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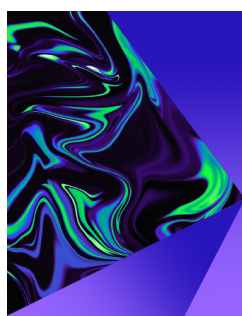


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ABSTRACT

The evolution of the normal aerodynamic coefficient of 19 configurations of square plates with various porosity patterns, ranging from solid plate to homogeneous porous plate, is experimentally characterized. The variation of the porosity pattern is obtained by partially covering the holes of a commercial fly-swatter using adhesive tape. Evolution of the normal aerodynamic coefficient is assessed from the measurement of the angular position of the porous plate, placed as a freely rotating pendulum swept by a flow in a wind tunnel. These angular measurements are also supported by particle image velocimetry (PIV) measurements of the structure of the wake. We show that the porosity pattern determines whether or not an abrupt stall occurs. In particular, the details of the porosity pattern on the edges of the plate are decisive for the existence of abrupt stall.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The omnipresence of porous structures in Nature and in technological applications induces complexity in a wide range of physical problems. In the context of technological applications, the water flow through nets and the drag exerted on net structures are crucial for aquaculture.¹ The use of porous structures and fences has long been proposed as a means of controlling the characteristics of flows, with a number of important applications in aerodynamics or civil engineering.^{2,3} The development of fog harvesters for water supply in arid regions requires a fine understanding of flows in the vicinity of nets.^{4,5} At smaller scales, the efficiency of respiratory masks to reduce the propagation of airborne viruses rely on reducing the amount and distance of aerosols spread following the propagation of multiphase flows through finely meshed masks.^{6,7}

Porous disks have also recently been widely used as simple and effective models for wind turbine actuation disks, which accurately reproduce the transport of kinetic energy in the far wake of the wind turbine, where rotation can be neglected.^{8–11} Most of the research on porous disks has been carried out in the context of onshore wind turbines and fixed horizontal-axis wind turbines, with normal-incidence flows on the porous disk, although recent interest has also been seen in vertical-axis wind turbines.¹² The development of floating offshore

wind turbines now raises the issue of modeling wind interaction with porous disks at various incidence angles, as the turbine oscillates back and forth due to the interaction of the floating structure with water waves.^{13–16}

In the context of wind-dispersed plant seed, the flight of the dandelion involves a porous structure made of a bundle of bristles. It was recently demonstrated that the aerodynamic drag was maximized thanks to a specific structure of the wake, namely, a separated vortex ring.^{17,18} Bristled wing is also widespread in Nature and was shown to increase lift at small Reynolds numbers.^{19,20}

Fundamental aerodynamics studies of porous materials date back to the pioneering work of G. I. Taylor^{21,22} and largely focused on the influence of porosity on pressure drop and on drag at normal incidence. Castro investigated the influence of the porosity fraction of perforated plates with centimetric holes and showed a drag decrease as the porosity fraction increases and the absence of vortex shedding for porous fractions above ~ 0.2 .²³ These early works have then been refined by Graham²⁴ and Roberts.²⁵ Several experimental studies then focused, for instance, on the interaction of periodically arranged jets emerging from porous screens²⁶ or the shape of the perforated obstacle.²⁷ The modeling of the flow behind porous screen at normal incidence also attracted attention since the work of Taylor²¹ who

considered a porous screen as a uniform distribution of sources. Koo and James then refined this model for a two-dimensional porous screen confined within a channel²⁸ and extended by Steiros and Hultmark to include a base-suction term to improve the predictions at low porosities.²⁹ Very recently, an extension to three-dimensional flows, taking into account the porous screen shape and viscous effects, has been proposed.³⁰

Note that all these studies were done for homogeneous porosity pattern. De Bray studied experimentally the influence of the porosity pattern on the drag coefficient of a perforated square plate for which successive rows of holes were blocked concentrically inward or outward, at normal incidence.³¹ The drag coefficient increases as the porous fraction decreases (defined as the ratio between the open surface and the gross area of the plate, and called the free surface ratio by De Bray). Interestingly, for a given porosity fraction, the drag coefficient increases more rapidly when the outer rows are covered than when the inner rows are covered, and similar trends will be described at various incidence angle in Sec. III B. Surprisingly, the effect of the angle of attack on the aerodynamic coefficients and the flow features of porous screen has only recently been studied experimentally and theoretically,³⁰ although it was shown that porosity strongly influences the trajectory of permeable or porous disks³² or its stability.³³ In this article, we extend these previous work and study experimentally the aerodynamic coefficients of porous plates with inhomogeneous porosity pattern, and span a wide range of angles of attack. Our strategy was to systematically vary the porosity pattern by partially covering a porous plate with a large numbers of holes, and we chose an ideal object widely spread for this study: a fly-swatter.

Fly-swatters are indeed typically constructed using porous media, since the first modern model in 1900, the “Fly-Killer,” which was composed of a rectangular wired net.³⁴ The use of wire-netting was introduced for durability and elasticity, but no reference on the aerodynamic advantage of such netting is mentioned in this initial patent. Later improvements mostly concerned the handle to ease the motion of the fly-swatter.^{35,36} Even when a different kind of fly-swatter, made of a rubber surface with a few holes, was introduced in 1939,³⁷ no aerodynamic considerations are presented and it seems that holes were added empirically, to either reduce costs or increase elasticity. Sketches of the above-mentioned fly-swatter are reproduced in Figs. 1(a)–1(d), together with a photograph of the modern plastic model used for the present investigation, whose porous fraction is 28%

when all holes are opened. In this article, we investigate how the porous pattern, modified by covering some holes of the fly-swatter, influences the aerodynamic coefficients and might be an important factor to optimize the aerodynamics of fly-swatters.

The evolution of the normal aerodynamic coefficient (see next section) when varying the angle of attack the porosity was obtained placing the fly-swatter at the bottom of a freely rotating rod, acting as a pendulum, and placed in a wind tunnel, following a setting previous investigated.^{38,39} As the wind speed increases, the angular position evolves and is set by the torque balance.^{38,39} When an abrupt stall occurs, the result is a discontinuity in angular position between a drag-dominated branch and a lift-dominated branch, possibly leading to bistability.^{38,39} The transitions between the two branches were shown to be controlled by rare aerodynamics events,³⁹ making this aerodynamic pendulum one of the simplest experimental configuration to study rare-event statistics.

