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Additional Information

Prediction of the non-linear aeroelastic behavior of a cantilever flat plate and equivalent 2D model

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Abstract

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Reducing structure weight is one of the main strategies for decreasing environmental and manufacturing costs of engineering solutions. The reduction in material is normally related with a higher impact of aeroelastic solicitations. For some industrial cases it is needed to account for non-linear aerodynamics and, therefore, the whole fully coupled set of equations needs to be simulated in order to predict its behavior. One possible way of reducing the high computational cost associated with this problem is the use of an equivalent 2D model, whose derivation is not straightforward. This article presents a methodology for reducing the order from a complete three dimensional arbitrary beam to its equivalent 2D characteristic section. The behavior of both systems is analyzed and it is shown how, when the methodology is applied, the resulting 2D system is capable to predict similar results with a computational cost which is reduced by orders of magnitude.


1. Introduction

Reduction of production costs and environmental impact is one of the hot topics of modern industry [1]. Decreasing structure material is a common practice for achieving this aim at fields as civil [2], aerospace [3] or automotive [4] engineering. However, reduction in weight is usually related with a decrease in the structural stiffness and could lead to an increase in the importance of aeroelastic effects when the system is exposed to wind loads. As a consequence, an important amount of research has been carried out during past years in order to characterize these phenomena.

Traditionally, aerospace engineering has been the field at which more research efforts have been dedicated to the study of aeroelasticity and the instabilities associated with this kind of Fluid Structure Interaction (FSI). For instance, it is possible to find an important amount of literature quantifying the effects of aeroelastic divergence experimentally [5], analytically [6] or numerically [7]. In addition, references about other related Fluid Structure Interaction phenomena such as flutter [8] or buffeting [9], [10] may be found.

One important simplification widely adopted for the analysis of aeroelasticity is the use of an equivalent 2D section. The advantages of this simplification are clear: the computational cost is lower by orders of magnitude than its equivalent 3D case; the reduction on degrees of freedom ease the interpretation of results and it is possible to obtain closed analytic solutions for inviscid flows. Additionally, the low computational cost allows the study of non-linear aerodynamics using affordable resources. In this sense, Sodja et al. [11] performed a wind tunnel characterization of a 2D airfoil, connected to the tunnel by means of a set of longitudinal and torsional springs of known stiffness; Camilo et al. [12] studied the aeroelastic response of a 2D section using Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) to account for aerodynamic non-linearities. However, and despite its undeniable capacity for analyzing this kind of flows, the equivalence between the 2D and the 3D structure is not clear in the literature. Although there exist some rules of the thumb, and there are some proposals for the calculation of equivalent stiffness in classic references, as Dowell [13] (in which it is also possible to find a wide number of analytic solutions for the 2D case), they are limited to a very specific set of structural boundary conditions. Therefore, quantitative extrapolation from the two-dimensional data to the actual three-dimensional structure is not straightforward.

Relative to the simulation of the whole 3D plate, many aeroelastic studies have been carried out. For instance, in the work of Peng and Jinglong [14], a fully coupled three dimensional characterization was

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50 performed. The authors solved the Euler and deformable body equations in order to obtain the aeroelastic
 51 features of a transport wing flying at low angle of attack. Tsushima and Su [15] performed an aeroelastic
 52 analysis over a three dimensional wing. The wing was coupled with a 2D unsteady potential aerodynamic
 53 model in order to predict the flutter suppression for flexible wings using piezoelectric effects. Finally, Kwon
 54 et al. [16] performed an analysis of the flutter including shock interference effects with a modified small
 55 disturbance theory (TSD) as aerodynamic model. Due to the high computational cost of three dimensional
 56 calculations, most of the studies performed in the literature tend to use a simplified set of fluid flow equations.
 57 In consequence, they are normally limited for evaluating low angles of attack, without noticeable detachments
 58 over the body.

59 Most of the operational life of commercial aircraft will be located at conditions of cruise flight, at which
 60 linear or almost linear aerodynamic models can be applicable. Nevertheless, under exigent maneuvers, highly
 61 non-linear phenomena could arise, leading to the necessity of accounting for effects which could not be covered
 62 with the simplifications named during the previous paragraph. These effects are more noticeable, even at
 63 normal operating conditions, in problems related with other industries, such as civil engineering. In this
 64 sense, a wide amount of research can be found trying to account for aeroelastic non-linear phenomena. For
 65 instance, Wu et al. [17] performed a wind tunnel experiment over a complex section which cannot be modeled
 66 using simple aerodynamic theory. In other recent study of Wu et al. [18], the non-linear aerodynamics of a
 67 2D flat plate are analyzed in order to use them for predicting its aeroelastic features. Other related studies
 68 which would worth to be cited could be Tang et al. [19], Taylor and Browne [20] or Schellenberg et al. [21].
 69 In these studies, it is also possible to observe how the 2D modeling is adequate in order to analyze aeroelastic
 70 phenomena under highly complex aerodynamic conditions. Nevertheless, due to the lack of an accurate 2D
 71 equivalence model, 3D characterization is the best tool in order to obtain quantitative data about the actual
 72 structure.

73 The current article attempts to overcome some of these limitations. In first place, a methodology for the
 74 obtainment of an equivalent 2D model from an arbitrary 3D geometry will be proposed. Additionally, the
 75 simplified model will be corrected in order to account for 3D aerodynamic effects. The limitations of the
 76 2D model will be discussed and, lately, 2D and 3D aeroelastic predictions will be carried out, performing
 77 an exhaustive comparison between them. In this sense, in order to ease the interpretation of the current
 78 article, the workflow followed during this investigation is sketched at Figure 1.

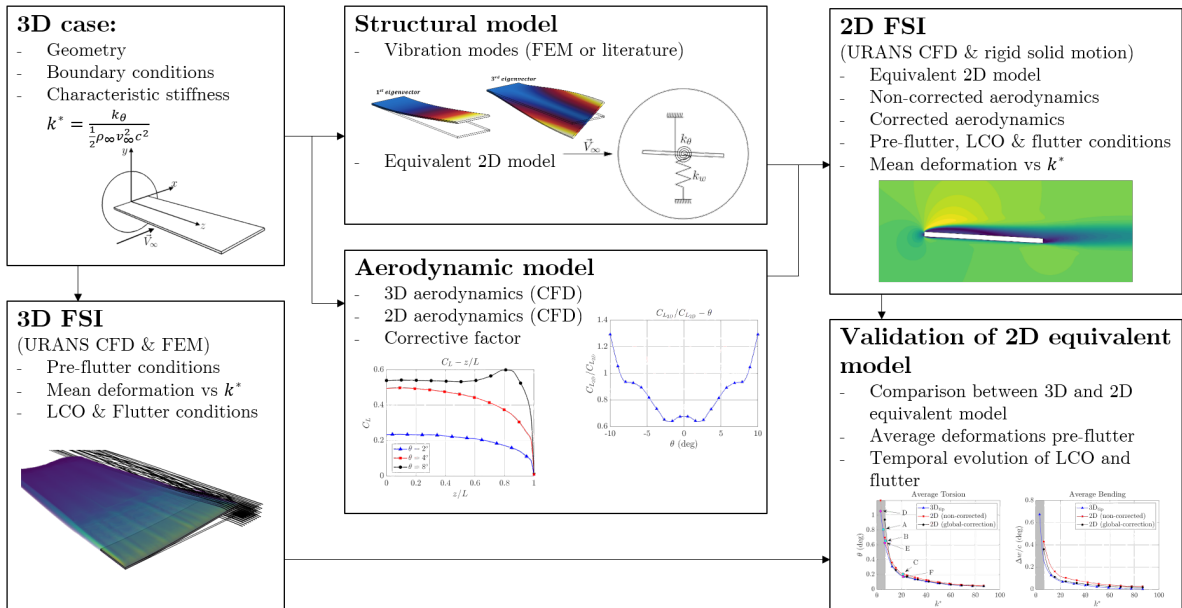


Figure 1: Block diagram of the procedure followed during the research

79 The methodology is applied to a simplified geometry, consisting of a cantilever flat plate immersed in a

80 virtual wind tunnel. The selection of this geometry is due to its main advantages. In first place, the system
 81 can be completely defined without many difficulties: (a) its mass and structural features are all well known;
 82 (b) the aerodynamic is complex and non-linearities can be identified for very low values of the angle of
 83 attack [22]. (c) Despite these complex aerodynamics, the detachment point is always located at the corner
 84 of the plate, leading to lift and moment coefficients which are almost independent from the value of the
 85 Reynolds number as a first approach [23]. Due to these features, and also to its direct applicability to other
 86 problems of the industry, the flat plate has also been studied in similar works by other researchers. It could
 87 be worth to reference the works of Gralund et al. [24], Savage and Larose [25] or Attaran et al. [26]. One
 88 direct applicability of this geometry can be found to model the structure and aerodynamic of photovoltaic
 89 panels and bridges, as it can be observed at the works of Jubayer and Hangan [27], Reina and De Stefano
 90 [28] or Larose and Livesey [29].

91 The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 provides a description of the reference case studied during
 92 this work. Section 3 shows the derivation of the equivalent 2D model. This section is illustrated by means
 93 of the example of the already mentioned cantilevered plate, although it could be applied to an arbitrary set
 94 of boundary conditions and bodies if the derivation conditions are complied with. After that, in Section 4
 95 the methodology for the resolution of the 3D and 2D cases is explained. Then, Section 5 discusses the main
 96 results of this study, comparing 3D and 2D, with and without aerodynamic corrections. Finally, Section 6
 97 summarizes the most important results and conclusions.

98 2. Description of the test case

99 The simulations proposed in this paper are performed on a cantilevered flexible flat plate immersed in a
 100 closed channel. The beam is clamped in one of its edges and is let to be free at the other.

101 The main dimensions of the case of study can be found at Figure 2, which shows a scheme of the problem
 102 both in 3D (left) and 2D (right). These are the chord of the plate ($c = 100\text{mm}$), its length ($L = 3.7c$) and
 103 its thickness ($h = 0.04c$), leading to an aspect ratio $AR = 2L/c = 7.4$. The channel is conformed by a
 104 square section of dimension $H = 4c$, with a length of $L_u = 5c$ upstream and $L_d = 15c$ downstream. Both
 105 distances are taken in a manner that the boundary conditions do not significantly affect the computed fluid
 106 flow ([30]). Finally, the plate is located at the center of the cross-section of the channel with an incidence of
 107 $\theta_0 = 2.5$ deg.

