A METHOD FOR ESTIMATING HEAT REQUIREMENTS FOR ICE PREVENTION ON GAS-HEATED HOLLOW PROPELLER BLADES

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A detailed method is presented for determining the temperature and flow of heated gas necessary for ice prevention of hollow propeller blades in flight and icing conditions. The propeller blade is analytically divided into a number of short radial segments, which are successively treated as separate heat exchangers. Expressions for the total external and internal heat transfer are combined to determine the surface temperatures of each segment. The thermodynamic steady-flow equation is given for the internal gas-flow process and expressions are obtained for the radial variations of gas temperature and pressure within the blade. For a given initial gas temperature in the blade shank cavity, the minimum gas flow is determined, which will provide surface temperatures of at least 320°F everywhere on the heated portion of the blade.

An expression for the required heat-source input to the gas is included and a formula is given for calculating the required blade-tip nozzle area.

A discussion is included of the indicated benefits to be derived from certain alterations of the blade internal flow passage.

INTRODUCTION

Thermal prevention of the formation of ice on aircraft propellers has been previously investigated by means of electrical and hot-gas heating. The heat requirements associated with the use of external, electrically heated rubber blade shoes are analyzed in reference 1. Flight investigations of thermal systems using hot gas within hollow propeller blades have been reported in reference 2, and by Palmatier and Brigham of the Curtiss-Wright Corporation.
The present analysis was made at the NACA Cleveland laboratory to provide a method for predicting the hot-gas flow and the initial gas temperature required for satisfactory ice prevention on hollow propeller blades. This method involves a system of progressive approximations considering successive radially disposed blade segments as separate heat exchangers. Account is taken of the heat required to raise the temperature of the intercepted free water to the blade-surface temperature, the cooling effect of the evaporation of water, and the kinetic heating of the external-air boundary layer. The physical changes of the hot gas in flowing through the hollow blade are determined in order to find the required tip nozzle area. The detailed analysis is applied to a typical propeller blade for flight at two assumed operating conditions at the same icing conditions to illustrate the step-by-step procedure and to demonstrate typical results. A method of modifying the blade internal passage is suggested whereby the heating requirements may be reduced for a given application of the hot-gas method of preventing ice on typical hollow propellers.

SYMBOLS

The following symbols are used in equations taken from references:

- **A** heat-transfer area, (sq ft)
- **An** cross-sectional area of blade tip nozzle, (sq ft)
- **Ap** cross-sectional area of blade internal-flow passage, (sq ft)
- **C_l** blade-section lift coefficient
- **c** blade chord, (ft)
- **c_n** specific heat of gas for polytropic process, (Btu/(lb)(°F))
- **c_p** specific heat of gas at constant pressure, (Btu/(lb)(°F))
- **D_c** diameter of cylinder whose radius is equal to leading-edge radius of given blade section, (ft)
- **D_h** hydraulic diameter, (4 A_p/P), (ft)
\[ F_{1-2} \] change of radial kinetic energy per pound of gas in flowing through radial blade segment, \((ft-lb/lb)\)

\( e \) base of natural logarithms

\[ F_{1-2} \] flow energy dissipated by friction per pound of gas in flowing through radial blade segment, \((ft-lb/lb)\)

\( f \) friction coefficient

\( g \) acceleration of gravity, 32.2 \((ft/sec^2)\)

\( H \) rate of heat transfer per unit area, \((Btu/(hr)(sq ft))\)

\( h \) convective heat-transfer coefficient, \((Btu/(hr)(sq ft)(°F))\)

\( J \) mechanical equivalent of heat, \((ft-lb/Btu)\)

\( k \) thermal conductivity, \((Btu/(hr)(sq ft)(°F/ft))\)

\( L \) latent heat of evaporation of water, \((Btu/lb)\)

\( l \) radial length of blade segment, \((ft)\)

\( M \) rate of interception of water, \((lb/(hr)(sq ft))\)

\( M_{ev} \) rate of evaporation of water, \((lb/(hr)(sq ft))\)

\( m \) liquid-water content of ambient air, \((grams/cu m)\)

\( Nu \) Nusselt number, \((h\delta_l/k\) or \(h\delta_t/k)\)

\( n \) exponent in polytropic process, \( Pn = constant \)

\( P \) perimeter of blade internal-flow passage, \((ft)\)

\( Pr \) Prandtl number, \((3600g) \mu c_p/k\)

\( p \) absolute static pressure, \((lb/sq ft)\)

\( P_v \) pressure of saturated water vapor, \((lb/sq ft)\)

\( Q_i \) heat input to gas flow per blade from heat source, \((Btu/hr)\)

\( Q_n \) heat escape per blade at tip nozzle, \((Btu/hr)\)

\( Q_T \) total heat added per blade to internal gas flow from heat source and propeller work, \((Btu/hr)\)
heat transferred through blade metal from gas flowing through radial blade segment, (Btu/hr)

\[ Q_{\text{trans}} \]

net heat loss per pound of gas in flowing through radial blade segment, \( Q_{\text{trans}} - \frac{F_{1-2}}{J} \), (Btu/lb)

\[ Q_{1-2} \]

dynamic pressure of ambient air relative to blade station, (lb/sq ft)

\[ q \]

gas constant (for air = 53.3), (ft-lb/(lb)(°R))

\[ R \]

Reynolds number based on blade-section chord

\[ Re_c \]

Reynolds number based on hydraulic diameter

\[ Re_{D_h} \]

Reynolds number based on laminar boundary-layer thickness

\[ Re_{B_l} \]

radius at any propeller blade station, (ft)

\[ r \]

surface total length of heated blade section in chordwise direction over both camber and thrust face, (ft)

\[ s_T \]

surface distance from blade-section stagnation point to any point on heated surface in chordwise direction, (ft)

\[ s \]

absolute total temperature, (°R)

\[ T \]

static temperature, (°F)

\[ t \]

temperature rise at surface due to boundary-layer friction, (°F)

\[ \Delta t \]

internal energy of gas, (Btu/lb)

\[ U \]

radial velocity of internal gas relative to propeller blade, (ft/sec)

\[ u_r \]

tangential velocity of propeller blade at given radius, (ft/sec)

\[ u_t \]

air velocity, (ft/sec)

\[ V \]

average air velocity over camber or thrust face of blade, (ft/sec)

\[ V_{av} \]

resultant or helical velocity of propeller blade at any radius, (ft/sec)

\[ V_R \]
v specific volume of internal gas, (cu ft/lb)

\[ W_{\text{prop}} \]
increment of enthalpy due to work done by rotating propeller on pound of gas in flowing through radial blade segment, (ft-lb/lb)

\[ W_{1-2} \]
net compression work done on pound of gas in flowing through radial blade segment, \( W_{\text{prop}} - W_{1-2} \), (ft-lb/lb)

w rate of internal gas flow per blade, (lb/hr)

X Hardy's evaporation factor

x distance from leading edge measured along chord, (ft)

Z exponent of Pr in determining kinetic temperature rise, 1/2 for laminar flow and 1/3 for turbulent flow

\( \alpha \)
angle of attack of blade section, (deg)

\( \gamma \)
ratio of specific heats

\( \delta_l \)
thickness of laminar boundary layer on blade surface, (ft)

\( \delta_t \)
heat-transfer length of turbulent boundary layer, (ft)

