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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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Special Addition Agent Steels. (R. B. Schenck, S.A.E. Journal, Vol. 51, No. 11, Nov., 1943, Transactions, pp. 385-393.) (118/1 U.S.A.)

The term " special addition agent " refers to a group of ferro alloys containing boron which have the property of markedly increasing the hardenability of many steels.

NOTE 1.

The composition of some of these special addition agents or needlers intensifiers (needling agents) is given below:—

TABLE I.

| Alloy | | | | | | | | |
|--------|-------|---------------|-----|-------|-------|-------|-----|------|
| Desig. | Al. | В. | Ca. | Mn. | Si. | Ti. | Zn. | Fe. |
| Ι | 7 | ·5 | 10 | | 35/40 | 10 | 4 | Rest |
| 2 | · | 10/12 | | | 3 | | | ,, |
| 3 | 10/20 | $\frac{1}{2}$ | •— | 15/25 | 20/30 | 10/20 | | - ,, |
| 4 | 13 | ·5 | | 8 | | 20 | 4 | ,, |
| 5 | — | 븅 | | | 40/45 | | — | ,, |

The amount of additive required is very small (2 to 4.16 per ton of ingot), the exact quantity and nature depending on the composition of the steel and the degree of deoxidation. The improvement is quite phenomenal, an ordinary carbon steel being turned into the equivalent of a low alloy steel, whilst the treated low alloy behaves in many respects like a high alloy steel. Thus

important amounts of nickel, chromium and molybdenum can be saved, the machinability in all cases being similar to that of ordinary carbon steel.

The following table gives the results obtained with S.A.E. 1,024 steel containing 1.53 per cent. Mn. and .25 per cent. C. The additive agent is stated to contain Va., but its composition is not given.

| | | | | | Untreated | Treated (41b. per ton) |
|---------------------|---------|--------|---------|-----|-----------|------------------------|
| Yield point | | | | ••• | 104,300 | 206,300 |
| Tensile | | | ••• | | 119,900 | 215,600 |
| Elongation (2 m.) | • • • • | | | | 19.3 | 13.8 |
| Reduction in area | | | | | 60.7 | 56.60 |
| P value (1) | | ••• | | ••• | 96.82 | 111.04 |
| Hardenability inde | x (2) | ••• | | | J-40-2.8 | J-40-9.3 |
| Critical diameter (| oil qu | enched |) (1) (| 3) | 1/2 m. | 1 <u>5</u> m. |

(1) P value is a figure of merit for tensile properties and is defined as

$$P = \frac{(T+6R)}{5}$$

where $T = \frac{(\text{Tensile in psi})}{1.000}$

R = reduction in area percentage.

P = 100 is a fair average for alloy steels, fully quenched and drawn at 900-1,000°F. Higher values denote superior tensile properties. By specifying minimum tensile and P values, the relationship between strength and ductability is expressed by a single number.

(2) The hardenability index (last two figures) denotes the distance in 16ths of an inch from the end of the standard end quench test bar at which the Rockwell C. hardness (first two figures of code) is reached (S.A.E., '1943 Handbook, p. 323). Thus J-40-2.8 denotes that Rockwell C. 40 is found at 2.8 sixteenths from the end. At larger distances, the hardness would be less. For the treated steel the hardenability index is J-40-9.3, *i.e.*, Rockwell C. 40 hardness is found at 9.3 sixteenths of an inch from the end. Now at this end section, the hardness of both untreated and treated sample is the same (in this case 48 C), the hardness of the treated sample falls off less rapidly with end distance, *i.e.*, the hardenability has been increased.

(3) Critical diameter (1) (oil or water quenched) denotes the (P) maximum diameter of a round bar which will harden at the centre to the Rockwell C. hardness of the hardenability index (in this case Rockwell C. 40).

For the above tests, both the tensile and hardenability bars were annealed at $1,650^{\circ}$ F. and oil quenched at $1,600^{\circ}$ F., the tensile bars being drawn at 450° F.

The author gives further test results on a series of .2 per cent. C. and .4 per cent. C. steels with a manganese content varying from .5 to 1.75 per cent., some of the specimens containing appreciable quantities of Ni. and Cr. (1-3 per cent.). Unfortunately, the composition of the additive is only given in two cases (Nos. 1 and 4, Table I).

In each case the additive treatment resulted in a very marked improvement in the hardenability of its material, coupled with increased mechanical strength when in the quenched and drawn state.

For any other state, however, the treatment may reduce the mechanical strength.

The very large increase in tensile noted for S.A.E. 1,024 is exceptional, the improvement in the case of the other steel tested being only of the order of 10-30 per cent.

Although the commercial application of additive treatment in the U.S.A. only dates from 1938, the Buick Motor Car Company has already turned out thousands of cars containing vital parts made of treated manganese steel (axles, gears, transmission shafts, steering knuckles and arms, etc.). The results have been entirely satisfactory.

A co-operative research programme is now in progress for the co-ordination of further laboratory and service tests on a series of nine basic open hearth steels.

The large amount of experimental work already available is collected in a report by the American Iron and Steel Institute, entitled "Special Alloy Addition Agents," November, 1942.

In conclusion, it should be pointed out that uniform melting is of great importance in the use of additive agents. The optimum quantity should be determined in each case and added in the ladle. (Ingot mould addition is also possible and greatly facilitates experimental work.)

Smaller additions than the optimum may be extremely beneficial, but there is some doubt as to the uniformity of action. Increasing the amount beyond the optimum tends to lower mechanical properties.

In spite of the exacting requirements, American steel mills have demonstrated their ability to melt heat after heat with as good a uniformity as for untreated steels.

Aluminium Alloy Forging Dies. (R. F. Duff, S.A.E. Journal, Vol. 51, No. 11, Nov., 1943, pp. 23-24.) (118/2 U.S.A.)

