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JUNE 13, 1944

ALTITUDE AND ITS EFFECT UPON AIRPLANE PERFORMANCE

FLIGHT ENGINEERING AND FACTORY INSPECTION DIVISION



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## DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE CIVIL AFRONAUTICS ADMINISTRATION Washington

July 10, 1944

## SAFETY REGULATION RELEASE NO. 164

SUBJECT:

Flight Engineering Report No. 13, entitled, "Altitude

and Its Effect Upon Airplane Performances

PREPARED BY: Flight Engineering and Factory Inspection Division.

The brief and rather elementary discussion of the subject which is contained in this report was undertaken primarily to furnish information for inclusion in a publication addressed to private pilots.

Upon its completion however it was concluded that considerable abridgment would be necessary to serve the originally intended purpose, but that the entire paper was of sufficient value in that it sheds considerable light upon a very confused subject and also in that the Tables contained herein represent the only general study which is known of the effect of wing and power loading upon the items of performance treated, to warrant its separate publication.

F. M. Lanter

Director, Safety Regulation

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#### PREFACE

The brief and rather elementary discussion of the subject which is contained in this report was undertaken primarily to furnish information for inclusion in a publication addressed to private pilots.

Upon its completion however it was concluded that considerable abridgment would be necessary to serve the originally intended purpose, but that the entire paper was of sufficient value in that it sheds considerable light upon a very confused subject and also in that the Tables contained herein represent the only general study which is known of the effect of wing and power loading upon the items of performance treated, to warrant its separate publication. A part of the calculations involved in the preparation of the Tables was done by Mr. M. E. Gaydos and the report has been prepared by Omer Welling, Chief, Flight Analysis Section.

APPROVED BY:

Chief, Flight Engineering and Factory Inspection Division

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#### INTRODUCTION

Those who fly signlanes are necessarily concerned with altitude the altitude of objects or points of terrain on the surface of the earth as well as the altitude of the airplane in order that proper clearance above the former of these may be maintained and also because the performance of the airplane is apparently affected by altitude. being generally reduced with increasing altitude. Altitude is, of course, a vertical dimension - usually that from sea level to the point involved - and the altitude of points or objects on the surface of the earth is ordinarily measured by means of surveying instruments. The use of these instruments to measure the altitude of an airplane in flight is obviously impracticable if not impossible and it has therefore, been necessary to resort to some other means for this purpose. The instrument almost universally so used is the altimeter but in order to understand what this instrument really measures, the relation of the measurement to altitude, and the nature of the effect of altitude upon the performance of an airplane it is necessary to devote some attention to the nature of the air in which the airplane operates.

# MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF THE ATMOSPHERE

Each square foot of the earths surface supports approximately 2,100 pounds of atmosphere. The atmosphere is made up of air (which is a mixture of gases) water vapor, smoke and dust particles and other suspended material, but machanically it may be considered to be air and the air a gas. All gases are compressible and the mechanical properties are such that the weight of a given volume of the gas is directly proportional to the pressure to which it is subjected and inversely proportional to the absolute temperature (degrees, Fahrenheit plus 459.4). Thus for example, a cubic foot of air at the normal sea level pressure of 2,118 pounds per square foot and a temperature of 59°F weighs 0.0765 pounds. If the temperature remains constant but the pressure is doubled, the weight of a cubic foot of air is doubled. If the pressure remains constant and the temperature is elevated to 120°F, the weight will be reduced to:

0.0765 x <u>59 + 459.4</u> = 0.0685 pounds 120 + 459.4

or 89.6% of the original weight.

The pressure exerted by the atmosphere upon the surface of the earth or upon objects immersed in the atmosphere is due to the weight of the air above the level at which the pressure is measured. If the weight of a cubic foot of air remained constant at any altitude as the weight of a cubic foot of water does remain substantially constant no matter what the depth below the surface, then the atmospheric pressure would decrease 0.0765 pounds per square foot for each foot of altitude gained and would become zero at an altitude of approximately 27,670 feet, indicating that altitude to be the extent of the atmosphere above sea

level. As the preceding paragraph has indicated, however, the weight of a cubic foot of air does not remain constant with altitude at rather tends to decrease with increasing altitude due to the corresponding reduction of pressure.

Due, however, to the fact that the temperature ordinarily decreases with increasing altitude, the weight of a cubic foot of air tends to increase with increasing altitude. The effect of the decreasing pressure is much greater than that of the decreasing temperature however, and their combination produces a net decrease in weight with increasing altitude such that under normal conditions it is only half its sea level value at an altitude of 21,850 feet and the pressure at an altitude of 27,670 feet is not zero but rather still approximately 35% of the sea level value. Finally, the upward extent of the atmosphere is thereetically infinite and is known to be several hundred miles.

The foregoing discussion indicates that if the temperature and atmospheric pressure at one level may be measured and if the temperature at all intervening altitudes is known, then the pressure at any other altitude may be determined by calculating, as has been illustrated above, the weight of each intervening cubic foot of air and adding (if the new altitude is less than the original) or subtracting (if greater) the sum of these weights to or from the originally measured. pressure. That is, the pressures at all altitudes and the corresponding unit weights or densities are interrelated by the temperatures which exist at all altitudes, or, the pressure and corresponding density at any altitude are determined by the pressure and temperature at sea level and the temperatures at all intervening altitudes.

