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ABSTRACTS FROM THE SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL PRESS.

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Notices and abstracts from the Scientific and Technical Press are prepared primarily for the information of Scientific and Technical Staffs. Particular attention is paid to the work carried out in foreign countries, on the assumption that the more accessible British work (for example that published by the Aeronautical Research Committee) is already known to these Staffs.

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Note.—As far as possible, the country of origin quoted in the items refers to the original source.

American Bomb Types. (Inter. Avia., Nos. 898-899, Dec. 11th, 1943, pp. 21-22.) (121/1 U.S.A.)

Depending upon the use to which they are put, the following American bomb designs are in use:—

- (1) DEMOLITION BOMBS.
 - (a) General Purpose Bombs (G.P.), which contain from 50 to 55 per cent. explosive; their cases are made from seamless extruded steel tubes, on to which are welded reinforced nose caps; they are used in five sizes, namely, 100 lb. bombs for the demolition of one or two-storey buildings and other unarmoured targets; 250 lb. bombs for use against larger buildings and unarmoured ships; 500 lb. bombs for use against railway installations, bridges, etc., and against lightly armoured ships; 1,000 lb. bombs for the destruction of large bridges and part installations; 2,000 lb. bombs for the bursting of dams and the destruction of battle cruisers and battle ships.
 - (b) Semi-Armour Piercing Bombs (S.A.P.), which contain about 32 per cent. explosive and are available in weights of 500 lb. and 1,000 lb. for cases in which the penetration of the G.P. bombs is not sufficient.
 - (c) Armour Piercing Bombs (A.P.), which contain only from five to twelve per cent. explosive and are used in six sizes from 600 lb. to 1,600 lb.; these bombs, developed from coastal mortar shells, are used comparatively rarely as they are effective only when direct hits are scored.

- (d) Light Case Bombs (L.C.), with 77 to 80 per cent. explosive, which produce their effect mainly by blast and are used chiefly for the destruction of blocks of buildings; the biggest bomb of this type, frequently termed "block buster," has a weight of 4,200 lb. and carries an explosive charge of 3,362 lb. It is pointed out that the effect of the largest sizes of light case bombs is frequently overestimated, as for example, two 2,000 lb. bombs cause more damage than one of 4,000 lb. Details of the sizes of smaller light case bombs are not available.
- (e) Depth Bombs (D.B.), with an explosive filled amounting to 70 to 75 per cent. of the weight; they have a very thin case and are detonated by hydrostatic fuse provoking the explosion depending upon the pressure exerted on it by the surrounding water; the effect of the bombs takes the form of under-water shock waves; this type of projectile is used to combat submarine and is available in sizes of 325 lb. and 650 lb.

(2) Fragmentation Bombs.

These are used in weights of 20 to 30 lb.; they consist of a steel cylinder which encloses the explosive filled and around which is wound an iron bar of rectangular cross section; upon the explosion the latter breaks up into 1,000-1,500 splinters weighing about one-third of an ounce each. For release from medium altitudes impact fuses are employed whereas in low flying attacks delayed action fuses or parachutes are used to prevent the attacking aircraft from being hit by splinters. It is reported that in certain cases single or clustered fragmentation bombs with time fuses are used against closed formations of enemy aircraft.

(3) CHEMICAL BOMBS.

These are mostly bombs weighing 100 lb., with a light steel case filled with various chemicals, depending upon the use to which they are put; for example, they can be filled with incendiary liquids, chemicals producing smoke-screens, or with harrassing or casualty agents. Besides these the U.S. Army Air Forces use *incendiary sticks* weighing about 4 lb. and consisting of a magnesium case filled with thermit.

(4) Practice Bombs.

These weigh 100 lb. and are usually filled with sand.

(5) DRILL AND GAUGE BOMBS.

These are used in various sizes for training purposes and for ballistic

experiments.

That the American and the British Air Forces do not employ the same designs of bomb is discernible superficially by the fact that the American bombs are fitted with box-type fins, whereas the British show cylindrical vanes; it is claimed that the American design produces a considerably smaller spread because the bombs are prevented from rotating about their axis. Without attempting to describe the designs of the American instantaneous, time and hydrostatic fuses, it may be recorded that the instantaneous fuses are sometimes fitted with "feelers" measuring from six to twenty-four inches length, resembling the "Dinort" sticks used in Germany.

New De-Icing Developments. (Inter. Avia., Nos. 898-899, December 11th, 1943, p. 20.) (121/2 U.S.A.)

While hitherto the accretion of ice on airscrews was prevented by means of an anti-icing liquid which was spread over the leading edges of the airscrew blades by means of a slinger ring, the United States Rubber Co. has now developed a new method in collaboration with the Army Air Forces. Almost the entire

leading edge of the airscrew blade is covered with a newly developed type of synthetic rubber "Uskon," which as a result of the admixture of chemical substances is electrically conductive.

As the tests carried out by the Army Air Forces by electrically heating the airscrews have produced satisfactory results, the possibilities of applying this system also in other fields of anti-icing protection are now being studied with considerable intensity. As regards hot air de-icing, in the P.B.Y. "Catalina" twin-engined and the P.B.2Y. "Coronado" four-engined flying-boats, only the wing leading edges are heated with air which in turn is heated by the exhaust gases. An additional heating installation operating on aviation petrol is installed in the tail of the hull for the heating of the leading edges of the control surfaces. The B-24 "Liberator" four-engined bomber and the new P4Y-1 twin-engined naval flying-boat, both of which will be fitted with consolidated Vultee anti-icing systems, will not have this supplementary heating installation and their tail units will be heated by means of hot air supplied from the power plant.

A.B.A. Pressure Priming System for Starting Aircraft. (Inter. Avia., Nos. 898-899, Dec. 11th, 1943, pp. 23-24.) (121/3 Sweden.)