This article is organized as follows: Sec. II describes the experimental setup, and how the evolution of the normal aerodynamic coefficient with the inclination angle is extracted for the evolution of the inclination angle with the flow velocity. The results are then presented and discussed in Sec. III, with a focus on the differences between a solid and a porous plate in Sec. III A, and the investigation of 19 different porosity patterns, where the holes of the fly-swatter were covered concentrically in Sec. III B and with a focus on the influence of the porosity of the edges of the fly-swatter in Sec. III C. Conclusions are then drawn in Sec. IV.

II. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

The influence of the porosity pattern on the aerodynamic coefficients has been experimentally evaluated using the plastic fly-swatter shown in Fig. 1(e). The fly-swatter consists in a 1.5-mm-thick plastic square of size $a = 10$ cm with square holes of size 2.4 mm equally spaced at a distance of 1.8 mm. Each row and column of the square section contains 22 holes, for a total of 484 holes. A small triangular shape at the top of the fly-swatter, with 26 holes on each side, connects the square section to the fly-swatter holder. For all the configurations detailed in this article, the holes of this small triangular shape are left open.

In this article, we will focus on the influence of the porosity pattern of the square section on the aerodynamic coefficients of the system, and the holes of the upper triangular part will be left open. The

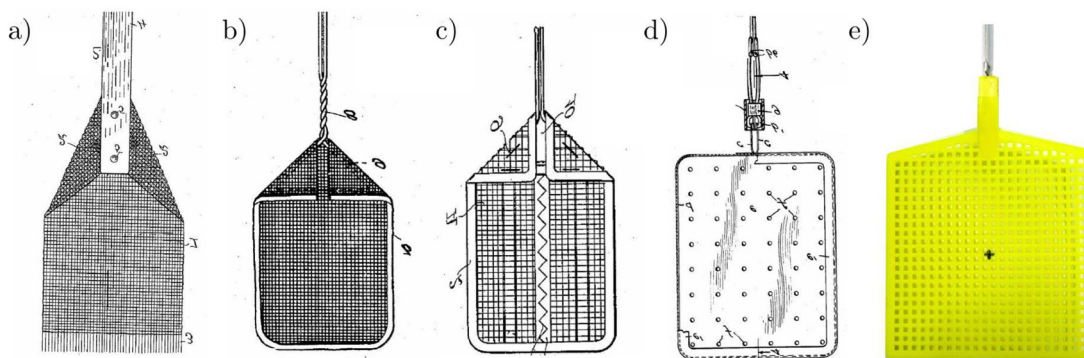


FIG. 1. (a) Fly-killer in 1900 from.³⁴ (b) Fly-swatter in 1927 from.³⁵ (c) Fly-swatter in 1938 from.³⁶ (d) Fly-swatter in 1939 from.³⁷ (e) Fly-swatter used in this article.

porosity pattern is modified by adding adhesive vinyl tape to block specific holes (see Sec. III B for details). The vinyl tape was placed so that only rows or columns of 2-hole width were sealed by one piece of tape, and no tape peeling was observed over the various experiments. The maximum porous fraction given as the ratio between the surface of the 484 holes and the surface of the whole square is 28%. Of the 2^{484} possible configurations for the partial covering of the fly-swatter, we decided to select only 19 with left-right symmetry and to focus on the onset of stall when the porosity pattern is modified. For 11 of them, due to a slight curvature of the fly-swatter, two sets of measurements were carried out, one with the curvature facing upstream and the other downstream, as will be discussed in Sec. III D.

The aerodynamic coefficients of the plates with various porosity patterns are assessed from measurements in a wind tunnel, as sketched in Fig. 2, following the protocol detailed elsewhere,^{39,40} and recalled here. The wind tunnel is closed-loop and has a closed section, a 51 cm width square, with a flow conditioned through a honeycomb leading to a typical ambient turbulence rate of 2%. The wind velocity spans between 1 and 7 ms^{-1} , resulting in Reynolds numbers, based on the size a of the fly-swatter, ranging between 6×10^3 and 5×10^4 . The fly-swatter, placed facing the flow, is attached at the extremity of a rod free to rotate around point O . The rod consists of a 1-cm-thick, 1-mm-wide aluminum rigid plate covered by a 3-mm-wide plastic streamlined profile. The overall contribution of the rod to the aerodynamic forces can be neglected for three reasons. First, the frontal surface of the rod is more than an order of magnitude smaller than that of the fly-swatter. Second, a rough estimate of the aerodynamic forces on the empty rod at maximum velocity gives about 4–5% of the total forces on the fly-swatter, at the same velocity. Finally, as the rod design is

kept constant over the whole experiment, we consider that the possible effects of the rod are constant over the whole range of parameters we explore and should thus not influence the relative comparison between configurations presented below.

The flexibility of the fly-swatter was not precisely determined; however, no deformation of the fly swatter was observed, even at the highest flow velocity, showing that flexibility of the system can be ignored for our investigation. It is also firmly established that the sharpness of the corners in the streamwise direction (i.e., for the thickness of the fly-swatter) has a significant influence on the flow field.⁴¹ For the fly-swatter used in this study, both the edges and the holes are sharp [i.e., in Fig. 1(e), the radius of curvature of the edges is negligible in the transverse direction]. The corners of the square have a 2.5-mm radius of curvature.

