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MECHANICAL AND MECHANICS ENGINEERING



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Design and Analysis of Pressure Die Casting Die for Automobile Component

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Abstract- This paper describes one of the ways for the design and analysis of the die of the technology of pressure die casting process. This paper is to maintain the closest tolerances, reduced all machining and can make the process the optimum choice for small volume production as well. Such exact and light parts are one of the premises for the automobile industry, parts with a lightweight design and exact products directly influence the fuel consumption of an automobile and consequently the users are satisfied. These requirements are met using aluminium alloys, high strength steels and fibre reinforced for the structural components. In this work a die was designed based on factors to be considered in the critical dimensions and filling analysis is used to determine the size, location and to ensure a complete and balanced filling of the part while designing for proper runner system. This work uses different software such as Solid Works, 3-Dimensional Flow, Pro-Engineer respectively. The design, analysis, and testing work are carried at Automotive Private Limited, Gurgaon, Haryana.

Keywords: *pressure die casting, automobile industry, aluminium alloys, solid works, 3-dimensional flow, pro-engineer.*

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Design and Analysis of Pressure Die Casting Die for Automobile Component

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Abstract- This paper describes one of the ways for the design and analysis of the die of the technology of pressure die casting process. This paper is to maintain the closest tolerances, reduced all machining and can make the process the optimum choice for small volume production as well. Such exact and light parts are one of the premises for the automobile industry, parts with a lightweight design and exact products directly influence the fuel consumption of an automobile and consequently the users are satisfied. These requirements are met using aluminium alloys, high strength steels and fibre reinforced for the structural components. In this work a die was designed based on factors to be considered in the critical dimensions and filling analysis is used to determine the size, location and to ensure a complete and balanced filling of the part while designing for proper runner system. This work uses different software such as Solid Works, 3-Dimensional Flow, Pro-Engineer respectively. The design, analysis, and testing work are carried at Automotive Private Limited, Gurgaon, Haryana.

Keywords: pressure die casting, automobile industry, aluminium alloys, solid works, 3-dimensional flow, pro-engineer.

I. INTRODUCTION

Die casting is a manufacturing process that can produce geometrically complex metal parts through the use of reusable molds, called dies. The die casting process involves the use of a furnace, die casting machine, metal and die. Die casting differs from ordinary permanent-mold casting in that the molten metal is forced into the molds by pressure and held under pressure during solidification. The die casting machines are mainly categorized into two - hot chamber machines are used for alloys with low melting temperatures, such as zinc, and cold chamber machines are used for alloys with high melting temperatures, such as aluminium [1-2]. Most die castings are made from non-ferrous metals and alloys, but substantial quantities of ferrous die castings now are being produced. Because of the combination of metal molds or dies, and pressure, fine sections and excellent detail can be achieved, together with long mold life. Die-casting dies are usually made from hardened tool steel they are expensive to make [3]. Semisolid die casting process used to improve the mechanical properties of aluminium alloy parts by substituting aluminium alloy for

steel to improve the fuel efficiency parts and verified it by experiments [4]. The casting defects that existed include cold fills dross and alumina skins. The batches of specimen varying in runner and sprue design were analyzed. It was found that there were no significant variations in the fatigue strength between the acceptable and non-acceptable components [5]. The integrated system reduced the lead time and shortened the cycle time of die design resulting in an increase in productivity by integrating Computer Aided Design and Manufacturing system [6]. The conventional gating design, casting defects such as shrinkage and gas porosities was found in front axle housing a critical automotive component. This part is made out of spheroid graphite iron. A flawed gating system was considered to be the reason for improper fluid flow and melt solidification which in turn produced casting defects [7-8]. Computer aided die design system that comprises seven modules. The system proved useful to reduce the time required for the design of an ejector, die-base and gating [9]. The quality of the casting was reduced as the density decreases proportionally to the amount of porosity leading to higher rejection rates. It was found that there was non-uniform cooling of the component due to which the present design of the runner and gating system was studied thoroughly, and the flow simulation results had also proven the above said defects [10-11]. The objectives of this project is to design a die, develop tools and gating system to identify defects such as shrinkage cavities, gas defects, pouring material defects, mould material defects and take measures to minimize flaws by using Computer Aided Engineering software. This paper is organized based on different sections; the first section describes the literature survey, followed by problem formulation and objectives. The methodology are slated, the fourth section explores on design calculations for the automotive component, the design are analysed in this section, results and discussion is explained, and the concluding remark is given in this section.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The material to be used is ADC 12. This material is an international standard composition of aluminium die-casting alloys in Japan, and the composition of the material and properties are LM 24 in British standard, A 383 in American standard and DIN 226 in German standard. All these materials are to be used while

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designing the core and cavity after adding material shrinkage value to the component geometry. The core and cavity are the parts of the die that provide the internal and external shape of the component in which

the core is the male part of the die and forms internal shape of the component, and the cavity is the female part of the die it forms the external shape of the component.

Table 1: Component Details

COMPONENT NAME	CYLINDER HEAD COVER
Quantity required	20,000 per month
Material	ADC 12
Density	2.7 g/cm ³
Shrinkage	0.5%
Volume of the component	217.553cm ³ = 217,553 mm ³
Weight of the component	330.0 g
Projected area	7900.0 mm ²
Draft angle	5 degrees
Function	Closing the top of the cylinder head

a) Methods

These are the following steps used while designing the component:

1. The component is identified and all relevant information required for design is collected.
2. The number of cavities is decided based on yearly requirement.
3. Identical components are grouped in the unit die.
4. The design calculations are done to find the suitable machine
5. Details of machine are collected
6. Component parting line was being decided based on part geometry, ejection, and aesthetics.
7. The runner, gate dimensions and type are selected based on the part geometry, cavity location.
8. The type of ejection will be selected based on aesthetics, parting line location, part geometry, etc.
9. The amount of heat being injected into the die will be calculated and the suitable cooling system is provided.
10. 3-Dimensional modelling of the die, gate design, and core cavity extraction will be conducted using Solidworks software by considering shrinkage of material.
11. Assembly and part drawings are to be made in 2-Dimensional using Solidworks software.
12. Part drawings will be carefully checked at the end and approved.

i. Design Calculations

➤ Number of Cavities

Production required per month: 20,000 per month (Die will be loading only for 5days)

Number of component per day: 4000

Number of shifts per day: 3

Number of shots per shift = $8 \times 60 / \text{Cycle time}$.
 = $8 \times 60 / 0.5$
 = 960 shots

Number of component per shot = $4000 / (3 \times 960)$
 = **1.0**

Hence we have to use a **single cavity** die.

➤ Tonnage Requirement

Projected area of the component = 7900mm²
 Projected area including overflows and feed system

= 7900×1.5

= 11850mm²

Specific Injection pressure = 600 kgf/cm² = 600×10^{-2} kgf/ mm²

Total force acting on the die plate = Projected area x Injection Pressure

= $7900 \times 600 \times 10^{-2}$

= 47400 kgf

= 47.4 T

Considering machine efficiency of 80%, Locking tonnage required = 47.4×1.2

= **57T**

Hence according to locking tonnage ranges, we can select **80 T** machine.

➤ Shot Weight

Component volume = 217,553 mm³

Volume of component + Volume of overflow and feed system (excluding Biscuit)

= $217,553 \times 1.2$

= 261,063.6 mm³

Actual shot volume = $261,063.6 + \pi d^2 h / 4$

Where **h** is biscuit thickness, and **d** is the plunger diameter Stroke length for 80 T machine = 250 mm

Effective stroke length = 250 – biscuit thickness

= $250 - 25$

= 225 mm

Assume fill ratio = 0.50

Volume delivered by machine

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \pi d^2 \times (225/4) \times 0.5 \\
 261,063.6 + \pi d^2 \times (225/4) \times 0.5 &= \pi d^2 \times (225/4) \\
 261,063.6 &= 88.40625 d^2 \\
 d^2 &= 2953 \text{ mm}^2 \\
 \mathbf{d} &= \mathbf{54.3 \text{ mm}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Available plunger sizes in **80 T** machines are 35, 45, and 55 mm Hence we can select **55 mm** plunger tip

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Shot volume} &= 261,063.6 + \pi d^2 h/4 \\
 &= 261,063.6 + \pi (54.3)^2 \times 25/4 \\
 &= 261,063.6 + \pi (54.3)^2 \times 25/4 \\
 &= 261,063.6 + 57,900.97 \\
 &= 318,964.57 \text{ mm}^3
 \end{aligned}$$

Shot weight = Shot volume x density

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 318,964.57 \times 2.7 \times 10^{-3} \\
 &= 861.2\text{g} \quad = \mathbf{0.9\text{kg}}
 \end{aligned}$$

➤ Fill Ratio

$$\text{Fill ratio} = \frac{\text{Shot sleeve volume}}{\text{Metal volume}}$$

$$318,964.57 = \pi (55)^2 \times (225/4) \times y \quad y = \mathbf{0.6}$$

This value for fill ratio is acceptable for the process

➤ Fill Time

$$\text{Fill Time} = \frac{K[T_i - T_f + sz] T}{[T_f - T_d]}$$

Where

k empirically derived constant = 0.0346

T_i, Temperature of molten metal as it enters the die = 6500c

T_f, Minimum flow temperature of metal = 5700c

T_d, Temperature of die cavity surface just before the metal enters = 2000c

S, percent solid fraction allowable in the metal at the end of filling = 30%

Z, Units conversion factor = 3.8

T, casting wall thickness = 3 mm

$$\begin{aligned}
 t &= \frac{0.0346[650 - 570 + 30 \times 3.8] \times 3}{[570 - 200]} \\
 &= 0.054 \text{ second} \\
 &= \mathbf{54 \text{ milli seconds}}
 \end{aligned}$$

ii. *PQ2 Calculations*

Maximum (Hydraulic) Accumulator Pressure = 150kgf/cm²

Diameter of (hydraulic) cylinder = 130 mm

Plunger diameter = 55 mm

Dry Shot Velocity (DSV) = 4.5 m/sec

➤ Maximum Static Metal Pressure

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{\text{MAP} \times (\text{Cylinder Dia})^2}{(\text{Plunger Dia})^2} \\
 &= 150 \times (130)^2 / (55)^2 \\
 &= \mathbf{838.02\text{kgf/cm}^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

➤ Dry Shot Flow Rate

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (\text{Plunger Dia})^2 \times \pi \times \text{DSV}/4 \\
 &= (55)^2 \times \pi \times 4.5 \times 103/4 \\
 &= 10,692,618.75 \text{ mm}^3/\text{sec} \\
 &= \mathbf{10,692.62 \text{ cm}^3/\text{sec}}
 \end{aligned}$$

➤ Max. Metal Pressure (lines)

$$= \frac{\text{Density} \times \text{Gv}^2}{2g \times \text{Cd}^2}$$

Where

Gv is maximum gate velocity = 400cm/s (recommended)

g is acceleration due to gravity = 981 cm/sec

Cd is coefficient of discharge = 0.4

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{2.58 \times (4000)^2}{2 \times 981 \times (0.4)^2} \\
 &= 131,498.5 \text{ gf/cm}^2 \\
 &= \mathbf{131.5 \text{ kgf/cm}^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

➤ Min. Metal Pressure (lines)

$$= \frac{\text{Density} \times \text{Gv}^2}{2g \times \text{Cd}^2}$$

Gv is the minimum gate velocity = 2500cm/s (NADCA recommended)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{2.58 \times (2500)^2}{2 \times 981 \times (0.4)^2} \\
 &= 51,366.6 \text{ gf/cm}^2 \\
 &= \mathbf{51.4 \text{ kgf/cm}^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

➤ Flow rate (fill rate), Q

(A theoretical minimum fill rate that can be used to produce the highest quality casting)

= Volume (casting and overflow) of metal (passing) through Gate /Fill time

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 261,063.6 / 0.054 \\
 &= 4,834,511.111 \text{ mm}^3/\text{sec}
 \end{aligned}$$

➤ Runner Design

Runner Area (A) = 1.3Ag

$$= 69 \times 1.3$$

$$= 86.7 \text{ mm}^2$$

$$\text{Depth (D)} = \sqrt{A/0.8}$$

$$= 10.42\text{mm}$$

$$\text{Width} = 2D = \mathbf{20.84 \text{ m}}$$

P-Q² GRAPH

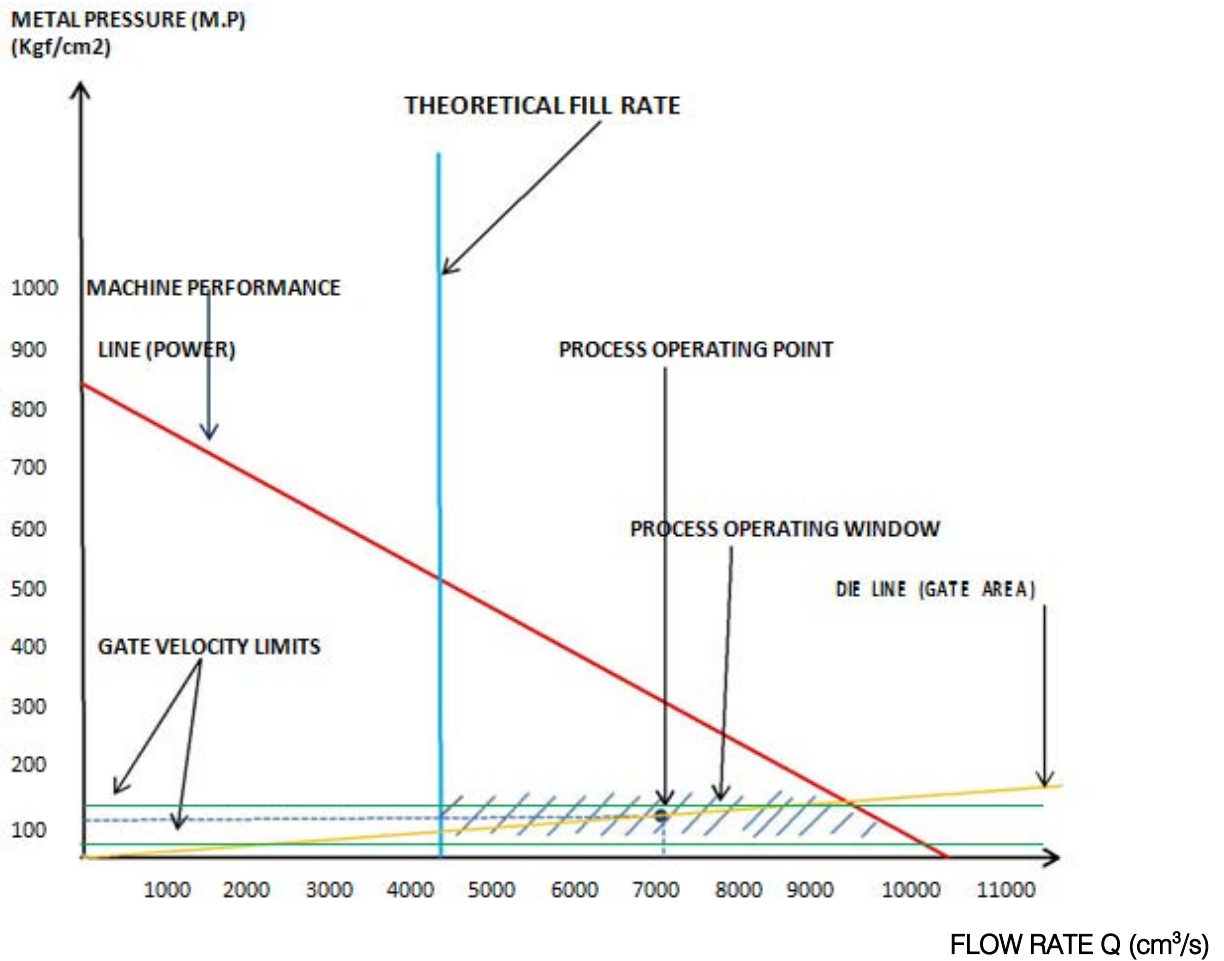


Figure 2.1 : P-Q2 Diagram

From PQ2 graph,

$$P = 91.5 \text{ kgf/cm}^2$$

$$Q = 7,255.7 \text{ cm}^3/\text{sec}$$

Therefore

$$A_g = \frac{Q}{C_d \sqrt{\rho \cdot 2g/\rho}}$$

$$= \frac{7255.7}{0.4 \sqrt{(91.5 \times 2 \times 981/2.58)}}$$

$$= 0.6877 \text{ cm}^2$$

$$= \mathbf{69 \text{ mm}^2}$$

Therefore area of the gate = 69 mm²

Gate thickness = 3mm (will produce atomization)

Gate length hence = 23mm

iii. Cooling Calculation

Heat input = hGn

h is the heat factor = 145 Kcal/kg for Aluminum

n is the number of shots = 120 per hour

G is weight of casting, overflow and feed system

$$= 705\text{g}$$

$$= 0.705\text{kg}$$

$$\text{Therefore Heat input} = 145 \times 0.705 \times 120$$

$$= 12,267 \text{ kcal/hr}$$

50 % of heat is lost by convection to atmosphere and by spray cooling

$$\text{Heat accumulated} = 12,267 \times 50/100$$

$$= 6,133.5 \text{ kcal/hr}$$

$$\text{Heat removing capacity} = 35 \text{ kcal/hr}$$

$$\text{Length of cooling line} = 6,133.5/35$$

$$= \mathbf{175 \text{ mm}}$$

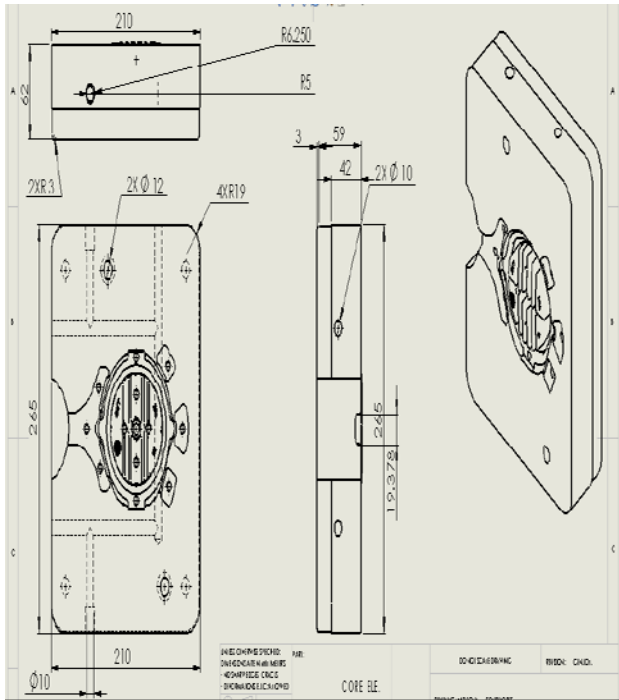


Figure 2.1.1 : Core Insert

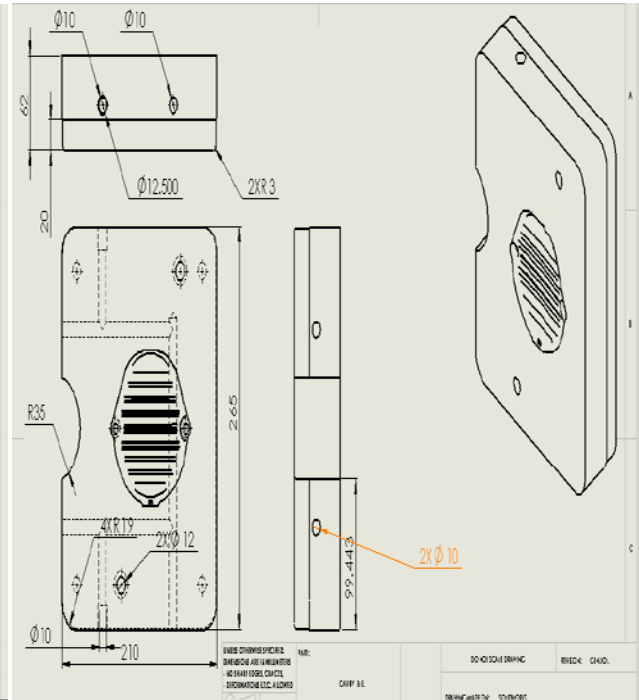


Figure 2.1.2 : Cavity Insert

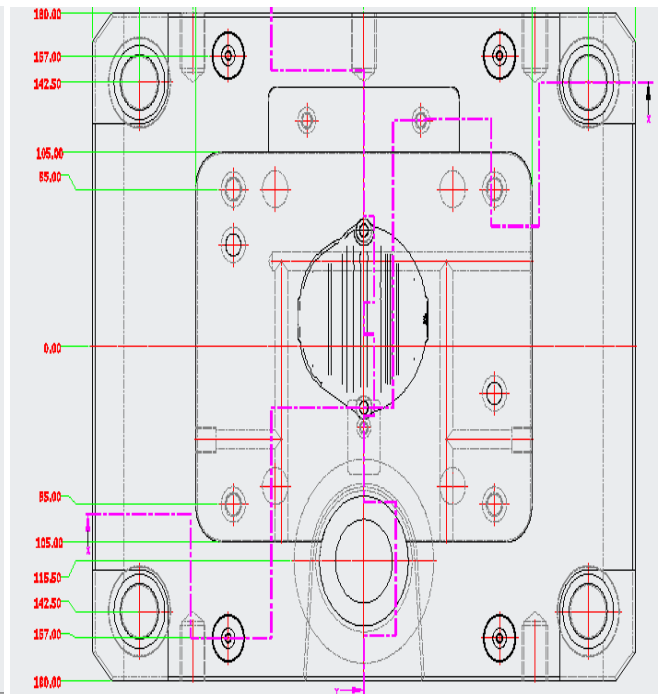
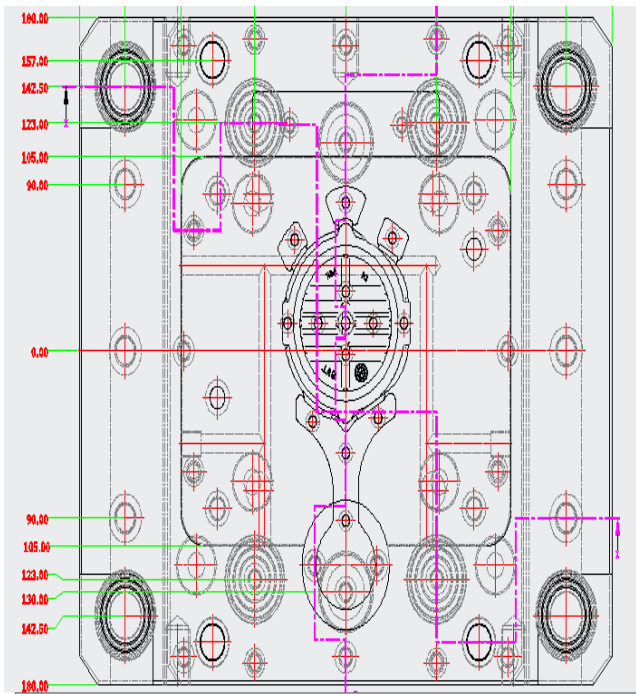


