

AERODYNAMICS course.

- $P \cdot V = nRT \Rightarrow P = \frac{nRT}{V} = \frac{(mRT)}{M \cdot V} = \rho \cdot \frac{R}{\pi} \cdot T = \rho \cdot (R/T) \text{ on } R = \frac{R}{\pi}$
- $F = mg \Rightarrow \frac{dp}{dz} = -\rho g dh$ for each specific for air.
hydrostatic law
- $T(z) = T_0 + a(h - h_0)$; a = lapse rate.
- $\frac{P_1}{P_0} = \left(\frac{T_1}{T_0}\right)^{-\frac{g}{aR}} \Rightarrow P_2 = \left(\frac{T_0 + ah}{T_0}\right)^{-\frac{g}{aR}} \cdot P_0$
- $P_2 = \left(\frac{T_0 + ah}{T_0}\right)^{-\frac{g}{aR} - 1} \cdot P_0$

With gliders you have to run to generate enough lift, often down hill to make it easier. Is the wind direction of any influence?

↳ What matters is the Airspeed, not the ground speed
the higher the Airspeed the higher the lift.

- Tailwind is a wind that blows in the direction of travel of an object
 - Headwind is a wind that blows against the dir. of travel
 - tailwind increases the objects speed and reduces the time required to reach destination, head wind has the opposite effect
 - a head wind is favorable in takeoff and landings because an aircraft moving into a headwind is capable of greater lift generation than a tail wind of tranquil air.
 - for a straight, horizontal, steady flight, v and alt. (altitude) are constant due to the following force equilibrium:
- | | |
|-----------|--------------------------------|
| • $L = W$ | Where W : Weight Drag: D |
| • $D = T$ | L : Lift Thrust: T |

These are the 4 forces acting on a plane in flight.

- Lift: mainly generated by the wing (small contributions) of tail surfaces
- Weight: composed of 3 main components: aircraft empty weight, fuel, payload (passenger + luggage, freight)
- Drag: caused by fuselage, wings, tail surfaces, ...
- Thrust: provided by the engines.

• → One of the main rules in aerospace design is to create lightweight aircraft, Why?

• ↳ Answer: If we reduce the empty weight ($T_{TOW} = \text{cte}$), we can transport more payload (higher revenue)
take more fuel on board (fly longer distances)
in general: Improve the performance of the aircraft.

Lift

→ the formula for the lift is:

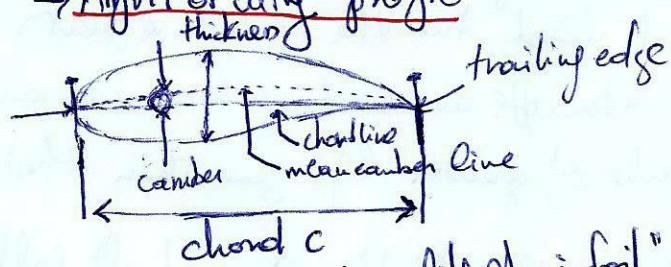
$$L = C_L \cdot (\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2) \cdot S$$



→ lift parameters:

• C_L (lift coef) depends on:

↳ Airfoil or wing profile



C_L : lift coefficient.

ρ : Density of the air [kg/m^3]

V : Air speed [m/s]

S : Wing area [m^2]

• P: C_L represents "quality of airfoil" (ability to generate lift)

↳ Angle of attack (α)



• ρ (air density) depends on:

↳ Altitude & temperature (atmospheric)

• V (air speed) & S (wing area) are design parameters.

+ Airfoil theory +

→ Finite wing.

→ Aspect ratio: $A = \frac{b^2}{S}$ span
Wing area

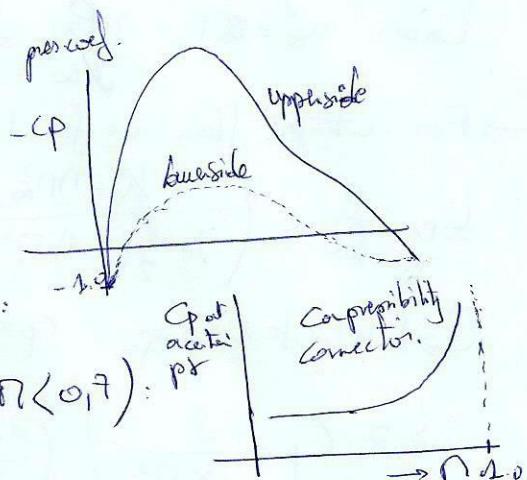
→ Pressure coef:

$$\rightarrow \text{Def}: C_p = \frac{P - P_\infty}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2} = \frac{P - P_\infty}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2}$$

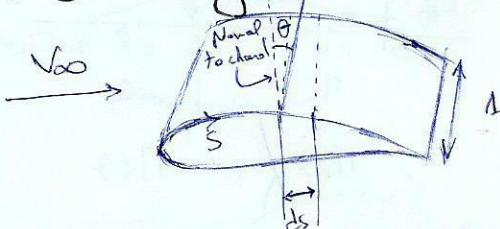
→ Compressibility correction of the pressure coefficient:

→ Approximate theoretical correction (valid for $0 < \alpha < 0.7$):

$$C_p = \frac{C_{p0}}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{T}{T_\infty}}} \quad \text{Prandtl-Glauert rule.}$$



→ Obtaining normal force from pressure distribution.



$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} ds$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Normal force per meter span: } N = \int_{LE}^{TE} P_e \cos \theta ds - \int_{LE}^{TE} P_u \cos \theta ds = \int_{LE}^{TE} P_{edn} ds - \int_{LE}^{TE} P_u ds \left(\cos \theta - 1 \right)$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{Wet airfoil normal force coefficient: } C_n = \frac{N}{\frac{1}{2} \rho V_\infty^2 c}$$

$$\hookrightarrow C_n = \int_0^1 \frac{P_e - P_\infty}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty} d(\frac{n}{c}) - \int_0^1 \frac{P_u - P_\infty}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty} d(\frac{n}{c}) = D \boxed{C_n = \int_0^1 (C_{pe} - C_{pu}) d(\frac{n}{c})}$$

→ Obtaining lift from normal force coefficient:

$$\rightarrow L = N \cos \alpha - A \sin \alpha \quad \boxed{L = \frac{N}{c} \cos \alpha - \frac{A}{c} \sin \alpha \quad \left(\frac{L}{c \cdot A} = \frac{N}{c \cdot c} \cos \alpha - \frac{A}{c \cdot c} \sin \alpha \right)}$$

↪ For small angle of attack $\alpha \leq 5^\circ$: $\cos \alpha \approx 1$; $\sin \alpha \approx 0$.

$$\hookrightarrow C_L = \frac{1}{c} \int_0^1 (C_{pe} - C_{pu}) d(\frac{n}{c})$$

→ Critical mach number and critical pressure coefficient:

$$M = 0.3$$

$$M = 0.44 \quad \boxed{C_{p,peak} = 0.44}$$

$$M = 0.5$$

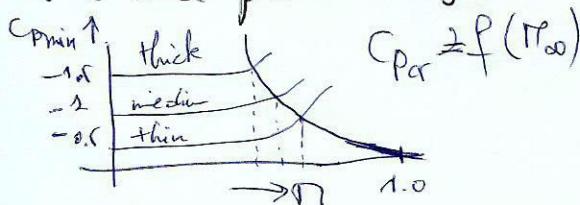
$$M = 0.71 \quad \boxed{C_{p,peak} = 0.71}$$

$$M = 0.6$$

$$M = 1.0 \quad \boxed{C_{p,peak} = 1.0}$$

Crit mach number for the airfoil.

→ Critical pressure coefficient:



→ Thicker airfoil reaches critical pressure coefficient at a lower value of M_∞ .

$$\rightarrow \text{Def of pres coef} \therefore C_p = \frac{P - P_{\infty}}{P_{\infty}} = \frac{P_{\infty}}{P_{\infty}} \left(\frac{P}{P_{\infty}} - 1 \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Dynamic pres.} : P_{\infty} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_{\infty} V_{\infty}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\rho_{\infty}}{\gamma P_{\infty}} \gamma P_{\infty} V_{\infty}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_{\infty}^2}{\gamma P_{\infty}} \gamma P_{\infty}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{or: } a_{\infty}^2 = \gamma R T = \frac{\gamma P_{\infty}}{\rho_{\infty}} \Rightarrow a_{\infty} = \sqrt{\frac{V_{\infty}^2}{a_{\infty}^2}} \gamma P_{\infty} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \rho_{\infty} \gamma P_{\infty}}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{For isentropic flow we found: } \frac{P}{P_{\infty}} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \pi^2 \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \text{ also } \frac{\rho}{\rho_{\infty}} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \pi^2 \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{P}{P_{\infty}} = \left(\frac{1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} (\gamma-1) \pi^2}{1 + \frac{1}{2} (\gamma-1) \pi^2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

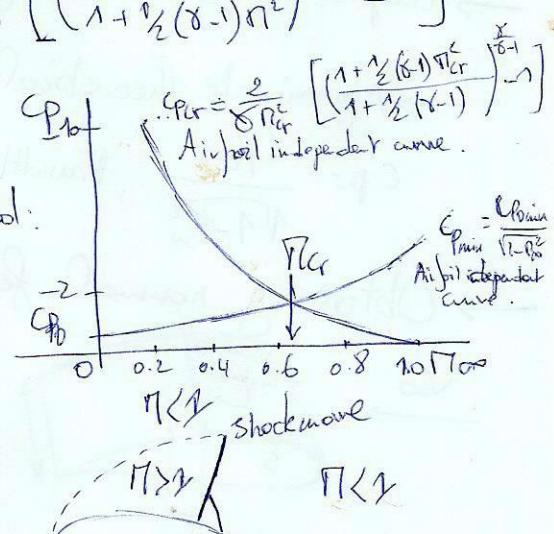
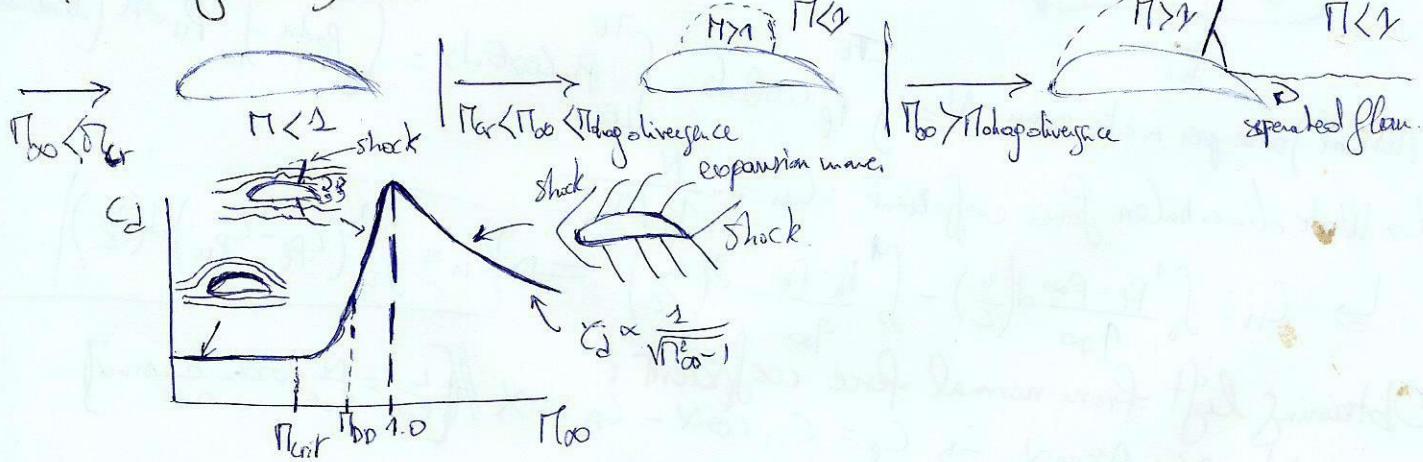
$$\hookrightarrow \text{Substitute in } C_p \text{ eq: } C_p = \frac{P_{\infty}}{\rho_{\infty}} \left(\frac{P}{P_{\infty}} - 1 \right) = \frac{P_{\infty}}{\frac{1}{2} \gamma P_{\infty} \pi^2} \left[\left(\frac{1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} (\gamma-1) \pi^2}{1 + \frac{1}{2} (\gamma-1) \pi^2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} - 1 \right]$$

$$\hookrightarrow C_p = \frac{2}{\gamma \pi^2} \left[\left(\frac{1 + \frac{\gamma}{2} (\gamma-1) \pi^2}{1 + \frac{1}{2} (\gamma-1) \pi^2} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} - 1 \right]$$

\rightarrow The critical pres coef is found when $\pi = 1$ is reached:

$$\hookrightarrow C_{p,c} = \frac{2}{\gamma \pi^2} \left[\left(\frac{1 + (\gamma-1) \pi_{\infty}^2}{\gamma+1} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} - 1 \right]$$

\rightarrow Drag divergence:



+ Compressibility +

→ First law of Thermodynamics:

- Internal energy per unit mass can only change when:
 - + Heat is added or taken away from the system (δq is heat per unit mass)
 - + Work is done on, or by, the system (δw is work done per unit mass)

$$\hookrightarrow \delta e = \delta q + \delta w$$

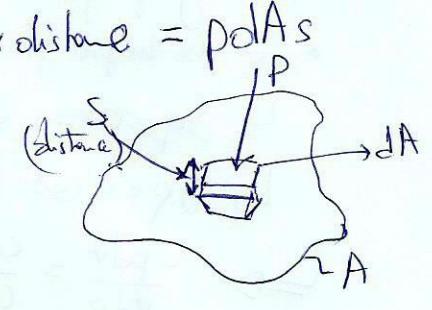
→ Different forms of first law:

→ For the work at surface: Work is Force \times Area \times distance = $p dA s$

$\hookrightarrow F = p dA ; W = F \cdot d = p dA \cdot S$

$\hookrightarrow \delta w = \int_A p dA s = p \int_A S dA = [-p dV]$

specific vol
(distance)
change in volume / unit mass $\rightarrow \frac{dV}{kg}$



\hookrightarrow Substitute in 1st law: $\delta q = \delta e - \delta w = \delta e + pdV$

\hookrightarrow Define enthalpy as: $h = e + pV \rightarrow dh = \delta e + pdV + Vdp = \delta q = dh - Vdp$

→ 2 types of processes:

→ Constant volume proc:

δq
 P, T, V rigid boundary = constant volume

Heat is added, while volume keeps constant.

