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Flutter characteristics of a two-dimensional prepositive elliptical wing–main wing combined configuration

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Abstract: Flutter is a complex dynamic aeroelastic problem that poses a significant threat to flight safety, making its mitigation a critical focus of aeronautical research. This study proposes a two-dimensional prepositive elliptical wing–main wing combined configuration (abbreviated as pre–main wing) and investigates its influence on flutter characteristics. Based on structural dynamics, a reduced-order aeroelastic model of the two-dimensional combined configuration is established. The critical flutter velocities of configurations with and without the prepositive elliptical wing are computed using the eigenvalue method. The results from a representative case show that the configuration yields a critical flutter speed enhancement of up to 43.59%. Through a parametric design space exploration, a range of effective design parameters is identified: for chordwise placement within 0.04c (where c is the main wing chord) directly in front of the main wing, a pre-wing with a long axis of 0.02c, short axis of 0.005c, and aspect ratio of 4 is recommended. For distances beyond 0.04c, a diagonal arrangement above and ahead of the main wing is more effective, with a recommended long axis of 0.01c, a short axis of 0.005c, and an aspect ratio of 2.

Key words: Aeroelasticity; Eigenvalue method; Passive flow control; Numerical simulation

1 Introduction

Flutter is a self-excited aeroelastic instability caused by the coupling among aerodynamic, elastic, and inertial forces. When the aerodynamic energy input during structural oscillation cannot be dissipated by structural damping, the vibration amplitude may increase rapidly and eventually threaten flight safety (Guo et al., 2025). With the increasing demand for lightweight, flexible, and high-performance aircraft, flutter prediction and flutter-boundary improvement remain essential issues in aeroelastic design. Previous studies have therefore attempted to delay flutter onset by modifying structural parameters, aerodynamic layouts, or control strategies. These studies show that flutter is not only a structural-dynamic problem but also a configuration-dependent aerodynamic problem in which the phase relationship between aerodynamic forces and structural motion plays a decisive role.

One important route for improving flutter characteristics is wing design. Aeroelastic tailoring modifies the stiffness distribution and coupling behavior of a wing by optimizing composite-material layups, fiber orientations, and structural layouts. Through favorable bend-twist coupling and directional stiffness design, aeroelastic tailoring can increase flutter speed while maintaining aerodynamic efficiency and reducing structural weight (Najmi et al., 2024). Similar design-oriented studies indicate that the flutter boundary is strongly affected by the stiffness distribution, mass distribution, elastic-axis location, and aerodynamic configuration. These results suggest that configuration-level design can provide a useful way to improve aeroelastic stability.

Accurate prediction of the flutter boundary requires an appropriate aeroelastic analysis method. Traditional flutter analysis is generally based on the coupling between structural dynamic equations and unsteady aerodynamic models. The critical flutter speed is then obtained by solving the eigenvalue problem or by tracking modal damping as the flow velocity

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increases. Classical frequency-domain approaches, such as the p-k and k methods, are widely used because of their computational efficiency and clear modal interpretation (Borglund and Kuttenkeuler, 2002). With the development of computational resources, high-fidelity computational fluid dynamics (CFD) and fluid–structure interaction simulations have also been increasingly applied to aeroelastic problems. Nevertheless, reduced-order models remain valuable in preliminary design and parametric studies because they allow rapid evaluation of aeroelastic trends and reveal the main influence of key parameters.

Flutter suppression methods can generally be divided into passive and active approaches. Passive methods improve the stability boundary by changing the structural parameters, mass distribution, or aerodynamic layout. More recent studies have introduced additional passive devices into wing systems to absorb aeroelastic energy. Coupled flaps, tuned mass dampers, and nonlinear energy sinks can dissipate energy near the instability boundary and improve the stability of two-dimensional wing sections (Fernandez-Escudero et al., 2024). Compared with active control, passive methods are structurally simple and reliable, but their control effect is usually fixed after design and may be sensitive to the selected configuration parameters.

