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## 5.0 Recurring Terminology

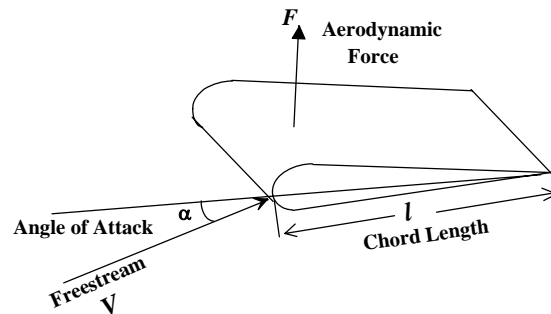
$a$	slope of lift curve, $dC_L/d\alpha$
$a.c.$	aerodynamic center, location along the chord where pitching moments about this center do not change with angle of attack (25% MAC for airfoils in subsonic flow, 50% MAC for airfoils in supersonic flow)
$AOA$	angle of attack
$AR$	aspect ratio = $[\text{wing span}]^2 / [\text{reference wing area}] = b^2/S$
$B$	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
$\alpha$	angle of attack
$\alpha_i$	induced angle of attack
$\delta$	depth of boundary layer, or surface wedge angle
$\mu$	viscosity, or wave angle
$\nu$	flow turning angle
$\theta$	shock wave angle
$\rho$	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 ( $\pi$ ) 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:

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

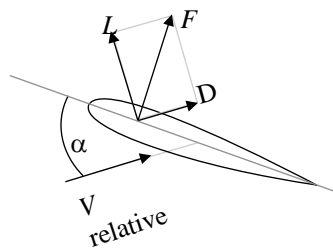
where  $\frac{1}{2} \rho_a V_T^2 = \frac{1}{2} \rho_o V_e^2 = \text{dynamic pressure, } q$   
 dimensions of reference wing area,  $S$  are the same as  $l^2$

#### 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
- Dividing the above by 2 equates the flow's density & velocity to kinetic energy

#### 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 freestream flow
- Drag is the component along the flow
- Break total into lift and drag coefficients:  
 $C_L = (L/S)/q$      $C_D = (D/S)/q$
- Increasing dynamic pressure generates a larger total force, lift and drag

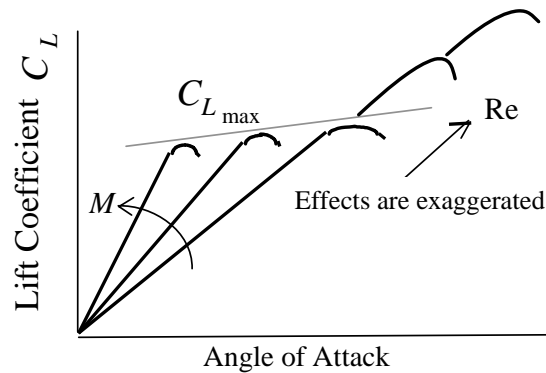


- Froude number is not significant in aerodynamic phenomena
- Recall that forces are also a function of angle of attack, shape & surface roughness, therefore

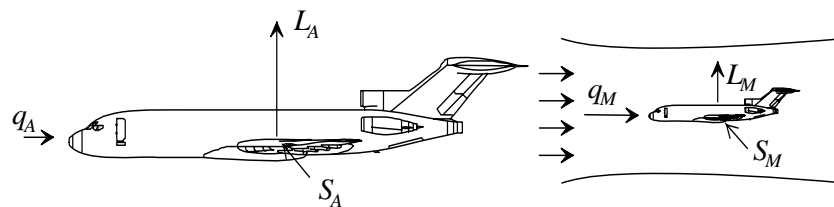
Froude number is not significant in aerodynamic phenomena

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  $\alpha$  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

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

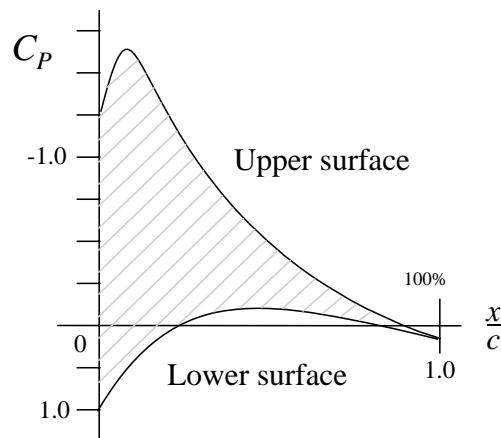
$$\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 + p_s = p_t$$

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

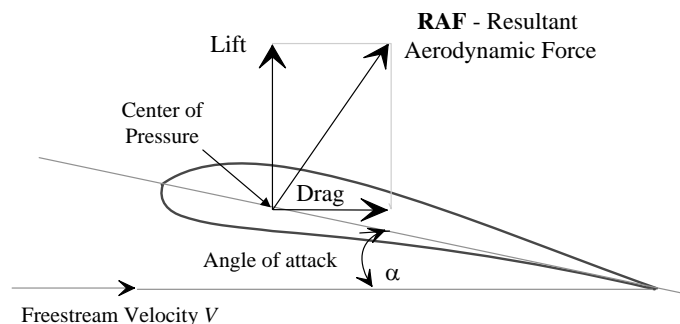
- Pressures around a surface can be calculated or measured from tests and converted into pressure coefficients,

