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Damage Informatics for Steam Turbine Components

By Kazunari Fujiyama

Meijo University, Japan

Abstract- Statistical data analyses were conducted on the variety of damage modes occurred in steam turbine major components such as high pressure turbine blades/nozzles, casings and low pressure turbine rotors and blades. The data were fitted using log-normal distribution function of operation time and number of starts. Two dimensional distribution functions were constituted by combining the marginal distribution functions of operation time and number of starts. Time-cycle mapping for various events indicated that apparent order of event occurrence and the equiprobability loci representing the time or cycle dependency and data distribution range. The best fit line for mean values of time and cycles of each event was adopted to evaluate the probability function of operation time and used to calculate resultant risk function along the line. The rational results were obtained to determine optimum maintenance periods from the risk functions established for respective turbine sections. The entire procedure including time-cycle mapping expression has been proved to be a quite useful tool for damage assessment, causality assessment and resultant risk assessment to improve the maintenance technology and can be categorized in the brand-new "Damage Informatics" concept.

Keywords: damage, steam turbine, two-dimensional probability, log-normal distribution, time and cycle mapping.

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Kazunari Fujiyama

Abstract- Statistical data analyses were conducted on the variety of damage modes occurred in steam turbine major components such as high pressure turbine blades/nozzles, casings and low pressure turbine rotors and blades. The data were fitted using log-normal distribution function of operation time and number of starts. Two dimensional distribution functions were constituted by combining the marginal distribution functions of operation time and number of starts. Time-cycle mapping for various events indicated that apparent order of event occurrence and the equi-probability loci representing the time or cycle dependency and data distribution range. The best fit line for mean values of time and cycles of each event was adopted to evaluate the probability function of operation time and used to calculate resultant risk function along the line. The rational results were obtained to determine optimum maintenance periods from the risk functions established for respective turbine sections. The entire procedure including time-cycle mapping expression has been proved to be a guite useful tool for damage assessment, causality assessment and resultant risk assessment to improve the maintenance technology and can be categorized in the brand-new "Damage Informatics" concept.

Keywords: damage, steam turbine, two-dimensional probability, log-normal distribution, time and cycle mapping.

I. INTRODUCTION

ossil power plants still play important roles for providing electric power supply on demands all over the world. Although combined cycle plants coupling gas turbines and steam turbines have become more popular due to their higher efficiency, the conventional steam turbine plants still occupy the large part of power stations and have become aged by long term service, requiring cost-effective maintenance application. To make optimum maintenance planning, risk-based maintenance[1]-[5] procedures have been established and applied to actual plants but the objective parts have been restricted and comprehensive evaluations of turbine major sections have been required. However the systematic lists of events to be considered have not been provided according to the wide variety of events and the lack of rational scenario making procedures. The fundamentals of manipulating damage information are statistical data processing and causality inference [6] from the observed event items but the latter term has not been explicitly recognized in the maintenance technology development. As the damage events may dependent on two operational parameters such as operation time and number of starts, the two parameters are used as the variables for evaluating probability functions. To provide rational maintenance decision making, risk functions are introduced based on the two-parameter distribution functions and used as the comprehensive measures for synthesizing various damage events occurred in major turbine sections. The examples of some detailed damage scenarios are also presented here to understand the synthetic evaluation of total risks for optimum maintenance planning. This approach could be called as "Damage Informatics" for Steam Turbine Components as a new investigation field of plant integrity.

II. A General Description of Damage Events Observed at Steam Turbine Major Components

Figure 4 shows typical damage modes in steam turbine components [4]. For high-pressure (HP) and intermediate-pressure (IP) turbine rotors, creep damage is accumulated in the bore and wheel hooks. In the dovetail hook contacted area, high cycle or fretting fatigue occurs due to vibratory stress. In the strain concentrations region of casings and valves, cracks initiate due to thermo mechanical fatigue (TMF) during cyclic operations and then grow under internal pressure. nozzles, downstream deflection of nozzle For diaphragm due to steam force occurs at high temperature portion. Solid particle or droplet erosion is sometimes observed in nozzle plates at HP/IP steam inlet portion and wet steam section of LP turbine. For steam pipe weldments, creep damage is accumulated and resulted in the creep void formation. For low pressure turbine rotors, corrosion fatigue or SCC under centrifugal and vibratory stress are typical damage modes.

Author: Department of Mechanical Engineering, Meijo University, 1-501, Shiogamaguchi, Tempaku-ku, Nagoya 468-8502, Japan. e-mail: fujiyama@meijo-u.ac.jp

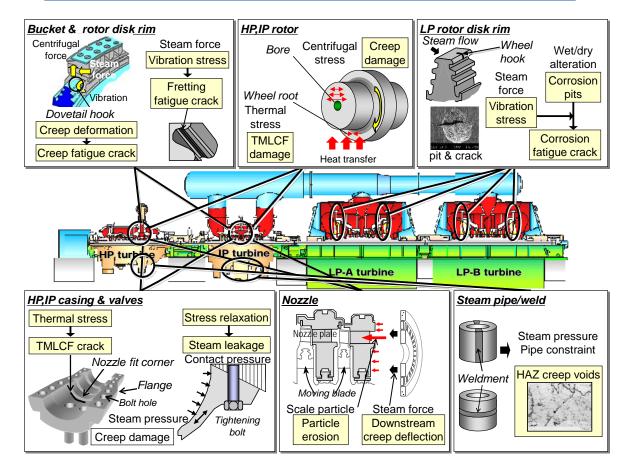


Fig. 1 : Damage modes of steam turbine components

III. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Two dimensional log-normal probability distribution function F(Q) is expressed as the following

equation and the ellipse locus is obtained by setting Q as a value corresponding to the constant probability[7].

$$F(Q) = 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{Q}{2}\right) \tag{1}$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{1 - \rho^2} \left\{ \frac{\left(\ln t - \mu_{Let}\right)^2}{\sigma_{Let}^2} - 2\rho \frac{\left(\ln t - \mu_{Let}\right) \left(\ln N - \mu_{LeN}\right)}{\sigma_{Let} \sigma_{LeN}} + \frac{\left(\ln N - \mu_{Let}\right)^2}{\sigma_{LeN}^2} \right\}$$
(2)

$$\rho = \frac{E\{(\ln t - \mu_{Let})(\ln N - \mu_{LeN})\}}{\sigma_{Let}\sigma_{LeN}}$$
(3)

Where, μ_{Let} : time based log-normal mean, μ_{LeN} : cycle based log-normal mean, σ^2_{Let} : time based lognormal variance, σ^2_{LeN} : cycle based log-normal variance, ρ : correlation coefficient of lnt and lnN.

In this article, the value of F is assumed as 0.5 for the convenience in comparison of event data. The relationship between t_{op} and N_s obtained by fitting the mean values of events is defined as the most likely

operation pattern from field database and expressed by N_s as the function of t_{op} as follows. (4)

$$N_{c} = At_{cm}^{b}$$
⁽⁴⁾

Substituting Eq.(4) into Eq.(2), we obtain Q expression by t_{op} as follows.

$$Q(t_{op}) = \frac{1}{1 - \rho^2} \left\{ \frac{\left(\ln t_{op} - \mu_{Let}\right)^2}{\sigma_{Let}^2} - 2\rho \frac{\left(\ln t_{op} - \mu_{Let}\right) \left(\ln A + b \ln t_{op} - \mu_{LeN}\right)}{\sigma_{Let} \sigma_{LeN}} + \frac{\left(\ln A + b \ln t_{op} - \mu_{Let}\right)^2}{\sigma_{LeN}^2} \right\}$$
(5)

For evaluating risks, we must define the values of consequence, but here we put them as unity for the simplicity of data manipulation and then we can sum up the probabilities as the measure of risk value. The resultant risk function r (t_{op}) is expressed by the function of t_{op} as follows

$$r(t_{op}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} C_i F_i(t_{op}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} F_i(t_{op})$$
(6)

Where, C_i : consequence of failure of event i(assumed=1), m: total number of subject events, $F_i(t_{op})$: probability of failure of event i obtained by Eq.(1).

IV. MARGINAL DISTRIBUTION

As the first step, the marginal distribution are obtained against operation tome t_{op} and number of starts N_s as shown in Fig. 2 for high pressure inner casing cracking events. Log-normal type distribution are obtained for most of the event data like this case. The unreliability function of log-normal type is written as follows⁽²⁾. The variable *Y* can be put as time of operation t_{op} or number of starts N_s .

$$F(Y) = \Phi\left(\frac{\ln Y - \mu_{Le}}{\sigma_{Le}}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{Y} \frac{1}{\sigma_{Le}\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\frac{(\ln x - \mu_{Le})^2}{2\sigma_{Le}^2}} dx \quad (7)$$

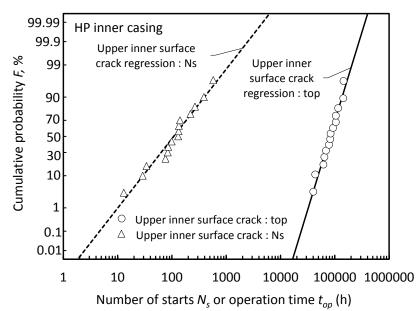


Fig. 2. Examples of marginal distributions for HP (High Pressure) inner casing cracking event

V. Two-Dimensional Log-Normal Distribution Analysis for Various Events and Casualty Assessment

Based on Eqs.(5) and the marginal distributions obtained in section4, two dimensional log-normal distribution are obtained and then causality assessment can be conducted by using the risk functions of Eq.(6). Individual analytical results for HP (High Pressure) and LP(Low Pressure) turbine sections are described as follows. IP(Intermediate Pressure) turbine section showed almost similar trend with HP turbine section, therefore the IP turbine section was omitted here due to the lack of space.

a) HP (High Pressure) Turbine

Figure 3 shows N_s - t_{op} mean point damage mapping for HP blades and nozzles with 50% unreliability contour. The mean trend is obtained from the regression of mean event data by Eq.(4) excluding HP-2 nozzle erosion which shows irregular plot from the

majority trend. This is caused by the data mismatch due to the small number of events (here, only 2 events available but the sets of N_s and t_{op} showed contrary combinations). The orientation of major axis on the N_s - t_{op} plot may represent the tendency for cycle dependence or time dependence. Rather stronger cycle dependences are observed for HP-2 nozzle fouling, HP-2 nozzle deformation, HP-2 nozzle wear, HP-2 blade lifting and HP-2 blade erosion but each does not show the trend clearly enough due to small number of obtained data. On the other hand, HP-1 blade lifting shows more apparent tendency of time dependence compared with other events and it has more data numbers. More detailed event scenario is shown as the flow chart form in Fig.4 referring Fig.3. Resultant risk curve shown in Fig.5 indicates an apparent peak, so the t_{op} value at the peak of risk function can be adopted as the recommendation of inspection timing.

