

## NEHRU COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING AND RESEARCH CENTRE

*(Accredited by NAAC, Approved by AICTE New Delhi, Affiliated to APJKTU)*

**Pampady, Thiruvilwamala(PO), Thrissur(DT), Kerala 680 588**

### DEPARTMENT OF MECHATRONICS



## LAB MANUAL



### MR 334 ADVANCED INSTRUMENTATION LABORATORY

#### VISION

To mould true citizens who are millennium leaders and catalysts of change through excellence in education.

#### MISSION

NCERC is committed to transform itself into a center of excellence in Learning and Research in Engineering and Frontier Technology and to impart quality education to mould technically competent citizens with moral integrity, social commitment and ethical values.

We intend to facilitate our students to assimilate the latest technological know-how and to imbibe discipline, culture and spiritually, and to mould them in to technological giants, dedicated research scientists and intellectual leaders of the country who can spread the beams of light and happiness among the poor and the underprivileged.

## **ABOUT DEPARTMENT**

- ◆ Established in: 2013
- ◆ Course offered: B.Tech Mechatronics Engineering
- ◆ Approved by AICTE New Delhi and Accredited by NAAC
- ◆ Affiliated to the University of Dr. A P J Abdul Kalam Technological University.

## **DEPARTMENT VISION**

To develop professionally ethical and socially responsible Mechatronics engineers to serve the humanity through quality professional education.

## **DEPARTMENT MISSION**

**MD 1:** The department is committed to impart the right blend of knowledge and quality education to create professionally ethical and socially responsible graduates.

**MD 2:** The department is committed to impart the awareness to meet the current challenges in technology.

**MD 3:** Establish state-of-the-art laboratories to promote practical knowledge of mechatronics to meet the needs of the society.

## **PROGRAMME EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES**

- PEO1:** Graduates shall have the ability to work in multidisciplinary environment with good professional and commitment.
- PEO2:** Graduates shall have the ability to solve the complex engineering problems by applying electrical, mechanical, electronics and computer knowledge and engage in lifelong learning in their profession.
- PEO3:** Graduates shall have the ability to lead and contribute in a team with entrepreneur skills, professional, social and ethical responsibilities.
- PEO4:** Graduates shall have ability to acquire scientific and engineering fundamentals necessary for higher studies and research.

## **PROGRAM OUTCOMES (PO'S)**

**Engineering Graduates will be able to:**

**PO 1. Engineering knowledge:** Apply the knowledge of mathematics, science, engineering fundamentals, and an engineering specialization to the solution of complex engineering problems.

**PO 2. Problem analysis:** Identify, formulate, review research literature, and analyze complex engineering problems reaching substantiated conclusions using first principles of mathematics, natural sciences, and engineering sciences.

**PO 3. Design/development of solutions:** Design solutions for complex engineering problems and design system components or processes that meet the specified needs with appropriate consideration for the public health and safety, and the cultural, societal, and environmental considerations.

**PO 4. Conduct investigations of complex problems:** Use research-based knowledge and research methods including design of experiments, analysis and interpretation of data, and synthesis of the information to provide valid conclusions.

**PO 5. Modern tool usage:** Create, select, and apply appropriate techniques, resources, and modern engineering and IT tools including prediction and modeling to complex engineering activities with an understanding of the limitations.

**PO 6. The engineer and society:** Apply reasoning informed by the contextual knowledge to assess societal, health, safety, legal and cultural issues and the consequent responsibilities relevant to the professional engineering practice.

**PO 7. Environment and sustainability:** Understand the impact of the professional engineering solutions in societal and environmental contexts, and demonstrate the knowledge of, and need for sustainable development.

**PO 8. Ethics:** Apply ethical principles and commit to professional ethics and responsibilities and norms of the engineering practice.

**PO 9. Individual and team work:** Function effectively as an individual, and as a member or leader in diverse teams, and in multidisciplinary settings.

**PO 10. Communication:** Communicate effectively on complex engineering activities with the engineering community and with society at large, such as, being able to comprehend and write effective reports and design documentation, make effective presentations, and give and receive clear instructions.

**PO 11. Project management and finance:** Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the engineering and management principles and apply these to one's own work, as a member and leader in a team, to manage projects and in multidisciplinary environments.

**PO 12. Life-long learning:** Recognize the need for, and have the preparation and ability to engage in independent and life-long learning in the broadest context of technological change.

## **PROGRAM SPECIFIC OUTCOMES (PSO'S)**

**PSO 1:** Design and develop Mechatronics systems to solve the complex engineering problem by integrating electronics, mechanical and control systems.

**PSO 2:** Apply the engineering knowledge to conduct investigations of complex engineering problem related to instrumentation, control, automation, robotics and provide solutions.

## SYLLABUS

Course code	Course Name	L-T-P - Credits	Year of Introduction
MR334	Advanced Instrumentation Lab	0-0-3-1	2016
<b>Prerequisite:</b> MR205 Science of measurements			
<b>Course Objectives</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To make students familiar with the techniques for measuring process parameters and techniques in metrology.</li> </ul>			
<b>List of Experiments</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) Measurement of pressure               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Calibration of Bourdon tube pressure gauge using dead weight pressure gauge tester.</li> <li>b. Calibration of strain gauge pressure cell</li> </ol> </li> <li>2) Measurement of temperature               <p style="margin-left: 20px;">Non contact temperature measurement- Radiation pyrometer and infrared pyrometer- Time constant of temperature measuring device</p> </li> <li>3) Measurement of vibration               <p style="margin-left: 20px;">Piezo electric Accelerometers and vibrometers</p> </li> <li>4) Measurement of torque and force               <p style="margin-left: 20px;">Measurement of cutting force during turning, drilling and milling using tool force dynamometer</p> </li> <li>5) Acoustic measurement-               <p style="margin-left: 20px;">Sound level meter-octave band filter- preparation of noise Contours</p> </li> <li>6) Measurement of rotation speed               <p style="margin-left: 20px;">Measurement of rotation speed using tachometer , tacho generator and stroboscopic tachometer – Calibration of tachometers</p> </li> <li>7) Metrology               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Measurement of surface finish using stylus type surface roughness measuring device</li> <li>b. Tool makers microscope- Measurement of tool wear using tool makers microscope</li> <li>c. Study and use of linear and angular measuring devices- vernier caliper, outside and inside micrometer, vernier depth gauge, vernier height gauge, feeler gauge, screw pitch gauge, sine bar, slip gauge- bevel protractor- profile projector</li> <li>d. Measurements of gears and screw threads</li> </ol> </li> <li>8) Analysis of exhaust gases and flue gases               <p style="margin-left: 20px;">Analysis of exhaust gases and flue gases with the help of orsats apparatus, Gas chromatograph, paramagnetic oxygen analyser, smokemeter etc.</p> </li> </ol>			
<b>Expected outcome .</b> After completing the lab, the students will be able to <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>i. understand and use advanced techniques for measuring parameter like pressure, force, torque, rotation speed, temperature, vibration, noise level and emission</li> <li>ii. familiarize themselves with basic measuring devices and procedures for calibration.</li> </ol>			

SUBJECT CODE: C319	
COURSE OUTCOMES	
C318.1	Examine the techniques for measuring process parameters
C318.2	Acquaint knowledge on techniques in metrology
C318.3	Examine advanced techniques for measuring parameters like pressure, force, torque and temperature
C318.4	Experimentally familiarize with basic measuring devices
C318.5	Demonstrate the procedure for calibration

CO Vs PO														
SUBJECT														
COURSE OUTCOME	PO1	PO 2	PO 3	PO 4	PO 5	PO 6	PO 7	PO 8	PO 9	PO1 0	PO1 1	PO1 2	PSO 1	PSO 2
C319.1	3	2	3	3	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	3	3	3
C319.2	3	2	3	3	3	-	-	-	3	-	-	3	3	3
C319.3	3	2	3	3	3	-	-	-	3	-	-	3	3	3
C319.4	3	2	3	3	3	-	-	-	3	-	-	3	3	3
C319.5	3	2	3	3	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	3	3	3
C319	3.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.00	0.00	0.00	3.00	3.00	3.00

## 1) MEASUREMENT OF PRESSURE

### DEAD WEIGHT PRESSURE GAUGE TESTER

#### INTRODUCTION

Dead weight pressure gauge tester is a testing instrument, which helps to calibrate and test the Pressure gauges. Here Dead weights are used to build the Pressure inside the Pressure chamber. Oil pump is fitted to the pressure chamber by which the oil is pumped to the pressure chamber. The pressure chamber has two outlets. One outlet is connected to oil tank through a control valve. The other outlet is connected to connect any pressure gauge which has to be tested or calibrated. The pressure chamber is fitted with a plunger arrangement also. By closing the control valve and by pumping the oil inside the pressure chamber the pressure increases inside the chamber and the plunger starts moving out. The dead weight calibrated for known pressure is kept on the plunger which will build the pressure inside the pressure chamber proportion to the weight on the plunger. By adding the weights on the plunger the pressure inside the chamber can be increased accordingly. The plunger is made to lift the weight till the mark on the plunger by pumping the oil into the pressure chamber by using oil pump.

#### SPECIFICATION

##### DEAD WEIGHT PRESSURE GAUGE TESTER

CAPACITY : 1 to 10 Kg/cm<sup>2</sup>

AREA : 0.196 Cm<sup>2</sup>

DEAD WEIGHTS : 1Kg -2Nos., 2 Kg -1 No., 5 Kg -1No.,

PLUNGER WEIGHT : 1 Kg

ACCURACY : 0.5%

LINEARITY : 0.5%

MAX. OVER LOAD : 150 %

TEST GAUGE : 14 Kg/cm<sup>2</sup> Bourdon Pressure gauge

The Dead weight pressure gauge tester comprises of the following :

**Hydraulic Pump:** The pump fitted is of Single Cylinder reciprocating type oil pump

**Oil Reservoir :** Acrylic tank with metal cover to store oil to build the pressure.

**Piston :** Piston to load the dead weight. It is of 5mm diameter shaft. So the pressure built can be calculated as follows.

$$P = \frac{W}{A}$$

Where P is pressure built due to weight Kg / cm<sup>2</sup>  
W is the weight in Kg and  
A is the area of the piston in cm<sup>2</sup>

Speciman calculation : Weight required for 1 Kg/cm<sup>2</sup>

$$\text{Area of the piston} = \frac{\pi \times D^2}{4}$$

$$D = \text{diameter of the piston} = 0.5 \text{ cms}$$

$$A = \frac{\pi \times 0.5^2}{4} = 0.196 \text{ cm}^2$$

$$\text{So Weight} = \frac{0.196}{1} = 0.196 \text{ Kg} = 196 \text{ Grams.}$$

So the Dead weight required to build 1 Kg/cm<sup>2</sup> Pressure is 196 Grams.

**1/8" BSP Port** : Pressure Port to connect Test gauge to the deadweight tester.

**Control valve** : Stainless steel Needle valve to control the pressure and to release the pressure.

## OPERATING PROCEDURE

- Fill the Oil tank with sufficient Oil. (**Hydraulic oil SERVO/CASTROL 40 grade**)
- Release the AIR RELEASE VALVE provided at the bottom till the oil starts dripping continuously about 10 to 12 drops and tighten the release valve.
- Release the control valve and pump the oil so that the oil circulates through the tubes. Pump for a while about a minute so that all the tubes will be filled with oil and any air bubble inside the tube will be removed.
- Now close the Control valve, and Pump the oil the plunger starts floating. Rotate the plunger gently. The plunger should rotate smoothly without any friction pump a little if the plunger is not rotating smoothly. The pressure is built inside the chamber proportion to the weight on the plunger. The Test Gauge fixed will start showing the pressure.
- Add 1 Kg dead weight on the plunger and pump once again till the mark on the plunger is visible. The pressure inside the chamber increases by 1Kg/cm<sup>2</sup>.
- Add the weights on the plunger and pump till the line on the plunger is clearly visible.
- The bourdon pressure gauge will read the pressure corresponding to the dead weights on the plunger. Note down the readings on the pressure gauge and tabulate the readings with the corresponding readings to the dead weight. Plot the graphs for actual pressure (dead weights v/s pressure gauge reading). Calculate the accuracy, linearity and hysteresis of the pressure gauge.
- Release the control valve slowly and remove the dead weights from the plunger.



