MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE OF UKRAINE

National Aerospace University
«Kharkov Aviation Institute»

Faculty of Aircraft Engineering

Airplane and Helicopter Design Department

Explanatory Note
to Diploma Project of

Master
(degree)

Subject: **Heavy transport aircraft**

XAI.103. 160fd.23S.134. 05.19 EN

Applicant of 2 Year 161fd Group
Field of knowledge *13 Mechanical Engineering*
Specialty: *134 Aerospace Engineering*
Educational program: Airplanes and helicopters
Shen Xinmin
(name)
Supervisor: Sergey Filipkovskij
(name)
Reviewer S.M. Ivanov
(name)

Kharkiv – 2023

Ministry of Science and Education of Ukraine
National Aerospace University
«Kharkiv Aviation Institute»

Faculty *Aircraft Engineering*
Department *103 Airplane and Helicopter Design*
Degree *First (Bachelor)*
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(Code and name)
Educational Program Airplanes and helicopters
(Name)

APPROVED by
Head of Chair
PhD, Ass. Prof. Andrii HUMENNYI
"____" _____2023___

TASK
FOR DIPLOMA PROJECT

Shen Xinmin
(Name)
Subject of qualification paper Heavy transport aircraft

Supervisor of qualification paper Sergey Filipkovskij, Prof., DSc
(name, degree, scientific degree)
Approved by University order No 413-уч from "_20_" ____03____2023__
Qualification paper presentation deadline 15/05/2023
Initial data for the qualification L=10000 km; L_{TO}=3000 m; H_{cruis}=10.0 km; V_{cruis}=850 km/h; V_{max}=1000 km/h; n_{crew}=4 pers; m_{cargo}=100000 kg..

Content of explanatory note (list of problems to solve)

Abstract

1 Design section

1.1 Development of the aircraft concept, scientific and technical program to achieve its performance

1.2 Aircraft purpose, tactical and technical requirements, the conditions of its production and operation, restrictions imposed by aviation regulations

List of drawings (with the exact indication of obligatory drawings)

- Master geometry of aircraft surface, general view drawing.
- Load carrying structure layout of the aircraft.

Advisors of diploma project sections

Section	Name and duty of advisor	Signature, Date	
		Task is given	Task is submitted
1	Prof., DSc, Sergey Filipkovskij	10/02/2023	23/03/2023
2	Ass. Prof., PhD, Tatiana Pavlenko	10/02/2023	15/05/2023
3	Prof., DSc, Sergey Filipkovskij	10/02/2023	11/05/2023
4			
5			

Normative inspection_____Sergey Filipkovskij «____» _____2023
(Signature) (Name)

Date when task is given_____2023 February 10_____

CALENDAR PLAN

№	Diploma project milestones	Diploma project milestone deadlines	Notes
1	Design Section	23/03/2023	
2	Economic Section	15/05/2023	
3	Research Section	11/05/2023	
4			
5			

Applicant _____ Shen Xinmin
(Signature) (Initials and surname)

Supervisor of diploma project _____ Sergey Filipkovskij
(Signature) (Initials and surname)

SUMMARY

The master project contains 83 p., 5 Tables, 36 Fig., 62 References.

Object of research: heavy transport aircraft.

The purpose of the work: the aim of this diploma project is to design a heavy transport aircraft with payload of 100000 kg, including determining the take-off mass and geometric parameters in the zero and first approximations, developing general view drawing, modeling aircraft master-geometry and space distribution model, calculating aerodynamic and flight characteristics, cost calculation of manufacturing the designed aircraft.

Research methods: statistical, analytical methods, calculating aircraft aerodynamic in FLUENT, structural modeling in UG NX7.5, software developed in departments 102, 103.

The results of the master's diploma project and its novelty: as a result of the master's diploma project the following results were obtained:

Determined basic geometric and mass parameters of a heavy transport aircraft. The influence of geometric parameters on the take-off mass of the aircraft in zero and first approximations. The take-off mass of the aircraft in the first approximation is 355000 kg, and the masses of the main components of the aircraft: wing – 92300 kg; fuselage – 52540 kg; tail – 4615 kg; landing gear – 23075 kg; power plant – 35500 kg; fuel – 63900 kg. The main geometric parameters are wingspan – 68.86 m, mean aerodynamic chord of wing – 8.7 m, fuselage length – 69 m, wing aspect ratio – 8.7, wing load – 650 daN/m^2.

1) Developed a master geometry and a space distribution model of an airplane. Models created using UG NX7.5, General view created using AUTO CAD.

2) Calculated aerodynamic characteristics using FLUENT and FENSAP - ICE.

3) Modeling wing box using UG NX7.5.

The estimated cost of the projected aircraft for the design bureau, which is 342.66 million dollars. The estimated cost of manufacturing two prototype aircrafts, which amounted to 254 million dollars.

HEAVY TRANSPORT AIRCRAFT, WING, TAIL UNIT, FUSELAGE, LANDING GEAR, AERODYNAMIC CHARACTERISTICS, NUMERICAL SIMULATION OF ICE ACCRETIONS, PRICE OF THE AIRCRAFT.

Conditions for obtaining: with the written permission of the head of the Department of Aircraft and Helicopter Design of the National Aerospace University «Kharkiv Aviation Institute».

CONTENT

1 DESIGN SECTION

1.1 Automated formation of the aircraft shape

1.1.1 Development of the aircraft concept, scientific and technical program to achieve its performance

The development of an aircraft concept begins by identifying its intended purpose and establishing tactical and technical requirements. In the case of our cargo airplane, the primary objective is to transport heavy cargo over long distances. We have considered several aircraft models, including the An-124, C-5M Super Galaxy, Boeing 747-8, and Airbus 380-800, to arrive at the most suitable configuration.

The design of a long-range heavy transport aircraft with a cargo capacity of up to 100000kg is carried out in order to:

– creation of a highly economical long-range heavy transport aircraft of a new generation, fully complying with modern and future airworthiness standards;

– replacement of the fleet of outdated long-range heavy transport aircraft;

– providing airlines and other customers with a new international competitive long-range heavy transport aircraft;

– creation of a long-range heavy transport aircraft with high levels of fuel efficiency, environmental friendliness, reliability, increased comfort and safety for passengers, as well as with low operating costs;

– creation of a long-range heavy transport aircraft with a significantly expanded range of operating conditions in comparison with the range of operating conditions available in modern analogues;

– further development of scientific and industrial potential, as well as the creation of jobs in high-tech industries in world.

Achieving these goals is possible under the following conditions:

From aerodynamics: to develop the aerodynamic scheme of the plane that allows to reduce essentially aerodynamic resistance of the plane and resistance of interference in comparison with the reached level; achieve a reduction in the probability of falling at critical angles of attack. If the crash occurs – to ensure the independent exit of the aircraft from it without the participation of the pilot, apply modern wing airfoils.

From the design: This task is realized by application of modern methods of calculation on durability, use of modern composite materials, materials with the increased mechanical properties (2024, 7075, 1420, B95AT, 1161T, 1933T3, D16AT), tight high-resource fastening.

Management: it is necessary that the aircraft was stable and controllable in all flight modes. Use of the classical scheme of the aircraft and the presence of controls, such as ailerons, flaps, rudder altitude and direction, makes it possible to ensure high stability and controllability of the designed aircraft in all flight modes.

From the equipment: on the plane it is necessary to use modern digital equipment that has less mass than analog, and increases the ease of reading information by the crew by outputting data to liquid crystal displays with high image quality.

From operational manufacturability and repair: it is necessary that the layout of the aircraft carried out a cargo hatch. The design of the aircraft will allow for a quick inspection and preparation for the flight without additional maintenance personnel.

From the range of functionalities: The designed aircraft must have the widest possible range of functionalities in terms of range and speed of flight, comfort of crew when operating in different climatic conditions, nomenclature of transported cargo, autonomy of operation and variability of aerodrome network.

Overall, the development of this cargo airplane concept required a scientific and technical approach with a focus on meeting the specific requirements of heavy cargo transportation. Through a rigorous program of analysis and design optimization, a final design has been developed that meets all the necessary specifications while providing efficient and reliable performance.

1.1.2 Aircraft purpose, tactical and technical requirements, the conditions of its production and operation, restrictions imposed by aviation regulations

The projected aircraft is being created as a base for heavy transport aircraft with a payload capacity of up to 100000kg, with four turbofan engines.

This aircraft must provide:

– the possibility of using various options for the types of application (trunk, administrative, regional) and equipment configuration (foreign or domestic avionics and equipment);

– full compliance with the AP-25, CS-25, FAR-25 airworthiness standards used today, environmental requirements and quality standards;

– high level, operational and technical excellence;

– a wide range of speed, range, comfort;

– competitiveness in terms of foreign analogues;

– high fuel efficiency;

– the ability to fly in adverse weather conditions.

The projected aircraft is designed to carry passengers, cargo, mail, baggage on local and international airlines.

The aircraft, all its equipment, components, engines, as well as documentation must comply with:

– this technical assignment;

– aviation rules AP-25;

– auxiliary power unit (APU) – aviation regulations AR-AE «Airworthiness standards for aircraft auxiliary engines» (АП-ВД «Нормы летной годности вспомогательных двигателей воздушных судов»);

– engines – aviation regulations AP-33 «Airworthiness standards for aircraft engines» (АП-33 «Нормы летной годности двигателей воздушных судов»).

In terms of noise, the aircraft should not violate the requirements of the 4th chapter of the international standards the aircraft should not violate the requirements of the 4th chapter of the international standards «Environmental protection» («Охрана окружающей среды») and the requirements of AP-36 (АП-36).

The aircraft must be designed according to the principle of "damage-safe".

The aircraft, equipment and systems, engines should be operated no more than the assigned resource.

The aircraft must provide flights:

– at different times of the day (night and day)

– in difficult and simple weather conditions;

– planted (seas and oceans) by space;

– over mountainous, hilly and flat terrain;

The design and location of cargo hatches must ensure the departure and access of ground vehicles for loading and unloading operations.

The cleanliness of the hydraulic system fluid should be controlled by filtration means (onboard).

The design of the hydraulic system must allow for the possibility of dismantling the units and filters, have a shorter resource than the corresponding resources of the airframe, without draining the fluid.

During the entire flight, the air temperature in the aircraft cabins must be maintained within 18...25°C. These temperatures must be obtained no more than 25 minutes after take-off.

The design of the airframe of the aircraft must allow the installation of other similar engines, including foreign ones.

The fuel system must be free from the possibility of accumulation of contaminants in the fuel delivery elements and in the fuel tanks.

Means must be provided to ensure the survivability of the power plant in the event of a fire on the engine, as well as to protect the structure from fire.

In accordance with the requirements on board the aircraft, there must be provided and equipped places for placing a first-aid kit.

The design of the functional systems of the aircraft must ensure:

– certain goods for various types of control (visual, optical, organoleptic)
– easily removable and easy to connect connecting devices;
– the possibility of combining control objects with external control means.

Ground maintenance facilities must perform high-performance, high-quality maintenance, elimination of various kinds of malfunctions and search for problems, and efficiently carry out unloading and loading operations.

Ground refueling facilities must exclude the possibility of contamination of the fuel, oil hydraulic systems.

The aircraft refueling system should be linked to the characteristics of foreign refueling systems.

The location of sensors and various external devices should not interfere with the joining of ladders of foreign designs.

The paints and varnishes used in the construction must allow the use of foreign liquids to remove icing from the surface of the aircraft.

The primary purpose of the aircraft is to **transport heavy cargo** over long distances. To achieve this purpose, the aircraft must be capable of carrying a **payload of up to 100,000 kg** and have a **takeoff distance of 3,000 km** and a **landing distance of 1,000 km**. The aircraft was designed with a cruise speed of 850 km/h and a cruise altitude of 10 km. The static ceiling of the aircraft is 11.3 km, enabling it to operate in different weather conditions.

The tactical and technical requirements of the aircraft were carefully considered during the design process. Factors such as aerodynamics, propulsion, flight performance, structural and control systems, as well as aviation regulations and restrictions, were taken into account. The design was optimized to ensure that the aircraft met all requirements while considering weight, balance, and overall performance.

The production and operation of our cargo airplane will be subject to various conditions and regulations. The aircraft will be manufactured in accordance with strict quality control procedures to ensure that it meets all design specifications and regulatory requirements. The production process will involve a range of activities, including material selection, component manufacture, assembly, testing, and certification.

The production and operation of the cargo airplane must adhere to strict regulations and conditions. These include compliance with international aviation

regulations, such as those set by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) and the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA). These regulations ensure the safety and reliability of the aircraft during its production, operation, and maintenance.

During operation, the aircraft will be subject to various restrictions and regulations imposed by aviation authorities. These regulations will include requirements for safety, maintenance, and operational procedures. The aircraft will be operated by trained and certified pilots and crew and will be subject to regular maintenance and safety checks to ensure that it remains in optimal condition.

In addition, we will ensure that the aircraft operates in compliance with environmental regulations, including those relating to noise pollution and emissions. The aircraft will be designed and operated with a focus on minimizing its environmental impact while maintaining high levels of safety and efficiency.

Overall, the production and operation of our cargo airplane will be subject to a range of conditions and regulations. We will ensure that the aircraft is designed, manufactured, and operated to meet all necessary requirements while maintaining high levels of safety, efficiency, and environmental responsibility.

1.1.3 Collection, processing, and selection of basic relative initial parameters of the aircraft

The development of any aircraft requires a rigorous and scientific approach, which involves collecting and analyzing a vast amount of statistical data. In the case of our cargo airplane, collection and processing of statistical data during aircraft design allows:

– to get a visual idea of the current level of development of aircraft construction of passenger aircraft and their flight performance;

– to determine the trends and development prospects of the type of aircraft being developed, quantitative and qualitative changes in the tactical and technical requirements to the aircraft, the conditions of production and operation.

– determine a number of aircraft parameters.

To collect statistical daytime data, it is necessary to use data from aircraft similar to those designed and have similar flight performance and operating conditions.

The following aircraft were taken as analogous aircraft: An-124 (Fig 1.1), C-5M Super Galaxy (Fig 1.2), Boeing 747-8 (Fig 1.3), and Airbus A380-800 (Fig 1.4). By analyzing and comparing their technical specifications, we were able to select the basic relative initial parameters for our cargo airplane.

The following are general views of these four aircraft models:

a) An-124

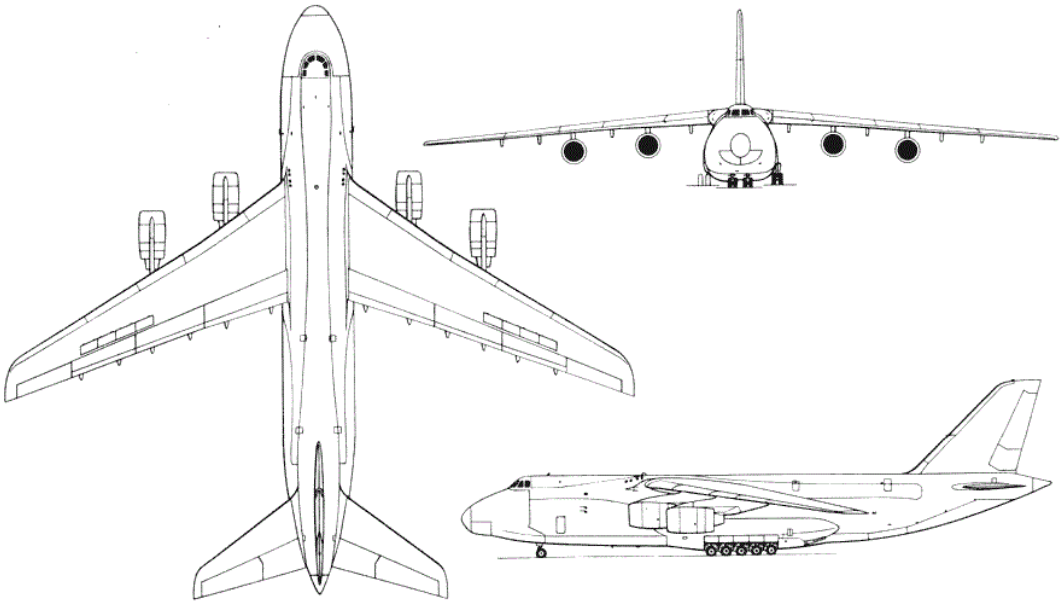

Figure 1.1 - Scheme of the An-124

b) C-5M super galaxy

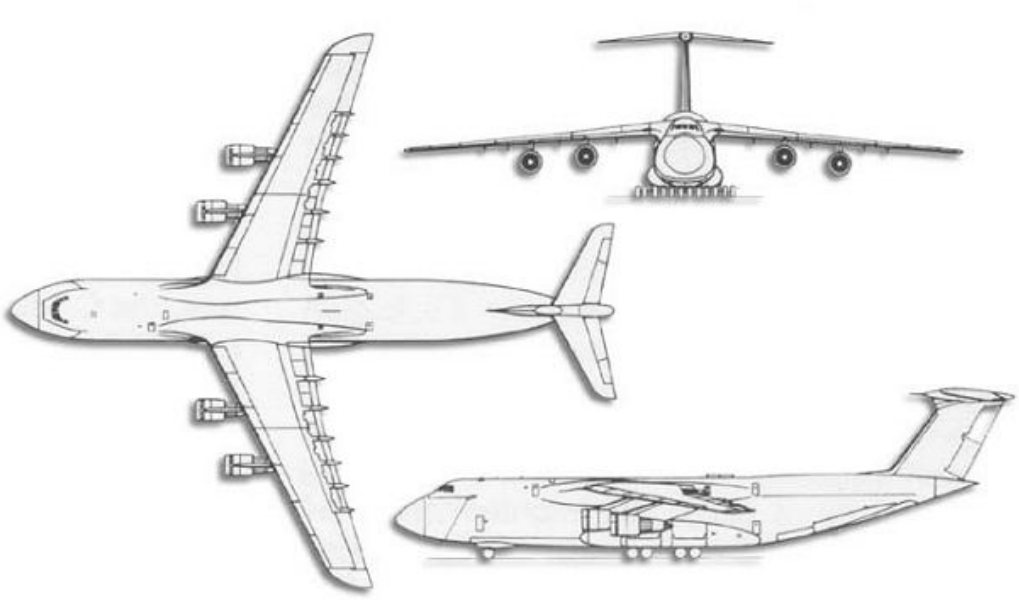

Figure 1.2 - Scheme of the C-5M super galaxy

c) Boeing 747-8

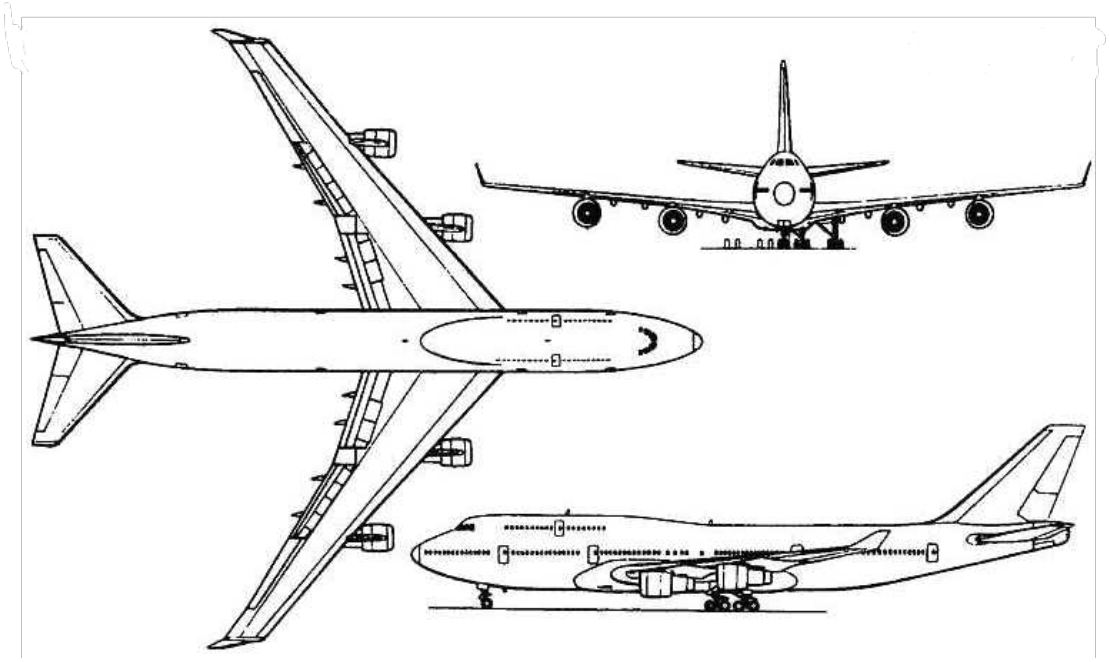

Figure 1.3 - Scheme of the Boeing747-8

d) Airbus 380-800

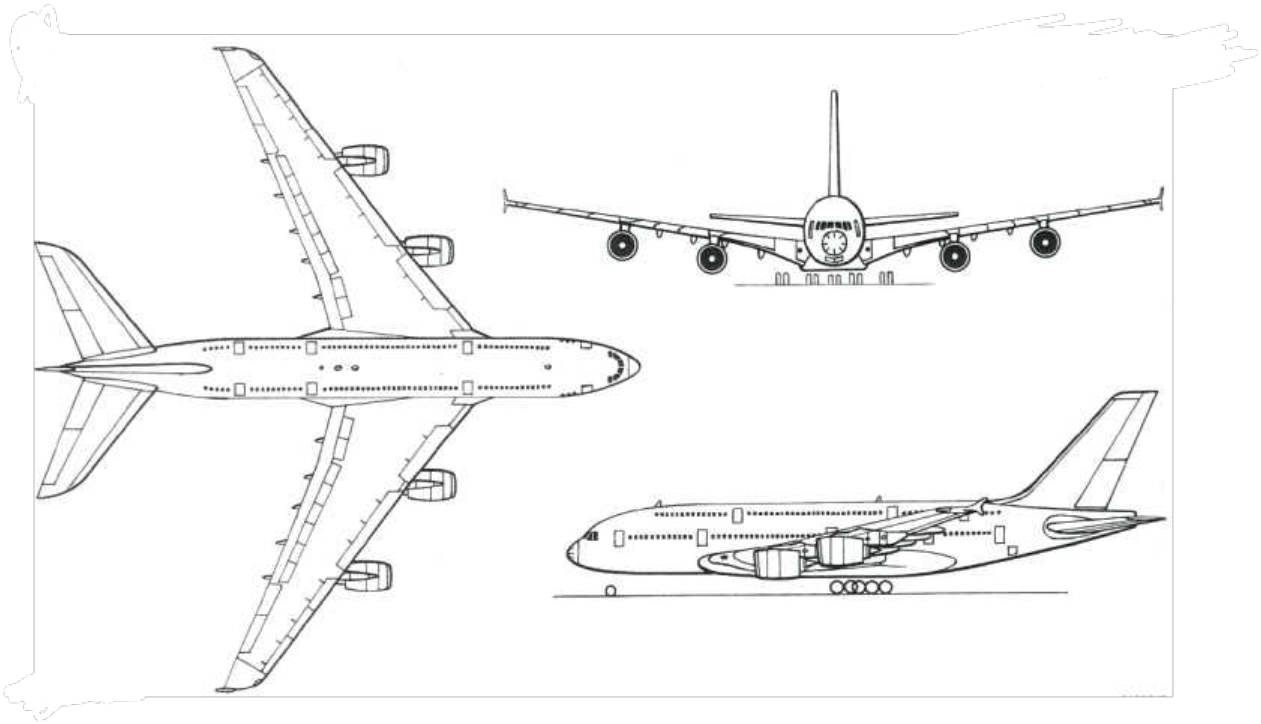

Figure 1.4 - Scheme of the A380-800

The statistics from these prototype aircraft are entered in tab. 1.1.

