

Section 5 Aerodynamics

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5.0 Recurring Terminology

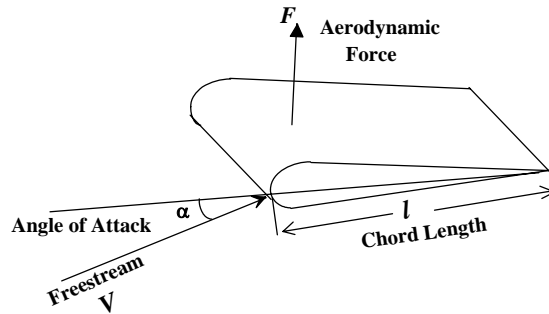
a	slope of lift curve, $dC_L/d\alpha$
$a.c.$	aerodynamic center, location along the chord where pitching moments about this center do not change with angle of attack (25% MAC for airfoils in subsonic flow, 50% MAC for airfoils in supersonic flow)
AOA	angle of attack
AR	aspect ratio = $[\text{wing span}]^2 / [\text{reference wing area}] = b^2/S$
B	wing span
b_t	horizontal tail span
C	coefficient, a non-dimensional representation of an aerodynamic property
c	wing chord length Camber maximum curvature of an airfoil, measured at maximum distance between chord line and camber line, expressed in % of MAC. Camber line theoretical line extending from an airfoil's leading edge to the trailing edge, located halfway between the upper and lower surfaces.
C_D	drag coefficient
C_{Di}	induced drag coefficient
C_{Do}, C_{Dpe}	parasitic drag coefficient
c_f	friction coefficient
Chord	straight-line distance from an airfoil's leading edge to its trailing edge.
C_L	lift coefficient
C_p	pressure coefficient = $\Delta p/q$
e	Oswald efficiency factor
l	distance traveled by flow, or characteristic length of surface
M	Mach number
MAC	mean aerodynamic chord, chord length of location on wing where total aerodynamic forces can be concentrated.
MGC	mean geometric chord, the average chord length, derived only from a plan form view of a wing (similar to MAC if wing has no twist and constant cross section & thickness-to-chord ratio).
P	pressure
$P_{req'd}$	power required
q	dynamic pressure = $1/2 \rho_a V_T^2 = 1/2 \rho_o V_T^2$
R	gas constant
R_m, R_e	Reynolds number
S	reference wing area, includes extension of wing to fuselage centerline.
S_t	horizontal tail surface area
S_w	wetted area of surface
T	temperature
V	true velocity
V_e	equivalent velocity
α	angle of attack
α_i	induced angle of attack
δ	depth of boundary layer, or surface wedge angle
μ	viscosity, or wave angle
ν	flow turning angle
θ	shock wave angle
ρ	density

- Perfect Fluid
 - ~ incompressible, inelastic, and non-viscous
 - ~ used in flow outside of boundary layers at $M < .7$
- Incompressible, inelastic, viscous
 - ~ used for boundary layer studies at $M < .7$
- Compressible, non-viscous, elastic fluid
 - ~ used outside boundary layers up to $M = 5$

5.1 Dimensional Analysis Interpretations (ref 5.2)

Aerodynamic force = F

- $F = f(\rho, \mu, T, V, \text{shape, orientation, size, roughness, gravity})$
- For aircraft ignore R, K & hypersonic effects



- Initially assume similar body orientations, shapes & roughness.
- Dimensional Analysis reveals four non-dimensional (π) parameters:

$$\text{Force Coefficient} \quad \pi_1 = \frac{F}{\rho V^2 l^2}$$

$$\text{Reynolds Number} \quad \pi_2 = \frac{\rho V l}{\mu}$$

$$\text{Mach Number} \quad \pi_3 = \frac{V}{a}$$

$$\text{Froude Number} \quad \pi_4 = \frac{V}{\sqrt{l g}}$$

A closer look at the force coefficient:

$$C_F = \frac{F}{\rho V^2 l^2} \Rightarrow \frac{F}{\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 S}$$

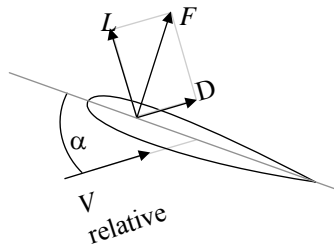
where $\frac{1}{2} \rho_a V_T^2 = \frac{1}{2} \rho_o V_e^2 = \text{dynamic pressure, } q$
 dimensions of reference wing area, S are the same

A feel for q

- Kinetic energy of a moving object = $\frac{1}{2} m V_T^2$
- Block of moving air kinetic energy = $\frac{1}{2} \rho (\text{volume}) V_T^2$
- Dividing through by volume yields KE per volume of moving air = $\frac{1}{2} \rho V_T^2$
- "Dynamic pressure" or " q " = potential for converting each cubic foot of the airflow's kinetic energy into frontal stagnation pressure
- Feel q by extending your hand out the window of a moving car

A feel for coefficients

- $C_F = (F/S)/q$ = the ratio between the total force pressure and the flow's dynamic pressure
- Lift is the component of the total force perpendicular to the free stream flow
- Drag is the component along the flow
- Break total into lift and drag coefficients:

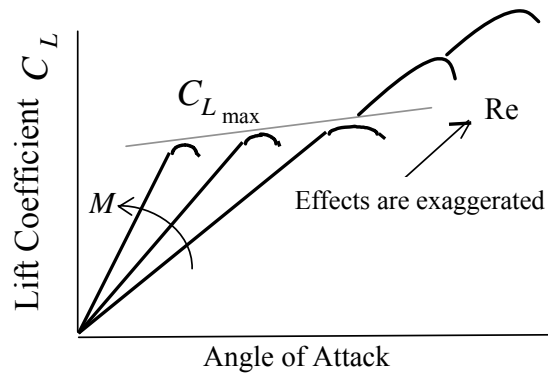


- Froude number is not significant in aerodynamic phenomena
- Recall that forces are also a function of angle of attack, shape & surface roughness, therefore

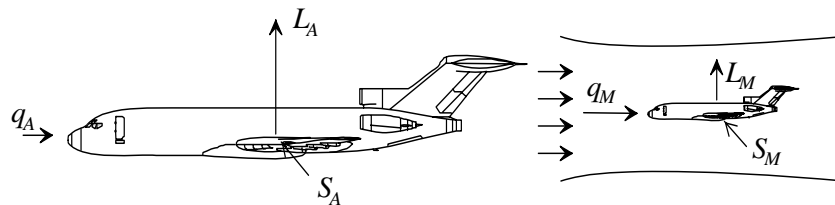
Froude number is not significant in aerodynamic phenomena

Recall that forces are also a function of angle of attack, shape
& surface roughness

$C_L, C_D = f[M, Re, \alpha]$ for a given shape, roughness



To compare test day and standard day aircraft or to match wind tunnel C_F data to actual aircraft; the shape, roughness, M , R_n and α must be equal for both aircraft



$$\frac{L_A}{q_A S_A} = C_L = \frac{L_M}{q_M S_M}$$

5.2 General Aerodynamic Relations (refs 5.1, 5.2, 5.10)

Lift & Drag forces can be described using two approaches:

- 1) Change in momentum of airstream, $F = d\{mv\}/dt$
- 2) “Bernoulli” approach which requires the continuity and conservation of energy equations