Frictionless rotation of this pendulum is obtained using an air bushing (OAVTB16i04 from OAV Labs), and the angular position θ with respect to the vertical is recorded by a contact-less rotary encoder with minimal friction (DS-25, 17-bit digital encoder from Netzer). Note that the angle θ is complementary to the angle of attack, as usually defined in aerodynamic studies. The distance between the pivot point O and the center of the fly-swatter is $L = 17.3 \text{ cm}$. The distance l between point O and center of mass G of the pendulum is computed for each configuration, knowing the mass of the rod and of the fly-swatter and measuring the mass of the added vinyl tape strips. The pivot point O is located at $z = 33.5 \text{ cm}$, and the pendulum oscillates in the midplane of the wind tunnel. The minimal distance between the fly swatter and the walls of the wind tunnel is thus 10 cm. The flow impinging the porous square exerts an aerodynamic torque Γ_{aero} at point O , due to both lift and drag, and the equation of motion reads $J\ddot{\theta} = -mgl \sin \theta + \Gamma_{\text{aero}}$, with J the moment of inertia of the pendulum. The aerodynamic forces acting on the fly-swatter [see Fig. 2(c)] are the drag force $\mathbf{D} = \frac{1}{2} \rho LU^2 a^2 C_D(\theta) \mathbf{e}_x$ and the lift force $\mathbf{L} = \frac{1}{2} \rho LU^2 a^2 C_L(\theta) \mathbf{e}_z$, with ρ the air density, a is the side of the square plate, and where the drag coefficient C_D and the lift coefficient C_L depend on θ .⁴² The total aerodynamic torque is expressed as $\frac{1}{2} \rho LU^2 a^2 C_N(\theta)$, where the normal coefficient C_N is defined as $C_D \cos \theta + C_L \sin \theta$.³⁸ In this article, we will focus on steady-state regimes, for which the torque induced by the weight of the pendulum balances the aerodynamic torque

$$mgl \sin(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \rho U^2 a^2 LC_N(\theta). \quad (1)$$

We made the choice of ignoring the covering fraction for the area a^2 of the fly-swatter used to define the aerodynamic coefficients, as we expect it to not be a simple proportionality factor due to the aerodynamic coupling of holes in the array. This choice was further confirmed by DeBray's previous study.³¹ As mentioned above, the mass m has been measured for each configuration, due to the vinyl tape adding up to 2 g to the fly-swatter when fully covered, and l was computed accordingly. For each configuration, the mean angle θ is measured over at least 15 s for each flow velocity, ensuring statistical convergence of the mean value, and the normal aerodynamic coefficient $C_N(\theta)$ is computed from Eq. (1).

In addition to the recording of the angular position, the particle image velocimetry (PIV) has been implemented in the wind tunnel to enable flow visualization in the wake of the fixed fly-swatter. This flow visualization is done in the transverse (y, z) plane. This choice was, in

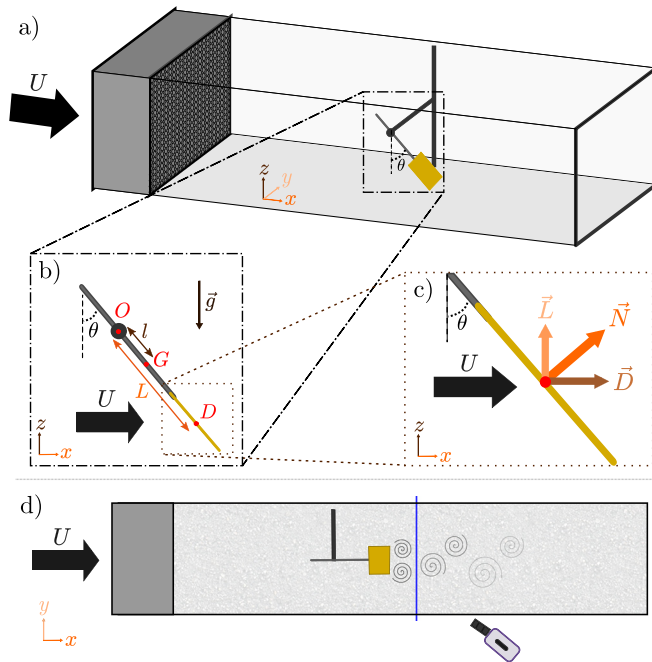


FIG. 2. (a) Schematic view of the wind tunnel with the fly-swatter. (b) Details of the pendular attachment of the fly-swatter. (c) Definition of the aerodynamic forces. (d) PIV setup overview.

particular, motivated by the tri-dimensionality of the wake for pendulums of aspect ratio close to 1.⁴³ The flow structure is obtained from smoke particle imaging. Particles are illuminated from a laser sheet produced by a 5 W blue diode laser through a Powell lens with a 30° fan angle and imaged using a high-speed camera (Phantom v26.40) at a resolution of 2048 × 1952 pixels and a 100-mm lens through a Scheimpflug adaptor to ensure focus on a transverse plane inside the wind tunnel. As we chose to visualize the transverse (v , w) flow in the (y , z) plane, the particles only remain in the sheet for a short time, which imposes constraints on the flow velocity (set to 1.7 ms⁻¹), the thickness of the laser sheet (4 mm was observed to be an optimal choice), and the frame rate (set to 2000 fps). The PIV algorithm uses the open software UVMAT.⁴⁴

III. RESULTS

A. Solid vs homogeneous porous square

Let us first focus on the main differences between a solid square (i.e., all holes have been covered by vinyl tape) and a homogeneous porous square (i.e., the original fly-swatter geometry), before investigating more complex patterns in the following subsections.

Figure 3(a) shows the evolution of the angular position θ as a function of the wind velocity U for the solid square (orange) and the porous square (black). The evolution of the normal aerodynamic coefficient $C_N(\theta)$ as a function of θ , computed from Eq. (1), is shown in Fig. 3(b). We note that $\theta(U)$ exhibits abrupt transitions and bistability for the solid plate, which can be readily understood from the evolution of the steady-state aerodynamic coefficients (see detailed discussions in Refs. 38, 39). For velocities below the bistable region (and angles below 50°), the dominant aerodynamic force is the drag force and corresponds to a nearly constant C_N value. For velocities above the bistable region (and angles above 53°), the dominant aerodynamic force is the lift force. The stall angle corresponds to a dramatic decrease in C_N with decreasing angle, namely, at around 52° for the solid square, and translates in abrupt transition in the evolution of θ as a function of U . We stress that this stall angle is in agreement with values observed for flat square by Eiffel ($\theta_{\text{stall}} \simeq 51^\circ$),⁴⁵ by Flachsbarth ($\theta_{\text{stall}} \simeq 50^\circ$),⁴² and more recently by Okamoto and Azuma ($\theta_{\text{stall}} \simeq 50^\circ$ – note that θ is complementary to the angle of attack).⁴⁶ Remarkably, the transition is smoother for the homogeneous porous square, and there is no abrupt stall angle. We note two noteworthy features at low angles, for both configurations. The first

one is a strong increase in C_N as θ is decreased below 10 degrees, and is discussed further in Sec. III D. The second one is the bump observed on C_N between 15° and 18°, which is attributed to the presence of stall on the holding rod. In the remaining of this article (apart from Sec. III D), we will thus ignore the evolution of the C_N coefficient below 18°, and we will focus on the conditions for which an abrupt stall is observed when varying the porosity pattern (data below 18° will be systematically shown as lighter symbols in the remaining of this article).