Active flutter suppression has also been extensively investigated. Classical active-control strategies modify the aerodynamic energy input or add modal damping through control surfaces, piezoelectric actuators, leading-edge blowing, circulation control, or feedback controllers. Early work based on aerodynamic energy concepts demonstrated that suitable control-surface motion can suppress airfoil flutter over a range of reduced frequencies (Nissim, 1971). Later studies introduced adaptive control, linear quadratic regulator (LQR)/linear quadratic Gaussian (LQG) control, robust control, output feedback, and machine-learning-based control strategies to improve stability and robustness in nonlinear aeroelastic systems (Strganac et al., 2000; Patil and Hodges, 2002; Behal et al., 2006; Chen CL et al., 2012; Theis et al., 2020; Mu et al., 2022; Chen Z et al., 2023; Ribeiro et al., 2025). Time-delay effects and morphing control surfaces have also been considered in aeroelastic control studies (Ouyang et al., 2021; Sinou, 2022; Wu et al., 2022; Sun and Jin, 2023). In addition, nonlinear hysteresis links have been studied using describing functions, polynomial hysteresis models, and unsteady vortex aerodynamic theory, providing further insight into nonlinear flutter and control-surface effectiveness (Gu and Yang, 2006; Li and Xiang, 2007; Ouyang and Gu, 2010). Although active control provides strong adaptability, it usually requires sensors, actuators, a power supply, and a control-law design, which increases system complexity and introduces additional reliability requirements.

Most flutter suppression methods modify existing aircraft components to regulate aerodynamic energy and modal coupling, which may also alter the original aerodynamic characteristics. The prepositive elliptical wing–main wing combined configuration (abbreviated as pre–main wing) provides a flow-control-inspired alternative. Previous studies have shown that the pre-wing can disturb the wake, suppress main-wing separation, and improve aerodynamic performance without forming unnecessary drag under suitable conditions (Mi and Bai, 2022; Bai et al., 2025). However, its aeroelastic influence on the downstream main wing remains unclear.

In this study, a reduced-order aeroelastic model of the pre–main wing combined configuration is established based on structural dynamics. The critical flutter speed is calculated using the eigenvalue method, and the effects of the main design parameters are analyzed to evaluate the influence of the pre-wing on the flutter characteristics.

2 Mathematical modeling of flutter suppression in the combined configuration

2.1 Flutter suppression mechanism in the combined configuration

As a novel flutter suppression method, an elliptical wing component is installed in front of the main wing. Its purpose is to improve boundary layer flow near the main wing by using the elliptical wing to optimize flow field characteristics and to modify the energy input into the system. This results in weakening the aerodynamic force that acts on the wing system and delays flutter occurrence. Its influence is mainly associated with two mechanisms:

First, the pre-wing behaves similarly to a detached vortex-generating element, enhancing momentum exchange near the leading edge of the main wing. Unlike vortex generators, the pre-wing is installed at specific points on the wing's leading edge and forms

a combined system that generates lift and reduces unnecessary drag (Bai et al., 2025). Second, the gap between the pre-wing and the main wing induces a slot-like acceleration effect, which increases the kinetic energy of the flow over the upper surface and weakens separation caused by adverse pressure gradients (Fig. 1). The pre-wing can be configured in two forms, which are stationary and vibrating (Fig. 2). Previous CFD studies showed that under high-angle-of-attack conditions, a stationary pre-wing increased the lift-to-drag ratio of an NACA0012 main wing from 4.1475 to 17.4144, corresponding to a maximum increase of approximately 319%. A small-amplitude vibrating pre-wing further increased the maximum lift-to-drag ratio by 485% (Mi and Bai, 2022). Meanwhile, within the small angle of attack range of 0°–12°, the pre-wing does not exert significant adverse effects on the original lift-to-drag performance of the main wing, and the ratio even shows a slight improvement.

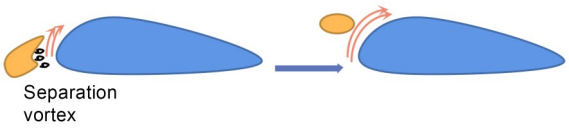


Fig. 1 Gap channel between the prepositive elliptical wing and the main wing

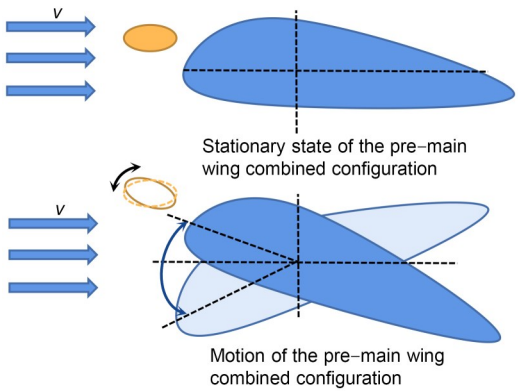


Fig. 2 Stationary and vibrating forms of the pre–main wing combined configuration. *v* denotes the free-stream velocity

According to the aerodynamic energy theory of active flutter suppression, reducing the aerodynamic energy input during oscillation can delay flutter onset. The pre-wing modifies the local flow state and aerodynamic derivatives of the main wing, thereby regulating the aerodynamic stiffness and damping related to flutter without markedly impairing the baseline aerodynamic performance.

