UNMANNED AIR VEHICLES

IV B. Tech VII semester (R16)

BY

DR. PRAVEEN KUMAR BALGURI
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR

DEPARTMENT OF AERONAUTICAL ENGINEERING
INSTITUTE OF AERONAUTICAL ENGINEERING
(Autonomous)
DUNDIGAL, HYDERABAD - 500043

CO’s	Course Outcomes
CO1	Introduce to the student about the basic ideas of Unmanned Air Vehicles
CO2	Familiarize the students about the aerodynamics and airframe configurations
CO3	Accustom the student to the wide variety of unmanned air vehicles
CO4	Acquaint the student about the various communication and navigation systems of unmanned air vehicles
CO5	Understand the basic concepts control and stability of UAVs

UNIT - I
INTRODUCTION TO UNMANNED AIRCRAFT SYSTEMS (UAS)

UNMANNED AIRCRAFT SYSTEMS

- The systematic nature of UAV systems is achieved through the combination of many elements and their supporting disciplines
- Although the aircraft element is but one part of the coordinated system, it is almost certainly the element which drives the requirements of the other system elements to the greatest extent
- The UAS' aircraft itself will have much in common with manned aircraft, but also several differences, which are result from the differences in operational requirements compared with manned aircraft,

Example: need to take off from remote, short, unprepared airstrips
to fly for long periods at very high altitudes

UNMANNED AIRCRAFT SYSTEMS

The performance of the UAS' aircraft is often enhanced by

- not having to carry the weight of equipment and
- not having to carry structure required to accommodate aircrew, and
- having a lower aerodynamic drag
- advantageous scale effects associated with a smaller aircraft.

UNMANNED AIRCRAFT SYSTEMS

- An over-simplistic view of an *unmanned aircraft* is that

  it is an aircraft with its aircrew removed and replaced by a computer system and a radio-link.

Flying machine operated without an onboard pilot


Figure 1.1. Unmanned aircraft systems

Why UAS?

- Dull Roles
- Dirty Roles
- Dangerous Roles
- Covert Roles
- Research Roles
- Environmentally Critical Roles
- Economic Reasons

RC Model/ Drone/ UAV

Unmanned aircraft must not be confused with model aircraft or with ‘drones’, a **radio-controlled model (RC Model)** aircraft is used only for sport and must remain within sight of the operator. The operator is usually limited to instructing the aircraft to climb or descend a nd to turn to theleft or to the right.

A **drone** aircraft will be required to fly out of sight of the operator, but has zero intelligence, merely being launched into a pre-programmed mission on a pre-programmed course and a return to base. It doesnot communicate and the results of the mission, e.g. photographs, are usually not obtained from it untilit is recovered at base.

RC Model/ Drone/ UAV

A **UAV**, on the other hand, will have some greater or lesser degree of ‘automatic intelligence’.It will be able to communicate with its controller and to return payload data such as electro-opticor thermal TV images, together with its primary state information – position, airspeed, heading andaltitude. It will also transmit information as to its condition, which is often referred to as ‘housekeepingdata’, covering aspects such as the amount of fuel it has, temperatures of components, e.g. enginesor electronics.

Categories of Systems Based upon Air Vehicle Types

HALE – High altitude long endurance. Over 15 000 m altitude and 24+ hrs endurance

MALE – Medium altitude long endurance. 5000–15 000 m altitude and 24 hrs endurance

TUAV – **Medium Range** or **Tactical UAV** – with range of order between 100 and 300 km

Close-Range UAV – Ranges of up to about 100 km

MUAV or **Mini UAV** – UAV of below a certain mass probably below 20 kg

Categories of Systems Based upon Air Vehicle Types

Micro UAV or **MAV** – The MAV was originally defined as a UAV having a wing-span no greater than 150 mm

RPH – remotely piloted helicopter or VTUAV, vertical take-off UAV.

UCAV – Unmanned Combat Air Vehicle (Fixed wing)

UCAR – Unmanned Combat Rotorcraft

The Systemic Basis of UAS

Technically, a UAV system comprises a number of elements, or sub-systems, of which the aircraft is but one

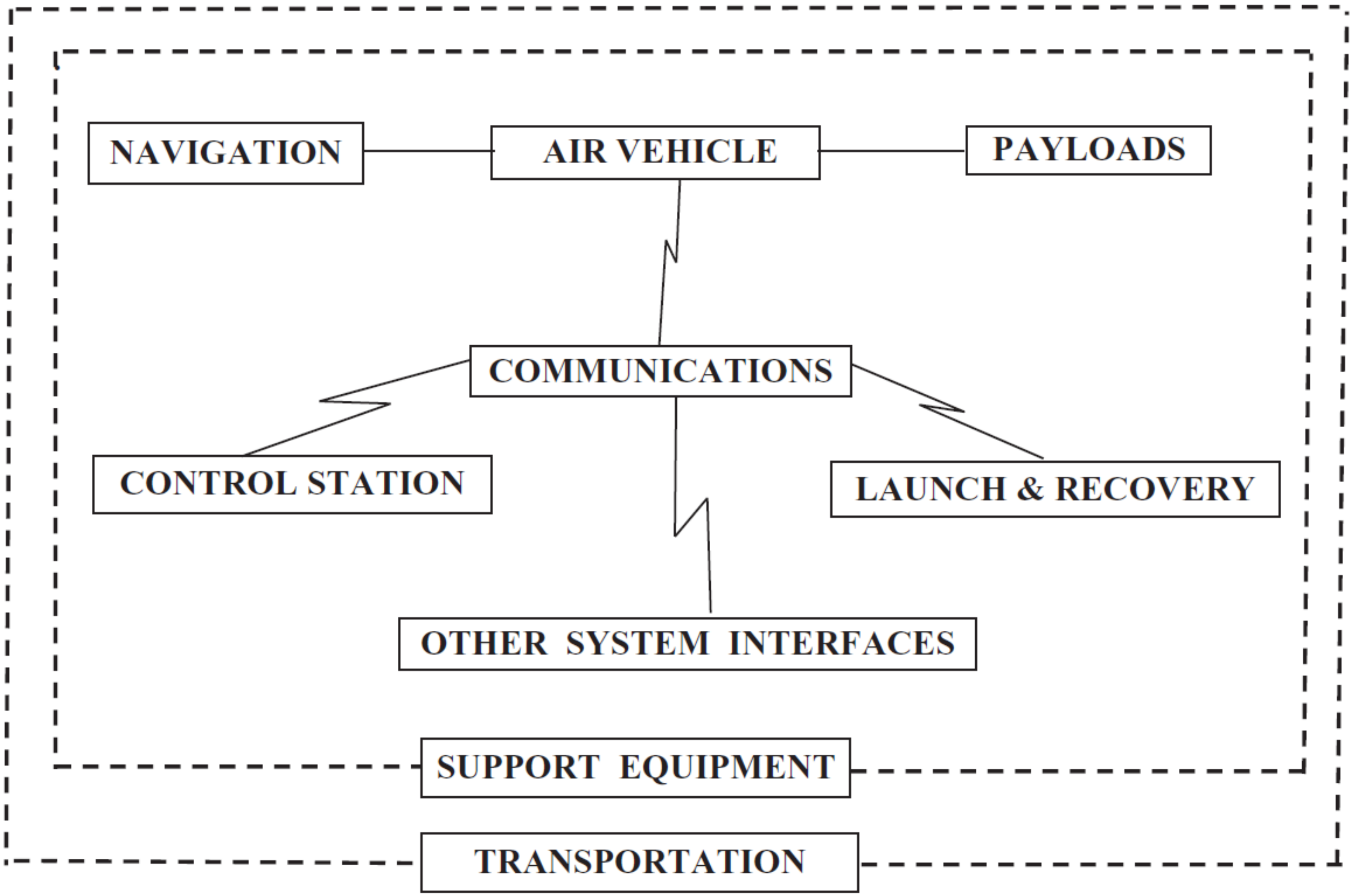


Figure 1.2. UAV system – functional structure

Control Station (CS)

The control center of the operation and the man–machine interface

From the CS, the operators 'speak' to the aircraft via the communications system up-link in order to direct its flight profile and to operate the various types of mission 'payload' that it carries.

Figure 1.3 .GCS - Ground control station

Control Station (CS)

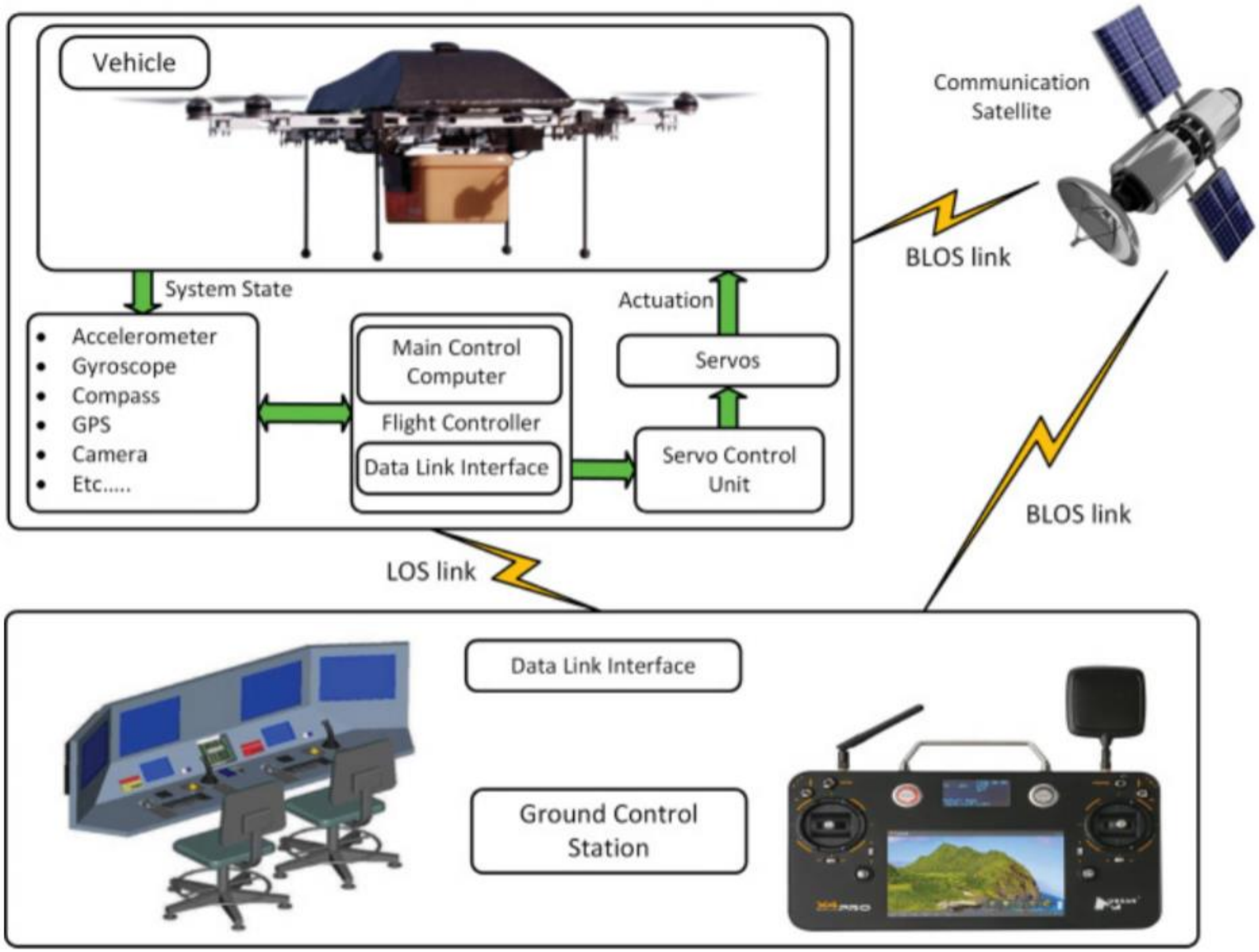


Figure 1.4. : High-level architecture of a UAV system

R. Altawy and A. M. Youssef. (2016). ACM Transactions on Cyber-Physical Systems, Vol. 1 (2): Article 7

Control Station (CS)

SCS - Shipboard control station

ACS - Airborne control station

Figure 1.5. SCS and ACS

The Payload

The type and performance of the payloads is driven by the needs of the operational task. These can range from:

(a) relatively simple sub-systems consisting of an unstabilised video camera with a fixed lens having a mass as little as **200 g**

(b) a video system with a greater range capability, employing a longer focal length lens with zoom facility, gyro-stabilised and tilt function with a mass of probably **3 - 4 kg**

(c) a high-power radar having a mass, with its power supplies, of possibly up to **1000 kg**

(d) combination of different types of sensors

The Air Vehicle

The type and performance of the air vehicle/aircraft is principally determined by the needs of the operational mission

The task of the aircraft is primarily ***to carry the mission payload to its point of application***

- communications link
- stabilization and control equipment,
- power plant and fuel
- electrical power supplies
- basic airframe structure and mechanisms needed for the aircraft to be launched, to carry out its mission, and to be recovered.

The Air Vehicle

Other significant determinants in the design of the aircraft configuration are the operational range, airspeed and endurance demanded of it by the mission requirement

Endurance and Range - fuel load

Small fuel load and maximised performance - efficient propulsion system and optimum airframe aerodynamics

Speed - a lighter-than-air aircraft,
or a heavier-than-air fixed-wing,
rotary-wing

A long endurance and long range mission - a high-aspect ratio fixed-wing aircraft

UCAVs (Unmanned Combat Air Vehicles) - operate at high speed
- likely to have low aspect ratio wings

Civilian uses of UAVs – Low speeds - Vertical take-off and landing

The Air Vehicle

Figure 1.6. Airframe configurations

Navigation Systems

Operators should know '*where the aircraft is'* at any moment in time

Aircraft should know '*where it is'* during autonomous flight

Global Positioning System (GPS) which accesses positional information

from a system of earth-satellites

with simple form of inertial navigation system (INS)

Navigation Systems

For nonautonomous operation, i.e. where communication between aircraft and CS is virtually continuous, or where there is a risk of the GPS system being blocked, other means of navigation are possible fall-back options.

These methods include:

(a) Radar tracking - aircraft is fitted with a transponder which responds to a radar scanner emitting from the CS, so that the aircraft position is seen on the CS radar display in bearing and range

(b) Radio tracking - radio signal carrying data from the aircraft to the CS is tracked, whilst its range is determined from the time taken for a coded signal to travel between the aircraft and the CS

(c) Direct reckoning - with the computer-integration of velocity vectors and time elapsed. If the mission is over land and the aircraft carries a TV camera, its position can be confirmed by relating visible geographical features with their known position on a map.

Launch, Recovery and Retrieval Equipment

(a) Launch equipment - for air vehicles which do not have a vertical flight capability, nor have access to a runway of suitable surface and length. This usually takes the form of a ramp along which the aircraft is accelerated on a trolley, propelled by a system of rubber bungees, by compressed air or by rocket, until the aircraft has reached an airspeed at which it can sustain airborne flight.

(b) Recovery equipment - for aircraft without a vertical flight capability, unless they can be brought down onto terrain which will allow a wheeled or skid-borne run-on landing. It usually takes the form of a parachute, installed within the aircraft, and which is deployed at a suitable altitude over the landing zone. In addition, a means of absorbing the impact energy is needed, usually comprising airbags.

An alternative form of recovery equipment - a large net.

(c) Retrieval equipment - Unless the aircraft is lightweight enough to be man-portable, a means is required of transporting the aircraft back to its launcher.

Launch Equipment

Hydraulic rail launcher

Pneumatic launcher

Catapult take-off

Figure 1.7. Launch equipment

Recovery Equipment

Figure 1.8. Recovery equipment

Retrieval equipment

Figure 1.8. Sky Hook Retrieval Equipment

Communications

The most demanding requirement for the communications system is to provide the data links (up and down) between the CS and the aircraft

The transmission medium is most usually at radio frequency,

Possible alternatives

- by light in the form of a ***laser beam*** or
- via ***optical fibres***.

Communications

The tasks of the data links are usually as follows:

(a) ***Uplink*** ***(i.e. from the CS to the aircraft):***

i) Transmit flight path tasking which is then stored in the aircraft automatic flight control system (AFCS)

ii) Transmit real-time flight control commands to the AFCS when man-in-the-loop flight is needed

iii) Transmit control commands to the aircraft-mounted payloads and ancillaries

iv) Transmit updated positional information to the aircraft INS/AFCS where relevant

Communications

The tasks of the data links are usually as follows:

(b) ***Downlink*** ***(i.e. from the aircraft to the CS):***

i) Transmit aircraft positional data to the CS where relevant

ii) Transmit payload imagery and/or data to the CS

iii) Transmit aircraft housekeeping data, e.g. fuel state, engine temperature, etc. to the CS

Interfaces

All these elements, or sub-systems, work together to achieve the performance of the total system. Although some of them may be able to operate as 'stand-alone' systems in other uses, within the type of system described, as sub-systems they must be able to operate together, and so great attention must be paid to the correct functioning of their interfaces.

For example, although the communications radio sub-system itself forms an interface between the CS and the air vehicle, the elements of it installed in both the CS and air vehicle must operate to the same protocols and each interface with their respective parent sub-systems in a compatible manner.

It is likely that the UAV system may be operated by the services (both military and civilian) in different countries which may require different radio frequencies or security coding.

Interfacing with Other Systems

A UAV system exists in order to carry out a task. It is unlikely that the task may 'stand alone'. That is, it may require tasking from a source external to the system and report back to that or other external source.

This network may include information coming from and/or being required by other elements of the military, such as ground-, sea-, or air-based units and space-satellites, or indeed, other UAV systems. The whole then becomes what is known as a 'system of systems' and is known as network centric operation.

Interfacing with Other Systems

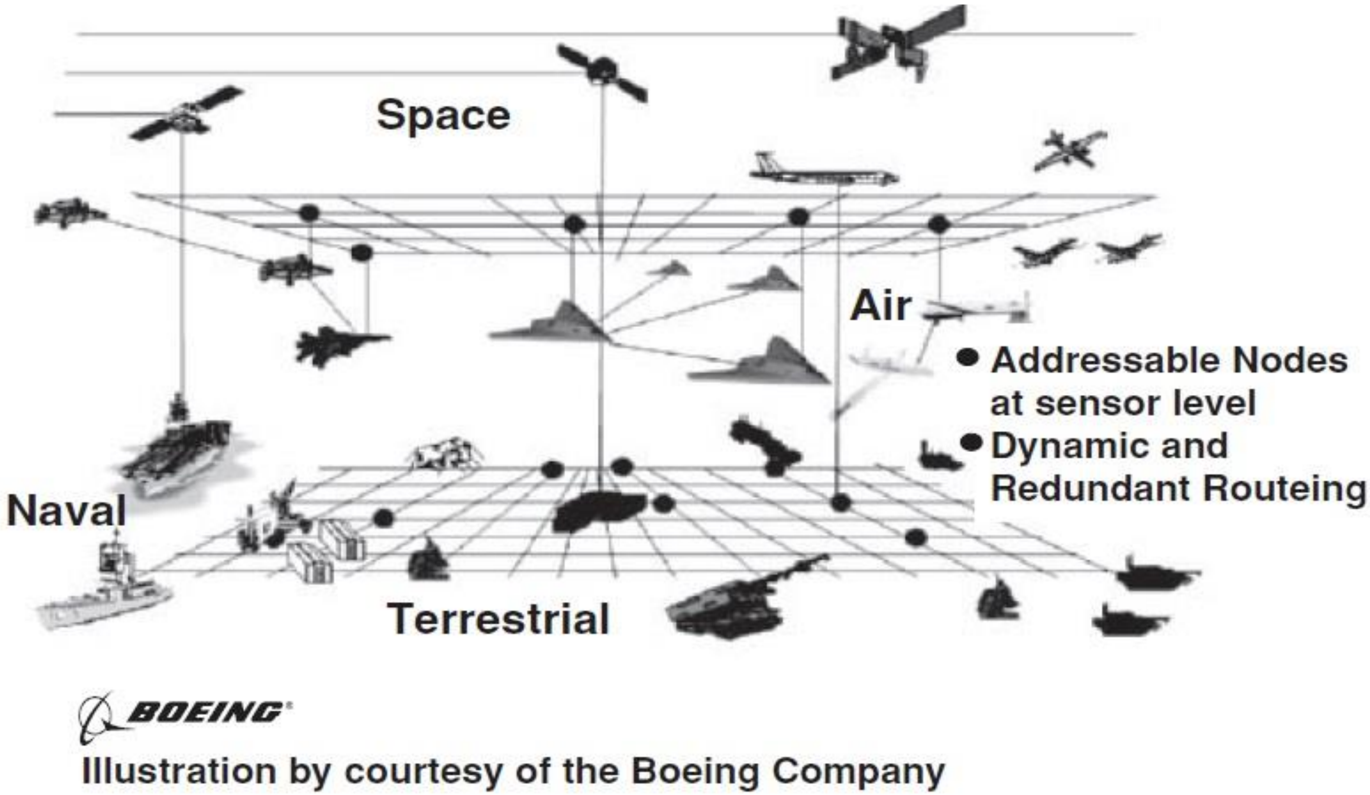


Figure 1.9. Network-centric architecture (Boeing)

Support Equipment

Support equipment is one area which can often be underestimated when a UAV system is specified. It ranges from operating and maintenance manuals, through tools and spares to special test equipment and power supplies.

Figure 1.10. Support Equipment

Transportation

A UAV system is often required to be mobile. Therefore transport means must be provided for all the sub-systems discussed above.

vehicle required:

- to contain and transport a UAV system using a small, lightweight vertical take-off and landing (VTOL) aircraft which needs no launch, recovery or retrieval equipment and is operated by say, two crew,

- to a system using a large and heavier ramp-launched aircraft which needs all the sub-systems listed, may have to be dismantled and reassembled between flights, and may require, say, ten crew and six large transport vehicles. Even UAV systems operating from fixed bases may have specific transport requirements.

Transportation

Figure 1.11. Transportation

System Environmental Capability

From the initiation of the concept of the system, it is important to recognise the impact that the environment in which it is to operate will have on the design of all elements of the system, including the provision of an acceptable working environment for the operating and support members of the crew. A system which has been designed with only low-altitude, temperate conditions in mind, will fail in more extreme conditions of altitude, temperature, solar radiation, precipitation and humidity.

It is also necessary to recognize the impact that the UAV system may have on the environment. This can be very significant, though with different accent, in both civilian and military roles.

Introduction to Design and Selection of the System

Design- Conceptual Phase

a) Is it what the customer needs – (not necessarily what the customer thinks that he wants)?

b) What is the predicted size of the market – i.e. number of units?

c) Will the unit production costs plus mark-up be seen by the customer as value for money?

Design- Conceptual Phase

d) Will the operating costs and system reliability be acceptable to the customer?

e) Will the nonrecurring cost of the programme be recouped in an acceptable time by the return on sales?

f) Are there any forces, political or regulatory, which may prevent sales of the system?

Preliminary Design

- Given the decision to proceed, the original outline design of the total system will be expanded in more detail.

- Optimization trade-offs within the system will be made to maximise the overall performance of the system over its projected operational roles and atmospheric conditions.

- A ‘mock-up’ of the aircraft and operator areas of the control station may be constructed in wood or other easily worked material, to give a better appreciation in three dimensions as to how components will be mounted relative to one another, ease of accessibility for maintenance and operator ergonomics, etc.

Preliminary Design

- It will be determined which elements of the system will be manufactured 'in house' and which will be procured, at what approximate cost, from alternative external suppliers.

- The phase concludes with a comprehensive definition of the design of the complete system with its interfaces and a system specification.

- The costing of the remaining phases of the programme and the costs of system operation will have been re-examined in greater detail and the decision to proceed further should be revisited.

Preliminary Design

Careful consideration of options and the addressing of such matters as ease of construction, reliability, maintenance and operation at this stage can save much time and cost in correcting mistakes in the more expensive later phases of the programme.

Detail Design

- At this point the work involved expands and a greater number of staff will be employed on the programme.

- There will follow a more detailed analysis of:
  - aerodynamics, dynamics,
  - structures and ancillary systems of the aircraft and
  - of the layout and the mechanical,
  - electronic and
  - environmental systems of the control station and
  - any other sub-systems such as the launch and recovery systems.

Detail Design

- The detailed design and drawings of parts for production of each element of the system, including ground support and test equipment unless they are 'bought-out' items, will be made and value analysis applied.

- Specifications for the 'bought-out' items will be prepared and tenders sought.

Detail Design

- The jigs and tools required for manufacture will be specified and will be designed unless ‘bought-out’.

- Test Schedules will be drafted for the test phases and initial thoughts applied to the contents of the operating and maintenance manuals.

Selection of the System

Air Vehicle – Payload

- The size and mass of the payload and its requirement for electrical power supplies is often the premier determinant of the layout, size and all–up-mass (AUM) of the aircraft. This is perhaps rightly so, as its tasking is the sole reason for the existence of the UAV system.

- The payload may range in mass from a ***fraction of a kilogram up to 1000 kg*** and in **volume** from a few cubic centimeters (**cm^3**) to more than a cubic metre (**>m^3**), especially in the case of armed air vehicles.

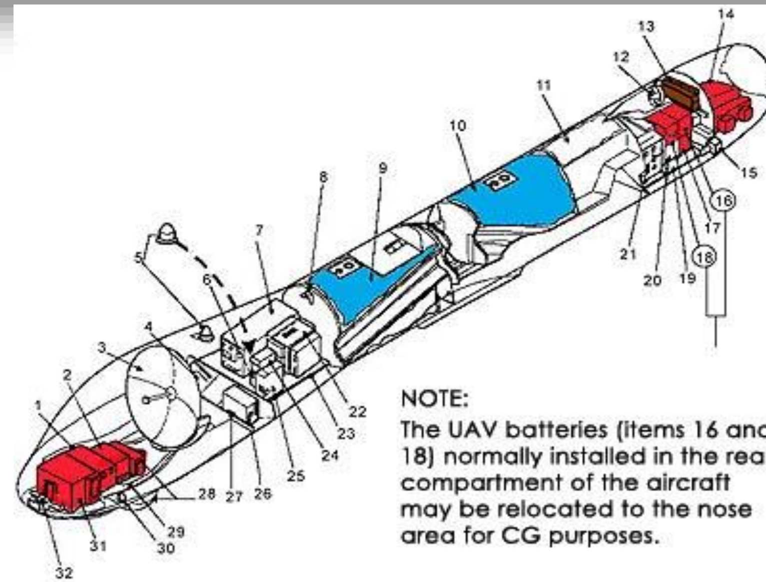
Air Vehicle – Payload

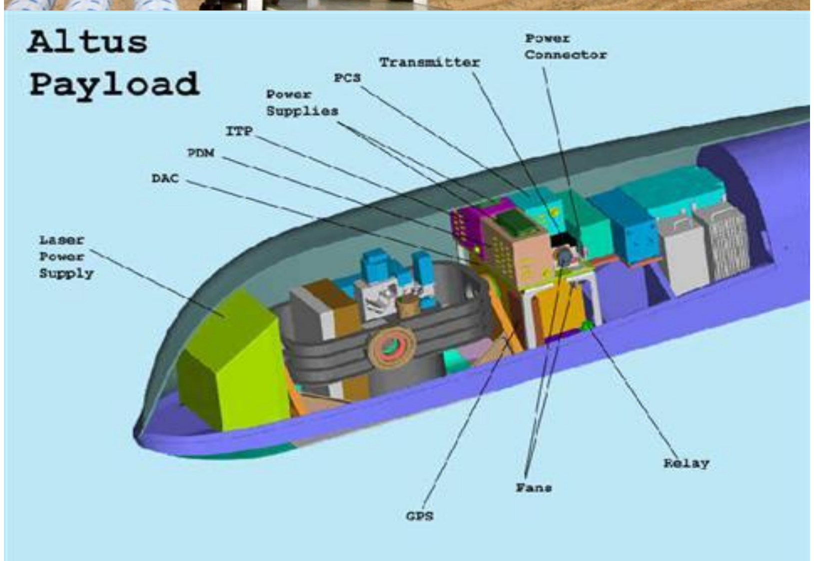
- The necessary position of the payload may also be a significant factor in the configuration and layout of the airframe.

- Imaging payloads for surveillance may require a full hemispheric field of view and others a large surface area for antennae.

- Payloads which will be jettisoned must be housed close to the centre of mass of the air vehicle.

Payloads





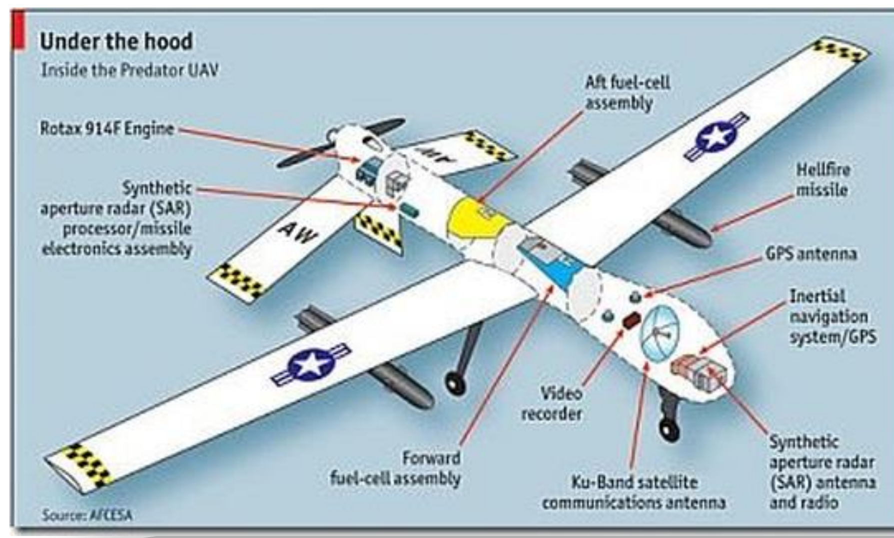


Figure 1.12. Payloads

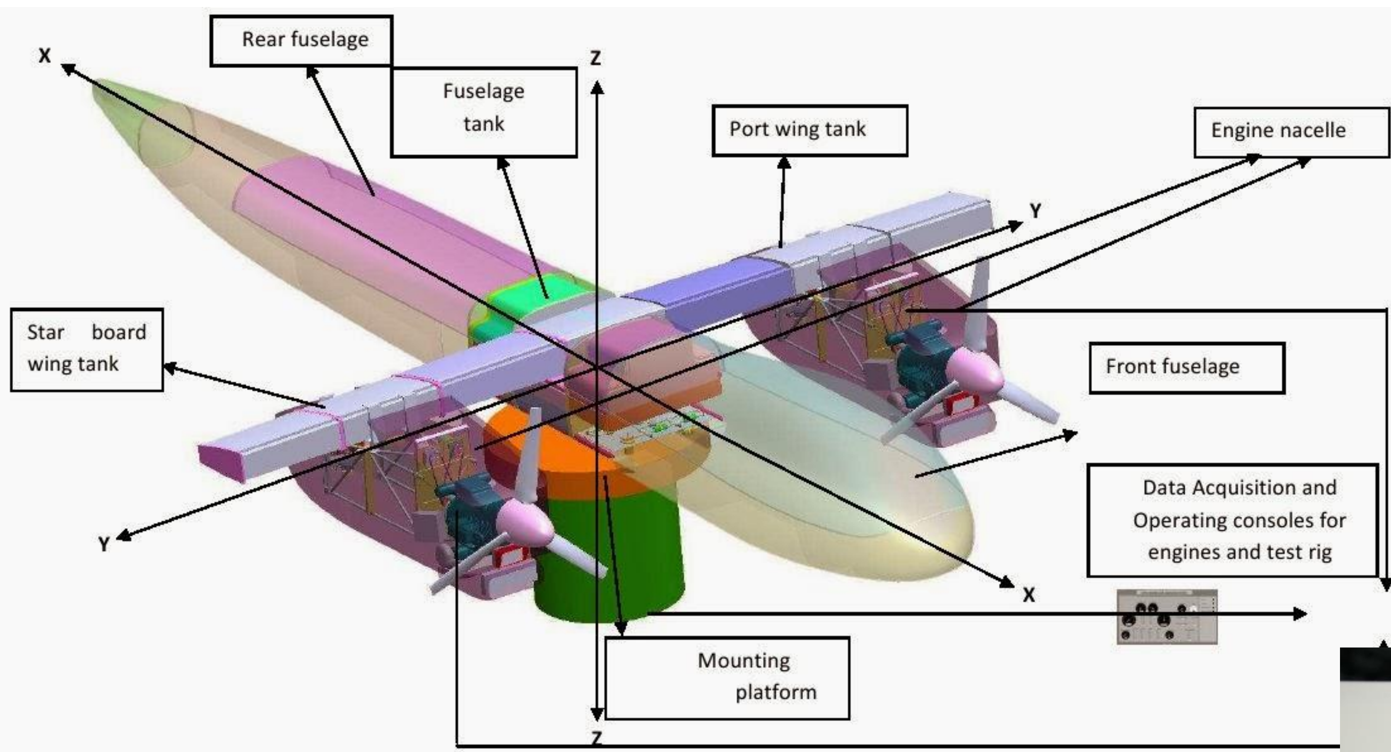
Air Vehicle – Endurance

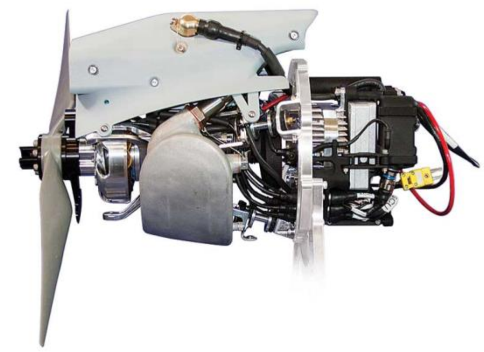
- The flight endurance demanded of the air vehicle can range from, say 1 hr for a close-range surveillance system to more than 24 hr for a long-range surveillance or airborne early warning (AEW) system.