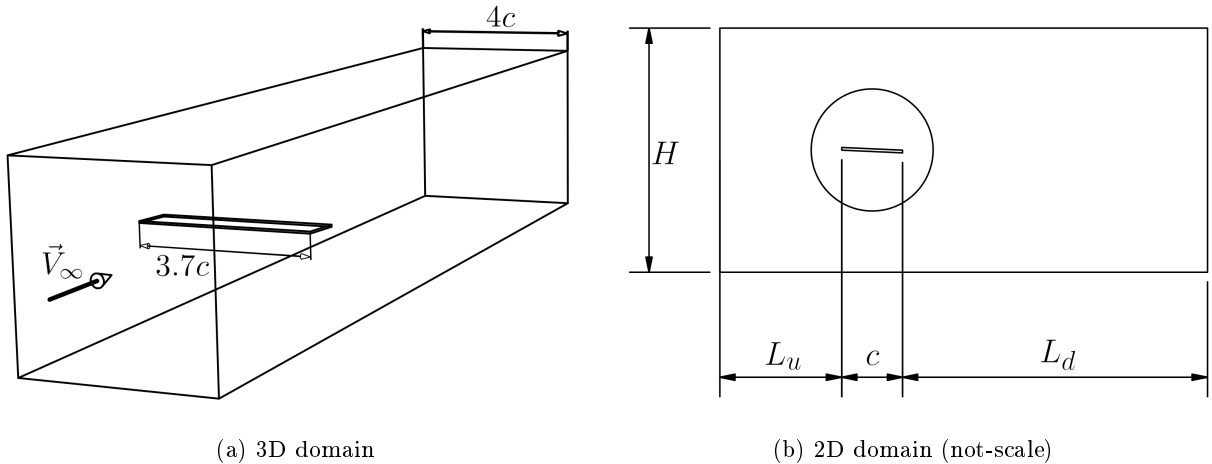


Figure 2: Domain of the simulation (not scale), 3D plate simulation (left) and 2D simplification of the problem (right)

108 The walls of the domain are supposed to be placed far enough from the plate in order to assume that the
 109 thin boundary layer is not significantly affecting its aerodynamics. The distances have been chosen similar to
 110 those studied on the work of Torregrosa et al. [23]. Here, they proposed the use of slip boundary conditions
 111 on channel walls in order to decrease the computational cost without jeopardizing the accuracy of the results
 112 and, therefore, a similar strategy is followed at the current work. On the other hand, it could be argued

113 that the closeness of the horizontal walls to the plate will make the aerodynamic of the body to be highly
 114 influenced by blockage effects. In fact, this is the case. However, as explained during the introduction of
 115 the paper, the main aim of this work is to propose a methodology for studying three dimensional geometries
 116 (both directly and by means of two dimensional simplifications) using CFD. Therefore, the methodology
 117 itself is the main contribution of the article and could also be applied to problems representing a structure
 118 lying in a farfield just by increasing these dimensions, although increasing the computational cost of the
 119 simulation.

120 The flow is perpendicular to the inlet section, with a reference constant velocity of $V_\infty = 20 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, which
 121 is maintained during all the simulations. The fluid is supposed to be air with inlet conditions of density
 122 $\rho_\infty = 1.18 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, viscosity $\mu_\infty = 1.86 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ Pa s}$ and sound speed $a_\infty = 340 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. For the flat plate, the
 123 reference material is polymethyl methacrylate, whose mechanical properties are given by its Young Modulus,
 124 $E = 3300 \text{ MPa}$; a Poisson coefficient of $\nu = 0.35$ and a density of $\rho_s = 1180 \text{ kgm}^{-3}$. With these parameters,
 125 the flow conditions are given by a Reynolds number of $\text{Re} = \rho_\infty V_\infty c / \mu_\infty \approx 1.5 \cdot 10^5$ and a Mach number of
 126 $\text{Ma} = V_\infty / a_\infty \approx 0.06$. Thus, the flow can be assumed to be incompressible.

127 It is important to point that the previous values are a reference for the problem. As it will later shown,
 128 the stiffness parameter which governs the problem is proportional to $E / (\rho_\infty V_\infty^2)$. Therefore, in order to
 129 analyze the influence of this parameter while maintaining the value of Re and Ma , the Young's modulus will
 130 be varied during the different simulations.

131 3. Derivation of the 2D equivalent model

132 In this section, the methodology to reduce a 3D arbitrary beam to an equivalent 2D section is derived.
 133 As it is well known, the behavior of the three dimensional system will be governed by the conjunction of the
 134 Lagrange equations [31], which can be written as:

$$135 \quad \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_j} \right) + \frac{\partial U}{\partial q_j} = Q_{q_j} \quad (1)$$

136 Where T is the kinetic energy of the structure; q_j represents the j^{th} generalized coordinate; U is the
 137 potential energy and Q_{q_j} is the generalized force corresponding to the coordinate q_j .

138 As the plate can be structurally modeled as a beam, its displacement could be expressed as a flexural
 139 motion, $\Delta w(z, t)$, combined with a torsional displacement, $\Delta \theta(z, t)$. Thus, it would be possible to express
 each of them as the sum of eigenfunctions, as follows:

$$140 \quad \Delta \theta(z, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\Theta_i(t) \cdot f_i(z)) \quad \Delta w(z, t) = c \cdot \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (W_i(t) \cdot g_i(z)) \quad (2)$$

141 where $f_i(z)$ and $g_i(z)$ are the associated eigenfunctions for torsion and bending, respectively [32] and $\Theta_i(t)$
 142 and $W_i(t)$ are the amplitude associated with each of them. Both functions must comply with the boundary
 143 conditions of the structure which, for the case of a clamped-free plate, are $\Delta \theta(0) = \Delta \theta'(0) = 0$; $\Delta w(0) =$
 144 $\Delta w'(0) = 0$ and $\Delta w''(L) = 0$. Figure 3 shows these functions for the flexural and torsional motion for the
 145 current set of boundary conditions. The eigenfunctions can be calculated analytically or numerically, as will
 be explained during the Section 4.

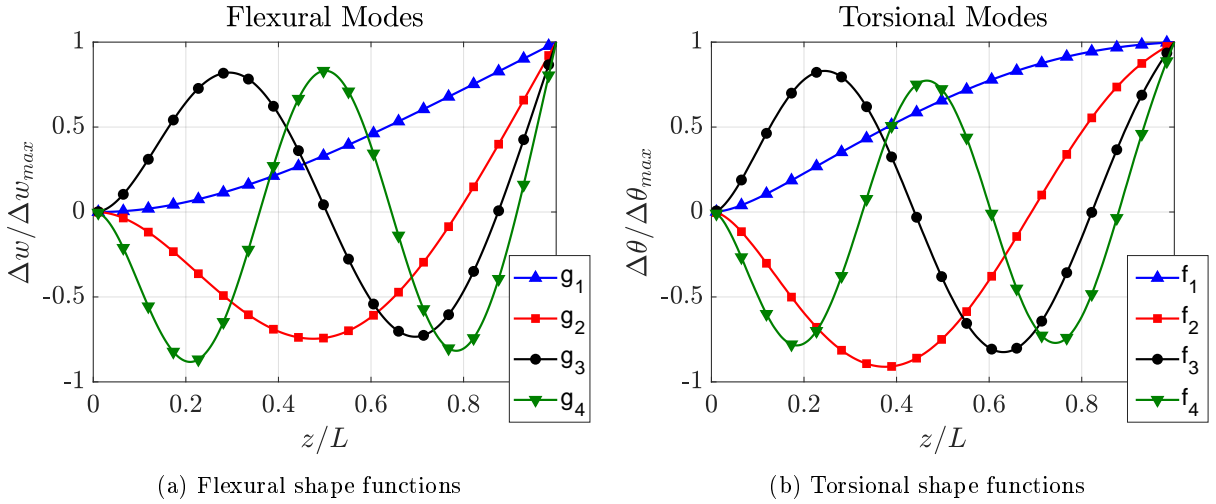


Figure 3: Normalized deformation modes along the span of the clamped flat plate corresponding to the bending (left) and torsional (right) modes

146 Once the motion of the plate can be supposed to be a combination of torsional and flexural modes, the
 147 vertical displacement and velocity of any point located over the plate (y_p) can be, therefore, calculated as
 148 equation 3.

$$y_p = -x \sum_0^{\infty} \Theta_i(t) \cdot f_i(z) + \sum_0^{\infty} W_i(t) \cdot g_i(z) \quad \dot{y}_p = -x \sum_0^{\infty} \dot{\Theta}(t) \cdot f_i(z) + \sum_0^{\infty} \dot{W}(t) \cdot g_i(z) \quad (3)$$

149 where x is the coordinate of the plate in the direction of the chord. Θ_i and W_i are the torsion and bending
 150 coefficients of the series, respectively.

151 With these assumptions, kinetic, T , and potential, U , energies of the plate could be expressed following
 152 Equation 4:

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \iiint \rho_s \dot{y}_p^2 d\Omega \quad U = \frac{1}{2} \int GJ \left(\frac{d \Delta\theta}{dz} \right)^2 dz + \frac{1}{2} \int EI \left(\frac{d^2 \Delta w}{dz^2} \right)^2 dz \quad (4)$$

153 where $G = E/(2 \cdot (1 + \nu))$ is the shear modulus of the material; J is the torsion constant of the section
 154 (which, for a rectangular shape with $h/c \ll 1$ results to be $J = \frac{1}{3} c h^3$) and I is the second moment of area
 155 of the section (which, for a rectangular shape results to be $I = \frac{1}{12} c h^3$).

156 Therefore, the left hand term of the Lagrange equations can be written, when a bounded number of
 157 N eigenfunctions are considered, and separating the contribution of the flexural and torsional motion, in
 158 accordance with Equation 5:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \vec{\Theta}} = \frac{1}{12} \rho_s c^3 h L M_{\theta} \vec{\Theta} \quad \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \vec{W}} = \rho_s L c h M_{\mathbf{w}} \vec{W} \quad \frac{\partial U}{\partial \vec{\Theta}} = \frac{GJ}{L} \mathbf{K}_{\theta} \vec{\Theta} \quad \frac{\partial U}{\partial \vec{W}} = \frac{EI}{L^3} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{w}} \vec{W} \quad (5)$$

159 Where \mathbf{M}_{θ} and $\mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{w}}$ are the mass matrices for the torsional and flexural motions, respectively, and \mathbf{K}_{θ}
 160 and $\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{w}}$ are the stiffness matrices for the torsional and flexural motions. Their components can be calculated
 161 as stated in Equations 6 and 7. Note that, if eigenfunctions are taken forming an orthogonal base, the terms
 162 off of the diagonal will be zero:

$$M_{\theta}^{ij} = \int_0^1 f_i \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) f_j \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) d \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \quad M_{\mathbf{w}}^{ij} = \int_0^1 g_i \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) g_j \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) d \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \quad (6)$$

$$K_{\theta}^{ij} = \int_0^1 f_i' \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) f_j' \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) d \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \quad K_w^{ij} = \int_0^1 g_i'' \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) g_j'' \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) d \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \quad (7)$$

163 Finally, it is necessary to obtain the generalized forces. In this sense, the virtual work, $\delta\mathcal{W}$, generated at
 164 an arbitrary section will be the combination of the virtual displacement produced by the vertical force (lift)
 165 and the virtual torsion produced by the aerodynamic moment. In consequence, Equation 8 can be stated:

$$\frac{d(\delta\mathcal{W})}{dz} = \frac{1}{2}\rho_{\infty}V_{\infty}^2c_l \cdot \delta w + \frac{1}{2}\rho_{\infty}V_{\infty}^2c_m \cdot \delta\theta = \frac{1}{2}\rho_{\infty}V_{\infty}^2c_l \cdot \sum_1^{\infty} (\delta W_i g_i) + \frac{1}{2}\rho_{\infty}V_{\infty}^2c_m \cdot \sum_1^{\infty} (\delta\Theta_i f_i) \quad (8)$$

166 Where c_l and c_m are the aerodynamic coefficients for lift and moment, respectively. Next, in order to
 167 obtain an equivalent 2D model by integrating Equation 8, two different assumptions will be made. Namely:

- 168 • The aerodynamic coefficients, c_l and c_m are a function only of the local angle of attack and its
 169 derivatives of each one of the sections, i.e. the effects of three dimensionality of the aerodynamics can
 170 be neglected, as a first approach.
- 171 • The aerodynamic force coefficients can be linearized around the rigid angle of attack. The linear term
 172 of the serie will be supposed to be constant for the whole span of the plate. This assumption is only
 173 valid when the difference between the pitching angle in the tip and the root is low.