#### THE STANDARD ATMOSPHERE

It is a matter of common knowledge that both atmospheric pressure and temperature at sea level vary from time to time at a given station as well as from station to station at a given time. Thus for example. at almost any station in the United States the pressure may vary over a range of 70 or more pounds per square foct and the temperature over 100 or more degrees Fahrenheit during the course of a year. Also, the rate at which temperature changes with increasing altitude may vary from an increase of 10 or 20F to a decrease of 50 or 60F per thousand foot of altitude at a given altitude and further, may vary from altitude to altitude above a given station at a given time. Finally, it is as yet a practical impossibility to predict or forecast what these values of pressure and temperature will be more than a few hours in advance of the time of making the forecast and for this reason, in order practically to deal with the atmosphere for certain purposes, it is necessary to resort to an approximation which may be considered invariable.

The approximation by common agreement, almost universally used, is called, "The Standard Atmosphere" and it is based upon the following assumptions:

- a. The atmospheric pressure at sea level is invariably 2,118 pounds per square foot or 14.7 pounds per square inch, or 29.92 inches of mercury.
- b. The temperature at sea level is invariably 59°F.
- c. The temperature invariably decreases uniformly form 59° at sea level to -67°F at an altitude of 35,300 feet, i.e. the temperature decreases 3.566°F per thousand foot of altitude from sea level to 35,300 feet and not at all above that level.

The numbers involved in these assumptions are approximate mean or representative values of a great many actual measurements of pressure and temperature at various points on and above the surface of the earth at various intervals of time and these measurements indicate that the probability of departure of a particular measurement from the "standard" value is a maximum at or near the surface of the earth and generally decreases with increasing altitude. As has been indicated earlier, these assumed values of a sea level pressure and temperature and of temperatures at all altitudes define a pressure and a density corresponding with each altitude and the standard atmosphere is ordinarily presented in the form of a table showing for each of suitable altitudes the corresponding pressure, temperature and density.

#### THE ALTIMETER

The altimeter is basically an instrument which measures atmospheric pressure. It does not measure altitude directly. In spite of this, however, the dial is graduated in feet of altitude and the instrument is so designed that when it is subjected to a given pressure, the pointer on the dial indicates the altitude at which that pressure occurs in the standard atmosphere. The reading of the instrument may or may not be the actual altitude depending upon how closely the actual conditions of pressure and temperature correspond with those assumed by the standard atmosphere. For example, the Civil Aeronautics Administration assumes, for the purpose of investigation of the power plant cooling characteristics, a very hot day such that the temperature from sea level to an altitude of 5,000 feet is 110°F. If, on such a day the atmospheric pressure at sea level is that assumed by the standard atmosphere, namely 2,118 pounds per square foot or 29,92 inches of mercury the pressure at an altitude of 5,000 feet will be such that the altimeter will read 4,500 feet. If, however, and this is quite possible, the barometer at sea level reads 30.42 inches of mercury, then at 5,000 feet the altimeter will read approximately 4,000 feet. It may thus be seen that the altimeter reading is only an approximation to the altitude and that the maximum error likely to be encountered is of the order 1,000 feet.

When the altimeter is used to provide clearance between an airplane in flight and points or objects upon the surface of the earth, allowance is ordinarily made for the possibility of error by providing a margin great enough to permit some clearance in spite of the error. When used to indicate vertical clearance between two or more airplanes in flight, the altimeter is ordinarily a more precise instrument because at the

same altitude all medianically correct instruments will show the same reading no matter what the relation of the reading to the actual altitude. Also, certain altimeters are provided with an adjustment such that if the atmospheric pressure at sea level directly below the airplane is known, the instrument may be set to that pressure and thus practically eliminate the error due to departure of the pressure from the "standard" value which has been pointed out in the preceding paragraph.

### THE EFFECT OF ALTITUDE UPON AIRPLANT PERFORMANCE

In the light of the foregoing discussion, it is now possible to consider the performance of the airplane and the apparent effect of altitude upon this. Performance includes such items as take-off distance, rate of climb, stalling speed, endurance, ceiling, etc. but no attempt will have be made to deal comprehensively with all items of performance. Instead, take-off distance, rate of climb, and stalling speed are selected as being of greatest interest and sufficiently representative of all performance to illustrate generally the apparent effect of altitude upon performance and the following discussion of these is confined to consideration of an airplane equipped with an unsupercharged or "see level" engine and a fixed pitch propeller.

#### a. Take-Off Ground Run

The purpose of the take-off ground run is to accelerate the airplane from a standing start (zero ground speed) to the minimum airspeed at which flight is possible or safe. The force producing the acceleration is the difference between the thrust exerted by the propeller and the resistance to moving offered by the airplane. The thrust results from the power drawn from the engine and is, at a given air speed and density, very nearly proportional to the power. The resistance to motion is made up of the rolling resistance of the landing gear wheels and the air drag of the airplane. The minimum air speed which must be attained is that at which, for the airplane attitude involved, the lift, equals the weight of the airplame. The distance, speed, and accelerating force are so interrelated that, for a given force, the distance is approximately proportional to the square of the speed, i.e., if the speed is increased 20%, the distance increases approximately 44%, etc.; or, for a given speed, the distance is inversely proportional to the force; i.e., if the force is doubled, the distance is halved.

The lift, and drag forces acting upon an airplane are at a given airplane attitude, directly proportional to the square of the airspeed and to the density or weight of a cubic foot of air; i.e., at a given density, if the speed is doubled the force are increased to four times their original value or, at a given speed, if the density is halved the forces are halved. At the end of the take-off ground run the lift load on the hirplane must equal its weight no matter what the combination of airspeed and density involved and for this reason, if at one time the density or weight of the air is less than at another, the above relation indicates that the speed must be greater in order that density times the square of airspeed, and therefore lift, remain the same. Under these conditions, as indicated by the preceding paragraph and

due to the necessary increase in airspeed, the take-off distance will increase and, in general, tends to increase in proportion as density or weight of the air decreases. Also, since both lift and drag are proportional to the same product of density and the square of airspeed and further, since the lift must always equal the weight of the airplane, therefore the drag remains constant no matter what the density and necessary airspeed for take-off.