→ Constant pressure proc:

δq
 P, T, x

Heat is added, piston moves such to keep the pressure constant.

→ Specific Heat:

→ def of specific heat: (depends on type of process, thus, multivalued):

→ The resulting value of δT when adding δq depends on the type of proc :

$C_v = \left(\frac{\delta q}{\delta T} \right)_{\text{constant volume}}$

$C_p = \left(\frac{\delta q}{\delta T} \right)_{\text{constant pressure}}$

$C = \frac{\delta q}{\delta T}$

→ constant vol proc ($\Rightarrow \delta V = 0 \Rightarrow$)

$$\delta q = \delta e + pdV \stackrel{=0}{\Rightarrow} \delta q = \delta e = C_v \delta T \Rightarrow \delta e = C_v T$$

→ constant pres proc ($\Rightarrow \delta p = 0 \Rightarrow$)

$$\delta q = dh - Vdp \stackrel{=0}{\Rightarrow} \delta q = dh = C_p \delta T \Rightarrow h = C_p T$$

\hookrightarrow Above relations hold as long as the gas is a perfect gas.

\hookrightarrow for air: $C_v = 720 \text{ J/(kg.K)}$ | $C_p = 1008 \text{ J/(kg.K)}$ [for any proc with $T < 600 \text{ K}$]

→ Isentropic flow:

→ We introduce one more concept to bridge thermodynamics and compressible aerodynamics : isentropic flow:

→ Def: + Adiabatic proc : $\delta q = 0$

+ Reversible proc : no frictional or dissipative effects.

+ Isentropic proc : both adiabatic & reversible.

↳ Though the flow can be isentropic, the T° might change from point to point.

→ Ratio of specific heats:

• For isentropic flow (or a perfect gas) \Rightarrow several important relations b/w T, p, ρ :

$$\hookrightarrow \delta q = 0 \Leftrightarrow \delta T + p \delta V = 0 \Leftrightarrow -p \frac{\delta V}{V} = \delta T = C_v dT$$

$$\hookrightarrow \delta q = 0 \Leftrightarrow \delta T - V \delta p = 0 \Leftrightarrow V \delta p = \delta H = C_p dT$$

$$\hookrightarrow -\frac{p \delta V}{V \delta p} = \frac{C_p}{C_v} \Leftrightarrow \frac{\delta p}{p} = -\left(\frac{C_p}{C_v}\right) \frac{\delta V}{V} \Leftrightarrow \boxed{\frac{\delta p}{p} = -\gamma \frac{\delta V}{V}}$$

$$\cdot \text{Ratio of specific heats } \frac{C_p}{C_v} = \gamma = 1.4 \leftarrow \text{for air.}$$

→ we integrate b/w p_1, T_1 & p_2, T_2 on a streamline:

$$\int_{p_1}^{p_2} \frac{dp}{p} = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} -\gamma \frac{dV}{V} \Leftrightarrow \ln p_2 - \ln p_1 = -\gamma (\ln V_2 - \ln V_1) \Leftrightarrow \ln \frac{p_2}{p_1} = \ln \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2} \right)^{-\gamma} \Leftrightarrow \boxed{\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2} \right)^{-\gamma}}$$

\hookrightarrow since the specific vol is $V_1 = \frac{1}{\rho_1}$ & $V_2 = \frac{1}{\rho_2}$ we find:

$$\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2} \right)^{-\gamma} \Leftrightarrow \boxed{\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \right)^\gamma}$$

\hookrightarrow Now with the eq of state $pV = RT$ we may write:

$$\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{p_2}{T_2} \cdot \frac{R T_1}{p_1} \right)^\gamma = \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \cdot \frac{T_1}{T_2} \right)^\gamma \Rightarrow \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{1-\gamma} = \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2} \right)^\gamma \Leftrightarrow \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{1-\gamma} = \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^\gamma$$

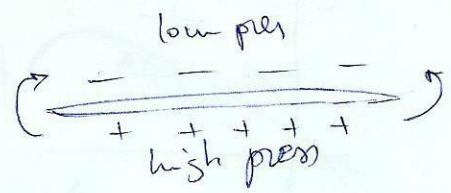
$$\hookrightarrow \boxed{\left(\frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{\gamma} = \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}} \text{ for isentropic flow (only relevant to compressible flow).}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \right)^\gamma = \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

+ Finite & swept wings +

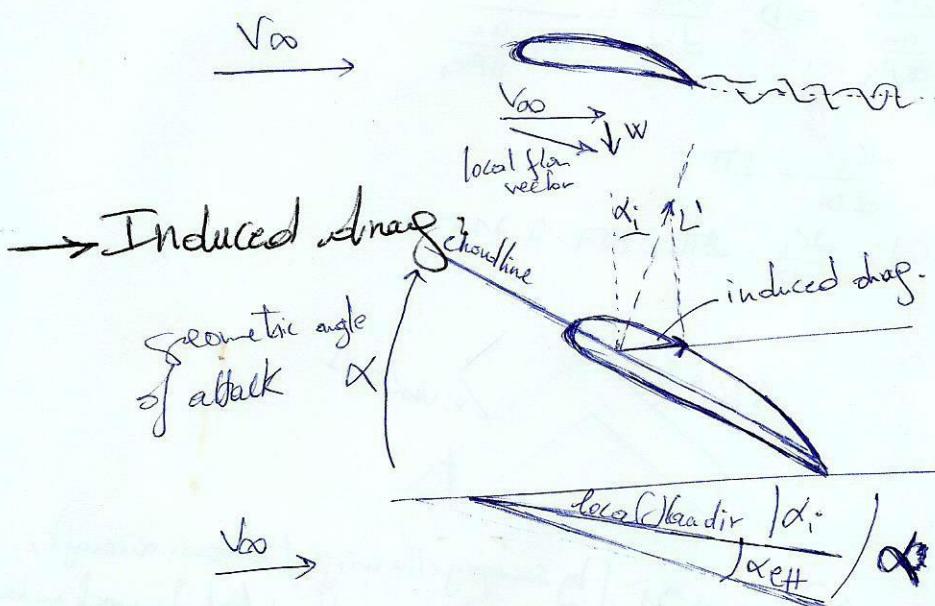
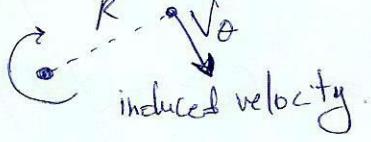
→ Characteristics of finite wings:

→ Flow around the wing tip generates tip vortices:



→ Tip vortices:

→ Cross section of tip vortices:



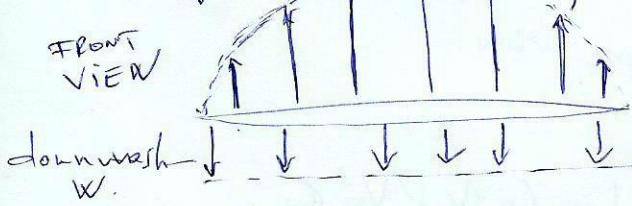
| the trailing tip vortex causes
downwash, w.

$$D_i = L \sin \alpha_i$$

Since α small, $\sin \alpha \approx \alpha$

$$\Rightarrow D_i = L \alpha_i$$

→ Elliptical lift distribution:



| Elliptical lift distribution results in constant downwash and therefore constant induced angle of attack.

$$\hookrightarrow \text{From incompressible flow theory: } \alpha_i = \frac{C_L}{\pi A} \quad \text{where } A = \frac{b^2}{4} \quad (\text{Aspect ratio}) \quad \text{Thus } C_D = \frac{C_L^2}{\pi A}$$

→ Span efficiency factor:

$$\rightarrow C_{Di} = \frac{C_L^2}{\pi A c} \leftarrow \text{span efficiency factor (Oswald factor)}$$

\hookrightarrow Elliptical loading: $e = 1 \Rightarrow$ minimum induced drag.

\hookrightarrow Non-elliptical loading: $e < 1 \Rightarrow$ higher induced drag.

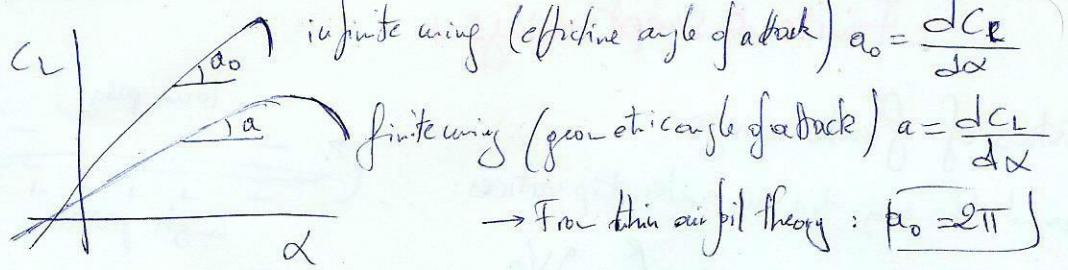
\rightarrow The total drag of the wing can now be written as: $C_D = \frac{C_D P}{\text{profile drag}} + \frac{C_{Di}^2}{\text{induced drag}}$

→ Lift curve slope:

\rightarrow The induced angle of attack reduces the local effective angle of attack: $\alpha_{eff} = \alpha - \alpha_i$

\rightarrow For a wing with a general plan form we may write:

$$\alpha_i = \frac{C_L}{\pi A e r} : \text{Angle in radians} \quad | \quad \alpha_i = \frac{57.3 C_L}{\pi A e r} \quad \text{for angles in degrees.}$$



$$\rightarrow \frac{dC_L}{d\alpha_{\text{eff}}} = \alpha_0 \Rightarrow C_L = \alpha_0 (\alpha - \alpha_0) + \text{const} = \alpha_0 \left(\alpha - \frac{C_L}{\pi A e_1} \right) + \text{const}$$

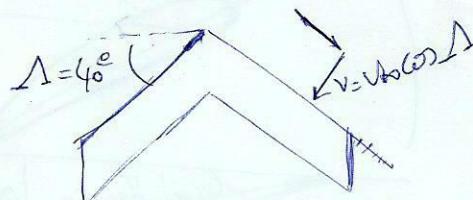
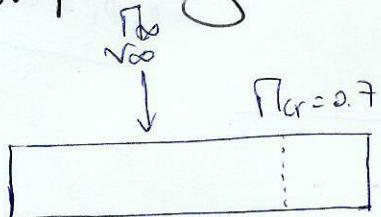
$$\hookrightarrow C_L = \frac{\alpha_0 \alpha}{1 + \frac{\alpha_0}{\pi A e_1}} + \frac{\text{const}}{1 + \frac{\alpha_0}{\pi A e_1}} \Rightarrow \frac{dC_L}{d\alpha} = \frac{\alpha_0}{1 + \frac{\alpha_0}{\pi A e_1}}$$

Example:

- Infinite wing: $A = \infty$ then $\frac{dC_L}{d\alpha} = 2\pi$

- Finite wing: $A = 12$ (Fokker D): $\frac{dC_L}{d\alpha} = 2\pi \times 0.857 = 1.71\pi$

Swept wings:



$$\rightarrow R_{\text{air}} \text{ for swept wings} = \frac{0.7}{\cos \lambda} = 0.31 \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{by sweeping the wings of subsonic aircraft,} \\ \text{the drag divergence is delayed to higher mach numbers.} \end{array} \right.$$

Total drag:

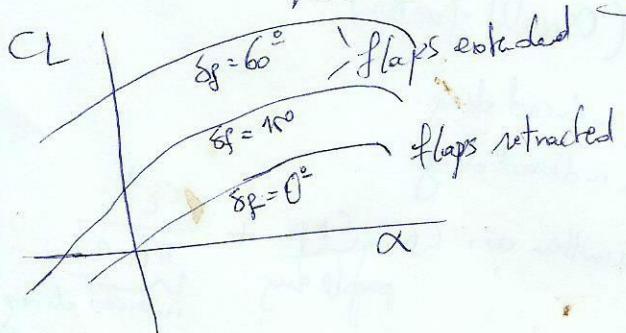
$$\rightarrow C_D = C_{D\text{profile}} + \frac{C_L^2}{\pi A e} \quad \left| C_{D\text{profile}} = C_{Df} + C_{D\text{pres}} + C_{Dw} \right.$$

Flaps:

$$W = L = C_L \frac{1}{2} \rho V_\infty^2 S$$

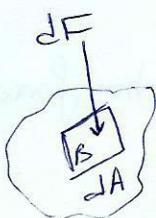
$$\hookrightarrow V_\infty = \sqrt{\frac{2W}{\rho_0 S C_L}} \quad \text{and} \quad \sqrt{V_{\text{stall}}} = \sqrt{\frac{2W}{\rho_0 S C_{L\text{max}}}}$$

The landing speed is decreased when the maximum lift coefficient is increased.