Table 1.1 – Statistics of similar aircraft and requirements for the designed aircraft

n_4	n_3	n_2	n_1	1	No.	
Airbus 380-800	Boeing 747-8	C-5M Super Galaxy	An-124	2	Name of aircraft	
850	933	950	850	3	V_{cruise}, km/h	*FIGHT DATA*
865	948	975	865	4	V_{max}, km/h	
10	10	10	10	5	H_{cruise}, km	
11	11	11	11	6	$H_{v\,max}$, km	
13	12	11	11.6	7	H_{clg}, km	
3100	3100	1646	2500	8	L_{to}, m	
1890	1600	1097	900	9	L_{land}, m	
568163	366221	361068	392000	10	$m_0(m_{to})$, kg	MASS DATA
575000	447700	381018	405000	11	$m_{to\,max}$, kg	
160000	120000	127460	120000	12	m_{cargo}, kg	
555	450	410	7	13	n_{pass}	
386007	270000	286000	330000	14	m_{land}, kg	
277145	220100	172365	178400	15	m_{empty}, kg	
150000	120000	129274	120000	16	m_c, kg	
253983	173000	150819	212350	17	m_f, kg	
4 • 348	4 • 260.2	4 • 230	4 • 229.85	18	$P_0(N_0)$, daN	POWER PLANT DATA

6246	5623	4473	5615	19	m_{eng}, kg	
4 • Trent 970-84/970B-84	4 • GEnx-2B67	4 • GE CF6-80C2	4 • D18-T	20	Number and type of engines	
8.5	6.5	5.31	5.6	21	y, Bypass ratio	
845	550	580	628	22	S, m²	GEOMETRICAL DATA
79.75	68.4	67.91	69.1	23	L, m	
45	49	29	35	24	X_{te}^{o}	
7.5	8.5	8	8.6	25	λ	
4.43	2.78	2.86	2.96	26	η	
73	76.25	75.63	73.3	27	L_f, m	
7.14	6.88	7.2	10.02	28	d_f, m	
10.18	11.1	10.5	7.32	29	λ_f	
672.4	665.9	622.5	624.2	30	p_o=m_og/10 s, daN/m²	

End of table 1.1

0.24	0.29	0.26	0.23	31	t_o=10p_o/ m_og	DERIVATIVE VALUES
0.24	0.27	0.23	0.28	32	$\overline{S_{HT}}$	
0.14	0.17	0.13	0.19	33	$\overline{S_{VT}}$	

When designing a new aircraft, the problem arises of choosing its general scheme. This is essentially the initial stage in the synthesis of an aircraft design. It is not possible to formalize the decisions made on this problem in full.

However, within the framework of already implemented or proposed solutions, it is possible to organize a formal search for the best solution in terms of the evaluation criterion and the satisfaction of the task of tactical and technical requirements and technical specifications.

The choice of the general scheme of the aircraft means not only the choice of its aerodynamic scheme, although it is decisive in the implementation of the principle of operation of the aircraft, but also the scheme of the power plant, takeoff and landing devices, the placement of the crew and the target load, etc.

The final choice of the general scheme is made from a number of competing options based on the optimization of each of them and further comprehensive analysis. As an evaluation criterion for an aircraft, we take its take-off mass, and as limitations – flight performance, specified tactical and technical requirements and technical specifications.

In summary, the collection, processing, and analysis of statistical data play a critical role in the development of any aircraft. By selecting the appropriate parameters and optimizing their values, we can design an aircraft that meets the specific requirements of its intended purpose.

1.1.4 Analysis of statistical data

We have calculated these parameters by applying appropriate mathematical models to the statistical data collected for the four aircraft models. All of calculations are based on the DEVELOPMENT OF A PILOT PROJECT OF AN AIRCRAFT: Training guide [1]. These parameters are crucial in determining the overall performance of the cargo airplane, including its payload capacity, range, speed, and fuel efficiency.

To ensure that our cargo airplane meets the required performance specifications, we have also considered factors such as the aircraft's wing and fuselage design, and engine type and size. These parameters have been optimized to achieve the desired balance between performance, safety, and operational efficiency.

After collecting statistical data, we proceed to the development of tactical and technical requirements. This stage will be carried out on the basis of the analysis of statistical materials, complementing the specified tactical and technical requirements of the designed aircraft.

The obtained flight characteristics of the aircraft are entered in tab. 1.2.

Table 1.2 – Aircraft performance characteristics

$M_{(H_{cruise}=10km)}$	$L(with\ max\ m_{cargo})$, km	m_{cargo}, kg	L_{TO}, m	$V_{cruise}, km/h$	H_{cruise}, m	n_{crews}, pers
0.76	10000	100000	3000	850	10	4

1.1.4.1 Determination of the Airplane Take Off Mass

Taking into account the range and purpose of the aircraft, and assigning the following values of relative masses:

m_{pl} – mass of payload;

$\overline{m}_{airfrm}$ – relative mass of airframe, which includes relative masses of the wing, fuselage, tail unit and landing gears - 0.28

$\bar{m}_{pow.pl}$ – relative mass of power plant, which includes relative masses of the engines together with facilities for mounting and servicing systems - 0.08

$\bar{m}_{ctl.sys}$ – relative mass of the equipment and control system, including hydraulic, pneumatic, electrical system, navigation equipment, control systems of the rudder, elevator, ailerons, flaps and spoilers - 0.06

$\bar{m}_{fuel}$ – relative mass of fuel - 0.30, the take-off mass of the aircraft can be calculated by formula (1.1):

$$m_0 = \frac{m_{p.l}+m_{crew}}{1-(\bar{m}_{airfrm}+\bar{m}_{pow.pl}+\bar{m}_{ctl.sys}+\bar{m}_{fuel})} \quad (1.1)$$

Then from formula (1.1), the take-off mass of the aircraft in zero approximation:

$$m_0 = \frac{100000+320}{1-(0.28+0.08+0.06+0.30)} = 358571kg$$

1.1.4.2 Determination of Engine Parameters

A heavy transport aircraft typically installs four engines for several reasons. First, it provides redundancy and increases the aircraft's reliability. In case of an engine failure, the remaining engines can compensate for the loss of power and ensure that the aircraft can continue to operate safely.

Second, four engines provide enough power to lift the heavy weight of the aircraft, especially during takeoff and climb phases. This is important because heavy transport aircraft are designed to carry significant amounts of cargo or passengers, and thus require more power to lift off the ground and maintain altitude.

Third, four engines allow for a higher thrust-to-weight ratio, which is a critical parameter that affects the aircraft's performance. A higher thrust-to-weight ratio

means the aircraft can accelerate faster and achieve higher speeds, which can be beneficial for shorter takeoff and landing distances, and faster transit times.

Overall, the installation of four engines on a heavy transport aircraft provides a combination of redundancy, reliability, power, and performance, all of which are critical for ensuring safe and efficient operation.

P_0-starting thrust of the engine can be calculated by formula (1.2)

$$P_0 = t_0 \cdot m_0 \cdot g \tag{1.2}$$

Then from formula (1.2), the starting thrust of the engine:

$$P_0 = 0.26 \cdot 358571 \cdot 9.8 = 913.64KN$$

The determination of the total required thrust is a crucial step in the aircraft design process. In this particular case, the aircraft is equipped with four engines, and the thrust required per engine is calculated to be 228.41KN. After considering various factors, the turbojet engine GECF6-80C2 has been selected as the most suitable option.

1.1.4.3 Choice of the Aerodynamic Configuration of the Aircraft and Peculiarities of its Longitudinal Trim

The choice of the aerodynamic configuration of an aircraft is a critical step in the design process. The aerodynamic configuration determines the aircraft's performance characteristics, stability, and control. After careful consideration and analysis of various options, we have decided to use the normal configuration for our cargo airplane.

The normal configuration is a common choice for cargo airplanes and is characterized by a high wing mounted on top of the fuselage, a single vertical stabilizer, and two or more engines mounted under the wings. This configuration provides good lift and stability, making it well-suited for heavy cargo transportation.

The longitudinal trim of the aircraft is also an important consideration. Longitudinal trim refers to the balance of the aircraft along its longitudinal axis, or in other words, the balance between the aircraft's pitch and the horizontal stabilizer's pitch. The pitch is the up-and-down movement of the aircraft's nose.

To achieve proper longitudinal trim, we have designed the aircraft with a horizontal stabilizer set at a negative angle of incidence. This configuration allows the aircraft to maintain a stable pitch during flight, even with varying payloads. Additionally, we have installed an elevator control surface to adjust the aircraft's pitch during flight.

Overall, the choice of the normal configuration and the design of the aircraft's longitudinal trim have been carefully considered to ensure optimal performance and stability during heavy cargo transportation.

1.1.4.4 Selection of wing position relatively to the fuselage

The selection of the wing position relative to the fuselage is a critical design decision that significantly impacts the aircraft's performance and stability. After careful consideration and analysis of various wing configurations, the high-wing configuration has been chosen for the cargo airplane.

The high-wing configuration is characterized by the wings being mounted on top of the fuselage, providing several advantages for cargo transportation. One of the primary advantages is that the high-wing configuration allows for a larger cargo hold and easier loading and unloading of cargo from the top. Additionally, the high-wing configuration provides greater ground clearance for the engines and reduces the risk of damage during takeoff and landing.

The high-wing configuration also offers superior stability and safety in flight, especially during low-speed operations such as takeoff and landing. This is due to the wing's location above the fuselage, which creates a pendulum effect that enhances lateral stability.

In terms of aerodynamic performance, the high-wing configuration provides excellent lift characteristics and efficient use of the wingspan. The high-wing configuration also reduces interference drag from the fuselage, contributing to the airplane's overall fuel efficiency.

Furthermore, the high-wing configuration allows for a simpler and more compact landing gear system, which reduces weight and complexity. This, in turn, contributes to improved fuel efficiency and lower operational costs.

Overall, the selection of the high-wing configuration for the cargo airplane was based on a thorough analysis of the aircraft's intended purpose, aerodynamic performance, stability, safety, and operational costs. The high-wing configuration offers several advantages for cargo transportation, making it an optimal choice for the cargo airplane design

1.1.4.5 Geometrical Calculations

In this section, we will discuss the geometrical calculations that have been made in order to obtain the first general view of the aircraft. The following parameters have been taken into account during the calculations:

Determination of the geometric parameters of the wing

The area of the wing is determined by the formula (1.3):

$$S = \frac{m_0 \cdot g}{10 \cdot p_0} \tag{1.3}$$

$$S = 558m^2$$

Wingspan is determined by the formula (1.4):

$$l = \sqrt{\lambda \cdot S} \tag{1.4}$$

$$l = 68.86m$$

Root b_0 and tip b_k chords of the wing determined based on the values S and $\eta = 2.85$ - wing taper ratio in formula (1.5) and (1.6):

$$b_0 = \frac{S}{l} \cdot \frac{2 \cdot \eta}{\eta + 1} \tag{1.5}$$

$$b_k = \frac{b_0}{\eta} \tag{1.6}$$

Wing span at the root (b_0) = 12m, wing span at the tip (b_k) = 4.2m

The mean aerodynamic chord (MAC) is calculated in formula (1.7):

$$b_A = \frac{2}{3} \cdot b_0 \cdot \frac{\eta^2 + \eta + 1}{(\eta + 1) \cdot \eta} \tag{1.7}$$

Wing span at the aerodynamic center (b_A) = 8.7m

Determine the coordinate of the MAC by the wingspan in formula (1.8):

$$Z_A = \frac{l}{6} \cdot \frac{\eta + 2}{\eta + 1} \tag{1.8}$$

Height of the aerodynamic center (Z_A) = 14.5m

The coordinate of the beginning of the MAC along the axis OX is determined in formula (1.9):

$$X_A = \frac{b}{6} \cdot \frac{\eta + 2}{\eta + 1} \cdot tg\chi_{l.e} = Z_A \cdot tg\chi_{l.e} \tag{1.9}$$

Distance from the nose to the aerodynamic center (X_A) = 12.7m

Distance from the nose to the center of gravity can be calculated by formula (1.10):

$$X_{CG} = 0.29 \cdot b_A \tag{1.10}$$

Distance from the nose to the center of gravity (X_{CG}) = 2.5m

Determination of geometric parameters of the fuselage

Fuselage length can be calculated by formula (1.11):

$$L_f = \lambda_f \cdot D_f \tag{1.11}$$

Fuselage length $L_f = 69m$

Determination of the geometric parameters of the horizontal stabilizer (HS)

Horizontal stabilizer area can be calculated by formula (1.12):

$$S_{HS} = \bar{S}_{HS} \cdot S \tag{1.12}$$

Horizontal stabilizer area (S_{HS}) $= 139.5\ m^2$

Horizontal stabilizer length can be calculated by formula (1.13):

$$L_{HS} = \sqrt{S_{HS} \cdot \lambda_{HS}} \tag{1.13}$$

Horizontal stabilizer length (L_{HS}) = 23.6m

Horizontal stabilizer span at the root can be calculated by formula (1.14):

$$b_{0HS} = \frac{S_{HS}}{L_{HS}} \cdot \frac{\eta_{HS} \cdot 2}{\eta_{HS} + 1} \tag{1.14}$$

Horizontal stabilizer span at the root (b_{0HS}) = 7.9m

Horizontal stabilizer span at the tip can be calculated by formula (1.15):

$$b_{KHS} = \frac{b_{0HS}}{\eta_{HS}} \tag{1.15}$$

Horizontal stabilizer span at the tip (b_{KHS}) = 3.9m

The mean aerodynamic chord (MAC) of horizontal stabilizer can be calculated by formula (1.16):

$$b_{AHS} = \frac{2}{3} \cdot b_{0HS} \cdot \frac{{\eta_{HS}}^2 + \eta_{HS} + 1}{(\eta_{HS} + 1) \cdot \eta_{HS}} \tag{1.16}$$

Horizontal stabilizer span at the aerodynamic center (b_{AHS}) = 6.1m

MAC coordinate along the HS span can be calculated by formula (1.17):

$$Z_{AHS} = \frac{L_{HS}}{6} \cdot \frac{\eta_{HS} + 2}{\eta_{HS} + 1} \quad (1.17)$$

Height of the aerodynamic center of the horizontal stabilizer (Z_{AHS}) = 5.3m

MAC coordinate along the OX axis can be calculated by formula (1.18):

$$X_{HAHS} = Z_{AHS} \cdot \tan \chi_{HS} \quad (1.18)$$

Distance from the nose to the aerodynamic center of the horizontal stabilizer (X_{HAHS}) = 4.4m

Determination of the geometric parameters of the vertical stabilizer (VS):

Vertical stabilizer area can be calculated by formula (1.19):

$$S_{VS} = \bar{S}_{VS} \cdot S \quad (1.19)$$

Vertical stabilizer area (S_{VS}) = 83.7m^2

Vertical stabilizer length can be calculated by formula (1.20):

$$L_{VS} = \sqrt{S_{VS} \cdot \lambda_{VS}} \quad (1.20)$$

Vertical stabilizer length (L_{VS}) = 15.3m

Vertical stabilizer span at the root can be calculated by formula (1.21):

$$b_{0VS} = \frac{S_{VS}}{L_{VS}} \cdot \frac{\eta_{VS} \cdot 2}{\eta_{VS} + 1} \quad (1.21)$$

Vertical stabilizer span at the root (b_{0VS}) = 7.9m

Vertical stabilizer span at the tip can be calculated by formula (1.22):

$$b_{KVS} = \frac{b_{0VS}}{\eta_{VS}} \quad (1.22)$$

Vertical stabilizer span at the tip (b_{KVS}) = 3m

The mean aerodynamic chord (MAC) of vertical stabilizer can be calculated by formula (1.23):

$$b_{AVS} = \frac{2}{3} \cdot b_{0VS} \cdot \frac{{\eta_{VS}}^2 + \eta_{VS} + 1}{(\eta_{VS} + 1) \cdot \eta_{VS}} \quad (1.23)$$

Vertical stabilizer span at the aerodynamic center (b_{AVS}) = 5.8m

MAC coordinate along the VS span can be calculated by formula (1.24):

$$Y_{AVS} = \frac{L_{VS}}{6} \cdot \frac{\eta_{VS} + 2}{\eta_{VS} + 1} \quad (1.24)$$

Lateral position of the aerodynamic center of the vertical stabilizer (Y_{AVS}) = 6.5m

MAC coordinate along the OX axis can be calculated by formula (1.25):

$$X_{HAVS} = Z_{AVS} \cdot \tan \chi_{VS} \quad (1.25)$$

Distance from the nose to the aerodynamic center of the vertical stabilizer (X_{HAVS}) = 13.8m.

To enable a comprehensive data comparison, the data pertaining to the designed aircraft and the prototype have been presented in tab. 1.3.

Table 1.3 Statistics of prototype aircrafts and the designed aircraft

n_5	n_4	n_3	n_2	n_1	1	No.	
My plane	Airbus 380-800	Boeing 747-8	C-5M Super Galaxy	An-124	2	Name of aircraft, producer country, year of production	
850	850	933	950	850	3	V_{cruise}, km/h	*FIGHT DATA*
865	865	948	975	865	4	V_{max}, km/h	
10	10	10	10	10	5	H_{cruise}, km	
11	11	11	11	11	6	$H_{v\,max}$, km	
11.3	13	12	11	11.6	7	H_{clg}, km	
3000	3100	3100	1646	2500	8	L_{to}, km	
1000	1890	1600	1097	900	9	L_{land}, km	

358571	568163	366221	361068	392000	10	m_0 (m_{to}), kg	MASS DATA
370000	575000	447700	381018	405000	11	$m_{to\ max}$, kg	
100000	160000	120000	127460	120000	12	m_{cargo}, kg	
4	555	450	410	7	13	n_{pass}	
260000	386007	270000	286000	330000	14	m_{land}, kg	
133071	277145	220100	172365	178400	15	m_{empty} kg	
110000	150000	120000	129274	120000	16	m_c, kg	
125500	253983	173000	150819	212350	17	m_f, kg	
4 • 230	4 • 348	4 • 260.2	4 • 230	4 • 229.85	18	$P_0(N_0)$, daN	POWER PLANT DATA
3300	6246	5623	4473	5615	19	m_{eng}, kg	
4 • GE CF6-80C2(Turbojet)	4 • Trent 970-84/970B-84	4 • GE nx-2B67	4 • GE CF6-80C2	4 • D18-T	20	Number and type of engines	
5.31	8.5	6.5	5.31	5.6	21	y, Bypass ratio	
558	845	550	580	628	22	S, m²	GEOMETRICAL DATA
68.86	79.75	68.4	67.91	69.1	23	L, m	
38	45	49	29	35	24	X_{te}^{o}	
8.5	7.5	8.5	8	8.6	25	λ	

2.85	4.43	2.78	2.86	2.96	26	η	
69	73	76.25	75.63	73.3	27	L_f, m	
7.97	7.14	6.88	7.2	10.02	28	d_f, m	
8.64	10.18	11.1	10.5	7.32	29	λ_f	
630	672.4	665.9	622.5	624.2	30	p_o=m_og /10s, daN/m²	
0.26	0.24	0.29	0.26	0.23	31	t_o=10p_o /m_og	DERIVATIVE VALUES
0.25	0.24	0.27	0.23	0.28	32	$\overline{S_{HT}}$	
0.15	0.14	0.17	0.13	0.19	33	$\overline{S_{VT}}$	

Based on the above parameters, the Zero approximation general view of the projected heavy transport aircraft has been obtained, shown in Fig. 1.5.

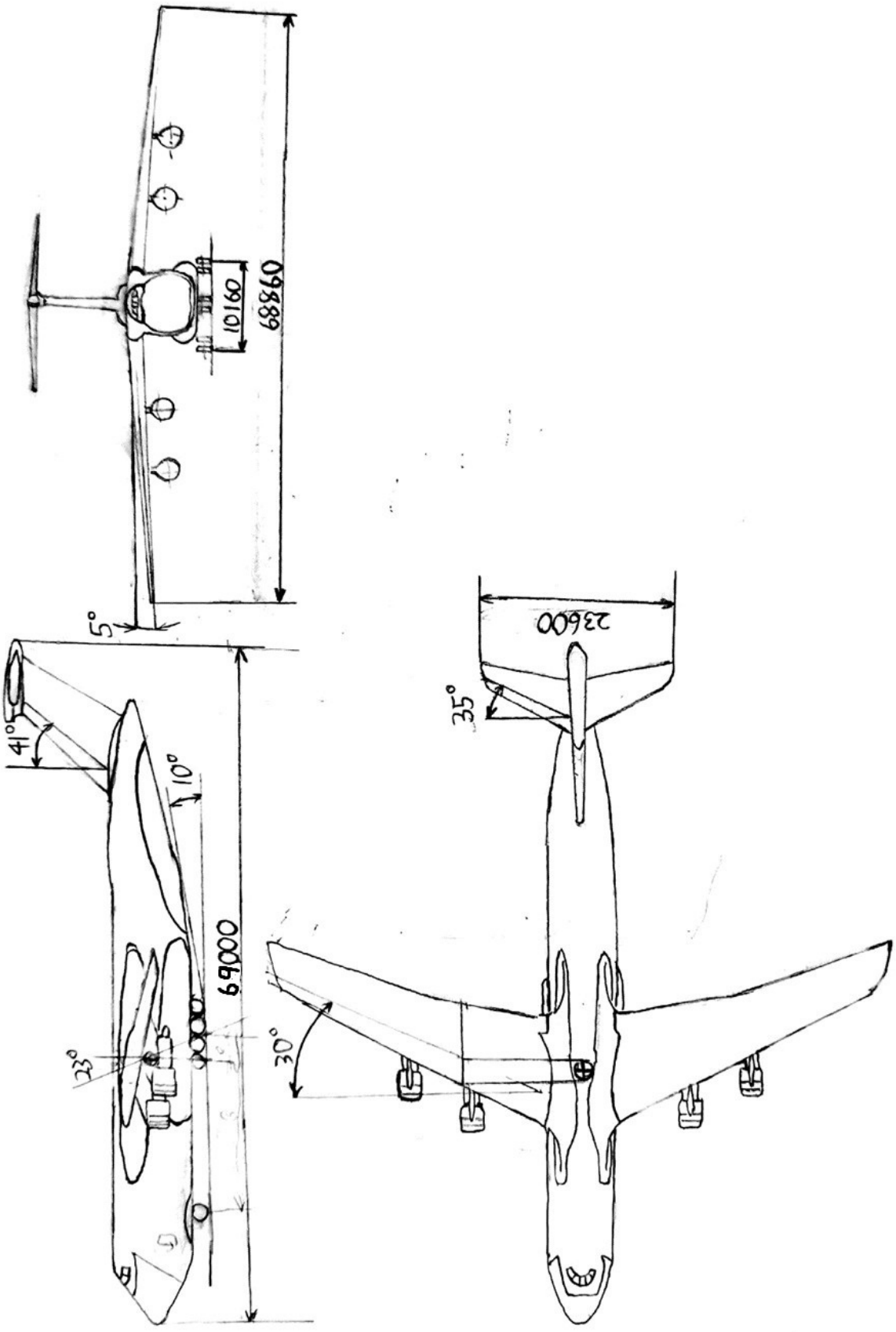

Figure 1.5 - Scheme of the designed aircraft

The wing span at the root and tip, as well as the height and distance from the nose to the aerodynamic center, have been taken into account in order to ensure stability and maneuverability of the aircraft. The horizontal stabilizer has been designed to provide longitudinal stability, with its area and length chosen to meet the necessary requirements. The vertical stabilizer has been designed to provide directional stability, with its area, length, and lateral position chosen to meet the necessary requirements.

Overall, the geometrical calculations have been crucial in obtaining the optimal design of the aircraft, ensuring its stability and maneuverability.

