Journal of Scientific & Industrial Research



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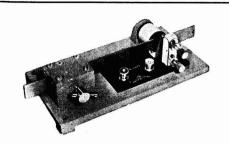
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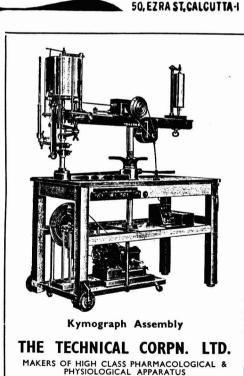
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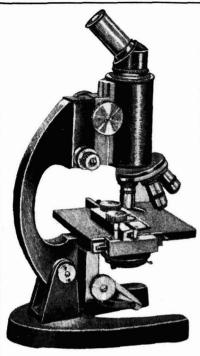
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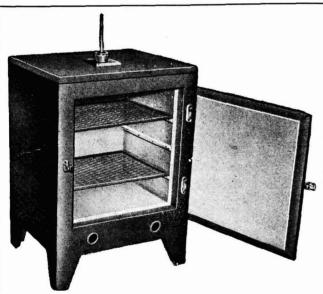
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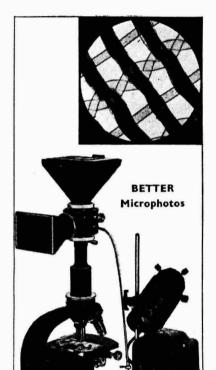
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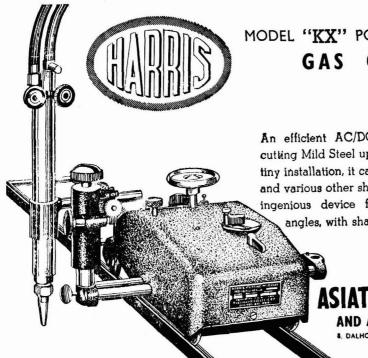
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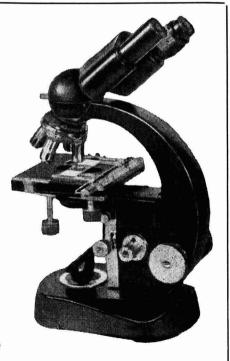
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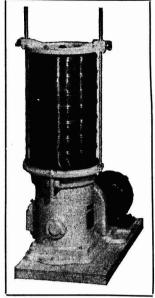
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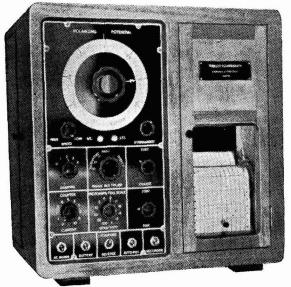
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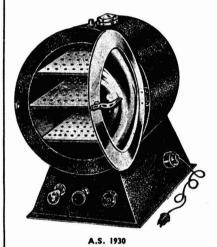
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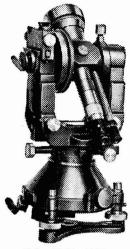
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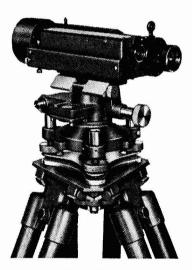
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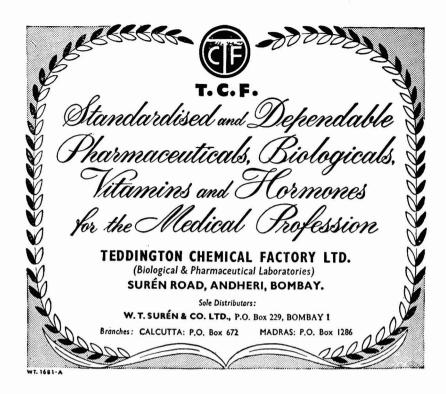
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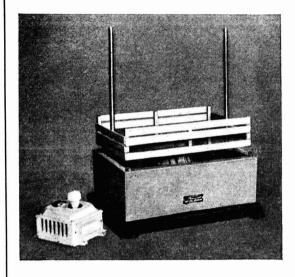
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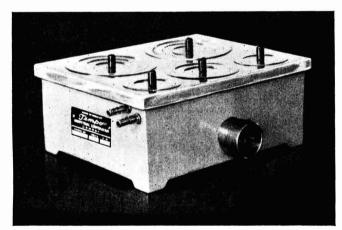
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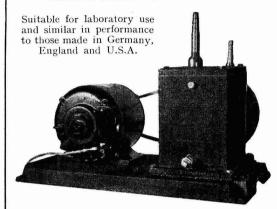


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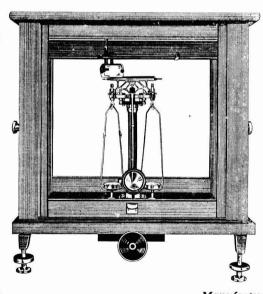
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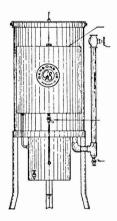
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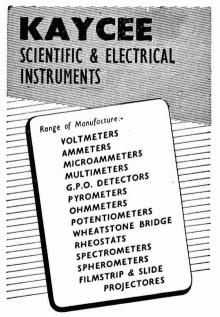
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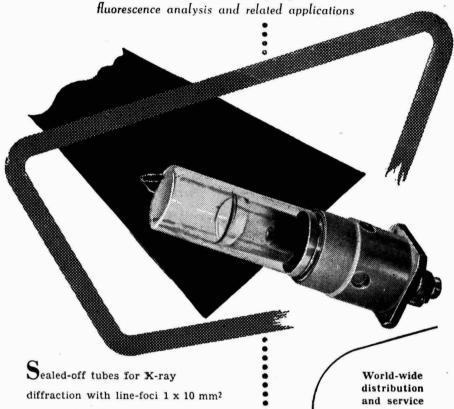
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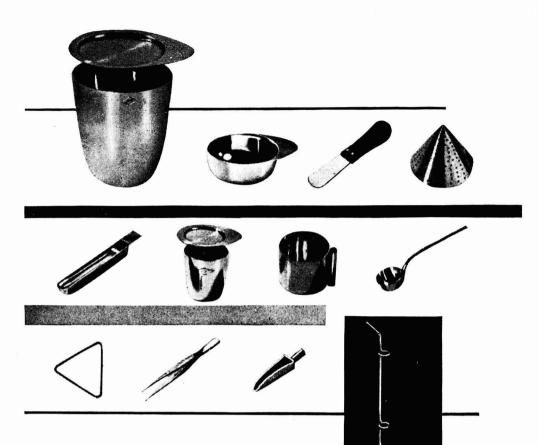
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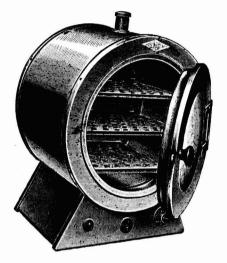
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Table 1 shows the *relative* costs of fuel and electrical energy in different industries in India. It will be seen from the last column in the table that the cost of fuel in most industries is very low in comparison with the value of the products made. This low fuel charge on the manufacture of products exerts practically no financial pressure on the industry, with the result that there is no financial stimulus towards fuel economy: the average fuel charge is only about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and this includes electrical energy consumed.

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| Cotton textiles | 412.8 | 4.75 | 13.06 | 1.15 | 3.16 |
| Jute textiles | 169.3 | 1.19 | 2.36 | 0.70 | 1.40 |
| Iron and steel | 69 · 9 | 7.86 | 8.87 | $11 \cdot 25$ | 12.70 |
| Vegetable oils | 125.0 | 0.61 | 1.84 | 0.49 | 1.47 |
| Cement | 23.9 | $3 \cdot 42$ | $4 \cdot 37$ | $14 \cdot 32$ | 18.28 |
| Chemicals | 41.0 | 1.28 | 2.16 | 3.13 | $5 \cdot 26$ |
| Aluminium, copper and brass | 21.6 | 0.27 | 0.67 | $1 \cdot 27$ | $3 \cdot 08$ |
| General engineering and electrical engi- neering | 67.9 | 0.69 | 1.66 | 1.02 | 2.45 |
| Paper and paper board | 18.0 | 1.12 | 1.42 | 6 · 21 | 7.88 |
| Sugar | 84.5 | 0.31 | 0.99 | 0.37 | 1.18 |
| Glass and glasswares | 4.5 | 0.37 | 0.96 | 8.17 | 21.20 |
| Ceramics | 3.9 | 0.49 | 0.62 | 12.56 | 15.98 |
| Rice milling | 45.2 | 0.15 | 0.35 | 0.34 | 0.77 |
| Total for 28 manufacturing industries | 1180.0 | 23 · 12 | 40.81 | 1.96 | $3 \cdot 45$ |

*Source: Census of Indian Manufacturing Industries, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, 1952.

Exceptions to this generalization are the iron and steel works, the cement industry, the glass and ceramics industries, and the

railways.

The Fuel Research Institute has been engaged for some time in assessing the physical and chemical properties of the coals of the country, and good progress has been made in the main coalfields. For the chief Indian coals, there now exists a collection of knowledge and information available both at the Central Institute in the Jharia Coalfield, and at the various Coal Survey Labo-(Bihar), Raniguni ratories at Ranchi (Bengal), and Bilaspur (Madhya Pradesh). In the coming years similar technical knowledge will be available for the coals of Assam, as a Coal Survey Laboratory is being established at Jorhat. The information already gathered is being utilized increasingly by Central and State Governments and by the Coal Board, iron and steel works, the railways, and other large consumers; and it is being increasingly recognized that the Fuel Research Institute is in a position to state categorically which of the main coals of India are most suited for different purposes, i.e. which are best allocated for steam-raising, carbonization, gasification, domestic coke manufacture, or conversion to synthetic oil, etc. The amenability of coals to purification has also been studied extensively, and the limitations and economics of coal-washing of many coals are known. This is important: popular but ill-informed opinion is inclined to regard coal-washing as a panacea for all ills.

To state the best uses of a coal, however, does not by any means necessarily ensure that the coal will be used in that manner efficiently. For example, much of the coal of the country is satisfactory for steamraising and is used for that purpose, but the efficiency with which such coal is consumed and the heat utilized for steam generation is quite another matter. To use two tons of coal where one ton will suffice must be regarded as extravagance. By no stretch of imagination can we say in such cases that economy in fuel (or coal conservation) is being achieved: yet fuel economy is important today and may become vital in the next 5 or 10 years. The demand for coal in India by the year 1960 will be about 60 million tons per annum. This coal has to be transported from the coalfields and collieries

to the actual centres of consumption. Do we take measures to ensure that the coal is then consumed with economy and efficiency? Are we transporting (and shall we continue to transport) unnecessary coal? Can the efficiency of utilization be so raised that, with the industrial growth and development now foreshadowed, the coal-transport problems will not be unduly increased? These are the issues.

Fuel research can be visualized as extending into three main fields: First, the assessment in quantity and in quality of the coals and other fuels available; secondly, the additional testing of the fuel to assess purification potentialities and suitability for (or amenability to) particular technical processes; and thirdly, the ensuring of efficiency in utilization. Clearly the first field is essential and the second is also of great importance; but it is by economy in utilization that we can expect the most immediate and direct bene-India has a record of 'cheap coal'. Not many years ago the price was only a few rupees per ton, and even today it is not high. The pit-head price of roughly Rs. 13 or 14 per ton for moderately good grade coal is equivalent to f (sterling) per ton, against prices of £ 4-6 per ton now common in Europe and America. This implies essentially that Indian coal is still 'cheap'. Low price of such a basic commodity is of course of no small benefit to industry and to (railway) transport; but, unfortunately, low price does not promote or encourage economy: waste and extravagance naturally follow, if the cost of fuel forms only a negligible charge on the value of the commodity produced.

Perhaps the main offender in coal utilization is the 'average' steam-raising plant and the 'average' steam locomotive. The steam locomotive, it is well known, has a total efficiency of only 4 or 5 per cent. In other words, 95 per cent of the energy in the coal is not utilized for the actual traction. The furnace and boiler of the locomotive may have a joint efficiency of 60 or 70 per cent, and in this respect steam generation in such a boiler is satisfactory. It is in the utilization of the steam where most of the losses These losses arise largely from limitations and restrictions in size and design, and in practice it has proved difficult to increase the overall efficiency beyond 10 per cent. Certain locomotives, however, in

Europe, notably in France, have achieved this efficiency, and the fuel consumption of such locomotives is thus halved — as against Indian practice. However, railway electrification and dieselization are now receiving much attention in all countries, and the railway authorities in India are alive to the position. There is a further point of importance. Steam locomotives require large size high grade coal whereas thermal power stations can use low grade (slack) coal of which India has abundant supplies. This gives a further reason for the change-over.

Turning to what is termed 'stationary plant', the efficiency of a modern boiler may be as high as 90 per cent while the efficiency of a neglected boiler may be as low as 45 per cent or even less. It is generally the smaller plants which are run extravagantly, whether in India or elsewhere, and their usual efficiencies can often be increased considerably. i.e. from a value of say 44 to 66 per cent, if the necessary care and attention to details are given. For example, treatment of the water supply may be of primary importance, or it may be necessary to attend to heat-insulation, or to the reduction of standby losses, or to the general mode of plant operation, e.g. staggering the load. Unfortunately, the men operating small boiler plant are often untrained and illiterate and possess but little understanding of combustion, heat transfer, and so forth. In such circumstances, the plant is naturally not operated with high efficiency. More energy and more work from the stokers are not called for: more training and more technical knowledge and understanding definitely Knowledge, if applied, will lighten the labour of stoking. The senior engineering staff and those in charge should pay attention to training the boiler house staff — and indeed to fuel economy in general, e.g. steam consumption.

The above observations are confined largely to steam-raising plant. In respect of carbonization and gasification, the efficiency of the plant and its operation are not neglected to the same degree: coke-oven managers, for instance, are usually well aware of the technical and economic issues involved, as are the managers of gas works and of gasification plant, e.g. producer plant and the

But in other fields of utilization where like. combustion is the main process, notably in furnaces for foundries, glass making, brick burning, lime kilns and the like, there is again usually room for improvement. Nor can we exclude authorities responsible for installing large thermal plant utilizing coal for the generation of electric energy. Modern practice indicates that the highest thermal efficiencies are obtained by employing powdered coal, i.e. 'pulverized fuel'. Coals are burnt most efficiently in this condition, especially low grade coals with their high content of foreign matter. Yet in recent years some large power plant have been installed in India which operate on less efficient principles. As a matter of national policy, when the installation of thermal power plant (in which the fuel consumption will be high) is under consideration, arrangements should be made for burning low grade coal, having up to 35 per cent of ash.

To advise upon these matters and to assess the efficiency of plant with a view to its improvement or alteration, the Fuel Research Institute is establishing a Fuel Efficiency Section. Similar steps have been taken in other countries, perhaps under the pressure of war. In U.K., for instance, great economy in coal was effected in the last war, simply by insisting upon increased efficiency of consumption. In spite of all the growth of industry that has taken place in the past 20 or 30 years in that country, the annual consumption of coal in U.K. has barely increased. The output from the mines has fallen from 300 million tons per annum in 1913 to 220 million tons today. It is agreed that about 100 million tons were exported in 1913; but, even so, the residual 200 million tons remains substantially the same, and this after a period of over 40 years. If similar attention were paid to efficiency of coal utilization in India, similar economy would no doubt be also achieved. Such economy will reduce fuel costs to the industries, and save the 'transport coal' required by the railways — and thus largely offset the higher charges likely to arise from the increased price of coal in the forthcoming years. In this work the help and co-operation of the Coal Board and of the chief coal consumers are being sought.

The International Conference on Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy

PHYSICS SESSION*

INTERESTING and comprehensive information was presented on the values of the total neutron cross-sections at various energies for different elements. This information is of basic interest in the study of nuclear structure and also in the design of nuclear reactors. Ever since the preliminary work of Rainwater and Havens, data have been accumulating in this branch and most of the results compiled together previously were from the work done in the U.S.A. This is the first time that all the measurements of total neutron cross-sections obtained from various choppers and crystal spectrometers in different parts of the world, including the U.S.S.R., have become available. Except for a few small variations, the agreement among these various measurements is most striking. There are, however, some substances which must be studied in greater detail as the results quoted in the publications are from the very early measurements. For example, the results for beryllium oxide are from the work of Fermi et al. published in 1947. No work seems to have been done since then. There are also certain interesting elements on which information has been released by only one country, for example by the U.S.S.R. on Am²⁴¹. The errors in the various measurements are still of the order of 5 per cent or more. It would be of great value to have these reduced. In order to obtain these results various types of choppers have been used. A comparative survey of these was given at the conference. The results include values obtained from neutron sources other than reactors, of particular interest being the electron linear accelerator at Harwell.

The other important set of constants released at the conference was that of the fission of U²³⁵, U²³³ and Pu²³⁹. Here again the values from the different countries are in reasonable agreement (Table 1). Of particular interest is the number of neutrons

emitted per fission in U²³³. This clearly shows that U²³⁵ is a better fuel for breeding than U²³⁵ and emphasizes the great future for thorium in reactors to come. Preliminary to this there was a session to discuss the latest theories of fission in view of the new facts of fission phenomena that have been observed, particularly the angular distribution of fission fragments with respect to the incident particles and the asymmetric mass distribution of fission fragments. The interpretation of these results on the new hydrodynamic model of the nucleus was also discussed.

The information released on sub-critical experiments covered a wide range. Exponential experiments, first suggested by Fermi, are used to obtain reactor parameters directly, since theoretical calculations become very complicated. For this reason the results of these experiments form a set of empirical observations basic to reactor design. Several papers were presented in which the effect of the variation in lattice spacing, rod dimensions, types of cooling used, and moderator properties on reactivity have been discussed. Of particular interest were the exponential experiments with fast neutrons. The measurements have yielded bucklings of systems of various mixtures of fuel and diluent materials with isotopic ratio of U238 and U235 in the range 3:1 to 7:1. The reflector savings of Pb, Fe, U and Al have been calculated. Agreement with the theory is discussed and differences are attributed to the energy spectrum of the neutrons in the system.

| TAE | BLE 1 — FISS | ION CONSTA | ANTS FOR | U233, U235 | |
|------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|--|
| | COUNTRY | Π_{333} | U235 | Pu^{239} | |
| σ_T | U.S.S.R. U.K. U.S.A. France | $^{615\pm30b}_{580\pm20}_{610\pm9}$ | 710±20b 720±15 687±7 | $^{1040 \pm 30b}_{1050 \pm 50}_{-}_{-}$ | |
| σ_f | $\begin{cases} \text{U.K.} \\ \text{U.S.A.} \\ \text{France} \end{cases}$ | 515 ± 15 $ 518$ | $638 \pm 20 \\ 580 \pm 8 \\ 580$ | 702 ± 20 750 | |
| η | U.S.S.R. U.S.A. | $\begin{array}{c} 2 \cdot 4 \\ 2 \cdot 31 \end{array}$ | $2.12 \\ 2.08$ | $\substack{2 \cdot 05 \\ 2 \cdot 03}$ | |

^{*}Contributed by Dr. R. Ramanna, Atomic Energy Establishment, Bombay.

In another session, the diffusion of neutrons from pulsed fast neutron sources in moderating and multiplying media was discussed. The application of these methods to determine slowing down constants at various temperatures is of particular interest in the regions where the neutron energy is of the same order as the crystal vibration energies. A method of determining the diffusion constants of moderators by using a time modulated pile neutron beam was also described. The pulsed neutron beam method can be used to measure the delayed neutron periods in a multiplying medium.

There was also a survey on accelerators which was not in the official proceedings of the conference. This was given by two well-known authorities on the subject, Prof. Lawrence of the U.S.A. and Prof. Veksler of the U.S.S.R. The former discussed the importance of increasing the current output of accelerators now being built, and the latter described the future accelerator programme of the U.S.S.R. It is interesting to note that the highest energy synchrocyclotron (650 Mev.) was built near Moscow in 1949 and that in 1956 a synchrotron of 10 Bev. will be in operation in the Soviet Union.

REACTOR SESSION*

THE reactor sessions can be broadly classified under two headings, viz. research reactors and power reactors.

About 16 papers were presented on research reactors describing various types of reactors in operation in different countries. Although many of these reactors were earlier described in scientific journals, construction features and additional details were made available at the conference. While a detailed description of some research reactors was quite useful, a general survey of different types of research reactors and the reactor as a research tool was of considerable interest. The types of research reactors that are at present in operation may be classified according to the fuel and moderator used and the type of coolant employed. The natural uranium reactors may have graphite or heavy water as moderators and cooling may

be by a gas such as air or Co₂ as in BEPO at Harwell and the Saclay Pile or by heavy water as in the proposed N.R.U. reactor in Canada or by light water as in the N.R.X. The other class of research reactors use enriched uranium as fuel and either light water or heavy water as both moderator and coolant.

With the necessity for extensive testing of materials under radiation which a power development programme involves, neutron sources in which both fast and slow fluxes are maximal are required. To meet this need, enriched uranium research reactors were developed. The materials testing reactor at Arco, Idaho, which has a maximum thermal flux of 4×10^{14} neutron/sq. cm./sec.. is of this type. The core of enriched uranium reactors is small; consequently volume specific power can be high. Further, for the same power level a higher neutron flux can be obtained. The N.R.U. reactor, a natural uranium heavy water moderated reactor being built in Canada, would operate at a power level of 200,000 kW., and produce a maximum flux of 3×10^{14} neutrons/sq. cm./ sec., as against the slightly higher flux of Arco M.T.R. reactor at a power of only 30,000 kW. However, the production of plutonium from uranium 238 atoms would be comparatively small in the case of the enriched reactor because of the decreased ratio of U238 to U235 isotopes and a higher fast fission effect.

Increasing attention is also being paid to provision of facilities for so-called loop experiments for technological studies concerning effects of irradiation on materials, corrosion properties, heat transfer coefficients, stability of coolant materials and new fuel systems. These consist of large channels in the reactor core lattice where prototype fuel elements with individual cooling system may be studied under simulated conditions.

The sessions on power reactors consisted mainly of prototype reactors in operation and under construction in different countries. In the three countries which have most vigorously pursued reactor technology, i.e. U.K., U.S.A. and U.S.S.R., there is surprisingly little overlapping in the power reactor development programme envisaged. In the United Kingdom two reactor types, one the natural or slightly enriched uranium, gas cooled, graphite-moderated thermal reactor

^{*}Contributed by Dr. N. B. Prasad, Atomic Energy Establishment, Bombay.

at Calder Hall and the other the sodium cooled fast breeder reactor at Dounreay, are under construction. The Calder Hall reactor station is scheduled to go on stream during 1956 and will have an electrical capacity of 92,000 kW. In the U.S.A., five reactor types are being considered as being most promising. Of these, two are light water cooled, light water-moderated reactors using enriched uranium as fuel. In the pressurized water reactor the steam is generated in a heat exchanger by circulation of the moderator at high pressures whereas in the boiling water reactor the steam is generated in the reactor core itself. third is the homogeneous reactor where the fuel (90 per cent enriched) in the form of uranyl sulphate is dissolved in heavy water which acts as both coolant and moderator. The advantage here is that costly metallurgical processing of fuel elements is eliminated and continuous processing for separation of fission products from the fuel solution can be accomplished. However, the system has to operate under high pressure and the active fuel solution flows through heat exchangers and auxiliary equipment which leads to serious corrosion problems. The other two will use liquid sodium as the coolant. In one, the sodium-graphite reactor, sodium flows in annular channels around the fuel elements and graphite canned in zirconium will be used as moderator. In the other one, the experimental breeder reactor, the fuel will be plutonium with no moderator and with sodium as coolant. It is expected that in this type of fast breeder reactor, every atom of plutonium burnt out will produce 1.6 atoms of plutonium thereby leading to a net breeding gain of 60 per cent and doubling of the fuel investment in 5-6 years.