Continuity Equation

Fluid Mass in = Fluid Mass out

$$\rho_1 V_1 A_1 = \rho_2 V_2 A_2$$

For subsonic (incompressible) flow $\rho_1 = \rho_2$

$$V_1 A_1 = V_2 A_2$$

Conservation of Energy (Bernoulli) Equation:

Potential + Kinetic + Pressure = constant

(changes in Potential energy are negligible)

Energy per unit volume is pressure then

Dynamic Pressure + Static Pressure = Total Pressure

$$\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 + p_s = \text{constant}$$

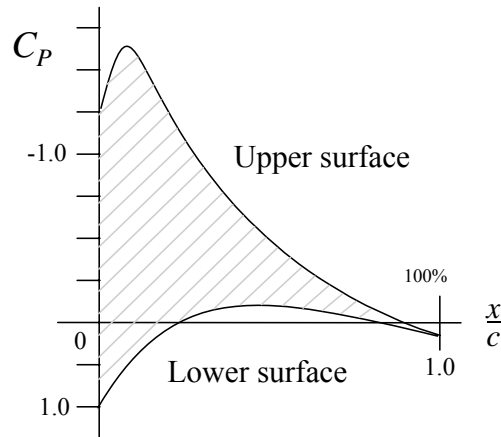
$$\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 + p_s = p_t$$

- This classic approach only applies in the “potential flow” region and not in the boundary layer where energy losses occur

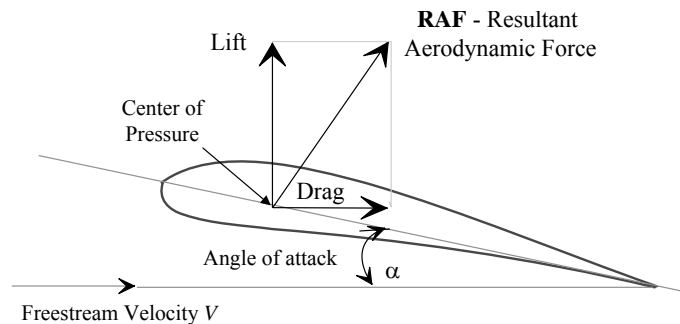
- Pressures around a surface can be calculated or measured from tests and converted into pressure coefficients,

$$c_p = (p_{\text{local}} - p_{\text{ambient}}) / \text{dynamic pressure} = \Delta p / q$$

- c_p values can be mapped out for all surfaces



- Summation of all pressures perpendicular to surface yield the pitching moments and the “**Resultant Aerodynamic Force**” which is broken into lift and drag components

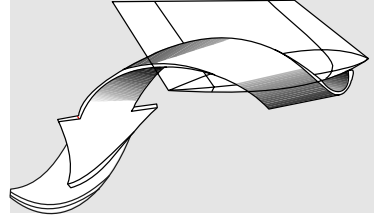
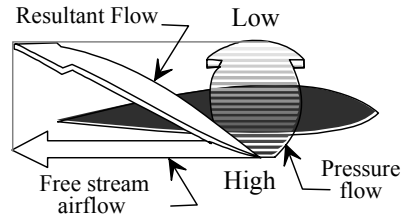


- Lift & drag forces are referred to the aerodynamic center (ac) where the pitching moment is constant for reasonable angles of attack.
- Pitching moments increase with airfoil camber, are zero if symmetric.
- Aerodynamic center is located at 25% MAC for fully subsonic flow and at 50% MAC for fully supersonic flow.

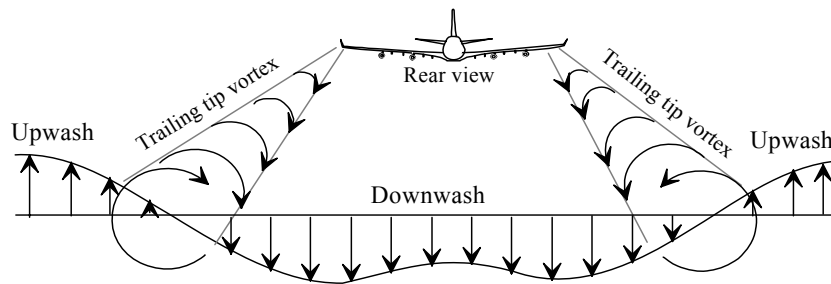
5.3 Wing Design Effects on Lift Curve Slope (refs 5.1, 5.2, 5.10)

Aspect Ratio Effect

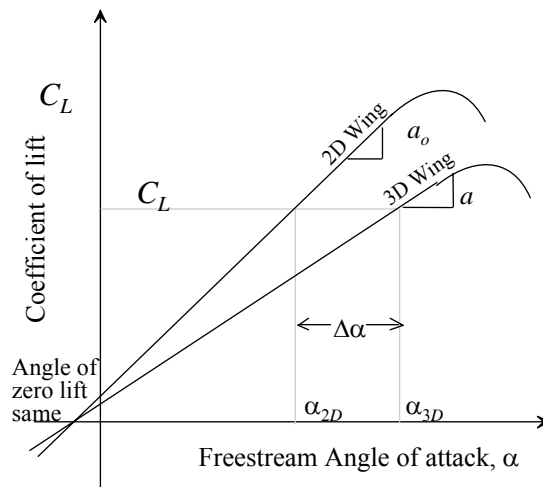
- Pressure differential at wingtip causes tip vortex



- Vortex creates flow field that reduces AOA across wingspan



- Local AOA reductions decrease average lift curve slope



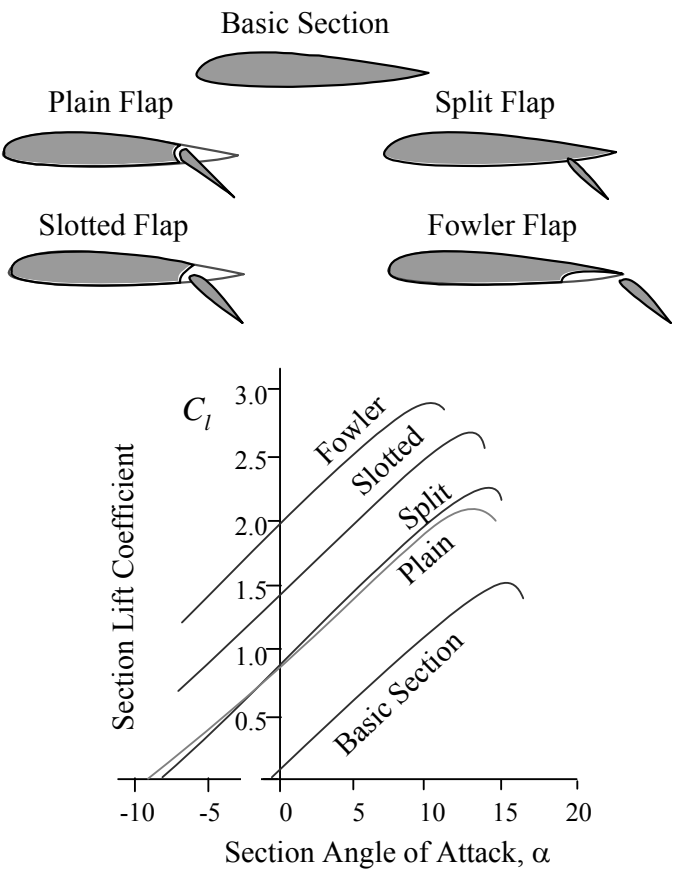
2D wing = wind tunnel airfoil extending to walls (infinite aspect ratio).

