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NASA Contractor Report - 166051

# F-111 NATURAL LAMINAR FLOW GLOVE FLIGHT TEST DATA ANALYSIS AND BOUNDARY LAYER STABILITY ANALYSIS

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**Preliminary Design Department** 

BOEING COMMERCIAL AIRPLANE COMPANY P.O. BOX 3707, SEATTLE, WASHINGTON 98124

CONTRACT NAS1-15325 JANUARY 1984

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NATIONAL Aeronautico and Space Administration

Langley Research Center Hampton Virginia 12665

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NATIONAL AERONAUTICS AND SPACE ADMINISTRATION LANGLEY RESEARCH CENTER

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### FOREWORD

This report presents the results of the F-111 Natural Laminar Flow Glove Flight Test Data Analysis and Boundary Layer Stability Analysis. The work was conducted under NASA Contract NAS1-15325 from August 1981 through June 1982. Eight additional cases were analyzed in May, June, and July 1983. Two of the 25 data cases analyzed and included herein were funded by Boeing Independent Research and Development (IR&D). The contract was managed by the NASA Energy Efficient Transport Office (EETPO), which is headed by R. V. Hood, and is a part of the Aircraft Energy Efficiency (ACEE) program organization at Langley Research Center. D. B. Middleton was the technical monitor for the contract. The work was performed by the Preliminary Design department and the Technical Staff of the Boeing Commercial Airplane Company. Key contractor personnel responsible for this effort were:

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#### 1.0 SUMMARY

Airplane wing profile drag can be significantly reduced by designing the wing to have extended natural laminar flow (NLF). Extended NLF relies on favorable chordwise pressure gradients to stabilize the boundary layer and maintain laminar flow. The amount of natural laminar flow, however, depends on the Reynolds number, Mach number, and sweep angle.

A NASA flight program incorporating an NLF airfoil into partial wing gloves on the F-111 Transonic Aircraft Technology (TACT) airplane was conducted in mid-1980 to evaluate the extent of NLF at relatively high Reynolds numbers through a range of wing sweep angles. This report contains an analysis of 34 selected cases of flight test data from that program. From measured boundary layer velocity profiles, the analysis determined the location of transition from laminar to fully turbulent flow in the boundary layer. The report also contains the results of a boundary layer stability analysis of 25 selected cases in which crossflow and Tollmien-Schlichting disturbance amplification factors were correlated with the transition location. The chord Reynolds numbers for these cases ranged from 23 to 29 million, and the Mach numbers ranged from 0.80 to 0.85.

The results of the flight test data analysis show that the maximum extent of laminar flow varied from 56% chord at 9-deg sweep to 21% chord at 25-deg sweep on the upper surface, and from 51% chord at 9-deg sweep to 6% chord at 25-deg sweep on the lower surface. Because the transition location was not measured directly in this test but inferred from measured boundary layer velocity profiles, there is some uncertainty associated with these transition locations.

The results of the boundary layer stability analysis show that in cases for which crossflow amplification was zero, the Tollmein-Schlichting amplification factor at transition ranged from 7.8 to 12.9. None of the cases analyzed had zero T-S amplification. For the cases in which both types of disturbances are amplified, the results indicate that an interaction takes place reducing the maximum amplification factor of either type of disturbance that can be tolerated without causing transition. Many of the lower surface results showed transition at unexpectedly low amplification factors, indicating that transition was probably affected by external disturbances, such as engine noise or insect contamination.

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The results of the boundary layer stability analysis should increase confidence in the results of future NLF design work. However, because of the limited flight data base and the uncertainty in transition location resulting from the type of instrumentation used on the glove, a more comprehensive flight test is needed. It is recommended of the a new flight test program be initiated to further explore the effects of  $w = \frac{1}{2}$  sweep lift coefficient, and Mach number and also the effects of Reynolds number and noise. The test should have improved instrumentation to now transition location directly and in real time.

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## 2.0 INTRODUCTION

The recent rise in jet fuel prices has caused an increased interest in improving aircraft fuel efficiency. A promising way to achieve significant improvements is to design a wing to provide extensive laminar flow. NASA's Aircraft Energy Efficiency (ACEE) program has sponsored development of laminar flow technology for application to commercial transport airplanes. The ACEE studies (refs. 1, 2, and 3) show that with continuous chordwise suction, disturbances in the laminar boundary layer can be effectively controlled to sufficient'y high Reynolds numbers and sweep angles to make laminar flow control (LFC) potentially feasible for use on large transports.

Investigations of natural laminar flow (NLF) (ref. 4) show that significant regions of laminar flow, although more limited than attainable with LFC, can be obtained on wings without suction if the pressure distribution is selected to retard disturbance growth in the laminar boundary layer. However, the range of sweep angles and Reynolds numbers at which NLF will work is limited. A flight test program to investigate these NLF limits was conducted by NASA-Dryden Flight Research Center. The flight vehicle was the F-111 Transonic Aircraft Technology (TACT) airplane fitted with partial wing gloves designed for extended laminar flow.

The best methods currently available for designing laminar flow wings are t = 0 on linear boundary layer stability theory. This theory is used to calculate the growth of disturbances in the boundary layer. The two primary types of disturbances that are usually critical are the crossflow (C-F) mode and the Tollmien-Schlichting (T-S) mode. In previous applications of the theory, transition has been assumed to occur when the factor by which either disturbance has been amplified exceeds some allowable value. It has been suggested that a criterion based on an appropriate relationship between amplification factors for T-S and C-F disturbances should be used. Because the linear stability theory is used in combination with some form of transition criterion to predict the transition point, this amplification criterion is a key element of the laminar flow wing design method and must be established by correlation between theory and experimental data.

Only a limited amount of experimental data are available from full-scale flight tests of partially laminarized wings (refs. 5, 6, 7, and 8). These previous flight test programs provided useful data for laminar flow research and for the calibration of

theoretical methods. However, the F-111 NLF glove flight test was the first systematic flight test investigation of the effect of sweep on high-speed laminar boundary layer transition. As a result, this is the first set of flight test data that can provide guidance concerning the way C-F and T-S disturbances interact to cause transition.

#### 2.1 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study were-

- o To analyze F-111 NLF glove flight test data (pressure distributions and boundary layer velocity profiles) for 34 selected cases (flight conditions) to determine the location of boundary layer transition from laminar to fully turbulent flow.
- To analyze the boundary layer stability of 25 of the selected flight test cases and correlate C-F and T-S disturbance amplification factors with the transition location for each case.
- o To use these results to assess the interaction of C-F and T-S disturbances during the transition process.

#### 2.2 APPROACH

#### 2.2.1 Flight Test Data Analysis

The flight test data consisted of pressure distributions and boundary layer velocity profiles measured at a single spanwise station on the glove. For each case, in addition to the natural transition flight, at least one flight was made in which transition was forced with a trip strip at a known chordwise location on the glove. By computing the displacement-thickness Reynolds number f om the measured velocity profile for each of these forced transition flights and comparing it to that of the natural transition flight, the natural transition location for a given case was determined. Theoretical boundary layer calculations were used to aid in the analysis. Details of the analysis method are given in Appendix A.

## 2.2.2 Boundary Layer Stability Analysis

The boundary layer stability analysis was performed using Boeing computer programs with input data consisting of measured pressure distributions, Reynolds numbers, Mach numbers and glove sweep angles. This analysis yielded the maximum disturbance amplification factor as a function of chordwise location for both C-F and T-S disturbances. The measured transition location for each case (as determined in the first part of the study) was then used to determine the C-F and T-S disturbance amplification factors at transition for each case.

## 3.0 SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

#### 3.1 ACRONYMS

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C-F	crossflow
DELTA	boundary layer thickness (height above surface at which velocity is 99% of local freestream velocity)
KS	component of dimensional wave number parallel to the leading edge
LFC	laminar flow control
NCF	crossflow disturbance amplification factor
NLF	natural laminar flow
NTS	Tollmien-Schlichting disturbance amplification factor
RDTH	displacement thickness Reynolds number
REC	Reynolds number based on chord
TACT	Transonic Aircraft Technology
T-S	Tollmien-Schlichting
TRANS	transition location, x/c

## 3.2 MATHEMATICAL SYMBOLS

Α	disturbance amplitude
A <sub>o</sub>	disturbance amplitude at neutral stability point
c	chord
Ē	average chord
C <sub>L</sub>	airplane lift coefficient
C <sub>p</sub>	pressure coefficient
C <sub>PN</sub>	pressure coefficient based on velocity normal to glove leading edge
<sup>a</sup> * <sub>r s</sub> = KS	component of dimensional wavenumber in direction of glove leading edge
In A/A <sub>o</sub>	amplification factor
Μ	Mach number
N	disturbance amplification factor (ln A/A <sub>o</sub> )
P	pressure .
P	dynamic pressure
R <sub>δ</sub> * = RDTH	displacement thickness Reynolds number ( $U_e \delta * / \nu$ )

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Re <sub>c</sub>	Reynolds number based on chord $(U_{\infty}c/\nu)$
s/c	normalized arc length from leading edge along glove surface
U <sub>e</sub>	velocity at edge of boundary lay <del>er</del>
U	undisturbed reference velocity
u	component of velocity parallel to boundary layer rake
u	component of velocity parallel to local potential flow direction
w'	component of velocity normal to local potential flow direction
x/c	normalized distance from leading edge along airfoil chord
у	distance above glove surface
y/c	normalized airfoil ordinate
a	angle of attack
δ	boundary layer thickness (height above surface at which velocity is 99% of local freestream velocity)
δ*	boundary layer displacement thickness
۸	sweep angle
V	dynamic viscosity coefficient

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# 3.3 SUBSCRIPTS

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e	denotes edge of boundary layer
L	lower surface
LE	leading edge
N	normal to glove leading edge
TE	trailing edge
TR	transition
U	upper surface
<b>90</b>	undisturbed reference condition

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## 4.0 CONFIGURATION AND FLIGHT TEST DESCRIPTION

1. 1. 1.

A program initiated by NASA-Dryden Flight Research Center (DFRC) resulted in the design of a natural laminar (NFL) flow airfoil. This NLF airfoil was developed jointly by NASA-Dryden Flight Research and Langley Research Centers as a part of the Aircraft Energy Efficiency (ACEE) program. The airfoil was designed to have favorable pressure gradients over 50% of the lower surface and 65% of the upper surface. A partial wing glove incorporating this airfoil was designed by NASA to fit over the outer wing panels of the variable sweep F-111 Transonic Aircraft Technology (TACT) airplane. A photograph of the F-111 with NLF gloves in flight and a planform view of the glove and airplane are shown in Figure 1. A sketch of the NLF airfoil is shown in Figure 2. Airfoil coordinates are given in Appendix B.

The glove airfoil section was defined to be streamwise for a leading-edge sweep angle of 10 deg. The glove leading-edge sweep angle was controllable from 9 to 26 deg.

Both wings of the F-111 were fitted with NLF gloves. The right glove was instrumented to measure pressure distributions and boundary layer velocity profiles. A row of upper and lower surface pressure orifices was located at the midspan of the glove. The left glove was added for symmetry.

A boundary layer rake was located at 90% of the chord on both the upper and lower surfaces for the first 17 flights, and at 60% chord on the upper surface, and 50% chord on the lower surface for the last two flights. The boundary layer rakes were 4 inches high and consisted of 18 pressure probes each. The boundary layer rakes and the pressure orifice rows were aligned in the streamwise position relative to the flow for a wing sweep of 10 deg.

The boundary layer velocity profiles measured by the rakes were the primary means of determining the transition location for each case. In order to calibrate data derived from the measured velocity profile for natural transition (clean wing) against the boundary layer transition location, flights were made for which transition was forced by a boundary layer trip strip attached to the surface of the wing. Forced transition flights were made with the trip at 5% chord when the rakes were in the forward location, and for five trip locations ranging from 5% to 50% chord when the rakes were at 90% chord.



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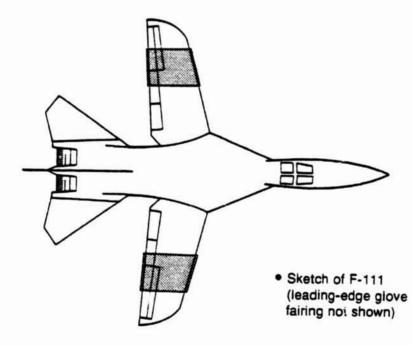
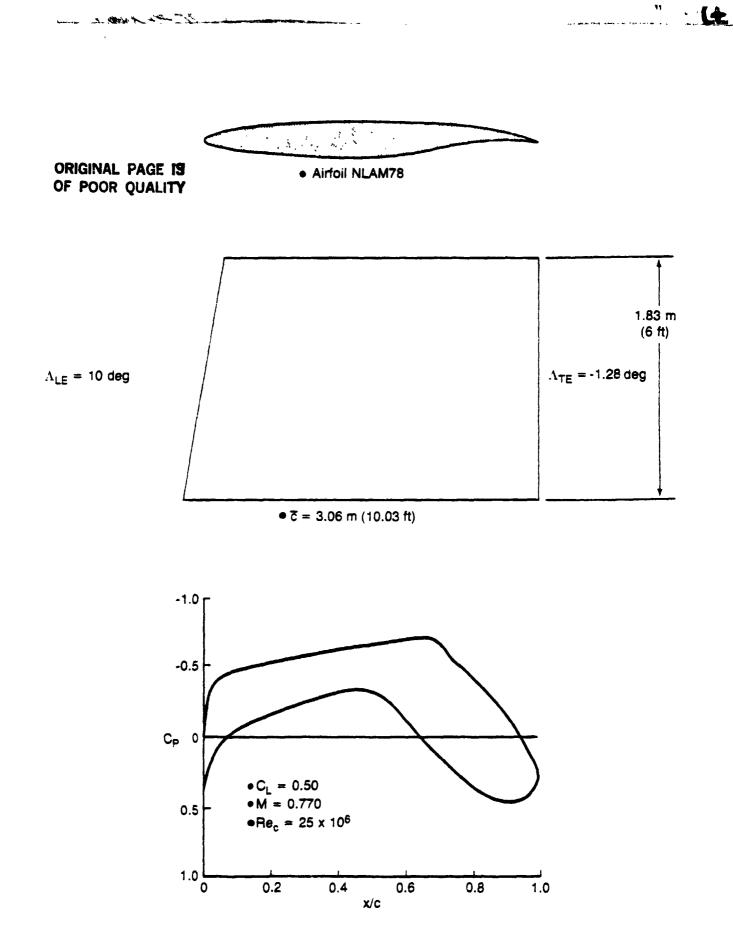


Figure 1. F-111 With NLF Glove



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Nineteen flights were made at altitudes of either 9144m (30 000 ft) or 7620m (25 000 ft) and at Mach numbers ranging from 0.80 to 0.85. The resulting Reynolds numbers, based on the average chord of the glove, varied from about 23 million at 9144m (30 000 ft) to about 29 million at 7620m (25 000 ft). The glove leading-edge sweep langle varied from 9 to 26 deg.

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### 5.0 FLIGHT TEST DATA ANALYSIS

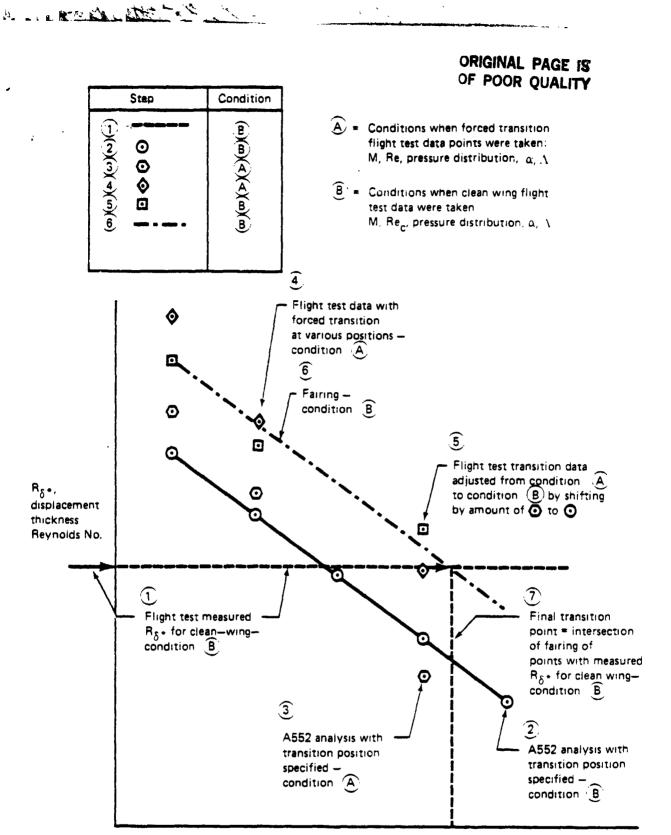
#### 5.1 METHOD OF ANALYSIS

A total of 34 cases were selected for analysis in the present study. A single case consisted of one glove surface (either upper or lower) at a specified flight condition and sweep angle. The measured data for each case consisted of the pressure distribution and the boundary layer velocity profile at the rake location for the natural transition (clean wing) flight and for 1 to 5 forced transition flights in which the boundary layer was tripped at specified locations. The objective of this analysis was to determine the transition location for the clean wing flight for each case. Because there is less uncertainty involved in determining  $\delta^*$  than in determining  $\delta$  from the measured velocity profiles,  $R_{\delta}^*$  (at the rake location) was chosen as the best nondimensional parameter for correlation with the transition location. The forced transition flights allowed the trend of  $R_{\delta}^*$  with transition location to be determined. The value of  $R_{\delta}^*$  corresponding to the clean wing flight was then used to determine the natural transition location. The method of analysis is summarized in Figure 3 and discussed in Appendix A.

As shown in Figure 3, step 1 was to determine the displacement thickness Reynolds number  $(R_{\delta}^{*})$  for the clean wing flight from its measured velocity profile. A Boeing boundary layer program, A552, was then used to compute the expected trend of R  $_{\delta}$ \* (at the rake location) with changes in the transition location for the clean wing flight conditions (step 2). A552 is a computer program for finite-difference calculation of compressible laminar or turbulent boundary layers on infinite (untapered) swept wings. Primary inputs to the program are the pressure distribution normal to the leading edge, Reynolds number, and Mach number. The primary outputs are the boundary layer temperature profile and the boundary layer velocity profiles, which are parallel and perpendicular to the local potential flow streamline. In step 3, A552 was used to compute  $R_{\delta}$  \* at the rake location with various specified transition locations and with the flight conditions corresponding to those of the appropriate forced transition flight. The  $R_{\delta}$  \* values were then determined for each of the forced transition flights from the measured velocity profiles (step 4). These  $R_{\delta}$  \* values were then adjusted (step 5) to clean wing flight conditions by shifting by the difference in  $R_{\delta}$  \* between step 2 and step 3. In step 6 a line was faired through the results of step 5 using the step 2 A552 results as a guide to the slope of the line. The location at which this line

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Transition position, % chord

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Figure 3. Data Analysis Method

intersected the line of step 1 corresponds to the transition location for this case (step 7). The scatter in the adjusted test data for the forced transition flights (step 5) resulted in some uncertainty in the transition location. The amount of scatter varied from case to case, as shown in Appendix C.

#### 5.2 RESULTS

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A summary of the results for all 34 cases is given in Table 1. The extent of laminar flow was found to vary from 0% (case 7) to 56% (case 16). In general, the upper surface results at a given sweep angle show a greater extent of laminar flow than on the lower surface. The variation of transition location with sweep angle is shown in Figure 4. On the upper surface, the maximum extent of laminar flow varies from 56% chord at a sweep angle of 9 deg to 21% chord at a sweep angle of 25 deg. On the lower surface, the maximum extent of laminar flow varies from 51% chord at a sweep angle of 15 deg to 6% chord at a sweep angle of 25 deg. The lower surface cases that show transition at 31% chord or greater are from flight 146 and do not seem to follow the trend of the other lower surface cases. These were cases 26 through 34 and, as shown in Appendix C, the flight test results do not show anything unusual. However, as can be seen from Table 1, 10 of the 20 lower surface cases analyzed are from various data runs taken during flight 161. It is possible that the large extent of laminar flow for cases 26 through 34 is an indication that external disturbances (possibly insect contamination) may have affected the transition location for all cases from flight 161, but not for cases 26 through 34, which are from flight 146.

Because the lift coefficient varied from case to case, no conclusions can be drawn from the results concerning the effect of Reynolds number. Because there was some scatter in the flight test data used to determine the transition location for each case, some uncertainty was associated with each of the estimated transition locations. The magnitude of this uncertainty was not estimated.

The extent of laminar flow on the upper surface would probably have been greater if bumps (waves) in the pressure distribution had not been present. These bumps are present only at certain flight conditions and are apparently caused by shocks propagating onto the glove from the inboard wing, not by defects (such as waves) in the glove itself.

Results
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Summary
Glove:
NLF
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	N <sub>T-S</sub>	1	0.8	0.7	1	1	0.4	1	0.4	I	ł	1	3.4	3.8	1	4.6	7.8	8.7	12.9	5 <b>4</b>	6.6	6.6	5.5	ł	4.4	1.5	٩
	s/c <sub>trans</sub> , %	20	20	14	12	8	13	0	8	N	9	46	23	17	7	21	56	55	45	36	42	43	20	18	15	23	51
Cupcol	Не <sub>с</sub> х 10 <sup>-6</sup>	23.1	22.7	28.2	23.3	28.1	23.3	29.0	23.6	28.9	23.9	23.1	23.3	27.1	28.9	23.9	23.1	27.9	23.0	23.3	23.3	23.4	28.9	23.8	23.8	23 0	23.4
	ۍ	0.416	0.501	0.387	0.397	0.377	0.394	0.285	0.382	0.275	0.373	0.416	0.397	0.377	0.358	0.373	0.379	0.432	0.504	0.379	0.436	0.550	0.276	0 357	0.429	0.416	0.353
	ιr, deg	4.54	5.13	4.66	4.83	4.75	5.02	4.19	5.08	4.08	5.23	4.54	4.83	4.75	4.80	5.23	4.15	4.62	5.24	4.58	5.02	5.90	4.28	4.88	5.72	4.54	4.28
	Σ	0.82	0.81	0.83	0.83	0.83	0.83	0.85	0.84	0.85	0.85	0.82	0.83	0.83	0.85	0.85	0.82	0.82	0.82	0.83	0.83	0.83	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.82	0.83
	A, deg	9.0	0.6	16.0	15.9	18.8	19.0	22.0	21.7	25.2	25.0	9.0	15.9	18.8	22.0	25.2	9.0	9.0	9.0	16.1	16.1	16.1	25.2	25.1	25.2	9.0	15.6
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	Flight	161	161	161	161	161	161	161	161	161	161	161	161	161	161	161	147	155	158	147	147	147	158	147	155	155	146
	Rake, %	50	50	50	50	50	50	20	50	50	50	60	60	60	09	09	6	8	6	6	6	6	6	6	8	8	6
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Table 1. F-111 NLF Glove: Summary of Results (Concluded)

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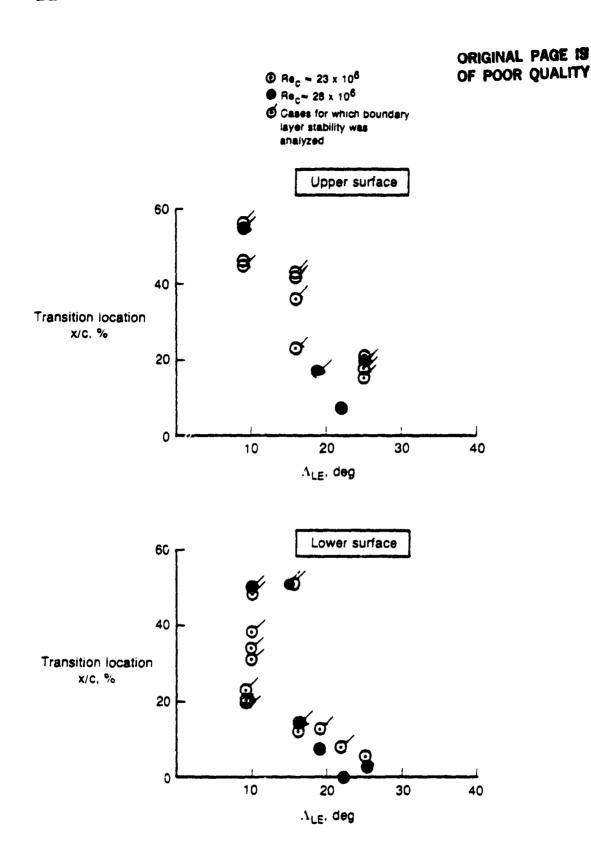
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Figure 4. Transition Location Versus Sweep

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Details of the case by case analysis, including pressure distributions and boundary layer velocity profiles, are in Appendix C.



#### 6.0 BOUNDARY LAYER STABILITY ANALYSIS

Nearly all previous laminar flow flight test investigations dealt with either low sweep configurations (leading-edge sweep angles of about 10 deg or less), in which Tollmien-Schlichting (T-S) disturbances were the primary cause of transition, or high sweep configurations (leading-edge sweep angles of 30 deg or larger), in which crossflow (C-F) disturbances were the primary cause of transition. Because the F-111 data cover a range of sweep angles from low to high, there are many cases in which both amplified C-F disturbances and amplified T-S disturbances are present at the transition location. Because of these cases, these results provide insight into how the C-F and T-S disturbances interact during the boundary layer transition process. To understand this interaction, a boundary layer stability analysis was performed for 25 of the F-111 data cases.

#### 6.1 LINEAR STABILITY THEORY

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Current methods of predicting boundary layer transition are based on the linear boundary layer stability theory (refs. 9 to 16). The basic premise of this theory is that transition is caused by the amplification of initially small boundary layer disturbances as they propagate downstream. The rate at which a disturbance is amplified depends on its frequency and propagation direction. When the amplitude of the disturbance becomes large enough, it will begin to cause distortions of the mean flow of the laminar boundary layer, eventually resulting in transition to turbulent flow. Although the later stages of transition are beyond the scope of the theory, it still provides the best currently available basis for correlating transition data.

By solving the equations for linearized three-dimensional boundary layer stability (ref. 14), the amplification rate of small disturbances in the boundary layer can be computed at each point along the surface. The ratio of the disturbance amplitude, A, at any point to its amplitude,  $A_{o}$ , at the neutral stability point can be computed by integrating the amplification rate along the wing surface. The quantity  $\ln A/A_{\rm c}$  is called the amplification factor. By correlating measured transition locations with computed amplification factors for many cases, the amplification factor at which transition is likely to occur for a given disturbance environment can be inferred. The amplification factor can then be used to predict the transition location for a case in which that location has not been measured. Thus, the determination of the allowable

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amplification factor for the primary disturbance modes is the key to useful application of the method.

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On a high-speed swept wing there are four basic types of laminar boundary layer instabilities to be considered (refs. 17 and 18). These are: (1) T-S, (2) C-F, (3) Taylor-Goertler, and (4) leading-edge attachment line stability.

T-S instability has a direction of propagation (direction of wavenumber vector) close to the local freestream direction. Amplification of T-S disturbances is small in regions of favorable pressure gradient and large in regions of adverse pressure gradient.

A C-F installity has a direction of propagation nearly perpendicular to the local freestream direction. C-F in the boundary layer results from the combination of wing sweep and pressure gradient and is most severe in the wing leading-edge and trailing-edge regions, where pressure gradients are largest.

Taylor-Goertler instability occurs primarily in the flow over concave surfaces. Because the F-111 natural laminar flow (NLF) glove does not have concave surfaces in the region designed to have laminar flow, this type of instability was not considered in this study.

Attachment line instability refers to the behavior of the boundary layer along the forward stagnation or attachment line; i.e., the focus of points for which the chordwise velocity is zero. The boundary layer flow along the attachment line can be either laminar or turbulent depending on Reynolds number and environment, as described in Reference 18. If the attachment line flow does become turbulent, the flow over the wing will be turbulent also.

Detailed stability calculations are not required to assess attachment line instability; the boundary layer state depends primarily on the boundary layer thickness Reynolds number. However, there is an intermediate Reynolds number range where the boundary layer can be either laminar or turbulent depending on environment and flow history.

The potential for attachment line transition on the F-111 NLF glove is analyzed in Reference 19. The intermediate Reynolds number range mentioned in the preceding paragraph occurs at sweep angles of 23 to 35 deg for the F-111 laminar flow glove test conditions and wing geometry.

None of the 25 cases selected for the boundary layer stability analysis had transition at the leading edge, so attachment line instability apparently was not a problem in these cases.

#### 6.1.1 Previous Studies

In previous studies, various linear boundary layer stability methods were calibrated against wind tunnel and flight test data. Variation from study to study in the amplification factors at transition is to be expected, because the calculation methods and the flow environment, both of which affect the amplification factors at transition, varied from study to study. Jaffe et al. (ref. 9) found that T-S transition correlated with an amplification factor of 10. Srokowski and Orzag (ref. 11) used an envelope method to analyze wind tunnel data and found that T-S-caused transition correlated with an amplification factor of 12 and C-F-caused transition correlated with amplification factors ranging from 10 to 11. In the envelope method, the disturbance frequency was kept fixed as the disturbance propagated downstream, but the disturbance wavelength was allowed to vary to maximize the disturbance amplification rate at each point along the wing. Runyan and George-Falvy (ref. 16) used a constant wave angle method and found that C-F-caused transition corresponded to an amplification factor of 12 and T-S-caused transition corresponded to an amplification factor of 15. The T-S result of 15 was based on a case for which the disturbance environment was favorable (sailplane in free flight). This value, therefore, is probably an upper bound that may be difficult to achieve in cases where engine noise or other disturbance source is present.

The previous studies did not assess the possible interaction of T-S and C-F disturbances during the process leading to transition. This assessment was the primary objective of the boundary layer stability analysis conducted in this study.



#### 6.1.2 Method of Current Study

The procedure for the overall stability analysis is illustrated in Figure 5. The boundary layer characteristics are analyzed using a Boeing boundary layer program, A552. The boundary layer temperature and velocity profiles, which are the primary output of A552, become the primary input to the stability program, which is a Boeing modification of a computer program known as the MACK code (ref. 20). This program solves the boundary layer stability equations for three-dimensional, linearized, parallel flow for a perfect gas and can calculate either spatial (used in this study) or temporal stability. The program was used to calculate disturbance growth curves, such as those shown in Figure 5. (For a discussion of spatial versus temporal stability, see ref. 10.)

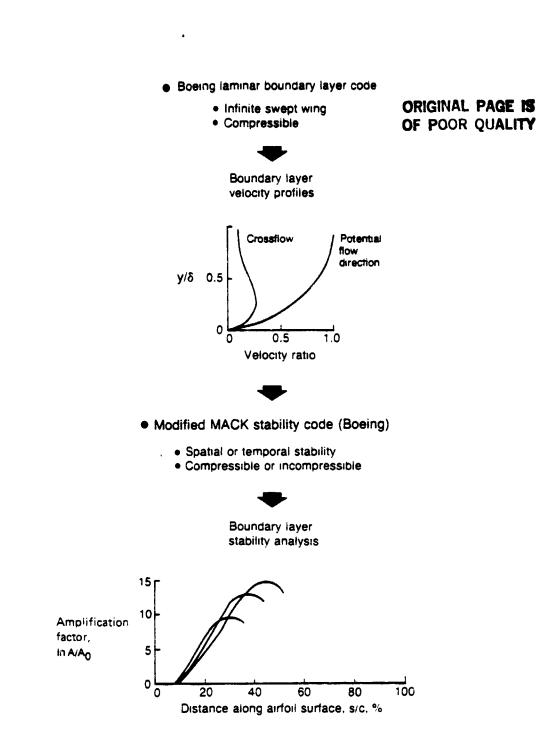
The disturbance growth direction used to compute amplification factors was along the local potential flow streamline. Mack (ref. 14) determined that this was a satisfactory approximation to the actual growth direction, which is equal to the real part of the group velocity angle. The MACK code can compute either incompressible or compressible stability. In the present study, compressible stability was used for all the calculations. The sixth order equations (which neglect dissipation) were used instead of the complete eighth order equations. This use resulted in a significant reduction in computation time, and, as shown by Mack (ref. 14), results given by the sixth order equations by only a few percentage points.

T-S disturbances were followed downstream, keeping frequency and wave angle fixed. Relative to the local stream direction, this wave angle was 40 deg on the upper surface and 25 deg on the lower surface, where the local Mach number is lower. These wave angles were determined by varying the wave angle at fixed locations on the upper and lower surfaces for selected cases. They correspond closely to the wave angles for maximum disturbance amplification. This is assumed to be true for similar cases analyzed in this study.

C-F disturbances were followed downstream, keeping the frequency fixed and letting the wave angle vary in accordance with the irrotationality condition applied to the wavenumber vector, as proposed by Mack (ref. 10). In case 8, a comparison was made between the C-F amplification factor at transition obtained using the constant wave angle approach (ref. 16) to follow crossflow disturbances downstream, and the factor

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Figure 5. Stability Analysis Procedure

obtained using the irrotationality condition. The constant wave angle approach resulted in an amplification factor of 6 at transition; the irrotationality condition resulted in a value of 7.

Both Mack (ref. 14) and Srokowski and Orzag (ref. 11) found stationary crossflow disturbances (zero frequency) to be the most highly amplified. Mack showed that application of the irrotationality condition to stationary crossflow disturbances resulted in nearly constant wavelength disturbances, except for a small region of rapid change near the leading edge. Hefner and Bushnell (ref. 21) studied a number of cases and found that the most highly amplified crossflow disturbances sometimes did not occur at or near zero frequency but at significantly higher frequencies.

The effect of frequency on crossflow disturbance amplification was studied for case 21. The application of the irrotationality condition to a 939-Hz disturbance resulted in 13% higher amplification than did application of the irrotationality condition to a stationary crossflow disturbance. Although this result indicates that slightly higher crossflow amplification factors might have resulted for some cases if higher frequency disturbances had been analyzed, it is unlikely that the basic conclusions of the study would have been affected. Furthermore, any transition criterion is only applicable to the method used to derive it. The one derived here is, therefore, applicable to the commonly used method of considering only stationary crossflow disturbances.

As shown by Mack (ref. 14), the result of applying the irrotationality condition to an infinite swept wing analysis is that the spanwise (in the direction of the wing leading edge) component of the dimensional wavenumber,  $\alpha_{r_s}^*$ , must remain constant as the disturbance propagates downstream. Therefore, in defining the envelope of C-F disturbances, disturbances having a range of  $\alpha_{r_s}^*$  values are followed downstream, with the frequency kept at zero.

#### 6.2 RESULTS

Twenty-five cases were selected for the boundary layer stability analysis. These cases were selected because of their potential to provide insight into the interaction between T-S and C-F disturbances. Fourteen of the cases studied were for the lower surface of the glove, and the other 11 were for the upper surface.

The compressible C-F and T-S stability envelopes, with corresponding pressure distributions, are shown in the following figures. For T-S disturbances, the lines represent the envelope of a range of T-S disturbance frequencies. For the C-F disturbances, the lines represent the envelope of crossflow disturbances with a range of values of the spanwise component of the dimensional wavenumber,  $\alpha *_{r_s}$ . Detailed disturbance growth curves for each case are in Appendix D.

The transition location for each case, the determination of which was described in Section 5.0, is used with the C-F and T-S envelopes to determine the C-F and T-S amplification factors at transition. These amplification factors are given in Table 1.

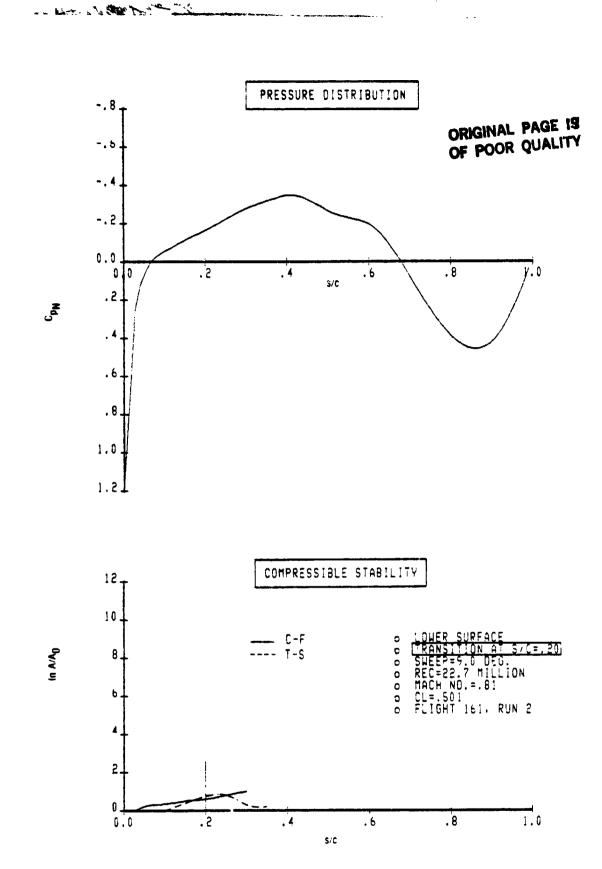
Cases 2 and 3 (figs. 6 and 7) are lower surface cases. Case 2 has a Reynolds number of 22.7 million and a sweep angle of only 9.0 deg. As a result, case 2 has very low C-F amplification factors. Case 3 has a higher sweep angle (16.0 deg) and a higher Reynolds number (28.2 million) than case 2, and as a result, it has much higher C-F amplification factors. At transition, case 3 has a C-F amplification factor of 6.3, compared with 0.6 for case 2. Neither case 2 nor case 3 show much amplification of T-S disturbances with amplification factors at transition of 0.8 for case 2 and 0.7 for case 3.

