Final Design Proposal

THE DELTA MONSTER
An RPV Designed to Investigate the Aerodynamics of a Delta Wing Planform

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AERODYNAMIC DATA ACQUISITION FOR A DELTA WING MODEL USING A REMOTELY PILOTED VEHICLE

AE441: AIRCRAFT SYSTEMS DESIGN
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CHAPTER 1

EXECUTIVE INFORMATION
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The mission requirements for the performance of aerodynamic tests on a delta wing planform posed some very unique problems, these included aerodynamic interference, structural support, data acquisition and transmission instrumentation, aircraft stability and control, and propulsion system implementation. However, since the overall integrity of the aircraft is of primary importance the preliminary design work outlined in this document was performed in order to arrive at a fundamentally solid design suitable for further development. This specifications of this design is summarized in Table 1.1.

The proposed aircraft is a test bed for a delta wing planform model used in aerodynamic testing. Presently, the overall aerodynamic configuration of the proposed aircraft incorporates twin tail booms, a low horizontal tail, twin vertical tails, a relatively large fuselage, and a low-mounted, rectangular-planform wing (see Figure 1.1). With the exception of the twin tail booms, which are the result of concerns over the dissipation of the vortices shed from the delta wing model, all of the configurational components are relatively conventional.

This aircraft is uniquely suited for the acquisition of aerodynamic data from a delta wing planform model because it was design for this purpose. The data acquisition system incorporated in this design has the advantage of being extremely fast. It can read 100 pressure ports virtually simultaneously! During each test flight the test engineer will be able to test any of 20 angles of attack in the Reynold's number range of 550,000 to 1,650,000 and 28 tests are possible during each flight due to an average flight duration of 30 minutes.

This aircraft will be catapult launched so as to expend minimal fuel and also to allow for an extremely short take-off distance. Once in the air the aircraft will be manually controlled until the test altitude is reached, at which time control will be transferred to a computer-based, automatic control system. This will allow for the standardization of the data acquisition procedure. As a safety feature the test engineer (or technician) always reserves the right to override the automatic system and resume manual control. After the flight (average duration of 30
minutes) the proposed aircraft will land on the deployed spring-loaded landing gear.

The propulsion system proposed for this design utilizes a ducted fan unit housed in the rear of the fuselage. This system was chosen and developed because of concerns over the quality of flow over the test model. By removing flow from the propulsion unit from the upper surface of the aircraft (wings, forward end of fuselage, rear end of fuselage, etc.), good flow quality should be ensured.

The overall structural integrity of the aircraft is quite sound. The results of the preliminary design studies revealed that conventional, light-weight, low cost materials could be utilized for the fabrication of this aircraft. Hence, the entire aircraft will be constructed of balsa, spruce, and a shear carrying thin plastic covering (e.g. Monokote™).

The aerodynamic integrity of the aircraft is also quite sound. Because of the twin tail boom configuration, potentially disrupted flow from the test model will not be allowed to impinge upon the tail control surfaces. Also, the model will be mounted in a region above the fuselage out of the boundary layer.

From a stability and control point of view this aircraft is also quite attractive. Due to the placement and size of the tail surfaces stability is assured, while the controllability of the aircraft remains intact. Also, due to the placement of the model above and slightly aft of the aircraft center of gravity the pitching moment created by the lift and drag on the model will work to cancel each other resulting a minimal net pitching moment.

Although this aircraft was design as a sort of "work-horse" aircraft, it still boasts some good performance characteristics. Since this type of data acquisition can only be accomplished in flight, a typical flight duration (30 minutes) is most appealing. The proposed aircraft is also able to climb efficiently expending minimal fuel. Finally, the flight ceiling allows for a diverse testing environment.

The proposed aircraft design, which evolved from a team concept selection study, seems to be fundamentally solid. This aircraft utilizes some relatively common aircraft technology at this stage in the design process, but could be easily adapted to incorporate more advanced technologies, especially in the areas of materials and data acquisition.
TABLE 1.1 SUMMARY OF SPECIFICATIONS

I. Overall Dimensions
   a. Total Weight.................................25.0 pounds (with fuel)
   b. Dry Weight....................................18.2 pounds
   c. Aircraft Width..............................14 feet
   d. Aircraft Length.............................5.22 feet
   e. Aircraft Height.............................1.33 feet

II. Aerodynamics
   a. Wing Airfoil.................................NACA 4415
   b. Wing Span....................................14 feet
   c. Wing Chord...................................1 foot
   d. Wing Area...................................14 square feet
   e. Aspect Ratio.................................14

III. Propulsion System
   a. Type..............................................Single ducted fan
   b. Power............................................5 horsepower
   c. Fuel Capacity...............................1.3 pounds
   d. Specific Fuel Consumption..............0.75 ounces/minute-SBhP

IV. Performance
   a. Range..........................................224.5 miles
   b. Endurance....................................6.7 hours
   c. Ceiling......................................25000 feet (absolute)
      23350 feet (service)
   d. Maximum Rate of Climb....................42.09 feet/second

V. Launch and Retrieval
   a. Launch System..............................Catapult
   b. Landing System.............................Spring-loaded Gear
VI. Data Acquisition System
   a. 100 pressure ports
   b. 2 inclinometers
   c. 1 RCT-3 transmitter
   d. 1 RCRI-1C receiver
   e. 1 RTEI encoder
   f. 1 RTDI decoder
   g. 1 RTI1 telemetry interface
   h. 10 Tattletale Model 5 data acquisition systems
   i. 120 pressure tubes
   j. 1 yaw indicator
   k. 1 heading indicator

VII. Materials
   a. Wing .......................................................... Spruce/Balsa/Monokote™
   b. Tail Booms ............................................. Spruce
   c. Fuselage .................................................. Spruce/Balsa
   d. Tail Surfaces ........................................ Spruce/Balsa/Monokote™

VIII. Loadings
   a. Overall ..................................................... 2g
   b. Wing .......................................................... 4.08 pounds/square foot

IX. Estimated Cost ...................................................... $15,260.00
FIGURE 1.1

3-VIEW FINAL DESIGN DRAWING

SCALE 3/8 IN = 1.0 FT
THE DELTA MONSTER MISSION

To eliminate the problems of wall interference, free stream turbulence, and the difficulty of achieving dynamic similarity between the test and actual flight aircraft that are associated with aerodynamic testing in wind tunnels, the concept of the remotely piloted vehicle (RPV) as a flying test bed was pursued. The design of a remotely piloted vehicle which can perform a basic aerodynamic study on a delta wing was the main objective for the Green mission - the Delta Monster. Since sweep angle has a significant influence on the performance of the delta wing sweep angles of greater than 45 degrees were to be considered for this mission. The constraints on testing dictated that the delta wing was to be capable of attaining angles of attack of +40 degrees over a Reynold's number range of 40,000 to 1,000,000. To perform similar aerodynamic studies to those performed in the wind tunnel, the delta wing would need to be highly instrumented. Instrumentation to study the formation and location of the leading edge vortex was the major concern for the mission, however, an attempt at flow field visualization would also be feasible. Other measurement requirements include airspeed, angle of attack, altitude, rate of climb, and the control surface position to maintain the integrity of the systems described.

The proposed RPV was also subject to other design constraints. First, all testing of the RPV was to be accomplished within the line-of-sight of the test pilot. Secondly, the takeoff and landing was to be accomplished in a circular area of 150 foot radius with a 50 foot obstacle clearance. Finally, the RPV was to be fully self-contained and capable of being assembled and launched in 30 minutes by two people. These requirements have been summarized in Table 2.1.

The proposed Delta Monster will incorporate the capabilities to achieve the above stated goals. It will be catapulted using a 20 foot launch system which will accelerate the aircraft to 50 ft/s in under 1 second (a 2g acceleration). Since a majority of the flight will be straight and level, 2g's (during launch) was considered to be the maximum loading on the Monster. The primary test altitude will be 800 feet and the RPV will be manually flown to this altitude. To initiate the testing sequence,
the pilot will position the Delta Monster at a specified starting position in the test loop and switch to an automatic control system. This system, composed of hundreds of sensors, several gyroscopic position indicators, and various other instruments, will then stabilize the velocity of the RPV, maintain the proper angle of the delta wing, and fly straight and level for 30 seconds. Since the initial 15 seconds of steady, level flight will be used for velocity and angle of attack adjustments, the actual flight data on the delta wing will be taken for only half of the 30 second straight flight time. The course will be an oval "race" course with a minimum length of 3000 ft (0.568 miles) at the minimum testing velocity of 50 ft/s, and a maximum length of 9000 ft (1.7 miles) at 150 ft/s. Test data will be collected from the delta wing and other instruments during the straight portions of the course while maintaining the delta wing at a constant angle of attack. However, during each subsequent test leg the velocity is increased by 5 ft/s. One hundred pressure ports will be controlled by the control system and data collection will begin when the flight conditions have stabilized. Allowing for the full minute for each of the straight legs, and 30 seconds for each turn around, the total flight duration will be approximately thirty minutes. The landing will be accomplished with remotely activated, pop-out, tripod landing gear. The flight will then be repeated after downloading the information from the onboard computers, performing delta wing adjustments, and refueling. This allows for several tests on a good day.

The design goal of performing basic aerodynamic studies of the flow over the delta wing is accomplished using the 100 pressure ports on the wing. The Delta Monster is instrumented to sweep through delta wing angles of attack while maintaining test velocity. Using a delta wing root chord of ten inches, the Reynold's number range specified from the onset of the mission was determined to be unrealistic. The range that can be tested with the Delta Monster was narrowed to 350,000 to 1,000,000. Finally, the ease with which the models can be interchanged makes the design compatible with wind tunnel testing.
THE DELTA MONSTER

MISSION REQUIREMENTS

DESIGN GOAL -

The use of a remotely piloted vehicle for the collection of aerodynamic data at low Reynold's numbers for a low aspect ratio delta wing.

OBJECTIVES -

- Perform basic aerodynamic studies on a delta wing with a sweep angle greater than 45 degrees.

- Perform these studies at various angles of attack and Reynold's numbers:

  Angles  0 to 40°  Reynold's Number  350,000 to 1,000,000

- Instrument the delta wing to determine the primary leading edge vortex formation and location, using pressure measurements and/or flow visualization.

- Provide an data acquisition system to collect all necessary data including airspeed, angle of attack, etc.

Table 2.1

2-3
CHAPTER 3

CONCEPT SELECTION STUDY
CONCEPT SELECTION STUDY

Since the mission definition for the proposed aircraft required the capability to perform aerodynamic tests on delta wing planforms, a delta wing surface needed to be incorporated into the design. The selection of the final aerodynamic configurational concept was accomplished based on three primary competing concepts. These concepts were 1) a main delta wing acting as the primary lifting surface and also a test surface, 2) a delta wing canard acting as a control surface and a test surface, and 3) a delta wing model mounted on top of a test bed aircraft.

The first concept, which is depicted in sketch form in Figure 3.1, provided for the testing of an actual main lifting surface with a delta wing planform. This concept also included a fuselage in order to avoid a flying wing configuration (with its inherent stability problems) and also to house the data acquisition and transmission equipment. Also, this concept included an aft tail assembly comprised of the horizontal and vertical tail surfaces (stabilizers and control surfaces) in order to move the control surfaces off the testing surface thereby eliminating any abrupt discontinuities on this surface. This proposed aircraft concept would launch with the aid of a catapult and glide to a belly landing upon completion of its flight.

Unfortunately, there were some concerns with the overall integrity of the first concept. First, due to the main delta wing planform, the aircraft weight would be high. Secondly, according to the mission definition, this aircraft would need to fly at high angles of attack, which, with a main delta wing, would necessitate the use of an extremely powerful propulsion system. Thirdly, because the leading edge vortices on a delta wing planform are comprised of violently swirling air cones which break down into turbulent flow and drift aft off of the main wing, it would be possible for the tail surfaces to have been in regions of disrupted flow. This condition could have possibly led to loss of control power. Lastly, since high angles of attack needed to be tested, this configuration would have needed to be in a climb while taking data. Because the ambient conditions (temperature, density, and static pressure) vary in the atmosphere with altitude they would have been changing during the data
Figure 3.1
Concept No. 1  Main Delta Wing

Figure 3.2
Concept No. 2  Canard Delta Wing
acquisition. This would have produced less than optimum data and eliminated the possible comparison with existing wind tunnel data.

The second competing concept, depicted in sketch form in Figure 3.2, provided for the testing of a delta wing surface which also served as a control surface. This concept allowed for a weight savings due to the dual purpose delta wing surface (one surface instead of two). Also, since the canard is a forward mounted surface, the freestream would be assumed to be somewhat free from disruption. The concept also included a tapered main delta wing with an elevator, ailerons, twin vertical stabilizers with rudders, and a twin turbo-prop propulsion system.

Again, there were disadvantages associated with this conceptual configuration. First, two delta wing surfaces would have provided for very high weight and drag which would again necessitate the use of an extremely powerful propulsion system and would also add to the already high weight. Secondly, the flow into the turbo-prop engines could have been disrupted providing for a disrupted freestream over the test surface. Thirdly, the presence of the fuselage between the two halves of the test surface/canard would have immediately eliminated possible comparisons with existing wind tunnel data. Fourthly, there would have been an inherent conflict between the test surface angle of attack needed for testing and that needed to trim the aircraft. Also, again, the control surfaces located at the rear of the main wing could possibly have been in regions of broken flow allowing for the possible loss of control power. Lastly, the high angle of attack data would have been taken in a climb with changing ambient conditions which would have provided less than optimum data.

The third and final competing configurational concept, shown in sketch form in Figure 3.3, involved a test bed aircraft with a delta wing model mounted on top near the center of gravity of the aircraft/model system. This concept featured a twin tail construction in order to provide space for the leading edge vortices to escape without impinging upon the tail structure or the control surfaces. Also incorporated into this concept was a low horizontal tail surface which allowed for this surface to have seen the freestream even in a climb (no blockage due to the remainder of the aircraft), a low wing which would have moved the circulation distribution of the wing away from the test surface, a large fuselage to
FIGURE 3.3
CONCEPT NO. 3  FINAL CONCEPT
house all of the data acquisition and transmission equipment, a single ducted fan propulsion unit to remove the possibility of propeller flow near the test surface, and a tripod mounting support for the test surface which positioned the model above and slightly aft of the center of gravity of the aircraft providing for some cancellation of the effects of the lift and drag produced by the model on the moment about the center of gravity of the entire system.

This third concept was eventually chosen to be developed further due primarily to its three major advantages. First, since the tail surfaces and structures were positioned away from the disrupted flow from the leading edge vortices, the pilot would always be assured controllability of the aircraft. Second, the data would be able to be collected in steady, level flight providing for constant ambient conditions and the best possible data. Last, because the model was to be mounted on top of a test bed aircraft and not integrated into the aircraft's primary systems, different models could be mounted on this test bed and tested.
CHAPTER 4

AERODYNAMICS
AERODYNAMIC DESIGN

DRAG PREDICTION

Drag prediction was the primary focus of the aerodynamics group in the design stage of the aircraft. In order to calculate the drag on the aircraft a drag polar was found using the drag breakdown method. With this method the drag contribution of each component of the aircraft was found and incorporated into the drag polar for the entire vehicle. The drag breakdown technique is described in Brendel and Nelson\(^1\).

