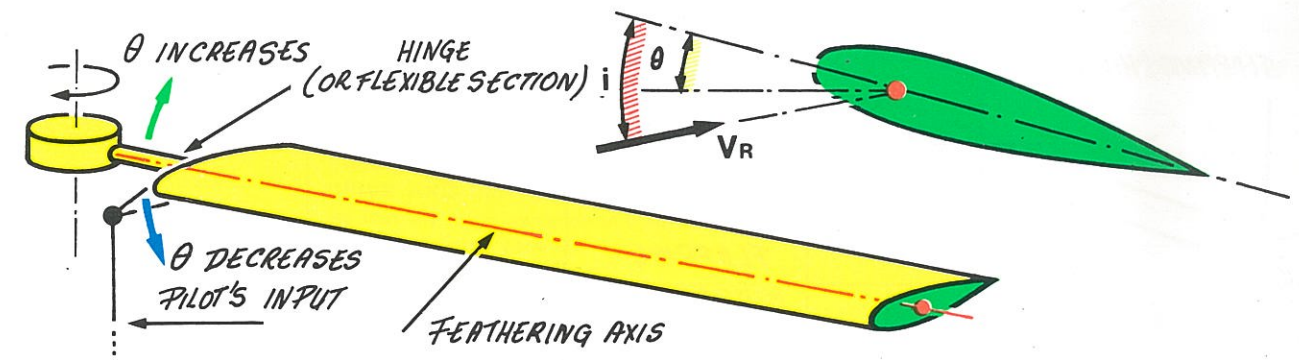
- $V_R$  either the blade circumferential velocity or  $\omega$  the rotor speed.
- $C_z$  (lift factor) which depends on the angle of attack.

The other factors depend either on atmospheric pressure and temperature ( $\rho$ ), or on the blade area and profile. But, as helicopter rotors operate at constant speed (governor), there remains one way only to control lift: VARIATION OF THE ANGLE OF ATTACK. Let us recall that when the angle of attack increases, the lift increases also.

HOW IS THE ANGLE OF ATTACK CONTROLLED?

Simply, through variation of the blade pitch angle  $\theta$  achieved by rotating the blade about its feathering (longitudinal) axis. This is the feathering hinge, already mentioned.

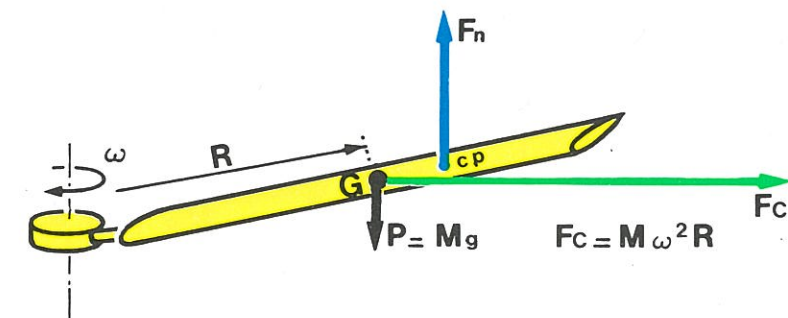
When the blade pitch angle  $\theta$  varies, the angle of attack " $\alpha$ " varies also by the same amount and in the same direction.



## FORCES ACTING ON A BLADE IN ROTATION

A blade is subjected to:

- its weight ( $P$ ) applied to the centre of gravity ( $G$ ).
- centrifugal force ( $F_c$ ) applied at  $G$ .
- lift ( $F_n$ ) applied at the centre of pressure (C.P.).



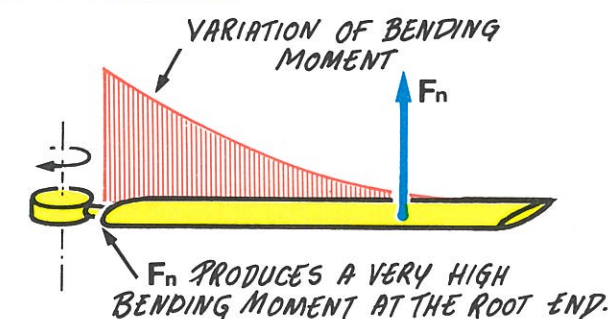
We will see later that there are also alternating inertia forces (CORIOLIS forces) acting on the blade in the rotation plane.

The blade weight is negligible relative to the other forces. AMPLITUDE OF FORCES:

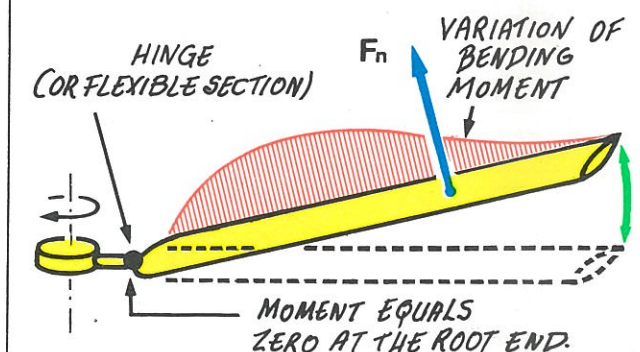
- SA 330 helicopter taken as an example).
- $F_c$ , about 22000 daN.
- $F_n$ , about 1800 daN (in autorotation)
- weight ( $P$ ): 69 daN.

To clarify your ideas, we recall that: 1 daN = 1,02 kg.f.

## WHERE WE START TO TALK ABOUT THE FLAPPING HINGE



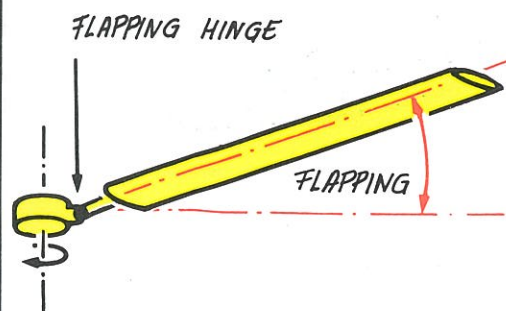
Lift ( $F_n$ ) tending to pull the blade upward produces a bending moment, which is very strong and greatest at the blade root end. It may be seen that this bending moment generates very high stresses at the blade attachment points and to withstand them the blade root would require excessive dimensions.



To cancel the bending moment at the root end (that is, to reduce the stresses), the blade is hinged in the vertical plane. It is to be noted that the hinge may be a physical item (hinge pin) or apparent (flexible section: interposition between the blade and the rotor head of a very flexible material, such as "glass-fiber-resin" composite).



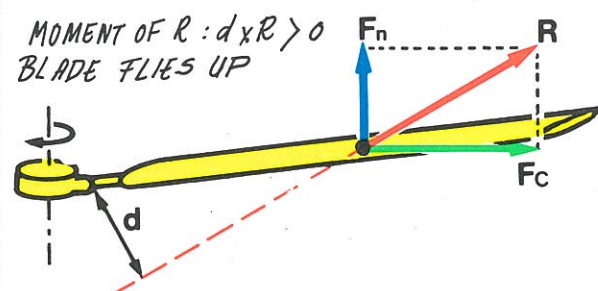
It may be seen that such a hinge; which allows the blade an upward motion (called : FLAPPING), cancels the bending moment at the blade attachment by substituting a motion.



WE WILL SEE THAT THE BLADE'S VERTICAL FLAPPING PLAYS A VERY SIGNIFICANT AERODYNAMIC ROLE. IN FACT, WITHOUT FLAPPING HINGES THE HELICOPTER CANNOT FLY

### BLADE EQUILIBRIUM

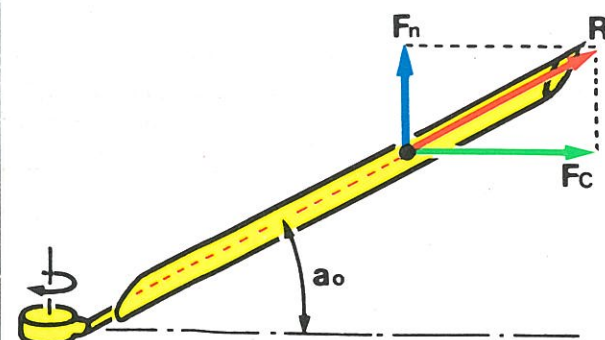
MOMENT OF  $R : d \times R > 0$   
BLADE FLIES UP



The blade, free to flap upwards, flies up under the action of  $R$  (resultant of  $F_n$  and  $F_c$ ).

(to simplify the explanation, it is assumed that the center of gravity and the centre of pressure are coinciding).

The motion stops when the blade is aligned with  $R$ , the moment of which about the hinge axis is then equal to zero.



THE ANGLE  $a_0$  IS CALLED CONING ANGLE

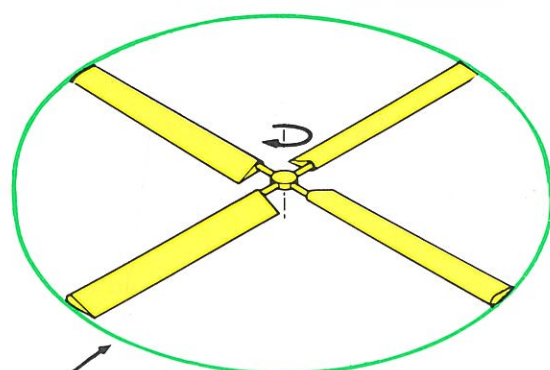
### THE ROTOR

NOTHING STOPS ME



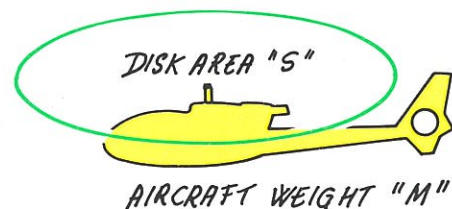
### LET US BEGIN WITH SOME DEFINITIONS

IF SOME OF THEM ARE NOT CLEAR, CONTINUE READING; THE EXPLANATION WILL BE GIVEN LATER



THE ROTOR DISK is the circle described by the blade tips.

THE DISK LOADING (OR WING LOADING) ...



..... is the ratio  $\frac{M}{S}$ , expressed in  $\text{Kg/m}^2$ .

THE SOLIDITY FACTOR " $\sigma$ "

is the ratio between the blade area ( $s$ ) and the disk area ( $S$ )

$$\sigma = \frac{s}{S}$$

Some actual values as an indicator.

Taking the DAUPHIN helicopter as an example :

- Disk area :  $S = 103.87 \text{ m}^2$
- Disk loading :  $\frac{M}{S} = \frac{2900}{103.87} = 27.91 \text{ Kg/m}^2$
- Blade area :  $2.012 \times 4 = 8.048 \text{ m}^2$ .
- Solidity factor :  $\sigma = \frac{s}{S} = \frac{8.048}{103.87} = 0.0774$

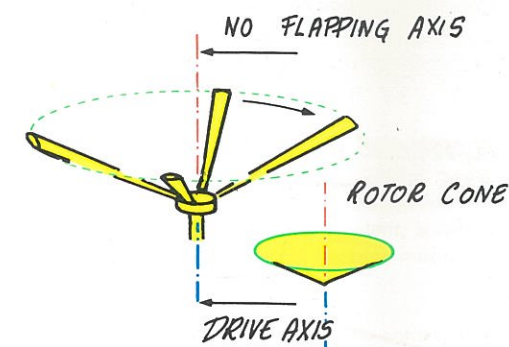
### THE ROTOR CONE

- The blades subjected to lift and centrifugal force describe a very wide cone : THE ROTOR CONE.

- The cone axis is called

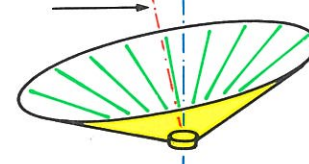
### THE NO-FLAPPING AXIS

In hover (and zero wind), the "no flapping" axis coincides with the DRIVE AXIS (rotor shaft). We will see that any cyclic variation in blade lift results in rotor cone tilt.



### ROTOR TILTING

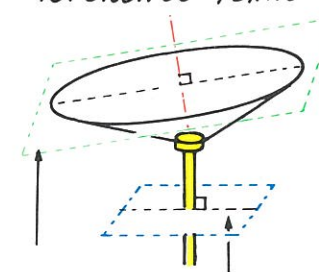
NO-FLAPPING AXIS IS TILTED



\* For this angle, the symbols are :

- $a_1$  = longitudinal tilting
- $b_1$  = lateral tilting.

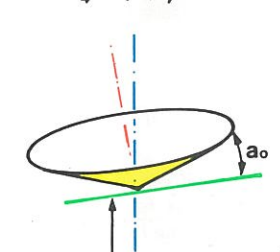
### REFERENCE PLANE



PLANE OF ROTATION (OR ROTOR PLANE) perpendicular to the no-flapping axis.

DRIVE PLANE, perpendicular to the rotor shaft.

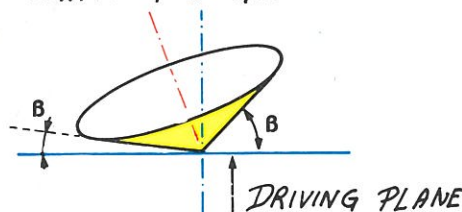
### CONING ANGLE



PLANE PARALLEL TO THE PLANE OF ROTATION

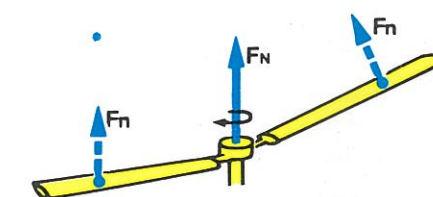
This is the angle between the blade and the plane of rotation (or with a plane parallel to the plane of rotation.)

### FLAPPING ANGLE

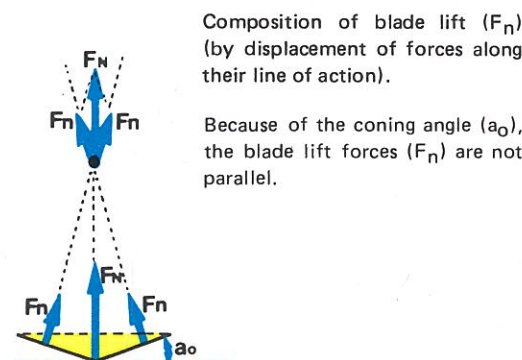


This is the angle between the blade and the drive plane. It may be seen that this angle varies over a complete blade revolution.

### THE TOTAL ROTOR LIFT ( $F_N$ )



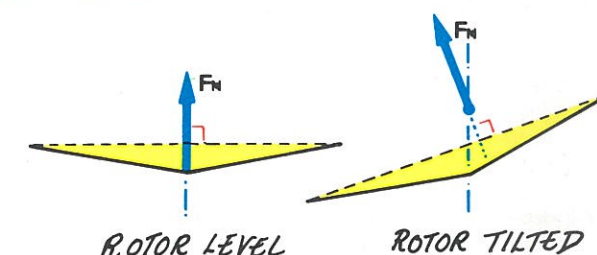
The TOTAL ROTOR LIFT ( $F_N$ ) is the resultant of the lift of blades ( $F_n$ ).



Composition of blade lift ( $F_n$ ) (by displacement of forces along their line of action).

Because of the coning angle ( $a_0$ ), the blade lift forces ( $F_n$ ) are not parallel.

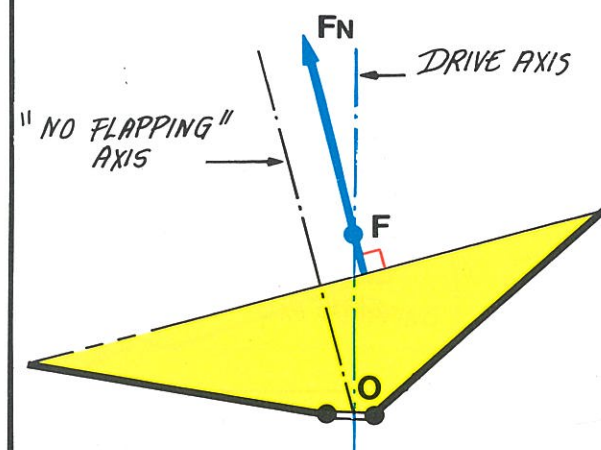
### DIRECTION OF ROTOR LIFT



LIFT ( $F_N$ ) IS ALWAYS PERPENDICULAR TO THE ROTOR PLANE OF ROTATION.



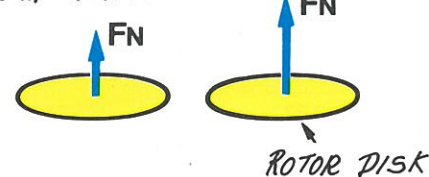
## ROTOR LIFT APPLICATION POINT



Lift ( $F_N$ ) is applied at a virtual point "F", called the AERODYNAMIC CENTER located above the center of rotation, "O". If the plane of rotation is perpendicular to the drive axis, lift ( $F_N$ ) coincides with this axis. If the plane of rotation is tilted,  $F_N$  intersects the drive axis. The aerodynamic centre "F" is located at the point of intersection.

HOW DOES " $F_N$ " VARY?

## • IN AMPLITUDE



## • IN DIRECTION



WE ARE GOING TO REVIEW THIS POINT

VARIATION OF  $F_N$  IN AMPLITUDE

- $F_N$ , resultant of blade lift forces ( $F_n$ ) varies with these forces, that is according to the terms of the following equation :

$$F_N = 1/2 \rho \cdot V_R^2 \cdot S \cdot C_z$$

- It is useful to establish (as we have already done) the variable and the constant terms.

## THE VARIABLE TERMS ARE :

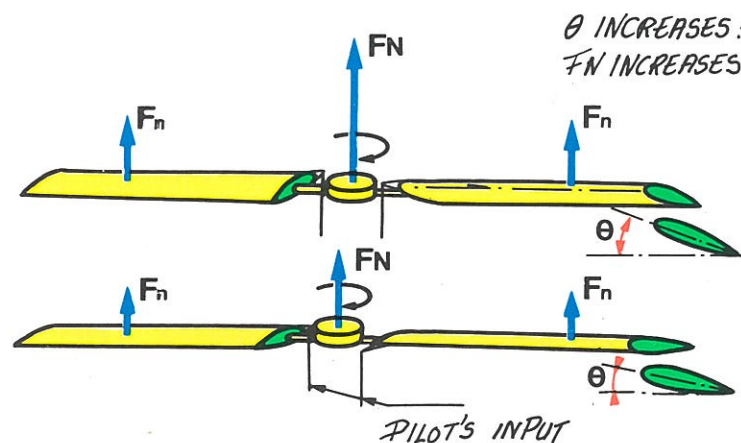
- The angle of attack ( $i$ ) (part of  $C_z$ )
- The air density  $\rho$
- The relative velocity ( $V_R$ ) of the air

## THE CONSTANT TERMS ARE :

- The blade area ( $S$ )
- The profile and surface condition (part of  $C_z$ ).

Only the variable terms  $i$ ,  $V_R$  and  $\rho$ , which have an effect on  $F_N$  amplitude, are of interest to us.

## EFFECT OF THE ANGLE OF ATTACK



$F_N$  varies with the angle of attack (and therefore with the pitch angle  $\theta$ ). Using a control, the pilot can vary simultaneously the pitch of each blade. This is the collective pitch variation, which we will come to later).

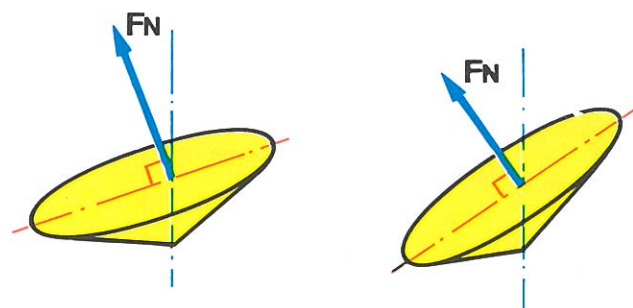
EFFECT OF THE RELATIVE VELOCITY ( $V_R$ ) AND DENSITY ( $\rho$ ) OF THE AIR

## REMEMBER THAT

- $F_N$  is proportional to  $V_R^2$ , which with the rotor operating at constant speed, depends on forward speed only. Therefore, a higher pitch ( $\theta$ ) is required in hover than in forward flight.
- Like  $\rho$ ,  $F_N$  decreases as the altitude or the temperature increases. To maintain constant lift, with increasing altitude or temperature, the pilot has to increase the blade pitch ( $\theta$ ).

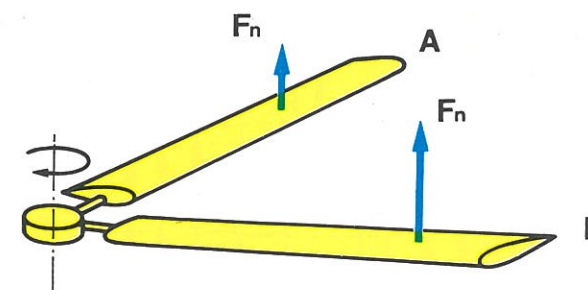
VARIATION IN DIRECTION OF  $F_N$ 

To obtain a variation in direction of  $F_N$ , it is necessary to tilt the rotor plane, since  $F_N$  is always perpendicular to that plane.



The tilting of the rotor plane changes the direction of  $F_N$ .

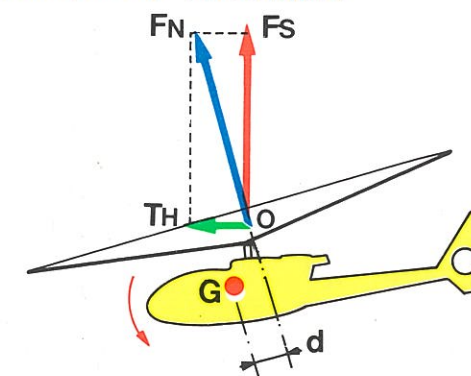
We will see that IN ALL CASES, rotor plane tilt is caused by a dissymmetry in the lift of blades at their various positions in azimuth.



## LIFT DISSYMMETRY MAY BE NATURAL OR CONTROLLED.

- Natural dissymmetry is due to variations in the relative wind velocity ( $V_R$ ). This dissymmetry, somewhat inconvenient, is compensated automatically by the blades's vertical flapping motion, (we are going to talk about this).
- The dissymmetry initiated by the pilot allows the control of the rotor plane tilt. The pilot can vary the blade pitch (and hence the lift) according to the blade position in azimuth. This is the cyclic pitch variation, which will be explained in detail.

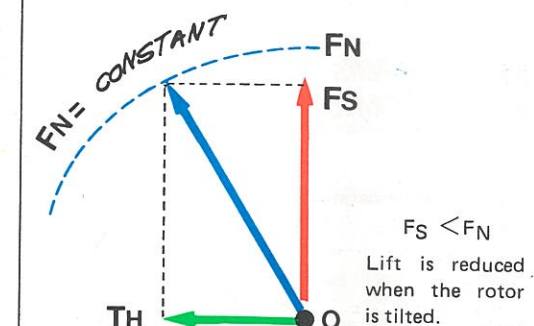
If when the blade moves from A to B, lift ( $F_n$ ) varies, there is a LIFT DISSYMMETRY.

ROTOR PLANE TILT AND BRIEF ANALYSIS OF  $F_N$  EFFECTS

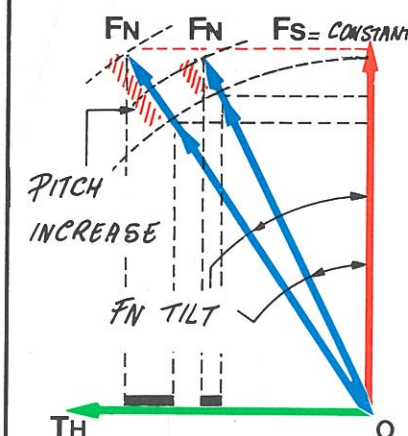
Here, the  $F_N$  moment is going to incline the aircraft in the nose down direction until the  $F_N$  action line passes through "G". Remember that the helicopter attitude practically follows the rotor plane.

The rotor plane tilting results in the inclination of  $F_N$  (which remains perpendicular to it).

- $F_N$  may be then broken down into a vertical lifting force ( $F_s$ ) which supports the aircraft and a horizontal force ( $T_H$ ) which ensures forward flight. It is to be noted that  $F_N$  creates, relative to the centre of gravity "G", a moment " $d \times F_N$ " tending to incline the aircraft.



Look at this diagram - For a constant lift ( $F_N$ ), any tilting of the rotor plane means a decrease in the vertical lift force (This force is at its maximum value when the rotor is level, as  $F_s = F_N$ ). Hence, the transition to forward flight entails a reduction of lift, that is a loss in altitude.



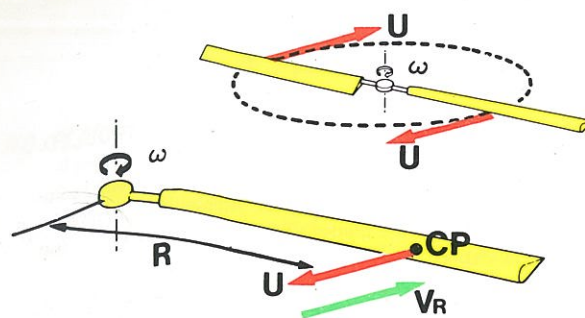
To maintain constant lift in spite of the  $F_N$  tilt, it is necessary to increase  $F_N$  by an amount proportional to the sine degree of tilt. The rotor lift increase is achieved by greater blade pitch. It is to be noted that in forward flight lift  $F_N$  increases with forward speed and the pilot may then reduce the pitch to keep a constant altitude.

## THIS BRINGS US BACK TO THE FLAPPING HINGES

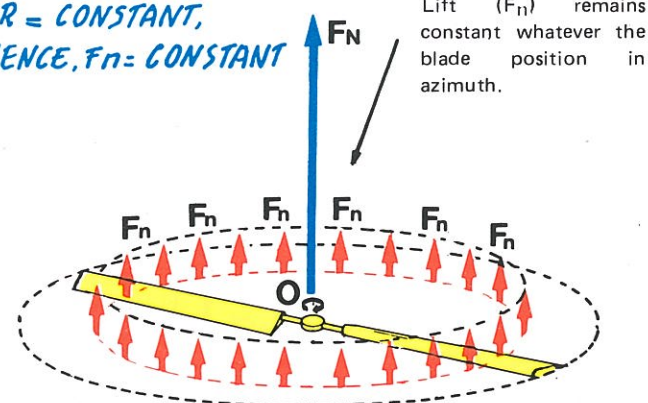
## LATERAL LIFT DISSYMMETRY

We shall now see that a FLAP RIGID rotor causes, in forward flight, a lateral lift dissymmetry which, makes it practically UNCONTROLLABLE and also generates very high ALTERNATING stresses which are incompatible with good fatigue strength in the materials used.



IN HOVERING FLIGHT  $V_R = \text{CONSTANT}$ 

In hover, the blade tip speed ( $U$ ) remains constant, whatever the blade position. At the center of pressure (CP) this speed " $U$ " is equal to  $\omega R$ , " $R$ " being the radius of the center of pressure trajectory (the rotor angular speed  $\omega$  is constant). The air velocity relative to the blade ( $V_R$ ) is obviously equal, but acting in the opposite direction, to the blade speed " $U$ ". Hence,  $V_R$  is constant.

IN HOVERING FLIGHT,  
 $V_R = \text{CONSTANT}$ ,  
HENCE,  $F_n = \text{CONSTANT}$ 

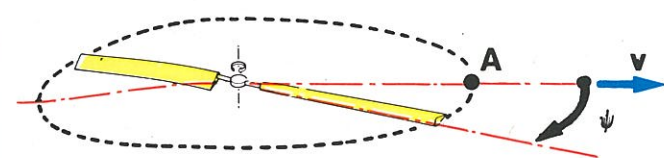
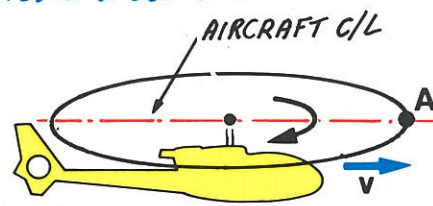
Lift ( $F_n$ ) remains constant whatever the blade position in azimuth.

Since  $V_R$  is constant, it is obvious that, for a given pitch angle, the blade lift ( $F_n$ ) is also constant whatever the blade position in azimuth. The lift ( $F_n$ ) of the various blades is symmetric and the resultant  $F_n$  (rotor lift) is applied at the center of rotation "O".

WHAT HAPPENS IN FORWARD FLIGHT  
WHEN THE ROTOR MOVES AT SPEED " $V$ "?

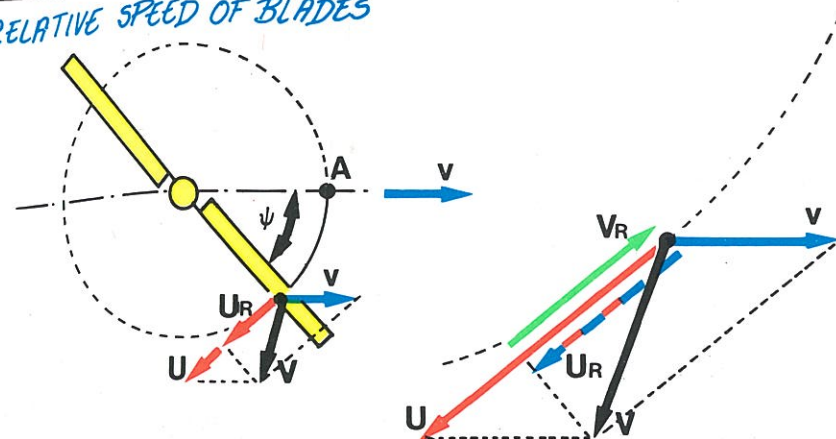
But first, some definitions.

Angle  $\psi$  = blade azimuth.

