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# Notes on the Derivation of True Air Temperature from Aircraft Observations

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Notes on the derivation of True Air Temperature  
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Definition of terms used.

- $T_s$  = true air temperature  
 $T_i$  = the indicated temperature  
 $P_s$  = the static air pressure in the absence of position error  
       (the true air pressure)  
 $P_t$  = the total air pressure or the pressure of the air if  
       brought to rest relative to the aircraft  
 $q$  =  $P_t - P_s$  the pressure rise  
 $V$  = the true air speed  
 $V_i$  = the indicated air speed if referred to slow aircraft but  
       now called the 'equivalent air speed' if the compressibility  
       of the air is significant.  
 $V_r$  = the reading of the air speed indicator in the absence of  
       position error.  
 $P_o$  = the M.S.L. pressure, 1013.2 mb. ICAO  
 $T_o$  = the M.S.L. temperature, 288°A ICAO  
 $\rho_o$  = the M.S.L. density,  $1.226 \times 10^{-3}$  gm/cm<sup>3</sup> ICAO  
 $\rho$  = air density at the level considered.  
 $\alpha$  = the air speed correction factor

$$T_i - T_s = \frac{\alpha}{K^2} \left( \frac{V}{100} \right)^2$$

- $\lambda$  = where K is the factor converting from knots to cm/sec.  
       defined in the equation

$$T_i - T_s = \lambda \frac{V^2}{2c_p}, \quad 0 < \lambda < 1$$

- $a$  = speed of sound,  $a_o = 3.40 \times 10^4$  cm/sec.  
 $m$  = Mach Number =  $V/a$   
 $k^2$  = conversion factor knots<sup>2</sup> to (cm/sec)<sup>2</sup> =  $2.65 \times 10^3$   
 $\gamma$  = ratio of specific heat at constant pressure to specific  
       heat at constant volume for air = 1.402

Accentuation of a symbol indicates that it has the value corresponding to the immediate neighbourhood of the static source, e.g.  $P_s'$  is the static pressure before the application of position error correction. All units unless stated are given in c.g.s.

Review of existing practice.

If we start with the simple relation connecting the temperature rise with the air speed

$$T_1 - T_s = \frac{\lambda V^2}{2c_p} \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

or its equivalent form

$$T_1 - T_s = \frac{a}{K^2} \left( \frac{V}{100} \right)^2 \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

then, given  $T_1$  and  $V$ ,  $T_s$  can be found.

$T_1$  is read off directly from the temperature indicator corrected for instrumental error, and, for slow aircraft,  $V$  is derived from the equation

$$V = V_i \sqrt{\frac{\rho_0}{\rho}} \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

$$= V_i \sqrt{\frac{P_0}{T_0}} \sqrt{\frac{T_s}{P_s}} \dots\dots\dots(4)$$

as described in the Meteorological Air Observer's Handbook p.42. In this case  $V_i$  is taken to be identical with the air speed indicator reading corrected for instrument and position errors. It is not necessary, however, to extract  $V$  separately and  $T_s$  is obtained by combining (1) and (4) in the form

$$T_1 - T_s = \frac{\lambda}{2c_p} \frac{V_i^2 P_0 T_s}{T_0 P_s} \dots\dots\dots(5)$$

or 
$$T_s = \frac{T_1}{\left( 1 + \frac{\lambda}{2c_p} \frac{V_i^2 P_0}{T_0 P_s} \right)} \dots\dots\dots(6)$$

As speeds increase these simple relationships no longer hold and it is necessary to distinguish between  $V_i$ , sometimes called the 'equivalent air speed' and defined as  $V_1$  in (3) or (4), and  $V_r$  which is the reading on the air speed indicator, corrected for instrumental error.

