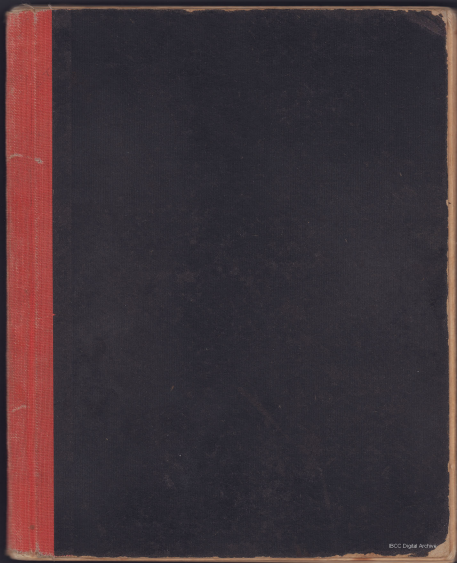




1623493

BIRD T.H.

1 FLIGHT 10 COURSE.

I.T.W.

HILLSIDE CAMP

BULAWAYO.

PRIMARY 1st Jan. 1943 - 12th Feb. 1943.

SECONDARY 15th Feb. 1943 - 19th. Mar. 1943.

29 E.F.T.S.

INDUNA.

STARTED COURSE 29th. Mar. 1943.

FINISHED COURSE 28th. June 1943

21 S.F.T.S.

KUMALO

13/24th. July 1943 - 10th. SEPT 1943.

27.8. 20th. Sept 1943-

NAVIGATION.

GEN. EXPLANATION

Chap. 1. Scope of Navigation.

Par. 1-4.

- 3-4

Chap 1 Necessity of navigation. How to become a

Par 3-10 good navigator

Form of the Earth.

Chap I Earth is an oblate spheroid but for practical

Pur. II. now, the earth is considered as a sphere.

Polar diameter 7,926 miles (40).

Equatorial diameter 7,927 " "

Lines on the Earth

Chap I For the purpose of fixing position imaginary

Par. 12 lines have been established on the earth.

DEFS. Great Circle

is a circle on the surface of a sphere the plane of which passes thro' the centre of the sphere and divides it into two equal parts. The shortest dist. between any two points on the surface of a sphere is the smaller arc of a great circle joining them.

Small Circle

is a circle on the surface of a sphere the plane of which does

not pass thro' the centre of the sphere.

Equator

The great circle whose plane is at right angles to the axis of rotation

Meridian

A semi-great circle terminating at the poles of the earth. The anti meridian is the other half of the great circle.

Prime meridian

The meridian passing thro' the telescope at Greenwich Observatory and is the 0° line of longitude.

Parallels of Latitude Small circles on the earth whose planes are parallel to that of the equator.

Rhumb line

A regular curved line on the surface of the earth cutting all meridians at crosses at the same angle.

Direction on the earth

Chap. 1 The cardinal points are N, S, E, and W.
Par. 13-16. The quadrantal points are NE, SE, SW, NW.

True convention in air navigation directions are measured to the nearest degree clockwise from north, which is 000° through 360° . All directions are given as three figure groups. There are three norths ① True or True N. relative to north geographical pole and measured from the true meridian. All chart work is based on true north. ② Magnetic north relative to the north magnetic pole which is variable and not coincident with the true pole. ③ Compass north relative to the direction of a particular compass needle.

Theory of magnetism

Chap. 2. Molecular theory atoms in a magnetic substance have planetary electrons which create lines of force extending outside the atom itself.

According to the nature of the substance an atom or combination of atoms is said to form a molecule which is the smallest tangible particle which can exist in a free state.

Each molecule has a magnetic field formed by the combination of the lines of force of its constituent atoms. 

The lines of force strain for red to blue (Polarity).

Pieces of magnetic material, such as steel, contain an infinite number of molecules, normally arranged in a haphazard manner - magnetically neutral. 

If a force is applied which aligns the molecules in one direction the magnetic fields combine and the bar becomes a magnet.

by Magnetic Saturation

Par. 8. Poles of a magnet

- Law of attraction and repulsion Unlike poles

attract. Like poles repel.

P. 9. Magnetisation ① hard iron ② soft iron

P. 10. Methods of magnetisation ① Induction ② by stroking ③ Solenoid.

P. 12. Magnetic moment ① dyne is the force required to produce an acceleration of 1 cm. per second in a mass of 1 gm.

Unit pole. When two exactly similar poles placed 1 cm. apart exert on each other a force equal to 1 dyne, each is said to be a unit pole. Unit field. When a unit pole, placed in a magnetic field, is acted on by a force equal to 1 dyne, unit field is said to exist at that point.

Couple. When two equal and opposite forces act on a body parallel to each other, the turning effect is said to be a couple.

P. 13. Moment of a magnet is equal to the moment of the couple necessary to maintain it at right angles to a magnetic field of unit intensity.

P. 13-14. Read only

P. 15. Demagnetisation

P. 16. Read only

P. 17-18. Horizontal magnetism

P. 21. Magnetic Dip is the angle of depression below the horizontal at an observer of the earth's total magnetic force.

Magnetic Equator is a line joining all places where the direction of the earth's total magnetic force is horizontal, i.e. where dip is zero.

Isoclinal is a line drawn on the map joining all places having equal dip.

P. 22. Magnetic Compass

Variation and Deviation

P. 23. Variation

23-4. Magnetic meridian is the direction of the axis of a freely suspended magnetic needle influenced only by the earth's magnetic field.

Variation is the horizontal angle between the direction of true north and magnetic north at a place. It is named E(+) or W(-) according to whether the direction of M. north is to the E. or W. of T. north. Its sign indicates how it is applied as a correction to magnetic directions to obtain true direction.

Methods of indicating Variation of R.A.F. maps

① Isogonals. A line drawn on a map or chart between all places having equal magnetic variation.

Agonic line is the isogonals indicating zero variation.

② Compass rose

③ Marginal diagram

④ Statement in words

Deviation

True	Var	Mag	Dir	Comp
200°	10°W	210°	3°E	208°
034°	0°E	034°	2°W	044°

The angle measured in the horizontal plane between the magnetic meridian and the direction of a particular compass needle influenced by magnetic fields in addition to that of the earth. It is named E(+) or W(-) according to whether the M. needle end lies to E. or W. of the magnetic meridian. Its sign indicates how it is applied as a correction to compass readings to obtain magnetic.

Compass Error is the angle between a particular compass needle and the true meridian passing thro' its pivot, and is the algebraic sum of variation and deviation.

Navigational Terms

C.I.F. or Course is the direction in which an aircraft is heading. T.M. or C.

