

T.O.M. Reel 250
BM 36

TABLE OF CONTENTS

- 1 Translation of Dr. Sachse's Memorandum on "Dibutin as an Additive for Diesel Oils.
- 2 Composition of Alumina Cement for Methane Splitting Catalyst.
- 3 Retake of Frames 957-962 of T.O.M. Reel 165 on High Pressure Viscosimeters by Hamacher (in German).
- 4 English Translation T-311 prepared by Bureau of Mines of Hamacher's Report.
- 5 Magnetische Sättigungsmessungen und ihre Anwendung bei Aufgaben der Eisenhuttenkunde - Von Karl Mathieu
Archiv für das Eisenhüttenwesen 16, Jahrgang Heft 10/April 1943
pages 415-423.
- 6 New Studies on Lubricating Capacity and Its Measurement by J. Kluge
Translation issued by Ministry of Supply.
- 7 Molecular-Physical Processes Occurring in Lubrication by L. Wolf
Translation issued by Ministry of Supply.
- 8 Koppers Powdered Coal Gasification Process by Harold V. Atwell.
FIAT Final Report 1303
- 9 Gumz Powdered Coal Gasification Process by Harold V. Atwell.
FIAT Final Report 1304
- 10 The Schmalfeldt Process for Making Synthesis-Gas from Methane by
Harold V. Atwell. FIAT Final Report 1305.
- 11 Subject Index of Documents Microfilmed at I. G. Farbenindustrie
A. G. Hoechst, by A. P. Bradshaw and B. W. Keith. FIAT Final Report 1187
- 12 Report by Dr. Eric Peter on the Montan Wax Industry.

1

Translation of Dr. Sachse's Memo

on

Dibutin

Oppau, 28 May 1947

Dibutin is a fuel additive for Diesel oils and consists of 30 parts by weight butanon peroxide and 100 parts by weight Diesel fuel.

The butanon peroxide is prepared from methyl ethyl ketone and hydrogen peroxide. It is a very explosive substance. (At one time, the experimental laboratory blew up and the man working on the preparation of butanon peroxide was killed. Records concerning these early experiments are available here (i.e. Oppau, Transl.).

On the basis of our own laboratory experience the mixture of butanon peroxide and Diesel oil called "Dibutin" appears to be quite safe. The ignition velocity of Dibutin corresponds to a cetane number of 200 which means that the addition of 1% Dibutin improves the cetane value by two units. The various tests performed here showed that the motor properties of Dibutin treated Diesel fuels were improved. However, the mixture has no storage stability and it was found that fuel filters with brass wire nets were corroded after prolonged operation.

The experiments were discontinued because:

- a) the handling of butanon peroxide was too dangerous and
- b) the lack of stability of Dibutin.



Forward file to R Frank and to H H Storch

Received MAY 28 1947

FOREIGN SYNTHETIC
LIQUID FUELS DIVISION

OFFICE OF MILITARY GOVERNMENT FOR GERMANY (US)

Field Information Agency, Technical

*Copy sent to CIO 12/1947
Chemical June 12/1947 SGM*

MAY 26 1947

Mail Address:
7748 FIAT, c/o EUCOM, Frankfurt,
APO 757,
c/o Postmaster, New York, N. Y.

DI 350.09-87 (FIAT) J.5

16 May 1947

SUBJECT: Alumina Cement for Methane Splitting Catalyst

TO : Technical Industrial Intelligence Division
Office of Technical Services
Room 6829 Commerce Building
Department of Commerce
Washington 25, D.C.

Attention: Dr. L.L. Newman, Chief,
Fuels & Lubricants

1. Reference is made to your letter dated 15 January 1947.
We have just received the information on the alumina cement used in
the preparation of methane splitting catalyst.

2. The cement comes from the firm Pavin & Lafarge, Marseille,
France.

3. The composition of the cement is as follows:

Fe ₂ O ₃	14.4 %
Al ₂ O ₃	37.0 %
TiO ₂	2.2 %
MgO	0.3 %
CaO	35.7 %
SiO ₂	6.0 %
CO ₂	1.1 %
P ₂ O ₅	0.2 %
K ₂ O	0.1 %
SO ₄	0.3 %
Ignition residue	3.1 %

4. It is suggested that you contact the firm of Pavin & Lafarge
in Marseille for any additional information you may need.

Ralph M. Osborne
RALPH M. OSBORNE
Colonel FA
Chief, FIAT (US)

3

Hochdruckversuche
Lu 558

27 März 1943

Betr. Hochdruck-Viskosimeter.

Es wird immer wieder der Wunsch nach einem Viskosimeter laut, mit dem die Zähigkeit von Kohlebrei unter hohen Drücken und bei hohen Temperaturen gemessen werden kann. Eine Lösung des Problems besteht meines Wissens noch nicht. Primitive Anordnungen, die hier nebenbei ausprobiert wurden, funktionierten nicht.

Nach Prüfung der aus der Viskositätmetrie her bekannten Messverfahren scheinen mir deren zwei für die Hochdruckausführung am besten geeignet zu sein.
Es ist dies

- 1) das Verfahren, aus der Geschwindigkeit eines fallenden Körpers auf die Zähigkeit des umgebenden Mediums zu schliessen und
 - 2) das durch die Flüssigkeit übertragene Drehmoment als Viskositätsmaß zu benutzen
- 1) Für die Ausführung des Verfahrens 1) wird meistens eine Stahlkugel verwendet, die man in der zu messenden Flüssigkeit fallen lässt.

Zur Ermittlung der Viskosität dient das Gesetz von Stokes.

$$\eta = \frac{2}{9} \times 981 r^2 \frac{\rho_K - \rho}{v} \left(1 + 2,4 \frac{r}{R} \right)$$

ρ_K, ρ = Dichten des Kugelmaterials bzw. der Flüssigkeit

v = Sinkgeschwindigkeit der Kugel

r = Radius der Kugel

R = Radius des Fallzylinders.

Die Formel gilt nur für zentrischen Fall der Kugel durch das Rohr. Zur Vermeidung unkontrollierbarer Abweichungen hat man das Fallrohr auch schräg gelegt und lässt die Kugel an der Wandung hinabgleiten.

Bei der Ausführung für die Hochdrucktechnik könnten wir auf diese letzten Feinheiten zunächst wohl verzichten und das Rohr senkrecht anordnen. Die beiliegende Handskizze 3 zeigt, wie die Hochdruckausführung gedacht ist. Das Fallrohr wird entweder vor Beginn einer Massreihe mit Kohlebrei aufgefüllt, unter Wasserstoffdruck gesetzt und aufgeheizt oder es wird in die Kohlebreileitung, die zum Ofen führt, eingeschaltet. Das letzte Verfahren hat den Vorteil, dass man am Eingang und am Ausgang die

Temperatur des Kohlebreis messen kann und so auf Temperaturmessungen im Fallrohr selbst verzichten kann.

Die Kugel hängt mittels eines Stahldrahtes genügender Steifigkeit an einem kleinen Eisenanker, der von dem Elektromagneten (Haltespule) festgehalten wird. Nach Unterbrechen des Stromes der Haltespule fällt der Anker ab und die Kugel beginnt im Kohlebrei abzusinken. Der Moment der Stromunterbrechung wird gestoppt. Mit gleicher Geschwindigkeit wie die Kugel bewegt sich der am oberen Ende des Stahldrahtes befestigte Anker durch das unmagnetische V₂A-Rohr, das aussen die von Standmessungen her bekannten mit Kondensatoren in Spannungsresonanz geschalteten Spulen trägt und lässt beim Durchgang durch die Spulen die zugehörigen Glühlampen jeweils kurz aufleuchten, sodass man in der Lage ist, die Fallzeit abzustoppen. Eine oder zwei solcher Anzeigespulen am unteren Ende des V₂A-Rohres würden auch genügen, wodurch das Hantieren mit der nachfolgend beschriebenen Zugspule erleichtert würde.

Soll der Versuch wiederholt werden, so muss die Kugel nach oben gebracht werden; dazu dient eine besondere Zugspule, die über das V₂A-Rohr geschoben und dann von Hand gesenkt und wieder gehoben wird. Die inzwischen wieder eingeschaltete Haltespule hält den Anker fest bis zur nächsten Auslösung.

Vorteile: Verwendung bekannter Bau-Elemente wie Standmessungsspulen; keine Federn und andere empfindliche Teile im Hochdruckraum.

Nachteile: keine laufende Anzeige.

2) Das zweite Verfahren, das auf der Übertragung eines Drehmoments durch die Flüssigkeit auf einen Messkörper beruht, geht auf Couette zurück. Die Flüssigkeit befindet sich zwischen zwei konzentrierten Zylindern, deren äusserer mit bekannter Winkelgeschwindigkeit gedreht wird.

Ist M, das auf den inneren Zylinder wirkende Drehmoment, so ist die Zähigkeit

$$\eta = \frac{\mu}{4\pi L \omega} \left(\frac{1}{R_i^2} - \frac{1}{R_o^2} \right)$$

Die Handskizzen 1 und 2 zeigen, in welcher Weise das Verfahren in der Hochdrucktechnik verwendet werden könnte. Der innere Zylinder wird von einem regelbaren Motor ausserhalb des Hochdruckraumes angetrieben. Der Messkörper, auf den das Drehmoment übertragen wird, hängt an einer langen Spindel, die durch ein gekühltes Rohr zu einem Gehänge führt. Das Gehänge (siehe Skizze 2) ist auf einer Spitze drehbar gelagert und trägt einen Kontaktarm, der auf einem Ferngeber (Toroidwicklung) schleift. Das Gegendrehmoment wird von einer Spiralfeder geliefert. Feder und Ferngeber sind in einem kalten Teil des Hochdruckapparates untergebracht. Sie sind nach Abnehmen der druckfesten Koppe zugänglich. Da der Drehwinkel auf etwas weniger als 180° beschränkt ist, ist hier eine Umschaltmöglichkeit auf

verschiedene Messbereiche notwendig. Ohne Unterbrechung des Versuches gibt es dazu nur die eine Möglichkeit der Drehzahländerung des Antriebsmotors. Damit sich der Kohlebrei im rotierenden Topf stetig erneuert, sind im Boden des Topfes Löcher vorgesehen. Der Ablauf befindet sich in der Höhe des gewünschter Niveaus. So kann der Stand des Kohlebreies im Drehtopf nie zu niedrig, allenfalls bei zu engem Auslauf zu hoch werden, wird sich aber bei gesperrtem Zulauf immer auf die verlangte Höhe einstellen.

Vorteile: Laufende Anzeige der Viskosität.

Nachteile: Komplizierter Aufbau, Verwendung empfindlicher Teile wie Spiralfedern und elektr. Ferngeber.

(signed) Harscher

960

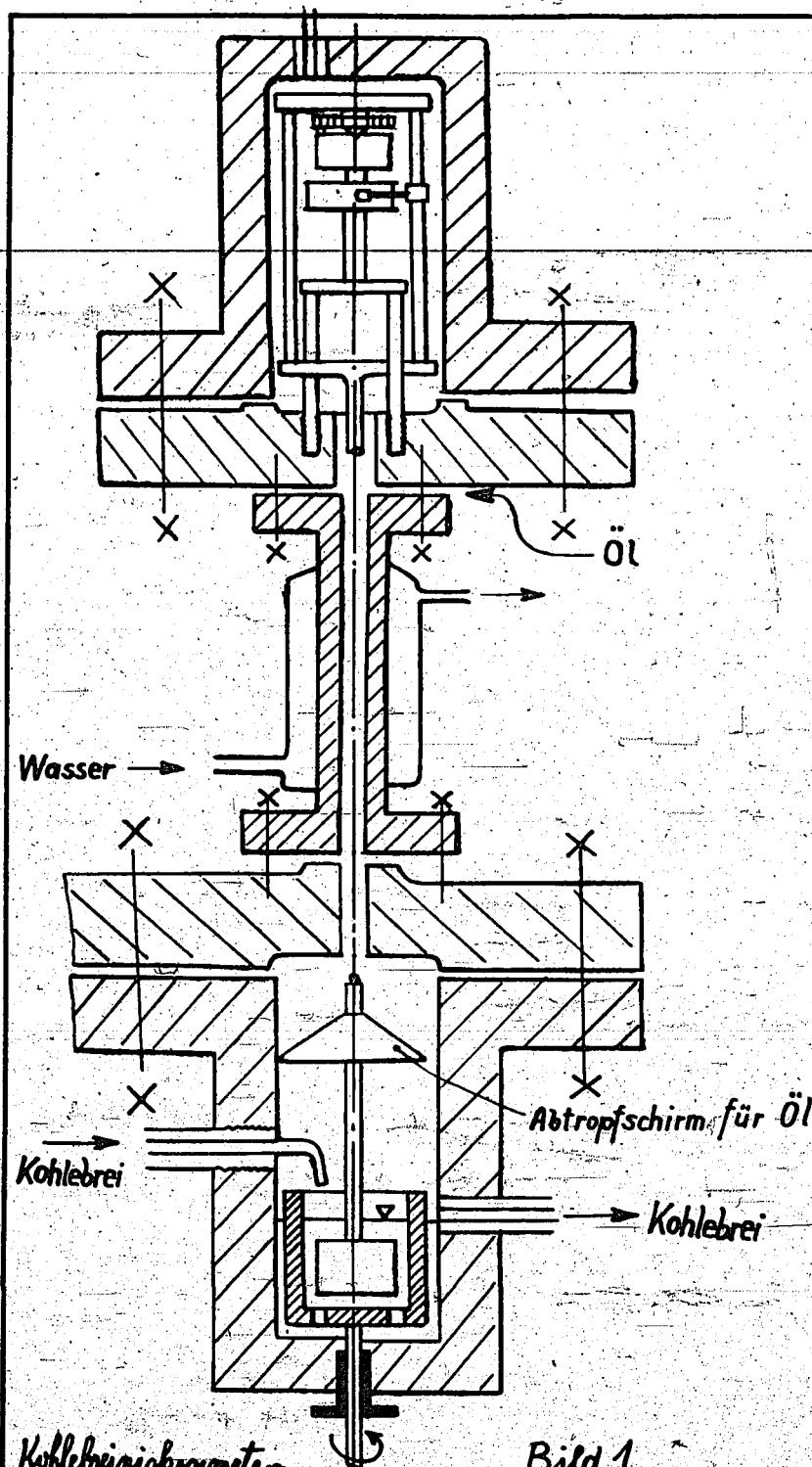


Bild 1

Hn

Kohlebreivolumetrometer

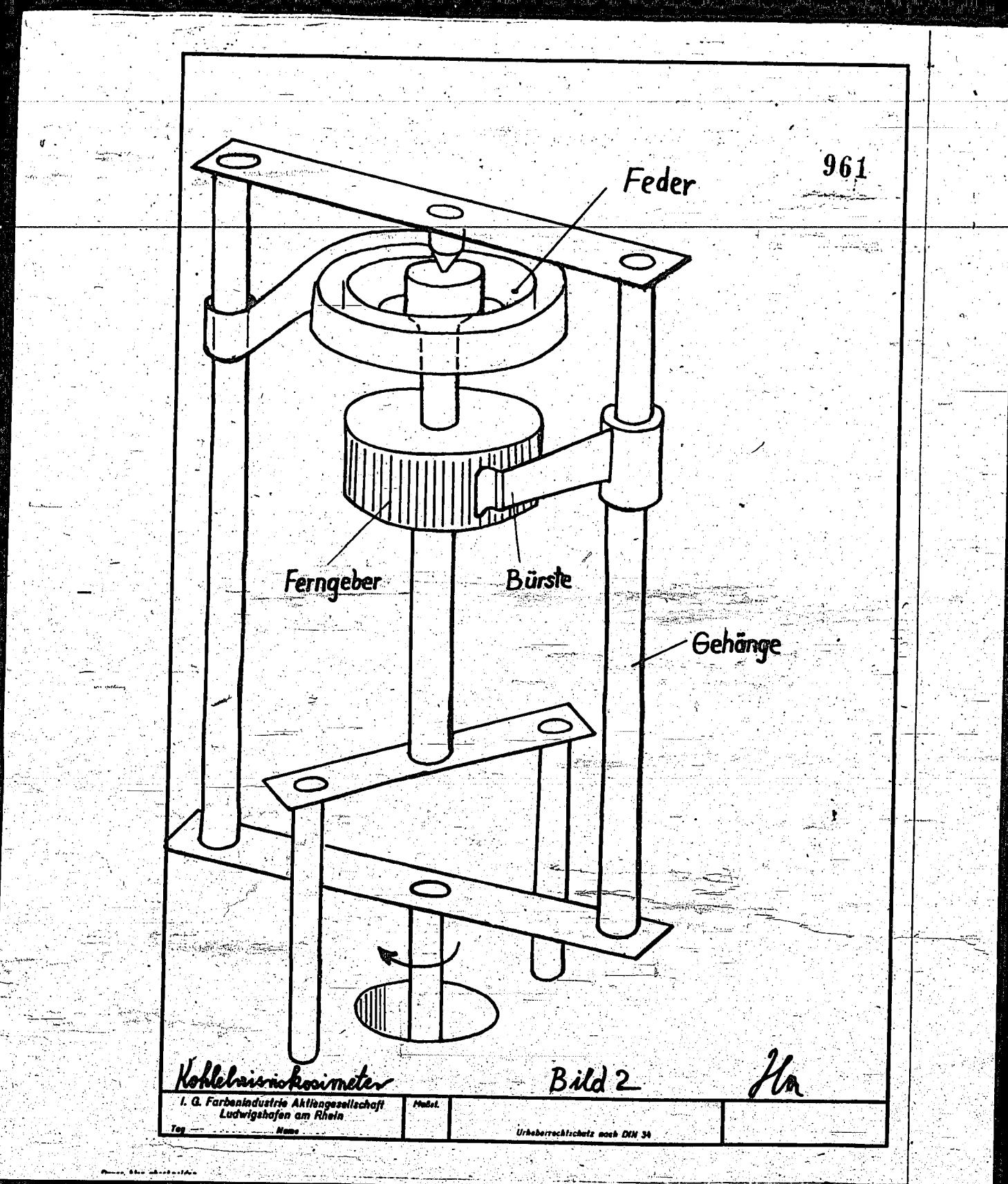
I. G. Farbenindustrie Aktiengesellschaft
Ludwigshafen am Rhein

Tag

Name

Maßl.

Urheberrechtsschutz nach DIN 34



magn. Material

962

Haltspule

unmagn. Material

Spulen der Gerwig-Stand-
messung

Hubspule

Öl

Kohlebrei

Fallrohr

Zla 12.6.41

Kohlebreimütsrometer

I. G. Farbenindustrie Aktiengesellschaft
Ludwigshafen am Rhein

Bild 3

Tag Name

Maßst.

Überhöhungsschutz nach DIN 34

Please Alter abzeichnen



T-311

W.M. Sternberg

U. S. BUREAU OF MINES
HYDRO. DEMON. PLANT DIV.

High Pressure Experiments
Lu 558

March 27, 1943

M. Pier's Files.
HIGH PRESSURE VISCOSIMETERS

The need of a viscosimeter to measure the viscosity of paste under high pressure and at high temperature is repeatedly felt. As far as I know, there is as yet no solution of the problem. Primitive arrangements which have been repeatedly tested here, do not work.