Figure 2.1.3 : Tool Cavity & Core Assembly

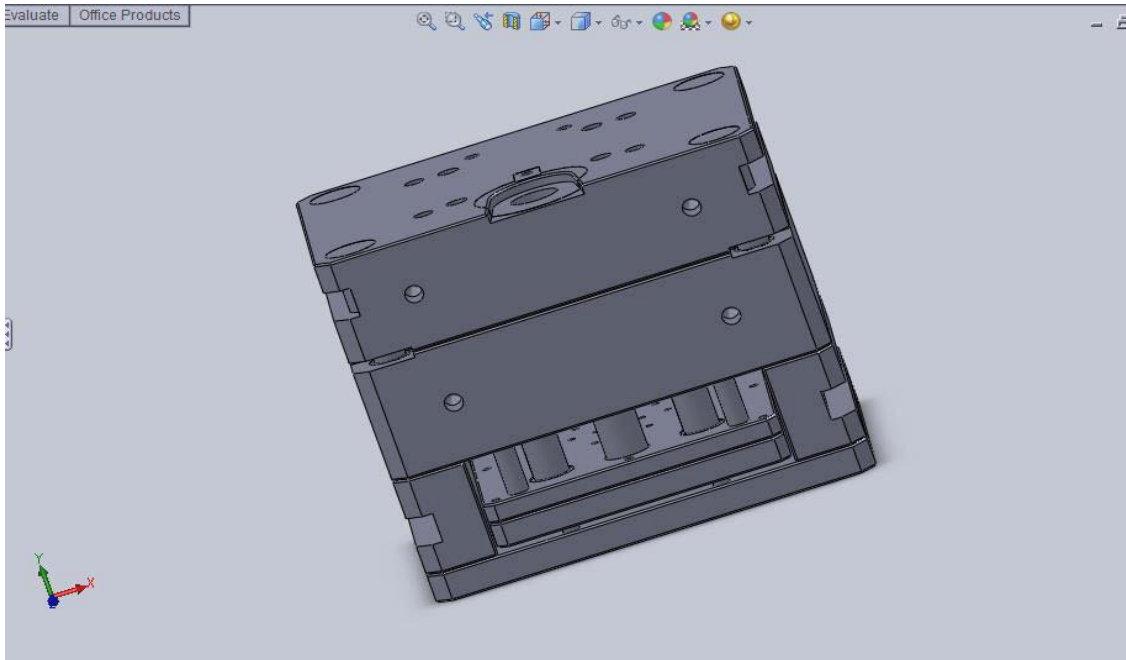


Figure 2.1.4 : Assembled Die Tool

III. ANALYSIS

A comprehensive analysis of each factor entering in the die casting process is needed to be done since each factor is susceptible to affect the ready casting in a negative way. The die casting technology makes the thin-walled castings having a high dimensional and geometrical precision. These are to handle the whole die casting process to control all aspect associated with the process to prevent wastage

while casting. The geometrical, structural, dimensional and superficial requests are considered as a waste if the casting which doesn't fulfil the factors to be considered. In this case, a short with vertical and horizontal part ribs arrangement was considered in which the 3Dflow behaviours was analysed. The following results at the different filling time were observed when the process started.

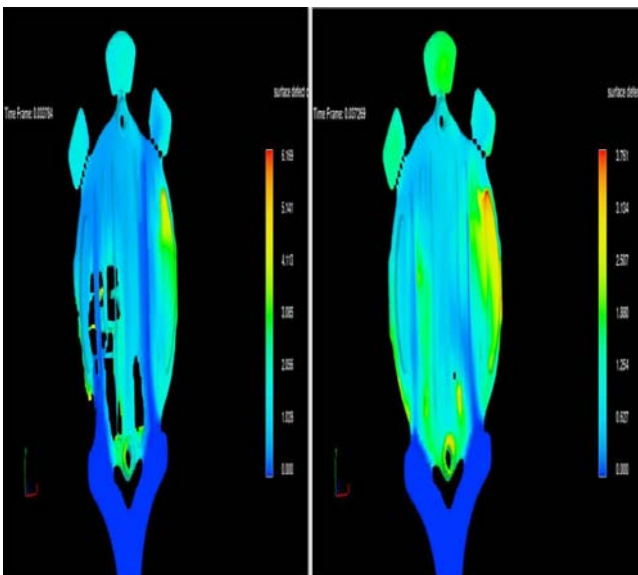


Figure 3.01 : Vertical Arrangements of Part

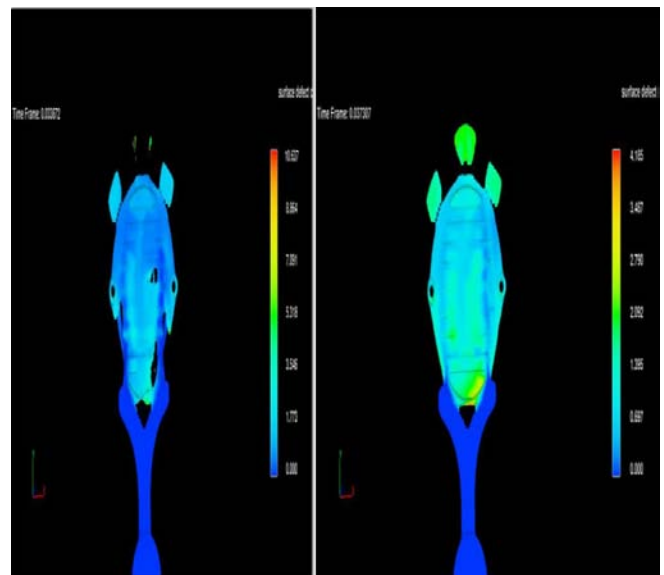


Figure 3.02 : Horizontal Arrangements of Part

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The process started at initial for both cases and terminated at 3.810 and 4.214 seconds for vertical arrangement and a horizontal one. The analysis shows that the air porosity defect rate is more in the vertical arrangement than the horizontal arrangement. The outstanding volume of the shot sleeve is filled with air. Both design and analysis research shows that the

motion of the plunger, the shot sleeve dimensions and the initial amount of metal in the sleeve all affect the types of waves which are created during the process. The results summary of the tool design parameters which are the multiple functions of other design parameters upon which the design was made in Table 2 below.

Table 2 : Results Summary

NO. OF CAVITIES	1
TONNAGE REQUIREMENT	80 T
SHOT WEIGHT	0.9kg
FILL RATIO	0.6
FILL TIME	54 milliseconds
MAX. STATIC PRESSURE	838.02kgf/cm ²
DRY SHOT FLOW RATE	10,692.62 cm ³ /sec
MAX. METAL PRESSURE	131.5 kgf/cm ²
MIN. METAL PRESSURE	51.4 kgf/cm ²
FLOW RATE	4,834.5 cm ³ /sec
METAL PRESSURE (P)	P = 91.5 kgf/ cm ²
FLOW RATE (Q)	Q = 7,255.7 cm ³ /sec
GATE AREA	69 mm ²
GATE LENTH	23mm
RUNNER SIZE	L=86.7 mm ² , D= 10.42mm, W= 20.84 mm

V. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE SCOPE

The aim of this paper has been achieved successfully considering all the critical dimensions. The size of the component is essential to any die design because it gives the actual picture of what a die designer wanted to achieve. Careful gate calculations are made to avoid any turbulent motion of the material.

The filling pattern of the molten aluminium is shown, and melt enters the gate and starts filling the cavity after 0.5s. Then the rest of the mould cavities will be filled up. The simulation demonstrates the importance of calculating the filling of the casting in the aluminium casting process. Simulation gives actual valuable information to the manufacturer what will be the final quality of the product. In this research, few process parameters were considered in the analysis for

optimization. But this work can be extended, and other parameters such as molten metal, speed, discharge pressure, temperature and cavity fill rate, cooling rate, pq^2 relations can be considered for the purpose of optimization.

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Application of Pressure Control Type Quasi-Servo Valve to Force Control System

By Yoshinori Moriwake, Shujiro Dohta, Tetsuya Akagi & So Shimooka

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Abstract- Today, the aged people are rapidly increasing and the number of children is decreasing in Japan. This social problem causes the demand of the care and welfare equipments to support a nursing and a self-reliance for the senior. For example, a power assist device for reducing the burden of the user has been researched and developed. The purpose of this study is to develop a small and light-weight pneumatic control valve and to apply it to the care and welfare equipments. In our previous study, the small-sized quasi-servo valve using two inexpensive on/off valves was developed and tested. The pressure control type quasi-servo valve was also proposed and tested by using the quasi-servo valve, a pressure sensor and an embedded controller. In this paper, the pressure control type quasi-servo valve is applied to a force control of the pneumatic cylinder, and its control performance is investigated.

Keywords: *quasi-servo valve, pneumatic cylinder, force control.*

GJRE-A Classification : *FOR Code: 290501*



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Application of Pressure Control Type Quasi-Servo Valve to Force Control System

Yoshinori Moriwake ^α, Shujiro Dohta ^σ, Tetsuya Akagi ^ρ & So Shimooka ^ω

Abstract- Today, the aged people are rapidly increasing and the number of children is decreasing in Japan. This social problem causes the demand of the care and welfare equipments to support a nursing and a self-reliance for the senior. For example, a power assist device for reducing the burden of the user has been researched and developed. The purpose of this study is to develop a small and light-weight pneumatic control valve and to apply it to the care and welfare equipments. In our previous study, the small-sized quasi-servo valve using two inexpensive on/off valves was developed and tested. The pressure control type quasi-servo valve was also proposed and tested by using the quasi-servo valve, a pressure sensor and an embedded controller. In this paper, the pressure control type quasi-servo valve is applied to a force control of the pneumatic cylinder, and its control performance is investigated.

Keywords: quasi-servo valve, pneumatic cylinder, force control.

I. INTRODUCTION

Today, the care and welfare pneumatic devices to support a nursing care and a self-reliance of the senior and the disabled are actively researched and developed by many researchers [1][2]. These wearable devices require many control valves for multi degrees of freedom and precise control performance of the wearable actuator. However, by increasing the degree of freedom, the total weight load of the wearable devices increases too. Therefore, we aim to develop a small-sized, light-weight and low-cost quasi-servo valve using on/off valves to decrease the burden of the user instead of expensive and bulky conventional electro-pneumatic servo valves. In our previous study [3], an inexpensive pressure control type quasi-servo valve using a low-cost embedded controller and a pressure transducer was proposed and tested. In addition, the compensation for decrease of output flow rate was proposed to improve the pressure control performance of the valve. An analytical model of the pressure control type quasi-servo valve including the embedded controller was also proposed. The control performance of the valve using P and PD controller was investigated theoretically [4]. We also investigated the optimal control

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parameter of the PD controller by means of simulation. It is easier to realize the force control when the pressure control type valve is used. In this paper, as an application of the pressure control type quasi-servo valve, the force control system is built and tested by using a pneumatic cylinder. The force control system consists of the pressure control type valve, a pneumatic cylinder and an electric linear actuator.

II. CONSTRUCTION AND OPERATING PRINCIPLE OF QUASI-SERVO VALVE

Fig. 1 shows the schematic diagram of the quasi-servo valve developed before [5]. The valve consists of two on/off type control valves (Koganei Co. Ltd., G010HE-1) whose both output ports are connected to each other. One valve is used as a switching valve to exhaust or supply, and the other is used as a PWM control valve that can adjust output flow rate like a variable fluid resistance. The valve connected with the actuator is a two-port valve without exhaust port. The other is a three-port valve that can change the direction of fluid flow from the supply port to the output port or the fluid flow from the output port to the exhaust port. The two-port valve is driven by pulse width modulation method in order to adjust the valve opening per time. The size of the on/off valve is 33×19.6×10 mm, and the mass is only 15 g. The maximum output flow rate is 38 liter/min at 500 kPa.

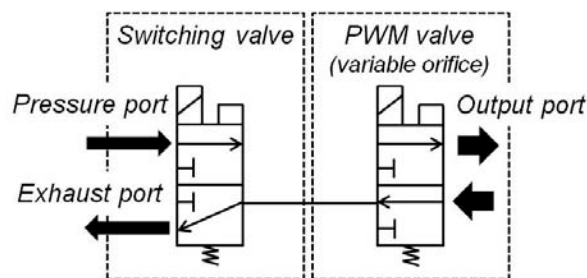


Fig.1 : Schematic diagram of quasi-servo valve

III. PRESSURE CONTROL TYPE QUASI-SERVO VALVE

a) Construction

Fig. 2 shows the schematic diagram of the pressure control type quasi-servo valve. The valve system consists of the above quasi-servo valve, a pressure sensor (Matsushita Electronics Co. Ltd.,

ADP5160) and an embedded controller (Renesas Co. Ltd. R8C12M). The pressure control is done as follows. The embedded controller gets the sensor output voltage and the reference voltage through an inner 10 bit A/D converter. The manipulated value for the PWM valve, duty ratio, is calculated based on a control scheme by using these AD values.

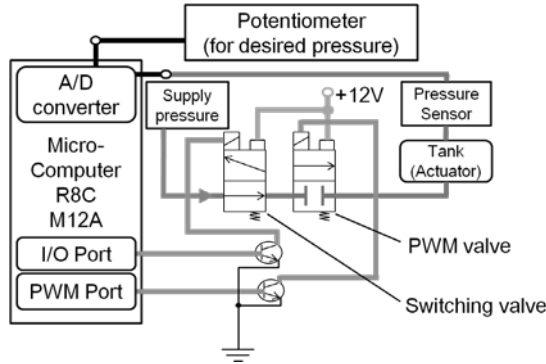


Fig.2 : Schematic diagram of pressure control type quasi-servo valve

b) Compensation of Flow Rate

The supply and exhaust flow rate are not same even if the valve opening is same, because the pressure difference between upstream and downstream at the supply port is different from that at the exhaust port. In order to compensate the flow rate, the following compensation method was proposed [3]. This is a natural phenomenon of fluid flow. This method leads to a linearization of the valve characteristics to the controller.

$$u_s = |u| \frac{f(z)_{max}}{f(z)} + 47.5 \quad z = \frac{P_L}{P_s} \quad (1)$$

$$u_e = |u| \frac{P_s}{P_L} \frac{f(z)_{max}}{f(z)} + 47.5 \quad z = \frac{P_a}{P_L} \quad (2)$$

Where u_s and u_e represent the input duty ratio for supply and exhaust with the compensation of flow rate, respectively. $f(z)$ is the function which expresses the state of fluid flow; sonic flow and subsonic flow [5]. $f(z)_{max}$ represents the maximum value of $f(z)$ when the flow is sonic flow which is $f(z)_{max} = 0.484$. As the valve has a dead zone, the duty ratio of PWM valve is always added by 47.5%. The duty ratio u for PWM valve and the state of switching valve is given by the following equation.

$$u = K_p e_{c(i)} + K_d (e_{c(i)} - e_{c(i-1)}) / T_m \quad (3)$$

$$u > 0 \Rightarrow \text{ON (Supply)} ,$$

$$u \leq 0 \Rightarrow \text{OFF (Exhaust)}. \quad (4)$$

Where $e_{c(i)}$, K_p , K_d and T_m represent the error from the reference pressure, the proportional gain (0.59%/AD),

derivative gain ($= 4.73 \times 10^{-3} \% \cdot s / AD$) and the sampling time of control ($= 3.2 \text{ ms}$), respectively.

IV. PRESSURE CONTROL TYPE QUASI-SERVO VALVE

A force control is needed in industrial robots, power-assisted systems and rehabilitation devices [6]. The force control using a fluidic actuator is easier and more inexpensive than that using an electric actuator. This is because the force can be controlled directly by the fluid pressure, and its control system does not need a force sensor. In this section, the force control of the pneumatic cylinder using the pressure control type quasi-servo valve is described.

a) Control System

Fig.3 shows the schematic diagram and a view of the proposed force control system. The system mainly consists of the double action type pneumatic cylinder (Koganei Co., Ltd., PBDA 16x100-1A), an electric linear actuator (SUS Co., XA-50H-300E), a load cell (KYOWA ELECTRONIC INSTRUMENTS Co., Ltd., LUR-A-SA1, maximum force: 100N) for measuring the controlled force and a potentiometer (MIDORI PRECISIONS Co., Ltd, LP-150F-C, stroke: 150 mm) for measuring the position of the cylinder. The tested cylinder has an inner diameter of 8 mm and a stroke of 100 mm. The end of the piston rod of the cylinder is connected with the slide table of the electric liner actuator through the load cell, and the displacement of the piston is given by the electric liner actuator. The output signals from the load cell, the pressure sensor and a potentiometer are recorded by the data logger (HIOKI E.E. Co., MEMORY HILOGGER 8430).

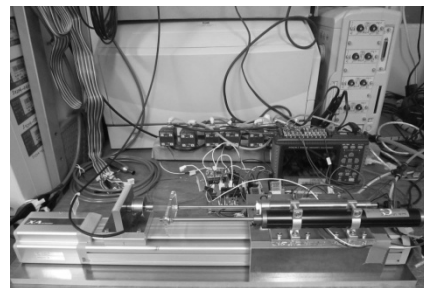
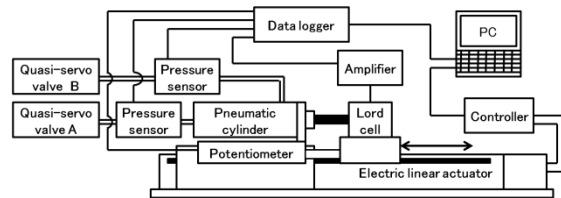


Fig.3 : Schematic diagram of experimental equipment

b) Control Procedure

Fig. 4 shows the block diagram of the control system. The pneumatic cylinder is controlled by using two tested pressure control type quasi-servo valves.

Each chamber pressure of the valve is controlled independently by PD control scheme. One of the valves (Quasi-servo valve B) regulates the constant pressure of 50kPaG, and the other (Quasi-servo valve A) controls the pressure to generate the desired force.

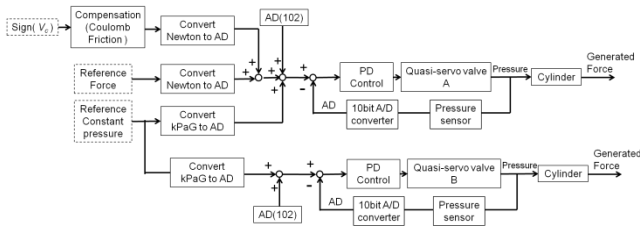


Fig.4 : Schematic diagram of pressure control type quasi-servo valve

c) Control Results and Discussion

Fig. 5 shows the control result of the cylinder force. The reference force is 5N. In the figure, the solid and dotted lines show the measured force and displacement of piston, respectively. The displacement of triangle wave with an offset of 40 mm and an amplitude of 20 mm was applied to the cylinder. The piston speed is plus or minus 16 mm/s. From the figure, it is observed that there is a big difference between reference force and measured force. The constant force opposite to the moving direction of the slide table can be found. This is caused by Coulomb friction between the piston and the cylinder. Therefore, the friction characteristic of the cylinder was investigated by the experiment.