Track is the direction of the path of an aircraft over the earth.

Drift is the angular difference between

the h_o of an aircraft and its track, measured to port or starboard from the h_o.

Bearing is the direction of one place from another and can be measured T.M. or C.

Back bearing is the direction observed from an aircraft of a place over which it has previously passed without an intervening alteration of h_o.

Wind direction is always the direction from which the wind is blowing and is always given T.

Position on the earth may be expressed in 4 ways @ Lat. and long. @ Spherical coordinates @ Military grid system @ Place names (bearing and distance from fixed objects).

Synoptic is the network of lines formed on a map or globe by the meridians (of long) and parallels of latitude.

Latitude of a place is the arc of the

meridian intercepted between the equator and the place and is named N. or S. according to whether the place is N. or S. of the equator.

Change of latitude. The arc of a meridian between the parallels of latitude passing thro' the place and is named N. or S. according to the direction of change.

Longitude of a place is the shortest arc of the equator intercepted between the prime meridian and the meridian of the place, named E. or W. according to whether the place is E. or W. of the prime meridian.

Change of longitude from one place to another is the smallest arc of the equator intercepted between the meridians of the places. It is named E. or W. according to the direction of the change.

Measurement of distance

c.1. Speed is the rate of change of position

2568 knot is the speed of 1 nautical mile per hour.

Statute miles (s.m.) = 5,280 feet by statute (s.t.)

Nautical miles (n.m.) = 6,080 ft. = average length of one minute of lat.

Kilometers (km) = 3,280 ft. = 1/10,000 part of average distance between the equator and either pole.

Conversion ratio 1 s.m. = 1.6 km 1 km = .6 km
1 stat m. = .6 km 1 m = .3 ft.

Recording position Position on the earth may be recorded in 4 different ways at the discretion of the captain of the aircraft.

① Latitude and Longitude. By convention lat. always

c.1. given first and figures below 10° are preceded by 038, a 0.

② Lettered coordinate system. For the purpose of secrecy when reporting position by radio in wartime reference is never made to the lat. and long. of the position.

The meridians and parallels (any whole) are each given two code letters, which may be changed at intervals. The intersection of any parallel and meridian may be expressed by a group of 4 letters. The letters for parallel always given first. R.A.F. method. Using the intersection to the S.W. of the position as an origin, and minutes of lat. and long. as coordinates. minutes of lat. given first. R.N. method. Using the same letter opposite the navy report position as a bearing $\pm$ distance from the nearest intersection of lettered co-ordinates.

③ Bearing and distance. Some known object in the vicinity of the position is chosen and the position reported as follows:- ① True bearing from fixed object to position. ② Name of fixed object ③ Distance in n.m. from fixed object to position.

PLACE	R.A.F.	R.N.
BRECKEN	ABOP 43 15 ✓	150 CBOP 19 ✓
DOVER	CBRS 08 19 ✓	086 CBRS 14 ✓
EXETER	ABOV 45 28 ✓	271 CDEF 26 ✓
NEEDLES	ABQH 40 25 ✓	121 CBQH 25 ✓

British modified grid system. In this system the c.i. map is divided into squares of 500 k.m. sides 124-01 each of which is given a letter. Each of these squares is subdivided into 25 squares of 100 k.m. sides which are also lettered from A to Z, omitting the letter I. These squares are again subdivided each into 100 squares of 10 k.m. sides (see diagram 23 A.C. 1254).

On the 1" to 1 mile map the lines of the 100 km squares are thickened and the appropriate letter printed in the square with the reference letter to the 500 k.m. square shown in smaller type in brackets. The 10 k.m. squares are numbered. Report position as follows:-

- ① S.W. corner of square is reference point
- ② Bearing first, nothing second
- ③ The reference must always be an even number of figures
- ④ The reference may or may not begin with a letter.

Example Report position of Anchor at 000000
① 500 km. sq. ② 100 km. sq. (W) ③ Bearing of 10 km

sq. (T). ④ Bearing of 10 km sq (T) Nothing of 10 km sq (W) ⑤ Nothing of 10 km sq (W). =

(V) 47766

Maps and Charts.

c.s. 63 Projections A projection is an ordering system of representing the surface of the earth on a plane surface.

Representing the earth on paper. An exact reproduction of the earth's surface on paper is impossible. Certain properties may be preserved however depending upon the purpose for which the map is required, and a general compromise is possible if only a small part of the earth's surface is taken at one time.

In air navigation projections are divided into two groups ① Topographical projections (for map reading) ② Navigational (for plotting).

Topographical Projections. Designed to show features of the earth with minimum distortion—modified polyconic—mostly orthomorphic (shape

(preserved), differing only in minor details which do not concern the navigator.

c.3 Properties ① Scale taken as constant over each P.T. separate sheet. ② Straight lines may be regarded as great circles. ③ Bearing and distance may be taken as great circle bearing and a.c. distance. ④ A rhumb line appears as a curve convex to the Equator.

c.3 Scale, Conventional signs

c.3.1 Land aerodromes

① Land aerodrome	② Aerodrome
③ Landing ground	④ Water aerodrome
⑤ Seaplane anchorage	⑥ Aerodrome hangar
⑦ Aerodrome moving mat	⑧ Air navigation light
⑨ Track indicating light	⑩ Marine light, lighthouse or buoy
⑪ Light vessel	⑪.1 Obsolete points, lights, buoys
⑫ Aerial corridor	⑫.1 Prohibited area

⑬ (200) Unlighted

⑭ (200) " " " "

⑮ " Lighted

⑯ " " " "

⑰ " " " "

⑱ " " " "

⑲ " " " "

⑳ " " " "

㉑ " " " "

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Obstruction to air navigation of a height above 100 metres = 200 ft.

⑳ Dangerous area

① Aerodrome with customs facilities

② Aerodrome with customs facilities

③ Aerodrome with customs facilities

④ Aerodrome with customs facilities

⑤ Aerodrome with customs facilities

⑥ Aerodrome with customs facilities

⑦ Aerodrome with customs facilities

⑧ Aerodrome with customs facilities

⑨ Aerodrome with customs facilities

⑩ Aerodrome with customs facilities

⑪ Aerodrome with customs facilities

⑫ Aerodrome with customs facilities

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㊽ Aerodrome with customs facilities

㊾ Aerodrome with customs facilities

㊿ Aerodrome with customs facilities

Customs land aerodromes with controlled zone

Aerodrome with customs facilities

Landing approach radio-beacon and aerial light

Recommended Air Route

Obligatory Air Route

Scale is the ratio between a given length c.3.1.8. on the map and the actual distance it represents on the ground. It may be shown in three ways ① Representative fraction N.P. (natural scale) which expresses the ratio between a length on the map

and the distance it represents on the earth expressed in the same units. ② Statement in words, giving corresponding values different units of maps e.g. 1 inch to 10 miles. ③ Graduated scale lines showing actual lengths on the map corresponding to distances on the ground. Usually three. 2 m, 10 m, and 4 m.