In the mass production of aluminium alloy forgings made of 14S extruded stock, the formation of blisters on the surface of the finished product has led to the rejection of an appreciable number of parts.

It was at first thought that the trouble was associated with the use of extrusions as stock material, but investigations carried out by the S.A.E. War Engineering Board has shown that the blistering is also found in forgings made of standard rolled stock if the metal is worked too rapidly (excessive heat generated by friction in the die).

With extruded stock, the rate of deformation has therefore to be decreased and this can easily be brought about by the addition of fullers to the dies, lighter hammering, proper use of lubricants and good die finish. With these precautions, satisfactory forgings are possible, provided the original 14S material adheres to specification and especially does not contain an undue amount of silicon. A satisfactory chemical composition is given below.

Si. Cu. Mn. Mg. Al. .9 per cent. 4.40 per cent. .80 per cent. .40 per cent. Rest.

The impurities in the above are controlled by Federal Specification $(QQ/A-_{367} C)$. Leading producers of 14S alloy have agreed to control the composition of this material to the above standard for both rolled and extruded stock.

A satisfactory lubricant is a mixture of 50 per cent. lard oil plus 50 per cent. distillate and is applied to the die surface either by spray, swab or air blast. A small amount of graphite is occasionally added. It is interesting to note that a common cause of die failure are cracks resulting from the explosion of the die lubricant in the corners and angles of the impressions.

Die finish is of very great importance since it affects both the life of the die and the quality of the product. All angular irregular surfaces must be avoided and the final polishing marks must be in the direction of the flow of the forged material. The finish impression should be placed as near the centre of the die as possible and the impression cut so that the metal flow of the forging is at right angles to the grain of the die.

The thickness of the flash must be such as not to restrict the flow of material. Very thin flashes are more economically and rapidly trimmed, but for best die life flashing of about .04 inch are recommended.

A die should be used for as long a run as possible (5-10,000 pieces).

If the die is taken down and reset after short runs, the life is appreciably shortened, even if every care is taken in the resetting. The die material for aluminium alloy forgings is usually the same as employed in the production of steel forgings. It is used in the heat treated condition with a hardness ranging from 43 to 63 Shore, depending on depth of impression. Stress relief after a period of use is stated to be beneficial.

It is interesting to note that the life of the normal steel die is appreciably shorter when turning out aluminium alloy forgings than when making steel forgings. It is possible, however, that a new die material specially suited to the peculiarities of aluminium forgings may be developed in the near future.

In conclusion, it should be emphasised that in die forging the human element plays a very considerable part and the best designed tools can be ruined if the setting is inaccurate or the preheating of both die and material carried out carelessly.

Working cold material is especially harmful to the life of the die and will also produce erratic physical properties in the forging. In this connection it should be pointed out that even under optimum conditions, the finished heat treated and artificially aged forgings made of extruded stock have a lower tensile and yield strength but greater elongation than the original extrusion after similar heat treatment and ageing. This is due to difference in grain structure of extruded and rolled 14S material leading to abnormally high values of the mechanical properties of the former after heat treatment.

The forging operation causes more recrystallisation during subsequent solution heat treatment with the result that the final mechanical properties of the forging approximate to those of the rolled rather than extruded stock.

Employment of extruded stock thus does not lead to an improvement in strength of forging but is a matter of great convenience, besides conserving forging stock for special purposes.

An 'Electronic Defectoscope. (A. Gozelik and others, Met. Ind. Review, U.S.S.R., Vol. 19, No. 7, July, 1939, pp. 67-70.) (118/3 U.S.S.R.)

The magnetic field surrounding a magnetised specimen becomes distorted in the presence of cracks and flaws and this distortion can be utilised for detecting faults of this nature. Instruments of this type are called defectoscopes, the most common depending on visual examination (iron powder method, magnaflux). The variation in field strength can also be obtained directly by measuring the change in the force of attraction on a small ferromagnetic probe passed over the surface of the specimen, or indirectly by measuring the change in E.M.F. induced in a small search coil moving through the field at constant speed. The authors are specially interested in the testing of steel rails for cracks and flaws, where it is essential that the detector can pass over the rails at a reasonably high speed. This obviously rules out the iron powder method. Measurements based on the force of attraction of a small probe, quite apart from mechanical difficulties, are also limited as to speed of translation of the probe (time lag of magnetic saturation). Finally, the induced E.M.F. method would be difficult to apply in this case since it depends on a constant rate of translation. The authors have therefore proposed an alternative method, in which the variation in magnetic field strength close to the surface of the probe is measured electrically. For this purpose, a special valve consisting of a straight wire hot cathode placed at the centre of a semi-cylindrical anode is employed. The glass bulb has a flat top, the cathode being in close proximity to its internal surface and facing the concave surface of the anode. The latter is connected to the grid of a normal amplifying valve, the anode current of which is measured on a milliammeter or cathode ray oscillograph. The grid bias and loading resistances of the circuit are such that when the detector valve is in a constant magnetic field, the anode current of the amplifier is zero. On passing the flat glass top of the detector over the specimen

under examination, any variation of field strength from this normal distribution changes the path of the electrons in the detector and thus alters the grid voltage of the amplifier with the result that the recorder operates.

The instrument is free from inertia and thus can be operated at any speed of translation relatively to the specimen. In addition, the sensitivity can be varied over wide limits by simply adjusting the voltage applied to the cylindrical anode or the heating current of the wire cathode. It is stated that the new defecto-scope easily detects flaws of the order of .1 per cent. of the total cross-sections of a steel rail, the track being passed over at a speed of 25 km./hour. Obviously, this type of detector also lends itself to manual operation and the fact that it can be easily constructed in any wireless laboratory is an added advantage.