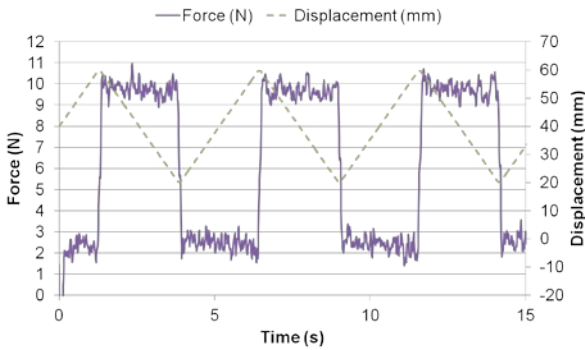


Fig.5 : Control result (without friction compensation)

Fig. 6 shows the relation between velocity of the piston and frictional force. The experiment was carried out three times under the constant velocity of the slide table, and the force was measured at the certain position. From the experimental results, the following relation is obtained.

$$F_c = 13.8V_c + 3.21sgn(V_c) \tag{5}$$

Where F_c [N] and V_c [m/s] represent the frictional force and the velocity of the piston, respectively. From this equation, the coulomb friction of

3.21 N and the coefficient of viscous resistance of 13.8 N/(m·s) are obtained. In the following experiment, based on this result, the force control with friction compensation was tried.

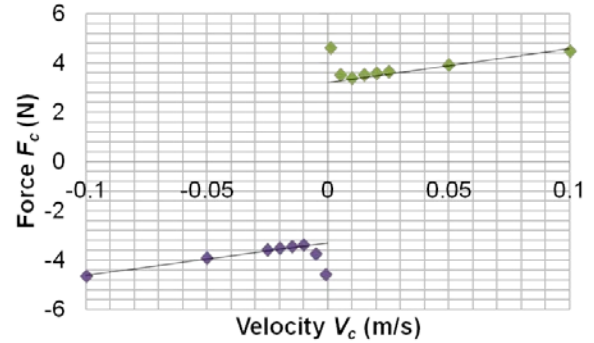


Fig.6 : Friction characteristics

Fig.7 shows the force control result using tested valve with friction compensation. The compensation method is as follows. The sign of piston velocity is detected, and the pressure corresponding to the frictional force of 3.21 N is added or subtracted based on the sign. This control procedure is also shown in the block diagram in Fig. 4. From Fig. 7, it is found that there still exists an error of 1.8 N between reference and measured force. It is also observed that there is a sudden change of measured force when the piston displacement is the maximum and the moving direction is changed. At this position, the cylinder is extended largely and the chamber volume becomes maximum. It is considered that the sudden change is caused by the time delay of the pressure response due to the larger chamber volume. We think that these problems can be solved by improving the control scheme.

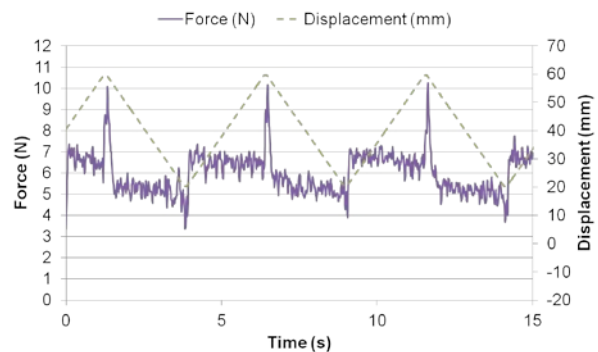


Fig.7 : Control result (with friction compensation)

V. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to develop a small and light-weight pneumatic control valve and to apply it to the care and welfare equipments. This study can be summarized as follows.

The small-sized quasi-servo valve which consists of two inexpensive on/off valve is explained.

The pressure control type quasi-servo valve is built by the quasi-servo valve, a pressure sensor and an embedded controller. The force control using the pressure control type quasi-servo valve is easier and more inexpensive than others. Therefore, as an application of the tested pressure control type quasi-servo valve, the force control system of the cylinder is built and tested. The force control system consists of a pneumatic cylinder, an electric linear actuator, a load cell and a potentiometer. As a result, a large error between reference and measured force was observed. This is because of Coulomb friction in the cylinder. Then, the friction characteristics were investigated and the control performance was improved by compensating the friction.

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Modeling and Simulation of Bullet Resistant Composite Body Armor

By Yohannes Regassa
Debre Brehan University

Abstract- Composite Ballistic body armor materials has become a better body armor protection as compared to traditional steel body armor in terms of its reduction in weight and an improvement in ballistic resistance[1,2]. However, the complex response of composite materials coupled with high costs and limited amount of data from ballistic testing has lead to modeling and simulation of ballistic body armor with different grade of material becomes the best option to optimize and design the composite body armor with less weight and affordable cost. The long term goal of this research is to develop domestic knowledge, model and simulate capability of composite armors with less cost and weight. As a research methodology there was modeling and simulation by Solid work 2012 and Abaqus 6.10 software were used to model and simulate the composite bullet resistant body armor respectively.

Keywords: armor material, aramid fiber, composite body armor, fem.

GJRE-A Classification : FOR Code: 091399p



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Keywords: armor material, aramid fiber, composite body armor, fem.

I. INTRODUCTION

Fiber-reinforced composite materials have become important engineering materials used such as marine bodies, aircraft structures and light-weight armor for ballistic protection in military applications. This is due to their outstanding mechanical properties, flexibility in design capabilities, ease of fabrication and good corrosion, wear and impact resistant. Composite Body armor is an item or piece of clothing that is designed to protect the wearer against a variety of attacks. They can be made to stop different types of threats, such as bullets, knives and needles, or a combination of different attacks. There are two types of body armor – soft body armor, which is used in regular

bullet and stab proof vests, and hard armor, which is rigid, reinforced body armor, and is used in high risk situations by police tactical units and combat soldiers [1].



Figure 1 : Hard And Flexible Bullet Resistant Body Armor [3]

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The first protective clothing and shields were made from animal skins. As civilizations became more advanced, wooden shields and then metal shields came into use. Eventually, metal was also used as body armor, what we now refer to as the suit of armor associated with the knights of the Middle Ages. However, with the invention of firearms around 1500, metal body armor became ineffective [4]. Then only real protection available against firearms was stone walls or natural barriers such as rocks, trees, and ditches. It would not be until the late 1960s that new fibers were discovered that made today's modern generation of cancelable body armor possible. When a handgun bullet strikes body armor, it is caught in a "web" of very strong fibers. These fibers absorb and disperse the impact energy that is transmitted to the vest from the bullet, causing the bullet to deform or "mushroom." Additional energy is absorbed by each successive layer of material in the vest, until such time as the bullet has been stopped. Because the fibers work together both in the individual layer and with other layers of material in the vest, a large area of the garment with composite technology becomes involved in preventing the bullet from penetrating. This also helps in dissipating the forces which can cause non penetrating injuries (what is commonly referred to as "blunt trauma") to internal organs. Unfortunately, at this time no material exists that would allow a vest to be constructed from a single ply of material [5]. People have always attempted to protect themselves against their enemies and the weapons being used, but this has always been balanced by their need to be mobile. The

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earliest form of armor was not intended to protect any form of transportation but to protect the person. From the middle Ages, the foot soldier was protected with some kind of body vest, a helmet and a shield. When the scale of attack was dramatically increased with the advent of fire arms, any form of protection was easily overmatched and it was soon abandoned in favor of the greater mobility given to the individual. When the need for fighting vehicles was arisen, the importance of achieving lightweight protection has also been recognized [6].

Cristescu et al carried out a detailed computational analysis of the ballistic performance of composite and hybrid armor panels hard-faced with Al₂O₃ ceramic tiles by using AUTODYN software. The initial simulations were performed to validate the composite material model. In these simulations, there was an agreement between the V50 values obtained from the numerical simulations and those from the experimental results. Next, the simulations were done by considering the whole armor system, i.e. composite panels hard-faced with alumina ceramic tiles [7]. Again the overall agreement between the experimental and

computational results is quite good. Fabric based body armors function well against deformable threats by distributing the kinetic energy through the high strength fibers with dissipation modes including fiber shear or fracture, fiber tensile failure or straining and associated delamination or pullout. To provide isotropic properties when laminated, 0o/45° and 0o/90° cross ply arrangements are used [10]. High shear stresses cause the delamination between the neighboring layers which is the failure mode of composite material. In addition to delamination, fiber breakage, which is another failure mode of modern fiber composite material under impact loading, occurs in the composite plate. The degree of delamination decreases as the thickness of the backing plate is increased. Energy absorbed during delamination depends on the interlaminar shear fracture energy, the length of delamination and the number of delamination. Progressive delamination causes a ductile material behavior in the composite and significant amount of impact energy is absorbed. For composite failure evaluation method Tsai-Wu's and Hashin failure modes are the most popular methods [8].



Figure 2 : Damage mechanisms occurred in composite materials under ballistic impact[9]

III. MATERIAL AND METHODOLOGY

The modeled composite body armor in this research was consisted of 20 layer of plain-woven Hexcel Aramid fiber (polyparaphenylene terephthalamide), impact high performance fabric Style 706 (Kevlar KM-2, 600 denier) with an areal density of 180 g/m² and a polyester resin as matrix. The designed methodology was computer modeling and simulation, literature review

and analytical method was used to validate the obtained result.

IV. COMPOSITE BODY ARMOR MODELING AND IMPACT SIMULATION

In Finite element modeling and simulation there is three stages i.e. pre-processing, solution, post processing stage were well known stage.

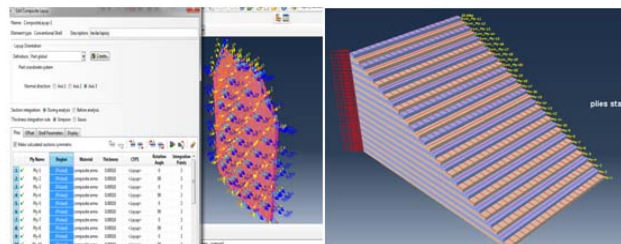


Figure 3 : Defining composite lamina sections and plies stack

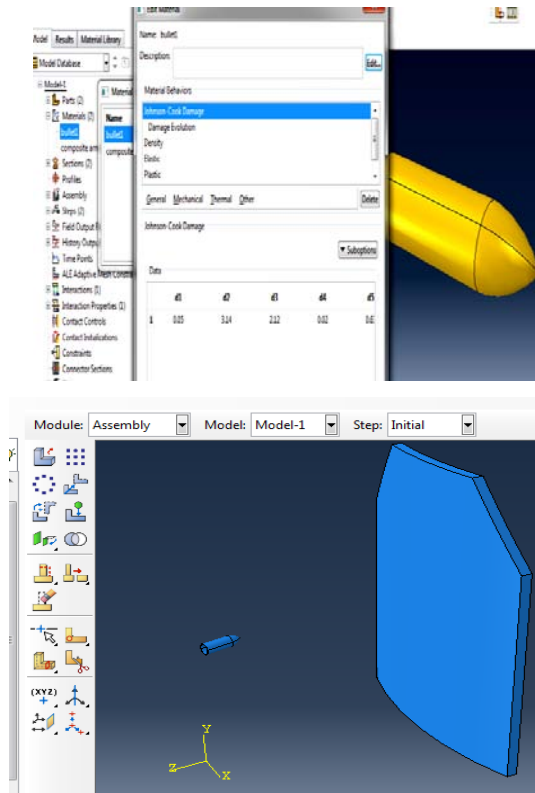


Figure 4 : Elastic and Plastic Modeling of Bullet and dynamic assembling of Bullet with Armor Disk

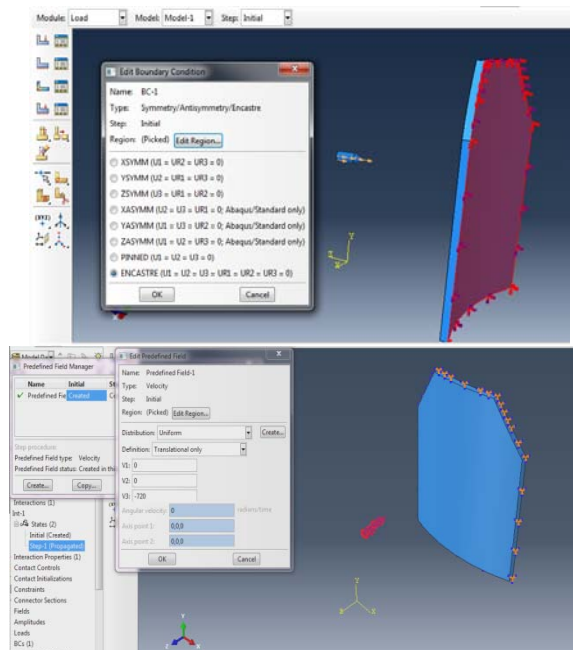


Figure 5 : Boundary condition, load assignment at step module

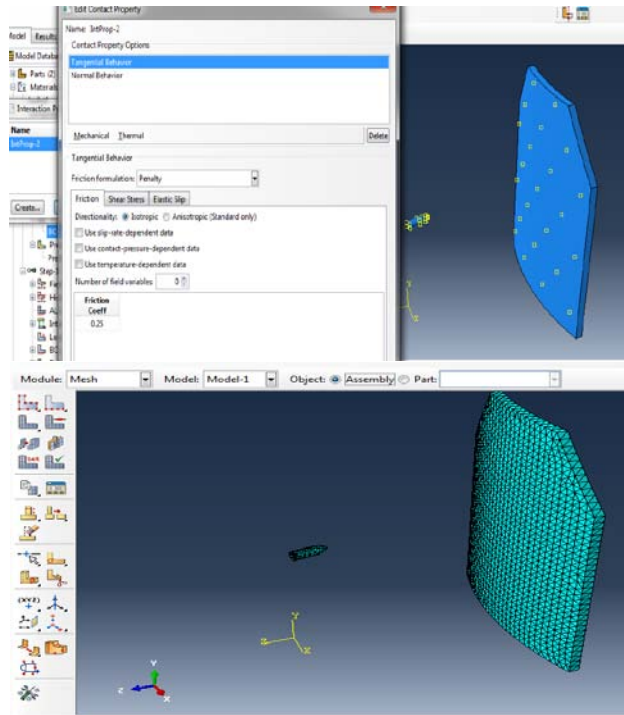


Figure 6 : interaction and meshed body armor at interaction and mesh module.

The Mesh module provides a variety of tools that allow you to specify different mesh characteristics, such as mesh density, element shape, and element type. We meshed our components, the bullet with C3D4 element

type which describes a four node tetrahedral element with mesh size of 2.5 and armor disk with SR4 - a four node doubly curved thin or thick shell reduced integration quadrilateral element with mesh size of 3.5.

Table 1 : Fem Formulated Procedure Information

No	Parameter	Value and types
1	Mesh type	Solid Mesh with 2.5 size
2	Mesher Used:	Standard mesh
3	Jacobian points	4 Points
4	Element Size	7.51878 mm
5	Tolerance	0.375939 mm
6	Mesh Quality	High
7	Total Nodes	15616
8	Total Elements	7738
9	Maximum Aspect Ratio	14.353

The Job module: Job>Create job>continue>Ok

After defining our model, now we are ready to analyze it. Analyzing a model involves some steps. Once you have finished all of the tasks involved in defining a model (such as defining the geometry of the model, assigning section properties, and defining contact), you can use the Job module to analyze your model.

Visualization Stage Module: The Job module allows you to create a job, to submit it to ABAQUS/Explicit for

analysis, and to monitor its progress; then last visualization stage which is post analysis stage.

V. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

As seen in the fig. 7 below the Von Mises stresses induced in the composite body armor at projectile speed of 720m/s and at a shooting distance of 50 meters, that is, the muzzle velocity can't damage the harder armor. As fig. 7 shows that the dynamical interaction of bullet and composite armor starts to

deform at the first instance with the projectile, the bullet where fired at distance of 50meter from target.

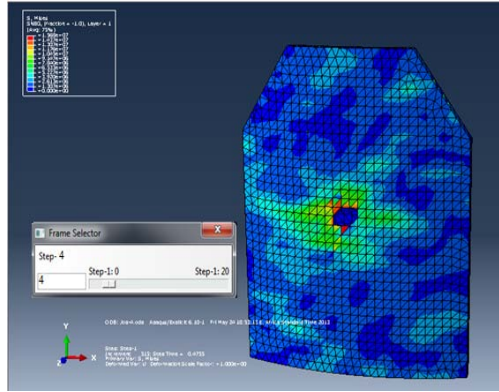


Figure 7: First instance of bullet strike with disk panel of armor

As fig. 8 shows that the dynamical interaction of bullet and Kevlar-29 composite armor at the last instance moment where the projectile ends to strike the panel and

resulted there is more energy distribution over the body armor, there is no penetration over the sample. The bullet where fired to the target at distance of 50meter.

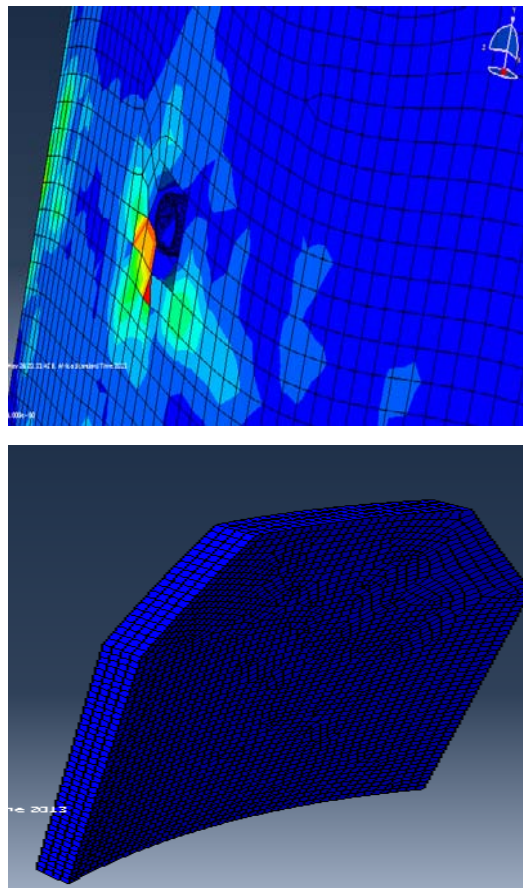


Figure 8 : Front face of armor composite disk of bullet impact area and back side with zero penetration

a) Result by graphical interpretation

As fig. 9: shows, the bullet strikes the integral composite body armor and there is slow drop of kinetic energy absorption which indicates us there is more deformation of the specimen rather than the bullet and this will cause severe trauma. The bullet where fired to the target at distance of 50meter.

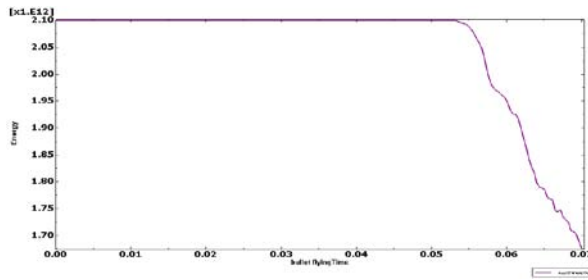


Figure 9 : Kinetic energy absorbed composite body armor (by kevla-29)

As figure 10: of below shows, the bullets strike the integral composite body armor at 0.065second and ends at 0.1seconds and this simulation result show that there is sharp drop of kinetic energy absorption which

indicates us there is higher deformation of the bullet rather than the specimen and less trauma will developed over the body of wearers with weight limitation.

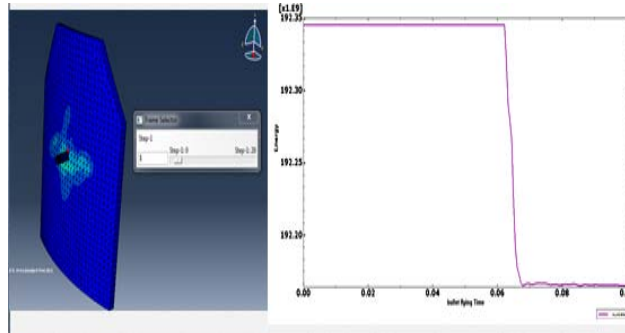


Figure 10 : Kinetic energy absorbed by integral armor, (sandwiching of 5mm thick steel byKevlar fiber)

As figure-11: shows, the simulation that made over Kevlar-29 fiber with polyester resin and the result obtained indicates that there was more deformation of

the modeled armor which indicates that there is less energy absorption by the modeled sample and can cause some amount of trauma over wearers body.