The power developed by an engine is proportional to the weight of the mixture of air and fuel burned in the cylinders in a unit of time. The volume of the mixture handled by the engine in a unit of time is approximately proportional to the RPM at which it operates, since the dimensions of the cylinder, that is, its bore and stroke are fixed. For this reason, if the engine operates at a given RPM, as the density or weight of the air entering the cylinders is decreased so is the power. As has been indicated by the previous discussion, the thrust developed during the take-off run is very nearly proportional to the power and therefore, the thrust is also approximately inversely proportional to the density or weight of a cubic foot of the air in which the airplane operates during take-off; that is, if the density is reduced to 80 percent of its original value, the thrust will also be reduced to approximately 80 percent of its original value. This means that the accelerating force during the take-off run, which is equal to the difference between the thrust and the resistance of the airplane to motion. will also be reduced by an even greater amount. If, for example, under the original conditions the resistance is 25 percent of the thrust. leaving 75 percent of the thrust as an accelerated force, then a reduction of the thrust to 80 percent of its original value will reduce the accelerating force to 55 percent of the original value at thrust. It has been stated above that the take-off distance is inversely proportional to the accelerating force. It follows therefore, that reduction in density, which reduces the accelerating force, necessarily increases the take-off distance and does so at a rate which is greater than proportional to the density. Combining the two effects of density upon the take-off distance which have been discussed above, it must be concluded that the take-off distance increases with reducing density at a rate which is somewhat greater than inversely proportional to the square of the density.

In order to indicate the magnitude of this effect Table I has been prepared. Since the relative magnitude of the effect depends also upon the particular combination of wing loading and power loading involved in a given simplane, the table considers various wing loadings and, for each, several take-off power loadings over the range likely to be encountered. The power loading is the weight of the airplane divided by the rated take-off power of the engine (or their sum if more than one engine) at sea level.

#### b. Rate of Climb

An airplane climbs because the thrust horsepower available from the engine is in excess of that required for level flight at the same airspeed. The power is by definition a force times a velocity. The thrust horsepower is therefore, thrust times the speed of flight and the power required for

level flight is the drag of the airplane times the speed of flight. It has been seen in the discussion of the take-off distance that, so long as the lift force on the airplane remains equal to the weight, the drag will remain constant. In any straight and steady flight condition the lift load on the wing is approximately equal to the weight of the airplane. Since, as has been pointed out above, the drag is proportional to the product of density times the square of airspeed and power is equal to drag times airspeed it follows that power required is very nearly proportional to the cube of the airspeed times the density. The thrust horsepower available is equal to the brake horsepower of engine times the propulsive efficiency and generally tends to increase with increasing airspeed. Since the rate of climb results from the difference between thrust horsepower available and power required, it is usually convenient to plot these two quantities against airspeed as has been done in Figure 1. As has been pointed out in the discussion of the take-off distance, the brake horsepower and therefore, the thrust horsepower are approximately proportional to the density. This is indicated by several curves of thrust horsepower available for each of several densities in Figure 1. As the density decreases the speed required for level flight impreases in order that the product of density times the square of velocity and therefore the lift remains constant. Since the velocity must increase so therefore, must the horsepower required for level flight. This is also indicated by several curves on Figure 1. The combination of these two effects of density upon horsepower required and thrust horsepower available is such that the difference between these two powers and therefore, the rate of climb reduces with decreasing density. The magnitude of this effect is illustrated by the quantity shown in Table II, which also considers wing and power loading.

### c. Stalling Speed

The stalling speed of an airplane is the lowest speed at which the lift load on the wing may be equal to the weight of the airplane. For the reason that the lift load is proportional to the product of density and the square of speed, it follows that if the density be reduced the speed must increase in order that this product remain unchanged. Table III has been prepared to indicate the magnitude of this variation. The stalling speeds shown in the Table are representative of those which would be obtained for a plain wing without any high lift devices. They will not necessarily correspond with the stalling speed for any particular airplane, but such comparisons as it has been possible to make between these speeds and the results of actual tests indicate that the values shown in the Table are representative of the results of tests for airplanes of good design. It should be borne in mind that the stalling speed here discussed is the actual speed of the airplane with respect to the air through which it moves. It is not the speed with respect to the ground nor yet the "speed" read from the airspeed indicator except under a very special set of circumstances almost never encountered in actual flight in an actual airplane. The airspeed indicator is however a pressure instrument and is so calibrated that when corrected for all known errors associated with its installation its reading is independent of density, i. e., for an airplame of a given wing loading and at a given outside air temperature

the indicator will read the same at the stall at any altitude.

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

It may be noted that each of the items of performance considered above has been related to the density or weight of a cubic foot of the air in which the airplane operates and further that as this weight of a cubic foot of air decreases the take-off distance is increased. the rate of climb is reduced, and the stalling speed is increased, Nothing has been said about altitude. The apparent effect of altitude upon these, or for that matter, any other items of performance, is due precisely to the fact, as has been indicated earlier, that the density of the air tends to decrease with increasing altitude. This reduction in density with increasing altitude is however, due not to the altitude but to the pressure and temperature which may exist at an altitude. In other words, altitude as such has no effect upon performance at all but pressure and temperature do effect it critically and there happens to be an approximate relation among altitude, pressure, and temperature such that altitude appears to affect performance directly. This illusion is further heightened by the fact that the atmospheric pressure gage (altimeter) in the airplane is calibrated to read feet of altitude. Since the altimeter measures nothing but pressure, it yields no information concerning the weight of the air and this can only be learned by considering also the temperature. Tables I. II. and III have therefore, been prepared in terms not of altitude or density, neither of which may be measured directly by means of any instrument installed in an airplane, but rather in terms of "altimeter reading" (i.e. pressure) and outside air temperature. With a sensitive altimeter, this reading should be taken with the instrument set at 29,92 inches of mercury.

