AMATEUR-BUILT AIRCRAFT AND ULTRALIGHT
FLIGHT TESTING HANDBOOK
1. PURPOSE. This advisory circular (AC) sets forth suggestions and safety related recommendations to assist amateur and ultralight builders in developing individualized aircraft flight test plans.


3. RELATED READING MATERIAL. A list of selected reading material on amateur-built/ultralight flight testing and first flight experience may be found in appendix 3.

4. BACKGROUND.
   a. The Federal Aviation Administration (FAA), the Experimental Aircraft Association (EAA), and the United States Ultralight Association (USUA) are concerned and committed to improving the safety record of amateur-built and ultralight aircraft.
   b. The FAA Administrator, T. Allen McArtor, and EAA President, Paul H. Poberezny, signed a Memorandum of Agreement on August 1, 1988, which addressed the need for educational and safety programs to assist amateur-builders in test flying their aircraft. In accordance with that agreement, this AC provides guidelines for flight testing amateur-built aircraft.
   c. As part of the FAA’s continuing efforts to improve the safety record of all types of general aviation aircraft, this AC has been revised to include flight testing recommendations for canard-type and ultralight aircraft.

5. DEFINITIONS. The following terms are defined for use in this AC.
   a. Amateur-built aircraft means an aircraft issued an Experimental Airworthiness Certificate under the provisions of Federal Aviation Regulations (FAR) § 21.191 (g).
   b. The term ultralight means a vehicle that meets the requirements of FAR § 103.1.
   c. The term ultralight in this AC also means a two-place training vehicle of 496 pounds or less, operating under an EAA or USUA exemption to FAR Part 103.
   d. For the purpose of this AC, both an amateur-built aircraft and a ultralight vehicle will be referred to as an “aircraft.”

6. DISCUSSION.
   a. This AC’s purpose is the following:
      (1) To make amateur-built/ultralight aircraft pilots aware that test flying an aircraft is a critical undertaking, which should be approached with thorough planning, skill, and common sense.
      (2) To provide recommendations and suggestions that can be combined with other sources on test flying (e.g., the aircraft plan/kit manufacturer’s flight testing instructions, other flight testing data). This will assist the amateur/ultralight owner to develop a detailed flight test plan, tailored for their aircraft and resources.
b. The flight test plan is the heart of all professional flight testing. The plan should account for every hour spent in the flight test phase and should be adhered to with the same respect for the unknown that all successful test pilots share. The time allotted for each phase of a personalized flight test plan may vary, and each phase may have more events or checks than suggested in this AC. The goals, however, should be the same.

c. The two goals for an amateur builder/ultralight owner should be as follows:

   (1) At the end of the aircraft’s flight test phase, the aircraft will have been adequately tested and found airworthy and safe to operate within its established operational envelope.

   (2) Incorporation of the flight test operational and performance data into the aircraft’s flight manual so the pilot can reference the data prior to each flight.

7. REQUEST FOR INFORMATION.

   a. This AC is designed as a reference document to assist in preparing a flight test plan for an amateur-built or ultralight aircraft.

   (1) The suggestions and recommendations in chapters 1 through 6 are for conventionally-designed aircraft with an air-cooled, 4-cycle, reciprocating engine that develops less than 200 horsepower with a fixed pitch propeller.

   (2) Chapter 7 deals with flight testing recommendations for canard aircraft.

   (3) Chapters 8 through 10 address flight testing considerations for ultralight vehicles under FAR Part 103 and two-seat ultralight training vehicles of less than 496 pounds empty weight operating under an exemption to FAR Part 103.

   b. Because of the large number of existing amateur-built/ultralight aircraft designs and new designs being introduced each year, the FAA encourages public participation in updating this document. Send comments, suggestions, or information about this AC to the following address:

      U.S. Department of Transportation
      Federal Aviation Administration
      Flight Standards Service (AFS-340)
      800 Independence Ave, SW.
      Washington, DC 20591

   c. Suggestions also may be sent to AFS-340 by FAX (202) 267-5115.

   d. After a review, appropriate comments, suggestions, and information may be included in the next revision of this AC.

8. TO OBTAIN COPIES OF THIS AC. Order AC 90-89A from:

    U.S. Department of Transportation
    Property Use and Storage
    Section, M-45.3
    Washington, DC 20590.

William J. White
Deputy Director, Flight Standards Service
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CHAPTER 1. PREPARATION

“The Laws of Aerodynamics are unforgiving and the ground is hard.” Michael Collins (1987)

SECTION 1. HOMEWORK

“If you have no plan—you have no goal.” Harold Little, Aircraft Manufacturer (1994)

1. OBJECTIVE. A planned approach to flight testing.

   a. The most important task for an amateur-builder is to develop a comprehensive FLIGHT TEST PLAN. This PLAN should be individually tailored to define the aircraft’s specific level of performance. It is therefore important that the entire flight test plan be developed and completed BEFORE the aircraft’s first flight.

   b. The objective of a FLIGHT TEST PLAN is to determine the aircraft’s controllability throughout all the maneuvers and to detect any hazardous operating characteristics or design features. This data should be used in developing a FLIGHT MANUAL that specifies the aircraft’s performance and defines its operating envelope.
SECTION 2. AIRPORT SELECTION

"An airport should be chosen with the same care and consideration as getting a second doctor's opinion."
Fred Wimberly, EAA Flight Test Advisor (1994)

1. OBJECTIVE. To select an airport to test fly the aircraft.

   a. The airport should have one runway aligned into the prevailing wind with no obstructions on the approach or departure end. Hard surface runways should be in good repair and well maintained to avoid foreign object damage (FOD) to the propeller and landing gear. Grass fields should be level with good drainage. Avoid airports in densely populated or developed areas and those with high rates of air traffic. The runway should have the proper markings with a windsock or other wind direction indicator nearby.

   b. To determine an appropriate runway, use the chart in figure 1 (sea-level elevation), or the following rule-of-thumb:

   c. The ideal runway at sea-level elevation should be at least 4,000 feet long and 100 feet wide. For each 1,000 feet increase in field elevation, add 500 feet to the runway length. If testing a high performance aircraft, the airport’s runway at sea-level should be more than 6,000 feet long and 150 feet wide to allow a wider margin of safety. Other considerations, such as power to weight ratio, wing design, and density altitude, also should be factored into the equation for picking the best runway for the initial flight testing.
Take-off Distance in Feet

**FIGURE 1. Runway Length Chart**

- **A** – Distance to takeoff at minimum smooth lift-off speed, fly for 5 seconds at that speed without climbing, land and stop straight ahead.
- **B** – Distance to reach minimum smooth lift-off speed.
- **C** – Distance covered in 5 seconds of flight at minimum smooth lift-off speed.
- **D** – Distance to stop from minimum smooth lift-off speed (includes air and ground distance).
- **E** – Distance to takeoff at slow approach speed and climb thereafter at an angle of 1 in 20 to 50 ft. altitude —this distance will allow most airplanes to accelerate to normal climb speed before crossing end of runway.

**d. Identify emergency landing** fields located within gliding distance from anywhere in the airport pattern altitude. Since engine failures are second only to pilot error as the major cause of amateur-built aircraft accidents, preparations for this type of emergency should be a **mandatory** part of the FLIGHT TEST PLAN.

**e. It is advisable to perform** flight tests from an airport with an active unicom or tower, even if the aircraft does not have an electrical system or is not equipped with a radio. Even at an uncontrolled field, a communications base should be improvised. For both situations, a hand held radio with aviation frequencies and a headset with a mike and a push-to-talk switch on the stick/yoke is recommended. Good radio communications improves the overall level of safety and reduces cockpit workload.

**f. The FAA recommends airport** selection criteria include the availability of hangar space and ramp areas. These facilities will provide protection from inclement weather and vandalism while the aircraft is being tested, maintained, and inspected.

**g. The airport should have** a telephone and fire fighting equipment, the latter being in compliance with relevant municipal codes (e.g., fire codes).

**h. Explain the Flight Test Program and EMERGENCY PLANS** to the airport manager or owner. They may be able to assist the amateur-builder in obtaining temporary hangar space, providing ground/air communications, and supplying emergency equipment for use during the flight test.
SECTION 3. EMERGENCY PLANS AND EQUIPMENT

"The object of the game, gentlemen, is not to cheat death: the object is not to let him play." Patrick Poteen, Sgt. U.S. Army

1. OBJECTIVE. To develop a FLIGHT TEST PLAN which contain two sets of emergency plans; one for IN-FLIGHT emergencies and another for GROUND emergencies.

a. The IN-FLIGHT emergency plan should address the following:
   
   (1) Complete engine failure or partial failure, especially after take off
   
   (2) Flight control problems and severe out-of-rig conditions
   
   (3) Fire in the engine compartment or cockpit

b. The GROUND EMERGENCY plan should be developed to train the ground crew and/or the airport fire department crash crew on the following:

   (1) The airplane canopy or cabin door latching mechanism
   
   (2) The pilot’s shoulder harness/seat belt release procedure
   
   (3) The location and operation of the fuel shut-off valve
   
   (4) The master switch and magneto/ignition switch location and OFF position
   
   (5) Engine cowling removal procedures to gain access to the battery location or for fire fighting
   
   (6) The battery location and disconnect procedures
   
   (7) Fire extinguisher application and use
   
   (8) How to secure the ballistic parachute system

c. Ground Crew. Every test of an amateur-built aircraft should be supported by a minimum ground crew of two experienced individuals. The ground crew’s function is two-fold:
(1) To ensure that the aircraft is in air-
worthy condition for safe operation

(2) To provide assistance to the test pilot
in an emergency

d. The Airport.

(1) If the airport does not have a fire rescue
unit, it is suggested the ground crew have a four
wheel drive vehicle equipped with a portable radio,
first aid kit, metal-cutting tools, and a fire extin-
guisher. A minimum of one person should be trained
in first-aid.

(2) If the airport provides a fire rescue unit,
the test pilot should ensure the rescue unit and the
ground crew are trained and competent in performing
ground emergency functions as identified in the
FLIGHT TEST PLAN.

(3) Suggestion. For a small donation,
some local volunteer fire and rescue companies will
provide the amateur-builder with a standby crew dur-
ing the initial critical portions of the flight test phase.

e. Hospital Location. The ground crew should
know the location and telephone numbers of the hos-
pitals and fire rescue squads in the vicinity of the
airport AND the flight test area. If the test pilot is
allergic to specific medications, or has a rare blood
type, a medical alert bracelet or card should be car-
ried or worn to alert medical personnel of the condi-
tion.

f. Fire Extinguisher. Fire extinguisher’s
should be available to the ground crew, and a fire
extinguisher should be securely mounted in the cock-
pit within easy reach of the test pilot. A fire axe,
or other tool capable of cutting through the canopy,
also should be positioned in the cockpit.

g. Fire Protection. There is always danger of
a flash fire during test flights. To prevent burns, the
pilot should wear an aviation/motorcycle helmet,
NOMEX coveralls/gloves and smoke goggles. If
NOMEX clothing is not available, cotton or wool
clothing will offer some protection from heat and
flames. **Pilots should never wear nylon or poly-
ester clothing because synthetic materials melt
when exposed to heat and will stick to the skin.**

h. Pilot Protection. A modern aviation/motor-
cycle helmet, a properly installed shoulder harness,
a well designed seat, a clean cockpit design free of
protruding components/sharp edges, NOMEX cloth-
ing, smoke goggles, and a memorized emergency
plan ensure safety during flight testing.

i. Parachute. The decision to wear a parachute
depends on the type of aircraft being tested. Some
aircraft have forward hinged canopies that are not
equipped with quick release pins or have pusher propellers which increase the chance of injury to the
pilot while exiting the aircraft. Other aircraft designs
may pose no exit problems. If the decision is made
to wear a parachute, check that it has been recently
packed (within 120 days) by a qualified parachute
rigger. Ensure that the chute has not been exposed
to rain/moisture and when worn, does not interfere
with cockpit management. The test pilot should be
thoroughly trained on how to exit the aircraft and
deploy the parachute.

j. Ballistic Chutes. Ballistic chutes are the lat-
est development in dealing with in-flight emer-
gencies. A ballistic chute is attached to the aircraft
and when activated, lowers the whole aircraft and
the pilot to the ground at the rate of descent of
approximately 20 feet per second.

(1) Deployment Scenarios:

(i) structural failure

(ii) mid-air collision

(iii) stall/spin

(iv) loss of control/icing

(v) engine failure over bad terrain

(vi) pilot incapacitation

(2) Installation Considerations: The
builder should consider the following when installing
a ballistic chute:

(i) Matching the chute with the air-
craft’s size, weight, and V_{ne} speed (check with the
chute manufacturer)

(ii) How the chute will be positioned

and mounted

(iii) The chute’s effect on the air-
craft’s weight and balance before deployment and
aircraft’s touchdown attitude after deployment

(iv) Compatibility of the opening
loads and the aircraft’s structural design limits
(v) The routing of the bridle and harness
(vi) The routing of the activating housing
(vii) The placement of the activating handle in the cockpit
(viii) Incorporation of chute deployment procedures in the in-flight emergency plan and emergency check list
(ix) The deployment time, from activation to full chute opening

(3) If a ballistic chute is installed, the builder should add the appropriate ballistic chute inspection items to the aircraft’s pre-flight inspection check list. The builder also should add the ballistic chute manufacturer’s repack/refitting schedule and maintenance inspections to the flight manual and the conditional annual inspection check list.

SECTION 4. TEST PILOT

“We are looking for a few good Men and Women!” Marine Corps advertisement (1991)

1. OBJECTIVE. To select a qualified individual to be the test pilot.

2. GENERAL. The test pilot should be competent in an aircraft of similar configuration, size, weight, and performance as the aircraft to be tested. If the aircraft’s builder is the test pilot, the costs involved in maintaining pilot competence should be budgeted with the same level of commitment and priority that is assigned to plans and materials to complete the project.

3. TEST PILOT REQUIREMENTS.

   a. A test pilot should meet the following minimum qualifications:

      (1) Physically fit: Test flying an aircraft is a stressful and strenuous task

      (2) No alcohol or drugs in the last 24 hours

      (3) Rated, current, and competent in the same category and class as the aircraft being tested

      (4) Current medical and biennial or flight review as appropriate, or a current USUA certification and flight review

   b. Suggested Test Pilot Flight Time Requirements. The following suggested number of flight hours are only an indication of pilot skill, not an indicator of pilot competence. Each test pilot must assess if their level of competence is adequate or if additional flight training is necessary. If an individual determines they are not qualified to flight test an unproven aircraft, someone who is qualified must be found.

      (1) 100 hours solo time before flight testing a kit plane or an aircraft built from a time-proven set of plans

      (2) 200 hours solo time before flight testing for a “one of a kind” or a high performance aircraft

      (3) A minimum of 50 recent takeoffs and landings in a conventional (tail wheel aircraft) if the aircraft to be tested is a tail dragger

   c. The test pilot should:

      (1) Be familiar with the airport and the emergency fields in the area

      (2) Talk with and, if possible, fly with a pilot in the same kind of aircraft to be tested

      (3) Take additional instruction in similar type certificated aircraft. For example, if the aircraft to be tested is a tail dragger, a Bellanca Citabria or Super Cub is appropriate for training. For testing an aircraft with a short wing span, the Grumman American Yankee or Globe Swift is suitable for training.

      (4) Be considered competent when they have demonstrated a high level of skill in all planned flight test maneuvers in an aircraft with performance characteristics similar to the test aircraft
(5) Study the ground and in-flight emergency procedures developed for the aircraft and practice them in aircraft with similar flight characteristics.

(6) Have logged a minimum of 1 hour of training in recovery from unusual attitudes within 45 days of the first test flight.

(7) If appropriate, have logged a minimum of 10 tail wheel take-off and landings within the past 30 days.

(8) Study the performance characteristics of the aircraft to be tested. Refer to the designer’s or kit manufacturer’s instructions, articles written by builders of the same make and model aircraft, and study actual or video tape demonstrations of the aircraft.

(9) Review the FAA/National Transportation Safety Board (NTSB)/EAA accident reports for the same make and model aircraft to be aware of problems the aircraft has experienced during previous operations (see appendix 2 for the address).

(10) Memorize the cockpit flight controls, switches, valves, and instruments. A thorough knowledge of the cockpit will result in controlled and coordinated mental and physical reactions during emergencies.

NOTE: The EAA has developed a Flight Advisor Program which offers builders/pilots assistance in performing a self evaluation of the flight test program and/or selection of the test pilot. To obtain additional information, contact a local EAA Chapter or EAA Headquarters, (414) 426-4800.

SECTION 5. MEDICAL FACTS FOR PILOTS

“If the pilot is unairworthy, so is the airplane!” Bill Chana, Aeronautical Engineer

1. OBJECTIVE. To identify some of the well known medical causes for aircraft accidents and to stress the importance of a personal pre-flight checklist in addition to an aircraft pre-flight checklist.

   a. Alcohol. FAR Part 91, “General Operating and Flight Rules,” § 91.17 requires that 8 hours must elapse from the last drink to the first flight. Test flying an aircraft, however, places additional mental and physical demands on the pilot. The FAA strongly recommends a minimum of 24 hours between the last drink and the test flight. This is because small amounts of alcohol in the blood stream can affect judgement, reaction time, and decrease a pilot’s tolerance to hypoxia.

   b. Anesthetics. Local and dental anesthetic can affect a pilot’s performance in many adverse ways. It is recommended that a minimum of 48 hours elapse from the time of anesthesia to the time the pilot climbs into the cockpit.

   c. Blood Donations. Do not fly for 3 weeks after donating blood. The body needs approximately three weeks for a complete physiological recovery. Although the physical affects may not be noticeable at sea level, they will become apparent when flying at higher altitudes.

   d. Carbon Monoxide (CO). CO is a colorless, odorless, tasteless gas that is always present in engine exhaust fumes. Carbon monoxide prevents oxygen absorption by the blood, and exposure to the gas creates vision problems, headaches, disorientation, and blurred thinking (see chapter 1, section 7, paragraph 3 (g) for testing the aircraft for CO contamination).

   e. Drugs. Similar to alcohol, drugs will reduce or impair judgement and affect reflexes and hand/eye coordination. It is a given that the use/abuse of illegal drugs is dangerous and against the law. Prescription drugs and over-the-counter remedies, however, also may be dangerous when combined with flying. The FAA recommends all pilots who must take medication consult with an Aviation Medical Examiner (AME) to understand the medication’s affects on their ability to think and react while in the cockpit.

   f. Ear and Sinus Pain.

      (1) Ear and sinus pain is usually caused by the eardrum or sinuses failing to equalize the air pressure during a descent. The blocked ears and sinuses can be caused by a head cold. The pain can be considerable and is most noticeable during
descents. For ear blockages try yawning, swallowing, or chewing gum which may give some relief. The Valsalva procedure can be effective: pinch the nose, close the mouth, and try to force air through the nostrils.

(2) If ear blockage occurs during flight, try climbing back to a higher altitude (lower air pressure) until the pain lessens. Then begin a gradual rate of descent, allowing the ears and sinuses time to adapt to the increasing pressure.

(3) After landing, nasal sprays will give some sinus pain relief. To relieve ear pain, try wetting paper towels with hot water, put the towels in the bottom of a plastic or dixie cup and then hold the cups over the ears. The warmth will help ease the inflamed tissues and reduce the pain. If pain continues, see a doctor.

NOTE: The best way to avoid this problem is not to fly with a head cold, upper respiratory infection, or nasal allergic condition. Be advised that some nasal and oral decongestants could be ineffective at altitude and have side effects such as drowsiness that can significantly impair pilot performance. Again, consult with an Aviation Medical Examiner to understand the affects of medication before flying.

g. Fatigue. Fly only when healthy, fit, and alert. Mental and physical fatigue will generally slow down a pilot’s reaction time, affect decision making, and attention span. Lack of sleep is the most common cause of fatigue, but family and business problems can create mental fatigue which can have the same effects on the pilot as lack of sleep.

h. Flicker Vertigo. Light, when flashing at a frequency between 4 to 29 cycles per second, can cause a dangerous physiological condition in some people called flicker vertigo. These conditions range from nausea and dizziness to unconsciousness, or even reactions similar to an epileptic fit. When heading into the sun, a propeller cutting the light may produce this flashing effect. Avoid flicker vertigo, especially when the engine is throttled back for landing. To alleviate this when the propeller is causing the problem, frequently change engine revolutions per minute (rpm). When flying at night and the rotating beacon is creating flicker vertigo, turn it off.

i. Underwater Diving. Never fly immediately after SCUBA diving. Always allow 24 hours to elapse before flying as a pilot or a passenger in order to give the body sufficient time to rid itself of excessive nitrogen absorbed during diving.

j. Stress. Stress from the pressures of a job and everyday living can impair a pilot’s performance, often in subtle ways. A test pilot may further increase the stress level by setting unreasonable test flying schedules in order to meet an arbitrary “be done by date.” Stress also may impair judgement, inducing the pilot to take unwarranted risks, such as flying into deteriorating weather conditions or flying when fatigued to meet a self imposed deadline.
SECTION 6. TRANSPORTING THE AIRCRAFT TO THE AIRPORT

“Best laid plans of mice and men are often stuck in traffic.” Ben Owen, EAA Executive Director (1994)

1. OBJECTIVE. To reduce damaging the aircraft in transit. The following suggestions may prevent this from happening:

   a. Use a truck or flat bed truck/trailer large enough to accommodate the aircraft and the additional support equipment.

   b. If the aircraft wings are removable, build padded jigs, cradles, or fixtures to hold and support them during the trip to the airport.

   c. Secure the fixtures to the truck/trailer, then secure the wings to the fixture.

   d. Use two or more ropes at each tie down point.

   e. Use heavy moving pads used for household moves to protect wings and fuselage. Most rent-a-truck firms offer them for rental.

   f. During the planning stage, obtain applicable permits and follow the local ordinances for transporting an oversized load. Ask the local police if they can provide an escort to the airport.

   g. Brief the moving crew thoroughly before loading and unloading the aircraft.

   h. Ensure the designated driver has recent experience driving a truck/trailer and is familiar with the roads to the airport.
SECTION 7. ASSEMBLY AND AIRWORTHINESS INSPECTION

“Complacency is one of the major causes of accidents, no matter how well things are going, something can go wrong” Art Scholl

1. OBJECTIVE. To determine the airworthiness of the aircraft and its systems.

2. GENERAL.

   a. If the aircraft must be reassembled after being moved to the airport -- take time to do so carefully. This is a critical event because mistakes can easily be made due to the builder’s preoccupation with the impending first flight of the aircraft. One of the most common and deadly mistakes is to reverse the rigging on the ailerons. To prevent errors in reassembling the aircraft, follow the designer’s or kit manufacturer’s instructions, or use a written check list specifically designed as part of the FLIGHT TEST PLAN. At the completion of each major operation, have another expert check the work.

   b. When the aircraft is reassembled, perform a pre-flight “fitness inspection.” This inspection should be similar in scope and detail to an annual inspection. The fitness inspection should be accomplished even if the aircraft has just been issued a special airworthiness certificate by the FAA. Even if a builder was 99 percent perfect and performed 10,000 tasks building the aircraft, there would still be a hundred items that would need to be found and corrected before the first flight.