Instrument for Measuring the Wall Thickness of Long Tubes. (Der Deutsche Sportflieger, Vol. 10, No. 10, Oct., 1943, p. 164.) (118/4 Germany.)

The accurate measurement of the wall thickness of tubes presents considerable difficulties if the tube is of appreciable length.

The usual type of mechanical caliper gauge suffers from the drawback that any deflection of the overhung arms under gravity falsifies the measurements. Moreover, it is very difficult to ensure a constant contact pressure with instruments of this nature. These difficulties have been overcome by a new type of caliper gauge designed by the Junkers firm which has given excellent results in practice and which can check the wall thickness of tubes or plates over a span up to 10 feet.

The gauge essentially consists of a U-shaped feeler, one leg of which slips inside the tube and contacts the inner surface at the extremity of the limb. For this purpose the tube is supported horizontally above a parallel rail along which moves a carriage carrying two dial gauges as well as the pivoted support at the base of the U feeler. This base is provided with a balance weight by means of which the contact pressure of the inner feeler on the lower internal surface of the tube can be adjusted. Directly in line with the inner feeler, but contacting on the outer surface of the tube, is a second feeler attached to a spring-loaded plunger moving vertically in a slide attached to the carriage. One of the two dial gauges previously mentioned is attached to this slide whilst the feeler end of this gauge contacts the second limb of the caliper gauge. The second dial gauge is supported by the carriage and records the vertical displacement of the slide. At the beginning of the test a standard distance piece is inserted between the internal feeler of the caliper gauge and the external feeler attached to the slide, both dial gauges being set to zero. The tube is then inserted and dial gauge No. 1 will read directly the difference (+ or -) of the wall thickness from the standard dimension. Similarly, dial gauge No. 2 will indicate the degree of parallelism of the outer wall with the base line. It will be noted that in this arrangement any deflection of the U-shaped limbs of the caliper gauge under gravity is allowed for and that the contact pressures of external and internal feelers are constant.

 A New Approximate Method for Measuring the Percentage Elongation of Metals at Fracture. (A. I. Mikheilov, Metal Industries, U.S.S.R., Vol. 19, No. 7, July, 1939, p. 71.) (118/5 U.S.S.R.)

The author claims to have established an empirical relationship between the percentage elongation δ_{10} at fracture (as obtained in the tensile test on cylindrical specimens with a length equal to 10 times the diameter) and the deformation of the specimen when undergoing an indentation test of the Brinell type.

If D = diameter of ball.

d = diameter of central spherical indentation.

S = diameter of extreme bulge surrounding central indentation.

F = surface area of central spherical indentation.

$$\delta_{10} = C \left(d/D^2 K \right) \times 100$$

where K = S/F.

C =empirical constant, = 2.5 for carbon steels.

The indentation test is carried out with a 5 mm. ball at 750 kg. At least two separate determinations should be carried out.

Transporting War Materials—Packaging Problems. (Chemical and Engineering News, Vol. 21, No. 20, October 25, 1943, pp. 1745-1746.) (118/6 U.S.A.)

The new package is a waterproof covering of secret composition, but definitely a plastic, which is applied directly by spraying and which will seal off any gaps and holes. The purpose is to put a waterproof skin over metal parts and to eliminate crating. It is inexpensive and easy to apply. On medium bombers, shipped as deck cargo, use of this spray method saves 1,000 man-hours per plane over here, and 200 man-hours at the destination. Instead of crating and laboriously protecting the plane from spray, the whole aeroplane is covered with the plastic skin and shipped. The covering is easily removed by peeling.

Although the plastic is applied by simple spraying of a solvent solution, a definite technique must be used. If the object has openings, the spray is first directed obliquely across the surface, using high pressure guns. This causes the plastic to form strings or webs across any openings. Next, a regular lowpressure spray deposits the coating over the webs already formed and the operation continues until the package is completely covered. Secret of the process, apart from the actual composition, is the rapidly drying solvent, so rapid that the plastic webs across all openings form practically immediately. The plastic shrinks upon drying, forming a skin-tight covering. To cover a medium bomber would require only 25 gallons of the solution, and at a reported cost of only a dollar a gallon, it is easily seen that savings are coming in army packaging. So new is the development that the first treated aeroplanes were, at the time of the meeting, on the high seas. As a test, the Air Corps dumped covered parts in Boston Harbour for five weeks just to make sure that the covering was really waterproof. Another advantage of the plastic is that there is no scarring or corrosion of precise metal parts, and though the solvent is inflammable, the plastic itself is not.

Aircraft Oil Systems—High Altitude Problems. (H. Moermann, S.A.E. Journal, Vol. 51, No. 11, Nov., 1943, Transactions, pp. 394-396, 407.) (118/7 U.S.A.)

Engine oil pumps are usually of the gear wheel type and provided the percentage of air entrained remains constant, the delivery of such pumps does not vary appreciably with altitude (intake pressure) up to about 20,000 feet. Above 30,000 feet, however, the delivery falls off appreciably, and at 40,000 feet may amount to less than 50 per cent. of the ground level performance. The reason for this drop is the formation of gas bubbles in the intake together with the expansion of any entrapped air already present, and can obviously be avoided by "supercharging" the oil tank. The simplest method would be to employ the scavenge oil pump for this purpose and sealing off the oil vent in the tank by means of a check valve. If the latter is set to maintain a pressure of about 2 psi above atmosphere, a satisfactory functioning of the oil pump up to at least 40,000 ft. can be assured. As there appears to be some objection to the use of such pressurised oil tanks on combat planes, the alternative of providing a "booster" pump in the intake circuit suggests itself. Such a pump, if of the centrifugal type would not be sensitive to entrapped air, but, if engine driven, would necessitate a redesign of the end cover plate. An electrical drive, on the other hand, would entail an appreciable power consumption and weight, especially with cold oil. Even if a booster is fitted, it is obviously an advantage to keep the proportion of entrained air as small as possible.