An examination of the different methods of determination of viscosity appears to offer two which might permit to carry out determinations at high pressures. These are:

1). a process for the computation of viscosity based on the rate of a fall of a body

2). to use the moment of rotation produced by the liquid as means for determining viscosity

1) The first method is mostly used by measuring the rate of fall of a steel ball through the liquid to be tested.

Viscosity is determined by using Stokes' law

$$\eta = \frac{2}{9} \times 981 r^2 \frac{\rho_s - \rho_l}{v} \times \left(1 + 2.4 \frac{v}{R}\right)$$

where ρ_s and ρ_l are the densities of the material of the ball and of the liquid,

v = rate of drop of the ball

r = radius of the ball

R = radius of the cylinder

The formula may be used only for a ball falling through the center of the cylinder. Uncontrollable deviations are avoided by placing the tube in an inclined position and permitting the ball to slide down the wall.

We could disregard this last refinement for measurements under high pressure, and keep the tube vertically. The sketch #3 shows how we believe the test should be run. The tube is either filled with the coal paste before the start of the test, hydrogen pressure applied, and heated; or else it is to be set up in the coal paste pipe line. The latter arrangement has the advantage of permitting measuring the inlet and outlet temperatures of the coal paste, avoiding the necessity of measuring the temperature inside the tube proper.

The ball is suspended by a sufficiently stiff steel wire to a small iron anchor, held in position with a small electromagnet (holding coil). When the current through the electromagnet is interrupted, the anchor falls off and the ball begins to sink. The moment of interruption of the current is

marked on the stopwatch. The steel anchor fastened to the ball from above moves with the same velocity as the ball through a non-magnetic V₂A tube, which is equipped with standarized spools connected with condensers by voltage resonance, and causes the proper small lamps to light up when the anchor passes through the coils, which will permit to record the fall with a stopwatch. One or two such indicator spools at the bottom end of the tube would be sufficient, and they will facilitate manipulations of the pull-up spool, which will be described below.

If the test is to be repeated, the ball will have to be brought back to the top. This is done by a special pull-up spool which is pushed by hand around the V₂A tube and again raised. The halting spool will in the meantime be again connected and will hold the anchor.

Advantages: made up of familiar elements, such as level indicating spools; no springs or other delicate parts in the high pressure space.

Disadvantages: no continuous recording.

2) The second method depends on transforming a moment of rotation through the liquid to some measuring substance was designed by Couette. The liquid is placed between two concentric cylinders, the outer cylinder being rotated at some angular velocity.

If M is the moment of rotation acting upon the inner cylinder, the viscosity is

$$\eta = \frac{M}{4\pi L \omega} \left(\frac{1}{R_1^2} - \frac{1}{R_2^2} \right)$$

Sketches 1 and 2 show the way in which the process could be used in the high pressure installations. The outer cylinder is rotated by motor, the speed of which can be regulated, and which is located outside the high pressure space. The cylinder upon which the moment of rotation is transferred, hangs on a long rod, which is connected through a cooled tube to a suspension. The suspension (sketch 2) is suspended from a point in a way to permit it to rotate, and carries a contact arm which slides over an indicator (toroid winding). The opposing moment of rotation is supplied by a spiral spring. The spring and indicator are placed in a cold part of the high pressure apparatus. They are accessible after removing pressure resisting cap. The angle of rotation is limited to somewhat less than 180°, and provisions must be made for conversion to different ranges of measurements. This may be done without interrupting the test by changing the rpm of the driving motor. The continuous replacement of the paste in the rotating cylinder is done through holes in its bottom. The drain is located at the desired level. In this way, the level of the paste can never become too low, but may occasionally become too high, but can always be brought to the required height by throttling down the supply line.

Advantages: Continuous indications of viscosity.

Disadvantages: Complicated structure, use of delicate parts, such as spiral springs and electrical indicators.

/s/ Hamacher

/pkl

5

Magnetische Sättigungsmessungen und ihre Anwendung bei Aufgaben der Eisenhüttenkunde.

Von Karl Mathieu in Düsseldorf.

[Mitteilung aus dem Kaiser-Wilhelm-Institut für Eisenforschung.]

(*Aufbau einer Pendelwaage zur Bestimmung der Sättigungsmagnetisierung durch Ausschlagmessungen. Beschreibung des Meßverfahrens und der Eichung des Gerätes. Anwendung auf die Bestimmung von Karbid und Austenitgehalten von Stählen sowie deren Curie- und Phasenumwandlungspunkten. Verfolgung des Ablaufs chemischer Umsetzungen von Eisen oder Eisenoxyden mit Gasen. Mengenmäßige Erfassung der Reaktionsstoffe. Kinetik der Vergütungsvorgänge in Stählen.*)

Für die schnelle Bestimmung der magnetischen Sättigung ferromagnetischer Stoffe haben sich magnetische Waagen mehrfach bewährt¹⁾ ²⁾. Von H. Lange und K. Mathieu³⁾ wurde eine magnetische Waage beschrieben, die es mit Hilfe von Ausschlagmessungen möglich macht, auch bei hohen Temperaturen und bei Umwandlungsvorgängen die Sättigungsmagnetisierung zu messen. Aus diesem Gerät wurde eine neue Waage entwickelt, bei der sich größere Meßgenauigkeit mit wesentlich vereinfachtem Aufbau verbinden:

Aufbau der magnetischen Waage.

Den Aufbau des Geräts zeigen die Bilder 1 und 2. An einem Stativ ist ein starres Pendel mit Hilfe dünner Stahlblättchen aufgehängt. Die Richtungskraft des Pendels kann durch das auswechselbare Bleigewicht verändert werden.

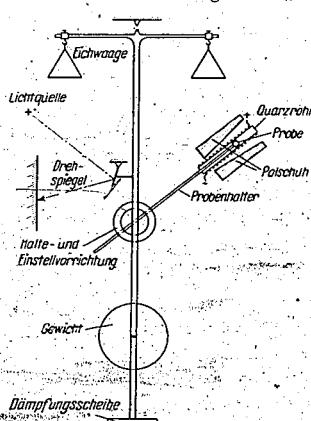


Bild 1. Aufbau der magnetischen Waage.

werden. Eine Kupferscheibe, die sich im Felde eines kleinen Elektromagneten bewegt, dient zur Dämpfung. An das Pendel ist eine Halte- und Justiervorrichtung für den Probenhalter befestigt. Der Probenhalter ist ein dünnes Röhrchen aus Quarz oder einer anderen feuerfesten

¹⁾ Lehrer, E.: Z. techn. Phys. 10 (1929) S. 177/85.

²⁾ Lange, H.: Mitt. K.-Wilh.-Inst. Eisenforschg. 15 (1933) S. 263/69; vgl. Stahl u. Eisen 54 (1934) S. 413. Siehe auch Lange, H., und G. Franzen: Mitt. K.-Wilh.-Inst. Eisenforschg. 24 (1942) S. 139/44; Techn. Mitt. Krupp, A. Forsch.-Ber., 5 (1942) S. 201/07; vgl. Stahl u. Eisen 62 (1942) S. 887/88.

³⁾ Mitt. K.-Wilh.-Inst. Eisenforschg. 20 (1938) S. 239/46; vgl. Stahl u. Eisen 58 (1938) S. 1438/39.

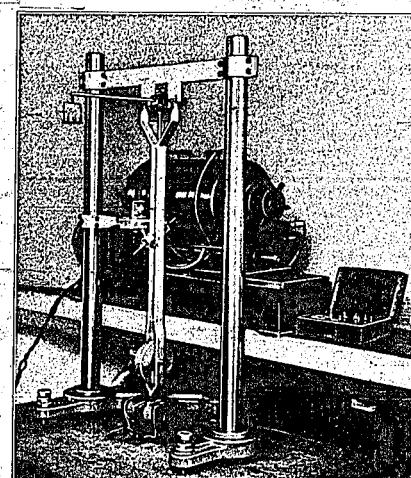


Bild 2. Ansicht der magnetischen Waage.
(Höhe des Stativs 80 cm.)

überein. In dieser Richtung liegt auch das mit einem Heizdraht bewickelte Quarzrohr, durch das die Probe auf Temperaturen bis 1200° erhitzt werden kann. Das Gerät ist so justiert, daß die Richtungen von Ofenlängsachse, Probenhalter und Magnetfeldmittellinie übereinstimmen. Bei den größten vorkommenden Ausschlägen sind die Abweichungen der Probenebewegung von dieser Richtung nur einige Hundertstel Millimeter. Diese Anordnung ersetzt vollkommen die bisher vielfach verwandte Fünffadenauflösung des Probenhalters und hat vor dieser den Vorteil eines bedeutend einfacheren und kräftigeren, wenig empfindlichen Aufbaues.

416 10. Jahrgang

K. Mathieu: Magnetische Sättigungsmessungen und ihre Anwendung

Archiv für das

Eisenhüttenwesen

Die Direktionskraft des Pendels wird durch Auflegen von Gewichten auf die rechte Seite der Eichwaage bestimmt. Nach der anderen Richtung können Ausschläge des Pendels, die durch die Magnetisierung der Probe erzeugt werden, mit der Eichwaage auf Null zurückgedrückt werden. Auf diese Art sind Kompensationsmessungen möglich. Die Eichwaage ermöglicht ferner Ausschlagsmessungen bei unterdrücktem Nullpunkt mit größter Empfindlichkeit.

Die Empfindlichkeit des Gerätes kann jeweils den Meßbedürfnissen angepaßt werden, am einfachsten durch Auswechseln des Gewichtes. Damit ist leicht eine Empfindlichkeitsänderung um eine Zehnerpotenz möglich, die in den meisten Fällen ausreicht. Die Empfindlichkeit ist außerdem verhältnismäßig der verwandten Probenmenge. Dabei ist zu beachten, daß die Probengröße nach unten dadurch begrenzt ist, daß noch eine bequeme Handhabung und Wägung möglich sein soll. Oft wird auch die Ungleichmäßigkeit des Werkstoffs eine Grenze setzen. Nach oben ist die Probenmenge begrenzt durch ihren Platzbedarf und die räumliche Gestalt, besonders in ihrer Lage zum Magnetfeld. Bei schwer magnetisierbaren Stoffen muß vermieden werden, daß die Längsausdehnung der Probe quer zur Feldrichtung liegt, weil dann der schlechte Entmagnetisierungsfaktor ein Sättigung verhindern kann. Die Probenausdehnung soll möglichst in der Feldrichtung größer sein als quer dazu. Bei Stählen ergaben sich als zweckmäßig kleine Zylinder mit 4,3 mm Dmr. und 2 mm Höhe. Eine weitere Möglichkeit für Empfindlichkeitsänderungen um etwa eine Zehnerpotenz ist durch die Wahl der Polschuhform des Elektromagneten gegeben, womit der Gradient der Feldstärke festgelegt wird.

Eine Steigerung der Ablesegenauigkeit bei kleinen Ausschlägen ermöglicht die optische Anzeige über den Drehspiegel durch Vergrößerung der Abstände der Skala vom Spiegel, des Spiegels vom Pendelhauptpunkt und durch Veränderung des mechanischen Übertragungsverhältnisses der Pendelbewegung auf den Spiegel. Große Empfindlichkeitssteigerungen dieser Art sind aber nur bei erschitterungsfreier Aufstellung zweckmäßig; im allgemeinen kann man darauf verzichten.

Das Magnetfeld wird mit einem Elektromagneten erzeugt, der nach Angaben von H. Lange gebaut wurde. In Größe und Form gleicht er dem Magneton, der von W. Luyken und L. Kraeber⁴ beschrieben worden ist. Durch Verbesserung der Polkerne und Einbau einer Wasserkühlung wurde die Leistung wesentlich verbessert. Der Luftspalt ist im Mittel 24 mm über eine Fläche von $40 \times 20 \text{ mm}^2$. Den Feldstärkenverlauf entlang der Mittellinie zwischen den Polschuhen, das ist in der Bewegungsrichtung der Probe, zeigt

Bild 3. Nach Messungen von Langen und Mathieu⁵ sind diese Feldstärken in fast allen praktisch vorkommenden Fällen für Sättigung ausreichend, so daß ein größerer Aufwand nicht lohnend erscheint. Die elektrische Leistungsaufnahme ist 500 W, die einer 120-V-Batterie entnommen wird. Für die Vorteile, die ein derart handlicher und trotzdem leistungsfähiger Magnet bietet, müssen allerdings auch einige Schwierigkeiten mit in Kauf genommen werden. Einige Mühe bereite eine günstige Gestaltung des Magnetfeldes. Bei den verhältnismäßig kleinen Polschuhen sind für den Feldverlauf (Bild 3) die Randstörungen ebenso maßgebend wie die Form der Polschuhe. Um einen möglichst geradlinigen Feldstärkenabfall zu erhalten, wurden die Polschuhe empirisch mit der Hand beigezeichnet. Will man diese Arbeit sparen und bei örtlich verschiedenen Gradienten

⁴ Mitt. K.-Wiss.-Inst. Eisenforschg., 16 (1934) S. 473; vgl. Stahl u. Eisen 54 (1934) S. 364/64.

messen, so muß man bei genauen Messungen ein besonderes Eichverfahren zur Ermittlung des Gradienten im Bewegungsbereich der Probe anwenden, das nachfolgend beschrieben wird. Bild 3 zeigt den hier erzielten Gradientverlauf. Die Feldstärkenwerte wurden durch Messungen mit der Wismutspirale ermittelt.

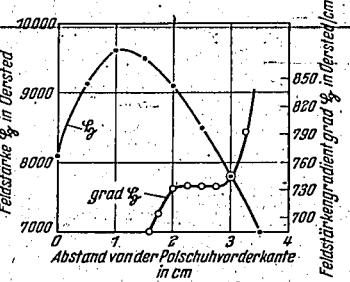


Bild 3. Verlauf der Feldstärke und ihres Gradienten auf der Mittellinie zwischen den Polschuhen bei einer erregenden Stromstärke von 4,25 A.

Die Genauigkeit dieses Verfahrens ist unzureichend für die Bestimmung des Feldstärkengradienten, weil damit nicht die Meßgenauigkeit des Gerätes ausgenutzt wird. Der Gradient ist deshalb nach demselben Verfahren ermittelt worden, nach dem auch die Messungen der Magnetisierung erfolgen. Hierzu wurde eine von der Physikalisch-Technischen Reichsanstalt überlassene Probe aus Eisen-Nickel-Legierung mit 89,6 % Ni und 1,5 % Mn mit bekanntem Magnetisierungswert verwendet. Durch Verschieben des Probenhalters in seiner Richtung wurde an mehreren Stellen der Gradient ermittelt. Bild 3 zeigt, daß die Werte über eine Strecke von etwa 7 mm mit einer Genauigkeit von $\frac{1}{2}\%$ übereinstimmen. Da bei Ausschlagsmessungen die Probe sich nur um etwa 2 mm bewegt, ist eine besonders genaue Justierung der Probe nicht erforderlich.

Meßverfahren.

Das Gerät mißt die Kraft, die eine Probe in dem inhomogenen Magnetfeld infolge ihrer Magnetisierung erfährt. Diese Kraft P , bezogen auf die Einheit des Gewichtes in der Probe, ist verhältnismäßig der spezifischen Magnetisierung σ ; außerdem hängt sie ab vom Gradienten der Feldstärke H . Es ist

$$\frac{P}{m} = \frac{\text{grad } H}{981} \cdot \sigma. \quad (1)$$

Die so bestimmbar Magnetisierung ist die spezifische Magnetisierung

$$\sigma = \frac{P}{m \cdot \text{grad } H}. \quad (2)$$

Dabei sind P und m in Gramm und der Gradient in Oersted/cm einzusetzen. Bei Kenntnis des spezifischen Gewichtes s der Probe kann σ in die auf die Volumeneinheit bezogene Magnetisierung β umgerechnet werden, die in der Physik meist benutzt wird; es ist

$$\sigma = \frac{\beta}{s} \quad (3)$$

(σ und β in cgs-Einheiten). In der Chemie ist fast ausschließlich die spezifische Magnetisierung sinnvoll und gebräuchlich, da sie eine den Stoff kennzeichnende Größe ist. Ihre Ermittlung verlangt nach Formel (1) außer der Kraftmessung P eine Wägung der Probe und die Kenntnis des Feldstärkengradienten am Probenort.

10. Jahrgang

K. Mathieu: Magnetische Sättigungsmessungen und ihre Anwendung

Archiv für das

Eisenhüttenwesen

417

Die Kraft P kann auf zweierlei Weise bestimmt werden. Einmal wird der durch die Kraft bewirkte Pendelausschlag durch Auflegen von Gewichten auf die Eichwaage auf Null zurückgedrückt. Da hierbei die größte Empfindlichkeit des Gerätes ausgenutzt werden kann, ermöglicht dieses Verfahren sehr genaue Bestimmungen der spezifischen Magnetisierung σ . Dazu braucht nur der Gradient für den Ausschlag Null mit derselben Genauigkeit bekannt zu sein. Er wird am besten mit Hilfe einer Eichprobe mit bekanntem σ -Wert nach dem beschriebenen Verfahren bestimmt. Die mit der Eichwaage gemessene Kraft enthält immer einen unbekannten Faktor, dessen Kenntnis nicht erforderlich ist, da er in Gleichung (1) eliminiert wird, wenn Gradient und σ nach demselben Verfahren bestimmt werden.

Die Eichwaage durch Auflegen von Gewichten P_w in mehreren Stufen bis zum Verschwinden zurückgedrückt. Bei einem so erzeugten Ausschlag wirken auf das Pendel zwei Kräfte, die Direktionskraft P_D , die für diesen Ausschlag aus der Eichkurve (Bild 4) zu ermitteln ist, und ferner von der Eichwaage herrührend das aufgelegte Gewicht P_w . Diese beiden Kräfte wirken der vom Magnetfeld herrührenden Kraft

$$P = \frac{\sigma_0 m_0}{981} (\text{grad } H)_a = f(\alpha) \quad (4)$$

entgegen, die daher aus der Summe der beiden Kräfte für jeden Ausschlag α ermittelt werden kann:

$$P = P_D + P_w.$$

Der für den Ausschlag maßgebende Gradient ergibt sich daher nach Gleichung (1):

$$(\text{grad } H)_a = \frac{981}{m_0 \sigma_0} (P_D + P_w). \quad (3)$$

Dieses Beispiel zeigt, wie im allgemeinen der Gradientverlauf im Ausschlagsbereich bestimmt werden kann; es zeigt in unserem Falle besonders, daß der Gradient für Ausschlagsmessungen hinlänglich genau gleichbleibt und daß die Genauigkeit aller hier vorkommenden Meß- und Eichverfahren mindestens $\frac{1}{2}\%$ ist.

Zahlentafel 4. Meßergebnisse an einer Eisenprobe.