Figure 6 shows N_s - t_{op} mean point damage mapping for HP inner casing plots and almost all data are categorized as the thermo-mechanical fatigue cracking located in the narrow sets of t_{op} and N_{s} , so there is no motivation to draw mean trend by regression of the data. The shapes of 50% contours show more horizontal orientation which suggests the stronger dependency on number of starts than operation time.

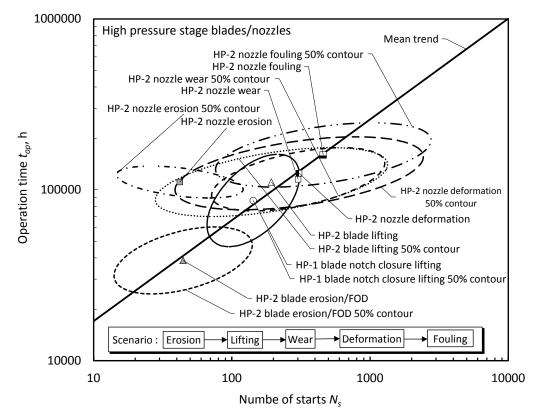


Fig. 3 : Time-cycle damage map for HP blades and nozzles. (HP-1,2:High Pressure Stage 1, 2)

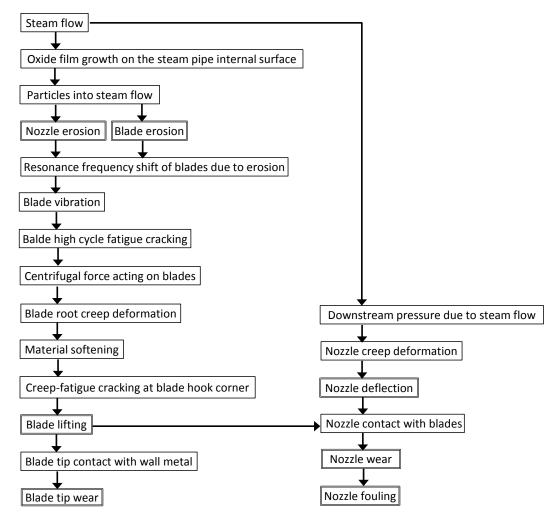


Fig. 4 : Detailed damage flow for HP blades and nozzles (doublets indicate the subtracted events from Fig.3)

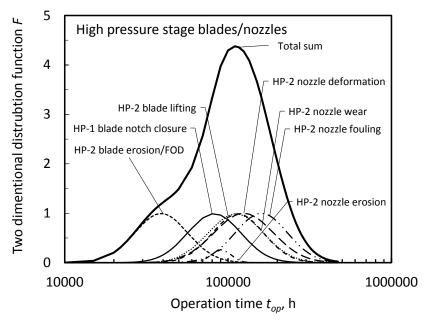


Fig. 5 : Resultant risk curve for HP blades and nozzles

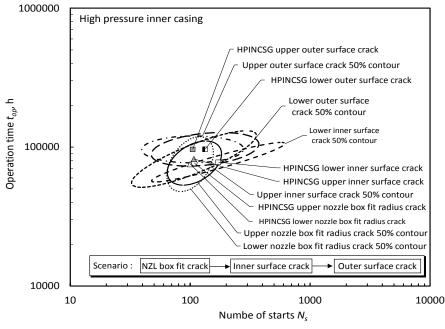


Fig. 6 : Time-cycle damage map for HP inner casings(HPINCSG)

b) LP(Low Pressure) Turbine

Figure7 shows the N_s - t_{op} mean point damage mapping for LP turbine rotor and blades. The majority of events may occur along the mean trend line, and then the sequence can be expressed as early blade damage of erosion/lifting/crack and as the subsequent crack/scoring/erosion damage in rotors. By judging from the 50% failure loci, L-0 blade crack, L-0 erosion shield crack, L-0 lacing wire crack, L-1 lacing wire crack and L-1 shroud crack, show rather cycle dependent than time dependent tendency, but on the other hand, LP rotor journal scoring and L-0 erosion shield erosion show rather time dependent tendency but not so clear. More detailed event scenario is shown as the flow chart form in Fig.8 referring Fig.7. Resultant risk curve shown in Fig.9 indicates an apparent peak, so the t_{op} value at the peak of risk function can be adopted as the recommendation of inspection timing. The optimum timing shows almost similar top value to Fig.5 around over 100,000hours t_{op} which has been recognized widely as the onset of full inspection application.

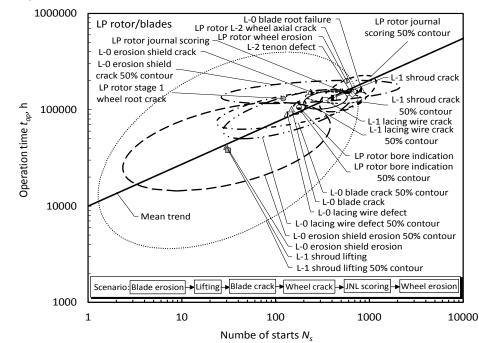


Fig. 7 : Time-cycle damage map for LP rotors and blades (L-0 means the last stage of Low Pressure turbine, L-1 means one stage ahead of L-0 and L-2 means two stages ahead of L-0)

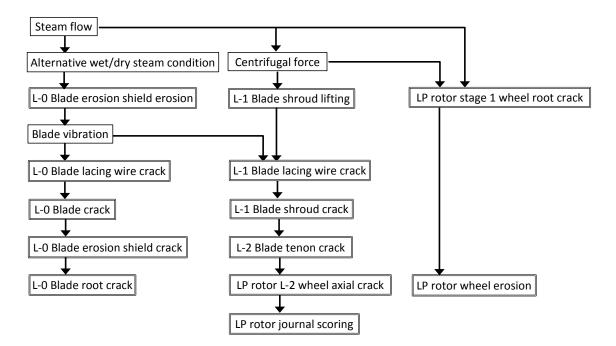
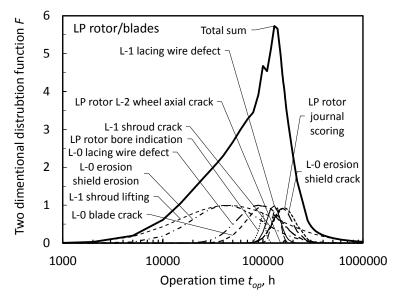
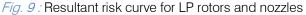


Fig. 8 : Detailed damage flow for LP rotors and blades (doublets indicate the subtracted events from Fig.7)





c) Risk-cost measures for optimum maintenance planning[8]

The risk function $r(t_{op})$ in Eq.(6) represents the possible cost for unfavorable damage occurrence and the monotonically increasing function of top. On the other hand, the cost for applying preventive maintenance action is inversely proportional to maintenance intervals. By plotting the risk function and the preventive cost function as shown in Fig.10, we can get resultant cost curves against operation time t_{op} . The resultant curves have minimum points as the recommendation for total predicted cost minimum condition. The timing of these preventive maintenance application is somewhat earlier than the time to peak

risk cost which suggests the earlier maintenance can contribute total cost savings.

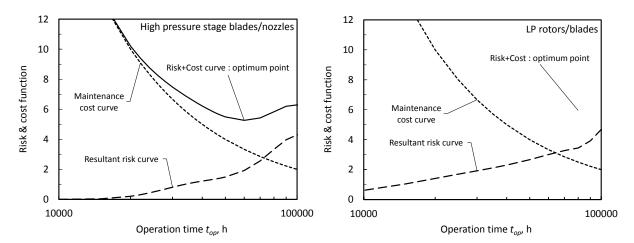


Fig. 10 : Schematic risk-cost analysis examples for HP blades/nozzles and LP rotors/blades

VI. Conclusions

Field inspection database can be fully utilized to constitute damage scenario and to make up maintenance decision making for steam turbine major compound sections. Statistical analyses are utilized to quantify the event occurrence timing and the order with the scatter band of each event data. The accumulation of field data is quite important and scenario inference should be performed by combining the data analyses and the knowledge of experts in the form of damage sequence flow chart. The "Informatics" for plant damage may contribute to make more improvement in the accuracy for predicting the life of components and to identify the casualty of the events.

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Constant Pitch Propeller Design for Low Subsonic Airplane By Arif Ahmed Sohel, Md. Abdus Shamir Talukder & Dr. Mohammad Arif Hasan Mamun

Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology, Bangladesh

Abstract- Constant pitch propeller whose blade angle is fixed with respect to hub is suitable for low speed airplane. The objectives of this thesis are to determine thrust, torque and the performance of the low subsonic airplane propeller. The thesis has been carried out by the two different approaches- Analytical and Computational Fluid Dynamic (CFD) simulation. The Analytical Method using "Propeller Blade Element Theory" is one of the most effective methodologies available for determining the thrust and torque produced by the propeller. On the other hand, the Computational Fluid Dynamic simulation has been used to simulate and capture the performance of the propeller. Through both methodologies, the propeller performance was analyzed and compared. The results obtained were tabulated and the corresponding graphs were plotted. Both methods suggest that the thrust and torque change with the change in relative velocity. Besides, there are several factors that contribute to the variations in results of the Analytical method and CFD Simulation.