The PIV measurements of the transverse components of the velocity field in the wake, 10 cm downstream of the center of the fly-swatter, are shown in Fig. 4. For these measurements, the angle θ was set to four different constant values (namely, 20°, 40°, 60°, and 80°), with no free rotation allowed around point O, i.e., this is not a pendulum configuration. The Reynolds number for the PIV measurements is $Re = 1.2 \times 10^4$. In each panel, the flow of the porous plate (the original fly-swatter) is displayed on the left half, while the flow of the solid plate (fully covered fly-swatter) is shown on the right half. The two upper rows show the time-averaged structure of the wake, and the two lower rows the amplitude of the fluctuations. The PIV measurements are shown here with the purpose of illustrating the differences in flow features between the wake created by solid and porous plates, but no deep quantitative analysis is presented. We note strong differences between both configurations.

In the case of the solid plate, there is a clear difference below and above the stall angle ($\simeq 50^\circ$). Strong trailing vortices (also known as wingtip vortices) with a large down-wash at the center are observed in the mean flow above the stall angle (i.e., 60° and 80°). While the down-wash is already present on the vertical component at 40°, no clear signature of the trailing vortices is visible on the horizontal component.

In contrast, the structure of the mean-flow is similar for all inclination angles for the porous plate; a feature shared with the fluctuating part. The maximal level of fluctuations of the solid plate is about three times that of the porous one. The influence of the stall angle for the solid plate is also evident, with very localized fluctuations that are observed around the vortices above the stall angle.

B. Reducing the fraction of porous surface by concentric holes covering

The porosity pattern was first modified by concentric holes covering in two different ways: either from the center toward the edges or

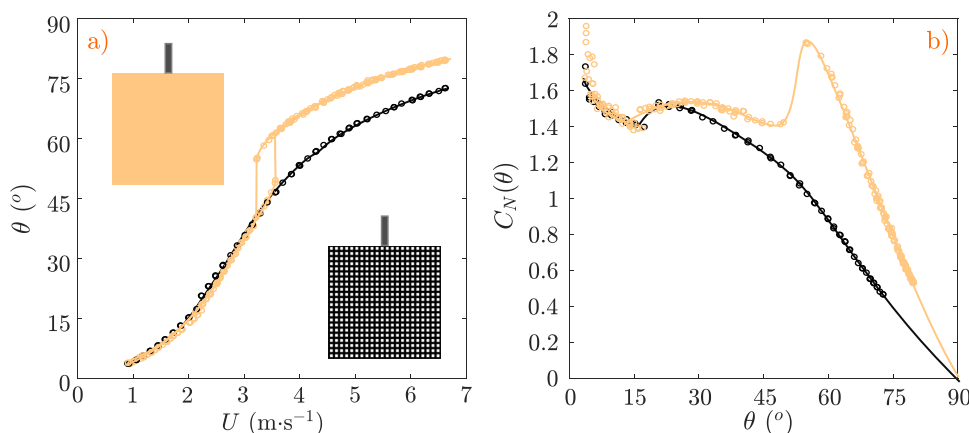


FIG. 3. Aerodynamic response of the fly-swatter (black) compared to a square plate (orange): (a) evolution of θ as a function of U , (b) C_N coefficient computed from (a) and Eq. (1). The curves are spline interpolations and thus an eye guide. Data points are available as supplementary material.