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

- $c_p$  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



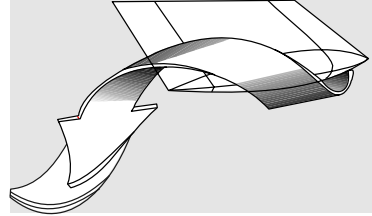
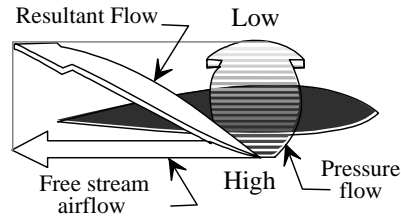
- Lift & drag forces are referred to the aerodynamic center ( $ac$ ) where the pitching moment is constant for reasonable angles of attack.
- Pitching moments increase with airfoil camber, are zero if symmetric.
- Aerodynamic center is located at 25% MAC for fully subsonic flow and at 50% MAC for fully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



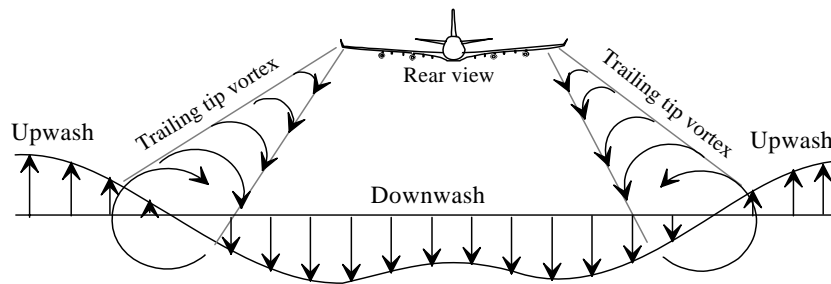
### 5.3 Wing Design Effects on Lift Curve Slope (refs 5.1, 5.2, 5.10)

#### Aspect Ratio Effect

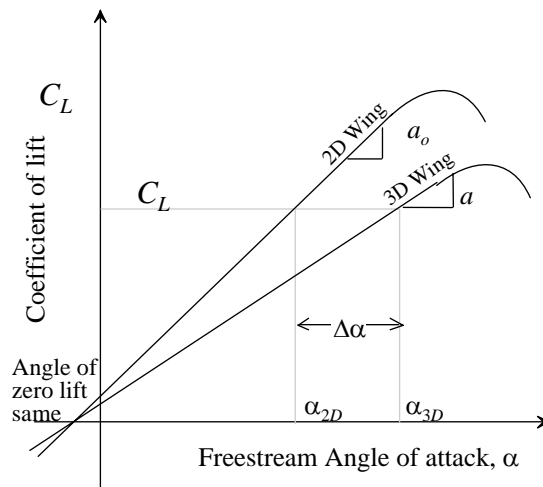
- Pressure differential at wingtip causes tip vortex



- Vortex creates flow field that reduces AOA across wingspan



- Local AOA reductions decrease average lift curve slope



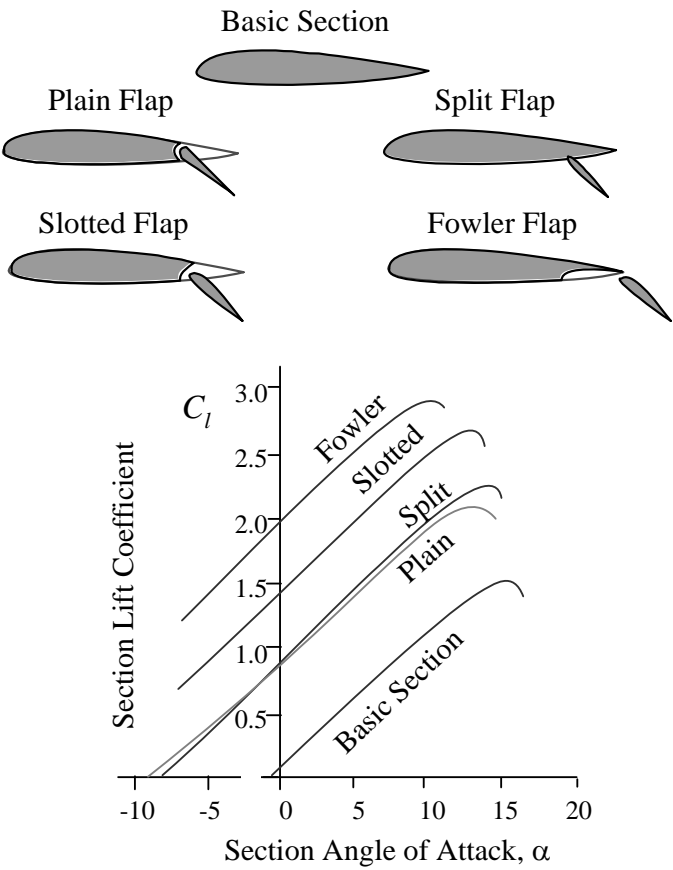
2D wing = wind tunnel airfoil extending to walls (infinite aspect ratio).