The source of contamination is in the engine itself and cannot be avoided, and the return flow from the scavenge pump to the tank always contains a considerable proportion of air. This contaminates the oil supply, with the result that the pressure pump now has to handle aerated oil.

As already stated, provided the proportion of air remains constant, the delivery of the pump is only affected at altitudes above 20,000 feet, but this delivery is appreciably less than would be the case with air free oil (13 per cent. reduction for 10 per cent. air addition).

Moreover, with such contaminated oil, it is no longer possible to maintain the constant delivery pressure so essential for engine operation.

(This difficulty does not arise in the case of the scavenge pump and satisfactory operation of the latter can be assured at all altitudes by simply making the pump big enough.)

A simple device for ensuring a marked reduction in air content consists of fitting a coiled tube to the return end of the scavenge circuit at the top of the oil tank (air space). This tube is provided with holes along the inner surface of the spiral through which the air can escape, the oil being forced against the outer wall of the spiral by centrifugal action.

The Sharples "Vortex" air separator functions on a similar principle, but dispenses with a guide tube.

Either type of separator ensures that the returned oil does not contain more than 5 per cent. of entrained air.

A Technologist Looks at the Future. (C. R. Burch, Nature, Vol. 152, No. 3,862, Nov. 6, 1943, p. 525.) (118/8 Great Britain.)

From the author's concluding statement :---

"What of education in the future? I look on it as an important indirect contribution to our long-term research policy to provide in our schools facilities for the keenest, at any rate, to follow up almost whatever kind of extra curricular activity may strike their interest—and this without binding themselves in any way as to their future careers. This foretaste of achievement in following up individual interest provides, I believe, the strongest possible stimulus to education, and if the nature of the interest should change, the stimulus remains the some.

"The cultivation of enthusiasm I take to form the first requisite in that farsighted educational policy and that courageous long-term research policy to which I look forward in the future, after the war."

A.B.A. Rotor Balancer for Gyroscope and Supercharger Impellers. (Inter Avia, No. 884-885, 14/9/43, pp. 24-25.) (118/9 Sweden.)

1. The instrument division of A.B.A., the Swedish airline, has developed a control apparatus for the checking and balancing of the rotors of aircraft gyros; the design of the apparatus has been shown by experience to be suitable also for balancing larger rotors, such as supercharger impellers, etc.

2. The design of the A.B.A. balancer is as follows:—The rotor with its bearings is placed in a sturdy frame, with its axis vertical; the frame is supported by three blade springs, which allow the upper end of the axis to make practically undamped oscillations. Therefore, when an unbalanced rotor is brought to rotate, the upper end of the axis describes a small circle, the diameter of which is proportional to the magnitude of the unbalance force. The upper part of the frame consists of a hollow cylinder which constitutes one plate of a condenser. Inside the cylinder is the other plate of the condenser which assumes the form of two segments that can be turned in a stator. If an electrical voltage is applied to the condenser, the movements of the upper part of the frame bring about variations in the capacity of the condenser, and consequently a varying voltage. The variations in voltage are amplified and applied to a cathode-ray tube to give vertical deflections of the rays. The vertical deflection of the ray is therefore a measure of the unbalance force. The position of the c.g. is determined by a light ray thrown on the rotor, which is polished on one side and dull on the other. The ray reflected by the polished side is used to act upon a photo-electric cell, the impulses of which are amplified and brought to the cathode ray tube to give horizontal deflection.

By introducing an impulse generator between the photo cell and the cathoderay tube, it is possible to determine the exact position of the rotor unbalance with the aid of the rotable condenser. In order to eliminate the disturbances caused by the bearing of the gyro, a filter is used which is tuned to a selected test frequency (which corresponds to the frequency from unbalance); for aircraft gyros the frequency of 9,000 r.p.m. has been chosen which is controlled by a stratoscope. A photograph shows three different installations, of which the smallest is intended for the rotors of aircraft gyro instruments (weight 0.7 lb.), the medium one for marine gyros (weight 5 lb.), and the third for aircraft engine supercharger impellers (weight from 4.2 to 10.9 lb.).

Some Considerations on the Diminution of Resistance at Supersonic Speed by the Chilowsky Process. (D. Riabouchinsky, Comptes Rendus, Vol. 208, No. 26, 26/6/39, pp. 2037-2040.) (118/10 France.)

At the beginning of 1915, Chilowsky proposed to reduce the drag of high speed projectiles by projecting a flame ahead of the projectile and thus raising the temperature of the surrounding medium. The process was patented by him in 1917 (French Patent No. 503,934) and the beneficial effects confirmed by Huguenard (see Abstract No. 118/11). In the present note the author reinvestigates the problem from a theoretical standpoint, on the assumption that the drag R is given by the equation

where $s = \max$. section of projectile.

V = speed of translation.

c =speed of sound.

k=f(V/c) = drag coefficient.

Any effect of Reynolds number is thus neglected.

For a given projectile and speed of translation, the drag thus varies as the product of the local density with a function of the Mach number. If the suffix f denotes characteristic of the air after heat addition, it can easily be shown that $R_1/R = (\lambda_1/\lambda) (V/c_1/Vc)^2 [f(V/c_1)/f(V/c)]$

where

$$(V/c_1)/(V/c)^2 = (\lambda RT)/(\lambda_1 R_1 T_1)$$

If λ and R remain unchanged, we thus have

$$R_1/R = [f(V/c_1)/f(V/c)] \times (V/c_1)^2/(V/c)^2$$

and

$$(V/c_1)/(V/c)^2 = T/T_1$$

The author considers a standard artillery projectile exhibiting the following variations in the resistance coefficient k with Mach number V/c under standard condition $(T=288^{\circ}C_{A})$.

| V (m./sec.) | V/c=M | $k = R/(\rho V^2 s)$ |
|-------------|-------|----------------------|
| 2 56 | •75 | .12 |
| 575 | 1.68 | •33 |
| 1026 | 3.0 | .25 |

The problem is to find T_1 so that the resistance R_1 at 575m./sec. becomes equal to that at 256 m./sec. at 288°C. (lowering of effective Mach number).