The A.B.A. starting method makes use of a special container holding the priming fuel (either normal aviation petrol or especially volatile fuel) under constant nitrogen pressure, whence it is discharged into the intake manifold of the engine by means of an instantly acting remote-controlled valve equipped with an effective atomiser. The following versions have been tested:—(a) The container can be removed with the aid of an automatic cut-off valve closing the passage between the container and the permanently mounted pressure line to the priming valve; outside of the aircraft it is filled with a starting fuel and pressure nitrogen by means of suitable equipment. (b) The container is permanently installed and is charged through a petrol pipe ending in a quickcoupling. (c) The permanent equipment of the aeroplane merely consists of the priming nozzle and the pipe ending in a quick-coupling for connection to a service cart; in this case such a cart equipped with a storage container must be available on each aerodrome. In the first two cases the weight of the entire installation amounts to 5.1 lb. for each engine, whereas in the third case the weight is only 1.3 lb. The priming nozzle is controlled electrically by means of a solenoid and acts instantaneously because the pipe leading from the container to the nozzle is constantly filled with fuel. The fuel metered out by the nozzle is sufficient for normal idling, so that the engine turns on the priming fuel until it is warmed up sufficiently and obtains its normal mixture supply from the carburettor. The starting method described has been tested by A.B. Aerotransport with good results over a period of two years, and the engines were normally found to fire within three seconds, whereas normal carburettor operation began within from five to sixty seconds, the latter at lowest temperatures.

American Statistics of Civil Aircraft Accidents Due to Engine Failure (Engines of 90 h.p. or Less). (Inter. Avia., Nos. 898-899, December 11th, 1943, p. 20.) (121/4 U.S.A.)

The Safety Bureau of the U.S. Civil Aeronautics Board recently published statistics covering aircraft accidents resulting from engine failure in the period from 1939 to 1942. Although the report analyses only trouble experienced with engines of 90 h.p. or less, interesting comparisons can nevertheless be made of the frequency of the various types of engine trouble. Roughly 55 per cent. of all accidents caused by engine trouble were traceable to failure of the fuel system, of which, however, over one-third were chargeable to personnel error, including carburettor icing, fuel exhaustion caused by the pilot's lack of attention to his fuel supply, the use of wrong grade fuel, etc. One-sixth of the remaining accidents were due to each of the following causes:—

- (a) Dirt or water in the fuel system;
- (b) Improper idling and throttle adjustment;
- (c) Carburettor icing under conditions where the pilot was not at fault;
- (d) Fuel line leaks, vapour locks, broken throttle brackets, etc.

Some 23 per cent. of accidents resulted from undetermined causes; in the main it is assumed that these failures were of a nature which could not be determined after the crash owing to the engine being too badly damaged. The third group of about 10 per cent. consists of accidents produced by power plant structural failure, such as, in the order of their frequency:—Valves and valve springs, airscrews, cylinders, crankshafts, and pistons. In the fourth place, with about seven per cent., was ignition malfunctioning, more than half of which occurred as a result of faulty magnetos or sparking plugs. The remaining five per cent. of the cases investigated were due to lubrication system failures or miscellaneous causes.

Non-Destructive Testing of Non-Ferrous Semi-Finished Metal Products by New Magnetic Induction Methods. (W. Schirp, E.T.Z., Vol. 64, Nos. 31-32, 12/8/43, pp. 413-414.) (121/5 Germany.)

The magnetic induction method for the inspection of non-ferrous metals depends on the fact that the apparent resistance of a coil fed with high frequency alternating current and surrounding the specimen varies with the dimensions and electrical conductivity of the latter. The method is primarily suited for tubes, rods or profiles of nominally constant cross-section which can be passed through the coil. Flow rates as high as 1 m./sec. can be maintained through the apparatus, which normally is provided with two test coils forming the opposite arms of a Wheatstone bridge. An e.m.f. of sonic frequency is applied and the out of balance current after amplification can be observed on a cathode ray oscillograph and will operate an electronic relay as soon as certain limiting values are exceeded.

When testing for consistency of dimensions or constitution (hardness or heat treatment, type of alloy, etc.) the specimen under investigation passes through one of the coils whilst the other surrounds a stationary reference sample. Dimensional errors are separated from those due to heat treatment, etc., by changes in phase displacement of the cathode ray record. The sensitivity of the inspection is not sufficient to record cracks or other internal faults (inclusions).

Such faults are detected by passing the specimen through both coils in succession, the coils being placed in close proximity to each other. Under these conditions, changes in dimension or constitution of sample (unless they are abnormal) will affect both coils equally, each crack or fault, on the other hand, giving rise to two discontinuities in the record (a crack smaller than the longitudinal dimension of the coils is recorded twice as it passes through the two coils, whilst for longer cracks, the beginning and end of the fault is recorded). It is obvious that by duplicating the circuits and recorders and employing three search coils spanning the specimen whilst a fourth surrounds the standard, the fault testing can be carried out simultaneously with inspection for dimensions and heat treatment.

In most cases of semi-finished products, the latter inspection need not be carried out over the whole length of the specimen. Thus, in the apparatus developed by Heinkel for dural tubes, the checking for dimensions and heat treatment against a standard is carried out over the first 20 cm., whilst the testing for flaws is carried out over the remaining length. Only one set of electronic recorders is thus required, the coils only being switched in or out as required.

The test process is completely automatic and does not depend on visual observation, special electronic relays being provided which automatically mark faulty sections of the tubes as they pass through the apparatus. Further relays

ensure that only specimens fulfilling the specification are passed on to the works, the rejects being further sorted, depending on whether the material or dimensions are at fault.

A great advantage of the apparatus is the high speed of operation (over 1 m./sec.) and the absence of skilled attention. It is stated that prior to its installation, numerous cases arose where faults either escaped detection or were only noticed after an appreciable amount of fabrication had been carried out on the product.