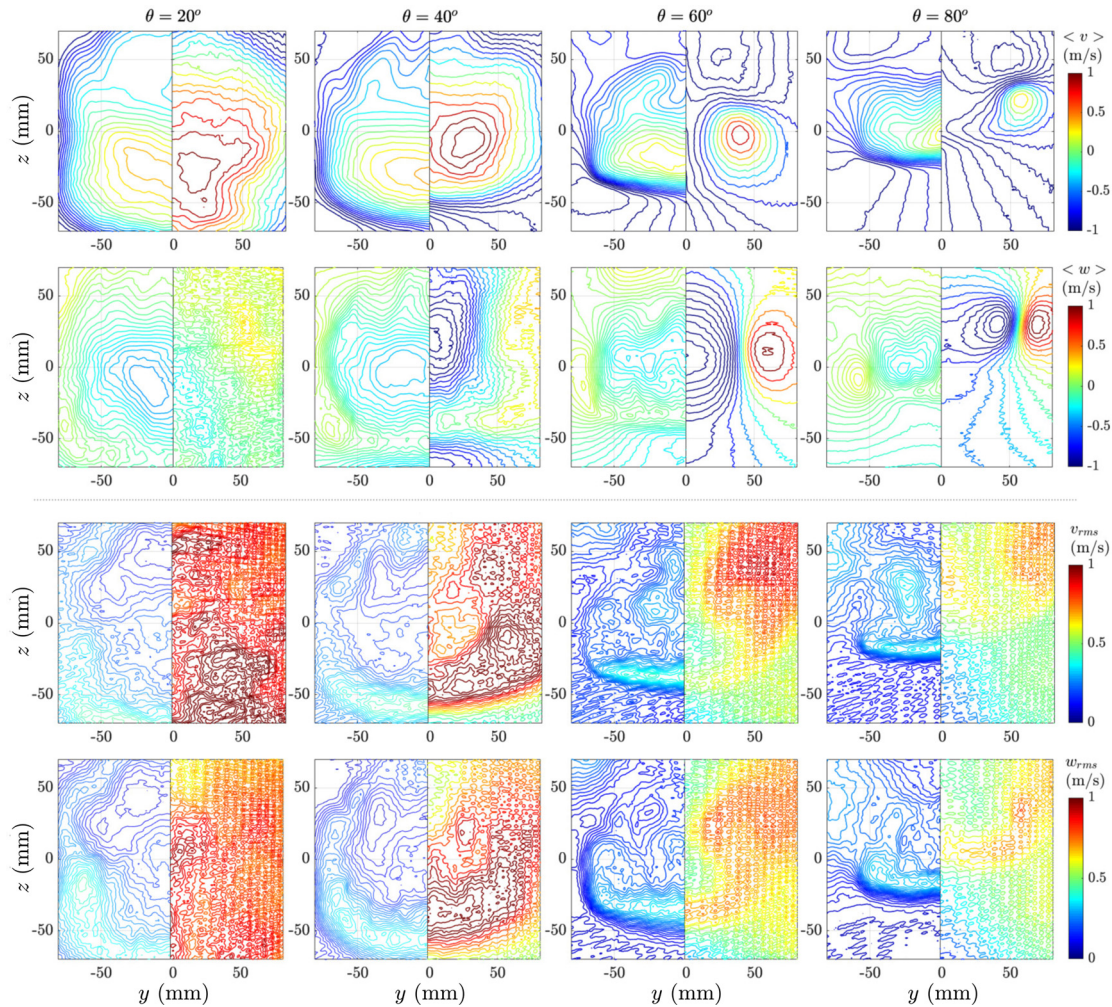


FIG. 4. Wake structure behind the hollow fly-swatter (left side) and fully covered fly-swatter (right side) for 20° , 40° , 60° , and 80° . Transverse mean horizontal velocity $\langle v \rangle$ (top row) and vertical velocity $\langle w \rangle$ (second row), and transverse velocity fluctuations v_{rms} (third row) and w_{rms} (bottom row).

vice versa. Six different configurations, for each concentric direction, are investigated, with five of them being partially porous and obtained by the addition of vinyl tape strips covering a two-hole wideband, as indicated in the side sketches of Fig. 5. When the fraction of porous surface is reduced from the center (left half in Fig. 5), no significant changes are observed on the evolution of θ with the velocity U , until covering the last two lines of holes on the edges. In particular, bistability is only observed for the fully taped configuration [see Fig. 5(a)]. This observation is in contrast with the behavior observed when the porous fraction is reduced when covering the holes from the edges toward the center (right half in Fig. 5). Bistable regimes are observed for several configurations, as soon as the central porous square is smaller than a 6×6 hole square [see Fig. 5(b)]. Almost no difference is observed between the solid case and the case when a 2×2 hole square is left open at the center. For bistable configurations, the evolution of the C_N coefficient with θ displays a sharp increase at the stall angle [see Figs. 5(c) and 5(d)].

These results highlight the importance of the porosity of the edges for the existence of a sharp stall: the presence of holes on the edges of

the plate prevents the occurrence of a sharp stall. On the contrary, stall can be readily observed in the presence of a significant porous fraction at the center of the plate.

As mentioned in the introduction, De Bray³¹ presented similar concentric configurations of a porous plate at normal incidence $\theta = 0^\circ$. Figure 6 displays the normal coefficient as a function of the porosity fraction (normalized by the normal coefficient for the full square), for various incidence angles from our experimental data, and those of De Bray at normal incidence. For low inclinations, $\theta = 20^\circ$ and $\theta = 35^\circ$, the normal coefficient is lower when the outer rows are uncovered than when the inner rows are uncovered, for similar values of the porosity fraction. These trends are similar to those of De Bray at normal incidence. On the contrary, for larger incidence angles, $\theta = 55^\circ$ and $\theta = 70^\circ$, the normal coefficient reduction with the porosity fraction is higher and both concentric hole-covering follow the same trend. These differences may be attributed to the fact that drag dominates for θ below 50° , while lift dominates above.

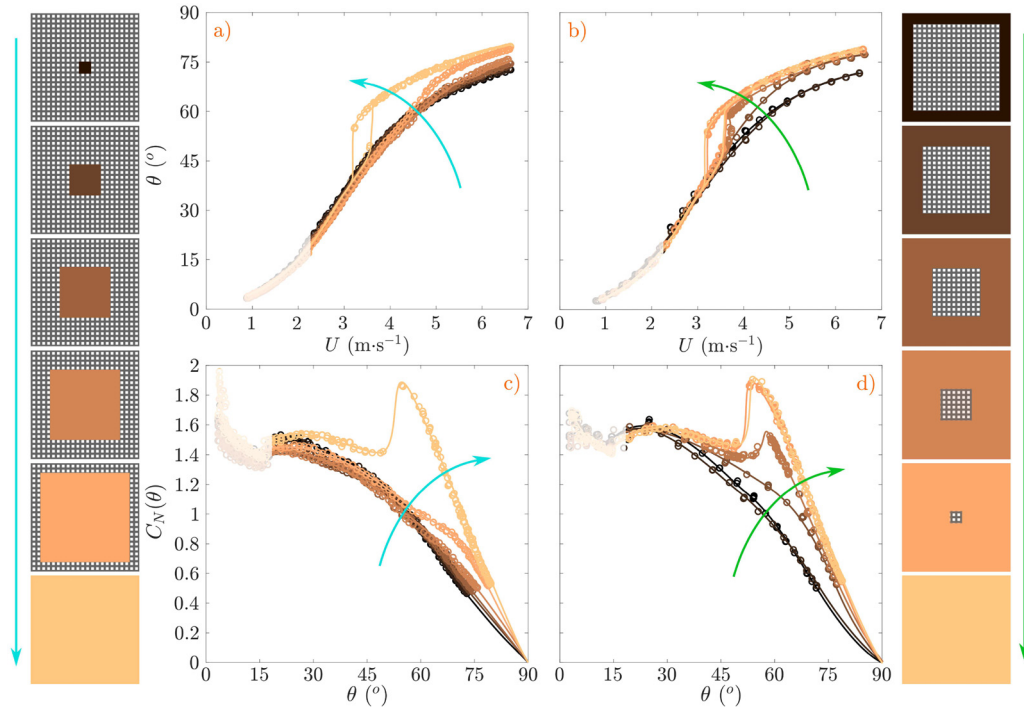


FIG. 5. Influence of concentric hole-covering. Top (a) and (b): evolution of θ as a function of U . Bottom (c) and (d): C_N coefficient computed from Eq. (1). Leftmost configurations (a) and (c): concentric covering from the center toward the edges. Rightmost configurations (b) and (d): concentric covering from the edges toward the center. Color codes for the configuration. The curves are spline interpolations and thus an eye guide.