a_o = Lift curve slope for an infinite wing

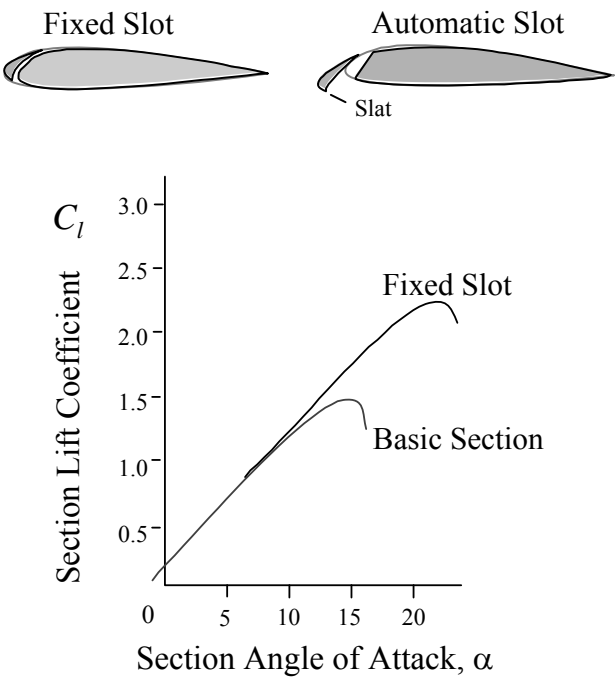
a = Lift curve slope for a finite wing

- Above relationship estimated as
$$a = \frac{dC_L}{d\alpha} = \frac{a_o}{1 + \frac{57.3a_o}{\pi AR}}$$

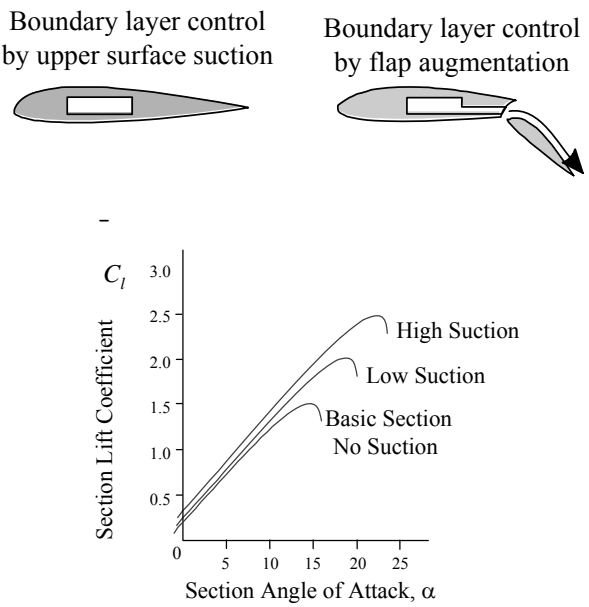
Trailing Edge Flap Effects



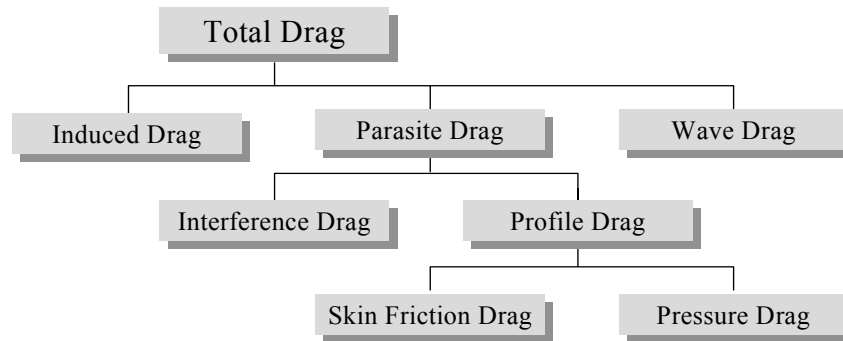
Leading Edge Flap Effects



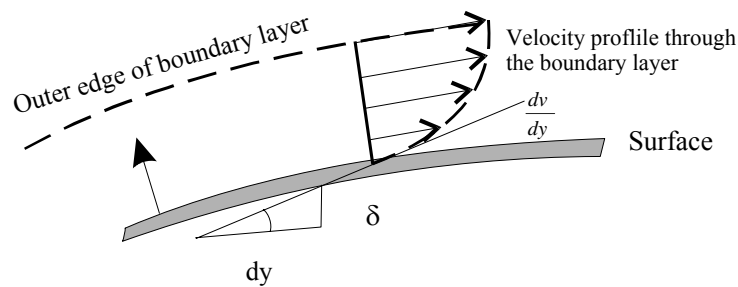
Boundary Layer Control Effects



5.4 Elements of Drag (refs 5.1, 5.2, 5.10)



- Skin friction shear stress is a function of velocity profile at surface



$$\text{Shear stress } \tau_w = \mu \left(\frac{dv}{dy} \right)_{y=0}$$

- **Viscosity** (μ) increases with temperature (ref 5.9)

$$\text{Sutherland law: } \mu = \mu_o \frac{\left(\frac{T}{T_o} \right)^{1.5} (T_o + S)}{(T + S)} \quad \text{Power law: } \mu = \mu_o \left(\frac{T}{T_o} \right)^n$$

Where $T_o = 273.15 \text{ K} = 518.67 \text{ R}$.

For air: $S = 110.4 \text{ K} = 199 \text{ R}$; $n = .67$

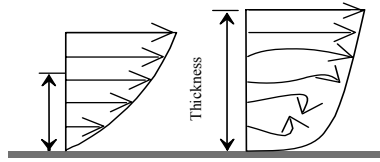
For air at 273 K: $\mu_o = 1.717 \times 10^{-5} \text{ [kg/m s]} = 3.59 \times 10^{-7} \text{ [slug/ft s]}$

Inserting air values (T_K =Kelvin and T_R =Rankin) into Sutherland law gives

$$\mu = 1.458 \times 10^{-6} \frac{T_K^{1.5}}{T_K + 1104} \left[\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{s} \cdot \text{m}} \right] = 2.2 \times 10^{-8} \frac{T_R^{1.5}}{T_R + 199} \left[\frac{\text{slug}}{\text{s} \cdot \text{ft}} \right]$$

Reynolds Number Effects (ref 5.10)

- Laminar boundary layers have more gradual change in velocity near surface than turbulent boundary layers.
- High Reynolds numbers help propagate turbulent flow.