\( \epsilon \)
momentum thickness of boundary layer on blade surface at transition, (ft)

\( \xi \)
turbulent boundary-layer parameter

\( \xi_{tr} \)
turbulent boundary-layer parameter at point of transition

\( \lambda \)
propeller drive-shaft torque increment due to internal gas flow, (lb-ft/(lb/sec))

\( \mu \)
absolute viscosity, ((lb)(sec)/(sq ft))

\( \nu \)
kinematic viscosity, (sq ft/sec)

\( \rho \)
density, ((lb)(sec^2)/ft^4)

\( \tau \)
static temperature, (°R)

\( \tau_y \)
arithmetic average of static temperatures of ambient air and blade surface, (°R)

\( \phi \)
angular position relative to stagnation point on blade-section leading-edge circular arc, (deg)
ψ  angle of impingement of water droplet on blade surface, (deg)

ω  propeller rotational speed, (radians/sec)

Subscripts:

0  ambient atmospheric conditions

1, 2  internal gas at entering and leaving ends, respectively, of a given radial segment

a  external air side of propeller blade

av  average

b  outer edge of external-air boundary layer

d  datum temperature (for determining heat-transfer differentials)

f  final gas conditions (exit from last radial blade segment prior to tip nozzle)

g  internal gas side of propeller blade

i  initial gas condition (inlet to first radial blade segment)

m  mean value between points 1 and 2

s  external blade surface

w  occurrence of condensation or evaporation of water

Primed symbols denote conditions that are changed because of altered blade interiors.

METHOD FOR DETERMINING DESIGN REQUIREMENTS

Description of Solution

The determination of the required gas-flow rates for a hot-gas type of anti-icing system on a given aircraft propeller involves a tedious series of calculations. The information available at the present time is insufficient to determine
quickly the maximum requirements for a given propeller operating through a range of flight and icing conditions. Individual calculations must be made for a complete series of selected, critical flight and icing conditions. The blade-tip nozzle area and the heat-source capacity are then calculated for the maximum requirements so determined.

The degree of approximation obtained through the use of the subsequent analysis will remain uncertain until more complete and reliable experimental data are available on propeller-blade external and internal heat-transfer coefficients, kinetic heating of wet air, heat losses due to evaporation of water, the extent of heat conduction in the blade metal, and the determination of minimum standards for ice prevention.

A schematic diagram of the heated-gas flow through a typical hollow propeller blade is illustrated in figure 1. The gas is first heated by a suitable heat source, enters a stationary transfer manifold, and then passes through a collector ring and cuffs fastened to the propeller hub and into the blade shanks. The hot gas then flows radially outward through the hollow blades, which may have internal radial partitions (fig. 1), to discharge nozzles in the blade tips.

The method suggested starts with the selection of a number of operating conditions (propeller rotational speed, airspeed, density altitude, and ambient-air temperature) characteristic of taxiing, take-off, climb, cruise, and maximum speed with the determination of the corresponding liquid-water contents from the recommendations shown in figure 2. The required internal hot-gas flow is then calculated for each condition using an initial hot-gas temperature as high as structural considerations will permit.

For some flight conditions the required internal gas flow obtained in the calculations using the maximum initial gas temperature will be so low that a reduction in the initial temperature and an increase in the gas flow might seem advisable. In many cases, however, the maximum heat requirements will probably be met only by utilizing the highest possible initial hot-gas temperature because of limitations of the propeller in pumping the gas. The use of high gas temperatures and low gas flows has the additional advantage of keeping the pumping power at a minimum.

The required gas flow, which is defined as the rate that will maintain the heated portion of a blade surface at temperatures at or above 320°F, must be computed by trial. For conventional
propeller-blade designs, the point of lowest calculated surface
temperature will usually be at the stagnation point of a radial
station near the hub. Under severe icing conditions, there is no
great variation of calculated leading-edge surface temperature
with propeller radius at the inboard stations, although heat con-
ducted radially outward from the blade hub will actually raise the
surface temperatures at the inner radii. If the effect of this
heat conduction from the blade shank does not extend too far along
the blade at the leading edge, the use of the stagnation-point
surface temperature at the innermost blade segment as the critical
point for determining the required gas flow will permit more rapid
progression with the trial values and seldom will a complete
analysis of all segments be necessary.

Steps in Solution

For each set of flight and icing conditions the following
step-by-step method of solution is suggested.

I. Divide the blade into a convenient number of radial seg-
ments each \( l \) long. (In the numerical example given
subsequently, radial segments 1 ft long were employed;
experience may indicate a need for shorter segments of
perhaps 6 in. in length.) Tabulate the cross-sectional
flow areas \( A_p \), the external and internal heat-transfer
areas \( A_a = \pi D_l l \) and \( A_g = \pi P_l \), respectively, the
diameters of equivalent leading-edge cylinders \( D_c \) at
the centers of the segments, the internal perimeters \( P \),
and the chord lengths \( c \). The cross-sectional flow
areas should be tabulated for the inlet, the center, and
the outlet of each segment.

II. Determine the external factors that are unaffected by
the internal heat flow as follows: For the assumed
propeller-blade speed, find the lift coefficient \( C_l \)
and angle of attack \( \alpha \) at the center of each radial
segment by the method of reference 3 or other accepted
procedure. With these data calculate the chordwise
distribution of local air velocity \( V_b \).

A. Determine the local external air-film heat-transfer
coefficient \( h_a \) for the laminar regime (from refer-
ence 4) from

\[
h_a = \frac{Nu K}{\delta_l}
\]  

(1)
where the value of the laminar boundary-layer thickness $\delta_l$ is found from reference 5 as

$$\delta_l^2 = \frac{5.3 \, c^2}{Re_c} \left(\frac{V_R}{V_b}\right)^{9.17} \int_0^{s/c} \left(\frac{V_b}{V_R}\right) d\left(\frac{a}{c}\right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

For the turbulent regime the heat-transfer coefficient has been given in reference 6 as

$$h_a = \frac{Nu \, k}{\delta_t}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

The value of the turbulent boundary-layer heat-transfer length $\delta_t$ is slightly involved. The turbulent boundary-layer parameter $\zeta$, as derived in reference 7, is related to $\delta_t$ as follows:

$$\delta_t = \frac{\zeta^2 \, c}{Re_c \, \frac{V_b}{V_R}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

The value of the parameter $\zeta$, denoted $\zeta_{tr}$ at the transition point (appendix A), is given in reference 7 as

$$\zeta_{tr} = 2.56 \log_e 4.075 \frac{V_b \, \epsilon}{u}$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where

$$\epsilon = 0.289 \, \delta_l$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

the value of $\delta_l$ being taken at the transition point. Succeeding values of $\zeta$ may be found from the relation

$$\frac{d\zeta}{dx} + \frac{6.13 \, V_b}{V_b} = \frac{V_b}{u} \, f(\zeta)$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

where the function $f(\zeta)$ is

$$f(\zeta) = 10.411 \, \zeta^{-2} \, e^{-0.3914 \zeta}$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)
An alternate and simpler method than that above for determining $h_a$ (explained in appendix A) is given in reference 8 as

$$h_a = 0.0562 \left(\tau_y\right)^{0.50} \left(\frac{\bar{V}_x \rho_0 \varepsilon}{S}\right)^{0.50} \quad (9)$$

for the laminar regime, and

$$h_a = 0.524 \left(\tau_y\right)^{0.296} \left(\frac{\bar{V}_x \rho_0 \varepsilon}{s^{0.25}}\right)^{0.80} \quad (10)$$

for the turbulent regime, where

$$\bar{V}_x \approx V_R \left(1 \pm \frac{C_l}{4 \cos \alpha}\right) \quad (11)$$