Keywords: CFD, constant pitch, blade element theory, advance ratio, airfoil, coefficients of thrust, torque, power, etc.

GJRE-A Classification : FOR Code: 091399p



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Constant Pitch Propeller Design for Low Subsonic Airplane

Arif Ahmed Sohel ", Md. Abdus Shamir Talukder " & Dr. Mohammad Arif Hasan Mamun $^{\rho}$

Abstract- Constant pitch propeller whose blade angle is fixed with respect to hub is suitable for low speed airplane. The objectives of this thesis are to determine thrust, torgue and the performance of the low subsonic airplane propeller. The thesis has been carried out by the two different approaches-Analytical and Computational Fluid Dynamic (CFD) simulation. The Analytical Method using "Propeller Blade Element Theory" is one of the most effective methodologies available for determining the thrust and torque produced by the propeller. On the other hand, the Computational Fluid Dynamic simulation has been used to simulate and capture the performance of the propeller. Through both methodologies, the propeller performance was analyzed and compared. The results obtained were tabulated and the corresponding graphs were plotted. Both methods suggest that the thrust and torque change with the change in relative velocity. Besides, there are several factors that contribute to the variations in results of the Analytical method and CFD Simulation.

Keywords: CFD, constant pitch, blade element theory, advance ratio, airfoil, coefficients of thrust, torque, power, etc.

I. INTRODUCTION

n aircraft propeller is one of the most common important parts in the aircraft. It is an airfoil section designed to generate the aerodynamic forces. The propeller provides the necessary force i.e. thrust to push the aircraft through the air. Thrust is the component of the aerodynamic force that is parallel to the axis of rotation of the propeller. A propeller achieves a specified level of thrust by giving a relatively small acceleration to a relatively large mass of air. Maximizing thrust while minimizing the torque necessary to turn a propeller has becomes one of the most important aspects of good propeller design. The power that must be supplied by the engine is the multiplication of the torque required to turn the propeller and the angular velocity. The thrust developed by the propeller multiplied by the airspeed of the aircraft is called the propulsive power. The aircraft is propelled forward against the airframe drag by this power. The ratio of the propulsive power to the brake power for a propeller gives the propulsive efficiency which is one of the important measures of propeller performance. The thrust developed by the propeller when the aircraft is stationery is called the static thrust. This thrust is important for a

propeller to produces high static thrust in order to accelerate the aircraft during takeoff.

In order to design an aircraft propeller, Computational Fluid Dynamic (CFD) analysis has been done to simulate the fluid flow over a body to solve and analyze the aerodynamic properties of a body. Moreover, analytical approach has been used to compare the result gathered from the CFD simulation.

In the time of rapid industrial development along with the current competition in the market has required companies to improve products and create more innovation compared to other products. Aviation industry is also on that trend, and the propeller performance plays an important role. A good propeller should meet the requirements of the flight and push the aircraft with high performance on the aerodynamic characteristics.

For studying these characteristics of the propeller, the numerical study seems to be the best way to accomplish that goal. In particular, the application of CFD simulation software to calculate the propeller aerodynamics is not so new study now and it has become popular methods. Today it becomes most powerful compared to other methods as well as experience or the other traditional methods. The present works focus on numerical simulation of the propeller at different rotating speed. Specific studies were conducted with the flight speed change, a fixed number J from 0 to 1. From these results such as pressure field, we can evaluate the performance of the propeller in the range of the flight velocity.

By using the mathematical models with considered assumptions, simulation results allow the predictions on propeller performance. The simulation has helped save time, effort and cost a lot for the design and manufacture of propellers.

II. Physical Model

Propeller blade has different airfoil shape; the shape varies quite a lot from root to tip. In practice a large number of different airfoils are used to make up one propeller blade but we designed our propeller simply taking only one airfoil along the blades. There are hundreds of airfoils suitable for this application but we think it is better to make a choice of an airfoil containing flat bottom surface. We are going to select NACA 4412 (Fig. 1) flat bottom airfoil used in a lot of propeller

Author: Department of Mechanical Engineering, Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology, Dhaka-1000.

e-mails: arifahmed07.buet.me@gmail.com, shamir.buet@gmail.com, arifhasan@me.buet.ac.bd

designs in the past, and is also used today for simple designs.

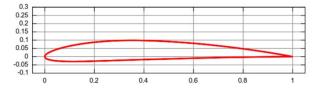


Figure 1 : NACA4412 airfoil [14]

In this design one blade has been considered which consists of 10 sections each having different airfoil shape, and representing different chord length & thickness.

The front plane has been taken as the reference plane in the Solid works part file and 10 more planes were created which are equally spaced. Plane 1 was at 2.4 inch far from reference plane and other 9 more planes were placed successively maintaining 2.4 inch distance between two consecutive planes up to 24 inch. The 2.4 inch difference between reference and 1st plane was kept for propeller hub. Airfoil data points from text file are imported to draw profile curves on each of the 10 planes by "curve through XYZ points" commands. These curves are converted into sketches for every slice of the blade sections. Fig. 2 represents a sample array of slices inserted into a Solid Works part file.

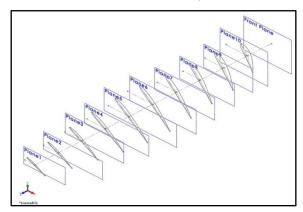
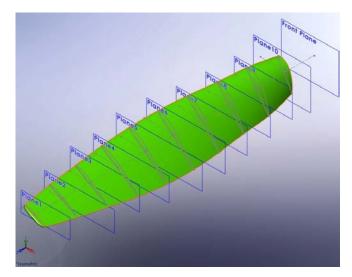


Figure 2 : array of propeller cross sections

The airfoil sections are placed on a line such a way that the line goes through the center of gravity of each section. Because, unbalanced exists when the center of mass does not coincide with the center of rotation, when the mass center axis is different to its running center axis. The centrifugal force due to the unbalance causes the device to vibrate. This vibration causes wear to the bearings, creates unnecessary noise, and can result in complete failure. "Mass properties" command of the "Evaluate" tab was used to determine these gravity centers of the sections. This will keep the propeller vibration free during rotation due to the balanced blade mass distribution.

Then the section profiles are rotated in the design geometric angles of the respective sections that

will ensure the design pitch for the rotating propeller. "Loft" feature was used to create a solid body by lofting from root to tip of the section's profile sketches. Automatic linear twist distribution is generated in the blade according to the geometric angles given in the profiles. Tip of the blade is rounded by using dome features.





Propeller hub is inserted in the origin of the part drawing which looks like a cylinder, and this is done by using the "boss extrude" command on a circular profile of 5.1inch diameter. After an array operation of the blade about the origin, blades are added with the hub. "Fillet" feature is used in the joints between the hub and blades. A pointy dome is created on the hub to reduce the drag.

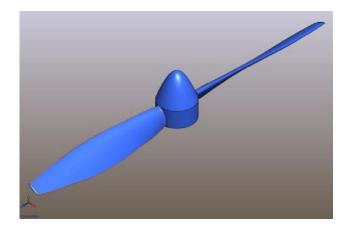
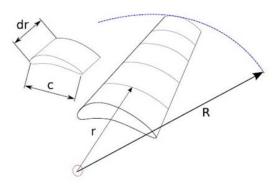


Figure 4 : Final propeller design

III. MATHEMATICAL MODEL

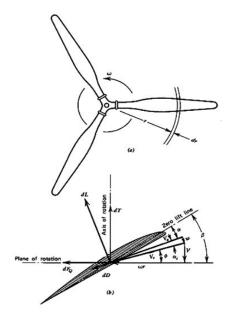
Development of a rational propeller theory begins with the work of Rankine and Froude with their interest in moving propulsion, but the fundamental principle is the same for water and air. They developed the fundamental momentum relation governing a propulsive device in fluid medium. Stefan Drzewiecki however, was the first to rigorously examine and apply Blade Element Theory (BET). He performed his work between 1892 and 1920. BET is very similar to the Strip Theory for fixed wing aerodynamics. The blade is assumed to be composed of numerous, miniscule strips that are connected from tip to tip. The lift and drag are estimated at the strip using the 2-D airfoil characteristics of the section.

Also, the local flow characteristics are accounted for in terms of climb speed, inflow velocity, and angular velocity. The section lift and drag may be calculated and integrated over the blade span. BET is a very useful tool for the engineer. He or she may perform a fairly detailed local analysis of the rotor in a short amount of time.





A propeller blade is simply a twisting wing (Fig. 5) which produces lift and drag. The two most important performance parameters for the design and analysis of a propeller are the thrust and torque.



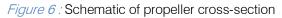


Fig. 6 shows a cross section of the blade. The force exerted on the span wise extension of the blade element is the resultant of two components i.e. lift and drag.