- The volume and mass of the fuel load to be carried will be a function of the required endurance and the reciprocal of the efficiency of the aircraft's aerodynamics and its powerplant.

- The mass of the fuel to be carried may be as low as 10% of the aircraft AUM for close-range UAV, but rising to almost 50% for the long-endurance aircraft, thus being a significant driver in determining the AUM of the aircraft.

Air Vehicle – Endurance- Influencing Factors





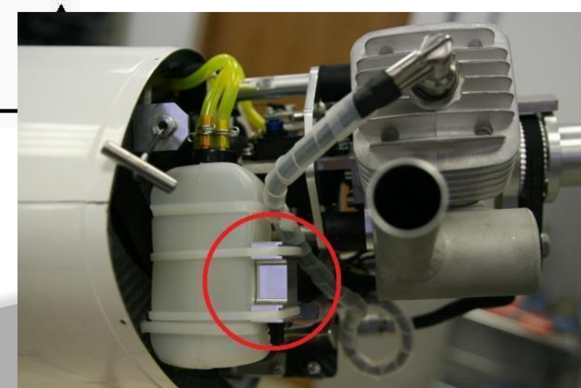


Figure 1.13. Payloads

Air Vehicle – Radius of Action

- The radius of action of the aircraft may be limited – by

  - the amount of fuel that it can carry, and
  - the efficiency of its use,
  - its speed or by the power,
  - frequency and sophistication of its communication links.

  - The data rate requirements of the payload and other aircraft functions will greatly effect the **electrical power** and frequency range needed for the radio-links.

Air Vehicle – Radius of Action

- The design and positioning of the radio antennae will reflect these requirements and could have an affect upon the choice of aircraft configuration.
- The radius of action will also have a significant impact on the choice of navigation equipment affecting both aircraft and control station

Air Vehicle – Speed Range

Driven particularly by the necessary speed of response, this could range typically as follows:

- 0–100 kt for a close-range surveillance role;
- 0–150 kt plus for many off-board naval roles;
- 80–500 kt for long-range surveillance and AEW roles;
- 100 kt to mach 1 plus for future interception / interdiction roles.

The required speed range will be a dominant factor in determining the configuration and propulsive power of the aircraft.

Air Vehicle – Speed Range

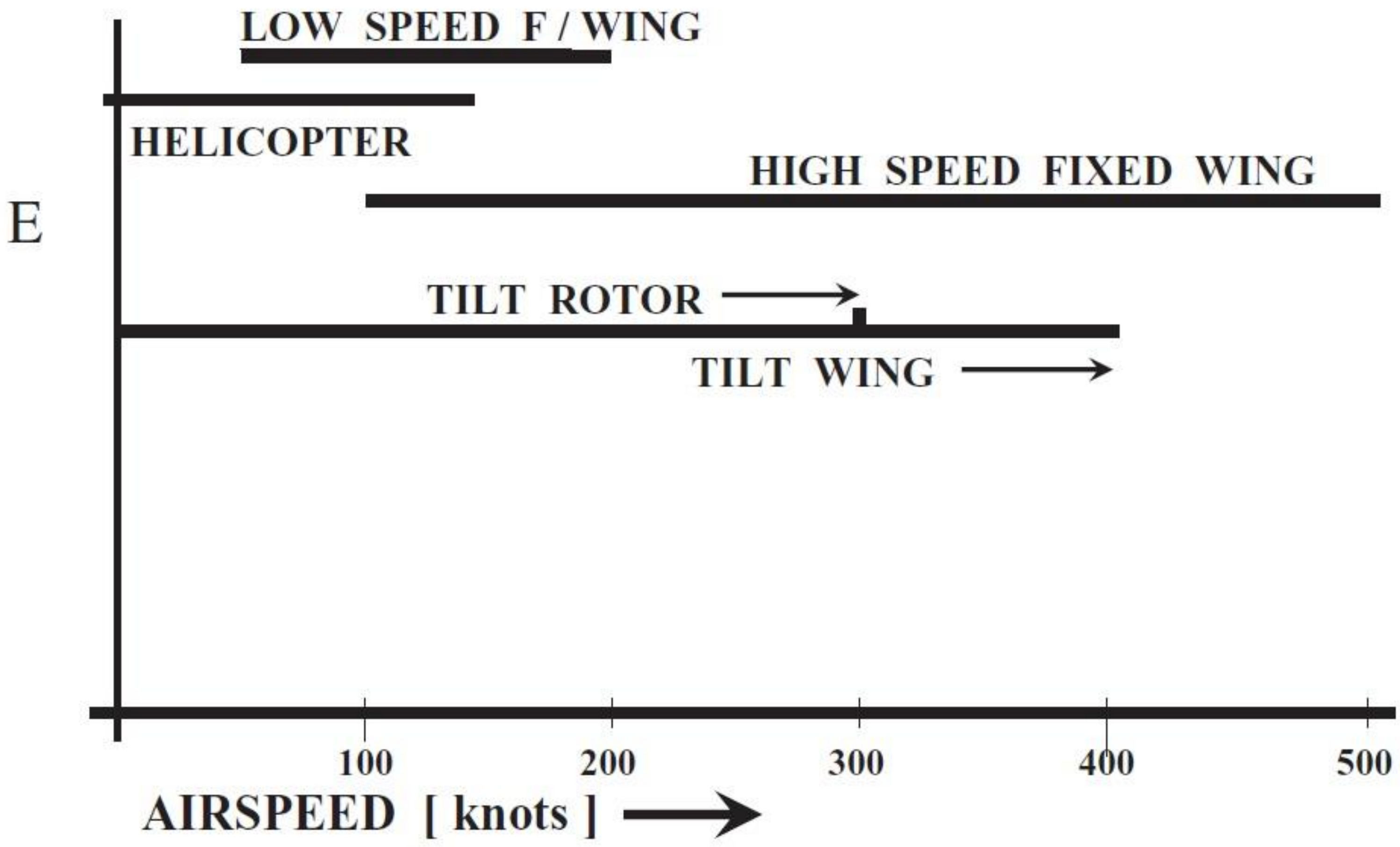


Figure 1.14. Speed ranges of aircraft types

Air Vehicle – Speed Range

Speed generally comes at a cost in terms of

- fuel consumption and
- airframe complexity resulting in reduced efficiency of payload and/or range for size, mass and financial cost.

Overall System

a) using a wheeled-aircraft from and onto a conventional runway;

b) ramp-launching the aircraft with various alternative means of acceleration and subsequent recovery;

c) without any further equipment for a VTOL aircraft.

Overall System

The length of the runway required for

(a) will depend upon the aircraft acceleration and lift-off speed.

The size, power and sophistication of the launcher for

(b) will depend upon the aircraft mass and minimum flight speed

Environmental Conditions

(i) it is important to recognise, during the system design, the impact that the environment will have on all elements of that system; and

(i) it is necessary to recognise the impact that the UAV system may have on the environment.

Environmental Conditions

(a) Too high a level of acoustic noise can cause a nuisance in civil operations, whilst it can result in detection of the system in military operations.

(b) Uncontrolled radio frequency transmission can similarly result in interference or detection.

(c) Visual impact of either aircraft or ground-based equipment can be seen as spoiling the environment from the civilian point of view and can lead to vulnerability in the military field.

(d) In military operation, too great an infrared or radar signature, particularly of the aircraft, but also of the ground-based equipment, can lead to detection and annihilation.

Maintenance

The **frequency and length of time** during which a **UAV system is nonoperable** due to its undergoing maintenance are significant factors in

(i) the usefulness and

(ii) costs of the deployment of the system.

These are factors which must be addressed **during the initial design of the system**,

(a) involve control of the system liability to damage, system reliability, component lives,

(b) costs and supply, and the time taken for component replacement and routine servicing.

System Selection as Categories

a) HALE and MALE systems with the air vehicles operating from runways on established bases away from hostile action, carrying sophisticated payloads over very long distances.

b) Medium –range or tactical systems with air vehicles operating at moderate altitudes, but at moderate to high air speeds. They may perform reconnaissance, ground attack or air-superiority (UCAV) missions.

c) Close-range systems in support of land or naval forces operated from the battlefield or from ships. These may also cover most of the civilian roles.

d) MAV and NAV which may be hand-launched and of very short range and endurance.

Applications of UAVs- Civilian uses

Aerial	Photography Film, video, still, etc.
Agriculture Crop	Monitoring and spraying; herd monitoring and driving
Coastguard	Search and rescue, coastline and sea-lane monitoring
Conservation	Pollution and land monitoring
Customs and Excise	Surveillance for illegal imports
Electricity companies	Powerline inspection
Fire Services and Forestry	Fire detection, incident control
Fisheries	Fisheries protection

Military roles- Navy

Shadowing enemy fleets

Decoying missiles by the emission of artificial signatures

Electronic intelligence

Relaying radio signals

Protection of ports from offshore attack

Placement and monitoring of sonar buoys and possibly other

forms of anti-submarine

warfare

Army

Reconnaissance

Surveillance of enemy activity

Monitoring of nuclear, biological or chemical (NBC) contamination

Electronic intelligence

Target designation and monitoring

Location and destruction of land mines

Air Force

Long-range, high-altitude surveillance

Radar system jamming and destruction

Electronic intelligence

Airfield base security

Airfield damage assessment

Elimination of unexploded bombs

UNIT-II

Aerodynamics and Airframe Configurations

Lift-induced Drag

- An aircraft remains 'afloat' simply by *accelerating an adequate mass of air downwards* and, as Newton discovered, the reaction force in the opposite direction opposes the gravitational force which constantly tries to bring the aircraft back to ground.

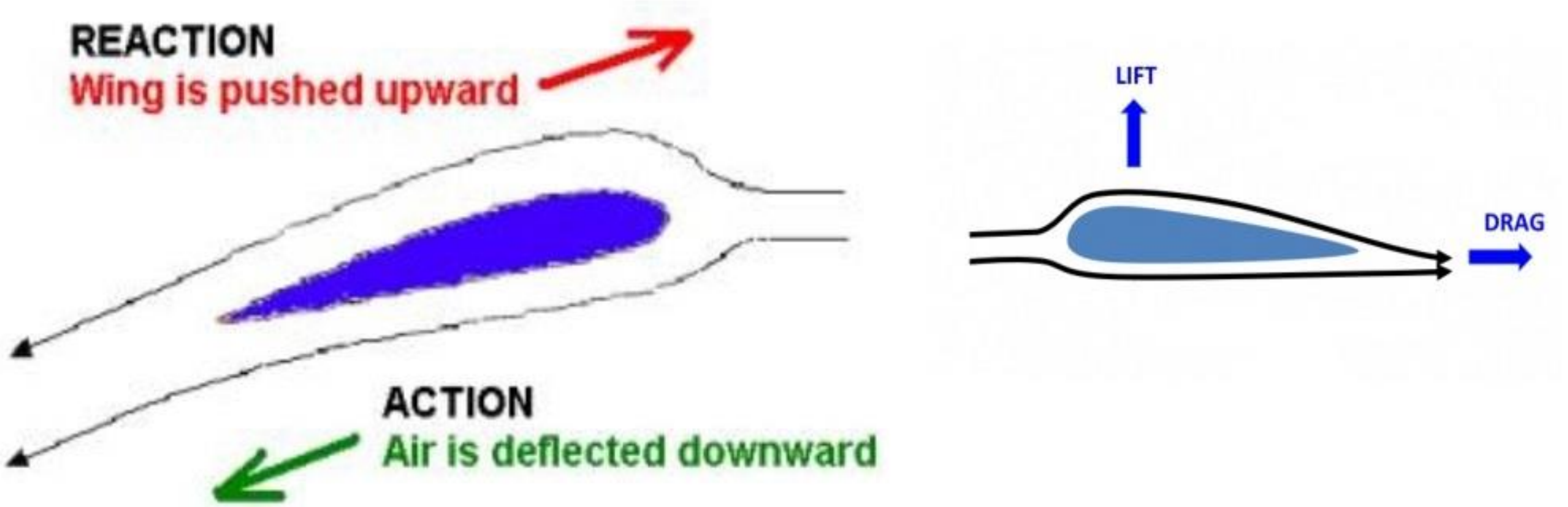


Fig. 2.1. Lift Generating Mechanism

Lift-induced Drag

- This is illustrated in Figure 2.1 and 2.2 for an aircraft travelling with forward velocity V and deflected air velocity u.

- A disparity of aerodynamic pressures between the upper and lower surfaces of its wings, whether of the fixed or rotating variety, is caused.

- The lower pressure on the upper surface and the higher pressure on the lower surface of a wing is merely the ‘transfer mechanism’ for the reaction force.

- The horizontal component of the reaction force is a drag, known as the ‘lift-induced drag’, *which has to be overcome by the propulsion system of the aircraft if it is to maintain airspeed*.

Lift-induced Drag

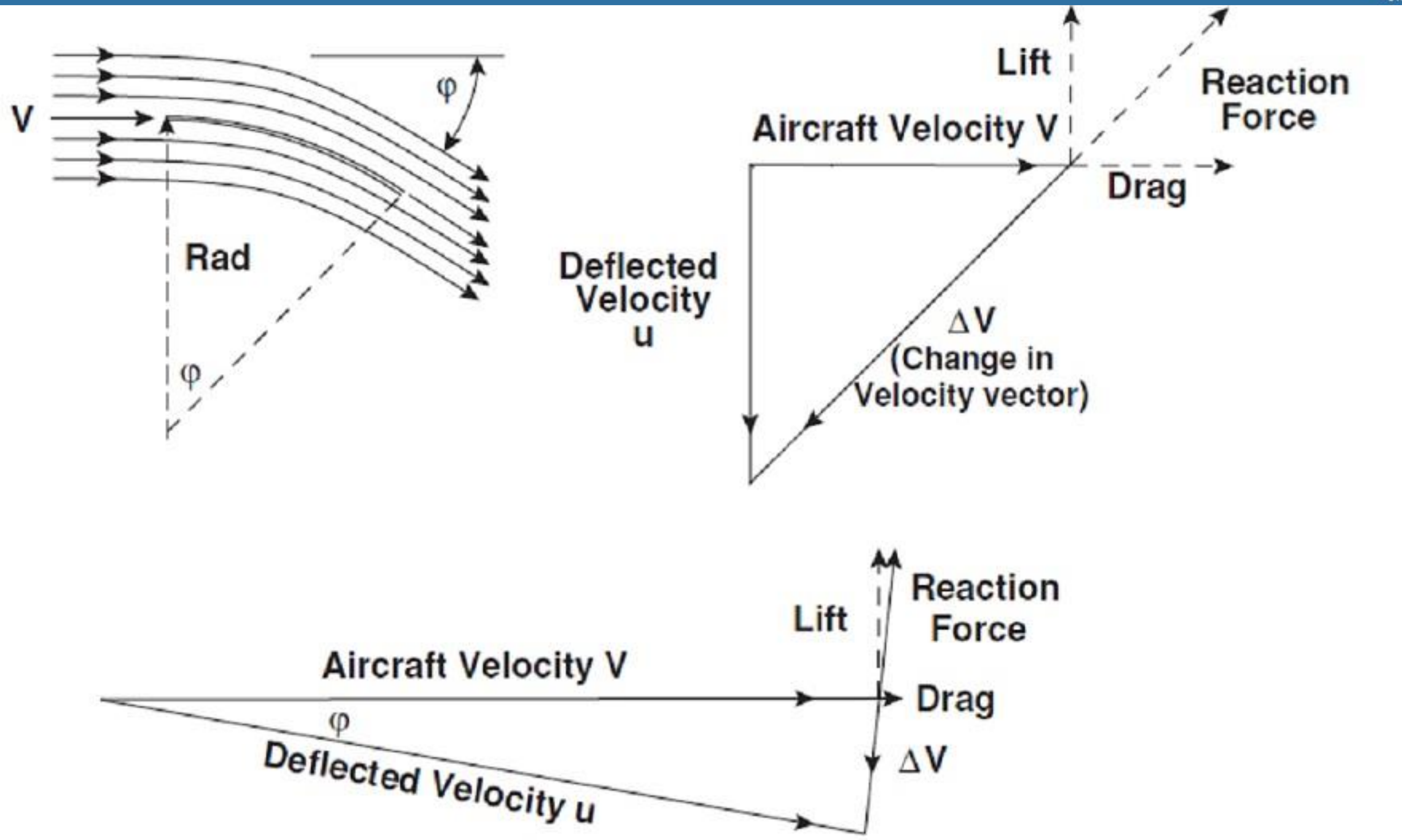


Figure 2.2: Creation of lift (and drag) by air deflection

Lift-induced Drag

- To create sufficient lift, if u/V is to be smaller for efficiency, the product of the air density ρ and the mass of air being entrained per unit time must be larger
- The amount of air entrained, for a given aircraft velocity, is a **function of the frontal area of the wing** presented to it but, for efficiency, the *incidence of the wing to the air must be kept low* in order to retain a small value of φ
- for the low values of air density at high altitudes, the aircraft **must fly fast and/or have a large wing-span** b to entrain a large mass of air

Lift-induced Drag

- The induced drag D_i of an aircraft wing varies as the square of the span loading (lift generated, L divided by span length [b]), the reciprocal of the air density ρ kg/m^2, and the square of the reciprocal of the airspeed V m/s.

$$D_\text{i} = k_\text{i}.(L/b)^2/q\pi \quad \text{or} \quad D_i = k_\text{i}.(L/b)^2/\, ½\, \rho\pi V^2$$

- Where k_i is a non-dimensional factor, k_i is typically in the order of 1.1.
  L/b is the span loading in N/m and
  q is the aerodynamic head: $q = ½\ \rho V^2$.

Lift-induced Drag

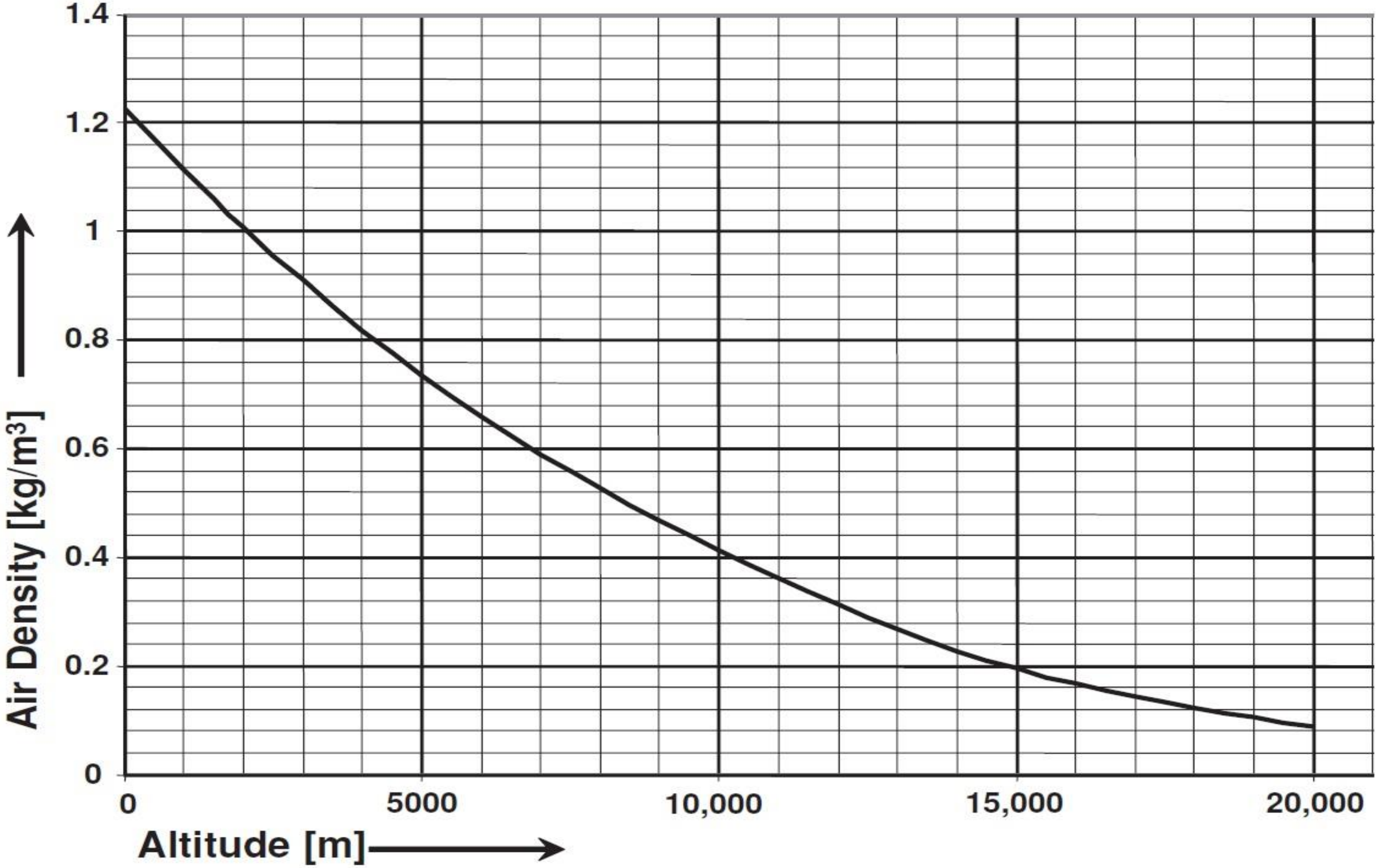


Figure 2.3: The standard atmosphere

Lift-induced Drag

- Therefore a greater volume of air must be accelerated downwards to produce lift at high altitudes compared with the volume required at sea-level. This is why *it is desirable to have a wing with a greater span on an aircraft required to operate at high altitudes* than for aircraft operating at low altitudes.

- For the 'standard atmosphere' where the temperature at sea level is 15°C. In cooler conditions, the air density will be greater over the range shown and, conversely, less dense in warmer air.

Parasitic Drag

Other factors also create drag on an aircraft. These other origins of drag, which may be collectively grouped as

'parasitic drag', comprise:

- skin friction drag,
- form drag,
- interference drag,
- momentum drag
- and cooling drag.

Parasitic Drag

Skin Friction Drag (Friction Drag): Drag caused by the friction of a fluid against the surface of an object that is moving through it.
It is directly proportional to the area of the surface in contact with the fluid and increases with the square of the velocity.

Resistant force exerted on an object moving in a fluid

Form Drag: The drag caused by the separation of the boundary layer from a surface and the wake created by that separation. It is primarily dependent upon the shape of the object.

The pressure differential between the leading and trailing edges of the plate causes the plate to be pushed in the direction of the relative wind and retards forward motion. This is form drag.

Parasitic Drag

Interference Drag: Drag that is generated by the mixing of airflow streamlines between airframe components such as the wing and the fuselage, the engine pylon and the wing or, in the case of a military or other special purpose aircraft, between the airframe and attached external stores such as fuel tanks, weapons or sensor pods.

parasitic drag varies, on an aircraft of defined configuration, with the *air density* and with the square of the *airspeed*.

Parasitic Drag

The parasitic drag may be estimated for any level flight condition using the expression:

$$D_p = q\, C_{Dp} .\, S$$

Where *S* is the wing area and
q is the aerodynamic head: $q = 1/2 \rho V^2$ and
C_{Dp} is the parasitic drag coefficient

Parasitic Drag

There is, however, **a further term** which represents the *increased drag* which results from a wing being operated **at higher incidence**. This term is usually small until the wing approaches a stalled condition, when it becomes extremely large. It is caused by an increased skin friction and form drag as the wing incidence increases either ***to produce more lift or to fly more slowly***.

The increase generally trends as a function of the square of the lift coefficient CL, so that the parasitic drag equation then becomes

$$D_{\mathrm{p}} = \left(C_{\mathrm{Dp}} + k_{\mathrm{p}} C_{\mathrm{L}}^{2}\right) q\, S$$

V_{min}

the **induced drag** **reduces** as the square of the reciprocal of the airspeed,

whilst the **parasite drag** **varies** with the square of the airspeed

Thus there is an intermediate airspeed, where the induced drag equals the parasitic drag and the total drag is a minimum.

The power used by the aircraft is equal to the product of total drag and the airspeed, so there is another airspeed at which the power used is a minimum.

Minimum Flight Speed

Two basic criteria for flight at any given airspeed are that

- the wing produces **sufficient lift** to oppose the aircraft **weight** and that
- the **thrust** of the propulsor (propeller or jet) is equal to, or greater than, the total **drag** of the aircraft.
- It is not practical for the aircraft to attempt flight at this *absolute minimum* speed since any air turbulence or aircraft manoeuvre can increase the drag and/or reduce the lift, thus causing the aircraft to stall.

Minimum Flight Speed

The value of the absolute minimum flight speed is obtained by

$$V = (2L/\rho S\ C_{L.\max.})^{1/2}$$

but this provides no margin

A more realistic value of V_{min} can be specified either by allowing a margin in speed or in lift coefficient.

This results in a value of V_{min} given by:

$$V_{\min} = (2L/\rho S\ C_{lo.})^{1/2}$$

where C_{Lo} (operating CL) has been chosen to have a value of about 0.2 less than the $CL._{max}$ for the selected aerofoil section.

Minimum Flight Speed

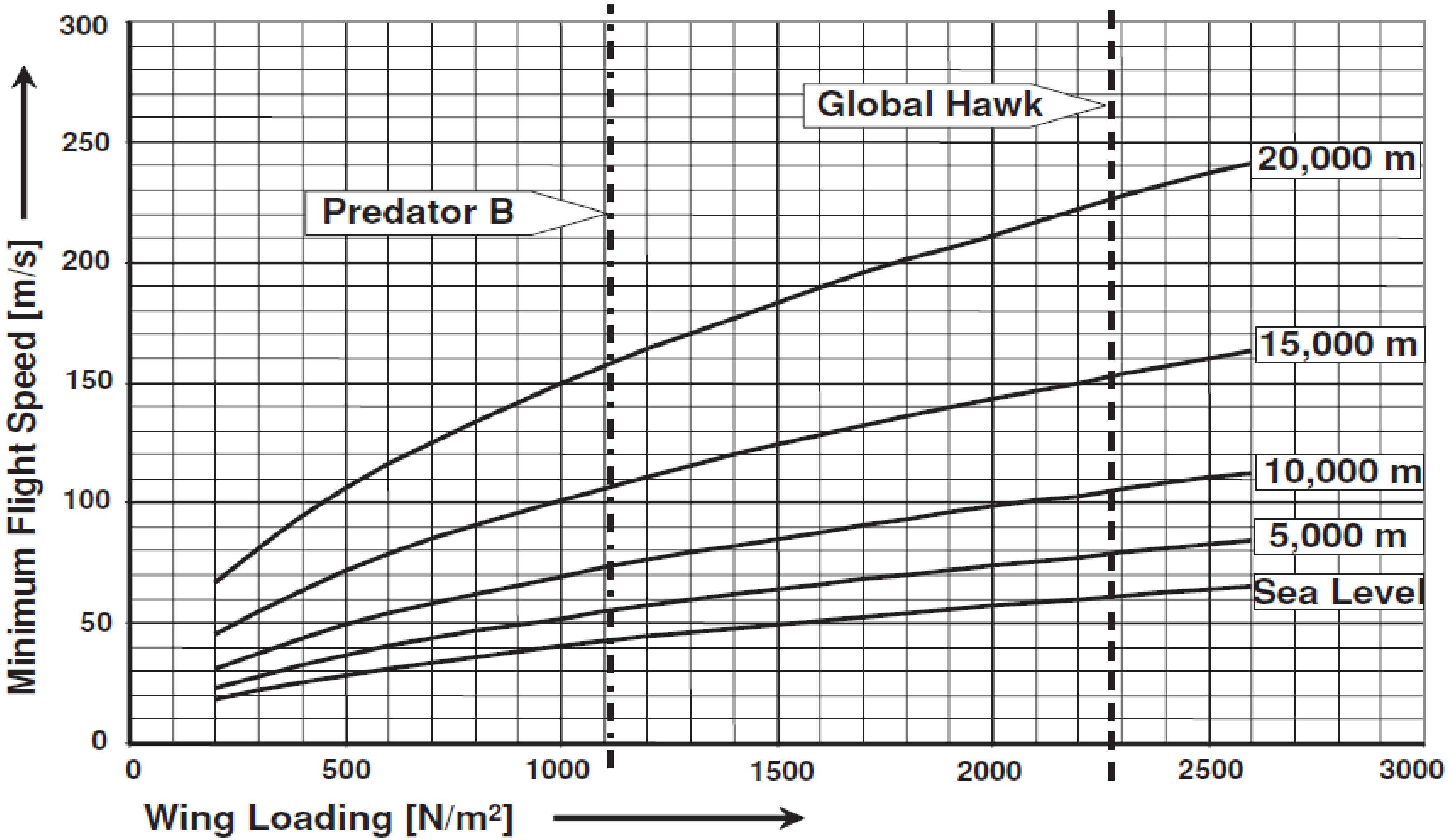


Figure 2.4: Minimum Flight Speed

Response to Air Turbulence

There are two main causes for an aircraft to have a high response to atmospheric turbulence:

a) if it is designed to have strong aerodynamic stability;

b) if it has large aerodynamic surface areas, coupled with a high aspect ratio of those surfaces, compared with the mass of the aircraft.

Response to Air Turbulence

If an aircraft is **designed** to have aerodynamic surfaces whose task is **to maintain a steady flight** path through a mass of air, by definition, if the air-mass moves relative to spatial coordinates then the **aircraft will move with the air-mass**. The aircraft will therefore be very responsive to air turbulence (gusts).

Response to Air Turbulence

To achieve **stability with respect to space**, it is preferable to design the aircraft to have **control surfaces** which, together with the **aerodynamic shape of** the remainder of the **airframe**

This will require:

- **sensors** to measure aircraft attitudes **in the three axes of pitch, roll and yaw with speed and altitude and/or height data input.**

These sensors will be integrated into

- **an automatic flight control and stability system (AFCS)** which will control the aircraft in flight as required for the mission.

How does an aircraft with large surface area to mass ratio react to gust?

How does an aircraft with low surface area to mass ratio react to gust?

More mass-----more inertia
Dense packaging of UAV -----is an advantage!