174 With the previous assumptions, the aerodynamic coefficients of equation 8 can be written in a general
 175 way, as:

$$c_l = c_l(w_0, \theta_0) + c_{l\theta} \Delta\theta + \frac{c_{lw}}{c} \Delta w + \frac{c \cdot c_{l\dot{\theta}}}{V_{\infty}} \Delta\dot{\theta} + \frac{c_{l\dot{w}}}{V_{\infty}} \Delta\dot{w} + \sum_{n=2}^N \frac{c^n \cdot c_{l\theta^{(n)}}}{V_{\infty}^n} \Delta\theta^{(n)} + \sum_{n=2}^N \frac{c^{n-1} \cdot c_{lw^{(n)}}}{V_{\infty}^n} \Delta w^{(n)} \quad (9)$$

176 Being $\Delta\theta^{(n)} = \frac{\partial^n \Delta\theta}{\partial t^n}$ and $\Delta w^{(n)} = \frac{\partial^n \Delta w}{\partial t^n}$. As a consequence, it will be possible to establish the value of
 177 the generalized forces as follows:

$$\vec{Q}_{\bar{\Theta}} = \vec{Q}_{\bar{\Theta},0} + \frac{1}{2}\rho_{\infty}V_{\infty}^2c^2L\mathbf{A}_{\theta,w} \sum_0^{\infty} \frac{c_{m_w^{(n)}}c^{n-1}}{V_{\infty}^n} \vec{W}^{(n)} + \frac{1}{2}\rho_{\infty}V_{\infty}^2c^2L\mathbf{A}_{\theta,\theta} \sum_0^{\infty} \frac{c_{m_{\theta}^{(n)}}c^n}{V_{\infty}^n} \vec{\Theta}^{(n)} \quad (10)$$

$$\vec{Q}_{\vec{W}} = \vec{Q}_{\vec{W},0} + \frac{1}{2}\rho_{\infty}V_{\infty}^2cL\mathbf{A}_{w,w} \sum_0^{\infty} \frac{c_{l_w^{(n)}}c^{n-1}}{V_{\infty}^n} \vec{W}^{(n)} + \frac{1}{2}\rho_{\infty}V_{\infty}^2cL\mathbf{A}_{w,\theta} \sum_0^{\infty} \frac{c_{l_{\theta}^{(n)}}c^n}{V_{\infty}^n} \vec{\Theta}^{(n)} \quad (11)$$

178 where $\mathbf{A}_{\theta,\theta}$, $\mathbf{A}_{w,\theta}$, $\mathbf{A}_{\theta,w}$ and $\mathbf{A}_{w,w}$ are the aerodynamic influence matrices, whose components are given by:

$$A_{\theta,w}^{ij} = \int_0^1 f_i \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \cdot g_j \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) d \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \quad A_{\theta,\theta}^{ij} = \int_0^1 f_i \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \cdot f_j \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) d \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \quad A_{w,w}^{ij} = \int_0^1 g_i \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \cdot g_j \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) d \left(\frac{z}{L} \right) \quad (12)$$

179 Note how, as torsion and flexion eigenfunctions are not necessarily orthogonal between them, matrices
 180 $\mathbf{A}_{\theta,w}$ and $\mathbf{A}_{w,\theta}$ could contain non-zero values in its diagonal. However, when $i \neq j$, $\frac{A_{\theta,w}^{ij}}{A_{\theta,w}^{ii}} < 1$, indicating
 181 that cross terms contribute to a lesser extent to the resulting motion.

182 Additionally, for values of the velocity below or around the divergence, as the series are needed to be
 183 convergent, it should be possible to assume that $\frac{W_i}{W_{i+1}} > 1$, allowing then to neglect the terms with crossed

184 contribution between low and high order modes. This hypothesis will be demonstrated in the following
 185 sections. Therefore, it will be possible to establish a set of equations, as follows:

$$\frac{1}{12} \cdot \rho_s \cdot c^3 \cdot h \cdot L \cdot M_{ii}^\theta \ddot{\Theta}_i + \frac{GJ}{L} K_{ii}^\theta \Theta_i = \frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c^2 L \left(A_{\theta,w}^{ii} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{m_w^{(n)}} c^{n-1}}{V_\infty^n} W_i^{(n)} + A_{\theta,\theta}^{ii} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{m_w^{(n)}} c^n}{V_\infty^n} \Theta_i^{(n)} \right) \quad (13)$$

$$\rho_s c h L M_{ii}^w \ddot{W}_i + EI \cdot L^3 K_{ii}^w W_i = \frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c L \left(A_{w,w}^{ii} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{l_w^{(n)}} c^{n-1}}{V_\infty^n} W_i^{(n)} + A_{w,\theta}^{ii} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{l_w^{(n)}} c^n}{V_\infty^n} \Theta_i^{(n)} \right) \quad (14)$$

186 On the other hand, the equations governing the motion of an aeroelastic characteristic section can be
 187 expressed as:

$$I_{2D} \ddot{\theta}_{2D} + k_\theta \theta_{2D} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c^2 \left(c_{m_0} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{m_w^{(n)}} c^{n-1}}{V_\infty^n} w_{2D}^{(n)} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{m_w^{(n)}} c^n}{V_\infty^n} \theta_{2D}^{(n)} \right) \quad (15)$$

$$m_{2D} \ddot{w}_{2D} + k_w w_{2D} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c \left(c_{l_0} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{l_w^{(n)}} c^{n-1}}{V_\infty^n} w_{2D}^{(n)} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{l_w^{(n)}} c^n}{V_\infty^n} \theta_{2D}^{(n)} \right) \quad (16)$$

188 In consequence, an inspection of the equations would lead to the next deduction: the 2D airfoil is capable
 189 to accurately represent the first mode of the 3D plate motion, when 2D properties of the airfoil are taken
 190 to be:

$$I_{2D} = \frac{1}{12} \rho_s c^3 h \frac{M_{11}^\theta}{A_{11}^\theta} \quad k_\theta = \frac{GJ}{L^2} \frac{K_{11}^\theta}{A_{11}^\theta} \quad m_{2D} = \rho_s c h \frac{M_{11}^w}{A_{11}^\theta} \quad k_w = \frac{EI}{L^4} \frac{K_{11}^w}{A_{11}^{\theta,w}} \quad (17)$$

Therefore, dimensionally, it can be deduced how, for a given geometry, the aeroelastic response can be considered to be a function of the following non-dimensional parameters:

$$F_{2D} \left(\text{Re}, \text{Ma}, \frac{I_{2D}}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty c^4}, \frac{k_\theta}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c^2}, \frac{m_{2D}}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty c^2}, \frac{k_w}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2}, \frac{t V_\infty}{c}, \frac{w_{2D}}{c}, \theta_{2D} \right) = 0 \quad (18)$$

191 With this selection of parameters, it will be, therefore, possible to reduce the complex 3D model to an
 192 equivalent 2D. Next sections will be dedicated to the application of this reduced model and its comparison
 193 with the complete three dimensional case. The characteristic parameter of the analysis is the non-dimensional
 194 torsion stiffness $k^* = \frac{k_\theta}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c^2}$. Additionally, it can be observed how the relationship between the flexural
 195 and torsional stiffness and mass are $c^2 k_w / k_\theta \approx 0.183$ and $c^2 m_{2D} / I_{2D} \approx 9.12$ for the case of study.

196 3.1. 3D correction for 2D model

197 As stated in Section 1, the actual aerodynamic coefficients of the plate can be affected by three dimen-
 198 sional effects. Therefore, it should be possible to correct the two-dimensional forces to obtain more accurate
 199 results.

200 In order to obtain the ratio between 3D and 2D coefficients, a steady CFD analysis is performed both for
 201 the 2D and 3D problem. Then, a corrective factor multiplies the section aerodynamic coefficients. However,
 202 inspection of Equation 19, which shows the equation governing the torsion of the corrected 2D system,
 203 leads to the conclusion that multiplying the aerodynamic coefficients by the corrective factor is completely
 204 analogous to divide both the 2D masses and stiffness by the same factor.

$$I_{2D_{corr}} \ddot{\theta}_{2D} + k_{\theta_{corr}} \theta_{2D} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c^2 \left(c_{m_0} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{m_w^{(n)}} c^{n-1}}{V_\infty^n} w_{2D}^{(n)} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_{m_w^{(n)}} c^n}{V_\infty^n} \theta_{2D}^{(n)} \right) \quad (19)$$

205 Where $I_{2D_{corr}}$, $k_{\theta_{corr}}$ are the corrected inertia and stiffness respectively. A similar analysis can be applied
 206 to the flexural degree of freedom in order to obtain the corrected mass and inertia as a function of the angle
 207 of attack.

$$I_{2D_{corr}} = \frac{c_m(\theta)}{C_M(\theta)} I_{2D} \quad m_{2D_{corr}} = \frac{c_l(\theta)}{C_L(\theta)} m_{2D} \quad k_{\theta_{corr}} = \frac{c_m(\theta)}{C_M(\theta)} k_{\theta} \quad k_{w_{corr}} = \frac{c_l(\theta)}{C_L(\theta)} k_w \quad (20)$$

208 Where c_l and c_m are the 2D lift and pitching moment coefficients of the equivalent section; and C_L and
 209 C_M the lift and moment coefficients of the 3D plate.

210 4. Methodology

211 4.1. Numerical methodology for the resolution of the 2D case

212 As it was explained in Section 3, a three-dimensional flat plate can be calculated as a 2D equivalent section
 213 whose structural motion is governed by torsional and linear springs with stiffness k_{θ} and k_w , respectively,
 214 inertia, I_{2D} , and mass, m_{2D} . Figure 4, illustrates this transformation. Figure 4 (left) represents the real
 215 three dimensional model while Figure 4 (right) shows its 2D simplification.

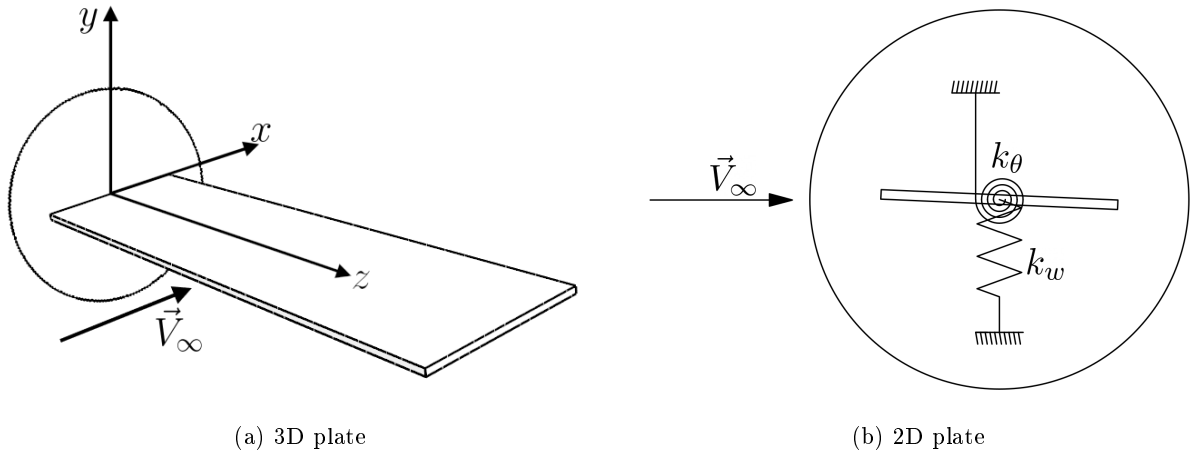


Figure 4: Scheme of the three dimensional lifting flat plate (left) and its equivalent two dimensional model (right)

216 Equations 15 and 16 have been solved by means of the Finite Volume Method, using commercial software
 217 Simcenter STAR-CCM+[®], solving the Unsteady Reynolds Average Navier Stokes (URANS) equations [33]
 218 for the fluid flow, and the rigid solid motion equations for the plate. In order to calculate flow separation
 219 under adverse pressure gradients ([34], [35]) $k - \omega$ with shear stress transport (SST) turbulence model [36]
 220 is chosen. This model varies from the $k - \omega$ turbulence model proposed by Wilcox [37] in the vicinity of the
 221 walls, to the $k - \varepsilon$ model away from them, solving the main inconveniences of both models.

