

Steady and Level Flight Exercise n°6.

Background Briefing

The Four Forces Acting on the Aircraft in Flight.

Weight : The weight of the aircraft always act vertically down.

Lift : Most of the lift is created by the airflow around the wings.

Thrust : Thrust is provided by the engine through the propeller.

Drag : Drag is the resistance to the passage of the aircraft through the air.

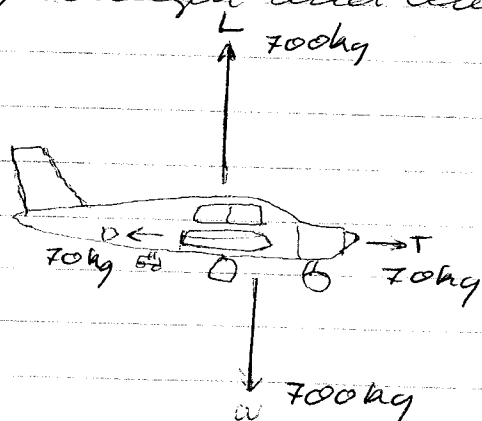
Equilibrium

When an aircraft is in steady and unaccelerated flight

Lift is equal and opposite to Weight

Thrust is equal and opposite to Drag.

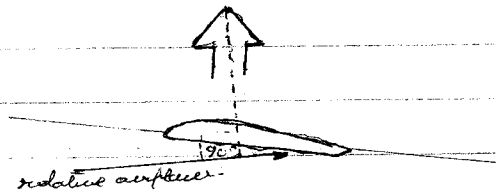
If the forces are not in equilibrium, the aircraft will not fly truly steady and level at a constant speed.



Lift and Factors Affecting Lift

Lift is created by the airflow around the wings.

The airflow meeting the wing is often referred to as the relative airflow. For practical purposes lift acts at about 90° of the relative airflow.



The angle at which the relative airflow meets the wings is called the angle of attack.

There are several factors affecting the amount of lift produced by the wings. The main two factors controlled by the pilot are the airspeed and the angle of attack.

The airspeed is literally the speed of the aircraft through the air. A faster airspeed implies a faster airflow around the wing and more lift is produced if all other factors remain the same. A slower airspeed implies that less lift is produced.

The amount of lift produced by the wing is also determined by the angle of attack. The wing of an average light aircraft produces lift over an angle of attack range from -2° to $+19^\circ$. The greater the angle of attack, the greater the lift produced until the critical angle (about 19°) is exceeded.

Typically, in cruising flight the angle of attack will be about 4° .

So if an aircraft is flying at a fast airspeed, only a small angle of attack is needed to produce the lift necessary to maintain level flight. At a slower airspeed a greater angle of attack is needed to produce the required lift.

As the airspeed is changed, so the angle of attack must be changed to produce the same amount of lift.

Look at the Air Speed Indicator (ASI) -

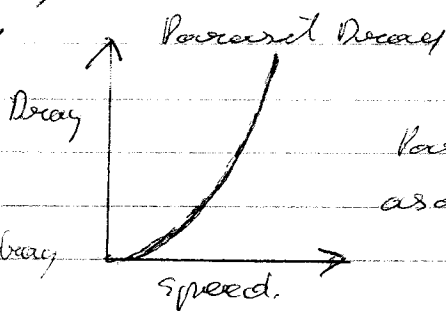
- Normal cruise airspeed \rightarrow angle of attack $+4^\circ$
- High speed cruise \rightarrow angle of attack -1°
- Slow speed cruise \rightarrow angle of attack $+10^\circ$

The concept of angle of attack is an important one to grasp. There is no instrument in a light aircraft to measure the angle of attack and it is not necessarily the same angle as the aircraft's pitch attitude. However, changing the aircraft altitude does alter the angle of attack in the same sense. i.e. pitching the aircraft nose down reduces the angle of attack.

Drag and Factors Affecting Drag

Drag is the resistance to the passage of the aircraft through the air. There are two elements of drag - parasite drag and induced drag.

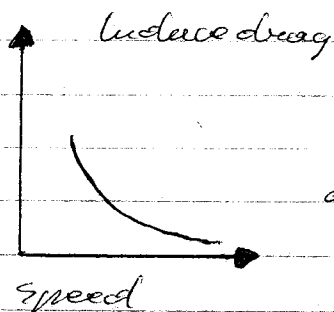
Parasite drag affects any moving object (car). The faster the aircraft moves through the air, the greater the parasite drag, and vice versa.



Parasite drag increases as airspeed increases.

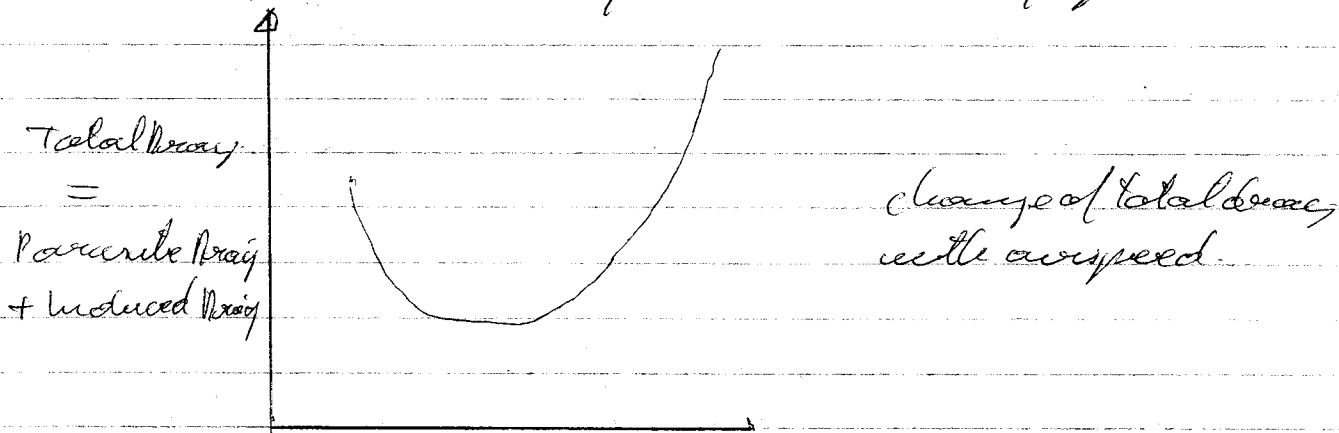
Induced drag is related to the angle of attack.