Response to Air Turbulence

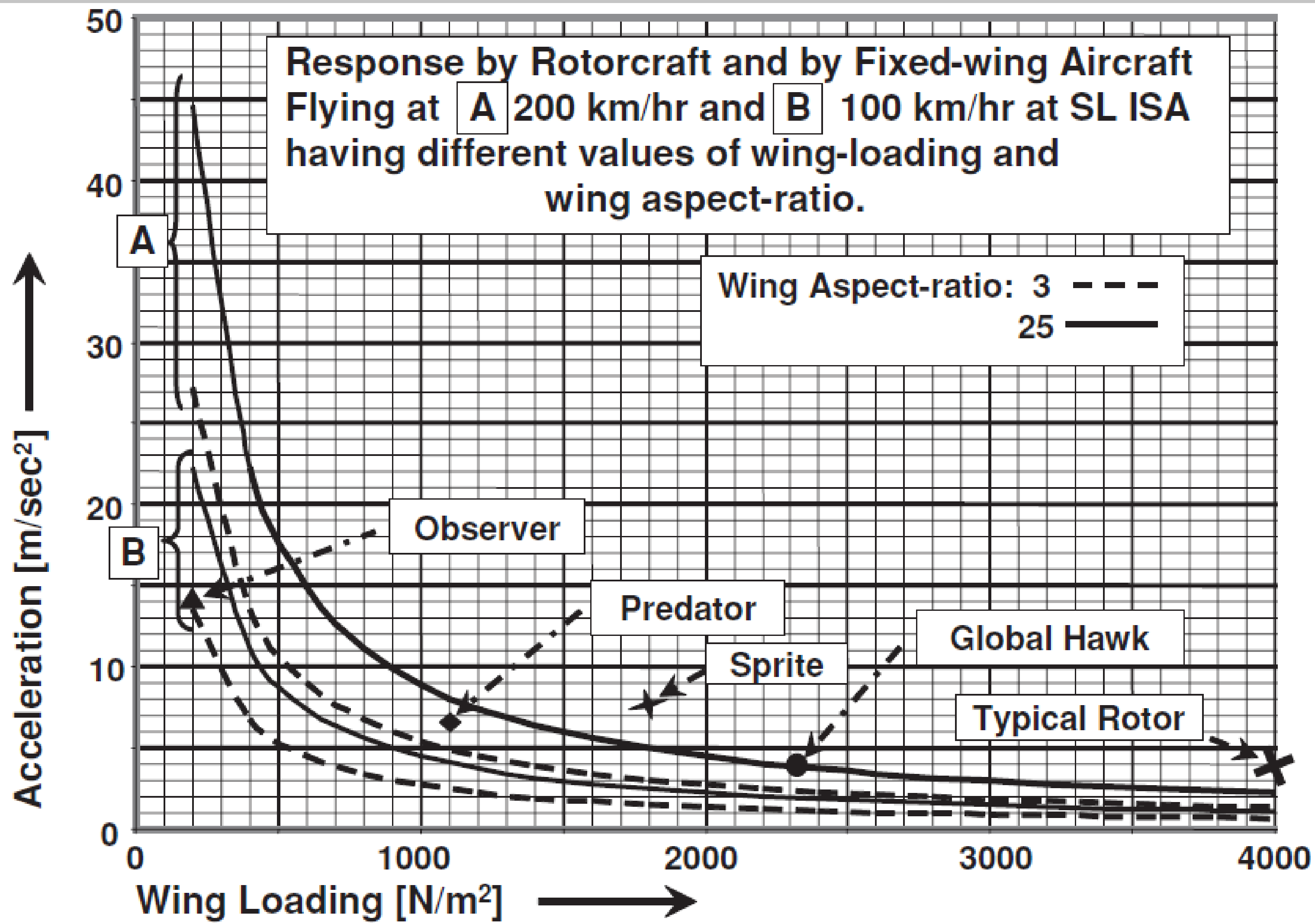


Figure 2.5: Aircraft vertical response to a vertical gust

Gust Effect Calculation

The vertical acceleration in response to a 1 m/s vertical gust is approximately given by the expression:

acceleration = K1 × K2 × V/w_m, where K1 and K2 are constants:

K1 = ½ ρa and K2 = AR ÷ (AR +2.4).

a, two-dimensional aerofoil lift curve slope (= 5.73).

V (m/s) is the forward speed of the aeroplane or 2/3 of the rotor tip speed of the helicopter.

w_m (kg/m2) is the wing loading of the aeroplane or blade loading of the helicopter expressed in mass per unit area, i.e. the wing loading in N/m^2 divided by the gravitational acceleration g.

Airframe Configurations

HTOL aircraft configurations

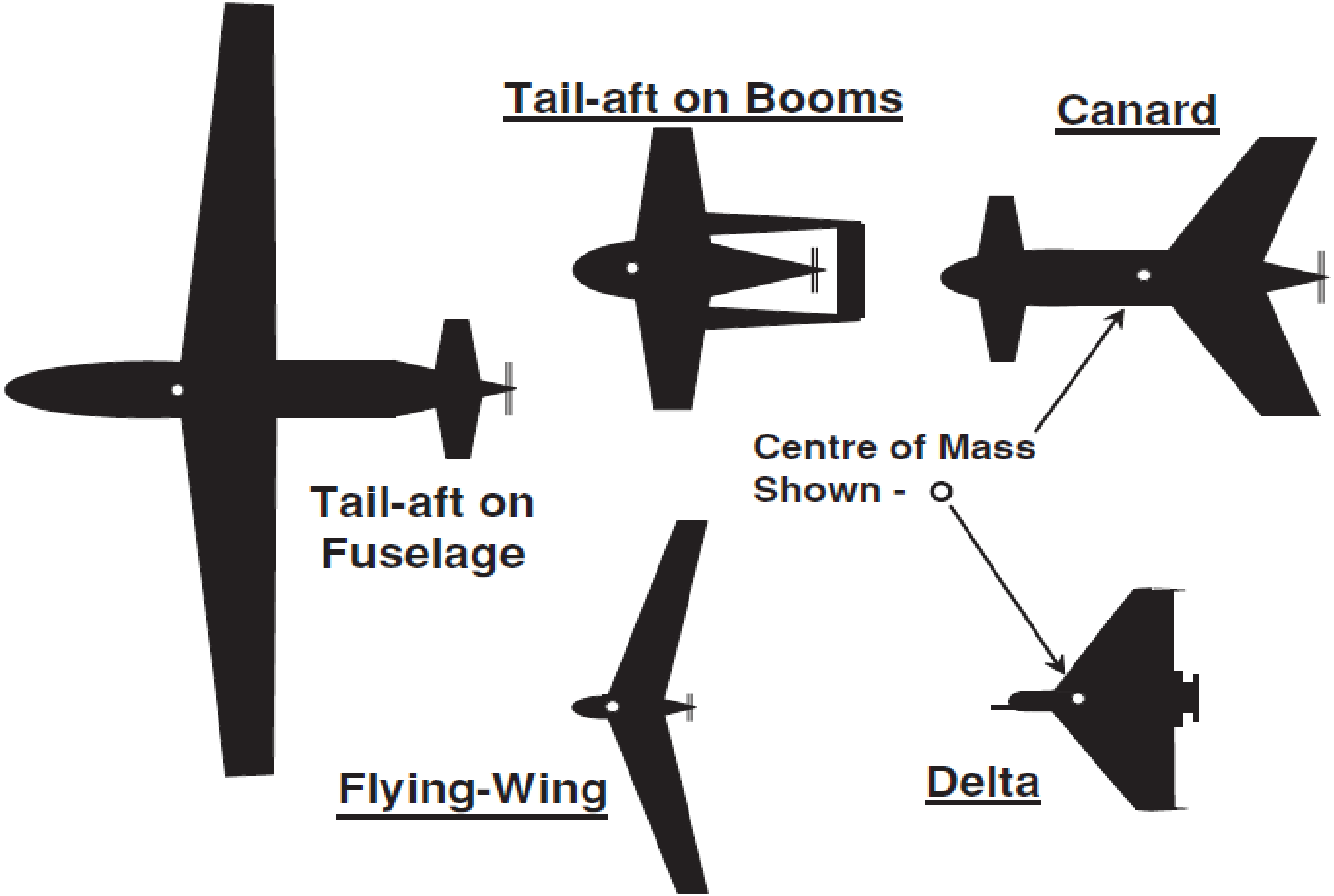


Figure 2.6: HTOL aircraft configurations

Main Wing Forward with Control Surfaces aft

This is accepted as the conventional arrangement.

- The aircraft centre of mass is forward of the wing centre of lift and this is balanced by a down-load on the tailplane, thus providing aerodynamic speed and attitude stability in the horizontal plane.

- A vertical fin provides weathercock stability in yaw with wing dihedral giving stability in roll

Main Wing Forward with Control Surfaces aft

Differences within the category are to be distinguished from one another only by how the tail surfaces are carried – i.e. Single tail boom or twin tail booms and by the number of engines used.

- A vertical fin provides weathercock stability in yaw with wing dihedral giving stability in roll.
- Current HALE and MALE, i.e. long-range UAV, all have their tail surfaces carried at the rear of the fuselage. This is probably because the volume of a long fuselage is required to carry the large amount of equipment and fuel load needed on their type of operation

All-up mass (AUM), manned aeroplanes

- The twin-boom arrangement is popular for the medium- and close-range UAV as this allows the engine to be mounted as a pusher system just aft of the wing, again freeing the front fuselage for payload installation. It also provides a degree of protection for and from the engine and propeller.
- There are also some aerodynamic advantages to be gained with this configuration. A pusher propeller and engine closely behind the aircraft centre of mass reduces the inertia of the aircraft in pitch and yaw.
- The relative proximity of the propeller to the empennage enhances the control power

Canard Configuration

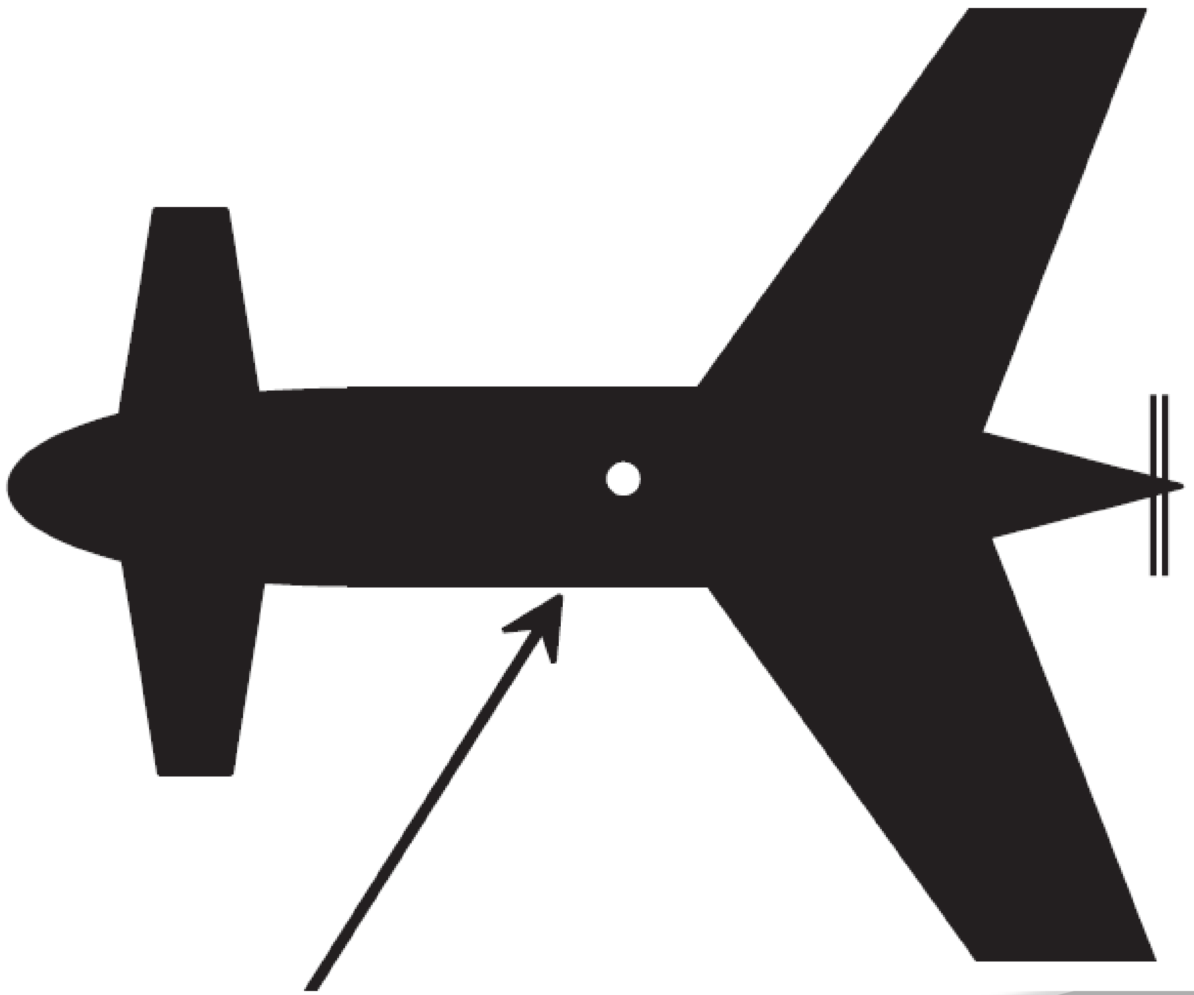


Figure 2.7: Canard Configuration

Canard Configuration

A canard configuration has the horizontal stabiliser, or foreplane, mounted forward of the wing. The aircraft centre of mass is also forward of the wing and the balance is achieved with the foreplane generating positive lift. Aerodynamic stability in the horizontal plane is a result.

An advantage of the canard system is that as both planes are generating positive lift, it is aerodynamically more efficient than the tail-aft configuration.

Canard Configuration

It also has the advantage that, as it is set at higher angles of incidence than the main wing, the foreplane stalls before the main wing. This results only in a small loss of lift and a gentle nose-down pitching motion to a recovery with a small loss of height compared with that following the stall of the tail-aft configuration.

The most usual propulsive system used in the canard is by aft-mounted engine(s) in turbo-jet or propeller form. An example is the Blue Horizon UAV by E.M.I.T. of Israel

E.M.I.T. aviation – “Blue Horizon” UAV

Figure 2.8: Blue Horizon UAV

Flying Wing or “Tailless” Configurations

This includes delta-wing aircraft which, as with the above, have an effective ‘tail’. The wings have a ‘sweep-back’ and the tip aerofoils have a greatly reduced incidence compared with the aerofoils of the inner wing. This ensures that, as the aircraft nose rises, the centre of lift of the wing moves rearwards, thus returning the aircraft to its original attitude.

These aircraft suffer in similar manner to the canard in having a reduced effective tail-arm in both pitch and yaw axes, though the rearwards sweep of the wing does add to directional stability.

Flying Wing or “Tailless” Configurations

The argument generally offered in favour of these configurations is that removing the horizontal stabiliser saves the profile drag of that surface. Opponents will point to the poorer lift distribution of the flying wing which can result in negative lift at the tip sections and result in high induced drag.

Delta-wing Configuration

The delta-wing configuration, such as in the Observer UAV (see Figure 4.17) gives a rugged airframe for skid or parachute landings, without the lighter and more vulnerable tail. It has a lower gust response, due to its lower aspect ratio, than other HTOL aircraft.

However, it shares with the flying-wing the criticism of poor lift distribution, resulting in higher induced drag exacerbated by its higher span loading.

VTOL Configurations

Single-main-rotor or 'Penny-farthing'

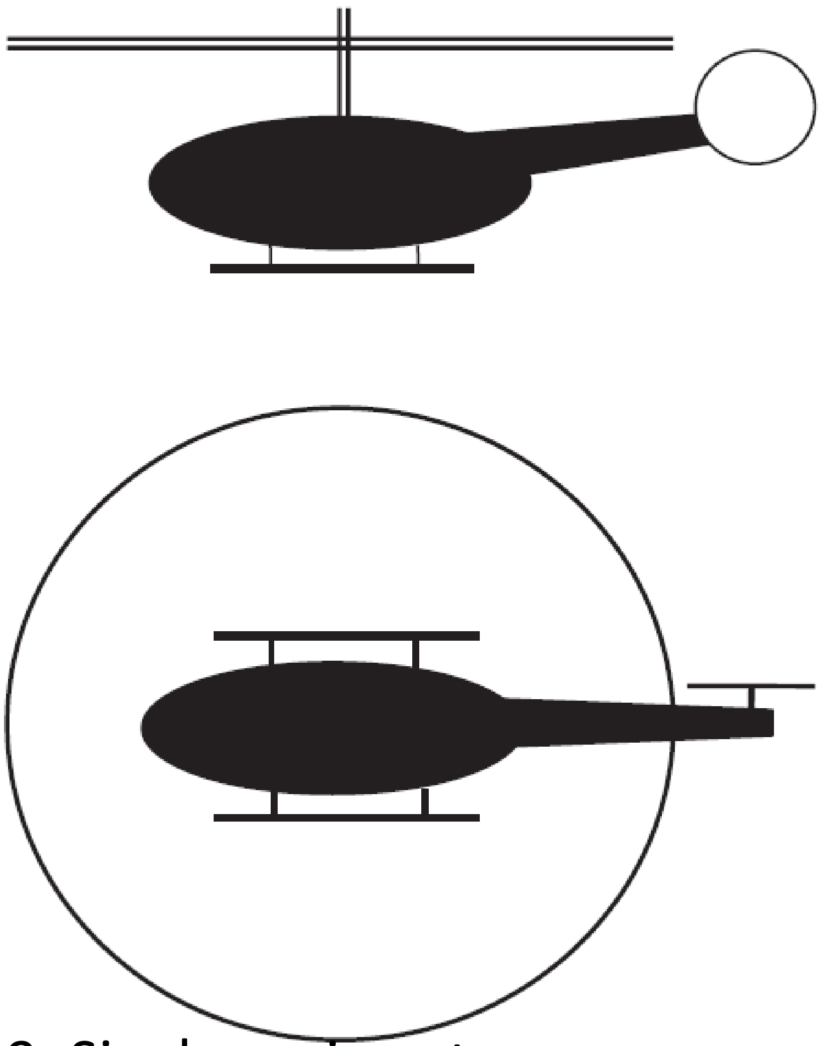


Figure 2.9: Single-main-rotor

Single-main-rotor or ‘Penny-farthing’

Here the torque of the main rotor, which tends to turn the aircraft body in the opposite rotational direction to the rotor, is counteracted by a smaller, side-thrusting, tail rotor which typically adds about a further 10% onto the main rotor power demands.

a disadvantage is that the aircraft is extremely asymmetric in all planes which adds to the complication of control and complexity of the algorithms of the flight control system. The tail rotor is relatively fragile and vulnerable to striking ground objects, especially in the smaller size of machine.

Single-main-rotor or ‘Penny-farthing’

These are the most ubiquitous of the crewed rotorcraft since the configuration is most suited to aircraft in the range 600–15 000 kg which currently covers the majority of rotorcraft requirements.

Tandem Rotor

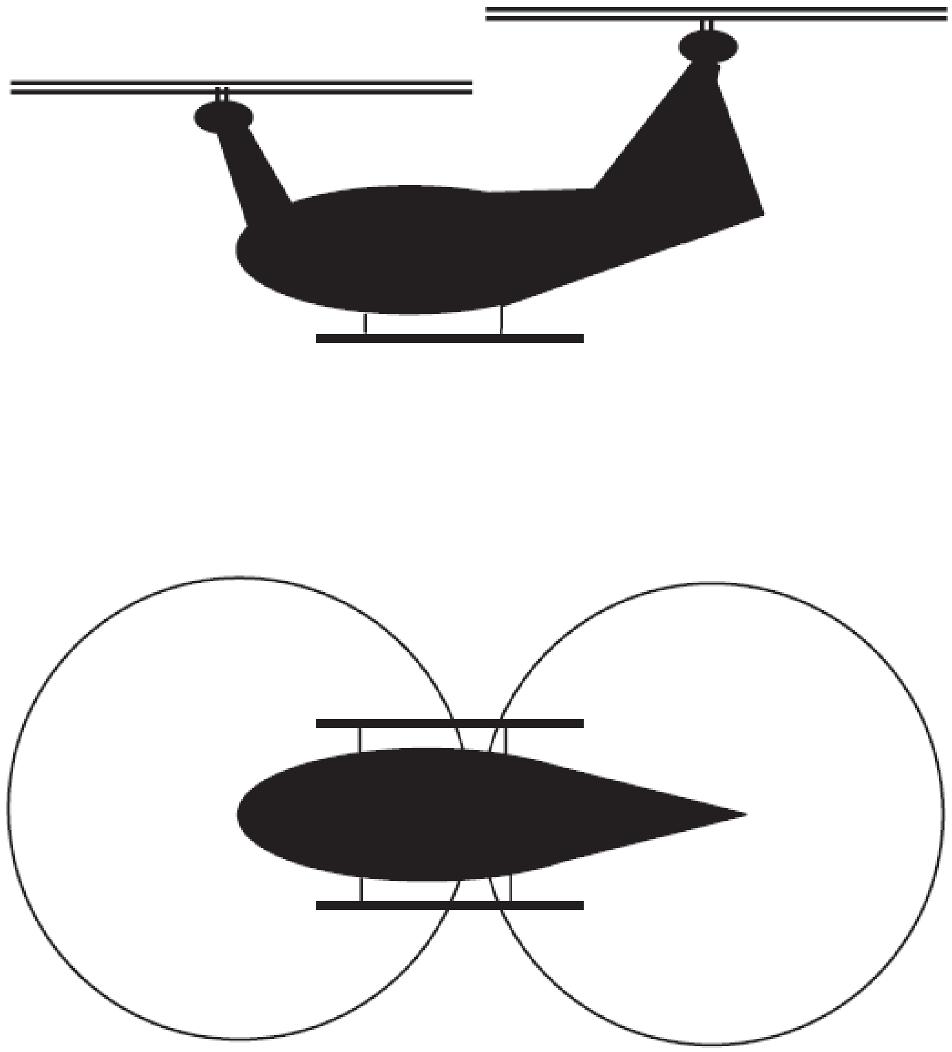


Figure 2.10: Tandem rotor

Single-main-rotor or ‘Penny-farthing’

There is a strong scale effect on the size of helicopter rotors such that the ratio of rotor mass to lift increases strongly with the larger rotor sizes required by the heavier aircraft. Therefore it is more efficient to fit two smaller rotors than one large one to aircraft above a certain AUM.

Scale Effects

All-up mass (AUM), manned aeroplanes

All-up mass (AUM), manned aeroplanes range in size from the smallest single-seater such as the

- Titan Tornado of about 340 kg through the
- 590 000 kg of the Airbus A380 and
- the 640 000kg of the Antonov An 225.

All-up mass (AUM), unmanned aeroplanes

- UAV systems aeroplanes are on a lower scale, from about 6 kg for the Raphael Skylight, for example, up to the 12 000 kg of the Northrop-Grumman Global Hawk

- Hence, the smallest fixed-wing UAV are two orders of magnitude smaller, in terms of mass, than their smallest manned counterparts.

Mass domains of manned and unmanned aircraft

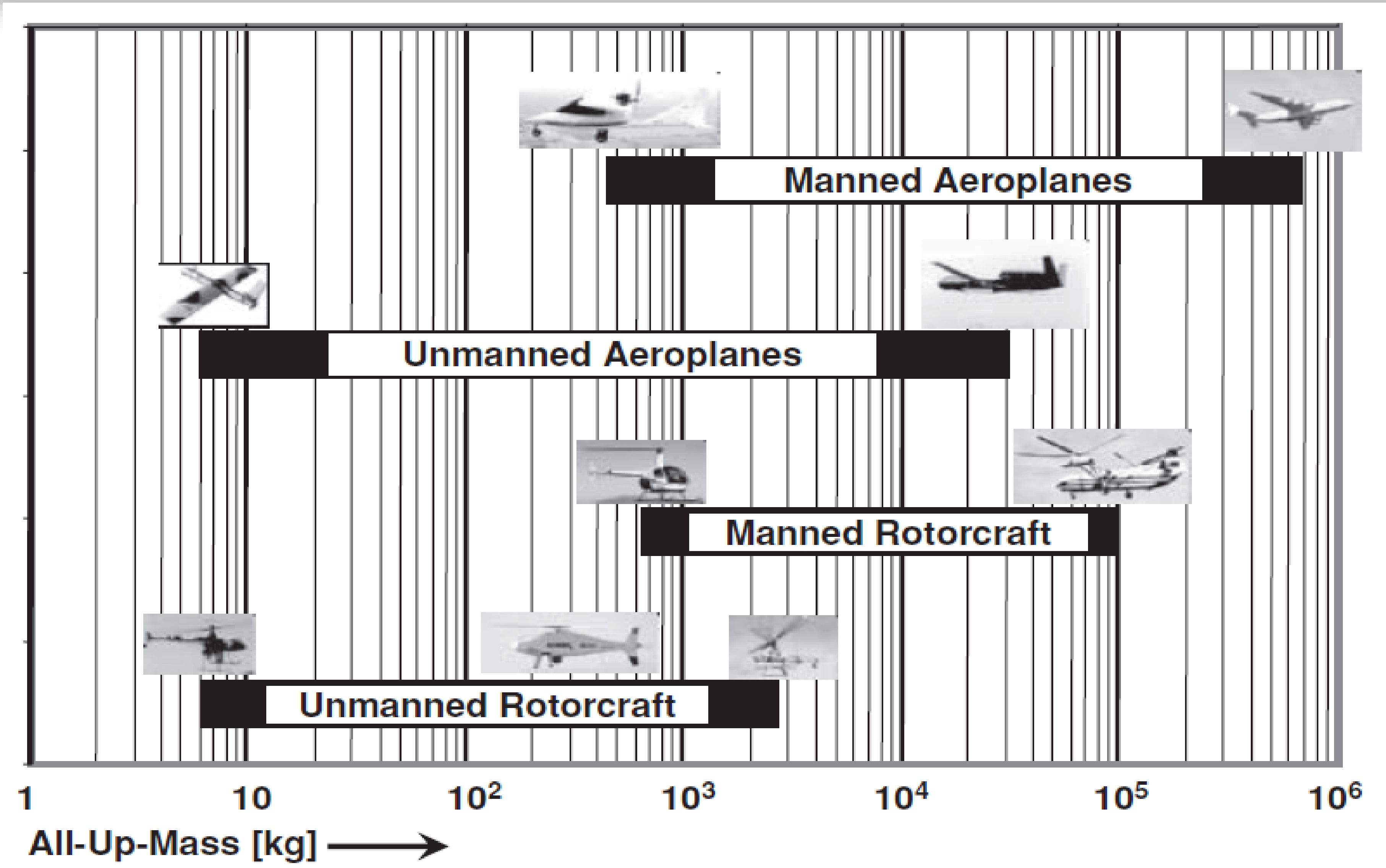


Figure 2.11: Mass domains of manned and unmanned aircraft

Scaling

Linear dimension ratio is $L_a/L_m = n$ (scale factor)

where subscript a indicates ‘actual’,
m indicates ‘model’.

For a model system where n = 10, an aircraft model represents a full-scale aircraft having linear dimensions 10 times that of the model and areas 100 times those of the model.

But the actual size system operates in the same density of air ρ, and gravitation field strength g as the model.

Scale Factor

Scale factor	For $n = 10$, model represents system having:
n^2	Area × 100
n^3	Volume × 1000
n^3	Mass × 1000
$n^{1/2}$	Velocity × 3.16
n	Dynamic Pressure × 10
n^4	Angular inertia × 10 000
$n^{1/2}$	Frequency × 0.316

Figure 2.12: Scale factors

Packaging Density

The **size** and **weight** of the UAV can be significantly **reduced** compared with a manned aircraft designed for the same role by taking advantage of the ability to achieve a high density of packaging (aircraft mass/aircraft volume) and the structural and aerodynamic benefits which result.

Packaging Density

People, providing them with room for access and to operate …..
Packaging Density is about 100 kg/m^3

UAV: The electronics, optics can be tightly packaged, still allowing room for cooling.

The TV camera system or other electro-optic sensor (eyes), AFCS (brain), radio and power supplies, (communication, etc.) and support structure of a UAV will typically have a SG of about 0.7

UAV Packaging Density ~ 700 kg/m^3.

Packaging Density

Engines, transmissions, actuators and electrical generators, where applicable, though usually of different scale, are common to both manned and unmanned aircraft and have SG of about 5–6 (5000–6000 kg/m^3), although still requiring some room for access, cooling, etc.

The packaging density of a light aircraft wing, which typically accounts for about 10% of an aircraft mass, may be as low as about 25 kg/m^3 and this increases only slowly as the aircraft size increases

Packaging Density

the density of a helicopter rotor system, also accounting for about 10% of the aircraft weight, ranges from about 1200 kg/m^3 for a small helicopter UAV to possibly 4000 kg/m^3 for a large manned helicopter.

Fuel is more readily packaged into suitably shaped tanks and a fuel system will have packaging densities, when full, of about 900–1000 kg/m^3.

Selection of Power-plants

Selection of Power-plants

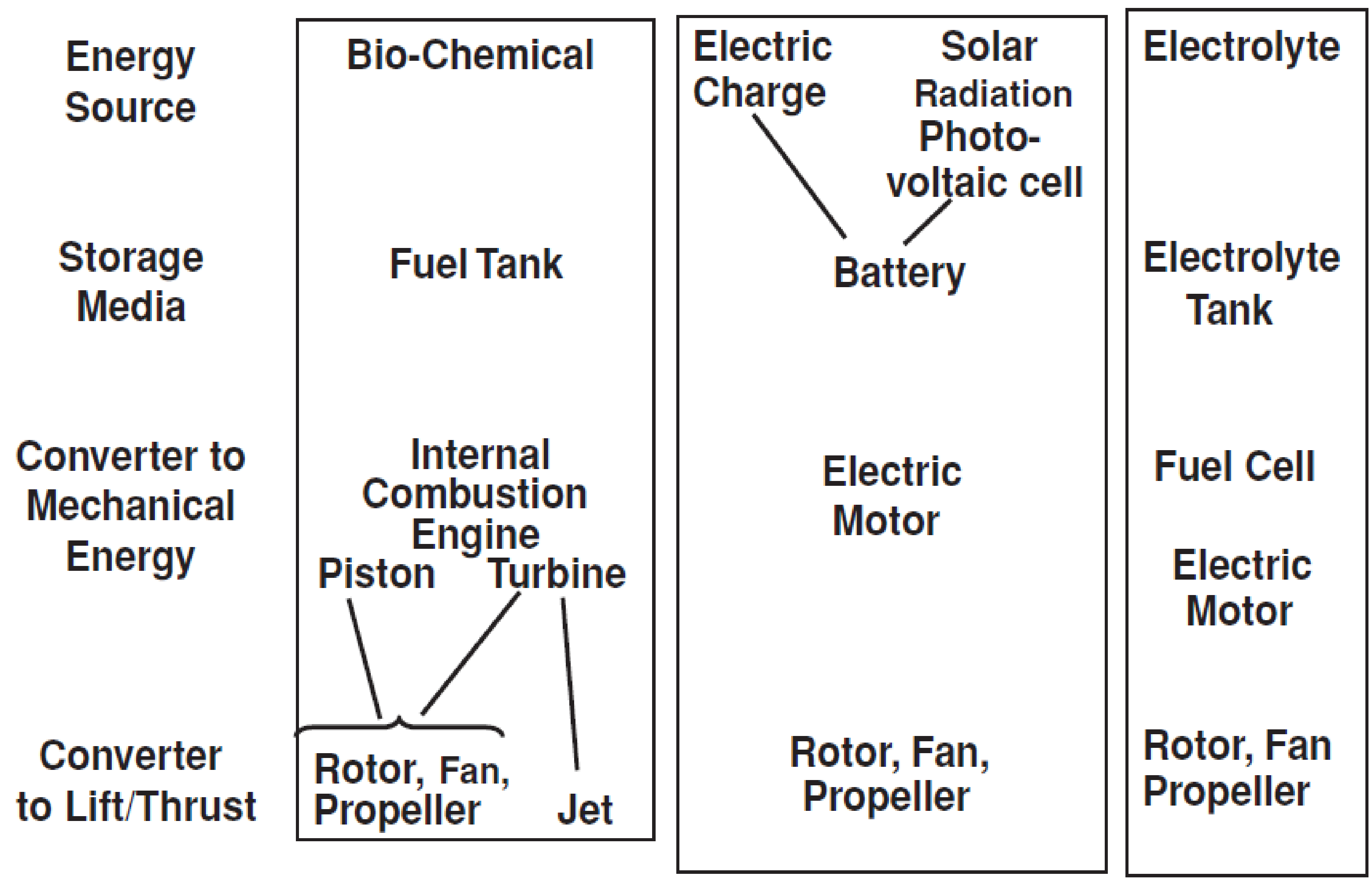


Figure 2.13: Power- generation Systems

Selection of Power-plants

- Piston Engines
    - Two-stroke engines
    - Four-stroke engines
    - Stepped piston engines
    - Rotary engines
- Gas-turbine Engines
    - Turbo-jet engines
    - Turbo-shaft engines
    - Turbo-fan engines
- Electric Motors

Two-stroke and Four-stroke engines

- There is probably a greater range of sub-types of two-stroke engines than there is for four-stroke units.
- For simplicity, for example, by lubrication procedure, use valves for controlling the airflow, others do not.
- Both types can be designed to use petroleum fuels or, with higher compression, to use diesel or other ‘heavy’ fuels.
- Both types can be equipped, if necessary, with turbo-charging. Both types may be air-cooled or water-cooled.