The atomic power station in operation in U.S.S.R. since 2 July 1954 was described in detail. This is a pressurized water-cooled enriched uranium-graphite reactor with a rated heat capacity of 30,000 kW. and an electric power output of 5,000 kW. It was announced that a second atomic power station with an electrical capacity of 100,000 kW. is under construction. The reactors would be similar to the one in operation except that a higher conversion ratio of plutonium will be obtained by the use of zirconium instead of stainless steel in the core. It will be seen that with the exception of the fast breeder

reactors in the U.K. and U.S.A. there is very little duplication in the programme of the three countries. In addition to the above prototype reactors it was announced that Canada was considering a heavy water moderated, heavy water cooled power reactor with an electrical capacity of 20,000 kW.

In addition to the above prototype reactors other types are under active design consideration. Mention must be made of the liquid metal fuel reactor where a dilute solution of uranium, magnesium and zirconium in liquid bismuth is used as fuel. With efficient fission product removal in a closed loop, high conversion factors are obtained.

Some of the most interesting papers presented to the conference were on fuel cycles and the economic aspects of nuclear power. Most of the prototype power reactors described above use enriched uranium as a fuel. However, for countries without diffusion plants to produce enriched uranium, there is no option but to start with natural uraniumplutonium converters. The plutonium obtained from such converters would be later used to fuel either plutonium fast breeder reactors or thermal converters where more plutonium or uranium 233 from thorium may be produced. For countries with adequate resources of thorium this would be the starting point for thorium U_{233} breeder reactors. While only fast breeder reactors are possible with plutonium, fast and thermal breeders are possible with the thorium U233 cycle. While it is premature to say which cycle would be more economic, the higher material efficiency and burn up obtainable with thorium thermal breeders may considerably offset the possible advantage of the higher net breeding gain that may be obtained in the plutonium fast breeder. However, availability of necessary raw materials would also affect the choice of one or the other cycle.

Cost estimates of the prototype reactors described indicate that with present technological advance, the capital investment for the nuclear power plants may be of the order of \$ 200-400 per installed kW. capacity and the cost of generation will be in the range of 4-10 mills/kWh. The capital cost per kW. of installed capacity may be expected to come down rapidly within the next few years.

CHEMISTRY, METALLURGY & TECHNOLOGY SESSIONS*

THE sessions on chemistry, metallurgy and technology, which were eighteen in number, covered a wide range of problems concerning reactor materials. Discussions centred on the occurrence of uranium and thorium, prospecting for radioactive minerals, treatment of uranium and thorium ores and concentrates, production of high-purity uranium and thorium, physical metallurgy of uranium and thorium alloys, fabrication of fuel elements, production technology of special materials, facilities for handling highly radioactive materials, chemistry of transuranic elements and fission products, chemical processing of irradiated fuel elements, radiation effects on fissile and nonfissile materials, liquid metal technology, and waste treatment and disposal.

Seventeen nations had submitted papers on the natural occurrence of uranium and thorium which were summarized, for the benefit of the non-geological members of the conference, in a masterly survey by Paul Kerr¹ of the Columbia University. after, delegates from Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, France, India, Italy, Japan, Portugal, United Kingdom and United States participated in a panel discussion on the salient characteristics of uranium and thorium deposits in the different regions of the earth. The paper presented by Wadia² (India) made special mention of a new mineral Cheralite (composition: $ThO_2 = 31.4$ per cent, $U_3O_8 = 4.48$ per cent, $P_2O_5 = 24.55$ per cent, and $SiO_2 = 3.12$ per cent) and other thorium-rich variants of monazite which have been recently discovered in India.

In the session on prospecting for radioactive minerals, geological, geochemical, geophysical and geobotanical methods were discussed and new developments in instrumentation for location of active minerals were specially emphasized. Vohra³ (India) described an elegant method for 'remote location of uranium and thorium deposits' based on the determination of the 'age' of the air from measurements of radioactive composition with respect to thoron and radon decay products.

Pre-concentration of low grade ores of uranium, acid and alkali leaching processes of extraction, and concentration of lean uranium-bearing solutions by ion exchange, solvent extraction and chemical precipitation formed the subject of discussion for one of the sessions. Shankar4 (India) described an ion-exchange process for the recovery of uranium from carbonate leach solutions which is specially adapted to separation of uranium from anions such as vanadates. phosphates and aluminates. Krumholz⁵ (Brazil) in his communication has described the Brazilian practice for the extraction of thorium and uranium from monazite. It was obvious from the discussions that as the nations of the world become more and more atom powerconscious, the high grade ores of uranium and thorium would rapidly run out and, at a not very distant future, it would be necessary to extract uranium and thorium from materials in which these elements occur in extremely low concentrations. In this context, Harrison-Brown's⁶ (U.S.A.) paper on the possibilities of securing long-range supplies of U and Th from granitic rocks (containing 4 p.p.m. U, and 12 p.p.m. Th) was of considerable interest.

The highlight of the technology sessions was the extensive declassification of information concerning the metallurgy of reactor fuels and the fabrication of fuel elements. There were contributions from the U.S.A.. U.S.S.R., U.K. and France on refinements in the production technology of metallic uranium and thorium. In a classic summary of reactor fuels, Howe⁷ (U.S.A.) detailed the different types of fuel systems that have been employed in research and power reactors in the United States including metallic uranium-base elements, dispersion of fissile materials in metallic matrices, ceramic systems, liquid metal fuels, and aqueous solutions. The fuel elements of the swimmingpool reactor, which was on display at Geneva, were of the dispersion type developed at the Oakridge National Laboratory. In this system, individual fuel plates consisted of a three-layer sandwich with a central core of a 25 per cent alloy of enriched uranium and aluminium (or a powder-metallurgical compact of enriched UO₂ and aluminium) completely jacketed on all sides with aluminium cladding, by what is popularly known as the 'picture-frame technique'.

^{*}Contributed by Dr. Brahm Prakash, Department of Metallurgy, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

The plates were subsequently brazed on to aluminium side plates to give a concertina arrangement which has a high surface/volume ratio for enhanced heat transfer. From the simple, sealed, aluminium-canned slugs which produced the first significant amounts of nuclear heat in 1943 to the highly elegant 'MTR-type elements' described above is an interesting study in technological advancement.

It is essential that prolonged life should be ensured for the fuel elements when they are exposed to intense reactor radiations during operation. In this connection, the papers presented by Konobeevsky⁸ (U.S.S.R.), Billington⁹ (U.S.A.) and Pugh¹⁰ (U.K.) gave very valuable information on thermal cycling and irradiation effects on a-uranium. Changes in the dimensions and other properties of uranium during burn-up were described and tentative mechanisms to interpret these changes were discussed. As the phenomenon is of great importance in the design of fuel elements, means were suggested for counteracting this dimensional instability. It was disclosed that alloying uranium with metals such as chromium, niobium, molybdenum and zirconium tends to stabilize uranium in the radiation damage-resistant gamma phase.

Radiation damage to structural materials and moderators figured prominently in the discussions and the conference brought to light the extensive investigations that have been carried out to devise ways and means of

minimizing the damage.

Unlike with the fossil fuels, it is not possible to achieve completeness of burn-up in nuclear fuels because of the build-up of fission products of high capture cross-section, and of physical damage to the fuel elements on account of continued exposure to reactor radiations. It, therefore, becomes necessary to reprocess the fuel elements at regular intervals. Chemical processing of irradiated fissile elements occupied two sessions, during which the versatility and efficacy of solvent extraction and ion-exchange processes for this purpose were specially emphasized. A significant contribution on pyrometallurgical processing of irradiated fuel was from the Ames Laboratory¹¹ (U.S.A.) which described a vacuum melting and partitioning process based on equilibrating the molten uranium fuel with molten metals such as silver which are immiscible with uranium.

During equilibration, plutonium and most of the fission products get transferred from the liquid uranium to the second phase. The principal advantage of this method for reprocessing the atomic fuel consists in its retaining the fuel in its original metallic state.

The technology of the separation processes has been backed by extensive chemical studies on transuranic elements and fission pro-Three sessions were devoted to these problems. Many countries made notable contributions to the chemistry of the fission process, the solution chemistry of gross fission products, the chemistry of the actinides and of individual elements such as polonium, ruthenium, technetium, neptunium, americium, curium and their compounds. Two of the nine transuranic elements were given names in honour of Albert Einstein and Enrico Fermi, two of the founding fathers of atomic energy. Element 99 was christened Einsteinium, symbol E, and element 100 was christened Fermium, symbol Fm. Earlier this year, the element 101 had been named Mendeleevium by the United States scientists in honour of the 19th century Russian scientist Mendeleev.

Detailed descriptions of the 'hot' laboratories, as those handling highly radioactive substances are called, were provided by

U.K., U.S.A. and U.S.S.R.

The chemical problems encountered in nuclear reactors formed the subject of discussion at one of the sessions. The behaviour of heavy water in piles, and of aluminium, zirconium and their alloys at normal and at elevated temperatures when exposed to different corrosive media, received special attention. In aqueous corrosion of aluminium¹² and zirconium¹³, it was reported that small additions of nickel (0·5·1·0 per cent) to aluminium, and of tin (1-2 per cent) to zirconium greatly improved their corrosion resistance.

Two sessions were devoted to the production technology of special materials such as graphite, heavy water, zirconium and beryllium which have to be processed to a high degree of purity to meet the exacting specifications of the nuclear engineers. Comprehensive summaries were presented by Currie¹⁴ (U.S.A.) on graphite, by Benedict¹⁵ (U.S.A.) on heavy water, by Shelton¹⁶ (U.S.A.) on zirconium, and by Kaufmann¹⁷ (U.S.A.) and Meyerson¹⁸ (U.S.S.R.) on the present status of beryllium metallurgy.

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The separation of hafnium from zirconium attracted special attention. Among the practical methods of effecting the separation which were disclosed at the conference, mention may be made of solvent extraction as reported by Shelton¹⁶, and Hure¹⁹ (France); of fractional crystallization as reported by Sajin²⁰ (U.S.S.R.); and of vapour-phase dechlorination as reported by Prakash²¹ (India).

Liquid metal technology was discussed at one session. The advantage of using liquid metals as heat-transfer media arises from their ability to convey the nuclear heat at high temperatures. The comparative value of liquid sodium, sodium-potassium alloys, and of liquid bismuth, their production technology, special handling techniques, and corrosion characteristics were discussed in papers from U.K., U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and Sweden.

The problems of waste treatment and disposal were discussed at the concluding session. Canada, U.K. and U.S.A. presented papers on the disposal of wastes in the ground and in the sea. In the end, Silvermann²² (U.S.A.) dealt with the problems of air and gas cleaning for nuclear energy processes.

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Studies on Natural Fats: Part XII— Some Aspects of Analysis of Natural Fats by Crystallization

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RECENT studies on the glyceride structure of natural fats using new methods¹-7 have indicated that some of the earlier results obtained on the basis of crystallization and GS₃ estimation by the Hilditch and Lea method³ require modification in many instances. In view of a recent paper by Cama et al.³, the possible sources of error in the earlier procedures have now been discussed and some of the points which had not been fully clarified in the earlier publications have now been fully dealt with.

In the determination of glyceride types in natural fats, GS₃ can be almost quantitatively separated by crystallization from small volumes of acetone at 25°C. when the saturated acids present are limited to palmitic and higher acids? With fats of the palmitic-stearic-oleic-linoleic type fatty acid composition, crystalline fractions obtained above 20°C. from acetone consist entirely of GS₃ and GS₂U¹⁰. When S contains myristic and lower acids, GS₃ determination by crystallization becomes less accurate, and in such cases oxidation methods of determining GS₃ are advantageous.

That appreciable hydrolysis of azelaoglycerides may take place during acetonepermanganate oxidation of fats and separation of azelaoglycerides with excess of aqueous potassium or sodium carbonate8 has been indicated earlier^{1,2,4,11}. Neutral hydrolysis products originate from GS₂A and GSA₂, and separate with GS₃ and unoxidized fat. When larger amounts of fats (more than 25 g.) are oxidized, neutral products isolated after the first oxidation may have iodine values of the order of 10-30, and to reduce this to about 1-2, one or more repeat oxidations are necessary. The ester linkage between the fatty acid carboxyl and the hydroxyl of the glycerol is quite stable and is not affected by the alkaline conditions developed during the acetone permanganate oxidation and this has been confirmed recently12. Hence only the azelaic acid radicals and free hydroxyls in the partly hydrolysed azelaoglycerides will be affected during the repeat oxidations. When one of the free hydroxyls in these products is primary, as in the monostearins and unsymmetrical distearins, the products of further oxidation will be acidic and will be separated from the GS₃ in the subsequent working up. Hydrolysis products of symmetrical monoazelains will be the symmetrical distearins and these will be oxidized to a neutral ketonic body which cannot be readily separated further from the GS₃. Thus the error in the Hilditch and Lea method⁸ will be dependent on the GS₂U content of the fat and in cases where repeat oxidations are not done, the error tends to be higher. Crystallization of the fat and applying the Hilditch and Lea method to the less soluble fractions cannot eliminate this error; perhaps the error may be enhanced by this procedure since GA₃ and GSA₂, which being more acidic tend to lower the hydrolysis of GS, A during oxidation and working up, are to a great extent absent when fractions in which GS₃ and GS₂U are concentrated and are used for oxidation.

To demonstrate that the above sources of error in the Hilditch and Lea method do not produce any significant differences in GS₃ values in practice, Cama et al.⁹ have compared the GS₃ contents of a few fats obtained by the above technique with the GS₃ contents of fats of the same source, but of slightly different S contents, obtained by physical crystallization. In most cases the figures quoted by Cama et al.² as obtained by physical crystallization were actually obtained

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by applying the Hilditch and Lea method to the less soluble fractions obtained by crystallization of the fats, and are hence liable to error of the same order as when the fat is directly subjected to the above technique. The correct GS_3 contents, as obtained by crystallization, have now been calculated from the original crystallization data from published literature, on the assumption that only fractions containing appreciably above 66.6 per cent of S contain any GS_3 . The results are given in Table 1.

Recent evidence shows that the proportions of different glyceride types in any natural fat are simply related to those required by chance distribution^{1,2,5}. Hence, when different samples show different S contents, the GS₃ present is to be compared with the GS₃ possible according to chance. If the methods are of the same accuracy, the ratio of GS₃ present to GS₃ required according to chance distribution should be the same by both methods for the different samples¹³, but for a comparison it is enough if the difference between the above two values is the same for different samples when the variation in the S contents of the samples is not very large. The difference in the values of GS₃ found by crystallization and of GS₃ required according to chance distribution, when subtracted from the difference in values of GS₃ found by oxidation and of GS₃ required according to chance distribution, gives the relative difference in GS₃ contents by the two methods. This value should be zero when the methods are of equal accuracy. This relative difference in the GS₃ contents of the different fats (Table 1) has an appreciable positive value in most

cases. This further supports the view that the Hilditch and Lea method⁸ is liable to positive error.

A critical study of the specificities and mode of action of the lipases which convert the fatty acids into glycerides in fat depots shows that the glyceride structure of natural fats could be based only on simple chance distribution or some modification thereof where the extent of alteration from chance distribution is dependent on the difference between the GS₃ present and that possible according to chance 11,34-36. Hence in fats with very small GS₃ contents, the variation of other glyceride types with increase in S should show some definite pattern and in fats with the same S and GS3 contents the proportions of other glyceride types should be the same. Crystallization analysis of glyceride types has generally been limited to fats containing mainly C₁₆ and higher acids because of the ready solubility of glycerides of the lower acids. These fats may conveniently be divided into two groups for the present discussion: (1) fats containing 30-70 per cent mols of S and (2) fats containing below 30 per cent mols of S.

Data reported by Hilditch and collaborators prior to 1948 on the analysis of fats of group (1) are presented in Table 2. The method followed was crystallization from acetone at 0°C. or above, followed by component acid analysis and GS₃ estimations of fractions by the Hilditch and Lea method. Re-investigation of these fats using lower temperatures has not been attempted so far, presumably because the workers consider that for these fats crystallization at 0°C. is as accurate as lower temperature crystalliza-

| FAT | By oxidation (Hilditch and Lea) method | | | | | | By cryst. | ALLIZATIO | ON METH | ОD | RELATIVE |
|-------------------------|------------------------------------------|---------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|------|-----------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|----------|
| | Ref. | S, (% mol) | GS ₈ chance % | GS ₃ found % | GS ₃ found- GS ₃ chance | Ref. | (% mol) | GS ₈ chance % | GS _s found % | GS ₃ found- GS ₃ chance | (% mol) |
| Coconut oil | 14 | 93 | 80 | 84 | +4 | 9 | 94 | 83 | 82 | -1 | +5 |
| Palm kernel oil | 14 | 85 | 61 | 66 | +5 | 9 | 87 | 66 | 62 | -4 | +9 |
| Stillingia tallow | 15 | 68 | 31 | 24 | -7 | 16 | 73 | 39 | 21 | -18 | +11 |
| Borneo tallow | 17 | 63 | 25 | 5 | -20 | 18 | 63 | 25 | 0 | -25 | +5 |
| Cacao butter | 8 | 60 | 22 | 3 | -19 | 19 | 61 | 23 | 0 | -23 | +4 |
| Kokum butter | 20 | 59 | 21 | 4 | -17 | 21 | 59 | 21 | 0 | -21 | +4 |
| Palm oil, Cameroons | 22 | 49 | 12 | 8 | -4 | 23 | 53 | 15 | 7 | -8 | +4 |
| Palm oil, Belgian Congo | 22 | 50 | 13 | 6 | -7 | 24 | 50 | 13 | 6 | -7 | 0 |
| Sheep tallow | 25 | 61 | 23 | 27 | +4 | 26 | 61 | 23 | 18 | -5 | +9 |
| Cow, English | 27 | 58 | 20 | 18 | -2 | 28 | 59 | 21 | 13 | -8 | +6 |
| Pig perinephric | 29 | 51 | 13 | 11 | -2 | 30 | 51 | 13 | 7 | -6 | +4 |
| Pig back | 29 | 43 | 8 | 7 | -1 | 30 | 44 | 9 | 3 | -6 | +5 |
| Buffalo butter, Indian | 31 | 75 | 42 | 42 | 0 | 32 | 72 | 37 | 25 | -12 | +12 |
| Cow butter, Indian | 33 | 68 | 31 | 34 | +3 | 32 | 69 | 33 | 21 | -12 | +15 |

| TABLE 2-GS | AND | GU ₃ C | ONTENT | S OF | SOME | |
|-------------------------------------------------|--------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| FAT | S | C | S ₈ | GU. | | |
| (9 | 6 mol) | | mol) | | mol) | |
| | | Found by oxida- tion | Required by chance distri- bution | Found by crystal- lization | by chance | |
| Neem oil ³⁷ | 32 | 0-2 | 3 | 19 | 32 | |
| Baku fat ³⁸ | 41 | 0-2 | 7 | 10 | 21 | |
| Mowhra oil ³⁹ | 43 | 0-2 | 8 | ő | 19 | |
| Pig external ³⁰ | 44 | 5 | 9 | 3 | 18 | |
| Palm oil, Bassa ²³ | 44 | 6 | 9 | 12 | 18 | |
| Shea butter40 | 46 | 4 | 10 | 5 | 16 | |
| Lophira alata fat41 | 46 | 0-2 | 10 | 0 | 16 | |
| Hodgsonia fat42 | 48 | 3 | 11 | 13 | 14 | |
| Garcinia morella fat ²¹ | 49 | 0-2 | 12 | ĩ | 13 | |
| Pig perinephric30 | 51 | 9 | 13 | 3 | 12 | |
| Ewe external43 | 51 | 5 | 13 | 0 | 12 | |
| Palm oil, Came- roons ²³ | 53 | 8 | 15 | 6 | 10 | |
| Shorea robusta fat44 | 55 | 0-2 | 17 | 1 | 9 | |
| Allanblackia stuhl- mannii fat ⁴⁵ | 55 | 0-2 | 17 | ō | 9 | |
| A. parviflora fat46 | 56 | 0-2 | 18 | 0 | 9 | |
| Ewe perinephric43 | 57 | 14 | 19 | 0 | | |
| Garcinia indica fat21 | 59 | 0.2 | 21 | 2 | 7 | |
| Garcinia indica fat20 | 59 | 4 | 21 | 0 | 7 | |
| Cow, English ²⁸ | 59 | 17 | 21 | Ō | 7 | |
| A. floribunda fat46 | 60 | 0-2 | 22 | 0 | 6 | |
| Cacao butter47 | 60 | 0-2 | 22 | Ō | 6 | |
| Phulwara butter48 | 62 | 8 | 24 | ŏ | 5 | |
| Borneo tallow ¹⁸ | 63 | 5 | 25 | Ü | 5 | |
| Ox Calicut ⁴⁹ | 67 | 28 | 30 | Ö | 4 | |
| Ox, Bombay ⁴⁹ | 73 | 36 | 39 | ŏ | 8 7 7 6 6 5 4 2 | |

tions possibly can be. The results show that in fats with 1-2 per cent GS₃, there is irregular variation of GU₃ (and hence of GS₂U and GSU₂ also) as S increases, and that in fats with approximately the same S and GS₃ contents, proportions of GU₃ indicated (and hence of GS₂U and GSU₂ as well) can be widely different. In view of the characteristic mode of action of the lipases these irregular variations in glyceride types could possibly be attributed to lack of accuracy in methods of analysis.

In the above reports (Table 2) many of the soluble fractions obtained at 0°C. contained above 33.3 per cent of S, showing that GS₂U is soluble in acetone mother liquors at 0°C. But when the S content was below 33.3 per cent, the fractions were computed as made up of GSU₂ and GU₃ alone in spite of the evident solubility of GS₂U at 0°C. without verifying whether GS₂U could remain behind in these fractions. It was also never examined whether the solubility of the GS₂U in acetone mother liquors at 0°C. was due to the normal solubility of the former in the solvent or due to intersolubility effects exerted by the dissolved GSU₂ or GU₃. In case the dissolved GSU₂ or GU₃ exerted no intersolubility effect, they will not interfere with crystallization of GS₂U and by proper selection of conditions where GS₂U is comparatively insoluble, better separation of this could be obtained. If due to solubility in acetone or due to intersolubility effect of dissolved GSU₂ and GU₃ or both, appreciable amounts of distearolein, which has the highest melting and is also the most sparingly soluble GS₂U met with in ordinary fats, can remain in solution in acetone at 0°C., then the explanation for the irregular glyceride type values recorded in Table 2 is obvious.

It was to elucidate these points that the solubility of distearo-olein in acetone at 0°C. in the presence of added GU, was determined^{1,2}. Pure GU₃ can be easily prepared by synthetic methods but the preparation of pure GSU2 is by no means so easy. Further, intersolubility effects exerted by GSU2 in the absence of any GU₃ cannot interfere with the estimation of GS,U by this method. Distearo-olein is insoluble in acetone at 0°C., but in the presence of GU₃ appreciable amounts remain in solution showing intersolubility effect. GS₂U from lower melting acids would be more soluble in acetone at all temperatures. It is also likely that intersolubility effect exerted by GU₃ will also increase as the solubility of GS₂U increases. Dissolved GSU₂ can also produce similar intersolubility effect at 0°C. These results support the view that crystallization from acetone at 0°C. was liable to appreciable error, the extent of error varying with component acid composition of fat, and that quantitative separation of GS₂U from GU₂ could not be obtained under the simplest possible conditions when the disturbing effect of GSU₂ is eliminated^{1,2}. The simplest possible conditions produced here are: (1) established insolubility of the GS₂U in acetone at 0°C.; (2) low m.p. of GU₃, below 0°C., which ensured that none of it can crystallize out along with GS₂U; and (3) complete elimination of GSU₂. That the last mentioned is one of the most important factors concerned in the efficient separation of GS₂U is illustrated by the following example: A groundnut oil with 20 per cent S will contain GS₂U, 10; GSU₂, 40; and GU₃, 50 per cent respectively by mols^{1,2,5}. The S contains a small amount of palmitic acid but at the same time contains appreciable amounts of acids higher than stearic, so that the GS₂U, like distearo-olein, will be practically

insoluble in actone at 0°C. in spite of the presence of a certain amount of linoleic acid in the oil. A mixture of 17 per cent distearoolein and 83 per cent GU₃ when crystallized from acetone at 0°C. at a solvent ratio of 1: 20 precipitates 14 per cent of the former^{1,2}. Groundnut oil contains the same relative proportions of GS₂U and GU₃ as the above mixture along with GSU2 to the extent of two-thirds the weight of GSU2 and GU₃ combined. A solution of groundnut oil in acetone at a solvent ratio of 1:20 should precipitate 7-8 per cent of GS₂U on the weight of the oil at 0°C., if the GSU, exerted no influence. However, in practice, such a groundnut oil solution does not precipitate any glycerides at 0°C. showing the influence exerted by GSU₂.