Cases 6 and 8 (figs. 8 and 9) are also lower surface cases. Case 6 has a sweep angle of 19.0 deg and Reynolds number of 23.3 million, and case 8 has a sweep angle of 21.7 deg and Reynolds number of 23.6 million. As shown in Table 1, case 6 has at transition a C-F amplification factor of 4.8 and a T-S of 0.4, and case 8 has at transition a C-F amplification factor of 7.0 and a T-S of 0.4.

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Cases 12, 13, and 15 (figs. 10, 11, and 12) are upper surface cases for which the boundary layer rake was in the forward location (60% chord). The cases all show significant amplification of both C-F and T-S disturbances at transition.

Cases 16 through 24 are also upper surface cases but for flights having the aft-rake location (90% chord). Cases 16, 17, and 18 (figs. 13, 14, and 15), which all correspond to a very low sweep angle of about 9 deg, have no C-F amplification and large T-S amplification factors. Cases 19, 20, and 21 (figs. 16, 17, and 18), which all have a sweep angle of about 16 deg, have some crossflow amplification, but it is still less than



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Figure 6. Case 2 Stability Envelopes

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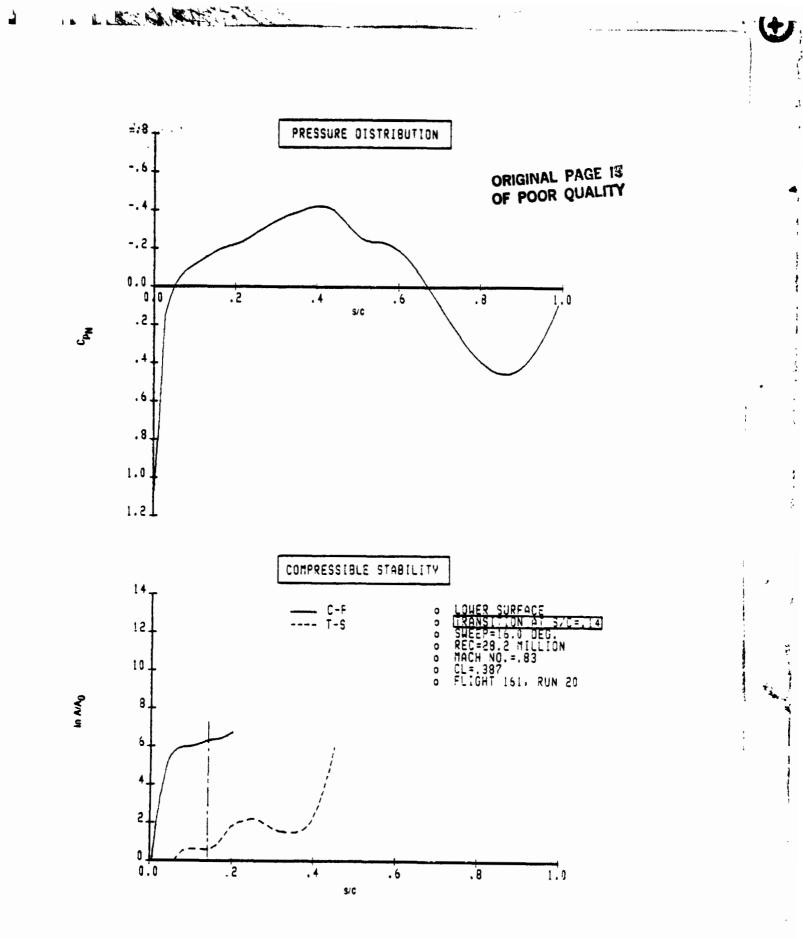
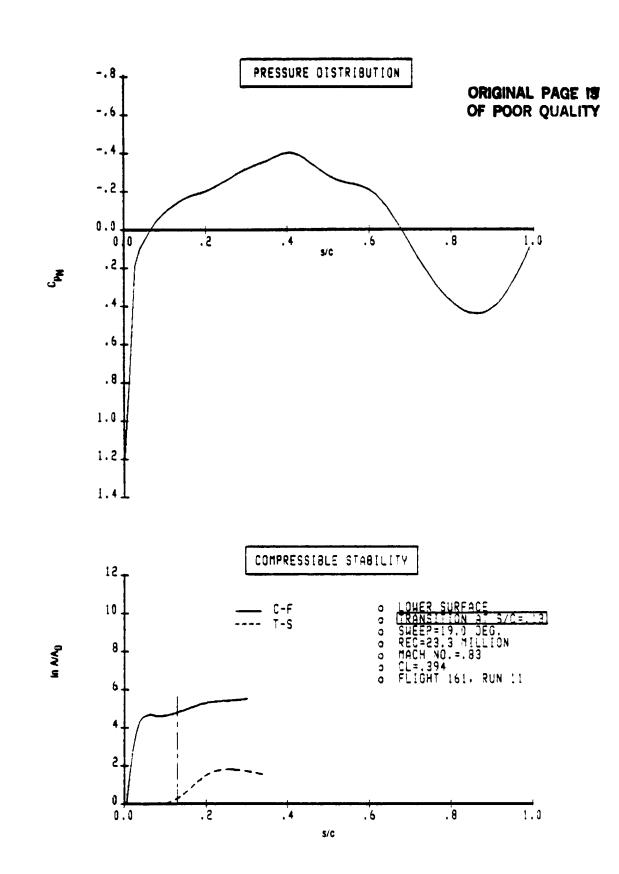


Figure 7. Case 3 Stability Envelopes



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Figure 8. Case 6 Stability Envelopes

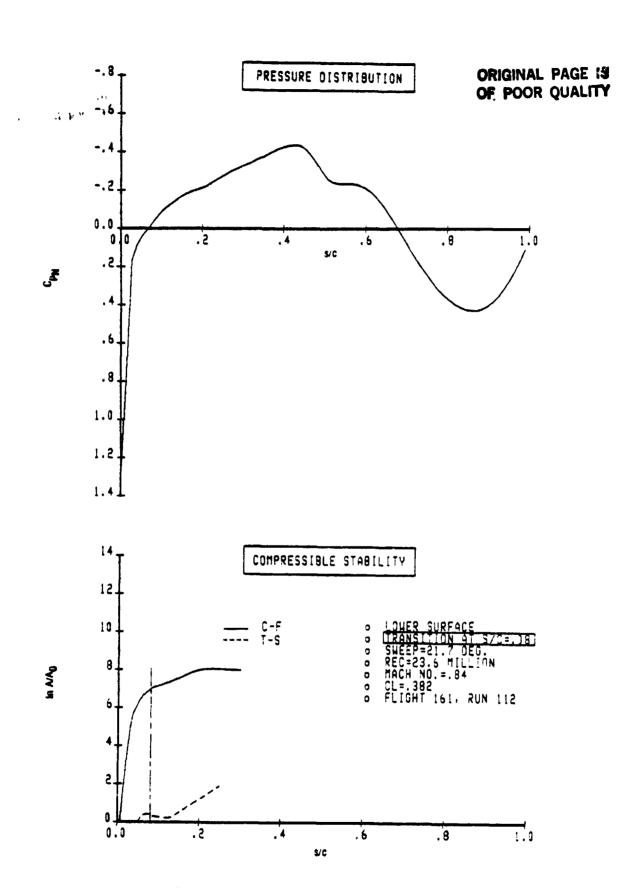
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Figure 9. Case 8 Stability Envelopes

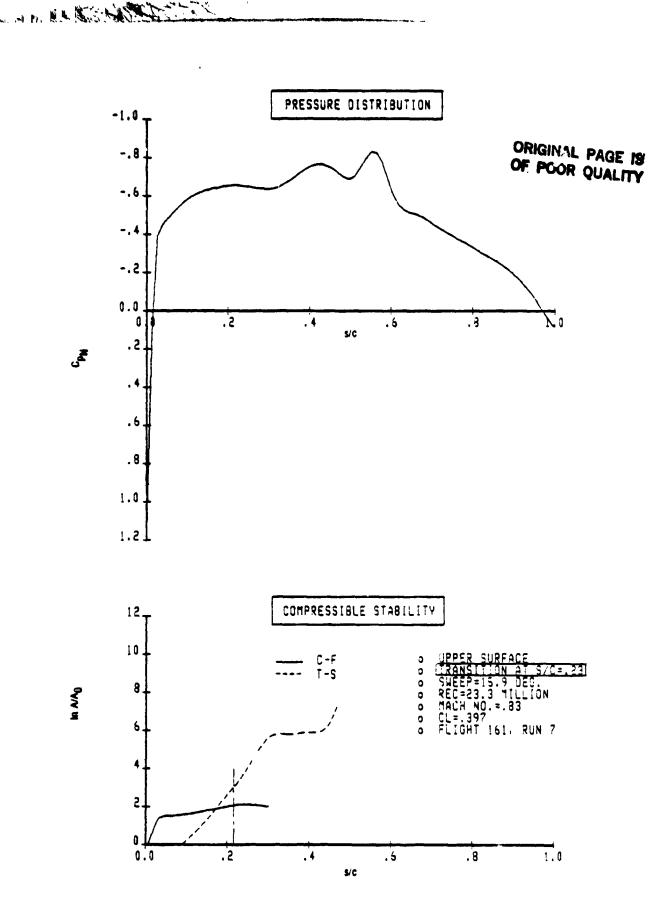
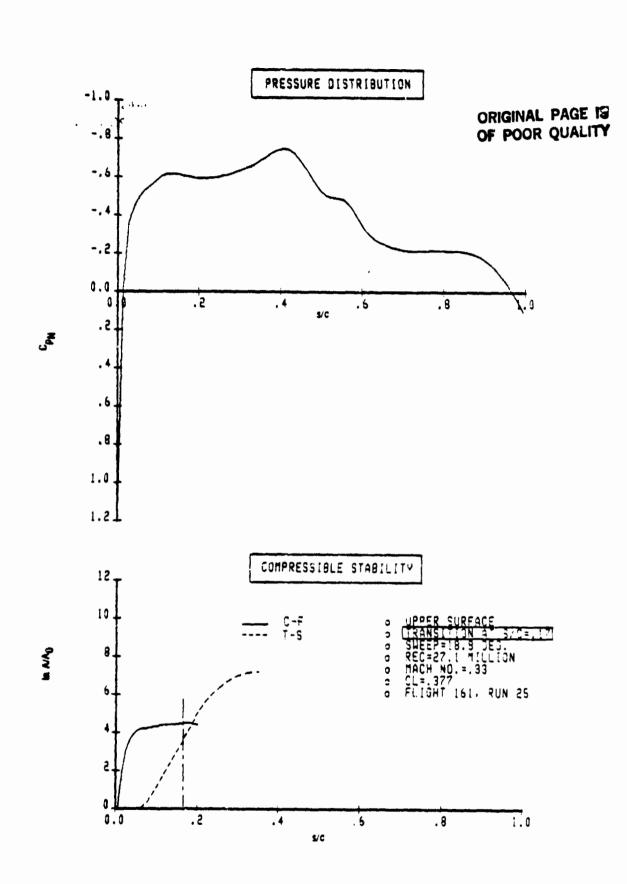


Figure 10. Case 12 Stability Envelopes



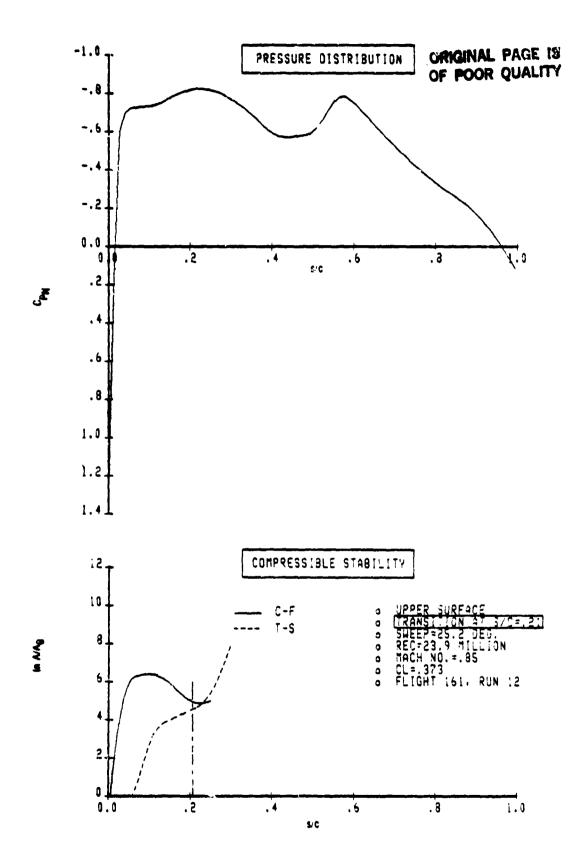
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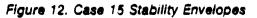
Figure 11. Case 13 Stability Envelopes

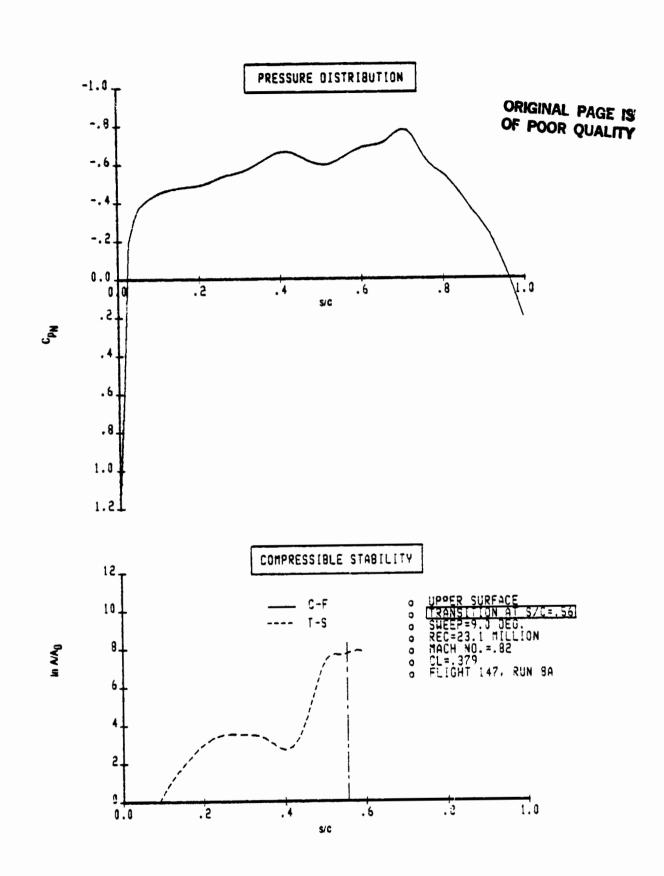
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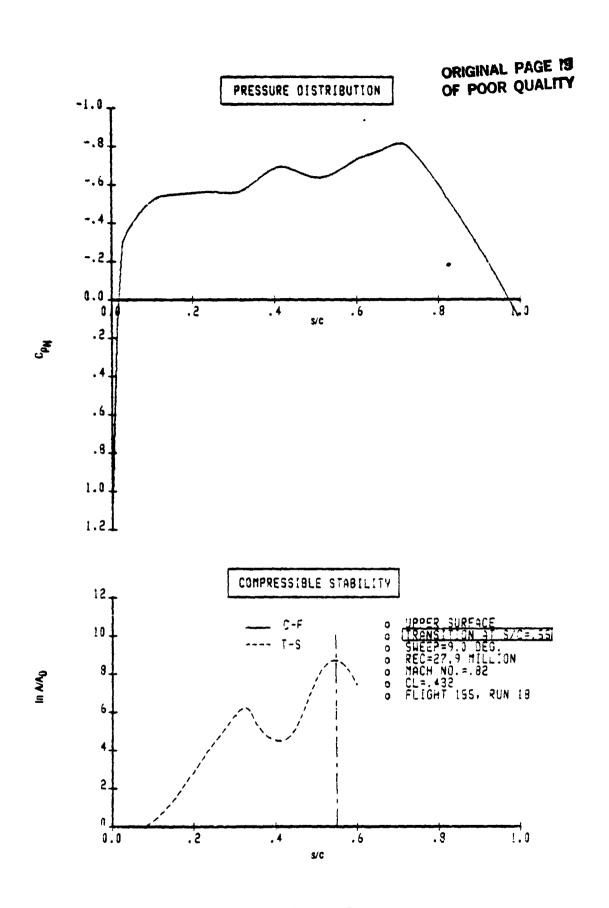
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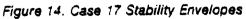
Figure 13. Case 16 Stability Envelopes

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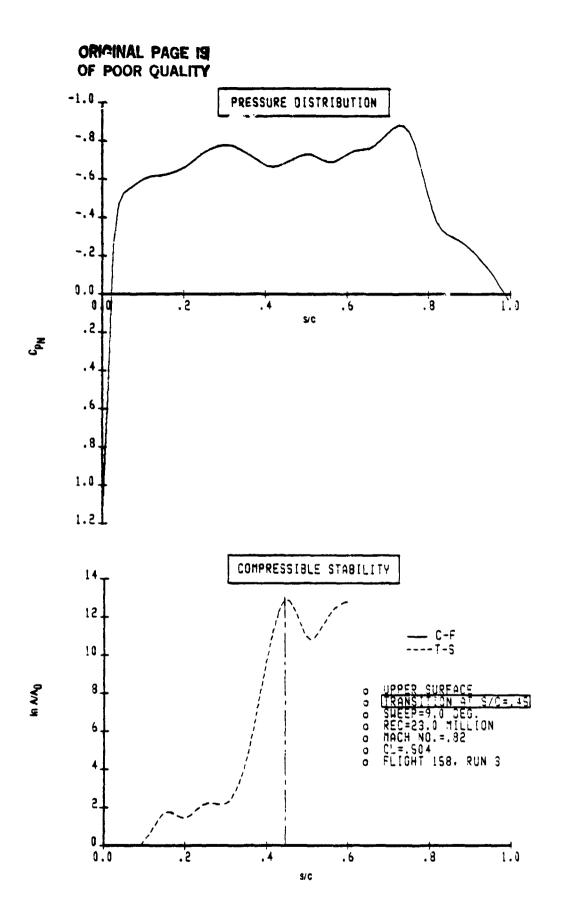


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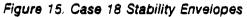


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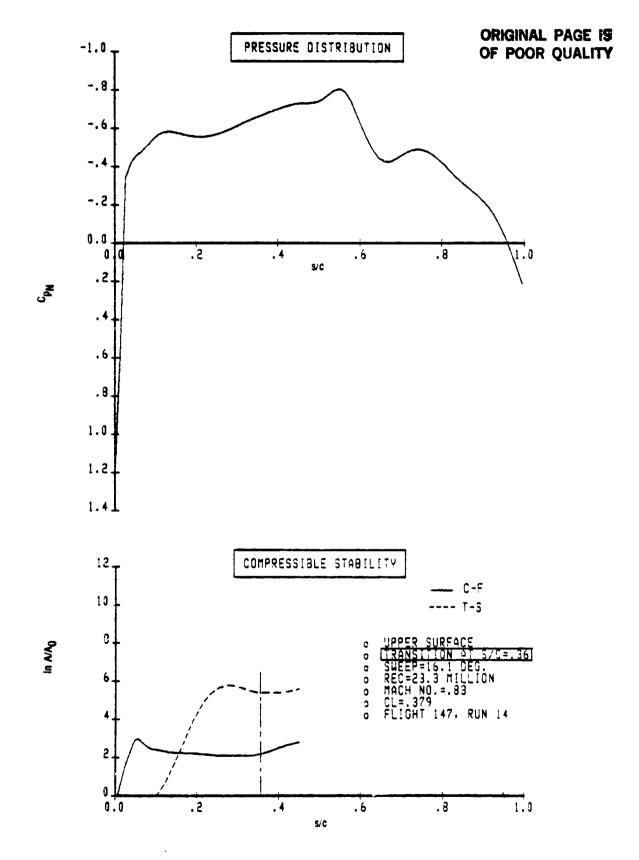
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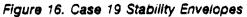
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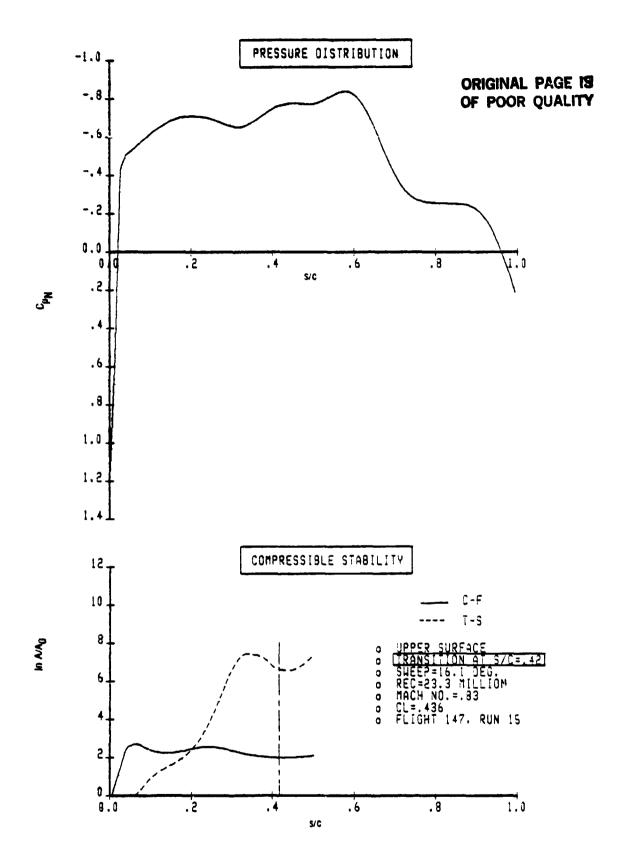


Figure 17. Case 20 Stability Envelopes

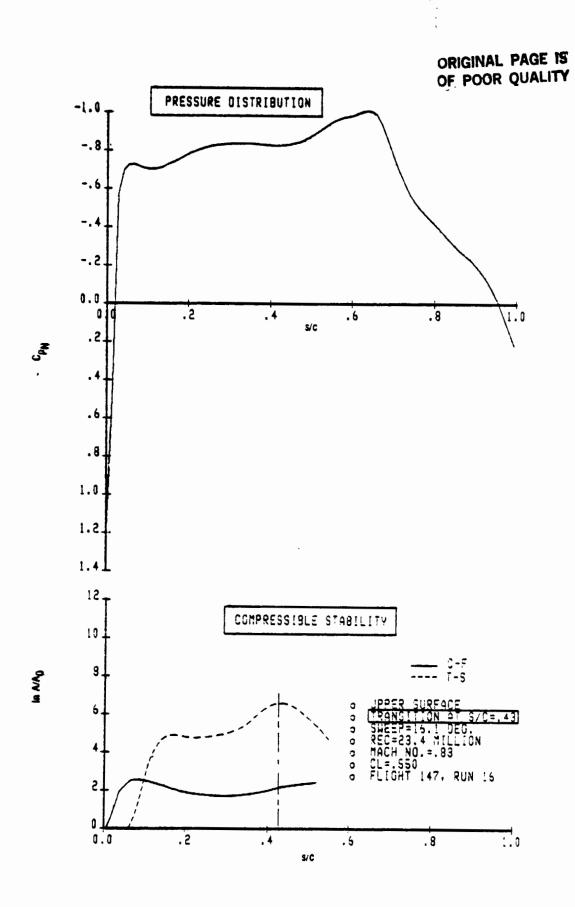
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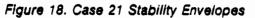
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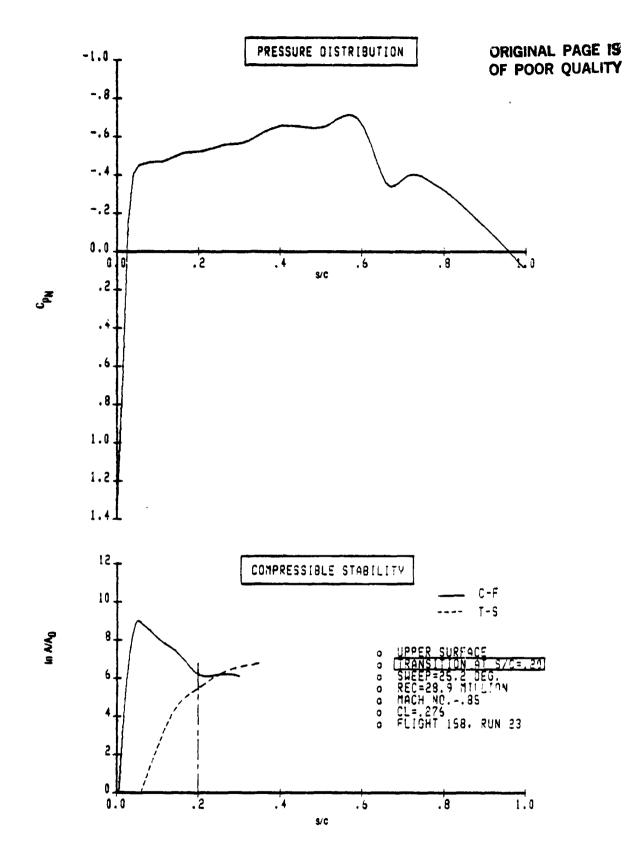
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the T-S amplification. Cases 22 and 24 (figs. 19 and 20), which both have sweep angles of about 25 deg, have large amplification of both C-F and T-S disturbances.

Cases 25 through 34 (figs. 21 thorugh 30) are for the lower surface with the rake in the aft location. The sweep angle varies from 9 to 16 deg for these cases. Crossflow amplification was not calculated for cases 23, 29, and 30 because they were at low sweep angles and were almost duplicates of other cases. For cases 23 and 29, the crossflow results of case 27 were used, and for case 30 the crossflow results of case 31 were used. The T-S amplification factors for those cases that had transition at about 51% chord could only be estimated due to the rapid change in T-S amplification in that area. The transition could have been caused by laminar separation or the rapid growth of T-S disturbances due to the adverse pressure gradient. The cases from flight 146, cases 26 through 34, show much longer laminar runs than the other lower surface cases, but the amplification factors at transition are generally not a great deal higher. Stability analyses alone do not show why that one flight had the longer lower surface laminar runs.

In Figure 31, the T-S amplification factor at transition (NTS) has been plotted versus the C-F amplification factor at transition (NCF) for each of the cases analyzed. As indicated in the figure, different symbols have been used for the upper surface-aft rake cases, the upper surface-forward rake cases, and the lower surface cases.

It should be noted that the measured boundary layer velocity profiles for cases 16, 17, and 18 (shown in figs. B-30, B-31, and B-32 in app. B) indicate that there may be some flow separation or incipient flow separation at the rake location. However, this does not necessarily invalidate the use of the data for these three cases. If the velocity profile data still show the correct trend with change in forced transition location, then the clean wing profile data can be expected to give a valid estimate of the transition location. It can be seen from figures B-30, B-31, and B-32 that the boundary layer thickness  $\delta$  varies in a reasonable manner with changes in the forced transition location. Also, Figures C-16, C-17, and C-18 in Appendix C show that the trend of measured displacement thickness Reynolds number, RDTH with forced transition location is in general agreement with the A552 estimate, with no more scatter than is present for most of the other cases. Furthermore, a comparison of the boundary layer thickness for a given forced transition location between any of cases 16 through 18 (figs. B-30, B-31, and B-32) with any of cases 19 through 21 (figs. B-33, B-34, and



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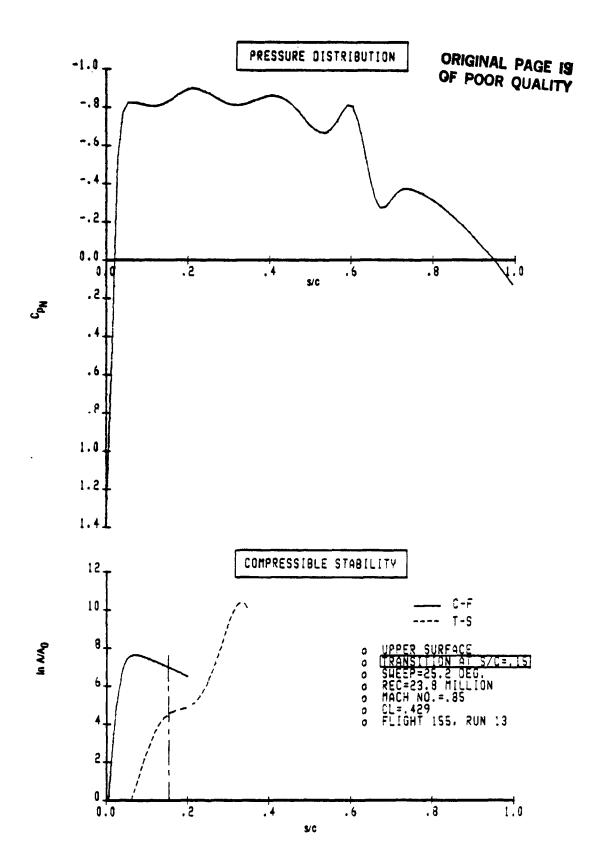
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Figure 19. Case 22 Stability Envelopes

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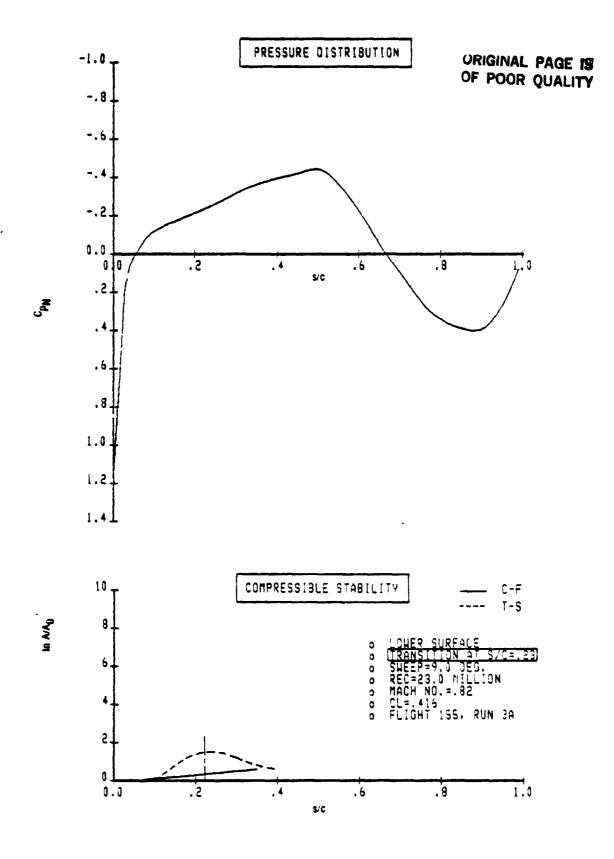
Figure 20. Case 24 Stability Envelopes

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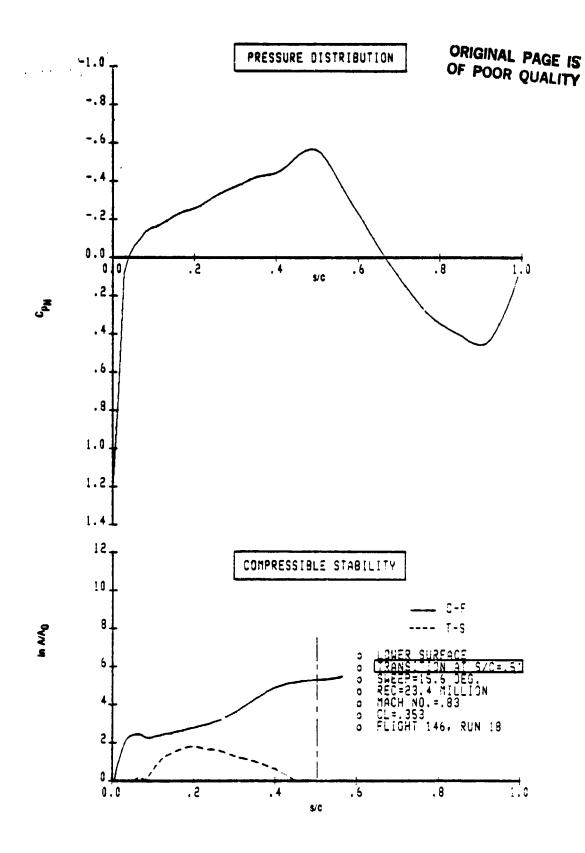


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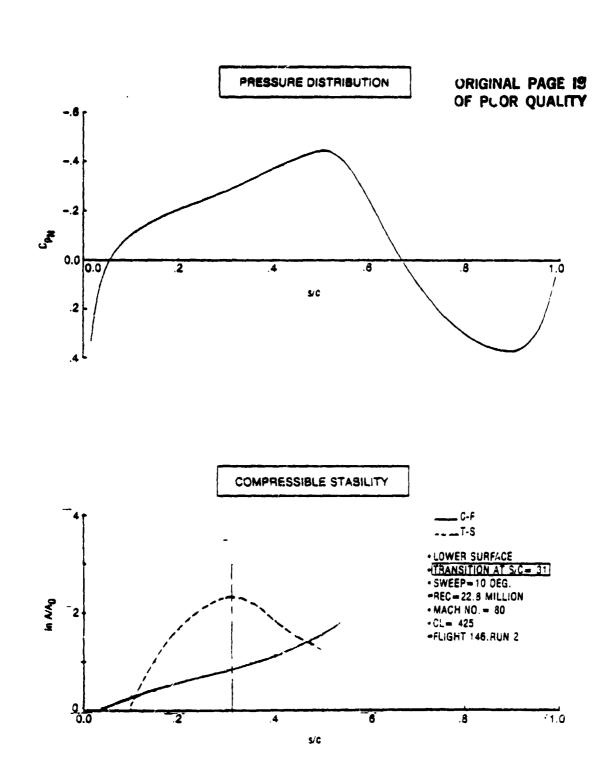
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Figure 22. Case 26 Stability Envelopes

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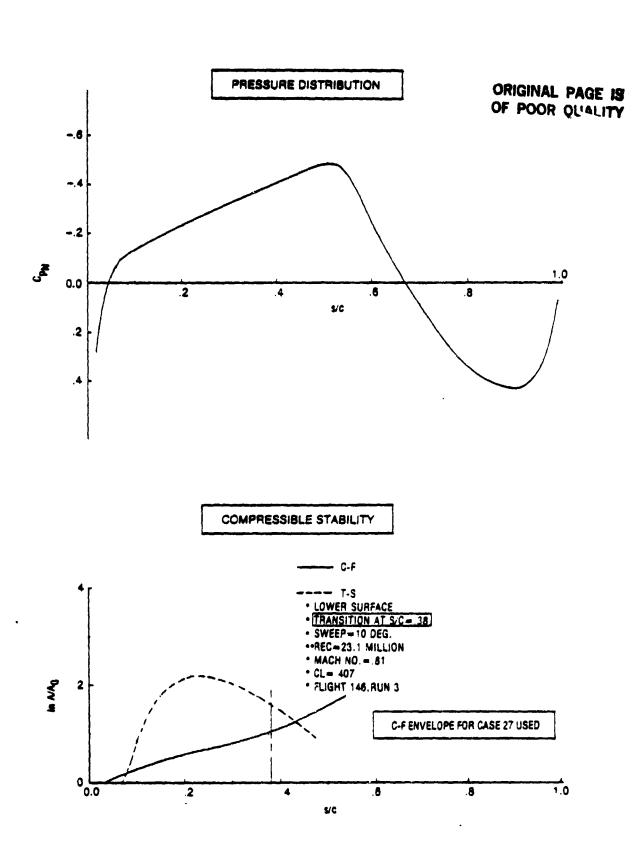
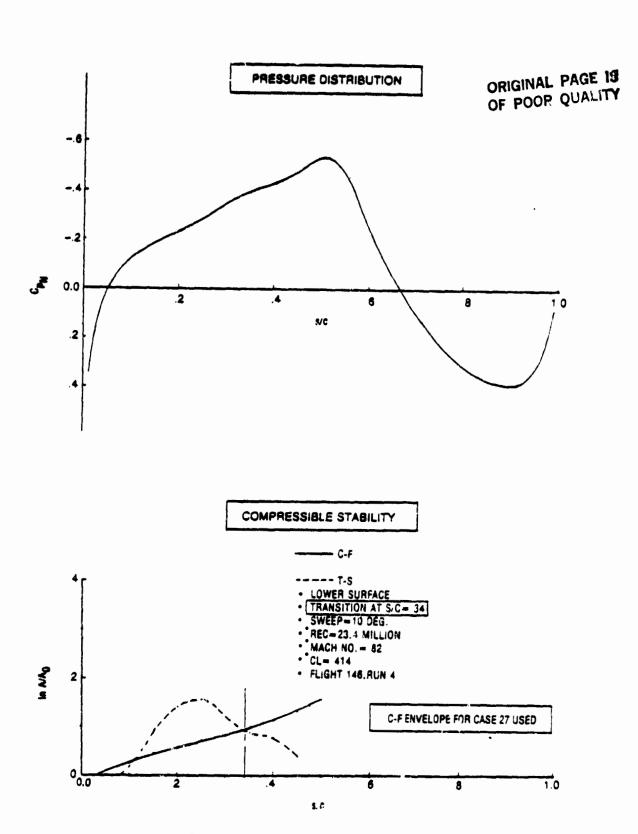


