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Integrated design of flight control surfaces and laws for new aircraft configurations

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Abstract: Control architecture sizing is a main challenge for new aircraft design like blended wing-body design. This aircraft configuration typically features redundant elevons located at the trailing edge of the wing, acting simultaneously on pitch and roll axes. The problem of integrated design of control surface sizes and flight control laws for an unstable blended wing-body aircraft is addressed here. Latest tools for \( H_\infty \) non-smooth optimization of structured controllers are used to optimize in a single step the gains for both longitudinal and lateral control laws, and a control allocation module, while minimizing control surfaces total span. Following constraints are ensured: maximal deflection angles and rates for 1) pilot longitudinal pull-up 2) pilot bank angle order and 3) longitudinal turbulence. Using this coupled approach, significant gains in terms of outer elevons span compared to the initial layout are demonstrated, while closed-loop handling qualities constraints are guaranteed.

Keywords: Integrated design, Flight Control Law, Aircraft, \( H_\infty \) control, Dynamics, BWB

1. INTRODUCTION

Among other disruptive aircraft configurations, the Blended Wing-Body (BWB) was identified for years as a promising candidate for the future of civil aviation Liebeck (2004). The rationale for this game-changing configuration is as follows: instead of considering separate geometrical components for each basic function of an aircraft, namely Lift, Transport, Control and Propulsion, the BWB gathers the three former functions into a single lifting surface. As a consequence of this functions merging, an overall improved efficiency is expected, implying significant gains in terms of fuel consumption Martinez-Val and Pérez (2005); Liebeck (2004); Qin et al. (2004); Bolsunovsky et al. (2001). This paper focuses on an Airbus long-range BWB configuration.

Major challenges yet to be solved before a potential entry into service include control-related issues Roman et al. (2000). These issues first originate from the nature of the control devices used for this configuration: the BWB is controlled with multi-control surfaces, also named elevons, usually spanning the whole trailing-edge and acting as pitch and roll devices. Among challenges implied by this technology, new handling qualities criteria are required in order to take into account the combined authority of control surfaces on longitudinal and lateral axes. This was already addressed in a previous work Saucez and Boiffier (2012).

Then concerning control surfaces area sizing, two phenomena have a combined detrimental effect both on actuators mass and power consumption Roskam (1985). On the other hand, trailing edge elevons induce high aerodynamic hinge moments due to their large area. On the other hand, high deflection rates result from the longitudinal stabilization of an unstable configuration. Indeed the Airbus BWB features a negative static margin, specially at low speed (see section 2.2), i.e. an unstable short-period mode. For that reason it requires a permanent Stability Augmentation System (SAS) in order to guarantee adequate safety and handling qualities. However it was shown in a previous study Denieul et al. (2015a) that the more unstable an aircraft, the faster its control surfaces need to move in order to maintain the equilibrium under disturbance. This effect is even increased on the BWB, for elevons lack longitudinal lever arm with respect to center of gravity (CG). During preliminary design phase, control surfaces pitch efficiency should then be sought to be maximized, for instance by increasing control surfaces area as much as possible, which is conflicting with previously mentioned requirement on hinge moments limitation.

Both large hinge moments and high deflection rates have a direct impact on FCS sizing and secondary power con-
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In the field of aeronautics two complementary approaches were studied. The first method considers integrating a
stability and control module into a multidisciplinary opti-

mization (MDO) process Perez et al. (2006). A second
more control-oriented approach takes advantage of opti-
mization tools developed for controllers design in order
to simultaneously optimize a controller and some meaning-
optimized in a single loop a longitudinal controller and
elevator control surface using linear matrix inequalities
(LMI) framework. More recently, nonsmooth optimization
methods enabling structured linear varying parameters
(LPV) controllers were applied to the longitudinal inte-
grated design and control problem Lhachemi et al. (2015).