Gewicht P_w	Ausschlag α	Direktionskraft P_D	Gewicht P	grad II	Verhältnis P_D/P	$A(\alpha)$
0	26,85	32,03	32,03	734,4	1,000	42,80
5	22,57	27,05	32,05	734,3	0,845	36,45
10	18,35	22,09	32,00	735,3	0,680	29,45
15	14,17	17,03	32,03	734,4	0,533	22,80
20	9,98	12,00	32,00	733,3	0,384	16,67
25	5,89	7,11	32,11	736,0	0,221	9,46
30	1,65	2,00	32,00	733,3	0,0925	2,68
32,00	0,00	0,00	32,00	733,3	0,000	0,00

Wenn sich der Gradient über den Bewegungsbereich der Probe nicht ändert und die Kraft P verhältnismäßig dem Ausschlag ist, so ist nach Gleichung (4) auch das Produkt aus Gewicht und Magnetisierung der Probe verhältnismäßig dem Ausschlag und kann daraus mit Hilfe eines einmal zu bestimmenden Beiwertes c errechnet werden:

$$m \cdot \sigma = c \cdot \alpha.$$

Im allgemeinen wird man sich nicht die Mühe geben, diese beiden Bedingungen zu erfüllen. In dem Falle wird $m \cdot \sigma$ eine nichtlineare Funktion von α darstellen:

$$m \cdot \sigma = A(\alpha), \quad (4)$$

Diese Funktion stellt eine Kurve dar, aus der zu jedem Ausschlag α , die eine Probe erzeugt, deren Betrag für $m \cdot \sigma$ sofort abgelesen werden kann. Sie wird am sichersten nach demselben Verfahren ermittelt, nach dem auch die $m \cdot \sigma$ -Messungen selbst erfolgen, d. h. mit Ausschlagsmessungen an Eichproben. Dafür gilt:

$$m \cdot \sigma = \frac{981 \cdot P_{D(\alpha)}}{(\text{grad } H)_{\alpha}} = A(\alpha), \quad (5)$$

wobei also hier Direktionskraft und Gradient in irgendeiner beliebigen Abhängigkeit von α stehen mögen. Um mit einer einzigen Eichprobe mit den Werten m_0 und σ_0 den Ausschlag verändern zu können, wird — wie bereits beschrieben — die $m_0 \cdot \sigma_0$ -entsprechende Kraft P aus zwei Teilen zusammengesetzt, von denen der eine von der Direktions-

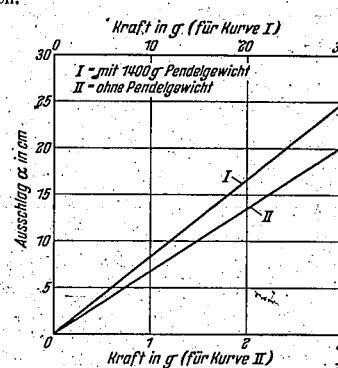


Bild 4. Eichkurven für die Direktionskraft des Pendels bei zwei verschiedenen Empfindlichkeiten des Gerätes.

Viel einfacher und mit meist ausreichender Genauigkeit wird die Kraft P durch den Pendelausschlag bestimmt. Auf diese Möglichkeit wurde bei der Gestaltung des Gerätes besonderer Wert gelegt, weil damit auch die Möglichkeit besteht, den Ablauf schneller Umwandlungsvorgänge durch die dabei stattfindende Änderung der Magnetisierung quantitativ zu verfolgen. Bei Ausschlagsmessungen müssen Kraft und Gradient in ihrer Abhängigkeit vom Ausschlag bekannt sein. Für viele weniger anspruchsvolle Messungen läßt sich mühelos mit einiger Genauigkeit erreichen, daß Kraft und Ausschlag verhältnismäßig sind. Für genaue Bestimmungen wird mit Hilfe der Eichwaage die Kurve der Direktionskraft aufgestellt, aus der zu jedem Ausschlag die zugehörige Kraft abgelesen werden kann. In Bild 4 sind zwei Eichkurven für zwei häufig benutzte Empfindlichkeiten dargestellt. Kurve I gilt für ein Pendelgewicht G von 1400 g, Kurve II für das Pendel ohne Gewicht. Beide Kurven sind mit Abweichungen von $\pm 1\%$ geradlinig und können daher innerhalb dieser Genauigkeit durch einfache Rechnung mit einem Beiwert ersetzt werden. Mehr Umstände bereitet die Berücksichtigung des Gradienten, wenn man sich nicht die Mühe macht, die Werte im Bewegungsbereich der Probe gleichzumachen, wie es hier geschehen ist. Dann muß für jeden Ausschlag der jeweilige Gradientwert berücksichtigt werden, der mit Hilfe einer Eichprobe ermittelt wird.

Als Meßbeispiel wurde eine von der Physikalisch-Technischen Reichsanstalt geeichte Probe mit dem Magnetisierungswert $\sigma_0 = 216,8$ cgs-Einheiten und dem Gewicht $m_0 = 0,1976$ g verwendet (Zahlentafel 1). Um den bei verschiedenen Ausschlägen maßgebenden Gradienten zu erhalten, wurde der durch das Magnetfeld erzeugte Ausschlag mit Hilfe

kraft P_D , der andere P_W von der Eichwaage erzeugt wird. Man kann dadurch die Größe $m_0 \cdot \sigma_0$ mit verschiedenen Ausschlägen α bei derselben Gesamtkraft P messen:

$$m_0 \cdot \sigma_0 = \left(\frac{P_D}{\text{grad } H_a} + \frac{P_W}{\text{grad } H_a} \right)$$

und nach Gleichung (3) und (4)

$$= \Lambda_{(a)} + \left(\frac{P_W}{P} \right)_a \cdot m_0 \cdot \sigma_0.$$

Daraus ist

$$\Lambda_{(a)} = m_0 \cdot \sigma_0 \left(1 - \frac{P_W}{P} \right)_a = m_0 \cdot \sigma_0 \left(\frac{P_D}{P} \right)_a. \quad (6)$$

Die Eichung der Waage für die unmittelbare Bestimmung der Größe $m \cdot \sigma$ erfordert also lediglich die Bestimmung von $\frac{P_D}{P}$ in Abhängigkeit vom Ausschlag. Als Zahlenbeispiel sind in Tabelle 1 Werte für $\frac{P_D}{P}$ und $\Lambda_{(a)}$ angegeben.

Die Genauigkeit dieses Verfahrens ist jedoch vielfach nicht ausreichend, weil der Unterschied zwischen der Magnetisierung des Eisens und der des Stahles im Vergleich zu den gemessenen Werten selbst nicht groß ist und weil die Berechnung sich auf eine Absolutmessung von σ_x stützt. Man kann jedoch eine Karbidbestimmung auf Grund einer viel genaueren Relativmessung durchführen, wobei ebenfalls die in Gleichung (7) zum Ausdruck kommende Additivität der beiden Magnetisierungen benutzt wird.

In einem heterogenen Gemenge zweier ferromagnetischer Komponenten kann man die beiden Magnetisierungsanteile getrennt bestimmen, wenn die Gesamt magnetisierung bei verschiedenen Temperaturen gemessen wird. Hier genügt z. B. die Ermittlung des Verhältnisses der Magnetisierung σ_{20} des Stahles bei 20° zu dem Wert σ_{500} bei 500° . Oberhalb rund 250° ist der Zementit nicht mehr ferromagnetisch, und man mißt deshalb bei beispielsweise 500° die Magnetisierung des Eisenanteils allein. Dieser Wert wird mit Hilfe der bekannten Temperaturabhängigkeit der Eisenmagnetisierung auf 20° umgerechnet; aus Bild 9 und Tabelle 2 ergibt sich der Umrechnungsfaktor zu 1,192. Der Beitrag des Eisens (Gewichtsanteil m_F , Magnetisierung $\sigma_F = 218,0$) zur Gesamt magnetisierung σ_{20} des Stahles ist also $1,192 \cdot \sigma_{500}$; der Restanteil $\sigma_{20} - 1,192 \cdot \sigma_{500}$ ist der Beitrag des Zementits (Gewichtsanteil m_Z , Magnetisierung $\sigma_Z = 139,3$). Dann verhalten sich:

$$\frac{\sigma_{20} - 1,192 \cdot \sigma_{500}}{1,192 \cdot \sigma_{500}} = \frac{m_Z \cdot \sigma_Z}{m_F \cdot \sigma_F} = \frac{m_Z \cdot 139,3}{m_F \cdot 218,0}$$

Daraus ist

$$m_Z = 1,563 \left(0,839 \frac{\sigma_{20}}{\sigma_{500}} - 1 \right) = Q. \quad (8)$$

Nimmt man noch an, daß der Stahl nur Eisen und Zementit enthält, und setzt $m_F + m_Z = 100\%$, so erhält man den Karbidgehalt

$$m_Z = \frac{Q}{Q+1} \cdot 100 \text{ in \%}. \quad (9)$$

Bei para- und diamagnetischen Stoffen sind diese Größen stoffzeichnend und ihre Angaben sinnvoll. Ferromagnetische Stoffe können aber niemals weder nach Art noch nach Menge durch χ oder μ gekennzeichnet werden, weil diese Größen in nicht übersehbar Weise fieldstärkenabhängig sind. Da die Art der Feldstärkenabhängigkeit auch noch von der mechanischen, thermischen und magnetischen Vorbehandlung des Stoffes abhängt, können diese Größen nicht einmal zur Vergleichszwecken herangezogen werden. Zur Kennzeichnung von Stoffeigenschaften ist daher die Angabe von χ oder μ viel zweckmäßiger.

Wenn zwei Stoffe A und B mit verschiedenen Werten σ_A und σ_B gemischt werden, so geht mit zunehmendem Anteil des Stoffes B die Magnetisierung von Wert σ_A linear in den

^a Steinhaus, W., A. Kussmann und E. Schön: Phys. Z. 38 (1937) S. 777/85.

^b Hansen, M.: Der Aufbau der Zweistofflegierungen. Berlin 1936. S. 759.

schen. Waage geht nur das Verhältnis der beiden Ausschläge $\alpha_{20} : \alpha_{500}$ in die Rechnung ein. In Bild 5 ist über diesem Verhältnis der Karbid- und Kohlenstoffgehalt aufgetragen, wie er sich aus den Gleichungen (8) und (9) errechnet. Die Genauigkeit der Karbidbestimmung ist dem chemischen Verfahren in keinem Fall unterlegen.

Die gestrichelte Kurve II entspricht den von F. Stäblein^c gemessenen Werten, dessen Legierungen von 800° abgeschreckt waren. Diese Kurve zeigt einen Knick bei der Löslichkeitsgrenze des α -Mischkristalls überschritten wird. Das Verfahren ermöglicht also bei genauen σ -Messungen auch die Ermittlung der Löslichkeitsgrenze.

Der lineare Magnetisierungsabfall der Eisen-Wolfram-Mischkristalle weist auf geringe magnetische Wechselwirkungen zwischen Eisen- und Wolframatomen bei der Mischkristallbildung hin. Das zeigt sich besonders darin, daß der Curiepunkt des Eisens durch Wolfram nicht beeinflußt wird. Die meisten Legierungszusätze beeinflussen aber mehr oder weniger stark den Curiepunkt des Eisens. Wenn dieser wie bei fast allen Elementen nach tieferen Temperaturen verschoben wird, nimmt die Magnetisierung stärker ab, als Gleichung (7) fordert. Auch sind dann Abweichungen von der Linearität, für verschiedene Temperaturen nach verschiedenen Gesetzmäßigkeiten, zu erwarten.

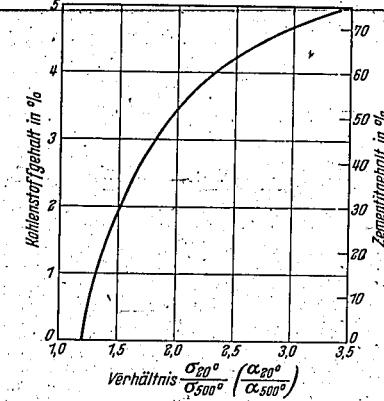


Bild 5. Kurve zur Bestimmung des Zementitgehaltes unlegierter Stähle aus dem Verhältnis der Ausschläge bei 20 und 500° .

Die Additivität der Magnetisierung gilt streng nur für heterogene Gemenge. Mit einiger Vorsicht kann sie manchmal auch als Regel auf homogene Lösungen angewandt werden. Als Beispiel zeigt Bild 6 die Sättigungsmagnetisierung der Eisen-Wolfram-Mischkristalle. Die nach Gleichung (7) berechneten Werte stellt die ausgezogene Gerade I dar. Für reines Eisen gilt $\sigma = 218,0$, Wolfram ist unmagnetisch; daher schneidet die Gerade die Ordinate

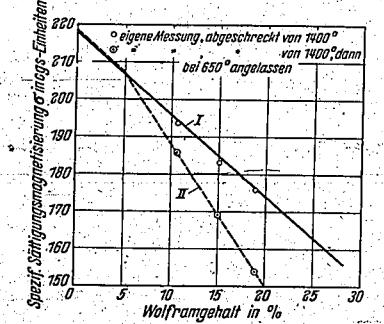


Bild 6. Sättigungsmagnetisierung der Eisen-Wolfram-Legierungen:
I = theoretisch für homogene Mischkristalle,
II = nach Messungen von F. Stäblein (abgeschreckt von 800°).

bei $\sigma = 218,0$ und die Abszisse bei 100% W. Die an drei Eisen-Wolfram-Legierungen gemessenen Werte liegen gut auf dieser Geraden; die Legierungen waren von 1400° in Wasser abgeschreckt worden. Wenn das Abschrecken nicht aus dem α -Zustand erfolgt, sondern bei tieferen Temperaturen aus dem heterogenen Gebiet α -+ Eisen-Wolfram-Verbindung, so werden kleinere σ -Werte erhalten.

^c Hansen, M.: Der Aufbau der Zweistofflegierungen. Berlin 1936. S. 759.

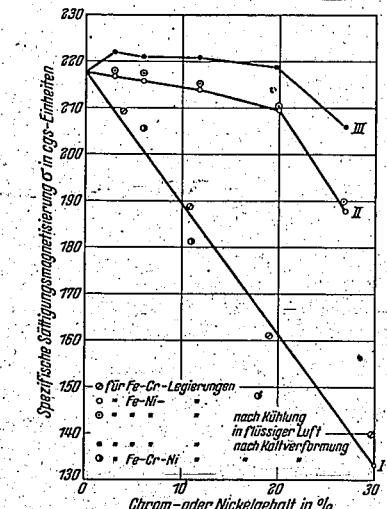


Bild 7. Abhängigkeit der Sättigungsmagnetisierung vom Legierungsgehalt des Eisens an Chrom und Nickel.

Die ferritischen Eisen-Chrom-Legierungen sind wegen der Curiepunktserniedrigung durch Chromzusatz bei Zimmertemperatur bereits mit ungefähr 70% Cr unmagnetisch. Man kann in erster Näherung linearen Abfall der Magnetisierung mit steigendem Chromgehalt annehmen. In Bild 7 ist diese Gesetzmäßigkeit eingezeichnet (Kurve I). Wie die gleichzeitig angegebenen Messungen an einigen Eisen-Chrom-Legierungen zeigen, stellt sie eine gute Näherung dar.

Schr verwickelt ändert sich die Magnetisierung des Eisens beim Zugieren von Nickel. In Bild 7 gibt die Kurve II die spezifische Sättigungsmagnetisierung einiger Eisen-Nickel-Legierungen an, die von 900° im Ofen abgekühlt wurden. Die dabei eintretende γ - α -Umwandlung ist bei Zimmertemperatur noch nicht vollständig abgeschlossen. Ein Teil des Restaustenits zerfällt beim weiteren Abkühlen mit flüssiger Luft, wie die höherliegenden Magnetisierungswerte anzeigen. Da hierbei aber nicht mit Sicherheit aller Rest-

^d Arch. Eisenhüttenw. 3 (1929/30) S. 301/05.

austenit in den α -Zustand übergeht, wurden die Proben einer Kaltverformung bei rd. -70° durch Hämmern unterworfen. Dadurch stieg die Magnetisierung auf die Werte der Kurve III an. Auch durch diese Versuche kann noch nicht entschieden werden, ob die Legierungen nunmehr vollständig umgewandelt sind und ob Kurve III die wahre spezifische Sättigung der Eisen-Nickel-Legierungen im α -Zustand darstellt. Auffallend ist, daß, obwohl Nickel eine viel kleinere Sättigungsmagnetisierung ($\sigma = 56$) als Eisen hat und obwohl Nickel den Curiepunkt des Eisens erniedrigt, die spezifische Sättigung des Eisens durch Nickelzusatz bis zu erheblichen Gehalten nicht erniedrigt, sondern sogar etwas erhöht wird.

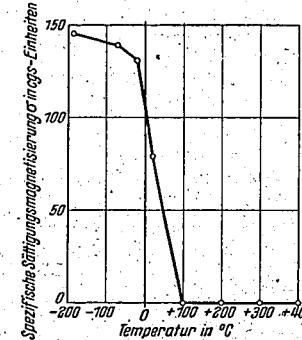


Bild 8. Spezifische Sättigungsmagnetisierung an der Bruchstelle von zerrissenen Stäben aus Stahl mit 18 % Cr und 8 % Ni in Abhängigkeit von der Temperatur beim Zugversuch.

Wegen dieser Eigenschaft des Nickels ist auch die Magnetisierung ternärer Legierungen mit Nickel, z. B. die der Chrom-Nickel-Stähle, nicht vorauszusehen. Sie kann nur versuchsmäßig ermittelt werden. Die Ergebnisse einiger Vorrücks sind ebenfalls in Bild 7 angegeben. Drei Stähle mit 9 % Ni und verschiedenen Chromgehalten (6, 11 und 18 % Cr) wurden durch Hämmern bei etwa -70° so lange kaltverformt, bis kein Anstieg der Magnetisierung mehr beobachtet wurde. Dabei stieg die Magnetisierung auf die eingezeichneten Werte an. Diese liegen für die Stähle mit 6 und 11 % Cr fast bei den Werten für die Eisen-Chrom-Legierungen; die Magnetisierung für den Chrom-Nickel-Stahl mit 18 % Cr ist jedoch kleiner, weil er noch Restaustenit enthält. Wie nämlich aus Reckversuchen bei tiefen Temperaturen hervorgeht¹⁰, liegt die Magnetisierung eines solchen Stahls höher als $\sigma = 145$. In Bild 8 sind die Meßergebnisse für einen Stahl mit 18 % Cr und 8 % Ni angegeben, der bei verschiedenen Temperaturen durch Kaltziehen bis zum Zerreissen verformt wurde. Die Magnetisierung wurde an der Bruchstelle gemessen. Da die Kurve bis zu den tiefsten erreichten Temperaturen immer noch ansteigt, muß die Magnetisierung des vollkommen ferritischen Stahls mit 18 % Cr und 8 % Ni höher als der dort erreichte Wert 145 angenommen werden. Man darf deshalb sagen, daß die spezifische magnetische Sättigung von Eisen-Chrom-Nickel-Legierungen mit guter Näherung durch den Chromgehalt bestimmt ist und durch Kurve I in Bild 7 angegeben wird. Eine so einfache Gesetzmäßigkeit wie Gleichung (7), d. h. eine additive Eigenschaft der Magnetisierungswerte, besteht also hier nicht. Für die magnetische Kennzeichnung solcher Stähle sind zahlreiche Einzelmessungen erforderlich.

¹⁰ Mathieu, K.: Mitt. K.-Wilh.-Inst. Eisenforschg. 24 (1942) S. 243/48. Arch. Eisenhüttenw. 10 (1942/43) S. 216/18.

Bei allen diesen Messungen ist darauf zu achten, daß die Zusammensetzung des Ferrits bekannt sein muß. Diese wird nur dann durch die Analyse des Stahles angegeben, wenn dieser vollkommen ferritisch ist, oder aber, wenn der Ferrit durch einen entmischungsfreien Vorgang, z. B. durch Kaltverformung, aus dem austenitischen Zustand, entstanden ist. Der durch Wärmebehandlung, besonders durch Abschrecken aus dem δ -Gebiet, erzeugte Ferrit hat meist eine nicht genau bekannte Zusammensetzung; er kann dann nicht mengenmäßig aus der magnetischen Sättigung ermittelt werden.