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We have

| V | V/c | $f_{\perp}(V c)$ | V/c_1 | $f(V/c_1)$ | R_1/R | $(R - R_A)/R$ | T_1/T | T |
|------|------|------------------|---------|------------|---------|---------------|--------------|---------------------|
| 575 | 1.68 | .33 | .75 | .12 | .072 | .928 | 5.03 | 1449°C _A |
| 1026 | 3 | .25 | 1.68 | •33 | .414 | .586 | 3.18 | 916 |
| 1026 | 3 | .25 | ·75 | . 1 2 | .030 | .970 | 16 .0 | 4608 |

It will be noted that a temperature of $1,450^{\circ}C_{A}$. is sufficient to reduce the drag coefficient to subsonic value and reduce the total drag at 575 m./sec. by 93 per cent. The two other calculations in the table refer to a projectile speed of 1,026 m./sec. (Mach number=3). In order to reduce the drag coefficient to subsonic value in this case requires a temperature of $4,600^{\circ}C_{A}$. which is clearly impracticable. If, however, we are satisfied with a reduction in equivalent speed to 575 m./sec. a temperature of $916^{\circ}C_{A}$. suffices and this will produce a 59 per cent. reduction in drag, although the drag coefficient k has actually risen from .25 to .33.

From the above it appears that the proposal certainly merits consideration in high speed projectiles (Abstraction Note—rockets?). Applied to lifting surface (wings) however, not much will be gained unless the equivalent speed can be reduced to subsonic value. This is due to the fact that in the supersonic range the lift collapses and a reduction of drag alone is of no value.

Since an air temperature of about $1,5\infty^{\circ}C_{A}$, represents an upper limit by the method of flame projection, the scheme is only applicable to Mach numbers less than about 1.5.

High Speed Wind Tunnels and Their Application to Ballistic Research. (E. Huguenard, La Technique Aeronautique, Vol. 15, No. 37, 15/11/24, pp. 346-355, and No. 38, 15/12/24, pp. 378-392.) (118/11 France.)

The generation of a high speed air jet requires a considerable amount of power, even if the cross section of the jet is restricted. Thus, neglecting compressibility, a speed of 200 m./sec. generated from rest corresponds to a depression of 2,500 mm. of water ($\frac{1}{4}$ atmosphere) and a work input of over 700 h.p. per square foot of jet section. (Allowing for compressibility, the speed for the same pressure difference is raised to 217 m./sec. and the work input increased correspondingly.) This can be reduced to about 200 h.p. by fitting an expanding nozzle to the working section of the tunnel (atmospheric entry), the extractor fan being placed at the large diameter exit section. In this manner, the pressure head across the fan is decreased materially, provided the cone angle of the diffusor is small (~ 6°) and the walls very smooth.

A high speed wind tunnel of this open jet type (Eiffel) has been set up at the Cork Field in the U.S.A.

Since, under these conditions, the h.p. per unit area of jet varies roughly as V^3 , an increase of speed from 200 to 500 m./sec. would necessitate a 16-fold increase in power. It is obvious that the provision of a reasonable working section by this means would necessitate a very considerable power plant.

Prandtl has suggested overcoming this difficulty by building the tunnel in the closed form. After building up the high speed gradually, the fan would only have to overcome the friction losses in the circuit in order to maintain the high speed circulation. Since, however, all the friction losses ultimately are converted into heat, the air stream will assume a very high temperature unless adequate precautions are taken. Preliminary experiments have indicated that the provision of an adequate cooler will present considerable difficulties, and this together with the complication arising from the closed section have led the author to investigate the alternative scheme of providing the high speed jet by the sudden release of compressed air from a tank. This method is obviously unsuited for large working sections. If, however, we are satisfied with drag measurements at zero incidence, the free jet diameter need not exceed the shell calibre appreciably and a 10 cm.

jet will suffice for a 75 mm. shell. (This applies especially if only relative drag measurements associated with small changes in the shell contour are required.) Naturally, the speed of efflux will vary during' the experiment, but this is no great drawback provided simultaneous readings of drag and speed can be taken. With a free jet, this presents no great difficulty. The absence of any walls facilitates the taking of striation photographs from which the air speed can be estimated with sufficient accuracy (curvatures of shock wave at projectile or displacement of sound wave generated by an explosive spark) whilst the corresponding drag is obtained from an ordinary piston indicator actuated by an extension rod attached to the base of the shell.

The author has carried out a large number of experiments on 75 mm. shells with an apparatus of this type, using a tank of only 7 m.³ capacity pumped up to a pressure of 6.5 kg./cm.² (atmospheres). The jet is obtained from a Laval type nozzle converging to 80 mm. at the throat and diverging to a final section of 98 mm. With an initial temperature of 15° C. this should produce a theoretical initial jet speed of 500 m./sec., the recorded maximum speed being of the order of 450 m./sec.

With a tank of 7 m.³ capacity, this speed drops to 200 m./sec. in about 6 seconds, speeds above 300 m./sec. being maintained for about 3 seconds.

As the experiments were carried out at the central power station of the Paris Compressed Air Supply Co. provided with 12,000 h.p. compressors, this tank could be refilled in a few minutes.

Since with each filling at least 5 records can be taken, the drag/speed relationship can be obtained very quickly. It is stated that with the same set-up the results are very consistent and modifications due to variation in shell shape are readily discernable. Moreover, the shape of the shock wave at the nose of the shell (which is readily visible by eye) provides an excellent check for the symmetrical mounting of the projectile in the air stream.

