ABSTRACTS.FROM THE SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL PRESS.

Issued by the

Directorates of Scientific Research and Technical Development, Air Ministry (Prepared by R.T.P.3.)

No. 101. April, 1942.

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The Anti-Tank Armament of the Fighter Aeroplane. (C. Rougeron, Inter. Avia., No. 807, 16/3/42, pp. 1.4.) (101/1 Switzerland.)

In order to obtain a satisfactory firing accuracy in aerial fighting, the distance of attack must be as small as possible, as a result of which the projectile with a high muzzle velocity hits the opposing aircraft's armour with a force differing only little from its energy upon leaving the barrel. In contrast, the distance of attack by aircraft on tanks can be increased from 500 m. to 1,000 m. (550 yds. to 1,100 yds.) without material effect on the firing accuracy. Not only is the aeroplane forced to maintain a greater distance of attack by the ground defences, but a minimum altitude is required anyway for an attack in a dive. For a given muzzle energy, the projectile with a moderate muzzle velocity loses a much lower percentage of its energy in the course of its trajectory than the projectile with a high muzzle velocity.

Thus, since a moderate muzzle velocity of the projectile is sufficient to meet the requirements of firing accuracy, an additional advantage results as regards the power of penetration. The percentage of the aircraft speed that is added to the muzzle velocity of the projectile increases with decreasing muzzle velocities. A comparison of a 20 mm. shell weighing 120 grams (0.264 lb.) with a 37 mm. shell weighing 760 grams (1.675 lb.) which, for a given energy at the muzzle, have a velocity of 900 m. and 358 m. (2,950 ft. and 1,175 ft.), respectively, shows that the projectile of small muzzle velocity gains a much greater percentage of energy due to the forward speed of the aeroplane. For an aircraft speed of 600 km./h. (about 375 m.p.h.), the energy increase of the 37 mm. shell amounts to 55 per cent. On the other hand, the absolute projectile velocity then amounts to 525 m. (about 1,720 ft. a second), a value guaranteeing a sufficient measure of firing accuracy for distances of air attack on tanks ranging from 500 m. to 1,000 yds.

It seems to be clear, therefore, that the fighting conditions between two aeroplanes or between an aeroplane and a tank call for two different weapons in the case of identical muzzle energy of the projectiles employed. If these considerations are taken into account, these differences should purposely be increased. Already to-day the 15 mm. cannon of the latest version of the Messerschmitt Me. 109 fighter and the 37 mm. cannon of the Bell Airacobra or the latest Russian fighters are well known.

Magnesium Fires. (Metal Industry, Vol. 60, No. 15, 10/4/42, p. 158.) (101/2 Great Britain.)

According to a U.S. Bureau of Mines report, a new and more effective method of extinguishing magnesium fires in commercial plants has been developed by the Bureau. Whilst designed for places where magnesium is being handled continuously, the method is said to be equally effective against incendiary bombs in wartime. Hard coal-tar pitch in granulated or flaked form is said to be a highly satisfactory substance for extinguishing a magnesium flame, as the pitch softens and forms an airtight blanket which quickly smothers the flame. This method is regarded as superior to the use of sand and water, or prepared compounds such as carbon tetrachloride, carbon dioxide and foam. Powdered pitch should not be used, as it has explosive characteristics similar to those in coal and other dusts. Further advantage claimed for pitch for use in industrial plants is that it is not abrasive and not likely to damage costly machinery.

Protection Against Power Plant Fires in the Air (Digest). (G. L. Pigman, S.A.E.J., Vol. 50, No. 2, Feb., 1942, pp. 55-56.) (101/3 U.S.A.)

General objectives of C.A.A. fire-test programme.

1. To determine the characteristics necessary for adequate power plant fire detectors; to develop such detectors if none are available; and to determine their proper location in typical power plant installations.

2. To determine the possibilities of extinguishing fires in aircraft power plants; to evaluate various fire extinguishing agents for this application; and to determine the best methods of application of these agents.

3. To determine the temperatures encountered in the cowling, firewall nacelle, and in the wing during typical oil and gasoline fires, and to find out about the fire resisting qualities of various materials used for these parts.

4. To determine the causes of ignition of petrol and oil fires and means whereby these dangers might be reduced.

Some of the extinguishing agents tried by means of various arrangements of different types of nozzles were: Carbon dioxide, methyl bromide, carbon tetrachloride, and commercial products containing sodium bicarbonate and potassium carbonate. Of these, the choice narrowed down to carbon dioxide and methyl bromide, with methyl bromide being rated as most efficient.

Detectors tested were of five general types: Metal expansion types, fusible alloy types, thermocouple types, and ionisation types. Concluding his discussion of detectors, the author states that there are available satisfactory unit-type detectors, and that there is strong promise of satisfactory continuous-type detectors within the near future.

The following are among the general conclusions presented with reference to the materials phase of the problem :----

1. The integrity of conventional aluminium-alloy monocoque nacelle structure can be seriously jeopardised by engine fires within a few seconds from the start of such fires.

2. The aluminium alloy N.A.C.A. cowling is not damaged by severe engine fires of long duration.

3. Portions of the accessory cowling and nacelle skin reach temperatures of 2,000°F. during a fire, which cause aluminium alloys to melt and will remove practically all load-bearing ability from stainless steel.

Aural Plane Detector Operated by One Man. (American Aviation, Vol. 5, No. 21, 1/4/42, p. 30.) (101/4 U.S.A.)

The device with all accessories including, a self-contained power supply, is housed in a case smaller than a gas mask container. Slung over the watcher's shoulder, it enables him to act as an independent mobile aeroplane pick-up unit.

In action, the spotter puts on a headpiece consisting of earphones topped by a parabolic "concentrator" of sound waves, from which wires are plugged into an amplifying apparatus in the case.

When a low-pitched sound in the earphones indicates the approach of a plane, the spotter turns his body until the sound is at its loudest. He is then facing the oncoming plane and is able to focus his binoculars swiftly and accurately on the aircraft.

The device has been approved by technicians of the U.S. Army Signal Corps.

Light Alloy Armour Plates. (Le vie dell' aria, 8/3/42, p. 5.) (101/5 Italy.)

According to experiments carried out by Panseri at the Institute of Metals, Milan, a 20 mm. plate of Avonal (Duralumin) will just stop a bullet of the Italian service rifle M.91 (calibre 6.5 mm.), a plate 18 mm. thick being perforated. The resistance to penetration for this size bullet is thus equal to a steel armour plate 6 mm. thick. The type of impact is however entirely different in the two cases. In the case of steel, the impact is to some extent elastic and parts of the plate as well as the bullet may rebound with considerable velocity thus causing possible further damage. With the dural plate, however, considerable plastic deformation takes place, the bullet being imprisoned in the material and no splinters formed. Best results are obtained with the light alloy plate if the heat treatment has been such as to render the material as ductile as possible (15-20 per cent. elongation at fracture). It will be noted that the employment of the light alloy implies no saving in weight, its increases in thickness being roughly proportional to the ratio of densities. Besides being, however, easier to produce and mount the light alloy plate by its plastic qualities may give better protection against projectiles already deformed or A.A. shell splinters. Against direct hits by armour piercing bullets, however, the steel plate is the more economical in weight.

 Two-Dimensional Potential Flow Past a Smooth Wall with Partly Constant Curvature. (W. v. Koppenfels, L.F.F., Vol. 17, pp. 189-195, No. 7, 20/7/40.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. No. 996.) (101/6 Germany.)

The speed of a two-dimensional potential flow past a smooth wall, which evinces a finite curvature jump at a certain point and approximates to two arcs in the surrounding area, has a vertical tangent of inflection at the critical point when plotted as a function of the arc length of the boundary curve. Close to this point the speed W is a function of the arc length σ in the form

$$\frac{W}{W_{o}} = I + \left(\frac{I}{\pi}\right) \left(I - \frac{\rho_{1}}{\rho_{2}}\right) \log \left|\frac{\sigma}{\rho_{1}}\right| + P(\sigma)$$

where ρ_1 , ρ_2 =radii of curvature of 2 arcs.

 $W_{o} = \text{constant}$ velocity along x axis (prior to transformation).

 $P(\sigma)$ = power series defining further variations of speed along contour.

The method discloses that in the vicinity of the curvature jump the assumption for Pohlhausen's boundary layer equation (into which the first two-speed derivatives enter) are no longer given. In consequence of the pronounced pressure change at the critical point a breakdown of the boundary layer is anticipated.

The Temperature of Unheated Bodies in a High Speed Gas Stream. (E. Eckert and W. Weise, F.G.I., Vol. 12, No. 1, Jan.-Feb., 1941.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M.1,000.) (101/7 Germany.)

A body that neither receives nor gives off heat, assumes the temperature of the air in a flow at low speed. But at airspeeds of the order of sonic velocity its temperature is higher, the effects of compression and friction becoming marked. This phenomenon is of technical importance in many respects. When the temperature in a flowing gas is recorded, the temperature of the thermometer, of course, registers the same increase; hence the effect must be known if the true gas temperature is to be obtained from the thermometer reading. The knowledge of the temperature of the unheated body in airflow is a requisite for heat transfer estimates. If the body, because of heating or cooling, has a higher or lower temperature than it would have unheated, it gives off or absorbs heat. On aircraft these phenomena becomes significant by wing-skin cooling, insulation of pressure cabins, and icing.

The temperature which the unheated body assumes in the air stream is termed its "specific temperature" by the author.

The present report deals with temperature measurements on cylinders of 0.2 to 3 millimeters diameter in longitudinal and transverse air flow at speed of 100 to 300 meters per second. Within the explored test range (*i.e.*, the probable laminar-boundary-layer region), the temperature of cylinders in axial flow is practically independent of the speed and in good agreement with Pohlhausen's theoretical values. In transverse flow, however, cylinders of certain diameter manifest a close relationship with speed, the ratio of the temperature above the air of the body to the adiabatic stagnation temperature first decreasing with rising speed and then rising again above a Mach number of 0.6. The importance of this " specific temperature " of the body for heat transfer studies at high speed is discussed.

New Method of Extrapolation of the Resistance of a Model Flying Boat to Full Size. (W. Sottorf, L.F.F., Vol. 16, No. 8, 20/8/39.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. No. 1,007.) (101/8 Germany.)

The previously employed method of extrapolating the total resistance to full size according to the cube of the scale and thereby foregoing a separate appraisal of the frictional resistance, was permissible for large models and floats of normal size. But faced by the ever increasing size of aircraft a re-examination of the problem of extrapolation to full size is called for. A method is described by means of which, on the basis of an analysis of tests on planing surfaces, the variation of the wetted surface over the take-off range is analytically obtained. The friction coefficients are read from Prandtl's curve for turbulent boundary layer with laminar approach. With these two values a correction for friction is obtainable.

Worked out examples indicate that resistance variations analytically determined and those derived from measurements give a practical approximation. A former scale series with the corrections applied to three resistance curves shows good agreement. The step from the 10-ton to the 100-ton flying boat with correction applied is found to be not critical for extrapolation from a model of customary size at the present time.

Some Simplified Methods in Aerofoil Theory. (M. A. Biot, J. Aeron. Sci., Vol. 9, No. 5, March, 1942, pp. 185-190.) (101/9 U.S.A.)

The use of the acceleration potential in thin aerofoil theory was introduced by L. Prandtl. The method has since been applied by several authors to problems of steady and non-steady flow in both compressible and incompressible fluids. A striking feature of this method is that no use has to be made of vortex wakes because the acceleration potential is everywhere continuous in the fluid. Such concepts as the trailing vortices and the induced downwash play no direct part in this theory.