222 For discretization, a polygonal mesh (polyhedral for 3D calculations) with second order upwind ROE
 223 FDS scheme [38] is adopted for the advection terms. The gradients are computed with a hybrid Gauss-
 224 Least Squares Method with Venkatakrisnan limiter [39]. For transient simulations, second order time
 225 discretization is used. To generate the discretized computational domain, an overset mesh methodology,
 226 which is widely used in the literature ([40], [41], [42], [43], [44]), is utilized [45].

227 The mesh size at the wall of the plate was taken to be approximately $\frac{\Delta x_{wall}}{c} \approx 0.004$; the mesh is
 228 gradually increasing its size from this boundary until reaching a practically uniform overset domain size of
 229 $\frac{\Delta x_{overset}}{c} \approx 0.020$, and, thus, ensuring interface similar sizes at the overset and background domains. Due to
 230 the expected importance of the wake, specially at medium-high angles of attack, the grid size is constrained
 231 to a size of $\frac{\Delta x_{wake}}{c} \approx 0.040$ at a region downstream the plate. The biggest size of the mesh at the domain is
 232 set to $\frac{\Delta x_{domain}}{c} \approx 0.200$. In order capture the effects of the wall boundary layer, a prism layer is generated

233 near the wall, with a thickness $\frac{\Delta y}{c} = 0.075$, containing a total of 5 layers, ensuring a maximum value of
 234 $y^+ < 1$ for the most part of the wall, as will be shown later. This configuration results in a computational
 235 mesh with an approximately $5.1 \cdot 10^4$ elements. As an example, Figure 5 shows an sketch of the constructed
 236 grid.

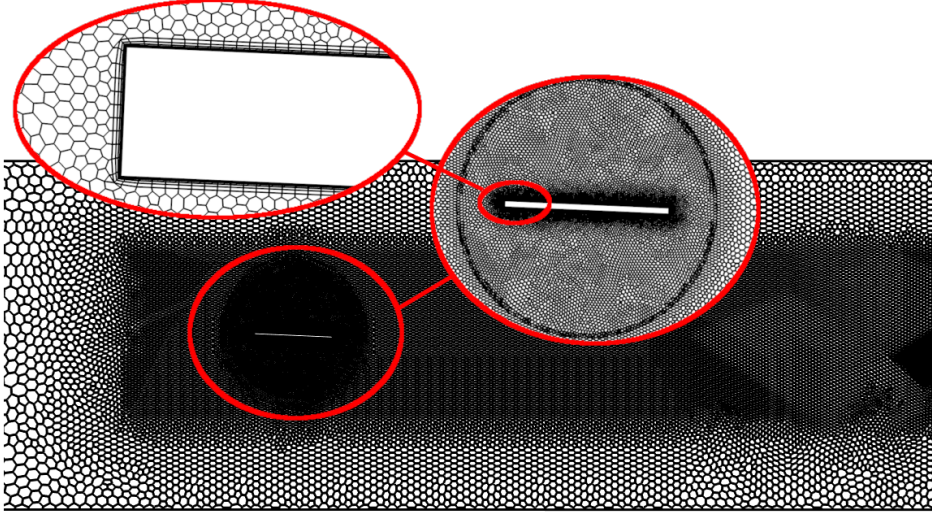


Figure 5: Sketch of the computational mesh (not scale) showing the different zones of refinement.

237 In order to check the spatial discretization, a grid independence study was performed using different cell
 238 resolutions. The study consisted on the obtainment of the aerodynamic forces and moments as a function of
 239 the steady angle of attack, as shown at Figure 6 where lift (left) and moment (right) coefficients measured
 240 at the center of the plate, are shown as a function of the angle of attack for different levels of grid resolution.
 241 It can be observed a fair agreement between all meshes for these parameters, even at angles near to stall.
 242 Similar trends are observed at the drag coefficient but, as this parameter should not be dominant on the
 243 plate motion, it is not shown. The 2D aerodynamic coefficients are defined from the 2D drag, F'_D , lift, F'_L
 244 and moment, M' , measured at the center of the section, as stated by Equation 21:

$$c_d = \frac{F'_D}{\frac{1}{2}\rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c} \quad c_l = \frac{F'_L}{\frac{1}{2}\rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c} \quad c_m = \frac{M'}{\frac{1}{2}\rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c^2} \quad (21)$$

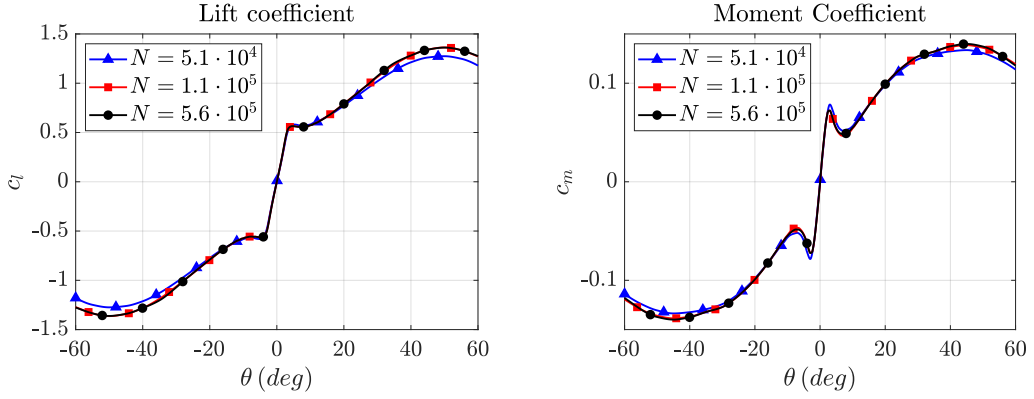


Figure 6: Comparison of lift (left) and moment (right) coefficients, measured at the center of the plate, for the 2D plate as a function of the angle of attack for different grid refinements

245 As it was previously stated, it is intended to obtain a resolution of the momentum boundary layer. In
 246 order to do this, it is necessary to ensure that the wall y^+ is kept in the viscous sublayer ($y^+ < 5$) for the
 247 major part of the wall. Figure 7 (left) shows the evolution of this parameter at the suction and pressure side
 248 for different values of the angle of attack. Note how $y^+ < 1$ for the whole plate. Moreover, this parameter
 249 allows to recognize how, even for the low angle of $\theta = 1$ deg a recirculation bubble appears at the suction
 250 side, extending for almost the 50 % of the length. For $\theta = 5$ deg, the recirculation is found for the whole
 251 length. These trends are confirmed by Figure 7 (right), where the distribution of the pressure coefficient
 252 ($c_p = \frac{p - p_\infty}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2}$) is shown for different values of the angle of attack. Note how the effects of the recirculation
 253 bubble can be inferred from the observation of an almost flat curve at the suction side of the plate.

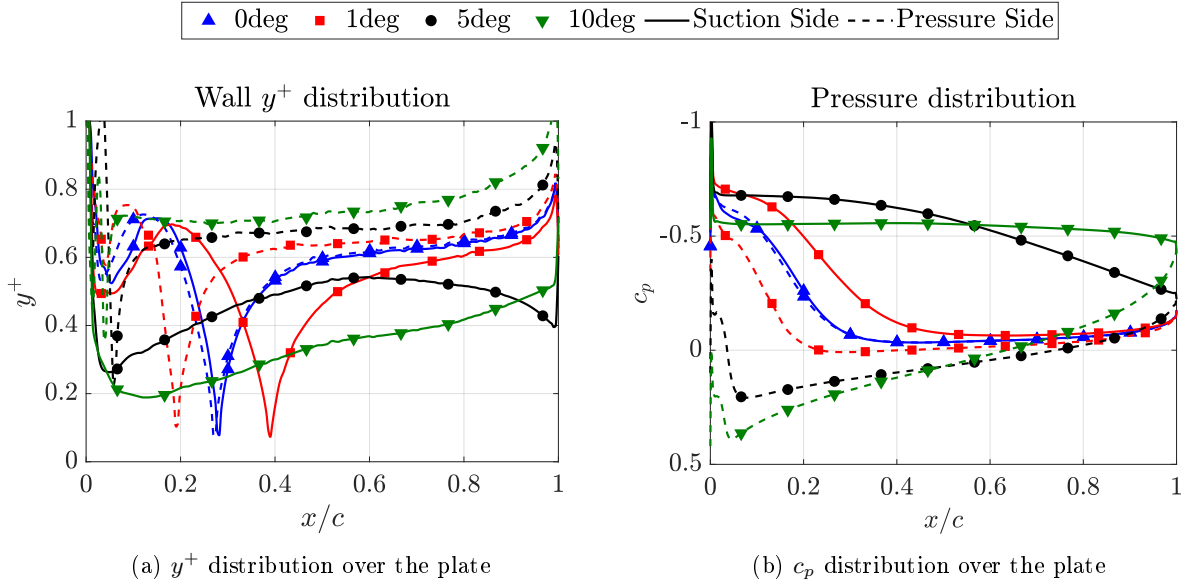


Figure 7: Distribution of wall y^+ (left) and pressure coefficient, c_p (right) over the plate at different angles of angle of attack.

254 In order to correctly model unsteady effects, Courant-Lewis-Federich number ($CFL = \frac{\Delta t V}{\Delta x}$) should be
 255 maintained to as low as possible for most part of the computational domain. For the current mesh with
 256 $N = 3.5 \cdot 10^4$ a time step of $\Delta t \cdot c / V_\infty = 1.25 \cdot 10^{-6}$ was chosen. Figure 8a shows the distribution of CFL

257 at an arbitrary instant, for a rigid angle of attack of $\theta_0 = 2.5$ deg at conditions of $\frac{k_\theta}{\frac{1}{2}\rho_\infty V_\infty^2 c^2} = 6.44$ and
 258 $Re \approx 10^5$. For the mentioned conditions the major part of the cells present a CFL lower than 2 and 90% of
 259 the volume has a CFL lower than 1.5.

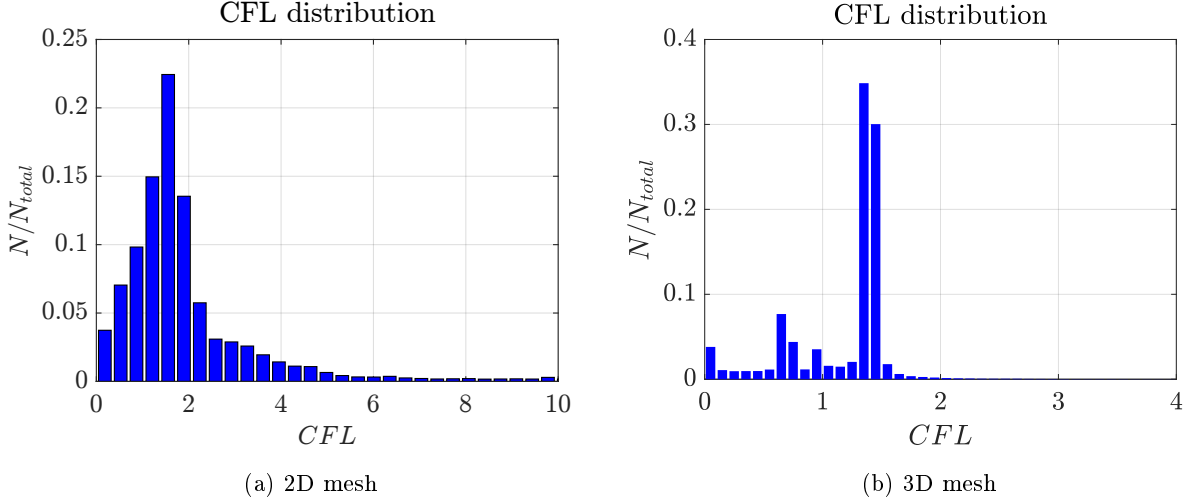


Figure 8: CFL distribution of the mesh for the specified time step at an arbitrary instant for the 2D (left) and 3D (right) computations.