Laminar

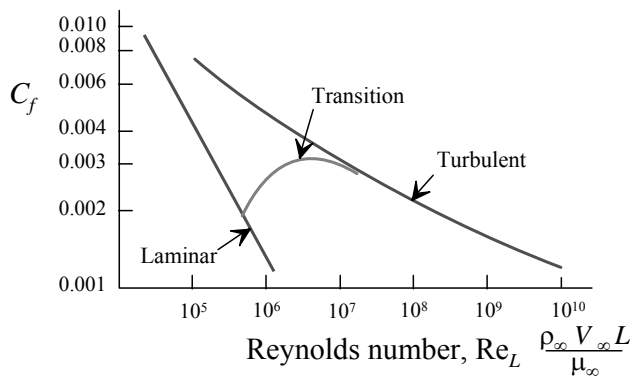
Turbulent

Shearing stress $\tau_w = \mu \left(\frac{dv}{dy} \right)_{y=0}$

Skin friction coefficient $C_f = \frac{\tau_w}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2} = \frac{\tau_w}{q_\infty}$

Laminar boundary layer $\text{Total } C_f = \frac{1.328}{(\text{Re}_L)^{1/2}}$

Turbulent boundary layer $\text{Total } C_f = \frac{.455}{(\log \text{Re}_L)^{2.58}} \approx \frac{0.074}{(\text{Re}_L)^{1/5}}$



Re_L based on total length of flat plate

- Depth of boundary layer (δ) depends on local Reynolds number (Re_x) and whether the flow is turbulent or laminar.

$$\text{Re}_x = \frac{\rho_\infty V_\infty x}{\mu_\infty} \equiv \frac{\text{Inertia Forces}}{\text{Viscous Forces}}$$

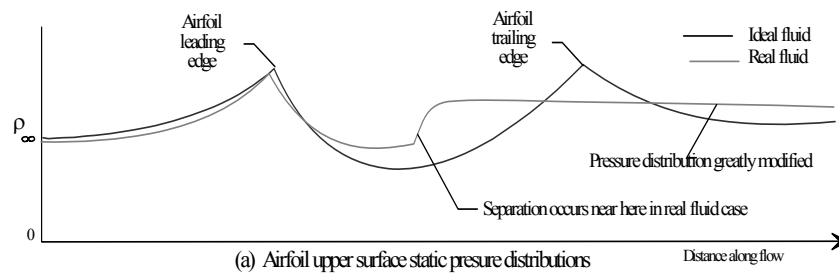
x = distance traveled to point in question

$$\delta_{\text{lam}} = \frac{5.2 x}{\sqrt{\text{Re}_x}}$$

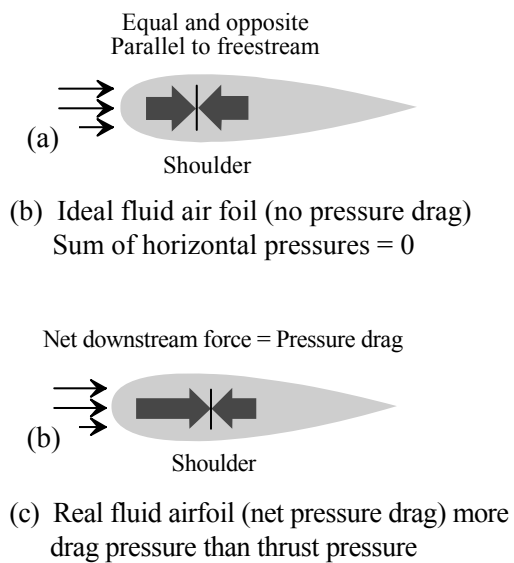
$$\delta_{\text{turb}} = \frac{.37 x}{\text{Re}_x^{.2}}$$

5.4.2 Pressure Drag

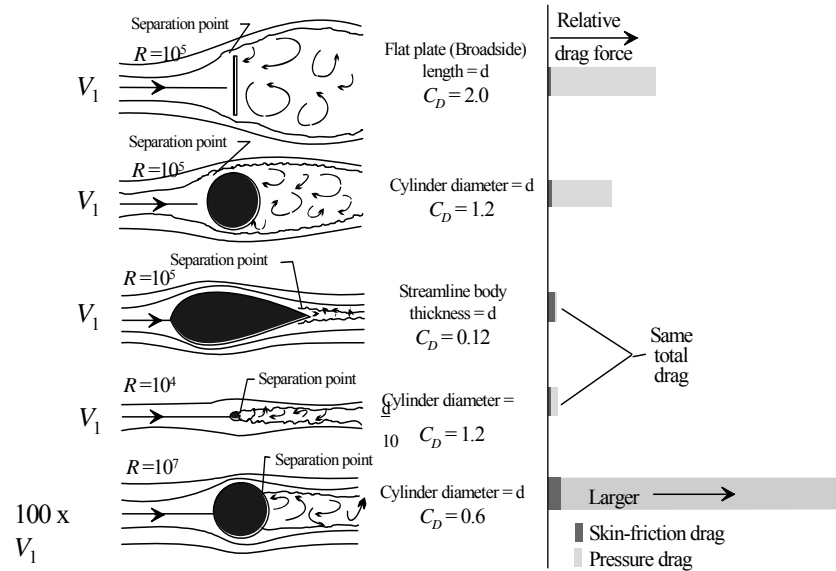
- Ideal frictionless flow has no losses and leads to zero pressure drag
- Real fluids have friction and energy losses along surface
- Energy losses negate total pressure recovery, lead to decreasing total pressure along surface



- Imbalance of pressures on surfaces causes pressure drag

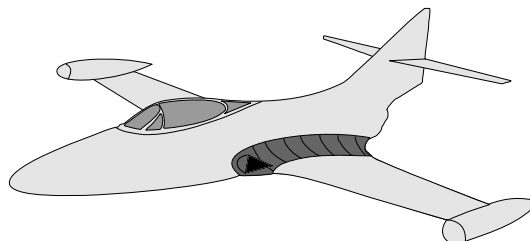


- Profile streamlining reduces pressure drag



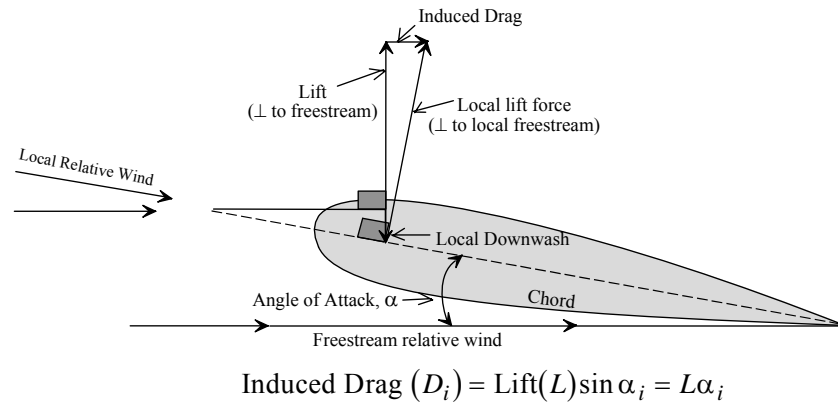
5.4.3 Interference Drag

- Occurs with multiple surfaces approximately parallel to flow
- Caused by flow's interference with itself or by excessive adverse pressure gradient due to rapidly decreasing vehicle cross section
- Most severe with surfaces at acute angles to each other
- Effects often reduced by fillets around contracting surfaces



5.4.4 Induced Drag

- Wingtip vortex reduces local AOA at each station along wing
- Local lift vector is perpendicular to local AOA
- Local lift vector is therefore tilted back relative to freestream lift
- Induced drag defined as rearward component of local lift vector



$$\text{Induced Drag } (D_i) = L(\alpha_i)$$

$$\text{For elliptical lift distributions } \alpha_i = \frac{C_L}{\pi AR}$$

$$\therefore D_i = L \left(\frac{C_L}{\pi AR} \right) \quad \text{but} \quad L = q S C_L$$

$$C_{D_i} = \frac{D_i}{qS} = \frac{C_L^2}{\pi AR} = \text{induced drag coefficient}$$

Oswald efficiency factor, e , accounts for losses in excess of those predicted above (due to uneven downwash and changing interference drag effects).

$$\therefore C_{D_i} = \frac{C_L^2}{\pi AR e}$$

5.5 Aerodynamic Compressibility Relations (reference 5.8)

Prandtl/Glauert Approximation

Approximates Mach effects on aerodynamics below critical Mach

$$C_{P_{compressible}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-M^2}} C_{P_{incompressible}}$$