2.2 Aeroelastic modeling of the two-dimensional combined configuration

Depending on the design parameters, the pre-wing can be placed above, directly in front of, or below the leading edge of the main wing, and positions (1), (2), and (3) denote the prepositive elliptical wing placements above and ahead of, directly ahead of, and below the main-wing leading edge, respectively (Fig. 3). The configuration's location and size influence flow field characteristics and wake disturbances, which in turn affect flow control at high angles of attack, alter energy input, and shift the system's flutter boundary.

The structural model of the pre-main wing configuration is illustrated in Fig. 4. In the present reduced-order model, the pre-wing is not used to reproduce the detailed separation process or wake evolution between the two wings. Instead, its aerodynamic influence is introduced as an equivalent disturbance to the main-wing inflow. Under the small-disturbance assumption, this influence can be linearized and represented through changes in the effective angle of attack,

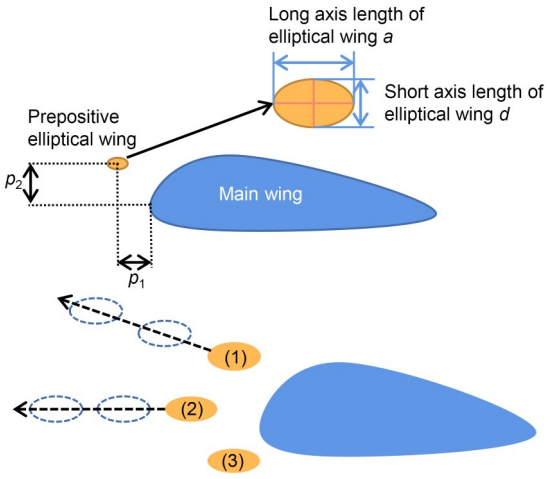


Fig. 3 Schematic diagrams of the pre–main wing system. The explanations of variables are given in Table 1

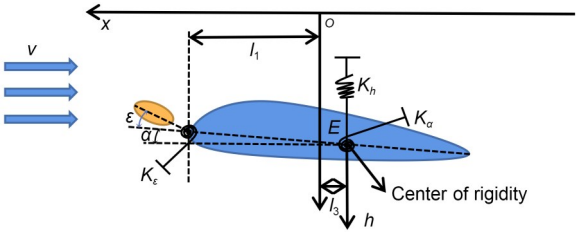


Fig. 4 Pre–main wing structural model. The explanations of variables are given in Table 1. *E* denotes the center of rigidity

camber-related disturbance, and aerodynamic force distribution. Distances from the main wing's leading edge and the center of rigidity to the chord midline are denoted by l_1 and l_3, respectively. b is the distance from the leading edge of the long axis to the chord centerline.

Accordingly, the pre-wing is modeled as an equivalent flat-plate aerodynamic element located near the leading edge of the main wing and connected through a torsional stiffness. The introduced pre-wing deflection coordinate is interpreted as a generalized aerodynamic coordinate describing the lift and pitching-moment perturbations induced by the pre-wing, rather than the prescribed motion of an active pre-wing. This treatment allows the pre-wing effect to be incorporated into the low-order aeroelastic framework through equivalent aerodynamic stiffness and damping.

Table 1 presents the design parameters for the two-dimensional combined configuration.

For the reduced-order aeroelastic model, the generalized coordinate vector is defined as $\boldsymbol{q}=[h,\alpha,\varepsilon]^{\mathrm{T}}$. Using Lagrange's equation, the structural dynamic equation and the corresponding aeroelastic equation after introducing aerodynamic terms can be written as

$$\boldsymbol{M}\ddot{\boldsymbol{q}}+\boldsymbol{D}\dot{\boldsymbol{q}}+\boldsymbol{K}\boldsymbol{q}=\boldsymbol{Q}, \tag{1}$$

$$\boldsymbol{M}\ddot{\boldsymbol{q}}+\tilde{\boldsymbol{D}}\dot{\boldsymbol{q}}+\tilde{\boldsymbol{K}}\boldsymbol{q}=\boldsymbol{0}, \tag{2}$$

where $\boldsymbol{M}$, $\boldsymbol{D}$, and $\boldsymbol{K}$ are the generalized mass, damping, and stiffness matrices, respectively; $\boldsymbol{Q}$ is the generalized aerodynamic force vector; $\tilde{\boldsymbol{D}}$ and $\tilde{\boldsymbol{K}}$ denote the equivalent damping and stiffness matrices after including aerodynamic contributions. The detailed kinematic relations, Lagrange derivation, and explicit matrix forms are provided in Sections S1 and S2 of the electronic supplementary materials (ESM).