As an aircraft flies more slowly and so has to fly at a greater angle of attack to maintain level flight, the amount of induced drag increases.



Induced drag decreases as airspeed increases.

Drag acts parallel to the flight path, through a point
that varies with the aircraft attitude and configuration.



Stability in Pitch.

The stability of the aircraft is largely determined by the arrangement of the lift and weight forces.

Most aircraft are designed to be stable in pitch. This is done by arranging the forces in such a way that weight acts through a point (CG) that is ahead of the centre of the lift force. The couple between the lift and weight forces exerts a pitch down force which is instrumental in making the aircraft stable in pitch.

There is also a couple between the thrust and drag forces (see ex^o 4) which exerts a pitch up force.

In practice the thrust/drag couple is not strong enough to counterbalance the lift/weight couple and the aircraft is left with a residual pitch down force.

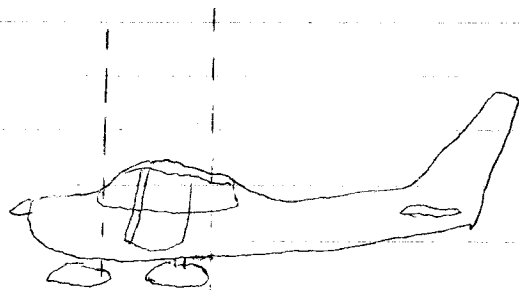
This pitch down force is balanced by the tailplane or stabilator. The tailplane or stabilator can produce a lift either up or down. Where there is a pitch down effect, the tailplane will produce a down force to balance the strong lift/weight couple.

The tailplane also aids stability in pitch if the aircraft meet a wind gust or some turbulence. If a gust causes the nose to rise, for example, the tailplane (air stabilator) will meet the airflow at a greater angle. Therefore it will produce less downforce (or more lift up) and cause the aircraft to pitch down back to its original attitude.

The position of the centre of gravity is a key factor in ensuring stability in pitch. The CG position varies with aircraft loading (i.e. passengers etc...) and can be calculated by the pilot from the info provided in the POH / FM.

The POH / FM will state the forward and rear limit of the Centre of Gravity (CG) position.

The aircraft must never be flown with a CG position outside the stated limits.



Forward CG
limit

Rear CG
limit

When the CG is closer to the forward edge of its permitted limit there will be a long lever arm between the CG and the tailplane. This will make the aircraft very stable as a result of the increased leverage the tailplane forces exerts.



Short lever arm

Long lever arm

The longer the lever arm, the greater the leverage applied.

if however, the C.G. is forward (fore) of its permitted limit the aircraft will become overstable and the pilot will have difficulty in manoeuvring. In an extreme case the aircraft may become uncontrollably nose heavy, especially at low airspeed when the air tailplane is less effective and the pilot may be unable to prevent it pitching nose down.

A forward C.G. gives the tailplane a long lever arm so it has a strong leverage.

When the C.G. is close to the permitted rear (aft) limit there is a shorter lever arm between the C.G. and the tailplane. This will make the aircraft less stable and easier to manoeuvre.

If the C.G. is behind (aft of) the rear limit the aircraft will become unstable and difficult to control. It will seem tail heavy and the pilot may be unable to prevent the aircraft pitching nose up.

A rearward C.G. gives the tailplane a short lever arm so it has a reduced leverage.

It is crucially important to ensure that the C.G. will be within its permitted limit. It is illegal to fly with a C.G. outside permitted limit (and very dangerous). You will come to appreciate that in most light aircraft it is simply not possible to fill the aircraft with full fuel, full passenger and full baggage load and remain within the permitted C.G. range.

Stability in Roll.

Stability in roll is largely provided by the angle of the wings to the horizontal - the dihedral - angle.

When an aircraft is in straight flight but not wings level the side wing components of lift and weight cause the aircraft to slip toward the lower wing.

The airflow now meet the lower wing at a greater angle of attack than the higher wing. Therefore increased lift is produced from the lower wing, returning the aircraft to wings level flight.

You may notice that lower wing aircraft tend to have more dihedral than higher wing aircraft. The CG position in a higher wing aircraft (below the wing) gives it a greater natural stability in roll and so it needs less dihedral; (This is why it is sub to dive.)

Stability in Yaw

Stability in yaw is provided by the fin. When an aircraft yaws (yaws) through the air, the airflow meet the fin at an angle (i.e. angle of attack) which causes the fin to produce lift sideways. This pivots the aircraft around the CG to yaw the aircraft into the airflow and out of the yaw.

Power + Attitude = Performance

Performance can be measured in terms of airspeed and rate of climb (or rate of descent). Airspeed is controlled through the control column (controlling the attitude). The rate of climb or rate of descent is controlled through the Throttle (setting the power). So power controls attitude (or height). Attitude controls airspeed.