The zero lift drag coefficient, or the profile drag coefficient, \( C_{D_0} \), is calculated in the following manner:

\[
C_{D_0} = \sum C_{D_\pi} A_{\pi} / S.
\]

The \( C_{D_\pi} \) terms are the induced drag coefficients of each component based on experimental research. Normalizing the calculations for a wing planform area of 14 square feet the zero lift drag calculation for each component of the aircraft resulted in:

- **WING:** \( C_{D_\pi} = 0.0030 \)
  \( A_{\pi} = 2S \)
- **FUSELAGE:** \( C_{D_\pi} = 0.0024 \)
  \( A_{\pi} = 0.75 \pi d l \)
- **TAIL:** \( C_{D_\pi} = 0.0025 \)
  \( A_{\pi} = 2(Sh+Sv) \)
- **DELTA WING:** \( C_{D_0} = 0.006 \)

From this breakdown, a zero lift drag coefficient of 0.0146 was found. The zero lift drag coefficient for the delta wing test specimen was calculated using simple flat plate theory for a 45° sweep delta wing modelled as a triangular flat plate at zero angle of attack. This analysis
was assumed to suffice as a "worst case" delta wing induced drag coefficient.

A span efficiency factor of $e = 0.85$ was assumed for the aircraft based on a data bank of similarly sized aircraft. This leads to an induced drag coefficient of $0.027 \, CL^2$. The resulting drag polar is $CD = 0.0146 + 0.027 \, CL^2$ (shown in Figure 4.1).

This drag polar results in a minimum drag force of 1.12 lbs. at 50 ft/s and a maximum drag force of 5.61 lbs. at a velocity of 150 ft/s. These velocities represent the velocity range of our aircraft.

The drag breakdown technique is advantageous for developing a preliminary drag estimation in its consideration of each component of the aircraft and for its relative ease of application to the overall configuration of the aircraft.

**AIRFOIL SELECTION**

The criteria used for selecting the airfoil for this vehicle are the following:

1. High $C_D$
2. High $L/D$
3. Low $C_{Do}$
4. Low pitching moment
5. Moderately small maximum thickness
6. Suitable shape for modelling

The NACA 44 series airfoils were considered and found to meet the specified criteria. Two of the airfoils considered adequate for our mission requirements were the NACA 4412 and the NACA 4415. Both airfoils were considered for their camber, a rather blunt leading edge, their relatively flat bottom surfaces, and their section characteristics.

The NACA 4415 was the airfoil eventually selected for our aircraft. Its heavier weight, due to its large maximum thickness, was necessary due to landing requirements. Data for the NACA 4412 and the NACA 4415 is represented in Table 4.1:
Table 4.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NACA 4412</th>
<th>NACA 4415</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha (L=0) )</td>
<td>-3.8 degrees</td>
<td>-4.3 degrees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{m0}</td>
<td>-0.093</td>
<td>-0.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{i\alpha}</td>
<td>0.105 / degree</td>
<td>0.105 / degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. c.</td>
<td>.247c</td>
<td>.245c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha (C_{i \text{max}}) )</td>
<td>14 degrees</td>
<td>15 degrees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{i \text{max}}</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha ) (stall)</td>
<td>7.5 degrees</td>
<td>8 degrees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maximum thickness</td>
<td>0.12c</td>
<td>0.15c</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The coefficients presented here are section coefficients for the airfoils obtained from Nicolai\(^2\). The lift curves as well as the variation of C_{d} with C_{i} for the airfoil sections are found in Figures 4.2 & 4.3 (taken from Anderson\(^3\)).

**WING DESIGN**

The present design calls for a low mounted wing with a span of 14 feet. A dihedral of 8 degrees will be located outboard of the wing-fuselage juncture. This will provide the necessary roll stability for the aircraft.

The wing is to be low mounted so that it does not produce an induced flow field around the delta wing test surface. This aircraft has been designed to collect aerodynamic data and information concerning the vortex breakdown on the delta wing test surface. In order to get better results it is necessary that the flow over the delta wing be uninterrupted. A high mounted wing would interrupt the flow over the delta wing, thus the boundary layer and separation at high velocities and high angles of attack would result in turbulent flow over the delta wing. This would result in poor results. A low mounted wing, therefore, provides an undisturbed flow field over the delta wing enabling the design to meet the necessary mission requirements.
Figure 4.2 (from reference 3)
DELTA WING

A delta wing test surface with a root chord of 10 inches will be mounted above the fuselage of the aircraft. The design calls for a tripod mounting system which, by activating a servo changes the angle of attack of the delta wing. The mission requirements stipulate that an angle of attack range of 0 to 40 degrees for the delta wing be attainable.

At large angles of attack it is found that large lift coefficients are generated on the delta wing. At an angle of attack of 25 degrees for a 45° sweep delta a CL of 1.73 results from the equation:

$$CL = KP \sin \alpha \cos^2 \alpha + KV \cos \alpha \sin^2 \alpha$$

where KP and KV are constants relating to the flow around the delta wing. For a worst case analysis (delta sweep of 45°) KP and KV are both equal to 3.4. Therefore, at large angles of attack, lift must be "dumped" by the elevator control surfaces. The elevators therefore needed to be sized to compensate for this additional lift.

The lift provided by the delta wing also varies with the sweep angle. A range of sweep angles from 50 to 75 degrees has been proposed for the test wing. Preliminary studies using the Lin-Air™ program suggest that the delta wing will provide approximately 1 to 2% of the total lift of the aircraft at low angles of attack. From this range of sweep angles, the best sweep angle will be chosen according to constraints proposed in further studies by the aerodynamics group.

Drag on the delta wing also decreases as the sweep angle is increased. The lift and drag contributions of the delta wing decrease with increasing sweep angle partly because of the decreasing planform area of the delta wing. With a constant root chord, the planform area decreases as sweep increases.

The delta wing will be mounted near the aircraft's center of gravity so that it contributes a minimal moment about the center of gravity.
REFERENCES

CHAPTER 5

PROPULSION
PROPULSION

DESIGN OBJECTIVE
The purpose of this study was to design and analyze the performance of a ducted fan. A ducted fan is essentially a multibladed propeller encased by a shroud. Because very little technical information on ducted fans was available, a computer program was developed to perform this analysis.

REASONS FOR THE DUCTED FAN
The main reason for choosing the ducted fan as a propulsion unit is that it satisfies mission requirements. Because it is necessary to have a relatively steady flow over the mounted delta wing, flow acceleration and flow interference from the propulsion system are not desirable. A ducted fan satisfies this requirement by taking air and accelerating it through a duct to produce thrust. Conventional propulsion systems including propellers, turbofans, and turbojets are not viable alternatives for various reasons. A propeller would cause an unsteady flow over the delta wing, while turbofans and turbojets are characterized by excessive weight, fuel consumption, and thrust.

THEORY OF DUCTED FANS
One of the main advantages of using a ducted fan instead of a propeller is size. Because a ducted fan has a small diameter, it must take a relatively small amount of air and accelerate it quickly to produce thrust. Because of the low aspect ratio of the fan blades, the induced flow is considerable. However, the tip losses caused by the induced flow are negated because of the shroud. Furthermore, the fan must spin at a high number of revolutions per minute to produce thrust. This causes an inefficient use of engine power at low velocities (a similar analogy is trying to start a car in third gear as opposed to first gear). However, as the aircraft begins to move faster, the efficiency of the fan increases (see Figure 5.1). Thus, an aircraft using a ducted fan needs a greater takeoff distance or a catapult to provide the necessary takeoff
FIGURE 5.1

EFFICIENCY INCREASE FOR VELOCITY RANGE

![Graph showing efficiency increase for velocity range](image-url)
acceleration.

PROBLEMS WITH ANALYSIS
The biggest problem in analyzing the performance of the ducted fan is modelling the three dimensional effects which introduce significant error in the calculations. Instead of using a complex analysis technique such as cascade flow theory to account for blade interference, a simple model was used. The absolute angle of attack that each discrete airfoil section sees is strongly dependent on blade solidity, which is defined as the ratio of the total fan swept area to the total blade area. Because ducted fans are multibladed and operate at a high RPM setting, blade interference lowers the available thrust and engine power required. Furthermore, only a small absolute angle of attack is necessary to produce a sufficient amount of thrust. The effect of increasing the solidity of the fan reduces the absolute angle of attack (and therefore the thrust and power required) by increasing the induced angle of attack. Thus, to account for blade interference, the fan was modelled as having an infinite number of blades, with the solidity becoming the ratio of the swept volume of the blades to the total blade swept area, giving it a value equivalent to the mean chord of the blade.

COMPUTER PROGRAM
The computer program that was developed to analyze the design is given in Appendix 5.1. The program uses a simple blade element model (see Figure 5.2), and corrects for altitude, compressibility, and the induced angle of attack using the method described in the previous section. In the program, the rpm setting is entered and remains a fixed parameter. The program then goes through the range of flight velocities, calculating the thrust and power required at each of the nine equidistant radial stations. From these calculations, the thrust and power coefficients are plotted as a function of advance ratio. In addition, the program has an option to print the local section parameters. These are used to analyze the aerodynamic performance of the blade over the range of flight velocities. Appendix 5.2 lists the local section parameters for the final design.
FIGURE 5.2
(from ref. 1)
RESULTS

From the computer program, a blade design was developed for the ducted fan. For the final design, a NACA 0006 was selected for the airfoil section. This airfoil provides an excellent lift to drag ratio for the full range of velocities from blade root to tip. The section lift and drag coefficients for the NACA 0006 are given in Figures 5.3 and 5.4. In addition, the fan has 5 blades and the diameter of the fan is 6 inches. The hub has a radius of 1 inch, and the blade has a span of 2 inches. The blade itself is shown in Figure 5.5, and has a linear twist of -20 degrees (40 degree pitch at the root and 20 degree pitch at the tip). The fan unit operates at a fixed value of 19500 revolutions per minute (325 rev/sec). The results for this blade design are listed in Table 5.1 (thrust is given in pounds and power required in horsepower), and thrust and power coefficient curves are plotted in Figures 5.6 and 5.7.

Because this design did not take into account inlet ram drag, fuselage interference, or the presence of nondirected flow within the duct, these results were reduced by a conservative, arbitrary value of 50%, and are given in Table 5.2. Plots of the thrust and power coefficient curves are given in Figures 5.8 and 5.9. These are the results used in the performance calculations, and they represent the expected results from an empirical analysis.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This analysis was performed to give estimates of the thrust and engine power required for a ducted fan unit. Although the results are relatively accurate (based on the thrust produced and power required by similar commercial fan units), it is now necessary to either fabricate or purchase a ducted fan and run empirical tests in a wind tunnel to substantiate the analytic results produced by this study.
FIGURE 5.3
(from ref.2)
FIGURE 5.4

(from ref. 2)
Blade Design for Ducted Fan

5 in → 1 in → 5 in →

2 in

1 in

FIGURE 5.5
FAN SPEED (REV/SEC) = 325,000
BLADE PITCH SETTING (DEGREES) = 50.0000
ALTITUDE (FT) = 0.00000E+00
BLADE ELEMENT WIDTH (IN) = 0.250000
ANALYSIS INCLUDES INDUCED FLOW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADVANCE RATIO</th>
<th>THRUST</th>
<th>POWER REQUIRED</th>
<th>CT</th>
<th>CP</th>
<th>EFFICIENCY</th>
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</thead>
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<td>23.4</td>
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<td>1.74641</td>
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<td>0.33946</td>
<td>25.9</td>
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**TABLE 5.1**

*ORIGINAL PAGE IS OF POOR QUALITY*
Figure 5.2

Advance Ratio

Figure 5.6

Theoretical Thrust and Power Coefficients
FAN SPEED (REV/SEC) = 325.000
BLADE PITCH SETTING (DEGREES) = 30.0000
ALTITUDE (FT) = 0.00000E+00
BLADE ELEMENT WIDTH (IN) = 0.250000
ANALYSIS INCLUDES INDUCED FLOW

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**TABLE 5.2**

**ORIGINAL PAGE IS OF POOR QUALITY**
FIGURE 5.8

THRUST COEFFICIENT FOR A 6" DIAMETER DUCTED FAN

THRUST COEFFICIENT

0.3  0.4  0.5  0.6  0.7  0.8  0.9  1.0
ADVANCE RATIO
FIGURE 5.9

POWER COEFFICIENT FOR A 6" DIAMETER DUCTED FAN

POWER COEFFICIENT

0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9 1.0

ADVANCE RATIO

0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9 1.0
REFERENCES


LIBRARY 'PLOTLIB'
DIMENSION THRUST(21), POWER(21), TCOEFF(21), PCOEFF(21), ARJ(21),
+ EFF(21), HPOWER(21), V(21)
REAL M
M=6
WRITE(1,*) 'ENTER DESIRED FAN RPM'
READ(1,*) RN
WRITE(1,*) 'ENTER FINITE BLADE ELEMENT WIDTH'
READ(1,*) DR
WRITE(1,*) 'ENTER FLIGHT ALTITUDE (IN FEET)'
READ(1,*) H
WRITE(1,*) 'ENTER 1 FOR SIMPLE BLADE ELEMENT MODEL, 2 FOR INDUCED
+ LOW EFFECTS'
READ(1,*) K
WRITE(1,*) 'ENTER BLADE PITCH AT ROOT (DEGREES)'
READ(1,*) P
WRITE(1,*) 'ENTER 1 TO BYPASS INCREMENTAL PRINT OPTION, 2 TO PRINT
+ INCREMENTAL ANALYSIS'
READ(1,*) N
PHI=0.0
BETA=0.0
DETA=0.0
THETA=0.0
ALPHA=0.0
CL=0.0
CD=0.0
VR=0.0
QINF=0.0
DL=0.0
DD=0.0
DT=0.0
RN=RN/60.0
RHO=0.0023769
RHO1=0.0
PI=3.141592654
CC=0.16666667
D=0.5
A=0.0035662
RAIR=1716.0
SIGMA=2.0
TEMP=58.0
G=32.2
AO=6.1155
*************************************************
* STANDARD ATMOSPHERIC MODEL ALTITUDE CORRECTIONS*
 TEMP=TEMP+460.0
RHO1=RHO*EXP(-(G*H)/(RAIR*TEMP))
DO 20 VINF=50.0, 151.0, 5.0
I=0
D=D+1
T=0.0
G=0.0
PHI=0.0
PHID=0.0
DO 20 RR=1.0, 3.0, DR
RR=DR/12.0
C=CC-2.0*(0.25*((RR-1.0)/12.0))
BEA=0.0
I=I+1
PHI=ATAN(VINF/(2.0*PI*RN*RR))
PHID=PHI*180.0/PI
C
DO 10 RR=1.0, 3.0, DR
RR=DR/12.0
C=CC-2.0*(0.25*((RR-1.0)/12.0))
BEA=0.0
I=I+1
PHI=ATAN(VINF/(2.0*PI*RR))
PHID=PHI*180.0/PI
**************************
* PITCH SETTING *
**************************
IF(X.EQ.1) THEN
ALPHA=BETA-PHID
**************************
* INDUCED FLOW CORRECTIONS*

ELSEIF (K EQ. 2) THEN
  BETA = (PI / 180.0)
  THETA = ((BETA - PHI) / (1.0 + ((0.0*R*SIN(PHI))/(0.5*AO*D*SIGMA))))
  PHI = PHI + THETA
  ALPHA = BETA - PHI
ENDIF

IF (ALPHA < -10.0 .AND. ALPHA > -32.0) THEN
  ALPHA = ALPHA + 10.0
ELSEIF (ALPHA < 10.0) THEN
  CL = 0.9 + (0.0397 - (ALPHA))
ELSEIF (ALPHA < 32.0) THEN
  ALPHA = ALPHA - 10.0
  CL = 0.9 - (0.0397 - (ALPHA))
ELSE
  CL = 0.0
ENDIF