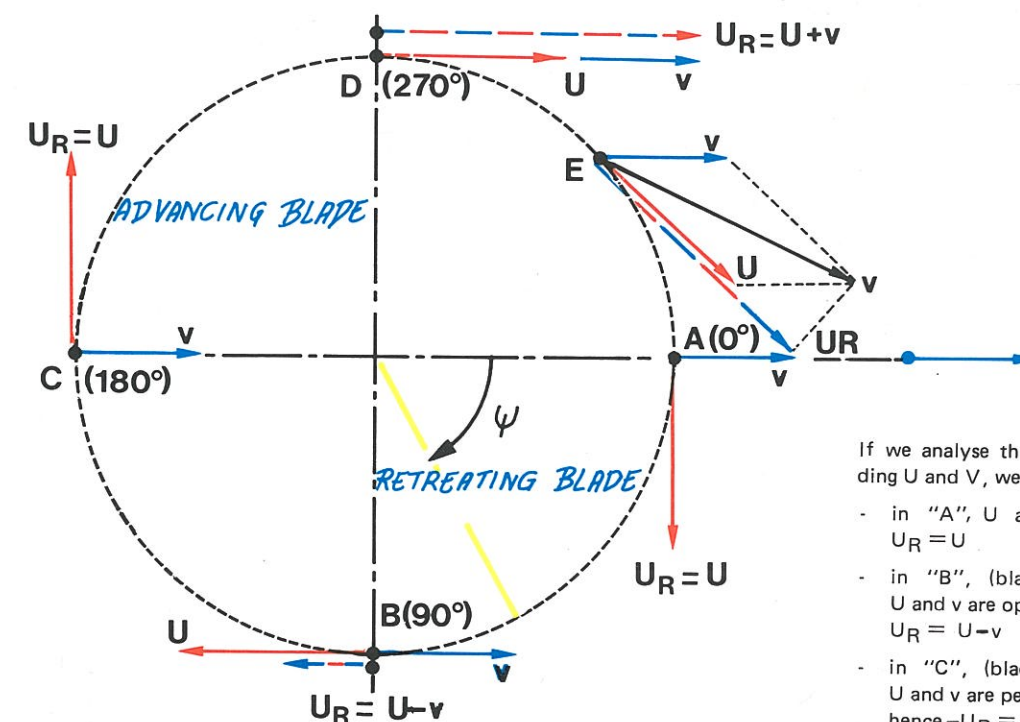


To study aerodynamic CYCLIC phenomena (that is, phenomena recurring regularly at each rotor revolution), it is useful to specify the blade position relative to starting point. The angle  $\psi$  will be used to state this position (also called "blade AZIMUTH").

## RELATIVE SPEED OF BLADES



In forward flight, the blade tip speed " $U$ " is compounded with the forward speed " $V$ ". The resultant speed " $V$ " has a tangential component " $U_R$ ", which is the relative blade tip speed. The relative air velocity  $V_R$  is, obviously, equal to this speed but opposite in direction. You will see that  $U_R$  varies according to  $\psi$  (blade azimuth).

VARIATION OF RELATIVE BLADE SPEED ( $U_R$ )  
ON A ROTOR IN FORWARD FLIGHT

DID SOMEBODY SAY I DID NOT UNDERSTAND?

If we analyse the variation of  $U_R$ , by compounding  $U$  and  $V$ , we find that:

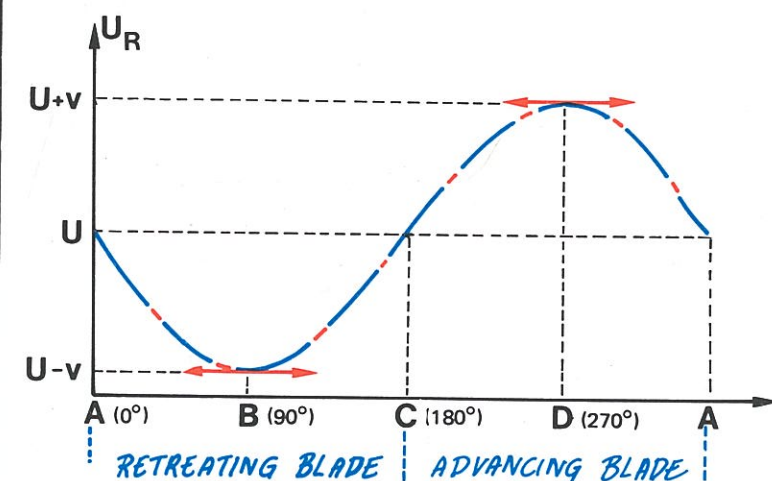
- in "A",  $U$  and  $v$  are perpendicular, hence  $U_R = U$
- in "B", (blade has moved 90°), velocities  $U$  and  $v$  are opposite  $U_R = U - v$
- in "C", (blade has moved 180°) velocities  $U$  and  $v$  are perpendicular: hence  $-U_R = U$
- in "D", (blade has moved 270°), velocities  $U$  and  $v$  are aligned and in the same direction, hence  $U_R = U + v$
- in "E", (any point between D and A):  $U < U_R < U + v$  therefore, from D to A, the velocity decreases.

It could be possible to plot the speeds point by point. But the 5 points analyzed are sufficient for understanding that:

- $U_R$  has a maximum value in D (advancing blade)
- $U_R$  has a minimum value in B (retreating blade)
- from D to B,  $U_R$  decreases
- from B to D,  $U_R$  increases
- $U_R$  has a mean value ( $u$ ) in A and B.

These results may be illustrated by a curve showing the continuous variation of  $U_R$  versus  $\psi$

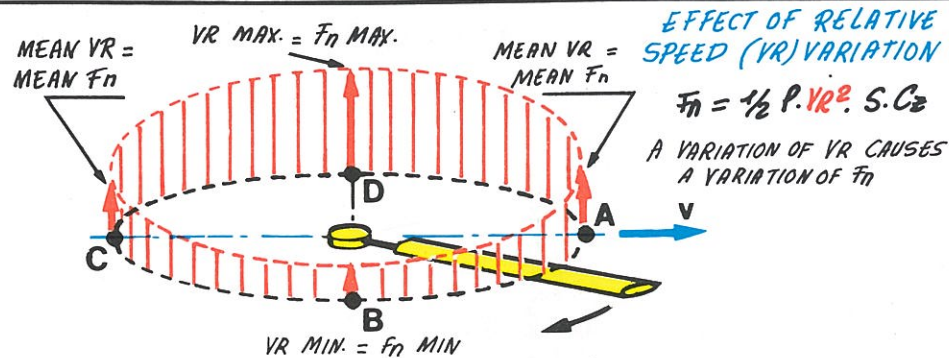
REMEMBER:  
 $U_R = V_R$





### RELATIVE SPEED VARIATION = CYCLIC VARIATION OF BLADE LIFT

We are going to review the effects of this lift variation on a ROTOR NOT ARTICULATED IN THE FLAPPING PLANE, and this will allow you to understand the imperative need for flapping hinges. Let us recall that a blade not articulated in the flapping plane cannot move (flap) upward under the action of the forces applied to it. It constitutes a rigid system with the rotor head and transmits to the latter the loads it is subjected to.

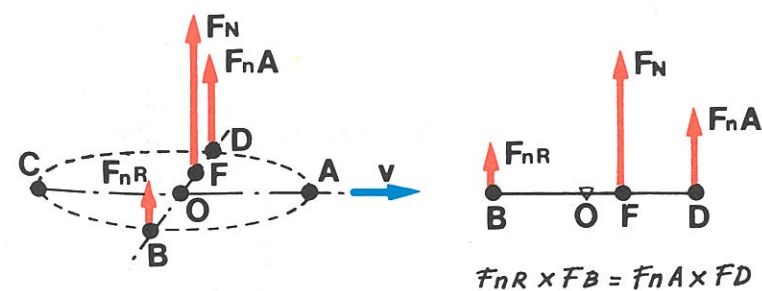


Let us follow one of the rotor blades, operating at speed "v" during a complete rotation, in forward flight.

- in "B", speed  $V_R$  is at its minimum value ( $V_R = U_R = U - v$ ), lift ( $F_n$ ) is minimum
- from B to D,  $F_n$  increases, it is at its maximum value in "D", where  $V_R$  is maximum ( $V_R = U_R = U + v$ ).
- from D to B,  $F_n$  decreases. In "C" and "A",  $F_n$  is at a mean value.

It can be seen that  $F_n$  varies regularly and that at every revolution it has the same value at the same azimuth. It is said that the variation of  $F_n$  is cyclic.

### FIRST EFFECT OF THE BLADE LIFT VARIATION ON A ROTOR NOT ARTICULATED IN THE FLAPPING PLANE.

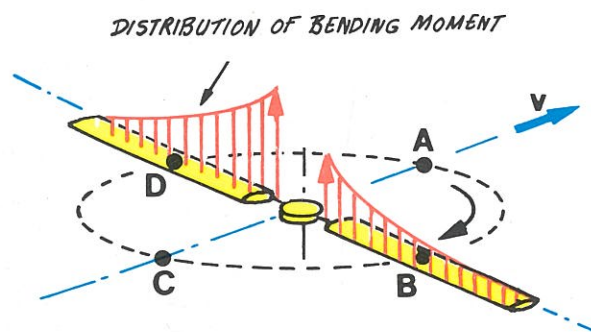


Lift ( $F_n$ ) variation creates dissymmetry, particularly at positions "B" (where  $F_n$  is minimum) and "D" (where  $F_n$  is maximum). Obviously in these conditions, the resultant  $F_n$  (rotor lift) is no longer applied at the center of rotation "O" but in "F" (advancing blade side). THE MOMENT OF " $F_n$ " IN RELATION TO "O" GENERATES A ROLLING MOTION: LATERAL TILTING OF THE ROTOR AND OF THE AIRCRAFT

### LATERAL LIFT DYSSYMMETRY GENERATES A ROLLING MOTION WHICH MAKES IT IMPOSSIBLE TO CONTROL A HELICOPTER EQUIPPED WITH A FLAP RIGID ROTOR

Note that the rolling motion increases as the forward speed (v), because the relative speed dissymmetry (hence, the lift dissymmetry) increases as the forward speed.

### SECOND EFFECT OF THE BLADE LIFT VARIATION ON A ROTOR NOT ARTICULATED IN THE FLAPPING PLANE

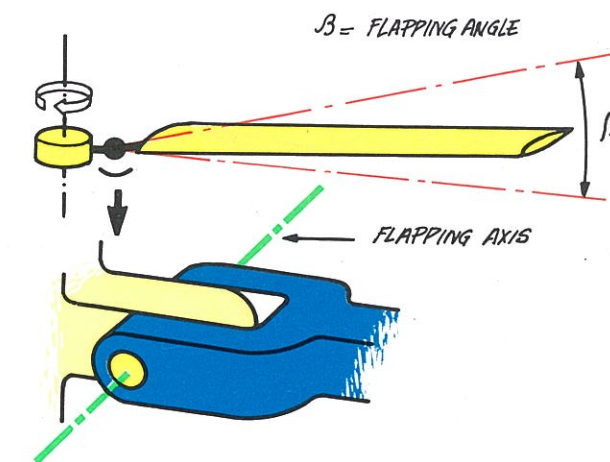


The lack of flapping hinges creates (as already stated) a very large bending moment at the blade root end. Things get worse when, in forward flight, the blade lift varies at every revolution. Let us follow a blade during its rotation. In "D", where lift  $F_n$  is maximum, the bending moment is also at its maximum value. In "B", where lift is minimum, the bending moment is minimum. This means that at every revolution the mechanical stresses, at the blade root end, are going to vary as blade lift " $F_n$ "..... from maximum to minimum to maximum. These stresses which reverse about a mean value are called ALTERNATING stresses.

Now, when there are alternating stresses we have FATIGUE of the materials and, therefore a RISK OF FAILURE. (we will come back to this).

### THE FLAPPING HINGE OR

### HOW TO REMEDY THE EFFECTS OF LATERAL LIFT DISSYMMETRY

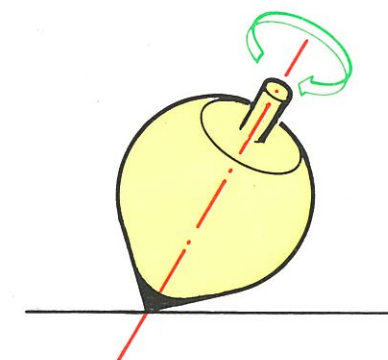


With the flapping hinge, the blade can MOVE in the vertical plane, that is go up or down under the action of the resultant of lift and centrifugal forces, with which it aligns itself (we have studied this). Likewise, we have seen that the flapping hinge cancels the bending moment at the blade root end.

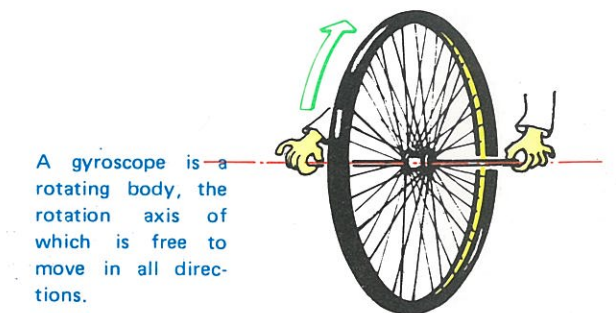
But, what is the effect of the flapping hinge on the rolling moment due to the lateral lift dissymmetry?

Here we must talk of the gyroscope. Before beginning the study of flapping, let us make a little digression. The blades of a rotor when subjected to a cause (speed or pitch variation) tending to modify their lift, behave like a gyroscope.

### THE BLADE'S VERTICAL FLAPPING CAUSES AN AUTOMATIC VARIATION OF THE BLADE PITCH WHICH COMPENSATES THE LATERAL LIFT VARIATION.



A SPINNING TOP IS A GYROSCOPE

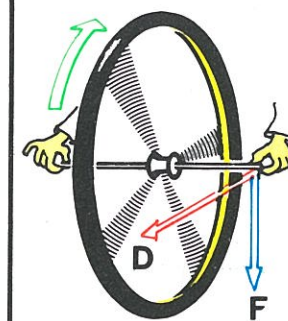


A bicycle wheel is a gyroscope, provided the hands holding the spindle leave it free to move in all directions.

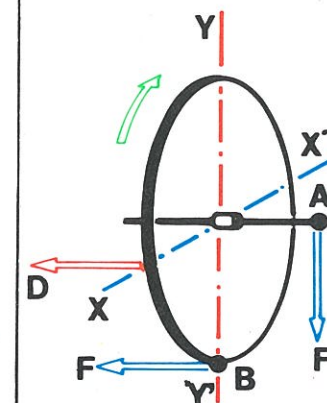
A gyroscope seems to have an independent spirit. It is a strange and provoking beast. It reacts unexpectedly when we attempt to change the direction of its axis.

The bicycle wheel, for example (of course, it should be rotating): If we attempt to tilt its axis by applying a force "F", a resistance is felt in that direction.

- The wheel does not obey. On the contrary, it reacts immediately, driving the hands holding the spindle in direction "D" which is perpendicular to the direction of force "F". It is just as if force "F" was acting in direction "D"



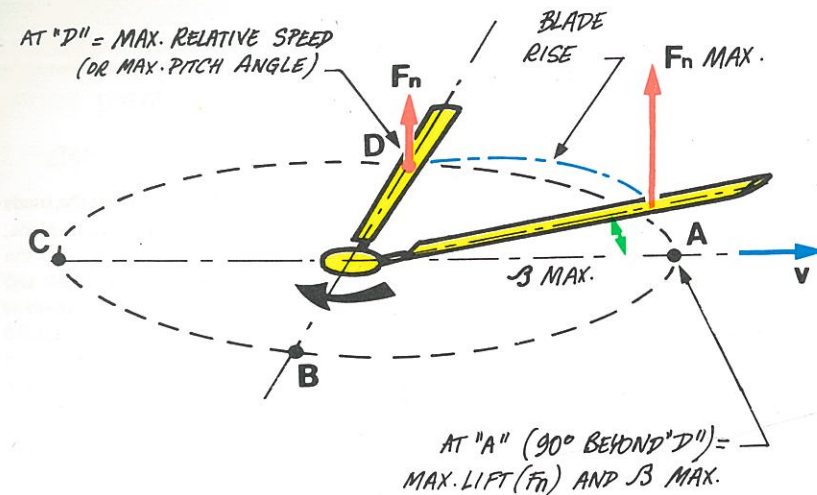
The axis displacement in direction "D" is called "precession". The phenomenon offsetting the effect (axis displacement) from its cause (force applied on the axis) is due to the gyroscopic inertia forces.



Let us examine this phenomenon:

- F is the action tending to tilt the wheel about the horizontal axis xx'. F may be applied in A or B (it is the same thing).
- D is the counter-reaction of the wheel which is going to rotate about the vertical axis YY' and not about XX' as it should.
- Both axes 'XX'-FF' are perpendicular to each other, hence, the counter-reaction (the effect) occurs (and always occurs) 90° AFTER the action (the cause).

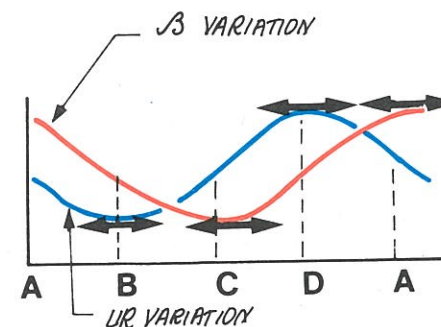
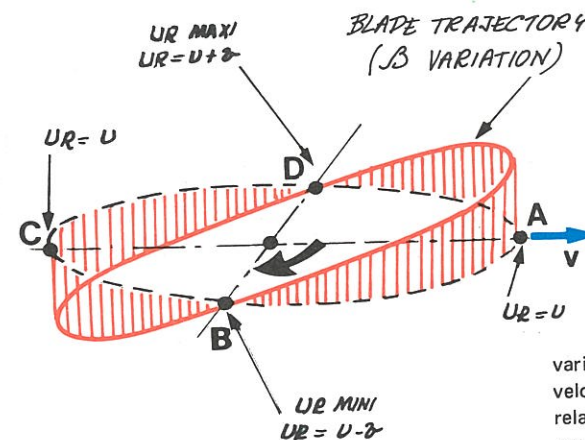




It is the same for a rotor blade which "reacts" 90° after the cause tending to change the lift. For example, if the relative speed (or pitch) is at the maximum value at "D" (this is the cause), the lift  $F_n$  (which is the effect) is not maximum at "D", but at "A", i. e. 90° beyond the point of maximum speed (or pitch). The blade being articulated in the flapping plane, the point of maximum lift "A" corresponds to the maximum blade rise (maximum flapping angle  $\beta$ ). From D to A, the blade follows a rising trajectory.

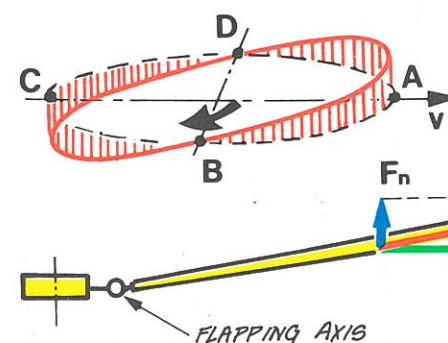
### TRAJECTORY OF BLADES SUBJECTED TO LATERAL LIFT VARIATION

If you have understood this simple principle: an offset of 90° between cause and effect — the helicopter rotor has no longer any secret for you (well! almost none). Finished the brain racking, and while it is warm...let us continue.



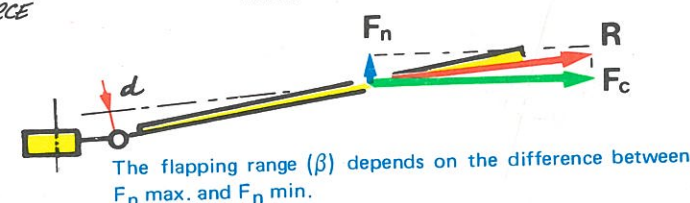
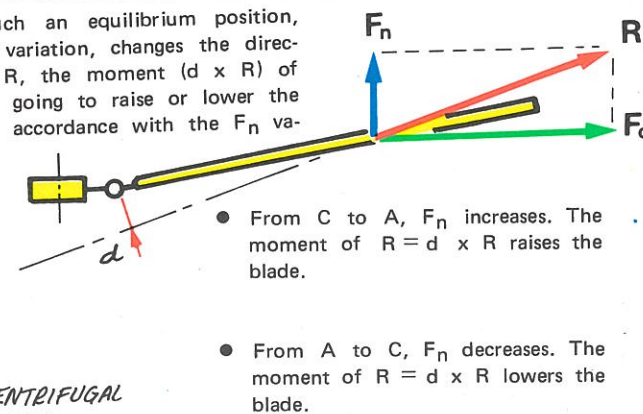
We have seen that from D to B, the velocity goes from a maximum to a minimum value and from B to D, it varies from minimum to maximum value. Effect of velocity variation: the blade rise (delayed over 90° in relation to the cause: velocity) goes through a maximum at A and through a minimum at C — From C to A, the blades rises — from A to C, it descends.

### ANALYSIS OF BLADE FLAPPING

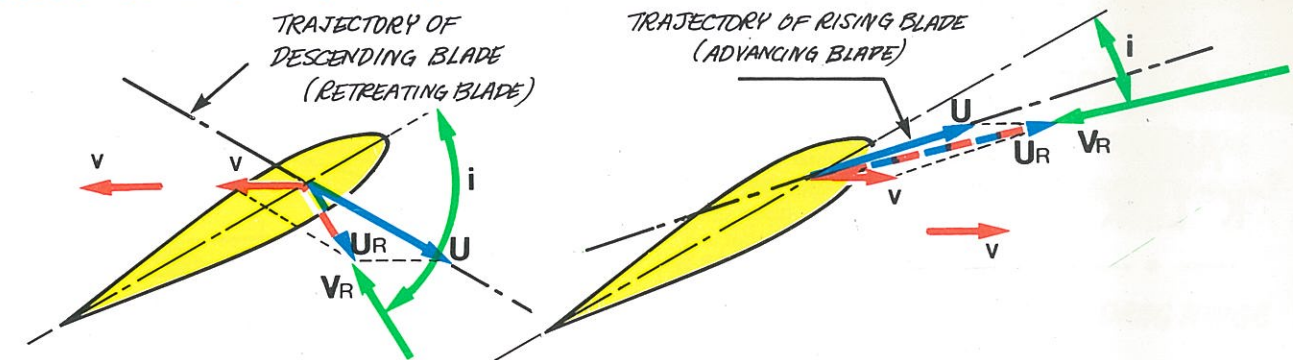


Do you remember the blade equilibrium conditions? For a given value of  $F_n$ , the flapping motion stops when R (resultant of  $F_n$  and centrifugal force  $F_c$ ) passes through the flapping axis. The moment of R is then equal to zero.

From such an equilibrium position, any  $F_n$  variation, changes the direction of R, the moment ( $d \times R$ ) of which is going to raise or lower the blade in accordance with the  $F_n$  variation.



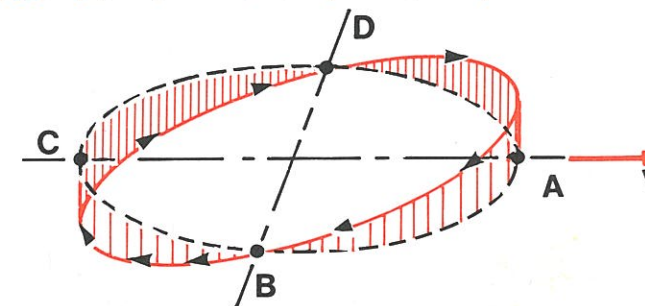
### EFFECT OF FLAPPING ON BLADE PITCH



When the blade FLAPS, its tangential speed "U" (of course, aligned with the rising or descending trajectory) forms an angle with the forward speed "V", which is always horizontal.

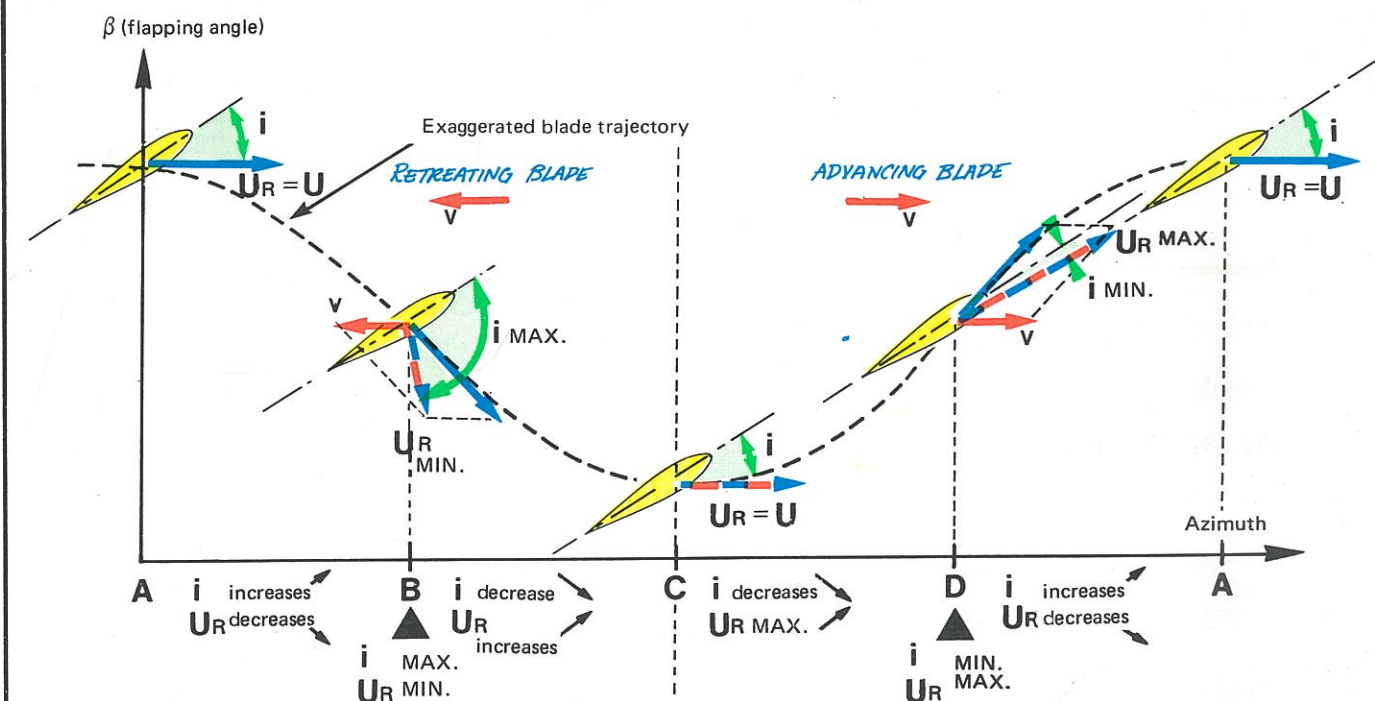
The resultant relative speed  $U_R$  defines in direction and magnitude the relative wind speed  $V_R$  which is of equal value but opposite. The direction of  $U_R$  (or  $V_R$ ) determines the blade angle of attack ( $i$ ). It may be seen already that the angle of attack of the descending blade (retreating blade) is greater than that of the rising blade (advancing blade).

### PITCH VARIATION ACCORDING TO FLAPPING



If we follow a blade over a complete revolution, we note that the angle of attack "i".

- is MAXIMUM at point "B", where velocity  $U_R$  is at the MINIMUM value.
- is MINIMUM at point "D", where velocity  $U_R$  is at the MAXIMUM value.
- increases progressively from D to B.
- decreases progressively from B to D.



It is noted that "i" and  $U_R$  always vary in opposite direction: if "i" increases,  $U_R$  decreases (and inversely). The blade lift ( $F_n$ ) varying in the same direction as "i" and  $U_R$ , the effect of the "i" and  $U_R$  variations is cancelled: EFFECT OF "i" + EFFECT OF  $U_R$  = ZERO. BLADE LIFT IS CONSTANT IN AZIMUTH. The flapping hinges cancel the lateral lift dissymmetry.



## DRAG HINGE AND "K" LINK

or the harmful effects of blade flapping.

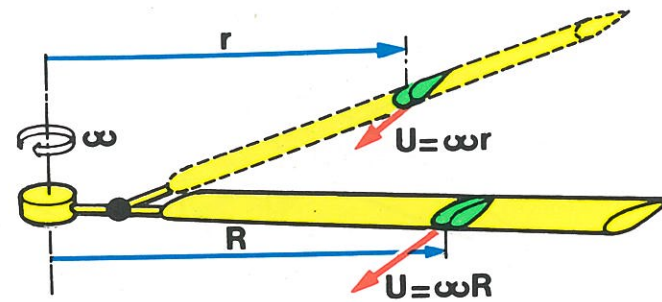
Blade flapping is a necessary evil :

- necessary because as we have seen, we cannot do without it. Without flapping : excessive vertical bending stresses at blade root end and a lateral lift dissymmetry making the helicopter uncontrollable.

- an evil, since blade flapping creates, at the blade root end, in the rotation plane, alternating horizontal stresses leading to FATIGUE.

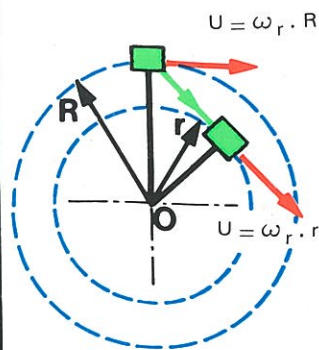
We are going to review these stresses and their remedy : The DRAG HINGE. We will also talk of a way to allow some reduction in flapping : the "K" LINK

### EFFECT OF FLAPPING ON A BLADE ELEMENT TANGENTIAL VELOCITY "U"



When a blade FLAPS, the circular trajectory of any blade element is modified. Its radius decreases when the blade rises (it changes from R to r) or increases when the blade descends (it changes from r to R). The tangential velocity "U" varies as the radius. It changes from  $U = \omega R$  to  $U = \omega r$  when the blade rises and from  $U = \omega r$  to  $U = \omega R$  when the blade descends.

### EFFECT OF VARIATION OF VELOCITY "U" WHEN THE BLADE RISES.



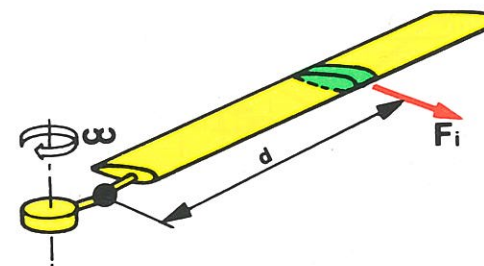
DUE TO INERTIA, THE BLADE ELEMENT TENDS TO MAINTAIN ITS INITIAL VELOCITY "U" DURING THE TRAJECTORY CHANGE

- When the blade rises, the blade element changes from the trajectory having a radius R to that of radius "r". It tends to maintain its initial velocity  $U = \omega R$ , that is to assume a higher angular velocity  $\omega_r$  so that

$$\omega_r \cdot R = \omega_r \cdot r$$

$$\omega_r > \omega$$

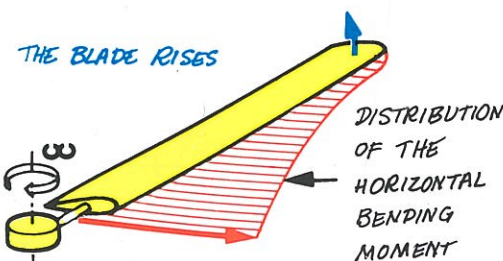
BUT...