The + is used for the camber surface and the - for the thrust face. Inasmuch as the values of $h_a$ in equations (1), (3), (9), and (10) cannot be determined at the stagnation point, determine values of $h_a$ near the leading edge (appendix A) from the equation of reference 8

$$h_a = 0.194 \left(\tau_y\right)^{0.49} \left(\frac{V_R \rho_0 \varepsilon}{D_c}\right)^{0.50} \left(1 - \frac{\phi}{90}\right)^{3} \quad (12)$$

B. Determine the rate of water interception $M$ (appendix B) from

$$M = \frac{m}{4.45} V_R \sin \psi \quad (13)$$

C. Determine the local heat-transfer datum air temperature $t_{a,d}$ (appendix B) from

$$t_{a,d} = t_{b,w} + \Delta t_{a,w} \quad (14)$$

for saturated air flowing over a wet surface. If the air flowing over the surface is unsaturated, the
local air temperature at the outer edge of the boundary layer becomes $t_b$, and if the surface is dry the air-temperature rise in the boundary layer due to friction becomes $\Delta t_a$. The values of $t_b, w$ and $t_b$ are determined from the adiabatic compression lines shown in figure 3, plotted from data of reference 9. From the intersection point of the ambient-air temperature $t_0$ and pressure $p_0$, determine the proper adiabatic line; then the local temperature at the outer edge of the boundary layer $t_b$ at any point over the airfoil is found by following this adiabatic line parallel to those shown to the local pressure $p_b$, given by

$$p_b = p_0 + \frac{\rho}{\gamma} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{V_b}{V_R} \right)^2 \right]$$

(15)

The values of $\Delta t_a$ and $\Delta t_{a,w}$ have been developed in reference 10 as follows:

$$\Delta t_a = \frac{V_b^2 p_R^2}{2\gamma Jc_p}$$

(16)

and

$$\Delta t_{a,w} = \Delta t_a - 0.622 \frac{L}{c_p} \left( \frac{P_{v,a} - P_{v,b}}{P_b} \right)$$

(17)

where the saturated vapor pressures $P_{v,a}$ and $P_{v,b}$ correspond to the temperatures $t_{a,d}$ and $t_b$, respectively, necessitating a solution of $\Delta t_{a,w}$ by trial at each point.

III. In order to determine the changes in the internal gas flow through the blade, select the desired inlet-gas temperature $t_{g,1}$, which equals $t_{g,1}$ for the first radial segment, and a trial value of hot-gas flow $w$.

A. Assume the temperature of the gas leaving the first segment $t_{g,2}$. 
1. Determine the internal gas-film heat-transfer coefficient \( h_g \) (appendix C) from reference 11

\[
h_g = 4.1 \times 10^{-4} \left(\frac{\tau_{g,m}}{A_p}\right)^{0.3} \text{w} \cdot 0.8 \cdot 0.2
\]

using

\[
\tau_{g,m} = \frac{\tau_{g,1} + \tau_{g,2}}{2}
\]

2. Determine the mean heat-transfer datum gas temperature for the segment \( t_{g,d} \) from

\[
t_{g,d} = t_{g,m} + \Delta t_g = t_{g,m} + \frac{(u_{r,m})^2 \Pr^{0.33}}{2gJc_p}
\]

where

\[
u_{r,m} = \frac{w}{A_p} \frac{R}{3600} \left(\frac{\tau_{g,m}}{p_{g,m}}\right)
\]

For the first estimate of \( t_{g,2} \), let \( p_{g,m} \approx p_{g,1} \); for subsequent trials let

\[
p_{g,m} \approx \frac{p_{g,1} + p_{g,2}}{2}
\]

of the preceding trial. (Details for calculating \( p_{g,2} \) will be presented subsequently.) As the solution is approached, this error will become very small.

3. Determine the chordwise distribution of surface temperature \( t_s \) (appendix C) at the center of the segment from

\[
t_s = \frac{h_g t_{g,d} A_g + \left[ h_a X t_{a,d} + M \left( t_0 + \frac{v_R^2}{2gJ} \right) \right] A_a}{h_g A_g + (h_a X + M) A_a}
\]
where (see appendix B)

\[ X = 1 + \frac{Pv,s - Pv,a}{ts - ta,d} \left( \frac{0.622 L}{Pb \, cp} \right) \]  

(23)

and \( Pv,s \) and \( Pv,a \) correspond to the temperatures \( ts \) and \( ta,d \), respectively, for a wet surface. Because \( X \) varies with \( ts \), the values of \( ts \) at each point must be computed by trial.

4. In order to determine the heat transferred through the blade metal of the segment, plot \((tg,d - ts)\) against \(s/c\) for the chordwise extent of the heated surface and obtain the average value by graphical integration or by Simpson's rule. The heat transferred through the blade metal \( Q_{\text{trans}} \) is then

\[ Q_{\text{trans}} = (tg,d - ts) av h_g A_g \]  

(24)

5. Determine the energy change due to friction in the segment \( F_{1-2} \) per pound of gas flow (from reference 12)

\[ F_{1-2} = \frac{u_r m}{2g} \left( \frac{l}{D_h} \right) f \]  

(25)

where

\[ f = 0.0056 + \frac{1}{2} (Re_{D,h})^{-0.32} \]  

(26)

and

\[ Re_{D,h} = \frac{w \, D_h}{Ap \, \mu g_m (3600 \, g)} \]  

(27)

6. Determine the polytropic specific heat of gas \( c_n \) from

\[ Q_{1-2} = \frac{Q_{\text{trans}}}{w} - \frac{F_{1-2}}{J} = c_n (tg,1 - tg,2) \]  

(28)
and the polytropic exponent \( n \) from
\[
n = \frac{c_p}{\gamma} - c_n
\]  

(29)

7. Determine the pressure of the gas leaving the segment \( p_{g,2} \) from
\[
p_{g,2} = p_{g,1} \left( \frac{\gamma p_{g,1}}{\gamma p_{g,2}} \right)^{\frac{n}{1-n}}
\]  

(30)

where \( p_{g,1} \) is estimated for a particular hot-gas-flow system from published experimental pressure-loss data on ducts and manifolds.

Find the change in radial kinetic energy \( E_{1-2} \) per pound of gas flow through the segment from
\[
E_{1-2} = \frac{u_{t,2}^2 - u_{t,1}^2}{2g} = \frac{w^2}{(3600)^2 (2g^3)}
\]

(31)

8. Determine the net compression work \( W_{1-2} \) (appendix D) done on each pound of gas in flowing through the segment from
\[
W_{1-2} = W_{prop} - F_{1-2} = \frac{u_{t,2}^2 - u_{t,1}^2}{2g} - F_{1-2}
\]

(32)

9. Finally, check the accuracy of the assumed \( t_{g,2} \) (appendix D) from
\[
t_{g,1} - t_{g,2} = \left[ \frac{\gamma - n}{(\gamma - 1)n c_n} \right] (W_{1-2} - E_{1-2})
\]

(33)

and reestimate \( t_{g,2} \) until the value obtained from equation (33) agrees with the initial estimate in step III-A.
B. For the subsequent radial segments, repeat step III-A using the values of $t_{g,2}$ and $p_{g,2}$ of one segment as $t_{g,1}$ and $p_{g,1}$, respectively, of the next segment.