Surface Structure Markings on Al.-Mn. and Al.-Mg.-Si. Sheet Metal After Anodic Treatment. (H. Rohrig and E. Kopernick, Z. f. Metallkunde, Vol. 35, No. 5, May, 1943, pp. 117-120.) (121/6 Germany.)

During the anodic treatment (d.c. sulphuric acid electrolytes) of Al.-Mn. alloy sheet, dark cloudy markings are occasionally produced, especially if the material is semi-hard. Surface markings are also found, although more rarely, when anodising Al.-Mg.-Si. sheet. In this case, however, the marking is not dark, but speckled. The chemical composition of sheets exhibiting this abnormality does not differ in any way from that of other sheets yielding the normal white oxide film on treatment. It appears that the discolouration of Al-Mn. sheet is due to the supersaturation of the mixed crystals with Mn. at their boundaries. This may lead to an uneven distribution of Mn. already in the casting, if the latter is annealed incorrectly.

The segregate once formed will persist in the rolled sheet and on subsequent anodising produces a dark cloudy deposit of manganese oxide. The cure of the trouble therefore lies in a close temperature control of the cast alloy prior to rolling. The casting should be carried out quickly and the annealing temperature prior to rolling should not exceed 450°C. for 4 hours, at an actual rolling temperature of 350°C. Slow cooling of the casting (of the order of 30 minutes) and lengthy annealing periods (of the order of 24 hours) favour the breaking up of the mixed crystal and the formation of unevenly dispersed segregates may lead to troubles during subsequent anodising.

In the case of Al.-Mg.-Si. alloys, the Mg₂Si segregate is already formed during the cooling of the casting. On account of the higher mobility of the Mg. and Si. atoms compared with those of Mn., however, marked difference in concentration of segregate producing an uneven oxide film on subsequent anodisation occur only relatively rarely. Suitable heat treatment of the original casting again obviates the trouble.

The Effect of Annealing Temperature and Period on the Softening of Previously Cold Worked Metal (Crystal Recuperation and Recrystallisation Phenomena). (A. Pomp and G. Niebch, Z. f. Metallkunde, Vol. 35, No. 5, May, 1943, pp. 111-117.) (121/7 Germany.)

The experiments were carried out on Krupp soft steel of the following per cent. composition:—

The material was available in the form of round bars of 26 mm. diameter which were cut into 40 cm. lengths and annealed at 900°C. for 30 minutes. The bars were subsequently cooled in Kieselguhr (infusorial earth) and ground down to 18 mm. diameter.

The specimens so obtained were next stretched in a 35-ton tensile machine so as to exhibit permanent reduction in cross-section of 5, 7.5, 10, 12.5, 15 and 20 per cent. respectively. The bars were then cut into cylindrical blocks, each 10 mm. high and annealed at a series of constant temperature ranging from 620°C. to 900°C., the annealing time varying from 10 minutes to 8 hours.

Subsequent cooling took place either in still air or at a very much slower rate in the oven (r°C./min.), The blocks were then finally split longitudinally and the Brinell hardness determined at two points for each of the two new internal surfaces thus formed.

These surfaces were then polished and etched for micro graphical examination of the structure.

Immediately after cold working and before the subsequent annealing, the material gave the following hardness values:—

| Per cent. diminution in area. | Brinell Hardness 2.5/62.5/30 Kg./mm. ² |
|-------------------------------|---|
| 0 | 93 |
| 5 | 121 |
| 7.5 | 129 |
| 10 | 136 |
| 12.5 | 142 |
| 15 | 149 |
| 20 | 160 |

With annealing, some or all of this strain hardening disappears.

The experimental results are given in graphical form, the Brinell hardness being plotted against annealing period for each temperature, with degree of original cold working (per cent. reduction in area) as parameter.

Broadly speaking, the curves fall into two classes, depending on whether the original cold working amounted to less or more than 10 per cent. reduction in cross-section.

(1) In the former case, after an initial rapid softening of the material, a steady state is reached in about 30 minutes and extending the annealing period to 8 hours causes no further reduction in hardness. The final value, moreover, is still appreciably above that of the original material prior to cold working. (Brinell 115 against 93.)

(2) If, on the other hand, the material has been stretched to give a reduction in area between 10 and 20 per cent., the softening during annealing is progressive over much longer period (of the order of 4 hours) and the final hardness figure is practically identical with that of the original material prior to cold working.

It appears that in the case of moderate strain hardening the subsequent softening on annealing is mainly due to crystal recuperation and metallographical examination shows no change in structure of the material.

With high degrees of original strain hardening, however, marked recrystallisation of the material takes place on annealing.

Phosphatising in the Cold. (Z.V.D.I., Vol. 87, No. 49-50, 11/12/43, p. 794.) (121/8 Germany.)

In the well known phosphatising (anti-rust) process, bath temperatures of the order of 90-95°C. were employed originally.

It has been found that equivalent results can be obtained in the cold, if sodium nitrite is added as an accelerator to a zinc phosphate bath (pH=2.7).

The process has been worked on a large scale for over two years and led to a saving of several thousand tons of coal per month.

The Influence of High Frequency (Supersonic) Longitudinal Vibrations on the Magnetic Response of Nickel. (Part III—Measurements on Nickel Wire with the Ferrograph.) (G. Schmid and V. Jetter, Z. f. Elektrochemie, Vol. 48, No. 10, Oct., 1942, pp. 513-522.) (121/9 Germany.)