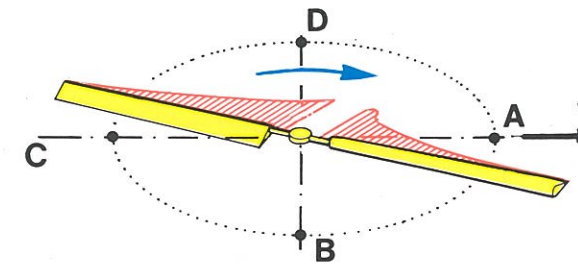
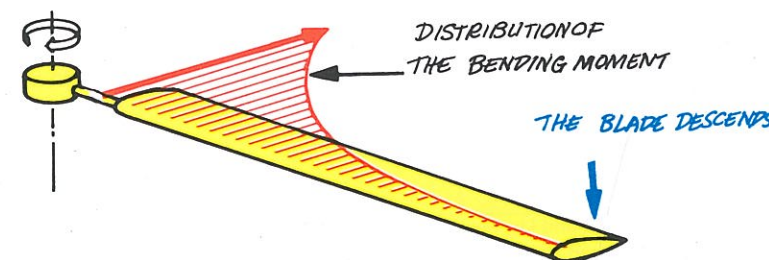
.....The blade element is LINKED rigidly to the blade and rotor both having a constant velocity " $\omega$ ". Therefore, its angular velocity cannot vary and the inertia force " $F_i$ " (tending to increase the angular velocity), which cannot act as a dynamic force becomes a static load generating a maximum bending moment at the blade root ( $M = d \cdot F_i$ ).

### EFFECT OF VARIATION OF VELOCITY "U" WHEN BLADE DESCENDS

The same reasoning shows that when a blade descends, the trajectory radius of the blade element increases (it changes from "r" to "R") and the angular velocity tends to decrease. Therefore, there is an inertia force " $F_i$ " and a bending moment tending to twist the blade in a direction opposite to the direction of rotation.



Thus, there is an inertia force  $F_i$  acting on each blade element. These forces create a resultant bending moment tending to twist the blade in the direction of rotation.



Thus a blade making a complete revolution is subjected :

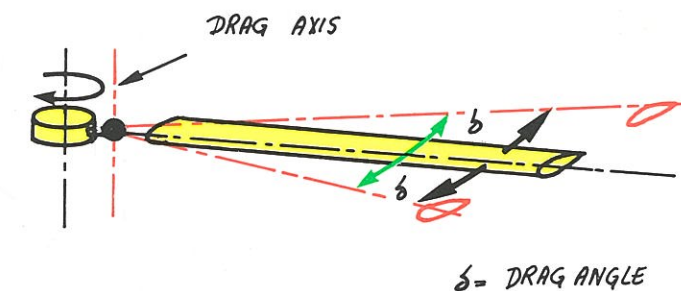
- from C to A, when it is rising (advancing blade), to a bending moment directed forward.
- from A to C, when it is descending (retreating blade) to a bending moment directed rearward.

This result is ALTERNATING bending loads which generate fatigue, particularly at the blade root end where stresses are maximum .

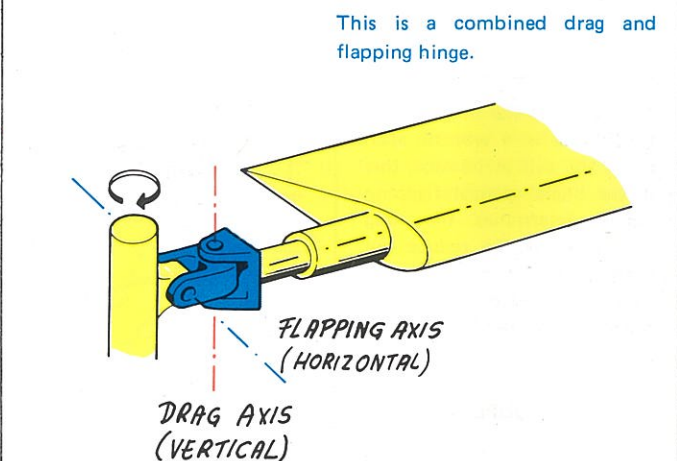
THE ALTERNATING INERTIA FORCES CAUSED BY THE BLADE'S VERTICAL FLAPPING, AND WHICH ACT ON THE BLADES IN THE PLANE OF ROTATION, ARE CALLED CORIOLIS FORCES

HOW CAN WE CANCEL THE EFFECT OF THE CORIOLIS FORCES?

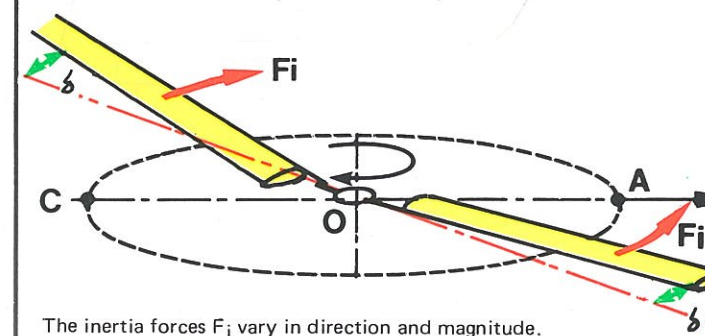
— • —  
THE DRAG HINGE



The drag hinge allows the blade, on which CORIOLIS forces are acting, to oscillate horizontally about a mean position. This degree of freedom cancels the bending moment at the blade root end.



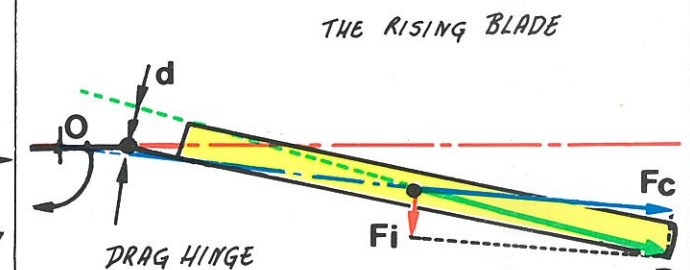
### MECHANICS OF DRAG OSCILLATIONS



The inertia forces  $F_i$  vary in direction and magnitude.

- From C to A, the blade rises. Inertia force " $F_i$ " acting in the direction of rotation, causes the blade to oscillate in the forward direction.
- From A to C, the blade descends. Inertia force " $F_i$ ", acting in the opposite direction to the direction of rotation, causes the blade to oscillate towards the rear.
- At A and C, the blade is in a mean position ( $F_i = 0$  ;  $\delta = 0$ )

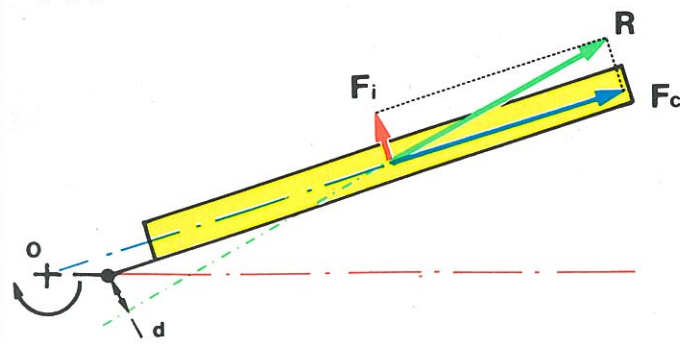
### RANGE OF DRAG OSCILLATIONS



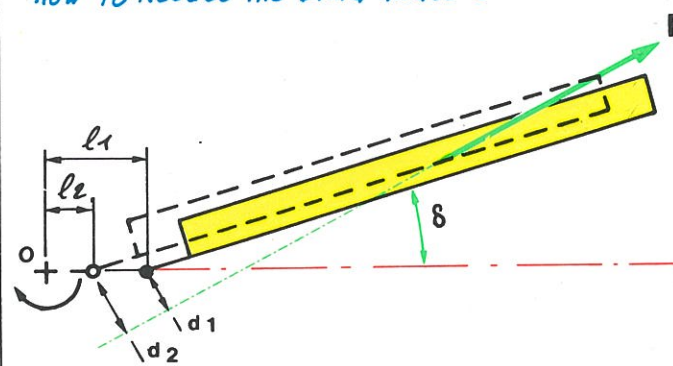
In the plane of rotation, the blade is subjected to centrifugal force ( $F_c$ ), of constant magnitude and inertia force ( $F_i$ ) varying in direction and magnitude. The resultant "R" of these forces generates a moment  $d \times R$  which causes the blade to oscillate in the forward direction. The oscillation stops when "R" passes through the drag hinge. The moment of R is then equal to zero.



## THE DESCENDING BLADE

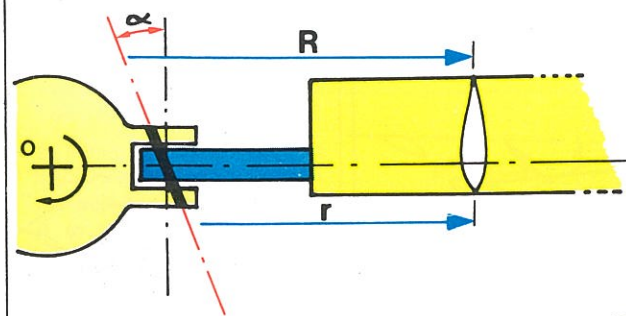


Likewise, when the blade is descending, the oscillation stops when the moment of R is equal to zero ( $d=0$ ).

HOW TO REDUCE THE DRAG ANGLE  $\delta$ 

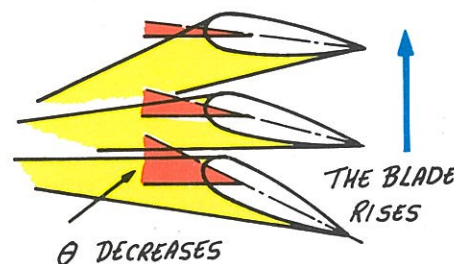
The drag hinge position relative to the centre of rotation "O" (offset "l") determines the value of  $\delta$ . In fact, the smaller "l" the greater is  $\delta$ , since the lever arm (d) of resultant R varies in the opposite direction to "l". It is a way of reducing the magnitude of the alternating drag oscillations which, by disturbing the rotor equilibrium, generate large horizontal vibrations.

## THE "K" COUPLING



It is said that there is a "K" coupling when the flapping axis is not perpendicular to the blade longitudinal axis but is set at an angle  $\alpha$  to the perpendicular so that when the blade rises, the pitch angle (hence, the angle of attack) decreases, reducing the blade lift ( $F_n$ ), and hence the blade rise  $\beta$ .

When the blade rises, the trailing edge of a blade section describes an arc, having a radius R, while the leading edge moves over a smaller arc (of radius "r"). The airfoil tilts forward,  $\theta$  decreases.

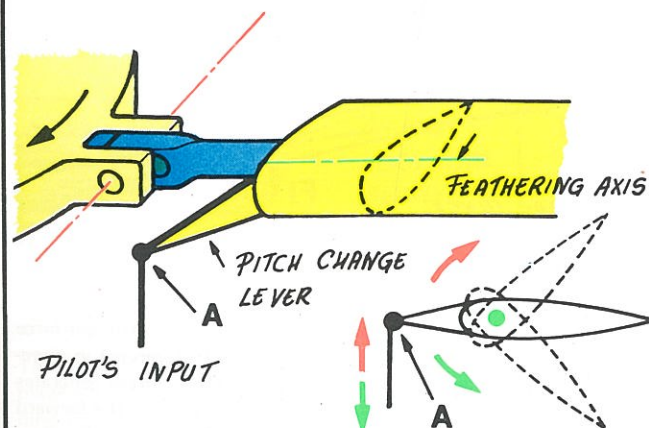


To attenuate the drag oscillation there is a way of attacking the evil at its root, this is the blade vertical flapping which determines the drag inertia forces. To reduce the drag inertia forces, it is sufficient to reduce the flapping range  $\beta$ . This is achieved with the

## "K" COUPLING

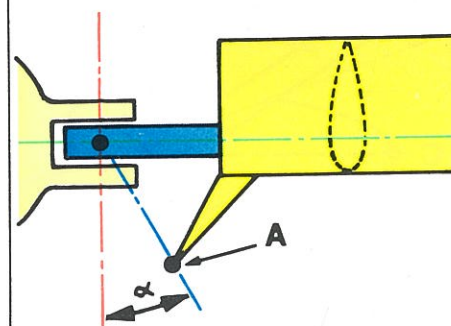
## An other form of "K" coupling.

The same result is achieved by pitch control.



The blade, activated by a pitch change lever controlled by the pilot, can rotate around its longitudinal axis (feathering axis).

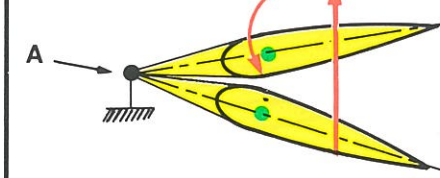
Actuation of the pitch change lever modifies the pitch angle value. Point A is fixed, unless there is pilot input.



If point A is offset relative to the flapping axis (making an angle  $\alpha$  with this axis) there is a pitch/flapping coupling ("K" coupling).

## WHEN THE BLADE RISES ...

## ... THE PITCH DECREASES



In fact, point A being fixed, the rising blade is going to rotate about its feathering hinge in the pitch decrease direction.

THE MAIN ROTOR... THE MAIN ROTOR... THAT IS THE ONLY ONE MENTIONED WHAT ABOUT THE TAIL ROTOR?



My dear AERODYNAMIX, for the tail rotor it is the same thing, except :  
 - It operates in a vertical plane,  
 - the forces involved (and the stresses) are much smaller.  
 - it has flapping hinges (the "K" coupling is sufficient to limit the stresses, drag wise, to an acceptable level),  
 - it has a collective pitch control only (no cyclic pitch variation)  
 But, do not be sorry, AERODYNAMIX, we will come back to the role of the tail rotor.

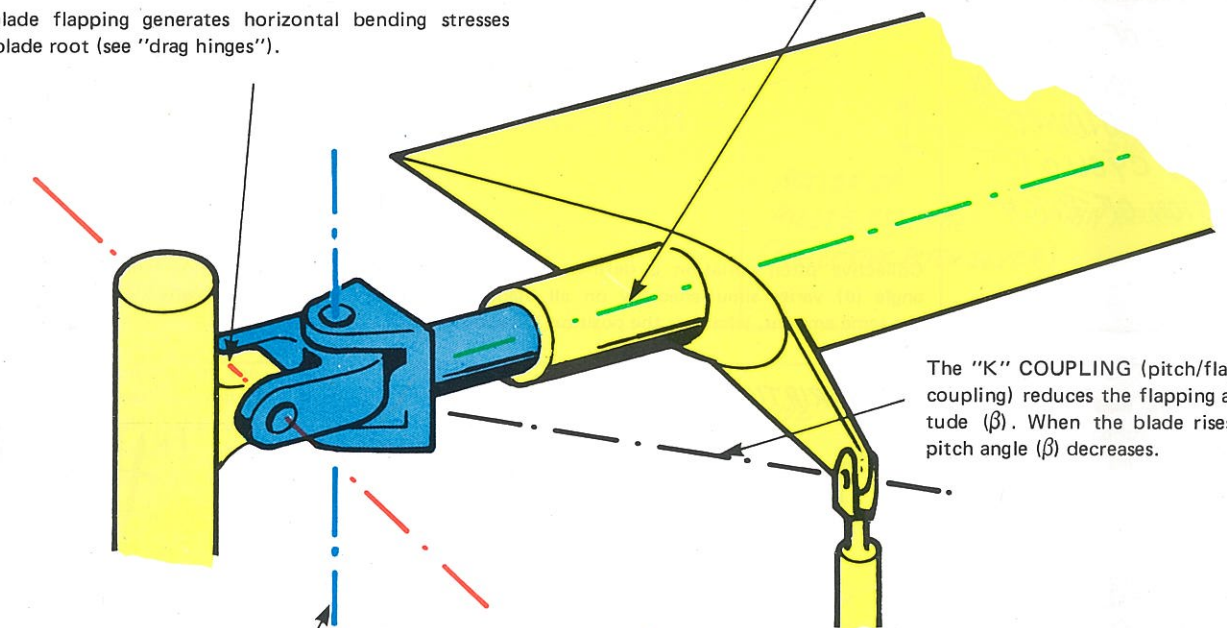
## TO CONCLUDE:

## THE FLAPPING HINGE :

- cancels the vertical bending stresses at the blade root.
- in forward flight, compensates the lift dissymmetry between advancing and retreating blades.

But, blade flapping generates horizontal bending stresses at the blade root (see "drag hinges").

Using the FEATHERING HINGE, it is possible to change the pitch angle by rotating the blade around its longitudinal axis (or feathering axis). This is under the pilot's control.



The "K" COUPLING (pitch/flapping coupling) reduces the flapping amplitude ( $\beta$ ). When the blade rises, the pitch angle ( $\beta$ ) decreases.

## THE DRAG HINGE

- cancels the horizontal stresses resulting from blade flapping.

But, the alternating blade oscillations, about the drag axis, upset rotor equilibrium (hence, vibrations). To reduce the blade drag angle ( $\delta$ ), one solution is to reduce the flapping angle ( $\beta$ ) which is the cause (see "K" COUPLING).

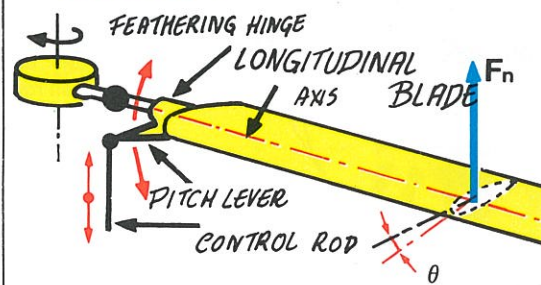


## 4. ROTOR LIFT CONTROL

OR THE  
CONTROLLED  
VARIATION  
OF  
BLADE PITCH  
ANGLE

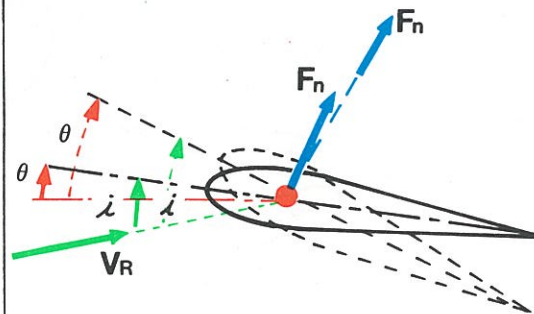
Whether Aerodynamix likes it or not, we will again talk of the main rotor.

### GENERAL



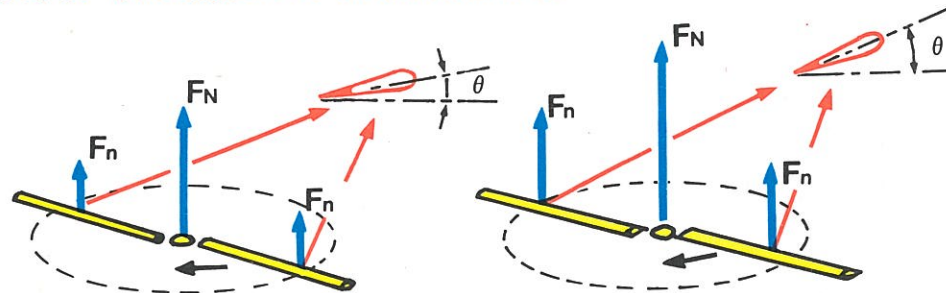
We have seen that the pilot has only one means of controlling rotor lift in magnitude and direction.

CHANGING PITCH ( $\theta$ ) through rotation of the blade around its longitudinal axis.



Variation of pitch  $\theta$  = variation of angle of attack  
 $i$  = variation of lift  $F_N$ .  
These three values vary together.

### PRINCIPLE OF COLLECTIVE PITCH VARIATION

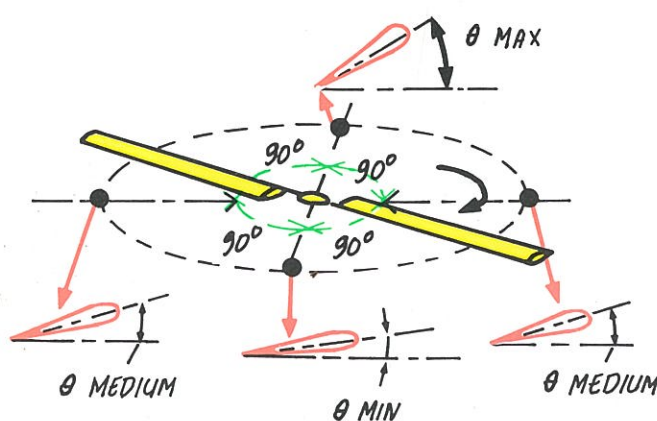


Collective pitch variation is defined when pitch angle ( $\theta$ ) varies simultaneously on all blades by the same amount, whatever the position in azimuth

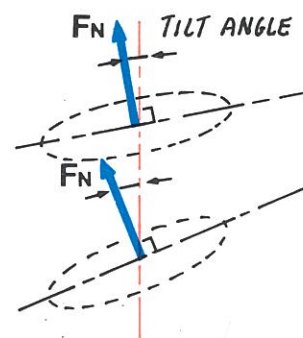
Collective pitch variation tends to vary the magnitude of  $F_N$  but has no effect on the direction.

THE CONTROL OF ROTOR ( $F_N$ ) AMPLITUDE IS OBTAINED BY THE COLLECTIVE VARIATION OF PITCH  
THE DIRECTION CONTROL OF  $F_N$  IS OBTAINED THROUGH CYCLIC VARIATION OF PITCH

### PRINCIPLE OF CYCLIC PITCH VARIATION

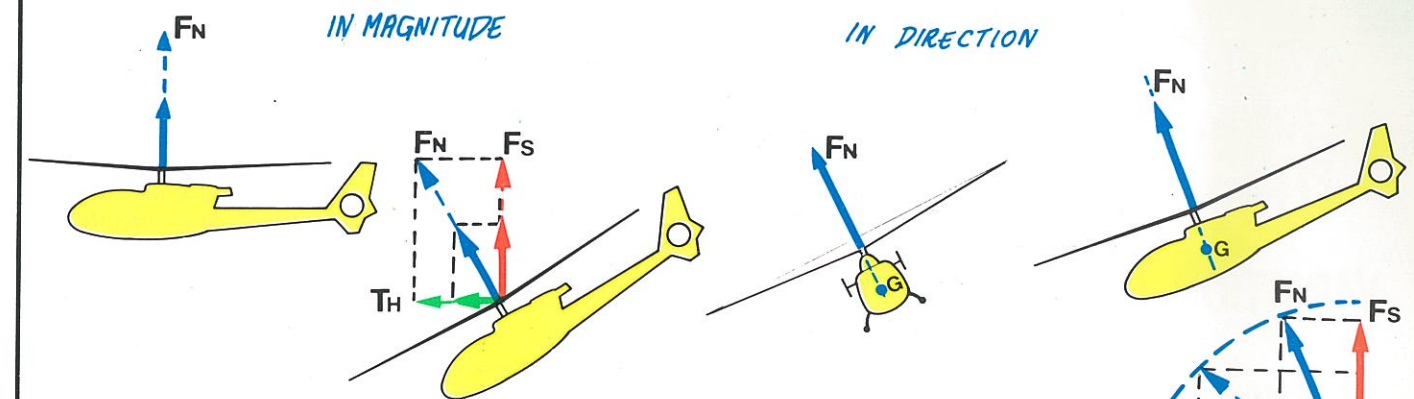


There is cyclic pitch variation when pitch angle  $\theta$  varies in relation to azimuth from a maximum to a minimum value over a complete revolution of a blade (for each blade). The extreme values are obtained at opposite azimuth. The cyclic variation of pitch (controlled by the pilot) leads obviously to a cyclic variation of blade lift. The plane of rotation of the rotor becomes more inclined as the difference  $\theta_{\max} - \theta_{\min}$  increases.



The cyclic pitch variation changes the direction of  $F_N$  (which remains normal to the plane of rotation) but has no effect on its magnitude.

### WHY MUST $F_N$ VARY?



The variation of  $F_N$  magnitude allows control of helicopter altitude and speed.

The variation of  $F_N$  DIRECTION allows control of aircraft attitude and of forward flight vector  $T_H$  magnitude and direction.

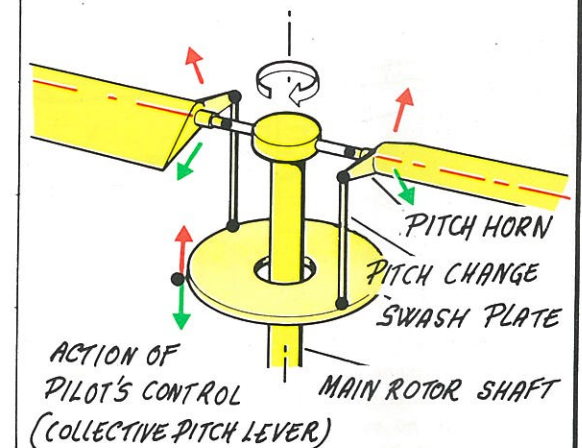
WELL, I DID NOT  
QUITE GET IT... EVERYTHING  
VARIES... EVERYTHING VARIES,  
I'M ALL MIXED UP!!



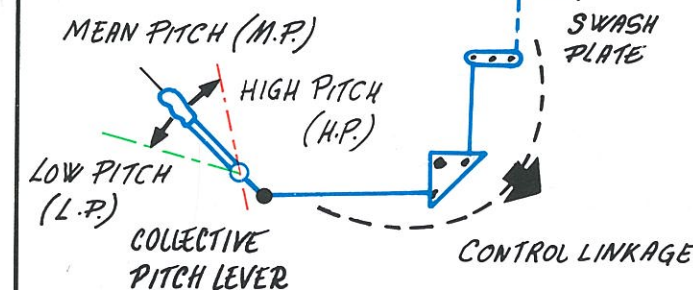
DON'T BE SO HOT HEADED AERODYNAMIX  
YOU ARE GOING TOO FAST... BE PATIENT...  
AND READ WHAT FOLLOWS!

### COLLECTIVE PITCH $\theta$ VARIATION

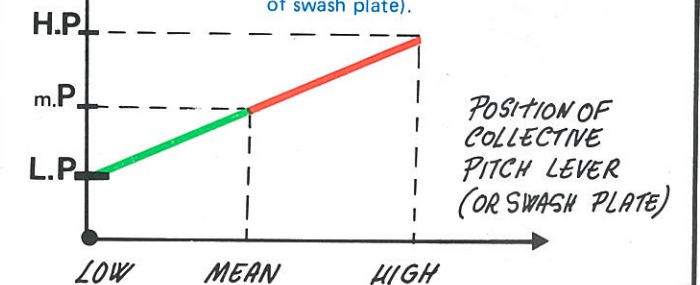
The mechanics of the collective pitch variation. The principle is very simple.



The swash plate, actuated by the collective pitch lever (controlled by the pilot) slides along the main rotor shaft, thus causing pitch variation. The blade pitch angle increases or decreases by the same value and at the same time on all blades.



COLLECTIVE  $\theta$  This diagram shows how the collective pitch  $\theta$  varies as the control is operated. (Position of collective pitch of lever or of swash plate).



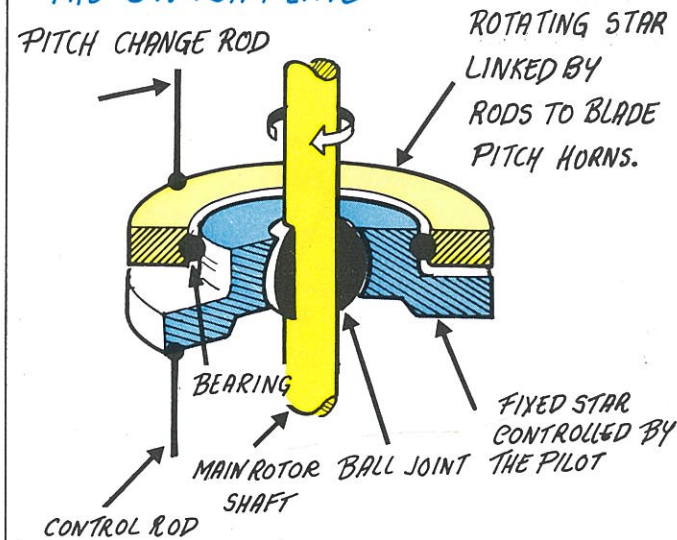
MAGNITUDE OF COLLECTIVE PITCH

L.P. =  $6^\circ$   
H.P. =  $18^\circ$



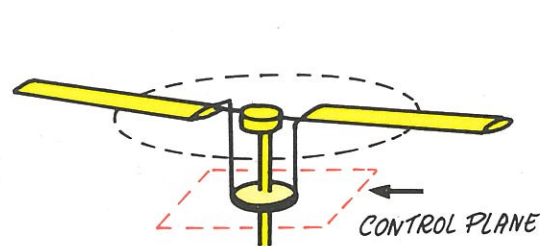
# CYCLIC PITCH VARIATION ( $\theta$ CYCL.)

## THE SWASH PLATE



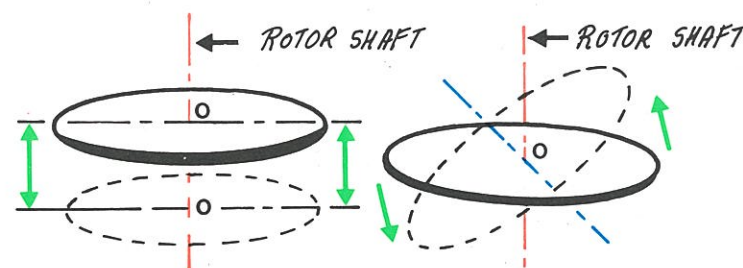
The swash plate is the essential component for cyclic pitch variation. In fact, this is a control plate which not only slides along the rotor shaft (when the collective pitch lever is operated), but may oscillate IN ALL DIRECTIONS about its spherical bearing. The oscillations of the swash plate, controlled by the pilot (CYCLIC STICK) are the basis of cyclic pitch variation.