In terms of aerodynamic modeling, this study employs the Grossman quasi-steady aerodynamic theory (Ye et al., 2016). This theory is established based on the assumptions of thin airfoils, small disturbances, and two-dimensional inviscid flow. Within this framework, both the main wing and the pre-wing can be treated as flat-plate airfoils, with their aerodynamic forces represented by a continuous distribution of bound vortices. The detailed derivation based on the vortex distribution, Kutta–Joukowski theorem, boundary condition, and aerodynamic moment integration is provided in Section S1 of the ESM.

It should be noted that the actual pre–main wing configuration involves viscous and unsteady flow phenomena, including wake interference, vortex evolution, and separation suppression, which cannot be explicitly resolved by the quasi-steady inviscid model. However, the purpose of this study is to evaluate the first-order influence of pre-wing parameters on the flutter boundary rather than to reproduce detailed flow structures. Since classical linear flutter is mainly governed by aerodynamic stiffness, aerodynamic damping, and the phase relationship between aerodynamic forces and structural motion, the present low-order model is suitable for comparative flutter analysis. To compensate for its limitations, CFD-derived stability derivatives are introduced to calibrate the aerodynamic effects induced by the pre-wing.

3 Flutter characterization of the two-dimensional pre–main wing combined configuration

3.1 System eigenvalue matrix

For the two-dimensional pre–main wing combined configuration, the plunging displacement, pitching

Table 1 Design parameters for the two-dimensional pre–main wing combined configuration

Type	Parameter	Description
Size parameter	a (mm)	Long axis length of elliptical wing
	d (mm)	Short axis length of elliptical wing
Position parameter	p_1 (mm)	Chordwise offset relative to the main wing
	p_2 (mm)	Vertical offset relative to the main wing
Structural parameter	K_h (N/m) and C_h (N·s/m)	Stiffness and damping of wire springs for plunging motion, respectively
	K_α (N·m/rad) and C_α (N·m·s/rad)	Stiffness and damping of torsion springs for pitching motion, respectively
	K_ε (N·m/rad)	Stiffness of the torsion spring for pre-wing deflection motion
Motion parameter	h (m)	Plunging of the main wing (downward positive)
	α (rad)	Pitching about the center of rigidity (leading edge of the main wing upward positive)
	ε (rad)	Deflection of the leading wing (leading edge deflecting upward positive)

angle, and pre-wing equivalent deflection are selected as generalized coordinates. In the eigenvalue-based flutter analysis, these coordinates are assumed to undergo harmonic motion with the same modal frequency:

$$h=h_0e^{i\omega t},\ \ \alpha=\alpha_0e^{i\omega t},\ \ \varepsilon=\varepsilon_0e^{i\omega t}, \tag{3}$$

where h_0, α_0, and ε_0 are complex amplitudes, ω denotes the angular frequency of the harmonic motion of the pre–main wing combined configuration, and t denotes the time. Substituting these expressions into the aeroelastic equations yields a velocity-dependent state-space system. The flutter boundary is determined by tracking the real parts of the eigenvalues as the flow velocity increases. When $\mathrm{Re}(\lambda)=0$, the corresponding velocity is defined as the critical flutter speed, and the flutter frequency is obtained from $f=\mathrm{Im}(\lambda)/(2\pi)$. The detailed state-space formulation and eigenvalue expression are provided in Section S2 of the ESM.

3.2 Flutter characteristics: combined vs. conventional wing

3.2.1 Conventional wing flutter analysis

A conventional 2-DOF (degree of freedom) wing section is first analyzed to determine the baseline flutter boundary. The aerodynamic derivatives are obtained from simulation analysis under Ma=0.15 and Reynolds number Re=3.94×10^6, and the structural parameters are taken from Platanitis and Strganac (2004). The complete computational parameters are listed in Table S1 of the ESM.

For the conventional 2-DOF wing section, the plunge and pitch motions are selected as the generalized coordinates. Based on the aeroelastic model described above, the corresponding generalized mass, damping, and stiffness matrices are assembled to form the velocity-dependent state-space system. The explicit matrix expressions are listed in Section S2 of the ESM to avoid unnecessary repetition in the main text. By solving the eigenvalue problem of the state-space matrix at different flow velocities, the variation of the real parts of the eigenvalues is obtained.

As shown in Fig. 5, the eigenvalues' real parts are negative at zero velocity, indicating stability. The natural frequencies are 2.8932 Hz for plunge and 1.4354 Hz for pitch. The critical flutter speed is 14.2553 m/s with a flutter frequency of 1.4947 Hz.