The experiments covered nickel wires ranging in diameter from .5 to 2 mm. which were suspended vertically and subjected to longitudinal vibrations of a

frequency of 19,500/sec. by means of a nickel tube oscillator attached to the lower end and operating by magnetrostriction. The upper end of the wire was attached to a steel band passing over horizontal rollers and carrying a scale pan for loading the wire statically. Reflexion of the longitudinal waves at the upper end of the wire was prevented by covering the attachment with Chatterton compound. The vibration amplitude was measured by observing the displacements of a reference point on the wire (suitably illuminated) in a microscope. It was found that this amplitude corresponded to that of the upper end of the oscillator and could therefore be measured by electromagnetic induction. The amplitude was varied by changing the power input of the oscillator, the change in extension corresponding to a range of stress amplitudes from o to 3 kg./mm.². By means of the scale pan loads, the wire could also be subjected to a series of constant static loads from o to 5 kg./mm.2 simultaneously with the excitation. magnetic response of the wire (I/H curve) was traced out by a cathode ray oscillograph working in conjunction with a Forster Ferrograph. On this oscillograph, the horizontal deflection corresponds to changes in the applied field strength H whilst the vertical deflection records the changes in the magnetisation I. The ferrograph is operated with alternating current of 50 cycles/sec. which is also the periodicity of the observed I/H curves. The magnetic field thus changes from zero to a maximum value in 1/200 sec.

Before the measurements, the Ni. wires were annealed in an atmosphere of H₂ for two hours at 800°C. and quenched in H₂ at room temperature. The initial permeability of the wires was of the order of 130, but diminished to about 40 with continued mechanical excitation (age hardening).

Most of the experiments were carried out in weak magnetic fields ($H_{
m max} = \sim .2$ Oersted). Under these conditions, in the absence of static load and high frequency excitation, there is practically no hysteresis and the magnetisation curve shrinks to such narrow dimensions that in general only two parallel lines enclosing a very narrow gap can be detected. As soon as the oscillation, however, is started up the loop broadens out, becoming wider as the oscillation or stress amplitude increases. After a certain maximum amplitude is reached (usually of the order of 1 kg.7mm.2) however, the loop shrinks again and approximates to its original narrow shape when its stress amplitude reaches about 2 kg./mm.2. The loop now is however more tilted and I_{max} considerably greater than in the original (unexcited) state. These characteristics are retained if the wire is subjected to a constant tensile load whilst subjected to high frequency excitation. The size of the loop is however reduced by the static load which evidently appears to oppose the vibratory effect. For the same stress intensity, however, the static load produces a much smaller numerical effect. Thus, in the absence of high frequency excitation, a static tensile stress of 1 kg./mm.2 reduces the maximum magnetisation of the wire by about 25 per cent. On the other hand, in the absence of static load a high frequency stress vibration with an amplitude of 1 kg./mm.2 increases I_{max} 10 times! From this it might appear at first sight as if the pressure component of the high frequency oscillation were responsible for the increased effect. This pressure component can, however, be made to disappear by subjecting the wire to a tensile load in excess of the excitation amplitude. The wire is now always fluctuating in tension, but still shows a six-fold increase in maximum magnetisation compared with no load conditions. Quite different results are, however, obtained if the magnetisation is carried out in strong fields of the order of 50 Oersted. Increasing the amplitude of the high frequency stress (no static load) now progressively reduces the width of the loop without however affecting the general shape of $I_{
m max}$ appreciably. The diagram approaches more and more to the ideal shape as the stress amplitude is increased to beyond 2 kg./mm.². It is evident that the high frequency oscillation "frees" formerly irreversible processes in the material already at very weak values of the field H. Increasing the static load in the absence of high frequency oscillation, however,

both closes the loop and alters its shape, the material evidently becoming increasingly difficult to magnetise.

The interrelation between stress and magnetic behaviour thus depends markedly on the frequency of the stress. This is also shown by the fact that soft annealed Ni. will age harden at a very much smaller stress when the latter is applied at high frequency than when applied statically.

Magnetic tests of the type described are hoped to lead eventually to a better understanding of the changes in material structure under load. Their great advantage lies in the fact that they give average results over the whole volume, whilst electron diffraction tests only deal with surface effects.

Infinitely Variable Gears for Machine Tools. (H. Schopke, Z.V.D.I., Vol. 87, No. 49-50, 11/12/43, pp. 773-780.) (121/10 Germany.)

The article deals mainly with mechanical and electrical drives, hydraulic gears for machine tools having already been considered exhaustively by H. Krug in a previous issue of this journal (R.T.P. Translation No. 1,975).

Infinitely variable gears are of special interest in conjunction with machine tools since they afford means of speeding up production. It is, however, essential that such gears be absolutely reliable. A certain drop in efficiency with wear may be permitted, provided the tool continues to function.

Under no circumstances, however, must gear adjustment or failure lead to the complete stoppage of the machine tool. These very strict requirements have naturally limited the number of practical solutions. Broadly speaking, mechanical gears have found their field on relatively light machine tools, whilst the speed control of heavy tools is generally electrical. Medium tools, on the other hand, can be efficiently controlled by hydraulic gears.

Amongst the mechanical gears, the P.I.V. and Heynau gears have proved outstanding successes. Both gears are of the expanding pulley-belt type, but differ fundamentally in design, the P.I.V. employing grooved pulleys with a special link chain whilst the Heynau utilises a solid steel ring and plain pulleys. P.I.V. gears transmitting up to 30 h.p. with a speed control range of 1:6 are fitted extensively to German machine tools and are stated to have functioned very satisfactorily. The Heynau gear transmits rather smaller powers, but its extreme compactness and large speed control (1:12) has rendered it a favourite for certain tools such as thread grinders.

Turning now to electrical drives, the Leonard type with D.C. motors and both field and armature control has proved the most successful. It can easily be adapted to work in conjunction with an automatic gear box of normal type and a speed range of 100: I can be covered continuously by simply pressing a number of control buttons. The great flexibility of the drive is of special advantage in planing machines where return strokes of I m./sec. are easily achieved by this means. Another interesting example is provided by heavy shears which formerly had to be fitted with flywheels but which now can be controlled satisfactorily by the Leonard system without employing either flywheel or couplings. Although electrical gears, as already explained, are most suited for heavy tools, simplified Leonard controls have lately come into the market for outputs as low as $\frac{1}{2}$ h.p., thus invading a field previously reserved for mechanical gears.