C. If $t_g$ at any point (found in step III-A-3 for the correct $t_{g,2}$) proves to be less than $320^\circ$ F, it can be increased by increasing the hot-gas flow $w$ and repeating step III. Usually $t_g$ will be a minimum at the stagnation point and at a segment near the hub.

IV. From the final conditions of the gas leaving the last segment, determine the tip nozzle area $A_n$ required to maintain the gas flow (for unity discharge coefficient) from

$$A_n = \frac{wR\sqrt{\tau_{g,f}}}{3600p_0\sqrt{\frac{2\gamma J}{\gamma - 1}}} \left[ \frac{p_{g,f}}{p_0} \right]^{\frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma}} \left[ \frac{p_{g,f}}{p_0} \right]^{\frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma}} \left( \frac{T_{g,f}}{T_{g,i}} - 1 \right)$$

where

$$T_{g,f} = (\tau_{g,f}) + \frac{u_{r,f}^2}{2\gamma J}$$

V. Calculate the following: The required input from the heat-source $Q_I$, excluding losses in the induction system prior to the initial point, from

$$Q_I = w c_p (T_{g,i} - T_0) - \frac{w u_{t,i}^2}{2g}$$

the total heat added to the gas flow $Q_T$ from

$$Q_T = Q_I + \frac{w u_{t,i}^2}{J \cdot 2g}$$

the heat escape at the tip nozzle $Q_n$ from
\[ Q_n = w \cdot c_p \left( T_{g,i} - T_0 \right) \] 

(38)

and the heat transferred through the entire heated surface of the blade \( \Sigma Q_{\text{trans}} \) from

\[ \Sigma Q_{\text{trans}} = Q_T - Q_n = w \cdot c_p \left( T_{g,i} - T_{g,r} \right) + \frac{w}{j} \left( \frac{u_{t,r}^2 - u_{t,i}^2}{2g} \right) \] 

(39)

Thus, the effectiveness of the propeller blade as a heat exchanger is given by \( \frac{\Sigma Q_{\text{trans}}}{Q_T} \).

**NUMERICAL EXAMPLES**

**Flight and Icing Conditions**

The procedure for determining the design requirements for a gas-heated propeller has been applied to a theoretical hollow steel propeller having blades with central radial ribs, as shown in figure 1. The propeller-blade-form characteristics are given in figure 4 and other pertinent data in table I. An assumption has been made that heated air enters the blade shanks from a collector ring through suitable orifices and passes radially outward through only the leading-edge cavity in the blades, as illustrated in figure 1. The blade was arbitrarily divided for convenience into four radial segments each 1 foot long starting at the 18-inch station. The radial stations for which the surface-temperature calculations were made were therefore at 24, 36, 48, and 60 inches. (See fig. 4.) For more accurate results calculations nearer the hub may be necessary. A greater number of shorter radial segments may also be needed in regions where either the blade airfoil section or the internal flow area changes rapidly with radius.

For purposes of comparison, the calculations have been made for the two following operating conditions through the same icing condition:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pressure altitude, ft</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>18,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambient-air temperature, °F</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>True flight speed, mph</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propeller speed, rpm</td>
<td>1430</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquid-water content, g/cu m</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The value of liquid-water content chosen was based on the recommendations shown in figure 2.

For convenience in determining the initial internal gas conditions at the blade shanks, an arbitrary assumption was made that the internal static pressure in the blade shanks would be the ambient atmospheric pressure plus three-fourths of the flight dynamic pressure. The assumed hot-gas flow was varied at an initial temperature of 500°F until surface temperatures of 320°F or more were obtained over the heated surface of the blade.

Results

The general results are summarized as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gas flow per blade, lb/hr</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial gas temperature, °F</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final gas temperature, °F</td>
<td>349.6</td>
<td>320.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat-source input required per blade, Btu/hr</td>
<td>50,550</td>
<td>86,680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required blade-tip nozzle area, sq ft</td>
<td>0.00466</td>
<td>0.0132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the calculations are given in more detail in table II and figures 5 to 10. For the four radial stations and for both simulated flight conditions, the chordwise variation of local velocity ratio $V_b/V_R$ is shown in figure 5; the external heat-transfer coefficient $h_a$ is shown in figure 6; the local water interception $M$ and evaporation $M_{ev}$ rates are shown in figure 7; the local heat-transfer datum temperature $t_{a,d}$ is shown in figure 8; and the external-surface temperature $t_g$ is shown in figure 9. The radial distributions of internal gas temperature $t_g$, internal gas pressure $p_g$, internal heat-transfer coefficient $h_g$, and the external-surface temperature at the stagnation point $t_g$ are shown in figure 10 for conditions A and B.

The calculations of the external heat-transfer coefficients were made using equations (1), (3), and (12). Attempts were made to locate accurately the external boundary-layer transition points using the methods of references 13 and 14, and the theoretical transition points were found to be located aft of the heated
areas. In four cases the velocity distributions (fig. 5) have fairly distinct peaks near the leading edge and an arbitrary assumption was made that the surface roughness due to the impinging water would cause transition at these minimum-pressure points. This assumption applies to the camber face at the 48-inch station for condition A and to the thrust face at the 60-inch station and the camber face at the 36- and 48-inch stations for condition B. The resulting chordwise distributions of $h_a$, shown in figure 6 for these cases, are similar to the type shown on the left side of figure 11 and discussed in appendix A, inasmuch as in each case the transition point occurs very close to the leading edge.

The surface temperatures are obtained from equation (22), in which the external heat-transfer area $A_a$ is arbitrarily assumed to extend aft of the blade-rib center line for a distance on each face equal to half the maximum blade thickness. This assumption is to account approximately for the heat transfer to the trailing half of the blade, which in reality diminishes all the way to the trailing edge. An unpartitioned blade would not require such an approximation.

DISCUSSION

Thin-Skin Approximation

The largest source of error in this analysis is thought to be the thin-skin approximation used in the solution of external surface temperatures. This approximation makes use of two related assumptions. First, the value of $H_g$ depends on the temperature differential $(t_g d - t_s)$, in which the temperature gradient through the blade metal is assumed to be zero. This gradient and the error involved is usually small, except at the leading-edge region, for any propeller blade made of steel or metal with equal or higher thermal conductivity. Second, the heat balance employed in equation (22) is based on the assumption that the total heat transfer from the internal gas to the external air can be considered to be distributed uniformly and to pass only normally through suitable internal and external heat-transfer areas; that is, the blade metal is assumed to be infinitely thin and surface-wise heat conduction is neglected. The ratio of the two heat-transfer areas is then used to determine the ratio of the local internal and external heat-transfer rates. The error involved in this assumption is thought to be large inasmuch as the thermal conductivity of the blade metal is usually very high compared
with the conductivity through the gas and air surface films. Sur-
facewise heat conduction within the blade metal is certain to
reduce the temperature gradients indicated by the variations of
surface-film heat-transfer coefficients and changes in metal
thickness.