To maintain level flight, the pilot set the power required for level flight and adjusts the attitude to attain the correct airspeed. If the airspeed is correct but the aircraft is descending, more power is required. Conversely, if the airspeed is correct but the aircraft is climbing, less power is required.

You will come to recognise the correct attitude and normal cruise power setting to maintain level flight at the normal cruise airspeed.

It is also worth noting that if the aircraft is fitted with a fixed pitch propeller, a change in airspeed will induce a small change to the engine RPM. (A car moves faster the engine RPM increases, even any movement of the throttle. Conversely, as the car (or aircraft) moves slower, the engine RPM decreases). The significance of this is that if increasing or decreasing airspeed significantly, it will often be necessary to make further minor correction with the throttle to maintain the RPM.

Slow Safe Cruise

During the flight exercise you will practice cruise at a slower than normal airspeed - usually with on stage of the flap selected down (initial flap) -

This speed is known as slow safe cruise.

The use of the flap allows a lower nose attitude (improving the view ahead) and by reducing the stall speed, use of flap ensures that a safe margin of airspeed remains between the slower cruising speed and the stall speed.

Slow safe cruise has several applications; apart from in situation where a pilot is lost, flying at slow safe cruise will give more time to locate disposition while using less fuel, the same in case of bad weather in order to read map ~~carefully~~.

Maximum Range Airspeed

At the maximum range airspeed, the aircraft will fly the maximum distance having given fuel load.

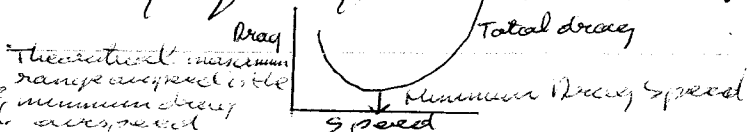
There are many factors affecting best range airspeed such as aerodynamic efficiency, engine power, propeller design, air density etc. (1)

Theoretically the maximum range airspeed is the airspeed at which there is the minimum drag.

In practice the maximum range airspeed is a compromise between aircraft (aerodynamic) consideration and engine (power) considerations.

The aircraft's POH / FOM will have a section detailing technique and figures for maximum - range flying ~~and~~

Maximum range = Maximum distance for the fuel load.



Maximum Endurance

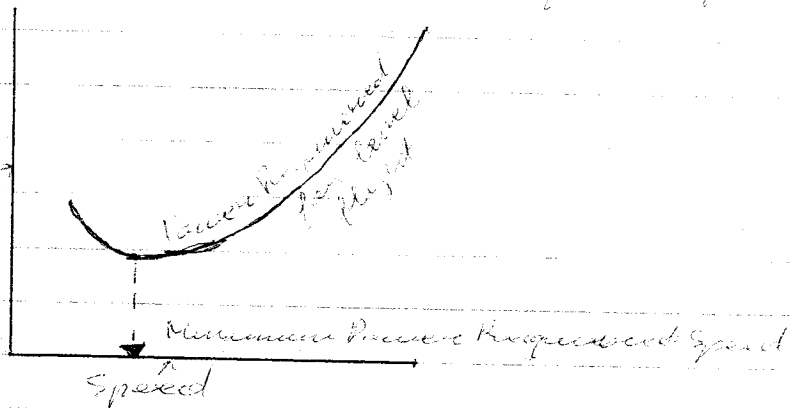
At the maximum-endurance airspeed the aircraft will be able to stay airborne for the maximum time with a given fuel load. However, as the maximum-endurance airspeed will be slower than the best-range airspeed, the aircraft cannot travel as far with its given fuel load, even though it is in the air for longer.

It is therefore important not to confuse endurance with range.

There are many factors which affect the best-endurance airspeed. Theoretically the best endurance airspeed is the airspeed at which the minimum power is required to maintain level flight. The pilot should refer to POH/FM.

Maximum endurance = Maximum airborne time for the fuel load

Theoretical maximum endurance airspeed is the minimum power required airspeed.



$$\text{Power Required} = \text{Airspeed} \times \text{Drag}$$

Flight at Critically High Airspeed

Even a light aircraft is capable of flying straight and level over a surprisingly wide range of airspeeds. As the speed increases toward the faster end of the scale, it is important for the pilot to have a good awareness of the airspeed-related factors that restrict the operation of the aircraft.

The aircraft will have a maximum speed (called V_A) which is the maximum airspeed at which full and abrupt control movement can be made without ~~over~~ overstressing the aircraft. The V_A airspeed is specified in the POH (FCM) and is usually placed in the airport. The V_A speed is often quite close to the aircraft's normal cruising speed, so an appreciation of this airspeed limitation is important.

If you look at Airspeed Indicators (ASI) you should notice that it is colour-coded with white, green and yellow arcs. The yellow arc represents the caution airspeed range beyond the maximum Recommended Operating Airspeed (V_{NO}). The aircraft should only fly in this range (which is above the V_A airspeed) with caution in effect you must avoid large or sudden flying control movement and only operate in the yellow arc in smooth (ie not turbulent) flying conditions.

Flight Exercise n°6

Purpose

To learn to fly the aircraft at a constant altitude, in a constant direction, at a specified airspeed, with the aircraft in balance

Pilotsmanship

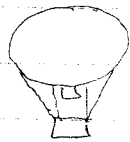
VFE: make sure that the speed is below VFE & when using flaps

Location

Try to find your location by spotting landmarks so you can find your way back.