3. FITNESS INSPECTION - AIRFRAME. The following additional safety check list items may not be applicable to all amateur-built make and model aircraft, but are presented for consideration and review:

   a. Control stick/wheel: The control stick/wheel should have a free and smooth operation throughout its full range of travel. There should be no binding or contact with the sides of the fuselage, seat, or instrument panel. There should be no free-play (slack) in the controls, nor should the controls be tight as to have stick-slip movement.
b. Rudder pedals: Move the rudder pedals through the full range of travel. The pedal movement should be smooth with no binding. The test pilot should ensure that their shoes will not catch on exposed metal lines, fixtures, or electrical wire harness.

c. Brakes: Hand and/or toe brake pressure should be firm with no tendency to bleed down or lock up. Spongy brakes that must be "pumped up," or show a drop in the level of brake fluid in the reservoir after a few brake applications, indicate a brake fluid or air leak in the system.

d. Main landing gear: Ensure that the gear attach points, shimmy dampener, bungees, wheels, brakes, and wheel fairings are airworthy. If applicable, check that the tail wheel pivot point is centered and vertical in relation to the longitudinal axis of the aircraft. It is critical that the main landing gear alignment toe in/toe out is zero or matches the specifications for fuselage/landing gear alignment called out in the plans. Even one landing gear wheel out of alignment can cause a ground loop.

e. Control surfaces: Perform rigging checks to ensure that control input for ailerons, rudder, elevators, and trim tabs results in the correct amount of travel and direction of the control movement and that contact with the stops is made. Also ensure that the flaps, if installed, have the proper travel, operate as a single unit, and cannot be extended beyond the maximum extended position. It is important to ensure that the control cable tension is correct by checking it with a calibrated tensiometer and confirming that all the attachment hardware is secured and safety-wired.

1. If the cable tension is less than the specifications require, the "in flight" air loads during flight will prevent full travel of the control, even if the control has the right amount of deflection and hits all the stops in the cockpit/wing/tail when tested on the ground. With low cable tension, the desired control movement input will be absorbed by the slack in the cables.

2. While checking cable tension, make sure there is no "free play" in the flight control hinges and rod ends. Free play and loose cable tension combined with control mass imbalance sets the stage for the onset of control surface "flutter." Do not, however, rig the controls at too high a cable tension. This will cause high wear rate on the pulleys and prevent good control feel, especially at low airspeeds.

f. Instrument panel: All the instruments should be properly secured in the panel and have preliminary markings on them. Airspeed indicator and engine tachometer should be marked with the EXPECTED performance range markings. Oil temperature and oil pressure must have the engine manufacturer’s recommended operating range marked. If the markings are on the instrument glass face, paint a white slippage mark on both the glass and on the instrument case to alert the pilot in case the glass/range marks have moved. Attach a temporary placard to the instrument panel with the expected stall, climb, and glide speeds. It is a handy reference in times of emergency.

g. Behind the instrument panel: Very few amateur-built aircraft of the same make and model have the same instrument panel design. Each amateur-builder should inspect this area to ensure that all line connections are tight, that nothing interferes with control travel, and there are no loose wires or fuel, oil, or hydraulic leaks.

h. Carbon Monoxide: Carbon Monoxide leaks also can be performed. Wait until night or put the aircraft in a dark hangar. Climb into the cockpit and have a friend shine a bright flood light close to the firewall. If light leaks into the cockpit, carbon monoxide can seep in. Mark it and seal it.

i. Engine and propeller controls: All controls should be visually inspected, positive in operation, and securely mounted. The friction lock on both controls should be checked for operation. Each control should have full movement with at least a ¼ inch of "cushion" at the full travel position. The control cables should be firmly attached to the fuselage along each 24 inches of their runs to prevent whipping of the cable and loss of cable movement at the other end. Control cables with ball sockets should have large area washers on either end of the bolt connection. This will ensure the control will remain connected, even if the ball socket fails and drops out.

j. Static system: The best procedure to check the altimeter for leaks and accuracy is to have the entire static system checked in accordance with FAR Part 43, appendix E, at an FAA-approved repair station.
4. FIELD CHECK. Two people are needed to accomplish the following field check that will enable an amateur-builder to detect if the aircraft’s instrument system is leaking: (Note: This field check is not an accuracy check.)

a. Airspeed check: Slip a long rubber hose over the pitot mast (surgical tubing is recommended). As one person reads the airspeed, the other should very slowly roll up the other end of the tubing. This will apply pressure to the instrument. When the airspeed indicator needle reaches the aircraft’s approximate recommended cruise speed, pinch the hose shut, and hold that reading. The airspeed needle should remain steady for a minute if the system is sound. A fast drop off will indicate a leak in the instrument, fittings, lines, or the test hose attachment. NEVER force air in the pitot tube or orally apply suction on a static vent. This will cause damage to the instruments.

b. Altimeter/vertical speed check.

(1) To check the static side, apply low suction at the end of the static vent port. The easiest way to gain access to the static system is to remove the static line at the static port. Next, get two feet of surgical tubing, seal one end, and tightly roll it up. Attach the open end to the static line and slowly unroll the tubing. This will apply a suction, or low pressure, to the static system.

(2) The altimeter should start to show an increase in altitude. The vertical speed indicator also should indicate a rate of climb. When the altimeter reads approximately 2,000 feet, stop and pinch off the tube. There will be some initial decrease in altitude and the vertical speed will read zero. The altimeter should then hold the indicated altitude for at least a minute. If altitude is lost, check for leaks.

(3) IMPORTANT: The above airspeed and altimeter field checks should not be considered the equivalent of airspeed or static system accuracy tests as certified by a certificated repair station, but a check of the system for possible leaks. These checks do not take into consideration the pitot tube and static ports located on the airframe. The FAA recommends the builder not deviate from the designer’s original plans when installing the pitot and static system.

c. Fuel system: Since 1983, more than 70 percent of the engine failures in amateur-built aircraft were caused by fuel system problems. Many times the direct cause of engine failure was dirt and debris in the fuel tank and lines left behind during the manufacturing process.

(1) Before the aircraft’s fuel tanks are filled, the amateur-builder should vacuum any manufacturing debris from each tank and wipe them down with a ‘‘tack’’ cloth (available from a paint supply store). Next, the system should be flushed with aviation grade gasoline several times in order to remove any small or hard to reach debris from the tanks and lines. The fuel filter/gasolator screen/carburetor finger screen should also be cleaned. The amount of time spent ‘‘sanitizing’’ the fuel system will provide big safety dividends for the life of the aircraft.

(2) When filling the tanks, place the aircraft in the straight and level cruise position. Add fuel in measured amounts to calibrate the fuel tank indicators. While allowing the aircraft to sit for a short time to observe for possible leaks, inspect the fuel tank vents to see if they are open and clear. Check that the fuel tank caps seal properly. If there are no leaks and the fuel system has an electric boost pump, pressurize the system and again check for leaks. The fuel selector, vents and fuel drains should be properly marked and tested for proper operation.

NOTE: Many amateur-built aircraft take 5 to 8 years to build. During that time, many rubber-based oil and fuel lines and cork gaskets that were installed early in the building process may have age hardened, cracked, and/or turned brittle. The builder should carefully inspect these components and replace as necessary to prevent a premature engine failure.

d. Hydraulic system: The hydraulic system should function dependably and positively in accordance with the designer’s intent. Retractable landing gear should be rigorously cycled on the ground, using both the normal and emergency landing gear extension system.

e. Safety belt and shoulder harness: These items should be checked for condition and proper installation. A review of amateur-built aircraft accidents has disclosed a significant number of accidents in which the seat belt mounting hard points
failed. Each seat belt and shoulder harness mounting hard point should be built to the designer’s specifications to ensure that it will hold the harness and pilot in the aircraft at the ultimate design ‘‘G’’ load specification, both positive and negative, for the aircraft.

f. **Avionics and electrical checks:** Test the avionics systems. Perform an operational check to ensure the radio(s) transmit and receive on all frequencies. Inspect circuit breakers/fuses, microphones, and antennas for security and operation. Test the ELT for proper operation and battery life. Electrical systems can be checked for operation of lights, instruments, and basic nav/comm performance. Other electrical systems, such as generator/alternator output can be checked during the engine run-ins, taxi, and flight tests. Check the battery and the battery compartment for security and if applicable, ensure that the battery is properly vented to the outside of the aircraft. Check the condition of the engine to airframe bonding (grounding) wire. Ensure that all electrical instruments operate properly.

g. **Cowling and panel checks:** Ensure that all inspection panels are in place, the cowling is secured, and cowl flap operation is satisfactory. Inspect the propeller spinner and its backing plate for cracks.

h. **Canopy/door locks checks:** Ensure the canopy or doors on the aircraft work as advertised. Double check the canopy or door lock(s) so the canopy and doors will not open in flight and disturb the airflow over the wings and stall the aircraft. If a canopy jettison system is installed, check for proper operation when the aircraft on the ground and when it is on jacks. (Jacks will simulate flight loads on the aircraft.)
1. OBJECTIVE. To discuss the importance of developing an accurate weight and balance calculations for both test and recreational flights. Additional information on weight and balance can be found in AC 91-23A, Pilot’s Weight and Balance Handbook.

   a. A good weight and balance calculation is the keystone of flight testing. Accurately determining the aircraft’s take-off weight and ensuring that the center of gravity (CG) is within the aircraft’s design for each flight is critical to conducting a safe flight test.

   b. An aircraft should be level when weighed, spanwise and fore and aft in accordance with the manufacturer’s instructions, and should be in the level flight position. It is highly recommended that the weighing be done in an enclosed area, using three calibrated scales. Bathroom scales are not recommended because they are not always accurate.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>WEIGHT (LBS)</th>
<th>ARM (INCHES)</th>
<th>MOMENT (IN-LBS)</th>
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<tr>
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<td>60</td>
<td>6060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right Wheel</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>19560</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL MOMENT = Empty weight CG or 19560 = 80.8
TOTAL WEIGHT 242

FIGURE 2. EMPTY WEIGHT CG

2. DETERMINING EMPTY WEIGHT CG.

a. The sample airplane for determining empty weight is a single seater, which the kit manufacturer’s design empty weight of 253 pounds and a gross weight limit of 500 pounds. The datum line is located at the nose of the aircraft and the CG range is between 69 to 74 inches from the datum.

b. To work a CG problem, figure the EMPTY WEIGHT CG first. On a piece of paper draw four blocks. Title each block from left to right as shown in figure 3.

(1) Under the block titled item, vertically list “left wheel,” “right wheel,” and “nose/tail wheel.”

(2) Place a calibrated scale under each wheel and record the weight on each gear, in pounds, in the weight block along side the appropriate wheel. This process is done with an empty fuel tank.

(3) Measure in inches the distance from the datum line, or imaginary point identified by the manufacturer (e.g., nose of the aircraft), to the center line (C/L) of the three wheels. Record the distance of each wheel and place it in the moment arm block beside the appropriate wheel (see figure 2).

(4) Multiply the number of inches (arm) by the weight on each wheel to get the moment (inch-pounds) for each wheel. Add the weight on the three gears and the three moments in inch pounds and divide the total weight into the total moment. The sum is the “EMPTY WEIGHT CENTER OF GRAVITY” in inches. In the sample case, the empty weight CG is 80.8.

NOTE: All calculations should be carried out to two decimal places.
ITEMS        WEIGHT (LBS)  ARM (INCHES)  MOMENT (IN-LBS)
A/C        242              80.8          19560
Pilot     170              65             11050
Fuel      30               70             2100
TOTALS    442              74             32710

TOTAL MOMENT = Takeoff CG or 32710 = 74
TOTAL WEIGHT 442

FIGURE 3. TAKE-OFF CG

3. DETERMINING TAKE-OFF WEIGHT CG.

a. Since the aircraft’s empty weight and empty weight CG are fixed numbers, the only way an aircraft’s CG can be changed is by adding weight in other locations.

b. For example, in figure 3, the aircraft’s empty weight has been written in the appropriate blocks. The pilot weighs 170 pounds and fuel (5 gallons) weighs 30 pounds.

c. Again, all measurements are made from the datum to the center line of the object that has been added. Weight multiplied by inches from the datum equals moment. Add the weights and moments to find the take-off CG for that particular flight.

d. Loaded in this configuration, the aircraft is within the CG flight envelope and is safe to fly.
### 4. ADDING ADDITIONAL EQUIPMENT.

#### a. During flight testing.
A strobe battery and hand held radio are added. The battery/battery box weight is 15 pounds and the location is 75 inches aft of the datum; the strobe assembly weight is 1.5 pounds and is located 179 inches aft of the datum; the radio’s weight is 1.5 pounds and is located 55 inches aft of the datum (see figure 4).

#### b. In the sample problem.
The previous figures for take-off weight and moment are still accurate, hence those numbers have been listed in the appropriate blocks.

1. Add the battery, strobe, and radio numbers in the appropriate locations and calculate the totals. At 465 pounds, the aircraft is still 35 pounds under its design gross weight limit of 500 pounds but is out of balance because the CG has moved .3 inches further aft (74.3 inches) than the allowable rear CG limit of 74 inches.

2. Since the aircraft is out of balance with an aft CG, it is no longer 100 percent stable in pitch and would be dangerous to fly. In most cases, it is not the amount of weight added to the aircraft that can cause a major safety problem but its location.

3. To bring this aircraft back into the safe CG range, the battery would have to be moved 9 inches forward (66 inches from the datum line). Another alternative is to install 8 pounds of ballast in the nose (20 inches from the datum).

4. If the sample aircraft exceeded the designer’s gross weight limit (e.g., 300 pound pilot) instead of the CG limit, its climb, stall, and performance capability would be poor and the possibility for in-flight structural failure would be high.

**NOTE:** In the sample weight and balance, positive numbers were chosen by placing the datum line on the nose of the aircraft. Some manufacturers prefer to use a datum located somewhere between the aircraft’s nose and the leading edge of the wing.

5. This kind of datum will set up a system of positive arms (items located aft of the datum) and negative arms (items located forward of the datum).

6. When working a weight and balance problem with negative and positive moments, subtract the sum of all negative moments from the sum of all positive moments to reach a “total moment” for the aircraft.
SECTION 9. PAPERWORK

“It is harder to write a lie in a logbook than tell one, because your eyes see it and your fingers feel it.” Bob Moorman, Ultralight Instructor (1994)

1. OBJECTIVE. To have the proper documentation and paperwork to conduct the flight test.

   a. Weight and Balance: The weight and balance for the aircraft should be carefully done. The gross weight and CG range should be determined prior to every flight.

   b. Airworthiness/Registration/Operating Limitations/Placards/Weight and Balance: Must be on board, or the aircraft is not legal to be operated.

   c. Checklists: In addition to the assembly/airworthiness checklist previously discussed in section 7, the builder should prepare the following checklists: preflight; take-off/cruise; before starting; descent/before landing; starting the engine; after landing; before takeoff; securing the aircraft; and emergency procedures. A checklist to cover the above procedures may seem a tedious task, but it will only be the size of a 5x8 card -- similar to a checklist for a Cessna 150 or a Piper PA-28-140.

   d. Flight Manual: It is imperative a flight manual describing the anticipated performance of the aircraft be written by the aircraft builder/kit manufacturer. The manual will be revised several times during the flight test phase until it accurately reports the aircraft’s performance.

   e. Maintenance Records (logbooks): Operators of amateur-built aircraft are required to only record the yearly condition inspections in accordance with the aircraft’s operating limitations. The FAA recommends, however, that every amateur-built aircraft/ultralight owner record in the aircraft’s logbooks all inspections and maintenance performed. This will create an aircraft’s maintenance history and will be invaluable in spotting trends.

NOTE: The amateur-builder should anticipate several revisions to the checklists.
SECTION 10. POWERPLANT TESTS

‘‘Don’t short-change the engine tests or you won’t be around to give your grandkids a ride.’’ Dick Koehler, A&P Instructor (1994)

1. OBJECTIVE. To ensure that the engine has been properly run-in and is safe to operate in all rpm ranges.

   a. An engine pre-oil and cold compression test can be conducted as follows:

      (1) Remove the rocker-box covers and one spark plug from each cylinder.

      (2) Using an external oil pump, or by rotating the propeller in the direction of rotation, pump a substantial supply of oil up from the sump into the rocker arms.

      (3) When the engine is pre-oiled, run a cold compression test of each cylinder.

      (4) The results will serve only as an initial benchmark for comparing other compression tests taken after the engine has been run-up to operating temperature.

   b. New/newly overhauled engine run-in procedures:

      (1) Most amateur-builders start with a new or newly overhauled engine and proceed to ‘‘run it in’’ on the airframe. This practice is followed due to lack of access to a test cell or a special ‘‘club’’ propeller that is specifically designed to aid in engine cooling during run-in. There are pros and cons to using an airframe to run in an engine, but the best advice has always been to follow the engine manufacturer’s instructions. These instructions are found either in the manufacturer’s overhaul manuals, service bulletins, or service letters. Following the manufacturer’s instructions is especially important if the engine has chrome cylinders which require special run-in procedures.

      (2) Also, before running-up the engine, be certain that it has the proper grade oil in the sump. Some new and newly overhauled engines are shipped with a special preservative oil to prevent corrosion.
Drain this out and reservice the engine with the correct oil before starting.

c. Used engine run-in procedures: Some amateur-builders install a used engine from a flyable aircraft. The same checks and adjustments used on a new or newly overhauled engine should be conducted. New and used engines require special attention to engine cylinder baffling to ensure cylinder cooling is within the engine manufacturer’s cylinder head temperature specifications.

d. Pre run-in checks:

(1) Before beginning the powerplant tests, inspect the engine and propeller carefully. All fuel and oil line connections should be tight. Check the torque on the engine mount attaching bolts. Be certain that there are no tools, hardware, or rags laying between the cylinders or under the magnetos.

(2) Check for the proper amount of oil in the engine and that the dip stick gives an accurate reading of the oil quantity. Be advised that some engines were mounted on an angle in type certified aircraft. These engines have a special part number oil dip stick, which corrects for the different angle of oil in the crankcase. The same engine, mounted level in a amateur-built aircraft with the original dip stick, will not show the correct oil quantity.

e. Test and Support Equipment:

(1) A cylinder head temperature gauge (CHT) is needed to ensure that all cylinders are receiving the proper flow of cooling air.

(2) On the newer aircraft engines, the cylinders are drilled and tapped to accept a bayonet type of CHT thermocouple probes. For older engines, the thermocouple is designed like a spark plug washer and fits under a spark plug. It can be installed in any cylinder, either under the top or bottom spark plug.

(3) Each type of CHT design can have multiple thermocouples which are connected to a selector switch in the cockpit. The pilot then selects the cylinder he wants to monitor. This also is an excellent troubleshooting tool for identifying fouled plugs and bad ignition leads.

(4) If there is only one CHT thermocouple, attach it to the rearmost cylinder on the right side of the engine (as viewed from the cockpit) and run-up the engine. Run the same test on the opposite rearmost cylinder to be certain the hottest running cylinder was selected. Calibrated oil pressure and oil temperature gauges also are needed to test the accuracy of the engine instruments installed in the aircraft.

(5) The following support equipment is needed: 50 feet or more of tie-down rope, tie-down stakes, two chocks for each wheel, fire extinguisher, assorted hand tools, safety-wire, cotter-pins, ear and eye protection, grease pencils, logbooks, clip board, pen and paper, a watch to time the tests, rags, and manufacturer’s instructions.

f. Safety Precautions: Before the first engine run, ensure the aircraft is tied down, brakes on, and the wheels are chocked. The builder and flight test team should wear ear and eye protection. All flight test participants should be checked out on fire extinguisher use and operation. During engine runs, do not allow anyone to stand beside the engine, or in-line or close to the propeller. Making minor adjustments to a running engine, such as idle and mixture settings, is a very dangerous procedure and should be done with great care by experienced individuals.

g. The First Engine Run:

(1) The first start of the engine is always a critical operation. The engine should be pre-oiled in accordance with the manufacturer’s instructions. For aircraft using other than FAA-approved oil pressure and temperature gauges, the FAA recommends attaching an external calibrated oil temperature and pressure gauge to the 4 cycle engine in order to calibrate the engine instruments. After priming the engine and completing the starting engine checklist items, the first concern is to get an oil pressure reading within the first 20 to 30 seconds. If there is no oil pressure reading -- shut down.

(2) There are three common problems that would cause low or fluctuating oil pressure.

(i) Air in the oil pressure gauge line: This is easily fixed by loosening the line connection near the oil pressure gauge and squirting oil into the line until full. Another option is to use a pre-oiler to provide the pressure and carefully bleed the air out of the line near the oil gauge by loosening the B-nut that connects the oil line to the gauge.
(ii) A misadjusted oil pressure relief valve: Cleaning the pressure relief ball, checking for the proper number of washers, correcting spring tension, and re-adjusting the setting could solve the problem.

(iii) An internal problem within the engine (most likely the oil pump): An engine tear down would be required.

(3) With good oil pressure/temperature readings and the engine running smoothly, ensure that the engine oil pressure and temperature gauges in the cockpit match the calibrated oil pressure and temperature gauges, which were attached to the aircraft for the first run. Do not overlook this test. It is critical to determine the accuracy of the cockpit engine gauges not only for the ground engine run-in period, but for in-flight engine cooling tests.