The two foregoing errors can be eliminated from the analysis
if the blade segments are studied using the "relaxation" method
developed in reference 15. No attempt has been made to use this
method because of the prodigious amount of time and effort involved.
The method and a sample of the results to be expected from it are
given in appendix E.

Principal Factors Affecting Heat Requirements

From a consideration of the foregoing analysis and the numer-
icial examples, the required internal heat flow through hollow pro-
pellers depends on the following factors external to the blade
surface, which appear to have the largest effects in determining
the local heat transfer through the metal necessary to prevent ice.

Ambient temperature. - With other factors remaining constant,
the heat transfer through the blade surface required for ice pre-
vention as defined herein varies directly with the temperature
difference between the freezing temperature and the datum tempera-
ture (ambient temperature plus kinetic increment). Even though
the assumed liquid-water content of the ambient air decreases with
decreasing temperatures, the heat required to maintain a minimum
surface temperature of $32^\circ$ F steadily increases as ambient tempera-
ture decreases; but, computed on the basis of immediate evapora-
tion of all the water that strikes the surface, the heat required
will decrease with decreasing temperatures because the liquid-
water content decreases. The point at which the heat requirements
are equal when computed on both bases of heating represents the
maximum possible value of heat required. This maximum value rep-
resents excessive heating for the conditions used in the examples
presented.

Water impingement. - An increase in the rate of water inter-
ception requires a direct increase in the amount of heat required
to raise its temperature above $32^\circ$ F. A more important factor,
when external heat requirements are considered, is that an increase
in the rate of water interception increases the amount of runback,
which increases the area of wetted surface and thus requires more
heat to offset the evaporative heat loss. The difference in tem-
peratures between a wet and a dry surface resulting from the same
internal heat flow can be observed in figure 9(b), where the surface becomes dry on the thrust face of both the 48- and 60-inch stations. The surface-temperature rise above ambient temperature more than doubles its value in the two instances after the surface becomes dry.

Kinetic heating. - Kinetic heating always reduces the heat requirements for ice prevention because it increases the heat-transfer datum temperature above the ambient temperature. Its temperature rise increases as the square of the resultant velocity and has a lower value in wet air than in dry air. This increment of temperature becomes important as a saving in required heat flow at high resultant velocities of the order shown in the two examples presented. A fact of interest is that heat requirements are reduced according to the square of the resultant velocity (because of kinetic heating) and are also increased according to the square root of the resultant velocity (because of the heat-transfer coefficient). The net result is that a velocity is increased the heat required to maintain a surface temperature of $32^\circ$ F first increases and then decreases; the location of the maximum heat requirement depends on the conditions involved. This maximum heat requirement probably occurs below a velocity of 400 feet per second for most conditions. Thus, except for other variations (such as changes in propeller-blade sections), the heat requirements for propellers on high-speed airplanes are usually greatest at the inboard stations. For the same reason, the heat requirements are reduced by increasing the rotational speed of the propeller.

Location of transition. - The determination of heat transfer from a propeller blade depends to a large extent on the exact location of transition. As shown in figure 11, considerably more heat transfer results over the blade faces for which turbulent flow is assumed (as shown by the higher heat-transfer coefficients) than would be the case if laminar flow were assumed. The same result is shown in figure 9, in which the low surface temperatures of the four faces under assumed turbulent flow indicate a higher rate of heat transfer. Of course, transition might be caused by water-film roughness on many of the surfaces for which laminar flow was assumed, because the velocity gradients are quite low over all the stations, as shown in figure 5.

Altitude. - The altitude-pressure term frequently appears in the analysis and its total effect on heat requirements is difficult to evaluate. The two principal effects of altitude (other factors remaining constant) on the required blade-metal heat transfer are largely compensatory. With increasing altitude the heat transfer due to the evaporation processes increases whereas the heat transfer
due to external convection decreases. Increasing altitudes have a serious effect on restricting the internal gas flow. In order to offset the reduction in gas density with altitude, the gas flow must be maintained by increasing the internal gas velocity, with resulting increases in flow friction and pressure drop. These increases, coupled with the loss of ram pressure at altitude, indicate that the required internal gas flow steadily becomes more difficult to maintain with increasing altitude and that a booster pump may be necessary at high altitudes to attain the required gas flow. A pressure boost can also be obtained by increasing the propeller rotational speed whenever possible.

Comparison of Results of Numerical Examples

Flight condition B required a larger internal heat flow than condition A for two reasons: the kinetic heating was less, owing to a lower airspeed and propeller speed, and the surface area under assumed turbulent flow was greater.

The required tip nozzle area for condition B was almost as large as the internal flow area at the exit to station 60, which indicated that the gas pressure at the tip had dropped nearly to its lowest limit and that a higher rate of flow was almost impossible without augmenting the initial gas pressure or increasing the propeller speed. If this tip nozzle area is used, the flow will become excessive under conditions of higher airspeed and propeller speed or lower altitude. The hot-gas flow could, however, be regulated by a throttle in the intake system.

The required heat-source capacities for these two conditions appeared to be very high compared with external electrically heated blade shoes based on the meager experimental data available. The high required heat-source input is, however, explained by the fact that internal gas-heating systems normally have no selective control of heat transfer and as a result much of the surface area is considerably overheated and further wastage occurs at the tip nozzle. In the examples that used this method of blade heating, only a narrow band at the leading-edge surface had temperatures near 320°F. Consequently, if a narrow strip of ice 0.3 inch wide, for example, were to be permitted along the leading edge, the internal heat-flow requirement for station 24, condition B, (most critical) would be nearly halved. This reduction would result because the surface temperature at the stagnation point could then be allowed to drop approximately 90 below 320°F and the differential (ts - ta) would be approximately one-half its original value (17.6°F). Because
the stagnation point is the controlling factor for the segment, the internal heat flow could then be reduced by nearly half and the blade-surface temperatures would remain above 320°F except for the narrow leading-edge band. In practice, the internal heat flow required therefore depends largely on whether narrow strips of ice along the leading edges are tolerated.

Suggested Technique for Reducing Heat Flows

A method of reducing the required heat flow in a typical hollow propeller blade is suggested in which the internal flow passage is altered to attain a more economical distribution of heat transfer. When it is assumed that equation (18) and the hydraulic diameter concept can be applied to internal passages whose perimeters contain convolutions, designs of flow passages can be developed whereby large reductions in heat-source capacity and pumping-power output are apparent over the typical hollow-blade interior, as shown in figure 1. Two suggested alterations are shown in figure 12 and compared with the original blade section. Using primes to denote the altered designs, the following mathematical comparisons can be shown:

For both the original and altered designs

\[ h_gA_g = \frac{4.1 \times 10^{-4} (\tau_{g,m})^{0.3} w^{0.8} p^{0.2} A_g}{A_p} \]

from equation (18). For the same inlet gas temperatures, assuming \( P = A_g \) and taking the ratio of a modified design to the original design

\[ \frac{(h_g A_g)'}{h_g A_g} = \left(\frac{\tilde{w}}{w}\right)^{0.8} \left(\frac{\tilde{A}_g}{A_g}\right)^{1.2} \left(\frac{\tilde{A}_p}{A_p}\right) \]

Setting this ratio equal to unity will permit evaluation of the flow ratio that will produce the same amount of blade-surface heat transfer as the original design, or
In summarizing these modifications, if the area of the internal flow passage is reduced and the internal heat-transfer area is increased, the same total heat transfer to the external surface can be maintained while the internal-gas flow is greatly reduced. A reduction of the flow lowers the internal velocity and the friction loss and thus raises the available internal pressure. When the flow is reduced, more heat is removed per pound of gas flow and, consequently, the gas temperature falls more rapidly and reduces the heat loss at the tip nozzle. Care should be taken with the internal heat-transfer area that some segments do not abstract such heat as to starve subsequent segments.

