A METHOD FOR COMPUTING LEADING-EDGE LOADS

By RICHARD V. RHODE and HENRY A. PEARSON

1931

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### 1. FUNDAMENTAL AND DERIVED UNITS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>meter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Force</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>weight of one kilogram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>kg/m/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed</td>
<td></td>
<td>km/h</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **W**, Weight = $mg$
- **$g$**, Standard acceleration of gravity = 9.80665 m/s² = 32.1740 ft./sec.²
- **$m$**, Mass = $\frac{W}{g}$
- **$p$**, Density (mass per unit volume).
- **Specific weight of "standard" air**, 1.2255 kg/m³ = 0.07651 lb./ft.³

### 2. GENERAL SYMBOLS, ETC.

- **W**, Weight = $mg$
- **$g$**, Standard acceleration of gravity = 9.80665 m/s² = 32.1740 ft./sec.²
- **$m$**, Mass = $\frac{W}{g}$
- **$p$**, Density (mass per unit volume).
- **Standard density of dry air**, 0.12497 (kg·m⁻¹·s⁻³) at 15° C. and 760 mm = 0.002378 (lb·ft⁻¹·sec⁻²).
- **Specific weight of "standard" air**, 1.2255 kg/m³ = 0.07651 lb./ft.³

### 3. AERODYNAMICAL SYMBOLS

- **L**, Lift, absolute coefficient $C_L = \frac{L}{\rho q S}$
- **D**, Drag, absolute coefficient $C_D = \frac{D}{\rho q S}$
- **Dₚ**, Profile drag, absolute coefficient $C_D = \frac{D}{\rho q S}$
- **Dᵢ**, Induced drag, absolute coefficient $C_D = \frac{D}{\rho q S}$
- **Dₛ**, Parasite drag, absolute coefficient $C_D = \frac{D}{\rho q S}$
- **C**, Cross-wind force, absolute coefficient $C = \frac{C}{\rho q S}$
- **R**, Resultant force.
- **α**, Angle of attack.
- **ε**, Angle of downwash.
- **αᵣ**, Angle of attack, infinite aspect ratio.
- **αᵢ**, Angle of attack, induced.
- **φ**, Angle of attack, absolute. (Measured from zero lift position.)
- **ψ**, Flight path angle.
REPORT No. 413

A METHOD FOR COMPUTING LEADING-EDGE LOADS

By RICHARD V. RHODE and HENRY A. PEARSON
Langley Memorial Aeronautical Laboratory
(An independent Government establishment, created by act of Congress approved March 3, 1915, for the supervision and direction of the scientific study of the problems of flight. Its membership was increased to 15 by act approved March 2, 1929 (Public, No. 908, 70th Congress). It consists of members who are appointed by the President, all of whom serve as such without compensation.)

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Chief, Bureau of Aeronautics, Navy Department, Washington, D. C.

HENRY C. PRATT, Brigadier General, United States Army,
Chief, Matériel Division, Air Corps, Wright Field, Dayton, Ohio.

EDWARD P. WARNER, M. S.,
Editor "Aviation," New York City.

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SUMMARY

In this report a formula is developed that enables the determination of the proper design load for the portion of the wing forward of the front spar. The formula is inherently rational in concept, as it takes into account the most important variables that affect the leading-edge load, although theoretical rigor has been sacrificed for simplicity and ease of application. Some empirical corrections, based on pressure distribution measurements on the "PW-9" and "M-3" airplanes, have been introduced to provide properly for biplanes.

Results from the formula check experimental values in a variety of cases with good accuracy in the critical loading conditions. The use of the method for design purposes is therefore felt to be justified and is recommended.

INTRODUCTION

Recent failures of the leading-edge structures of some airplanes at high angles of attack and in nose dives have indicated the necessity for a revision of the specifications for the design of the leading edge of the wing. (See figs. 1 and 2.) While the present Army and Navy design rules (references 1 and 2) furnish a fairly good criterion for the strength of the leading-edge structure in the high angle of attack condition, the entirely arbitrary provision for the nose-dive condition is inadequate in many cases. The Aeronautics Branch of the Department of Commerce has no rule for either case.

The National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics is now in a favorable position to study problems of this nature, making use of pressure-distribution data from
flight tests and from tests at high Reynolds Numbers in the variable-density wind tunnel which have been accumulated over a period of years.