1.1.4.6 Selection of shapes of wing-cross section

Based on the aerodynamic requirements and geometric characteristics of the aircraft, the selection of the wing cross-section is critical for ensuring optimal aerodynamic performance.

Investigation of the influence of wing aspect ratio on the aerodynamic and mass characteristics of the aircraft

The main difference between this calculation and the calculation is based on dependency, from the take-off mass of the aircraft, wing parameters and other parts of the aircraft from the flight mode. Because of rather difficult depends on the takeoff mass, then it has to be calculated apply either a graphical method of solving the equilibrium mass balance of the aircraft, or sequentially approach the solution and find it using a computer.

The initial data for the calculation is shown in tab. 1.4:

Table 1.4 – Initial Data for the Calculation

No.	Relative parameter	Name	Marking	Size
Wing high-lift device				
1	flap relative span	LZ	$\bar{l}_{fl}$	0.65
2	flap relative chord	BZ	$\overline{b}_{fl}$	0.35
3	flap relative chord (table)		$\overline{b}_{fl,tab}$	0.3
4	flap quality factor	KZ	k_{fl}	0.16
5	flap takeoff deflection angle	DZB	$\delta_{fl.TO}, deg$	30
6	flap takeoff deflection angle (table)		$\delta_{fl.TO,Tabl}, deg$	45
Initial data				

1	airfoil relative thickness	C	$\overline{C}, \%$	12
2	takeoff angle of attack	AOT	α_{TO}, deg	12
3	load on middle	KMI	$K_{mid.}, daN/m^2$	5000
4	relative height of the wing	HOT	$\bar{h}$	0.88

	(B_{mac})			
5	wing aspect ratio	LKR	λ_W	8.5
6	takeoff Mach number	MOT	M_{TO}	0.2
7	wing interference coefficient	KIN	$k_{\text{int},W}$	0.8
8	relative wingspan	LOT	$\bar{l}$	9
9	wing taper ratio	TK	η	2.85
10	fuselage diameter	DF	d_{fus}, m	7.97
11	wing sweep on the leading edge	XP	χ_{le}, deg	32
12	fuselage fineness ratio	LF	λ_{fus}	8.64
13	payload ratio	KOTD	k_{pl}	0.4

engine				
1	engine type	TIP		Turbojet
2	number of engines	ND	n_{eng}, itm	4
3	air intakes thrust decrease	ZW	ξ_{int}	0.95
4	Mach number at cruising speed	MX	M_{cr}	0.76
5	engines mode in cruise flight	ZD	$\xi_{tr.cr}$	0.6
6	engines mode at takeoff	ZDO	$\xi_{tr.TO}$	0.98
7	initial cruising altitude	HN	H_{init}, km	10.5
8	final cruising altitude	HK	H_{fin}, km	11
9	engines bypass ratio	DM	y	8

After considering various factors such as lift-to-drag ratio, structural strength, and manufacturing feasibility, the airfoil with a maximum thickness of 12% and a camber of 16% was chosen for the wing cross-section of the aircraft. The selected airfoil shape was found to provide the desired lift and drag characteristics, while also

maintaining structural integrity and ease of manufacturing. Additionally, the airfoil shape was chosen based on its proven performance in similar aircraft designs, providing a reliable foundation for further aerodynamic analysis and optimization.

Effect of aspect ratio of the wing on lift coefficient and lift quality

The lift coefficient at take-off is determined by the formula (1.26):

$$C_{y_{t.off}} = C_{y_w}^{t.off}\left(1 + \Delta\overline{C}_y \frac{\delta_{flap.t.off}}{\delta_{flap.tab}} \cdot \frac{\overline{b}_{flap}}{\overline{b}_{flap.tab}} \cdot \overline{S}_{mech}^{t.off} \cdot cos^2\chi_{0,75}\right) + \Delta C_{y_{land}} + \Delta C_{y_{obd}}, \quad (1.26)$$

where $C_{y_w}^{t.off}$ – the lift coefficient of the wing during take-off without use of mechanization;

$\Delta\overline{C}_y$ – increase in lift factor due to use mechanization of the wing;

$\delta_{flap.t.off}$ – angle of deviation of flap at take-off;

$\delta_{flap.tab}$ – flap deflection angle;

$\overline{b}_{flap.tab}$ – relative chord of flap;

$\overline{b}_{flap}$ – relative chord of flap;

$\overline{S}_{mech}^{t.off}$ – the relative area of the console serviced by mechanization;

$\chi_{0,75}$ – sweep of 0.75 chords in the area of mechanization;

$\Delta C_{y_{land}}$ – an increase in the lift coefficient due to the impact of the earth.

The increase in lift due to the impact of the earth can be estimated by the formula (1.27):

$$\Delta C_{y_{land}} = 0.313 - 0.237\overline{h} + 0.0572\left(\overline{h}\right)^2 \quad (1.27)$$

The derivative of the lift coefficient for the angle of attack for the aircraft in the flight configuration is determined by the formula (1.28):

$$C_y^{\alpha} = \frac{0.11 - 0.029\sqrt[4]{\overline{c}}}{\frac{0.0775}{\cos\chi_{0.25}} + \frac{2}{\overline{\lambda}}} \quad (1.28)$$

where $\overline{c}$ – relative thickness of the profile

$\chi_{0.25}$ – sweep angle of 25% chord;

λ – aspect ratio of the wing.

To obtain the lift coefficient and lift to drag ratio, the initial data are shown in Fig. 1.6. And the results are shown in Fig. 1.7 and 1.8.

Initial data:

Airplane type = Cargo m_{load} = 100000(kg);

Engine type = Turbo-fan/jet;

Wing high-lift devices type = No hi-lift devices

$\overline{C}$ = 12(%); λ_w = 8.5; η = 2.85; χ_{le} = 32(deg.); α_{TO} = 12(deg.);
M_{TO} = 0.2; $d_{fus.}$ = 7.97(m); $\lambda_{fus.}$ = 8.64; $k_{mid.}$ = 5000(daN/m^2);
$k_{int.w}$ = 0.8; $k_{stab.}$ = 1.35; $k_{pl.}$ = 0.4; $\overline{h}$ = 0.88; $\overline{l}$ = 9;
$\overline{l}_{slots.}$ = 0.8;

Figure 1.6 - Initial data

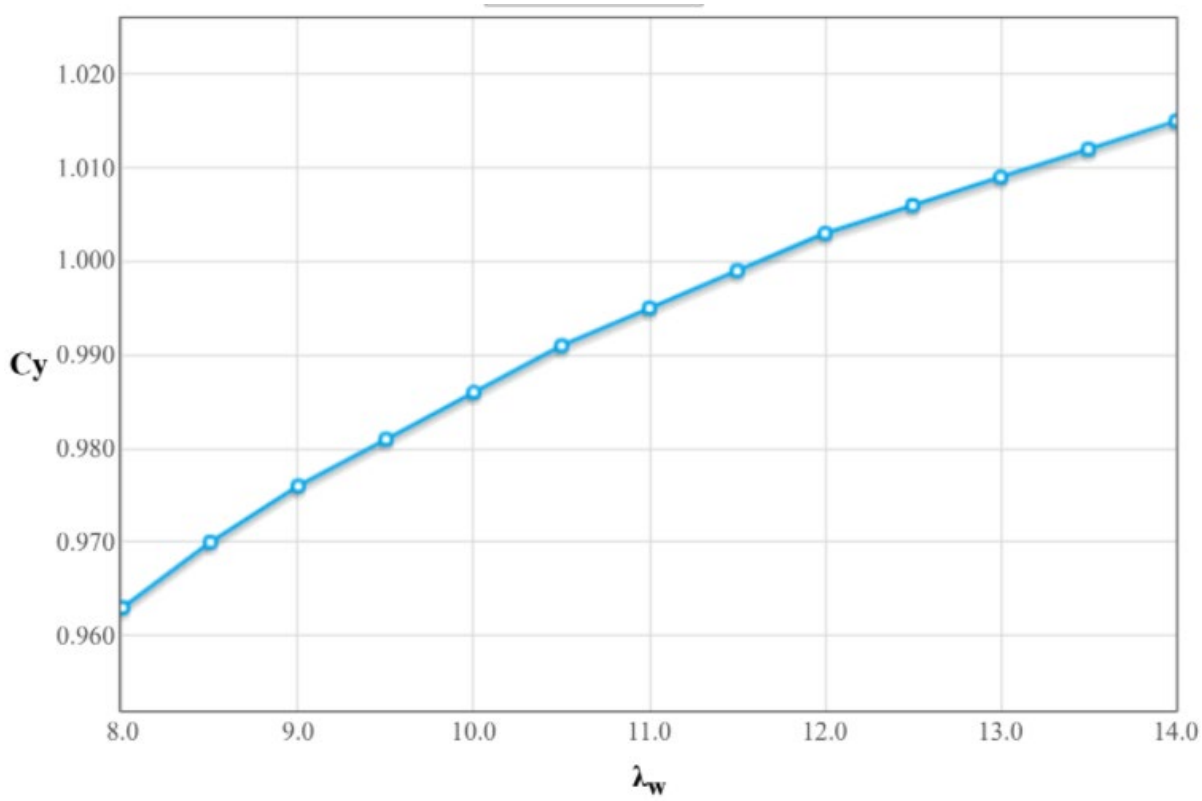

Figure 1.7 - Dependence of lift coefficient on aspect ratio of the wing

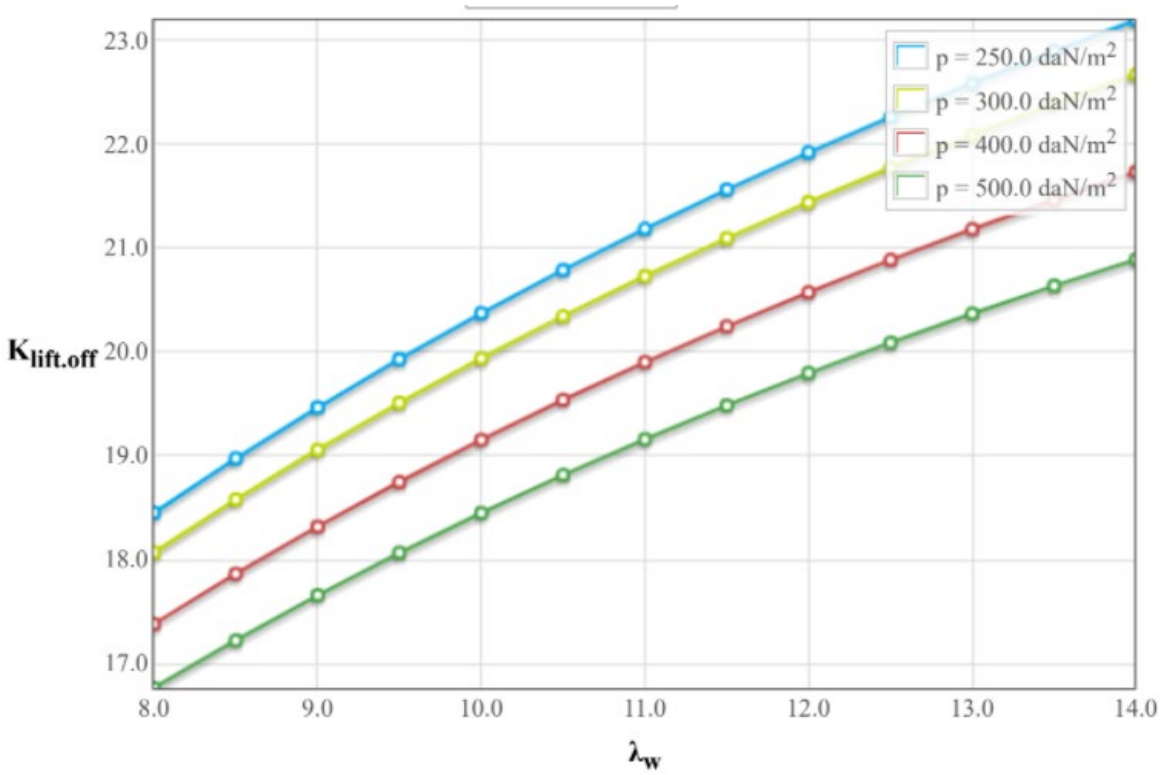

Figure 1.8 - Relationship between lift to drag ratio and aspect ratio

When the aspect ratio of the wing, represented by λ_w, is equal to 8.5, the corresponding lift coefficient, denoted by C_y, is approximately 0.97 and the induced drag factor, denoted by K, is approximately 17.

The wing cross-sections are characterized by their thickness-to-chord ratio (t/c) and their camber.

Based on the calculated values of maximum thickness of 12% and a camber of 16%, the airfoil that best coincides with the given data is found to be the NACA 2412 airfoil. Therefore, the NACA 2412 airfoil is selected for the wing cross-sections of the aircraft.

Additionally, the value of C_y is found to be approximately 0.97, and the value of K is approximately 17. These values further support the selection of the NACA 2412 airfoil, as it has been found to provide good lift and drag characteristics for aircraft in similar flight regimes.

In conclusion, the NACA 2412 airfoil is chosen as the cross-section for the wings of the aircraft based on its ability to meet the required aerodynamic performance and stability criteria, as well as its suitability for the flight regime of the aircraft. In the chapter 3, we will use computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations to optimize wing geometry to handle heavy ice.

1.1.4.7 Investigation of the effect of aspect ratio of the wing on the magnitude of thrust-weight ratio

Aircraft geometrical parameters greatly affect the thrust-to-weight ratio (TWR) and wing loading, two critical performance indicators. During flight, TWR changes constantly due to throttle setting, airspeed, altitude, and air temperature. Weight also varies due to fuel consumption and payload adjustments. The typical TWR for an aircraft is the maximum static thrust at sea-level divided by the maximum take-off weight.

To study the effect of wing aspect ratio on arms draft, use the following dependencies in formula (1.29), (1.30), (1.31):

$$t_{0cruise} = \frac{0.933 p_H M_{cruise}^2}{\xi_{cruise}} \left(\frac{F_1}{p} + F_2 \right); \tag{1.29}$$

$$t_{0t.off} = \frac{1}{\xi_{t.off}} \left(\frac{0.832p}{C_{yt.off} L_{rol}} + \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{K_{t.off}} + 2f \right) \right); \tag{1.30}$$

$$t_0 = \frac{n_{eng}}{\xi_{t.off}(n_{eng} - 1)} \left(\frac{1}{K_{t.off}} + tg(\theta_{flap}) \right), \tag{1.31}$$

where p_H – pressure at cruise altitude;

F_1, F_2 – coefficient changes in traction, windshield resistance and plumage, fuselage windshield and nacelle.

We set initial data as Fig. 1.9, according to the results of the calculation, the graphs of the dependences of the starting thrust-to-weight ratio, determined by the take-off run, take off safety and cruising flight speed at aspect ratio of the wing of 8, 8.5 and 9 are constructed (Fig. 1.10).

Initial data:

Airplane type = Cargo m_{load} = 100000(kg);

Engine type = Turbo-fan/jet;
$\xi_{int.}$ = 0.95; $\xi_{str.cr.}$ = 0.6; $\xi_{str.TO.}$ = 0.98; y = 8; $M_{cr.}$ = 0.76;
$H_{init.}$ = 10.5(km); $H_{fin.}$ = 11(km); $n_{eng.}$ = 4(itm.);

Wing high-lift devices type = No hi-lift devices

$\overline{C}$ = 12(%); λ_w = 8.5; η = 2.85; χ_{le} = 32(deg.); α_{TO} = 12(deg.);
M_{TO} = 0.2; $d_{fus.}$ = 7.97(m); $\lambda_{fus.}$ = 8.64; $k_{mid.}$ = 5000(daN/m^2);
$k_{int.w}$ = 0.8; $k_{stab.}$ = 1.35; $k_{pl.}$ = 0.4; $\overline{h}$ = 0.88; $\overline{l}$ = 9;
$\overline{l}_{slots.}$ = 0.8; $\lambda_{n.}$ = 1.25; L_{TO} = 3000(m); $f_{tr.}$ = 0.02;
tan(Θ) = 0.024;

Figure 1.9 - Initial data

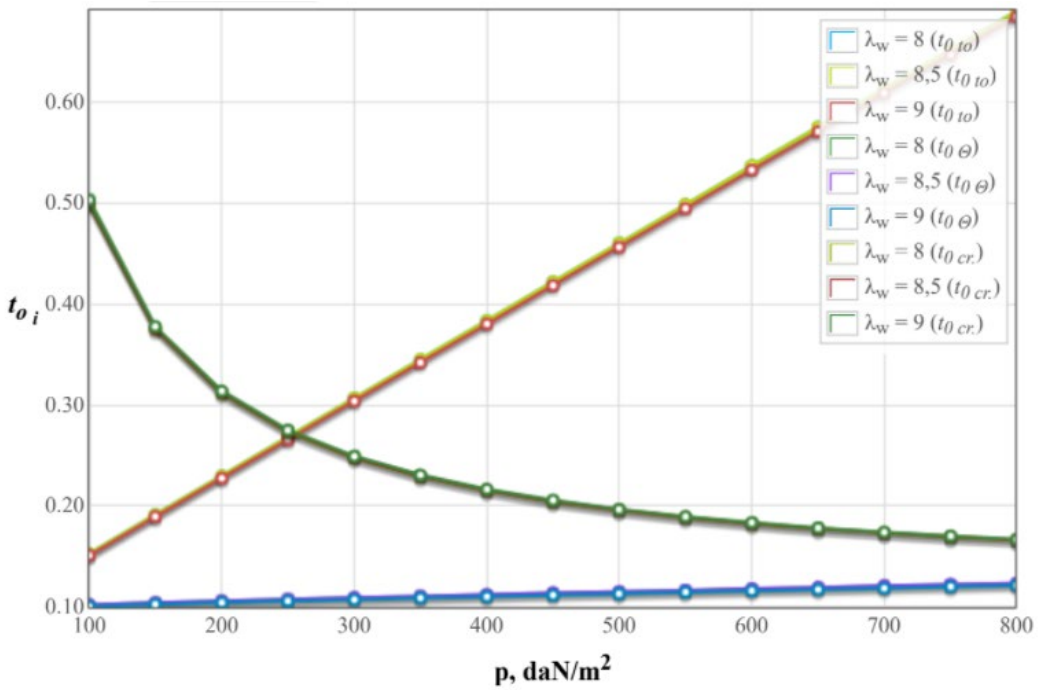

Figure 1.10 - Relationship between takeoff TWR, thrust-to-power ratio at climb, thrust-to-power ratio in cruise and wing specific load

As the specific load on the wing increases, the starting thrust-to-weight ratio is provided, which provides the lifting capacity, the runway length, the given angle of climb, and the energy due to the cruise speed of flight – decreases. As the wing lengthens, the starting energy, determined by the cruise speed, increases in all other modes.

Our analysis shows that at a wing specific load of $630 daN/m^2$, the takeoff TWR ($t_{0\,to}$) is approximately 0.54, the thrust-to-power ratio at climb ($t_{0\,\Theta}$) is nearly 0.13, and the thrust-to-power ratio in cruise ($t_{0\,cr.}$) is approximately 0.18.

Determination of the influence of wing aspect ratio on the value of the relative mass of the power plant

The relative mass of the power plant determined by the formula (1.32):

$$\overline{m}_{PP} = R\gamma_{eng}t_{max}, \quad (1.32)$$

where R – coefficient taking into account the increase in the mass of the power plant compared to the mass of the engine;

γ_{eng} – specific mass of the engine;

t_{max} – the highest starting value thrust-to-weight ratio.

Furthermore, our analysis of aircraft geometrical parameters reveals their influence on the relative mass of the power plant. The initial data and result are shown in Fig. 1.11 and Fig. 1.12.

Initial data:

Airplane type = Cargo m_{load} = 100000(kg);

Engine type = Turbo-fan/jet;
$\xi_{int.}$ = 0.95; $\xi_{tr.cr.}$ = 0.6; $\xi_{tr.TO.}$ = 0.98; y = 8; $M_{cr.}$ = 0.76;
$H_{init.}$ = 10.5(km); $H_{fin.}$ = 11(km); k_1 = 0.25; $n_{rev.eng}$ = 4(itm.);
$n_{eng.}$ = 4(itm.); $\gamma_{en.}$ = 0.53(daN/kWt);

Wing high-lift devices type = No hi-lift devices

$\overline{C}$ = 12(%); λ_w = 8.5; η = 2.85; χ_{le} = 32(deg.); α_{TO} = 12(deg.);
M_{TO} = 0.2; $d_{fus.}$ = 7.97(m); $\lambda_{fus.}$ = 8.64; $k_{mid.}$ = 5000(daN/m^2);
$k_{int.w}$ = 0.8; $k_{stab.}$ = 1.35; $k_{pl.}$ = 0.4; $\overline{h}$ = 0.88; $\overline{l}$ = 9;
$\overline{l}_{slots.}$ = 0.8; $\lambda_{n.}$ = 1.25; L_{TO} = 3000(m); $f_{tr.}$ = 0.02;
tan(Θ) = 0.024;

Figure 1.11 - Initial data

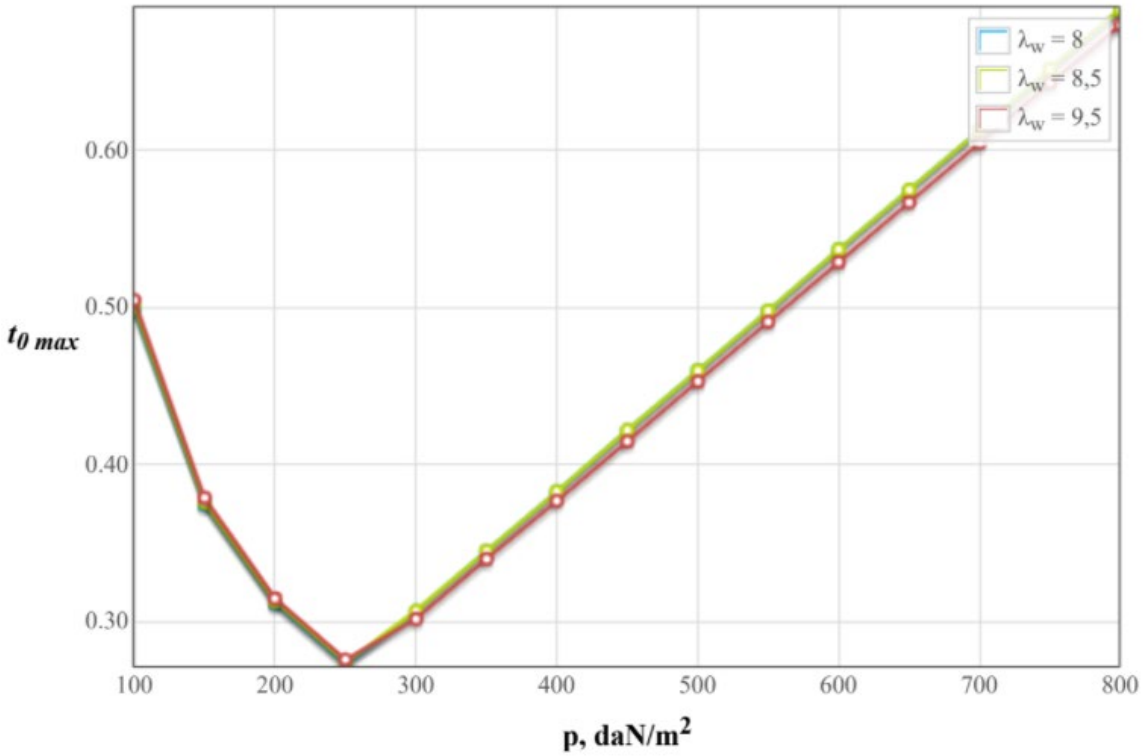

Figure 1.12 - Relationship between maximum thrust-to-weight ratio (TWR) and wing specific load

The minimum $t_{0\,max}$ is nearly 0.27, which falls within the acceptable limit of less than 0.3.