Dangers of the Atmosphere (Translation of Abstract). (T. O. Eriksson, Flygning, Vol. 20, No. 15; Abstracted in Luftwissen, Vol. 10, No. 4, April, 1943, p. 22.) (121/11 Germany.)

The dangers to which aircraft are exposed when flying are fog and clouds, precipitations—of which only hail is likely to cause damage—thunderstorms and icing.

The following steps should be taken to counter the danger of icing:-

- 1. Follow weather reports;
- 2. Avoid dangerous altitude levels between 0.5 and 1 km. and temperatures just below oo;
- 3. Make for other altitude levels once icing conditions are encountered;
- 4. Do not take-off with iced-up aircraft;
- 5. Avoid flying close to clouds at temperature's less than +0.5°; and finally
- 6. Keep an eye on the air thermometer.

The precautions to be taken in thunderstorms owing to the danger of lightning are:—

- 1. Take in trailing antenna, remove earphones and avoid touching metal parts with bare hands;
- 2. Fly some distance below cloud, but desist from dangerous low flying;
- 3. Avoid flying close along front of thunderstorms or try to fly over thunder clouds.

It should also be remembered that there is the danger of an electric shock when the aircraft is electrically charged, e.g., through jettisoning fuel and that gusts are most severe in thunderstorms.

The New German Glider School at Ith. (Luftwelt, Vol. 9, No. 15, 1st Aug., 1942, pp. 298-299.) (121/12 Germany.)

Describing the opening of the new Glider Training School at Ith in the Weser Hills. The school accommodates 120 pupils and 50 gliders and is intended for training young candidates from the Hitler Youth Air Training Corps.

The Ith already has a history of ten years of glider flying and can show records such as those of the 1939 meeting, with 10,840 km. total distance flown, 40 high altitude ascents between 1,000 and 3,000 m., a distance record of 293 km. and an endurance record of 10 hours.

The Influence of Carbon Content on the Hot Zincing of Sheet Steel. (W. Pungel, Stahl and Eisen, Vol. 64, No. 7, 17/2/44, pp. 101-105.) (121/13 Germany.)

The experiments were carried out on 2 mm. sheet steel which was available in eight different batches with C content ranging from .06 to .78 per cent. Samples (20 x 20 cm.) were cut from each batch and were subjected to the following preliminary treatment in lots of 12:—

- (a) Sandblasting only.
- (b) Sandblasting followed by annealing at 750°C. for one hour.
- (c) Normalised only.

Each lot of 12 was next pickled in 20 per cent. HCl and then hot zinced at 430-440°C. (30 sec. immersion period), six of the samples being treated by the so-called dry process, the wet process being adopted for the remainder. (In the dry process the sample is sprinkled with NH₄Cl powder and dried before immersion, whilst in the wet process, the pickled and still wet specimen is immersed, the bath in this case being covered with a surface layer of NH₄Cl and ZnCl₂ flux.)

After zincing, the samples were subjected to the following tests:-

- (a) Determination of thickness of deposit (chemical method).
- (b) Adhesion tests (Ericson cup and folding tests).
- (c) Examination of structure of deposit (sectioned).
- (d) Bending fatigue strength.

The author concludes that provided the sheet metal surface is thoroughly cleaned by sandblasting before pickling and the pickling liquor removed before dipping, the C content of the sheet exerts no detrimental effect on the zinc deposit and affects neither its uniformity nor adhesion. The thickness of the resulting deposit was practically the same in the wet and dry process and averaged about

700 gm./m.². Uneven deposits, however (black patches), result if the sheet is not sandblasted prior to pickling, and in this case there is some evidence that the nature of the zinc deposit deteriorates with increasing C content of the sheet. This is evidently due to uneven attack of the pickling solution and attempts to overcome this difficulty by altering the nature of the latter have failed so far.

Testing Armour-Piercing Bullets for Cracks After Manufacture. (Z.V.D.I., Vol. 88, No. 3-4, 22/1/44, p. 54.) (121/14 Germany.)

It is claimed that hair cracks are rendered more easily visible if the hardened part is subjected to sudden changes in temperature. For this purpose, two water tanks are provided which are kept at o° and 100°C. respectively. The parts are transferred from the cold to the hot tank several times and finally examined at room temperature.

Stress Coefficients for Rotating Disks of Conical Profile. (K. E. Bishopp, A.S.M.E., December, 1943, Meeting.) (Preprint available.) (121/15 U.S.A.)

The conical profile is expressed by the equation

$$2h = 2H (1 - r/R),$$

where 2H = thickness at hub.

r =radius under consideration.

2h = thickness at r.

R = periphery.

Let p and q = mean radial and hoop stresses at r.

 ρ = mean density of material.

 ω = angular velocity (radians/sec.).

By equating forces on a small element of volume we obtain:-

$$(1 - r/R) q - (1 - 2r/R) p - r (1 - r/R) (dp/dr) = \rho (1 - r/R) r^2 \omega^2 . (1)$$

also the compatability of stress and strain requires:-

$$p - \sigma q = (d/dr) (rq - \sigma rp) \qquad . \qquad . \qquad . \qquad . \tag{2}$$

where $\sigma = Poisson's ratio$.

Combination of (1) and (2) yields a hypergeometrical differential equation, which the author solves by using a combination of power and logarithmic series ensuring rapid convergence.

The general solution is of the form:

$$\begin{array}{l} P\left(x\right)\!=\!AP_{1}\left(x\right)\!+\!BP_{2}\left(x\right)\!+\!P_{3}\left(x\right)\\ \text{where }P\!=\!\left(\mathbf{1}-x\right)p\text{ and }x\!=\!r/R,\\ i.e.,\ p\!=\!Ap_{1}\!+\!Bp_{2}+\!\rho R^{2}\omega^{2}p_{3}\\ q\!=\!Aq_{1}\!+\!Bq_{2}\!+\!\rho R^{2}\omega^{2}q_{3} \end{array}$$

The author has calculated the stress coefficients p_1 , p_2 , p_3 , and q_1 , q_2 , q_3 , at intervals of r/R=.01 to an accuracy of five parts in 2×10^6 . A worked out example shows how the geometrical constants A and B are determined in any special case.