The calculations involved in the preparation of the tables are outlined in Appendix I.

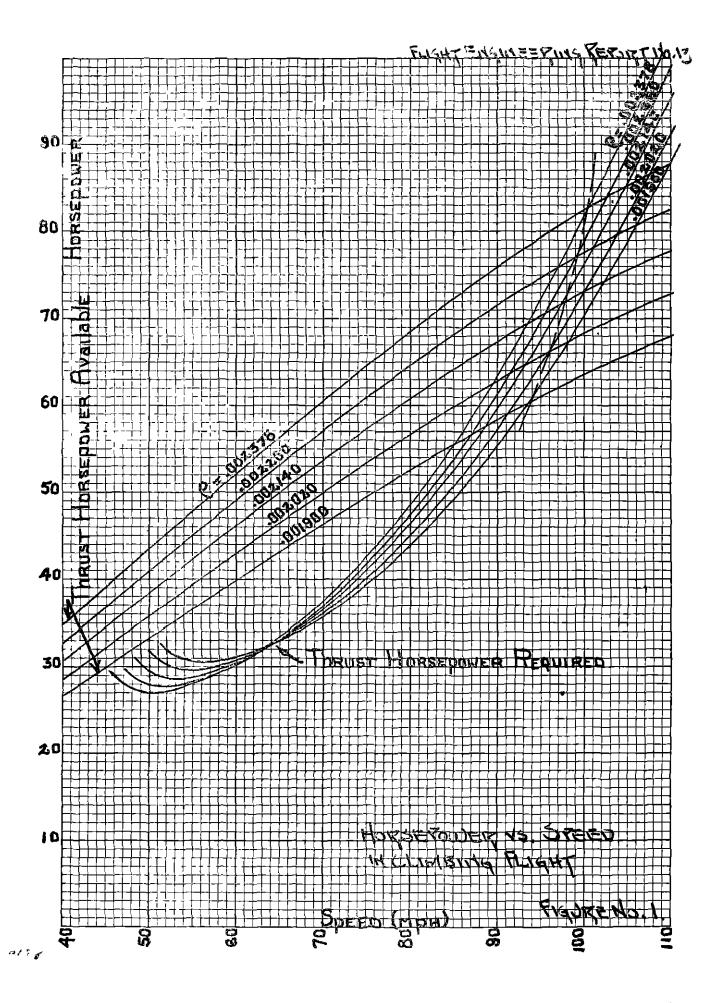


TABLE I - TAKE-OFF GROUND RUN (V<sub>F0</sub>\*11V<sub>S</sub>)

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TABLE I - RATE OF CLIMB AT 15VS