It is, therefore, the purpose of this paper to develop and to present a more satisfactory rule for the practical determination of leading-edge design loads than has heretofore existed.

The development of the formula involves, basically, theoretical considerations set forth in reference 3, although, in keeping with the interests of the practical designer, liberties have been taken with the rigorous theory to simplify the result as much as possible consistent with reasonable accuracy. Also, although the formula gives fair results for any condition of flight, it has been adjusted to give the best accuracy in the critical loading conditions.

The principal result sought has been the value of the shear at the forward face of the front spar. Thus, the formula is developed to obtain this result and does not include provisions for the rational determination of the moment. An examination of pressure diagrams, however, indicates that the centroid of the diagram area forward of the front spar, whatever the spar location, is confined within fairly narrow limits in terms of percentage of spar distance from the leading edge for all airfoils. Empirical rules for the location of the center of gravity of the leading-edge load are, therefore, derived from which a static test may be devised to give a reasonably correct value of the moment as well as the shear at the critical section.

**DERIVATION OF THE FORMULA**

In reference 3, Theodorsen shows that the total load on a wing section may be considered as the sum of a "basic" load, which is a function only of the shape of the mean camber line, and an additional load, which is a function of the angle of attack measured with respect to the "ideal" angle at which the basic load occurs and, to a minor extent, a function of the nose curvature. He shows, further, that the distribution of the basic load is a function of the mean camber, and that the distribution of the additional load is the same for any airfoil except for a narrow region near the leading edge where it becomes dependent upon the radius of the nose.

Figure 3 illustrates these points.

**Figure 2.** Result of leading-edge failure. Air entering at the opening of the seam burst the fabric.

Neglecting the minor variations at the nose, we may write, with only small error, for the whole wing section.

\[ C_N = C_N + K' (\alpha - \alpha_t) \]  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where, \( C_N \)-total load coefficient
\( C_N' \)-basic load coefficient at \( \alpha_t \)
\( K \)-constant additional load per radian
\( \alpha \)-nominal or geometric angle of attack (radians)
\( \alpha_t \)-ideal angle of attack

For the present purpose it is of interest to examine the portion of the load forward of the front spar location, which is usually anywhere from 8 to 15 per cent of the chord. Equation (1) may be modified as follows:

\[ C_S = k' C_N + K' (\alpha - \alpha_t) \]  \hspace{1cm} (2)
A ME'rO E FOR CO MP UT I G LEADI G-EDGE LOADS

where, $C_r$ is the load coefficient forward of front spar face and $k$ and $K'$ are appropriate constants.

Equation (2) is in such a form that the leading-edge load is given as a fraction of the total load on the section. The use of the function $(a-a_l)$ restricts the

$$\alpha_l = 6.23 (y_1 - y_5) + 0.47 (y_2 - y_4)$$

where $y_1$, $y_2$, $y_4$, and $y_5$ are the ordinates of the mean camber line, as fractions of the chord, with respect to a line joining the extremities of the mean camber line, at stations $x_1 = 0.00542c$, $x_2 = 0.125c$, $x_3 = 0.874c$, and $x_5 = 0.995c$.

The formula may be simplified and its use facilitated by the substitution of a function of $C_N$ for $(\alpha - \alpha_l)$. Referring to Figure 4,
Substituting in equation (2), the following expression is obtained:

\[
C_s = k \cdot C_n + K' \left( \frac{C_n - C_N}{5.5} \right)
\]

(3)

At this point it is necessary to determine \(k\), \(C_n\), and \(K'\). It has been pointed out that the distribution of the additional load which arises as a result of any departure from \(\alpha_I\) is constant. The value of \(K'\), therefore, depends only upon the spar location, and graphical integration of the additional load-curve area forward of any particular front spar face yields the desired result. \(C_n\) is a function of the mean camber line and varies from zero for symmetrical sections to finite positive quantities for cambered airfoils. It may be considered negative for inverted sections. While its value may be determined precisely only by means of pressure measurements at the ideal angle of attack or by Theodorsen’s expression, an approximation is sufficient for the present purpose. It may be said here, in justification of this step, that the ideal angle of attack is the angle at which the flow enters the leading edge smoothly, corresponding to the Kutta condition for smooth flow at the trailing edge. The basic load on the forward portion of the section is therefore small compared to the additional load imposed when the airfoil is at the angle of attack of maximum lift, one of the critical loading conditions for the leading edge. The same argument applies for the other critical condition, that of nose dive, in which, for commonly used airfoils, the value of \(\alpha - \alpha_I\) is also large. The argument does not apply to airfoils with very low camber near zero lift, but in such cases the total loads are small and of little interest. It is, therefore, assumed, for the sake of simplicity, that the value of \(C_n\) is a function only of the general shape of the median line and of the maximum mean camber (measured always with respect to the chord of the mean camber line), and that the value of \(k\), which is the portion of the basic load forward of the spar, is a function only of spar location for airfoils of the same general shape. To obtain working values of \(C_n\) and \(k\), curves have been drawn through theoretically derived values for several airfoils of conventional and reflex form with various cambers and, in the case of \(k\), for several spar locations.