Relief is indicated on maps and charts in one of the following ways:- ① Spot ht. is a record on a map of the exact height of a place above M.S.L. ② Contours and form lines. a contour is a line drawn on a map joining all places of equal ht. above M.S.L. Form lines are approximate contours drawn in by interpolation. Vertical interval (V.I.) is the diff. in level between two successive contours. ③ Horizontal equivalent (H.E.) is the distance in plan between two successive contours. ④ Shading (H.E.) ⑤ Layer tinting is the method of showing relief on maps by colouring in different

shades those parts which lie between different levels. F.A.S. used purple as basic colour to assist reading by artificial light. ⑥ Hachures. short tapering lines drawn in the direction of the steepest slopes. ⑦ Hill shading.

Map reading

c. 2 For good visibility. Good map reading is a valuable asset since the ground, is never totally obscure.

The first essential is a knowledge of the types and properties of the maps and charts used and also the conventional signs.

To facilitate map reading the reference map should always be oriented.

The ground should be viewed as a collection of objects relative to each other and not as a collection of individual objects.

Since, at times, objects are only visible

for a fleeting instance, there is a danger of jumping to conclusions which might be completely erroneous. Pinpointing should therefore be definite and accurate.

To facilitate pinpointing an idea of the approximate position of the aircraft is very helpful.

Intelligent anticipation is also very necessary.

When approximate position of aircraft is known, is dependant on the presence of prominent land and sea marks (usually to be found all over Europe). Time and speed scale may be used.

When position of aircraft is not known - calculation of position is necessary and then mapread from ground to map not vice versa.

In poor visibility

Look for pinpoints before E.T.A.

At night visibility is dependent on the moon, stars, season of the year and light on the ground. Visibility distance is greater at night and navigator must take this into account. Water shows up grey against black and is the most easily recognisable of all ground features. Smaller details cannot be picked up without a full moon. Low flying is helpful but dangerous, objects up-moon are easiest to see, cloud shadows are descriptive. Map reading should be practised at every opportunity.

Landmarks

Railways: Good in U.K., not in Europe.

Water: Shape important, floods and drought misleading. Maintaining boundaries noticeable, can be visible above fog. Coast can be covered by cloud. Towns and villages ^{houses} ~~villages~~ large shops, position and colour helpful; railways, roads and natural features should be used.

Towns can usually be indistinctly seen even in blackout. Roads difficult to identify because of number, secondary not prominent than main roads, concrete best also shows up at night. Woods size and shape important, clearings also helpful if wholly or partly cut down may be confusing. Golf-courses good landmarks. Sea marks coastlines valuable by day and night. Large lamps and lighthouses can be easily picked out. Marine lights intended for nautical use but can be used from the air. Sea traffic useful when out of sight of land in operations.

Maps general Mercators

c. 2. The most important designed for navigational purposes.

Rhumb lines are straight lines which is a great advantage.

P. 254. Read only.

Essential Requirements

① Meridians must be parallel straight lines so that a line cutting them at the same angle is a straight line i.e. rhumb line. Spaced equidistant from their original spacing at the equator.

21. ② Parallels cut meridians at right angles to preserve true direction and are parallel.

23 Scale Longitude scale is constant but does not represent earth distances correctly except at the equator.

Latitude scale varies in the same ratio as the map distance to earth's distance (by construction) and is used for measuring physical

distances.

7. Read.

8. N.B. Longitude scale is used for vectors.

9. Properties of Mercator (1) Scale varies with

lat. (2) Straight lines are rhumb lines. (3)

Bearings and distances are rhumb line bearing

and distances (4) Great circle appears as a curve concave to the nearer pole.

Triangle of velocities

10. Read.

11. Definition of velocity. Velocity is a rate of change of position in a given direction comprising both speed and direction.

+ Vector is a graphical representation of a velocity.

12. Acceleration is the rate of change of velocity.

13. Arrow convention (a) Vectors of all component velocities course and wind are marked with

(1) a single arrow (2) Resultant velocities (3) and

(4) are marked with a double arrow (5) Relative

(6) velocities are marked with a cross together

(7) with an arrow.

14. Evolution of triangles

15. 16.

17. Think on plotting N.B.

18. Ground position (G.P.) At any time the position on the earth directly beneath an aircraft is known as its G.P. or true point or fix.

19. Air position At any time the position of an aircraft whose progress is imagined to have been unaffected by the wind is called its air position.

20. Dead reckoning posn. At any time the G.P. of an aircraft deduced from a known air posn. and the estimated wind effect is called the D.R. posn.

21. Ground speed (G.S.) is the speed at which an aircraft travels over the ground.

22. Wind speed

Airspeed Indicator

13th Feb. 1943

Purpose to measure speed of the aircraft through the air.

Principle. If a tube closed at one end has the other end open and pointing directly into a current of air, the pressure inside the tube will be greater than the pressure outside. This excess pressure will depend on two factors @ the velocity of the air current @ the density of the air.¹⁰

Thus if a pressure gauge is attached to the closed end of the tube the pressure inside the tube can be measured and can be indicated in terms of speed per hour by means of an indicator needle registering against a suitably calibrated dial.

N.B. The relation between the speed of the airflow and the pressure inside the tube only holds good if the inclination of

the tube to the airflow is zero.

The angle of inclination of the tube should never exceed 10° up to which the error will be very small.



A. S. I. Error

@ Instrument error due to slight friction of parts and wear and tear. Corrected by checking instrument against another of known accuracy or using a mercury and ^{water} ~~mercury~~ manometer. Correction when applied

is known as Instrument Error Correction (I.E.C)
Position Error due to position of pressure
 head not being entirely free from air flow
 disturbances although the best possible
 position has been selected. Position error is
 the same for all one type of aircraft and
 is corrected by reference to the correction
 card given in the air publication of that
 particular aircraft and is known as Position
 Error Correction (P.E.C).

Total Instrument Error This is the combination
 of I.E.C. and P.E.C. which makes Total Error
 Correction (T.E.C) which is placed in a
 correction card at the side of the A.S.I.
 concerned. Thus $I.A.S + T.E.C = \text{Rectified Air
 Speed (R.A.S)}$.