- NOTE: - Rotate the plunger along with the weights while taking the readings.**  
**- Maintain sufficient quantity of oil in the oil tank.**  
**- Do not pump when the AIR RELEASE VALVE IS loosened.**

**TABULAR COLUMN**

1. SL No.	2 LOAD APPLIED (ATA)	3 ACTUAL PRESSURE IN Kg/CM <sup>2</sup>	4 TEST GAGE READING IN Kg/CM <sup>2</sup>	5 DEVIATION (3 – 4)

$$\% \text{ Linearity} = \frac{\text{Max error} \times 100}{\text{max. pressure}}$$

To calculate Linearity: Plot the graph for actual Pressure V/s Test gauge. Max. % error is the linearity of the Test gauge.

To calculate the Hysteresis of the Test gauge :- Tabulate the readings for Ascending and descending of loading and calculate the hysteresis for the test gauge

1. SL No.	2 LOAD APPLIED (ATA)	3 ASSENDING TEST GAUGE READING Kg/CM <sup>2</sup>	4 DESENDING TEST GAGE READING IN Kg/CM <sup>2</sup>	5 DEVEIATION (3 – 4)

$$\% \text{ Hysteresis} = \frac{\text{Max. Deviation} \times 100}{\text{max. pressure}}$$

Plot the Graph for both Assending and descending V/s Actual pressure to get the hystersis curve.

**2.CALIBRATION OF STRAIN GAUGE PRESSURE CELL**

**AIM:**

To study the characteristics of Strain gauge

**APPARATUS REQUIRED:**

Strain Measurement Trainer

**THEORY:**

When a material is subjected to any external load, there will be small change in the mechanical properties of the material. The mechanical property may be, change in the thickness of the material or change in the length depending on the nature of load applied to the material. This change in mechanical properties will remain till the load is released. The change in the property is called strain in the material or the material get strained. So the material is mechanically strained, this strain is defined as ' The ratio between change in the mechanical property to the original property'. Suppose a beam of length L is subjected to a tensile load of P Kg the material gets elongated by a length of  $\Delta l$  So according to the definition strain S is given by

$$S = \Delta l / L \dots\dots\dots \text{Eq 1}$$

Since the change in the length of the material is very small it is difficult to measure  $\Delta l$ . So the strain is always read in terms of microstrain. Since it is difficult to measure the length Resistance strain gauges are used to measure strain in the material directly. Strain gauges are bonded directly on the material using special adhesives. As the material get strained due to load applied, the resistance of the strain gauge changes proportional to the load applied. This change in resistance is used to convert mechanical property in to electrical signal which can be easily measured and stored for analysis. The change in the resistance of the strain gauge depends on the sensitivity of the strain gauge. The sensitivity of strain gauges is usually expressed in terms of a gauge factor Sg where Sg is given as

$$\Delta R / R = Sg \dots\dots\dots \text{Eq 2}$$

Where  $\epsilon$  is Strain in the direction of the gauge length. The output  $\Delta R / R$  of a strain gauge is usually converter in to voltage signal with a Whetstones bridge, If a single gauge is used in one arm of whetstones bridge and equal but fixed resistors is used in the other arms, the output voltage is

$$E_o = E_i / 4 ( \Delta R_g / R_g ) \dots\dots \text{Eq 3}$$

Substituting Eq 2 into Eq 3 gives

$$E_o = 1/4 ( E_i S_g \epsilon ) \dots\dots \text{Eq 4}$$

The input voltage is controlled by the gauge size ( the power it can dissipate) and the initial resistance of the gauge. As a result, the output voltage  $E_o$  usually ranges between 1 to 10  $\Delta V /$  microunits of strain.

**SPECIFICATIONS:**

DISPLAY RANGE : 3 1/2 digit RED LED display of 200 mV FSD to readup to +/-1999 microstrain .

GAUGE FACTOR SETTING : 2.1

BALANCE : Potentiometer to set zero on the panel.

BRIDGE EXCITATION : 10V DC

BRIDGE CONFIGURATIONS : Full Bridge.

MAX. LOAD : 1Kg.

POWER : 230 V +/- 10% at 50Hz. with perfect grounding.

**All specifications nominal or typical at 23<sup>0</sup> C unless noted.**

### 3) MEASUREMENT OF TEMPERATURE

Non-contact temperature measurement-Radiation pyrometer and infrared pyrometer-Time constant of temperature measuring device

#### **AIM:**

To measure the temperature of a hot body using opticalpyrometer.

#### **THEORY:**

The optical pyrometer principle is based on Planck's Radiation Law. The law is given below:

The primary law governing blackbody radiation is the Planck Radiation Law. This law governs the intensity of radiation emitted by unit surface area into a fixed direction (solid angle) from the blackbody as a function of wavelength for a fixed temperature.

The Planck Law can be expressed through the following equation.

$$I_b(\lambda, T) = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda kT}} - 1} Wm^{-2}sr^{-1}\mu m^{-1}$$

$h = 6.625 \times 10^{-27}$  erg-sec (Planck Constant)

$K = 1.38 \times 10^{-16}$  erg/K (Boltzmann Constant)

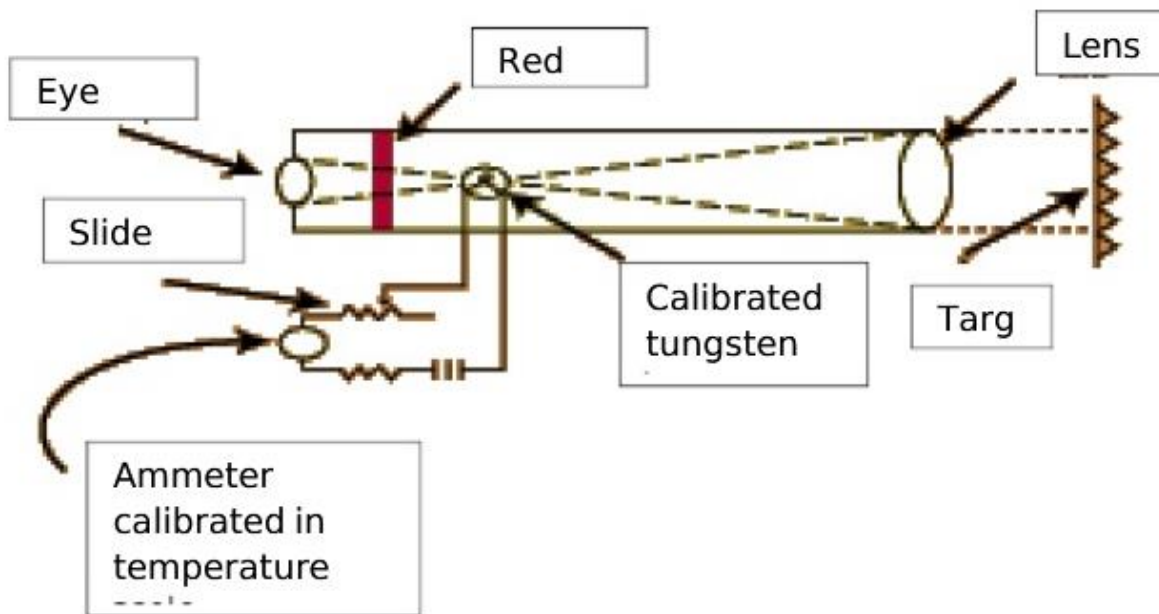
$C =$  Speed of light in vacuum

$\lambda =$  Wavelength of the emission

$T =$  Absolute temperature of the body.

Optical pyrometers are narrow-band or two-color radiation pyrometers that operate in the visible spectrum around the 0.65- $\mu$ m point. The human eye, acting as the detector in the manually balanced type, compares a source of known radiant energy generated within the instrument by a calibrated tungsten lamp to the incoming unknown source. A filter interposed between the eye and both sources of energy cuts out the shorter wavelengths. This serves a dual purpose: (1) it minimizes the difference between eyes, permitting an easier color match, and (2) it permits an extension of the temperature range beyond the point where the eye could no longer tolerate the amount of energy if viewed directly (Figure 4.9k). The instrument is shaped to be held in the hand and up to the eye so that it may be sighted on the target. An adjustable focus permits the operator to focus an image of the source whose temperature is to be determined. The filament of the standard source is placed on the same plane as this image so that the two appear superimposed on one another when viewed through the eyepiece. A null type of balance is usually used where a rheostat, moving against a calibrated dial, is manually rotated to vary the current through the standard source until it just disappears into the field of the unknown. A slight modification of this principle maintains the standard source constant and varies the amount of interposing absorbing

gate opening in the optical path. The range of the manual optical pyrometer is limited on the low end to a minimum of 1400°F (760°C), since there is insufficient emission of visible light for an accurate comparison below this figure. At 2400°F (1316°C), the image would become too bright to look at directly, but filters are usually interposed to permit readings as high as 6300°F (3500°C). The use of the human eye as the detector restricts accuracy somewhat. This is because the eye responds to both color and brightness rather than directly to energy and no two eyes are alike. However, it is possible to detect both a color and a brightness match by adjusting to the minimum difference between known and unknown. The schematic diagram of an optical pyrometer is given below:



A bridge circuit can be used to detect the temperature. As changing the slide wire the current through tungsten wire is controlled, the temperature of the wire is directly proportional to the slide wire resistance. Using Wheatstone bridge arrangement we can detect the resistance change and thereby the temperature. In this case the null detecting voltmeter must be calibrated in temperature scale as its deflection is the measure of temperature.

**EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS:**

Variac voltage (V)	Temperature reading (C) Increasing temp. (with red filter)	Temperature reading (C) Increasing temp. (with smoke glass)	Temperature reading (C) Decreasing temp. (with red filter)	Temperature reading (C) Decreasing temp. (with smoke glass)
40	990	-	870	-
50	1030	-	970	-
60	1100	-	1100	-
70	1180	-	1200	-
80	1220	1370	1270	-
90	1290	1480	1270	1380
100	-	1510	1300	1430

## **4. MEASUREMENT OF VIBRATION**

### **PIEZO ELECTRIC ACCELEROMETERS AND VIBROMETERS**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Many methods have been developed to measure linear and angular displacements, velocities, and accelerations. Displacements and accelerations are usually measured directly, while velocities are often obtained by integrating acceleration signals. The definitions of velocity and acceleration suggest that any convenient quantity can be measured and the other can be obtained by integrating or differentiating the recorded signal. Since the integration process is an error-smoothing process, while the differentiation process is an error-amplifying process, only the integration process is widely used for practical application. Displacement measurements are most frequently made in manufacturing and process-control applications, while acceleration measurement is made in vibration, shock, or motion-measurement situations. Piezo-electric material, an electric potential; appears across certain surfaces of a crystal if the dimension of the crystal are changed by the application of a mechanical force. This potential is produced by the displacement of charges. This effect is reversible and is known as *piezo-electric effect*. Elements exhibiting piezo-electric quality are often referred to as electro-resistive effects.

When a force  $F$  is applied to a piezo-electric crystal it develops a charge  $Q = d * F$  coulomb where  $d$  is the charge sensitivity of the crystal in N/C. By incorporating a mass  $M$  in direct contact with the crystal, we get essential components of an accelerometer. By applying varying acceleration to the mass-crystal assembly, the crystal experiences a varying force which according to Newton's second law is given by  $F = Ma$  where  $a$  is the acceleration. This force produces a varying charge given by  $Q = d * F = d * Ma$ . If the crystal has a capacitance  $C$ , the no load output voltage is  $V_o = Q/C = (d * F)/C = d * (Ma/C)$ . Thus the output voltage is a measure of the acceleration.

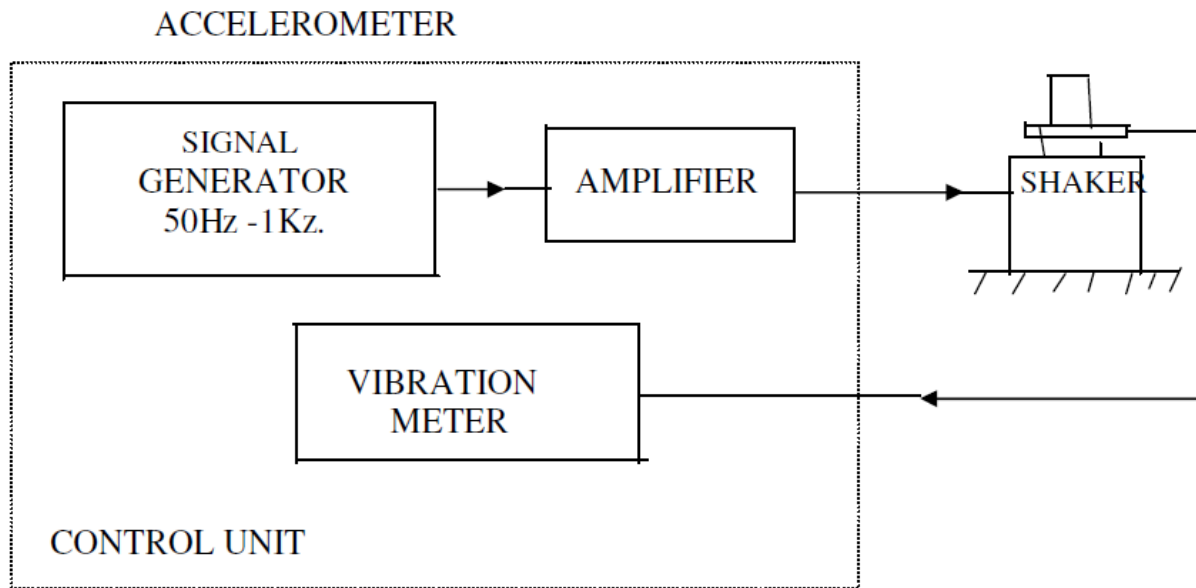
The accelerometer is quite small in size and weight. The natural frequency is high of the order 100 kHz and hence can be used for any vibration and shock.