Figure 24. Case 28 Stability Envelopes

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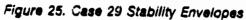
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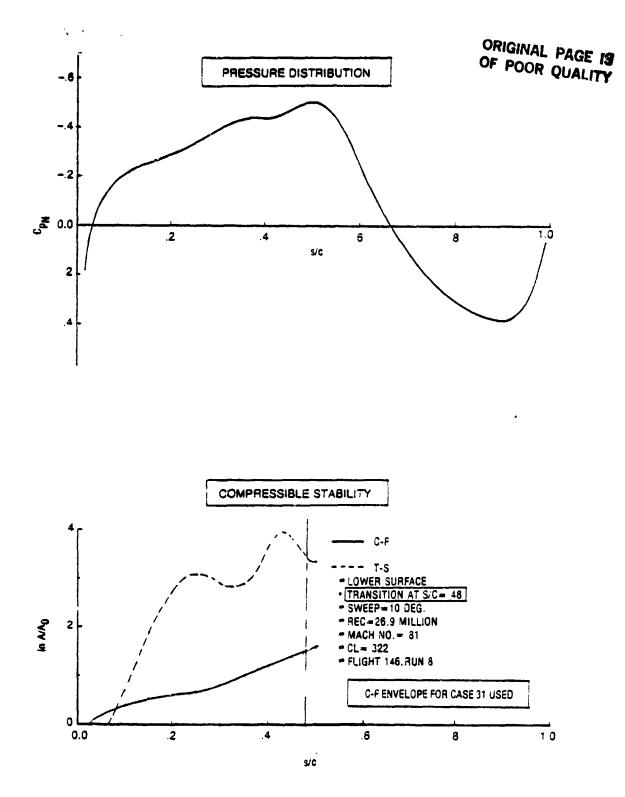
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Figure 26. Case 30 Stability Envelopes

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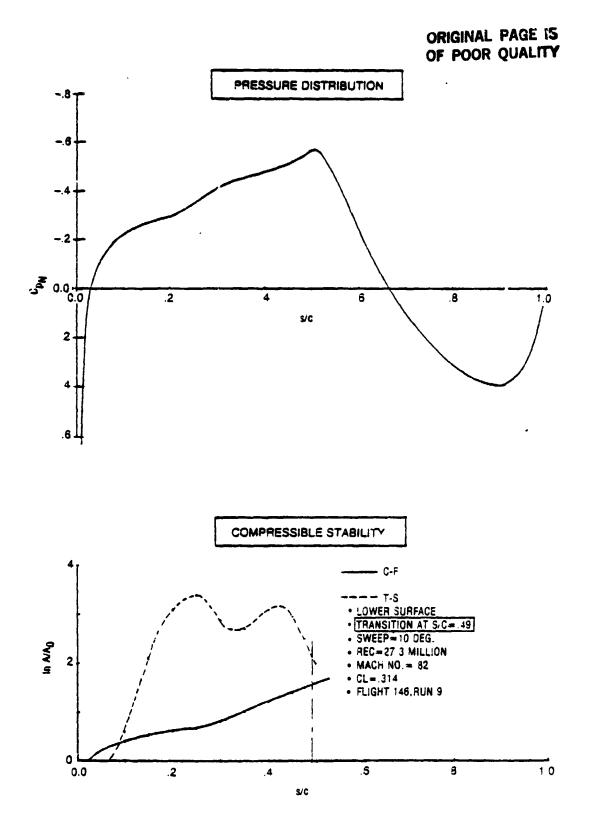
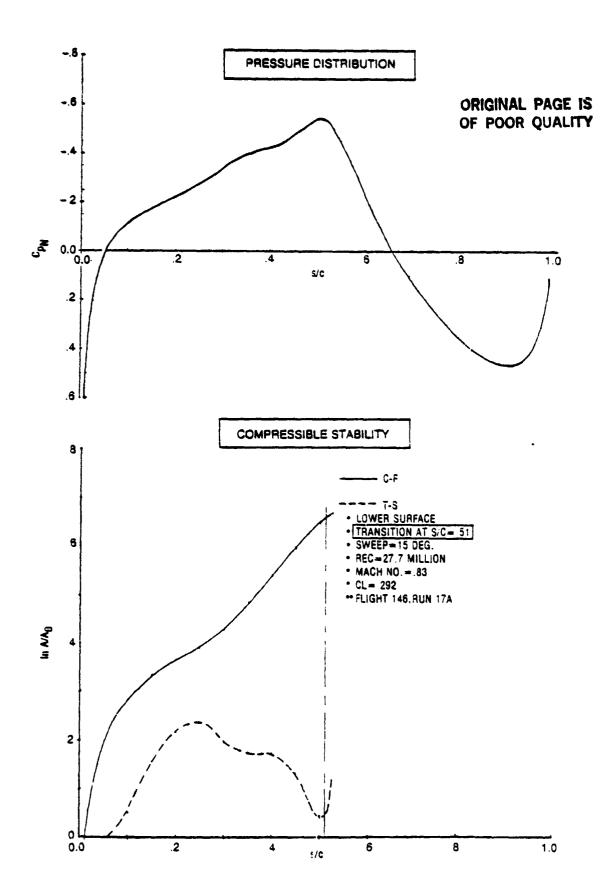


Figure 27. Case 31 Stability Envelopes



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Figure 28. Case 32 Stability Envelopes

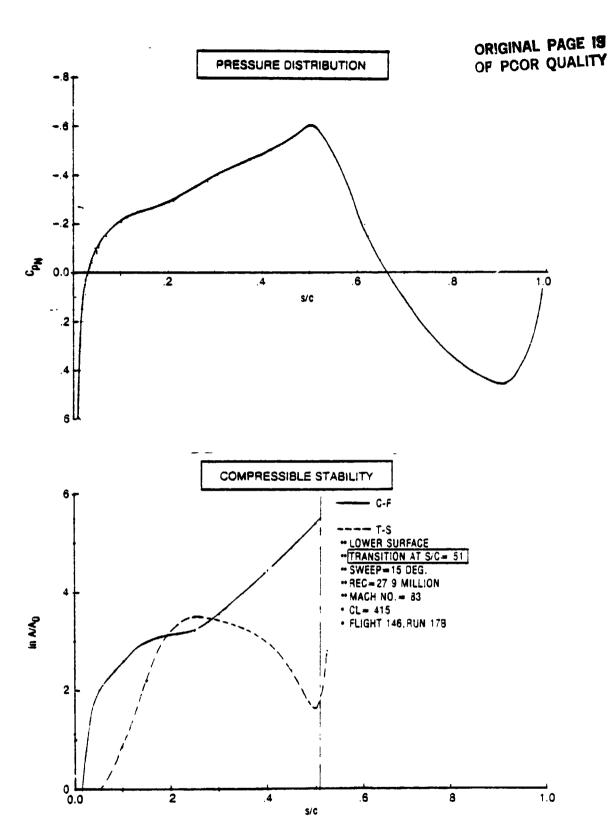
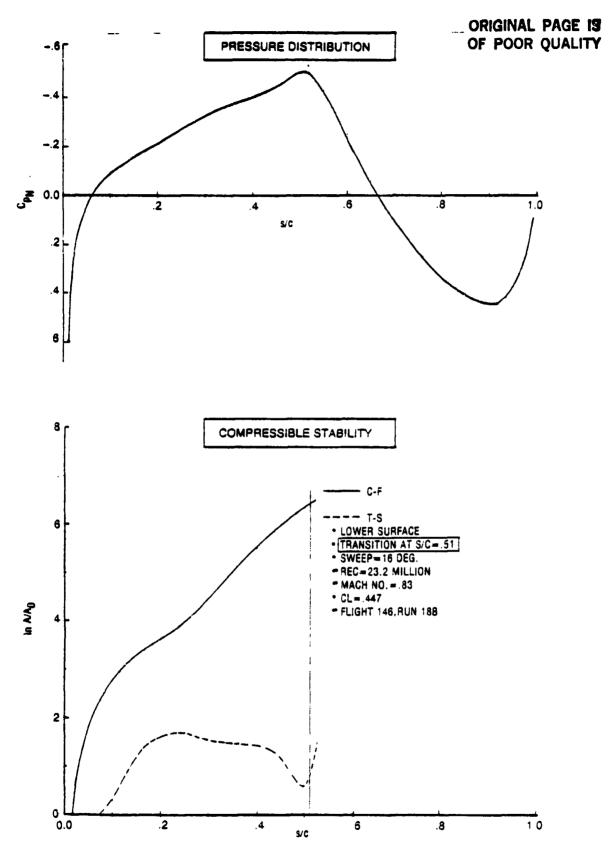


Figure 29. Case 33 Stability Envelopes

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Figure 30. Case 34 Stability Envelopes

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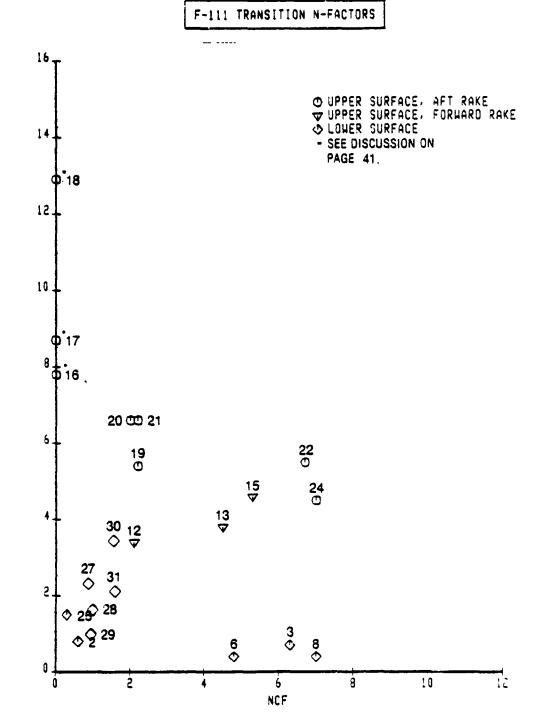
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Figure 31. Transition Amplification Factors

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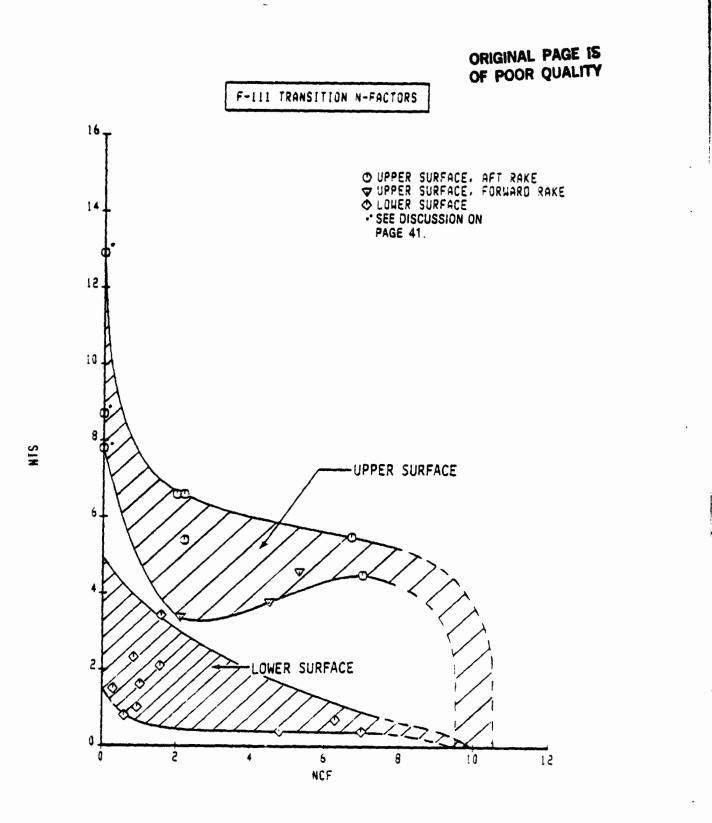
B-35), which are not separated, shows that cases 16 through 18, in general, have slightly thinner boundary layers than cases 19 through 21. This is the expected trend, given that the primary difference is that cases 19 though 21 are for 16-deg sweep instead of the 9-deg sweep for cases 16 though 18. If severe separation were present for cases 16 through 18, they would have had much thicker boundary layers at the rake location than cases 19 through 21. These observations indicate that the separation in cases 16 through 18 did not begin very far ahead of the rakes and is not severe enough to invalidate the use of the data.

In Figure 32, envelopes have been drawn around all the upper surface points and all the lower surface points shown in Figure 31. It can be seen that there is a considerable difference between the upper and the lower surfaces. If the external disturbance conditions were the same on both surfaces, theory indicates that they should both show the same amplification factor trends at transition. However, the lower surface shows transition at much lower C-F and T-S amplification factor combinations than does the upper surface. This indicates that larger external disturbances may have been present in the lower surface environment than were present in the upper surface environment.

As discussed in Section 5.2, all lower surface cases that were analyzed except cases 25 through 34 were brised on data taken during flight 161. It is possible that the external disturbances that affected data taken during flight 161 were not present during flight 146, on which cases 26 through 34 are based, resulting in the much larger extent of laminar flow for these cases. For example, case 26 (flight 146) showed 51% chord laminar flow, whereas case 4 (flight 161) at the same Reynolds number and sweep and with a similar pressure distribution up to 40% chord, showed only 12% laminar flow. This comparison suggests that some form of contamination was present during flight 161 that was not present during flight 146. This is also supported by the fact that all three upper surface cases taken from flight 161 (cases 12, 13, and 15) show lower disturbance growth factors relative to the other upper surface cases in Figure 31. Determining the source of the external disturbances is highly speculative because there is insufficient evidence to support any specific cause.

The possibility of engine noise causing the lower surface to have transition with low amplification factors was considered by examining case 25. As shown in the photograph in Figure 33, the engine inlet on the F-111 is located aft of the leading edge at the side-of-body. Thus, the lower surface could be exposed to engine inlet

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Figure 32. Transition Amplification Factor Envelopes on Upper and Lower Surfaces

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Figure 33. F-111 in Flight Showing Wing-Inlet Relationship

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noise, especially at high Mach numbers, but the upper surface would be shielded from such noise. Engine noise could excite T-S disturbances, because such noise tends to have peak energy in the same frequency range as most highly amplified T-S disturbances (2000 to 8000 Hz). C-F disturbances probably would be affected less than T-S disturbances because their highest amplification usually occurs at lower frequencies. This might result in the type of envelope shown in Figure 32 for the lower. surface, because T-S disturbances of large initial amplitude require much less amplification before causing transition than do the normally infinitesimal disturbances. Although the possibility of engine noise contamination on the lower surface is plausible, there was no apparent effect on transition location when the engine on the right-hand wing of the F-111 was throttled back for case 25. The results of case 25 thus raise doubts about this hypothesis.

In addition to external disturbances, the low transition amplification factors for the lower surface may be due to a change in the C-F and T-S interaction for areas of lower velocity like wing lower surfaces. Overall, the results provide the following insights: (1) The results indicate that T-S and C-F disturbances interact to reduce the amplification factors of T-S and C-F disturbances at transition relative to those accurring when transition is caused by a single type of disturbance. (2) Although firm conclusions cannot be drawn because of the limited number of points, it appears that, as the C-F amplification factor at transition increases from 0 to 2, there is a significant decrease in the corresponding T-S amplification factor at transition. The corresponding effect on the C-F amplification factor at transition factor at transition when the T-S amplification factor at transition increases from 0 to 2 appears to be much smaller.

The points included in the upper surface envelope of Figure 32 include both forwardrake cases, for which only one forced transition calibration flight was made, and aftrake cases for which five forced transition calibration flights were made. Because of the more exact calibration of the aft-rake cases, there is a higher degree of confidence in the measured transition locations for these cases. Figure 34 shows the envelope of only these upper surface, aft-rake results.

The envelopes in Figures 32 and 34 are shown intersecting the C-F axis at a level greater than nine. This fairing of the curve was guided by the results of case 22 shown in Figure 19. In that case the C-F envelope rises rapidly to a peak value of about 9 at  $5^{\circ}$  chord, at which point the T-S amplification factor is 0. Because this is well ahead

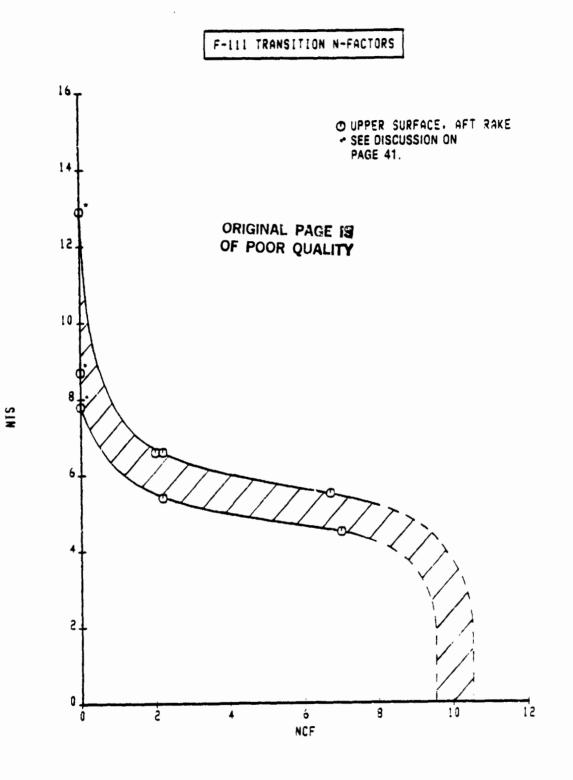


Figure 34. Transition Amplification Factor Envelope Upper Surface, Aft Rake Only

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of the transition location at 20% chord, these values indicate that a C-F amplification factor of 9, in the absence of T-S disturbances does not cause transition.

Figure 35 shows the envelope of the upper surface, aft-rake results along with the range of amplification factors (N-factors) found in previous studies for T-S-caused transition and for C-F-caused transition. These results were obtained using several different methods, which contributes to the large range of scarter. Also shown is the assumption used in the Hybrid Laminar Flow Control (HLFC) study (ref. 22). The range of amplification factors for pure T-S transition found in the current study is within the range of previous results. The HLFC assumption is optimistic for cases where T-S disturbances are the primary cause of transition and conservative for cases where C-F disturbances are the primary cause.

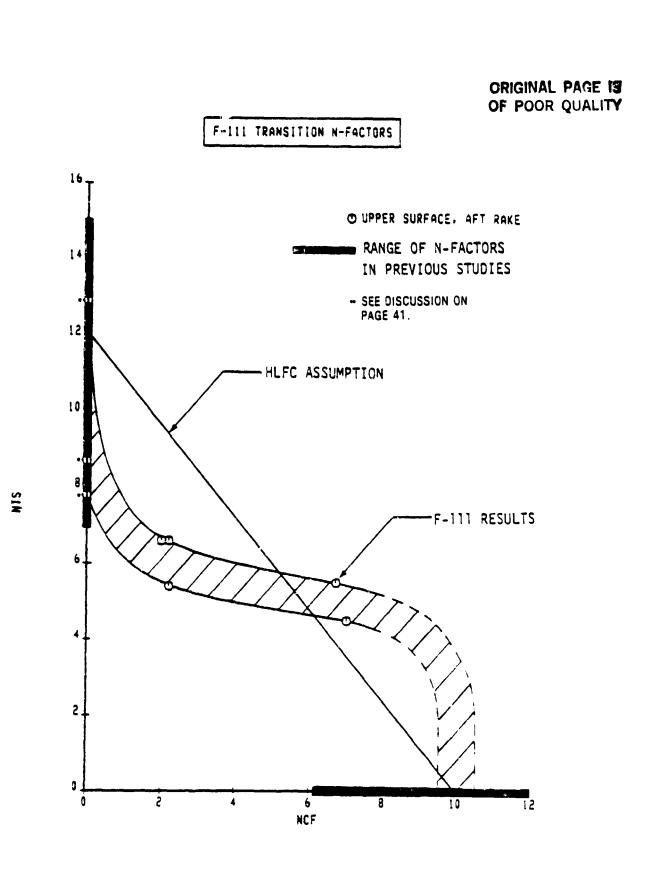
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Figure 36 shows the effect of assuming a  $\pm 5\%$  x/c uncertainty in the transition location. As would be expected, the envelope widens. However, it should be noted that, because of the shape of the T-S and C-F disturbance envelopes for the cases involved, there is very little change in the size of the band for low C-F amplification factors.

Figure 37 shows the trajectories followed by several aft-rake cases in the NTS-NCF plane. Cases 16, 17, and 18 follow the NTS axis from its origin to their respective transition locations because none of these cases have any significant crossflow amplification. Cases 19, 20, and 21 follow the NCF axis out to a level of about 2.5 at which point the trajectories begin to move up in a direction generally parallel to the NTS axis, indicating that the C-F amplification factors remain fairly constant as the T-S disturbances grow. Case 22 follows the NCF axis to a value of about 9 before the T-S disturbances begin to be amplified. The NCF values then begin to decrease as NTS increases. Case 24 is similar to case 22 except that case 24 reaches an NCF value of only about 7.5 before T-S disturbances begin to be amplified. The trace of lower surface case 33 also is shown in Figure 37, although the point of transition cannot be accurately determined because of the rapid increase in NTS at the transition location. Cases 19, 20, and 30 show a drop from peak NTS levels to that level at transition. This could indicate that transition actually occurred forward of the locations given by the transition analyses or that the mechanism causing transition cannot be fully explained by linear stability analyses. Nevertheless, if linear theory is used to establish a transition criteria, it seems reasonable to include the maximum

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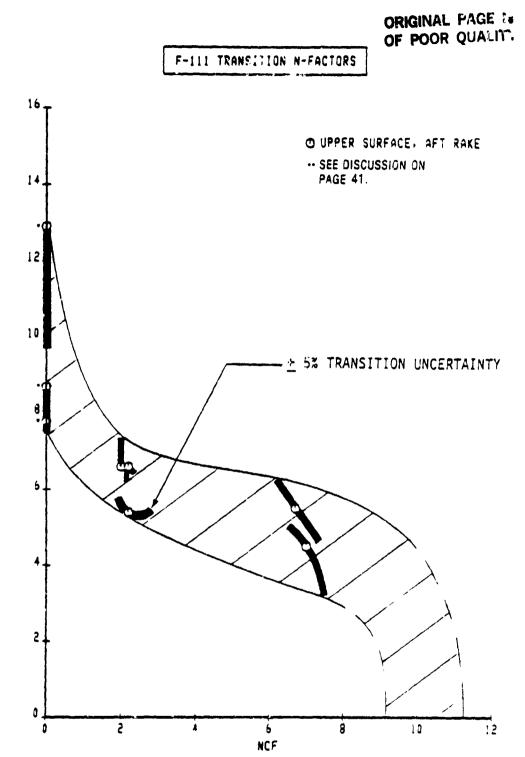


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Figure 35. Transition Amplification Factor Envelope and Results of Previous Studies



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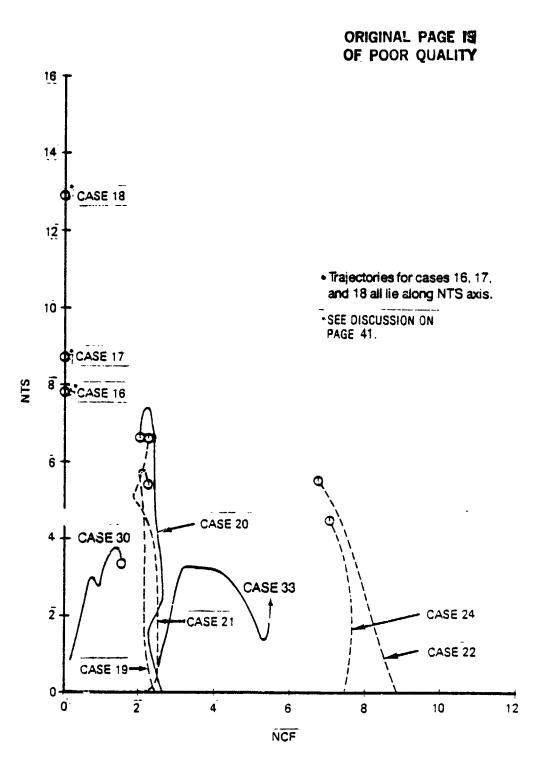
Figure 36. Transition Amplification Factor Envelope for ± 5% Transition Uncertainty

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Figure 37. Amplification Factor Trajectories

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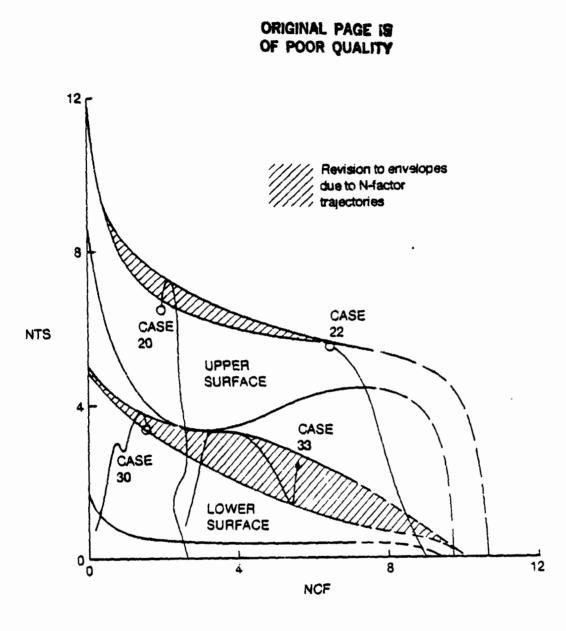
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values of the NTS-NCF traces of cases 20, 30, and 33 in determining the transition criteria envelopes. The change that this makes to the envelopes shown in Figure 32 is illustrated in Figure 38.

In Reference 19, a stability analysis of the F-111 NLF glove at selected flight conditions was made before the flight test and was based on wind-tunnel-measured pressure distributions. The differences between the results of that study and the results of the current study can be attributed to differences between the actual pressure distributions measured in flight and those measured in the wind tunnel. The bumps in the midchord region of the upper surface flight-test pressure distributions did not occur in the wind tunnel test. The effect of these bumps can be seen by comparing the results of case 16 of the current study, which had a bump, with the results of case 2 of Reference 19, which did not have a bump. Case 16 had a leadingedge sweep angle of 9.0 deg and a chord Reynolds number of 23.1 million. Case 2 of Reference 19 had a leading-edge sweep angle of 10 deg and a chord Reynolds number of 25.0 million. Transition for case 16 was at 56% chord, where the T-S amplification factor was 7.8 and the C-F amplification factor was 0. At 56% chord, case 2 had a T-S amplification factor of about 3.5 and a C-F amplification factor of about 2.0. Thus, for case 16, the bump resulted in an adverse pressure gradient that accelerated the growth of T-S disturbances and damped out the growth of C-F disturbances.

When there were no bumps in the pressure distribution, the current results are similar to those of Reference 19. An example of this is seen by comparing case 22 of the current study to case 5 of Reference 19. Case 22 had a leading-edge sweep angle of 25.2 deg and a chord Reynolds number of 28.9 million. Case 5 had a leading-edge sweep angle of 26.0 deg and a chord Reynolds number of 25.0 million. Case 22 had a transition location of 20% chord, where the T-S amplification factor was 5.5 and the C-F amplification factor was 6.7. At 20% chord, case 5 of Reference 16 had a T-S amplification factor of about 6 and a C-F amplification factor of about 7. Thus, the results of the current stability analysis and those of Reference 19 are similar except for differences resulting from pressure distribution changes.





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#### 7.0 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 7.1 CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of 34 selected cases of F-111 flight test data to determine the measured transition location and the analysis of boundary layer stability of 25 of those 34 cases indicate the following:

- o The maximum extent of laminar flow attained on the upper surface varies from 56% chord at 9-deg sweep to 21% chord at 25-deg sweep, with chord Reynolds numbers in the range from 23 to 28 million. The maximum extent of laminar flow attained on the lower surface varies from 51% chord at 16-deg sweep to 6% chord at 25-deg sweep.
- o Results of the stability analyses show that when both crossflow (C-F) and Tollmien-Schlichting (T-S) disturbances are amplified, they interact and reduce the maximum amplification factor of either disturbance that can be tolerated without causing transition. This interaction may produce even greater reductions on the lower surface where velocities are lower.
- o The stability analyses for the upper and lower surfaces show significantly different theoretical amplification factors at transition. There is no theoretical explanation of this difference but it could be due to extraneous disturbances such as noise or surface contamination. The airplane grometry would tend to shield the upper surface from engine noise.
- o There is uncertainty associated with the measured transition locations, because the transition location was inferred from measured boundary layer velocity profiles and was not measured directly. The magnitude of this uncertainty was not estimated.

#### 7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

o Engine noise levels at the glove location on the F-111 TACT airplane should be measured on both the upper and lower surface so that the possibility of noise contamination on the glove lower surface can be investigated.

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Because of the significant fuel savings potential of laminar flow aircraft, it is recommended that a new flight test program be initiated to further explore the effects of wing geometry and flight conditions. The test also should consider changes in the following areas:

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- o Improved instrumentation, namely, transition detection using flush hot-film surface probes mounted in an array that will provide information on the extent of laminar flow.
- Measurement of the noise intensity on the glove upper and lower surface in flight.
- Recording of insect contamination after each flight and possibly the implementation of some preventive measures.
- o Larger variations in Reynolds number and Mach number.
- A glove with a larger spanwise extent to minimize the effect of the inboard wing on the glove.

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APPENDIX A

## DETAILS OF METHOD OF ANALYSIS

## FIJURES

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#### APPENDIX A: DETAILS OF METHOD OF ANALYSIS

This appendix describes the method used to determine the transition location for each case. The measured data for a given case consist of the pressure distribution, the boundary layer velocity profile at the rake location for the clean wing (natural transition) flight and for one to five forced transition flights in which the boundary layer was tripped at specified locations, and flight conditions for each flight. The analysis objective was to determine the transition location for the clean wing flight for each case.

The following is a step-by-step description of the method of analysis. Case 19 is used as a sample.

Step 1: The first step in the method is to compute the boundary layer displacement thickness (at the rake location),  $\delta^*$ , for the clean wing flight and for each of the forced transition flights from the measured boundary layer velocity profiles. Figure A-1 shows all the measured velocity profiles for Case 19 and the calculated values of  $\delta^*$ . The values of  $\delta^*$  are later converted to measured  $R_{\delta}^*$  values using the A552 results from steps 2 and 3:

$$R_{\delta}^{*}_{MEAS} = \frac{\delta^{*}_{MEAS}}{\delta^{*}_{A552}} \cdot R_{\delta}^{*}_{A552}$$

where  $R_{\delta}^*_{A552}$  and  $\delta^*_{A552}$  are the values calculated in either step 2 or step 3 for the pressure distribution corresponding to  $R_{\delta}^*_{MEAS}$ . Thus, if  $R_{\delta}^*_{MEAS}$  is for the case with forced transition at 5%, the values of  $\delta^*_{A552}$  and  $R_{\delta}^*_{A552}$  used will be from the run based on the pressure distribution for forced transition at 5%.

Step 2: The second step in the method is to analytically predict the values of  $R_{\delta}^{*}$  (using program A552) at the applicable rake location for the pressure distribution corresponding to the clean wing flight. The clean wing pressure distribution is shown in Figure A-2, along with pressure distributions for the forced transition flights.

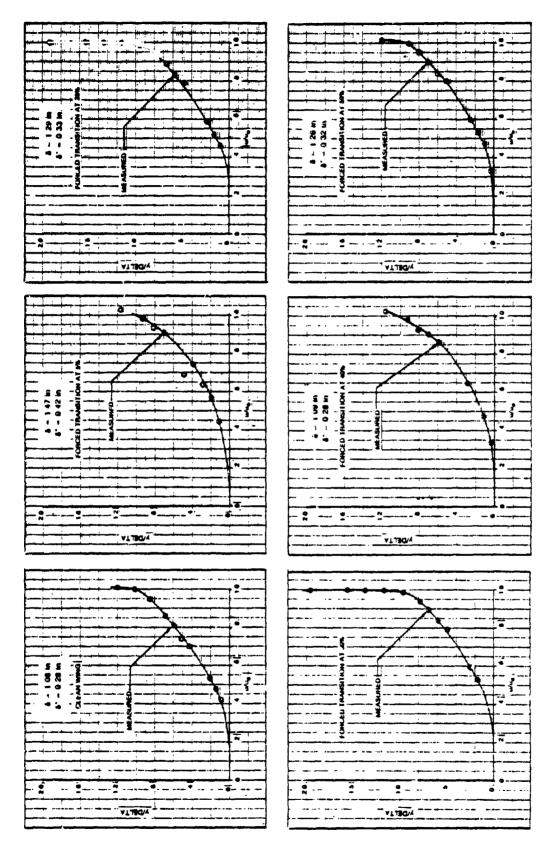
Up to six different A552 runs (depending on the case) are made using the clean wing pressure distribution. The only change from run to run is the location at which transition is specified in the program. The six transition locations specified are 5%, 20%, 30%, 40%, 50%, and 65% chord or the location of minimum pressure (whichever

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Figure A-1. Measured Velocity Profiles Case 19

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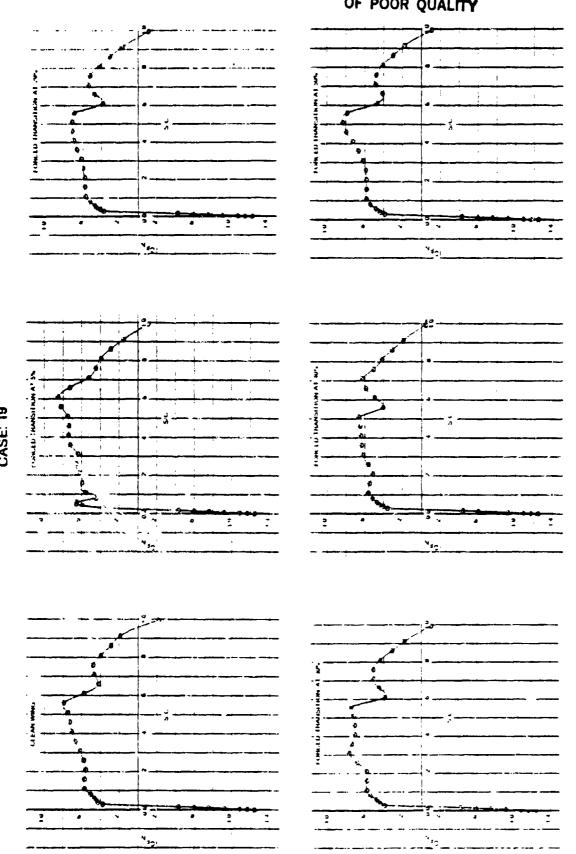
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Masured Pressure Distributions Case 19

Figure A-2.



CASE: 19

A-7

is further forward). The reason for varying the transition location is to determine how  $\delta^*$  and  $R_{\delta}^*$  at the rake location should vary as the transition location varies. Figure A-3 shows the results of this clean wing A552 analysis.

Step 3: Program A552 is used to analytically predict  $R_{\delta}^{*}$  at the rake location for the forced transition pressure distributions. Only one A552 run is made for each forced transition pressure distribution with the Reynolds number and Mach number specified in A552 being those at which the pressure distribution was measured. The transition location specified in A552 corresponds to the location of the trip strip on the glove for the particular flight being analyzed. The reason for analyzing each of these cases in A552 is to account for the effect of pressure distribution and Reynolds number differences between the clean wing flight and the forced transition flights. Figure A-2 shows significant differences in pressure distribution from flight to flight. Also, some of the flights were made at an altitude of about 30,000 ft, resulting in a chord Reynolds number of about 23 million, and other flights were made at an altitude of about 25,000 ft, resulting in a chord Reynolds number of about 23 million. To be of use in evaluating the clean wing results, the forced transition results must be adjusted to account for any differences in pressure distribution and Reynolds number because the values of 8\* and Rg\* at the rake location are functions of both. Figure A-4 shows the A552 results for forced transition pressure distributions to allow comparison with the corresponding Rs + values for the clean wing pressure distribution. The difference between the two sets of data varies with transition location. The difference between the two Rs values for a given transition location is used in step 4 to adjust the measured value of  $R_{\delta}^{*}$  for the forced transition cases to the clean wing pressure distribution

In Figure A-5 the measured values of  $R_{\delta}^{*}$  for forced transition flights and the clearwing flight have been added to the results shown in Figure A-4. The clean wing measured result is shown as z dashed line because only  $R_{\delta}^{*}$  is known; the transition location is not known.

Step 4: In this step the measured  $R_{\delta}^*$  values for the forced transition flights shown in Figure A-5 are adjusted to a clean wing. At a given transition location, the adjustment applied to the measured  $R_{\delta}^*$  is as follows:

A-8

Specified transition location	δ* (in.)	
.05	.335	66654
.20	.288	57276
.30	.253	50341
.40	.214	42629
.50	.173	34324
.55	.152	30229

$$Re_{c} = 23.3 \times 10^{6}$$

M = .828

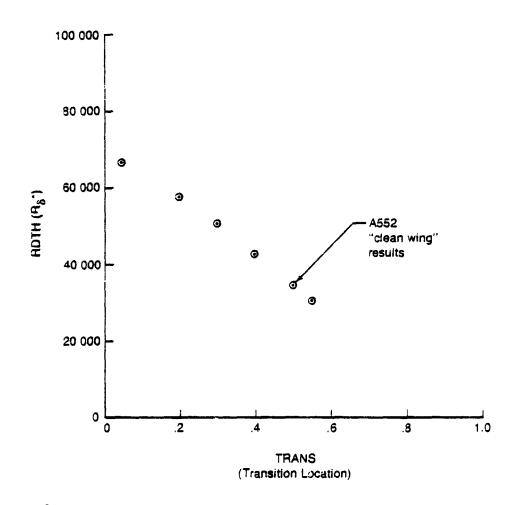


Figure A-3. Results from: A552 Analysis of "Clean Wing" Pressure Distribution

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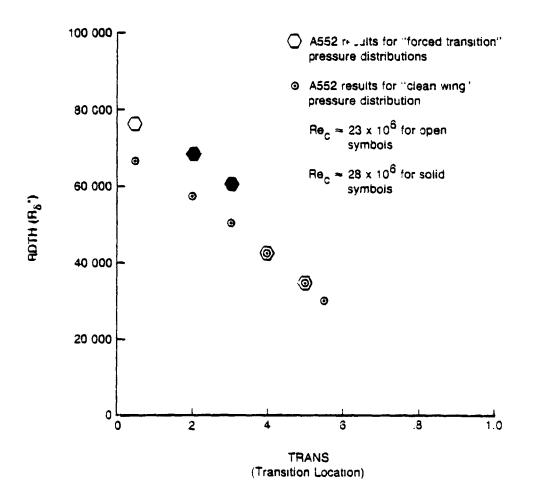
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Forced transition	δ" (in.)	
.05	.383	76272
.20	.285	68366
.30	.254	60863
.40	.212	42193
.50	.1 <b>75</b>	34721



#### Figure A-4. A552 Results for "Forced Transition" and "Clean Wing" Pressure Distributions

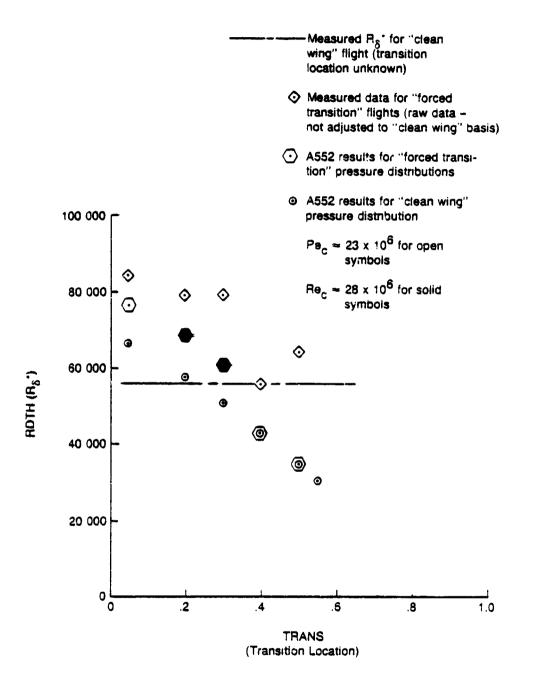


Figure A-5. Results From Step 3

R<sup>\*</sup> = R<sup>\*</sup> - R<sup>\*</sup> - R<sup>\*</sup> MEAS MEAS A552 A552 ADJ FORCED FORCED CLEAN

In terms of the symbols used in Figure A-5, the " $\odot$ " symbol is adjusted downward by the difference between the " $\odot$ " symbol and the " $\odot$ " symbol. No adjustment is applied to the measured clean wing data (dashed line). The results of this step are plotted in Figure A-6.