The above conclusions recorded in 19491 naturally referred to the accuracy of the crystallization analyses recorded in the literature prior to 1948 (Table 2) most of which were done at 0°C. at lowest, and relates only to factors which may possibly arise in connection with the analysis of natural fats. Most of the fats listed in Table 2 contain oleic acid as the predominant constituent of the U and contain appreciable amounts of triolein, m.p. 5°C. If the temperature of crystallization is lowered much further, then triolein can start crystallizing causing error in the computations. This is illustrated by the fact that whereas vegetable oils with 20 per cent S content show about 10 per cent GS₂U content by

azelaoglyceride estimations^{2,5}, low temperature crystallization of an olive oil of similar S content using the maximum possible precautions did not reveal the presence of any GS₂U⁴⁹. By selecting a sufficiently high melting GS₂U (oleo-dibehenin or oleo-dilignocerin) more or less quantitative separation from triolein may be possible in a single crystallization at 0°-5°C. Similarly, by carefully preparing a sufficiently low melting GU₃ and lowering the temperature of crystallization similar separation of distearo or dipalmito-olein may be obtained in in one single crystallization. But these are only of academic interest, whereas the practical problem involved in this group of fats is the separation of oleo-disaturated glycerides derived from mixtures of stearic, palmitic and small amounts of myristic acids from GU₃ consisting predominantly of triolein, in the presence of large amounts of GSU₂ built up from the same mixture of fatty acids.

Fats with less than 30 per cent S require less than 2-2-5 per cent of GS₃ according to chance distribution, and in view of the characteristic mode of action of the lipases (loc. cit.), the other three glyceride types should be present virtually in accordance with chance requirements. A few oils of this group have been subjected to elaborate low temperature crystallization, and the results are given in Table 3. For comparison the values required according to the rule of glyceride type distribution are also

| TAB | LE 3 — LOW TEM | PERATURI | E CRYSTALI | LIZATION | OF SOME O | ILS | |
|----------------------------------|----------------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| Oir | S (% mol) | | IDE TYPES (9 FOUND BY RYSTALLIZATIO | | GLYCERIDE TYPES (% mol) CALCULATED ACCORDING TO RULE OF GLYCERIDE TYPE DISTRIBUTION ⁵ | | |
| | | GS ₂ U | GSU ₂ | GU ₃ | GS ₂ U | GSU ₂ | GU ₃ |
| Poppy seed oil ⁵¹ | 11 | 1 | 31 | 68 | 4 | 25 | 71 |
| Tobacco seed oil ⁵² | 11 | 3 | 27 | 70 | 4 | 25 | 71 |
| Sesame oil ⁵³ | 17 | 5 | 41 | 54 | 8 | 35 | 57 |
| Gray seal oil ⁵⁴ | 17 | 0 | 51 | 49 | 8 | 35 | 57 |
| Olive oil, Turkish50 | 14 | 0 | 42 | 68 | 6 | 30 | 64 |
| Olive oil, Italian ⁵⁰ | 19 | 0 | 57 | 43 | 10 | 37 | 53 |
| Groundnut oil ⁵⁴ | 20 | 7 | 47 | 46 | 11 | 38 | 51 |
| Groundnut oil ⁵⁴ | 23 | 9 | 50 | 41 | 15 | 41 | 44 |
| Groundnut oil ⁵⁴ | 25 | 10 | 54 | 36 | 18 | 42 | 40 |
| Herring oil ⁵⁶ | 23 | 4 | 61 | 35 | 15 | 41 | 44 |
| Neats' foot oil ⁵⁷ | 22 | 7 | 51 | 42 | 14 | 39 | 47 |
| Chrosophera oil60 | 24 | 13 | 47 | 40 | 17 | 41 | 42 |
| Whale oil55 | 31 | 9 | 75 | 16 | 26 | 44 | 30 |
| Okra seed oil59 | 33 | 23 | 52 | 25 | 28 | 44 | 30 27 35 |
| Cottonseed oil 60 | 28 | 13 | 59 | 28 | 22 | 43 | 35 |
| Cottonseed oil ⁶² | 31 | 19 | 56 | 25 | 26 | 44 | 30 |
| Pentaclethra macrophylla63 | 24 | 8 | 56 | 36 | 17 | 41 | 42 |
| Pentaclethra macrophylla63 | 30 | 11 | 68 | 21 | 24 | 44 | 32 |
| Pentaclethra etveldeana63 | 29 | 9 | 68 | 23 | 22 | 44 | 34 |
| Sacred baboon fate4 | 29 | 6 | 74 | 20 | 22 | 44 | 34 |

included^{1,2,5}. In this group also there is no regular variation of GS₂U and GU₃ with increase in S. However, it may be said that oils with a large number of component acids, for example the fish oils and the *Pentaclethra* fats, show lower GS₂U values than fats of similar S content containing only two or three major component acids. The oils of this group contain large proportions of GU₃ along with smaller proportions of GSU2 and comparatively small amounts only of GS₂U and the temperatures used for crystallization are much below the melting points of many of the possible components of the GU₃. In such cases more sparingly soluble components of GU₃ can crystallize out along with GSU₂ and GS₂U in earlier stages and thus cause error and this has been experimentally illustrated10 by analysis of fractions obtained by crystallizing groundnut oil from acetic acid-acetone mixtures at -15° to -20° C. For fats containing palmitic, stearic, oleic and linoleic acids this phenomenon can happen approximately in the temperature range of 0° to about -40° C. when acetone is used as the solvent.

The source of error in the crystallization studies recorded in Table 3 hence depends mainly on the presence of large proportions of GSU, and GU, along with comparatively small proportions only of GS₂U: the error will become smaller and finally vanish when the amount of GU₃ is progressively lowered. The result of analysis of fat mixture C by Cama et al.9, where, in spite of careful low temperature crystallization, only 1 out of 5 per cent of added GS₂U could be detected supports the above arguments. However, in the above crystallization studies a number of special factors are present which would favour the more efficient separation of GS₂U which will normally be absent in the crystallization of natural fats of similar S contents. These are: (1) fats containing more than 50 per cent linoleic acid, as in the GU₃ concentrate used, will have not less than half the GS₂U and GSU₂ as linoleoglycerides which will be more soluble than the oleodisaturated glycerides used in the experiment; (2) the GU₃ concentrate prepared by low temperature crystallization of sunflower seed oil contains about 8 per cent of S and is likely to be saturated with GS₂U and GSU₂ under the conditions of its separation from the oil. Hence, the added GS₂U would separate more completely than if only

pure GSU₂ and GU₃ were present; and (3) all the higher melting components of the GU₃ which would crystallize out with GS₂U and GSU₂ at higher temperatures and thus produce error have been separated from the GU₃ concentrate and hence error from this source would be reduced if not eliminated. If a GU₃ concentrate is prepared by crystallizing out the GS₂U and GSU₂ from a natural fat then any added GS2U can possibly be quantitatively precipitated, perhaps in a single stage, by conducting the crystallization under the same conditions as used for the preparation of the GU₃ concentrate. The phenomenon involved is the same as that on which the approximate estimation of stearic acid in mixed fatty acids by using a solution of alcohol saturated with stearic acid at 0°C. is based. It is likely that if a synthetic GU₃ free from S is used, less efficient separation would have resulted in all cases studied. It is also likely that the GSU₂ employed, which appears to have been obtained by crystallization below 0°C., would contain more of GS₂U and GU₃ and less of GSU₂ than assumed, and this also would tend to produce greater separation of GS₂U than would be possible normally.

There is another simple method of testing the accuracy of the low temperature crystallization techniques. Determination of glyceride types by azelaoglyceride estimation methods have established that fats with less than about 20 per cent S obey chance distribution law^{1,2,5}. The actual proportions of any glyceride in these fats will hence be the same as the values required according to simple chance distribution. The proportions of various simple tri-unsaturated glycerides in different oils of this type have been reported by different workers using elaborate low temperature crystallization techniques and these are given in Table 4. It is seen from these values that when the proportions of other glycerides present increase relatively to the simple GU₃ in the fat, the accuracy of estimation of the latter falls rapidly and by the time a chance distribution value of about 15 per cent is reached, they pass out of the range of detection by the method.

Deterioration of fats during fractional crystallization

The results of analysis of fat mixture A by Cama *et al.*⁹ draw attention to another source of error in the detailed fractionation

| TABLE 4 — PROPORTIONS | OF SOME SIMPLE |
|-----------------------|----------------|
| TRIGLYCERIDES IN | SOME OILS |

| Oil | FATTY ACID | FATTY ACID (% mol) IN MIXED | Specific simple triglyceride (% mol) | | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|--|--|
| | | ACIDS | Found by | Required by chance distribu- tion | | |
| Castor oil ⁶⁵ | Ricinoleic acid | 92 | 75 | 78 | | |
| Tung oil ⁶⁶ | Eleaostearic acid | 84 | 56 | 59 | | |
| Tung oiles | do | 79 | 45 | 49 | | |
| Tung oil66 | do | 71 | 23 | 36 | | |
| Safflower seed oil67 | Linoleic acid | | 31 | 46 | | |
| Poppy seed oil ⁵¹ | do | 73 | 27 | 39 | | |
| Tobacco seed oil ⁵² | do | 71 | 19 | 36 | | |
| Sunflower seed oil67 | do | 73 | 24 | 39 | | |
| Sunflower seed oil67 | do | 67 | | 30 | | |
| Sunflower seed oil67 | do | 63 | 7 | 25 | | |
| Sunflower seed oil ⁶⁷ | do | 51 | 8 7 1 3 1 | 13 | | |
| Chrosophera oil ⁵⁸ | do | 53 | 3 | 15 | | |
| Maize oil ⁶⁸ | do | 61 | 1 | 23 | | |
| Sesame oil ⁵³ | do | 47 | | 10 | | |
| Olive oil ⁵⁰ | Oleic acid | 77 | 29 | 46 | | |
| Olive oil ⁵⁰ | do | 67 | 5 | 30 | | |
| Groundnut oil54 | do | 59 | 6 | 21 | | |
| Groundnut oil ⁵⁴ | do | 41 | nil | 7 | | |
| Chonopher oil ⁶⁹ | Linolenic ac | | 10 | 29 | | |
| Linseed oil69 | do | 56 | 5 | 18 | | |

technique. This mixture had S content 47.0 per cent, iodine absorption 53.8 per cent and a glyceride structure of GS₃, 5; GS₂U, 34; GSU₂, 59; and GU₃, 2 per cent mols respectively. The detailed analysis of Cama et al. indicated a composition of GS₃, 5; GS₂U, 41; GSU₂, 52; and GU₃, 1 per cent mols respectively with an S content of 49.6 per cent which is 2.6 per cent higher than the S content of the starting material. Summation of the iodine absorptions of the different fractions from the crystallization data gives a value of 53.8 per cent for the whole fat which is identical with that of the original fat in spite of the total S content of the latter being 2.6 per cent lower than that of the former. This is a clear pointer to the fact that iodine absorption is only an approximate value and that much reliance should not be placed on this value by itself, particularly in analysis of this type, excepting perhaps when it is established that only mono-ethenoid acids are present. This demonstrates also that analytical methods for estimation of saturated acids by difference wherein the iodine value is used in the calculations cannot be very accurate in general. The apparent increase in saturated acids in the present case might be due to autoxidation of part of the unsaturated acids during fractional crystallization with the result that some of the peroxidized acids are ultimately calculated as saturated acids. An instance of very high peroxidation and polymerization of C_{20} – C_{22} unsaturated acids has been recorded by Hilditch and Maddison⁵¹ where fractions consisting predominantly of these acids had peroxidized to such an extent that their methyl esters could not be distilled *in vacuo*.

The rate of this deterioration depends on the degree of unsaturation of the U and is normally inhibited to some extent by the antioxidants present in the oil. The antioxidants are highly soluble and will be removed in the most soluble fraction in the very first fractionation, and recrystallization of precipitates will be particularly susceptible to danger of deterioration. Addition of antioxidants in every crystallization has not been attempted in any case.

In the earlier investigations prior to about 1945, where component acids were estimated by lead salt separation and ester fractionation, deterioration of fats during crystallization always resulted in an apparent increase in S content. But in some of the more recent analyses where the S is determined by difference techniques or other methods, the error appears to be sometimes positive (up to 3.0 per cent) and sometimes negative (up to -4.8 per cent) as seen from Table 5. The range of total error thus adds up to some 8 units per cent when using such techniques. If the total S content obtained by summation of the S contents of the fractions is higher than the S content of the original fat as directly analysed, then this will show itself as an apparent increase in the GS₂U or GSU₂

TABLE 5 — ERROR INTRODUCED BY DETERIORATION OF FATS

| FAT | | Possible ERROR (% mol) | | |
|--------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------------------|-------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | From direct analysis of fat (a) | Calculated from fractions (b) | (b-a) | IN GS ₂ U, GSU ₂ AND/OR GU ₃ |
| Allanblackia flori- bunda ⁴⁶ | 60.0 | 61.7 | 1.7 | 5.1 |
| Garcinia indica20 | 58.5 | 60 · 4 | 1.9 | 5.7 |
| Palm oil, Came- roons ²³ | 52.5 | 54.7 | 2.2 | 6.6 |
| Palm oil, Bassa ²³ | 44.1 | 47.1 | 3.0 | 9.0 |
| Hodgsonia fat42 | 48.1 | 51.0 | 2.9 | 8.7 |
| Pig back ³⁰ | 44.1 | 46.4 | 2.3 | 6.9 |
| Pig perinephric30 | 50.5 | 52.5 | 2.0 | 6.0 |
| Ewe perinephric43 | 57.1 | 58.7 | 1.6 | 4.8 |
| Ox, Calicut ⁴⁹ | 67 - 5 | 69 - 6 | 2.1 | 6.3 |
| Ox, Bombay49 | $72 \cdot 9$ | 74.6 | 1.7 | $5 \cdot 1$ |
| Cow, English ²⁸ | 58.7 | 60.9 | 2.2 | 6.6 |
| Lard ⁷⁰ | 39 · 6 | $34 \cdot 4$ | -5.2 | 15.6 |
| Mutton tallow 70 | 52.6 | 55.8 | $3 \cdot 2$ | $9 \cdot 6$ |
| Badger fat ⁷¹ | 37.2 | $35 \cdot 1$ | -2.1 | 6.3 |

values: when the S content of the original fat is higher than that arrived from the analysis of the fractions then the apparent GS₂U and/or GSU, values will be lower than the actual values. A difference of 1 per cent in the S content in such cases produces an error of 3 per cent in GS₂U, GSU₂ and GU₃ values. When the difference is appreciably more than 1 per cent, the error introduced in the glyceride type analysis will be large. An examination of the literature shows that in many of the fractional crystallization analysis reported such deterioration of fats had taken place. A number of examples of this type are recorded in Table 5, along with a statement of the possible error in glyceride types produced by this difference. Excepting where the amount of saturated acids in the fractions agrees with the saturated acids in the original fat to about 1 per cent, the use of such glyceride analyses will be very much limited.

The large error of about 8 per cent in the saturated acid contents of the fats analysed by the new procedures creates another difficulty. The error in S estimations may be positive in some fractions and negative in other fractions, and when summated for the whole fat may cancel out fully or partially. But the positive and negative error in the computation of the glycerides in the different fractions need not and may not cancel each other since different fractions are calculated to different types according to the S content. Thus, even when the summated S contents of the fractions agree with the S content of the whole fat, the component glyceride types may be in error, and at present no method is known by which this error can be detected and estimated.

To study these factors further, an investigation was undertaken (A. R. S. Kartha and A. S. Sethi, unpublished data) on the variation of saturated acid content as determined by the method reported earlier in this series12 when a few fats were allowed to undergo peroxidation by incubation in an open glass vessel at 60°C. A beef tallow of saturated acid content of 55.5 per cent by weight of fat and iodine value 40 (obtained by courtesy of Dr. S. G. Brooker, New Zealand) and a commercial lard of saturated acid content 46.5 per cent and iodine value 51.2 were used for the studies. The saturated acid estimations were made on the autoxidizing beef tallow at iodine values of

38.7, 37.5 and 28.0 but the saturated acid content remained the same throughout at a value of 55.0-55.6 per cent. The lard was analysed at iodine values of 50.7, 38.0 and 27.0 and this series again showed a constant saturated acid content of 46.0-46.5 per cent. Thus it is evident that deterioration of fats as represented by the drop in iodine values by up to 25 per cent does not produce any variation in saturated acid content by the present technique. The success of the acetic acid-acetone permanganate method of Kartha in dealing with autoxidized fats depends on the fact that the epoxy compounds produced by decomposition of the cyclic peroxides are opened up by the action of acetic acid at the boiling point of the reaction mixture and the derivatives thus produced are subsequently oxidized into small fragments by the permanganate. These changes cannot be effected by the ordinary acetone-permanganate oxidation methods during which alkaline conditions are actually developed4. On the other hand, the cyclic peroxides or epoxy compounds derived therefrom do not have any iodine absorption, behave like saturated acids in iodine value determinations and thus give inaccurate results in methods based on iodine value determinations when partly peroxidized fats are analysed. Hence, these methods are evidently not the best suited for studies on glyceride structure. The ultimate effect of these factors is that partly peroxidized fats will show a lower saturated acid content by the modified Bertram's method¹² than by other available methods and particularly so by the difference method based on the iodine values of the mixed acids obtained by hydrolysis⁷². It may be noted that peroxidized fats when kept for some time out of contact with air show decrease in peroxide value due to decomposition of peroxides to non-peroxide compounds; the peroxides are also decomposed by heating in vacuum or with steam at high temperatures as in steam deodorizations. Fats which have undergone changes of this type may show low peroxide values but will contain the decomposition products of the peroxides and will show higher saturated acid contents by the difference method72 than by oxidation. Since Sethi and Kartha⁷³ have now established that there cannot be any error due to solubility of magnesium soaps of higher saturated acids during Bertram separation,

the difference in saturated acid contents observed by Riemenschneider et al.72 by oxidation and difference methods for four commercial fats of unknown origin would perhaps be traceable to the fats having undergone some deterioration at some time or other. The glyceride structure analyses recorded by these workers by crystallization methods would be subject to error due to the same reasons72.

It may be observed here that the restricted random distribution rule of glyceride structure36 applies only to natural fats as synthesized in the depots and the glyceride type analyses of fats reported by Kaitha were almost entirely done on pure specimens freshly extracted in the laboratory^{2,5}. Commercial fat specimens of unknown history are not suited for these fundamental studies and the convenience of the more ready availability of the latter is more than offset by the avoidable confusion produced by these analyses. An example of this type is provided by the recent analysis of a commercial lard of saturated acid content 39 per cent mols wherein a GSU, content of 59 per cent mols, not readily explicable on the restricted random distribution rule, was recorded72. An analysis of Swedish commercial lard (trade mark 'DANA') of saturated acid content 48 per cent mols (A. R. S. Kartha and R. Narayanan, unpublished data) showed only a GSU₂ content of 38-40 per cent which is in agreement with the rule. This demonstrates the considerable uncertainty which attaches to the analyses of fat samples of unknown history and it would appear that more useful contributions on the glyceride structure of natural fats can be obtained only by analysis of freshly extracted specimens of natural fats of known history and by methods of analyses which have been established to be as free from errors as possible.

Summary

Further evidence is presented to show that the Hilditch and Lea method of determining fully saturated glyceride contents of fats by acetone-permanganate oxidation is liable to positive error due to hydrolysis of azelaoglycerides. A critical study is made of the reasons why in most cases fractional crystallization gives lower GS₂U and GU₃ values and higher GSU₂ values than those obtained by azelaoglyceride estimation techniques. The nature and extent of the error introduced into the determination of the saturated acid contents and glyceride type compositions by possible deterioration of fats during extended fractional crystallization studies are discussed.

Experimental evidence is adduced to show that the saturated acid content as determined by the acetic acid-acetone permanganate oxidation of Kartha and Bertram separation of hydrolysed oxidation products remains unchanged during deterioration of fats by autoxidation. Methods depending on the determination of iodine values will always register an apparent increase in saturated acid contents during autoxidation. Since a certain amount of oxidative deterioration will always take place during ordinary extraction and working up of fats, the present method of Kartha appears to be a reliable and accurate method for saturated acid determination in all glyceride structure studies.

Uncertainties connected with analysis of commercial specimens of fats for glyceride composition and application of restricted random distribution rule to these are discussed.

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Studies on Rauvolfia

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N recent years the genus Rauvolfia has gained considerable importance because of the efficacy of R. serpentina Benth. in the treatment of hypertension. Rauvolfia is a large genus belonging to the family Apocynaceae, having about 131 species. The genus is distributed (Fig. 1) in the tropics, i.e. Central and South America, Africa, India, Ceylon, Burma, Malaya, Sumatra and Java. It has also been reported from China and Japan. The largest number of species is found in Africa and South America.

Generally Rauvolfias are shrubs, but a few, e.g. R. caffra Sond., are 60-70 ft. tall trees. Leaves are usually placed in whorls of 3-4 and sometimes opposite. The nerves are slender. Flower small, in terminal or pseudo-axillary 2-3 chotomous umbel or corymbiform cyme. Peduncles alternating with terminal leaves and finally becoming lateral. Calyx five lobed or partite and eglandular within. Corolla, slaver-shaped cylindrical tube, mouth constricted, throat usually hairy within, lobes broad and overlapping. Disk large, cup-shaped or annular, entire or slightly lobed. Carpels two, distinct or connate. Style filiform. Stigma broad, capitate calyptiform at the base, tip bifid. Ovules two, collateral in each carpel. Ripe carpels, drupaceous, distinct or connate and usually one seeded. Seeds ovoid and fleshy, cotyledons flat and radicle straight or recurved.

The species so far recorded in different parts of the world are given below 1-6.

Africa — R. caffra Sond.; R. congolana Wildem. and Th. Dur.; R. cumminisii Stapf; R. goetzei Stapf, R. gonioclada K. Schum.; R. inebrians K. Schum.; R. ivorensis A. Cheval; R. liveriensis Stapf; R. longea cuminata Wildem. and Th. Dur.; R. lamarckii A. DC.; R. leucopoda K. Schum. ex Stapf, R. macrophylla Stapf; R. mannii Stapf; R. mayombensis Pellegr.; R. mombasiana Stapf; R. monopyrena K. Schum.; R. nana E. A. Bruce, R. natalensis Sond.; R. obliquinervis Stapf; R. obscura K. Schum.; R. ochrosioides

K. Schum.; R. oreogiton Markgraf; R. oxyphylla Stapf; R. polyphylla Benth.; R. preussii K. Schum.; R. rosea K. Schum.; R. sambesiaca Schinz; R. senegambiae A. DC.; R. stuhlmannii K. Schum.; R. tchibangensis Pellegr.; R. verticillata A. Chevalier; R. volkensii Stapf; R. vomitoria Afzel; and R. welwitschii Stapf.