+ Fundamental quantities +

→ Pressure: is the normal force per unit area on a surface

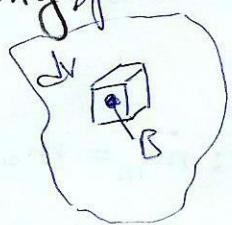


dA : element surface around B.
 dF : force on 1 side of dA

The pressure in point B is:

$$P = \lim_{dA \rightarrow 0} \frac{dF}{dA} \quad [N/m^2]$$

→ Density of a substance is its mass per volume:



dv : element volume around B
 dm : mass of gas in dv

The density in pt B is:

$$\rho = \lim_{dv \rightarrow 0} \frac{dm}{dv} \quad [kg/m^3]$$

→ Temperature is a measure of the average kinetic energy of the particles in the gas.

$$\rightarrow KE = \frac{3}{2} kT ; k = \text{Boltzmann constant } (1.38 \times 10^{-23} J/K) ; [T] = K \mid {}^\circ C ; K = 273.15 + C$$

→ γ, p, f, T : equation of state:

→ A perfect gas is a gas in which intermolecular forces are negligible:

- The equation of state for a perfect gas is: $P = \frac{p}{RT} \Leftrightarrow p = PRT$

with gas constant $R = 287.05 \text{ J/kg.K}$

- For an actual gas (non-perfect) the eq of state is approximated by the Berthelot eq:

$$\frac{P}{PRT} = 1 + \frac{ap}{T} + \frac{bp}{T^2} \cdot (a, b \text{ & constants})$$

↳ the difference with the equation of state for a perfect gas becomes smaller as p decreases or T increases (The distance between the molecules increases).

- Under standard conditions: $P_s = 1.01325 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2 \mid f_s = 1.225 \text{ kg/m}^3 \mid T_s = 288.15 \text{ K}$

- Definition of specific volume: $v = \frac{1}{\rho}$ and $Pv = RT$

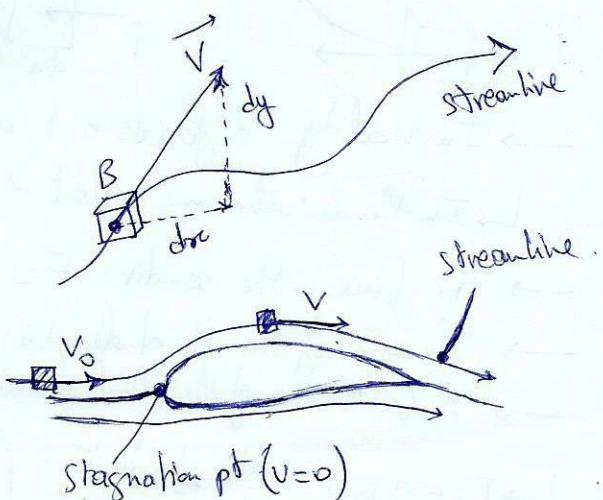
$$\text{Kg/m}^3 = 1.01325 \times 10^5 \times \text{atm.}$$

→ Velocity & streamlines:

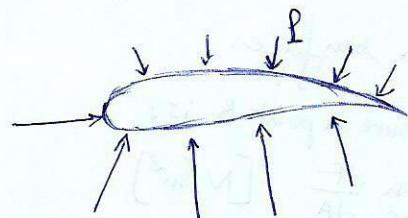
→ The velocity in pt B is the velocity of an infinitesimally small fluid element as it sweeps through B

$$\vec{V} = \frac{ds}{dt} \quad [\text{m/s}]$$

A →



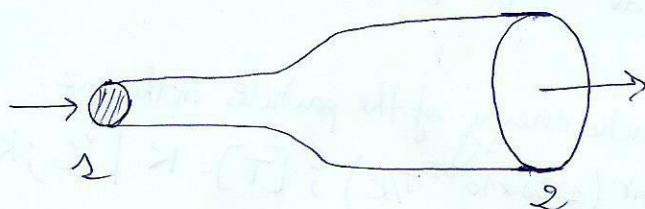
→ Aerodynamic forces:



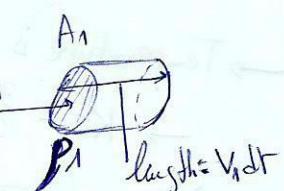
+ Pressure distribution.

+ Shear stress or friction force.

→ Continuity equat^o: The rate of change of the mass of a material region is zero.
(mass is conserved)



| For 1-directional incompressible flow: $m_{in} = m_{out}$



$$\bullet m = \text{flow mass} = V_1 A_1 P_1 = \frac{m}{s} \cdot A \cdot V \cdot \frac{P_1}{g} = \frac{P_1}{g} s$$

$$\bullet m = P_1 \cdot V = P_1 \cdot (A_1 \cdot V_1 \cdot dt) = P A V dt \Rightarrow \frac{dm}{dt} = P A V$$

$$\bullet \text{conserv. of mass: } P_1 V_1 A_1 dt = P_2 A_2 V_2 dt \Rightarrow \boxed{P A V \text{ constant} = m}$$

↳ Assumption taken: P & V uniformly distributed over A , or P & V are mean values).

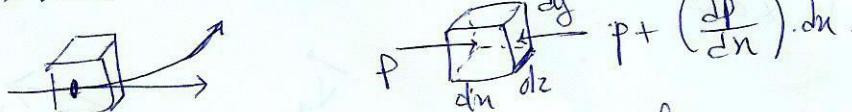
→ Compressible vs incompressible flow:

↳ flow in which the density of a fluid element can change from ρ_1 to ρ_2 .

↳ flow in which density changes of fluid elements are negligible. Assumption valid for flow of liquids and low speed air flow.

→ Momentum equat^o: Euler eq.

→ Newton's second law: $F = ma$ applied to a flowing gas:



→ In reality 3 forces act on this element: pressure | friction | gravity.

↳ In the derivation we neglect forces: gravity (small) | viscosity (no friction forces).

→ The force in the x-dir: $F = \rho dy dz - (P + \frac{\partial P}{\partial n} dn) dy dz = \boxed{-\frac{\partial P}{\partial n} dy dz}$ due to pressure

→ The mass of the fluid element is: $m = \rho \cdot \text{Vol} = \rho dy dz$.

→ Acceleration a of the fluid element is: $a = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{dv}{dn} \cdot \frac{dn}{dt} = \frac{dv}{dn} \cdot V$.

↳ $F = m a \Leftrightarrow -\frac{\partial P}{\partial n} dy dz = \rho dy dz \cdot V \cdot \frac{dv}{dn} \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{\partial P}{\partial n} = -\rho V dv}$

↳ Assumptions: Gravity neglected | Viscosity neglected | steady flow | Flow may be compressible | Euler equation: differential eq.

→ Energy eq. for frictionless adiabatic flow, derived from 1st law of thermodynamics:

→ physical principle: Energy can neither be created or destroyed

$$\rightarrow \delta q = dh - vdp \xrightarrow{\text{Adiabatic}} \delta q = 0 = dh - vdp \xrightarrow{\text{Euler}} dh = vdp \Rightarrow dh = vdp$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{since } v = \frac{1}{\rho} \text{ we find: } dh + VdV = 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{we integrate b/w 2 pts in a streamline: } \int_1^2 dh + \int_1^2 VdV = 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow h_2 - h_1 + \frac{1}{2}(V_2^2 - V_1^2) = 0 \Leftrightarrow h_2 + \frac{1}{2}V_2^2 = h_1 + \frac{1}{2}V_1^2 \Rightarrow h + \frac{1}{2}V^2 = \text{cte}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{since } h = C_p T \Rightarrow C_p T + \frac{1}{2}V^2 = \text{cte}$$

→ Summary of equations:

→ For steady, frictionless, incompressible flow:

$$+ A_1 V_1 = A_2 V_2 \text{ Continuity eq.}$$

$$+ p_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho V_1^2 = p_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho V_2^2 \text{ Bernoulli's eq.}$$

→ For steady, isentropic (adiabatic & frictionless flow), compressible flow:

$$+ \rho_1 A_1 V_1 = \rho_2 A_2 V_2 \text{ Continuity eq.} (= m(\text{mass flow}))$$

$$+ \frac{p_1}{\rho_1} = \left(\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2}\right)^{\gamma} = \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2}\right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} \text{ Isentropic eq. (relation)}$$

$$+ C_p T_1 + \frac{1}{2}V_1^2 = C_p T_2 + \frac{1}{2}V_2^2 \text{ Energy eq.}$$

$$+ P = \rho R T \text{ Equation of state.}$$

→ Speed of sound:

$$\frac{P}{T} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} P + dP \\ P + dp \\ T + dT \end{array} \right. =$$

$$\frac{P}{T} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} P + dp \\ P + dp \\ T + dT \\ \alpha + da \end{array} \right. \Rightarrow \alpha$$

velocity of sound $\rightarrow a \Leftrightarrow$
moving sound wave with speed a
static observer

stationary sound wave
deformations with sound wave.

$$\rightarrow \text{Apply continuity eq.: } \rho_1 A_1 V_1 = \rho_2 A_2 V_2 \Leftrightarrow h A_1 a = (P + dp) A_2 (a + da)$$

$$\therefore 1-\text{dim flow} \Leftrightarrow A_1 = A_2 \Rightarrow \rho a = (P + dp)(a + da) \Rightarrow \rho da = pd + a dp + da \cancel{+ da}$$

small, ignore

$$\hookrightarrow a = -P \frac{da}{dp} \quad (\text{eq for speed of sound})$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Now apply momentum eq (Euler eq)} \Rightarrow dp = -P \nabla dV \Rightarrow dp = -\rho ad\alpha \Rightarrow da = -\frac{1}{\rho} dp$$

Sub into $a = -\rho \frac{da}{dp} \Rightarrow a = \rho \frac{1}{\rho} \cdot \frac{dp}{dp} \Rightarrow a^e = \frac{dp}{dp} \Rightarrow a = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dp}{dp}\right)_{\text{isentropic}}}$.

\hookrightarrow Now apply the isentropic relations:

We want to relate $\frac{dp}{dp}$; with isentropic relation ref'd: $a = \sqrt{\gamma P}$

With the eq-of-state $P = \rho R T \Leftrightarrow \frac{P}{\rho} = RT \Rightarrow a = \sqrt{\gamma R T} \Rightarrow$ speed of sound in a perfect gas depends only on T .