Height error

Due to decrease in density of the air with
 rise in height. This error is corrected above
 by formula to find the T.A.S e.g. T.A.S. =

$$I.A.S + \left(I.A.S \times \frac{175}{100} \times \frac{\text{ft in ft}}{1000} \right)$$

$$\text{e.g. } T.A.S = 150 + \left(\frac{150 \times 1}{2400} \times \frac{1}{1000} \right)$$

$$= 151.5 \text{ kts}$$

Density error due to temperature and pressure
 changes in height not coinciding with those
 allowed for in the formula and is corrected
 for together with height error by using
 the airspeed computer attached to the
 navigational computer and a more accurate
 T.A.S is thus found.

Information required for finding T.A.S using the

- ① Alt above M.S.L.
- ② Temp. surrounding the aircraft
- ③ R.A.S.

Position Lines

Relative Bearing



A position line is a line obtained from observation of a terrestrial or celestial origin. The observer is known to be somewhere upon the line at the time of observation.

Relative bearing is a direction measured clockwise from the heading of the aircraft from 0° to 360° . Added to the $\text{ho}(T)$ it becomes a true bearing.

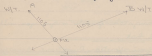
Two plane ranges



Plan and Range or Bearing and Distance



Simultaneous bearings of two origins



Transformed position lines



Worked Example

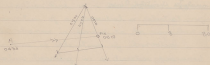
By taking three successive position lines and transforming first two.

Running Fix of two or more sightings



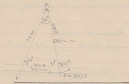
If another bearing is taken from the origin you will have a cocked hat.

Fixing back from position lines



Ground speed can also be found by measuring distance from A to fix which has been run in 40 mins

Plotting the angle on the line.



Ground position is the position of an aircraft obtained by the visual observation of an object immediately below the aircraft that can be pinpointed on a map or chart

Fix is the position of an aircraft normally obtained by an intersection of two or more position lines. N.B. a range and bearing would be marked as R12, as it is the intersection of a position line and a plan range. Only fixes obtained by first class bearings and plotted accurately can normally be considered accurate

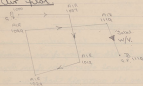
enough for commencing an air plot for finding wind speed & direction and setting course from.

Binding W/V

① Track and Ground speed

② Single leg air plot

③ Air plot



An air plot can be started from a A.P. but never a D.P. from.

④ Multiple drift method



See Chap. XII

Rev. 39

⑤

Drift and wind line



See Page 100.

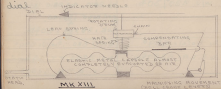
312 navigational computer

1. Drift and variation scale
2. Submer line
3. Bearing ring
4. Rotating dial
5. Datum point
6. Datum line (connects Submer line to datum point).
7. Speed arcs
8. Drift lines
9. Endless band
10. Squared section.

The altimeter

Purpose: To indicate the height of an aircraft above M.S.L. or ground level.

Principle: An elastic metal capsule almost completely evacuated of air will expand with the decrease of density of air surrounding it and conversely will contract with the increase of the density of air surrounding it. The expansion or contraction of the elastic metal capsule due to the change of pressure surrounding it is magnified by a suitable system of levers and measured in terms of height by means of an indicator needle registering against a suitably calibrated dial.



Two calibration laws

① Barothermal law states that M.S.L. pressure is 1013.2 millibars.

② Temperature is constant from M.S.L. for all heights at 10°C .

③ I.C.A.N. law which states ① that M.S.L. pressure is 1013.2 millibars ② M.S.L. temperature of 15°C .

③ Temperature decreases from M.S.L. at a rate of 1.98°C for each thousand feet rise in height up to 36,000 feet whereafter it remains constant at -56.5°C .

For calibration purposes only it can be considered that 1 millibar change in pressure equals 30 ft in height.

Altimeter errors

1. Installation error due to wear and tear and slight friction of parts. Corrected by checking instrument concerned with one of known accuracy or using a mercury barometer. Correction card is placed at the side of

the instrument

Density error due to the decrease in density of the air with rise in height not coinciding with that allowed for in the calibration law. Corrected by using height computer based on the same calibration law as the altimeter concerned.

Lag. This is a temporary error and due to rapid change of height. Corrected by flying straight and level for a short period of time.

Drift error If the aircraft is drifting to the starboard in the N. Hemisphere or to the port in the S. Hemisphere precaution should be taken as the aircraft is flying into an area of low pressure thus the altimeter is reading higher than the aircraft actually is.

Mercator's Projection

It is the only projection commonly available for plotting for the following reasons:-

1. A straight line on Mercator's is a rhumb line — as all meridians are parallel straight lines and equidistant apart.

It is normally far more convenient in most circumstances to follow a rhumb line track over the earth by steering a constant course by T. north, than saving a few miles distance by following a great circle track that requires frequent alteration of course in relation to true north.

2. Angles everywhere on the earth's surface are correctly represented on the chart as the equator and parallels of latitude cut all meridians on the projection at right angles as they do on the earth.

Construction of Mercator's projection

1. On the earth the meridians gradually

converge until they all finally meet at the poles. The parallels of latitude on the earth cut all the meridians at right angles and to all intents and purposes are evenly spaced. The graticule thus formed is represented on mercator's projection in the following way:

1. The meridians are drawn as a series of parallel straight lines longitudinally on the chart as agreed by practice.
2. Where the distance is expanded between any two meridians on either side of the equator, the distance between successive parallels of latitude must be increased in the same ratio on the projection.
3. Parallels of latitude are represented as a series of parallel straight lines cutting the meridians at right angles and spaced by calculation at ever increasing distances away from the equator going north and south.

4. The spacing of parallels of latitude is calculated by using the tables of meridional parts given in Norrie's air tables or Inman's air tables.

A meridional part is the number of times the length of one minute of longitude which is constant on the projection, is contained in the projected distance between the equator and any particular parallel of latitude on the chart. e.g. 1 min. of long. on a mercator's projection will equal 0.02 inches. Therefore the distance between the equator and the parallel 30° would be $0.02 \times \text{m. p. for } 30^{\circ} = 0.02 \times 1846.64 = 36.9334 \text{ inches.}$

Properties of mercator's projection

1. All rhumb lines are represented as straight lines.
2. Great circles are represented on the chart as curves of varying radii converging to the

nearest pole.

3. Angles on the earth's surface are correctly represented on the chart.

4. All bearings are rhumb line bearings

5. Meridians are equidistant apart and parallel.

6. The chart length of 1 min. of long. is constant

4. The equator and parallels of latitude are straight lines and right angles to the meridians and parallel at ever-increasing intervals going north or south from the equator

2. The chart length of 1 minute of latitude is not constant but increases as the lat. increases.

N.B. As the scale varies as the latitude the navigator must always use the lat. sub-divisions for measuring distances that are immediately opposite the distance to be measured.