In general, a value of minimum $t_{0\,max}$ less than 0.3 is considered acceptable as it indicates an efficient design that can achieve better performance, such as higher speed or longer range.

Effect of wing aspect ratio on the value of the relative mass of fuel

The analysis of aircraft geometrical parameters reveals their influence on relative mass of fuel. The initial data and result are shown in Fig. 1.13 and Fig. 1.14.

Initial data:

Airplane type = Cargo m_{load} = 100000(kg);

Engine type = Turbo-fan/jet;
χ_{le} = 32(deg.); y = 8; $M_{cr.}$ = 0.76; $H_{init.}$ = 10.5(km);
$H_{fin.}$ = 11(km);

$\overline{C}$ = 12(%); λ_w = 8.5; η = 2.85; $d_{fus.}$ = 7.97(m); $\lambda_{fus.}$ = 8.64;
$k_{mid.}$ = 5000(daN/m^2); $k_{int.w}$ = 0.8; $k_{stab.}$ = 1.35; $k_{pl.}$ = 0.4;
$\bar{l}_{slots.}$ = 0.8; $\lambda_{n.}$ = 1.25; $L_{c.}$ = 3300(km);

Figure 1.13 Initial data

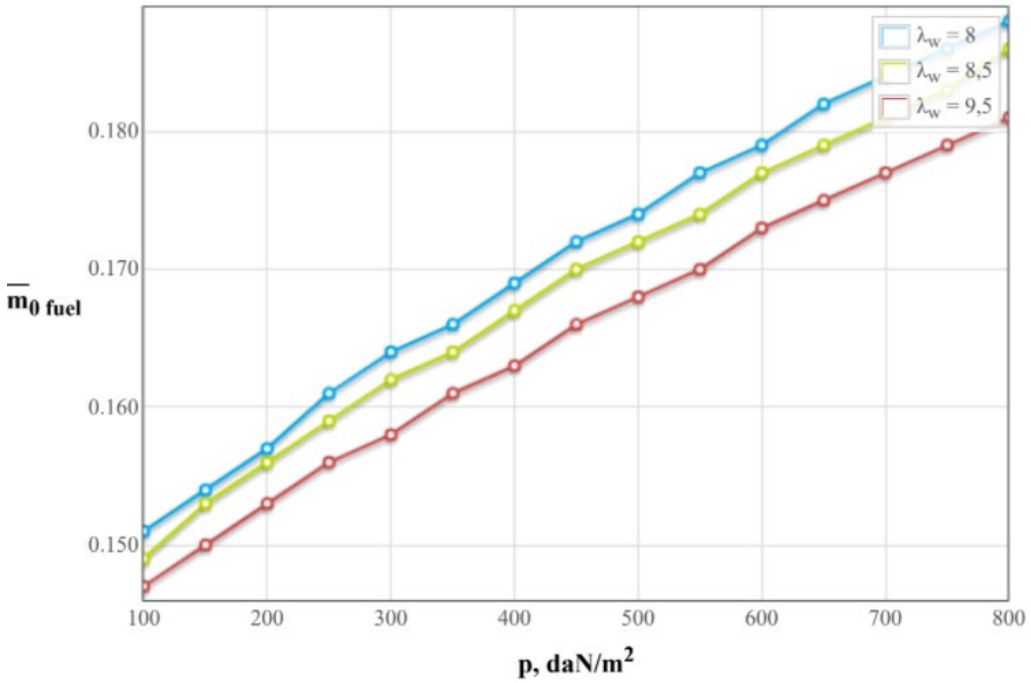

Figure 1.14 - Dependence of the relative fuel mass on the specific load and relative wing aspect ratio

Relative mass of the fuel increases with the increase in the specific load on the wing and there is a linear dependence between specific wing loading and relative fuel mass. As the lengthening increases, the relative mass of the fuel decreases.

When the specific wing load is at $630daN/m^2$, the wing aspect ratio λ_w equals 8.5 and the relative fuel mass $\bar{m}_{0\,fuel}$ is approximately 0.18, a value deemed acceptable for optimal aircraft performance.

Effect of wing aspect ratio on the relative mass of structures

The initial data is shown in Fig.1.15. The graph of the Effect of wing aspect ratio on the relative mass of the wing is shown in Fig. 1.16.

Initial data:

Airplane type = Cargo m_{load} = 100000(kg);

Engine type = Turbo-fan/jet;
y = 8; $M_{cr.}$ = 0.76; $H_{init.}$ = 10.5(km); $H_{fin.}$ = 11(km);
$k_{f.c.}$ = 0.023;

$\bar{C}$ = 12(%); λ_w = 8.5; η = 2.85; χ_{le} = 32(deg.); $d_{fus.}$ = 7.97(m);
$\lambda_{fus.}$ = 8.64; $k_{int.w}$ = 0.8; $k_{mid.}$ = 5000(daN/m^2); $k_{stab.}$ = 1.35;
$k_{pl.}$ = 0.4; $\bar{l}_{slots.}$ = 0.8; $\lambda_{n.}$ = 1.25; $L_{c.}$ = 3300(km); $\bar{C}_0$ = 16(%);
$k_{fl.}$ = 0.16; $k_{lg.m}$ = 0.01; $k_{lg.r.}$ = 0.004; $k_{m.lg}$ = 1; $k^{cx}_{st.}$ = N;
PKD_f = DPK;

Figure 1.15 - Initial data

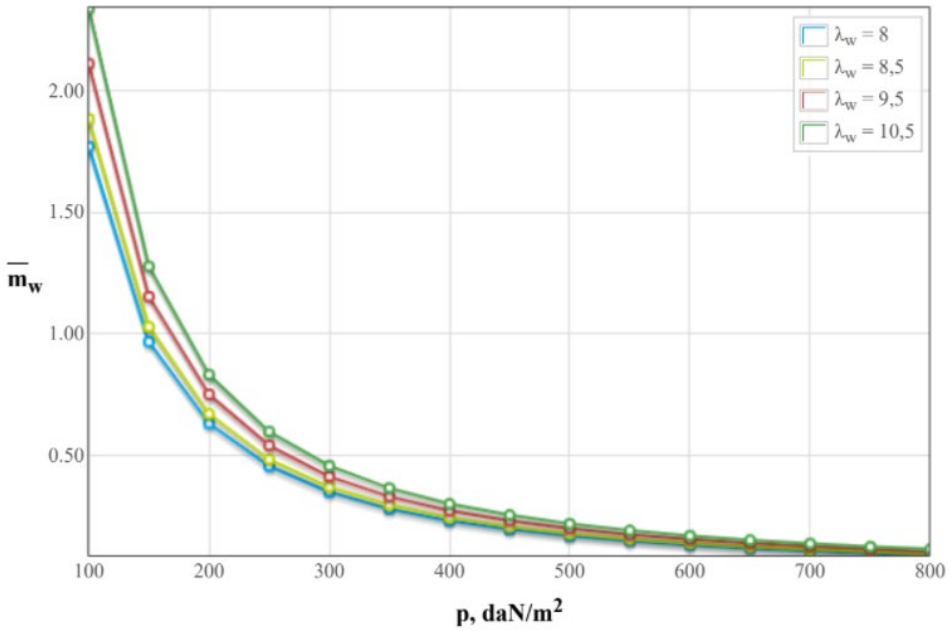

Figure 1.16 - Dependence of the relative wing mass on the specific load on the wing and the relative wing aspect ratio

With an increase in the specific loading on the wing, the relative wing mass decreases, and the value of the specific loading exceeds 300 daN/m^2, the rate of decrease of the wing relative mass gradually tends to be flat. With an increase in aspect ratio, the relative mass of the wing increases.

According to the results of the calculation, the graphs of the dependences of the relative mass of the fuselage on its diameter and aspect ratio (Fig. 1.17) are constructed.

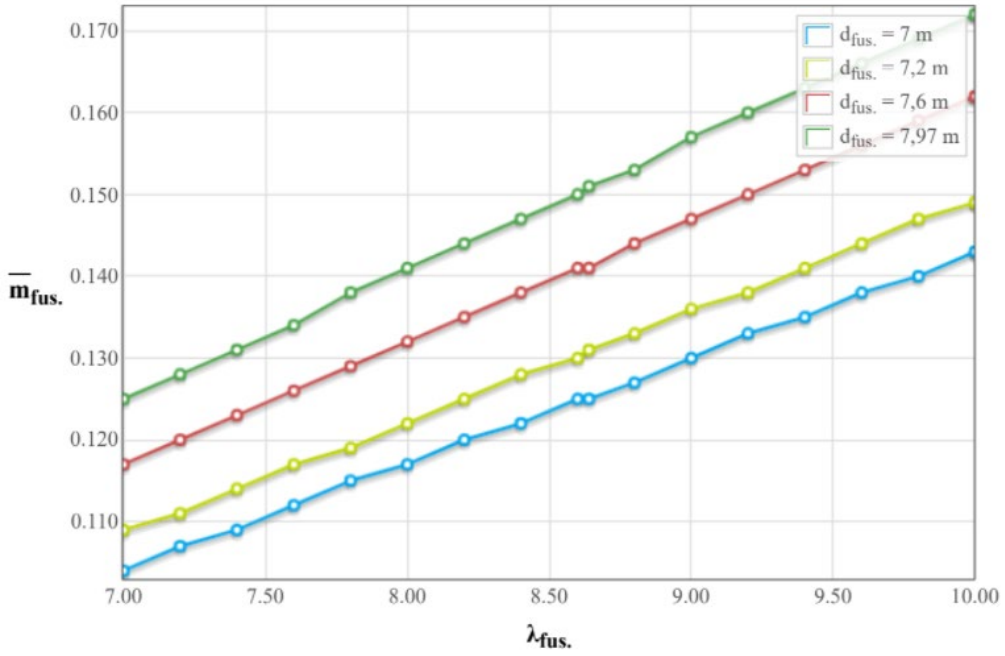

Figure 1.17 - Dependence of the relative mass of the fuselage on its diameter and aspect ratio

With an increase in the fuselage aspect ratio, the relative mass of fuselage decreases, and there is a linear relationship between the fuselage aspect ratio and the relative mass of fuselage. As the fuselage diameter increases, the relative mass of the fuselage increases.

When p is equal to 630, λ_w is equal to 8.5, m_w is nearly 0.26, $m_{st.}$ is 0.013, $m_{stuct.}$ is 0.33; When λ_{fus} is 8.6, d_f is 7.97, $m_{fus.}$ is 0.148. These are acceptable.

Calculation of the relative mass of the landing gear

The relative mass of the landing gear is determined by Fadeev's formula (1.33):

$$\overline{m}_{LG} = k_{LG} \cdot k_{FD} \cdot \frac{m_{pl}/k_{otd} + 204000}{m_{pl}/k_{otd} + 79000}, \quad (1.33)$$

where $k_{FD} = 0.02728$ – coefficient taking into account the influence of fuselage diameter and engine type on the mass of the landing gear;

$k_{LG} = 1$ – coefficient taking into account the number of main landing gear posts;

$k_{otd} = 0.18$ – the return ratio coefficient.

$$\overline{m}_{LG} = 0.065.$$

Determination of crew mass, equipment and commercial load

The mass of the crew is determined by its number, depending on the type of aircraft. The mass of one crew member is 80 kg.

So, in formula (1.34):

$$m_{crew} = 80 \cdot n_{crew}, \quad (1.34)$$

where n_{crew} – the number of crew members, including the flight attendants.

Calculation of mass of equipment, control system and operational items is shown in Fig. 1.18.

Initial data:

Airplane type = Cargo m_{load} = 100000(kg);

$L_{c.}$ = 3300(km); $n_{cr.}$ = 4(itm.); $k_{pl.}$ = 0.4;

Calculation results:

$m_{cr.}$ = 320(kg); $m_{eq.}$ = 35990(kg); Total mass of airplane load - $m_{c.e.p}$ = 136310(kg)

Figure 1.18 - Calculation of mass of equipment, control system and operational items

Further, the value is used in the calculations of the take-off mass of the aircraft as one of the initial.

Take-off mass of the aircraft in the first approximation

The take-off mass of the aircraft in the first approximation is determined by the formula (1.35) obtained from the equation of relative masses:

$$m_0^1 = \frac{m_{crew} + m_{equip} + m_{pl}}{1 - (\overline{m}_{st} + \overline{m}_{pp} + \overline{m}_{fuel})}, \quad (1.35)$$

$\overline{m}_{st}, \overline{m}_{pp}, \overline{m}_{fuel}$ – relative masses of the structure, power plant and fuel.

We set initial data as Fig. 1.19. Based on the calculation results, the graphs of the mass dependencies of the aircraft are built (Fig. 1.20).

Initial data:

Airplane type = Cargo m_{load} = 100000(kg);

Engine type = Turbo-fan/jet;
y = 8; $\xi_{int.}$ = 0.95; $\xi_{tr.cr.}$ = 0.6; $\xi_{tr.TO.}$ = 0.98; $M_{cr.}$ = 0.76;
$H_{init.}$ = 10.5(km); $H_{fin.}$ = 11(km); k_1 = 0.25; $n_{rev.eng}$ = 4(itm.);
$k_{f.e.}$ = 0.023;

Wing high-lift devices type = No hi-lift devices

$\overline{C}$ = 12(%); λ_w = 8.5; η = 2.85; χ_{le} = 32(deg.); α_{TO} = 12(deg.);
M_{TO} = 0.2; $d_{fus.}$ = 7.97(m); $\lambda_{fus.}$ = 8.64; $k_{mid.}$ = 5000(daN/m^2);
$k_{int.w}$ = 0.8; $k_{stab.}$ = 1.35; $k_{pl.}$ = 0.4; $\overline{h}$ = 0.88; $\overline{l}$ = 9;
$\overline{l}_{slots.}$ = 0.8; $n_{eng.}$ = 4(itm.); $\lambda_{n.}$ = 1.25; L_{TO} = 3000(m);
$f_{tr.}$ = 0.02; tan(Θ) = 0.024; $\gamma_{en.}$ = 0.53; $L_{c.}$ = 3300(km);
$\overline{C}_0$ = 16(%); $k_{fl.}$ = 0.16; $n_{cr.}$ = 4(itm.); $k_{lg.m}$ = 0.01;
$k_{lg.r.}$ = 0.004; $k_{m.lg}$ = 1; $k^{cx}_{st.}$ = N; PKD_f = DPK;

Figure 1.19 - Initial data

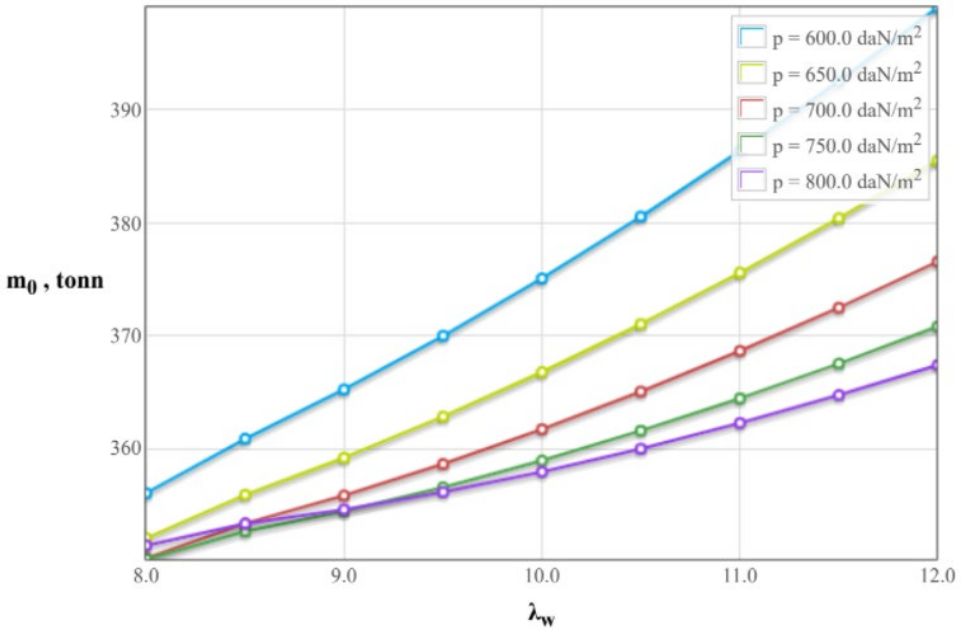

Figure 1.20 - Graphs of the dependence of the take-off mass of the aircraft from wing aspect ratio for the various specific load on the wing

Restrictions on specific load and determine the mass

To accept the minimum mass m_0 and p_{opt} it is necessary to limit the specific load on the wing at landing speed $p_{lim}^{V_{land}}$ and the magnitude of normal overload when flying in a turbulent atmosphere $p_{lim}^{n_y}$.

Limitations can be defined by the formula (1.36):

$$p_{lim}^{V_{land}} = \frac{V_{land}^2 \cdot C_{y.land}}{180(1-0.8 \cdot \bar{m}_{fuel})}, \quad (1.36)$$

Using the ratio $V_{br.off} = (1.1 \dots 1.2) \cdot V_{land}$ and considering the average $\bar{m}_{fuel}$, finally we get the limit load, daN.

$$p_{lim}^{V_{land}} = (0.0078) \cdot V_{land}^2 \cdot C_{y.land}$$

where V_{land} – landing speed is set based on the processing of aircraft statistics of the same type with the specified, km/h;

$$V_{land} = 250\ km/h,$$

$C_{y_{t.off}}$ – take-off lift coefficient obtained above.

$$p_{lim}^{V_{land}} = (0.0078) \cdot 250^2 \cdot 0.97 = 472.875 daN/m^2$$

Specific load limitation on the value of normal load when flying in a turbulent atmosphere $p_{lim}^{n_y}$ is calculated by the formula (1.37):

$$p_{lim}^{n_y} = 3.6 C_y^{\alpha} \cdot V \cdot W \quad (1.37)$$

Where C_y^{α} – the derivative of the lift coefficient on the angle of attack is determined by the formula (1.38).

$$C_y^{\alpha} = \frac{0.11 - 0.029 \cdot \sqrt[4]{\bar{c}}}{\frac{0.775}{cos(\chi_{0.25})} + \frac{2}{\lambda}} \quad (1.38)$$

V– ground speed (which usually corresponds to the speed of flap release);

V=360km/h; W=15m/s – upstream speed.

$$C_y^{\alpha} = \frac{0.11 - 0.029 \cdot \sqrt[4]{12}}{\frac{0.775}{\cos 32} + \frac{2}{8.5}} = 0.049$$

$$p_{lim}^{n_y} = 3.6 \cdot 0.049 \cdot 100 \cdot 15 = 264\ daN/m^2$$

For the designed aircraft, the preferable wing load is 650 daN/m^2 when the wing aspect ratio value is 8.5, since such values of the wing load and wing aspect ratio give the aircraft the smallest takeoff mass of 355000 kg.

1.1.5 The external and internal layout of the designed aircraft

The configured aircraft is of the conventional design, featuring a high wing that is located on the top of the fuselage, a solitary vertical stabilizer, and four GE CF6-80C2 turbojet engines that are affixed to the underside of the wings. Both the cockpit and cargo compartment are pressurized, with front access doors situated on the left and a cargo door at the rear. Emergency exits are provided via all entrance and service doors, as well as air vents located in the cockpit. In total, the aircraft is equipped with four crew seats and cargo capacity of 100000kg.

1.1.6 Conclusion

The take-off mass of the projected aircraft has been determined through zero and first approximation calculations. The result of the first approximation indicates a take-off mass of 355000 kg, power plant mass of 35500 kg, fuselage mass of 52540kg, wing mass of 92300kg, stabilizer mass of 4615kg, structure mass of 117150kg, and a fuel mass of 63900 kg. In addition, essential geometric parameters have been identified, including the $S = 558m^2$, $l = 68.86m$, $\lambda = 8.5$, $\eta = 2.85$, $L_f = 69m$. Following the acquisition of updated data, the projected aircraft's geometric parameters were recalculated, and its centering position was determined. The centering position in lobes of the mean aerodynamic chord is 0.25.

ECONOMIC SECTION

2.1 Competitive advantages of the designed aircraft and assessment of its possible volumes of its implementation in the sales markets

2.1.1 Characteristic of tactical and economic indexes of the designed heavy transport aircraft as a commodity product

The main indicators affecting economic indicators are:

– take-off mass of the aircraft: m_0 = 34000 kg;

– payload m_{cargo} = 100000kg;

– passenger capacity n_{crew} = 4;

board flight-navigation equipment and automatic control of the aircraft provides: automatic and director control (functions "Autopilot" and "Flight Director") in the following flight control modes:

1) automatic speed control (function "Automatic traction") in the modes;

2) category IIIa automatic approach;

3) speed protection functionality to withstand flight speed in the VLS – VMS range, calculated for the current configuration and flight conditions;

– an indication and recording system allows on-board data to be recorded on a standard memory card of the PCMCIA type (removable memory card) and automated wireless transmission of aircraft data on the ground to calculate production and forecast the remaining aircraft resource;

– required field length 3000 m;

– maximum flight Mach number and cruising flight speed $M = 0.76$ and V_{cruise}= 850 km/h;

– mass of aircraft structure m_{st}= 117150 kg

2.1.2 Consumer qualities of the aircraft, affecting the competitive advantages and economic costs

Designing aircraft has a lower required mass of fuel for the flight with a maximum payload on the flight range L = 10000 km its m_{fuel}= 63900 kg, which is less than that of analogues.

The equipment allows take-off and landing at the aerodrome classes A, B, C, D according to the classification in the CIS countries and classes from 3C to 4E according to the international classification. Indication and recording system provides an opportunity to study the operating conditions of already flying aircraft, to conduct improvements to the design and equipment on the modifications of the aircraft for operation that is more efficient and greater profit.

mass of aircraft structure m_{st}= 117150 kg less than that of analogue aircraft, which reduces the metal consumption and the cost of raw materials for the production of the designed aircraft.

Market analysis based on marketing research and determining the volume of possible sales of finished aircraft.

The heavy transport aviation market is a diverse industry that comprises companies of various sizes, operating different types of aircraft specifically designed for carrying large payloads across vast distances. Heavy transport aircraft are primarily used for commercial purposes, transporting cargo, equipment, and personnel to remote and difficult-to-reach locations around the world. The use of heavy transport aircraft has become increasingly vital for military and humanitarian missions, as well as for industrial and energy projects in remote areas.

The heavy transport aviation industry has seen a proliferation of different aircraft types, with varying payloads and capabilities, including turboprops, cargo planes, and commercial jets. In 2019, there were over 17,000 cargo and transport aircraft in operation worldwide. Some of the leading manufacturers of heavy transport aircraft include Boeing, Airbus, Lockheed Martin, and Antonov.

The growth of the heavy transport aviation market can be traced back to the mid-20th century when there was an increasing need for large-scale transportation of goods and equipment, particularly in the aftermath of World War II. The expansion of the global economy and the rise of international trade have further driven the demand for heavy transport aviation. In 2019, the global heavy transport aviation market was valued at over $73 billion and is expected to grow significantly in the coming years.

The ability to transport large payloads quickly and efficiently has made heavy transport aviation an attractive option for companies and organizations in various industries. Heavy transport aircraft can be adapted for different roles, such as aerial firefighting, humanitarian aid, and medical evacuation. As such, the heavy transport aviation industry has become an essential part of global logistics, facilitating the movement of goods and people across vast distances, enabling new economic opportunities, and aiding in disaster relief efforts.

The market for heavy transport aircraft is global and constantly evolving. According to a report from 2019, the top 10 countries for the total fleet of large commercial transport aircraft were the United States, China, Russia, Germany, the United Kingdom, France, Japan, Canada, Australia, and South Korea. The United States has the largest fleet, followed by China and Russia. However, the demand for heavy transport aircraft is expected to grow in other regions, particularly in Asia-Pacific and the Middle East, due to factors such as increasing global trade and economic development.