Step 5: This is the final step. The A552 results for the clean wing pressure distribution are used to guide the fairing of a curve through the " $\square$ " symbols in Figure A-6. The intersection of this curve with the line corresponding to the measured  $R_{\delta}$ \* for the clean wing gives the estimated transition location for the clean wing, which is the final result of the analysis (" $\triangle$ " symbol) in Figure A-7. The measured data point for forced transition at 50% chord is higher than would be expected. This characteristic occurred in many cases for which the transition location was forward of 50% chord (see cases 18, 19, 20, 21 and 24). It is expected that the curve should flatten out aft of the transition point. Therefore, the data point at 50% chord for those cases was not allowed to influence the fairing of the curve. The forced transition data points having flight Reynolds numbers approximately the same as that of the clean wing were weighted more heavily in the fairing of the curve than the others.

The difference in Figure A-7 between the measured results (" $\Box$ " symbols) and the A552 results (" $\odot$ " symbols) is probably due to a number of factors (the size of this difference varies from case to case):

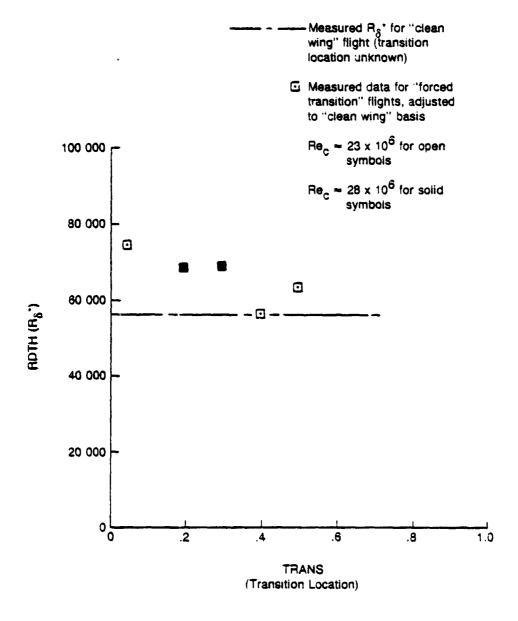
Any three-dimensional effects resulting from wing taper and the relatively small span of the glove will not be accounted for in A552. In flight, the transition location probably varied with spanwise location on the glove, because the transition line usually takes the form of a series of turbulent wedges that eventually merge. Because the rake was located at the midspan of the glove, the data shown in this document reflect the transition point at that spanwise location. However, because A552 assumes a constant transition location along the span, there may be three-dimensional boundary layer thickness effects that A552 cannot model.

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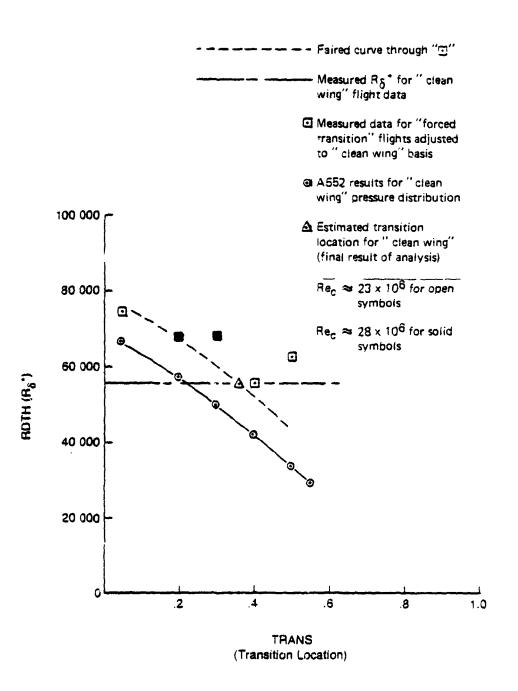
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Figure A-6. Results From Step 4

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Figure A-7. Results From Step 5

- o In some cases, especially aft of 60% chord, there was considerable judgment involved in determining what the pressure distribution should look like because the measured points were rather sparse. (The pressure distributions shown in this document include the enriched points, which were added to the measured data. However, the tabulated pressure distributions in app. B contain only the measured data points.)
- o There may be differences caused by the presence of shock waves in the pressure distribution and by disturbances introduced by the trip strips, which A552 cannot properly model.

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Even though there are differences in the level of  $R_{\delta}^{*}$  between A552 and the measured results, there is no evidence to indicate that the variation of  $R_{\delta}^{*}$  with transition location computed using A552 is not accurate. In case 21, for example, where there was very little scatter in the flight test data, there is good agreement between the measured variation of  $R_{\delta}^{*}$  with transition location and that computed by A552. Furthermore, in all other cases with multiple forced transition data points (cases 16 through 26), the use of A552 results to guide in the fairing of the curve through the measured data points apparently resulted in a reasonable fairing of the data.

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APPENDIX B

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FLIGHT TEST DATA AND AIRFOIL COORDINATES

## FIGURES

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#### APPENDIX B: FLIGHT TEST DATA AND AIRFOIL COORDINATES

The figures in this appendix show the measured pressure distributions and boundary layer velocity profiles for all 34 cases included in the current study. A552-calculated velocity profiles were used to guide the fairing of curves through the measured profile points and are shown for cases 1 through 17. For these cases, the measured profiles are shown as a solid line, and the A552 results, as a series of circles. For cases 18 through 34, only the measured profiles are shown, including the individual measured points through which the curves were faired. The coordinates of the glove airfoil, NLAM78, are also given. The pressure distributions shown in some of these plots include interpolated points that were not actually measured. Tabulations of the measured pressure distributions for the clean wing flights are given here and include only those values actually measured.

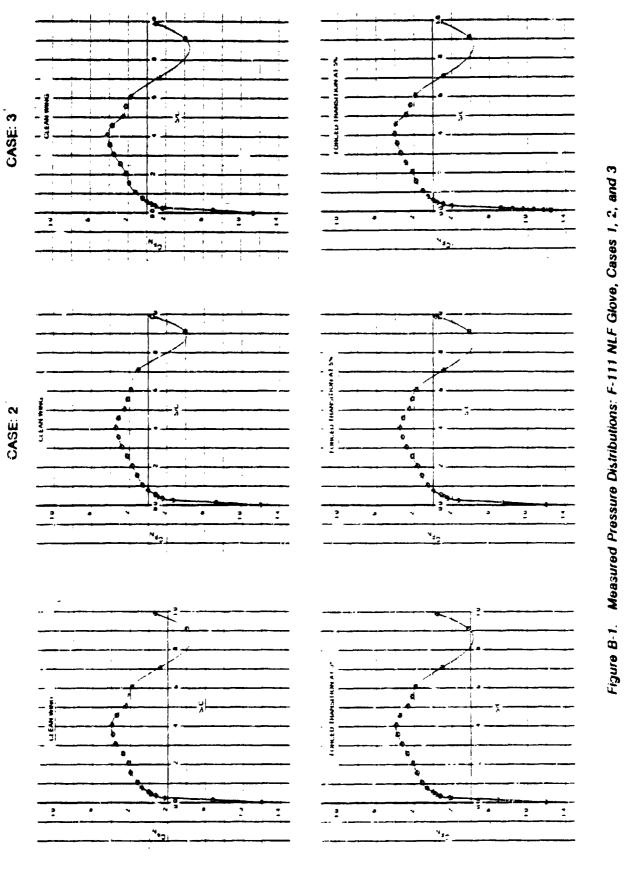
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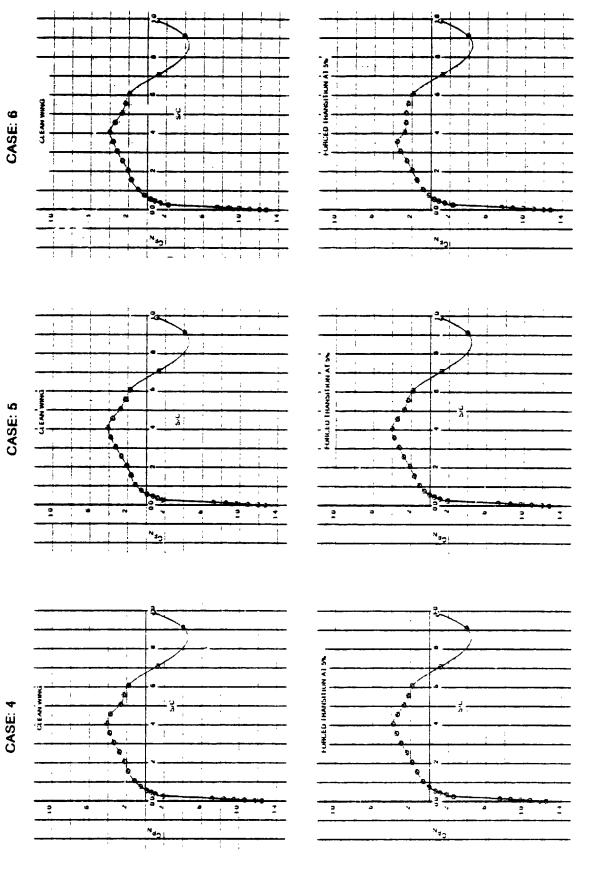


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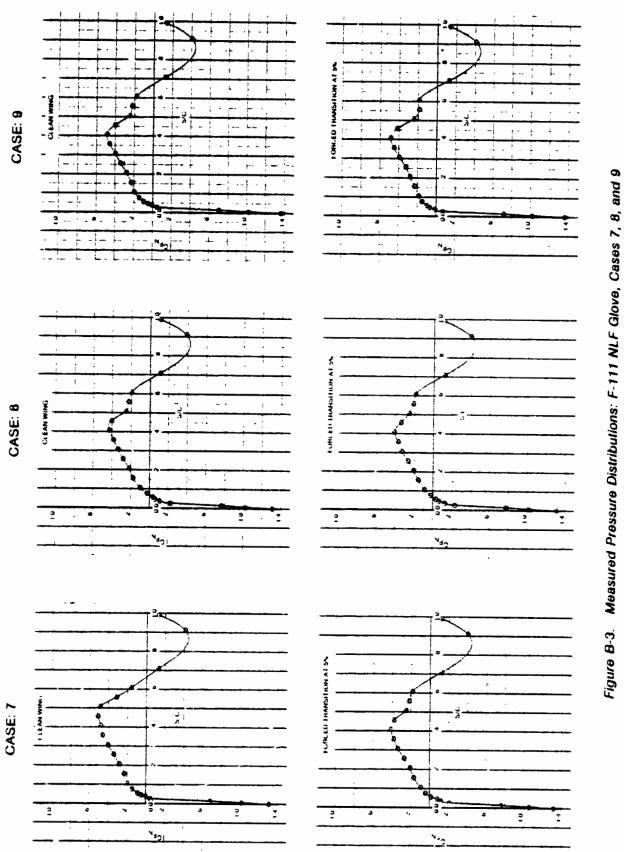
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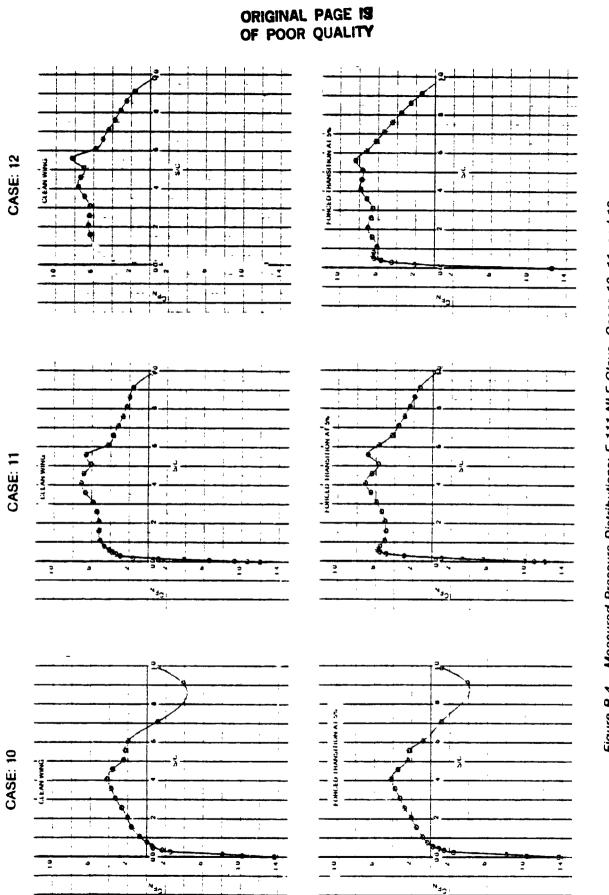


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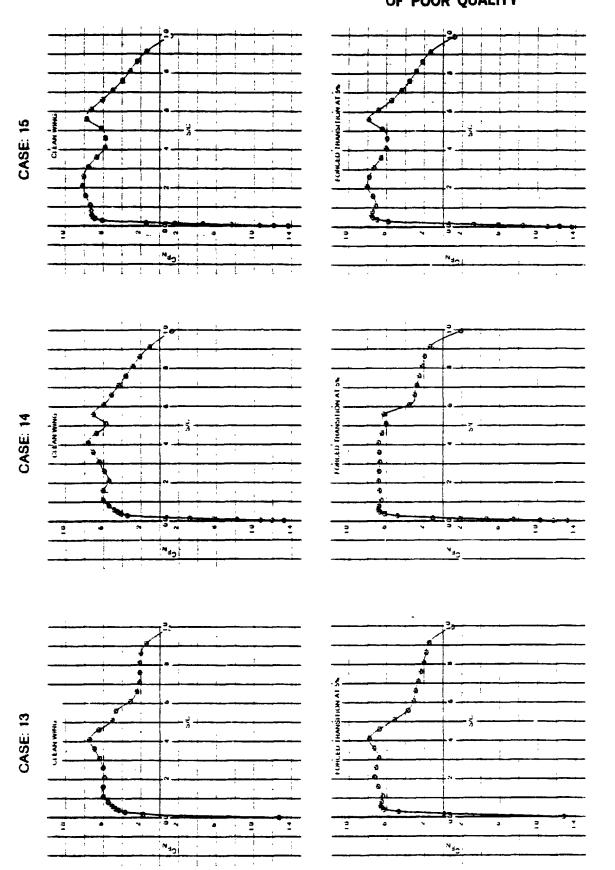
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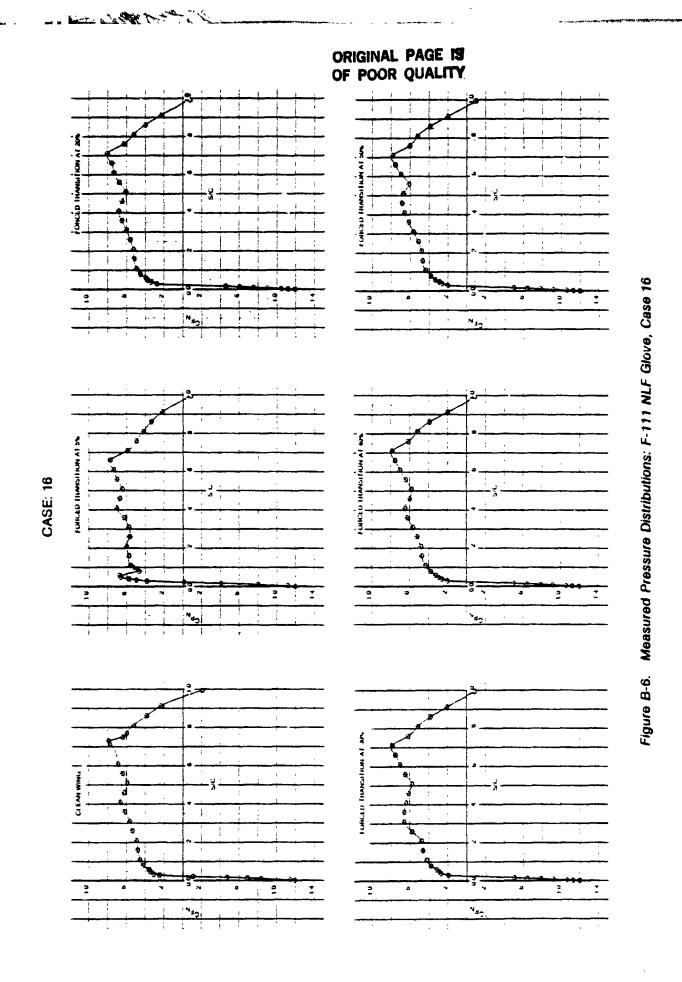
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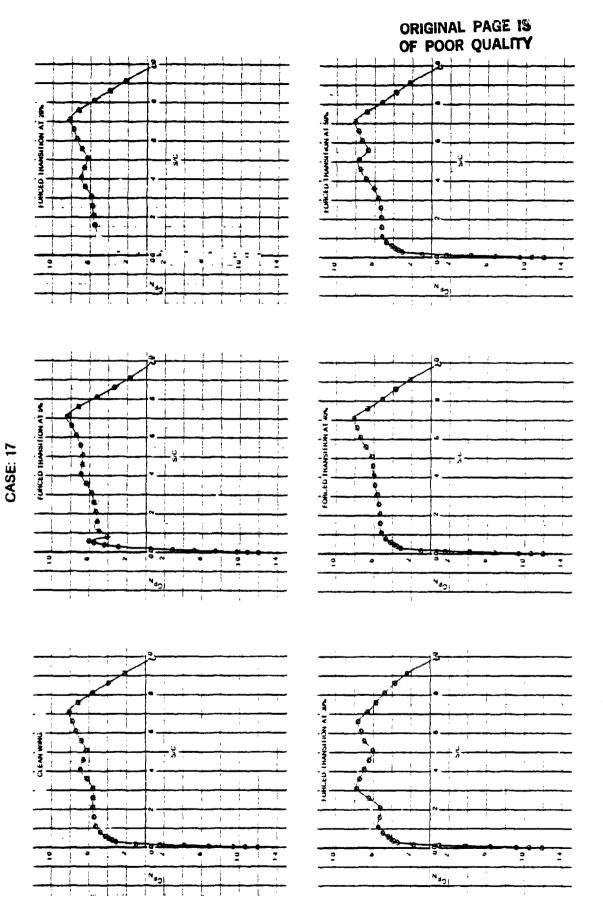
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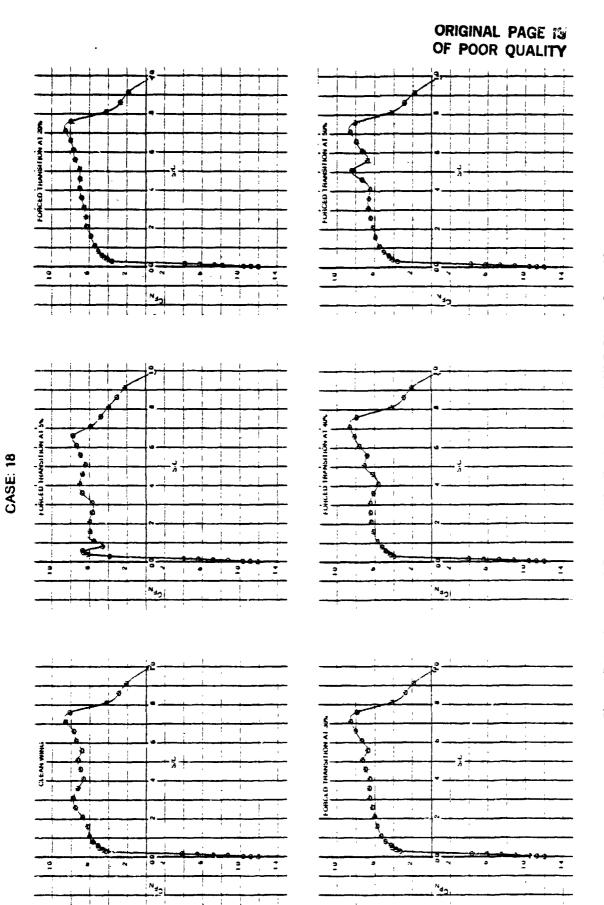
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Figure B-7. Measured Pressure Distributions: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 17

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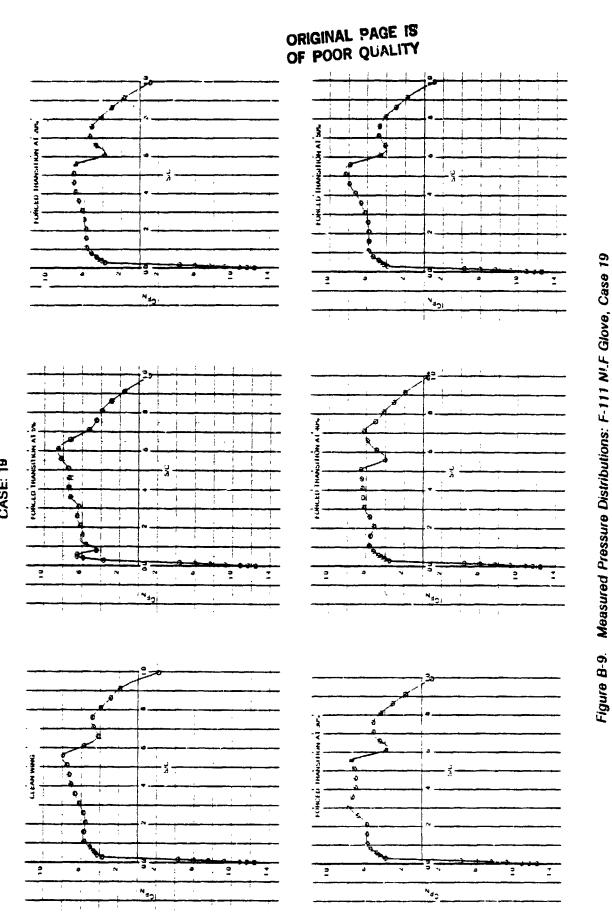
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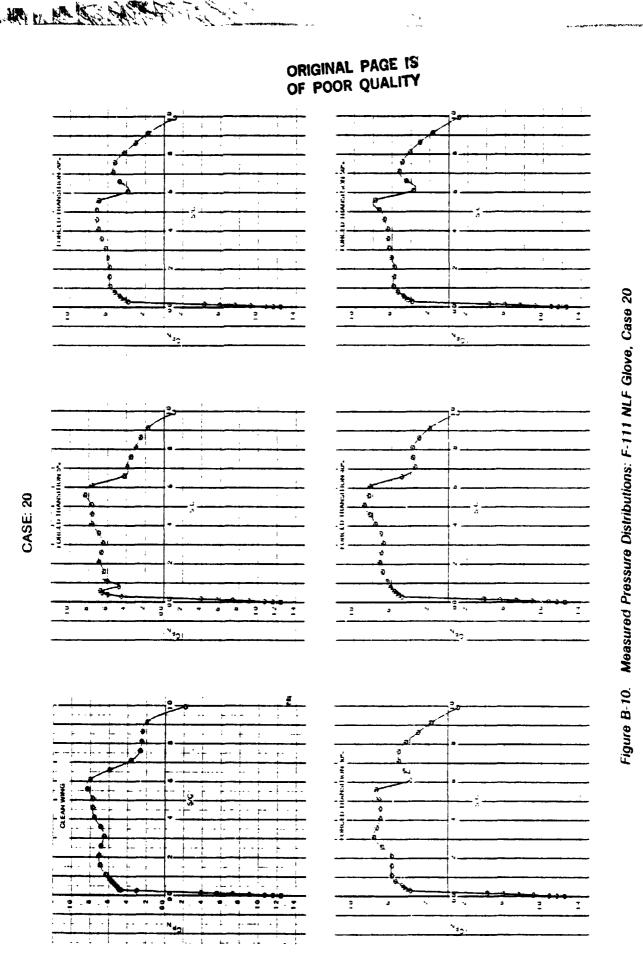
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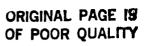
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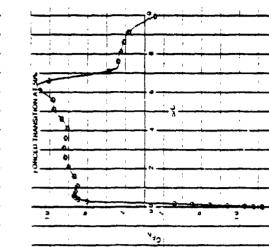
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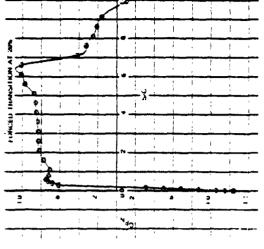
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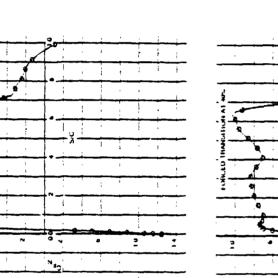
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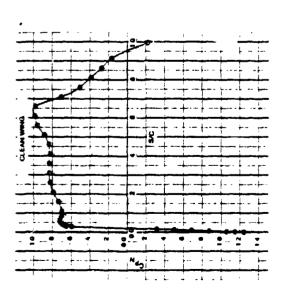
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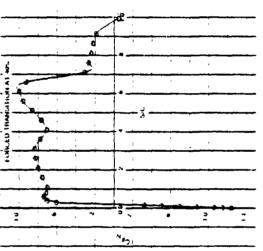
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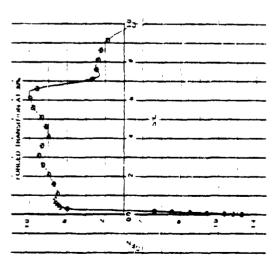


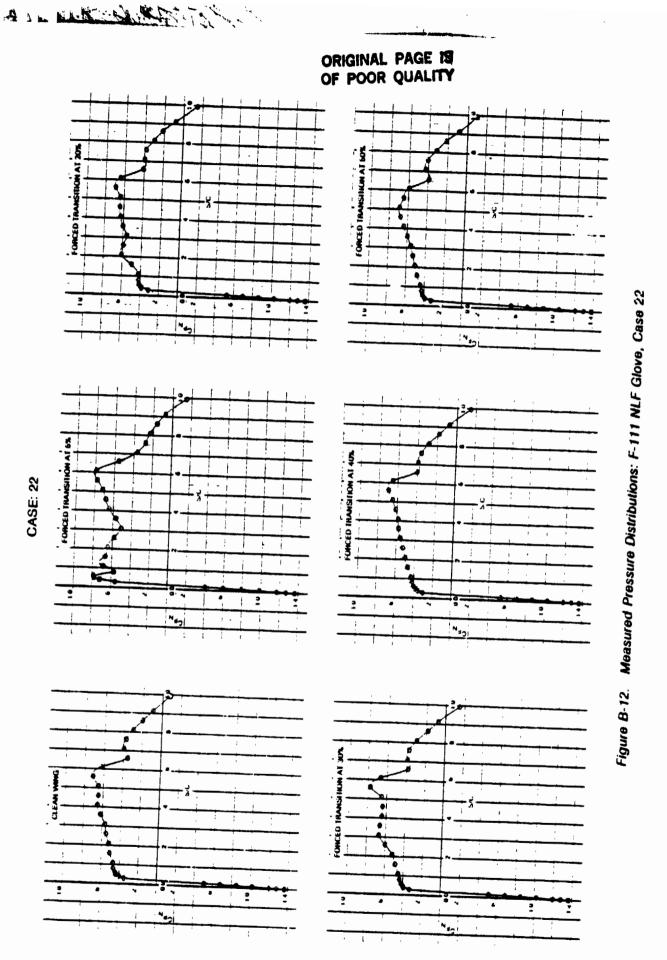
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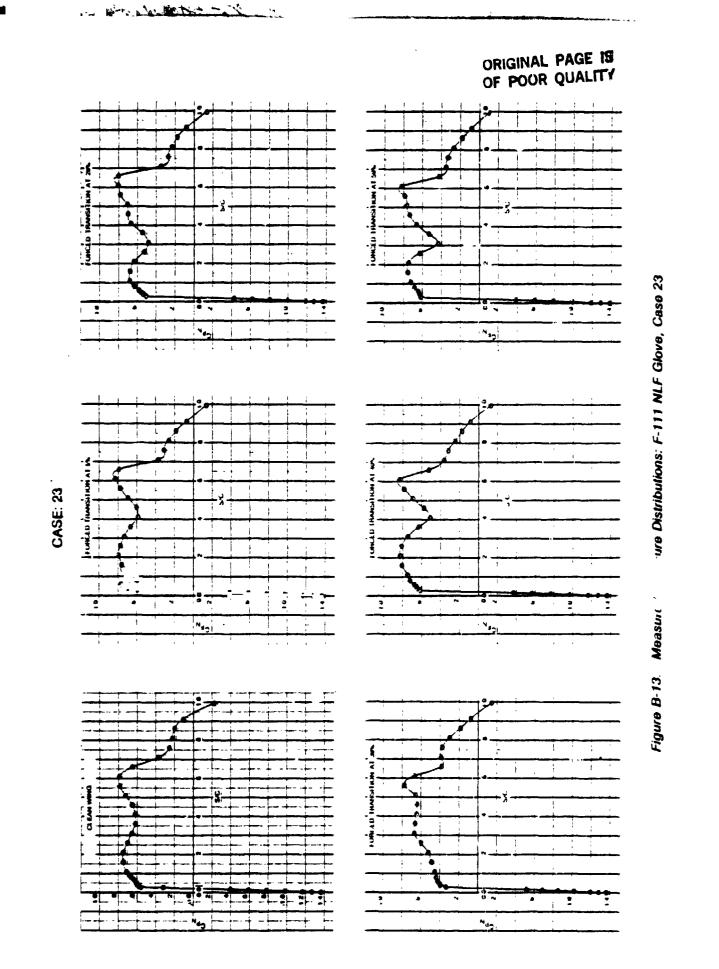
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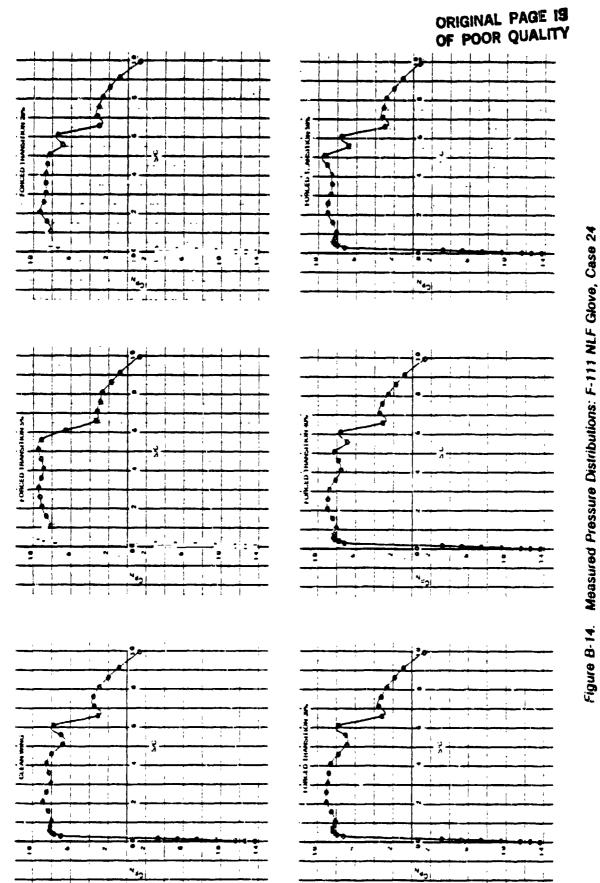
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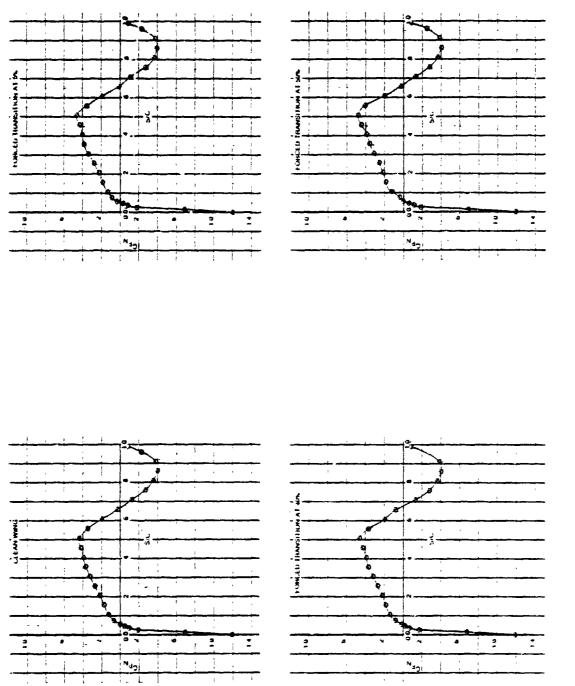
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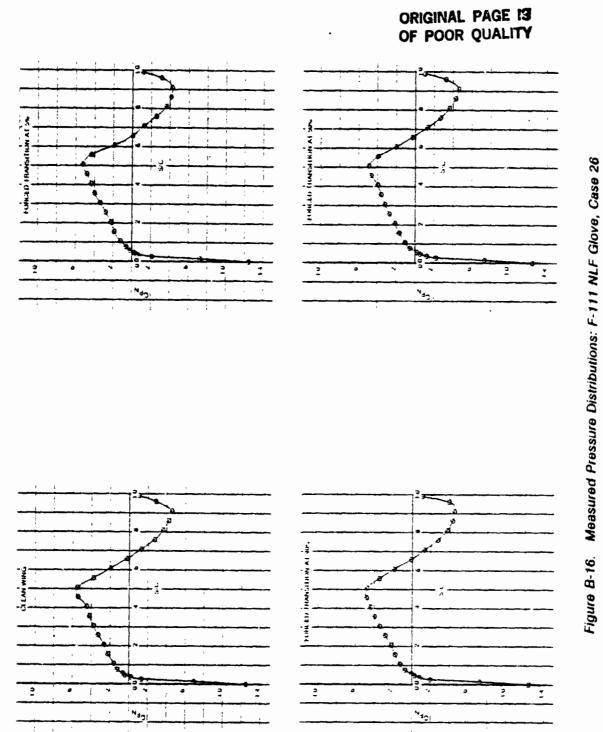
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Figure B-15. Measured Pressure Distributions: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 25