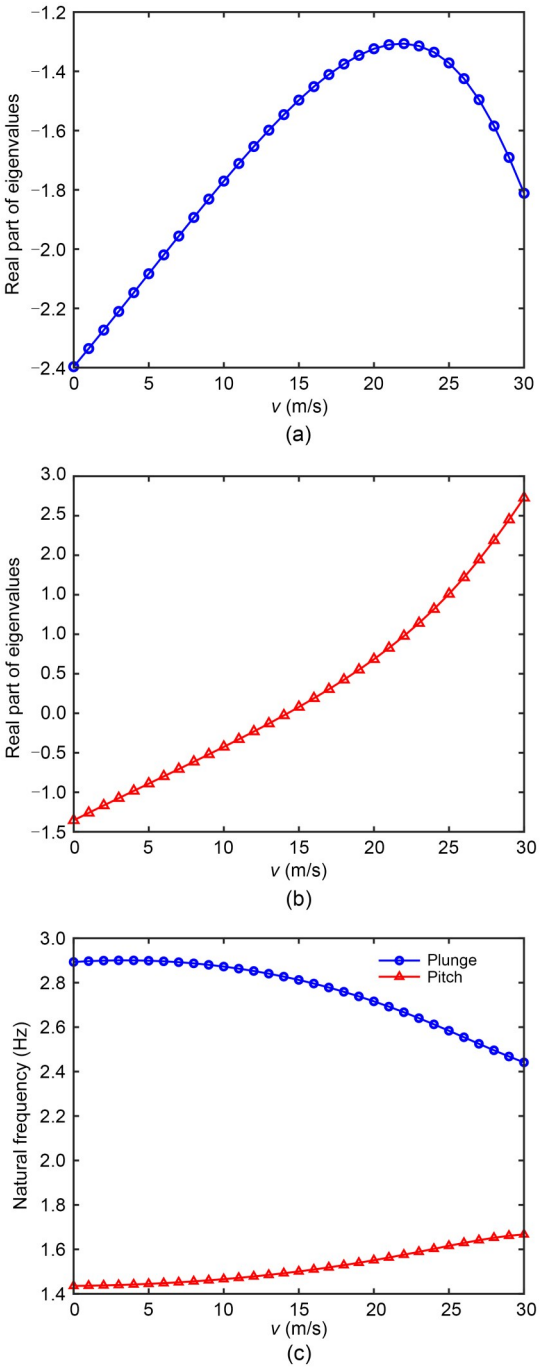


Fig. 5 Velocity (v) vs. real parts of eigenvalues for a 2-DOF system: (a) plunge DOF; (b) pitching DOF; (c) velocity vs. natural frequency

The plunge eigenvalue remains negative at all velocities, so it does not influence flutter onset. Overall, the flutter speed and frequency of the 2-DOF (degree of freedom) system are 14.2553 m/s and 1.4947 Hz, respectively. The natural frequency decreases by 48.34% before flutter.

3.2.2 Flutter analysis of the combined configuration

For the 3-DOF combined configuration, the aerodynamic derivatives are updated using CFD results to account for the influence of the pre-wing. The calculations are conducted at Ma=0.15 and a Reynolds number Re=3.94×10^6. The representative case uses a main-wing chord of 1 m and a pre-wing with a=20 mm, d=10 mm, located 20 mm ahead of and 20 mm above the main-wing leading edge. The updated parameters are summarized in Table S2 of the ESM. The corresponding mass, damping, and stiffness matrices are assembled using the formulation described in Section 2.2. Their explicit forms are provided in Section S2 of the ESM. The velocity-dependent state-space matrix is then constructed, and its eigenvalues are solved over the prescribed velocity range.

The variation in the real parts of the eigenvalues with flow velocity is shown in Fig. 6. The eigenvalue's real part becomes zero at 30.7578 m/s, indicating flutter onset at 3.4181 Hz. The pitch remains stable. For pre-wing deflection, the natural frequency is 1.4055 Hz, which is negative at low velocities but reaches zero at 20.4687 m/s, signaling instability and flutter at 1.4952 Hz. The critical flutter speed is 20.4687 m/s with a frequency of 1.4952 Hz.

According to the calculation results in Fig. 7, the natural frequency of the critical mode increases by 1.76% before flutter onset. After introducing the pre-wing, the flutter boundary is governed by the pre-wing equivalent deflection mode rather than the plunge mode, indicating that the pre-wing changes the aeroelastic characteristics of the system.