In addition to the foregoing reduction of heat flow, a better distribution of chordwise surface heat transfer can be accomplished by making the greatest increase of internal heat-transfer area at the leading edge by the use of fins similar to those shown in figure 12. An accurate determination of the magnitude of the heat transfer resulting from these modifications requires that the whole problem be approached along the lines of the relaxation method as outlined in appendix E. All the indications shown lead to the belief that a hollow propeller blade can be designed with
modifications similar to those illustrated, which will efficiently provide ice protection with a heat flow of feasible proportions.

COMMENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The method presented for estimating heat requirements for ice prevention on gas-heated hollow propeller blades provides integrated means for determining the design requirements for ice prevention on gas-heated hollow propeller blades operating in any selected condition. Several of the suggested simplifications and other short methods can be used where conditions do not require a rigorous treatment. Solutions by trial are occasionally required, which are admittedly inconvenient, but become fairly rapid with increased familiarity.

Substantiation of several formulas, upon which this method is based, by experimental measurements in actual icing conditions is recommended. A relaxation analysis of the whole propeller blade should be made to determine the effect of leading-edge internal ribs and the exact heat transfer normally, radially, and chordwise through the blade metal.

Flight Propulsion Research Laboratory,
National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics,
Cleveland, Ohio, June 27, 1947.
Airfoil coefficients based on boundary layer. - Several methods are available for calculating the local and average heat-transfer coefficients for the surfaces of airfoils (references 4, 16, 17, and 18). Local surface values for the heat-transfer coefficients on airfoils (equation (1)) are derived in reference 4, primarily on the basis of Reynolds' analogy between skin friction and heat transfer through laminar boundary layers, and an alternate form of Reynolds' analogy (equation (3)) is presented for the turbulent boundary-layer case in reference 16. These solutions are detailed because they take into account the variation of local air velocity and boundary-layer thickness over the airfoil surface. No account has been taken either in this analysis or in the references, however, of the unknown effect on the boundary-layer heat transfer of the heat addition to the boundary layer caused by a heated surface.

Empirical airfoil coefficients. - The methods of reference 8 (equations (9) and (10)) have been added as alternate solutions for $h_a$ because they offer easier solutions by their use of average air velocities over the faces of the airfoils. These equations require a slight but adequate approximation for use in this analysis when determining the average temperature $T_v$ because the surface temperatures are unknown. However, estimates of average surface temperatures involving errors of less than $\frac{1}{2}$ percent of $h_a$ can easily be made.

Leading-edge cylinder coefficients. - At the stagnation point the value of $h_a$ cannot be determined in equations (1), (3), (9), and (10). The suggestion is made in reference 8 that the leading edge of an airfoil be regarded as an isolated cylinder in transverse flow for which heat-transfer data are available in reference 18. When these data are used and Nusselt's number at the stagnation point is expressed as a function of Prandtl number and Reynolds number, an empirical equation for the heat-transfer coefficient over the forward half of the equivalent leading-edge cylinder (equation (12)) is developed (reference 8). Figure 11 diagrammatically illustrates the suggested technique of fairing the distribution of heat-transfer coefficients over the leading-edge cylinder into the laminar- and turbulent-flow distributions for the rest of the airfoil in two typical configurations. On the
thrust face, transition is shown to occur close to the leading edge and the $h_a$ curve is faired directly from the leading-edge values into the turbulent-flow curve. On the camber face, transition is shown to occur after a length of laminar flow and the curve is arbitrarily faired into the turbulent regime. The former type of distribution occurs in the numerical example; in certain cases on both faces of the blade.

Location of transition. - In the foregoing considerations, the location of the transition point must be determined. For increasing local pressures, the point of transition, which may be assumed to be coincident with laminar separation, may be estimated by the method of references 13 and 14. For decreasing pressures, the suggestion is made in reference 5 that the Reynolds number based on the laminar boundary-layer thickness $Re_{\delta_l}$ at the point of transition is between the limits of 8000 and 9500.

The location of the transition point greatly affects the heat transfer from an airfoil because the heat-transfer coefficient for turbulent flow is considerably larger than that for laminar flow. No reliable method is known for predicting the point of transition when the airfoil is undergoing water impingement. The presence of water on the surface probably causes transition to occur forward of the point determined by the foregoing methods.
APPENDIX B

EFFECTS OF WETTED SURFACE

Rate of water interception. - The rate of water interception is only slightly overestimated by assuming that the droplets travel in straight-line paths intersecting the blade surfaces. This condition exists when the airfoil collection efficiency becomes 100 percent. Exact collection efficiencies for airfoils are unavailable, although fairly complete data are available for cylinders. For symmetrical and low-camber airfoils the use of existing data for cylinders whose diameters are equal or related to the leading-edge diameters of the airfoils can be made with a fair degree of approximation. Accordingly, propeller-blade-section leading-edge cylinders, under ordinary flight conditions, have collection efficiencies varying approximately from 80 percent near the hub to 98 percent near the tip. The error in assuming 100-percent collection efficiency for the propeller sections is not so great in figuring the rate of water interception as in determining the extent of wetted surfaces, as discussed in the succeeding section.

The local rate of water interception $M$ is thus proportional to the sine of the angle $\psi$ subtended by the relative wind (helical speed) vector and the tangent drawn to the blade surface at the point being considered. The value of $M$ is given by equation (13).

Surface evaporation. - The effect of evaporation of water from the surface of an airfoil in increasing the heat transfer was first derived by Hardy (reference 19). He has presented an expression for a local evaporation factor $X$, which multiplies the local convective heat-transfer coefficient wherever the surface is wetted. This factor is given by equation (23) and the local rate of evaporation of water from the surface is given by

$$M_{ev} = \frac{h_a}{L} (X-1) (t_s - t_{a,d}) \quad (40)$$

Where the local rate of evaporation is larger than the local rate of water interception, the surface will tend to become dry. If the blow-off of water from the surface is neglected, however, there will be runback of unevaporated water from the leading-edge region when the rate of intercepted water exceeds the rate of
evaporation. In this analysis the surface of the propeller-blade section is considered dry aft of the point \( s/c \) at which

\[
\int_{0}^{s/c} M \, d(s/c) = \int_{0}^{s/c} M_{SV} \, d(s/c)
\]

where the lower limit 0 is at the stagnation point. For a dry surface, \( X \) becomes 1 and no surface evaporation occurs.