Lookout

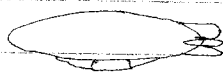
When aircraft are converging and are of different classes the following priority apply:



1st Balloons



2^o Gliders
(Planes)




3^o Aeroplanes (to be degradable)

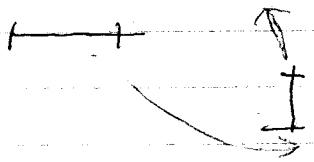
4th Aircraft towing an object or glider


5th Aircraft

The aircraft commander must take all possible measures to avoid a collision. Do not fly close to another aircraft and in formation without agreement of the commander. To fly in formation you must receive proper instructions.

Rights of Way in the Air and Collision Avoidance

 Where 2 aircraft are approaching head on each aircraft shall alter course to the right.

 Where two aircraft are converging, the aircraft on the right has right of way (on the right, in the right).

 An aircraft overtaking another in the air shall alter course to the right.

To maintain constant Altitude

- [1] - Maintain a good bank
- [2] - POWER - Set the normal cruising power.
- [3] - ATTITUDE - Use the elevator to select the desired and level attitude.
- [4] - TRIM - Use the elevator trimmer to relieve any force on the control column.
- [5] - Cross check the flight instruments.
Altitude - constant level.
Air speed - normal cruise speed.

Temperature

To maintain constant direction

[1] - Lookout

[2] - Use the altitudes to keep the ceiling level.

[3] - Use a distant landmark to confirm that a constant direction is being maintained.

[4] Cross - Check the flight instrument. Heading indicator should be showing a constant direction.

To Maintain Balanced Flight

- [1] - Cockpit.
- [2] - Unless the aircraft is extremely out of balance there is no outside indication of balance.
- [3] - Cross check flight instrument - Team Co-ordinator.
The balance ball should be in the centre.
- [4] - If the ball is displaced to the left, left rudder is required until the ball is centred (Tread on the ball).
- [5] - If the ball is displaced to the right, right rudder is required until the ball is centred (Tread on the ball).

At an increased Airspeed

- [1] Lookout, Note the normal straight and level attitude.
- [2] - POWER - Increase power. Compensate for the pitch and yaw changes.
- [3] ATTITUDE - as airspeed increases, the nose attitude must be progressively lowered to maintain level flight until the target airspeed is attained.
- [4] TRIM. Remember to trim to relieve any control forces.

At a decreased speed

- 1) Cockpit Note the normal straight and level attitude
- 2) - POWER - Reduce power, compensate for the pitch and power changes.
- 3) Attitude - As airspeed decrease, the nose attitude must be progressively raised to maintain level flight until the target airspeed is attained.
- 4) Train - Remember to train to relieve any control forces

Slow Safe Cruise

- [1] Lock out, note the nominal str & lev att.
- [2] POWER - Reduce power, compensate for the pitch and yaw changes.
- [3] When overspeed is within the white arc (ie below VPE) Power critical flap.
- [4] Attitude - Adjust the cruise attitude to attain the target airspeed.
- [5] Remember to bring back cruise control levels. Make minor corrections as necessary.
- [6] Cruise Attitude should be similar to the normal climb and level attitude.

Exercise n°6. Straight and Level flight.

Lookout Supplement 1

Look first and scan the instrument second.

The greatest threat is in an area between 10° up and 10° down and 60° either side of the straight ahead.

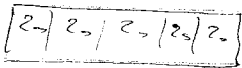
Look up before beginning a climb

Look down before beginning a descent

Look over your shoulder before turning

Focus on distant object. Cloud, horizon

Develop a scanning technique



Black Method



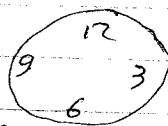
wandering method

Constant bearing = constant danger.

When an aircraft is on a collision course with you, it is most likely to appear as a stationary dot on the screen - a constant relative bearing.

If you spot an aircraft and it appears to be moving relative to you, the chance are you are not on a collision course.

Use the clock code



Keep the screen under your chin
Look after your eyes

Climbing: Ex n° 7.

During a climb the four forces (Drag, Thrust, lift and weight) are of course still acting on the aircraft. However the relationship is changed.

Thrust and drag stay still parallel to the flight path of the aircraft, and lift still acts at around 90° of the ^{relative} airflow. However, weight continues to act vertically towards the centre of the earth and so is no longer completely balanced by the lift.

In fact a component of weight is now acting in the same direction as drag so that in climb thrust has to balance drag and a component of weight. The steeper the climb, the greater the component of weight acting with drag and the greater thrust needed for the aircraft to climb.

It follows that climbing performance is essentially dictated by the power of the engine.

Although in a climb the aircraft is still producing lift, this is not the major factor in climb performance. In fact in a climb lift may be less than weight.

$$10^\circ \text{ climb} \Rightarrow T = D + 17\% \text{ weight}$$

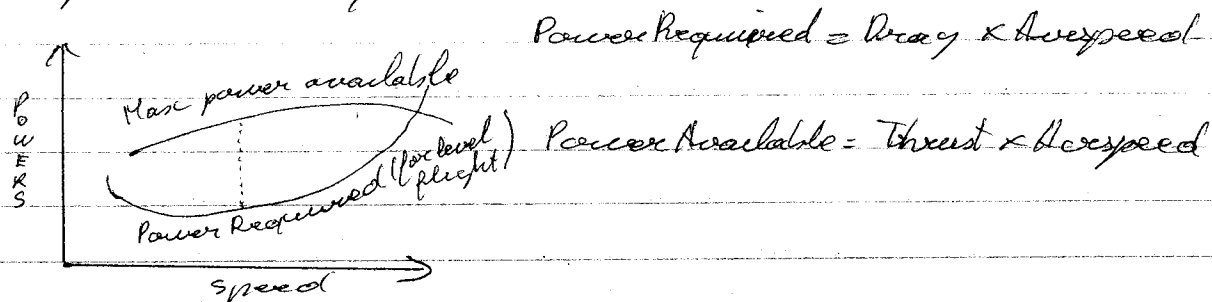
$$45^\circ \text{ climb} \Rightarrow T = D + 71\% \text{ weight}$$

$$90^\circ \text{ climb} \Rightarrow T = D + W$$

The steeper the climb the greater the component of weight acting with the drag and so the greater the amount of thrust required to sustain the climb.

