

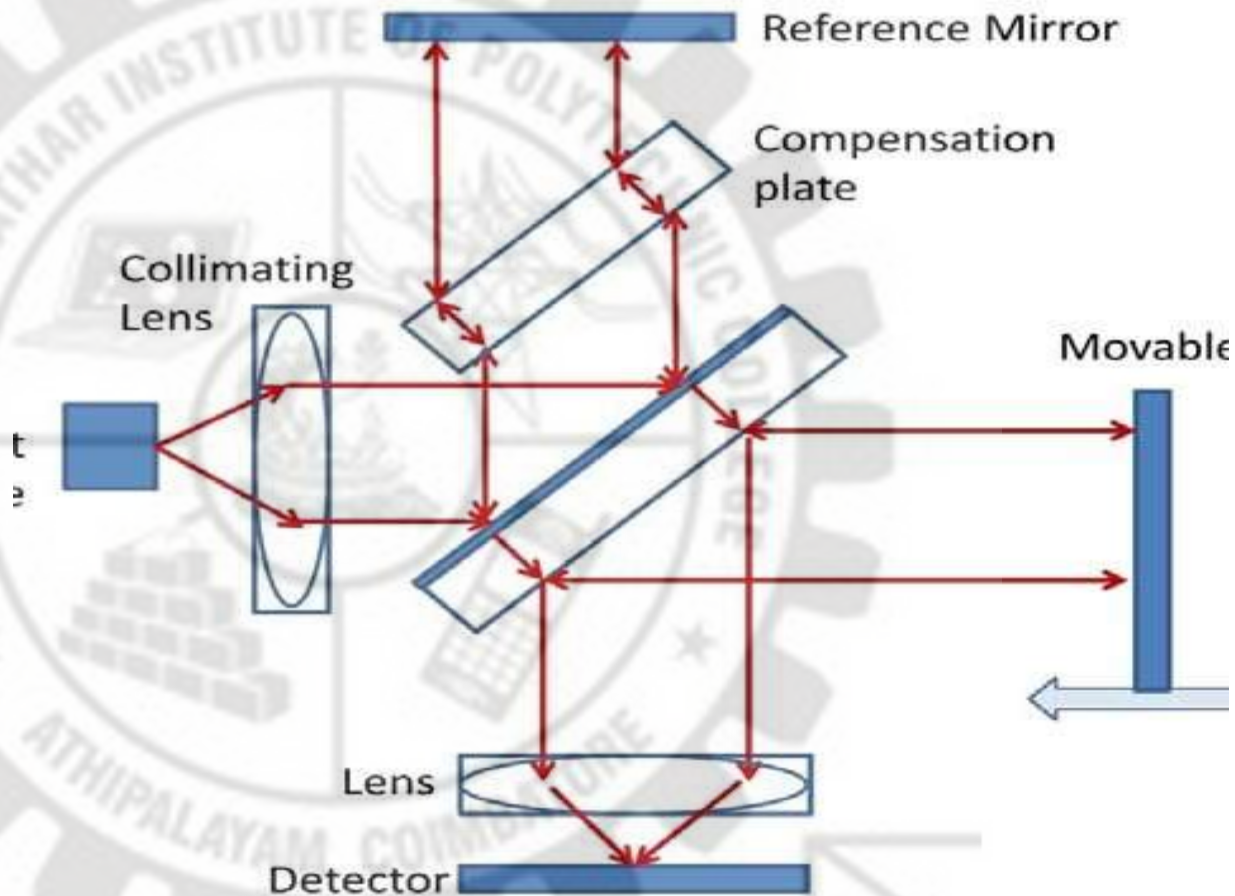
**Michelson Interferometer**

764 - SKITC



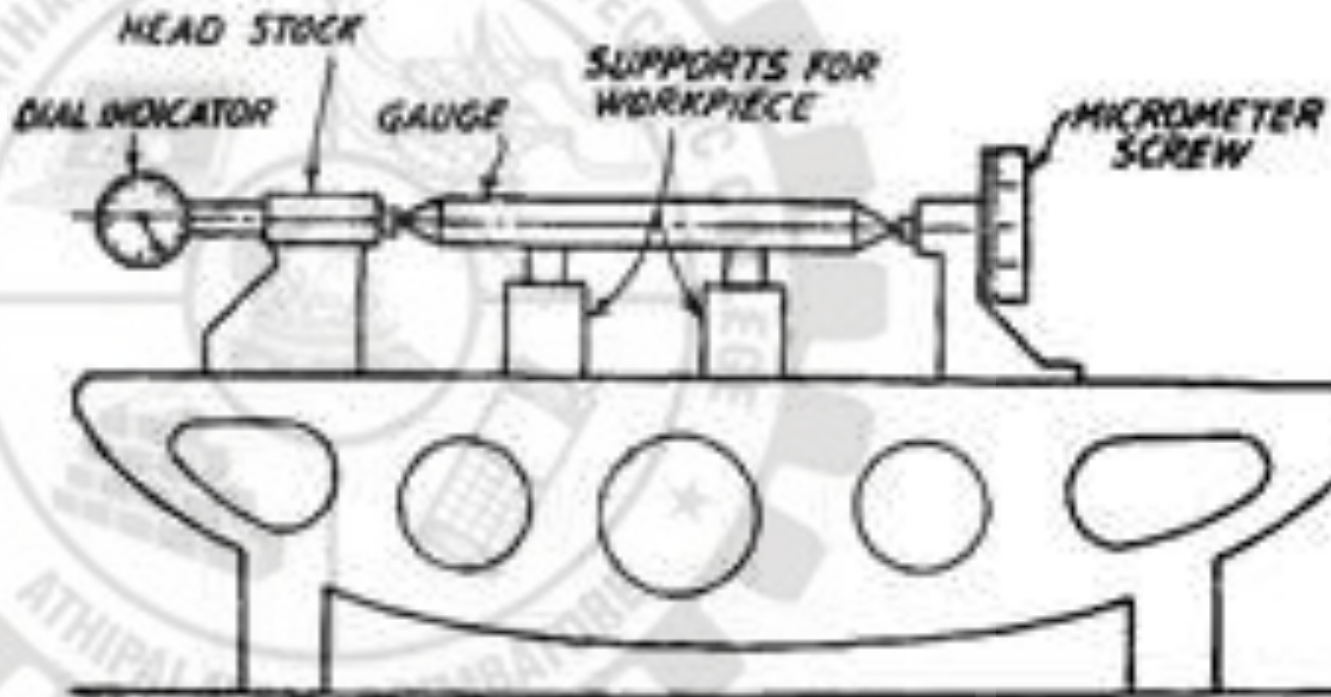
The Michelson interferometer works **by splitting a beam of monochromatic light into two equal amplitude beams.**

One beam hits a fixed mirror and the other hits a movable mirror giving different beam lengths which converge on a detector screen giving an interference pattern



Schematic of the Twyman-Green Interferometer

764 - SRIPC

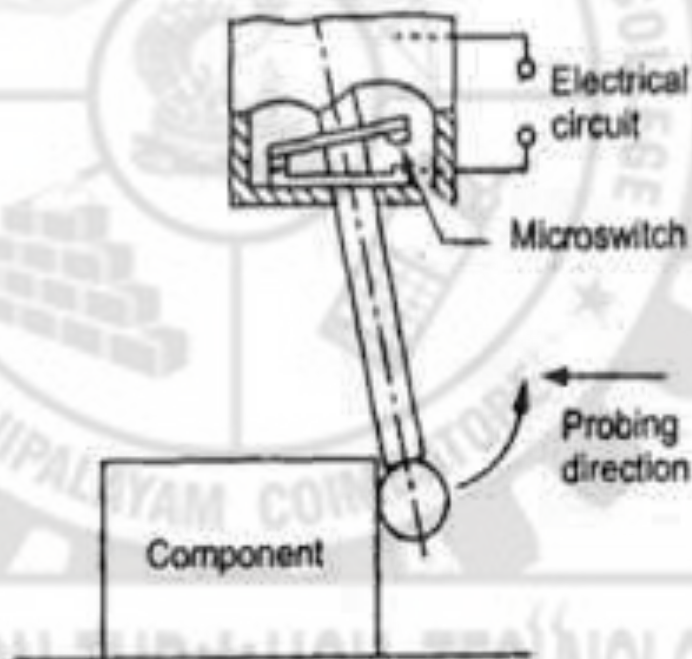


Length Bar Measuring Machine

764 - SRIPC

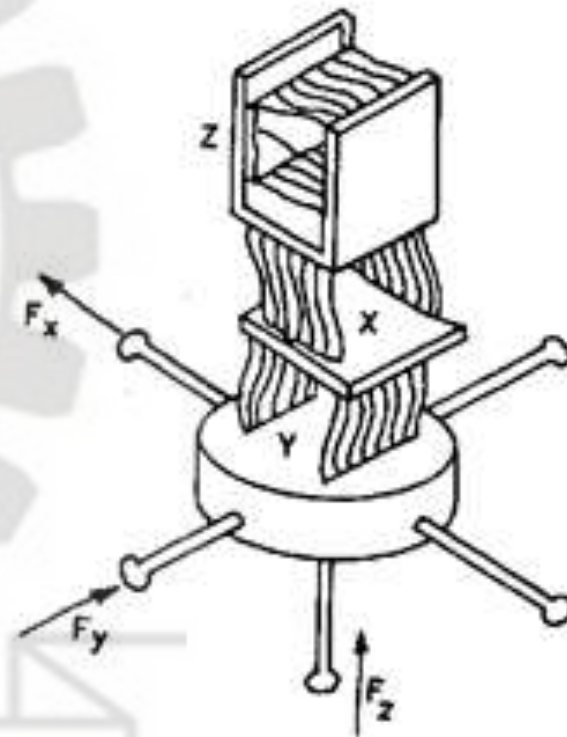
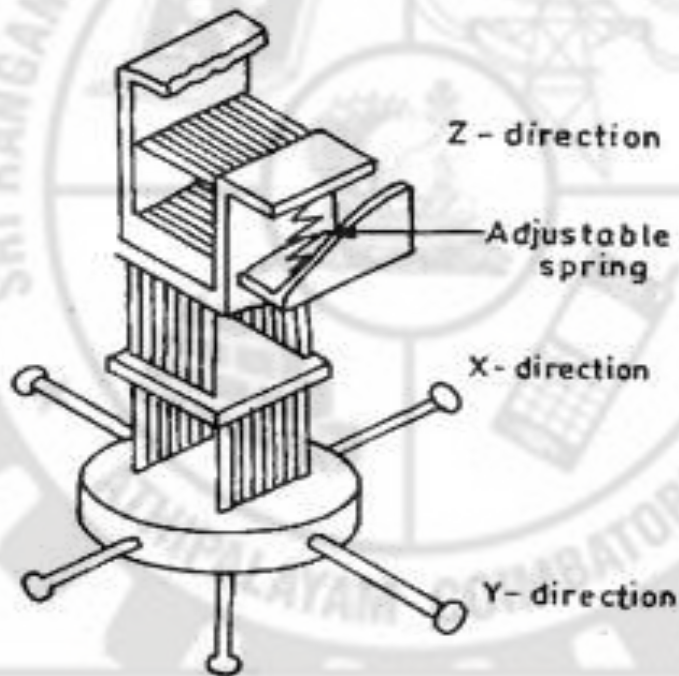


**Trigger type probe system**



*(a) Part section of Probe head*

*(b) Outline of Probe head*



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**UNIT 5 :**

**MEASUREMENT OF  
MECHANICAL PARAMETERS**

**764 - SRIPC**

# **FORCE**

**A) DIRECT MEASUREMENT**

**B) INDIRECT MEASUREMENT**

**Force = Mass X Acceleration**

$$\mathbf{F = ma}$$

**764 - SRIPC**





**FORCE**

**A) DIRECT MEASUREMENT**

**B) INDIRECT MEASUREMENT**

**764 - SRIPC**



## **A) DIRECT MEASUREMENT**

**764 - SRIPC**

The diagram illustrates an equal arm balance. A horizontal beam is supported by a central pivot point. On the left side of the beam, a mass is suspended. On the right side, a downward-pointing arrow indicates an unknown force. A vertical line extends from the center of the beam to a curved scale with tick marks. A pointer is attached to the end of this vertical line. The background features a large gear-shaped logo with text: 'SRI RANGANATHAR INSTITUTE OF POLYTECHNIC COLLEGE' and 'ATHIPALAYAM COIMBATORE'. At the bottom, a banner reads 'REVOLUTION THROUGH HIGH TECHNOLOGY'.

Known standard mass

Pointer and scale

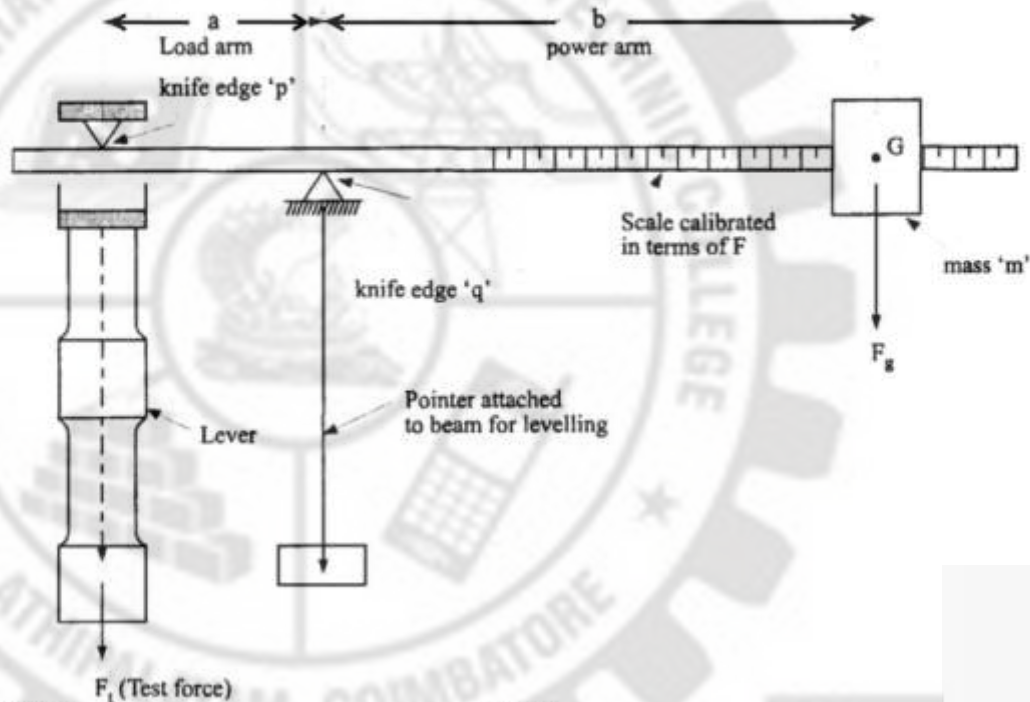
Unknown force

Equal arm balance

764 - SRIPC

# Unequal arm balance:

Engineered for Tomorrow



13/8/2017

Metrology

$$F_1 \times a = F_g \times b$$

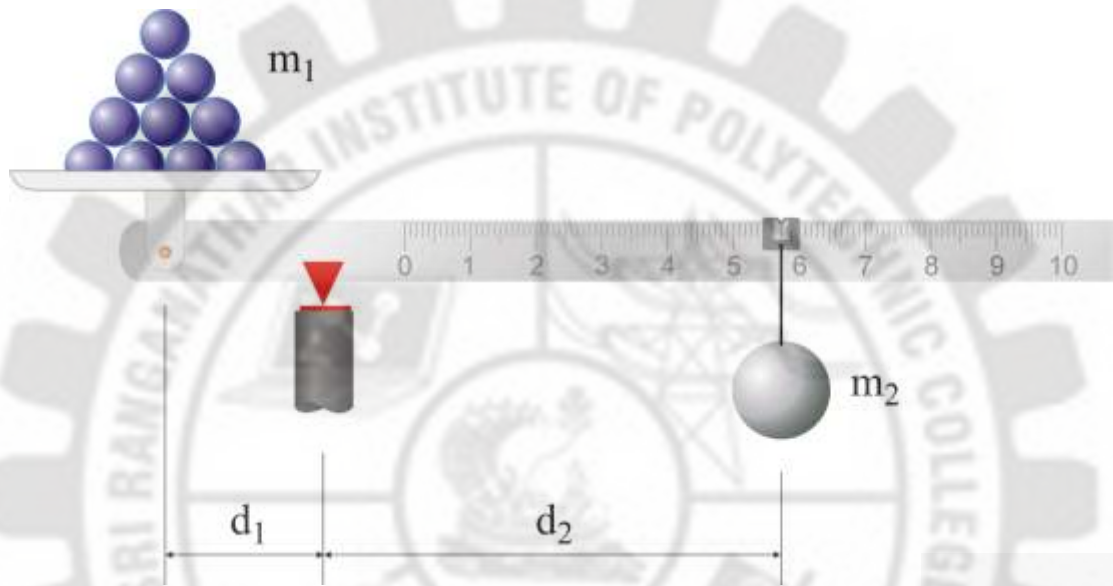
$$F_1 = (F_g \times b) / a$$

$$M_1 \times g \times a = M_g \times g \times b$$

$$M_1 = (M_g \times b) / a$$

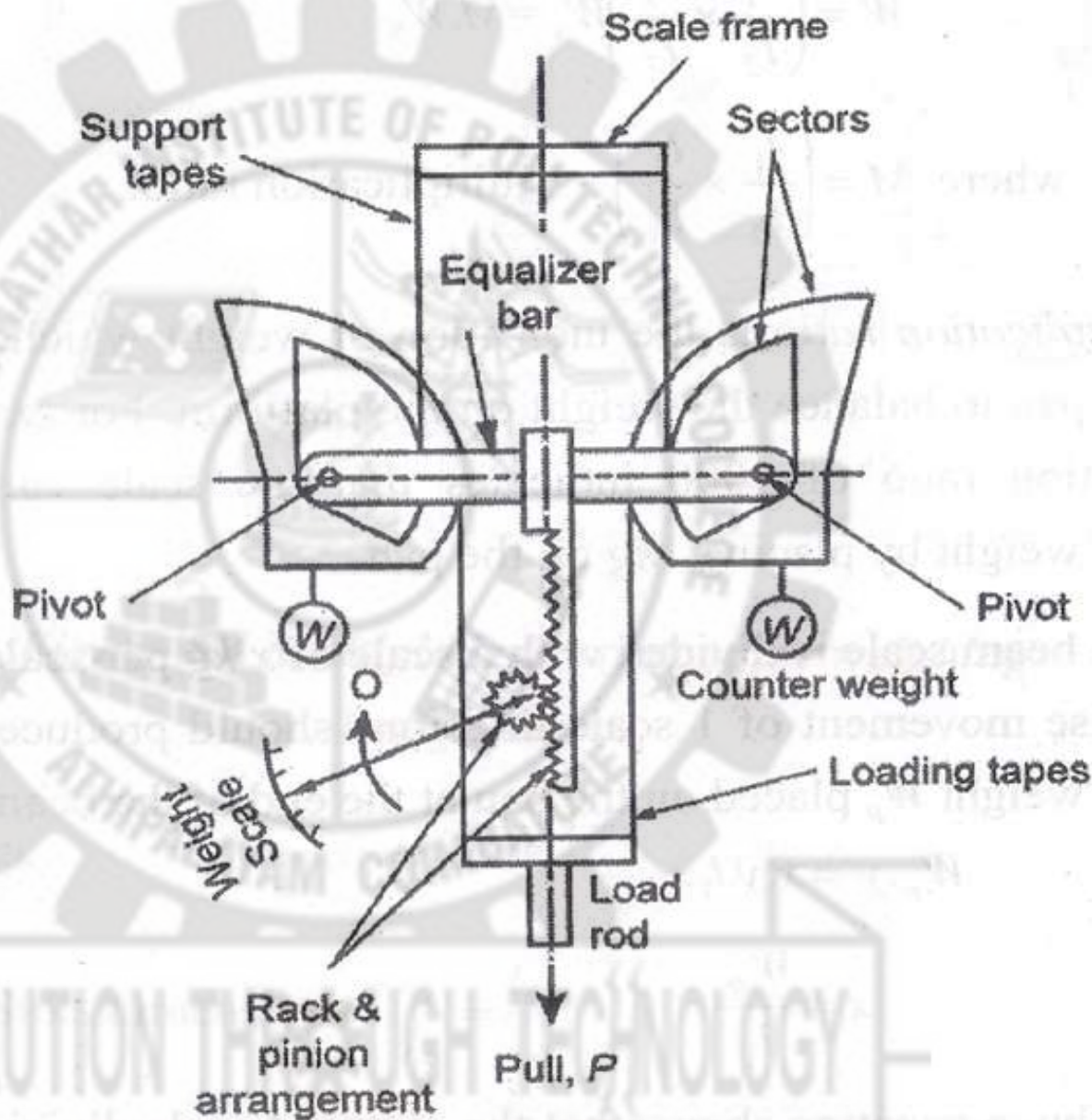






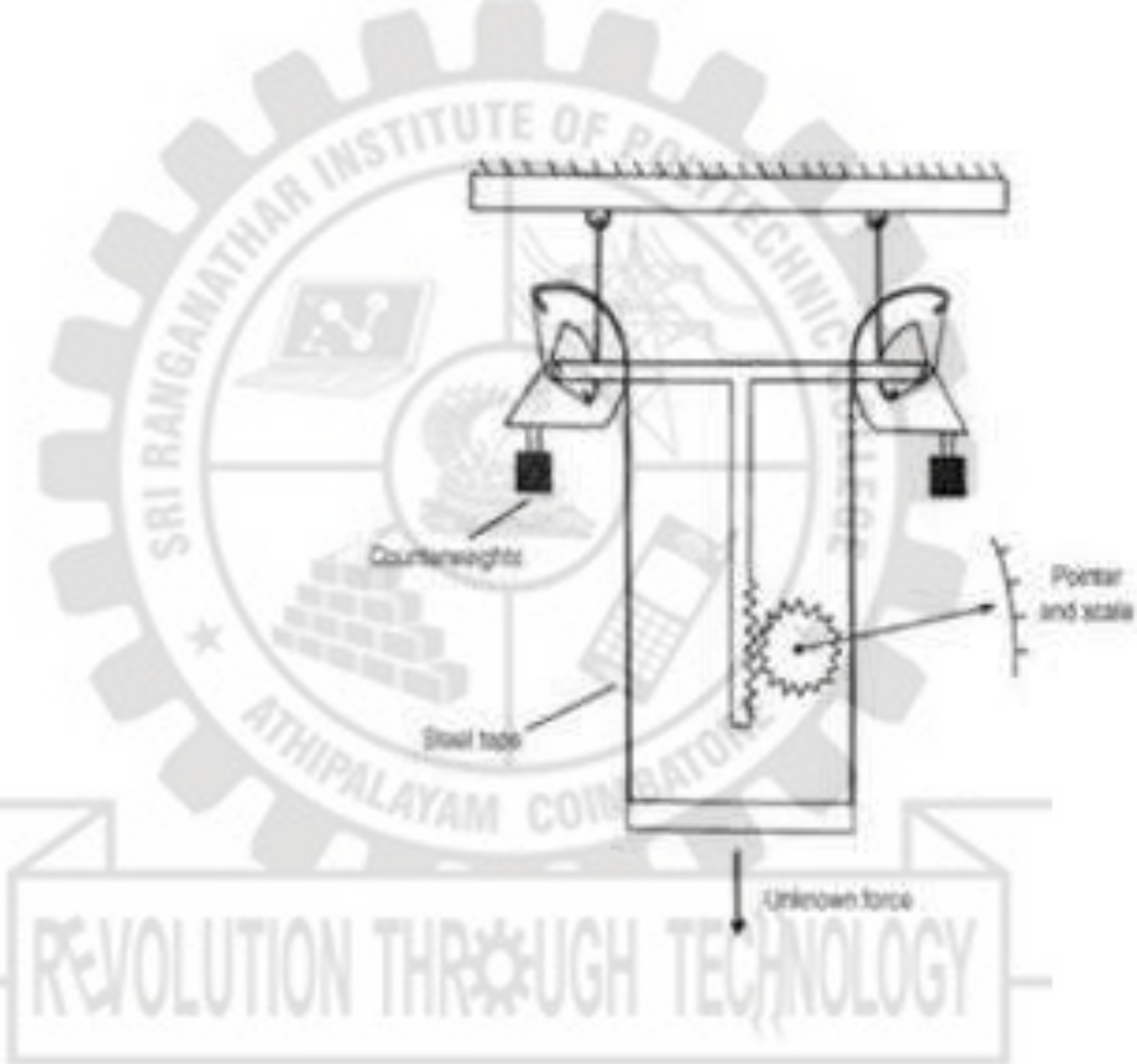
**unequal-arm balance**





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Pendulum Scale



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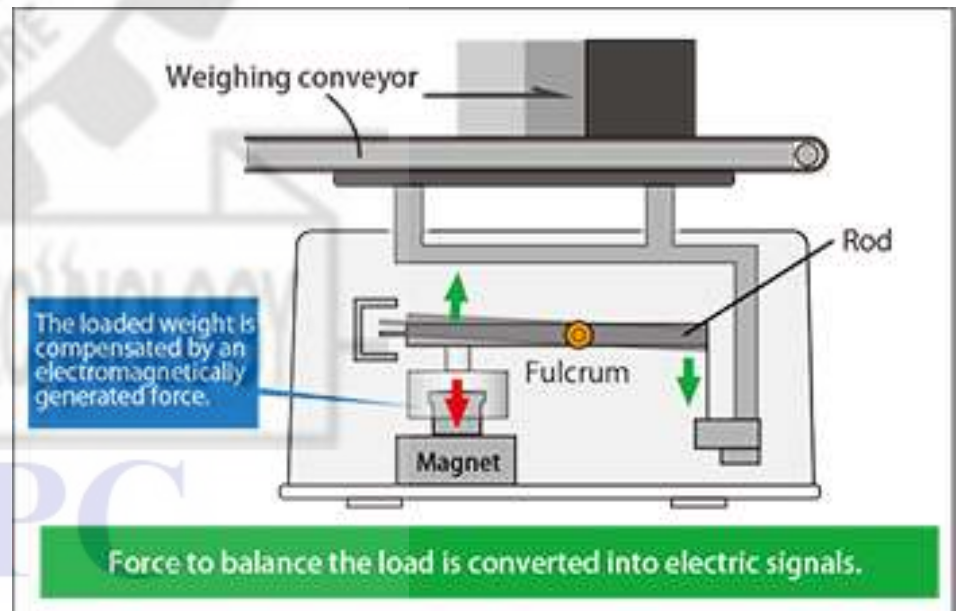
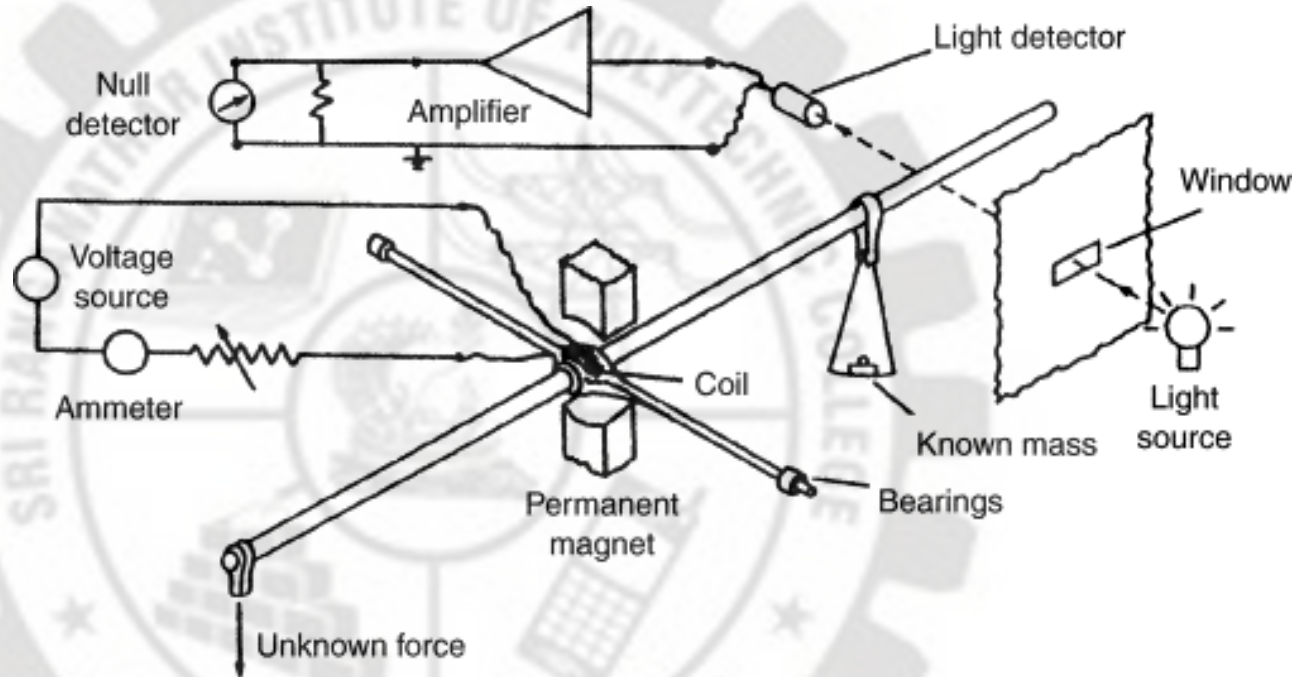
# FORCE

## **B) INDIRECT MEASUREMENT**

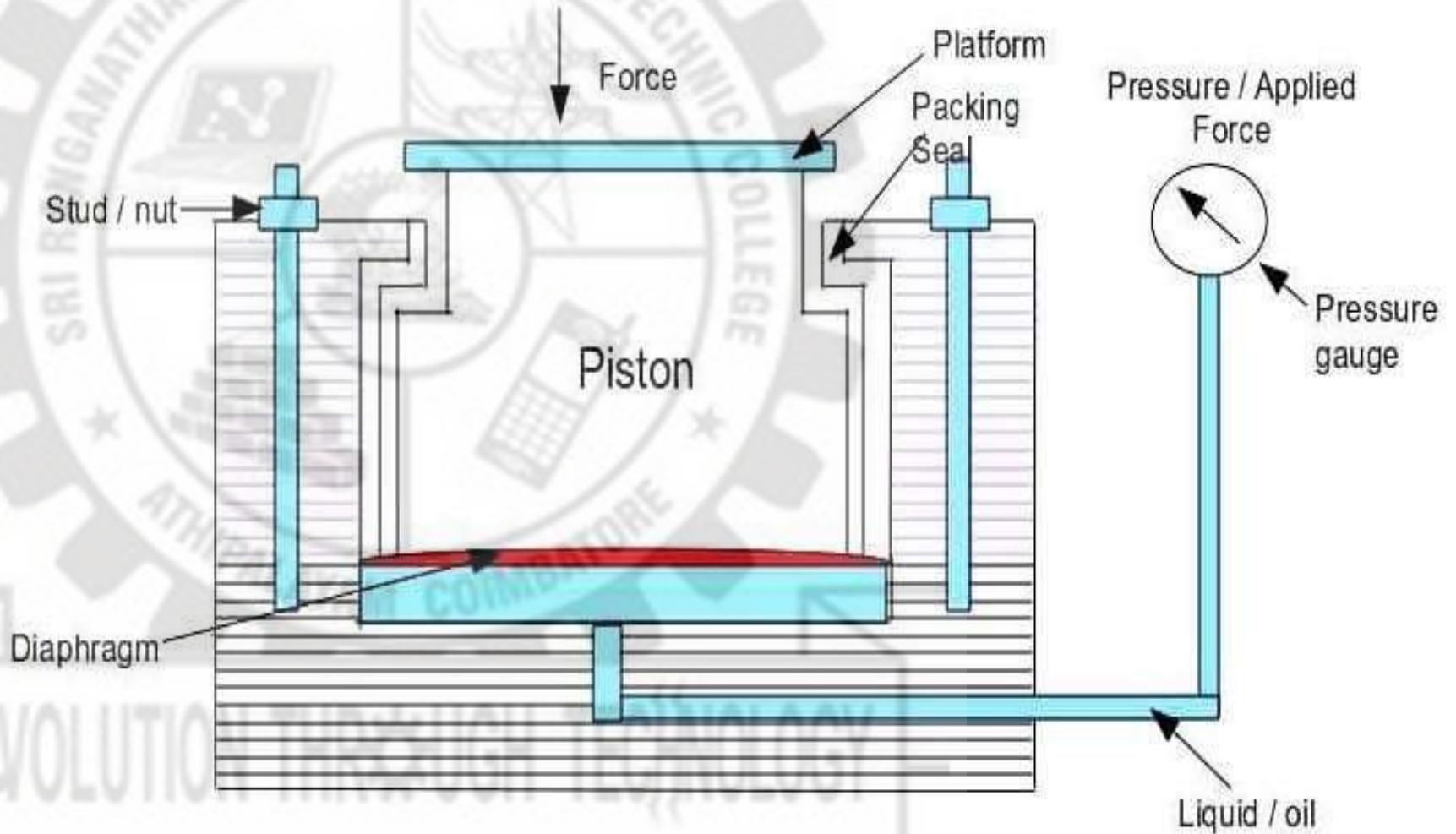
764 - SRIPC



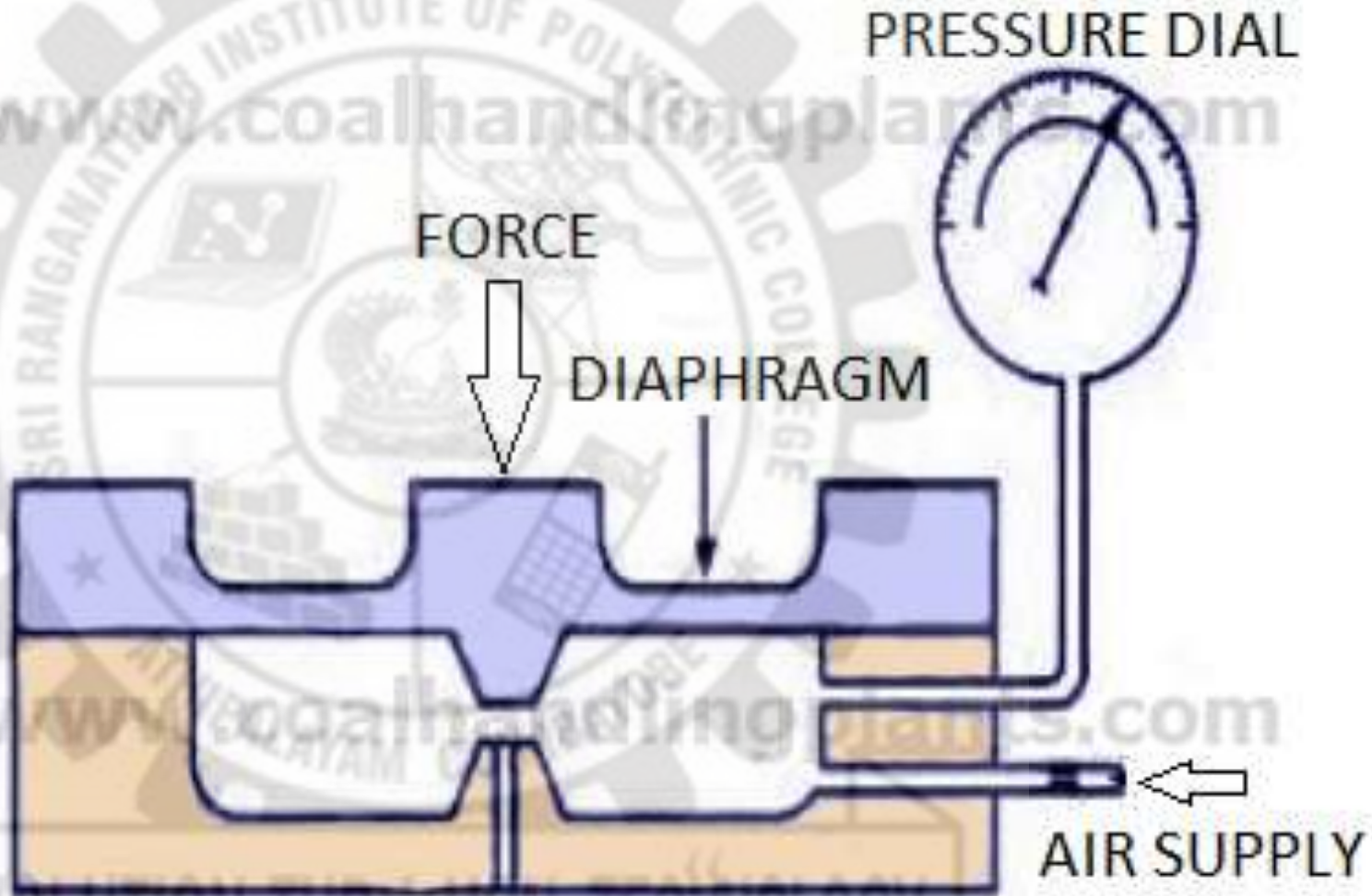
# Electromagnetic Balance



# Hydraulic Load Cell

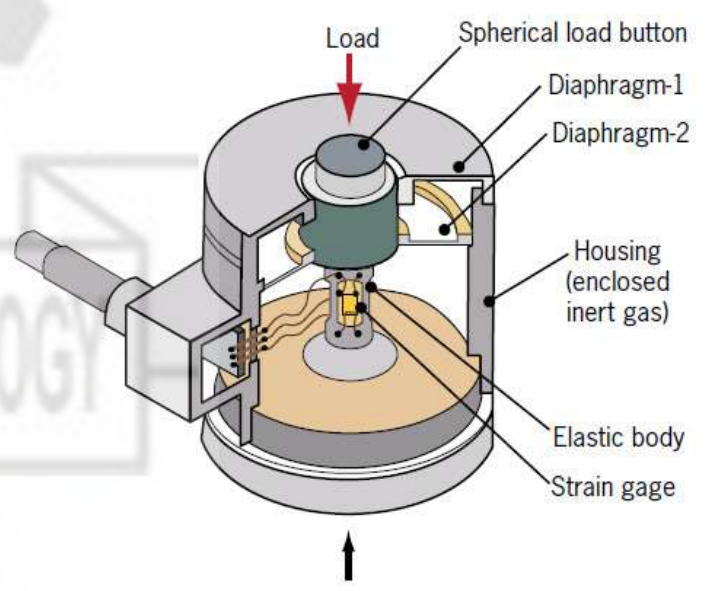
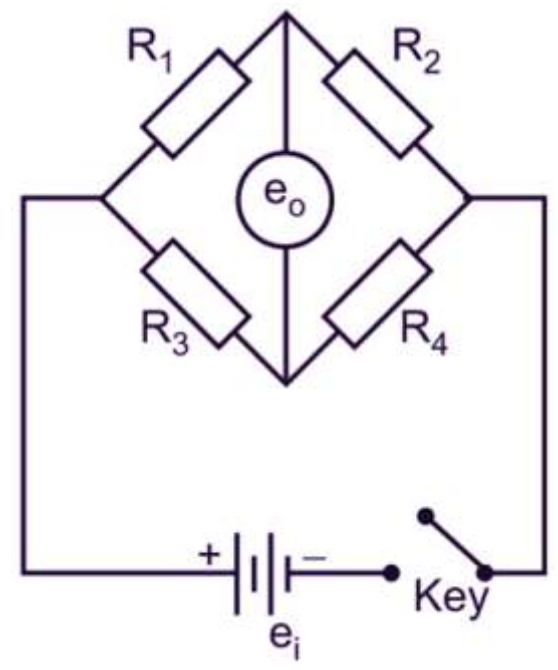
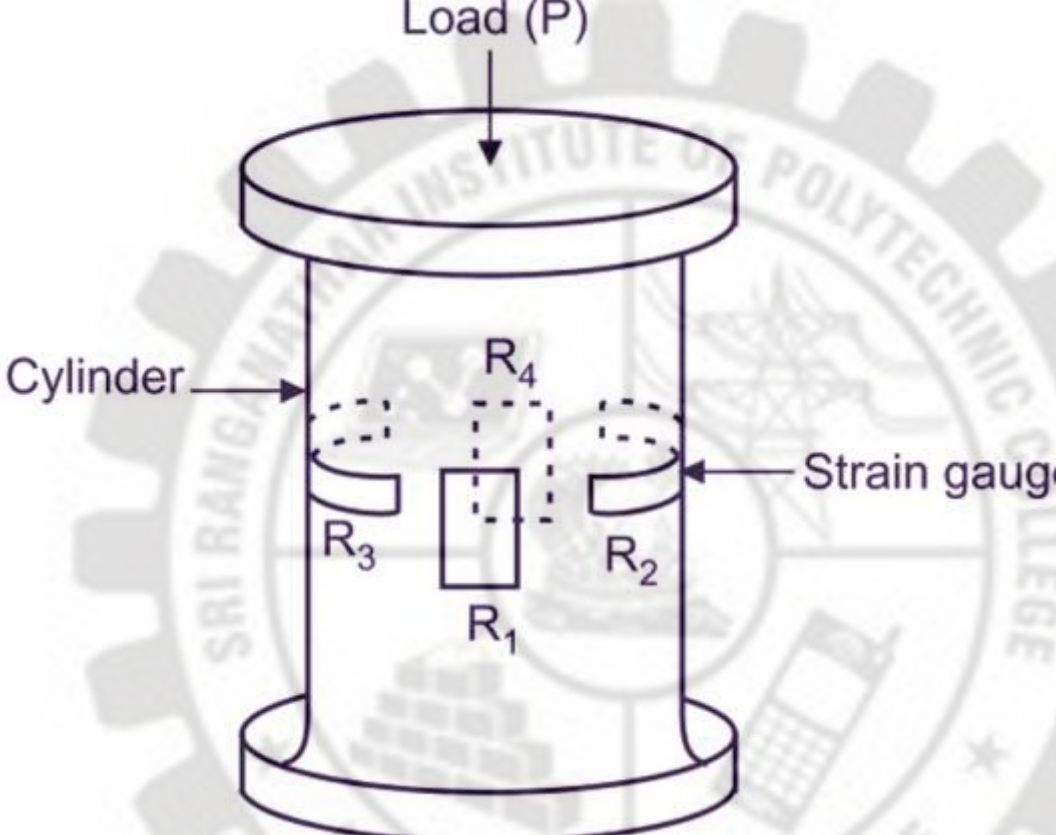