#### **THE SETUP**

Vibration Demo is designed as a laboratory set up which can be used to demonstrate the principles of Vibration measurement. It consists of a shaker and control unit. (Ref Block Diagram Fig.1.). The shaker is of the Electro-magnetic type; The control unit consists of a signal generator, power amplifier and vibration-meter.

The sinusoidal output from the signal generator is amplified by the amplifier and applied to the shaker, which generates vibrations on the spindle. The Accelerometer may be attached to the spindle through the M-5 stud. (supplied with the accelerometer). Signal output from the

accelerometer is connected to the vibration meter, which gives direct read out of acceleration velocity or displacement.



BLOCK DIAGRAM FIG-1

## SPECIFICATIONS

### 01.SHAKER :-

Force rating : 5 Newton (maximum)  
Frequency Range : 50Hz to 1KHz.  
(Max. Static load on shaker spindle : 100gm)

### 02. CONTROL UNIT :-

#### POWER OSCILLATOR:-

Frequency range : 50Hz to 1000Hz.  
Output Voltage : 0-10V (p-p)  
Distortion : <2%.

#### VIBRATION METER:-

Frequency Range : 10Hz to 10KHz.  
Input impedance : > 10,000 M ohms.  
Display : 3.5 digit LCD.  
Source Capacitance : 30,000 pF.

#### Measurement Range

Acceleration : 0.1-199.0 m/s<sup>2</sup> (peak), (10Hz to 10 KHz).  
Velocity : 0.01-19.99cm (rms), (10Hz to 3 KHz).  
Displacement : .03-1.999mm (pp),(10Hz, to 1 KHz)  
Output : Analog AC output 2V pK F.S.



(Minimum load 10 K ohms).

Operating Temperature : 0 degree to 40 degree C.

Accuracy : A - +/- 5% +/-1 LSB.

: V - +/- 5% +/-1 LSB

: D - +/- 5% +/-1 LSB

### **ACCELEROMETER:-**

Charge sensitivity : 45 pC/ g -55pC/g.

Frequency range : 2-2000 Hz (5%).

Dynamic range : +/- 200 g.

Maximum shock : 1000g.

Maximum ambient : 60 degree Centigrade.

Temperature

Capacitance : 1000 pF.

Leakage Resistance : > 10,000 M ohms.

Construction : C.M.C.

Weight : 40 gms.

Type of Connection : Side.

Mounting Thread : M5.

Height : 35mm.

spanner Size : 18mm.

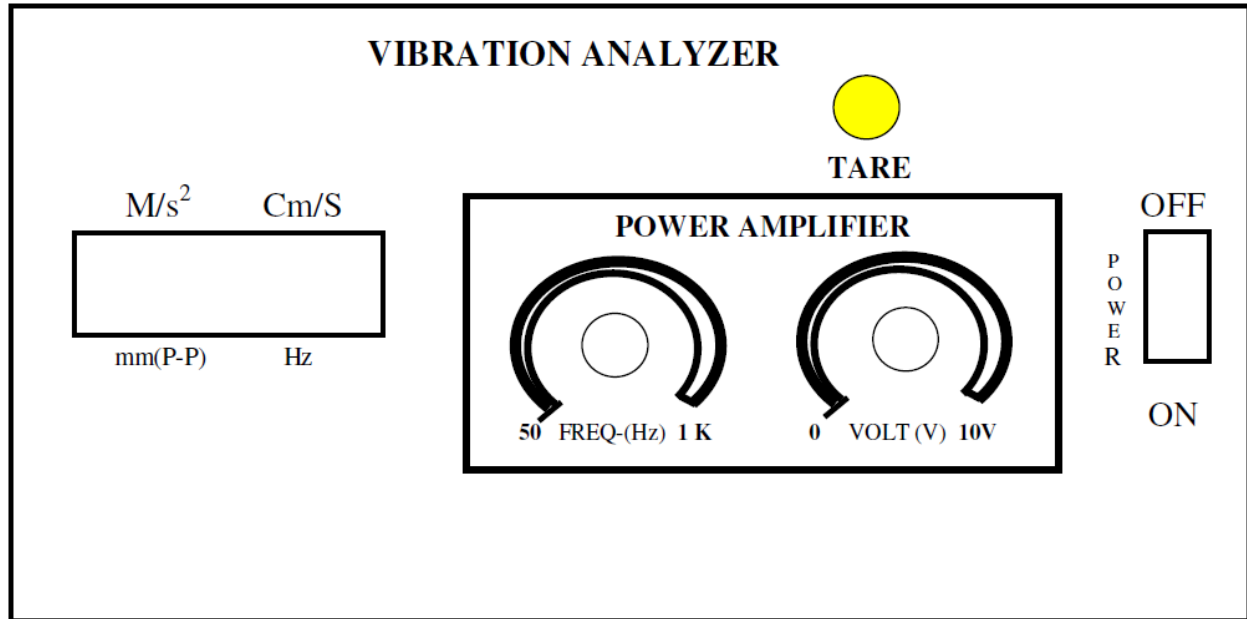
### **ACCESSORIES STANDARD.**

1. Threaded steel studs M5 : 1No.

2. Co axial Cable 1m long with BNC Connector and crimped tags.

### **INSTALLATION**

For Test Purpose the Shaker and Control Unit may be on a laboratory table. The Accelerometer should be mounted on the shaker spindle using the M-5 stud supplied with the accelerometer. Connect the accelerometer output to the input connector on the control unit using the 1mtr long low noise cable supplied. Connect the co-axial cable attached to the socket to the amplifier output connector on the control unit, and the power cable to a 230 V, 50 Hz outlet.



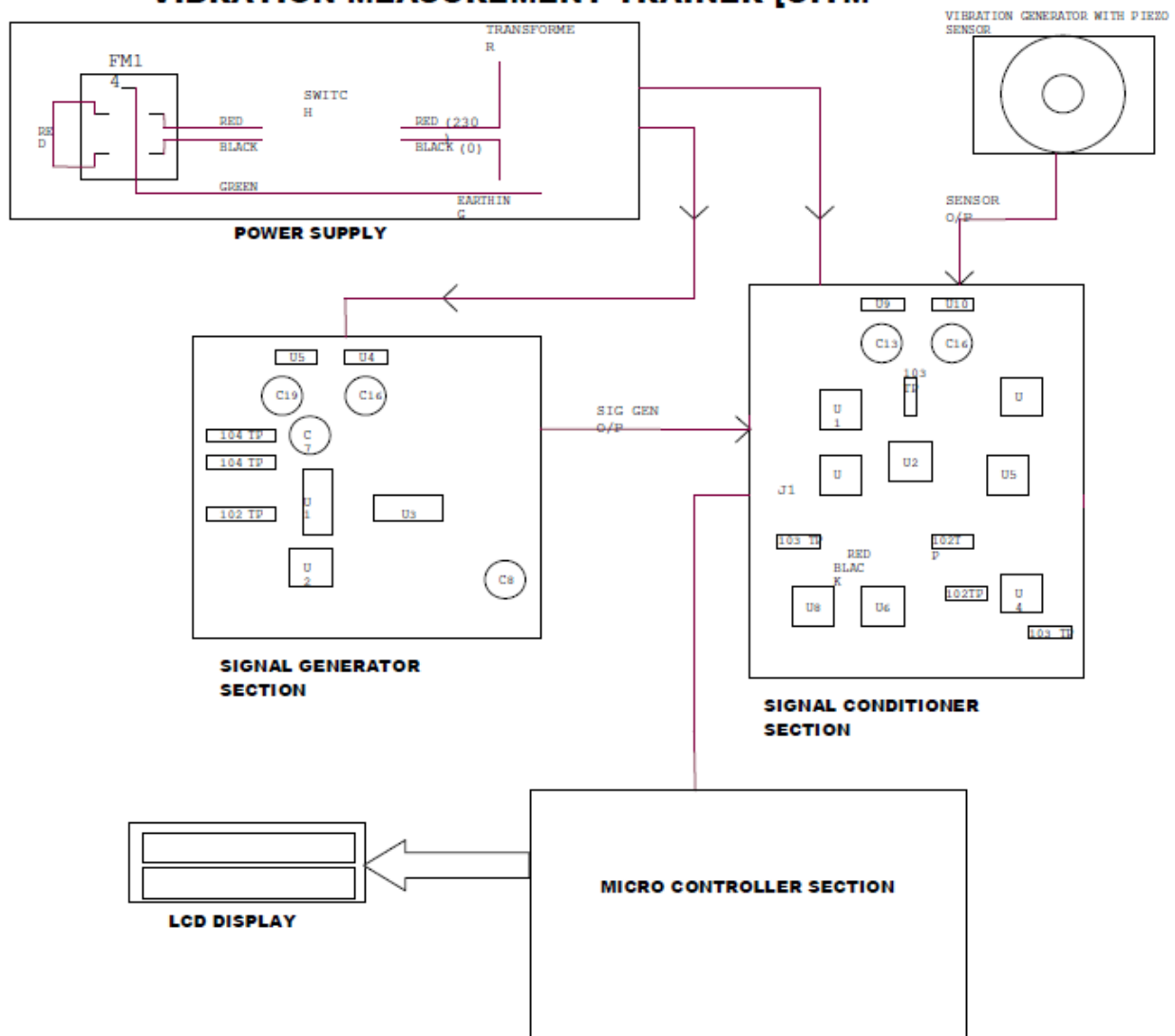
## OPERATION

1. **FREQUENCY** : Selects the frequency of vibration for the shaker  
Range 50Hz to 1000Hz.
2. **VOLTAGE** : Used to set the amplitude of vibration
3. **Tare** : Push button used to make Zero When volt Knob at Zero Position
4. **DISPLAY** : 3.5 Digit LCD display; indicates  
Acceleration in m/s<sup>2</sup>, Velocity in cm/S,  
Displacement in mm(p-p) Frequency in HZ.

## BACK PANEL.

- SENSOR** : Miniature Connector accepts input cable from  
The sensor
- EXCITOR** : Analog Vibration signal output, BNC Socket.
- MAINS** : 230 V AC, 50Hz Mains Socket with toggle switch

## VIBRATION MEASUREMENT TRAINER [UITM-



### OPERATING PROCEDURE

1. Connect the sensor to the instrument through the BNC socket provided on the Back Panel mentioned SENSOR.
2. Connect the Vibration generator to the instrument through the cable provided at the rear panel of the instrument marked EXCITER.
3. Connect the instrument to the 230V 50Hz. Supply through cable provided at the rear panel.
4. Keep the FREQ. Pot and the VOLT pot in the minimum position.
5. Switch on the instrument, the display glows to indicate the power is on. In this Position Press the Tare button to make the readings Zero.

6. Turn the VOLT pot to the max position.
7. Now turn the FREQ pot in steps of 100 Hz. And note down the readings of Acceleration, Velocity, Displacement.
8. Tabulate the readings in the tabular column. Experiment can be repeated for different voltage levels settable through VOLT knob provided.

### TABULAR COLUMN

Output (measurement parameters):

Acceleration : +/-5% of the reading value.