Total vs Ambient Property Relations for Adiabatic Flow

$$\frac{T_T}{T} = 1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} M^2 \quad \text{Isentropic flow not required}$$

$$\frac{P_T}{P} = \left[1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} M^2 \right]^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \quad \text{Isentropic (shockless) flow required}$$

$$\frac{\rho_T}{\rho} = \left[1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} M^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \quad \text{Isentropic flow required}$$

Normal Shock Relations

Assumes isentropic flow on each side of the shock

Assumes flow across shock is adiabatic

Property changes occur in a constant area (throat)

$$\frac{P_2}{P_1} = \frac{1-\gamma+2\gamma M_1^2}{1+\gamma}$$

$$\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} = \left[\frac{2+(\gamma-1)M_1^2}{(\gamma+1)M_1^2} \right]^{-1}$$

$$\frac{T_2}{T_1} = \left[\frac{1-\gamma+2\gamma M_1^2}{1+\gamma} \right] \left[\frac{2+(\gamma-1)M_1^2}{(1+\gamma)M_1^2} \right]$$

$$M_2^2 = \frac{M_1^2 + \frac{2}{\gamma-1}}{\frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1} M_1^2 - 1}$$

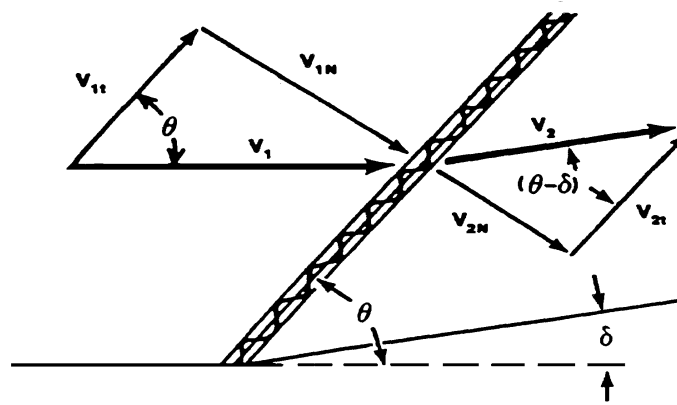
Normal shock summary

$$P_{T_1} > P_{T_2} \quad \rho_{T_1} > \rho_{T_2} \quad T_{T_1} = T_{T_2} \quad M_1 > M_2$$

$$P_1 < P_2 \quad \rho_1 < \rho_2 \quad T_1 < T_2 \quad s_1 < s_2$$

5.5.1 Oblique Shocks

Oblique Shock Description



δ = surface turning angle

θ = shock wave angle

Subscript 1 denotes upstream conditions

Subscript 2 denotes downstream conditions

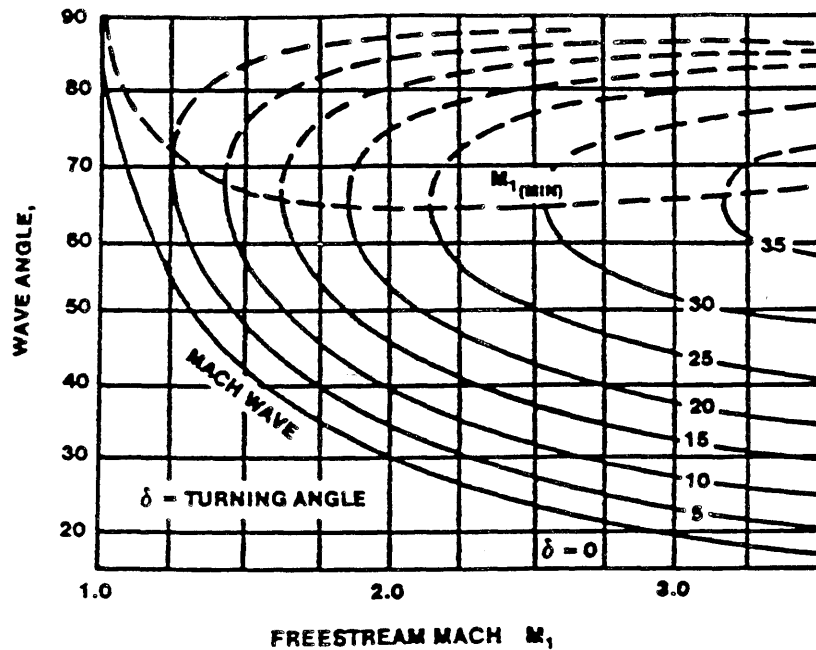
Oblique Shock Relations

- Calculate P_2/P_1 , T_2/T_1 , and ρ_2/ρ_1 across oblique shocks by using normal shock equations and substituting $M_1 \sin \theta$ in place of M_1
- Calculate total pressure loss across oblique shock as
- Calculate relation between Mach number and angles as

$$\frac{P_{T_2}}{P_{T_1}} = \left\{ \left[\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} + \frac{2}{(\gamma+1)M_1^2 \sin^2 \theta} \right]^\gamma \left[\frac{2\gamma}{\gamma+1} M_1^2 \sin^2 \theta - \frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} \right] \right\}^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma}}$$

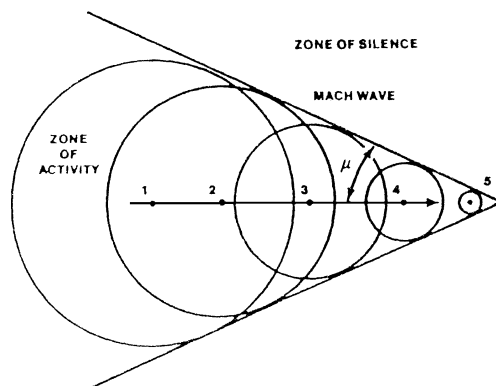
$$M_2^2 \sin^2 (\delta - \theta) = \frac{M_1^2 \sin^2 \theta + \frac{2}{\gamma-1}}{\frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1} M_1^2 \sin^2 \theta - 1}$$

Oblique Shock Turning Angle as a Function of Wave Angle



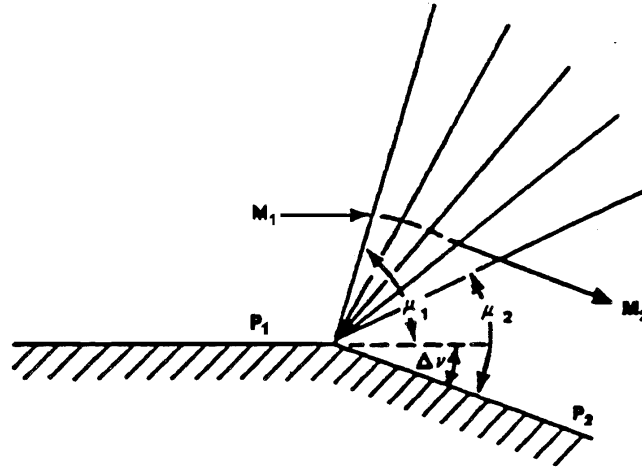
- Two θ solutions exist for every M_1 & δ combination
These represent the strong and weak shock solutions
Weak shocks normally occur in nature
- There is a minimum Mach number for each turning angle
- The wave angle of a weak shock decreases with increased Mach
- For a given Mach number, θ approaches μ as δ decreases