(4) Work through the engine manufacturer’s run-in schedule. The majority of the engine manufacturers recommend a series of engine runs from low rpm to maximum rpm. Each run usually incorporates a 200 rpm increase and lasts no longer than 10 minutes. The secret to a successful engine run is not to let the engine temperatures exceed manufacture’s limits during engine runs.

NOTE: Engines with chrome cylinders or chrome rings require different high power run-in programs. Follow the manufacturer’s run-in instructions to ensure the engine will perform satisfactorily over its lifetime.

h. Engine Cool Down: After a ground-run, the cooling off period takes approximately an hour. This is because a newly overhauled engine needs time for the internal parts (e.g., rings, cylinders, valves, bearings, and gear faces) to expand and contract several times to obtain a smooth surface that retains its “memory.” This is a lengthy process even when done right, but it is important not to skip any of the recommended runs to save time. To do so is to risk increasing oil consumption and reducing overall engine performance, reliability, and engine life span -- which could be costly in the long-term.

i. Record the engine run-in data: During the engine run, monitor the cylinder head temperatures, oil temperature, and oil pressure. Record the readings and adjustments for future reference. If the cylinder head temperatures are rising close to the red line, reduce power and stop the test. Some causes of high cylinder head temperatures include using spark plugs with the improper heat range; cylinder head temperature gauges installed on the wrong cylinder; missing or badly designed cylinder head cooling baffles; partially plugged fuel nozzles (applicable to fuel injected engines); fuel lines of improper internal diameter (creates lean mixtures); engine improperly timed either mechanically and/or electrically; and the carburetor fuel mixture set excessively lean.

j. After shut-down:

(1) After each engine run, check for fuel and oil leaks, loose connections, and hot spots on cylinders (burnt paint). The FAA recommends draining the oil and removing the oil screen/filter within the first 2 hours of running the engine. Check the screen/filter for ferrous metal with a magnet. Wash and inspect the screen/filter for non-ferrous metal like brass, bronze, or aluminum.

(2) A very small quantity of metal in the screen is not uncommon in a new or newly overhauled engine. It is part of the painful process of “running-in.” If subsequent oil screen checks (2 hours apart) show the engine is “making metal,” this indicates a problem inside the engine and a tear down inspection is required.

(3) It also is recommended all fuel sumps, filters, and gasolators be checked for debris after each engine run. Special attention should be given to the fuel system by the builder who constructed fuel tanks out of composite or fiberglass materials. Composite and fiberglass strands can be very fine, making visual detection difficult. Frequent cleaning of the fuel filters and screens early in the flight testing phase will avoid a gradual build up of loose composite fibers, which would reduce or stop the flow of fuel to the engine.
SECTION 11. ADDITIONAL ENGINE TESTS

"Always go with the best fix not the cheapest fix." Bill Deeth, Master Mechanic (1994)

1. OBJECTIVE. To determine if the engine supply of fuel is adequate at all angles of attack.

   a. Mixture and Idle Speed Check: After completing the initial engine “run-in” tests, check the idle speed and mixture settings. To determine if the mixture setting is correct, perform the following:

      (1) Warm up the engine until all readings are normal
      (2) Adjust the engine rpm to the recommended idle rpm
      (3) Slowly pull the mixture control back to idle cut-off
      (4) Just before the engine quits, the engine rpm should rise about 50 rpm if the mixture is properly adjusted. If the rpm drops off without any increase in rpm, the idle mixture is set too lean. If the rpm increases more than 50 rpm, the idle mixture is set too rich.

   NOTE: Some amateur-builders, after properly setting the idle mixture/rpm to the manufacturer’s specification, increase the engine idle rpm by 100 rpm for the first 10+ hours of flight testing. This is to ensure that the engine will not quit when the throttle is pulled back too rapidly, or when power is reduced on the final approach to landing.

   b. Magneto Check:

      (1) The magneto checks should be smooth and the difference between both magnetos rpm drops should average about 50 rpm. The builder also should perform a “HOT MAG” check, to ensure against the engine, on its own, deciding when and where to start. To perform a hot mag check, run up the aircraft until the engine is warm. At idle rpm turn the magneto switch off; the engine should stop running. If the engine continues to run, one or both of the magnetos is hot (not grounded).

      (2) The usual causes for a hot magneto are a broken “P” lead coming out of the magneto or a bad magneto switch. THIS IS AN IMMEDIATE
THREAT TO THE PERSONAL SAFETY OF ANYONE NEAR THE AIRPLANE AND MUST BE REPAIRED AT ONCE.

c. Cold Cylinder Check:

(1) If the engine is running rough and the builder determines it may be an ignition problem, perform the following check:

(i) Run the engine on the bad magneto for about 30 seconds at 1200 rpm. Without switching the mag switch back to “both,” shut off the engine.

(ii) One of the test crew should quickly use a grease pencil to mark an area of the exhaust stacks approximately an inch from the flange that attaches the stacks to the cylinders.

(iii) Check the marks on the stacks. If one or more of the exhaust stacks with a grease mark has NOT been burned to a grayish-white color and the mark on the stack still retains most of the original color of the grease pencil, the “cold cylinder” has been identified.

(2) Probable causes of the cold cylinder problem are defective spark plugs, ignition leads, or a cracked distributor in one of the magnetos. To detect if the spark plugs are bad, switch both plugs to another cylinder. If the grease pencil proves the problem moved to the new cylinder, the spark plugs are bad. If the problem remains with the original cylinder, the ignition lead or magneto is bad.

d. Carburetor Heat:

(1) It is strongly recommended that all amateur-builders install a carburetor heat system that complies with the engine manufacturer’s recommendation. If no recommendation is available, the FAA suggests a carburetor heat system for a sea-level engine and a conventional venturi should be designed so that it will provide a 90 degrees F increase in the venturi at 75 percent power. For altitude engines using a conventional venturi carburetor, 120 degrees F increase in venturi temperature at 75 percent power will prevent or eliminate icing. Remember: Too little carburetor heat will have no effect on carburetor icing, and too much carburetor heat will cause a overly rich mixture which will reduce power and may shut down the engine.

(2) During the engine tests, make numerous checks of the carburetor heat system. To avoid overly rich mixtures from oversized carburetor heat ducts, ensure that the carburetor heat duct is the same size as the inlet of the carburetor.

(3) Be certain there is a positive reduction in rpm each time “carb heat” is applied. If there is no reduction, or the rpm drop is less than expected, check the carb heat control in the cockpit and on the carb heat air box for full travel. Also check for air leaks in the “SCAT TUBE” that connects the heat muff to the carburetor air box.

e. Fuel Flow and Unusable Fuel Check: This is a field test to ensure the aircraft engine will get enough fuel to run properly, even if the aircraft is in a steep climb or stall attitude.

(1) First, place the aircraft’s nose at an angle 5 degrees above the highest anticipated climb angle. The easiest and safest way to do this with a conventional gear aircraft is to dig a hole and place the aircraft’s tail in it. For a nose gear aircraft, build a ramp to raise the nose gear to the proper angle.

(2) Make sure the aircraft is tied-down and chocked. With minimum fuel in the tanks, disconnect the fuel line to carburetor. The fuel flow with a gravity flow system should be 150 percent of the fuel consumption of the engine at full throttle. With a fuel system that is pressurized, the fuel flow should be at least 125 percent. When the fuel stops flowing, the remaining fuel is the “unusable fuel” quantity.

(3) Since the fuel consumption of most modern engines is approximately .55 pounds per brake horsepower per hour for a 100 horsepower engine, the test fuel flow should be 82.5 pounds (13.7 gallons) per hour for gravity feed, or 68.75 pounds (11.5 gallons) per hour for a pressurized system. The pounds per hour divided by 60 equals 1.4 pounds and 1.15 pounds per minute fuel rate respectively.

NOTE: Formula for fuel flow rate gravity feed is .55 x engine horsepower x 1.50 = pounds of fuel per hour divided by 60 to get pounds per minute, divided by 6 to get gallons per minute. For a pressurized system, substitute 1.25 for 1.50 to determine fuel flow rate.

f. Changing Fuel Flow or Pressure: If the aircraft’s fuel flow rate is less than planned, there
is a volume or pressure problem. An increase in the fuel flow volume may necessitate installation of larger fuel line fittings on the fuel tanks, fuel selector, and carburetor in addition to larger internal diameter fuel lines. To increase fuel pressure, install an electrically driven or engine driven mechanical fuel pump prior to the first flight.

**g. Compression Check:** When the engine run-in procedures have been completed, perform an additional differential compression check on the engine and record the findings. If a cylinder has **less than 60/80 reading** on the differential test gauges on a hot engine, that cylinder is suspect. Have someone hold the propeller at the weak cylinder’s top dead center and with compressed air still being applied, LISTEN. If air is heard coming out of the exhaust pipe, the exhaust valve is not seating properly. If air is heard coming out of the air cleaner/carb heat air box, the intake valve is bad. When the oil dip stick is removed and air rushes out, the piston rings are the problem.

**h. Last Check:** Drain the oil and replace the oil filter, if applicable. Check the oil and screens for metal, visually inspect the engine, and do a run-up in preparation for the taxi tests. Do not fly the aircraft if anything is wrong, no matter how small or how insignificant. The sky, like the sea, is an unforgiving and uncompromising environment.
SECTION 12. PROPELLER INSPECTION

"A tough decision is what a man makes when he cannot form a committee to share the blame" George Lutz, Col. U.S. Air Force, Retired (1994)

1. OBJECTIVE. To help the amateur-builder/ultralight aircraft owner develop an inspection program to maintain his/her propeller.

a. There are three kinds of propeller designs: metal, wood, and composite.

(1) Because of weight considerations, metal propellers are used more on amateur-built aircraft than ultralight aircraft. This makes wood and composite propellers the overwhelming choice for ultralight aircraft.

(2) Wood propellers are light, reliable, and inexpensive but require frequent inspections.

(3) Composite carbon-graphite material props are more expensive than wood, but are stronger and require less maintenance.

b. All types of propellers have one thing in common: they are constantly under high levels of vibration, torque, thrust, bending loads, and rotational stress. Even small nicks in the leading edge of the blade can very quickly lead to a crack, followed by blade separation. Propeller tip failure and a subsequent violent, out of balance situation can cause the propeller, engine, and its mounts to be pulled from the airframe in less than 5 seconds.

c. It is essential that the make and model propeller is carefully chosen. Always follow the manufacturer’s recommendations.

d. Exercise caution if experimenting with different makes and models propellers. A propeller with the wrong size and pitch will give a poor rate of climb, cruise, or could cause the engine to "over-rev."

2. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ALL PROPELLERS.

a. Never use a propeller for a tow bar when moving the aircraft.

b. Never stand in front of or in-line of a rotating propeller.
c. Never “PROP” an engine on uneven or wet/snow covered ground.

d. Always inspect the propeller before and after a flight.

e. When working on a propeller, make sure the ignition is off first.

f. Always maintain the propeller to manufacturer’s instructions.

g. To avoid nicks and cuts, do not perform run-ups near gravel/loose stones.

h. Apply a coat of automotive wax once a month to protect the finish and keep out moisture.

i. Assume a propeller is unairworthy if it has suffered any kind of impact or ground strike.

j. After any repair or repainting, or if vibration or roughness is noted, re-balance the propeller.

k. Propeller blades should be balanced within 1 gram of each other to avoid over stressing the gear reduction system and propeller shaft.

l. Check the bolt torque on all newly installed propellers every hour of operation for the first 10 hours and once every 5 hours thereafter.

m. After torquing the propeller, track the blades.

3. PROPELLER TRACKING CHECK.

a. Ensuring good powerplant operation first starts with a properly installed propeller. Each propeller should be checked for proper tracking (blades rotating in the same plane of rotation). The following procedure is simple and takes less than 30 minutes:

   (1) Chock the aircraft so it cannot be moved. Remove one sparkplug from each cylinder. This will make the propeller easier and safer to turn.

   (2) Rotate the blade so it is pointing straight down.

   (3) Place a solid object (e.g., a heavy wooden block that is at least a couple inches higher off the ground than the distance between the propeller tip and the ground) next to the propeller tip so it just touches.

   FIGURE 5 - Propeller Tracking
(4) Rotate the propeller slowly to see if the next blade ‘tracks’ through the same point (touches the block, see figure 2). Each blade should be within $\frac{1}{16}$” from one another.

**b. If the propeller is out of track,** it may be due to one or more propeller blades that are bent, a bent propeller flange, or propeller mounting bolts that are over or under torqued. An out-of-track propeller will cause vibration and stress to the engine and airframe and may cause premature propeller failure.

**4. METAL PROPELLER INSPECTION** Perhaps the two biggest problems affecting the airworthiness of metal propellers are corrosion and nicks on the leading edge.

**a. Identifying Corrosion.**

(1) Surface corrosion can occur on the surface of metal blades due to a chemical or electrochemical action. The oxidation product usually appears on the surface of the metal as a white powder.

(2) Pitting corrosion causes small cavities or pits extending into the metal surface. This is an advanced form of corrosion, appearing as small dark holes that usually form under decals or blade overlays.

(3) Inter-granular corrosion, rare and difficult to detect in propellers, is the most dangerous form of corrosion. It attacks the boundary layers of the metal, creating patches of lifted metal and white/gray exfoliation on the surface of the propeller. It is sometimes found in propellers that had a ground strike and have been straightened.

(4) If any of these signs of corrosion are found, do NOT fly the aircraft. Refer to the manufacturer’s maintenance manual for corrosion limits and repairs or AC 43.4, ‘‘Corrosion Control for Aircraft,’’ and AC 20-37D, ‘‘Aircraft, Metal Propeller Maintenance,’’ for additional maintenance information and corrective actions.

**b. Nicks and Metal Blades.**

(1) Nicks in the leading and trailing edge of a metal blade are usually V-shaped. They are caused by high speed impact between the propeller and a stone or piece of gravel. Properly trained individuals can ‘‘dress out’’ the crack if the nick is not too wide and/or deep. Before each nick is dressed out, each nick and surrounding area should be inspected with a 10-power magnifying glass for cracks. If an area looks suspicious, inspect the area again using the propeller manufacturer’s approved dye penetrant or fluorescent penetrant method.

(2) If the nick is left unattended, the high propeller operational stresses will be concentrated at the bottom of the nick’s V and, in time, will generate a crack. The crack can migrate across the blade until the blade fails, producing a massive imbalance between the propeller and the engine, ultimately causing structural failure. Cracks in metal blades CANNOT be repaired. A cracked propeller must be marked unserviceable and discarded.

**c. Warning.** Metal propellers are matched/tuned to the engine and airframe resonant frequency by being manufactured with a particular diameter to minimize vibration. **DO NOT SHORTEN METAL BLADES** for any reason unless the manufacturer specifically permits this major alteration.

**5. PROPELLER INSPECTION.**

**a. Wood propellers should be** inspected before and immediately after a flight. Inspect to ensure the following:

(1) The drain holes are open on metal edged blade tips

(2) The metal/composite leading edge is secured and serviceable

(3) The blades, hub, and leading edge have no scars or bruises

(4) The mounting bolt torque and safety wire or cotter pins are secure

(5) There are no cracks on the propeller spinner (if applicable), and the safety wire is secure

(6) There are no small cracks in the protective coating on the propeller, which are caused by UV radiation

(7) The charring around the mating surface of the prop and the engine flange -- both indications of a loose propeller

**b. A word about torque:** A new, wooden propeller should have the mounting bolts checked
for proper torque within the first hour of flight and
every hour for 10 operational hours thereafter.

(1) After 10 hours, check the bolt torque
every 5 hours thereafter. The mounting bolt torque
also should be checked prior to flight if the aircraft
has been in storage for a long period of time (3 to
6 months).

(2) If the bolts need to be torqued, it is
suggested all the bolts be loosened for an hour to
allow the wood to relax. ‘‘Finger tighten’’ the bolts
until snug and tighten the attaching bolts in small
increments, moving diagonally across the bolt circle.
It is good practice to check the propeller track (see
chapter 1, section 7) as the bolts are torqued down.
The torqued bolts should be safety wired in pairs.

(3) If nylon/fiber insert type nuts are used,
they should be changed every time the propeller bolts
are re-torqued. They should never be used with a
bolt with a cotter key hole in the threaded area
because the sharp edges around the hole will cut
the nylon/fiber insert and reduce the fastener’s
effectiveness. All self-locking nuts should have at
least two bolt threads visible pass the nylon/fiber
insert after torquing.

(4) If any of the following damage is
found, a wood propeller should be removed from
the aircraft and sent back to the manufacturer for
repair. If the propeller cannot be saved, it should
be marked unserviceable.

(i) Any cracks in the blades or hub
(ii) Deep cuts across the wood grain
(iii) Blade track that exceeds $\frac{1}{16}$
limits after attempts to repair
(iv) Any warpage or obvious defect
(v) Extreme wear (leading edge
erosion, bolt hole elongation)
(vi) Any separation between
lamination

NOTE: When parking the aircraft, always
leave the wood propeller in the horizontal
position. This position will allow the wood
to absorb small amounts of moisture evenly
across it’s entire span rather than con-
centrating the moisture (weight) in the low
blade and creating a vibration problem.

6. COMPOSITE PROPELLERS

INSPECTION.

a. There are generally two types of composite
propellers: thermo-plastic injection molded propeller
and the carbon/graphite fiber composite propeller.

(1) The thermo-plastic injection molded
propeller is a low cost, thin bladed propeller used
on engines of 80 horsepower or less. Propeller
inspection is straight forward, by examining the
blades and hub for cracks and nicks. If a crack is
found, do not fly until the propeller is replaced. Small
nicks of $\frac{3}{16}$ of an inch or less can be dressed out
and filled using a two-part epoxy.

(2) Carbon/graphite composite propellers
are primarily used on engines of 40 horsepower and
more. One should inspect for small hair line cracks
in the gel coat. These spider cracks are usually
caused by vibration generated by a mismatch of the
engine and propeller combination. If a crack in the
base material of the propeller other than the gel coat
is found, do not fly until the manufacturer inspects
the propeller.

(i) Nicks of $\frac{1}{2}$ inch or less in the
leading or trailing edges of carbon/graphite propel-
lers can be dressed out and filled using a two-part
epoxy. But if the nick has severed the fiberglass rov-
ing (looks like a fiberglass wire bundle) that runs
hub to tip on the leading and trailing edge, do not
fly. The propeller has been severely damaged and
must be sent back to the factory for inspection and
repair.

(ii) Before making even small repairs
on a composite propeller, check with the manufac-
turer first. Larger nicks must go back to the factory
for inspection and repair.
CHAPTER 2. TAXI TESTS

SECTION 1. LOW SPEED TAXI TESTS

‘‘Yelling ‘Clear the Prop!’ before you start an aircraft is the first of a series of well planned, choreographed steps to make you a professional.’’ Jack Crawford, Pilot, Mechanic, Airport Operator (1994)

1. OBJECTIVES. The objectives of the taxi tests are fourfold:

   a. To ensure that the aircraft ‘‘tracks’’ straight and there is adequate directional control at 20 percent below the anticipated take-off speed.

   b. To determine if the aircraft’s engine cooling and the brake system are adequate.

   c. To predict the flight trim of the aircraft and its handling characteristics during take off and landings.

   d. To allow the pilot to become proficient with the handling and braking characteristics of the aircraft.

   NOTE: All taxi tests, low and high speed, should be made as if it were the first flight. The pilot should be wearing the proper clothing, seat belt/shoulder harness and helmet and be mentally and physically prepared for the possibility of flight.

2. TAXI TESTS.

   a. Prior to beginning taxi tests in a conventional (tail dragger) aircraft, the tail should be raised until the aircraft is in the approximate take-off position. The pilot should spend an hour or more in the cockpit to become accustomed to the aircraft’s take-off position. This small but important aspect of training will help the pilot avoid overreacting to an unexpected deck angle on the first flight.

   NOTE: All taxi tests should always be monitored by a minimum of one other member of the flight test team, who will watch for evidence of fire/smoke or other problems not visible to the pilot.

   b. The taxi tests should begin with a taxi speed no faster than a man can walk. The pilot should spend this time getting acquainted with the aircraft’s low speed handling characteristics by practicing 90, 180, and 360 degree turns and braking action. The pilot should also remember that monitoring the oil pressure, oil temperature, cylinder head temperature, and maintaining them within limits is a critical function that must not be overlooked.
NOTE: The builder should be aware that some aircraft brake manufacturers have specific brake lining conditioning procedures (break-in) for metallic and non-asbestos organic linings. Proper brake lining conditioning should be completed before starting the low and high speed taxi tests. If not properly conditioned, the brake lining will wear quickly and give poor braking action at higher speeds.

c. The pilot should check the flight instruments for operation each time the aircraft is taxied out. The compass should match the magnetic heading of the runway or taxi way the aircraft is on. When making a turn (e.g., right hand turn), the turn coordinator/turn and bank should indicate a right hand turn but the ball should skid to the left. The vertical speed indicator should read zero and the artificial horizon should indicate level.

d. After each taxi run, inspect the aircraft for oil and brake fluid leaks. No leak should be considered a minor problem. Every leak must be repaired and the system serviced prior to the next taxi test.

SECTION 2. HIGH SPEED TAXI TESTS

‘‘First get use to the fact that you are now 30 feet wide and you steer with your feet.’’ Wayne Nutsch

1. OBJECTIVE. To determine the aircraft’s high speed handling and braking parameters.

a. Propeller rotation will determine which rudder pedal is pressed to compensate for the asymmetrical thrust of the propeller blades. For example, when viewed from the cockpit, a Volkswagen automotive engine mounted in a tractor configuration will rotate the propeller counter-clockwise. In this case, the pilot must use the left rudder pedal for high speed taxi and take-off.

b. As with every part of the flight testing program, the high speed taxi tests should follow the FLIGHT TEST PLAN. Start slowly and do not progress to the next step until everyone is thoroughly satisfied with the aircraft and his/her own performance.

c. Each taxi run should be 5 mph faster than the last run until the aircraft is within 80 percent of the predicted stall speed. Prior to reaching the predicted stall speed, the pilot should test aileron effectiveness by attempting to rock the wings slightly. As taxi speeds increase, the rudder becomes more responsive and directional control will improve.