Where,

v=Incoming air velocity

 ω r =tangential velocity of the rotating propeller

We can write the expressions of the elemental thrust and torque for the radial element (dr) on one of the blades:

$$dT = dL \cos \varphi - dD \sin \varphi$$

= $\frac{1}{2} \rho VR^2 c dr (C_1 \cos \varphi - C_d \sin \varphi)$
$$dQ = (dL \sin \varphi + dD \cos \varphi)r$$

= $\frac{1}{2} \rho VR^2 c dr (C_1 \sin \varphi + C_d \cos \varphi) r$

lf

Resultant velocity, $V_R = V_{\infty} / Sin \varphi$ & Dynamic pressure, $q = \frac{1}{2} \rho V_{\infty}^2$, Then the elemental thrust,

$$dT = q c dr (C_1 \cos \varphi - C_d \sin \varphi) / \sin^2 \varphi$$

The elemental torque,

$$dQ = q c r dr (C_1 Sin \varphi + C_d Cos \varphi) / Sin^2 \varphi$$

Where,

- dL= elemental lift
- dD= elemental drag
- CI = coefficient of lift
- Cd= coefficient of drag
- $\rho=\text{density of air}$
- C = chord length
- Φ = angle subtended by relative velocity
- V_{∞} =incoming air velocity

Propeller thrust and torque are computed by integrating the equations of the elemental thrust and torque from root to tip of the blade. For number of blades B,

The total thrust,

$$T = qB \int_0^R c \, dr \, (C_1 \cos \varphi - C_d \sin \varphi) / \sin^2 \varphi$$

Simplified

$$T = q B R \int_0^1 c dr (C_1 \cos \varphi - C_d \sin \varphi) / \sin^2 \varphi; \quad (1$$

Where x=r/R

The total torque

$$Q = q B \int c r dr (C_1 \sin \phi + C_d \cos \phi) / \sin^2 \phi$$

Simplified

$$Q = q B R^2 \int_0^1 c(r/R) dr (C_1 \sin \varphi + C_d \cos \varphi) \sin^2 \varphi ; (2) \text{ where } x = r/R)$$

Elemental blade efficiency, [1] [2] [3]

$$\eta = \frac{C_{\rm l} \cos \varphi - C_{\rm d} \sin \varphi}{C_{\rm l} \sin \varphi + C_{\rm d} \cos \varphi} \tan \varphi$$

The first important task is the selection of an airfoil to design a propeller. The selected airfoil must maintain the aerodynamic characteristics that will provide lift and drag required for the thrust (propulsive force for airplane) and torque (available torque from engine shaft to rotate propeller).

As the maximum operating altitude ranges up to 25,000 feet and for smaller aircraft with propellers and normally aspirated engines, the service ceiling (maximum altitude where 100 feet per minute climb can be maintained) ranges 12,000-14,000 feet, we choose 10,000 feet as the design altitude for the airplane that can be propelled by our propeller.

Followings are the design characteristics:

Altitude- 10,000 feet (3048 m)

Airplane speed- 50ms-1

Diameter- 48 inch (1.22 m)

Pitch- 75 inch (1.905 m)

Operating pressure [5],

 $P = 101325 e^{(-[(M \times g \times h) \div (R \times T)])}$

Air density, $\rho = P/RT = 0.854$ kgm-3 where T = 288 k

Sound velocity, C= (KRT)-1/2=340ms-1 where k=1.4

IV. NUMERICAL PROCEDURE

a) Computational Design

The computational design is comprised of a frame of $2.5m \times 9.5m \times 2.5m$. Now the boundary conditions are assigned as; 'Surface A' is the 'Velocity Inlet' of 50m/s uniform velocity, 'Surface B' is the 'Pressure Opening' of 70600pa'Surface C, D, E&F' are considered as the 'Ideal Wall'

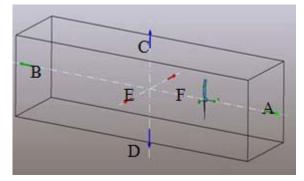


Figure 7: Computational domain

An enclosed volume is considered as rotating region of the propeller. Here propeller is kept constant and rotating frame indicating the rotating region rotates about the propeller axis at same RPM of the propeller but opposite in direction.

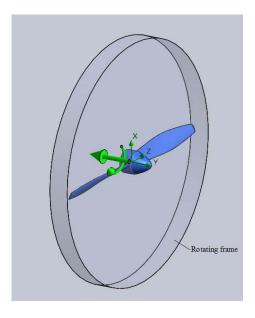


Figure 8 : Computational domain with rotating frame

b) Computational Meshing

In computational domain of flow simulation computational mesh is rectangular everywhere, so the mesh cells' sides are orthogonal to the specified axes of the Cartesian coordinate system and are not fitted to the solid/fluid interface. As a result, the near-walls of mesh cell are cut by the solid/fluid interface. Nevertheless, due to special measures, the mass is treated properly in these cells named partial.

At first a basic mesh is constructed. For that, the computational domain is divided into slices by the basic mesh planes, which are evidently orthogonal to the axes of the Cartesian coordinate system. The basic mesh is determined only by the computational domain and does not depend on the solid/fluid interfaces.

Then, the basic mesh cells intersecting with the solid/fluid interface are split uniformly into smaller cells in order to capture the solid/fluid interface with mesh cells of the specified size (with respect to the basic mesh cells). The following procedure is employed each of the basic mesh cells intersecting with the solid/fluid interface is split uniformly into 8 child cells; each of the child cells intersecting with the interface is in turn split into 8 cells of next level, and so on, until the specified cell size is attained.

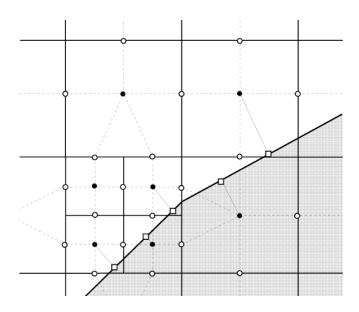
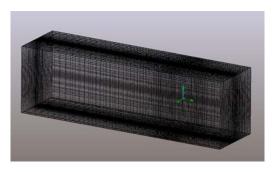


Figure 9 : Computational mesh cells at the solid/fluid interface

At the next stage of meshing, the mesh obtained at the solid/fluid interface with the previous procedure is refined in accordance with the solid/fluid interface curvature.

Finally, the mesh obtained with these procedures is refined in the computational domain to satisfy the so-called narrow channel criterion: for each cell lying at the solid/fluid interface, the number of the mesh cells (including the partial cells) lying in the fluid region along the line normal to the solid/fluid interface and starting from the center of this cell must not be less than the criterion value. Otherwise each of the mesh cells on this line is split into 8 child cells. As a result of all these meshing procedures, a locally refined rectangular computational mesh is obtained and used then for solving the governing equations on it.

After completion of mesh generation, flow Simulation solves the Navier-Stokes equations (formulations of mass, momentum and energy conservation laws for fluid flows) with the finite volume (FV) method on a spatially rectangular computational mesh designed in the Cartesian coordinate system.



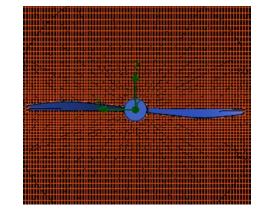
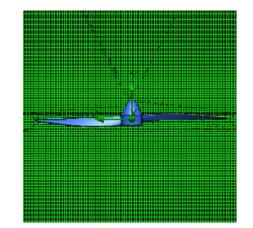


Figure 11 : Basic mesh (Top view)





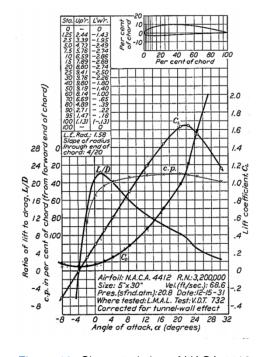
V. Results and Discussion

a) Analytical Result

To calculate elemental thrust and torque from eqn. (1) & (2) we have calculated φ , C_I, C_d & Chord length which varies with respect to the radial distance from the propeller center for 10 sliced sections. The tangential velocity changes with distance from the root to tip that contribute in the change of the relative velocity while the incoming air velocity remains fixed. This variation in the relative velocity changes the angle of attack in order to keep the pitch of the propeller fixed. We have calculated Cl and Cd for different angle of attack by using the Characteristics of NACA 4412 chart shown in the Fig. 13.



Figure 10: Basic mesh





Dynamic pressure $q \infty = \frac{1}{2} \rho V \propto 2 = 1067.68$ Pa The angle subtended by relative velocity VR [7], $\phi = \beta$ (blade pitch angle)- α (Angle of attack)

We have plotted dCT/dx vs X &dCQ/dx vs X in the Fig. 14 to get the equations for dT/dx and dQ/dx. Therefore,

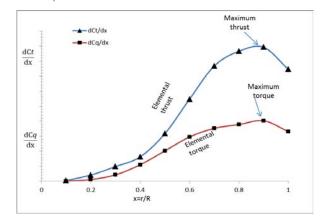


Figure 14 : Elemental coefficients gradient vs radial distance from root of the propeller

Total thrust, $T = \int (dT/dx) dx$

$$= \int_{0.1}^{1} (39748x^6 - 96725x^5 + 58676x^4 + 11010x^3 - 15011x^2 + 4063.1x - 266.78) dx = 817.24 N$$

Total torque, Q = $\int (dQ/dx) dx$

$$\int_{0.1}^{1} (-78162x^6 + 259394x^5 - 334610x^4 + 206529x^3 - 60258x^2 + 8159.6x \, 388.43) dx = 395.54 \, Nm$$

By analyzing the curve of the gradient of the elemental thrust and torque coefficient plotted against span wise direction of a blade (root to tip distance), it is observed that maximum thrust and maximum torque cannot be obtained for the same element. For the maximum thrust, the torque obtained is somewhat less than the maximum torgue and the thrust obtained is less than its maximum value when the torque is maximum. The maximum thrust and the maximum torque typically occur at the outer half of the propeller blade and the lower half contributes little to the thrust and torque. So, one need to be much careful while designing the propeller that the thrust needs to be distributed in a manner so that together the blended propeller would give the necessary thrust which is required for flying the aircraft.

b) CFD Result

Flow simulation of CFD software provides total thrust and torque 1007 N and 311.19 Nm respectively.