Table 2 compares the key aerodynamic derivatives and critical flutter speeds of the baseline and combined configurations. With the pre-wing, the lift coefficient decreases by 33.38%, while the pitching-moment derivative changes only slightly. The critical flutter speed increases from 14.2553 to 20.4687 m/s, corresponding to an increase of 43.59%.

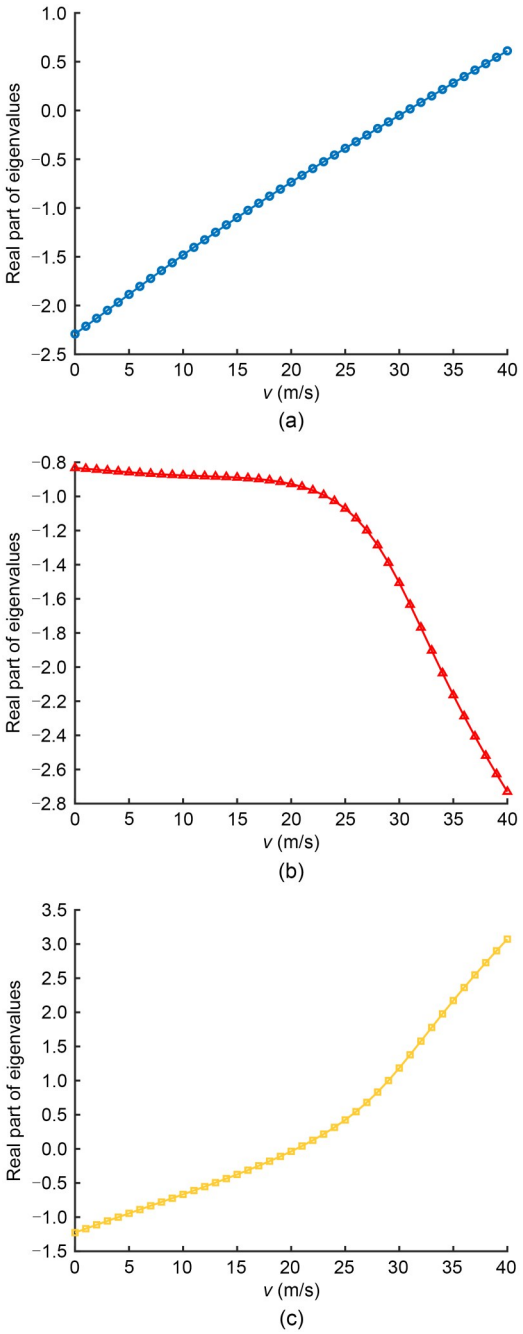


Fig. 6 Velocity vs. eigenvalue real part for 3-DOF systems: (a) plunge DOF; (b) pitch DOF; (c) pre-wing deflection DOF

4 Correlation between design parameters and flutter suppression characteristics

4.1 Relative location effects

The vertical and chordwise distances determine the relative position between the pre-wing and the main wing. Using these parameters, positions can be classified into three categories: directly in front of the main wing, above and ahead of the main wing, and below and ahead of the main wing (Fig. 8).

Based on previous findings (Mi and Bai, 2022), an excessively small spacing between the pre-wing and the main wing may cause flow blockage, whereas an excessively large spacing weakens the wake

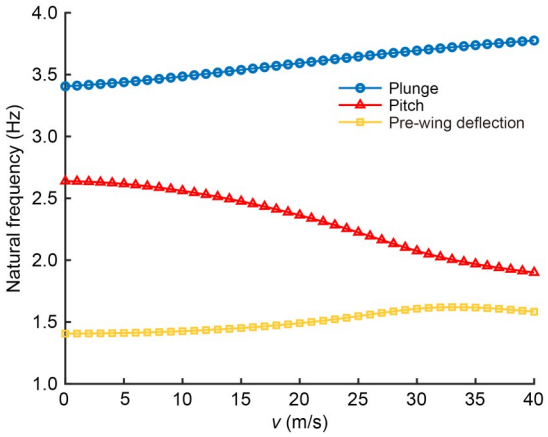


Fig. 7 Velocity vs. natural frequency for 3-DOF systems

Table 2 Parameter changes after adding the pre-wing

Item	$C_{l\alpha}$ (rad^{-1})	$C_{m\alpha}$ (rad^{-1})	Critical flutter speed (m/s)
Baseline value	1.5	0	14.2553
Add the pre-wing	0.9992	−0.0014	20.4687
Change	33.38%	–	43.59%

$C_{l\alpha}$ and $C_{m\alpha}$ denote the derivatives of the lift coefficient and pitching-moment coefficient with respect to the angle of attack, respectively