We propose to extend this approach to longitudinal / lat-
eral integrated design and control of a BWB by optimizing
together a three-axes control laws and control surfaces
total span, using nonsmooth optimization techniques for
fixed structure controllers. The main contribution of this
paper is to optimize in a single step the control surfaces
span, the control allocation module, and flight control
laws, in order to guarantee longitudinal and lateral han-
dling qualities constraints with a minimum control surfaces
size.

This paper is organized as follows: in section 2 the flight
dynamics models are presented. Then section 3 introduces
the strategy for parameterizing the elevons total span, and
obtaining a parametrized state-space representation suit-
able for optimization. The integrated design and control
problem of computing structured longitudinal / lateral
control laws gains together with optimal elevons size is
presented in section 4, and results are discussed in section
5.

2. AIRCRAFT FLIGHT DYNAMICS AND CONTROL
In this section the models used in sections 3 and 4
for design, control and simulation are described. The
configuration studied in this paper is a long-range BWB
whose planform results from optimization studies on high-
speed performance with constraints on low-speed pitching
moment Meheut et al. (2012). The focus of this work is the
sizing of control surfaces; thus, the planform is considered
constant. The planform and initial control surfaces layout
are visible on Figure 2(a).

2.1 Linear Model of Flight Dynamics Equations
In order to perform control laws synthesis and linear anal-
ysis, Flight Dynamics equations are linearized around equi-
librium flight points. These initial equilibria are computed
for the following conditions: zero flight path angle, sideslip
and bank angle. At a given flight operating conditions
in terms of mass (m), Mach number (M) and altitude (H),
the 3-axis model state-space representation reads:

\[ X = AX + BU + B_w w_z \]
\[ Y = CX + DU + D_w w_z \]

where \( X = [\delta V \delta \alpha \theta \phi \psi \theta \beta p r \phi]^T \) is the state vector
composed of \( \delta V = V - V_e \) the relative airspeed with
respect to the equilibrium speed, \( \delta \alpha = \alpha - \alpha_e \) and
\( \delta \theta = \theta - \theta_e \) relative angle of attack and pitch altitude
with respect to the equilibrium respectively, sideslip \( \beta \) and
\( p, q, r \) rotation rates of the aircraft with respect to the
earth reference frame in roll, pitch and yaw respectively.

\[ \Delta \dot{m} = [\Delta \dot{m}_l \Delta \dot{m}_r]^T, \quad \Delta \dot{m}_l = \dot{m}_l - \dot{m}_e \]

the relative deflection of the \( i - th \) elevon control surface
with respect to the equilibrium position. Each of the 10
elevons is actuated independently, through a control al-
location strategy presented in 4.2. Elevons layout shown in
Figure 2(a) is ordered in the control vector as follows:

\[ \delta m_{l,i=1...10} = [L_{DQ1}...L_{DQ5}, R_{DQ1}...R_{DQ5}] \]

Control vector also contains rudder deflection \( \delta \).
While two rudders are visible on the configuration of Figure 2(a)
(LDR and RDR), it was chosen for sake of clarity to group
them as a single control with twice the efficiency
of one rudder; the aim of our study is indeed not to
size vertical surfaces but only elevons. The output vector
\( Y = [N_z, q, \beta, p, r, \phi]^T \) is composed of the vertical load
factor \( N_z \) and the measured state variables. Finally turbu-
lence effect is included as a vertical velocity \( w_z \) expressed
in the earth reference frame, under the assumption that it
acts as an increment of angle of attack. The model used
for turbulence is described in section 2.3.
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For a given Aircraft configuration, the coefficients of state-space matrices (Eq. (2) and (3)) depends on the flight conditions \((m, M \text{ and } H)\). The modes of the eight-states aircraft dynamics presented in Eq. (2) are depicted in Figure 1. For sake of clarity poles are shown only for one mass and altitude, with Mach number varying between 0.45 to 0.85. The main point to retain from Figure 1 is the strong instability of the short-period (SP) oscillation and a poorly damped Dutch roll mode (DR).