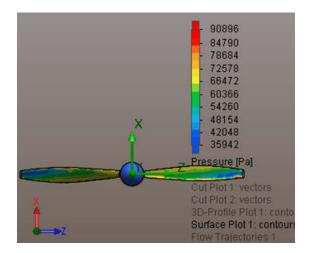


Figure 15 : Suction side pressure distribution (Upstream)

Here,

=

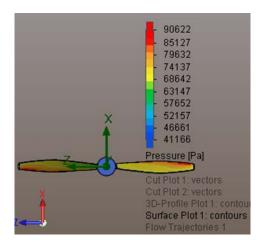


Figure 16 : Pressure side pressure distribution (Downstream)

Pressure distributions on the blade surface are plotted in Fig. 15 for suction side and Fig. 16 for pressure side. As seen, the pressure distributions show a typical pattern that a very high pressure gradient occurs at the leading and trialing edges.

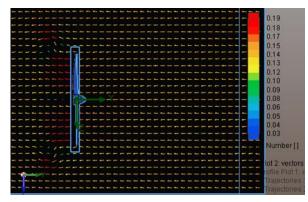


Figure 17: Velocity vector plot

Velocity vector plot in longitudinal plane is drawn in Fig. 17. As shown, due to the action of propeller, fluid is sucked to the propeller disk and starts to accelerate in front of the propeller toward downstream direction and there is swirling motion due to centrifugal action of the flow in the downstream.

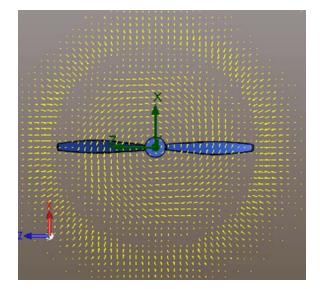


Figure 18: Cross flow vector behind propeller

Cross flows at propeller downstream are given in Fig. 15; a strong swirling flow can be seen. Finally, Fig. 19 shows velocity vector of the propeller blade on the top plane. It is seen that Mach no. is highest on the leading edge of the blade due to suction action of the propeller.

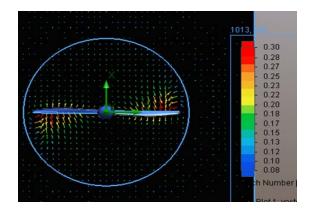


Figure 19: Velocity vector presenting Mach no

To have a general view of the flow pattern, the velocity vector plots are given in Fig. 20, 21, 22 for various distances from the root.

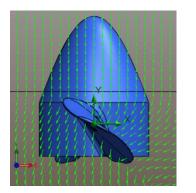


Figure 20 : Velocity vector at .5R section

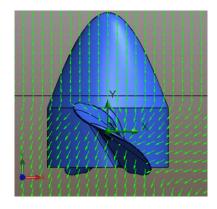


Figure 21 : Velocity vector at .7R section

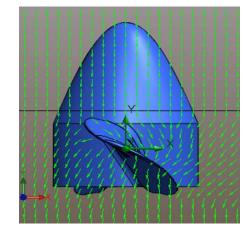


Figure 22 : Velocity vector at .9R section

The propeller sucks the flow in the opposite direction of the free stream flow and the free stream flow becomes slow down in front of the propeller. However, as seen in Figures.

Highest design RPM for our propeller is 4525 which limits Mach number to .85 at the tip of our propeller. So, it is in the transonic range 0.8-1.2, but it is desirable to drop the Mach no. to subsonic range when RPM decrease because of inconsistency of the supplied power to the propeller. In propeller design prospect, Mach no is tried to keep below .85 to avoid the shockwave due to the sonic flow around the propeller.

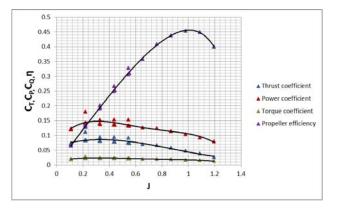


Figure 23 : Propeller coefficients vs advance ratio

From graph it is evident that highest thrust and power coefficient occur at lower advance ratio and efficiency is highest at higher advance ratio. For fixed blade propeller the pitch is fixed, angle of attack will decrease as the forward velocity of aircraft increases. Although this will result in an efficiency increase initially, further increasing the velocity will make the angle of attack zero and the Propeller will not be able to generate thrust which is avoidable by using variable pitch propeller. In the figure cruise point will be somewhere nears the point of highest efficiency, for which we will lose some thrust and power, but there still enough thrust and torque to propel the aircraft.

The performance graph of our propeller that we have obtained is similar to the characteristics graph of the propeller which is represented in Fig. 24.

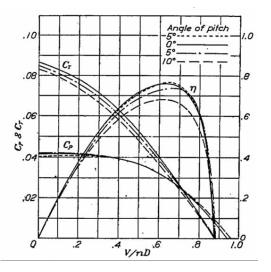


Figure 24 : Characteristics graph of propeller no. 4412

VI. CONCLUSION

From CFD analysis the thrust and torque for our propeller are 1007N and 311.19Nm which are 22.3% and 21.3% less than the theoretical calculated values. At 4525 RPM the propeller will provide maximum efficiency if the aircraft speed is 92ms-1 and there are 47% and 33.33% reduction in thrust and torque respectively than the maximum value that can be obtained by this propeller.

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A Thermal Modeling to Predict and Control the Cutting Temperature. The Simulation of Face-Milling Process

By Farida Benabid, Hocine Benmoussa & Mohamed Arrouf

University of Batna, Algeria

Abstract- This paper presents a new procedure to evaluate the cutting temperature milling. In HSM. The study of the thermal behavior is important because the life expectancy of a cutting tool is limited by its temperature: the higher the temperature, the shorter its life. Tests made on many uncoated tools at stand still, after milling, have shown that there is an important drop for the temperature measured values. This is due to the ventilation phenomenon which was created by the rotation of the mill, which, in turn, requires the knowledge of the global overall coefficient of heat transfer at the tool interface as a function of the cutting conditions in order to predict the cutting temperature. The performance of the model is compared to the analytically and numerically (FEM) determined performance and the results obtained are in good agreement [12].

Keywords: milling; nonlinear equivalent resistance; cutting temperature; finite difference method; modified lamped capacitance method.

GJRE-A Classification : FOR Code: 290501



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Keywords: milling; nonlinear equivalent resistance; cutting temperature; finite difference method; modified lamped capacitance method.

I. INTRODUCTION

uring machining, heat is generated at the cutting point from three sources. Those sources cause the developments of cutting temperature:

- Primary shear zone where the major part of energy is converted into heat.
- Secondary deformation zone at the chip-tool interface where further heat is generated due to rubbing and/or shear. At the worn out flanks due to rubbing between the tool and the finished surfaces. LOWEN and SHAW [1] have shown that the heat generated is shared by the chip, cutting tool and the workpiece.

The apportionment of sharing that heat depends upon the configuration, size and thermal conductivity of the tool-work material and the cutting condition. The maximum amount of heat is carried away by the flowing chip. From 10 to 20% of the total heat goes into the tool and some heat is absorbed in the workpiece [1]. With the increase in cutting velocity, the chip shares heat increasingly. The effect of the cutting temperature, particularly when it is high, is mostly detrimental to both the tool and the workpiece [2]. The major portion of the heat is taken away by the chips. So attempts should be made such that the chip takes away more and more amount of heat leaving small amount of heat to harm the tool and the work. The possible detrimental effects of the high cutting temperature on cutting tool edge are:

- Rapid tool wear, which reduces tool life, Plastic deformation of the cutting edges of the tool material is not enough hot-hard and hot strong.
- Thermal flaking and fracturing of the cutting edges due to thermal shocks.
- And the possible detrimental effects of cutting temperature on the workpiece are:
- Dimensional inaccuracy of the workpiece due to thermal distortion and expansion-contraction during and after machining.
- Surface damage by oxidation, rapid corrosion, burning etc.
- Cutting temperature can be determined by three ways:
- Analytically using mathematical models for thermal field which can be developed. This method is simple, quick, inexpensive but less accurate.
- Experimentally, this method is always used because it is more accurate, precise and reliable.
- Numerically, this technique is widely used tools for thermal machining simulation and benefits the reduction of the cost and increase technical performance. Many researchers have developed models and studied, mainly experimentally, on the effects of the various parameters on cutting temperature like: work material, process parameters, cutting tool material, tool geometry and cutting fluid. A well established overall empirical equation is:

$$T = \frac{0.4U}{\rho C} \left(\frac{\nu t_o}{K}\right)^{0.333} \tag{1}$$

Where T = temperature-rise at tool-chip interface; U = specific energy; v = cutting speed; t_o = chip thickness before cut; ρc = volumetric specific heat of work material; K = thermal conductivity of the work material.

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Author α σ ρ: Department of Mechanical Engineering, Faculty of Technology, University of Batna, Avenue Chahid Boukhlouf, M^{ed} El Hadi Batna 05000, Algeria. e-mail: fari_b2003@yahoo.fr

Recently, Lazohlu and Altintas4 [3] have applied the FDM, finite difference method, for the first time for the prediction of steady-state tool and chip temperature fields in continuous machining and transient temperature variation in interrupted cutting (milling) of different materials such as steels and aluminum alloys. A combination of grids in Cartesian coordinates for the chip and in cylindrical polar coordinates for the tool like in Refs5.[4]. The analytical approach to temperature modeling is difficult to apply to milling due to the intermittent cutting process and the varied thickness. Jaeger and Carslaw and Jaeger [5] introduced the heat source method for solving a variety of heat transfer problems for orthogonal cutting. The Jaeger moving heat source model has been modified and developed to represent the physical characteristics of peripheral milling, and has described how it can be applied in an industrial context to model workpiece temperatures due to peripheral milling. This intermittent heat is represented as a band of heat because the teeth move rapidly through the material and the time between cutting teeth is constant [6]. This model should be applicable to the milling of other materials such as titanium and carbon composites. The thermal impact to the cutting tool during heating is larger in down milling than in up milling [7].