Two-stroke and Four-stroke engines

- The only basic difference between the two types is that the two-stroke engine has a **power-stroke on each revolution of the crank-shaft** whereas the four-stroke has a **power-stroke every other revolution.**

- A four-stroke engine will consume - between 0.3 and 0.4 kg of fuel per kW hr (specific fuel consumption).

- The two-stroke engine - between 0.4 and 0.6 kg/kW hr.

Two-stroke and Four-stroke engines

- Running a piston engine at full power and speed will tend to increase the specific consumption compared with lower powers and speeds

- The two-stroke unit tends to run hotter than the four-stroke and may require more cooling facilities than the four-stroke. The four-stroke unit tends to be heavier than the two-stroke

Two-stroke and Four-stroke engines

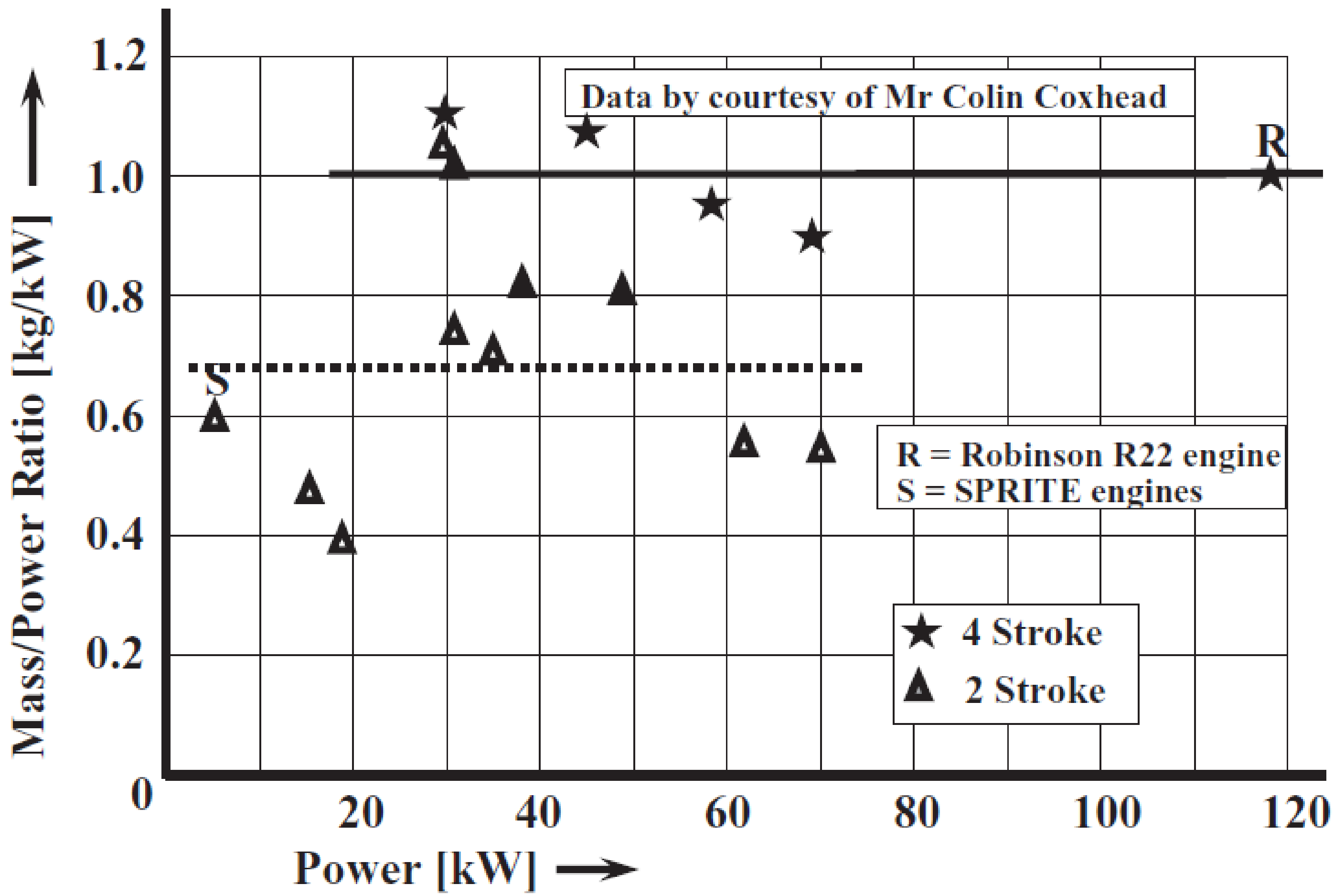


Figure 2.14: Air-cooled piston engines: mass/power ratios

Two-stroke and Four-stroke engines

- Both types will pay for higher performance and higher fuel-efficiency with greater complexity, weight and cost. It is up to the designer to decide the priority. It may be that a two-stroke installation is more suited to the smaller, shorter-range aircraft whilst the four-stroke is more appropriate to the larger, longer-range aircraft.

- the torque peaks of the two-stroke unit are much smaller than those of the comparable four-stroke unit.

- Linear vibration has also to be considered and will be largely a function of the number of cylinders of the engine.

Stepped Piston, Two-stroke, Engines

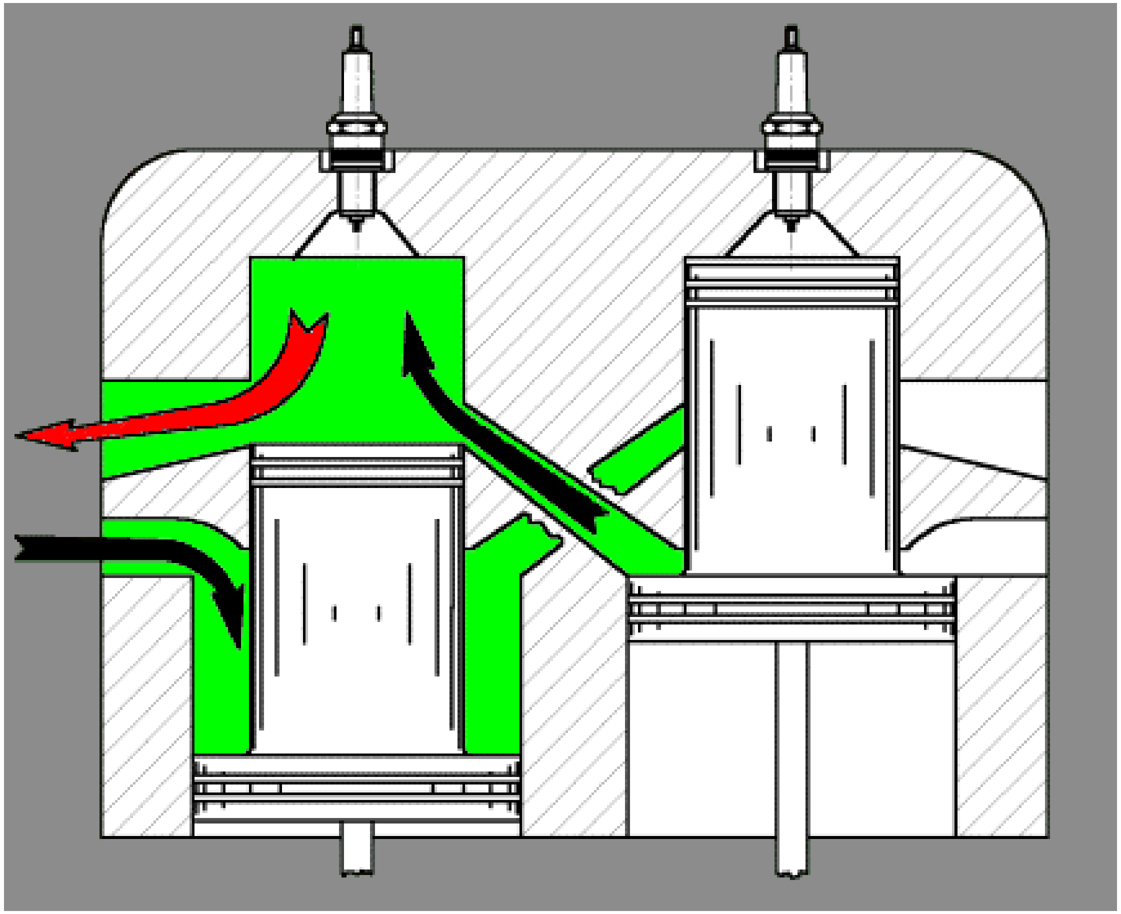


Figure 2.15: Stepped piston, two-stroke, engine

Stepped Piston, Two-stroke, Engines

It is claimed that this arrangement achieves the better features of two-stroke and four-stroke engines,

- i.e. with the lighter mass/power ratio and torque smoothness of the two-stroke and
- the better fuel efficiency of the four-stroke.

Rotary Engines

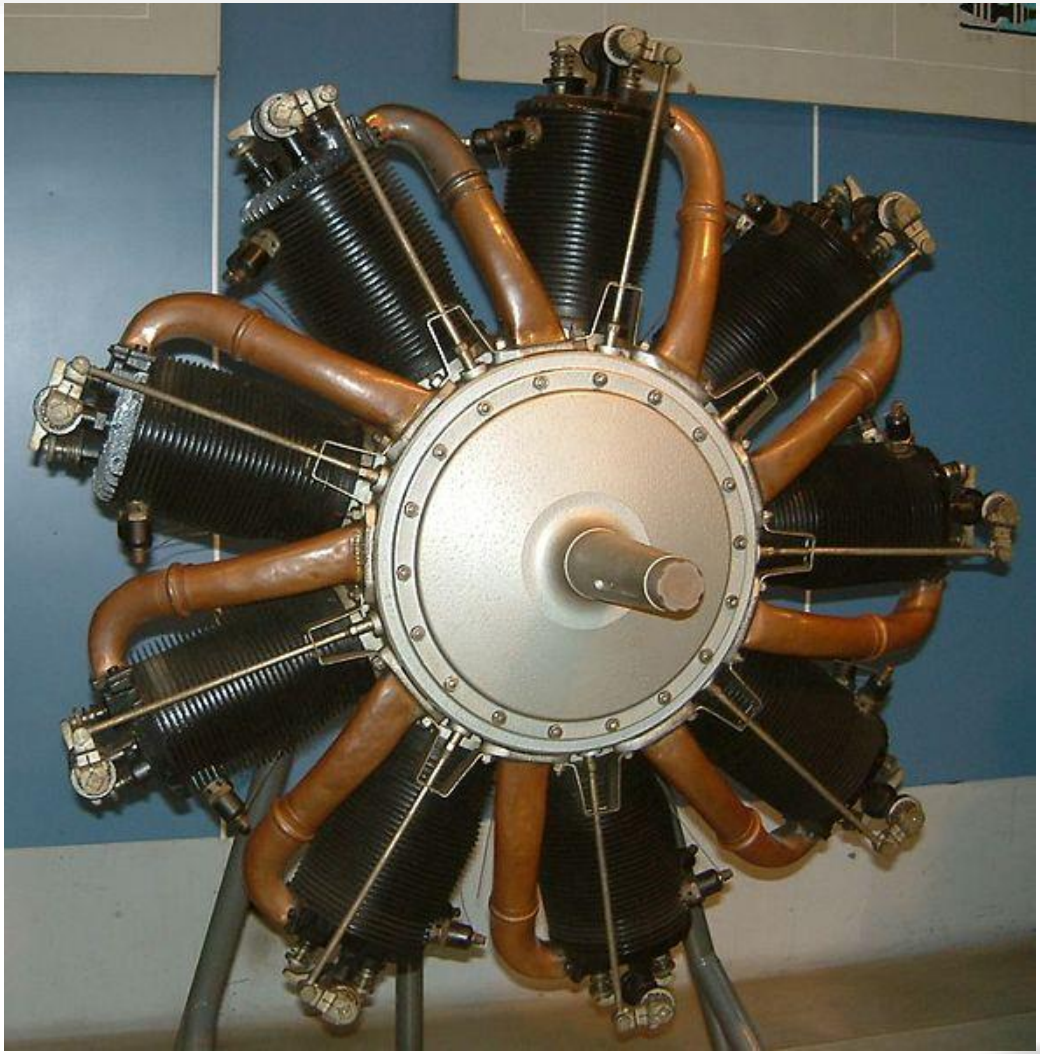


Figure 2.16: Rotary engine

Rotary Engines

Figure 2.17: Hermes-180, Israeli tactical close range UAV

Rotary Engines

- Although the basic engines are of **low mass/power ratio**, because the engines operate at a high rotational speed, a **reduction gearbox** is usually necessary this, together with high levels of **cooling equipment required**, **increases the mass** towards that of a conventional four-stroke engine.

- Other reports speak of high fuel consumption, noise and high cost of operation of other engines of the rotary type.

Gas-turbine Engines

Gas-turbine engines are fundamentally quieter than piston engines and produce smooth power at low mass/power ratios.

(i) turbo-jet units which are designed to produce thrust (kN) from a high-velocity jet for direct propulsion;

(ii) Turbo-shaft units which produce power (kW) in an output shaft which may drive a propeller or helicopter rotor to provide thrust.

(iii) A turbo-fan unit, possibly to be regarded as a third type, is in effect a mixture of the turbo-jet and turbo-shaft engines in so far as some of the combustion energy is extracted as a jet whilst some energy is converted to mechanical power to drive a fan which produces a slower-flowing, but larger volume, jet of air.

UNIT-III

Long-endurance, Long-range Role Aircraft

Long-endurance, Long-range Role Aircraft

Figure 3.1: Long-endurance, long-range, HALE

Global Hawk Block 20

Global Hawk Block 20

by Northrop-Grumman.
Wing-span 39.9m
Length 14.5m
MTOM 14,628kg
Max. Endurance 35hr
Max Altitude 19,800m
Payload - mass 1,360kg
Stabilised, high-magnification
Optical and I.R. TV.
Synthetic Aperture Radar

Global Hawk Block 20

The types of payload to the Global Hawk (Block 20) systems:

Sensors:

Synthetic Aperture Radar: 1.0/0.3 m resolution (WAS/Spot)
Electro-optical: NIIRS 6.0/6.5 (WAS/Spot)
Infrared: NIIRS 5.0/5.5 (WAS/Spot)

Communications:

Ku SATCOM Data link: 1.5, 8.67, 20, 30, 40, 47.9 Mbps
CDL LOS: 137, 274 Mbps
UHF SATCOM/LOS: command and control
INMARSAT: command and control
ATC Voice; secure voice

Long-endurance, Long-range Role Aircraft

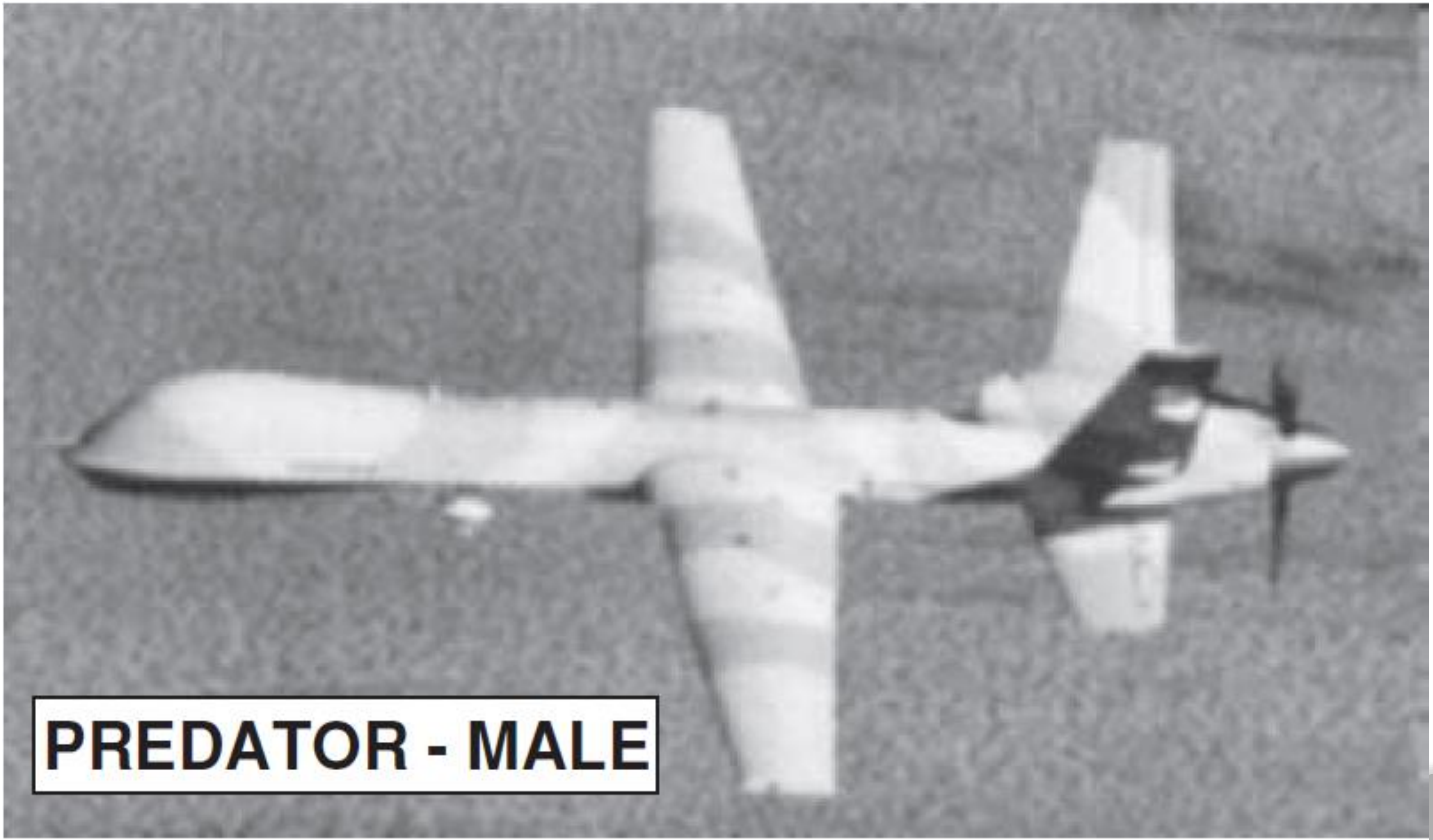


Figure 3.2: : Long-endurance, long-range, MALE

Predator B

Predator B

by General Atomics Inc.
Wing-span 20m
Length 10.6m
MTOM 4,536kg
Max. Endurance 32hr
Ceiling 12,000m
Payload :- mass 230kg
Stabilised, High-mag.
Optical and I.R. TV.
S.A.R.

Three main concerns of the airframe designer

a) ***Keep the aerodynamic drag of the aircraft as low as possible*** commensurate with the practical installation and operation of the aircraft systems such as the payload, power-plant, radio antennae, etc.;

To obtain long range, the designer is driven to design an aircraft which will cruise at high altitude and have a long wing in order to reduce the induced drag at high altitude. The wing area must not be greater than that necessary for take-off at a reasonable speed and length of run, and an acceptable minimum flight speed at altitude; otherwise the parasitic drag will be increased.

This results in a very slender wing of aspect ratio perhaps in the range 20–25 which then gives a structural design challenge to achieve it without incurring excess weight.

Three main concerns of the airframe designer

b) use the latest practical structural technology to obtain the ***highest possible ratio of disposable load to aircraft gross mass*** – this is also known as the 'disposable load fraction'.

This type of aircraft is not required to be particularly manoeuvrable and may be designed to sustain lower levels of acceleration than, for example, combat aircraft. It must, however, be **capable of sustaining loads imposed by high-altitude air turbulence** and from landing. In addition to careful structural design, advantage may be taken of **advanced materials in both metallic and plastic composite** form commensurate.

Three main concerns of the airframe designer

c) install a reliable **power-plant** which provides an adequate level of power, yet is **light in weight and is fuel efficient**, particularly under the conditions at which the aircraft will spend the majority of its time operating.

The lightest engine may not result in the lightest overall package if the light engine uses more fuel.

Three main concerns of the airframe designer

- The specific fuel consumption (sfc) can be expected to remain sensibly constant up to about 11000 m as the effect of the reduced air density on combustion efficiency is compensated by the reduced air temperature. Above that altitude, however, the air temperature remains constant whilst the air density continues to reduce and the sfc will progressively worsen. It is necessary to ensure that, in operating at greater altitudes, ***the increase in sfc does not negate the reduction of required power achieved through reduced airframe drag.***

Performance of HALE UAV

	Predator B	Global Hawk A
All-Up-Mass [kg]	4,536	11,636
Payload [kg]	360	608
Fuel Load [kg]	1,360	6,590
Wing Loading [kN/m^2]	1.108	2.283
Span Loading [kN/m]	1.450	3.234
Wing Aspect Ratio	16	25
Vmin @ S.L. ISA [kt] #	80	120
Altitude Ceiling [m]	12,000	20,000
Loiter Speed [kt] ^	150?	340
Cruise Speed [kt] ^^	230	450?
Max.Flight Endurance [hr]$	32	42
Range [km]	3,400?	5,500
Endurance on station [hr]	24	36

at Maximum Take-off Mass.
^ at Operating Altitude
^^ at Cruise Altitude
$ at Loiter Speed

Figure 3.3: Comparison of Leading Particulars of Predator and Global-Hawk UAV

Performance of HALE UAV

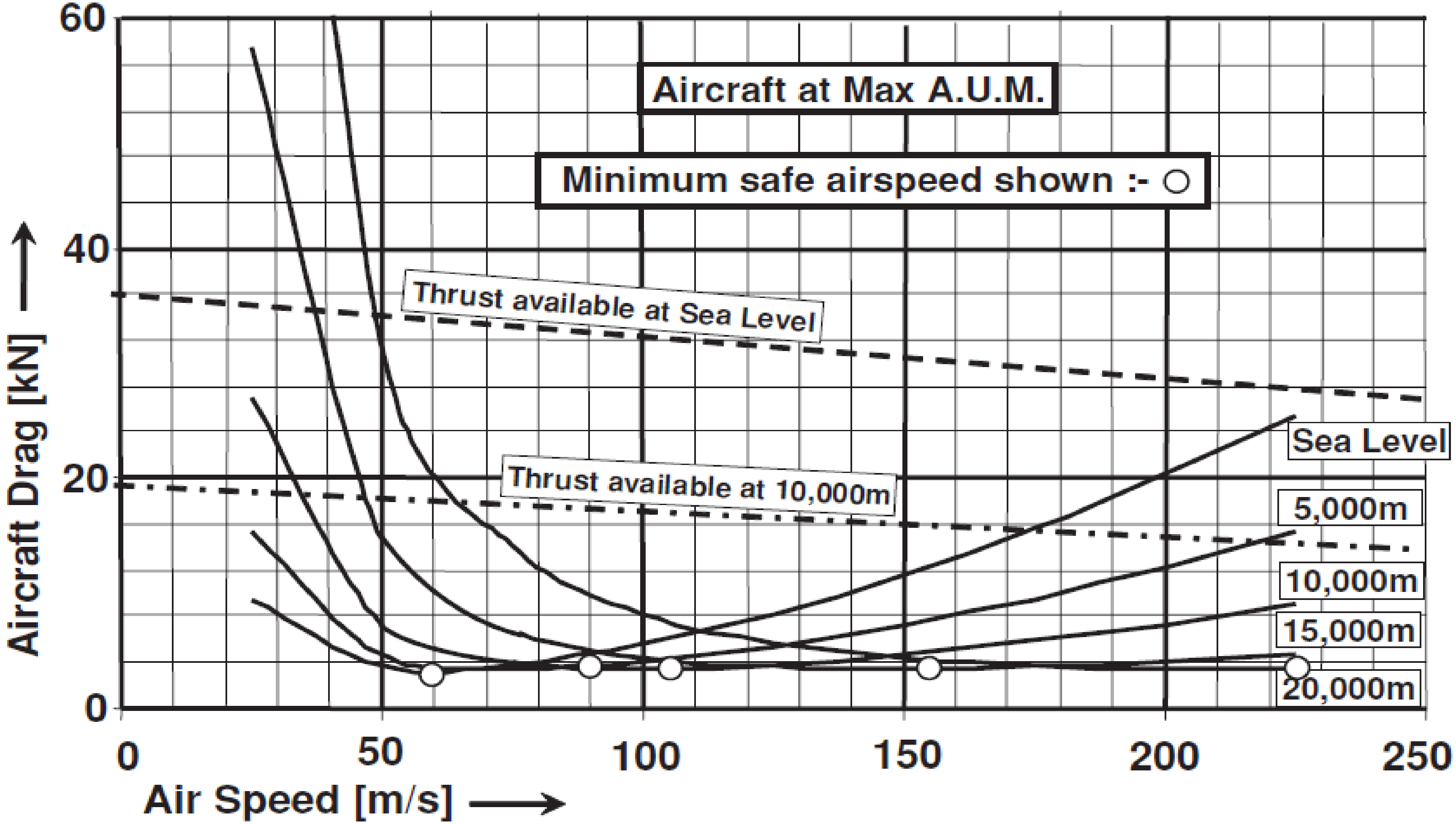


Figure 3.4:HALE UAV variation of aircraft drag with airspeed and altitude (ISA)

Performance of HALE UAV

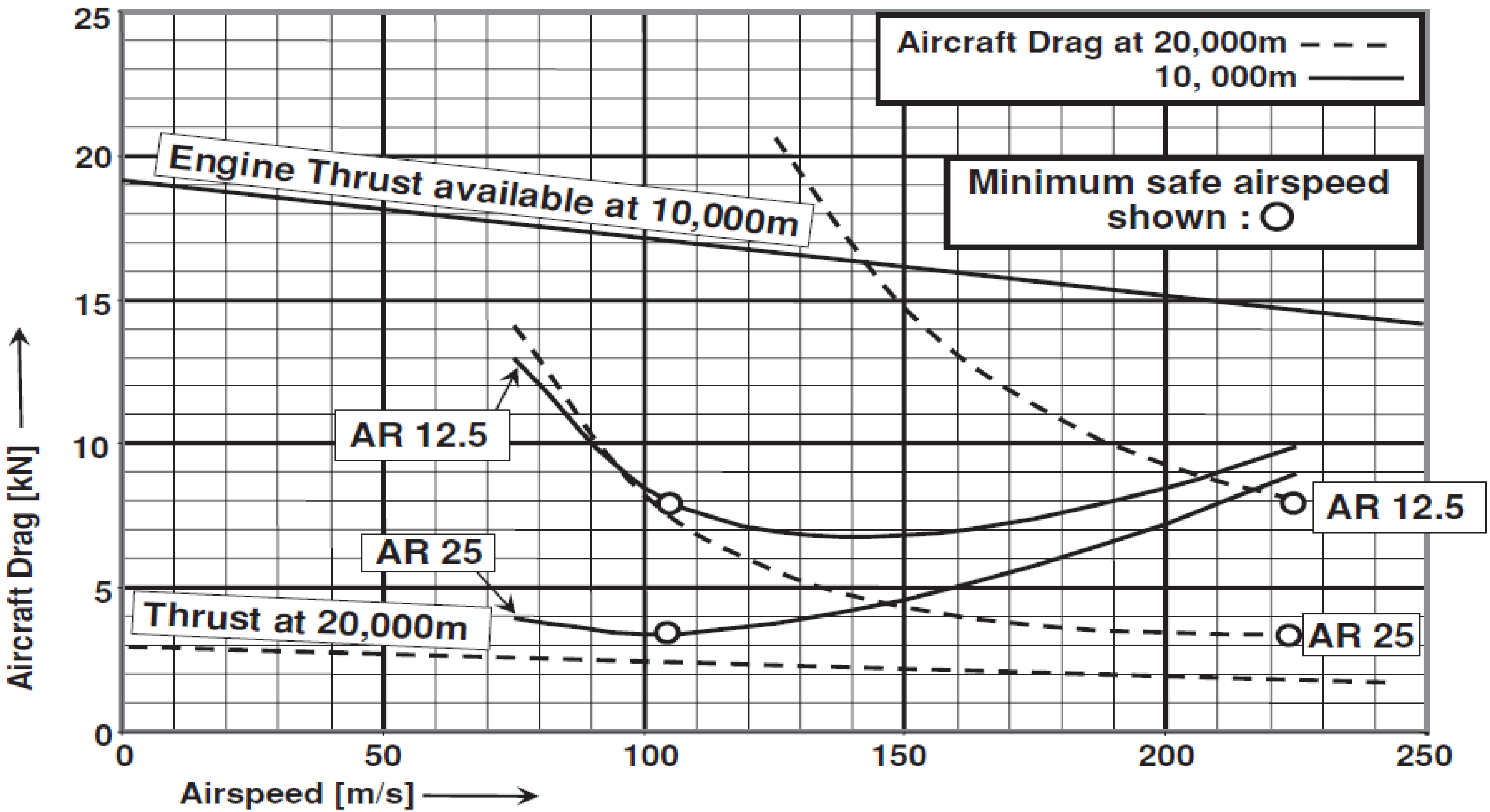


Figure 3.5: HALE UAV: effect of wing aspect ratio on aircraft drag at high altitudes (aircraft at gross mass)