The Best Rate of Climb Airspeed

The best rate of climb airspeed is the airspeed at which there is the greatest excess of power available over power required.



The climbing performance of the aircraft and recommended climbing speed will be POA/EM .

The airspeed for the best rate of climb is expressed to as V_y .

Best rate of climb airspeed gives the maximum height gain in a given time.

The VSI (Vertical Speed Indicator) reads the rate of climb or rate of descent.

Effect of Flap.

It depends on the aircraft type & design and the type of flap.

During the flight exercise, flap is lowered during the climb and the original climb speed is maintained. The extra drag created by the

flap lead to a decrease in the rate of climb
As more flap is lowered (intermediate to full flap)
the further increase in drag reduces the rate of
climb. In fact if the original climb speed is
maintained some light aircraft may display
little or no rate of climb once full flap is lowered.

Flap can be beneficial, & when considering the best angle
of climb.

The use of critical flap allows a slower airspeed
to be used in the climb, which may improve the
climb gradient. It will be noted in POA / FH if
flap can be use in this way -

Effect of Altitude

As altitude increases, the reduction in air
density mean that the power required increases,
but the power available decrease.

This decrease in power available is true of a
normally aspirated piston engine & training
aircraft.

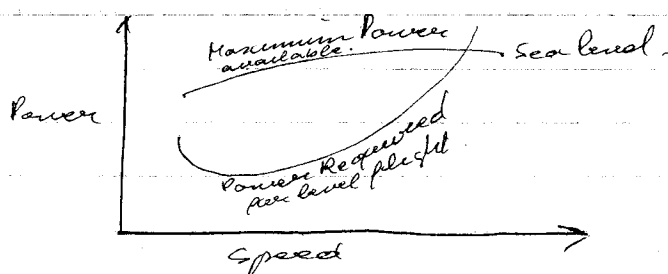
Where the engine is fitted with a turbocharger or
supercharger, the engine will be able to maintain
it maximum power output to a greater altitude.

With increasing altitude, the excess of power
available over power required is reduced and
occurs at a faster speed. Eventually the aircraft
will reach an altitude where even the full
power, power available is equal to the power
required, so the aircraft can maintain level
flight but cannot climb. This altitude is

known as the aircraft absolute ceiling and may be noted in the POH/FA.

Another ceiling, the performance ceiling may also be noted, this is the altitude at which rate of climb will become unacceptably low - ~~700~~ less 100 fpm. For training aircraft the service ceiling is a generally a couple of thousand feet lower than the absolute ceiling.

PA-38 Tomahawk POH/FA Service ceiling 12000ft
Absolute ceiling 18000ft



As altitude increases air density reduces, therefore engine power reduces, but the power required increases.

When the maximum power available = minimum power required the aircraft cannot climb any higher and has reached its absolute ceiling.

Effect of Weight

Similar to altitude, climb performance is reduced if weight increases, a faster airspeed is required to maintain climb performance and if overpowered it may not climb at all.

The aircraft will have a certified maximum weight and climb performance will be calculated using the weight. Overweight is dangerous & illegal.

The Best Angle of Climb Airspeed

It gives the maximum height gain over the shortest distance and in practice is used to clear obstacles.

Best angle of climb occurs when there is the maximum excess of thrust over drag, which will be at a slower airspeed than the best rate of climb airspeed.

Where there is a practical difference between best angle of climb airspeed and best rate of climb airspeed, it will be detailed in POH/FM.

Best angle of climb (sometimes ^{also} referred to as best gradient of climb) airspeed is referred to as V_x .

Quite often the best angle of climb is achieved with initial flap extended which allows the slower climb airspeed (See POH/FM).

You will appreciate that obstacle clearance for which the best angle of climb airspeed is used is most vital immediately after take off, so the POH/FM will often recommend the flap setting and airspeed to be used to obtain the shortest take off distance and the best angle of climb in the initial climb. Once the obstacles are safely cleared, the aircraft is accelerated to the best rate of climb airspeed and the flap is retracted.

Airspeed V_x gives the best angle of climb.

Airspeed V_y gives the best rate of climb.

The Cruise climb.

Cruise climb is flown at a high airspeed than V_{y} or V_x , probably the normal cruise airspeed. Cruise climb can be useful when there is no pressing need to gain altitude quickly and the reduced climb performance.

Because the airspeed is faster than the normal climb airspeed, the ground speed is faster, the view ahead is improved (due to the lower nose attitude) and the increased airflow helps keep the engine cool.

Effect of wind

When flying in wind the aircraft will attain a better climb angle or gradient than when flying in zero wind or with a tailwind.

The rate of climb is not affected by the wind.

Engine consideration.

During a climb the engine is working very hard but due to the slower airspeed there is less airflow cooling the engine. Monitor the engine gauges carefully. Should engine temperature approach the permissible limit it may be necessary to reduce power or increase airspeed to reduce T° .

Flight Esc n° 7. - Climbing

Look in the area the aircraft will be climbing flying

During the the climb the nose high attitude may cause a blind spot, weave the aircraft ~~every~~ every 500 ft or so) to check visually the area ahead. Alternatively "dip" the nose to check ahead. Visually clear the area you are flying into as you level off.

Engine Considerations.

Monitor the engine instrument carefully during the climb (every 500 ft or so) do not allow the maximum permitted temperature to be exceeded.