**Heat-transfer datum air temperature.** - The heat-transfer datum temperature \( t_{a,d} \) at any point on the blade surface is the surface temperature that would be obtained if the blade were a nonconducting unheated body. The value of \( t_{a,d} \) is given by equation (14) based on figure 3 and equations (16) and (17). The nature of \( t_{a,d} \) for a typical propeller blade operating in either saturated or unsaturated air is shown in figure 13. There are two components of \( t_{a,d} \): the adiabatic temperature \( t_b \) or \( t_{b,w} \) at the outer edge of the boundary layer and the temperature differential \( \Delta t_a \) or \( \Delta t_{a,w} \) in the boundary layer due to kinetic friction. The frictional temperature rise in the boundary layer is slightly larger in turbulent flow than in laminar flow according to equations (16) and (17) (as the Prandtl number is raised to the one-third power in turbulent flow compared with the one-half power for laminar flow). Both the components of \( t_{a,d} \) are affected by the presence of water. The frictional temperature rise in a boundary layer that remains saturated is less than the rise in an unsaturated boundary layer, due to evaporation. Likewise, the temperature at the edge of the boundary layer for a saturated air stream follows the saturated air adiabatic line.

Whether or not the air is saturated at a given point is often difficult to determine and, consequently, the determination of \( t_{a,d} \) is uncertain. In this analysis the following course has been adopted: For a wet surface, which exists forward of the point where the accumulated water intercepted equals the accumulated water evaporated (as defined in the previous section)

\[
t_{a,d} = t_{b,w} + \Delta t_{a,w} \tag{14}
\]

For a dry surface, which is assumed to begin abruptly aft of this point
\[ t_{a,d} = t_{b,w} + \Delta t_a \]  \hspace{1cm} (41)

Accordingly, only when the ambient air is unsaturated is

\[ t_{a,d} = t_b + \Delta t_a \]  \hspace{1cm} (42)
Local internal heat transfer. - The internal gas-film heat-transfer coefficient $h_g$ is given by equation (18), which appears to be the most applicable formula for determining this coefficient. The equation is based on data obtained for fully developed turbulent flow in long tubes. It is doubtful, however, whether this equation will give satisfactorily accurate results when applied to flow through hollow propellers for two reasons: (1) The nonsymmetrical cross sections of a hollow propeller-blade passage and the effect on heat transfer of changes in flow area may not be fully accounted for in an equation based on flow in straight circular tubes; and (2) no account is taken in equation (18) of local flow variations along a plane normal to the direction of flow (chordwise in a propeller blade). In a rotating propeller, the Coriolis acceleration produces radial velocities along the leading edge of the internal passage that are higher than those toward the trailing edge. The local internal heat-transfer coefficient would therefore probably be higher at the leading edge than is indicated by the average value given by equation (18).

When the value of $h_g$ given by equation (18) is used, the local internal heat transfer for a unit area can be written as

$$H_g = h_g (t_{g,d} - t_g)$$

where $t_{g,d}$ is the mean-flow static gas temperature plus the temperature rise due to surface friction (equation (20)).

Local external heat transfer. - The local rate of external heat transfer per unit area at any point may be expressed as

$$H_a = h_a X (t_s - t_{a,d}) + M c_m (t_s - t_0) - \frac{M V_R^2}{2 g J}$$

where $c_m$ is the heat capacity of liquid water, taken herein as unity. The first term of equation (44) on the right-hand side gives the combined convective and evaporative heat transfer; the second term gives the sensible heat absorbed by the intercepted water during its temperature rise to the surface temperature; and
the third term gives the heat released by the impinging water at the expense of its kinetic energy. For simplicity, an approximate expression for $H_a$ can be used, wherein

$$H_a = (h_a X + M) (t_s - t_{a,d})$$  \hspace{1cm} (45)

and the error in the approximation is small except at the leading edge where $M$ is a maximum.

Heat-balance equation. - In this analysis the equilibrium of heat transfer to and from the blade surface at any point is expressed as

$$H_g \frac{A_g}{A_a} = H_a$$  \hspace{1cm} (46)

When equations (43) and (44) are substituted in equation (46) $t_s$ can be solved for:

$$t_s = \frac{h_g t_{g,d} A_g + \left[ h_a x_{a,d} + M \left( t_0 + \frac{V_R^2}{2 g J} \right) \right] A_a}{h_g A_g + (h_a X + M) A_a}$$  \hspace{1cm} (22)

Equation (46) is based on the assumption that a thin-skin approximation can be used for determining the surface temperatures. (See section entitled "DISCUSSION.")
APPENDIX D

THERMODYNAMIC ANALYSIS OF GAS FLOW

Assumptions. - The method for determining the temperature and pressure of the internal gas during its flow through the hollow propeller blade is based on the thermodynamic steady-flow energy equation. The internal flow is assumed to have a uniform radial velocity distribution at any station. The assumption is made that for a short radial segment the polytropic exponent \( n \) of the internal flow process can be considered constant. The error involved will vary as the radial length \( l \) of the segments used in the solution. For convenience in using the polytropic relations for gas, the energy due to flow friction is assumed to be heat added to the gas at the expense of work done by the gas.

Analysis of flow process. - The thermodynamic steady-flow equation may be written in terms of the energies per pound of gas as

\[
W_{1-2} - JQ_{1-2} = \frac{u_{r,2}^2 - u_{r,1}^2}{2g} + J(U_2 - U_1) + (p_2v_2 - p_1v_1) \tag{47}
\]

This equation states that the difference between the net compression work done on the gas and the net heat lost from the gas in passing through the segment is equal to the total of the differences between the kinetic, internal, and potential energies at the leaving and entering ends of the radial segment.

For a mechanically reversible process, the sum of all the mechanical-energy terms in equation (47) can be expressed by

\[
E_{1-2} + (p_2v_2 - p_1v_1) - W_{1-2} \tag{48}
\]

where \( E_{1-2} \) is defined as the radial kinetic energy term by equation (31). The net work for a polytropic process satisfying the relation \( pv^n = \text{constant} \) is given by

\[
\frac{R}{n-1} (t_{g,1} - t_{g,2}) \tag{49}
\]

and the flow work can be expressed as
\[ p_2 v_2 - p_1 v_1 = R(t_{g,2} - t_{g,1}) \]  

(50)

When equations (48) and (49) are equated and equation (50) is substituted, the net compression work becomes

\[ W_{1-2} = E_{1-2} + \frac{n}{n-1} R(t_{g,2} - t_{g,1}) \]  

(51)

In a similar manner, the internal-energy term of equation (47) can be written as

\[ J(U_2 - U_1) = \frac{R}{\gamma - 1} (t_{g,2} - t_{g,1}) \]  

(52)

When equations (50), (51), and (52) are substituted, equation (47) becomes

\[ Q_{1-2} = \frac{n - \gamma}{(1-n)(\gamma - 1)} \frac{R}{J} (t_{g,2} - t_{g,1}) \]  

(53)

However,

\[ Q_{1-2} = \frac{Q_{\text{trans}}}{\omega} - \frac{F_{1-2}}{J} = c_n(t_{g,1} - t_{g,2}) \]  

(28)

The gas-temperature differential through the segment can now be expressed in terms of the energy quantities by combining equations (51), (53), and (28) to obtain

\[ t_{g,1} - t_{g,2} = \frac{\gamma - n}{n c_n (W_{1-2} - E_{1-2})} \]  

(33)

In equation (33) the value of \( W_{1-2} \) is given by equation (32).