764 - SRIPC



pneumatic load cell

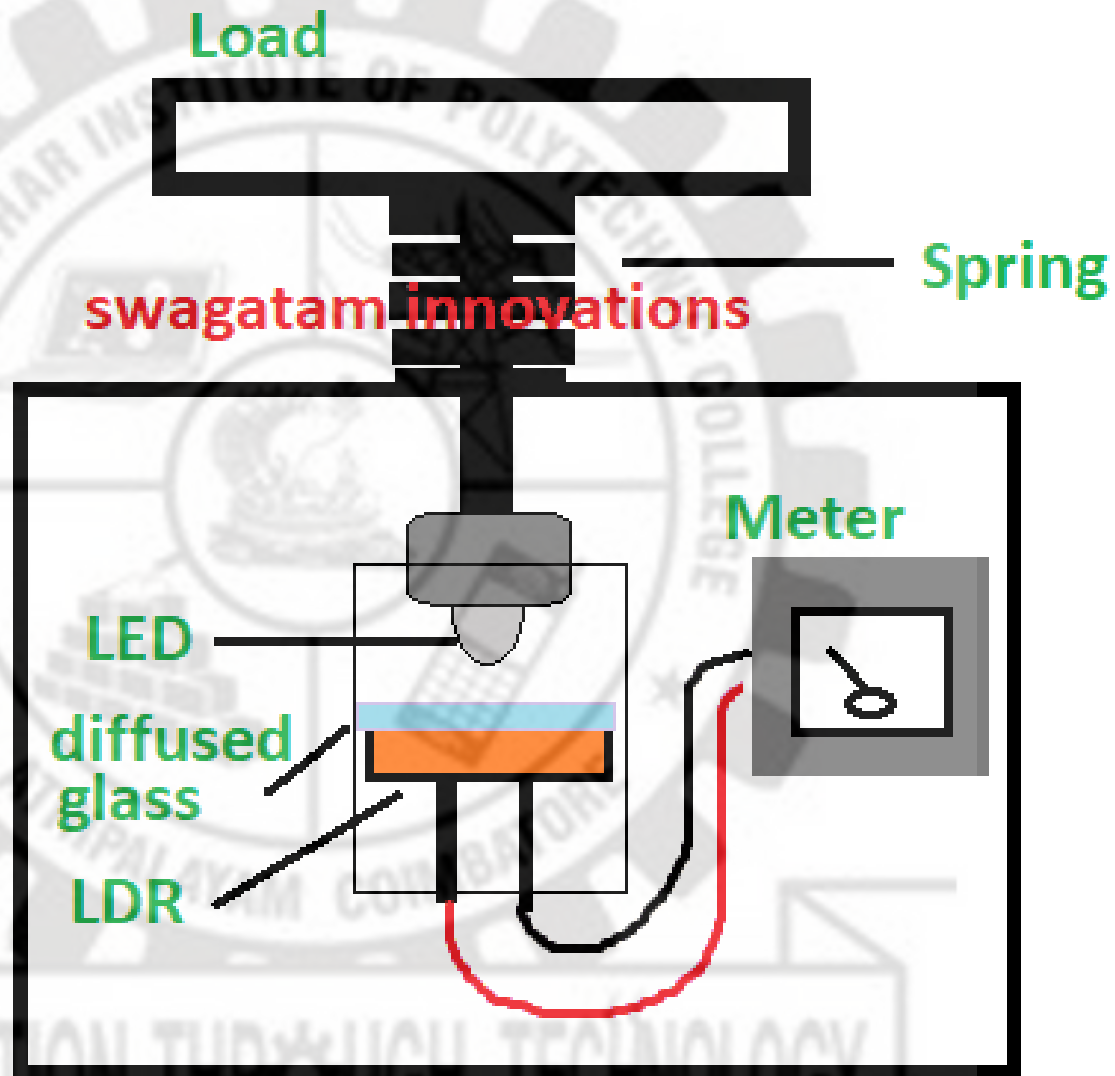


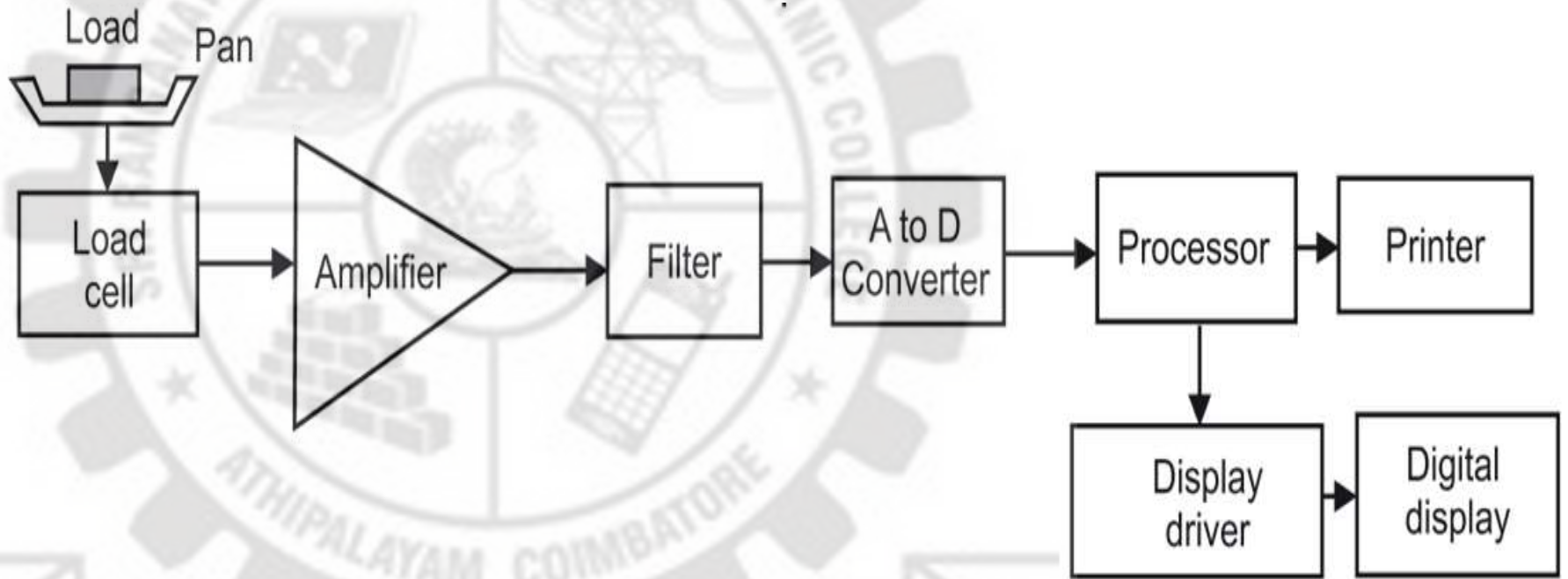


**STRAIN GAUGE LOAD CELL**

764 - SRIPC

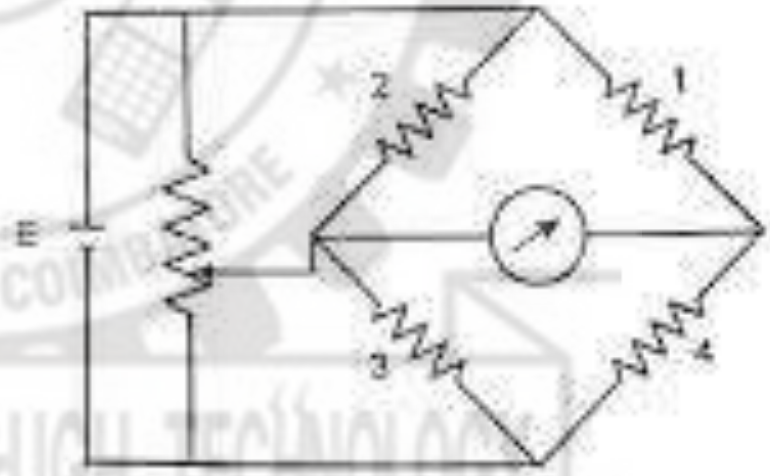






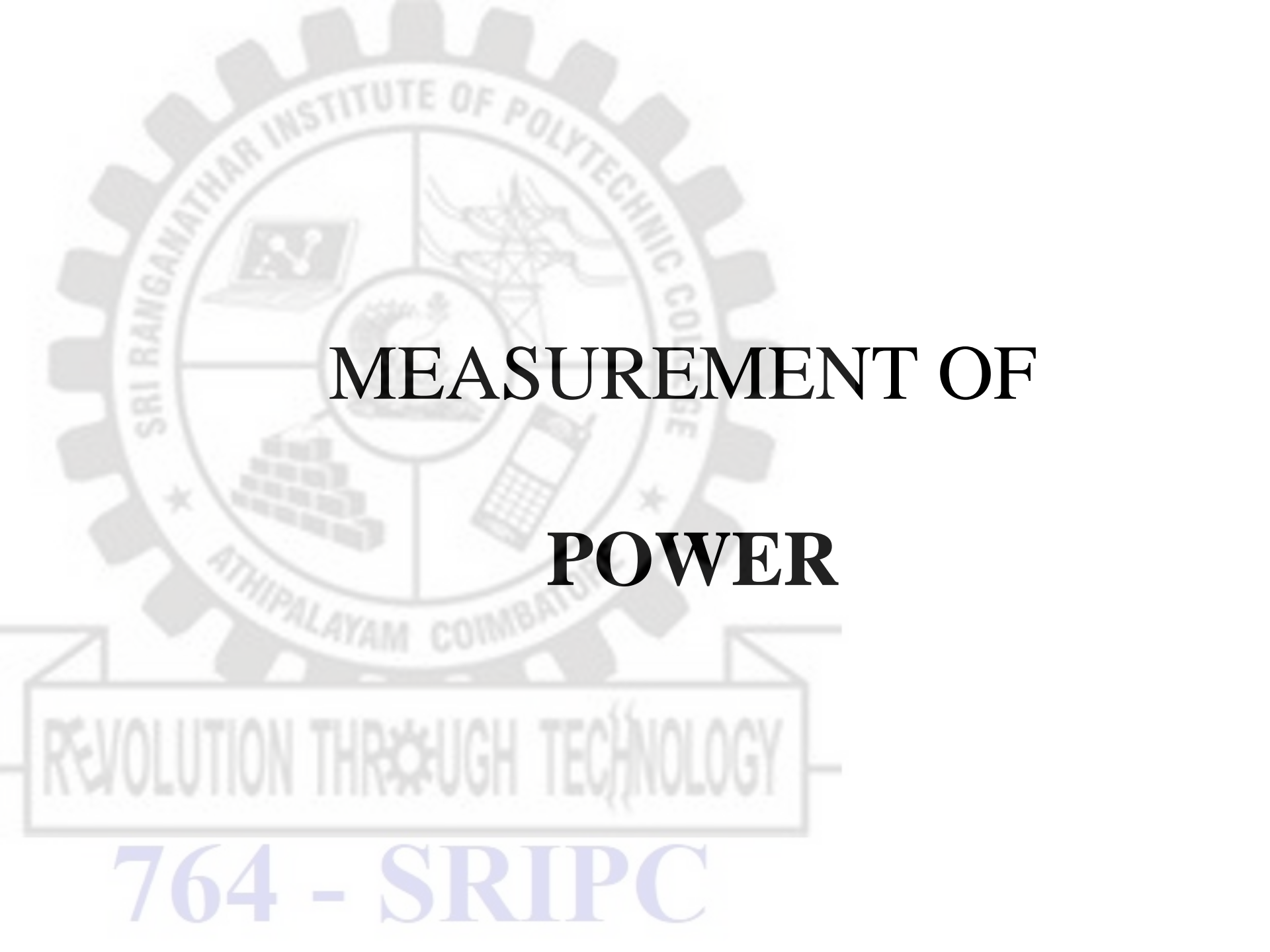
## ELECTRONIC WEIGHING SYSTEM

764 - SRIPC



# 764 - SKIPC

## TORSION METER



# MEASUREMENT OF POWER

764 - SRIPC

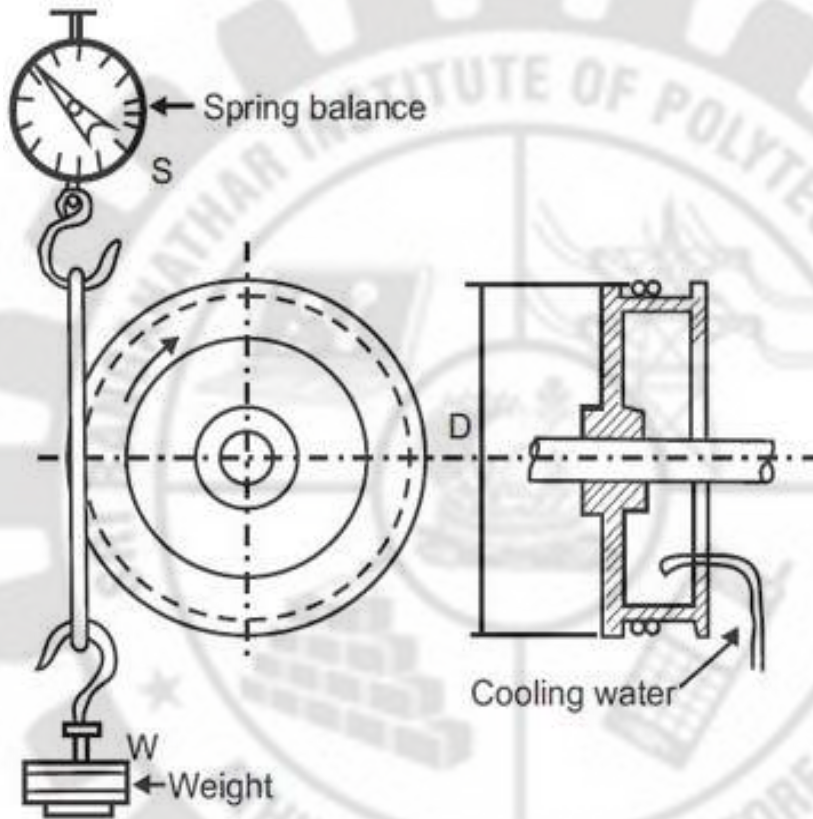




**POWER =**

$$2\pi NT / 60$$

**764 - SRIPC**



W = Weight at the rope (N)

S = Spring balance reading (N)

N = Engine Speed ( rpm )

D = Diameter of the brake wheel ( m )

d = Diameter of the rope ( m )

(D+d) = effective diameter of the brake wheel

Torque = force x distance

$$= (W-S) \times (D - d) / 2$$

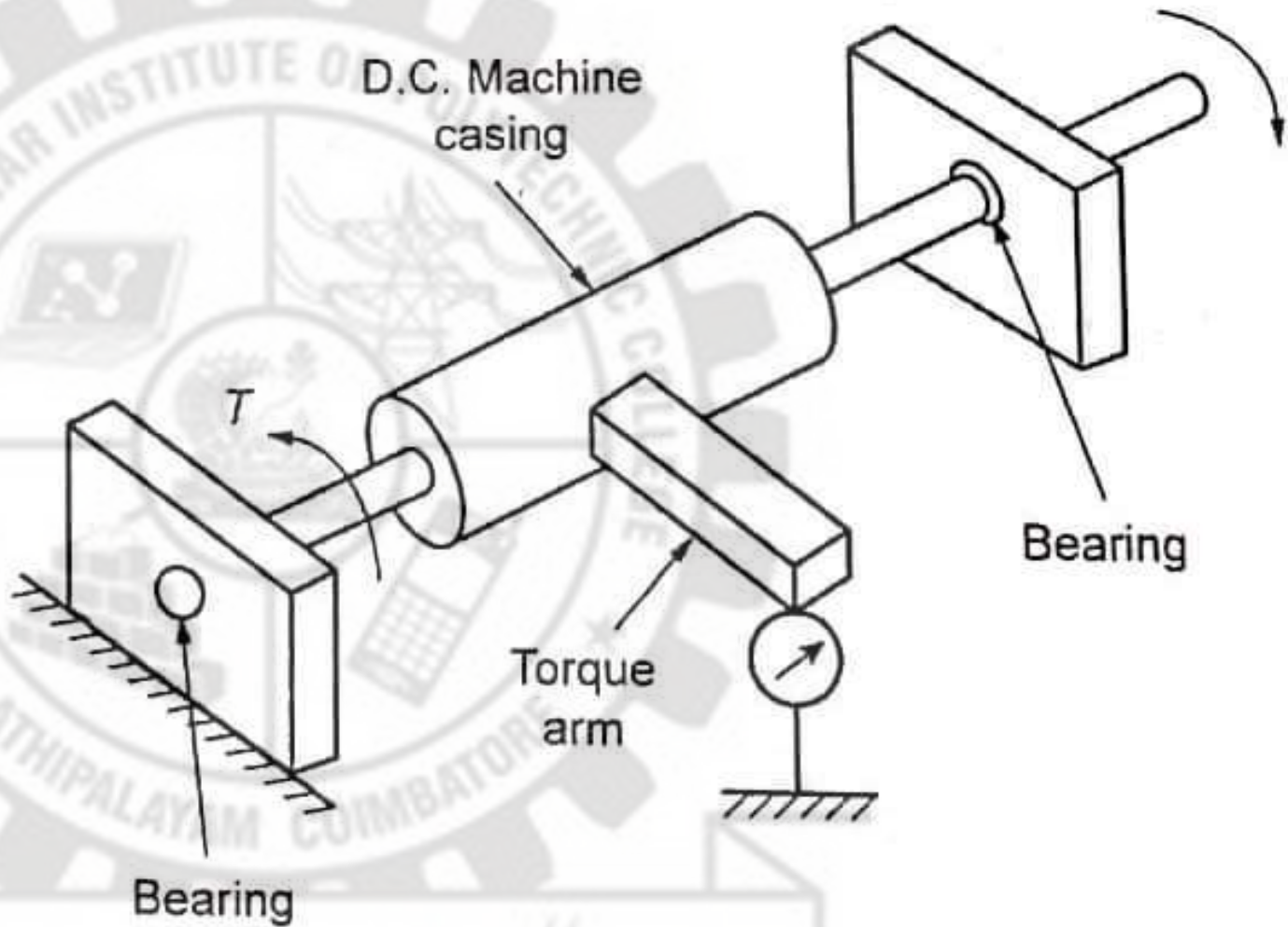
$$\text{Brake Power} = \frac{2 \pi N (W-S) \times (D - d) / 2}{60}$$

$$= \frac{\pi N (W-S) \times (D - d)}{60} \text{ watts}$$

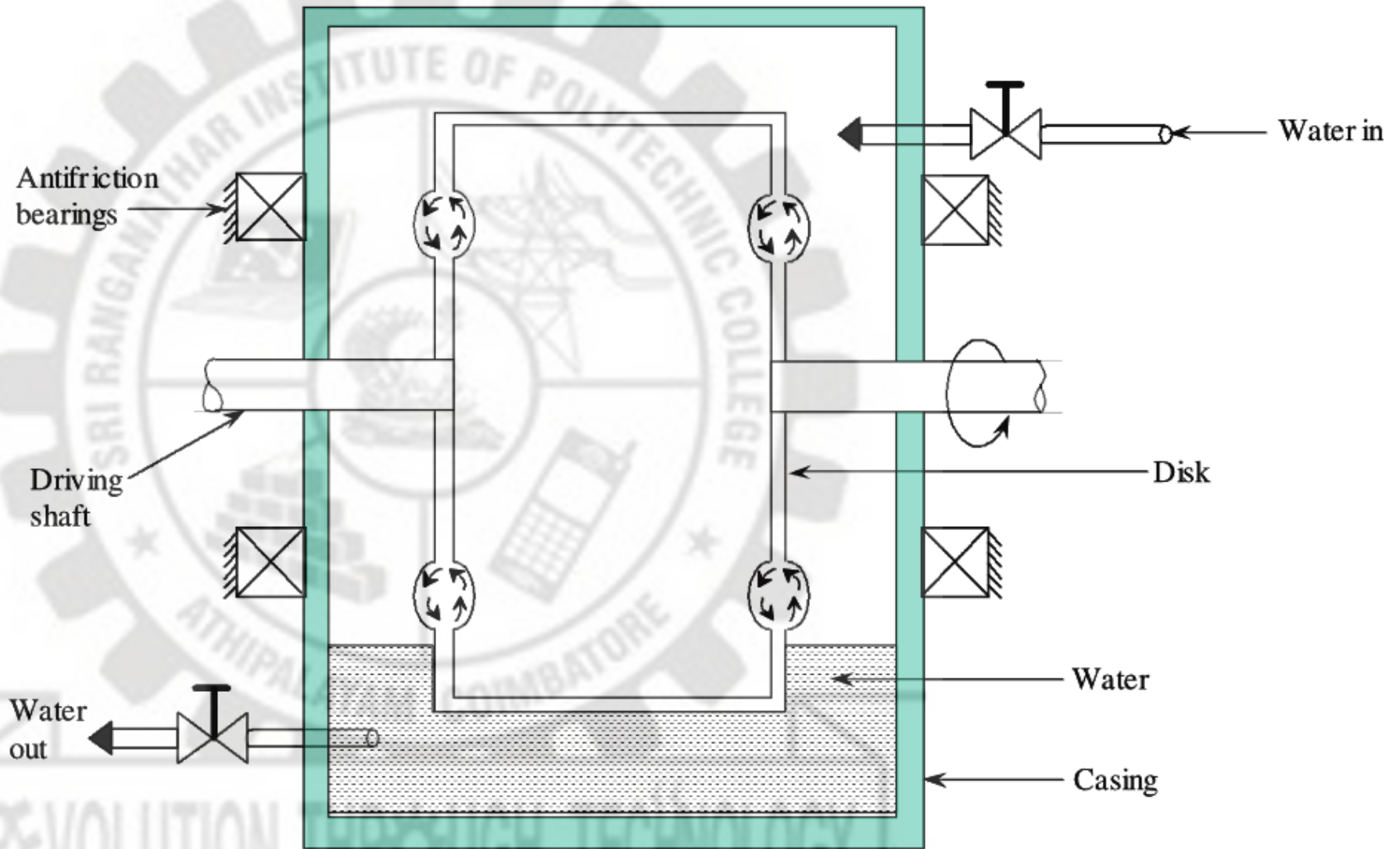
$$= \frac{\pi N (W-S) \times (D - d)}{60 \times 1000} \text{ kW}$$

**Rope brake dynamometer**

764 - SRIPC

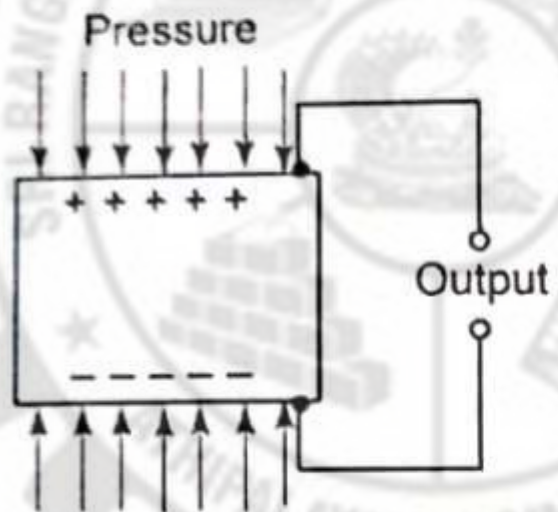


**DC dynamometer**

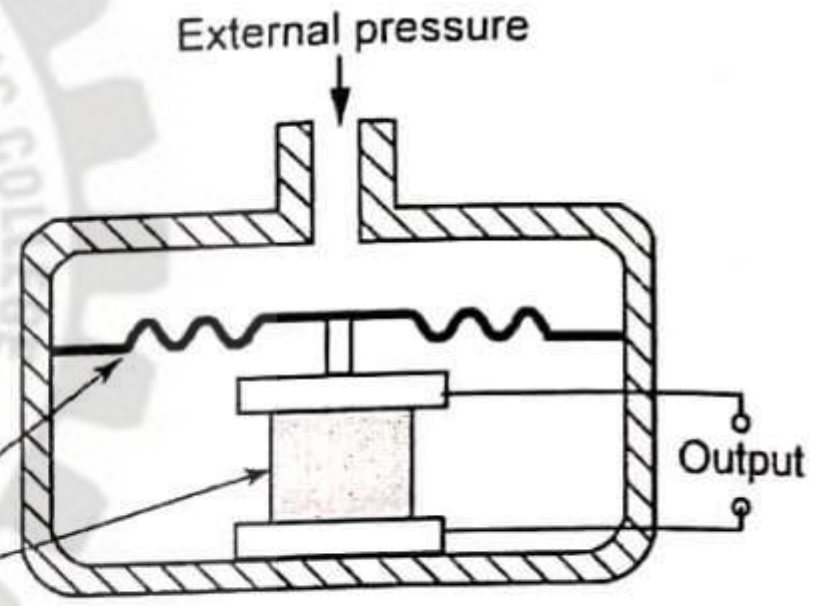


hydraulic dynamometer





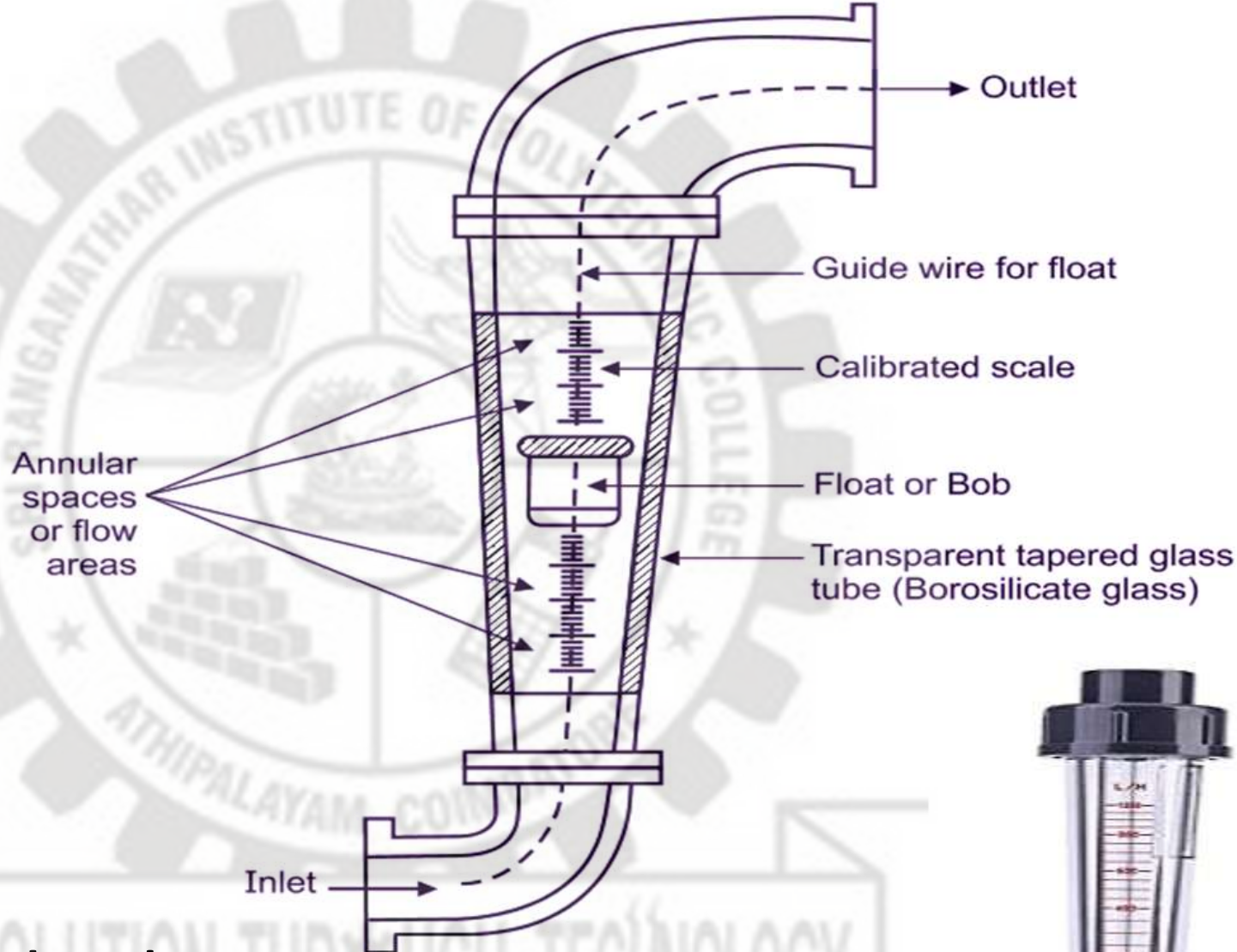
(a) Piezoelectric effect



(b) Piezoelectric pressure sensor

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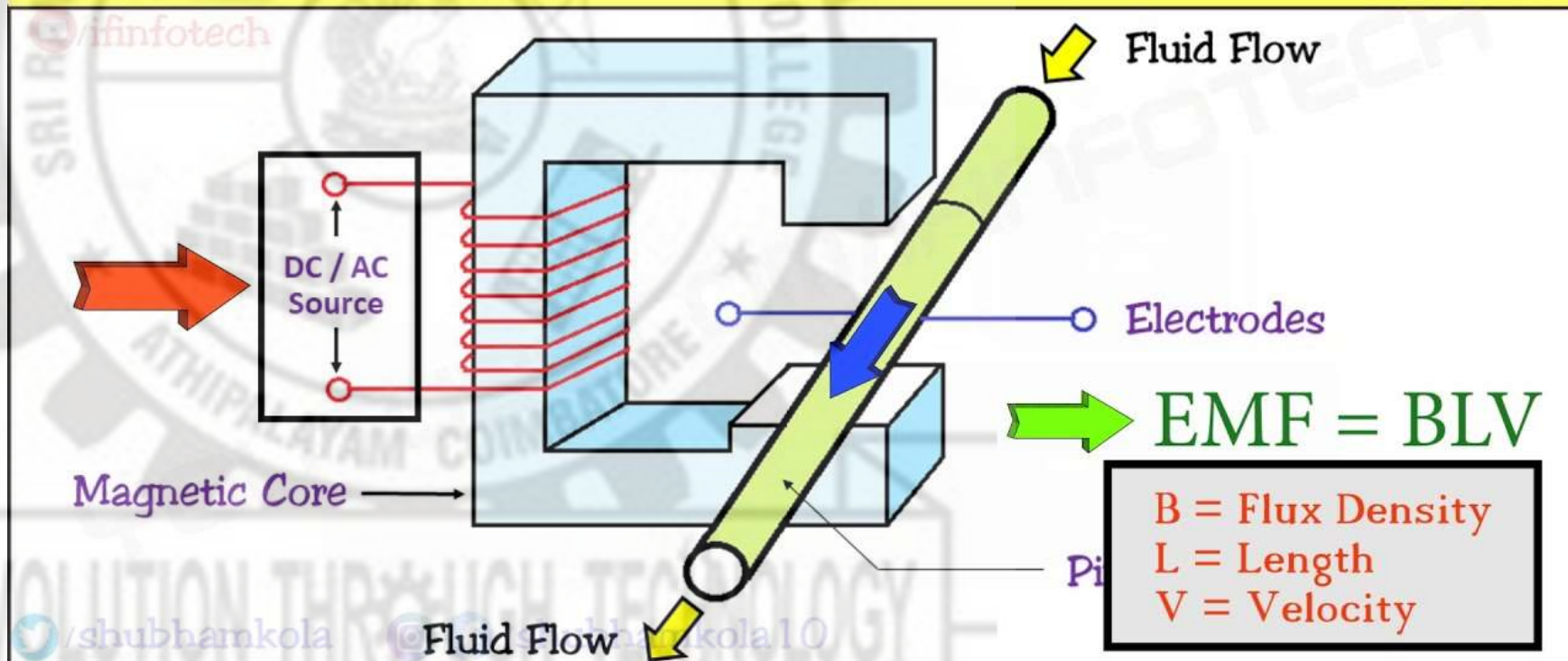


**rotameter**



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# Electromagnetic Flow meter

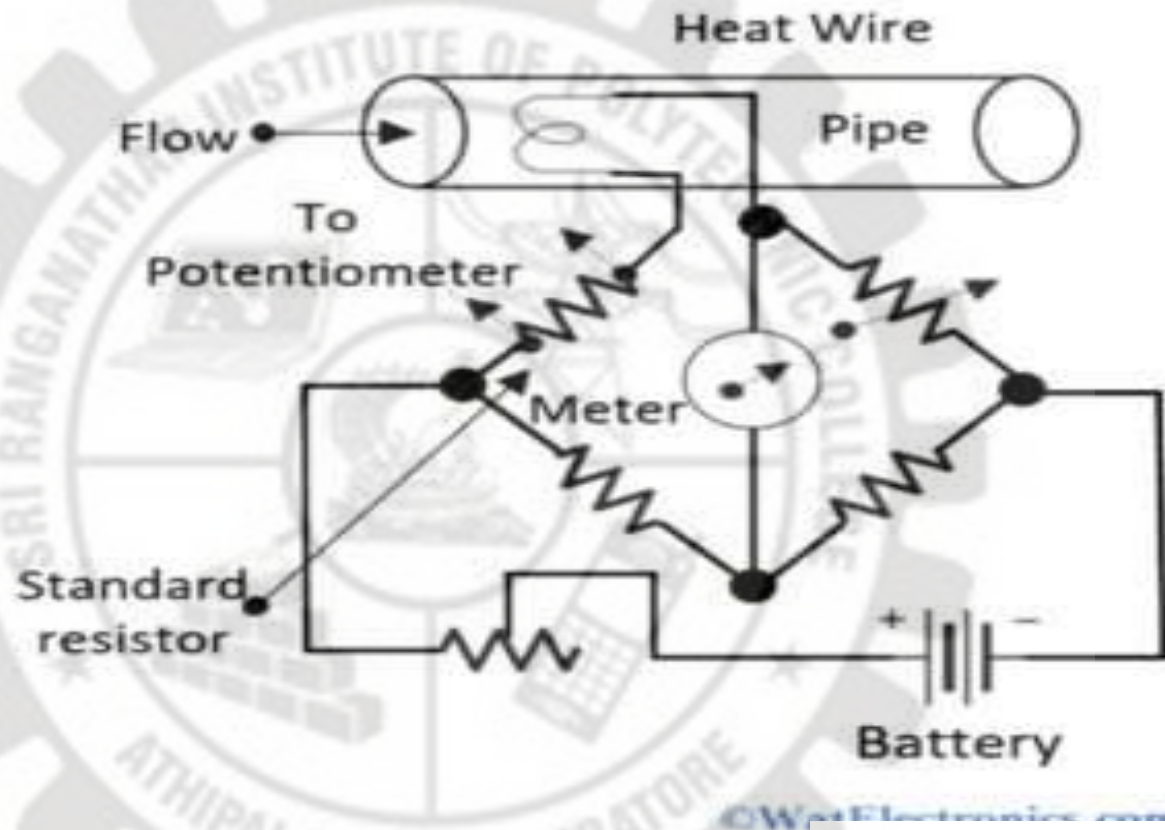




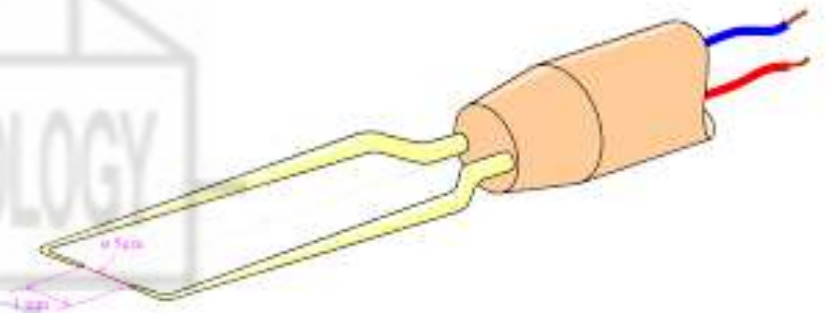


**764 - SRIPC**

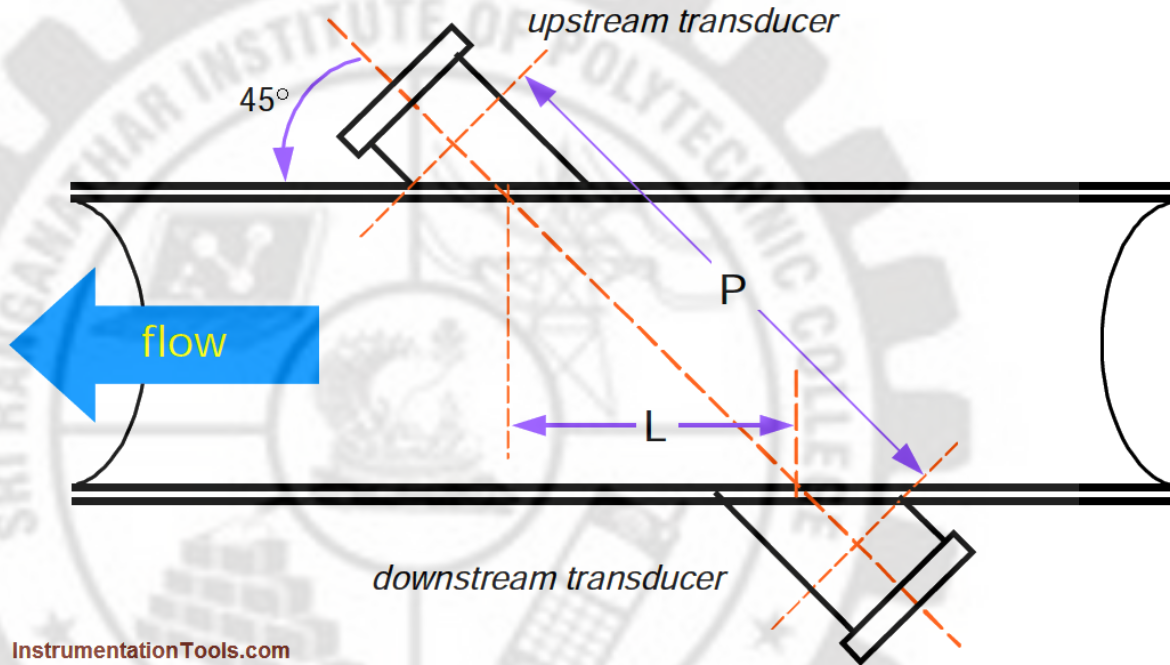




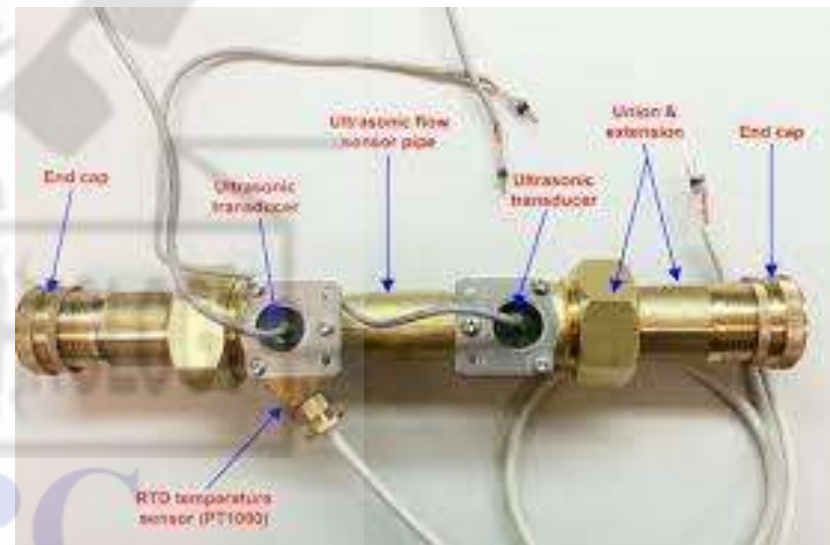
hot wire anemometer



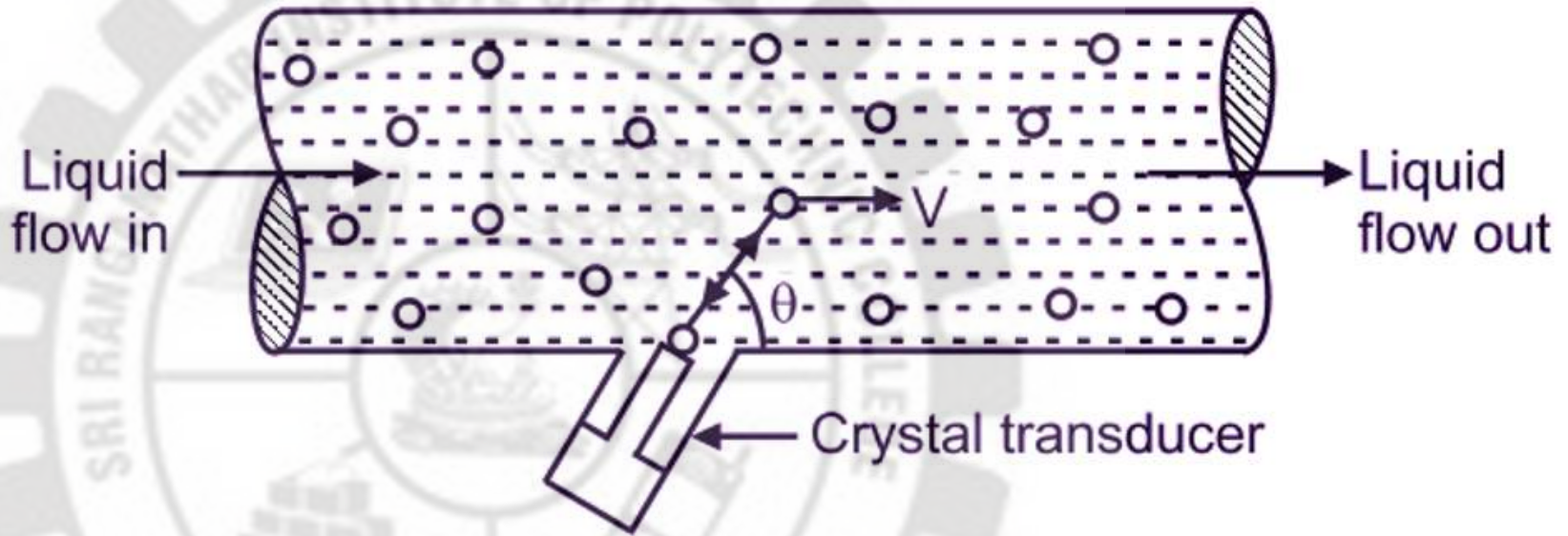
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## Ultrasonic Flow Meter- Transit Time Method



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## Ultrasonic Flow Meter-

### Doppler Method

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## Unit 2

# Linear and Angular Measurement



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# Syllabus

## Definition of metrology

- Linear measuring instruments: Vernier, micrometer and interval measurement- Slip gauges and classification. Interferometer, optical flats and limit gauges Comparators: Mechanical, pneumatic and electrical types, applications.
- Angular measurements: -Sine bar, optical bevel protractor ,Taper measurements

# Definition

- *Metrology* is the name given to the science of pure measurement.
- *Engineering Metrology* is restricted to measurements of length & angle

# Linear and Angular Measurement

- The Linear Measurement includes measurements of length, diameters, heights and thickness
- The Angular measurement includes the measurement of angles or tapers



# Measurements

- Measurement systems are mainly used in industries for quality control.
- Often widely using measurements are
  - Linear Measurement
  - Angular measurement

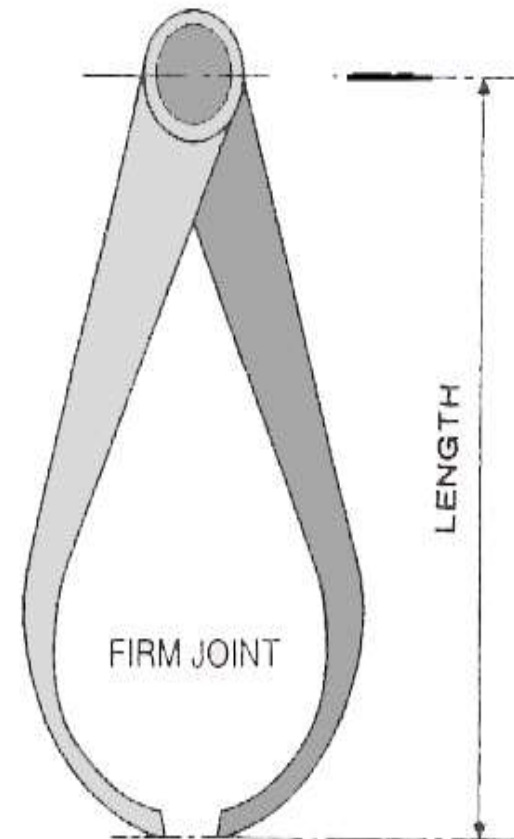


# Dimensions

- A very common measurement is that of dimensions, i.e., length, width, height of an object
- Dimensions of the measuring instruments are classified as follows
  - Low resolution devices (up to 0.25mm)
  - Medium resolution devices (up to 0.0025mm)
  - High resolution devices (less than microns)

# Low resolution devices

- Steel rule
- Steel rule with assistance of
  - Calipers
  - Dividers &
  - Surface gauges
- Thickness gauges



# Medium resolution devices

- Micrometer
- Micrometer with assistance of
  - Telescoping
  - Extendable ball gauges
- Vernier calipers
- Dial indicators
- Microscope



# High resolution devices

- Gauge blocks
- Gauge block with assistance of
  - Mechanical comparator
  - Electronic comparator
  - Pneumatic comparator
  - Optical flats



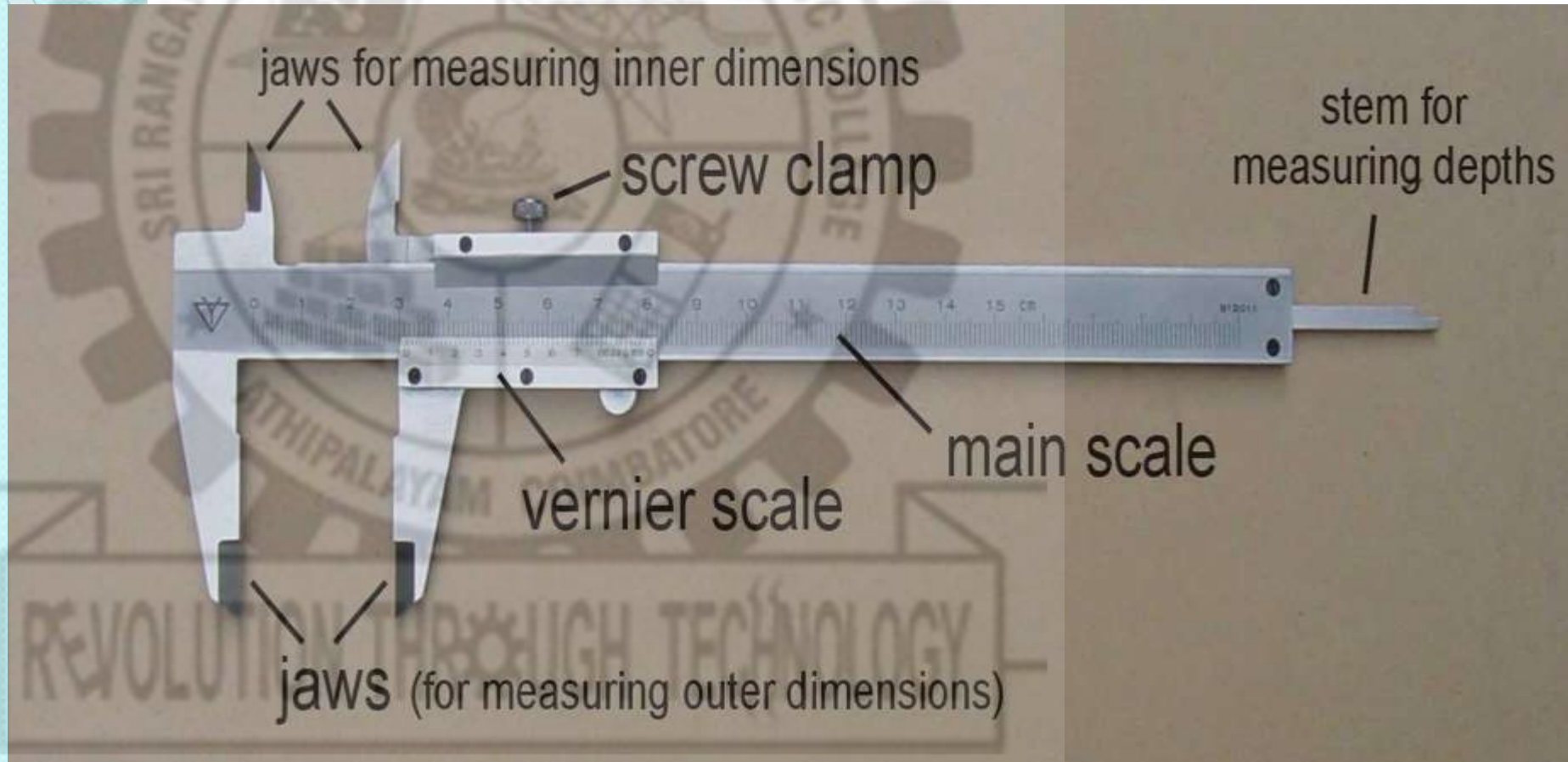
# Linear Measuring Instruments

- Vernier caliper
- Micrometer
- Slip gauge or gauge blocks
- Optical flats
- Interferometer
- Comparators