VFE

When using flap overspeed must stay in the white arc
VFE.

Entering the climb

- [1] Lookout up above & ahead
Choose an attitude reference such as cloud or position of the sun to monitor descent
- [2] Power - Set full power, anticipate the effect of the power and use the rudder to stay in balance
- [3] Attitude Pitch up to the climbing attitude
- [4] Trim - to relieve any control forces.

Note: Do not chase the overspeed, after selecting a pitch attitude allow the overspeed 5-10 seconds to settle before making a further adjustment.

Maintaining the climb

- 11] Maintain climb as speed through the nose attitude
- 12] Maintain level using level. Cross check outside reference and heading indicator.
- 13] Maintain balanced flight by reference to the balance ball
- 14] Maintain look out scan. Weave the nose regularly to check ahead.
- 15] Monitor the engine t° and pressure.
- 16] Monitor the altimeter to anticipate required level.

levelling off.

- [1] Anticipate required level by about 20-100 feet.
- [2] Altitude - lower the nose to the straight and level attitude.
- [3] Power - As airspeed reaches normal cruise reduce the normal setting. Maintain balance.
- [4] Trim to relieve any control forces.
- [5] Make minor corrections.

Note: Cross check altimeter and airspeed indicators.

The Effect of Flap.

- [1] In a established climb, note the nose attitude and the rate of climb.
- [2] Check airspeed in "white" arc lower first stage (critical) flap.
- [3] Pitch nose down to maintain climb airspeed, Green
- [4] Note the lower nose attitude and reduced rate of climb
- [5] As more flap is lowered, the nose attitude became lower to maintain airspeed and rate of climb reduce further.

Best Angle of Climb:

[1] Lookout.

[2] POWER - ALTITUDE - TRIM.

Nose attitude will need to be higher to overcome the slower best angle of climb over speed.

[3] Note the rate of climb is less than in a normal climb, but the angle of climb is steeper.

[4] The slower airspeed will require more accurate airspeed control.

Cruise clump

[1] Lockout

[2] Power Attitude Train Lockout

[3] Base attitude is only slightly higher than for the straight and level flight.

[4] Note normal cruising airspeed, better view ahead and reduced rate of climb.

Descending Ex 1^o 7.

We saw that an excess power over that needed to
for level flight allow the aircraft to climb.

Not surprisingly the reverse is true. ~~If~~

If power is below that needed for level flight
the aircraft will descend.

In a descent, thrust has been reduced or
removed altogether. In a glide the nose down
of the aircraft allow a component of the weight
to act as in the same direction as thrust would
normally (ahead of the aircraft) so balancing
drag and maintaining a safe airspeed.

Weight is balanced by the resultant of the lift
and the drag forces.

in the descent a component of weight replace
thrust to balance drag.

The gliding range of the aircraft is governed by
it's aerodynamic efficiency - specifically it's
lift to drag ratio. When gliding the ideal
is for the the airplane to produce the maximum
amount of lift for the minimum amount of drag
this is known as a good lift/drag (L/D) ratio.

Gliding for Best Range

The glide angle is dictated by the L/D ratio.

The gliding angle of the aircraft is the same as the angle between the lift vector and the resultant.

An aircraft that has a good L/D ratio (the maximum lift produced for the minimum drag penalty) will have a narrower angle between the lift vector and the resultant. The gliding angle is flat & gliding range is good. An aircraft with a poor L/D ratio has a steeper gliding angle & gliding range is less.

The greater the lift generated and the less drag produced, the smaller the angle between the lift vector and the resultant.

This equates to a narrower gliding angle & therefore a greater range.

A typical training aircraft will have a best L/D ratio of around $10=1$, meaning that it is producing 10 units of lift for every 1 unit of drag, 10 feet forward for every 1 foot lost in height or 10000 feet horizontally (10 nautical miles) for each 1000 feet lost in height. The gliding angle and range are determined by the aerodynamic efficiency of the aircraft, provided it is flown at the recommended gliding speed at which the best L/D ratio occurs.

4/18

Only at the recommended glide airspeed can the maximum glide range be attained.

Effect of Wind

Glideing with a tailwind increases glide range

Glideing into a headwind decreases glide range

Reducing airspeed by about 5 knot when glideing with a strong tailwind (increase glideing)

Increasing airspeed by about 5 knot when glideing with a strong headwind

The Rate of Descent is not affected by the prevailing wind (head or tail), the aircraft will still reach the ground in the same time. What will alter is the distance it covers in the glide.

Effect of Weight

Weight does not alter the glide angle. Remember that the glide angle is governed by L/D Ratio.

A heavier aircraft will have a faster best glideing speed than a light.

A training aircraft with a small range of take off weights will not benefit significantly from being flown at different glide airspeeds for different weight.

Normally just one glideing speed (that for maximum weight) will be noted in the aircraft's POH / FM.

Weight does not alter the glide angle, or the glide airspeed. At a higher weight the length of the vector is longer. Therefore the length of the lift vector is longer and because of the

faster airspeed the drag vector is longer - the L/D ratio is unchanged and so the glide angle is unchanged.

Glide for Best Endurance.

A pilot might want to glide with a view to stay airborne as long as possible. (with minimum rate of descent) even though the gliding speed will be reduced.

The best glide endurance (minimum height lost in a certain time) occurs at a slower airspeed than the best gliding range airspeed - in fact at the minimum power required airspeed.

The best glide endurance (the greatest time airborne) is achieved at the minimum power required airspeed.

Effect of Flap.

The use of flap increases drag so increases L/D ratio, leading to a steeper descent. (and a higher airspeed) which is a major consideration when approaching land.