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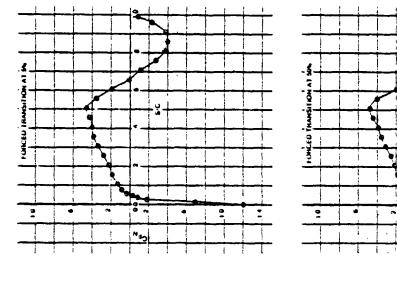
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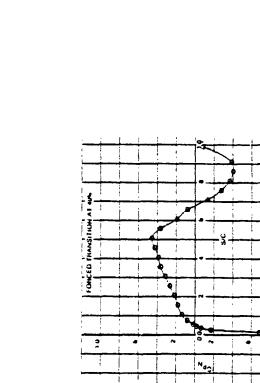
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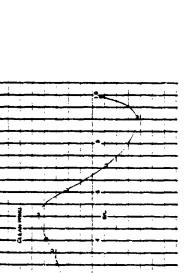
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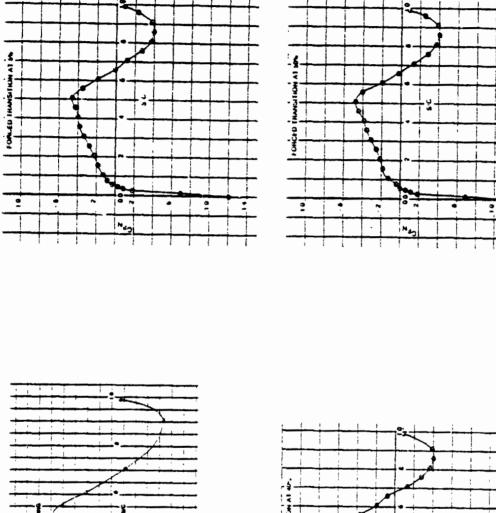
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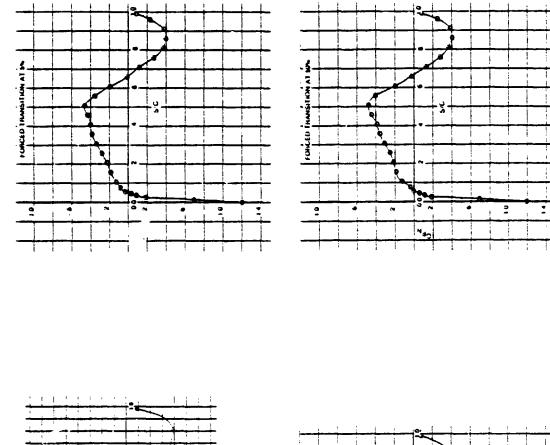
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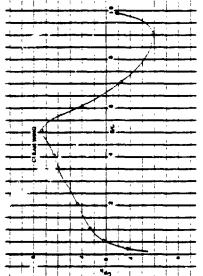
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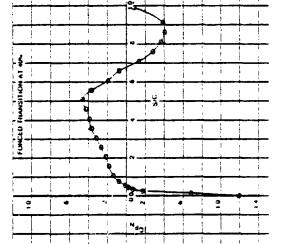
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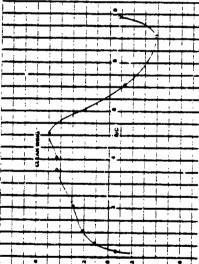
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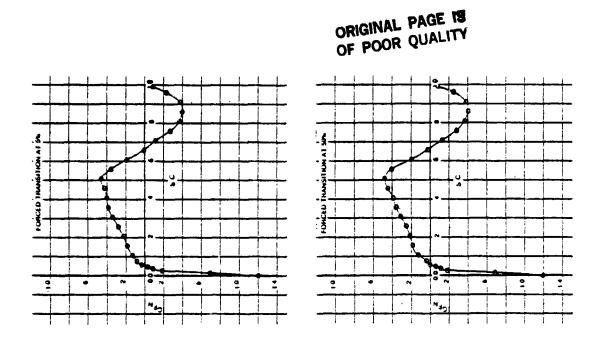
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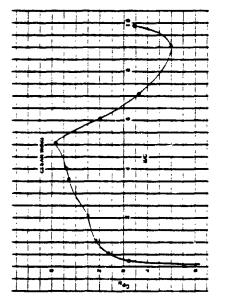
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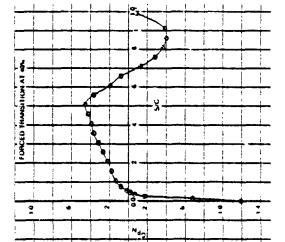
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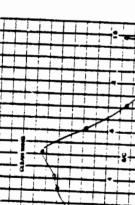
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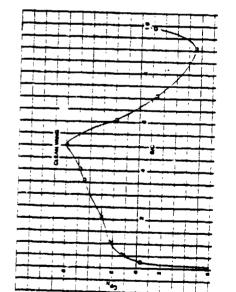
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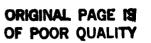
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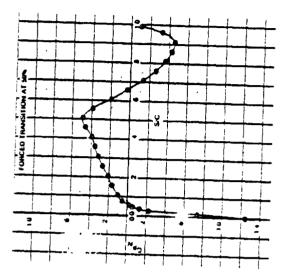
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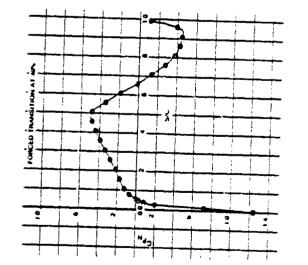
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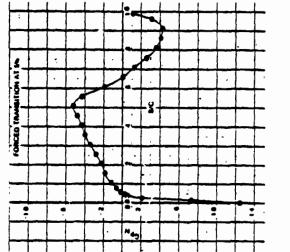
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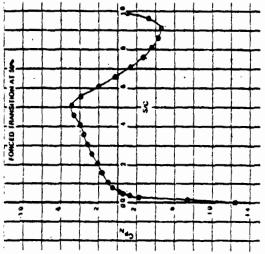




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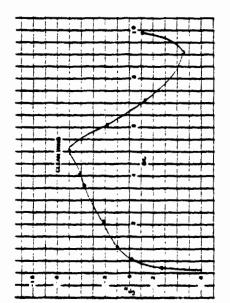
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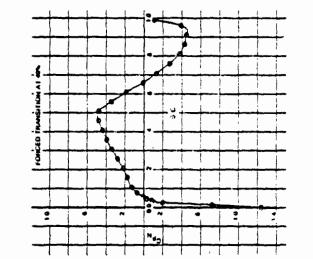


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Figure B-24. Measured Pressure Distributions: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 34

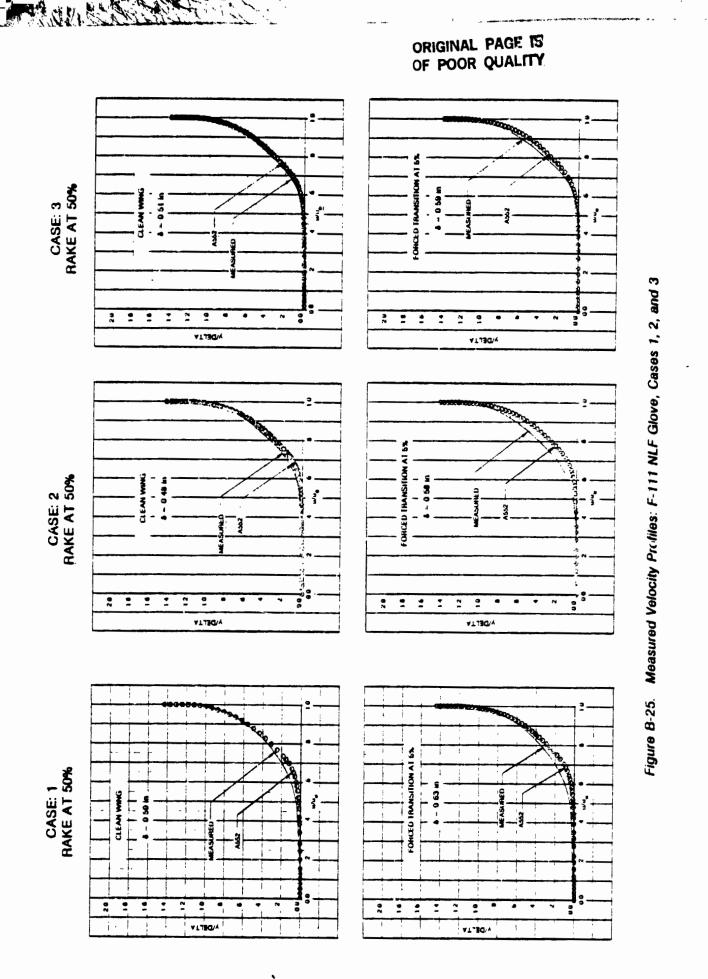
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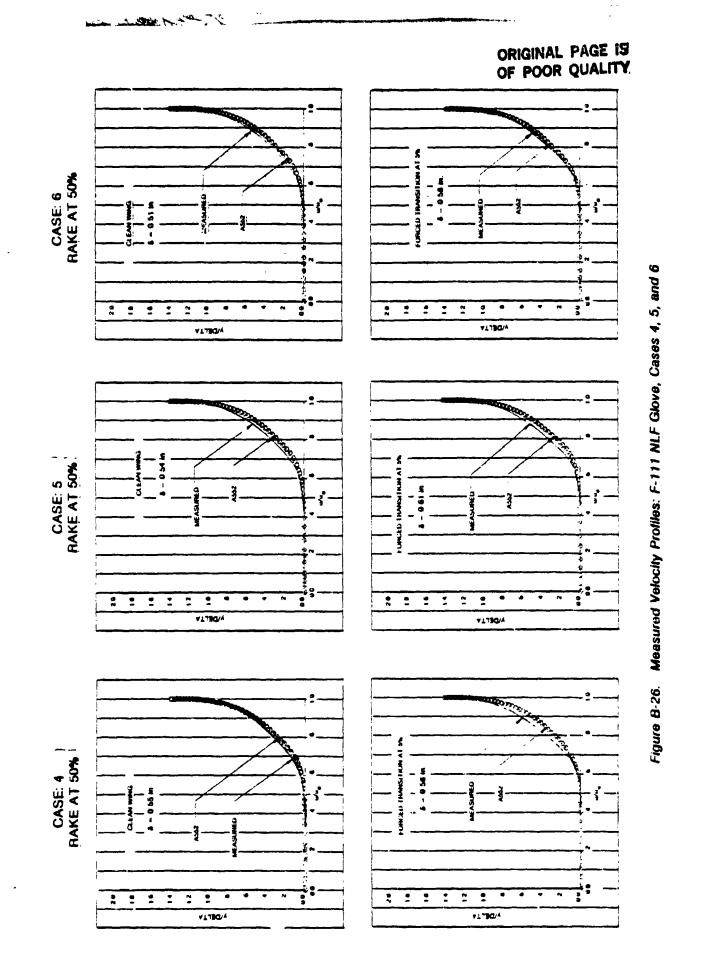
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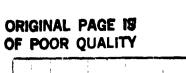
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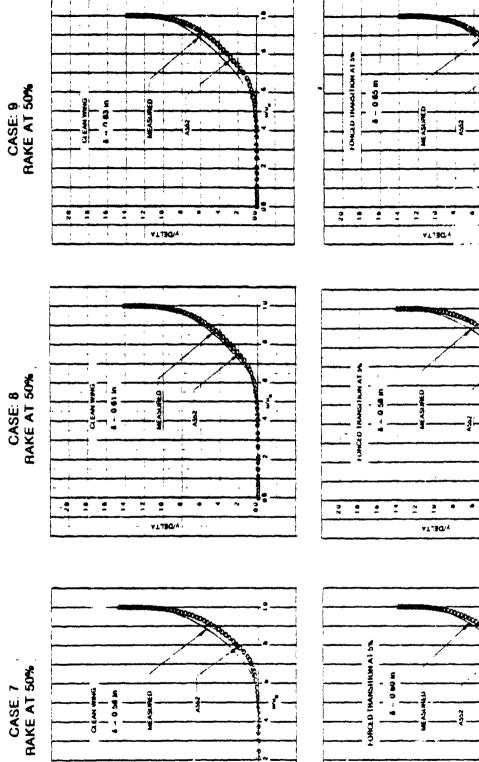
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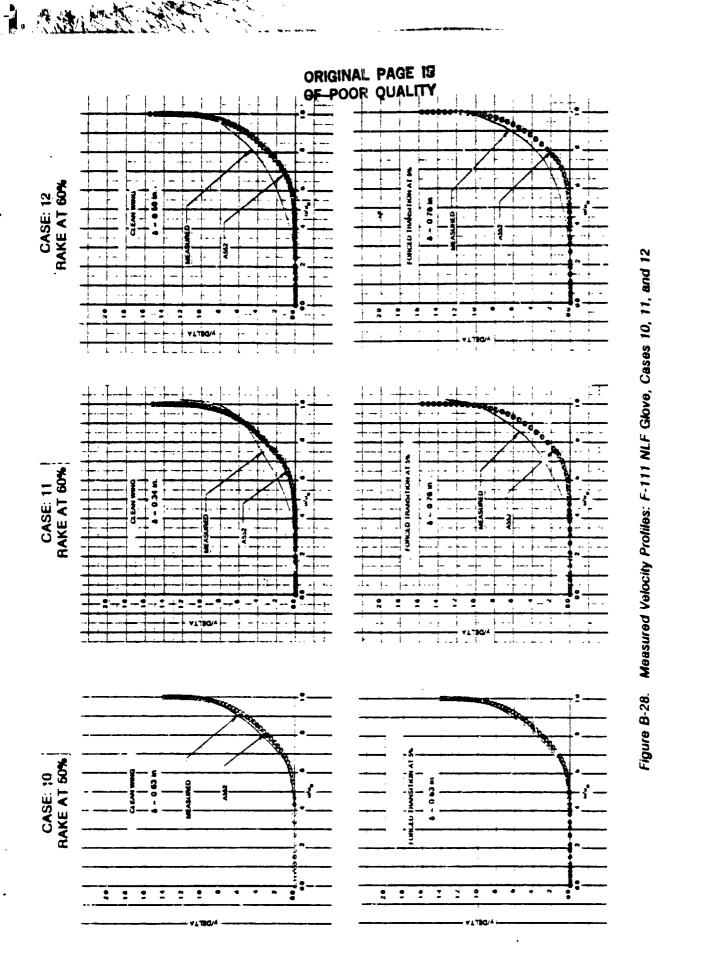
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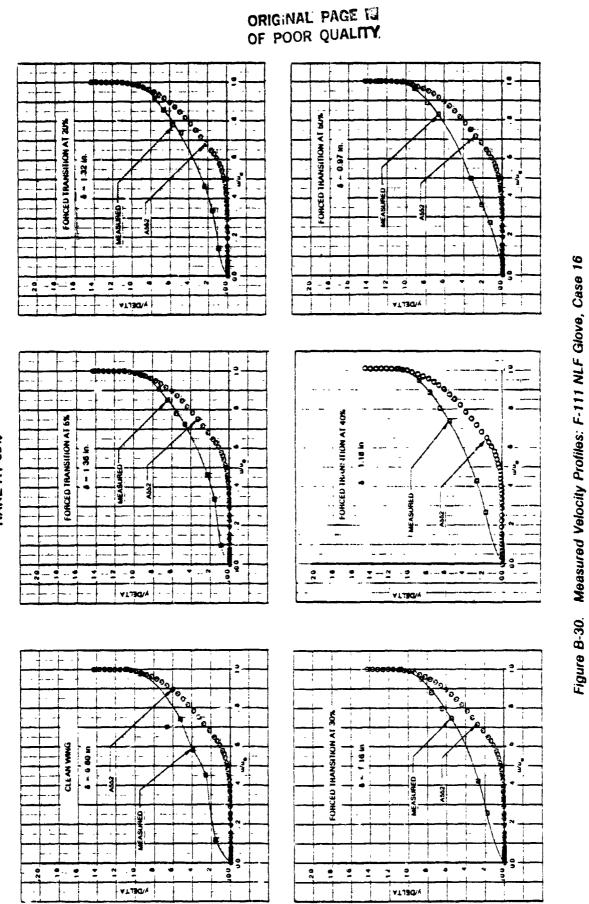
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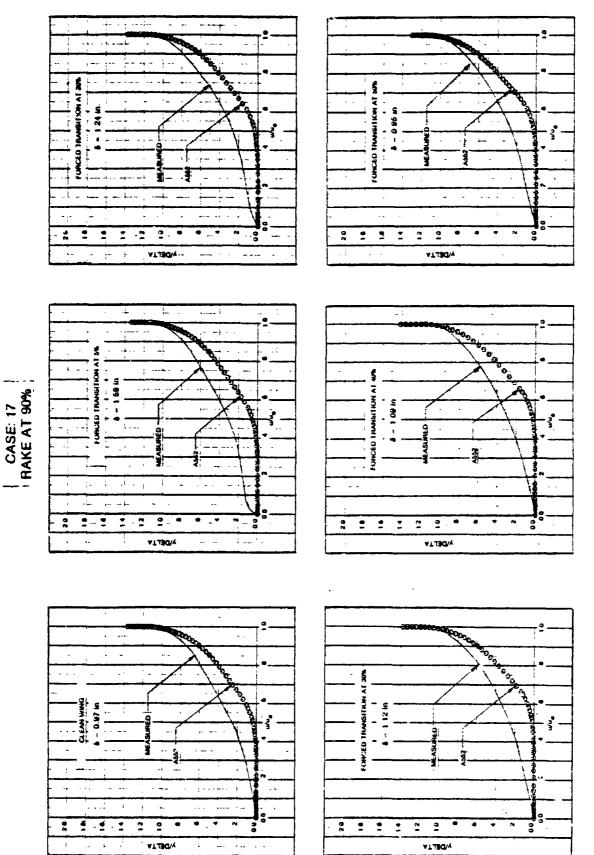
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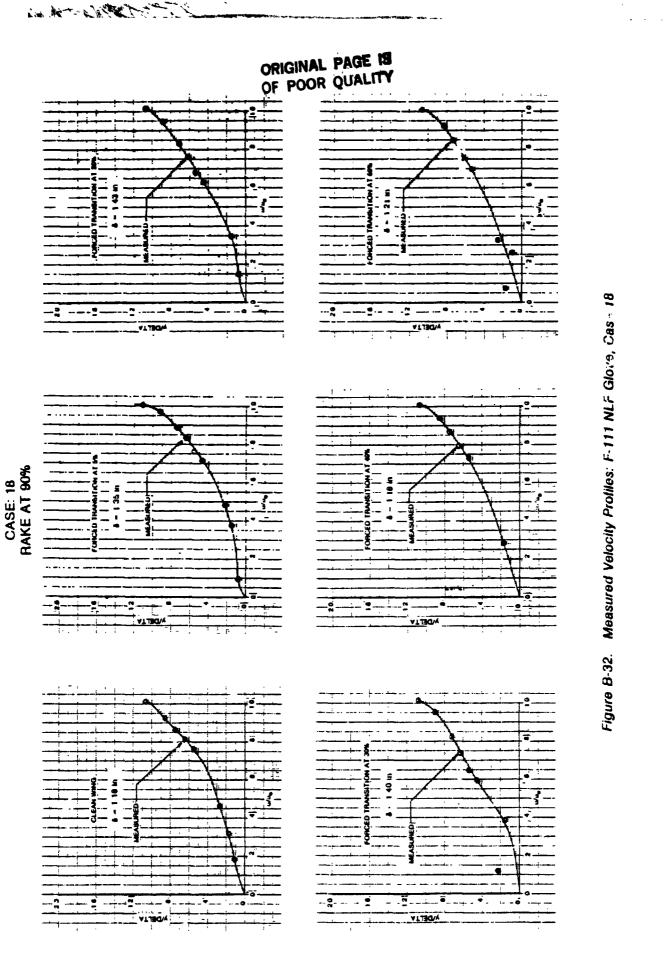
Figure B-31. Measured Velocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 17

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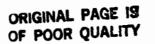
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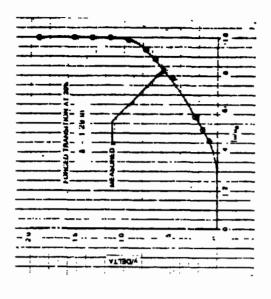
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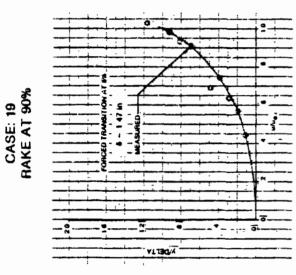
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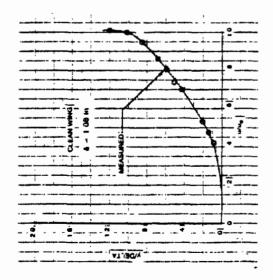
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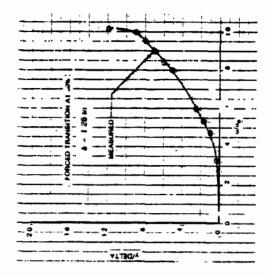
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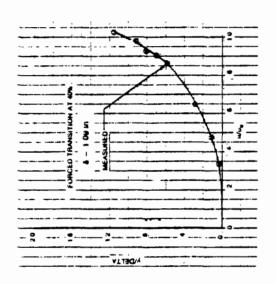




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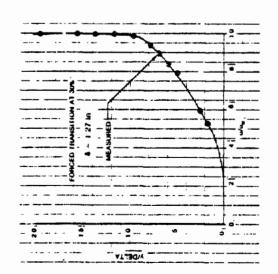


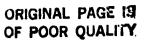
Figure B-33. Measured Velocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 19

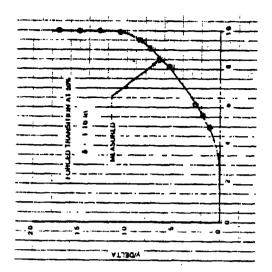
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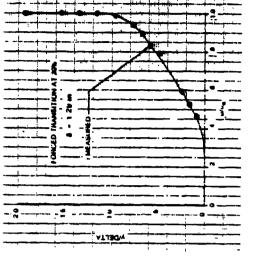


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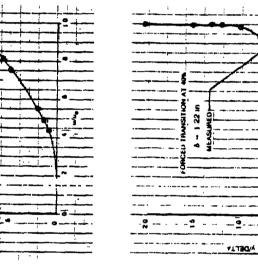
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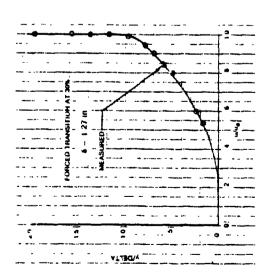
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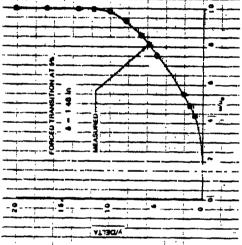
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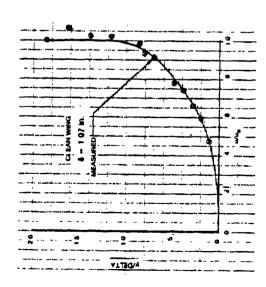
CASE: 20 RAKE AT 90%

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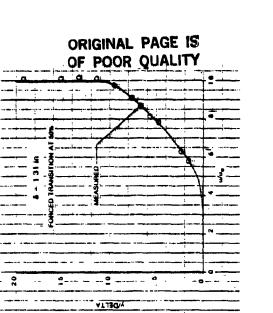
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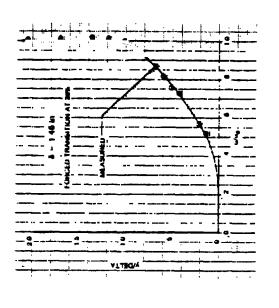
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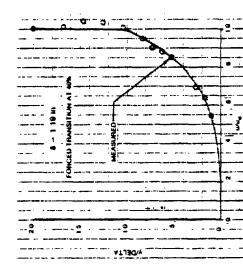
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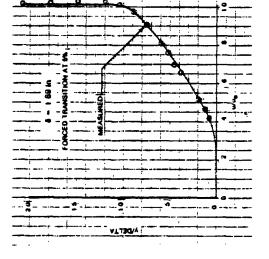
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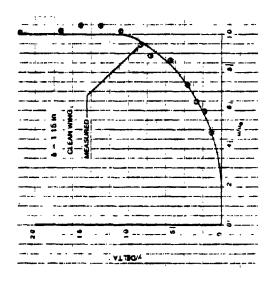








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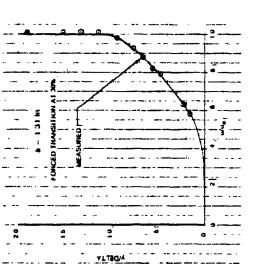


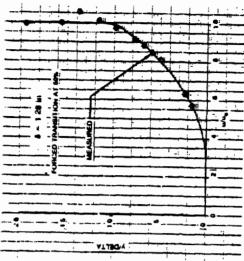
Figure B-35. Measured Velocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 21

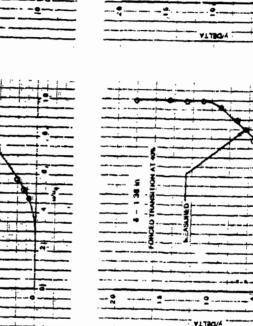
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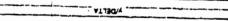
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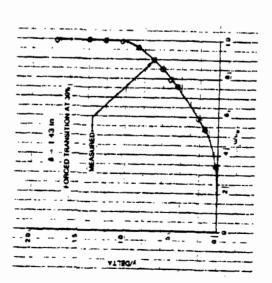


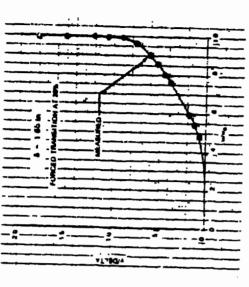




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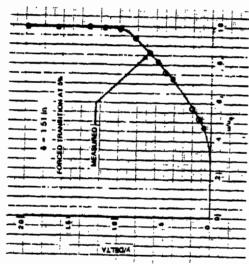
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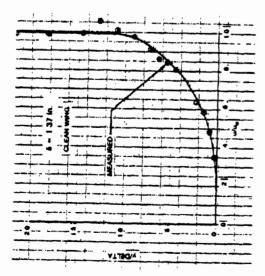
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CASE: 22 RAKE AT 90%





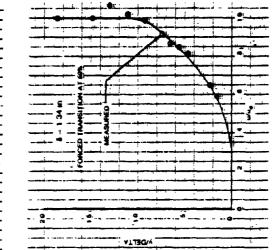
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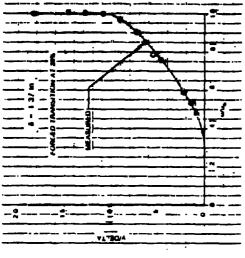


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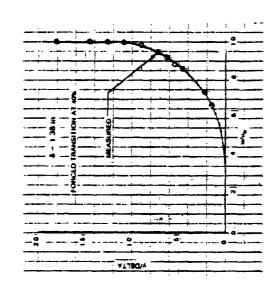
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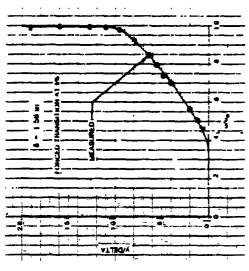
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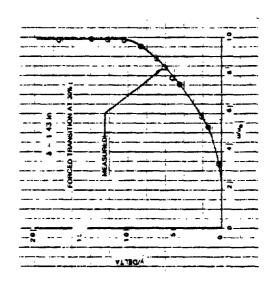
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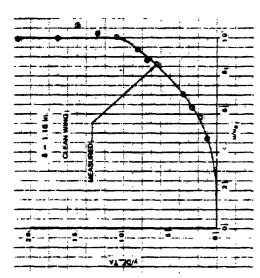
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CASE: 23 HAKE AT 90%









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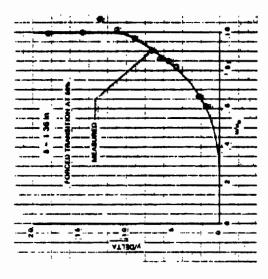
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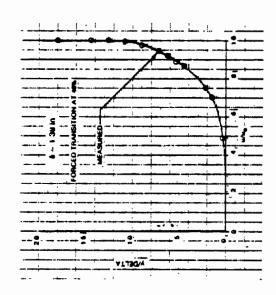
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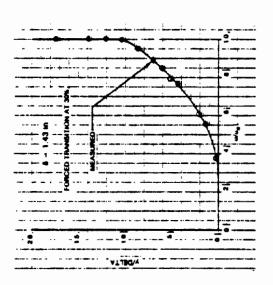
Measured Velocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 24

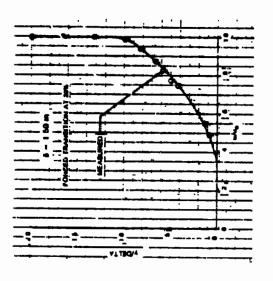
Figure B-38.

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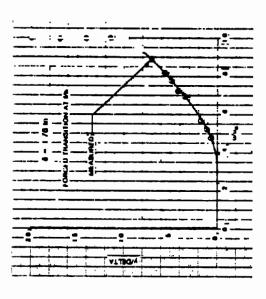
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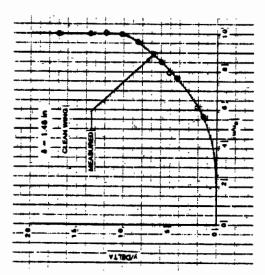
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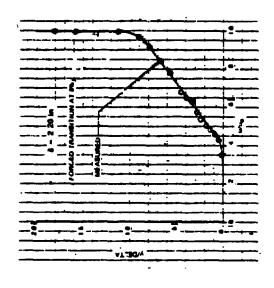
CASE: 24 RAKE AT 90%

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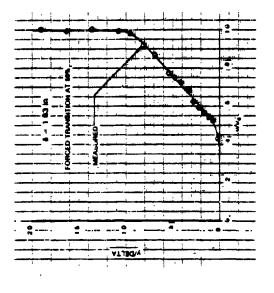
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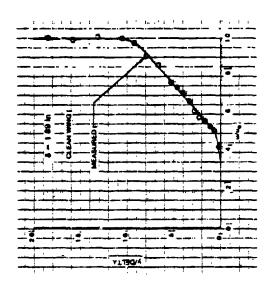
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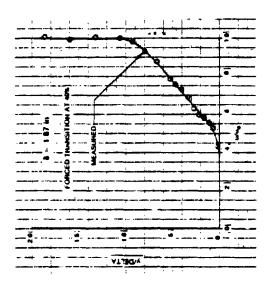
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## CASE: 25 RAKE AT 90%



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# Figure B-39. Measured Velocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 25

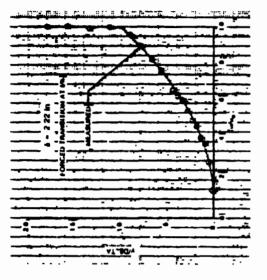
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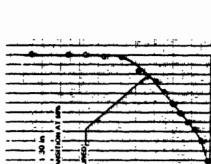
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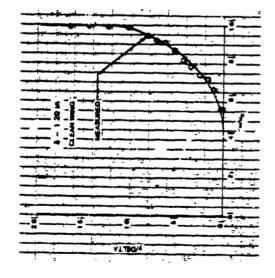


## CASE: 26 RAKE AT 90%

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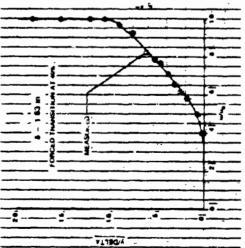
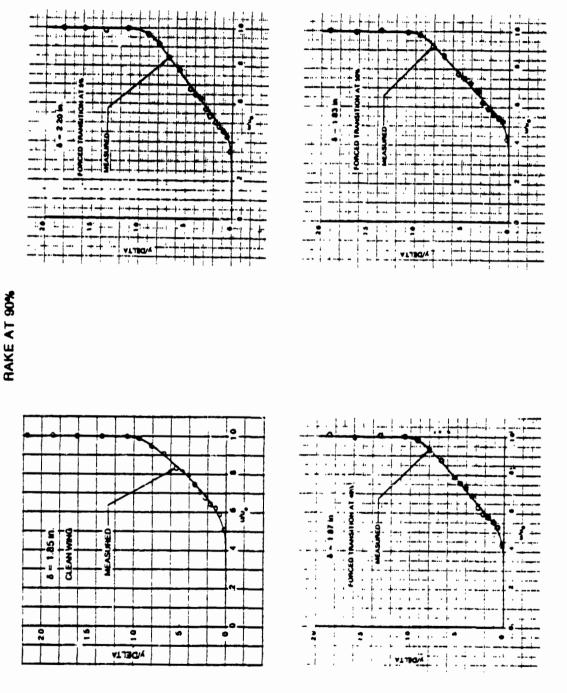


Figure B-40. Measured Velocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 26

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CASE: 27

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## Figure B-41. Measured Valocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 27

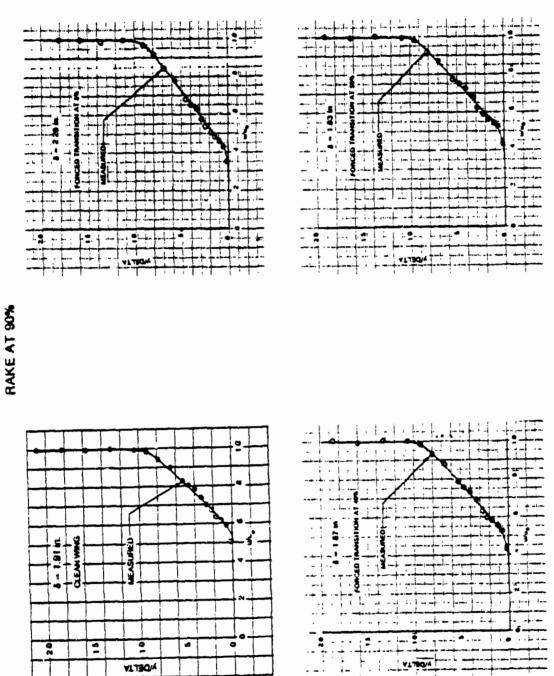
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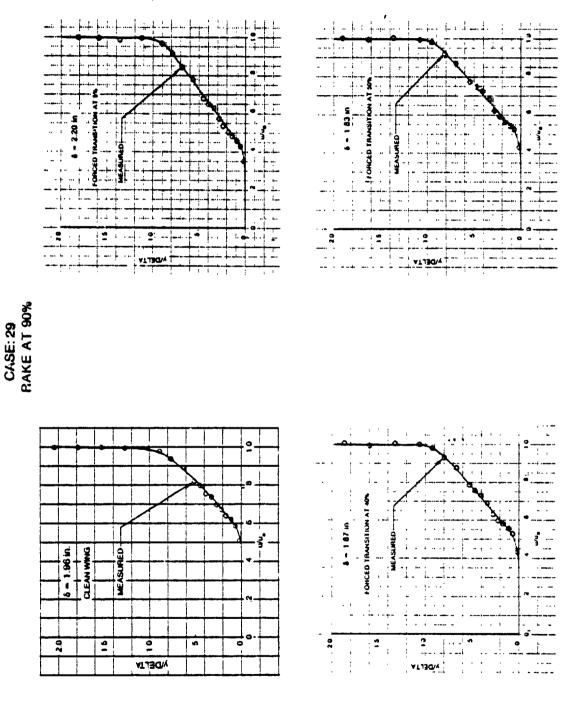


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Figure B-43. Measured Velocity Protiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 29

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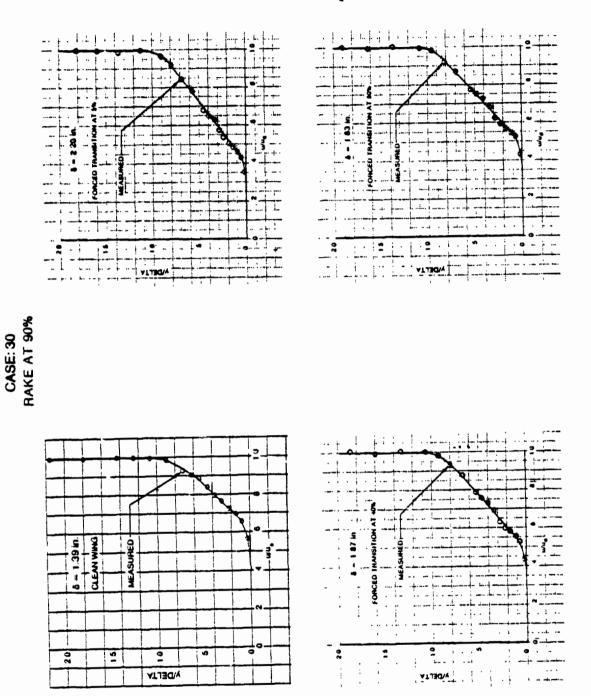


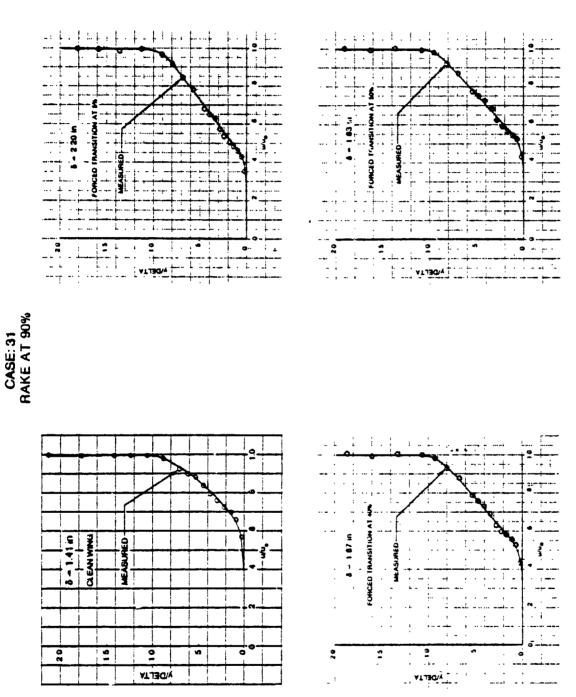
Figure B-44. Measured Velocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 30

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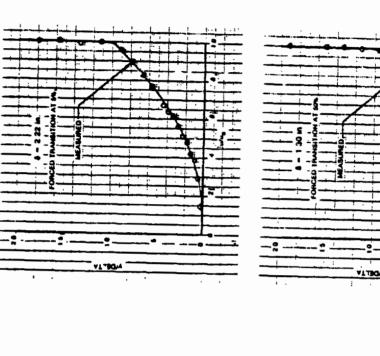
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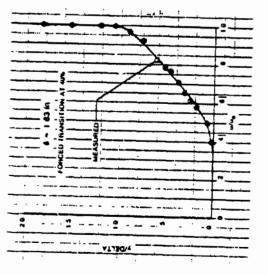
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CASE: 32 RAKE AT 90%

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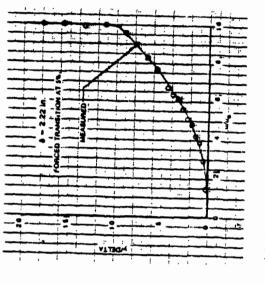
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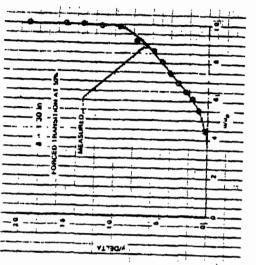
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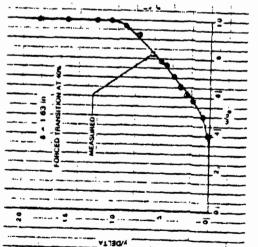
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## CASE: 33 RAKE AT 90%