\rightarrow Isentropic flow relations, second form.

$$\rightarrow \text{Energy eq: } C_p T_1 + \frac{1}{2} V_1^2 = \text{cte} = C_p T_0 + \frac{1}{2} V_0^2; \text{ Assuming index 0 = stagnation pt} \Rightarrow V_0 = 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow C_p T_1 + \frac{1}{2} V_1^2 = C_p T_0 \Rightarrow \frac{T_0}{T_1} = 1 + \frac{V_1^2}{2C_p T_1}$$

$$\rightarrow R = c_p - c_v; h = e + p v \Rightarrow C_p t = C_v t + R T \Leftrightarrow R = c_p - c_v \quad [P^v = \frac{P}{\rho} = RT]$$

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{R}{c_p} = 1 - \frac{c_v}{c_p} = 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} = \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \Rightarrow C_p = \frac{\gamma R}{\gamma - 1} \xrightarrow{\text{Subs.}} \frac{T_0}{T_1} = 1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \cdot \frac{V_1^2}{RT_1}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{With } a_1^2 = \gamma R T \Rightarrow \frac{T_0}{T_1} = 1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \cdot \frac{V_1^2}{a_1^2} = \left[1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \Gamma_1^{1/2} \right]$$

\hookrightarrow Brief flow isentropically & rest \rightarrow isentropic relation can be used:

$$\frac{P_0}{P_1} = \left(\frac{P_0}{P_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} = \left(\frac{T_0}{T_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \Gamma_1^{1/2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}} \notin \frac{P_0}{P_1} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \Gamma_1^{1/2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

\rightarrow Summary of second form - Isentropic flow eq's:

$$\rightarrow \frac{T_0}{T_1} = 1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \Gamma_1^{1/2}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{P_0}{P_1} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \Gamma_1^{1/2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{P_0}{P_1} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2} \Gamma_1^{1/2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma-1}}$$

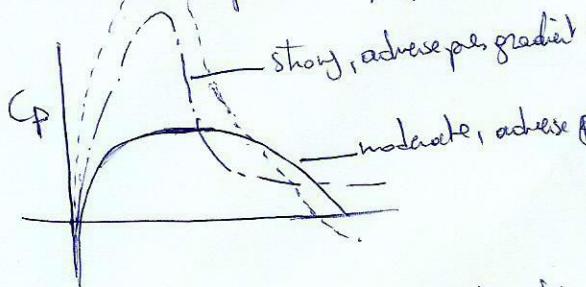
For $M < 1.3$ the change in density is $< 5\%$
 \hookrightarrow Thus the flow can be treated as incompressible.

→ Laminar flow favorable:

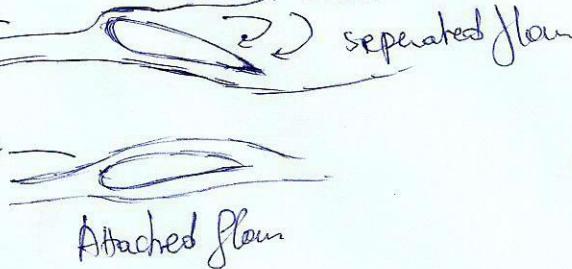
→ We have seen that: $\tau_{\text{laminar}} < \tau_{\text{turbulent}}$.

→ vast majority of flows is turbulent \Rightarrow we may adapt the geometry of the airfoil such that it favors laminar flow. We then have laminar flow airfoils.

→ Flow separation: \rightarrow pres. dist m/separation.



Effect of pres. dist.



→ Why is it important:

- 1. Loss of lift (airfoil)
- 2. Increase in profile drag.
- 3. Generation of unsteady loads.

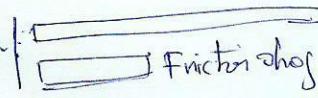
→ Effect of turbulence: Turbulent boundary layer has more flow kinetic energy near the surface. Thus flow separation may be postponed.

→ Viscous drag:

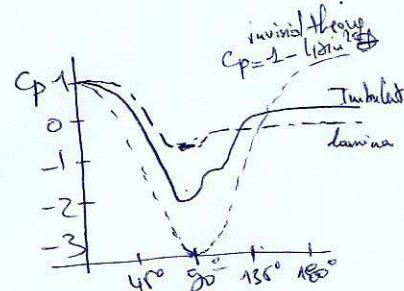
→ Drag due to viscous effects = friction drag + pressure drag = profile drag.

$$C_{D_p} = C_{D_{\text{pressure}}} + C_{D_{\text{friction}}}$$

→ pressure drag:

→ Drag dist on cylinder 

→ A smooth sphere is laminar and a rough sphere is turbulent and it gives a lot less pressure drag.



+ Aerodynamics: from subsonic to hypersonic +

- Regimes of aerodynamic flow:

- Subsonic: $M < 1$
- Sonic: $M = 1$
- supersonic: $M > 1$

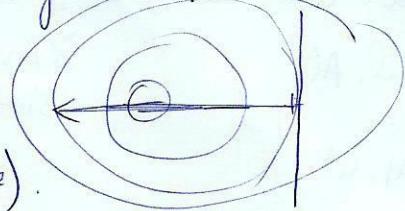
or

subsonic	$M < 0,8$
transonic	$0,8 < M < 1,2$
supersonic	$1,2 < M < 5$
hypersonic	$M > 5$

$$\hookrightarrow M \text{ (the mach number)} = \frac{V}{a} \rightarrow \text{the speed of sound}$$

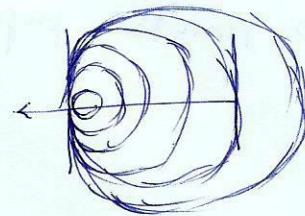
→ Subsonic:

- Sound moves faster than object: $a > V$
- No coalescence effect of waves (sound of pressure).
- Doppler effect: when something comes to you, you hear a high sound, when it's passing you, you hear a low sound.



→ Sonic:

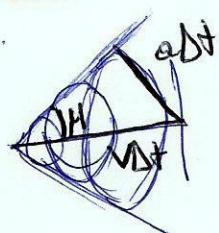
- $a = V$
- Coalescence of waves: shock wave (pressure step) "barrier"



→ Supersonic: $V > a$ | Coalescence of waves: shock wave (pressure step)

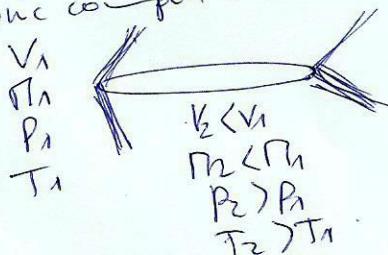
\hookrightarrow A shockwave is a pressure difference (that bang!)

$$\hookrightarrow \mu \text{ (mach angle)} \Rightarrow \sin \mu = a/V = 1/M$$

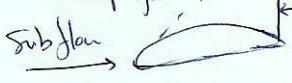


→ Air compressibility:

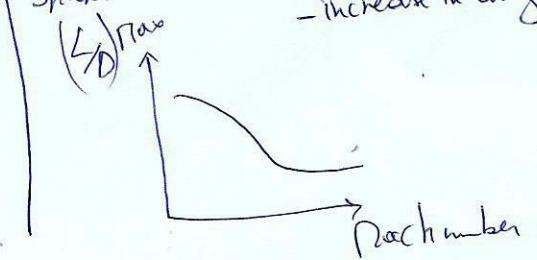
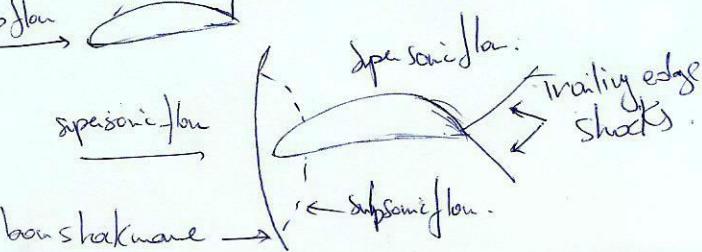
- Incompressible (at very low speeds) until $M = 0,3$
- Compressible: $M > 0,3$
- Supersonic compression:



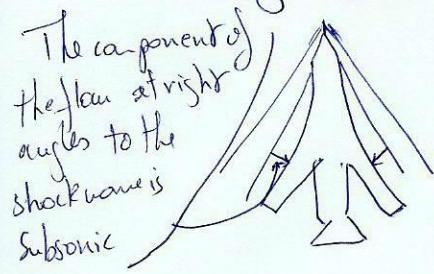
→ Shockwave at subsonic:



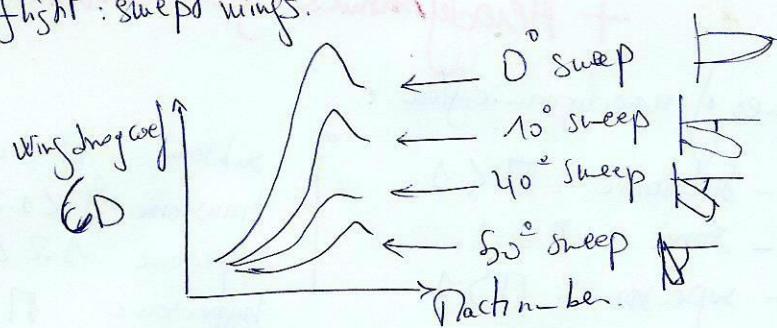
Shockwave induces: - reduction in lift
- increase in drag (wave drag)



→ Reducing drag in supersonic flight: swept wings.



The component of the flow at right angles to the shock wave is subsonic.



→ Special materials for high speeds.

- Conventional: Al.

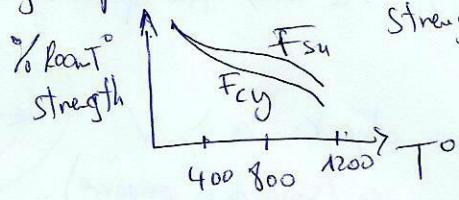
- HT^o mat:

- + Ti-6Al-4V

- + RVS 316

- + Incoine (Alloy)

⇒ Maintain properties at high T^o.



Strength of +^o exposure up to 1/2 hr.

+ Helicopters & other vehicles +

→ Principles of flight:

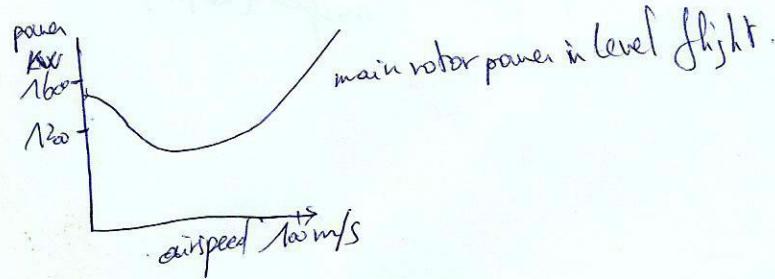
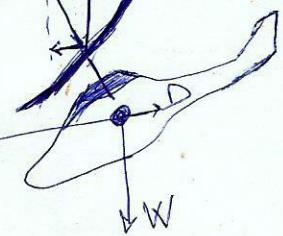
- Three ways to fly :
 - + floating by being lighter than air (Balloons, Airships)
 - + Push air downwards (Airplanes, Heli, VTOL, STOVL)
 - + Push something else downwards (Rockets, Jetpack)

→ Helicopters:

- A helicopter is nothing more than a large collection of parts flying in close formation
Held together with grease and copper wire.
- Helicopters are:
 - creating more noise (internal & external) - less fuel efficient
 - less environmentally friendly - More expensive to buy & operate - Harder to fly.
 - less comfortable for passengers..
- But can:
 - + Land & take off anywhere
 - + Hover.

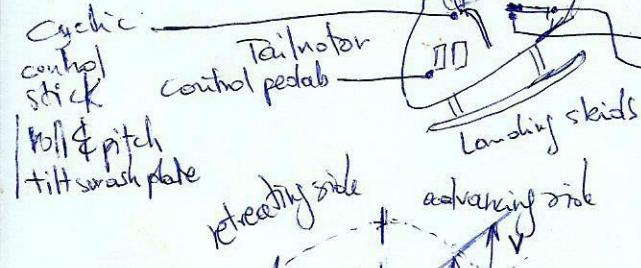
→ Horizontal flight:

- equilibrium of forces



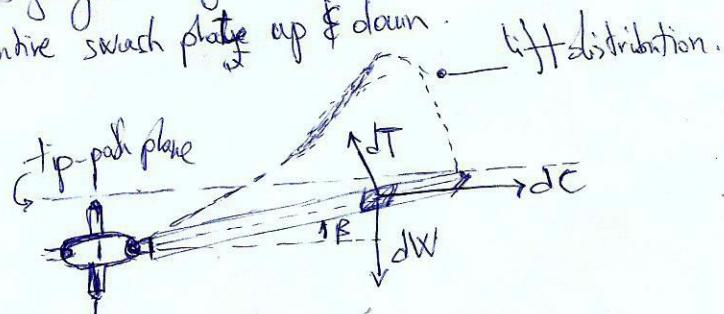
→ flight control; flying an airplane is like riding a bicycle, hovering a heli is like riding a unicycle.