Effect of Power

When power is used during the descent, the increased thrust means that a reduced component of weight is required to balance drag, the aircraft can therefore rise up to maintain a constant airspeed and the descent angle is reduced (and descent range increased).

As power is increased, the rate of descent and angle of descent decrease (if a constant airspeed is maintained).

Imprecise term power is used to control the rate of descent, control the elevator control the attitude and therefore the airspeed.

Power control attitude (in this case rate of descent)
Attitude control airspeed.

Sideslipping

Flaps can be used in the descent to increase drag and steepen the descent. There is also sideslipping which gives similar effect.

To sideslip, the aircraft is banked and rudder applied to the opposite direction the bank, so that the aircraft does not turn toward the lower wing. The result is that the aircraft slips sideways through the air. This causes a marked increase in drag so leads to a steeper glide angle and an increased rate of descent, without the airspeed increasing.

Before aircraft were fitted with flaps and sideslipping was standard manoeuvre especially during the final approach to land. Sideslipping does have several disadvantages. Flying the aircraft in such an out of balance condition can be uncomfortable for passengers and requires some skill on the part of the pilot to keep the aircraft descending in a straight line while maintaining the correct airspeed.

Airspeed control can also be more difficult because the airspeed indicator may give incorrect reading in this out of balance situation. Rate of descent can become very high in a sideslip and when the sideslip is corrected (and so the drag reduced) the airspeed can increase rapidly.

Not all aircraft are cleared to sideslip, especially with flap down. The aircraft's POH / FM will advise if sideslipping is restricted or prohibited and there may be a warning placard in the cockpit.

The Cruise Descent

To lose height in more gradual descent than gliding use cruise descent.

In a cruise descent, the engine power is reduced typically by 700-800 RPM but the airspeed is maintained at the cruising speed by pitching the nose down to a shallower descent attitude. The result is a gradual descent (typically 500 feet per minute) whilst maintaining the cruise airspeed which gives a faster ground speed. It is also kinder to the engine. In this type of descent you can use a simple rule of thumb to give you a point to start the descent towards an airfield.

Read the height above the ground in thousands of feet multiply by 3 and the result is the distance required (in nautical miles) to descend to ground level at height 5000 start the descent 15 nautical miles from the destination.

Ground speed, aircraft type, wind affect this rule of thumb.

Flight Exercise n^o 8

Look out in descent, scan and weave nose regularly. It is difficult to spot an aircraft below because it merges with the ground features.

The Altimeter

During flight exercise you will be using an altimeter pressure setting called QNH. When QNH is set on the altimeter, the altimeter will read altitude that is vertical distance Above Mean Sea Level (AMSL). The altitude read on the altimeter is not necessarily your height Above Ground Level (AGL). The ground you are flying over will be higher than sea level and so your height Above Ground Level (AGL) may be considerably less than your altitude relative mean sea level (AMSL). Terrain markings on your map give you an appreciation of the average ground level in the training area above sea level.

If you are descending toward an airfield you can check its altitude (in feet AMSL) which will be shown in the descent.

VFE to be expected when using flap.

Engine Consideration

In glide descent, even with a low power setting the engine will cool and become susceptible to spark-plug fouling - oily deposit buildup.

on the spark plugs and reduce engine efficiency.
The engine will also be particularly vulnerable
to carbon buildup.

It will be standard procedure to "warm" the
engine every 1000 feet or so in the descent
by gently increasing the power a few seconds
and then reducing power again. Operate
the throttle smoothly - not to engine

Entering the glide descent

- [1] - Look out
Select an aiming point ahead.
- [2] - Power: Select carburettor heat to hot.
Reduce power to idle, anticipate pitch down
and yaw, use the rudder to stay in balance.
- [3] Aft. attitude: Pitch down to the glide attitude.
Establish glide airspeed.
- [4] Trim: Trim to relieve.

Note. Do not "chase" the airspeed, after selecting a pitch attitude allow the airspeed to settle before making a further adjustment.

Maintaining the Descent

- 1] Lookout
- 2] Maintain airspeed with attitude
- 3] Check external landmarks and heading indicators to maintain direction
- 4] Maintain balance by reference to the balance ball.
- 5] Monitor altimeter to anticipate required

Note: Remember to "examine" the engine at regular intervals.

leveling off

- [1] Anticipate required level by 20 to 100 feet, to allow for the aircraft's inertia. Cockpit
- [2] Power: Set carburettor heat ~~to cold~~ to cold. increase power to normal cruise power setting. anticipate pitch & yaw.
- [3] Altitude: Pitch up to the normal straight and level attitude.
- [4] Trim: As airspeed reaches normal cruise trim to remove control loads.
- [5] Correction:

Effect of the flap

- 1] Note the nose attitude in an established descent, note the nose attitude and rate of descent.
- 2] Check airspeed is slower than V_{FE}.
Lower initial flap.
- 3] Pitch down to maintain airspeed beam.
- 4] Note the lower nose attitude & increase rate of descent.
- 5] As more flap is lowered, nose attitude becomes lower to maintain airspeed and rate of descent increases.
- 6] Raise flap in stages to return to normal glide.

Summary: When maintaining a constant airspeed in the descent, power is used to control the rate of descent.

Descending with Flaps and Power

- [1] - Lookout before beginning descent
- [2] POWER - Reduce power to about 1800 RPM.
Check airspeed to is below VFE.
cancel initial flap.
- [3] Attitude: Maintain appropriate airspeed.
- [4] Trim.
- [5] Flaps allow a steeper descent & view because lower nose attitude.
- [6] Power is used to control the rate of descent.