Performance of HALE UAV

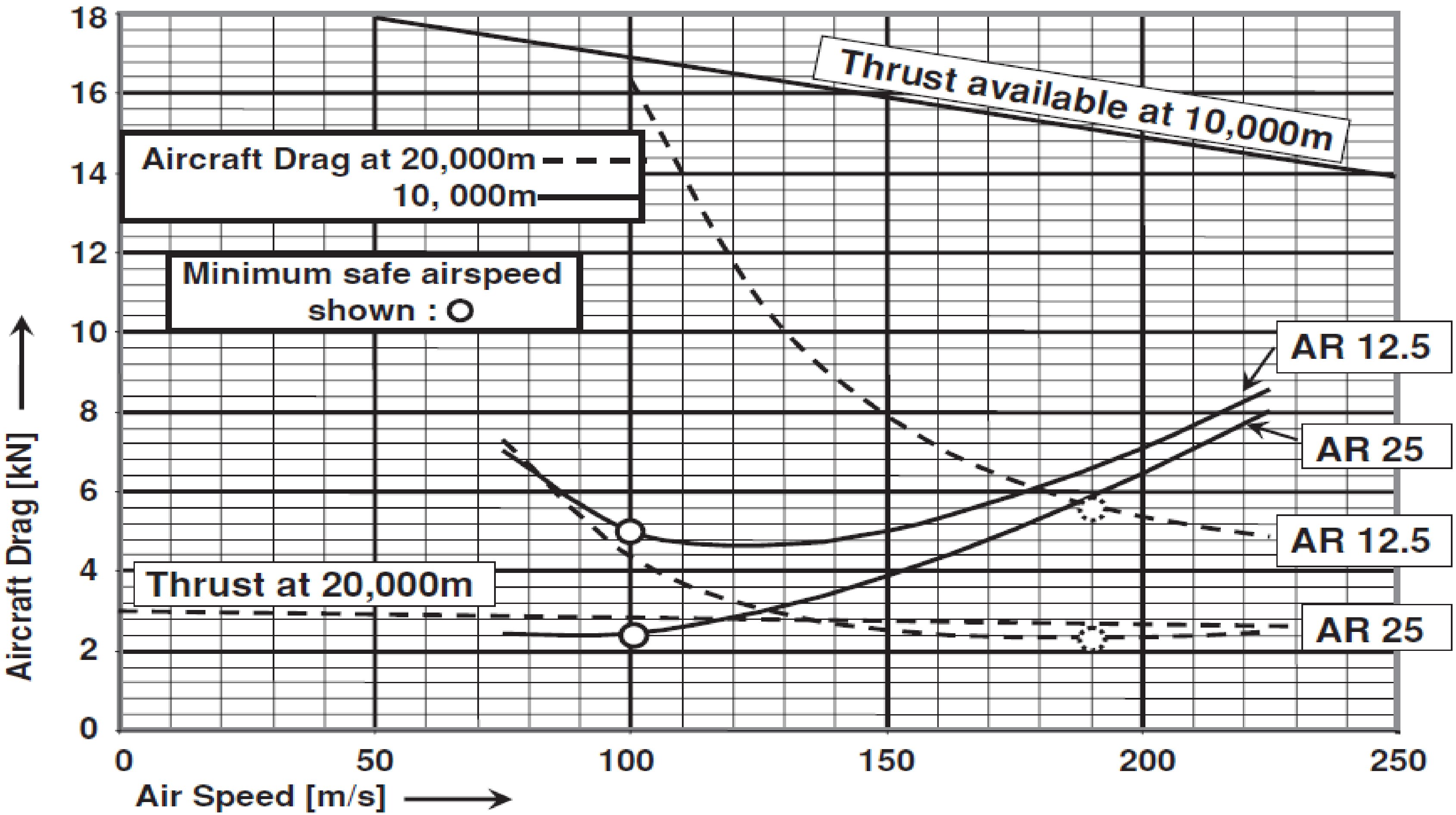


Figure 3.6: HALE UAV: effect of wing aspect ratio on aircraft drag at high altitudes (aircraft mass with half fuel)

Performance of HALE UAV

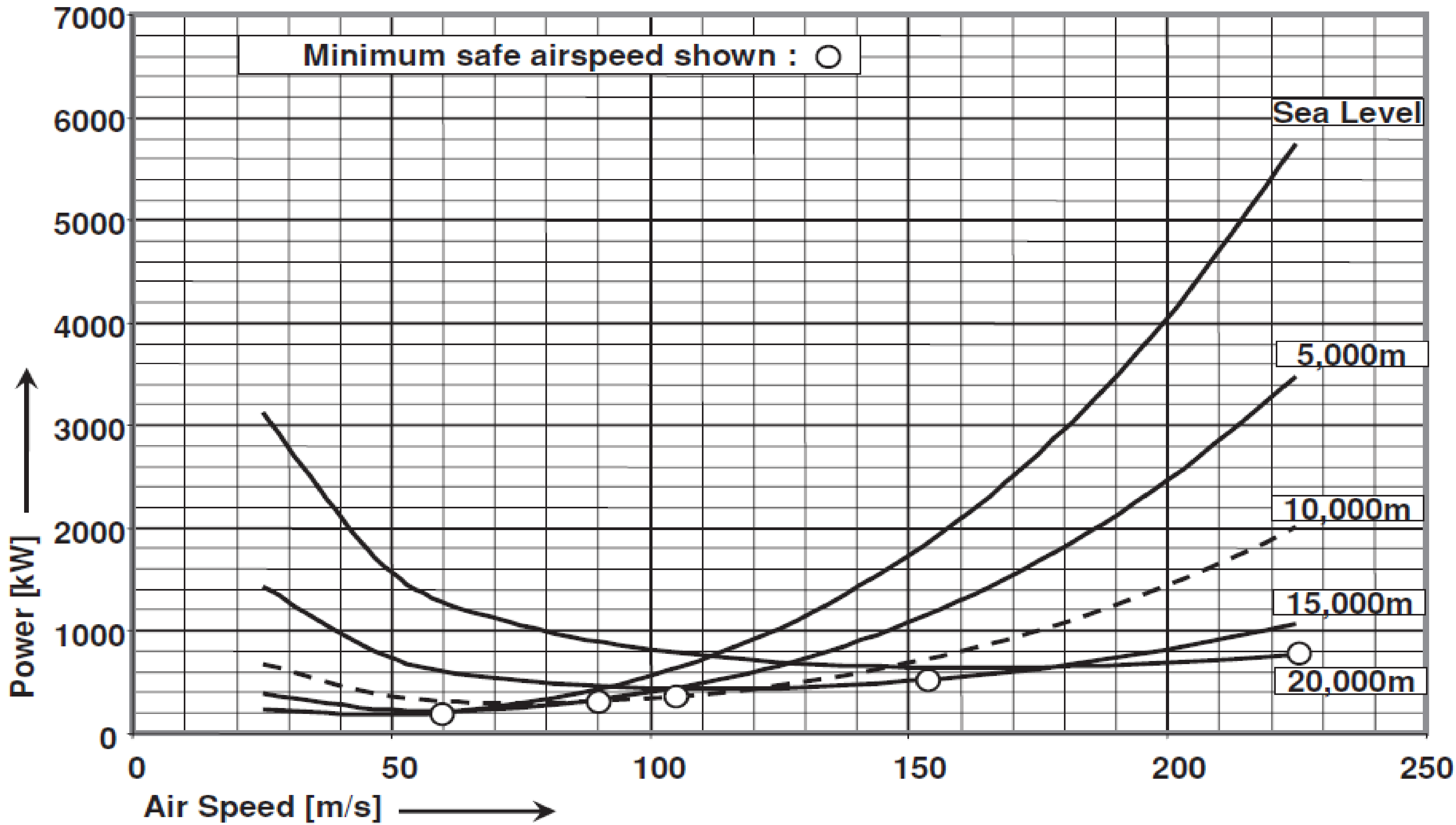


Figure 3.7: HALE UAV: power required to maintain height. Variation with airspeed and altitude – 114 kN AUW, ISA conditions

Medium-range, Tactical Aircraft

Medium-range, Tactical Aircraft

There is a plethora of different types
in **operation** and ***under development***

in both **fixed-wing** and **rotary wing configurations**, and

these are part of systems principally conducting **reconnaissance** and **artillery fire control duties**

Medium-range, Tactical Aircraft

- The **fixed-wing aircraft** in this category generally have **wheeled undercarriages** to take off from, and land onto, runways or airstrips, sometimes with **rocket assistance** for take-off and with **arrester-wires** to reduce landing run distance.
  Exceptionally the Ranger, has the option, of a **ramp-assisted take-off**.

- VTOL aircraft in this category are often designed for off-board ship operation and this includes operations such as **fleet shadowing** and **mine detection and destruction**.

- The distinction between **medium-range tactical systems and MALE systems**, however, is becoming **increasingly blurred**.

Medium-range, Tactical Aircraft

- It is a known fact in the aeronautical world that an aircraft does not achieve its ultimate efficiency until it has been in service for a while and been ‘stretched’.

- The aircraft, which began life with a medium-range capability, may soon become extended in service ceiling and in endurance, assisted by improved communications, to move towards MALE performance.

- An example is the Hunter series of UAV.

Fixed-wing Aircraft

Typical of these are:

a) the **Hunter RQ-5A UAV** by IAI, Malat and Northrop Grumman, USA;

b) the **Seeker II UAV** by Denel Aerospace Systems, South Africa;

c) the **Ranger UAV** by RUAG Aerospace, Switzerland;

d) the **Shadow 600 UAV** by AAI Corp., USA.

Fixed-wing Aircraft

The majority of medium-range aircraft, as in the representative types discussed here, use an airframe configuration with the **surveillance payload in the nose of the fuselage**, or in a '**ball-turret**' beneath the forward fuselage, **balanced by a power-plant** with a pusher propeller at the rear. The **fuel tank is mounted, near the centre of mass, between the two**. The tail surfaces, for aerodynamic stabilization and control, are mounted on twin tail-booms.

Hunter RQ5A

Figure 3.8 : Hunter RQ5A UAV

Hunter RQ5A

Figure 3.9 : Hunter RQ5A UAV

Hunter RQ5A

Figure 3.10: Hunter RQ5A UAV , by IAI-Israel Aerospace Industries.

Hunter RQ5A

IAI Malat – Hunter Heavy Tactical

All-Up-Mass		885kg
Power (Heavy Fuel)		2 x 50kW
Speed		200km/hr
Radius of Action		250km
Flight Endurance		21hr
Payload	Mass	100kg

Optical & IR TV combined
SAR, COMINT & ESM
Comms. Relay, NBC Monitor
Customer-furnished payloads

Figure 3.11: Technical details of Hunter RQ5A UAV.

SEEKER-II (Denel Dynamics/Aerospace)

Figure3.12 : SEEKER-II by Denel Aerospace

SEEKER-II (Denel Dynamics/Aerospace)

Figure 3.13: SEEKER-II by Denel Dynamics, South Africa

SEEKER-II (Denel Dynamics/Aerospace)

Figure 3.14 : SEEKER-II by Denel Dynamics, South Africa

SEEKER-II (Denel Dynamics/Aerospace)

Denel Aerospace - Seeker II

All-Up-Mass		275kg
Power		38kW
Speed		220km/hr
Radius of Action		250km
Flight Endurance		10hr
Payload	Mass	50kg
		Optical & IR TV
		Electronic Surveillance

Figure 3.15 : SEEKER-II by Denel Dynamics, South Africa

RANGER (by RUAG)

Figure 3.16: Ranger UAV by RUAG, Switzerland
(SWIS-ISREAL Joint Venture)

RANGER (RUAG)

Figure 3.17 : Ranger UAV by RUAG, Switzerland , uses hydraulic launcher

RANGER (RUAG)

Figure 3.18: Ranger UAV by RUAG, Switzerland

RANGER (RUAG)

RUAG Ranger

All-Up-Mass	285kg
Power	31.5kW
Speed	240km/hr
Radius of Action	180km
Flight Endurance	9hr
Payload	Mass 45kg Optical & IR TV Laser Target Designator

Figure 3.19: Ranger UAV by RUAG, Switzerland

SHADOW 600 (by AAI/TEXTRON)

Figure 3.20 : Shadow 600 UAV by AAI- American Armaments .Inc., US

SHADOW 600 (by TEXTRON)

Figure 3.21 : Shadow 600 UAV by Textron, US

SHADOW 600 (by TEXTRON)

Figure 3.22 : Shadow 600 UAV by Textron, US

SHADOW 600 (by TEXTRON)

AAI Shadow 600

All-Up-Mass		266kg
Power		39kW
Speed		190km/hr
Radius of Action		200km
Flight Endurance		14hr
Payload	Mass	41kg
	Optical & IR TV	
	Customer Specified	

Figure 3.23 : Shadow 600 UAV by Textron, US

Medium-range, Tactical Fixed Wing Aircrafts

Data \ UAV Type	Hunter RQ-5A	Seeker II	Ranger	Shadow
AUM [kg]	885	275	285	266
Wing Span [m] Rotor Diam. [m]	10.5	7.0	5.71	6.83
Wing Aspect Ratio	7.7	6.35	8.5	10.29
Wing Area [m^2] Disc Area [m^2]	14.28	7.7	8.5	4.5
Span Loading [N/m] Disc Loading [N/m^2]	827	385	472	382
Wing Loading [N/m^2] Blade Loading [N/m^2]	608	350	317	580
Installed Power [kW]	2 x 50	38	31.5	39
Power Loading [N/kW]	87	71	85.6	66.9
Cruise Speed [km/hr]	202	220	240	190
Loiter Speed [km/hr]	140#	115#	128	140
Flight Endurance [hr]	21	10	9	14
Radius of Action [km]	250	?	180	200

Figure 3.24 : Medium-range, Tactical Fixed Wing Aircrafts

VTOL (Rotary-winged) Aircraft

Until the current millennium, relatively little development of VTOL UAV systems took place. This may be thought surprising in view of the advantages that VTOL systems bring to the medium-range and, especially, close-range operations.

Perhaps this was because there are far fewer organisations having experience of rotorcraft technology than those with fixed-wing experience, especially within the smaller organisations from where most UAV systems originated.

VTOL (Rotary-winged) Aircraft

In the medium-range category these are represented by:

a) The Northrop-Grumman **Firescout**, which utilises the dynamic components from a four-seat passenger helicopter within a new airframe.

b) The **Schiebel Camcopter**, which is an aircraft specifically designed as a UAV.

c) The **Textron-Bell Sea Eagle**, tilt-rotor aircraft, which uses the technology from military and civilian passenger aircraft in the design of a smaller UAV aircraft.

d) The Beijing **Seagull** – a coaxial rotor helicopter a little larger than the Camcopter.

Northrop Grumman Fire scout

Figure 3.25 : Northrop Grumman Fire scout

Northrop Grumman Fire scout

Figure 3.26 : Northrop Grumman Fire scout

Northrop Grumman Firescout

AUM		1,432kg
Rotor Diameter		8.36m
Power		315kW
Speed		220km/hr
Radius of Action		275km
Flight Endurance		6hr
Payload	Mass	273kg
	Optical & IR TV	
	Laser Target Designator	
	Mine Detection System	

Figure 3.27 : Northrop Grumman Fire scout

Schiebel Camcopter S100

Figure 3.28 : Schiebel Camcopter S100

Schiebel Camcopter S100

Figure 3.29 : Schiebel Camcopter S100

Schiebel Camcopter S100

AUM	200kg
Rotor Diameter	3.39m
Power	30kW
Speed	220 km/hr
Radius of Action	150km
Flight Endurance	6hr
Optional Payloads Mass	50kg
	Optical & IR TV
	Synthetic Aperture Radar

Figure 3.30 : Technical details of Schiebel Camcopter S100

Beijing Seagull

Figure 3.31 : Beijing Seagull

Beijing Seagull

Figure 3.32 : Beijing Seagull

Beijing Seagull

AUM	300kg
Rotor Diameter	5.0m
Payload	70kg
Power	45kW
Speed	100km/hr
Radius of Action	?
Flight Endurance	4hr

Figure 3.33 : Technical details of Beijing Seagull

Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

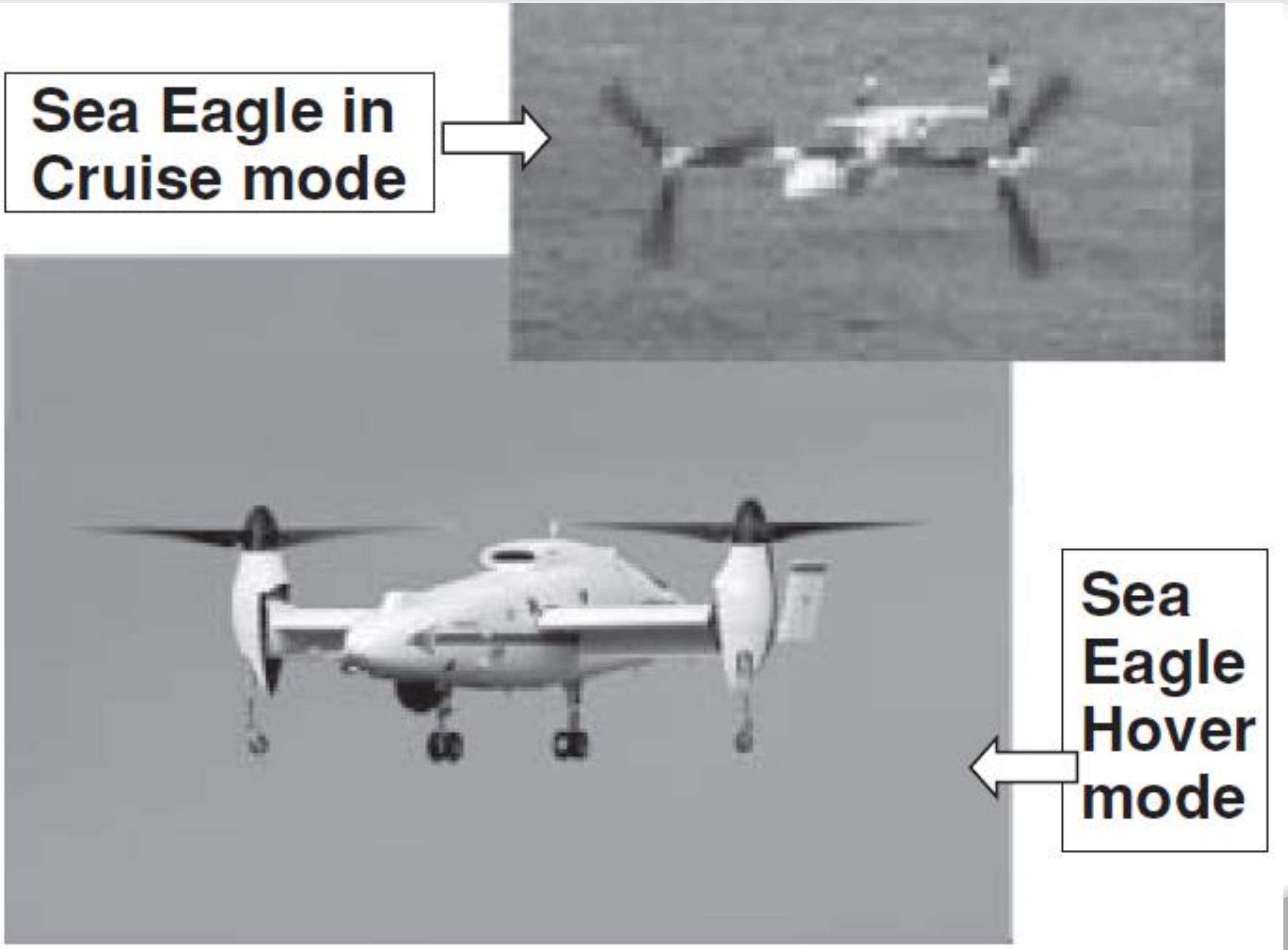


Figure 3.34 : Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

Figure 3.35 : Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

Figure 3.36 : Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

AUM	1,023kg
Rotor Diameter (2)	2.90m
Payload	230kg
Power	480kW
Speed	400km/hr
Radius of Action	200km
Flight Endurance	8hr

Figure 3.37 : Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

VTOL (Rotary-winged) Aircraft

UAV Type / Data	Firescout	Sea-gull	Cam-copter	Sea Eagle
AUM [kg]	1,432	300	200	1,023
Wing Span [m] Rotor Diam. [m]	8.36	5.0	3.39	3.1 2x2.9
Wing Aspect Ratio				
Wing Area [m^2] Disc Area [m^2]	54.89	19.6	9.03	13.21
Span Loading [N/m] Disc Loading [N/m^2]	256	150	217	3,240 760
Wing Loading [N/m^2] Blade Loading [N/m^2]	?	?	?	?
Installed Power [kW]	315	45	30	480
Power Loading [N/kW]	44.6	65.4	65.4	20.9
Cruise Speed [km/hr]	220	100?	220	400
Loiter Speed [km/hr]	140#	60#	100#	140
Flight Endurance [hr]	6	4	6	8
Radius of Action [km]	275	?	150	200

Figure 3.38 : Bell Aerosystems Sea Eagle

VTOL (Rotary-winged) Aircraft

- The amount of engine power installed per unit of aircraft mass is similar for all the aircraft with piston engines, irrespective of their being HTOL or VTOL aircraft.

- The **gas-turbine-powered** aircraft, i.e. **Firescout** and **Sea Eagle** have more power installed, partly because both use a higher disc loading (especially in the case of the Sea Eagle) but also because the turbine engines deliver more power for their mass.

VTOL (Rotary-winged) Aircraft

- With the exception of the tilt-rotor Sea Eagle and the Seagull, ***all types have a similar cruise speed of about 200 km/hr***. The Sea Eagle has twice the cruise speed of the others, as is expected and has power to match. The actual speed of the Seagull is not confirmed, but it may well be slower than the other aircraft since it is the only one which is configured to accommodate an optional single pilot, making it less compact and having greater aerodynamic drag than the more dedicated UAV.

- With the exception of the Ranger, ***all the HTOL aircraft offer longer flight endurance than the VTOL aircraft***. This may be due as much to the difference in their operating roles as to their fuel efficiencies.

Close-range/Battlefield Aircraft

VTOL (Rotary-winged) Aircraft

- This type of system with its **multitude of roles**, military, paramilitary and civilian, many of which are carried out **at low altitude** and require **a rapid response time**, probably poses the greatest challenge to the designer.

- **Flying at low altitudes** most frequently means that the **flight is in turbulent air**, yet a stable platform is necessary to maintain sensors accurately aligned with the ground targets.

VTOL (Rotary-winged) Aircraft

It is convenient to sub-divide this category into two sub-types.

a) those systems which use aircraft that depend upon additional equipment to enable their launch and/or recovery, i.e. non-VTOL;

b) those systems which use aircraft that have a VTOL capability

Pioneer three-view drawing

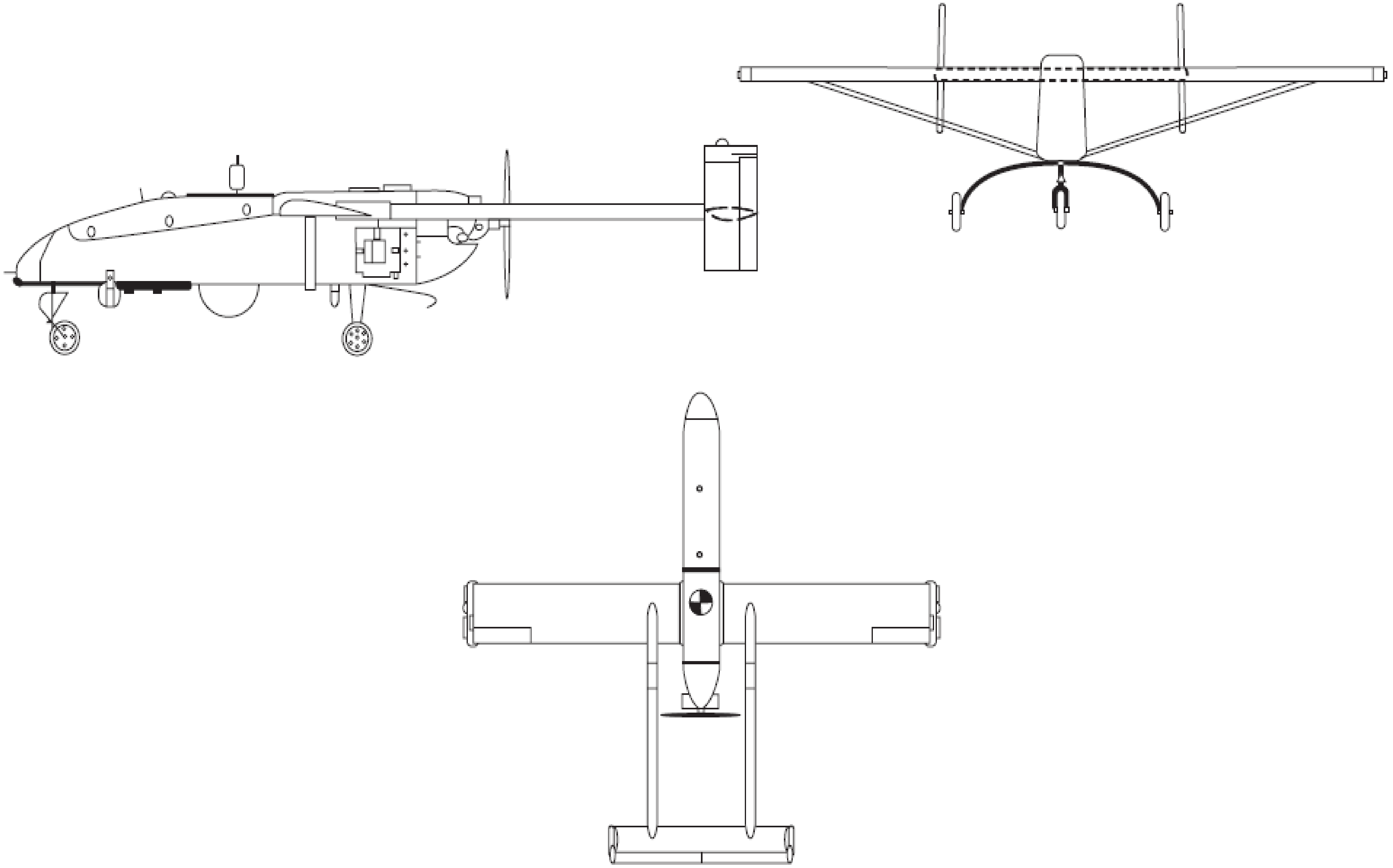


Figure 3.39 : Pioneer three-view drawing

Pioneer three-view drawing

General characteristics

Length: 4.3 m (14 ft)
Wingspan: 5.151 m (16 ft 10.8 in)
Height: 1.006 m (3 ft 3.6 in)
Airfoil: NACA 4415
Gross weight: 205 kg
Fuel capacity: 44 to 47 l (12 to 12 US gal.)
Powerplant: 1 × ZF Sachs 2-stroke 2-cylinder horizontally-opposed piston engine, 19 kW (26 hp) or UEL AR-741 rotary engine; 28.3 kW (38.0 hp)

Performance

Range: 185 km , Service ceiling: 4,600 m (15,100 ft)

Used in Persian Gulf War, 1991

Observer

Figure 3.40 : Pioneer three-view drawing

Observer

All-Up-Mass	36kg
Wing span	2.42m
Wing area	$1.73m^2$
Engine power	5.25kW
Wing loading	$184N/m^2$
Span loading	120N/m
Cruise speed	125km/hr
Loiter speed	110km/hr
Mission radius	25km
Endurance	2 hours

Figure 3.41 : Technical details of Observer

Observer

The Observer offers a simpler and more rugged airframe, tailored to improve its **spatial stability** in air turbulence by designing it, as far as is possible, **to have neutral aerodynamic stability** and stabilizing it electronically in space coordinates.

Phoenix

Figure 3.42 : Technical details of Observer

Phoenix

All-Up-Mass	177kg
Wing span	5.5m
Wing Area	$3.48m^2$
Engine power	19kW
Wing loading	$500N/m^2$
Span loading	316N/m
Cruise speed	158km/hr
Loiter speed	126km/hr
Mission Radius	50km
Endurance	4 hours

Figure 3.43 : Technical details of Phoenix

Scan Eagle

Figure 3.44 : Scan Eagle

Scan-Eagle

All-Up-Mass	18kg
Wing span	3.10m
Wing area	0.62m^2
Engine power	(23cc) 1.1kW
Maximum speed	120km/hr
Cruise speed	90km/hr
Endurance	15 hours

Interchangeable payloads:-
Optical & IR video, Mini SAR

Figure 3.45 : Technical details of Scan Eagle

Scan Eagle

- The Scan Eagle system uses an innovative sky-hook recovery method, but this adds a further vehicle and equipment to the system.

- The ‘flying wing’ configuration was presumably chosen in view of the demands of the recovery system as an empennage might have fouled the sky-hook

VTOL Aircraft Systems

ML Aviation SPRITE

Figure 3.46 : ML Aviation SPRITE

Sprite

All-Up-Mass	36kg
Rotor span	1.60m
Engine power	2 x 5.25kW
Maximum speed	126km/hr
Loiter speed	0 - 60km/hr
Max. Endurance	3 hours

Figure 3.47 : ML Aviation SPRITE

Sprite

- The Sprite aircraft is **designed to have neutral aerodynamic stability** and **relies upon the AFCS** to provide positive spatial stability. It has demonstrated extreme steadiness when operating in turbulent air.

- The Sprite UAV also offers **extremely low detectable signatures**.

Yamaha R Max

Figure 3.48 : ML Aviation SPRITE

Yamaha R Max

All-up-Mass	N/A
Rotor Diameter	3.13m
Engine Power	15.4 kW
Payload	Mass 7.4kg + 16kg Spray Equipment and Fluid

Figure 3.49 : Technical details of Yamaha R Max

Yamaha R Max

R Max was expressly ***designed for spraying crops*** with fluid. It can carry 30 kg of fluid and spray gear and is over 21/2 times the gross mass of Sprite. **It is not designed to be covert or to fly out to distances**, but to fly **efficiently at low speeds** over local fields. Therefore it uses a **large-diameter rotor with a lower disc loading than Sprite.**

EADS (France) SCORPIO 30

Figure 3.50 : EADS (France) SCORPIO 30

EADS (France) SCORPIO 30

All-up-Mass	38kg
Rotor Diameter	2.20m
Max Speed	50km/hr
Endurance	2hr.
Payload	Mass Unknown
	Optical and I.R. TV

Figure 3.51 : Technical details of EADS (France) SCORPIO 30

Close-range UAV technical data

Data \ UAV Type	Pioneer	Phoenix	Obser-ver	Scan Eagle	Sprite A	Sprite B	R Max
AUM [kg]	203	209	36	18	36	36	?
Span / Diameter [m]	5.11	5.5	2.42	3.10	1.60	1.60	3.11
Wing area [m^2] Blade area [m^2]	3.05	3.48	1.73	0.62	0.2	0.2	?
Wing Loading [N/m^2] Blade Loading [N/m^2]	653	589	204	285	1766	1766	?
Span Loading {N/m] Disc Loading [N/m^2]	390	373	146	57	176	176	121
Installed Power [kW]	20	19	5.25	1.1	5.25x2	5.25x2	15.4
Power Loading [N/kW]	100	108	67.3	160	67.3**	67.3**	59.9
Take-off speed [km/hr]	127*	110*	65*	80*	(Blade 324)	(Blade 324)	?
Take-off C_L	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.5	0.5	?
Max. Speed [km/hr]	158	158	130	120	126	216*	?
Max Endurance Speed Max Range Speed [km/hr]	130* 150*	? ?	72* 85*	? ?	72 108	100* 153*	? ?