Before the formula is put in its final form, the normal discrepancy between theoretical and experimental results must be taken into account. This discrepancy arises largely as a result of skin friction and is evidenced by progressively increasing pressure losses as the trailing edge is approached. The effect is, therefore, to shift the line of action of the experimental total load forward of that for the theoretical load, which results in an increase in the values of \(k\) and \(K'\). The multiplying factor for \(k\) and \(K'\) was found, by a method of averages, to be 1.17.

The formula may now be written:

\[
C_s = 1.17 \left( k - \frac{K'}{5.5} \right) C_n + \frac{1.17 \cdot K' \cdot C_n}{5.5}
\]

(4)
The result is further condensed to

\[ C_s = (-K_1 C_B + K_2 C_N) \]  

which is the final and useful form, giving what may be termed the "leading-edge shear coefficient," or the leading-edge load per unit chord, per unit span, per unit \( q \). From this, substituting \( C_L \) for \( C_N \), the total load per unit span is

\[ w_{1.6} = C_s \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 c \]

\[ = (-K_1 C_B + K_2 C_L) c \times \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \]

where \( c \), \( \rho \), and \( V \) have their usual significance.

Curves for \( K_1 \) and \( K_2 \) as functions of spar location are given in Figures 5 and 6, respectively, and curves of \( C_B \) against maximum mean camber are given in Figure 7. Figure 8 is included merely to show the manner in which \( y_{\text{max}} \) is measured.

**COMPARISON OF RESULTS FROM FORMULA AND FROM PRESSURE-DISTRIBUTION TESTS**

For the purpose of checking the validity of the formula by comparison with pressure-distribution diagrams, only those diagrams which were obtained from the variable-density wind tunnel at high Reynolds Numbers (reference 4) and from flight tests are used. While a vast quantity of pressure-distribution data from other sources is available, they have shown such inconsistency among themselves and with variable-density wind tunnel and flight results that it is believed advisable to avoid confusion, and possibly misleading conclusions, by the elimination of them from consideration altogether.

A comparison of the calculated shear coefficients \( C_s \) with experimental values obtained from tests on monoplane airfoils in the variable-density tunnel is given in Table 1. It will be noted that the agreement is good at high angles of attack for the variety of airfoils and spar locations given, the maximum difference being 12.9 per cent in the case of the N. A. C. A. 84-J airfoil with spar location at 20 per cent chord.

At lift coefficients of zero or slightly below, representing the nose-dive condition, the agreement is quite good at all spar locations for the R. A. F. 30 and N. A. C. A. 84 airfoils. Larger errors, however, are apparent for the M-6, Clark Y, and 84-J. There are several reasons for this apparent decrease in accuracy. First, differential normal pressures are less at the nose near zero lift than at maximum lift when the air speed is maintained constant. This condition results in larger percentage experimental errors at the low angles of attack, since small pressures are more difficult to measure with accuracy than large pressures. Second, the peculiar shape of the pressure diagram for lift coefficients near zero is of itself a cause for greater experimental error. Slight inaccuracies in locating pressure orifices result in large percentage errors in the leading-edge shear coefficient since the pressure gradient along the chord near normal front-spar locations is extremely steep. This source of error is an important consideration when using test data from small models. In
addition, since the leading-edge part of the pressure diagram is roughly a narrow triangle in shape (see fig. 3), much depends upon the proper location of orifices and upon accurate measurement at a pressure station near the apex of the "triangle." Such causes as the above could easily explain most of the apparent 20 per cent error in the results on the Clark Y.