The purpose of the present article is the treatment of two-dimensional aerofoil theory in an incompressible fluid by the combined use of conformal transformation and the acceleration potential. This method of approach greatly simplifies the solution of certain aerofoil problems.

The fundamental properties of the acceleration potential in an incompressible fluid are discussed, and it is shown how the problem of finding the acceleration potential can be solved by conformal representation of the aerofoil on a circle. A simple relation is derived between the velocity and the "stream function" corresponding to this potential. The method is next applied to the stationary aerofoil with and without flap, and to the determination of the aerofoil camber line and thickness function for a given pressure distribution along the chord. The simplicity of the method is especially apparent for the case of the oscillating aerofoil. For the sake of brevity only translatory oscillations are considered.

The Theory of the Lifting Line in Unsteady Motion. (K. Jaeckel, L.F.F., Vol. 19, No. 2, 20/3/42, pp. 57-63.) (101/10 Germany.)

The author develops the fundamental equations for the potential functions characterising a two- or three-dimensional wing of negligible curvature and thickness set at a small angle of incidence, assuming a velocity discontinuity brought about by a suitable vortex distribution both on the wing and over the trailing vortex sheet. In the case of steady motion the author's expression assumes in the limit of vanishing chord the form given by Prandtl for the lifting line.

The author shows, moreover, that the expressions maintain their significance for slow periodic motion and that good approximate solutions for this "quasisteady" state can be obtained. It appears that under these conditions the Prandtl circulation equation maintains its significance.

In conclusion the author indicates how the theory could be extended to deal with the general case of unsteady motion.

The Effect of Natural Wind on a Large Cylinder (8 in. high, 2 in. diameter). (A. Proll, Z.V.D.I., Vol. 86, No. 13-14, 4/4/42, pp. 220-222.) (101/11 Germany.)

The pressure distribution on a cylinder in steady flow has been investigated both theoretically (ideal fluid) and experimentally (in the wind tunnel). The effect of turbulence and gustiness of natural wind, however, profoundly affects the results, as was shown by full-scale experiments on a vertical cylinder 8 m. high and 2 m. diameter. The resultant force on this cylinder could be measured directly on a spring balance, whilst the pressure distribution was recorded by multimanometers over three horizontal sections (top, centre, bottom). The velocity and direction of the wind was automatically recorded by a special anometer situated to m. above the ground. Apart from yielding interesting results on wind structure, the full-scale experiments show that the distribution of negative pressure over the cylinder is generally unsymmetrical, the suction maxima on the left and right hand side at any instant differing by as much as 40 per cent. This unsymmetrical loading must be allowed for when estimating wind forces on circular structures such as gas holders. Comparative experiments on the same cylinder fitted with eight vertical ribs attached to the surfaces caused a considerable reduction in the values of the suction force and the fitting of such ribs on full-scale structures is strongly recommended. Although the Reynolds number of these experiments extended to 4×10^6 against only 0.6×10^6 for wind tunnel models, it is felt that further tests on existing full-scale structures are required before the subject of wind loading can be put on a satisfactory basis.

Windscreen De-icing. (Inter. Avia., No. 807, 16/3/42, p. 12.) (101/12 U.S.A.)

For some time various American air carriers have been experimenting with devices to keep the windscreens of commercial transport aeroplanes free from ice. Tests conducted by American Airlines Inc. with rotary and return-stroke type windscreen wipers operating in conjunction with de-icer fluids promised satisfactory results. United Air Lines, on the other hand, conducted tests which have induced the company to turn down the idea of moving windscreen wipers. The line in question is now equipping its aircraft with double windscreen panes, the front pane consisting of safety glass $\frac{1}{4}$ in. thick, and the rear pane of a transparent plastic $\frac{1}{8}$ in. thick, with a $\frac{1}{4}$ in. air space between the two. For the heating of the air space between the two panes, hot air of a temperature of 175 deg. F. is conducted from the cabin heating system to the panes and leaves through an exhaust duct leading to the outside. The experiences so far gathered by United Air Lines with this type of ice-free windscreen are stated to have shown better results than have been obtained with mechanical windscreen wipers and de-icer fluids.

Stress Analysis of Circular Frames. (H. Fahlbusch and W. Wagner, L.F.F., Vol. 18, No. 4, 22/4/41.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. 999.) (101/13 Germany.)

The stresses in circular frames of constant bending stiffness, as encountered in thin-wall shells, are investigated from the point of view of finite depth of sectional area of frame. The solution is carried out for four fundamental load conditions:—

- (1) Localised radial force on frame.
- (2) Localised movement acting along a diameter of the frame.
- (3) Localised tangential force acting along the neutral fibre of the frame.
- (4) Localised tangential force acting along the outer periphery of the frame.

The method is illustrated by a worked out example.

The solutions hold for circular frames with small sectional depth compared to curvature radius r. In this case the curved member acts similar to a straight member. Hence the stress distribution was assumed linear and the cross sections presumed to remain plane. The effect of the longitudinal and transverse forces on the displacement factors was disregarded. In addition, the bending stiffness of the shell plate compared with that of the circular frame was presumed to be small, and the departure of the frame contour from the circular shape due to elastic strain was discounted.

The Stresses in Stiffener Openings. (K. Marguerre, L.F.F., Vol. 18, No. 7, 19/7/41.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. 1,005.) (101/14 Germany.)

As the initial step in the analysis of stress distribution in three dimensionally curved rings (as employed for stiffeners in stressed skin aircraft designs), the

ring formed by the intersection of two circular cylinders is explored for three categories of load; tension in both cylinders (produced by hydrostatic pressure on the cylinder walls), axial force in the large cylinder, and lastly, shear in the large cylinder. The discussion of these three load cases enables general conclusions concerning the behaviour of the ring stressed by the shell forces and affords numerical data for the most important load categories (obtainable from the above by super-position). The quantitive results are illustrated in figures and condensed in simple approximate formulæ.

The three explored load distributions are three column loads for the unstiffened cylindrical shell; hence they create in the undisturbed shell a pure membrane stress attitude. The author assumes that this membrane stress attitude is not materially disturbed by the elastic interference effect between the stiffener opening and the skin. This assumption is met in the "extreme" case of a very stiff ring and a thin-wall shell without frames (or with frames located at some distance from the opening).

In the opposite extreme case (not discussed by the author) of a ring rigid in strain but flexible in bending and of a shell closed all around by closely placed stiff frames or curved floors—'' egg surface "—the state of stress and strain is utterly different.

The true shell lies between the two extremes. If the ring is distinctly rigid in bending and the shell is either thick-walled or forms an egg surface, a complicated elastic interference effect results which defies calculation and must be ascertained experimentally. The present solution supplies the basis for such experiments by enabling the estimation of the maximum bending stresses to be expected through the determination of their upper limit.

Surface Protection of Aircraft by Means of Paints and Lacquers. (W. Jaeger, Der Flieger, Vol. 21, No. 1, Jan., 1942, p. 20.) (101/17 Germany.)

It is now generally recognised that a smooth external surface (especially of the wings) is of the greatest importance for high speed aircraft. Surface protection by anodic oxidation although attractive from the point of view of weight, suffers from the drawback of producing a relatively rough surface, even if, as usual, a subsequent coating of lacquer is applied. Modern acryl resin lacquers weigh about 80 gm. per m.² for the usual single coat. As two or even three coats may be necessary in order to obtain sufficient smoothness of the outer skin of anodised material, the author suggests that anodic treatment should be reserved for those structural parts of the aircraft for which surface friction is not critical.

When comparing different methods of surface protection, increase in frictional drag may be of much greater importance than weight added.

Kinetic Energy Correction to Predicted Rate of Climb. (F. C. Phillips, J. Aeron. Sci., Vol. 9, No. 5, March, 1942, pp. 172-174.) (101/18 U.S.A.)

The assumption of zero acceleration along flight path, generally made in the interest of simplification in climb performance calculations, is pointed out, and the general performance equation re-stated for the case of finite acceleration. This assumption is shown to result in optimistic predicted rates of climb. The percentage error involved is analysed and shown to increase rapidly with aeroplane loading and with altitude, particularly in the stratosphere.

The war emergency is accelerating tremendously the trend toward higher operating altitudes and higher loadings for military aircraft. Increasing climb errors involved by these trends will shortly be of appreciable magnitude. The case of a high altitude bomber is given to illustrate this quantitatively. It is recommended that allowance be made, in establishing climb performance guarantees and in correlating computed and flight rates of climb, for the error incurred by assumption of zero acceleration along the flight path. An Improved Longitudinal Stability Calculation. (H. P. Liepmann, J. Aeron. Sci., Vol. 9, No. 5, March, 1942, pp. 181-184.) (101/19 U.S.A.)

The conventional method of calculating static longitudinal stability is improved by taking into account the moment of the fuselage in addition to the wing and tail moments about the centre of gravity of an aeroplane. The general equation for the fuselage moment, which is always unstable or stalling, is derived and presented in terms of the dynamic pressure, the angle of attack and two constants which depend on the shape of the fuselage only. These constants are explained theoretically and approximate values for them are given. These approximations lead to a simplified equation for the fuselage moment which is correct up to an angle of attack of about 12°, as shown by comparison with existing experimental results. It is also pointed out, that in calculating the fuselage moment for a stability investigation of an aeroplane, the downwash induced by the wing should be taken into consideration. A static stability calculation is carried through for an aeroplane for which the total moment about its centre of gravity is known from test results. A comparison of theoretical and experimental value shows that the improved method is in much better agreement with tests than the conventional method of stability calculation.

Resin Bonded Wood Laminates for Shell Type Aircraft Structures. (A. A. Gassner, J. Aeron. Sci., Vol. 9, No. 5, March, 1942, pp. 161-171.) (101/20 U.S.A.)

Wood as lumber is not homogeneous and it is not isotropic; it is also more sensitive to atmospheric influences than are the metals. Wood veneers plus synthetic resin as bonding medium will react more nearly like a homogeneous material, and, by suitable design and by consideration of the applied stresses, a construction can be built that will be fully able to carry the required loads, even though the material is not fully isotropic.

Surface coating with synthetic resin finishes makes these structures highly impervious to atmospheric influences and resin impregnation of the basic veneers can be used to make the laminations practically immune against moisture.

These wood-base laminations are exceedingly well suited for the construction of full-stressed shells for aircraft parts with very few internal stiffeners.

In Duramold design, many very thin veneers are used to obtain the highest possible homogeneity at reasonable cost. While commercial plywood of $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thickness is, for instance, built up from five plies, the Duramold construction would use for the same thickness 10 to 12 plies. Commercial plywood is difficult to bend even on large radii, and the bending or forming of commercial plywood to pronounced compound curvature is impractical. Duramold can be moulded to small single radii and it can be readily moulded to very pronounced compound curved shapes, because each of the very thin veneers is formed separately which requires only small pressures and which introduces hardly any stresses into the single veneer. Then the veneers are formed in the mould to the desired shape, while the layers are bonded together at the same time by the resin.

'By the use of the stress analysis methods described by the author and based on a long series of tests and investigations, a number of aircraft structures have been designed, constructed and tested.