(1) In a nose gear aircraft, the pilot should be able to raise the nose of the aircraft to a take off attitude at 80 percent of the stall speed. If the nose cannot be raised at this speed, the weight and balance and CG range should be rechecked. Most likely there is a forward CG problem or the main gear is too far aft.

(2) In a tail wheel aircraft at 80 percent of stall speed, the pilot should be able to lift the tail and assume a take-off position. Again, if the tail cannot be raised, recheck the weight and balance and CG range. Most likely there is a rearward CG problem or the main gear is too far forward.

CAUTION: Heavy braking action at high speeds in tail wheel aircraft may cause directional problems (ground loops) or nose overs.

c. If runway conditions permit, duplicate each taxi test with the flaps in the take-off and landing configuration. Record the flap effects on directional control and insert the information in the draft copy of the aircraft’s flight manual.

d. Determine the approximate point on the runway where lift-off will occur and mark it with a green flag if no other existing reference is available.

e. Determine how much runway the pilot will need if it becomes necessary to abort the take-off. This is usually accomplished by accelerating to 80 percent of lift off speed, bringing the engine back to idle, and applying heavy braking action to bring the aircraft to a full stop. After each take-off/abort test, the brakes must be allowed to COOL DOWN. The lining must be examined carefully and replaced if necessary.

f. After determining the distance required to come to a full stop after aborting, add 30 percent to the distance. Measure that distance from the OPPOSITE end of the active runway which will be
used. If no existing reference is available, mark it with a red flag. The taxi tests are completed when the test pilot is satisfied with both the aircraft’s and his/her individual performance. Prior to the first flight, the aircraft should be thoroughly inspected with special attention given to the landing gear, brake system, engine, and propeller.

g. **During this inspection** all discrepancies must be fixed. Examine the screens/filters for metal, flush the fuel system, and clean all the screens/filters. Perform a leak check on the engine and the fuel system by running-up the engine.

**h. Notes.**

1. The first high speed taxi tests should be made in a no wind or a light head wind condition. The pilot should ensure that the tests will not interfere with the normal airport operations or create a safety hazard for other aircraft.

2. If the aircraft’s engine is not a U.S. type certificated engine, the pilot should determine **which way the propeller rotates.**

3. Pilots of tail wheel aircraft must always be aware that ground loops are possible at any speed. This is true especially if the main landing gear is located too far forward of the aircraft’s CG.
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CHAPTER 3. THE FIRST FLIGHT

"It is critically important that a test pilot never succumb to the temptation to do too much too soon, for that path leads but to the grave." Richard Hallion (1987)

SECTION 1. GENERAL

1. OBJECTIVE. To take every precaution to ensure that the first test flight is an "uneventful" one.

2. GENERAL.

   a. The first flight is an important event for an amateur-builder. As important as it is, it should not be turned into a social occasion. This puts enormous peer pressure on the pilot to fly an aircraft that may not be airworthy or to conduct the flight in inclement weather.

   b. A "professional" will avoid this trap by following the FLIGHT TEST PLAN and inviting only those members of the crew needed to perform specialized tasks when testing the aircraft.

   c. A safe and uneventful first flight begins with verifying all emergency equipment and personnel are standing by, radio communications are functional, members of the crew are briefed, weather is ideal, and the aircraft is airworthy. The pilot must be rested and physically and mentally ready for the first flight and every flight thereafter. The pilot also should review any new data developed for the aircraft’s flight manual.

   d. The first flight should be flown a thousand times: the first 500 on paper, the next 499 flights in the test pilot’s mind -- and once in actuality. The first flight test should be so well-rehearsed by the test pilot and ground crew that the first flight is a non-event.
31. **RECOMMENDATIONS.**

   a. *The best time to test fly an aircraft* is usually in the early morning when the winds are calm, and the pilot is well rested.

   b. *In addition to a pilot’s knee board,* a small portable tape recorder or video camera properly mounted to the aircraft is an excellent way to record data.

   c. *Good communication with the ground* is essential for data exchange and safety.

4. **FIRST FLIGHT INSPECTION.**

   a. *Prior to the first flight,* the aircraft should be given a good pre-flight inspection by the pilot and at least one other experienced individual. A thorough aircraft pre-flight inspection should ensure that:

      1. The fuel on board is four times the amount of usable, clean, and proper octane fuel than is needed for the first flight. If a 2 cycle engine is used, check that the oil to fuel mix ratio is correct.

      2. A current weight and balance check is completed. The aircraft’s CG should be in the forward half of the safe CG range. This will reduce the possibility of instability during approach to a stall and enhance recovery from one.

      3. Check oil, brake fluid, and hydraulic system for the correct fluid and quantity.

      4. Canopy or cabin door latches lock securely and will not vibrate loose in flight.

      5. Fuel valve is in the proper position and vent lines are open.

      6. Trim tabs set in the take-off position.

      7. Altimeter set to the field elevation and cross-checked with the local altimeter setting.

      8. The complete control system has been given a functional check.

      9. Check of all ground and air communications frequencies for proper operation.

     10. Engine cowling and airframe inspection plates/fairings secured.

     11. The airspeed indicator marked with sticky tape at the ‘‘predicted’’ BEST CLIMB speed, BEST GLIDE speed and MANEUVERING speed. If these speeds are not available from prototype flight test data, the following are conservative guidelines to initially determine the referenced speeds:

            (i) **BEST ANGLE OF CLIMB** \( (V_x) = 1.5 \) times the aircraft’s predicted lift-off speed.

            (ii) **BEST GLIDE SPEED** = 1.5 times the aircraft’s predicted lift-off speed.

            (iii) **MANEUVERING SPEED** \( (V_a) = 2 \) times the aircraft’s predicted stall speed.

            (iv) For applicable aircraft, it is advisable to put the maximum landing gear operating speed \( (V_{lo}) \) and maximum flap extension speed \( (V_{fe}) \) on a piece of masking tape and attach it to the instrument panel for reference.

**SECTION 2. THE ROLE OF THE CHASE PLANE**

1. **OBJECTIVE.** To determine whether a chase plane should be used during the FLIGHT TEST PHASE.

2. **GENERAL.** To use or not to use a chase plane should be a ‘‘test pilot’s’’ decision. If a chase plane is used, it must serve a specific set of functions identified in the FLIGHT TEST PLAN. Its overall purpose is to contribute to gathering flight test data and flight safety. The chase plane should not serve as a distraction to the test pilot or only as a platform for a home camcorder/camera.

   a. *The primary functions of* the chase plane are as follows:

   (1) To watch the parts/systems of the test aircraft not visible to the test pilot and report any problems

   (2) To assist the test pilot in following the FLIGHT TEST PLAN

   (3) Watch for and inform the test pilot of other aircraft

   (4) Assist in an emergency situation
b. If a chase plane is used, the following suggestions are offered:

(1) A single chase plane should be used on the first two flights and the first time the amateur-built aircraft’s landing gear is retracted. The chase plane pilot should be experienced in formation flying and thoroughly briefed prior to each flight.

(2) There should be at least two pilots on board the chase plane. One pilot’s sole duty is to fly the aircraft and maintain a safe distance from the amateur-built aircraft. The other pilot serves as an observer whose duties include checking for other traffic, the condition of the test aircraft, and communicating with the pilot on the frequency assigned by air traffic control (ATC) (e.g., 122.75 megahertz [MHz]).

(3) A good chase plane position is about 100/200 feet off the right side and slightly behind and below the test aircraft. Avoid flying directly behind the test aircraft. It is not uncommon that on first flights, fuel and oil leaks develop and small hardware and fasteners could vibrate off the aircraft.

NOTE: Pilots of Both Aircraft Must Keep Each Other Informed of Their Intended Action or Maneuver Prior to Execution.

c. In an emergency situation:

(1) If the test aircraft’s radio fails, the chase plane should serve as an airborne communication relay with the tower/ATC facility for the test aircraft.

(2) For other emergency situations, the chase plane should provide the test pilot with information or assistance as required. If necessary, the chase plane can guide the test pilot to a safe landing at the airport or an emergency field. If the test aircraft goes down off the airport, the chase plane can serve as an overhead spotter that can direct emergency personnel to the test aircraft location.

SECTION 3. EMERGENCY PROCEDURES

‘‘At the worst possible time, the worst possible thing will happen.’’ Murphy’s Law

1. OBJECTIVE. To develop a complete set of in-flight emergency procedures for the aircraft that are designed to make unmanageable situations manageable.

2. GENERAL. The FLIGHT TEST PLAN should have a special section on emergency procedures. The responses to each emergency should have been developed based on the aircraft’s predicted flight characteristics, airport location, surrounding terrain, and nearby emergency fields.

   a. The following is a partial list of possible emergencies that may arise during the flight test phase and includes suggested responses:

      (1) PROBLEM: Engine failure on take-off.

      RESPONSE: Fly the aircraft! Establish best glide speed. If time permits, try to restart engine. If altitude is below 800 feet and the engine will not start, land straight ahead or 20 degrees on either side of the runway centerline. This is suggested because in most cases the aircraft will run out of altitude or airspeed as the pilot attempts a 180 degree turn back to the airport. Declare an emergency and shut off the master switch, fuel, and magnetos to reduce the possibility of fire on landing. Above 800 feet, the chances of making a 180 degree turn to land downwind on the runway or another emergency field nearby are directly proportional to the wind velocity and the numbers of practice emergency landings the pilots has made in similar make and model aircraft.

      (2) PROBLEM: Engine vibration increases with rpm.

      RESPONSE: Fly the aircraft! Reduce power or increase power to minimize the effect of vibration, but maintain safe airspeed and altitude. Run through the emergency checklist and land as soon as possible.

      (3) PROBLEM: Smoke in the cockpit.

      RESPONSE 1: Fly the aircraft! If the smoke smells like burnt plastic wire installation, shut off the master switch. Put on smoke goggles,
open the fresh air vents to clear the cockpit, and land as soon as possible.

RESPONSE 2: *Fly the aircraft!* If the smoke is bluish/grey and has an acrid odor like burning oil, shut off the fresh air/hot air vents and put on the smoke goggles. Monitor oil pressure and temperature. Be prepared to shut the engine down and land as soon as possible.

(4) PROBLEM: Engine fire.

RESPONSE: *Fly the aircraft!* Shut off the fuel selector, mixture master switch, and magnetos. Land as soon as possible.

(5) PROBLEM: Out of rig condition.

RESPONSE: *Fly the aircraft!* Try to use the appropriate trim to offset adverse control pressures. Keep the airspeed high enough to maintain altitude. Make small control inputs, reduce power slowly to avoid controllability problems, and land as soon as practical.

(6) PROBLEM: Cabin door opening in flight.

RESPONSE: *Fly the aircraft!* A partially open door usually affects the airflow over the tail causing reduced control response and vibration. Reduce speed, maintain level flight, and yaw/slip the aircraft left or right to reduce vibration. Open the side vent window to reduce air pressure resistance in the cabin and attempt to shut the door. Sometimes putting the aircraft in a skid will assist in closing a partially open door.

b. Other possible emergencies to plan for include:

(1) Canopy opening unexpectedly
(2) Loss of communications
(3) Throttle stuck in one position
(4) Oil on the windshield
(5) Propeller throws a blade
(6) Fire in the cockpit

SECTION 4. FIRST FLIGHT

“Always leave yourself a way out.” Chuck Yeager

1. OBJECTIVES. The two objectives of the first flight are to determine engine reliability and flight control characteristics.

   a. After completing the pre-flight inspection, the test pilot should ensure that the seat/shoulder harness is properly fitted and allows easy access to all the cockpit controls (verified by a crew member). Following the FLIGHT TEST PLAN and using the starting checklist, warm up the engine until the engine instruments indicate normal operating temperatures and pressures.

   b. A complete check of each aircraft system should be performed (e.g., carb heat, magnetos, static rpm, and brakes).

   c. If the airport does not have a tower/unicom available, the pilot should transmit over 122.9 MHz the following message: “This is experimental aircraft N____ on the first test flight, departing runway _____ at ______ airport, and will remain in the local area for the next hour.” Transmit the aircraft N number, location, and intentions every ten minutes.

   d. If the airport is equipped with a tower, notify them that an experimental aircraft is on its first test flight and requests take-off instructions.

   e. After being given clearance to take-off, clear the area, line up on the runway centerline, release the brakes, and slowly add power to provide “Thinking Time.” When the throttle is fully advanced, glance at the an oil pressure gauge and tachometer to confirm they are in the green and indicating take-off rpm. A type certificated engine of a 100 horsepower will produce between 2100 to 2300 rpm on the take-off roll, depending on the type of propeller installed. If either oil pressure or tachometer is reading low, *abort the takeoff*!

   f. If there is any unusual vibration, rpm exceeding the red line, or engine hesitation, *abort the takeoff*!
g. **If in a tail wheel aircraft**, keep the tail on the runway until the rudder is effective. This usually happens at approximately 35 mph on most aircraft.

h. **As the aircraft accelerates** and approaches the predicted/manufacturer’s lift off speed/point (green flag), gently ease back on the stick. The first take-off should be a gentle and well-controlled maneuver with the aircraft doing all the work.

i. **If the aircraft does not** want to rotate or unusual stick forces are experienced, **abort the takeoff**!

j. **If the aircraft has retractable** gear, do not raise the gear on the first two to three flights until the aircraft’s stability/control responses have been explored a little further.

k. **It is recommended that after establishing** a safe climb angle, the pilot **DOES NOT** throttle back, switch tanks, or make large inputs into the flight controls for the first 1,000 feet. At the preselected altitude, reduce power slowly to avoid a pitch up or pitch down that might be associated with rapid power reductions.

   **NOTE:** Check if there is any additional stick or rudder input pressure during the climb.

   Try reducing any abnormal stick pressures with trim. Each control input should be small and slow.

l. **If any unusual engine vibrations**, rapid oil pressure fluctuation, oil and cylinder head temperatures approaching red line, or decreasing fuel pressure is experienced, refer to the emergency check list and land as soon as possible.

### SECTION 5. FIRST FLIGHT PROCEDURES

“In my opinion, about 90 percent of your risk in a total program comes with a first flight. There is no nice in-between milestone. You have to bite it off in one chunk.” Deke Slayton

1. **OBJECTIVE.** To perform a series of tests to develop data that will ensure a safe landing.

   a. **The First Test Flight.**

      (1) After take-off, climb to 3,000 feet above ground level (AGL) and level off. Reduce power slowly. Complete the cruise checklist items. Following the FLIGHT TEST PLAN, circle the airport or emergency field as the engine performance is being monitored.

      (2) Limit the cruise speed to no more than 1.5 the predicted stall speed of the aircraft. This will reduce the chances of flutter. If the engine appears to be operating smoothly, try testing the flight controls.

      (3) With the airspeed being monitored, each control input should be gentle and small. Start with the rudder first. Yaw the nose of the aircraft 5 degrees left and right. Note the response. Raise the aircraft’s nose 3 degrees up, note the response. After the aircraft is stabilized, level off and try three degrees nose down, trim, and note the response. Try a gentle bank of no more than 5 degrees to the left, then one to the right. If the aircraft is stable and is operating smoothly, try a few 90 degree clearing turns, followed by two 360 degree turns: one to the left and one to the right at a bank angle of 10 degrees.

      (4) If the aircraft is responding to the prescribed specifications, increase the bank angle in succeeding turns to 20 degrees. If no problems are encountered, climb to 5,000 feet AGL (using the climb checklist and monitoring engine gauges), level off, fly an imaginary landing pattern, and test the flaps. Do not forget to announce every 5 to 10 minutes the aircraft’s location, altitude, and intentions. Practice approach to landing by descending to 4,000 feet AGL first, then to 3,000 feet. **Remember, use the descent checklist.**

      (5) During these maneuvers, control pressures should increase in proportion to control deflection. If control pressure remains the same as control deflection increases or if stick forces become lighter as control deflection increases, the aircraft may have a stability problem. Avoid large control movements and land as soon as possible.

      (6) Remember to keep informing the tower/UNICOM/chase plane of what is happening. For 10 minutes of anticipated flight time, plan a brief rest period for the pilot. Fly straight and level, monitor the gauges, and enjoy the experience.
(7) At low cruise power setting, straight and level, observe how the aircraft trims out. Do the “fixed” trim tabs on the rudder and aileron need adjustment? Are the adjustable aileron and elevator trim control effective? Is the control stick/yoke slightly forward of the mid-position in straight and level flight?

(8) Climb slowly back up to 5,000 feet. Two questions must be answered before landing:

(i) Is the aircraft controllable at low speeds?

(ii) What is the approximate stall speed?

(9) These questions can be answered with an approach to a stall maneuver. Do NOT perform a FULL STALL check at this time!

(10) The necessity for an approach to a stall check is because it will help establish a preliminary stall speed \( V_{sa} \) in mph/knots so the approach speed for landing can be calculated. Also, the pilot will have knowledge of the aircraft’s handling characteristics at low speed.

b. Suggested Procedure.

(1) Level off at altitude; make two clearing turns; stabilize airspeed, heading, and altitude; apply carb heat; set the flaps in the landing configuration and reduce power slowly to 900 rpm. TRIM. If, as is not uncommon on first flights, the aircraft cannot be trimmed properly, the pilot can still proceed with the check as long as the stick forces are not unusually heavy.

(2) With the aircraft airspeed approximately 1.4 mph/knots times \( X \) the predicted stall speed, raise the nose slowly. It is desirable for the aircraft to start decelerating slowly, about \( \frac{1}{2} \) mph/knot a second. A 30 mph/knot deceleration at \( \frac{1}{2} \) mph/knot per second will take only a minute.

(3) As the aircraft slows down, note all the things that happen as the speed bleeds off. Observe the changing nose attitude and how the stick force changes. Keep the turn coordinator or turn and bank “ball” in the middle.

(4) Note how much rudder it takes to keep the ball centered. Every few seconds make very small control inputs to check that the aircraft is operating in the prescribed manner. If the aircraft does not respond to small control inputs -- and it should not be expected to respond as quickly as it did at higher speeds -- make the inputs a little bit larger. Increase the amount of input progressively. Do not simultaneously put in all three control inputs. Give particular attention to the response to nose-down elevator inputs, which is necessary for recovery.

(5) Notice any changes in flight characteristics and the speeds at which they take place. Be especially alert for the onset of pre-stall buffet. Is the buffet felt through the stick? Through the airframe? Though the seat of the pants? Does the nose of the airplane want to rise or drop on its own? How strong is the buffet? Is it continuous? Would it get the pilot’s attention if they were concentrating on something else?

NOTE: On some high performance aircraft and aircraft with unusual wing designs, a pre-stall buffet may not exist and the stall may be abrupt and violent with a large degree of wing drop.

(6) Keep making small control inputs at intervals to check the aircraft’s responses. At approximately 5 mph/knots before the predicted stall speed, or at the first sign of a pre-stall buffet, note the airspeed and stop the test. Recover and write down the pre-stall indicated airspeed. This airspeed should be the reference stall speed for the first landing.

(7) The pre-stall recovery response should be a smooth and quick forward stick movement. This response should be enough to reduce the angle of attack to the point where the airplane is flying normally again.

(8) A wing drop would be unexpected so early in the approach to a stall, but if it becomes necessary to raise a low wing do it with rudder, NOT OPPOSITE AILERON. Use of ailerons at lower speed would increase the chances for a stall or a sudden departure from controlled flight.

(9) There is no need to gain more airspeed than the extra few mph/knots to fly out of a pre-stall condition. After returning to straight and level flight and using the information learned, the pilot can practice a few more recoveries from a pre-stall condition. Remember the aircraft will constantly be
loosing altitude so it is necessary to climb back up to 5,000 feet AGL to continue further flight testing. Do not get so involved that the overall objective of the first flight is lost -- which is getting the pilot and aircraft safely back on the ground.

(10) The FLIGHT TEST PLAN for the first flight should call for a maximum of 1 hour of actual flight time. This is to reduce pilot fatigue and the possibility of an engine failure or airframe malfunction occurring due to vibration or construction errors.

NOTE: The pilot may elect to make several practice approaches to landing at altitude or low approaches to the active runway to get a solid understanding of the lower airspeeds, aircraft attitude, and overall feel of the aircraft in the landing configuration. Before each low approach at the airport, the tower/UNICOM/chase plane should be advised of the pilot’s intentions. Avoid other traffic in the pattern, and use the landing checklist.

(11) When the pilot has completed all the tests called for by the FLIGHT TEST PLAN, notify the tower/UNICOM/chase plane of the intent to land. Complete the landing checklist before entering downwind. Keep all turns less than 20 degrees of bank, but do not cross-control by using the rudder to move the nose. This will increase the bank angle, which most pilots will correct by using opposite aileron. If allowed to continue, and with back pressure on the stick, this will result in a cross-control stall and a roll to a near vertical bank attitude at the beginning of a spin with no altitude left for recovery.

(12) On final approach, the aircraft speed should be no less than 1.3 but no more than 1.4 times the recorded “first flight” pre-stall speed. Homebuilt biplanes (high drag) should use an approach speed of 1.5 x stall speed on landings.

(13) Landings, especially the first one in an amateur-built or kit plane, are always exciting. Proceed slowly and do not over control. If the landing conditions are not ideal, be prepared to go around.

(14) The actual touchdown should take place within the first 1,000 feet with braking action being applied before the red (abort) flag marker on the runway.

(15) After taxiing in, secure the aircraft, debrief the flight with members of the team, then together perform a careful post-flight inspection of the aircraft.

NOTE: Remember to allow enough time to absorb what has been learned about the aircraft’s performance and the pilot’s and ground crew’s responses to it.
CHAPTER 4. THE FIRST 10 HOURS

“One can get a proper insight into the practice of flying only by actual flying experiments.”
Otto Lilienthal (1896)

SECTION 1. THE SECOND FLIGHT

1. OBJECTIVE. To re-affirm the first flight findings.

   a. Before the second flight, the pilot should ensure that all discrepancies noted on the first flight are corrected. It is probable that more ground run-ups, rigging adjustments, or taxi tests will be required. Under no circumstances should a pilot take-off in an aircraft with known airworthiness problems. The Law of Aerodynamics does not often forgive these types of mistakes.

   b. The pre-flight inspection should be the same as performed for the first flight, including draining the oil and inspecting the oil and fuel screens for contamination.

   c. The second flight, again lasting approximately an hour, should be a carbon copy of the first one, with the exception that all first flight discrepancies are corrected. If problems are not corrected, all further flight testing should be canceled until solutions are found.