260 For each value of stiffness or velocity, the case is firstly initialized with a steady-rigid fluid field. This is
 261 used as the initial condition for the unsteady flexible simulation, which is iterated until steady or statistically
 262 steady conditions are reached.

263 4.2. Numerical methodology for the resolution of the 3D case

264 The three-dimensional case uses the Finite Volume Method for solving the URANS equations named in
 265 the previous subsection for the fluid flow and the elastic solid equations for the plate [46], [47]. To simulate
 266 the motion of the solid, an overset region is set around it, in order to ensure maintenance of the overall
 267 quality of the mesh. The plate is deformed as a consequence of the applied fluid pressure and is modeled
 268 as a flexible linear body. The overset interface can be freely deformed in accordance with the plate motion
 269 and the rest of the cells of the region are interpolated using radial basis functions (RBF) from the solid
 270 boundary displacement [48].

271 The mesh size had to be increased in comparison with the 2D calculations, in order to state computational
 272 requirements bounded. The cell size at the walls was set to $\frac{\Delta x_{wall}}{c} \approx 0.010$, growing to a size of $\frac{\Delta x_{overset}}{c} \approx$
 273 0.020 at the overset. The size at the wake was set to $\frac{\Delta x_{wake}}{c} \approx 0.040$ and the maximum size at the
 274 furthest surfaces was $\frac{\Delta x_{domain}}{c} \approx 0.400$. With this configuration, the mesh is conformed by a total of
 275 $N \approx 5 \cdot 10^6$ elements, Figure 9 shows an image of the mesh. For the time discretization a temporal step of
 276 $\Delta t \cdot c/V_\infty = 5.00 \cdot 10^{-7}$ s is used. In addition, the time step follows the criteria for the CFL number (Figure
 277 8b) which is lower than 1 for a 92% of the volume.

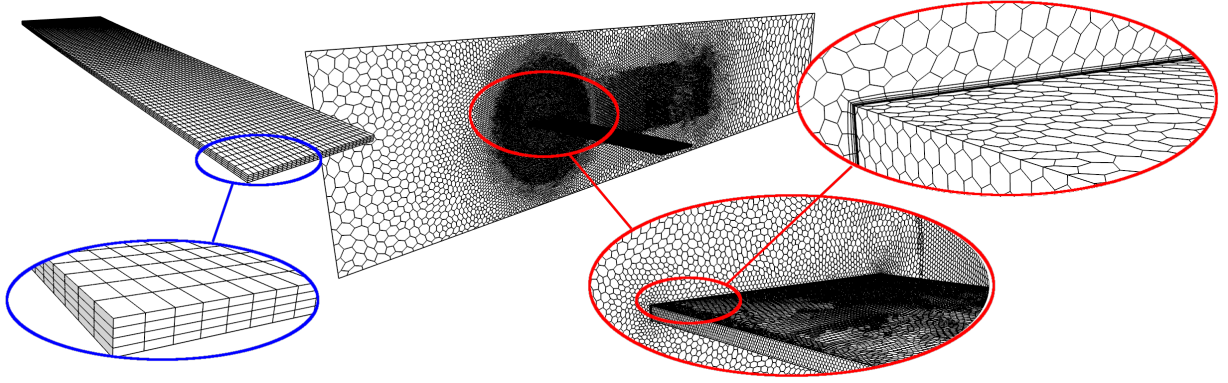


Figure 9: Solid mesh (left) and fluid mesh (right) of the 3D simulation. Detail on the plate and the boundary layer

278 In a similar way, as shown for the 2D geometry, it is necessary to ensure that the solution is not dependent
 279 on the discretization. In this sense, it was chosen to perform a spatial grid independence study based on
 280 the calculation of the stationary fluid field around the 3D plate, whose results are shown at Table 1. Observe
 281 how the discrepancies between the different simulations are minimal, ensuring grid independence of the fluid
 282 solution. The force and moment coefficients around the center of the clamped plate section are calculated
 283 in accordance with Equation 22:

$$C_D = \frac{F_D}{\frac{1}{2}\rho_\infty V_\infty^2 S_w} \quad C_L = \frac{F_L}{\frac{1}{2}\rho_\infty V_\infty^2 S_w} \quad C_M = \frac{M}{\frac{1}{2}\rho_\infty V_\infty^2 S_w c} \quad (22)$$

284 Being $S_w = L c$ the reference surface of the plate and F_D , F_L and M the drag, lift and moment,
 285 respectively, exerted over the plate.

Table 1

Comparison of the 3D force coefficients at different values of the angle of attacks for three different discretizations

$\alpha(\text{deg})$	Mesh $N = 4.7 \cdot 10^6$			Mesh $N = 7.0 \cdot 10^6$			Mesh $N = 15 \cdot 10^6$		
	C_D	C_L	C_M	C_D	C_L	C_M	C_D	C_L	C_M
0.0	0.0473	0.0000	0.0000	0.0450	0.0000	0.0000	0.0438	0.0000	0.0000
2.5	0.0555	0.2554	0.0585	0.0554	0.2554	0.0585	0.0541	0.2613	0.0602
5.0	0.0872	0.4945	0.0804	0.0867	0.4861	0.0711	0.0858	0.4826	0.0697
10	0.1551	0.5727	0.0687	0.1550	0.5725	0.0677	0.1535	0.5684	0.0659

286 Although the vibration modes of a clamped flat plate can be obtained theoretically [32], the Finite
 287 Element Method is used in order to generalize the procedures to any possible geometry and boundary
 288 conditions. The plate is discretized with elements of uniform size $\frac{\Delta x_{plate}}{c} \approx 0.035$ at the surface and a total
 289 of 4 elements through the thickness.

290 With these values, the eigenfrequencies and eigenvectors of the plate are calculated. It could be sup-
 291 posed that the discretization is good enough when the location value of the first 8 eigenfrequencies is not
 292 substantially modified when changing the mesh. Note that, if the resonance frequency, f_i was expressed in
 293 terms of the Strouhal number, $St_i = \frac{f_i c}{V_\infty}$, the i^{th} Strouhal resonance frequency could always be expressed as
 294 a function of the non-dimensional stiffness (k^*) and mass ($I^* = \frac{I_{2D}}{\frac{1}{2}\rho_\infty c^4}$), in accordance with Equation 23:

$$St_i = C_i \frac{L}{h} \sqrt{\frac{k^*}{I^*}} \quad (23)$$

295 If the constant C_i is known, the vacuum resonance frequency can be calculated at any working condition.
 296 Table 2 shows the value of each of these constants for different solid mesh discretizations for the current
 297 aspect ratio of $2L/c = 7.4$. It can be observed how the result of the eigenfrequency is not noticeably
 298 affected by the number of elements chosen at each case. In consequence, the structural spatial resolution for
 299 $N = 8.5 \cdot 10^3$ elements can be considered to be accurate enough from this point of view.

Table 2

Comparison of the vacuum resonance frequency for two different discretizations

N	C_1 (bending)	C_2 (bending)	C_3 (torsional)	C_4 (bending)	C_5 (torsional)
$8.5 \cdot 10^3$	$2.44 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.52 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.77 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.28 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$5.49 \cdot 10^{-3}$
$5.0 \cdot 10^4$	$2.42 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.49 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$1.73 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$4.19 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$5.35 \cdot 10^{-3}$

300 5. Results

301 This section presents the main results obtained during the current work. For easing its interpretability
 302 it is subdivided in two different sections: In first place, the aerodynamics of the rigid three-dimensional
 303 plate and its equivalent rigid two-dimensional characteristic section are presented, in order to quantify the
 304 corrective factor introduced at Section 3.1. Later, the deformation of the two systems is analyzed, starting
 305 with a validation of the hypothesis of neglecting high order modes and following with the capability of the
 306 two dimensional model for obtaining both the average deformation results and the beginning of instability
 307 aeroelastic zone.

308 5.1. Aerodynamic analysis

309 As it was previously stated, one important drawback of the reduction of dimensions is that, for a three-
 310 dimensional geometry, the aerodynamic loads are expected to vary as a function of the position in the span
 311 direction. In fact, for low values of the angle of attack, it is well known that a vortex is produced at the
 312 tip of any lifting surface, leading to an important reduction of lift compared with the pure two dimensional
 313 body. Similar effects could be observed when θ takes moderate-high values, although the effects of the
 314 tip are slightly different. Moreover, the center of pressure is moved and the aerodynamic moment is also
 315 modified. To visualize these effects, in Figure 10, the evolution of the force coefficients of the 3D plate with
 316 the depth coordinate are presented for two low and one moderate angles of attack. This figure shows how,
 317 as explained before, the aerodynamic correction of Section 3.1 should be applied to reproduce the effects
 318 of 3D aerodynamics. Note how integration about the z axis would allow to obtain the global aerodynamic
 319 coefficient of the plate. Figure 10a shows the distribution of lift coefficient. Observe how near the clamping
 320 ($z/L = 0$), the force can be considered to be approximately constant, decreasing, for low values of angle of
 321 attack when reaching coordinates near to the tip ($z/L \approx 1$). For moderate-high θ , the three-dimensional
 322 effects of the plate and the influence of the channel's walls produce an increase in lift close to the tip. Similar
 323 effects can be observed for the pitching moment, which is shown at Figure 10b.

324 Three-dimensional effects can also be illustrated by means of Figure 11, which shows the streamlines of
 325 the wall shear stress over the plate, colored by the value of the pressure coefficient, for different θ . These
 326 lines indicate the direction of the air over the plate and can be easily used for identifying different flow
 327 patterns, namely the existence of a recirculation bubble beginning at the leading edge of the suction side
 328 even for very low θ . Note how, for the case of $\theta = 2$ deg, this bubble is shorter at the tip and its size tends to
 329 increase when reaching the $z/L = 0$ position, where it occupies approximately the 25 % of the chord. The
 330 recirculation bubble grows when increasing the angle of attack (for instance, at $\theta = 4$ deg it occupies almost
 331 80 % of the chord) until its length correspond to the whole chord for high angles of attack.