$a_o$  = Lift curve slope for an infinite wing

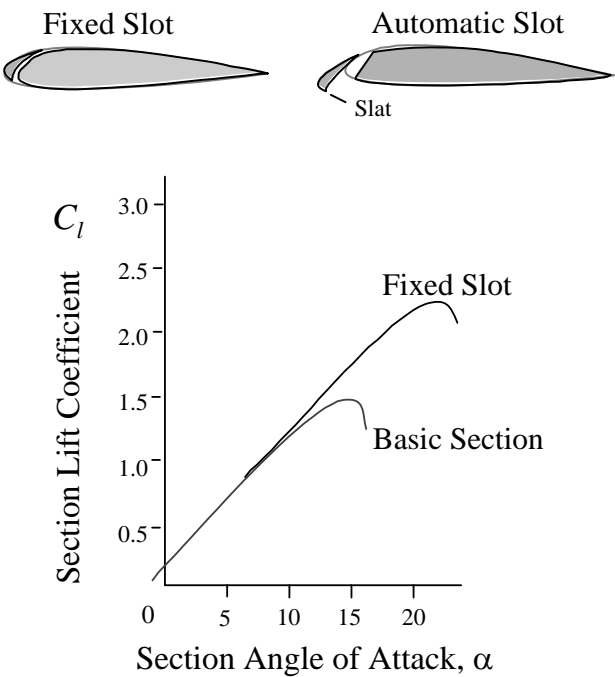
$a$  = Lift curve slope for a finite wing

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

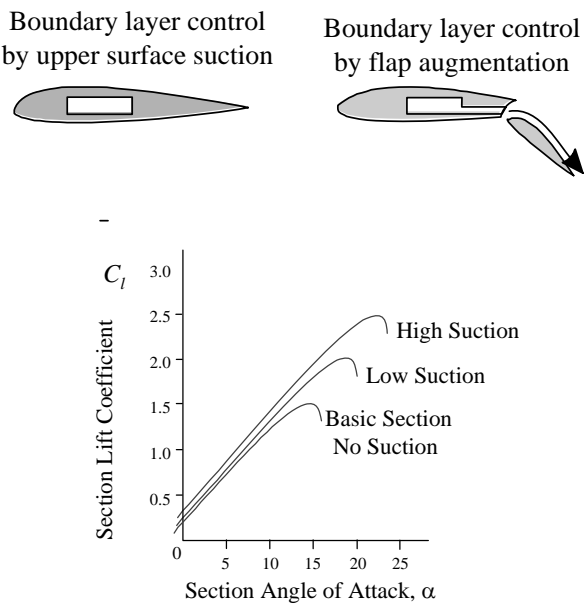
Trailing Edge Flap Effects



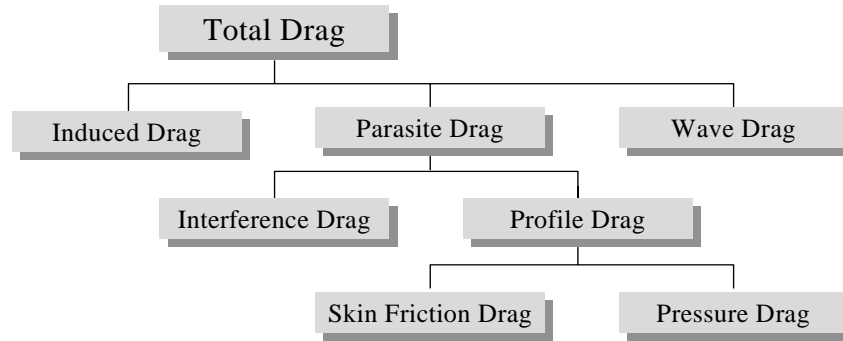
Leading Edge Flap Effects



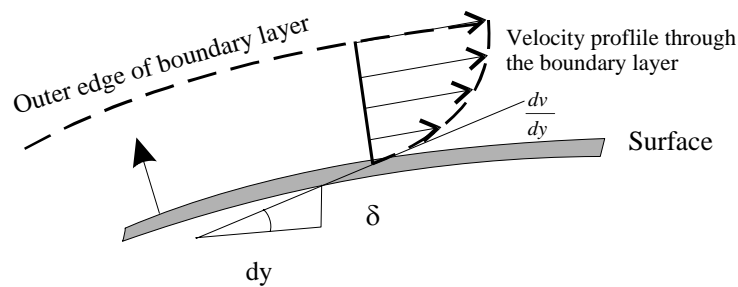
Boundary Layer Control Effects



## 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** ( $\mu$ ) 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:  $S = 110.4 \text{ K} = 199 \text{ R}$ ;  $n = .67$

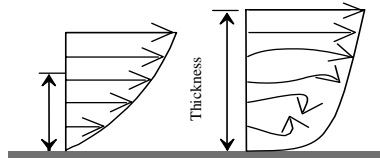
For air at 273 K:  $\mu_o = 1.717 \times 10^{-5} \text{ [kg/m s]} = 3.59 \times 10^{-7} \text{ [slug/ft s]}$

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

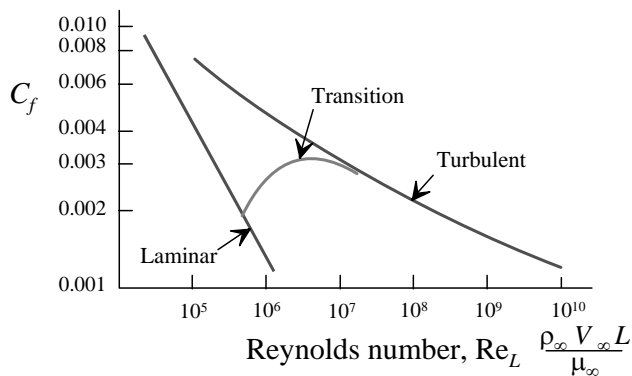
Turbulent

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



$\text{Re}_L$  based on total  
length of flat plate

- Depth of boundary layer ( $\delta$ ) depends on local Reynolds number ( $\text{Re}_x$ ) and whether the flow is turbulent or laminar.