SECTION 2. THE THIRD FLIGHT

“Plan the flight, fly the Plan.” Sign on the wall at the Naval Test Pilot School, Patuxent River, MD

1. OBJECTIVE. To validate the engine reliability.

2. GENERAL. The third flight should concentrate on engine performance. Do not forget to record the engine’s response to any application of carb heat, leaning of the fuel mixture, changes to airspeed, and its response to switching fuel tanks.

   a. Engine oil pressure, oil temperature, fuel pressure, and cylinder head temperatures should be monitored and recorded from 55 percent through 75 percent rpm. At the higher rpm, be sure not to exceed 80 percent of the maximum cruise speed. This is to avoid the possibility of encountering a flutter condition. Do not forget to record the engine responses to any applications of carb heat, leaning the fuel mixture, changes to the power settings (RPM and Manifold pressure), changes to airspeed, and its response to switching fuel tanks.

   b. Resist the temptation to explore the more exciting dimensions of flight. Stick to the FLIGHT TEST PLAN and perform a conscientious evaluation of the engine. After landing, review the data with the crew members. Make adjustments as needed, perform another post-flight inspection of the aircraft, and record oil and fuel consumption.

   c. After three hours of flight testing, the pilot should be able to make the initial determination that the aircraft is stable and engine is reliable in cruise configuration.

SECTION 3. HOURS 4 THROUGH 10

“Keep your brain a couple steps ahead of the airplane.” Neil Armstrong

1. OBJECTIVE. To build on the data established by the first three hours and start expanding on the flight test envelope in a thorough and cautious manner. This operational data will be added to the aircraft’s flight manual.

2. GENERAL. These next seven 1-hour test segments should confirm the results of the first 3 hours and explore the following areas:

   a. Gear retraction (if applicable)
b. Climbs and descents to preselected altitudes. (monitor engine performance)

c. Airspeed indicator in-flight accuracy check

NOTE: After each test flight, ALL DISCREPANCIES must be cleared before the next flight. The aircraft also must be THOROUGHLY INSPECTED prior to the next flight.

NOTE: It is recommended that all flight test maneuvers be preceded with two 90 degree clearing turns to ensure that the flight test area is free of other aircraft.

3. GEAR RETRACTION.

a. Before the gear is retracted in flight for the first time, it is advisable to put the aircraft up on jacks and perform several gear retraction tests, including the emergency gear extension test. These tests will determine if, in the last three hours of flight testing, any structural deformation or systems malfunctions have occurred. In addition to the gear retraction test, the pilot/chase pilot/ground crew should use this time to review the aircraft’s kit/designer instructions and emergency checklist procedures for malfunctioning gear and plan accordingly. If at any time the aircraft has suffered a hard landing or side loading on the gear during flight testing, the aircraft and its gear should be tested for operation and condition on the ground.

b. The first gear retraction test should be conducted with the aircraft flying straight and level at or above 5,000 feet AGL, over an airport or emergency field. The airspeed must be well under the maximum landing gear retraction airspeed. When the gear is being retracted, note if there is any tendency for the aircraft to yaw, pitch, or roll. Record what changes to the aircraft’s trim are required to maintain straight and level flight. If there are no adverse flight reactions or system malfunctions, cycle the gear several times. When satisfied with the straight and level gear retraction test, try an emergency gear extension but only if this is practical.

c. With the gear extended, slow the aircraft to 1.3 times the pre-determined stall speed, stabilize, lower the flaps to the take-off position, trim, and maintain straight and level flight.

d. Simulate a normal takeoff by increasing rpm to full power. Raise the nose 3 degrees, trim, and then retract the gear. Observe the following: aircraft reaction, such as pitch or roll; length of time for gear to retract; trim requirements; and the time necessary to establish a 1,000-foot climb before leveling off.

e. Practice a simulated takeoff several times to ensure that the aircraft’s response is predictable and the gear retraction system is mechanically reliable.

4. CLIMBS AND DESCENTS. The purpose of these tests is to monitor engine performance and reliability. The pilot should start the test only after the aircraft has been flying straight and level for a minimum of 10 minutes to stabilize engine oil pressure and temperatures.

a. Engine oil pressure and temperatures must be kept within the manufacturer’s limits at all times during these tests. High summer temperatures may place restrictions on the flight test program because both oil and cylinder head temperatures will increase 1 degree for each 1 degree increase in outside temperature.

1) Climbs. Start the first climb at a 15 degree climb angle, full power, at a predetermined designated altitude (e.g., 1,000 feet). Maintain the climb angle for 1 minute. Record the engine temperatures and pressures. Reduce power, stabilize the engine temperature, and repeat the test. For the second climb test, the Flight Test Plan should call for increasing the climb time -- record the results. When satisfied that an engine cooling problem does not exist at this climb angle, repeat the tests using steeper climb angles until the pilot has reached 15 degrees or encountered an engine manufacturer’s limit or a 5-minute climb period at full throttle has been reached.

2) Descents. Should begin above 5,000 feet AGL with both the engine temperatures and pressures stabilized.

i) The test pilot should use carb heat and clear the airspace below him before starting the descent. The first descent should be at a shallow angle, at low rpm and last for 30 seconds, not exceeding 1.5 times the estimated stall speed of the aircraft. During long, low power descents, the pilot must be on the alert for too rapid cooling of the engine usually identified by a signifi-
cant drop in oil and CHT temperature. If a noticeable drop occurs, increase the engine rpm and reduce the angle of descent. If not corrected, the repeated rapid cooling of the engine may cause thermal shock to the engine cylinders and eventually cause cylinder head cracking or seizure.

(ii) Conduct each test as before, but increase the time by 30 seconds until limited by the engine manufacturer’s restrictions or 5-minute descents are reached. Record temperatures, pressures, altitudes, and airspeeds data for climbs and descents for addition into the aircraft’s flight manual.

5. AIRSPEED IN-FLIGHT ACCURACY CHECK. The following procedure for airspeed calibration is offered for evaluation:

a. A measured course should be chosen with readily identifiable landmarks at each end. The landmarks should be a known distance apart, and the length of course should be at least 1 to 2 miles long.

b. The pilot must fly a precision course maintaining a constant altitude (e.g., 1,000 feet), constant airspeed, constant magnetic heading, and constant engine rpm. The pilot must record the temperature, altitude, indicated airspeed and the time over each landmark for both directions. The average of these speeds is the ground speed of the aircraft. An E6B computer will convert the temperature, altitude, and ground speed into True Indicated Airspeed for the tests.

NOTE: The difference between the E6B computer readings and the aircraft’s ground speed readings is the error in the instrument and the error caused by the installation of the system in the aircraft.

c. The airspeed calibrations runs should be made several times in opposite headings for each of the selected airspeeds the pilot wants to check. Such accuracy test runs should start at the lowest safe airspeed and work up to cruise speed using 10 mph/knot increments.

d. Most errors will be found at the low end of the speed range due to the angle of the pitot mast to the relative wind and/or the location of the static ports. Recently, amateur-builders have been using Global Positioning Satellite (GPS) hand held receivers to check airspeed accuracy.

NOTE: Flight testing of all amateur-built aircraft is restricted to a flight test area. If a pilot must run additional tests on the aircraft that require more airspace, he should notify the FAA District Office that issued the aircraft’s operating limitations and request a change to those limitations. If a pilot is found to be operating an EXPERIMENTAL AIRCRAFT in violation of the aircraft’s Operating Limitations, the FAA may take certificate action.

e. If the aircraft has retractable gear or flaps, test the accuracy of the airspeed indicator with the gear/flaps up and down.

f. Record all the data in order to prepare an airspeed calibration table for the flight manual.
CHAPTER 5. EXPANDING THE ENVELOPE

‘‘Checklist! Checklist!! Checklist!!!’’ Jim Byers, Flight Instructor/Examiner

SECTION 1. GENERAL

1. OBJECTIVE. To move from a known flight environment to an unknown flight environment using a series of planned and carefully executed steps.

   a. Before beginning the next series of test flights, it is highly recommended that the aircraft undergo a ‘‘Condition Annual’’ inspection as identified in the FAA Operation Limitation the amateur-builder received with the special airworthiness certificate. It is strongly recommended that the builder and/or pilot TAKE THE TIME to inspect the aircraft because within the previous 10 hours, the aircraft has been subjected to what can be referred to as a ‘‘shakedown cruise.’’

   b. During the inspection, check the TORQUE (paint marks) on the engine mounts, propeller bolts, and landing gear. Double check the flight control hinges and rod end bearings for attachment and play. Check all cable installations, cable tension, and control travel in addition to completing all the standard inspection and maintenance items. This inspection also should include checking the oil and fuel filters for metal or other forms of contamination.

   c. Even if there have been no indications of CO contamination, perform another carbon monoxide (CO) test using the floodlight procedure (see chapter 1, section 7) or an industrial CO test meter. There is a strong possibility that operational vibration and landing stresses may have opened new paths for CO to enter the cockpit.

SECTION 2. HOURS 11 THROUGH 20

‘‘Fly Scared!’’ Admiral Jack Ready, U.S.N.

1. OBJECTIVE. To focus the next 10 hours of flight testing on the following: stall speed, best rate of climb speed, best angle of climb speed, and slow flight. It is recommended that stall speed tests be conducted with the aircraft’s fuel tanks full. (CG).

   a. As with any unknown, approach slowly, incrementally, and follow the FLIGHT TEST PLAN. To improve safety and reduce the possibility of spins, the aircraft should be tested with a forward CG loading. Start the stall tests at 6,000 AGL. Make clearing turns and stabilize the airspeed and altitude. The first full stall should be conducted with power off, no flaps, and gear-up if applicable. After clearing the area, reduce the airspeed to 1.3 times the predicted stall speed and trim. (NOTE: Do not trim within 10 knots of stall.)

   NOTE: Some clean, high performance aircraft may not have any noticeable pre-stall buffet. The actual stall may be abrupt and violent with a large amount of wing or nose drop.

   b. The preferred pre-stall and stall behavior is an unmistakable warning buffet starting lightly about 5 to 10 mph/knots above the eventual stall speed, growing in intensity as the aircraft slows down.

   c. The desired stall characteristics should be a straight forward nose drop with no tendency for roll or pitch-up. This docile and forgiving behavior implies a stall that has started at the wing root and progressed smoothly outboard. This gives an early warning to the pilot in the form of the buffet from separated airflow over the wings and or tail. The ailerons will continue to operate in the attached air flow until the aircraft’s stall speed is reached and the wing stalls.

   d. Begin by using the same procedures employed on the first flight. Secure cockpit items and put on carburetor heat. Decelerate slowly at ½ MPH/knot a second. Make small control inputs, keep the ball centered, and note the aircraft’s reaction.
e. Let the aircraft stall and recover immediately, with stick forward and increasing power. Note the stall speed.

f. Practice the same stall sequence several times at \( \frac{1}{2} \) mph/knot speed deceleration rate to determine the power-off, one g stall speed. Practice the same stall series with flaps, starting with the lowest setting first and working slowly to the full flap configuration. Record the findings.

g. After exploring the stall and recovery behavior in a slow deceleration with the ball in the middle, try a series of stalls with flaps up and then flaps down with a faster rate of deceleration. Do not exceed the deceleration rate expected in normal operations.

2. STALLS.

a. Power on Stalls. As before, use the same procedures moving from the known to the unknown. Increase power incrementally and run a stall test at each new power setting until full power is reached. It is not advisable to jump straight from idle to full power with the resultant large changes in pitch attitude, torque reaction, and slip stream effect on the wing and tail.

b. Conducting Power on Stalls. It is recommended that the aircraft be stabilized in level flight at low cruise power. The power-on stall is reached by slowly increasing the power to the desired power setting. The pilot then steadily increases the pitch attitude until the aircraft experiences the stall buffet. Remember to keep the ball in the center until the onset of the stall buffet.

(1) The power on stall may be more likely to cause a wing drop than one at idle. This is due to torque reaction and because the propeller slip-stream tends to keep the flow of higher velocity air over the inboard (root) section of the wing despite the higher angle of attack. This allows the root portion of the wing to continue flying after the wing tip stalls, dropping a wing.

(2) Tip stalls usually do not give advance warning and will almost invariably result in some severe wing drop. These stalls are more likely to result in a spin, even if the controls are not mishandled. If the spin does not develop, considerably more height will be lost in the recovery than if the stall had been straight-ahead nose down.

(3) If the pilot yields to instinct and tries to correct the wing drop with aileron, it could result in a spin. Since a sharp wing drop could be regarded as the onset of spin auto-rotation, the recommended corrective action is to reduce power, exercise prompt application of full opposite rudder combined with lowering the nose to the horizon or below. Take care to avoid this situation until the aircraft’s spin behavior has been tested.

(4) Perform the same sequence of events for power on stalls as power-off stalls, unless limited by the designer’s instructions. Record all findings for the aircraft’s flight manual.

NOTE: Aircraft with retractable gear will have to go through a separate series of slow flight and stall checks with gear extended, with and without flaps. Record the different stall speeds for each configuration in the aircraft’s flight manual.
c. Best Rate of Climb Speed Tests. To determine the best rate of climb for the aircraft, the following procedures are suggested:

   (1) Perform the tests in smooth air, free from thermal activity. Select an altitude (e.g., 1,000 feet AGL) as a BASE attitude. Use a heading 90 degrees to the wind and for the best results, reverse the heading 180 degrees after each climb test.

   (2) Begin a full throttle climb well below the predetermined BASE altitude and stabilize at a preselected airspeed approximately 15 mph/knots above the predicted best rate of climb speed. As the aircraft passes through the BASE altitude, begin a one minute time check. At the end of 1 minute, record the altitude gained. Descend down below the BASE altitude. Decrease the airspeed by 5 mph/knots and run the test again. After each succeeding test, the pilot should decrease the airspeed by 5 mph/knots until reaching an airspeed that is 10 mph/knots higher than the stall speed of the aircraft. Record the airspeed and altitude gained for each climb on a graph similar to figure 6.

   (3) The airspeed that shows the greatest gain in altitude is the aircraft's best rate of climb speed ($V_y$).
**d. Best Angle of Climb Speed Tests.**

(1) Best angle of climb speed can be found by using the same chart developed for the best rate of climb tests. Draw a line (tangent) from the zero rate of climb feet per minute (see figure 4) outward to a point, on the rate of climb airspeed curve. Where both lines touch, draw a line straight down to the airspeed leg of the chart.

(2) The airspeed that the line intersects is the best angle of climb airspeed.

**e. Slow Flight Test.**

(1) For added safety, the slow flight tests should be performed at 6,000 AGL or higher to allow room for spin recovery. THE PRIMARY PURPOSE OF THESE TESTS IS FOR THE PILOT TO BECOME楊AMILAR WITH THE AIRCRAFT’S HANDLING QUALITIES AT THE MINIMUM GEAR UP/DOWN AIRSPEEDS AND POWER SETTINGS.

(2) The tests should be done with and without flaps. Start the tests at an airspeed of 1.3 times \( \times \) the stall speed of the aircraft. Once the aircraft is stabilized and maintaining its altitude, reduce the airspeed by 5 mph/knots. Maintain the altitude. Keep reducing the airspeed until approaching a stall.

(3) Maintain 5 mph/knots above the previously determined stall speed. This figure is the initial slow flight airspeed. Practice with each flap setting, noting its affect on the aircraft’s performance. If the aircraft has retractable gear, test in all gear and flap combinations. These tests will have to be run later in the flight test program but with the AIRCRAFT AT GROSS WEIGHT to determine the actual slow flight airspeed and stall speeds.

(4) Remember, to help reduce the possibility of unplanned stalls in slow flight configurations, avoid bank angles of more than 5 degrees. When all the test data has been evaluated, and if the aircraft is equipped with a stall warning horn or indicator, set the stall warning at 5 mph/knots above the aircraft’s highest stall speed.
SECTION 3. HOURS 21 THROUGH 35: STABILITY AND CONTROL CHECKS

"A superior pilot uses his superior judgement to avoid those situations which require the use of superior skill." Old Aviation Proverb

1. OBJECTIVE. To determine the aircraft’s stability limits and range of control.

2. GENERAL. Before attempting to satisfy the requirements of Federal Aviation Regulations § 91.319 Aircraft Having Experimental Certificates: Operating Limitations and declaring that the aircraft is controllable throughout the normal range of speeds, two things must be done.
   
a. Perform another complete inspection of the aircraft, including oil changes and fuel system filter checks.

b. Carry out a close examination of the stability and control characteristics of the aircraft. Stability and control checks will be centered around the three axes of the aircraft: longitudinal or roll axis (ailerons), the lateral or pitching axis (elevators), and the vertical or yaw axis (rudder).

c. All tests need a starting point. The starting point for stability and control checks is called the state of equilibrium. An aircraft is said to be in a state of equilibrium when it experiences no acceleration and remains in a steady trimmed condition until the force or moment balance is disturbed by an atmospheric irregularity or by pilot input.

   FIGURE 8. Static Stability

3. DEFINITIONS.

   a. Static Stability: (positive) is when an aircraft tends to return to the state of initial equilibrium position following a disturbance.

   b. Static Stability: (neutral) is when an aircraft remains in equilibrium in a “new” position, following a disturbance from an initial equilibrium position.

   c. Static Stability: (negative) is when an aircraft tends to move further in the same direction as the disturbance that moved it from the initial equilibrium position (figure 8).
d. Dynamic Stability: is the time history of the movement of the aircraft in response to its static stability tendencies following an initial disturbance from equilibrium (figure 9).

e. Test for Static Longitudinal Stability.

(1) This test should be done first. All tests should be conducted with the aircraft in the forward of center CG. Climb to at least 6,000 feet AGL and trim the aircraft for zero stick force in straight and level flight at low cruising speed. (Note: Do not retrim the aircraft once the test has begun.) Apply a light ‘‘pull’’ force and stabilize at an airspeed about 10 percent less than the trimmed cruise speed. At this reduced airspeed it should require a ‘‘pull’’ force to maintain the slower speed.

(i) If it requires a ‘‘pull’’ force, pull a little further back on the stick and stabilize the airspeed at approximately 20 percent below the initial cruise trim speed.

(ii) If it requires a still greater ‘‘pull’’ force to maintain this lower airspeed, the aircraft has POSITIVE STATIC LONGITUDINAL STABILITY.

(iii) If at either test points, no ‘‘pull’’ force is required to maintain the reduced airspeeds, the aircraft has NEUTRAL STATIC LONGITUDINAL STABILITY.

(iv) If either of these test points require a ‘‘push’’ force to maintain the reduced airspeed then the aircraft has NEGATIVE STATIC LONGITUDINAL STABILITY.

(2) Repeat another series of static longitudinal stability tests using a ‘‘push’’ force on the control stick. At an airspeed 10 percent above the trim cruise speed the control stick should require a ‘‘push’’ force to maintain the airspeed. If a ‘‘pull’’ force is required, the aircraft has NEGATIVE STATIC LONGITUDINAL STABILITY.

WARNING: If the aircraft exhibits negative static longitudinal stability, seek professional advice on correcting the problem before further flight.

(3) After confirming the aircraft has positive STATIC longitudinal stability, the pilot can check for positive DYNAMIC longitudinal stability (short period). First, trim the aircraft to fly straight and level at normal trim cruise speed. With a smooth, but fairly rapid motion, push the nose down a few degrees.
(4) Quickly reverse the input to nose up to bring the pitch attitude back to trim attitude. As the pitch attitude reaches trim attitude, release the stick (but guard it). The aircraft with positive dynamic longitudinal stability will oscillate briefly about the trim attitude before stopping at the trim attitude position.

(5) To test the aircraft for positive DYNAMIC longitudinal stability (long period), begin from trimmed, straight and level flight. Without re-trimming, pull (or push) the stick to a speed about 5 mph/knots off trim and release the stick. There is no need to stabilize at the new speed. Expect the aircraft to oscillate slowly about the trim airspeed a number of times before the motion dampens out. If there is significant friction in the control system, the aircraft may settle at a speed somewhat different from the original trim speed.

(6) If the amplitude increases with time, the dynamic longitudinal stability is negative or divergent. This is not necessarily dangerous as long as the rate of divergence is not too great. It does mean, however, the aircraft will be difficult to trim and will require frequent pilot attention.

(7) An aircraft with “NEUTRAL” dynamic longitudinal stability (long period) will continue to oscillate through a series of increasing/decreasing airspeeds and never return to the original trim airspeed.

f. Lateral-directional Stability Control Tests. Lateral (Dihedral Effect) and directional stability tests are to determine if the aircraft can demonstrate a tendency to raise the low wing in a sideslip once the ailerons are freed. They also determine if the rudder is effective in maintaining directional control.

CAUTION: This test may impose high flight loads on the aircraft. Do not exceed the design maneuvering speed or any other airspeed limitation.

(1) To check lateral and directional stability, the aircraft should be trimmed for level flight at a low cruise setting and an altitude above 5,000 feet AGL. Slowly enter a sideslip by maintaining the aircraft’s heading with rudder and ailerons. The aircraft should be able to hold a heading with rudder at a bank angle of 10 degrees or the bank angle appropriate for full rudder deflection. The control forces and deflection should increase steadily, although not necessarily in constant proportions with one another (in some cases, rudder forces may lighten), until either the rudder or the ailerons reach full deflection or the maximum sideslip angle is reached.

(2) At no time should there be a tendency toward a force reversal, which could lead to an overbalance condition or a rudder lock.

(3) Release the ailerons while still holding full rudder. When the ailerons are released, the low wing should return to the level position. Do not assist the ailerons during this evaluation.