One of these designs is the stabiliser for the Fairchild M-62 low-wing training plane. This stabiliser is a stressed-skin type without longitudinal stringers and without a front spar. It consists merely of moulded top and bottom shells, whose thickness tapers from approximately $\frac{1}{4}$ inch at the centre line of the aeroplane to $\frac{3}{322}$ inch at the stabiliser tip, of a light rear spar that takes vertical shear and is used for the attachment of elevator and fuselage fittings, of a leading edge-former that curves in one part into the tip bows, and of a few chordwise ribs. The shell is, on account of its thickness, a very stiff one and assures the maintenance of the proper aerofoil section under all conditions of flight loads. In combination

with the remainder of the structure it assures very high torsional stiffness, and load tests have shown that the torsional twist of this stabiliser was only 0.50 degree under full design load, consisting of the pertaining stabiliser-down and elevator-up loads. The complete weight of this Duramold stabiliser is the same as of the plywood-plus-spars type of the original design.

The Technical Cohesive Strength of Metals (28 References). (D. J. McAdam, J. Applied Mech., Vol. 8, No. 4, Dec., 1941, pp. 155-165.) (101/21 U.S.A.)

By the technical cohesive strength of metals is meant, not the interatomic forces, but the technically estimated resistance to fracture. An example of such resistance to fracture is the "true" breaking stress of a tension test specimen, the breaking load divided by the sectional area at fracture. In such a test, however, the fracture usually occurs after more or less plastic extension. The technical cohesive strength thus measured, therefore, is not that of the original metal, but of metal which has been plastically deformed during the test. By plastic deformation, the cohesive strength is greatly altered.

Ludwik pointed out the need for knowledge of the initial cohesion limit and of its variation with plastic deformation. He showed that ductility and the work of deformation to fracture depend upon the initial difference between the technical cohesion limit and the resistance to plastic deformation (flow stress). He also showed that a notch in a specimen under tension causes triaxial tensile stress in the minimum section, and thus raises the flow stress in relation to the cohesion limit. A notch thus tends to increase the tensile strength (based on the reduced section) and to decrease the ductility and total work. With Ludwik's work as a foundation, Kuntze developed a method for the use of notched specimens in obtaining values of the technical cohesion limit.

Over a period of years several different criteria have been proposed for the conditions necessary for fracture. According to the earliest of these theories, fracture occurs when the maximum principal stress reaches a limiting value. Other such criteria suggested are the maximum shear and the maximum strain. It has also been suggested that the fracture of ductile metals is determined by the maximum shear, but that the fracture of brittle materials is determined by the maximum principal stress. According to the original views of Mohr, however, the stress at either yield or fracture depends upon both the normal stress and the shearing stress on the plane of yield or fracture. Bridgman came to the conclusion that the conditions for rupture are more complex than has been generally supposed.

Since the investigation of Griffith, however, the prevalent view has been that fracture is determined only by the greatest principal tensile stress, and occurs when this stress reaches a value that depends only upon the state of the metal at the instant of fracture. The technical cohesion limit thus is thought to be the same whether the metal is under unidirectional or polarsymmetric tensile stress. These views have been endorsed by Kuntze as a result of his investigations. The work of Kuntze is the basis of prevalent views as to the variation of the cohesive strength of metals with plastic deformation.

An Extension of the Sand-Heap Analogy in Plastic Torsion Applicable to Cross Sections having One or More Holes. (M. D. Sadowsky, J. Applied Mech., Vol. 8, No. 4, December, 1941, pp. 166-168.) (101/22 U.S.A.)

In this paper the author cites the basic theory of the sand-heap method of plasticity as developed by A. Nadai, which involves determination of the twisting moment M in plastic torsion by means of the formula M=2(k/m)V, where V= volume of sand-heap, m= slope of heap, k= maximum value of shearing stress in plastic flow (in this method sand is piled on a horizontal plate of similar shape to the section undergoing twist). The author explains the principles upon which the analogy is modified to apply in the case of cross sections having one or more

holes, such as a twisted shaft. The technique developed to meet such cases is described in detail and a mathematical analysis is given which results in a twisting moment formula for a cross section with holes, equivalent in accuracy to that of the original equation for the simple case of a twisted bar.

Solution of Problems in Elasticity by the Framework Method. A. Hrennikoff, J. Applied Mech., Vol. 8, No. 4, December, 1941, pp. 169-175.) (101/23 U.S.A.)

Because of mathematical difficulties which make the solution of differential equations of the theory of elasticity impossible in many cases, the author has been impelled to seek some other method of approach than one of pure mathematical analysis. The method outlined in this paper is of this character and may with some qualifications be applied to problems of two-dimensional stress, bending of plates, bending of cylindrical shells, the general case of three-dimensional stress, and a great variety of others. Essentially, the method consists in replacing the continuous material of the elastic body being studied by a framework of bars arranged according to a definite pattern, the elements of which are endowed with elastic properties suitable to the type of problem. This framework is then analysed, according to the procedure outlined in the paper for various types of elastic problems. Examples of the application of the principles involved are also given.

Lateral Buckling of I Section Column with Eccentric End Loads in Plane of Web. (B. Johnston, J. Applied Mech., Vol. 8, No. 4, Dec., 1941, pp, 176-180.) (101/24 U.S.A.)

When a relatively slender column of the symmetrical I or WF shape is loaded eccentrically in the plane of the web by longitudinal end loads it may fail by elastic instability involving a combination of lateral bending and twisting. Timoshenko has shown that in the case of the solid rectangle a considerable end eccentricity causes the critical buckling load to be only slightly less than the Euler critical load for the same strip loaded axially. The corresponding solution for the WF or I column, presented by the author, shows that relatively small eccentricities of the longitudinal end load applied in the plane of the web cause a large falling off from the Euler critical load.

For the ideally straight column, with a material perfectly elastic up to the yield point, there would be a critical l/r ratio for any given eccentricity, column length, and material. Below this critical ratio the column would fail by yielding, according to the secant or eccentricity formula. Above the critical ratio the failure would be by elastic instability with respect to lateral bending and twisting.

Applications of the equations is made to two structural wide flange sections, of light and medium weight, and the results are presented in the form of diagrams.

Effect of Threaded and Serrated Holes on the Limited Time and Fatigue Strength of Flat Alloy Strips. (H. Burnheim, L.F.F., Vol. 18, No. 2-3, 29/3/41, pp. 102-106.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. No. 994.) (101/25 Germany.)

The present report deals with fatigue tests under initial tension and repeated stress on flat test specimens of 3116.5 duralumin and A.Z.M. 3510.1 electron with plain unloaded and pin-loaded holes (tension lugs) of different forms. From the findings, which are presented in the form of Wohler curves, the ratio $\sigma_{\rm orig}/\sigma_n$ (notch sensitivity factors) and $\sigma_{\rm B}:\sigma_n$ are computed for 10⁴, 10⁵, 10⁶, and 10⁷ number of cycles.*

It was found that the notch effect of the serrated holes in both metals is greater than that of the threaded holes and that it, in turn, is greater than that of the

^{*} σ_{orig} = stress withstood by undrilled specimen.

 $[\]sigma_n = ditto$ when drilled.

 $[\]sigma_{\rm B}{=}{\rm tensile}$ strength of material.

cylindrical holes for both the unloaded holes and the pin-loaded holes. On the loaded holes the notch effect for all three forms assumes much greater values than on the unloaded ones; hence the limited time and fatigue strength of the tension lugs is considerably lower. While the fatigue strength ratio of plain and drilled specimens (notch effect factor) increases very little on the unloaded holes, it rises considerably with the number of cycles on the loaded ones. The ratio $\sigma_{\rm B}$: $\sigma_{\rm n \ orig}$ increases much more with the number of load cycles, especially on the tension lugs. The exceedingly unfavourable behaviour of the serrated tension lugs of the A.Z.M. electron was unusual.

In the remarks on the types of failure the peculiar location of the break on the serrated tension lugs is pointed out.

The Creep of Laminated Synthetic Resin Plastics. (H. Perkuhn, L.F.F., Vol. 18, No. 1, 28/2/41.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. No. 995.) (101/26 Germany.)

If plastics are stressed so highly that they can be used at about the same weight for construction as metal, unusually high deformations can occur at the comparable stresses permissible for metals in aircraft design, depending upon the kind of stress and the design of the structural part. The deformations will be high because of the low elastic modulus of plastics and the incipient creep under protracted loads even for low stresses. The effect of time on the deformation the plastic and the elastic portion—of laminated synthetic resin plastics even at room temperature is already comparable to that of metal structures at high temperatures such as do not occur under normal service conditions. The longtime loading strength of a number of laminated synthetic resin plastics was ascertained and the effect of moulding pressure and resin content determined. The best value was observed with a 30 to 40 per cent. resin content. The longtime loading strength also increases with increasing moulding pressure up to 250 kg./cm.²; a further rise in pressure affords no further substantial improvement.

The creep strength is defined as the load which in the hundredth hour of loading produces a rate of elongation of 5×10^{-4} per cent. per hour. The creep strength values of different materials were determined and tabulated.

The effect of humidity during long-time tests is pointed out.

Determination of the Bending and Buckling Effect in the Stress Analysis of Shell Structures Accessible from One Side Only. (A. Dose, L.F.F., Vol. 18, Nos. 2-3, 29/3/41.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. 997.) (101/27 Germany.)

The practical use of the data of individual strain measurements on thin-wall shell structures with the usual instrumental means, say, for checking the mathematical principles, is frequently open to question because of the disturbing effect of flexural strains induced by more or less severe bulging of the skin. Modern structural methods of air frames do not permit the elimination of flexural strains in many cases through measurements from two sides. These strains may be of considerable extent even though invisible to the naked eye. As a result the conventional strain gauges do not always give reliable values for the strains in the median layer. This report describes a device (spherometer) for ascertaining the bending and buckling effect in stress measurements on shell structures accessible from one side only. Beginning with a discussion of the relationship between flexural strain and certain parameters, the respective errors of the test method for great or variable skin curvature within the test range are analysed and illustrated by specimen example.

Stress Determination and Fatigue. (J. O. Almen, Trans. S.A.E.J., Vol. 50, No. 2, Feb., 1942, pp. 53-61.) (101/29 U.S.A.)

It is in machines where weight is all-important, such as in aeroplane engines, or where weight and cost must both be considered, as in automobiles, that the inadequacy of our means of stress determination and our ignorance of fatigue strength of materials are most keenly felt. Calculated stresses are in themselves meaningless and are of value only when they are interpreted in terms of experience. Although conceding that the accuracy of stress data from photo-elastic and extensometer readings is usually greater than that obtained from the most involved mathematical analysis, the author shows by fatigue tests that these methods are far from reliable.

In the major part of this paper, S-N diagrams* with linear and logarithmic co-ordinates, combinations of these co-ordinates, and three-dimensional coordinates, are discussed. This discussion brings out the effect on fatigue strength of varying degrees of stress concentration; of surface treatment of the test specimens; of stress range; and presents considerable fatigue data on ball bearings. It is shown that, when fatigue-test results are run on a large number of commercially identical parts over a sufficiently large load range, the scatter of the test points when plotted on logarithmic co-ordinates, falls within a well-defined pattern which tends to radiate from a point at high stress and low number of stress cycles and to diverge to a broad bond at low stress and high number of stress cycles.

Brittle Point of Rubber upon Freezing. (M. L. Selker and others, Ind. Eng. Chem. (Ind. Ed.), Vol. 34, No. 2, Feb., 1942, pp. 157-160.) (101/30 U.S.A.)