Velocity : +/-5% of the reading value

Displacement : +/-5% of the reading value

### SAMPLE READINGS:

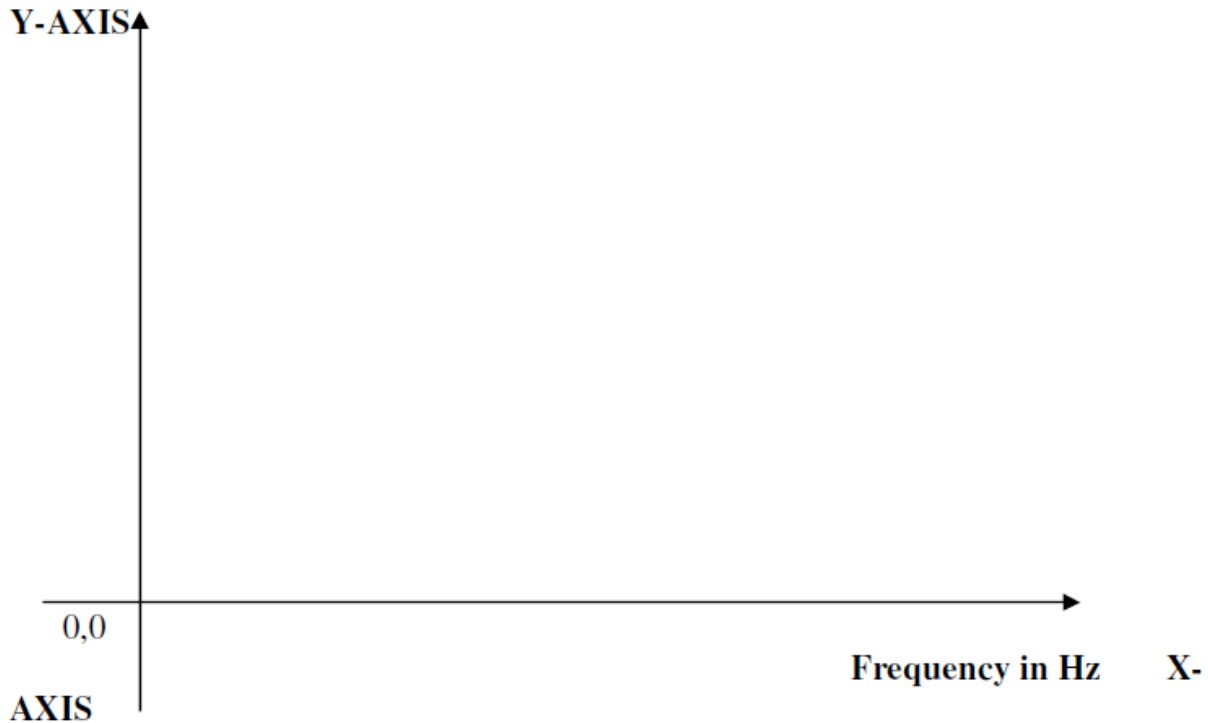
S.NO	Freq in Hz	Indicator Readings		
		Acc in M/S <sup>2</sup>	Vel in cm/s	Displ in mm
1	51			
2	101			
3	300			
4	502			
5	1000			

**NOTE:** The sample readings above tabulated are taken for a vibration sensor supplied with the vibration instrument with voltage set at max. level. The readings differ from one sensor to another as the mass weight varies and the variation on the excitation given to the vibration exciter

## GRAPHS

Graph can be plotted for Frequency V/s Acceleration, Velocity and displacement.

**Acceleration**  
**Velocity**  
**Displacement**



### 9. Relation between Acceleration, Velocity and Displacement

#### ACCELERATION (A)

$$A = C \times 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$$

$$G \times 2$$

Where

G = Sensitivity of the Accelerometer with its signal conditioner (mV/g)

C = Charge amplifier output (mV)

**Note: The above mentioned Acceleration expression is only theoretical formula (Not for calculation).**

#### VELOCITY

$$V = A \times 100 \cdot \text{Cm/s}$$

$$2\pi f \sqrt{2}$$

Acceleration is multiplied by 100 to convert to cm

## **DISPLACEMENT**

$$D = A \times 1000 \times 2/(4\pi^2 f^2) \text{ mm (P-P)}$$

**Acceleration is multiplied by 1000 to convert to mm**

## **4) MEASUREMENT OF TORQUE AND FORCE**

### **MEASUREMENT OF CUTTING FORCE DURING TURNING, DRILLING AND MILLING USING TOOL FORCE DYNAMOMETER**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Tool Dynamometers are basically a strain gauge based sensors, which senses cutting forces in different direction. The cutting force dynamometer like Lath tool dynamometer, Drill tool dynamometer, Mill tool dynamometer, Grinding tool dynamometer are specially designed cutting force sensing devices which can be mounted directly on the particular machines and conduct experiment. The sensors are designed to take all the three directional forces minimizing the cross sensitivity of load from one direction to other. Strain gauges are used as sensing element. Supparate strain gauge whetstones bridge are used for each direction force. there are different Tool Dynamometer for different type of machines like:

- LATHE TOOL DYNAMOMETER
- DRILL TOOL DYNAMOMETER
- MILLING TOOL DYNAMOMETER
- GRINDING TOOL DYNAMOMETER

#### **LATHE TOOL DYNAMOMETER**

Lathe Tool Dynamometer is a cutting force measuring instrument used to measure the cutting forces coming on the tool tip on the Lathe Machine. The sensor is designed in such a way that it can be rigidly mounted on the tool post, and the cutting tool can be fixed to the sensor directly. This feature will help to measure the forces accurately without lose of the force. The sensor is made of single element with three different whetstones straingauge bridge. Provision is made to fix 1/2" size Tool bit at the front side of the sensor. The tool tip of the tool bit can be grind to any angle required.

#### **DRILL TOOL DYNAMOMETER**

The Drill tool dynamometer is a cutting force measurement transducer specially designed to measure the cutting forces on the coming on the tool tip on the drilling machine. The dynamometer has two directional force measurement such as TORQUE and THRUST. The sensor is mounted on the machine table of the drilling machine. Self centering vice is fixed on

the sensor. The job held with the vice and the job is drilled with a drill bit. The sensor mounts the torque and thrust force generated between the job and the tool bit.

### **MILLING AND GRINDING TOOL DYNAMOMETER**

The Milling and Grinding Tool Dynamometer are a rigid strain gauge based sensor which senses the cutting forces in all three X, Y and Z direction. The difference between the two is the forces developed in the grinding machine are very low, hence it is made sensitive when compared to Milling Tool Dynamometer. The sensor is mounted directly on the machine table. Self-centering vice is fixed on the sensor and a job is held rigidly. The sensor has three whetstones strain gauge bridge to measure the force in all the three direction. The cutting forces coming on the job is transferred to the sensor directly. all the three directional forces will be sensed simultaneously and measured.

### **TOOL FORCE INDICATOR**

Tool Force Indicators are mainly a Strain gauge signal conditioner and amplifier specially designed to connect cutting force dynamometers and to display the forces. The instrument has separate signal conditioner and amplifier with individual display unit for each forces. The instrument provides also the power supply to the sensor. 3.5 digit LED display is used to indicate the load. Front panel zero balancing facility is provided for each directional load through single turn potentiometers. Course potentiometer is provided for any large variations and fine potentiometer for fine tuning. The instrument is calibrated internally to read the load directly in Kg force. The instrument will also provide Analog output through terminals at the back side of the instrument. X-Y plotter or a Recorder can be connected across the terminals and the readings can be plotted.

The digital indicators comprises of four parts.

1. Power Supply 2. Signal conditioning 3. amplifier 4. Analog and digital converter.

The inbuilt regulated power supply used will provide sufficient power to electronic parts and also excitation voltage to the strain gauge bridge transducers. The signal conditioners Buffers the output signals of the transducers. Amplifier will amplifies the buffered output signal to the required level where it is calibrated to required unit. Analog to digital converter will convert the calibrated analog out put to digital signals and display through LED's.

## **S P E C I F I C A T I O N**

### **LATHE TOOL DYNAMOMETER**

SENSOR : Strain gauge based Three axis force sensor

CAPACITY : X - Force 500 Kg

Y - Force 500 Kg

Z - Force 500 Kg

STRAIN GAUGE RESISTANCE : 350 ohms  $\pm$  1%

CONNECTION : Through Twelve core shielded cable with the connector attached.

TOOL BIT : 20mm Square of 50 mm length HSS bit.

EXCITATION : 10V DC

ACCURACY : 2%

LINEARITY : 2%

CROSS-SENSITIVITY : 5%

OUTPUT : Analog out put to connect Recorder or X-Y Plotter.

200mV for FSD

MAX. OVER LOAD : 150 %

**INDICATOR:**

DISPLAY : 3 1/2 digit seven segment LED individual display for X, Y & Z direction.

EXCITATION : 10 V DC

ACCURACY : 1%

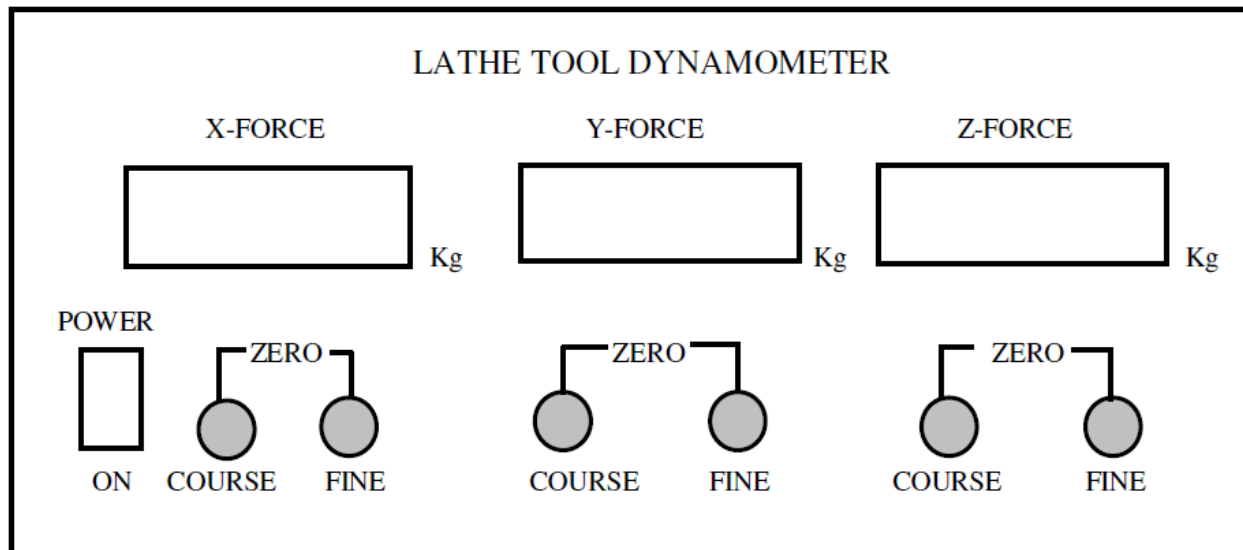
TARE : Front panel Course & Fine Zero adjustment through Potentiometers.

CALIBRATION : 500 Kg load in X, Y, Z direction.

**POWER SUPPLY : 230 V +/- 10% 50 Hz.**

**PANEL DETAILS**

**FRONT PANEL**



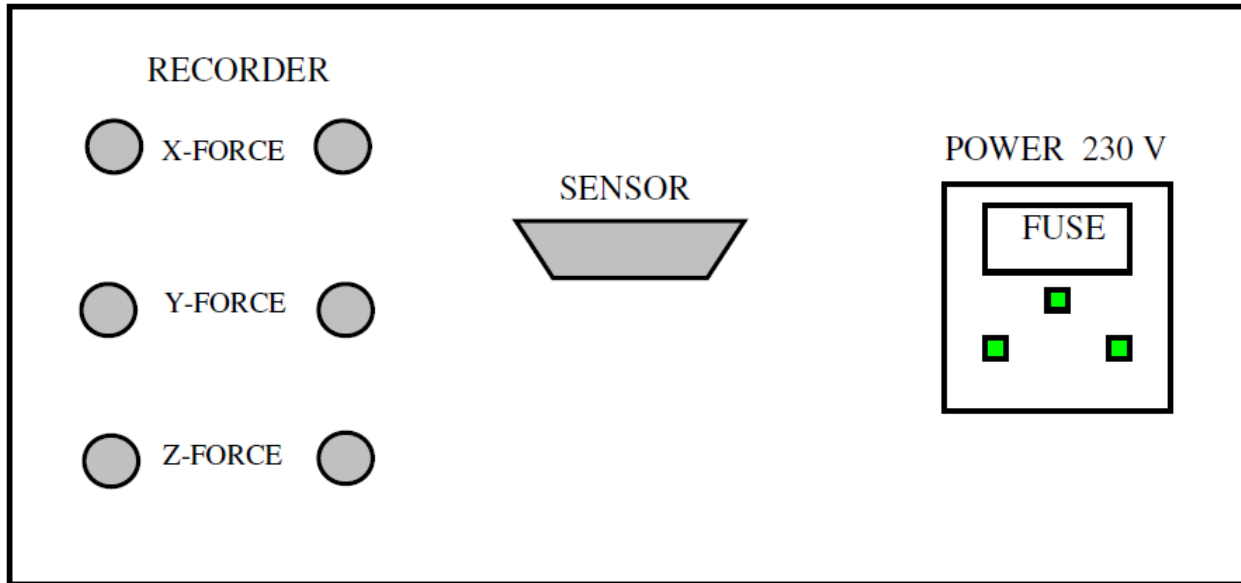
DISPLAY : 3 1/2 Digit LED Display of 200 mV FSD

ZERO : Single turn potentiometers for Course and Fine adjustment of tare load coming on the sensor and bridge balancing set the display to read "000".