In the case of the M-6 another source of error exists. Because this airfoil has such a low camber, the value of \( \alpha - \alpha_1 \) is small near zero lift; thus the basic load, which in the formula is only approximated, largely predominates. In fact, it may be expected that, as \( \alpha - \alpha_1 \) approaches such a value that the difference between the "basic" pressures and the "additional" pressures near the nose approach zero, percentage errors will become infinitely great. These errors, however, have no practical significance. It is to be noted, in this connection, that the nose-dive shear coefficients for the M-6 are quite small compared with those for the other airfoils, excepting the symmetrical R. A. F. 30 section.

The greatest errors occur in the case of the N. A. C. A. S4-J airfoil slightly below zero lift. Pressure diagrams for this condition, showing definitely that the lower surface has stalled, indicate that these errors are almost entirely a result of the abnormal shape, or mean camber, of the section. It will be noted that the error is almost entirely eliminated if the concavity in the lower surface is removed to prevent this stalling; e. g., it will be noted that the error is small in the case of the N. A. C. A. S4, which is simply the S4-J with the concave lower surface replaced by a flat lower surface.

In view of the above discussion, the accuracy of the results obtained with the formula applied to monoplanes is considered reasonably good. It is to be doubted that better results could have been obtained without greater precision in test measurements and appreciably greater complications in the method or formula.

In Table II results obtained with the formula are compared with experimental results obtained in flight on the M-3 and PW-9 airplanes having the Clark Y and Göttingen 436 sections, respectively. The test data represented in this table are of an appreciably higher order of accuracy than those in Table I, having been recently obtained after improvements in test methods were effected. The maximum error on the Clark Y in this table is 11 per cent, an amount which is not greater than might be expected as a result of the biplane arrangement. The upper wing in this case is alone represented.

The error on the upper wing of the PW-9 airplane is about the same in magnitude and of the same sign as the error on the M-3 upper wing in the high angle of attack condition. In the nose-dive condition on the PW-9 lower wing, however, the error is consistently high, averaging about 30 per cent, while on the upper wing in this condition the error is negligible.

EFFECT OF BIPLANE ARRANGEMENT

No attempt is made here to include rationally the effects of superposed wings as in biplane combinations. The character of these effects should, however, be understood and some provision made for them in the design.

One airfoil mounted beneath another airfoil may be considered to have two effects on the latter. First, by virtue of its downwash at positive values of lift, the lower wing causes the upper wing to operate at an effective angle of attack which is smaller than that at which it would operate as a monoplane. This effect does not influence appreciably the shape of the pressure diagram. Second, by virtue of the camber of the upper wing, a phenomenon which results in a decrease in the effective camber of the upper wing. This effect causes a small forward shift of the center of pressure on the upper wing at high angles of attack and an increase in the leading-edge load. Thus, it is to be expected that the formula for leading-edge loads will give low values for the upper wing at high angles of attack. On the M-3 and PW-9 airplanes (Table II) the result is 11 per cent too low. Most of this error, however, may be experimental error and error from the formula. In view of this and the reasonably small magnitude of the error, it is not considered necessary nor advisable to make any correction for the upper wing at high angles of attack.

The effect of the upper wing on the lower is likewise small at the high angles of attack.

At or near zero lift the effect of the curvature of the streamlines appears to be small on the upper wings of both the M-3 and PW-9. On the PW-9 lower wing, however, the effect appears to be quite pronounced, as has been previously shown. A number of careful tests near zero lift on this airplane all bear out the fact that the shear coefficient on the lower wing is about 30 per cent greater than that on the upper wing or that obtained from the formula. It is interesting to recall, in this connection, that the leading-edge failure on a recently built diving bomber occurred on the lower wing in a dive. (Figs. 1 and 2.) This evidence, with the results of the PW-9 tests, indicates that the requirements for the lower wing of a biplane in the nose-dive condition should be increased over those for the upper wing or the monoplane. On the basis of the PW-9 tests, it is suggested that this increase should be 30 per cent in some cases. Since the effect is probably caused by an induced change in camber resulting from curved air flow, it is more logical to include the effect in the formula by increasing the value of \( \mathcal{C}_l \) rather than by increasing the final result arbitrarily by 30 per cent. From the PW-9 tests it appears that the value of \( \mathcal{C}_l \) should be increased 40 per cent for the biplane lower wing in the nose-dive condition. This
A METHOD FOR COMPUTING LEADING-EDGE LOADS

Correction is recommended for general use until more information is available.