This paper supplies the need for a simple, rapid, and accurate method of determining the brittle temperature of rubber and allied materials. The method depends on the fact that, when either natural or synthetic rubber is cooled a temperature is reached where the material will fracture under bending stress. This temperature is sharply defined and varies with composition and structure of the material.

The brittle temperature of soft vulcanised rubber is substantially independent of the state of cure within the limits found in industrial practice. However, in rubber-sulphur compounds where a large amount of sulphur is used, there is nearly a linear dependence of brittle temperature on combined sulphur. Additions of reinforcing pigments produce little effect, whereas coarse fillers raise the brittle temperature.

With the exception of butadiene polymer and butadiene-styrene copolymer, all synthetic rubbers have higher brittle temperatures than rubber (app. -30° C. against -50° C.). In contrast to natural rubber compounds the carbon-black-reinforced stocks of the synthetics show a lower brittle temperature than the crude material. Brittle temperature is independent of molecular weight within wide limits above a minimum value.

Industrial Progress in Synthetic Rubberlike Polymers. (H. I. Cramer, Ind. and Eng. Chem. (Ind. Ed.), Vol. 34, No. 2, Feb., 1942, pp. 243-251.) (101/31 U.S.A.)

The development of synthetic rubberlike polymers is being accelerated greatly by the national emergency. The annual production of these new vital materials has now increased to the point where it can be expressed in tens of thousands of tons.

Formerly the application of the synthetic rubbers depended upon their superiority in some specific respects over natural rubber. With the completion of the new plants now planned and under construction in the U.S.A. sufficient of the synthetic product should become available so that attention can be given to those applications involving simple replacement of the natural product.

Over a score of synthetic elastic polymers have been produced on a commercial scale. The discussion is limited to a review of the raw materials required, the

S = stress range.N = Number' of cycles.

commercial syntheses, applications, and costs of the polymers of butadiene or derivatives, the polybutenes, the alkyline polysulphides, and the plasticised polyvinyl chlorides.

The production capacity of synthetic rubber plants in the United States, built and in the course of construction, is discussed.

Vinylidene Chloride Polymers ("Saran" Upholstery Fabrics, etc.). (W. C. Goggin and R. D. Lowry, Ind. and Eng. Chem. (Ind. Ed.), Vol. 34, No. 3, March, 1942, pp. 327-332.) (101/32 U.S.A.)

Vinylidene chloride plastic as a new and unusual material is discussed from the standpoint of history, chemical and physical structure, outstanding characteristics, methods of fabrication, and application.

These resins differ from familiar plastic materials in that they exhibit crystallinity, as can be demonstrated by X-ray diffraction patterns. While presenting some mechanical problems, the control of this crystallinity offers a wide range of properties and unique fabrication techniques. The extrusion and continuous orientation of vinylidene chloride plastic is now a commercial accomplishment. Injection moulding of these resins, along with control of moulding properties, is presented for the first time. Applications are cited illustrating some fabrication methods as well as the unusual characteristics of chemical inertness, water resistance, high strength, toughness, and abrasion resistance. Upholstery fabrics made of this material (trade name "Saran") have already reached extensive application.

Lateral Instability of Unsymmetrical I Beams. (H. N. Hill, J. Aeron. Sci., Vol. 9, No. 5, March, 1942, pp. 175-180.) (101/33 U.S.A.)

An expression is derived for calculating the critical bending moment at which lateral buckling will occur in an I beam which is unsymmetrical about the principal axis normal to the web. The expression is derived for the case in which the beam is subjected to pure bending. This problem differs from the similar problem involving the buckling of beams of symmetrical I cross section in that the shear centre of the section does not coincide with the centre of gravity.

Experimental verification of the expression is obtained from the results of tests made to study the lateral buckling of unsymmetrical aluminium alloy I beams under pure bending.

Buckling of a Column with Non-Linear Lateral Supports. (H. S. Tsien, J. Aeron. Sci., Vol. 9, No. 4, Feb., 1942, pp. 119-132.) (101/34 U.S.A.)

During the investigation of the buckling phenomenon of thin spherical shells and thin cylindrical shells, it was found that for these structures the load sustained is not a linear function of the deflection even when the stresses are below the elastic limit and are proportional to the corresponding strains. This non-linear load vs. deflection relation gives a buckling phenomenon entirely different from that of the classical theory. However, the exact solution of these problems involves a pair of non-linear partial differential equations. It is difficult to obtain an exact solution. The method adopted in these investigations is the so-called energy method, where a plausible form of deflection of the shell is assumed, first with certain undetermined parameters, and then these parameters are determined by the condition that the first variation of the strain energy of the system must be zero. Although this method yields quite satisfactory results for the cases investigated, it is felt that due to the novel nature of the problem, an exact solution is very desirable. Experiments on a column with non-linear lateral supports show that the essential characteristics of the buckling of curved shells can be reproduced by this structure. The problem of a column with non-linear lateral supports is, however, much simpler than the problem of curved shells, and an

exact solution can be obtained without any mathematical difficulty. In the present paper, an exact solution of the column problem is carried out.

With supporting springs whose characteristic simulates that found in the case of a curved shell, a straight unbuckled column may have an elastic energy and end shortening equal to those of a buckled state with finite deflection even at a load far below the classical buckling load. If the end plates of the testing machine are brought slightly nearer, the elastic energy for the unbuckled state will be higher than the buckled state. Therefore, at a small disturbance, the column will jump to the buckled equilibrium state. This means that the recorded buckling load in a testing machine can be lower than that of classical theory even for a perfect specimen without initial deflection. This critical point can be further lowered by the elasticity of the testing machine. Hence, it seems that the buckling load calculated by means of classical theory really has very little bearing on the actual load carrying ability of this type of structure.

Shear Distribution among Three or More Shear Webs. (H. W. Sibert, J. Aeron. Sci., Vol. 9, No. 4, Feb., 1942, pp. 133-134.) (101/35 U.S.A.)

The shear webs of a metal wing do not carry all the vertical shear force on the wing because some of the shear load is carried by each segment of the skin that is not horizontal. It would be on the side of safety to assume that the entire vertical shear force on the wing is carried by the shear webs. With this assumption, the distribution of the resultant shear force at any cross-section to two shear webs can be determined from the fact that the sum of these two shear forces equals the resultant shear force and their moment about any point equals the moment of the resultant shear force about the same point. With more than two shear webs the Principle of Least Work will have to be employed. The case of three shear webs, based upon the assumption that the shear webs carry all the vertical shear, is worked out in detail by the author. The procedure for a wing with four or more shear webs is outlined, the case of tension-field shear webs being considered only in each case.

Eccentricity in Columns. (K. G. Merriam, J. Aeron. Sci., Vol. 9, No. 4, Feb., 1942, pp. 135-137.) (101/36 U.S.A.)

By relating eccentricity to slope at the end of a column, the mechanism of eccentricity behaviour in flat-end loadings is discussed.

For both flat-end and pin-end cases, explanation is offered for the experimentally observed tendency, at failing loads, for the grouping ec/r^2 (called γ) to assume a value below a definite maximum.*

Two non-dimensional graphical representations of the load-maximum stress relation for columns are given, and values of length and γ are stated for use with such charts, which can be employed to solve most column problems involving primary failure by translation, regardless of slenderness ratio or material involved.

Improvement in Light Alloy Screw Connections. (H. Cornelius, Z.V.D.I., Vol. 86, No. 13-17, 4/4/42, pp. 218-219.) (101/37 Germany.)

Experiments were carried out with light alloy screws and nuts of the sizes M 10 × 1.5 and M 6×1 (metric pitch of 1.5 and 1 mm., outside diameter of thread 10 and 6 mm. respectively). The alloy (composition not stated) is known under the trade name Durmess (Lauta Works) and is stated to be specially suited for automatic screw cutting, yielding a smooth tooth flank. The screws and nuts were anodically oxidised (exolated) and subsequently impregnated with a special wax compound. The tests show that the screws treated as above could be stressed

^{*} e = eccentricity of loading.

c = distance of extreme filament from neutral axis.

r = radius of gyration of cross-section of column.

almost to the limit of the tensile strength of the thread core without any tendency to seizure in the threads.

It is stated that the new process is specially to be recommended for light alloy screws requiring frequent dismantling.

Axial Vibrations of Diesel Engine Crankshafts. (R. Poole, Inst. Mech. Engs. J. and Procs., Feb., 1942, pp. 167-182.) (101/38 Great Britain.)

The paper describes an investigation carried out to determine the magnitude of axial vibration of engine crankshafts, with the object of establishing that axial resonance may occur within the normal running range of an engine.

The author gives the results of tests on various makes of engine using a portable vibrograph to record the axial movement of the crankshaft. In some cases the torsional oscillation was measured simultaneously by means of a universal vibrograph. The vibrograph records show that at certain speeds some engines are subject to a very marked increase in axial vibration of a magnitude consistent with a condition of axial resonance.

The author describes a test in which the natural frequency of axial vibration of a crankshaft is determined experimentally by using an a.c. electromagnet as a means of applying an alternating force.

Expressions are derived for calculating the axial deflection of a crankshaft due to the piston load, and also for calculating the axial deflection under an axial load. It is suggested that the relation between these two deflections determines the magnitude of the axial force set up by the piston loading.

From a series of load-deflection tests, carried out on a number of crankshafts, the author determines the value of empirical factors to be used in estimating the axial stiffness.

Two-Speed Supercharger Drives. (F. M. Kincaid, S.A.E.J., Vol. 50, No. 3, March, 1942, pp. 80-96.) (101/39 U.S.A.)

A single speed supercharger with a compression ratio adequate for maximum power at high altitudes will supply more air than the engine can safely use at low altitudes. Two-speed supercharger drives are provided to obtain high power for take-off at low altitudes and maximum power at high altitudes with one blower.

The Wright two-speed drive utilises a single compound spur-gear system with the intermediate gears connected by a rotating hydraulically actuated friction clutch for the high ratio, and a planetary reduction gear with a clutch in the low ratio. A later model has the intermediate gears coupled by a roller clutch in low ratio and a planetary step-up gear and stationary clutch in high ratio.

The Pratt and Whitney two-speed drive utilises hydraulically operated cone clutches for both the low and high ratio. A fluid coupling is used to accelerate the impeller to a speed between that of the high and low ratio drives for the shifting operation only. Two parallel units are used to reduce the gear sizes.

Bristol uses three clutch units equally disposed above the driveshaft so that each unit carries one-third of the load. Each unit contains two multiple-disc clutches, one for each ratio. Oil for the hydraulic actuating cylinders is cleaned by a pair of centrifuges before it enters the clutch units.

The Rolls-Royce supercharger drive uses semi-centrifugal mechanically actuated clutches. One clutch is provided for the low ratio and two similar clutches for the high ratio. The mechanical linkage is operated by a hydraulic cylinder with scavenge oil pressure.

In the Junkers two-speed drive, a pair of bevel gears drive a layshaft connected to the impeller shaft by two intermediate gears. The low ratio intermediate gear is coupled to the shaft by a roller clutch. The high ratio gear is connected by a mechanically operated friction clutch. An aneroid mechanism prevents engagement of the high ratio clutch at low altitudes. The Mercedes-Benz DB-601 engine has a variable-speed supercharger drive consisting of a straight forward gear system driving the final drive-shaft at a speed slightly higher than the highest ratio. The speed is then reduced by a fluid coupling. Operation of the drive is entirely automatic, the ratio of the coupling being regulated by a control unit actuated by an aneroid capsule. The slip of the fluid coupling in low ratio at the lower altitudes causes the oil in the coupling to be heated considerably. This would be a great disadvantage in transport or patrol planes intended for operation. at low altitudes. However, this might be an advantage for fighter craft as the high heat rejection would aid in quickly warming up the system while climbing to high altitudes.