CD = 0.005 + (0.00397 - (CL**2))
VR = 2.0*PI*RN*R/(COS(PHI))
M = VR/SQRT((1.4*RAIR*TEMP))

C **************************************************************
C *ISENTROPIC COMPRESSIBILITY CORRECTION*
C *******************************************************

IF (M > 0.3) THEN
  RHO = RHOI/((1.0 + (0.2*M**2))**2.5)
ENDIF

GINF = 0.5*RHO*(VR**2)
DL = CL*GINF*C*DR
DD = CD*GINF*C*DR
DT = DL*COS(PHI) - DD*SIN(PHI)
DQ = (DL*SIN(PHI) + DD*COS(PHI))*R
T = T + DT
Q = Q + DQ

IF (N <= 2) GO TO 10
IF (I.EQ.1) THEN
  WRITE(IWR,*)
  WRITE(IWR,*)
  WRITE(IWR,*)
  WRITE(IWR,*)
ENDIF

READ(IWR,*) R, PHID, BETA, ALPHA, CL, CD, DL, DD, DT, DQ

CONTINUE

WRITE(IWR,*)
WRITE(IWR,*)
WRITE(IWR,*)
WRITE(IWR,*)

END

WRITE(IWR,*) 'FAN SPEED (REV/SEC) = ', RN
WRITE(IWR,*) 'BLADE PITCH SETTING (DEGREES) = ', PITCH
WRITE(IWR,*) 'ALTITUDE (FT) = ', H
WRITE(IWR,*) 'BLADE ELEMENT WIDTH (IN) = ', DR
ELSEIF(K_EQ. 2) THEN
WRITE(IWR,*) 'ANALYSIS INCLUDES INDUCED FLOW'
ELSE
WRITE(IWR,*) 'ANALYSIS INCLUDES NO INDUCED FLOW'
ENDIF

WRITE(IWR, 130)

WRITE(IWR, 140)
140 FORMAT( ' ', F10.5, 2F15.1, 3F15.5)

NP=21
ND=21
NF=1
IOPT=-1
CALL TPLACE('UPH')
CALL TPLOT(IOPT, ARJ, TCOEFF, NP, ND, NF)
CALL TLABEL('ADVANCE RATIO', 'THRUST COEFFICIENT')
CALL TPLACE('LOH')
CALL TPLOT(IOPT, ARJ, PCOEFF, NP, ND, NF)
CALL TLABEL('ADVANCE RATIO', 'POWER COEFFICIENT')
CALL TITLE('THEORETICAL THRUST AND POWER COEFFICIENTS')
CALL TPLOT(IOPT, V, EFF, NP, ND, NF)
CALL TLABEL('VELOCITY (ft/s)', 'EFFICIENCY')
CALL TITLE('EFFICIENCY INCREASE FOR VELOCITY RANGE')
CALL STCP
END
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CHAPTER 6

WEIGHTS AND BALANCE
WEIGHT AND BALANCE

In order for an aircraft to be controllable, the center of gravity (cg) must be located in a favorable position. In regular transport planes the cg can be greatly effected by passengers or cargo placement. However, for this test vehicle the cg travels only slightly because the equipment is positioned permanently. Therefore, the only consideration for cg travel is the consumption of fuel throughout the flight.

The major factor in determining the shape of the fuselage was the accommodation of the ducted fan unit, while the fuselage size was determined by the volume of equipment being used. The resulting size of the fuselage was 36 inches in length with a maximum diameter of 10 inches tapering to six inches. The cg of the fuselage had to be located between 16 and 20 inches from the forward end in order for the aircraft to be stable. Since the quarter chord of the wing falls within this range the equipment was positioned so that the cg of the fuselage was close to the quarter chord.

The fan and engine were positioned at the rear of the fuselage so that the propulsion system could exhaust directly out the back. A scoop was positioned slightly below the fuselage to increase the airflow to the fan unit, and the throttle servo was located above the engine inside the fuselage so that it could be easily connected to the engine.

Another system located at the rear of the fuselage was the pressure measurement system. This system contains two banks of pressure transducers, one on each side of the fuselage. Since the delta wing was positioned slightly aft of the cg and above the main wing, having the pressure transducers at the rear allowed the pressure tubes to be run directly up the rear struts of the delta wing support structure to the pressure taps located on the surface of the wing.

The computer system, which consists of the data acquisition equipment and the communications pack, was located near the center of the fuselage. Since the data from the pressure banks needed be relayed to the data acquisition equipment the two systems were placed near each other to reduce the amount of wiring running through the fuselage.

Finally, the guidance system was located in the forward section of the
fuselage. Included in this system were two inclinometers, a heading indicator, and a yaw indicator. Since these components were relatively heavy they were placed in the forward portion so they could counteract the weight of the engine in the rear. In addition, there was a battery pack and a nose wheel located in the forward section (see Figure 6.1).

The remainder of the aircraft weight consisted of the fuel system. This system was contained in the wings and was to be comprised of two 0.25 gallon tanks.

By using weight estimations for single engine RPVs the weights of the aircraft components were determined. This analysis resulted in a total aircraft weight estimate of 28 pounds which was used for all design calculations.

The weights for each part of the structure were determined by using the size and density of the material for that section. Since balsa and spruce (two woods) were found to be sufficiently strong to support the anticipated loadings the resulting weight of the aircraft was less than expected. This reduced RPV total weight was 19.5 pounds. Since the weight varied significantly from the initial estimate the center of gravity position was altered. The fuselage cg was found to be 21.27 inches from the forward edge of the fuselage due to the necessary location of the instrumentation.

With the determined fuel and component weights, the center of gravity for the RPV was determined to be 24 inches from the forward-most point of the aircraft. Since the cg should be located near the wing quarter chord, the allowable cg travel was determined to be from 18 to 20 inches from the same reference point. Therefore, the cg was at least 4 inches too far aft. Because the cg would travel as fuel was burned it would eventually reach 25.3 inches. The only way to compensate for this problem was to place ballast in the nose of the RPV. Since the initial estimate was greater than the proposed design weight, ballast could be added in the nose in order to adjust the center of gravity.

In order to locate the center of gravity at an optimal location (18 inches), 7.06 pounds of ballast was required in the nose. Upon depletion of the fuel the cg would have traveled 0.1 inches. An alternative was to locate the cg at 19 inches with a resulting travel of 0.3 inches and 5.5 pounds of ballast in the nose. This results in a favorable design.
FIGURE 6.1
INTERNAL CONFIGURATION

TOP VIEW

SIDE VIEW

1 square = 1 cm²
CHAPTER 7

STABILITY AND CONTROL
STABILITY AND CONTROL

STABILITY

The first concern in dealing with the proposed data collection vehicle was to design the aircraft so that it is stable without the presence of a delta wing.

The main stability mode analyzed for the aircraft was longitudinal stability. Since many of the physical parameters associated with longitudinal stability had already been established through other flight requirements the longitudinal mode was examined with respect to center of gravity position ($x_{cg}$) and length from the wing aerodynamic center to the tail aerodynamic center ($lt$).

From longitudinal stability it was determined that the aircraft must have a natural pitch up motion ($C_{m\alpha} > 0$) and must restore itself to equilibrium when disturbed ($C_{m\alpha} < 0$). In order for this to occur with the current flight configuration a tail length of at least three feet was required (Figures 7.1 & 7.2). This would insure stability for the entire range of center of gravity position chosen ($x_{cg} = 0.23c$ to $0.32c$).

A factor of concern for the vehicle in general was the overall weight. In order to keep the weight low while maintaining an acceptable degree of longitudinal stability it was thought that a tail length of around 3.3 feet would be appropriate for a center of gravity position near $0.28c$.

With the preliminary estimates made, a series of delta wings were added to the aircraft to determine their effect on stability and the feasibility of testing many different wings.

The first thing to note about this analysis is that a $C_{d\alpha}$ of 0.006 was assumed for all delta wing planforms. This number was calculated for a delta wing sweep of 45° and since all subsequent calculations are based on delta wing sweep angles varying from 45° to 75° this was taken as a valid approximation. The effect of the delta wing $C_{d\alpha}$ on aircraft $C_{m\alpha}$ was to reduce it from about 0.1 to 0.002; thus, for a sweep angle higher than 45° the aircraft $C_{m\alpha}$ would fall somewhere between these values.

Two parameters which now arose in the stability determination were the delta wing sweep angle and the position of the delta wing with
Figure 7.1 The Effect of Tail Length on Pitching Moment

Figure 7.2 Tail Length Effect on Aircraft Stability
respect to the main wing aerodynamic center. By examining Figure 7.3 it is evident that for all delta wings chosen the aircraft will be longitudinally stable.

Two other interesting points should be observed. The first is that as the delta wing aerodynamic center approaches the vehicle's center of gravity it has less of an effect on longitudinal stability. The other is that as the delta wing sweep angle is increased $c_m\alpha$ for the entire aircraft is less varied over a range of delta wing placements (see Table 7.1).

Initial indications are that the aircraft is feasibly longitudinally stable both with and without the delta wing present. This is important in the delta wing testing and is discussed under the topic of the delta wing.

Calculation was also done which showed the aircraft was also directionally stable. A point which needs to be addressed at this time is roll stability. It is hoped that a wing dihedral of approximately 7° or 8° will provide sufficient roll control of the vehicle.

**CONTROL**

As far as primary aircraft control is concerned, both longitudinal and directional modes were examined. From the aerodynamic parameters determined an elevator trim angle at cruise was determined. For a cruise $c_l$ of approximately 0.25 this angle was found to be in the range of -0.5° to -1.0°. These values are reasonable and leave sufficient elevator power to control the aircraft in non-cruise conditions.

For directional control a rudder control effectiveness on the order of -0.2 was found. Again this seems to be a reasonable value.

Also noteworthy in the area of control is the aircraft control during data acquisition. Since the delta wing(s) are to be tested at many angles of attack over a wide range of flight velocities it was of interest to determine whether it would be easier to vary flight velocity or delta wing angle of attack during testing. From Figure 7.4 it can be seen that varying the delta wing angle of attack over its entire range will produce only a minor change in angle of attack of the primary wing. However, by varying flight velocity during the test the primary wing angle of attack will
change almost 13 times more. Consequently the decision was made that the delta wing angle will be varied in flight and the fight velocity will be held constant.
Figure 7.3 Delta Wing Effect on Stability

\[ C_m(\alpha) \]

\[ X_{cg} \]
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Primary wing angle of attack as a function of Delta wing angle

---

**Figure 7.4**

Primary wing angle of attack as a function of Delta wing angle

- **v = 50 ft/s**
- **v = 75 ft/s**
- **v = 100 ft/s**
- **v = 125 ft/s**
- **v = 150 ft/s**

*Regular, Sharp-Edged Sweep Angle: 50° Chord = 10" Pr = 3.36 S = 83.9 in²*
CHAPTER 8

PERFORMANCE ESTIMATION
PERFORMANCE

Primarily designed to operate at low level altitudes, the Delta Monster achieves its maximum glide performance at speeds below the primary operating speeds. If the speed is reduced at altitude to achieve a maximum $\frac{\text{Cl}^{3/2}}{\text{Cd}} = 26.84$, the maximum glide distance for a given altitude can be obtained from Figure 8.1. If the power system fails or landing system becomes damaged during flight, the glide performance becomes critical. Energy dissipation can be maximized through use of Figure 8.2. At a max $\frac{\text{Cl}}{\text{Cd}} = 25.87$, the minimum rate of descent at altitude can be obtained from this graph.

For the desired testing mission, the minimum amount of fuel expended for a 28 minute test run is 1.323 lbs of fuel. This value was obtained by using varied propellor efficiencies and a thrust specific fuel consumption of 0.75 oz fuel/(min-shaft brake horsepower). Allowing for a one minute and twenty second sweep at each 5 ft/sec increment in velocity, the change in weight of the aircraft was computed as a function of velocity and can be found in Figure 8.3. The variation of $\frac{\text{Cl}^{3/2}}{\text{Cd}}$ and $\frac{\text{Cl}}{\text{Cd}}$ with velocity and change in weight is also charted (Figure 8.4).

The climbing performance of the Delta Monster at low level altitudes of concern is shown in Figure 8.5. This graph displays static rates of climb variation with velocities in the testing range. The maximum rates of climb at each altitude are plotted in Figure 8.6. This curve sets the absolute ceiling of the Delta Monster at 25000 ft and the service ceiling at 23,350 ft.

The maximum range and endurance were calculated using the Breguet formulas for velocities of 50 ft/sec, 100 ft/sec, and 150 ft/sec. These values are listed in Appendix 8 along with the formulas. The power coefficient was assumed to be a typical value of 0.5 lbs fuel/hp-hour again with varied propellor efficiency of 0.7. Note these values are at the typical operating speeds and not at the velocities for maximum range and endurance.
Fig. 8.1: Maximum Glide Performance

\[(\text{cl}/\text{cd}) \text{ max} = 26.835, \text{glide angle} = 2.2 \text{ deg}\]

Fig. 8.2: Maximizing Glide Endurance

maximum \((\text{cl}^{**1.5}/\text{cd}) = 25.87\)
Fig. 8.3: Weight Loss Over Testing Phase

- Total fuel weight for testing phase = 1.323 [lb]
- Total testing time = 28 [min]

Fig. 8.4: Lift and Drag Coefficients as Functions of Velocity

- For $c_l/c_d$ and $c_l^{*1.5}/c_d$ ratios against velocity [ft/s]
Fig. 8.5: Climbing Performance

Fig. 8.6: Ceiling Calculation
APPENDIX 8
Performance Parameters

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Flight Velocity</th>
<th>Propeller Efficiency</th>
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<th>Endurance [hours]</th>
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<td>E [hours]</td>
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Breguet Formulas

1. Endurance (propeller):
   \[ E = (\eta / \text{cp}) (\frac{C_L}{C_D}) (2\rho \text{s})^{1/2} \left( \frac{1}{\text{W}_f^{1/2}} - \frac{1}{\text{W}_i^{1/2}} \right) \]

2. Range (propeller):
   \[ R = (\eta / \text{cp}) (\frac{C_L}{C_D}) \ln(\frac{\text{W}_i}{\text{W}_f}) \]

Source
CHAPTER 9

SYSTEM OPERATION
SYSTEM OPERATION

LAUNCH / TAKEOFF

The proposed Delta Monster is to be catapult launched from a 20 ft. rail. This length allows a constant acceleration of 64.4 ft/s$^2$, taking the craft from rest to 50 ft/s (see Figure 9.1). Since, the stall velocity is 40 ft/s, this margin is reasonable. If the Monster could be built for higher loads, it could possibly be launched at 100 ft/s, the optimum launch velocity, which would maximize rate of climb, and time to climb to the mission altitude of 800 ft (Figures 9.2 & 9.3). Note that the 10 ft/s above stall velocity will allow the craft to climb, and allow the self-propulsion system to catch-up and stabilize.

The rail is to be inclined at 10 degrees to the horizontal. This will launch the craft at the angle necessary to clear a 50 ft obstacle in 300 ft. An additional benefit is the 3.5 ft that the launcher end is elevated. This gives the Monster a small margin in case the self-propulsion system can not obtain the necessary power just off the rail.