Beobachtung des Ablaufs von Umwandlungen, an denen ferromagnetische Phasen beteiligt sind.

Die Vorteile einer magnetischen Waage für Ausschlagsmessungen zeigen sich besonders dann, wenn Umwandlungsvorgänge beobachtet werden sollen. Sie ist dann in vielen Fällen anderer Untersuchungsgeräten überlegen, weil die Empfindlichkeit praktisch beliebig gesteigert oder auch verkleinert werden kann, besonders dann, wenn mengenmäßig Schlußfolgerungen möglich sind.

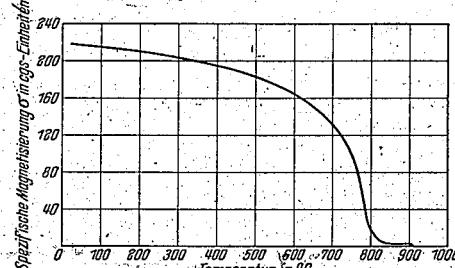


Bild 9. Temperatur-Magnetisierungs-Kurve von Elektrolyteisenen.

Bei der Aufnahme von Temperatur-Magnetisierungs-Kurven werden im allgemeinen zwei verschiedene Umwandlungen beobachtet: Phasenumwandlungen und Curiepunkte. Bei den magnetischen Umwandlungen verschwindet (beim Erhitzen) die Magnetisierung allmählich in einem Temperaturbereich, während eine Phasenumwandlung sich als Knick in der Kurve äußert. Als Beispiel zeigt Bild 9 die

Temperatur T °C	Magnetisierungswerte von Elektrolyteisenen bis 600° und die auf 20° bezogene Verhältniszahlen.		
	Spezifische Sättigungsmagnetisierung in erg-Einheiten	Verhältnis $\sigma_{20} - \sigma_T$ — σ_{20}	Verhältnis σ_{20} — σ_T
20	218,0	0,0000	1,000
50	216,8	0,0084	1,006
100	215,3	0,0125	1,012
150	213,0	0,0247	1,022
200	210,0	0,0332	1,033
250	207,6	0,0478	1,049
300	204,5	0,0625	1,066
350	200,3	0,0843	1,088
400	195,9	0,1045	1,113
450	189,6	0,1305	1,150
500	182,0	0,1600	1,192
550	175,4	0,1975	1,245
600	164,5	0,2460	1,328

Temperatur-Magnetisierungs-Kurve von Elektrolyteisenen; in Zahlentafel 2 sind bis 600° die zugehörigen Werte nochmals genauer angegeben. Außerdem enthält Zahlentafel 2 die durch Relativmessungen genauer bestimmten, auf σ_{20} bezogenen Verhältniszahlen. Diese letzten sind besonders

deshalb von Bedeutung, weil sie mit einer Genauigkeit von $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ für technisch reine Eisensorten ($< 0,4\%$ Verunreinigungen) übereinstimmen, was für die σ -Werte nicht gilt. Im Temperaturbereich um 768° sinkt beim Erhitzen die Magnetisierung allmählich und reversibel. Durch die α - γ -Phasenumwandlung bei 906° verschwindet dagegen der restliche Magnetismus in einem sehr engen Temperaturbereich, der auf der Erhitzungskurve etwas (rd. 5°) höher liegt als beim Abkühlen. Das Auftreten eines Umwandlungsbereichs und die Irreversibilität der Magnetisierungsänderung für das verwendete Elektrolyteisen muß wahrscheinlich auf Spuren von Verunreinigungen zurückgeführt werden. In Bild 10 ist diese Umwandlung nochmals dargestellt, wobei mit größerer Empfindlichkeit der Waage gemessen wurde. Zum Vergleich ist daneben die γ - α -Umwandlung eines mit $0,65\%$ Mn legierten Elektrolyteisens dargestellt. Umwandlungsbereich und Irreversibilität treten dabei in verstärktem Maße auf.

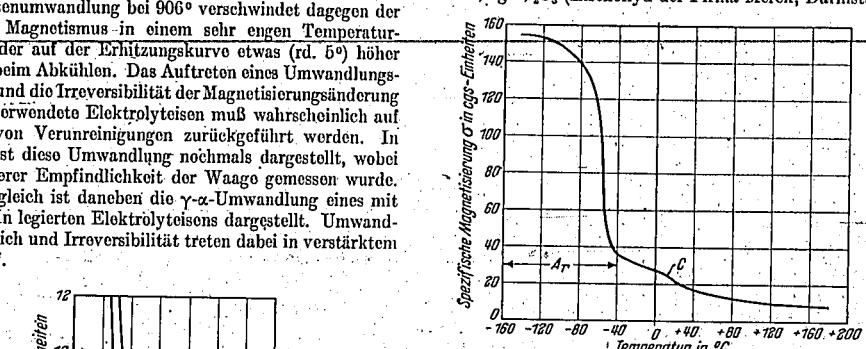


Bild 11. Abkühlungskurve einer Eisenlegierung mit 28 % Ni von 1000°C mit Curiepunkt C bei +20° des austenitischen Zustandes und γ - α -Umwandlung Ar bei -40 bis -160°.

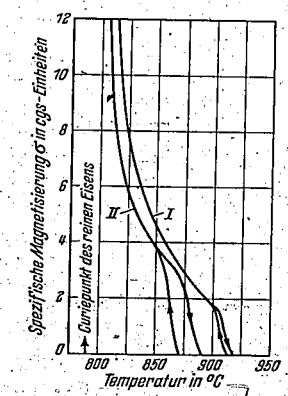


Bild 12. Temperatur-Magnetisierungs-Kurven im Bereich der γ - α -Umwandlung.

I = Elektrolyteisen,
II = Fe-Mn-Legierung mit 0,65 % Mn.

Bild 10 läßt eine Schwierigkeit bei der Aufnahme von Umwandlungen mit der magnetischen Waage erkennen, die dann auftritt, wenn Phasenumwandlung und Curiepunkt in ihren Temperaturbereichen sich überdecken. In solchen Fällen sind magnetische Messungen schwierig auszuwerten. Die Überlegenheit gegenüber anderen Verfahren zeigt sich erst dann, wenn der Umwandlungspunkt unter dem Curiepunkt liegt. So können z. B. die Umwandlungen legierter Stähle sehr einfach in der magnetischen Waage untersucht werden. Auch Umwandlungen, die unter Zimmertemperatur ablaufen, können in der Waage mit Leichtigkeit erfaßt werden. Zu diesem Zweck wird durch den Ofen (Bild 1), in dem sich die Probe befindet, Wasserstoff geleitet, der zuvor in einem Schlangenkühler mit Kältebad gekühlt wird. Bei Kühlung mit flüssiger Luft werden leicht Temperaturen bis -150° erreicht. Als Beispiel zeigt Bild 11 Curiepunkt C des γ -Zustandes und γ - α -Umwandlung Ar einer Eisenlegierung mit 28 % Ni.

Ein einfaches Beispiel dafür, wie der Ablauf einer chemischen Umsetzung mengenmäßig in der Waage verfolgt werden kann, bietet die Reduktion von Eisenoxiden. Diese läuft je nach den Versuchsbedingungen verschieden ab. Nach

¹¹ Wever, F., und K. Mathieu: Mitt. K.-Wilh.-Inst. Eisenforschg. 22 (1940) S. 9/18; vgl. Stahl u. Eisen 60 (1940) S. 122/23.

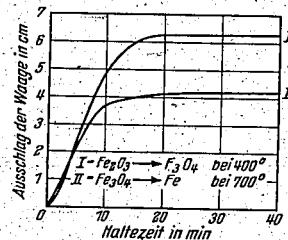


Bild 13. Reduktionsablauf von Eisenoxiden gemessen durch Ausschlagsänderungen der magnetischen Waage.

Bei höheren Temperaturen als 400° und besonders bei Verwendung von trockenem Wasserstoff geht die Reduktion leicht, bis zum reinen Eisen. Den Reduktionsablauf $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 \rightarrow \text{Fe}$ zeigen die zweiten Kurven in den Bildern 12 und 13. Das entstandene Eisen ist durch seinen Curiepunkt bei etwa 770° gekennzeichnet, den man auf einer anschließenden Temperatur-Magnetisierungs-Kurve beobachtet (Kurve 2 in Bild 13). Da die Reaktionsstoffe bekannt sind, können diese Versuche dazu benutzt werden, die spezifische Sättigung σ für Fe_3O_4 zu bestimmen. In diesem Falle kann man sogar mit Relativmessungen auskommen und dadurch eine große Genauigkeit erzielen. Das für eine σ -Bestimmung des Eisenoxyduloxids benötigte Gewicht braucht nicht durch

¹² Ber. dtsch. chem. Ges. 44 (1911) S. 1612.

Wägen bestimmt zu werden; es errechnet sich aus der Menge Eisen, die nach der Reduktion vorliegt. Ein Maß für diese Eisenmenge ist deren Magnetisierung, die aus Kurve 2 in Bild 13 ersichtlich ist. Nach Gleichung (1) verhalten sich

$$\frac{\sigma_{Fe_3O_4}}{\sigma_F} = \frac{P_{Fe_3O_4} \cdot m_F}{P_F \cdot m_{Fe_3O_4}}$$

Die Kräfte P sind aus den Ausschlägen in Bild 13 zu ermitteln; $P_{Fe_3O_4} : P_F = 6,60 : 10,90$. Das Verhältnis der Mengen Eisenoxyduloxyd zu dem darin enthaltenen Eisen ergibt sich aus dem Atom- bzw. Molekulargewicht zu

$$\frac{m_{Fe_3O_4}}{m_{Fe_2O_4}} = \frac{167,5}{231,5}$$

Danach wird $\sigma_{Fe_3O_4} = 0,438 \cdot \sigma_F$ (bei 20°).

Legt man dem Eisen eine spezifische Sättigung $\sigma_v = 218,0$ zugrunde, so ergibt sich für Eisenoxyduloxyd der Magnetisierungswert $\sigma = 95,3$. Von J. L. Snock¹¹⁾ wird der Wert $\sigma = 93,8$ angegeben, während die Werte des älteren Schriftstums¹²⁾ moist unter 90 liegen.

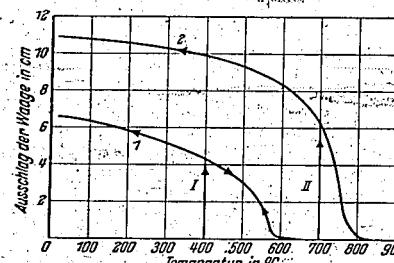


Bild 13. Temperatur-Magnetisierungs-Kurven von Eisenoxyduloxyd Fe_3O_4 (Kurve 1) und dem daraus reduzierten Eisen (Kurve 2).

Aufkühlungs- und Entkühlungsvorgänge von Stählen sind in der magnetischen Waage bereits früher untersucht worden¹³⁾. Über die mengenmäßige Verfolgung der Aufkühlung von feinverteiltem Eisen in strömendem Kohlenoxyd zu Eisenkarbid wird an anderer Stelle berichtet werden¹⁴⁾.

Ebenso wie in der magnetischen Waage Reaktionen der eingesetzten Stoffe mit zugesetzten Gasen verfolgt werden können, ist es auch möglich, Umsetzungen innerhalb des Stahles, besonders die beim Anlassen ablaufenden, quantitativ zu erfassen. Geeignet hierfür sind z. B. die Karbidbildung in den verschiedenen Anlaßstufen unlegierter und legierter Stähle und die Ausscheidung von Verbindungen aus übersättigten Mischkristallen. Da über solche Versuche demnächst ausführlicher berichtet wird, soll hier nur das Grundsätzliche an Hand eines Beispiels angeführt werden.

Wie aus dem Zustandsschaubild Eisen-Niob hervorgeht¹⁵⁾, kann in einer Eisenlegierung mit 2% Nb alles Niob durch Erhitzen auf 1300° in das δ-Zustandsgebiet in Lösung gebracht werden. Diese homogene Lösung kann durch Abschrecken bei Zimmertemperatur als metastabiler Zustand erhalten werden. Wird diese nunmehr übersättigte Lösung durch Temperaturhöhung in einen Bereich merklicher

Diffusionsgeschwindigkeit gebracht, so beginnt das übersättige Niob sich als eine Eisen-Niob-Verbindung auszuscheiden mit der wahrscheinlichen Zusammensetzung Fe_2Nb . Diese Verbindung ist unmagnetisch. Da ihre Bildung mit der Abbindung eines Teiles des ferromagnetischen Eisens verknüpft ist, nimmt die Magnetisierung des Eisen-Niob-Mischkristalles ab. Wenn man die Zusammensetzung Fe_2Nb als richtig annimmt, so werden bei der Verbindungsbildung von 2% Nb 2,39% Fe abgebunden. Wäre die Verbindung Fe_2Nb , würde derselbe Niobgehalt nur 1,79% Fe abbinden. Die in der magnetischen Waage zu erwartende

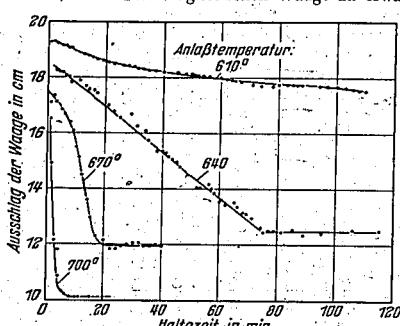


Bild 14. Änderung der Magnetisierung einer Eisenlegierung mit 2% Nb bei verschiedenen Anlaßtemperaturen (bei 610° ist das Ende der Ausscheidung nicht abgewartet).

Ausschlagsänderung ist also 1 bis 2 % des Gesamtausschlags. Um derartige kleinen Änderungen mit hinreichender Genauigkeit beobachten zu können, muß der größte Teil des Ausschlags durch die Eichwaage (Bild 1) ausgeglichen und der Restausschlag nach Entfernen des Bleigewichtes G mit hoher Empfindlichkeit gemessen werden. In Bild 14 sind für vier verschiedene Anlaßtemperaturen die beobachteten Ausschlagsänderungen angegeben. Die verwendeten Proben waren von 1300° in Wasser abgeschreckt worden. Sie wurden dann im Ofen der magnetischen Waage auf die in Bild 14 jeweils angegebene Temperatur angelassen und die Magnetisierungsänderung in Abhängigkeit von der Haltezeit gemessen. Zur Veranschaulichung der Meßgenauigkeit sind in Bild 14 die unmittelbar beobachteten Ausschläge in cm aufgetragen.

Zahlentafel 3. Änderung der spezifischen Sättigungsmagnetisierung einer abgeschreckten Eisenlegierung mit 2% Nb durch Anlassen.

Anlaßtemperatur °C	Sättigungsmagnetisierung σ_{20} gemessen bei 20° nach Abschrecken eig.-Eichwaage	Aenderung der Sättigungsmagnetisierung $\Delta \sigma_{20}$ gemessen bei 20° nach Anlassen	$\Delta \sigma_T$ gemessen bei der Anlaßtemperatur
640	242,2	3,049	2,236
670	242,0	2,811	1,993
700	241,9	2,864	2,824

In Zahlentafel 3 sind die daraus berechneten Aenderungen der Magnetisierung angegeben. Wie unten dargelegt wird, ist für mengenmäßige Berechnungen der bei 20° gemessene Wert $\Delta \sigma_{20}$ geeigneter als der bei höheren Temperaturen gemessene Wert. Zahlentafel 3 gibt hierfür als Mittelwert $\Delta \sigma_{20} \sim 2,90\%$. Diese Aenderung darf mit guter Näherung als ferromagnetisch verschwundene Eisenmenge gedeutet werden. Bei der Verbindungsbildung Fe_2Nb ist jedoch eine Aenderung von höchstens 2,39% zu erwarten, nämlich

¹¹⁾ Physiker 3 (1936) S. 403/83.

¹²⁾ Gmelins Handbuch der anorganischen Chemie, 8. Aufl. Syst.-Nr. 59: Eisen, Teil 3, Berlin 1932, S. 52.

¹³⁾ Körber, F., H. Wiener und W. A. Fischer: Arch. Eisenhüttenw. demnächst.

¹⁴⁾ Eggers, H., und W. Peter: Mitt. K.-Wilh.-Inst. Eisenforsch. 20 (1938) S. 201; vgl. Stahl u. Eisen 68 (1938) S. 416/66.

dann, wenn das Niob restlos ausgeschieden wird. Aus der gemessenen um rd. 0,5% größeren Aenderung von 2,9% muß man demnach entnehmen, daß die Verbindung ein Löslichkeitsvermögen von rd. 0,5% Fe hat, wenn die Löslichkeit des Eisens für Niob als verschwindend-klein angeschen wird; hat dieses Löslichkeit jedoch einen nennenswerten Beitrag, so muß um diesen Wert auch die Löslichkeit der Verbindung für Eisen verringert werden, um die angeführten Meßergebnisse deuten zu können. Eine dritte Möglichkeit zur Deutung wäre die Annahme einer eisenreicherer Verbindung als Fe_2Nb .

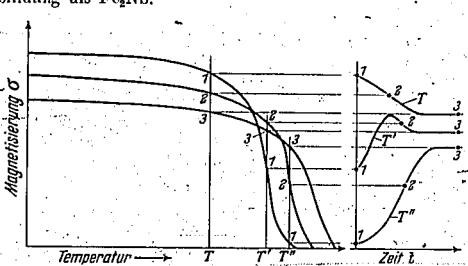
Kurviformen konnten bei mehreren Stählen beobachtet werden. Diese Beispiele zeigen, daß aus Magnetisierungs-Zeit-Kurven nur mit großer Vorsicht Schlüsse auf den Umwandlungsablauf gezogen werden dürfen. Vor allem wird die mengenmäßige Auswertung erschwert. Daher röhrt auch der Unterschied zwischen den Werten $\Delta \sigma$ bei 20° und höheren Temperaturen in Zahlentafel 3. Der Einfluß der Curiepunktverschiebung auf die Magnetisierungswerte nimmt nach tieferen Temperaturen immer mehr ab. Deshalb wurden der oben angeführten Rechnung die $\Delta \sigma$ -Werte bei 20° zugrunde gelegt.

Diesen Schwierigkeiten stehen eine Menge unbestreitbarer Vorteile des magnetischen Verfahrens gegenüber, die kaum mit anderen Mitteln erreicht werden können. Wie aus den beschriebenen Beispielen hervorgeht, ermöglichen die Sättigungsmessungen mit Leichtigkeit die Ermittlung von weniger als 1% Phasenmenge mit einer Meßgenauigkeit von 1%. Bei derart kleinen Mengen versagen Mikroskop und Röntgenstrahlen vollkommen. Andere bei der Untersuchung der Stahlvergütung übliche Verfahren, wie die Messung von Härte, Koerzitivkraft, Kerbschlagzähligkeit usw., erlauben nur mittelbare Schlüsse. Ein großer Vorteil der magnetischen Sättigungsmessung besteht unter Umständen darin, daß der zu untersuchende Bestandteil nicht selbst erwärmt wird, sondern die ihm chemisch äquivalente Eisenmenge. Gerade bei den Reaktionen im festen Zustand können die sich neu bildenden Phasen in einer Teilchengröße unterhalb der Größe der magnetischen Elementarbereiche vorliegen; in dieser Verteilung ist die ausgeschiedene Phase selbst durch magnetische Sättigungsmessung röntgenographisch oder mikroskopisch nicht fassbar. Wird dagegen, wie in dem angeführten Beispiel, die abgebundene Eisenmenge gemessen, so spielt der Verteilungsgrad keine Rolle.