USE OF THE FORMULA

In any design, the strength of the leading edge should be investigated for the two critical conditions, (a) high angle of attack, and (b) nose dive. Experience, as well as analysis, has shown that no other condition need be considered and that in some cases, such as designs making use of symmetrical or nearly symmetrical airfoils and designs of large airplanes that are never dived, the high angle of attack condition only is of interest. To make use of the formula for these conditions, the leading-edge shear coefficient \( C_s \) and the dynamic pressure \( \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \) must be known. \( C_s \), as has been shown, is a function of the shape of the airfoil and of the value of \( C_N \) corresponding to the condition being investigated. In a given design, with the airfoil and spar locations known, the constants \( K_1, K_2, \) and \( C_N \) are readily determined from the curves given in Figures 5, 6, and 7. It is necessary to determine the values of \( C_N \) and \( \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \) that will make the strength of the leading edge consistent with the strength of the rest of the wing structure. This may be done as follows:

Case I—High angle of attack.—The primary wing structure is designed to fail in a condition corresponding to maximum \( C_N \) with a certain specified load factor. From the general lift equation, this is equivalent to saying,

\[
nW = C_{N_{\text{max}}} S \times \frac{1}{2} \rho_0 V_i^2
\]

where,

- \( nW \) —the load at failure
- \( n \) —high angle of attack load factor
- \( W \) —weight
- \( S \) —wing area
- \( \rho_0 \) —standard sea-level density
- \( V_i \) —the indicated speed at which, with \( C_{N_{\text{max}}} \), the equation is satisfied

This speed \( V_i \) is the speed to use in the leading-edge formula for the high angle of attack condition, and \( C_{N_{\text{max}}} \) the proper value of \( C_N \). It is not essential that \( C_{N_{\text{max}}} \) be determined with great precision, as any errors introduced in the shear coefficient will be approximately compensated by errors of opposite sense in \( V_i^2 \), with a resultant small error in the total leading-edge load. A representative problem, using the Clark Y airfoil, has indicated that \( C_{N_{\text{max}}} \) may be in error by as much as 25 per cent and cause only a 5 per cent error in the total leading-edge load.

In the case of biplanes, proper account should be taken of the relative wing-loading ratio. The above discussion of \( C_{N_{\text{max}}} \) applies strictly only to monoplanes. It applies to biplanes when \( C_{N_{\text{max}}} \) is considered as that for the cellule and is used to determine \( V_i^2 \). The mean lift coefficient for the biplane cellule should not be used in the formula to determine the leading-edge load for either upper or lower wings without correcting for the relative wing-loading ratio. This may be done by means of the following simple expressions, the wing-loading ratio being assumed known:

\[
L_u + L_t = W_n
\]

or,

\[
L_u = W_n - L_t
\]

where, \( L_u \) —lift on upper wing
\( L_t \) —lift on lower wing
\( W \) —gross weight
\( n \) —H. A. A. load factor

Also,

\[
R = \frac{C_N \text{ (upper)}}{C_N \text{ (lower)}} = \frac{L_u S_i}{L_t S_u} = \frac{W_n - L_t}{L_t} \times \frac{S_i}{S_u}
\]

Solve the above equation for \( L_t \). Then,

\[
C_N \text{ (lower)} = \frac{L_t}{\frac{1}{2} \rho_0 V_i^2} \times \frac{S_i}{S_u}
\]

and \( C_N \text{ (upper)} = R \times C_N \text{ (lower)} \) where \( V_i^2 \) is the value found using the cellule \( C_{N_{\text{max}}} \) and the high angle of attack load factor.

As in the case of the monoplane, the biplane-wing lift coefficients found by the above method may not be true values, since they depend on \( V_i^2 \), which itself has been found from an approximate cellule \( C_{N_{\text{max}}} \). However, this makes no practical difference, any errors resulting in the shear coefficient being compensated by an error of opposite sense in \( V_i^2 \) to give a substantially correct leading-edge design load.

The above biplane correction has nothing to do with the biplane corrections to the shear coefficient discussed in the preceding sections and is used merely to determine the proper values of \( C_N \) for the individual wings.

Corrections to allow for the variation of \( C_N \) along the span are not believed to be advisable in view of the added complication which would be involved.