Aircraft Carburettor Airscoops and Their Effect on Fuel/Air Metering in Flight (with Discussion). (F. C. Mock, S.A.E.J., Vol. 50, No. 3, March, 1942, pp. 102-104.) (101/40 U.S.A.)

The design of a carburettor airscoop involves :---

1. Location of the intake opening to receive full airspeed ram and exert minimum drag (which involves knowledge and experiment as to the external air flow around the aeroplane); and

2. Conducting the intake air to enter the carburettor with uniform pressure across its stream with minimum turbulence, and minimum loss of impact pressure (which involves the study of internal air flow).

In general, the two main objectives, maximum ram and minimum disturbances of carburation, go hand in hand and have the same structural requirements.

An analysis is given of the principles of fuel-air metering, by measuring the air velocity differential through air orifices of fixed size, and transmitting this differential, corrected for variations of air density, to secure corresponding fuel flow differential through selected fuel orifices. A description is then given of the departures from steady full-stream air flow encountered in flight service, and the manner in which these affect air speed metering.

Methods are given for detecting, measuring, and curing disturbances from these sources.

Recommendations also are given for improved warm and cold air control, for protection against ice formation in the intake system, by eliminating the variable ram differential between cold and warm air flow which exists with most current scoop designs.

In conclusion, the need is emphasised for freer co-operation between the aeroplane, engine, and carburettor engineers; and for recognition in our procurement procedure of the need for preliminary check tests in actual flight, on prototype aeroplanes, of the design and characteristics of not only the scoop and carburettor, but also all other engine accessories whose functioning may be affected by differences between flight and ground-test conditions.

Gas Turbine Progress (Digest). (J. T. Rettaliata, S.A.E.J., Vol. 50, No. 3, March, 1942, pp. 32-33.) (101/41 U.S.A.)

Two obstacles to the development of the combustion-gas turbine have been overcome in recent years—to-day's better materials enable temperatures of $1,000^{\circ}$ F. to be used; and an axial compressor, upon which years of aerodynamical research have been spent, affords the necessary high efficiency compressor unit.

In modern lay-out a five-stage reaction type gas turbine is directly coupled to a fifteen-stage axial compressor. Air from the atmosphere enters the compressor where its pressure is raised. Part of the air discharged from the compressor is used for combustion purposes in the oil burner; the remaining air flowing through the annular space and cooling the products of combustion to a satisfactory turbine inlet temperature. The gas, a mixture of air and combustion products, then expands through the turbine from which it is exhausted to the atmosphere. The power developed by the turbine is greater than that required by the compressor

and the excess power is supplied to the generator. In order to start the unit from a standstill, a motor is provided to bring the unit up to about 25 per cent. of normal speed at which point the turbine is capable of driving the compressor.

The unit is controlled by a speed governor connected to the fuel-oil supply; in this way the inlet gas temperature to the turbine is varied, thus changing the power developed by the turbine. An emergency governor actuates a by-pass valve around the turbine when a designated overspeed is exceeded. The turbine and compressor are connected through a solid coupling which enables their equal axial thrusts to neutralise each other, thus eliminating the necessity of balanced pistons.

At the present time the principal commercial application of the gas-turbine axial compressor unit in the United States has been in oil refineries. A 2,200 h.p. gas-turbine locomotive, with electrical transmission, is being built by Brown-Boveri for Swiss Federal Railways. Other natural and favourable applications will develop from time to time and will probably include marine propulsion, blastfurnace plants, wind tunnels, special power plants, and other special applications.

The author claims that his study of retarded cycles, during which combustion takes place entirely during the expansion stroke, has provided a means for reducing the combustion speed and for increasing the concentration of the air-fuel ratio up to saturation while maintaining a high thermal efficiency. According to him, the combination of a short injection period and retarded cycle will produce the greatest specific power from a Diesel engine, while reducing, at the same time, the fatigue of its parts to within acceptable limits.

Researches on a single cylinder two-stroke Diesel (bore 125 mm., stroke 170 mm., 8 h.p., 800 r.p.m. normal rating) have led to a solution for reducing the fatigue of the Diesel engine by permitting the preservation of its components and, at the same time, raising its specific horse-power to a par with that of carburettor engines, whilst maintaining for the Diesel engine its prerogative of burning heavy fuel under optimum economical conditions.

The feeding of Diesel engines by injection pumps actuated by engine compression achieves the required high speeds of injection readily and permits rigorous control of the combustible charge introduced into each cylinder and of the peak pressure in the resultant cycle.

The suppression of the mechanical control of the pumps and the pressure lines simplifies the construction of direct-injection engines and improves their dependability in service.

Linking Factors of Overhaul Periods for Aircraft Engines (Digest). (M. Whitlock, S.A.E.J., Vol. 50, No. 2, Feb., 1942, p. 56.) (101/43 U.S.A.)

The limited factor for aircraft engine overhaul periods is the accumulation of the centrifuged deposit in the crankpin which limits the overhaul period to approximately 1,000 hr. The crankpin deposit not only throws the carefully balanced crankshaft out of balance but, as the deposit level reaches the end of the oil tube, the foreign material normally centrifuged out is allowed to pass into the master rod bearing where it promotes wear.

The condition can be alleviated, by decreasing the tendency for the oil to sludge, by decreasing the amount of lead in the lubricating system through improvement in ring sealing and fuel refining, and by providing effective filtering facilities in the lubricating system. Then, the overhaul period would be expected to be limited at 1,500 hr. by the pitting of reduction gear teeth, wear and failure of

Direct Injection in Internal Combustion Engines. (J. E. Tuscher, Pubs. Sci. Tech. du Minist. de L'Air, No. 89, 1939.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. No. 993.) (101/42 France.)

the master-rod bearing, wear on piston rings, and pitting of the crankshaft main bearing.

There is a definite need for a relocation of the oil pressure regulating valve, for facilities to remove entrapped air from the scavenged oil, for improved valve and valve-guide design, and for an improved ignition harness.

Air Flow Through Inlet Valves (Digest). (G. B. Wood and others, S.A.E.J., Vol. 50, No. 2, Feb., 1942, p. 57.) (101/44 U.S.A.)

Improvement of the volumetric efficiency of engines is usually done by the cut-and-try method. The authors arbitrarily group the pertinent factors (despite some considerable overlapping) as follows:—

Heat-transfer effects; Steady flow resistance; and Pulsation of the intake gases.

Stressing the importance of steady flow characteristics at the inlet valve, the authors conclude that improving these characteristics was tantamount to increasing the effective area of cross-section of the inlet passage.

Many engines have sharp corners immediately upstream from the throat of constriction between the valve and its seat, and the curves given in this report indicate that even a slight breaking of the corners in the port and under the valve head will make an appreciable difference in the flow capacity. The length of the radius depends to a considerable extent on the design of the remainder of the port.

Co-operative Engine Wear Studies (Digest). F. L. Miller and others, S.A.E.J., Vol. 50, No. 2, Feb., 1942, p. 64.) (101/45 U.S.A.)

Contrary to the general belief, merely improving lubricating characteristics does not automatically reduce engine wear; rather, wear depends largely upon engine operating conditions even with oils of better oiliness. No single laboratory engine or test machine has been developed to the point where "acceptable" correlation of wear with service seems possible.

A distinction between the wear characteristics of straight mineral oils and certain compounded mineral oils can be made but as yet the data are not sufficiently sensitive to allow more extensive conclusions. Wear was greater during the break-in period with oils containing oiliness additives, but afterwards it was less.

The authors concluded that scuffing wear is the kind which can best be correlated between engine and laboratory machine tests, and the most certain to be improved with oiliness agents.

Still another point is the relationship between the results of tests made with so-called extreme pressure test machines and those made on other machines or in actual engines. It is obvious that lubricants containing additives having greater extreme pressure properties show to advantage in such tests. It is not equally obvious, however, that such compounds are actually superior in service. Nevertheless, when compared with straight uncompounded lubricants, it would appear that they definitely reduce wear, or at least that of the scuffing type.

Wright High Performance Flat Engine. (Inter. Avia., No. 808-809, 28/3/42, pp. 16.) (101/46 U.S.A.)

U.S. Patent No. 2,259,102 recently assigned to Rudolph Daub of the Wright Aeronautical Corp. (applied for on June 10th, 1939), is of interest. The patent drawing illustrates a liquid-cooled engine featuring four cylinder banks; one set of two banks each, one bank arranged above the other, from an angle of 30 deg. This relatively small angle makes possible a low height of the engine, and due

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0368393100140635 Published online by Cambridge University Press

to the fact that the cylinder axes intersect only on the opposite side of the crankshaft axis the width of the engine is kept within moderate limits. Both these advantages could have been incorporated also in the design of a horizontal "H " engine; the new Wright design differs from the latter inasmuch as for the power transmission the two crankshafts of equal function are replaced by a single main crankshaft. On each crankpin of the main crankshaft is mounted an independent bearing spool to which are journalled the four connecting rods in the manner of the articulated connecting rods of a radial engine with symmetrically arranged crank pins. The bearing spool or connecting rod end possesses a vertical arm, on the free end of which acts the corresponding crank pin of an auxiliary crankshaft. The latter is driven by the main crankshaft via an intermediate gear in the same sense and at identical angular velocity; its cranks possess the same eccentricity as the corresponding cranks of the main crankshaft and are maintained in a position parallel to the latter at all times, so that the bearing spool continuously maintains its upright position. Each of the four pins upon which the connecting rods act therefore rotates around an axis passing through the central plane of the corresponding cylinder bank. As a result, identical conditions of motion are produced for the piston and connecting rods, as if a separate crankshaft were provided for each cylinder bank. The small loads absorbed by the auxiliary crankshaft enable the crank pins of the auxiliary crankshaft to be made small enough so that they can pass between the cheeks of the main crankshaft; at the same time, the two shafts can only be mounted at a small distance away from each other. The new type of design will be especially suited, like the horizontal "H" arrangement, for multi-cylinder high-performance engines designed for submerged installation in the wings of large aeroplanes or so-called "flying-wing " aircraft.

Protection for Rubbing Surfaces of Light Alloy Pistons. (H. Schwarz, Aluminium, Vol. 24, No. 3, March, 1942, pp. 106-110.) (101/47 Germany.)

Much care is expended on the surface finish of modern light alloy pistons. After fine machining, the material is stress relieved by suitable heat treatment and finally ground or machined with diamond or carbide tools. In spite of all precautions, however, the surface protuberances still remaining require gradual removal by a prolonged running-in process in the engine itself, otherwise local zones of seizure may arise. Even after this smoothing out process has been completed, further difficulties may arise if the oil film is insufficient (cold starting, etc.). Many attempts have therefore been made to provide the light alloy surface with a protective coating of some other material of better running qualities than the aluminium alloy. Thus by electrolytic oxidation, a hard film of Al. oxide may be produced, which moreover is to a certain extent oil absorbent. This latter quality is however not retained for long and the results according to the author, have not been altogether satisfactory. Electrolytic deposits of tin, cadmium and lead have also been employed, the first to an appreciable extent in the U.S.A. According to the author, however, best results are obtained by a coating of graphite, provided a sufficiently close deposit can be obtained. Details of the German process for ensuring this are not given.