Mach Cone Angle



Minimum Wave Angle
 $\mu = \sin^{-1}(1/M)$

5.5.2 Supersonic Isentropic Expansion Relations



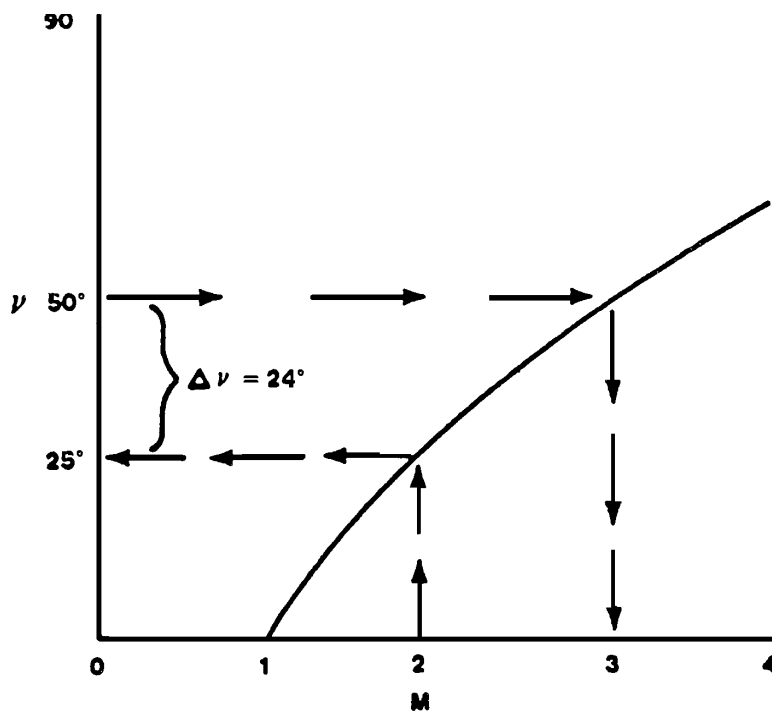
- The wave angle μ determines where the lower pressure can be felt and thus where the flow can be accelerated
- As the flow accelerates, a new wave angle forms and the subsequent lower pressure further accelerates the flow
- Results in a series of Mach waves forming a “fan” until the flow turns and accelerates so that it is parallel to the new boundary

Prandtl-Meyer Function

Shows flow's required turning angle (ν) to accelerate from one Mach number to another

$$\nu_M = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma+1}{\gamma-1}} \left[\tan^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma+1} (M^2 - 1)} \right] - \tan^{-1} \sqrt{M^2 - 1}$$

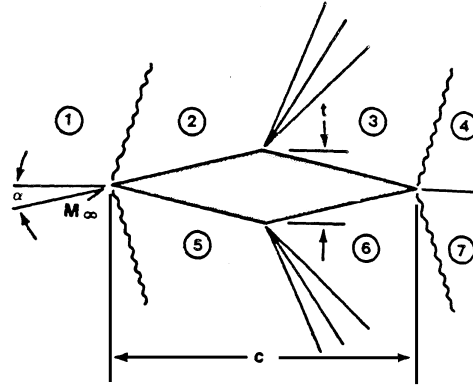
- If upstream Mach (M_1) = 1, then $\nu_1 = 0$, and equation directly relates downstream Mach (M_2) to surface turning angle ($\Delta\nu$)
- If $M_1 > 1$, determine M_2 as follows:
 - Calculate upstream ν_1 from above equation
 - Calculate $\nu_2 = \nu_1 + \Delta\nu$
 - Reverse above equation to obtain corresponding M_2
- Above equation is tabulated in NACA TR 1135 and is plotted below



Example: Flow initially at $M_1 = 2.0$ accelerates through an expansion corner of 24° . Exit Mach number is 3.0

5.5.3 Two-Dimensional Supersonic Airfoil Approximations

- Determine surface static pressures by calculating changes through oblique shocks and expansion fans



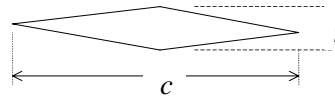
- Ackert approximations for thin wings are based on

$$C_p = \frac{\Delta P}{q} \cong \pm \frac{2\delta}{\sqrt{M^2 - 1}}$$

- Double wedge airfoil approximations

$$C_L \cong \frac{4\alpha}{\sqrt{M^2 - 1}}$$

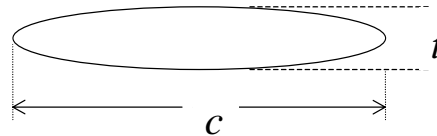
$$C_D \cong \frac{4\alpha^2}{\sqrt{M^2 - 1}} + \frac{4}{\sqrt{M^2 - 1}} \left(\frac{t}{c} \right)^2$$



- Biconvex wing approximations

$$C_L \cong \frac{4\alpha}{\sqrt{M^2 - 1}}$$

$$C_D \cong \frac{4\alpha^2}{\sqrt{M^2 - 1}} + \frac{5.33}{\sqrt{M^2 - 1}} \left(\frac{t}{c} \right)^2$$



5.6 Drag Polars (ref 5.2)

5.6.1 Drag Polar Construction and Terminology

C_L = lift coefficient

C_D = drag coefficient

C_{Di} = induced drag coefficient

C_{Do} = parasitic drag coefficient

AR = aspect ratio

e = Oswald efficiency factor

l = length flow has traveled

S_{wet} = wetted area of surface

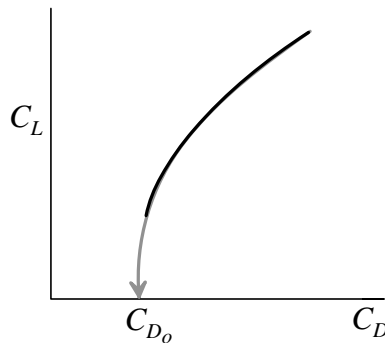
S = reference wing area

Simple Drag Polar Equation Limitations

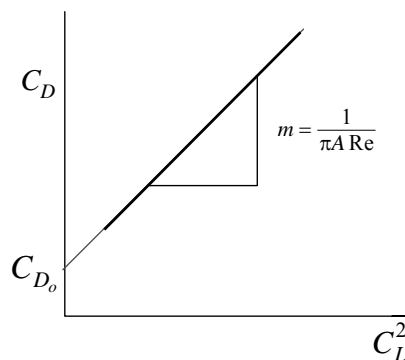
- No separated flow losses
- Symmetric Camber
- Applies at one Mach, Altitude, cg

$$C_D = C_{D_o} + \frac{C_L^2}{\pi A Re} = C_{D_o} + C_{D_i}$$

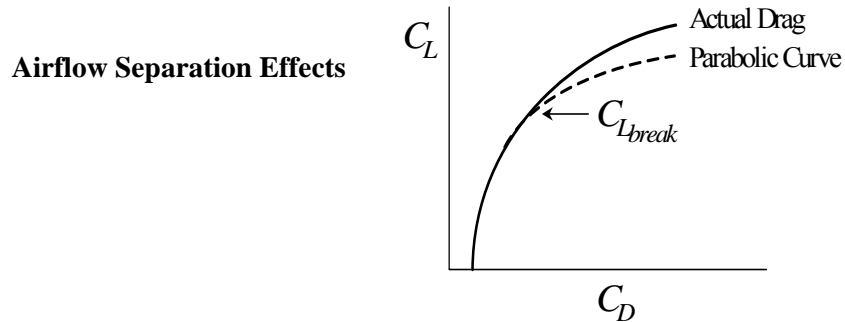
“Polar” form of
simple drag polar



Linearized form of
simple drag polar



5.6.2 Complicating Factors



Drag Polar Equation Accounting for Flow Separation:

$$C_D = C_{D_{\min}} + \frac{(C_L - C_{L_{\min}})^2}{\pi A Re} + k_2 (C_L - C_{L_{break}})$$