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Ì	fing Lowling From:	$\vdash$	<del></del>	<b>├</b>		1	<del>, , ,</del>	}	-	├	1	<b>ሃ</b>	i	├	70		<del> </del>	<u> 5</u>	Т.		<u>۲</u>	<b>— *</b>	-	5	7		<del>"</del>
Alkineter	Logding	হ	70	25	30	20	15	. <b>2</b> 0	-5	5	10	15	20	_ 5	10	15	5	10	15	-5-	25	_5_	מנ	5	30	5	┼╩┤
Roscia	rangeratore	<u> </u>	<u> </u>			<del> </del>		<u> </u>			-						<u> </u>	- 600	L			-	\	2 075	 	n Boo	1,E10
ĺ	°	ু সহ	608	593	730	1 925	1,108	נטה	152	4,265	1 825	1,013	607	b 190	1 755	9 <b>b</b> 0	130	1 695	880	1,080	2.663	J 990	,	3 936	1,475	3,850	1 - 1
ļ .	20   .	1.203	800	500	105	1.562	1,046	668	127	تكليط	1 765	966	570	F 080	1 692	B973	F 050	1 632	832	3,970	1 578	3 550		3 790	1 1608	3 730	1 348
Son Lovel	j <u>⊾o</u>	1 165	775	534	385	1,805	1,022	695	398	F 023	1706	973	535	3 975	1 630	858	3 910	1 570	785	3,640	1 53	סקק נ	1,622	3 680	1 142	J 615	1 270
ĺ	i	1 125	7145	513	360	1 790	9811	500	397	7,950	1,650	520	900	3 875	1 570	805	3 510	1 510	7(1	3 755	1,455	D 660	1 360	3 570	1 277	3 505	1 203
	ab	1,035	715	LAB	136	1 697	740	<i>9</i> 67	142	1,050	1,50	840	1465	J 770	1 225	760	3 720	1,150	696	3,650	2,393	3,550	1,297	3,465	1,215	3,395	1,136
l l	200	1,050	686	54th	326	160	900)	536	P6	3,750	1,536	ago	530	3,670	1 158	क	3 605	1 3974	651	3,550	1,535	3,450	1,235	3,360	1 150	ງ 290	1 075
	·	1 183	791	520	ऋ	1 630	1,043	652	127	h,000	1 734	955	550	b 020	1 660	572	ĵ 960	1,600	60.2	3 905	1,550	3 500	1 ,	3 735	1 376	2 670	1 705
ļ	270	وبلاية	762	526	37Z	1773	1,002	617	**	3,790	1,673	902	518	3 230	1 600	826	<b>3 9≥</b> 0	1 538	764	1 795	28بلر2	3 700	1,370	3,415	1_308	ე∰ <b>ე</b>	1 238
_	صد	1.204	725	5 <b>0</b> 00	350	1 727	960	585	7579	3,890	كالكيلا	860	L89	3 610	1540	783	3 720	1,476	719	3,690	3,b22	3 590	1,327	3 270	1 2113	3,605	1 170
1 000	60	1047	698	A75	327	1 660	9720	552	325	3 TSO	1 560	818	lipti	३ रण्ड	92 اللي	7140	ე62დ	1,118	67h	3 585	1,363	2,490	1, 265	3,600	1,180	3,325	1 105
•	80	<b>ர</b> மு	669	150	700.	7 627	081	51E	397	3,690	1,505	777	1115	3 405	1,425	696	j <u>\$1</u> 5	1 360	63m	3 1455	1,305	3,385	1,204	3 295	1 117	J 220	1 040
	100	994	മം	rs.	283	1558	<u>040</u>	L88 °	क्र	3 596	1,450	7.77	<b>ე8</b> თ	3 530	1 369	652.	كالأرز	1 323	586	3,385	1,26	3 165	مبيث	3 195	1 053	J 120	978
]	C	1,122	710	271	362	1.750	981	602	ऋ	3 920	1 640	867	502	کيلاة ز	1 566	805	3 78\$	1 505	745	3 739	1,655	3,630	1,758	3,555	1 275	3,665	1 205
	20	1.059	734	b87	330	1,68)	940	52.7	34	1,170	1,50	838	1,67	J 735	1 907	759	3 675	1,504	697	3 6270	1,370	3,55	1,29)	متطرو	1 208	.3 370	1,107
1	l <sub>a</sub> o	1 045	682	Jean.	316	1,628	900	535	313	3 720	155	796	li31	o 605°	1 147	717	3 570	1 353	652	3 575	1,,328	3 pt 20	1 <u>2</u> 230	3 330	1246	3 255	1000
2 0000	60	1 00A	6\$⊇	437	293	1,579	859	<b>≨02</b>	g <b>e</b> g	3,420	2 670	7524	397	3 535	1 372	673	3 <b>L</b> 70	1 326	608	كلنارز	1 270	3 335	1,170	3 225	1 082	3 150	1 005
	8o	973	624	la <sub>3</sub>	272	1,55	820	£70	- Tage	) হর <b>ে</b>	فقارا	716	355	1,550	1 335	631	g pan	1 268	553	3,320	1,215	3 225	מנגנ	3 125	1 020	3 050	912
	100	936	59-5	350	250	1,175	782	موالا	233	מפוגנ	1,363	673	330	<b>ງ</b> 姚5	1 280	592	3 2807	1,212	922	3 225	1 155	3,335	1,051	3,025	958	2 950	882
	0	2 060	695	472	326	1 690	918	552	亚	1.745	1,548	826	1,50	J 670	1 h?2	738	םנה כ	1,110	677	3 555	1 360	3 155	1,260	3 375	1 176	3 300	1,105
į	20	1023	646	الطنا	30h	1,595	876	527	303.	3 650	2,290	773	115	3 570	1 115	693	3 500	1,350	-S26	3,650	1,297	3 350 E	1,395	3 260	1 110	J 190	1,036
	240	987	436	hzz	262	1,50	837	1405	778	3,5720	2,434	731	380	3 670	1 355	650	مميا و	1 290	585	7.25	1 275	) 245 c	1,333	3,15%	1,046	ىرار	970
) 0c0	60	950	606	Marco	259	1,88	778	100	25	3,255	1,300	691	346	3,370	1 300	608	3 700	1,23h	93	3 250	1 175	3 245	Lon	3 1555	985	2 975	915
}	an l	925	578	375	209	1,139	759	M21	24	3,560	3 345	690	353	3,275	كىك 1	566	3 220	1 177	298	دودرو	1,327	3,045	1,015	2,955	923	2 815	8115
	100	6250	550	75a	217	1 390	723	392	255	3 270	1,278	வ	250	3,160	1 150	577	3,120	1 1272	155	3,060	1,066	2,950	760	2 855	863	2,780	786
<b>!</b> — —	0	1 000	6h7	435	291	1,55	852	520	Z\$\$	3 570	1,356	751	397	3 605	1,378	672	3,430	1 7216	608	3 385	1 265	3 175	2,362	205	1 076	3 220	1,003
	20	963	ens	196	270	1 924	803	166	্ব	3-475	1,400	707	363	3,395	1 320	625	3 330	1 255	550	3 270	1,203	3 170	1,097	3 060	1 220	3 005	935
	صد ا	927	528	383	25.8	1,150	774	138	500	3 385	1,343	687	J28	3,295	1 264	55u	3,220	1 196	527	3 370	1,143	3,010	1,076	2 980	948	2 900	870
li coo	60.	892	550	340	226	1,400	735	100	200	3 250	1,29	626	791,	3,200	1 710	su su	3,130	1 1131	473	5,080	1 036	2 970	,978	2 5280	aas	2,800	807
	80	857	532	338	205	1,352	700	, Tra	176	3,195	1,261	587	261	פננונ	1 155	502	3,045	1,055	639	2,990	1,090	2,875	921	2 785	5an	2 795	71.7
	100c	9722	904	33	15	3,305	1660	143	152	3,209	1,190	رو	230	3,005	1,100	وعد	3 255	1 001	120	2 900	976	2 765	866	7 690	767	2,630	690
		938	500	395	358	1,643	7790	140	20	000	I 36	686	Ni.5	3 200	1 264	605	3 290	1 270	500	J 265	1,170	3 300	1,064	3,015	971	2 955	903
	20	902	570	370	Z)6	1,124	750	406	24	3 309	1,326	60	סמו	3 220	1 447	559	3 150	1,140	1453	200	1 108	1,595	1,000	2 905	912	2,825	a <sub>2</sub>
	۵۵ ا	867	52/2	کیلا کیلا	211	1,364	713	105	129	مصرو	1,80	403	277	225	1 172	9.8	3 055	1 103	مورا	3 000	1 050	2 895	ole Ole	2,805	850	2 720	772
5 000	6		했					352			1 202	952		3 035	1 239	b76	2 965	2 0143	log	2 710	995	1,800	85	2 710	790	2 625	708
	an l	833 800	1,86	322	193 172	1,333	673. 638	פע	162	3 125	1,153	\$23	570 579	کراو ر کیاو <sub>و</sub> 2	1 064	L37	2 880	195	365	2 520	Pho	2,705	897	2 610	730	1,520	650
	300			3.00		1,266	_		136	3 030				2,850	1 012	hoo	2,790	ودور ويلاو	1	2,735	862	2,620	774	2,520	681	صروره صلطے2	595
		764	lu-Ecc	215	12	1, 220	602	293	17/0	2 945	1,105	1485	178				3 080	1 125	325	1 030	1,015	1,910	966	2 8)5	986	2,750	903
1	0	876	\$52	355	324	1,075	726	190	278	סמגול	1,272	620	293	3,116	1 190	TJ8		1 065	72.5	-	1,035	2 820	سر سر	2,730	82	2,650	735
	20	G1:2	523	330	<b>502</b>	1,524	688	¥1	270	3,130	1,215	578	759	3 050	1,235	193	3 980		145	2,930		)	_				672
6 0000	Wo	B07	105	<b>JO6</b>	180	7,473	60.5	335	77/3	1,040	1,161	535	2597	2,955	1,080	   (2)	2 685	1 008	353	2,530	757	2 720	663	2,630	752	2,525	612
"	60.	773	<b>1</b> ≱57	263	129	1,256	611	375	121	7,957	נבנקנ	500	153	2,865	1 027	1937	2,795	955		2 760	303	2,630	786	1 530	69L	2,150	1 1
1	ao	710	1770	262	138	1,180	576	214	95	2 570	1,956	160	160	2 780	P75	372	2 710	903		2 655	850	2,535	130	2,14,0	635	2,350	55
L	720	707	137	238	118	1 135	क्र	245	70	2 785	1,020	123	120	2,690	913	335	2 630	852	73	2 575	798	1,450	623	2,350	577	2 275	520
	٥	827	505	31B	1,92	1 257	- <del>60</del> 1	3259	144,	3,060	1,111	556	262	2,975	1 100	172	2 570	1,033	<b>E</b> 57	3 660	70	7 750	Big	8,000	762	2.500	705
l	20	752	475	292	168	1 238	623	22.8	1,15	2,965	1 125	מב ב	<b>78</b> 28	2,880	1,065	128	2 1010	973	360	1,750	922	1,650	606	2 555	727	2,170	638
l	lao	758	3446	267	147	1,386	576	267	126	2 875	1,075	475	172	2 790	792	388	2 725	97,6	316	2,665	867	2 550	7h8	2,360	656	2,370	575
7,000	60	715	1,22	2146	וצנ	1,310	550	258	20	2,795	1,026	437	3779	2 750	939	347	2 630	885	275	1580	g)	1 560	<i>6</i> 23	2 365	600	2 280	25
Į.	en i	684	396	225	107	1.075	53.8	220	95	2 730	980	prode	1777	2 625	888	320	2 550	<b>a</b>	E35	95 بار∎	760	57240	en.	2 275	502	2,190	1460
6-3-2E	1450	652.	गरं	302	85	1 052	1482	198	ո	2 625	935	362	79	2 530	837	27h	2 470	765	159	2,125	722	2 290	590	2,185	287	2 115	labs.
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TABLE III - STALLING SPEED