### 2.3 Turbulence Model

A Dryden continuous turbulence model is used for simulating vertical continuous turbulence \(w_z\). A band-limited white noise \(e_w\) is passed through a forming filter approximating the Dryden velocity spectra. The transfer function has the following expression from Standard (1990):

\[
H_{w_z}(s) = \frac{w_z}{e_w}(s) = \sigma_z \sqrt{\frac{2L_z}{\pi V V (1 + \frac{\pi V}{4} s)^2}}
\]

where \(V\) is the aircraft airspeed, \(L_z\) is the vertical turbulence scale length that was set to 500 m and \(S\) is the reference area.

### 2.4 Actuators Model

A second-order actuators model accounting for their bandwidth and damping is used:

\[
y_{act}(s) = \frac{y_{act}}{u_{act}} = \frac{\omega_0^2}{s^2 + 2z\omega_0 s + \omega_0^2}
\]

A single bandwidth and damping of respectively \(\omega_0 = 1.4Hz\) and \(z = 0.8\) was used. Previous studies considered allocating different bandwidth for all control surfaces Deniel et al. (2015a,b), however this is out of the scope of present paper. A 100 ms delay (approximated by a second-order Padé filter) accounting for sensors, computers and data processing is included in the control law synthesis and simulation. Actuators and delay are visible on control law structure of Figure 5.

### 3. PARAMETRIC REPRESENTATION OF CONTROL SURFACES SPAN VARIATION

In this section a process for obtaining a continuous approximation of control surfaces efficiencies for varying outer elevons span is presented. This part aims at obtaining a continuously parametrized state-space representation, so that the continuous optimizer presented in section 4 may use the continuous variable representing elevons size as an optimization variable.

#### 3.1 Geometric Parametrization of Control Surfaces Span

Outer elevons total span is chosen as a plant Figure-of-merit to be minimized. More precisely a variable \(\eta\) representing the ratio of outer elevons total span compared to the initial control surfaces span is introduced. On Figure 2(a) initial elevons layout, corresponding to parameter value \(\eta = 1\) is presented. This initial layout features five control surfaces on each side of the wing spanning the whole trailing edge, except a gap between elevon 1 and 2 for engine pylon integration – elevons are numbered from inboard to outboard. Elevons relative chord is limited in \(x\)-wise position by cabin integration for elevon 1, and by rear spar for elevons 2 to 5. So it was decided: (i) elevon 1 is constant, (ii) relative chord and span are constant for elevons 2 to 5 (split equally on the outer wing), (iii) the number of elevons is constant. Elevons number is mostly a failure cases problem that is out of scope of our study.

It is then clear that \(0 \leq \eta \leq 1\), \(\eta = 1\) corresponding to initial elevons layout and \(\eta = 0\) corresponding to the lack of any control surface on the outer wing. Examples of layouts for \(\eta = 0.8\) and \(\eta = 0.4\) are presented on Figures 2(b) and 2(c) respectively.

#### 3.2 Computation of Aerodynamic Models as a function of the Control Surface Span \(\eta\)

For a given flight condition \((m, M \text{ and } H)\), the coefficients of state-space matrices (Eq. (2) and (3)) depends on the Aircraft configuration parameter (reduced to \(\eta\) in this study) through the aerodynamic coefficients. Since the plan-form and the airfoils are kept constant for all configurations, the varying coefficients are the control surface aerodynamic coefficients which impact only the control effectiveness matrix: \(B = B(\eta)\).