- Delete last term if $C_L < C_{L_{break}}$
- Determine k_2 from flight test

Reynolds Number Effects (refs 5.4, 5.11)

- Calculate length Re_L and friction coefficient (c_f) for each surface as

$$Re_L = \frac{\rho V l}{\mu} = 7.101 \times 10^6 M \left[\frac{\delta}{\theta^2} \right] \left[\frac{T_K + 110}{398} \right] l \quad \begin{matrix} (T_K = \text{Kelvin,} \\ l = \text{total length, ft}) \end{matrix}$$

$$c_f = \left\{ \frac{1.328}{\sqrt{Re_L}} \right\} [1 + 0.1305 M^2]^{-0.12} \text{ laminar, or } \left[\frac{.074}{(Re_L)^2} - \frac{1700}{Re_L} \right] \text{ transition}$$

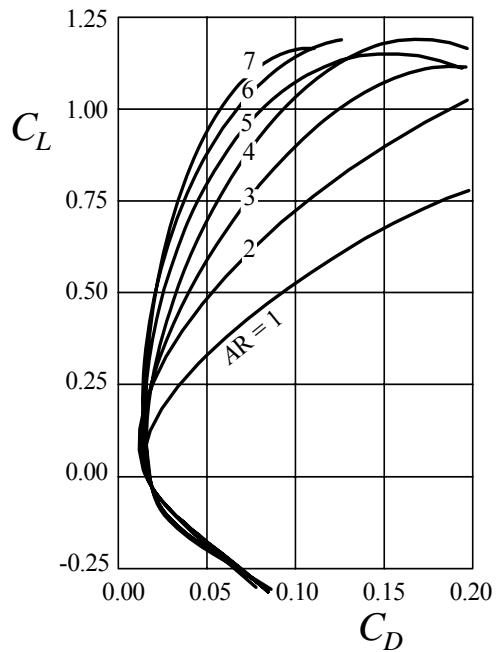
$$\text{or } c_f = 0.455 \{ \log Re_L \}^{-2.58} \{ 1 + 0.144 M^2 \}^{-0.65} \text{ turbulent}$$

- In general, c_f decreases as Re_n increases (unless transitioning from laminar to turbulent flow)
- Friction drag = $c_f q S_{wet}$ for each component (S_{wet} = wetted area)
- Correct from test day to standard day aircraft drag coefficient by summing differences of each component's drag change

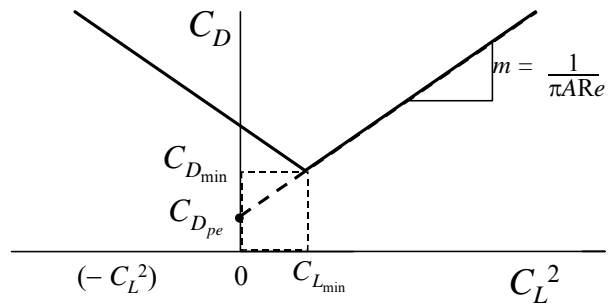
$$\Delta C_D = \frac{\sum (c_{f_s} - c_{f_i}) S_{wet}}{S}$$

Wing Camber or Incidence Angle Effects

Note slight increase in drag as lift decreases towards zero



Linearized drag polar for aircraft with wing camber and/or incidence



Revised drag polar equation accounting for wing camber or incidence

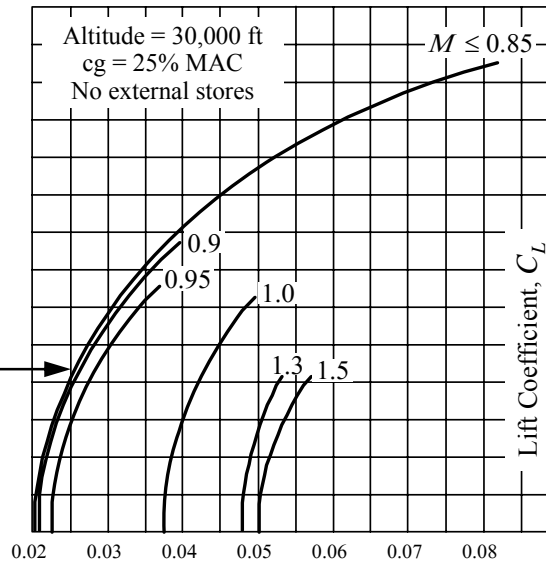
$$C_D = C_{D_{min}} + \frac{(C_L - C_{L_{min}})^2}{\pi A R e}$$

- Generally not necessary since most flight occurs above $C_{L_{min}}$

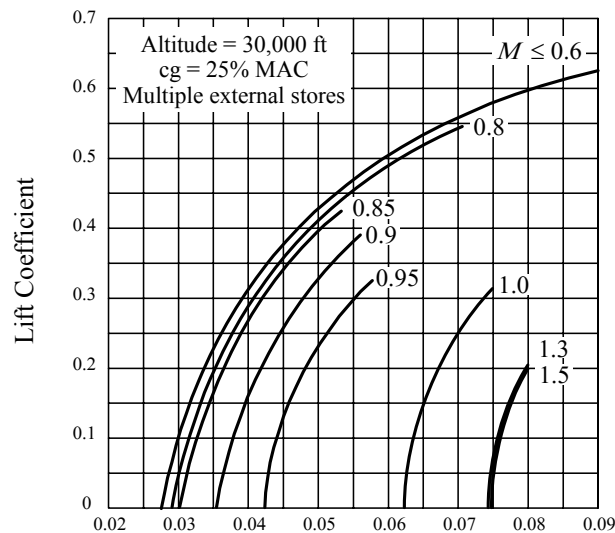
Mach Number Effects

- Aircraft with low parasitic drag coefficients and high fineness ratios pay a relatively small “wave drag” penalty.

Modern fighter-type aircraft →



- With external stores, same aircraft pays larger Mach penalty



Propeller Slipstream Effects

- a.k.a “scrubbing” drag
- Propwash increases flow speed over surface within slipstream
- More drag is created by higher q and vorticity.
- Function of prop speed and power absorbed (C_p) or thrust (C_T)
- Problem should be addressed in airframe or propeller models

Trim Drag Effects (reference 5.4)

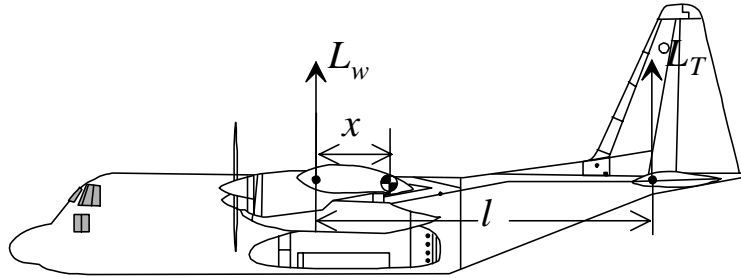
e = wing Oswald efficiency factor

e_t = tail Oswald efficiency factor

b = span, b_t = tail span

x = wing *ac*-to-*cg* distance

l = wing *ac*-to tail *ac* dist.