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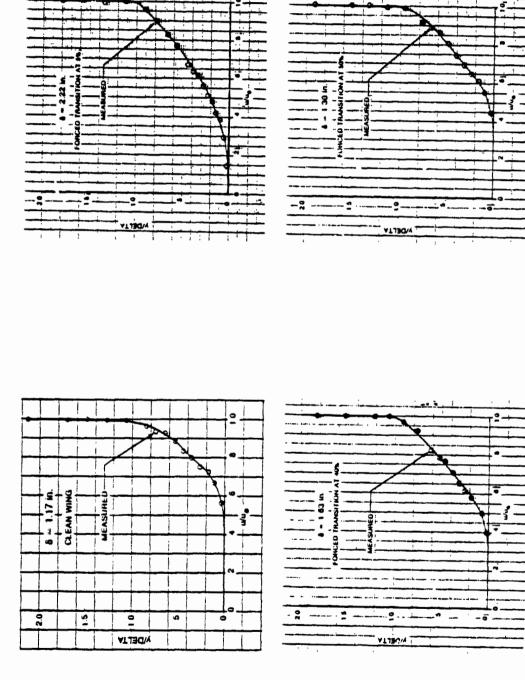
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## Figure B-47. Measured Velocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 33

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CASE: 34 RAKE AT 90%

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Figure B-48. Measured Velocity Profiles: F-111 NLF Glove, Case 34

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	Upper	surface		Lower	surface
X/C, U	Y/C, U	X/C, U	Y/C, U	X/C, L	Y/C, L
0.000000	0.000000	.557380	.053030	0.000000	0.000000
.000100	.002410	.575760	.052570	.001200	003410
.000800	.004440	.593930	.052030	.002000	004380
.002310	.006490	.612020	.051390	.003000	005340
.004410	.008530	.647610	.049850	.005000	006730
.007190	.010550	.665160	.048930	.008000	008340
.010670	.012540	.682560	.047930	.012000	010080
.014850	.014520	.716810	.045520	.018000	012250
.019730	.016450	.733510	.044120	.024000	014130
.025310	.018360	.750060	.042570	.032000	016340
.031590	.020250	.782080	.039180	.040000	01 <b>3290</b>
.038550	.022110	.812610	.035260	.050000	020470
.046190	.023920	.827250	.033210	.060000	022420
.054500	.025700	.855220	.028880	.070000	024200
.063470	.027440	.881410	.024360	.080000	025840
.073090	.029160	.905560	.019860	.100000	028780
.083340	.030840	.927470	.015350	.120000	031340
.094190	.032470	.955620	.009210	.140000	033670
.105650	.034070	.970040	.005750	.160000	035800
.117670	.035620	1.000000	002090	.190000	038700
.130270	.037120			.220000	041230
.143400	.038570			.260000	044060
.157060	.039980			.300000	· 046290
.171210	.041340			.350000	- 048230
.185840	.042630			.400000	049150
.200910	.043880			.450000	048900
216420	.045060			.500000	047200
.232320	.046190			.550000	043500
.248610	.047240			.600000	038010
.265240	.048240			.650000	031130
.282210	.049150			700000	023720
.29 <del>9</del> 480	.050000			.740000	017680
.317030	.050770			.770000	013310
.334830	.051470			.800000	009350
.352860	.052100			.830000	005 <del>9</del> 70
.371090	.052630			.850000	004130
.38 <del>94</del> 80	.053060			.870000	002770
.408010	.053410			.890000	001910
426640	.053670			.910000	001660
.445330	.053850			.930000	002000
.464660	.053950			.950000	002930
482800	.053950			.970000	004530
.501530	.053860			.080000	005580
.520230	.053680			.990000	006800
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Table B-1. NLAM78 Airfoil Coordinates, F-111 NLF Glove

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Case 2		Case 3		
x/c	Ср	x/c	Ср	
.020	.254	.020	.158	
.050	.075	.050	002	
.100	061	.100	117	
.200	1 <b>69</b>	.200	215	
.350	316	.350	374	
.400	342	.400	402	
.500	255	.500	244	
.600	1 <b>84</b>	.600	167	
.700	.107	.700	.120	
.900	.391	.900	.381	
.980	.038	.980	.086	

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Case 6		Case 8		
x/c	Ср	x/c	Ср	
.020	.205	.020	.199	
.050	.033	.050	.032	
.100	0 <del>94</del>	.100	187	
.200	1 <b>91</b>	.200	1 <b>95</b>	
.350	339	.350	344	
.400	-,372	.400	385	
.500	- 252	.500	233	
.600	182	.600	178	
.700	.103	.700	.097	
.900	.361	.900	.342	
.980	.088	. <del>9</del> 80	.096	

Table B-2. Measured Cp v3 x/c: F-111 NLF Glove, Cases 2, 3, 6, and 8

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Case 12		Cas	Case 13		Case 15	
x/c	Cp	x/c	Cp	x/c	Cp	
.020	373	.050	474	.020	520	
.050	471	.100	559	.050	622	
.100	565	.200	547	.100	632	
.200	622	.300	594	.200	706	
.300	607	.400	692	.300	648	
.400	724	.500	467	.400	498	
.500	668	.550	436	.500	534	
.550	790	.600	- 293	.550	666	
.600	554	.900	136	.600	625	
.900	156	.980	.094	.900	120	
.980	.074			.980	.099	

Case 16		Case 17		
x/c	Cp	x/c	Cp	
.020	245	.020	312	
.050	356	.050	418	
.100	449	.100	523	
.200	488	.200	- 553	
.300	557	.300	555	
.400	657	.400	- 686	
.500	588	.500	629	
.550	633	.550	671	
.600	682	.600	733	
.650	742	.650	770	
.700	766	.700	805	
.900	232	.900	225	
.980	.201	.980	.086	

Table B-3. Measured Cp vs x/c: F-111 NLF Glove, Cases 12, 13, 15, 16, and 17

B-58

Cas	e 18	Cas	Case 19	
x/c	Cp	x/c	Cp	
.020	428	.020	357	
.050	510	.050	441	
.100	600	.070	415	
.200	667	.100	540	
.300	767	.200	526	
.400	659	.300	5 <b>90</b>	
500	721	.400	671	
.550	681	.500	712	
.600	736	.550	755	
.650	780	.600	545	
.700	853	.650	402	
.900	·.210	.700	447	
.980	.026	.900	182	
		.980	.202	

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x/c	Cp	x/c	Cp
.020	450	.020	579
.050	510	.050	690
.070	467	.100	665
.100	•.599	.200	751
.200	6 <b>7</b> 1	.300	793
.300	617	.400	784
.400	719	.500	845
.500	738	.550	912
.550	•.789·	.600	940
.600	761	.660	934
.650	565	.700	673
.700	345	.900	159
900	191	.980	.207
.980	.202		

Case 21

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Table B-4. Measured Cp vs x/c: F-111 NLF Glove, Cases 18, 19, 20, and 21

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Case 22		Case 24	
x/c	Cp	x/c	
.020	300	.020	
.050	382	.050	
.100	403	.100	
.200	450	.200	
.300	488	.300	
.400	563	.400	
.500	560	.500	
.550	610	.550	
.600	5 <b>38</b>	.600	
.650	303	.660	
.700	~.340	.700	
.900	087	.900	
.900	.071	.980	

Ср

-.603 -.705 -.688 -.768 -.695 -.736 -.586 -.604 -.667 -.266

-.299 -.077 .109

.900	
.980	

Case 25		Cas	e 26
x/c	Cp	x/c	Cp
.020	.185	.020	.125
.050	002	.050	061
.100	127	.100	155
.200	218	.200	- 253
.350	365	.300	404
.400	395	.400	429
.500	436	.500	522
.600	1 <b>99</b>	.600	193
.700	.121	.700	.122
.900	.376	.900	.430
.980	.080	.980	.097

Table B-5. Measured Cp vs x/c: F-111 NLF Glove, Cases 22, 24, 25, and 26

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Case 27		Cas	<b>se</b> 28
x/c	С <sub>р</sub>	x/c	Cp
.020	.208	.020	.172
.050	.004	.050	026
.100	1 <b>09</b>	.100	139
.200	210	.200	237
.350	326	.350	364
.400	374	.400	406
.500	442	.500	477
.600	211	.600	208
.700	.112	.700	.116
.900	.364	.900	.373
.980	.065	.980	069

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Case 29		Cas	Case 30	
x/c	Cp	x/c	Cp	
.020	.175	.020	.059	
.050	020	.050	111	
.100	137	.100	213	
.200	233	.200	288	
.350	395	.350	427	
.400	425	.400	428	
.500	5 <b>3</b> 1	.500	493	
.600	203	.600	201	
.700	.121	.700	.125	
.900	.381	.900	.381	
. <b>980</b>	.079	.980	.078	

Table B-6. Measured Cp vs x/c: F-111 NLF Glove, Cases 22, 24, 25, and 26



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Case 31		Case 32	
<u>x/c</u>	C,	x/c	Cp
.020	.044	.020	.186
.050	123	.0 <b>50</b>	005
.100	228	.1 <b>00</b>	120
.200	303	.200	221
.350	449	.350	386
.400	467	.400	408
.500	563	.500	521
.600	1 <b>97</b>	.600	175
.700	.125	.700	.139
.900	.389	.900	.442
.980	.085	.980	.109

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Case 33		Case 34	
x/c	C <sub>p</sub>	x/c	Cp
.020	.041	.020	.225
.050	120	.050	.018
.100	218	.100	092
.200	297	.200	207
.350	438	.350	- 354
.400	457	.400	384
.500	573	.500	478
.600	1 <b>84</b>	.600	194
.700	.133	.700	.124
.900	.435	.900	.427
.960	.107	.980	.097

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Table B-7. Measured Cp vs x/c: F-111 NLF Glove, Cases 22, 24, 25, and 26

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APPENDIX C

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### DETAILS OF FLIGHT TEST DATA ANALYSIS

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C-1	Transition Determination:	Case 1 F-111 NLF Glove	C-6
C-2		Case 2 F-111 NLF Glove	C-7
C-3	Transition Determination:	Case 3 F-111 NLF Glove	C-8
C-4	Transition Determination:	Case 4 F-111 NLF Glove	C-10
C-5	Transition Determination:	Case 5 F-111 NLF Glove	C-11
C-6	Transition Determination:	Case 6 F-111 NLF Glove	C-12
C-7	Transition Determination:	Case 7 F-111 NLF Glove	C-13
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C-9	Transition Determination:	Case 9 F-111 NLF Glove	C-16
C-10	Transition Determination:	Case 10 F-111 NLF Glove	C-17
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C-13	Transition Determination:	Case 13 F-111 NLF Glove	C-21
C-14	Transition Determination:	Case 14 F-111 NLF Glove	C-22
C-15	Transition Determination:	Case 15 F-111 NLF Glove	C-23
C-16	Transition Determination:	Case 16 F-111 NLF Glove	C-24
C-17	Transition Determination:	Case 17 F-111 NLF Glove	C-26
C-18	Transition Determination:	Case 18 F-111 NLF Glove	C-27
C-19	Transition Determination:	Case 19 F-111 NLF Glove	C-28
C-20	Transition Determination:	Case 20 F-111 NLF Glove	C-29
C-21	Transition Determination:	Case 21 F-111 NLF Glove	C-31
C-22	Transition Determination:	Case 22 F-111 NLF Glove	C-32
C-23	Transition Determination:	Case 23 F-111 NLF Glove	C-33
C-24	Transition Determination:	Case 24 F-111 NLF Glove	C-34
C-25	Transition Determination:	Case 25 F-111 NLF Glove	C-36
C-26	Transition Determination:	Case 26 F-111 NLF Glove	C-37
C-27	Transition Determination:	Case 27 F-111 NLF Glove	C-38
C-28	Transition Determination:	Case 28 F-111 NLF Glove	C-39
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C-30	Transition Determination:	Case 30 F-111 NLF Glove	C-41
C-31	Transition Determination:	Case 31 F-111 NLF Glove	C-42
C-32	Transition Determination:	Case 32 F-111 NLF Glove	C-43

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C-33	Transition Determination:	Case 33 F-111 NLF Glove	C-44
C-34	Transition Determination:	Case 34 F-111 NLF Glove	C-45

#### APPENDIX C: DETAILS OF FLIGHT TEST DATA ANALYSIS

This appendix contains a case-by-case analysis of the 34 selected cases of F-111 flight test data, using the method described in Appendix A, to determine the extent of laminar flow achieved.

#### Case 1:

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This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 9.0 deg, and the airplane lift coefficient ( $C_L$ ) was 0.416. Figure C-1 shows the plot of displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location (RDTH) versus transition location for this case. The circular symbols are based on results of Boeing's boundary layer program, A552, for a clean wing (natural transition) pressure distribution (flight 161, run 15). The square symbol corresponds to the inferred displacement thickness Reynolds number for flight 162, run 15, in which transition was forced at 5% chord. The pressure distribution for that flight is shown in Appendix B. The triangular symbol corresponds to the inferred the inferred displacement thickness Reynolds number for that flight is shown in Appendix B. The triangular symbol corresponds to the inferred the triangular symbol corresponds to the inferred displacement thickness Reynolds number for that flight is shown in Appendix B. The triangular symbol corresponds to the inferred the triangular symbol corresponds to the inferred displacement thickness Reynolds number for the clean wing flight and indicates that transition was at 20% chord.

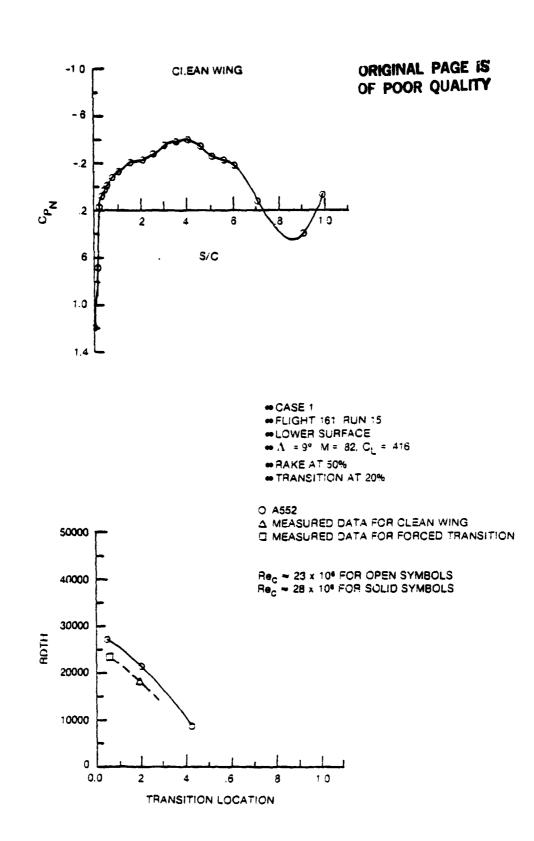
#### Case 2:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 9.0 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.501. Figure C-2 shows the plot of displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus transition location. Transition was at 20% chord.

#### Case 3:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 16.0 deg, and C<sub>L</sub> was 0.387. Figure C-3 shows the plot of displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location. The forced transition flight was at a chord Reynolds number of about 23 million compared with a chord Reynolds number of about 28 million for the clean wing. However, A552 was used to adjust (see app. A) the measured displacement thickness Reynolds number for the forced transition flight to correspond to a chord Reynolds number of 23 million. Transition was at 14% chord.

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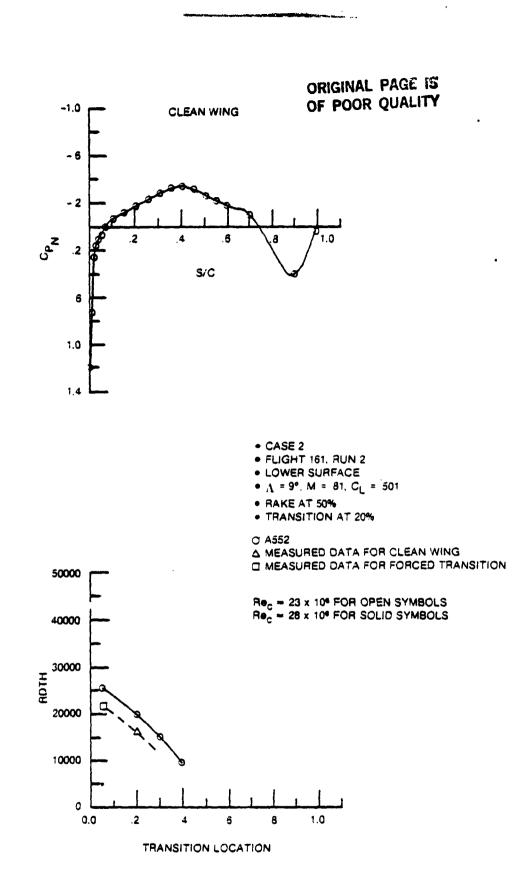
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Figure C-1. Transition Determination, Case 1 F-111 NLF Glove



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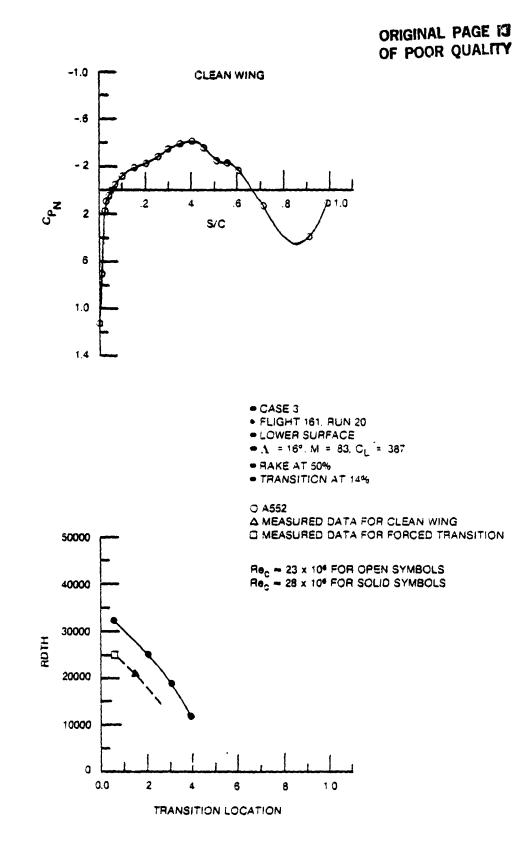
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Figure C-2. Transition Determination, Case 2 F-111 NLF Glove

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Figure C-3. Transition Determination, Case 3 F-111 NLF Glove

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#### Case 4:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 15.9 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.397. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-4. Transition was at 12% chord.

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#### Case 5:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 18.8 deg, and C<sub>L</sub> was 0.377. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-5. Transition was at 3% chord.

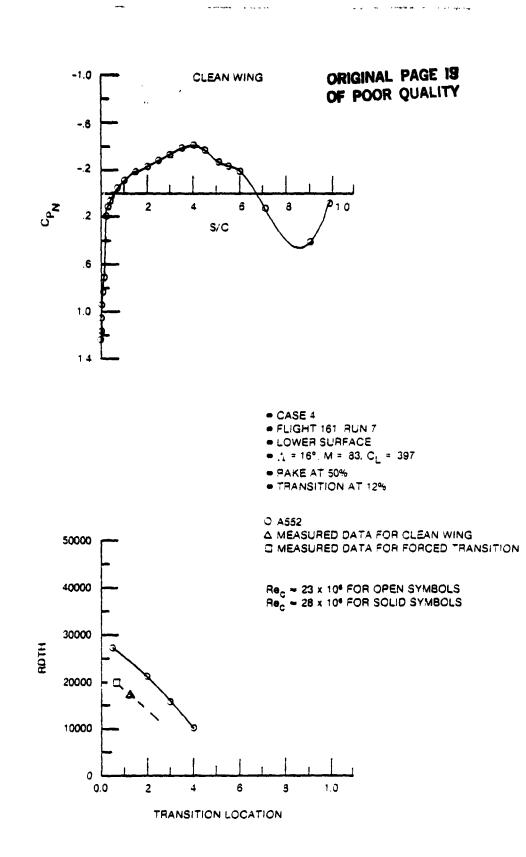
#### Case 6:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 19.0 deg, and  $C_{L}$  was 0.394. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-6. Transition was at 13% chord.

#### Case 7:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 22.0 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.285. Displacement thickness at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-7. Transition was at 0% chord.

The combination of high chord Reynolds number (29.0 million) and low  $C_L$  (which resulted in steeper pressure gradients in the forward region) probably caused very large crossflow disturbance growth rates. However, it is not likely that crossflow disturbances could have caused transition at 0% chord. It probably occurred at 1% to 2% chord rather than at 0%. Also, as discussed in Section 4.2, it is possible that insect contamination or engine noise contributed to the early transition.



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Figure C-4. Transition Determination, Case 4 F-111 NLF Glove

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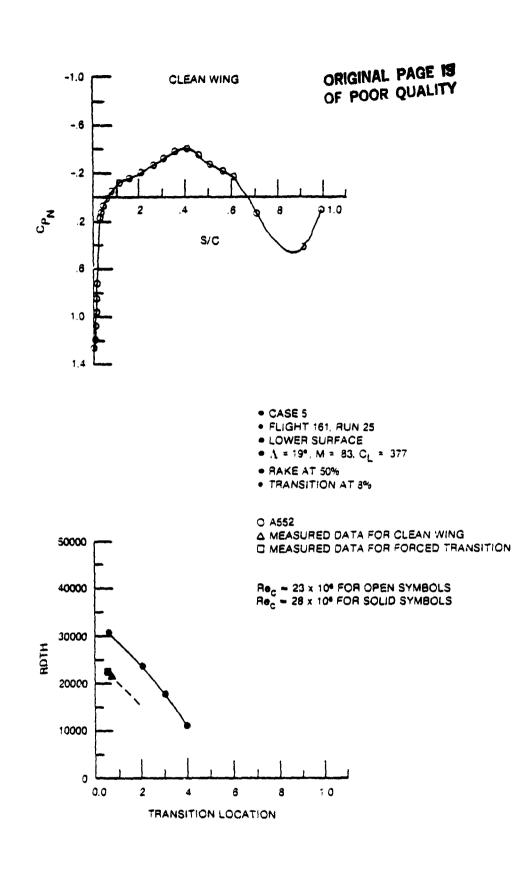
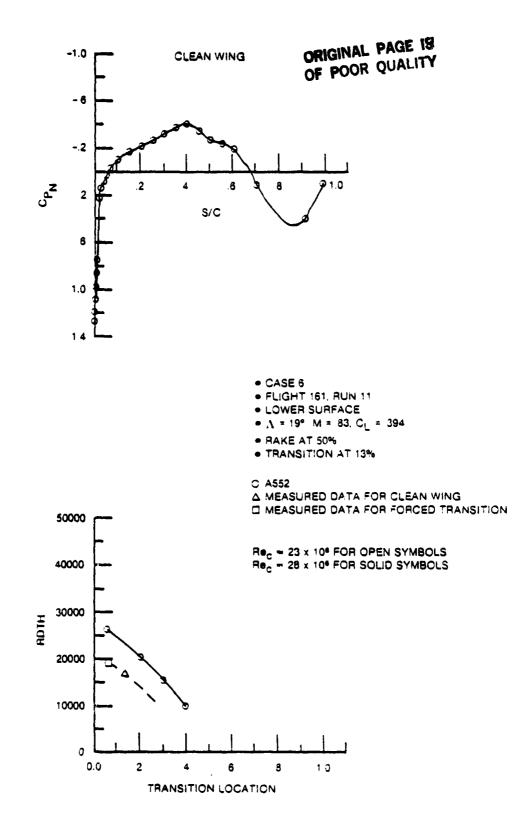


Figure C-5. Transition Determination, Case 5 F-111 NLF Glove

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Figure C-6. Transition Determination, Case 6 5-111 NLF Glove

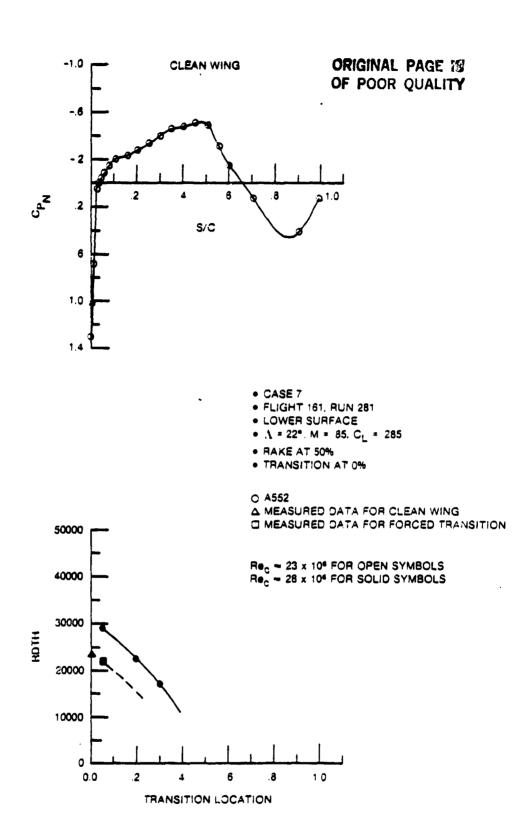


Figure C-7. Transition Determination, Case 7 F-111 NLF Glove



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#### Case &:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 21.7 deg, and C<sub>L</sub> was 0.382. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-8. Transition was at 3% chord.

#### Case 9:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 25.2 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.275. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-9. Transition was at 2% chord.

#### Case 10:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 50% chord. The sweep angle was 25.0 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.373. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-10. Transition was at 5% chord.

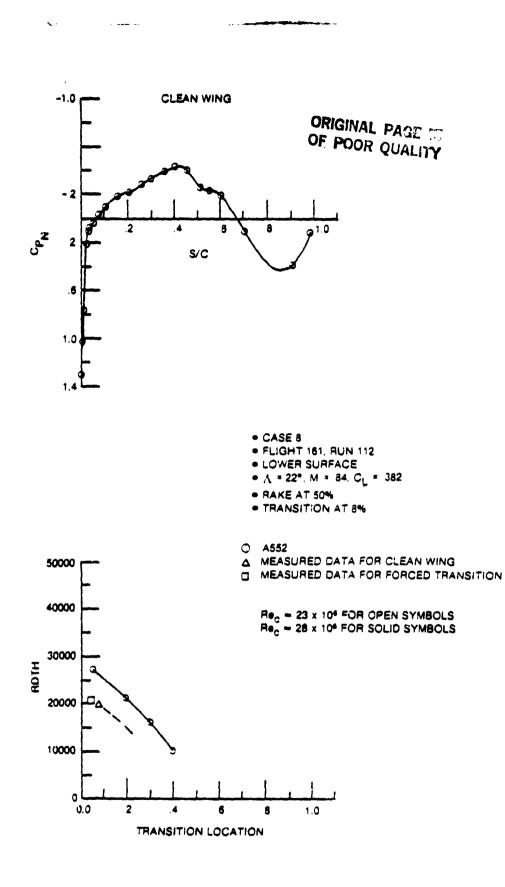
#### Case 11:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 60% chord. The sweep angle was 9.0 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.416. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-11. Transition for this case was at 46% chord. The cause of transition was probably the adverse pressure gradient, which began at 43% chord. This adverse gradient resulted in large growth rates of Tollmien-Schlichting disturbances.

#### Case 12:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 60% chord. The sweep angle was 15.9 deg, and  $C_{L}$  was 0.397. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-12. Transition was at 23% chord.

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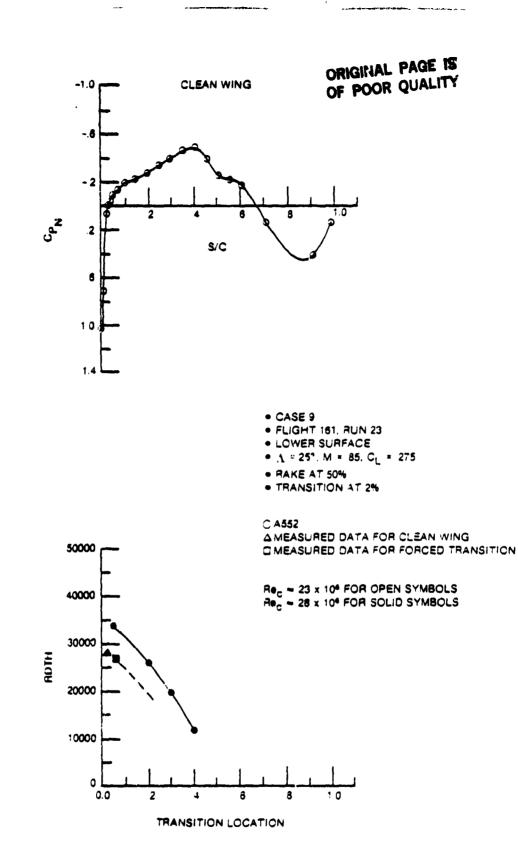
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Figure C-8. Transition Determination, Case 8 F-111 NLF Glove

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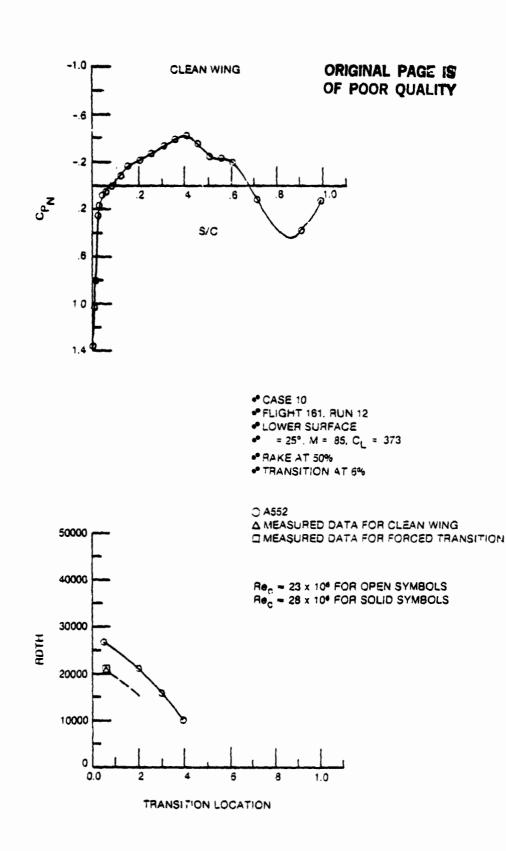
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Figure C-9. Transition Determination, Case 9 F-111 NLF Glove

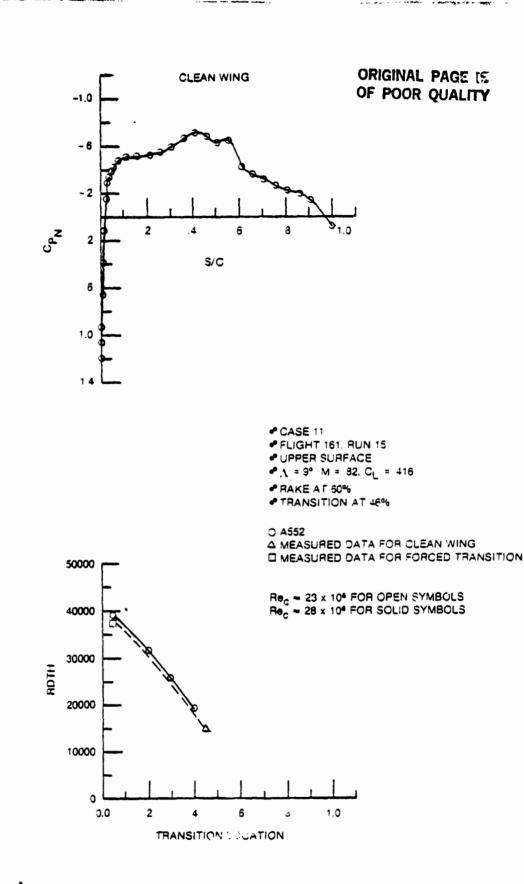


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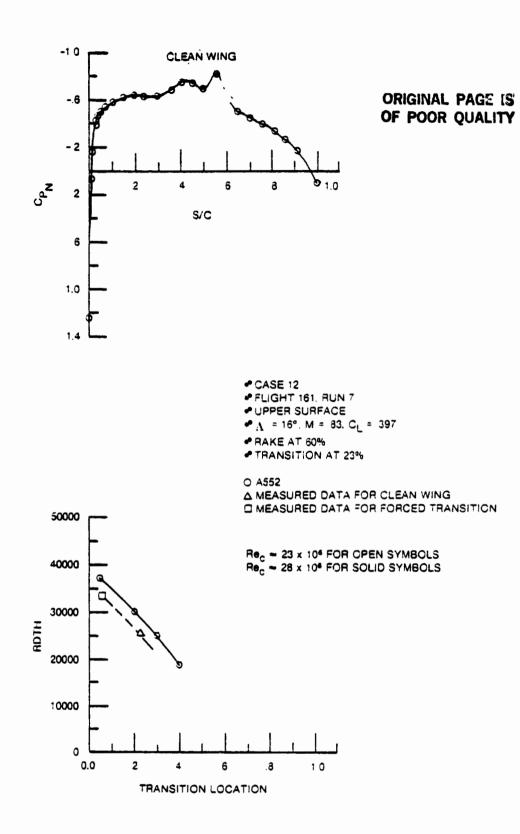
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Figure C-11. Transition Determination, Case 11 F-111 NLF Glove

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This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 60% chord. The sweep angle was 18.8 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.377. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-13. Transition was at 17%.

#### Case 14:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 60% chord. The sweep angle was 22.0 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.358. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus transition location is plotted in Figure C-14. Transition was at 7% chord.

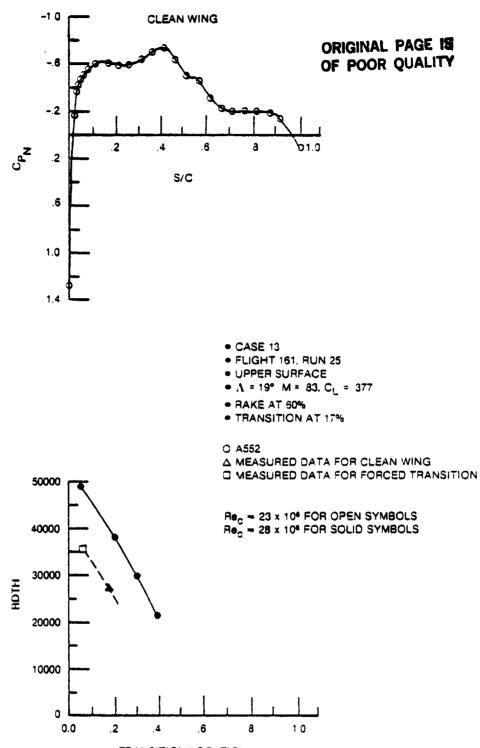
#### Case 15:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 60% chord. The sweep angle was 25.2 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.373. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-15. Transition was at 21%.