ı	Ting Loading		<u> </u>	Ţ	ŗ		<del></del> -	· · · ·	<del></del>	
Altimater Reading	Tompersture	5	10	15	20	25	30	140	\$0	60
,	0	36,9	50.6	60.5	<i>6</i> 8 o	74.1	79.3	87.7	9h_1	103.0
	20	37.6	91.6	61.6	69.3	75 5	80 8	89,5	96.0	105.0
l	l ko	38.h	52.7	63 0	70 9	77 1	82 6	91.3	98,0	107 2
Son Lavel	60	39.1	53.7	G4.2	72 1	78.6	84_1	93 1	99.9	109 2
	80	140 o	54.9	65 6	73 7	80.4	85 9	95 1	102.0	m.8
ļ	100	10.7	55.9	66 8	75 O	81.8	87 5	96 8	104.0	113.5
	0	37.6	52.5	61.6	69.2	75-5	80.8	8 <del>5</del> L	95.9	105.0
ł	20	38.AL	52.6	63.0	70 T	77.1	82.6	91.h	98.0	207.2
	lao	39.2	53.7	£41.2	72 2	78.7	8k, 2	93.1	100.0	109.J
1,000	60	POTO	94.7	65 5	73 6	80.2	85.9	9990	102.0	111.7
	80	<b>40.</b> 7	55.8	66.7	75.0	61.0	87.5	96.9	203.9	113.6
	200	<b>L1.</b> 5	56.8	68.0	76.3	83.2	89.1	98.5	105.2	115.9
,	ó	38.2	52.5	62.6	70 L	76.7	62.1	90,9	97.5	106.9
	20	39.0	53.6	64.0	71_8	78.և	83.8	92.8	99.5	109.0
,	No.	39.8	5h.7	65.2	73.4	80.0	85.6	94.6	101.7	111.2
2,000	60	<b>₩</b> 0.6	55.9	66 6	7L 9	81.6	67.3	96.6	103.6	113.7
	80	<b>51.</b> 4	57 0	68.0	76.L	89 2	89 1	98 5	105.8	115.9
	100	42.2	58.0	69 1	77 8	8L.7	90.7	100.2	107.8	128.0
, ,	Ó	38.9	53.3	63.8	71.6	78.1	83.6	92 5	99,2	100.7
	20	<i>3</i> 9.7	Shile	65 2	73.2	79 B	85.5	Ž4.5	101.2	ம்.1
	#o	ьо.6	55.6	66.5	74.7	81.5	87.	96.5	103.ե	113.k
3,000	60	<b>42.A</b>	56.7	67.8	76 1	83.1	88.9	98 <u>.h</u>	105.6	115.6
~	80	42.2	57.8	69.1	77 5	64.6	90 5	100.1	107.3	117.6
	,100	13.0	58.8	70 <b>.</b> 4	79 0	86 2	92.3	102.0	109 4	119.9
	0	39-7	50.5	65,1	73.1	79.7	85.3	9և.կ	101.2	110 9
	20	مدمد	55.7	66 5	74.7	81 և	872	96.5	303 L	11) 3
	<b>360</b>	طبلبا	56 9	68 0	76.2	83 2	89.0	98 5	105 L	115.7
i, oto	60	lj2,2	57.9	69 Z	77.7	84.7	90 6	100.2	107 5	117 9
	80	P3*0	<i>5</i> 9 1	79-5	79.2	86.lı	92.4	102.2	109.7	120.0
	100	13.B	60 1	71.9	80.6	68 o	8f 0	104.1	111.5	122.2
<del>''</del>		h0.4	55 <b>5</b>	66.2	7L 5	ខាភា	86.8	96 0	103.1	112.9
	20	<b>51.3</b>	56.7	67 6	76.1	82 9	68.7	98 1	105.3	115.3
·	Po	42.2	57.9	691	77 7	84.6	90 5	100.1	107 8	117 9
5,000	60	ಗಿತ್ತಿ	59.0	70.5	79.2	86.2	92.3	102,1	109.8	120.0
	80	13.8	60,1	71.8	80.7	88.0	94,1	104.2	112.0	122.3
	100	6-بابا	<b>81.</b> 5	73.1	82.73	896	95.9	106,1	174.0	121,9
<del></del>	. 0	hi.i	\$6.5	67 5	75.8	82.6	68.lı	97.8	105.0	1119
	20	75°0	51.1	B,0	<b>777 L</b>	84.5	90.3	100.0	107.2	117.5
6,000	趂	1,2,9	<b>39.</b> 0	∪ 70 <u>.</u> k	79.1	86,1		102.0	109 J	129.9
5,600	60	ا.9.7	60:0	71.8	80.5	67.8	93.9	304.0	111 7	122.0
	80	W-5	61.2	73.1	62.1	89.5		106,0	113 9	1 <del>21.</del> .5
	100	45.6	62-p	7 <b>4</b> 5	83.7	91.2	97 5	108.0	116.0	126.9
	0	12.0	57.5	68.8	77.3	, <b>€u.</b> 2	90 1	99.6	107.0	117 0
	20	10.0	58.9	70.L	79.0	86.1	92.1	102.0	109.3	139.9
7,000	₽ø	<b>43.9</b>	60.0	71.8	80,6	87 8	0بياو	104.0	n1*3	122.0
1,000	. <b>60</b>	6ماطاء	61.1	73,2	82 2	89.5	95.9	106.0	113.9	124.ե
	⊴\$50	45.5	<i>.</i> 62.3	7lu5	89.7	97.42	97.6	108.0 ⊌	116.0	126,5
	.3 <b>,90</b>	بلوكية	63.5	75-9	85 <b>-</b> 14	99.0	99.5	110.0	116.1	149.1