Case II—Nose dive.—In the nose-dive condition, the terminal velocity or the limited diving speed should be determined. The value of \( C_N \) may be found by a solution of the conditions of static equilibrium for the case under consideration. It is suggested that, for the terminal-velocity dive, allowance be made for the possibility of encountering gusts and for slight inadvertent motions of the controls which may result in negative lift coefficients. This provision is important because the variation of leading-edge load with angle of attack near zero lift is extremely rapid, the load increasing greatly with small negative increments of lift coefficient. So little is known about atmospheric conditions that it is difficult to establish a criterion for the determination of the proper negative lift coefficients on the basis of gusts. An examination of pilot-balloon data taken at Langley Field over a period of three months indicates that variations in horizontal wind velocities may be assumed as 15 feet per second, which would result in negative lift coefficients of from \(-0.15\) to \(-0.26\) in the average case, depending on the terminal velocity. Other evidence exists which indicates
that a value of 15 feet per second is not too conservative. In addition to the possibilities of encountering gusts, there is also the fact that wings twist in dives under the heavy torsional moments experienced with the common wing sections. This influence may result in negative lift coefficients at the outer portion of the wing, even when the total lift coefficient is positive. Since this effect increases with speed, it is probably better to assume a constant negative lift coefficient for all cases instead of one which would vary approximately inversely with the speed if a standard gust were used as a basis. Until more is known about conditions in the dive, it is felt that a value of $C_N$ not less than $-0.2$ should be used in the nose-dive analysis.

The correction for relative wing-loading ratio is not to be used for the nose-dive analysis, but the 40 per cent increase in $C_b$ for the lower wings of biplanes, as recommended in the preceding section, should not be forgotten.

**TYPICAL PROBLEM**

Given:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Airplane</th>
<th>Biplane pursuit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>2,720 pounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area (upper)</td>
<td>184 square feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area (lower)</td>
<td>88 square feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area (total)</td>
<td>272 square feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean chord (upper)</td>
<td>5.75 feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean chord (lower)</td>
<td>4.00 feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Airfoil</td>
<td>Clark Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$(y_{\text{max}} = 3.60 \text{ per cent}; \text{see fig. 6.})$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. A. A. load factor $n$</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spar-face location $x$</td>
<td>10 per cent chord</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative wing-load ratio</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terminal velocity</td>
<td>280 m. p. h. (410 f. p. s.) assumed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Required:

Shear at spar face on both upper and lower wings in:

(a) H. A. A. condition

(b) N. D. condition

Solution:

Constants:

$K_1 = 0.223$

$K_2 = 0.367$

$C_b = 0.525$

High angle of attack condition:

$C_{N \text{max}}(\text{cellule}) = 1.4$ (assumed)

$V_t^2 = \frac{2nW}{1.4S_{\rho_b}} = \frac{2 \times 12 \times 2,720}{1.4 \times 272 \times 0.002378} = 72,100 \text{ (f. p. s.)}^2$

$R = \frac{W-L_{\text{d}}}{L_{\text{d}} \times S_1}$

or $L_{\text{d}} = \frac{W(R_{S_1} + 1)}{(R_{S_1} - 1)} = \frac{12 \times 2,720}{1.2 \times \frac{184}{88} + 1} = 9,300$ pounds

$C_{N_t} = \frac{9,300}{V_t^2 \sqrt{S_1}} = \frac{9,300}{V_t^2 \times 85.7 \times 88} = 1.23$

and, $C_{N_u} = 1.2 \times 1.23 = 1.48$.

Thus, for the upper wing:

$w_{t.e.} = (-K_1C_n + K_2C_N) \frac{p_0}{2V_t^2} = \frac{(-0.223 \times 0.525 + 0.367 \times 1.48)}{2} \times 72,100 \times 5.75$

= 210 pounds per foot span, or

$0.1 \times 5.75 = 365$ pounds per square foot average.

For the lower wing:

$w_{t.e.} = (0.002378 \times 72,100 \times 4)$

= 118 pounds per foot span, or

$0.1 \times 4 = 295$ pounds per square foot average.

The preceding values are the total design loads.

Nose dive condition:

$K_1 = 0.223$

$K_2 = 0.367$ as before

$C_b = 0.525$

$C_{N_u} = -0.200$ assumed for N. D.

$C_b$ (corrected for lower wing) = $1.4 \times 0.525 = 0.735$

Thus, for the upper wing:

$w_{t.e.} = (0.002378 \times 410 \times 5.75)$

= 219 pounds per foot span.

For the lower wing:

$w_{t.e.} = (0.002378 \times 410 \times 4)$

= 190 pounds per foot span.