The navigator should only use the long.

sub-division which are constant when constructing vector triangles.

9. The projection is true to shape over small areas but at high latitudes shapes are distorted and areas exaggerated.

10. The poles can never be represented.

11. The projection is not usually made upon 40° N. or S.

12. Conversion angles must be applied to great circle bearings and tracks when there is a change of longitude in order to convert them into rhumb lines.

Conversion Angles

Loof bearing	: 282°	C. A. 098°
G. E. C.	: -8°	C. A. $+3^\circ$
Relative bearing	: 280°	T. L. B. 101°
True course	: 148°	plus 180°
	458°	<u>Recd. 281°</u>
Less 360°	<u>360°</u>	
G. C. B.	098°	

Gnomonic projection

- Properties
1. The point of tangency appears as a straight line.
 2. The meridians are straight lines at ever-increasing intervals and at right angles to the point of tangency.
 3. Parallels of latitude are represented by arcs concave to the nearest pole. The concavity increases as the latitude increases.
 4. A straight line on the projection represents a great circle on the earth's surface exactly.
 5. Shapes are distorted.
 6. Bearings are incorrectly represented except those drawn from the point origin of the projection.
 7. The projection has no proper scale. ∴ distances cannot be easily measured.

Mead's diagram

This is an equatorial gnomonic projection as its point of tangency is the equator. It is used as a means for plotting an

accurate great circle which would appear as a straight line between any two places on the earth's surface on a chart drawn to Mercator's projection or any other navigational projection.

Conversion angle is the angle between a great circle bearing and a true bearing. Its value can be calculated by formula
$$\delta \text{ change long} \times \sin \text{mean lat.}$$
or by using above scale given at the side of Mercator's projection.

Convergence

Convergence angle = $\delta \text{ h. long.} \times \sin \text{mean lat.}$
= $\delta \text{ conversion angle.}$

It is the inclination between true meridians on the earth's surface. There is no convergence between the meridians at the equator, and at the poles the meridians converge at the angles equal

to the ch. long. between them. θ
 θ convergence angle is normally only applied
 to D. F. W/T look bearings obtained by
 an aircraft that are to be plotted on
 a projection where the meridians converge.



$\theta = \text{Convergence}$ never to W/T bearings

$\theta = \beta$ (alternate angles)

$$\hat{A} = \alpha - \beta \quad \therefore \quad \theta = (\alpha - \beta)$$

Convergence = the angular diff. between the C.C.
 bearing measured at each meridian

The compass

29th Mar. 1943

Differences between P and O type compasses

P type	O type
Graduated grid ring	Compass card with marked figures. Azimuth circle
Magnetic needle	
Two magnets (P & N)	Four magnets (near N & S)
P has four magnets	direction force as it is moved around and also due to its compass card). Movable.
Used for steering and reading courses	
P and O compasses fitted with sighting tubes.	Sight - take bearings
Fixed in aircraft	Prism as magnifying glass
	Sighting line

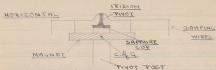
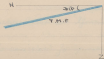
Function

has four functions

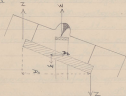
1. Indicate direction of magnetic meridian
2. Indicate direction in which aircraft is travelling
3. Enable the aircraft to be headed in a given direction
4. To take bearings of various objects

Requirements of an ideal compass

- ① Quick off the mark $\therefore$ sensitive system
 $\therefore$ large magnetic moment $\therefore$ long powerful magnet.
- ② Stop quickly $\therefore$ a periodic i.e. small moment of inertia $\therefore$ several short magnets instead of one long one. Also damping was increased in liquid.
- ③ No friction. Because of iridium pivot in sapphire cup and balanced by buoyancy of alcohol.
- ④ Should remain horizontal $\therefore$ pendulosity, i.e. control of gravity is below the pivot and $\therefore$ system tends to swing back to horizontal, counteracts effect of Z .



When system is tilted a correcting couple is formed which brings it back to the horizontal
 e.g. to consider Z effect upsetting the system from the horizontal



Upsetting couple $\propto$ as $Z \sin \theta$

Correcting couple $\propto$ as $W \cos \theta$

In construction it is determined that $W \cos \theta$
 $> Z \sin \theta$ until about 3° from the horizontal

when $W.D. = Z.D.$, i.e. system is in equilibrium

Eight main component parts

1. Rotatable ~~along~~^{and} ring fitted above compass bowl, graduated in degrees and can be locked in any position
2. Rubber line - a small projection in bowl - fixed indicating mark lined up with fore and aft axis of aircraft
3. Magnet system. Two or four powerful bar magnets with eight radial damping wires
4. Damping liquid. Pure alcohol is used.
Ideal qualities of liquid:-
 - a. Must be non-corrosive
 - b. Have large temperature range from -50°C to $+50^{\circ}\text{C}$.
 - c. Have a low freezing point and a low viscosity and a low specific gravity
 - d. Small coefficient of expansion
 - e. Be transparent

It must be cheap and easily obtained
e.g. Alcohol has all these properties exactly

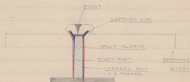
5. Compass bowl Made of brass coated inside with a special enamel so alcohol attacks most paints (if liquid becomes discoloured the compass must be watched for pivot friction which renders it U.S.)
6. Expansion chamber - siphon tube fitted to base of compass bowl, expands readily over alcohol's temperature range.



SYPHON TUBE

7. Outer container. Provides a means of mounting compass rigidly in aircraft
8. Antivibration suspension system. Compass bowl rests in outer container on four equally spaced springs. The springs isolate the bowl from vibration. The floating ring stops the compass bowl

from turning but the slots allow it a little up and down movement.

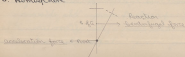


Acceleration errors.

N. Hemisphere



S. Hemisphere



Northern Hemisphere heading west, accelerating. As aircraft accelerates C. of G. lags behind, thus causing the system to tilt. Z having a component in the plane of rotation rotates the system in the direction of acceleration thus showing an apparent turn towards north ^{acceleration} ~~centrifugal~~ force which always acts in the same direction as Z, also show an apparent turn towards north.

Deceleration heading west in N. Hemisphere is the opposite of the above and shows an apparent turn away from north.

S. Hemisphere, heading west, accelerating. Aircraft accelerates and C. of G. lags behind tilting system to west. Z acting on the blue poles rotates system away from direction of acceleration as does also centrifugal force giving an apparent turn away from north. Deceleration is

opposite of above

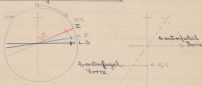
N.B. Acceleration errors occur only on easterly or westerly courses

S. HEMISPHERE			N. HEMISPHERE		
Acc. W.	AWAY FROM N.		Acc. W.	TOWARDS N.	
E	"	N.	E	"	N.
Dec. W.	TOWARDS N.		Dec. W.	FROM N.	
E	"	N.	E	"	N.