DATA COLLECTION AND INSTRUMENTATION

Three competing concepts were analyzed for use in obtaining in-flight data and for flight control of the aircraft. Complete autonomous RPV control, a ground link capable of full information transfer from the RPV to a ground station, and limited information transfer between the aircraft and the ground station were studied in order to determine the optimal data acquisition package for the mission requirements. In addition, the instrumentation required for the data acquisition was studied for both flight control and data acquisition. The parameters used as criterion for these studies were, accuracy, weight, volume, and cost. Finally, the integration of the data analysis routine into the flight mission profile was defined (see Figure 9.4).
Figure 9.4

Starting Point

- Very delta angle (90°)
- Straight and level
- Maintain velocity
- Switch to automatic flight control

Launch

Landing

800 ft above ground

V0 = 50 ft/s

V lounge = 55 ft/s

Flight Duration: 30 minutes

Max: 9,000 ft
Min: 3000 ft

Mission
FLIGHT CONTROL INSTRUMENTATION

Six critical flight indicators were determined to be adequate for control of the RPV, whether by an onboard computer or a ground link system. It was determined that control of the RPV would be accomplished by knowing aircraft angle of attack, roll angle, yaw angle, heading, velocity, and altitude. The integrated use of these indicators would not only allow automatic control of the aircraft but also would ensure aircraft stability during the critical data acquisition phases of the mission profile.

Several different methods for measuring angle of attack were available for the RPV. Some electronic angle measuring devices were cursorily examined for the use of angle of attack measurement, unfortunately, the settling time of these devices was more than a second, rendering their use for accurate flight attitude control insufficient. The use of a yaw tube was a strong possibility because of its high accuracy, but the need for durability, especially during landing and takeoff, precluded its use as it is required to be placed on a sting well away from the fuselage in order to obtain accurate readings.

The device that was chosen for the RPV was a windvane angle of attack sensor with motion being measured by a rotational variable differential transducer (RVDT), which has high accuracy. The RVDT is capable of measuring angle variations of as little as 0.15 degrees (output voltage .1 volt/°). The difficulty with this system is that it must be calibrated when installed to ensure that it reads the angle relative to the correct reference line. Additionally, since it is mounted on the side of the fuselage, a study should be done to determine effects of fuselage interference at various angles of attack.

The measurement of the roll angle will permit the operator (human or computer) to know if the aircraft is banked. Constraining the bank angle for accurate data acquisition would eliminate any instrumentation error due to the aircraft's acceleration. When not in the data acquisition mode this instrument could be used for turn control when coupled with a yaw indicator, the roll angle measured by an inclinometer. Although bulky this
instrument is highly accurate, capable of angle measurements of about 0.03°.

In conjunction with the roll indicator, a yaw indicator would be necessary in order to ensure coordinated turns and stable flight conditions for data acquisition. Since high accuracy of this device is not critical, a ball-type, liquid level such as that in general aviation aircraft could be coupled with an optical or magnetic sensor for the determination of ball location. Such a device could be manufactured in-house at little expense. Weight and volume could then be minimized by constructing the level with light-weight materials rather than purchasing such an off-the-shelf device. The use of a yaw indicator was deemed impractical for the same reasons as it could not be used as an angle of attack indicator.

The use of a heading indicator would be necessary in order for flight path control. Gyros used in private aviation have sufficient accuracy for use in the RPV. A system with more sophisticated gyros slaved to a magnetic heading indicator was deemed unnecessary. The gyro on the RPV would have to be adjusted during the powering of the onboard systems (before flight vehicle launch). Precession of the gyro was not expected to pose a problem as the estimated flight duration is 30 minutes. Precession during this period is predicted to be less than ten degrees as only gentle turning (no radical maneuvers, large contributors to precession) is expected. This deviation from the true heading would not be of concern as the flight vehicle would be within sight at all times. The heading indicator's primary use would be to ensure a constant heading during each data acquisition run.

Velocity of the aircraft would be measured with a simple pitot-static system. This would be located on the tip of one of the booms of the aircraft to ensure that fuselage effects are minimized. Although other systems, including a propeller velocity measurement device, were considered, the accuracy of the pitot system, its small weight, and its size precluded the use of another velocity measurement device. An additional benefit of the pitot-static system is that the static pressure can also be used for altitude control and for data reduction purposes.
By maintaining a set pressure altitude (as opposed to a radar sensing system or laser altitude system) one of the test parameters could be set, thereby maintaining at least one consistent parameter between individual tests. Additionally, space requirements for a pressure transducer would be minimal when compared to the other altitude sensing devices. Although actual altitude changes could be seen by the aircraft during its thirty minute flight because of a change in the ambient pressure, these would be minimal. The static pressure could also be used to measure rate of climb as long as some care is taken when differentiating the output signal from the pressure transducer (i.e. such as averaging old and new readings).

DATA ACQUISITION INSTRUMENTATION

The instrumentation required for accurate data acquisition of the delta wing can be divided into two groups: those that define the flight test conditions and those which read in the necessary data. Although the data acquisition system is designed to read most types of data for maximum test vehicle versatility, the focus of this section will be on the pressure distribution on the delta wing.

Instrumentation which will define the test conditions includes the velocity sensor, static pressure ports, ambient temperature sensor, and delta wing angle of attack sensor. Velocity and static pressure can be obtained from the flight control instrumentation. A thermocouple can be used for a temperature probe in order to obtain the temperature at altitude. This temperature can be quite different from the surface temperature depending on both the altitude of the RPV and the wind velocity and needs to be taken into account during data reduction. Lastly, a linear variable differential transducer (LVDT) will be required to measure the delta wing angle of attack. Used in conjunction with the aircraft angle of attack sensor, the delta wing's location with respect to the freestream can be accurately measured to within 0.2 degrees.

In order to maintain sufficient flexibility for testing, it has been determined that a maximum of 100 pressure taps will be required in order to fully instrument the top of a delta wing (with a worst case root chord of ten inches and a sweep angle of 45°). Keeping in mind the volume and
accuracy constraints, some miniature differential pressure transducers were found with maximum pressure differential readings of ±2 PSID with accuracies of ±0.05% full scale. These are ideal for this application as the pressures on the delta wing top when compared with the static pressure typically do not exceed one PSI. This pressure range allows the greatest accuracy for the tests. The combination of accuracy and small volume requirements at 13.4 pressure ports per cubic inch outweigh the high cost of the system at $100/port. The use of these ports allows a nearly simultaneous reading of all the ports by computer, yielding more precise pressure distributions than obtainable using a scanivalve device, especially when atmospheric disturbances make long term controlled test conditions nearly impossible.

DATA ACQUISITION/CONTROL SYSTEM

Three different systems were available: complete autonomous RPV control and data storage, a ground link capable of full information transfer from the RPV to a ground station, and limited information transfer between the aircraft and the ground station. Safety, weight and price of these three different systems were of primary concern.

The use of a control and data storage system in the RPV is advantageous in that the entire system is self-contained and does not require any ground link telemetry other than the manual control system used for takeoff and landing. This provides a drastic reduction in the cost of the system. However, safety considerations outweigh any monetary benefits gained through the use of this system. Once control is transferred to the test vehicle, the RPV is in the hands of the onboard computer. If this system malfunctions, there is the possibility that control will not be returned to the pilot on the ground. This presents a formidable safety problem, as an out of control 38 pound aircraft flying at 150 miles per hour is capable of doing an incredible amount of damage. Due to this dangerous possibility, this type of system was not considered past the early preliminary design stages.

The second system considered downlinked all the instrument readings to a ground based computer for instantaneous viewing. The flight
control data was then analyzed on the ground, and control information relayed to the aircraft to maintain the flight profile required for the particular test. This setup eliminated the safety problem inherent with the first system by transferring control from the computer to the manual transmitter in the event of a problem. This system would have the additional benefit of utilizing a redundant control system in case of failure of either system.

Once this system passed the safety concerns further research was done on alternate systems that could be used for this purpose. The result of this search was the development of a system that was capable of reading the 100 pressure ports, amplifying the signal for maximum accuracy, performing a 16-bit A/D conversion, converting these readings to pressures, and then sending the data to a transmitter for relay to the ground at 1200 baud. A data relay back to the RPV was capable of controlling the vehicle's flight and test conditions of the delta wing. The system was simple to use, compact, and highly accurate. It had the additional benefit that test data was almost instantaneously available for review. Unfortunately, the package weight of 17 pounds was far in excess of what was desired. This package would be an excellent option if the size of the test bed vehicle was not critical.

However, it was desired to keep the aircraft as light as possible, in order to allow the use of inexpensive construction materials. A hybrid of these two systems, utilizing an onboard computer for signal amplification, A/D conversion and data manipulation and storage with a ground link system for vehicle flight control combined the best features of both systems. This system has a redundant control system for safety and a small ground-linked system without the usual weight penalties associated with total data transfer.

The resulting system would be capable of transmitting 8 channels of data to the ground and back to the RPV. Angle of attack, roll angle, heading, yaw, velocity, and altitude could be transmitted to the ground for flight control with the other two channels being specified by the user before the flight. These signals would be read into a ground based computer which stored the control laws for the flight. The aircraft's
control surfaces could then be controlled by the ground based computer to achieve a desired flight condition. The ground based system would be able to control the elevator, rudder, ailerons, throttle, delta wing stepping motor (for angle of attack control), and a data acquisition trigger.

The onboard computer system would be ten computers hooked together in parallel which would be capable of reading eleven channels of data each with 10 bit A/D conversion possible. Each individual computer is capable of a conversion every 0.01 second, allowing a complete sweep of all pressure ports to be completed within a tenth of a second. The current data acquisition cycle calls for each port to be read 100 times, with the average and standard deviation of these readings then stored for retrieval on the ground. With 28K available for data storage, over one thousand test series could be stored before data would need to be downlinked to another computer.

**DATA ACQUISITION DURING THE MISSION**

The RPV is to be manually launched and controlled through climb to altitude after which control will be switched over to the ground based computer. Once this has been accomplished the computer will begin a series of "racetrack" ovals, with each circuit lasting two minutes. The straight legs of these ovals will be flown upwind or downwind, so that in the event of a strong headwind a manual correction could be entered into the computer to extend the upwind leg slightly to correct for drift and keep the RPV over the test range. Once the aircraft enters the first turn, it will begin the test cycle by adjusting the delta wing angle of attack and velocity for the first test condition. After completing the turn (within 30 seconds), the aircraft will be allowed fifteen seconds for the control system to assume a steady flight profile.

Upon completion of the waiting period, the data collection phase begins, with the ground based computer triggering the airborne computers to begin data collection. If any set limits on any of the flight control readings exceeds a set limit (such as a gust changing the angle of attack of the aircraft), data acquisition can be interrupted until the disturbance
passes or is corrected for by the ground based control system. Once the
ten seconds necessary to read each port a hundred times is completed, the
aircraft will begin its 180° turn. During the turn and settling phase, the
onboard computer would be manipulating the readings and recording the
average and standard deviation. This cycle then repeats up to nineteen
more times, the maximum time allowed for data acquisition being twenty
minutes. Control will then be returned to the ground pilot for entry into
the traffic pattern and landing.

RETRIEVAL / LANDING
The proposed Delta Monster will execute a standard runway landing.
The pilot will trigger a servo which will extend the landing gear. The
craft will descend on a 10 degree path, which will allow for the clearance
of a 50 ft obstacle 300 ft prior to touchdown. This descent could
alternately occur in a gentle, banking circle if constrained by objects or
visibility. Landing speed will be 45 ft/s, only slightly larger than stall
speed of 40 ft/s. Very simple estimates of ground roll distance, assuming
constant deceleration, maximum braking, and no skid, yielded a best case
distance of 303 ft (Hale, p. 141).
Bibliography

CHAPTER 10

STRUCTURES
STRUCTURAL DESIGN

INTRODUCTION

The specific design challenge at hand poses some very special problems. First, since the aircraft is to be used as a test bed for aerodynamic tests on a delta wing planform model the structural integrity of the aircraft must be such as to allow for odd flying conditions and configurations. Secondly, in order to remain aloft for a reasonable period of time to obtain sufficient data, the aircraft must be especially light. And, thirdly, due to the dependence of the aerodynamic surfaces on their respective positions relative to the freestream, the supporting structure must be sufficiently stiff so as not to alter the performance of this vehicle. Also, all calculations were to be performed within the flight envelope shown in Figure 10.1a.

In response to the previously mentioned challenges and concerns, an aircraft sub-structure has been analyzed. The results of the analyses performed indicated that the structure for the aircraft under consideration will be a relatively lightly loaded, light weight structure.

The main wing of the aircraft (NACA 4412 airfoil, 1 foot chord, 14 foot span) will be constructed from spruce, balsa, and a thin outer coating of shear load carrying Monokote™. These lightweight low strength materials were chosen primarily due to the light loading on the aircraft. Since the main wing was a critical area, a large portion of the analysis was performed on this sub-structure.

Another critical area was the twin tail booms. Since performance of the tail surfaces (both horizontal and vertical) depends on their respective geometric angle of attack which, in turn, hinges on the stiffness of the tail booms, a parametric trade study was performed in this area. The results of this study indicated that these structural elements could most effectively be constructed of hollow circular cross section (outside diameter = 1.25 in., inside diameter = 0.5 in.) spruce at a length of 3.3 ft. For this design, the elements' performance is expected to be quite good.

The other structural elements, including the horizontal tail surface,
vertical tail surface, and the fuselage were given lesser attention. Feasibility studies were performed on these sub-structures yielding favorable results allowing for construction also using spruce, balsa, and Monokote™. However, due to the low-weight, high-strength properties of composite materials, further investigation might allow for the use of these advanced materials.

**PRIMARY WING**

Considerable consideration was given to the structural design of the primary wing. Using the NACA 4412 airfoil shape as the base planform on which to model the wing, several design analysis techniques were used to determine the final design of the wing. Initially a lifting line and structural analysis program was developed (Appendix 10.1) to study the effect of the modeled planform cross sectional area on the highly stressed members at the root of the wing. The information obtained from this program was utilized in obtaining a more precise model of the wing to be incorporated in the final design of the wing using Swiftos™¹, a finite element code. This finite element analysis supported the conclusions taken from Appendix 10.1 and allowed for a more detailed structural analysis of the stressed members. The worst case load configuration was supported by a wing of balsa leading and trailing edge spars, and spruce main spars located at thirty percent of the chord. The final wing design can be seen in Figure 10.1 and structural details in Table 10.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Component</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Detailed Description</th>
<th>Root Stresses for Max Load (psi)</th>
<th>$s_{xx}$</th>
<th>$s_{yy}$</th>
<th>$s_{xy}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Spar</td>
<td>Spruce</td>
<td>Tapered (root to tip)</td>
<td></td>
<td>204.81</td>
<td>1160.33</td>
<td>-385.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading edge</td>
<td>Balsa</td>
<td>Shaped to LE</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.81</td>
<td>259.16</td>
<td>21.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trailing edge</td>
<td>Balsa</td>
<td>Shaped to TE</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.05</td>
<td>-229.52</td>
<td>-87.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ribs</td>
<td>Balsa</td>
<td>Shaped to Wing</td>
<td></td>
<td>-12.92</td>
<td>-4.00</td>
<td>-10.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheeting</td>
<td>Monokote™</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 10.1 Final Wing Design
LIFTING LINE PROGRAM

The use of this program requires a user generated data file including the necessary information concerning the model, spar locations, areas, moduli of elasticity, and densities of the materials. Several models were tested using the aforementioned program. Although very complex models were able to be tested, the results were most reasonable with the four spar area model. Several of the models tested can be seen in Figure 10.2, while the final model used for this program can be seen in Figure 10.3.

This program generates the lift and the drag distribution for the given flight configuration and calculated the stress resultants and stresses in any of the members from the loadings. For the final test case with this program it was determined that the worst case loading would be a two g load (60 pounds) occurring for both the maximum velocity of the proposed Delta Monster of 150 ft/s at 2 degrees angle of attack, and at 60 ft/s at an angle of 12 degrees. Several velocities and angles of attack were tested for this model and the results are tabulated in Table 10.2 (see Figures 10A2.1-10A2.14 in Appendix 10.2 for a more complete representation of the results of the loading and stress resultants from the test case).