The above values are the total applied loads. The design load is obtained by multiplying by a factor of safety, $2$, which gives a result of 438 pounds per foot for the upper wing and 380 pounds per foot for the lower wing.

It will be noted that it was not necessary to multiply the high angle-of-attack results by two, since the factor of safety was taken into account by using the design load factor in the determination of $V_t^2$. The same result would have been obtained by calculating $V_t^2$ on the basis of the expected maximum applied load factor or $n/2$ (in this case, 6) and multiplying the final result by the factor of safety, $2$.

**APPLICATION IN STATIC TESTS**

It is desirable, in static tests of the leading edge, to use a rectangular load distribution. Such a distribu-
tion is permissible if the stresses imposed at the critical section in flight can be well represented in this way. If the rectangular load distribution is to be used, the moment at the critical section (always the forward face of the spar) must, in addition to the shear, be approximately correct.

No attempt has been made here to rationalize the determination of the moment of the leading-edge load about the face of the spar, since an empirical solution is believed to be within the limits of precision of practical static tests. It has been found, from an examination of a large number of pressure diagrams, that the location of the centroid of the part of the area forward of the front spar is, on the average, at 45 per cent of the total chord (for H. A. A. condition) and at 35 per cent (0.35 \( x \)) in the nose-dive condition. The relative position varies slightly with different spar locations and with different airfoils, but within the usual range the variation amounts to not more than three-fourths of 1 per cent of the total chord or only a small fraction of an inch for the ordinary airplane.

Static tests may, therefore, be made using a rectangular load distribution, the center of gravity of the load being at,

\[ 0.45 \times \text{H. A. A.} \]
\[ 0.35 \times \text{N. D.} \]

**REFERENCES**


**TABLE I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spar location (% c)</th>
<th>( C_s )</th>
<th>( K_1 ) (from curve)</th>
<th>( K_2 ) (from curve)</th>
<th>( C_s ) (Computed)</th>
<th>( C_s ) (Experimental)</th>
<th>Error, %</th>
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<td>±0.55</td>
<td>0.162</td>
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<td>0.244</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>9.8</td>
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<td>±0.34</td>
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<td>0.252</td>
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<td>1.9</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.253</td>
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**N. A. C. A. M-6 AIRFOIL**

<table>
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<th>Spar location (% c)</th>
<th>( C_s )</th>
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<th>( K_2 ) (from curve)</th>
<th>( C_s ) (Computed)</th>
<th>( C_s ) (Experimental)</th>
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Lanely Memori-al Aeronautical Laboratory, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Lanely Field, V., January 16, 1931.
### TABLE I—Continued

**COMPARISON OF SHEAR COEFFICIENTS FROM FORMULA AND FROM PRESSURE-DISTRIBUTION TESTS IN THE VARIABLE-DENSITY TUNNEL—Con.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spar location (% c)</th>
<th>C_{a0}</th>
<th>C_{d0}</th>
<th>K_{10} (from curve)</th>
<th>K_{20} (from curve)</th>
<th>C_{s}</th>
<th>Error, %</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
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<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
<td>H. A. A. condition.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>-0.123</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Approximate N. D. condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
<td>H. A. A. condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>-0.123</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Approximate N. D. condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
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<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
<td>H. A. A. condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>-0.123</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>4.4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
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<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
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<td>H. A. A. condition.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.44</td>
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<td>0.222</td>
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<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Approximate N. D. condition.</td>
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**N. A. C. A. 84 AIRFOIL**

Maximum mean camber=3.6% c; C_{a0}=0.525

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spar location (% c)</th>
<th>C_{a0}</th>
<th>C_{d0}</th>
<th>K_{10} (from curve)</th>
<th>K_{20} (from curve)</th>
<th>C_{s}</th>
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<th>Remarks</th>
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<td>5</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.230</td>
<td>-2.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>0.222</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.230</td>
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<td>1.50</td>
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</tr>
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<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
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<td>0.222</td>
<td>-0.123</td>
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<td>0.230</td>
<td>15.5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.222</td>
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<td>0.222</td>
<td>-0.123</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.230</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>Approximate N. D. condition.</td>
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### TABLE II