# Vernier caliper

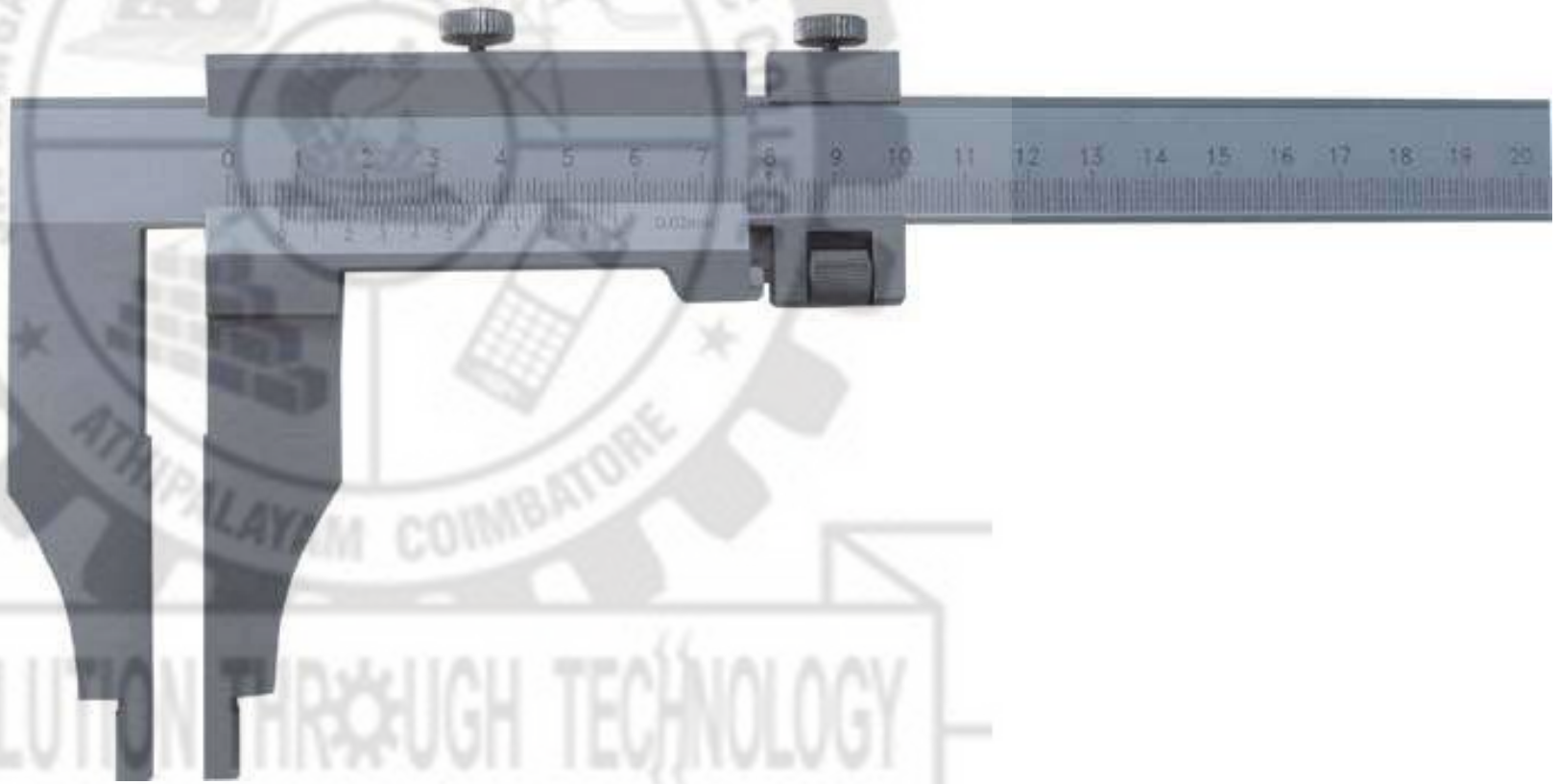
- Components of vernier calipers are
  - Main scale
  - Vernier scale
  - Fixed jaw
  - Movable jaw
- Types of vernier calipers
  - Type A vernier caliper
  - Type B vernier caliper
  - Type C vernier caliper

# Type A Vernier Caliper





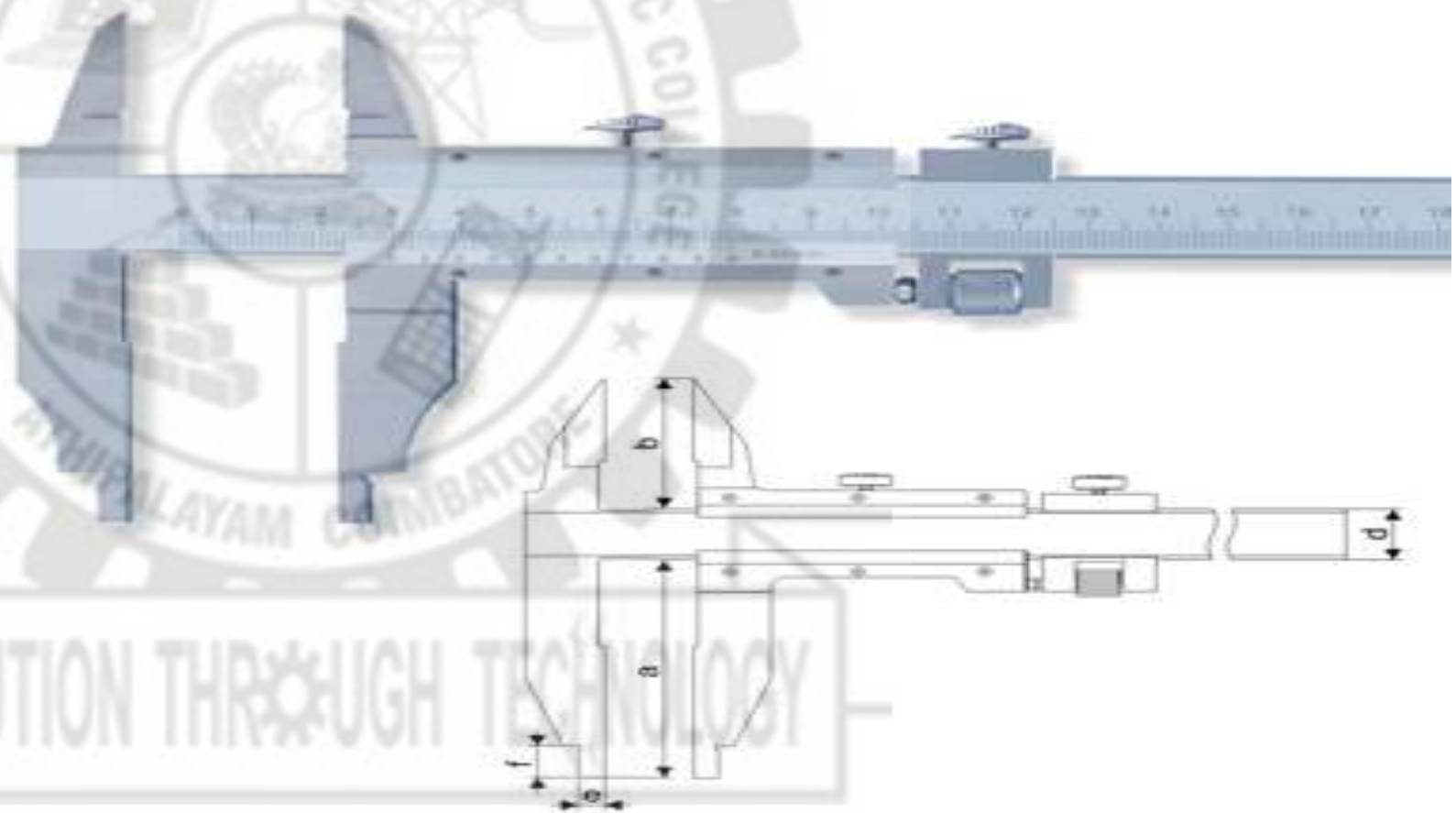
# Type B Vernier Caliper



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# Type C Vernier Caliper



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# VERNIER CALIPER

- Vernier calipers are available in size of 150 mm, 225 mm, 900 mm and 1200 mm.
- The selection of the size depends on the measurements to be taken.
- Vernier calipers are precision instruments, and extreme care should be taken while handling them.

# Vernier caliper

VERIER CALIPER WITH 0.02MM LEAST COUNT IS GENERLY USED IM WORK SHOP.

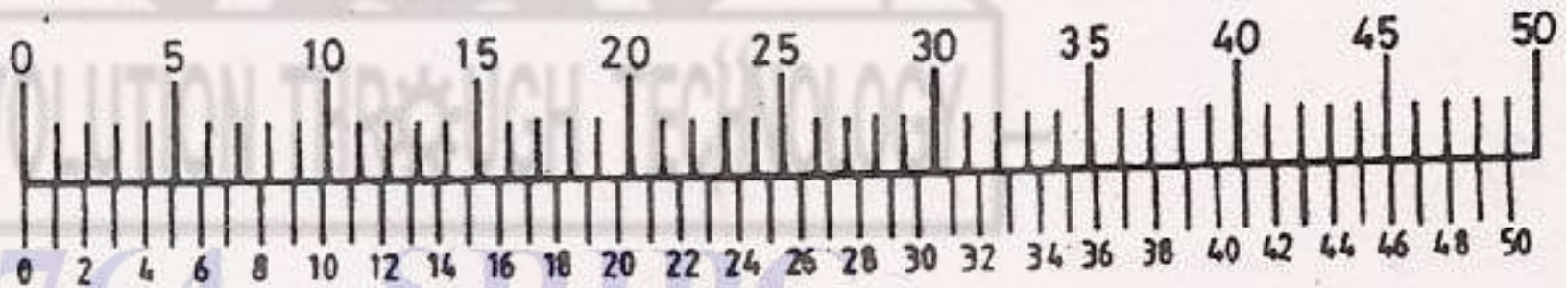
In this Vernier caliper main scale division (49mm) are divided in to 50 equal part in the Vernier scale.

i.e. 1 main scale division  
(MSD) = 1 mm

1. Vernier scale division  
(VSD) =  $49/50$  mm

Least count is  $1\text{mm} - 49/50 = 1/50$  mm

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN 1.MSD and 1. VSD=0.02MM



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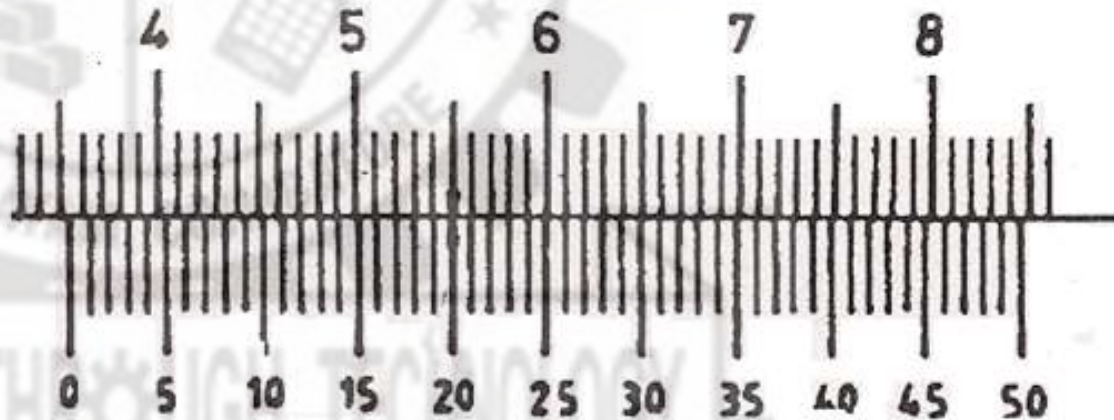


# Example

Main scale reading = 35mm

The vernier division coinciding with the main scale is the 20th division.  
Value = 20 multiplied by 0.02 = 0.40mm.

Total reading is  $35\text{mm} + 0.40 = 35.40\text{mm}$



READING

35.40 mm



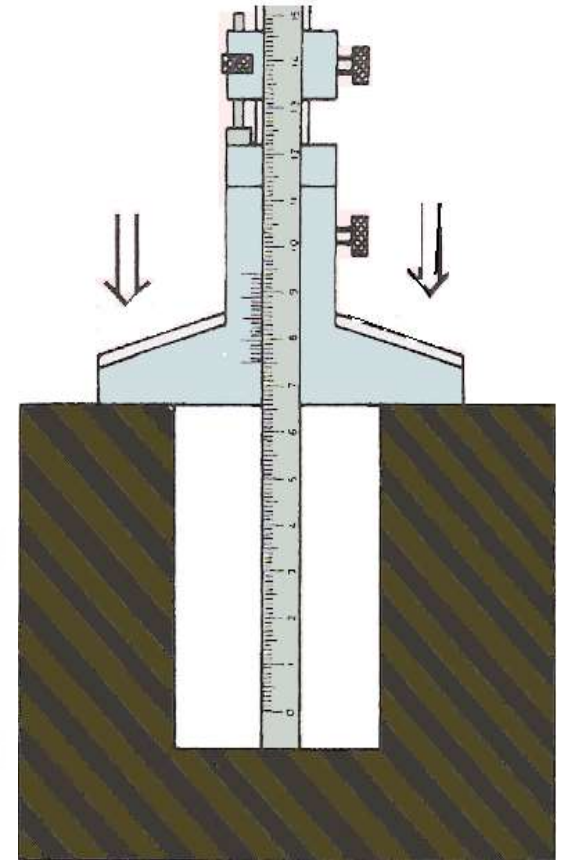
# Vernier Depth Gauge

A vernier depth is very commonly used precision instrument for measuring depth of holes recesses, slot and step.

Its construction and method of reading are similar to those of a vernier caliper.

# VERNIER DEPTH GAUGE

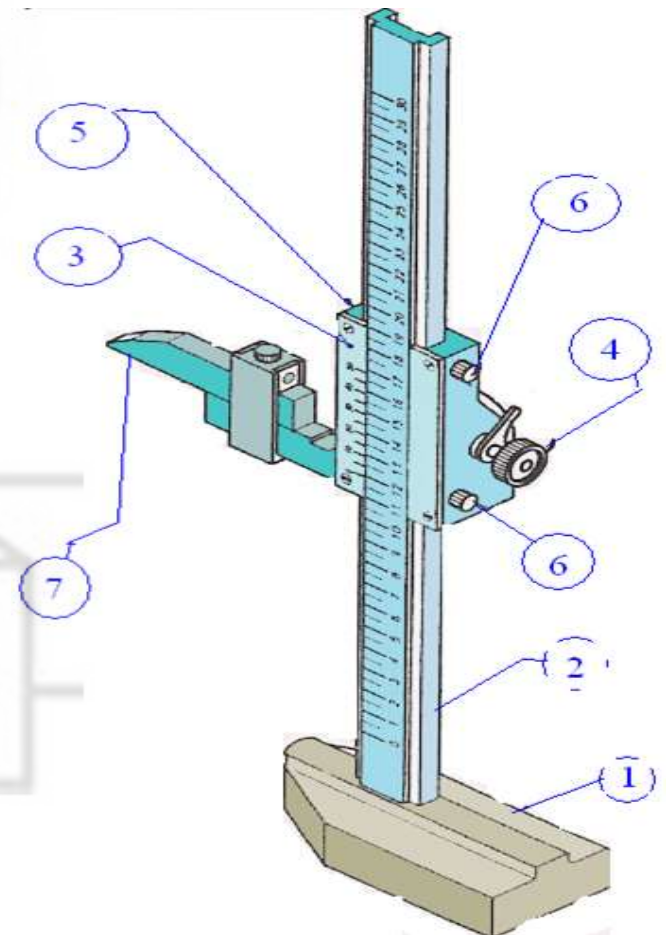
- Base
- Graduated beam
- Clamping screw
- Fine adjustment mechanism
- Vernier scale



## VERNIER HEIGHT GAUGE

The main parts of a vernier height gauge and their function are given.

1. base
2. beam
3. vernier slide
4. fine setting device
5. vernier plate
6. locking screws
7. scriber





## MICRO METER

A micro meter is a precision instrument used to measure a job, generally within an accuracy of 0.01mm. Micrometer used to take the outside measurements are know as outside micrometer.

# PARTS OF MICROMETER

**Frame**

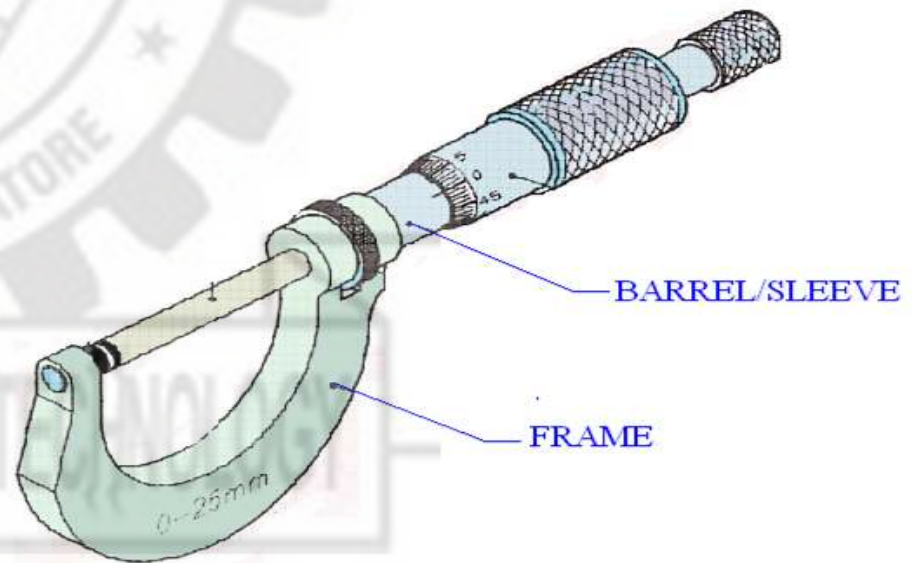
**Anvil and spindle**

**Screwed spindle**

**Graduated sleeve or barrel**

**Ratchet or friction stop**

**Spindle clamp**



# Interval measurements

- Slip gauges
- Interferometer
- Optical flats and limit gauges
- Comparators

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# SLIP GAUGE

- Slip gauges are rectangular blocks of steel having a cross-section of about 30 by 10 mm
- Normal set

Range	Step	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

## ● Special Set

Range	Step	Pieces
1.001 to 1.009	0.001	9
1.01 to 1.49	0.01	49
1.5 to 9.5	0.5	19
10 to 90	10	9
	Total	86



# Classification

- AA slip gauges
- A slip gauges and
- B slip gauges

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- **AA slip gauges**
  - Master slip gauges
  - Accurate to plus or minus two microns per meter
- **A slip gauges**
  - Reference purpose
  - Type A is guaranteed accurate up to plus or minus four microns per meter
- **B slip gauges**
  - Working slip gauges
  - Type 'B' for plus or minus eight microns per meter

# Classes

- *Grade 2*
- *Grade 1*
- *Grade 0*
- *Grade 00*
- *Calibration grade*

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## *Grade 2*

- This is the workshop grade
- Typical uses include setting up machine tools, positioning milling cutters and checking mechanical width.



# Grade I

- Used for more precise work, -tool room.
- Typical uses include setting up
  - Sine bars and sine tables
  - Checking gap gauges and
  - Setting dial test indicators to zero

# Grade 0

- This is more commonly known as the Inspection grade
- Inspection Department only who have access to this grade of slips

# Grade 00

- This grade would be kept in the Standard Room and would be kept for work of the highest precision only.
- Determination of any errors present in the workshop or Grade 2 slips.



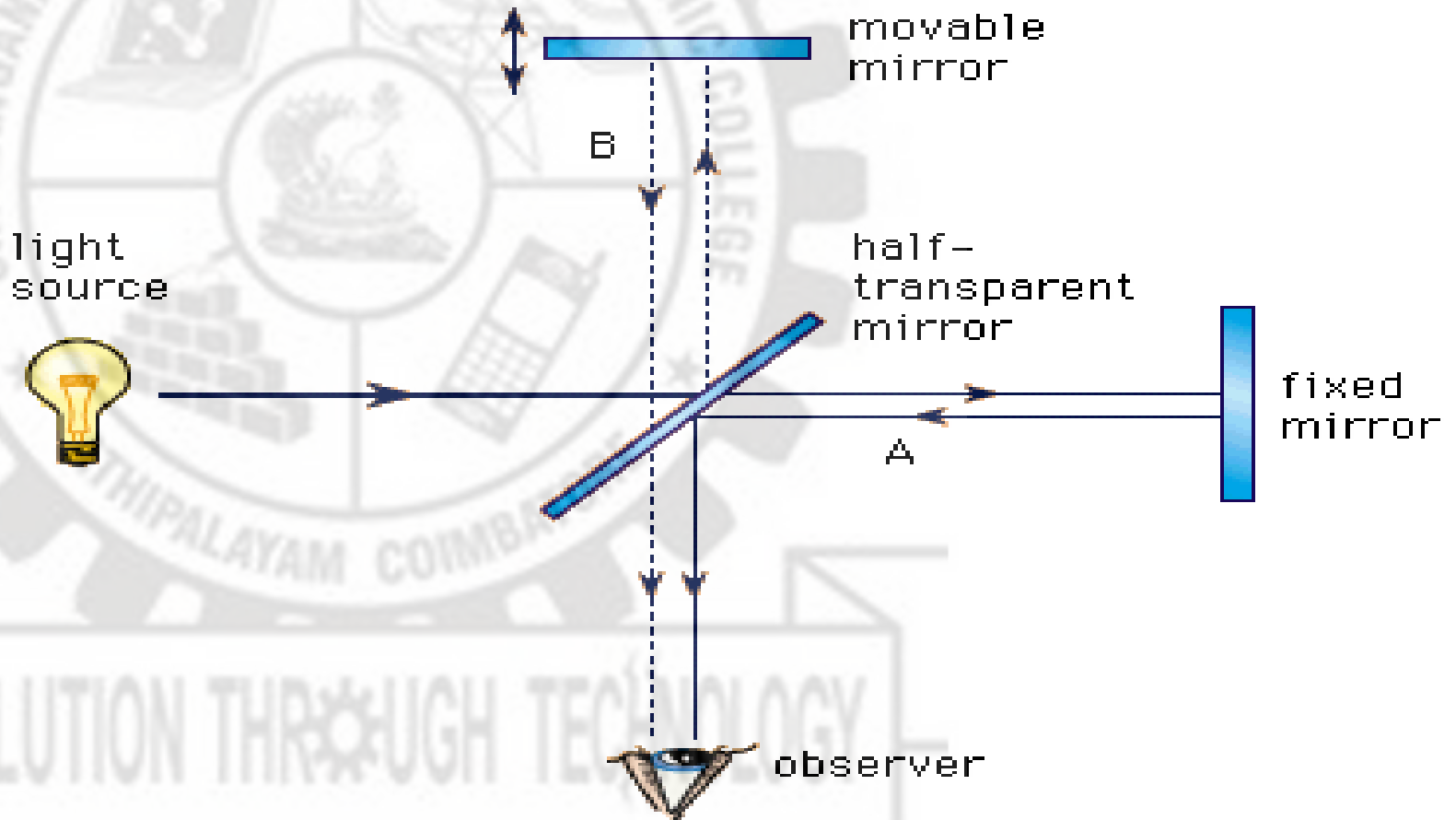
# Calibration grade

- Calibration grade are used for calibration of slip gauges, other measuring instruments

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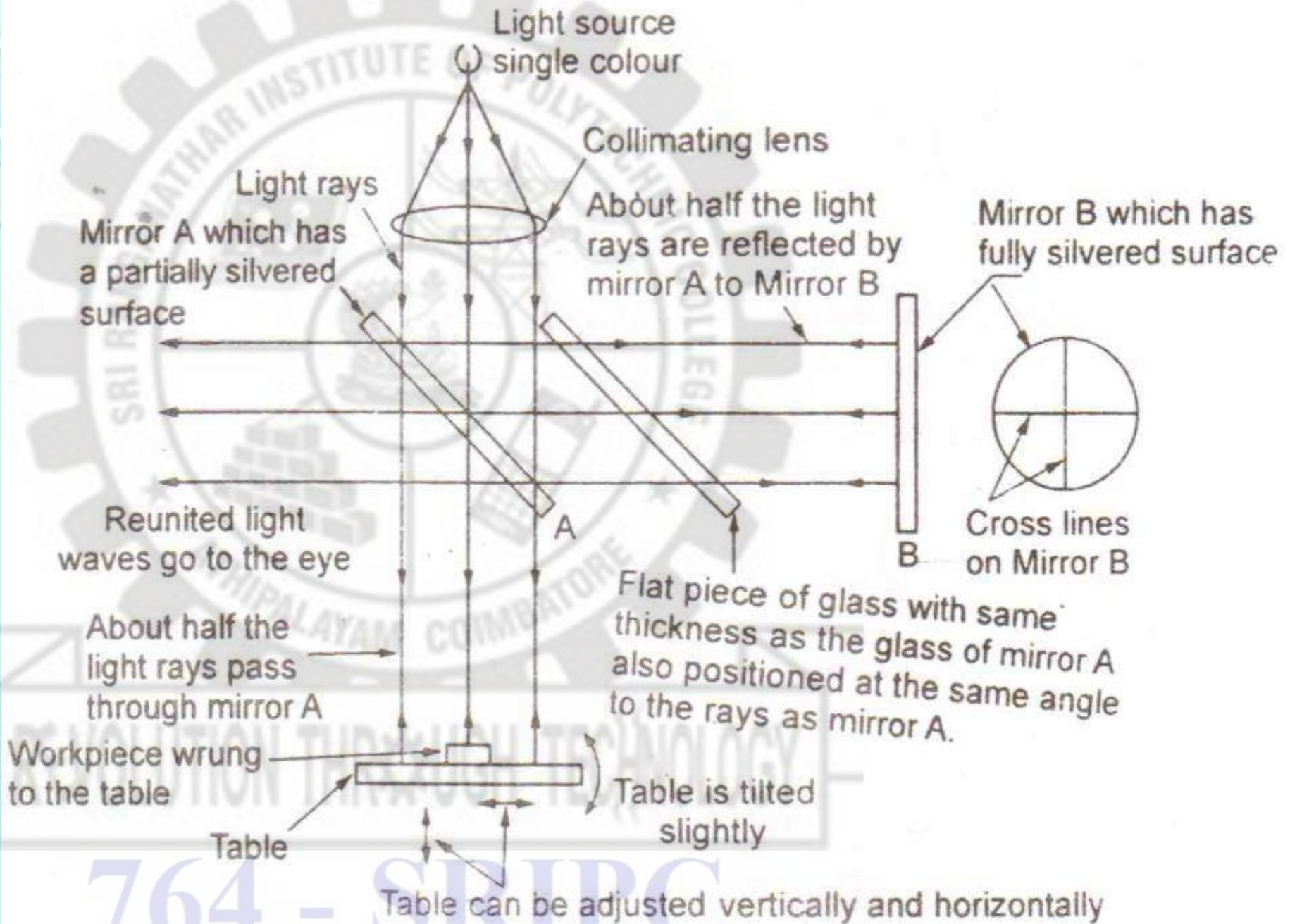
# Interferometer



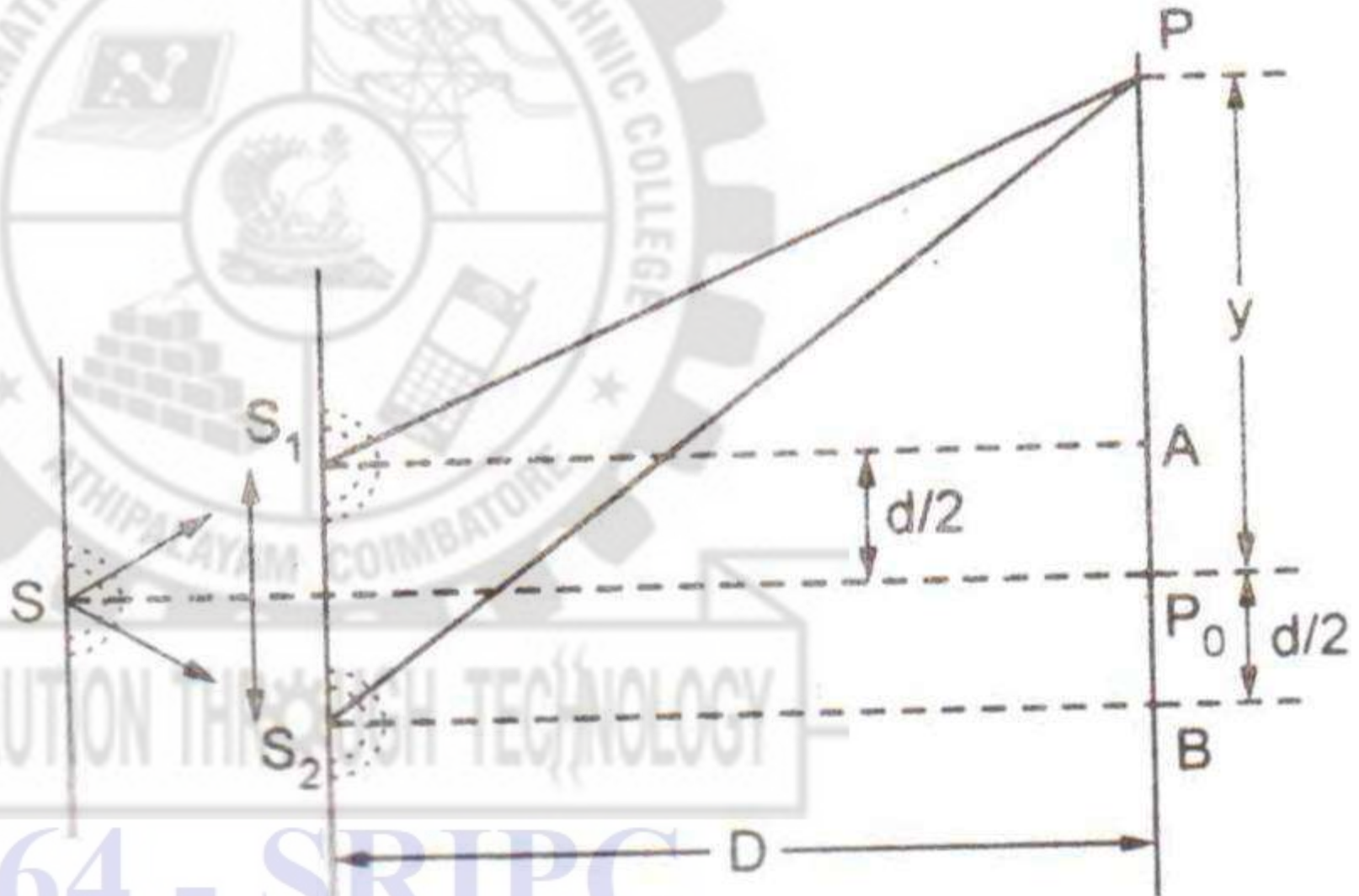
# Principle

- Interferometers are optical instruments used for measuring flatness
- Determining minute differences in length by direct reference to the wavelength of light.





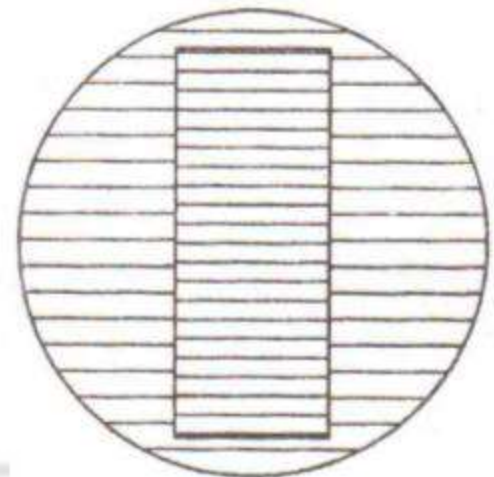
# Principle of interferometer



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# Fringes

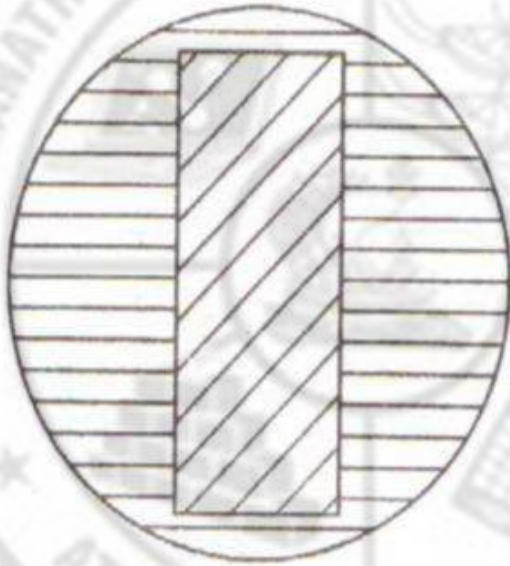


REVOLUTION THROUGH TECHNOLOGY

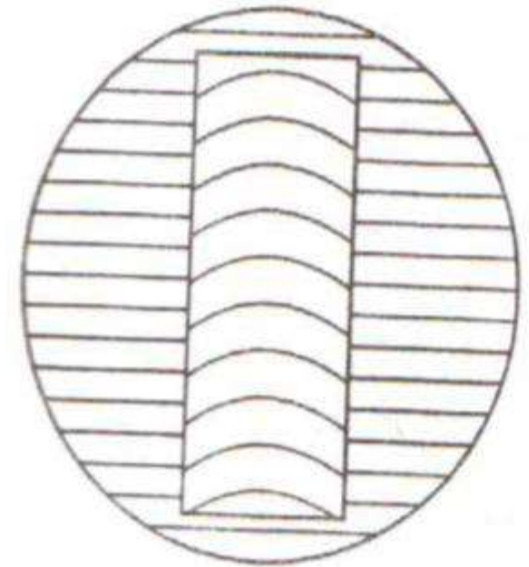
764 - SRIPC



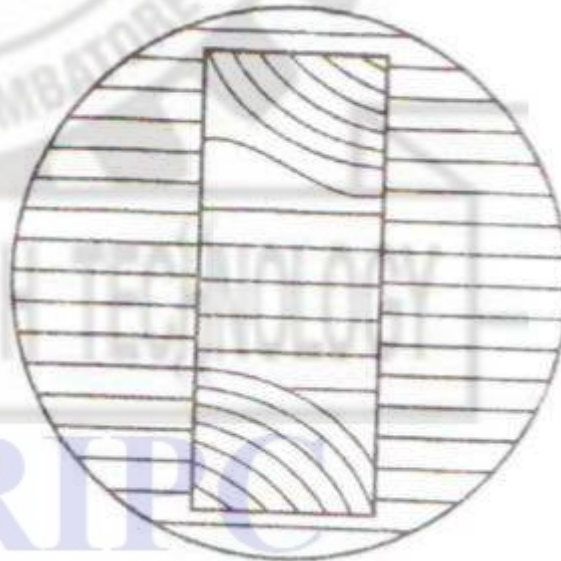
# Fringes



a



b



c

# Fringes

- A

- Here the error is indicated by the amount by which the fringes are out of parallelism with those on the base plate

- B

- If the work piece is concave or convex, fringe pattern will be as shown in Figure (b).

- C

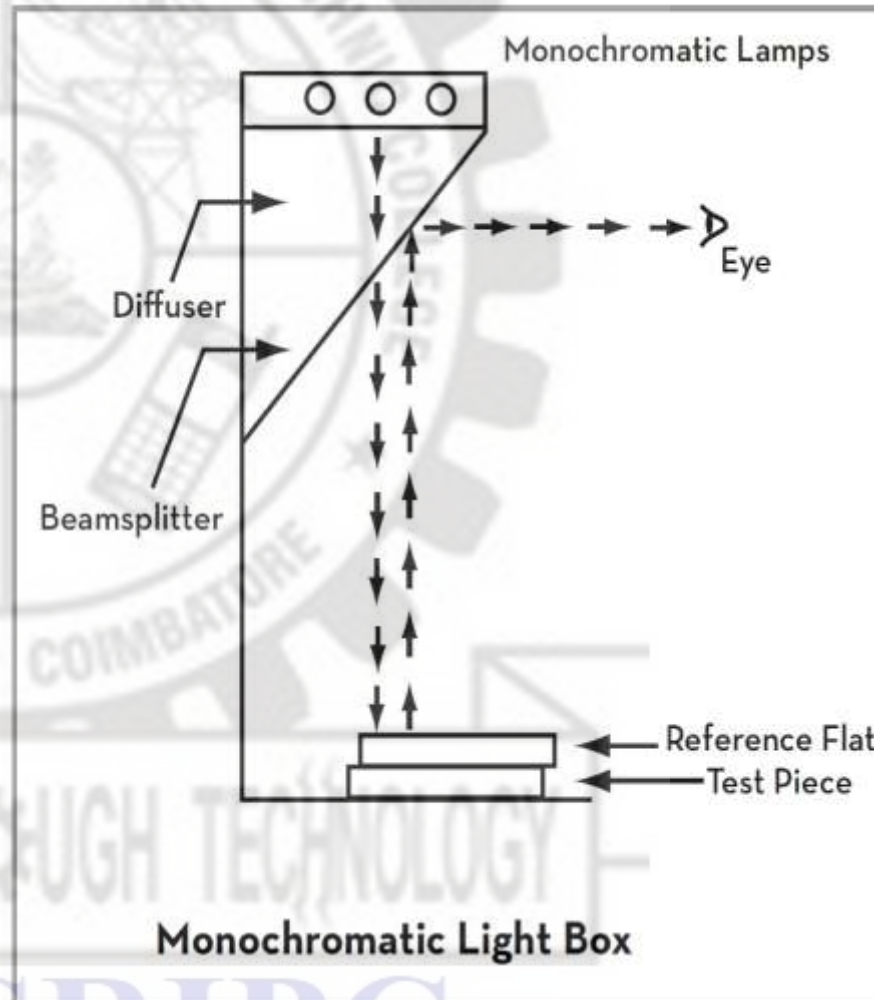
- The surface is flat with slight rounding off at the corner

# Optical flats

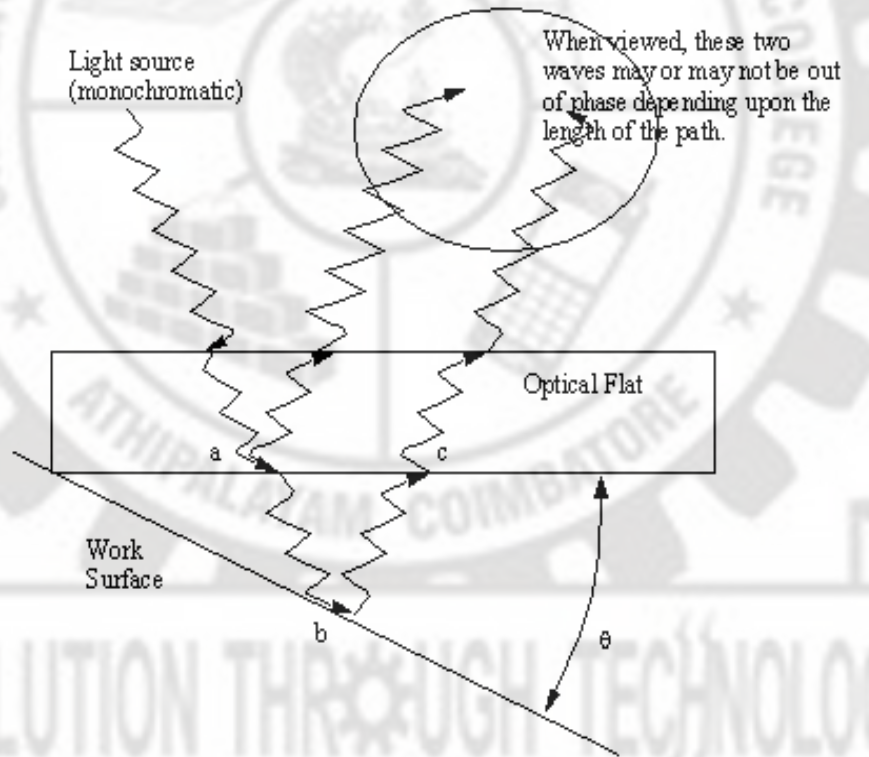
- Optical flats can be used to measure the flatness
  - An optical reference flat of known quality
  - A monochromatic light box
  - Solvent and cleaning material



# Typical setup of optical flat



# Working



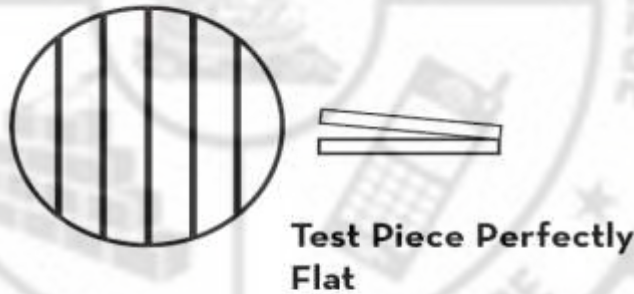
# Fringe Pattern

- Air wedges
  - *Flatness error of zero*
  - *Cylinder with flatness error of two fringes*
- Contact method
  - *Convex Cylinder*
  - *Concave Cylinder*
  - *Convex Sphere*
  - *Concave Sphere*
  - *Convex Spheroid*
  - *Concave Spheroid*
  - *Saddle*
  - *Highly Irregular*

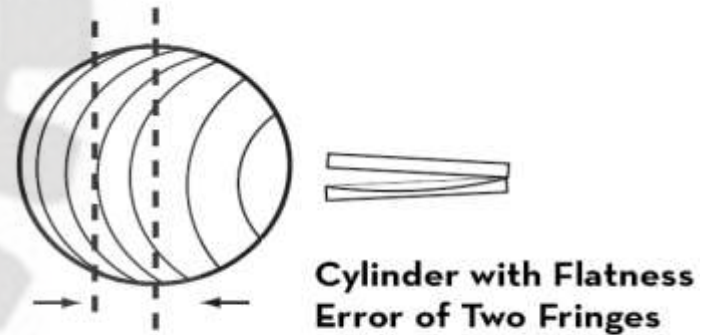


# Air wedge

- *Flatness error of zero (a)*



(a)

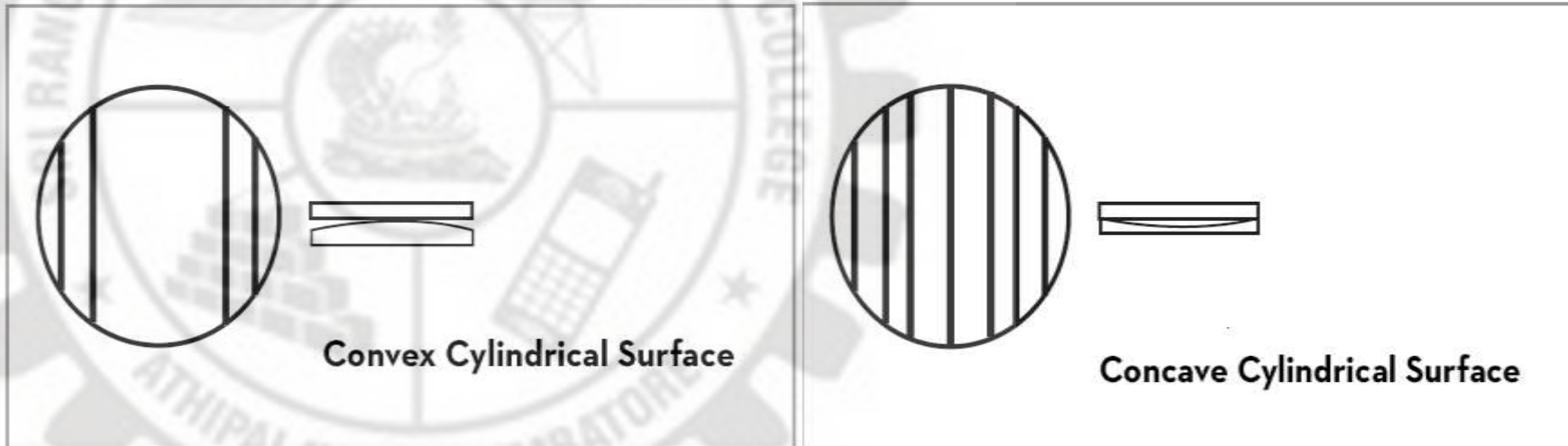


(b)

- *Cylinder with flatness error of two fringes (b)*

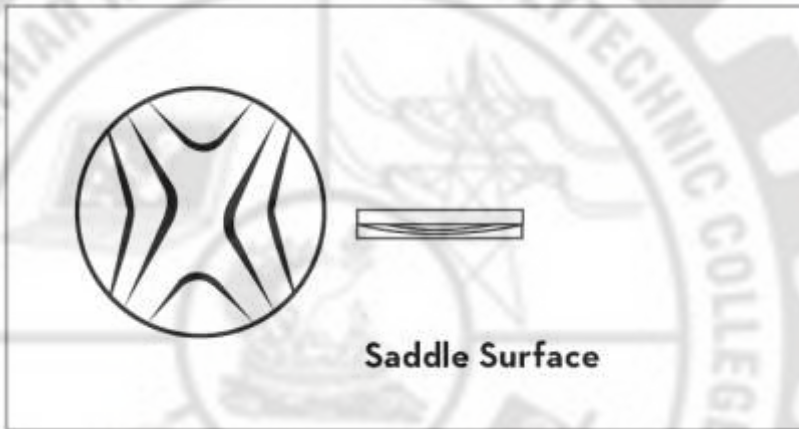
# Contact method

- *Convex Cylinder*

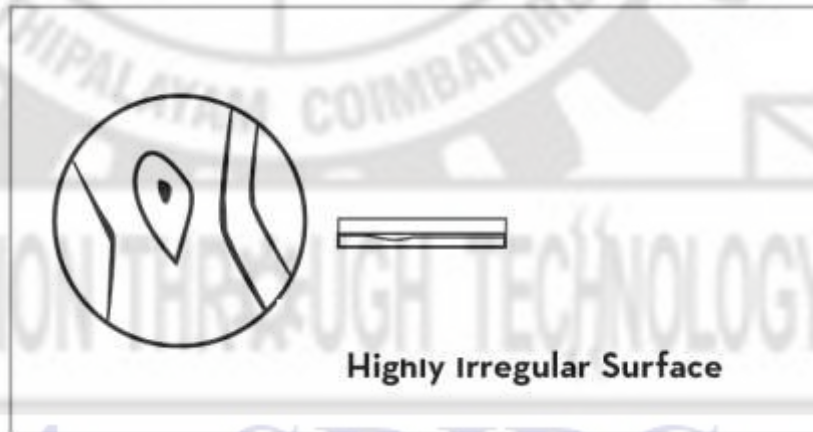


- *Concave Cylinder*

- Saddle



- *Highly Irregular*





# Application

- Front and rear surface mirrors
- gauge blocks
- Bearings
- Seals and
- Anvils

# Limit gauges



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# Gauges

- Basic dimension: exact size of part from which all limiting variations made
- Limits: maximum and minimum dimensions
- Tolerance: permissible variation of part
  - unilateral: one direction only
  - Bilateral: both plus and minus (two directions)
- Allowance: intentional difference in dimensions of mating parts



# Fixed Gauges

- Used for inspection purposes
  - Provide quick means of checking specific dimension
- Easy to use and accurately finished to required tolerance
  - Generally finished to ten times the tolerance designed to control

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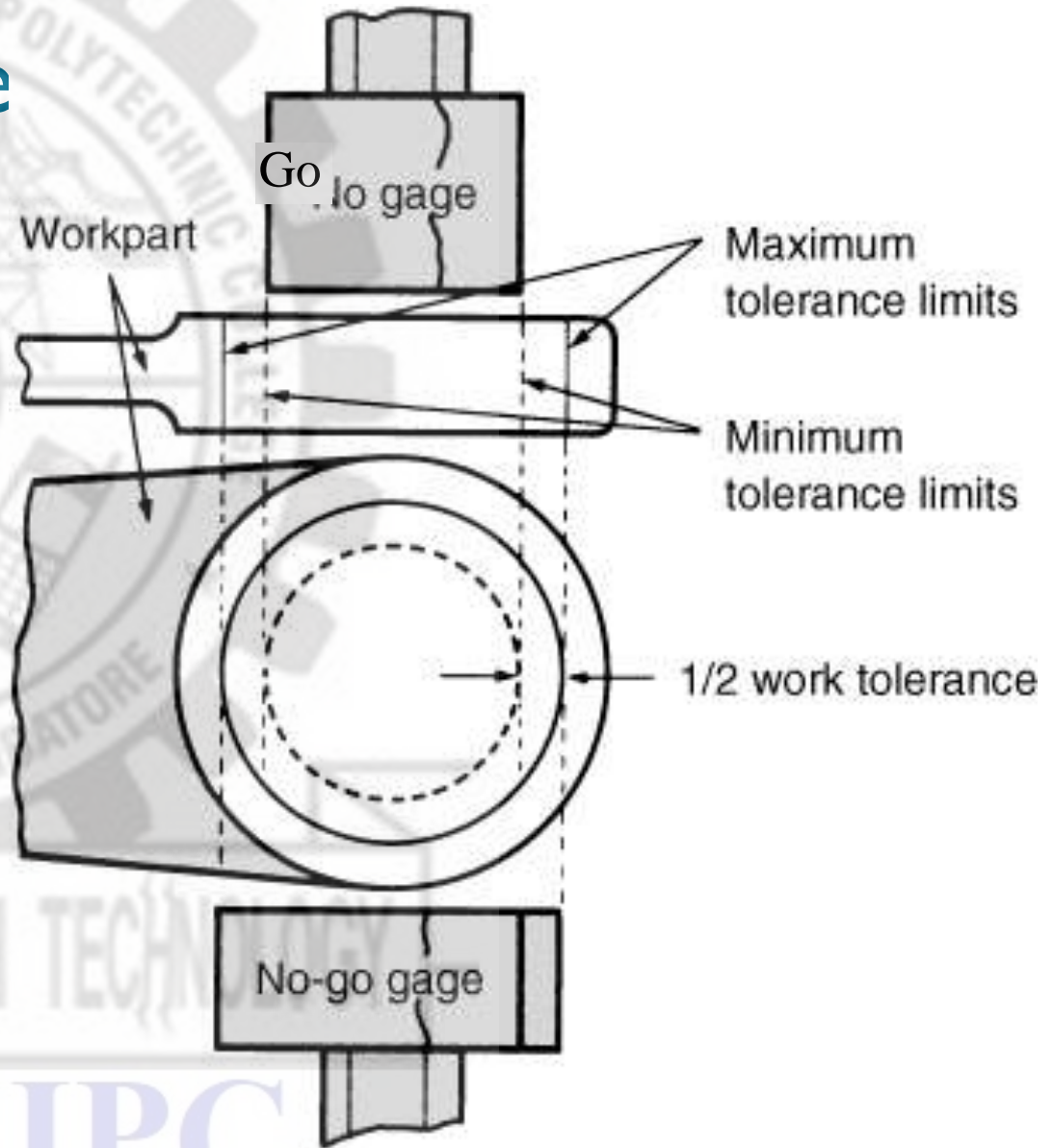
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# Cylindrical Plug Gauge

Dimensions usually stamped on handle at each end.