The results obtained with standard 75 mm. shells are in good agreement with drag estimates based on firing trials, and the author hopes that in view of the expense and complicated nature of such trials, the simple method of measuring drag directly will be made use of extensively in further ballistic research.

The provision of a larger tank $(250 \text{ m.}^3 \text{ capacity})$ is under contemplation. This would enable similar experiments to be carried out with an air jet 60 cm. in diameter.

The author points out that speeds in excess of 500 m./sec are best obtained by raising the temperature of the compressed air in the tank. Thus an initial pressure of 6.5 kg./cm.² is raised to 11.6 kg./cm.² by warming the air to 250° C. The maximum theoretical efflux speed now becomes 728 m./sec. The necessary temperature rise in the tank can be considerably lowered, if a small quantity of steam is added to the air. In this case an original air temperature of about 120°C. at a pressure of about 8 kg./cm.² should suffice to produce an efflux speed of over 700 m./sec (latent heat of steam lowers the adiabatic index of expansion and prevents rapid cooling).

Of special interest are the results obtained by the author on shells of the Chilowsky type fitted with a flame projector in the nose.

The standard 75 mm. F.N. projectile has a resistance at zero incidence of 50 kg. at 480 m./sec. This can easily be halved by the combustion of 10 gm. of phosphorus suitably placed in the nose of the shell. In the case of another type of 75 mm. shell (D. 1917) the reduction by flame projection is even more marked (from 20 kg. to 8 kg. at 480 m./sec.). According to the inventor, the drag reduction is brought about by the heated air becoming less dense. The effect is, however, mainly due to a lowering of the effective Mach number, the speed of sound being raised by the heat transfer.

The author does not state how long the combustion of the 10 gm. of phosphorus lasts. It is stated, however, that an increase in range of the shell of the order

of 25 per cent. was estimated on the basis of the drag measurements and that this was confirmed by actual firing trials.

(ABSTRACTOR'S NOTE.—In the case of rocket shells, there should be no difficulty in providing the necessary heat over a considerable part of the trajectory.)

Theoretical Examination of Axial Fan Performance. (H. Struve, C.A.H.I. Report No. 295, Moscow, 1937.) (Available as R.T.P. Translation No. T.M. 1,042.) (118/12 U.S.S.R.)

In the first part of the paper, the author deduces the aerodynamic forces acting on a moving blade grid assuming axial entry and the absence of friction. As is well known, the resultant force under these conditions acts perpendicularly to the bisector of the angle between the respective relative velocities W_1 and W_2 at entrance and exit to the grid, blade interference being neglected.

The static pressure difference across the grid is given by

$$H = \rho c_{u} (u - c_{u}/2) \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (1)$$

where u = wr = speed of translation of grid.

 c_{u} = tangential component of absolute velocity at exit.

The bisector of the angle between W_1 and W_2 referred to above will make an angle β with the direction of motion and is given by

$$\tan \beta = c_{\rm a}/(u - c_{\rm u}/2)$$
 (2)

where c_{a} = absolute velocity at entry to grid (assumed axial).

Using this direction as that of the relative wind, the problem is to find an actual profile which when set at an angle of attack α will produce the necessary pressure difference most efficiently.

In practice, the dimensions of the fan, speed of operation, delivery and pressure head required are usually given. Thus c_a and u are known.

Substituting an actual profile will modify the pressure difference given by (I), due to the introduction of friction. The actual head will be given by

$$H_{a} = \eta \rho c_{u} (u - c_{u}/2)$$
 (3)

where
$$\eta = k_{a}k_{u} \tan \beta$$
 (4)

 $k_{\rm a} = c_{\rm y} \cos \beta - c_{\rm x} \sin \beta.$

 $k_{\rm u} = c_{\rm y} \, \sin \, \beta + c_{\rm x} \, \cos \, \beta.$

 $c_y = \text{lift coefficient}$ of profile and are functions of the

 $c_x = drag$,, \int angle of attack α .

From physical considerations it can be established that the pressure produced by the fan as a whole is equal to that produced by the blade tip element.

Equation (3) can therefore be solved for c_u at the external radius R provided η is known.

Since η is a function of β and α (equation 4) and therefore of c_u (equation 2), the solution can only be carried out by iteration.

Knowing e_u at R, the values at any other radius follow from the relation

 $c_{u}r = \text{constant},$

which must hold if the flow is to be confined to co-axial cylindrical shells (no cross flow at exit).

The pressure difference produced by the profile element at an angle of attack α (chosen to make η a maximum) is given by

$$H = \rho k_{a} \{ (u - c_{u}/2) / \cos \beta \} (bi/2\pi r) \qquad (5)$$

where i = number of blades (chosen for structural reasons).

b = width of aerofoil.

Equating (3) and (5), the blade width at any radius can be determined.

Since blade interference is neglected, the method will apply to any number of blades.

Similarly the method is readily adapted to estimating effect of operative conditions on fan performance, assuming that constancy of circulation along the blade (implied by the condition $c_u r = \text{const.}$) is maintained.

The author gives experimental results on the performance of a number of fans, employing profiles of various type and blade numbers up to 12. For blade numbers up to 6, the computed and actual performance are in reasonable agreement. As was to be expected, however, the neglect of the blade inter-ference causes considerable deviation for higher blade numbers (especially in pressure difference).

Although an attempt is made to allow for this by a correction factor, the author concludes that this phenomenon will require more detailed study before the theory of fans can be considered as satisfactory.

Attention is also called to the pronounced effect of entry conditions on fan performances, which has not been considered in the present report.

LIST OF SELECTED TRANSLATIONS.

No. 64.

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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.