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

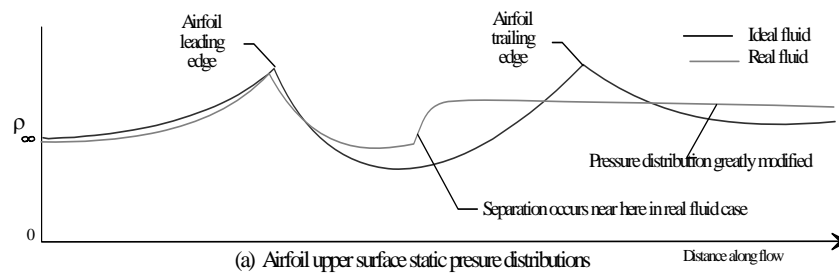
$x$  = distance traveled to point in question

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

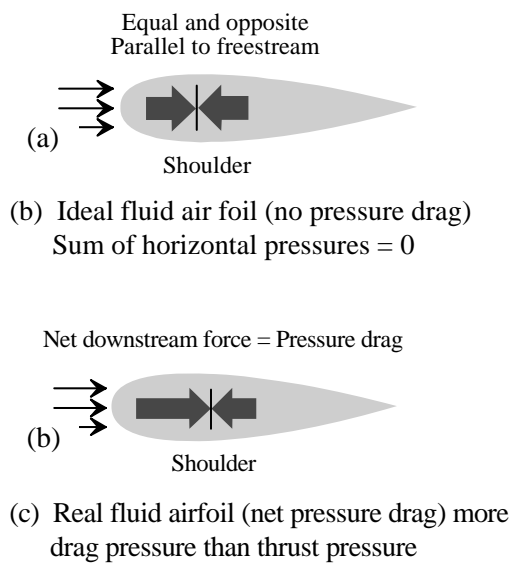
$$\delta_{turb} = \frac{.37 x}{\text{Re}_x^{.2}}$$

### 5.4.2 Pressure Drag

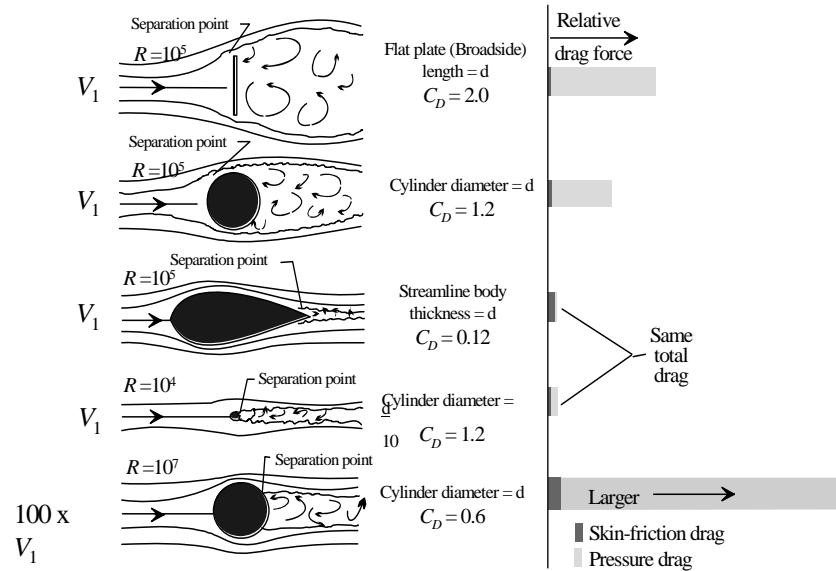
- Ideal frictionless flow has no losses and leads to zero pressure drag
- Real fluids have friction and energy losses along surface
- Energy losses negate total pressure recovery, lead to decreasing total pressure along surface



- Imbalance of pressures on surfaces causes pressure drag

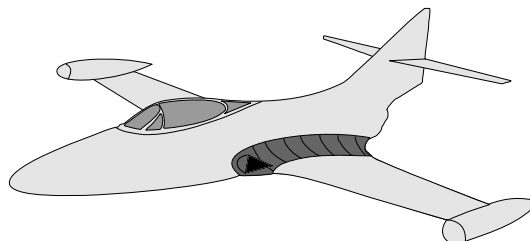


- Profile streamlining reduces pressure drag



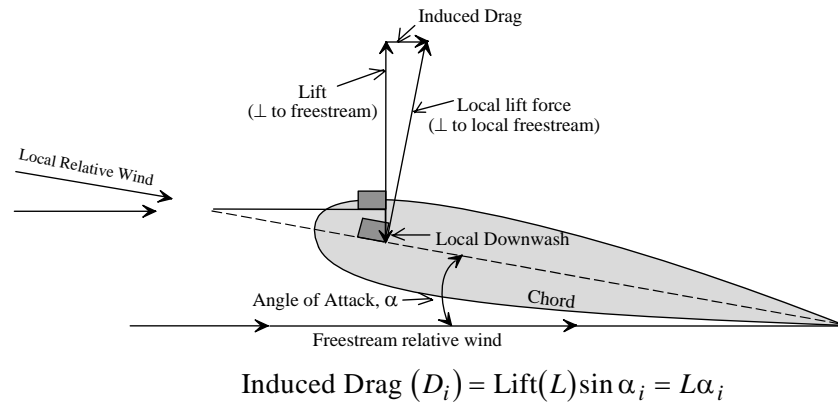
### 5.4.3 Interference Drag

- 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



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

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

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

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

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)