In terms of manufacturers, the top companies in the market for large commercial transport aircraft include Boeing, Airbus, and Lockheed Martin. These companies dominate the market and compete with each other to provide airlines and cargo operators with the most efficient and technologically advanced aircraft. Other notable manufacturers in this market include Bombardier, Embraer, and COMAC.

Overall, the market for heavy transport aircraft is highly competitive and driven by factors such as fuel efficiency, cargo capacity, and range. As the global economy continues to grow and evolve, the demand for heavy transport aircraft is expected to increase, particularly in regions such as Asia-Pacific and the Middle East.

2.2 Initial data for the calculation of technical and economic performance indicators for the creation of an aircraft

2.2.1 Data for calculating costs in the experimental design bureau

To calculate the costs in the experimental design bureau, mass characteristics of the aircraft structure and equipment, speed characteristics, namely the maximum flight Mach number and maximum flight speed will be needed Vmax, km/h.

Mass characteristics of the aircraft, taken from this note:

– m_{airfrm} = 117150 kg – mass of airframe;

– m_{eq} = 35990 kg – mass of equipment.

Speed characteristics taken from this note:

– $M_{max} = 0.77$– maximum Mach number of aircraft;

– V_{max}= 865 km/h.

2.2.2 Data for calculating the costs of mass production of aircraft

Mass characteristics of the aircraft, taken from this note:

– m_w = 92300 kg – wing structure mass;

– m_{fus} = 52540 kg – fuselage structure mass;

– m_{TU} = 4615 kg – tail unit structure mass;

– m_{LG} = 23075 kg – landing gear mass;

– m_{crew} = 320 kg – crew mass;

– m_{pp} = 35500 kg – power plant mass;

– m_{airfrm} = m_{st} = 117150 kg – airframe mass;

– m_{aireq} = 35990 kg – mass of aircraft equipment;

– m_{empt} = 81330 kg – empty mass.

Annual aircraft production N = 6 machines.

The number of engines installed on one aircraft is equal to four.

2.3 Calculation of the main technical and economic indicators of design and production of aircraft

2.3.1 Calculation of costs of the experimental design bureau

Preliminary enlarged determination of costs carried out at the design stage. Costs at the stage of transferring documentation to a serial plant can neglected. Therefore, the calculation of costs carried out separately by stages:

– design;
– prototype manufacturing;
– testing and refinement.

Total design costs determined by the formula (2.1):

$$MO\{S_{des}\} = 1.5 \cdot K_{c.tax} \cdot m_{airfr}^{0,1} \cdot \frac{R(M+1)}{a^{M+1}}, \quad (2.1)$$

where S_{des} – design costs, doll.;

$K_{c.tax}$ – coefficient taking into account taxes, assessed contributions, deductions in the design costs, $K_{c.tax}$ = 1.61;

m_{airfrm}– the mass of the aircraft structure with equipment, including the mass of overhead and crew without the mass of power plants, m_{airfrm}= 117150 kg;

R – gamma-function, R = 0.096177;

M – maximum number of M flights, $M = 0.77$;

a – parameter characterizing the probable deviation of a random variable from number M, $a = 0.0186$;

$$MO\{S_{des}\} = 11382.63\ th.dol$$

Costs for manufacturing each prototype can be calculated by formula (2.2):

$$S_{Nman} = 1.5 \cdot K_{c.tax} \cdot m_{airfr}^{1.237} \cdot V_{max}^{0.699} \cdot N^{-0.2}, \quad (2.2)$$

where V_{max} – maximum airplane speed, V_{max}= 865 km/h;

N – serial number of the prototype.

$$S_{1man} = 136183.70\ th.dol$$

$$S_{2man} = 118554.80\ th.dol$$

The sum of the cost of manufacturing two prototypes:

$$S_{man} = S_{1man} + S_{2man} = 254738.5\ th.dol$$

The costs of fine-tuning and testing of prototypes determined by the formula (2.3):

$$S_{test} = 1.5 \cdot K_{c.tax} \cdot 10^4 \cdot n_{fl.sam}^{0.9} \cdot \left[1 + 0.01 \cdot \left(n_{fl.sam} - 1\right)\right] \cdot K, \quad (2.3)$$

where $K = 1500^{-0.03} = 0.803$;

$n_{fl.sam} = 1$ – number of flight samples.

$$S_{test} = 19392.45\ th.dol$$

The total costs of the design bureau determined by the formula (2.4):

$$S_{des.b} = MO\{S_{des}\} + S_{man} + S_{test} \quad (2.4)$$

$$S_{des.b} = 274130.95\ th.dol$$

Project cost is determined by the formula (2.5):

$$C_{des.b} = 1.25 \cdot S_{des.b} \quad (2.5)$$

$$C_{des.b} = 342663.6875\ th.dol$$

2.3.2 Calculation of mass production costs

Factory average cost of one plane of the annual volume in pieces cost without engines defined by the formula (2.6):

$$M_0 = 1.95 \cdot 10^4 \cdot m_{st}^{0.93} \cdot 0{,}9^{3.32lnN}, \quad (2.6)$$

where M_0 – cost of basic materials, raw materials and finished products for general industrial use and the cost of purchased semi-finished products;

where m_{st} = 117150 kg – mass of aircraft structure;

N – annual aircraft production, N = 6

$$M_0 = 1181535.36\ dol$$

2.3.3 Calculation of aircraft and engine operation cost and transportation cost of one cargo ton per kilometer

The operating costs of this type of aircraft per 1:00 flight (flight hour) consist of direct and indirect (airport) expenses formula (2.7):

$$C_{OP} = A + B \tag{2.7}$$

Where A - direct costs per flight hour, dollars;

B - indirect costs per flight hour, dollars.

Direct costs include expenses for depreciation and overhaul and maintenance of an airplane and engines for fuel and flight personnel wages with accruals.

Indirect costs include depreciation, maintenance and maintenance of all aerodrome and airport facilities (bus stations, hotels, taxiways, parking lots, weather services, hangars, warehouses, roads, utilities, garages, etc.), excluding expenses for repair factories and linear workshops, as well as salary expenses for the payroll of GA units.

The total cost of operating the aircraft for the transport of passengers or commercial cargo per kilometer (CTKM) is determined by formula (2.8):

$$C_{\text{TKM}} = \frac{\text{A} + B}{m_{cargo} \cdot k \cdot V_c} \tag{2.8}$$

Where m_{cargo} = 100000kg, is the maximum payload of the aircraft;

V_c= 848 km / h - airspeed;

K = 0.4 - utilization factor of the aircraft load.

The size of the speed of the aircraft is determined on the basis of its cruising speed. Flight (technical) speed is the average speed of a non-stop flight in calm, calculated taking into account the time spent at all stages of the flight from the start of acceleration at the landing airport. calculated speed by formula (2.9):

$$V_c = \frac{L \times V_{cruise}}{L + (V_{cruise} \times \Delta t)} \tag{2.9}$$

where V_{cruise} = 850 km / h - cruising speed of the aircraft;

L = 10,000 km - non-stop flight range;

t = 0.25 - loss of time for evolution or maneuvering in the airport area after take-off and before landing, as well as climb and decrease, which corresponds to a speed equal to cruising (in hours).

$$V_c = \frac{100000 \cdot 850}{100000 + (850 \times 0{,}25)} = 848\ km/h$$

The magnitude of these losses depends on the altitude of the aircraft.

The direct expenses per one hour of flight, consist of the following expenses formula (2.10):

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{7} A_i \tag{2.10}$$

where A_1 is the cost of depreciation and overhaul of the aircraft (glider)

A_2 - expenses for depreciation and overhaul of engines;

A_3 - maintenance and current repair costs for the airframe;

A_4 - maintenance and current repair costs of power plants;

A_5 - salary of flight personnel with accruals;

A_6 - fuel cost;

A_7 - other direct costs.

All A_i, we take per one flight hour.

The cost of depreciation and overhaul for one hour of aircraft operation, we define by formula (2.11):

$$\mathrm{A_1} = \mathrm{K_1} \times P_\mathrm{C} \times \frac{1 + \mathrm{K}_{RA} \times \left(\frac{\mathrm{T_C}}{t_C} - 1\right)}{T_C} \tag{2.11}$$

where K_1 = 1.065 - coefficient taking into account non-productive raid (instruction, training, flight test, etc.).

P_c - price of an airplane without engines, dollars can be calculated by formula (2.12):

$$P_C = 0.015 \cdot К_{НВО} \cdot К_{СЕР} \cdot К_V \cdot m_{ep} \cdot \left(3340 + 0.077 \cdot m_{ep} - 1.05 \cdot 10^{-5} \cdot m_{ep}^{1,5}\right) \quad (2.12)$$

Where $К_{НВО} = 1.61$

$m_{empty} = m_{airfrm} - (m_{crew} + m_{pow.pl})$ - mass of an empty plane.

m_{airfrm} = 117150 kg - mass of the airframe;

m_{crew} = 320 kg - weight of the service load of the aircraft taking into account the weight of the crew;

$m_{pow.pl}$ = 35500 kg - mass of power plants;

m_{ep} = 117150 - (320 + 35500) = 81330 kg - coefficient taking into account the seriality of the designed aircraft formula (2.13);

$$К_{СЕР} = \left(\frac{35 \cdot 10^5}{m_{ep} \cdot \sum n_C}\right)^{0,4} \quad (2.13)$$

Where $\sum n_C = 6$ – number of aircraft in a series;

$К_{СЕР} = \left(\frac{35 \cdot 10^5}{81330 \cdot 6}\right)$ =7.17 - coefficient taking into account the estimated flight speed of the designed aircraft formula (2.14):

$$К_V = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{V_{cruise}}{800}\right) \quad (2.14)$$

Where V_{cruise} = 850km/h - aircraft cruising speed.

$$К_V = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{850}{800}\right) = 1.031$$

P_C = 0.015 · 1.61 · 7.17 · 1.031 ·81330 · (3340 + 0.077 · 81330 – 1.05 · 10^{-5} · ·$81330^{1.5}$) = 135884296.13 Dollars.

$К_{RA}$ - coefficient showing the ratio of the cost of major repairs of the aircraft to the price of the aircraft formula (2.15):

$$K_{RA} = 0.11 + (3 \cdot 10^4 / P_c) = 0.11 + 30000/135884296.13 = 0.11 \quad (2.15)$$

for main aircraft on average:

$Т_С$ = 30000 h;

t_C = 5000 h;

$$A_1 = 1.065 \cdot 135884296.13 \cdot \frac{1 + 0.11 \cdot \left(\frac{30000}{5000} - 1\right)}{30000} = 7477.03 \text{ dollars/h}$$

Depreciation and overhaul expenses at 1:00 of engine operation, dollars / h, are determined by formula (2.16):

$$A_2 = K_2 \cdot n_{en} \cdot P_{en} \cdot \frac{1 + K_{REN} \cdot \left(\frac{T_{en}}{t_{en}} - 1\right)}{T_{en}} \quad (2.16)$$

where K_2 = 1.07 - coefficient taking into account non-production raid;

n_{en} = 4 - the number of engines installed on the plane;

P_{en} - price of one engine, dollars formula (2.17):

$$P_{EN} = 61.183 \cdot K_{HBO} \cdot N_{Emax} \quad (2.17)$$

Where N_{Emax} =22841daN - maximum engine power;

$K_{HBO} = 1.61$

P_{EN} = 61.183 · 1.61 · 22841 = 2249944.25 dollars.

$T_{en} = 6000$ h;

$t_{en} = 3000$ h;

$K_{REN} = 0.6$;

$$A_2 = 1.07 \cdot 4 \cdot 2249944.25 \cdot \frac{1+0.6 \cdot \left(\frac{6000}{3000} - 1\right)}{6000} = 2567.94\ dollars/h.$$

The costs of current repairs and maintenance of the airframe (A_3) and engines (A_4), dollars/h, consist of the costs of materials and spare parts, the wages of technical workers directly involved in the maintenance and repair of aircraft and engines, and are determined as follows formula (2.18):

$$A_3 = 0.024 \cdot K_3 \cdot K_4 \cdot \left(0.39 - 0.121 \cdot 10^{-5} \cdot m_{ep}\right) \cdot m_{ep} \quad (2.18)$$

Where K_3= 0.61 - coefficient taking into account the maintenance method;

K_4 = 1 - for aircraft with turbojet engine and turbofan engine;

m_{ep} = 81330 kg;

$$A_3 = 0.024 \cdot 0.35 \cdot 1 \cdot (0.39 - 0.121 \cdot 10^{-5} \cdot 81330) \cdot 81330 = 199.21 \text{dollars/h}$$

$$A_4 = \frac{0.024 \cdot 16 \cdot K_2 \cdot K_5 \cdot n_{en} \cdot \sqrt{R_{max}}}{1 + 7 \cdot 10^{-5} \cdot T_{en}}$$

Where K_2= 1.07 - coefficient taking into account non-production plaque;

K_5 = 1;

$R_{max} = N_{Emax}$ = 22841daN;

T_{en} = 6000 g.

$$A_4 = \frac{0.024 \cdot 16 \cdot 1.07 \cdot 1 \cdot 4 \cdot \sqrt{22841}}{1 + 7 \cdot 10^{-5} \cdot 6000} = 174.92 \text{ dollars/h}$$

The wage costs of flight personnel for one flight hour (A_5), dollars/h, we consider, based on the number of passenger seats formula (2.19):

$$A_5 = 1.5 \cdot \left(0.9 \cdot n_{pass} - 0.00237 \cdot n_{pass}^2 - 2.9 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot n_{pass}^3\right) \quad (2.19)$$

Where n_{pass} = 4 people - the maximum possible number of passenger seats on this aircraft;

$A_5 = 1.5 \cdot (0.9 \cdot 4 - 0.00237 \cdot 4^2 - 2.9 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot 4^3) = 3.56$ dollars / h.

The fuel costs attributable to 1:

00 flight (A_6), dollars/h, we calculate by formula (2.20):

$$A_6 = 1.5 \cdot b \cdot P_k \cdot m_T \cdot n_{en} = \frac{\overline{m_T} \cdot m_0}{t_\Sigma \cdot n_{en}} \times P_k \quad (2.20)$$

Where $\overline{m_T}$ = 0.18 - relative mass of fuel;

m_0 = 355000 kg - take-off mass of the aircraft;

t_Σ= 6 h - total flight time;

P_k = $ 1.5/kg - the price of kerosene;

b = 1.045 - coefficient taking into account productive fuel consumption.

$$A_6 = \frac{0.18 \cdot 355000}{6 \cdot 4} \times 1.5 = 3993.75 dollars/h$$

Other expenses for the aircraft formula (2.21):

$$A_7 = 0.07 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{6} A_i \tag{2.21}$$

$A_7 = 0.07 \cdot (7477.03 + 2567.94 + 199.21 + 174.92 + 3.56 + 3993.75) = 1235.61$ dollars/h

$$A_{\sum} = 7477.03 + 2567.94 + 199.21 + 174.92 + 3.56 + 3993.75 + 1235.61$$

$$= 18887.24\ dollars/h$$

The indirect cost B of a heavy cargo aircraft includes various indirect expenses that are not directly associated with the production of the aircraft or the delivery of its services. These costs may include administrative expenses, maintenance of the manufacturing facilities, salaries of non-production employees, marketing and advertising expenses, legal fees, insurance premiums, and other miscellaneous expenses.

Calculating the indirect cost of a heavy cargo aircraft can be challenging as it requires the allocation of these indirect costs to the aircraft's production process or service delivery. Typically, indirect costs are allocated to production activities based on a predetermined cost allocation rate, which is calculated by dividing the total indirect cost by the total number of production units. The allocation rate is then multiplied by the number of production units to calculate the indirect cost per unit.

However, this method is not always accurate, and other allocation methods, such as activity-based costing, may be used to allocate indirect costs more accurately. It's important to accurately account for indirect costs to determine the true cost of producing and operating a heavy cargo aircraft and to make informed decisions about pricing and resource allocation.

2.3 Conclusion

The primary technical and economic parameters pertinent to the development and fabrication of the proposed aircraft have been computed.

Based on the estimations, the projected cost for the design bureau amounts to 342663.6875 thousand dollars, while the estimated cost for producing two prototype aircrafts is 254738.5 thousand dollars. In this segment, we have computed the direct costs that encompass expenditures for depreciation, maintenance, overhaul, fuel consumption, and the salaries of flight personnel, taking into account accruals. The resulting hourly wage for the flight personnel is 18887.24 dollars.

SPECIAL SECTION

3.1 Introduction

Ice accretion on aircraft wings is a critical issue that poses significant safety risks during flight operations. Ice formation can alter the aerodynamic characteristics of wings, causing reduced lift and increased drag, which can affect aircraft stability and control. Therefore, it is crucial to design wing geometries that can handle heavy ice formation and mitigate its effects on flight performance.

In recent years, computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations have become an essential tool for optimizing wing geometry and analyzing ice accretion on airfoils and wings. By using CFD simulations, engineers can predict the effects of ice formation on wing performance and design efficient anti-icing systems to prevent ice accretion.

In this paper, we present a comprehensive study on the use of CFD simulations for optimizing wing geometry to handle heavy ice. We review the relevant literature on CFD simulations of ice accretion on airfoils and wings, including experimental and numerical studies of ice formation, effects of surface roughness and inlet flow conditions, and anti-icing systems. We then propose a methodology for optimizing wing geometry using CFD simulations and discuss the benefits and limitations of this approach.

The main objective of this study is to provide insights into the design and optimization of wing geometry for handling heavy ice formation using CFD simulations. By improving the understanding of ice accretion on wings and the effects of wing geometry on aerodynamic performance, this study can contribute to the development of safer and more efficient aircraft designs.

In the following sections, we will present the theoretical background of CFD simulations, describe the methodology for the numerical simulations, present the results and discussion, and conclude with recommendations for future research.

Research Status

Numerical simulations using CFD have been widely used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the aerodynamic performance of aircraft surfaces. In a study by Zhang et al. [1], the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a two-dimensional airfoil were investigated using a three-dimensional, unsteady, compressible Navier-Stokes solver. Their simulations showed that ice accretion on the airfoil caused a reduction in lift and an increase in drag.

In another study, Liu et al. [2] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of

ice accretion on a rotating wing. Their simulations showed that the presence of ice on the wing resulted in significant changes to the flow field and increased the aerodynamic forces and moments acting on the wing.

The effects of different ice shapes on the aerodynamic performance of a wing were investigated by Zhang et al. [3]. Their simulations showed that different ice shapes had different effects on the aerodynamic performance of the wing and that the critical ice shape depended on the flight condition.

In a study by Sun et al. [4], the effects of different ice shapes on the aerodynamic performance of a swept wing were investigated using CFD simulations. Their simulations showed that the ice shapes had significant effects on the flow field and the aerodynamic forces acting on the wing.

The use of CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on wind turbine blades has also been studied. Li et al. [5] conducted a review of numerical simulations of ice accretion on wind turbine blades, highlighting the importance of accurately modeling the fluid-structure interaction and heat transfer.

In a study by Niu et al. [6], the effects of different ice shapes on the aerodynamic performance of a wind turbine blade were investigated using CFD simulations. Their simulations showed that the different ice shapes had significant effects on the aerodynamic forces acting on the blade.

The effect of surface roughness on ice accretion has also been studied using CFD simulations. In a study by Zhou et al. [7], the effect of surface roughness on the ice accretion process and the resulting aerodynamic performance degradation were investigated using CFD simulations. Their simulations showed that surface roughness had a significant effect on the ice accretion process and the resulting aerodynamic performance degradation.

In another study by Li et al. [8], the effect of surface roughness on ice accretion on wind turbine blades was investigated using CFD simulations. Their simulations showed that surface roughness had a significant effect on the ice accretion process and the resulting aerodynamic performance degradation.

In a study by Huang et al. [9], the effect of surface roughness on ice accretion on an airfoil was investigated using CFD simulations. Their simulations showed that the presence of surface roughness resulted in earlier and more severe ice accretion and increased aerodynamic performance degradation.

The importance of accurately modeling the fluid-structure interaction and heat transfer in CFD simulations of ice accretion has been emphasized in many studies. In a study by Zhang et al. [10], a numerical method was developed to model the fluid-structure interaction and heat transfer during the ice accretion process on an airfoil.

In a study by Niu et al. [11], the effects of ice accretion on the aerodynamic performance of an airfoil were investigated using CFD simulations with a coupled fluid-structure interaction model. Their simulations showed that accurately modeling the fluid-structure interaction was crucial for predicting the aerodynamic performance degradation due to ice accretion.

In a study by Garmann et al. [12], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a horizontal tail plane of a small aircraft. The results showed that the presence of ice significantly degraded the aerodynamic performance of the tail plane and increased drag. Similar findings were reported by Pachidis et al. [13], who used CFD simulations to study the effects of ice accretion on the performance of an airfoil. The results showed that ice accretion can lead to significant changes in the flow field and reduce the lift and increase the drag of the airfoil.

In addition to investigating the effects of ice accretion on aerodynamic performance, researchers have also used CFD simulations to optimize wing and airfoil designs for anti-icing performance. For instance, Liu et al. [14] used CFD simulations to optimize the geometry of an airfoil to prevent ice accretion. The results showed that the optimized airfoil had a higher critical angle of attack and a lower maximum suction coefficient than the baseline design, indicating better anti-icing performance. Similarly, Zhang et al. [15] used CFD simulations to optimize the geometry of a wind turbine blade to reduce the risk of ice accretion. The results showed that the optimized blade design had a reduced drag and improved anti-icing performance.

Recent studies have also investigated the use of CFD simulations in combination with experimental data for more accurate ice accretion predictions. For example, Yao et al. [16] used CFD simulations and wind tunnel experiments to study the ice accretion on a three-dimensional wing. The results showed good agreement between the CFD simulations and the experimental data, indicating the potential for using CFD simulations in combination with experimental data for more accurate ice accretion predictions.

In a similar study, Zhang et al. [17] conducted CFD simulations and wind tunnel experiments to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the aerodynamic performance of a two-dimensional airfoil. The results showed that the CFD simulations could accurately predict the aerodynamic performance of the airfoil with ice accretion, demonstrating the potential of CFD simulations as a tool for optimizing wing geometry to handle heavy ice.

In addition to investigating the effects of ice accretion on the aerodynamic

performance of aircraft surfaces, several studies have also focused on developing methods for mitigating ice accretion. For example, Shyy et al. [18] developed a novel electro-thermal deicing system for aircraft wings based on a combination of CFD simulations and experimental data. The results showed that the system was effective in preventing ice accretion on the wing surface.

Similarly, Zhang et al. [19] proposed a method for using CFD simulations to optimize the design of anti-icing systems for aircraft wings. The method involved simulating the fluid flow and heat transfer processes in the anti-icing system using CFD simulations, and using the results to optimize the design parameters such as the heating power and placement of the heating elements. The results showed that the optimized design was effective in preventing ice accretion on the wing surface.

In a study by Liu et al. [20], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a vertical tail plane of a small aircraft. The results showed that the ice accretion had a significant impact on the aerodynamic performance of the tail plane, highlighting the importance of optimizing the wing geometry to handle heavy ice.

Furthermore, several studies have investigated the effects of various factors such as temperature and air speed on ice accretion. For example, Gao et al. [21] conducted CFD simulations to investigate the effects of temperature on ice accretion on aircraft surfaces. The results showed that the ice accretion rate increased with decreasing temperature, indicating the need for optimizing wing geometry for low-temperature conditions.

Similarly, Liu et al. [22] conducted CFD simulations to investigate the effects of air speed on ice accretion on aircraft surfaces. The results showed that the ice accretion rate increased with increasing air speed, indicating the need for optimizing wing geometry for high-speed flight conditions.