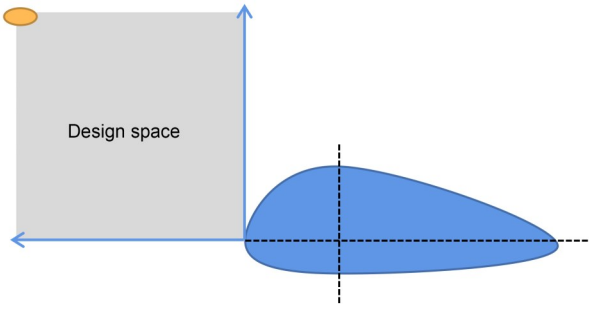


Fig. 8 Schematic of the influence of relative positions

interaction before it reaches the main wing. Therefore, this study focuses on a physically constrained design region where the pre-wing can still produce effective flow control. The results should be interpreted as locally effective solutions, and superior configurations may still exist outside the investigated design space.

4.1.1 Pre-wing located in front of the main wing

The pre-wing is first placed directly in front of the main wing, with the vertical offset fixed at 0 mm. The pre-wing size is kept constant at a=10 mm and d=5 mm, while the chordwise distance is varied from p_1=20 to 120 mm. The complete stability derivatives and flutter results are listed in Table S3 of the ESM.

As shown in Fig. 9, the critical flutter speed is higher than that of the baseline wing at all sampled positions. The maximum improvement occurs at p_1=20 mm, where the critical flutter speed reaches 26.3274 m/s, corresponding to an increase of 84.68%. When the distance increases to p_1=40 mm, the improvement decreases to 29.13%, after which the flutter speed gradually increases again. This indicates that the chordwise position of the pre-wing strongly affects the flutter boundary.

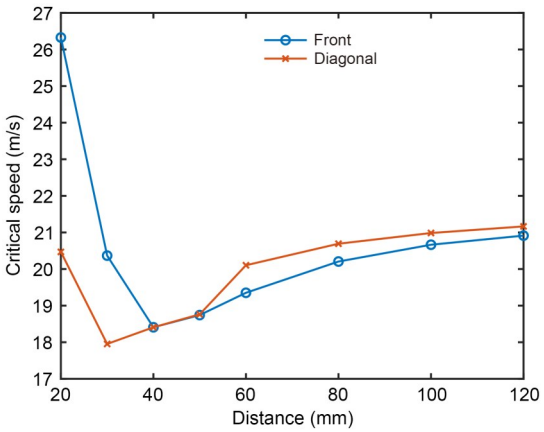


Fig. 9 Flutter critical velocity vs. pre-wing position

4.1.2 Pre-wing located above and ahead of the main wing

In this subsection, the pre-wing is arranged above and ahead of the main wing along a diagonal direction, while its size remains unchanged at a=10 mm and d=5 mm. The diagonal position is denoted by (p_1, p_2). The sampled positions range from (20 mm, 20 mm) to (120 mm, 120 mm), and the complete stability derivatives and flutter results are provided in Table S4 of the ESM.

As shown in Fig. 9, the critical flutter speed first decreases and then gradually increases with increasing diagonal distance. The lowest value appears near (p_1, p_2)=(30 mm, 30 mm), where the critical speed is 17.9527 m/s, which remains higher than that of the baseline wing. As the diagonal distance further increases, the critical speed recovers and reaches 21.1650 m/s at (p_1, p_2)=(120 mm, 120 mm), corresponding to an increase of 48.47% compared with the baseline wing.

Compared with the direct front of the main wing arrangement, the diagonal arrangement provides a more stable improvement in the critical flutter speed at larger distances. Based on the identified turning point, the position near (p_1, p_2)=(40 mm, 40 mm) shows a more favorable flutter-speed increase.

4.2 Relative size effects

The long and short axes indicate the relative size of the pre-wing. In size-effect studies, the pre-wing is consistently positioned directly in front of the main wing, with the distance from the leading edge starting at 20 mm. This distance is gradually increased to evaluate the critical flutter speed for each configuration. To facilitate scale-independent comparison, the geometric dimensions of the pre-wing are nondimensionalized by the main-wing chord c. Accordingly, a/c and d/c denote the nondimensional long- and short-axis lengths of the elliptical pre-wing, respectively. The analysis is conducted under three design conditions: (1) a/c=0.01, d/c=0.005 (baseline configuration); (2) a/c=0.02, d/c=0.005; (3) a/c=0.02, d/c=0.01.

The first condition, previously calculated, serves as a reference for comparison. The results of the flutter characteristics are summarized in Fig. 10.