* Estimated ** Power restricted to one engine only

Figure 3.52 : Close-range UAV technical data

Close range UAVL: power/speed comparison

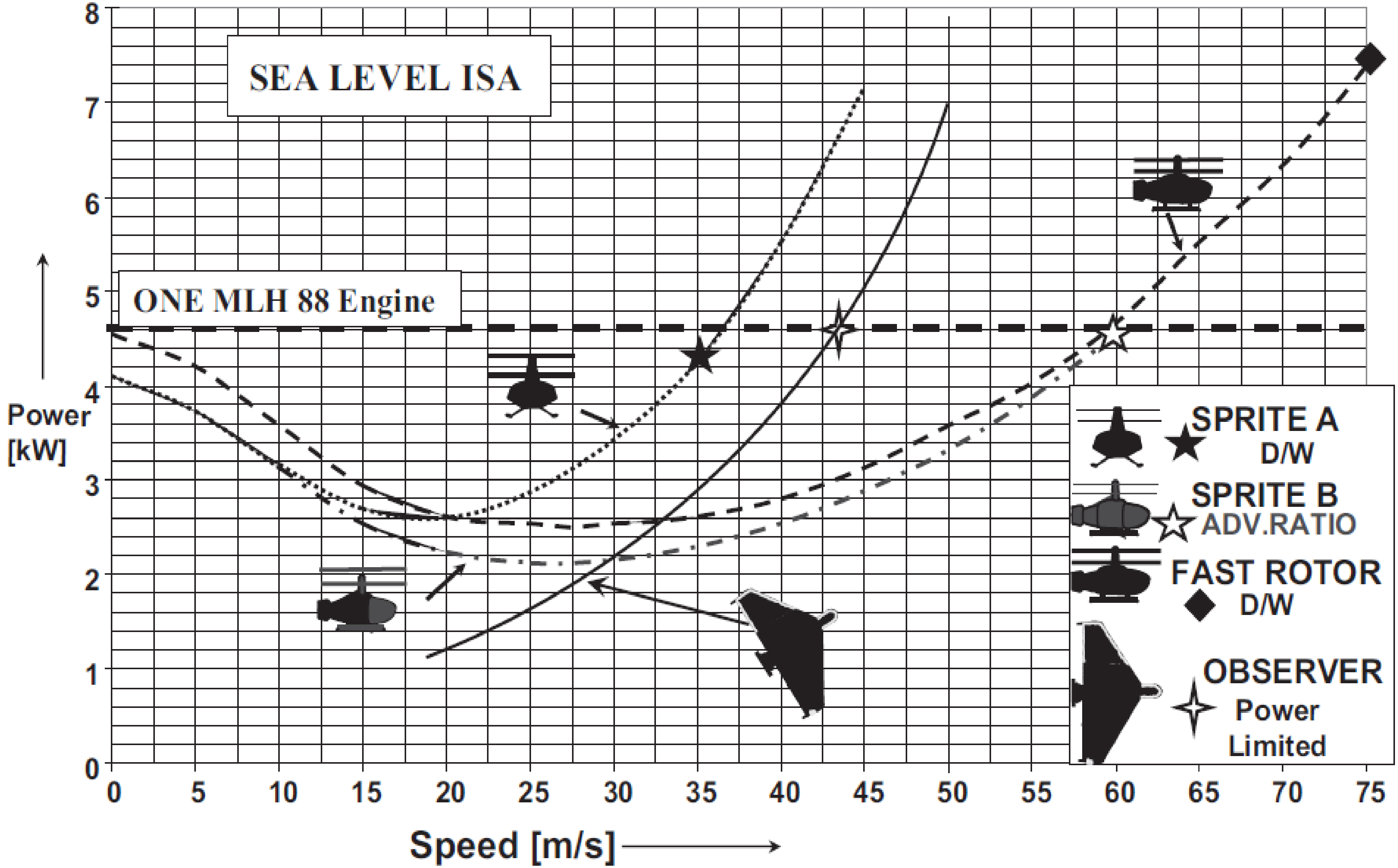


Figure 3.53 : Close range UAVL: power/speed comparison

Close range UAV Comparison

Sub-system	RL aircraft	VTOL aircraft
Airframe plus rotors	1	1
Parachute and airbag	1	0
Undercarriage	0	$^1/_2$
AFCS and actuators	1	1
Communications	1	1
Power-plant(s) and electrics	$^1/_2$	1
Transmission	0	1
Payload	1–3	1–3
Launch ramp on vehicle	2	0
Control Station	5	5
System cost with 1 UAV	$12^1/_2$–$14^1/_2$	$11^1/_2$–$13^1/_2$
System cost with 2 UAV	$17^1/_2$–$19^1/_2$	$17^1/_2$–$19^1/_2$

Figure 3.53 : Close range UAV Comparison

UNIT – IV

COMMUNICATIONS NAVIGATION

Communication Media

The communication between the GCS and aircraft and between the aircraft and GCS may be achieved by three different media: by radio, by fibre optics or by laser beam. All are required to transmit data at an adequate rate, reliably and securely. All have been attempted.

By Laser

The laser method seems currently to have been abandoned, principally because of atmospheric absorption limiting the range and reducing reliability.

By Fibre-optics

Data transmission by fibre-optics remains a possibility for special roles which require flight at low altitude, high data rate transmission and high security from detection and data interception. Such a role might be detection and measurement of nuclear, biological or chemical (NBC) contamination on a battlefield ahead of an infantry attack.

By Fibre-optics

The fibre would be expected to be housed in a spool mounted in the UAV – not in the ground control station (GCS). This is because it must be laid down onto the ground rather than being dragged over it, when it might
be caught on obstacles and severed. The method is probably better suited to VTOL UAV operation, and necessarily limited in range to a few kilometres. Data would be transmitted securely back to the GCS and at the completion of the mission the fibre would be severed from the UAV which would climb and return automatically to the GCS. Such a system was simulated, designed and partly constructed in 1990, under US Army contract, for the Sprite UAV system.

By Radio

Currently, the only system known to be operative is communication by radio between the UAV and its controller, directly or via satellites or other means of radio relay.

Radio Communication

The regulation of UAS, including radio communication, is effected in the USA by the FAA which is advised by the Radio Technical Commission for Aeronautics (RTCA). In Europe EASA is the overall regulating authority, and it delegates various aspects of regulation in the UK to CAA which again is advised by OFCOM, the authority within the UK for the allocation of radio frequency.

Radio Frequencies

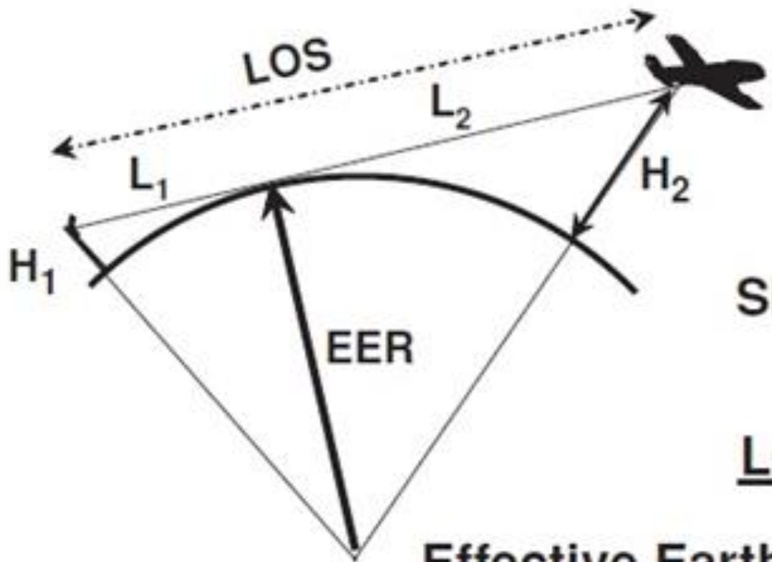
Electromagnetic waves generally considered usable as radio carriers lie below the infrared spectrum in the range of 300 GHz down to about 3 Hz (Table 4.1 and see Figure 4.4). Frequencies in the range 3 Hz (extremely low frequency, ELF) to 3 GHz (ultra-high frequency, UHF) are generally considered to be the true radio frequencies as they are refracted in the lower atmosphere to curve to some degree around the earth's circumference, increasing the effective earth radius (EER) by up to 4/3. Frequencies above this range, 3–300 GHz (super-high frequency, SHF and extremely high frequency, EHF) are known as microwave frequencies and, though they may be used to carry radio and radar signals, they are not refracted and therefore operate only line-of-sight.

Radio frequency spectra

Band Name (Frequency)	Abbr.	ITU Band	Frequency	Wave Length	Typical Uses
Extremely Low	ELF	1	3-30Hz	100,000km-10,000km	Submarine Communications
Super Low	SLF	2	30-300Hz	10000 - 1000km	Submarine Communications
Ultra Low	ULF	3	300-3000Hz	1000 -100km	Comm. in mines
Very Low	VLF	4	3-30kHz	100-10km	Heart Monitors
Low	LF	5	30-300kHz	10km-1km	AM Broadcast
Medium	MF	6	300-3000kHz	1km-100m	AM Broadcast
High	HF	7	3-30MHz	100m -10m	Amateur Radio
Very High	VHF	8	30-300MHz	10m-1m	TV Broadcast
Ultra High	UHF	9	300-3000MHz	1m-100mm	TV, phones, air to air comm. 2-way radios
Super High	SHF	10	3-30GHz *	100-10mm	Radars, LAN *
Extremely High	EHF	11	30-300GHz *	10mm-1mm	Astronomy *

Figure.4.1. Radio frequency spectra

Radio LOS derivation



$$L_1^2 = (EER + H_1)^2 - EER^2$$

$$L_1 = \sqrt{[(2 \times EER \times H_1) + H_1^2]}$$

Similarly,

$$L_2 = \sqrt{[(2 \times EER \times H_2) + H_2^2]}$$

$$\underline{LOS = L_1 + L_2}$$

Effective Earth Radius (EER) may be taken as 8,500km for typical radio frequencies.

$$\text{LOS Range} = \sqrt{[(2 \times EER \times H_1) + H_1^2]} + \sqrt{[(2 \times EER \times H_2) + H_2^2]}$$

where H1 and H2 represent the heights of the radio antenna and air vehicle respectively.

Figure 4.2: Radio LOS derivation

Radio line-of-sight

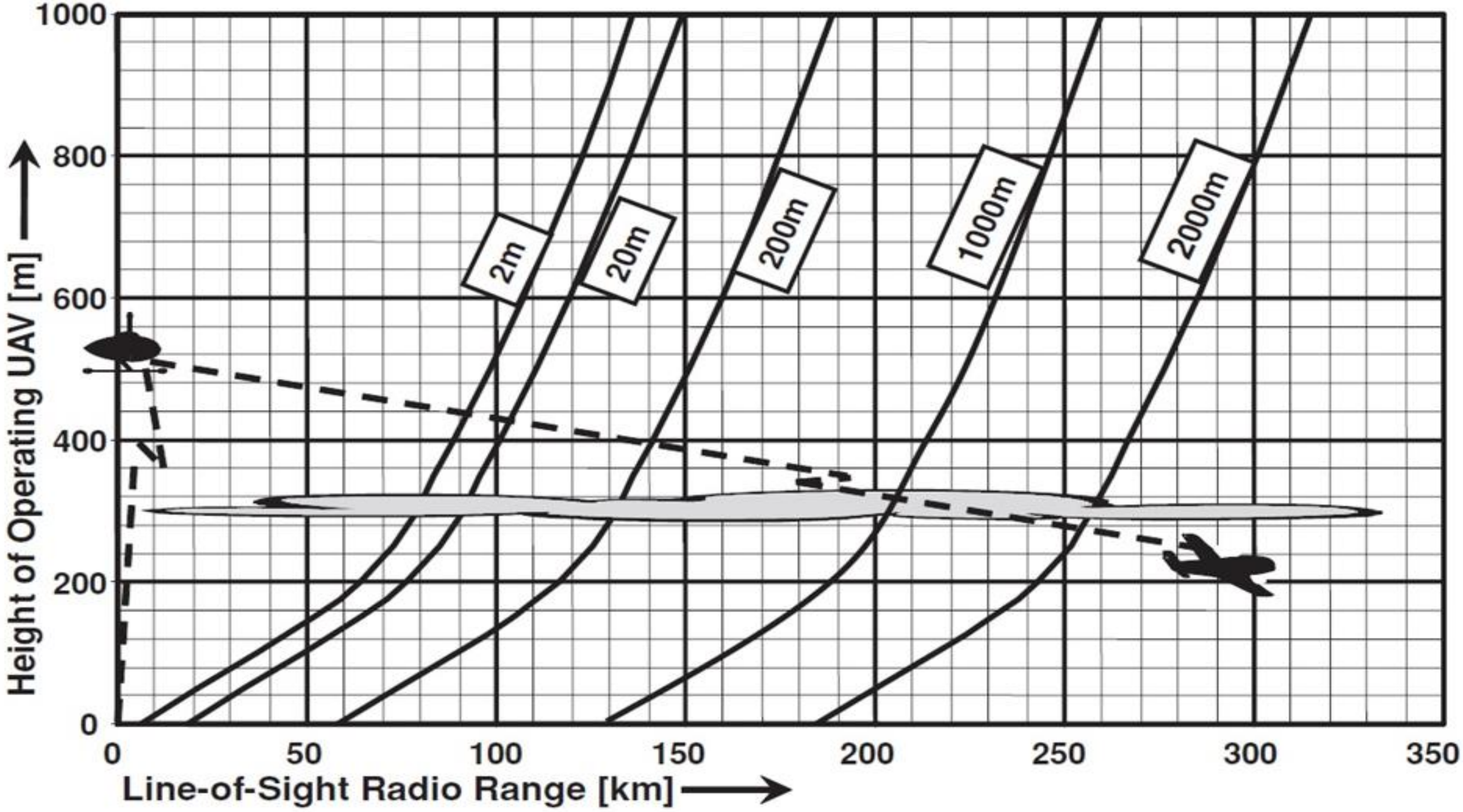


Figure 4.3: Radio line-of-sight

Radio Frequency Band Designations

There are at least three systems in use to designate frequency bands

a) The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) designations, cover the wide spectrum from extremely low frequencies from 3Hz up to the microwave bands.

b) The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineering (IEEE) designations were the original band ranges developed in World War 2, but do not cover the lower radio ranges below HF.

c) The NATO and EU Designations are the more recent series, but do not cover the VHF and HF radio frequencies;

Radio/Microwave Frequency Allocation

The international forum for worldwide agreement on the use of the radio spectrum and satellite orbits is the World Radio communication Conference (WRC). It is organised every two or three years by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) of the United Nations Organization. The conference seeks to make the most efficient use of the radio spectrum and to regulate access to it internationally, taking account of emerging radio communication needs arising from technological, economic, industrial and other developments.

Radio frequency band designation

IEEE		EU, NATO, US ECM.	
BAND	FREQUENCY RANGE	BAND	FREQUENCY RANGE
HF	3 to 30MHz	A	0 to 0.25GHz
VHF	30 to 3MHz	B	0.25 to 0.5GHZ
UHF	0.3 to 1.0GHz	C	0.5 to 1.0GHz
L	1 to 2GHz	D	1 to 2GHz
S	2 to 4GHz	E	2 to 3GHz
C	4 to 8GHz	F	3 to 4GHz
X	8 to 12GHz	G	4 to 6GHz
K_U	12 to 18GHz	H	6 to 8GHz
K	18 to 26GHz	I	8 to 10GHz
K_A	26 to 40GHz	J	10 to 20GHz
V	40 to 75GHz	K	20 to 40GHz
W	75 to 111GHz	L	40 to 60GHz
		M	60 to 100GHz

Figure 4.4. Radio frequency band designation

Radio frequency band designation

- With increasing demand for access to the radio spectrum for commercial, scientific development and other purposes, the conference is attended by telecommunication providers, TV and radio broadcasting and equipment industries.

- It is equally attended by the military, as defence capabilities are largely dependent on the provision of sufficient frequencies. In the Frequency Management Sub-committee allow NATO member states to adopt common positions on each agenda item affecting the military, in order to protect Alliance interests in the use of the radio spectrum for military purposes.

Radio Range Limited by Power

Having established the radio range, as limited by LOS, and available frequencies for the UAV system, the successful operation of the UAV communication system will depend upon the integration of the various components of the system to supply adequate RF energy to achieve the required range. For this, the system designer will take into account the following factors:

1) Transmitter power output and receiver sensitivity.

Line losses – a loss of power will result from the escape of energy through imperfect shielding of the coaxial cables and imperfect line-couplers as the RF energy is sent to and from the antennae.

Radio Range Limited by Power

2) Antenna gain – antennae can be constructed to focus the RF energy in a specific plane or pattern to produce an effective gain in a particular direction, thus maximizing the range obtained with a given power output.

Depending upon the application, an omnidirectional or a unidirectional, antenna, such as a Yagi or a narrow beam parabolic dish antenna may be appropriate. Antenna design is a very specialist technology, and antennae are best acquired from specialist companies following detailed discussion of the system requirements and options

Radio Range Limited by Power

3) Path loss – this is the loss of power that occurs to the signal as it propagates through free space from the transmitter to the receiver. The calculation of the path loss must take into account: the distance that the radio wave travels; the operating frequency since the higher frequencies suffer a greater loss than the lower frequencies; and the height of the transmitting and receiving antennae if either is close to the ground.

Multi-path Propagation

Another problem that may occur is known as ‘multi-path propagation’ whereby two signals displaced in time by microseconds are received at the image display, causing blurring of the image. This may occur, for example, if the transmission is reflected off nearby obstacles. Either very narrow beam transmission or very sophisticated processing is needed to overcome this problem.

Radio Tracking

- One of several means of navigating a UAV is by tracking it by radio. This requires the UAV to be fitted with a transponder which will receive, amplify and return a signal from the control or tracking station or to have the UAV down-link transmit a suitable pulsed signal.

- The control station transmit/receive antennae would, in fact, consist of two parallel-mounted off-set directional antennae. A signal processing system then detects whether the signals received by the two antennae are in or out of phase, and command the rotation of the antenna system to bring their signals into phase.

Loss of Communication Link Between Control Station and UAV

- The antenna systems of both the CS and the UAV may be capable of scanning in azimuth and/or elevation as appropriate. Thus, following loss of link, and depending upon the transmitted beam-width of each, one would scan for the other, both knowing the last recorded position of the other.

- In the event that contact was not resumed after a given programmed time, the UAV may be programmed to return to base and, if necessary, recovered using a stand-by short-distance omnidirectional VHF link, especially if the loss was due to failure of the CS primary transmission.

Vulnerability

- There are two ways in which a UAV system may be vulnerable. One is that an enemy detection of the signal from either UAV or CS will warn that enemy of the presence of the system. At the least this will eliminate the element of surprise and alert the enemy to the possibility of an impending attack.

- It may also lead to countermeasures and the destruction of the UAV and/or the CS. The other is that radio transmission between the CS and the UAV may be subject to inadvertent or intentional jamming of
- the signal.

Vulnerability

The risk of the former may be reduced by the use of very narrow beam transmissions and/or the use of automatic or autonomous systems whereby the transmission is only used in occasional short bursts of radio communication Signals beamed downwards are at more risk than those beamed upwards unless a sophisticated airborne detection system patrols over the area.

This is unlikely unless the confrontation is with a very sophisticated enemy and then the airborne patrol would be extremely vulnerable to countermeasures.

Vulnerability

The latter risk may be reduced by three types of anti-jam (AJ) measures:

a) high transmitter power,
b) antenna gain/narrow beam-width,
c) processor gain.

(a) Using high power transmission to out-power a dedicated jammer system in a contest is not very practical, especially for the UAV down-link which will be limited by weight, size and electrical power available.

Vulnerability

b) For higher frequency, LOS links, the available transmitter power can be concentrated into a narrow beam using a suitable antenna This requires the antennae on both CS and UAV to be steerable for the beam to be maintained directed at the receiver. A high gain obtained through use of very narrow beams will require the CS and UAV to know the position of each other very accurately in three dimensions.

Multi-agent Communication and Interoperability

- So far we have considered only one-to-one communication, i.e. that between one CS and one UAV, which is sometimes known as 'stove-pipe' operation.

- This arrangement will often be the case for military operation and also may be the situation for some civilian applications.

- Such operations may employ a number of interoperable systems and give rise to the term 'system of systems' (SoS).

Interoperable systems

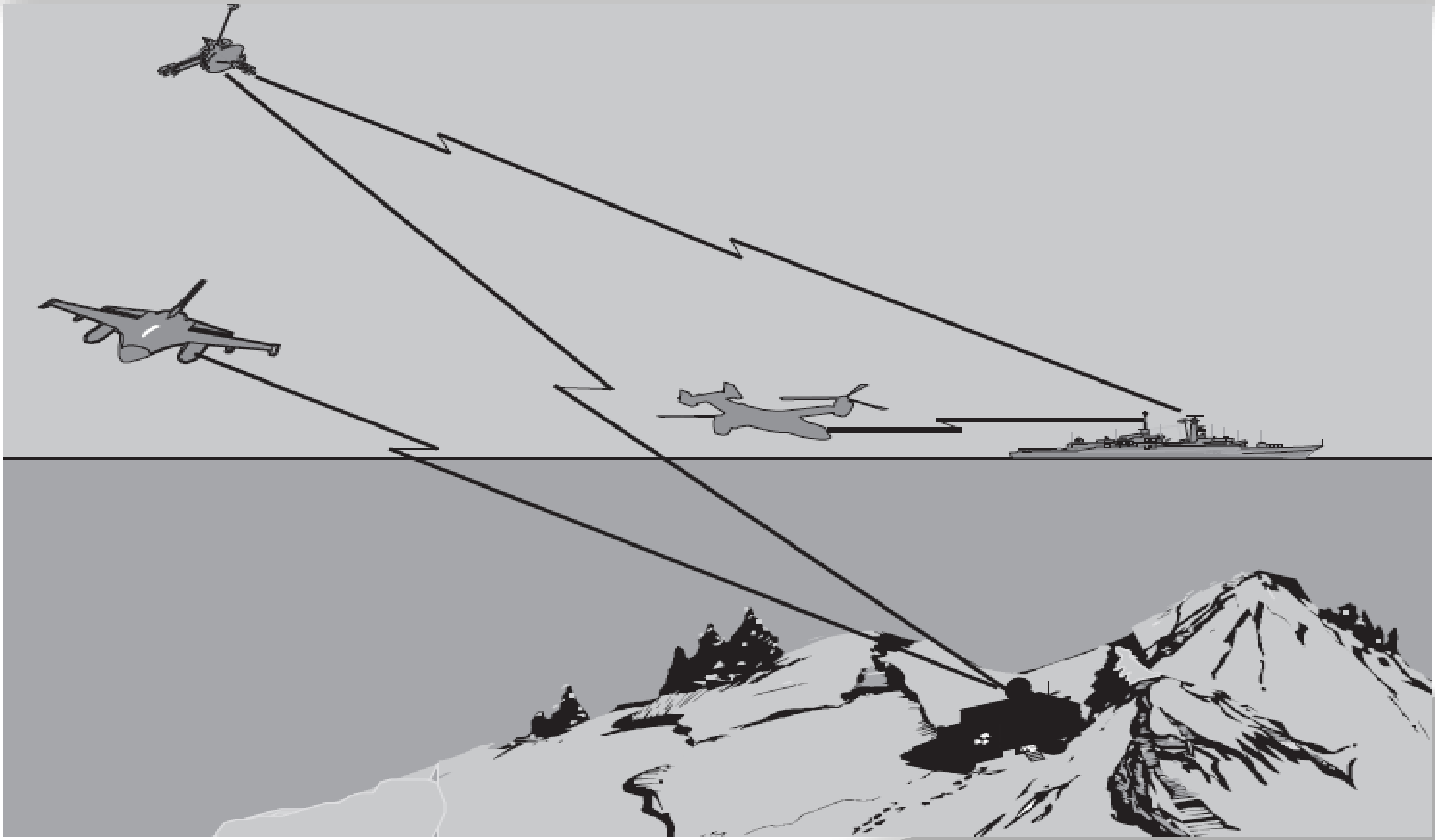


Figure 4.5. Interoperable systems

Interoperable systems

- NATO recognised the need to ensure interoperability between the forces of its member nations and recommended that a UAV control station Standardisation Agreement (STANAG) be set up to achieve this.

- The outcome was NATO STANAG 4586, 'UAS Control System Architecture', which document was developed as an interface control definition (ICD). This defines a number of common data elements for two primary system interfaces.

Interoperable systems

- These are the command and control interface (CCI) between the UAS control station (UCS) and the other systems within the network, and the data-link interface (DLI) between the UCS and the UAV(s).

- STANAG 4586 defines five levels of interoperability between UAS of different origins within NATO. These vary from 100% interoperability whereby one nation's UCS can fully control another's UAV including its payload, down to being limited merely to the receipt of another's payload data.

Mid-air Collision (MAC) Avoidance

- Another issue which is, in effect, a communications issue is the avoidance of mid-air collisions between UAV and other aircraft in the event that UAV are allowed to operate in unrestricted airspace.

- Manned aircraft currently operating are required to carry an avionic system known as the Traffic Alert and Collision Avoidance System (TCAS) if the gross mass of the aircraft exceeds 5700 kg or it is authorized to carry more than 19 passengers.

Communications Data Rate and Bandwidth Usage

- There is concern that military UAS are currently consuming large amounts of communication bandwidth. If the hopes of introducing more civilian systems into operation are to be realised, then the situation may be exacerbated.

- There is a need for the technology, such as bandwidth compression techniques, urgently to be developed to reduce the bandwidth required by UAS communication systems. Much of the work on autonomy for UAV is also driven by the need to reduce the time-critical dependency of communications and the bandwidth needed

Communications Data Rate and Bandwidth Usage

- A high-resolution TV camera or infrared imager will produce a data rate of order 75 megabytes per second. It is believed that with its several sensor systems, including the high-definition imaging sensors required to view potential targets from very high altitudes, a Global Hawk HALE UAS uses up to 500 megabytes per second

- shorter-range UAV operating at lower altitudes do not use such a huge amount of bandwidth, there is growing danger that radio interference between systems will limit the number of UAS operable in one theatre.

Antenna Types

Antennae of the same configuration are used both to transmit and to receive RF signals. Unless an omnidirectional antenna is used at the UAV, it will be necessary to mount the antenna(e) in a rotatable turret in order for LOS to be maintained between CS and UAV for all manoeuvres of the UAV.

In some cases it may be necessary to install the antenna(e) in more than one position on the UAV.

Antenna Types

The most usual types of antennae to be adopted for UAS are:

a) the quarter-wave vertical antenna,

b) the Yagi (or to give it the correct name,Yagi-Uda) antenna,

c) the parabolic dish antenna,

d) and less commonly, the lens antenna and the phased array rectangular microstrip or patch antenna.

Antenna Types

(a) The quarter-wavelength antenna erected vertically is vertically polarised and requires a receiving antenna to be similarly polarised or a significant loss of signal strength will result. This type of antenna is omnidirectional; that is it radiates at equal strength in all directions. Because of this, the received power rapidly reduces with distance. This type of antenna is used in RC model aircraft systems where the aircraft is always within sight of the operator. Their use in UAS will generally be limited to local launch and recovery operations where there is little risk of enemy jamming, and they have the advantage of not requiring the CS and UAV antennae to be rapidly steered to maintain contact in close-proximity manoeuvres.