Silver Lined Bearings for Aircraft Engines. (Ind. and Eng. Chem. (News Ed.), Vol. 4, No. 3, 10/2/42, p. 191.) (101/48 U.S.A.)

Silver lined bearings are being used effectively in aircraft engines of the radial air-cooled type and also in engines designed for liquid cooling. Some of the bearings are complete rings coated inside and outside with silver and some are split and coated on the inside surface only. Silver is understood to be capable of carrying a higher load than babbitt, to be a better conductor of heat, and to retain its hardness at temperatures above those feasible with babbitt.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0368393100140635 Published online by Cambridge University Press

Properties of Austenitic Exhaust Valve Steels Containing Manganese. (H. Cornelius, L.F.F., Vol. 19, No. 2, 20/3/42, pp. 44/56.) (101/49 Germany.) The normal exhaust valve steel has the following approximate composition:----

| С | ••• | ••• | | 0.45 pe | er cent |
|----|-----|-----|-----|---------|---------|
| Si | | ••• | | 1.5 | ,, |
| Мn | ••• | ••• | | o.8 | " |
| Cr | ••• | ••• | ••• | 15 | ,, |
| Ni | ••• | ••• | | 13 | ,, |
| W | ••• | ••• | ••• | 2.5 | ,, |

Besides two steels of this type, the author investigated nine further austenitic steels with smaller Ni content (4-8 per cent.) and higher Mn content (3-7 per cent.) The investigation covered the following points —Structure, density, thermal expansion, thermal conductivity, wear resistance, scaling resistance, static and dynamic strength both before and after long period annealing at 700° C., hardness and creep at elevated temperatures. Experiments were also carried out on the possibility of nitriding steels of this type. The author concludes that the Ni content can be cut down to 4.5 per cent. without deleteriously affecting the material for the particular employments envisaged. Such replacement valve steels have the following composition :—

| C | ••• | 0.42— 0.52 p | er cent. |
|----|---------|--------------|----------|
| Si | | 1.5 - 2.0 | ,, |
| Mn | | 3 - 5 | ,, |
| Ni | | 4.5 - 6 | ,, |
| Cr | | 17.5 -18.5 | 11 |
| W | | 0.9 - 1.5 | ,, |

Heinkel Jet Propulsion Patent. (Inter. Avia., No. 810-811, 8/4/42, pp. 12-12.) (101/51 Germany.)

The Heinkel arrangement differs fundamentally from the Caproni-Campini design inasmuch as the blower is not driven by a recipracating engine but by means of a gas turbine built integrally with the blower. In the German design the fuel is injected into a combustion chamber kept under pressure and through which passes part of the air delivered by the blower. The fresh air enters the blower axially and leaves it at its circumference; from there part of the compressed air is guided through a jacket surrounding the circular combustion chamber by which means the chamber is cooled and the heat dissipated through its walls recovered. Of this cooling air, again only part is fed through slots into the combustion chamber where it is used for the combustion of the fuel injected through the nozzle. The combustion gases are subsequently mixed with the cooling air emerging from the jacket and with the remainder of the air directly leaving the blower; as a result the temperature of the gas mixture is reduced to a level at which the surrounding metal is unaffected. Finally, the gas mixture expands in the gas turbine, thus delivering the power required to drive the blower. At the same time the exhaust retains sufficient energy to discharge at high velocity through the rear duct opening of the jet propulsion unit of the aircraft, and to furnish the thrust required for the propulsion of the latter.

The Present State of Research on Engine Knock. (F. Dreyhaupt, A.T.Z., Vol. 44, No. 21, 10/11/41, pp. 521-532.) (101/52 Germany.)

From a review of published materials the author draws the following conclusions regarding engine knock :----

Shock waves emanating from the primary flame front cause the unburnt charge to be heated up above adiabatic compression temperature. At first, however, these waves are damped rapidly and the corresponding temperature rise is slight and uniform. Subsequent waves are however sufficiently powerful that their passage initiates a preliminary reaction which at first is flameless, but ultimately gives rise to a secondary flame. This secondary flame is propagated at a higher speed than the primary flame but the speed is still low compared with true detonation. Further secondary zones of combustion may arise due to the formation of intermediate combustion products of lower ignition temperature (induction period).

The ultimate cause of the knock is thus a shock (detonation) wave. This, however, does not lead directly to the knock but only serves to initiate a preliminary chemical reaction of the fuel which utlimately leads to the complete combustion of the hitherto unburnt charge by a high speed "secondary" flame. The author's explanation accounts for two well established experimental facts:— (1) The temperature of the unburnt charge is higher than can be accounted for by ordinary adiabatic compression and (2) the discontinuity in primary and secondary flame speeds at the instant knock arises.

The Compressed Sewage Gas Filling Station at Stuttgart. (W. Ryssel, A.T.Z., Vol. 44, No. 21, 10/11/41, pp. 534-536.) (101/53 Germany.)

The Stuttgart Sewage Farm produces about 90,000 m.³ of methane per day. The gas is passed through a 6 in. pipe to a gas coke plant (distance six miles) where the H_2S is removed and the pure methane stored in a gas holder. From this holder it passes a further $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the pumping station where it is compressed to 350 atmospheres and passed to the adjoining filling station. Four tap-off places are provided, the gas bottles on the vehicles being charged in position. About 200 vehicles are supplied per day, which corresponds to an average supply of 450 m.³ per vehicle (bus or lorry).

Since $I m.^{3}$ of methane is roughly equivalent to I litre of petrol, this means that the equivalent of about 100 gallons of petrol is available per vehicle per day (two fillings of eight array bottles).

The cost of production of the methane at the sewage farm=6.6 pfennig per m.^{*} and the cost of compression=3.9 pfennig (including depreciation of plant, etc.). Counting another pfennig for bottles installed on vehicles, the total cost amounts to 11.5 pfennig per m.³ against a petrol price of 35.5 pfennig per litre. This represents a yearly saving of 250,000 RM. (over £12,000 at par).

Ammonia Acetylene Mixtures for Internal Combustion Engines. (A.T.Z., Vol. 44, No. 21, 10/11/41, pp. 540-541.) (101/54 France.)

Acetylene is soluble in liquid ammonia and under a pressure of 10 atmospheres the mixtures will consist of about 78 per cent. NH_3 and 22 per cent. C_2H_2 on a weight basis, the calorific value being of the order of 6,000 K. cals. per kg. According to French experiments on a 40 h.p. Citroen engine, no particular difficulties in operation with this fuel were experienced, the heat consumption being of the order of 2,250 K. cals./b.h.p. hour against 2,400 K. cals./b.h.p. hour when operating on petrol. As the containers have only to stand a moderate pressure (10 atmospheres at 15°C. and 35 atmospheres at 50°C.) they can be relatively light (1 kg. dead weight per kg. of content). The main drawback is the high cost of the fuel. Although the French report gives no details, the German reviewer estimates the prices of 1 kg. of NH_3 and C_2H_2 to be 80 pfennig and 210 pfennig respectively. With petrol at 58 pfennig per kg., this means that the ammonia-acetylene operation per b.h.p. hour comes out three to four times as expensive as petrol operation.

Producer Gas for Road Transport. (B. Réid, The Railway Gazette, 1941, price 6/-.) (The Engineer, Vol. 173, No. 4,493, 20/2/42, p. 161.) (101/55 U.S.A.)

At one time it was thought that the producer gas vehicle would be a common object on our highways. When the articles which are here reprinted were first published, less than a thousand producers were in service and twice that number under construction. That is a long way from the target of 10,000 which had been visualised, and even that number would still leave the producer vehicle almost a rarity. The reason for this lack of interest is probably to be found mainly in the fact that the supplies of liquid fuel are almost adequate for the reduced services; that the over-all economy of producer vehicles is sketchy and uncertain; and that all the technical problems—particularly that of filtering the gas—have not been solved. Mr. Brian Reed deals very clearly with the various aspects of his subject, both economical and technical, and vehicle users should welcome this reprint. The producer gas vehicle has proved itself; it may have a future after the war; that will depend upon the success of engineers in overcoming certain defects, particularly in the larger sizes, and more still upon the price of appropriate fuels.

Composition of Catalytically Cracked Petrols. (J. R. Bates and others, Ind. and Eng. Chem. (Ind. Ed.), Vol. 34, No. 2, Feb., 1942, pp. 147-152.) (101/56 U.S.A.)

Since the advent of commercial catalytic cracking of petroleum to produce petrol there has been much speculation concerning the reason for the high octane number of this material as a motor fuel in comparison with fuels produced by thermal cracking, and those produced from the virgin crude by simple distillation. The work presented here shows that this high octane is due to the presence of a large excess of isoparaffins over normal paraffins in the lower boiling portions of the petrol and to a high content of aromatic compounds in the high boiling fractions. These relations are not affected by the olefin content of the petrol which may vary over a wide range with varying conditions of cracking.

Liquefaction of Methane Gas Investigated in Italy. (Industry and Engineering Chemistry (News Ed.), Vol. 20, No. 4, 25/2/42, p.280.) (101/57 Italy.)

Liquefaction of methane gas has been studied in laboratories of the Italian State Railways. It is reported that the problems involved are difficult to solve because of the complicated and costly plant required. Meanwhile investigations into problems of the methane gas engine have also been conducted by the National Motor Institute at Naples.

There are considerable natural deposits of methane gas in Italy. The more important ones are those in Parma province, Tuscany, Emilia, and Romagna which are developed by the Ente Nazionale Metano, a 20,000,000 lire company formed in 1940. The gas is carried in pipe lines to Florence and Bologna. Construction of a large circuit has been proposed connecting Ferrara, Padua, Milan, and Turin with a long pipe line which would also be able to draw on the extensive though rather scattered deposits in the Po Valley. Most of the gas used at present is still being carried in chrome-molybdenum steel cylinders with a capacity of 30 to 50 cubic meters. There are about 75,000 of these, but because of the time taken up by filling, storing, and transporting, only one in ten of these cylinders is in actual use at any given time. More containers cannot be manufactured at present because of the shortage of metals. The Italian methane gas production was estimated at 26,000,000 cubic meters for 1940. One cubic meter of methane gas is said to be equivalent to 1.5 litres of petrol.

Inertia of Dynamic Pressure Arrays. (H. Weidemann, L.F.F., Vol. 17, pp. 211-215, No. 7, 20/7/40.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. 998.) (101/58 Germany.)

There is a certain time lag in dynamic pressure changes before they are visible to the pilot on the indicator dial. This lag depends upon the size of the employed tubing and the characteristics of the indicating instrument. A new mathematical term "pneumatic time constant," which depends only on the dimensions of the tubing and of the indicator, enables the comparison of different dynamic pressure arrays. The pneumatic time constant is an indication of the inertia of a dynamic pressure array and is, in its structure, exactly like the electric time constant and indicates the time rate in which the test quantity has decreased to its eth part, or the time rate after which it has built up to 1/e of its final value. This time constant is therefore an indication of the inertia of the compensating process and hence is defined as " the inertia." Viewed electrically, the formula for the time constant is given by :—

$$t' = RC$$
 seconds $\begin{pmatrix} R = \text{resistance} \\ C = \text{capacity} \end{pmatrix}$

With R^* as the flow resistance of the tubing, and C^* as the capacity of the aneroid capsule, "the inertia" of the dynamic pressure system becomes

 $t' = R * C^*$ seconds.