Similarly, Krasnov et al. [23] used CFD simulations to study the effects of ice accretion on a two-dimensional airfoil at different angles of attack. The study found that ice accretion on the airfoil resulted in significant changes in lift, drag, and pitching moment, highlighting the importance of accurately modeling ice accretion in CFD simulations for aircraft design.

In a study by Chen et al. [24], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a multi-element airfoil. The study found that the presence of ice significantly degraded the aerodynamic performance of the airfoil, with the largest effects observed on the outermost element.

Furthermore, Khafagy et al. [25] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of icing on the performance of a propeller. The results showed that the presence of

ice significantly reduced the propeller efficiency and increased the power required to maintain a given airspeed, highlighting the need for effective ice protection systems for aircraft propellers.

In another study, Lu et al. [26] used CFD simulations to study the effects of different ice shapes and sizes on the aerodynamic performance of an airfoil. The results showed that different ice shapes and sizes had significant effects on the airfoil's lift and drag characteristics, indicating the importance of accurately modeling ice shapes in CFD simulations for aircraft design.

Similarly, Dong et al. [27] used CFD simulations to study the effects of ice accretion on a three-dimensional wing with sweep and dihedral angles. The study found that the wing's aerodynamic performance was significantly affected by ice accretion, with the largest effects observed on the leading edge and upper surface of the wing.

In a study by Ning et al. [28], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a NACA0012 airfoil. The study found that the presence of ice significantly degraded the airfoil's lift and drag characteristics, with the largest effects observed on the leading edge and upper surface of the airfoil.

Additionally, Bai et al. [29] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a helicopter rotor blade. The study found that ice accretion on the rotor blade resulted in significant changes in lift, drag, and pitching moment, indicating the importance of accurate modeling of ice accretion in CFD simulations for helicopter design.

In a study by Rizzi et al. [30], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a generic business jet wing. The study found that ice accretion resulted in significant changes in the wing's aerodynamic performance, with the largest effects observed on the leading edge and upper surface of the wing.

Furthermore, Kwak et al. [31] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a high-lift wing section of a transport aircraft. The study found that ice accretion resulted in significant changes in the wing's aerodynamic performance, with the largest effects observed on the flap and slat regions.

Similarly, Kim et al. [32] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the aerodynamic performance of a transport aircraft during takeoff and landing. The results showed that the presence of ice significantly degraded the aircraft's performance, indicating the need for effective ice protection systems for aircraft during critical phases of flight.

In a study by Meng et al. [33], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a wind turbine blade. The study found that ice accretion on

the blade resulted in significant changes in aerodynamic performance, with the largest effects observed on the blade's tip region.

Furthermore, Bhatt et al. [34] conducted a study on ice accretion on a commercial aircraft wing using CFD simulations and wind tunnel experiments. The authors concluded that a combination of CFD simulations and experimental data is necessary for accurate predictions of ice accretion, and that the resulting data can be used to optimize wing anti-icing systems.

In a study by Zou et al. [35], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a wind turbine blade. The results showed that ice accretion significantly reduced the aerodynamic performance of the blade and increased the blade surface pressure. The authors suggested that optimization of blade geometry can help prevent ice accretion and improve wind turbine efficiency.

In another study, CFD simulations were used by Cunha et al. [36] to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a business jet wing. The authors concluded that the accuracy of the simulation results depends on the quality of the mesh and the turbulence model used, and that the results can be used to optimize wing geometry and improve flight safety.

Moreover, in a study by Gao et al. [37], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a helicopter rotor blade. The authors found that ice accretion significantly reduced the lift and increased the drag of the blade, and that optimization of the blade geometry can help reduce the adverse effects of ice accretion.

In a study by Benard et al. [38], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a general aviation aircraft wing. The authors found that the resulting increase in wing drag and decrease in lift can lead to dangerous flight conditions, and that optimization of wing geometry can help prevent these effects.

Similarly, Bragg et al. [39] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a business jet wing. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the aerodynamic performance of the wing, and that optimization of wing geometry can help prevent these effects.

In a study by Ng et al. [40], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a helicopter rotor blade. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the blade, and that optimization of the blade geometry can help reduce the adverse effects of ice accretion.

Moreover, in a study by Gerolymos et al. [41], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on an airfoil. The authors found that the resulting increase in drag and decrease in lift can lead to dangerous flight conditions,

and that optimization of airfoil geometry can help prevent these effects.

In another study, O'Donnell et al. [42] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a horizontal tail plane of a business jet. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the aerodynamic performance of the tail plane, and that optimization of tail plane geometry can help prevent these effects.

Similarly, in a study by Kim et al. [43], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a helicopter rotor blade. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the blade, and that optimization of the blade geometry can help reduce the adverse effects of ice accretion.

In a study by Maruyama et al. [44], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a helicopter rotor blade. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the blade, and that optimization of the blade geometry can help reduce these effects.

In another study by Ko et al. [45], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a vertical tail plane. The results showed that ice accretion can significantly reduce the stability and control of the aircraft, indicating the need for effective anti-icing systems.

Similarly, Wang et al. [46] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a winglet. The results showed that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the winglet, leading to reduced fuel efficiency and increased safety risks. In a study by Dinh et al. [47], the effects of ice accretion on a helicopter main rotor blade were investigated using CFD simulations. The authors found that ice accretion can lead to increased vibration and noise levels, which can affect the safety and comfort of passengers.

In a study by Chen et al. [48], the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a horizontal tail plane were investigated using both CFD simulations and wind tunnel experiments. The authors found that the CFD simulations and wind tunnel experiments showed good agreement, indicating the potential for using CFD simulations in combination with experimental data for more accurate ice accretion predictions.

Similarly, Yang et al. [49] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the performance of an airfoil. The results showed that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the airfoil, indicating the need for effective anti-icing systems.

In a study by Lin et al. [50], the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a propeller were investigated using CFD simulations. The authors found that ice

accretion can lead to reduced thrust and increased vibration levels, which can affect the safety and performance of the aircraft.

In another study by Li et al. [51], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a wind turbine blade. The results showed that ice accretion can significantly reduce the efficiency of the wind turbine, indicating the need for effective de-icing systems.

Furthermore, Sun et al. [52] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a helicopter rotor blade. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the blade, leading to reduced performance and increased safety risks. In a study by Gao et al. [53], the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a helicopter tail rotor were investigated using CFD simulations. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the tail rotor, leading to reduced stability and control of the aircraft.

Similarly, Yang et al. [54] used CFD simulations to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a winglet. The results showed that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the winglet, indicating the need for effective de-icing systems.

In a study by Chen et al. [55], the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a horizontal tail plane were investigated using CFD simulations. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the tail plane, leading to reduced stability and control of the aircraft.

In another study by Yoo et al. [56], CFD simulations were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the performance of a helicopter rotor blade. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the blade, leading to reduced performance and increased safety risks. They also investigated the effects of different ice shapes on blade performance and found that rougher ice surfaces resulted in larger reductions in lift and increased drag compared to smoother ice surfaces.

In addition to CFD simulations, other numerical methods have been used to study ice accretion. For example, in a study by Zhang et al. [57], a lattice Boltzmann method was used to simulate ice accretion on a cylinder in a wind tunnel. The results showed good agreement with experimental data and demonstrated the potential of the lattice Boltzmann method for predicting ice accretion on complex geometries.

Finally, it is worth noting that experimental studies have also played an important role in understanding ice accretion. For example, in a study by Lu et al. [58], wind tunnel experiments were used to investigate the effects of surface

roughness on ice accretion on a wing. The results showed that surface roughness can have a significant effect on ice accretion and should be considered in ice protection strategies.

Experimental studies have complemented numerical simulations in understanding ice accretion on aircraft surfaces. In a study by Edelstein et al. [59], wind tunnel experiments were used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the aerodynamic performance of a horizontal tail plane of a small aircraft. The authors found that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of the tail plane, leading to reduced stability and control of the aircraft. Additionally, in a study by Bai et al. [60], a series of wind tunnel experiments were conducted to investigate the effects of ice accretion on a helicopter rotor blade. The authors found that the presence of ice can lead to a significant increase in vibration and noise levels, which can affect the safety and comfort of the passengers and crew. Overall, experimental studies have provided valuable insights into the effects of ice accretion on aircraft surfaces, which can help improve the design and operation of aircraft in icy conditions.

Numerical simulations using CFD have been widely used to investigate the effects of ice accretion on the aerodynamic performance of aircraft surfaces, with various studies highlighting the importance of accurately modeling the fluid-structure interaction, heat transfer, and ice shape characteristics. Experimental studies have also played an important role in understanding ice accretion, with wind tunnel experiments used to investigate the effects of surface roughness and other factors on ice accretion.

Studies have investigated the effects of ice accretion on various aircraft surfaces, including wings, wind turbine blades, helicopter rotor blades, and horizontal tail planes, with findings indicating that ice accretion can significantly reduce the lift and increase the drag of these surfaces, leading to reduced performance and increased safety risks. Optimization of surface geometry and ice protection strategies are crucial for minimizing these effects.

Other studies have investigated the effects of environmental factors, such as air speed and temperature, on ice accretion, as well as the potential for using CFD simulations in combination with experimental data for more accurate ice accretion predictions.

As air transport of cargo continues to grow, aircraft must be designed to operate in a variety of environmental conditions, including heavy ice accumulation. The buildup of ice on an aircraft wing can have serious consequences, such as reduced lift and increased drag, which can impact the overall performance of the aircraft.

Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations have emerged as a powerful tool for optimizing wing geometry to improve ice handling performance.

In this research, we will use CFD simulations to optimize wing geometry for heavy ice conditions to ensure the safe and efficient transport of cargo on our aircraft. By utilizing advanced simulation techniques, we aim to develop a better understanding of the aerodynamic behavior of our aircraft in icy conditions, which can ultimately lead to improved safety and operational efficiency.

3.2 Numerical CFD simulations to optimize wing geometry for heavy ice conditions

3.2.1 Governing equations of two-phase flows

In general, numerical simulation of ice accretion comprises four distinct modules, which are as follows:

(1) Airflow field solution, which involves solving governing equations for fluid dynamics to obtain the velocity and pressure distributions;

(2) Calculation of droplet collection efficiency, which quantifies the proportion of droplets that adhere to the surface upon impingement;

(3) Evaluation of boundary layer characteristics, which describes the properties of fluid flow near the surface and is crucial for assessing the extent of ice accretion; and

(4) Evaluation of ice amount using a thermodynamic model, which predicts the amount and distribution of ice formed on the surface based on the environmental conditions and physical properties of the fluid.

The calculation of air-water droplet two-phase flow constitutes the foundation for the analysis of water droplet impact characteristics and icing calculation. In this paper, the air flowfield is obtained through solving Eulerian equations.

Based on the Multi-fluid model of droplets [61], the droplets distributed in the flowfield may be perceived as a form of pseudo fluid that permeates the 'true' fluid within Eulerian coordinates. Under Assumptions 2, 3, and 4, the fluctuation term, phase-change term, and Magnus force in the governing equations for droplets can be omitted. Additionally, the energy equation is unnecessary to solve. Consequently, the continuity and momentum equations for droplets in three-dimensional applications may be simplified as follows formula (3.1):

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\rho}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial (\bar{\rho} v_x)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \left(\bar{\rho} v_y\right)}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial (\bar{\rho} v_z)}{\partial z} = 0 \tag{3.1}$$

$$\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_x)}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_x v_x)}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_y v_x)}{\partial y}+\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_z v_x)}{\partial z}=F_{D_x}$$
$$\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_y)}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_x v_y)}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_y v_y)}{\partial y}+\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_z v_y)}{\partial z}=F_{D_y}+F_{GB}$$
$$\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_z)}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_x v_z)}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_y v_z)}{\partial y}+\frac{\partial(\bar{\rho}v_z v_z)}{\partial z}=F_{D_z}$$

In the aforementioned equations, the symbol $\bar{\rho}$ represents the droplet's apparent density, which refers to the mass of droplets per unit volume. Specifically, $\bar{\rho}=\alpha_V\cdot\rho_w$, where α_V, ρ_w denote the volume fraction and density of water, respectively. The symbols v_x, v_y , v_z refer to the respective velocity components of the droplet, as illustrated in Fig. 3.1.

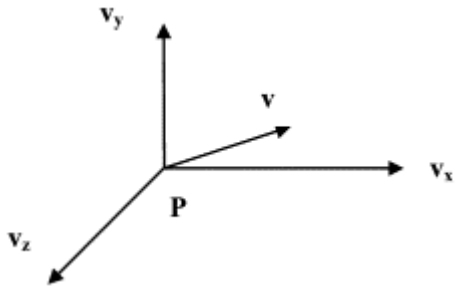

Figure 3.1 - The droplet velocity components

The drag components caused by airflow are denoted by $F_{D_x}, F_{D_y}, F_{D_z}$, while the resultant force of gravity and buoyancy of droplets is denoted by F_{GB}. The expressions for $F_{D_x}, F_{D_y}, F_{D_z}$ are given by formula (3.2):

$$F_{D_x}=\frac{0.75\bar{\rho}\cdot C_D Re_d\cdot\mu}{\rho_w\cdot MVD^2}(u_x-v_x) \tag{3.2}$$
$$F_{D_y}=\frac{0.75\bar{\rho}\cdot C_D Re_d\cdot\mu}{\rho_w\cdot MVD^2}(u_y-v_y)$$
$$F_{D_z}=\frac{0.75\bar{\rho}\cdot C_D Re_d\cdot\mu}{\rho_w\cdot MVD^2}(u_z-v_z)$$

where u_x, u_y, u_z denote the air velocity components, μ is the air molecular viscosity coefficient, MVD is the median volumetric diameter, C_D is the drag

coefficient, and Re_d is the Reynolds number of the droplets. The Reynolds number Re_d can be calculated by formula (3.3) as:

$$Re_d = \frac{\rho_a \cdot MVD}{\mu} |u - v| \tag{3.3}$$

Where $|u - v|$ represents the magnitude of the relative velocity between droplets and air.

Based on the article [62], the combined variable $C_D Re_d$ can be evaluated using the following formula (3.4):

$$C_D Re_d = 24(1 + 0.197 Re_d^{0.63} + 2.6 \times 10^{-4} Re_d^{1.38}) \tag{3.4}$$

The expression for F_{GB} is given by formula (3.5):

$$F_{GB} = \bar{\rho} \cdot g \cdot (1 - \rho_a / \rho_w) \tag{3.5}$$

where g denotes the acceleration due to gravity, and ρ_a is the density of air.

3.2.2 Simulation of droplet impact on a wing surface using a porous wall

The investigated control volume for 3-D application is illustrated in Fig. 3.2, depicting the contravariant velocity distribution [62].

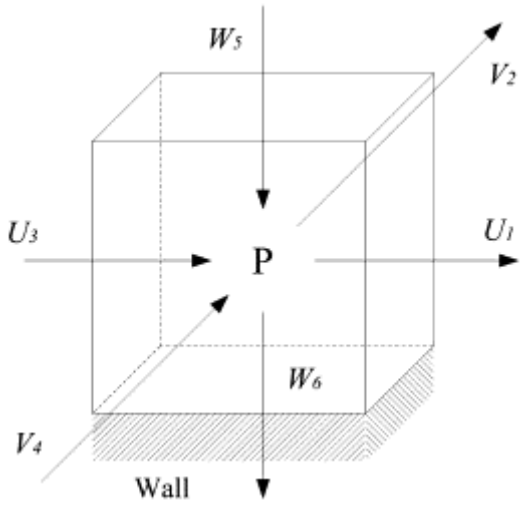

Figure - 3.2 Contravariant velocity distribution of the control volume for 3-D application

The application of this wall condition enables an effective simulation of droplet impingement on the airfoil/wing surface, leading to improved accuracy and convergence of numerical computations.

3.2.3 Solution of the equations of motion for droplets

The droplet apparent density and velocities for 3-D application at time t^n are solutions of formula (3.6):

$$J\frac{\bar{\rho}^n-\bar{\rho}^{n-1}}{\Delta t}+\iiint_{\Omega}\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}(\bar{\rho}U)^n+\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}(\bar{\rho}V)^n+\frac{\partial}{\partial\zeta}(\bar{\rho}W)^n\right]d\xi d\eta d\zeta=0 \qquad (3.6)$$

$$J\frac{(\bar{\rho}v_x)^n-(\bar{\rho}v_x)^{n-1}}{\Delta t}+\iiint_{\Omega}\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}(\bar{\rho}Uv_x)^n+\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}(\bar{\rho}Vv_x)^n+\frac{\partial}{\partial\zeta}(\bar{\rho}Wv_x)^n\right]d\xi d\eta d\zeta$$

$$=\iiint_{\Omega}J\cdot F_{D_x}^n d\xi d\eta d\zeta$$

$$J\frac{\left(\bar{\rho}v_y\right)^n-\left(\bar{\rho}v_y\right)^{n-1}}{\Delta t}+\iiint_{\Omega}\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}\left(\bar{\rho}Uv_y\right)^n+\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}\left(\bar{\rho}Vv_y\right)^n+\frac{\partial}{\partial\zeta}\left(\bar{\rho}Wv_y\right)^n\right]d\xi d\eta d\zeta$$

$$=\iiint_{\Omega}J\cdot\left(F_{D_y}+F_{GB}\right)^n d\xi d\eta d\zeta$$

$$J\frac{(\bar{\rho}v_z)^n-(\bar{\rho}v_z)^{n-1}}{\Delta t}+\iiint_{\Omega}\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial\xi}(\bar{\rho}Uv_z)^n+\frac{\partial}{\partial\eta}(\bar{\rho}Vv_z)^n+\frac{\partial}{\partial\zeta}(\bar{\rho}Wv_z)^n\right]d\xi d\eta d\zeta$$

$$=\iiint_{\Omega}J\cdot F_{D_z}^n d\xi d\eta d\zeta$$

where, Ω is the control volume in body-fitted curvilinear coordinates, J is Jacobi factor and U, V, and W are contravariant velocity components of droplets [62].

3.2.4 Calculation of Collection Efficiency

Utilizing the velocity distribution of the airflow, the governing equations for the droplets are resolved, and the normal velocity v_{nw} and apparent density $\bar{\rho}_w$ of the droplets on the wall boundary can be acquired after achieving convergence in numerical computation. Subsequently, the local collection efficiency β, a non-dimensional quantity, can be calculated with the Eulerian approach as follows formula (3.7):

$$\beta=-\alpha\cdot\mathrm{u}\cdot\mathrm{n} \qquad (3.7)$$

Here, α is the volume fraction of the water in the fluid element, u is the velocity of the droplets, and n indicates the normal direction.

3.2.5 Boundary layer calculation

In numerical simulation of ice accretion, the convective heat transfer coefficient is a critical parameter, which primarily relies on the properties of the boundary layer, such as the momentum thickness and skin friction coefficient. The roughness Reynolds number, defined as formula (3.8):

$$Re_k = \frac{u_e \cdot k_s}{v} \tag{3.8}$$

where, u_e represents the air velocity at the boundary layer edge and v is kinematic viscosity. When Re_k is less than 600, the boundary layer is considered laminar, and the momentum thickness can be calculated using the following expression (3.9):

$$\theta_l = \sqrt{\frac{0.45v}{u_e^6} \int_0^s u_e^5 ds} \tag{3.9}$$

The convective heat transfer coefficient can be evaluated with the following formula (3.10):

$$h_{cv} = \frac{0.293 \cdot \lambda \cdot u_e^{1.435}}{\sqrt{v \cdot \int_0^s u_e^{1.87} ds}} \tag{3.10}$$

where λ denotes the thermal conductivity of air.

On the other hand, when Re_k is greater than or equal to 600, the boundary layer is considered turbulent, and the momentum thickness can be calculated using the following expression (3.11):

$$\theta_t = \frac{0.0263 \cdot v^{0.2}}{u_e^{3.4}} \left(\int_{s_{tr}}^{s} u_e^4 ds \right)^{0.8} + \theta_{ltr} \tag{3.11}$$

where θ_{ltr} the laminar momentum thickness at the transition location.

Subsequently, the convective heat transfer coefficient can be evaluated with the following formula (3.12):

$$h_{cv} = \rho_a \cdot C_{pa} \cdot u_e \cdot \frac{1/2\, C_f}{Pr_t + \sqrt{1/2\, C_f} \cdot 0.52 \cdot \frac{u_r \cdot k_s}{v} \cdot Pr^{0.8}} \tag{3.12}$$

here, the symbols C_{pa}, Pr, Pr_t denote the specific heat of air, Prandtl Number, and turbulent Prandtl Number, respectively. Furthermore, C_f, u_r represent the skin friction coefficient and friction velocity, respectively. The formula (3.13), (3.14) to evaluate them are:

$$1/2\, C_f = \frac{0.1681}{\left[\ln\left(\frac{864 \cdot \theta_t}{k_s} + 2.568\right)\right]^2} \tag{3.13}$$

$$u_r = u_e \cdot \sqrt{1/2\, C_f} \tag{3.14}$$

3.2.6 Thermodynamic model

3.2.6.1 Mass balance

In a given time increment associated with the freezing process, the water mass balance analysis within a cell colliding with the freezing surface can be determined by formula (3.15) as follows:

$$\dot{m}_{imp} + \dot{m}_{flowin} = \dot{m}_{ice} + \dot{m}_{flowout} + \dot{m}_{es} \tag{3.15}$$

Among these variables, $\dot{m}_{imp}$ represents the quantity of water droplets impacting the surface, can be calculated by formula (3.16) as:

$$\dot{m}_{imp} = LWC \cdot v_\infty \cdot \beta \tag{3.16}$$

where the symbol A denotes the impingement area of the control volume.

$\dot{m}_{flowin}$ represents the mass of water flowing into the system from upstream, $\dot{m}_{ice}$ represents the quantity of water undergoing freezing, $\dot{m}_{flowout}$ represents the mass of water flowing out of the system downstream, and $\dot{m}_{es}$ represents the amount of water undergoing evaporation.

The freezing fraction is defined as formula (3.17):

$$f = \frac{\dot{m}_{ice}}{\dot{m}_{imp} + \dot{m}_{flowin} - \dot{m}_{es}} \tag{3.17}$$

In this study, the mass balance of frosty ice is considered, and it is assumed that

there is no inflow or outflow of overflow water. Therefore, $\dot{m}_{flowin} = \dot{m}_{flowout} = 0$.

$$\dot{m}_{ice} = f \cdot (\dot{m}_{imp} - \dot{m}_{es})$$

3.2.6.2 Energy balance

In this paper, an analysis of energy conservation is performed on the water contained in a unit on the freezing surface over a specified freezing time step. In the absence of anti-icing heat flux, the following equation (3.18) is obtained:

$$\dot{Q}_{flowin} + \dot{Q}_{imp} + \dot{Q}_{latent} + \dot{Q}_{anti} = \dot{Q}_{es} + \dot{Q}_{flowout} + \dot{Q}_{ca} \quad (3.18)$$

Here, $\dot{Q}_{flowin}$ and $\dot{Q}_{flowout}$ correspond to the internal energy of overflow water from the previous micro-element and that of the water flowing out of the micro-element, respectively. Since this study does not consider the inflow and outflow of overflow water, $\dot{Q}_{flowin}$ and $\dot{Q}_{flowout}$ are assumed to be equal to zero.

Further, $\dot{Q}_{imp}$ represents the energy of water hitting the wall

$$\dot{Q}_{imp} = \frac{1}{2}\dot{m}_{imp} \cdot V_{imp}^2$$

$\dot{Q}_{es}$ denotes the heat lost due to evaporation,

$$\dot{Q}_{es} = -L_{es} \cdot \dot{m}_{es}$$

and $\dot{Q}_{latent}$ corresponds to the latent heat released by the solidification of water, can be calculated as:

$$\dot{Q}_{latent} = \dot{m}_{ice} \cdot L_f$$

where L_f denotes the solidification latent heat of water and is considered as 335 kJ / kg.