Table 10.2
Test Case For Appendix 10.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Velocity (ft/s)</th>
<th>Angle (degrees)</th>
<th>Lift (lbs)</th>
<th>Drag (lbs)</th>
<th>Member Stress (psi)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>14.7  -22.7  10.0  0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>-36.8  74.3  -14.0  -17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>-108.9 210.1  -47.7  -43.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>60.6 (2 g)</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>-314.9 598.1  -143.9  -115.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>-36.5  70.5  -15.9  -14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>-137.4 248.9  -70.2  -38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>-240.5 428.7  -127.2  -60.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>58.1 (~2 g)</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>-345.4 609.0  -186.8  -81.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The load distribution was determined using Prandtl's lifting line theory (Anderson: Introduction to Flight) and were verified using the Lin-air program.
Figure 10.2 Models Tested

Figure 10.3 Final Test Case

Areas (in²)

1 0.0046
2 0.0045
3 0.0034
4 0.0068
lifting line program. Comparison of the results from the two lifting line programs can be seen in Table 10.3.

The loadings generated by the lifting line section of the program were the result of iterations to determine the stress resultants along this "complex beam". The methodology used for this analysis was a basic stress analysis as developed by Allen and Haisler. This analysis showed high levels of stress in the main spars and lower levels of stress in the leading and trailing edge spars. It was determined from this result that the main spars were to be made of spruce and the leading and trailing edge spars were to be of balsa construction. This drastically reduced the weight of the wing while maintaining appropriate levels of stress in all members. In each case, member #2, the upper main spar had the highest stress levels. This was consistent with what was expected because this spar is the main load carrying member. A graphical representation of the effect of the loading on the stress level of the second member can be seen in Figure 10.4. The design of the wing then is concerned with maintaining structural integrity of this main spar. The stress levels in the member of the model were presented in Table 10.2. To

### Table 10.3

**Lifting Line Comparison**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wing Position</th>
<th>Cl</th>
<th>Appendix 10.1 Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.0 (root)</td>
<td>.542</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.09 ft.</td>
<td>.540</td>
<td>1.09 ft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.163 ft.</td>
<td>.534</td>
<td>2.16 ft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.178 ft.</td>
<td>.522</td>
<td>3.178 ft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.115 ft.</td>
<td>.503</td>
<td>4.115 ft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.950 ft.</td>
<td>.474</td>
<td>4.950 ft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.663 ft.</td>
<td>.431</td>
<td>5.663 ft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.657 ft.</td>
<td>.278</td>
<td>6.657 ft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.914 ft.</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>6.914 ft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.0 (tip)</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
insure a reasonable factor of safety in the overall design and modeling technique, a more accurate representation of the wing was utilized though the Swiftos™ finite element code.

Concerns that arose from the program contained in Appendix 10.1 were analyzed and corrected as necessary. Initially, the lifting line subroutine was corrected and verified with the results from the Lin-air™ lifting line program (Table 10.3). Another concern was the modeling of the cross section of the wing. As mentioned earlier, several models were tested to determine the appropriate placement of the spars and material selection. Initially, the spars were made of the same material, spruce, however, this caused several problems in the stress distribution. It was determined that only the main spars needed to be made of spruce while the leading and trailing edge spars were able to be made of balsa, a lighter material, to reduce the weight and stiffness of the beams. This forced the loads to be carried by the two main spruce spars. Optimally the placement of the main spar was determined to be at or near the aerodynamic center, (30% of the chord), so as to carry the majority of the load. The main spar

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure10.4}
\caption{Stress Due to Bending in Main Spar #2}
\end{figure}
was placed exactly at the 30% chord location in the final design. This significantly reduced the stresses in the leading and trailing edge spars.

Somewhat high levels of stress were still present in all the members at this point in the design process. The loadings on the wings had been verified but the stress analysis technique had not. Therefore, a simple beam was modeled and tested. See model #4 in Figure 10.2. The results of this simple beam were verified and determined to be correct. The total load on the airplane was then analyzed and found to be high. At a velocity of 150 ft/s and an angle of 10 degrees a total lift of 125 lbs (4 g’s) was produced. This loading was more than two times the expected worst load case flight configuration, thus the high stress levels made sense. Therefore, the flight configurations being tested were re-analyzed and more realistic results were obtained. For a flight velocity of 150 ft/s and an angle of attack of 2 degrees, a total lift force of 60.56 lbs was produced, or approximately the maximum load specified by the design. At a velocity of 60 ft/s and an angle of attack of 12 degrees, a lift of 58.14 lbs was produced, again the maximum load. In each of these maximum load cases the stress levels in the members were within a reasonable margin of safety for the design. The various flight velocities and angles of attack and the resulting lift forces and corresponding loads in the members can be seen in Table 10.3. Although acceptable results for the stresses in the members were now seen, these were simply the direct stresses due to bending in the wing. A more accurate model was needed for the final design of the wing and more precise loadings needed to be used. The information obtained from this four member model was carried over to the model created for the Swiftos™ finite element analysis (see Figure 10.5).

**Swiftos™ Analysis**

Having done the preliminary analysis with the internally developed program and achieved some high stress values, a further refinement to the design process was considered to be in order. Therefore outside help was solicited in the form of an externally developed finite element code by Richard Swift, a Master’s Degree candidate at the University of Notre Dame.
The use of this code to analyze the rough model of the wing sub-structure necessitated a drastic refinement in the model. Considerable time was spent in this endeavor and a much better approximation to the actual sub-structure was developed. However, the creation of an accurate model that physically resembled the actual sub-structure was difficult at best.

Due to the low aerodynamic loading on the aircraft and a maximum two "g" loading imposed by the design team, it was suggested that the conventional materials of balsa and spruce be used in the model for the sub-structure (ribs and spars) while a thin, plastic covering (Monokote™) was suggested for the outer covering over the sub-structure.

The basic model was very conventional. There were three spars, a leading spar made of balsa, a main spar made of spruce, and a trailing edge spar made of balsa. The model also contained 22 ribs made of balsa placed along the span of the wing. The model very accurately represented the real concept in that the wing span, wing planform, and rib placement remained intact in going from the actual concept to the model. This rib placement was conventional in that most of the ribs were evenly spaced along the span. However, to account for the interface between the tail boom and the wing, a rib was placed at that location and given a thickness of three (3) times the other ribs. Also, extra ribs were added inboard, under the fuselage. Another attempt to improve the accuracy of the model involved the addition of point loads on the wing, especially at the points where the tail booms were attached.

The major problem encountered, however, involved the modelling of the Monokote™ skin. Because no material properties or allowable stresses could be found for this material, the model was forced to deviate from the actual concept. Three ways to model this thin coating of material were attempted.

First, because it was suggested that the model should reflect the design of the sub-structure, if the sub-structure was designed without the skin it would be all that much stronger with the addition of a skin. Since the computer code required the input of skin elements, it was decided to approximate the desired condition (no skin) with a rubber-type substance. This "phantom material" was given a very low modulus of elasticity (1000 psi), a slightly high Poisson's ratio (0.5), and no mass
density. Unfortunately, this model resulted in a structure with massive twist along the span and a twist of 7.7 deg. at the tip (relative to the root). Therefore, it was determined that the model needed to be refined further.

The second attempt to accurately model the Monokote™ skin covering resulted from the suggestion that the material properties should be representative of some sort of a plastic, however, this material should carry no load in compression (thin skin). Therefore, a resin was chosen to model the material properties and the skin elements were not allowed to carry any compressive loads. This model improved the twisting problem (6.18 deg. at the tip). However, the computer code depended on the calculation of a Von Mises ratio to determine the degree of stress in each element. This was unable to be accomplished for the skin elements because of the zero allowable compressive stress input to the code. Again, it was determined that a refinement in the model would produce better results.

The final model was then developed representing the 0.004 in. Monokote™ skin as 1/16 in. thick balsa sheeting. The reasoning behind this choice was that balsa is one of the lowest strength materials readily available (especially in compression) and the difference in thickness would nearly offset the density difference to make the weight of the wing approximately the same. This model produced very good results (twist at wing tip of 2.7 deg. relative to the root) and it was decided to use this model for an optimization.

When the Swiftos™ finite element code ran an optimization, the user specified the elements to be optimized and these elements were reduced in size (cross sectional area) until they were fully stressed and the total half-span wing weight was calculated upon each iteration. One such optimization was run with the previously discussed model.

Table 10.4 shows the results of the weight reduction process by the computer code with each iteration. According to the value given for the final iteration (iteration #9) this final wing would have a weight of 2.57 lbs. A more sound weight estimate was obtained by multiplying this weight given by the computer code by a factor of safety/uncertainty of two (2). Considering the fact that the overall weight of the entire aircraft is 28 lbs., this required that the wing be approximately 18.4% of the total weight.
aircraft weight. For this type of aircraft, where a large portion of the total aircraft weight is comprised of the instrumentation for data acquisition and transmission, this value seemed very reasonable.

**TABLE 10.4 : WEIGHT HISTORY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITERATION</th>
<th>WEIGHT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.284</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final results of the optimization yielded minimum cross sectional areas for the specified optimization elements. These elements consisted of all three spars and their respective spar caps. The ribs were left at a minimum gage (1/8 in. thick) due to their low stressed state. The main spar was of primary concern. The finite element code specified a minimum of a 1/2 in. thickness at the root and tapered it to a 1/8 in. thickness at the tip. The optimization did not effect the 1/4 in. tailing edge spar and only suggested slightly increasing the area of the leading edge spar at the first two stations near the root.

Although the optimization gives the designer the cross sectional areas to meet the fully stressed condition, the resulting structure could possibly fail at the design point. Also, for this case a larger vertical deflection of the wing tip was experienced (9.4 in. at 7 ft from the root with a twist of 6.47 deg.). Therefore, all numbers obtained from the computer code should be multiplied by a factor of safety/uncertainty of 1.25-2.0 and the next largest commercially available size elements should be chosen (for economic reasons). This should yield a safe design.
TWIN TAIL BOOMS

Since the aerodynamic performance of the tail surfaces was determined to be strongly dependent upon their respective geometric angles of attack, a structure designed to support these surfaces was determined to be of extreme importance. Therefore, a detailed design study was performed on these structural elements.

The tail booms were considered to be identical. Therefore, on the basis of symmetry, it was determined that only one boom needed to be analyzed. Acting under this premise, the tail loadings were considered to act equally on each boom.

Four primary "figures of merit" were established in order to evaluate the possible combinations of variable parameters. The first goal was to keep drag to a minimum. Secondly, the weight needed to also be kept to a minimum. Thirdly, the bending of the booms in the vertical direction had to be kept to a minimum. And, finally, the twist of the aft end of the boom relative to the forward end also needed to be minimized.

The model developed for the analysis of these structures was a simple one. The booms were considered to be beams cantilevered at the wing and free to move at the aft end. The effect of the weight of the beam was considered to be negligible compared to the effect of the loadings due to the tail surfaces. Since both the horizontal and the vertical tail surfaces were flat plates (or symmetric airfoils) and the weight of the entire aircraft was only 28 lbs., for normal flight it was determined that the horizontal tail should never produce a load greater than 10 lbs. and the vertical tails should never produce loads greater than 5 lbs. each. These loads translate to a vertical load (up or down) of 5 lbs. and a torsional load about the longitudinal axis of the beam of 25 in-lbs. (in either direction) (see Figure 10.6).

Due to some realistic concerns, the range of acceptable changeable parameters was defined. These parameters include 1) cross sectional shape, 2) outside diameter, 3) length, and 4) material selection. First, since texts on solid mechanics and structural behavior indicated that circular cross sectional elements behave much better than other cross sections under conditions of torsion, and because aerodynamic drag due to smooth contours is less than that due to abrupt ones, a circular cross
FIGURE 10.6 TAIL BOOM MODEL
section was chosen for all analyses. Second, due to drag and weight conditions, the range of acceptable outside diameters was set at 0.6-1.5 in. Third, because control rods for the rear tail control surfaces (elevator and rudders) needed to run from the servos in the wing to the tail inside of the booms, a hole 0.5 in. in diameter was needed along the entire length of the boom. Fourth, because a sufficient moment arm was needed for effective performance of the tail surfaces, the boom length needed to be between 2.5 and 3.5 feet. Finally, only certain materials were considered as candidates. In order to span a fairly wide range of material strengths and weights, the prospective materials were chosen to be balsa, spruce, aluminum, titanium, and a carbon steel.

Having constrained the variable parameters, four sensitivity studies were performed. The first study examined the effects of outside diameter and length on drag. The next study determined the effect of outside diameter, length and material selection on weight. The following study examined the effect of outside diameter, length, and material selection on beam bending, while the final study examined the effect of these same parameters on twist angle.

The first study performed was concerned with the drag produced by the tail booms. For drag calculations, due to the orientation of the boom along the direction of flow, skin friction drag was considered to be much more significant than any pressure drag that might result. Therefore, the flow was considered to be turbulent along the entire surface of the boom and the circular element was considered as an equivalent flat plate. The two variable parameters effecting the drag were the outside diameter and length of the boom. Variation of these two parameters produced some interesting results.

As the length of the boom was varied across its entire range of acceptable values while the diameter was held fixed at 1.0 in., the plot in Figure 10.7 was generated. This curve shows a linear relationship between the drag on the boom and the length of the boom.

However, looking at Figure 10.8 which is a plot of the effect of both length and diameter on the drag, it can easily seen that the effect of changes in diameter have a much more pronounced effect on drag produced by the boom than length. The increase in diameter definitely increases the drag, but also seems to increase the slope of the drag vs. length curve.
Fig. 10.7 EFFECT OF LENGTH ON DRAG

Fig. 10.8 EFFECT OF LENGTH AND DIAMETER ON DRAG
Nevertheless, all cases shown in Figure 10.8 show that the drag on the boom is extremely small and it would seem that any choice of outside diameter and length would be acceptable from a drag standpoint.

The next study that was performed concerned the sensitivity of the weight of the boom to variations in length, outside diameter, and material. Since weight is dependent upon material density and volume, all three parameters have some effect on the overall weight.

As can be seen in the plot of the effect of length and diameter on weight (Figure 10.9), the weight exhibits a dependence very similar to that of drag on these two parameters. The weight vs. length curve is linear (as expected) and variation in the outside diameter has a more pronounced effect on the weight than do variations in length.

In order to evaluate the influence of material selection on the weight, the five prospective materials were used to calculate weight vs. length curves for a constant outside diameter of 1.25 in. As can be seen in the plot in Figure 10.10, material selection plays a very definite roll in weight calculations. For example, steel with a corresponding boom weight of 8-12 lbs. (which is extremely unreasonable for this design) is much heavier than balsa with a corresponding boom weight of 0.18 - 0.25 lbs.

Having determined the sensitivity of the drag and weight of the boom to variations in the length, outside diameter and material selection, the next concern rested with acceptable levels of bending at the aft tip where the tail surfaces were to be connected. Therefore, the effect of length, outside diameter, and material selection on tip bending deflection comprised the next sensitivity study.

As can be seen in the plot of the effect of length and diameter on the bending deflection (Figure 10.11), variations in length affect the tip deflection more at smaller diameters. As might be noticed, the curve for an outside diameter of 0.6 in. does not appear on this plot. This is because the tip deflections for this case were totally unreasonable ranging from 15-43 in. This eliminated an outside diameter of 0.6 in. from further consideration.