Versions of a system equivalent circuit are commonly used in the manufacturing industry, due to its simplicity and its ability to provide reliable results,. This paper describes how it can be applied to model a tool when milling. The tool thermal model is based on the equivalent circuit. A simple RC circuit is employed to predict the cutting temperature. In the thermal model, all heat losses tool are represented by a current source injecting heat into the system. The capacitances are combined as one lumped capacitance. The thermal resistance is represented by a nonlinear term and the temperatures are represented as thermal potentials.

II. CUTTING TEMPERATURE CONTROL

Apart from photo cell technique and infrared photographic technique, cutting temperature can be

controlled and reduced as far as possible, in varying extent, by the well following general methods:

Tool work thermocouple technique, moving thermocouple technique which cannot be applicable in operations like milling, grinding etc., embedded thermocouple can serve the purpose. However, the standard thermocouple monitors the cutting temperature at a certain depth d from the cutting zone so the T(d) curve has to be extrapolated up to d=0 to get the actual milling zone temperature.

III. EXPERIMENTAL SET-UP

we purpose a new method to predict the cutting temperature by taking measurements of tool edge when the tool leave the work piece, at shutdown, almost 12s, the values Ti has to be very low, which is not possible, so the curve T (t) has to be extrapolated to correct the temperature drop during cooling, and would not be linear due to the rotating tool, which is not the same problem in turning. The problem of extrapolation is related to the adequate tool cooling. This in turn, requires the knowledge of the mechanism by which heat is transferred from tool edge to the surroundings [8], we also include some simple but useful equations of the lamped capacitance under thermal analogy, enabling us to determine with reasonable accuracy, the heat loss, temperature rise, equivalent resistance, etc., of tool cutting.

The thermal conductivity as function of temperature is taken into account as shown in fig.1.b.

A series of experiments were carried on mild steel specimens to measure tool temperature under different tools materials. The cutting tools were uncoated carbides; all operations were executed in dry conditions. The tests were executed at a cutting speed Vc ranging from 100 to 1000 m/min, and a feed rate ranging from 1 to 5 (mm/min). An infrared radiation pyrometer was placed at a distance Im from the rake face, we report some of the experimental results, concerning temperatures measurements of cooling mill as a function of short period of time where the cutting speed was decreasing, see fig.5.b.

Vc(m/min)	ae(mm)	ap(mm)	f(rd/s)	U(W/m ³ .s)
400	1	5	2547/60	4.5
	<i>Table 2 :</i> Tung	sten carbide therm	al properties	
Conductivity (W/mK)	Specific heat (J/kg.K)	Density (kg/m³)	Heat_Transfert coef (W/m²K)	Emissivity
174	130	19300	$h = 7 + \sqrt{\frac{Vc}{60}} [5]$	0.3

Table 1 : Cutting conditions

IV. MILL THERMAL MODEL BASED ON EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT

Due to its simplicity and ability to provide reliable results, we use an equivalent circuit.

In electricity and according to Ohm's law current which flow through it; in thermal, we broaden the meaning to describe the thermal behavior of a system or device when cooling or heating with its surroundings.

$$T = R_{th} q^n \tag{2}$$

T: thermal potential (°C), R_{th} : non linear thermal resistance (m²°C/W), q: thermal flux (W), n: indice

In contrast to an analytical solution, which allows for temperature determination at any point in the medium, a numerical solution enables determination temperature at only discrete points. The first step in any numerical analysis is to subdivide the mill (semi-infinite cylindrical form), 10 mm diameter, and 65mm length, into a number of small discs assigning to each a reference and involves 2 resistances by convection and conduction respectively, for one dimensional system, may take the form shown by the figure 1. The main is to calculate the equivalent resistance of single pin fin of rectangular profile.

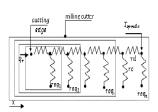


Fig. 1 : The equivalent resistance model

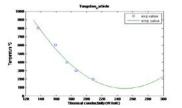


Fig. 2 : The temperature dependence of the thermal conductivity of tungsten carbide [5]

Recalling the definition of the conductive and convective resistance, that is:

$$rd = \frac{ep}{k.sf}$$
 and $rc = \frac{1}{h.sl}$ (3)

ep: disc thickness, sf and sl: frontal and lateral surfaces of the disc, respectively.

We can write the first equivalent resistance:

$$req_1 = \frac{rd.rc}{rd+rc}$$
 and $req_i = rd + \frac{req_{i-1}.rc}{req_{i-1}+rc}$

a) Rate of Convergence Analysis

As shown in the figure 3.a, the equivalent resistance model chosen converges for all cooling time, and the convergences values increase from the

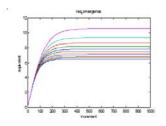


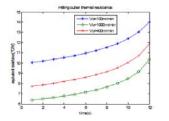
Fig. 3 : (a) Convergence of the equivalent resistance different times;

b) Modified lumped thermal capacitance method

Our objective is to develop procedures for determining the time dependence of the temperature distribution within the mill during transient process as well as for determining heat transfer between the mill and its surroundings. The nature of the procedure depends on assumptions that may be made for the process. The essence of the modified lumped capacitance method is the assumption that the temperature of the mill is not uniform at any instant during the transient process. This assumption implies that temperature gradient within Intel the first disc is Finally: $req_n = rd + \frac{req_{n-1} rc}{req_{n-1} + rc}$ (4)

beginning to the end of cooling [1s,12s]. Consequently, we can write the following expression:

$$req_n = req_{n-1}$$
 then $req_n = rd + \frac{req_n rc}{req_n + rc}$ (5)



(b) Equivalent resistance of milling cutter values for during cooling

negligible. This behavior is analogous to the voltage decay that occurs when a capacitor (first disc) is discharging through a nonlinear resistor (other discs) per conduction, convection and less degree per radiation. Fig.4.

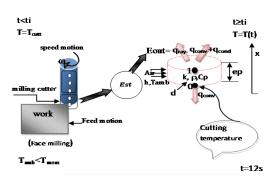


Fig. 4 : Disc node at one dimensional transient conduction with convection and radiation

$$\rho V c \frac{dT}{dt} = \left[\frac{1}{req(t)} + \frac{1}{r(t)} + \frac{1}{r'c(t)}\right] \left[T - T_{amb}\right] and T_{final} = T_{measured}$$
$$\frac{\Delta T}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{\tau(t)} \left[T - T_{amb}\right] \text{ and } T_i = T_{i-1} + \frac{T_{i-1} - T_{amb}}{\tau(t)}$$
(7)

With:
$$\frac{1}{\tau(t)} = \left[\frac{1}{req(t)} + \frac{1}{r(t)} + \frac{1}{r'c(t)}\right] \cdot \left[\frac{1}{\rho V C}\right]$$
 (8)

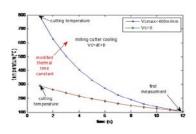
Where $\tau(t)$ may be interpreted as the *modified thermal constant time* and $\tau(t) = R(t)_t$. C_t (9)

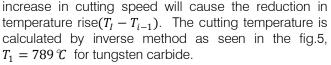
$$R(t) = req(t)//r(t)//r'c(t)$$
(10)

$$C = \rho V c$$
 and $h_r(t) = \varepsilon \sigma s_l (T + T_{sur}) (T^2 + T_{sur}^2)$

Where $h_r(t)$ is the heat transfer coefficient per radiation, ε is the emissivity of the uncoated carbide $\sigma = 5.67 * 10^{-8} W/m^2 K^4$: Stefan Boltzmann constant and $r'c = \frac{1}{h'sf}$ is a linear convective resistance.

Any increase in R(t) or in C will cause the mill to respond more slowly to changes in its thermal environment[10]. The non linear resistance is due to the turbulence produced by the revolving mill, thus any





The temperature of the spindle edge may also be measured by a thermometer.

The temperature of the cooling agent: air may be measured at a distance of 1m from the tool cutting.

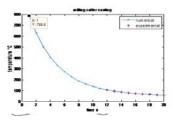


Fig. 5: Results of cutting temperature calculation using inverse method a) taking into account rotating speed b) temperature comparaison between experimental and calculated values

c) Validity of the purposed thermal model

The study of the cutting power is important because it gives us a clue how it may be reduced.

It is created by machine which may be evaluated by the product of the torque developed by the spindle times its rotational speed, this power is required to cut metal, and 98% was transformed into heat causing the cutting temperature to rise.

(14)

The cutting power is given by: $P_{cutt} = U.MRR$ (11)

MMR is the material removal rate. MRR = ae. ap. f (12)

If we suppose that the portion of cutting power go to the tool, we have: $P_{mill} = 10\% P_{cutt}$ (13)

To estimate the cutting temperature, we have: $T_{cutt} = U_{tot} P_{mill} + T_{amb}$

Where:
$$U_{tot} = \frac{1}{r_{eq}}$$
, the overall heat transfer coefficient $U_{tot} < h$ [10], We find: $T_{cutt} = 799 \, C$

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V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a simple and quick method is performed in order to calculate and control the cutting temperature in operation like milling:

The warmest up part in the milling cutter is the rake face. The hot spot temperature is rather difficult to measure because it has to be taken when the tool rotate and at a depth from the rake face where start the crater due to the higher temperatures, is in contact with the moving chip. Hence, the measurements were taken when the tool leave the work piece after 12s, at standstill, however, a large drop in temperature is found, which is corrected by the study of heat transfer in transient state, which, in turn, seems require the knowledge of the nonlinear equivalent resistance due to the turbulence created by the rotating mill. The equivalent resistance for a semi infinite cylinder as a function of time, is plotted with accuracy and it increase with the decreasing cutting speed, this because milling cutter blows air over to the surrounding [11]. The cooling curve is also plotted by inverse method both for two cases: when the mill rotates and if it does not and the cutting temperature is illustrated in fig.5.a and is in good agreement with equation 14. We can broaden the meaning of the equivalent resistance concept to predict the temperature for several cutting speeds provide that temperature at standstill must be taken. The precision of the thermal models depends on the exactitude of the parameters: thermal properties, cutting conditions: work and cutting material.