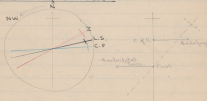
Turning errors



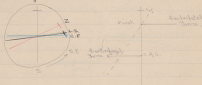
N. Hemisphere turning towards N.E. corrected by undershoot



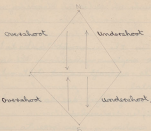
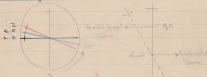
S. Hemisphere turning towards N.W. corrected by overshoot



A. Hemisphere turning S. towards S.E.
Corrected by overshoot



B. Hemisphere turning S. towards S.E.
Corrected by undershoot



Aircraft compass errors

A. Turning errors

When an aircraft turns other forces besides H affect the compass needle, causing it to move away from the meridian, thus giving turning errors. There are three different forces:-

1. Dip or Z effect
2. Centrifugal force
3. Liquid swirl

All maximum on N. or S. heading, yes
on E. or W.

① Dip

a. Cause ③ As the aircraft banks to turn the magnet system remains in the same plane as the aircraft i.e. it tilts out of the horizontal

④ The balancing effect, due to the position of the C. of G., is diminished

⑤ Magnetic system is now free to move in the vertical plane.

⑥ Vertical magnetic component Z causes rotation in a vertical plane.

b. Direction of error

① In N. Hemisphere - red pole is pulled down in direction of bank

On to northerly course - needle moves in direction of turn - undershoot when turning

On to southerly course - needle moves

in opposite direction to turn, therefore overshoot when turning.

② In S. Hemisphere - blue end of needle is pulled down.

On to northerly course - needle moves in opposite direction to turn, therefore overshoot when turning.

On to southerly course - needle moves in same direction as turn, therefore undershoot when turning.

c. Magnitude of error

Increases with ① Amount of bank. ② magnetic Latitude.

② Liquid swirl

a. Cause

Inertia of liquid keeps it moving and carries compass system with it.

b. Effect

① Deviation in direction of turn

② Mechanic cause $\therefore$ the same in both

Reminiscences

③ Total magnitude very small compared with dip effect.

③ Centrifugal force

cause of error

1. As aircraft turns centrifugal force acts on the pivot of the compass
2. This forms a couple with centrifugal force acting on C. of G. of system.
3. This couple rotates magnet system.

③ Direction of error

In all cases the same as Z effect

③ Magnitude of error

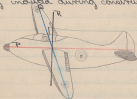
- ① Decreases with amount of bank.
- ② Very small.

Analysis of aircraft magnetism

Aircraft magnetism can be classified under two headings ① Hard iron - permanent magnetism ② soft iron - temporary magnetism i.e. liable to magnetisation by the earth's field dependant upon a direction of heading & magnetic latitude

Hard iron magnetism

mainly induced during construction of A/c.



It can be resolved into three parameters P (fore and aft), Q (lateral), and R (normal). These three parameters will have a constant effect as they are all permanent.

Soft iron magnetism

Induction will cause different effects on every heading.

Coefficients

Parameter P An aircraft flying N. or S. needle will lie in same direction as parameter P. Therefore no turning force. Also there is gain or loss of directive force, thus maximum deviation on east and west headings.

Coefficient B is deviation due to a, parameter P & soft iron effects. Deviation is zero on N and S and maximum on E and W but of opposite signs. Varies as sine of magnetic heading.

Calculation B : $E - W$.

B

Deviation due to P can be corrected. Any residual deviation is due to soft iron effect. Corrections are made on E. or W.

Headings

Parameter Q

Coefficient C Deviation due to parameter Q and soft iron. It is zero on E. and W. and maximum on N and S. but of opposite signs. It varies as the co-sine of the magnetic heading.

Calculation C : $N - S$

C

Deviation due to Q can be corrected and any residue is due to soft iron effects. It is corrected on N. or S. headings.

Parameter R will have no turning effect but will supplement or cancel Z.

Coefficient A is constant on all headings and is due to 1, misplaced lubber line 2, incorrect assembly of magnet system i.e. apparent A. 3, induction in asymmetrical horizontal hard iron i.e. Real A. Calculation : Z deviation

8

may be corrected by moving the compass clockwise if positive, anti clockwise if minus

Coefficients B and C

Bloss give rise to deviations on quadrantal headings. Only corrected in very large A/c.

Swinging a compass

Procedure

- 1, Check compass for serviceability
- 2, Ensure all equipment is as carried in flight
i.e. tools, guns etc.
- 3, Take aircraft clear of all unusual magnetism
i.e. 100 yds from a hangar
- 4, Ensure all controls in flying position
- 5, Place aircraft head on magnetic north and note deviation & B. magnetic headings may be obtained using a landing compass or compass rose.
- 6, Turn on to magnetic east and note deviation

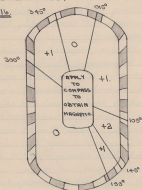
7, Turn on to magnet S. and note deviation
Calculate coefficient C.

8, If correcting proceed as follows:-

- a, change sign of C and apply this to existing reading.
- b, This will give required new reading which is set against the lubber line
- 9, Place corrector key in hole at right angle to needle and turn until red is on red.
- 10, Place aircraft head on west and note deviation
Calculate coefficient B and correct as for C.
again with key in hole at right angle to the needle.
- 11, To verify, cut check swing on all 8 points starting with N.W.
- 12, Calculate coefficient A (average deviation) and correct if necessary. Permission of flight commander or navigation officer required
- 13, Record final deviations on Form 31b, 31bA

14. Fill in compass log book (Form 343) and sign Form 400.

FORM 346.



Pilot Navigation

① 5° Lines



In a single seater aircraft without expert assistance of a navigator a pilot uses 3 methods for checking positions of a/c and making alteration of course. All are simple and speedy. However it is essential for an accurate compass course to be observed and track and a.s. to be checked frequently. Rapid and accurate map reading is a further essential.

② Flying from A to X draw in track. From A and X draw lines of either side of track making angles of 5° with it. Plot sets off

on calculated course but after 10 minutes flying finds himself at Z. It is obvious that he is 3° P. of track. If an alteration of 3° is made a track parallel to the desired one will be made good. If however a further alteration of 3° is made he will in 10 minutes time be approximately crossing his desired track. He then alters course back 3° P. and will now be steering the correct course to make good his desired track.