The energy equation under adiabatic conditions can be written

$$\frac{q}{P_s} = \left\{ 1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \left( \frac{V}{a} \right)^2 \right\}^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} - 1 \dots\dots(7)$$

or using (3) where  $V_i$  now stands for the 'equivalent air speed'

$$\frac{q}{P_s} = \left\{ 1 + \frac{\gamma-1}{2} \frac{P_0}{P_s} \left( \frac{V_i}{a_0} \right)^2 \right\}^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}} - 1 \dots\dots(8)$$

Expanding the R.H.S. of(8) and remembering that  $a_0 = \sqrt{\gamma P_0/\rho_0}$  we get

$$q = \frac{\rho_0 V_i^3}{2} \left\{ 1 + \frac{P_0}{4P_s} \left( \frac{V_i}{a_0} \right)^2 + \frac{2-\gamma}{24} \left( \frac{P_0}{P_s} \right)^2 \left( \frac{V_i}{a_0} \right)^4 + \dots \right\} \dots\dots(9)$$

Now, in U.K. air speed indicators are calibrated according to the formula

$$q = \frac{\rho_0 V_r^3}{2} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{V_r}{a_0} \right)^2 \right\} \dots\dots\dots(10)$$

In the absence of position error, when  $V_r$  would refer to the reading of the air speed indicator in the free air stream, (9) and (10)

together give the relation between  $V_1$  and  $V_R$ , namely,

$$V_R^2 \left( 1 + \frac{V_R^2}{4a_0^2} \right) = V_1^2 \left( 1 + \frac{P_0}{4P_S} \left( \frac{V_1}{a_0} \right)^2 + \frac{2-\gamma}{24} \left( \frac{P_0}{P_S} \right)^2 \left( \frac{V_1}{a_0} \right)^4 + \dots \right) \dots(11)$$

Many sets of tables are available giving the values of  $V_1$  corresponding to values of  $V_R$ , and the conversion from  $V_R$  to  $V_1$  is termed 'correcting for the compressibility error'.

If in (4),  $V_R$  were used as  $V_1$ , then the value of  $V$  which would be obtained would be too large by an amount  $\Delta V$  where, if all terms containing  $(V_j/a_0)^8$  or smaller be neglected,

$$\Delta V = 0.285 \sqrt{\frac{P_0}{\rho}} \left\{ \frac{P_0}{P} - 1 \right\} \left( \frac{V_1}{100} \right)^3 \dots\dots\dots(12)$$

$$= 0.285 \frac{P_0 T_0}{P_0 T_S} \left\{ \frac{P_0}{P} - 1 \right\} \left( \frac{V}{100} \right)^3 \dots\dots\dots(13)$$

In table 1 are given some of the values of  $\Delta V$  from (13) for three selected air speeds and three altitudes,  $T_S$  being assumed to have the values corresponding to an ICAN atmosphere. The table also shows the errors in  $T_S$  which would arise from using  $V_R$  for  $V_1$  in (4) assuming  $\lambda = 10^{-4} \times 2c_p/K^2$  (i.e.  $\alpha = 1$ ). The temperature errors have been converted to  $^{\circ}F$  for convenience.

Table 1.

Pressure Altitude mb.	True air speed in knots					
	200		300		400	
	error in air speed knots	error in temperature $^{\circ}F$	error in air speed knots	error in temp. $^{\circ}F$	error in air speed knots	error in temp. $^{\circ}F$
500	1.28	0.09	4.3	0.46	10.2	1.5
300	2.0	0.14	6.7	0.66	16.0	2.3
150	2.6	0.19	8.6	0.87	20.5	2.9

When the position error has to be taken into account then, assuming the position error to be in the form of a static pressure correction  $\Delta P_S$  the value of  $V_R$  should first be adjusted by applying the correction  $\Delta V_R$  corresponding to  $\Delta P_S$  obtained by differentiation of (10)

$$\Delta V_R = - \frac{\Delta P_S}{\rho_0 V_R^2 (1 + V_R^2/2a_0^2)} \dots\dots\dots(14)$$

In this expression accents indicate values referred to the neighbourhood of the static source, i.e. before the position error has been applied. If desired, the tables or graphs giving  $V_1$  in terms of  $V_R$  from (11) can be modified with the aid of (14) to give  $V_1$  directly from  $V_R'$  thus combining the two steps  $V_R' \rightarrow V_R$ ,  $V_R \rightarrow V_1$  into one.

Charnley and Fleming (Ref.1) however prefer to insert the correction for position error after the correction for compressibility which means working with elaborate correction formulae but which, since the two steps are finally combined, comes to the same in the end.

In the method of approach to the true air temperature outlined above, the introduction of such terms as the 'indicated air speed' and the 'equivalent air speed' produces artificial errors which have thenceforth to be eliminated by manipulating awkward mathematical formulae. It is therefore more logical and much simpler not to employ the terms  $V_R$  and  $V_1$  but to use instead the pressure terms from which they are derived, namely  $q$  and  $P_S$ . In the method which will now be described this course has been adopted and a much neater analysis is obtained which leads to a more rapid derivation of the true air temperature.