C. Triggering stall from the edge porosity pattern

Section III B highlighted that bistability on the evolution of $\theta(U)$ and abrupt stall only appear when the last two lines of holes at the periphery of the plate are covered, when all the inner holes are covered.

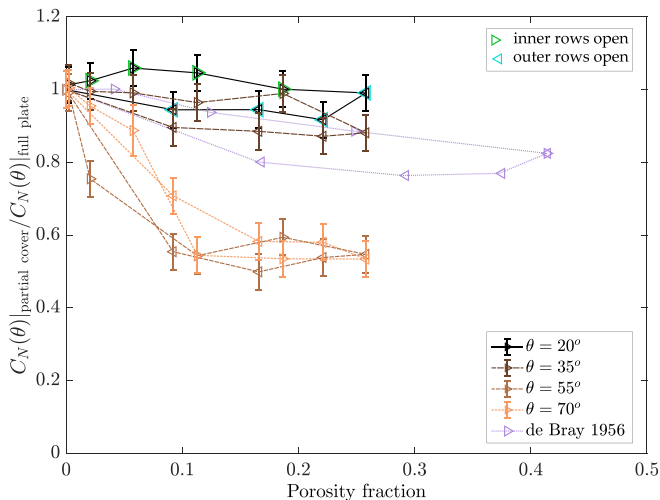


FIG. 6. Evolution of the normal coefficient C_N with the porosity fraction for $\theta = 20^\circ$, 35° , 55° , and 70° . The experimental data are compared with results at normal incidence ($\theta = 0^\circ$) from De Bray.³¹

In order to better understand influence of edge porosity on the emergence of abrupt stall, seven configurations with a partially covered periphery were tested. Note that some of these configurations break the top-down symmetry, and that, following the convention of Fig. 3, the holding rod of the various configuration is placed at the top part of the sketches. Figure 7 focuses on configurations for which the bistability is observed as the fraction of porous surface of the plate is decreased. Configurations that, despite a similar porous fraction, present no bistability are shown in Fig. 9.

The two leftmost configurations shown in Fig. 7 do not present any bistability, whereas the bistability develops for the four rightmost configurations. When the bistability is observed, the range of bistable positions increases with the covering fraction, *i.e.*, from left to right. The bistability thus first arises, when in addition to the center of the fly-swatter, the top two rows are fully covered with tape. Covering the upper 4-holes corners on each side seems critical for the onset of the bistability, since, when they remain uncovered (as in the second leftmost configuration), no bistability was observed.

The signature of bistable regimes is also readily observed on the evolution of $C_N(\theta)$ [see Fig. 7(b)]. A local increase in $C_N(\theta)$ is observed for angles between 50° and 70° , seemingly correlated with the stall angle, that separates the lift and the drag branches. More precisely, we note that covering the two upper corners only induces a bump on the C_N coefficient between 57° and 65° (third leftmost configuration). This modest increase leads to an inflection point on the C_N coefficient, which is nonetheless sufficient to induce a sharp stall. As the porous fraction decreases further, the stall angle occurs for lower θ angles,

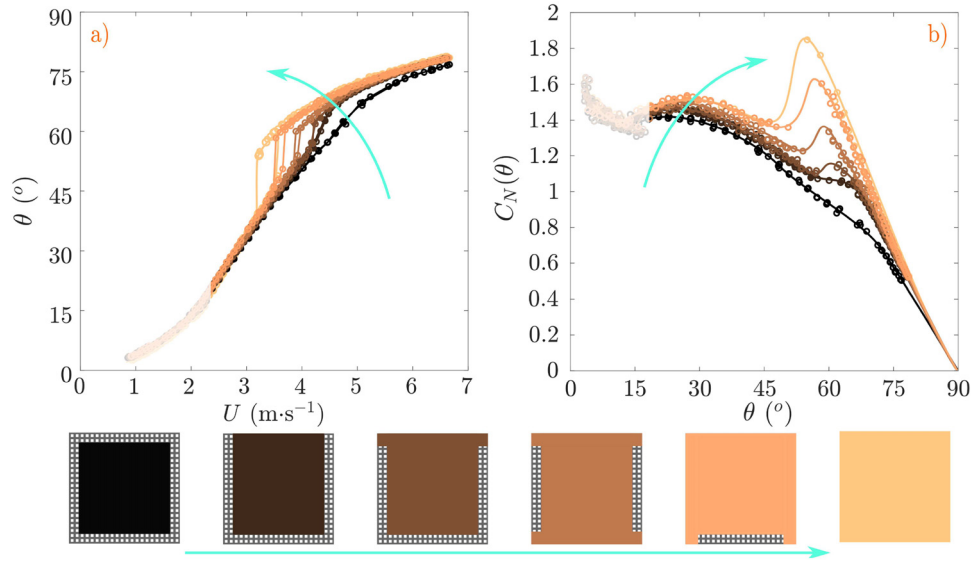


FIG. 7. Influence of outer rows hole-covering on bistability and sharp stall. Color codes for the configuration. (a) Evolution of θ as a function of U . (b) C_N coefficient computed from Eq. (1). The curves are spline interpolations and thus an eye guide.

decreasing from 62° to 52° . The lift-dominated regime thus occurs over a larger range of angles θ (we recall that $\theta = \pi/2 - \alpha$ is complementary to the angle of attack). Consequently, since the bistability is observed around the stall angle, it occurs for angles that decrease as the porous fraction decreases. The range of velocity for which the bistability occurs ΔU_{bistab} also decreases as the porous fraction increases as shown in Fig. 8 left axis, with a seemingly exponential decrease. Surprisingly though, the span of forbidden angles $\Delta\theta_{\text{forbidden}}$ (which are never explored neither in the lift branch nor in the drag branch) remains almost constant, around 5.5° , as shown in Fig. 8 right axis. Understanding whether this observation might be linked to the structure of the wake would require an extensive dataset of 3D flow measurements, out of reach of the present study.