Computation of aerodynamic model for different parameter values of \(\eta\) is described in this section. The goal is to obtain state-space representations continuously parametrized by elevon span parameter \(\eta\). Process to obtain such a continuous approximation is presented on Figure 3. A first step is to compute calibrated aerodynamic models for discrete values of \(\eta\), namely for values between 0.1 and 1 with steps of 0.1. For that purpose the Athena Vortex Lattice (AVL) software Drela and Youngren (2006) was used together with calibration factors coming from the supposedly known aerodynamic coefficients of the initial BWB design. This method combines the advantages of fast data generation through light CFD computation, and far better accuracy than AVL direct output through accurate knowledge on a reference configuration. It provides a set of control effectiveness matrices \(B_{\eta_k}\) for \(N\) sampled values \(\eta_k\) of \(\eta\): \(\eta_{k,k=1,N} = [0.1, \cdots, 1]\).

Once aerodynamic coefficients are computed and calibrated for discretized values of \(\eta\), the final step consists in obtaining an approximation of the function \(B(\eta)\). For that purpose it was chosen to work with the Linear Fractional
A Dryden continuous turbulence model is used for simulation of control surfaces efficiencies for varying outer elevation span variation. The model is characterized by a band-limited frequency response, which is approximated by a second-order Padé filter accounting for sensors, computers, and actuators and delay. The model is validated through light CFD computation and far-field testing.

For a given aircraft configuration, the state-space matrices depend on the flight state, which is determined by the Mach number, altitude, and trim conditions. The state-space representation is suited to the optimizer coming from the control community presented in section 4. Moreover, efficient algorithms for approximating a set of numerical data as an LFR were developed by Onera Roos et al. (2014). An LFR is a model where all fixed dynamics are gathered in a single linear time-invariant plant $M$, whereas uncertainties or varying parameters are contained in a block-diagonal matrix $\Delta$ (see Figure 4). Polynomial and rational expressions are for instance easily convertible into LFR.

More precisely, the problem is that of finding an LFR approximating as closely as possible state-space representations computed for different values of $\eta$. Uncertainties are not considered in this study, so the $\Delta$ block is only composed of $\eta$ parameter repeated $n_\eta$ times. It was decided to restrict search for LFR approximations to polynomial approximations in order to keep the LFR order $n_\eta$ as small as possible. From a physical perspective this can be justified by the fact that control surfaces efficiencies should vary smoothly with respect to their span. The least-squares routine lsaprox from APRICOT library on Matlab Roos et al. (2014) was used. A 5-th order polynomial approximation of the $8 \times 11$ $B(\eta)$ matrix leads to an LFR with $n_\eta = 20$. Maximum root-mean-square (RMS) is $9.36 \times 10^{-3}$ and maximum local absolute error is $2.01 \times 10^{-2}$. lsaprox instead of orthogonal least-squares olsaprox routine was used for it achieves higher accuracy.

Fig. 2. Elevons size for different values of parameter $\eta$.

Fig. 3. Process for obtaining LFR approximation of state-space representations as a function of $\eta$ parameter.

Fig. 4. Linear Fractional Representation of $B(\eta)$.

4. INTEGRATED DESIGN AND CONTROL

In this section the integrated design and control problem of simultaneously minimizing elevons span parameter $\eta$ while satisfying handling qualities and maneuverability constraints is developed.

4.1 Structure of Control Laws

As stated in section 2.2, longitudinal instability on this BWB requires a SAS to make it flyable. Moreover lateral control laws are also mandatory to enhance lateral handling qualities. Considering both these longitudinal and lateral / directional control laws is moreover necessary for a proper sizing of control surfaces. A main contribution of this paper is indeed to provide a methodology for simultaneous longitudinal, lateral and directional control laws synthesis of arbitrary structure, whereas this problem is usually treated by decoupling longitudinal from lateral / directional axes. Here a typical fly-by-wire FCS architecture is considered. Pilot provides inputs in terms of commanded load factor $Nz_c$, bank angle $\phi_c$ and sideslip $\beta_c$. Control law feedback features $C^*$ and $Y^*$ structure for longitudinal and lateral/directional control respectively, whose structure is provided in Favre (1994). More precisely:

- $C^*$ structure is composed of load factor $Nz$ and pitch rate $q$ feedback, together with an integrator for zero steady-state tracking error and a direct feedthrough gain. Output of the law is an equivalent elevator order $\delta m_{equi}$.
- $Y^*$ structure features lateral / directional state feedback, namely sideslip $\beta$, yaw rate $r$, bank angle $\phi$ and...
roll rate $p$. An integrator is added to keep zero steady-state sideslip, as well as a bank angle order direct feedthrough gain. Outputs of this law are equivalent aileron and rudder order $\delta_eq$ and $\delta_nq$ respectively.