## THE CONTROL PLANE



The control plane is the plane in which the swash plate is contained. When the swash plate is normal to the main rotor shaft, no cyclic variation occurs. So the control plane has to be tilted to generate a cyclic variation.

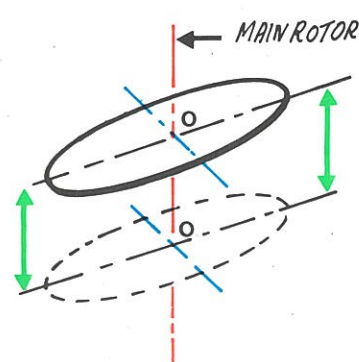
## MOVEMENT OF SWASH PLATE



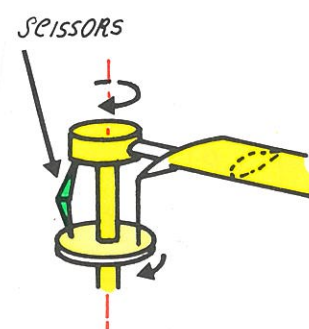
Collective pitch variation : controlled by the collective pitch lever, the swash plate slides along its own axis. No cyclic variation occurs; the control plane remains normal to the rotor shaft.

Controlled from the cyclic stick, the swash plate oscillates about its centre "O". The control plane is no longer normal to the rotor shaft : cyclic variation occurs.

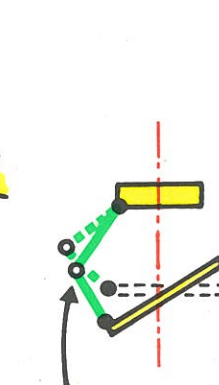
## MECHANICS OF CYCLIC PITCH VARIATION



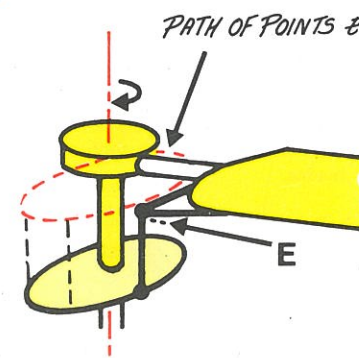
COMBINED MOVEMENTS : This is the most usual case. The collective pitch variation is added onto the cyclic variation.



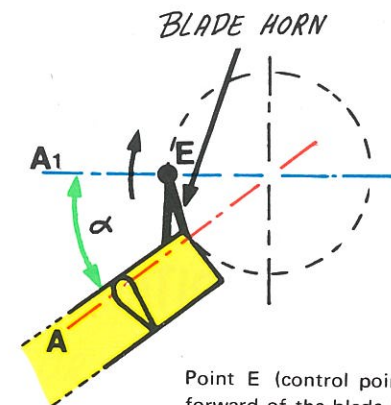
The rotating star of the swash plate is driven in rotation by the rotor hub through scissors.



The scissors center hinge allows freedom of movement to the swash plate.

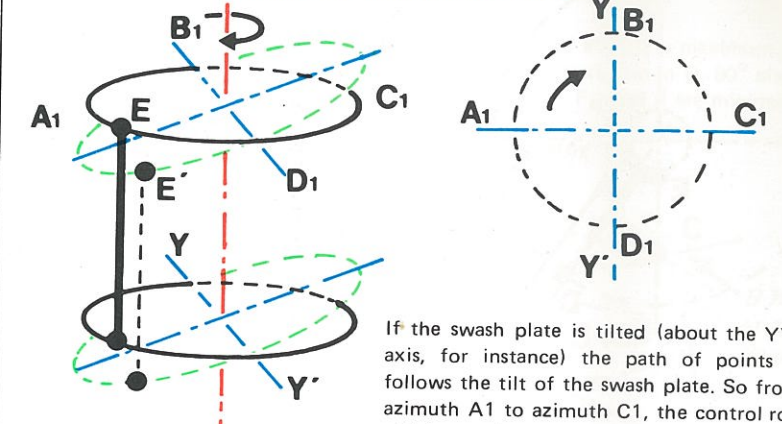


Each blade horn is connected to the swash plate by a pitch change rod. It can be seen that point E follows a path controlled by the tilting of the swash plate.

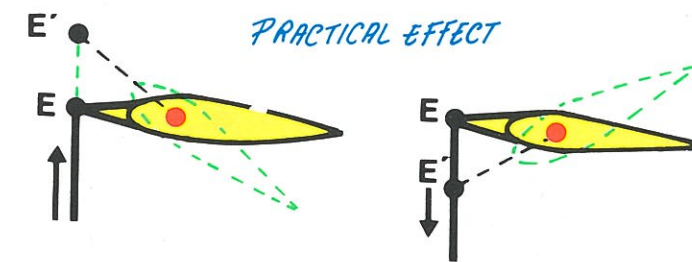


Point E (control point) is offset forward of the blade by means of the blade horn. So when the blade is said, in azimuth A1 - As a result, an action in A1 on blade horn produces a pitch variation in the blade located in A.

## EFFECT OF SWASH PLATE TILT ON THE PATH OF CONTROL POINT E



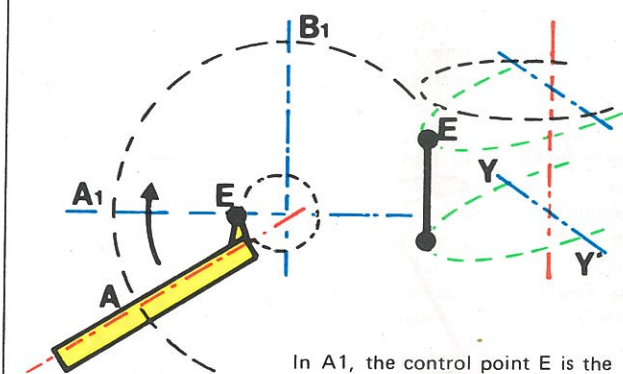
If the swash plate is tilted (about the YY' axis, for instance) the path of points E follows the tilt of the swash plate. So from azimuth A1 to azimuth C1, the control rod will be pushed UPWARDS. Conversely, it will be pulled down from C1 to A1. In B1 and D1 the control rods retain their initial position.



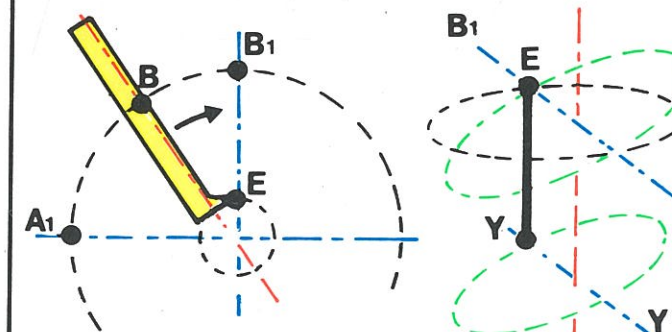
From A1 to C1 the control rods are pushed upwards : THE PITCH INCREASES  
From C1 to A1 the control rods are pulled downwards : THE PITCH DECREASES

THE TILT OF THE SWASH PLATE PRODUCES A CYCLIC PITCH VARIATION

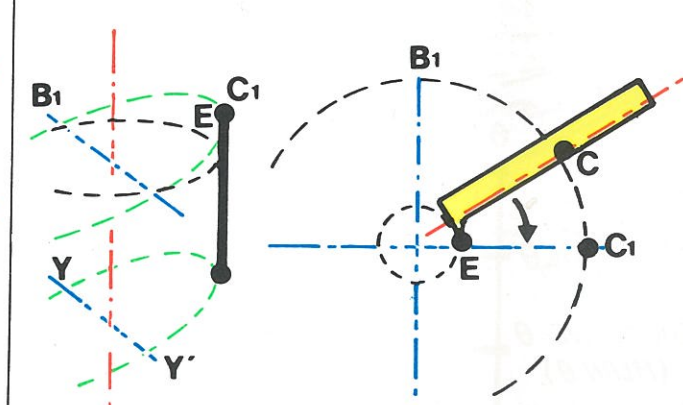
Let us examine this a bit closer, by following a blade through a complete revolution.



In A1, the control point E is the lowest possible. So the blade pitch angle (in A) is minimum ( $\theta$  cycl. min.)

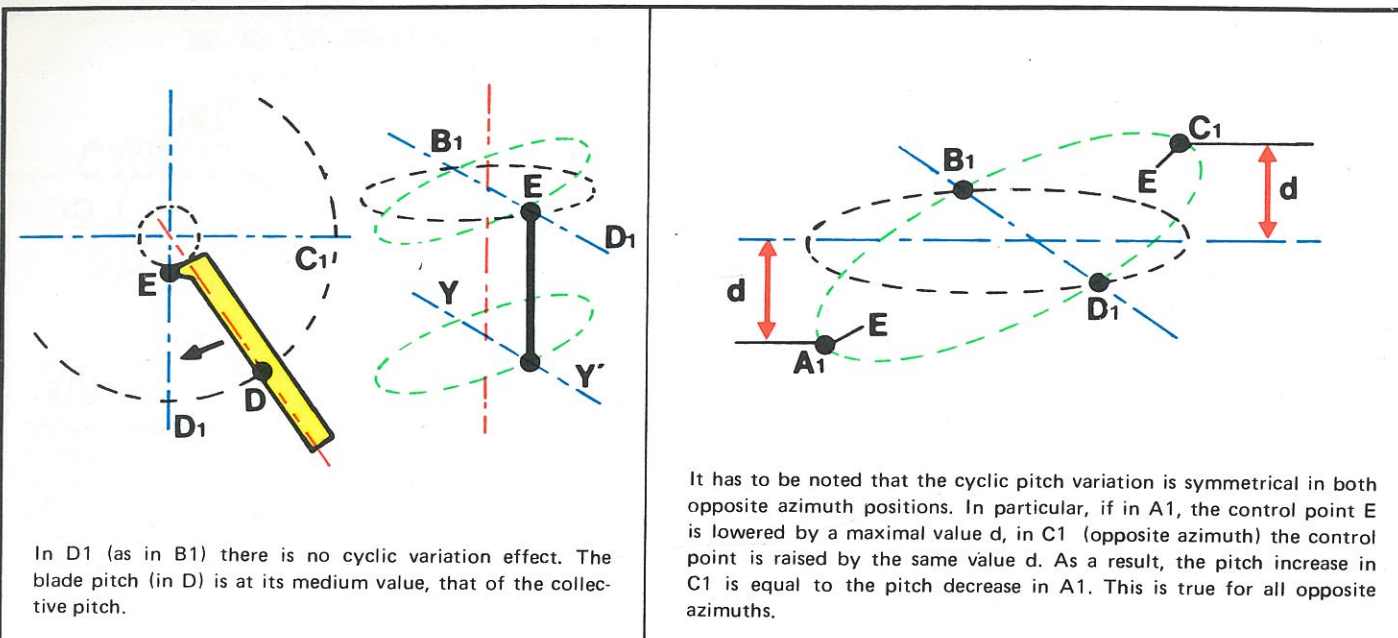


90° after A1, the control point E is over B1 corresponding to a middle position. It even be seen that in B1, the swash plate tilt has no effect, so the blade pitch (in B) will be the previous collective pitch.  
In B = medium  $\theta$  = collective  $\theta$

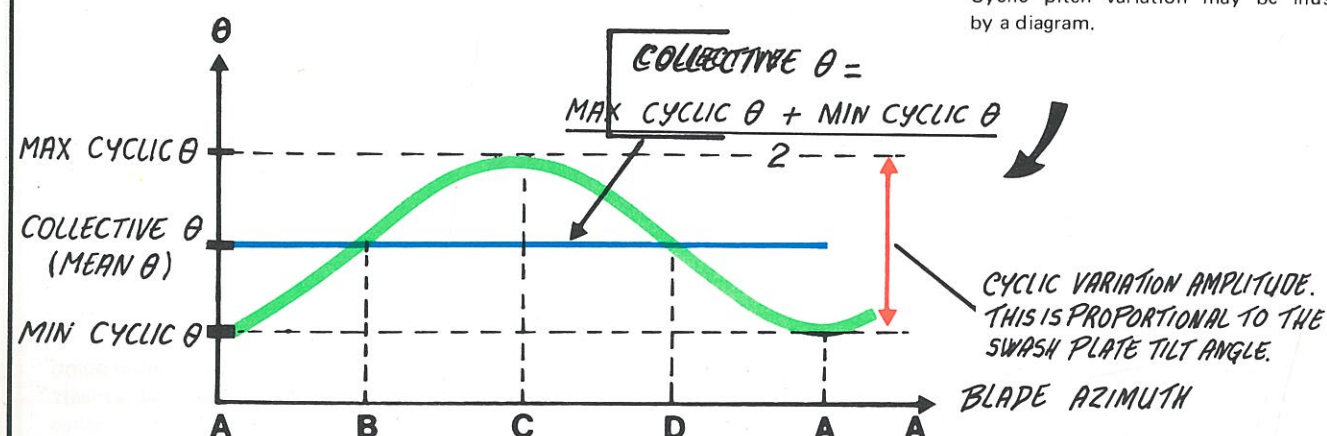
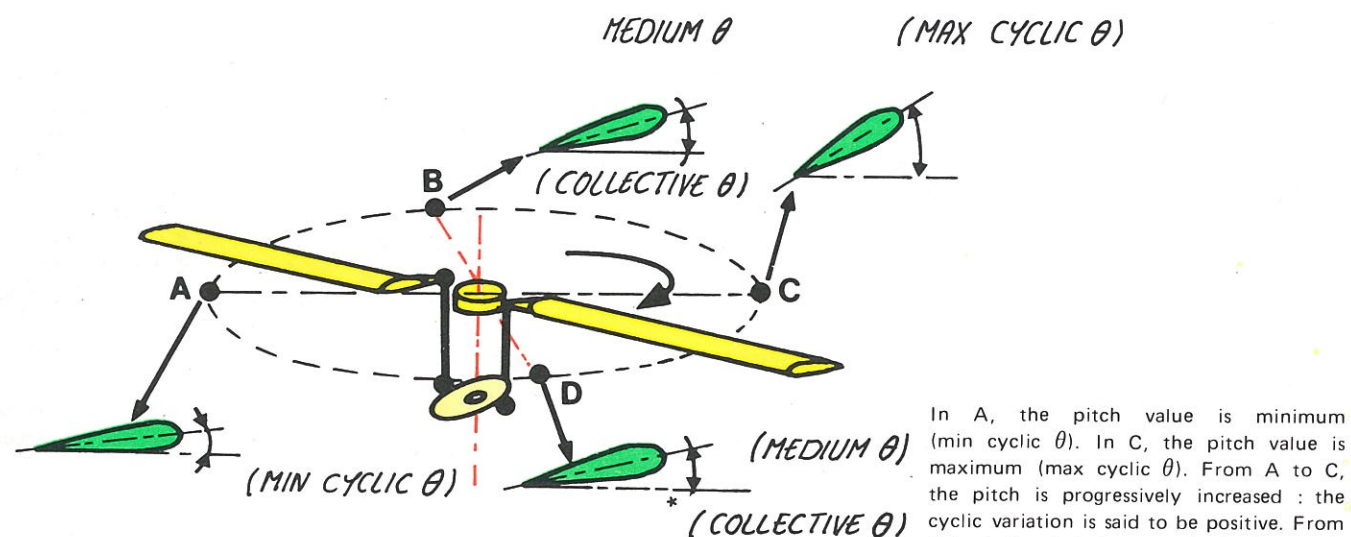


In C1, where half a revolution has been made, the control point is the highest possible. So the blade pitch angle (in C) is maximum. (MAX. Cyclic  $\theta$ )





BEFORE WE STUDY THE EFFECTS OF CYCLIC VARIATION, LET US SUMMARIZE THE PRINCIPLE



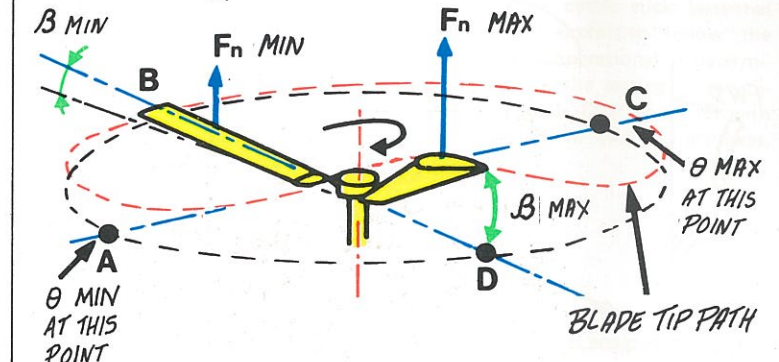
## THE EFFECTS OF CYCLIC PITCH VARIATION OR THE SAME CAUSES PRODUCE THE SAME EFFECTS

We have seen, when studying lateral lift dissymmetry, the effect of the cyclic variation of the angle of attack caused by the speed variation of the relative wind ( $V_R$ ). In the present case, it is the same effect, except that the angle of attack variation is produced by a cyclic pitch variation and not by a speed variation and that it may be applied in any direction by the controlled tilting of the swash plate.

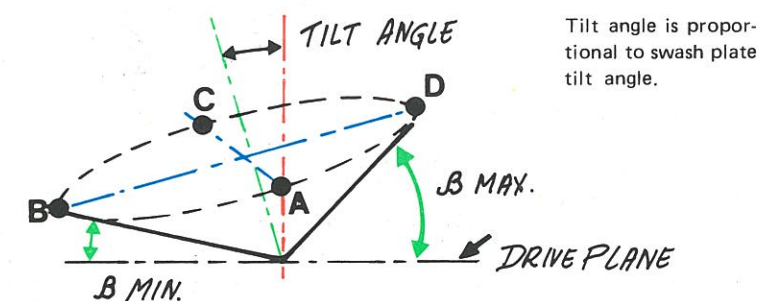
Let us recall fundamental principle: the effect of a variation in the angle of attack (i.e. lift variation  $F_n$  and blade flapping  $\beta$ ) is effective  $90^\circ$  after the angle of attack variation. Remember the gyroscope effect.

Example:

If the pitch (hence the angle of attack) is maximum in C, lift  $F_n$  and blade rise ( $\beta$ ) are maximum in D,  $90^\circ$  after C. If the pitch is minimum in A,  $F_n$  and  $\beta$  are minimum in B.



1st conclusion: cyclic pitch variation causes tilting of the rotation plane



The cyclic variation of lift, produced by the cyclic pitch variation, causes a variation of the blade flapping angle  $\beta$ . In the example above  $\beta$  is maximum in D (maximum lift) and minimum in B (minimum lift). So the rotation plane is tilted.

But what happens to blade lift  $F_n$  and the overall rotor lift  $F_N$ ?

As the swash plate is inclined, cyclic variation occurs and, as a result, cyclic variation of blade lift  $F_n$ : THE ROTATION PLANE IS INCLINED. But, remember (as you have seen): the vertical blade flapping acts as an automatic lift-regulating system.

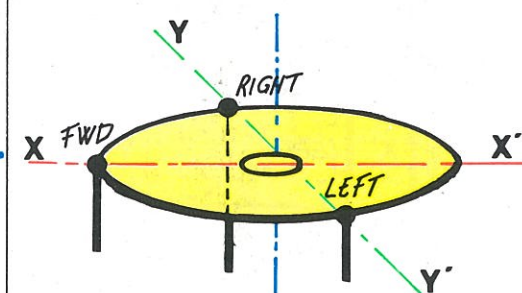
Don't forget:

- When the blade rises, its angle of attack decreases
- When the blade descends, its angle of attack increases so that the lift remains constant and cyclic lift variation is only present in the (very short) phase resulting in the swash plate tilt. As the blades begin to flap due to cyclic variation, the blade lift  $F_n$  becomes constant again, coming back to its initial value which is that of the existing collective pitch.

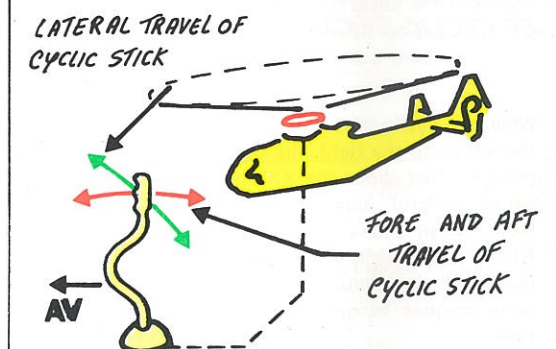
2nd conclusion: for a given collective pitch value, the cyclic pitch variation has no effect on the magnitude of the overall rotor lift ( $F_N$ )

## LATERAL AND FORE-AND-AFT CYCLIC VARIATIONS

How to control the tilt direction of the rotor rotation plane.



To obtain all possible tilt positions, it is possible for the swash plate to be inclined about two axes (XX' and YY') normal to each other. These pass through the input points (FWD, RIGHT, LEFT) of the control rods controlled from the cyclic stick.

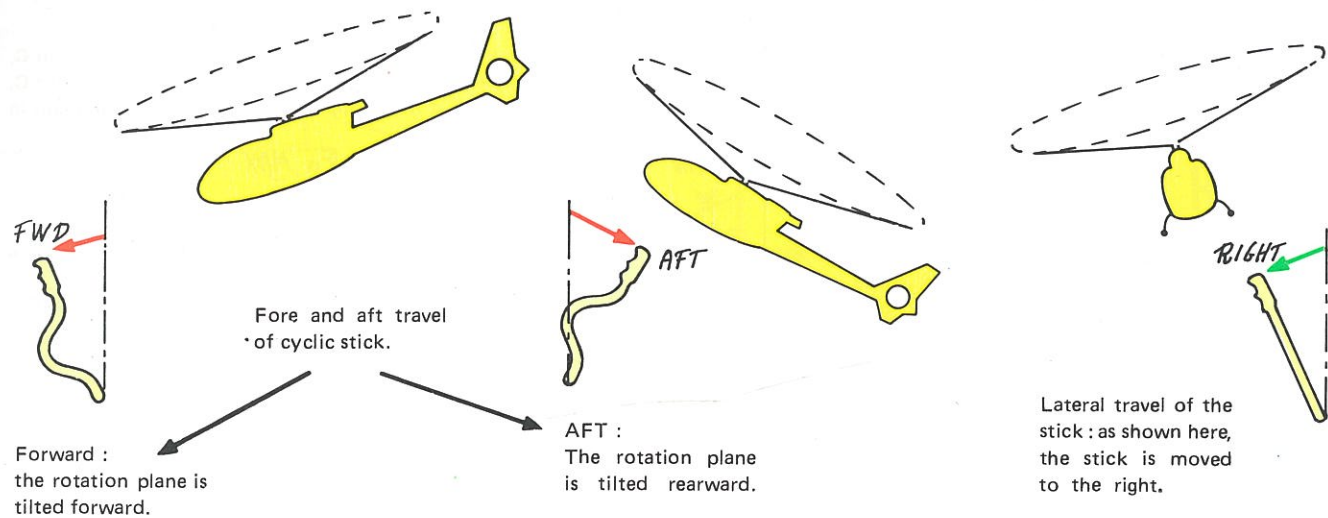
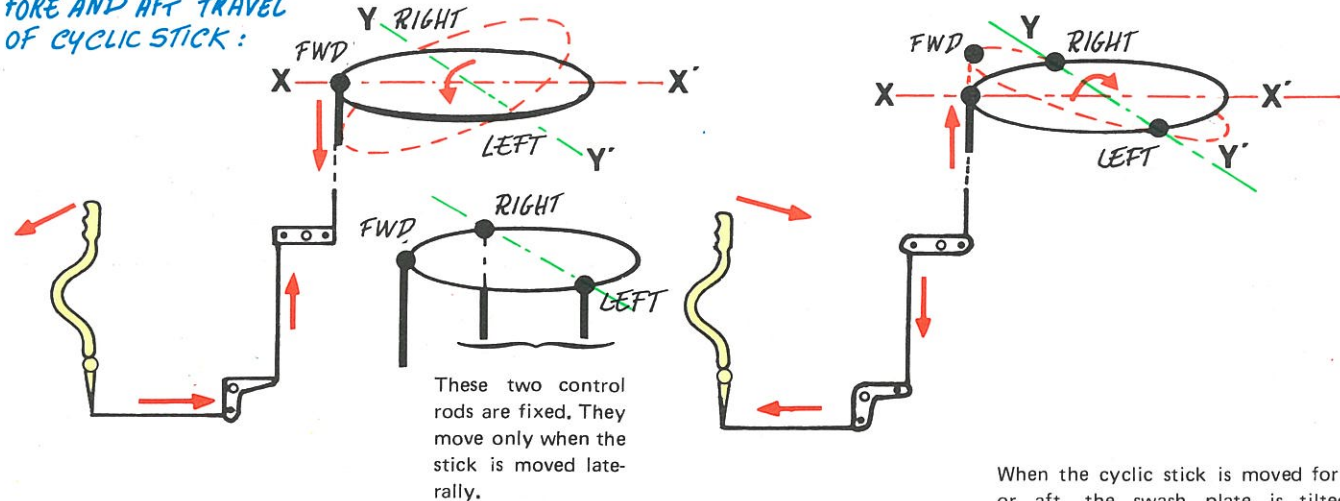


The cyclic stick is the control enabling the pilot to control the cyclic variation in amplitude and direction. This control can be moved in any direction. The cyclic stick when moved, causes the swash plate to tilt and with it the rotor rotation plane.



**PRINCIPLE OF CYCLIC STICK ACTION:**

When the pilot moves the stick in one direction, the rotor rotation plane is inclined in the same direction. Let us see how this is achieved.

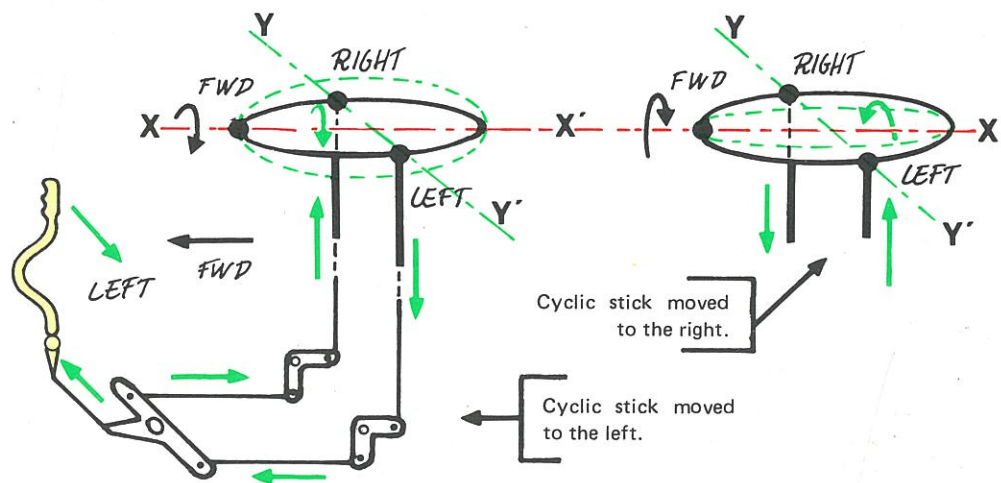
**FORE AND AFT TRAVEL OF CYCLIC STICK :**

When the cyclic stick is moved fore or aft, the swash plate is tilted about the YY' axis whose control points (LEFT and RIGHT) are fixed.

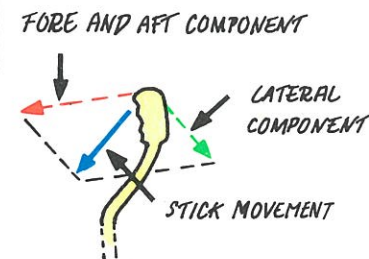
**LATERAL OPERATION OF CYCLIC STICK :**

When the cyclic stick is moved to the left or to the right, the swash plate is tilted about the XX' axis whose control point (FWD) is fixed. Both rods (LEFT and RIGHT), controlling the swash plate tilt are actuated by the same amount in opposite direction.

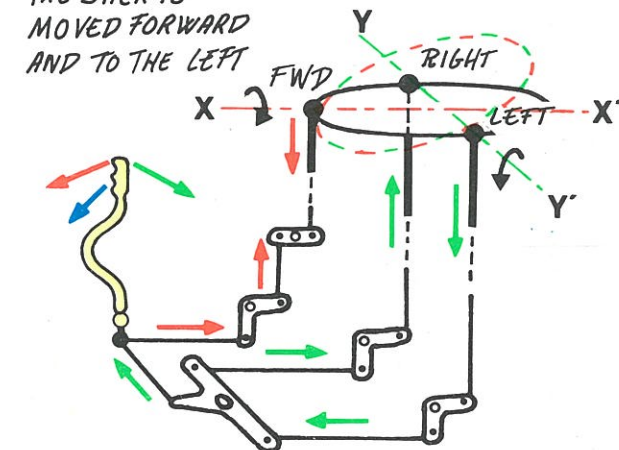
In every case (fore-and-aft and lateral position) the swash plate tilt angle is proportional to the angular travel of the cyclic stick.