#### Case 16:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at  $90^{\circ\prime}$ . The sweep angle was 9.0 deg, and C<sub>L</sub> was 0.379. Displacement thickness Reynolds — Der at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-16. For each of the aft-rake cases, five forced transition flights were made. For this case, three of the forced transition flights were at a chord Reynolds number of about 28 million and two were at a chord Reynolds number of about 23 million. Because the clean wing flight was at a chord Reynolds number of about 23 million, the results of the forced transition flights at 29 million have been adjusted to the clean wing Reynolds number using A552. There is quite a bit of scatter in the forced transition results. In fairing a curve through those points parallel to the A552 curve, the low Reynolds number points have been given more weight than the high Reynolds number points. Transition was at 36% chord. This case had more laminar flow than any other case analyzed. However, the extent of laminar flow would probably have been greater if there had not been an

#### Case 13:



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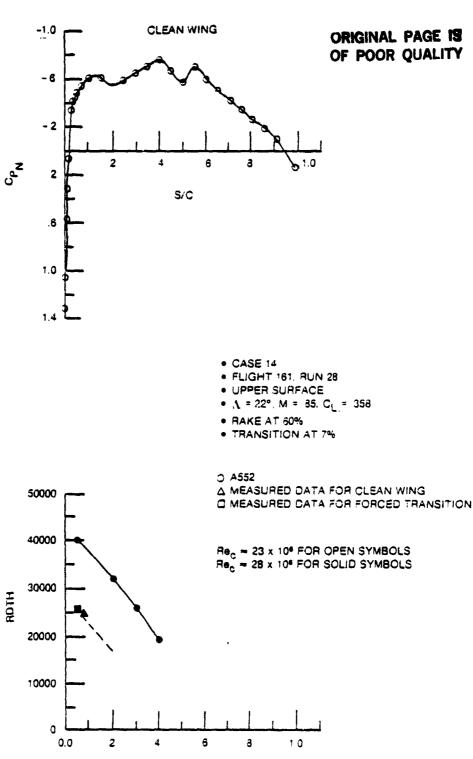
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Figure C-13. Transition Determination, Case 13 F-111 NLF Glove

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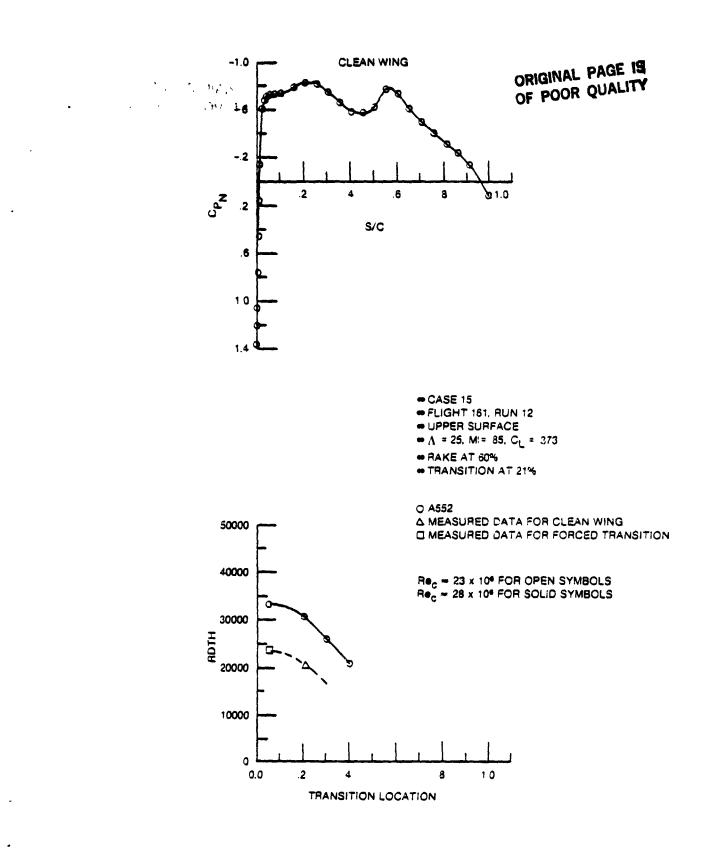
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Figure C-14. Transition Determination, Case 14 F-111 NLF Glove

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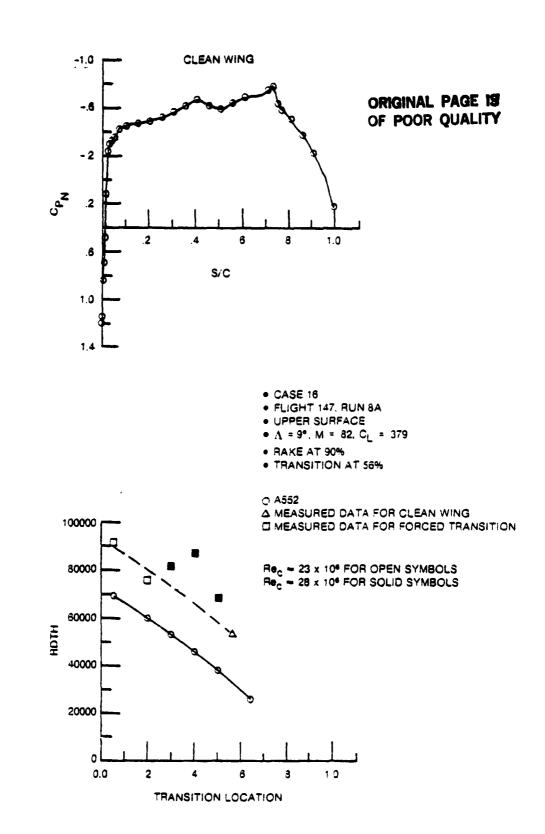
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Figure C-15. Transition Determination, Case 15 F-111 NLF Glove

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Figure C-16. Transition Determination, Case 16 F-111 NLF Glove

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adverse pressure gradient in the region from 40% to 50% chord, which resulted in very large amplification of Tollmien-Schlichting disturbances.

#### Case 17:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 90% chord. The sweep angle was 9.0 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.432. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus transition location is plotted in Figure C-17. Transition was at 55% chord.

#### Case 18:

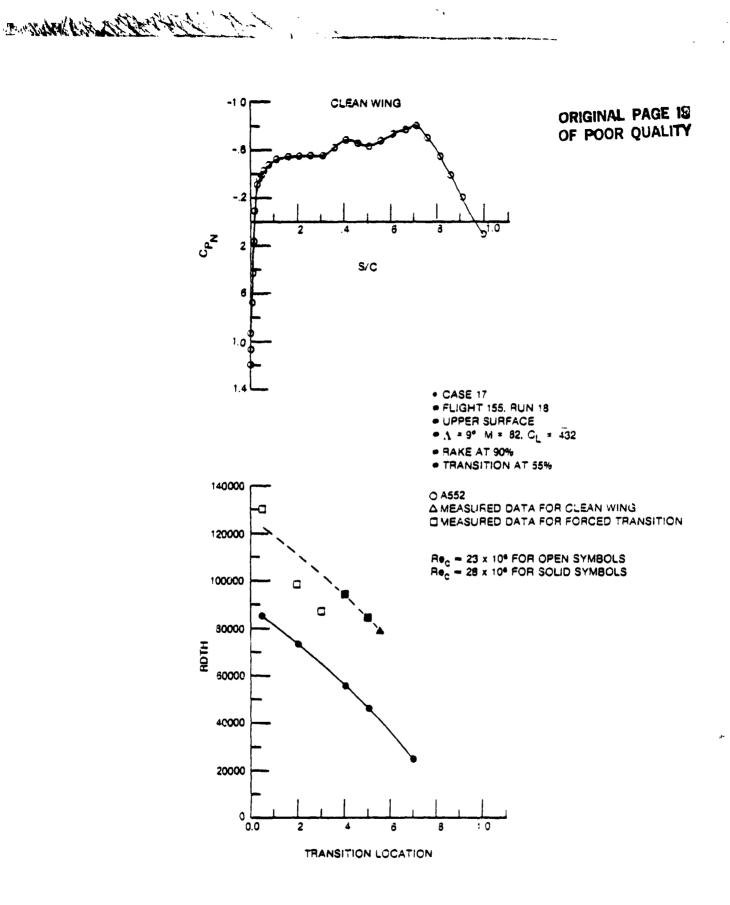
This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 90% chord. The sweep angle was 9.0 deg, and  $C_{\rm L}$  was 0.504. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-13. Transition for this case is at 45% chord.

#### Case 19:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 90% chord. The sweep angle was 16.1 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.379. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus transition location is plotted in Figure C-19. Transition location was at 36% chord. Figure C-19 shows that the high Reynolds number flight with a trip at 30% chord apparently has transition at about 19% chord. This probably resulted from higher crossflow and Tollmien-Schlichting disturbance growth rates at the 'higher Reynolds number.

#### Case 20:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 90% chord. The sweep angle was 16.1 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.436. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-20. Transition was at 42% chord. The three forced transition flights, which were at higher Reynolds number of about 28 million, apparently had transition at about 7% chord. This probably was due to higher disturbance growth at the higher Reynolds number.

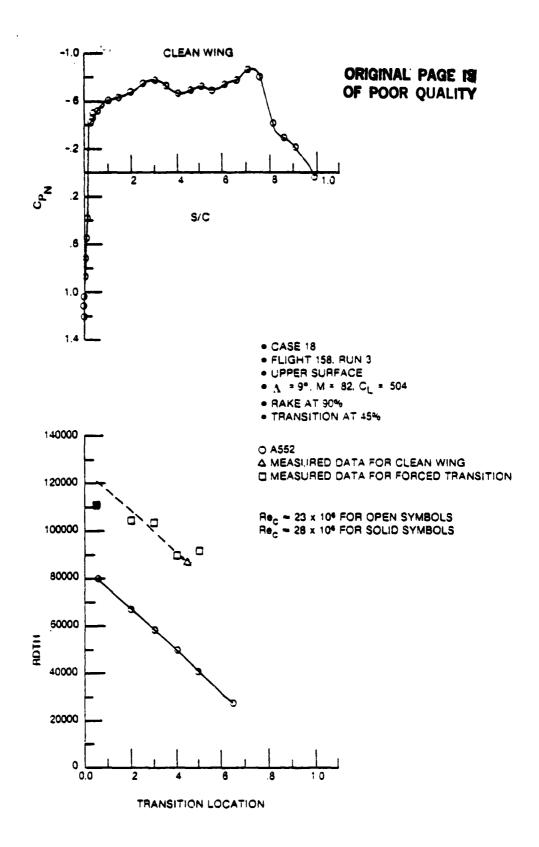


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Figure C-17. Transition Determination, Case 17 F-111 NLF Glove



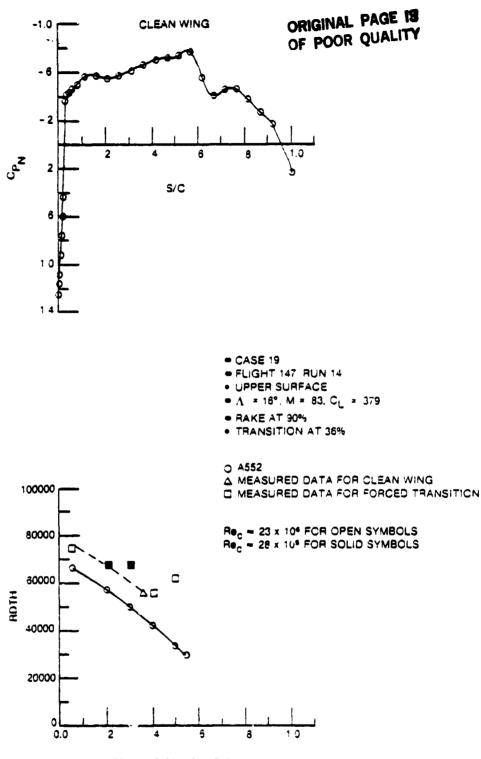
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Figure C-18. Transition Determination, Case 18 F-111 NLF Glove

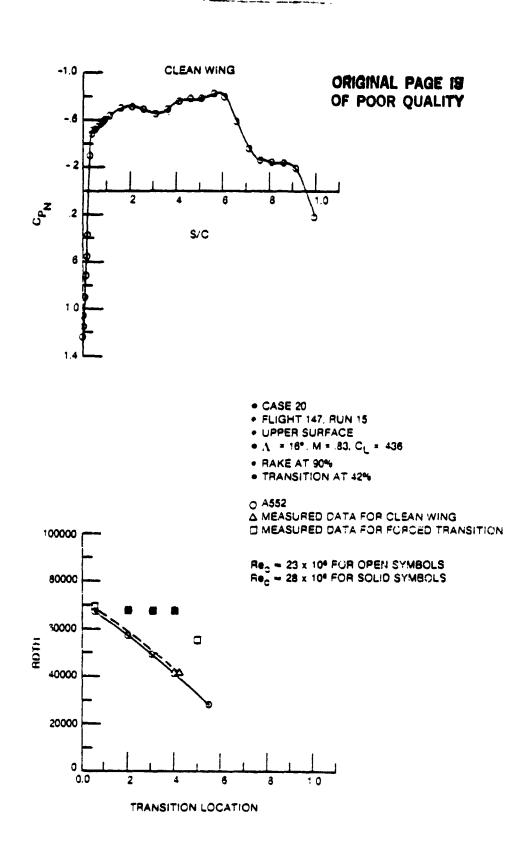
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Figure C-19. Transition Determination, Case 19 F-111 NLF Glove

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#### Case 21:

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This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 90% chord. The sweep angle was 16.1 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.550. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-21. Transition was at 43% chord.

#### Case 22:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 20% chord. The sweep angle was 25.2 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.276. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rate location versus transition location is plotted in Figure C-22. Transition was at 20% chord. The flights with transition forced at 20%, 30%, and 40% chord all appear to have transition in the vicinity of 5% to 10% chord. This indicates that, at this high Reynolds number and sweep angle, transition is very sensitive to pressure distribution.

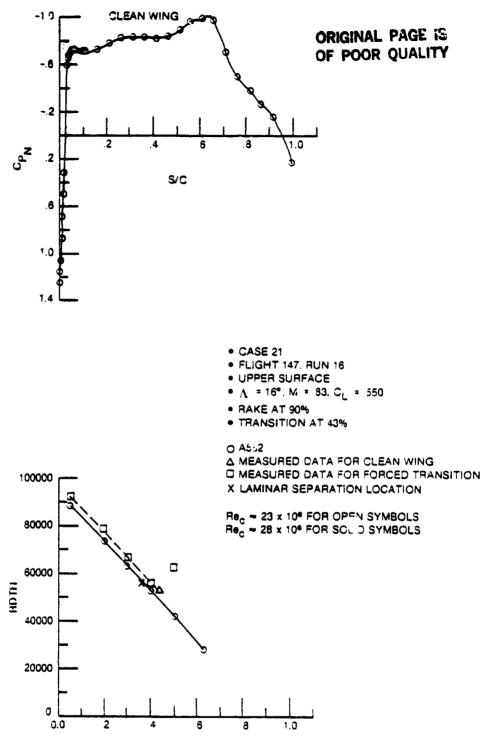
#### Case 23:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 90% chord. The sweep angle was 25.1 deg, and  $\mathbb{G}_{L}$  was 0.357. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus transition location is plotted in Figure C-23. Transition was at 13% chord. A552 indicated laminar separation at 31% for the flight with forced transition at 40%. Therefore, in Figure C-23 the point for the 40% forced transition flight was moved from 40% to 31% chord. A similar move was made for the flight with forced transition at 50%. The laminar separation ahead of the trip for t ese two flights was the result of adverse gradients in the region from 25% to 40% chord for the flight with the trip at 40% chord and in the region from 20% to 30% chord for the flight with the trip at 50% chord (fig. B-13 in app. B).

#### Case 24:

This case was for the upper surface with the rake at 90% chord. The sweep angle was 25.2 deg, and  $C_1$  was 0.429. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-24. A552 indicated laminar separation at 36% for the flight in which transition was forced at -0% chord. That point was adjusted accordingly in Figure C-24.

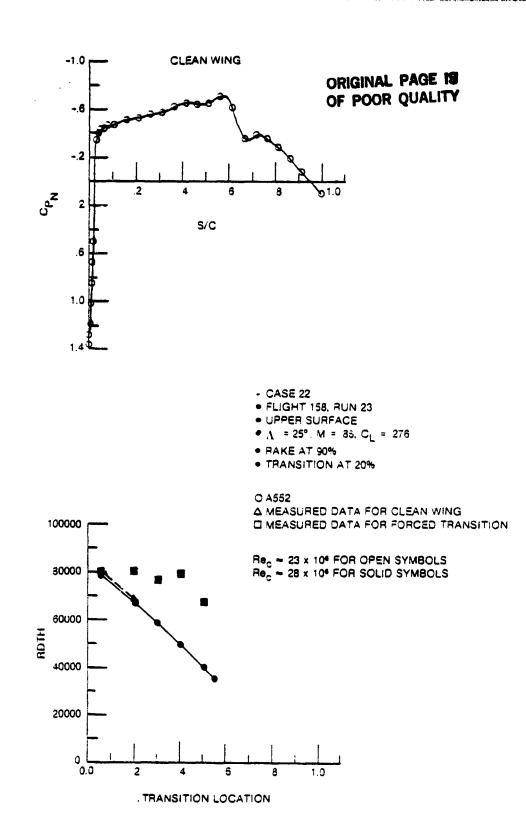
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TRANSITION LOCATION

Figure C-21. Transition Determination, Case 21 F-111 NLF Glove



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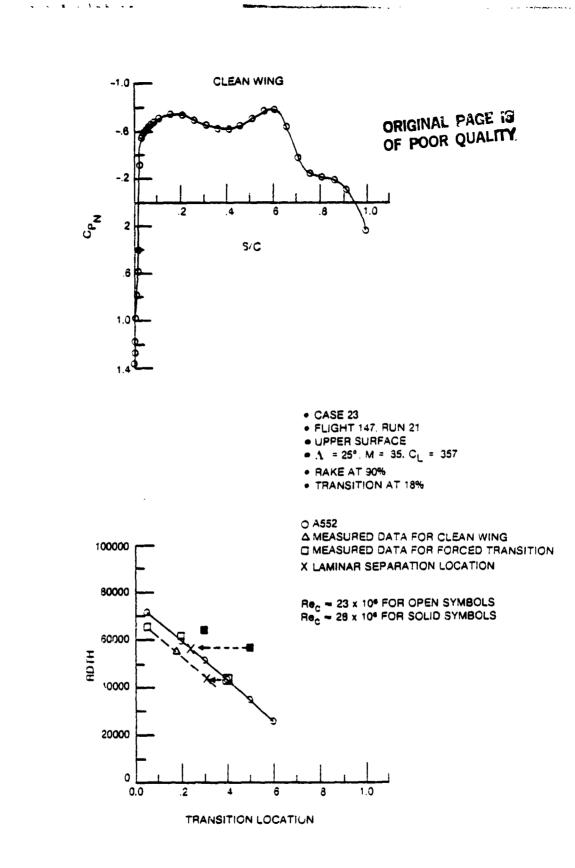
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Figure C-22. Transition Determination, Case 22 F-111 NLF Giove

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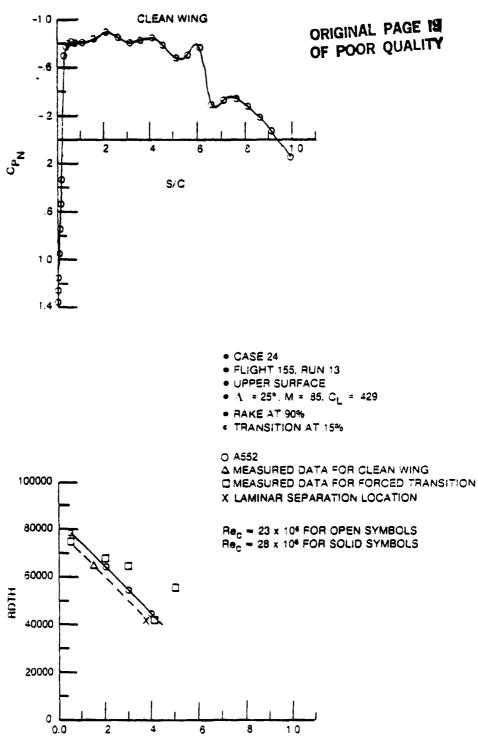
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Figure C-23. Transition Determination, Case 23 F-111 NLF Glove



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#### Figure C-24. Transition Determination, Case 24 F-111 NLF Sove

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#### Case 25:

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: ب ا This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 90% chord. The sweep angle was 9.0 deg, and  $C_L$  was 0.416. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-25. Transition was at 23% chord.

#### Case 26:

This case was for the lower surface with the rake at 90% chord. The sweep angle was 15.6 deg and  $C_L$  was 0.353. Displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake location versus the transition location is plotted in Figure C-26. Transition for this case was at 51% chord. This was just slightly past the beginning of the adverse pressure gradient, which was the probable cause of transition.

Cases 27 Through 31:

These were lower surface cases with the rake at 90% chord and a wing sweep of 10 deg. Cases 27 through 29 had a  $C_L$  near 0.41 and a chord Reynolds number near 23 million. Cases 30 and 31 had a  $C_L$  near 0.32 and a chord Reynolds number of about 27 million. Figures C-27 through C-31 show the displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake versus transition location. Transition varied from 31% chord for case 27 to 49% for case 31. The flights with forced transition at 40% and 50% indicated premature transition, so the RDTH point from the 5% forced transition flight was weighed most heavily in determining the clean wing transition location.

#### Cases 32 Through 34:

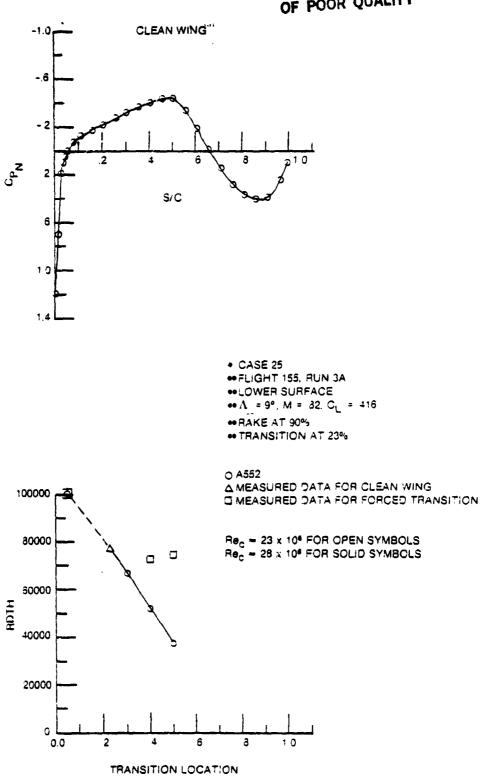
These cases were from the lower surface with the rake at 90% chord and sweep near 15 deg. Figures C-32 through C-34 show the displacement thickness Reynolds number at the rake versus transition location. Again, the result of the forced transition at 5% was the primary determiner of the clean wing transition location. Each of these three cases experienced transition at the beginning of the adverse pressure gradient, 51% chord.

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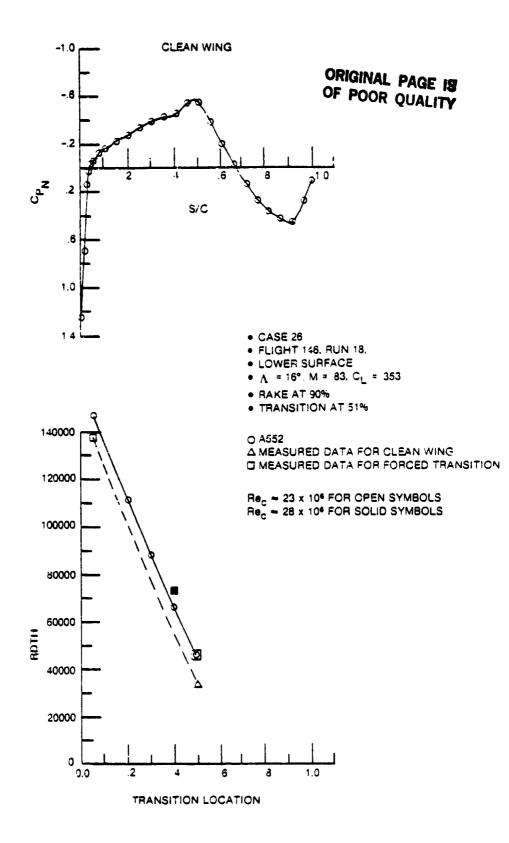
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Figure C-25. Transition Determination, Case 25 F-111 NLF Glove



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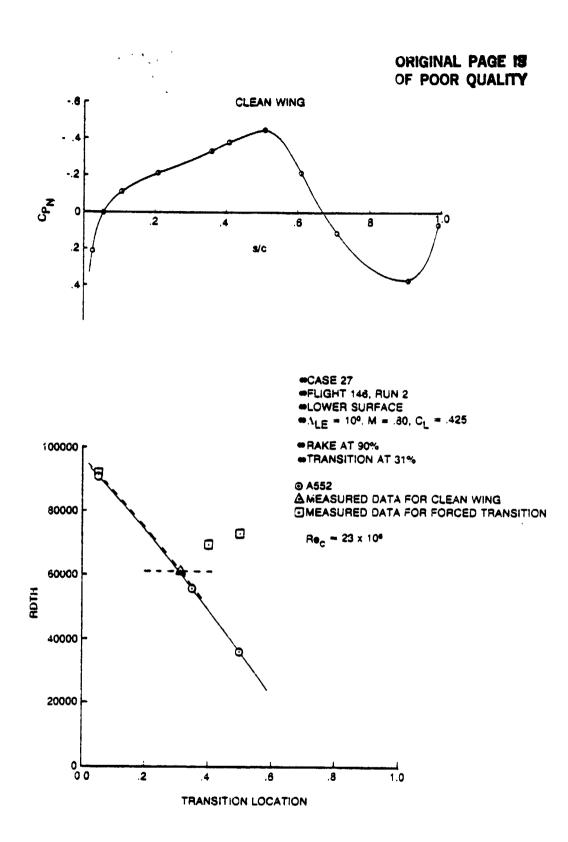
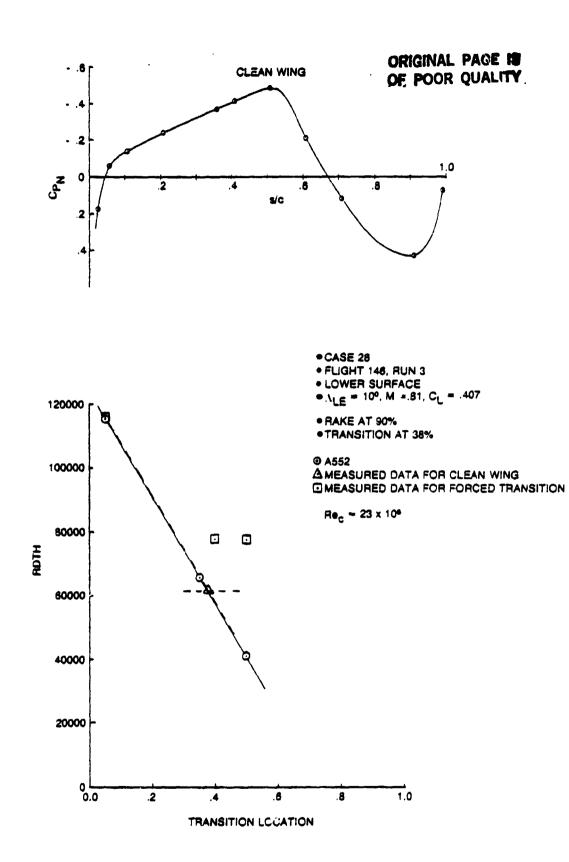


Figure C-27. Transition Determination, Case 27 F-111 NLF Glove

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Figure C-28. Transition Determination, Case 28 F-111 NLF Glove

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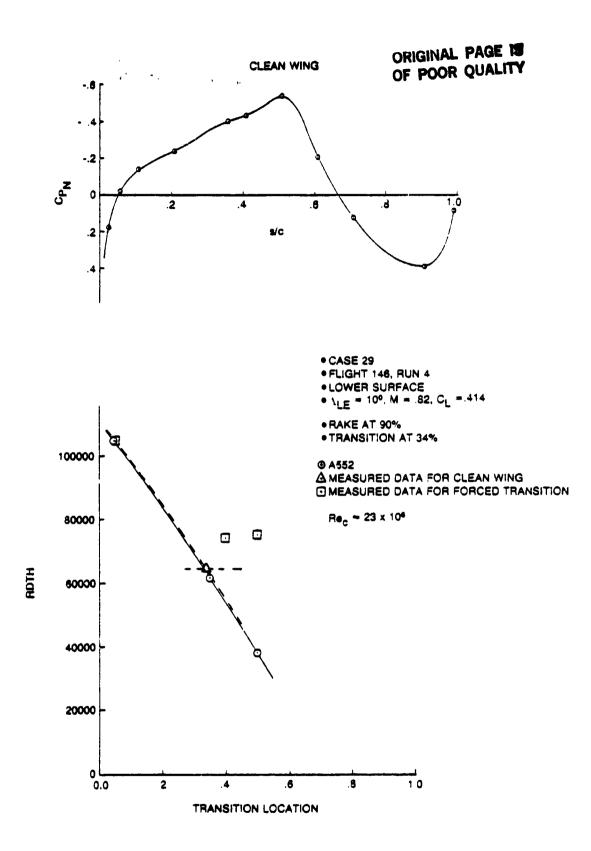
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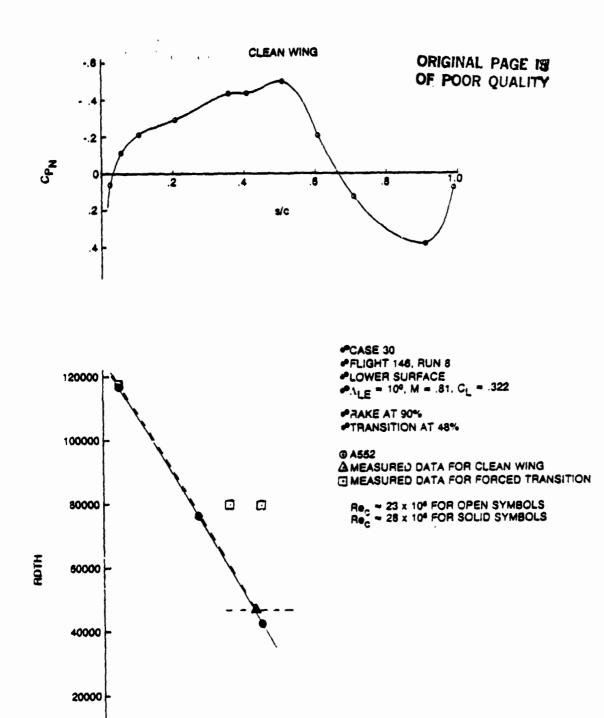


Figure C-30. Transition Determination, Case 30 F-111 NLF Glove

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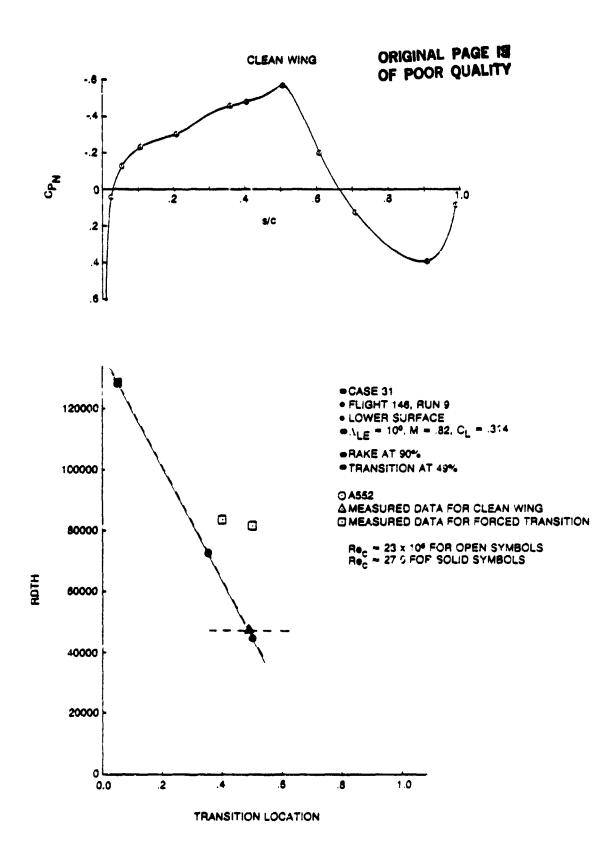
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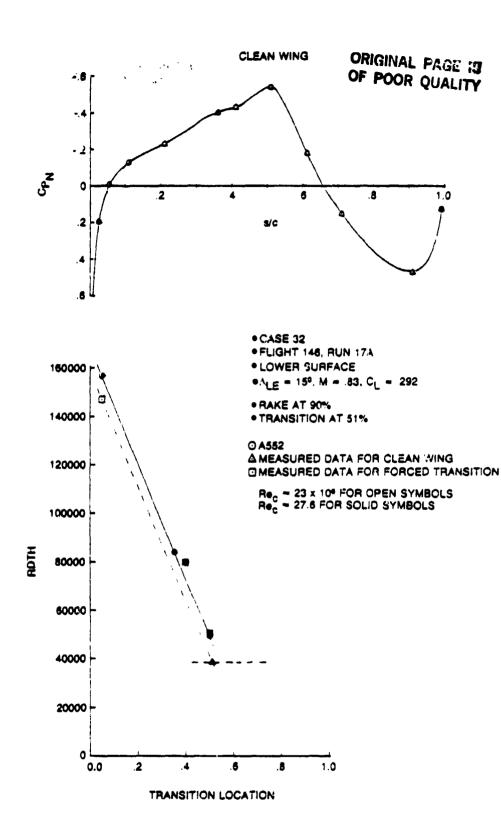
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Figure C-31. Transition Determination, Case 31 F-111 NLF Glove



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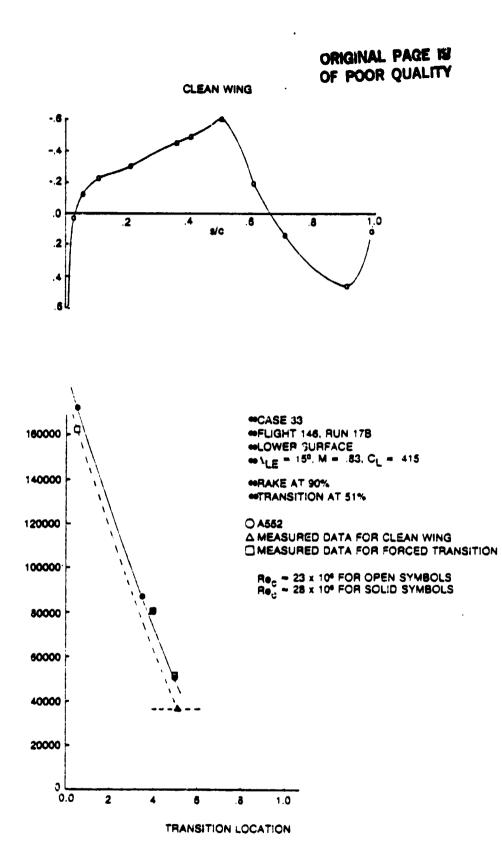
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Figure C-32. Transition Determination, Case 32 F-111 NLF Glove

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Figure C-33. Transition Determination, Case 33 F-111 NLF Glove

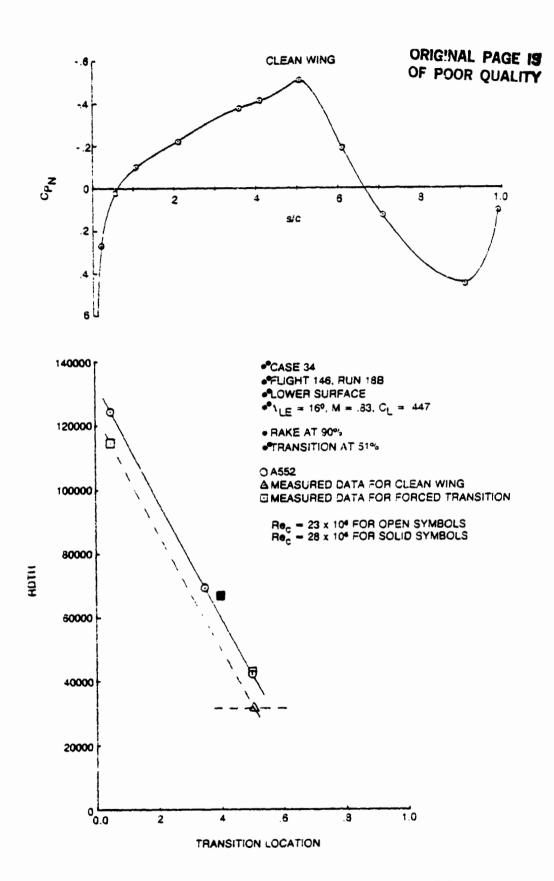
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## APPENDIX D

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# C-F AND T-S DISTURBANCE GROWTH CURVES

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FIGURES

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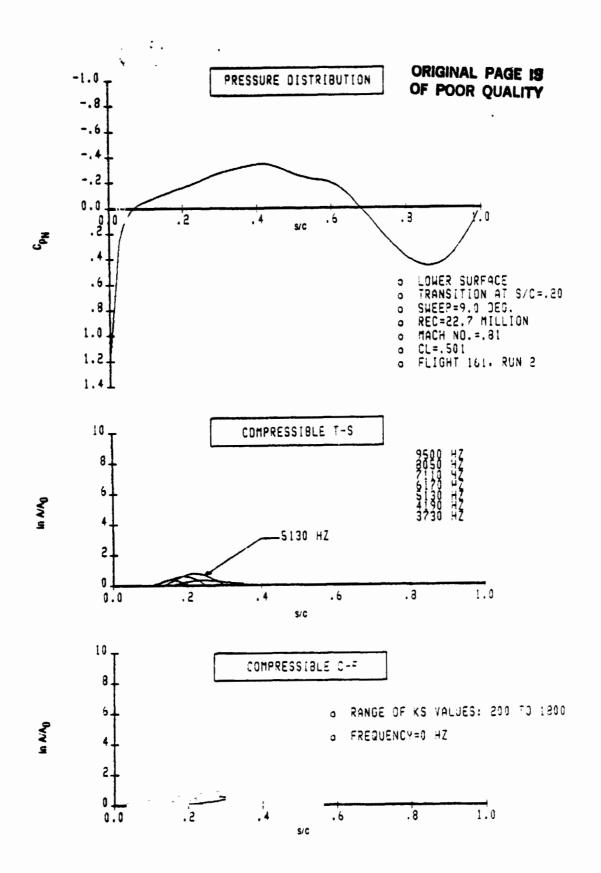
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#### APPENDIX D: C-F AND T-S DISTURBANCE GROWTH CURVES

This appendix contains the C-F and T-S disturbance growth curves used to define the envelopes for each case. As explained in Section 6.1.2, for the T-S disturbances, a range of frequencies was analyzed, and for the C-F disturbances, a range of values of  $\alpha *_{r_s}$ (spanwise component of the dimensional wavenumber) was analyzed. In the plots shown here,  $KS = \alpha *_{r_s}$ . For the T-S disturbances, wave angle was kept fixed at 40 deg for the upper surface cases and at 25 deg for the lower surface cases. These angles closely correspond to the direction of peak amplification. The frequencies corresponding to the T-S disturbances analyzed are listed in each figure. These frequencies can be related to the T-S curves using the one curve in each case for which the frequency has been noted by an arrow. The higher frequencies in the list correspond, in order, to the curves that peak ahead of the indicated curve, and the lower frequencies correspond, in order, to the curves that peak ahead of the indicated curve, and the lower frequencies correspond, in order, to the curves that peak ahead of the indicated curve, and the lower frequencies correspond, in order, to the curves that peak behind the indicated curve.