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Es wird eine neue magnetische Pendelwaage beschrieben, bei der die Magnetisierung durch Ausschlagsmessungen bestimmt wird. Die erreichte Meßgenauigkeit ist 0,5% der zu bestimmenden Magnetisierung. Magnetisierungsänderungen können mit zehnfach höherer Genauigkeit gemessen werden.

Die Anwendung der magnetischen Waage wird an folgenden Beispielen erläutert: Die Bestimmung des Karbidgehaltes in unlegierten Stählen, des Ferritgehaltes in Nickel- und Chrom-Nickel-Stählen, die Temperatur-Magnetisierungs-Kurve mit den Umwandlungspunkten des Eisens, einer Eisen-Mangan- und einer Eisen-Nickel-Legierung zwischen -150 und +400°, der Reaktionsablauf bei der Reduktion von Eisenoxyd, die Bestimmung der Sättigungsmagnetisierung von Eisenoxyduloxyd, die Bildung der Eisen-Niob-Verbindung beim Anlassen von Niobstählen.



Bilder 15 und 16. Abhängigkeit der Magnetisierung von Temperatur und Zeit bei übersättigten Mischkristallen vor (1), nach (3) und in einem Zwischenzustand (2) der Ausscheidung.

Werden wie hier bei der Auswertung Magnetisierungs-werte bei verschiedenen Temperaturen und von verschiedenen Zuständen miteinander verglichen, so ergibt sich eine grundsätzliche Schwierigkeit durch Verschiebungen des Curiepunktes. Bei den oben beschriebenen Ausscheidungsvorgängen hat die Aenderung der Magnetisierung zwei verschiedene Ursachen. Neben der bereits besprochenen Abnahme der Magnetisierung durch das Unmagnetischwerden des Eisenanteiles der Verbindung ändert sich die Magnetisierung aber auch infolge Curiepunktverschiebungen. Dieser Einfluß kann sehr stark sein, wie z. B. im System Eisen-Titan, das den Curiepunkt sehr stark erniedrigt; er kann aber auch fehlen, wie beispielsweise in den Legierungen des Eisens mit Wolfram oder Zinn, die den Curiepunkt unverändert lassen. In diesen Fällen wirkt das Legierungselement bei allen Temperaturen gleichmäßig erniedrigend auf die Magnetisierung. Nur bei diesen Legierungen kann ein Ausscheidungsvorgang genau durch die Magnetisierungsänderung wiedergegeben werden; die ausgeschiedene Menge ist dann verhältnismäßig der Magnetisierungsänderung.

In Bild 15 sind schematisch durch die Temperatur-Magnetisierungs-Kurve Anfangs-, End- und ein Zwischenzustand eines Ausscheidungsvorganges dargestellt, bei dem das ausgeschiedene Element den Curiepunkt des Eisens erniedrigt: Im Ausgangszustand (1) liegt daher der Curiepunkt bei tieferer Temperatur als im Endzustand (3). Deshalb wird bei hinreichend hohen Temperaturen T' oberhalb des Curiepunktes von (1) die Magnetisierung im Verlauf des Ausscheidungsvorganges ständig ansteigen; der Ausscheidungsvorgang wird durch Kurve T' in Bild 16 angezeigt. Bei Temperaturen T hinreichend tief unterhalb des Curiepunktes von (1) wird der Ausscheidungsvorgang in erster Linie durch die verschwindende Eisenmenge bestimmt; der zeitliche Ablauf wird durch Kurve T in Bild 16 angegeben, die im Gegensatz zur Kurve T' ständig abfällt. Bei Zwischen-temperaturen T' kann es vorkommen, daß die Magnetisierungs-Zeit-Kurve zunächst ansteigt und dann wieder abfällt, ohne daß der Ausscheidungsvorgang selbst einen derartigen Ablauf zeigt. Die drei verschiedenen Kurvenformen konnten bei mehreren Stählen beobachtet werden. Diese Beispiele zeigen, daß aus Magnetisierungs-Zeit-Kurven nur mit großer Vorsicht Schlüsse auf den Umwandlungsablauf gezogen werden dürfen. Vor allem wird die mengenmäßige Auswertung erschwert. Daher röhrt auch der Unterschied zwischen den Werten $\Delta \sigma$ bei 20° und höheren Temperaturen in Zahlentafel 3. Der Einfluß der Curiepunktverschiebung auf die Magnetisierungswerte nimmt nach tieferen Temperaturen immer mehr ab. Deshalb wurden der oben angeführten Rechnung die $\Delta \sigma$ -Werte bei 20° zugrunde gelegt.

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6

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UNCLASSIFIED.

New Studies on Lubricating Capacity
and its Measurement.

J. Kluge

Mitt. deuts. Akad. Luftfahrtforschung No.6 pp.299-313.

The problems of lubricating have existed as long as technical apparatus has been employed. In every case friction losses and material losses have to be reduced by lubrication. In this connection, friction loss denotes loss of energy: it is of particular importance in the lubrication of instruments. On the other hand, the material loss (wear) is mainly important in the lubrication of machinery. It leads to destruction of the running surfaces and thereby endangers the machine.

It is now to be fundamentally maintained that lubrication depends not only on the lubricant but also on the material of the bearings and the properties of the lubricated part (construction and operating conditions of the bearing). Consequently, oil chemists, experts on materials and constructors must work together in the closest manner in order to solve the problems arising. The Physikalisch-Technische Reichsanstalt has always taken trouble to assist such collaboration by acting as intermediary and helper.

In this connection it is only necessary to refer to the hydrodynamic experiments carried out in the Reichsanstalt on the film-formation on gliding and roller bearings. Amongst other things, these experiments yielded important information on the construction of sliding bearings. On the other hand the ideas and conclusions of the hydrodynamic theory of the lubrication of bearings received substantial confirmation from this work. The hydrodynamic theory had great significance in so far as it enabled the evaluation of lubricants for processes involving purely fluid friction to be reduced to a measurement of viscosity.

However, for the lubrication of heavily-loaded gliding surfaces it is not sufficient to choose a lubricant on the basis of its viscosity alone. It is only necessary to mention the fundamentally different behaviour of a fatty oil and a pure mineral oil in the lubrication of engines and gears. This is due to the fact that under high loading or in absence of a lubricant (e.g. piston ring lubrication) the bearing surfaces slide wholly or

partly in solid contact over one another. In this case molecular boundary-surface forces come into play between the lubricant and the material of the bearing, which cannot be evaluated from the viscosity measurement. Modern research into lubricants summarises the effect of these boundary-surface forces in the conception of lubricating capacity, without thereby being able immediately to arrive at a solution of the problems involved.—In most cases the correct choice of a lubricant could only be made, as before, on the basis of a costly works-scale experiment. There was, therefore, an urgent need to find reliable methods of measurement and the fundamentals for evaluation which would enable the choice of a lubricant to be made on the basis of the above-mentioned behaviour of the boundary layer, i.e. on the basis of the lubricating capacity. The recent work of the Reichsanstalt, which was carried out in the first place with reference to the special importance of piston-ring lubrication, has given a decisive contribution to this problem.

Before reporting this work in detail it must be clearly stated that in the case of lubricated gliding surfaces it is necessary to differentiate several operating conditions. If, for example, the gliding surfaces are separated by a hydrodynamically-formed film, then we speak of hydrodynamic lubrication, as mentioned above, or full lubrication. The load is in equilibrium with the hydro-dynamically built-up pressures and the viscosity is the only decisive criterion for the lubricant. If the load is too high or the speed of rotation too small, so that a hydrodynamic film is unable to form, then the lubricant acts only in thin layers adhering to the boundary surfaces, and accordingly this condition is known as boundary layer lubrication. In this case the lubrication is not affected by the viscosity. On technical gliding surfaces boundary layer lubrication and full lubrication frequently exist side by side and we then speak of partial lubrication. In order to further explain these terms, Fig. 1 shows the friction coefficient of a sliding bearing in relation to the velocity ω , or rather in relation to the non-dimensional quantity $\eta \cdot w/p$. As can be seen from this example, in the region of partial lubrication, in contrast to full lubrication, the friction coefficient becomes smaller as the viscosity increases; in the same way the velocity relationship is fundamentally different in partial lubrication and in full lubrication. Therefore it is not permissible to transfer measured values and experimental results obtained for one condition of lubrication to another condition of lubrication. Therefore in future we should speak, for example, of the suitability (of a lubricant) for full lubrication, suitability for boundary-layer lubrication, etc.; the criterion of suitability for full lubrication will then be the viscosity while in deciding the suitability for boundary-layer lubrication the forces in the boundary surfaces between lubricant and bearing have to be taken into account. Thus suitability of a lubricant for boundary-layer lubrication is almost identical with the conception already defined as lubricating capacity. In this sense it is not possible to employ the well-known oil-testing machines for the purpose of determining lubricating

capacity since they work more or less under conditions of partial lubrication, i.e. the values determined with these machines for friction and wear do not depend on viscosity and are only partially influenced by the boundary layer forces which are responsible for the lubricating capacity. In this connection it should be noted that the hydrodynamic part of the lubrication cannot be shown by these testing machines. The results obtained in individual repetitive and comparative tests will differ greatly so that measurements made in the state of partial lubrication are not sufficiently reproducible; this fact also excludes the possibility of evaluating the lubricating capacity of lubricants on the basis of experiments made under the condition of partial lubrication.

On the other hand, the new methods of measurement developed in the Reichsanstalt operate strictly under the condition of boundary lubrication so that the process of sliding can be investigated as a pure process involving only the boundary surfaces. The values determined in this way for the friction coefficient, temperature rise and wear can therefore be used satisfactorily for the evaluation of lubricating capacity. Since the measuring apparatus has already been partly described in detail in other papers, we will here merely summarise its most important characteristics. The sliding device consists of a plane rotating disc against which is pressed a needle-shaped test body; a definite, reproducible fine-lapping process is used for the gliding surfaces. In this way the geometrical conditions of the gliding arrangement can be satisfactorily controlled, and on the other hand a uniform pressure distribution is obtained. Under these conditions the measurements of friction and temperature rise can be made to an accuracy of 2%. In addition, the small dimensions of the needle-shaped test-body ensure small development of heat, which can be adjusted in a few seconds according to the prevailing test conditions. The time required for measurement is therefore short and the original working conditions are hardly altered during the measurement. In contrast to this, a bearing, for example, causes large generation of heat, i.e. the experimental temperature alters considerably during the actual measurements. Moreover, a steady temperature rise is only achieved after a considerably longer time, which causes a continual variation in the working condition of the gliding surface.

For the actual measurement of the friction-, heat generation- and wear values which determine the gliding process, fundamentally new types of electrical and electro-mechanical methods were employed in the experiments carried out by the Reichsanstalt. In this connection it should be especially noted that the measuring devices have no reactions on the actual gliding arrangement. Thus the force-measuring device works only with a path of a few μ , i.e. the mutual position of the two gliding bodies is hardly altered during the measurement. Similarly, the device for measuring wear (path measurement) works with an accurately controllable pressure of only a few grams. Also it is important that no position of resonance exists between the gliding arrangement and the measuring device. Further, it is a great advantage of the new measuring methods that

the relatively small measured values for friction, temperature rise and wear can be magnified by electrical amplification in any desired way, independently of the mechanical conditions. It is thus possible to read off the measurements with an ordinary galvanometer or electrical recorder. In the following we will first describe some measurements made with the pair of materials steel - cast iron, which illustrate the way in which it is possible to evaluate a lubricant from measurements of boundary layer friction.

Evaluation of Lubricants from Measurements of Boundary Friction.

The measurements plotted in Fig. 2 show, firstly, the conditions of pressure, roughness, etc., which must be maintained in order that the friction will not be affected by viscosity even at the lowest gliding velocities, i.e. so that pure boundary lubrication is obtained. We first investigated two pure hydrocarbon oils of very different viscosities. It is seen that with increasing pressure the friction coefficient approximates to a constant limiting value. This limiting value is denoted in the following by "limiting friction coefficient", and it is the same for both oils on account of their equal boundary surface properties. On the other hand, at lower pressure, there is partial formation of a hydrodynamic film, which reduces the friction coefficient. It can also be seen that this hydrodynamic effect becomes the more pronounced the greater the viscosity and the smaller the roughness. It is worth noting that it has been established that the limiting friction coefficient itself depends neither on the viscosity nor on the pressure and surface roughness. As is shown by the measurements plotted in Fig. 3, the limiting friction coefficient is also independent within wide limits of the gliding velocity. Therefore the limiting friction coefficient is very suitable for the evaluation of a lubricant in so far as, for a given pair of materials, it depends only on the temperature. It was proved by comparative friction measurements made with a pure mineral oil and with a fatty oil that this conclusion agrees in general with practical experience. It can be seen from Fig. 4 that the limiting friction coefficient for the fatty oil is considerably smaller than that for the mineral oil. The figure shows particularly clearly, the different friction behaviour at the lowest sliding speeds and with static friction. Moreover, in the case of the mineral oil, the sticking friction is greater than the gliding friction, while with the fatty oil it is smaller than the gliding friction. In this connection the terms "falling limiting friction characteristic" and "rising limiting friction characteristic" were coined respectively, whereby, according to the experience of the Reichsanstalt, the rising characteristic of the limiting friction coefficient, in investigations made with the pair of materials steel - cast iron, is always a particular characteristic of a lubricant having good lubricating capacity.

Of the numerous measurements made in this connection we will mention comparative tests made with a vaseline and a wool fat (lanoline). In agreement with the foregoing considerations the measured values plotted in Fig. 5 show for the vaseline, which, from the point of view of its boundary surface behaviour and its lubricating capacity, corresponds to a pure mineral oil, a falling characteristic for the limiting friction, while the wool fat, representing an animal fat of well-known high lubricating quality, shows a rising characteristic. In addition, the mean friction coefficient of the woolfat is smaller than that of the vaseline. It is also worth noticing that it is therefore possible to carry out measurements of the limiting friction on consistent materials by means of the experimental arrangement developed at the Reichs-anstalt. In order to obtain a further insight into the systematic relationship between the limiting friction and lubricating quality, or into the factors which determine lubricating quality, investigations were made of the limiting friction when using different, chemically defined substances.

Limiting Friction and Constitution of a Lubricant.

It has been known for a long time that the lubricating capacity of a pure mineral lubricant can be improved by the addition of substances which are active on the boundary surface. We may refer to the ordinary "Germ-process", in which traces of free oleic acid are added. As an example, Fig. 6 shows the limiting friction coefficient for pure cetane and cetane with the addition of various quantities of oleic acid. In agreement with practical experience ("Germ Process") it is seen that the addition of even a small quantity of oleic acid gives a smaller friction coefficient than that of pure cetane. In addition, with addition of increasing quantities of oleic acid the limiting friction characteristic changes from a falling curve to a rising curve. It is noticeable that even extremely small quantities of oleic acid, such as 1 Vol. %, cause a considerable alteration in the behaviour of the limiting friction; in this connection it has to be borne in mind that 1 Vol. % of free oleic acid corresponds to a neutralisation number of only 0.2. This strong effect of the oleic acid is obviously attributable to the strong polarity of the groups in the end position. For further proof of this fact comparative tests were carried out on homologous alcohols and acids. Fig. 7 shows in a comparative form the limiting friction coefficient for these substances. In every case the stronger polarity of the acid groups occupying the end position (in the molecule) - by comparison with the corresponding OH-groups - leads to a rising characteristic for the limiting friction and a lower average friction. Moreover, within an homologous series the friction coefficient becomes smaller the greater the length of the chain. In addition, alcohols have approximately the same limiting friction behaviour (falling characteristic) as the saturated compounds.

-6-

It was also possible to demonstrate the effect of the groups occupying the end position in the molecule by friction investigations made with various butyl derivatives. The limiting friction values for the three halogen compounds of butyric acid are plotted in Fig. 8. The iodide clearly has a rising curve for the limiting friction characteristic, which is obviously attributable to its greater polarity, while the chloride shows a pronounced falling characteristic.

Summarizing, we arrive at the result that the rising or falling nature of the curve for the limiting friction characteristic of a lubricant, as observed with the pair of materials steel - cast iron, is due to the greater or lesser polarity of its constituents. On the other hand the limiting friction coefficient at higher velocities depends both on the polarity of these constituents and also on the molecular size (length of chain). Since all the ordinary technical lubricants have, on an average, approximately the same molecular weight, the effect of the polar groups on the limiting friction coefficient of technical lubricants will therefore be the predominant one in the region of greater gliding velocities. In particular, the limiting friction behaviour of a fatty oil, in contrast to that of a pure mineral oil, will be determined by the polar molecules of the free fatty acid or by other constituents of greater polarity.

Evaluation of a Lubricant by Measurement of Wear in the Condition of Boundary Lubrication.

As was mentioned previously, the behaviour of a lubricant determines not only the friction but also the wear at the lubricated part. However, in by far the majority of cases the wear should be of greater importance. On the basis of friction measurements it was now to be supposed that under the various individual conditions of lubrication the wear, in the same way as the friction, would be governed by fundamentally different laws. Thus, in the condition of full lubrication, no kind of wear occurs because the bearing surfaces are separated by a liquid film. Therefore wear can be determined only in the conditions of partial lubrication or boundary lubrication. However, so long as it is not possible to give a measure of the hydrodynamic component in investigations of partial lubrication, only the condition of boundary lubrication comes into question for the accurate measurement of wear - as in the case of the investigations of friction.

Investigations made at the Reichsanstalt have shown that the removal of material, generally known as wear, is in fact so fundamentally different in the case of partial lubrication from that of boundary lubrication that in future the term wear (Verschleiss) will only be applied to the removal of material under the condition of partial lubrication. This decision is arrived at particularly from investigation of engine lubricants having known wear-behaviour. Fig. 9 shows the variation with time of the removal of

material for a fatty oil and for a pure mineral oil; the curves are drawn from results obtained for the wear of the needle-shaped test body in the Reichsanstalt experimental arrangement under conditions of pure boundary lubrication,

The observation that the fatty oil, of well known good lubricating capacity and particularly good wear behaviour in the engine, when investigated under the condition of boundary lubrication gives almost twice as much wear as the pure mineral oil, is fundamentally new. It was also possible to make this observation on numerous other lubricants of good lubricating capacity. In every case a lubricant of good lubricating quality, when investigated under the condition of boundary lubrication, gave greater wear than a lubricant of worse lubricating capacity. As a further example Fig. 10 shows corresponding comparative tests on a vaseline and the wool fat mentioned previously (lanoline). An explanation of this observation of the wear of materials under the condition of boundary lubrication and its application to the condition of partial lubrication prevailing in the engine, is obviously provided by the fact that the amount of wear occurring in the state of boundary lubrication depends more or less on good running-in behaviour of the lubricant, which is of greatest importance in preparing and maintaining a good running surface and for ensuring the reliable running, for example, of an aero-engine. Or, expressed in another way, the lubricant which has good running-in behaviour ensures, by a rapid but uniform wear of the material at the bearing positions of high-pressure loading, that these positions are smoothed and the peak-loadings are flattened out, which otherwise, under continuous action on the material, would lead to destruction of the running surfaces.