Antenna Types

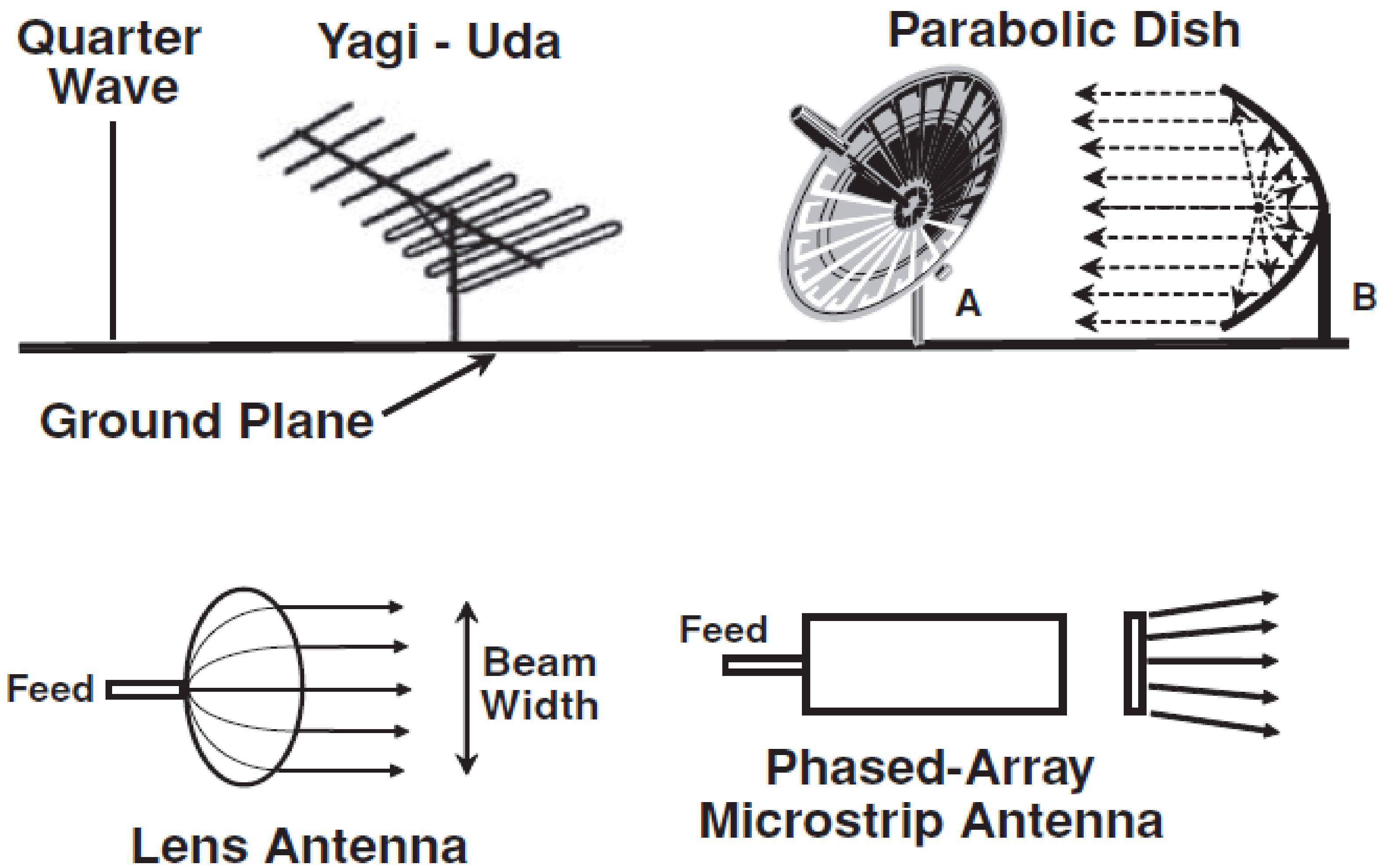


Figure 4.6. Applicable antenna types

Typical Yagi Construction

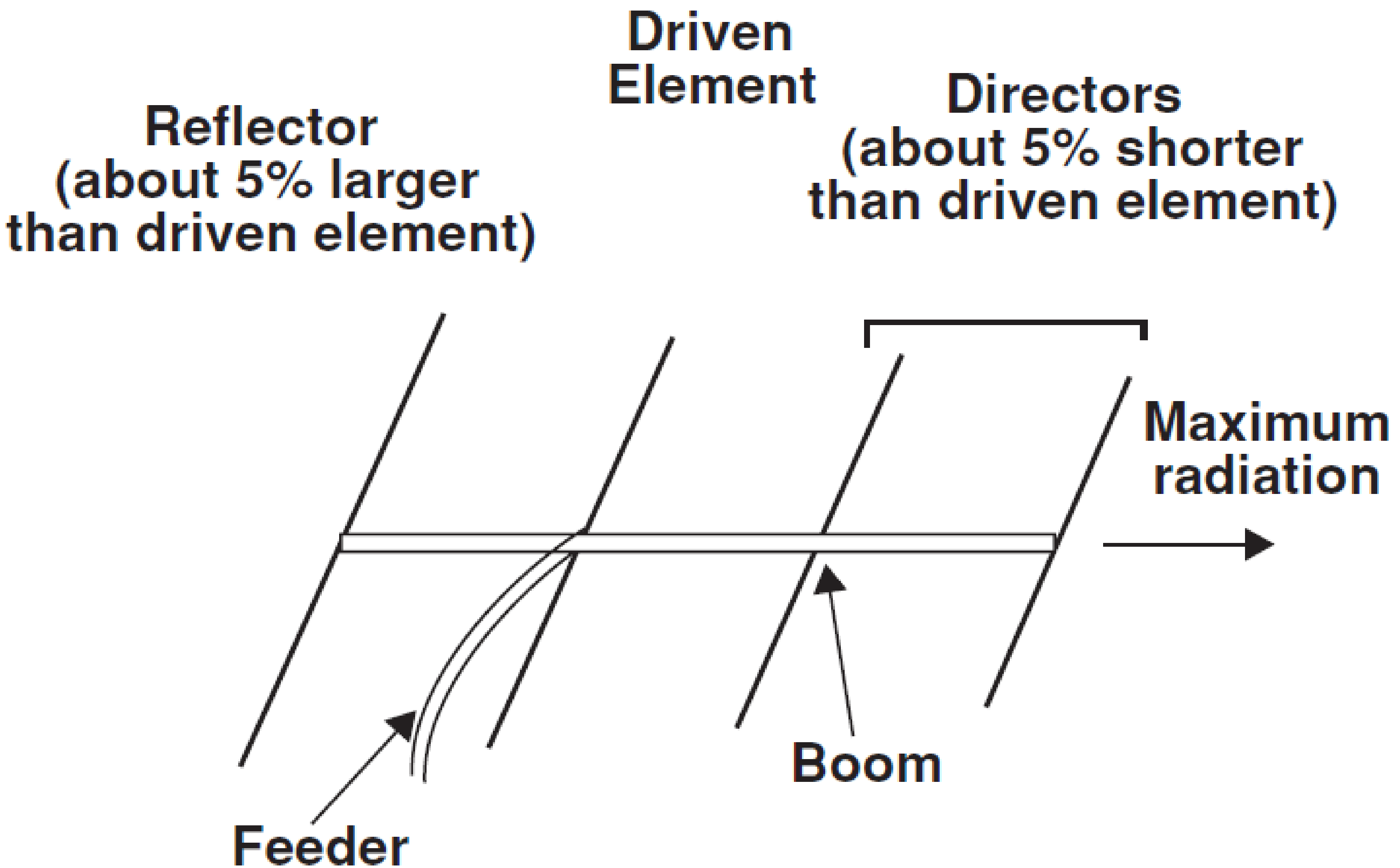


Figure 4.7. Typical Yagi Construction

Typical Yagi Antenna Radiation Pattern

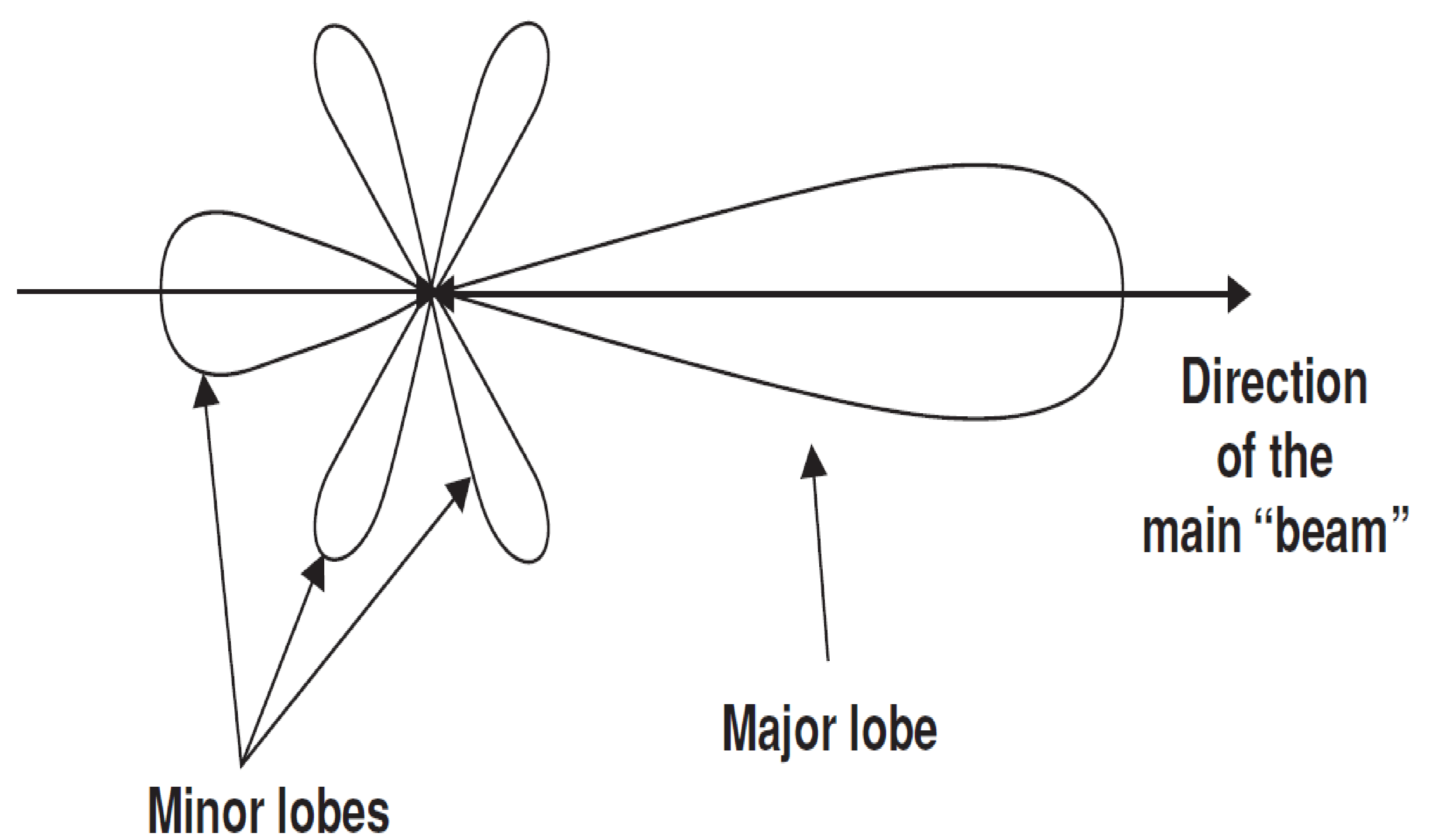


Figure 4.7. Typical Yagi Antenna Radiation Pattern

Antenna characteristics

Diameter

Frequency	0.3 m	0.6 m	1.2 m	1.8 m	2.4 m	3 m	3.7 m	4.5 m
2 GHz	35	17.5	8.75	5.83	4.38	3.5	2.84	2.33
6 GHz	11.67	5.83	2.92	1.94	1.46	1.17	0.95	0.78
8 GHz	8.75	4.38	2.19	1.46	1	0.88	0.71	0.58
11 GHz	6.36	3.18	1.59	1	0.8	0.64	0.52	0.42
14 GHz	5	2.5	1.25	0.83	0.63	0.5	0.41	0.33
18 GHz	3.89	1.94	0.97	0.65	0.49	0.39	0.32	0.26
23 GHz	3	1.52	0.76	0.51	0.38	0.3	0.25	0.2
38 GHz	1.84	0.92	0.46	0.31	0.23	0.18	0.15	0.12

Beamwidth in Degrees

Figure 4.8. Variation of Parabolic Antenna Beamwidth with Radio Frequency and Antenna Diameter

Yagi-Uda antenna

(b) The Yagi-Uda antenna contains only one active dipole element backed up by a number of passive, reflector elements which modify the basic radiation pattern to a predominantly directional beam with, however, small side-lobe radiations. The side-lobes of antennae are the easiest route for jamming RF to enter the system. Therefore, for UAS use, particularly, the antenna designer must apply his knowledge of arranging antenna elements to minimise the size of the side-lobes. The Yagi type of antenna is the type usually seen on rooftops for receiving TV signals as it is operable generally in the frequency range of from about 500 MHz to 2 Ghz.

Parabolic dish antennae

(c) Parabolic dish antennae, as the name implies, are so formed, and as a pure parabola, would reflect power from a point source emitter out as a beam. By changing the disc diameter, for a given radio frequency, beams of various widths may be generated as listed in Figure 4.8. This type of antenna is practical only for microwave frequencies in UAS usage. For lower frequencies, the dish diameter becomes unacceptably large, especially for mounting in a UAV turret.

Lens antenna works

The lens antenna works similarly to an optical lens in focusing RF waves instead of light waves. It uses dielectric material instead of glass and is appropriate for use with microwave frequencies. Beam shaping is achieved by asymmetric forming of the lens. The dielectric material is expensive and/or heavy and developments are continuing to reduce both of these factors for UAV application.

Patch antennae

Patch antennae use a patch (or patches) which are a little less than a half-wavelength long, mounted over a ground plane with a constant separation of order 1 cm, depending upon the frequency and bandwidth required. The patch is generally formed upon a dielectric substrate using lithographic printing methods similar to that used for printed circuit boards. With these techniques it is easy to create complex arrays of patch antennae producing high gain and customised beams at light weight and low cost.

NAVSTAR Global Positioning System (GPS)

GPS was developed by the United States' Department of Defence and officially named NAVSTAR GPS. It was initially limited to use by US military forces until 1982 when it was made available for general use. A receiver calculates its position using the signals transmitted from four or more GPS satellites selected from a constellation of 24 (nominal) satellites. The satellites orbit the Earth at an altitude of approximately 20 000 km and the satellites used for the measurements are selected by the GPS receiver on the basis of signal quality and good fix geometry.

NAVSTAR Global Positioning System (GPS)

Each satellite has an atomic clock and continually transmits its radio signals. The signals which contain the time at the start of the signal, travel at a known speed (that of light). The receiver uses the arrival time to calculate its range from each satellite and so its position on Earth. Radio frequencies used by the GPS lie within the L Band, from about 1.1 GHz to about 1.6 GHz. GPS is available as two services, the Standard Positioning System (SPS) for civilian users and the Precise Positioning Service (PPS) for military users. Both signals are transmitted from all satellites.

TACAN

Like LORAN C and GPS, TACAN relies upon timed radio signals from fixed ground-based transmitters to enable position fixing. The fix is based on range measurement from multiple transmitters or range and bearing from the same transmitter. The signals, being terrestrially based, are stronger than GPS signals and can still be jammed, although not as easily. For military operations, a major disadvantage of TACAN was that emissions could not be controlled to achieve stealth, and an enemy could track an aircraft equipped with the system.

LORAN C

This long-range radio system based on ground transmitters uses even stronger signals than TACAN and is less easy to jam though it does suffer serious interference from magnetic storms.

Although funding is limited, enhanced development of LORAN, known as E-LORAN, is continuing as it is seen as a fall-back to the perceived vulnerability of GPS. It is principally used in marine service. For military UAV application, its major drawback is its very limited availability.

Inertial Navigation

An inertial navigation system (INS) does not rely on external inputs. It is a sophisticated dead reckoning system comprising motion sensing devices such as gyroscopes and accelerometers and a computer which interrogates the data from them and performs appropriate integration to determine the movements of the aircraft from a starting set of coordinates to calculate the aircraft position at any subsequent time Past systems have been based on platforms gimballed within the aircraft to remain horizontal as determined by pendulums and attitude gyroscopes.

Inertial Navigation

The main disadvantage with them has been their need for many expensive precision-made mechanical moving parts which wear and create friction. The friction causes lag in the system and loss of accuracy. The current trend is to use what are termed 'strapped down' systems. The term refers to the fact that the sensors (accelerometers and rate gyros) operating along and around the three orthogonal aircraft body axes, are fixed in the body of the aircraft.

Lightweight digital computers are able to interrogate these instruments thousands of times per second to determine the displacement and rates of displacement of the aircraft at each millisecond during the flight and to compute the attitude, velocity and position changes.

Inertial Navigation

Developments in Doppler radar sensors provide good prospects for geo-speed measurement, although their use would have to be limited if the aircraft was to remain covert. A problem remains in sensing pitch and roll angles adequate for accurate navigation in the absence of IN and GPS, however pitch and roll accuracy sufficient for flight control is available. Developments which sense the horizon may come to fruition for operations at high altitudes where a horizon is distinct.

Radio Tracking

This is a well-established and ready solution for aircraft operating at shorter ranges, of the order of 80–100 km. It is particularly applicable to over-the-hill battlefield surveillance and ground attack operations or shorter-range naval operations such as over-the-beach surveillance missions where a line-of-sight radio contact can be maintained between the ground/sea control station and the aircraft.

The narrow-beam up and down data-links carry timed signals which are interpreted by both control station and aircraft computers giving their distance apart. Parallel receiving antennae at the control station (CS) enable it to lock onto the aircraft in azimuth and transmit that information to the aircraft.

Radio Tracking

In the event of loss of radio link, the aircraft and CS will be programmed to scan for the signal in order to re-engage. The aircraft will also carry a simplified INS in order for it to be able to return to the neighbourhood of the CS should there be a failure to re-engage. At the estimated arrival time, two options for recovery are available. Either an automatic landing program is brought into operation or a low-frequency omnidirectional radio system activated to re-establish contact and control the aircraft to a safe landing.

Way-point Navigation

The UAV controller may direct the UAV to any point within its range by one or more of three methods.

a) Direct control, manually operating panel mounted controls to send instructions in real time to the UAV FCS to operate the aircraft controls to direct its flight speed, altitude and direction whilst viewing its progress from an image obtained from the UAV electro-optic payload and relating that as necessary to a geographical map.

Way-point Navigation

b) Input instructions to the UAVFCS to command the UAV to fly on a selected bearing at a selected speed and altitude until fresh instructions are sent. The position of the UAV will be displayed automatically on a plan position indicator (PPI).

c) Input the coordinates of way-points to be visited. The way-points can be provided either before or after take-off.

Way-point Navigation

Methods (b) and (c) allow for periods of radio silence and reduce the concentration necessary of the controller. It is possible that, depending upon the mission, the controller may have to revert to method (a) to carry out a local task. However, with modern advanced navigation capability and the introduction of 'autonomous' technology within the systems the trend is strongly towards pre-planning missions or in-flight updating of flight plans so that the operators are more focused on capturing and interpreting the information being gathered by the UAV than managing its flight path. Future systems with increased use of autonomy are likely to be based on the operators 'tasking' the UAV to achieve aspects of a mission with the UAV system generating the routes and search patterns.

UNIT – V

CONTROL AND STABILITY

Control and Stability

The functions of the control and stability of a UAV will depend in nature on the different aircraft configurations and the characteristics required of them. ‘Control’ may be defined for our purposes as the means of directing the aircraft into the required position, orientation and velocity, whilst ‘stability’ is the ability of the system to maintain the aircraft in those states. Control and stability are inexorably linked within the system, but it is necessary to understand the difference.

The overall system may be considered for convenience in two parts:

i) The thinking part of the system which accepts the commands from the operator (in short-term or long-term), compares the orientation, etc. of the aircraft with what is commanded, and instructs the other part of the system to make appropriate correction. This is often referred to as the automatic flight control system (AFCS) or FCS logic, and contains the memory to store mission and localized flight programs.

ii) The 'muscles' of the system which accept the instructions of (i) and apply input to the engine(s) controls and / or aerodynamic control surfaces.

HTOL Aircraft

For a HTOL aircraft the flight variables are basically:

a) direction,

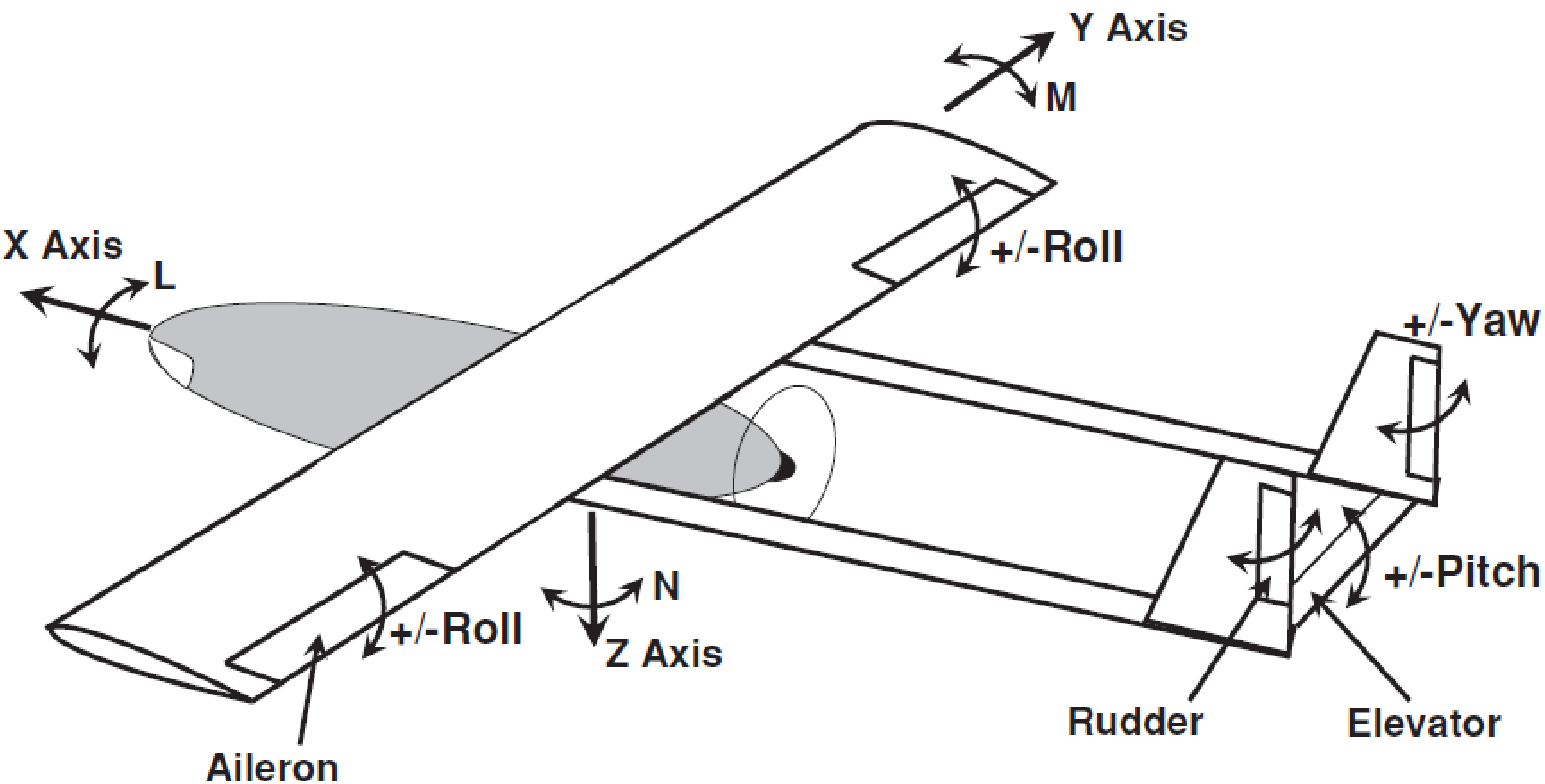
b) horizontal speed,

c) altitude,

d) rate of climb.

The direction of flight (or heading) will be controlled by a combination of deflection of the rudder(s) and ailerons. The horizontal speed will be controlled by adjustment to the propulsor thrust and elevator deflection, The rate of climb to a given altitude is achieved by the application of a combination of elevator deflection and propulsor thrust.

HTOL aircraft aerodynamic control surfaces



Ailerons produce rolling moment L
Elevators produce pitching moment M
Rudders produce yawing moment N

Figure 5.1. HTOL aircraft aerodynamic control surfaces

HTOL Aircraft

The direction of flight (or heading) will be controlled by a combination of deflection of the rudder(s) and ailerons. The horizontal speed will be controlled by adjustment to the propulsor thrust and elevator deflection, The rate of climb to a given altitude is achieved by the application of a combination of elevator deflection and propulsor thrust.

The arrangement of the aerodynamic control surfaces is shown in Figure 5.1 for a typical, aerodynamically stable, HTOL aircraft configuration. Other HTOL configurations will utilize specific arrangements.

HTOL Aircraft

It is somewhat simpler to maintain orientation relative to the air mass, i.e. to configure the aircraft to be ‘aerodynamically stable’. This generally requires tailplane and vertical fin areas to provide ‘weathercock’ stability in both pitch and yaw and requires wing dihedral in fixed-wing aircraft to provide coupling between side-slip and roll motion to give stability in the roll sense. The downside of this is that the aircraft will move with the air mass, i.e. respond to gusts (air turbulence). This movement usually includes linear translations and angular rotations relative to the earth. This will make for greater difficulty in maintaining, for example, a camera sight-line on a ground fixed target.

HTOL Aircraft

The alternative is to design the aircraft to be aerodynamically neutrally stable with, in particular, little or no rotation generated by the fixed aerodynamic surfaces in response to gusts. The response now becomes one mainly of translation, so reducing the angular stabilization requirements for the sensors.

The movable control surfaces are used to steer and stabilize the aircraft in the normal manner relative to spatial coordinates. It is virtually impossible to make an aircraft aerodynamically unresponsive to gusts in all modes, but it may be possible to make it unresponsive in some modes and have only little response in others.

HTOL Aircraft

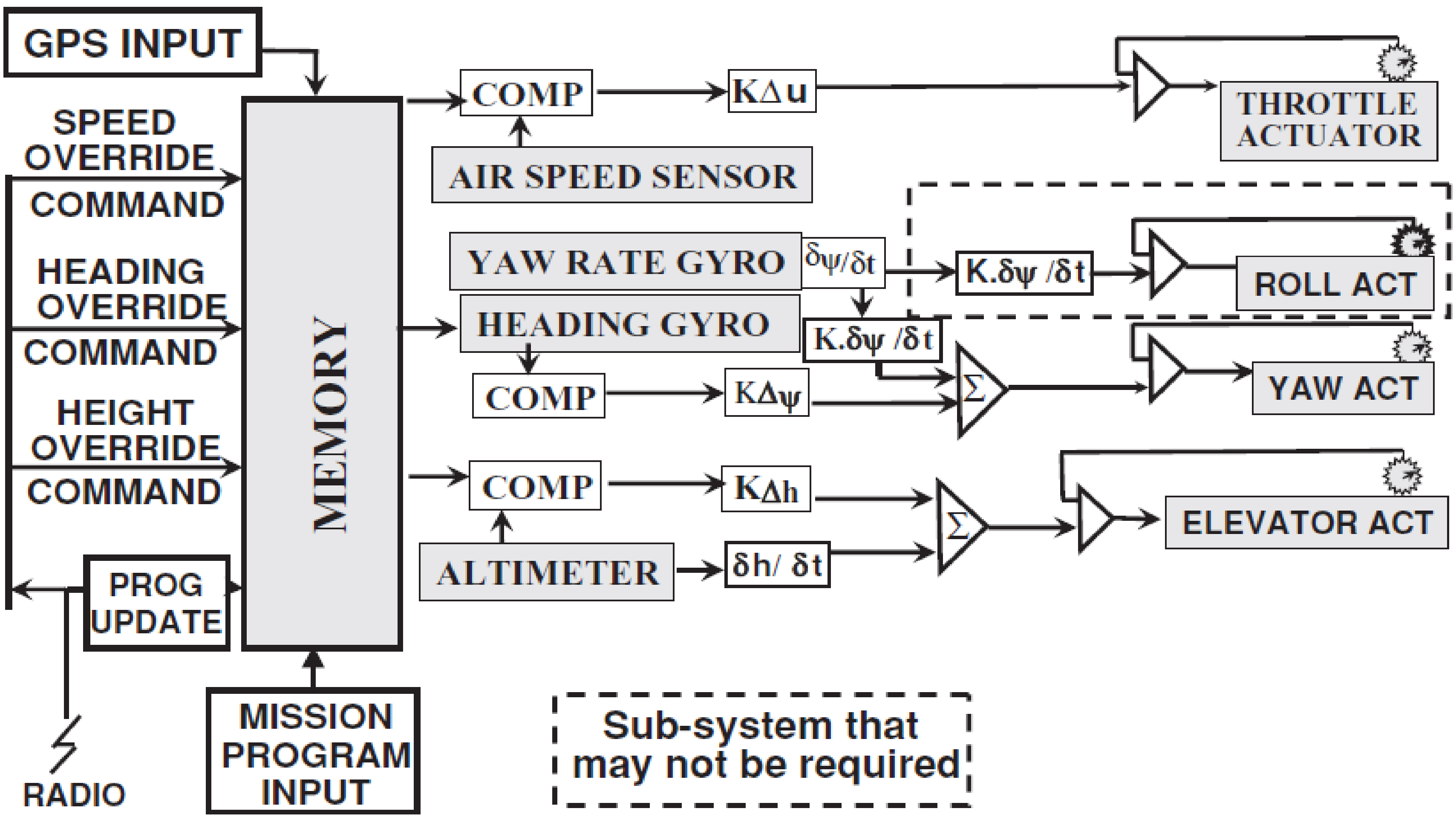


Figure 5.2. HTOL aircraft basic AFCS

HTOL Aircraft

The downside of this approach is that more sophisticated sensors and computing power is necessary in the ‘brain’ of the control system in order to determine the orientation of the UAV in flight and apply the correct amount of the appropriate control or combination of controls. This may increase the system first cost compared with the aerodynamically stable system, but should pay dividends in greater operational effectiveness and reduced operating costs.

HTOL Aero-stable Configuration

- A typical basic flight control system (FCS) is shown in block diagram form in Figure 5.2. Before flight the mission program may be copied into the FCS computer memory. A very basic program may consist of a series of 'way-points' which the aircraft is to over-fly before returning to base, and the transit speeds between those points.

- If the operators are in radio communication with the aircraft (directly or via a relay) the program commands may be overridden, for example, to carry out a more detailed 'manual' surveillance of a target. Provision also may be made to update the mission program during the aircraft flight.

HTOL Aero-stable Configuration

- For take-off and landing the aircraft may be controlled by an initial and terminal part of the program or ‘manually’ by using the overrides. Currently most systems employ the latter approach since making automatic allowance for the effect of cross-winds in those modes is difficult.

- As shown in the figure, the aircraft is maintained on condition usually by use of a nulled-error method. By this means the FCS enables the commands of the controller to be accepted and executed and the aircraft to be stabilized onto that commanded condition of speed, direction and altitude.

The Speed Channel

- The aircraft airspeed command from the memory is compared with the actual airspeed as sensed and any error between the two is obtained. A multiplier K is applied to the error signal which is passed to the throttle actuator system with its feedback loop. This makes a throttle adjustment proportional to the instantaneous error until equilibrium is achieved.

- Provided that the power unit response is progressive, and that the correction takes place at an airspeed above the minimum power speed of the aircraft, the motion is stable and normally will need no damping term.

The Heading Channel

- A similar principle applies. The actual heading of the aircraft can be measured by a magnetometer monitored attitude gyro and compared with the commanded heading. Any error is processed as before to operate the aircraft rudder via a yaw actuator.

- The probability of oscillation occurring depends upon the actuation system and aircraft aerodynamic damping characteristics. This phenomenon is covered fully in the specialist textbooks. Should extra damping be required, it may be incorporated by the differentiation respect to time of the gyro position signal or, possibly more readily, through the inclusion of a yaw-rate gyro.

The Height or Altitude Channel

- Pressure altitude is more appropriate for use when traversing long distances at greater altitudes but is relatively inaccurate for low altitude operation. It cannot respond to the presence of hilly or mountainous terrain.

- Operating using tape height measurement is more appropriate for low-altitude, shorter-range operations when the aircraft will follow the contours of the landscape. It gives a far more accurate measure of height than does a pressure altimeter.

The Height or Altitude Channel

The same nulled-error method may be used for the height channel with a climb to commanded height being achieved by actuation of an upward deflection of the elevator(s). Entry into a climb will demand more thrust from the propulsor and the aircraft will rapidly lose speed unless the engine throttle is quickly opened.

If the response of the engine to the demand of the speed control channel is not adequate then a link from the error signal of the height channel must be taken to the throttle actuator. This will increase the engine power in a timely manner to prevent undue airspeed loss. The reverse, of course, will be ensured when a demand for a descent is made.

The Height or Altitude Channel

- Control of the rate of climb will be necessary. The rate of climb (or descent) can be obtained by differentiating the change in measured height with respect to time. A cap must be placed on the allowed rate of climb (and descent) to prevent excessive or unavailable power being demanded from the engine(s) and to prevent the aircraft exceeding its design speed limit in descent.

- The cap value that is necessary for protection will vary, depending upon the aircraft weight and speed at the time. For best performance it would be necessary for the cap value to be changed with those parameters.

The Height or Altitude Channel

The aircraft speed, rate of climb and engine power needed are inextricably linked. A demand for increased speed will increase the lift on the wing and may initiate a climb. The height channel may react to that and demand a deflection downwards of the elevator to prevent it. However, in similar manner to the advance link to the engine throttle from the height channel, it may be necessary to link the elevator to the error signal from the speed channel to prevent the development of any large height excursion.

The Height or Altitude Channel

- the development of even a relatively simple FCS is no mean task and will require careful study and simulation before commitment to prototype build. The logic within the system will, today, be digital and software based.

- Until recently, the aircraft developers had to develop their own FCS systems but, with the expansion of the industry, companies specializing in FCS design and development have arisen.

- These organisations are now available to work with the aircraft developers in the creation of applicable FCS.

HTOL Spatially Stabilised Configuration

For this configuration, the aircraft will be designed to have a minimal response to air gusts. For example, the fin aerodynamic surfaces will be reduced in size so that they merely offset the directional instability of the forward fuselage to provide effectively neutral directional stability overall. Preferably the smaller fins will be fully pivoting (all-flying) to retain adequate yaw control. Horizontal tail surfaces will be similarly treated to provide neutral pitch stability but adequate pitch control.

HTOL Spatially Stabilised Configuration

- Wing dihedral will be sensibly zero to prevent a roll response to side-gusts. In many respects, this could move the configuration towards an all-wing or delta wing. However, as described, the aircraft is completely unstable and could, of its own volition, pitch or roll fully over and continue to ‘wander’ in those modes.

- It is necessary to provide a spatial datum in those modes by including such means in the FCS.

HTOL Spatially Stabilised Configuration

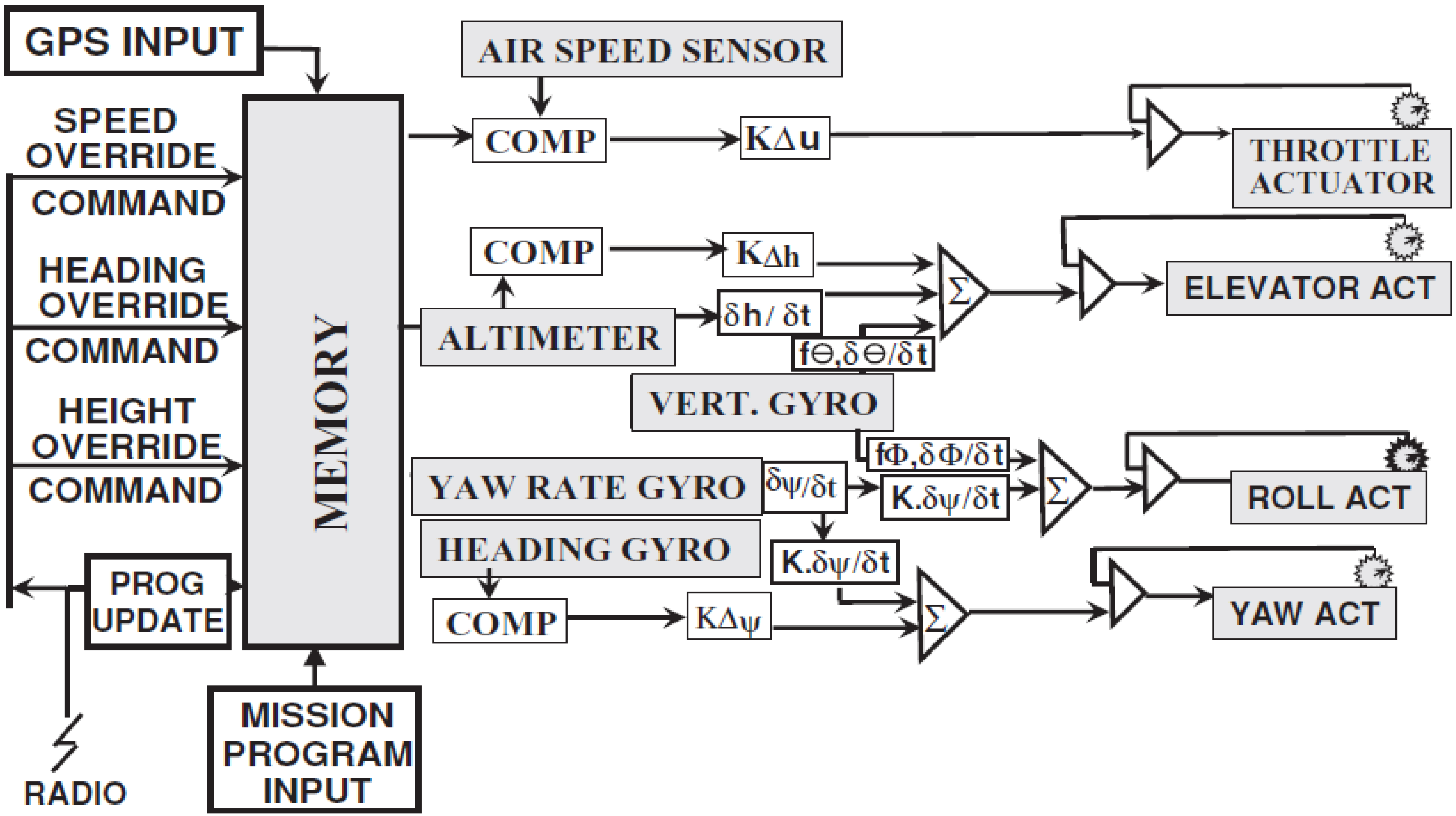


Figure 5.3. Spatially stabilized HTOL aircraft AFCS

Helicopters: Single-main-rotor Helicopter

- The majority of manned helicopters are in this category, principally because, there is a greater number of small to medium-sized machines required than large machines.