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| 77 | 14305 | G.B | | British Military Aircraft (1943). (Aviation, Vol. 42, No. 2, February, 1943, pp. 209-219.) |
| 78 | 14358 | G.B | | New Hawker Typhoon. (Aviation, Vol. 42, No. 6, June, 1043, pp. 230-241, 355.) |
| 79 | 14415 | G.B | | Survey of British Aircraft. (E. C. Shepherd, Flying, Vol. 33, No. 2, August, 1943, pp. 56, 182.) |
| 80 | 14419 | G.B | | Fairey Fulmar (Recognition Details). (Flying, Vol. 33, No. 2, August, 1043, p. 85.) |
| 81 | 14422 | G.B | ••• | Bristol Beaufighter Carrying Torpedo (Photo). (Flying, Vol. 33, No. 2, August, 1943, p. 85.) |
| 82 | 14752 | G.B | | The Taylorcraft Auster III for Artillery Spotting and Communications (Detailed Drawings). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,813, Sept. 23, 1943, pp. |
| 83 | 14757 | G.B | ••• | 331-335.) Spitfire V.B. (Clipped Wings) (Recognition De- tails). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,813, Sept. 23, |
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| 85 | 14801 | G.B | •••• | Taylorcraft Austers (Photo). (Aeroplane, Vol. 65, No. 1,687, 24/9/43, pp. 347, 356-357.) |
| 86 | 14802 | G.B | | Avro Lancaster II with Bristol Hercules Radial Motors (Photograph). (Aeroplane, Vol. 65, No. |
| 87 | 14803 | G.B | | Hawker Sea Hurricane Fighter Catching an Arrestor Wire on Deck of Carrier (Photo). (Aero- plane Vol. 65 No. 1 687 24/0/42 D 250.) |
| 88 | 14807 | G.B | | The Miles Martinet I (Recognition Details). (Aero- plane, Vol. 65, No. 1.687, 24/9/43, p. 361.) |
| 89 | 14813 | G.B | | Hurricane II D and II C (Photos). (Aeroplane, Vol. 65. No. 1.686, Sept. 17, 1943, pp. 328-329.) |
| 90 | 14911 | G.B | | Hawker Typhoon I A, B and C. (Inter. Avia., No. 872-873, June 18, 1043, II, p. 14.) |
| 91 | 14912 | G.B | | Spitfire Vb Modified for Low Altitude. (Inter. Avia., No. 872-873, June 18, 1043, p. 14.) |
| 92 | 14915 | G.B | | Halifax II (Modified Nose). (Inter. Avia., No. |
| 93 | 14923 | G.B | | Sunderland III Reconnaissance Flying Boat. (Inter. Avia., No. 874, June 20, 1042, p. 15.) |
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| 96 | 15154 | G.B | | Typhoons as Dive-Bombers (Photos). (Aeronautics, Vol. 9, No. 2, Sept., 1943, p. 45.) |
| 97 | 15165 | G.B | ••• | Spitfires and Air-Sea Rescue. (Aeronautics, Vol. 9, No. 2, Sept., 1943, p. 77.) |
| 98 | 15182 | G.B | | Taylorcraft Auster III (Recognition Details). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,815, 7/10/43, p. 393.) |
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| 103 | 14365 | Russia | | 42, No. 2, February, 1943, pp. 221-227.) Iliuchin IL-2 (Recognition Details). (Aeroplane, Vol. 65, No. 1 687, 10/0/42, p. 201.) |
| 104 | 14366 | Russia | | Sukhon SU-2 (Recognition Details). (Aeroplane, Vol. 65, No. 1.685, 10/0/43, p. 301.) |
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| 106 | 14758 | Russia | | Lagg-3 (Recognition Details). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1.813, Sept. 23, 1943, p. 341.) |
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| 109 | 15164 | G.B | ••• | New Soviet Fighter La. 5. (Aeronautics, Vol. 9, No. 2, Sept., 1943, p. 73.) |
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| 110 | 14258 | U.S.A. | •••• | North American A-36 Fighter (New Version of P-51 Mustang). (American Aviation, Vol. 7, No. 5, |
| 111 | 14299 | U.S.A. | •••• | August 1, 1943, p. 62.) North American P-51 Mustang (Cut-away Drawing). (Aviation, Vol. 42, No. 2, February, 1943, p. 147.) |
| 112 | 14304 | U.S.A. | | American Military Aircraft (1943). (Aviation, Vol. |
| 113 | 14316 | U.S.A. | ••• | Curtiss-Wright C-76 Caravan. (Aviation, Vol. 42, No. 2 February 1042, p. 202.) |
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| 115 | 14322 | U.S.A. | ••• | Rolls Royce Merlin-Engined Warhawks (Photo). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1.811, Sept. 9, 1943, p. 272.) |
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| 119 | 14411 | U.S.A. | | First Analysis of the Thunderbolt. (Peter Mase- field, Flying, Vol. 33, No. 2, August, 1943, pp. 47-48, 188-100.) |
| 120 | 14417 | U.S.A. | ••• | North American Mitchell (Recognition Details). (Flying, Vol. 33, No. 2, August, 1943, p. 82.) |
| 121 | 14418 | U.S.A. | ••• | Lockheed Hudson (Recognition Details). (Flying, Vol. 22, No. 2, August 1042, p. 82.) |
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| 125 | 14789 | U.S.A. | ••• | Cessna Aircraft for Training Bomber Pilots. (E. H. Forbes, Air Services, Vol. 28, No. 7, July, 1943, |
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| 127 | 14809 | U.S.A. | ••• | Improved Versions of the Consolidated Liberator and Boeing Fortress. (Aeroplane, Vol. 65, No. |
| 128 | 14811 | U.S.A. | ••• | North American A-36 Fighter Dive Bombers (Photo). (Aeroplane, Vol. 65, No. 1,686, Sept. |
| 129 | 14812 | U.S.A. | ••• | Gruman Tarpon I Torpedo Bomber (Photo). (Aero- plane, Vol. 65, No. 1,686, Sept. 17, 1943, p. 322.) |