It is claimed that the approximation to an arbitrary profile by a series of conical instead of uniform disks leads to a considerable shortening of the mathematical work besides producing a clearer picture of the stress distribution, since no discontinuities (except those due to abrupt change in the profile) arise.

Torsion Fatigue Testing Machine for Large Parts. (Z.V.D.I., Vol. 88, No. 3-4, 22/1/44, p. 54.) (121/16 Germany.)

It is known that the torsional and bending fatigue strength of a specimen depends markedly on its cross-section. Thus the torsional fatigue strength of a crankshaft with a journal diameter of 245 mm. is only about half that of a model

made of the same material to one-sixth scale. It has therefore been necessary to design fatigue testing machines capable of handling large specimens and the author describes a type of torsional machine capable of exerting a periodic twisting moment of up to $\pm 12,000$ kgm. superposed on a static moment of up to 12,000 kgm. The amplitude of twist is $\pm 6^{\circ}$ and high grade steel shafts up to 160 mm. diameter can be tested. The machine is operated by a D.C. shunt motor of 80 K.W., the normal speed being 800 r.p.m. For starting up a two-stage gearbox with reduction ratios of 1:24 and 1:6 respectively in used, the motor being under Leonard control. At the operational speed of 800 r.p.m. the gears are uncoupled electro-magnetically and the drive is direct.

Shrink Fit Stresses and Deformation. (A. W. Rankin, A.S.M.E. Annual Meeting, Dec., 1943.) (Preprint available.) (121/17 U.S.A.)

The author obtains expressions for the stresses in a solid cylinder of infinite length caused by the application of a uniform radial stress over a single circumferential ring of finite length on the surface of the cylinder.

In an arched shrink fit problem, the determination of its stresses would be extremely complex since the stress distribution in the ring would also vary. A good approximation to the average deformation of the shaft surface can, however, be obtained by assuming the radial stress constant over the length of the ring, *i.e.*, neglecting the stress increase at the ends of the ring.

The author considers the special case of a cylinder of radius r_0 subjected to a pressure p lb./sq. in. over a length 2a. The cylinder is assumed infinitely long and there is no constraint in the axial direction (z axis).

If the whole surface of the cylinder is subjected to a uniform radial stress, the radial deformation u is given by:—

$$u = {\left(\left(\mathbf{1} - \boldsymbol{\gamma} \right) r_{o} p \right) / E}$$

when $\gamma = Poisson's ratio$.

Similarly, the average radial deformation σ of the shaft surface if the pressure is limited to a length 2a $(z=\pm a)$ can be expressed in the form

$$\delta = \{ (1 - \gamma) r_{o} p \} / KE$$

where K is a function of a/r_0 and $\rightarrow 1$ when $a/r_0 \rightarrow \infty$ and is given in the following table:—

| $a/r_{ m o}$ | | | K |
|--------------|---------|---------|------|
| .05 | ••• | | 3.5 |
| .10 | • • • • | • • • | 2.4 |
| .15 | • • • | • • • • | 1.9 |
| .20 | (| | 1.6 |
| .25 | | .,. | 1.4 |
| .30 | | | 1.3 |
| .40 | | | 1.25 |
| ∞ | | | 1.0 |

The radial, axial and shear stress of the shaft are given explicitly by the author in the form of infinite integrals, which are solved numerically and a series of curves are given from which the actual stresses can be determined in any given case.

The distribution of radial, tangential, axial and shear stress have been worked out numerically for the special case when $a/r_0=.15$. The results are given graphically, the value of the stress being expressed in terms of the applied radial stress p for various axial distances z/r_0 with (r/r_0) as parameter. (r=particular radius considered). It is interesting to note that the internal radial and tangential stresses at the origin (r=0) amount to only 30 per cent. of the applied radial stress, whilst the axial stress at the origin=.18 p. The distribution of shear stress is worthy of note. This stress is zero for the centre of the shaft (r=0) and is also zero at the shaft surface with the exception of the lines of discon-

and not to a change in permeability proper since the partial pressures have not been changed.)

The rubber layers employed usually have a total thickness from .15 to .25 mm. Over this range, K varies inversely as the thickness. The absolute value of K depends, however, very much on the nature of the rubber and the period over which it has been exposed to air and light (1), (11).

As already stated, a good quality balloon fabric should have a K factor of less than 10 l./m.2 per 24 hours.

It is interesting to note that using synthetic rubber (Neoprene), the K factor is as little as 2.5, whilst even the best natural rubber balloon fabric has K values above 6.

In addition, the synthetic material deteriorates very much less on exposure to air and light. Thus after 14 days exposure (mid-summer), the K factor for this material only increased from 2.4 to 2.7, whilst fabric treated with natural rubber showed nearly 100 per cent. increase in permeability.

Several methods (1, 2) for measuring the permeability of balloon fabric are in use. The simplest consist in measuring the change in pressure in a vessel fitted with a cap of the material and originally filled with H2 at a pressure of one atmosphere. This method is used in France (5), but leads to erroneous results unless a correction for the amount of air entering the vessel is applied. The most accurate method consists in exposing the two sides of the fabric to a continuous flow of air and hydrogen respectively and measuring the amount of H₂ picked up by the air. This can be done either chemically (7) (burning to water), optically (5) (8) (interferometer) or electrically (2) (6) (measurement of thermal conductivity). The last two methods, although very accurate, require rather expensive apparatus and for this reason, the author follows the chemical method (5, 7, 8, 9, 10).