Tail rotor
Control altitude
& attitude

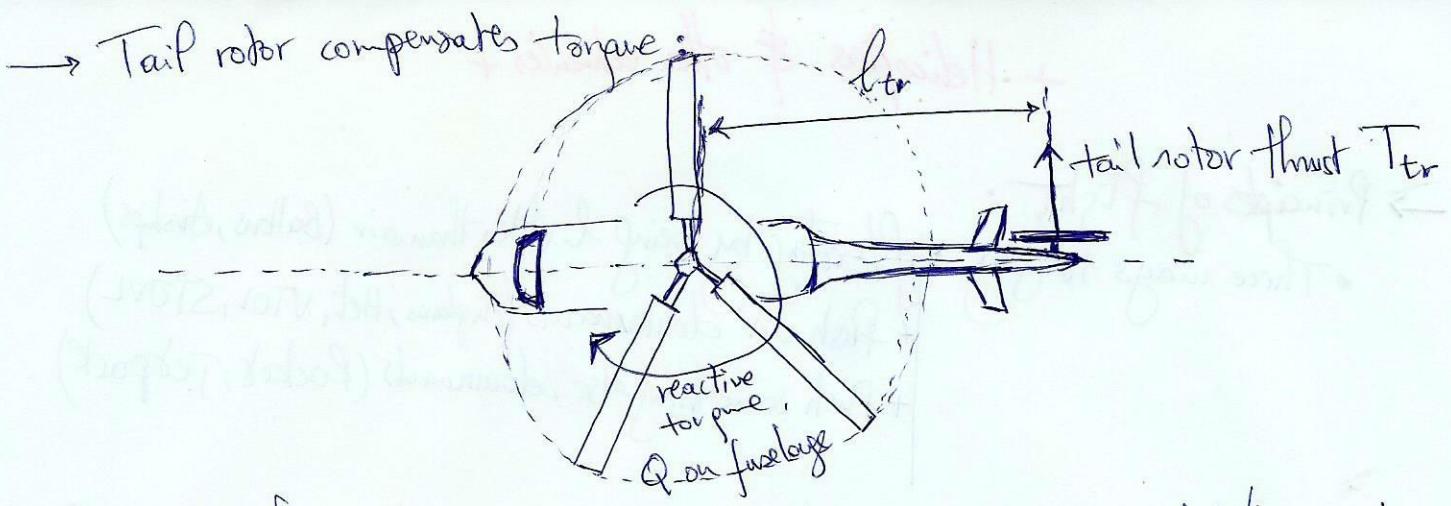


Engine, Transmission, Fuel...

Throttle
Collective
Change angle of attack of all rotor blades.
move entire swash plate up & down.

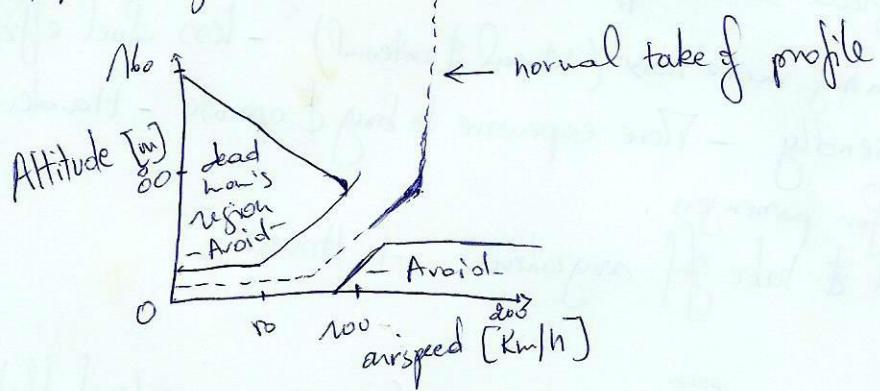


→ rotor blade velocity distribution.



→ Alternatives for tail rotor: + T_tr + two rotor in opposite direction (to counter the torque effect) (Korov principle).

→ Dead man's region:



+ laminar & turbulent flow +

→ Supersonic wind tunnel : area velocity relation.

$$\rightarrow \text{Area velocity relation} : \frac{\Delta A}{A} = (n^2 - 1) \frac{dV}{V}$$

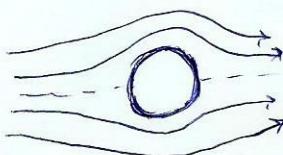
- ↳ Conc: |
 - subsonic flow if $dV > 0$ then $\Delta A < 0$ and vice versa.
 - supersonic flow if $dV > 0$ then $\Delta A > 0$ and vice versa.
 - if the flow is sonic ($n=1$) then:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{↳ } \frac{dV}{V} &= \left(\frac{1}{n^2-1}\right) \frac{\Delta A}{A} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta A}{A} ! \quad \frac{dV}{V} = \infty \text{ is not possible at physical basis.} \\ &\text{Then we must have now (for finite } \frac{dV}{V} \text{); } \frac{\Delta A}{A} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{dV}{V} = 0 = \text{finite!} \end{aligned}$$

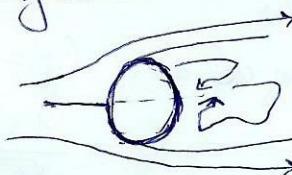
$$\Leftrightarrow D \text{ if } \frac{\Delta A}{A} = 0 \Rightarrow D \text{ in the throat } n=1.$$

→ Viscous flow :

→ Up till now we have only dealt with frictionless flow, what's the effect of friction?



Inviscid flow (No frict^c)
No drag



Viscous flow (friction)
Finite drag.

in real life the flow at the surface adheres to the surface because of friction between the gas and the solid material & right at the surface the velocity is zero.

→ Boundary layer :



Boundary layer

- In the vicinity of the surface there is a thin region of retarded flow: the boundary layer.
- The pressure through the boundary layer in a direction perpendicular to the surface is constant.
- Inside the boundary layer we cannot apply Bernoulli's (isentropic)

$$\rightarrow \text{Shear stress can be written as: } \tau_w = \mu \left(\frac{du}{dy} \right)_w$$

↳ Skin friction drag.

$$\mu = \text{absolute viscosity (cf. or viscosity)} \\ \text{Air at standard sea level: } \mu = 1.789 \times 10^{-5} \text{ (kg/m s)}$$



→ Some definitions:

$$\rightarrow \text{Reynolds number: } Re_x = \frac{\rho_\infty V_\infty x}{\mu_\infty} = \frac{V_\infty x}{\nu_\infty} \quad (\text{varies linearly with } x)$$

→ Laminar flow: streamlines are smooth and regular and a fluid element moves smoothly along a streamline

→ Turbulent flow: streamlines break up and a fluid element moves in a random irregular way

→ Laminar Boundary layer, boundary layer thickness:

→ Consider flat plate flow. What is boundary layer thickness S and skin friction drag D_f at x ?

$$\rightarrow \text{From laminar boundary layer theory: } S = \frac{5.2 x}{\sqrt{Re_x}}$$

→ Thus S is proportional to \sqrt{x} (parabolically)

→ laminar boundary layer, skin friction drag:

→ Total force = total pressure force + total friction force.

↳ total friction force on element dm is: $\tau_w(u) dm \rightarrow \tau_w(u) dm$.

↳ Total skin friction drag is: $D_f = \int_0^L \tau_w dm$.

→ For the skin friction coefficient we find from laminar boundary layer theory:

$$C_{f,2} = \frac{\tau_w}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_\infty V_\infty^2} = \frac{\tau_w}{V_\infty} = \frac{0,664}{\sqrt{Re}} \quad [\text{dimensionless}]$$

↳ Thus $C_{f,2}$ and τ_w decreases as V_∞ increases \Leftrightarrow the skin friction at the beginning of the plate is larger than near the trailing edge.

→ To calculate the total aerodynamic force we must integrate:

$$\begin{aligned} \hookrightarrow D_f &= \int_0^L C_{f,2} \cdot q_\infty \cdot dm = 0,664 q_\infty \int_0^L \frac{dm}{\sqrt{Re}} = \frac{0,664 q_\infty}{\sqrt{V_\infty / L}} \int_0^L \frac{1}{\sqrt{Re}} dm. \quad (\text{or } \int dm = 2V_\infty) \\ &= \frac{0,664 q_\infty \times 2V_\infty}{\sqrt{V_\infty / L}} = \frac{1,328 q_\infty L}{\sqrt{V_\infty / L}} \end{aligned}$$

↳ We define total skin friction drag C_f as: $C_f = \frac{D_f}{q_\infty S}$; thus:

$$\hookrightarrow C_f = \frac{1,328 \cdot L}{\sqrt{V_\infty / L} \cdot S} = \frac{1,328 \cdot L}{\sqrt{Re} \cdot L \cdot 2} \Rightarrow C_f = \frac{1,328}{\sqrt{Re} \cdot L}$$

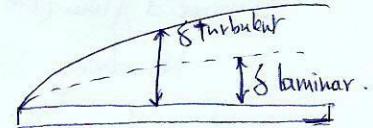
→ Results for a turbulent boundary layer:

→ Due to the action of turbulence, no exact sol^E for turbulent boundary layers.

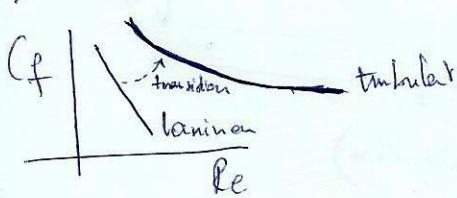
→ From experiments: $\left| \delta = \frac{0,37 \cdot L}{Re^{0.2}} \right|$

$$C_f = \frac{0,07 \cdot L}{Re_L^{0.2}}$$

C_f varies as $L^{-1/2}$ for turbulent flow while it changes as $L^{-1/4}$ for laminar flow. Thus the friction in a turbulent boundary layer is larger than in a laminar flow.

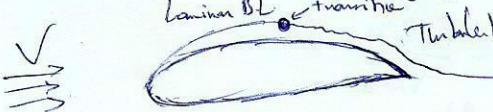


→ Transition:



→ Skin friction: $\tau = \mu \frac{du}{dy}$

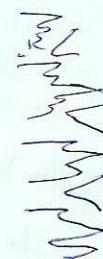
→ The critical Reynolds number at which transition occurs is difficult to find (found by experimental data applicable for given problem).



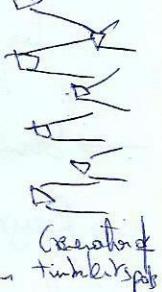
Up

Shear
laminar
flow

turbulent
velocity
increases



Fully turbulent
flow



transition
turbulent

Growth of
spanwise vorticity

3d
vortex breakdown

Generation of
turbulence

Laminar
boundary
layer

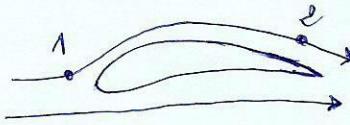
Turbulent
boundary
layer

Laminar BL: thin, low friction drag.
Turbulent BL: thick, high friction drag.

→ Bernoulli's law for inviscid & incompressible flow (viscosity neglected)

• Integrating Euler eq ($dP + \rho V dV = 0$) along streamline
btw pt 1 & pt 2:

$$\int_{P_1}^{P_2} dP + \int_{V_1}^{V_2} \rho V dV = 0 \Leftrightarrow [P]_{P_1}^{P_2} + [\rho \frac{V^2}{2}]_{V_1}^{V_2} = 0$$



$$\Leftrightarrow P_2 - P_1 + \rho \frac{V_2^2}{2} - \rho \frac{V_1^2}{2} = 0 \Leftrightarrow P_e + \rho \frac{V^2}{2} = P_1 + \rho \frac{V_1^2}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underset{\substack{\text{static} \\ \text{pressure}}}{P} + \underset{\substack{\text{dynamic} \\ \text{pressure}}}{\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2} = \underset{\substack{\text{constant} \\ \text{along streamline}}}{{\text{total pressure}}} \quad [N/m^2] \quad (\text{Bernoulli's eq})$$

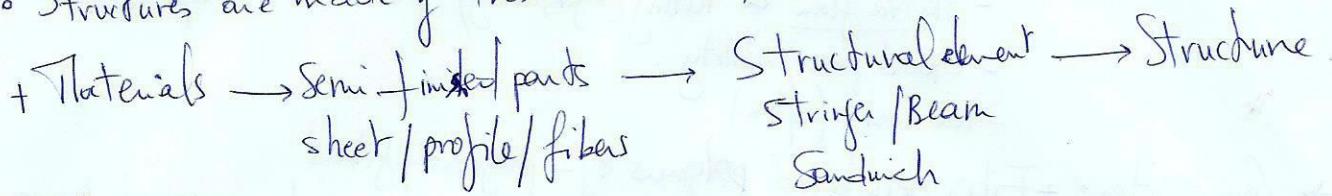
→ Euler eq and Bernoulli's eq is in fact $F=ma$ (Newton) applied to fluid dynamics.