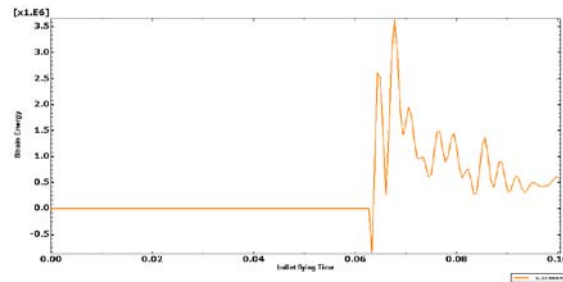


Figure 11 : Strain energy vs time graph of integral body armor

As fig 12: shows, the sample that made from Kevlar-29 were exposed to take 0.07second to absorb and stop the bullet energy which indicates that there is more energy absorption by the armor and this will cause

severe trauma over wearer body. Kevlar-29 armor sample were thick about 10mm and the bullet where fired to the target at distance of 50meter.

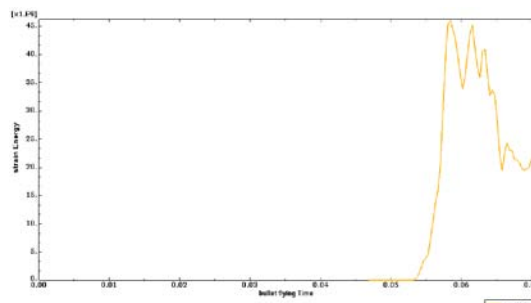


Fig. 12 : Strain energy vs time graph of body armor made by Kevlar-29.

VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this study, the modeling and simulation of composite body armor that modeled from Kevlar-29 and polyester resin were studied and compared with a body armor that made as integral armor body and the following conclusion has been made.

It was found that 20layers of a Kevlar-29fiber with a polyester resin can stand impact energy of 7.62x39mm bullet type that fired at a distance of 10meter with a muzzle velocity of 720m/s.

The authors' used the commercial finite element software, ABAQUS/CAE; to analyze and simulate the dynamic deformations of laminated composite body armor caused by the impact of a 7.62x39mm copper coated bullet.

From the simulation of composite body armor under dynamic explicitly condition, there was an observation that, of bullet that strike the body armor at kinetic energy of about 1.9e9joule have been absorbed by the composite body armor which have been shown by Fig 10.

The researched bullet resistant integral composite body armor cost about 6500birr and have a weight of about 1.5Kg, if back and front were to used at combat field it weighs up to 3Kg.

The composite bullet resistance body armor that made from 20layers of Kevlar-29 fiber with polyester resin weighs only about 0.45kg and if back and front side were used it is only weighs about 0.9Kg which is the most recommended and preferable for foot soldier due to its mobility advantageous, but there is some trauma that can be recoverable.

The cost comparative study shows that for localization of body armor there is 63.8% cost reduction.

As per the Standard for the united states of state of America under UL-752, the researched bullet resistant body armor was classified under level 5.

VII. RECOMMENDATION

There is a recommendation that the Ethiopian national ministry of defence have to be agreeing to open their door to any both external and internal researcher that will upgrade the capacity of military organization in terms of technology to form a modern army with modern military gear.

The authors' highly recommend that any interested researcher to deal with ballistic property of kevlar-29 fiber with epoxy or other thermoset resin as a body armor.

For the design and manufacturing of body armor there should be a consideration of mobility, safety and cost to the customer.

Lastly the authors of this paper that entitle modeling and simulation of bullet resistant composite

body armor forward an idea to any researcher to deal with the optimization for weight and thickness of body armor.

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Analysis of Tensile Strength of Bamboo Reinforced Polyester Composite

By Omholua, Anthony Omokhudu, Ujam. A. J & Uviesherhe Okiemute Edijana
Nnamdi Azikiwe University

Abstract- Nigerian grown species of bamboo called bambusa vulgaris which was examined to analyze its tensile strength. The fibre characteristics and tensile strength were investigated at three different fibre lengths and fibre loadings i.e 10, 30,50mm and 10, 30, 50 wt.% respectively. Fibre length was varied in each fibre loading from 10mm to 50mm, the tensile strength of the three different series of composites varies from 28.32Mpa to 38.10Mpa. The predicted optimum tensile strength is 44.51Mpa. Generated results have been validated by the confirmation of experiments at three replications, when the control factors were set at 30mm and 30% wt or (level 2, level 2), using Taguchi's design of experiments approach. It was observed from the analysis of variance of the samples that there is a variation in the increase of tensile strength of the bamboo that are dependent on the fibre length and fibre loading used. The percentage contributions of parameter according to the pooled ANOVA for signal-to- Noise ratio showed that the fibre length (36.61%) in controlling variation and mean strength is significantly smaller than the fibre loading (44.15%).

Keywords: bamboo, bambusa vulgaris, tensile strength, taguchi's experimental design, fibre length, fibre loading.

GJRE-A Classification : FOR Code: 290501



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I. INTRODUCTION

Composites can be defined as materials that consist of two or more chemically and physically different phases separated by a distinct interface. The different systems are combined judiciously to achieve a system with more useful structural or functional properties no attainable by any of the constituent alone [Shaw et al. 2010]. The strength of bamboo is greater than many timber products, but lesser than the tensile strength of steel. Bamboo is readily available and is emerging as low cost, light weight, and environmentally friendly. Tensile test is the most basic type of mechanical test. It is not difficult to perform and it is not expensive compared to other mechanical tests.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

General purpose grade unsaturated orthophathalic polyester resin (RGP 67G), was obtained from Center for Composite Research and Development, JuNeng Nigeria Limited, Nsukka. The bamboo fibres were extracted mechanically from the young stem of bamboo plant, shredded and air-dried for

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young stem of bamboo plant, shredded and air-dried for about a week until constant mass. The dried fibres were chopped into 10mm, 30mm and 50mm fibre lengths and 10%, 30% and 50% weight fraction used as reinforcement materials in the composite preparation, by hand lay-up method using a three-piece stainless steel mould having dimensions 200x 150x30mm. Methyl ethyl ketone peroxide (MEKP) and cobalt naphthenate of commercial grade were used as the catalyst and accelerator respectively for resin curing.

a) Volume Fraction and Density of Fibre

The density and volume fraction of fibres used for the sample preparation was calculated by a method which enables the rule of mixtures analysis of measured composite properties. The picnometric procedure was adopted for measuring the density ρ_c of the composite of mass M_c at a given mass fraction of resin M_r . Volume fraction V_r of resin was calculated using the following relationships:

$$V_r = \frac{M_r \rho_c}{M_c \rho_r} \quad [1]$$

Where ρ_r is the resin density then, the volume fraction V_f and density ρ_f of fibre where calculated using the following equations: [1]

$$V_f + V_r = 1 \quad [2]$$

$$\rho_r = \frac{M_f \rho_c}{M_c V_f} \quad [3]$$

The density of fibre was also measured using archimedes principle. Both results produced similar results and an average value of 960kg/m³ was obtained as fibre density.

Table 1 : Mass of Fibre and Volume of Resin used for Samples Preparation

Fibre Volume Fraction (%)	10.70	31.70	52.00
Fibre Weight Fraction (%)	10.00	30	50.00
Mass of Fibre (g)	86.40	259.00	432.00
Volume of the Resin (cm ³)	804.00	615.00	432.00
Mass of Resin (g)	843.00	656.00	468.00

Source: Field experiment

b) The Taguchi Approach to Robust Parameter Design

In the early 1980s, Genichi Taguchi, a Japanese engineer, introduced his approach to using experimental design for: designing products or processes so that they are robust to environmental conditions; designing/developing products so that they are robust to component variation; and minimizing variation around a target value.

In parameter design, there are two types of factors that affect a product's functional characteristic: control factors and noise factors, at this stage of design, the specific values for the system parameters are determined. Usually, the objective is to specify these nominal parameter values such that the variability transmitted from uncontrollable or noise variables is minimized.

III. SELECTION OF AN ORTHOGONAL ARRAY

In selecting an appropriate OA, the prerequisites are: (a) selection of process parameters and interactions to be evaluated and (b) selection of number of levels for the selected parameters [2]. The process parameters were already decided and are given in Table 1. It was also decided to study each selected parameter at three levels. With two parameters each at three levels, the total degree of freedom (DOF) required is 4 [= 2(3-1)]. As per Taguchi's DOE approach, the total DOF of t selected OA must be greater than or equal to the total DOF required for the experiment. So, an L₉ (2³) orthogonal array was selected for the present work.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The tensile tests were performed according to ASTM D638 standard using Universal Testing Machine at a crosshead speed of 5 mm/min. Specimens for each sample were tested and the tensile strength and tensile modulus were expressed as:

$$\text{Tensile strength (MPa)} = P/bh \quad [4]$$

Where; P = Pulling force (N), b = Specimen width (m), and h = Specimen thickness (m)

Robust design is an "engineering methodology for improving productivity during research and development so that high-quality products can be produced quickly and at low cost" [3]. The idea behind

robust design is to improve the quality of a product by minimizing the effects of variation without eliminating the causes (since they are too difficult or too expensive to control). Nine trial conditions with three repetitions are used in this work. The selected quality characteristic, tensile strength, is 'higher the better' (HB) type, the S/N (signal to noise) ratio, for 'higher the better' type of response was used as given in the following equation:

$$(S/N)_{HB} = -10 \log \left[\frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{y_1^2} + \frac{1}{y_2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{y_n^2} \right) \right] \quad [5]$$

Where y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n are the responses of quality characteristic for a trial condition repeated n times.

The S/N ratios were computed using equation 5 for each of the 9 trials and mean response for each factor at the three levels is presented in Table 3. [4] Along with the raw data. The average value of the tensile strength for each parameter at levels 1, 2 and 3 are plotted in figure 2. The average values of S/N ratios of various parameters at levels 1, 2 and 3 are plotted in figure 1.

The summary of the responses and ranking for tensile strength of bamboo fibre reinforced Polyester composites on the bases of the larger the better quality, for Signal to Noise Ratio, and mean of means lead to the conclusion that factor combination of A₁ B₁ gives the minimum strength while A₂ B₂ gives the maximum strength as shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2. It is found that as far as the tensile strength is concerned; B and A have significant effect on the composite. The range (Delta) is the difference between higher and lower response. The larger the (Delta) value for a parameter, the larger the effect the variable has on the tensile strength of the composites. This is because the same change in signal causes a larger effect on the output variable being measured. It is clear from table 4 and 5 that the fibre weight fraction is ranked 1st and fibre length 2nd. In order to confirm Taguchi's design of experiment and to study the significance of the parameters in affecting the quality characteristic of the mechanical properties analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. The pooled ANOVA of the raw data (tensile strength) is given in Table 6. The S/N ANOVA (pooled version) is given in Table 7. It is clear from ANOVAs that the parameters A and B (fibre length and fibre weight) significantly affect both the mean value as

well as the variation of the tensile strength because these are significant in both the ANOVAs. The percent contributions of parameters as quantified under column P of Table 6 and Table 7 reveal that the fibre weight (B)

in controlling the mean and variation is significantly larger than the fibre length (A). [5] Software MINITAB 16 was used to analyze the Taguchi design of experiment, and the linear regression equations.

Table 2 : Experimental Outlay and Variable Sets for Mechanical Properties

S/N	Processing Factors	Factor's designation	Level		
			1	2	3
1	Fibre Length (mm)	A	10	30	50
2	Fibre Weight Fraction (%)	B	10	30	50

Source: Field experiment

Table 3 : Experimental Design Matrix for Tensile Strength of Bamboo Fibre Reinforced Polyester Composites.

Expert. Run	Fibre Length (mm)	Fibre Weight Fraction (%)	Measure Response (Mpa)			Mean Tensile Response	SN Ratio (dB)
			Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3		
1	10	10	28	27.83	29.13	28.32	29.03655249
2	10	30	41.40	39.50	39.70	40.20	30.07877224
3	10	50	37.80	37.51	35.69	37.00	31.34769209
4	30	10	38.80	38.40	38.30	38.50	31.70880621
5	30	30	45.20	44.92	44.88	45.00	33.06412024
6	30	50	41.60	40.32	41.08	41.00	32.25352731
7	50	10	35.80	35.00	34.20	35.00	30.87682137
8	50	30	38.33	37.00	36.63	37.32	31.43392063
9	50	50	39.20	38.20	36.90	38.10	31.61049495
Total			346.13	338.68	336.51		

\bar{T}_{TS} = Overall mean of TS = $\frac{346.13+338.68+336.51}{3 \times 9} = 37.83 \text{ Mpa}$
 TS= Tensile strength.

Table 4 : Summary of the Responses and Ranking for Tensile Strength of Bamboo Fibre Reinforced Polyester Composites on the Bases of the Larger the Better Quality. (Signal to Noise Ratio)

Responses	Signal to Noise Ratio	
	A: Fibre Length (mm)	B: Weight Fraction (%)
Levels		
1	30.83	30.54
2	32.34	32.20
3	31.31	31.75
Delta	1.51	1.65
Rank	2	1

Source: Field experiment

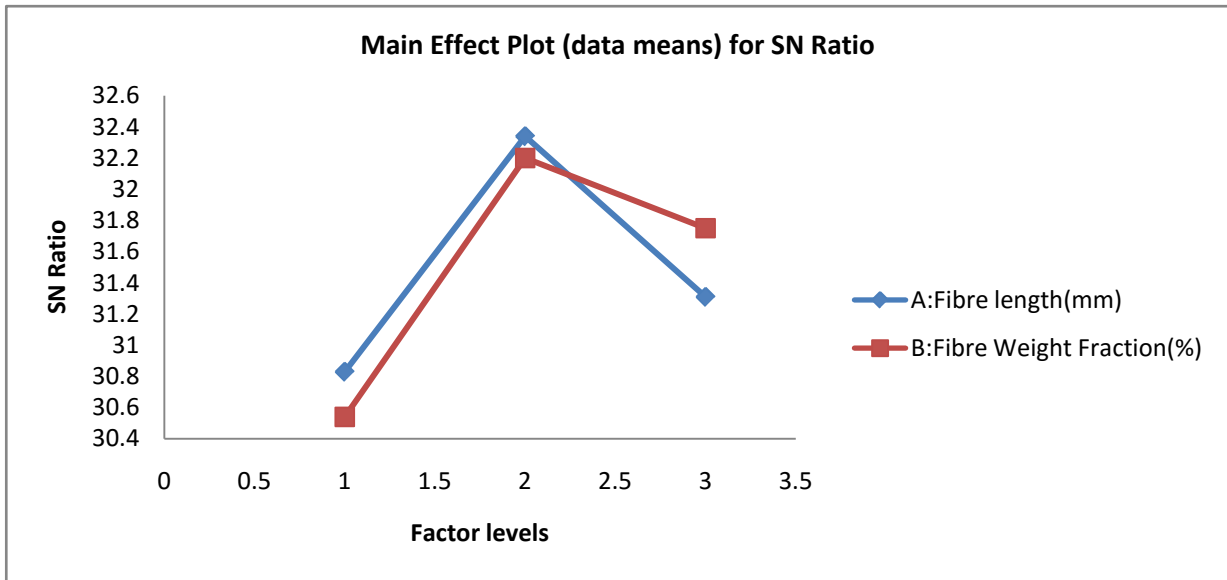


Fig. 1 : Graph of Signal-to-Noise Ratio against Factor Levels (1,2and3) for Tensile Strength

Table 5 : Summary of the Responses and Ranking for Tensile Strength of Bamboo Fibre Reinforced Polyester Composites on the Bases of the Larger the Better Quality. (Mean of Means)

Responses Levels	Means	
	A:FibreLength (mm)	B: Weight Fraction (%)
1	35.17	33.94
2	41.50	40.84
3	36.81	38.70
Delta	6.33	6.90
Rank	2	1

Source: Field experiment

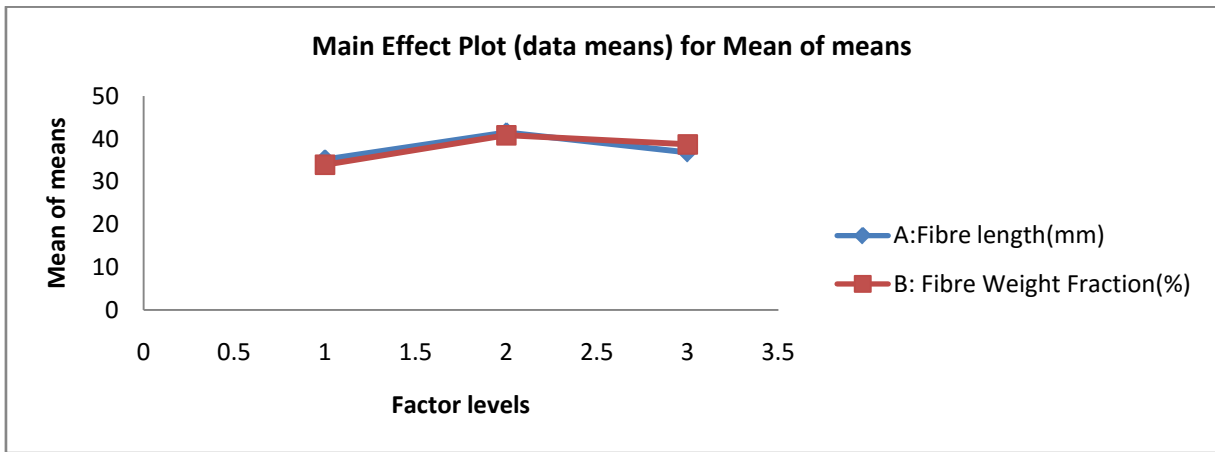


Fig. 2 : Graph of Mean of Means against Factor Levels (1, 2 and 3) for Tensile Strength

Regression Analysis: Tensile Strength versus A: Fibre Length, B: Fibre weight

The regression equation is

$$\text{Tensile strength} = 33.0 + 0.0408 A + 0.119 B$$

Predictor	Coef	SE Coef	T	P
Constant	33.032	4.303	7.68	0.000
A	0.04083	0.09465	0.43	0.681
B	0.11900	0.09465	1.26	0.255

S = 4.63692 R-Sq = 22.7% R-Sq(adj) = 0.0%

a) *Estimating Optimal Tensile Strength*

The optimal tensile strength (μ TS) is predicted at the selected optimal setting of process parameters. The significant parameters with optimal levels are already selected as: A2B2. The interaction effects are not being considered in estimating mean and confidence interval around the estimated mean due to poor additivity between parameters and interactions. The estimated mean of the response characteristic can be computed as [4]:

$$\mu TS = \bar{A}_2 + \bar{B}_2 - \bar{T}_{TS} \quad [6]$$

Where:

\bar{T}_{TS} = overall mean of Tensile strength = 37.83 Mpa
From (Table 3)

\bar{A}_2 = mean value of Tensile strength with parameter at optimum level : $\bar{A}_2 = 41.50$ From (Table 5)

\bar{B}_2 = mean value of Tensile strength with parameter at optimum level : $\bar{B}_2 = 40.84$ From (Table 5)

Hence;

$$\mu TS = 41.50 + 40.84 - 37.83 = 44.51 \text{ Mpa}$$

A confidence interval for the predicted mean on a confirmation run can be calculated using the following equation [3]:

$$C.I = \sqrt{F_{\alpha}(1, f_e) V_e \left[\frac{1}{n_{eff}} + \frac{1}{R} \right]} \quad [7]$$

Where; $F_{\alpha}(1, f_e)$ = F ratio required for α ; α =risk; f_e = error DOF; V_e = error variance n_{eff} = effective number of replications.

Table 6 : Pooled ANOVA (Raw Data: Tensile Strength) for mean

source	DOF	SS	V	F ratio	P(%)
A	2	64.72	32.36	1.90	38.75
B	2	74.86	37.43	2.44	44.83
Total	8	167	-	-	100
e(pooled)	4	27.42	6.855		16.42

DOF=Degree of freedom, SS=sum of squares, V=Variance, P= Percentage contribution, e = error, A- Fibre length, B- Fibre Weight fraction

Tabulated F-ratio at 95% confident level: $F_{0.05;1;12} = 4.75$, $F_{0.05;2;12} = 3.88$

Table 7 : Pooled ANOVA (Raw Data: Tensile Strength) for (Signal to Noise ratio)

source	DOF	SS	V	F ratio	P(%)
A	2	3.620	1.810	1.73	36.61
B	2	4.366	2.183	2.37	44.15
Total	8	9.889	-	-	100.0
e(pooled)	4	1.903	0.476		19.24

Source: ANOVA generated output

V. CONCLUSIONS

The experimental investigations on the analysis of tensile strength of bamboo reinforced polyester composites were conducted. The experiments lead us to the following conclusions obtained from this study:

$$n_{eff} = \frac{N}{1+[Total DOF associated in the estimate of mean]} \quad [8]$$

R = number of repetitions for confirmation experiment;

N = Total number of experiments.