POWER ON : Rocker switch to control power supply to the instrument.



## REAR PANEL

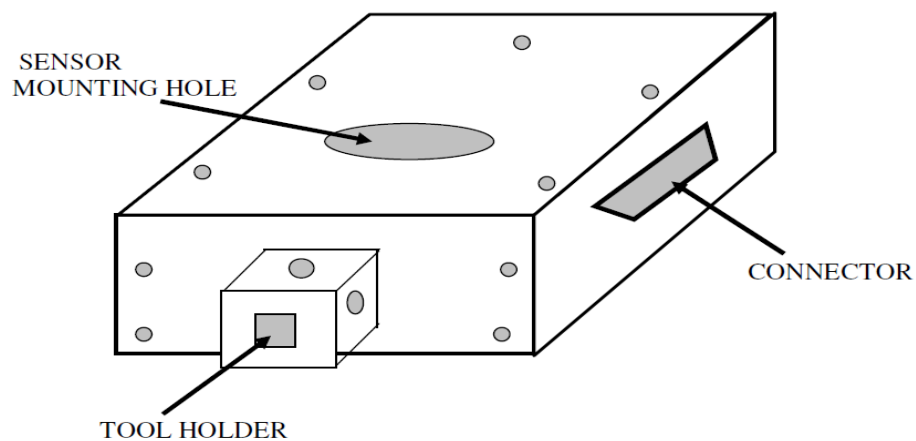


**Power Socket :** Power socket to connect the Instrument to AC 230 V 50 Hz. Supply through the chord supplied. It also has FUSE attached with it. To replace fuse remove the cap slowly only after disconnecting the power chord.

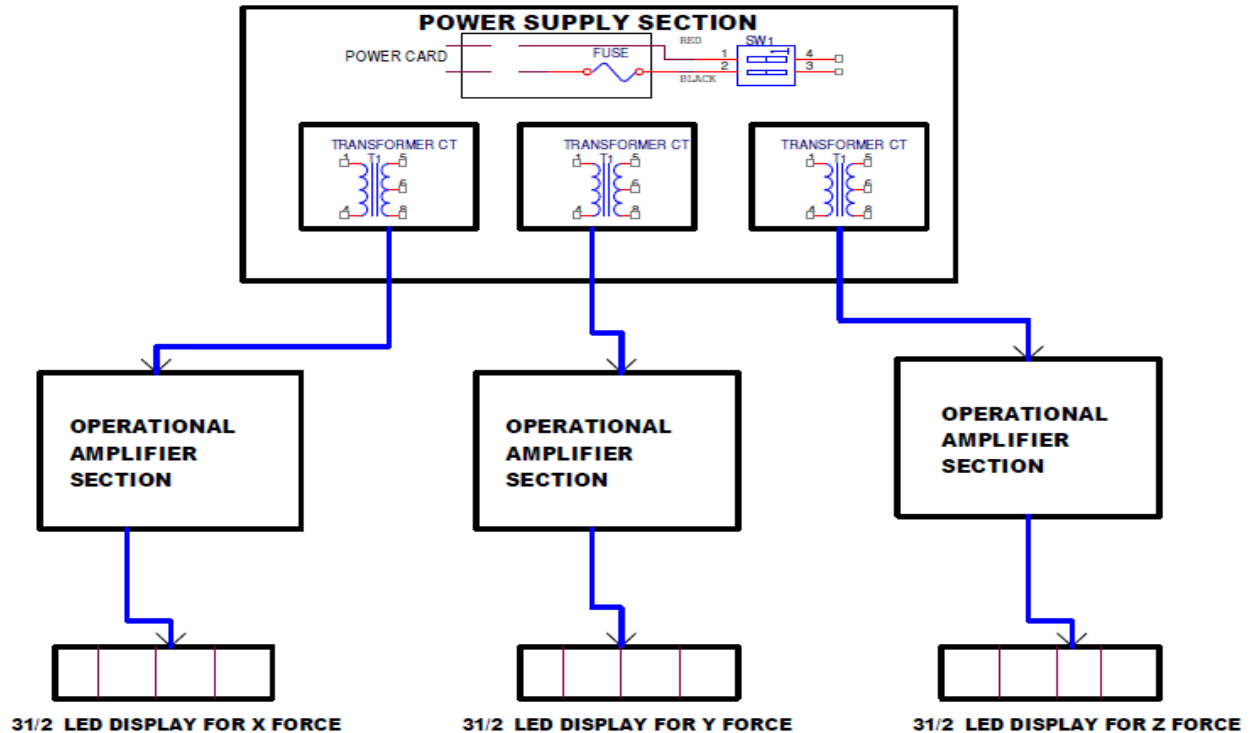
**15 Pin socket :** To Connect the sensor through 12 core shielded cable attached with connector.

**RECORDER :** Analog output to connect X-Y Plotter or Recorder.

## LATHE TOOL DYNAMOMETER



## BLOCK DIAGRAM



## CONNECTION DETAILS

### SENSOR MOUNTING

The Sensor is mounted directly on the tool post of the Lathe Machine.

- Remove the tool holder from the tool post of the lathe machine.
- The Dynamometer is provided with 1" hole at the center. Mount the sensor in the place of tool holder on the tool post. Fix the sensor rigidly using the fastener nut used to mount the tool Holder.
- Fix 1/2" HSS tool bit provided firmly inside the square hole at the front of the sensor.

### CONNECTING SENSOR TO THE INSTRUMENT

To the right side of the instrument 15 pin D-Connector is provided. Connect the one end of the cable provided to the sensor and the other end of the cable to the connector provided at the rear panel of the instrument.

### POWER SUPPLY

Connect one end of the 3 core cable to the connector at the rear panel of the instrument, and the other end to the 230V 50 Hz supply.

### **OPERATING PROCEDURE**

- Check the connections made to the instrument. Switch ON the power to the instrument through rocker switch at the front panel.
- Allow the instrument in ON position for 10 minutes for initial warm-up.
- Adjust the Potentiometer in the front panel till the display reads “000”. Now the instrument is ready for use.
- Mount the job on the lathe machine. Adjust the line of cut and the center-line of the job by giving packing below the sensor.
- Adjust the speed of the machine and switch ON the machine.
- Give a light cut on the job throughout the length of the job so that the surface of the job is even.
- Adjust the cut and the feed required. Put the machine into auto feed.
- The instrument will start showing the force coming on the sensor in Kg as soon as the tool starts removing the metal from the job. Note down the reading and tabulate on the tabular column for various depth of cut keeping feed and speed constant.
- Experiment can be conducted for different combinations of feed, speed and depth of cut and also the material of the job, by varying one component (material, speed, feed) and keeping the other constant.
- Conclusions can be drawn for the following :
  - Optimum speed, feed and depth of cut for the various materials.
  - Optimum cutting & release angle of the tool tip for various materials.
  - Optimum utilization of the machine power by optimizing cutting feed, speed and depth of cut.

## **5. ACOUSTIC MEASUREMENT-**

### **SOUND LEVEL METER-OCTAVE BAND FILTER-PREPARATION OF NOISE CONTOURS**

#### **THEORY**

Human ears are most sensitive to frequencies between about 500Hz and 6kHz and less sensitive to frequencies above and below these. To allow the sound level meter or noise dosimeter to measure and report noise levels that represent what we hear, **Frequency Weightings** are used. These are electronic filters within the the instrument that are used to adjust the way in which the instrument measures the noise.

The most commonly used Frequency Weightings that you will see on a modern sound level meter or noise dosimeter are 'A', 'C' and 'Z' and below is a brief explanation of each of these.

#### **'A' Frequency Weighting**

'A' Weighting is standard weighting of the audible frequencies designed to reflect the response of the human ear to noise. At low and high frequencies, the human ear is not very sensitive, but between 500 Hz and 6 kHz the ear is much more sensitive.

The 'A' weighting filter covers the full frequency range of 20 Hz to 20 kHz, but the shape approximates to the frequency sensitivity of the human ear. So the A-weighted value of a noise source is an approximation to how the human ear perceives the noise.

Measurements made using A-weighting are usually shown with dB(A) to show that the information is 'A' weighted decibels or, for example, as LAeq, LAFmax, LAE etc where the A shows the use of A-Weighting.

#### **'C' Frequency Weighting**

'C' Weighting is a standard weighting of the audible frequencies commonly used for the measurement of Peak Sound Pressure level.

Measurements made using 'C' weighting are usually shown with dB(C) to show that the information is 'C' weighted decibels or, for example, as LCeq, LCPeak, LCE etc where the C shows the use of 'C' Weighting.

#### **'Z' Frequency Weighting**

Z weighting is a flat frequency response between 10Hz and 20kHz  $\pm 1.5$ dB excluding microphone response.

Measurements made using 'Z' weighting are usually shown with dB(Z) to show that the information is 'Z' weighted decibels or, for example, as LZeq, LZFmax, LZE

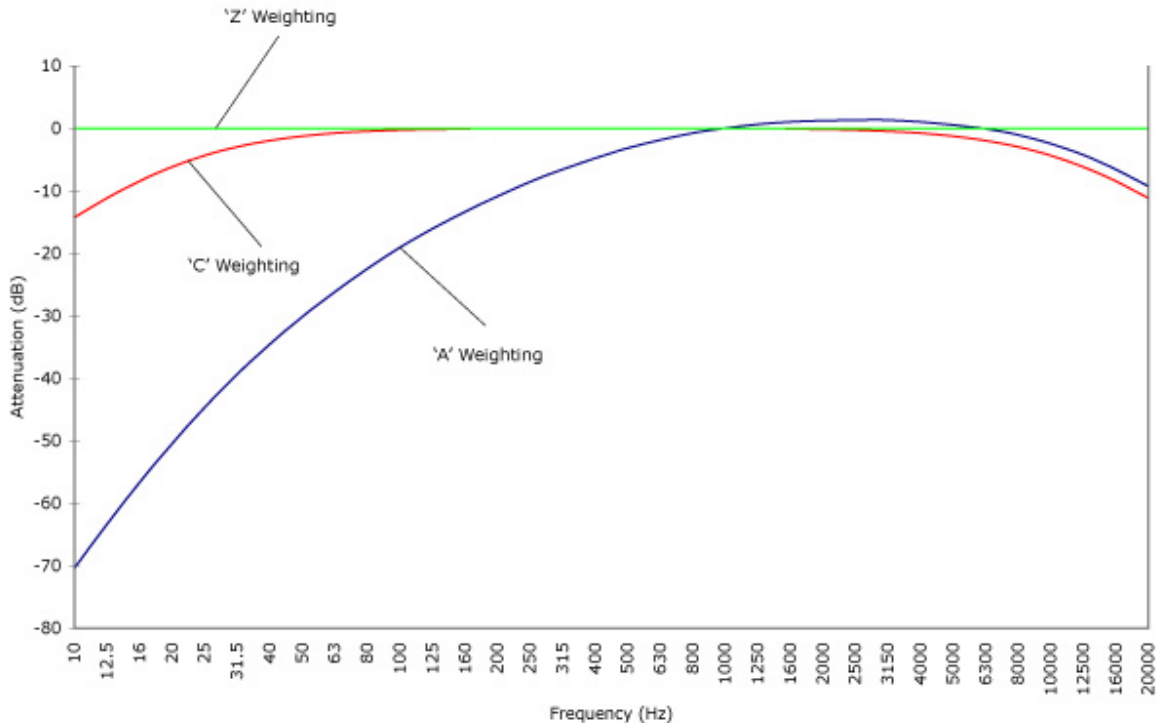


Figure: Frequency Weighting Curves – 'A', 'C' & 'Z'

## SOUND PRESSURE LEVEL MEASUREMENTS

The object of this experiment is to measure and record the sound pressure levels (in dB) created by as many different types of sound sources as you can during your lab period.