Sideslipping

- 1] In standard glide descent rate airspeed a
rate of descent
- 2] Coorbait
- 3] Apply about 15° angle of bank
- 4] Apply "opposite" rudder to prevent the aircraft
turning
- 5] Correction \Rightarrow airspeed, angle of bank & descent
- 6] Rate increased rate of descent
- 7] Centralise the control to return to the normal
descent

The Cruise Descent

- [1] Engine straight & level flight
- [2] POWER, Reduce power by about 200/300 RPM from the normal cruise setting.
- [3] Altitude - Pitch down to maintain the cruise airspeed.
- [4] Terrain
- [5] Make ~~minor~~ case to maintain cruise airspeed & rate of descent.
- [6] Note the nose attitude is higher than in a glide & rate of descent is less.

Carburettor Icing Supplement

The most common cause of engine ice accumulation and complete engine failure, is ~~ice~~ carburettor icing.

How Carburettor Icing Form

Impact Icing occurs when ice forms over the external air inlet (air filter) and inside the induction system leading to the carburettor. This type of icing occurs with the temperatures below 0°C whilst flying in cloud or rain, sleet, snow.

This condition are also conducive to airframe icing and most light aircraft are not cleared for flight into known icing conditions.

Carburettor icing is caused by temperature drops inside the carburettor which can happen even in conditions where other forms of icing will not occur. The cause of this T° drop are fuel jetted.

Fuel Icing: The evaporation of fuel inside the carburettor, liquid fuel changes to fuel vapours and mixes with the induction air. This evaporation of fuel causes a large temperature drop with the carburettor. If the T° inside the carburettor falls below 0°C , water vapour in the atmosphere condense into ice, usually on the wall of the carburettor passage adjacent to the fuel jet and on the throttle valve.

Fuel icing is responsible for around 70% of the T° drop in the carburettor.

2. Throttle Iceing: The T° drop caused by the acceleration of air and consequent pressure drop around the throttle valve. This effect may reduce T° below 0° and water vapour in the incoming air will condense into ice on the throttle valve.

As fuel & Throttle iceing generally occurs together they are covered just as carburettor iceing.

Condition likely to lead to Carburettor Iceing.

Two criteria govern the likelihood of carburettor iceing conditions: the Air Temperature and the relative Humidity.

The ambient air temperature is important but not because the T° need to be below 0° or even close to freezing. The T° drop in the carburettor can be as much as 20° and still iceing does happen. It is also called Refreezing iceing. It is possible at T° range of -10° to 30° .

The relative humidity (a measure of the water content of the atmosphere) is the major factor. The greater the water content in the atmosphere (the higher the relative humidity), the greater the risk of carburettor iceing. The relative humidity (RH) does not have to be 100% (could water droplet, cloud rain) for carburettor iceing to occur. It is possible at RH of 30%, not usual in Europe. Iceing happens over a wide range of conditions. The pilot must be alert at all times. Flight in or near cloud or rain may be a serious

direct cause of carburettor icing, but suitable maintenance does not need to be present for ~~the~~ icing to occur.

~~Symptoms of Carburettor Icing~~

In aircraft fitted with a fixed pitch propeller the symptoms of carburettor icing are straight forward. A loss of RPM will be the first symptom although this is often noticed as a loss of altitude. As the icing becomes more serious, engine rough running may occur.

Carburettor icing is often detected during the use of the carburettor heat control. When the carburettor heat is used a small drop in RPM occurs. When control is returned to cold (off), the RPM increases to its value before the use of C.H. If the RPM returns to a higher figure than before the carburettor heat was used, some icing was present.

~~Use of carburettor heat~~

Apart from the normal check of carburettor heat during the pre-flight check, it may be necessary to use the carburettor heat on the ground if carburettor icing is suspected.

Safety considerations apart from the use of carburettor heat on the ground should be kept to a minimum because the hot air inlet is unfilled and also a sand or dust can enter the engine, increasing engine wear.

Carburetor icing is generally considered to be more
likely with the engine operating at altitudes
75% power, during take off & landing
climb. It must not be used at 75% power
(full throttle) as detonation may occur.
Detonation is the uncontrolled increasing of
fuel in the cylinder - literally an explosion
and will cause serious damage to the engine
very quickly. It also reduces the power of the
engine. When full power is required (Take off
to climb, go around the carburetor heat must be off.

A normal carburetor icing check will involve
the carburetor heat on (hot) for 2-10s, although
the pilot may wish to vary according to conditions.
The use of carburetor heat does increase the fuel
consumption and this may be a factor to consider
if the aircraft is being flown towards the limits
of its range/performance in possible carburetor
icing conditions.

With carburetor icing present, the use of carburetor
heat may lead to a large drop in RPM
and engine running. The instinctive reaction
is to put the carburetor heat back to cold (off)
quickly - this is the wrong action. The carburetor
heat has melted a large amount of accumulated
icing and it is passing through the engine causing
temporary engine running.

Care should be taken when flying in very
cold ambient conditions (below -10°C). In
these conditions the use of carburetor heat may

actually cause the T° in the carburetor to heat most conducive to carburetor icing. Generally when the T° in the carburetor is below -8°C , moisture change directly into ice crystals which pass through the engine.

The RPM loss normally associated with the use of carburetor heat is caused by the reduced density of the hot air entering the carburetor leading to an over-rich mixture entering the engine. If the carburetor heat has to be left constantly on (hot) during flight in heavy rain and cleared it may be advisable to lean the mixture in order to maintain RPM and smooth engine running.

It is during the descent (and particularly the glide descent) that carburetor icing is most likely to occur. The position of the throttle valve (almost closed) is a contributory factor and even though the carburetor heat is normally applied throughout a glide descent, the low engine power will reduce the T° of the hot air selected by the carburetor heat control.