Fundamentally, it has to be stated that the removal of material in the condition of partial lubrication is mainly caused by overstressing of bearing material at the positions where high pressure peaks occur. Therefore further use of the term wear is meaningful and permissible only in this connection. On the other hand, in the condition of pure boundary lubrication, the wear of the material corresponding to the running-in behaviour preponderates. It causes an additional automatic finest surface treatment of the running surfaces, whilst wear leads to destruction of the running surfaces.

Both types of removal of material now occur simultaneously under the condition of partial lubrication, though numerically the removal of material due to wear is greater than that corresponding to the running-in behaviour. However, the latter has a decisive effect on the wear because, as already mentioned, the parts endangered by wear are smoothed and therefore the high pressure peaks are flattened.

On the other hand the removal of material observed under the condition of boundary lubrication enables us to recognise the running-in behaviour of the lubricant in its purest form, because in

this case it is assumed that the load on all parts of the gliding surfaces is uniform. The actual pressure stressing is of the order of magnitude of the mean pressure calculated for the whole gliding surface. Positions where peak stresses occur, which are liable to wear, and which are particularly characteristic of the condition of partial lubrication, do not occur in pure boundary lubrication, or they can be avoided.

Summary

It is shown that it is suitable to differentiate between lubricating quality under conditions of full lubrication, boundary lubrication and partial lubrication. While for full lubrication the lubricating quality is determined by viscosity alone, the quality for boundary lubrication depends on the boundary surface forces between the layer of lubricant and the material of the bearing. It is independent of viscosity and is identical with the term "lubricating capacity" which is generally employed. In the same way the condition of boundary lubrication is not influenced by hydrodynamic viscosity effects, it is much more a pure boundary surface process. In the case of partial lubrication, boundary surface forces and viscosity are active side by side.

The measuring apparatus designed by the Reichsanstalt for investigations of lubricating capacity works strictly in the condition of boundary lubrication. The differing lubricating quality of a technical lubricant in gliding experiments made with the pair of materials steel - cast iron is expressed by the curve for the so-called limiting friction characteristic. By investigations made with chemically defined substances it has been possible to determine a systematic relationship between the properties which determine lubricating capacity and the limiting friction characteristic. The measuring accuracy obtained in measurements of limiting friction is relatively high at about 2%.

Lubricating capacity is expressed particularly clearly by measurements of wear under the condition of boundary lubrication. In every case, under this condition, a lubricant of better lubricating quality gives greater wear than does a lubricant of worse lubricating quality. This is a case of more or less good behaviour of the lubricant, which leads to an additional chemical-mechanical finest working of the gliding surface. It is shown that the removal of material corresponding to the running-in process is not to be confused with grinding. However, a close connection exists between the two.

On the basis of the new studies of lubricating capacity it has been possible to obtain valuable criteria for the suitable choice of a lubricant and for the building up of a synthetic lubricant. Thus, amongst other things, the Reichsanstalt's experiments have led to an explanation of the behaviour of high-grade armament oils of synthetic origin. Also, problems of the wear

of piston rings have been essentially clarified. According to the experience at present available, a comparative evaluation of lubricants by the new methods of measurement leads to a classification in terms of lubricating capacity which in every case agrees with technical experience. For more accurate details of the new measuring methods developed by the Reichsanstalt, reference should be made to the papers and reports listed in the bibliography.

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Figures.

Fig. 1 Friction curve obtained by Striebeck
0 Region for sticking-friction and boundary lubrication.
Partial - Full lubrication.

Fig. 2. Friction in relation to pressure and roughness.
Steel - cast iron Velocity 4 cm/sec.
Temperature 20°C.

Fig. 3. Limiting Friction and Heat Generation for Oils of Different Viscosities.
Steel - cast iron Temperature 20°C.

Fig. 4. Limiting Friction of a Mineral Oil and a Fatty Oil.
Steel - Cast Iron Temperature 20°C.
Mineral Oil
Fatty Oil.

Fig. 5. Limiting Friction of Vaseline and Lanoline.
Steel - Cast Iron Temperature 20°C.
Vaseline
Lanoline

Fig. 6. Limiting Friction Value of Cetane with Addition of Oleic Acid.
Steel - Cast Iron Temperature 20°C.

Fig. 7. Limiting Friction for Homologous Alcohols and Fatty Acids.
Steel - Cast Iron Temperature 20°C.

Fig. 8. Limiting Friction of the Butyl Derivatives.
Steel - Cast Iron Temperature 20°C.

Fig. 9. Wear, under the Condition of Boundary Lubrication, using
Mineral Oil and Fatty Oil.
Steel - Cast Iron Temperature 20°C.
Fatty Oil
Mineral Oil.

Fig. 10. Wear, under the Condition of Boundary Lubrication, using
Vaseline and Lanoline.
Steel - Cast Iron Temperature 20°C.
Lanoline
Vaseline.

Discussion.

Houdremont: I thank Herr Esau for the interesting insight which he has given us into the investigations being currently carried out at the Reichsanstalt into this very difficult, but so extraordinarily important problem, and I now open the meeting for discussion.

Rosso, Dessau (guest): The particular point of interest to me in the paper is that steel and cast iron were used as the pair of comparative materials. We are certainly forced to depart from the materials formerly used and we now have to employ cast iron in engine construction even for parts in which it was not previously used. Previously, we have had only the example of the piston ring for comparison of the use of steel with that of cast iron. Now we are trying to use cast iron itself for the sockets of piston pins. With all these parts we

have, in operation, reversion points in the velocity, so that conditions similar to those investigated here, can therefore occur. What we have so far been able to establish in practice is that not any steel will go with any cast-iron, but that if a steel is changed it is also necessary to change the cast iron. I am referring to the known fact that piston rings intended for use with a soft cylinder steel are constructed differently from those to be used with cylinder liners of nitrided steel. Also, in the case of the sockets of piston-pins, it has been shown that different types of cast iron always give different behaviour in operation. Therefore, what particularly interests me in these investigations is:- what steel and what cast iron were used, or were different kinds investigated? If the investigation was limited to a single cast iron then I am particularly interested to know whether the agreement with our practical experiences was obtained with a perlitic unalloyed cast iron or with a slightly alloyed cast iron - in which the perlitic condition can be reached with even greater certainty - or whether no particular attention was paid to this point.

Kluge, Berlin (as guest): The cast iron used in the experiment was a liner casting provided by the firm of Goetze. We have also used other kinds of cast iron and were unable to establish any great effect of the material on the limiting friction. On the other hand, in investigations of wear, the effect of the material is considerably greater. The steel used was a steel spring wire containing 0.9% carbon, 0.15% silicon and 0.50% manganese. The liner casting contains 3.3% carbon, 0.9% manganese and 1.8% silicon.

Heidebroek, Dresden (as guest): The method developed by the PTR for measurement of friction forces represents, on account of the accuracy of the measurements and their undoubted reproducibility, a considerable contribution to the methods for investigating the physical properties of lubricants. However, in order to arrive at a successful evaluation of the experimental results, a discussion of the following questions is required:-

I. Which phase of lubrication is present?

Boundary friction or mixed friction? (according to the newly established definitions of the D.V.L.). When the report was written these definitions were not available and have not therefore been taken into account. In order to answer question I it is important to know the thickness of the applied layer of lubricant, i.e. whether it is only the thickness of 1 or 2 molecular-lengths, or whether it is thicker.

In the first case we would have to deal with "true" boundary friction, i.e. a condition in which the orientation of the molecules is determined chiefly by the adhesive-forces or the free surface valencies of the metal surfaces. In the second case, i.e. when the thickness of the lubricating film is greater, hydrodynamic

effects are not excluded, but are only effective in the sense that it is no longer the effect of the surface forces alone which determines the condition of the molecules; in this connection, it has so far been generally assumed that they only act in the film through about 1-2 molecular lengths, although orientation processes, which according to my observations affect the structure of the lubricating film at greater distances, certainly induce a different type of viscosity in the film than is suggested by the usual conception.

In other words, the question has to be answered as to whether we are dealing with a true epilamen friction (as defined by Holm) or a friction in an already consolidated oil-film.

Since the lubricant is applied in a "thin layer" and the film is continuously renewed by the leather pad, the assumption of an epilamen is hardly possible; therefore, by comparison with molecular-lengths, the film will have a thickness of a multiple of the latter. Some explanation based on measurement would be desirable.

II. What is Friction Force?

The measured value of the actual resistance to movement between needle and disc is a purely technical measurement, and certainly it is very accurately measured. The question is:- In this process do only the surface forces of the metal surfaces come into play, namely through the epilamen, or does it include a component of "internal" fluid friction ?

The order of magnitude of the measured friction values lies as a rule between $\mu = 0.1$ and 0.2 and is therefore hardly any higher than in the case of badly greased technical lubricating process, i.e. which is certainly associated with wear. From this, two facts may be concluded:-

(a) If processes of internal fluid friction are being measured at the same time, then in a certain sense the process is indeed "hydrodynamic", but only to the extent that it is not possible to make the calculation with the ordinary, purely hydrodynamic coefficient of viscosity, but instead, owing to the orientation effects (consolidation etc.) we have to introduce another viscosity coefficient, which in any case is not independent of the material, but which, unfortunately, has not yet been sufficiently investigated though it has been determined for the pair of metals in question.

However, if the friction process is "hydrodynamic" in this limited sense, it therefore depends on shape.

The diameter of the needle, of 0.6 mm., is - always in relation to the size of the molecule - a technical area, which in any case is very much greater than, for example, the area of flattening in ball bearings. If this is so, then the measured

friction force K is a complex function of velocity, pressure, viscosity (in the above sense) and the geometrical shape of the rubbing surfaces, i.e. it depends on a constant particular to the apparatus and cannot therefore be transferred directly to other pieces of apparatus. Therefore results obtained with one piece of apparatus are not directly comparable with those obtained with another piece of apparatus.

Certainly most of the abovementioned factors are kept constant in relation to one another by the exactness of the PTR measuring technique, and amongst other things the effect of temperature is almost eliminated; therefore the measurements are very excellently reproducible amongst themselves, but only for the local conditions under which they were carried out.

Question:- Is one justified in these circumstances in speaking of an absolute friction coefficient?

In my opinion there is not, in general, one such value, at least not in technical practice.

(b) If the experiment is of longer duration, wear will certainly occur. But dissolved ground particles will obviously impart to the film a greatly altered structure (colloidal condition, structural viscosity). The PTR has obviously succeeded in excluding this effect for the duration of the measurement. But in practical processes of lubrication it would certainly occur under the specific loading employed. But this fact again shifts the process of lubrication into another phase. Lubrication processes with and without wear are not directly comparable, consequently neither are the so-called "lubricating capacities". The "wear-resistance" of a lubricant is not identical with lubricating capacity, i.e. it is not a known function of the friction coefficient.

Here again, we cannot speak of an absolute friction coefficient.

III. The Technical Process of Lubrication.

There is no technical process of lubrication which is independent of shape, i.e. not affected by the geometrical form of the lubricated parts; consequently, the friction coefficient is also always a function of the geometrical arrangement of the lubricated parts. When mixed friction occurs, three determining factors always operate, namely:-

- (a) the geometrical shape of the lubricated part, i.e. the conditions with regard to flow
- (b) the suitability for lubrication of the adjacent materials
- (c) the lubricating properties of the lubricant.

Certainly, the measurement made with the PTR apparatus will prove necessary for the further progress of knowledge if the following questions are gone into:-

1. Do the friction coefficients alter if, instead of the pair of materials steel- cast iron, we chose another combination of materials ?
2. What part is played by the surface condition of the measuring disc, which depends definitely on the crystalline structure of the material ? Can similar, i.e. comparable, surface conditions be generally prepared in the case of heterogeneous, different materials ?
3. How do the friction coefficients behave under variable loading, particularly on transition into the phase of wear and at different temperatures ?
4. What cause is responsible for the increase in the friction coefficient in the case of the so-called fatty oils (having strongly active boundary surfaces) and the decrease in the case of the mineral oils.

The PTR appears itself to incline to the view that this rise or fall is caused purely by the technical measuring conditions employed (see p.17 Report 1478). In that case this characteristic would depend on the apparatus, and cannot therefore be evaluated absolutely. It could be imagined that, in the case of the mineral oils, with their long chains, "elastic" properties would preponderate (they are undoubtedly present in high-molecular oils), but that the fats on the other hand would be more plastic or amorphous. This would again place the chemical structure of the material in the foreground.

A hydrodynamic explanation is also possible:- Decreasing relative velocities cause a diminution in film thickness and thereby a reduction in the friction. The fatty oils (i.e. having active boundary surfaces) permit a smaller thickness of film, but the high molecular substances do not because as the layer becomes narrower they become "solidified" in the sense of a quasi-crystalline change in structure. They therefore resist a great reduction in film thickness and therefore increase in friction.

Therefore nothing accurate can be said regarding lubricating capacity or wear-resistance.

Discussion

Holm, Berlin (as guest): The wear curves plotted by Herr Kluge start off more steeply for the good lubricating fatty oils than for the mineral oils. However, as far as I have seen, the two gradients become approximately equal after a time, i.e. in the polished contact the further wear is the same in both cases. Technically, this later wear is particularly important. How does it now proceed in the opinion of the gentlemen of the Reichsanstalt?

Herr Heidebroek has asked the question of how thick the film of lubricant (epilamen) is in boundary friction. With the aid of measurements of conductivity, which were evaluated on the basis of the tunnel effect, I have estimated the thickness at 1 to 2 layers of molecules (20 - 40 Å). An interesting confirmation of this estimate is obtained from a paper by von Gillhausen.¹⁷ He covers contact bodies with one-, two- or several-layered lubricating films according to the method of Langmuir and Blodgett and then finds that the undamaged layer is insulating if it is thicker than about 2 layers of molecules. In the layer of lubricant, the films are certainly made impure by the particles released by wear of the metal. This may have upset my measurements but it cannot have falsified them entirely.

Kluge: In reply to the questions posed by Herr Heidebroek, I would like to make the following remarks. The terms lubricating capacity, mixed friction, boundary lubrication, etc., employed by us in previous reports (ZWB-Reports 1442 and 1478) agree with the standardised nomenclature decided on at the DVL-meetings on 11th and 12th December, 1941. In this connection - to take up the most important of Herr Heidebroek's points - no distinction was made between boundary friction and epilamen friction. Both terms are identical. Moreover, according to this agreement, the condition of boundary lubrication is characterised by the fact that the friction is not measurably affected by the viscosity. In our experiments no such influence is present and therefore the condition of boundary-lubrication is provided satisfactorily.

If, now, we have also been able to show that the boundary friction coefficient of a lubricant, i.e. the friction coefficient measured under the condition of boundary lubrication, is, for a given pair of materials, independent of pressure, of roughness and, within certain limits, of gliding velocity, it is then entirely justifiable - for a given pair of materials - to speak of the limiting friction of a lubricant. This is so all the more, since in the state of boundary lubrication the chemical structure of the lubricant, which is responsible for the boundary surface forces, is clearly expressed. All the same, it certainly should not be for-

Footnote.

- 1) H. von Gillhausen: Electrical Perforation.

gotten that the selected method of treatment of the gliding surface, such as turning, grinding, polishing, etc., can cause great changes in the structure of the gliding surface with corresponding effects on the whole gliding process, in the same way that other boundary surface phenomena (e.g. wettability) are greatly affected by the method of surface treatment employed. For these reasons, we employ in our experiments a high precision lapping process, by which changes of this kind are avoided by using the smallest possible working pressure (0.02 kg/cm^2) and smallest possible working velocity (2-3 cm/sec.), or at least are kept small.

For further explanation I would like (as has already been done in the present paper) to refer to the fact that, in agreement with the standardisation decided on at the DVL meeting, we understand by lubricating capacity the suitability for lubrication in the transition or boundary lubrication. It is this lubricating capacity which has been investigated in our experiments. What conclusions can be drawn from the friction and wear values determined in the condition of boundary friction with regard to the technical process of lubrication has already been stated both in the present paper and on the occasion of the last DVL discussion. Obviously, in technical lubrication, hydrodynamic lubrication must also be observed besides boundary lubrication. Since hydrodynamic lubrication has been essentially explained by research and the appropriate laws have long been known, the new methods of the Reichsanstalt now make it possible to accurately investigate boundary lubrication in the same way, not only as regards friction but also as regards wear. In this connection, it has been possible to prove, by a whole series of supplementary experiments, that the laws discovered are of a general nature and are not due to the particular choice of experimental apparatus. This has been repeatedly stated by us. Also in the part of our ZWB Report (No.1472, p.17) quoted erroneously by Herr Heidebroek, nothing to the contrary is stated by us. Instead, at that part of the report we describe a piece of work carried out in England, in which the "friction oscillations" communicated in this paper are easily explained by us by means of the limiting friction characteristic.

The laws governing boundary friction which have been observed by us are so general in nature that the condition of boundary friction can be adjusted also in making other measurements (e.g. measurements of wear) solely on the basis of the prevailing relationship between pressure and friction coefficient. That is to say that the loading is increased up to the point at which the friction coefficient shows no further variation. Only then is the loading assumed to have established solid contact and a hydrodynamic component of lubrication is no longer active. The measurements of wear were therefore carried out under the same conditions as the measurements of friction. If necessary, the friction and wear can even be measured simultaneously by means of the Reichsanstalt experimental apparatus. The assumption of a particular phase of wear, i.e. of a further condition additional to those

mentioned in the above standardisation, is therefore completely unnecessary. Fundamentally it has to be maintained that the influence we have observed of the lubricant on wear in the condition of boundary lubrication is due only to the action of the boundary surface forces. No hydrodynamic component of lubrication is active. We have frequently referred to the fact that, in boundary lubrication, the wear is an important characteristic of the running-in behaviour of a lubricant. However, it also has a special importance for partial lubrication. The most important of the questions asked by Herr Heidebroek have therefore been answered.

In reply to the separate question asked by Herr Holm, I should like to say that in our gliding experiments the transitional resistance is considerably smaller than one Ohm. It is not possible at the moment to give more accurate data.

As regards the question of the effect of duration of time on wear, the following can be said. We certainly tried to obtain a short-time measurement which is characteristic of the running-in behaviour of the lubricant. Accordingly, our measurements of wear are made on newly-treated gliding surfaces. In doing this care is also taken to obtain a definite condition of surface preparation. In measurements made over longer periods, the wear, considered absolutely, will become smaller with time, but in spite of this the fatty oil, as regards wear, is qualitatively higher than the mineral oil.

Busk, Berlin (as guest): In my bearing experiments and measurements of oil-film pressure it has been shown that at the edges of gliding bearings, at high loadings and using certain oils, it is possible for the rise in pressure in the oil film to exceed 1000 atm. in the case of bearings 1 mm. in breadth. This means, therefore, that the oil-film pressure in a gliding bearing, within the loaded region, can rise to a value of more than 1000 atm. at a distance of even 1 mm. from the edge of the bearing if the bearing is suitably loaded. From these investigations I conclude that in the measurements made by Herr Kluge, considerable oil-film pressures can also build up under the small test wire. Herr Kluge gives as a characteristic of his apparatus that, for example with oils of different viscosities, the same friction values were obtained. It is much more likely that with the more viscous oil a thicker film is formed under the needle and therefore the friction coefficient is affected and that with the less viscous oil the thinner oil-film produces higher friction values.

As a machine constructor I now ask myself why, in order to judge of lubricating capacity, we do not measure what actually causes the bearing-strength of a bearing.