Re-writing (1)

$$T_1 - T_s = \frac{\lambda V^2}{2c_p}$$

and putting  $a^2 = \gamma(c_p - c_v)T_s$  we get

$$T_1 - T_s = \frac{\lambda V^2 (\gamma - 1) T_s}{2a^2} \dots\dots\dots(15)$$

or  $T_s = \frac{T_1}{1 + \lambda(\gamma - 1)m^2/2} \dots\dots\dots(16)$

It will be seen that (15) and (5) and (16) and (6) are equivalent forms. Now from (7) remembering that  $m^2 = V^2/a^2 = V^2\rho/\gamma P$

$$\frac{\gamma - 1}{2} m^2 = \left(1 + \frac{q}{P}\right) \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} - 1 \dots\dots\dots(17)$$

For purposes of reference denote either side of this equation by F

i.e.  $F\left(\frac{q}{P}\right) = \left(1 + \frac{q}{P}\right) \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} - 1$

Equation (16) can now be written

$$T_s = \frac{T_1}{1 + \lambda \left[ \left(1 + \frac{q}{P_s}\right) \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} - 1 \right]} \dots\dots(18)$$

Equation (18) gives a direct expression for  $T_s$  in terms of the known quantities  $q$ ,  $P_s$  and  $T_1$  for a thermometer of known  $\lambda$ , and incorporates all the steps represented by equations (5) to (11). If, in addition,  $q/P_s$  be treated as one variable,  $T_s$  could be obtained from one set of tables involving  $T_1$  and  $q/P_s$ , given  $\lambda$ .

It follows from what is discussed in the Appendix that, if interpolation is allowed, tables of this type could be constructed having some eighty-four entries of  $q/P_s$  against, say, two hundred entries of temperature in degrees Fahrenheit, and that a separate set of such tables would be required for each value of  $\lambda$ . If these figures were represented graphically then several curves corresponding to several values of the parameter  $\lambda$  could be drawn and the whole set of information would be contained on one graph.

To give the required degree of accuracy, however, without interpolation, the tables would have to contain at least ten times as many entries of  $q/P_s$  and at least twice as many entries of  $T_1$  which would make them unwieldy for normal observing duty. It is better therefore, in computing  $T_s$  from equation (18), first to form the function  $F(q/P)$  by the aid of tables and then to complete the calculation by slide rule. Table II, which is described in detail in the Appendix, gives values of  $F(q/P)$  in terms of  $q/P$  and Figure 1 shows  $F(q/P)$  graphically.

The use of  $q$  in these calculations raises the question of whether it is worth having instruments calibrated in terms of  $q$  instead of  $V_r$  as at present. Meanwhile, however,  $q$  can be obtained readily by a straight conversion from  $V_r$  using equation (10). The pressure equivalents,  $q$ , of values of  $V_r$  over the range 200-600 knots are given in table III.

The successive steps in both methods are compared below, it being assumed that all instrumental readings have been corrected for instrumental errors.

Existing method using  $V_i$

- (i) Apply the position error correction.
- (ii) Convert  $V_r$  to  $V_1$  by applying the compressibility correction.
- (iii) Using (5) or (6) obtain  $T_s$  by slide rule

OR

- (i) Apply the compressibility correction to  $V_r$
- (ii) Apply the position error correction to the result of (i) to get  $V_1$

(1.1.1) As before.

As already mentioned, steps (1) and (1.1) may be combined but, as this means the manipulation of three variables  $V_r$ ,  $P_s$  and the position error to give  $V_1$ , the combination can only be rendered graphically.

Alternative method using q.

- (1) Apply position error corrections to  $q'$  and  $P_s'$ .
- (1.1) Form the function  $F(q/P)$  from tables.
- (1.1.1) Use (18) and obtain  $T_s$  by slide rule.

Discussion.

In the first method, the application of the position error (if we do not wish to use the multitudinous graphs which result from combining steps (i) and (1.1),) entails making some side calculations or using subsidiary graphs or tables based on equation (14) or similar. Also, in the step to  $V_1$ , the pressure occurs as an additional parameter which, even if the applications of position error and compressibility error are separated, means taking account simultaneously of  $P_s$  and  $V_r$ , whereas, in the alternative method, the replacement of  $V_r$  by  $q$ , eliminating  $V_r$  from the argument, allows the ratio  $q/P_s$  to appear as an independent variable, thus simplifying the analysis.