The increment of enthalpy \( W_{\text{prop}} \) due to work done by the rotating propeller on a pound of gas in flowing through a radial segment is given by

\[ W_{\text{prop}} = \frac{u_{t,2}^2 - u_{t,1}^2}{2g} \]  

(54)

This equation can be shown as follows: The propeller-drive-shaft torque increment due to the internal gas flow through a blade.
segment is given by the change in moment of tangential momentum, which may be written in terms of torque per pound of gas per second as

\[ \lambda = \frac{r_2u_{t,2} - r_1u_{t,1}}{g} \]  

(55)

where \( u_t \) is the blade tangential velocity at the radius \( r \). The rate of work done on a pound of gas can be written as

\[ \omega \lambda = \frac{(\omega r_2u_{t,2} - \omega r_1u_{t,1})}{g} = \frac{u_{t,2}^2 - u_{t,1}^2}{g} \]  

(56)

because \( u_t = \omega r \). For a straight rotating channel, the increase in tangential kinetic energy between two points is obviously given by

\[ \frac{u_{t,2}^2 - u_{t,1}^2}{2g} \]

for a pound of gas, so the remainder of the total work represents the amount of external work done on a pound of gas in flowing through a radial segment to produce a change in the enthalpy of the gas.
APPENDIX E

EFFECT OF HEAT CONDUCTION THROUGH BLADE METAL AT LEADING EDGE

A study was made using the relaxation method as described in reference 16 to determine the effect of heat conduction in the blade skin on the temperature distribution around the leading edge. The original assumption that heat is transferred only in a direction normal to the blade skin, which was assumed to be infinitely thin, was expected to be appreciably upset by the variations of blade-metal thickness and of the effective external heat transfer around the leading edge.

Laplace's equation, which requires the reasonable assumption that the blade metal is a homogeneous, isotropic solid, was used with conditions at the internal boundary defined by

$$k \frac{d\theta}{dy} = h_g \theta$$

(57)

and at the external boundary by

$$k \frac{d\theta}{dy} = (h_aX + M)(\beta - \theta)$$

(58)

where

- $k$ thermal conductivity of blade metal, Btu/(hr)(sq ft)(°F/ft)
- $\theta$ $(t_{g,d} - t_x)$, °F
- $t_{g,d}$ heat-transfer datum gas temperature, °F
- $t_x$ metal temperature (surface or internal), °F
- $y$ distance normal to boundary, ft
- $h_g$ internal gas heat-transfer coefficient, Btu/(hr)(sq ft)(°F)
- $(h_aX + M)$ effective external heat-transfer coefficient, Btu/(hr)(sq ft)(°F)
The scale used was 1 inch = 0.05 inch and for convenience the solution was arbitrarily originated 1 inch in chord length from the leading edge. The metal temperatures at the starting points on both faces of the blade were assumed to be slightly less than the values of surface temperatures that were obtained in the numerical example. The inclinations of the isotherms to the surface at the starting points were estimated from the anticipated nature of the heat transfer. The values of metal temperature obtained are unreliable, but the isotherm and surface-temperature patterns obtained are believed indicative of the trends to be expected if the solution were to be extended over the entire blade cross section.

The calculated results obtained for simulated flight and icing condition B at the 24-inch station are shown in figure 14. Because heat is transferred everywhere within the metal normal to the isotherms, a considerable quantity of heat flows through the metal of the camber and thrust faces into the mass of metal at the leading edge, as shown in figure 14. The surface temperature distribution is changed and thus the surfacewise temperature gradients at the leading edge are greatly reduced. The surface temperature rise at the leading edge due to conduction in the metal is approximately as indicated by a comparison of the two curves at the bottom of figure 14.

REFERENCES


### TABLE I - PROPELLER DATA

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Station</th>
<th>24</th>
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<th>48</th>
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<tr>
<td>External heat-transfer area, ( A_a ), sq ft</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal heat-transfer area, ( A_g ), sq ft</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal blade-passage perimeter, ( P ), ft</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal blade-passage cross-sectional area, ( A_p ), sq ft</td>
<td>0.0558</td>
<td>0.0315</td>
<td>0.0239</td>
<td>0.0173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal blade passage cross-sectional area at point 1, ( A_{p1} ), sq ft</td>
<td>0.0875</td>
<td>0.0375</td>
<td>0.0275</td>
<td>0.0205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal blade passage cross-sectional area at point 2, ( A_{p2} ), sq ft</td>
<td>0.0375</td>
<td>0.0275</td>
<td>0.0205</td>
<td>0.0141</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### TABLE II - CALCULATED DATA FOR NUMERICAL EXAMPLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Station</th>
<th>Condition A</th>
<th>Condition B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blade-section lift coefficient, $C_l$</td>
<td>0.413</td>
<td>0.550</td>
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<tr>
<td>Blade-section angle of attack, $\alpha$, deg</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Blade resultant velocity, $V_R$, ft/sec</td>
<td>658</td>
<td>740</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean internal radial gas velocity, $u_r,m$, ft/sec</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>145.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Friction flow energy, $F_{l-2}$, ft-lb/lb</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>69.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Blade-metal heat transfer, $Q_{trans}$, Btu/hr</td>
<td>3726</td>
<td>5293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytropic specific heat, $c_n$, Btu/(lb)(°F)</td>
<td>0.2941</td>
<td>0.3028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytropic exponent, n</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td>0.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Station</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propeller enthalpy increment, $W_{prop}$, ft-lb/lb</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>2100</td>
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<tr>
<td>Radial kinetic-energy change of internal gas, $E_{1-2}$, ft-lb/lb</td>
<td>202.0</td>
<td>147.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tip-nozzle heat escape, $Q_n$, Btu/hr</td>
<td>35,250</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Summation of blade-metal heat transfer, $\Sigma Q_{trans}$, Btu/hr</td>
<td>21,369</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness of blade as heat exchanger</td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Figure 1. - Schematic flow diagram for gas-heated hollow propeller blade.
Figure 2. Variation of liquid-water content with temperature.
Figure 3. - Adiabatic temperature and pressure chart for saturated and unsaturated air. (Data from reference 9.)
Figure 4. - Propeller-blade-form characteristics.
Figure 5. - Chordwise variation of local velocity ratio for two conditions.

(a) Condition A.

(b) Condition B.
Figure 6. - Chordwise variation of external heat-transfer coefficient for two conditions.
Figure 6. - Concluded. Chordwise variation of external heat-transfer coefficient for two conditions.
Figure 7. - Chordwise variation of rates of water interception and water evaporation for two conditions.
Figure 7 - Concluded. Chordwise variation of rates of water interception and water evaporation for two conditions.
Figure 8. - Chordwise variation of heat-transfer-datum air temperature for two conditions.
Figure 9. - Chordwise variation of external-surface temperature for two conditions.

(a) Condition A.

(b) Condition B.
Figure 10a.

Figure 10. - Radial variation of internal gas temperature, internal gas pressure, internal heat-transfer coefficient, and external-surface temperature at stagnation point.
(b) Condition B.

Figure 10. - Concluded. Radial variation of internal gas temperature, internal gas pressure, internal heat-transfer coefficient, and external-surface temperature at stagnation point.
Figure 11. — Diagram of typical chordwise variation of external heat-transfer coefficient over propeller blade.
Figure 12. - Comparison of original with two propeller-blade-section modifications that indicate savings in internal heat flow.
Figure 13. - Diagram of typical chordwise variation of heat-transfer datum temperature.
Figure 14. - Comparison of leading-edge surface temperature by two methods for station 24, condition B.