Figure 10.12 shows a plot of the effect of the material selection on tip deflection with a constant outside diameter of 1.25 in. As can be seen from this plot, the metals behave very similarly while spruce performs slightly worse. However, the worst tip deflection for spruce was 1.22 in.
Figure 10.9
EFFECT OF LENGTH AND DIAMETER ON WEIGHT (SPRUCE)

Figure 10.10
MATERIAL WEIGHT COMPARISON (D=1.25 IN.)
Figure 10.11
EFFECT OF LENGTH AND DIAMETER ON BENDING (SPRUCE)

![Graph showing the effect of length and diameter on bending (spruce).]

Figure 10.12
EFFECT OF MATERIAL ON BENDING (D=1.25 IN.)

![Graph showing the effect of material on bending (D=1.25 IN.).]
at a length of 36 in. This resulted in a change in the geometric angle of attack of the horizontal tail surface of only 1.94 deg. After consultation with the Stability and Control expert, it was determined that this was very reasonable. Note also that no curve appears in Figure 10.12 for balsa. This is because unreasonable deflections of 9-24 in. Therefore, balsa has been eliminated from further consideration.

The final sensitivity study performed in order to evaluate the effects of the variable parameters on the design involved a study of the effects of length, outside diameter, and material selection on the twist of the boom. Again, as can be seen in Figure 10.13, the relationship between the figure of merit and length is a linear function. Also, the effect of outside diameter is very small for diameters greater than 1.0 in. Diameters of 1.0, 1.25, and 1.5 all produce angles of twist of less than approximately one degree (1 deg). This would seem to be exceptional performance.

Material selection also plays an interesting role in the twist study. As can be seen in Figure 10.14, the metals (steel and aluminum) exhibit virtually no twist while spruce exhibits very little twist (0.3-0.4 deg) for a constant outside diameter of 1.25 in. Again, after consultation with the Stability and Control expert, these values were considered to be very good. Note also that no curve for titanium appears in Figure 10.14. This was for two reasons. First, extremely limited values for shear loads tolerances were available (indicating that this material was not especially good for this application). And, secondly, since titanium is usually used in high temperature applications (and is very expensive), it would seem to be inappropriate for this application.

In conclusion, after again consulting with the Stability and Control expert, a boom length to provide an optimum moment arm for the tail surfaces results in a choice of 3.3 ft. for the boom length. Also from the weight, bending and twist analyses, a diameter of 1.25 in. and a material composition of spruce were determined to produce the best all around element characteristics. Therefore, after evaluating the sensitivity of the drag, weight, bending tip deflection and twist of the circular boom, to variations in boom length, outside diameter, and material composition, a final "best case" has been determined.
Figure 10.13
EFFECT OF LENGTH AND DIAMETER ON TWIST (SPRUCE)

Figure 10.14
EFFECT OF MATERIAL ON TWIST (D=1.25 IN.)
FUSELAGE

Due to the specific volume carrying requirements (data acquisition and transmission equipment) of a flying test bed aircraft, the proposed fuselage is quite large. However, because of the especially low loading of this aircraft, lightweight materials are more than sufficient to safely support the requirements.

Since this sub-structure was considered to be less critical than other structural elements, a very limited feasibility study was performed. For the feasibility study, a simplified model was developed. The fuselage was modeled as a thin-shelled (monocoque) structure (10 in. in diameter and 36 in. in length) augmented with six longitudinally positioned stringers as shown in Figure 10.15. The "shell" was made of 1/8 in. thick balsa and each stringer was made of 1/4 in. X 1/4 in. spruce.

Since the only other structural element connected to the fuselage was the main wing, this element was considered to be the major source of loading. At the interface between these two elements, a load of 28 lbs. was assumed to be transferred from the wing to the fuselage. This load corresponds to the weight of the aircraft or the lift produced during cruise. The only other loading considered was the weight of the aircraft which was assumed to be a uniform distributed load applied along the length of the fuselage.

For the purposes of loading calculations, the fuselage structure was considered to be a simple beam. Since the loading considered primarily gave rise to a pitching moment, the maximum value of this quantity was found to occur at the point of attachment of the wing. For a wing attached at a point 18 in. from the forward-most edge of the structure, a maximum pitching moment of 126 in-lbs. was calculated. This loading gave rise to a maximum direct stress due to bending of only 4.41 psi. which corresponds to an extremely high factor of safety/uncertainty.

Since the analysis performed was very simple, the extremely small final maximum load was considered to be somewhat reasonable. Although such limited analysis was performed on this structural element, the results do indicate that the fuselage will be lightly loaded and thus will be able to be constructed out of lightweight materials resulting in good
FIGURE 10.15  FUSELAGE MODEL
overall performance of the system. If anything, the model analyzed might be considered over designed. With the addition of two or three bulkheads constructed out of lightweight plywood for separating internal components and additional stiffness, it would seem that a safe and lightweight fuselage could be designed.

HORIZONTAL STABILIZER

The horizontal tail, a NACA 0012, was modeled as a simple beam supported at both ends. The lifting force from the tail would be directly supported by the spars and therefore a simple beam was used. By placing the load at the aerodynamic center of the symmetric airfoil, 75% of the load would be carried by the leading edge spar and 25% by the trailing edge spar. The cross brace members serve the purpose of supporting the drag force, but add little strength to the overall stiffness of the "beam" (See Figure 10.16). It was determined from earlier analysis on the primary wing that the loads produced could be supported by spruce and balsa spars. The worst case loading was determined with 30 degrees of elevator deflection and a Cl of 0.5. The total lift produced was 15 lbs. incorporating a factor of safety of 1.25. The maximum point of deflection for a beam supported at both ends is at the center of the beam (see Figure 10.17).

An accurate model of the horizontal tail was achieved by increasing the area of the leading edge to take into account that it has to support the main load. It was also determined that it would be made of a spruce member shaped to the leading edge of the NACA 0012. The trailing edge was to be made of balsa to reduce the weight of the tail yet carry the load. For the preliminary analysis this proved to be more than adequate. The spruce leading edge saw a maximum stress of 472 psi. and a deflection of 0.308 in. The maximum deflection occurred at the semi-span of the horizontal tail because the tail acts similarly to a beam supported at both ends. The trailing edge (balsa) stress was seen to be 355 psi. at the maximum loading. The shear stresses seen by these members was calculated and determined to be supportable (120 psi. and 90 psi. acting on the leading and trailing edges respectively) (See Table 10.5).
Figure 10.16 Horizontal Stabilizer

NACA 0012

Weight = 1.5 lb/

Area = 87.5 in²

1.313 in²

Lift

Top View

Flow
The cross supports in the tail are to be made of balsa to reduce the weight. Because very small forces need to be supported by these members, they help to maintain the shape of the airfoil. The overall weight of the horizontal stabilizer was calculated to be 1.50 lbs.
Table 10.5

Stress Levels Present in the Horizontal Tail

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Area(in²)</th>
<th>Stress(ksi)</th>
<th>Max Deflection(in)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Balsa</td>
<td>LE 1.313</td>
<td>472.7</td>
<td>6.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TE 0.875</td>
<td>355.0</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spruce</td>
<td>LE 1.313</td>
<td>472.7</td>
<td>.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TE 0.875</td>
<td>355.0</td>
<td>.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birch</td>
<td>LE 1.313</td>
<td>472.7</td>
<td>.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TE 0.875</td>
<td>355.0</td>
<td>.066</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VERTICAL STABILIZER

In consideration of the twin vertical tail configuration, the tails needed to be identical and perfectly aligned. Because there were two vertical tail surfaces, each tail needed to carry only half of the load necessary for directional stability. In the worst case a maximum loading of fourteen pounds would be needed to maintain stability. Each tail would then see a maximum force of seven pounds. This loading is based on a rudder deflection of 25 degrees and a factor of safety of 1.4. The small cross sectional area (maximum thickness) of the NACA 0012 airfoil to be used on the proposed Delta Monster was the main constraint on the area of the spars. The structural analysis assumed a simple beam supported at the base of the vertical stabilizer. The load was assumed to be distributed as follows: 75% of the load acting on the leading edge spar and the remaining load (25%) on the trailing edge spar. The design of the leading edge spar incorporated the fact that it needed to support the majority of the load, therefore a spruce leading edge and a balsa trailing edge were selected (See Figure 10.18). The maximum design loads and the resulting shear and bending moment diagrams can be seen in Figure 10.19.
Flow \rightarrow \begin{array}{c}
\text{Spruce} \\
\text{Balsa (Model)}
\end{array} \\
\text{SIDE VIEW}

\begin{array}{c}
\text{Spruce} \\
\text{Balsa} \\
\text{Area} = 0.375 \text{in}^2
\end{array}

\text{NACA 0012} \quad \text{Weight} = 0.35 \text{lbs}

\text{Figure 10.18 Vertical Stabilizer}
In analyzing the loading, a maximum stress level in the spruce spar was seen to be 757.6 psi while the stress in the trailing edge balsa spar was 449.0 psi. It was determined that the loads could easily be supported by such a design. The cross members would more than adequately support the load due to the drag on the tail (See Table 10.6). As was the case with the horizontal stabilizer, the members were to be made of balsa to minimize the weight. The overall weight of the vertical stabilizer was found to be 0.35 pounds.
### Table 10.6

**Stress Levels Present in the Vertical Tail**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>LE Area (in²)</th>
<th>Stress (psi)</th>
<th>Max Deflection (in)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Balsa</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>757.6</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>449.2</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spruce</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>757.6</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>449.2</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birch</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>757.6</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>449.2</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although it has been shown that tail surfaces constructed of balsa and spruce should easily support the required loads, further refinements of both the loading model and the sub-structure model is necessary for further design.
PROGRAM WING
BRIAN MCDONALD
PRELIMINARY DESIGN OF THE WING BY DETERMINING THE ROOT BENDING STRESS
This program determines the direct stress due to bending on an airfoil section. Prandtl's lifting line theory for a
finite wing is used to find the lift generated by the airfoil. The program determines the section properties
of the data input through the data file. The loadings found from the lifting line theory are then applied to find the stress
resultants. For a given aspect ratio the root stresses are found and plotted. EITHER THE VELOCITY OR THE ANGLE OF ATTACK CAN VARY

REAL A1(52,53), C(52), A1N(52), Q(52), CL(52), CDI(52), Y(14), Z(14)
REAL A2(14), E(14), IYY(14), IZZ(14), IVI(14), Y(26), Z(26), MXY(26)
REAL VY(26), VZ(26), MX(26), MZ(26), X(52), PS(26), ANG(52)
REAL PL0(26,4), PLO1(26,4), PLO2(26,4), PLO3(26,4), PLO4(26,4)
REAL PS1(14), PMAT(14), WCHUNK(14), POCl(52,4), POCD(52,4)
REAL Z1(14), Y1(14), SIG(4), VEL(4), ANGLE(4)
INTEGER IWR(52)
OPEN(UNIT=66, FILE='AIRFOIL.DAT', STATUS='UNKNOWN')
TEST=0.
WTOTS=0.

**** DATA INPUT *******
READ(66,*)K
DO 14 J = 1,K
READ(66,*)Z1(J), Y1(J), A2(J), E(J), IYY(J), IZZ(J), IVI(J), PMAT(J)
WCHUNK(J) = A2(J)*PMAT(J)
WTOTS = WTOTS+WCHUNK(J)
CONTINUE
WRITE(1,*)'IWR?'
READ(IWR,*)IWR

WRITE(1,*), IWR

TEST = 0.

READ(1,*), IM
DO 100 I = 1, IM
CHORD = 1.0
B = 14.0
WTOT = WTOTS*B
WRITE(1,*), 'WEIGHT = ', WTOT
CENP = 0.3
CENP=-CENP*CHORD
WRITE(1,*), 'ENTER THE AIRSPEED IN FT/SEC'
READ(1,*), V
WRITE(1,*)', ft/s
 ANGLE = ', A*180/(4*ATAN(1.) )/180.

READ(1,*), A
A = A*4*ATAN(1.)/180.

READ(1,*), DA
DA = 0.0
RHO = .0023769
DO 15 I = 1,N
PS1(I) = -B/2. +REAL(I)*B/REAL(N)
CONTINUE
DO 18 I = 1, K
Z(I) = Z1(I)
Y(I) = Y1(I)
CONTINUE
CALL ALPHA(N, DA, A, A1, C, CHORD, B, ANG)

CALL SIM(N, A1, B, V, CHORD, A1N, Q, CL, CDI, BCL, CLOT, CDTOT, TEST, X
LOC, TH, C, ANG, CD0)

WRITE(IWR,*), '********** THE TOTAL LIFT PRODUCED IS ', CLOTOT, '(Ibs)'
WRITE(IWR,*), 'THE TOTAL DRAG IS ', CDTOT, '(Ibs)'

POCD(I, MLOOP) = CDI(I)
CONTINUE
CALL SECT(N, TEST, TH, CL, CDI, C, AIN, RHO, PY, PZ, MXL, V, VY, VZ, MX, B, MY
, MZ, IWR, Y, Z, A2, E, IYY, IZZ, IYZ, CENP, WTOTS, K, SIG, VEL, ANGLE)
WRITE(IWR, *) 'LIFT AND DRAG DISTRIBUTION ALONG WING'
WRITE(IWR, *) 'STATION CL CD ANGLE'
DO 8 I = 1, N
WRITE(IWR, *) I, CL(I), CDI(I), AIN(I)*180. / (4. * ATAN(1.))
CONTINUE
DO 9 I = 1, N/2
PS(I) = B/2. - REAL(I)*B/REAL(N)
PLO(I, MLOOP) = VY(I)
PLO1(I, MLOOP) = VZ(I)
PLO2(I, MLOOP) = MX(I)
PLO3(I, MLOOP) = MY(I)
PLO4(I, MLOOP) = MZ(I)
CONTINUE
Plots of the lift and drag for no flap
CALL TPLDT(-11, PS1, POCL, N, 52, 4)
CALL TITLE('CL FOR TEST WING')
CALL TLABEL('POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]', 'CL')
READ(I, *) S
CALL TPLDT(-11, PS1, POCD, N, 52, 4)
CALL TITLE('CD FOR TEST WING')
CALL TLABEL('POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]', 'Cd')
READ(I, *) S
Plots of the internal stress resultants comparing flap and no flap
CALL TPLDT(-11, PS, PLO, 25, 26, 4)
CALL TITLE('STRESS RESULTANTS Vy')
CALL TLABEL('POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]', 'Vy [lbs]')
READ(I, *) S
CALL TPLDT(-11, PS, PLO1, 25, 26, 4)
CALL TITLE('STRESS RESULTANTS Vz')
CALL TLABEL('POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]', 'Vz [lbs]')
READ(I, *) S
CALL TPLDT(-11, PS, PLO2, 25, 26, 4)
CALL TITLE('STRESS RESULTANT Mx')
CALL TLABEL('POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]', 'Mx [ft-lbs]')
READ(I, *) S
CALL TPLDT(-11, PS, PLO3, 25, 26, 4)
CALL TITLE('STRESS RESULTANT My')
CALL TLABEL('POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]', 'My [ft-lbs]')
READ(I, *) S
CALL TPLDT(-11, PS, PLO4, 25, 26, 4)
CALL TITLE('STRESS RESULTANT Mz')
CALL TLABEL('POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]', 'Mz [ft-lbs]')
READ(I, *) S
WRITE(1, *) 'INPUT 1, AND THEN A THREE FOR ANGLES'
READ(I, *) S
IF (S .LT. 2) THEN
 CALL TPLDT(-11, VEL, SIG, 4, 4, 1)
 CALL TITLE('BENDING STRESS AT ROOT AT MAX STRESSED MEMBER')
 CALL TLABEL('VELOCITY ft/s', 'STRESS psi')
ELSE
 CALL TPLDT(-11, ANGLE, SIG, 4, 4, 1)
 CALL TITLE('BENDING STRESS AT ROOT AT MAX STRESSED MEMBER')
 CALL TLABEL('ANGLE degs', 'STRESS psi')
ENDIF
WRITE(1, *) 'WOULD YOU CARE TO START OVER FOR A NEW WING AT A NEW ANGLE OF ATTACK? (1 FOR YES)'
READ(I, *) S
IF(I.EQ.1) GOTO 95
WRITE(1, *) 'THANK YOU FOR CHOOSING MCDONALD SOFTWARE SYSTEMS'
CLOSE(UNIT = 66)
STOP
**SUBROUTINE TO DETERMINE THE COEFFICIENTS OF THE LIFTING LINE**