No bistability, and thus no stall, was observed for any configuration shown in Fig. 9(a) (apart from the solid plate). A specificity of all non-bistable configurations tested thus far is the presence of holes on the upper rows. For all these configurations, the evolution of the C_N coefficient with θ [see Fig. 9(b)] does not display a strong bump in the

range of angles $\theta \in [45^\circ, 70^\circ]$. We stress here that a weak bump is observed for the fifth leftmost configuration, around $\theta = 58^\circ$, but which does not trigger bistable regimes. The values of the C_N coefficient observed for the solid plate on the drag branch ($\theta < 45^\circ$) are recovered as soon as the lateral edges of the fly-swatter are covered.

This detailed study of the influence of the porous pattern at the edges of the plate suggests that a necessary condition for the existence of the bistability is the full covering of the upper rows. The configuration that displays bistability with the highest porous fraction is the third leftmost configuration shown in Fig. 7, with only the side and bottom edges left porous. On the other hand, the configuration with the least porosity that presents no sharp stall is the second rightmost in Fig. 9, with only the leading edge being partially hollowed.

Over the $2^{484}-19$ remaining configurations, *i.e.*, more than 4.9×10^{145} configurations, we cannot rule out that these are not the ones with the highest porous fraction for bistable regimes and lowest porous fraction for the absence of stall, respectively.

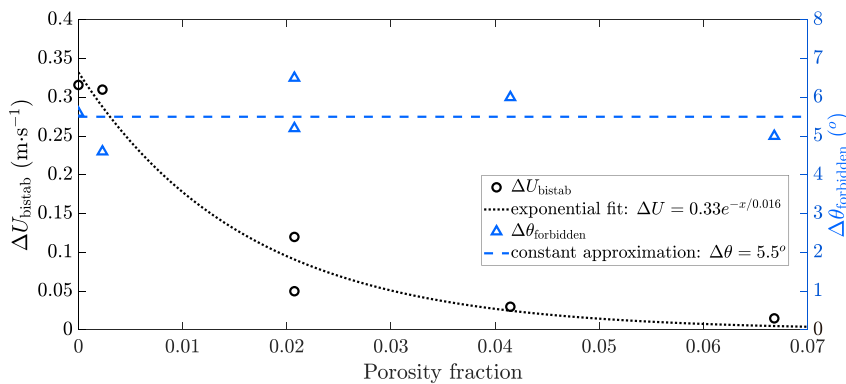


FIG. 8. Evolution of the bistable velocity range ΔU_{bistab} and forbidden angle span $\Delta\theta_{\text{forbidden}}$ as a function of the porous fraction.

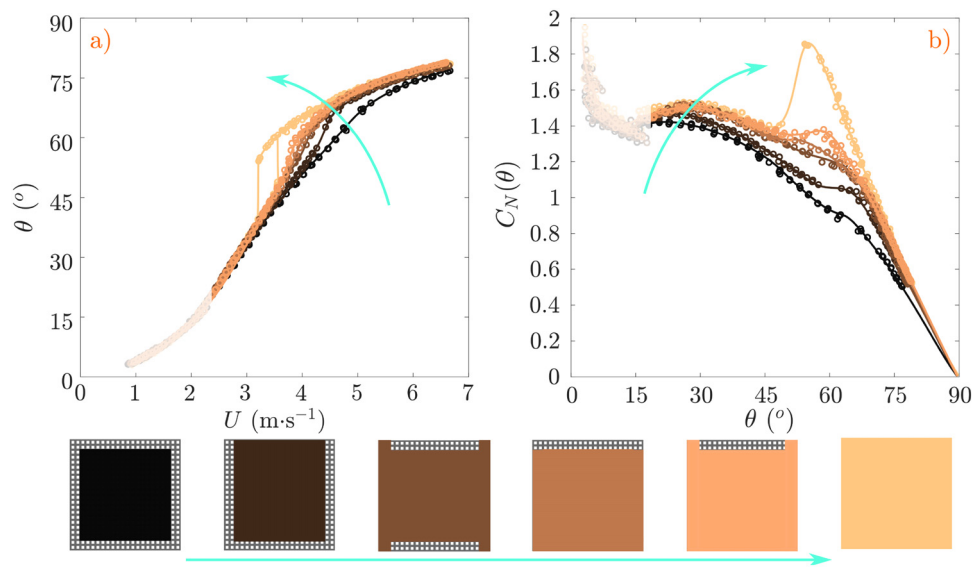


FIG. 9. Influence of outer rows hole-covering without bistability. (a) Evolution of θ as a function of U . (b) C_N coefficient computed from Eq. (1). Color codes for the configuration. The curves are spline interpolations and thus an eye guide.

D. Curvature effects on C_N coefficient

Let us now briefly discuss a side effect of using a commercial fly-swatter as the initial porous plate: the effect of the weak natural curvature of the plate on its aerodynamic response. This effect was particularly experienced when testing whether the side covered by the tape influences the aerodynamics. The fly-swatter is indeed slightly curved and curvature can have a strong effect on aerodynamic properties, as observed already nearly a century ago by Flachsbarth.⁴²

Four series of additional experiments were carried out for the concentric covering configurations, for which the face facing the incoming airflow could be either the concave or convex face, and could be the face covered or not by the adhesive tape. No influence of the side on which tape is glued was observed, while curvature orientation seems to greatly alter the aerodynamics, as shown in Fig. 10.

Let us first discuss the influence of curvature on the evolution of $\theta(U)$ for the six configurations shown in Figs. 10(a) and 10(b). Several differences are noted: (1) the bistable zone is much narrower when the convex side faces upstream [see Fig. 10(b)], (2) for the same flow velocity, for instance, $U = 6 \text{ ms}^{-1}$, the angular position is lower when the convex side faces upstream.

These observations lead to large differences for the values of the C_N coefficient due to curvature [see Figs. 10(c) and 10(d)]. On average, for all configurations and all angles, the C_N coefficient is much higher when the concave side faces upstream. A striking observation is on the sharpness of the stall. For the fully covered fly-swatter, the stall is indeed much smaller when the convex side faces upstream, with a factor of two for the amplitude of the discontinuity. The difference is also striking when the pendulum is close to the vertical position (*i.e.*, for θ values below 18°), for which C_N appears to diverge when the concave side faces upstream [Fig. 10(c)], while it decreases to 0 when the convex side faces upstream [Fig. 10(d)]. This feature is observed for all covering configurations, which supports the conjecture that this is an effect of curvature.