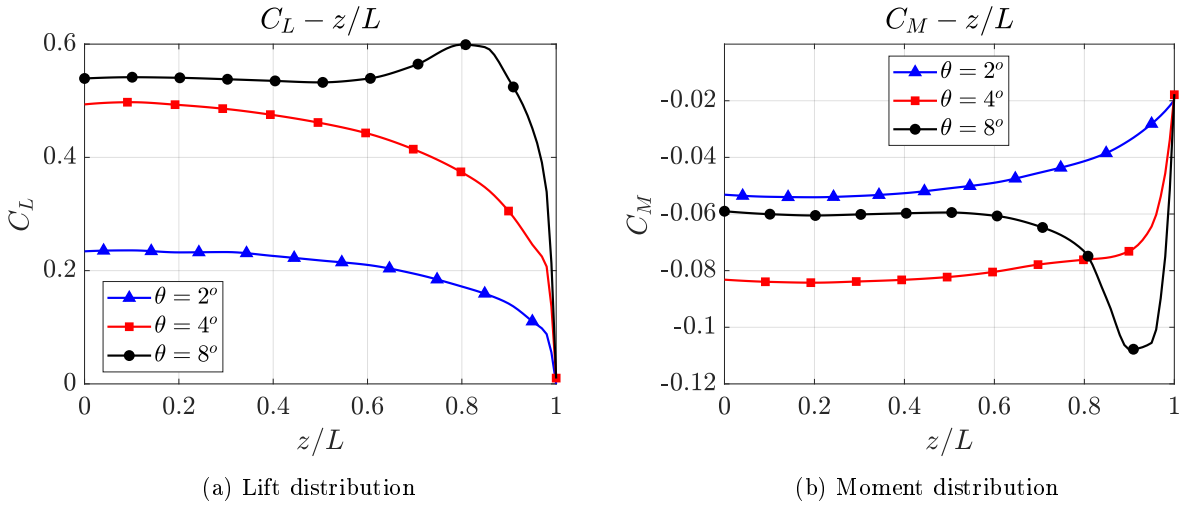


Figure 10: Distribution of lift force (left) and pitching (right) moment along the span measured at the center of the chord.

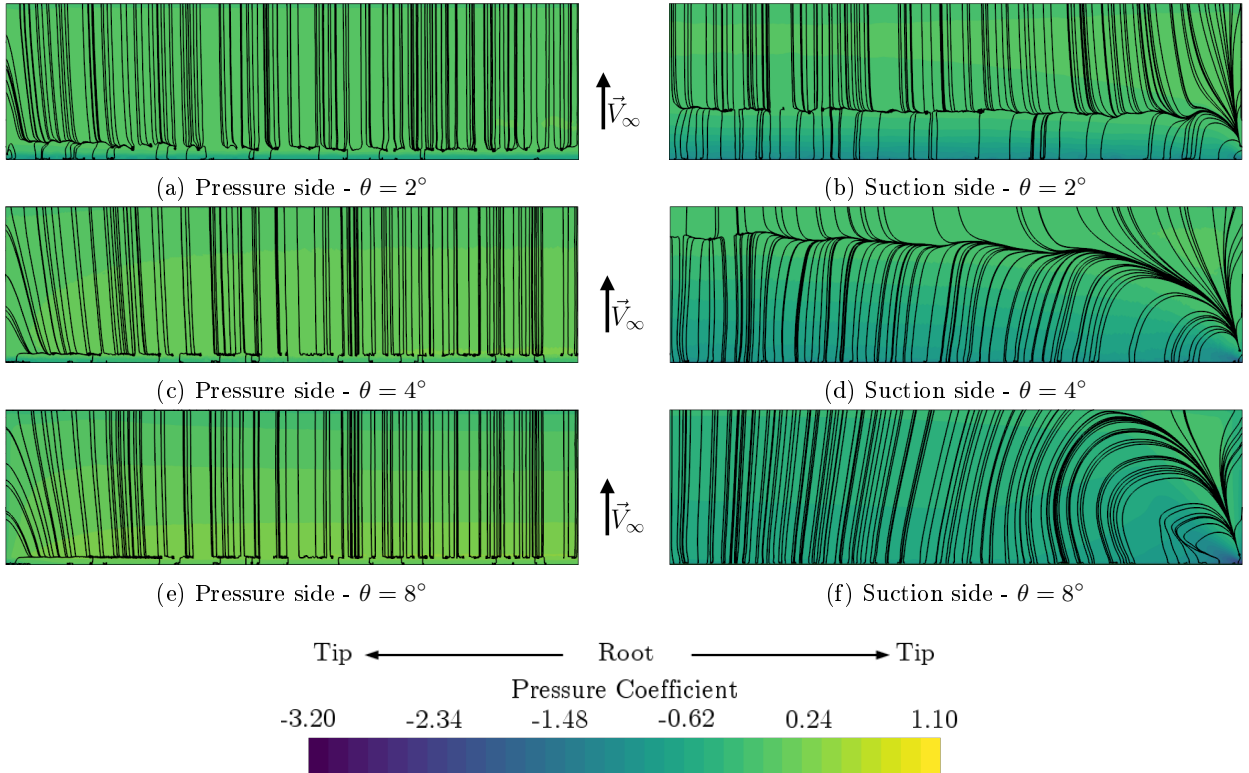


Figure 11: Pressure coefficient distribution and wall shear stresses at the pressure side (left) and suction side (right) for different values of angle of attack

332 Figure 12 might also be useful for visualization of these effects. Here, streamlines passing near to
 333 the plate's tip are shown both the perfectly rigid configuration (left) and at an arbitrary time step
 334 of the statistically stationary fully coupled solution, corresponding to a non-dimensional stiffness
 335 parameter of $k^* = 6.44$. As expected, similar fluid patterns can be inferred from the stream lines of both figures.
 336 Additionally, turbulence kinetic energy, k , is visualized, non-dimensionalized with the free stream velocity.

337 Streamlines show the vortex produced at the tip of the plate. A high turbulence kinetic energy zone starts
 338 after the sharp edge of the plate and continues downwards. The higher value of the turbulent kinetic energy
 339 is obtained in the recirculation bubble of the suction side, near to the shear layer. Then the kinetic energy
 340 is diffused downwards and its value is decreased until it is dissipated.

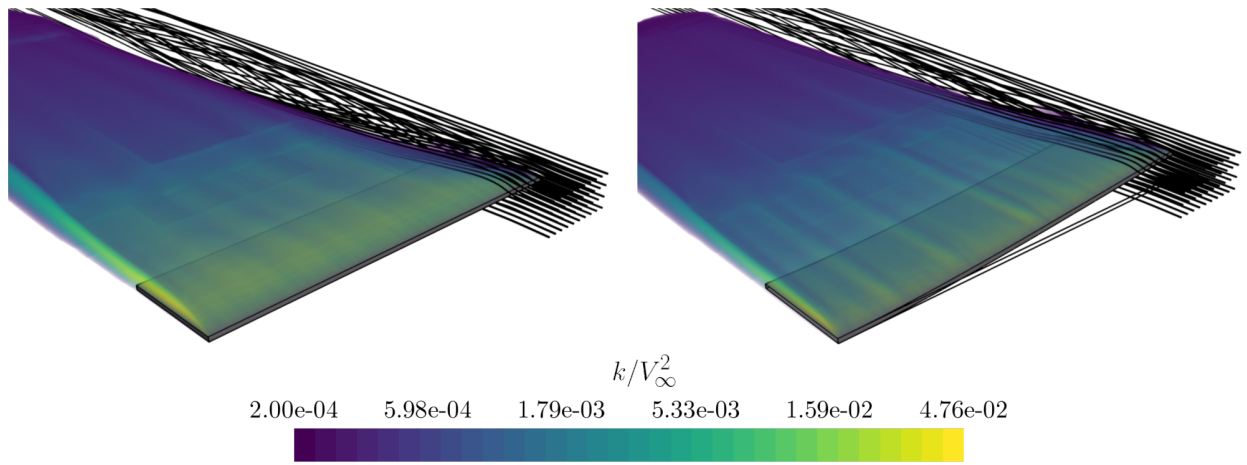


Figure 12: 3D effects on the flat plate with $\theta_0 = 2.5$ deg. Figure shows the solution for rigid plate (left, $k^* \rightarrow \infty$) and for an arbitrary time step corresponding with the simulations of a flexible plate of $k^* = 6.44$

341 Therefore, in order to obtain an accurate two-dimensional aeroelastic model, applicable to a wide range
 342 of angles of attack and non-dimensional stiffness, quantification of these effects over the global force and
 343 moment coefficients needs to be performed. Figure 13 illustrates the variation of the lift coefficient. The
 344 global lift coefficient ($3D_{\text{global}}$) is also shown. Note how, as expected, force coefficient near the root is similar
 345 to the two-dimensional calculation, although slightly minored. However, the value near the tip is far different
 346 from the 2D case. A correction for the lift coefficient is proposed in Figure 13b. This global correction uses
 347 the coefficient value of the 3D simulation to correct 2D results. Similar effects are observed for the pitching
 348 moment, shown in Figure 14.

349 In Figures 13 and 14, it is possible to appreciate how, for low θ the lift and moment in the 2D problem are
 350 higher than in the 3D simulation. For moderate to high values of the angle of attack, two-dimensional plate
 351 stalls while in the value of C_M continues increasing. Therefore, the correction applied to the 2D problem
 352 must decrease the value of the coefficients in the first zone and after a stall angle of attack, the coefficient
 353 must be amplified.

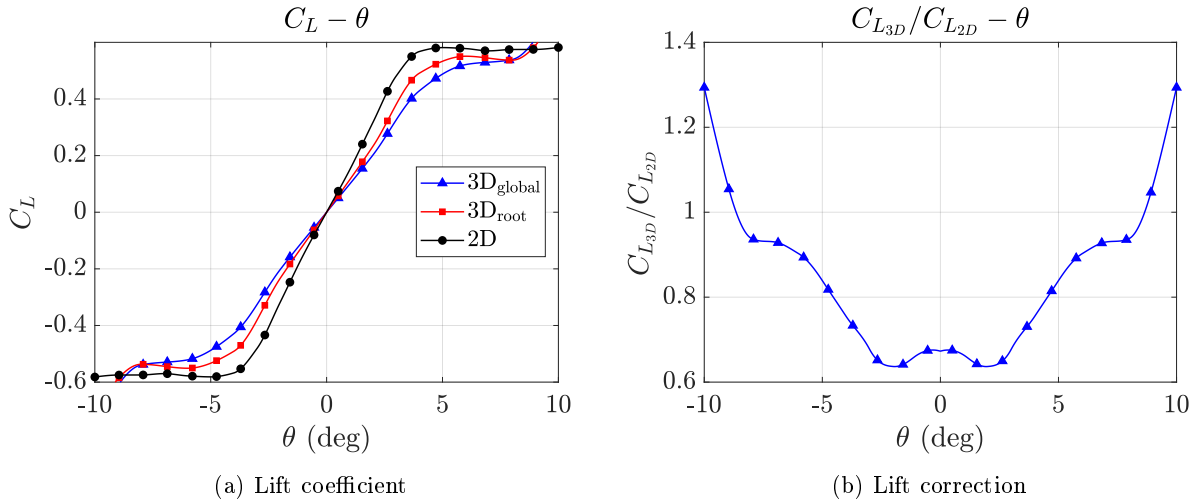


Figure 13: Lift coefficient for 2D section, root section and global 3D plate (left) and scaling coefficient for the lift force (right).

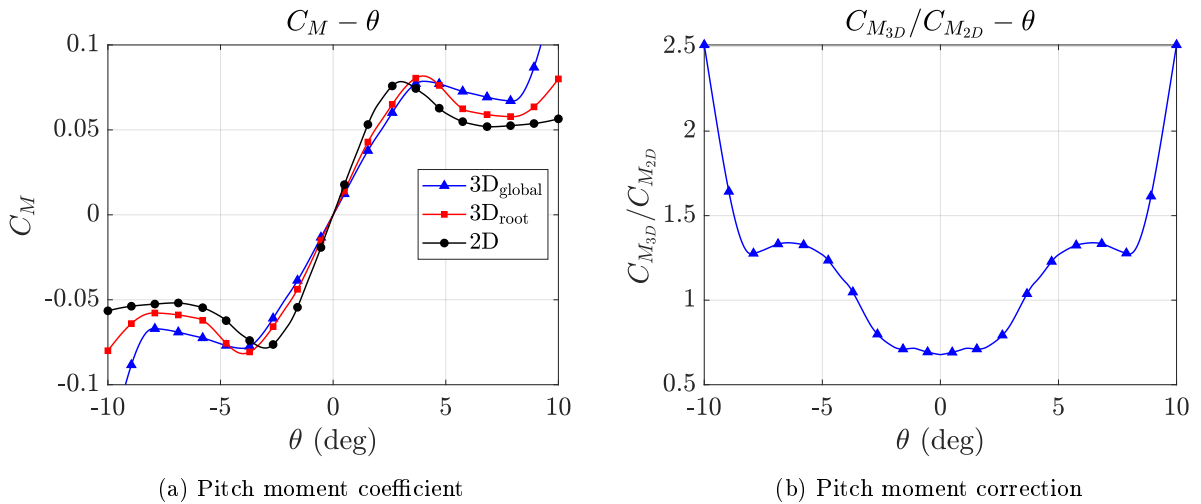


Figure 14: Pitch moment coefficient for 2D section, root section and global 3D plate (left) and scaling coefficient for the pitch moment (right).