All the gains involved in the $C^*$ and $Y^*$ structured controllers are gathered in $K$ as decision variables. A general overview of control law structure is visible on Figure 5. As already mentioned, control laws outputs are equivalent elevator, aileron and rudder orders, which are independent from control surfaces architecture. These equivalent orders are then converted into control surfaces deflections thanks to a control allocation module described in next section.

### 4.2 Control Allocation Model

Control allocation is the problem of converting equivalent orders, computed by the control law, into control orders when there are more effectors than axes to control. For a comprehensive survey of control allocation methods, please refer to the work by Johansen and Fossen (2013). In our study a control allocation module needs to be incorporated in order to convert equivalent elevator, aileron and rudder deflections ($\delta_{eq}, \delta_{leq}, \delta_{neq}$) into actual control surfaces deflections ($\delta_i, i=1...10, \delta_n$).

Mathematically, the control allocation problem is that of finding a deflections vector $u$ satisfying:

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
Cm_{\delta m_1} & ... & Cm_{\delta m_{10}} & Cm_{\delta n}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\delta_{eq}
\end{bmatrix}
= B_1(\eta)
$$

where $B_1(\eta)$ is the matrix of elevons gradients in pitch, roll and yaw respectively, which all depend from parameter $\eta$. $[Cm_{\delta m_{eq}}, Cl_{\delta m_{eq}}, Cn_{\delta m_{eq}}]^T$ is a vector of equivalent gradients as seen by the control law. These values may be set arbitrarily without loss of generality, we chose equivalent values of 1 on all axes. Then a classical solution of equation 6 is the Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse:

$$u = K_{alloc}(\eta) \begin{bmatrix} \delta_{eq} \\ \delta_{leq} \\ \delta_{neq} \end{bmatrix}$$

with $K_{alloc}(\eta) = B_1^T(B_1B_1^T)^{-1}$

As comprehensively discussed in section 4.3, our process features two steps. In the first step, three-axes gains are computed for a fixed $\eta$ value; in this step the pseudo-inverse control allocation from equation (8) is used. During the second step, three-axes control law gains and $\eta$ parameter are simultaneously optimized. In this step, $K_{alloc}$ is no more fixed, but is a variable for the optimization. By doing this, the design space is widened, and a truly optimal strategy with respect to the imposed handling qualities constraints can be chosen by the optimizer.

More precisely, in order to limit the number of variables for the optimization, $K_{alloc}$ is parameterized as follows:

$$K_{alloc} = \begin{bmatrix} K_{pitch}^{pitch} & K_{pitch}^{roll} & 0 \\ K_{roll}^{pitch} & K_{roll}^{roll} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & K_{yaw}^{pitch} \end{bmatrix}$$

This means we impose a symmetrical and anti-symmetrical deflection of the elevons for a pitch and roll order respectively, and a yaw order is allocated to the rudder only. By incorporating this physical knowledge of the control allocation structure, the number of variables within $K_{alloc}$ is reduced from 33 to 11 variables.

### 4.3 Simultaneous Three-Axes Control Law Synthesis

Integrated design and control of the BWB presented in this paper follows a two-steps scheme:

1. A first control laws synthesis computes gains for an arbitrarily fixed $\eta$ value. The problem consists in minimizing the difference between a reference model and the closed-loop aircraft. The output of this step is the optimum value of the $H_\infty$ criterion. This section is devoted to describing this first step.