(4) To check static directional stability, trim the aircraft at a low cruise setting above 5,000 feet AFL. Slowly yaw the aircraft left and right using the rudder. Simultaneously the wings should be kept level by using the ailerons. When the rudder is released, the aircraft should tend to return to straight flight.

g. Spiral Stability. This is determined by the aircraft’s tendency to raise the low wing when the controls are released in a bank. To test for spiral stability, apply 15 to 20 degrees of bank either to the left or right, and release the controls. If the bank angle decreases, the spiral stability is positive. If the bank angle stays the same, the spiral stability is neutral. If the bank angle increases, the spiral stability is negative. Negative spiral stability is not necessarily dangerous, but the rate of divergence should not be too great or the aircraft will require frequent pilot attention and will be difficult to fly, especially on instruments.

NOTE: Friction in the aileron control system can completely mask the inherent spiral characteristics of the airframe.
SECTION 4. A WORD OR TWO ABOUT FLUTTER

“Stay up on the edge of your seat.” Scott Crossfield, Test Pilot

1. OBJECTIVE. To understand the causes and cures of the condition known as flutter.

2. DESCRIPTION. Flutter in an aircraft structure is the result of an interaction between aerodynamic inputs, the elastic properties of the structure, the mass or weight distribution of the various elements, and airspeed.

   a. To most people, the word “flutter” suggests a flag’s movement as the wind blows across it. In a light breeze, the flag waves gently but as the wind speed increases, the flag becomes more and more excited. It takes little imagination to realize if something similar happened to an aircraft structure, the effects would be catastrophic. The parallel to a flag is appropriate.

   b. Think of a primary surface with a control hinged to it (e.g., an aileron). Imagine that the airplane hits a thermal. The initial response of the wing is to bend upwards relative to the fuselage.

   c. If the center of mass of the aileron is not exactly on the hinge line, it will tend to lag behind the wing as it bends upwards.

   d. In a simple, unbalanced, flap-type hinged control, the center of mass will be behind the hinge line and the inertial lag will result in the aileron being deflected downwards. This will result in the wing momentarily generating more lift, increasing its upward bending moment and its velocity relative to the fuselage. The inertia of the wing will carry it upwards beyond its equilibrium position to a point where more energy is stored in the deformed structure than can be opposed by the aerodynamic forces acting on it.

   e. The wing “bounces back” and starts to move downward but, as before, the aileron lags behind and is deflected upwards this time. This adds to the aerodynamic down force on the wing, once more driving it beyond its equilibrium position and the cycle repeats.

   f. Flutter can happen at any speed, including take-off speed. At low airspeeds, however, structural
and aerodynamic damping quickly suppress the flutter motion. But as the airspeed increases, so do the aerodynamic driving forces generated by the aileron. When they are large enough to cancel the damping, the motion becomes continuous.

**g. Further SMALL INCREASES** will produce a divergent, or increasing oscillation, which can quickly exceed the structural limits of the airframe. Even when flutter is on the verge of becoming catastrophic it can still be very hard to detect. What causes this is the high frequency of the oscillation, typically between 5 and 20 Hz (cycles per second). It will take but a small increase in speed (¼ knot or less) to remove what little damping remains and the motion will become divergent rapidly.

**h. Flutter also can occur** on a smaller scale if the main control surface has a control tab on it. The mechanics are the same with the tab taking the place of the aileron and the aileron taking the place of the wing. The biggest difference are the masses involved are much smaller, the frequencies much higher, and there is less feed-back through the control system. This makes tab flutter more difficult to detect. The phenomenon known as “buzz” is often caused by tab flutter. Since flutter is more prevalent at higher speeds, it is not recommended that the flight test plan call for high speed runs within 10 percent of red line.

**i. What can be done about it?** Having described how flutter happens, the following suggestions should help reduce the possibility of it happening to the amateur-builder’s aircraft:

1. Perform a mass balance of all flight controls in accordance with the designer/kit manufacturer’s instructions.

2. Eliminate all control “free play” by reducing slop in rod end bearings, hinges, and every nut and bolt used in attaching flight controls.

3. Ensure that all rigging and cable tension is set accurately to the design specifications using a calibrated cable tensiometer.

4. Re-balance any flight control if it has been repaired, repainted, or modified in any way.

**NOTE:** If the pilot experiences flutter, or believes he did, reduce power immediately and land as soon as possible. Do not attempt further flight until the aircraft has been thoroughly inspected for flutter induced damage. This inspection should include all wing/tail attach points, flight controls, their attach points/hinges, hardware, control rods, and control rod bearings for elongated bolt/rivet holes, cracks, (especially rod end bearings) and sheared rivets.
1. **OBJECTIVE.** To determine if spin testing is required.

   NOTE: All FAA spin tests for type certification require a spin chute attached to the aircraft. Even though amateur-built aircraft have no such certification requirement, use of a spin chute during testing should be considered.

2. **CAUTION.**
   
   **a.** If the manufacturer/designer of the aircraft has not demonstrated satisfactory spin characteristics and safe recovery, avoid all types of high angle of attack flight testing and placard the aircraft: ‘‘spins prohibited.’’
   
   **b.** If the prototype aircraft has satisfactorily demonstrated spin recovery and the builder’s aircraft is identical to the prototype aircraft, the pilot may confirm the aircraft will recover promptly from inadvertent spin entries. Further tests to prove that the aircraft will recover from a fully developed spin (three turns or more) are not necessary unless the aircraft is designed for, and will be routinely flown in, aerobatic flight.
   
   **c.** During all spin tests, it is strongly recommended that the pilot wear a parachute and that a quick release mechanism to jettison the canopy or door be installed. If the pilot is unable to exit the aircraft because of the design restraints, it is recommended that intentional spins not be conducted even though the design has successfully demonstrated spin recovery.
   
   **d.** If any modifications or alterations have been made to the airframe’s original design or configuration (e.g., adding tip tanks or fairings), it is not safe to assume that the aircraft still has the same spin recovery characteristics as the prototype aircraft. Spins in a modified aircraft should not be attempted without consulting a qualified test pilot and/or flight test engineer.
   
   **e.** The pilot who conducts the spin tests should have experience in entry into and recovery from fully developed spins, preferably in makes and models similar to the aircraft being tested. If the pilot needs
additional experience, aerobatic training with an emphasis on spins from a qualified instructor is highly recommended.

3. PLANNING THE FLIGHT. At this point, nearly all the preparatory work for spin testing has been accomplished. Planning the next flight should be identical to planning for the first flight through stalls. IT IS EXTREMELY IMPORTANT THAT THE CENTER OF GRAVITY OF THE AIRCRAFT IS AT THE FORWARD CG LIMIT AND ANY BALLAST USED SHOULD BE SECURELY ATTACHED TO THE AIRCRAFT.

a. The aircraft should be tested with landing gear (if applicable) and flaps in the up position. The pilot’s minimum entry altitude for these tests should be no less than 10,000 feet AGL with the cockpit secured.

NOTE: The following procedure is one way, but not the only way, of conducting a spin test and executing a recovery. Non-conventional aircraft may require significantly different spin recovery control applications. The pilot should evaluate these procedures and determine if they are compatible with the aircraft before attempting any spin testing.

b. The basic technique used to get a clean spin entry is to continue to reduce airspeed at about a 1 mph/knot a second rate in level flight, carburetor heat on, and the power at idle.

(1) As the aircraft stalls, APPLY FULL RUDDER in the desired spin direction, followed immediately by full aft movement of the control stick keeping the ailerons neutral.

(2) The transition from a horizontal to a vertical flight path takes approximately three or four turns and is referred to as the incipient stage of the spin.

(3) During the incipient spin, the dynamic and inertia forces have not achieved equilibrium. Many aircraft can recover from the incipient spin phase, but may not be able to recover from a steady spin.

(4) The normal spin recovery technique is to apply full rudder opposite to the direction of yaw (check the turn needle). Move the control stick smoothly and fairly rapidly forward towards the instrument panel until the rotation stops.

(5) Quickly center the rudder and ease out of the dive. Do not attempt to pull up too rapidly because the structural limits of the aircraft can easily be exceeded, or the aircraft can stall again. Recover from the first deliberate spin after a half a turn.

c. If the aircraft is not built for aerobatics, no further spin testing is required, It is recommended the instrument panel be placarded “SPINS PROHIBITED.”

d. If further spin testing is required, it is strongly recommended the services of a professional flight test pilot be used.
SECTION 6. ACCELERATED STALLS

‘‘Does it pass the Common Sense test?’’ U.S. Air Force, Thunderbird

1. OBJECTIVE. To further explore the stall characteristics of the aircraft.

   a. An accelerated stall is not a stall reached after a rapid deceleration. It is an in-flight stall at more than one g, similar to what is experienced in a steep turn or a pull up.

   NOTE: Do not attempt this or any other extreme maneuver unless the designer or kit manufacturer has performed similar tests on a prototype aircraft identical to the amateur-builder’s aircraft.

   b. The two standard methods for accelerated stalls are the constant g (constant bank) and constant speed (increasing bank). Most preferred of the two is the constant bank method in which the airspeed is decreased and the angle of bank is held constant, until the aircraft stalls. It is the most preferred because the potential violence of any accelerated stall is largely governed by the increasing g load and airspeed.

   c. As with every test, plan the sequence of events. Start with small bank angles -- 30 degrees will produce 1.15 g. Decelerate slowly, ball in the center, do not over control. Work up incrementally to a two g, 60 degree bank.

   d. The aircraft does not have to develop a deep stall each time. The pilot needs only to record the airspeed and bank angle in which the aircraft hits the pre-stall buffet. Recover by adding power and reducing the angle of bank.
CHAPTER 6. PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER: 36 HOURS TO ————?

“Beware of false knowledge; it is more dangerous than ignorance.” George Bernard Shaw

SECTION 1. MAXIMUM GROSS WEIGHT TESTS

1. OBJECTIVE. To develop aircraft performance data across the weight and CG ranges.

   a. Up until this point, all tests have been performed well below the test aircraft’s maximum gross weight, with the possible exception of single seat aircraft designs. A complete series of flight tests at maximum gross weight from stalls, rates of climb, angles of climb, stability, retraction tests, slow flight, through accelerated stalls should be investigated.

   b. These tests should demonstrate that the aircraft has been successfully flown throughout the CG range, and will operate in and at the full range of aircraft weights from minimum to full gross weight. The findings should be documented in the aircraft’s flight manual.

   c. Each phase of the testing should be done slowly, incrementally, with the same careful attention to detail that should characterize all the flight testing.

   d. Increases in the aircraft weight should be done in a series of steps. Usually, 20 percent increments of the maximum payload (e.g., sandbags, lead shot) are added in the aircraft to simulate passengers or baggage weight. The pilot should carefully weigh and secure the ballast. A new weight and balance and CG location must be worked for each new increase in weight. Stop testing when the aircraft’s maximum gross weight is reached.

   e. The testing up to this point has been done at, or near, the forward CG limit. During these tests, the CG should be slowly, but progressively, moved aft between each test flight. Limit the change to the CG range to about 20 percent of the range. Again the pilot should weigh the ballast and work a new weight and balance for each flight. With each CG change the aircraft longitudinal static stability and stall characteristics should be carefully evaluated by using the same technique discussed earlier. Stop testing when the designer’s or kit manufacturer’s aft CG limit is reached.

   f. If the aircraft develops either a neutral or negative longitudinal stability problem, or the aircraft displays unsatisfactory stall characteristics at any CG location being tested, STOP FURTHER TESTING!!

   g. These tests should confirm the designer’s aft CG limit or establish the last satisfactory aft CG location. If the aft CG range is not satisfactory, consult with the kit manufacturer, aircraft designer, or a flight test engineering consultant.

   h. The pilot should avoid the temptation to take a live ballast weight up for a ride for three reasons:

      (1) The aircraft has not been proven safe for the higher gross weights.

      (2) The pilot and passenger are at great risk. It is a sure sign the pilot has become complacent and sloppy in his flight test program.

      (3) The pilot will be breaking a contract (Operating Limitations) with the U.S. Government, which is known not to look kindly on such matters.

   i. Pilots should ensure that the added ballast weight in the cockpit is secured. A seat belt over some sand bags will not stop the weight from shifting and getting loose in a cockpit. The last thing a test pilot needs is a 20-pound lead-shot bag free in the cockpit during a climb test, a landing, or a spin. Tie each weight down individually, and cover all the weights with a cargo net.

   j. Ensure the ropes/nets and airframe attach points are strong enough to take the added load. Make sure the passenger seat can take that much localized weight safely.

   k. The maximum gross weight test results should be recorded in the flight manual. If there are any changes to the stall speed initially marked on the airspeed indicator, it should be changed to reflect the aircraft stall speed at maximum gross weight.
SECTION 2. SERVICE CEILING TESTS

"Man is made for error; it enters his mind naturally and he discovers a few truths only with the greatest effort." Frederick the Great

1. OBJECTIVE. To determine the highest altitude at which an aircraft can continue to climb at 100 feet per minute (Service Ceiling).

   a. Pilots who wish to determine the actual service ceiling of their aircraft are offered the following suggestions:

      (1) Ask the local Flight Standards District Office (FSDO) to amend the Operating Limitations to permit a climb to the aircraft’s service ceiling, if that altitude is above 18,000 feet.

      (2) Contact the local Flight Service Station (FSS) or ATC facility, and reserve a time and airspace to make the test.

      (3) Install a transponder (reference FAR § 91.215) or get a waiver.

      (4) Install a portable oxygen bottle, if plans are to go above 12,000 feet. (Recommend the pilot becomes familiar with the symptoms and cures of hypoxia and hyperventilation.)

      (5) Review the engine manufacturer’s mixture leaning procedures.

      (6) Maintain communications with an air traffic facility at all times.

   b. The climb to the aircraft service ceiling should be made in a series of step climbs during which engine performance, temperatures and pressures are recorded. At the slightest indication of engine performance or aircraft control problems, the pilot should terminate the test and return to the airport.
1. OBJECTIVES. To ensure all the small but important aspects of flight have been tested and found reliable.

a. The Magnetic Compass. The magnetic compass should have been checked for accuracy prior to the first flight. However, the addition and removal of equipment, changing of wire bundle routing, and other airframe modifications may have affected the accuracy of the instrument. The following recommendations are offered:

(1) The magnetic compass can be checked for accuracy by using a compass rose located on an airport, or using a hand held “master compass.” The master compass is a reverse reading compass with a gun-sight mounted on the top of it. With the aircraft facing north and the pilot running the engine at 1,000 rpm, a second individual standing 30 feet away facing due south “shoots,” or aligns, the master compass with the aircraft’s centerline. Using hand signals, the pilot aligns the aircraft with the master compass. The pilot then runs the aircraft engine up to approximately 1,700 rpm to duplicate the aircraft’s magnetic field and reads the compass.

NOTE: Conventional gear aircraft builders will have to position the magnetic compass in a straight and level position for this test. Raise the tail or mount the compass level with the horizon.

(2) If the aircraft compass is not in alignment with the master compass (start at north), correct the error by adjusting the north/south brass adjustment screw with a non-metallic screwdriver (can be made out of stainless steel welding rod, brass stock, or plastic) until the compass reads correctly. Go to the reciprocal heading (south) and remove half the error. On the east/west headings, use the other brass adjustment screw to make the corrections using the same procedures that was used to correct the north/south errors.

(3) Check again for errors at each cardinal heading. Record the last readings and prepare a compass correction card. The maximum deviation (positive or negative) is 10 degrees on any one heading.
(4) If the compass cannot be adjusted to meet this requirement, install another one. If the new compass is not available, try a different location in the cockpit, away from all ferrous metals and electrical bundles.

**NOTE:** A common error that affects the compass’s accuracy is the mounting of magnetic compass on/in the instrument panel with steel machine screws and nuts rather than brass.

(5) If the aircraft has an electrical system it is recommended that two complete compass checks be made, one with all electrical accessories on (e.g., radios/nav lights), and one with all electrical accessories off. If the deviation in level flight is more than 10 degrees on any heading with the accessories on, make up a separate compass correction card that shows the magnetic heading with the equipment on.

(6) Record the findings in the aircraft’s flight manual and create a compass correction card, mounting it near the magnetic compass in the cockpit. Make two cards; one with radios on and one with radios and non essential electrical accessories off.

**b. Very High Frequency (VHF) Omni-directional Radio Range (VOR) Check.** The best guide to check the accuracy of the VOR on board equipment is the VOR Receiver Check found in the Airman’s Information Manual (AIM), available from the Superintendent of Documents. The following is an abbreviated summary of the VOR procedure in the AIM.

(1) For a ground test of the VOR, a VOR Test Facility (VOT) must be used. To use the VOT service, tune in the VOT frequency on the VOR receiver. It is normally 108 Mhz. With the Course Deviation Indicator (CDI) centered, the omni-bearing selector should read 0 degrees with the to/from indicator showing “from,” or the omni-bearing selector should read 180 degrees with the to/from indicator showing “to.” The maximum bearing error should never be more than four degrees.

**NOTE:** The VOT facilities closest to the flight test location can be found in the Airport/Facility Directory. It is available by subscription from NOAA Distribution Branch N/CG33, National Ocean Service, Riverdale, MD 20737, or contact the nearest FAA FSS.

(2) For the airborne test, select a prominent ground point along the selected radial, preferably more than 20 miles from the VOR. Maneuver the aircraft directly over the point at a reasonably low altitude.

(i) Note the VOR bearing indicated by the receiver when over the ground point. The maximum permissible variation between the published radial and the indicated bearing is six degrees.

(ii) If the aircraft has dual VOR’s, the maximum permissible variation between the two receivers is 4 degrees.

**c. Fuel Consumption:** a good indication of how much the engine is working for each rpm produced. For a new or recently overhauled engine, the fuel consumption should improve each flight hour until the engine finishes its “break in” period, i.e., after approximately 100 hours of operation.

(1) To determine the aircraft fuel consumption, lay out a race track course with 8 to 10 mile legs. If the aircraft has one fuel tank or cannot switch tanks, do the following: Determine the approximate fuel burn to reach 1,000, 3,000, 5,000, 7,000, and 9,000 feet of altitude. With full tanks, climb to 3,000 feet and run the race track course for half an hour at 55 percent power.

(2) Land and measure the fuel used by dipping the tanks with a calibrated fuel stick, or by adding measured amounts of fuel to the tank until the tank is full. Subtract the approximate fuel burn to altitude, and multiply the remainder by two to get the fuel burn per hour.

(3) The tests are much easier and the results more accurate if the aircraft has two independent fuel tanks. Take-off on one tank and switch to the opposite tank at the test altitude. At the completion of the test, switch back to the first tank; land and measure the amount of fuel added in both tanks and multiply the quantity by two to get the amount of fuel used per hour.

(4) Run the same test at 65 percent and 75 percent power at the same altitude, using the same procedures. Move up to the next altitude and run the same tests.
**d. Night Operations:** should be conducted in accordance with the aircraft’s FAA Operating Limitations and limited to normal climbs and descents (e.g., 500 feet per minute), pitch angles of less than 5 degrees, straight and level flight, and coordinated turns of no more than 20 degrees of bank angle.

(1) The main concern for night testing should be the availability of a horizontal reference (e.g., bright moon or artificial horizon).

(2) Prior to every night flight, ensure a reliable flashlight with fresh batteries and a set of FLIGHT TEST PLAN procedures are on board. Some night testing requirements should have already been determined on the ground. For example:

(i) The electrical load review of all the lights, pumps, instrumentation, and avionics did not exceed 80 percent of the aircraft’s charging system capacity.

(ii) The cockpit instrumentation lighting is adequate and was tested for reliability of operation during daytime flights.

(iii) The pilot has at least ½ hour of night time taxiing the aircraft. This practice is needed to familiarize the pilot with a different operating environment. Do not exceed engine operating temperatures during taxiing.

(iv) The position and brightness of instrument panel lights, anti-collision strobe lights, and rotating beacons will not adversely affect the pilot’s night vision.

(3) A suggested night flight test plan is a series of takeoffs and landings and traffic pattern entries and exits. The tests should begin while there is still enough light to read a newspaper and transition to true night flying. The actual night flight will consist of an evaluation of the effectiveness of the taxi/landing light system, during taxi, take-off, and landing. The pilot should note any glare on the windshield or light flicker on the instrument panel.
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CHAPTER 7. THOUGHTS ON TESTING CANARD TYPE AMATEUR-BUILT AIRCRAFT

‘‘FLY.’’ Jonathan Livingston Seagull

SECTION 1. CANARDS

1. OBJECTIVE. To discuss canard flight characteristics.

   a. Canard configured aircraft generally fall into 2 categories: the LongEze design (pusher prop, tandem seats) and the Quickie (Q2) design (tractor prop, side by side seats). Canard configured aircraft do not “stall” in the conventional sense. All successful “loaded canard” designs have the angle of incidence (AOI) of the canard set higher than the main (rear) wing.

   b. As the airplane’s angle of attack (AOA) increases, the canard should stall first, lowering the AOA of the main (rear) wing. Since the rear wing doesn’t stall, a characteristic “buck” or “nod” takes place. Full aft stick results in the canard alternately stalling and flying while the rear wing never reaches it’s critical AOA and continues to fly. This self-limiting stall characteristic makes a properly designed and built canard aircraft un-spinable. It should be noted, however, that the accident rate for canard designs are approximately the same as conventional designed amateur-built aircraft because of the following:

      (1) During take-off, the transition from ground roll to flight can be a more critical procedure in some canards as compared to more conventional designs.

      (2) Some canards with combinations of CG and pitch control sensitivity will be more likely to over rotate at lift-off.

      (3) Some canards have less visible airframe structure in front of the pilot and in his peripheral vision. Others have more than enough. These differences in design can produce a different reference frame for pilots with many hours of conventional aircraft time and may cause initial errors in pitch attitude, such as the nose too high on take-off and landings.

      (4) In addition, canard aircraft by design have very different take-off characteristics than conventional configured aircraft. Canard aircraft with pusher propellers need a substantially higher rotation speed on take-off.

      (5) To rotate a conventional design aircraft, all that is required is enough airspeed to provide sufficient control to attain a positive angle of attack due to the long moment arm from the main gear (the axis of rotation) to the tail, a relatively small amount of lift is required. This lift, generated at a relatively low airspeed, makes it possible to rotate the aircraft into the take-off position slightly below flying speed. Allow the aircraft to accelerate to flying speed and lift off.