Furthermore step (1.1.1) in the first method still contains the extra variable  $P_s$ , in addition to  $V_1$ , and is therefore longer than the corresponding step (ii) in the alternative method which contains only  $F(q/P)$ .

Reference.

- (1) CHARNLEY W. J. and FLEMING I, Corrections applied to air-speed indicator and altimeter readings for position error and compressibility effects.  
R.A.E. Report No. Aero 2299, February 1949. A.R.C. 12,365.

Appendix.

The pressure rise which we have called  $q$  could be obtained either directly from the airspeed indicator or else from a second aneroid measuring the total pressure  $P_t$ . The proportional error in the first case, (obtained by logarithmic differentiation of (18), assuming  $\lambda = 1$  and  $\Delta T_i = 0$  to simplify the formulae) is given by

$$\left(\frac{\Delta T_s}{T_s}\right)_q = \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \frac{\frac{q}{P_s}}{1 + \frac{q}{P_s}} \left( \frac{\Delta P_s}{P_s} - \frac{\Delta q}{q} \right) \dots\dots\dots(19)$$

i.e.  $\left| \left(\frac{\Delta T_s}{T_s}\right)_q \right|_{\max} = \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \frac{\frac{q}{P}}{1 + \frac{q}{P}} \left( \left| \frac{\Delta P_s}{P_s} \right| + \left| \frac{\Delta q}{q} \right| \right) \dots\dots\dots(20)$

Likewise in the second case from (18) putting  $1 + \frac{q}{P_s} = \frac{P_t}{P_s}$

$$\left(\frac{\Delta T_s}{T_s}\right)_{P_t} = \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \left( \frac{\Delta P_s}{P_s} - \frac{\Delta P_t}{P_t} \right) \dots\dots\dots(21)$$

i.e.  $\left| \left(\frac{\Delta T_s}{T_s}\right)_{P_t} \right|_{\max} = \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \left( \left| \frac{\Delta P_s}{P_s} \right| + \left| \frac{\Delta P_t}{P_t} \right| \right) \dots\dots\dots(22)$

If  $\Delta P$  represents a position error then  $\Delta P_s = -\Delta q$ ,  $\Delta P_t = 0$  which makes (19) and (21) identical. If, however,  $\Delta P$  is an instrumental error then  $\left| \frac{\Delta P_s}{P_s} \right| = \left| \frac{\Delta P_t}{P_t} \right|$  and to the same order also  $= \left| \frac{\Delta q}{q} \right|$  so that the ratio

$$\left| \left(\frac{\Delta T_s}{T_s}\right)_q \right|_{\max} / \left| \left(\frac{\Delta T_s}{T_s}\right)_{P_t} \right|_{\max} = \frac{\frac{q}{P}}{1 + \frac{q}{P}} < 1$$

From which it follows that it is advantageous to measure  $q$  directly in

preference to  $P_t$ .

Present types of aneroid altimeters and airspeed indicators after correction for instrumental errors are accurate to one per cent and if great care is taken and corrections applied also for changes with temperature then one half per cent can be obtained. For our purpose we will take the figure one per cent as representing the accuracy of altimeters and air-speed indicators.

Now for any small variation in  $q/P$  of value  $\Delta(q/P)$  the corresponding proportional variation in  $T$ , namely  $\Delta T_s/T_s$  is, from (18) by differentiation, assuming  $\lambda = 1$ , and omitting any variation in  $T_i$  for the moment,

$$\frac{\Delta T}{T} = - \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \frac{\Delta(q/P)}{1 + \frac{q}{P}} \dots\dots\dots(23)$$

Also 
$$\Delta\left(\frac{q}{P}\right) = \frac{q}{P} \left( \frac{\Delta q}{q} - \frac{\Delta P}{P} \right) \dots\dots\dots(24)$$

So that 
$$\left| \Delta\left(\frac{q}{P}\right) \right|_{\max} = \frac{q}{P} \left( \left| \frac{\Delta q}{q} \right|_{\max} + \left| \frac{\Delta P}{P} \right|_{\max} \right) \dots\dots\dots(25)$$