SUBROUTINE ALPHA(N, DA, A, A1, C, CHORD, B, ANG)

REAL A1(N, N+1), C(N), ANG(N)

PI = 4. *ATAN(1.)
THETA = REAL(PI/N)
DA = 2. *REAL(DA/N)

**DETERMINE THE ANGLE OF ATTACK AND THE CHORD AT EACH SECTION**

DO 10 I = 1, 26

Determine the RHS of the equations for the lifting line

A1(1, N+1) = A - DA * REAL(I)
A1(N-I+1, N+1) = A1(1, N+1)
ANG(I) = A1(I, N+1)
ANG(N-I+1) = A1(I, N+1)

Symmetric airfoil alpha lift = 0 is 0

Determine the chord at each position

C(I) = CHORD
C(N-I+1) = C(I)

CONTINUE
T = 0.
DO 20 J = 1, N
T = T + REAL(PI/N)
DO 30 I = 1, N
C The specific point that is being looked at

A1(J, I) = 2. * B / (PI * C(J)) * SIN(REAL(I*T)) + REAL(I * SIN(REAL(I*T))) / SIN(T)

CONTINUE
CONTINUE
RETURN
END

**SUBROUTINE TO FIND THE SOLUTIONS TO THE SIMULTANEOUS EQUATIONS**

SUBROUTINE SIM(N, A1, B, V, CHORD, AIN, G, CL, CDI, BCL, CLTOT, CDTOT, TEST, X, LOC, TH, C, ANG, CDO)

REAL A1(N, N+1), X(N), G(N), CL(N), CDI(N), AIN(N), C(N), ANG(N)
INTEGER LOC(52)
RHO = .0023769
AIND = 0.
H = 0.
DO 10 I = 1, N
X(I) = A1(I, N+1)
CONTINUE
PI = 4. * ATAN(1.)

CALL SIMEQ(A1, X, N, N, LOC)
T = 0.
CDTOT = 0.
CLTOT = 0.
DO 40 I = 1, N
T = T + PI / REAL(N)
AIND = 0.
H = 0.
DO 50 J = 1, N
H = H + X(J) * SIN(REAL(J*T))
AIND = AIND + REAL(J) * (X(J)) * SIN(REAL(J*T)) / SIN(T)

CONTINUE
CONTINUE
RETURN
END

ORIGINAL PAGE IS OF POOR QUALITY
Subroutine to determine section properties and the direct stress

```plaintext
C Subroutine to determine section properties and the direct stress.

SUBROUTINE SECT(N, TEST, TH, CL, CDI, C, AIN, RHO, PY, PZ, MXL, V, VY, VZ, 
MX, B, MY, MZ, INR, V, Z, A2, E, IYY, IZZ, IYZ, CENP, WTOTS, K, SIG, VEL, ANGLE)

REAL CL(N), CDI(N), C(N), AIN(N), PY(N/2), PZ(N/2), MXL(N/2), VY(N/2), 
VZ(N/2), MX(N/2), MY(N/2), MZ(N/2), V(14), Z(14), A2(14), E(14), 
IYY(14), IZZ(14), IYZ(14), MXOLD, MYOLD, MZOLD, SIG(4), VEL(4)

INTEGER P6, POS

CALCULATE THE SECTION PROPERTIES

Weighted centroid
Eref = 6.5e6*144.
ASTAR = 0.
YB = 0.
ZB = 0.
YYT = 0.
ZZT = 0.
YZT = 0.

DO 20 M = 1, K
ASTAR = ASTAR + A2(M)*E(M)/EREF
YB = YB + Y(M)*E(M)/EREF*A2(M)
ZB = ZB + Z(M)*E(M)/EREF*A2(M)

CONTINUE

YB = YB/ASTAR
ZB = ZB/ASTAR

DIST = ZB - CENP

WRITE(I,*)'ZBAR = ', ZB
WRITE(I,*)'YBAR = ', YB

DO 25 I = 1, K

YYT = YYT + E(I)/EREF*A2(I)*(Z(I)-ZB)**2+IYY(I)
ZYT = ZYT + E(I)/EREF*A2(I)*(Y(I)-YB)**2+IZZ(I)
YZT = YZT + E(I)/EREF*A2(I)*(Y(I)-YB)*(Z(I)-ZB)+IYZ(I)

CONTINUE

Calculate bending moments due to the loading
G = 0.5*RHO*V**2

WEIGHT PER SPAN (lbs/ft) = WTOTS

DO 30 I = 1, N/2
PY(I) = G*C(I)*CL(I)*COS(AIN(I))+G*C(I)*CDI(I)*SIN(AIN(I))
-WTOTS*COS(AIN(I))

CONTINUE

PY(I) = G*C(I)*CL(I)*COS(AIN(I))+G*C(I)*CDI(I)*SIN(AIN(I))

CONTINUE

FORCEY = G*C(I)*CL(I)*COS(AIN(I))+G*C(I)*CDI(I)*SIN(AIN(I))

CONTINUE

ACMX = 0.1*G*C(I)**2

MXL(I) = FORCEZ*(DIST)-FORCEY*(YB)+ACMX
```

ORIGINAL PAGE IS OF POOR QUALITY
Determine internal stress resultants

\[ DX = B / N \]

\[ DO \ 35 \ I = 1, N/2-1 \]

\[ IF(I \ .NE. 1) \ THEN \]
\[ VYOLD = VY(I-1) \]
\[ VZOLD = VZ(I-1) \]
\[ MXOLD = MX(I-1) \]
\[ ELSE \]
\[ VYOLD = 0. \]
\[ VZOLD = 0. \]
\[ MXOLD = 0. \]
\[ ENDIF \]

\[ WRITE(I,*) 'MXOLD', MXOLD \]
\[ VY(I) = VYOLD + (PY(I+1)+PY(I))/2.*DX \]
\[ VZ(I) = VZOLD + (PZ(I+1)+PZ(I))/2.*DX \]
\[ MX(I) = MXOLD + (MXL(I+1)+MXL(I))/2.*DX \]

\[ CONTINUE \]

\[ 35 \]

\[ DO \ 40 \ I = 1, N/2-1 \]
\[ IF (I .EQ. 1) THEN \]
\[ MZOLD = 0. \]
\[ MYOLD = 0. \]
\[ ELSE \]
\[ MZOLD = MZ(I-1) \]
\[ MYOLD = MY(I-1) \]
\[ ENDIF \]

\[ MZ(I) = MZOLD + (VY(I+1)+VY(I))/2.*DX \]
\[ MY(I) = MYOLD - (VZ(I+1)+VZ(I))/2.*DX \]

\[ CONTINUE \]

\[ 40 \]

Stress resultants have now been calculated along the "beam" 

\[ WRITE(I,*) 'WINg POSITION CROSS SECTION MEMBER Y Z DIRECT STRESS' \]

\[ DETERMINE STRESS AT A SELECTED POINT ALONG THE WING \]

\[ WRITE(I,*) 'ENTER A NUMBER FROM 1 TO ',N/2-1,' ALONG THE WING' \]

\[ READ(I,*) POS \]

\[ WRITE(I,*) 'AT SECTION', POS, 'WHAT INDIVIDUAL MEMBER IN THE STRUCTUR E IS TO BE ANALYZED?' \]

\[ WRITE(I,*) 'ENTER A NUMBER FROM 1 TO ',K,' FOR A SPECIFIC MEMBER, OR ENTER 50 FOR ALL.' \]

\[ READ(I,*) P6 \]

\[ P6 = 55 \]
\[ IF(P6 .GT. 49) THEN \]
\[ N1 = 1 \]
\[ N2 = K \]
\[ ELSE \]
\[ N1 = P6 \]
\[ N2 = P6 \]
\[ ENDIF \]

\[ DO 60 I = N1, N2 \]
\[ EASE1 = (MZ(POS)*YVT+MY(POS)*YVT)/(YVT*ZVT-YVT**2) \]
\[ EASE2 = (MY(POS)*ZVT+MZ(POS)*YVT)/(YVT*ZVT-YVT**2) \]

\[ SIGMA = -EASE1*E(I)/EREF*(Y(I)-YB)+EASE2*E(I)/EREF*(Z(I)-ZB) \]

\[ SIGMA = SIGMA/144. \]
\[ IF (I .EQ. 2) SIG(I) = SIGMA \]

\[ 60 \]

\[ CONTINUE \]

\[ WRITE(IWR,*)'POS, I', Y(I), Z(I), SIGMA \]

\[ VEL(1) = 50. \]
\[ VEL(2) = 75. \]
\[ VEL(3) = 100. \]
\[ VEL(4) = 150. \]
\[ ANGLE(1) = 3. \]
\[ ANGLE(2) = 6. \]
\[ ANGLE(3) = 10. \]
\[ ANGLE(4) = 12. \]

\[ RETURN \]

\[ END \]

ORIGINAL PAGE IS OF POOR QUALITY
### Lift and Drag Distribution Along Wing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Station</th>
<th>Cross Section Member</th>
<th>Angle</th>
<th>Direct Stress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.238000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.038000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.03800003-02</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.03800003-02</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.03800003-02</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.03800003-02</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0.000000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total lift produced is 2.000000

Velocity = 100.000 ft/s

Angle = 6.1°
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Y</th>
<th>0.178517</th>
<th>3.509753E-02</th>
<th>1.62789</th>
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<tr>
<td>Y</td>
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**ORIGINAL PAGE IS OF POOR QUALITY**

**VELOCITY = 150.000 ft/s**

**ANGLE = 2.00000**

**HE TOTAL LIFT PRODUCED IS 60.5643 (lbs)**

**HE TOTAL DRAG IS 13.1358 (lbs)**

**WING POSITION**

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**Total Drag IS 2.1836**

**Total Lift Produced IS 14.3345**

**Angle = 6.0 ft/s**

**Velocity = 6.0000 ft/s**

---

**Note:** The image contains a table with values that represent lift and drag distribution along the wing. The table includes columns for station, CL (lift coefficient), and CD (drag coefficient). The values are presented in a tabular format, with each station having corresponding lift and drag coefficients. The total drag and lift are also indicated at the bottom of the table.
**LIFT AND DRAG DISTRIBUTION ALONG WING**

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**VELOCITY = 60.0000 ft/s ANGLE = 6.00000**

**THE TOTAL LIFT PRODUCED IS 29.0708 (lbs)**

**THE TOTAL DRAG IS 2.14417 (lbs)**

**DIRECT STRESS**

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**THEORY OF LIFT**

\[
L = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 S C_L
\]

**THEORY OF DRAG**

\[
D = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 S (C_D + \frac{1}{2} \frac{S}{L} \frac{C_L^2}{C_D})
\]
APPENDIX 10.2
FIGURE 10A2.1

CL FOR TEST WING

Cl

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]
FIGURE 10A.2.2
CD FOR TEST WING

CD vs POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]
FIGURE 10A2.3
ALPHA=2 deg.

STRESS RESULTANTS $\nu_y$

$\nu_y$ [lbs]

$V=150$ ft/s
$V=100$ ft/s
$V=75$ ft/s
$V=50$ ft/s

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]
FIGURE 10A2.4

ALPHA=2 deg.

STRESS RESULTANTS Uz

V=50 ft/s
V=75 ft/s
V=100 ft/s
V=150 ft/s

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]
FIGURE 10A2.5
ALPHA=2 deg.

STRESS RESULTANT Mx

v=150 ft/s
v=100 ft/s
v=75 ft/s
v=50 ft/s

Mx [ft-lbs]

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]
FIGURE 10A2.6
ALPHA=2 deg.

STRESS RESULTANT My

V=150 ft/s
V=100 ft/s
V=75 ft/s
V=50 ft/s
FIGURE 10A2.7

ALPHA=2 deg.

STRESS RESULTANT Mz

V=150 ft/s

V=100 ft/s

V=75 ft/s

V=50 ft/s
FIGURE 10A2.8

V=60 ft/s

CL FOR TEST WING

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]
FIGURE 10A2.9

V=60 ft/s

CD FOR TEST WING

ALPHA=12 deg.

ALPHA=9 deg.

ALPHA=6 deg.

ALPHA=6 deg.

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]
FIGURE 10A2.10

\( v = 60 \text{ ft/s} \)

STRESS RESULTANTS \( \nu_y \)

\( \alpha = 12 \text{ deg.} \)
\( \alpha = 9 \text{ deg.} \)
\( \alpha = 6 \text{ deg.} \)
\( \alpha = 3 \text{ deg.} \)

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]

\( \nu_y [\text{lbs}] \)
FIGURE 10A2.11

V=60 ft/s

STRESS RESULTANTS Uz

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]

Vz [lbs]

ALPHA=12 deg.

ALPHA=9 deg.

ALPHA=6 deg.

ALPHA=3 deg.
FIGURE 10A2.12

$V = 60 \text{ ft/s}$

STRESS RESULTANT $M_x$

- $\alpha = 3$ deg.
- $\alpha = 6$ deg.
- $\alpha = 9$ deg.
- $\alpha = 12$ deg.

$M_x \text{ [ft-lbs]}$

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]
FIGURE 10A2.13

\( V = 60 \text{ ft/s} \)

STRESS RESULTANT \( M_y \)

\[
\begin{align*}
M_y [\text{ft-lbs}] & \\
0 & -10.0 \\
1 & -7.5 \\
2 & -5.0 \\
3 & -2.5 \\
4 & 0.0 \\
5 & 2.5 \\
6 & 5.0 \\
7 & 10.0 \\
\end{align*}
\]

\( \alpha = 3 \text{ deg.} \)
\( \alpha = 6 \text{ deg.} \)
\( \alpha = 9 \text{ deg.} \)
\( \alpha = 12 \text{ deg.} \)

POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]
FIGURE 10A2.14

$V = 60 \text{ ft/s}$

STRESS RESULTANT $M_z$

$M_z \text{ [ft-lbs]}$

$\text{POSITION FROM CENTERLINE [ft]}$

$\text{ALPHA}=12 \text{ deg.}$

$\text{ALPHA}=9 \text{ deg.}$

$\text{ALPHA}=6 \text{ deg.}$

$\text{ALPHA}=3 \text{ deg.}$
CHAPTER 11

AERODYNAMIC INTERFERENCE
INTERFERENCE

A requirement of this design is valid interpretation of collected data. Thus it is necessary to understand the flow seen by the test section and to ensure that the test section is out of the boundary layer.

The fixed parameters were density, viscosity, and flow condition (that is, turbulent). The horizontal distance varied from 1 to 3 ft, the freestream velocity from 50 to 160 ft/s, and the vertical distance from zero (at the fuselage surface) to infinity. The density and viscosity could have been varied with altitude if desired, but sea-level properties were used.