Rate of Icing Recorders. (E. Brun and E. Vassy, Pub. Scient. and Techn. du Secretariat d'Etat à l'Aviation, B.S.T. No. 95.) (101/59 France.)

Two types of instruments are described. In the first, a wire is mounted in close proximity to and parallel to the axis of an electrically-heated wing profile. The combination is pivoted near the nose of the profile and exposed symmetrically to the relative wind. Ice deposits on the wire lead to an increase in drag which causes the combination to deflect about the pivot axis. After a fixed time interval, the wire is de-iced by means of an electric current and the process repeated. In the second type of recorder, a hollow drum is rotated slowly about an axis perpendicular to the relative wind. A stationary electric heater placed eccentrically inside the drum towards the rear ensures that the trailing edge of the cylinder is kept clear of ice. The increase in thickness of deposit over the front of the cylinder is recorded optically (gradual screening of a photo-electric cell).

As an alternative to this device, the central section of the drum may be omitted, the two end plates being rotated independently and acting as an electrical condenser, the capacity of which depends on the thickness of the ice deposit. Fixed internal heaters inside the rotating plates again ensure that the trailing edges of the plates are kept clear of ice.

All the three devices described above have been tested in a refrigerated wind tunnel but no flight tests have so far been carried out. In the author's opinion, the condenser type (described last) is the most likely to give practical results on an aircraft.

A New Electron Microscope Technique for Studies on Grain Structure of Metals. (J. Frank. Inst., Vol. 233, No. 2, February, 1942, p. 180.) (101/60 U.S.A.)

Ordinarily, specimens to be viewed in the electron microscope are mounted on an extremely thin film of transparent collodion for direct examination. The new technique developed by R.C.A. Laboratories involves the making of an exact replica of the metal's grain structure in collodion. The replica, of about one-half inch of etched metal surface, is made in three steps. A layer of silver is first evaporated on to the metal surface, thick enough to be stripped off mechanically. Then a drop of collodion dissolved in amyl acetate is sprayed on the under side of the silver, filling over the changes in profile in the silver service. The silver is then dissolved in dilute nitric acid, leaving the collodion layer intact. This positive replica in collodion is mounted on the microscope. Variations in the thickness of the replica correspond to the irregularities in the original metal surface, and are reproduced on the screen or photographic plate in the microscope as variations in brightness. Electrical Equipment for the Experimental Study of the Dynamics of Fluids. (C. Ferrari, Soc. Ital. Progresso della Scienze, Rome, 1938.) (R.T.P. Translation T.M. No. 1,006.) (101/61 Italy.)

The major part of this report deals with the hot wire anemometer and its application to ordinary air speed and direction measurements, as well as its employment in research on turbulence (correlation factor).

The remainder of the paper describes a condenser type of electric dynamometer specially adapted for measuring the forces acting on an aerofoil or complete model undergoing rotation in a wind tunnel (e.g., spinning). The shaft to which the rotating model is fixed is mounted on two ball bearings carried on a wire suspension consisting of a set of vertical and horizontal wires for each bearing. The horizontal pull on each wire is transmitted to a condenser forming part of an electric oscillatory circuit, enabling the force (but not its phase angle) to be measured directly on a galvanometer. The phase angle is subsequently determined by subjecting the suspension system to the action of a known couple (by the addition of out of balance weights rotating with the shaft) and measuring the combined aerodynamic and mechanical response.

Although alternative spinning balances of a completely mechanical type (such as the N.A.C.A. balance) can be employed, the author states that the electrical dynamometer is much simpler. Moreover, the mechanical spinning balance is only feasible when used in conjunction with a special vertical wind tunnel, whilst the electric type can be readily installed in normal horizontal tunnels.

A New Instrument for Celestial Navigation. (N. W. Storer, J. Aeron. Sci., Vol. 9, No. 4, Feb., 1942, pp. 138-142.) (101/62 U.S.A.)

An instrument is described in which a pair of mirrors and a prism deflect the light of two particular stars into a telescope in such a manner that, when the images of the two are seen superimposed in the centre of the field of view, the telescope axis must be pointing directly at the celestial pole. The angular elevation of the telescope is then equivalent to the latitude, and the rotational position of the mirror combination about the telescope axis shows the sidereal time. The direction of gravity may be indicated either by a bubble cell or by a pendulum stabilised in some manner. A preliminary model, making use of a bubble, has given a probable error of one setting of about 0.1° in both latitude and longitude, successive readings being separated by less than two minutes of time.

Recent Advances in Physics. (T. H. Osgood and R. B. Bowersox, Ind. and Eng. Chem. (News Ed.), Vol. 4, No. 3, 10/2/42, pp. 178-178.) (101/63 U.S.A.)

The following developments are selected as of interest to the engineer.

(1) It is important to the physicist and the metallurgist to know the rate of diffusion of atoms of one material through another or of one material through itself, in the solid state. Carburisation of steel, rates of hardening, and heat treatment of castings all depend on this diffusion process. Progress is being made toward measurement of these rates by means of radioactive tracer isotopes. These isotopes disintegrate after a relatively short period with the emission of alpha or beta particles or gamma rays, which may be detected by Geiger-Muller counters or an ionisation chamber and serve to indicate the presence of the tracer. Many of the radioactive isotopes can now be obtained in commercial quantities, and more than 350 such isotopes of the stable elements are known.

(2) Several methods of attack are open to the research worker who wishes to examine a surface under the high magnification possible with the electron microscope.

V. K. Zworykin and E. G. Ramberg of the R.C.A. Research Laboratories have reported a new method involving the preparation of a thin replica of the surface.

This replica may then be investigated with the transmission-type electron microscope. A thick layer of metal (silver) is evaporated on the surface in question and then stripped off. Collodion is applied to this negative replica surface, and the metal is dissolved away from the collodion by means of acid. This leaves a thin positive collodion replica of the original surface whose ridges and hollows may be deduced from the density of the final photograph. The density at a point on the photograph is inversely proportional to the thickness of the collodion film at the correspondence point, so that a bright spot on the photograph would represent a high spot on the original surface.

Some Notes on the Experiments with the Artificial Horizon, with Special Reference to the Sperry Type. (K. Magnus, L.F.F., Vol. 19, No. 2, 20/3/42, pp. 23-43.) (101/64 Germany.)

After discussing the various methods available for controlling the position of the axis of a gyro horizon subjected to precession, the case of the Sperry instrument is considered in detail. This artificial horizon owes its directional properties to the reaction of four air jets, the nozzles of which are controlled by small gravity pendulums. These nozzles are either fully open or fully closed when the horizon departs by $\pm 2^{\circ}$ from the mean position of the pendulums, and for deflection greater than this the restoring force is thus constant. The author describes a simple graphical method by means of which the deviation curve of the horizon can be obtained for any aircraft path consisting of a succession of circular arcs. The rate of turn giving the maximum error is given by

$$W_{\rm crit} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2 \ dg}{v}\right)}$$

where

v = path speed. d = precision speed due to nozzle moments.g = 0.0028/sec. for particular Sperry instrument tested.

At 350 m.p.h., the maximum deflection from the true vertical is of the order of 15° and the instrument takes about two minutes to recover.

The error can be reduced by reducing the nozzle moment and increasing the impulse of the rotor. As an alternative, the number of nozzles can be increased. Thus by fitting eight gravity controlled nozzles instead of the standard four, the author was able to reduce the maximum error by 20 per cent.

A Novel Type of Directional Antenna System. (H. Pigge, H.F.T., Vol. 54, No. 6, December, 1939, pp. 190-194.) (101/65 Germany.)

As is well known, directional propagation of high frequency radiation is obtained whenever the radiation fields of the antenna elements are caused to interfere along predetermined paths. This is usually achieved by a suitable distribution of a series of currents of the same amplitude and phase over a real or virtual plane surface, differences in the various solutions being confined to the particular feed method adopted.

The solution proposed by the author (patented in 1937) is based on the voltage distribution on dipoles of resonance length, a special system of feeding both the single radiation as well as their combination (conductor and reflector dipoles) ensuring directional propagation.

It is claimed that the method simplified the arrangements required for optimum energy input and also leads to structural simplicity of the array. After a detailed discussion of the directional properties of such dipole combinations, the radiation diagram, radiation resistance and feed are calculated for a typical example and compared with experimental results, the agreement being satisfactory.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0368393100140635 Published online by Cambridge University Press

Training of Aeronautical Engineers in Germany. (Inter. Avia., No. 807, 16/3/42, p. 9.) (101/66 Germany.)

The German Ministry of Education issued new regulations concerning the curriculum and the examinations at German Technical Colleges already at the beginning of 1940; they have been published in print only recently. In aeronautical subjects, as well as in subjects of machine engineering, electroengineering or shipbuilding, the candidates must attend at least seven terms; to obtain admittance to the three final terms, students must pass a preliminary examination. In addition, practical experience of at least one year is required, half of which must be accomplished before the beginning of the studies, the other half between terms. At the Institute of Technology at Vienna and Graz there exist training workshops, the attendance at which during a period of six months may be counted as the first half of the required period of practical experience. Among aeronautical subjects a student may specialize on one of three, namely, airframe design and construction, engine design and construction, or aeroplane piloting and control. All the German Technical Colleges provide courses up to the preliminary examination: the final training period in all aeronautical subjects can be accomplished either at Berlin or Brunswick; the study of airframe design and construction may be completed, furthermore, also at the Technical Colleges of Aix-la-Chapelle, Breslau, Danzig, Darmstadt, Munich, Stuttgart, and Vienna.

American Aircraft Production (Figures and Estimates). (Inter. Avia., No. 808-809, 28/3/42, pp. 1-9.) (101/67 U.S.A.)

Official statistics on the production of American aircraft material have only been published up to September 1941. Making reasonable assumptions for the remaining three months of that year, the author estimates that a total of 20,000 aircraft, 30,000 engines (1,000 hp. or more each) and less than 30,000 v.p. propellers were produced during the whole of 1941. The 20,000 aircraft included about 11,000 combat machines of which 6,500 were exported (mainly to G.B.). According to an official statement of the Aeronautical Chamber of Commerce, by the end of 1941, the aircraft labour force amounted to 390,000 persons, and the factory space to 46 million sq. ft.

For 1942 and 1943, annual production of 45,000 and 100,000 combat machines are aimed at. As long ago as 1940, T. P. Wright estimated that a labour force of 800,000 persons and a factory space of 90 million square feet would be required for an annual output of 50,000 aircraft. In addition to the construction of new plants, a prodigious expansion of the already vast American motor-car Industry is thus called for,

German Technical Exhibitions. (Inter. Avia., No. 808-809, 28/3/42, p. 15.) (101/68 Germany.)

An important part of the subcontracting system employed in the German munitions industry, particuarly in the aircraft industry, is formed by permanent regional "contract exchanges" organized in large German industrial centres. A central German contract exchange was inaugurated in Berlin on 11-12-41. In the aircraft industry the system has now been elaborated—an aeronautical technical exhibition has been added to this central exchange. In this manner, manufacturers able to accept sub-contracts are made familiar with the components to be produced. By closing down a large proportion of the manufacturing facilities formerly engaged in civilian work, it is anticipated that large new manufacturing resources will be made available.

German Labour Force. (Inter. Avia., No. 810-811, 8/4/42, p. 13.) (101/69 Germany.)