"go" end longer than "no-go" for easy identification

Many made with carbide tips to increase gauge life



# Cylindrical Plug Gauges



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# Cylindrical Plug gauge



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# Plain Ring Gauges

- Used to check outside diameter of pieces
- Ground and lapped internally to desired size
  - Size stamped on side of gauge
- Outside diameter knurled and "no-go" end identified by annular groove on knurled surface
- Precautions and procedures similar to those outlined for a plug gauge

# Plain Ring gauges



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# Taper Plug Gauges

- Used to check size of hole and taper accuracy
- Made with standard or special tapers
- Some have "go" and "no-go" rings scribed
  - gauge fits into hole between two rings means within required tolerance

# Taper Plug and Ring Gauges



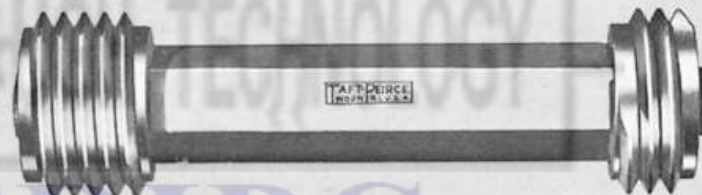
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# Thread Plug Gauges

- Used for checking internal threads of the "go" and "no-go" variety
- Based on same principle as cylindrical plug gauges
- "go" end (longer end)
  - Should be turned in flush to bottom of hole
- "no-go" end
  - Should just start into hole and become snug before third thread enters



# Thread Plug Gauges



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# Thread Ring Gauges



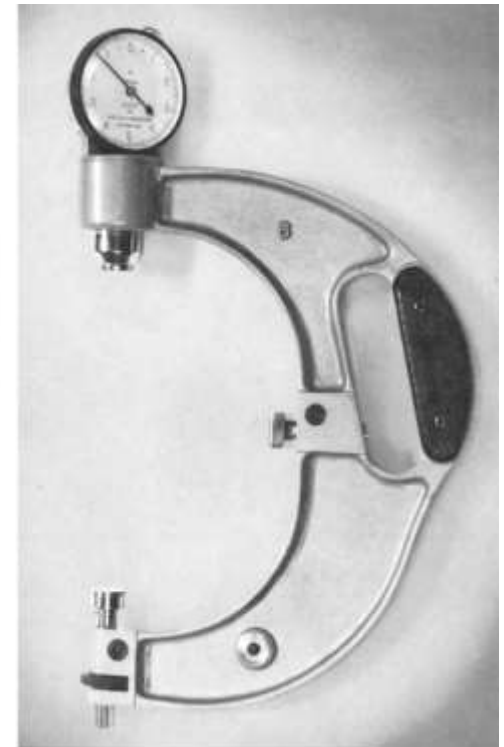
# Snap Gauges

- One of most common types of comparative measuring instruments
- Faster to use than micrometers
- Limited in their application
- Used to check diameters within certain limits by comparing part size to preset dimension of snap gauge



# Snap Gauges

- Have C-shaped frame with adjustable gauging anvils or rolls set to "go" and "no-go" limits of the part
- Several styles



# FEELER GAUGE

- A **feeler gauge** (also known as a **thickness gauge**) is an accurately manufactured strip of metal that is used to determine the gap or clearance between two components.



# FEELER GAUGE

- A feeler gauge can be used to check the following:
  - Piston ring gap
  - Piston ring side clearance
  - Connecting rod side clearance





- Feeler gauges are most commonly made of high-quality carbon steel, and are machined to a very smooth surface finish. Other blade materials are available, including stainless steel, brass, and plastic. Metal blades have better wear resistance and will maintain their accuracy after many uses

# Radius Gauge

- A **radius gauge** is a tool used to measure the radius of an object.



# Thread Pitch Gauge

- It used to quickly determine the pitch of various threads by matching the teeth on the leaves with teeth on the work.



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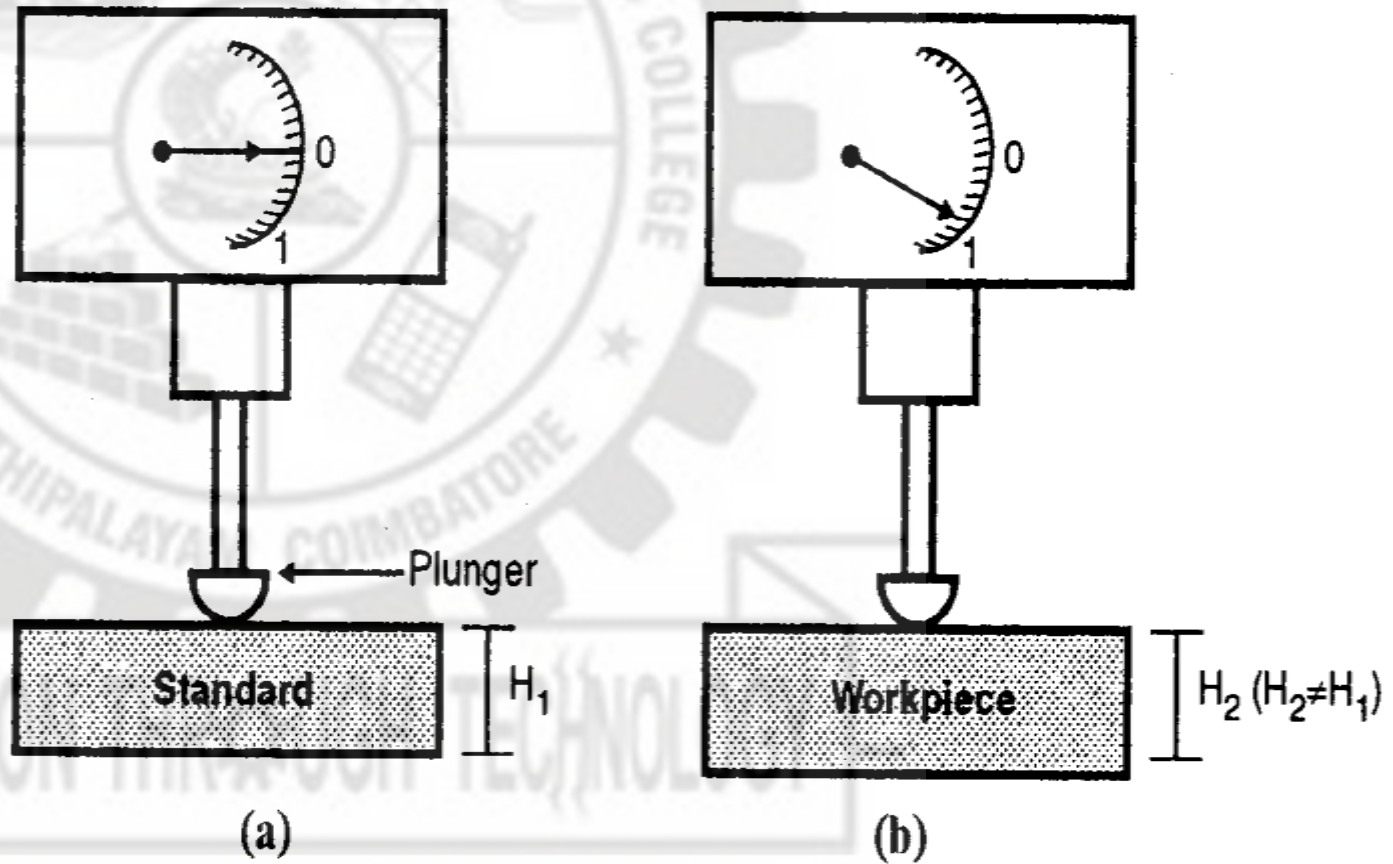
# Comparators

- Mechanical comparators
- Electrical comparators
- Optical comparators
- Pneumatic comparators

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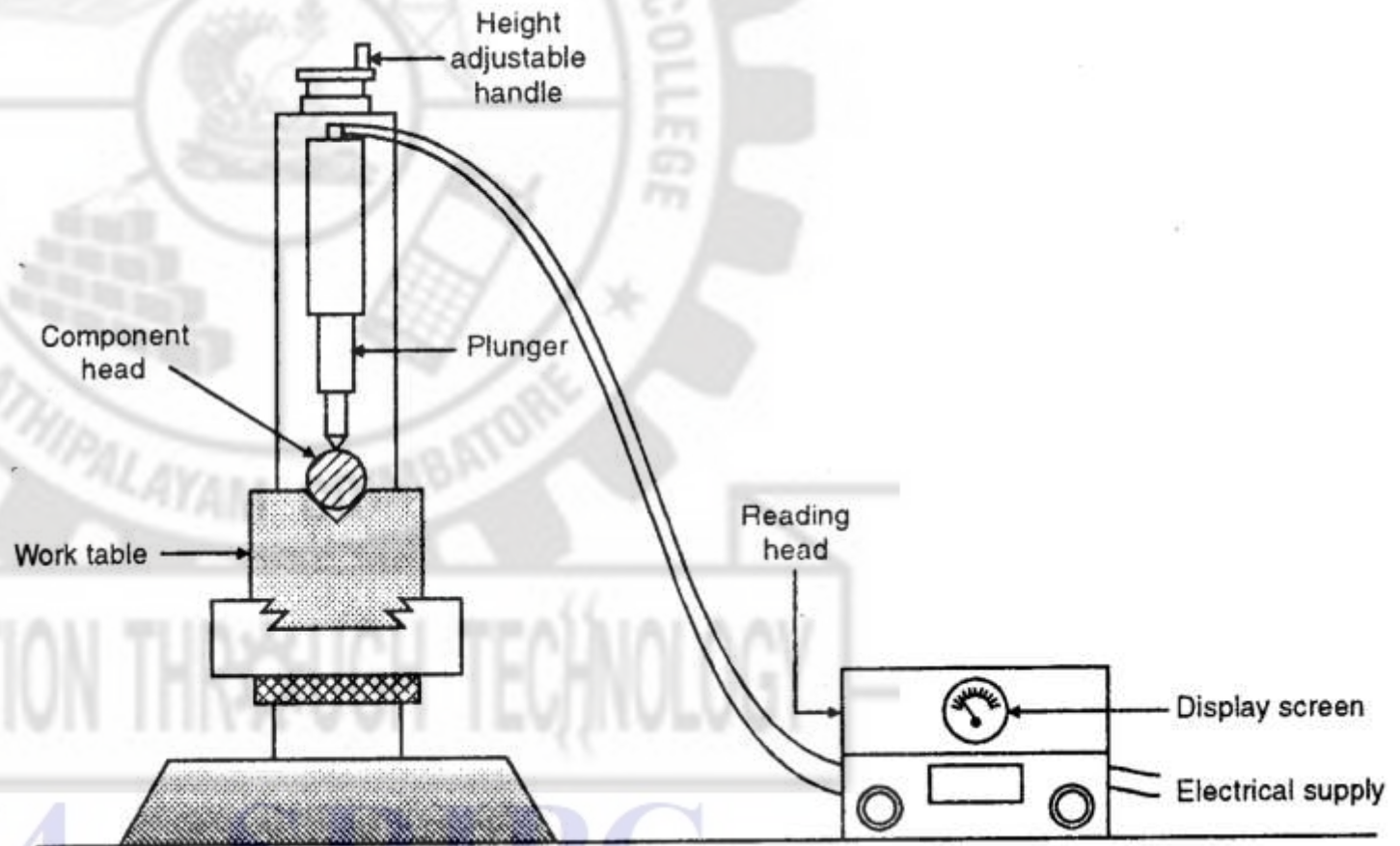
# Mechanical comparators



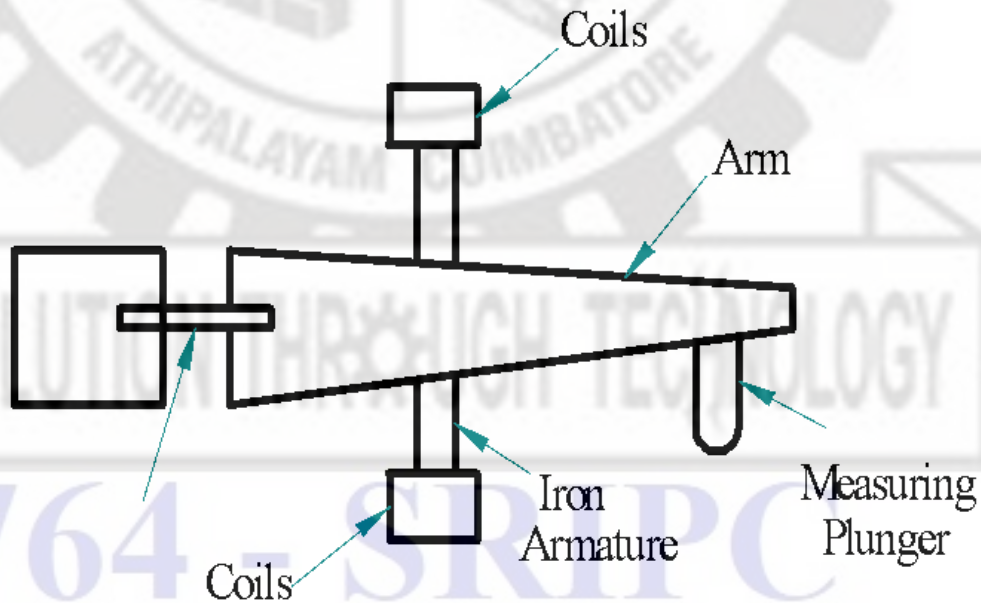
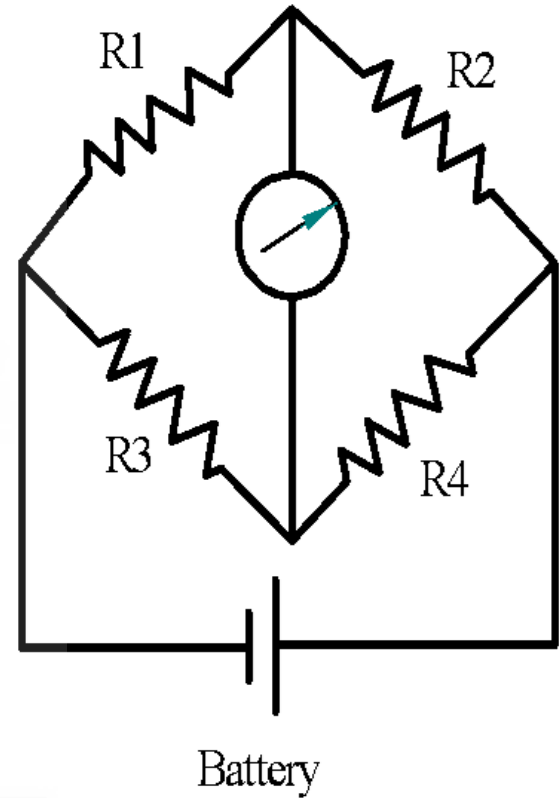
- It is a precision instrument employed to compare the dimension of a given component with a working standard
- It does not measure the actual dimension but indicates how much it differs from the basic dimension



# Electrical comparators

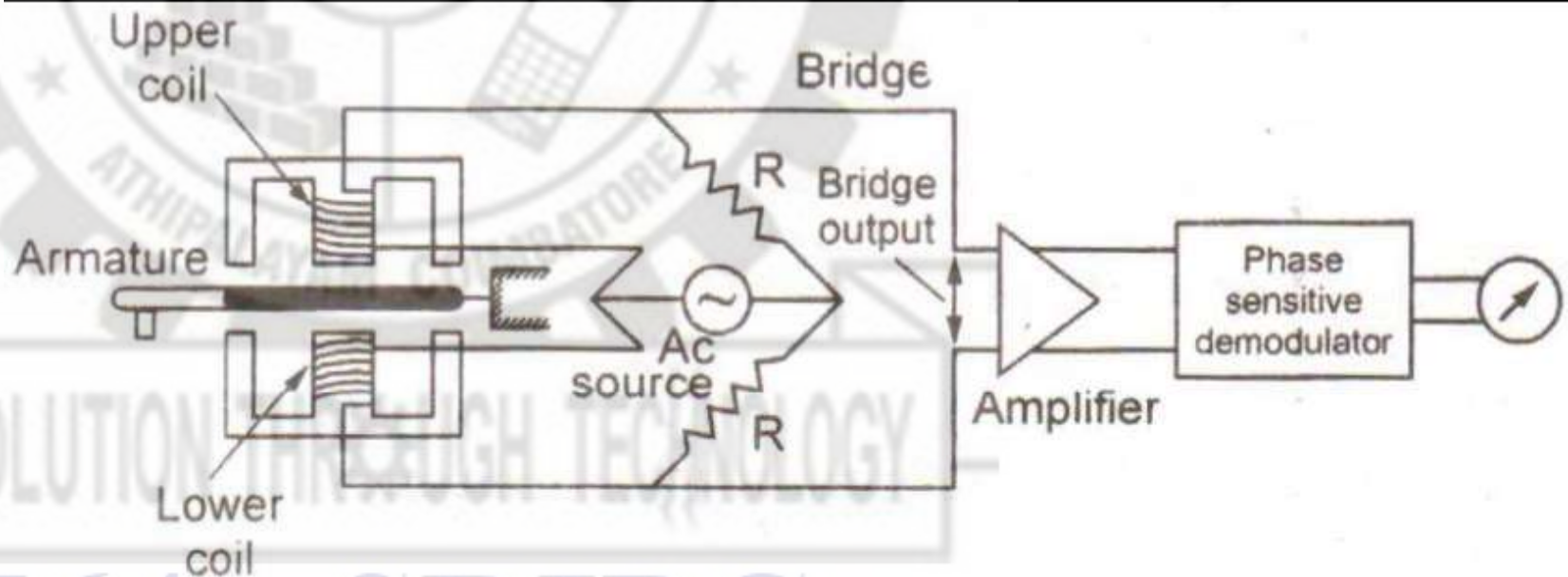


# Electrical & Electronic Comparators



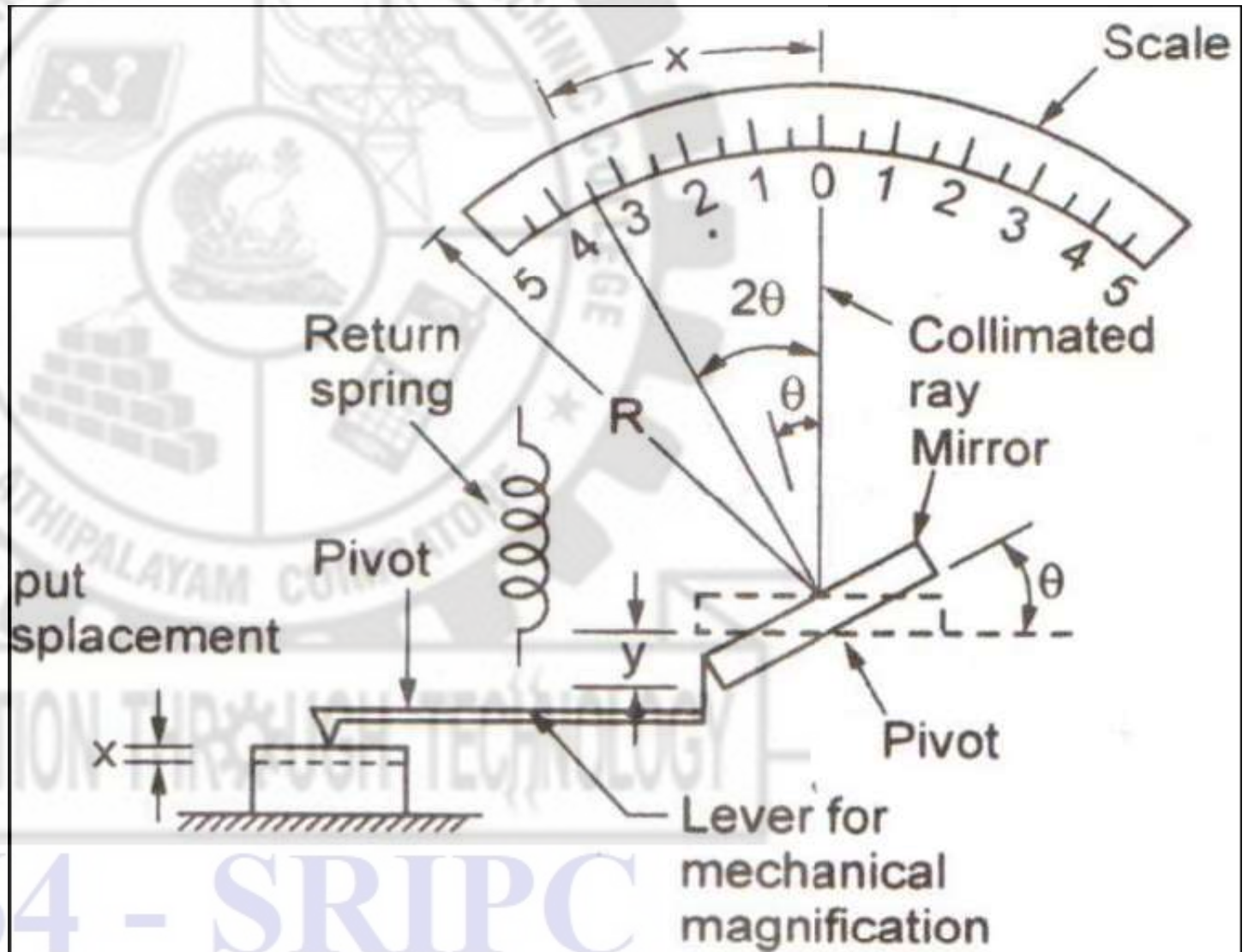
- These comparators depend on the principle of balancing the Wheatstone bridge,

$(R_1/R_2) = (R_3/R_4)$  applicable for only to direct current obtained from a battery



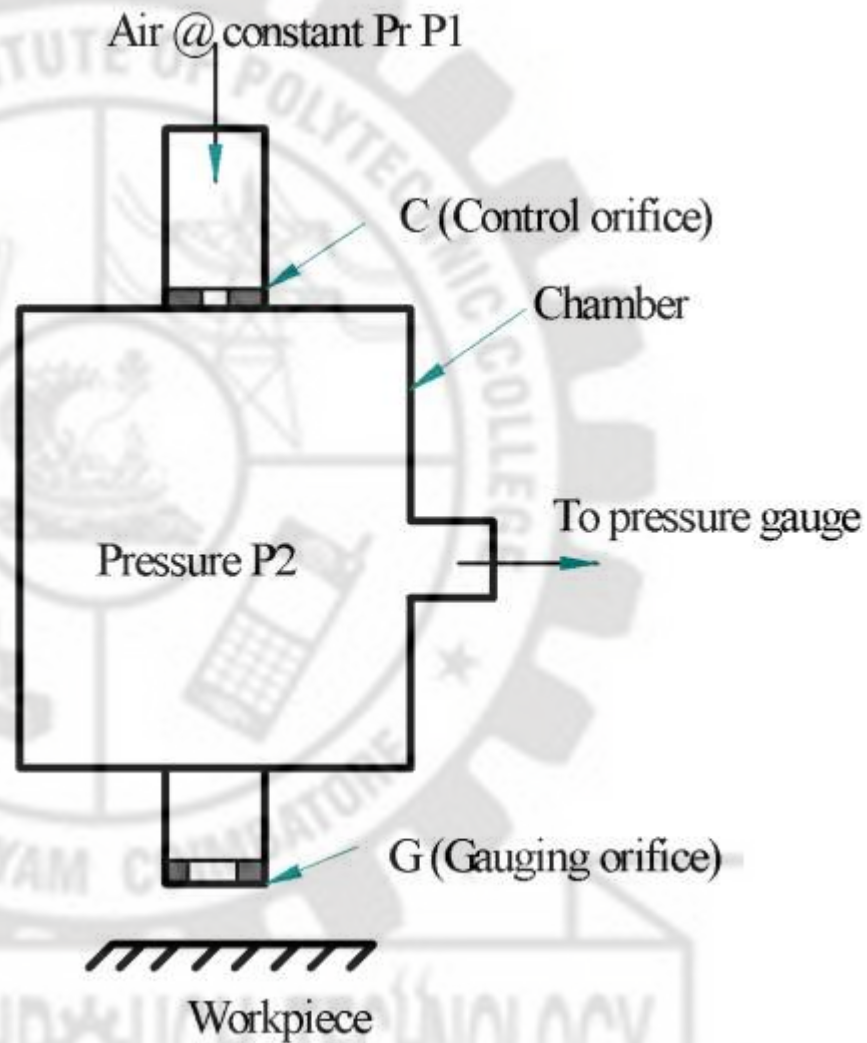


# Optical comparator



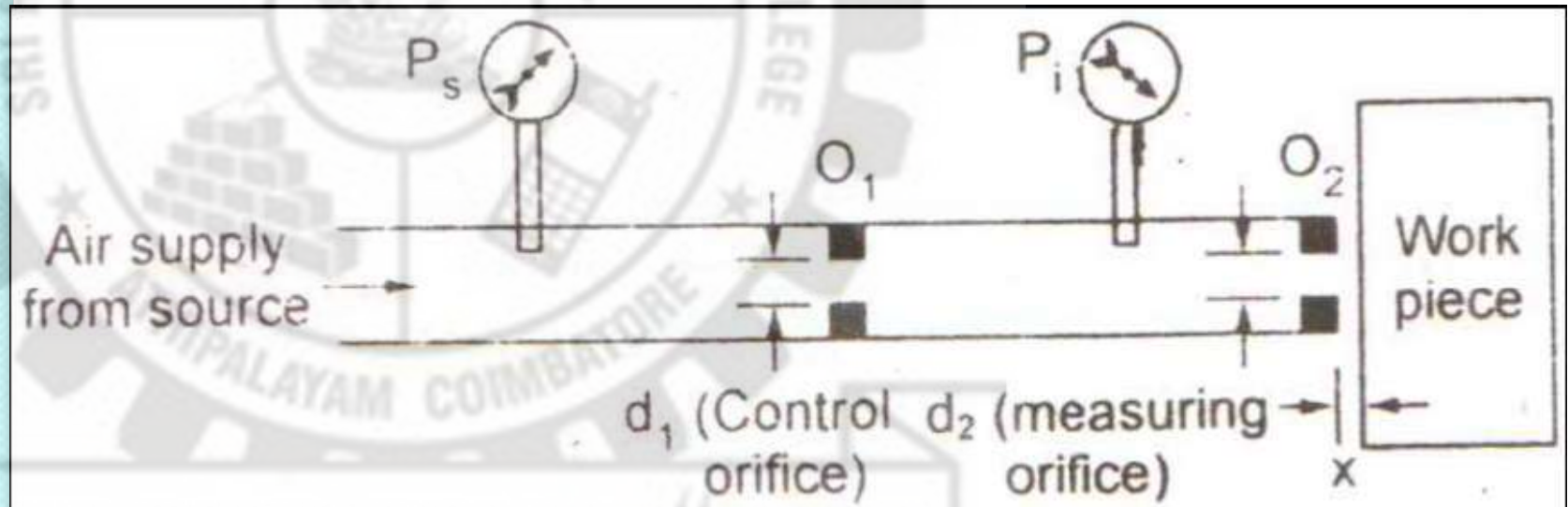
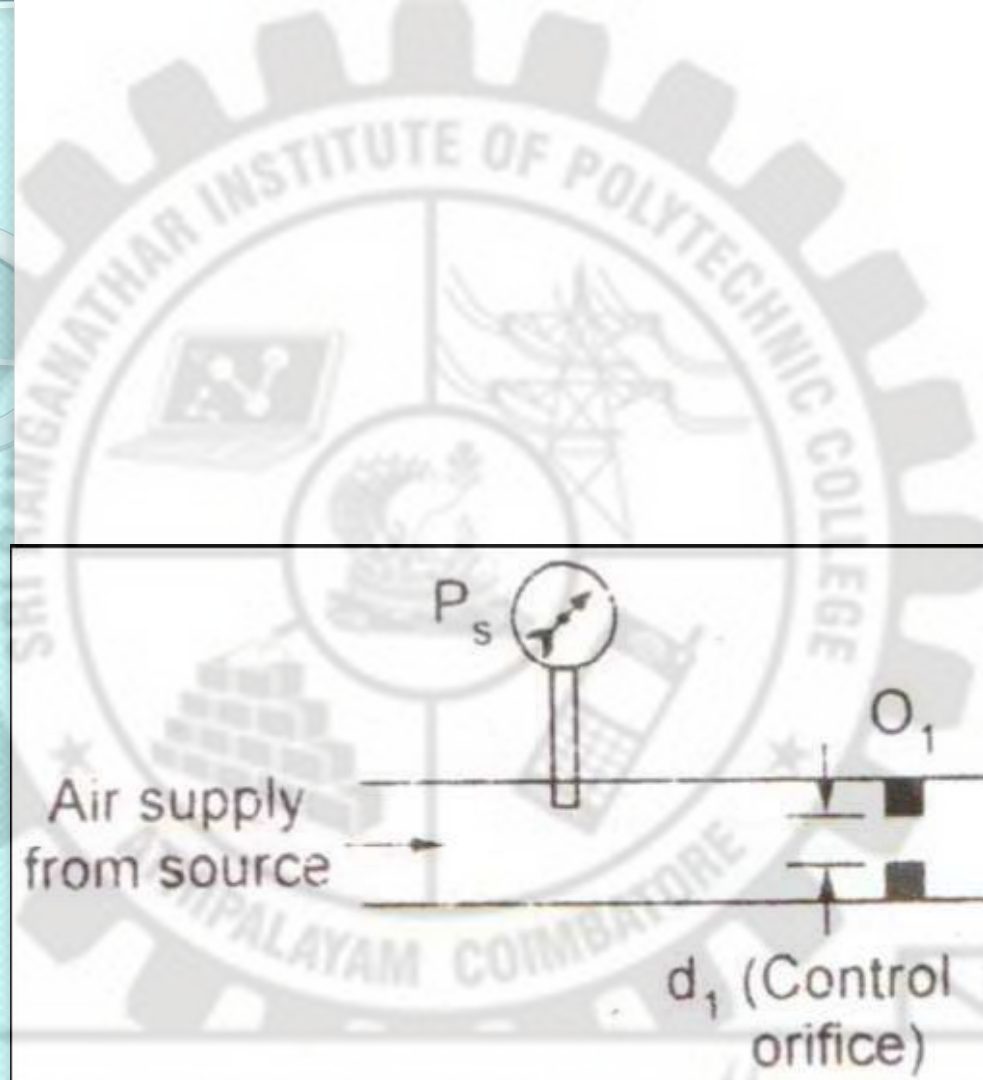
# Pneumatic comparators

- In Pneumatic comparators air is used as a means of magnification and hence they use principle of air jet.
- A chamber is fitted with control orifice C and a gauging orifice G through which air flows from a supply at a constant pressure  $P_1$ .
- If the size of the control orifice C remains constant, any variation in size of G will cause alteration of pressure  $P_2$  in the chamber.
- This variation is measured by a suitable pressure gauge graduated to read in linear units.



Principle of Pneumatic comparator





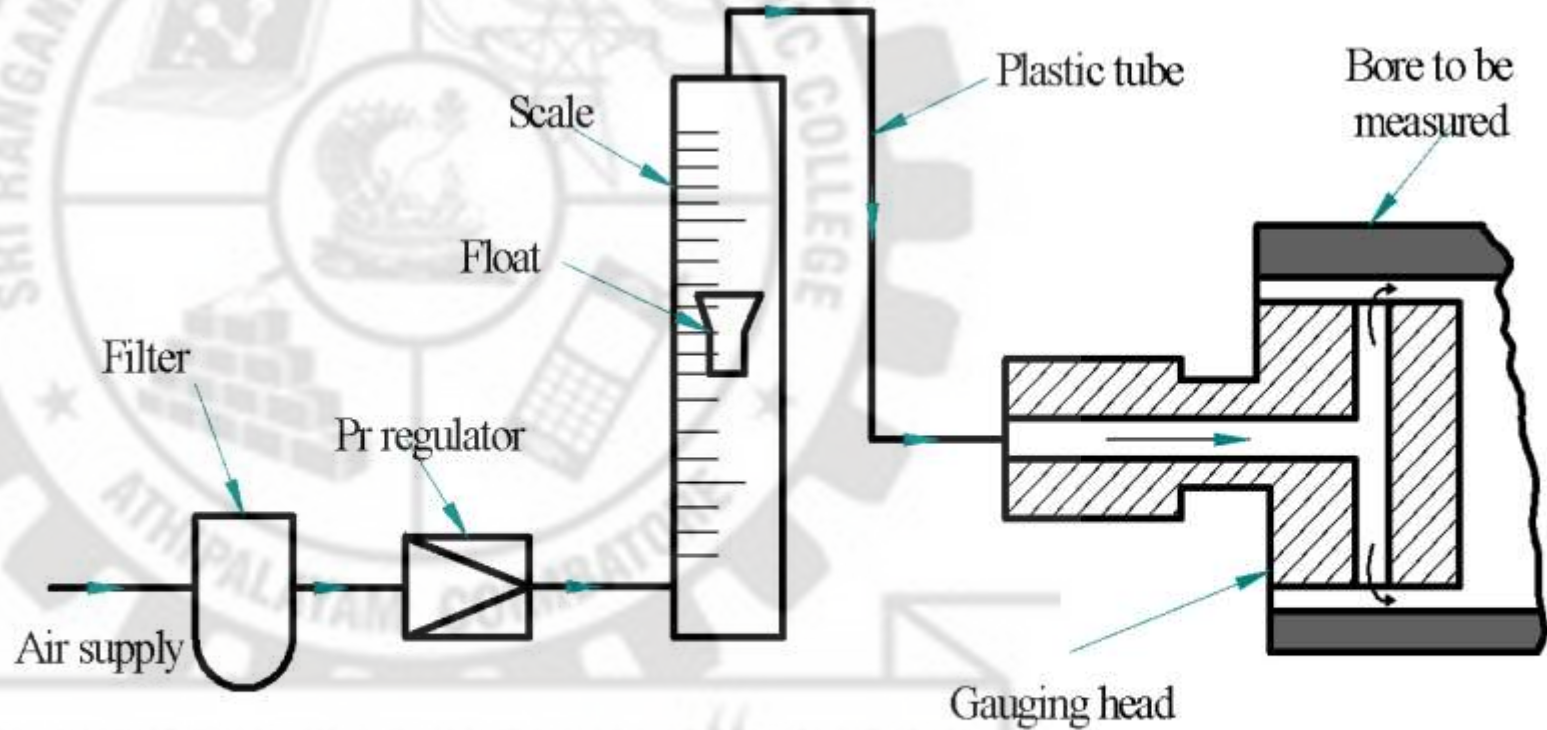
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# Systems of Pneumatic comparators

- Based on the physical phenomenon, Pneumatic comparators are classified as;  
(a) Flow or velocity type (b) Back pressure type
- Flow types operate by sensing & indicating the momentary rate of flow.
- Compressed air after filtering & pressure regulation flows through a glass tube with a small metal float.
- The air then passes through a plastic tube to the gauge head with two diametrically opposite orifices for the air to escape.

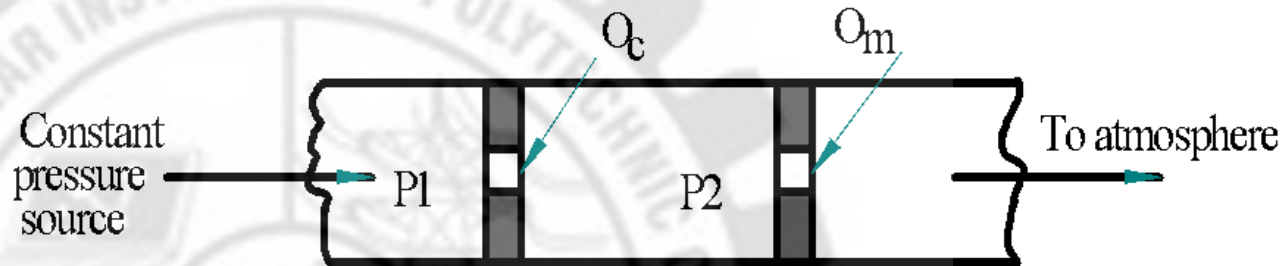
# Pneumatic comparators (contd...)