### PROCEDURE

Make the measurements suggested below using A weighting and then C weighting. Record all the data indicated by the Table headings below, including Source of Sound, Estimated Distance from Meters, dB (A weighting), dB (C weighting), and your subjective judgments of the loudness of the sounds (such as "very quiet", "medium", "loud", "very loud", etc.).

Source of Sound	Estimated Distance from Meter	SPL (dB) A-weighting	SPL (dB) C-weighting	Comments on Subjective Loudness

In general, what differences do you find between your measurements made with A and C weighting? Why do such differences exist?

## **6. MEASUREMENT OF ROTATION SPEED**

### **MEASUREMENT OF ROTATION SPEED USING TACHOMETER, TACHO GENERATOR AND STROBOSCOPIC TACHOMETER –CALIBRATION OF TACHOMETERS**

#### **DIGITAL TACHOMETER**

Caution: Use minimum pressure needed to register the actual shaft speed, in order to minimize the loading error and to avoid damage to the equipment. Set the motor speed to the desired rpm. Check and note down how the speed varies while machining process is in progress. Each member of the team should record at least 10 readings from the digital tachometer. At least 50 data should be taken per group.

#### **STROBOSCOPE**

Set motor speed to desired rpm and record the electronic frequency counter reading. Set the stroboscope frequency to approximately the electronic frequency counter reading. Fine-adjust the stroboscope frequency until the timing mark appears stationary; record this stroboscope reading, and sketch the mark on the gear face. Without changing the motor speed, increase the stroboscope frequency until it is doubled. Record the stroboscope frequency. Sketch the timing mark pattern.

Repeat above measurements for a stroboscope frequency of 3 times true shaft speed.

Repeat above measurement for a stroboscope frequency of  $\frac{1}{2}$  times true shaft speed.

## 7) METROLOGY

### a. MEASUREMENT OF SURFACE FINISH USING STYLUS TYPE SURFACE ROUGHNESS MEASURING DEVICE

#### **TIME 3100 SURFACE ROUGHNESS TESTER**

##### **Product Description:**



Portable Surface Roughness Tester - TIME3100 is a pocket-sized economically priced instrument for measuring surface texture conforming to traceable standards. It can be used on the shop floor in any position, horizontal, vertical or anywhere in between.

The large LCD display shows either roughness parameter Ra or Rz at the touch of a button, combined with the selected cut-off length. External calibration of roughness values is possible by means of a special CAL button, which makes adjustment of this instrument very easy. A beep signal informs the user of each individual measurement status when ready.



## **OBJECTIVE**

To study the effects which variations in the parameters of the primary machining process of turning have on the surface finish of a workpiece.

## **EQUIPMENT**

TIME 3100 SURFACE ROUGHNESS TESTER, Lathe, mild steel workpiece, hand tachometer, and safety glasses.

## **DISCUSSION**

Primary machining uses heavy roughing cuts to remove large amounts of material. Secondary machining follows primary machining taking lighter cuts to improve surface finish and dimensional accuracy. The allowable surface roughness of a part to be machined depends on factors such as functions and size of the part, fit and dimensional accuracy required, loading requirements, and required motion and wear characteristics.

In most cases the character of a machined surface depends upon the process used to produce it. For example, there are several sources of roughness when machining with a single point tool: (1) feed marks left by the cutting tool; (2) built-up edge fragments embedded in the surface during the process of chip formation; (3) chatter marks from vibration of the tool, work piece, or machine tool itself. When a surface is turned at high speed without chatter present, the primary surface roughness lies in an axial direction and may be computed quite accurately from the feed and the tool geometry. (The average roughness expressed in micro-inches for a turned surface is approximately equal to feed/60.)

## **4. PROCEDURE**

1. Understand the operating instructions for the lathe as presented to you by the instructor.
2. Observe the cutting edge of the carbide insert under a microscope to assure that the cutting edge is free from flaws and defects.
3. Divide the surface of the workpiece into nine 1.5" segments. Machine these segments at the various combinations of feeds (0.004, 0.007, 0.010 ipr) and speeds (150, 300, 450 sfpm), using a constant .020 inch depth of cut.

- After turning the surface of the given workpiece, clean off the workpiece (i.e., remove chips and oil from it) measure the surface roughness of the workpiece using the portable surface analyzer. Take four readings for each segment by rotating the workpiece 90° after each reading. Record all data on the "Data Sheet" below. Calculate the average surface roughness.

**DATA SHEET FOR SURFACE FINISH EVALUATION**

Cutting Speed (sfpm)	Feed (ipr)	Surface Roughness (µin.)				Average Roughness (µin.)
		1	2	3	4	
150	0.004					
	0.007					
	0.10					
300	0.004					
	0.007					
	0.10					
450	0.004					
	0.007					
	0.10					

**EVALUATION**

- On one sheet of graph paper, plot the average surface roughness versus cutting speed using feed as a parameter.
- On another sheet of graph paper, plot the average surface roughness versus feed using speed as a parameter.

Discuss your results and the effects of any observed built-up-edge, chatter, etc. on the average surface roughness.

## **8. TOOL MAKERS MICROSCOPE-MEASUREMENT OF TOOL WEAR USING TOOL MAKERS MICROSCOPE**

### **AIM :-**

Experiment on tool maker's microscope

### **APPARATUS :-**

Tool maker's microscope, specimen

### **THEORY :-**

### **INTRODUCTION:-**

The tool maker's microscope is a versatile instrument that measure by optical means with no pressure being involved, thus very useful for measurement on small and delicate parts.

It is designed for:

- a) Measurement on parts of complex form e.g. - profile of external thread, tool, templates, gauges, etc.
- b) Measuring centre to centre distance of holes in any plane.
- c) A variety of linear measurements.
- d) Accurate angular measurements.

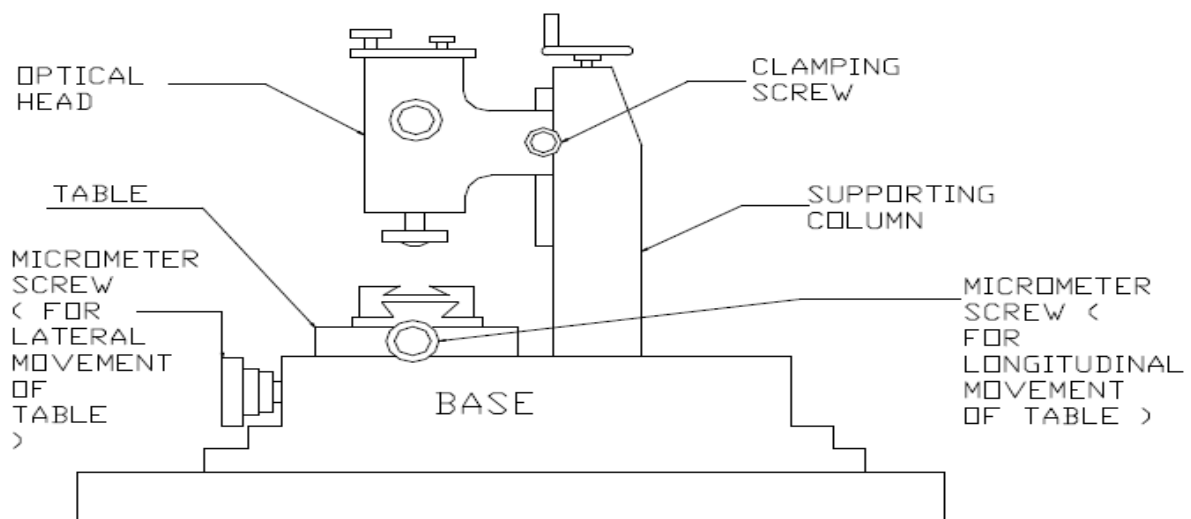
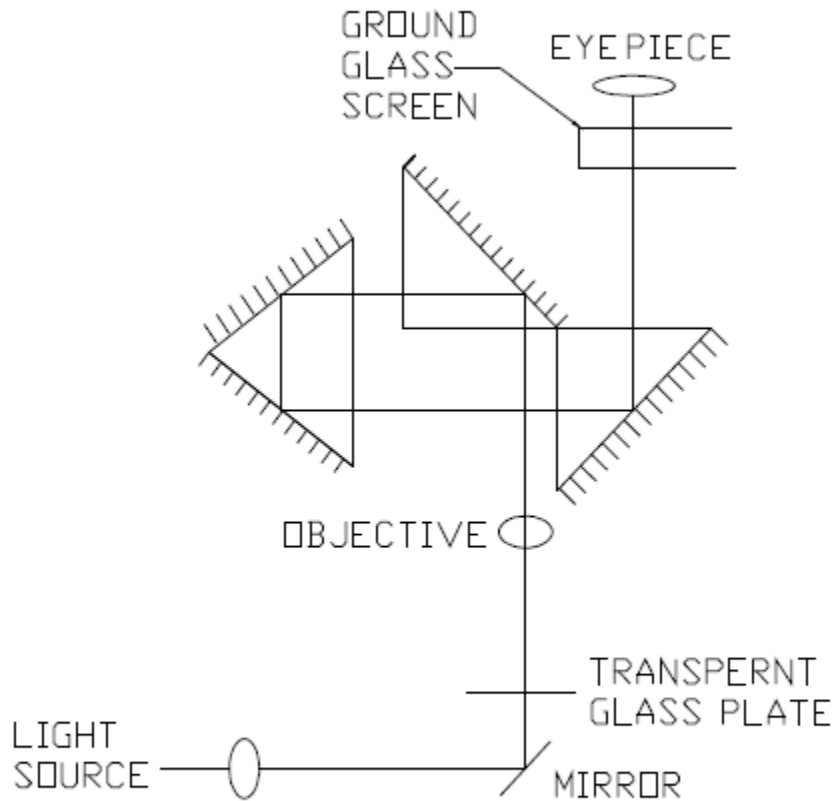


Fig. Tool Maker's Microscope

Tool maker's microscope is shown in fig. The optical head can be moved up or down the vertical column and can be clamped at any height by means of clamping screw. The table which is mounted on the base of the instrument can be moved in two mutually perpendicular horizontal directions (longitudinal and lateral) by means of accurate micrometer screw having thimble scale and verniers.

**PRINCIPLE OF MEASUREMENT:**



**fig. Principle of operation.**

A ray of light from a light source fig. b is reflected by a mirror through 90° It then passes through a transparent glass plate (on which flat parts may be placed ). A shadow image of the outline or counter of the workspaces passes through the objective of the optical head and is projected by a system of three prisms to a ground glass screen. Observations are made through an eyepiece. Measurements are made by means of cross lines engraved on the ground glass screen. The screen can be rotated through 360°; the angle of rotation is read through an auxiliary eyepiece.

**PROCEDURE: -**

**PITCH MEASUREMENT: -**

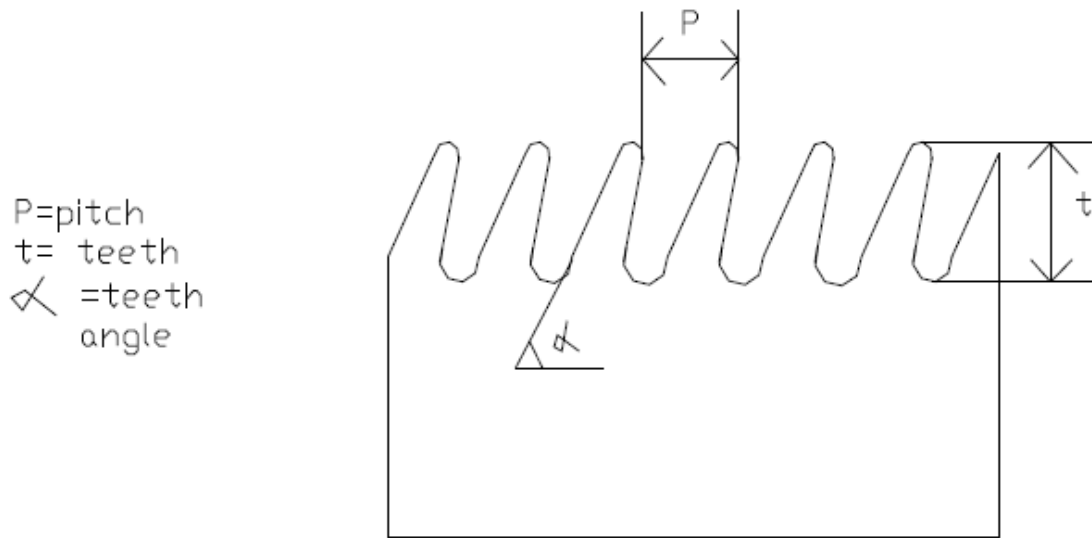
- 1) Take the hacksaw blade and mount on the moving blade of tool maker's Microscope in horizontal position.
- 2) Focus the microscope on the blade.
- 3) Make the cross line in the microscope coincided with one of the edge of the blade.
- 4) Take a reading on ground glass screen, this is the initial reading.
- 5) The table is again moved until the next edge of the blade coincides with the cross-line on the screen and the final reading takes.
- 6) The difference between initial and final reading gives pitch of the blade.