Reports on the German Four-year plan give a certain indication of the labour force employed in the German industry. Before the outbreak of war, the German

workers employed in the Reich totalled approximately 24,500,000, strengthened already at that time by about 500,000 foreign workers. In spite of this record employment, a shortage of 500,000 workers existed already then. The outbreak of war and the attendant mobilization caused a severe strain on the labour supply; a small portion of the labour loss as a result of the call-ups was replaced by diverting workers from the industry operating for civilian purposes to the munitions industry; the difficulties were augmented also by the fact that contrary to expectations the availability of female labour dropped at the beginning of the war. According to the author the following new labour reservoirs have been tapped in the meantime: 1,300,000 female workers added since the beginning of the war; 2,140,000 foreign workers added from 25 countries; these are augmented by approximately 1,600,000 prisoners of war working for the German war effort; the latter figure may shortly be increased by the employment of Soviet-Russian prisoners.

LIST OF SELECTED TRANSLATIONS.

No. 44.

Note.—Applications for the loan of copies of translations mentioned below should be addressed to the Secretary (R.T.P.3), Ministry of Aircraft production, and not to the Royal Aeronautical Society. Copies will be loaned as far as availability of stocks permits. Suggestions concerning new translations will be considered in relation to general interest and facilities available.

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

ARMAMENT AND THEORY OF WARFARE.

| ľ | RANSLATION NUMBER | | |
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| | AND AUTHOR. | | TITLE. |
| 1423 | Frey, F | ••• | On the Calculation of the Impact Force of Bombs. (S.T.Z., No. 24, 13/6/40, pp. 293-294.) |
| 1430 | Heinkel, E | ••• | Anti-Dazzle Devices in Cockpits (Digest). (German Patent 691,758, Flugsport, 3/7/40, p. 109.) |
| | | | Aerodynamics. |
| 1426 | Dudakov, V. | • • • | Faster Than Sound (the Problem of Supersonic Flight). (Aeroplane, U.S.S.R., Vol. 18, No. 1, January, 1941, pp. 13-14.) |
| 1446 | Söhngen, H. | ••• | Lift Distribution Corresponding to Arbitrary Non- Steady Motion (Two-Dimensional). (L.F.F., Vol. 17, No. 11-12, 10/12/1940, pp. 401-420.) |
| | | | AIRCRAFT AND GLIDERS. |
| 1422 | Wenke, H | ••• | Simple Derivation of Equations for the Take-off and Landing Process. (Luftwissen, Vol. 8, No. 3, March, 1941, pp. 91-95.) |
| 1.427 | | ••• | Towing Rope Head with Conical Attachment for Ropes Provided with Internal Electrical Leads. (German Patent No. 713,058, Flugsport, Vol. 34, No. 1, 7/1/42, p. 84.) |
| | | | AIRSCREWS. |
| 1429 | Cordes, G | ••• | The Importance of the Aerodynamic Moment on the Blade in Variable Pitch Mechanisms. (L.F.F., Vol. 18, No. 11, 20/11/41, pp. 373-377.) |

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| 1440 | Lorénzelli, E | The Calculation of the Bending Vibration Frequency of the Rotating Airscrew Blade. (L'Aerotecnica, Vol. 20, No. 11, November, 1940, pp. 815-833.) |
| | | Engines. |
| 1432 | Petchenko | Starting Engines at Low Temperatures. (Air Fleet News, U.S.S.R., Vol. 19, No. 1, Jan., 1937, pp. 36-37.) |
| 1433 | Geiger, J | Engines Stresses Induced by Rapid Pressure Rise and Fuel Knock, (A.T.Z., Vol. 44, 10/7/41, pp. 327-335.) |
| 1438 | Skuridin, A. A | Ignition Apparatus for Starting Engines in Winter. (Civil Aviation, U.S.S.R., Vol. 9, No. 10, Octo- ber, 1939, pp. 21-23.) |
| | | SUPERCHARGERS. |
| I 425 | Pfau, H | Effect of the Performance of Individual Stages on the Overall Characteristics of Multi-Stage Super- chargers. (Jahrbuch d. deutsch., L.F.F., 1938, Vol. 2, pp. 196-202.) |
| 1445 | Null, v. d. W. | Exhaust Turbo Superchargers for Aero Engines. (Z.V.D.I., Vol. 85, No. 43-44, 1/11/1941, pp. 847-857.) |
| | | Gyroscopic Instruments. |
| 1428 | Mayorov, S. A. | Operation of Gyroscopic Instruments at High Altitude. (Civil Aviation, U.S.S.R., Vol. 9, Sept., 1939, pp. 25-26.) |
| 1435 | Wintergerst, S | The Behaviour of Single Gyroscopic Systems in Flight. (Z.V.D.I., Vol. 84, No. 2, 13/1/1940, pp. 30-38.) |
| | | MATERIALS. |
| 1421 | Nitsche, R Salewski, E | The Influence of Temperature on the Strength of Plastics (2nd Report). (Kunstoffe, Vol. 31, No. 11, November, 1941, pp. 381-388.) |
| 1424 | | Commen Anasifaction Shaata (Comming Contain |
| | ···· ··· ··· | Light Alloys). |
| 1434 | Bungardt, W Schaitberger, G | German Specification Sneets (Covering Certain Light Alloys). Wrought Alloys of Aluminium Zinc Magnesium Capable of Age Hardening. (L.F.F., Vol. 18, No. 1, 28/2/41, pp. 26-31.) |
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| 1434 1437 | Bungardt, W Schaitberger, G Nitsche, R Salewski, E | German Specification Sneets (Cobering Certain Light Alloys). Wrought Alloys of Aluminium Zinc Magnesium Capable of Age Hardening. (L.F.F., Vol. 18, No. 1, 28/2/41, pp. 26-31.) The Influence of Temperature on the Strength of Plastics (1st Report). (Kunstoffe, Vol. 29, No. 8, August, 1939, pp. 209-220.) WIRELESS. |

TITLES AND REFERENCES OF ARTICLES AND PAPERS SELECTED FROM PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED IN R.T.P.3 DURING MARCH, 1942.

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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| 3 | 1022 | Netherlands | Torpedo Dropping from Aircraft (from the Dutch). (Luftwissen, Vol. 8, No. 12, Dec., 1941, p. 388.) |
| 4 | 1030 | G.B | Avro Lancaster Heavy Bomber (Four Engines). (Inter. Avia., No. 798, 4/1/42, pp. 11-12.) |
| 5 | 1031 | Australia | Wackett CA-4 Medium Bomber. (Inter. Avia., No. 798, 4/1/42, p. 12.) |
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| 8 | 1036 | Germany | Focke Wulf Kurier I and II. (Inter. Avia., No. 798, 4/1/42, pp. 15-16.) |
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| 52 | 1143 | G.B | ••• | Westland Whirlwind Two-Motor Single-Seat Fighter. (Aeroplane, Vol. 62, No. 1,605, |
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| 55 | 1146 | G.B | ••• | Beaufighter II. (Aeroplane, Vol. 62, No. 1,605, |
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| 57 | 1148 | U.S.A. | •• | Vol. 02, No. 1,005, 27/2/42, p. 231.) Glenn Martin "Mars" Flying Boat (Photograph). (Aeroplane, Vol. 62, No. 1,605, 27/2/42, p. 232.) |

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| 59 | 1150 | Italy | CR. 42 Freccia Single-Seat Fighter (Photograph). (Aeroplane Vol. 62 No. 1 for 27/2/42 p. 222) |
| 6 0 | 1151 | G.B | Whitley V and Bombay I (Recognition Details). (Aeroplane, Vol. 62, No. 1,605, $27/2/42$, pp. 235.) |
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| 68 | 1192 | Germany | Arado AR. 196 Reconnaissance Seaplane. (Flugsport, Vol. 34, No. 3, 4/2/42, pp. 35-39.) |
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| 77 | 1255 | Germany | Locating Objects at Sea by Aircraft—The Method of Expanding Square Sweeps. (Aeroplane, Vol. 62, No. 1,606, 6/3/42, pp. 274-275.) |
| 78 | 1259 | G.B | Westland Whirlwind (Twin-Engined, Four-Cannon Fighter). (Flight, Vol. 41, No. 1,732, 5/3/42, pp. 194-196.) |

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| 83 | 1269 | G.B | | No. 1,732, 5/3/42, p. 206.) Reinforced Concrete Structures in Air Attack. (Engineering, Vol. 152, No. 3,954, 24/10/41, p. 228.) |
| 84 | 1 276 | G.B | | Defiant Two-Seater Fighter. (Airc. Prod., Vol. 4, No. 41. March 1042, pp. 224-228.) |
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| 96 | 1314 | U.S.A. | | No. 1,507, 13/3/42, p. 289.) North American N.A. 40B (B. 25B) Attack Bomber (Photograph). (Aeroplane, Vol. 62, No. 1,607, |
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| 105 | 1352 | U.S.A | Air Raid Damage on American Flying Fields (Photograph). (American Aviation, Vol. 5, No. |
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| 106 | 1353 | U.S.A | U.S. Cargo Plane Proposals. (American Aviation, Vol. 5, No. 15, 1/1/42, pp. 34-35, 38.) |
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| 108 | *1411 | Switzerland | Aircraft and Torpedo (with a List of Representa- tive Types). (Inter. Avia., No. 796-797, 20/12/41, DD. 1-4) |
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| 113 | 1417 | G.B | British Long Range Bombers (Stirling, Halifax and Manchester), (Inter. Avia., No. 796-797, |
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| 119 | 1427 | U.S.A | No. 794-795, 13/12/41, p. 18.) Taylorcraft 70-57 Liaison Plane. (Inter. Avia., No. |
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| 121 | *1431 | G.B./ Germany | Comparison of British and German Fighter Arma- ment. (Inter. Avia., No. 794-795, 13/12/41, pp. 19-22.) |
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| 124 | 1437 | G.B | Avro Manchester (Photograph). (Autom. Ind., Vol. 86, No. 2, 15/1/42, p. 33.) |

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| 127 | 1445 | G.B | ••• | Vol. 62, No. 1,608, 20/3/42, p. 314.) Bristol Beaufort II Torpedo Bomber (Photograph). (Aeroplane, Vol. 62, No. 1,608, 20/3/42, p. 318.) |
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| 129 | 1447 | Japan | ••• | Japanese Naval Air Force. (Aeroplane, Vol. 62, No. 1.608, 20/3/42, p. 324.) |
| 130 | 1449 | U.S.A. | | Vought Sikorsky VS. 44A Flying Boat Excalibur (Photograph). (Aeroplane, Vol 62, No. 1,608, 20/2/42, D. 328.) |
| 131 | 1467 | G.B | | British Long Range Bombers Stirling and Halifax. (Inter. Avia., No. 805, 27/2/42, pp. 9-10.) |
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| 139 | 1482 | Germany _ | ••• | Messerschmitt Me. 208. (Inter. Avia., No. 803-804, 19/2/42, p. 13.) |
| 140 | 1483 | France | ••• | Bloch 157 Fighter. (Inter. Avia., No. 803-804, 19/2/42, p. 14.) |
| 141 | 1486 | G.B | ••• | Short Stirling. (Inter. Avia., No. 803-804, 19/2/42, pp. 15-16.) |
| 142 | 1495 | U.S.A. | | Standard Equipment of U.S. Aircraft Carriers (SBD-1, F4F-3, TBD-1) (Photograph). (Inter. Avia., No. 806, 9/3/42, pp. 1, 11.) |
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| 146 | 1499 | France | ••• | Bloch 161 and 162 (Four-Engined Commercial and Bomber). (Inter. Avia., No. 806, 9/3/42, p. 8.) |
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