**CYCLIC STICK ACTUATION**

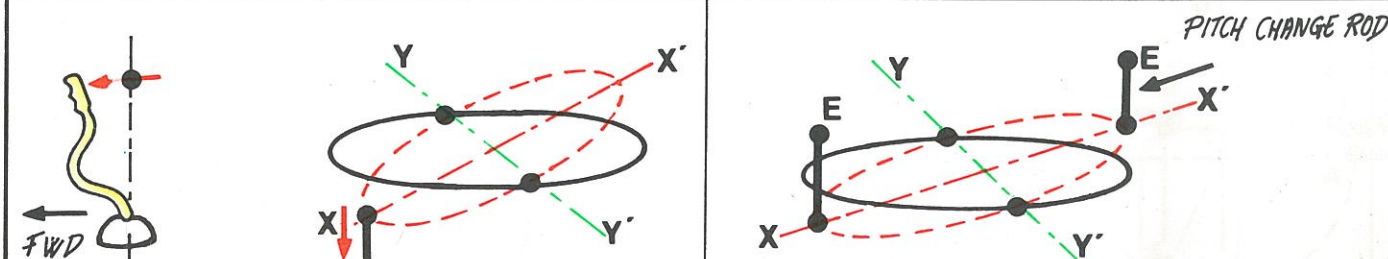
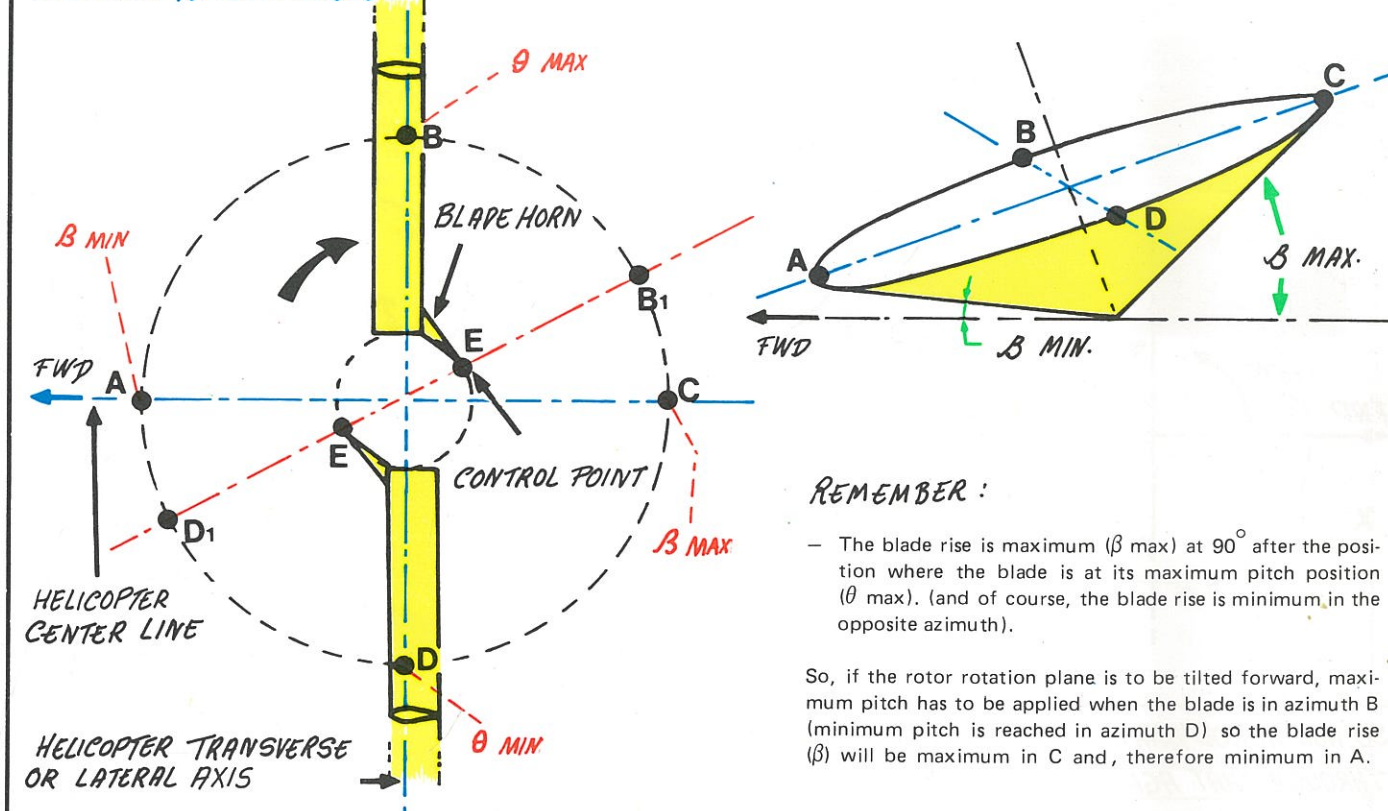
When the stick is moved to any position, the swash plate is inclined about two tilting axes XX' and YY' by a value proportional to fore-and-aft and lateral components of the stick's travel.



EXAMPLE :  
THE STICK IS MOVED FORWARD AND TO THE LEFT



The tilt of the rotor's plane of rotation when the pilot operates the cyclic stick (essential for the aircraft to "follow" the pilot's operations) is determined by the setting of the tilting axes (XX' and YY') with respect to the aircraft axes.

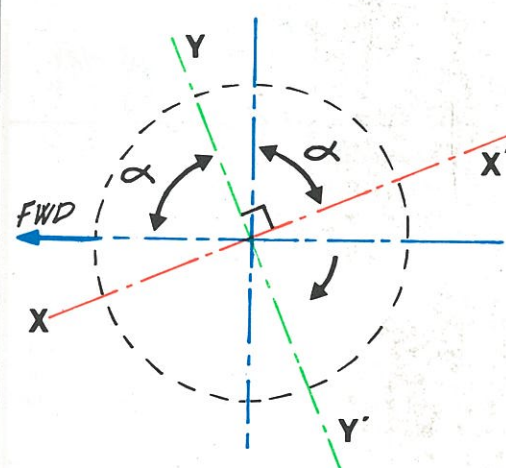
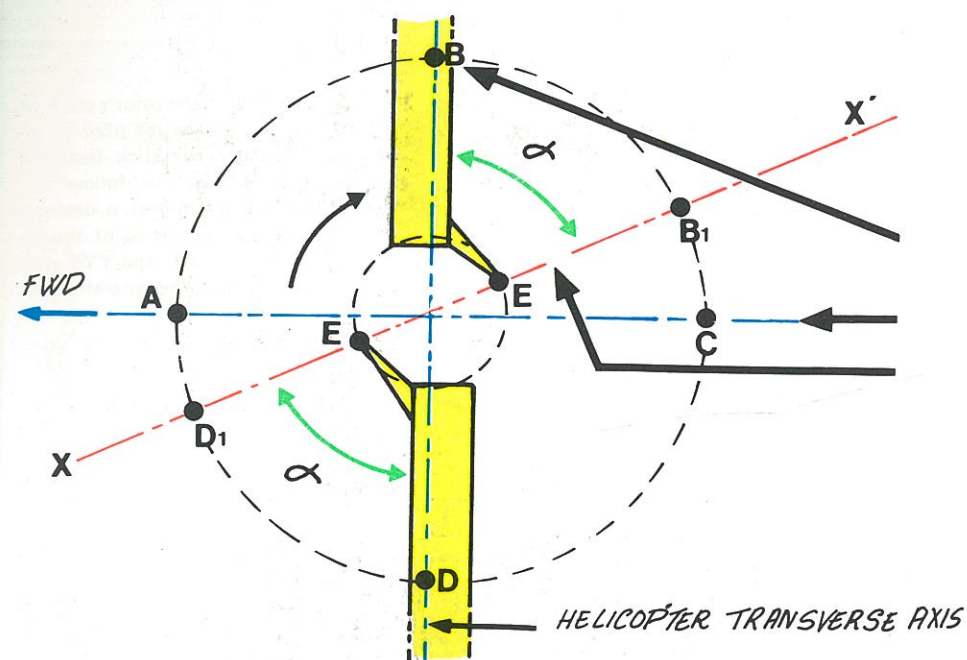
**APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM**

To tilt the rotor rotation plane forward, the cyclic stick is moved forward. It has been seen that the swash plate is tilted about the YY' axis, normal to the XX' axis, which tilts.

In these conditions, the highest position of control point E (and as a result the lowest position in the opposite azimuth) is obtained when E is above the tilting axis XX'.



As MAX and MIN pitch values correspond to the extreme positions of control points E, it is all quite easy to understand.

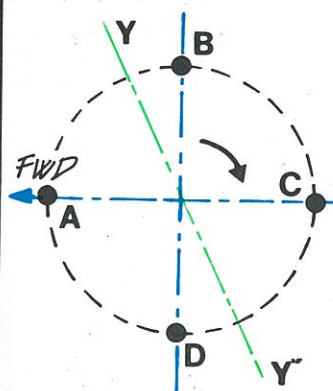


And, the position of the  $XX'$  axis being defined, that of the  $YY'$  axis is thus determined and it is possible for you to check that a swash plate tilt about the  $XX'$  axis (lateral travel of cyclic stick) produces a lateral tilt of the rotation plane either to the left or to the right according to the stick travel.

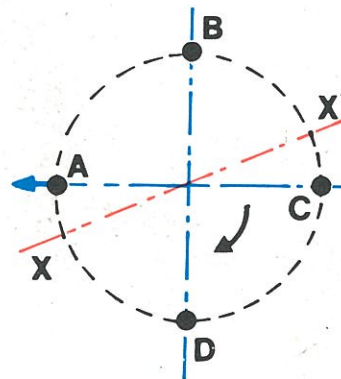
I'VE CHECKED...  
IT WORKS!



SO, NOW AERODYNAMIX IS HAPPY, LET US RUN THROUGH THAT AGAIN (TO FINISH THE PAGE)



With the cyclic stick in forward or rearward position, the swash plate is tilted about transverse axis  $YY'$  thus producing a cyclic variation of the "lateral" pitch. If the stick is forward, maximum pitch is reached in B and maximum blade rise in C. The rotation plane is tilted forward. If the stick is rearward, maximum pitch is reached in D and maximum blade rise in A. The rotation plane is tilted rearward.



With the cyclic stick either to the right or to the left, the swash plate is tilted about fore and aft axis  $XX'$  thus producing a cyclic variation of "fore and aft" pitch.

With the stick to the right :

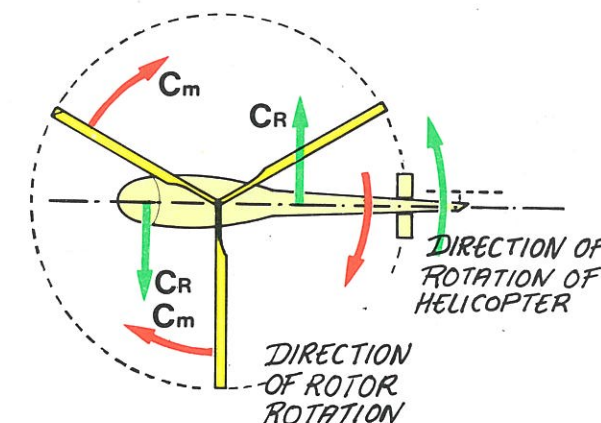
- Max. pitch is in C
- Max. blade rise in D
- Rotation plane is tilted to the right.

With the stick to the left :

- Max. pitch in A
- Max. blade rise in B
- Rotation plane of the rotor is tilted to the left.

## 5. THE MAIN ROTOR REACTION TORQUE

### ...AND THE TAIL ROTOR



Any force, to manifest itself, must bear on a support. If this support is free to move, it will go in the opposite direction to the force acting on it. The action of the force is said to be equal and opposite to the reaction (of the support).

The situation is the same for the helicopter rotor. To rotate, the rotor shaft to which the engine torque ( $C_m$ ) is applied, rests on the helicopter structure which is pulled in the direction opposite to that of the rotor by a reaction torque ( $C_R$ ) equal and opposite to the engine torque ( $C_m$ ). Obviously, if it was not compensated, the reaction torque would prevent the helicopter from flying.

### HOW CAN

### THE REACTION TORQUE OF THE MAIN ROTOR BE COMPENSATED?

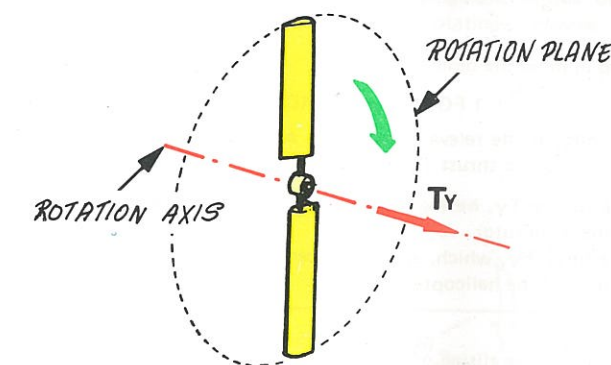
The tail rotor (or anti-torque rotor) prevents the helicopter from rotating on its axis by the action of the main rotor reaction torque.

The tail rotor is fitted at the rear of the fuselage where, driven by the same engine as the main rotor, it rotates in the VERTICAL plane. The resultant aerodynamic force of the tail rotor, called THRUST (Thrust and lift are equivalent terms), is applied in a HORIZONTAL plane and opposed to the reaction torque of the main rotor.

### CONVENTIONAL TAIL ROTOR (NOT SHROUDED)



SHROUDED TAIL ROTOR



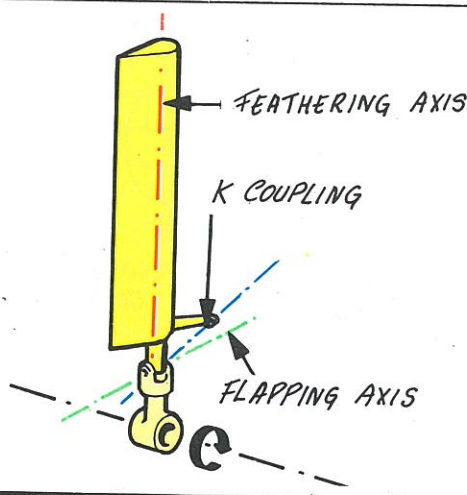
Thrust  $T_y$  of the tail rotor is normal to the plane of rotation.

### TAIL ROTOR MECHANISM

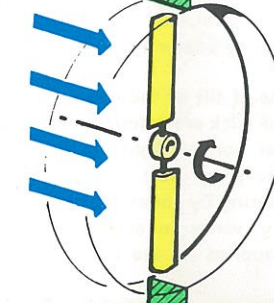
The tail rotor includes the following components, found also on the main rotor :

- Pitch hinges for controlling the magnitude of thrust  $T_y$  by collective variation of blade pitch.
- Flapping hinges compensating the asymmetrical relative speed effects between advancing and retreating blades.
- Pitch-flapping coupling (K-coupling) reducing the effect of blade flapping.

Note that there are no drag hinges.



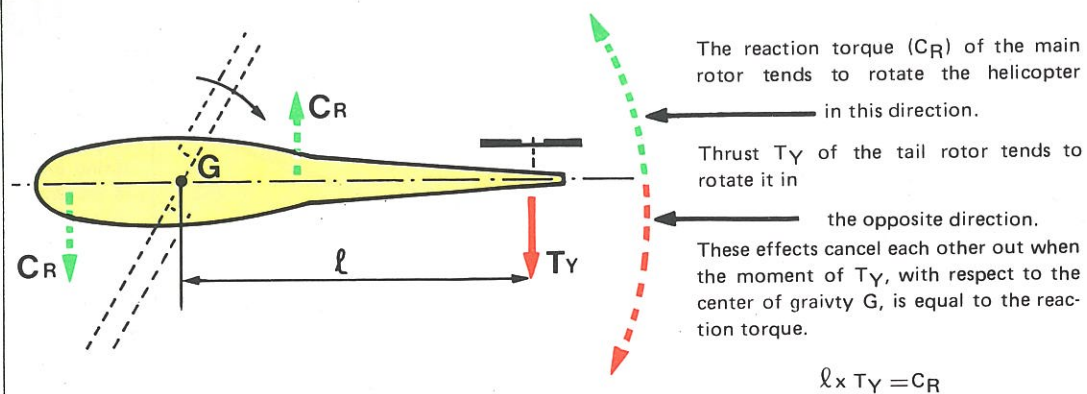
Note also that, in the case of a shrouded rotor, the flapping hinge is unnecessary and, therefore, omitted. As a matter of fact, the air flow, ducted by the rotor shroud, is normal to the plane of rotation and the relative speed of air is identical for all blades





LET US COME BACK  
TO THE  
REACTION  
TORQUE OF  
THE MAIN ROTOR

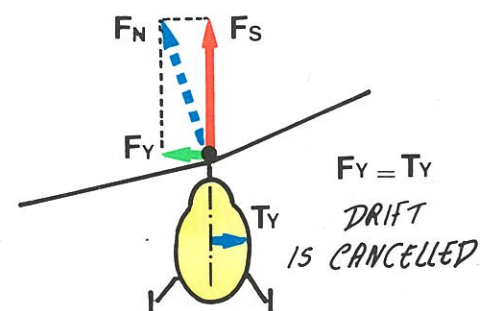
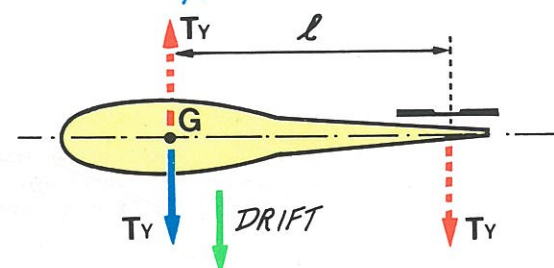
## EFFECT OF TAIL ROTOR THRUST $T_Y$



The pitch angle of the tail rotor blades is selected so that rotor thrust  $T_Y$  which applies at the end of the fuselage, is opposed to the reaction torque of the main rotor.

This is the reason why helicopters have such a long tail. As a matter of fact, length  $l$  of the lever arm must be increased as much as possible to reduce in the same ratio the value of thrust  $T_Y$  which consumes power.

## BALANCING A TORQUE BY A FORCE OR THE EVILS OF TAIL ROTOR THRUST $T_Y$ .



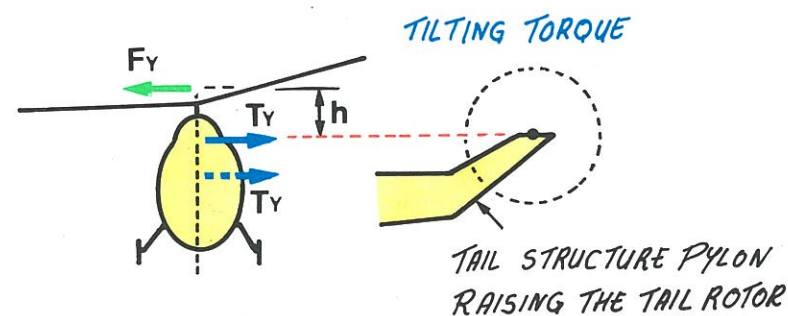
How is this drift cancelled ?

To cancel the drift an equal force directed in the opposite direction must be opposed to  $T_Y$ . This result is obtained by tilting the main rotor disc in the opposite direction to  $T_Y$  and at an angle such that horizontal component  $F_Y$  of lift  $F_N$  is equal to  $T_Y$ .

Of course, the tilting of the rotational plane of the main rotor is obtained by a cyclic lateral pitch variation (cyclic stick to the right if  $T_Y$  is directed to the left and vice versa. To avoid having to fly with the STICK permanently OFFSET, two means are used.

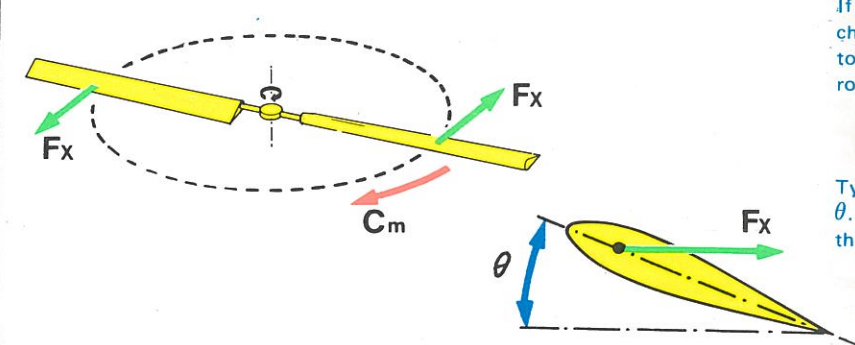
- The main rotor shaft is slightly tilted in the direction opposite to  $T_Y$ .
- The cyclic stick is OFFSET by appropriate setting of the control linkage so that, with the stick vertical, the swashplate is slightly tilted, producing a lateral inclination of the rotor disc.

The angle of tilt of the rotor shaft and the offsetting of the stick are determined so as to compensate  $T_Y$  under normal flight conditions. Beyond these limits the pilot must act on the cyclic stick for compensating  $T_Y$  variations because, as we shall see later,  $T_Y$  varies in accordance with the engine torque applied to the main rotor.



However, it is not easy to get rid of the effects of the tail rotor thrust  $T_Y$ . While the main rotor tilt compensates the drift motion, there are still two equal and opposed forces ( $F_Y$  and  $T_Y$ ) producing a torque having a moment  $h \times F_Y$  tending to tilt the helicopter. To reduce the tilting torque, the designer acts on length  $h$  of the lever arm by raising the rotational axis of the tail rotor so that  $h$  is as small as possible.

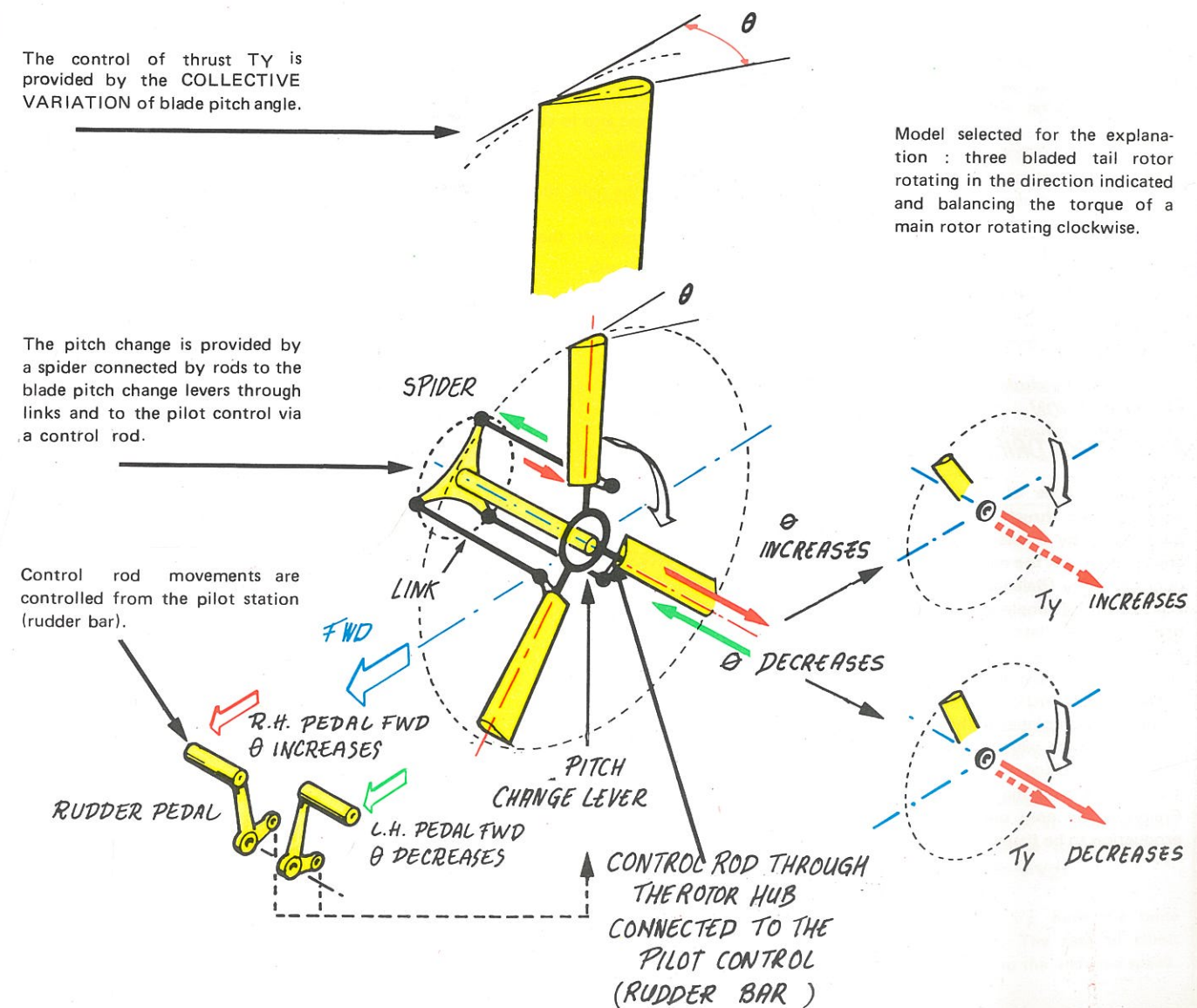
## VARIATION OF THE MAIN ROTOR REACTION TORQUE AND MEANS OF VARYING $T_Y$ AND $F_Y$ WHICH BALANCE THIS TORQUE



The reaction torque of the main rotor is equal and opposite to the engine torque ( $C_m$ ) balancing blade drag  $F_x$ . As seen previously,  $F_x$  depends on collective pitch  $\theta$ . Accordingly, if  $\theta$  varies, the engine torque varies likewise to balance the blade drag.

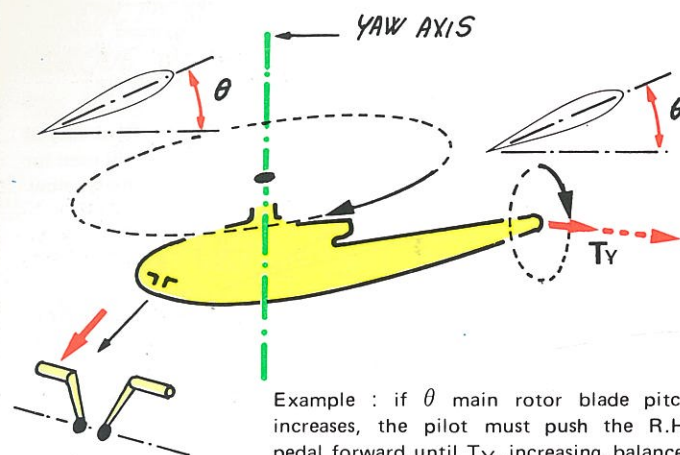
## VARIATION OF TAIL ROTOR THRUST $T_Y$

The control of thrust  $T_Y$  is provided by the COLLECTIVE VARIATION of blade pitch angle.

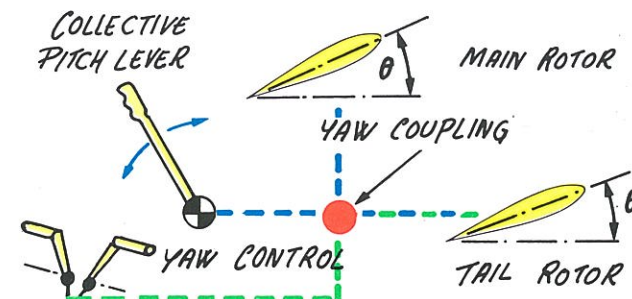




To maintain the helicopter balance around its yaw axis, the pilot must apply a thrust  $T_Y$  of a value in accordance with the engine torque ; i.e. in accordance with the collective pitch  $\theta$  of the main rotor blades.



Example : if  $\theta$  main rotor blade pitch increases, the pilot must push the R.H. pedal forward until  $T_Y$ , increasing, balances the new value of the main rotor reaction torque.



A simple mechanism relieves the pilot of this burden : this mechanism is the main rotor collective/tail rotor pitch "coupling". For a given pedal position any pilot action on the collective pitch lever simultaneously produces a like variation in main rotor and tail rotor pitch, so that thrust  $T_Y$  automatically balances the reaction torque of the main rotor for whatever value of main rotor pitch. It is to be noted that this "coupling" is installed only on helicopters fitted with an auto pilot.

It's an ill wind that blows nobody any good !

As a matter of fact, the tail rotor, intended to compensate the reaction torque of the main rotor is used also to control the aircraft about its yaw axis.

- To turn to the right, the pilot pushes the R.H. pedal.
- To turn to the left, the pilot pushes the L.H. pedal.

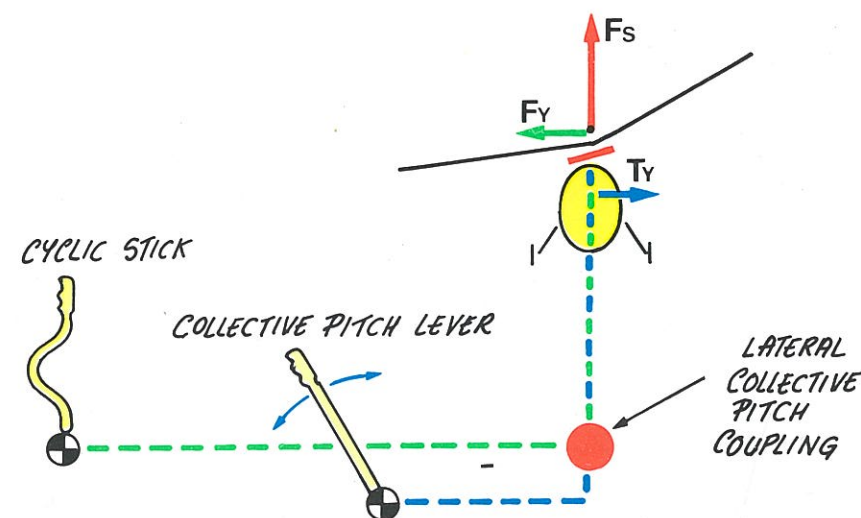
temporarily destroying the yaw balance of the helicopter.

## F<sub>Y</sub> VARIATION

### AUTOMATIC DRIFT COMPENSATION

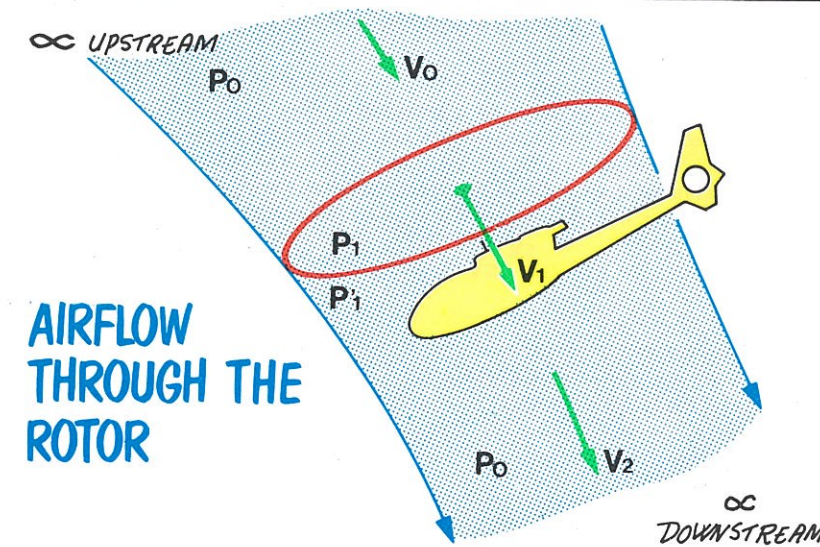
For the purpose of compensating the drift resulting from thrust  $T_Y$  of the tail rotor the pilot must, by a lateral action of the cyclic control stick, tilt the main rotor in the direction opposite to  $T_Y$  (Balance condition).