Additionally, $\dot{Q}_{ca}$ represents the convective heat transfer on the surface of the micro-element body,

$$\dot{Q}_{ca} = h_{cv}(T_{rec} - T_b) \cdot A$$

h_{cv} corresponds to the convective heat transfer coefficient.

where the symbols T_{rec}, T_b denote the airflow recovery temperature and balance temperature of the control volume, respectively.

Finally, $\dot{Q}_{anti}$ represents the heating value of the anti-icing system, which is not considered in this paper, and hence $\dot{Q}_{anti}$ is assumed to be zero.

The icing amount of each unit grid within a time step can be obtained by simultaneously solving the mass conservation equation and the energy conservation equation.

For 3D application, the rime ice accretion is simulated using an assumption that the supercooled droplets freeze immediately when they impinge onto the wing surface. Since the rime ice accretion forms in an environment with a low temperature, this assumption is reasonable. In 3D application, therefore, the ice amount can be calculated as formula (3.19):

$$V_{ice} = \frac{LWC \cdot v_{\infty} \cdot \beta \cdot A' \cdot \Delta T}{\rho_i} \tag{3.19}$$

where the symbol A' denotes the impingement area of a 3-D control volume.

3.2.7 Results and analysis

3.2.7.1 Computational conditions

The present study focuses on the icing simulation of a NACA2412 airfoil of designed heavy transport aircraft, with a chord length of 1 m and a span direction of 0.1m. The computational fluid dynamics software FENSAP - ICE was employed

An unstructured grid approach is employed to discretize the grid of the potential icing region on the airfoil surface. To ensure an even distribution of the water collection coefficient on the surface of the airfoil, the grid is refined at the incoming flow boundary. As illustrated in Fig. 3.3, the total number of grids in the computational domain is 114700.

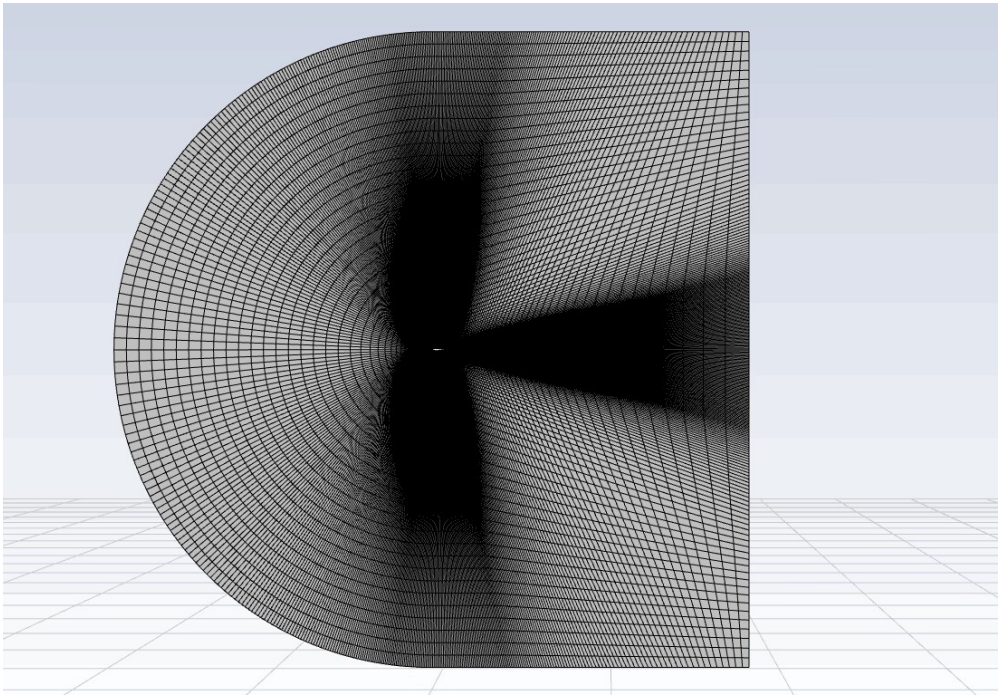

Figure 3.3 - Computational mesh of the NACA2412 airfoil

The mesh around the wing is shown in Fig. 3.4.

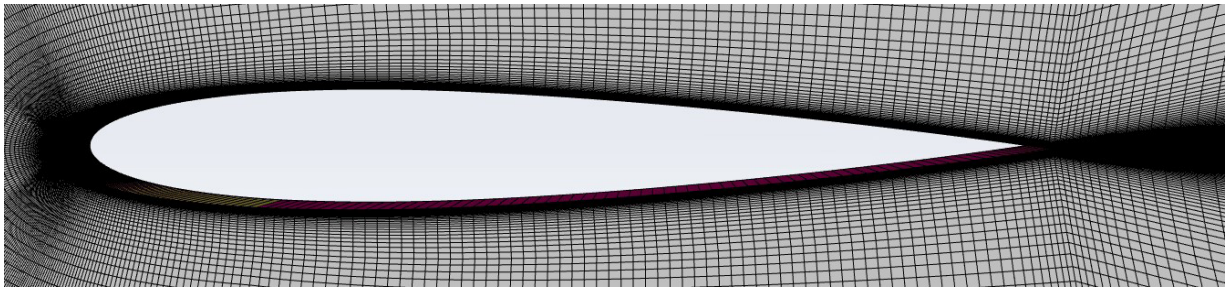

Figure 3.4 - Computational mesh around the wing

The computational conditions are shown in tab. 3.1. The symbol v_∞ denotes velocity of free stream, LWC represents liquid water content, MVD denotes median volumetric diameter, α is the angle of attack, the pressure $p_\infty = 101300Pa$.

Table3.1 computational conditions

No.	v_∞, m/s	LWC, g/m^3	MVD, μm	Temperature, °C	α, °	accretion time,min	Time step
1	100	1	20	-10	-3	4	1
2	100	1	20	-10	0	4	1
3	100	1	20	-10	4	4	1
4	100	1	20	-10	10	4	1

3.2.7.2 Calculation results

Fig. 3.5 shows the water collection efficiency of the airfoil at above conditions see table 3.1.

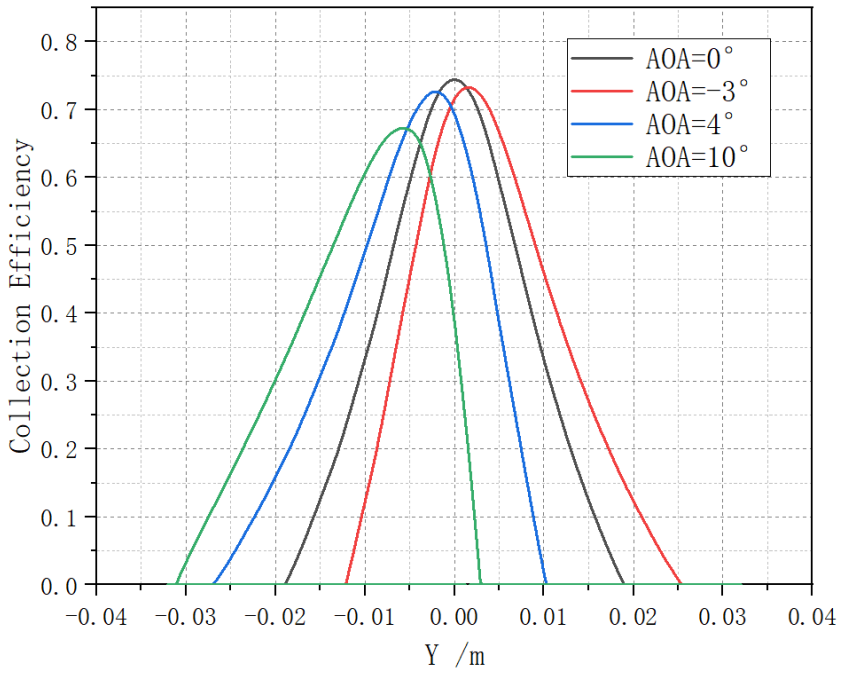

Figure 3.5 - Water collection efficiency of the airfoil

where AOA denotes the angle of attack α. Y/m represents the ratio of the arc length from the stagnation point located at the leading edge of an airfoil to the chord length of the same airfoil.

From Fig 3.5, by varying the angle of attack, it is possible to determine the impact of such alterations on the water collection coefficient:

As the angle of attack increases, the curve of the water collection coefficient shifts towards a direction where the ratio of the arc length to the chord length decreases. This observation indicates that the primary impingement area of droplets shifts to the lower surface of the wing. Consequently, ice accretion occurs primarily on the lower surface of the wing.

It can be seen that at 0° angle of attack the distribution of the local collection efficiencies is almost symmetrical.

The maximum water collection efficiency is 0.74 amongst those four curves.

The ice shapes at $\alpha = -3,\ 0,\ 4,10$ are shown in Fig 3.6.

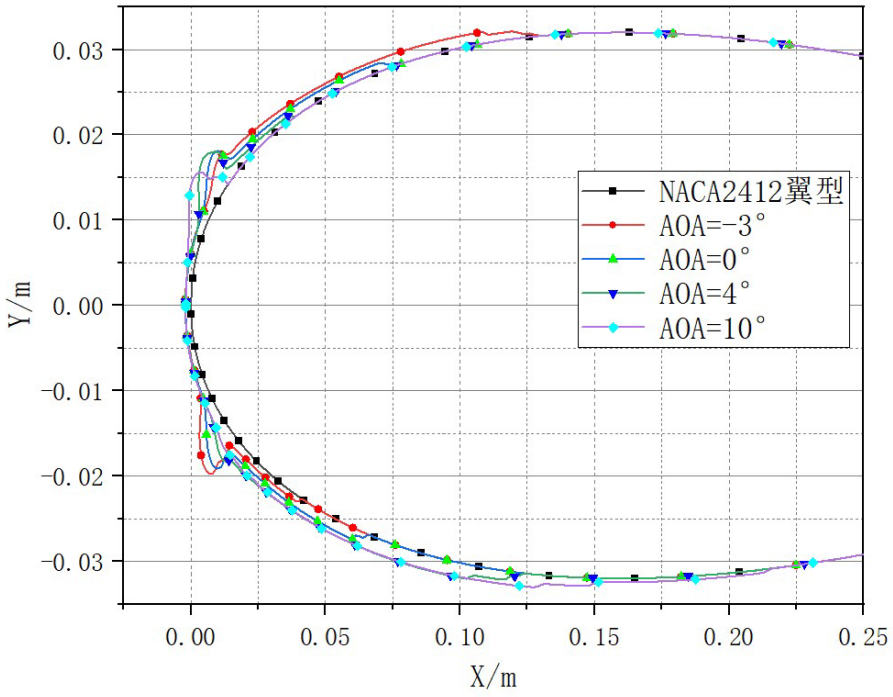

Figure 3.6 - Influence of variations in angle of attack on ice accretion shape

The ice accretion shape on the upper surface is shown in Fig. 3.7.

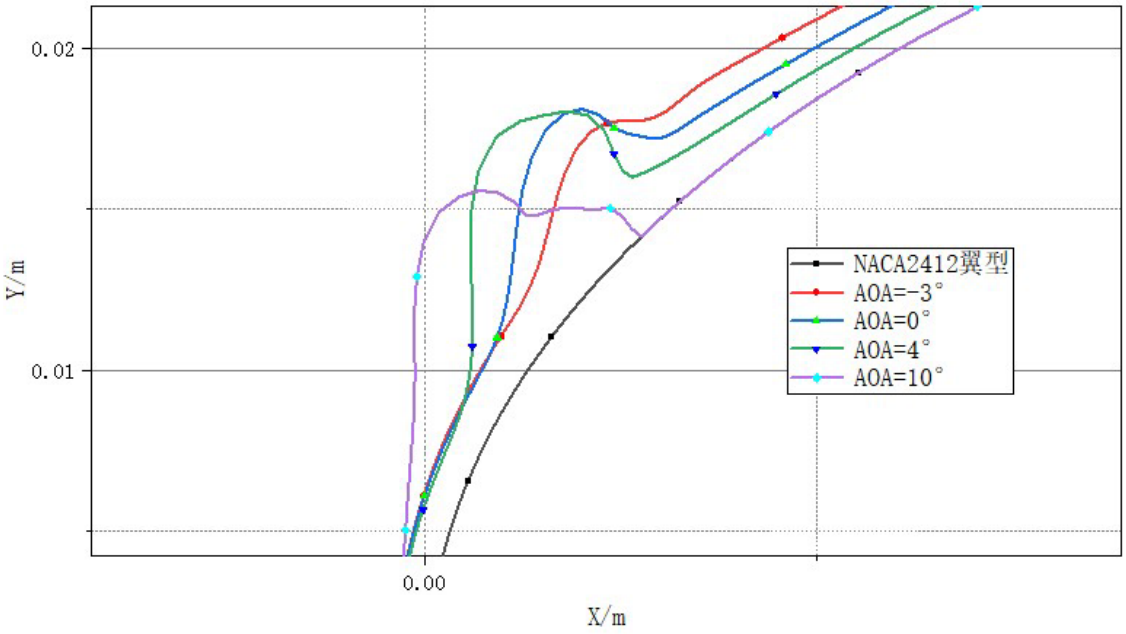

Fig 3.7 The ice accretion shape on the upper surface

The ice accretion shape on the lower surface is shown in Fig. 3.8.

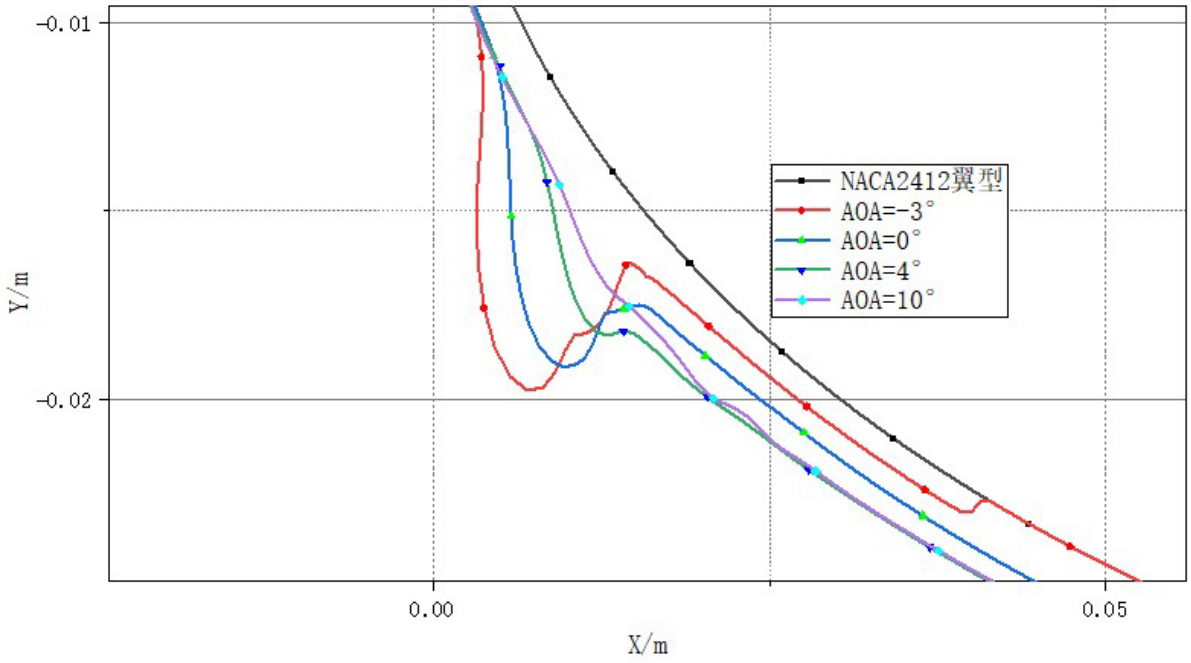

Figure 3.8 - The ice accretion shape on the upper surface

From Fig. 3.6, it is noticeable that the region of icing is primarily concentrated in the area proximal to the leading edge of the wing, with the exception of the stagnation point. When $\alpha = -3,\ 0,\ 4$,ice can accumulate in a relatively uniform layer, but ice accumulate unevenly when $\alpha = 10$. The ice accretion on the lower and upper wing surface are almost symmetrical when $\alpha = 0$.

From Fig. 3.7, with the angle of attack increasing, we can witness the primary ice area shifts to the lower position close to the stagnation point of the leading edge.

From Fig. 3.8, with the angle of attack increasing, we can witness the primary ice area shifts to the higher position close to the stagnation point of the leading edge.

3.2.9 The aerodynamic simulation of the wing of designed aircraft

Figure 3.9 depicts the mesh distribution on the surface of the wing.

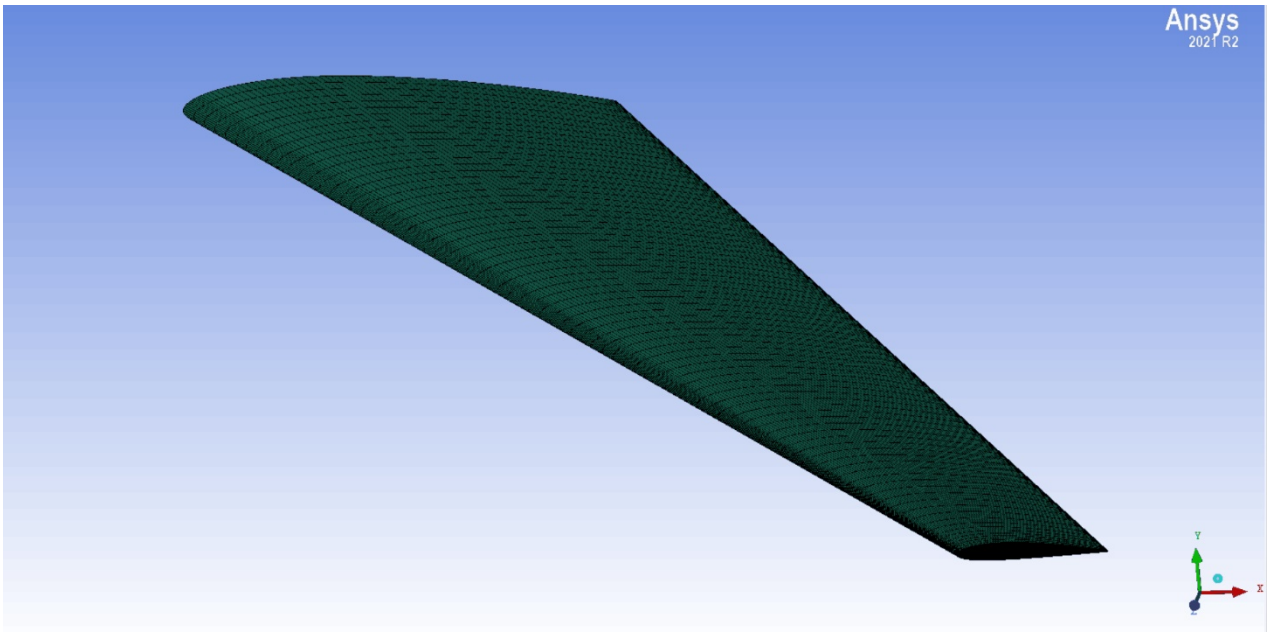

Figure 3.9 - Mesh distribution on the designed wing surface

While Fig. 3.10 illustrates the mesh distribution at the wing tip of the designed aircraft.

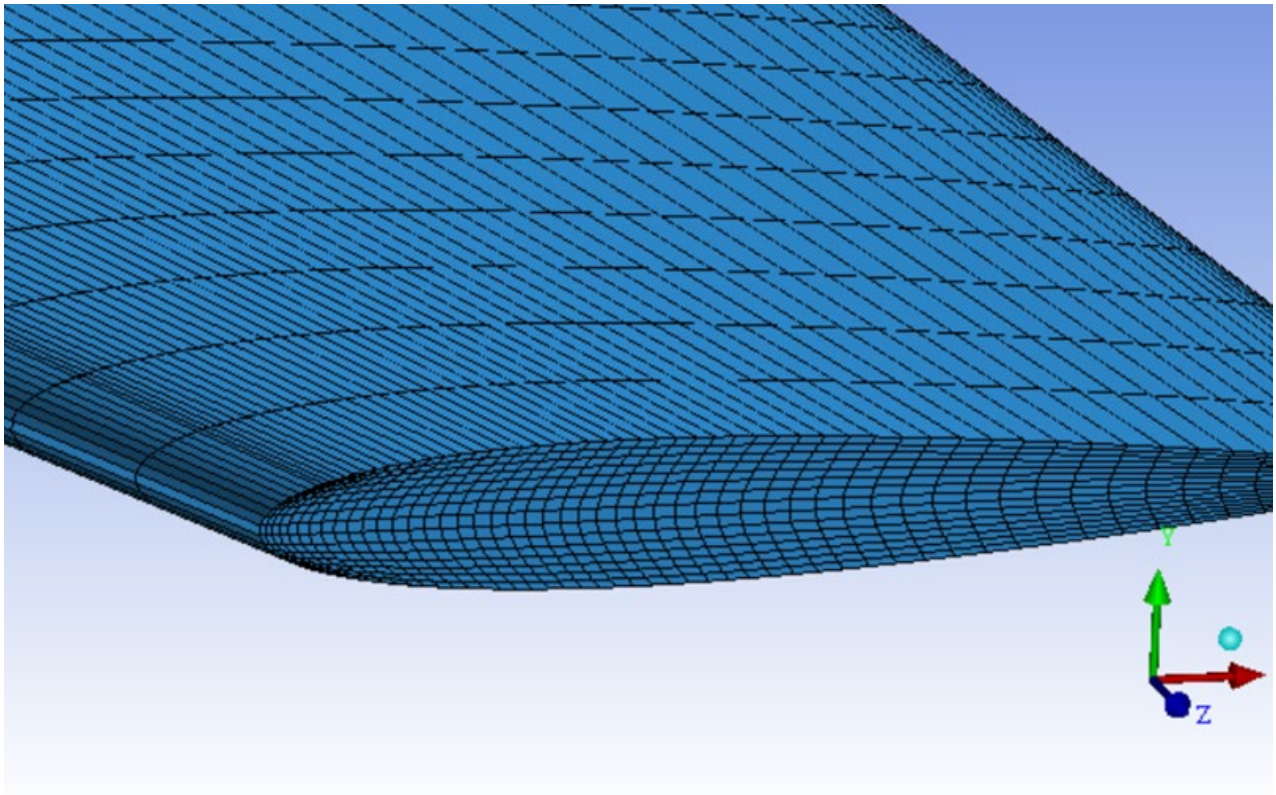

Figure 3.10 - Mesh distribution on the designed wing tip

In order to evaluate the aerodynamic features of the wing of the heavy transport aircraft design, the computational fluid dynamics software Fluent was employed. The initial data considered were a Mach number of 0.75 and a pressure of 101300Pa, with an angle of attack of 0.

Fig. 3.11 displays the temperature distribution contour of the designed wing, as obtained through Fluent calculations.