      (6) In contrast, the canard nose wheel will stay firmly on the ground until an airspeed is reached at which the canard, with full up elevator, can generate enough lift to equal the following:

          (i) the load carried by the nose wheel, plus

          (ii) the nose down moment caused by the friction of the nose and main gear tires with the surface, and the down-thrust vector provided by the propeller during the take-off roll.

      (7) Since the main wing may reach flying speed before the canard, the nose wheel will stay firmly on the runway until take-off speed is reached. Rotation will then occur, and the aircraft will literally jump off the ground.

      (8) Canards with a thrust line above the CG will have appreciable pitch trim change with power. Forward stick motion is required when power is reduced. While this may not be of any consequence to an experienced pilot, it can be a serious surprise to an unwary and inexperienced pilot. This unfamiliar flight characteristic might cause pilot-induced pitch oscillations with disturbing consequences under some conditions (e.g., an aborted take-off).

      (9) Due to its unique design, the canard aircraft needs a higher nose up attitude when landing compared to conventional configured aircraft. Many canard pilots are reluctant to raise the nose high on
landing due to the limited forward visibility while the nose is up. Consequently, many canard pilots tend to make their approach angle shallow. This shallow angle results in approach speeds quite a few knots faster than what is necessary. For pilots who prefer visibility to shorter runways, it is recommended that canard designed aircraft be tested on runways a minimum of 1,000 feet longer than what would be used for a conventional aircraft of the same horsepower and performance capability. Longer runways should be used until the pilot becomes more experienced with the landing characteristics of the aircraft.

(10) If the nose is held at a too high an angle on landing, the canard will stall while the main wing is still generating lift. The stalled canard will drop the nose rapidly onto the runway with enough force to damage the nose gear.

(11) Quickie (tractor engine designs) configured canard designs have a limited ability to rotate nose up while on the ground. This tends to increase takeoff speeds because the canard and the main wing angle of attack are limited while the aircraft is on the ground. That is why this design appears to “levitate” off the ground without much apparent pitch change.

(12) Some canard designs are very sensitive to rain or other types of contamination on the leading edge and/or top of the airfoil. Contamination in the form of water droplets, frost, crushed insects, or even poorly applied paint will disturb the laminar flow over the canard and lift is lost. When decreasing lift over drag (L/D) performance, the chances for an accident increase.

2. FLIGHT TEST CONSIDERATIONS.
Technically, a canard type aircraft cannot stall, or at least it will not stall in the normal fashion. A pilot testing the aircraft for stability characteristics should approach such testing with caution in mind.

a. Under certain conditions, usually consisting of aft c.g. problems, the main wing may stall before the canard surface. In this case, extreme pitch-up can occur until the canard surface or strakes stall. The aircraft would then pitch down to a near-level attitude, however the airspeed would be approaching zero and the angle of attack could approach or exceed 45 degrees. This condition (high-alpha), could be so stabilized, with the aircraft in a deep stall, that recovery might not be possible.

b. Testing for pitch stability in a new design or a just-completed aircraft built from a kit or from plans is a requirement the pilot needs to consider prior to carrying passengers. Pitch stability tests are conducted to ensure that the aircraft does not exhibit any dangerous flight characteristics but must be approached and conducted in a logical and sensible manner.

   (i) Positive pitch stability is exhibited when the aircraft trimmed for hands off level flight, returns to that state when a control force is applied and released.

   (ii) Neutral pitch stability is achieved when the aircraft remains in the pitch attitude attained when a control force is applied.

   (iii) Negative pitch stability is demonstrated when the aircraft departs from the pitch attitude attained when a control force is applied and continues to increase in amplitude.

c. The aircraft should be weighed and the c.g. carefully calculated. At the same time, determine the weight needed and the moment calculated to load the aircraft at the most forward and aft c.g. limits recommended by the designer. Beginning at the most forward c.g., trim the aircraft to a hands off condition and slowly reduce the power, maintaining altitude by increasing pitch attitude. When the stick reaches the full aft position, momentarily release the back pressure followed by full aft stick. The aircraft, in demonstrating positive stability, should return to its original pitch attitude and remain there. The aircraft should display positive stability characteristics.

d. Other tests may be conducted by adjusting the c.g. further aft and observing the tendency of the aircraft. At some point near the aft c.g. limit, you may experience neutral stability, or the point where the aircraft no longer recovers by itself from the upset. Moving further aft in the c.g. range from this point will cause the aircraft to diverge from the trim path in the direction of the upset (neutral stability).

e. Some designers and builders have installed adjustable, moveable ballast containers in the aircraft to allow the c.g. to be adjusted forward or aft during flight. If testing is to be accomplished outside the
recommended range, it is advisable to consider the installation of a ballistic recovery system or spin chute system. In addition, the pilot should make a decision about leaving the aircraft if the test becomes untenable.
CHAPTER 8. ULTRALIGHT AIRFRAME INSPECTION

“You can learn 10 things by learning one.” Japanese proverb

SECTION 1. DIFFERENCES

1. OBJECTIVES. To serve as additional resource for ultralight test pilots and to help the new owner develop a flight test plan for the ultralight.

2. DEFINITION. The term “Ultralight” means a fixed wing vehicle that is powered by a conventional 2 or 4 cycle, gasoline powered engine and is operated under Part 103. It has one seat and does not exceed 254 pounds, excluding floats and safety devices. In addition, the ultralight can be unpowered, in which case the weight is restricted to 155 pounds. The powered ultralight’s fuel capacity cannot exceed 5 U.S. gallons. The vehicle should not be able to exceed 55 knots calibrated airspeed at full power and level flight and cannot exceed a power-off stall speed of 24 knots calibrated airspeed. The term also includes two place ultralight training aircraft of 496 pounds or less operated under either the EAA or USUA exemption to FAR Part 103.

   a. Be aware that both single and dual seat ultralights in this performance class are not restricted only to FAR Part 103 operation. If they qualify, they can be operated under FAR Part 91, if they meet § 21.191(g) amateur-built category or § 21.191(h) operating kit built aircraft in primary category. Only single seat ultralights of less than 254 pounds empty weight, however, can operate legally under FAR Part 103.

   b. Many in the general aviation community view amateur-built and ultralights as one and the same design category, therefore all flight testing procedures should be identical. While in many cases this assumption is true, there are several major differences between the two designs.

(1) Most ultralights are assembled from complete kits, unlike amateur-built aircraft of which the major portion (51 percent) of the aircraft and its component parts are manufactured by the builder. Most of the kit/ultralight manufacturer’s pilot operating handbooks/flight manuals are usually accurate and address the majority of the information covered
in the first eight chapters of this AC. The FAA recommends the pilot’s operating handbook always be consulted by the new owner prior to flight.

(2) The changes in ultralight ownership are more frequent than amateur-built and general aviation aircraft ownership. Although the ultralight is “used,” the new owner is usually unfamiliar with the its operating characteristics. A comprehensive flight testing/training program should be a high priority safety consideration of the new owner.

(3) New flying skills should be developed. Each ultralight pilot/owner should address the effects smaller size, lighter wing-loading, lower weight, and higher drag designs have on low-speed flight.

c. Due to these differences, the FAA recommends that each “new” ultralight owner design a FLIGHT TEST PLAN regardless if the ultralight was bought, used, and/or the ultralight has a Flight Manual supplied by the manufacturer. The ultralight FLIGHT TEST PLAN does not have to be as extensive as the one recommended for amateur-built aircraft but should address all flight conditions and emergencies called out in the ultralight’s flight manual.

d. With these differences in mind, the next three chapters will address problems associated with both NEW and USED ultralight flight testing. Chapter 8 will address pre-test flight inspection, chapter 9 will cover engine and fuel system operation and inspection, and chapter 10 will cover ultralight flight testing.

e. In keeping with that professional approach towards flight testing, it is suggested that a FLIGHT TEST PLAN and other relevant safety recommendations found in the chapters 1 through 7 be adopted by the ultralight owner/operator prior to test flying a new or used ultralight.

SECTION 2. THE TEST PILOT

“There is always a harder way to flight test an aircraft, but that path does not need to be followed.”

George Kaseote, FAA Test Pilot

1. GENERAL. Whether the ultralight is brand new or used, it needs to be properly evaluated. A new owner should enlist the services of an experienced ultralight flight instructor who is authorized to give dual instruction under the EAA or the USUA exemption.

a. The instructor should test fly the ultralight only after it has been properly assembled, inspected, engine run-in, and taxi tests have been performed. It is not recommended that a “new” pilot and a new/used ultralight “learn” to fly together.

b. The test pilot should be experienced and competent. He/she should have made a minimum of 100 solo flights in similar make, model, and type of ultralight and must follow the FLIGHT TEST PLAN exactly. The FLIGHT TEST PLAN should examine the ultralight and its performance capability, beginning with the pre-flight inspection and ending only after the test pilot has explored the ultralight’s published flight envelope as described in the flight manual.

SECTION 3. PRE-FLIGHT AIRFRAME INSPECTION

1. GENERAL.

a. Ultralight owners should remember that the light-weight, thin wall tubing design of an ultralight fuselage/wing structure is particularly susceptible to metal fatigue. When aluminum tubing has been stressed beyond its elastic limit, it takes on a chalky white appearance (corrosion) at the point of highest stress. Warpage and deformation are other signs of high stress points and once discovered, the ultralight should be grounded until the damaged is repaired.

b. The tolerance limit of a tube or fitting can be significantly lowered by over-torquing a bolt. If a bent or damaged support tube or structure is not repaired, the bend or dent will become a crack, and ultimately the crack will become a structural failure.
NOTE: If a used ultralight has been purchased, it is highly recommended that the owner perform a detailed acceptance inspection on the aircraft assisted by an experienced individual who is familiar with the make and model aircraft. It is also recommended that all existing hardware (e.g., nuts, bolts, springs) be replaced with new aviation quality hardware.

c. If possible, remove the fabric envelope and check the airframe structure underneath for dents, cracks, and corrosion. Check the top and bottom of the spars for compression ( wrinkled metal) damage. Double check all wings, landing gear, strut, engine, and tail surface attach points for wear, elongated holes, or damage.

d. If any previous repairs are found, check with the manufacturer to see if damage in that area can be repaired and if the repair that was made is airworthy.

2. CHECKLIST. Each ultralight FLIGHT TEST PLAN should include a pre-flight inspection CHECKLIST. The CHECKLIST should include a step-by-step approach to inspection that covers all the manufacturer inspection items as well as the following suggested items starting at the landing gear.

a. Landing Gear. The landing gear is the last part of the light-weight aircraft to leave the earth and the first part to arrive. Since the majority of these aircraft fly from unimproved strips, the stress on the gear is high. The checklist should include inspection items recommended by the manufacturer and inspection for the following:

(1) The condition of the landing gear attach points and alignment of the landing gear and wheels to the longitudinal axis of the fuselage. If the attach points are mis-aligned, the landing gear will not track in a straight line and this will affect take-offs and landings.

(2) Elongated bolt-holes, loose AN hardware, bent tubing, condition and attachment of wheels, wheel bearings, tire inflation, tire condition and brakes.

(3) Brake condition and operation, including chafing of brake lines/cables against the gear struts.

(4) Condition and operation of the steerable nose gear, if applicable.

(5) Condition and attachment of the tail wheel/skid, if applicable.

b. Wing Assembly. The vast majority of ultralight aircraft use a man-made sailcloth material stretched over a tubular frame. This type of fabric is susceptible to ultra-violet radiation from the sun. If left unprotected, it can become unairworthy in less than 6 months. The checklist should include the following inspection items:

(1) Ensure the sailcloth has not suffered any tears, or abrasion, due to wear or foreign object damage.

(2) Check the sailcloth for obvious ultra-violet (UV) degrading of fabric strength by examining the condition of the fabric on top of the wing. Compare it to the fabric on the bottom of the wing. If the top wing fabric shows a significant difference in color (faded), the fabric should be tested for strength with a fabric tester (Maule or Quicksilver) to see if it tests within the manufacturer’s serviceable limits. If no minimum service limits are listed, the fabric should test out at 46 pounds, or 70 percent or more, of its original tensile strength, whichever is greater, to be considered airworthy. If the fabric fails the tests, it must be replaced before further flight.

(3) Flying and landing support cables should be checked for tension, routing, attach points, and condition. Scrutinize the swaged cable ends. It is recommended that a red reference mark (nail polish works fine) be painted on each of the cables abutting the swaged end. If the cable is growing, i.e., a gap forming between the swaged end and the painted referenced mark, there is an impending failure of the swaged terminal. Do not fly the aircraft until the cable is replaced.

(4) Flight control cables should be checked for frayed wires and proper routing. Run a rag over all of the flying and landing wires and control cables (wings and tail). If the cloth snags, this may indicate a frayed wire which demands further inspection. If possible, bend the cable to form a ‘‘U’’ and inspect for internal broken wires. Also, check the cable pulleys for wear and operation. Extreme wear patterns
on pulleys indicate misrouting and must be corrected prior to flight.

(5) Check wing leading/trailing edge, wing struts, aileron, flaps, spoiler hinges and attach points for loose rivets, cracks, elongation and wear. Ensure that all hardware (nuts and bolts) are of aviation quality.

(6) Ensure that the bungee, or return springs for wing spoilers (if applicable), are serviceable and will keep the spoiler down flat against the top of the wing when not being deployed.

(7) Check the aircraft’s flight controls rigging every time the aircraft is re-assembled. It is recommended that the cables/rigging for easier assembly be color coded (e.g., red to red, blue to blue).

(8) Check for corrosion on all metal surfaces. Corrosion on aluminum usually appears as a white powder, rough to the touch. On steel parts, corrosion takes the common form of rust. Dissimilar metal corrosion occurs when two different types of metal make surface contact. To obtain additional information on corrosion and treating it, refer to FAA AC 43.9, “Corrosion Control for Aircraft.”

(9) Make sure the leading edge of the wing and tail surfaces are clean and free of insects, grass, or mud prior to flight.

c. Fuselage Assembly. The fuselage is the backbone of the light-weight aircraft. All the flight and ground operating stresses encountered by the wings, tail, landing gear, and engine are transferred to the fuselage at the attach points. Exercise extra care when examining these high stress areas because failure of any of these attach points and associated hardware will cause catastrophic structural failure.

(1) Flight controls should be checked for proper operation, travel, and condition of the stops. There should not be any sharp bends in the flight control cables.

(2) Check engine controls for proper operation; they should be free of bends and properly secured. Ensure that all control cables are securely clamped to the fuselage to prevent the cable from slipping, hence not transferring the desired movement to the engine control.

(3) Check the instrument panel for security and instruments for attachment, proper operation, and range/limit markings.

(4) Inspect for bent or damaged structural tubing. If a tube is bent, it must be properly repaired or replaced. Straightening out a bend will only work-harden the tube in the damaged area and hasten the time of failure.

(5) Fiberglass structures should be checked for cracks, delaminations, and holes -- especially on the bottom of the fuselage.

(6) Examine the seat, seat brackets, and seat belt/shoulder harness, attach points, clips/rings, brackets or tangs and other hardware, for security, safety (cotter pins or safety wire), and condition.

(7) Check the shoulder/seat belt harness for condition and proper operation.

(8) Check the ballistic chute hardware and mounting assembly (review information in chapter 1, section 3).

d. Tail Surfaces. The tail, or empennage group, contains two of the ultralight’s three primary control surfaces: the rudder (yaw control) and the elevator (pitch control). In two-axis ultralights, the elevators are the only flight controls on the tail. Special attention must be given to the attach points, hardware, and proper operation for both control systems.

(1) Ensure that the primary controls and trim systems if applicable, have the proper travel, that control cables are properly tensioned, and that all turnbuckles are safetied.

(2) Examine the control hinges and attach points on the elevator and rudder horn for wear, cracking, and elongation of bolt holes, and security of the rudder and elevator stops.

(3) Check the leading and trailing edges of the flight controls for damage.

(4) Check for wear/UV deterioration to the fabric cover.
CHAPTER 9. ULTRALIGHT ENGINE/FUEL SYSTEM INSPECTION

“To not let ego overcome reason.” Al Hodges, Ultralight pilot, Homestead, FL (1994)

SECTION 1. ENGINE INSPECTION

1. OBJECTIVE. To provide the amateur-builder/ultralight pilot with a suggested engine and fuel system inspection program in addition to the manufacturer’s check list items.

   a. Engine.

      (1) Check the engine mount, vibration isolation mounts, and attach points before each flight.

      NOTE: If slippage marks are painted across the bolt heads, engine mount, and fuselage at the time the mount bolts are torqued, a break in the paint will give advance warning the mount is coming loose. (Again, red nail polish works adequately.)

      (2) Check all hose clamps for tightness.

      (3) Check for fuel and oil leaks.

      (4) Check air filter for condition and attachment

      (5) Ensure that all spark plugs are the correct ones, properly torqued. Check that the ignition wires, caps, and plug cap restraints on inverted engines are secured and safetied. Ensure that the kill switch, if applicable, is within easy reach and works as advertised.

      (6) Check that the carburetor and the throttle cable is secured and both operate freely from idle stop to full power stop.

      (7) Check carburetor boots for cracks that will suck air and may create a lean mixture, high CHT and EGT, and possible engine failure.

      (8) Check the fuel on/off valve, fuel filter, and crossover valve for proper operation and position.

      (9) Drain the fuel system of water and sediment.

      (10) Ensure that the fuel tank is secured, full, and if applicable, contains the proper mix (ratio) of fuel and oil.
b. Exhaust System.

(1) On most 2 cycle engines, the exhaust system is tuned to the engine in order to have the proper amount of back pressure. Sometimes, due to installation demands, the exhaust system must be modified. If modifications are necessary, contact the engine manufacturer before incorporating any exhaust systems changes.

(2) The exhaust system should be mounted on vibration-damping elements and be safety wired. The exhaust system ball-joints should not be mounted under a tension load and they should be lubricated with an anti-seize, heat resistant grease to allow the ball joints to move freely. Some exhaust systems use springs to keep pressure (compression) on the ball-joints. If the engine is so equipped, run a piece of safety wire through the spring and secure it to the exhaust system. This would prevent a broken spring from coming loose and hitting the propeller in a pusher configuration or hitting the top of the wing or tail in a tractor design.

(3) Another approach to prevent propeller damage from broken springs is to lay a bead of high temperature silicon length-wise across the spring. If a spring does break during flight, the silicon bead will hold some or all of the broken pieces of spring material in place until the aircraft lands.

c. Fan Cooling.

(1) It is particularly important that installations of fan cooled engines with enclosed cowlings are designed so that the hot cooling air exits the cowl and cannot recirculate back into the cooling fan intake. If there are any doubts, tests should be carried out by measuring the temperature of the air entering the cooling fan.

(2) In most cases, it is unlikely there will be a problem with cooling belt tension on a new engine. On older engines, however, the belt may have bedded down in the V of the pulley causing a significant reduction in belt tension. If corrosion is present on a pulley, the belt wear rate will be rapid. During the visual inspection of the fan cooling belt and pulley, look for evidence of wear and corrosion on the pulleys.

d. Reduction Drive.

(1) A large percentage of engines used on light-weight aircraft are 2 cycle air cooled engines fitted with a rpm reduction drive. The reduction drive is usually a bolt-on unit which drops the high 2 cycle engine rpm down to a propeller RPM that is more efficient.

(2) To check tension on most V belts on the reduction drive, grab the belt and twist. The belt should allow no more than approximately a half a turn.

(3) Ensure that the reduction gear box is filled with oil to the proper level in accordance with the manufacturer’s instructions and drain plug/filter is safetied.

(4) Grasp the propeller (switch off and spark plugs disconnected) approximately half way down each blade. Try first to move the prop in an up and down motion. Pull away from the aircraft and then push in the opposite direction. No appreciable bearing slop should be detected in the reduction gear bearings.

(5) Eccentricity of the driving, or driven, pulley will cause variations of belt tension with rotation, possibly leading to rapid failure of the belt and engine or propeller shaft bearings. Remove the spark plugs and rotate the engine slowly by hand for several turns in small steps (approximately 45 degrees of engine rotation per step). There should be no noticeable change in belt tension at any position. Any noticeable change must be investigated further (e.g., by measuring the run out of the engine pulley and propeller shaft pulley with a dial indicator).

SECTION 2. FUEL SYSTEMS

1. GENERAL. Many problems with light-weight aircraft engines can be directly traced to the type of fuel used. Many states allow automotive fuels to be sold containing 10 percent alcohol without requiring a label stating so. Alcohol can cause serious problems in aircraft engines so first ensure that the fuel source is a reliable one.
a. Test for Alcohol in Automotive Fuel.  Take a thin glass jar, mark it one inch from the bottom of the jar with tape or indelible ink, and fill the jar with water up to that mark. Fill the jar to the top with a sample of the fuel to be tested. There is a clear separation between the water and the fuel. Put the lid on the jar and shake. Let it settle for about a minute and check. If the "water" line is now above the first mark, the fuel has alcohol in it. Try another source for fuel and do another test.

b. Fuel Primer System. Perform a careful inspection of fuel primer bulbs fitted in suction lines because they deteriorate over time and are a possible source of air leaks, resulting in a lean mixture. Primer bulbs with plastic one-way valves have been known to break loose and completely block the fuel in the fuel line. Positioning the fuel line so the fuel flows upward through the primer bulb will help minimize the possibility of this problem occurring. A permanently fitted fuel pressure gage is recommended because it can check fuel system operation during engine break-in and fuel flow during extreme angles of attack.

c. Filters, Fuel Lines, and Throttles.

(1) Finger screens in fuel tanks should be checked every 10 hours for debris or varnish build up from fuel. Nylon mesh fuel filters are preferred with 2 cycle engines. Paper element filters should be avoided because they may severely and invisibly restrict the fuel flow. This is due to a reaction between water and oil detergents. The fuel filter should be distinctly located, between the fuel pump and the carburetors, to facilitate pre-flight inspection and avoid the possibility of air leaks on the suction side.

(2) Check plastic fuel lines for age hard- ness, discoloration, and over all condition. Fuel line attach points should be checked before each flight. Always clamp a fuel line at the inlet and outlet. A slip-on line might slip off in flight. Leave a little slack in the fuel lines to minimize cracking from vibration.