Bearing and guiding surfaces should transmit forces. The forces in the bearing must essentially be carried through the lubricant from one gliding part to the other and they can only be

supported directly for a short time as small partial loads without separating the lubricant from the gliding surfaces. Therefore the lubricant which will possess the best lubricating capacity is the one which remains for the longest time between the gliding surfaces and even during a short standstill of the guiding parts ensures a transmission of force at the points of reversal of the motion.

If now the oil-film pressure is measured at these positions, it is possible to determine from the measurements the fraction of the load which is transmitted through the lubricant. From the steepness of the rise in the oil-film pressure we can then perhaps judge the lubricating capacity, since the fall in oil-film pressure in the narrow lubricating slots from the inside of bearings towards the outside depends on the viscosity of the lubricant and on the binding forces between the lubricant and the gliding surfaces. In the case of an oil of good lubricating capacity, steeper oil-film pressure gradients must occur in the narrow lubricating slots, owing to the large binding forces between the oil and the gliding surfaces, than is the case with oils of worse lubricating capacity and having smaller binding forces, with which we would expect an easier release of the oil-film pressure and flowing away of the oil outwards.

For these reasons I believe that from measurements of oil-film pressure and determination of its gradient conclusions may be drawn regarding the lubricating capacity of the oil and the collaboration between the metals to be lubricated and the lubricant.

Kluge: I would like, quite briefly, to say with regard to the question of partial lubrication and boundary lubrication that the observations concerning boundary lubrication, which we have made on the basis of the abovementioned measurements of limiting friction with lubricants having large differences in viscosity, can be very well supplemented by measurements of wear. Oils which behave in the same way, so far as concerns the active properties of their boundary surfaces, give the same wear values in the condition of boundary lubrication, in spite of their different viscosities. I can only make a bad guess at how this fact should be explained through a hydrodynamic component of friction. If the assumption should be correct, that in the Reichsanstalt experiments mixed friction still occurs in spite of all the precautions taken, then the more viscous lubricant having the greater hydrodynamic friction component would have to give smaller wear than does the less viscous oil.

Heidebroek: The structural condition of the oil-film is very considerably affected by the fact of whether it contains particles torn off from the surface. By this means we can imagine the lubricant being in a kind of colloidal condition and this, as the papers of Philipoff show, causes a different kind of viscosity - so-called structural viscosity. In this case the size of the particles taken up is naturally of importance. Therefore we are measuring, not the behaviour of the pure lubricant, but that of one having very variable molecular structure.

-19-

Berger: I, who do not know the apparatus, am interested to know the pressure at which the needle - which is said to be only 0.6 mm. thick - was pressed against the disc and whether always at the same pressure and at the same velocity. Should not different measurements enable conclusions to be reached regarding the velocities and pressures at which oil-wedge formation occurs and at which pure metallic contact occurs.

Holm: From Herr Kluge's experiments I have calculated that on a polished contact the average quantity ground away by a contact surface each time it passes across amounts to one or a few surface layers of the metal. The initial wear is ten times greater.

Kluge: With regard to the relationship between boundary friction and pressure, I would like also to say that some of the investigations of boundary friction were carried out at pressures up to 2000 kg/cm^2 and that no kind of dependency on pressure was observed up to these high pressures. This is a very decisive proof of the fact that no hydrodynamic friction component is active in our methods for investigating boundary friction.

Prandtl: I would merely like to ask a small question. What is the actual fact with regard to the relationship between pressure and wear?

Kluge: We cannot say anything final about the relationship between pressure and wear in boundary lubrication. However, a few interesting facts have obviously evolved. In any case the wear does not increase in the manner expected with increasing pressure. For example, in one case we doubled the pressure and the wear increased by only a few per cent. The wear values which we have given were determined when the mean pressure over the cross-section of the gliding surface amounted to 500 kg/m^2 .

Prandtl: Has the oil-film been subsequently investigated to see whether the microscopic particles form an emulsion which in turn affects the friction and wear process?

Kluge: No microscopic examination of the disintegrated material formed during the wear experiment has been carried out so far. Even if the removal of material does not take place in the molecular layer, the particles removed are certainly still very small.

Körber: It could be done with the ultra-microscope.

IAG.

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UNCLASSIFIED

Molecular-Physical Processes occurring in Lubrication¹⁾

by L.Wolf,

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The Problem.

Scientific research into lubrication is now in a similar position to the state of electro-chemistry shortly before the introduction of the theory of ions. From the point of view of this condition, the object of modern research into lubrication can be characterised by the task of giving to the term "lubricating capacity"²⁾ an equally precise and pregnant meaning as the ion-theory has given to the term electrolytic conductivity.

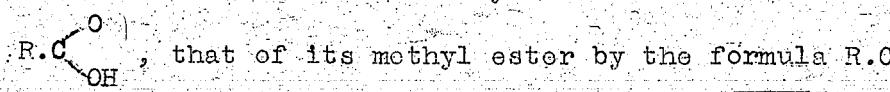
If we sketch the progress of research into lubricants, as it has proceeded for the last 10 years, then we set the following picture: In the domain of full lubrication²⁾, the mechanical-descriptive treatment of Sommerfeld, Gumbel, Reynolds, Michel etc, based on the hydrodynamic Kontinuums theory, appears to be sufficient on the physical side of the process; however, in spite of many speculations, the widest aspect of the material side of the problem, i.e. the question of the relationship between the material nature of the working material and the lubricant, on the one hand, and the lubricating quality of the latter, on the other hand, remains quite open. In the range of boundary lubrication the Kontinuums theory, developed from the technical aspects of flow processes, is not sufficient even to describe the physical process; thus, as on the technical side continually higher requirements were imposed³⁾, this found expression in the fact that it was thought possible to remove the difficulties which arose in increasing measure by resorting to such vague and temporary terms as oiliness, unctuousness or slipperiness.

We have reasons for assuming that these difficulties - at least the greater part of them - are to be found in the neglect of the discontinuous, i.e. molecular, structure of the material. From the standpoint of the molecular theory the problem of lubrication is a question of the arrangement of the molecules in the interior of the lubricant and on the boundary surface between lubricant and working material, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, the mutual energy reactions existing between the molecules of the lubricant, between the atoms of the working material (always assumed here to be a metal!), and its molecules and between the atoms of the metal. In any given case the task is therefore to produce a quite definite arrangement of the molecules between the metal surfaces and at the same time to keep this arrangement sufficiently stable and flexible. Therefore,

regarded from this aspect, research into lubricants means in the first place investigation of the inter-molecular forces and the state of molecular arrangement inside the lubricant (problem of fluid or full lubrication) and at its boundary surface with the metal (problem of boundary lubrication). The condition of mixed or partial lubrication, in which full lubrication and boundary lubrication operate simultaneously side by side, on the other hand, requires special treatment of its fundamental problems which naturally is not yet available.

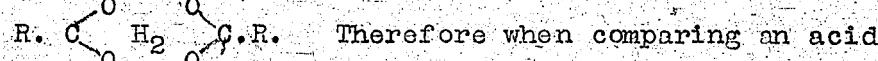
Full Lubrication.

As already stated, the condition of full lubrication, regarded from the technical aspect of flow, is governed by the hydrodynamic Kontinuums theory. Starting from the macroscopic properties of the material, which in this theory are assumed to be known, it determines essentially the viscosity of the lubricant and its dependency on pressure and temperature. The problem of the relationship between lubricating quality and chemical constitution in this respect is therefore primarily the problem of the relationship between chemical constitution and viscosity, or, in general, the mechanical properties of the liquids. This problem has often been tackled, but even in the simplest cases has not yet been adequately answered. The reason for this we have recognised as lying in the fact that the scope of the problem is too narrow so long as chemical constitution is understood merely as the formal composition and structure. The properties of liquid substances in particular are determined not only by the arrangement and union of atoms in the molecular combination, as is usually meant by the word constitution, but also in a high degree by the arrangement and mutual union of the molecules in the space occupied by the liquid. This denotes, if we discuss an example in this connection. The molecule of a fatty acid is characterised by the formula



The large difference in the mechanical properties of a higher fatty acid and its methyl ester (which in the case of the viscosity amounts to about a whole order of magnitude) must therefore be caused - if only the chemical constitution in the abovementioned narrower sense were decisive by a very small material change which hardly disturbs the structure of an individual molecule. Actually, more accurate investigation shows that the smallest particle which independently performs its thermal motions in the interior of the liquid is, in the case of the esters, actually one of the composition and form $\text{R.C} \begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ | \\ \text{OCH}_3 \end{array}$, but

in the case of the acids (if not too strongly diluted) it is a double molecule of the form



Therefore when comparing an acid

with its methyl ester we are not really comparing substances whose basic components (in the sense of the kinetic theory) are of similar size and form. Similar circumstances prevail if an alcohol, $R.OH$, is compared with its methyl ester $RO.CH_3$; the first of these (in not too dilute liquid solution forms a complicated mixture of super-molecules (ROH) of different viscosities η and different shape⁴); the second (the methyl ether) is present in the form of the simplest molecules $RO.CH_3$. A comparative morphological investigation can not therefore lead to the required result in this case so long as the super-molecular structure of the liquids is not taken into account. This effect is noticeable in the most sensitive manner in mixtures of liquids and when temperature changes occur, since on dilution and with increasing temperature the super-molecules are increasingly broken up into super-molecules of lower viscosity. If it is assumed that in mixtures of liquids the formation of super-molecules, or "association", is superimposed on the mutual reaction with the molecules of the solvent (phenomenon of solvation) and that association, in the same way as solvation, affects the viscosity in the same sense, and if it is further noted that on dilution of an associated substance the association decreases but the solvation increases and also that the temperature coefficients of association and solvation often differ greatly from one another and that corresponding intra molecular phenomena can also occur⁴; in the case of larger molecules, then it can be realised how many assumptions have to be fulfilled with respect to the material if it is attempted to proceed systematically by experiment to prepare liquid lubricants which shall have a constant viscosity over a large range of temperature and a low setting point.

Boundary Lubrication.

Even more various and contentious is the molecular-physical treatment of boundary lubrication. We speak of boundary lubrication - possibly with a small bearing slot and small gliding velocity - when the friction is independent of the macroscopic viscosity η ⁵. If for this case the friction coefficient (for gliding friction) is investigated at the same lubricated position using various liquid lubricants we obtain the result shown in Table 1 in which - in addition to the required absence of a dependence of friction on the viscosity coefficient η in the region of boundary lubrication - it should be noted that the saturated hydrocarbons give the lowest friction and that within an homologous series the friction decreases with increasing size of molecule. It is surprising to see the high friction coefficients found for the acids, by comparison with those found for the hydrocarbons, since it is known that in practice the lubricating quality of paraffin oils is often improved by the addition of fatty acids. This led us to investigate the effect of acid admixtures on the friction coefficients of saturated hydrocarbons. We were thereby able to make the observation (discussed in Fig. 1 by reference to one of several examples) that on addition of the smallest quantities of fatty acids the friction at first increases quite considerably and it is only improved by further increase in the acid concentration. Therefore this brings up the surprising problem of whether the addition of acid occasionally employed in practice does not merely bring back to its

old quality an oil which is already partially spoiled by traces of acid. It was therefore necessary to carry out at the earliest possible moment technical experiments with chemically homogeneous oils of the greatest purity. In other solvents the effect is suppressed: in benzene, as Fig. 2 shows, it is practically non-existent: in this case the addition of acid causes the reverse effect and increases the friction.

The problem of the cause of the effect of additions of acid in first raising the friction and then decreasing it cannot be explained from measurements of friction alone. Since, by using the investigations carried out a short time ago by H. Dunken with alcohols we had found a simple relationship between the boundary surface tension γ of the alcohol against metal⁶⁾, and the values of the coefficient of static friction μ caused by it on metal surfaces, we therefore used the measurements of surface tension against metal to supplement the friction measurements. Measurements made for the homologous series of undiluted fatty acids showed in the first place that even with the acids a simple relationship exists between the boundary surface tension γ and the friction coefficient μ . Measurements made on solutions of the fatty acids in hydrocarbons also showed an analogy between friction and boundary surface tension, even though this was in the form that the boundary surface tension at that value of the concentration c at which the friction coefficient shows a sharp maximum, also shows an equally sharply pronounced minimum (see Fig. 3). This behaviour of the boundary surface tension with the concentration can be explained if the acid, which has an active boundary surface, contains a component with an even more active boundary surface which again returns at greater acid concentrations; the acid solutions are thus, not two, but three-component mixtures. Now the acids, when in very dilute solutions in substances free from dipoles, exist exclusively as single molecules. With increasing concentration these combine according to the requirement of the law of mass-action - rapidly to form double molecules, so that even in solutions of moderate concentration no more single molecules remain. The single molecules, which have a large and free permanent electrical dipole-moment, alter the boundary surface tension of the solvent very much more strongly than do the double molecules. This greater activity of the single molecules is responsible for the lowering of the boundary surface tension at small acid concentrations, which effect again vanishes at high concentrations, as do the dipolar single molecules. By evaluating the measurements of boundary surface tension by means of Gibb's absorption isotherms we were able to determine how great is the preferential adsorption of the single molecules over that of the double molecules; the appropriate results are given in Table 2.

Substances which form no non-polar double or super-molecules consequently show no minima of this kind, as is given for example by investigations on mixtures of benzene with heptane, of carbon tetrachloride with paraffin oil or of halogen derivatives of benzene with cyclohexane or heptane. On the other hand, as is shown by the two examples given on Tables 3 and 4, selective absorption also occurs.

Further explanation of the behaviour of the friction coefficient should be obtained from current investigations on the abovementioned and other mixtures of liquids⁷.

The investigations of boundary surface tensions, on the other hand, have already proceeded so far that we are already able to make a few far-reaching statements here.

Boundary Surface Tension, Adhering-Strength and Tearing-Strength.

We will characterise the adherence of a liquid to a boundary surface by a statement of its "adhering-work", which can be measured in erg/cm², i.e. the amount of work which has to be expended to tear away a layer of liquid from an area of 1 cm² of the boundary surface. This "adhering work" can also be determined by the relationship given by Dupree,

$$H = \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 - \gamma}{12} \quad (1)$$

from the boundary surface tension γ_{12} and the surface surface-tension σ_1 and σ_2 of the two components meeting at the boundary surface. The values of the "adhering-work" obtained in this way are summarised in Tables 5 and 6. They show the following:-

1. The "adhering work" increases with the ability of the molecules to polarise.
2. The "adhering work" of the fatty acids is greater than that of the alcohols.
3. The "adhering work" increases within the homologous series of alcohols and esters with increasing number of carbon-atoms; within the homologous series of acids it remains constant.
4. The "adhering work" for alcohols and acids decreases with branching of the carbon chain.

From the values of the "adhering work" H it is possible to determine (from the relationship:- force = work/path) the appropriate adhering-strength (to be measured in dyn/cm² or in kg/cm²): in doing this a distance of 10⁻⁸ cm can be regarded as sufficiently long for the path, since the inter-molecular forces fall off very rapidly with increasing distance. The adhering strengths, which give a measure of the forces required to tear away a boundary surface of 1 cm² in area, correspond to the tearing strengths in the interior of the liquid or metal (likewise given in dyn/cm² or kg/cm²). These are obtained from the ripping strength H_z , analogous to the "adhering work", which is determined for liquids from measurements of surface tension using the formula corresponding to formula (1).

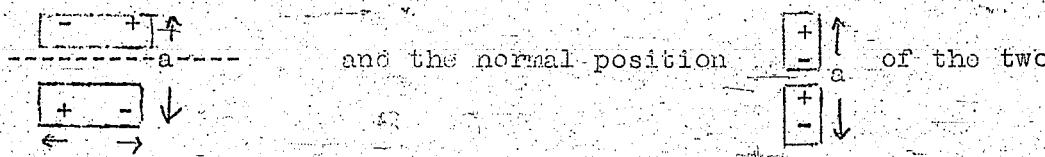
$$H_z = 2\sigma \quad (2)$$

and in the case of metals can be determined directly by experiment. A summary of the relevant numerical values is given in Table 7. From this table it is seen that on tearing apart two metal plates which are joined together by a film of liquid, provided that the separation is done so quickly that no flow of the liquid can take place, it can be reckoned that the metal represents the position of lowest resistance towards the applied tearing stress. It thus becomes evident how and why a lubricant, for example in high-speed piston engines and gear-wheels, can have a corrosive effect, such as was observed by Heidebroek.

On the Theory of Boundary Surface Adhesion.

The above observations can be supplemented greatly by theoretical considerations. In this connection it will be expressly stated that the following considerations are only valid so long as one of the two members of the boundary surface is a metal and the other contains molecules which represent permanent electrical dipoles. Since otherwise the conditions appear approximately similar to those on water-boundary-surfaces, for which alone a greater amount of experience was available, the following Table 8 is sufficiently instructive.

We will consider - as may suffice for a first approximation - the mutual electrostatic action between a dipole-molecule, which is not soluble in a metal, and the metal. If a dipole-molecule approaches a metal surface it experiences a force of attraction, which can be understood as that acting between the permanent dipole and its mirror-image by interchanging the charges mirrored in the conducting surface. This force is of the same order of magnitude and type as that which leads to the formation of double molecules - the aforementioned mutual action between two real dipoles. Here, as before, two extreme possibilities have then to be investigated:- the tangential position



dipoles or of the dipole and its mirror image. The opinion is now prevalent - obviously under the influence of Jaquet's calculations - that polar molecules would always, or at least preferentially, be adsorbed on metallic boundary surfaces in the normal (= vertical) position. Jaquet, however, had based his calculation on the fiction of zero length of the dipole. A verification of the calculation by H. Dunken - an exact calculation - leads to the following result:- Let l be the dipole length and a the minimum distance of the two dipoles on both sides of the boundary surface, $q = l/a$ (the "reduced" dipole length) is the ratio of the two, π_t the potential of the tangential position and π_n the potential of the normal position. Then the quotient π_t/π_n , which measures the preference for the tangential over the normal position, and which we will describe

briefly as the "position factor" ξ , depends on the reduced dipole length in the manner shown in Fig. 4. From this figure the following can be seen:- For all values of $q > 0.32$, ξ is $> s$; at $q = 0.32$ it passes through s and for all values of $q < 0.32$ it is $< s$. This denotes that so long as the distance a is at least three times greater than the dipole length l , the normal position relative to the metal surface is preferred; otherwise the tangential position is preferred. If $q = 0.32$ then both positions are equally likely; in this case therefore a kind of degeneration exists with regard to the orientation of the dipole at the boundary surface. In the extreme cases $q = 0$, and Jaquet's special case ($q \approx 0$, the favoured position, with the double increase in energy ($\xi = 1 : 2$ and $2 : 1$ respectively) is also assumed to be the most disadvantageous. Calculation also shows that the potentials of the angles formed between the direction of the dipoles and the metal surface vary in different ways, so that small variations from the tangential position already require a considerable fraction of the total amount of energy π_t , whilst the potential π_n is almost insensitive towards deviations. However, this means that the tangential orientation has to be kept fairly rigid, but the normal orientation on the contrary - at the same binding strength - must be kept fairly mobile. From this it is seen that, depending on whether the dipole - as in the case of the alcohols - lies near to the molecular surface or - as in the case of the ketones and ethers - it lies more in the interior of the molecule, there are great possibilities of variation in the mechanical properties of the layers adsorbed in the metal surface which are the decisive factor in boundary lubrication. Therefore a first example of how the conditions may vary on account of effects other than the dipole effects is given in Fig. 5, which represents the result of the corresponding calculation for quadrupole molecules. However, the number of possibilities is determined not only by the nature of the forces but also by the nature of the density with which the molecules are packed in the boundary layer - which depends in turn on the shape of the molecule (see Fig. 6). Since the appropriate possibilities can nowadays be recognised on the basis of our knowledge of molecular structure, we hope that it should now be possible to deal with the problem of the structure of the required layer of lubricant in the sense of the considerations outlined in an introduction and to attack the problem of the improvement of lubricants in a systematic manner from the material aspect. From the fundamental viewpoint further explanation is still required of the question of how friction and wear are determined in detail by the various forms of the adsorption layer.