Similarly if near the end of the flight he finds himself at Z, it can be assumed that the line AZ is parallel to the track so that a correction of 3° P. will bring him over his destination.

② Two point



① Select conspicuous landmark on track that can be seen from base aerodrome.

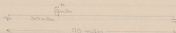
② Climb up to required height, turn on to aerodrome and fly plane so that it tracks over aerodrome towards landmark i.e. A. He must make good required track.

③ When directly over landmark set red on red on compass and course to make good back to A will be against the lubber line.

④ Between points X and P. a ground speed can be calculated and a time or distance scale should be put on track.

N.B. Landmark must be within visibility distance _____

Track error



Based on formula 1 mile off in 60 equals

error of 1°

Flying from P. to Q. we pinpoint at R.
thus we are two miles off in thirty which
equals an error of 4° . But we have 60 miles
still to go, therefore 2 miles off in 60 equals
error of 2° . Therefore total alteration of course
: $4^\circ + 2^\circ = 6^\circ$ S.

Procedure for cross country flights

Before take-off

- ① Obtain the necessary maps and draw in tracks.
- ② Study intended route noting dangers and prohibited areas to avoid, and height of ground to be crossed.
- ③ Draw 5° or 10° from starting point along track.
- ④ Obtain weather report and route forecast.
- ⑤ Estimate true airspeed, measure distances, and complete form 433A using net w/v.

⑥ From calculated G.E. construct time or distance scales.

⑦ Study map for important landmarks on track especially first 25 miles of each leg.

⑧ Ensure you have two pencils and a watch

⑨ Fold map so that minimum of unfolding will be needed in the air.

In aircraft before take-off

① See that compass has been running in the last six weeks and calculate compass course to steer. Set this course on compass

② Set altimeter to read height of aerodrome above sea level.

③ Ensure all equipment, cross country kit, tools, money, etc. is in the locker.

After take-off

① Circle aerodrome, climbing to selected height

② Note the time airborne.

③ At selected height, trim aircraft to fly

- a steady height and desired airspeed
- ④ Turn on to course to pass over centre of aerodrome, if above 2000', and to one side with the circuit if below.
- ⑤ Note departure time and E.T.A. in log.
- ⑥ Check course, height and airspeed and maintain until position can be checked.
- ⑦ If necessary, note track error and A/c.
- ⑧ Check E.T.A. by time marks. Enter all a/c's and E.T.A.'s in log, and note position whenever possible
- ⑨ After landing, hand log to navigation officer for correction.

Pilot-navigator log

Rules for log keeping

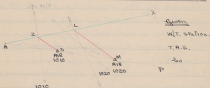
- ① All directions etc. to be expressed as
- ② 3 fig. groups followed by T, M, or C
- ③ All place names to be written in block capitals

- ④ No alterations to be made, errors to be crossed out or erased.
- ⑤ Flight plan to be completed before flight
- ⑥ Units used stated clearly at head of columns
- ⑦ All courses flown and a/c's to be recorded followed by the reason for the alteration.
- ⑧ All E.T.A.'s entered on right hand side of log, and underlined
- ⑨ All changes of weather conditions to be recorded
- ⑩ Positions recorded by approved systems of reference only.
- ⑪ Only standard abbreviations to be used.
- ⑫ Each sheet to be signed by the navigator
- ⑬ Special instructions to cadets
- ⑭ Indicate whether log is dual, 1st, or 2nd cross country
- ⑮ Have flight plan checked by instructor before flight
- ⑯ Have log countersigned by instructor

after flight

② Hand in to navigation officer as soon as possible

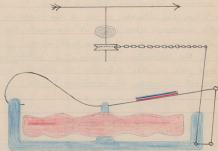
⁷⁰ Fixing position with α and β s, unknown



From last fig A draws in loc. A.P. Plot both bearings and their times. Using T.A.S. find air position at the times of the bearings. From A draw in any line Ax at any angle between A and the A.P. station. Where Ax cuts the first position line (Z) join Z to the first air position. Transfer the line ZS parallel thro' the second air position till

It cuts A2 at point L. Branches 1st. from line through L. thus obtaining fix at Y. A4 gives you T. M. G. and G. S. Y4 gives you W/Y.

THE ALTERNATE



Special features of the V.C.M. Kellman sensitive altimeter

1. The altimeter can be set on the ground to read 0' at height above M.S.L.
2. When set at 0' on the aerodrome it also records aerodrome atmospheric pressure in mb.
3. When the altimeter is set at the height of the aerodrome above M.S.L. it also records the atmospheric pressure at sea level in mb.
4. If the barometric pressure at an aerodrome is known and set on the altimeter the altimeter will record 0' when the aeroplane lands.

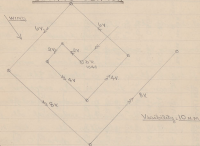
COMPRESS SWING

COL. 1	W.C.	A/C	DEV.	L/C	A/C	DEV.	BAROM H.	WATER H.	DIFFER H.	WIND
000	258	094 259	-6	258	259	-1	001	000	-	-
045				045	046	-1	046	045	-	-
090	092	090 093	+3	091	092	-1	091	090	-	-
135				135	135	-	135	134	+1	+1
180	183	180 184	+4	182	183	-1	181	180	-	-
225				224	225	-1	226	225	-	-
270	268	273 269	-5	269	270	-1	271	270	-	-
315				316	314	-1	316	315	-	-

$$\text{Coefficient } S_c = \frac{-6-4}{2} = -5$$

$$\text{Coefficient } S_b = \frac{+3+5}{2} = +4$$

$$\text{Coefficient } F = \frac{-4}{8} = -1$$

SQUARE SEARCH

Navigation responsibilities of air crew

Duties of navigator

1. Thorough preparation of each flight
2. Synchronises pilot's and W/O's watches with his own, checked against G.M.T.
3. Gives pilot courses to steer, written on message chits. He checks that the pilot sets the correct course on his compass
4. Keeps the navigation log
5. Keeps a plot of the flight
6. He makes all necessary observations to ensure accurate navigation. Note all changes of height, temp. and T.A.S. Takes frequent drifts, fixpoints etc. as necessary, checks w/v frequently especially near target using various methods
7. On request gives position and E.T.A. to captain without undue delay.
8. Makes out all form signals for approval of captain
9. Notes weather conditions and changes in flight either in log or on 'Born 2530'. On request advises captain on action to miss bad weather
10. When requested, navigator keeps recce. report, supported by photographs.
11. Initiates requests for IFF bearings. When loop is used, the probable bearings of the best situated station should be given as a guide to the loop operator. The operator should also be informed which stations are most likely to perform satisfactory fixes
12. He informs pilot whenever drift, sextant astro. compass and IFF loop installations begin and end.
13. He asks rear gunner for back bearings

14. Navigator co-ordinates efforts of other members of crew when map reading under difficulties or at night.

Duties of Pilot

1. Pilot provides himself with topographical maps for flights and makes tracks thereon. He prepares summary flight plan.
2. He checks watch with navigator.
3. Before take-off he sets sensitive altimeter to aerodrome height.
4. He keeps a brief log of the flight.
5. He sets compass courses when directed by nav. and makes sure he continues on such courses until new ones are given.
6. He informs nav. of all changes of course, height and I. A. S.
7. He maintains constant course and airspeed when drifts are being taken.
8. If necessary he climbs to a higher

free of bumps.