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

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

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

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

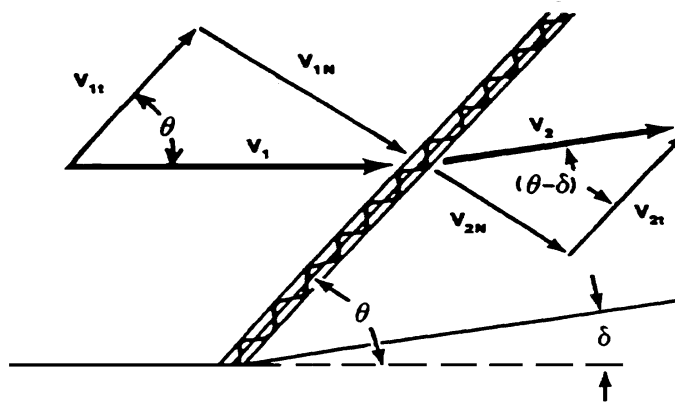
Normal shock summary

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

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

### 5.5.1 Oblique Shocks

#### Oblique Shock Description



$\delta$  = surface turning angle

$\theta$  = shock wave angle

Subscript 1 denotes upstream conditions

Subscript 2 denotes downstream conditions

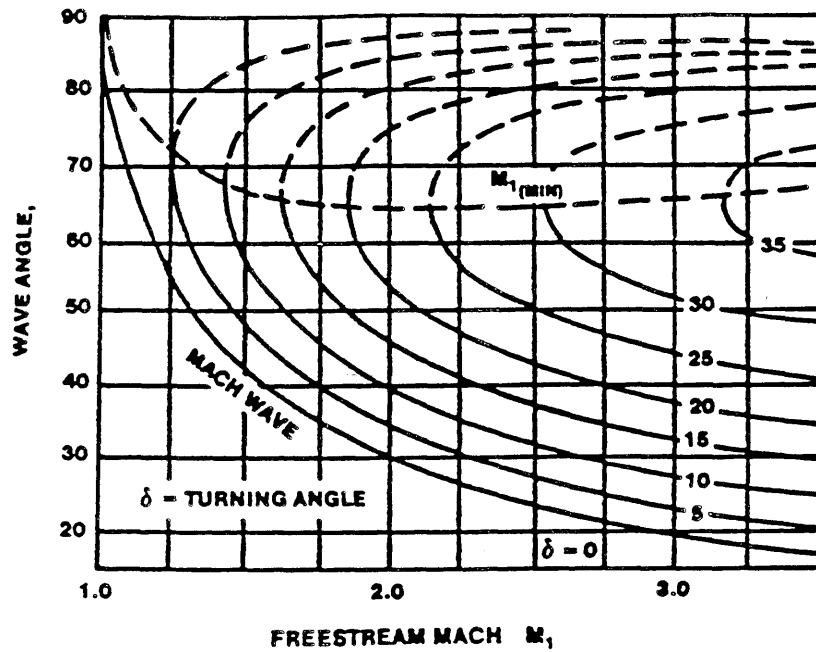
#### Oblique Shock Relations

- Calculate  $P_2/P_1$ ,  $T_2/T_1$ , and  $\rho_2/\rho_1$  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

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

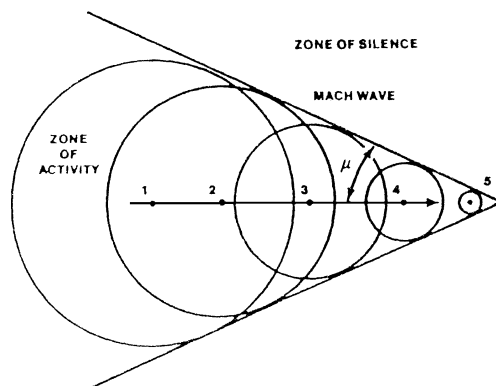
$$M_2^2 \sin^2 (\delta - \theta) = \frac{M_1^2 \sin^2 \theta + \frac{2}{\gamma-1}}{\frac{2\gamma}{\gamma-1} M_1^2 \sin^2 \theta - 1}$$

### Oblique Shock Turning Angle as a Function of Wave Angle



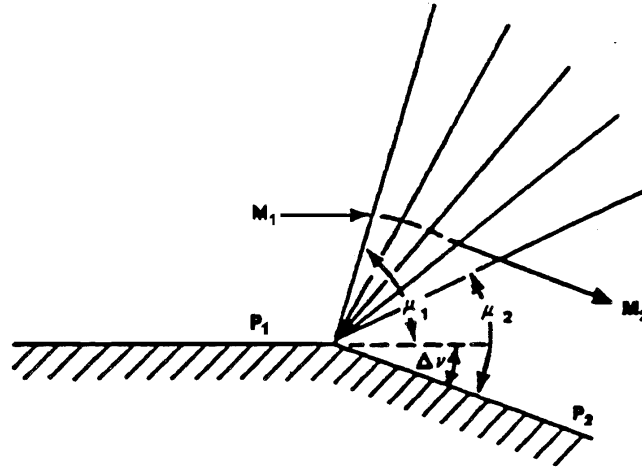
- Two  $\theta$  solutions exist for every  $M_1$  &  $\delta$  combination  
These represent the strong and weak shock solutions  
Weak shocks normally occur in nature
- There is a minimum Mach number for each turning angle
- The wave angle of a weak shock decreases with increased Mach
- For a given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