**COMPARISON OF LEADING-EDGE LOADS AS COMPUTED TO THOSE LOADS OBTAINED IN ACTUAL FLIGHT**

**CLARK Y AIRFOIL (UPPER WING DOUGLAS M–3)**

Maximum mean camber=3.6% c; C_{a0}=0.525; Chord 3.667 feet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spar location (% c)</th>
<th>C_{a0}</th>
<th>C_{d0}</th>
<th>K_{10} (from curve)</th>
<th>K_{20} (from curve)</th>
<th>C_{s}</th>
<th>Error, %</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.533</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>0.283</td>
<td>107.6</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>-11.9</td>
<td>H. A. A. condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>0.283</td>
<td>107.6</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>-11.9</td>
<td>H. A. A. condition.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**GÖTTINGEN 436 AIRFOIL (UPPER WING BOEING PW–9)**

Maximum mean camber=3.53% c; C_{a0}=0.515; Chord 5.62 feet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spar location (% c)</th>
<th>C_{a0}</th>
<th>C_{d0}</th>
<th>K_{10} (from curve)</th>
<th>K_{20} (from curve)</th>
<th>C_{s}</th>
<th>Error, %</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.743</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>0.477</td>
<td>144.1</td>
<td>108.6</td>
<td>-6.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.630</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>0.477</td>
<td>110.3</td>
<td>110.3</td>
<td>108.6</td>
<td>-6.1</td>
<td>H. A. A. condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>0.477</td>
<td>110.3</td>
<td>110.3</td>
<td>108.6</td>
<td>-6.1</td>
<td>H. A. A. condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Zero lift.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Zero lift.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Zero lift.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**GÖTTINGEN 436 AIRFOIL (LOWER WING BOEING PW–9)**

Maximum mean camber=3.50% c; C_{a0}=0.456; Chord 4.23 feet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spar location (% c)</th>
<th>C_{a0}</th>
<th>C_{d0}</th>
<th>K_{10} (from curve)</th>
<th>K_{20} (from curve)</th>
<th>C_{s}</th>
<th>Error, %</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
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<tr>
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<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>92.8</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Zero lift.</td>
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</table>
Positive directions of axes and angles (forces and moments) are shown by arrows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Axis</th>
<th>Sym-</th>
<th>Force (parallel to axis) symbol</th>
<th>Moment about axis</th>
<th>Angle</th>
<th>Velocities</th>
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<td>Symbol</td>
<td>Designation</td>
<td>Symbol</td>
<td>Designation</td>
<td>Symbol</td>
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<td>roll</td>
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<td>θ</td>
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<td>Normal</td>
<td>Z</td>
<td>yawing</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>yaw</td>
<td>ψ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Absolute coefficients of moment

\[ C_i = \frac{L}{q b S}, \quad C_m = \frac{M}{q c S}, \quad C_a = \frac{N}{q b S} \]

Angle of set of control surface (relative to neutral position), \( \delta \). (Indicate surface by proper subscript.)

4. PROPELLER SYMBOLS

- \( D \), Diameter.
- \( p \), Geometric pitch.
- \( p/D \), Pitch ratio.
- \( V_i \), Inflow velocity.
- \( V_r \), Slipstream velocity.
- \( T \), Thrust, absolute coefficient \( C_T = \frac{T}{\rho n^2 D^3} \).
- \( Q \), Torque, absolute coefficient \( C_Q = \frac{Q}{\rho n^2 D^5} \).
- \( P \), Power, absolute coefficient \( C_P = \frac{P}{\rho n^3 D^5} \).
- \( C_s \), Speed power coefficient \( = \frac{\sqrt{p V_i^3}}{P n^2} \).
- \( \eta \), Efficiency.
- \( n \), Revolutions per second, r. p. s.
- \( \Phi \), Effective helix angle \( = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{V}{2 \pi n R} \right) \).

5. NUMERICAL RELATIONS

- \( 1 \text{ hp} = 76.04 \text{ kg/m/s} = 550 \text{ lb./ft./sec.} \)
- \( 1 \text{ kg/m/s} = 0.01315 \text{ hp} \)
- \( 1 \text{ mi./hr.} = 0.44704 \text{ m/s} \)
- \( 1 \text{ m/s} = 2.23693 \text{ mi./hr.} \)
- \( 1 \text{ lb.} = 0.4535924277 \text{ kg.} \)
- \( 1 \text{ kg} = 2.204624 \text{ lb.} \)
- \( 1 \text{ mi.} = 1609.35 \text{ m} = 5280 \text{ ft.} \)
- \( 1 \text{ m} = 3.2808333 \text{ ft.} \)