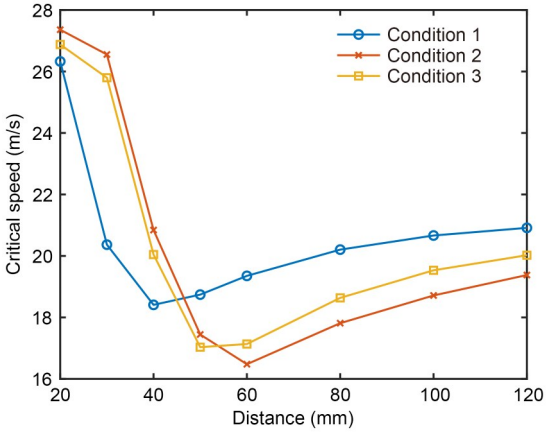


Fig. 10 Comparison of the critical flutter speed for three conditions

For spacing below 50 mm, the shorter long axis provides better flutter suppression, whereas the longer long axis becomes more effective at larger spacings. When the long axis is fixed, increasing the short axis mainly changes the suppression magnitude rather than the overall trend; its effect becomes more pronounced as the spacing increases.

The effective design parameters are as shown in Fig. 11. For distances less than 40 mm (the main wing chord is c=1 m=1000 mm; therefore, 40 mm=0.04c), the pre-wing is positioned directly in front of the main wing, with a long axis length of a/c=0.02, short axis length of d/c=0.005, and an aspect ratio of a/d=4. For distances beyond 40 mm, the pre-wing is arranged along the diagonal, with a/c=0.01, d/c=0.005 (d=5 mm), and a/d=2.

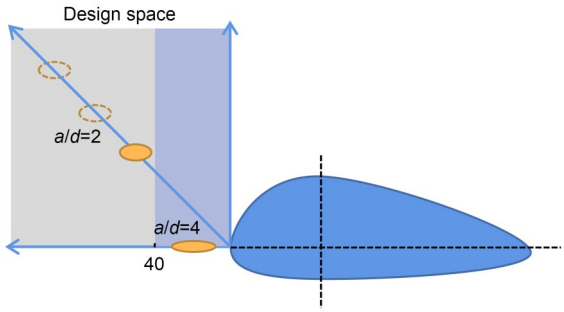


Fig. 11 Effective design parameters of the pre-wing

5 Conclusions

This study investigates the flutter characteristics of a two-dimensional prepositive elliptical wing–main wing combined configuration using a reduced-order aeroelastic model and CFD-evaluated aerodynamic derivatives. The main conclusions are as follows:

1. By modifying the local flow field of the main wing, the pre-wing changes the aerodynamic properties, generalized system matrix, and critical flutter condition of the aeroelastic system.

2. The eigenvalue-based analysis shows that under the representative operating conditions, the critical flutter speed increases by approximately 43.59% after introducing the pre-wing, confirming its effectiveness in improving flutter characteristics.

3. Strong coupling exists between the effects of pre-wing size and position. For chordwise distances within 0.04c, the elliptical wing is positioned directly in front of the main wing with a/c=0.02, d/c=0.005, and a/d=4; beyond 0.04c, the wing is arranged along the diagonal with a/c=0.01, d/c=0.005, and a/d=2.

4. Limitations of this work mainly arise from the two-dimensional inviscid thin-airfoil assumption, incomplete design-space exploration, and the absence of formal optimization. Although suitable for preliminary

flutter analysis and trend studies, the present model neglects viscous effects and 3D spanwise flow structures and cannot fully capture vortex evolution, wake deformation, or spanwise coupling induced by the pre-wing. Moreover, because the two-dimensional airfoil model represents an infinite-span wing, its accuracy is limited for finite-span pre-wing configurations. Future studies should employ 3D aeroelastic models, high-fidelity CFD methods, and optimization algorithms to explore broader parameter ranges and further clarify the flutter suppression mechanism.

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Author contributions

Congyu ZHAO developed the methodology, established the aeroelastic model, performed the eigenvalue-based flutter analysis, analyzed the results, created the visualizations, and drafted the manuscript. Baigang MI conceptualized the prepositive elliptical wing–main wing combined configuration, supervised the research, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. Xuan BAI carried out the CFD calculations and provided the aerodynamic data for the aeroelastic analysis.

Conflict of interest

Congyu ZHAO, Baigang MI, and Xuan BAI declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Declaration on the use of generative AI tools

During the preparation of this work, the authors used DeepSeek to improve language. After using this tool, the authors reviewed and edited the content as needed and take full responsibility for the content of the publication.

Data availability

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

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Electronic supplementary materials

Sections S1–S3, Tables S1–S4