America — R. affinis Muell.; R. amazonica Markgraf; R. andina Markgraf; R. aroborea Larranaga; R. bahiensis A. DC.; R. bilabiata Larranaga; R. blanchetii A. DC.; R. boliviana Markgraf; R. brasiliensis Spreng; R. cardiocarpa K. Schum.; R. divergens Markgraf; R. duckei Markgraf, R. elliptica Malme; R. grandiflora Mart; R. heterophylla Willd. ex Roem. and Schult.; R. indecora R. E. Woodson; R. lamarckii A. DC.; R. lanceolata A. DC.; R. lauretiana R. E. Woodson; R. linearisepala Guillaumin; R. longifolia A. DC.; R. macrocarba Standley: R. mattfeldiana Markgraf; R. mollissima Markgraf; R. moricandii A. DC.; R. multiflora Riley; R. nitida Sesse and Moc.; and R. odontophora Heurck and Muell.; R. oppositiflora Sesse and Moc.; R. pachyphylla Markgraf; R. paraensis Ducke; R. parvifolia Bert. ex Spreng.; R. paucifolia A. DC.; R. pentaphylla Ducke; R. preussii K. Schum.; R. purpurascens Standley; R. polyphylla Benth.; R. praecox K. Schum.; R. psychotrioides H.B. and K.; R. rhonhofiae Markgraf; R. rostrata Markgraf; R. spinosa Cav; R. sarapiquensis R. E. Woodson; R. schueli Speg.; R. sellowii Muell. Arg.; R. sessilifolia S. Moore; R. sprucei Muell. Arg.; R. stenophylla Donn.; R. suaveolens S. Moore; R. ternifolia H.B. and K.; R. weddeliana Muell. Arg. and R. woodsoniana Standley.

Australia — R. caffra Sond.; R. canescens L.; R. heterophylla Willd. ex Roem and Schult.; R. natalensis Sond.; and R. psychotrioides H.B. and K.

Burma — R. microcarpa Hook. f.; R. peguana Hook. f.; and R. rivularis Merrill.

Ceylon — R. littoralis Rusby; R. mollissima Markgraf; and R. sanctorum R. E. Woodson.

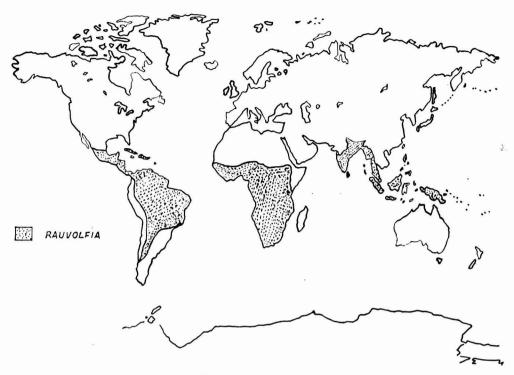


Fig. 1 — World distribution of Rauvolfia

China — R. chinensis Hemsl.

Cuba — R. cubana A. DC.; R. linearifolia Britton and P. Wils; R. salicifolia Griseb.; R. strempelioides Griseb.

India—R. alphonsiana Muell. Arg.; R. Beddomei Hook. f.; R. biauriculata Muell. Arg.; R. canescens L.; R. decurva Hook. f.; R. densiflora Benth. ex Hook. f.; R. micrantha Hook. f.; R. nitida Jacq.; R. pulaparia Roxb. ex Sen.; and R. serpentina Benth.

Islands Comoro — R. concolor Pichon.

Indo-China — R. cambodiana Pierre ex Pitard; R. chaudocensis Pierre ex Pitard; and R. littoralis Pierre ex Pitard.

Philippines — R. amsoniaefolia A. DC.; R. loheri Merrill; R. palawanensis Elmer; R. membranacea Merrill; and R. samarensis Merrill.

Java—R. javanica Koerd. and Valet.; R. major Nichols.; R. reflexa* Koerd. and Valet.; R. reflexa Teijsm and Binn.; and R. serpentina Benth. ex Kurz.

Madagascar — R. celastrifolia Baker; R. clavunculus K. Schum.; R. media Pichon; R. confertiflora Pichon; and R. trichophylla Baker.

Nossibe Islands — R. obtusiflora A. DC. Malaya — R. perakensis King and Gamble; and R. spectabilis Boerl.

Palau İslands — R. insularis Markgraf; R. laxiflora Kanehira; and R. mangiferoides Kanehira.

Siam — R. cambodiana Pierre ex Pitard; R. densiflorat Warb; R. densiflorat Benth. ex Hook.; R. littoralis Pierre ex Pitard; R. sumatrana Jack; R. membranifolia Kerr; R. ophiorrhizoides (Kurz.) Kerr; R. perakensis King and Gamble; R. serpentina Benth. ex Kurz.

Sandwich Islands — R. degeneri Sherff; R. forbesii Sherff; R. helleri Sherff; R. mauiensis Sherff; R. molokaiensis Sherff; R. remotiflora Degener and Sherff; and R. sandwicensis A. DC.

^{*}The specific name R. reflexa Koerd. and Valet. is occupied by R. reflexa Teijsm and Binn.

[†]The specific name R. densiflora is already occupied by R. densiflora Benth. and Hook.

Sumatra — R. sumatrana Jack.

Saint Thomas Island — R. dichotoma K. Schum.; and R. pleiosiadica K. Schum.

Habit not certain—R. lycioides Cav.; and R. semperflorens Schlechter.

In India about nine species have so far been recorded. Of these the most important are R. serpentina Benth. and R. canescens L.

Rauvolfia serpentina Benth. (Sanskrit: Sarpagandha; for other vernacular names see Appendix) has been in use for the treatment of snake bite, hysteria, dysentery and fevers in India. Its beneficial effects on patients suffering from insanity and high blood pressure were first discovered in India about 40 years ago. Since then many chemical and pharmacological investigations have been carried out on the medicinal properties of this plant. A number of alkaloids have now been isolated from the dried roots of R. serpentina.

Rauvolfia serpentina Benth.

Distribution — This species has been reported in India (Fig. 2) from different parts. It is usually found in damp shady places up to an altitude of 4,000 ft. It occurs in the Indo-Gangetic plains, Siwalik and the Sub-Himalayan tract of the Punjab, and eastward in Bihar, Bengal and Assam. The species is found in Central and South India along the ghats from Bombay to Travancore. According to recent reports, the species is getting scarce throughout India and at present it is rare in U.P., C.P., Bihar, Andhra and West Bengal. It

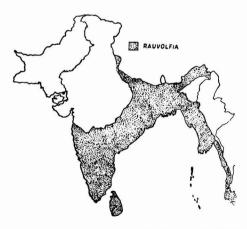


Fig. 2 - Distribution of Rauvolfia in India

is found throughout Ceylon in moist and shady places up to an altitude of about 1,800 ft. It is known to occur in the Andaman Islands. In Burma it is frequently found all over Pegu and Martaban areas up to Tenasserim. In Java it is scattered all over the country up to an altitude of 2,000 ft. It is also found in Siam, Malaya and Sumatra.

Description — R. serpentina Benth. (Fig. 3A) is an upright perennial shrub 1-3 ft. in height. It is glabrous and has deciduous habit in the plains of India.

Root—R. serpentina develops a tap root which grows vertically downwards and develops numerous branches. Studies on the root development in R. serpentina carried out at the National Botanic Gardens, Lucknow, have shown that the tap root gives rise to laterals soon after its penetration into the soil. The largest number of lateral roots occurred up to a depth of 1 ft. after which the thickness of the main root is markedly reduced. The maximum depth to which the main root penetrates is about 9 ft.

Small pieces of the dried roots of *R. serpentina* are sold in the market. These are collected from 3 to 4 years old plants and dried in shade. The dried specimens are cylindrical, slightly tapering, curved, rather tortuous and rarely have rootlets. The root breaks easily with a quick snap. The root bark is coarse, whitish grey in colour with irregular longitudinal ridges over it. The outer layers of the bark are soft and tend to scale off easily from the harder portions. The inner surface of the peeled bark is yellowish and the inner wood has a fairly smooth surface. Well-dried roots are odourless and have a bitter taste.

Sometimes pieces of stem or rhizome are found attached to the roots sold in the market. These closely resemble the roots but are less uniform in diameter and are knotty and tortuous. They are distinguished by a smooth transverse cut surface which exhibits a central pith of small diameter.

A transverse section of root (Figs. 4 and 5) shows that cork consists of layers of cells with thickened walls^{8,9}. The cells are of two types: cells of large diameter and cells of smaller diameter. Cork cells occur in alternate bands of the two types of cells. Secondary meristem cells appear polygonal and isodiametric in a tangential section,

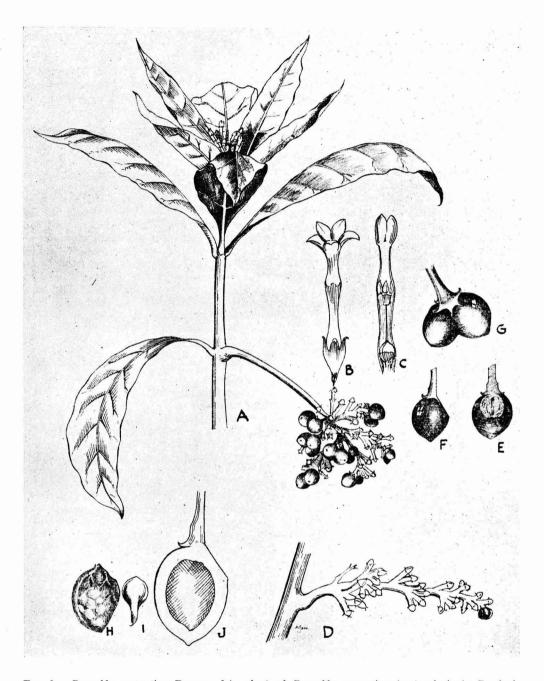


Fig. 3 — Rauvolfia serpentina Benth. [A, plant of Rauvolfia serpentina (natural size); B, single flower of Rauvolfia serpentina; C, section of R. serpentina flower showing anthers; D, an inflorescence with a ripe fruit (natural size); E, F and G, mature fruit \times 3; H, seed \times 5; I, cotyledons (enlarged); J, section of the fruit (enlarged)]

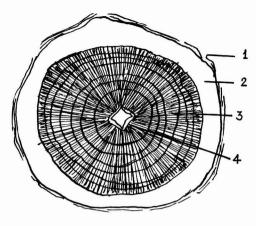


Fig. 4 — Diagrammatic T.S. of Rauvolfia serpentina MATURE ROOT × 3 [1, cork; 2, cortical tissue; 3, secondary xylem; 4, primary xylem]

and rectangular and radially flattened in a transverse section. Interspaces are absent in this tissue. These cells often appear crushed in commercial samples. The primary cortex consists of parenchyma cells heavily packed with starch grains. The secondary cortical tissues extend up to the xylem elements and are so heavily packed with starch grains that the appearance of the secondary phloem tissue is obliterated. Stone cells are absent. Cambium is indistinct in dry specimens. The secondary xylem is conspicuous.

Stem and leaves — The stem is green, erect, usually unbranched and slender. When the plant is old, the bark is pale green. The leaves are generally in whorls, and more crowded in the upper part of the stem. Some leaves are opposite and alternate. The leaves are simple, glabrous, lanceolate or obovate, thin, entire, green above, pale below, 2·5-16·7 cm. wide, with acuminate to blunt or rounded apex. The main nerves are in 7-15 pairs, usually widely spaced and alternate to opposite. Secondary nerves occur in between the principal nerves. The petiole is 3-8 mm. long, somewhat obscure owing to the leaf blade running down onto it.

The inflorescence (Fig. 3A) is generally terminal but sometimes axillary. It is usually in a dense crowded cyme forming a hemispheric head on the ends of peduncles which are 5-12.5 cm. long. The flowers are quite prominent, being 1-1.3 cm. long, and white to pinkish in colour. Flowering

starts in March and ends in October but under cultivation the flowering period is usually longer. Calvx lobes are almost free, deltoid to lanceolate, 1.3-3 mm. long with acute apex, often with 1 or 2 minute teeth on the margin near the base. Corolla (Fig. 3B) salver-shaped, slightly swollen little above the middle where the anthers are attached inside the tube; glabrous outside and pilose inside rounded from about middle to orifice: lobes ovate, orbicular with apex, and 1.5 to 3.5 mm. long. In bud, it is glabrous, convolute with left margins overlapping. Stamens are free. Filaments are inserted well below the orifice of the tube and are 3-5 mm. long. Anthers are oblong and 1.3-1.4 mm. long. Thecae rounded at base. Anthers dehisce along their full length. Throat hairy. Disk cup-shaped. The ovary is about 1.2 mm. long, truncate, rounded and slightly concave at apex, narrowed to stipe-like base. Carpels are united at base to about the length of disk. Two ovules are suspended in each cell. Style is about 8 mm. long. Stigma has 2 minute apicules.

Fruit (Fig. 3E, F, G) is drupaceous, sometimes single but generally didymous, united half way, oval, slightly flattened, 5-6.5 mm. long, 4.5 to 5 mm. broad. The apices are blunt, divergent and so the sinus makes a V shape. Flesh thin. Endocarp is hard (stony), lightly rugose, the disk remaining as a thin collar at the base of the fruit. When the fruits are ripe they appear purple black in colour.

The seeds (Fig. 3J) are single in each fruit, oval, flattened and about 4-6 mm. long. The seed with stone intact is hard, white, tapering on one side and broad on the other. The surface is rough and dull. The endosperm copious and soft. The embryo is erect. Cotyledons two, aplanate and broadly oval (about 2 mm. long).

Cultivation of R. serpentina

R. serpentina can easily be cultivated where rainfall is over 30 in. The plant prefers clayey soils and grows well under semi-shady conditions. R. serpentina has been observed to grow well under the shade of trees (mango) in conjunction with Clerodendron infortunatum and similar undergrowth. It can be propagated by planting root stock and cuttings of root or stem after treatment with growth-promoting hormones. Attempts have been made in the past to cultivate it

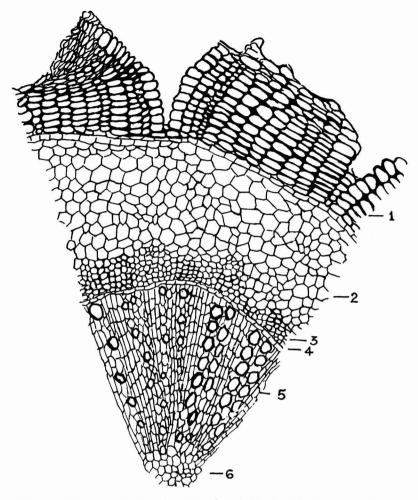


Fig. 5 — T.S. of young root of Rauvolfia serpentina \times 110 [1, cork; 2, cortical tissue; 3, phloem 4, cambium; 5, xylem; 6, pith]

under artificial conditions but the plant never bore fruit. A plant raised from seeds at the New York Botanical Gardens was reported to have flowered after 4 or 5 years. The plants in Java are reported to mature without much difficulty and the maximum height to which the plants grow is 50 cm. in 2 years. The plant fruits readily after flowering. Experiments carried out in West Java have demonstrated that stem cuttings root, although not easily. Propagation by seed is difficult, only 30 per cent germination being obtained. The plant does not do well

in the moist climate of West Java¹⁰. The Superintendent, Royal Botanic Gardens, Peradeniya, has also reported that the germination of the seeds takes about 2-3 months. He suggests that the quickest way to propagate *R. serpentina* is by division of root stock. In Ceylon, all the root stocks planted get established in two weeks.

Experiments on the propagation of *R. serpentina* are in progress at the National Botanic Gardens, Lucknow, and other places in India, and its successful cultivation has

been reported from a number of places. The experiments carried out at the National Botanic Gardens, Lucknow, have shown that the percentage germination of seeds sown in pots and in the ground was about 7-15 per cent. Germination ranging between 15 and 20 per cent was recorded at Madras and a slightly higher percentage at Dehra Dun. Germination of seeds at Lucknow was observed to be good during the period July to September.

On germination the primary root emerges in 20-25 days, the hypocotyl elongates and brings the cotyledons above ground. The cotyledons which are at first fleshy, increase in size and become light. The terminal bud develops, followed by lateral buds, and in 30-40 days the seedling establishes itself well

giving rise to new leaves and shoots.

When seeds are sown directly in the soil, they either do not germinate or the percentage of germination is poor. Cuttings of roots¹¹ treated with growth-promoting hormones (indolyl acetic acid) and planted in pots have been found to put forth new shoots and roots. Stem cuttings (4-6 in. long), treated similarly with growth hormones, were found to take root within 15 The plants so raised and transplanted in the field do well.

Experimental plantation of R. serpentina has also been carried out at the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, and good results have been obtained. A 2 years old plantation has been found to yield 2,000 lb. of roots. The alkaloid content of the roots of cultivated plants is higher. It has also been observed that the alkaloid content of the roots can be increased by the application of better methods of cultivation. Different parts of roots contain varying amounts of total alkaloids; the lateral fibrous roots (which are at present discarded) yield a higher percentage of total alkaloids than the main root.

Plantations at high altitudes have also been attempted in India, but at 7,000 ft.

the plants die.

Tillage — A nursery should be first established for raising plants in the month of March or April. The plot should be preferably in shade and close to irrigated land. Beds of convenient size should be made. Badhwar, Karira and Ramaswami¹² have recommended 4 ft. bed for raising the seedlings. They have also suggested that one-twentieth

of an acre nursery will give sufficient number of plants for transplanting in an acre of land. Five oz. of seed are enough for an acre and the best time of sowing is in the month of May. The seeds should be sown in lines 3 in. apart. After sowing, the seeds should be covered by leaf-mould and the beds should be irrigated immediately.

Transplanting should be done in the month of July after rains in well-prepared fields. and the plants should be planted 2 ft. apart. During monsoon months, only weeding is needed and in winter two or three hoeings should be done.

The root and stem cuttings are similarly planted in nurseries either in pots or in the soil and then transplanted during the rains. Plants planted 2 ft. apart, in rows, do well. Other interculture operations should be regularly carried out for proper development of roots.

Commercial varieties — Five varieties of the drug are available in the market. Differences have been observed in the alkaloidal content of roots collected from the swampy districts of Bihar and from those collected from Dehra Dun area¹³. The variety of R. serpentina collected from Dehra Dun area has been reported to contain maximum pharmacological activity. Differences have also been observed in the pharmacological action of roots collected from different localities14. Efforts are being made in the National Botanic Gardens, Lucknow, to evolve a strain possessing high alkaloidal content.

Diseases -R. serpentina has been observed to be affected by a leaf spot disease caused by Alternaria spp. Minute, brown, dark coloured spots appear on the leaves which enlarge to prominent dark brown circular lesions of 0.3 mm. or more in diameter. These spots appear almost anywhere on the leaf and in all cases the centre of the spot becomes papery and brittle, and ultimately the leaf is torn and dies from the centre. The fungus also affects the inflorescence and the flower appear blackened.

Pests — Insect pests also attack the plant. It has been reported that the inflorescence and the tender fruits are badly attacked by certain sap-sucking insects which can easily be controlled by dusting with Hexidol

(10 per cent).

Storage — R. serpentina roots should be properly dried and stored to preserve its alkaloidal content. Unless thoroughly dried under shade, the roots are attacked by moulds and there will be a reduction in their alkaloidal contents. A fall of about 25 per cent in total alkaloidal content has been observed in the case of roots affected by mould. R. serpentina roots should be stored in clean airtight containers.

Rauvolfia canescens Linn.

This is the most common adulterant in commercial samples of Rauvolfia serpentina Benth. In India it is known by the vernacular name Bara Chanda, but is not described in Indian floras, being American in origin. It can be easily distinguished from R. serpentina by its habit, i.e. much branched stem with red coloured, round, single fruits and dull coloured leaves. It was probably brought to India as an ornamental plant, and it has gradually spread all over India. Its original home is said to be West Indies, but it is to be found in all areas where R. serpentina grows. It has been reported to occur in Bombay¹⁵ and Madras States¹⁶.

The plant is reported to occur in most of the moist and hot parts of India. Chemical investigation of *R. canescens* Linn. has been attempted before and work on this plant is being carried out at the School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta, and other places. The alkaloidal constituents are mostly present in the roots. The alkaloid Rauwolscine has been isolated from the roots of the plant.

Description — A 10-12 years old plant, growing at the National Botanic Gardens, Lucknow, is about 6 ft. in height, but usually R. canescens Linn. is a small shrub, 1-3 ft. in height. It is deciduous in habit and prefers full sunlight.

Root — It has a tap root which penetrates vertically with numerous side branches. Maximum number of thick lateral roots is found to a depth of 2 ft.

The root bark is dark grey in colour, hard and woody. It fractures with difficulty. The inside of the bark and the wood is white. Dried specimens are odourless. The roots are very bitter to taste. They are sold along with R. serpentina roots in pieces of varying length and diameter. The bark of R. canescens is thinner and less easily detachable from the wood. However, the roots of R. canescens can be distinguished from those of R. serpentina from its characters described below.

The root is characterized by 16-20 layers of cork cells. The phellogen cells resemble those of *R. serpentina*. The secondary tissue is filled with starch grains. The secondary phloem is made up of sieve tubes, companion cells, phloem ray cells and phloem parenchyma cells. Groups of stone cells are also present. The phloem region can be distinguished from the secondary cortex by smaller phloem parenchyma. The stone cells vary in shape, rounded polygonal or rectangular. Cambium is present. The major portion of root also is made up of xylem vessels. It has wood parenchyma with abundant vessels. Tracheids are rare.

The root powder consists of starch cells, stone cells and cork cells, and resembles R. serbentina root powder.

Stem and leaves - Stem is erect, dichotomously branched, hard and woody. The bark can be peeled with difficulty. The colour of the bark is light grey and that of inner wood is white. Leaves are generally crowded at the top portions of the plants. These are of unequal sizes, usually in whorls of 3 or 4 entire, oblong, lanceolate or elliptical 8.7 cm. long and 4.0 cm. broad and tomentose. Veins are 9-11 pairs and are prominent below. Fainter veins are present in between the main lateral nerves. Apex acute. Petiole is short, 6 mm. long and existipulate. It is throughout hairy, a few hairs near the base are well developed and thicker than others.

Inflorescence and flowers — Inflorescence cymose, generally having terminal or pseudo-axillary umbel-like cyme. Peduncles 8 mm. to 4 cm. long, hairy, rounded and green. Calyx lobes rounded short and 6-partite. Flowers are white and small. Corolla 5 lobed and about 0.1 mm. long, lobes very short and rounded. Carpels two.

Fruit and seed — Fruit is a drupe which is round and 6-10 mm. in diameter. Pyrenes rugose and when ripe it turns to dark brown or purple colour. Seeds ovoid and 6 mm. long and 3 mm. broad at base including stone, albuminous, endocarp hard, rough and white in colour.

Cultivation — It is easily propagated by seeds and grows well in the open. In India, the seeds are usually allowed to germinate during the rainy season and the plant becomes about a foot in height by winter.

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APPENDIX

Vernacular names of Rauvolfia serpentina Benth.

Bengali — Chandra, Chota Chand Canarese — Amelpodi, Chandrika, Garudpathal, Sutra Nanni, Sutranabhi, Vishwa Nabhi

Gujarati — Naya

Hindi — Chandra, Chota Chand, Chota Chandra, Harkai Chand, Nai, Nakulikanda, Naga Bail, Isroll, Dhama Barue

Malayalam — Amelbori, Chivana-avelbori, Sjounna-amelpodi, Ts Harkai; Jovanna-Amel-poeti, Vantuvala

Marathi — Amelpodi, Harki, Moogsavel, Sapasanda, Tohovanna

Oriva — Dhannerna, Sanochedo

Sanskrit — Ahim Alilata, Mardani. Bhadra, Chandrika, Kaheshwar Chandrika, Naga Gandha, Nakuleshta, Pashumahana Karika, Sarpagandha, Surasa, Rata Patrika, Vishna Sham, Vasupupha, Vishnashini

Tamil — Chiven-amelpodi, Covannamilpori,

Eiya-kunda, Negliever

Telegu — Dum Parasan, Patalagadhi, Patola gandhi, Patal garuda

Urdu — Pagal ki dawa

Indian Science Congress, 1957

DR. B. C. ROY, CHIEF MINISTER, WEST BENgal, is the General President for the 1957 session which will be held at Calcutta. sectional presidents elected are: Agricultural Sciences — Dr. E. S. Narayanan (Delhi); Anthropology and Archaeology — Dr. M. N. Srinivas (Baroda); Botany — Prof. S. N. Das Gupta (Lucknow): Chemistry — Prof. S. M. Mehta (Bombay); Engineering and Metallurgy — Prof. G. P. Chatterji (Howrah);

Geology and Geography — Dr. B. C. Roy (Calcutta); Mathematics — Prof. K. Chandrasekaran (Bombay); Medical and Veterinary Sciences — Dr. C. R. Das Gupta (Calcutta); Physics — Prof. K. R. Dixit (Ahmedabad); Physiology — Dr. Inderjit Singh (Agra); Psychology and Educational Sciences - Dr. S. M. Mohsin (Patna); Statistics — Dr. P. K. Bose (Calcutta) and Zoology and Entomology - Dr. M. B. Lal (Lucknow).