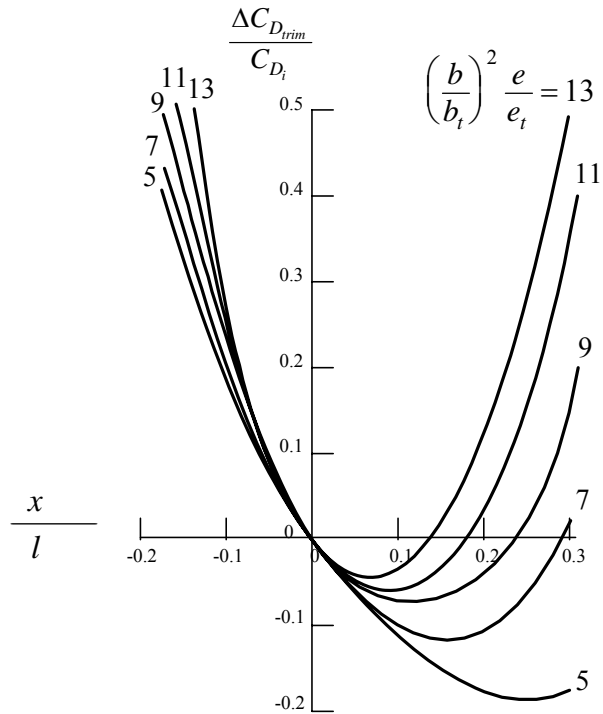


$$\Delta C_{D_{trim}} = \frac{W^2}{\pi q^2 S b^2 e} \left\{ \frac{2}{lW} [x_0 - x_1] + \frac{1}{l^2} \left[1 + \frac{S}{S_t} \frac{e}{e_t} \left(\frac{b}{b_t} \right)^2 \right] [x_0^2 - x_1^2] \right\}$$

Trim drag change relative to
total induced drag:

$$\frac{\Delta C_{D_{trim}}}{\Delta C_{D_i}} = \frac{x}{l} \left[\frac{x}{l} \left(\frac{b}{b_t} \right)^2 \frac{e}{e_t} - 2 \right]$$

Plot of above
equation



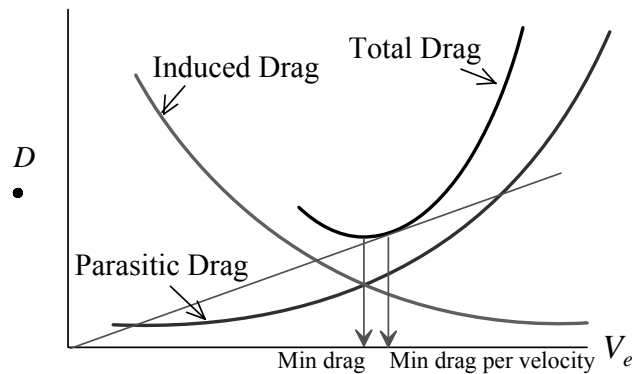
5.6.3 Drag Polar Analysis

$$D = \bar{q} S C_{D_o} = \bar{q} S \left[C_{D_o} + \frac{C_L^2}{\pi A \text{Re}} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \rho_o V_e^2 S \left[C_{D_o} + \frac{W^2}{\pi A \text{Re} \left(\frac{1}{2} \rho_o V_e^2 S \right)^2} \right]$$

- For a given configuration (C_{D_o} , S , AR , e)

$$D = k_1 V_e^2 + k_2 \frac{W^2}{V_e^2} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{first term} = \text{parasitic drag,} \\ \text{second term} = \text{induced drag} \end{array}$$

- For any given weight, $D = f(\text{equivalent airspeed})$ only



- Minimum total drag occurs when $D_{induced} = D_{parasitic}$
same as speed where $C_{Di} = C_{Do}$
occurs at max C_L/C_D ratio (same as max L/D ratio)
- Minimum drag/velocity occurs at min slope of Drag vs V curve
same as speed where $3C_{Di} = C_{Do}$
occurs at max $C_L^{1/2}/C_D$ ratio

Power required = drag x true airspeed

$$P_{req} = D V_T = D \frac{V_e}{\sqrt{\sigma}} = k_1 \frac{V_e^3}{\sqrt{\sigma}} + k_2 \frac{W^2}{\sqrt{\sigma} V_e}$$

Minimum total $P_{req'd}$ occurs when $P_{induced} = P_{parasitic}$

- same as speed where $C_{Di} = 3C_{Do}$
- occurs at max $C_L^{3/2}/C_D$ ratio

Minimum power/velocity occurs at min slope of $P_{req'd}$ vs V curve

- same as speed where $C_{Di} = C_{Do}$
- occurs at max C_L/C_D ratio

Optimum Aerodynamic Flight Conditions

Gliders/ Engine-Out Flight

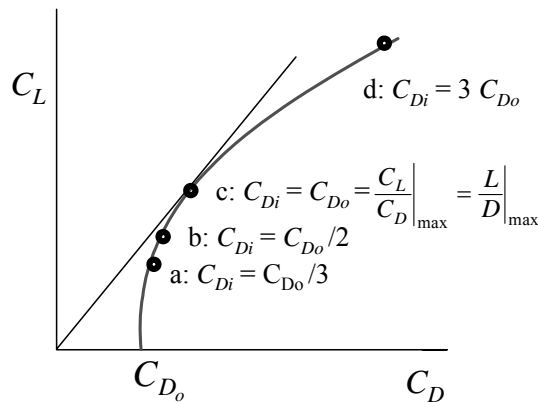
- Max range (minimum glide slope) occurs at max C_L/C_D
same as condition where $C_{D_o} = C_{D_i}$ if drag polar is parabolic
- Min sink rate (minimum power req'd) occurs at max $C_L^{3/2}/C_D$ ratio same as condition where $3C_{D_o} = C_{D_i}$ if drag polar is parabolic

Reciprocating Engine Aircraft (assuming constant BSFC & prop η)

- Max range (minimum power/velocity) occurs at max C_L/C_D ratio
same as condition where $C_{D_o} = C_{D_i}$ if drag polar is parabolic
- Max endurance (minimum power req'd) occurs at max $C_L^{3/2}/C_D$
same as condition where $3C_{D_o} = C_{D_i}$ if drag polar is parabolic

Turbine Jet Engine Aircraft (assuming constant TSFC)

- Max range at constant altitude (minimum drag/velocity)
occurs at max $C_L^{1/2}/C_D$ ratio
same as condition where $C_{D_o} = 3C_{D_i}$ if drag polar is parabolic
- Best cruise/climb range (maximum $[M \times L/D]$ ratio)
occurs at max $C_L/C_D^{3/2}$ ratio
same as condition where $C_{D_o} = 2C_{D_i}$ if drag polar is parabolic
- Best endurance (minimum drag)
occurs at max C_L/C_D ratio
same as condition where $C_{D_o} = C_{D_i}$ if drag polar is parabolic



To calculate optimum speed V_2 for configuration₂ & weight₂ based on optimum speed V_1 at configuration₁ & weight₁

$$V_2 = \left(\frac{C_{D_{o1}}}{C_{D_{o2}}} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \left(\frac{W_2}{W_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} V_1$$

5.7 References

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- 5.8 Lewis, Gregory, “Aerodynamics for Flight Testers” *Chapter 6, Supersonic Aerodynamics*, National Test Pilot School, Mojave CA, 1999
- 5.9 White, Frank M. “Fluid Mechanics” pg 29, McGraw-Hill, 1979, ISBN 0-07-069667-5.
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