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| 132 | 14918 | U.S.A. | · | Curtiss Owl Observation Plane (0-52). (Inter. Avia., No. 872-873, June 18, 1943, p. 17.) |
| 133 | 14921 | U.S.A. | | Lockheed-Vega B-34 Ventura (Twin - Engined Bomber). (Inter. Avia., No. 874, June 30, 1943, p. 8.) |
| 134 | 14922 | U.S.A. | · · … | Bell P-39 Airacobra Fighter. (Inter. Avia., No. 874, June 30, 1943, p. 9.) |
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| 136 | 14968 | U.S.A. | | Martin B-26 Marauder Bomber (Photo). (Army Ordnance, Vol. 25, No. 140, September-October, 1943, p. 318.) |
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| 140 | 15034 | U.S.A. | | New Curtiss A-25 Bomber (Photo). (Journal of Aeronautical Science (Review Section), Vol. 2, No. 2 March 1042 n 55) |
| 141 | 1 5060 | U.S.A. | | Grumman Hellcat Single-Seat Fleet Fighters (Photo). (Aeroplane, Vol. 65, No. 1,688, 1/10/43, p. 280.) |
| 142 | 1 507 5 | U.S.A. | •••• | Piper P.T. Trainer (Recognition Details). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1811, Sept. 0, 1042, p. 282.) |
| 143 | 15162 | U.S.A. | ••• | Vought-Sikorsky F. 4U (Photo). (Aeronautics, Vol. |
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| 146 | 15260 | U.S.A. | | Amphibious Douglas C. 47 "Skytrain" (Photo). (Aero Digest Vol. 42, No. I. July, 1042, p. 252.) |
| 147 | 15281 | U. S .A. | ••• | Ryan Plastic-Bonded Plywood Primary Trainers (PT-25) (Photo). (Aero Digest, Vol. 43, No. 1, University 2010). |
| 148 | 15282 | U.S.A. | ••• | Navy Version of the Consolidated "Liberator" (Photo). (Aero Digest, Vol. 43, No. 1, July, |
| 149 | 15304 | U.S.A. | | Republic Thunderbolt (Recognition Details). (Flying and Industrial Aviation, Vol. 33, No. 3, Southermore 1943, p. 50) |
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| 152 | 14908 | Sweden | ••• | B. 18 Light Bomber (Svenska). (Inter. Avia., No. 872-873, June 18, 1943, p. 10.) |
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| 153 | 13389 | Germany | | Heinkel He. III H.S. (Photo). (Aeroplane, Vol. 65 No. 1680, 6/8/42, p. 165.) |
| 154 | 14301 | Germany | ••• | Structural Details of Focke-Wulf 190 A3 (Sketch). (Aviation, Vol. 42, No. 2, February, 1943, p. 151.) |
| 155 | 14308 | Germany | ••• | German Military Aircraft (1943). (Aviation, Vol. 42. No. 2. February, 1943, pp. 231-237.) |
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| 160 | 14659 | Germany | | Long Distance Reconnaissance Flying Boat Do. 24 (Photo). (Der Deutsche Sportflieger, Vol. 10, No. 7 July 1042 cover page) |
| 161 | 14763 | Germany | | Messerschmitt Me. 323 (Recognition Details). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1.812, 16/6/43, p. a.) |
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| 167 | 14778 | Japan | | 42, No. 2, February, 1943, pp. 239-241.) Japanese Military Aircraft. (Commercial Aviation, |
| 168 | 14905 | Japan | | New Version of Mitsubishi S-OO Fighter, (Inter. Avia, No. 872-872, June 18, 1042, pp. 8-0.) |
| 169 | 15176 | Japan | | Japanese Aircraft Designation. (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,815, 7/10/43, p. 391.) |
| 170 | 15180 | Japan | | New Japanese Aircraft. (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,815, 7/10/43, p. 391.) |
| | | | Militar | ry Types of Aircraft (France). |
| 171 | 14769 | France | •••• | The Payen Pa. 222 (Wood Constructed Tandem Monoplane). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,812, |
| 172 | 14805 | France | | New Types of French Multi-Motor Planes. (Aero- plane, Vol. 65, No. 1,687, 22/9/43, pp. 358-359.) |
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| 173 | 14307 | Italy | • •••• | Italian Military Aircraft (1943). (Aviation, Vol. 42, No. 2. February, 1943, pp. 227-220.) |
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| 181 | 14925 | U.S.A. | | Grumman G. 21-B Goose (Air-Sea Rescue). (Inter. Avia., No. 874, June 30, 1943, p. 10.) |
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| 184 | 15059 | Germany | ••• | Junkers Ju. 90B Four-Motor Transport (Photo). (Aeroplane, Vol. 65, No. 1,688, 1/10/43, p. 378.) |
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| 192 | 14930 | U.S.A. | ••• | Military Gliding in the U.S.A. (Inter. Avia., No. 874, June 30, 1943, pp. 16-17.) |
| 193 | 1,5066 | Germany | ••• | Gotha Twin-Boom Glider — Go. 242 (Photo). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,814, Sept. 30, 1943, p. |
| 194 | 15068 | U.S.A. | | Hadrian CG-4A Transport Glider (Recognition De- tails). (Flight, Vol. 44, No. 1,814, Sept. 30, |
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| 211 | 14251 | U.S.A. | | Tool for Loosening Aeroplane Tyre from Rim. (American Aviation, Vol. 7, No. 5, August 1, | | | | | |
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| 803 | 14744 | G.B | | Salvage of Porous Castings. (Machinery, Vol. 63, No. 1.612, 0/0/42, p. 200.) |
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