Using the values;

$V_e = 6.855$, and $f_e = 12$

From (Table 6)

Total DOF associated with the mean (μ TS) = $2 \times 2 = 4$

Total trials = 9; N = $3 \times 9 = 27$

$\alpha = 0.05$; $F_{0.05}(1, 12) = 4.75$ (tabulated value, from F- tables)

$$n_{eff} = \frac{27}{1+4} = 5.4$$

$$C.I = \sqrt{4.75 \times 6.855 \left[\frac{1}{5.4} + \frac{1}{3} \right]} = \pm 4.109$$

The calculated C.I. is: C.I = ± 4.109

The predicted optimal Tensile strength is: $\mu TS = 44.51 \text{ Mpa}$

The 95% confidence interval of the predicted optimal tensile strength is:

$$(\mu TS - C.I) < \mu TS (\text{Mpa}) < (\mu TS + C.I).$$

$$40.401 < \mu TS (\text{Mpa}) < 48.619$$

b) *Experimental Validation*

The last stage of Taguchi's robust technique is the confirmation of the experiment. Three confirmation experiments were conducted at the optimal setting of the process parameters. The average value of tensile strength was found to be 44.54Mpa. This result was within the confidence interval (95 %) of the predicted optimal tensile strength.

The percent contribution of parameters in affecting variation in tensile strength:

parameter	Percent Contribution on Tensile strength
Fibre length (A)	36.61
Fibre Weight Fraction(B)	44.15

The predicted optimal range at 95% confidence interval of the Tensile strength is: $40.401 < \mu TS \text{ (Mpa)} < 48.619$

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Optimization of Effectiveness for a Cylindrical Fin

By Abdullah Al Mamun

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Abstract- A numerical study was performed to provide information about the temperature distribution of three dimensional cylindrical fin in steady state and homogeneous material properties. A brief literature review shows that much of work on fins has been carried out analytically and numerically in one dimensional and two dimensional conditions. This study is concerned about the three dimensional temperature distributions on a cylindrical fin, optimum dimensions and heat transfer from the fin, the fin efficiency and fin effectiveness of the cylindrical fin when fin base was maintained at a constant temperature. The necessary equations are solved by finite difference method and iteration method using FORTRAN code. The whole investigation was done using different material and different dimensional fins to find out the optimum effectiveness and efficiency for predefined condition.

Keywords: *pin-fin, cylindrical fin, 3d fin, effectiveness of a fin, efficiency of pin-fin.*

GJRE-A Classification : *FOR Code: 091399p*



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Optimization of Effectiveness for a Cylindrical Fin

Abdullah Al Mamun

Abstract- A numerical study was performed to provide information about the temperature distribution of three dimensional cylindrical fin in steady state and homogeneous material properties. A brief literature review shows that much of work on fins has been carried out analytically and numerically in one dimensional and two dimensional conditions. This study is concerned about the three dimensional temperature distributions on a cylindrical fin, optimum dimensions and heat transfer from the fin, the fin efficiency and fin effectiveness of the cylindrical fin when fin base was maintained at a constant temperature. The necessary equations are solved by finite difference method and iteration method using FORTRAN code. The whole investigation was done using different material and different dimensional fins to find out the optimum effectiveness and efficiency for predefined condition.

Keywords: pin-fin, cylindrical fin, 3d fin, effectiveness of a fin, efficiency of pin-fin.

I. INTRODUCTION

The term extended surface or fin is commonly used to depict an important special case involving heat transfer by conduction within a solid and heat transfer by convection from the boundaries of the solid. Different types of fin such as rectangular fin, triangular fin, trapezoidal fin, parabolic fin, cylindrical fin, pin fin, annular fin etc are commonly used to enhance the heat dissipation rate from primary surfaces to its surrounding fluid medium in order to meet the ever-increasing demand for high performance, light weight and compact heat transfer equipments. Because of many more engineering applications heat transfer characteristics of fins of different geometry have been subject of continued research.

Fins are used to increase the heat transfer from a surface by increasing the effective surface area. However the fin itself represents a conduction resistance to heat transfer from the original surface. For this reason, there is no assurance that the heat transfer rate will be increased through the use of fins. An assessment of this matter may be made by evaluating the fin effectiveness. It is defined as the ratio of the fin heat transfer rate to the heat transfer rate that would exist without the fin. In general the use of fins may rarely be justified unless $f \geq 2$.

a) Objectives

The main objectives of this study are:

- To investigate the temperature distribution along the dimension of a cylindrical fin for different thermal conductivity of fin material.
- To determine the rate of heat transfer through the cylindrical fin.
- To determine the fin effectiveness and efficiency of the cylindrical fin.
- To determine the optimum dimension for the cylindrical fin.

II. MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION

a) Approximation

The problem is solved, subjected to following assumptions:

Three-Dimensional cylindrical fin, steady state conduction, constant thermal conductivity, homogeneous material, uniform cross section and convection heat transfer coefficient is uniform across the cylindrical fin surface, radiation from the surface is negligible so it is neglected. Fin base and ambient temperature also assumed to be constant.

b) Governing Equation

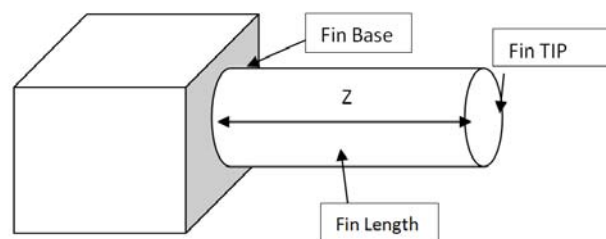


Fig 1 : Three dimensional view of the cylindrical fin

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e-mail: www.nafiz@yahoo.co m

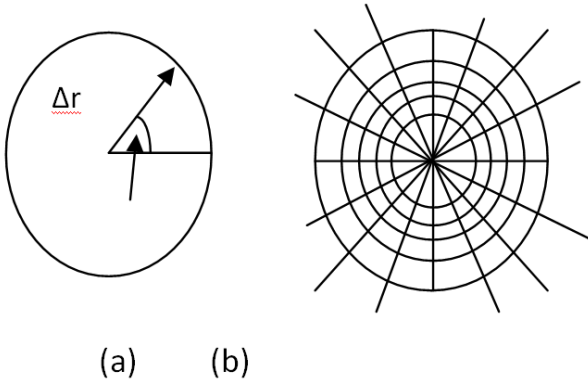


Fig. 2: a) Front View of the cylindrical fin b) Front view with grid

The Governing equation for the cylindrical fin is:

$$\frac{1}{r} \frac{\delta}{\delta r} \left(r \frac{\delta T}{\delta r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{\delta^2 T}{\delta \phi^2} \right) + \left(\frac{\delta^2 T}{\delta z^2} \right) + \frac{g}{k} = \frac{\delta T}{\alpha \delta t}$$

For steady state condition

$$\frac{1}{r} \frac{\delta}{\delta r} \left(r \frac{\delta T}{\delta r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{\delta^2 T}{\delta \phi^2} \right) + \left(\frac{\delta^2 T}{\delta z^2} \right) + \frac{g}{k} = 0$$

Now by Finite Difference method we get:

- 1) $\frac{1}{r} \frac{\delta}{\delta r} \left(r \frac{\delta T}{\delta r} \right) = \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{\delta T}{\delta r} \right) + \frac{\delta^2 T}{\delta r^2} = \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{T_{(i,j,k)} - T_{(i+1,j,k)}}{\Delta r} \right) + \left(\frac{T_{(i+1,j,k)} + T_{(i-1,j,k)} - 2T_{(i,j,k)}}{\Delta r^2} \right)$
- 2) $\frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{\delta^2 T}{\delta \phi^2} \right) = \frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{T_{(i,j+1,k)} + T_{(i,j-1,k)} - 2T_{(i,j,k)}}{\Delta \phi^2} \right)$
- 3) $\left(\frac{\delta^2 T}{\delta z^2} \right) = \left(\frac{T_{(i,j,k+1)} + T_{(i,j,k-1)} - 2T_{(i,j,k)}}{\Delta z^2} \right)$

So the total equation for the conduction in the fin is
 General conduction equation:

$$-\frac{k\Delta r\Delta\theta\Delta z}{2\Delta r} (T_{i,j,k} - T_{i-1,j,k}) - \frac{k\Delta r\Delta\theta\Delta z}{2\Delta r} (T_{i,j,k} - T_{i+1,j,k}) - \frac{k\Delta z\Delta r}{2\Delta r\Delta\theta} (T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j+1,k}) - \frac{k\Delta z\Delta r}{2\Delta r\Delta\theta} (T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j-1,k}) - \frac{k\Delta\theta\Delta r^2}{2\Delta z} (T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j,k-1}) = \frac{h\Delta\theta\Delta r^2}{2\Delta z} (T_{i,j,k} - T_{\infty})$$

By simplification:

$$T_{i,j,k} = \frac{\frac{k\Delta\theta\Delta z}{2} (T_{i-1,j,k} + T_{i+1,j,k}) + \frac{k\Delta z}{2\Delta\theta} (T_{i,j-1,k} + T_{i,j+1,k}) + \frac{k\Delta\theta\Delta r^2}{2\Delta z} (T_{i,j,k-1}) + \frac{h\Delta\theta\Delta r^2}{2} T_{\infty}}{\left(\frac{2k\Delta\theta\Delta z}{2} + \frac{2k\Delta z}{2\Delta\theta} + \frac{k\Delta\theta\Delta r^2}{2\Delta z} + \frac{h\Delta\theta\Delta r^2}{2} \right)}$$

The below energy conservation equation is only applied for elements those are after the first circle, which means from the r2 this equation applies.

$$T_{i,j,k} = \left(\frac{T_{i+1,j,k}}{r_i\Delta r} + \frac{T_{i+1,j,k} + T_{i-1,j,k}}{\Delta r^2} + \frac{T_{i,j+1,k} + T_{i,j-1,k}}{r_i^2\Delta\theta^2} + \frac{T_{i,j,k+1} + T_{i,j,k-1}}{\Delta z^2} \right) / \left(\frac{1}{r_i\Delta r} + \frac{2}{\Delta r^2} + \frac{2}{r_i^2\Delta\theta^2} + \frac{2}{\Delta z^2} \right)$$

i. At the tip of the Fin

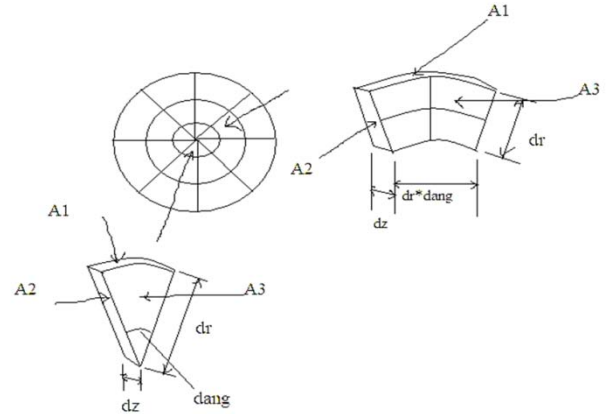


Fig. 3 : Grid elements of the tip surface of the fin.

At the central grid which is at r1. The grids are triangular so here is the equation of energy balance:

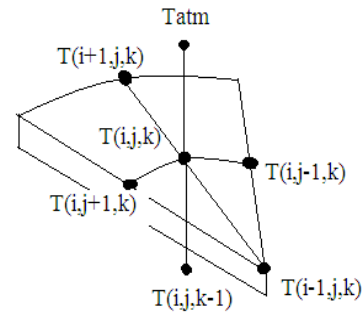


Fig. 4 : central grid section.

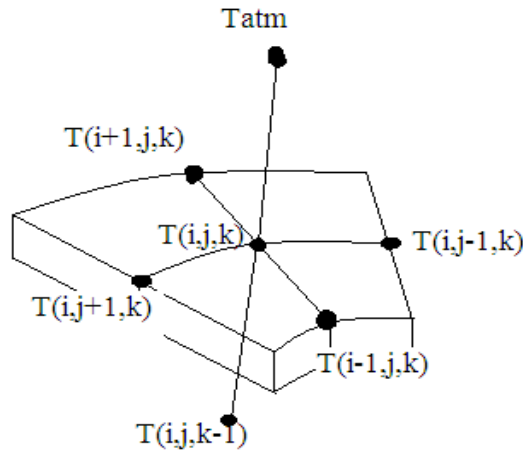


Fig. 5 : Grid section at 2nd and later circles.

$$-\frac{kr_i\Delta\theta\Delta z}{2\Delta r}(T_{i,j,k} - T_{i-1,j,k}) - \frac{kr_i\Delta\theta\Delta z}{2\Delta r}(T_{i,j,k} - T_{i+1,j,k}) - \frac{k\Delta z\Delta r}{2r_i\Delta\theta}(T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j-1,k}) - \frac{k\Delta z\Delta r}{2r_i\Delta\theta}(T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j+1,k}) - \frac{kr_i\Delta\theta\Delta r}{\Delta z}(T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j,k-1}) = hr_i\Delta\theta\Delta r(T_{i,j,k} - T_\infty)$$

By simplification:

$$T_{i,j,k} = \frac{\frac{kr_i\Delta\theta\Delta z}{2\Delta r}(T_{i-1,j,k} + T_{i+1,j,k}) + \frac{k\Delta z\Delta r}{2r_i\Delta\theta}(T_{i,j-1,k} + T_{i,j+1,k}) + \frac{kr_i\Delta\theta\Delta r}{\Delta z}(T_{i,j,k-1}) + T_\infty hr_i\Delta\theta\Delta r}{\frac{2kr_i\Delta\theta\Delta z}{2\Delta r} + \frac{2k\Delta z\Delta r}{2r_i\Delta\theta} + \frac{kr_i\Delta\theta\Delta r}{\Delta z} + hr_i\Delta\theta\Delta r}$$

ii. At the Fin Surface

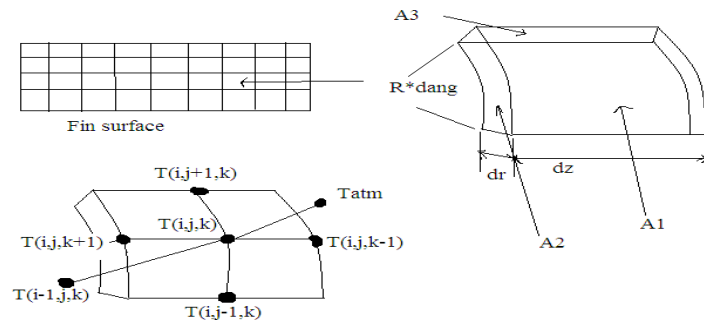


Fig. 6 : Grids at the surface of the fin.

$$\frac{kr_L\Delta\theta\Delta z(T_{i,j,k} - T_{i-1,j,k})}{\Delta r} - \frac{k\Delta z\Delta r(2T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j-1,k} - T_{i,j+1,k})}{2r_L\Delta\theta} - \frac{kr_L\Delta\theta\Delta r(2T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j,k-1} - T_{i,j,k+1})}{2\Delta z} = hr_L\Delta\theta\Delta z(T_{i,j,k} - T_\infty)$$

By simplification:

$$T_{i,j,k} = \frac{\left(\frac{kr_L\Delta\theta\Delta z}{\Delta r}(T_{i-1,j,k}) + \frac{k\Delta z\Delta r}{2r_L\Delta\theta}(T_{i,j-1,k} + T_{i,j+1,k}) + \frac{kr_L\Delta\theta\Delta r}{2\Delta z}(T_{i,j,k-1} + T_{i,j,k+1})\right) + T_\infty hr_L\Delta\theta\Delta z}{\frac{kr_L\Delta\theta\Delta z}{\Delta r} + \frac{k\Delta z\Delta r}{r_L\Delta\theta} + \frac{kr_L\Delta\theta\Delta r}{\Delta z} + hr_L\Delta\theta\Delta z}$$

iii. At the edge of the fin

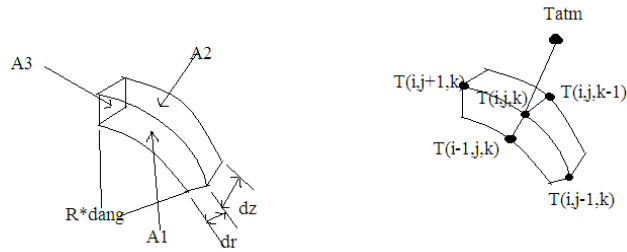


Fig. 7: Grid at the edge of the fin.

$$A1 = (\Delta r/2)(r_L \Delta \theta - \Delta r \Delta \theta/4); A2 = \left(\frac{r_L \Delta \theta \Delta z}{2}\right); A3 = (\Delta z \Delta r/4)$$

$$\frac{k * A1(T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j,k-1})}{\Delta z} - \frac{k * A2(T_{i,j,k} - T_{i-1,j,k})}{\Delta r} - \frac{k * A3(2T_{i,j,k} - T_{i,j-1,k} - T_{i,j+1,k})}{r_L \Delta \theta} = h * A1(T_{i,j,k} - T_{\infty}) + h * A2(T_{i,j,k} - T_{\infty})$$

By simplification:

$$T_{i,j,k} = \frac{\frac{k * A1(T_{i,j,k-1})}{\Delta z} + \frac{k * A2(T_{i-1,j,k})}{\Delta r} + \frac{k * A3(T_{i,j-1,k} + T_{i,j+1,k})}{r_L \Delta \theta} + h * A1 * T_{\infty} + h * A2 * T_{\infty}}{\frac{k * A1}{\Delta z} + \frac{k * A2}{\Delta r} + \frac{2k * A3}{r_L \Delta \theta} + h * A1 + h * A2}$$

Fin convective heat transfer from the end:

$$q_f = (hPkA_{cross-section})^{1/2}(T - T_{\infty}) \frac{\tanh(ml) + \left(\frac{h}{mk}\right)}{\left(\frac{h}{mk}\right) \tanh(ml) + 1}$$

Convective heat transfer from the fins surface:

$$q_f = \sum h \Delta z (T - T_{\infty})$$

Effectiveness of the Fin:

$$\varepsilon_f = \frac{q_f}{hA(T - T_{\infty})}$$

Efficiency of the cylindrical fin:

$$\eta_f = \frac{q_f}{hA_{fin}(T - T_{\infty})}$$

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The governing three dimensional differential equation of cylindrical fin was transformed into linear algebraic equations by finite difference methods and these equations were solved by using a program written in FORTRAN language. This code was used to determine the temperature at each node in the computational domain. The material Aluminium, Stainless

Steel, Aluminum -Bronze (Alloy), Copper having thermal conductivity (k) 200, 14, 76, 250 and 400 w/m-k respectively were chosen for the analysis of cylindrical fin. The convective coefficient of the surrounding 10 w/sqm-k. The fin base was maintained at a constant base temperature (400°C) 673.15K and the surrounding or ambient fluid temperature was considered at (25°C)298.15K.

For testing the Programme a Reference ([11]) temperature distribution is taken and compared with the result obtained in the figure 8. Similarly another comparison was done for the temperature distribution along the radius. The results are shown in the figure 10.

Variation of effectiveness and efficiency due to the variation of material is shown in table 1 and Figure 12 and Figure 13. From the table 1 we can see that copper has maximum effectiveness and efficiency so it was selected as the material of the fin.

The variation of effectiveness and efficiency due to the variation of length and radius is shown in Section 3.1 and Section 3.2 respectively.

At Section 3.3 table 4 shows the changes of effectiveness and efficiency due to change of length and radius simultaneously, thus providing us the optimum dimension of cylindrical fin which is .001m radius and .02m length.