+ Materials, Supersonic & high speed env +

- What is a material:
- Approximated by "substances" and "flatter"
 - Having specific properties, but without shape

→ Structures & materials:

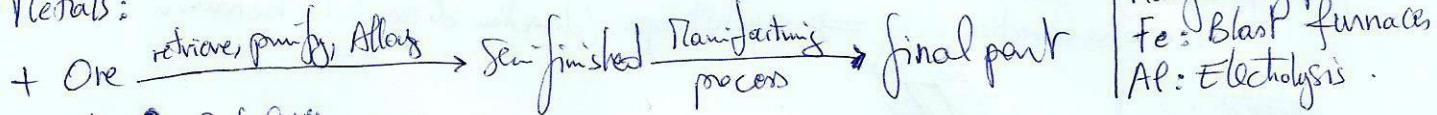
- Structures are made of these materials or "substances":



→ Materials OVERVIEW:

- | | |
|---|---|
| • Most important materials for Aerospace applications | Natal Alloys |
| | Composites: Consisted materials (fibers, resin) |
| • Structurally not relevant: | Pure polymers: properties not good enough (strength, stiffness).
Ceramics: too brittle (deintegates easily). |
| | Natal |

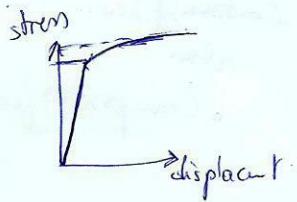
→ Metals:



→ Metals & Metal Alloys:

+ Characteristics:

- Isotropic: the material properties are independent from the direction
- Metal to be strengthened (Alloying, heat treatment)
- Plastic behavior & melting (recycling, welding)
- Good processibility
- Low cost.



+ Huge diversity in tension properties:

Metal	Density [kg/dm³]	E-modulus [KN/mm²]	init slope strength = init modulus to bending. for stiffness measuring	yield strength [N/mm²]	Failure strength [MPa²]	Flow strain [%]
Carbon Steel	7.8	207 - 26,5	378 - 48	590	76	28
HS Steel	7.8	207 - 26,5	1620 - 208	1760	826	12
pure aluminum	2.7	69 - 25,5	34 - 13	90	33	40
Al-2024-alloy	2.8	72 - 25,7	325 - 116	470	168	20
pure titanium	4.5	103 - 22,9	470 - 38	240	13	30
Ti-6Al-4V alloy	4.5	114 - 25,3	830 - 131	900	200	14

+ Stress = $\frac{\text{Force}}{\text{cross section}}$

+ Specific stress = $\frac{\text{stress}}{\text{density}}$ (For tension only) [in black at table]
We use specific stress because we have to take density into consideration for flight

→ Polymers:

+ As pure materials: Structurally not interesting.

+ Macro-molecular substances: Two major types:

+ Characteristics: - Isotropic

- low strength & stiffness.

- Huge variety.

- Plastic flow & Setting (cycle, welding)

- Good processibility.

- low costs (often).

- Thermoplastics: softening, reversible, one component.

- Thermoset: curing irreversible, often more components.)

Once cured, shape can't be changed anymore.

→ Composites: + Fiber reinforced polymers:

+ Hybrid materials:

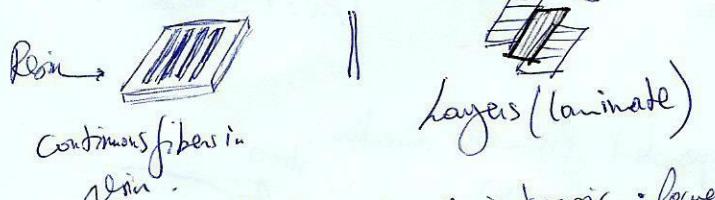
- Glass, composite and metal layers.

+ Have different weave styles.

• Principles of composite materials ("continuous" fibers):

+ fibers (strong & stiff) embedded in resin (support & protect)

, in one direction only \Rightarrow anisotropic (direction dependent) behavior.



• Composites (cont.): - Anisotropic: lower weight, no overdesign
- layered structure (laminates).
- High strength and stiffness.
- Low density but often costly.

- No plasticity
- Good processibility.
- prepgs.
- Dripping in moulds curing.

• Huge diversity in tension properties:

Material	Density (kg/dm³)	E-modulus (kN/mm²)	yield strength	Failure strength	Maximum strain
Epoxy (TS)	1.25	2.4	1.9	—	4860 4.5
PEEK (TP)	1.31	1.1	0.8	9169	10076 75
E-glass epoxy, UD 60% ±9.70	—	45	21	—	1020 486 2.3
HTI carbon epoxy, UD 60% ±1.7	—	220	129	—	760 447 0.3
Al-2024-Alloy	2.8	72	25.7	325116	470 168 2.0
Ti-6Al-4V alloy	4.5	114	25.3	83186	900 200 14

→ Link between Materials & structures:

• Load carrying capacity of a structure depends on:

+ Design, shape

+ Materials

+ Production techniques.

Performance
(concept)

+ Manufacturing techniques:
Casting | Pachining | Forming |
forging | Joining.

+ Design & shape:

• Struct level | part level
Tube & girder struc flat
stiffened skin struc single curved
scandwing struc double curved

+ Materials: metal alloys / polymer /
Fiber reinforced polymer / ceramics /
hybrid material.

↳ Not every (D,M,P) random combination is possible.

↳ There's an interaction.

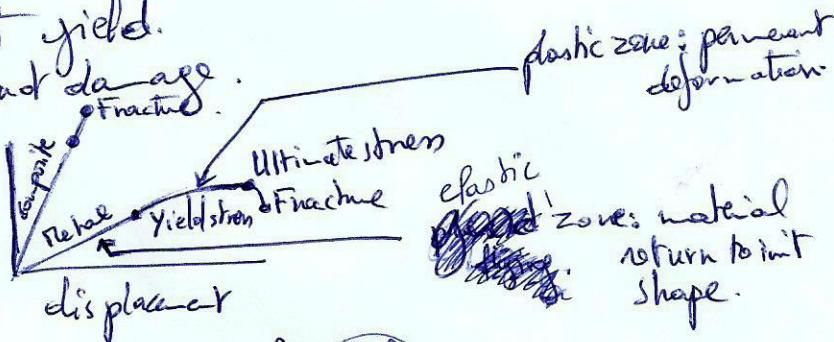
→ loads:

- limit load: load experienced once in a lifetime; no remaining damage
- ultimate load: limit load \times safety factor; failure allowed after 3 seconds

→ Failure behavior materials:

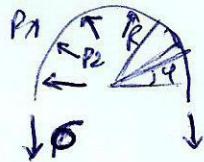
- Within the limits of load diagram, material should not fail.
 - | metal should not yield.
 - | composite should not damage.

- Stress-strain diagram: Force

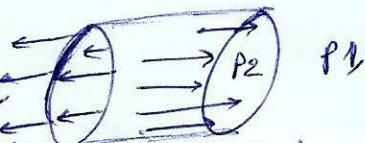


→ Pressure cabin:

$$\Delta p = P_2 - P_1 ; \quad \sigma_{cir} = \Delta p \cdot R \cdot \frac{1}{t}$$

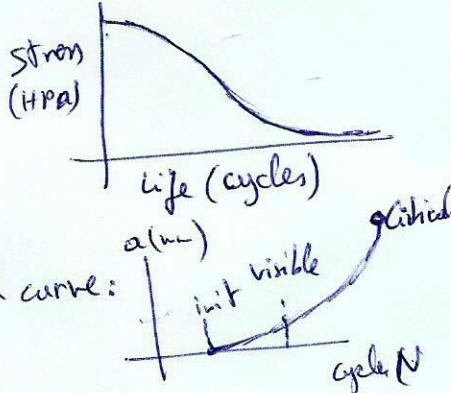


$$\sigma_{cir}/G_{long} = 2 \quad \therefore \quad \delta_{long} = \Delta p \cdot t / 2t$$



→ Fatigue: Repetitive force smaller than breaking force destroys the part.

- S-N curve:



} the more cycles, the poorer the material
the less force it can take because
of fatigue

- Crack growth curve:

- fatigue: crack initiation
neck growth.
- Two limits | visibility limit (detected)
criticality limit (failure).
- inspection intervals: 3 times b/w visible and
critical.

→ Metal - Manufacturing:

Liquid : casting	Solid flow $T \geq$: forming (sheet); machining.
Solid heat \geq : forging	Assembly : Joining.

↳ Casting: Solid \Rightarrow liquid + injection molding.

↳ Machining: Solid + cutting.

↳ Forming: Sheet + stress.

↳ Joining: solids + welding...

→ Composites:

play-up and curing;	prepreg = pre-impregnated.
forming: press forming (with heated material to soften it)	
filament winding / tape laying.	

→ Composites vs metals:

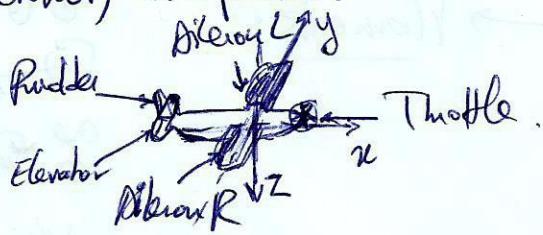
Metals	Composites
+ Plastic behavior / damage tolerant - joining.	+ high spec. strength & stiffness / low weight.
+ Cheap mat. / easy proc. - labor intensive	+ high integration possible expensive mat \rightarrow compensated by production.

Moments, Longitudinal static stability

- 1.4 -

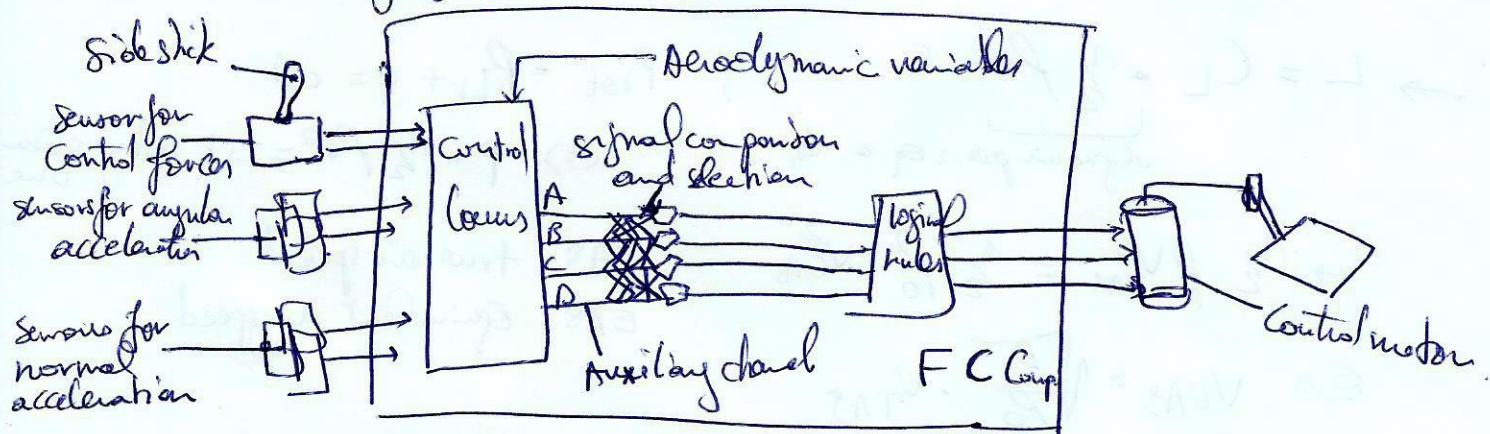
→ In total, there 4 degrees of freedom (control) in a plane:

- Elevator: for pitch.
- Rudder: for yaw.
- Ailerons: for roll.
- Throttle: for forward acceleration.



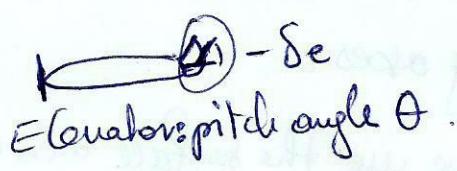
→ The aircraft can move in 3 directions and has 3 angles around the 3 axes \Rightarrow with 4 controls you can pilot an aircraft with 6 degrees of freedom.

→ We use a flight control system to maintain stability (by wire (elec)).

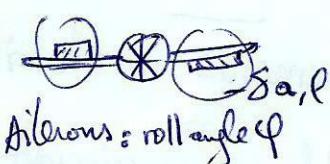


→ Control surfaces and rotations:

↳ sign convention: negative deflections \rightarrow positive a/c response around its primary axis.



Elevator: pitch angle θ_e



Ailerons: roll angle ϕ

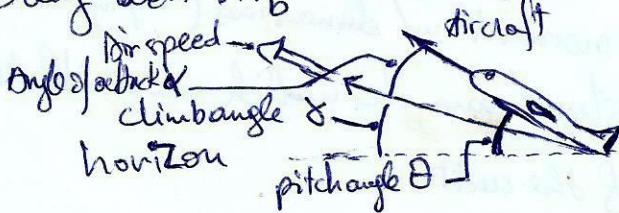


Rudder: yaw angle ψ .

→ Stability axes and body axes:

↳ Stability: x_s -axis is attached to velocity.