2. Output of step 1 is used to put a constraint on maximal value of the $H_\infty$ criterion, in order to guarantee satisfactory closed-loop behavior while optimizing the elevons size $\eta$ and control law gains. This step is described extensively in next section.

As stated previously, simultaneously optimizing control surfaces size $\eta$ and control law gains requires setting a constraint – in the optimization sense – that ensures an adequate closed-loop behavior of the optimal solution. This constraint was set as a maximal admissible value of an $H_\infty$ criterion, value which must be computed through a first synthesis. The $H_\infty$ criterion and its optimal value computation are described now.

A three-channels model-reference tracking scheme was used. This scheme consists in minimizing the difference between a reference dynamics model and the closed-loop aircraft, from the $H_\infty$ norm point of view. If the reference model is perfectly matched by the closed-loop in the whole frequency-domain, then the optimal $H_\infty$ value is zero. However this is practically infeasible due to physical limitations, as a consequence the optimal value is always above zero.

Here model-reference tracking is written as minimizing the $H_\infty$ norm of a three-input three-output transfer function between pilot inputs ($Nz, \phi_c, \beta_c$) and outputs ($z_1, z_2, z_3$) the differences between reference dynamics outputs and actual closed-loop signals ($Nz, \phi, \beta$). For a proper definition of signals please refer to Figure 5. In our case multi-channel transfer has several advantages over multiple single-input single-output (SISO) transfers. First off-diagonal terms are implicitly set to zero. Hence resulting control law will totally decouple all three axes, namely longitudinal from lateral / directional, but also lateral from directional – turns are performed with zero sideslip and directional from lateral – "pedal" inputs imply no bank. Couplings between all axes are explicitly taken into account by the control law, which a SISO approach would not. A single constraint on the $H_\infty$ norm of this multi-channel transfer ensures an adequate closed-loop behavior.
on all three axes. An equivalent formulation with SISO transfers would require nine constraints.

In our study the closed-loop reference values are fixed and are given in Table 1. The optimization problem for simultaneous three-axes control laws synthesis simply reads:

$$
\min_K \left\| T_{(N_{x}, \phi, \beta)} \rightarrow (z_1, z_2, z_3) \left( P(\eta^{\text{init}}), K, K_{\text{alloc}}^{\text{init}} \right) \right\|_\infty = \hat{\gamma}_\infty
$$

such that:

1. \( \forall p, \text{ pole of } P(s) : \ Re(p) \leq -\text{MinDecay}, Re(p) \leq -\text{MinDamping}, |p| ; \)
2. \( K \) being a vector containing all control law gains defined in section 4.1. The additional constraints ensure that closed-loop poles have a damping of at least 0.5 (MinDamping), and a real part of at least 0.2 (MinDecay). Even though those constraints may seem redundant with the reference model tracking objective, it was found that it helps the optimizer to converge and to control indirectly the integral terms dynamics.

To solve this optimization problem, the systune routine Apkarian (2012) from Matlab Robust Control Toolbox was used. This routine allows tuning of fixed-order structured controllers, so it can handle physical parameters optimization combined with control gains computation. Couplings between control and design problem are therefore taken into account directly in a single optimization. Moreover it is well suited to mathematical particularities of the optimization problem in equation (10), namely the non-smooth behavior of the \( H_\infty \) norm. Optima found by the algorithm are only local, consequently several initializations should be performed in order to ensure the globality of the solution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>( \omega_0 )</th>
<th>( \tau_{rp} )</th>
<th>( \tau_{sp} )</th>
<th>( \omega_{dr} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value (rad.s^{-1})</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Reference model (\( \xi_0 = \xi_{dr} = 0.7 \)).

4.4 Definition of the Optimization Problem

Once the optimum \( \hat{\gamma}_\infty \) of the \( H_\infty \) criterion is computed, it is used as a constraint on the \( H_\infty \) norm of the multi-channel transfer for the combined optimization problem. More precisely the integrated design and control problem of this study is that of finding a minimal \( \eta \) such that:

- Deflections and deflection rates in response to maneuvers do not exceed prescribed limits.
- Closed-loop behavior is optimal.