At reference condition: $k=206\text{W/m}^\circ\text{C}$, $h=17\text{W/sq-m}^\circ\text{C}$, Atmosphere temp= 26°C , Fin base temp= 120°C , $L=.9\text{m}$, $R=.0127\text{m}$

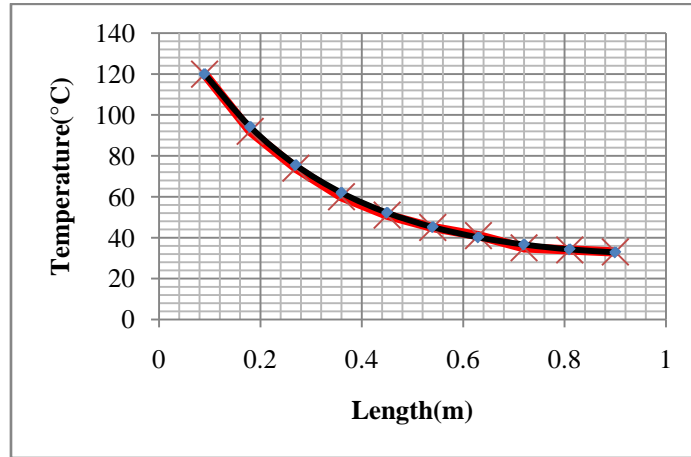


Fig. 8 : Comparison of result with reference [12](red line) to simulation result (black line)

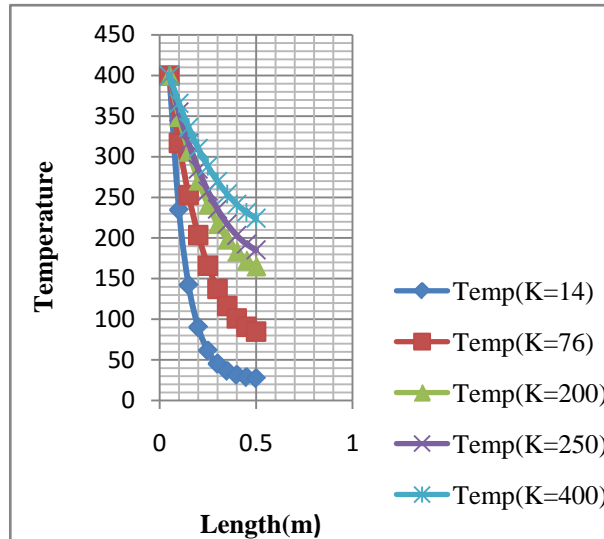


Fig. 9 : Temperature Distribution along the length of the fin at centre line for different Thermal conductivity (w/m-K)

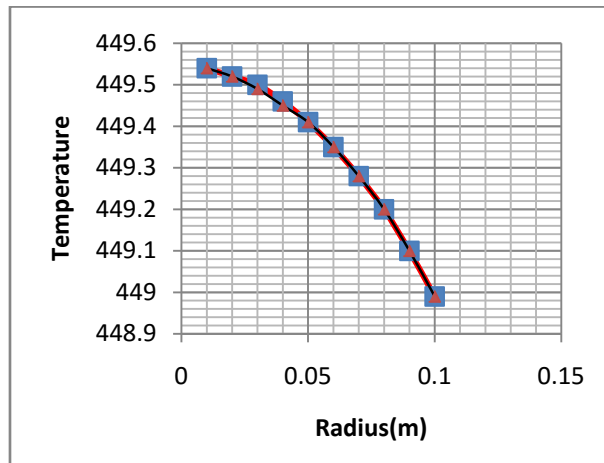


Fig. 10 : Comparison of Temperature distribution along the radius with the Reference[10] (black line) and simulation result (red line)

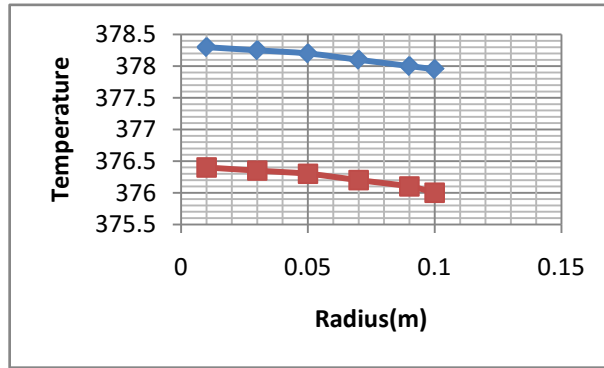


Fig. 11: Comparison of temperature distribution of Copper (blue line) and gold (red line)

Table 1 : Variation of Efficiency and Effectiveness with increasing thermal conductivity for same dimension of the fin

Thermal conductivity, k	Efficiency(%)	Effectiveness
14	38.0184	15.5875
76	72.098	29.5604
200	84.1667	34.508
250	85.98	35.253
400	88.8646	36.4345

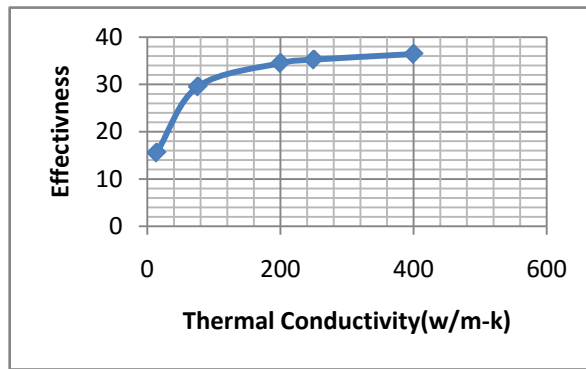


Fig. 12 : Variation of effectiveness with thermal conductivity of material

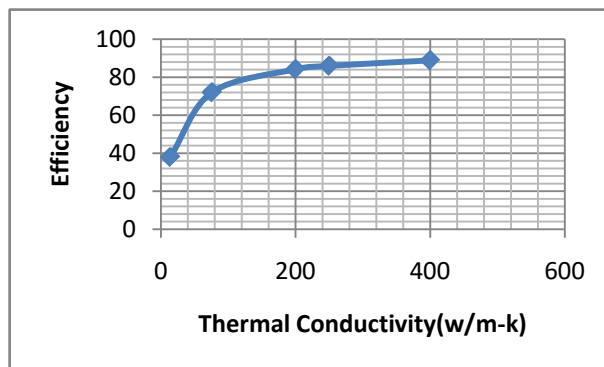


Fig. 13 : Variation of Efficiency with thermal conductivity of material



a) Variation of Effectiveness and Efficiency with variation of Length for fixed Radius

Table 2 : For Copper ($k=400$ w/m-k)

Length (m)	Radius (m)	Effectiveness	Efficiency(%)
0.02	.01	5.204659	99.6
0.04	.01	9.147603	99.5
0.06	.01	12.92411	99.41621
0.08	.01	16.55999	97.4117
0.1	.01	20.08848	95.65945
0.2	.01	36.4345	88.86464
0.3	.01	50.26515	82.40189
0.4	.01	61.10419	75.43728
0.5	.01	69.24301	68.55745

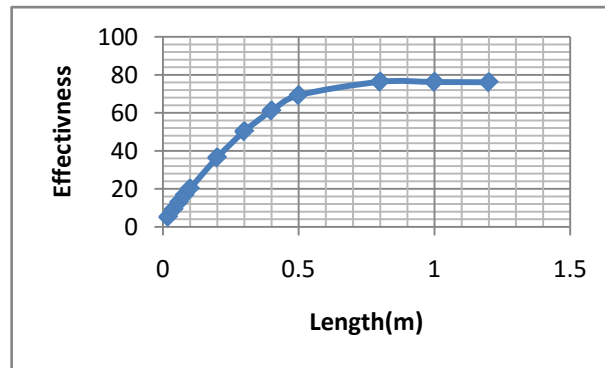


Fig. 14: Variation of effectiveness with variation of length.(copper)

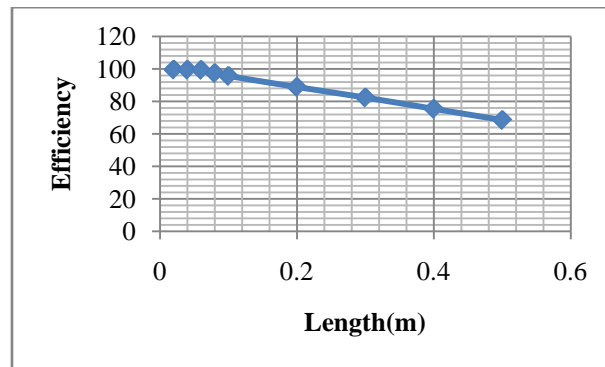


Fig. 15: Variation of efficiency with variation of length.(Copper)

b) Variation of Effectiveness and Efficiency with variation of Radius for fixed length

Table 3 : For Copper ($k=400$ w/m-k)

Radius (m)	Length (m)	Effectiveness	Efficiency(%)
0.008	.5	68.07667	54.0291
0.01	.5	69.24301	68.55745
0.02	.5	40.38728	79.19074
0.04	.5	22.73259	87.43302
0.06	.5	16.20367	91.71889
0.08	.5	12.75182	94.4579
0.1	.5	10.59521	96.32011

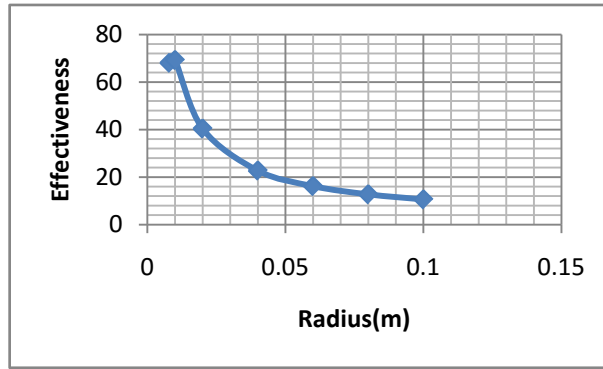


Fig. 16: Variation of Effectiveness with variation of radius. (Copper)

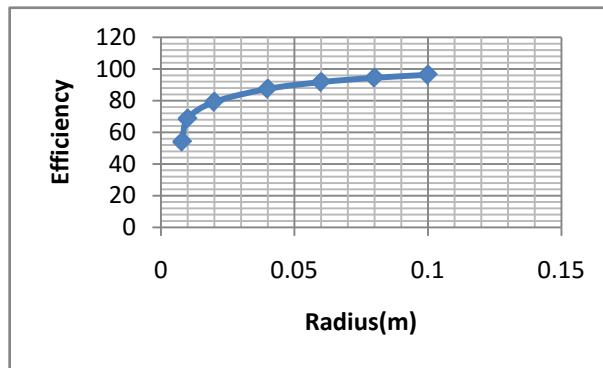


Fig. 17: Variation of Efficiency with variation of radius.(Copper)

c) Variation of Effectiveness and Efficiency for Different Fin Dimension

Table 4 : For Copper($k=400$ w/m-k)

Radius (m)	Length (m)	Effectiveness	Efficiency(%)
.02	.2	19.76635	94.12550
.002	.03	29.323790	94.592873
.001	.02	38.379875	93.609459
.003	.04	26.2769	94.977020

From this table the optimum dimensions can be easily found. The one having the maximum effectiveness and maximum efficiency. Though the 3rd result has minimum efficiency but it has the maximum effectiveness. The deviation of efficiency is not very large so the 3rd result is selected as the optimum dimension.

IV. CONCLUSION

From the above information and comparison it's been observed that the optimum dimension for the conditions assumed is a fin having .02m of length and .001m of radius. This fin gave the maximum effectiveness and efficiency for the assumed condition. But the results can vary according to the change of condition, which were assumed to be constant for the purpose of the simplification of the whole process. Material having higher conductivity can be used to get

more higher effectiveness and efficiency, but for simplification Copper is selected as the optimum material for the fin.

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NOMENCLATURE

Symbol	Meaning	Unit
q_f	Heat transfer rate from the fin	(watt)
A_c	Cross-section area of fin	(sq - m)
K	Thermal conductivity	(W/m-°C)
T(i,j,k)	Temperature At a point	(°C)
r_i	Radius at i-th circle	(m)
Δr	Radius of small element	(m)
$\Delta \theta$	Angle of small element	(radian)
Δz	Length of small element	(m)
T_∞	Ambient Fluid Temperature	(°C)
r_l	Maximum radius	(m)
L	Maximum length of fin	(m)
ε_f	Fin effectiveness	Dimensionless
η_f	Fin efficiency	Dimensionless
A_{fin}	Fin Surface area	(sq-m)
q_{max}	Maximum heat transfer if the fin were isothermal	(watt)
i	Index along radial direction	Dimensionless
j	Index along angular direction	Dimensionless
k	Index along length direction	Dimensionless
p	Fin perimeter (m)	(m)
q_b	Heat transfer from fin base	(watt)



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Optimization of Diesel Engine Parameters for Performance, Combustion and Emission Parameters using Taguchi and Grey Relational Analysis

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Abstract- Design and operating parameters of diesel engine were optimized in the present work with respect to performance, combustion and emission parameters. The goal is to reduce brake specific fuel consumption (BSFC), exhaust gas temperature (EGT), ignition delay (ID), emissions (CO, NO_x, HC) and to increase peak pressure (PP), brake thermal efficiency (BTHE), heat release (HR) simultaneously with least number of experimental runs. The objective was accomplished through experimental investigations, design of experiments, Taguchi method and Grey Relational Analysis. Four parameters viz. injection timing (IJT), injection pressure (IP), compression ratio (CR) and load were varied at four levels and the (nine) responses were recorded. Taguchi approach was applied to individual response and observed that optimal factor settings for various responses are different.

Keywords: diesel engine, performance parameters, combustion parameters, emission parameters, taguchi approach, signal to noise ratio, grey relational approach.

GJRE-A Classification : FOR Code: 290501p



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Optimization of Diesel Engine Parameters for Performance, Combustion and Emission Parameters using Taguchi and Grey Relational Analysis

M, Shailaja ^α & A V Sitarama Raju ^σ

Abstract- Design and operating parameters of diesel engine were optimized in the present work with respect to performance, combustion and emission parameters. The goal is to reduce brake specific fuel consumption (BSFC), exhaust gas temperature (EGT), ignition delay (ID), emissions (CO, NO_x, HC) and to increase peak pressure (PP), brake thermal efficiency (BTHE), heat release (HR) simultaneously with least number of experimental runs. The objective was accomplished through experimental investigations, design of experiments, Taguchi method and Grey Relational Analysis. Four parameters viz. injection timing (IJT), injection pressure (IP), compression ratio (CR) and load were varied at four levels and the (nine) responses were recorded. Taguchi approach was applied to individual response and observed that optimal factor settings for various responses are different. Grey relational approach (by assigning weighting factor for each response) was applied to solve multi objective optimization problem. The optimal combination of factors was obtained as injection timing 28° bTDC, injection pressure 180 bar, compression ratio 19 and load 80% full load and load was observed to be most influential factor among the four with a contribution of 70.37%. The model developed was validated by confirmation test and found good agreement between predicted and experimental values of responses.

Keywords: diesel engine, performance parameters, combustion parameters, emission parameters, taguchi approach, signal to noise ratio, grey relational approach.

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a huge demand for diesel engines in industrial, agricultural and automotive sector. The advantages of diesel engines over gasoline engines are fuel economy, high thermal efficiency, low CO₂ emissions, ruggedness, flexibility to operate at higher compression ratio and so on. However, faster depletion of fossil fuels and environment pollution demand the engine designers to take control over fuel economy and emissions. Much research has been carried out to tackle these problems. Various investigators attempted to optimize engine design and/or operating parameters with respect to

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performance, combustion and emission parameters to control fuel economy or emissions. Diverse numerical and statistical techniques are available for optimization; however, some offer single objective optimization and some other multi objective. The benefit of multi objective or multivariate optimization over single objective optimization is that influence of factors on multiple responses can be assessed and studied.

a) Design of experiments

Most processes depend on some controllable factors. Similarly, performance, combustion process and emissions of a diesel engine, depends on design parameters like injection timing, injection pressure, compression ratio, engine size, type of combustion chamber and operating parameters such as load, intake temperature and pressure of air, speed, air-fuel ratio etc. To realize the effect of control factors on responses like; performance, combustion and emission parameters, a series of experiments are to be run. Experiments are to be well designed for generating more significant information within fewer runs to evaluate the important effects, rather than employing unplanned experiments. Design of Experiments (DOE) offer systematic investigation of the control factors that influence the responses. Common methods in DOE are hit and miss, one factor at a time, full factorial, fractional factorial etc. Fractional factorial method has advantage of less number of experiments without loss of much information and adopted in the present work. The four phases involved in DOE are planning, screening or process characterization, optimization and verification. Planning includes defining the problem and objective, followed by development of experimental plan which provides all significant information. Screening or process characterization comprises of selection of factors which are really important, or the vital few. Various methods are available for screening but most widely used is fractional factorial method. In fractional factorial method, only a selected subset or fraction of runs in the full factorial design is performed. Optimization is the phase where best or optimal values of control factors are determined by various techniques available. Verification is the phase in which optimal factor values after

prediction are tested for confirmation of results. In planning phase, factors, levels and responses are chosen and orthogonal arrays are formed, which were originally developed by Sir R.A. Fisher and later added by Taguchi. Experiments are conducted based on orthogonal arrays and analysed based on Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR). Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR) measures the variation of response relative to nominal or target value. Two types of SNR used in the present work; smaller the better and larger the better.

When the response is to be minimized, 'smaller the better' SNR is appropriate and is computed using the Eq. 1 while 'larger the Better' SNR is apt for the maximizing response applying the Eq. 2.

$$SNR_S = -10 \log \frac{1}{n} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right\} \quad (1)$$

$$SNR_L = -10 \log \frac{1}{n} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{y_i^2} \right) \right\} \quad (2)$$

Where y_i is the response from i^{th} experiment and $i=1, 2 \dots n$. After SNRs are evaluated, main effect plot for SNRs are drawn to find optimal values of the factors. ANOVA is performed to explore and model relationship between responses and factors and relative percentage contribution of factors on response.

Numerous studies have been carried out to study the effect of IJT, IP, CR and load of the engine on performance, combustion and emission parameters [1-5]. For better performance, the engine should be operated at a set of optimal design and operating parameters. Optimization with the help of orthogonal arrays was proposed by Taguchi [6] in which optimum set of factors is determined for each response with the help of (Signal to Noise Ratio) SNR. Taguchi method has been applied successfully for numerous problems in various fields of science and technology. Diesel engine parameters are not an exception for it. A brief review of research carried is following.

T. Ganapathy et al.[7] used Taguchi method to optimize ten operating and design variables of diesel engine for maximum brake thermal efficiency, peak pressure, temperature, IMEP, BMEP and reported improvement in above said parameters at optimal condition obtained by Taguchi approach. Horng-Wen Wu et al. [8] reported that Taguchi method is good to find optimal operating parameters for high brake thermal efficiency and low BSFC, NO_x and smoke. Kaliamoorthy.S et al.[9] employed Taguchi method to optimize power, static injection timing, fuel fraction and compression ratio for best values of brake power, fuel economy and emissions and reported that confirmation tests showed good agreement with predicted values of parameters. Karthikeyan. R et al. [10] from their work

concluded that Taguchi method of optimization efficiently predicted optimum level of parameters and found satisfactory results at optimum setting. The inference from the work of Vincent H. Wilson et al.[11] confirmed that Taguchi method is efficient in predicting range of optimum settings of valve opening pressure, piston to head clearance volume, static injection timing, area of the spray nozzle hole and load for best values of NO_x emissions and brake specific fuel consumption.

Even though Taguchi method proved as one of the best methods for optimization, its major limitation is inability to tackle multi objective optimization. This drawback is trounced by application of grey relation analysis and Taguchi method collectively. Grey relational analysis, proposed by Deng in 1982, which is commonly used for assessing the degree of correlation between sequences by grey relational grade. In this analysis, responses are normalized (between zeros to one) which is known as grey relational generation. Grey relational coefficient is calculated using normalized data of responses. Grey relational coefficients of all the responses is averaged to get overall grey relational grade. The calculation of grey relational grade converts multi variant optimization problem into single response optimization, overall grey relational grade being objective function. By maximizing the overall grey relational grade the optimal parametric combination is evaluated. Some research work is also reported regarding use of grey relational analysis in conjunction with Taguchi method.

The results of research done by Ashish Karnwal et al.[12] emphasized that Taguchi method coupled with grey relational analysis can be used successfully for exploration of multiple-performance variables of diesel engine. In their work, biodiesel blend, compression ratio, opening pressure of nozzle and injection timing are optimized for best values of brake thermal efficiency, brake specific energy consumption and exhaust gas temperature of diesel engine. In a study carried out by Sumit Roy et al. [13] optimization of CNG energy share and fuel injection pressure for lowest values of BSFC, NO_x and HC done successfully.

Goutam Pohit et al.[14] reported effective optimization of biodiesel blend, compression ratio and load for better values of performance and emission parameters by grey relational analysis and supported by confirmatory experiments. Optimization of speed of the engine, load and type of fuel for better values of performance and emissions was prolifically done by M. I. Masood et al. [15] by means of grey Taguchi method and confirmatory test by artificial neural networks showed best validation. Taguchi method along with grey relational analysis and ANOVA was able to identify the order of significance/ contribution of each of the parameters (injector opening pressure, fuel injection timing and compression ratio) on BTHE, BSFC and emissions, further they reported that confirmation test

results were in good agreement with predicted values [16]. Similar results were also reported by some other investigators [17, 18,].

b) Motivation and Objectives

As per available literature, most of the research work pertaining to diesel engine parameters was concentrated on either of performance or emission parameters or both. However, so far no work was reported on optimization for parameters of combustion like peak pressure, ignition delay, and heat release together with performance and emission parameters. Hence, objective of present work is to spot out optimal values of design and operating parameters of diesel engine, which would maximize brake thermal efficiency, peak pressure, and heat release and to minimize BSFC, exhaust gas temperature, ignition delay and emissions simultaneously.

In the present work Taguchi method and grey relational analysis are used for optimization. Taguchi analysis results shows order of factors influencing particular response in the form of ranks. Hence, ANOVA (Analysis of variance) is used to find the percentage contributions of IJT, IP, CR and load on response parameters.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Experimental setup

Experiments were carried out on a 4-s single-cylinder, water cooled direct injection, variable compression ratio diesel engine. The specifications of the engine are presented in Table1.and layout of engine in Fig. 1.