**TEETH ANGLE :-**

- 1) Place the blade on the table in same position.
- 2) Rotate the screen until a line on the angle of screen rotation is noted.
- 3) Take the angular reading, the initial one.
- 4) Again rotate the screen until the same line coincides with the other flank of the tooth.
- 5) Take the final angular reading.
- 6) The teeth angle of blade in the difference between the two angular readings.

**OBSERVATION TABLE**

For Measurement	Sr No.	Initial reading	Final reading	Difference	Mean
PITCH	1				
	2				
	3				
TEETH ANGLE	1				
	2				
	3				



Hacksaw Blade Tooth

**RESULT**

A) Pitch of blade =

B) Teeth angle =

## 9. STUDY AND USE OF LINEAR AND ANGULAR MEASURING DEVICES-

### VERNIER CALIPER

#### **AIM :**

To calibrate and measure the given component by using vernier calliper.

#### **APPARATUS REQUIRED:**

Slip gauges and Vernier Calliper.

#### **THEORY:**

The Vernier Caliper is a precision instrument that can be used to measure internal and external distances extremely accurately. Measurements are interpreted from the scale by the user. This is more difficult than using a digital vernier caliper which has an LCD digital display on which the reading appears. Manually operated vernier calipers can still be bought and remain popular because they are much cheaper than the digital version. Also, the digital version requires a small battery whereas the manual version does not need any power source. The main use of the vernier caliper is to measure the internal and the external diameters of an object. To measure using a vernier scale, the user first reads the finely marked "fixed" scale (in the diagram). This measure is typically between two of the scale's smallest graduations. The user then reads the finer vernier scale which measures between the smallest graduations on the fixed scale providing much greater accuracy.

**Example:** On decimal measuring instruments, as in the diagram below, the indicating scale has 10 graduations that cover the same length as 9 on the data scale. Note that the vernier 10th graduation is omitted.

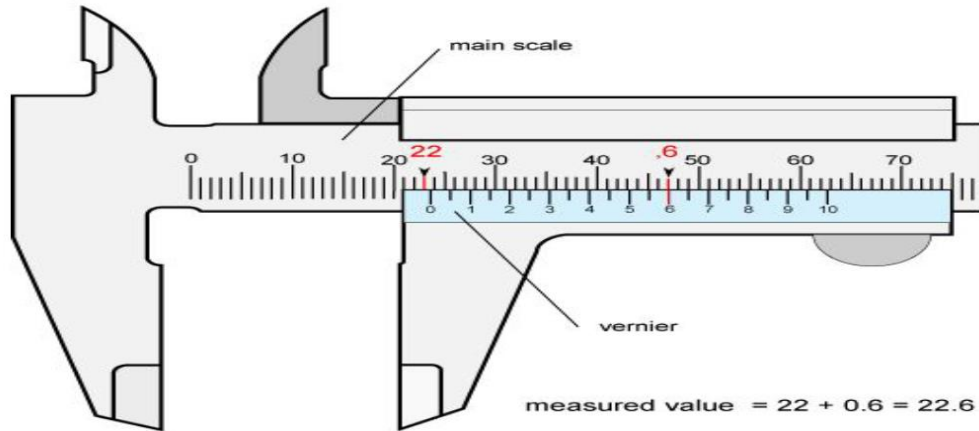
**The method to use a vernier scale or caliper** with zero error is to use the formula: actual reading = main scale + vernier scale - (zero error). Zero error may arise due to knocks that cause the calibration at the 0.00 mm when the jaws are perfectly closed or just touching each other.

When the jaws are closed and if the reading is 0.10mm, the zero error is referred to as +0.10mm.

The method to use a vernier scale or caliper with zero error is to use the formula 'actual reading = main scale + vernier scale - (zero error)' thus the actual reading is  $19.00 + 0.54 - (0.10) = 19.44$  mm

**Positive zero error** refers to the fact that when the jaws of the vernier caliper are just closed, the reading is a positive reading away from the actual reading of 0.00mm. If the reading is 0.10mm, the zero error is referred to as +0.10 mm.





### CALIBRATION OF VERNIER CALIPER:

S.NO	Slip gauge in mm	MSD	VSD	Output value in mm	Actual value in mm	Error in mm
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

When the jaws are closed and if the reading is  $-0.08\text{mm}$ , the zero error is referred to as  $-0.08\text{mm}$ . The method to use a vernier scale or caliper with zero error is to use the formula 'actual reading = main scale + vernier scale - (zero error)' thus the actual reading is  $19.00 + 0.36 - (-0.08) = 19.44\text{mm}$

Negative zero error refers to the fact that when the jaws of the vernier caliper are just closed, the reading is a negative reading away from the actual reading of  $0.00\text{mm}$ . If the reading is  $0.08\text{mm}$ , the zero error is referred to as  $-0.08\text{mm}$ .

### PRINCIPLE:

Vernier Calipers is the most commonly used instrument for measuring outer and inner diameters. It works on the principle of Vernier Scale which is some fixed units of length (Ex:  $49\text{mm}$ ) divided into 1 less or 1 more parts of the unit(Ex:  $49\text{mm}$  are divided into 50 parts). The exact

measurement with up to 0.02mm accuracy can be determined by the coinciding line between Main Scale and Vernier Scale. Total Reading = M.S.R + L.C X V.C

**Where:**

M.S.R – Main Scale Reading

L.C – Least Count

V.C – Vernier Coincidence

**PROCEDURE:**

**Calibration**

1. With the help of slip gauges as standard, calibrate the gauges.
2. Plot a graph of (i) STD Input vs Output and (ii) Standard Input vs Error .

**Measurement**

1. Place the work piece and the gauge appropriately and carry out the measurement of the job.
2. Prepare a report of the measurement and indicate the characteristics of the work pieces.

**Result:**

Calibrated the vernier calliper and measured the values of the given component.

## **10. OUTSIDE AND INSIDE MICROMETER**

### **AIM:**

To calibrate the micrometer using slip gauges

### **APPARATUS:**

Micrometer, slip gauges

### **OBJECTIVES:**

Students will be able to know 1. To know the use and working of slip gauges 2. To know the classification and working of slip gauges

### **THEORY:**

Slip gauges are end standards used in linear measurements. They are used in workshop for work where a tolerance as low as 0.001mm is needed. Slip gauges were invented by Swedish engineer, C.E. Johnson, so they are also called Johnson gauges. Slip gauges are rectangular blocks, made of high grade steel, having cross section about 30mm X10mm. These blocks are made into required sizes and hardened to resist wear and allowed to stabilize so as to relieve internal stresses. This prevents occurrence of size and shape variations. After hardening the blocks, measuring faces are carefully finished to fine degree of surface finish, flatness and accuracy. This high grade surface finish is obtained by super finishing process known as lapping.

#### **Wringing of slip gauges:**

The measuring face of the gauges is flat and it possesses high surface finish. If two slip gauges are forced against each other on measuring faces, because of contact pressure, gauges stick together and considerable force is required to separate these blocks. This is known as wringing of slip gauges. Thus, wringing refers to condition of intimate and complete contact and of permanent adhesion between measuring faces. Slip gauges are wrung to build desired dimension. Slip gauges are wrung together by hand and no other external means. Figure shows 1) Parallel wringing of slip gauges and 2) Cross wringing of slip gauges. **In cross wringing** – the two slip gauges are first cleaned to remove dirt and then they are placed together at right angles in the form of cross and then rotated through 90°, while being pressed together. This method causes less rubbing of surfaces. Almost any dimension may be built by suitable combination of gauges. Wringing phenomenon is purely due to surface contact and molecular adhesion of metal of blocks. Hence, —**wringing is defined** as the property of measuring faces of gauge blocks of adhering, by sliding or pressing the gauge against measuring faces of other gauge blocks or reference faces or datum surfaces without the use of external means.

#### **Uses/Applications of slip gauges**

1. as a reference standard.
2. for verification and calibration of measuring apparatus.

3. for adjustment of indicating devices.
4. for direct measurement.
5. for setting of various types of comparators.
6. Micrometres are used to measure the small or fine measurements of length, width, thickness and diameter of the job.

Observation table:

Range:

Least count:

Make:

Sr. No	Slip gauges in combination	Micrometer reading in mm				
		Increasing	Decreasing	Average	Error	Correction
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

Determining the dimension of 29.758mm by M45 slip gauge set:

Rule 1:-Minimum number of slip gauges should be used to build dimension.

Rule 2:- Always start with the last decimal place.

Hence to build the dimension of 29.758 we need slip gauges of 20mm, 6mm, 1.7mm, 1.05mm and 1.008mm.

Procedure	Last decimal	Calculation
<b>a) Write the required dimension</b>		<b>29.758</b>
<b>b) Starting with last decimal place i.e. 0.008 But we can use 1.008 as to follow rule 1.</b>	<b>0.008</b>	<b>- 1.008</b>
		<b>28.75</b>
<b>c) After subtraction the value remaining is 28.75. Here the last decimal place is 0.05 but we can use 1.05 slip gauge set so as to follow rule 1</b>	<b>0.05</b>	<b>- 1.05</b>
		<b>27.7</b>
<b>d) Value remaining is 27.7 i.e last decimal place is 0.7 But we can use 1.7mm slip gauge so as to follow rule 1.</b>	<b>0.7</b>	<b>- 1.7</b>
		<b>26.0</b>
<b>e) Now the value remaining is 26 mm and we have 6mm gauge block available.</b>	<b>6.0</b>	<b>- 6.0</b>
		<b>20.0</b>
<b>f) Final value is 20mm and this gauge is available. Remainder should always be zero</b>	<b>20mm</b>	<b>- 20.0</b>
		<b>0.0</b>

### PROCEDURE OF PERFORMING EXPERIMENT:

- (1) Clean the fixed vice and micrometer
- (2) Clamp the micrometer in vice putting cushioning material between micrometer and jaws of vice to protect the micrometer from probable damage due to clamping force.
- (3) Make pile of gauge blocks and insert between two anvils of the micrometer and take reading.
- (4) Increase the value of gauge blocks pile and take next few readings.
- (5) Then decrease the value of gauge blocks pile and take same readings in decreasing order.
- (6) Tabulate the readings
- (7) After cleaning the place the gauge blocks should be placed in their respective places.

**Particulars of M87 and M45 slip gauge set.**

M87 is a special set of slip gauges.

Range (mm)	Steps	Pieces
1.001 to 1.009	0.001	9
1.01 to 1.49	0.01	49
0.5 to 9.5	0.5	19
10 to 90	10	0
1.005	-	1

M45 is a normal set of slip gauges.

Range (mm)	Steps	Pieces
1.001 to 1.009	0.001	9
1.01 to 1.09	0.01	9
1.1 to 1.9	0.1	9
1 to 9	1	9
10 to 90	10	9
		Total 45

## 11. SINE BAR

### **AIM:**

To determine the taper angle of the given work piece and compare it with theoretical value by using sine bar.

### **APPARATUS:**

Surface plate, sine bar, slip gauge sets, Vernier calliper, cleaning agent, tapered work piece, clean dry soft cloth, clamping devices etc.

### **THEORY:**

**Sine bar** is a precision instrument used along with slip gauges for accurate angle measurements or angle setting. Sine bar consists of an accurate straight bar in which two accurately lapped cylindrical plugs or rollers are located with extreme position. **The straight bar** are made of high carbon, high chromium, corrosion resistant steel and the surfaces are hardened, grounded and lapped. Ends of the straight bar are stepped so that the plugs can be screwed at each step. Plugs are the two rollers of same diameter fixed at a distance L between them and is called as length of the bar. This distance L is the centre to centre distance of plugs is which is generally 100, 200 and 300 mm and so on.