All results presented in Sec. III A and III B and III D were obtained with the concave side facing the flow [*i.e.*, the configuration of Figs. 10(a) and 10(c)]. Based on the observations for the concentric covering configurations, we expect to observe results similar to those reported in Sec. III C when the convex side faces the flow.

IV. CONCLUSION

By sealing holes on a fly-swatter, we were able to explore the influence of porosity patterning on the aerodynamic coefficients and bistability pendular porous plates. In spite of the simplicity of the considered system, several converging observations allow to draw some general conclusions regarding the role of certain porosity zones.

The existence of a sharp stall leads to bistable regimes as a function of the flow velocity in the pendular configuration, with bistability occurring around the stall angle. For a solid square plate, a sharp stall exists and the pendulum displays bistability.

No sharp stall has been observed for the other limit case, for which the square is homogeneously porous, leading to a continuous evolution of the pendulum angle with the flow velocity.

In all tested configurations that present a sharp stall, the upper rows are indeed covered and a major part of the holes around the center is also sealed off. Seen in a different light, the bistability of a square plate disappears as soon as holes are opened in the upper rows (*i.e.*, in the immediate vicinity of the leading edge), without impairing the lift production for angles $\theta > 70^\circ$. Leading-edge porosity therefore appears as a possibly relevant strategy to dampen stall.

Surface porosity close to the leading edge on airfoils has also been observed to reduce pressure load due to wing-vortex interactions.⁴⁷ PIV measurements of the evolution of the wake structure with the angle of attack for the two limit cases (solid and homogeneously porous square) clearly demonstrate that the observations made on the global aerodynamic coefficients are linked to the wake characteristics. A detailed study of the influence of the porosity pattern at the

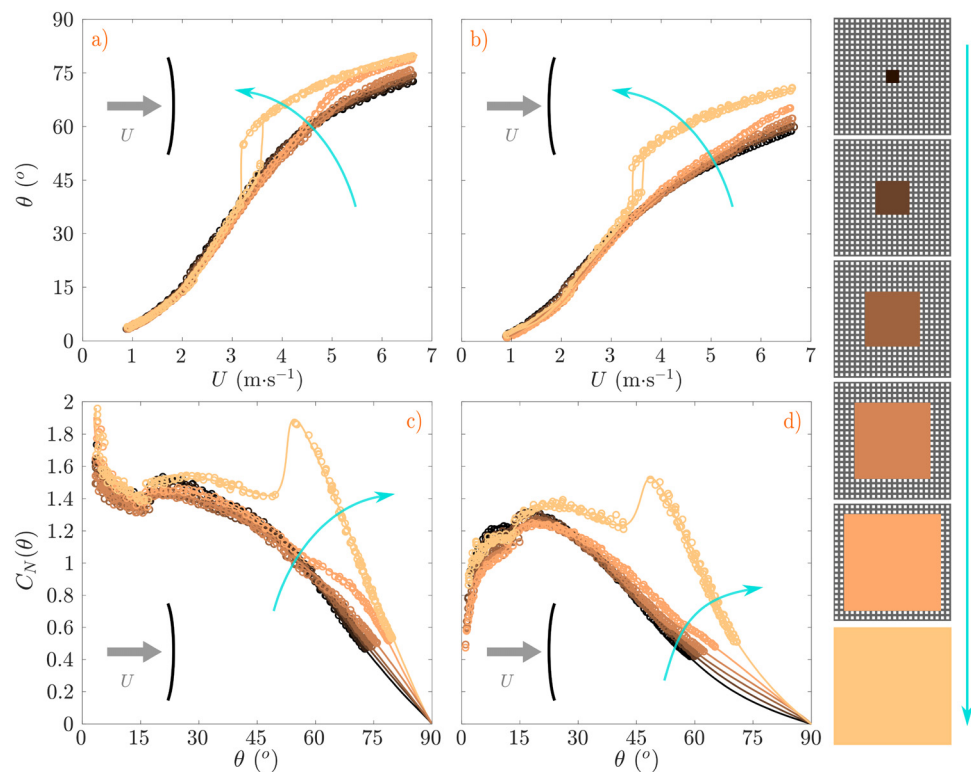


FIG. 10. Influence of curvature on the aerodynamic response of the partially covered fly-swatter. Top (a) and (b): evolution of θ as a function of U . Bottom (c) and (d): C_N coefficient computed from Eq. (1). Left (a) and (c): concave side facing upstream. Right (b) and (d): convex side facing upstream. Color codes for the configuration. The curves are spline interpolations and thus an eye guide.

immediate vicinity of the leading edge on the wake structure and dynamics, and its relation with the existence of sharp stall was beyond the scope of the present work, but would represent a useful extension.

Another aspect not investigated here is noise reduction induced by the surface porosity. Indeed, porosity at the leading edge and trailing edge is often associated with noise reduction.⁴⁸ The small vortices induced by the pores destabilize the large-scale leading- and trailing-edge vortices, which are responsible to a large extent for aircraft noise. This effect of porosity was, in fact, first observed in Nature,⁴⁹ and biomimetic concerns spread it to aerospace engineering.⁵⁰ Owls are particularly known for their silent flight and recent studies have shown how the particular structure of their flight feathers enables this feat.⁵¹ The owl feather presents serrations at its leading edge and sometimes also throughout the inner vane. Serrations are an ultra-thin comb of barbules and increase the porosity of the feather. The comb breaks the two-dimensionality of the leading-edge vortex, which is no longer sustained.⁵² Engineering aerodynamic noise generation by the fine-tuning of the surface porosity of objects moving in a flow would also be a possible continuation of this work.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

See the supplementary material for the data sets presented in Fig. 3, as a table file.

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AUTHOR DECLARATIONS

Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflicts to disclose.

Author Contributions

Ariane Gayout: Conceptualization (equal); Investigation (lead); Visualization (lead); Writing – original draft (equal); Writing – review & editing (equal). **Mickael Bourgoïn:** Conceptualization (equal); Funding acquisition (equal); Supervision (equal); Writing – original draft (equal); Writing – review & editing (equal). **Nicolas Plihon:** Conceptualization (equal); Supervision (equal); Writing – original draft (equal); Writing – review & editing (equal).

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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