If we take 
$$\left| \frac{\Delta q}{q} \right|_{\max} = \left| \frac{\Delta P}{P} \right|_{\max} = 0.01$$

then from (24) 
$$\left| \Delta\left(\frac{q}{P}\right) \right|_{\max} = \frac{q}{P} (0.02)$$

and hence 
$$\left| \frac{\Delta T}{T} \right|_{\max} = 0.02 \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma} \frac{\frac{q}{P}}{1 + \frac{q}{P}}$$

$$= 0.00572 \frac{\frac{q}{P}}{1 + \frac{q}{P}} \dots\dots\dots(26)$$

The values of  $\left| \Delta(q/P) \right|_{\max}$  and  $\left| \Delta T/T \right|_{\max}$  for different values of  $q/P$  are given below.

$q/P$	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9
$\left  \Delta(q/P) \right _{\max}$	.002	.004	.006	.008	.010	.012	.014	.016	.018
$\left  \Delta T/T \right _{\max} \times 10^3$	.52	.95	1.32	1.63	1.90	2.14	2.35	2.54	2.71

As would be expected the accuracy falls off at the higher speeds and higher altitudes which correspond to larger values of  $q/P$ . At a M.S.L. temperature of  $15^\circ\text{C}$  ( $288^\circ\text{A}$ ) and  $q/P = 0.1$ ,  $\Delta T = 0.15^\circ\text{C}$  ( $0.27^\circ\text{T}$ ) and at  $-53^\circ\text{C}$  ( $220^\circ\text{A}$ ) and  $q/P = 0.8$ ,  $\Delta T = 0.56^\circ\text{C}$  ( $1^\circ\text{T}$ ).

The values for  $\left| \Delta(q/P) \right|_{\max}$  in the second line suggest that if a table for  $F(q/P)$  were being constructed it would be sufficient for entries of  $q/P$  to be made at intervals of 0.001 which would then provide values of  $T$  to within the limits of instrumental accuracy.

For a pressure range of 1000 - 100 mb. approx. and indicated air speeds between 200 and 600 knots, but for true air speed not exceeding the speed of sound, the values of  $q/P$  vary between 0.06 and 0.893, tables for  $F(q/P)$  for values of  $q/P$ , spaces at intervals of 0.001 would contain 833 entries but would give the desired precision without the need for interpolation. A coarser table with steps in  $q/P$  of 0.01 would contain 84 entries, but, to get the required degree of accuracy, intermediate values would have to be interpolated which would not be practical when converting numerous temperature readings.

The limits of accuracy in the derived value of the true air temperature also depend, of course, on the accuracy in the reading of  $T_i$ . With a good aircraft thermometer using a null-reading type indicator the reading can be made to  $0.1^\circ\text{F}$ , and, with pointer indicators or with recorders, the best accuracy that can be expected from existing equipment is  $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{F}$ . Adding these errors to the others arising from the pressure instruments gives, with null reading type indicators, for  $q/P = 0.1$  and  $T = 15^\circ\text{C}$  ( $59^\circ\text{F}$ )



an accuracy to about  $\pm 0.4^{\circ}\text{F}$ , and at the other end of the scale for  $q/P = 0.8$  and  $T = -53^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $-63^{\circ}\text{F}$ ) an accuracy to about  $\pm 1.1^{\circ}\text{F}$  while with pointer indicators or recorders these figures would be larger by  $0.5^{\circ}\text{F}$ . In all cases it is assumed that  $\lambda$  is known and that no error arises from variations in  $\lambda$ .