**Use of Sine bar:** The work piece whose angle is to be measured is placed on sine bar. Below one roller of sine bar, slip gauges are placed. Slip gauges are added till the work piece surface is straight. Dial indicator is moved from one end of work piece till another end. Slip gauges are added till dial pointer does not move from zero position. The use of sine bar is based on the laws of **trigonometry**. When sine bar set up is made for the purpose of angle measurement, sine bar itself forms hypotenuse of right angle triangle and slip gauges form the side opposite to the required angle.  **$\sin \theta = (h/L)$** , Therefore  $\theta = \sin^{-1}(h/L)$ , Angle  $\theta$  is determined by an indirect method as a function of sine so this device is called as sine bar. Sine bar is always used in conjunction with slip gauge and dial indicator for the measurement of angle.

**The angle** is defined as the opening between the two lines or planes, which meet at a point. So angle is a thing which can be generated very easily requiring no absolute standard. Sine bars are used in junction with slip gauges constitute a very good device for the precision measurement of angles. Since sine bars are used either to measure angle very accurately or for locating any work to a given angle within very close limit. Sine bars are used only for measuring and setting any angle of the object having flat surface. Sine bars are also used to measure or set angle of the object not larger than the 450, if higher accuracy is demanded.

**OBSERVATIONS:**

1. Least count of vernier calliper = \_\_\_\_\_ mm
2. Least count of dial gauge = \_\_\_\_\_ mm
3. Distance between the centre of rollers & side bar  $L = 200$  mm
4. Length of specimen (taper length),  $l =$  \_\_\_\_\_ mm

**Tabular Column**

SL No	Taper length of the specimen 'l' mm	Height for one side of the work piece 'h <sub>1</sub> ' mm	Height for another side of the work piece 'h <sub>2</sub> ' mm	Diff. of height dh = (h <sub>2</sub> - h <sub>1</sub> )	App. Ht. of slip gauge Read. H <sub>app.</sub>	Actual Ht. of slip gauge Read. H <sub>act</sub>	Theoretical taper angle, $\theta_{th}$	Actual taper angle, $\theta_{act}$	Error
1									
2									

**Calculations:**

- 7) Height for one side of the work piece 'h<sub>1</sub>' = \_\_\_\_\_ mm
- 8) Height for another side of the work piece 'h<sub>2</sub>' = \_\_\_\_\_ mm
- 9) Difference in height dh = (h<sub>2</sub> - h<sub>1</sub>) = \_\_\_\_\_ mm.
- 10) Approximate height of slip gauge used = H<sub>app.</sub>

$$H_{app.} = \frac{dh \times L}{\sqrt{dh^2 + l^2}} \text{ ----- mm}$$

11) Theoretical taper angle,  $\theta_{th} = \tan^{-1}(dh/l) = \text{----- Degrees}$

12) Actual taper angle,  $\theta_{act} = [\sin^{-1} (H_{act})] / L = \text{----- Degrees}$

13) Error  $\theta_{act} - \theta_{the} = \text{----- Degrees}$

### **APPLICATIONS:**

1. To measure and/ or set the angle accurately using a sine bar, the main requirement is that it must be accurate.
2. To check the flat surfaces in industry machine tools like lathe beds, milling machines columns, tables, apron & also saddle in lathe.
3. Rolling mills housing can be checked by sine bars.

### **PROCEDURE:**

1. Set the sine bar on the surface plate.
2. Measure the distance between rollers of center of sine bar.
3. Mark the position of the rollers on the surface plate which is advantage if the position of sine bar is changed.
4. The axial length of taper under test is noted by use of vernier calliper.
5. The work piece whose taper is required to be known is fixed on the upper surface of the sine bar by means of clamp and so positioned that easily access whole length of the taper to the dial gauge.
6. The dial gauge is fixed on its stand which in term is fixed on the slide way.
7. Note down the least count of the dial gauge used.
8. Adjust the slip gauge height on the taper to be measure in such a way that it easily takes slip on the smaller end and note down dial gauge reading at the entry end.
9. By sliding the dial gauge across the work piece length take reading of the dial gauge on other end.
10. Calculate approximate height of slip gauge required at smaller dimension end in order to become an upper surface of the work piece parallel to the reference plane.
11. Without altering the position of the roller place the slip gauge pile under the roller of small size end of the sine bar set up to equal approximate height.
12. Then test with dial gauge for null deflection. If there is any slight deflection in dial gauge then alter slip gauges pile until getting null deflection.
13. With the help of formulas given in, calculate the actual angle and theoretical angle of taper and error in taper.



**RESULTS:**

For a given component/ plug gauge , we found the theoretical taper angle is \_\_\_\_\_ degrees & also actual taper angle is \_\_\_\_\_ degrees.

## **12. BEVEL PROTRACTOR**

### **AIM:**

To find out the taper angle of given work piece by using Bevel Protractor.

### **APPARATUS:**

Surface Plate, Bevel Protractor, Tapered work piece.

### **OBJECTIVES:**

Students will be able to know

- Understand different parts of vernier bevel protractor,
- Know the use and working of bevel protractor,
- Understand the use of vernier bevel protractor.

### **THEORY:**

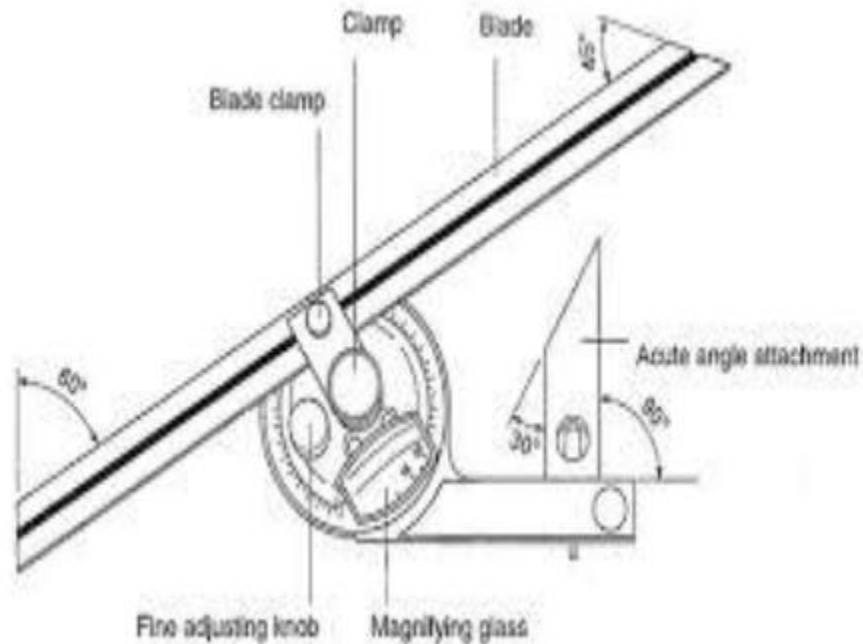
Main parts of bevel protractor are

1. Fixed Base blade and a circular body is attached to it.
2. Adjustable blade.
3. Blade clamp.
4. Scale magnifier lens.
5. Acute angle attachment.

Bevel protractor is used for measuring and laying out of angles accurately and precisely within 5 minutes. The protractor dial is slotted to hold a blade which can be rotated with the dial to the required angle and also independently adjusted to any desired length. The blade can be locked in any position.

It is the simplest instrument for measuring the angle between two faces of component. It consists of base plate attached to the main body and an adjustable blade which is attached to a circular plate containing vernier scale. The adjustable blade is capable of rotating freely about the centre of the main scale engraved on the body of the instrument and can be locked in the any position. It is capable of measuring from zero to 360°. The vernier scale has 24 divisions coinciding with 23

main scale divisions. Thus the least count of the instrument is 51. This instrument is most commonly used in work shop for angular measurements.



Note the reading, magnifying lens has been provided for easy reading of the instrument. Main scale is circular and is graduated in degrees on the circular body. Main scale graduations are all around the circular body which is attached to fixed base blade. Fixed base blade also called as stock is attached to circular body of bevel protractor as shown in figure. Once the reading is fixed, blade clamp fixes the reading. Blades are about 150 mm long or 300mm long, 13mm wide and 2mm thick. Its ends are bevelled at angles of 45 degree and 60 degree. Vernier scale is also marked on turret which can rotate all over the fixed body. Adjustable blade can pass through the slot provided in turret. So as the turret rotates, adjustable blade also rotates full 360 degrees. There are 12 graduations of Vernier scale starting from 0 to 60o on both sides of zero of Vernier scale as shown in figure.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Least count of Vernier bevel protractor} &= \frac{\text{smallest division on main scale}}{\text{Total no of divisions on Vernier scale}} \\ &= \frac{1^\circ \text{ (equal to } 60') \text{ i.e. } 60}{12} \\ &= 5 \text{ minutes (written as } 5') \end{aligned}$$

**Observations:**

Least count of the Bevel Protractor \_\_\_\_\_ minutes

**Tabular Column:**

SL No.	Faces/Sides	Angles
1		
2		
3		
4		

**APPLICATIONS:**

1. To measure the acute & obtuse angles in case of flat & circular objects with large radius.
2. In machining processes like production of flat surfaces.
3. For checking the ‘V’ block, it is used.

**PROCEDURE:**

1. Note down the least count of the Bevel Protractor.
2. Keep the work piece on the surface plate.
3. Fix the slide of Bevel Protractor to the Turret.
4. Keep one of the surfaces of the specimen on the working edge and rotate the turret. Remove the slide on to the other surface.
5. Fix the centre, after matching the both the faces and note down the reading.
6. Repeat the experiment for different faces

**RESULTS:**

By using the bevel protractor, the taper angle of the given specimen is calculated.

### **13. PROFILE PROJECTOR**

#### **AIM:**

To measure major diameter, minor diameter and pitch of screw thread using Profile Projector.

#### **APPARATUS:**

Profile Projector, threading job.

#### **PROFILE PROJECTOR:**

A profile projector projects a magnified profile image of an area or feature of a workpiece onto a screen, most commonly using diascope illumination. Dimensions can be measured directly on the screen or compared to a standard reference at the correct magnification. For accuracy, it is important that the magnification does not change with perspective, i.e. its position or the view point of the operator. Telecentric lenses are, therefore, highly desirable. The screen often has a grid and this grid can often be rotated through 360 degrees to align with an edge as displayed on the screen. Point positions, measurements, and calculations may also be performed using a simple digital read out device. Episcopic lighting is used to measure features such as bores, bosses, pockets, pads etc., which would not be revealed on a profile view. A computer may be added to a profile projector system for edge determination, thereby eliminating some human error.

#### **APPLICATIONS:**

Profile projectors are robust measuring tools commonly used in machine shops, quality assurance departments and occasionally on assembly shop floors. They are suitable for measuring and quality control for a wide range of size and weights of objects. The most basic use of a profile projector is to identify a point or edge on the shadow and from this point to calculate a length. By magnifying the image, the operator is less likely to make a mistake when deciding where the edge or point starts. Profile images can also be used to make simple stop / go decision by, for example, matching an image against a standard to determine whether a part has been made correctly.

#### **PROCEDURE:**

The use of Profile Projector for the taking the various measurements is explained below:

- 1) For taking linear measurements, the work piece is placed over the table. Then it is focused and one end of the work piece is made to coincide with cross line on the screen (by operating micrometers screws). The table is again moved until the other end of the work piece coincide with the cross line on the screen and the final reading taken. From the final reading, the desired measurement can be taken.
- 2) To measure the screw pitch, the screw is mounted on the table. Then it is focused (by adjusting the height of the optical head) until a sharp image of the projected contour of the screw

is seen of the ground glass screen. The contour is set so that some point on the contour coincides with the cross line on the screen. The reading on the thimble of the longitudinal micrometer screw is noted. Then the table is moved by the same screw until a corresponding point on the contour (profile) of the next thread coincides with the cross line. The reading is again noted and the difference in two reading gives the screw pitch.

3) To determine pitch diameter the lateral movement to the table is given.

4) To determine the thread handle, the screen is rotated until a line on the angle of screen rotation is noted. The screen is further rotated until the same line coincides with the other flank of the threads. The angle of thread on the screen will be difference in two angular readings. Different types of graduated and engraved screens and corresponding eye piece are used for measuring different elements.

**RESULTS:**

1) External diameter =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

External diameter =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

External diameter =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

External diameter =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

2) Internal diameter =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

Internal diameter =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

Internal diameter =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

Internal diameter =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

3) Pitch of threads =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

Pitch of threads =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

Pitch of threads =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

Pitch of threads =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

4) Threads angle =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

Threads angle =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

Threads angle =  $R_2 - R_1 = \text{----- mm.}$

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