Here there is a simple way to avoid such a burden with the "lateral cyclic/collective pitch coupling". For a given action of the cyclic stick, any collective pitch lever action changes the swashplate inclination (and, therefore, that of the rotation plane) so that balance  $F_Y = T_Y$  is obtained. Here, when collective pitch increases, the rotation plane tilt to the right increases. This type of coupling is rarely used. The Super Frelon is the only one among Aérospatiale's production to be fitted with it.



# 6. AERODYNAMIC FUNCTIONING OF ROTOR

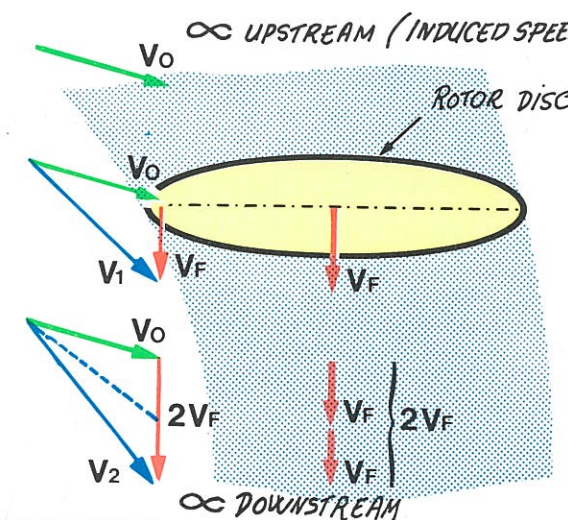
... AND ITS NOTEWORTHY ASPECTS: GROUND EFFECT - AUTOROTATION - VORTEX - LIMIT SPEEDS



In operation, the rotor draws air through its upper area and discharges it downwards. Thus, it ACCELERATES the mass of air within its influence. The air pressure and speed vary along the flow of air in motion.

- At the upstream infinite ( $\infty$ ). The air pressure is  $P_0$  (atmospheric pressure). The relative airspeed is  $V_0$ . It is equal and opposite to the helicopter's velocity of travel.
- In the rotor disc area, the airspeed has increased and is equal to  $V_1$ . On the upper face of the disc, the pressure is  $P_1$  ( $P_1 < P_0$ ) : negative pressure area. On the lower face, the pressure is  $P'_1$  ( $P'_1 < P_0$ ) : positive pressure area.
- At the downstream infinite ( $\infty$ ) : the airspeed has still increased and is equal to  $V_2$ . The air pressure is  $P_0$  (atmospheric pressure).

## ROTOR INDUCED SPEED OR FROUDE SPEED



The increase of air flow velocity (from  $V_0$  to  $V_2$ ) is steady between the upstream infinite and the downstream infinite. Therefore, it is equal on both sides of the rotor disc. This increase of velocity is called "Froude speed"  $V_F$  (or induced speed as it is induced by the rotor). Accordingly, between the upstream infinite speed and the rotor, the induced speed increases steadily. At the disc level, its value is  $V_F$ . Between the rotor and the downstream infinite, its value increases to  $2V_F$ . The resultant relative air velocity is expressed in terms of  $V_F$ . Thus

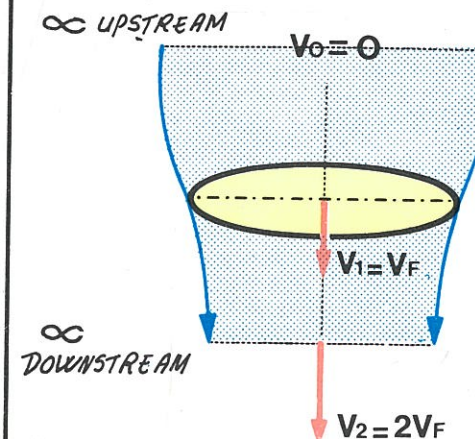
$$\vec{V}_1 = \vec{V}_0 + \vec{V}_F$$

$$\vec{V}_2 = \vec{V}_0 + 2\vec{V}_F = \vec{V}_1 + \vec{V}_F$$

From this very general discussion, we shall detail the various air flow conditions in :

- Hovering
- Vertical flight upwards
- Vertical flight downwards
- Fast descent
- Slow descent
- Moderate descent
- Forward flight

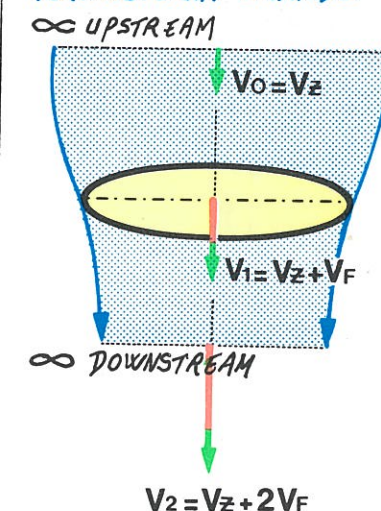
## HOVERING



The helicopter is immobile relative to the air :

$V_0 = 0$  In the rotor disc plane, the air flows at the induced speed ( $V_1 = V_F$ ).

## VERTICAL FLIGHT UPWARDS

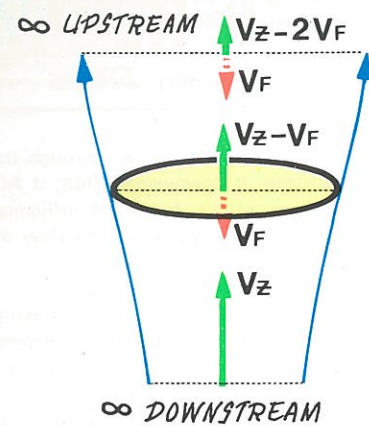


The helicopter climbs vertically at rate  $V_Z$ .

At upstream infinite, the speed  $V_0$  of air flow is equal and opposite to the rate of climb ( $V_0 = V_Z$ ).

$V_Z$  and  $V_F$  have the same direction. The rate of climb is added to the induced speed.



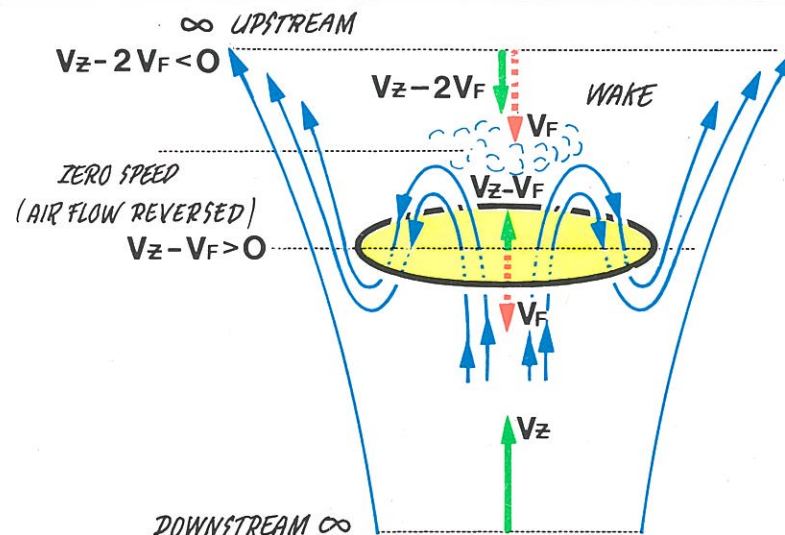


### DOWNWARD VERTICAL FLIGHT - FAST DESCENT : $V_z > 2V_F$ (THEORETICAL CONDITIONS)

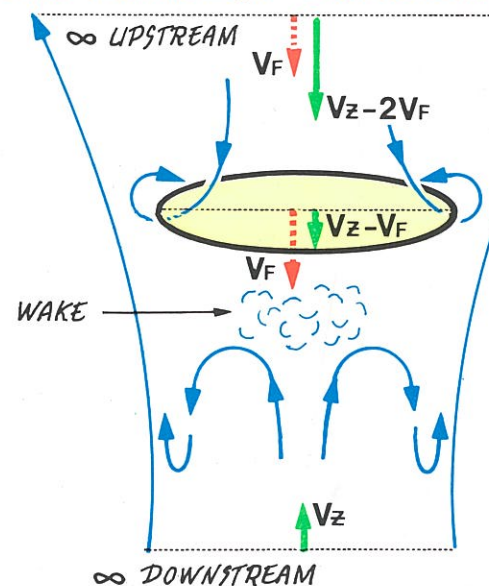
The helicopter descends : the flow is inverted and passes upwards through the rotor. At the downstream infinite, velocity  $V_z$  of air flow is equal and opposite to the downward velocity of the helicopter. The rotor-induced speed ( $V_F$ ) is still directed downwards and opposite to  $V_z$ . Consequence : The resultant speed decreases. At the rotor level, it is equal to  $V_z - V_F$  and reaches  $V_z - 2V_F$  at the upstream infinite. As  $V_z > 2V_F$ , this speed remains positive i.e. it is always directed in the same direction. NOTE that in these flow conditions, the rotor is WINDMILLING.

### DOWNWARD VERTICAL FLIGHT - MODERATE DESCENT : $V_F < V_z < 2V_F$

The rate of descent is considered as moderate when speed  $V_z$  at the downstream infinite is included between  $V_F$  and  $2V_F$ . As in fast descent, induced speed  $V_F$  is deducted from speed  $V_z$ . However, as  $V_z$  is smaller than  $2V_F$ , the difference  $V_z - 2V_F$  is negative and therefore, directed in the opposite direction to  $V_z$  which means that an inversion of the air flow above the rotor occurs. The meeting of opposite air flows produces a wake. The air flow passing through the central area of the rotor is turned down on the periphery by the descending flow ( $V_z - 2V_F$ ). The aerodynamic flow is perturbed. In this case also, as in fast descent, the rotor is driven by the air flow ; this is called AUTOROTATIVE DESCENT, which will be covered later.

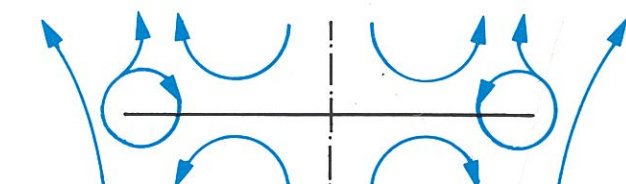


### DOWNWARD VERTICAL FLIGHT - SLOW DESCENT ( $V_z < V_F$ ) AND VORTEX CONDITION



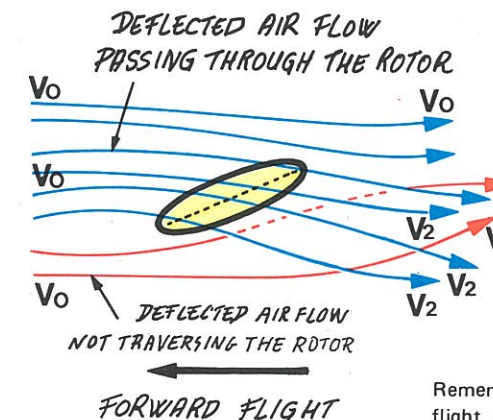
While fast and moderate rates of descent correspond to unpowered flight conditions (the power is supplied by the air flow and a free wheel inserted in the transmission system allows the rotor to rotate freely), the slow descent is a powered flight condition as the pilot controls the helicopter descent by reducing the collective pitch.

Look at the flow figure : as the vertical speed of air flow at the downstream infinite ( $V_z$ ) is lower than the induced speed ( $V_F$ ), the inversion of the air flow velocity occurs under the rotor. (As at the rotor level  $V_z - V_F < 0$ ). A wake occurs under the rotor and the air flow is turned down. The upper air flow forms a vortex near the blade tips. For a downward rate of about 2 m/s, the upward and downward air flows concur on the rotor disc. THE BLADES ROTATE IN THEIR OWN WASH while the air forms a vortex ring insulating the rotor which is no longer traversed by the air flow. This phenomenon is called VORTEX CONDITION. Such a configuration is dangerous as the rotor, in stall area, cannot be controlled anymore. It is easy for the pilot to come out of this situation, either by flying forward or by reducing the collective pitch to initiate autorotation ( $V_z$  increase).



VORTEX CONDITION : Air flow does not traverse any longer the rotor which is insulated by the vortex ring.

### FORWARD FLIGHT



Just remember

- In forward flight, the rotor operates both as a propeller and as a wing :
  - As a propeller, it accelerates the mass of air flowing through it (air flow normal to the rotor disc).
  - As a wing, it causes deflection of the air flow.

Remember also that passing from vertical to forward flight is called "transition". When initiating forward flight, the concurrence of both air flows causes a turbulence in the flow resulting in vibrations and high stresses in the blades.

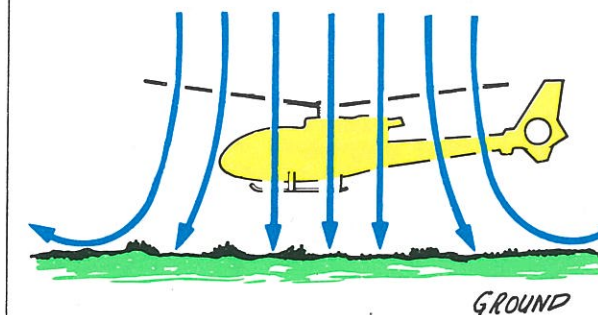
WHAT DID YOU LEARN WHILE I WAS IN HOSPITAL ? \*



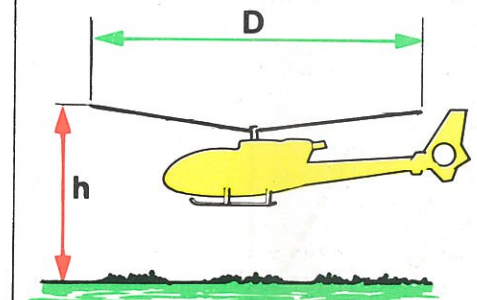
\* SEE ON PAGE 51 AERODYNAMIX'S ACCIDENT

### GROUND EFFECT

AND ITS BENEFITS

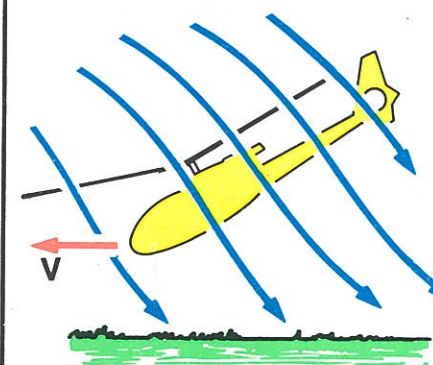


When the helicopter is hovering in the immediate vicinity of the ground the kinetic energy communicated to the air by the rotor (induced speed) is cancelled on contact with the ground and converted into pressure energy, with the exception of the peripheral area where air flow is deflected. The pressure increase is felt on the lower surface of the blades resulting, of course, in an increase in rotor lift  $F_N$ . The aircraft is said to be IN GROUND EFFECT (I.G.E.).



The lift increase depends on distance "h" between the rotor disc and the ground. If  $h = 1/3 D$  (D is the rotor diameter) ; the increase of  $F_N$  is 20 per cent approximately. It decreases to 10 percent for  $h = 1/2 D$  and becomes negligible from  $h = D$ . The aircraft is then said to be out of ground effect (O.G.E.).

### THE GROUND EFFECT IN FORWARD FLIGHT



In forward flight, the ground effect is less as the forward speed is greater. This decrease of the ground effect is explained by the deflection of the air flow and by the aircraft's movement.

For instance, for  $h = 1/2 D$ , a forward speed of 30 km/hr reduces the ground effect to 2 percent.

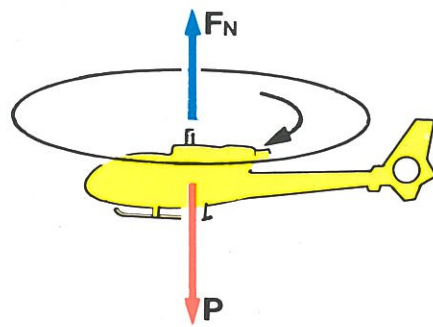
### CONSEQUENCES OF THE GROUND EFFECT IN HOVERING

For a given power level (i.e., with the rotor operating at constant speed and a given collective pitch), in ground effect, the lift is increased by 10 percent approximately. Accordingly, for hovering in ground effect (I.G.E.) the power required is less than for hovering out of ground effect (O.G.E.). This is the explanation of the I.G.E. and O.G.E. hovering performance curves in the flight manuals. In this connection, the helicopter hover ceiling is higher in ground effect than out of ground effect.



# AUTO- ROTATION

## OR HELICOPTER FLIGHT IN CASE OF ENGINE FAILURE



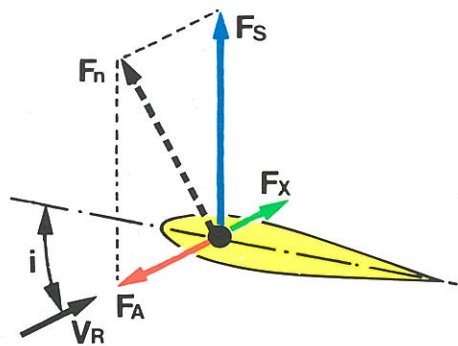
After an engine failure, the helicopter does not fall. Its rotor, driven under the action of the relative wind, benefits from a lift  $F_N$  which, while inferior to weight  $P$  of aircraft, is sufficient to slow down the descent and maintain control of the aircraft until the landing.

HOWEVER, THE SITUATION IS NOT AS SIMPLE AS IT LOOKS.

Question : why does the rotor still rotate (and, accordingly developing a lift  $F_N$ ) when it is no longer driven by the engine ?

We shall now examine autorotation in vertical and inclined descent. First, let us explain the existence of autorotative and anti-autorotative forces acting simultaneously on every blade.

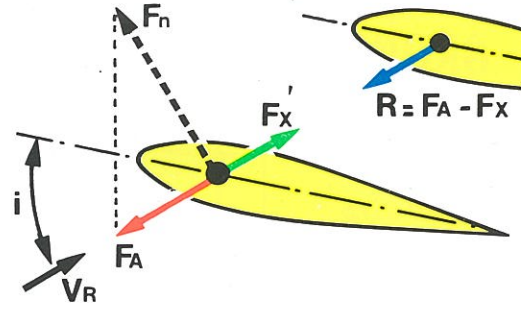
### AUTOROTATIVE AND ANTI-AUTOROTATIVE FORCES



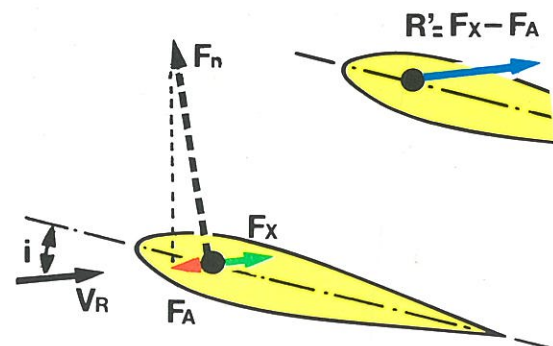
If  $F_N$  is broken down along a vertical line and along the direction of relative wind  $V_R$ , we obtain :

- 1 force  $F_s$ , or lift force
- 1 force  $F_A$ , or propulsion force, opposed to drag  $F_x$ .

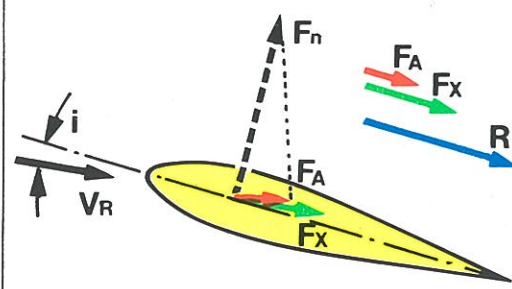
Reminder : Two forces act on a rotating blade : Lift  $F_N$ , normal to the relative wind  $V_R$  and drag  $F_x$  directed along the relative wind.



If the angle of attack  $i$  is large,  $F_N$  is directed well forward and force  $F_A$  is greater. If  $F_A$  is greater than  $F_x$ , their resultant  $R$  is directed forward = it constitutes the autorotative force driving the blade in rotation.



On the other hand, if the angle of attack " $i$ " decreases, the lift component  $F_N$  tilts back and the propulsive component  $F_A$  decreases. When  $F_A < F_x$ , the resultant  $R'$  is directed rearwards. This is the anti-autorotative force which slows down the blade.



For very low values of  $i$ ,  $F_N$  is tilted towards the rear of the blade. Component  $F_A$  is then directed rearward and added to the drag. The anti-autorotative force is strong.

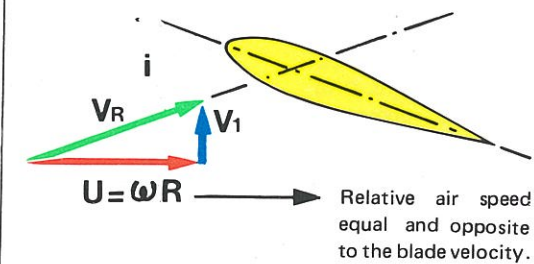
Remember : The autorotative and anti-autorotative forces depend on the blade's angle of attack :

- at a large angle of attack the force is autorotative
- at a small angle of attack, the force is anti-autorotative.

But, how are these forces distributed over each blade ?

## AUTOROTATION DESCENT FROM HOVERING

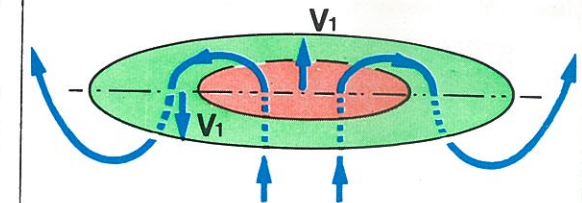
### ANGLE OF ATTACK VARIATION ALONG A BLADE IN AUTOROTATION



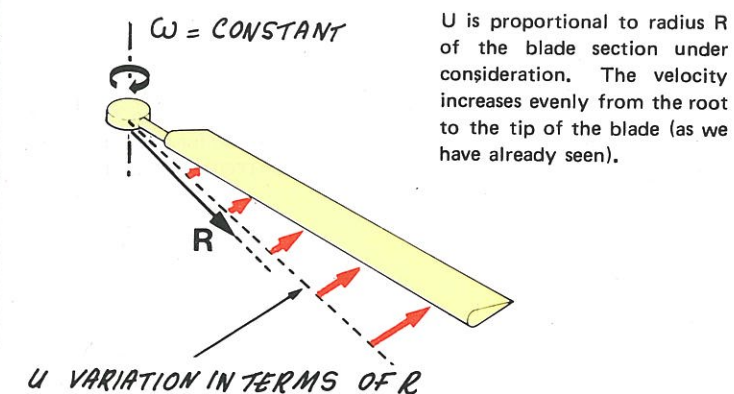
The blade angle of attack depends only on the direction of the relative wind  $V_R$ . In autorotation from hovering, where the descent is vertical, the relative wind results from the tangential velocity of the blades ( $U = \omega R$ ) and from the vertical speed of the air passing through the rotor ( $V_1$ ).

### VARIATION OF VERTICAL SPEED $V_1$

The autorotation descent is performed at the moderate descent rate already described. In its central area the air flow is passing upward through the rotor. Above the rotor, the vertical speed is cancelled and air flow is deflected towards the disc periphery and passes through it in a downward direction (speed  $V_1$  is reversed).

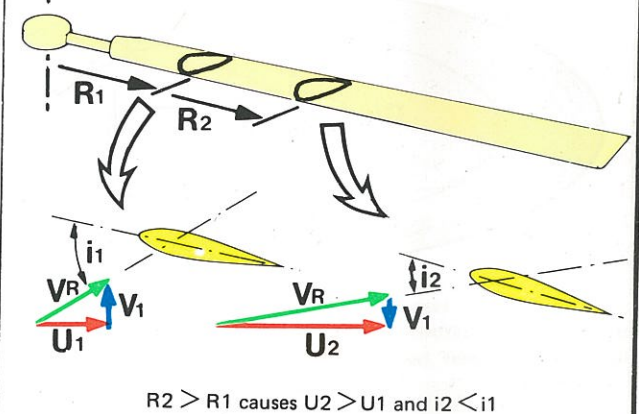


### VARIATION OF TANGENTIAL VELOCITY ( $U = \omega R$ )



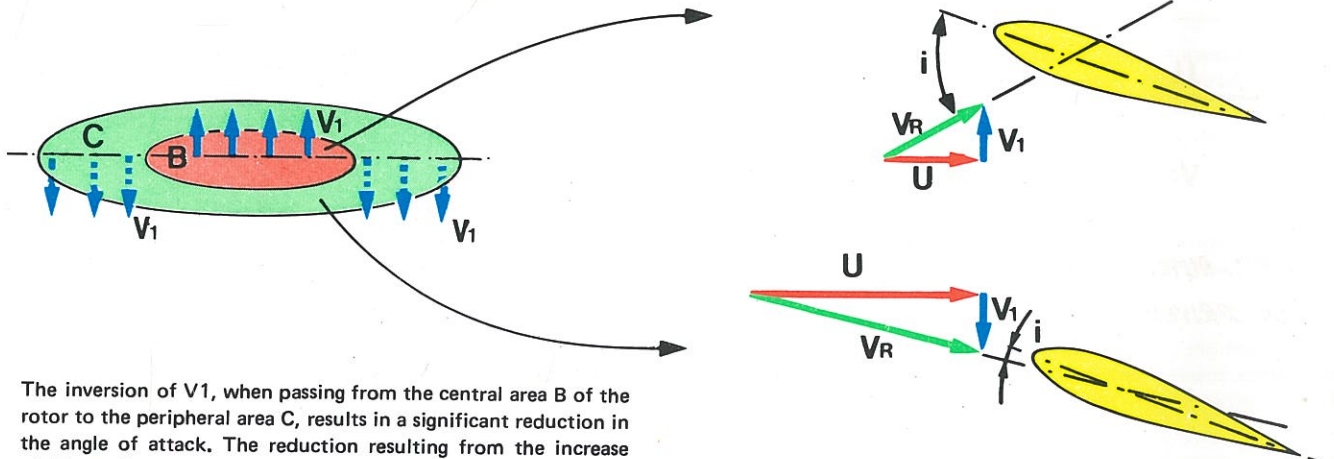
$\omega = \text{CONSTANT}$   
 $U$  is proportional to radius  $R$  of the blade section under consideration. The velocity increases evenly from the root to the tip of the blade (as we have already seen).

### VARIATION OF $V_R$ (OR VARIATION OF ANGLE OF ATTACK- $i$ ) EFFECT OF $U = \omega R$



$R_2 > R_1$  causes  $U_2 > U_1$  and  $i_2 < i_1$

### COMBINED EFFECT OF $U$ AND $V_1$ VARIATIONS

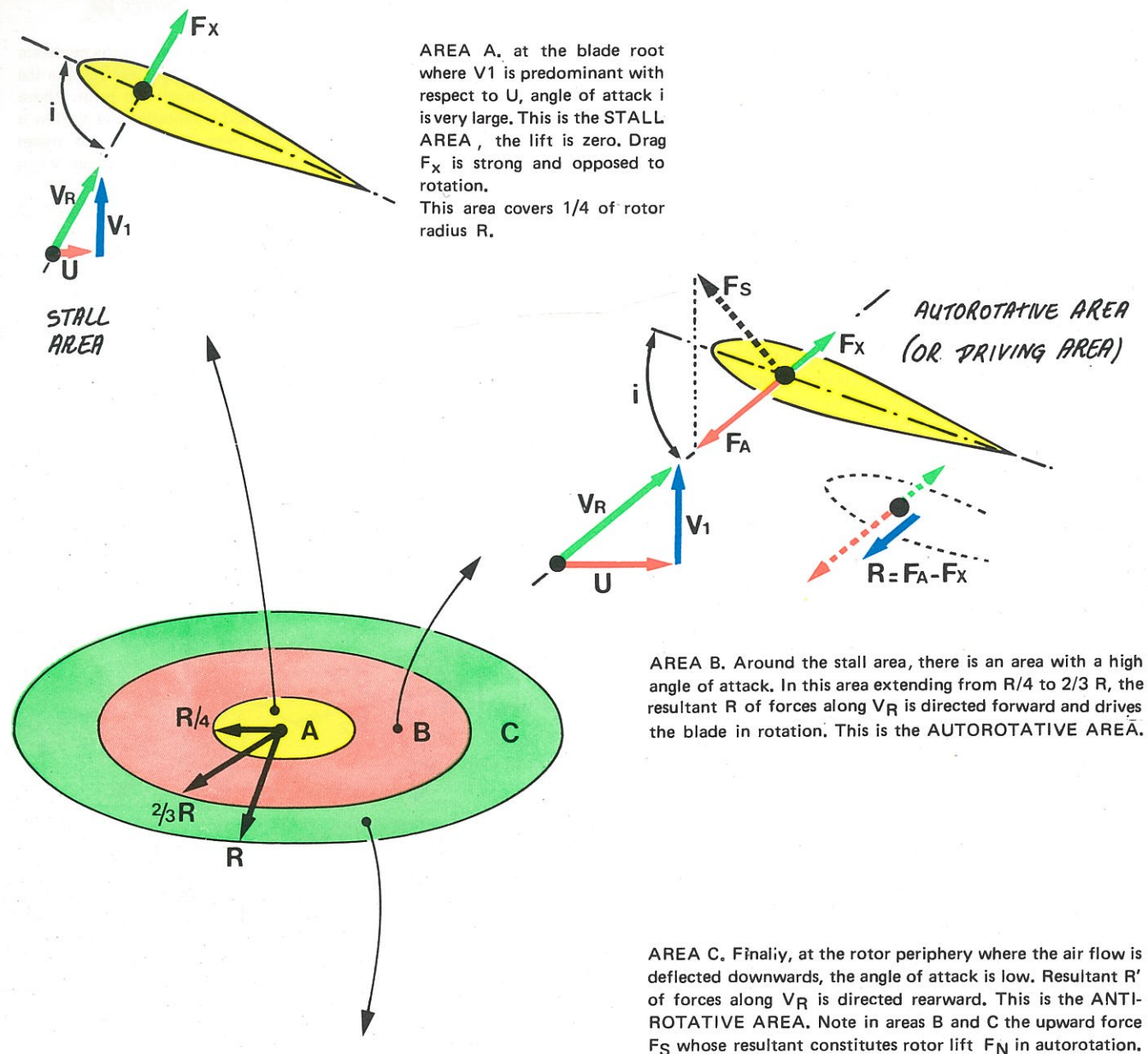


The inversion of  $V_1$ , when passing from the central area B of the rotor to the peripheral area C, results in a significant reduction in the angle of attack. The reduction resulting from the increase of  $U = \omega R$  comes in addition to this reduction in the angle of attack. For all these explanations, the collective pitch of blades is, of course, considered as being constant.