### Mach Cone Angle



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

### 5.5.2 Supersonic Isentropic Expansion Relations



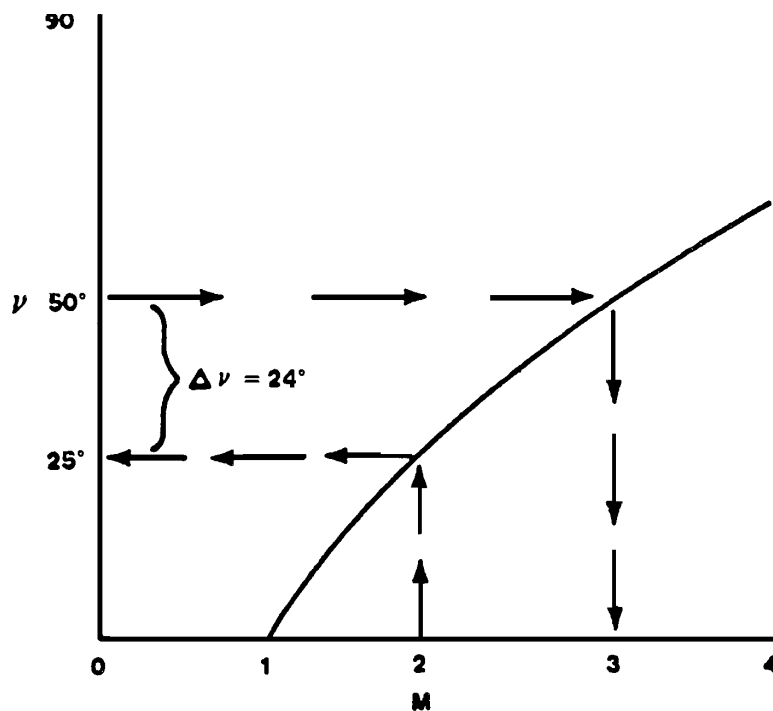
- The wave angle  $\mu$  determines where the lower pressure can be felt and thus where the flow can be accelerated
- As the flow accelerates, a new wave angle forms and the subsequent lower pressure further accelerates the flow
- Results in a series of Mach waves forming a “fan” until the flow turns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

## Prandtl-Meyer Function

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

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

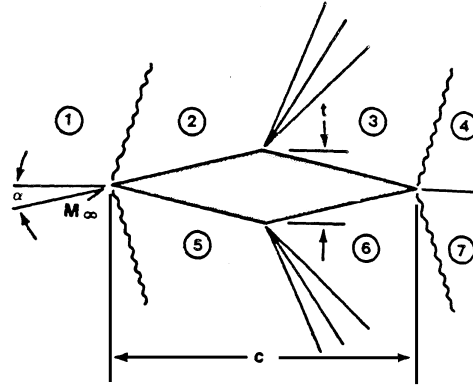
- If upstream Mach ( $M_1$ ) = 1, then  $\nu_1 = 0$ , and equation directly relates downstream Mach ( $M_2$ ) to surface turning angle ( $\Delta\nu$ )
- If  $M_1 > 1$ , determine  $M_2$  as follows:
  - Calculate upstream  $\nu_1$  from above equation
  - Calculate  $\nu_2 = \nu_1 + \Delta\nu$
  - Reverse 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  $24^\circ$ . 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



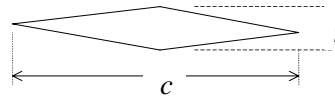
- Ackert approximations for thin wings are based on

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

- Double wedge airfoil approximations

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

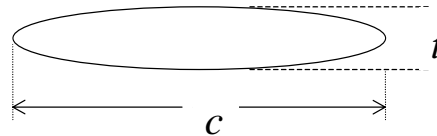
$$C_D \cong \frac{4\alpha^2}{\sqrt{M^2 - 1}} + \frac{4}{\sqrt{M^2 - 1}} \left( \frac{t}{c} \right)^2$$



- 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

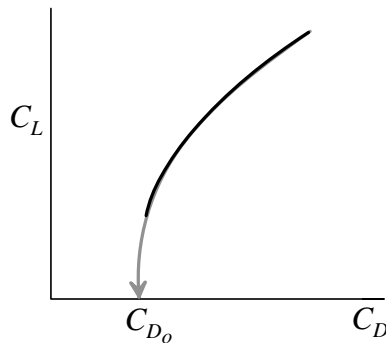
$S$  = reference wing area

### Simple Drag Polar Equation Limitations

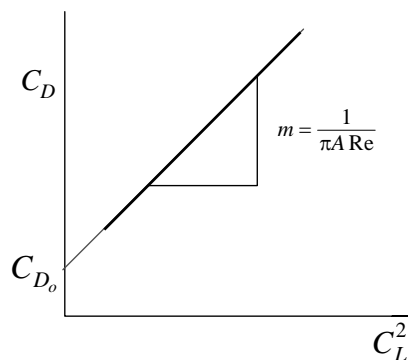
- No separated flow losses
- Symmetric Camber
- Applies at one Mach, Altitude,  $cg$

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

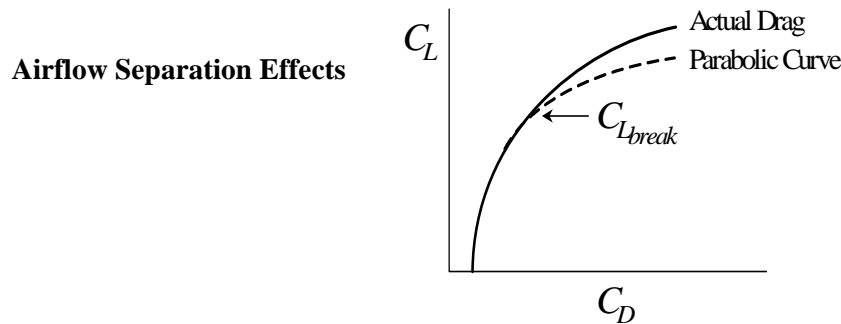
“Polar” form of  
simple drag polar



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

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

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

$$\text{or } c_f = 0.455 \{ \log Re_L \}^{-.258} \{ 1 + 0.144 M^2 \}^{-.65} \text{ turbulent}$$