354 **5.2. Deformation results and instability analysis**

355 The methodology derived during Section 3 took as hypothesis that only first modes of torsion and bending
 356 are dominant for quantifying the aeroelastic features of the system for values of the non-dimensional stiffness
 357 above aeroelastic instability. In order to examine the accuracy of neglecting high order modes, the shape
 358 of the deformed structure is compared with the modal deformation shapes, similarly as performed at [23].
 359 Figure 15 shows the modal contribution for bending (left) and torsion (right) for the 4 first modes. From
 360 this figure, it can be inferred how the first mode is dominant in both bending and torsion, with a modal
 361 factor contribution at least two orders of magnitude greater than the participation of higher order modes.
 362 Slight differences are observed between the first mode and the actual deformed shape. In consequence, for
 363 practical purposes, and given the substantial simplification in terms of computational cost, the hypothesis
 364 of neglecting high order modes can be considered to be accurate enough.

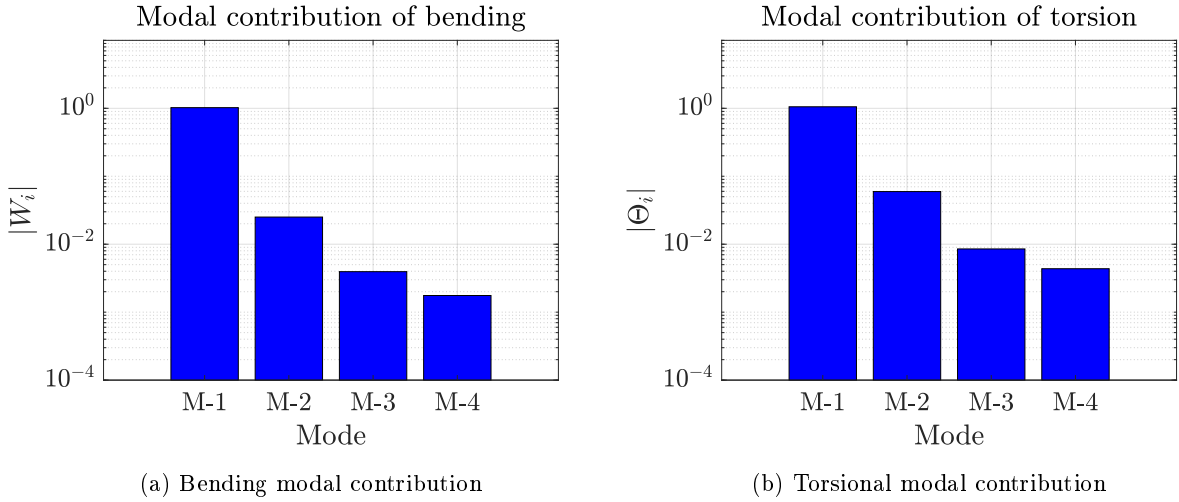


Figure 15: Modal contribution for the flexural and the torsional deformations for a reference plate with $k^* = 21$

365 Once the contribution of the high order modes has been analyzed and shown to be of negligible importance
 366 in the computation of deformation, it is possible to establish that the structural equivalence between the 2D
 367 and 3D models can be applied for evaluating the fully coupled problem. Next, the capabilities of both models
 368 will be analyzed. Figure 16a and 16b show the time average torsion and bending, respectively, predicted by
 369 the 3D and 2D (with aerodynamic corrections) models when a statistically stationary state is reached. Some
 370 points of this curve are highlighted, as their time history will be discussed later. The gray zone represents
 371 the values of k^* at which the slope of the curves becomes significantly high, which could be used as an
 372 indicator for predicting aeroelastic instabilities. Note the high capability of the 2D model for predicting the
 373 same results than the 3D for average torsion, even when not considering any kind of three dimensional effects
 374 for the 2D aerodynamic evaluation (red lines). However, this non-corrected model tends to overestimate the
 375 value of the average bending, which is in accordance with the already mentioned overestimation of the force
 376 coefficient of the 2D model.

377 The equivalence of the 2D and 3D models can be improved by the application of a three-dimensional
 378 aerodynamic correction. Note how, when applying a corrective factor accounting for the global coefficients
 379 of the plate (black lines), both prediction of torsion and bending obtained by the 2D and 3D models show
 380 a fair agreement.

381 Finally, note how the beginning of an aeroelastic instability could be identified by the observation of
 382 a zone of the curves at which the slope of both the average torsion and bending is abruptly increased,
 383 approximately for the same value of $k^* \approx 5.5$. As it will be shown later, this instability can be attributed to
 384 a stall flutter phenomenon, characterized by an oscillatory motion whose amplitude is constantly amplified
 385 with time. This phenomenon should not be confused with the classical linear flutter, as mechanisms of
 386 this last are completely different. In fact, classical linear flutter consists on a coupling between torsional
 387 and bending modes which can even be predicted ignoring aerodynamic non-linearities. Moreover in cases
 388 at which the center of gravity of the section and its elastic axis are coincident (as the current case) linear
 389 flutter is expected not to occur.

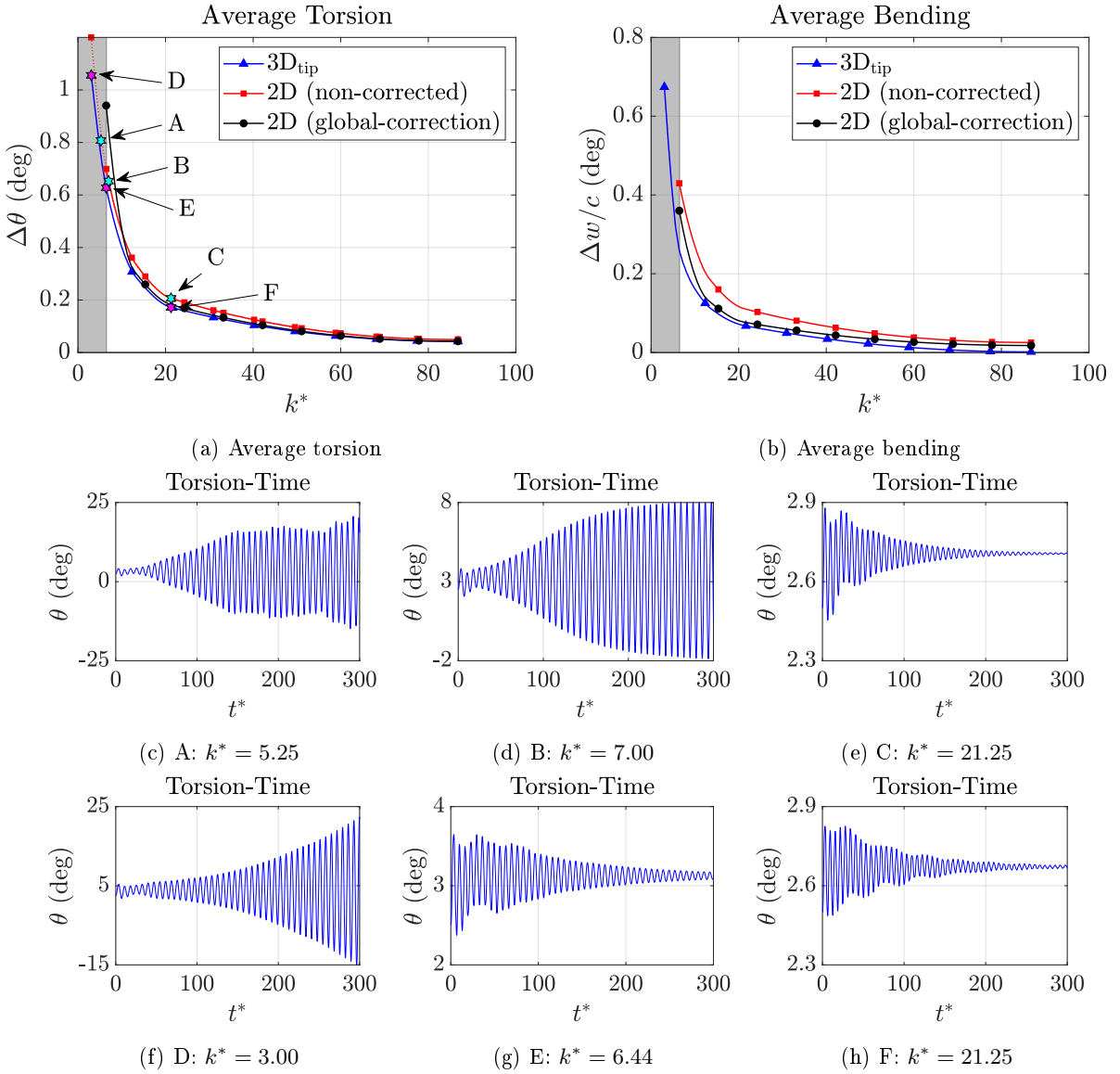


Figure 16: Top: Average deformation for the non-dimensional stiffness 16a and 16b. The shaded area shows the uncertainty limit of the 2D derived section. Bottom: Temporal evolution of the pitch respect a non-dimensional time $\left(t^* = \frac{tv_\infty}{c} \sqrt{\frac{k^*}{I^*}}\right)$ for 2D simulation cases A, B and C [\star] (16c 16d and 16e) and 3D simulations D, E and F [\star] (16f 16g and 16h).

390 The analysis of the time evolution of 2D and 3D models can be considered to be also of interest and,
 391 therefore, they will be discussed next, using the unsteady responses shown at Figures 16c-16h. Here, time is
 392 nondimensionlized as $\left(t^* = \frac{tv_\infty}{c} \sqrt{\frac{k^*}{I^*}}\right)$ in order to ease comparison between different k^* . Cases C (Figure
 393 16e) and F (Figure 16h) correspond to the evolution of the 2D and 3D computations, respectively, for a
 394 relatively high value of k^* . Here, it can be observed how the damping introduced by the aerodynamic forces
 395 is high enough to ensure that, at a sufficiently long time, the oscillations of the system are minimal, and a
 396 steady response is reached.

397 When the value of k^* is lower, the aerodynamic damping is decreased and, therefore, the oscillations of
 398 the system are not easily suppressed. In fact, when reaching the limit of instability, represented by the Case
 399 B (Figure 16d) for the 2D section, a stable Limit Cycle Oscillation (LCO) is observed. For this value of k^*

400 LCO is not already reached for the 3D simulation, case E (Figure 16g).

401 Similar trends can be observed analyzing values of k^* lying inside the stall flutter aeroelastic instability
 402 zone, corresponding to Cases A (Figure 16c) and D (Figure 16f). Here, the aerodynamic damping becomes
 403 zero, or even negative and, as a result, an unstable oscillation is found, predicting the 2D calculation a much
 404 more abrupt response than the 3D case. Both cases present a similar unstable oscillatory evolution, which
 405 can be attributed to a stall flutter phenomenon.