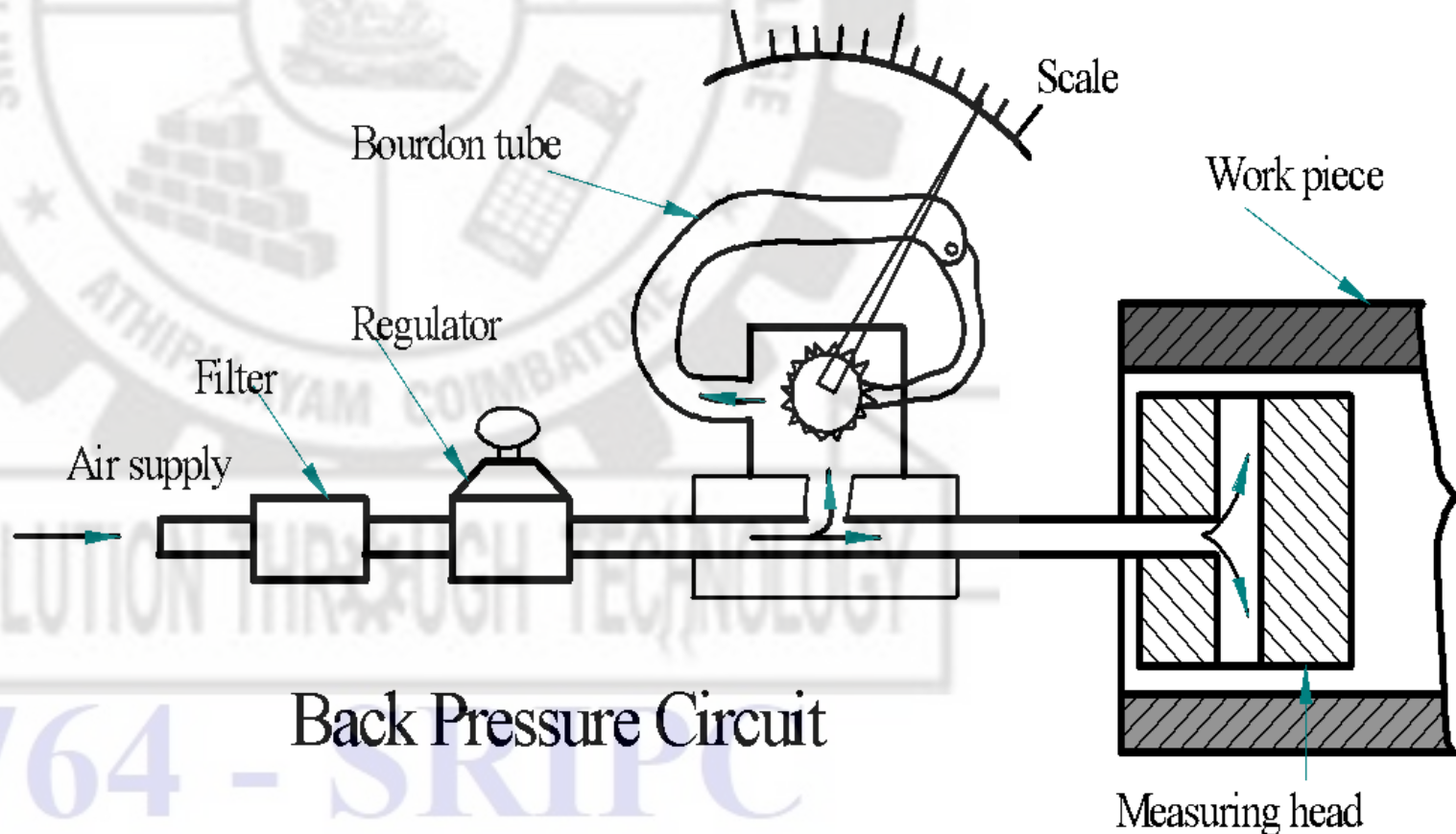
Flow or Velocity type Comparator



# Back pressure type Pneumatic Comparators

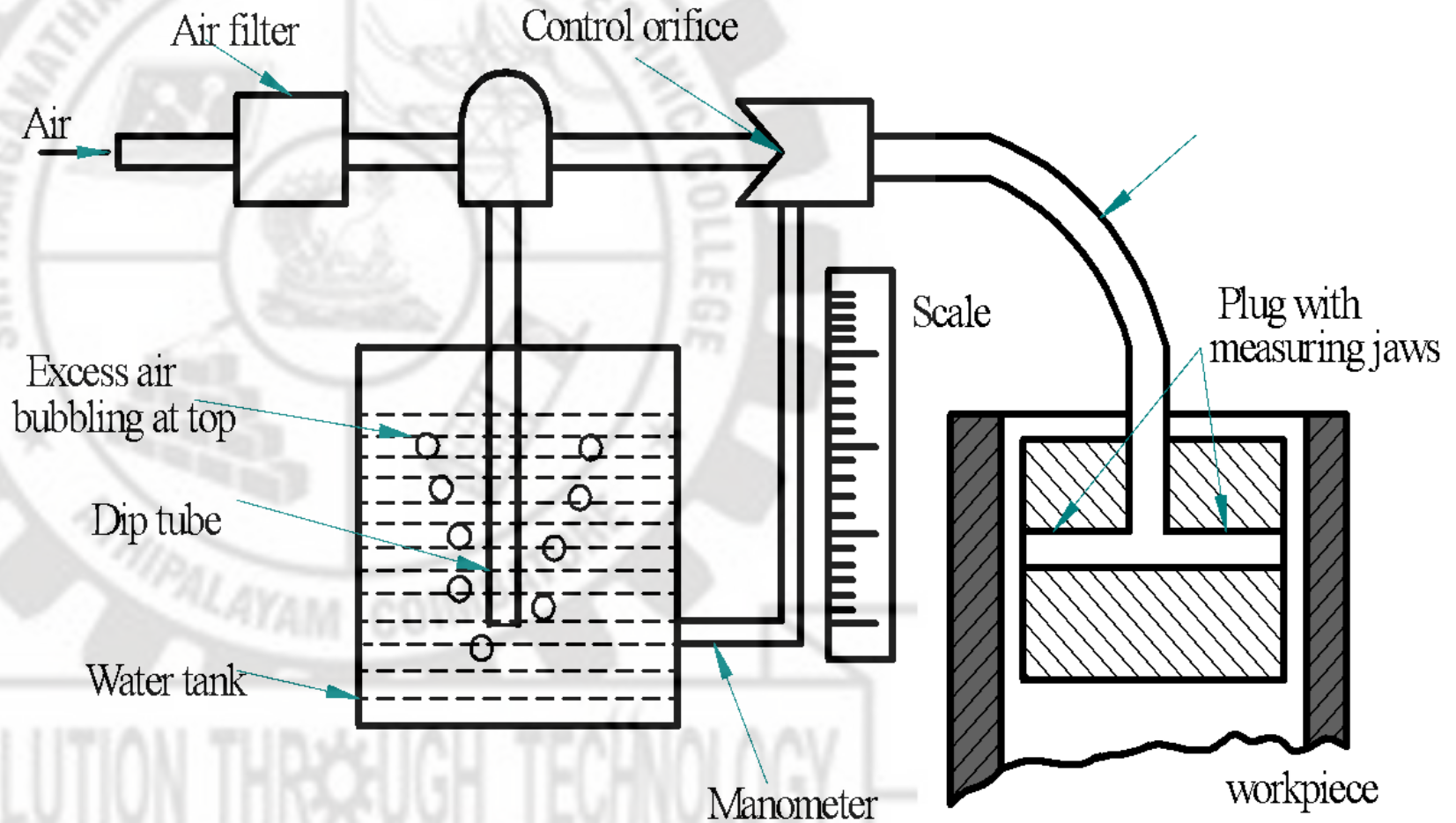


Principle of back pressure type Pneumatic comparator



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# Solex Pneumatic gauge



## Solex Pneumatic gauge

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# ANGULAR MEASUREMENT

Sine bar, optical bevel protractor ,Taper measurements

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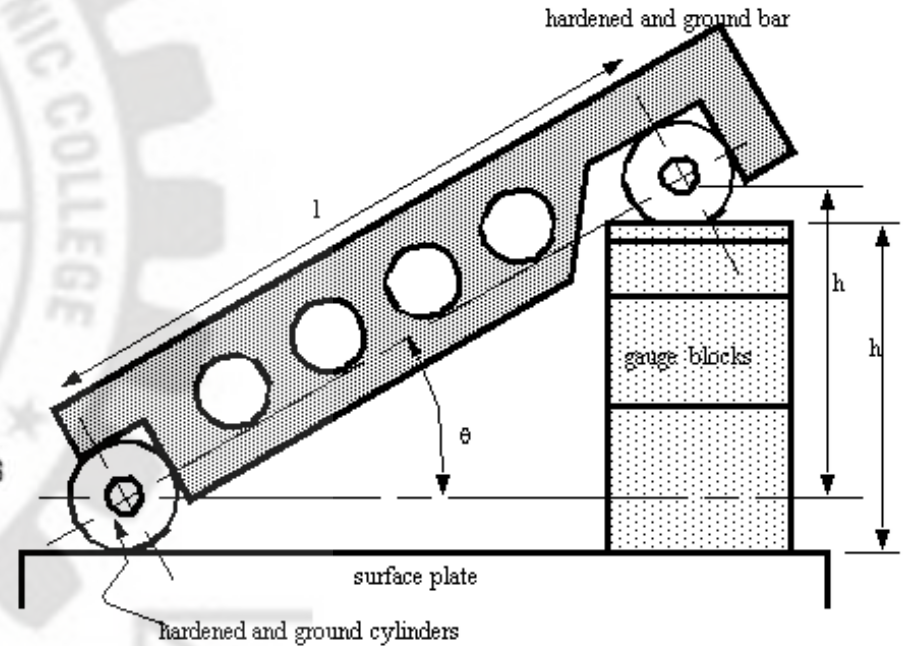
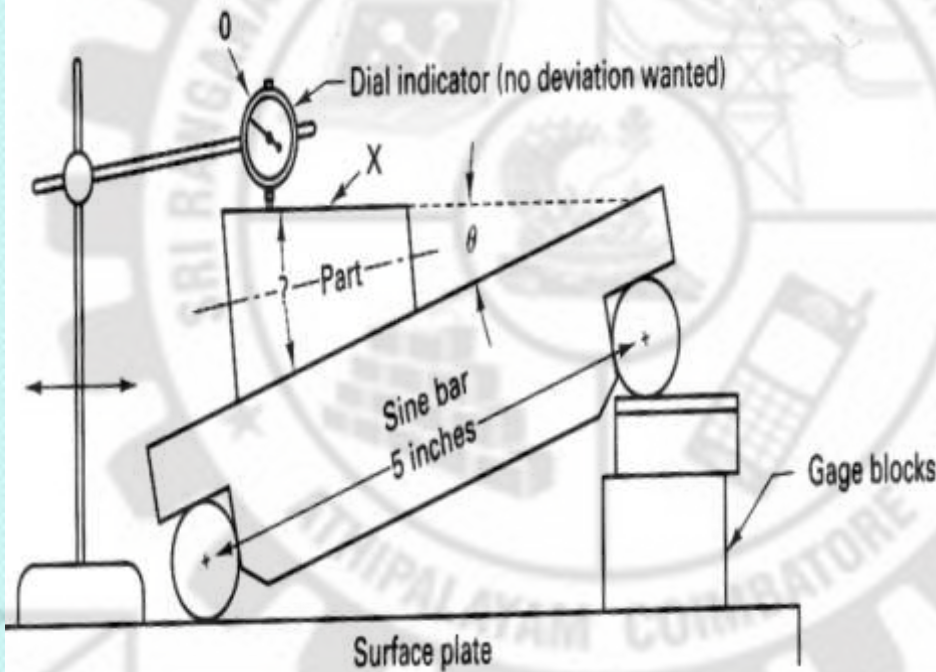


# Sine bars

- A sine bar is a tool used to measure angles in metalworking.
- It consists of a hardened, precision ground body with two precision ground cylinders fixed at each end, the rollers are positioned at a precise distance and the top of the bar is parallel to the center line of the rollers.
- The dimension between the two rollers is chosen to be a whole number (for ease of later calculations)



# Sine bars

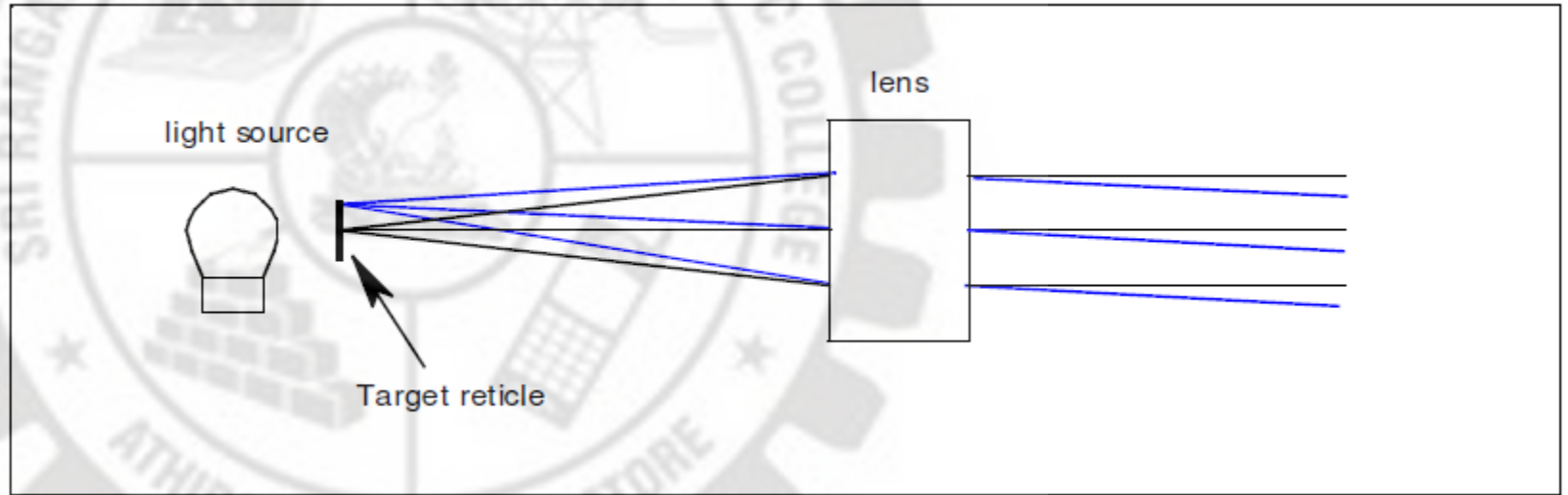


l = distance between centres of ground cylinders (typically 5" or 10")  
h = height of the gauge blocks  
 $\theta$  = the angle of the plate

$$\sin(\text{angle}) = \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}}$$

$$\theta = \text{asin}\left(\frac{h}{l}\right)$$

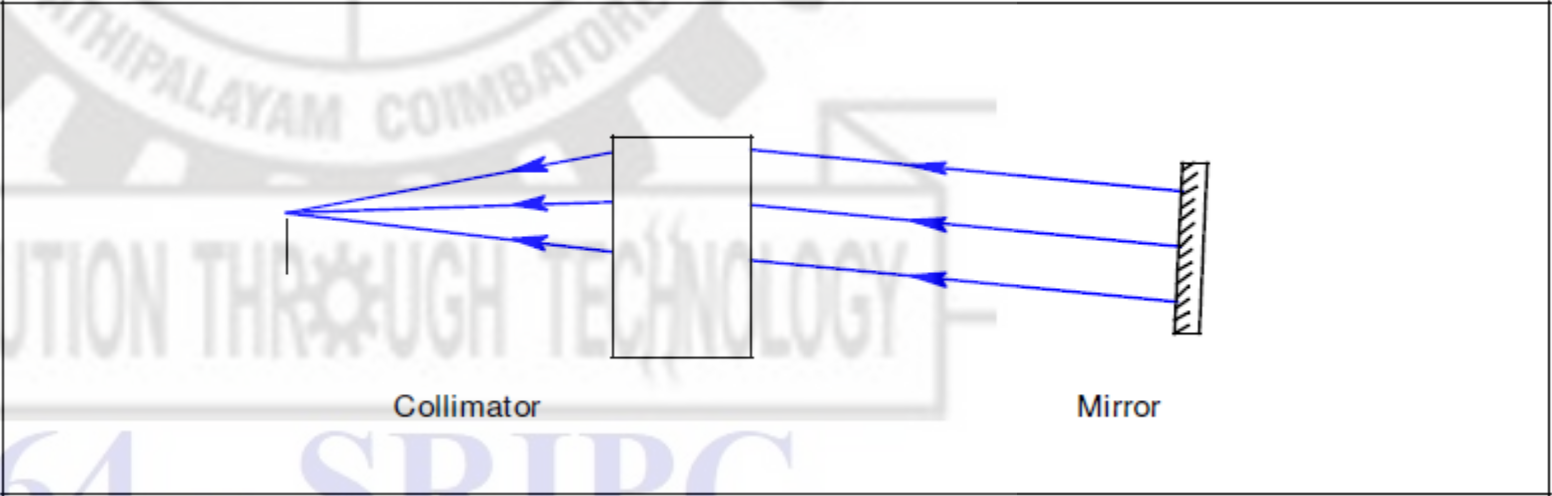
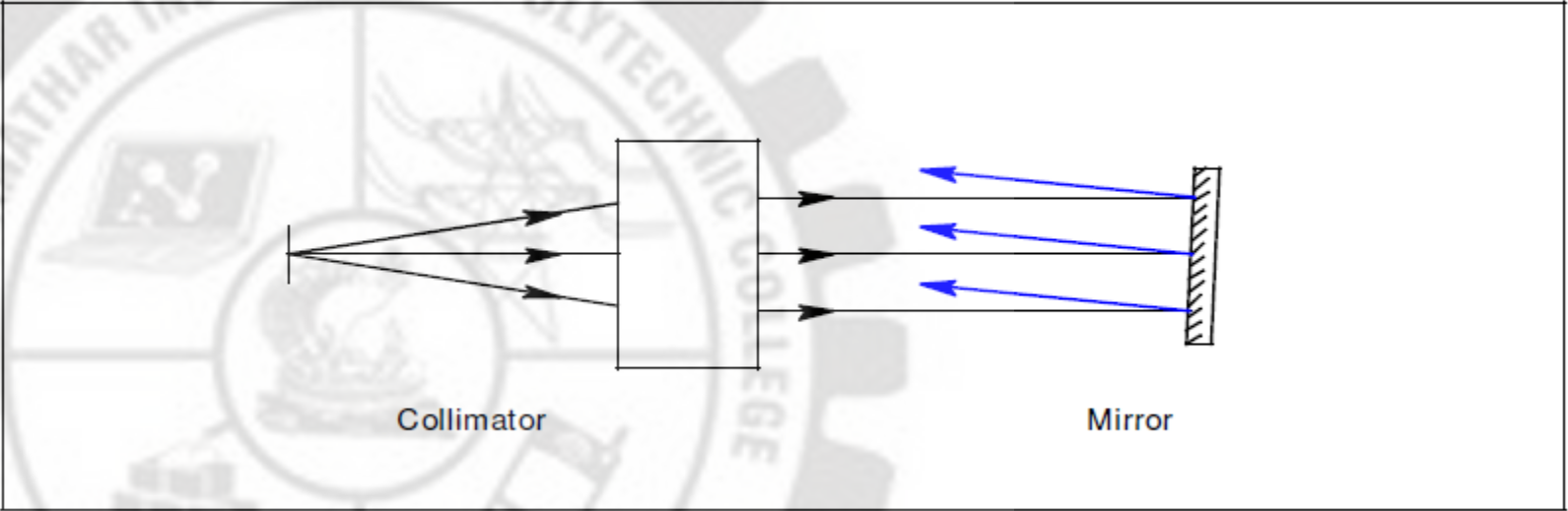
# Autocollimator

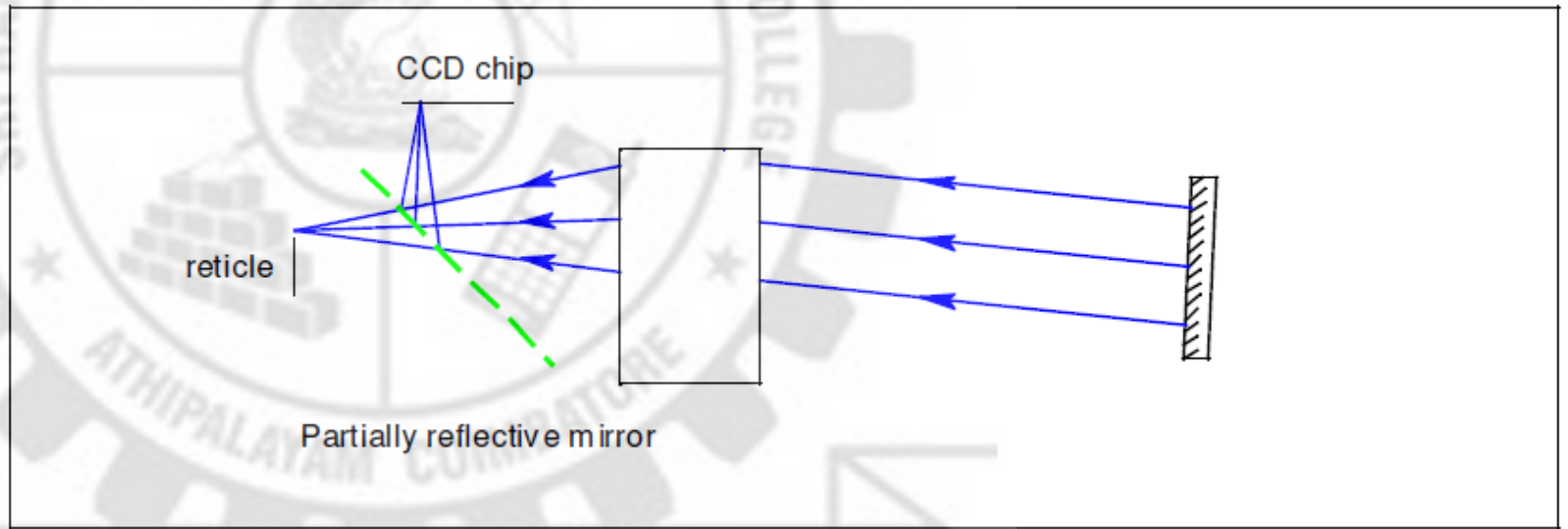


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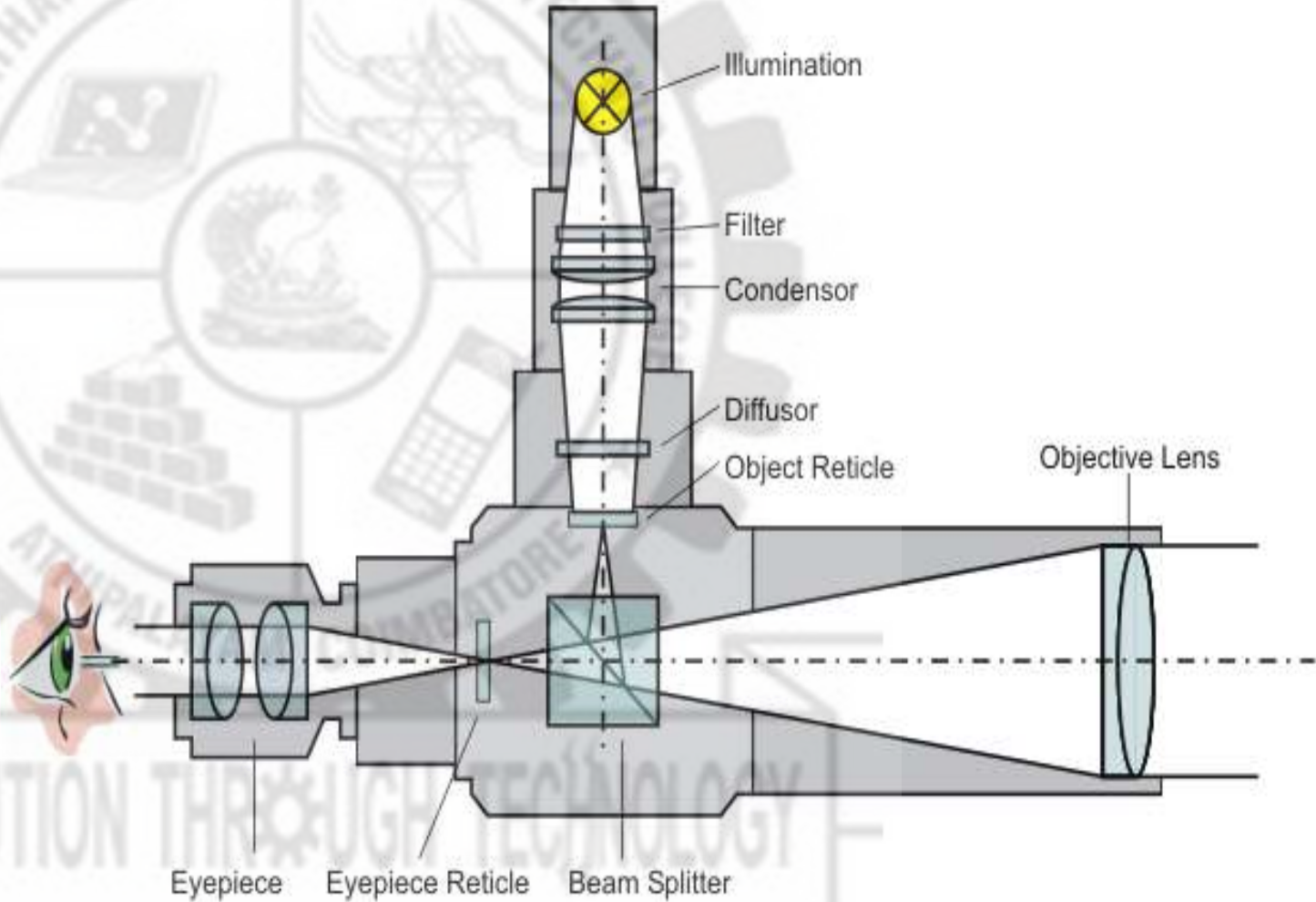
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The logo of Sri Ranganathar Institute of Polytechnic College is a circular emblem with a gear-like outer border. It is divided into four quadrants: top-left shows a laptop with a network diagram; top-right shows a hand holding a pen over a document; bottom-left shows a stack of books; bottom-right shows a keyboard. In the center is a crest featuring a lion and a tree. The text 'SRI RANGANATHAR INSTITUTE OF POLYTECHNIC COLLEGE' is written along the top inner edge, and 'ATHIPALAYAM COIMBATORE' is written along the bottom inner edge. Two stars are positioned on the left and right sides of the bottom inner edge.

**Thank you**

A horizontal banner with a ribbon-like top edge and a rectangular body. The text 'REVOLUTION THROUGH TECHNOLOGY' is written in a bold, sans-serif font. A gear icon is integrated into the word 'THROUGH'.

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<https://youtu.be/5YLvHXMr7f4> Optical Comparator

<https://youtu.be/TyM28gmhJcc> Pneumatic Comparator

<https://youtu.be/S-KAt9trTil> Electrical Comparator

<https://youtu.be/PkKOUOfrudw> Thread errors

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kXIRCJ9nGlo> gear tester

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# ADVANCES IN METROLOGY

## METROLOGY AND MEASUREMENTS

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# ADVANCES IN METROLOGY

Basic concept of lasers, advantages of lasers – laser interferometers – types – DC and AC lasers interferometer – Applications – Straightness – Alignment, Basic concept of CMM – Types of CMM – Constructional features – Probes – Accessories – Software – Applications – Basic concepts of Machine Vision System – Element – Applications.

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# LIGHT

- ❑ Light makes the world seem bright and colorful to our eyes.
- ❑ Light is a type of electromagnetic radiation that carries energy from a **SOURCE** (something that makes light) at the very high speed of 186,000 miles per second (300,000 kps), or 670 million mph.
- ❑ Light rays travel from their source in straight lines. Although they can pass through some objects, they bounce off others or pass around them to make **SHADOWS**.



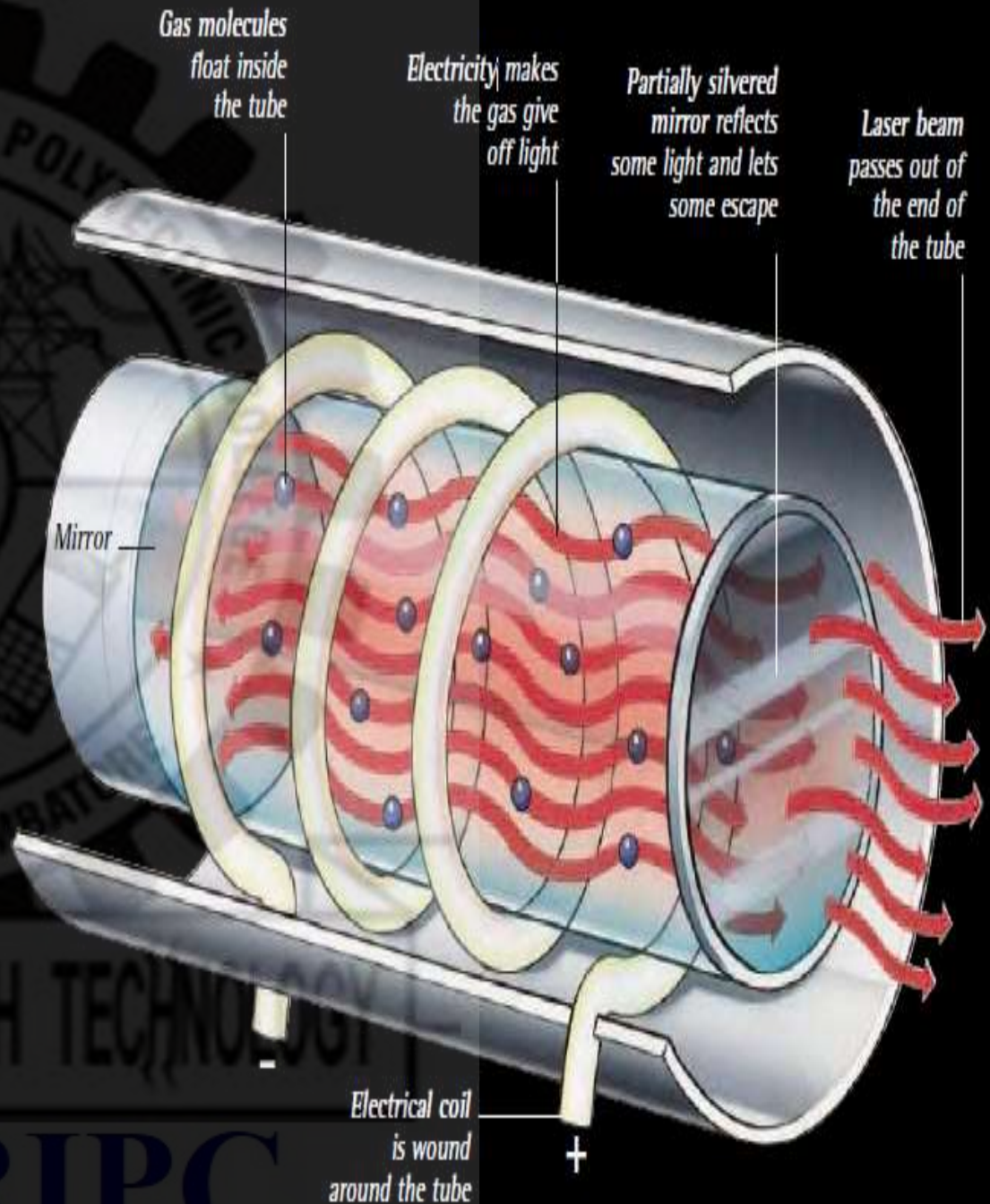
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# LASERS

Some beams of light are powerful enough to cut through metal. Others are precise enough to use for delicate surgery on people's bodies. These remarkable forms of light are made by lasers. Laser stands for Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation. A laser is a device that concentrates light rays so they all travel exactly in step. Laser rays are much more powerful and precise than other light rays.





# PRECISION INSTRUMENTS BASED ON LASER

- Laser stands for “**Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation**”. Laser instruments are devices to produce powerful, **monochromatic** collimated beam of light in which the waves are coherent
- Properties of laser
  - **Monochromatic**
  - **Collimated beam**
  - **Coherent waves**
  - **Powerful**
- A typical helium-neon laser source produces a **1 to 2 mm** diameter beam of pure red light having power of **1MW**. So, this type of a beam is focused at a point. It means, beam has very high intensity. The laser is used extensively for interferometer. Upto a great distance beam has no divergence but then it begins to expand at a rate of about **1mm/m**.
- This is used for very accurate measurements in the order of **0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  in 100m**.



# PRECISION INSTRUMENTS BASED ON LASER

- Laser are extensively used for interferometry
- Metrology laser are low power instrument that emit visible or infrared light.
- Light at a wave length of  $0.6\mu\text{ m}$  is produced by He-Ne lasers.
- Laser are used for dimensions measurements and surface inspection.

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# LASER TELEMETRIC SYSTEM

- In general , telemetry means measurement made from distance.
- To detect change in dimension of the moving components. As the output of the system is in digital form.
- Laser telemetric system is a non contact gauge that measures with a collimated laser beam. It measures at the rate of 150 scans per second.

## CONSTRUCTION

The laser telemetric system consists of mainly three components namely

1. Transmitter
2. Receiver
3. Processor electronics.

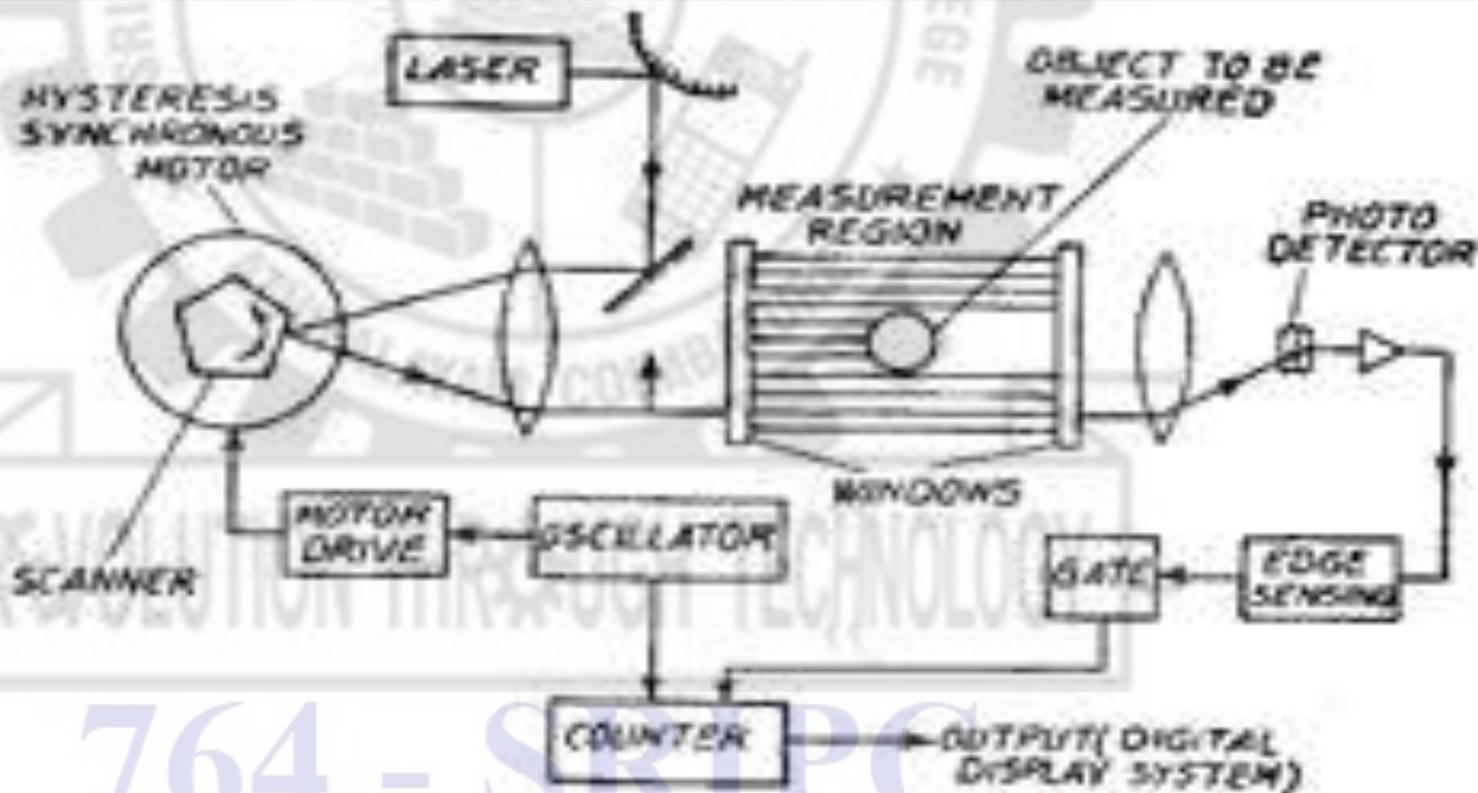
- The transmitter produces a collimated parallel scanning laser beam moving at a high constant linear speed. The beam appears as red line after scanning.
- The receiver collects the laser beam and photo electrically senses the laser light transmitted through the objects being measured. The processor receives the signal and converts it into convenient form.





The transmitter has the following components.

1. Low power helium neon gas laser.
2. Synchronous motor.
3. Collimating lens.
4. Reflector prism
5. Synchronous pulse photo detector.
6. Replaceable window



## WORKING

- The object to be measured is placed in the measurement region. High constant and linear speed laser beams from transmitter which is focused on the object to be measured. The receiver module collects and senses the laser light transmitted past the object to be measured.
- After sensing, the processor electronics take the received signals and convert them into a convenient form and then display the dimensions being gauged.

## ADVANTAGES:

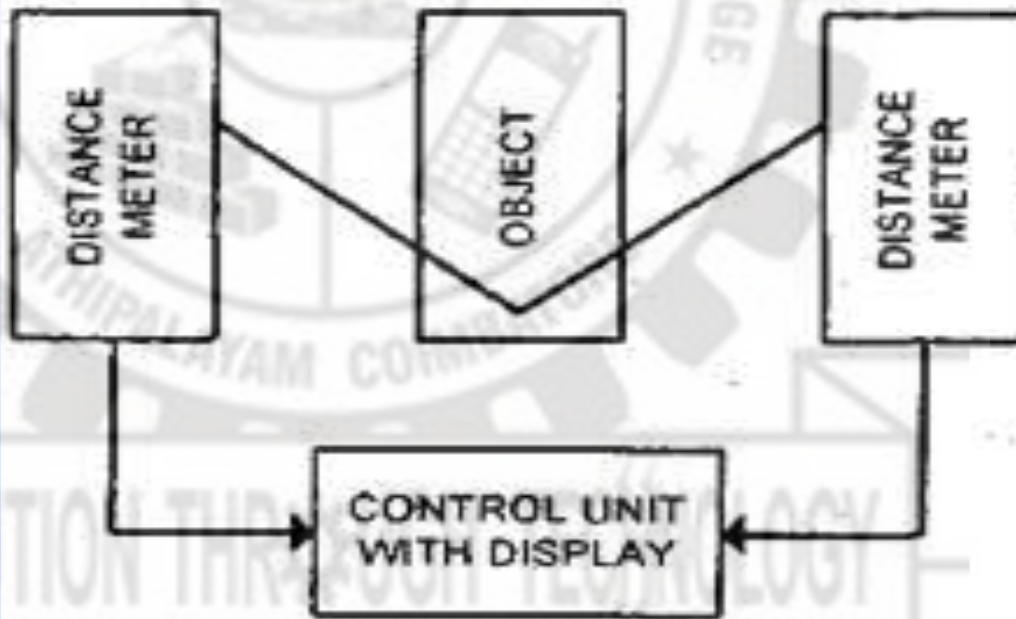
- It is possible to detect changes in dimensions when components are moving
- It is possible to detect changes in dimensions when product is in continuous processes.
- There is no need to wait for taking measurements when the product is in hot conditions
- It can be applied on production machines and controlled them with feedback loops
- It is possible to write programs for the microprocessor to take care of smoke, dust and other airborne interference around the work piece being measured.





# LASER AND LED BASED DISTANCE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

- It can measure distance from 1 to 2m with accuracy of the order of 0.1 to 1% of the measuring range. The measuring system uses two distance meter placed at equal distance on either side of the object and a control unit to measure the thickness of an object.





## **WORKING**

- When the light is emitted by laser or LED hits on object, it scatters and some of the scattered light is seen by a position sensitive detector or diode array.
- The angle at which the light enters the detector will change distance between the measuring head and object is changed. The change angle of deviation is measured and calibrated in terms of distance.

## **ADVANTAGE**

- These types of instruments are very reliable because there is no moving part.
- Instrument response time is in milliseconds.
- The output is measured as 0-20mA.

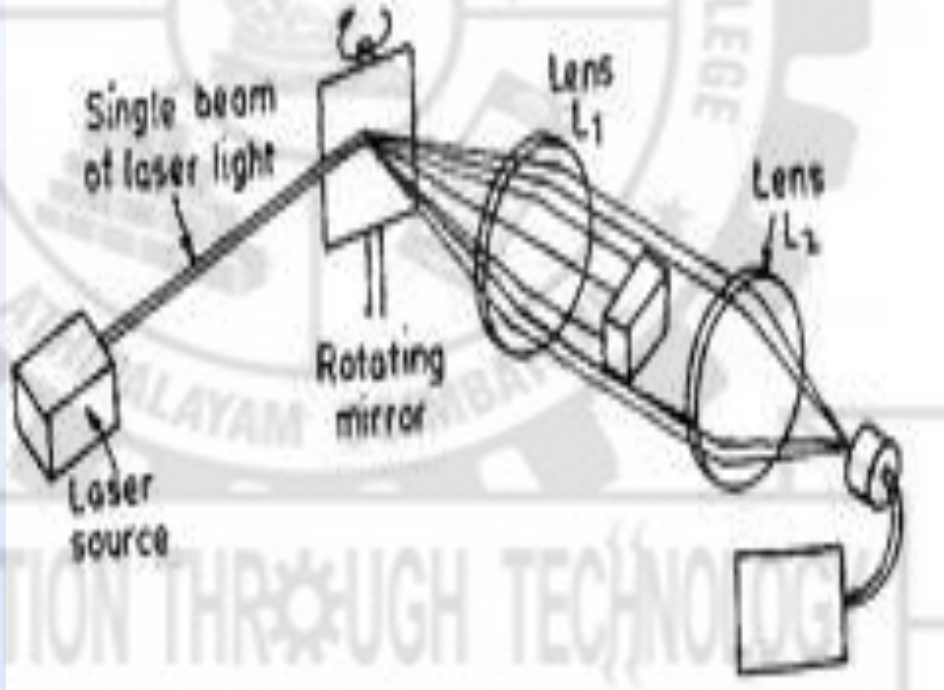
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## SCANNING LASER GAUGE

- The scanning laser gauge is used for dimensional measurements. The figure shows a schematic diagram of a scanning laser gauge. It consists of transmitter, receiver and processor electronics.



## WORKING

- A scanning laser light is made to pass through a liner scanner lens as a parallel beam. The object is placed in a parallel beam, casts a dependent shadow. The signals from the light entering the photocell are processed by a microprocessor to provide display of the dimension represented by the time difference between the shadow edges.

## ADVANTAGES

- Accuracy of  $\pm 0.25 \mu\text{m}$  for 10-50mm diameter objects.
- It is used to measure objects of 0.05mm to 450mm diameter.

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# INTERFEROMETRY

## INTRODUCTION

- The phenomenon of interaction of light is called interference.
- Under ordinary conditions, the wave nature of light is not apparent. But when the light waves interact with each other, the wave effect is visible and this is made use of for measuring purpose.
- A pattern of dark bands are produced when light is made to interfere. These bands correspond to accurate scale of division.
- The use of interferometric technique for measuring the interference, enables the size of slip gauges and end bars to be determined directly in terms of the wavelength of the light source



# MONOCHROMATIC LIGHT

- For length measurements by interferometry, monochromatic light source is used.
- A ray of light having a single frequency and wave length produces monochromatic light.

## ADVANTAGES

- It is virtually independent by any ambient conditions.
- Its wavelength has precise value.
- It is reproducible.

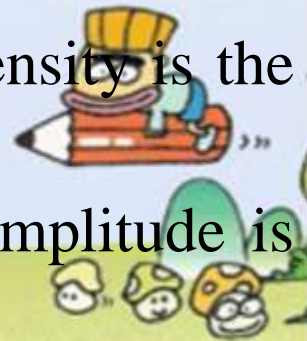
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# PRINCIPLES OF INTERFERENCE

- For interference to occur, the two light rays must be coherent. This is possible only when the two rays are originated from the same point of the light source at the same time.
- Mutual interference occurs when two rays with same wavelength meet at same point.
- The nature of interference will depend upon the phase of the two waves at their meeting point.
- The two waves are in same phase and they reinforce each other, then the resultant intensity is the sum of the two intensities.
- If these two waves that are in phase have the same amplitude, then the resultant amplitude become twice and a bright spot is resulted.
- The two waves are in out of phase, then the resultant intensity is the difference between the two intensities.
- If these two waves have same amplitude, the resultant amplitude is zero and a dark spot is resulted.





# INTERFEROMETERS

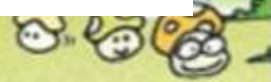
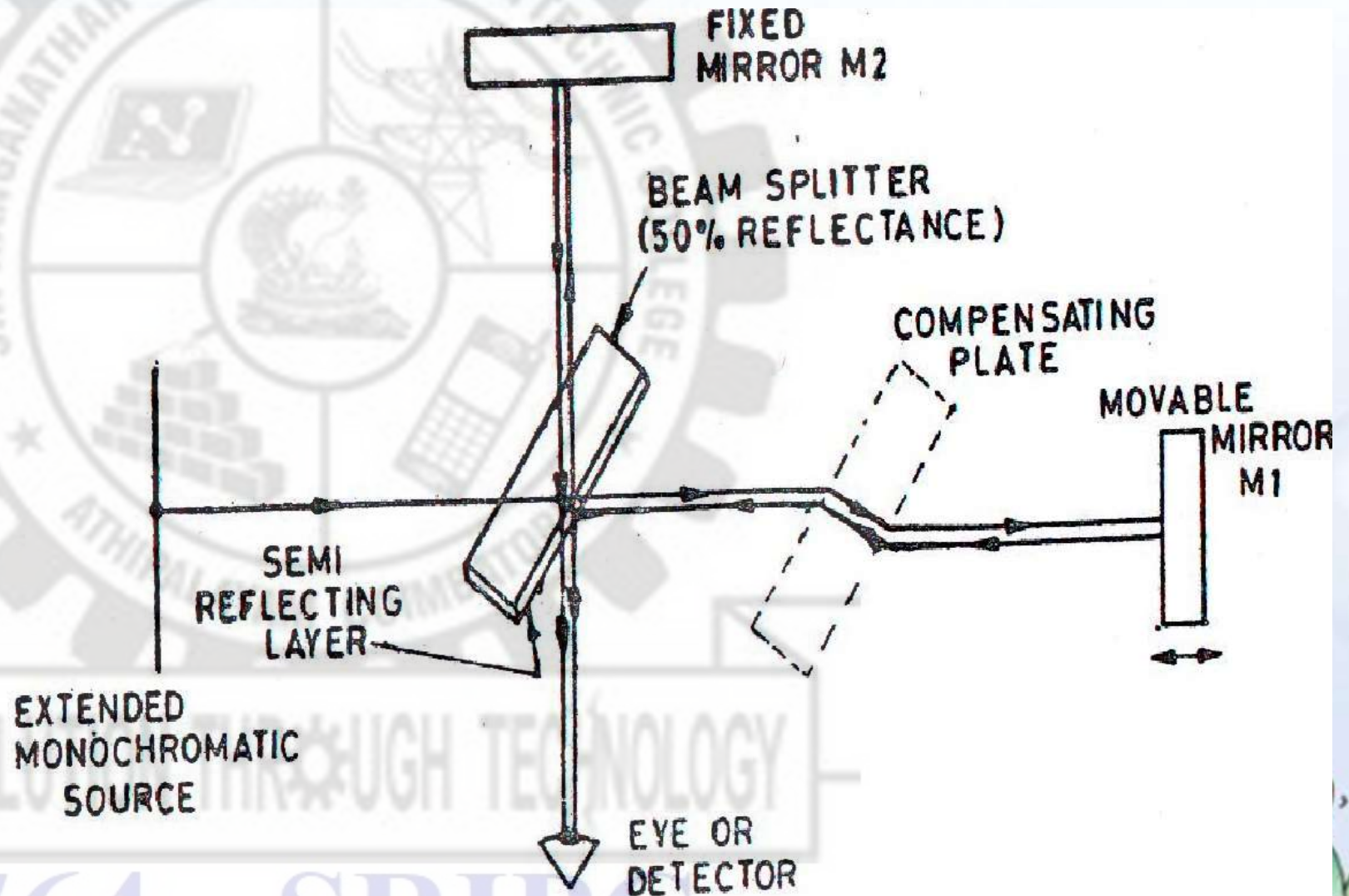
- Interferometers are optical instruments used for measuring flatness and determining the length of slip gauges.
  - The wavelength of lightwave is used for measuring unit.
  - It is based on the interference principle.
  - Interferometers are used to overcome the limitations of optical flat.

## Types of interferometers.

1. Michelson interferometers
2. Twyman- green specialization of Michelson interferometer
3. Laser interferometer
4. N.P.L flatness interferometer



# MICHELSON INTERFEROMETER





# MICHELSON INTERFEROMETER

## Construction and working:

- It is the oldest type of interferometer.
- The monochromatic light is made to fall on a beam divider. The beam divider splits the incoming light into two parts.
- It consists of two mirrors M1 and M2 placed perpendicular to each other from the beam divider.
- The mirror M2 is fixed whereas M1 is movable. It is attached to the object whose dimension is to be measured.
- One part of the incoming light is transmitted through compensating plate P to the mirror M1.
- Other part is reflected through the beam divider to mirror M2.
- The rays are reflected back from the mirror and are reunited at the semi-reflecting surface where they are transmitted to the eye.





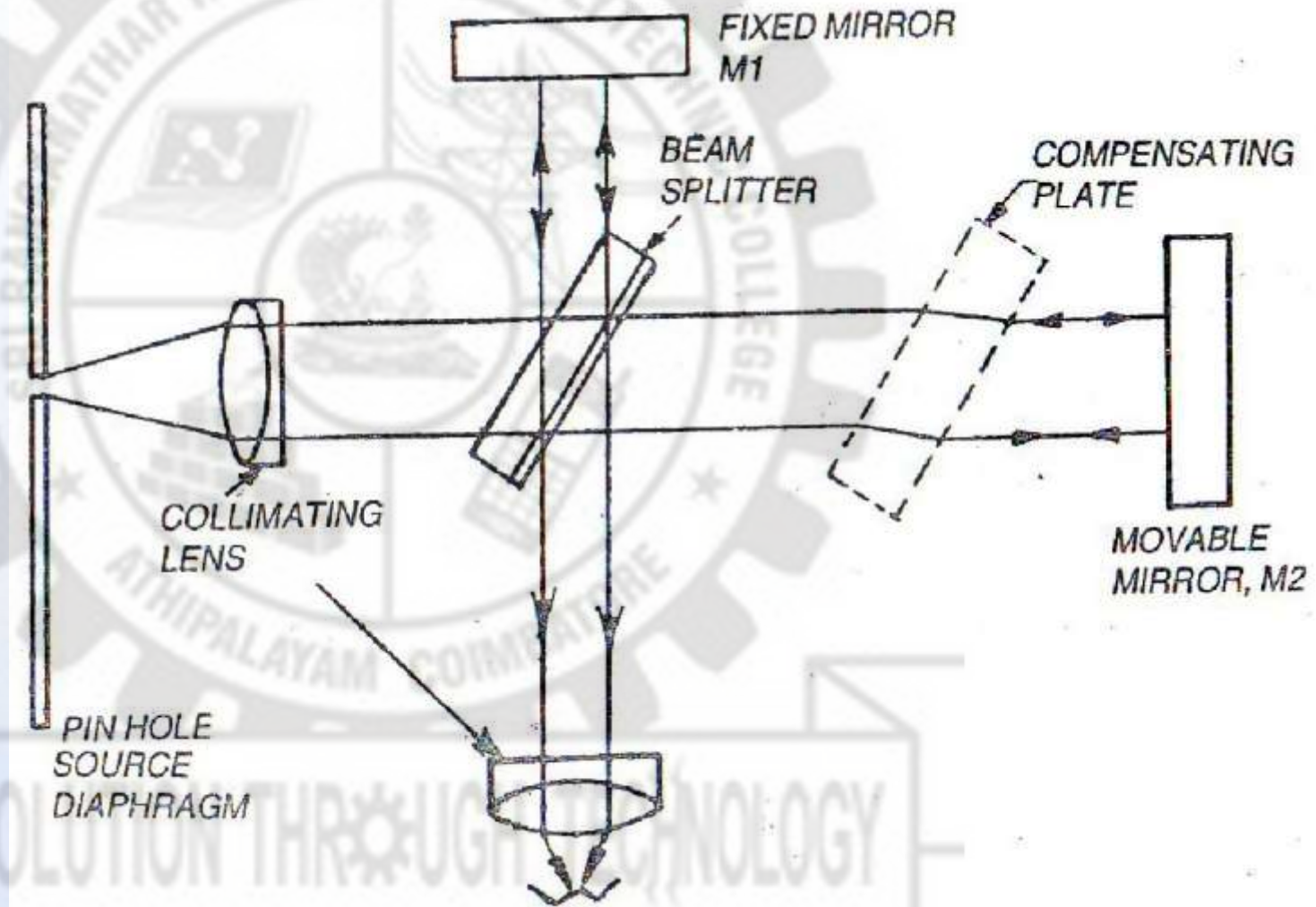
# TWYMAN –GREEN SPECIALISATION OF MICHELSON INTERFEROMETER

## Construction and working:

- In Michelson's interferometer, it is very difficult to interpret the fringe pattern.
- This was modified by Twyman -green. It utilises a pin -hole source diaphragm and collimating lenses.
- In this way , all rays are rendered parallel to the central rays and thus all rays describe the same path.
- It consists of two mirror M1 and M2 placed perpendicular to each other from the beam divider.
- The mirror M2 is fixed whereas M1 is movable. It is attached to the object whose dimension is to be measured.
- One part of the incoming light is transmitted through compensating plate P to the mirror M1.
- Other part is reflected through the beam divider to mirror M2.
- The rays are reflected back from the mirror and are reunited at the semi-reflecting surface where they are transmitted to the eye.
- Usually it is quite difficult to count such fringes by eye. However , photo detectors connected to high speed counters can do this job very accurately.