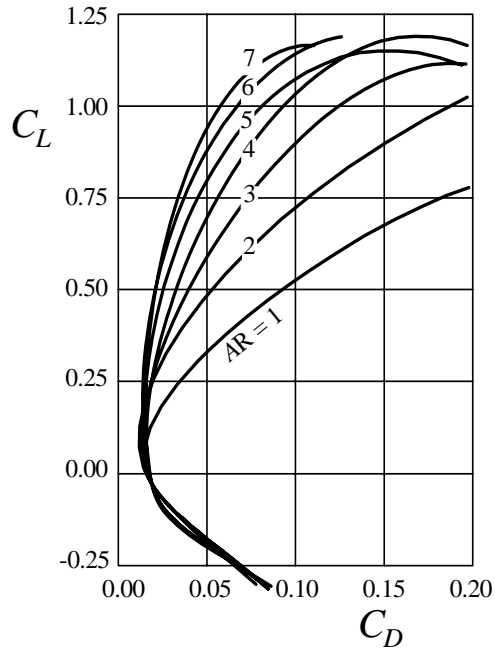
- In general,  $c_f$  decreases as  $Re_n$  increases (unless transitioning from laminar to turbulent flow)
- Friction drag =  $c_f q S_{wet}$  for each component ( $S_{wet}$  = wetted area)
- Correct from test day to standard day aircraft drag coefficient by summing differences of each component's drag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

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

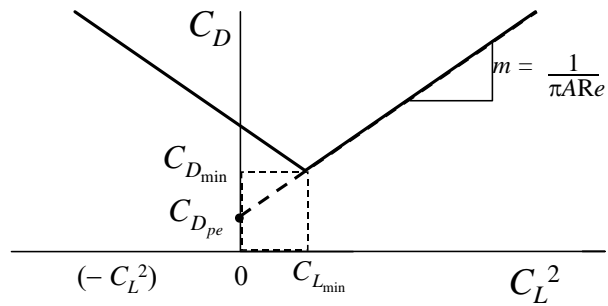


### Wing Camber or Incidence Angle Effects

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

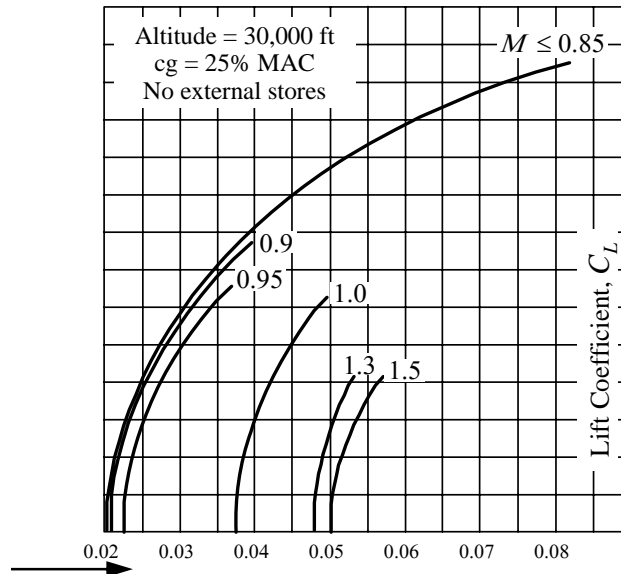
$$C_D = C_{D_{\min}} + \frac{(C_L - C_{L_{\min}})^2}{\pi A R e}$$

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

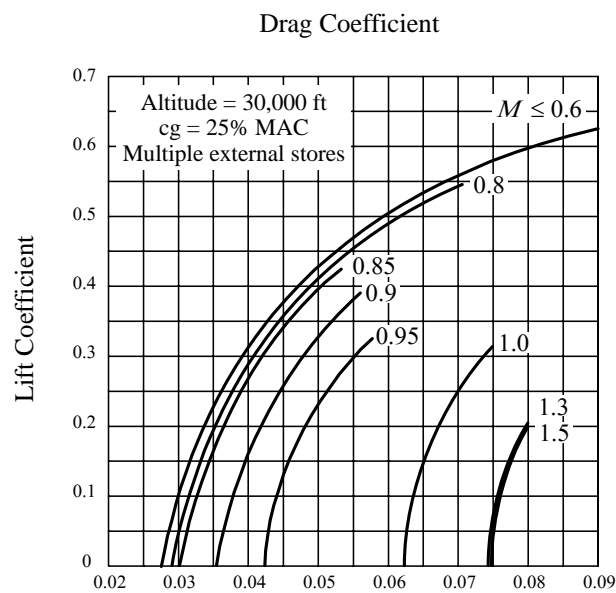
### Mach Number Effects

- 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)