The apparatus employed by the Rubber Research Institute, Delft, employs a circular piece of fabric 37.5 cm. diameter which forms a central partition in a circular metal box of 8 mm. total depth. The box is immersed in a thermostat (25°C.) and air circulated through one of the chambers at a rate of about 5 litres/hour, whilst H₂ circulates through the other chamber at about three times this rate; the difference of pressure between the two chambers being 30 mm. H₂O.

Before every determination, the two chambers are scavenged at these flow rates for about one hour before readings are taken. The air leaving the apparatus passes through drying tubes (silica gel) and then over a hot platinum spiral. The steam formed by the combustion of the contained H2 is absorbed in two further silica gel tubes and determined by weighing. The diaphragm box is placed in the thermostat so that the fabric is vertical, the air entering its appropriate compartment from below and leaving at the top, whilst the reverse flow direction is employed for the H₂.

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The Single-Seat Slow Speed Aircraft L.F.1 Built by the Brunswick Technical High School. (H. Winter, Z.V.D.I., Vol. 88, Nos. 3-4, 22/1/44, pp. 43-46.) (121/19 Germany.)

The aircraft is a high wing (parasol) monoplane with the following principal characteristics:—

```
Weight (empty.)
                                251 kg.
Flying weight
                                355 kg.
Span ... ...
                              8.02 m.
Overall length
               ... 6.08 m.
Max. height
                           ... 2.38 m.
Wing loading
                           ... 41.8 kg./m.<sup>2</sup>.
                     ...
Power loading '
                           ... 7 kg./h.p.
                           ... Zundapp. 50 h.p. at
Engine
                                   2,350 r.p.m.
```

The aircraft is built mainly of plywood and satisfies the P.3 class of the German Aircraft Strength Specification (sport and travel). In order to utilise fully very steep angles of approach, the undercarriage has been considerably strengthened. In order to facilitate transport, the wing and tail planes are divided along the central axis and can be folded back along the fuselage, the hangar space required then amounting to only $6 \times 1.6 \times 2.4$ m. The wing is fitted with an adjustable nose slat made of metal (hand controlled). Both ailerons and landing flaps have hinge slats, and it is possible to utilise the ailerons as additional high lift devices.

The wing mounting is such that the setting angle can be readily varied on the ground over the range o to 16° with regard to the fuselage axis. The horizontal tail plane is placed well above the slip stream and provided with a similar adjustment for incidence.

The performance of the aircraft at a flying weight of 355 kg. is given in the following table (calm air):—

```
Take-off run (zero flap deflection) ...
                                         100-150 m.
    ,, flap at 45°
,, flap at 45° ... ... ...
Landing run (zero flap) ... ...
                                          60-80 m.
                                          70-85 m.
  No brakes, 45° flap
                        ...
                                     ... 60-82 m.
Landing run (zero flap) ... ...
                                          35-70 m.
  With brakes, 45° flap ...
                                     ... 30-40 m.
Max. speed-
  Zero flap, nose slat fully open ... ... 140 km./h.
          slat half open ... ...
                                    ... 151 km./h.
           slat closed ...
                               ... ... 165 km./h.
 45° flap, slat fully open ... ... ...
                                         120 km./h.
Min. speed-
 Zero flap ... ... ... 67 km./h.
45° flap ... ... ... ... 47 km./h.

Time of climb (slat open) ... ... 1,000 m. in 6.7 min.
                                         2,000 m. in 15 min.
                                         3,000 m. in 28 min.
Ceiling (open slat) ... ... 3,800 m.
      (closed slat) ... ...
                                         4,200 m.
```

With a little practice, both take-off and landing can be carried out on a field 100 m. long and 20 m. wide. The aircraft is intended for research on the aero-

dynamics of slow speed flight and further reports will be issued by the Technical High School in due course.

Research for Aeronautics: Its Planning and Application. (W. S. Farren, The Engineer, Vol. 157, Nos. 4,598-4,599, pp. 146-148 and 164-167.) (7th Wright Brothers Lecture.) (121/20 Great Britain.)

Aeronautical research can only be intelligently planned, pursued and applied, if there exists intimate and whole-hearted collaboration between the research worker, the designer, the constructor and user.

The main efforts should be directed to advances in basic theory. Experimental information must be provided both to extend the theory and reduce its limitations. Lastly, we must ensure that the experimental application is made in such conditions that the practical value of the theory is rendered obvious to the user.

A case of imperfect planning in the past is provided by the reduction in the cooling drag of an aeroplane power plant, theory indicating a large possible saving already many years ago. In this case an earlier realisation by the designer of the outstanding advance that was within his grasp would have brought him to a closer co-operation with his only source of specific information—the research establishments. These in turn were backward in that they did not supply the information in a convincing form, directly applicable to practical problems. Finally, the user, not realising fully the possibility was only lukewarm in face of possible reduction in reliability or increased maintenance difficulties. He therefore did not force the pace of development till rather late in the day.

On the other hand, an example of good planning and excellent co-operation was shown by the boundary layer research carried out at Cambridge University, which led to important results in a relatively short space of time.

The final criterion of success in research is the extent to which the aircraft has improved with time. For this purpose the author compares a typical fighter and bomber of the year 1917 with corresponding examples of 1942. The types chosen are the S.E.5 and Spitfire and the Handley Page 0/400 and Lancaster respectively.

The most obvious difference between the old and new types is the change over from biplane to monoplane construction, the total wing area remaining roughly the same. The following table gives the ratio of some characteristic data, that of the older machine being taken as unity in each case:—

TABLE I.

| | | | | Spi | tfire/SE5. | Lancaster/o-400. |
|---------------|-----|----------|-------|-------|------------|------------------|
| Wing area | | • • • | | | 1.0 | 0.75 |
| Total weight | | | | | 4.0 | 5.0 |
| Military load | | | • • • | • • • | 4.0 | 8.0 |
| Power | | • • • | | | 7.0 | 7.0 |
| Speed | | | | | 3.0 | 2.75 |
| Total drag | | | | | 0.5 | 0.50 |
| Touch down | and | take-off | speed | | 1.5 | ı.8 |

It will be noted that the most outstanding facts are a seven-fold increase in power accompanied by a four-five-fold increase in total weight together with a three-fold increase in maximum speed.