# TWYMAN-GREEN SPECIALISATION OF MICHELSON INTERFEROMETER



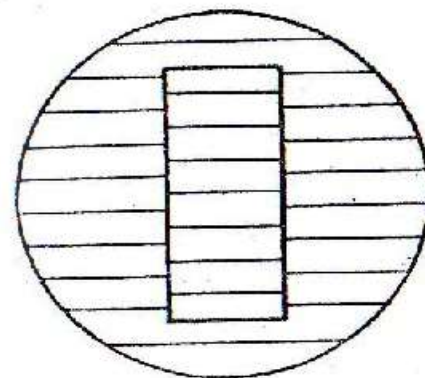
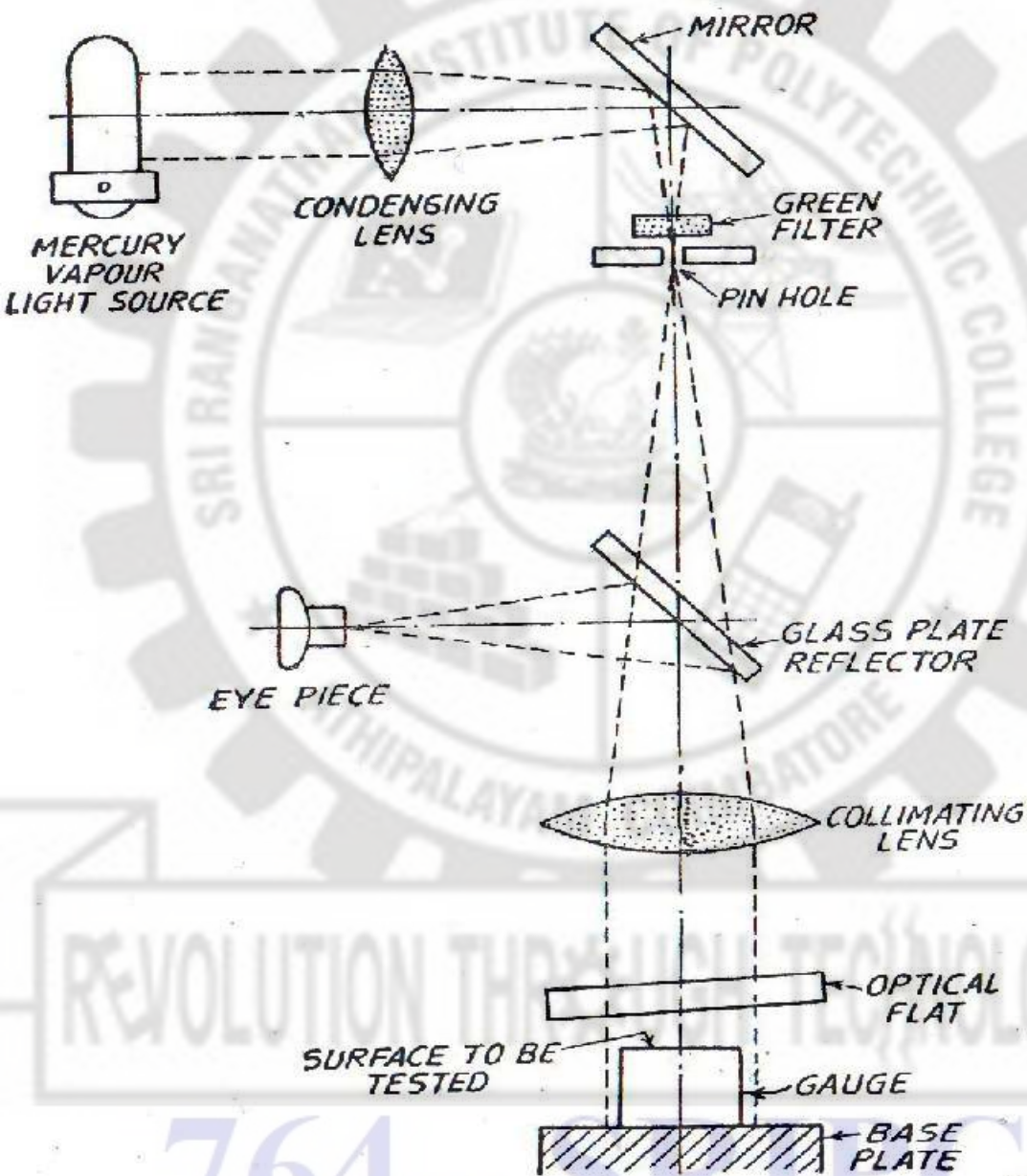


- This instrument is mainly used for checking the flatness of flat surfaces.
- This interferometer was designed by National Physical Laboratory and is commercially manufactured by Hilger and Watts Ltd.
- The flatness of any surface is judged by comparing with an optically flat surface which is generally the base plate of the instrument.
- This instrument essentially consists of a mercury vapour lamp as shown in the Fig. As we are interested in having single monochromatic source of light, the radiations of the mercury lamp are passed through a green filter. The wavelength of the resulting monochromatic radiation is of the order or 0.0005 mm.
- This radiation is then brought to focus on pinhole in order to obtain an intense point source of light. A mirror is used in order to deflect the light beam through  $90^\circ$ .

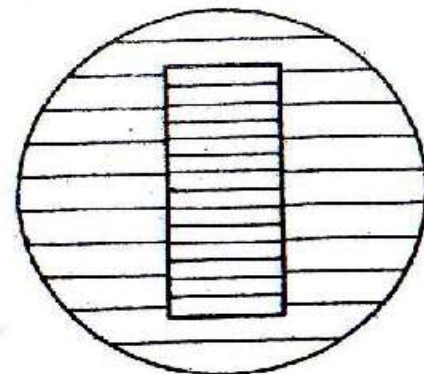




# N.P.L. FLATNESS INTERFEROMETER



(a) Gauge face flat and parallel to base plate.



(b) Gauge face flat but not parallel to base plate.

NPL flatness interferometer.

- The pinhole is placed in the focal plane of a collimating lens, thus the radiations out of the lens will be parallel beam of light. This beam is directed on the gauge to be tested via an optical flat. The fringes formed are viewed directly above by means of a thick glass plate semi-reflector set at  $45^\circ$  to the optical axis.
- The gauge to be tested is wrung on the base plate whose surface is finished to a degree comparable to that of the highest quality gauge face.
- If the gauge face is flat and parallel to the base plate, then the optical flat being equally inclined on both the surfaces the fringe pattern from both the gauge face and the base plate will consist of straight, parallel and equally spaced fringes as shown in Fig. 3. (a).
- When the gauge is flat but not parallel to the base plate, then straight and parallel fringes of different pitch above the gauge face as compared with those of the base plate are seen Fig. 3. (b)

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# LASER INTERFEROMETRY

The laser interferometry involves the following components,

1. Two frequency laser source.
2. Optical elements.
3. Laser heads measurement receiver.
4. Measurement display.

## Two frequency laser source

- ✚ The two frequency laser source generally becomes  $\text{He-Ne}$  type that generates stable coherent light beams of two frequencies. In these two frequencies, one polarized horizontally relative to the plane of the mounting feet.
- ✚ Laser slightly oscillates at two frequencies by a cylindrical permanent magnet around the cavity.
- ✚ Beam containing both frequencies passes through a quarter wave and half wave plates which change the circular polarization, one vertical and other horizontal.
- ✚ The linear polarized beam is expanded in a collimating telescope, after which most of the beam is transmitted through a  $45^\circ$  beam splitter and one of laser head.



## Optical elements

The various optical elements are

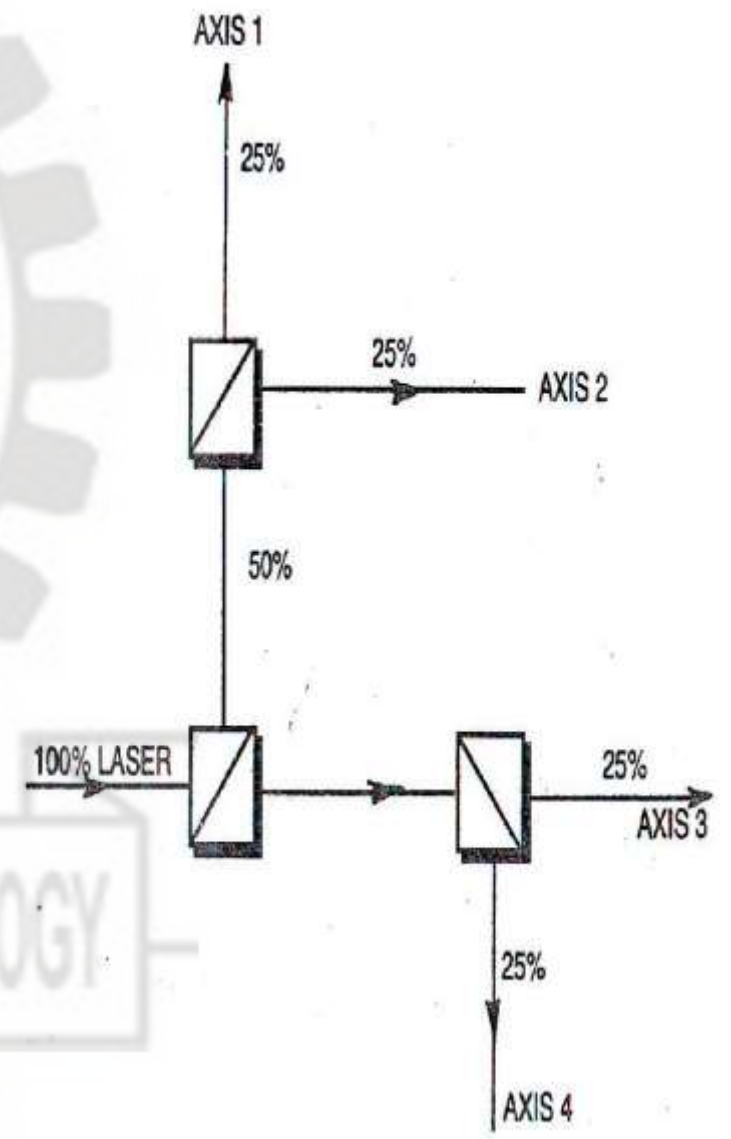
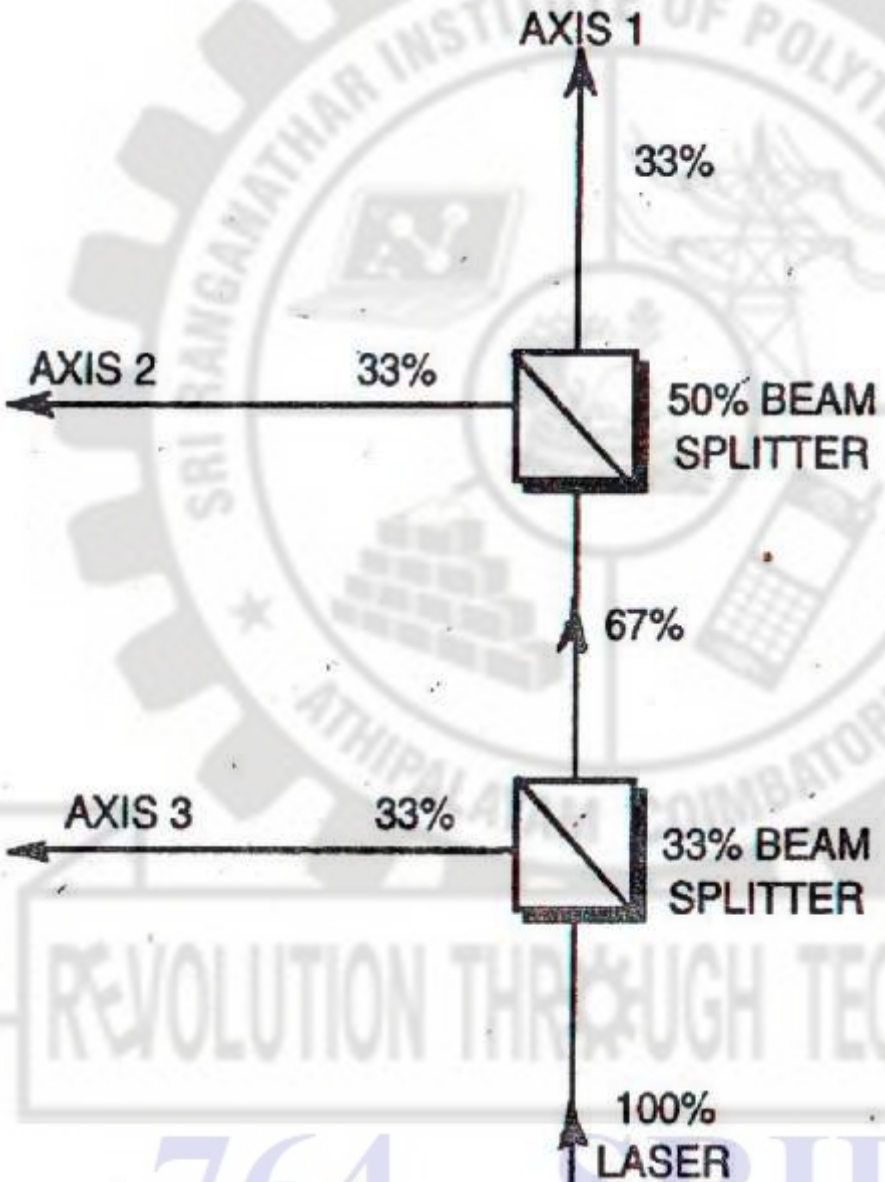
1. Beam splitters.
2. Beam benders
3. Retro reflectors

### 1. Beam splitters

- ✚ It is used to divide the laser beam in to separate beams along different axes. It is possible to adjust the splitters laser's output intensity by having a choice of beam splitter reflectivities.
- ✚ The below fig shows the use of beam splitters to divide the laser output equally along the different axis. For example, tacking 100% laser beam is splitted equally in three axes.

### 2. Beam benders

- ✚ It is used to deflect the light beam around comers on it path from the laser to the axis .the beam benders are just flat mirrors ,but having absolute flat and very high reflectivity .nomally .the  $90^\circ$  beam deflection is avoided for not to disturb the polarizing vectors.



### 3. Retro reflectors

- ✦ They are plane mirrors, roof prism or cubic corners. The cube corners are 3 mutually perpendicular plane mirrors, and the reflected beam is always parallel to the incident beam in these devices.
- ✦ In case of AC laser interferometer measurements, two retro reflectors are used. When plane mirror is used as retro reflector in plane mirror interferometer, it must be flat within 0.06micron per cm

### 3. LASER HEAD'S MEASUREMENT RECEIVER:

- ✦ It is used to detect the part of the returning beam as  $f1-f2$  and a Doppler shifted frequency component  $\Delta f$ .

### 4. MEASUREMENT DISPLAY:

- ✦ The measurement display has a microcomputer to compute and display results. The signals from reference receiver and measurement receiver located in the laser head are counted in two separate pulse counter and subtract. Other input signals for correction are temperature co-efficient of expansions. Air velocity is also displayed.



# A.C LASER INTERFEROMETER

## Introduction

Laser interferometer uses A.C laser as the light source and thus it enables the measurements to be made over longer distance. Laser represents a source of intensively monochromatic optical energy, which can be collimated into a directional beam. The laser beam wavelength is exact and pure for highly accurate measurements. The laser interferometers utilize the principles of both optical techniques and digital electronics.

## Construction

The AC laser interferometer has the following components.

1. Two frequency Zeeman laser
2. Beam splitters.
3. Fixed internal cube comers.

4. External cube comers.
5. Photo detectors.
6. Amplifiers.
7. Pulse converter.

### 1. Two frequency Zeeman laser.

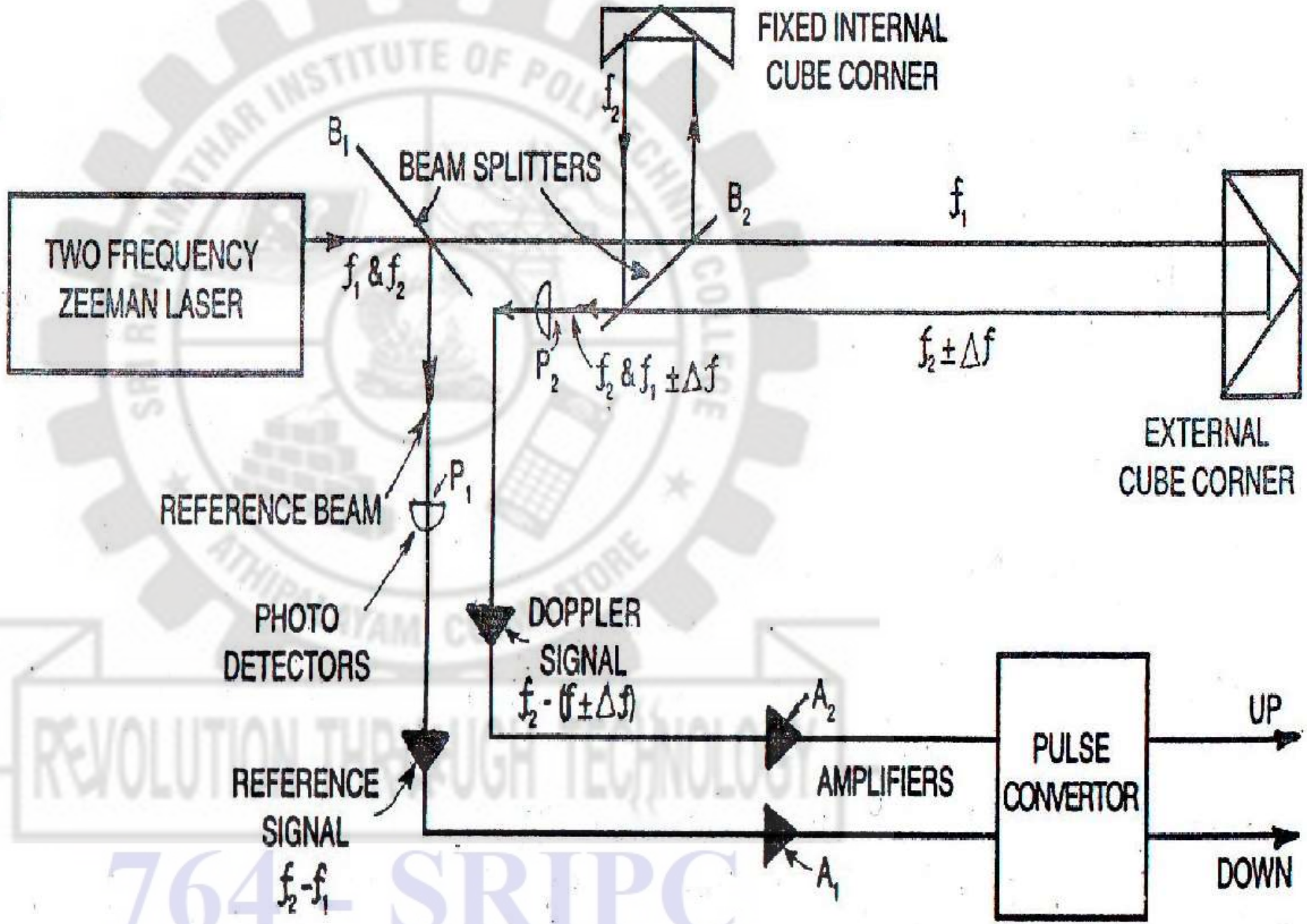
It is generally He-Ne type that generates stable coherent light beams of two frequencies, one is polarized vertically and the other one is polarized horizontally relative to the plane of the mounting.

### 2. Beam splitters

It divides the laser beam into separate beams along different axis. It is possible to adjust the splitted laser's output intensity by having a choice of beam splitter reflectivities.

### 3. Cube comers

The cube comers can be plane mirrors roof prisms. Each AC laser interferometers are required at least two retro frequencies. One is fixed external cube comer and another one is external cube comer. Both the cube comers are used to reflect the laser beam.





#### 4. Photo detectors

Photo detectors receive the signal from the beam splitters and change into electrical signal.

#### 5. Amplifiers

There are two amplifiers used in AC laser interferometer. It is used to separate the frequency difference.

#### 6. Pulse converter

The pulse converter is used to extract change in frequency  $\Delta f$ .

#### Working

The two frequencies Zeeman laser generate light of two slightly different frequencies with opposite circular polarizations. The beams are split by the beam splitters B1. In this, one part travels towards B2 and from B2 to external cube corners, where the displacement is measured.

Beams splitter B2 optically separates the frequencies  $f_1$  which is sent to a fixed reflector and then rejoins  $f_1$  at the beam splitter B2 to produce alternate light and dark interference. Now, the external cube corner moves which it will produce a change in  $f_1$  (i.e.,  $\Delta f_1$ ) in the returning beam frequency. So, the light beams move towards photo detectors p2 having frequencies  $f_2$  (i.e.,  $f_1 + \Delta f_1$ ) and p2 will be changed into electrical signal.

The photo detector p1 receives signal from beam splitter B1 and changes the reference beam  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  into electrical signal. The two amplifiers A1 and A2 separate frequency difference signals  $f_2 - f_1$  and  $f_2 - (f_1 + \Delta f)$ . The pulse converter extracts  $\Delta f$  and displays in the form of pulses in analog or digital form in the output.

# Basic Principles of Coordinate Measuring machines

A coordinate measuring machine (CMM) is a device for measuring the physical geometrical characteristics of an object.

This machine may be manually controlled by an operator or it may be computer controlled.

Measurements are defined by a probe attached to the third moving axis of this machine. Probes may be mechanical, optical, laser, or white light, among others.





## DESCRIPTION

CMM is composed of three axes, an X, Y and Z. These axes are orthogonal to each other in a typical three dimensional coordinate system.

- Each axis has a scale system that indicates the location of that axis. The machine will read the input from the touch probe, as directed by the operator or programmer.
- The machine then uses the X,Y,Z coordinates of each of these points to determine size and position. Typical precision of a coordinate measuring machine is measured in Microns, or Micrometers, which is 1/1,000,000 of a meter.
- A coordinate measuring machine (CMM) is also a device used in manufacturing and assembly processes to test a part or assembly against the design intent. By precisely recording the X, Y, and Z coordinates of the target, points are generated which can then be analyzed via regression algorithms for the construction of features.
- These points are collected by using a probe that is positioned manually by an operator or automatically via Direct Computer Control (DCC). DCC CMMs can be programmed to repeatedly measure identical parts, thus a CMM is a specialized form of industrial robot.



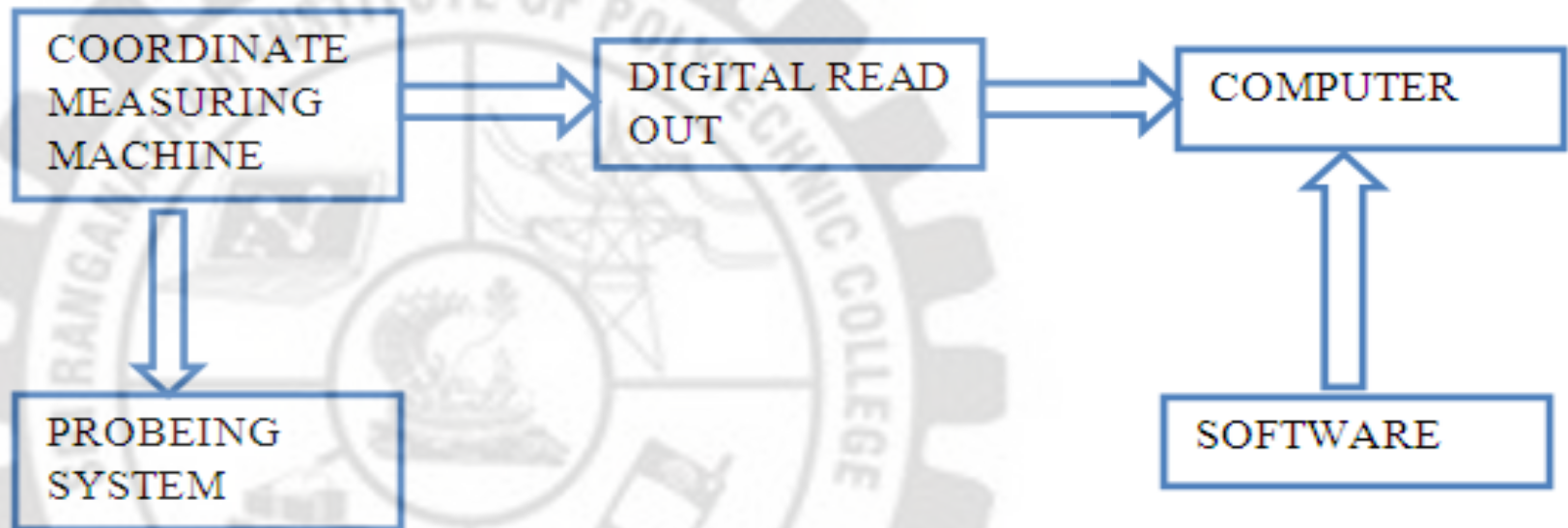


# Parts

- Coordinate-measuring machines include four main components:
  1. The main structure which include three axes of motion
  2. Probing system
  3. Data collection and Reduction system - typically includes a machine controller, desktop computer.
  4. Application software



## BLOCK DIAGRAM OF THE ELEMENTS OF A CMM



A basic Co-ordinate Measuring Machine consists of four elements.

- 1) The machine structure which is basically an X-Y-Z positioning device.
- 2) The Probing system use to collect raw data on the part and provide input to the control system.
- 3) Machine Control and Computer hardware.
- 4) The Software for three dimensional analyses.

# Uses

They are often used for:

- Dimensional measurement
- Profile measurement
- Angularity or orientation measurement
- Depth mapping
- Digitizing or imaging
- Shaft measurement





# Feature Based Measurement

- **Form**
  - straightness, flatness, roundness, cylindricity, sphericity
- **Orientation**
  - parallelism, perpendicularity, concentricity, angularity
- **Profile**
  - profile (scanning), surface (manual), output (graphics)



# ADVANTAGES OF USING CMM

## FLEXIBILITY:

- Co-ordinate measuring machines are essentially universal measuring machines and do not need to be dedicated to any single or particular measuring task.
- They can measure practically any dimensional characteristic of virtually any part configuration, including cams, gears, and contoured surfaces.
- No special fixtures or gages are required; because electronic probe contact is light, most parts can be inspected without being clamped to a surface plate.

## REDUCED SETUP TIME:

- Establishing part alignment and appropriate reference points are very time consuming with conventional surface-plate inspection techniques.
- These procedures are greatly simplified or virtually eliminated through software available on computer-assisted or computer-controlled CMMs.





# IMPROVED ACCURACY:

- All measurements on a CMM are taken from a common geometrically fixed measuring system, eliminating the introduction and accumulation of errors that can result with hard gage inspection methods and transfer techniques.
- Moreover, measuring all significant features of a part in one setup prevents the introduction of errors due to setup changes.
- In the part-program-assisted mode, the operator positions the machine; once the initial position has been set, the machine is under the control of a program that eliminates operator choice.
- In the Computer Numerically Controlled (CNC) mode, motor-driven machines run totally unattended by operators.
- Also, automatic data recording, available on most machines, prevents errors in transcribing readings to the inspection report.
- This all adds up to the fact that less skilled operators can be readily instructed to perform relatively complex inspection procedures.





## **IMPROVED PRODUCTIVITY:**

- All the factors previously mentioned help to make CMMs more productive than conventional inspection techniques.
- Further dramatic productivity improvements are realized through the computational and analytical capabilities of associated data handling systems, including calculators and all levels of computers.

REVOLUTION THROUGH TECHNOLOGY

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- All CMMs will have three moving elements of which one is capable of moving in x-axis, another in y-axis and another in z-axis with respect to each other.
- Each moving element is also fitted with a linear measurement transducer for positional feedback, with the help of which we can have the co-ordinate of a particular position with respect to a reference.
- The moving elements can be moved by means of frictionless air bearings or mechanical bearings.
- The Job to be measured will be mounted over a table made of granite because of its stability in various temperatures.
- The work table of the machine generally consists of tapped holes to facilitate clamping and locating of parts.
- A total of 11 different machine configurations exist; however, some of these configurations are modifications of one of the five primary configurations:



# MACHINE CONFIGURATIONS

- A variety of machine configurations is available from the manufacturers of CMMs.
- Each configuration has advantages that make it suitable for particular applications.
- A total of 11 different machine configurations exist; however, some of these configurations are modifications of one of the four primary configurations: bridge, column, gantry, and horizontal arm.

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# **TYPES OF CMM**

- 1. Cantilever type**
- 2. Bridge type**
- 3. Column type**
- 4. Gantry type**
- 5. Horizontal type.**

## **CANTILEVER TYPE**

- The probe is attached to the vertical quill that moves in a Z-axis direction relative to a horizontal arm that over hangs the work table.**
- The quill can be moved along the length of the arm to achieve y-axis motion, and the arm can be moved to the work table to achieve x-axis motion.**

### **Advantages**

- Convenient access to the work table and its relatively small floor space requirements**

### **Disadvantages**

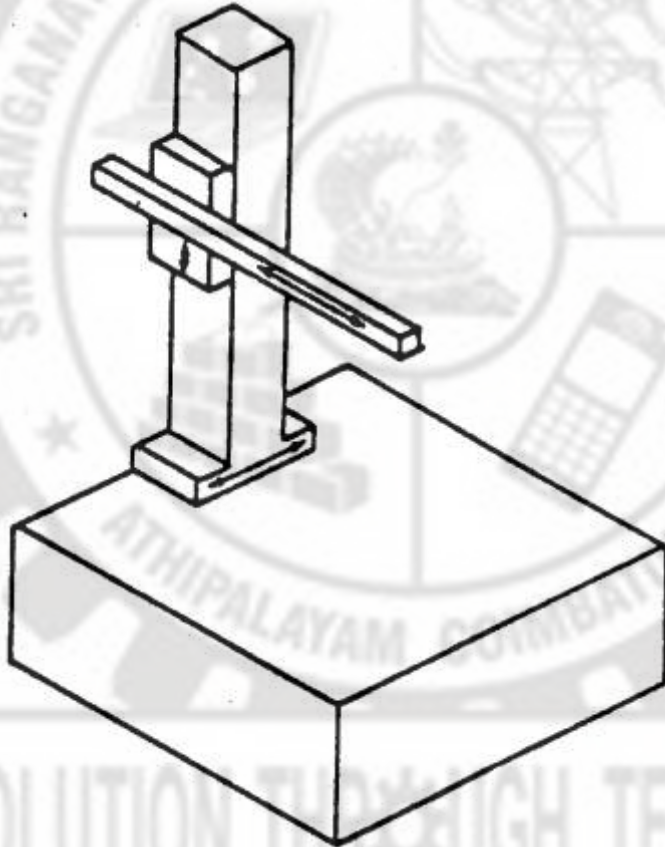
- Lower rigidity than some of the other CMM construction**

### **Types of cantilever**

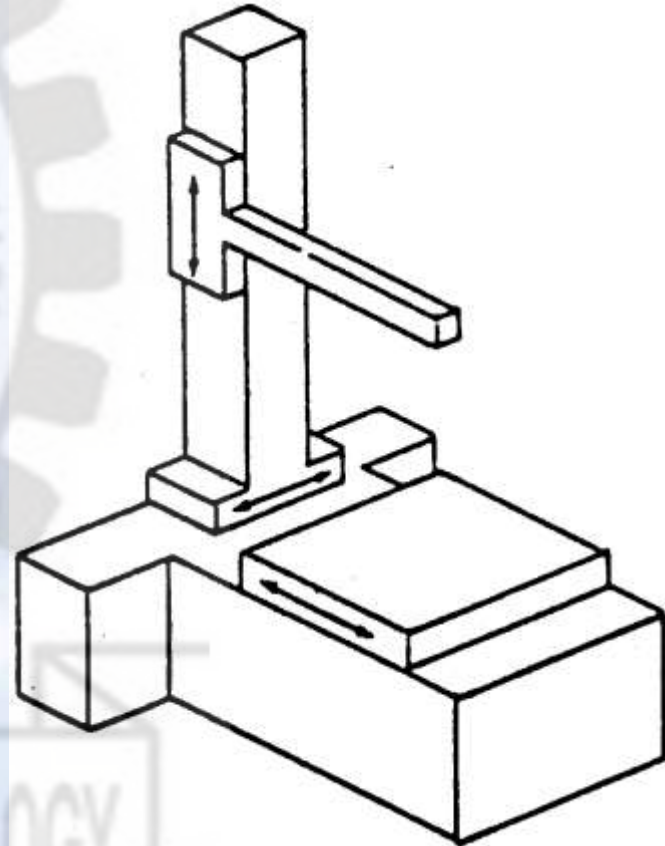
- 1. Moving Table Horizontal Arm CMM**
- 2. Moving Arm Horizontal Arm CMM**
- 3. Column CMM**
- 4. Fixed Table Horizontal Arm CMM**



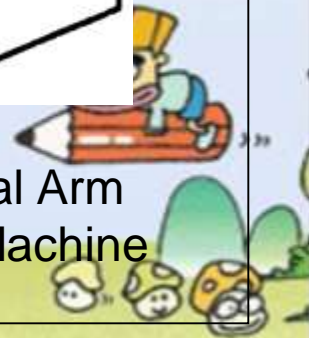
# Types of CMM



Moving Arm Horizontal Arm  
Coordinate Measuring Machine

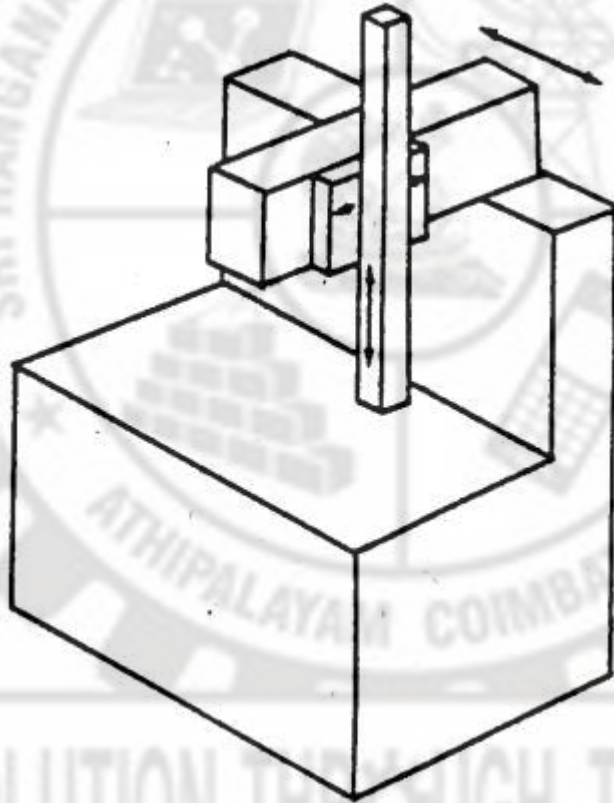


Moving Table Horizontal Arm  
Coordinate Measuring Machine

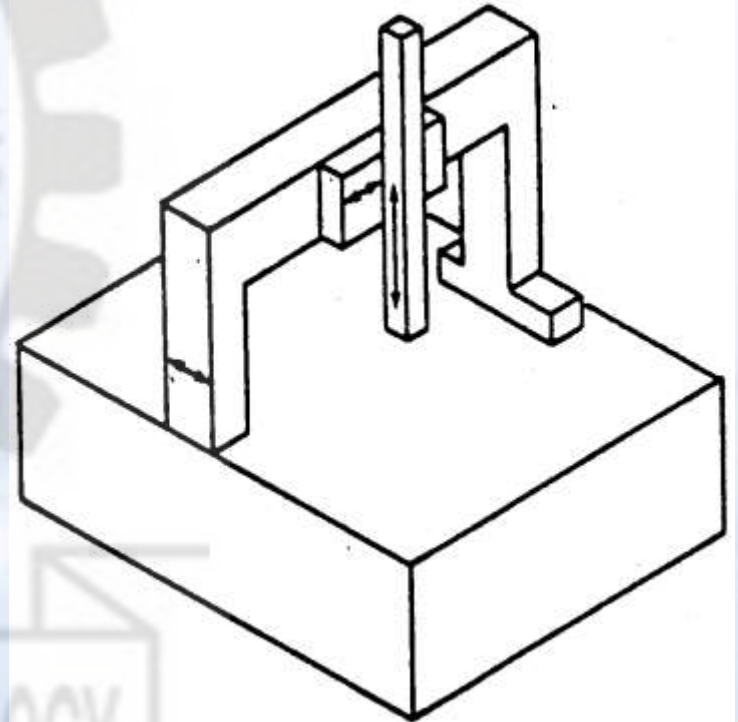




# Types of CMM



Fixed Table Cantilever Coordinate Measuring Machine



Moving Bridge Coordinate Measuring Machine



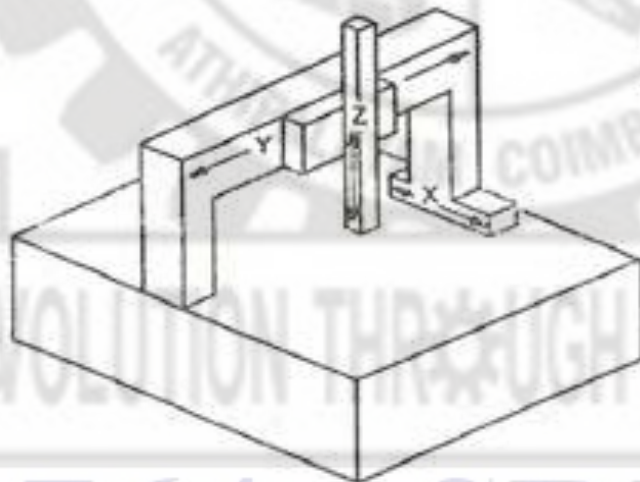


## BRIDGE:

- It is difficult to load but less sensitive to mechanical errors.
- Bridge-type coordinate measuring machines employ three movable components moving along mutually perpendicular guide ways.
- This eliminates pitching and yawing moments on the bridge assembly, allowing higher acceleration and deceleration rates.
- The bridge-type CMM is the most popular configuration.
- The double-sided support of this type of CMM provides more support for large and medium-sized machines.
- The bridge can slide back on the base to give complete accessibility to the working area for safe, easy loading and unloading of parts.

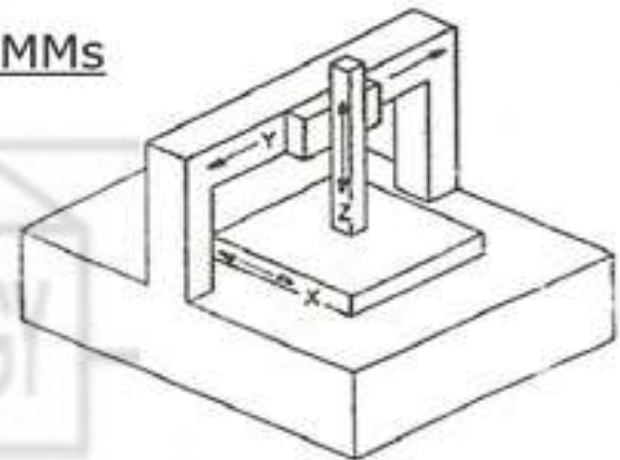
- Traveling-bridge CMMs have longer Y strokes for less cost than do cantilever-type CMMs.
- However, because of the weight of the extra support, the inertia of the moving mass is greater than in the cantilever configuration.
- In addition, the parts being measured with this type of CMM cannot be wider than the clearance between the two sides of the bridges.

### Bridge type CMMs



(a)

**Moving bridge**



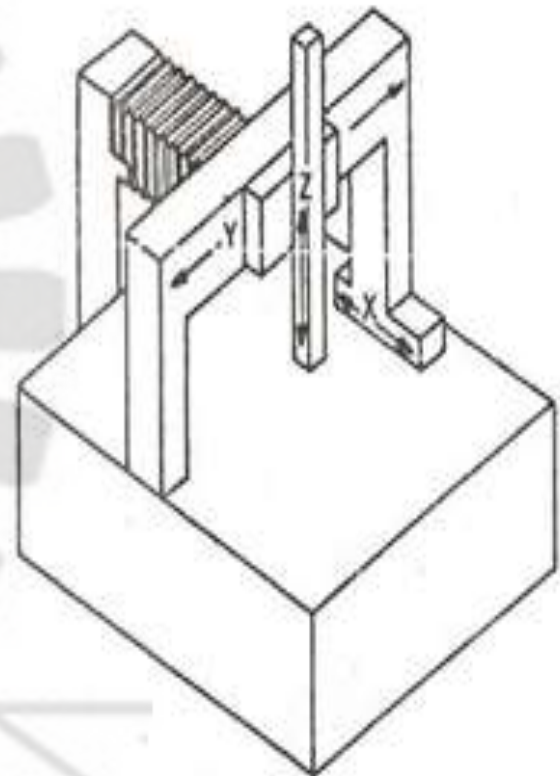
(b)

**Fixed bridge**



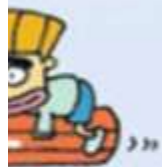
(c)

**L-shaped bridge**



(d)

**Central drive bridge**





## COLUMN:

- Column-type CMMs are similar in construction to accurate jig boring machines.
- The column moves in a vertical (Z) direction only, and a two-axis saddle permits movement in the horizontal (X and Y) direction.
- Column-type CMMs are often referred to as universal measuring machines rather than CMMs by manufacturers and are considered gage-room instruments rather than production-floor m/c.



## GANTRY:

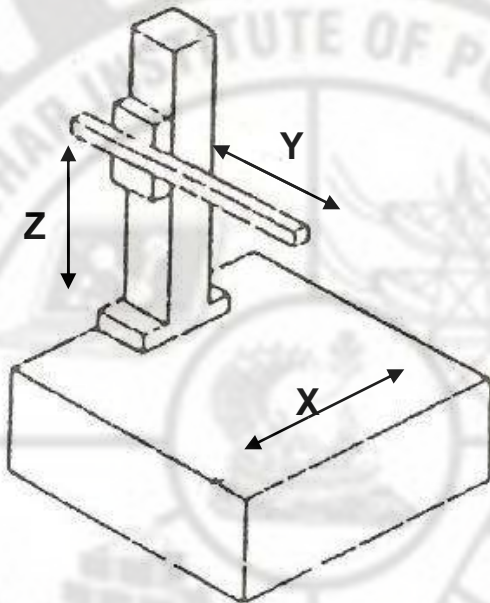
- Gantry-type CMMs employ three movable components moving along mutually perpendicular guide ways.
- The probe is attached to the probe quill, which moves vertically (Z direction) relative to a cross beam.
- The probe quill is mounted in a carriage that moves horizontally (Y direction) along the cross beam.
- The cross beam is supported and moves in the X direction along two elevated rails, which are supported by columns attached to the floor.
- The gantry-type configuration was initially introduced in the early 1960s to inspect large parts such as airplane fuselages, automobile bodies, ship propellers, and diesel engine blocks.
- The open design permits the operator to remain close to the part being inspected while minimizing the inertia of the moving machine parts and maintaining structural stiffness.

## HORIZONTAL ARM:

- Several different types of horizontal arm CMMs are available.
- As is typical of all CMMs, the horizontal arm CMMs employ three movable components moving along mutually perpendicular guideways.
- The probe is attached to the first component, which moves vertically (Z direction) relative to the second.
- The second component moves horizontally (Y direction) relative to the third. The third component is supported on two legs that reach down to opposite sides of the machine base and moves horizontally (X direction) relative to the base.
- Another modification of the bridge configuration has two bridge-shaped components.
- One of these bridges is fixed at each end to the machine base. The other bridge, which is an inverted L-shape, moves horizontally (X direction) on guideways in the fixed bridge and machine base.
- A third modification of moving-bridge configuration is the central-bridge drive. The drive forces are applied to the center of mass of the bridge assembly.
- This configuration employs three movable components moving along mutually perpendicular guideways. In the moving-arm design, the probe is attached to the horizontal arm, which moves in a horizontal Y direction.