This brings us to very important conclusions: this method may succefully also be applied in drilling operation where radiation exchange cannot be neglected in this case. The performance of this model will reduce the need for expensive experimental measurements.

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Importance of Lathe Machine in Engineering Field and its usage

By Jahnavi Madireddy

MLR Institute of Technology, India

Introduction- The lathe, probably one of the earliest machine tools, is one of the most versatile and widely used machine tool, so also known as mother machine tool.

An engine lathe is the most basic and simplest form of the lathe. It is called so because in early lathes, power was obtained from engines.

The job to be machined is held and rotated in a lathe chuck; a cutting tool is advanced which is stationary against the rotating job. Since the cutting tool material is harder than the work piece, so metal is easily removed from the job.

Some of the common operations performed on a lathe are facing, turning, drilling, threading, knurling, and boring etc.

GJRE-A Classification : FOR Code: 290399p, 290501p



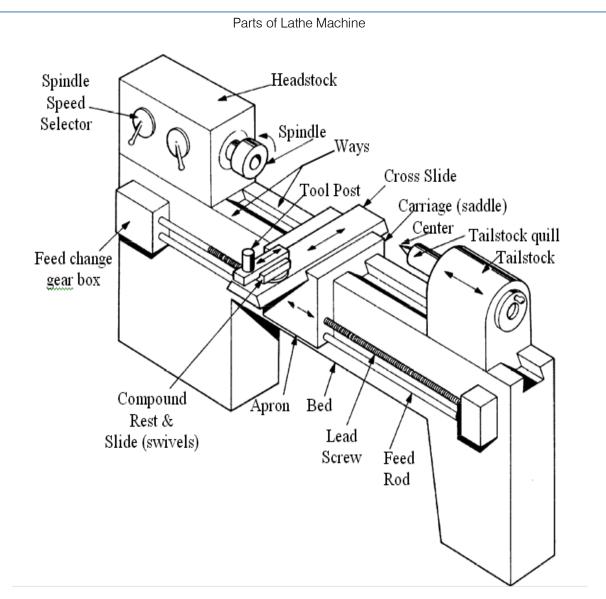
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Importance of Lathe Machine in Engineering Field and its usage

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I. INTRODUCTION

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Author: Shaili Gardenia, Yapral, J. J. Nagar Post, Telangana, MLR Institute of Technology, India. e-mail: mjahnavi216@gmail.com

II. LATHE MACHINE PARTS

Bed: Supports all other machine parts.

Carriage: Slides along the machine ways.

Head stock: Power train of system (spindle included).

Tail Stock: Fixes piece at end opposite to the head stock.

Swing: Maximum diameter of the machinable piece.

Lead screw: Controls the feed per revolution with a great deal of precision.

Lathe Tools: Left handed, Right handed, Threading, Boring, Groove, Parting (Cut-Off)



a) Cutting Speeds
 Typical Lathe Cutting Speeds:
 Nominal cuts

 -30 - 800 ft./min.

Roughing cuts

- Depth of cut greater then .02 in
- Feed speed of .008 .08 in/rev.

Finishing Cuts

- Lower than roughing cuts
- b) Turning Operations

Turning (Performed on lathe)

- Part is moving and tool is stationary.

Used to make parts of round cross section

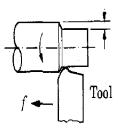
- Screws, shafts, pistons

Number of various lathe operations

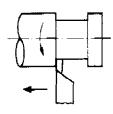
- Turning, facing, boring, drilling, parting, threading

III. LATHE OPERATIONS

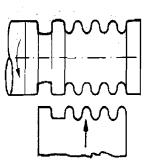
(a) Straight turning



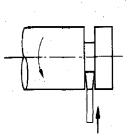
(d) Turning and external grooving

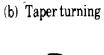


(g) Form tool



(j) Cutting off

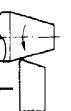




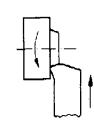
(c) Profiling

(f) Face grooving

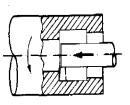
(i) Drilling



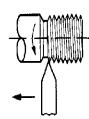
(e) Facing

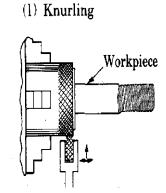


(h) Boring and internal grooving



(k) Threading





IV. Lathe -Plain Turing, Step Turning, Taper Turning, Knurling and Chamfering

In order perform various lathe operations such as plain turning, step turning, taper turning knurling and chamfering on a given material made of Mild steel. We need mild steel bar of 22 mm diameter and 95 mm length.

a) Tools and Equipment used
H.S.S. single point cutting tool,
Parting tool,
Knurling tool,

Chuckey,

Tool post key,

Outside caliper,

Steel rule.

b) Operation Chart

S No.	Sequence of Operations	Cutting Tool Used	
1.	Facing	H.S.S Single Point tool	
2.	Rough turning	H.S.S Single Point tool	
3	Finish turning	H.S.S Single Point tool	
4	Step turning	Parting tool	
5	Taper turning	H.S.S Single Point tool	
6	Knurling	Knurling tool	
7	Chamfering	H.S.S Single Point tool	
7	Drilling	H.S.S Drill bit	

V. Types of Operation

a) Facing Operation

Facing is the operation of machining the ends of a piece of work to produce a flat surface square with the axis. The operation involves feeding the tool perpendicular to the axis of rotation of the work piece.

A regular turning tool may be used for facing a large work piece. The cutting edge should be set at the same height as the center of the work piece. The tool is brought into work piece from around the center for the desired depth of cut and then is fed outward, generally by hand perpendicular to the axis of rotation of the work piece.

b) Rough Turning Operation

Rough turning is the operation of removal of excess material from the work piece in a minimum time by applying high rate of feed and heavy depth of cut. The depth of cut for roughing operations in machining the work ranges from 2 to 5 mm and the rate of feed is from 0.3 to 1.5 mm per revolution of the work.

c) Finish Turning Operation

It requires high cutting speed, small feed, and a very small depth of cut to generate a smooth surface. The depth of cut ranges from 0.5 to 1 mm and feed from 0.1 to 0.3 mm per revolution of the work piece.

d) Step Turning

Is the operation of making different diameters of desired length. The diameters and lengths are measured by means of outside caliper and steel rule respectively.

e) Taper Turning

A taper may be defined as a uniform increase or decrease in diameter of a piece of work measured along its length. In a lathe, taper turning means to produce a conical surface by gradual reduction in diameter from a cylindrical work piece.

A taper may be turned by any one of the following methods:

- i. Form tool method
- ii. Tail stock set over method
- iii. Swiveling the compound rest and
- iv. Taper turning attachment

Taper turning by swiveling the compound rest:

This method employs the principle of turning taper by rotating the work piece on the lathe axis and feeding the tool at an angle to the axis of rotation of the work piece. The tool mounted on the compound rest is attached to a circular base, graduated in degrees, which may be swiveled and clamped at any desired angle. Once the compound rest is set at the desired half taper angle, rotation of the compound slide screw will cause the tool to be fed at that angle and generate a corresponding taper.

The setting of the compound rest is done by swiveling the rest at the half taper angle. This is calculated by the equation.

Tan
$$\alpha = (D-d) / 2L$$

Where α = Half taper angle

f) Knurling

Knurling is the process of embossing a diamond shaped pattern of the surface of a work piece. The purpose of knurling is to provide an effective gripping surface on a work piece to proven it from slipping when operated by hand. Knurling is performed by a special knurling tool which consists of a set of hardened steel rollers in a holder with the teeth cut on their surface in a definite pattern. The tool is held rigidly on the tool post and the rollers are pressed against the revolving surface of work piece to squeeze the metal against the multiple cutting edges, producing depressions in a regular pattern on the surface of the work piece.

Knurling is done at the slowest speed and oil is flowed on the tool and work piece. Knurling is done at the slowest speed and oil is flowed on the tool and work piece to dissipate heat generated during knurling. The feed varies from 1 to 2 mm per revolution.

g) Chamfering

Chamfering is the operation of beveling the extreme end of a work piece. This is done to remove the burrs, to protect the end of the work piece from being damaged and to have a better look. The operation may be performed after the completion of all operations. It is an essential operation after thread cutting so that the nut may pass freely on the threaded work piece.

VI. METAL CUTTING PARAMETERS

The cutting speed of a tool is the speed at which the metal is removed by the tool from the work piece. In a lathe, it is the peripheral speed of the work past the cutting tool expressed in meters/minute

- a) Cutting speed (V) = π DN/1000, m/min
- Where, D = Diameter of the work in min

N = RPM of the work

b) Feed

The feed of a cutting tool in a Lathe work is the distance the tool advances for each revolution of the work. Feed is expressed in mm/rev.

c) Depth of cut

The depth is the perpendicular distance measured from the machined surface to the uncut surface of the work piece.