Table 1 : Specifications of Engine.

Engine Type	Kirloskar
Number of cylinders	Single(01)
Combustion	Direct injection
Bore	80 mm
Stroke	110 mm
Compression Ratio	Variable (15-20)
Rated Speed	1500 rpm
Power	5 hp
Type of cooling	Water cooling
Fuel injector opening pressure	200 bar
Fuel injection timing	22° before TDC
Type of loading	Electrical loading

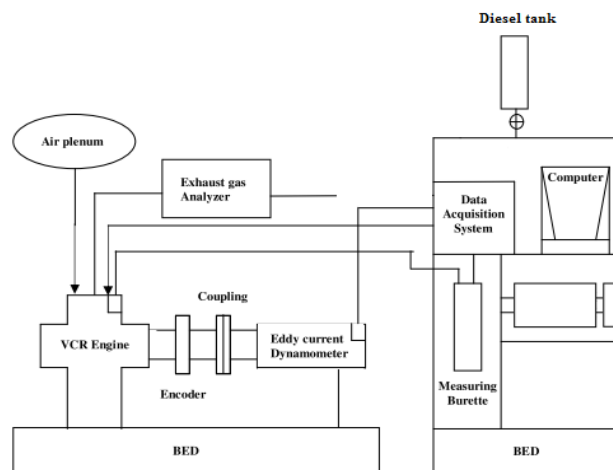


Fig. 1 : Engine setup

The engine is attached to an eddy current dynamometer with speed sensing unit incorporated. PCB (USA) make piezo - electric transducer is flush mounted in the cylinder head and used to measure cylinder pressure. An optical encoder is employed to capture the rpm of the crank shaft. Data acquisition system with high speed is used for acquisition and analysis of pressure crank angle data is done by software. To eliminate effect of cycle to cycle variation,

pressure crank angle data for 100 consecutive cycles is recorded and averaged. Parameters are calculated using averaged data. Software calculates and displays performance and combustion parameters from the recorded observations. Each experiment was conducted four times and values are averaged to avoid errors. Emissions are measured by a gas analyzer; specifications are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 : Specifications of 5-gas analyzer Indus make.

Exhaust gas	Measurement Range	Resolution	Accuracy	Measuring Method
CO	0-15.0% vol	0.01% vol	+ 0.06% vol	NDIR
HC	0-30000 ppm (Propane) 0-15000 ppm (Hexane)	1 ppm vol	+ 12ppm	NDIR
NO _x	0-5000 ppm	1 ppm vol	+ 50% vol	Electrochemical

III. METHODOLOGY

The factors considered in the present work are injection timing, injection pressure, compression ratio

and load. Each factor is varied at 4-levels as presented in Table 3.

Table 3 : Factors and their levels

Factors	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
Injection Timing (°bTDC)	20	22	24	26
Injection Pressure (bar)	180	200	220	240
Compression Ratio	15	16.5	18	19
% of Full Load	22	40	60	80

The Taguchi method employs orthogonal arrays from theory of DOE to learn the effect of huge number of controllable factors on responses inside a small experimental matrix. Use of orthogonal arrays notably reduce the number of experiments in view of the fact that it provides the shortest possible matrix in which all

factors are varied over working range. Furthermore, the conclusions from this shortest number of experiments are valid over entire range. L₁₆ orthogonal array is prepared from Taguchi's design with four factors and four levels as presented in Table 4.

Table 4 : Orthogonal array for experimental data

S.No	Injection Timing(°bTDC)	Injection Pressure (bar)	Compression Ratio	% Full Load
1.	22	180	15	20
2.	22	200	16.5	40
3.	22	220	18	60
4.	22	240	19	80
5.	24	180	16.5	60
6.	24	200	15	80
7.	24	220	19	20
8.	24	240	18	40
9.	26	180	18	80
10.	26	200	19	60
11.	26	220	15	40
12.	26	240	16.5	20
13.	28	180	19	40
14.	28	200	18	20
15.	28	220	16.5	80
16.	28	240	15	60

Interaction among the factors was neglected because all are independent. Motivation for selection of response variables is, to make the present work

significant to the existing studies of focussing all-pervading performance, combustion and emission

parameters that confront the contemporary diesel engine design.

Experiments were conducted as per L_{16} orthogonal array presented in Table 4. Compression ratio was varied with the help of a lever attached to the cylinder head. Number of shims was adjusted under the seat of the mounting flange of fuel pump to alter static injection timing. It was noted that, addition of shims retards fuel injection timing and vice versa. Injection pressure was measured and adjusted using an injector opening pressure test rig. It comprises of a pipe to connect to the injector and a fuel reservoir. Spring tension of the nozzle is varied by adjusting screw on the injector to vary the pressure.

Various performance parameters considered in the present work are brake specific fuel consumption (BSFC), brake thermal efficiency (BTHE) and exhaust gas temperature (EGT). Low values of BSFC and EGT are preferable whereas high value of BTHE is preferable. BSFC and BTHE were calculated and EGT was recorded from display.

Combustion parameters studied in the present work are ignition delay (ID), peak pressure (PP) and Heat release (HR). The time interval between start of injection (CAD at which fuel injection starts) and start of combustion (CAD at which combustion starts) in diesel engines is called ignition delay period [19]. It may be expressed in terms of CAD (crank angle degrees) or milliseconds. From p- θ data, CAD is noted, where positive values of heat release (start of combustion) is observed and ignition delay was calculated as difference between CAD of start of combustion and start of injection.

Peak pressure is the maximum cylinder pressure attained during combustion process very near to and after TDC and is taken from p- θ data. Heat release is the amount of heat released during combustion process. According to Heywood [19], combustion continues well into the expansion stroke up to 31°. HR is taken as the sum total of HR per CAD from start of combustion to significant positive values of HR per CAD.

NO_x , CO and HC are the emissions considered in this work for analysis and are measured using exhaust gas analyser (details are presented in Table.2)

a) *Taguchi Method*

Taguchi approach employs the parameter SNR (Signal to Noise Ratio) for optimization. Largest value SNR is preferred as it indicates minimized effects of noise factors. SNRs are calculated by formulae mentioned in section 1.2 based on criteria smaller the better or larger the better. Larger the better criteria is used for brake thermal efficiency, peak pressure, and heat release whereas smaller the better criteria is used for BSFC, exhaust gas temperature, ignition delay, CO, NO_x and HC. In the present work Minitab software is

used for Taguchi design, SNR calculations, main effects plots and performing ANOVA. After computation of SNRs, main effect plots for SN Ratios are plotted by taking data means. The SNRs for different responses were calculated at each factor level. The average effects were calculated by taking sum total of each factor level and then dividing by number of data points.

In view of the fact that Taguchi approach results in different optimal conditions for various responses, overall optimal condition cannot be figured out. Hence in the present work grey relational analysis is also carried out for multi objective optimization.

b) *Grey Relational Analysis*

The degree of approximation among the sequences is measured using a parameter called grey relational grade in grey relational analysis. In grey relational analysis, the responses are normalized between zero and 1. This process is known as grey relational generation. Normalized data for lower the better criteria can be calculated by Eq.3 and for higher the better by Eq. 4.

$$x_i(k) = \frac{\max y_i(k) - y_i(k)}{\max y_i(k) - \min y_i(k)} \quad (3)$$

$$x_i(k) = \frac{y_i(k) - \max y_i(k)}{\max y_i(k) - \min y_i(k)} \quad (4)$$

Where $y_i(k)$ is the original sequence (response from experiments), $x_i(k)$ is the sequence

for comparison (normalized value of response) and $i=1,2,\dots,m$ and $k= 1,2,\dots,n$; m is total number of experiments and n is total number of responses. $\min y_i(k)$ and $\max y_i(k)$ are lowest and highest values of $y_i(k)$ respectively.

Next, deviational sequences Δ_{oi} for responses are calculated from Eq.5.

$$\Delta_{oi} = |x_0(k) - x_i(k)| \quad (5)$$

where $x_0(k)$ was an ideal sequence.

GRC (Grey relational coefficient) $\xi_i(k)$ for each response is calculated to represent the correlation between the desired responses and actual experimental data using Eq. 6 .

$$\xi_i(k) = \frac{\Delta_{\min} + \psi \Delta_{\max}}{\Delta_{oi}(k) + \psi \Delta_{\max}} \quad (6)$$

Δ_{\min} and Δ_{\max} are the minimum and maximum values of the absolute differences of all comparing sequences. ψ is the distinguishing coefficient and it lies in the range $0 \leq \psi \leq 1$. Value of distinguishing coefficient is taken as 0.5 for all responses [20, 21].

Subsequent to calculation of grey relational coefficients grey relational grade γ_k is calculated for each response by assigning appropriate weighting factor β_i . Weighting factor is assigned to a particular response, based on their relative significance, and the sum of weighting factors must be equal to unity [22]. In the present work weighting factor 0.2 is assigned for brake thermal efficiency and 0.1 for all other responses.

A grey relational grade is a weighted sum of the grey relational coefficients, and is calculated using Eq. 7.

$$\gamma_k = \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i(k) \beta_i \quad (7)$$

For k^{th} response variable, where γ_k is grey relational grade, $\xi_i(k)$ is distinguishing coefficient, β_i is weighting factor. Closeness of particular response with optimal value is given by higher value of grey relational grade.

This study uses L_{16} orthogonal array of Taguchi method mentioned in Table 4 to find out best Injection timing, injection pressure, compression ratio and load setting for diesel engine. At four levels of each factor, the responses viz. BSFC, brake thermal efficiency, peak pressure, and heat release, exhaust gas temperature, ignition delay, CO, NO_x and HC are determined.

IV. TAGUCHI RESULTS ANALYSIS AND CONFIRMATION EXPERIMENTS

SNR curves are graphical representations of variation in responses with variation in factor levels. From these curves two observations are noted. First one is most influential parameters and second is their optimum levels. After taking average of SNRs at four levels of particular factor, plots are drawn for means of SNRs Vs factor level. Fig. 2 (a) to 2(i) show such plots for all 9 response variables. Level with highest value of mean SNR is considered as optimal value.

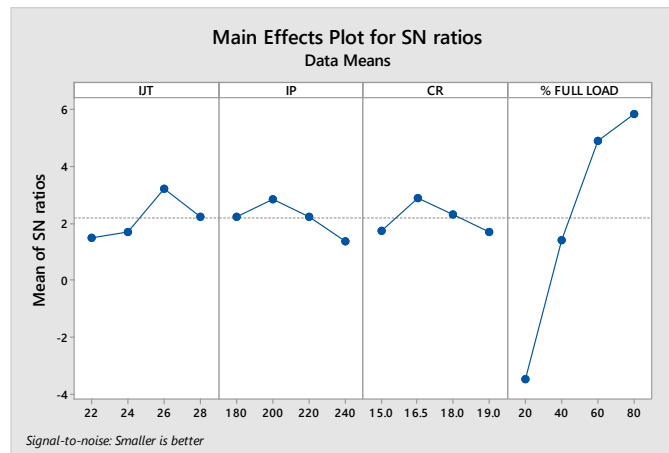


Fig. 2 (a) : Main effects plot for SNR of BSFC

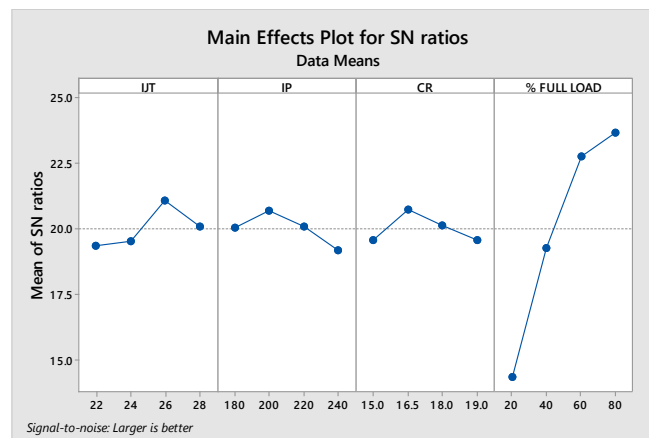


Fig. 2 (b) : Main effects plot for SNR of BTHE.

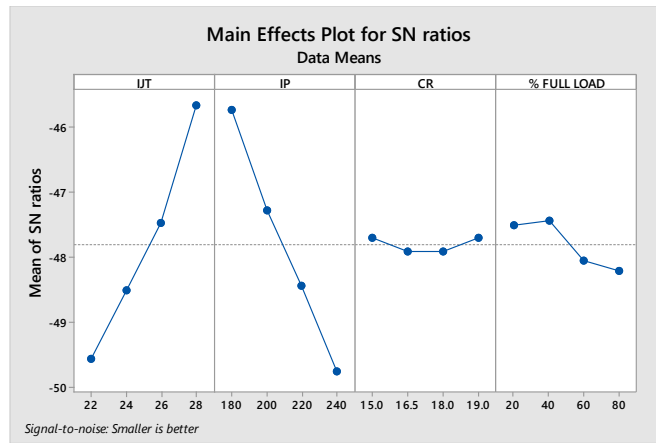


Fig. 2 (c) : Main effects plot for SNR of EGT

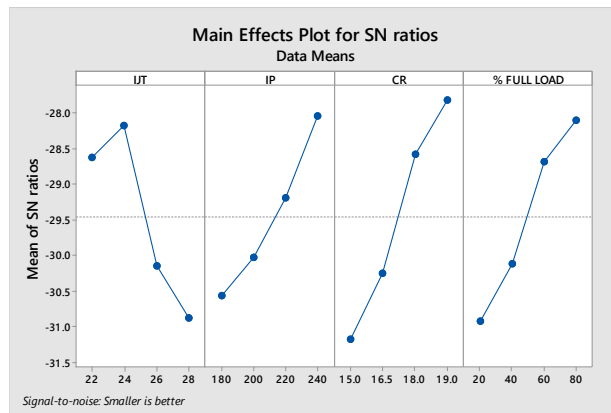


Fig. 2(d) : Main effects plot for SNR of Ignition Delay

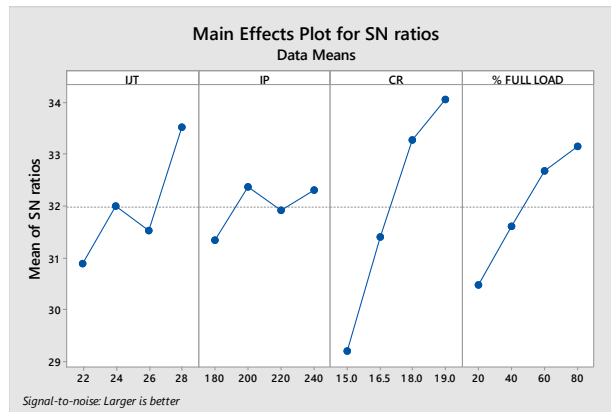


Fig. 2(e) : Main effects plot for SNR of Peak Pressure

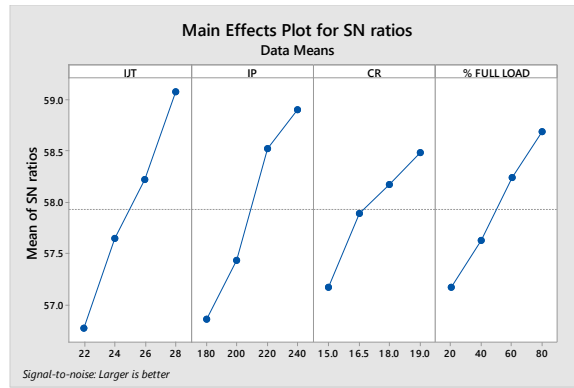


Fig. 2 (f) : Main effects plot for SNR of Heat Release

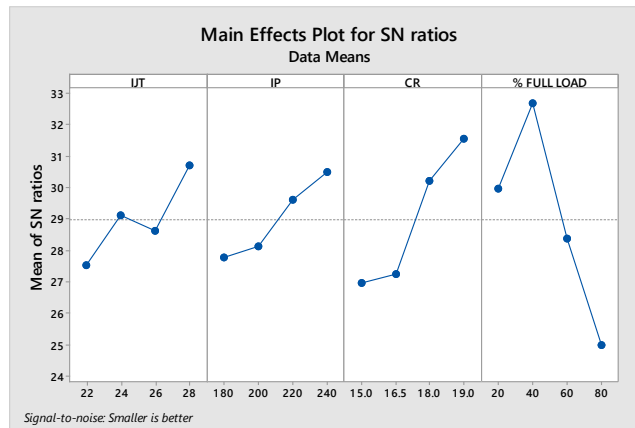


Fig. 2 (g) : Main effects plot for SNR of CO

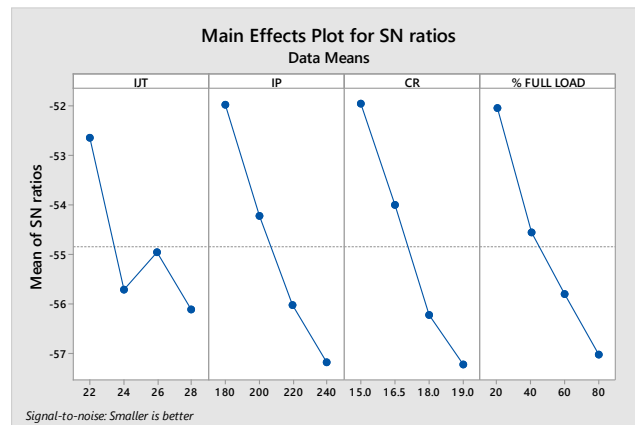


Fig. 2 (h) : Main effects plot for SNR of NOx

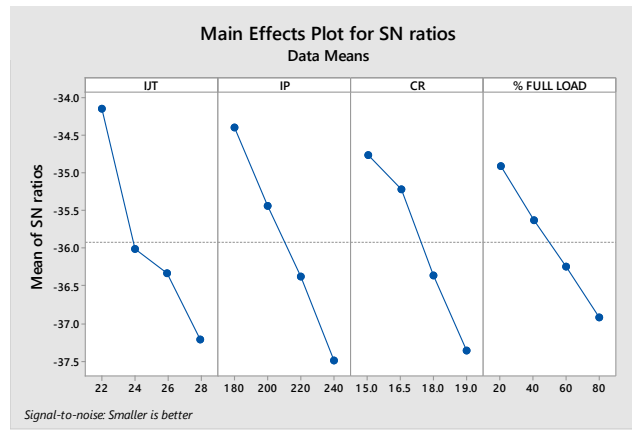


Fig. 2 (i) : Main effects plot for SNR of HC

Table 5 presents optimal settings of factors for different set of factor values lead to optimal values of various responses. It is evident from Table 5 that different responses.

Table 5 : Optimum factor settings from SNR analysis

Controlled Factors	BSFC (kg/kW-hr)	BTHE (%)	EGT (°C)	PP (bar)	ID (CAD)	HR (J)	CO (% by vol)	NOx (ppm)	HC (ppm)
IJT (degrees BTDC)	26	26	28	28	24	28	28	22	22
IP (bar)	200	200	180	240	240	240	240	180	180
CR	16.5	16.5	19	19	19	19	19	15	15
% of Full Load	80	80	40	80	80	80	40	20	20

Experiments were conducted at optimal set of conditions as mentioned in Table 4 and corresponding responses were recorded. The values of responses at

optimal settings from Taguchi analysis are compared with that of baseline engine and presented in Table 6.

Table 6 : Comparison of base line engine experiments with optimized engine experiments

	BSFC (kg/kW-hr)	BTHE (%)	EGT (°C)	PP (bar)	ID (CAD)	HR (J)	CO (% by vol)	NOx (ppm)	HC (ppm)
Baseline Engine	0.41	18.95	253	40.9	20	817.74	0.0632	651	62
Optimized Engine	0.37	21.63	139	69.4	14	1185.68	0.0101	153	32

It is observed from Table 6 that the parameters BSFC, EGT, ID, CO, NOx and HC shown significant decrease for optimized engine compared to baseline engine and is represented in Fig. 3(a), whereas the

parameters BTHE, PP and HR shown significant increase for optimized engine compared to baseline engine and is represented in Fig. 3(b).