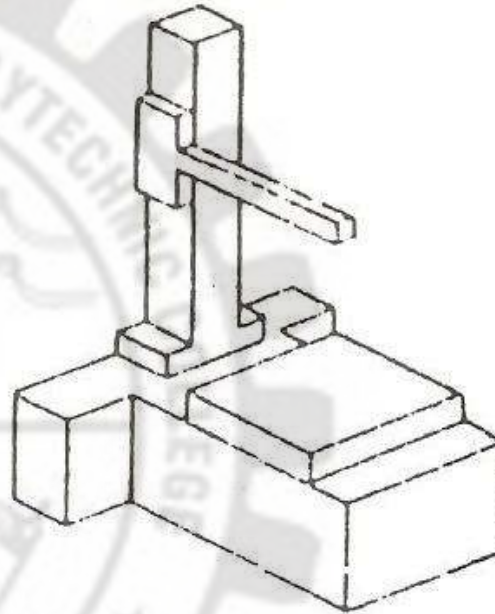


# Horizontal arm CMMs



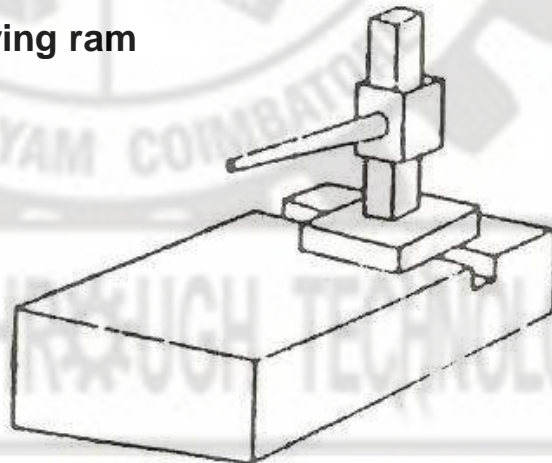
(a)

**Moving ram**



(b)

**Moving table**



(c)

**Fixed table**



- The ram is encased in a carriage that moves in a vertical ( $Z$ ) direction and is supported on a column that moves horizontally ( $X$  direction) relative to the base.
- In the moving-table design, the probe is attached to the horizontal arm, which is permanently attached at one end only to a carriage that moves in a vertical ( $Z$ ) direction on the column.
- The arm support and table move horizontally ( $X$  and  $Y$  directions) relative to the machine base.
- In the fixed-table design, the probe is attached to the horizontal arm, which is supported cantilever style at the arm support and moves in a vertical ( $Z$ ) direction.
- The arm support moves horizontally ( $X$  and  $Y$  directions) relative to the machine base. Horizontal arm CMMs are used to inspect the dimensional and geometric accuracy of a broad spectrum of machines or fabricated workpieces.
- Utilizing an electronic probe, these machines check parts in a mode similar to the way they are machined on horizontal machine tools.
- They are especially suited for measuring large gear cases and engine blocks, where high-precision bore alignment and geometry measurements are required. By incorporating a rotary table, four-axis capability is obtainable.

## PROBES

- The utility of a Coordinate measuring machine depends largely on the nature of the probing device.
- Three types of probes are commonly used:
  1. Hard
  2. Electronic
  3. Noncontact
- A probe is selected according to the dimensional and geometrical requirements of the inspection process.

### HARD PROBES:

- Hard probes consist of a shaft and a probe tip mounted in various ways to the probe arm.
- A variety of probe tip shapes and sizes are available: the shape of the probe determines its application.
- Conical probes are used for locating holes. Ball probes for establishing surface locations. Cylindrical probes for checking slots and holes in sheet metal parts.
- Hard probes can only be used in small, manually operated CMMs when inspecting simple parts of a short production run.



## ELECTRONIC PROBES:

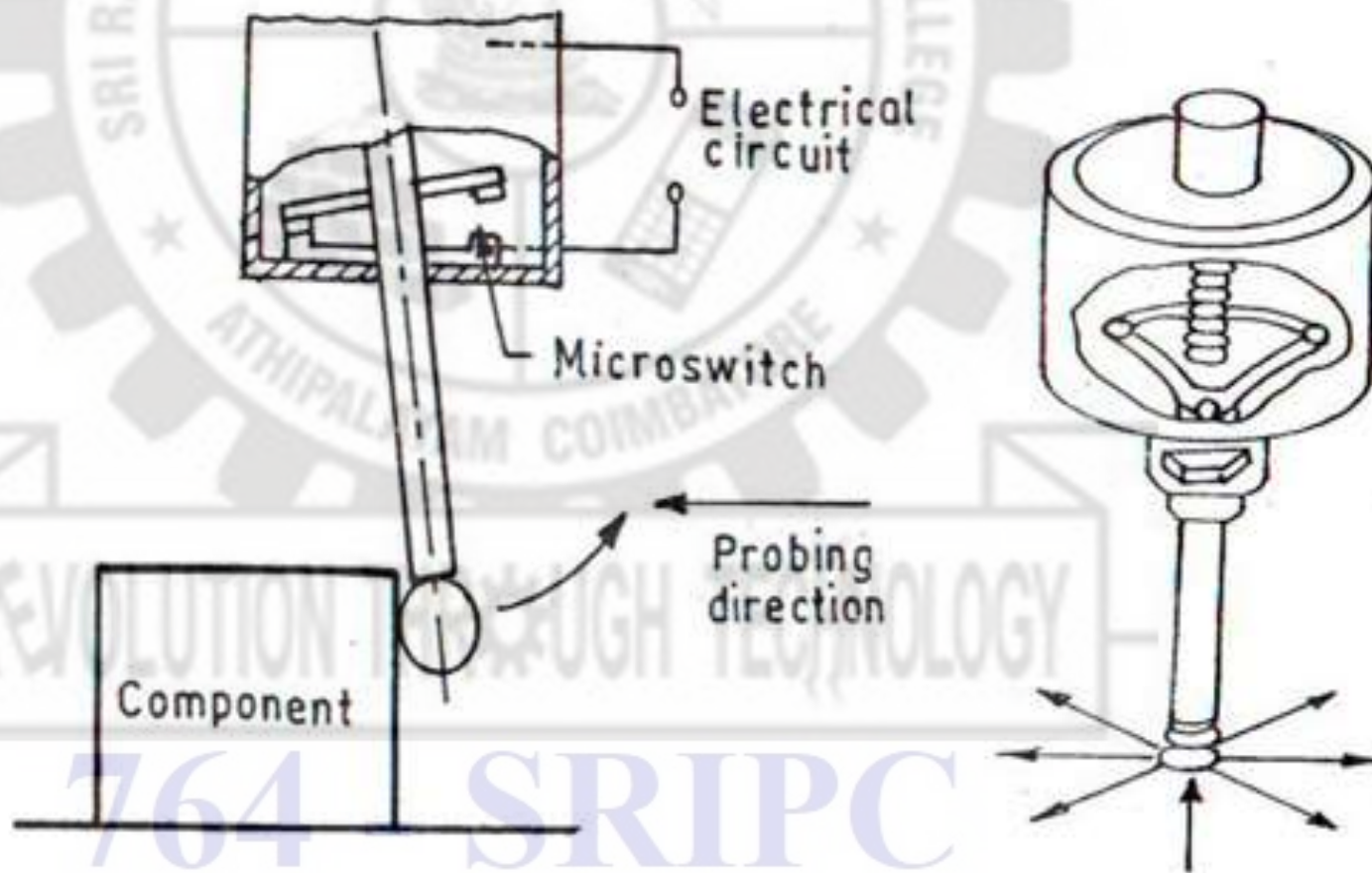
- Electronic probes are the most popular probes in use.
- This electronic probe, also called a touch probe, is an omni-directional triggering device consisting of a probe body and a stylus; multiple stylus arrangements are also available.
- When the stylus is brought into contact with the workpiece, a signal is sent to the computer interface, indicating the instantaneous three-dimensional location of the stylus.
- There are two types of probes.
  1. Trigger type probe system
  2. Measuring type probe system

### **1. Trigger type probe system:**

The “buckling mechanism” is a three point bearing, the contacts of which are arranged at  $120^\circ$  around the circumference. These contacts act as electrical micro switches. When being touched in any probing direction, one or more contacts are lifted off and the current is broken, thus it generates a pulse. If the circuit is opened, the current

co-ordinate positions are read and stored. After probing, a prestressed spring ensures the perfect Zero position of the three point bearing.

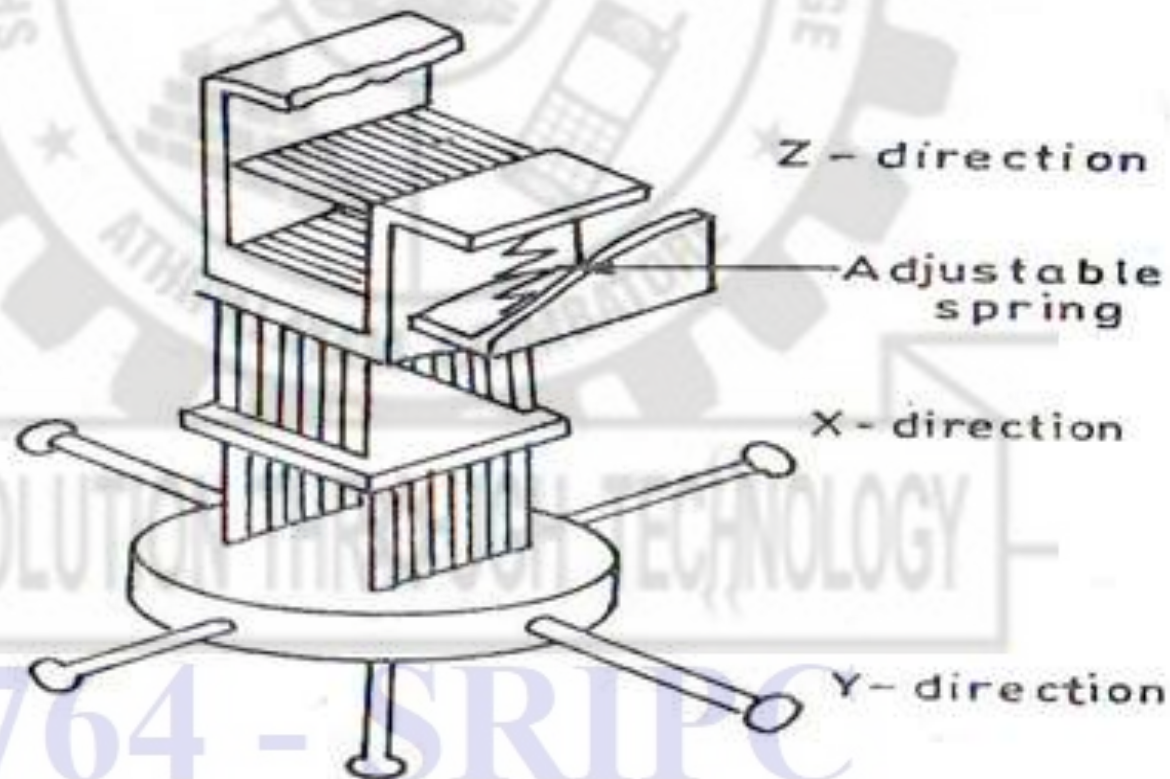
The probing force is determined by the prestressed force of the spring. The measuring time is shorter than in static principle; because of the probe system with data acquisition is always dynamic in nature.





## 2. Measuring type probe system:

- Measuring type probe mechanism is a small co-ordinate measuring machine in itself. The “buckling mechanism” of this system consists of parallel guide. At the moment of probing, the spring parallelograms are deflected from their initial position.
- The measurements can be made easily because the entire system is free from torsion, play and friction. A defined parallel displacement of probes as compared to their original arrangements can be measured.





## NONCONTACT PROBES:

- Noncontact probes are used when fast, accurate measurements are required with no physical contact with the part. Several types of noncontact probes are used.
- Optical probes are used when inspecting drawings, printed circuit boards, and small, fragile workpieces. When these probes are used, the basic measuring programs can still be used.
  1. TOUCH SCANNERS
  2. LASER PROBES
  3. VISION PROBES

## **ADVANTAGES OF CMM**

1. Faster rate of inspection
2. Improved accuracy
3. Minimisation of operator error
4. Reduced operator skill requirements
5. Reduced need of fixtures and maintenance costs
6. Uniform inspection quality
7. Reduction of scrap
8. Reduction in setup time
9. Simplification of inspection procedures.
10. Reduction in calculating and recording time and errors





# FORM MEASUREMENTS

REVOLUTION THROUGH TECHNOLOGY

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# Screw Threads

Screw threads are used;

- To hold parts together (eg: V-threads)
- To transmit motion & power (Square, Acme threads)

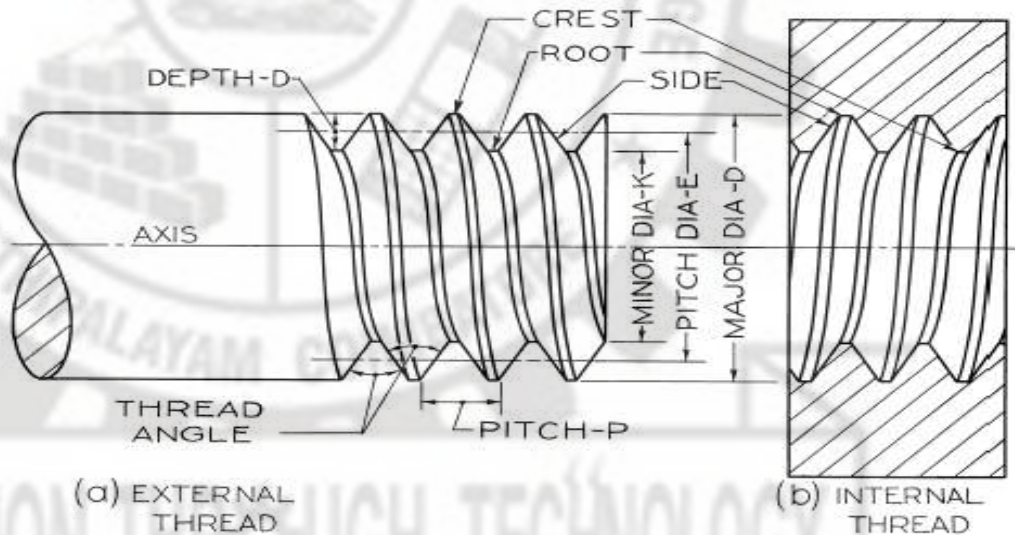


Figure 13-1

Screw Thread Nomenclature.





# Screw threads Terminology

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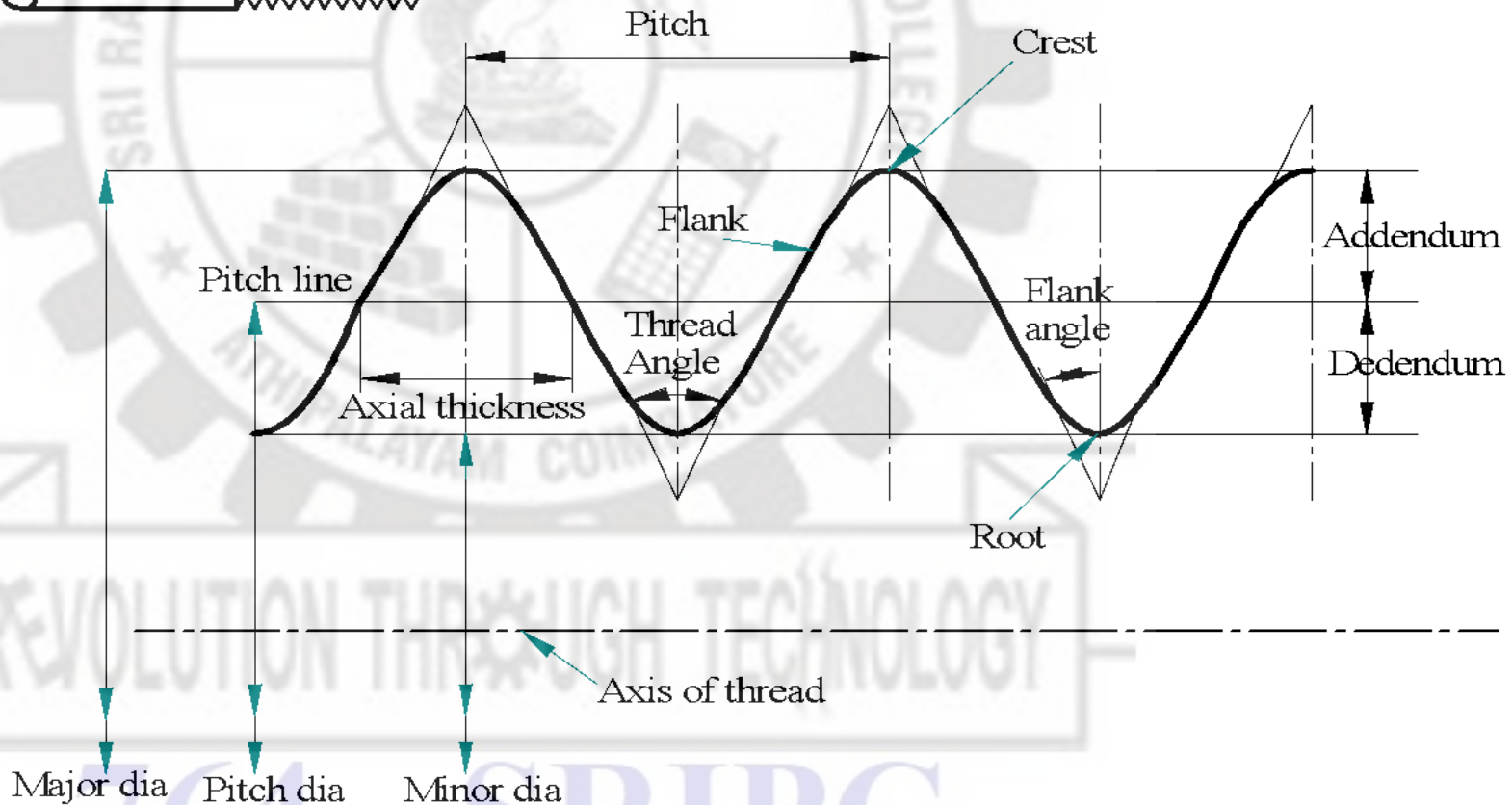
- **PITCH:** The distance from a point on a screw thread to a corresponding point on the next thread measured parallel to the axis.
- **LEAD:** The distance a screw thread advances in one turn. For a single start threads,  $\text{lead} = \text{pitch}$ ,  
For double start,  $\text{lead} = 2 \times \text{pitch}$ , & so on.
- **THREAD FORM:** The cross section of thread cut by a plane containing the axis.
- **MAJOR DIAMETER:** This is the diameter of an imaginary cylinder, coaxial with the screw, which just touches the crests of an external thread or roots of an internal threads. It is also called as 'Nominal diameter'.



# SCREW THREAD TERMINOLOGY



## EXTERNAL THREAD TERMINOLOGY





# Screw threads Terminology

---

- **Minor diameter:** This is the diameter of an imaginary cylinder, co-axial with the screw which just touches the roots of an external thread or the crest of an internal thread. This is also referred to as 'root' or 'core diameter'.
  - **Effective diameter** or **Pitch diameter:** It is the diameter of an imaginary cylinder coaxial with the axis of the thread and intersects the flanks of the thread such that width of the threads & width of spaces between threads are equal.
  - **Flank:** It is the Thread surface that connects crest with root.  
**Depth of thread:** It is the distance between crest and root measured perpendicular to axis of screw.
-





# Screw threads Terminology

---

**Angle of thread:** Included angle between sides of thread measured in axial plane.

**Helix angle:** Angle that thread makes with plane perpendicular to thread axis.

**Flank angle:** It is half the included angle of the thread.

**Addendum:** It is the distance between the crest and the pitch line measured perpendicular to axis of the screw.

**Dedendum:** It is the distance between the pitch line & the root measured perpendicular to axis of the screw.



# Errors in screw threads

---

- There are six important elements in a thread, errors in any one of which may lead to rejection.
- They are Major diameter, Minor diameter, effective diameter, Pitch, Flank angle and the profile at root & crest.
- Errors in screw threads may cause interference with mating threads or slackness due to improper flank contact.
- Errors in pitch of screw thread may be classified into three types;
  - (i) Periodic errors
  - (ii) Progressive errors
  - (iii) Erratic errors



## (i) Periodic errors

---

- Periodic errors are those which vary in magnitude along the length of the thread and occurs at regular intervals as shown in fig (a).
- A '**drunken thread**' is a particular case of periodic error where the error repeats once per turn.
- For a **true thread**, if the thread is imagined to be unwound from the pitch cylinder, the helix will be a straight line. For a **drunken thread**, it will be a curve as shown in fig (b).
- In a drunken thread, the advance of the helix is irregular in one complete revolution. This is due to thread being not cut to true helix.





# (i) Periodic errors

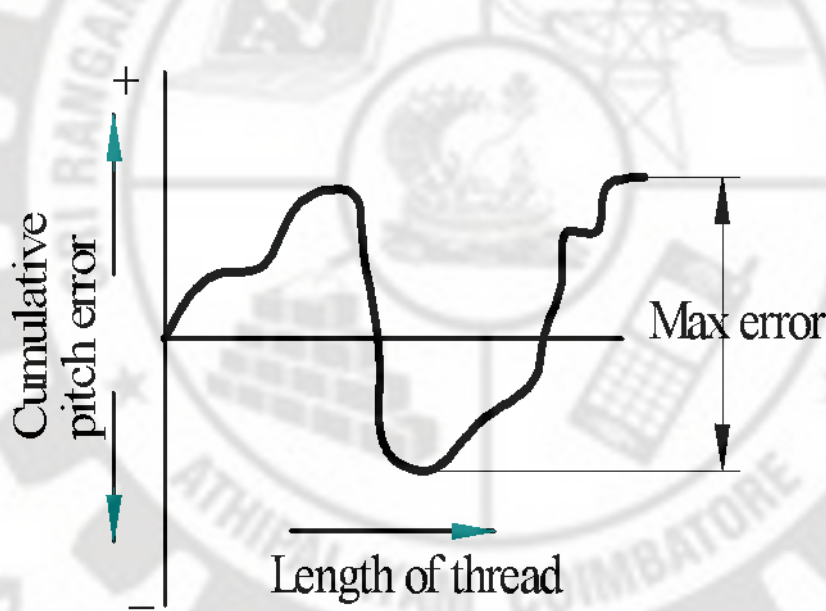


Fig (a)

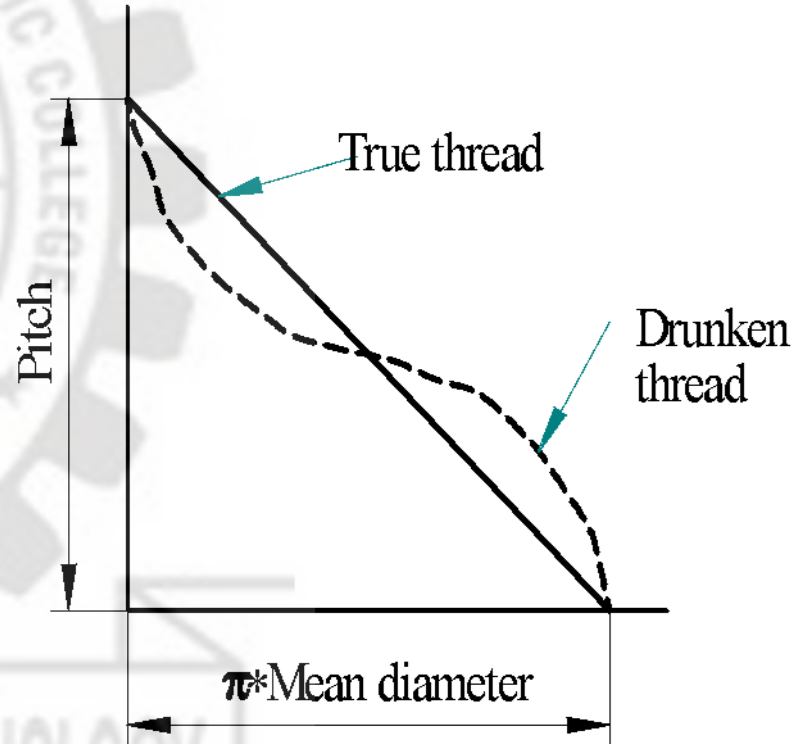


Fig (b)

PERIODIC ERRORS

DRUNKEN THREAD



- 
- **Progressive pitch error**: If the pitch of the thread is uniform but is longer or shorter than its nominal value, then the error is called progressive as shown in fig (c). These errors may be caused by a change in length due to hardening, or by the errors in the pitch of the lead screw, or by the faults in the saddle guide ways.
  - **Erratic errors**: These errors vary in irregular manner along the length of the thread as shown in fig (d). Their causes are difficult to identify. Possible sources are faults in the machine and irregular cutting action resulting from material non uniformity.



## (ii) Progressive & (iii) Erratic errors

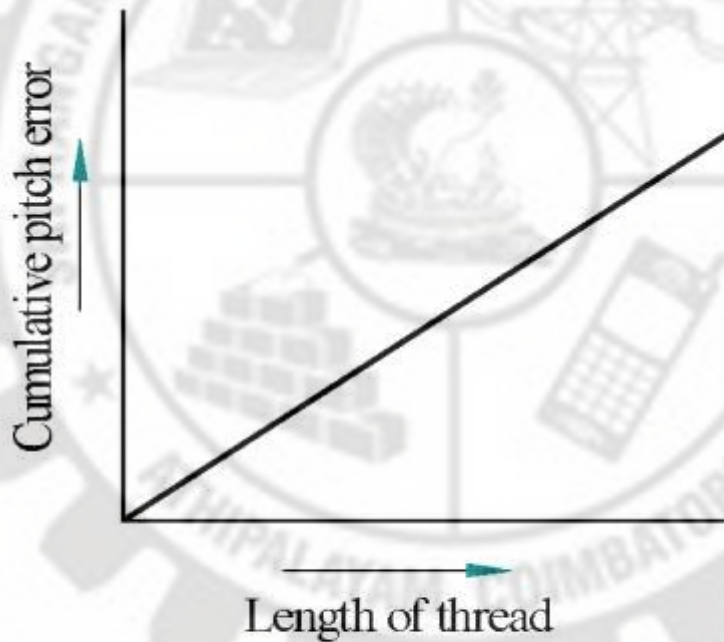


Fig (c)  
PROGRESSIVE ERROR

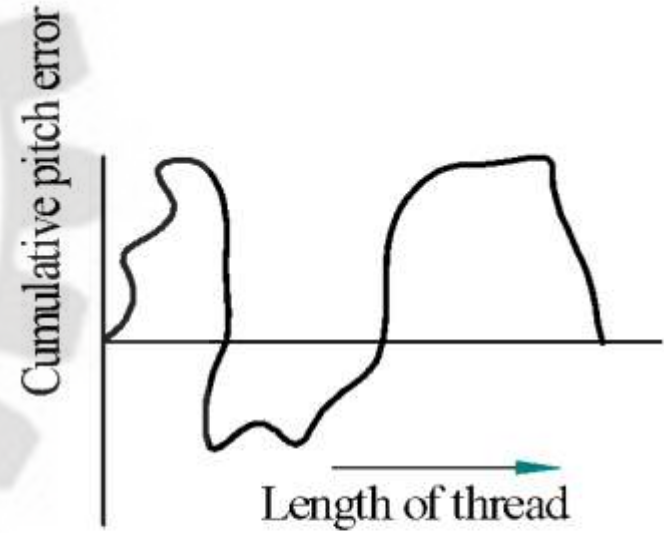
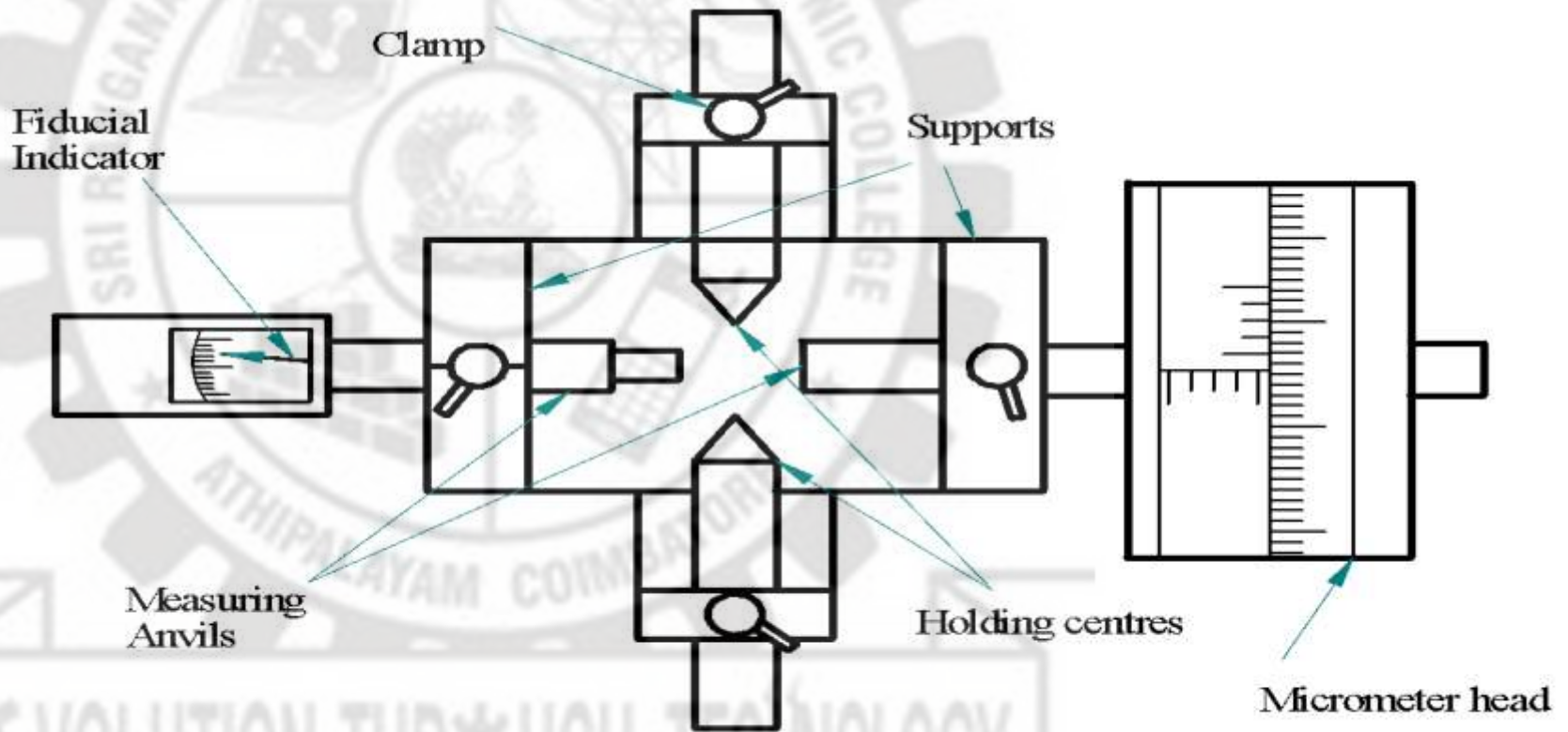


Fig (d)  
ERRATIC ERRORS





# Measurement of major diameter



**BENCH MICROMETER**

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# Bench Micrometer



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# BENCH MICROMETER



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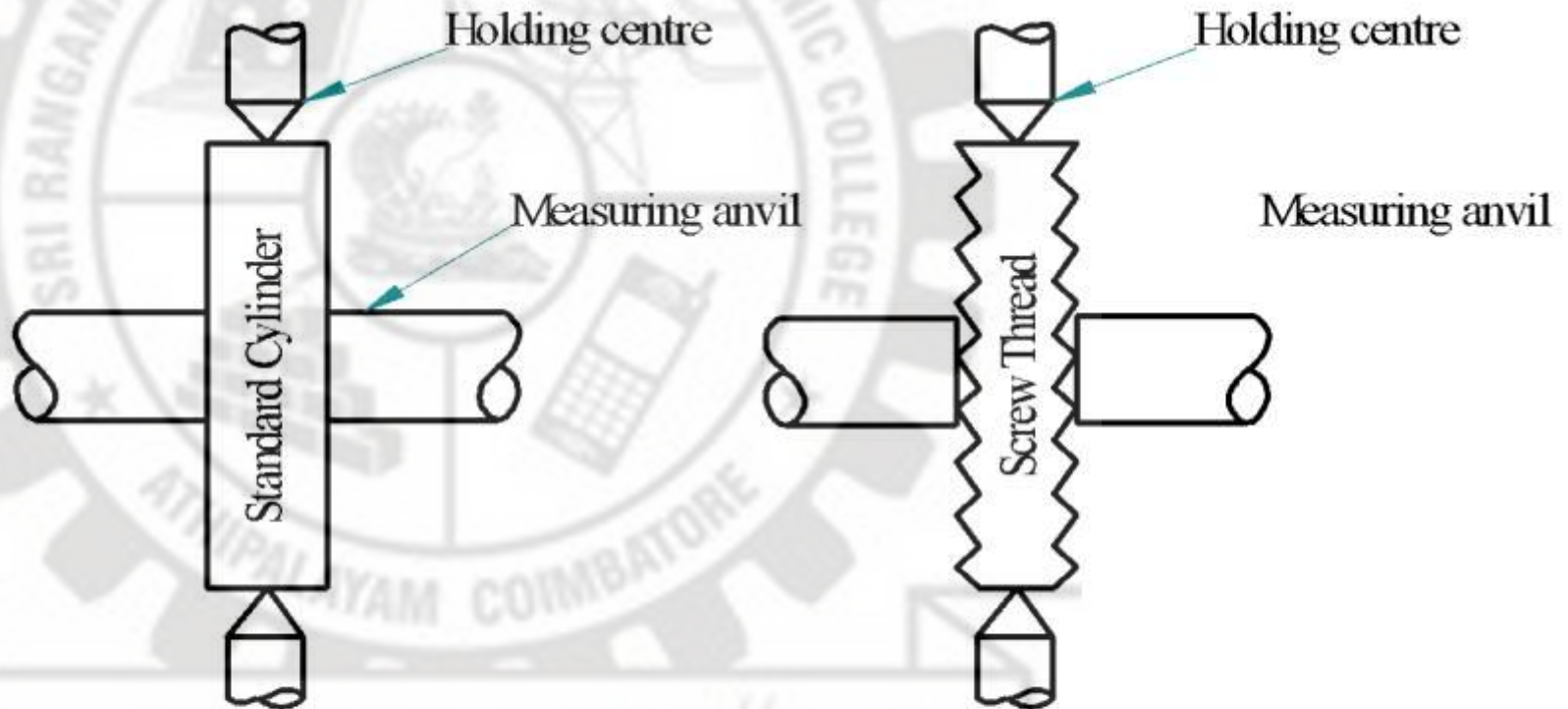




# Bench Micrometer

- A good quality hand held micrometer is quite suitable for measuring external thread, but only light pressure has to be applied on the anvils to make only contact on the screw threads.
- Excessive pressure may lead to elastic deformation of screw threads leading to errors.
- A **bench micrometer** may be used for greater accuracy which give direct readings of 0.0002 mm.
- A standard cylinder of known diameter 'S' (which is nearly equal to thread diameter) is held between centers & a reading  $R_1$  between the fiducial indicator anvil & micrometer anvil is taken. The cylinder is then removed.
- Then the screw thread to be measured is held between centers & a second micrometer reading  $R_2$  is taken.
- Then,

$$D_1 = S \pm (R_1 \sim R_2)$$



Measurement of Major diameter



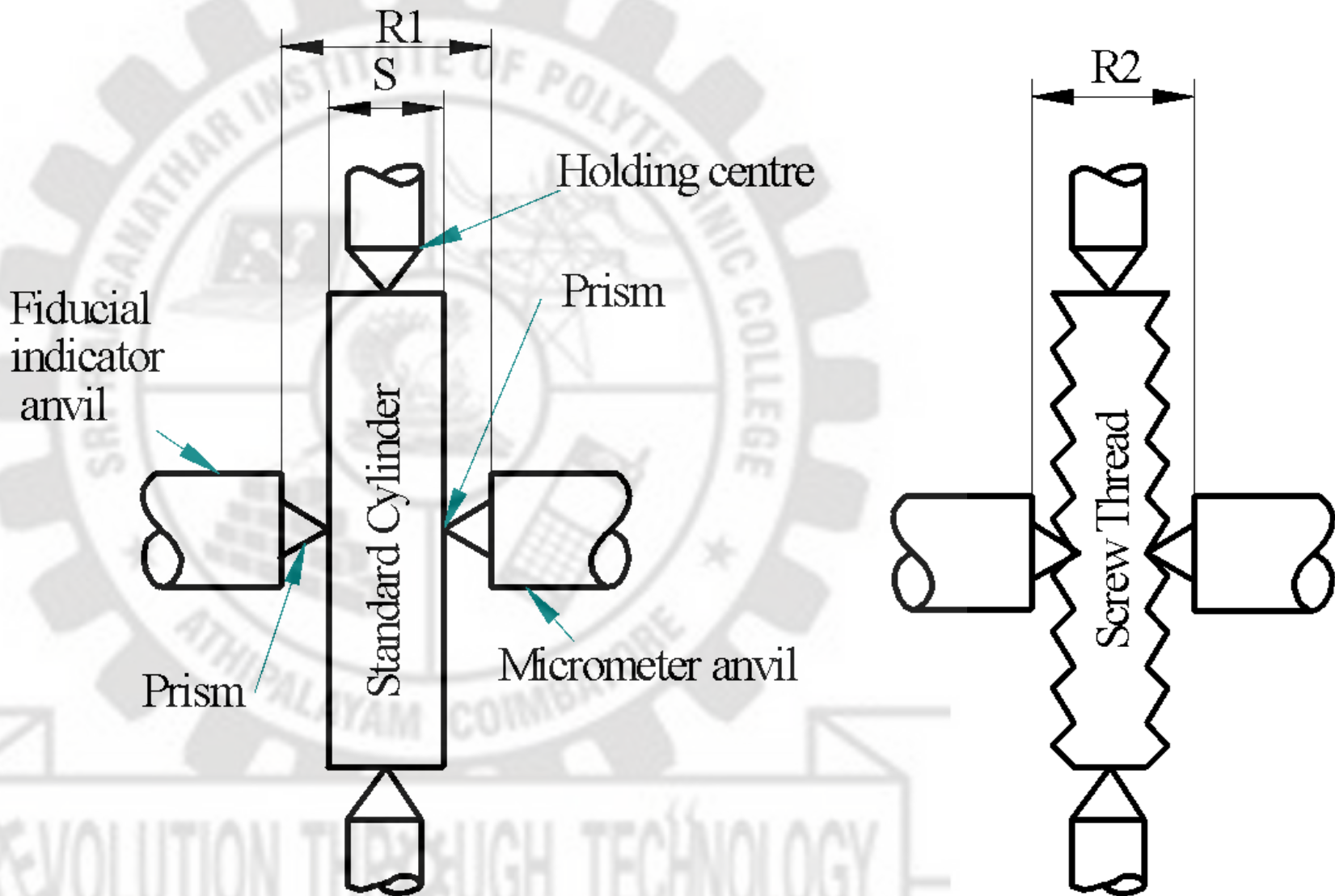
# Measurement of minor diameter

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- The principle of minor diameter is same as that of measuring major diameter except that **v-shaped prisms** are used.
- Prisms of suitable sizes are placed between the standard cylinder and the instrument anvils in order to take a reading first micrometer reading  $R_1$ .
- The standard cylinder is then replaced by the screw thread and a second reading  $R_2$  is taken as shown in fig.
- Then the minor diameter,

$$D_2 = S \pm (R_1 \sim R_2)$$

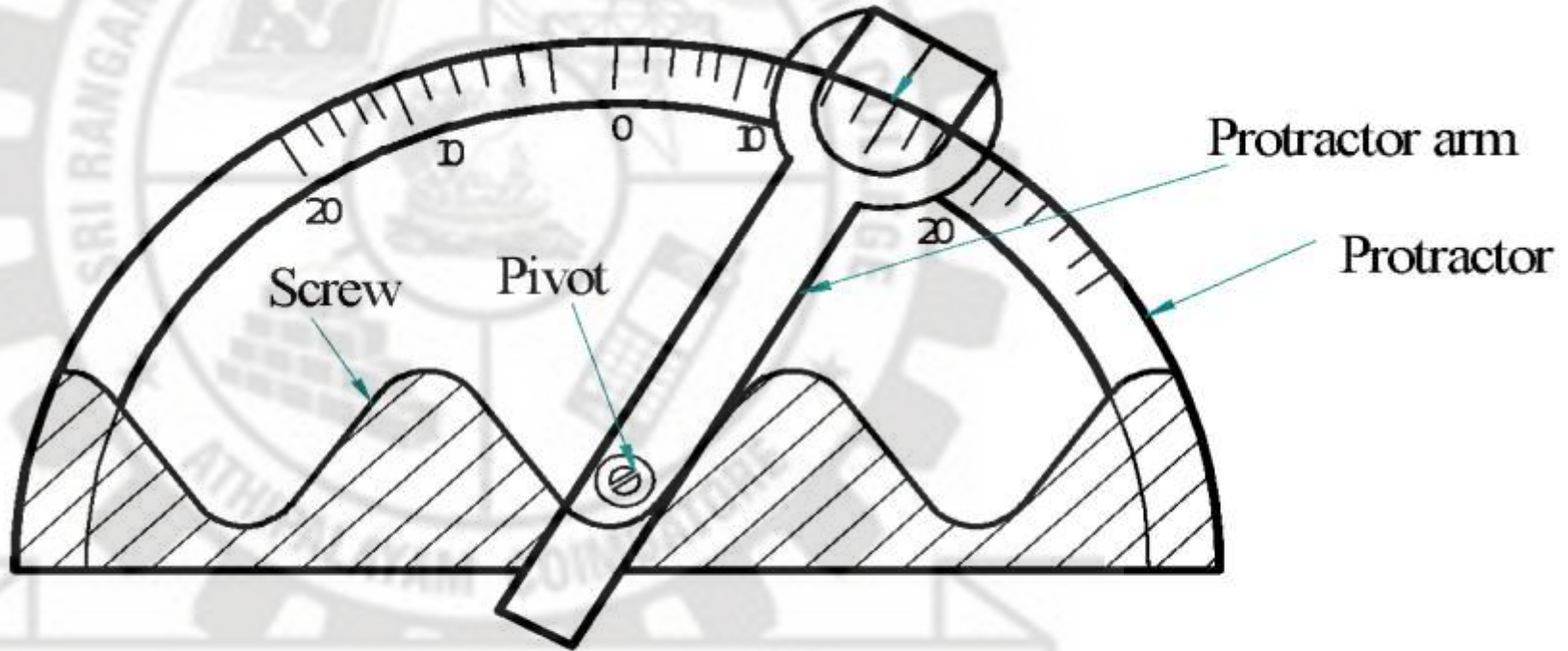




# 764 - SPIPC Measurement of Minor diameter



# Measurement of Flank angle



Shadow Protractor



# Shadow protractor

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- Shadow protractor is most convenient method for measurement of flank angles using optical projection.
  - The shadow of the thread is viewed on a screen and the angles are measured by means of a protractor.
  - For clear definition of a thread form on the screen it is necessary to project the light beam along the thread helix angle by using a lamp & collimating unit.
  - The protractor is supported at the screen on a straight edge. The pivoted arm of the protractor is rotated until its shadow is parallel to the flank & the first reading is taken.
  - The screw is then rotated  $90^\circ$  to its axis and the protractor is swung about its pivot and adjusted to measure the angle of the same flank and a second reading is taken.
  - The mean of the two readings is then the angle between the flank & normal to the screw axis.
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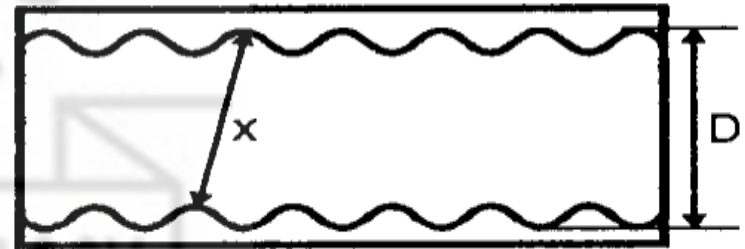


## Measurement of Internal Threads(Major Diameter)

- A comparator consists of special anvils which can be placed in the groove and measure the distance  $x$ .
- The major diameter  $D$  can be calculated by knowing value of  $x$  as,

where  $p$  = Pitch of the screw

$$D = \sqrt{x^2 - \left(\frac{p}{2}\right)^2}$$





# Measurement of Internal Threads (Minor Diameter)

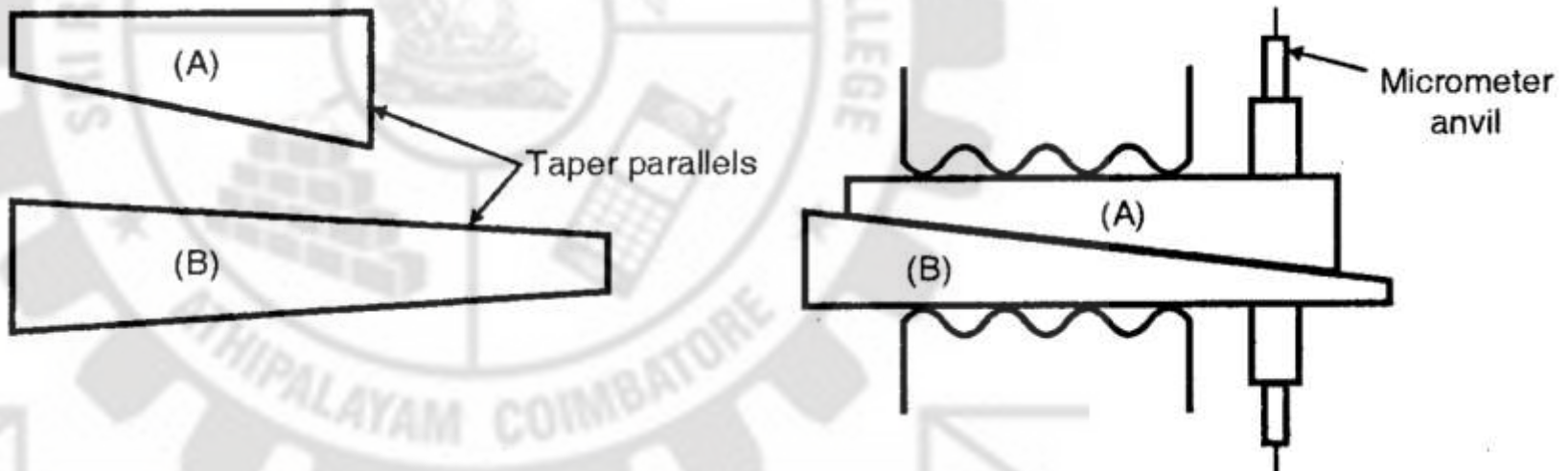
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## 1. Using Taper Parallels:

- The minor diameter can be easily measured by using taper parallels. These taper parallels are inserted inside the thread and adjusted until they are perfectly aligned with each other.
- Micrometer anvil will read the height of taper parallels in contact, thus indicating the internal diameter of the thread.