9. Assists navigator in map reading and reconnaissance.

Duties of W/O

1. Prepares for each flight list of W/F D/F facilities, localities, times of op frequencies, call-signs, ranges and procedure.
2. On request he endeavours to call up those D/F stations indicated by navigator.
3. He must be prepared to operate the loop.
4. He advises navigator which stations are available at any time. He advises the navigator as to their identity.

Duties of rear gunner

1. On request takes back bearings of objects over which aircraft has passed.
2. He must be able to map-read in order to assist navigator.

Duties of bomb-aimer

1. Acts in close liaison with navigator and pilot
2. If capable he obtains drifts and other readings.

Duties of the Captain of the aircraft.

1. He supervises navigational duties of crew on the ground and in the air.
2. He advises navigator in preparing flight plan.
3. He ensures all equipment is in order and all information taken on board.
4. He qualifies himself by training and experience to take over from the navigator should the latter become a casualty.
5. He keeps a brief log.
6. He must be able to give an intelligent account of the trip.

1. TAS - 1207k TAS - 1083.1 (20.7.7)
 2. Tr. - 164° B 400
 3. bc(c) - 188° - 1808k
 4. Q.S. - 1178k w/v - 250°/308k
 5. Dist. - 78nm T V M J C
 6. TRA - 0828k 190°W 191°3'E 193°
 7. a. W/V - 250°/34k E. Clot 3242 0917
 8. TR 8HOT5454 A.P. 34nm
 9. 0840 23 x 60 x 63
 10. 17. 2
 11. Tr. 0740° T V M J C
 12. bc(c) 264° 250° 10W 260.4'E 264
 13. Q.S. 1508k
 14. Dist. 164nm
 15. TRA 0951k
 16. TRA CLAM 173k
 17. TRA 0950k
 18. W/V 251°/

PROCEDURE FOR COMPASS SWINGING.

- (1) LANDING COMPASS.
- (2) COMPASS BASE.

BEFORE SWINGING.

SERVICEABILITY CHECK.

- (a) Oil or petrol stains or discolouration of external paint and rubber pads (if fitted).
- (b) Test shock absorbers (no unusual metallic contact should occur)
- (c) Test locking device and grid ring, if stiff apply vaseline and graphite.
- (d) Inspect the liquid for bubbles.
- (e) Inspect the liquid for discolouration, tap compass and notice any sediment present, and check discolouration of internal paint.
- (f) Test for pivot friction.
Deflect magnet system 10° with a magnet. Remove magnet and take the reading of the compass. Deflect system opposite way 10° , repeat procedure. The difference of the two readings obtained should be less than 2° .
- (g) Damping test.
Deflect magnet system 90° with a magnet held in that position for at least 30° to allow liquid to settle. Release magnet system by removing the magnet and time the swing of the needle back through 85° . The minimum and maximum times allowed for each type of compass are stated in the Instrument Manual (F6 is - 6.5 sec to 8.5 sec).
Compasses are guaranteed a minimum life of 6 months.

SWINGING.

- (1) Check compass for serviceability.
- (2) Take the a/c to the swinging base or a place removed from any magnetic disturbance.
- (3) Remove all magnetic objects not normally carried in flight.
- (4) See that everything carried in flight is in its normal position in the machine, and that the controls are central.
- (5) Any electrical apparatus must be switched on.
- (6) Place aircraft head on North and note deviation.
- (7) Place aircraft head on East, and note deviation.
- (8) Place aircraft head on South and note deviation.

- (8a) Calculate Coeff C. be deviation $\frac{N-S}{2}$.
- (8b) If correcting determine the new reading of compass by the following law.
- LAW. Change the sign of Coeff C to apply it thus to the existing reading. The result will be the required new reading.
- (8c) In the case of Grid ring Compasses set required new reading against the lubber line.
- (8d) Insert the correction key in the athwartships and turn gently until the required reading is obtained.
N.E. Clockwise for -C. Anti-Clockwise for +C.
- (8e) Remove the key.
- (9) Place a/c head on West and note deviation.
- (9a) Calculate Coeff B $\frac{E-W}{2}$
- (9b) Correct for "B" if necessary by the same method as for "C". Key in fore and aft.
- (10) Carry out a check swing on all 8 points, noting deviation on each. Calculate Coeff "A" by Dev'nall 8 points.
- (11) Fill in Deviation Card and Compass Log Book making a note of any Coeff "A" for the information of the Flight Commander concerned.
- (12) If correcting for Coeff "A" change and sign and apply to existing deviation to correct turn container.
Anti-clockwise for -A and Vice Versa.

NOTE.

Always give compass needle time to settle down on heading and ensure that aircraft is within 5° of each heading before correcting.

Take readings from directly above compass to avoid parallax.

Slight tapping is permissible and will be found of use.

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3.200	4	a. $151\frac{1}{2}$ 200	T.A.S. 120. ($\frac{1}{2}$ 20. 2. 10)
3.44		b. $3 \times 131^\circ$	. 150 200 400
400		c. 20(5) 133°	W/V. 350°/44 400
12'		d. G.S. 183 200	T. V. M. D. C.
		e. E.T.A. 14022 200	121° 11'W 132° 1'W 133°
			Distance = 90 n.m.
13 mm			E.T.A. 322 mm
		S. 200. P.T.C.E. 1029.	A.P. $\frac{1}{2} \times 190. 45$ mm
235		a. W/V 008°/35 200	W
5. 60 mm		c. 200 - 169 200	W/S. $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = 35$ 200
0		d. E.T.A. 14032 200	3 100
. 31 200			G.S. 50 x 50 10. 169 200
			193
c		a. $3 \times 051^\circ$	T. V. M. D. C.
289°		b. 20(5) 051°	043° 10'W 052° 1'W 051°
14 mm		c. G.S. 113 200	Dist. = 14.5 n.m.
		d. E.T.A. 15182 200	E.T.A. 145 x 60 200
		e. Diff. 9°	H 359