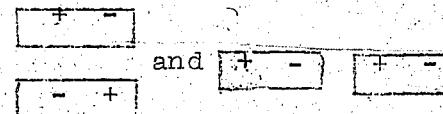
Footnotes.

- 1) A partially extended, partly abridged paper on the same subject appeared in the Journal "Die Chemie" - 1942.
- 2) In using the terms lubricating capacity, full lubrication, boundary lubrication and mixed lubrication we are adhering to the definitions given by the D.V.L.

3) As an example of how in practice attempts were made to get round these difficulties, reference may be made to a Russian investigation made in 1940. (E.G.Semenide, Petrol-Ind. U.S.S.R.1940 60.21.

4) Similar cases of the formation of super-molecules (or "association") occur with other classes of substances. Particularly in the case of alcohols the multiplicity of forms, as regards viscosity and the structure, is particularly great. On this subject see:- K.L.Wolf and A.G.Trueschmann "Practical Introduction to Physical Chemistry", Part 1, Braunschweig 1937, 107 pp. For the literature and newer results see H. Dunken, F. Judenberg and K.L. Wolf. Z. Phys. Chem(B) Vol.49, 1941 p.43 and also K.L.Wolf "Theoretical Chemistry" Part 2, Leipzig 1941 pp.220 & 347, in particular Part 3 (in course of preparation).

Of the various forms of super-molecule-isomers, the difference between the polar and non-polar super-molecules is of importance; if we diagrammize, in a simple manner, the formation of super-molecules by the attachment of two molecular dipoles, the two types can be represented as follows:-



With regard to the problem of the packing of the molecules and super-molecules in the liquid, which has also to be discussed in this connection, see K.L.Wolf and R.Grafe, Koll. Zeit 1942 Vol.98 p.257. Attempts to make use of these results in research into lubricants are now in progress.

5) For more detail see H.Dunken, I.Fredenhagen and K.L.Wolf, Koll. Zeit 100 (1942), in process of publication.

6) With a few lubricants which have been investigated recently this case appears to me to have been realised exactly.

7) For technical reasons the measurements of boundary surface tension were made against mercury and those of the friction coefficients were made against brass. Since the conditions on both metals are similar, the investigations can be compared. For details of the methods of measurement see I.Fredenhagen, Thesis, Halle, 1942.

8) In these later investigations we will also go into the observations of T.P.Hughes and G.Wittingham, Trans.Faraday Soc.1942.38.9.

9) We hope to be able to report later on how these considerations have to be modified in the case of non-metallic boundary surfaces and also on how on metallic boundary surfaces they have to be supplemented by taking into account the effects of non-static forces.

Discussion.

Houdremont:- I thank Herr Wolf for his paper. When this morning I brought up the question of the relationships which can exist between the lubricant and the boundary surface of the metal I did not know that today we would hear more - and in so excellent a form - on this subject, since I had not been told about the paper. I think we have been given a good insight into the connections of the lubricant and finally of the physical bonds which are set up at the boundary surface of the metal. If finally the relationships were to be mentioned between the tearing of a liquid, the tearing of liquid from metal, tearing of the metal, then these would already characterise the forces which here play a part; for the Academy itself, I suggest from this paper that we ourselves should undertake to call a conference on the problem of the nature of the chemical and physical bonds between atoms and groups of molecules. I believe that a meeting of this kind would certainly arouse great interest within the Academy. The paper is now open for discussion.

Holm, Berlin (as guest):- We have been given very interesting information on the forces which cause the molecules in the epilamen to adhere to the metal. It is equally important to learn what forces are responsible for the epilamen friction.

Wolf:- The intermolecular forces acting tangentially in the layer are responsible for mutual displacements of parts of the monomolecular layer adjacent to the metal. No work would have to be performed in displacing the whole film on the metal foundation, since this represents an equipotential surface, provided that the film and the metal foundation extended to infinity; in practice, the effects of the edges will be decisive.

Glocker:- I would like to ask whether measurements have already been made of the size of the cohesive forces of the molecules.

Wolf:- The measured boundary and surface tensions give a direct measure of the forces of adhesion to metal.

Joos:- The electrostatic bond is not the only bond, as is stated. If we have no dipoles, nevertheless a certain bond will be present as specific quantum bond.
What is the approximate behaviour of this?

Wolf:- In the first place we have confined ourselves to the electrostatic calculation for dipole-, quadrupole- and octupole arrangements. In time, these calculations naturally require to be enlarged in the manner suggested in Herr Joos' question.

Becker:- The author gives a table of the tearing strengths and then deals with the question of whether, in the process of separation, the separation from the solid foundation takes place within the liquid. However, the table represents the metals much too unfavourably when it gives for these the technical tearing strength, but gives for the boundary layer on the other hand the so-called

theoretical strength. For in the latter case we are reckoning as if the surfaces to be separated remain plane and parallel to one another during the whole process of separation, whilst the actual tearing process always spreads out from any weakened position. Therefore the technical strength is always considerably smaller than the theoretical. Only by leaving this circumstance out of account is it possible for liquid mercury to appear in the table as 20 times stronger than iron.

Wolf:- The point of view put by Herr Becker could be deceptive, since our considerations apply expressly only to the rapid process of tearing in which flow, which would be determined by the viscosity, no longer plays any part. In this case, smooth tearing is probable. Herr Smekal, who is particularly experienced in the problems of tearing strength, told me in reply to a question that he also considers it possible for liquids to be equally strong or stronger than metals.

In the case of solid bodies it is possible to calculate the tearing strength when the crystal lattice and the force-laws are known. The tearing strengths determined in technical experiments are known to be generally much smaller than the calculated values. The reason for this is that the calculations are made for a perfect lattice while in real crystal, according to Smekal, irregularities always occur, which cause a great reduction in tearing strength.

In liquids no such fault exists, since the irregularities are characteristic of the liquid; the values given in the paper for tearing strength, moreover, have not been calculated purely theoretically, but were determined from measurement of the surface tension of the liquid concerned, so that these measurements always refer to a real liquid. The values thus obtained are therefore very well comparable with the technical tearing strengths of metals.

With regard to the question of the effect of vapour pressure on liquids, this has been explained long ago by the investigations of J. Meyer (Abl. & D. Bunsen 1911) - obviously not very well known to technologists; he showed that the vapour pressure - contrary to the opinion generally expressed in technical circles - sets no upper limit to the tearing strength, thus, on rapid tearing - and my considerations refer only to this condition - the appearance of "nascent" vapour bubbles should play no part.

The investigations of Herr Heidbroek, moreover, appear to me to confirm our results.

Körber:- The effect of the experimental conditions has also to be considered. Gas content and similar factors can naturally greatly reduce the strength value of the liquid; this effect corresponds throughout to the influences which, in the case of metals, continually reduce the theoretical strength to the practical value.

Wolf:- It is planned to carry out investigations of the effect of the content of foreign gases on the tearing strength.

Houdremont:- Herr Becker! Can you not tell us something about the atomic binding forces? How is it, for example, with the atomic binding forces between iron atoms in the solid state and mercury in the liquid state at room temperature?

Becker:- This I think is the question which Herr Joos has just raised.

The total work which has to be performed in producing a surface of separation, therefore the product of force times path, is the same in the "theoretical process" (separation of two permanently parallel surfaces) and in the technical tearing process. Now, in the first case the path is very much shorter, whilst in actual tearing the same work is performed over a longer path.

Kluge, Berlin (as guest):- I would only like to ask how great was the pressure in your friction measurements?

Wolf:- The variation of the friction coefficients with pressure was measured up to pressures of 1 kg (with very small bearing surface). At pressures above $\frac{1}{2}$ kg. the friction coefficient was, as a rule, independent of pressure.

Kluge:- In choosing the pressure you have, in any case, proceeded just as we did. You increased the load until no further change occurred in the friction coefficient and then, exactly as we did, you concluded that the friction coefficient determined had been measured under the condition of pure boundary lubrication. I believe that this is the only correct method for obtaining the condition of pure boundary lubrication.

Vogelpohl, Berlin (as guest):- The arguments and measurements have applied to stationary liquids. What is the effect of motion? The shearing velocities in the actual lubricating slot are certainly extraordinarily great. And then - do these calculations permit predictions to be made of the change in physical properties in the boundary layer; whether, for example, the viscosity increases under the action of the boundary layers?

Wolf:- The calculation made at the end of the paper of the stability of the orientation aims at obtaining indications of how the boundary surface layer responds in different ways to shearing forces. Also, the determination of the change in viscosity should assist these calculations. Moreover, it will be essential to carry out measurements of viscosity in the boundary layer. The coefficient of viscosity thereby obtained will then certainly be somewhat different from the η value of Newton's mechanics.

-12-

Fig.1a. Friction Coefficient of Propionic Acid/Cyclohexane

Friction coefficient μ acid
Cyclohexane Fraction of Mol.

Fig.1b. Friction Coefficient of Valeric Acid/Heptane.

Friction coefficient acid
Heptane Molar fraction

Fig.2. Friction Coefficient of Valeric Acid/Benzene

Friction coefficient acid
Benzene Molar Fraction

Fig.3. Friction of Brass on Brass, using Valeric Acid/Cyclohexane as Lubricant

Friction coefficient μ
Boundary Surface Tension of Mercury against Valeric Acid/Cyclohexane.

Boundary surface tension γ Eng/cm² Molar fraction of the acid

Remainder of Figures require no translation.

-13-

Table 1.

Substance	Friction Coefficient	100
Cyclohexan	0.12 ± 0.005	0.96
Heptan	0.135 ± 0.005	0.40
Benzol	0.13 ± 0.005	0.65
Tetrachlormethan	0.19	0.95
Methyl alcohol	0.32	0.59
Ethyl alcohol	0.22	1.72
n-propyl alcohol	0.20	2.10
n-butyl alcohol	0.18	2.8
n-hexyl alcohol	0.14	5.3
Propionic acid	0.40	1.15
Butyric acid	0.35	1.59
Valeric acid	0.30	2.3
Caproic acid	0.25	32
Heptyl acid	0.22 ⁵	44
Nonyl acid	0.15 ⁵	8.1

Table 2. Distribution of Molecules in the Interior and in the Boundary Layer for Mixtures of Valeric Acid and Cyclohexane, mixed in Various Proportions, in Contact with Mercury.

Table 2.

Altogether 10,000 Molecules.

In the interior			In the boundary layer		
As single Molecules	As double Molecules	As Cyclohexane	As single Molecules	As double Molecules	As Cyclohexane
1	0.3	9999	9275	607	118
6	13	99981	6630	3152	18
23	203	9774	3566	6433	1
40	664	9296	2335	7665	0
99	3274	6627	1315	8685	0
94	9904	0	455	9545	0

Table 3. Distribution of the Molecules in the Interior and in the Boundary Surface in Contact with Mercury for Solutions of Iodo-Benzene in Heptane.

Table 3.

Based on a total of 100 Molecules

In the Interior		In the Boundary Surface	
Iodo-Benzene	Heptane	Iodo-Benzene	Heptane
1	99	14	86
4	96	34	66
12	88	65	35
64	36	96	4
32	18	98	2

Table 4. As Table 3 for Mixtures of Cyclohexane and Acetone.

Table 5. "Adhesion-Work" H_{Ng} for Various Substances on Mercury (at 22°C)

Substance	Surface Tension (dyn/cm)	Boundary Surface Tension (dyn/cm)	Adhesion-Work (erg/cm²)
Hexane	19.5	380	120
Cyclohexane	24.7	377	128
Benzene	28.6	366	143
Carbon Tetrachloride	27.3	358	149
Carbon Bisulphide	31	341	170
Dioxane	33.0	377	136
Chloro-benzene	33.1	350	163
Bromo	36.3	340	176
Iodo	39.5	306	214
Ethyl acetate	23.8	384	120
Ethyl tartrate	39.3	346	173
Phenyl acetate	37.3	353.7	164
cyclohexyl-acetate	25.3	360.4	145
Water	72.3	385	167
Ethyl alcohol	22.4	382	120
Octyl alcohol	27.0	367	140
Cyclopentanol	33	365	148
Acetic Acid	27.4	331	176
Octyl Acid	28.7	334	175

Table 6. "Adhesion-Work" on Mercury with Homologous series.

Substance	Surface Tension (dynm/cm)	Boundary Surface Tension (dynm/cm)	Adhesion Work (erg/cm ²)
<u>Alcohols.</u>			
Methyl	22.5	384	119
Ethyl	22.4	382	120
n-Propyl	23.7	379	125
iso-Propyl	23.7	384	117
n-Butyl	24.8	377	128
iso-Butyl	20	384	116
n-Hexyl	26.4	372	134
n-Acetyl	27	367	140
<u>Acids.</u>			
Formic	37.4	393	124
Acetic	27.4	331	176
Propionic	26.5	333	174
n-Butyric	26.6	335	172
n-Valeric	27.4	333	174
n-Hexyl	28.1	334	174
n-Heptyl	28.3	335	173
n-Octyl	28.3	334	175
n-Nonyl	29.9	332	178
<u>Esters.</u>			
Methyl acetate	24.9	388	117
Ethyl "	23.8	384	120
n-Propyl "	24.3	380	124
iso-propyl "	23.1	369	134
n-Butyl "	24.5	374	131
sec-butyl "	23.5	354	150
iso-butyl "	22.8	355	148
n-Amyl "	25.5	365	141
iso-Amyl "	24.8	348	160
n-Hexyl "	26.3	365	141
n-Heptyl "	27.1	357	150
n-Octyl "	28.7	343	166
n-Dodecyl "	29.1	341	168

-16-

Table 7. Tearing Strength and Adhering Strength.

Substance	Tearing Strength Z kg/cm ²	Adhering Strength Z _{haft} kg/cm ²
Cyclo-hexane	4,900	12,500
Benzene	5,600	14,300
C Cl ₄	5,600	15,000
Ethyl alcohol	4,500	12,000
Propyl "	4,700	12,500
Butyl "	5,000	12,800
Hexyl "	5,300	13,400
Propionic acid	5,300	17,400
Butyric acid	5,300	17,200
Heptyl "	5,600	17,400
Water	14,400	17,400
Mercury	96,000	16,700
Brass	5,000	96,000
Iron	4,000 - 7,000	

Table 8. Differences between Aqueous and Metallic Boundary Surfaces.

Substance	Boundary Surface Tension (dyn/cm) in contact with:-		"Adhesion-Work" H (erg/cm ²) in contact with:-	
	Water	Mercury	Water - Mercury	Mercury
Hexane	51.25	380	40.0	120
Octane	50.81			
Benzene	35.03	366	66.6	143
C Cl ₄	43.26	358	56.1	149
C ₆ H ₅ Cl	37.41	350	68.5	163
O ₂	48.36	341	55.8	170
Acetane	-	369	-	134
Mercaptan	26.12	340	68.5	160
Ethyl alcohol	-	332	92	120
Octyl "	8.52	367	90.8	140
Acetic acid	-	331	-	176
Heptyl "	6.56	335	94.6	173
Ester	25	350	75	150

Appendix

Definition of the Terms Frequently Employed concerning Lubrication 1)

1. Lubrication is the reduction of energy and material losses by the application of a suitable substance (lubricant) to parts of machines at which such losses occur owing to mechanical friction when they have to transmit forces, e.g. from moving to stationary parts (lubricated position).

2. Several types or conditions of lubrication have to be differentiated:-

Friction	Lubrication	Effect of Viscosity	Characteristic of the Process	Approximate Friction Coefficient.
Dry friction	None	None	Well-seizing etc.	Greater than 0.3
Boundary or epilaminar friction	Boundary or epilaminar lubrication	None	Molecular-mechanical; occurs in a few layers of molecules.	0.1 - 0.3
Mixed friction	Mixed or partial lubrication	Partial	Molecular mechanical micro-hydrodynamic; hydrodynamic; without dry friction.	0.005 - 0.1
Fluid friction	Full lubrication	Exclusive	Hydrodynamic	0.001 - 0.005 and greater 2)

When the friction coefficient μ is plotted against $\frac{v}{p} = x$, then:-
Rising branch of the curve - full lubrication ($\frac{du}{dx} > 0$)

Falling " " " " - all other types $\frac{du}{dx} < 0$.

3. The inequality of the lubrication in any one condition is governed by:-
the (in itself complex) lubricating property of the lubricant.

" " " " " the position to be lubricated.
" " " " " the material.

1) According to the agreement of 11/12 Dec. 1941 at D.V.L Meeting on Fuel Problems.

2) In special cases the friction coefficient can assume very high values, which far exceed those of dry friction e.g. in a/c superchargers or textile spindles.

As regards the lubricating quality of the lubricant it is necessary to differentiate the same number of qualities as there are conditions of lubrication, i.e. quality of the lubricant for full lubrication; for term partial lubrication and for boundary lubrication. The purely empirical "lubricating capacity", which has so far been in general use, coincides with the present term of lubricating quality of the lubricant for boundary lubrication.

The quality of the lubricant for mixed (partial) lubrication includes the quality for full lubrication (viscosity) and the quality for boundary lubrication (lubricating capacity).

In the condition of boundary lubrication a change in viscosity no longer causes any change in the friction coefficient, i.e. in practice Coulomb's law applies. Boundary lubrication occurs, for example, in anlaufend and not laufend machines and on rolling surfaces which are badly levelled (Hertz' surfaces). In the pure form it is realised in instruments designed for the measurement of boundary lubrication.

4. Bearing capacity: a mechanical term associated with machine parts. It is equal to the highest loading permissible for intended continuous running under given conditions of lubrication, without causing a transition from full lubrication to partial lubrication, from partial lubrication to boundary lubrication, etc.

5. Compression strength: a complex term associated with the lubricant, but which is affected by the mechanical conditions. The highest loading of a lubricant under fixed mechanical conditions which will not cause dry friction or corrosion.

6. Wetting (physical): covering of a solid surface with a liquid (marginal angle less than 180°).

7. Drying (physical): free from adsorbed or mechanically introduced lubricant (apart from graphite).

8. Adhesion-work: work in erg/cm^2 required to wet or dry a surface.

9. Adhering power (strength): adhesion-work path.

10. Film: coherent layer on a solid surface, whose thickness must be stated approximately. Lubricating film is a purely hydrodynamic term.

11. Dry contact: any contact between two solid surfaces, in which no atoms or molecules of another type are to be found between the surface atoms or molecules of the solid bodies (contact of this kind always denotes local corrosion although the condition which denotes technical corrosion only occurs when a greater number of surface particles are in dry contact. On the other hand, for example, metallic contact in the technical sense is not solid contact in the physical sense, even if an electrical current is transmitted. A current can pass, even through non-conductors, in very thin layers, as for example oil. This would correspond to the quasi-metallic contact as defined by Holm).