Quality Control in Glass Industry—A Symposium

TWO-DAY symposium on Quality Control in Glass Industry was held at the Central Glass & Ceramic Research Institute, Calcutta, during 21-22 December 1955 under the joint auspices of the Institute and the Indian Section of the Society of Glass Technologist, Sheffield. The symposium was inaugurated by Prof. M. S. Thacker, Director, Scientific & Industrial Research. Mr. D. N. Sen, Chairman, Advisory Board of the Central Glass & Ceramic Research Institute, presided. Dr. Atma Ram, Director of the Institute, delivered the opening address.

Inaugurating the symposium, Prof. Thacker traced the development of glass industry since World War II. The Indian glass industry, he said, had now fairly established itself and the annual production was about 120,000 tons valued at Rs. 4-5 crores. Though some of the factories have modernized their units by introducing automatic machines, India still imports several types of glassware. Efforts have, therefore, to be made to improve production techniques and take up production of new items. Prof. Thacker assured the glass technologists and manufacturers present that he and his colleagues would do everything possible to assist the industry in solving their problems.

Dr. Atma Ram, in his opening address, said that glass industry was one of the important industries serving the diverse needs of man. Though great progress had been made in the quality of indigenous glasswares produced, considerable improvement was still needed. One of the handicaps of the Indian glass industry, he said, was the high cost of raw materials. A stage has, however, been reached for a concerted drive to improve the quality of products and minimize losses so that the products could be produced to the satisfaction of the consumer and at reasonable prices.

An appreciable part of production is used for making electric lamps, scientific apparatus, pharmaceutical requirements, etc., and if the quality of glass produced does not conform to required standards, the consuming industries would suffer. One of the methods by which uniform quality and reduction in the cost of production could be achieved is by the introduction of quality control measures. So far, with the exception of testing raw materials and finished goods in some of the factories, quality control has not been introduced in the industry as a regular practice.

The purpose of quality control programme is to ensure that the product is within the tolerance limits set for it. To detect any deviations from the standards set, it is necessary to work out tests which could give an indication of the deviations so that corrective measures could be taken. Merely testing the finished product is not enough; it only helps in sorting. In order to be effective, the tests prescribed have to be simple, speedy and easy of interpretation. Cost, however, is an important consideration, and if the cost of quality control measures exceeds the saving effected in the cost of production, the very purpose of introducing the measures is defeated.

Dr. Atma Ram described the various requirements of raw materials and emphasized the necessity for employing suitable raw materials for the production of quality goods. He suggested that the glass industry should establish co-operative organizations for processing the raw materials such as sand, limestone, etc., and supplying the required grade for the industry.

Twenty-six papers dealing with (1) quality control in the glass industry, (2) statistical quality control, (3) control of furnace operation, and (4) testing of glass and glassware were presented at the symposium. Of these 11 papers were contributed by foreign scientists.

Quality control in glass industry

Most of the papers presented dealt with testing procedures for inhomogeneity, blisters, bubbles, neckring cracks, surface crizzles, strength and thermal shock. Simple and rapid methods for measuring the chemical and physical properties of glasses were described. The relative advantages of CIE, Munsell and Hunter colour notations were discussed and suggestions for controlling colour in glass were made.

In an interesting paper on the general aspects of quality control in the glass industry, Prof. W. E. S. Turner observed that as a result of his recent visits to a large number of glass factories in India he was convinced of the necessity of introducing quality control in the Indian glass industry.

Testing of raw materials and finished products as an important aid to quality control programme was emphasized in most of the papers. Testing is expensive and it should be cut down to the minimum necessary to give information as to the causes of defects in the products and how they could be reme-The number and types of tests to be carried out depend on the degree of control desired. For example, by measuring the density and softening points of a glass, it is possible, by employing a graphical method, to determine the amounts of silica, alumina, alkali and alkaline earths in glass. These two physical characteristics of the glass can, therefore, be employed for controlling the composition of glass. Similarly, thermal expansion and low temperature viscosity measurements could also be helpful in quality control of glass.

There are instances where the normal quality control measure of relying on inspection alone is not enough. For example, in the manufacture of beer bottles, it has been suggested that quality control should be applied only to bottles which have already been inspected to the extent of 100 per cent. This method is not only a check on the quality of production but also on the quality of inspection. From the information gained by inspection of packed ware, a record of the general quality of the manufacturing run could then be prepared. By these means, a manufacturer can ensure that the subnormal bottles in a batch are kept down to a very small percentage without the need for reinspection of large proportions of the goods manufactured.

An improved quality control programme has been in operation at the Hartford-Empire Co., U.S.A., resulting in the production of glass of high quality and constant composition. The three-phased programme consists of (1) control of composition, (2) special measurements, and (3) control of furnace operation. Glass composition is controlled

by density and viscosity measurements and chemical analyses. Measurement of the homogeneity of the product also gives a good index of the entire control programme. Furnace operation is controlled by comparing optical temperature and daily tonnage data with such glass characteristics as are directly related to furnace operation such as seed and blister count. Collection of temperature distribution data and analyses of the products of combustion at weekly intervals are also useful in quality control measures.

Statistical quality control

Of the three papers presented under this head, one dealt with the collection, presentation and study of data to aid industrial efficiency and emphasized the importance of choosing the right kind of observation to record. Reference was made in this paper to two advanced statistical techniques employed in quality control, namely (1) use of control charts, i.e. the practice of recording the results of sampling inspection at various stages of a series of manufacturing processes leading to reduction of losses incurred by rejection on final inspection and (2) use of sampling inspection technique at the final stage leading to classification of the product, viz. satisfactory, just satisfactory, unsatisfactory and bad. The stabilization of the production process before going into more detailed inspection is emphasized. In the second paper entitled "Application of statistical methods in the study of breakage of glasshouse pots", it has been shown that it is possible to find out the causes of breakage by suitable statistical treatment of data relating to the average life of glass-house pots. The third paper outlines the fundamentals of statistical quality control procedure with the help of a typical example — bursting pressure tests on beer bottles. The use of nul' test, a common example of which is the thermal shock test, for purposes of quality control was discussed.

Furnace design and operation

One of the papers in this group dealt with some aspects of furnace design and operation such as quality of refractories and fuel employed, heat distribution, furnace pressure, and supply of combustion air and fuel, which affect the quality of glass. The conditions conducive to satisfactory furnace operation and the part the furnace plays in quality control of glass were discussed in another paper. Selection of suitable temperatures which satisfy the melting rate required of a particular furnace, steady fuel feeding, selection of refractories best suited for particular conditions, steady batch charging and withdrawing of glass at a constant state are considered important for good and efficient furnace operation. In the third paper were outlined the probable causes of defects introduced in glass due to the type of refractories used. Suggestions were made for eliminating these defects, and the properties and range of composition for different types of refractories suitable for glass-melting furnaces were indicated.

Testing of glass and glassware

There were five papers dealing with this aspect of quality control. Standard methods

for routine examination of glass for inhomogeneity and data on maximum tensile strain due to inhomogeneity permissible on the surface of glass for different types and sizes of containers were described in one of the papers. Techniques for carrying out thermal endurance tests on commercial glassware. the use of polariscope as a check on the process of annealing of glass were described in two other papers. The fourth paper dealt with a rapid qualitative method for determining the variation in coefficient of expansion of glasses and the use of this property in quality control. The method has been recommended for controlling the composition of glass batches. The requirements of containers in the pharmaceutical industry other than neutral glass containers and the various tests employed to determine their suitability were described in detail in another paper.

Centenary of Bessemer's Invention

THE YEAR 1956 MARKS THE CENTENARY OF Sir Henry Bessemer's invention of what is now familiarly known as the Bessemer process to convert pig iron into steel. The invention effected substantial reduction in the price of steel and greatly influenced the future of structural engineering.

Bessemer was born on 19 January 1813 at Charlton, Hertfordshire, England. He learnt mechanics from his father, but eagerness for enquiry and his inventive proclivities made him a prolific inventor in later life. Early in his career he showed his inventive genius by producing perforated dies for preventing the re-use of old stamps. Among his later successful inventions was the building of a special cross-channel steamer named 'The Bessemer'. Bessemer's attention was drawn to the problems of steel manufacture, while he was attempting to improve the construction of guns. The process he patented in-

volved decarbonization of cast iron by blowing a forced blast of air through molten pig iron to obtain malleable iron in a fluid state.

When Bessemer first presented his paper entitled "On the manufacture of malleable iron and steel without fuel" at a meeting of the Royal Association for the Advancement of Science at Cheltenham in 1856, his claims were heard with incredulity. His attempts to work out his process in his steelworks erected at Sheffield proved abortive, but undaunted, he laboured strenuously against many odds and finally in 1865 succeeded in establishing the feasibility of his process.

Bessemer founded the Iron and Steel Institute in 1869 and became its President in 1871. He was elected Fellow of the Royal Society and was knighted in 1879. He died on 15 March 1898.

REVIEWS

An Introduction to Process Control System Design by A. J. Young (Longmans, Green & Co., London—New York—Toronto), 1955. Pp. xvii + 378. Price 42s. In his acknowledgements, the author has stated that "the book represents an attempt to provide simple introduction to the study of process control systems and of the factors which influence their design". In this endeavour, the author has drawn upon his vast fund of personal industrial experience and published books and papers in the

field.

The opening chapter stresses the need for theoretical and experimental analysis of plant characteristics to exploit the economic potentialities of automatic controls. The next five chapters deal with the theoretical plant analysis leading to the chapter on experimental frequency response analysis, the backbone of control system design at the present stage of knowledge. Then follow chapters on the characteristics of plant and control systems, operation of simple control systems and prediction of best controller setting with the aid of graph. Chapters 10-17 contain, from the point of view of a process design engineer, valuable information on various controllers with both single and combination systems, the effect of phase lag attenuation and plant lag in process control, the nature of the transfer stages found in plant units and calculation of response of such stages, valve characteristics and the consideration disturbances in control. This is followed by a chapter on complex control systems and a concluding chapter on a brief procedure for process control system design. The appendix contains lots of selected supplementary information of theoretical nature for reference purposes.

The author has dealt with the basic principles of process control in a logical sequence in quantitative terms with emphasis on dynamic characteristics of the plants, which are vital to the process design engineer. The frequency response approach, practically bereft of mathematics, employed in the treatment of the subject, and the numerous illustrative examples and graphs representing

the data have extended the utility of the book to plant engineers. He has presented to the process design engineers a quantitative rational approach as an alternative to empiricism for the synthesis of control equipment. The book thus satisfies the long-felt need in the field of process control design. Some of the outstanding features of this book are: (1) maintenance of high pedagogical standards in the presentation of the material; (2) employment of widely used standard terminology in the text which makes the book simple and familiar reading; and (3) the distinctly practical design bias of the subject matter.

The author has succeeded in his attempt to bring about a comprehensive book on process control system design. The book will not only be useful as a text-book for an introductory course in process control system design but will also serve the needs of process control designers and engineers as a valuable reference book.

N. S. NANDEESWARAIYA

QUALITATIVE ORGANIC ANALYSIS AND SCIENTIFIC METHOD by A. McGookin (Chapman & Hall Ltd., London), 1955. Pp. vii + 155. Price 15s.

Though there are a number of books on qualitative organic analysis published in the English language in Britain, America and India, there is justification for the appearance of yet another written by Dr. A. McGookin. This has a novel feature in it: it lays emphasis not only on a rational procedure but also on the scientific method. The book is the result of over 30 years of experience of the author in teaching the subject. Dr. McGookin is of the opinion that qualitative organic analysis is the most important means of instilling the principles of scientific method into the minds of students and that it should not be regarded merely as an exercise in laboratory technique.

In eight chapters the subject of qualitative analysis is developed in a natural manner based on the three essential methods of science: experiment, observation and inference. The experimental chapters are divided

into three parts. Part I is devoted to preliminary tests, Part II to special tests and Part III to hydrolysis and products of hydrolysis. The philosophical discussion of observation and inference will be quite useful even for senior students taking up a research career, since by observing the precautions given, many avoidable errors can be eliminated and those under the category of unavoidable ones reduced in number. The usual list of organic compounds with their physical constants and their derivatives has been omitted here since probably the object is not the spotting of compounds but analysis. text is written clearly and is interspersed liberally with quotations from various sources which are by themselves interesting and thought-provoking.

The book can be strongly recommended to students of organic chemistry in universities and technical colleges. For a book of this type, which should be rightly popular, the price is probably too high for an average

Indian student.

T. R. SESHADRI

India's Mineral Wealth by J. Coggin Brown & A. K. Dey (Oxford University Press, Bombay), 1955. Pp. xxiv + 761. Price Rs. 30

This is the third edition of the well-known book which was originally published under the same title by Dr. J. Coggin Brown in 1923 as a pocket-size volume. It was revised and considerably added to in 1936. The present edition is several times the size of the second edition and has been prepared with the collaboration of Dr. A. K. Dey, Superintending Geologist of the Geological Survey of India, with the original author who was formerly an officer of the Geological Survey of India.

As the first edition was written to include all the territories which lay in the original Indian Empire, this edition also deals with

India, Pakistan and Burma.

The book is divided into five parts which deal respectively with the mineral fuels; metals and their ores; materials used in building, agriculture, ceramic industries, paint industries and other non-metallic minerals; precious and semi-precious stones; water and soils. There are 19 individual chapters each dealing with a small group of closely connected mineral deposits. Each chapter deals with deposits of a small group

of minerals fairly thoroughly and follows more or less the lines on which the quinquennial reviews of mineral production are published by the Geological Survey. Some notes are given on the history of the more important deposits and their geology and on the distribution, production, etc., of individual minerals. Graphs illustrative of production and maps of the location of the deposits are given with regard to most important minerals. A feature which will quickly become out of date is the listing of present producers of certain minerals, though this will be useful temporarily for people in the mineral trade. There are also numerous references to some small occurrences which are not of any particular interest except that they serve to give a more or less complete picture of the present-day knowledge.

The last two chapters are devoted to water supply and soils respectively. These are considered from a general all-India point of view and form good summaries of our general knowledge on these subjects.

The book gives a comprehensive and reliable review of the present knowledge of the mineral resources of India, Pakistan and Burma. It is illustrated by several photographs of mines and maps of various mineral deposits or particular minerals. There are several tables interspersed with the text. The classified bibliography at the end, which includes a list of selected papers, runs to 20 pages while index occupies 32 pages. The book is bound to occupy an important place as a handy reference work on the mineral resources of India, Pakistan and Burma and will no doubt become very popular. The printing and get-up are of a high standard, though the price, for the Indian public, and particularly for students, is rather high.

M. S. KRISHNAN

STUDIES OF MINERAL NUTRITION BY USE OF TRACERS by Orlin Biddulph [The Botanical Review, 21(5) (1955), 251-96]

Radioactive isotopes have been extensively used in recent years as tracers in studies on mineral nutrition of plants, animals and various micro-organisms. Dr. Biddulph in this number of the *Botanical Review* has comprehensively dealt with the botanical aspects of this subject giving details of procedures such as direct counting and auto-

radiography as also the absorption and metabolism of calcium, copper, iodine, iron, manganese, molybdenum, phosphorus, sulphur, sodium and zinc. The basic requirement of a tracer, according to the author, is that "it should be chemically and physically exactly equivalent to the substance it represents or displaces and that it in no appreciable way affects the system differently from its normal counterpart". Almost all the isotopes used in mineral nutrition studies conform to the above requirement and the amount of radioactive material used is in such minute quantity that it does not constitute any health hazard. Consequently, extensive investigations have already been carried out by the use of various available isotopes in studies on mineral nutrition in plants.

Under procedures, an account is given of the manner Geiger counters are used and the method of direct counting as also details of micro-autoradiography, which technique has been used with remarkable success in certain types of plant tissues. The author has also described studies relating to absorption of various minerals in plants. Thus, it has been found that potatoes, corn, cotton and tobacco vary greatly in absorption of fertilizer phosphorus on soils of comparable

native phosphorus content. Further, the additional advantage which may be gained by simultaneous use of two tracers in the same plant section has also been illustrated with suitable examples from published reports. In addition, the investigations reported on the metabolism of various elements such as calcium, copper, iron, manganese and others have been very well reviewed with extensive references to the literature. However, the author's treatment of the subject of radiation injury is rather inadequate. The recently published papers on the biological effects of radiation, from the proceedings of the International Conference on Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy held in Geneva in August 1955, cover a more extensive ground. Perhaps, for the same reason, this review may be found wanting and not quite up to date in regard to some other aspects of mineral nutrition studied by the use of tracers. All the same, Dr. Biddulph's attempt in collecting all the material he was able to get on this subject in one review of this kind is indeed a very commendable effort and the review deserves to be read by botanists, plant physiologists and others who are interested in the use of radioactive isotopes.

P. S. SARMA

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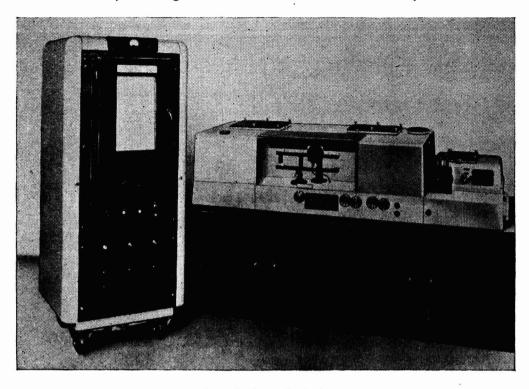
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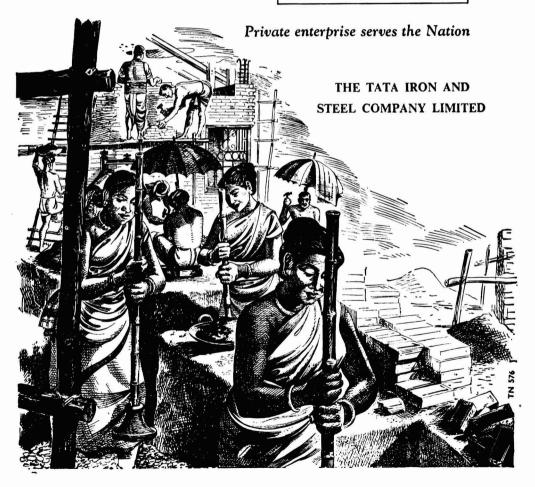
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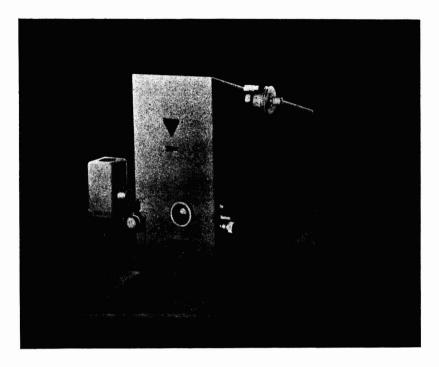


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NOTES & NEWS

Virus synthesis

SCIENTISTS AT THE UNIVERSITIES of California and Washington have been able to separate tobacco mosaic virus (TMV) particle into its component protein and ribonucleic acid (RNA). Neither of the components by itself is infectious but infectivity is restored by mixing the two together in a test The small protein particle and RNA threads at the core of the virus were mixed in a test tube. when about 1 per cent of the infectivity of the original material was regained.

The newly formed infectivity is probably due to both protein and RNA — neither is the exclusive agent of genetic transmission. This brings up the possibility of an artificial hybrid virus made from the protein of one type of TMV with nucleic acid from a mutant which has a different effect

on the plant.

The results represent the first instance of reactivation of an infectious particle from component parts in a test tube. The work opens up several approaches to an attack on virus diseases, as well as new investigations of some of the most basic biological problems [Sci. Newsletter, 68 (1955), 292; Chem. Engng. News, 33 (1955), 4034 7.

Structure of enzymes

RECENT WORK CARRIED OUT AT the Emory University, U.S.A., has indicated that a number of aminopeptidases are non-protein in character. Starting with an aminopeptidase preparation that showed only a single component by electrophoresis, a number of aminopeptidases, each with a molecular weight of about 6.000. has been isolated by column chromatography. Since the components are composed of a nucleotide, glucosamine and a peptide, a molecular weight of 6,000 places these enzymes in the non-protein category.

Another important point this work has revealed is that fragments split from the original enzyme retain physiological activity. Fifteen separate aminopeptidases isolated from swine kidney aminopeptidase by ion-exchange chromatography have been found to retain 70 per cent of the overall activity of the original enzyme preparation [Chem. Engng. News, **33** (1955), 4033].

Enzymatic synthesis of dextran

DEXTRAN PRODUCED BY BACTErial fermentation or enzymatic method has high molecular weight and must be depolymerized and fractionated to yield a product of molecular weight $75,000 \pm 25,000$ to be clinically suitable as a bloodplasma volume expander. The vield of clinically useful dextran is, therefore, low.

A new enzymatic method for directly converting sucrose to dextran of the desired molecular weight employ dextran-sucrose obtained from Leuconostoc mesanteriodes NRRL B-512, cultivated in a medium containing sucrose, Basamin-Busch veast hydrolysate and salts. Enzyme, sucrose, and primer concentrations, primer type, and reaction temperature will affect the molecular weight of synthesized dextran. Dextran of low molecular weight is preferable to maltose as a primer. Dextran primer of low molecular weight may be obtained from synthesis reactions as a byproduct of recovery of dextran of clinical molecular weight either by using the dextran below the 'clinical' fraction in molecular weight, or by hydrolysing the dextran higher in molecular weight than the clinical frac-Increasing the molecular weight of the primer increases the molecular weight of dextran synthesized. For production of dextran of molecular weight 75,000 + 25,000 suitable weight-average primer molecular weights are in the range of 15,000 to 20,000 for dextran fractions and 20,000 to 40,000 for dextran hydrolysates. For a primer recycling process in which primer utilization is balanced by primer production, it probably would be necessary to use composite primers of fractions of low molecular weight and hydrolysed fractions of high molecular weight. Investigations are being conducted to determine the practicability of such a recycling operation.

High yields of products having suitable molecular weight for clinical use have been obtained by performing the reaction at approximately 15°C. or less, using 10 per cent sucrose concentration, enzyme concentrations of 20 to 40 dextran-sucrose units per ml., and dextran of low molecular weight as primer. The synthetic product is adjusted to the average molecular weight desired primarily by varying primer molecular weight and concentration and, secondarily, by adjusting fractionation conditions. Products of molecular weight $75,000 \pm 25,000$ have been obtained in yields greater than 25 per cent of reaction sucrose by using 2 per cent concentration of primer dextran, having molecular weight in the vicinity of 20,000. and by fractionating the reaction mixture between the limits of 42 and 50 per cent actual methanol concentration [Industr. Engng. Chem., 47 (1955), 1593].

Albomycin, a new antibiotic

ALBOMYCIN, A NEW ANTIBIOTIC obtained from cultures of a species of streptomyces, Actinomyces subtropicus, has been manufactured during recent years in the Soviet Union. This antibiotic strongly inhibits the growth of Gram-positive cocci, chiefly pneumococcus and staphylococcus. Moreover, it inhibits the growth of staphylococci resistant to other antibiotics, including penicillin, strepto-mycin, tetracycline and erythromycin. It inhibits the growth of staphylococci in an extreme dilution (1 in 7 \times 108) — an activity about 10 times greater than that of penicillin. It is also effective against a number of Gram-negative bacteria — e.g. the coli-dysentery group of organisms and Friedlander's bacillus.

Albomycin forms a reversible complex with the serum proteins, which facilitates its circulation in the body. Pharmacological study has revealed that albomycin persists in the blood in effective concentrations after a single subcutaneous dose for as long as two or three days. It is non-toxic, and is well tolerated in large doses - up to 50 million units per kg. (1.4 mg./20 g.) — given subcutaneously or intravenously. No side reactions were noted after intrathecal injections in children.