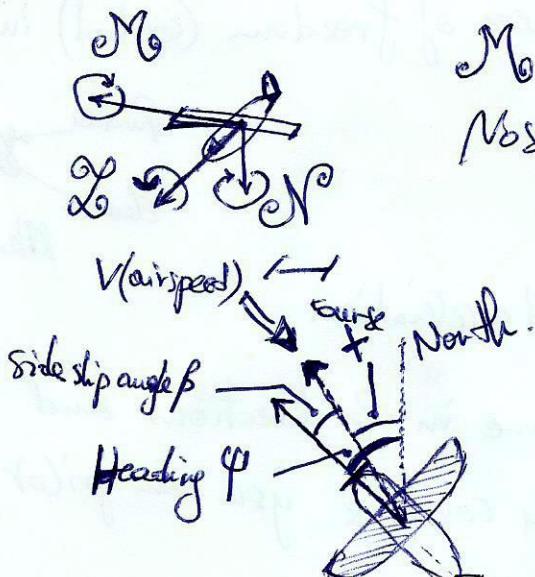
↳ Body axes: x_b -axis is fixed to aircraft.



$$\Rightarrow \alpha + \gamma = \theta$$

- the pitch angle indicates the pitch attitude of the airfoil.
- the angle of attack: the angle b/w the airspeed and the direction of airfoil.

→ Elements:



M_b : pitching moment.
Nose up = positive.

→ Geodetic axes: x_g -axis is attached to North and Horizon.

$$\rightarrow L = C_L \cdot \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 \cdot S ; \quad P_{tot} = P_{bar} + q = cst. \\ \text{dynamic press.: } q = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 \quad \Leftrightarrow \rho + \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 = cst. \text{ along stream line}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \rho V_{TAS}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \rho V_{EAS}^2 ; \quad \text{TAS: true airspeed.} \\ \text{EAS: equivalent airspeed.}$$

$$\hookrightarrow V_{EAS} = \sqrt{\frac{P}{\rho_0}} \cdot V_{TAS}$$

• Indicated airspeed (in a plane) = EAS $\Leftrightarrow (IA) = EAS$.

→ C_L captures a shape that's why it doesn't have any units.

→ Symmetrical movements in stability axes

$C_L = \frac{L}{\frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 S}$: For the wing + aircraft we use the surface area of the wing S .

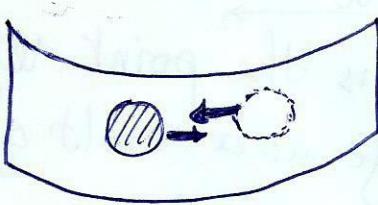
$C_{LH} = \frac{L_H}{\frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 S_H}$: For the tail we use the surface of the tail $: S_H$.

$C_m = \frac{M_b}{\frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 S_C}$: pitching moment w/ dimensions (w/ influence of ρ, v, S)
it's a 'shape' parameter which varies with the angle of attack
because of the unit.

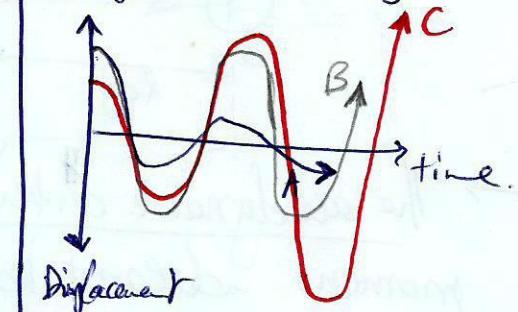
chord

→ Static stability:

- the product of the two forces
- positive \Rightarrow unstable
- negative \Rightarrow stable



→ Dynamic stability:

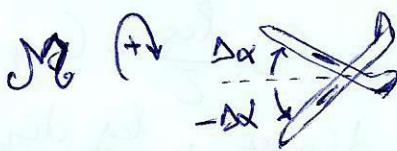


→ Tailoring configuration:

- : Aft tail
- : tail first
- : three surfaces
- : tandem wing
- : tailless
- : flying wing

→ longitudinal static stability:

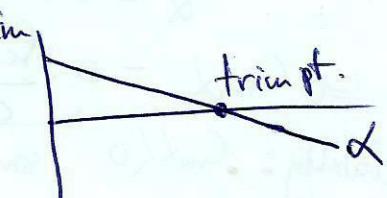
$$\begin{cases} \Delta x > 0 \Rightarrow \Delta C_m < 0 \\ \Delta x < 0 \Rightarrow \Delta C_m > 0 \end{cases}$$



$\Rightarrow \frac{\Delta C_m}{\Delta x} > 0$ if the plane is long. stat. stable.

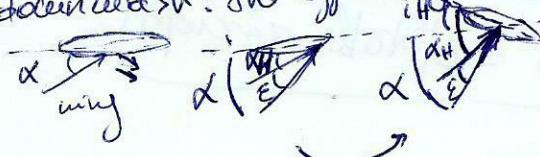
$$\hookrightarrow \frac{dC_m}{dx} < 0$$

$$\left(\frac{dC_m}{dx} = C_{md} \right) \quad (=)$$

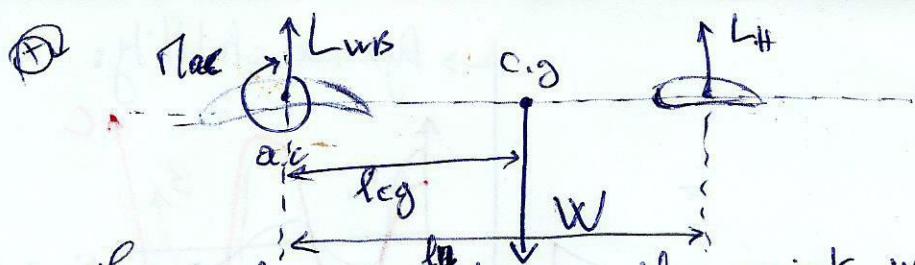


→ For the tail and downwash consideration:

- downwash: the effect of flying wing and air flow direction at the tail.



$$\Rightarrow \alpha_H = \alpha - \epsilon + i_H \Rightarrow \frac{d\alpha_H}{dx} = 1 - \frac{d\epsilon}{dx} \quad \left(\frac{di_H}{dx} = 0 \right)$$



→ The aerodynamic center is the point where the aerodynamic moment doesn't change as a result of change of angle of attack.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\bar{M}_{ac}}{d\alpha} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Equilibrium: } W = L_{WB} + L_H = L.$$

→ The moment of an airfoil happens when there's a camber in it. So in a symmetrical airfoil ~~there's no camber~~, there's no M_H .

$$\rightarrow \bar{M}_{tot} = \bar{M}_{ac} + L_{WB} \cdot leg - L_H \cdot (leg - leg).$$

$$= \bar{M}_{ac} + L_{WB} \cdot leg - L_H \cdot leg + L_H \cdot leg.$$

$$= \bar{M}_{ac} + L \cdot leg - L_H \cdot leg$$

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{\bar{M}_{tot}}{\rho V^2 S c} = \frac{\bar{M}_{ac}}{\rho V^2 S c} + \frac{L \cdot leg}{\rho V^2 S c} - \frac{L_H \cdot leg}{\rho V^2 S c}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_m = C_{mac} + C_L \cdot \frac{leg}{c} - C_{LH} \cdot \frac{S_H}{S} \cdot \frac{leg}{c} \rightarrow V_H = \frac{S_H \cdot leg}{S \cdot c}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_m = C_{mac} + C_L \cdot \frac{leg}{c} - C_{LH} \cdot V_H.$$

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{dC_m}{d\alpha} = \frac{dC_{mac}}{d\alpha} + \frac{leg}{c} \frac{dC_L}{d\alpha} - V_H \cdot \frac{dC_{LH}}{d\alpha} \rightarrow \left(\frac{dC_{LH}}{d\alpha} \right) \frac{d\alpha}{d\alpha} \text{ at}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_{m\alpha} = a \cdot \frac{leg}{c} - \alpha \cdot V_H \cdot \frac{d\alpha}{d\alpha}$$

$$\hookrightarrow C_{m\alpha} = a \cdot \frac{leg}{c} - \alpha \cdot V_H \cdot \left(1 - \frac{d\epsilon}{d\alpha} \right)$$

$$\frac{d\epsilon}{d\alpha} \approx 0.1$$

for stability: $C_{m\alpha} < 0$ small \rightarrow large

neutral: $C_{m\alpha} = 0 \Rightarrow a \cdot \frac{leg}{c} = \alpha \cdot V_H \cdot \left(1 - \frac{d\epsilon}{d\alpha} \right)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{leg}{c} = \frac{\alpha}{a} \cdot V_H \cdot \left(1 - \frac{d\epsilon}{d\alpha} \right)$$

$leg = l_{np}$ neutral point $\rightarrow P_{cg} < l_{np} \Rightarrow$ stable aircraft

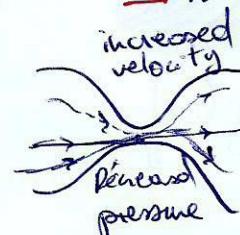
→ Why do we use these cambered profiles, why not simple symmetrical ones?

→ Answer: For horizontal flight (cruise) an inclined symmetrical wing profile generates more drag = fuel inefficient.

→ Airfoil designation: NACA (National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics [US])
→ Numbered nomenclature to describe:

• 2412 (NACA-2412) means: 2% camber (of chord length) at 0.4 of the chord (from LE (leading edge)); and 12% thickness/chord ratio (or 0.12).

→ Generation of lift: Bernoulli:



→ Sum of static and dynamic pressure remains constant:

$$P_1 + \frac{1}{2} \rho V_1^2 = P_2 + \frac{1}{2} \rho V_2^2 \quad \text{or} \quad P + \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 = \text{cte} \quad (\text{along a streamline})$$

→ Higher speed = lower static pressure

→ If we have lower speed below airfoil and higher airspeed over the airfoil
⇒ higher pressure below // and lower pressure over //

↳ which leads to upwards pressure which causes lift.

↳ All of the above is for incompressible air flows.

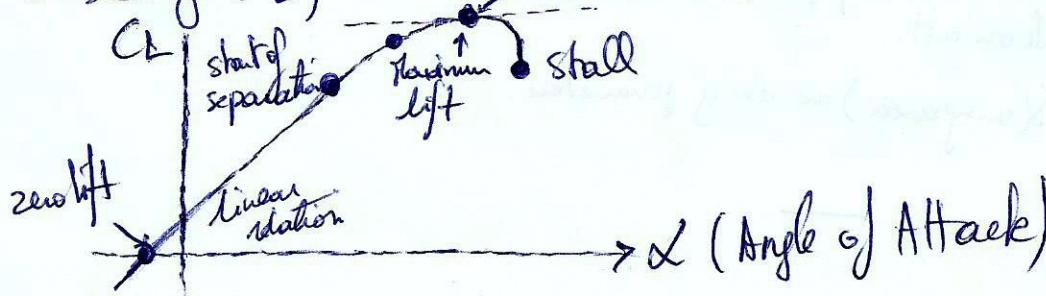
↳ Lift by pressure difference

→ Airfoil's curvature of the upper surface longer than for lower surface.

And the angle of attack improves lift (have influence on pressure diff.)

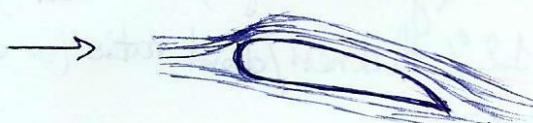
→ symmetrical airfoil doesn't generate lift at 0° angle of attack contrary to non-symmetrical airfoil.

→ Coef. (C_L) has a maximum (separation of air flow)

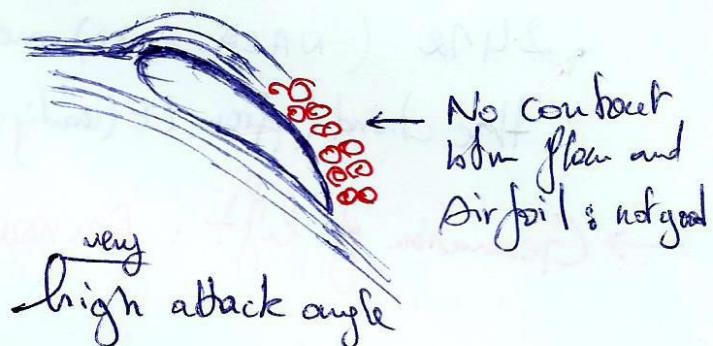


→ Airflow:  **Laminar** * Boundary layer: thin, low friction
Turbulent * Boundary layer: thick, high friction (but no lift).
 transition

→ Flows in laminar flow because of low drag.



normal angle of attack

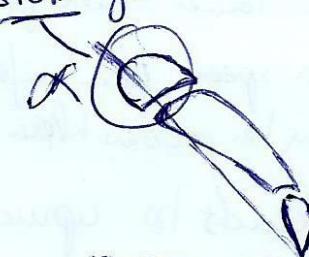


→ To be able to fly at low airspeeds, we need to increase: critical α , maximum C_{lmax} , wing area S .

↳ α : We use Flaps and slots for increase in $\alpha_{critical}$.