#### APPENDIX I - CALCULATIONS

The calculations upon which Tables I, II, and III are based assume the property with sea level engines and fixed pitch propellers. They further assume that, for an engine operating at fixed throttle setting and RPM in the standard atmosphere, the variation of power with density is:

and, for departures of the temperature from the standard value for a given pressure in the standard atmosphere, the variation of power is:

An analysis of the 105 airplanes of Appendix IV to Flight Engineering Report No. 5 indicates the maximum lift coefficient to increase with wing loading at a rate approximated very closely by the following equation which has been used throughout.

$$c_{I_{max}} = 1.20 + .0152 \text{ w}$$
 (3)

Although the actual variation of RPM and propulsive efficiency at constant throttle setting and indicated airspeed with density will actually depend upon the selection of a particular propeller for a particular airplane engine combination, it has been assumed that these remain constant and further, that under these conditions, the power output of the engine is proportional to RPM.

The following have also been assumed as representative and constant values:

Coefficient of Rolling Friction, = 0.050

Minimum Parasite Drag Coefficient,  $C_{D_{Cl}} = C.02750$ 

Atmospheric density has been calculated by means of the following expression:

The calculations and the remainder of the assumptions are outlined below for each of the items of performance considered.

TAKE-OFF CROUND RUN

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The take-off ground run may be expressed:

$$S_{t-0} \simeq \frac{\nabla^2_{t-0}}{2a}$$

Where: V = the take-off speed in feet/sec.
a = an effective constant acceleration.