Albomycin has proved effective in the treatment of pneumonia, especially in young children, in the septic complications of dysentery and measles, and in meningitis due to penicillin-resistant pneumococci. It has also been used in the treatment of peritonitis and other surgical infections and for penicillin-resistant prostatitis and gonococcal urethritis.

Albomycin is a basic substance and forms salts with various acids. Chemically pure sulphate of albomycin is in the form of an amorphous red powder, easily soluble in water, slightly soluble in methanol but insoluble in other organic solvents. The pure preparation of albomycin sulphate contains 4.16 per cent of iron which seems to be attached by a chelate bond to the hydrous group of serine contained in the molecule of albomycin. In addition to serine, hydrolysates of albomycin contains ornithine, glutamic acid, alanine, glycine, proline, and an unidentified amino acid.

The mechanism of the antibacterial action of albomycin has also been studied. It has been observed that albomycin, independently of concentration, inhibits the growth of staphylococci, E. coli, and other bacteria only in the presence of oxygen. This study leads to the conclusion that albomycin interferes with the action of an enzyme that contains iron and transports oxygen [Brit. med. J., (1955), 1177].

Filipin, a new antibiotic

FILIPIN, A NEW ANTIBIOTIC ISOlated from soil fungus Streptomyces filipinensis from Philippines, has been shown to be effective against a number of human pathogenic fungi. Filipin is also found effective against a few seed-rotting fungi, but it has not shown any activity against bacteria. It belongs to a new family of antifungalagents and resembles closely another fungicide, fungichromin, recently announced [Sci. Newsletter, 68 (1955), 265].

A new antirabies vaccine

A NEW ANTIRABIES VACCINE PREpared from fixed rabies virus of high titres grown in embryonated duck eggs is claimed to be almost devoid of the encephalomyelitisproducing qualities that occasionally occur with the use of rabies vaccine prepared from rabbit brain. The new vaccine is claimed to have caused no severe systemic reactions in 20 human subjects who had sustained bites from dogs, squirrels, cats, rats, mice or monkeys. Virus-neutralizing antibodies were demonstrated in 12 out of 13 patients tested 14 days after the vaccine was administered [Science, 122 (1955), 112].

A new haemoglobin

The presence in normal adult blood of a small amount of a new haemoglobin component having electrophoretic properties different from those of the main component, haemoglobin A, is reported. The material was isolated by zone electrophoresis of a dialysed haemoglobin solution (8 per cent concentration) in a starch slab covered with polyethylene sheeting. The absorption curve in the visible region for this component was the same as that for haemoglobin A. No significant differences were found in the ultraviolet spectrum. Comparison of this component with the known abnormal haemoglobins indicated that it shows a mobility in various buffers similar to that of haemoglobin E.

Electrophoresis in free solution in barbital buffer (pH 8.6; $\Gamma_2/0.05$) also demonstrated this component when a haemoglobin concentration of 3 per cent or more was employed. The mobility calculated from the descending pattern was -1.94×10^{-5} compared with -3.48×10^{-5} for the main A component. Quantitative analyses of this slow component in the blood of 26 individuals, including normal persons and patients with a variety of chronic diseases, indicated a mean value of 2.6 per cent of the total haemoglobin with a range of 1.8-3.5 per cent.

Normal adult blood showed, in addition, small amounts of a haemoglobin migrating faster than haemoglobin A in barbital buffer [Science, 122 (1955), 288].

New acid chloride synthesis

A NEW ACID CHLORIDE SYNTHESIS has been developed by Dr. Louis A. Carpino and co-workers of the University of Massachusetts, U.S.A., in which the reaction is carried out by dissolving a hydrazide in nitromethane and saturating the solution with hydrogen chloride gas. Chlorine is then passed through the mixture until the

precipitate of the hydrochloride dissolves; this indicates that the reaction is complete. Since the reagent chlorine and the reaction products hydrogen chloride and nitrogen are all gaseous, the resulting solution contains only the desired acid chloride, which can be obtained by distillation.

The process represents a distinctly new and general method for preparing acid chlorides. All other useful methods require the corresponding acid to be reacted with a phosphorus, sulphur or organic halide. Thus, the method might prove particularly valuable in preparing acid halides of organic compounds which are unknown as the acids but stable as the hydrazides, such as carbonic and carbamic acid derivatives. Rapidity of reaction is another advantage of the process; p-nitrobenzhydrazide is converted to the acid chloride in 3-5 min. whereas reaction of the corresponding acid with thionyl chloride requires 6 hr. of fluxing [Chem. Engng. News, 33 (1955), 4173].

Germicidal iodine

THE GERMICIDAL PROPERTIES OF iodine have been found to be due chiefly to the diatomic form of this element. Iodine in diatomic form has a wide anti-microbial spectrum, being a highly effective viricidal, sporicidal and bactericidal agent. The diatomic form of iodine is about 10-100 times as effective germicidally as the usual tri-iodide form. Animal tests point to a very low toxicity index for diatomic iodine, in spite of its germicidal effectiveness. For treating some infections caused by micro-organisms such as fungi or viruses where current antibiotics are practically useless, diatomic iodine find application [Chem. Engng. News, 33 (1955), 4170].

Einsteinium and Fermium

THE NAMES EINSTEINIUM (SYMBOL E) and Fermium (symbol Fm) have been suggested for elements No. 99 and 100, both discovered in debris from the October 1952 H-bomb explosion by G. Seaborg. Element No. 101 has already been named Mendeleevium.

Zincon indicator

THE REAGENT ZINCON (2-CAR-boxy-2'-hydroxy-5'-sulpho-form-azyl benzyl benzene) used for the

colorimetric determination of zinc has now been found suitable as an indicator in titrations using EDTA. The indicator is prepared by dissolving 0.13 g. of finely powdered zincon in 2 ml. of 1M sodium hydroxide which is then diluted to 100 ml, with water.

Zinc is titrated directly in a buffered ammoniacal medium (pH 9-10). Copper, nickel, cobalt, iron (Fe+++), indium and calcium are determined by adding an excess of EDTA solution and back titrating with a standard zinc solution. Aluminium and chromium are determined by boiling first with excess of EDTA solution before adding ammonia solution. With chromium a boiling time of 15 min. is necessary.

Magnesium and alkaline earths do not yield a colour with the indicator, but when zinc is titrated with EDTA solution in their presence, magnesium and strontium are partly titrated, and calcium is titrated with zinc. There is no interference from barium [Industr. Chem., 31 (1955), 629].

Saline water irrigation in calcareous soils

WITH CONTINUOUS USE OF SALINE water for irrigation purposes, the chemical and physical properties and hence the fertility status of a soil may be markedly affected. This problem has been investigated at the Soil Science Department of the Hebrew University, Ierusalem, to clarify the mechanism of physical and chemical changes taking place in calcareous soils when irrigated with saline water and to study the interaction between the various factors.

The normal lime content of the soil studied varied between 24 and 50 per cent clay, comprised about half of the lime-free minerals. The amount of coarse sand and humus as well as the amount of soluble salts were negligible. Texturally they were medium to heavy loams. Percolation experiments were carried out using irrigation water of different degrees of salinity and distilled water alternately. Characteristic permeability curves were obtained and chemical changes were followed by analysing the percolate and the soil.

Contrary to general assumption, the large amounts of calcium carbonate present in the soils did not contribute sufficient amounts of calcium ions to the soil solution to prevent the normal exchange re-

action between the dissolved ions of the percolating saline water and the exchangeable bases of the clav mineral complex. The absorption of sodium ions manifested itself by the swelling of the soil and by a sharp drop in its permeability. This was especially evident when the free salts were leached out by distilled water, a condition obtaining during winter rains. Subsequent application of saline water to the still wet soil did not restore the initial good permeability, unless the swelled and dispersed clay again became aggregated. A change to suitable irrigation water is not sufficient to reaggregate the soil: on the other hand, the process is aided by the drying of the soil.

It is suggested that gypsum be applied regularly as a preventive soil conditioner on all soils where permanent irrigation with more or less saline water is carried out [Bull. Res. Counc. Israel, 58 (1955), 83].

Ammonium persulphate production

THE OPTIMUM CONDITIONS FOR the formation of ammonium persulphate by the electrolysis of ammonium sulphate have been studied. From a theoretical point of view, anode current density should be high with respect to oxygen, and cathode current density low for hydrogen. Favourable conditions were achieved in this respect by using a platinum cathode, and keeping a surface ratio of 4:1 between anode and cathode, which could be increased to 5: 1 at higher current densities.

The most favourable operating conditions for continuous electrolysis of ammonium bisulphate vary with current density: at a current density of 1.85 amp./sq. cm. the concentration of ammonium hydrogen sulphate should be 808-75 g./litre, the upper limit of the sp. gr. of the electrolytic being 1.42; at a current density of 1.15 amp./sq. cm., the ammonium bisulphate concentration should be between 820 and 855 g./litre.

The electrolysis of ammonium sulphate can also be carried out under batch conditions without stabilizers and without the use of a diaphragm. Current density is kept high, temperature is kept below 15°C. by continuous introduction of cooled electrolyte, and the persulphate formed at the anode is continuously removed. The process can be operated con-

tinuously in an apparatus consisting of three separate units: an electrolytic cell, the crystallizer and settler from which the clear electrolyte is withdrawn and cooled, and the saturator, into which fresh ammonium bisulphate is fed [Industr. Chem., 31 (1955).

Tinning of cast iron

CAST IRON IS DIFFICULT TO TIN BY the hot-dipping process owing to the presence of graphite which can appear as outcrops or smears at the surface. Suitable preparative procedures aim at either removing surface graphite, or at covering it over with a readily tinned metal. A new method developed, the direct chloride method, has proved very successful for tinning grey cast irons and also Meehanite and spheroidal graphite irons.

The article to be tinned is blasted thoroughly with angular steel grit (70 mesh) and then degreased by trichlorethylene vapour method. If a very smooth surface is necessary, a water-barrelling operation may be carried out at this stage. The article is then immediately dipped in an aqueous flux made up of sodium chloride 6 lb., ammonium chloride 3 lb., hydrochloric acid 2 parts and water 10 gal. (100 lb.).

The piece is then lowered slowly into the first tinning pot, the surface of which is covered by a layer of flux at least one inch in thickness. The flux which contains zinc chloride 8 parts, sodium chloride 2 parts and ammonium chloride 1 part is kept in a freely ebullient condition by frequent additions of water. The temperature of the tin is maintained in the range 300°-320°C. The article is kept in the tin-pot for at least 5 min. before subsequent tinning manipulating operations are carried out [Chem. Tr. J., 137 (1955), 1590].

Wallboard from coconut husk

DURABLE AND STRONG WALLboards can be made from coconut husk shorts and coir dust by the following process. The unreted coconut husk, either fresh or dry, is fed to a defibring machine and the bistile fibres separated from the other constituents of the husk. The latter are then made to pass through a rotary dryer and a willowing machine to separate the long mattress fibres from the coir

dust and shorts. The loose, dry coir dust and shorts of 6 in. thickness pass through a board-forming machine where it is pressed and reduced to about 1 in. thickness in a continuous slab of preformed board. The board is cut to proper length and placed in a multiple hot plate hydraulic press for pressing into either soft or hard board, depending upon the pressure applied. The boards, which can be produced in any size and thickness without lamination, are smooth on both sides. They are inherently insect-proof, fire-retarding and water-repellent, and may be sawed, nailed, glued, and finished for flooring, sidings, ceiling and roofing [Philippine agric. Engng. J., 5 (1954), 18].

Applications of molybdenum

A SYMPOSIUM ON INDUSTRIAL applications of molybdenum chemistry was held under the aegis of the Division of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry at the last meeting of the American Chemical Society, Cincinnati, Ohio. The papers presented cover the use of molybdenum as a catalyst, as a pigment, as a metal coating and as an alloying material for metals for use in the chemical industries [Industrial & Engineering Chemistry, 47 (1955), 1492-1516].

About 90 per cent of the total production of molybdenum is used in ferrous alloys, and metallic molybdenum and high molybdenum alloys, used principally in electrical applications, account for another 5 per cent. The rest covers all chemical uses.

Catalysts - Molybdenum is one of the most widely used catalytic elements, its estimated consumption in 1955 being 1,200,000 lb. As a transition element, molybdenum has the incomplete inner shell of electrons needed for catalytic activity. It forms a variety of compounds in all valence states with varying catalytic activities and selectivities. Most of these compounds are resistant to common catalyst poisons. Molybdenum compounds are used commercially to catalyse seven types of chemical reactions: oxidation, hydrogenation, dehydrogenation, isomerization, cyclization, chlorination and condensation. Promising results have also been obtained in the fields of dehydration, polymerization and alkylation. The principal commercial applications of molybdenum catalysts today are the reforming of straight-run naphthas, desulphurization and upgrading of petroleum stocks, hydrogenation of coal and shale oil, oxidation of aromatics to acids, oxidation of alcohols to aldehydes, and chlorination of aromatic compounds

Molybdenum is usually used in the form of oxides and sulphides and as molybdates. As molybdenum has six oxidation states. there is a tendency for oxidation or reduction of the catalyst taking place under operating conditions. This frequently has substantial effect on catalytic properties. Supports such as alumina-silica and activated charcoal increase greatly the effective surface area of molybdenum catalysts. Compounds of vanadium, iron, cobalt and nickel have been found to be important promoters. Mixed catalysts of molybdenum and other elements are often more active than molybdenum alone.

Inorganic pigments — The principal molybdenum containing inorganic pigment is molybdate This pigment is deep reddish orange approaching light red in hue, and is characterized by brilliance, high tinctorial strength, very good opacity, good permanency and excellent application Chemically, molybproperties. date orange is a solid solution of lead chromate, lead molybdate and lead sulphate. The production of molybdate orange involves all the conventional techniques for the manufacture of chemical by precipitated pigments and presents some specialized problems. A metastable system, as well as a three-component system, is involved and suitable stabilizers must be used in the manufacture of the pigment to maintain its desirable properties.

A general manufacturing procedure is as follows: A solution of sodium chromate, sodium molybdate, and sodium sulphate is added to a lead nitrate solution at temperatures 15°-30°C. using efficient stirring and maintaining excess lead at the end of the addition. Stirring is continued till the desired colour develops; then a stabilizer, like alum, is added. It is then filtered, washed, dried and ground.

Molybdate orange pigments as a group have excellent brilliancy, strength and opacity. They find use in a wide variety of applications — paints, enamels, finishes for farm tools and construction machinery, printing inks, plastics, floor coverings, papers, coated fabrics, and pigmented leather finishes. One of the new applications is in internally pigmented synthetic fibres, such as cellulose acetate and nylon. In addition to their use as prime colour pigments, molybdate oranges have considerable use in combination with organic reds. To meet the variety of applications and required properties, over 20 different molybdate orange pigments are available in the market.

Organic pigments - The principal use of molybdenum in organic pigments is in the form of the complex heteropoly acids, phosphomolybdic and phosphotungstomolybdic acids. acids along with phosphotungstic acid constitute a group of precipitating agents for several classes of basic and other dyestuffs that produce three valuable related class of pigments known as phosphomolybdic acid (PMA) colours. phosphotungstic acid (PTA) colours, and phosphotungstomolybdic acid (PTMA) colours. The preparation of a pigment from a dyestuff by this method results in a product lower than the original material in brilliance and strength yet very satisfactory for a pigment and with much improved light fastness and other related properties.

PTA pigments are clearer and brighter than PMA colour. PTMA colours are likewise cleaner than the corresponding PMA products. PTMA colours are superior in light fastness to either PMA or PTA colours alone.

The principal uses for PMA pigments, as well as PTA colours, are in the field of printing inks. Other important applications include tinting and shading of white paper, in water colours, show card inks, wax crayons, manufacture of coloured paper and enamels for children's toys.

Metal coatings — There are two ways in which molybdenum is used in the formation of protective or decorative coatings on metal. In the first, generally known as molyblacks, molybdenum is the principal constituent of the coating. Such coatings are often applied electrolytically. In the second type, molybdenum acts as an accelerator or promoter for The iron phosphatecoatings. type pre-paint treatments belong to this class.

Molyblack coatings are used commercially, particularly for blackening zinc, electro-deposited zinc, and zinc-base alloys. They may be deposited not only electro-lytically but in certain cases also by immersion. On zinc surfaces they give surprisingly good outdoor weathering and form excellent bases for air-dry painting, lacquering or enamelling.

In an improved patented process for zinc plating, a mirror-like finish is obtained using a zinc cvanide bath containing a substantial proportion of molybdenum as a soluble compound. The deposits are not of zinc but alloys of zinc with small amounts of the alloving metal. Another patent claims the rust-proofing of iron and steel surfaces by treatment with a boiling dilute solution of a metaphosphate of molybdenum or tungsten in combination with a metaphosphate of iron. Another patent describes a process for the rust protection of ferrous metals by treatment with an aqueous solution containing 5-10 per cent of molybdic anhydride, 2-10 per cent sodium acid sulphate and 80-93 per cent sodium sulphate. The process can be carried out at room temperature.

Materials for I.C. engines

Under a research scheme sponsored by the Council of Scientific & Industrial Research, investigations were undertaken at the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, on the various aspects of the development of heavy duty parts of internal combustion engines. The results have now been compiled and issued in the form of a report.

The report is divided into three parts.

Part I - Materials for internal combustion engines and their influence on the industry in India by Prof. H. A. Havemann and Shri M. R. Raghavan gives a comprehensive survey of the raw materials used and the methods for producing I.C. engine parts. The report reviews the operational conditions encountered by the major components and the relative merits of different methods of production employed. The economic and technical aspects of the design of different types of engines are discussed and facilities for the production of components from indigenous materials are described.

From the information collected regarding the facilities for production of materials as well as fabrication of engine components and availability of raw materials, it seems practicable as well as profitable for India to have its own internal combustion engine industry to manufacture its requirements. Tentative recommendations have been made regarding the use of certain materials for the manufacture of components. order to determine the relative merits of the materials it is proposed to test the components made from these materials in specially designed testing machines as well as in actual engines.

It is suggested that research work should be undertaken first with the object of elimination or. at least reduction of scarce materials like nickel in the production of materials needed by the industry. Substitute materials so developed should mostly consist of indigenous raw materials. Secondly such qualities of the raw materials which affect the design of components should be studied, and finally, designs should be evolved to match the material situation as well as the available means of special treatment of materials such as machining and finish. Lastly, the design should take into account interchangeability and ease of replacement of unserviceable components so that maintenance and servicing requirements are met with such designs.

Part II — Cast iron as crank-shaft material by Prof. H. A. Havemann, Shri R. G. Narayana-murthy and Shri T. R. Raghu-thama Rao reviews the various methods of manufacture of crank-shafts in relation to the facilities available in India. The influence of various mechanical properties on the suitability of a crankshaft material are discussed, and the effects of various design features especially on the bending strength of cast crankshafts are outlined.

It is suggested that a centralized foundry should be installed in each area for the manufacture of high duty parts including crankshafts. This provision would ensure economy and allow specialization in those complex procedures necessary to guarantee the highest quality. A supply of uniform quality raw materials is essential for improvement of the final product. Grey cast iron is produced by a large number of

foundries and some of them can supply high duty cast iron as per specifications.

Part III — Experiments with cast iron crankshafts by Prof. H. A. Havemann, Shri R. G. Narayanamurthy and Shri T. R. Raghuthama Rao is concerned with the influence of various design features of cast crankshafts in respect of their operational reliability.

Experiments conducted at the Indian Institute of Science have indicated that certain cast iron materials are well suited for crankshafts of high speed diesel engines, either as such or after some adaptation in design or material treatment. Spheroidal graphite cast iron has proved to be an effective cast crankshaft material in replacement of forged Further work is steel shafts. necessary to establish the suitability of using acicular cast iron and Meehanite.

Detailed investigations are necessary to ascertain the effect of variations in chemical composition, process of production and treatment of the materials of construction on the general qualities of machining and final operational behaviour of the components made out of them as reflected in the values of bonding and fatigue strength. The geometry of crankshaft as such exerts considerable influence on the suitability of a given material for it and this problem has been recommended for further investigation.

Export of radio-isotopes

SEVENTEEN EXPERTS FROM 13 countries met on 23 and 24 June 1955 at Unesco Headquarters in Paris under the Chairmanship of Prof. Pierre Auger, Director of the Department of Natural Sciences, to discuss the problems of distribution, transportation and utilization of radio-isotopes. The following six recommendations to the Director General of Unesco were unanimously adopted by the experts: (1) to collect information on all the existing national and international regulations concerning safety measures to be taken for the transport of radio-isotopes and to prepare a set of draft regulations for international acceptance and use; (2) to undertake the study of a system for the rapid customs clearance of radioisotopes; (3) to take all appro-

priate steps to reduce allocation and sales formalities to a minimum; (4) to organize informative meetings on problems involved in the distribution, transportation and utilization of radio-isotopes. and to publish an international bulletin giving information on new applications and procedures involving radio-isotopes; (5) to undertake a study of regulations or codes of procedure relating to waste disposal and the serious attendant dangers, and to prepare for international action in this field; and (6) to collect infor-mation on the use of labelled molecules as a research technique, and to study and propose methods of achieving closer international collaboration in the field of production and use of tracer molecules.

Laboratory for research in antibiotics

A RESEARCH LABORATORY BUILT and equipped at a cost of c. Rs. 15 lakhs has been added on to the Pimpri Penicillin Factory to provide facilities for research and training in the field of antibiotics. The research centre has been attached to Pimpri factory with a view to keep the research workers in touch with practical aspects of plant operation and for the expeditious application of results of research for the improvement of processes and the products.

The building is a two-floor L-shaped structure with a floor area of c. 24,000 sq. ft. There are a number of air-conditioned rooms in which temperatures are maintained constant at 37°, 30°, 24°, 5° and 4°C. There are at present the departments of Mycology, Bacteriology, Biochemistry, Organic Chemistry and Physical Chemistry. The bias for research is on antibiotics from all aspects.

The following problems are being tackled in the laboratory at present: (1) Evolution of strains of *P. chrysogenum* by mutation, selection or other methods with a view to obtaining a strain which can produce larger quantities of penicillin; (2) study of the optimum conditions for the production of maximum amounts of penicillin; (3) study of the metabolism of the mould as well as the substrates added to the medium in the course of fermentation; (4) study of biosynthesis of penicillin by

the mould under the conditions of fermentation; (5) study of the effect of agitation and aeration on the oxygen transfer to the medium and mycelium; (6) preparation of new salts of penicillin and studying the rate of excretion and maintenance of therapeutic concentrations in the blood stream of animals and later clinically; and (7) screening of indigenous microorganisms for the production of antibiotics.

Rubber research and development

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A RUBBER Research Association and a Central Research Institute with one or two zonal research centres was decided at a meeting of the representatives of the Association of Rubber Manufacturers, Calcutta, and Indian Rubber Industries Association, Bombay, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Indian Rubber Board and the National Chemical Laboratory, Poona. The meeting. which was held in Delhi during January 1956, was presided by Prof. M. S. Thacker, Director, Scientific & Industrial Research.

It was also decided at the meeting that a cess on the consumption of rubber, both indigenous and imported, should be levied at Rs. 8 per ton and the collection should be made available for meeting expenditure of the proposed research association. The association will have a 15-member committee with the Director, Scientific & Industrial Research, as Chairman.

Iron ore deposits in Orissa

NEARLY 27 MILLION TONS OF IRON ore are estimated to occur in the Tomaka and Kansa areas of Cuttack district in Orissa, according to a preliminary investigation carried out by the Geological Survey of India. Another 2-3 lakh tons of iron ore is also expected to be available from the deposits near Tungaisuni and Bodasil in the same district. Besides, about 20,000 tons of fairly high grade or occur near Kharipadia, 5 miles south of Sukinda (P.I.B.).