Moreover, the weight analysis given below shows that the weight of the power plant forms either the same or even a smaller proportion of the total weight, the weight per h.p. being only about 4/7 of the 1917 value.

TABLE II.

| | | SE5. | Spitfire. % | 0;400. % | Lancaster. % |
|-------------|---|------|----------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Structure | : | 30 | 29 | 40 | 31 |
| Power plant | | _ | 38 | 22 | 16 |
| Fuel | | 15 | 17 | 19 | 20 |
| Load | | 18 | 16 | 19 | 23 |

This improvement in specific weight is largely due to the supercharger which is now an essential feature of every aircraft engine, but was not available in 1917. Credit must also be given to the modern high octane fuels which make it

possible to utilise the supercharger to the utmost.

The thermal efficiency of the engine has also been improved so that the tuel consumption per net b.h.p./hour has scarcely changed in spite of the work absorbed in driving the supercharger.

Another outstanding feature in Table I is the large reduction in drag of the

modern designs.

An analysis of this drag is given below:-

TABLE III.

| | | | Drag at 1 | óoft./sec. lb. | |
|------------------|-------|-------|-------------------|----------------|--|
| | | | SE ₅ . | Spitfire. | |
| Wings | ••• | | 28 | 20 | |
| Wing bracing | | | 15 | _ | |
| Body and cooling | | | 44 | 39 | |
| Tail surface | | • • • | 7 | 4 | |
| Undercarriage | | • • • | 16 | _ | |
| | • | | | | |
| | Total | | 110 | 63 | |

The absence of external bracing and the use of a retractable undercarriage alone account for a 30 per cent. reduction in drag, the remainder being due to the provision of smoother surfaces. Of special interest is the fact that the combined body and cooling drag of the Spitsire is 10 per cent. less than that of the 1917 machine in spite of the seven-fold increase in power output.

This reduction in drag also accounts for the fact that the modern machine for the same percentage of fuel weight has a 40 per cent. better range and a

very much greater cruising speed.

Of course the higher wing loading automatically leads to an increase in the landing and take-off speeds. With the help of flaps and variable pitch propellers, however, this increase has been kept within permissible bounds. Both these features are of relatively modern development and without their help prohibitive air fields would be required.

We have dealt so far with aerodynamic and power plant improvement only. A glance at Table II shows, however, that the structural engineer has also taken a hand. Thus the metal structure of the robust Spitfire with a primary load factor of 10 forms a slightly smaller percentage of lb. total aircraft weight than the wood and canvas of the S.E.5 with a load factor of only 6. It is, however, in the large machines that the structural engineer, by the adoption of revolutionary designs, has made most progress. It used to be thought that the percentage structural weight must necessarily increase with the total weight of the machine. Table II shows this increase for the Handley Page 0/400. For the Lancaster, however, the percentage structure weight is practically back at the S.E.5 value. This is not only due to the employment of new materials as

such, but rather to the employment of the material to better advantage so that the percentage of lowly stressed materials is reduced to the utmost. It is here that elastic theory, combined with refined practical testing, both on the ground and in the air, has made tremendous strides. Additional problems successfully tackled cover structural vibrations (especially those set up by aerodynamic forces or flutter), stability and control. As regards the last two factors, however, much more remains to be done and there is room for a wholesale improvement in the method of attack, especially the co-ordination of experiments in flight.

As regards problems of the immediate future, high altitude flying takes the front rank. Economic cruising under these conditions calls urgently for further developments in laminar flow aerofoils, whilst high speed flight will only become possible if the increase in drag associated with the shock wave can be reduced.

It may well be that the whole layout of such high altitude aircraft will be different from what we have been accustomed. In the future, the thermodynamic problems of the engine will also become aerodynamic and the advent of jet propulsion will bring in its wake a host of new problems on stability and control.

The many new problems awaiting us are largely interdependent and success in dealing with them depends on assembling and co-ordinating all efforts not only of a single team but of many teams of workers. It is the duty of the research director to weld these parts together, and for this purpose it is essential that each research worker should know exactly why the work is being done and should be convinced of its value. There is no single or simple formula by which to determine the best method of handling research. Confidence of the staff in their leaders will, however, overcome most difficulties and conserve that enthusiasm so essential to research.

LIST OF SELECTED TRANSLATIONS.

No. 67.

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Lists of selected translations have appeared in this publication since September, 1938.

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THEORY AND PRACTICE OF WARFARE.

Training and Organisation.

| ITEM | F | L.T.P. | | |
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| NO. | | REF. | | TITLE AND JOURNAL. |
| I | 17089 | G.B | ••• | Spreading Air News—How the Public Relations Units of the R.A.F. Operate in the Field. (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,823, 2/12/43, pp. 606-608.) |
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| 27 | 17629 | G.B | AT DITO WAS A COURT OF A SAME |
| 28 | 17630 | G.B | Performance of Anglo-American Paratroops in Sicily. (Inter. Avia., No. 889-890, 16/10/43, pp. 23-24.) |
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| 34 | 18453 | Switzerland | Air War of To-day and To-morrow (Allied-Raids and German Defence Methods). (Inter. Avia., No. 891-892, 30/10/43, pp. 1-7.) |
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| 36 | 17097 | G.B | Russian Aircraft Materials—Wide Use of Wood. (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,823, 2/12/43, pp. 622-623.) |
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| 38 | 17330 | G.B | (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,824, 9/12/43, p. 633.) Converting Hurricane and Spitfire Merlins from Two-Pitch to Constant Speed Airscrews during the Battle of Britain. (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,824, 9/12/43, pp. 648-649.) |
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