406 The Limit Cycle Oscillation can be further discussed by means of Figure 17. Here, the curves of c_l vs θ
 407 and the phase diagram are shown for the 2D calculation for a case just after (Case A) and just before (Case B)
 408 the instability region. Note how, at Figure 17d, for high values of time, a stable cycle can be identified, while
 409 the amplitude of the oscillation represented at Figure 17c is monotonically increased. Similar conclusions
 410 could be extracted from Figures 17a and 17b where, additionally, the high nonlinearities of the current
 411 calculations can be observed, showing a loop whose shape is significantly different to those results in the
 412 literature covering only the linear regime of angle of attack [49], [50].

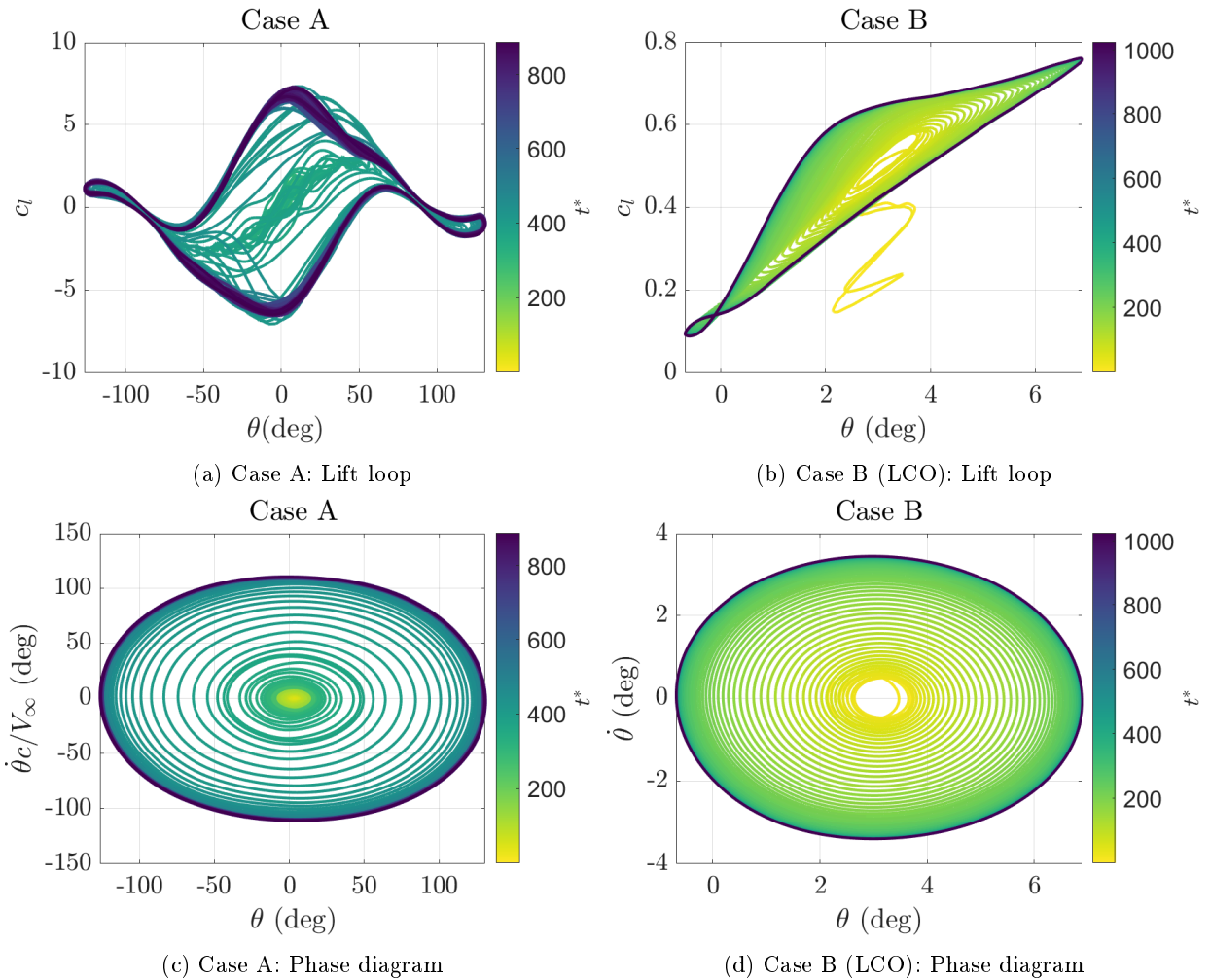


Figure 17: Aerodynamic hysteresis loop of the aeroelastic 2D simulation for flutter conditions (left) and LCO (right).

413 6. Conclusions

414 A methodology for obtaining an equivalent two-dimensional section from a three dimensional arbitrary
 415 structure has been presented during this work. This procedure allows modeling the main aeroelastic features
 416 of the 3D system and it is capable of accounting for aerodynamic non-linearities at arbitrary sections.
 417 The equivalent model has been shown not to be of straightforward derivation, in accordance with the
 418 literature. The main advantage of the proposed methodology is the reduction, by orders of magnitude, of
 419 the computational resources for a similar level of accuracy.

420 The methodology has been tested for a flat cantilevered plate inside an aerodynamic channel. Along
 421 the paper, a comparison between the 3D simulation and the equivalent 2D problem has been performed,
 422 obtaining low differences between the simplified section and the 3D case. As the 2D equivalent problem is
 423 representative of a 3D structure for most of the operation range, the procedure and methodology would allow
 424 to simulate arbitrary sections of arbitrary complex beams accounting for highly non-linear fluid dynamics
 425 effects. Relative to the aerodynamics, the wind loads calculated in the 2D simulation do not directly account
 426 for purely three-dimensional effects as tip vortex. This work, additionally, proposes and tests a corrective
 427 factor for the aerodynamic coefficients in order to obtain more accurate values of the aeroelastic deformations
 428 of the system. On the one hand, the non-corrected simulation gives good accuracy for the calculation of the
 429 pitching angle, but a slight overprediction of bending comparing with the three-dimensional results. On the
 430 other hand, the accuracy of these predictions has been shown to be substantially improved when applying
 431 a correction accounting for the total force and moment coefficients acting over the three-dimensional rigid
 432 plate. The main important advantages of this simplified methodology can be listed next:

- 433 • Although important simplifications have been assumed during the derivation of the equivalent model,
 434 it allows to obtain accurate deformation results, implying reduction on the computational cost by
 435 orders of magnitude respect to the 3D simulation.
- 436 • The aerodynamics of the reduced bi-dimensional model can be considered to be fully non-linear, given
 437 that the hypothesis listed during its derivation could be assumed to be valid.
- 438 • Therefore, the model should be useful for relatively quick estimations of aeroelastic linear instabili-
 439 ties, such as flutter or divergence. Also it could be used for the estimation of non linear instabili-
 440 ties/phenomena such as stall flutter.

441 The main hypothesis of the equivalent 2D derivation have been discussed, as well as their range of
 442 applicability, showing how, even with the important simplifications which were assumed during the derivation
 443 (the coupling between low and high order modes is neglected, the differences of the total pitching angle
 444 between tip and root are bounded...) the two-dimensional simplified geometry is capable to provide with the
 445 same aeroelastic phenomena than the three dimensional plate, for the studied range of application. Therefore,
 446 the current methodology can be applied for the study of non-linear aeroelastic systems for high and medium
 447 values of the non dimensional stiffness, showing a high capacity for predicting the same deformations and
 448 instabilities zones of its equivalent 3D cases.

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454 **Symbols**

$\Delta\theta$	Torsional motion
Δw	Flexural motion
Δx_{domain}	Largest grid size on the domain
$\Delta x_{overset}$	Grid size on the overset region
Δx_{plate}	Grid size on the plate
Δx_{wake}	Grid size on the wake
Δx_{wall}	Grid size on the walls
$\delta\theta$	Pitching angle differential
$\delta\mathcal{W}$	Virtual work derivative
δw	Plunge differential
ϵ	Turbulent dissipation
$\vec{\Theta}$	Vector of torsional modes amplitude
$\Theta_i(t)$	Amplitude associated with torsional modes
θ_0	Initial pitch angle of the plate
θ_{2D}	Pitching angle of the 2D section
μ_∞	Free stream viscosity
ν	Poisson coefficient
ρ_∞	Free stream density
ρ_s	Solid density
ω	Turbulent dissipation rate
$\mathbf{A}_{\theta,\theta}, \mathbf{A}_{\theta,w}, \mathbf{A}_{w,\theta}, \mathbf{A}_{w,w}$	Aerodynamic influence matrix
a_∞	Free stream speed of sound
AR	Aspect ratio
C_D	3D drag coefficient
C_i	Vacuum resonance frequency
C_L	3D lift coefficient
C_M	3D pitch moment coefficient
c	Chord of the plate
c_d	2D drag coefficient
c_l	2D lift coefficient
$c_{l_\theta}^{(n)}$	2D lift coefficient n derivative respect to the pitch angle
$c_{l_w}^{(n)}$	2D lift coefficient n derivative respect to the vertical position
c_m	2D pitch moment coefficient
$c_{m_\theta}^{(n)}$	2D pitch moment coefficient n derivative respect to the pitch angle
$c_{m_w}^{(n)}$	2D pitch moment coefficient n derivative respect to the vertical position
CFL	Courant-Friedrichs-Levy number
$d\Omega$	Differential of the volume
E	Young's modulus
F_D	3D drag force
F'_D	2D drag force
F_L	3D lift force
F'_L	2D lift force
f_i	Torsional eigenfunction

G	Transversal elastic modulus
g_i	Bending eigenfunction
H	Section of the wind tunnel
h	Thickness of the plate
I	Second moment of area of the section
I^*	Non-dimensional inertia of the cross section of the plate
I_{2D}	2D inertia of the plate
$I_{2D_{corr}}$	2D inertia of the plate corrected with 3D aerodynamics
J	Polar moment of inertia
\mathbf{K}_θ	Stiffness matrix of the torsional modes
\mathbf{K}_w	Stiffness matrix of the flexural modes
k	Turbulent kinetic energy
k^*	Characteristic non-dimensional stiffness of the plate
k_θ	2D torsional stiffness
$k_{\theta_{corr}}$	2D torsional stiffness corrected with 3D aerodynamics
k_w	2D flexural stiffness
$k_{w_{corr}}$	2D flexural stiffness corrected with 3D aerodynamics
L	Span of the plate
L_d	Downwind distance domain
L_u	Upwind distance domain
M	3D pitch moment
M'	2D pitch moment
\mathbf{M}_θ	Mass matrix of the torsional modes
\mathbf{M}_w	Mass matrix of the flexural modes
m_{2D}	2D mass of the plate
$m_{2D_{corr}}$	2D mass of the plate corrected with 3D aerodynamics
Ma	Mach number
N	Number of elements
Q_{q_j}	Generalized forces
q_j	Generalized coordinate of the plate
S_w	Reference surface of the plate
St	Strouhal number
T	Kinetic energy of the plate
t	Time
t^*	Non-dimensional time
U	Potential energy of the plate
Re	Reynolds number
V_∞	Free stream velocity
\vec{W}	Vector of flexural modes amplitude
$W_i(t)$	Amplitude associated with flexural modes
w_0	Initial vertical position of the plate
w_{2D}	Plunge of the 2D section
x	Position coordinate
y	Position coordinate
y_p	Vertical displacement of a point over the plate
z	Position coordinate

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