Grading lemongrass oil

A NEW SCHEME FOR COMPULSORY grading and marking of lemongrass oil according to Agmark grades has come into operation

from 1 January 1956. The specifications notified in the provisions of the Agricultural Produce (Grading and Marking) Act, 1937, have been evolved in consultation with the Indian Standards Institution

Exports of lemongrass oil will henceforward be allowed from India only under the Agmark grading certificate issued by the Essential Oils Grading Laboratory set up in wharf area of Cochin Port. The specific mention in the grading certificate of the percentage of citral will ensure better prices for the superior grade of lemongrass oil [Indian Tr. J., 195 (1956), 8].

Indian Standards

Chemical Analysis of Copper (1S: 440-1955) — This standard covers the method of sampling and test procedures for the determination of copper, lead, tin, nickel, iron, arsenic, antimony, bismuth, selenium, tellurium and oxygen in various grades of copper used in industry.

Chemical Analysis of Brasses and Bronzes (1S: 441-1955) — This standard covers methods of sampling and chemical analysis of various grades of brasses and bronzes used in different industries. The methods described deal with the determination of copper, lead, tin, manganese, phosphorus, nickel, iron, silicon, aluminium, zinc. arsenic and antimony.

Indian Standard Sand (IS: 650-1955) — The standard sand shall be of quartz, of light grey or whitish variety and shall be free from silt. The sand grain shall be angular, the shape of the grains approximating the spherical form; elongated and flattened grains being present to a very small extent. The standard sand shall pass through 15 sieve 85 (842 microns) and not more than 10 per cent by weight shall pass through 15 sieve 60 (592 microns).

The standard sand shall be free from organic impurities. The loss of weight on extraction with hot hydrochloric acid of sp. gr. 1-16 (conforming to 15:265-1950) shall not be more than 0-25 per cent.

Sheet Linoleum (18:653-1955) — This standard covers the requirements and the methods of test for plain, moire, jaspe and marble sheet linoleum used as floor coverings.

Proceedings of the Atoms for Peace Conference

A COMPLETE SURVEY OF THE status of development of nuclear power in the world for peaceful purposes is being published by the United Nations in 16 volumes of Proceedings of the International Conference on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy. The series will constitute the only official and unabridged report of the proceedings of the international conference held in Geneva in August 1955. It will comprise all the papers submitted to the conference (about 1,050), together with an edited record of the discussions concerning each paper.

Volume III, entitled Power Reactors (English edition), the first of the sixteen to be printed, has already been published. This 400-page book contains 30 papers presented to the Geneva conference on the peaceful uses of atomic energy and verbatim records of six sessions of the conference. It describes reactors now operating and plans for future reactors that will produce usable power in the form of heat or electricity. The types of fuels and how they will be used are also considered in this volume.

The following is a complete listing of the 16 volumes which comprise this publication: Vol. 1— The World's Requirements for Energy: The Role of Nuclear Power (\$ 8.00), Vol. 2 — Physics, Research Reactors (\$ 8.00), Vol. 3-Power Reactors (\$ 7.50), Vol. 4 -Cross-sections Important to Reactor Design (\$ 7.50), Vol. 5 — Physics of Reactor Design (\$ 9.00), Vol. 6-Geology of Uranium and Thorium (\$ 9.00), Vol. 7 — Nuclear Chemistry and the Effects of Irradiation (\$ 10.00), Vol. 8 — Production Technology of the Materials Used for Nuclear Energy (\$ 10.00), Vol. 9 — Reactor Technology and Chemical Processing (\$ 10.00), Vol. 10 — Radioactive Isotopes and Nuclear Radiations in Medicine (\$ 8.00), Vol. 11 — Biological Effects of Radiation (\$ 8.00), Vol. 12 — Radioactive Isotopes and IonizingRadiations in Agriculture, Physiology and Biochemistry (\$9.00) Vol. 13 — Legal, Administrative, Health and Safety Aspects of Large-scale Use of Nuclear Energy (\$ 7.00), Vol. 14 — General Aspects of the Use of Radioactive Isotopes: Dosimetry (\$ 6.50), Vol. 15 — Applications of Radioactive Isotope and Fission Products in Research and Industry (\$7.50), and Vol. 16 — Record of the Conference (\$ 5.00)

the Conference (\$ 5.00).

The full series (\$ 130.00), or individual volumes, may be ordered from United Nations official sales agents in various countries.

National Building Organization Ouarterly Journal

THE NATIONAL BUILDING ORGANization, a semi-autonomous body set up by the Ministry of Works, Housing and Supply, Government of India, in 1954, recognizing the necessity of a comprehensive national approach to all aspects of housing, has start-ed a new quarterly journal, the first issue of which was published in December 1955 (Manager of Publications, Government of India, Delhi; price Rs. 2 or 3s.). The journal will publish in addition to contributed articles on various aspects of building construction, design and technique, abstracts of technical journals and research reports received by the organization, building construction and building materials statistics. The first issue includes the following articles: Building materials - the weakest link; studies on the effect of subgrade soils containing sodium sulphate on building structures constructed on subgrade; economical roof truss designs through modern timber engineering; and pozzolonic activity of clays.

Career and professional status of research worker

The Unesco Secretariat has recently published a report entitled *The Career and Professional Status of the Research Worker*. The report is divided into four parts, relating respectively to a definition of the career of the 'research worker', the latter's place in the organization of scientific research and in society, problems connected with recognition of the professional status of the research worker, and, lastly, the most favourable 'research climate'.

Bulletin of the India Section of the Electrochemical Society

THE SOCIETY HAS BROUGHT OUT A special number of the bulletin [4 (1955), No. 4] in connection with the Aluminium Centenary.

The Technical Section of this issue contains the following articles: The history of aluminium; Bauxite resources of India; A perspective of the Indian aluminium industry; Aluminium in the consumer industries in India; Aluminium in telecommunication industry; some aspects of aluminium research in India; Aluminium in nuclear engineering; competition between steel and aluminium; and Recent books on aluminium; and Recent literature on aluminium.

Fats and Oils Abstract Service

BEGINNING WITH THE JANUARY 1956 issue the Fats and Oils Abstract Service, published by Interscience Publishers Inc., New York, is being edited by Dr. W. O. Lundberg. The policy of the Abstract Service is to bring to its readers up-to-date, concise coverage of the world literature in the field of fats and oils. There will be no change in the form and indexing of the abstracts, but there may be some changes in emphasis, reflecting recent industrial and scientific trends. In the detergent field complete coverage will be maintained of papers dealing with fundamentals, but there will be less emphasis on specialized industrial and commercial applications. Greater number of papers will be covered in the fields of nutritional qualities of edible fat and oil products and of new industrial products from inedible fats and oils.

Announcements

- The First Regional Conference on Electron Microscopy in Asia and Oceania will be held at Tokyo after September 1956. It is proposed to organize a Regional Committee consisting of the representatives of each national committee on this occasion. The Society of Electron Microscopy, Japan, expects to constitute the Regional Committee with a chairman and an executive committee selected from the representatives of Australia, India, New Zealand and Japan.
- The International Conference on Large Electric Systems (C.I.G.R.E.) will hold its sixteenth convention from 30 May to 9 June 1956 in Paris. One hundred and sixteen papers, in English or French, will be read and discussed during the

convention. The subjects to be discussed are: Generation, transformation and cutting off of current; construction, insulation and maintenance of overhead and underground lines; operation, interconnection and protection of large high voltage networks.

There is an Indian National Committee for the C.I.G.R.E. of which Prof. M. S. Thacker is the Chairman

- The Geological, Mining and Metallurgical Society of India The following office-bearers have been elected for the year 1956: President, Dr. C. S. Pichamuthu (Bangalore); Vice-Presidents, Mr. Jayantilal Ojha (Calcutta) and Mr. W. B. Metre (Digboi); Joint Secretaries, Prof. N. N. Chatterjee (Calcutta) and Prof. N. L. Sharma (Dhanbad); Treasurer, Prof. P. C. Datta (Calcutta).
- Indian Botanical Society The following office-bearers have been elected for the year 1956: President, Dr. A. C. Joshi (Chandigarh); Vice-Presidents, Prof. P. Maheshwari (Delhi) and Rev. Fr. H. Santapau (Bombay); Secretary, Prof. J. Venkateswarlu (Waltair); Chief Editor, Business Manager and Treasurer, Prof. T. S. Sadasivan (Madras).
- Award of Doctorate Degrees The following persons have recently been awarded the Ph.D. Degree by the University of Delhi: V. B. Mahesh (A study of naturally occurring and synthetic flavanone derivatives); Inderjit Singh (Radiation effects and P ion showers); R. Narayana (Morphological and embryological studies in the family Loranthaceae-Loranthoideae); O. P. Mittal (A study of the structure and synthesis of oxygen ring compounds present in lichen and other plant sources); B. Bhaumik (On the nature of primary cosmic rays from the study of east west asymmetry and the fine structure).

H. S. Pareek (*The petrological study of Talcher coals*) has recently been awarded the Ph.D. Degree by the Aligarh Muslim University.

INSTRUMENTS AND APPLIANCES

EQUIPMENT FOR SMALL-SCALE APPLICATIONS

Equipment manufacturers in U.S.A. are now producing small-

size models of their standard process equipment, designed to handle a wide range of materials in the laboratory, pilot plant or in small-scale production in units. Such apparatus is made of stainless steel construction so that it may be used under a variety of conditions. The following equipment are described to illustrate the new trend.

The Turba-film evaporator introduced by Rodney Hunt Machine Co. has a heat transfer area of 1 sq. ft. and is designed for use with heating medium up to 250 lb./sq. in. gauge and 700°C. A variable speed drive permits the rotor speed to be changed as desired for various process studies. It uses the same agitated film method of operation as Rodney Hunt's larger equipment.

A pilot-filter specially designed by American Plant Equipment Co. for carrying out process studies is a small pressure filter which can be used for gathering data on filtering rates and filter cake characteristics and for investigating the effects of differential filtering pressures and throughput on flow rates. The filter is portable and can be set up in the plant to filter liquids as they are processed. One, two or three vertical filter leaves can be placed in use; with three identical leaves spaced at 1½ in. centre a filter area of 1 sq. ft. is available. Maximum working pressure is 80 lb./sq. in.

A small, light-weight mill for product development, laboratory control work and standardization of production formulas has been developed by Morehouse Industries of Los Angeles. The mill is equipped with high-speed aluminium oxide grinding disks and has a throughput of 1-3 gal./hr.

A laboratory mill for producing test and pilot dispersions was recently introduced by Kinetic Dispersion Corp., Buffalo. A solid agglomerate in a liquid carrier is accelerated rapidly by a rotor within a slotted cylindrical stator. The solids are dispersed by impingement against the slots, so that operation does not rely on shear effects or the maintenance of close tolerances between moving parts under pressure. The capacity of the unit is $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ gal.

Bethlehem Foundry & Machine Co., Bethlehem, Pa., have designed a small heat transfer system which is said to approximate plant conditions in a pilot plant unit. The system employs Du Pont's Hi-Tec eutectic salt as a circulating medium to attain temperatures from 650° to 1,000°F. without pressure. The heat transfer salt is heated by immersion electrical heaters which are suspended individually from the tank cover for easy removal or replacement. A cast steel centrifugal pump mounted on the tank cover circulates the hot salt. Available sizes have heat outputs ranging from 10,000 to 250,000 B.t.u./hr. [Industr. Engng. Chem., 47 (1955), No. 9, Part I, 58A].

PNEUMATIC FLATNESS TESTER

The Metrology Division of the National Physical Laboratory, London, has devised a pneumatic flatness tester for measuring the flatness of photographic plates without exposing it to light. The sensitive plate is placed emulsion downwards on three balls which are outside the picture area and thus do not damage the emulsion. Six jets of air are blown upwards against the sensitive emulsion at a pressure of less than lb./sq. in. and the pressure variations are shown by changes in the level of coloured water in six vertical glass columns calibrated in microns. The magnification of the apparatus, i.e. the extent of change in water level in the glass column due to a change in the distance between the jet and the plate, is 2,500. gauge works off a normal factory air supply through a pressure regulating valve so that its readings are not affected by changes of supply air pressure. Its readings are not affected by temperature also. To test a plate for flatness, the operator just places it on the three balls and looks at the levels in the tubes.

The gauge can also be adapted for testing the contours of complicated shapes by arranging jets at different heights to blow at points where the surface is to be explored (D.S.I.R. Press Release No. 3581-1955).

MINISONIC HOMOGENIZER

Minisonic, a new self-contained homogenizer for laboratory and small batch production, employs the principle of ultrasonic cavitation for emulsification and homogenization. The device developed by Ultrasonics Ltd., Otley, Yorks, requires no pre-mix vessels or ancillary plant. A definite quantity of the continuous phase of an emulsion is introduced into the outer funnel and recirculated via the vibrating element while the disperse phase is taken up from the inner funnel at regulated speed. The progress of emulsification can be observed through the transparent P.V.C. hose and the finished emulsion is discharged by the same flexible hose. Pre-mixed emulsions are processed by using the outer funnel without the inner one.

Emulsification and dispersion are effected by the blade which vibrates at its natural frequency in the liquid stream leaving the jet form. Use of this homogenizer is reported to result in far faster and more effective preparation of emulsion than by the conventional means. It is often possible to reduce the content of surfaceactive agents, and one gallon of emulsion can be made within a minute or two. No aeration of the emulsion occurs as it forms in a completely closed system [Chem. Prod., 18 (1955), 472].

AUTOMATIC WIRING MACHINE

The Bell Telephone Laboratories have developed an ambidextrous machine that can automatically wire complex electrical apparatus. The machine uses a process for making solderless wrapped connections, also developed at Bell Laboratories. Connections are made by automatically wrapping six turns of solid conductor wire around a rectangular terminal. The high wrapping tension provides an airtight, corrosion-resistant contact between the wire and terminal at numerous points.

The experimental machine uses two rotating spindles. The wire is fed directly from a large spool. One spindle pulls the wire, in an inverted L-shaped movement, to a connecting terminal. At the same time the wire is cut to the correct length at the second spindle. The spindles remove a bit of insulation from each end of the wire as they whip the bare wire ends around the terminals. This produces a pressure of about 15,000 lb./sq. in. at each contacting area. Following their punched tape instructions, the spindles then pick up the supply wire from the spool and move to the next electrical connection where the process is repeated. Machine wiring eliminates the need for preparing, storing and handling many short pieces of wire [J. Franklin Inst., 260 (1955), 349].

AUTOMATIC VELOCIMETER

The National Bureau of Standards, U.S.A., has developed an instrument that automatically measures the speed of sound in the sea to depths of c. 300 ft. and plots the result as a function of depth or time. Because of its high accuracy and almost instantaneous response, the velocimeter is expected to be a useful addition to underwater signalling and detecting apparatus.

detecting apparatus.

The NBS velocimeter consists of a pair of piezoelectric transducers of polarized barium-calcium-lead titanate and a reflector, mounted to form a sound path of fixed length. The sending transducer is connected to a pulse generator, and the receiving transducer provides the input for a high-gain pulse-shaping amplifier. The amplifier output retriggers the pulse generator, which then applies another pulse to the sender. The sender in turn produces in the water a sound pulse to actuate the receiver. Thus the system continually regenerates a sound pulse whose repetition rate. or frequency, depends on the time it takes the pulse to move through water. Since the path length is fixed, the frequency depends only on the speed of sound through the water and on the circuit delays. Any variations in sound velocity are recorded as variations in the operating frequency of the velocimeter [J. Franklin Inst., 260 (1955), 320].

MILATOMIC FILTER

The Atomic Instrument Co.. Cambridge, Mass., are the distributors for the Milatomic filter which is especially suitable for use in collection and assay of radioactive precipitates. Milatomic filter has a high degree of retention, and is capable of separating quantitatively extremely fine particles of the order of 1.20 microns from liquid vehicles. This material filters microscopic and sub-microscopic particles as a surface phenomenon or by screening action, in which retention is defined by pores of controlled dimensions. There are 35 million pores, nearly molecular in size, to the square

centimeter. The filter material is 85-87 per cent porous.

The cellulose filter has been widely used in programmes to study laboratory exhaust duct and reactor stack discharge. The filter has application also in monitoring critical areas in or adjacent to raw materials processing plants where treating of ores for nuclear purpose may produce a dangerous concentration of radioactive dust. Another reported use of the filter in atomic energy is in studies of the effects of radiation on biological organisms. The filter has also been used in experimental studies of volume reduction.

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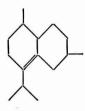
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ERRATUM

In the article entitled "Studies on Black Damar: Part II — Structure of the New Sesquiterpene (Damarene) from the Resin Oil", 15B (1956), page 26, R.H. column, structural formulae I, II and III are wrongly printed. The correct formulae are:



11

Progress Reports

CENTRAL LABORATORIES FOR SCIENTIFIC & INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH, HYDERABAD (DECCAN), ANNUAL REPORT, 1954

The New Building of the Laboratories was formally opened by the Prime Minister, Shri Jawaharlal Nehru, on 2 January 1954, and most of the sections commenced working in the new building during the year. A beginning was made for working out processes on semi-pilot plant and pilot plant scales. Dehydrated castor oil with a viscosity of 1-2 poises was produced on a pilot plant scale. Pilot plant work was also in progress in connection with briquetting and low temperature carbonization of non-coking Indian coals. A pilot plant for processing cottonseed was fabricated.

The following patents were taken out during the year: (1) Production of sulphur dioxide from calcium sulphate; (2) production of (primary, secondary, tertiary and mixed) sodium phosphates; (3) manufacture and purification of fatty acids; and (4) light coloured fatty acids from dark cottonseed oil

refining foots.

The important research activities of some of the

sections are presented below.

Entomology — Ten per cent solutions of the oils of Pongamia glabra, Semicarpus anacardium, Crotum teglium, bitter almonds and dhatura (Datura stramonium) in white oil were found to be toxic to cockroaches. The oil of Pongamia glabra was found to be nerve poison. As a contact poison a 12 per cent solution of the oil gave 100 per cent mortality in the case of B. chinensis in 24 hr. and a 10 per cent solution in acetone was found to be highly toxic to houseflies. A 4 per cent solution of A. squamosa seed oil in acetone gave 100 per cent mortality in the case of houseflies in 24 hr.

Chlorinated turpentine oil solution in kerosene (5 per cent) was found to be satisfactory as a domestic pesticide while its emulsion with water proved highly toxic to plant insect pests. The keeping quality of chlorinated turpentine against stored grain pests was found to be satisfactory; acetone solutions stored for 73 days retained their toxicity.

Fats and oils — Work on the antioxidant action of katha and aca-catechin was extended to the study of their carry-over properties in fried materials. Incorporation of 0.05 and 0.1 per cent catechin to oil increased the storage time of fried potato chips from 5 days to 18 and 36 days respectively.

pectively.

Fuels — Of the different fractions obtained by low temperature carbonization of coal in a Lurgi-Spuelgas plant, the heavy tar fraction after modification with lime was found to be a suitable binder for the briquetting of coal fines. Briquettes with compression strength of 900-1,000 lb./sq. in. were obtained with weathered coal fines 70-80, tar 8-10, lime 1, and water 10-12 per cent; the materials were mixed at 70°-75°C. for half an hour and briquetted at 400 lb./sq. in. pressure.

Heavy chemicals and fertilizers — The ion-exchange resin, Zeocarb-215, was found to accomplish

complete and easy removal of sodium impurity from potassium bromide.

Studies on the preparation of magnesium sulphate from iron pyrites reveal:d that heating the mixture of magnesite and pyrites in limited but known volume of air and without stirring, gave better yields than heating the mixture in the presence of excess air and under constant stirring. The process worked out earlier for the manufacture of sulphuric acid by the decomposition of gypsum at 900°C. in the presence of sodium sulphate and bauxite (CaSO₄: Al₂O₃: Na₂SO₄:: 4:1:2 moles) has been shown to be economical.

Another similar scheme being investigated aims at the production of sulphur dioxide from calcium sulphate in the presence of sodium hydroxide, alumina and sodium aluminate. Maximum decomposition (80-85 per cent) was obtained when the reactants were taken in the molar ratio (CaSO₄: Al₂O₃: NaOH:: 4: 2: 2). The results indicate that the mechanism of these reactions is not similar to that of the decomposition of calcium sulphate in the presence of sodium sulphate and alumina. The latter reaction takes place with the formation of aluminium sulphate at the intermediate stage, the former involves the formation of sodium sulphate and its decomposition.

The active carbons produced from groundnut hulls, teakwood saw dust and 'coalsite' (a low temperature coke obtained by the carbonization of Hyderabad coals) have high adsorption capacities. Promising applications for these products are in caramel decolourization and absorption of organic vapours. The high adsorption capacities of groundnut hull carbon and of the carbon from 'coalsite' for benzene and acetone vapour at 35°C. and their low percentage retentivity of acetone make them highly suitable for the recovery of ace-

tone in acetate silk industry.

Biochemistry — The addition of small amounts of primary alcohols (ethyl and methyl; 0.5-2 per cent) to molasses media supplemented with nutrient salts was found to increase the yield of citric acid during

fermentation by Aspergillus niger.

Studies were continued to elucidate the mechanism of the formation of itaconic acid by the fermentation of carbohydrates. The results obtained so far confirm that glycolysis is the initial sequence in the formation of itaconic acid. With arsenite in the medium, ketoacids accumulate in the culture medium, especially pyruvic and α -ketoglutaric acids. The presence of the latter indicates its derivation from isocitrate or aconitate or citrate, though these have not been identified in the culture media.

JUTE RESEARCH IN INDIA

THE PROGRAMME OF THE INDIAN CENTRAL JUTE Committee for the year 1953-54 included expansion of its research activities and opening of research outstations in jute-growing States, a Chemical Technology Department in the Technological Research

Laboratory and investigating centres to study prices, make market surveys, etc.

In addition to the normal annual grant-in-aid of Rs. 10 lakhs, received by the Committee, the Government of India made available a further sum of Rs. 230,000 for the purchase of apparatus and equipment for the Jute Research Institute.

The research scheme — biochemical investigations on processes involved in the retting of jute — transferred from the Calcutta University, has been made a permanent scheme of the Jute Agricultural Research Institute. The Committee was also financing two research schemes, (1) effect of X-rays, neutrons and y-rays on jute seed, and (2) impregnation of bleached jute yarn with suitable synthetic resins, at the Bose Institute, Calcutta.

The total area under jute during the year was 1,196,000 acres as compared to 1,817,000 in 1952-53, and the output fell to 3,128,000 bales from 4,605,000 bales in the previous year.

The following is a brief review of the work carried out during the year at the Jute Agricultural Research Institute and the Technological Research Laboratory:

Agricultural research — Two varietal trials, one capsularis and one olitorius, were carried out during the year. Among the capsularis strains C 39-213 and CT-919 gave 11 and 8 per cent respectively higher yield than the control D 154. Fanduk and C42-kj-321 were superior to the other varieties in respect of quality ratio. The improved strains of olitorius, O 40-753, O 39-620 and O 40-632 gave 23, 18 and 18 per cent respectively higher yields than the control C.G.

When dry and pre-soaked seeds of *C. capsularis* (C 39-212) and *C. olitorius* (O 40-632) were treated with soft X-rays, variations were noted in the leaves only at lower dosages while at higher dosages variations occurred in the stem and reproductive organs as well.

Some interesting results have been obtained from the studies on the cell walls of the ultimate fibre cells. Each wall shows four to six principal layers, each one consisting of two to six subsidiary layers. The principal layers alternate with each other, whereas the subsidiary layers within each principal layer maintain one direction only. When they are bleached and deliquefied, balloons develop in jute as frequently as in cotton. Factors other than anisotropy in orientation and constricting power of the primary wall seem to be involved in the formation of balloons.

Agronomical studies relating to spacings and manuring effects on early and late varieties of C. capsularis have shown that the late variety D 154 when manured gives the highest fibre yield (24-8 md./acre) with a spacing of 3×12 in. in line-sown plots against 19-19 md. in D 154 and $16\cdot62$ md. in Fanduk (early variety) from broadcast unmanured plots. The effects of spacing and manuring, when considered separately, were significant. The combined treatment effect was significant at 1 per cent level.

Nitrogen proved to be the significantly effective component in nitrogen phosphorus and potassium trials. Applications of 20 lb. and 40 lb. nitrogen per acre increased the fibre yield by 29·28-59·68 per cent in *C. capsularis* and 17·97-39·25 per cent in *C. olitorius*. The effect of phosphorus or potassium, alone or in combination, did not appear to have any beneficial effect so far as the yield of fibre is concerned.