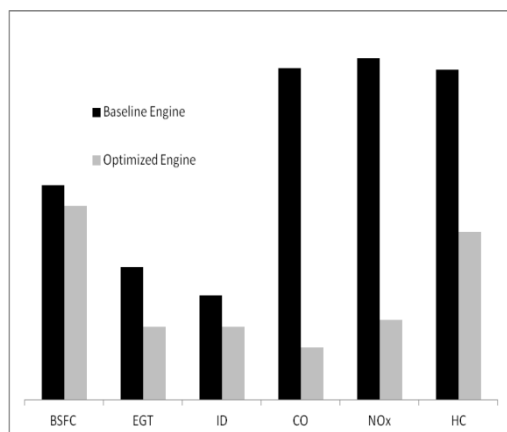


Fig. 3(a) : Comparison of parameters (to be minimized) between baseline engine and optimized engine

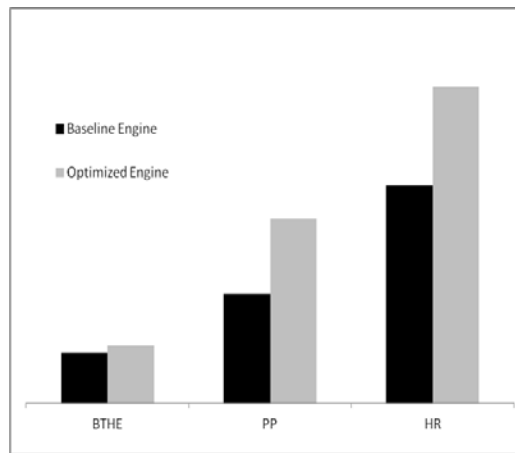


Fig. 3 (b) : Comparison of parameters (to be maximized) between baseline engine and optimized engine

To validate Taguchi model, SNR and response value for a set of factors can be predicted and experiments are conducted at the same factor settings to get response value and compared. Confirmation tests are conducted at different sets of factor settings for

each response variable and values are recorded. A comparison between predicted values and experimental values of responses is presented in Table 7 and good agreement between Taguchi prediction and confirmation tests is observed.

Table 7 : Comparison between Taguchi prediction and confirmation test values.

S.No	Response Variable	Taguchi Prediction value	Confirmation test value	% Difference between prediction and confirmation test
1	BSFC (kg/kW-hr)	0.455688	0.42	-8.49714
2	BTHE (%)	15.26	16.2	5.802469
3	EGT (° C)	229.75	228	0.7617
4	PP (bar)	45.5812	44.4	-2.66036
5	ID (CAD)	23.43	22.3	-5.06726
6	HR (J)	606.519	623.6	2.739096
7	CO (% by vol)	0.05948	0.0622	4.37299
8	NO _x (ppm)	653.875	596	-9.71057
9	HC(ppm)	58.875	55	-7.04545

a) Grey Relational Analysis Results

Taguchi approach, even though resulted in optimal values of responses, factors are optimized one at a time (single objective optimization) and for various responses different factor settings were obtained. To overcome this problem with Taguchi approach, grey relational analysis with Taguchi approach was carried out for multi objective optimization.

Initially responses were normalized based on higher the better or smaller the better criteria and deviation sequences were calculated. Grey relational coefficients are calculated using Eq. 6 and grey relational grades for responses were calculated using Eq. 7 by assigning appropriate weights and are presented in Table 8.

Table 8 : Grey relational coefficients and grey relational grades

Weights	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
S.No	BSFC	BTHE	EGT	PP	ID	HR	CO	NOX	HC	GRG
1	0.3349	0.3335	0.5812	0.3333	0.3333	0.33333	0.3862	1	1	0.496937
2	0.6266	0.4428	0.4583	0.4667	0.4366	0.39108	0.5544	0.6316	0.6986	0.514963
3	0.9098	0.7494	0.3952	0.5965	0.6889	0.49505	0.6005	0.4142	0.4857	0.608461
4	0.8868	0.7146	0.3333	0.905	1	0.63613	0.4766	0.3333	0.3333	0.633373
5	0.986	0.9701	0.616	0.5022	0.5636	0.43081	0.3951	0.5825	0.5604	0.657692
6	1	1	0.52	0.4555	0.5254	0.44138	0.3333	0.4816	0.4857	0.624302
7	0.3333	0.3333	0.4617	0.6387	0.6078	0.52241	0.7994	0.4029	0.4016	0.483446
8	0.5402	0.4008	0.3965	0.6765	0.6889	0.57478	0.8957	0.3389	0.3778	0.529082
9	0.9591	0.8628	0.6552	0.7708	0.5254	0.53367	0.3868	0.4307	0.4359	0.642322
10	0.9098	0.7559	0.5812	1	0.5636	0.57663	0.5753	0.3863	0.3835	0.6488
11	0.7622	0.5481	0.5576	0.3773	0.4026	0.49044	0.6336	0.5825	0.4766	0.537909
12	0.4879	0.3803	0.4634	0.4148	0.4247	0.53775	0.6322	0.5119	0.4359	0.466896
13	0.6812	0.479	1	0.8956	0.4247	0.52378	1	0.4448	0.4016	0.632967
14	0.4983	0.3841	0.7792	0.7377	0.4133	0.51787	0.6927	0.5342	0.4286	0.536988
15	0.945	0.8381	0.601	0.8147	0.4627	1	0.398	0.3549	0.3669	0.661939
16	0.7231	0.5095	0.52	0.5651	0.4493	0.75654	0.6005	0.3998	0.3517	0.538499

The average of grey relational grade for each level of factor is calculated and tabulated in Table 9.

Table 9 : Average values of GRG

LEVELS	IJT	IP	CR	% FULL LOAD
1	0.563433	0.607479	0.549412	0.496066
2	0.57363	0.581263	0.575372	0.55373
3	0.573982	0.572939	0.579213	0.613363
4	0.592598	0.541962	0.599646	0.640484
Delta	0.029165	0.065517	0.050235	0.144418
Rank	4	2	3	1

The grey relational grade signifies the correlation between the reference sequence and comparability sequence, higher value of grey relational coefficient indicates stronger correlation. From Table 9, it is concluded that optimal factor setting is 4th level of IJT i.e. 28° bTDC, 1st level of IP (180 bar), 4th level of both CR and % full load i.e. 19 and 80% full load respectively.

To validate the model developed for optimize factor settings for maximum value of GRG prediction was carried at IJT 24° bTDC, IP 200 bar, CR 16.5 and at 40% full load. GRG for prediction was 0.556263 where as confirmation test by experimentation at the above factor settings was 0.551443. Further, from Table 9, it is reported that most influencing factor is % full load whereas least one is injection timing. However, relative importance of factors on responses quantitatively must be known for accurate determination of optimal factor setting, which can be accomplished by ANOVA.

b) Analysis of Variance

The objective of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is to explore most influential parameter (factor) that effect response, quantitatively. ANOVA is carried out using MINITAB software and results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10 : ANOVA results grey relational grade

Factor	Degrees of Freedom	Adjusted Sum Square	Mean sum Square	F-Value	P-Value	Contribution
IJT	3	0.001772	0.000591	0.33	0.805	2.51%
IP	3	0.008746	0.002915	1.64	0.347	12.37%
CR	3	0.005107	0.001702	0.96	0.513	7.22%
% FULL LOAD	3	0.049758	0.016586	9.34	0.050	70.37%
Error	3	0.005325	0.0017775			7.53%
Total	15					100.00%

From ANOVA results it is reported that load is the most influential parameter (70.37%) where as injection pressure, compression ratio and injection timing influence in the order is 12.37%, 7.22% and 2.51%.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, optimal engine design and operating parameters viz. injection timing, injection pressure, compression ratio and % full load were determined for (nine) multiple response parameters (brake thermal efficiency, brake specific fuel consumption, exhaust gas temperature, peak pressure, ignition delay, heat release, CO, NOx and HC) by using Taguchi and grey relational analysis. 16 experiments were conducted as per L_{16} orthogonal array.

As Taguchi approach can handle single objective optimization problem optimal factor settings for each of nine parameters was explored separately, however it was observed that for various response parameters optimal factor settings were different. Hence authors attempted multi objective/variant optimization by using grey relational approach coupled with Taguchi approach. The grey relational analysis by assigning weighting factors, converts optimization of multi response problem into optimization of single objective i.e. grey relational grade. By using grey relational analysis coupled with Taguchi approach optimal factor settings reported were 28° bTDC injection timing, 180 bar injection pressure, 19 compression ratio and 80% of the full load and load was observed to be most influential parameter. To validate the model developed for multi objective optimization confirmation test were conducted and compared with prediction and the results were satisfactory. Further ANOVA was carried out to explore relative influence of factors on responses and relative contribution of load was reported as 70.37%. Thus the relationship between the diesel engine design and operating parameters with performance, combustion and emission parameters could be better understood using Taguchi and grey relational method.

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The Design and Construction of a Step Grate Incinerator

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Abstract- This paper presents the design and fabrication of an incinerator meant to thermally treat (i.e. combust) domestic waste for the purpose of reducing its volume and destroying hazardous substances or pathogens present in the waste. A step grate package incinerator with a capacity of 100 kg/day was designed and constructed to combust domestic solid waste which otherwise cannot be economically recycled. The mass balance of the equipment was done to determine the amount of combustion air needed to completely burn the waste; likewise the heat balance was done to determine if an auxiliary burner would be needed. The performance test carried out on the waste – plastic, paper, rubber, leather, textile, wood and garbage – reveal a percentage decrease in volume between 78% – 95%.

Keywords: *combustion, waste management, incineration, solid waste, mass and heat balance.*

GJRE-A Classification : *FOR Code: 091399*



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



The Design and Construction of a Step Grate Incinerator

Olisa, Y. P. ^α, Amos, A. E. ^σ & Kotingo, K. ^ρ

Abstract- This paper presents the design and fabrication of an incinerator meant to thermally treat (i.e. combust) domestic waste for the purpose of reducing its volume and destroying hazardous substances or pathogens present in the waste. A step grate package incinerator with a capacity of 100 kg/day was designed and constructed to combust domestic solid waste which otherwise cannot be economically recycled. The mass balance of the equipment was done to determine the amount of combustion air needed to completely burn the waste; likewise the heat balance was done to determine if an auxiliary burner would be needed. The performance test carried out on the waste – plastic, paper, rubber, leather, textile, wood and garbage – reveal a percentage decrease in volume between 78% – 95%.

Keywords: combustion, waste management, incineration, solid waste, mass and heat balance.

I. INTRODUCTION

The efficient management of solid waste is very important to public health and well-being of urban residents (Ernst, 2008). In most cities in the developing world, several tons of municipal solid waste is left uncollected on the streets each day, interfering with the free flow of drainage, creating feeding ground for pests that spread diseases and creating an enormous health and infrastructural problems. Municipal solid waste management is an important part of the urban infrastructure that ensures the protection of environment and human health (Sandna, 1982).

The degradation of the environment caused by inefficient disposal of waste can be expressed by the contamination of soil, surface and ground water through leachate; the spreading of diseases by different vectors like birds, insects and rodents. There is also the uncontrolled release of methane by anaerobic decomposition of waste and air pollution by open burning of waste. The sustainability of the land filling system has become a global challenge due to increased environmental concerns. Growing public opposition together with unavailability of land is one of the reasons why obtaining sites for new landfill is becoming increasingly difficult. Locating a landfill far away from the urban area or far away from the source of waste generation increases transfer costs and additional investments for the infrastructure of roads, hence intensifying the financial problems of the responsible

authorities. Common problems for Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) management in the cities include institutional deficiencies, inadequate legislation and resource constraints (Magrinho *et al*, 2006). Long and short term plans are inadequate due to capital and human resource limitations. There is a need to practice integrated solid waste management approach such as: Incorporation of more environmental and economic friendly concepts of source separation; recovery of waste; legitimization of the informal systems; partial privatization and public participation (Kreith, 1994). Although some governments have formulated policies for environmental protection, they were only implemented in the national capital cities. In rural areas, open dumping is still considered the most popular method of solid waste disposal (Oyelola *et al*, 2011).

The challenges of urban solid waste management can be addressed by building an incinerator to thermally treat the solid waste as a part of the integrated waste management method. The incineration of solid waste reduces the waste to about 10% to 15% of its original volume, destroys all the harmful substances contained in the waste, and so it is very ideal in big cities where the availability of land is very scarce (Knox, 2005). The equipment can also be incorporated with a heat recovery device to produce steam for process industries and power plants. The process of incineration involves taking into consideration the temperature the combusting gases reach, the length of time the gases remain at elevated temperatures, how well the air and the gases are mixed and whether there is adequate oxygen to permit complete combustion (Niessen, 2014). The incineration of solid waste is imperative in a situation whereby the waste is so degraded to such extent that recycling is no longer cost effective. The aim of this work is to design and construct a step grate incineration for burning MSW especially those with high moisture content like garbage (70%) and pathological waste (85%).

II. METHODOLOGY

The detail design of the incinerator was done to calculate the mass and heat balance of the system, these were used to determine the size of the blower and also determine if an auxiliary burner is needed. The construction of the equipment was done with mild steel and refractory bricks.

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a) Selection of the Force Draft Fan (blower)

The selection of the draft fan was done based on the calculation of the mass balance to determine the size of the blower needed to introduce combustion air into the system. Table 1 shows the combustion equation of the various waste types and the stoichiometric airrequirement to completely burn the waste.

b) Selection of the Auxiliary burner

The heat balance was done to determine if an auxiliary burner will be needed to sustain the combustion process at a temperature of 600°C. The heat balance in the combustion chamber of the incinerator is shown in the diagram of Figure 1 while Table 2 shows the heat balance for the incinerator.

c) Performance Test

The performance test of the incinerator was carried out to estimate the combustion efficiency of the equipment given by the formula in equation 1. The test was done using different types of waste and taking into consideration the amount of combustion air required and the volume reduction of the waste after the incineration process as shown in Table 3.

$$\eta = \frac{CO_2}{CO_2 + CO} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Table 1 shows the combustion equation of the various solid wastes and the amount of stoichiometric air needed to completely burn the waste. However, in the course of introducing air into the combustion chamber, a considerable amount of the air passes through without reacting with the waste, either because of the high speed with which it is introduced or the compactness of the waste which impede the proper diffusion of air into the waste. Therefore, an excess amount of air (30%) was supplied to compensate for the fugitive air that passes through the system without reacting with the waste. The calculation of the heat balance in Table 2 shows that 61,541 kJ/h of heat energy (contained in the flue gas) exits the incinerator into the atmosphere. This heat energy can be used to dry a high moisture waste like pathological waste (85% moisture content) or garbage (70%) placed in the drying grate of the incinerator. The performance test in Table 3 reveals volume reduction of waste between the ranges of 78% - 95%. The ash produced after the combustion process can be safely land filled or used as construction material in the civil engineering industry. The combustion efficiency of the system is 86.5%, this is slightly higher than the 85.2% efficiency result obtained by Cyril et al (2016) from the design and development of a portable

of treating or disposing of waste as long as the emission produced is not harmful and within the range permissible by federal and state regulations. In order to avoid black smoke coming out of the chimney which is a sign of incomplete combustion or inadequate supply of air, it is important that an appropriate excess air ratio be used to ensure effective burnout of the combustibles in the chamber, suppressing the formation and emission of pollutants. Furthermore, the heat produced from the process can be captured by a heat recovery device (boiler) to produce steam for process industries or thermal power station. Also the incineration of solid waste reduces harmful substances to ash which can be safely landfilled or used as construction material.

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IV. CONCLUSION

The thermal method of solid waste management (incineration) is one of the best methods

TABLES

Table 1 : The combustion equation and the stoichiometric air requirement

Waste (1.0 kg)	Combustion equation	Stoichiometric air requirement (perkg waste)
Paper	$C_6H_{10}O_5 + 6O_2 \longrightarrow 6CO_2 + 5H_2O$	5.16
Rubber	$C_5H_8 + 7O_2 \longrightarrow 5CO_2 + 4H_2O$	14.32
Plastic	$C_2H_4 + 3O_2 \longrightarrow 2CO_2 + 2H_2O$	14.9
Wood	$4C_{10}H_{15}O_7 + 41O_2 \longrightarrow 40CO_2 + 30H_2O$	5.74
Leather	$C_5H_8O_{0.75}N_{0.71}S_{0.013} + [4.64O_2 + 4.64(79/21)N_2] \longrightarrow 5CO_2 + 4H_2O + 0.013SO_2 + 17.8N_2$	7.05
Textile	$C_{4.6}H_{6.6}O_2N_{2.9}S_{0.0047} + [5.25O_2 + 5.25(79/21)N_2] \longrightarrow 4.6CO_2 + 3.3H_2O + 0.0047SO_2 + 21.2N_2$	7.76
Garbage	$C_6H_9.6O_{3.5}N_{0.28}S_{0.2} + [6.4O_2 + 6.4(79/21)N_2] \longrightarrow 6CO_2 + 4.8H_2O + 0.2SO_2 + 24.22N_2$	3.29
Total air required (at 30% excess air) = % excess air × stoich. air + stoich. air $m_{air} = (0.3 \times 58.22) + 58.22$ $= 75.69 \text{ kg}$		

Table 2 : Heat balance for the incinerator

Heat input (kJ/kg)		Heat output (kJ/h)	
Paper	14,085	Radiation loss = 5% of total heat available= 5% × 132,100	6,605
Plastic	33,712	Heat to ash = $mC_p(T_g - T_c)$ = $0.35 \times 0.831 \times (600 - 25)$	167.23
Rubber	22,197	Heat to dry combustion product= $mC_p dT$ = $98.6 \times 1.086 \times (600 - 25)$	61,541
Textile	17,476	Heat to moisture = $(mC_p dT) + (mH_v)$ = $[7.92 \times 2.347 \times (600 - 25)] + [7.92 \times 2460]$	30,173
Wood	16,580		
Leather	19,050		
Garbage	9,000		
Total	132,100		94,486.23

Net Balance = $Q_0 - Q_1$
 = $132,100 - 94,486$
 = $33,613.8 \text{ kJ/h}$ (heat required to maintain the incinerator at 600°C)

Table 3 : Performance test of the incinerator

Type of waste (10 kg)	Stoichiometric air requirement (perkg waste)	Volume reduction (%)
Paper	51.6	95
Textile	77.6	92
Wood	57.4	96
Rubber	143.2	80
Leather	70.5	81
Plastic	149.0	78
Garbage	32.9	85

FIGURES

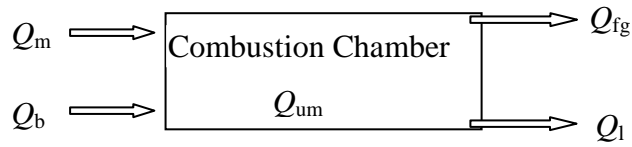


Figure 1 : Heat balance of the incinerator

- Q_m : Heat energy of the waste material
- Q_{um} : Heat energy retained in the unburned waste
- Q_{fg} : Heat energy of the flue gas
- Q_l : Heat loss to the surrounding
- Q_b : Heat supplied by the auxiliary burner

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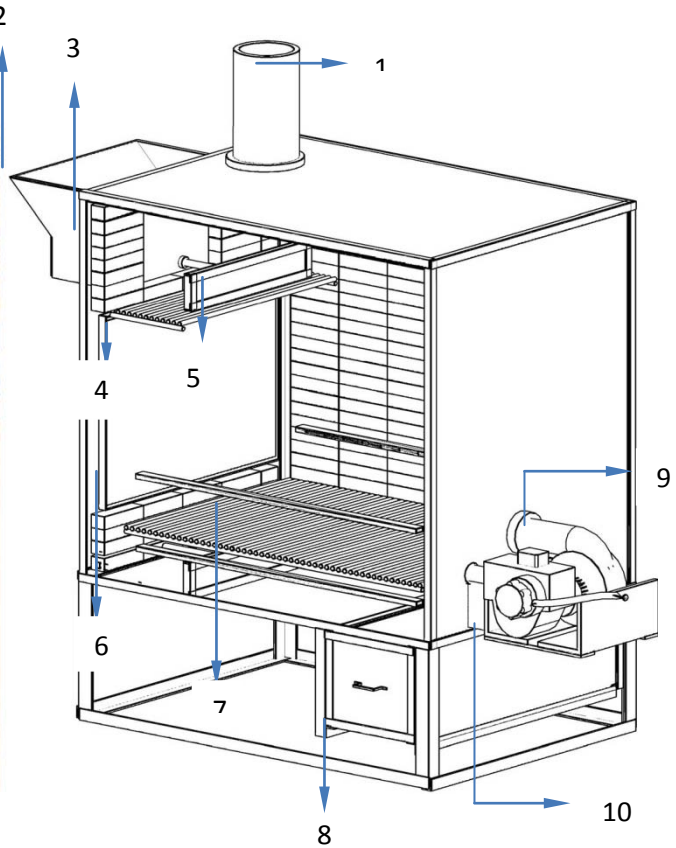


Figure 2 : The pictorial and isometric view of the incinerator

- 1. Chimney
- 2. Hopper
- 3. Refractory bricks
- 4. Drying grate
- 5. Feed ram
- 6. Combustion air piping
- 7. Combustion grate

8. Ash tray
9. Blower
10. Burner

Nomenclature

m	Mass, kg
C_p	Specific heat capacity, $kJ/kg^{\circ}C$
T_g	Temperature of flue gas, $^{\circ}C$
T_c	Ambient Temperature, $^{\circ}C$
d_t	Temperature difference, $^{\circ}C$
H_v	Latent heat of vapourization, kJ/kg
Q_o	Heat input, kJ
Q_1	exit heat, kJ
η	Combustion efficiency, %

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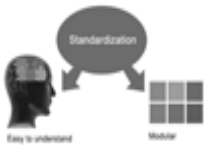
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