Depth of cut = (d1-d2) / 2

Where, d1 = Diameter of the work surface before machining

d2= Diameter of the work surface after machining

While using HSS tool for turning mild steel work piece. The following parameters are to be chosen.

d) Rough Turning Operation

Cutting speed (V) = 25m/min,

feed(f) = 0.2 mm/rev,

Depth of cut(t) = 1 mm

e) Finish turning operation

Cutting speed (V) = 40m/min,

feed(f) = 0.1 mm/rev,

Depth of cut(t) = 0.2 mm

f) Tool geometry

Back rake angle = 7° ,

End relief angle = 6°

Side relief angle = 6° ,

End cutting edge angle = 15°

Side cutting edge angle = 15° ,

Nose radius = 2 mm

VII. Procedure

- a) The work piece and HSS single point cutting tool are securely held in the chuck and tool post respectively.
- b) Operations such as facing, rough turning and finish turning are performed on a given mild steel bar one after the other in sequence up to the dimensions shown. Then the step turning is performed using parting tool.
- c) Then the compound rest is swiveled by calculated half taper angle and taper is generated on the work piece. Rotation of the compound slide screw will cause the tool to be fed at the half-taper angle.
- d) HSS single point cutting tool is replaced by the knurling tool and knurling operation is performed at the slowest speed of the spindle.

- e) The knurling tool is replaced by the HSS single point tool again; the work piece is removed from the chuck and refixed with the unfinished part outside the chuck. This part is also rough turned, finish turned and facing is done for correct length.
- f) Finally, the chamfering is done at the end of the work piece.

VIII. Precautions

- a) Operate the machine at optimal speeds
- b) Do not take depth of cut more than 2 mm.
- c) Knurling should be done at slow speeds and apply lubricating oil while knurling
- d) Care should be taken to obtain the required accuracy.

IX. LATHE - THREAD CUTTING

In order to V-thread cutting on a lathe forming right hand and left hand metric threads as shown in fig.

We require Mild steel bar of 24 mm diameter and 100 mm length.

a) Tools and Equipment

H.S.S. single point cutting tool,

Grooving tool,

Threading tool thread gauge,

Outside caliper,

Chuck key,

Tool post key,

Steel rule.

X. Operation Chart

S no.	Sequence of Operations	Cutting tool used	
1.	Facing	H.S.S Single Point	
		cutting tool	
2.	Rough turning	H.S.S Single Point	
		cutting tool	
3	Finish turning	H.S.S Single Point	
		cutting tool	
4	Step turning	H.S.S Single Point	
		cutting tool	
5	Grooving	Grooving tool	
6	Thread cutting	Threading tool	
7	Chamfering	H.S.S Single Point	
		cutting tool	

XI. PRINCIPLE OF THREAD CUTTING

The principle of thread cutting is to produce a helical groove on a cylindrical or conical surface by feeding the tool longitudinally when the job is revolved between centers or by a chuck. The longitudinal feed should be equal to the pitch of the thread to be cut per revolution of the work piece. The lead screw of the lathe, through which the saddle receives its traversing motion, 2014

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has a definite pitch. A definite ratio between the longitudinal feed and rotation of the head stock spindle should therefore be found out so that the relative speeds of rotation of the work and the lead screw will result in the cutting of a screw of the desired pitch.

This is affected by change gears arranged between the spindle and the lead screw or by the change gear mechanism or feed box used in a modern lathe.

a) Calculation of change-wheels, metric thread on English lead screw

To calculate the wheels required for cutting a screw of certain pitch, it is necessary to know how the ratio is obtained and exactly where the driving and driven wheels are to be placed. Suppose the pitch of a lead screw is 12 mm and it is required to cut a screw of 3 mm pitch, then the lathe spindle must rotate 4 times the speed of the lead screw that is

<u>Spindle turn</u> = <u>Driven teeth</u> Lead screw turn = Driver teeth

Hence we may say,

Driven teeth=Lead screw turn pitch of the screw to be cutDriver teethspindle turn pitch of the lead screw

In British System

Driven teeth Driver teeth <u>Threads per inch on lead screw</u> Threads per inch on work

Often engine lathes are equipped with a set of gears ranging from 20 to 120 teeth in steps of 5 teeth and one translating gear of 127 teeth. The cutting of metric threads on a lathe with an English pitch lead screw may be carried out by a translating gear of 127 teeth.

Driver teeth Where, p = pitch of the thread to be cut and

N= threads per inch on lead screw

Driven teeth

This is derived as follows:

pitch of the work

pitch of the lead screw

Driven teeth Driver teeth

r teeth =

= p (1/n) x (127/5)

Since, pitch = $\frac{1}{No. of threads per inch}$

XII. THREAD CUTTING OPERATION

In a thread cutting operation, the first step is to remove the excess material from the work piece to make its diameter equal to the major diameter of the screw thread. Change gears of correct size are then fitted to the end of the bed between the spindle and the lead screw.

The shape or form of the thread depends on the shape of the cutting tool to be used. In a metric thread, the included angle of the cutting edge should be ground exactly 60° . The top of the tool nose should be set at the same height as the center of the work piece. A thread tool gauge is usually used against the turned surface to check the cutting tool, so that each face of the tool may be equally inclined to the center line of the work piece as shown.

The speed of the spindle is reduced by one half to one – fourth of the speed require for turning according to the type of the material being machined and the half – nut is then engaged. The depth of cut usually varies from 0.05 to 0.2 mm is given by advancing the tool perpendicular to the axis of the work.

5pn

127

5 pn

After the tool has produced a helical groove up to the desired length of the work, the tool is quickly withdrawn by the use of the cross slide, the half-nut disengaged and the tool is brought back to the starting position to give a fresh cut. Before re-engaging the halfnut it is necessary to ensure that the tool will follow the same path it has traversed in the previous cut, otherwise the job will be spoiled. Several cuts are necessary before the full depth of thread is reached arising from this comes the necessity to "pick-up" the thread which is accomplished by using a chasing dial or thread indicator.

a) Chasing dial or thread indicator

The chasing dial is a special attachment used in modern lathes for accurate "picking up" of the thread. This dial indicates when to close the split of half nuts. This is mounted on the right end of the apron. It consists of a vertical shaft with a worm gear engaged with the lead screw. The top of the spindle has a revolving dial marked with lines and numbers. The dial turns with the lead screw so long the half nut is not engaged.

If the half-nut is closed and the carriage moves along the dial stands still. As the dial turns, the graduations pass a fixed reference line. The half-nut is closed for all even threads when any line on the dial coincides with the reference line. For all odd threads, the half-nut is closed at any numbered line on the dial determined from the charts. If the pitch of the thread to be cut is an exact multiple of the pitch of the lead screw, the thread is called even thread, if otherwise the thread is odd thread.

In a chasing dial, the rule for determining the dial division is: In case of metric threads, the product of the pitch of lead screw and the no. of teeth on the worm wheel must be an exact multiple of the pitch of the threads to be cut. In case of English threads, the product of the threads per inch to be cut and the number of teeth on the worm wheel must be an exact multiple of the number of threads per inch of the lead screw. For example, if the pitch of the lead screw is 6 mm and the worm wheel has 15 teeth.

The product will be 90. so any pitch which is exactly divisible by 90, such as 1, 1.25, 2.25,3,3.75,4.5,5,6,7.5,9,10,15,30,45,90 may be picked up when any line of the dial coincides with the reference line.

b) Right hand and left-hand thread

If the bolt advances into the nut when rotated in clockwise direction, the thread is called right-hand thread. When cutting a right-hand thread the carriage must move towards the head stock.

If the bolt advances into the nut when rotated in counter-clockwise direction, the thread is called lefthand, for a left hand thread the carriage moves away from the head stock and towards the tail stock. The job moves as always in the anti-clock wise direction when viewed from the tail stock end. The direction at which the carriage moves in relation to lathe head stock is controlled by means of the tumbler gears or bevel gear feed reversing mechanism.

XIII. Procedure

- a) The work piece and HSS single point cutting tool are fixed in chuck and tool post respectively.
- b) Operations such as facing, rough turning finish turning and step turning are performed on the given mild steel bar one after the other in sequence up to the dimensions shown.
- c) Single point cutting tool is replaced by a grooving tool and grooving operation is performed at half of the normal spindle speed.
- d) The grooving tool is replaced by a threading tool. Right hand and left hand metric threads are cut on

the work piece up to the required length at $1/4^{th}$ of the normal speed of the spindle.

e) Threading tool replaced by a single point cutting tool again and finally chamfering is done at right end of the work piece at normal spindle speed.

XIV. Precautions

- a) Low spindle speeds should be used for accurate threads in thread cutting operation.
- b) Ensure correct engage and dis-engage of half-nut.
- c) Plenty of oil should be flowed on the work and tool during thread cutting.

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Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or similar. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. This in turn will make it more likely to be viewed and/or cited in a further work. Global Journals Inc. (US) have compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Key Words

A major linchpin in research work for the writing research paper is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and Internet resources.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy and planning a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Search engines for most searches, use Boolean searching, which is somewhat different from Internet searches. The Boolean search uses "operators," words (and, or, not, and near) that enable you to expand or narrow your affords. Tips for research paper while preparing research paper are very helpful guideline of research paper.

Choice of key words is first tool of tips to write research paper. Research paper writing is an art.A few tips for deciding as strategically as possible about keyword search:



- One should start brainstorming lists of possible keywords before even begin searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.
- It may take the discovery of only one relevant paper to let steer in the right keyword direction because in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.
- One should avoid outdated words.

Keywords are the key that opens a door to research work sources. Keyword searching is an art in which researcher's skills are bound to improve with experience and time.

Numerical Methods: Numerical methods used should be clear and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Acknowledgements: Please make these as concise as possible.

References

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Tables: Tables should be few in number, cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g. Table 4, a self-explanatory caption and be on a separate sheet. Vertical lines should not be used.

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26. Go for seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.

27. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give rest to your mind by listening to soft music or by sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory.

28. Make colleagues: Always try to make colleagues. No matter how sharper or intelligent you are, if you make colleagues you can have several ideas, which will be helpful for your research.

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30. Think and then print: When you will go to print your paper, notice that tables are not be split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

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Approach:

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Approach

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- Make a decision if the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory, and whether or not it was correctly restricted.
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Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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