Soil — The cause of fibre colour has been ascribed to the presence of tannin in jute plants and of iron in retting water; pH of the retting water also seems to play an important part. Colouration has been found to be comparatively more in water having high or very low pH values. The colour of the fibres, however, can be removed by treatment with 2 per cent citric or hydrochloric acid or 2 per cent tamarind extract for 5 min.

Technological research — Fundamental study on the chemistry of hemicelluloses of jute fibre has revealed that hemicellulose has a branched structure and a molecular weight of $c.\,20,000$. Examination of the hemicelluloses of six other bast fibres reveals more or less similar component parts as in the case of jute. Further evidence has been obtained in support of the hypothesis about an ester linkage between hydroxyl groups of lignin and carboxyl groups of polyuronide hemicellulose of jute fibres. Complete removal of lignin from the fibre is not possible by treatment with sodium chlorite without a pretreatment with dilute alkali. The residual lignin (as a chloro derivative) in the holocellulose has been isolated and estimated.

Torsional rigidity of jute, ramie and sisal has been measured. Heavier filaments have generally lower rigidity modulus, and porosity appears to be related inversely to rigidity.

From X-ray diffraction patterns of several jute samples, it appears that free silica is present in the fibre in appreciable amounts.

Further work on woollenization of jute fibre has shown that the cost of processing works out to a rupee for a pound of woollenized jute. Mill trials on the production of blankets containing 40 per cent woollenized jute have yielded encouraging results.

Some progress has been made in devising a method for the accurate determination of fineness of jute fibre. The method consists in cutting the fibre into very short lengths (2-3 mm.) and measuring the fineness of such filaments.

Sliver and yarn irregularities were measured at different stages of manufacture, and the effect of variation of dollops on the regularities of sliver and yarn was also studied. Irregularity appears to diminish as the sliver passes through the breaker and finisher cards and the first drawing, but seems to increase as it passes through the second drawing and roving frames. Elimination of roving frame by the introduction of third drawing in slip draft spinning system has been found to be a definite advantage.

INDIAN PATENTS

[A few of the Patent Applications notified as accepted in the Gazette of India, Part III, Section 2, 31 December 1955 to 21 January 1956, are listed below.]

Chemicals, plastics, rubber, paints and allied products

52165. Production of calcium nitrate, pure monoammonium phosphate and nitrogen-phosphorus-containing fertilizer from raw phosphate: Comprising of dissolving raw phosphate in nitric acid, dividing the solution into parts A and B, cooling part A to crystallize out calcium nitrate tetrahydrate; in next step the remaining solution is neutralized with ammonia gas to give monoammonium phosphate and other precipitates, and in next step solution B is converted to nitrogenphosphorus fertilizer by neutralization and evaporation and addition of precipitates from previous step — Norsk Hydro-Elektrisk Kyaelstofaktieselskab

52681. New azo dyestuffs: Diazotizing an aminophenyl benzthiazole derivative and coupling with a coupling component which is itself capable of forming complex metal compounds — I.C.I. LTD.

53248. Improvements in or relating to detergent compositions: Consists of soap and 0·01-5 per cent by weight of a thiuran disulphide and a stabilizing compound — UNILEVER LTD.

53352. Process for producing nitriles: Reacting a halogenide (alkyl)₃ CCH₂CH₂-Hal with a cya-

nide — AKTIEBOLAGET PHARMACIA

53671. New anthraquinone vat dyestuffs and process for their manufacture: In an anthraquinone the substituent present in 1-position is converted into an NH₂ group, the substituent present in 4-position converted into acylamino group, the substituent present in 2-position condensed with an amine and hetero ring closure effected — CIBA LTD.

54505. Process for introducing oxygen into steroids: A steroid containing a methyl group in 13-position is subjected to the oxidizing action of an enzyme derived from an animal organism — CIBA LTD.

51623. Phenthiazine derivatives and their production: By reacting a 1-pyrrolidino-3-halogen-propane with phenthiazine — Societe Des Usines Chimiques Rhone-Poulenc

51829. Preparation of acylated 3, 5-diaminopolyiodo benzoic acid: Treating a 3-amino-5-lower alkanoyl amino-di-iodo benzoic acid with a lower alkanoic acid or a derivative thereof — Sterling

DRUG INC

- 52780. Methods of producing polyhalogen phenyl sulphones and the use of such compounds for combating the stages of development of mites: Coupling 2: 4:5-trihalogenobenzene-sulphohalogenide with benzene, monohalogenobenzene or 1:2:4-trihalogenobenzene in the presence of an agent like AlCl₃—N. V. PHILIPS' GLOEILAMPENFABRIEKEN
- 53432. Production of aromatic carboxylic acids and/or their esters: An alkali salt of benzene dicarboxylic acid in which the carboxyl groups

are not in the para-position, is heated above 340°C. in the presence of a catalyst containing cadmium or zinc and the salt is converted into acid or ester — HENKEL & CIE, G.M.B.H.

53532. Process for curing ethoxyline condensates:
An ethoxyline condensate is reacted with an organic compound having at least three active hydrogen atoms attached to the nitrogen atoms of aromatic di- or poly-amines — N. V. DE BATAAFSCHE PETROLEUM MAATSCHAPPIJ

53821. Preparation of N-aralkyl-N-(acyloxy-alkyl)halogenated-alkanamides: Reacting an Naralkyl-N-(hydroxyalkyl)-halogenated alkanamide with an acylating agent to produce the corresponding acyloxy compound — STERLING

DRUG INC.

54415. Composition for making odourless, non-exuding vinylidene chloride copolymer film: Incorporating in the copolymer, 2-5·5 per cent of a partially aromatic ester plasticizer, 1-2·5 per cent of an aromatic ester of salicylic acid and 0·5-1·5 per cent of a neutral glyceride — The Dow Chemical Co.

53551. New dyestuff intermediates of the pyrroline series: Treating a dinitrile with ammonia—

I.C.I. LTD.

53620. Production of carbon monoxide hydrogenation catalysts: Pulverizing the metals, iron, cobalt or nickel and or their oxides, accelerators and or supporting materials, moulding said powders in admixture with water and separating the catalyst grains of equal size — Ruhrchemie Aktiengesellschaft & Lurgi Gesellschaft fur Warmetechnik M.B.H.

53772. Manufacture of salts of sulphuric acid esters leuco vat dyestuffs of the anthraquinone series: Reacting vat dyestuffs with diethyl cyclohexyl amine, an inert diluent and chlorosulphuric

acid — DURAND & HUGUENIN

53822 and 53823. Improvements in the manufacture of organic substances of very high molecular weight: Causing unsupported streams of the solution and of a precipitant to impinge simultaneously on the same area.

Forming streams of solution of high molecular organic substances and of a precipitant in contact with one another and causing the streams to intermix intimately — BRITISH CELANESE LTD.

- 54445. Manufacture of basic heterocyclic ethers: Reacting a substituted 9(10H)-acridone or 9xanthone or 10-thiaxanthone with a di(lower alkyl)-amino-(lower alkyl)-halide in the presence of an acid acceptor — Hoffmann-La Roche & Co. Aktiengesellschaft
- 54609. Improvements relating to amino-glycosidopurine anils and peptide and dipeptide derivatives thereof: Reacting an aminoglycosidopurin or a peptide or dipeptide thereof with an

- aryl or heterocyclic aldehyde American Cyanamid Co.
- 54976. Manufacture of sulphur containing pyridine compound: Reacting a sulphinic acid of the formula R-SO₂H with vinyl pyridine and converting the resulting sulphone into acid or quaternary salts—HOFFMANN-LA ROCHE & CO. AKTIENGESELISCHAFT
- 52129. Manufacture of mercurated hydroxyl-alkyl biuret derivatives and preparations containing the said derivatives: Allyl biuret compound is reacted with mercury salt in presence of water or alcohol CIBA LTD.
- 52272. Manufacture of sulphuric esters of the leuco derivatives of primary 2-amino-anthraquinones: Reacting a metal salt of the leuco compound or a complex compound comprising the metal salt of the leuco compound with a sulphating agent in the presence of an amide I.C.I. Ltd.
- 52274. Process for producing tri-β-haloaliphatic thionophosphates: An organic hydrocarbon cyclic oxide or sulphide is reacted with a trihalide of trivalent phosphorus and sulphur, or with thiophosphoryl halide ETHYL CORP.
 52286. Production of 4-hydroxy-coumarins: A

52286. Production of 4-hydroxy-coumarins: A malonic acid diaryl ester is reacted with AlCl₃— GEIGY A.-G.

52555. Basically substituted carboxylic acid amides and a process of preparing them: Acylating 1-aminobenzene containing in 2-position a halogen atom and in 6-position an alkyl radical, with aliphatic amino carboxylic acid—FARB-WERKE HOECHST AKTIENGESELLSCHAFT VOR-

53383. Dyestuff compositions: Comprising one phthalocyanine compound selected from cobalt, iron, tin or vanadium phthalocyanines and one or

MALS MEISTER LUCIUS & BRUNING

more tetra-azaporphin compounds — I.C.I. Ltd. 53572. Process for preparing polysulphuric acid esters of chitosan: Chitosan is reacted with an acid, the salt is dissolved in formamide and the solution sulphated with chlorosulphonic acid — Hoffmann-La Roche & Co. Aktiengesells-

53713. Process and apparatus for converting heavy hydrocarbons: Hydrocarbon feed is injected in dense fluidized mass at various levels — Esso RESEARCH & ENGINEERING Co.

53771. Preparation of C-nitrosodiarylamines: From the corresponding N-nitrosodiarylamines with the help of a halohydric acid in which the reaction medium contains at least one alcohol containing more than two carbon atoms—COMPAGNIE FRANCAISE DES MATIERES COLORANTES

53870. Production of quinolinol compounds: By condensing 5-chloro-8-quinolinol with formaldehyde and an amine — PARKE, DAVIS & Co.

53913. Process for preparing lysergic acid amides and intermediate useful in the preparation thereof: By reacting dry lysergic acid with trifluoro-acetic anhydride at a temperature below about 0°C. in a dispersing agent inert to the reactants— ELI LILLY & Co.

53956. Process for preparing an unsaturated C₄₀ diol: Condensing 8-(2', 6', 6'-trimethyl-1'-cyclo-hexen-1'-yl)-2, 6-dimethyl-2, 4, 6-octatrien-1-al with alkali metal acetylide and condensing the condensation product with said octatrien-1-al—HOFFMANN-LA ROCHE & CO. AKTIENGESELLS-CHAFT

54082. Depolymerization of 4-methyl-2: 4-diphenyl-pent-2-ene: By heating 4-methyl-2: 4-diphenyl-pent-2-ene in the presence of a phenol of boiling point above 220°C.—Societe Des Usines Chimiques Rhone-Poulenc

54786 and 54787. Improvements in or relating to decomposition of alkali metal amalgams: Decomposing the amalgams with aqueous or alcoholic decomposing fluids in presence of catalyst.

Amalgam is decomposed with aqueous or alcoholic decomposing fluids in presence of catalyst — Olin Mathieson Chemical Corp.

55446. Process for reforming gasolines or gasoline fractions by means of platinum-containing catalysts: Catalyst, after usual reduction treatment and before hydrocarbon is passed over, is conditioned by treatment with hydrogen containing hydrogen sulphide—N. V. DE BATAAFSCHE PETROLEUM MAATSCHAPPIJ

Chemical processes, engineering and equipment

- 54001. Process and apparatus for performing exothermic reactions under high pressure and at elevated temperature: Reaction gases are passed serially through catalyst layers and heat exchangers, the heat of reaction evaporating the coolant, the coolant is cooled outside the reaction chamber and returned in a closed cycle to the heat exchangers— Montecatini Societa Generale Per L'industria Mineraria E Chimica
- 54051. Chemical lignocellulose pulping process and product: Cooking with dilute aqueous solution of hydrotropic salt McKee Development Corp.
- 54224. Continuous process for the electrolysis of aqueous bromide or iodine solutions, and electrolytic cell therefor: A stream of fresh electrolyte is fed into the electrochemically neutral zone MAKHTSAVEI ISREAL
- 54508. Process and apparatus for the catalytic cracking of hydrocarbon oils: The catalyst issuing from the reactor is passed to a stripper provided in the regenerator, the stripper being near its bottom in direct communication with the regenerator N.V. DE BATAAFSCHE PETROLEUM MAATSCHAPPIJ
- 52204. Improvements in or relating to gas-fractionating systems: Gas fractionating column is cooled at its upper side by means of a gas refrigerator—N. V. PHILIPS' GLOEILAMPENFABRIEGEN
- 53477. Improvements in froth flotation processes:

 Concentrating the minerals by adding a collector
 agent and a frother—NATIONAL CHEMICAL
 PRODUCTS LTD.
- 52352. Separation of saturated and unsaturated keto-steroids: The mixture is reacted with Girard reagent T or P, then treated with a water-soluble aldehyde to liberate saturated ketones, the pH of the aqueous medium is thereafter lowered to liberate the unsaturated ketones—G.N.R.D. PATENT HOLDINGS LTD.
- 53334. Separation of a mixture of substances by distillation and/or absorption: Wherein gases discharged from the resist, or a part thereof, are allowed to expand in a vortex tube and cold thus generated is used to cool a stream flowing in or out of the unit — N. V. DE BATAAFSCHE PETRO-LEUM MAATSCHAPPIJ

- 54047. Process for the catalytic dehydrogenation of hydrocarbons: Mixing preheated hydrocarbon with superheated steam before entry in catalyst chamber—CHEMISCHE WERKE HULS AKTIENGESELLSCHAFT
- 54585. Improvements in epoxidation: Reacting ester of water-insoluble unsaturated aliphatic acid with an aqueous mixture having a pH of at least 0.5 and containing hydrogen peroxide, acetic anhydride and a salt of metals of groups I and II of periodic table—ROHM & HAAS CO.

Physics, general

52145. Improvements in or relating to magnetic recording media: Comprising a thin flexible sheet carrying a layer of metallic iron crystallites of less than 0.1 micron dimensions—The GENERAL ELECTRIC CO. LTD.

52672. Improvements in electromagnetic frequency radar detection systems: Using travelling wave oscillator whose frequency is varied by varying the velocity of the electron stream of the travelling wave tube— Compagnie Generale De Telegraphie Sans Fil

52674. Frequency-modulated signal discriminator: Including a mixer circuit adapted to receive both the frequency-modulated signal and an a.c. voltage, the beats thus provided being utilized for periodically quenching a super-regenerative oscillator and means for detecting the r.m.s. output voltage of the said oscillator — CAMPAGNIE GENERALE DE TELEGRAPHIE SANS FIL

52675. Improvements in ultra-high frequency wave radiating devices: Comprising a series of co-axial portions, each portion being characterized by the fact that at least one geometrical parameter thereof varies progressively from one end of the portion to the other, passing from a minimum to a maximum, then returning to a minimum—COMPAGNIE GENERALE DE TELEGRAPHIE SANS FIL

Drugs and pharmaceuticals

52357. New antibiotic and process for its preparation: Cultivating aerobically a strain of streptomyces 3486 in a nutrient medium—Societe Des Usines Chimiques Rhone-Poulenc

52466. Manufacture of nor-steroids: An acylating agent is caused to act on a 16: 17 α-oxide-20-keto-pregnane compound in the presence of an acid catalyst—CIBA LTD.

52950. Process for the manufacture of steroids:

Treating 13-unsubstituted tertiary-17-α-hydroxyD-homo-12:18 bisnorsteroid with an agent
capable of eliminating water — CIBA LTD.

53030. Fungicidal and insecticidal compounds and compositions formed of complex double salt: Heating complex double salt of resin amine complex and water-insoluble carboxylic acid metal soap—Scientific Oil Compounding Co. Inc.

53316 and 53317. Process for the production of new anaesthetic compounds: Reacting dialkylamine with

$$\begin{array}{c} R_{1} \\ | \\ R\text{-}NH\text{-}CO\text{-}CH = C\text{-}R_{2} \end{array}$$

where R_1 is hydrogen or alkyl group and R_2 is alkyl group.

Reacting piperidine or monoalkylpiperidine with

$$\begin{array}{c} R_{1} \\ \mid \\ R\text{-}NH\text{-}CO\text{-}CH = C\text{-}R_{2} \end{array}$$

where R_1 is hydrogen or alkyl and R_2 is alkyl group — Ed. Geistlich Sohne A.G. Fur Chemische Industrie

- 51632. Pathalocyanine precursors and their conversion: Phalonitrile, Cu or Ni salt, ammonia and a catalyst or a di-imino-isoindoline and a Cu or Ni salt are reacted to yield the compounds E.I. Du Pont De Numours & Co.
- 53562. Preparation of steroid substances: A steroid sapogenin is heated in the presence of one or more carboxylic acids containing acids containing 2-20 carbon atoms — G.N.R.D. PATENT HOLDINGS LTD.
- 52820. Process of increasing the physical stability of aqueous suspensions of penicillin compounds: Aqueous suspensions of penicillin compounds are stored in ampoules having a rubber cover, butyl rubber being employed as rubber material—Novo Terapeutisk Laboratorium A/s

54595. Recovery of the antibiotics tetracycline, chlor- and/or bromotetracycline from aqueous solutions thereof: Adding to aqueous solution containing fermentation mash impurities, a heavy metal chelating agent whose pK for calcium is at least 7 — AMERICAN CYANAMID CO.

54717. Novel penicillin salt and process for preparing the same: Reacting penicillin with 1benzamido-1-phenyl-3-piperidinopropane — ELI LILLY & Co.

52284. Fermentation process for the production of a new anti-viral substance: By fermenting a nutrient medium under submerged aerated conditions with the organism Nocardia formica— POLLARD

52431. Anti-viral substances and process for preparing the same: By contacting the fermentation broth produced by organism Nocardia formica with an adsorbent material, submitting the eluted adsorbed material to chromatographic purification and then collecting fraction having a pH below about 6.0 — Merck & Co. Inc.

Fuels and lubricants

52429. Method of producing metallurgical coke:

Small coal is submitted to dedusting operation
and then carbonized — HOUILLERES DE BASSIN
DE LORRAINE

Metals and metal products

52132. Improvements in or relating to alloys: Comprising major constituents like tungsten and/or molybdenum and a minor constituent consisting of two or more of the metals iron, nickel, cobalt, chromium, the proportion of major constituent being less than 75 per cent and proportion of chromium, if present, being not greater than 15 per cent by weight of the alloy — THE GENERAL ELECTRIC CO. LTD.

54035. Separating and purifying zirconium and hafnium: Placing in contact with each other aqueous and acidic solution of Zr and Hf with acidified or not solvent comprising alkyl phosphate or acetate — COMMISSARIAT A L'ENERGIE ATOMIQUE

- 54703. Treatment of cast iron: Injecting a powderladen gas into molten cast iron; an inoculant is entrained in the gas simultaneously with the nodulizing agent — UNION CARBIDE & CARBON CORP.
- 54705. Mixture for treating cast iron: Injecting a comminuted mixture-laden stream of inert gas into molten cast iron, the mixture comprising a nodulizing agent, an inoculant and a refractory diluent Union Carbide & Carbon Corp.
- 53979. Manufacture of metal oxides and of ferrites: Heating iron powder in a current of steam at a temperature between 400° and 650°C., milling the resultant product in water, calcining the milled product in air at a temperature between 150° and 1,000°C.—STANDARD TELEPHONES & CABLES LTD.
- 54062. Production of titanium or zirconium: Consisting in lining the reaction vessel with titanium or zirconium before passing the reactant vapours of sodium or potassium and titanium or zirconium— The National Smelting Co. Ltd.
- 54846. Low alloy steel for sub-zero temperature application: Containing 0.02-0.15 per cent C, 0.2-1.2 per cent manganese, 0.05-0.6 per cent Si, 1.2 per cent Cu, 0.25-1.5 per cent Cr, 1-5 per cent Ni, 0.03-0.3 per cent Al, 0.01-0.025 per cent nitrogen, and 0.04-0.25 per cent tantalum, the remainder being iron UNION CARBIDE LTD.

55042. Production of pure aluminium: Decomposing an aluminium compound (RR'-CH-CH₂)₂AlX, R and R' being saturated aliphatic radicals and X representing either the group RR'CH-CH₂ or hydrogen atom — ZIEGLER

55385. Recovery of gold and silver from cyanide solutions: Recovering gold and/or silver adsorbed on an anion-exchange substance as the corresponding cyanide comprising eluting the acid and/or silver by means of an organic solvent containing a minor proportion of an inorganic acid, the organic solvent and inorganic acid used are distilled, then precipitated gold or silver is separated — WILLIAM BOBY & CO. LTD.

55463. Desulphurization and desiliconizing of pig iron: Reacting molten pig iron with elements suitable for constituting a desulphurizing slag, except a quantity of silica corresponding to the quantity of silicon which it is proposed to eliminate from pig iron, and with one or more oxidizing agents—Societe D'Electro-Chimie, D'Electro-Metallurgie Et Des Acieries Electriques D'Ugine

Leather and leather products

53651. Synthetic tanning materials: Sulphonating salicylic acid with sulphonic acid and condensing the product with formaldehyde — COUNCIL OF SCIENTIFIC & INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH

53574. Improving the water-repellency of leather: Treating leather with a complex chromium compound — I.C.I. Ltd.

Building materials and methods

54371. Building structures: Connecting beams at varying angles of inclination of their horizontal

axis with connector therealong, that perpendiculars therefrom intersect both on horizontal and inclined beams — Dex (Prefabrications) Ltd.

- 54629. Improvements in or relating to tile suspended wall construction: Comprising a support, a hanger tile, means for suspending the hanger tile from the support in forwardly extending relation, and a plurality of wall tiles individually suspended from hanger tile LACLEDE-CHRISTY Co.
- 55015. A process for the manufacture of white cement and a rotary kiln for use in said process:

 The hot cement clinker is cooled by a cooling agent and the agent is subjected to suction independent of the draught through the kiln F. L. SMIDTH & Co. A/S

Miscellaneous

- 53039. Anti-foam process in paper making: By mixing an anti-foaming agent with water and spraying it upon the stock while on the wire of the paper machine to eliminate air bells—BOWATERS DEVELOPMENT & RESEARCH LTD.
- 54446. Manufacture of pressure-sensitive adhesive tape: Applying to a pliable base having parallel strands of cotton bonded together in side by side relation, a coating of adhesive solution P. P. PAYNE & SONS LTD.
- 51476 and 55219. Improvements in the extraction of coal from the earth: Comprises the step of transmitting a blasting effect through a column of water under hydrostatic pressure free from air in a sealed borehole—I.C.I. LTD.
- 52125. Improvements in mixing and agitating machines: Wherein the drive imparts to the stirrer a combined bodily sweeping movement and axial rotational movement which will differentially vary automatically according to the loads encountered in making said movements— Torrance & Sons Ltd.
- 52758. Curing of the massecuites in the manufacture of white sugar or refined sugar: The process comprises subjecting massecuites to electric current, whereby the electrical resistance of massecuites is utilized for heating the same — Doss & VISHNII
- 54125. Improvements in evaporators: Wherein each heating element includes at least two deeply convoluted walls each representing a plurality of parallely disposed troughs—G. & J. Weir Ltd.
- 54147. Production of solid or semi-solid compositions and detergent compositions so made: Forming a mixture of calcium lactate in water and incorporating a dispersible liquid or solid— Kraus & Kraus
- 54268. Thermal insulation for electronic vacuum tubes: Mount comprising a cathode sleeve rectangular in cross-section and coated with emissive material, a pair of loop supports affixed to the sleeve SYLVANIA ELECTRIC PRODUCTS INC.
- 54859. Ball or like grinding mills: Classifying lining is provided only over a part of the grinding chamber F. L. SMIDTH & Co. A/s

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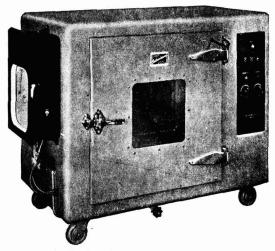
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