It was determined that the test section will be affected most strongly by the boundary layer over the fuselage surface. Obviously, the test section must never be in the boundary layer. From a theoretical approach, the approximate (two-dimensional, flat plate) height of the turbulent boundary layer was not difficult to find: $d = 0.37 \times \frac{x}{Re_{x}^{0.2}}$ where $Re_{x} = \frac{r \times v}{m}$ (see Appendix 11). The resulting Reynold's number was a local property ($Re_{x}$), and would not fall within the $4E4-1E6$ Re range based on wing root chord. Therefore, the test section would safely see Re rather than the $Re_{x}$ seen by the boundary layer directly below the test section.

Calculation of $d$ requires knowing whether the flow is turbulent or laminar. Although the plane will be as clean as possible, the flow will still be turbulent. The Delta Monster will see its largest boundary layer, $\delta = 0.85$ in, at the rear of the fuselage (3 feet) and freestream velocity of 50 ft/s (see Figure 11.1).

For completeness, a temperature boundary layer also exists, not coincident with the velocity boundary layer. According to White (p. 325), the assumption of incompressibility removes any interdependence of velocity and temperature. Note that there will also be extremely thin boundary layers on the upper and lower surfaces of the test section. In addition, the tripod supports will disturb the flow.

The top surface of the fuselage section is flat forward of and underneath the test section, so flow acceleration will be minimal (boundary layer growth slows as flow moves aft on a flat surface).
Fig. 11.1: Boundary Layer Thickness

freestream velocity = 50 [ft/s]
Consideration was given to a wide fuselage to maximize flow consistency, possibly even attaching a plate to the top of the fuselage to widen and lengthen the fuselage section below the delta wing. Two alternate, but related ideas were either to instrument the top surface of the fuselage or to mount a wake rake vertically from the fuselage when the test section is not present. The proposed Delta Monster uses this wake rake. The goal is to understand the flow both with and without the delta wing. The fuselage was designed with serious consideration given to the test section. Notably, the fuselage will not be lifting while the system is gathering data.

Because the delta wing was above the fuselage while the wing was below, much of the lift distribution and downwash was blocked. The wake rake was necessary to show flow behavior, since there was no reliable three-dimensional flow prediction method.

Serious prediction problems arise out of the three-dimensional flow agitated by the wing / fuselage combination. The result is "wedge shaped separations over the top of the wing" (Stokely, p. 78) and fuselage, near the wing root. Also, a strong field of downwash exists behind the wing, with a similar upwash field ahead of the wing.

The relationship between boundary layer thickness, location, and Reynold's number is the same whether the surface is flat, inclined, or curved -- the proportionality constant, however, is different (Schlichting, pp. 111-112). Use of 0.37 as the proportionality constant should yield results very close to reality, since \( x \) and \( Re_x \) are at least one order of magnitude larger than the constant.

A serious control discontinuity occurs when the test section moves into or out of separated flow, notably on takeoff or landing. The test section is effectively stalled when in the separated flow, but will lift and drag when outside this region. Transition may be difficult, as the test section may want to porpoise in and out of the separated zone. The test section is located where its lift and drag vectors oppose each other when added into the pitching moment.
REFERENCES


Fox and McDonald, Introduction to Fluid Mechanics, pp. 425-482.


Simons, Model Aircraft Aerodynamics, pp. 31-38.


White, Viscous Fluid Flow, pp. 325-471.
REAL DIS(20), VEL(20, 20), RE(20, 20), DT(20, 20)

IWR=6
RHO=0.0023769
VIS=3.73E-07
WRITE(IWR,*) 'VISCOSITY =', VIS, '[SL/(FT_SEC)]'
WRITE(IWR,*) 'DENSITY =', RHO, '[SL/(FT**3)]'
DO 10 I=1,3
DIS(I)=REAL(1)
WRITE(IWR,*) 'DISTANCE =', DIS(I), '[FT]' TURB
DO 20 J=1,16
VEL(J)=IO.*REAL(J)
RE=VIS*REAL(J)**0.2
WRITE(IWR,*) VEL(J), RE, DT(J)
CONTINUE
CONTINUE
STOP
END

END OF COMPILATION Clocked .436 SECONDS
CHAPTER 12

DELTA WING
DELTA WING

Since the purpose of this vehicle is to compliment wind tunnel tests it was decided that the vehicle should be designed such that it can accommodate a wide range of test wings for the given flight regime. From the work done in stability it was found that testing many different wings was a feasible option, thus giving the RPV concept some validity.

The goal of obtaining in-flight data on the delta wing is going to be accomplished through the use of pressure ports on the top surface of the wing. Each test wing is expected to contain approximately 100 pressure taps. These taps will be spaced differently on each half of the wing to allow for pressure measurement at a large number of data points (see Figure 12.1). This also serves to reduce the total number of channels required in the data acquisition system.

Another conclusion concerning instrumentation of the delta wing was that it needs only to be instrumented on the top surface. To obtain lower surface pressure readings the wing can be flipped over and the tests performed again. This too serves to allow for the inclusion of a large number of data points without putting a high demand on the data acquisition system.

One major concern in dealing with a flying test-bed is determining possible flow field interference from the fuselage or other aircraft components. In order to determine the existence and quantify such interference it will be necessary to make trial flights without the test wing mounted on the aircraft. For this reason it is essential that the aircraft be stable both with and without the delta wing.

Because the delta wing and its associated flows are still a developing topic it would be beneficial to incorporate some form of flow visualization system on the test vehicle. Because of difficulties associated with in-flight smoke visualization systems an alternate system is suggested. Although no work has been done in this area a system such as dyed monofilament fishing line coupled with a strobe light and operated at night is a possible solution.
MAP OF PRESSURE PORTS ON A 60° SWEEP
DELTA WING

FIGURE 12.1
CHAPTER 13

MANUFACTURING REQUIREMENTS
MANUFACTURE

Manufacture of the proposed RPV is of major concern because its effectiveness could determine the practicality of the concept. Small-scale production could be accomplished with the proper equipment and a somewhat substantial expenditure of time. Fabrication in this manner would entail the development of templates and patterns for all phases of construction. The actual vehicle could then be constructed by hand-fabricating each component of the aircraft. Additional time must be spent assembling these components into the complete structure. Although this method assures the high quality of the finished product it is very time consuming, hence very costly.

Perhaps a more viable option for producing the aircraft would be to utilize current full-scale, automated production systems. This means that the aircraft components would all be machine fabricated (die-cut) and marketed as a ready-to-assemble kit. This has the advantage of reducing the overall production cost (assuming there would be a sufficient market for the vehicle) while boosting production rate significantly. This is also an attractive proposition from the consumer's point of view because it eliminates the time requirements of fabricating an entire vehicle.

An even more desirable option for the consumer would be to have the vehicle furnished completely assembled and ready to fly. This would eliminate all construction time and cost liabilities and, if inexpensive enough, would provide a distinct advantage over the previous options. Producing such a vehicle would require the expansion of the automation system to include operations to align and bond the structural components. It was thought that such a system might not be cost effective and thus from a production perspective might not be a feasible task.
CHAPTER 14

SYSTEM SAFETY CONSIDERATIONS
SYSTEM SAFETY CONSIDERATIONS

The proposed Delta Monster is very safety conscious, with four main areas of concern. First, the structural design of the aircraft must be sound so that it does not come apart, especially during the catapult launch. Second, the plane must be launched in a large enough area in case it goes out of control. Third, weather conditions must be very good during flight. And fourth, a pilot must be standing by to take manual control of the design if there is a malfunction in the preprogrammed system flying the design.

The Delta Monster was designed to handle 2g loads and will not be subjected to greater loads. This should ensure the craft will not break, resulting in loss of time and money and debris hazard. The most critical structural envelope is launch, with ground impact during retrieval of secondary consideration. Breakage on impact will not pose a serious physical hazard. Since the design will be able to handle launch and retrieval the rest of the flight will not be a problem, as the flight mission is data collection, which is accomplished during steady level flight in good weather conditions.

The plane will be launched only away from people. Thus, during the launch phase, if the plane cannot be controlled to avoid crashing, people will not be injured.

Weather conditions must be very good for flight to take place. Valid data collection requires good, constant, known conditions. Consequently, little consideration was given to gust loads. Gusts would invalidate the data. Also, the plane must be kept in visual range during the entire flight which requires good weather.

During data collection, the proposed Delta Monster will be controlled by a computer. In the event that this system fails, the pilot will be able to override the computer and resume manual control of the aircraft. This system, therefore, allows for the acquisition of aerodynamic data using a remotely piloted vehicle without the need for concern over personal safety.
CHAPTER 15

PRODUCTION PLANS AND COST ESTIMATE
## PRODUCTION PLANS AND COST ANALYSIS

The design of this RPV is of little use unless it can be constructed and operated as prescribed. A primary concern in the production of this aircraft was the overall cost. It was necessary that the RPV be designed such that the data obtained was of the same quality as that obtained in wind tunnel tests and the cost associated with the RPV comparable to that of wind tunnel testing. Hence a breakdown of the aircraft's cost was deemed necessary. The cost breakdown was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Structural materials</td>
<td>$200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Propulsion system</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Engine</td>
<td>$100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Ducted Fan</td>
<td>$150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Data Acquisition System</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. 100 pressure transducers (@ $100 each)</td>
<td>$10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. 2 inclinometers (@ $250 each)</td>
<td>$500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Signal Processing System</td>
<td>$600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. 10 Tattletale Model 5 data acquisition systems (@ $325 each)</td>
<td>$3,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. 120 pressure tubes</td>
<td>$10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. 1 yaw indicator</td>
<td>$50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. 1 heading indicator</td>
<td>$400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOTAL** $15,260
CHAPTER 16

SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT
SOCIAL & ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT

The use of the remotely piloted vehicle as a test bed for data acquisition presents a number of environmental and social challenges. All of these can be met through creative planning and regulation. To avoid crashing into homes, commercial airliners, and adversely affecting radio and television communications, special zones for testing these vehicles should be established. The zones should lie outside of commercial aviation routes and should be placed on non-populated and non-residential land. In addition, the zones should be established on land that will permit sighting of the vehicle through all phases of the flight. Forested areas, especially those with dry seasons, are to be avoided. Parts of the ocean and remote lakes are preferred.

In the short run, the use of remotely piloted vehicles will most likely be confined to a relatively small number of businesses and research facilities. The cumulative noise and pollution will have a relatively small impact on the environment. Because this concept accelerates the rate of research, it will ideally maximize existing technologies and minimize their larger effects on the environment. In practice, however, there is very little to prevent the abuse of this research or its extension to high altitude flight. For this reason, remotely piloted vehicles for the specific purpose of data acquisition should be licensed. All vehicles beyond a certain weight, with a particularly noisy or powerful propulsion system, or with telemetry beyond a certain power level should require a permit to be flown and must be flown in the special zones. Extension to flight beyond line of sight should not be granted in these zones, unless adequate means to survey the flight of the vehicle can be established. Although primarily designed for low level altitude tests, the Delta Monster has the capability of achieving much higher altitudes and falls within this category.

In the long term, the use of remotely piloted vehicles for data acquisition will increase precision technology in the construction of these craft. These technologies will permeate the toy industry and educational system, increasing the problem of regulation while also increasing the general population's knowledge of flight and aerodynamics. Because the
skys and airways are continually being carved up as the population increases, special testing zones must eventually subordinate themselves to the demands of travel and communication. A small number of permanent zones might therefore be established at the national level. Finally, the number of unidentified flying objects will remain constant as the education of the general population increases with the increase of flying objects.
CHAPTER 17

TECHNOLOGY DEMONSTRATOR
The technology demonstrator was constructed primarily as a scaled model to test the feasibility of the basic aerodynamic configuration. This scale was based on the desire to have the technology demonstrator wing span equal to one half of the actual design wing span. The ability of certain design decisions to produce a stable, controllable environment in which data acquisition is meaningful, was of critical and immediate importance. The actual construction of the demonstrator provided insights into the structural integrity of the design, and in the case of the horizontal tailplane, exposed problems that might arise during the construction of the actual RPV. Launch was to be achieved by a high speed hand launch to avoid the low Reynold's numbers and stall associated with the scale model. The flight test path was chosen to maximize endurance during the cruise phase.

The critical differences between the actual RPV and the demonstrator are the different power plants and weights. The Reynold's number of the scale model was not directly matched with the RPV design because the velocity and chord combinations produced flight conditions not able to be achieved by the Astro-15 propulsion unit. The weight was specifically reduced from the 28.6 lbs of the RPV design to 5 lbs to meet the capabilities of the Astro-15.

The scaling to the scale model at a disproportionate weight and for far lower Reynold's numbers necessitated a change in the selection of the airfoil. In choosing the airfoil, the wing chord, and corresponding aspect ratio, a tradeoff between approximating the aerodynamic configuration of the RPV and producing a technology demonstrator with enough lift and low enough stall velocity to get airborne surfaced.

Thus, the airfoil selected was the Selig 2031. In switching to a thin laminar airfoil, the Clmax was increased for the chosen Reynold's number. With this airfoil, the chord was not reduced to the 6 inch proportionate length because it was feared that it would not produce enough lift at such a low Reynold's number (a situation not present with the RPV and its high powered turbulent trip design). A compromise between the chord length and aspect ratio was reached at a chord of 10 inches and aspect ratio of
8.2. Switching from a high to moderate aspect ratio increased the induced drag by 40%, increased the stall velocity, and lowered the lift curve slope, while still maintaining a comparable Clmax\textsuperscript{1}. The increased sensitivity to pitch disturbances introduced with the thinner Selig airfoil was compensated for by this decrease in aspect ratio. Concurrently, the resulting wing area of 6 ft\textsuperscript{2} produced a stall speed of 28.8 ft/sec, one of the limits of acceptable launch velocities.

The decreased control in roll and increased induced drag produced effects that necessitated changes to the control configuration implemented by larger vertical tailplanes. The ailerons were discarded in the design of the RPV, despite the loss in roll control, to keep the design structurally simple. The low wing design, twin boom, tail assembly, and wing dihedral were all incorporated into the technology demonstrator after these initial compensations were made. The fuselage was built to approximate that of the RPV within the existing construction expertise.

Analysis of the existing Astro-15 power plant for a variety of propellers set the climb velocity at 39 ft/sec for maximum performance and minimum power expended. After the initial hand launch, in which it is hoped that the stall velocity can be achieved through swift and nimble feet, the 12 in. diameter propeller will accelerate the demonstrator to an initial obstacle clearing velocity of 32 ft/sec. After the first 50 vertical feet are cleared, the motor speed will be increased to 6200 RPM and a corresponding velocity of 39 ft/sec to initiate the climb to 500 ft. In this maneuver, 0.18 amp-hrs will be expended. At cruise altitude, the RPM will be increased to 8243 to conserve power and the velocity will be decreased to 34 ft/sec. A series of 300 ft by 500 ft elliptical horizontal loops will be initiated, while the controls are tested and evaluated in their ability to maintain fixed, level flight. After 8 minutes of flight the proposed Delta Monster will enter a powerless glide profile with 10% reserve power. The glide will consist of series of slow gradual turns to dissipate energy. Finally, the demonstrator will be brought in at a moderate angle of approach and belly landed into soft grass. The folding propellor, which was modeled as the A12-6 for purposes of test calculations, would remain intact.

Flight test of the technology demonstrator was unsuccessful and furthermore proved inconclusive. Upon becoming airborne the RPV leveled
off and then initiated an extremely steep dive from an altitude of approximately 6 feet. It was speculated that this dive was a result of possible radio interference or inherent aerodynamic characteristics which could not be accounted for in the preliminary analysis.

REFERENCES