It is assumed that:

$$V_{t-0} = 1.1 V_{s} = 1.1 \sqrt{\frac{2 w}{e^{C_{L_{max}}}}}$$

Now:

$$a = g (T - R)$$

and:

$$T = \underbrace{550 \text{ BHP } 2}_{V_{\mathbf{a}}}$$

Also:

R = 
$$W + \frac{1}{2} e \nabla_a^2 f$$
, where W = airplane weight;

That is:

a is a function of velocity during the take-off ground run and the expression for R assumes the airplane to operate at zero lift throughout the run. The actual calculation of the variation of a with  $V_{\mathbf{a}}$  for a great many cases indicates the actual value at  $V_a = 0.70 \text{ V}_{t=0}$  is a very close approximation to the effective constant value involved in equation (5). It is therefore assumed that:

$$V_{a} = 0.70 \ V_{t-o} = 0.77 \ \sqrt{\frac{2 \ w}{e \ c_{L_{max}}}} = 1.09 \sqrt{\frac{w}{e \ c_{L_{max}}}}$$

Then:

R = 
$$W + \frac{1.188 \text{ w f}}{2 \text{ C}_{\text{Imax}}} = W S + \frac{.596 \text{ w f}}{C_{\text{Imax}}}$$

Where  $^{\circ}$  = wing area in square feet. Now:  $f = C_{D_0} S = 0.0275 S$ 

Now: 
$$\Gamma = C_D$$
  $S = 0.0275$   $S$ 

\*\* R = 
$$\frac{O163}{C_{L_{max}}} \times S + \frac{O163}{C_{L_{max}}} \times S = \frac{V}{C_{L_{max}}} + \frac{C}{C_{L_{max}}} + .0163),$$

and: 
$$a = g$$
 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 505 \text{ BHP } \text{)} & \text{ec}_{L_{\text{max}}} & \text{ws} \\ \text{c}_{L_{\text{max}}} & \text{c}_{L_{\text{max}}} & \text{c}_{L_{\text{max}}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Finally:

$$S_{t-o} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2 a} = \frac{1.21 \times 2 \text{ w}}{2 \text{ a e } C_{L}} = \frac{1.21 \text{ w}}{a \text{ e } C_{L}}$$

$$= \frac{1.21 \text{ w p } \sqrt{w}}{g \text{ e } C_{L_{max}}} = \frac{1.21 \text{ w p } \sqrt{w}}{1.22 \text{ max}} = \frac{1.21 \text{ w p } \sqrt{w}}{1.22 \text{ max}} = \frac{1.21 \text{ w p } \sqrt{w}}{1.22 \text{ max}} = \frac{1.21 \text{ w p } \sqrt{w}}{g \text{ e } \sqrt{1.22 \text{ max}}} = \frac{1.21 \text{ w p } \sqrt{w}}{1.22 \text{ max}} = \frac{1.21 \text{ w p } \sqrt{w}}{1.22$$

The solution of this equation contained in Table I is based upon the assumption that the propeller has been so selected that at 70% of the take-off speed the engine turns 90% of the rated RPM and the propulsive efficiency is 0.450. Then:

P = W BHP

BHP = BHP<sub>o</sub> (1.132 % -.132) 
$$\sqrt{\frac{T_s}{T}}$$

EHP<sub>o</sub>= Rated Take-Off Power

 $e_{o}$ = .002378 Slugs per Cubic Foot.

#### RATE OF CLIMB

The rate of climb of an airplane in feet per minute may be expressed;

$$C = \frac{33,000}{W} \left[ BHP \frac{9}{1,100} - \frac{e_{f} v^{3}}{550 \pi e b^{2} V} \right]$$

Now:

$$f = {}^{C}D_{O}$$
 S = 0.0275 S, and: AR =  ${}^{C}D_{O}$ , whence:  $D^{C}D_{O}$  = ARS

Also:

$$w = \frac{W}{S}$$
, and  $p = \frac{W}{BHP}$ 

Making these substitutions:

$$C = 33,000 ( \frac{b}{p} - \frac{c_{D_0}}{1,100 \text{ w}} - \frac{2 \text{ w}}{550 \text{ T/C e ARV}}$$

For the purposes of Table II, it is assumed that the climbing airspeed is 150 percent of the indicated stalling speed; i.e.

$$V = 1.5 \sqrt{\frac{2 \text{ w}}{\text{e c}_{\text{L}_{\text{max}}}}} = 2.120 \sqrt{\frac{\text{e c}_{\text{L}_{\text{max}}}}{\text{e c}_{\text{L}_{\text{max}}}}}$$

Then:  

$$c = 33,000$$
 (  $\frac{9}{2} - \frac{9.53}{1,100} = \frac{C_{D_0}}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{C_{D_0}}{1,100} = \frac{C_{D_0}}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{C_{D_0}}{1,105} = \frac{C_{D_0}}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{C_{D_0}}{\sqrt{2}}$ 

Calling:

$$C_{D_0} = 0.0275$$
 $C_{D_0} = 0.0275$ 
 $C_{D_0} = 0.70$ 
 $C_{D_0} = 0.70$ 
 $C_{D_0} = 0.0275$ 
 $C_{D_0} = 0.0275$ 

Representative Values

Then:

$$C = 20,000 - 7.845 \sqrt{e} - 3.00 \sqrt{c_{L_{max}}}$$

$$Q = 20,000 - 7.845 \sqrt{e}$$

$$Q = 20,000 - 7.845 \sqrt{e}$$

$$Q = 20,000 - 7.845 \sqrt{e}$$

## STALLING SPEED

$$V_{s} = 0.6818 \sqrt{\frac{2 \text{ W}}{\text{e }^{\text{C}} \text{L}_{\text{max}}}} = 0.965 \sqrt{\text{e }^{\text{C}} \text{L}_{\text{max}}}$$
 (7)