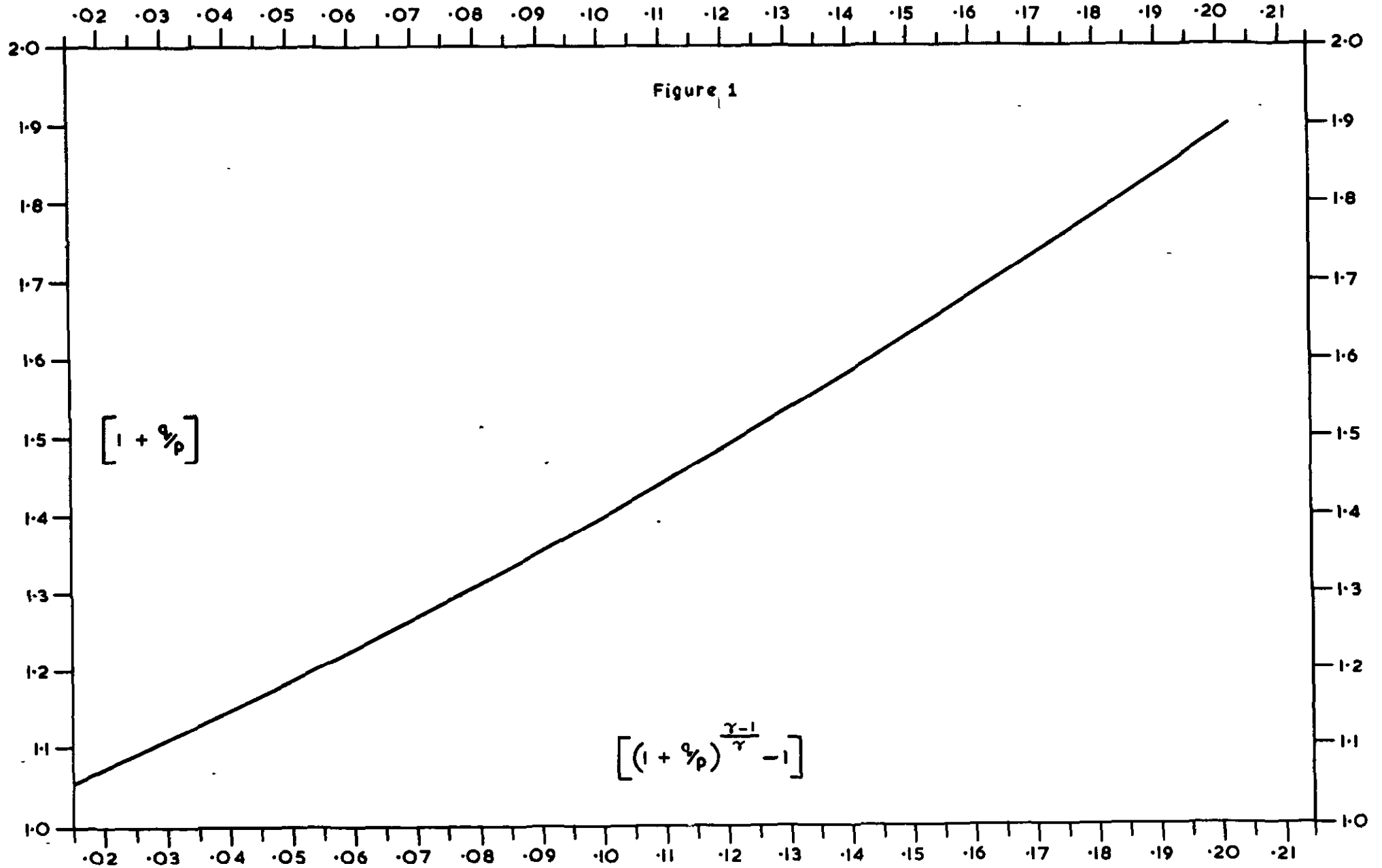
TABLE II

$F\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \left(1 + \frac{q}{p}\right) \frac{Y-1}{Y} - 1$										
q/p	0	.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.07	.08	.09
.0							.017	.020	.022	.025
.1	.028	.030	.033	.035	.039	.041	.043	.046	.048	.052
.2	.054	.056	.059	.061	.064	.066	.069	.071	.074	.076
.3	.078	.080	.082	.085	.087	.090	.092	.094	.096	.099
.4	.101	.104	.106	.108	.110	.113	.114	.117	.119	.121
.5	.123	.126	.127	.129	.132	.134	.136	.139	.140	.142
.6	.144	.147	.148	.150	.153	.154	.156	.158	.161	.162
.7	.165	.166	.168	.170	.171	.174	.176	.178	.180	.181
.8	.184	.185	.188	.190	.191	.193	.195	.196	.199	.200

TABLE III

$V_r$ Knots	q mb.	$V_r$ Knots	q mb.
200	66.466	400	283.694
210	73.443	410	299.312
220	80.801	420	315.495
230	88.529	430	332.199
240	96.647	440	349.402
250	105.153	450	367.109
260	114.052	460	385.325
270		470	404.055
280	133.062	480	423.677
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