Plain



Split



Droop snoot

→ Wing surfaces / Areas: Many different wings possible using these variables:
 • Wing span • Taper • Dihedral • Winglet.
 • Wing surface • Sweep angle • Chord (root & tip)

→ Drag:

$$+ \boxed{D = C_D \times (\frac{1}{2} \rho V^2) \times S.}$$

• C_D (Drag coef) consists of: profile drag (rest of pressure & friction forces)
 parabolic shape.

• ρ (air density): depends on alt.

• V (air speed) and S (wing area) are drag parameters.

→ Drag Origins:

- Skin friction
- Pressure drag.
- Wave drag (at transonic & supersonic speeds)
- Parasitic drag (no lift devices like Fins, engines, ...)

↳ Drag: $C_D = C_{D_0} + C_{D_Q}$

$\uparrow \text{cf}$ $\downarrow \text{induced drag}$

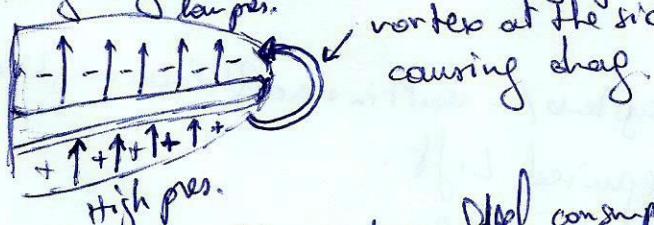
$$\Leftrightarrow C_D = C_{D_0} + \frac{C_L^2}{\pi e A R}$$

↳ Relative contributions of form drag (pressure drag) and skin drag to the total drag.

shape	form drag	skin drag	C_D
	0%	100%	-
	~10%	~90%	0,12
	~20%	~80%	-
	100%	0%	2

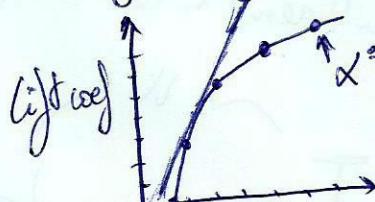
↳ Differences b/w 2D & 3D study approach:

- Drag by vortices caused by pressure difference over the wing.



• Note: winglets reduce fuel consumption (5% - 7%), they oppose the vortices.

↳ Lift drag polar



• at each degree of attack angle we plot C_L and C_D .

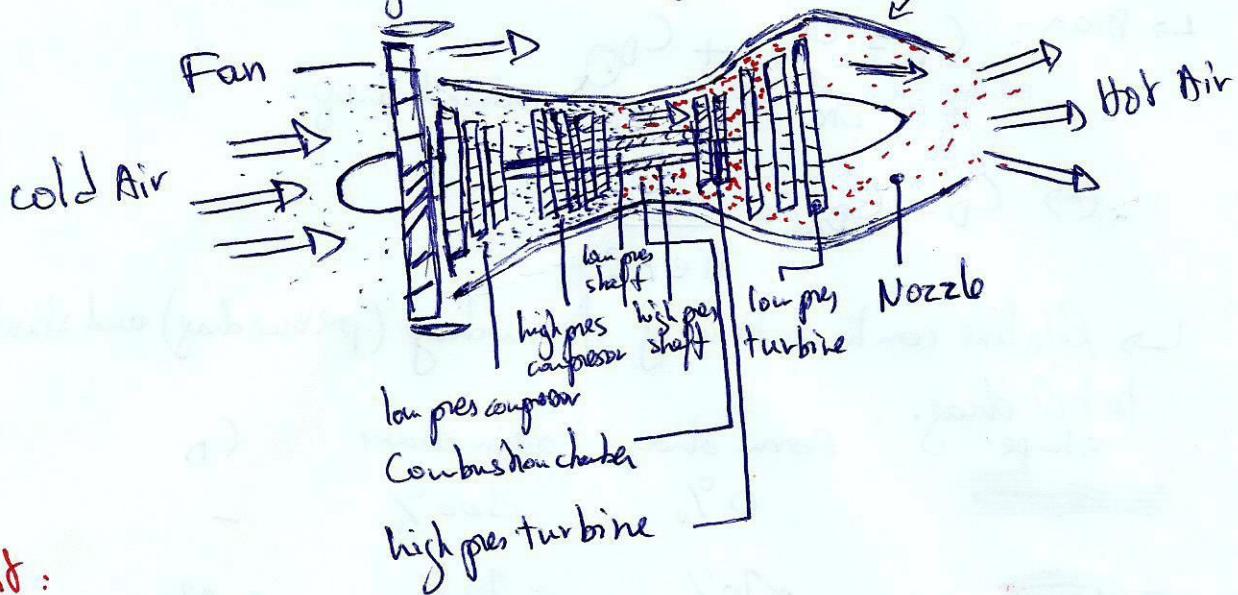
• with the max slope we get maximum C_L/C_D ratio, means, we get the best angle of attack for max lift and min drag.

(and low fuel consumption).

• C_L/C_D is an important design parameter.

→ Thrust:

- To maintain cst speed: $T = D$.
- Engine types:
 - propeller engine
 - Piston engine
 - Turboprop engine
 - Jet engine
 - Turbojet
 - Ramjet
 - Turbofan



→ Weight:

- Aircraft empty weight:
- ↳ Structure: Wing, Horizontal tail, vertical tail, fuselage, landing gear, surface controls, propulsion system, APU.
- ↳ Systems: Instruments & navigation, hydraulics & pneumatics, Electrical system, Electronics, Furnishings, Airconditionning and anti-icing.

↳ Crew and flight attendants.

↳ Operating items

- payload
- fuel

• minimize weight of aircraft struct/sys:
↳ fuel to maximize payload.

→ Snowball effect:

→ Reducing the weight of struct/systems → result in overall lower weight of aircraft

↳ which results in less required lift.

↳ which results in a smaller wing.

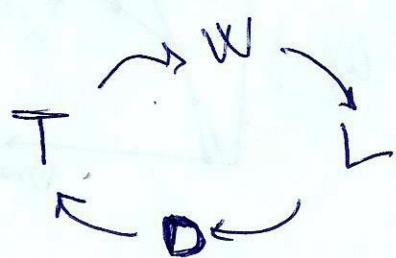
↳ which results in drag reduction

↳ which results in thrust reduction (smaller engines)

↳ which results in less weight

- Both the smaller wing and smaller engines will result in less weight and the cycle can start again.

↳ it's assumed that the weight for fuel
↳ payload doesn't change.



- Structural concepts -

→ What is a structure:

- Features:
 - + Many elements + Coherence + Different materials.
 - + Several functions + Joints

• Functions of a structure:

- + Carrying of the loads (dominant) + protection + Framework to attach other systems.

• Relationship between type of structure and material:

- + Period + Materials

1932 - today stiffened shell strud. Aluminum

1948 - today Preseine cabin Improved Al-alloys

1980s - today Composite strud. Carbon fibers.

• Difference b/w strength & stiffness:

- Strength: Related to the maximum loads a struct. of material can take.

- Stiffness: How far a make of struct. can deform during certain loads, if there's little deformation with a load then it's a very stiff/rigid material, if large deformation with same load then the material is flexible (unstiff).

• Anatomy of a structure:

- A structure is an Assembly of structural elements

- Each element participates in (some of) the functions of the struct.

- Structure has coherence.

- Structural elements are joined together.

- Structural elements are derivatives of a beam

I-beam
flange

Web.

→ FROM TRUSS TO BEAM:

• What happens when 2 diagonal rods are used?

+ The structure becomes:

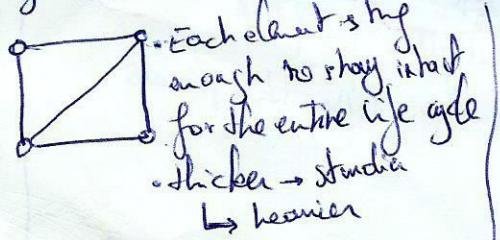
- More difficult to analyse (no hinge at corner)

- More difficult to calculate.

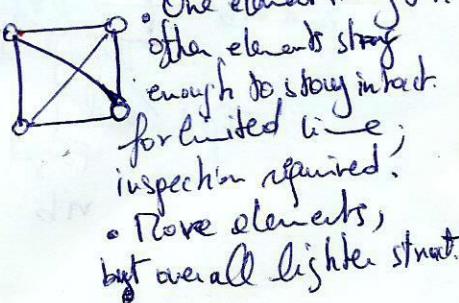
- heavier? X

+ The one advantage: The struct. has some 'reserve' (one rod may fail) - fail safe!

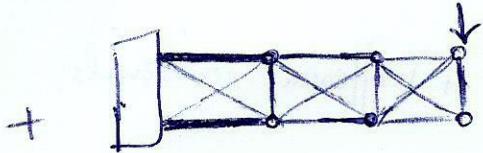
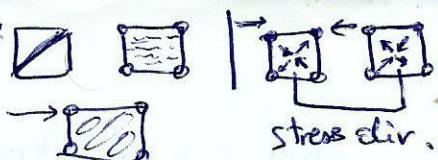
safe life:



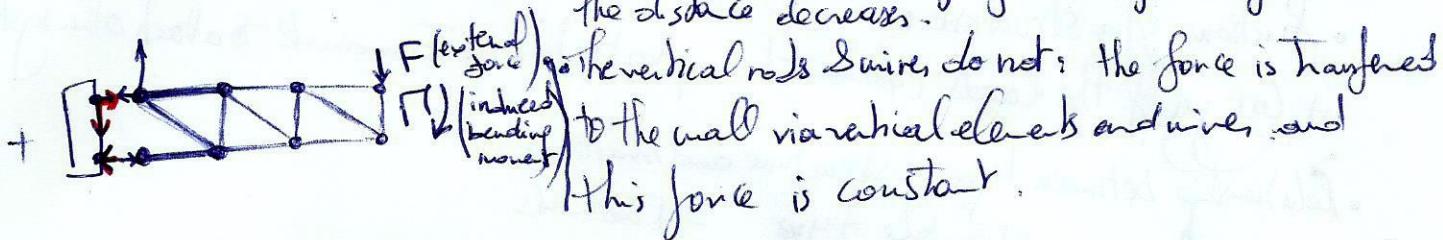
Fail safe:



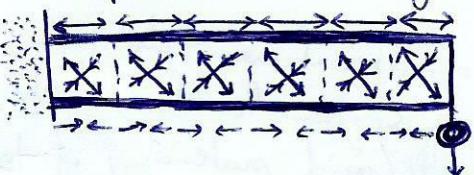
+ The rod can be replaced by a thin sheet.



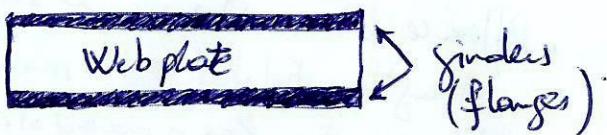
"Wire braced" structure / combination of rods & slabs.
Increasing thickness of the rods to the left; the moment grows larger when we go from right to left because the distance decreases.



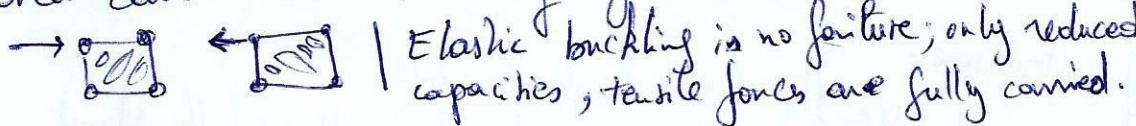
- Truss applies force to the supports (red arrows); support reacts on Truss for equilibrium (blue arrows)
- Truss can be replaced by sheet metal. → web plates - shear force.
- Web plate instead of diagonal tubes - girders - tension and compression force.



simplified:



→ When applying high forces on the structure, buckling starts. Compression forces cause local buckling of sheets.



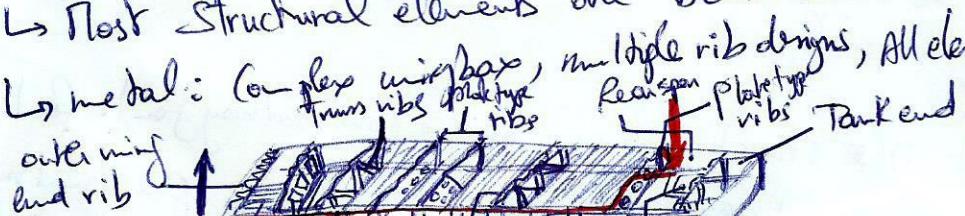
→ Shell structures:

- Shell structure: load bearing thin sheet material (incl. stressed skin), with stiffening elements.
- Monocoque: structure consisting of only a load bearing skin
 - ↳ Semi-monocoque (semi-monocoque): with some supporting elements.

→ Principle structural elements: (PSE)

- Principal structural elements: primary structures: carry loads; failure is catastrophic
- Non-principal structural elements: secondary structures: failure not catastrophic (e.g. fairings, hatches).

↳ Most structural elements are "beam-like" elements.



We can transport a vertical force through the root of the wing to make equilibrium (with web plates), some with bending moment or compression or tension (all loads have to have a load path).