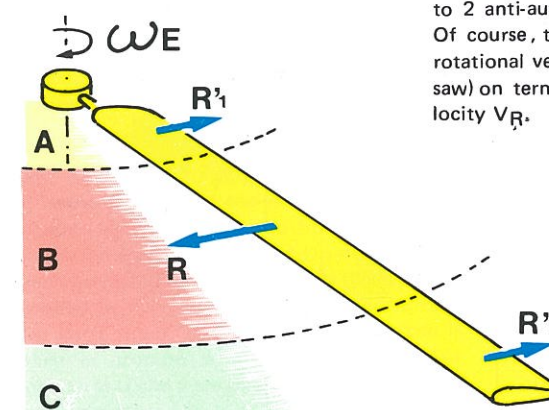


## AUTOROTATIVE AND ANTI-AUTOROTATIVE AREAS OF THE ROTOR

Because of the continuous angle of attack variation from the root to the tip of the blade, the rotor is divided into 3 distinct areas, A, B and C.



## ROTOR IN EQUILIBRIUM



Thus, every rotor blade is subjected, in area B, to an autorotative resultant force "R" and, in areas A and C, to 2 anti-autorotative forces, resultants  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ . Of course, the value of these forces depends on the rotational velocity of the rotor which depends (as we saw) on terms  $U = \omega R$  and  $V_1$  depends on the air velocity  $V_R$ .

There is an equilibrium state  $\omega_E$  such that the effect of autorotative  $R$  and antirotative  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  forces is cancelled. Then, the rotor rotates at constant velocity  $\omega_E$ . Helicopter manufacturers adjust the collective pitch value and blade twist to obtain  $\omega_E$  very close to the normal operating r.p.m.

THE INFLUENCE OF COLLECTIVE PITCH  $\theta$  ON  $\omega_E$ 

The blade's angle of attack, which conditions autorotation, naturally depends on collective pitch  $\theta$ .

- If  $\theta$  is too large, the rotor is slowed down.
- If  $\theta$  is too small, the rotor is accelerated.

**CONCLUSION.** There is an optimum pitch for autorotation. The "low pitch" limit on the collective pitch lever protects the rotor from excessive r.p.m. (and the danger of excessive centrifugal forces).

## AUTOMATIC STABILIZATION OF ROTOR R.P.M. IN AUTOROTATION

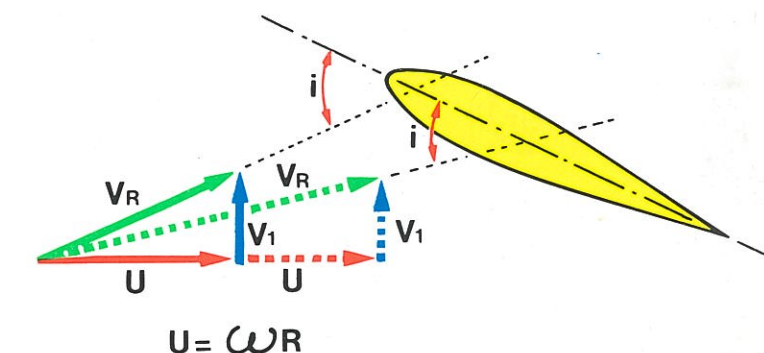
If, for some reason, velocity  $\omega$  increases,  $U = \omega R$  increases and the angle of attack decreases. The anti-autorotative area becomes preponderant, reducing the r.p.m.

If, on the other hand, velocity  $\omega$  decreases, the angle of attack increases, the auto-rotative area becomes preponderant and restores the equilibrium speed.

EFFECT OF BLADE TWIST ON  $\omega_E$ 

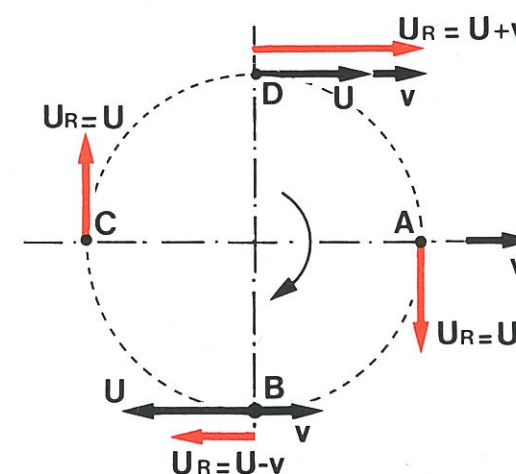
Blade twist, which increases the pitch angle at the root end and decreases it at the blade tip is a significant factor for the equilibrium speed  $\omega_E$ .

If the twist is high the autorotative area (and therefore  $\omega$ ) increases. If the twist is low, it is the anti-autorotative area which increases and the speed decreases.



If  $\omega$  increases,  $U$  increases and angle of attack decreases. The anti-autorotative force increases and the rotor, restrained, returns to the equilibrium speed  $\omega_E$ .

## AUTOROTATION FROM FORWARD FLIGHT



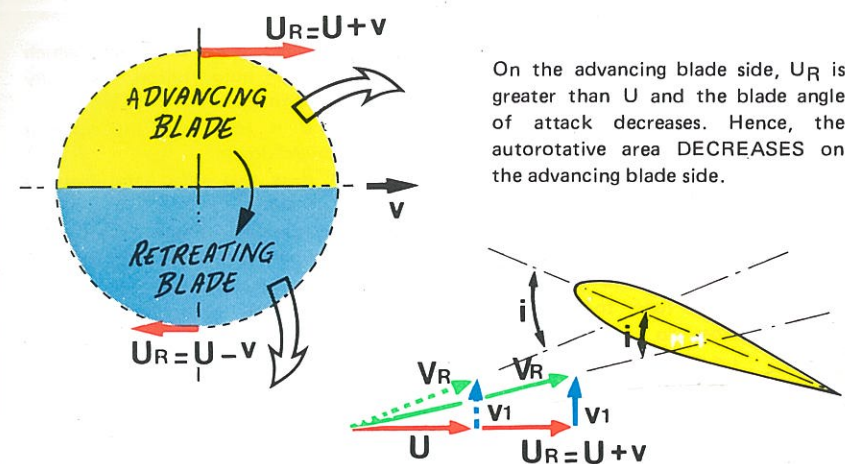
In autorotation from forward flight a new component appears, the forward speed  $v$  of the helicopter. This new factor does not change the explanation as the phenomenon remains basically the same. However, the velocity of relative wind  $V_R$  is, in this case, the resultant of:

- Blade velocity  $U$  ( $U = \omega R$ )
- Vertical velocity of air flow  $= V_1$
- Forward speed  $v$

In the plane of rotation, the blade velocity  $U$  is combined with the forward speed  $v$  to give the relative speed  $U_R$  varying with blade azimuth:

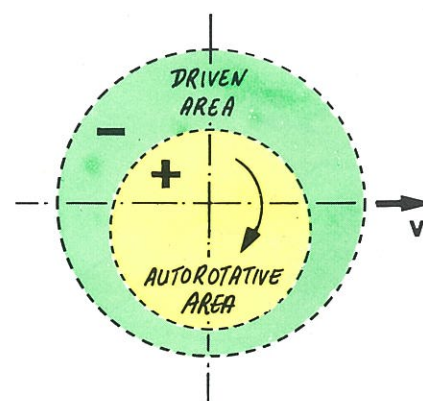
- In A and C  $U_R = U$
- In B,  $U_R$  is minimum  $U_R = U - v$
- In D  $U_R$  is maximum  $U_R = U + v$



EFFECT OF  $v$  ON  $V_R$ ,  $i$  AND THE AUTOROTATIVE AREA

On the advancing blade side,  $U_R$  is greater than  $U$  and the blade angle of attack decreases. Hence, the autorotative area DECREASES on the advancing blade side.

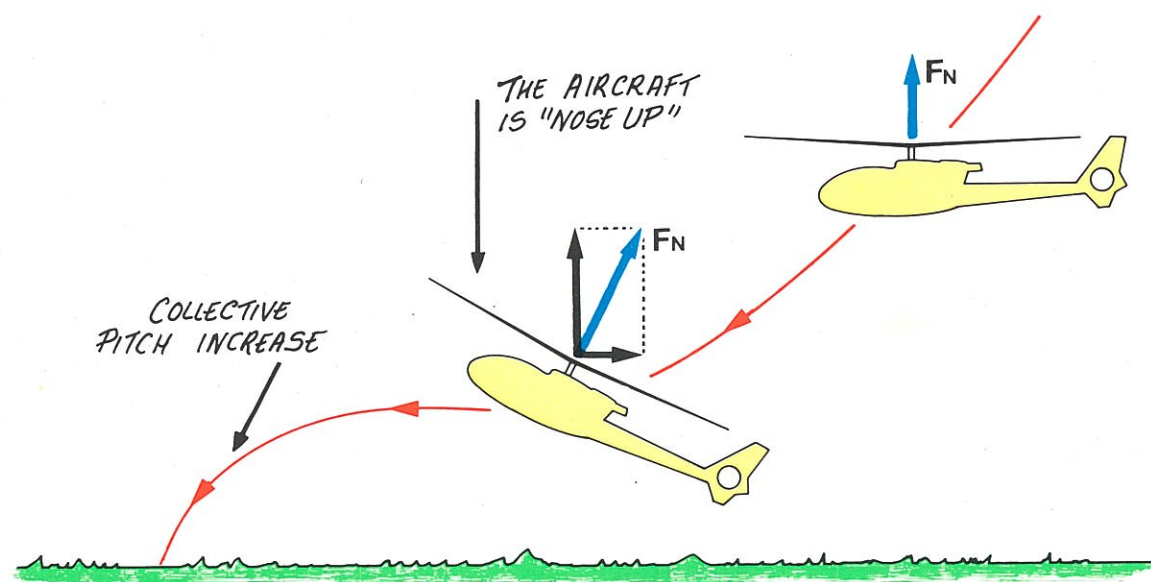
Conversely, on the retreating blade side,  $U_R$  is smaller than  $U$ . The blade angle of attack increases. Accordingly, the autorotative area INCREASES on the retreating blade side.



The angle of attack increase on the retreating blade side (and its decrease on the advancing blade side) offset the autorotative area towards the retreating blade side. Because of forward speed  $v$ :

THE AUTOROTATIVE FORCE IS PREPONDÉRANT ON RETREATING BLADES.

## AUTOROTATIVE LANDING



The autorotative descent rate remains relatively high. However, the pilot has a means of "breaking" this rate and landing softly. At some meters above the ground, the aircraft is placed "nose up" (cyclic stick backward) so as to reduce the forward speed. This results in a sharp increase in the angle of attack on all blades which, in turn, increases during a very short time the rotor r.p.m. and hence lift  $F_N$ . The aircraft rises slightly and lands while the lift decreases.

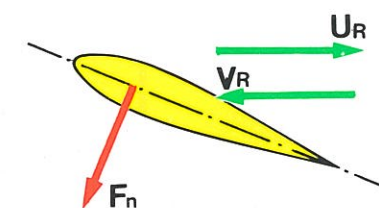
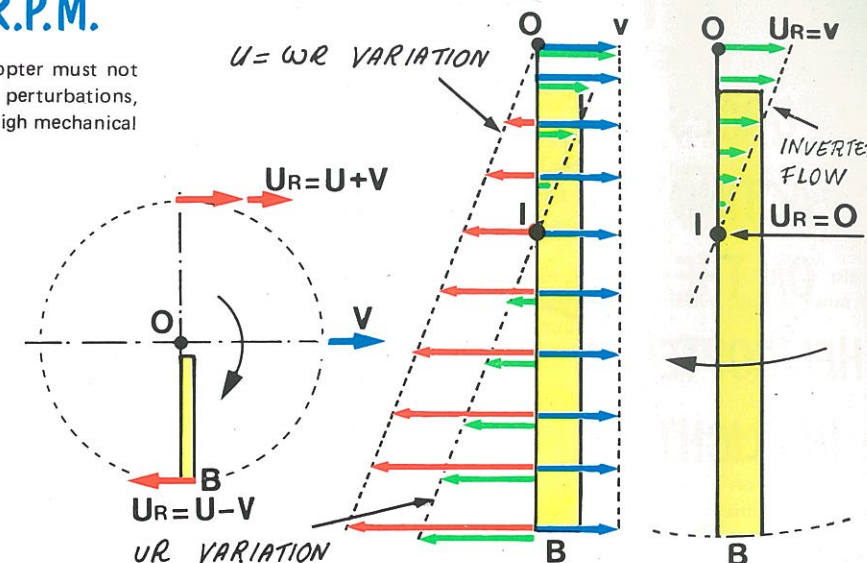
Just before landing (at 3 or 4 m. above the ground), the pilot may, by a collective pitch increase, still further increase lift. (but at the cost of rotor r.p.m.).

## LIMITATION OF ROTOR R.P.M.

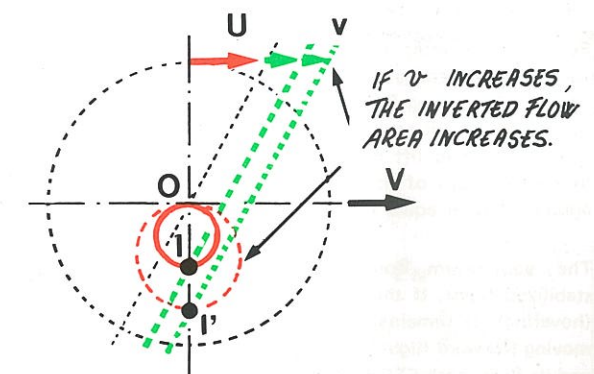
The rotor r.p.m. and forward speed of the helicopter must not exceed certain limits above which aerodynamic perturbations, develop on blades causing stall, vibrations and high mechanical stresses.

## THE INVERTED FLOW AREA

In forward flight, on the retreating blade, the forward speed  $U$  is deducted from blade speed  $U$ . The resultant relative speed  $U_R$  decreases. So much so that, at the root end, the blade will be directed in the opposite direction to the relative wind. Look at the picture. The blade is taken in azimuth B, the most unfavourable position as  $U$  and  $v$  are directly opposed. In "O" (rotor center):  $U_R = v$ . In "I" where  $U = v$ ,  $U_R = 0$ . Between O and I, the relative speed  $U_R$  is opposed to the sense of rotation of the blade. The air flow is inverted and attacks the blade on the trailing edge side.



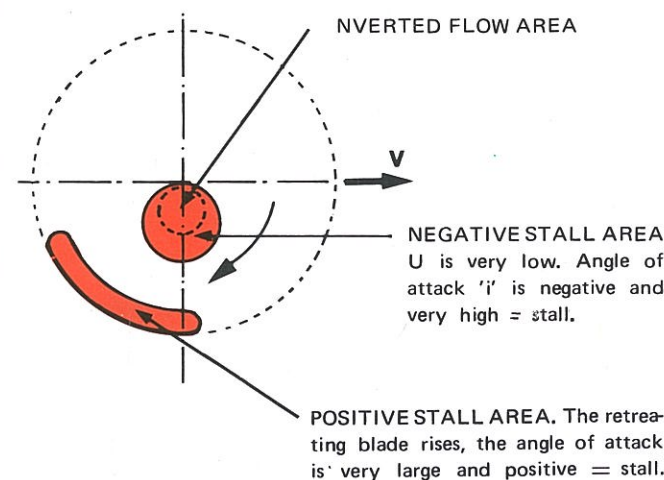
The flow inversion causes turbulence and creates NEGATIVE lift. Therefore, speeds  $U$  and  $v$  must be determined to reduce as far as possible the effect of the inverted flow.



The inverted flow area (try to construct it from the above explanation) is outlined by a circle tangential to center O of rotor and located on the retreating blade side. Diameter O I of the inverted flow area is inversely proportional to the  $U - v$  difference. It is easily understood that the forward speed " $v$ " of the helicopter is limited, otherwise performance would rapidly decrease.

## OTHER LIMITATION AREAS.

The retreating blade is also the seat of 2 stall areas:

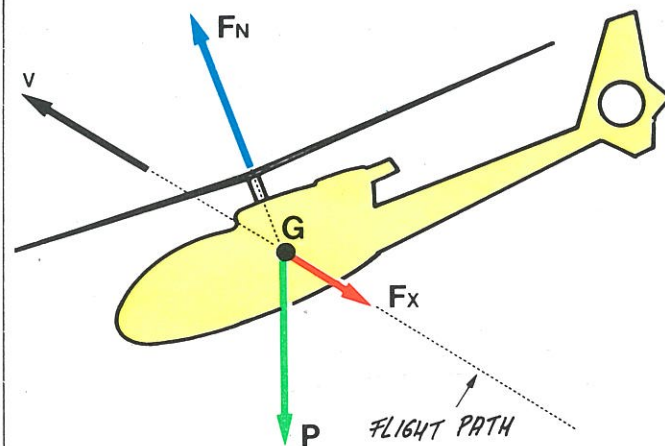


Finally, velocity  $U$  of blades must not be close to the speed of sound velocity (Mach 1) as, at Mach 0.8, compressibility phenomena appear. They cause the separation of the boundary layer and, therefore loss of lift, vibration etc ... Here it is the advancing blade which is the problem where  $U$  and  $v$  are added. Keep in mind that, for this reason the blade velocity  $U$  is limited to approximately 250 m/s.



## 7. HELICOPTER FLIGHT and the power required

### FORCES ACTING ON THE HELICOPTER IN FLIGHT



In flight, three forces act on the helicopter :

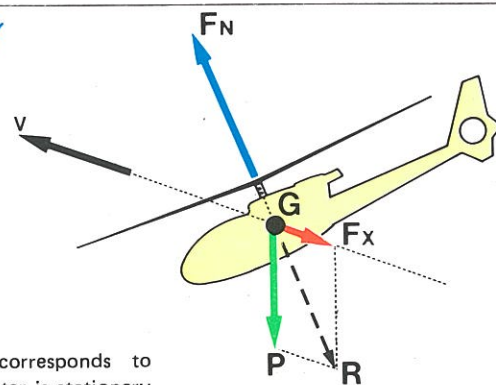
- its weight  $P$ , applied at the centre of gravity  $G$ .
- The aircraft's overall drag  $F_x$  resulting, in forward flight, from the resistance opposed by the air to the airframe.  $F_x$  is applied at the helicopter's aerodynamic centre, which to simplify the explanation is assumed to coincide with the centre of gravity  $G$ . Direction of  $F_x$  : opposite to that of forward speed ' $v$ '.

Lift  $F_N$ , applied at the rotor centre, perpendicular to the rotation plane.

### HELICOPTER EQUILIBRIUM IN FLIGHT

For the helicopter to be in equilibrium, resultant  $R$  of weight  $P$  and drag  $F_x$  should be equal and acting in opposite direction to lift  $F_N$ . The overall resultant of the forces applied is then equal to zero.

The equilibrium condition corresponds to stabilized flight. If the helicopter is stationary (hovering), it remains so. If the helicopter is moving (forward flight) its speed is CONSTANT and its flight path STRAIGHT.



$R$  EQUAL AND OPPOSITE TO  $F_N$   
THE HELICOPTER IS IN EQUILIBRIUM

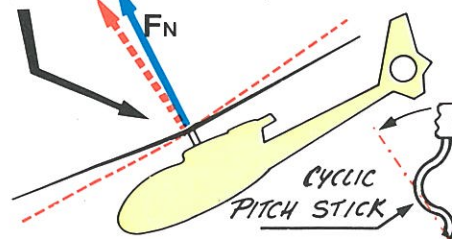


BE QUIET... BE QUIET, AERODYNAMIX  
YOUR TRIBULATIONS ARE NEARLY OVER!

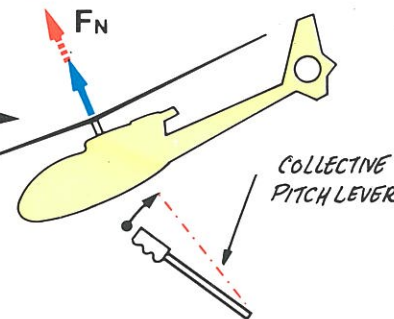
### VARIATION OF THE FORCES IN ACTION

#### VARIATION OF LIFT $F_N$ (REMINDER)

- The magnitude of  $F_N$  depends on the collective pitch.
- The direction of  $F_N$  depends on the cyclic pitch.



The increase in collective pitch results in an increase in lift  $F_N$



Variation of drag  $F_x$ .

IF  $v$  INCREASES  
 $F_x$  INCREASES AS  $v^2$

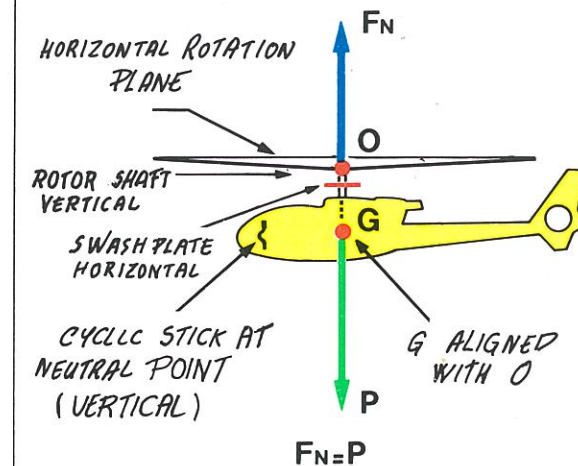
Drag  $F_x$  is expressed (as you know) by the equation  $F_x = 1/2 \rho S v^2 C_x$ , where  $C_x$  is the aircraft unit drag factor and  $S$  the cross-section area. (They are constant values for a given flight path). Remember that  $F_x$  is proportional to the square of the forward speed ' $v$ ' and to the air density ' $\rho$ '

The variation of cyclic pitch changes the tilt of  $F_N$ . It is inclined in the same direction as the cyclic stick and through an angle proportional to the cyclic stick travel. For a given collective pitch  $\theta$ ,  $F_N$  decreases as the altitude (or temperature) increases and increases as the forward speed increases. To maintain constant lift, it is necessary to increase  $\theta$  as the altitude (or temperature) increases.

### EQUILIBRIUM IN "THEORETICAL" HOVERING

(Zero wind and centre of gravity  $G$  aligned with the center of rotation  $O$ ).

### HOVERING



- In no wind conditions, the only forces in action are the lift  $F_N$  and weight  $P$ .
- The center of gravity  $G$  is aligned with the center of rotation  $O$ , hence forces  $F_N$  and  $P$  are aligned (without change in the aircraft attitude) and the rotor shaft is vertical.

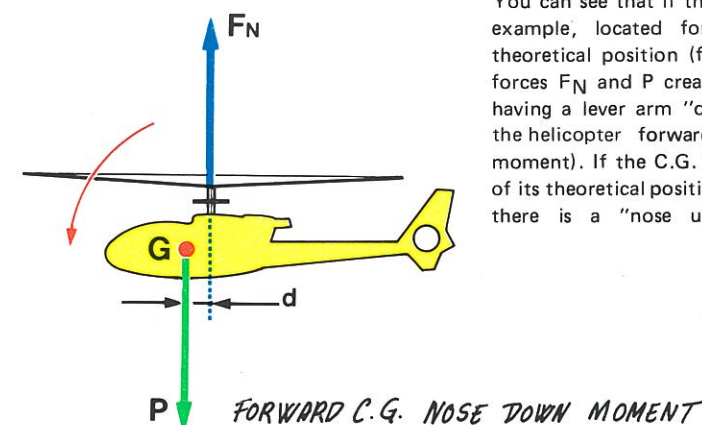
- The pilot, acting on the collective pitch lever, adjusts the collective pitch  $\theta$  value to ensure equilibrium :

$$F_N = P$$

- The cyclic pitch stick is placed in neutral position (vertical), the swash plate is horizontal, therefore there is no cyclic pitch variation and the rotation plane is horizontal.

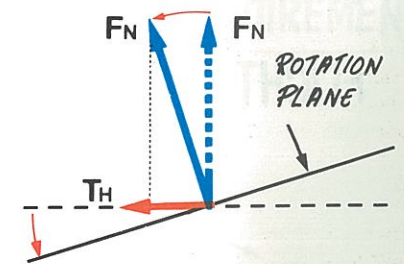
### EFFECT OF CENTRE OF GRAVITY 'G' LOCATION ON HOVERING

The center of gravity is not exactly aligned with the rotor center of rotation (theoretical location). It moves between the FORWARD and REAR C.G. limits according to the load carried and the fuel consumption.

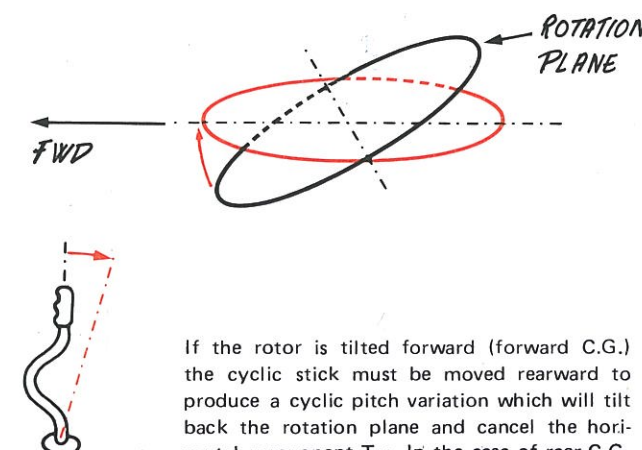


You can see that if the C.G. is, for example, located forward of its theoretical position (forward C.G.) forces  $F_N$  and  $P$  create a moment having a lever arm ' $d$ ' which tilts the helicopter forward (nose down moment). If the C.G. is located aft of its theoretical position (rear C.G.) there is a "nose up" moment.

If the cyclic stick is kept in neutral (theoretical hovering), the swash plate tilts with the helicopter (it remains perpendicular to the rotor shaft) together with the rotor rotation plane and lift  $F_N$  : the lift horizontal component  $T_H$  will initiate forward flight.

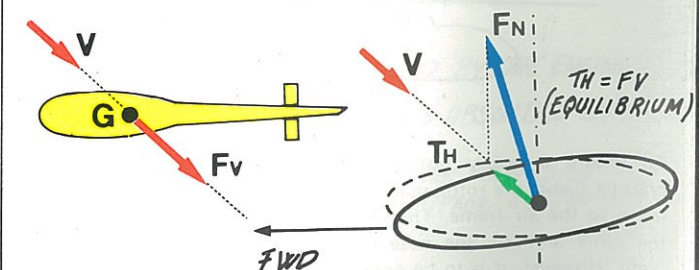


To stay in a hover, the rotation plane has to be brought back to the horizontal.



If the rotor is tilted forward (forward C.G.) the cyclic stick must be moved rearward to produce a cyclic pitch variation which will tilt back the rotation plane and cancel the horizontal component  $T_H$ . In the case of rear C.G. the stick must be moved forward.

### EFFECT OF THE WIND ON HOVERING



If there is wind, the helicopter will drift at speed  $V$  (force  $F_v$ ). To maintain hovering (cancel the drift), a new force is to be opposed to  $F_v$ . This new force is obtained by tilting the rotor disc in the opposite direction to that of the wind in such a way that horizontal component  $T_H$  is equal and opposite to  $F_v$ . Hence, in a hover, to cancel the wind effect, the cyclic stick is to be moved in the opposite direction to that of the wind and through a distance proportional to the speed of the wind.



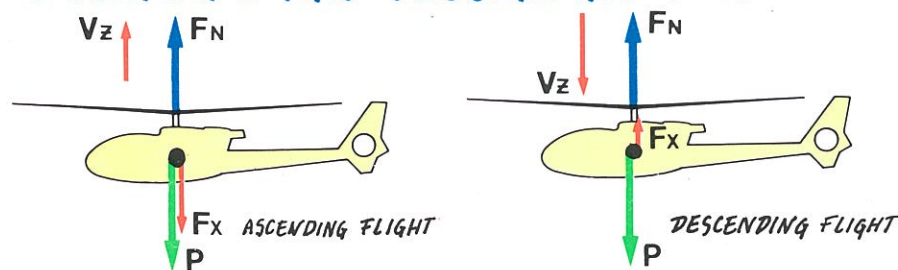
## CONCLUSION :

Hovering flight requires :

- The equality  $F_N = P$ , obtained by action on the collective pitch lever (only one lever position for a given altitude and weight "P").
- The compensation of parasite forces (C.G. location, wind ... etc.), obtained by action on the cyclic stick. And this is the real art of handling, as in hovering, the pilot has to anticipate these parasite forces (particularly the wind) by nearly continuous action on the cyclic stick.

\* There are other parasite forces ; for example : the residual thrust of the turbine engines.

## ASCENDING AND DESCENDING FLIGHT

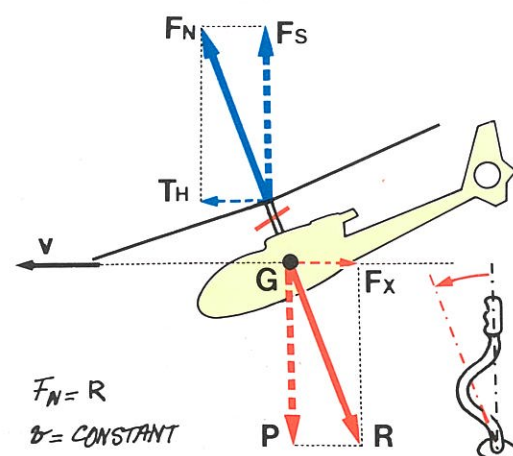


Vertical flight from hovering is initiated by acting on the collective pitch lever.