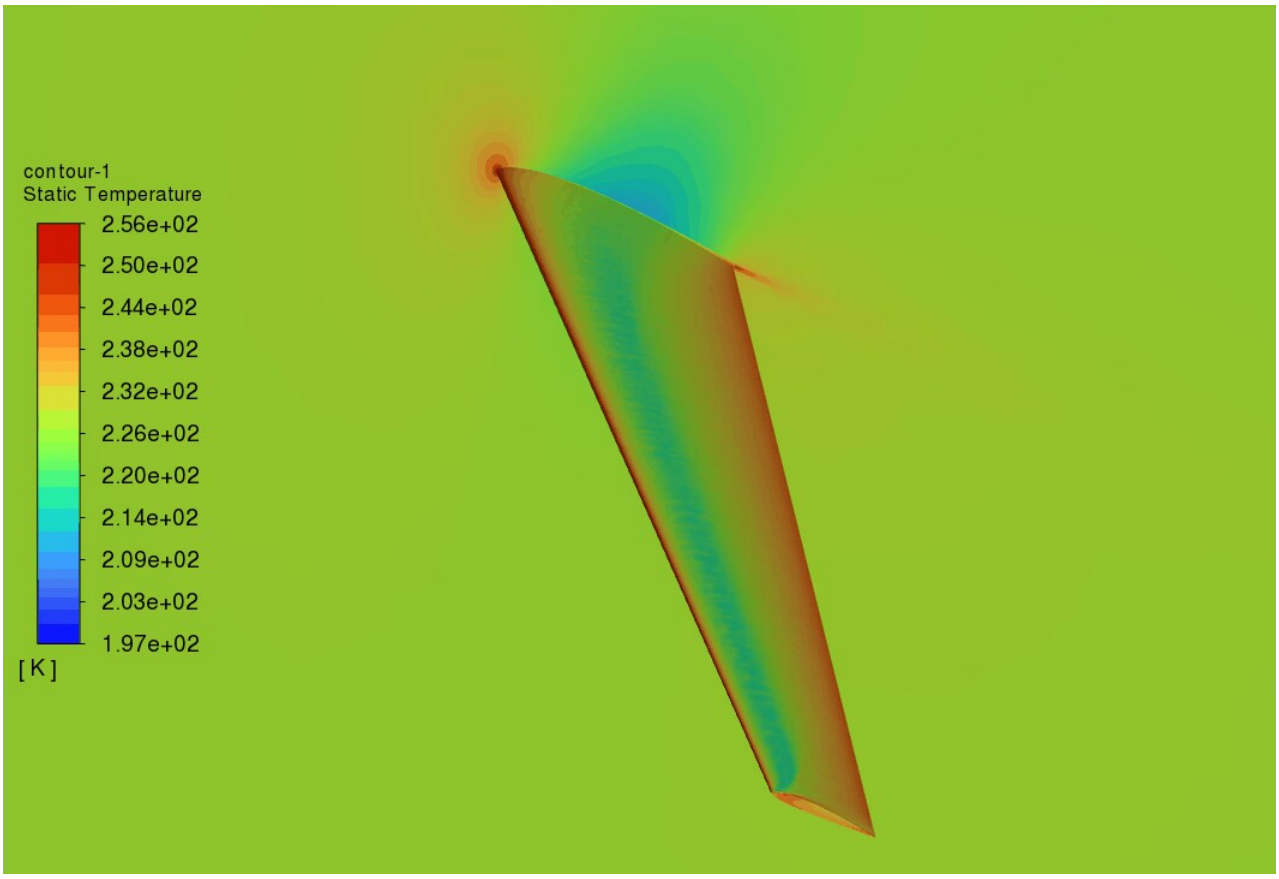

Figure 3.11 - The temperature distribution contour of the designed wing

Fig. 3.12 displays the pressure distribution contour of the designed wing.

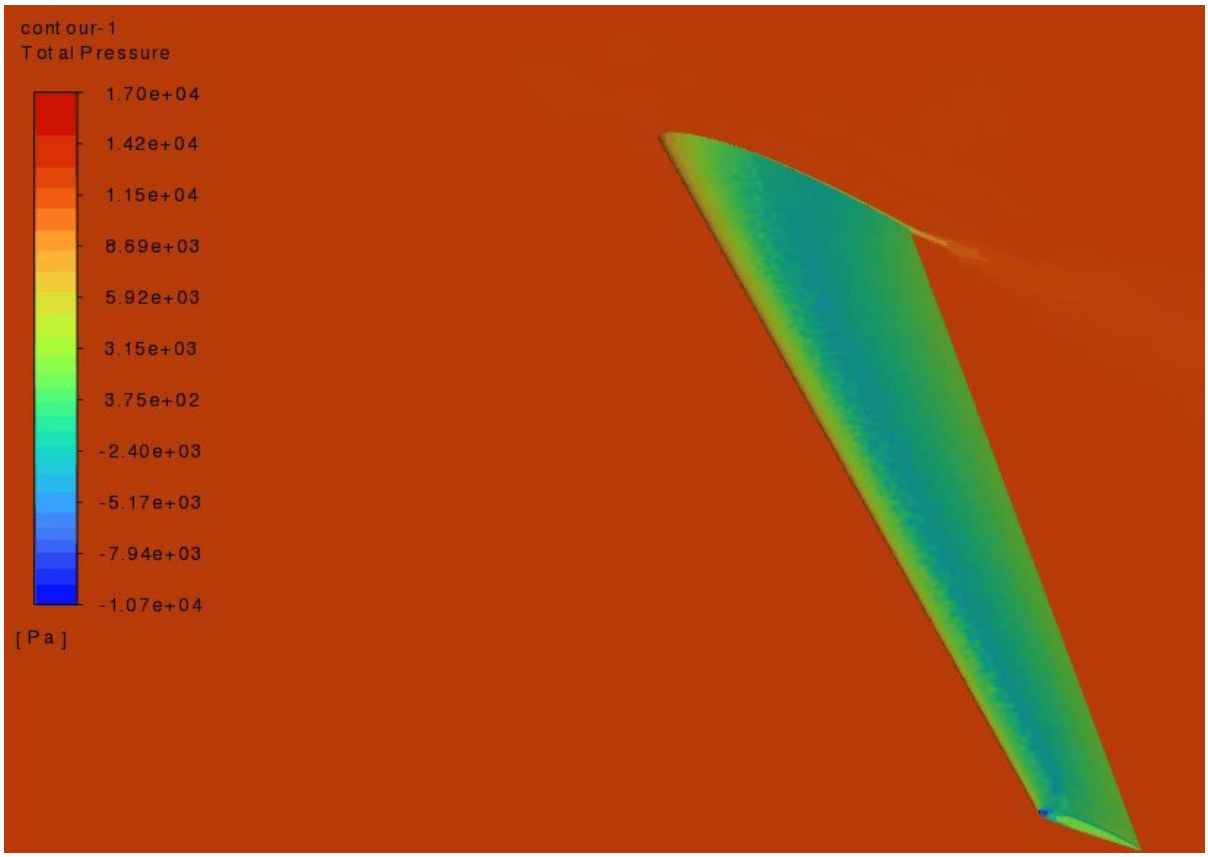

Figure 3.12 - The pressure distribution contour of the designed wing

Fig. 3.13 displays the velocity distribution contour of the designed wing.

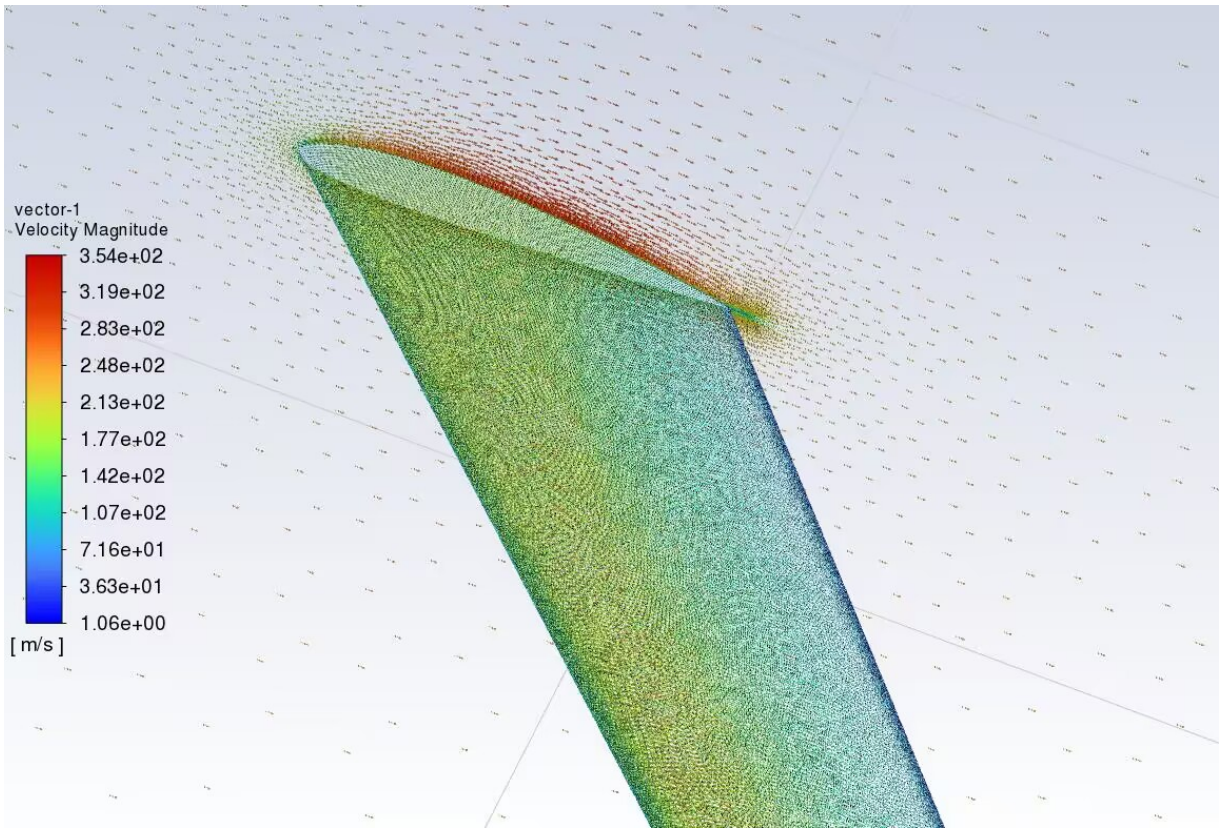

Figure 3.13 - The velocity distribution contour of the designed wing

3.2.10 Conclusion

Ice accretions adversely affect the intended aerodynamic shapes of airfoils and wings. The impact of ice shapes varies according to different conditions. Furthermore, this study conducts simulations of ice accretion on the designed NACA 2412 wing model, with reasonable and feasible results.

The obtained results provide a comprehensive and accurate representation of the range of icing conditions, ice thickness, and ice shape, thereby enhancing our understanding of the complex phenomenon of icing.

The angle of attack has a significant effect on the distribution and severity of ice accretions on the wing. As the angle of attack increases, the airflow over the wing is disturbed, causing the impingement of droplets to shift towards the lower surface of the wing. This shift results in a decrease in the ratio of the arc length to the chord length, which means that the main impingement region of the droplets moves towards the lower surface of the wing. Consequently, the ice accretion is mostly found on the lower surface of the wing, particularly in the vicinity of the leading edge except the stagnation point. This effect is important to consider in the design of aircraft icing protection systems and the operation of aircraft in icing conditions.

At a low angle of attack, the airflow over the wing is relatively smooth, and ice can accumulate in a relatively uniform layer. However, as the angle of attack increases, the airflow over the wing becomes turbulent, which can cause ice to accumulate unevenly and can lead to the formation of ice ridges and roughness that can disrupt the airflow over the wing.

Research limitations

The object of investigation in this study is a straight airfoil. Despite the three-dimensional nature of the calculations, the spanwise variations are not accounted for. Therefore, additional research is needed to examine the impact of icing parameters in the spanwise direction on the shape of ice accretions.

CONCLUSIONS

As a result of the implementation of the master's degree project by various research methods, the following results were obtained:

1 The main parameters and characteristics of analog aircraft are analyzed.

2 The take-off mass of the projected aircraft was determined in zero and first approximations and amounted to 355000 kg. The masses of the main components of the aircraft, depending on the take-off mass of the aircraft, were calculated; wing – 92300 kg; fuselage – 52540 kg; tail – 4615 kg; landing gear – 23075 kg; power plant – 35500 kg; as well as fuel – 63900 kg.

3 The basic geometric parameters of the projected aircraft have been determined: $S = 558m^2$, $l = 68.86\,m$ $\eta = 2.85$, $\lambda = 8.5$, $b_A = 8.7\,m$, $L_f = 69\,m$.

4 The centering sheet of the projected aircraft has been calculated. The position of the center of mass is at 0.27 of b_A .

5 The analysis of the effect of icing parameters on the airfoil's aerodynamic performance reveals that at a low angle of attack, the airflow over the wing is relatively smooth, and ice can accumulate in a relatively uniform layer. However, as the angle of attack increases, the airflow over the wing becomes turbulent, which can cause ice to accumulate unevenly and can lead to the formation of ice ridges and roughness that can disrupt the airflow over the wing.

6 The estimated cost of the projected aircraft for the design bureau, which is 342.66 million dollars. The estimated cost of manufacturing two prototype aircrafts, which amounted to 254 million dollars. The company's income will exceed production costs with a program for the production of more than 6 aircraft.

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APPENDIX A

Graphic materials for the design section

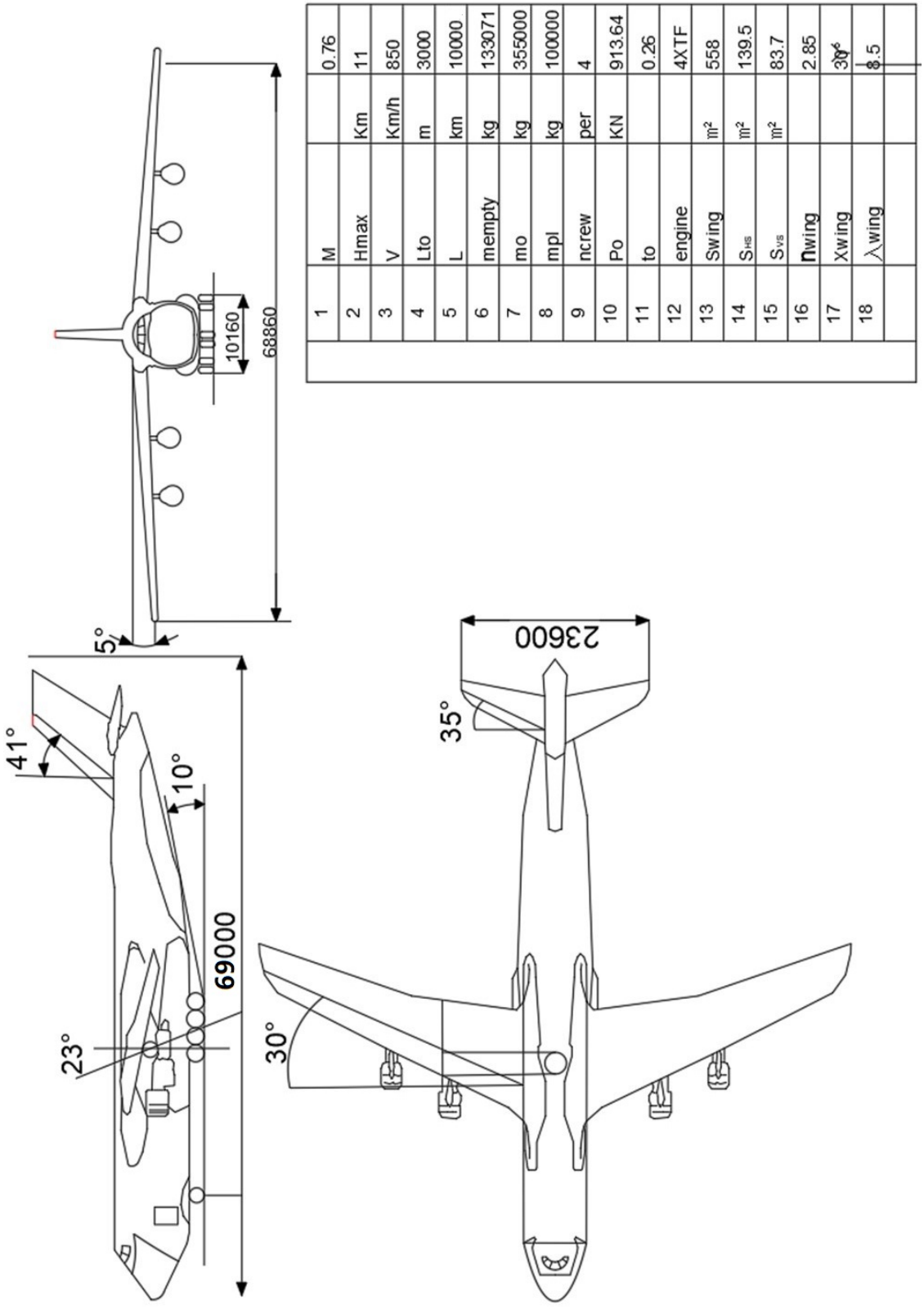

Figure A.1 – The general view drawing

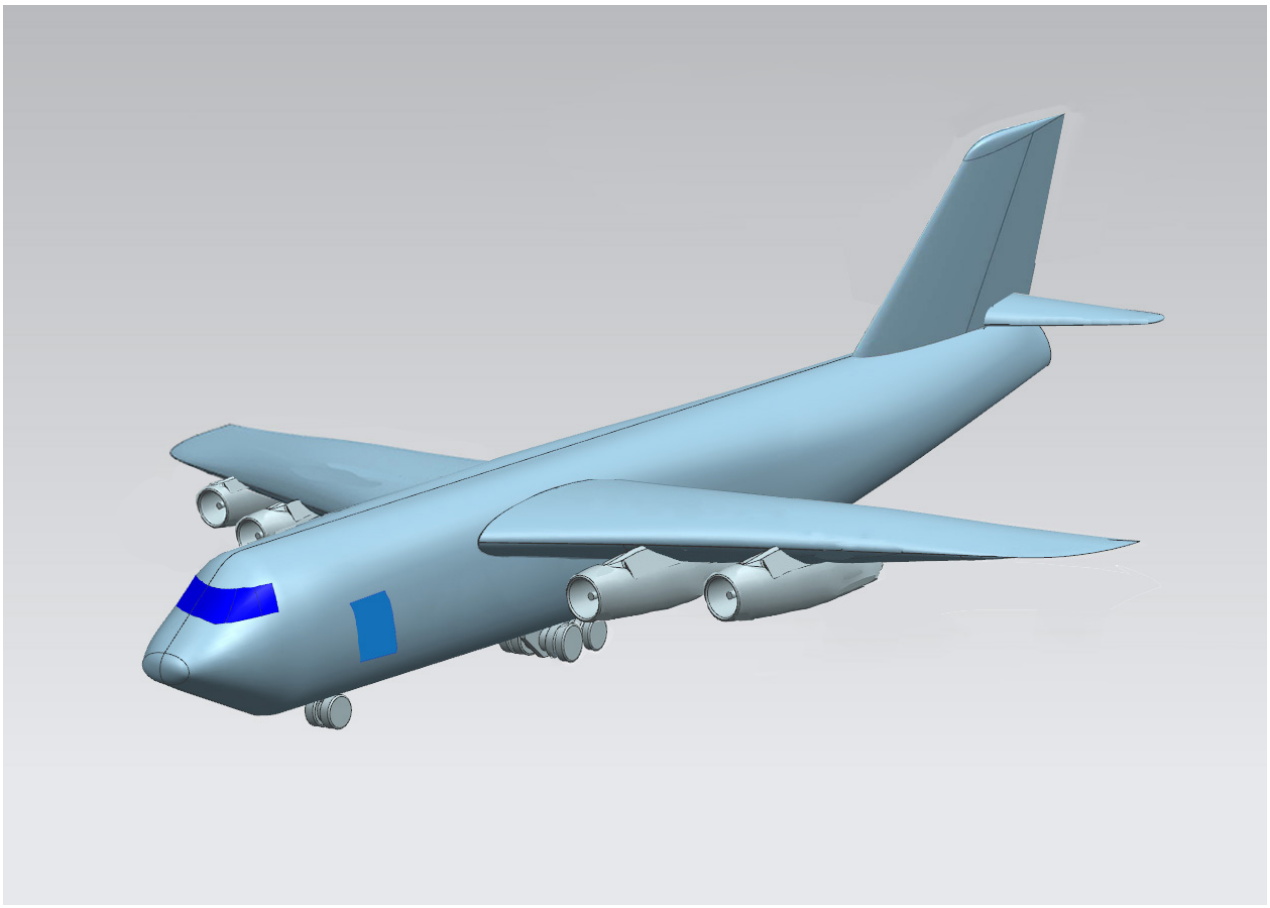

Figure A.2 - The master-geometry model

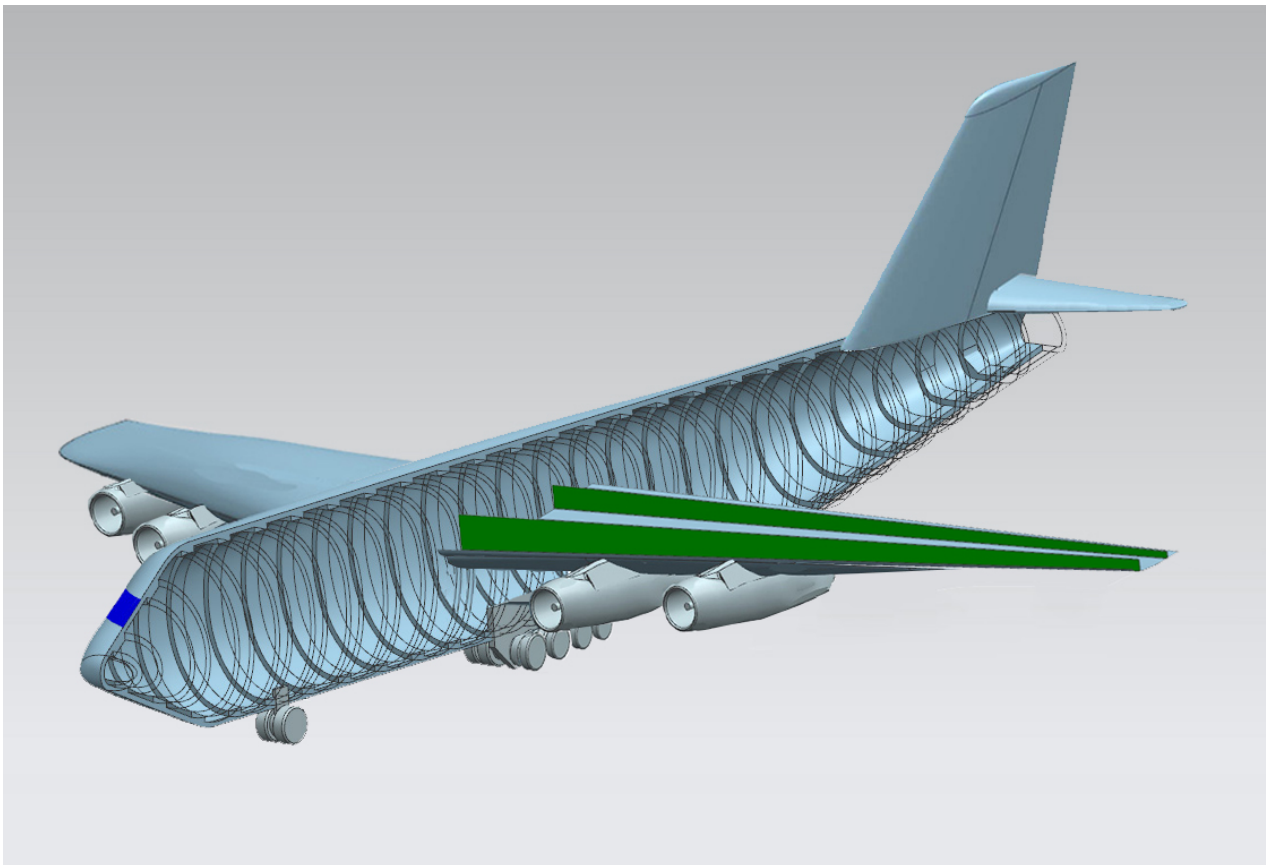

Figure A.3 - The space distribution model of projected airplane