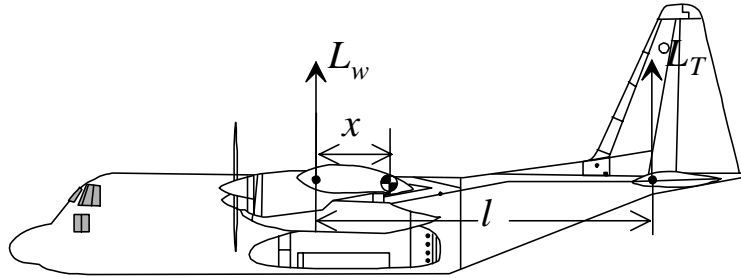
$e$  = wing Oswald efficiency factor

$e_t$  = tail Oswald efficiency factor

$b$  = span,  $b_t$  = tail span

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

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

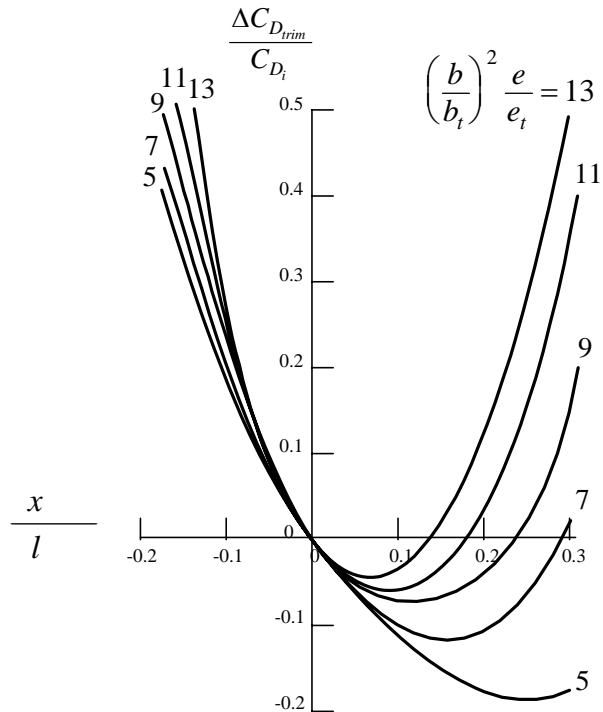


$$\Delta C_{D_{trim}} = \frac{W^2}{\pi q^2 S b^2 e} \left\{ \frac{2}{lW} [x_0 - x_1] + \frac{1}{l^2} \left[ 1 + \frac{S}{S_t} \frac{e}{e_t} \left( \frac{b}{b_t} \right)^2 \right] [x_0^2 - x_1^2] \right\}$$

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



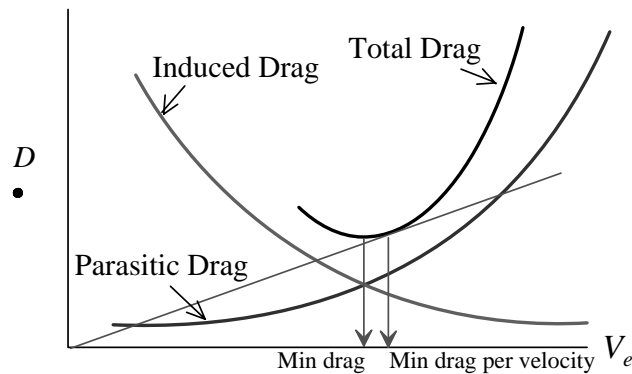
### 5.6.3 Drag Polar Analysis

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

- 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  $C_{Di} = C_{D_o}$   
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  $3C_{Di} = C_{D_o}$   
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  $C_{Di} = 3C_{D_o}$
- 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  $C_{Di} = C_{D_o}$
- occurs at max  $C_L / C_D$  ratio

## Optimum Aerodynamic Flight Conditions

### Gliders/ Engine-Out Flight

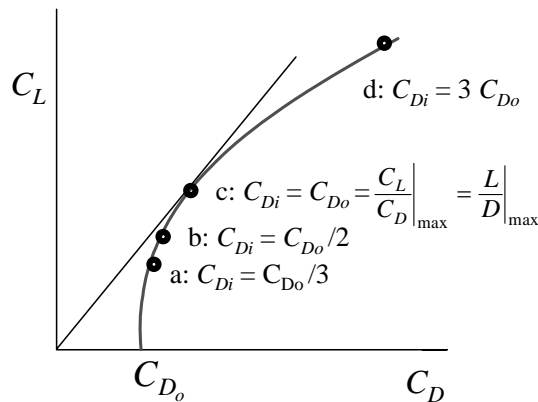
- Max range (minimum glide slope) occurs at max  $C_L/C_D$   
same as condition where  $C_{D_o} = C_{D_i}$  if drag polar is parabolic
- Min sink rate (minimum power req'd) occurs at max  $C_L^{3/2}/C_D$  ratio same as condition where  $3C_{D_o} = C_{D_i}$  if drag polar is parabolic

### Reciprocating Engine Aircraft (assuming constant BSFC & prop $\eta$ )

- 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 configuration<sub>2</sub> & weight<sub>2</sub> based on optimum speed  $V_1$  at configuration<sub>1</sub> & weight<sub>1</sub>

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

## 5.7 References

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- 5.2 Lawless, Alan R., et al, “Aerodynamics for Flight Testers” *Chptr 4, Drag Polars*, National Test Pilot School, Mojave ,CA, 1999
- 5.3 Hurt Hugh H., “Aerodynamics for Naval Aviators“, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, 1959.
- 5.4 McCormick, Barnes W., “Aerodynamics, Aeronautics, and Flight Mechanics“, Wilet & Sons, 1979
- 5.5 Stinton, Darryl, “The Design of the Aeroplane“, BSP Professional Books, Oxford, 1983
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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.
- 5.10 Anderson, John D. Jr, “Introduction to Flight” pg 142, Mcraw-Hill, 1989, ISBN 0-07-001641-0.
- 5.11 Twaites, Bryan, Editor, “Incompressible Aerodynamics: An Account of the steady flow of incompressible Fluid Past Aerofoils, Wings, and Other Bodies,” Dover Publications, 1960.

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