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Figure D-1. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 2, Lower Surface

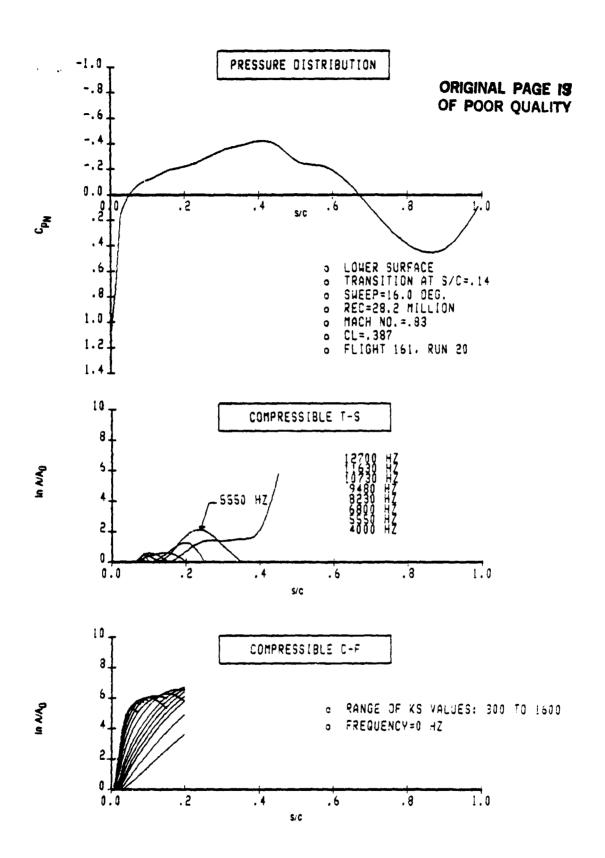
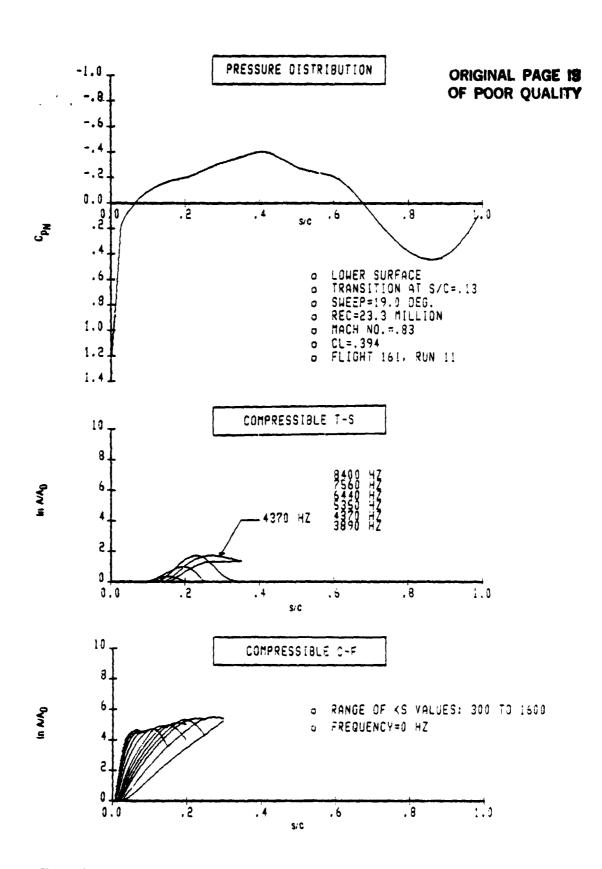


Figure D-2. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 3, Lower Surface

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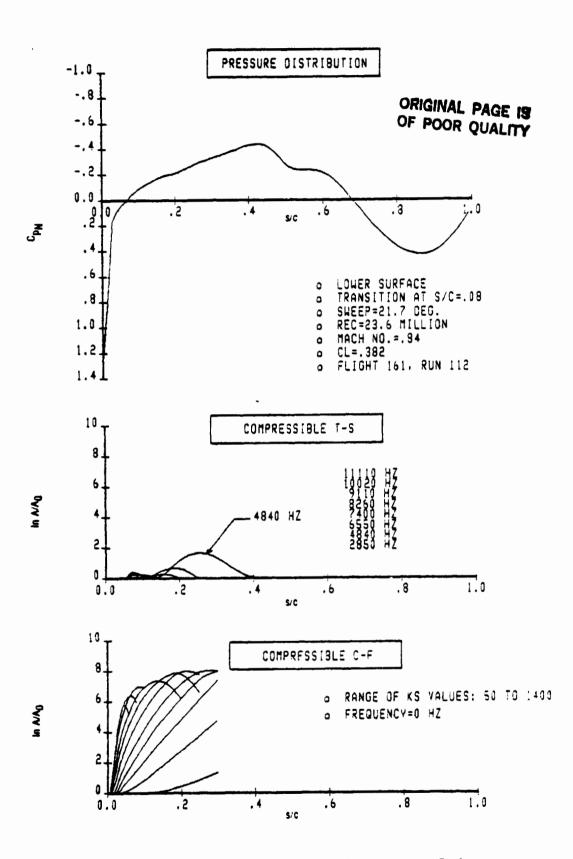
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Figure D-3. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 6, Lower Surface

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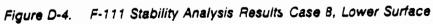
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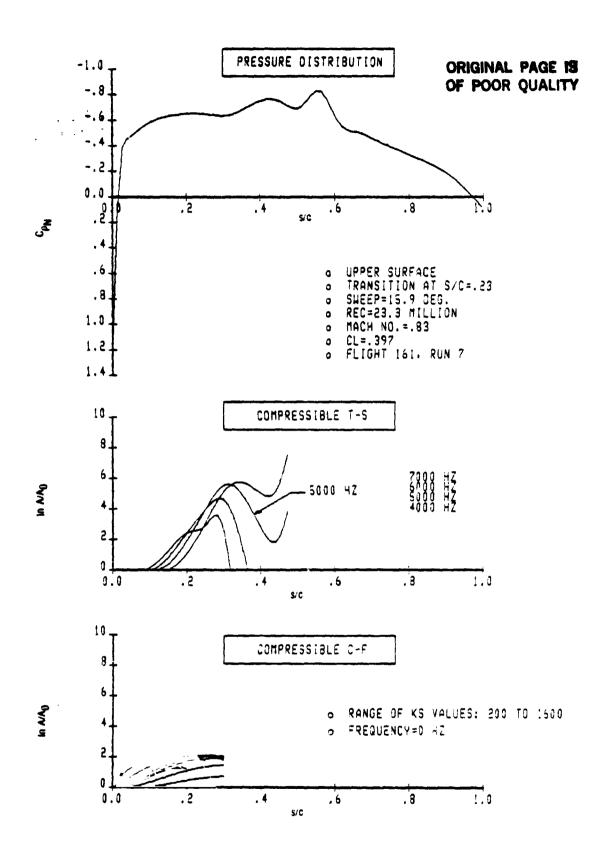
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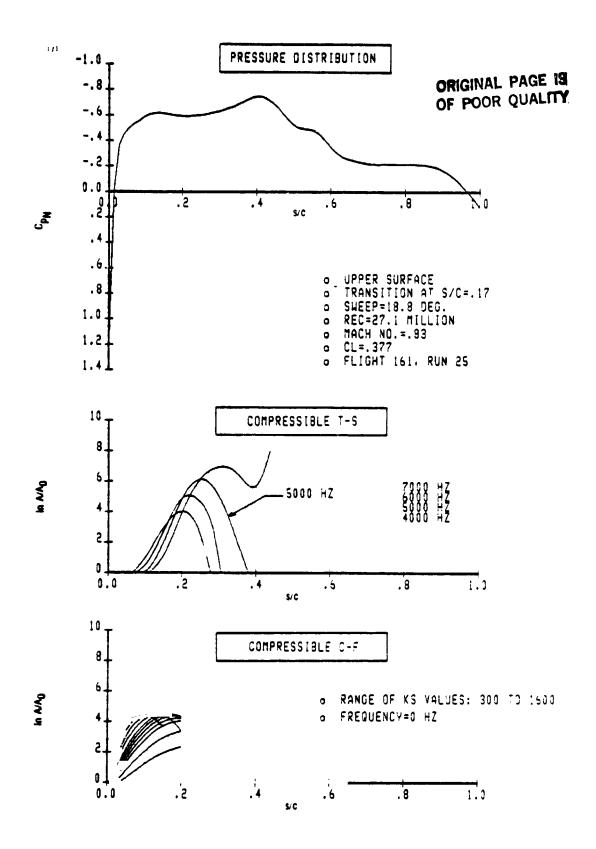




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Figure D-5. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 12, Upper Surface



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Figure D-6. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 13, Upper Surface

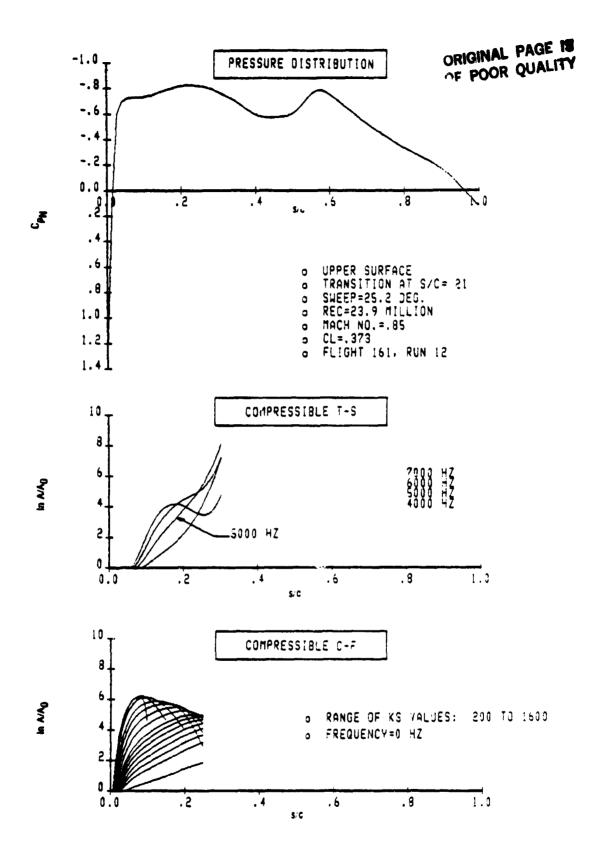
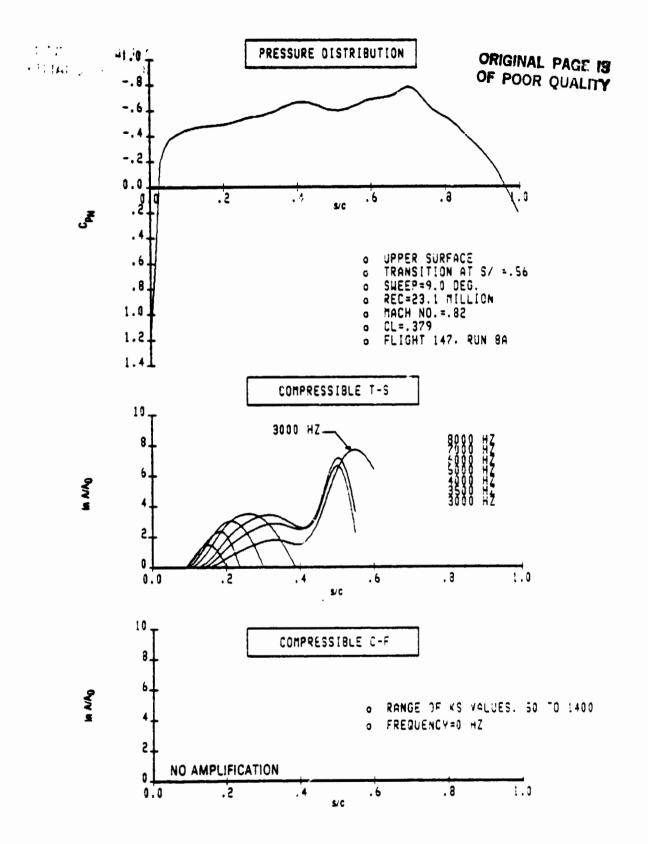


Figure D. 7 F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 15, Upper Surface

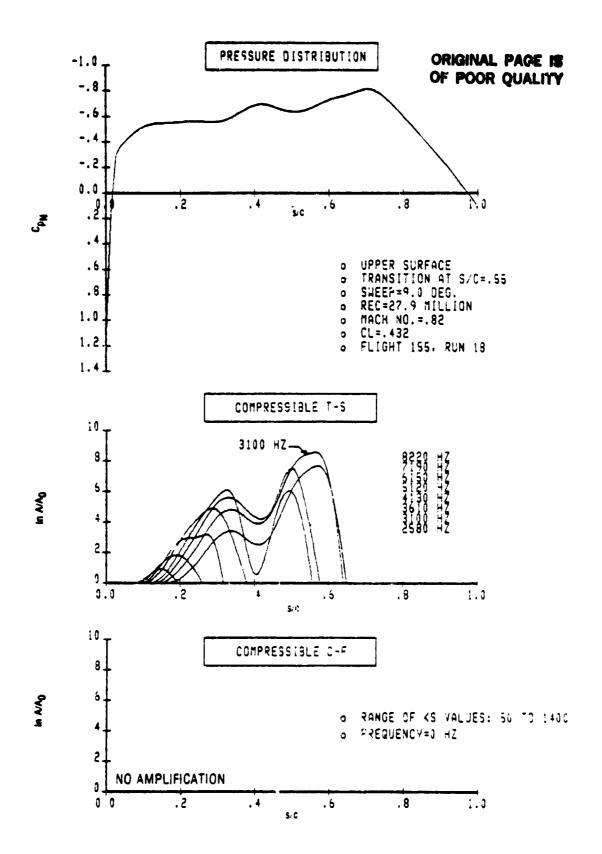


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Figure C-8. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 16, Upper Surface



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Figure D-9. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 17, Upper Surface

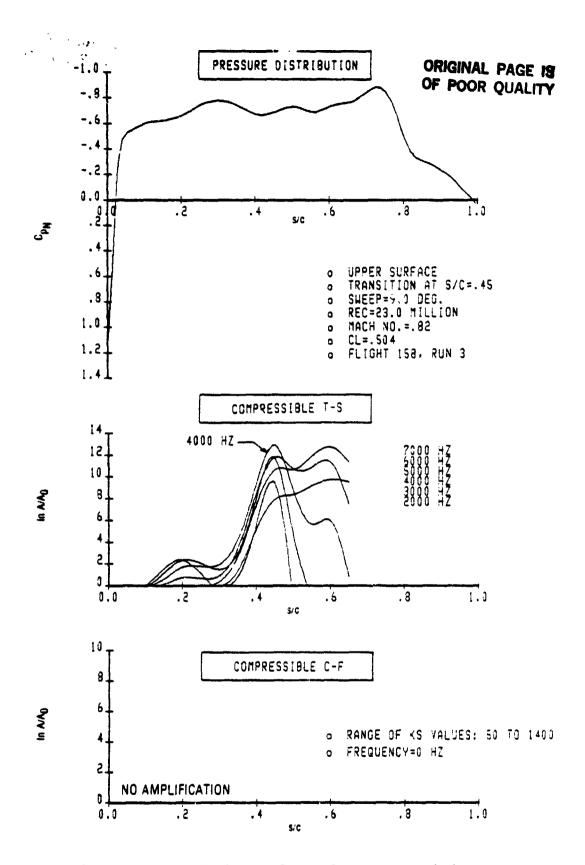
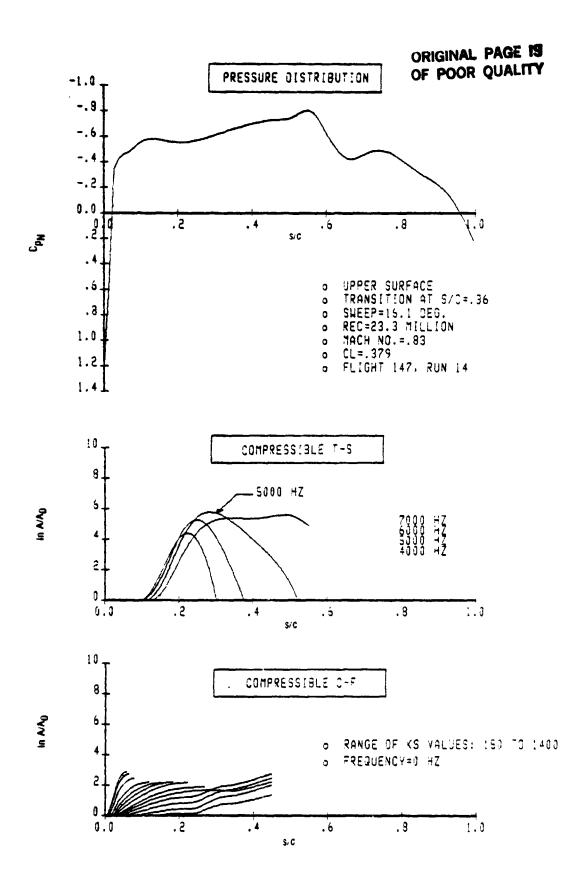


Figure D-10. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 18, Upper Surface

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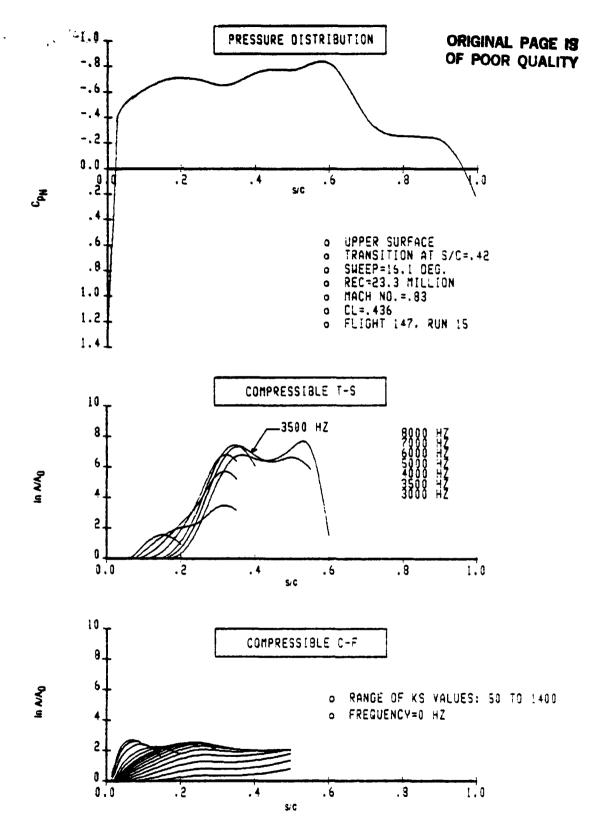
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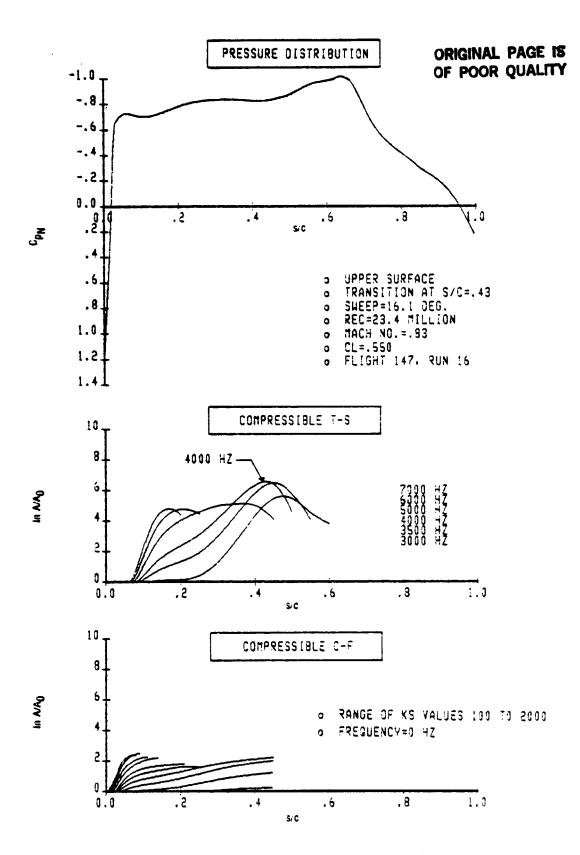
Figure D-12. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 20, Upper Surface

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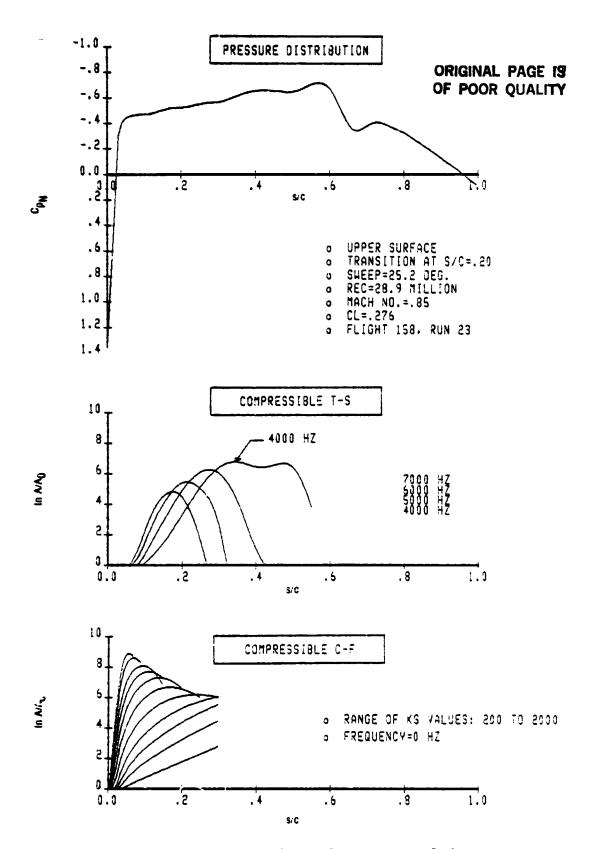


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Figure D-13. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 21, Upper Surface

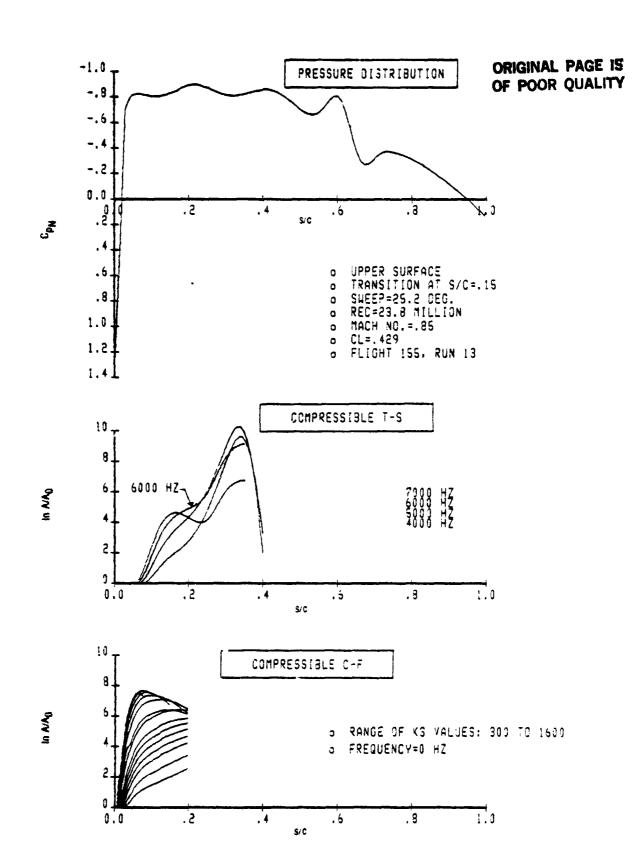


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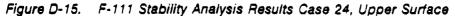


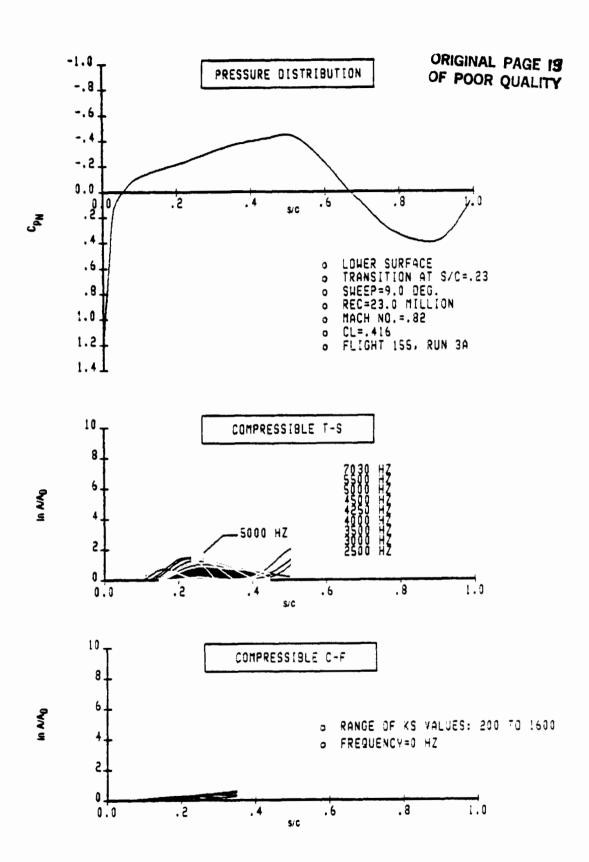
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Figure D-16. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 25, Lower Surface

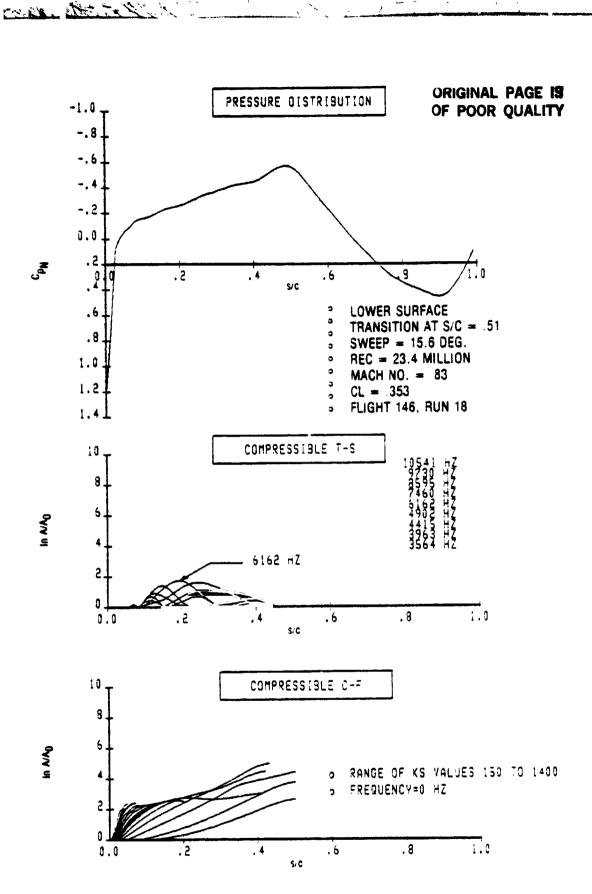
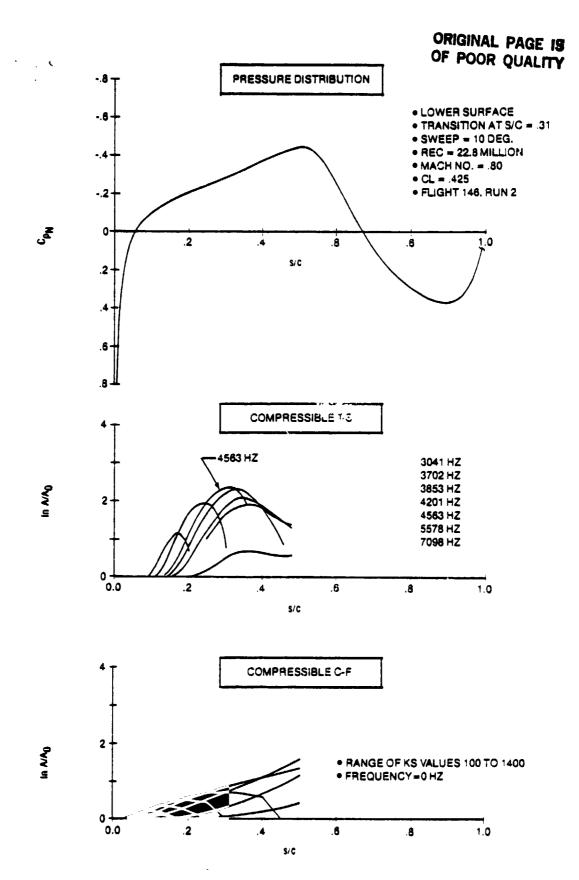


Figure D-17. F-111 Stabillity Analysis Results Case 26, Lower Surface



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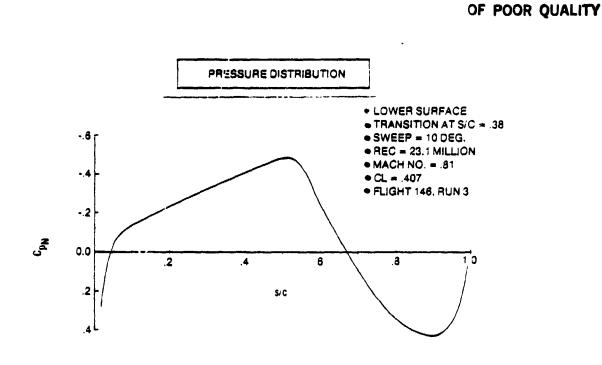
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Figure D-18. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 27, Lower Surface



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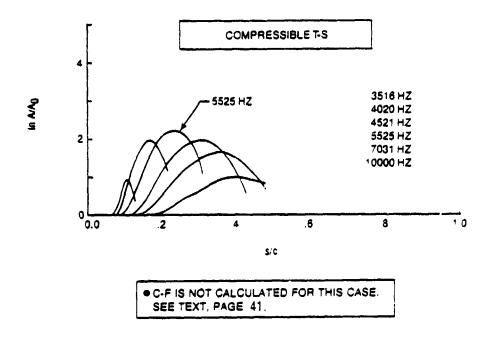
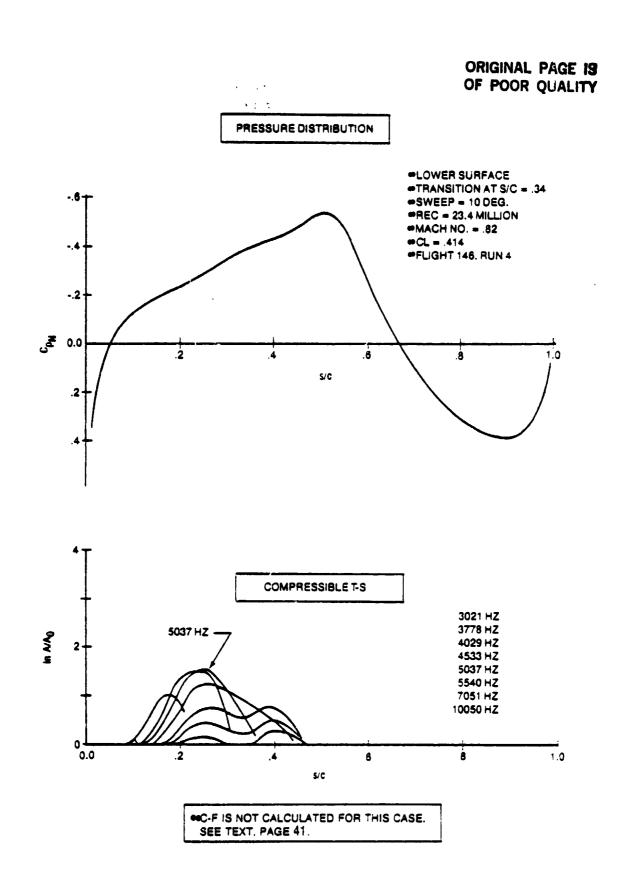


Figure D-19. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 28, Lower Surface



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Figure D-20. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 29, Lower Surface

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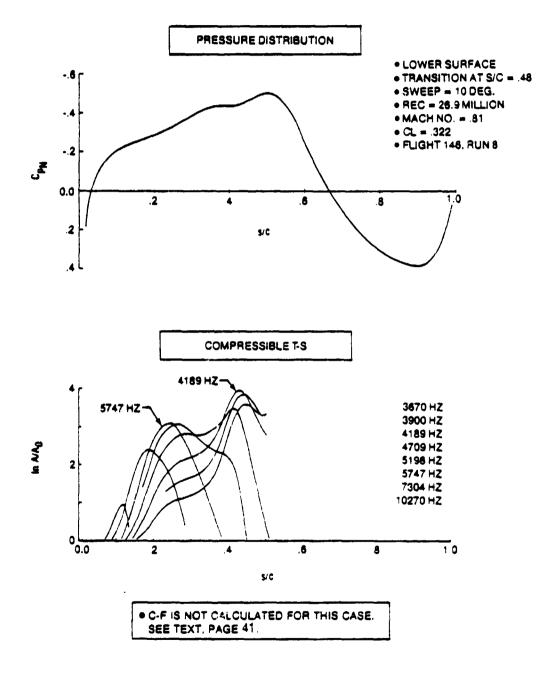
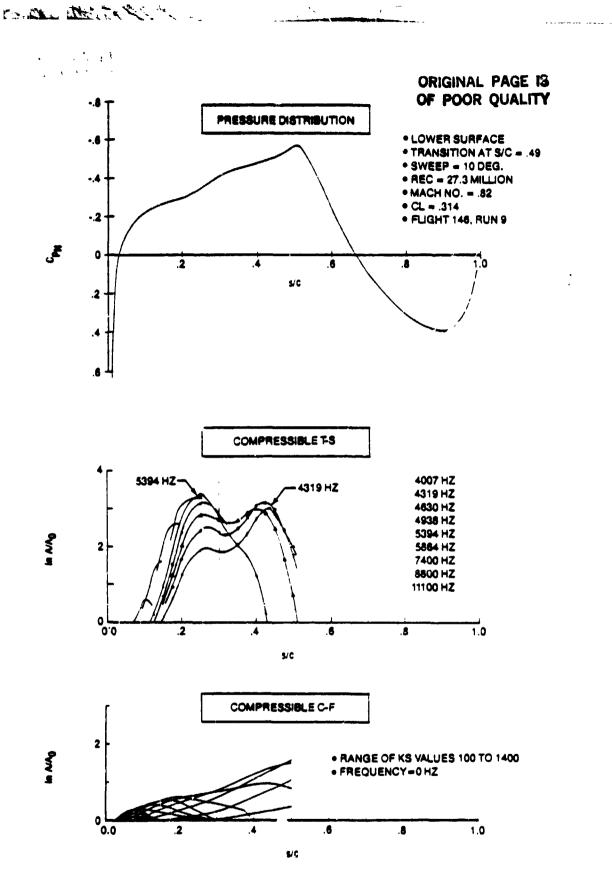


Figure D-21. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 30, Lower Surface



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Figure D-22. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 31, Lower Surface

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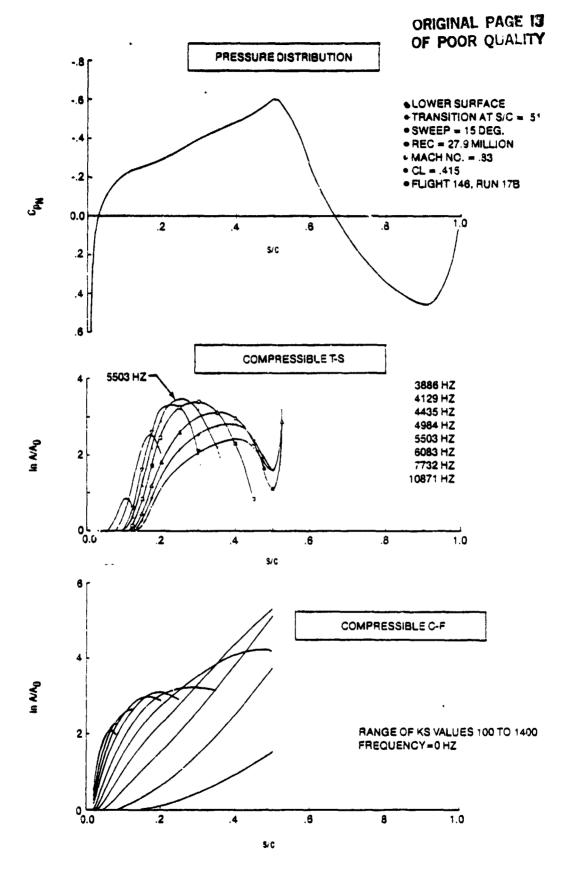
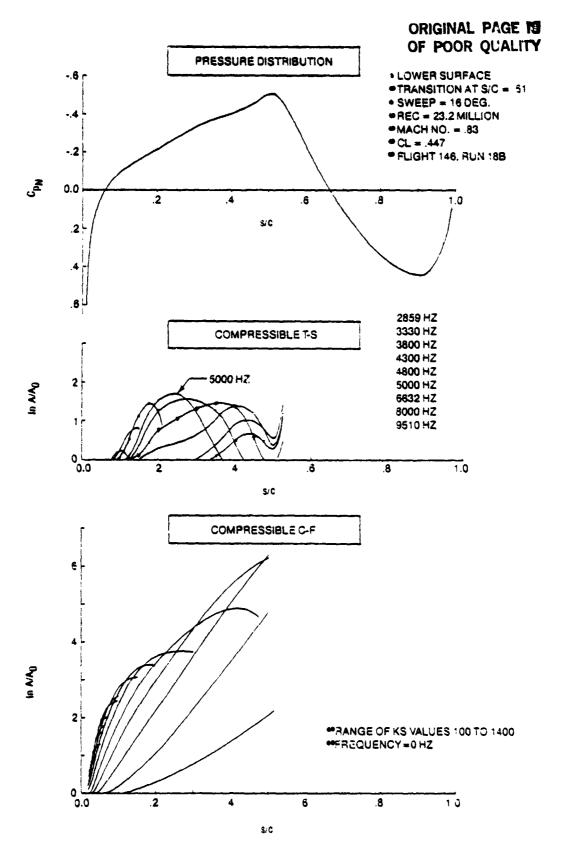


Figure D-24. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 33, Lower Surface

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Figure D-25. F-111 Stability Analysis Results Case 34, Lower Surface