The latter point is solved by ensuring that the \( H_\infty \) norm of the multi-channel transfer \( \| T_{(N_{x}, \phi, \beta)} \rightarrow (z_1, z_2, z_3) \|_\infty \) is kept under its optimal value \( \hat{\gamma}_\infty \), whatever \( \eta \). Once the optimum value \( \hat{\gamma}_\infty \) for a fixed \( \eta \) is known from the optimization described in section 4.3, the optimization problem of finding the best possible closed-loop behavior translates into a single constraint satisfaction problem. This elegant formulation allows minimizing an other objective, \( - \eta \) in our case – while designing appropriate control law gains to ensure a satisfactory closed-loop behavior on all axes.

Constraints on maneuverability are cast as constraints on the \( H_\infty \) norm of adequate transfer functions, similarly to the work of Niewoehner and Kaminer (1996). Therefore these constraints are root-mean-square (RMS) and not temporal. Following constraints are ensured:

- Maximum deflections and deflection rates in response to a pilot pull-up. This is ensured through constraint on following \( H_\infty \) norms:
  \[
  \| \Delta m^\text{max}_w T_{N_{x}, \phi, \beta} \rightarrow \Delta N_{x, c}^\text{max} \|_\infty \leq 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \| \Delta m^\text{max}_w T_{N_{x}, \phi, \beta} \rightarrow \Delta N_{\phi, c}^\text{max} \|_\infty \leq 1, \]
  respectively, with \( \Delta m^\text{max}_w = m^\text{max}_w - m_w \).
- Maximum deflections and deflection rates in response to severe longitudinal turbulence. This is ensured through constraint on following \( H_\infty \) norms:
  \[
  \| \frac{1}{\Delta m^\text{max}_w} T_{c_w, u} \|_\infty \leq 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \| \frac{1}{\Delta m^\text{max}_w} T_{c_w, u} \|_\infty \leq 1, \]
  respectively.
• Maximum deflections and deflections rate in response to $\phi^\text{max}$ bank angle order. This is ensured through constraint on following $H_\infty$ norms:

$$\frac{1}{\delta m_i}T_{\delta \phi_i \rightarrow u} \phi^\text{max} \|_{\infty} \leq 1$$

chosen values for the sizing are:

$$\delta m_\text{max} = 25^\circ, \delta m_i^\text{max} = 60^\circ/s, \Delta N_{c}^\text{max} = 1.5g, \phi_c^\text{max} = 45^\circ$$.

The combined optimization problem is finally summarized in Tab. 2 and is extensively described in Denieul (2016).

5. RESULTS

In this section the results of the integrated design and control process are analyzed.

5.1 Integrated Design and Control on a Single Flight Point

Integrated design and control with tunable allocation applied to the flight point $M.35$, $H = 3300ft$, $m = 300T$ gives following results:

$$\eta^{\text{opt}} = 0.3885 \quad (11)$$

$$g_{\text{Best}} = 0.9998 \quad (12)$$

A new method for sizing control surfaces of an unstable blended wing-body using closed-loop handling qualities criteria was presented. This method consists in simultaneously optimizing the longitudinal and lateral control laws, as well as a control allocation module, while minimizing the control surface areas under handling qualities constraints. From a sizing perspective, we have shown that the studied Airbus BWB configuration can adequately be controlled on all three axes with only 60% of the initial control surfaces span, with normal laws and full control authority, with reasonable hypotheses on the actuators, sensors and delays chain. Future work will extend such a procedure to the full flight envelope. Temporal criteria instead of frequency – root-mean-square – criteria will be also investigated. Finally alternative optimizers could be considered for solving this coupled problem; simulation-based routines such as genetic algorithms could be worth examining.

6. CONCLUSION

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