(3) If the 2 cycle engine has two carburetors, make sure the throttles are exactly syn- chronized. If not, one carburetor will run rich while the other runs lean, causing cylinder overheating and a possibility of the piston seizing or being holed.

d. Causes of High Fuel Consumption

(1) Dirty air filter causes a rich mixture.
(2) Propeller is not matched to the engine.
(3) Carburetor float improperly adjusted.
(4) Fuel pressure set too high.
(5) Wrong carburetor jets installed.
(6) Defective float valve.
(7) Extreme vibration (propeller/engine) that keeps float valve open.
CHAPTER 10. ULTRALIGHT TEST FLYING RECOMMENDATIONS

“Hurrying is a visible sign of worry.” Arnold H. Glasgow

SECTION 1. THREE RECOMMENDATIONS

1. OBJECTIVE. To list additional items applicable to ultralights that will need to be addressed in the FLIGHT TEST PLAN.

2. RECOMMENDATIONS.
   
   a. Even if the builder/owner or pilot is an B-747 airline captain with 20,000 hours in type, he/she should NOT climb into an ultralight without first receiving flight instruction from a properly certified or authorized ultralight flight instructor. This must be done in a two-seat ultralight trainer operated in accordance with the EAA or USUA exemption to FAR Part 103.

   b. Ultralights by their very nature are highly susceptible to winds above 15 mph. All ultralight aircraft test flights should be conducted in light or no-wind conditions.

   c. Even more so than America’s top fighter pilots, ultralight pilots must manage airspeed. Due to its small speed range between stall and full power; high drag and low weight, airspeed should become the single most important concern of the ultralight pilot.

SECTION 2. AIRPORT SELECTION

1. OBJECTIVE. To choose an airport to test fly the ultralight.

   a. Most ultralights are flown out of unimproved grass strips. Before test flying the ultralight from one of these locations ensure that a wind sock or even a flag is installed nearby to give some indication of the wind direction and speed.
b. Carefully examine each air strip. Note and record in the FLIGHT TEST PLAN the surrounding terrain, man-made structures, power lines, phone wires, and trees. Record the probability of these factors contributing toward or causing mechanical turbulence during certain times of the day, or presenting a hazard to flight in other ways.

c. Make sure that the strip is orientated towards the prevailing winds. Before selecting a strip, make certain emergency strips are located close-by in case of engine failure.

SECTION 3. TAXIING

1. GENERAL. As explained in chapter 2, taxiing should be designed and conducted to achieve the FLIGHT TEST PLAN goals. In addition to identifying the ultralight’s ground handing characteristics at low and high taxi speeds, braking, monitoring engine operation, and developing pilot proficiency, the FLIGHT TEST PLAN should consider developing the following:

   a. Cross-wind handling characteristics during taxi.

   b. Addressing the ultralight’s response to rapid changes in power (tractor design versus pusher).

   c. Practice the procedures for starting and stopping the engine.

NOTE: When taxiing a nose-gear ultralight, the input response on the rudder bar will be positive, similar to a car. If operating a tail dragger design, anticipate an initially larger input with a decreasing amount of pressure upon entering the turn. If the pilot is slow in getting the pressure off, the larger moment arm -- main gear to the tail versus main gear to the nose wheel -- will set the ultralight up for a ground loop.

SECTION 4. FIRST FLIGHT DIFFERENCES

“Fly as if angels are watching you and taking notes.” Dr. Anthony Romanazzi, DMD and Ultralight pilot (1994)

1. USE OF POWER. One of the biggest differences between a general aviation aircraft and an ultralight is the effect very quick changes in power can have on aircraft speed. In a light-weight aircraft, it is possible to go from cruise speed to a stall in less than 4 seconds. This is due to the low mass, high drag configuration, and smaller speed range characteristic of the majority of ultralights. To avoid unplanned stalls, make small power reductions over a longer time period while always monitoring the airspeed.

2. CONTROL FEEL. Due to the slow cruise speed and lower weight of ultralights, their flight controls feel light or sensitive. Once the flight control input has been made, however, the rate of response tends to be slower than inputs on faster and heavier aircraft.

3. STALLS. Because of their high angle of dihedral, most ultralight stalls tend to be straight forward, particularly during a power-off stall. These ultralights experience little airframe buffeting. The only stall indications the pilot may recognize are the ultralight’s slowed forward movement, a rapid decrease in altitude, and controls that are suddenly mushy and mostly ineffective.

4. STEEP TURNS. When performing steep turns in an ultralight, the increasing weight (g load) and high drag tends to bleed off energy very quickly. The pilot must monitor the airspeed to avoid inadvertently setting up a stall/spin scenario.
SECTION 5. EMERGENCY PROCEDURES

1. ENGINE FAILURES. The single most common emergency in ultralight and amateur-built aircraft is engine failure. When an engine fails, FLY THE ULTRALIGHT! Push the nose down to maintain airspeed, pick the landing field, and try to land into the wind.

   a. If the pilot knows the cause of the engine failure (e.g., failure to change tanks) and can easily fix it in flight, they should do so. Do not focus all attention on restarting the engine. If preoccupied with the restart, the pilot may be distracted from flying the ultralight, inadvertently allowing the airspeed to bleed off and setting the ultralight up for a stall/spin.

   b. The best way to prepare for an engine out procedure is to practice, practice, and practice until the real thing is a non-event.

2. LOSS OF CONTROL. Another emergency procedure the FLIGHT TEST PLAN should address is sudden loss of a control function such as ailerons/spoilers (roll), rudder (yaw), or elevator (pitch). In all emergency situations, all corrective control movements should be small and slowly initiated.

   a. Loss of rudder authority or a jammed rudder can usually be overcome with opposite aileron. Be advised this is a cross control situation. Large or rapid control inputs could initiate a stall/spin maneuver, especially when the ultralight is in a landing configuration and/or operating at a low airspeed.

   b. Loss of ailerons authority usually can be overcome with rudder. The turns should be shallow while avoiding rudder inputs that would generate large yawing movements.

   c. Loss of the elevator is the most serious loss of control function a pilot can experience. If the elevator is jammed in one position, or remains in a trail position behind the horizontal stabilizer, the pilot must experiment with engine power to determine whether an increase in power will raise or lower the nose.

3. CATASTROPHIC FAILURE.

   a. The chance of loss of life or personal injury due to a catastrophic failure of the ultralight can be reduced with a ballistic recovery system (see chap. 1, sec. 3). If control of the ultralight cannot be regained, and the ultralight is equipped with a ballistic chute, deploy the chute before running out of time and altitude.

      (1) The pilot must be sure that activation of the parachute is a better choice than any other options available. Once the canopy is deployed, the pilot becomes a passenger.

      (2) Even with a canopy deployed, however, the pilot must remain alert to the danger of power lines, trees, rocks, water, and highways below which may obstruct his/her attempt to safely land.
APPENDIX 1. SAMPLE CHECKLIST FOR A CONDITION INSPECTION

AIRCRAFT IDENTIFICATION:
TYPE/SN. ______________________________  ENGINE MODEL/SN. ______________________________
N NUMBER ______________________________  PROPELLER MODEL/SN. ______________________________
A/F TOTAL TIME ______________________________  ENGINE TOTAL TIME ______________________________
OWNER ______________________________  PROPELLER TOTAL TIME ______________________________

GENERAL:

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<th>S = SATISFACTORY  U = UNSATISFACTORY (correct all unsatisfactory items prior to flight)</th>
<th>Builder/Inspector</th>
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<td>REGISTRATION/AIRWORTHINESS/OPTION LIMITATIONS</td>
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<tr>
<td>WEIGHT AND BALANCE/EQUIPMENT LIST (updated for each flight)</td>
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WINGS:

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<td>FLIGHT CONTROLS PROPER ATTACHMENT (NO SLOP)</td>
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APPENDIX 1. SAMPLE CHECKLIST FOR A CONDITION INSPECTION—Continued

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APPENDIX 1. SAMPLE CHECKLIST FOR A CONDITION INSPECTION—Continued

S = SATISFACTORY  U = UNSATISFACTORY
(correct all unsatisfactory items prior to flight)

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<td>WHEEL BEARINGS FOR LUBRICATION</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT FOR CORROSION</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT NOSE GEAR FOR CRACKS AND TRAVEL</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT TAIL WHEEL FOR CRACKS AND TRAVEL</td>
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<tr>
<td>PERFORM GEAR RETRACTION TEST/CK INDICATOR LIGHTS</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>EMERGENCY GEAR RETRACTION SYSTEM</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHECK TIRE PRESSURE</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>BRAKE LINING WITHIN LIMITS</td>
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<tr>
<td>BRAKE DISKS FOR CRACKS, WEAR, AND DEFORMITY</td>
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<tr>
<td>BRAKE HYDRAULIC LINES FOR LEAKS AND SECURITY</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

FUSELAGE:

REMOVE INSPECTION PLATES AND PANELS |   |   |   |   |
INSPECT BULKHEADS AND STRINGERS FOR POPPED RIVETS AND CRACKED SKIN |   |   |   |   |
INSPECT FOR DELAMINATED SKIN/VOIDS (COIN TEST) |   |   |   |   |
INSPECT THE SECURITY OF ALL INTERNAL LINES |   |   |   |   |
INSPECT WINDOWS/CANOPY FOR CRACKS AND FIT |   |   |   |   |
INSPECT DOOR OR CANOPY LATCHING MECHANISM |   |   |   |   |
INSPECT FIRE WALL FOR DISTORTION AND CRACKS |   |   |   |   |
INSPECT RUDDER PEDALS AND BRAKES FOR OPERATION AND SECURITY |   |   |   |   |
INSPECT BEHIND FIREWALL FOR LOOSE WIRES AND CHAFING LINES |   |   |   |   |
**APPENDIX 1. SAMPLE CHECKLIST FOR A CONDITION INSPECTION—Continued**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S = SATISFACTORY</th>
<th>U = UNSATISFACTORY</th>
<th>(correct all unsatisfactory items prior to flight)</th>
<th>Builder/Inspector</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

- **CHECK CONTROL STICK/YOKE FOR FREEDOM OF MOVEMENT**
- **CHECK FLAP CONTROL OPERATION**
- **CHECK CABLE AND PULLEYS FOR ATTACHMENT AND OPERATION**
- **PERFORM FLOOD-LIGHT CARBON MONOXIDE TEST**
- **ENSURE THE COCKPIT INSTRUMENTS ARE PROPERLY MARKED**
- **INSPECT INSTRUMENTS, LINES, FOR SECURITY**
- **CHECK/CLEAN/REPLACE INSTRUMENT FILTER**
- **INSPECT COCKPIT FRESH AIR VENTS/HEATER VENTS FOR OPERATION AND SECURITY**
- **INSPECT SEATS, SEAT BELTS/SHOULDER HARNESS FOR SECURITY AND ATTACHMENT**
- **CORROSION**
- **CHECK BALLISTIC CHUTE INSTALLATION PER MANUFACTURER RECOMMENDATIONS**

---

**EMPENNAGE/CANARD**

- **REMOVE INSPECTION PLATES AND FAIRINGS**
- **INSPECT CANARD ATTACH POINTS FOR SECURITY**
- **INSPECT VERTICAL FIN ATTACH POINTS**
- **INSPECT ELEVATOR/STABILIZER ATTACH POINTS**
- **INSPECT HINGES/TRIM TABS/ROD ENDS FOR ATTACHMENT AND FREE PLAY (SLOP)**
- **INSPECT EMPENNAGE/CANARD SKIN FOR DAMAGE/CORROSION**
- **INSPECT ALL CONTROL CABLES, HINGES AND PULLEYS**
- **INSPECT ALL CONTROL STOPS**

**FOR U/L:**

- **CHECK ALL ATTACHMENT POINTS AND CONTROL FOR SAFETY CONDITION**
APPENDIX 1. SAMPLE CHECKLIST FOR A CONDITION INSPECTION—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S = SATISFACTORY</th>
<th>U = UNSATISFACTORY</th>
<th>Builder/Inspector</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENGINE:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PERFORM COMPRESSION TEST #1</td>
<td>#2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#3</td>
<td>#4</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHANGE OIL AND FILTER (CHECK FOR METAL)</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT IGNITION HARNESS FOR CONDITION AND CONTINUITY</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CHECK IGNITION LEAD CIGARETTES FOR CONDITION/CRACKS</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CLEAN AND GAP SPARK PLUGS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CHECK MAGNETO TIMING/POINTS/OIL SEAL/DISTRIBUTOR</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT ENGINE MOUNT/BUSHINGS</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT ENGINE MOUNT ATTACHMENT BOLT TORQUE</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT ALTERNATOR/GENERATOR ATTACHMENT</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHECK ALTERNATOR/GENERATOR BELT CONDITION</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT CYLINDERS FOR CRACKS/BROKEN FINS/ EXHAUST STAINS</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT ENGINE BAFFLES FOR CRACKS/CONDITION</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHECK FOR OIL LEAKS INSPECT VACUUM PUMP AND LINES</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT OIL VENT LINES</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT ALL CABIN HEAT/CARB HEAT/DEFROSTER DUCTS FOR CONDITION</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT CARBURETOR FOR SECURITY &amp; CLEAN INLET SCREEN</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT INTAKE HOSES/SEALS FOR SECURITY/LEAKS</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT THROTTLE/MIXTURE/CARB HEAT/CONTROL FOR</td>
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<tr>
<td>PROPER TRAVEL AND SECURITY</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT CARB HEAT AIR BOX FOR CRACKS/OPERATION</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT CONDITION OF FLEXIBLE FUEL AND OIL LINES</td>
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<tr>
<td>INSPECT OIL COOLER FOR LEAKS AND CONDITION</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CHECK EXHAUST SYSTEM FOR ATTACHMENT AND CONDITION</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHECK MUFFLER/INTERNAL BAFFLE/ FOR SECURITY</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>CHECK EXHAUST PIPES/FLANGES FOR SECURITY &amp; ATTACHMENT</td>
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<tr>
<td>REPACK EXHAUST GASKETS AS REQUIRED</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHECK COWLING FOR CRACKS AND SECURITY</td>
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</table>
**APPENDIX 1. SAMPLE CHECKLIST FOR A CONDITION INSPECTION—Continued**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>SATISFACTORY</th>
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<th>UNSATISFACTORY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(correct all unsatisfactory items prior to flight)</td>
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</table>

**FOR U/L:**
- CHECK CARB BOOTS ON 2 CYCLE ENGINES FOR CRACKS
- CHECK SAFETIES ON EXHAUST SPRINGS
- PERFORM 2 CYCLE COMPRESSION TEST TO CHECK SEALS
- ENSURE SPARK PLUG CAPS ARE SAFETIED ON INVERTED ENGINES

**PROPELLER:**
- CHECK SPINNER AND BACK PLATE FOR CRACKS
- INSPECT FOR CRACKS/STONE DAMAGE/NICKS
- CHECK FOR DELAMINATION (WOOD/COMPOSITE BLADES)
- CHECK PROP BOLTS TORQUE/SAFETY WIRE
- CHECK FOR OIL LEAKS (CRANKCASE NOSE SEAL)
- GREASE LEAKS (CONSTANT SPEED PROP)
- CHECK PROPELLER GOVERNOR FOR LEAKS AND OPERATION
- CHECK PROP TRACK
- CHECK PROP BALANCE (WOOD PROP)

**ELECTRICAL**
- SPARE FUSES AVAILABLE
- BATTERY SERVICED AND FREE FROM CORROSION
- BATTERY BOX FREE FROM CORROSION
- ELT BATTERY FREE FROM CORROSION AND CURRENT BATTERY
- CHECK LANDING LIGHT OPERATION
- CHECK POSITION LIGHTS OPERATION
- CHECK ANTI COLLISION LIGHT FOR OPERATION
- INSPECT ALL ANTENNA MOUNTS AND WIRING FOR SECURITY
- CHECK ALL GROUNDING WIRES (ENGINE TO AIRFRAME, WING TO AILERON/FLAP, ETC.)
- INSPECT RADIOS/LEADS/WIRES FOR ATTACHMENT & SECURITY
- INSPECT CIRCUIT BREAKERS/FUSES PANELS FOR CONDITION
## APPENDIX 1. SAMPLE CHECKLIST FOR A CONDITION INSPECTION—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Builder/Inspector</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>OPERATIONAL INSPECTION:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Visual inspection of the engine/proPELLer</td>
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<tr>
<td>All inspection panels and fairings secure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Personnel with fire bottle standing by</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brake system check</td>
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<tr>
<td>Proper fuel in tanks</td>
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<tr>
<td>Engine start procedures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oil pressure/oil temperature within limits</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vacuum gauge check</td>
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<tr>
<td>Magneto check/hot mag check</td>
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<tr>
<td>Idle rpm/mixture check</td>
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<tr>
<td>Static rpm check</td>
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<tr>
<td>Electrical system check</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cool down period/engine shut down</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Perform oil, hydraulic, and fuel leak check</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PAPERWORK:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Airworthiness directives</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Record findings and sign off inspection and</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Maintenance in aircraft log books</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 2. ADDRESSES FOR ACCIDENT/INCIDENT INFORMATION

Accident/incident reports for all U.S.-registered make and model aircraft are available from the following sources:

Federal Aviation Administration (FAA)
Information Management Section, AFS-624
P.O. Box 25082
Oklahoma City, OK 73125
FAX: (405) 954-4655

Experimental Aircraft Association (EAA)
P.O. Box 3086
Attention: Information Services
Wittman Airfield
Oshkosh, WI 54903-3086
TEL: (414) 426-4821

National Transportation Safety Board (NTSB)
Public Inquiry Section
RE-51
490 L’Enfant Plaza, SW.
Washington, DC 20594
TEL: (202) 382-6735

Upon written request, the FAA will supply summary formatted computer print-outs on all accidents and incidents concerning all makes and models of general aviation and amateur-built aircraft. Reports for an individual aircraft accident/incident, or a summary accident/incident report on all aircraft accidents and incidents for a particular make and model, are also available. Requests must be in writing via mail or FAX.

The FAA, EAA, and the NTSB require the date, location of the accident, and if possible, the “N” number for a single aircraft accident. Identify the make and model aircraft (e.g., Poteen Rocket, model OB-1) only if ALL the accidents/incidents for a particular aircraft design are being requested.

A single, computerized report runs approximately 2 pages in length. If the accident is over 18 months old, the report will list probable causes.

A processing fee may be charged for each request based on the number and length of the reports requested.

For Ultralight Accident/Incident information, call or write to the following address:

FAA Safety Data Exchange
ACE-103
Attention: Ben Morrow
1201 Walnut Street, Suite 900
Kansas City, MO 64106
TEL: (816) 426-3580

Service reports and service information also are available by computer by dialing the FAA Safety Data Exchange telephone, (800) 426-3814. The system operates at 1200 thru 9600 Baud rates, and the other parameters are: 8 N 1. It is suggested ANSI or VT100 emulations be used.
APPENDIX 3. ADDITIONAL REFERENCES ON FLIGHT TESTING

The following references comprise selected additional information sources on flight testing and first flight experiences for amateur-built and ultralight aircraft. This list of informational material may help amateur-builders in preparing the FLIGHT TEST PLAN for their aircraft.

INDUSTRY PUBLICATIONS: Amateur-Built


Friedman, Peter, “High Tech-First flight,” *Sport Pilot*, (February 1989), pp. 16, 17, 72, 73.


APPENDIX 3. ADDITIONAL REFERENCES ON FLIGHT TESTING—Continued

Sport Aviation, “Pointers on Test Flying Complied by Chapter 32, St. Louis, MO,” *Sport Aviation*, (December 1960), pg. 3.

INDUSTRY PUBLICATIONS: Ultralight

APPENDIX 3. ADDITIONAL REFERENCES ON FLIGHT TESTING—Continued


GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS:

Send a written request for free Advisory Circulars to the FAX or address listed below.

**Department of Transportation (DOT)**

Property Use and Storage  
Section, M-45.3  
Washington, DC 20590  
FAX: (202) 366-2795

Advisory Circulars (AC) with a stock number and dollar amount can be obtained from:

**New Orders**  
Superintendent of Documents  
P.O. Box 371954  
Pittsburgh PA 15250-7954  
TEL: (202) 783-3238 (Order Desk)

**NOTE:** Make the check payable to the Superintendent of Documents.

AC 00-2.8 “Advisory Circular Checklist (and Status of Other FAA Publications)”  
AC 20-27 “Certification and Operation of Amateur-Built Aircraft”  
AC 20-32 “Carbon Monoxide (CO) Contamination in Aircraft—Detection and Prevention”  
AC 20-34, “Prevention of Retractable Landing Gear Failures”  
AC 20-35, “Tiedown Sense”  
AC 20-37, “Aircraft Metal Propeller Maintenance”  
AC 20-42, “Hand Fire Extinguishers for Use in Aircraft”  
AC 20-103, “Aircraft Engine Crankshaft Failure”  
AC 20-105, “Engine Power-Loss Accident Prevention”  
AC 20-106, “Aircraft Inspection for the General Aviation Aircraft Owner”  
AC 20-125, “Water in Aviation Fuels”  
AC 23-959-1, “Unusable Fuel Test Procedures for Small Airplanes”  
AC 61-21A, “Flight Training Handbook” (Available from the Sup. Docs., SN 050-007-00504-1, cost $17.00)
APPENDIX 3. ADDITIONAL REFERENCES ON FLIGHT TESTING—Continued

AC 61-23B, “Pilot’s Handbook of Aeronautical Knowledge” (Available from the Sup. Docs., SN 050-011-00077-1, cost $10.00)

AC 61-107, “Operations of Aircraft at Altitudes Above 25,000 Feet MSL and/or Mach Numbers (Mmo) Greater Than .75”

AC 91-23A, “Pilot’s Weight and Balance Handbook” (Available from the Sup. Docs., SN 050-007-00405-2, cost $5.00)

AC 91-46, “Gyrosopic Instruments—Good Operating Practices”

AC 91-48, “Acrobatics—Precision Flying With a Purpose”

AC 91-59, “Inspection and Care of General Aviation Aircraft Exhaust Systems”

AC 91-61, “A Hazard in Aerobatics: Effects or G-Forces of Pilots”

AC 103-6, “Ultralight Vehicle Operations-Airports, Air Traffic Control (ATC), and Weather”

AC 103-7, “The Ultralight Vehicle”