- Increase of pitch.  $F_N$  increases and the helicopter climbs ( $F_N > P$ )
- Decrease of pitch.  $F_N$  decreases and the helicopter descends ( $F_N < P$ ).

It is to be noted that drag  $F_x$ , which increases with vertical speed  $V_z$ , gives an equilibrium position ( $V_z = \text{constant}$ ) when  $F_N = P + F_x$  (in ascending flight)  
 $F_N + F_x = P$  (in descending flight)

## EQUILIBRIUM IN FORWARD FLIGHT

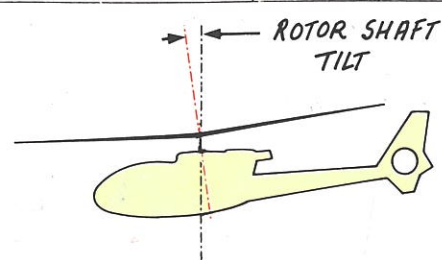


By moving the cyclic stick forward, there is a longitudinal cyclic pitch variation causing a forward tilt of the rotor disc (this tilt is proportional to the stick travel). Then, lift  $F_N$  has two components :

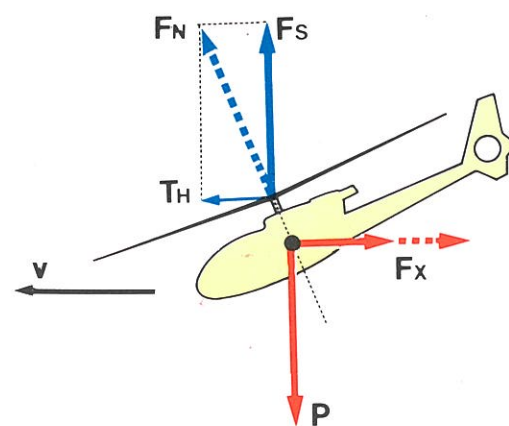
- $F_S$  providing lift and balancing weight  $P$
- $T_H$  providing forward drive and balancing drag  $F_x$ .

The aircraft attitude corresponds to the rotor disc tilt, this being uncomfortable for the crew (and the passengers), particularly at high speed when rotor disc tilt is increased to have a greater  $T_H$ .

## FORWARD FLIGHT



To ensure a nearly horizontal helicopter attitude in cruising flight, the rotor shaft is tilted slightly forward relative to the air frame. This tilt (about 5°) decreases, by the same amount, the nose down attitude in forward flight. However, it is to be noted that, hovering, the rotor shaft tilt has to be compensated by moving the cyclic stick rearward.

EFFECT OF DRAG  $F_x$ 

For given collective and cyclic pitches (i.e. a well defined value of  $T_H$  and  $F_S$ ), forward speed "v" will increase until the drag ( $F_x = 1/2 \rho S v^2 C_x$ ), increasing as the square of this speed, balances the forward component  $T_H$ . Then, the forward speed remains constant. After that, if a higher speed v is desired,  $F_N$  (i.e.  $T_H$ ) has to be increased. The new value of  $T_H$  corresponds to a new equilibrium speed. It is to be noted that any higher of  $F_N$  results in an increase of  $F_S$ . Hence, if an altitude gain is not desired, the rotor disc has to be tilted a little more.

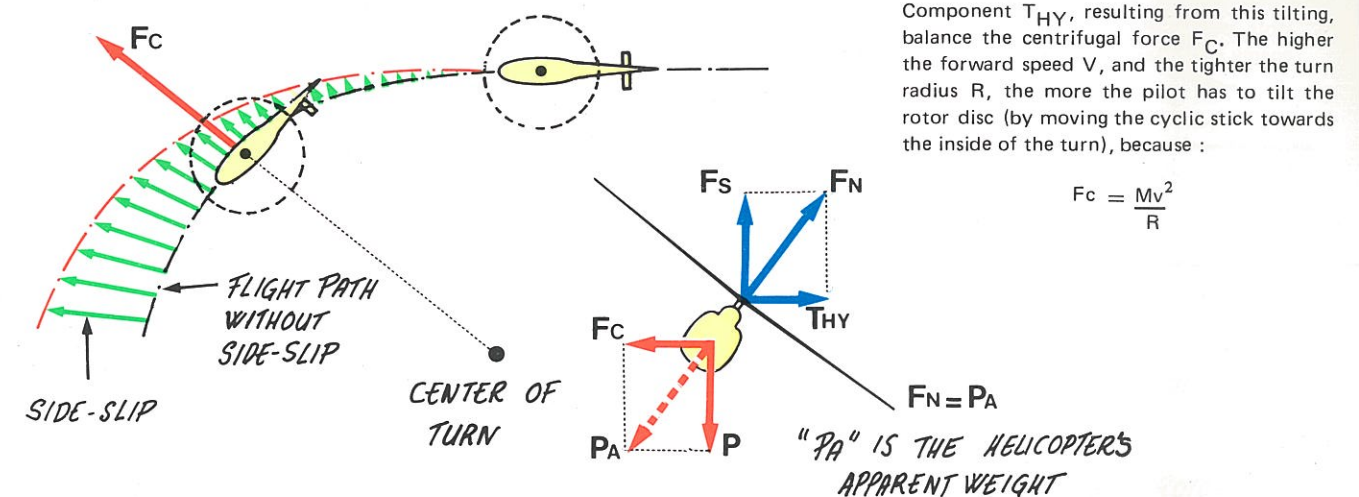
EFFECT OF FORWARD SPEED "v" ON LIFT "FN"  
(REMINDER)

For a given value of collective pitch, lift  $F_N$  increases as the forward speed increases.

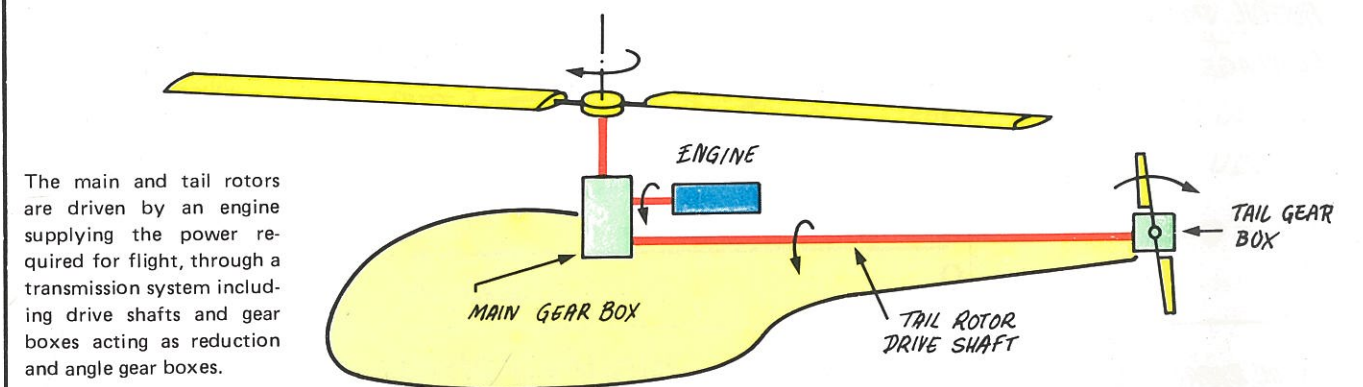
Consequence : The collective pitch required for forward flight is smaller than that required in hovering. We will review this when talking about the power required for flight.

## EQUILIBRIUM IN TURNS

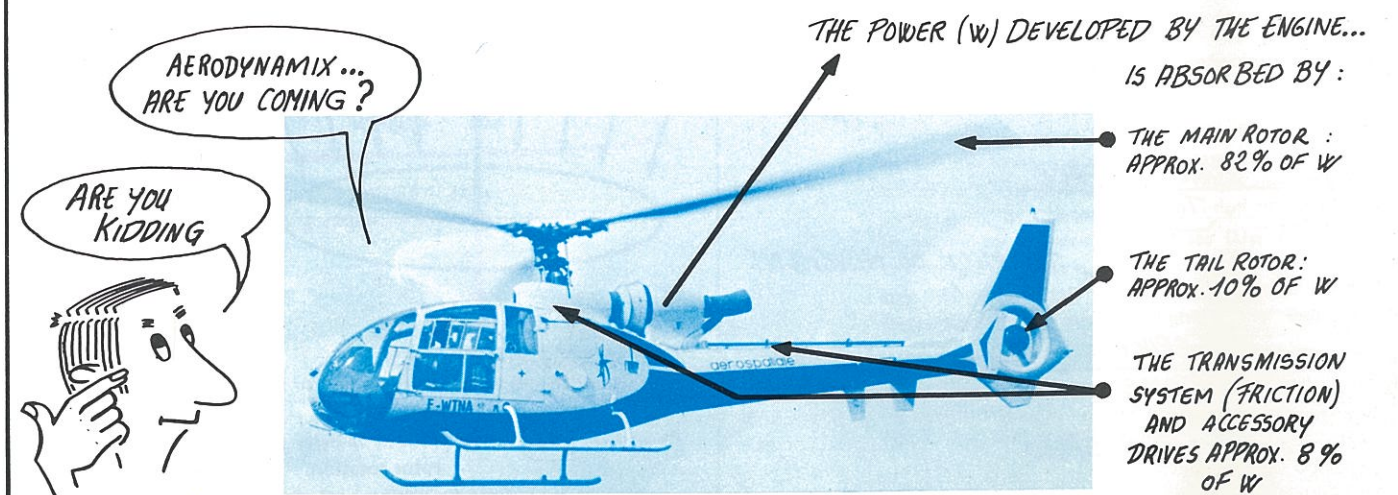
In turns, a new force appears, the centrifugal force  $F_C$  which, if not balanced, would cause side-slipping. To balance  $F_C$ , it is again rotor disc tilt which is used :



## THE POWER REQUIRED FOR FLIGHT AND BASIC POWER REQUIREMENTS



The main and tail rotors are driven by an engine supplying the power required for flight, through a transmission system including drive shafts and gear boxes acting as reduction and angle gear boxes.



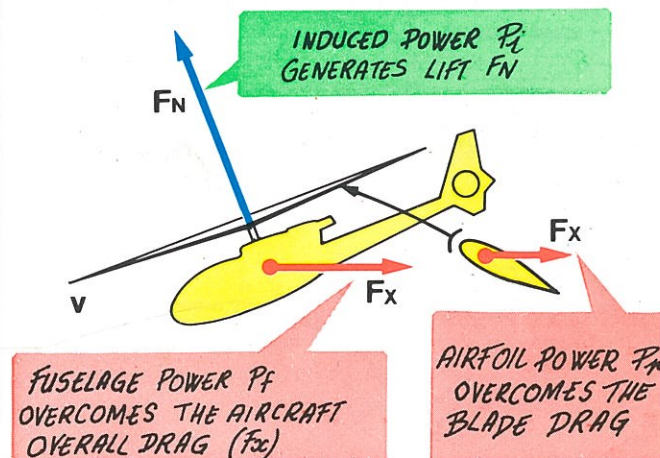
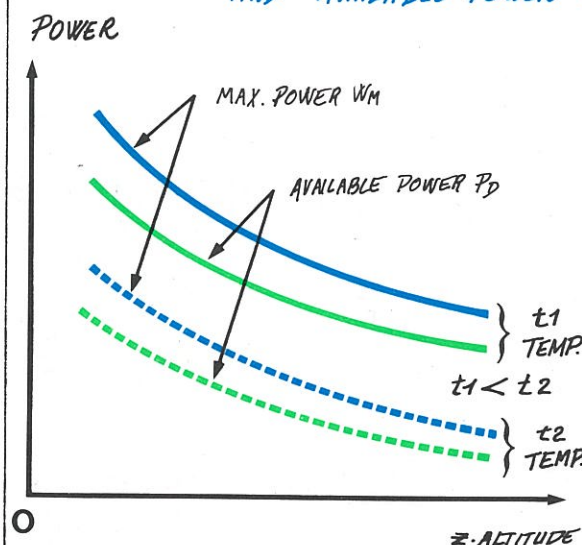
AERODYNAMIX... ARE YOU COMING?

ARE YOU KIDDING



## DEFINITIONS:

- The AVAILABLE POWER ( $P_D$ ) is the power usable at the main rotor, that is power "W" developed by the engine, less the power absorbed by the tail rotor and transmission system. It amounts to 80 - 85 % of W.
- The power required for flight ( $P_N$ ) is the energy absorbed by the main rotor to keep the helicopter flying. The power required depends on the flight conditions; helicopter weight, altitude, forward speed, ambient temperature. It is limited by the available power ( $P_D$ ), since the main rotor cannot absorb more energy ( $P_N$ ) than it receives ( $P_D$ ).

THE 3 LEVELS OF THE POWER REQUIRED ( $P_N$ ) AND THE 3 BASIC POWER REQUIREMENTSVARIATION OF MAX POWER ( $W_M$ ) DEVELOPED BY THE ENGINE AND AVAILABLE POWER ( $P_D$ ).

The engine power  $W$  depends on the air density  $\rho$ .  $W$  decreases as  $\rho$  decreases.  $\rho$  depends on the atmospheric pressure and the air temperature and so... power decreases as the altitude and temperature increase.

The available power ( $P_D$ ), being a constant percentage of  $W_1$  (82% approx.), varies as  $W_M$ .

$$\text{POWER REQUIRED } (P_N) = \text{INDUCED POWER } (P_i) + \text{AIRFOIL POWER } (P_a) + \text{FUSELAGE POWER } (P_f)$$

## GENERAL EXPRESSION OF POWER (REMINDER)

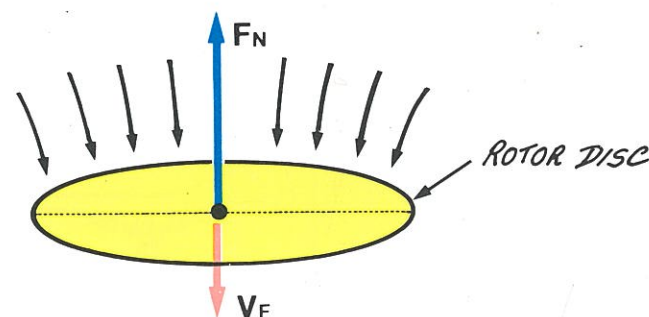
$$P = \frac{\text{FORCE} \times \text{SPACE}}{\text{TIME}}$$

MOVEMENT OF FORCE APPLICATION POINT

DURATION OF MOVEMENT

$$\text{SINCE } \frac{\text{SPACE}}{\text{TIME}} = \text{SPEED}$$

$$P = \text{FORCE} \times \text{SPEED}$$

INDUCED POWER  $P_i$ 

This demonstrates that the expression for induced power is :

$$P_i = F_N \cdot V_F \rightarrow \text{Froude velocity transmitted to the air by the rotor rotation.}$$

VARIATION OF INDUCED POWER  $P_i = F_N \cdot V_F$ 

- The term  $F_N$  of the induced power expression depends on the helicopter weight only :

$$F_N = P = m \cdot g$$

- The term  $V_F$  depends mainly on forward speed  $v$ , in fact (remember)

$$V_1 = V_0 + V_F \quad V_F = V_1 - V_0$$

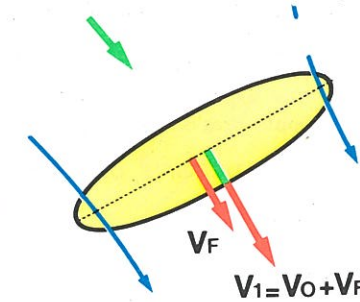
$V_0$ , velocity at the infinite upstream of the rotor disc is equal to the forward speed  $v$ . Hence, the expression :

$$V_F = V_1 - v$$

Remember that  $V_F$  (hence  $P_i$ ) decreases as  $v$  increases.

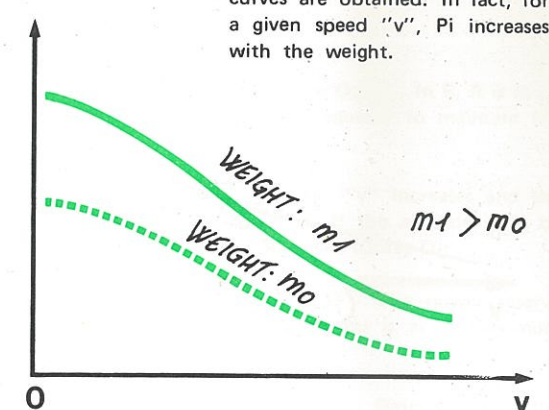
$\infty$  UPSTREAM

$V_0 = v$  (FORWARD SPEED)



$$P_i = F_N \cdot V_F$$

This is the general pattern of  $P_i$  variation relative to  $v$ . It is to be noted that for different helicopter weights ( $m_0, m_1, \dots$ ), different curves are obtained. In fact, for a given speed " $v$ ",  $P_i$  increases with the weight.

AIRFOIL POWER ( $P_a$ )

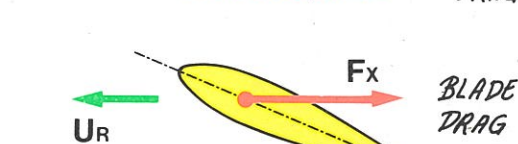
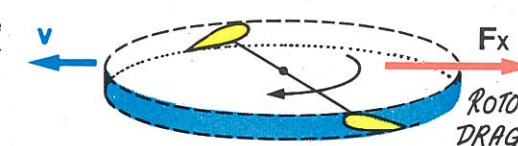
ALSO CALLED PASSIVE POWER

This is the power required to overcome blade drag. The expression for the rotor overall drag is similar to that of the blade :

$$F_x = 1/2 \rho S v^2 C_x$$

where

- $\rho$  : air density
- $S$  : airfoil cross-section area
- $v$  : airfoil relative velocity  $v = U_R$
- $C_x$  : rotor unit drag coefficient.

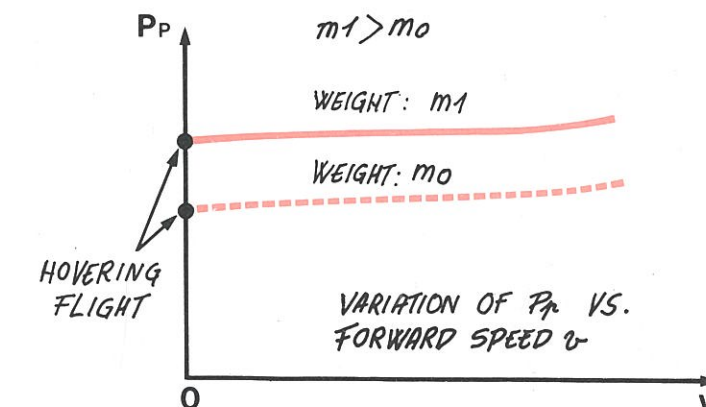


$$F_x = 1/2 \rho S U_R^2 C_x$$

AIRFOIL POWER ( $P_a$ ) IS THE PRODUCT OF THE ROTOR DRAG TIMES THE RELATIVE BLADE VELOCITY ( $U_R$ )

$$P_a = F_x \cdot U_R = 1/2 \rho S U_R^3 C_x = 1/2 \rho S U_R^3 C_x$$

## VARIATION OF AIRFOIL POWER



The variable terms of the  $P_a$  expression are :  $\rho, U_R$  and  $C_x$

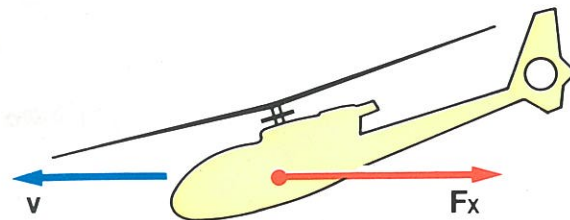
Effect of these terms on  $P_a$  :

- $\rho$  :  $P_a$  increases as the altitude or temperature increases
- $U_R$  :
  - In a hovering, where  $U_R = U = \omega R$ ,  $P_a$  is constant. In fact, the rotor operates at constant speed.
  - In forward flight, the relative blade velocity  $U_R$  varies with the forward speed " $v$ ". But, if the advancing blade velocity increases ( $U_R = U + v$ ) that of the retreating blade decreases ( $U_R = U - v$ ) and " $v$ " brings little change in the airfoil power. Remember that  $P_a$  increases slightly as " $v$ " increases.

$C_x$

$C_x$  varies with lift ( $C_z$ ), hence  $P_a$  increases together with  $F_N$ , that is with the helicopter weight  $P = m \cdot g$ .



FUSELAGE POWER ( $P_f$ )

$$F_x = \frac{1}{2} \rho S v^2 C_x$$

This is the power required to overcome the helicopter drag. Therefore, like the airfoil power, it is a passive power. The expression for the helicopter drag is:

$$F_x = \frac{1}{2} \rho S v^2 C_x$$

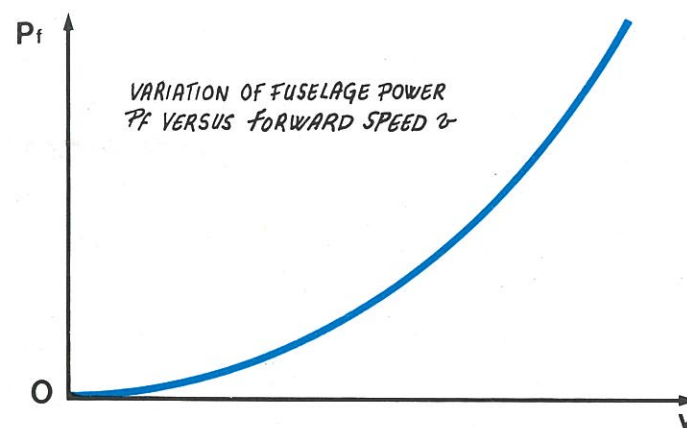
where:

- $S$ : max cross-section area
- $v$ : forward speed
- $C_x$ : drag coefficient.

The fuselage power is the product of the helicopter drag times the forward speed.

$$\begin{aligned} P_f &= F_x \cdot v \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \rho S v^3 C_x \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \rho S v^3 C_x \end{aligned}$$

## VARIATION OF FUSELAGE POWER

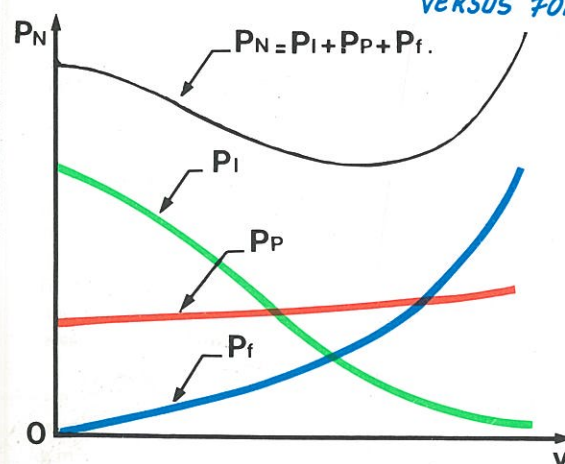


VARIATION OF FUSELAGE POWER  $P_f$  VERSUS FORWARD SPEED  $v$

$$P_f = \frac{1}{2} \rho S v^3 C_x$$

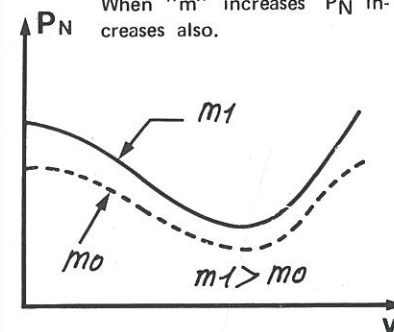
The terms  $S$  and  $C_x$  in the fuselage power expression have little effect and depend on the helicopter flight path. (Variation of max. cross-section and angle of attack of helicopter surfaces.)

- $\rho$  has the usual effect:  $P_f$  decreases as the altitude or temperature increases.
- But the forward speed factor " $v$ " plays a significant role.  $P_f$  varies as the cube of this speed; that is, the fuselage power increases very quickly as the forward speed increases.

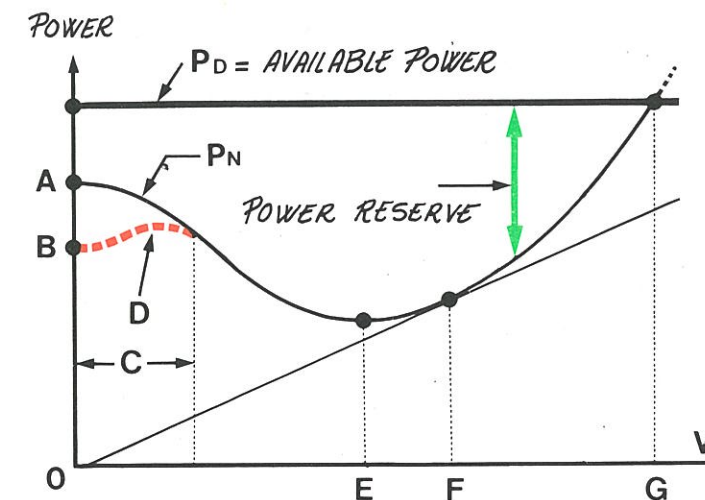
VARIATION OF THE POWER REQUIRED  $P_N$  VERSUS FORWARD SPEED  $v$ .

The power required  $P_N$  is the sum of the 3 basic power ratings:  $P_i$ ,  $P_p$  and  $P_f$ . If, for each value of the forward speed, the corresponding values of  $P_i$ ,  $P_p$  and  $P_f$  are added, the " $P_N$  variation vs. speed " $v$ " curve is obtained for a given altitude and weight. You may note that  $P_N$  decreases as " $v$ " increases, falls to a minimum value then increases rapidly (effect of  $P_f$ ).

EFFECT OF HELICOPTER WEIGHT " $m$ ". As for the elementary curves, there is a  $P_N$  curve for each helicopter weight " $m$ ". When " $m$ " increases  $P_N$  increases also.



## REVIEW OF THE CURVE "POWER REQUIRED VS. SPEED" - NOTEWORTHY POINTS



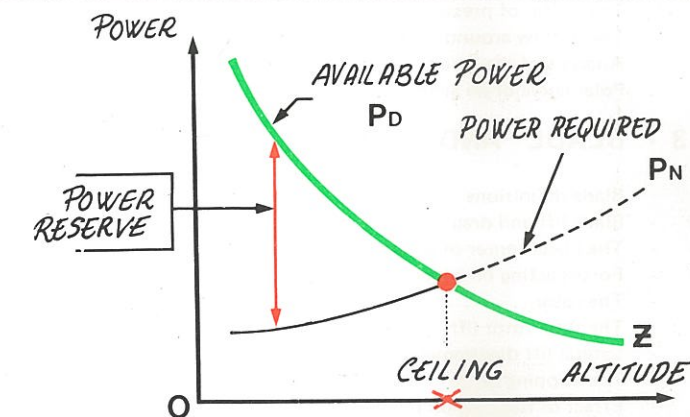
- In A, the helicopter is hovering O.G.E.. In B, it is in an I.G.E. hover. Less power is required to maintain the I.G.E. hover.
- C is called the transition zone, " $v$ " increases and the ground effect is less effective. If the altitude is to be held, the power has to be increased (Curve D).
- E - MINIMUM POWER SPEED - The power reserve (space between  $P_D$  and  $P_N$  curves) is at its maximum value.
- F - MAX. EFFICIENCY SPEED - Determined by the tangent drawn to the curve from "O". The  $\frac{P_N}{v}$  ratio is the smallest possible; this means that at this point, the highest possible speed is obtained at the lowest possible power (best range speed).
- G - Maximum speed. Determined by the intersection of the  $P_N$  and  $P_D$  curves. There is no power reserve.

HELICOPTER CEILINGS  
ALTITUDE LIMITS

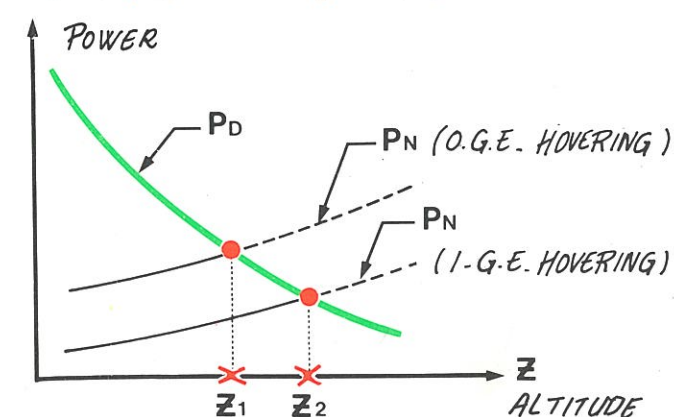
The culprit here is the air density (and solely that) which decreases progressively as the altitude increases:

- Firstly the altitude increases, the engine suffers more and more from a lack of air and the power developed falls as does the associated available power  $P_D$ .
- Secondly the air's carrying capacity, is progressively decreasing and more energy (pitch, increase) is required to maintain the same lift value. Therefore the result is an increase of the induced power ( $P_i$ ), and hence of the power required ( $P_N$ ).

CONSEQUENCE: Obviously, the " $P_N$ " upward curve intersects the  $P_D$  downward curve - the corresponding altitude is called "CEILING" there is no power reserve and the helicopter cannot climb any longer.

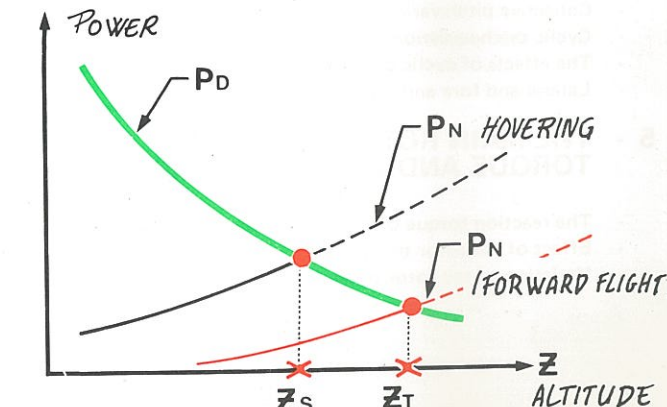


## CEILING IN HOVERING FLIGHT...



In ground effect, where less power is absorbed the ceiling is higher than in O.G.E. conditions:  $Z_2 > Z_1$

## AND IN FORWARD FLIGHT



The power required  $P_N$  decreases as the forward speed increases. Therefore, the ceiling in forward flight is higher than the ceiling in hovering flight:  $Z_t > Z_s$ .