- The single-main-rotor (SMR) configuration is best suited to the former whilst tandem-rotor machines are best suited to the latter, larger category.

- The aerodynamic control arrangement for a SMR is shown diagrammatically in Figure 5.4. and a typical FCS block diagram in Figure 5.5

SMR helicopter controls

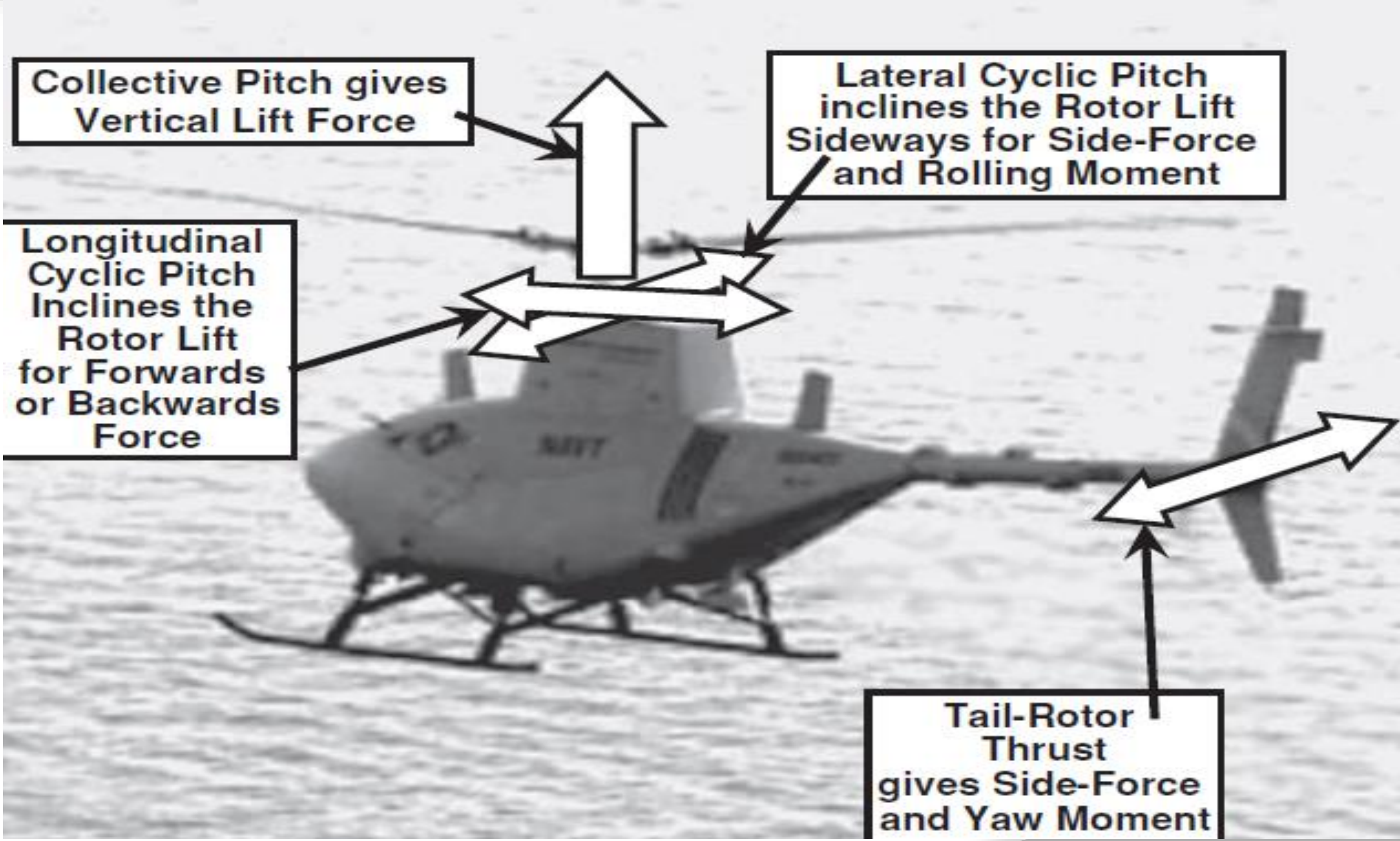


Figure 10.4. SMR helicopter controls

AFCS diagram for SMR helicopter

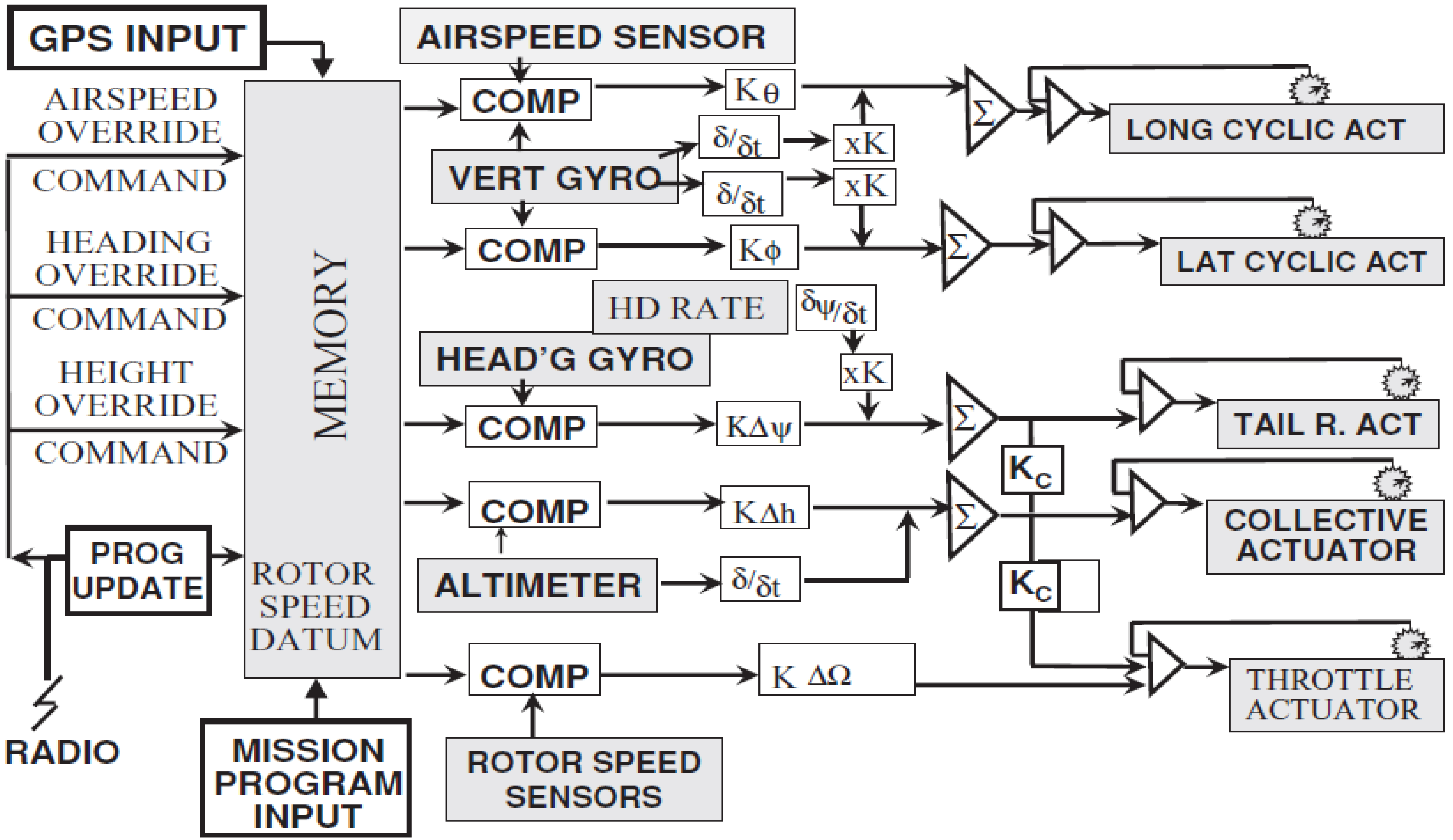


Figure 5.5. AFCS diagram for SMR helicopter

AFCS diagram for SMR helicopter

- It appears that, at least until recently, most manufacturers of unmanned helicopters have opted for the SMR probably because it is seen as the most understandable technology.

- In a few cases, existing small passenger-carrying machines have been converted to a UAV by replacement of the crew and their support equipment with an automatic FCS.

- This latter approach removes much of the development costs and risk of a totally new airframe and systems. The SMR configuration, however, has its shortcomings as a candidate for ‘unmanning’.

AFCS diagram for SMR helicopter

Means of ensuring the adequate control and stability of the configuration are complicated and caused by its inherent asymmetry compared with the above fixed-wing aircraft which are essentially symmetric.

a) Execution of a climb requires an increase to be made in the collective pitch of the rotor blades which, in turn, requires more engine power to be applied. In its own right, that constitutes no problem.

However, more power implies more torque at the rotor which, if uncorrected, will rotate the aircraft rapidly in the direction opposite to that of the main rotor’s rotation.

AFCS diagram for SMR helicopter

Therefore the thrust of the tail rotor must be increased to counteract this. Unfortunately, this increase in lateral force will move the aircraft sideways and probably also cause it to begin to roll. To prevent this happening, the main rotor must be tilted to oppose the new increment in lateral force.

In a piloted aircraft, the pilot learns to make these corrections, after much training, instinctively. For the UAV FCS, suitable algorithms must be added to achieve accurate and steady flight.

AFCS diagram for SMR helicopter

b) In forward flight, the rotor will flap sideways rising on the ‘down-wind’ side. This will produce a lateral force which must be corrected by application of opposing lateral cyclic pitch. The value of this correction will be different at each level of forward speed and aircraft weight. Similarly, a suitable corrective algorithm has to be added to the basic FCS.

c) To effect sideways flight from the hover, lateral cyclic pitch must be applied. The tail rotor will exert a very strong ‘weathercock’ effect which has to be precisely corrected by an adjustment in tail rotor pitch, requiring yet another addition to the FCS.

Coaxial-rotor Helicopter

A coaxial rotor helicopter has symmetry in its rotor system and, in the case of the plan-symmetric helicopter, complete overall symmetry. It is therefore even simpler than for a HTOL aircraft to configure its FCS. Furthermore it is inherently less sensitive to gusts than any other configuration.

Coaxial-rotor helicopter AFCS

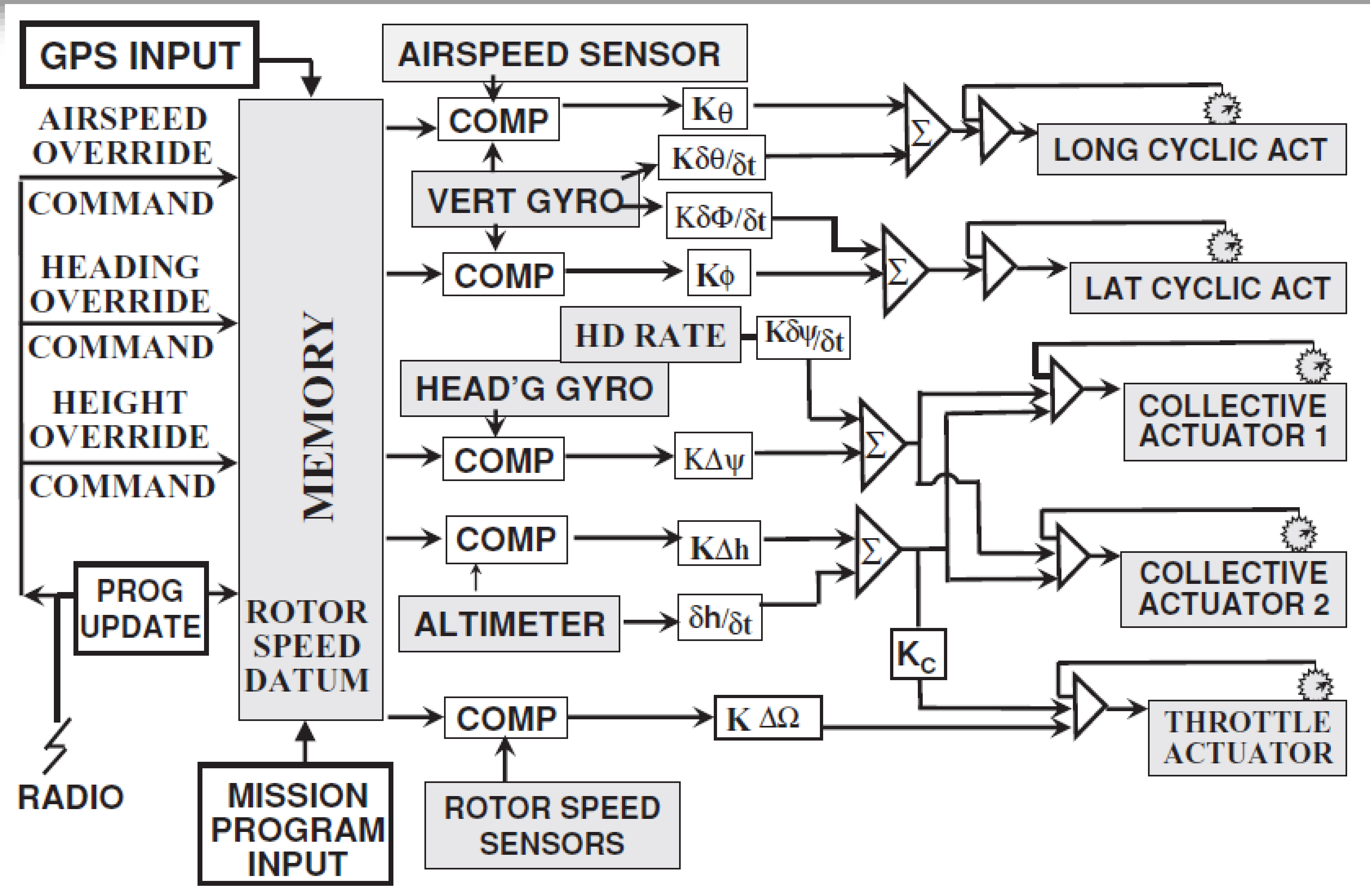


Figure 5.6. Coaxial-rotor helicopter AFCS

‘Directional’ Airframe Coaxial-rotor Helicopter (CRH)

‘Directional’ implies that it has an airframe having a preferred axis of flight, i.e. along which it has the lowest aerodynamic drag. With its rotor symmetry, it has none of the complex mode couplings of the SMR helicopter.

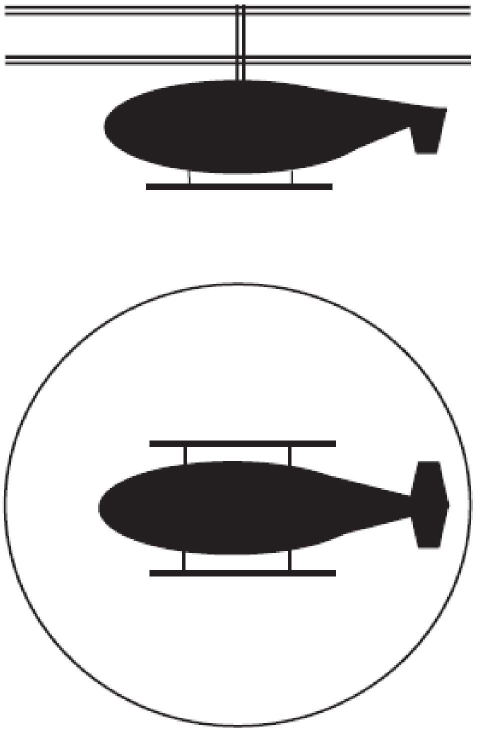


Figure 5.6. Coaxial-rotor Helicopter

Directional' Airframe Coaxial-rotor Helicopter (CRH)

- On the command to climb, the torque from each rotor remains sensibly equal so that little, if any, correction in yaw is required. In that event, it is achieved by a minor adjustment in differential collective pitch which removes any imbalance at source. There is no resulting side-force to balance, entry into forward or sideways flight occasions no resultant side-force through rotor flapping.

- The flapping motion on each rotor is in equal and opposite directions thus the system is self-correcting. Pilots flying crewed versions of the coaxial helicopter configuration, report on its ease of control compared with a SMR helicopter and, the electronic flight control system is easier to develop.

Directional' Airframe Coaxial-rotor Helicopter (CRH)

- There is a possible downside to the coaxial rotor helicopter. Its control in yaw relies upon the creation of a disparity in torque between the two rotors.
- In descent, less power is required to drive the two rotors and therefore less disparity in torque can be achieved, thus reducing the control power available.
- However, for all rates of descent short of full autorotation, the control available should remain adequate.

Directional' Airframe Coaxial-rotor Helicopter (CRH)

- In full autorotation, calculations show that a small control power is available, but it is in the reverse direction. To overcome this problem, manned CRH are usually designed to be aerodynamically stable and incorporate rudders in the fin(s).

- In the event of total loss of engine power, unless very close to the ground, the pilot is required to put the aircraft immediately into forward flight where he has rudder control and conduct a run-on flared landing. This measure could be programmed into a UAV FCS.

Symmetrical Airframe Coaxial-rotor Helicopter

- Otherwise known as a plan-symmetric helicopter (PSH), this is a special case of the CRH and, has several advantages over the directional CRH other than in aerodynamic drag of the fuselage. These advantages include a more compact aircraft for transport, more versatile operation of the payload, lower gust response and lower detectable signatures for stealth operation.

- It cannot be made aerodynamically stable in yaw, but is inherently neutrally stable. In normal flight conditions, it is stabilized spatially by the FCS.

- In full autorotation, unless corrective algorithms are added to the FCS to take account of the reversal in the control direction, the FCS would actually destabilize the aircraft.

Plan-symmetric helicopter controls

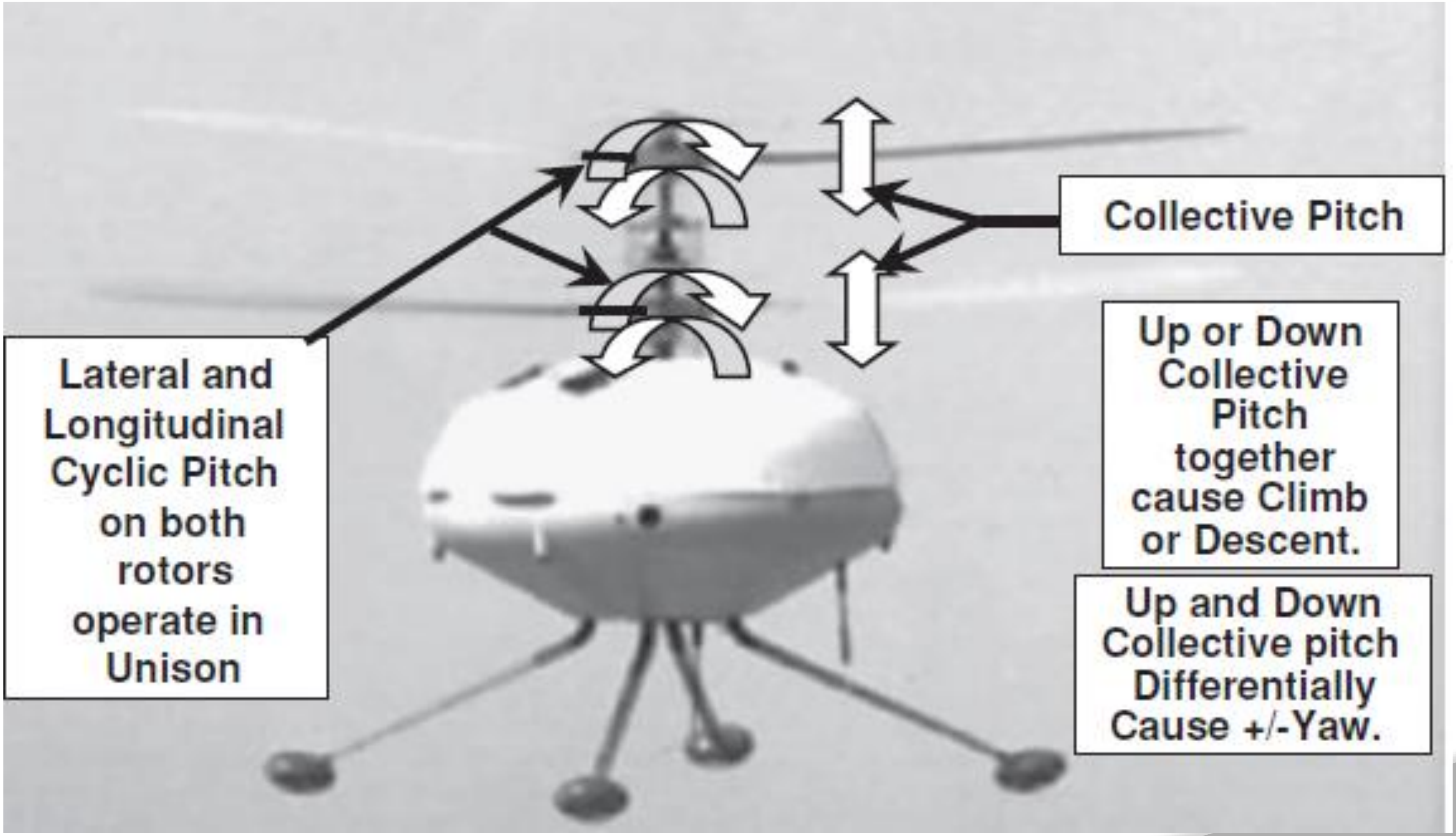


Figure 5.7. Plan-symmetric helicopter controls

Plan-symmetric helicopter controls

- A run-on landing, however, is unlikely to be practical for this type as it would require an undercarriage capable of such a landing and so is probably unsuitable for the configuration.

- However, it has the least response to gusts of all aircraft configurations, the response being zero in some directions and with no cross-coupling into other modes.

Convertible Rotor Aircraft

Convertible rotor aircraft may exist in two main variants:

- Tilt-Rotor and
- Tilt-Wing

Their means of control are similar.

The most basic approach is for each rotor to have control of collective pitch and longitudinal cyclic pitch control only as opposed to helicopters which normally have cyclic pitch control in both longitudinal and lateral planes.

Tilt-rotor aircraft controls

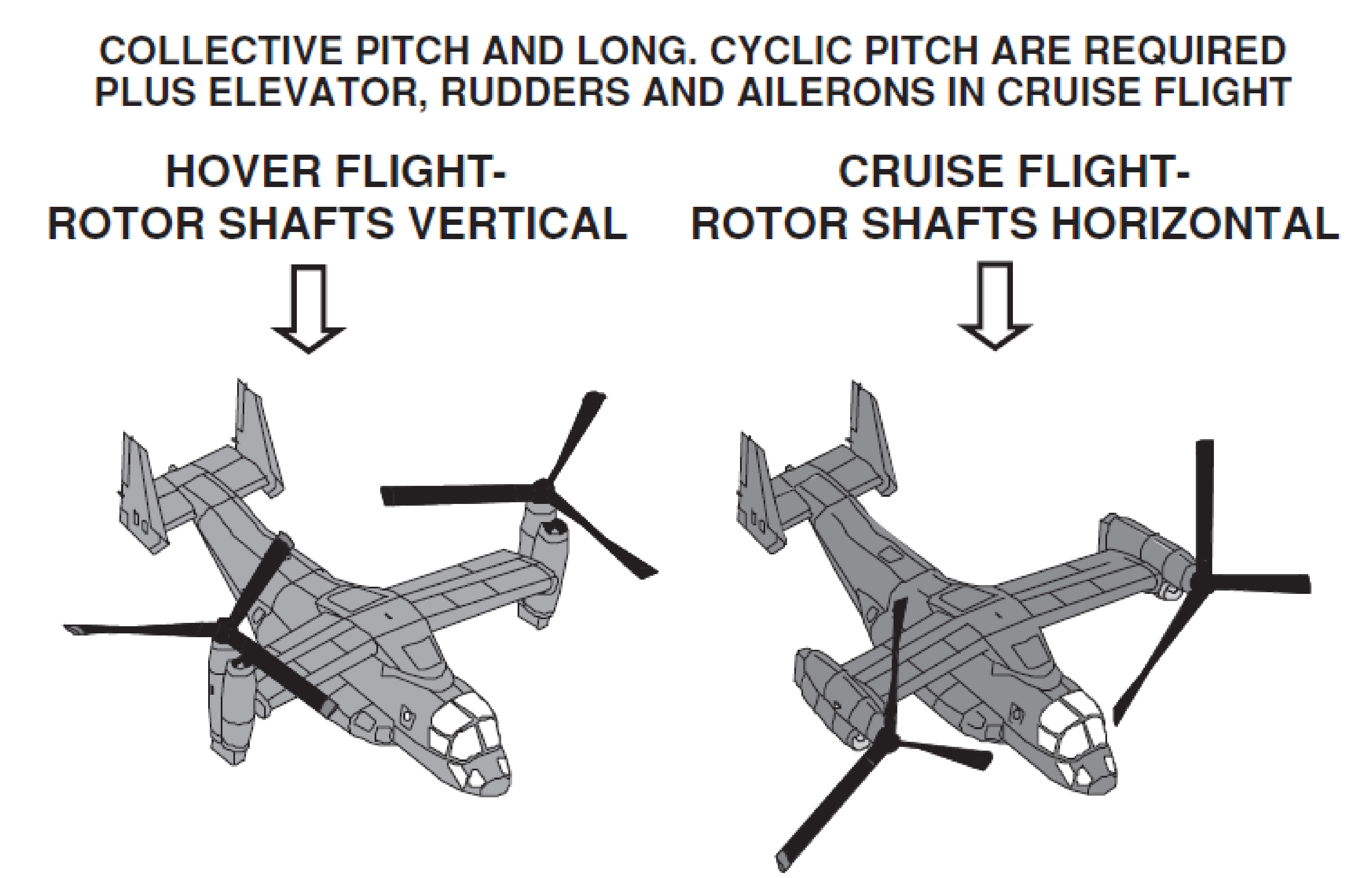


Figure 5.8. Tilt-rotor aircraft controls

Hover Flight

Figure 5.9. Tilt-rotor aircraft controls

Mode	Control
Climb or descent	Collective pitch change on both rotors
Fore and aft translation	Fore and aft longitudinal cyclic pitch change
Lateral translation	Differential collective pitch change
Heading change	Differential longitudinal cyclic pitch change

Cruise Flight

Figure 5.10. Tilt-rotor aircraft controls

Mode	Control
Climb or descent	Elevator deflection
Speed change	Collective pitch change
Heading change	Rudderdeflection

Tilt-rotor aircraft controls

There are further options:

a) By accepting the additional complexity of adding lateral cyclic pitch to finesse lateral translation in the hover and reduce the amount of roll incurred in the manoeuvre.

b) Differential collective pitch can be applied in cruise flight to assist in heading change especially in the transition between hover and cruise.

Transitional Flight

- In any hybrid aircraft, the transition between hover flight and cruise flight is the most difficult regime to achieve and convertible rotor aircraft are no exception to this. Not only does it require the additional channel of control, i.e. the control of the actuators which tilt the rotor shaft axes at a controlled rate, but the FCS must phase in and out the control means for each flight mode in concert with, and appropriate to, the shaft tilt angle.

- During transition flight, both sets of controls (hover and cruise) must be operative in the correct ratios and in the correct phasing to ensure that the correct wing incidence is achieved. Any ancillary systems such as wing flaps must be phased in or out appropriately,

Payload Control

- In addition to maintaining control and stability of the aircraft, it is just as important to achieve that for the payload. Control of the aircraft is needed to get the aircraft over the target area, but will be useless unless the payload is properly controlled. The latter may be achieved using a system which is part of the aircraft FCS or by using a separate module.

- The choice will probably depend upon the degree to which the payload operation is integrated with the aircraft operation.

- Control of the payload will include, for most imaging payloads, the means of bringing the sight-line accurately onto the target and keeping it there.

Payload Control

- The integration of the payload and aircraft control and stability systems is at its greatest in the PSH configuration which is, in effect, a flying payload turret. The same set of heading and vertical gyros, for example, support the control and stabilization of both aircraft and payload.

- The FCS operates two sets of coordinate axes, those of the aircraft and those of the payload, even though the latter is fixed within the aircraft. Thus the payload sight-line may be pointing in one direction whilst the aircraft may fly in a totally different direction.

Sensors

- Sensors, include vertical attitude gyros, heading gyros, angular rate gyros when necessary, height and altitude sensors and airspeed sensors.

- Linear accelerometers may be used in some applications. Individual sensors may be used as described above or the sensors may form part of a 'strapped down' inertial measurement unit.

- Qualities of accuracy, reliability, life, power supply, environmental protection and mass will be of importance to the UAV systems designer.

Height and Altitude Sensors

- Sensors for measuring tape height, that is height above ground, include those measuring distance by timing pulses of radio, laser or acoustic energy from transmission to return.

- These vary in their accuracy, depending upon their frequency and power, but are usually more accurate than pressure sensors measuring altitude.

- Radio altimeters vary in their accuracy and range depending upon their antennae configuration.

Height and Altitude Sensors

- Laser systems may have problems in causing eye damage and precautions must be taken in their selection and use. They may also lose function when operating over still water or certain types of fir trees when the energy is either absorbed or deflected so that no return is received.

- Acoustic systems usually have a smaller range capability and must also be separated in frequency from other sources of noise.

Height and Altitude Sensors

- Barometric (or pressure) sensors for measuring pressure altitude are less accurate than the tape height sensors and have to be adjusted to take account of the atmospheric changes which take place hour by hour and from area to area. However in transitional flight at altitude this does not constitute a real problem and can be backed up by GPS data.

- These sensors are not suitable for accurate operation at low altitude, especially in the case of VTOL aircraft. The static air pressure measurement from a VTOL aircraft is greatly affected by the induced airflow around the aircraft, the direction of which also changes with vertical or lateral manoeuvres.

Airspeed Sensors

- For HTOL aircraft a standard pitot-static (PS) system is acceptable provided that it is suitably positioned to read accurate static pressure either as part of a combined unit ahead of any aerodynamic interference or as a separate static vent elsewhere on the aircraft.
- The compensating PS head developed by Bristol Aircraft in the 1950s improves the accuracy of the former type of installation.

- In the case of VTOL aircraft the difficulty of measuring an accurate static pressure at different airspeeds, referred to above, also affects measurement of airspeed using a PS system.

Airspeed Sensors

- Apart from the inaccuracy of the classic PS system in measuring airspeed, and its inability to record speeds below about 15 m/s, fluctuating values from it can cause instability in the control system.

- Hence it is better to rely on data from a system integrated with GPS or better still from an omnidirectional air-data system that does not require knowledge of ambient static pressure.

Hover-position-hold Sensing

- Holding station in a hover or near hover is often a requirement for a VTOL aircraft for take-off orfor landing and also for several types of operations, current or projected, where surveillance from a fixed-point is required. If this is required at an established base, the task is solvable by means such as hovering over a beacon.

- If the operation is required away from base, then options include the engagement of integrating accelerometers, pattern-recognition or, possibly in the future, photon-flow measurement on the E/O sensor or possibly Doppler interrogation of the radio altimeter, etc. These sensor inputs would be integrated into the FCS to operate the appropriate controls.

Autonomy

- The ‘jury’ in the unmanned aircraft community seems to be ‘still out’ for the verdict on the definition of autonomy. Some suppliers of UAV systems claim that an aircraft has operated autonomously in carrying out a mission when it has flown a pre-programmed flight from take-off to landing without further instructions from outside.
- Others would label this type of activity as merely automatic and would say that to be autonomous the system must include an element of artificial intelligence.
- In other words the system must be able to make its own decisions without human intervention or pre-programming.

Autonomy

- The main systems drivers for autonomy are that it should provide more flexible operation, in that the operator tells the system what is wanted from the mission (not how to do it) with the flexibility of dynamic changes to the mission goals being possible in flight with minimal operation replanning. This is coupled with reduction in reliance on time-critical communication and communication bandwidth, which in turn reduces the vulnerability of the system to communication loss, interruption or countermeasures.

- The goal is for the operators to concentrate on the job rather than operating the UAV.

Thank You