## Measurement of Internal Threads (Minor Diameter)- Using Taper Parallels



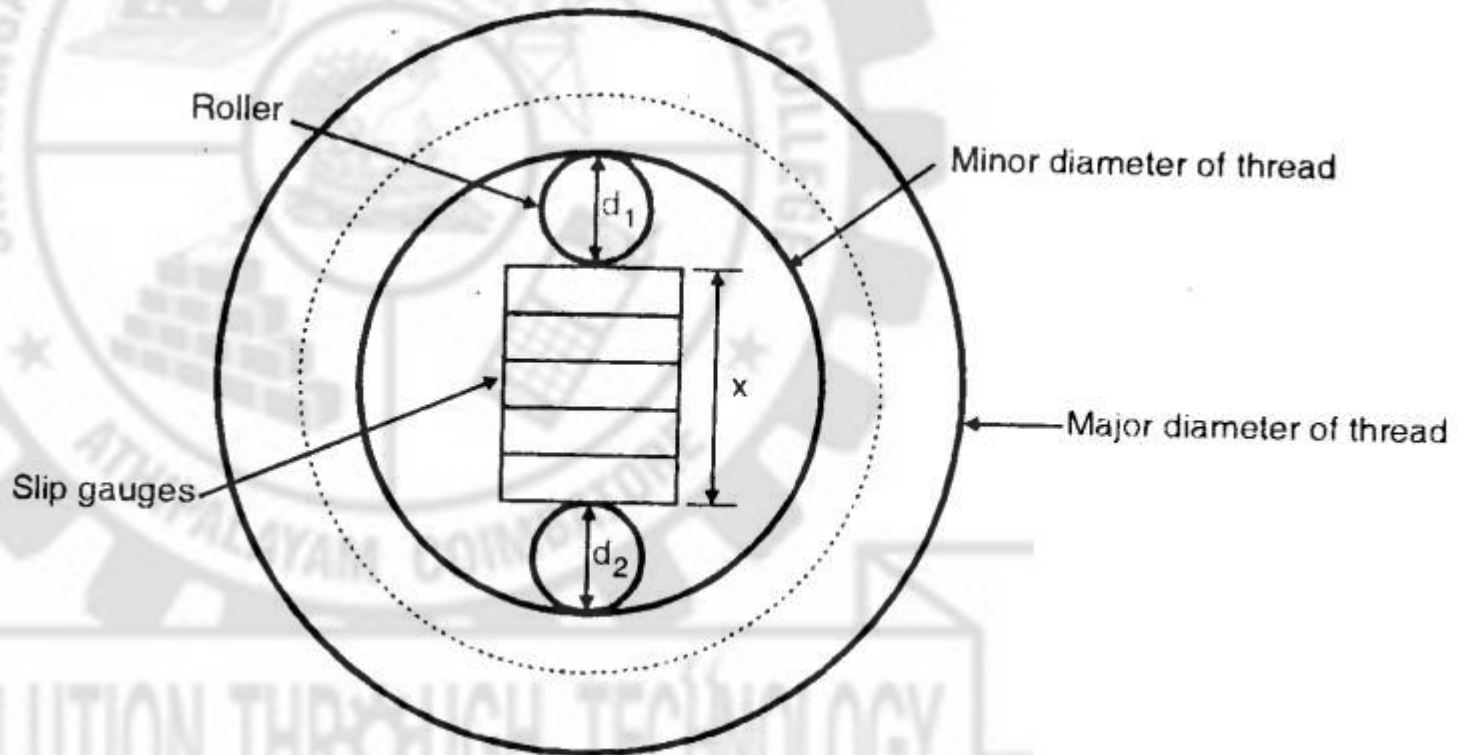
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## Measurement of Internal Threads (Minor Diameter)- Using Slip Gauge and Rollers



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# Measurement of Internal Threads (Minor Diameter)

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## 2. Using Slip Gauge and Rollers

- For large thread diameter precision rollers are used. They are inserted in the internal thread of known diameter say  $d_1$  and  $d_2$ .
- The gap between them is filled by slip gauges.
- Then the internal diameter of thread  $d$ , can be calculated as.

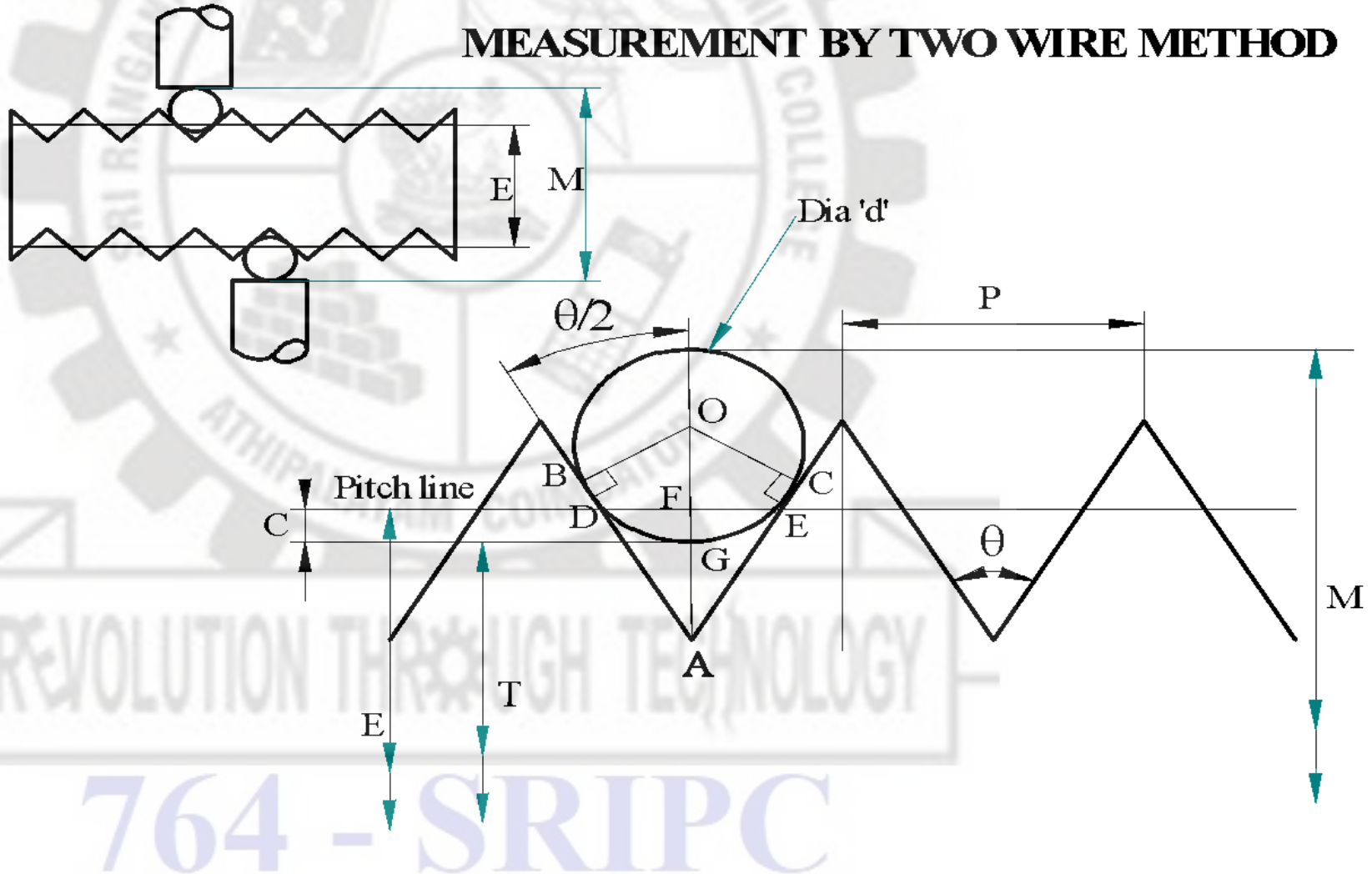
$$d = d_1 + d_2 + x$$

Where  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  is the roller diameter and  $x$  is the slip gauge distance



# Measurement of effective diameter by Two wire method

## MEASUREMENT BY TWO WIRE METHOD



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## Measurement of effective diameter using two wire method

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- The effective diameter can not be measured directly but can be calculated from the measurements made.
- Wires of exactly known diameters are chosen such that they contact the flanks at their straight portions.
- If the size of the wire is such it contacts the flanks at the pitch line, it is called the '**best size**' of wire which can be determined by geometry of screw thread.
- The screw thread is mounted between the centers & wires are placed in the grooves and reading  $M$  is taken.
- Then the effective diameter  $E = T + C$   
where  $T = M - 2d$ , &  $C$  is a value which depends on diameter of wire, pitch & angle of the screw thread.



## Measurement of effective diameter using two wire method

From the triangle OAB,  $OA = OB \cdot \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{d}{2} \cdot \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2}$

$$AG = (OA - OG) = \frac{d}{2} \left( \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} - 1 \right) \quad \left[ \square OG = OB = \frac{d}{2} \right]$$

In the triangle AFD,  $AF = DF \cdot \cot \frac{\theta}{2}$ . But  $DF = \frac{P}{4}$

$$\text{and } FG = (AF - AG) = \frac{P}{4} \cdot \cot \frac{\theta}{2} - \frac{d}{2} \left( \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} - 1 \right)$$

Effective diameter  $E = T + (2 \times C)$  where  $C = 2 \times FG$

$$\therefore \text{Effective diameter } E = T + (2 \times FG) = T + 2 \left\{ \frac{P}{4} \cdot \cot \frac{\theta}{2} - \frac{d}{2} \left( \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} - 1 \right) \right\}$$

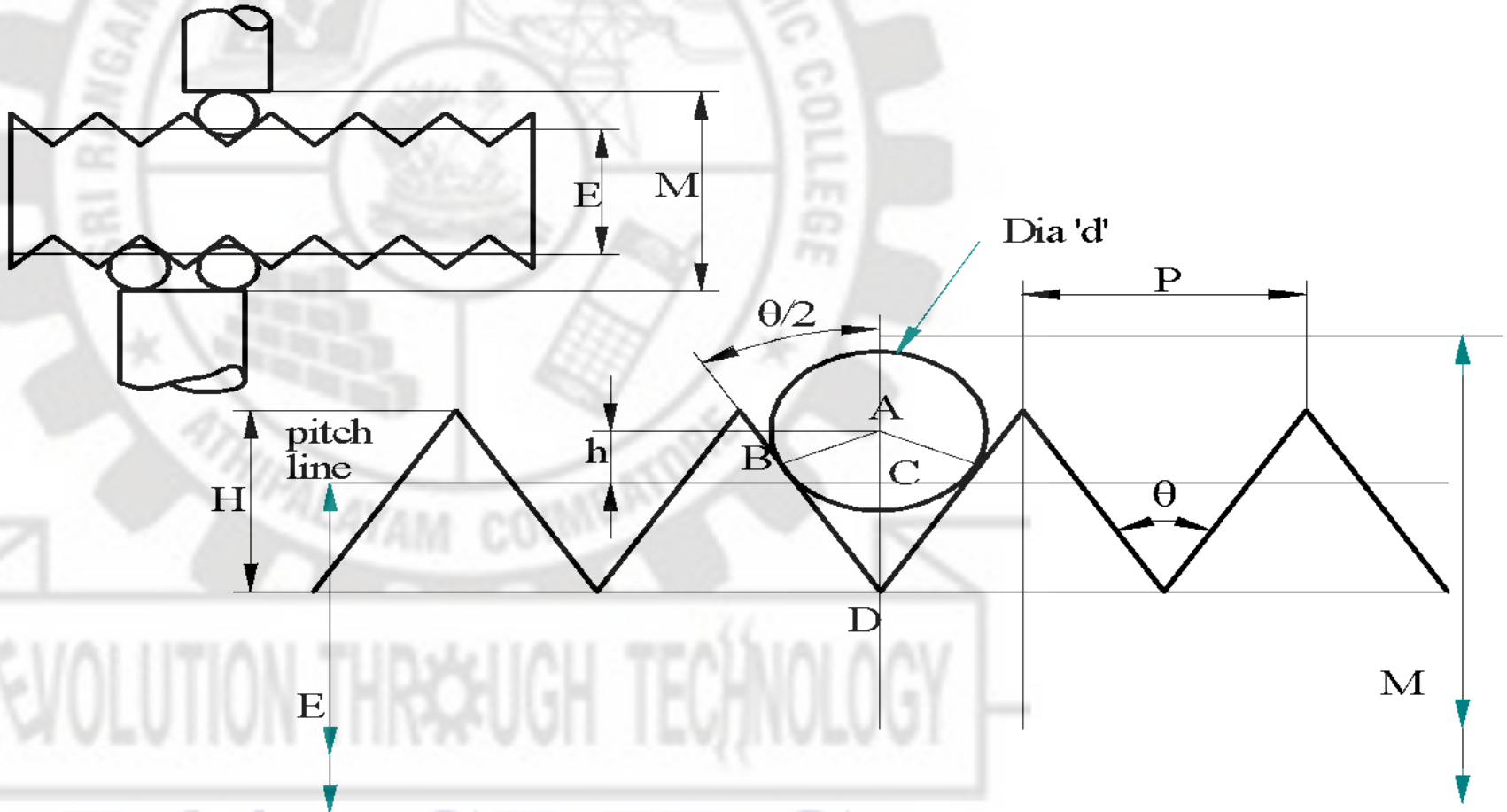
$$\therefore E = T + 2 \left\{ \frac{P}{2} \cdot \cot \frac{\theta}{2} - d \left( \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} - 1 \right) \right\}$$

For Whitworth thread,  $\theta = 55^\circ \therefore C = 0.9605P - 1.1657d$

For metric thread  $\theta = 60^\circ \therefore C = 0.866P - d$



# Effective diameter by three wire method



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## Effective diameter by three wire method

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- This method is more accurate than two wire method as it ensures alignment of micrometer faces parallel to the thread axis.
- Here, three wires of exactly known diameters are used, one on one side & the two on the other side. The wires may be held in hand or hung from a stand.
- From the fig,  $M$ =diameter over the wires  
 $E$ = effective diameter (to be found)  
 $d$ = diameter of wires,  $h$ =height of wire center above the pitch line,  
 $r$ =radius of wire,  $H$ =depth of thread,  $D$ =major diameter of the thread.



## Effective diameter by three wire method

From the triangle ABD,  $AD = AB \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{d}{2} \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2}$

$$H = DE \cot \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{P}{2} \cot \frac{\theta}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad CD = \frac{H}{2} = \frac{P}{4} \cot \frac{\theta}{2}$$

$$\text{Further } h = (AD - CD) = \left[ \frac{d}{2} \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} \right] - \left[ \frac{P}{4} \cot \frac{\theta}{2} \right]$$

Distance over the wires,  $M = E + 2h + 2r$

$$\text{i.e. } M = E + 2 \left\{ r \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} - \frac{P}{4} \cot \frac{\theta}{2} \right\} + 2r = E + 2r \left\{ 1 + \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} \right\} - \frac{P}{2} \cot \frac{\theta}{2}$$

$$\text{Or } M = E + d \left\{ 1 + \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} \right\} - \frac{P}{2} \cot \frac{\theta}{2}$$



For Whitworth thread,  $\theta = 55^\circ$ , depth of thread =  $0.64P$

$$\therefore E = D - 0.64P, \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} = 2.1657, \text{ and } \cot \frac{\theta}{2} = 1.921$$

$M = D + 3.1657d - 1.605P$  where  $D$  is the major diameter of the thread.

★ For Metric threads, Depth of thread =  $0.6495P$

$$\therefore E = D - 0.6495P, \theta = 60^\circ, \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\theta}{2} = 2, \cot \frac{\theta}{2} = 1.732$$

$$\therefore M = D + 3d - 1.5155P$$

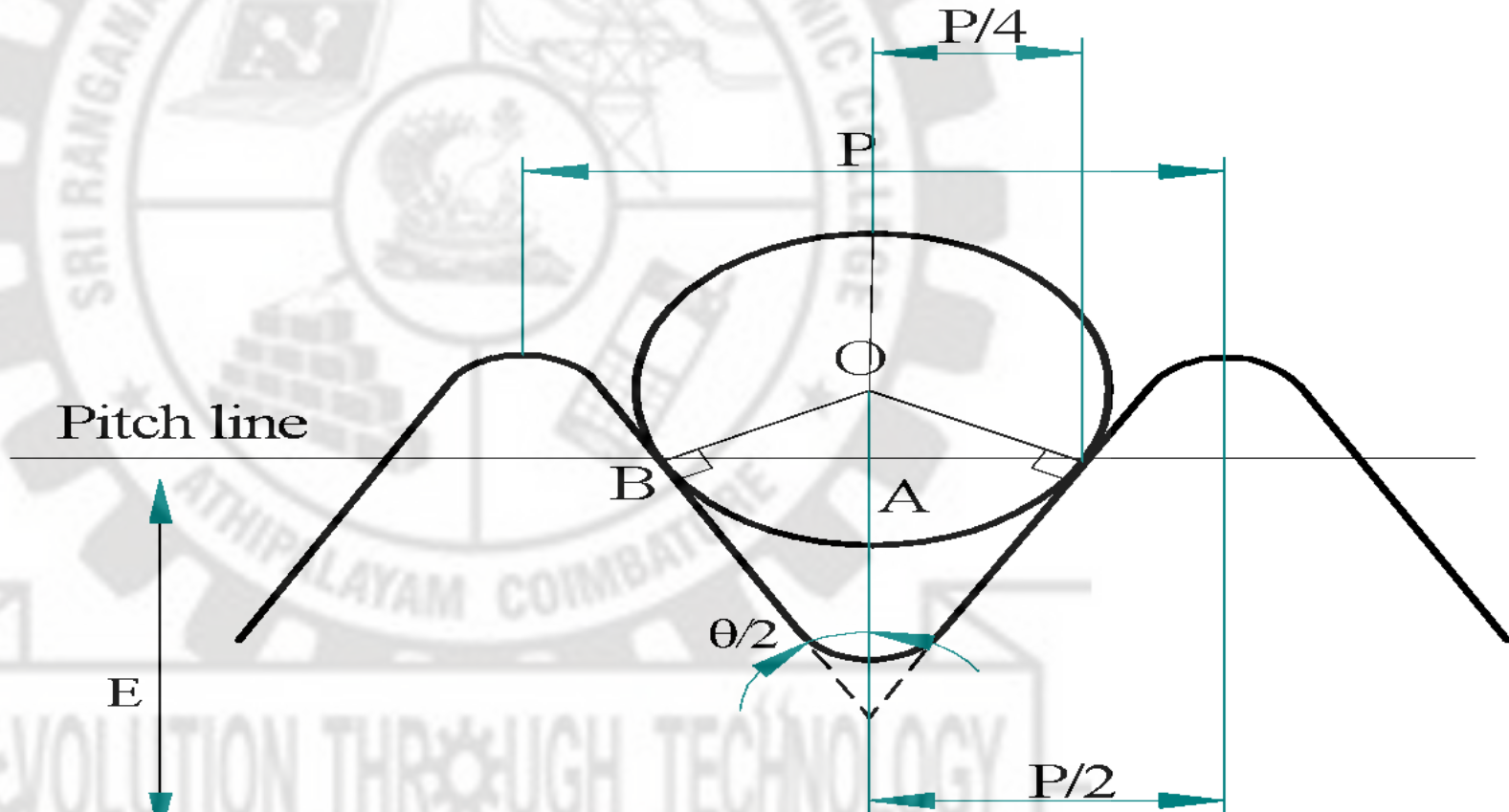
We can measure the value of  $M$  practically & then compare with the theoretical values using formulae derived above.

After finding the correct value of  $M$ , as  $d$  is known,  $E$  can be found out.





# Expression for Best size Wire



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BEST SIZE OF WIRE



## Expression for Best size Wire

The best size wire is the one which makes contact at the pitch line or effective diameter of the screw thread. In other words, as shown in fig OB is perpendicular to flank portion of the thread at the pitch line.

$$\text{In the triangle OAB, } \sin\left(\hat{BOA}\right) = \frac{AB}{OB}, \text{ or } \sin\left(90 - \frac{\theta}{2}\right) = \frac{AB}{OB}$$

$$\therefore OB = \frac{AB}{\sin\left(90 - \frac{\theta}{2}\right)} = \frac{AB}{\cos\frac{\theta}{2}} = AB \sec\frac{\theta}{2}.$$

$$\text{But } OB = \text{radius of wire} = \frac{1}{2} \times \text{dia of best size wire } (D_b)$$

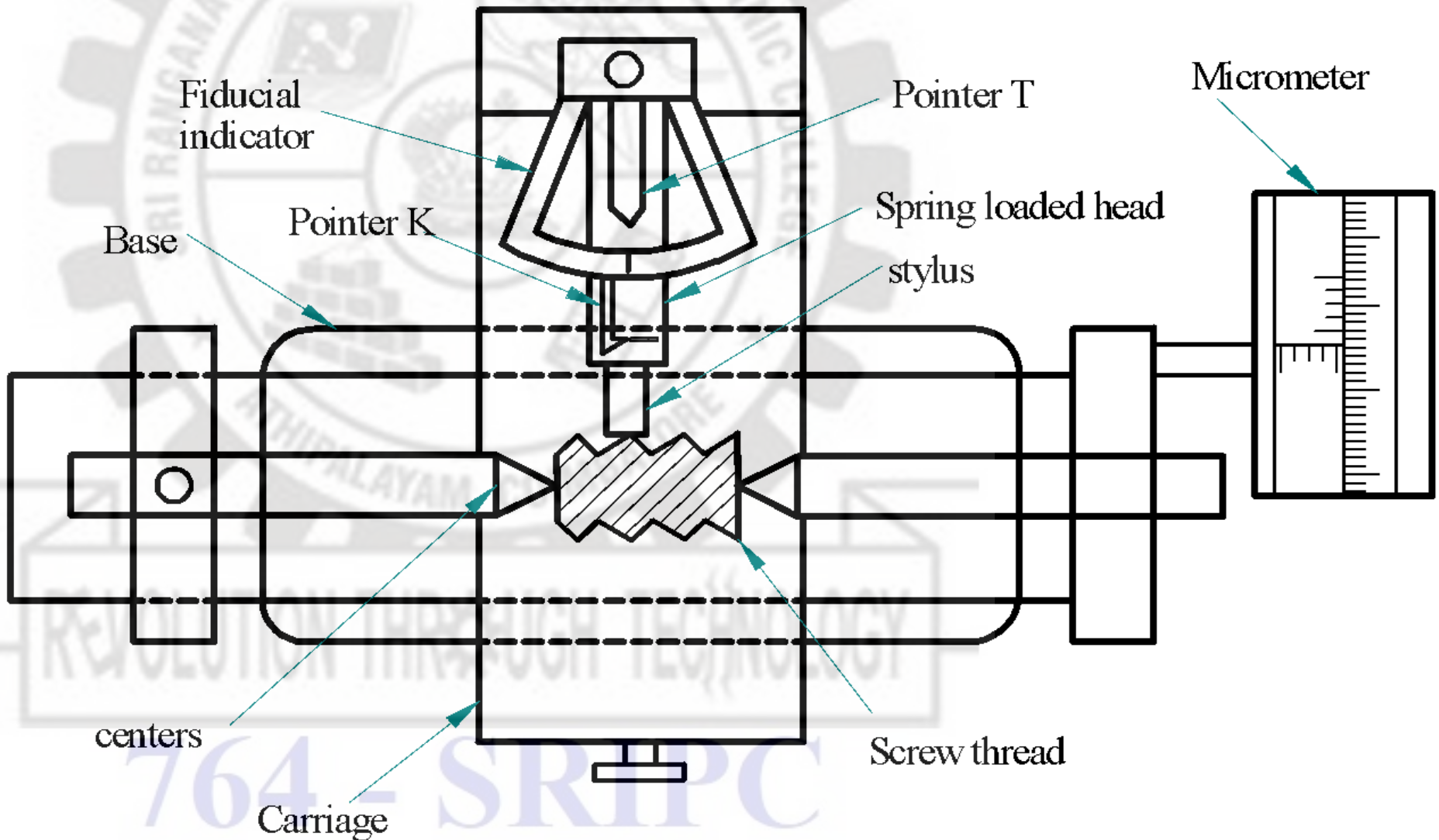
$$\text{i.e. } D_b = 2 \times OB = 2 \times AB \sec\frac{\theta}{2}. \text{ Also since AB lies on the pitch line, } AB = \frac{P}{4}$$

where P is the pitch of the thread.

$$\therefore D_b = 2 \frac{P}{4} \sec\frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{P}{2} \sec\frac{\theta}{2}$$



# Pitch Measuring machine







# Pitch Measuring machine

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- For measuring pitch, two methods are commonly employed as follows;
  - (a) Using pitch measuring machine
  - (b) Using Toolmaker's microscope
- In a **pitch measuring machine**, the screw thread is mounted between the centers of the machine. A stylus inserted into a spring loaded head makes contact at the thread flanks near the pitch line.
- The spring loaded head permits the stylus to move up the flank of the thread & down into the next space as it is moved parallel to the axis.
- Accurate positioning of the stylus between the two flanks is ensured by keeping the pointer T is always opposite to its index mark while taking readings.



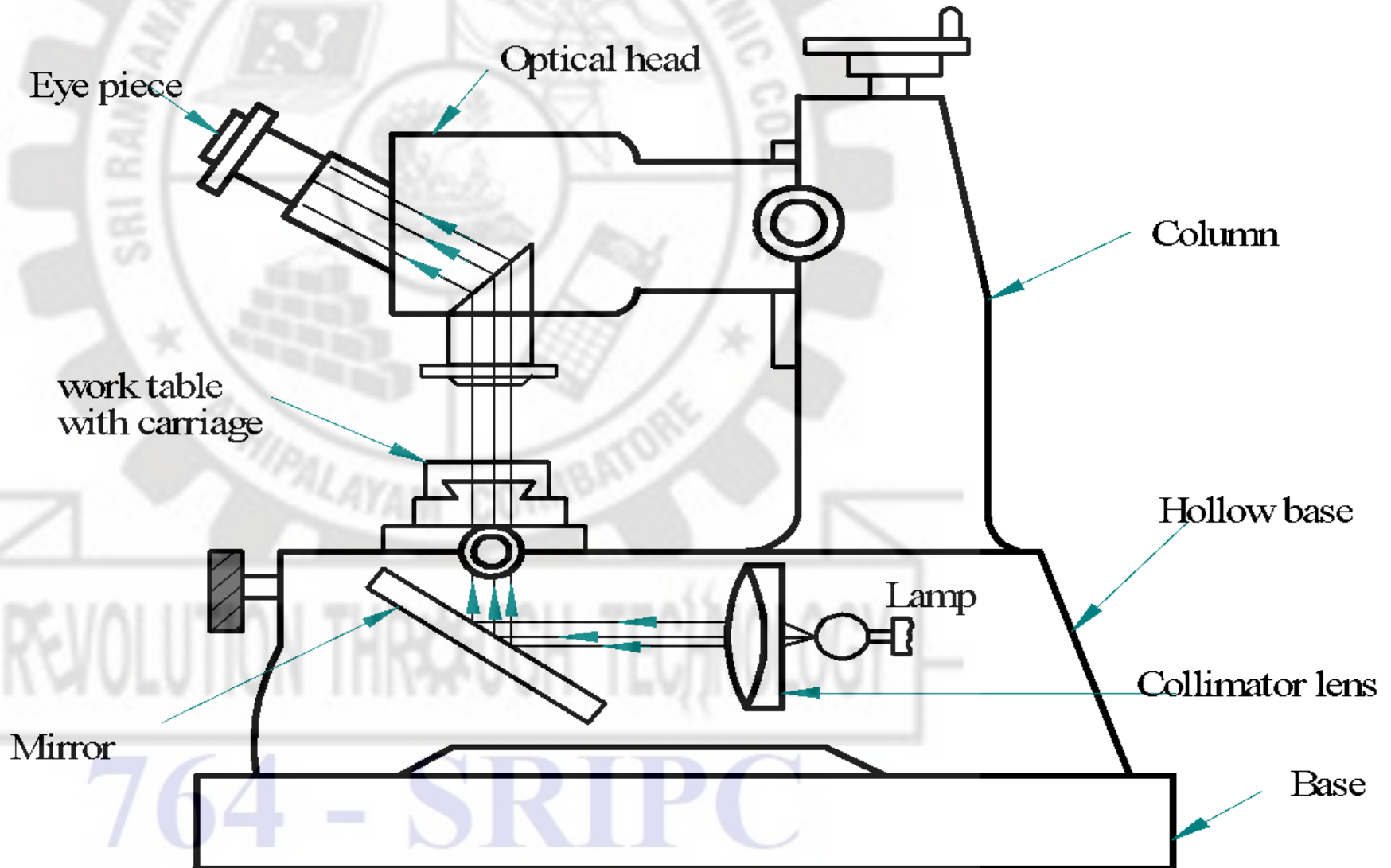
# Pitch Measuring machine

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- With the micrometer reading zero on the scale, the indicator is moved along to bring the stylus opposite to the first thread space and is clamped in position.
- The indicator is then adjusted radially until the stylus engages between the thread flanks and the pointer K is opposite to the line mark.
- When the pointer is accurately in position, the micrometer reading is noted.
- The stylus is then moved along into the next thread space, by rotation of micrometer and a second reading is taken.
- The difference between the two readings gives the pitch of the thread.



# Toolmaker's microscope



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# Toolmaker's microscope

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- Toolmaker's microscope is based on the principle of optics. It consists of a heavy hollow base accommodating the illuminating unit.
- On the top surface of the base, the work table carriage is supported and its movement is controlled by micrometer screws.
- The column carries the microscope unit & various interchangeable eye pieces.
- Light from the lamp is collimated and reflected as parallel beam by the mirror.
- On its way up this beam collects the image of the object to be inspected and this enters the microscope's eyepiece.
- A shadow image of the part passes through the objective of the optical head and is projected to a glass screen.



# Toolmaker's microscope

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- Cross lines are engraved on the ground glass screen which can be rotated through  $360^\circ$  and measurements are made by these cross lines.
- Different types of graduated screens and engraved screens are used for measuring different elements. For ex, a revolving screen for measurement of screw threads will contain all the basic profiles standard threads in various pitch ranges & included angles.
- Screw thread parameters such as pitch, flank angle, depth of thread, etc. may be measured by matching the projected image of the thread with the master profile obtained from a standard thread.



# TOOLMAKER'S MICROSCOPE



**Mechanical Micrometer Heads**



**No. 152-391 "X"**

**No. 152-392 "Y"**

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# TOOLMAKER'S MICROSCOPE



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# Gear tooth measurement

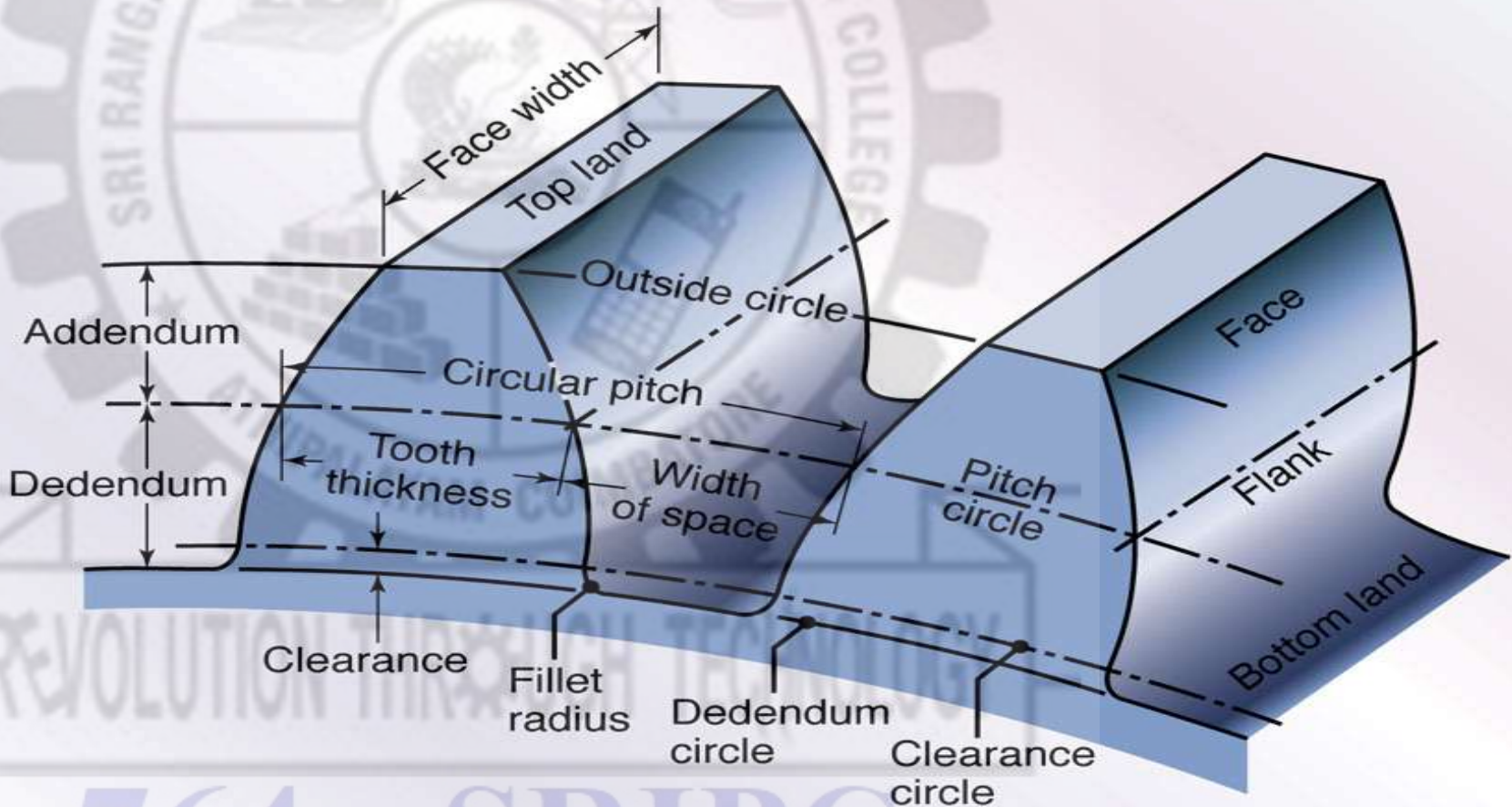
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- Gears are mainly used for transmission of motion & power and must be of accurate profile to obtain exact velocity ratio.
- Two commonly used profiles of gear teeth are the *Involute profile* & the *Cycloidal profile*
- *Involute* is defined as the path described by a point on an inextensible cord which is unwound from a stationary cylinder.
- *Cycloid* is defined as the curve traced by a point on the rim of a circle which rolls without slipping on a fixed straight line.





# GEAR TOOTH NOMENCLATURE



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# GEAR TOOTH NOMENCLATURE

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- **Base circle:** It is the circle from which gear teeth profiles are generated.
- **Pitch circle:** It is an imaginary circle which by pure rolling action, would produce the same motion as the toothed wheel. The size of the gear is usually specified by the pitch circle diameter.
- **Pitch point:** It is a common point of contact between two pitch circles of two meshing gear wheels.
- **Pressure angle:** It is the angle between the common normal to two gear teeth at the point of contact and the common tangent at the pitch point.

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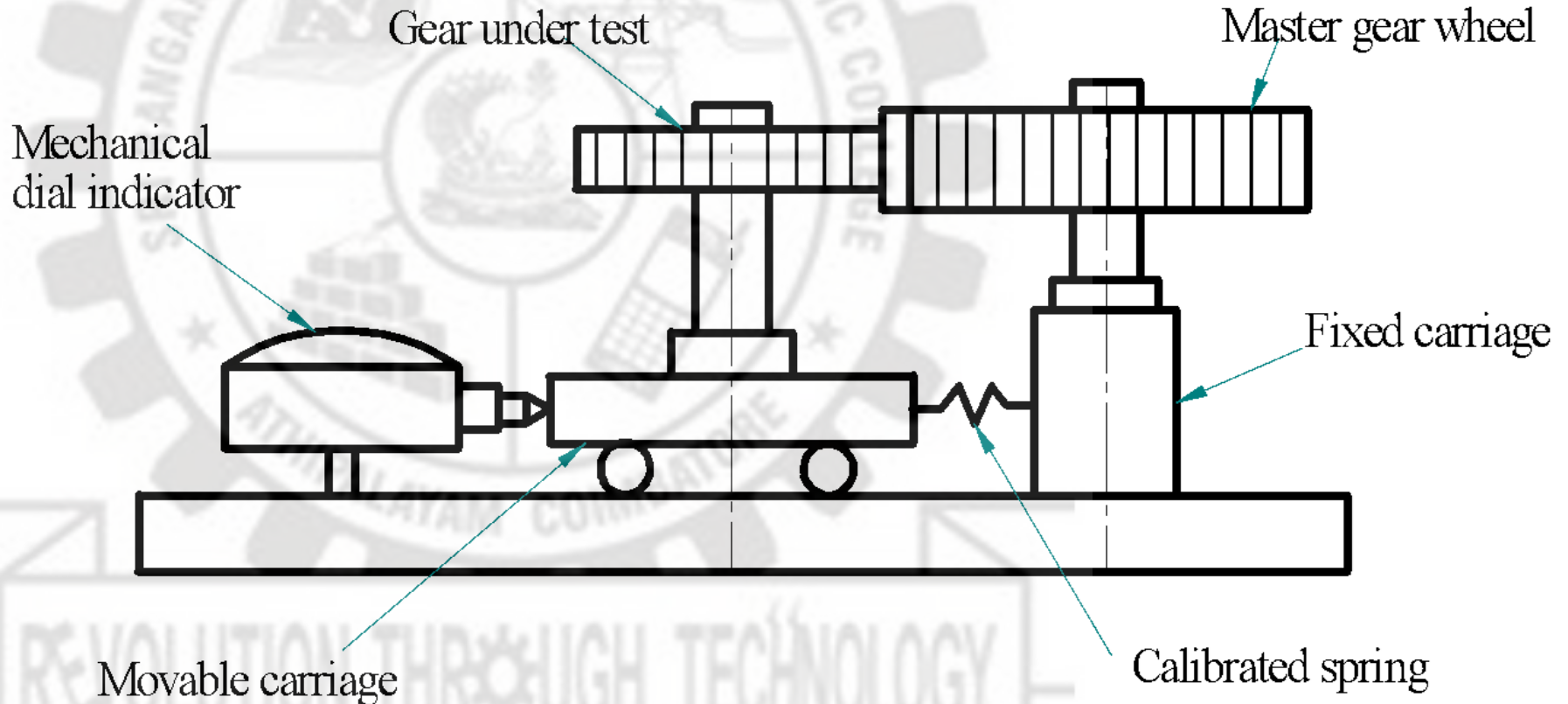
# GEAR TOOTH NOMENCLATURE

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- **Addendum:** It is the radial distance from the pitch circle to the tip of the tooth.
- **Dedendum:** It is the radial distance from the pitch circle to the root of the tooth.
- **Face :** It is the part of the tooth surface which is above the pitch surface.
- **Flank :** It is the part of the tooth surface which is below the pitch surface.
- **Circular pitch :** It is the distance measured on the circumference of the pitch circle from a point on one tooth to the corresponding point on the adjacent tooth.
- **Module:** It is the ratio of the pitch circle diameter in millimeters to the number of teeth.
- **Face width:** It is the width of the gear tooth measured parallel to its axis.



# Checking of composite error (Rolling gear test)



**PARKINSON GEAR TESTER**

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## Rolling gear Test

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- This test is commonly used in mass production of gear wheels as it takes less time & gives accurate results.
- The composite errors can be checked by measuring the variations of center distance when the gear to be tested is rotated under spring pressure against a master gear.
- This test reveals any errors in the tooth form, pitch and concentricity of the pitch circle as these errors will cause variation of center distance.
- Two carriages are one fixed and the other movable are mounted on the base. The movable carriage is spring loaded towards the fixed carriage.



## Parkinson gear tester

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- Two spindles are mounted in a parallel plane on each carriage and are made to suit the bore of the gear wheels.
- A dial gauge is made to rest against the movable carriage.
- The master gear is mounted on the fixed carriage spindle while the gear to be tested is mounted on the movable carriage.
- The dial gauge is then adjusted to zero & the two gears in mesh are rotated by hand and the variations in the dial gauge readings are observed.

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# GEAR TESTER

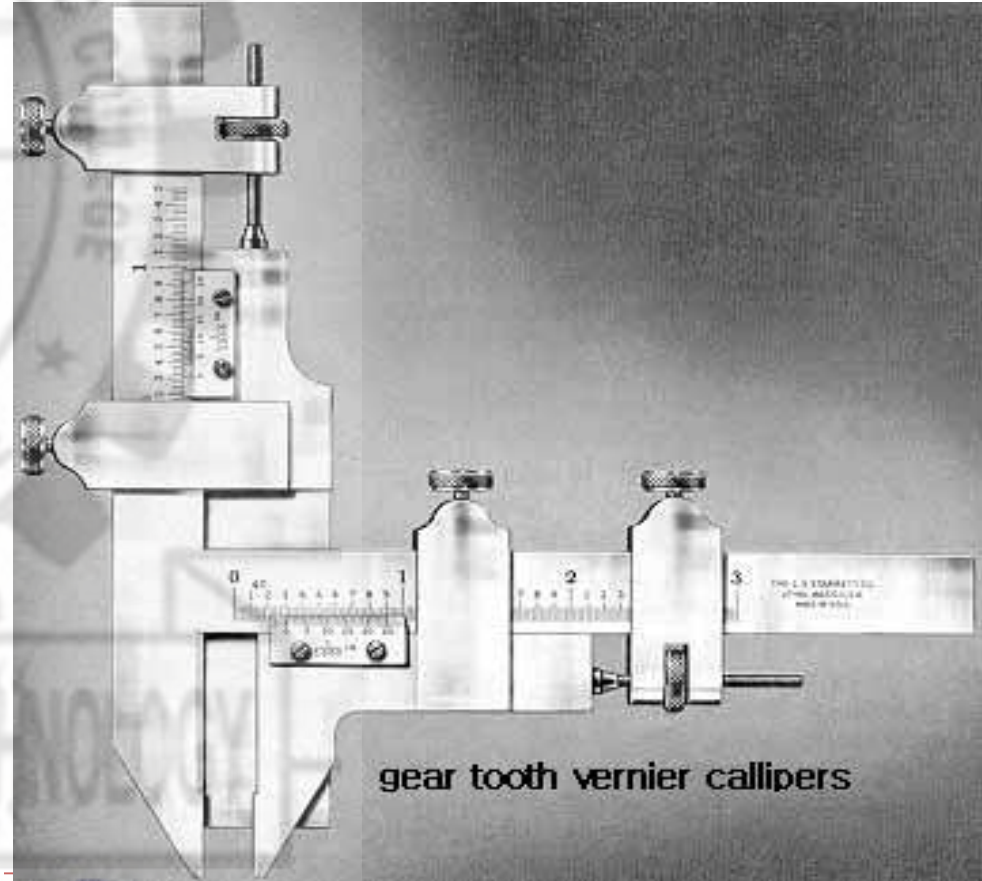
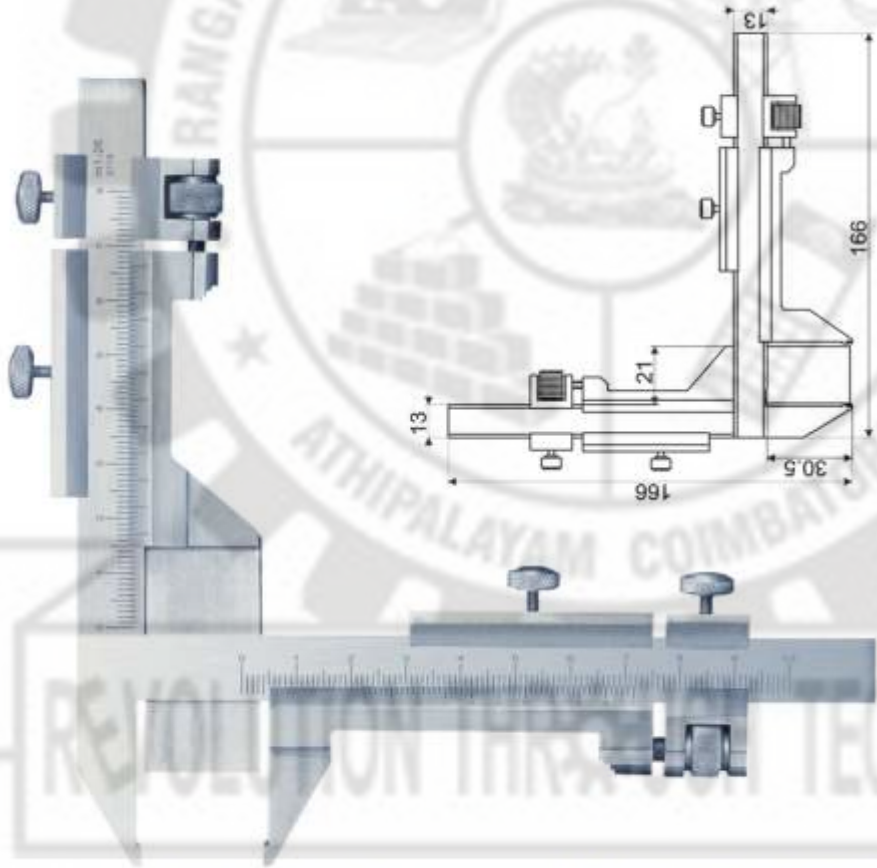


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# GEAR TOOTH VERNIER CALIPER



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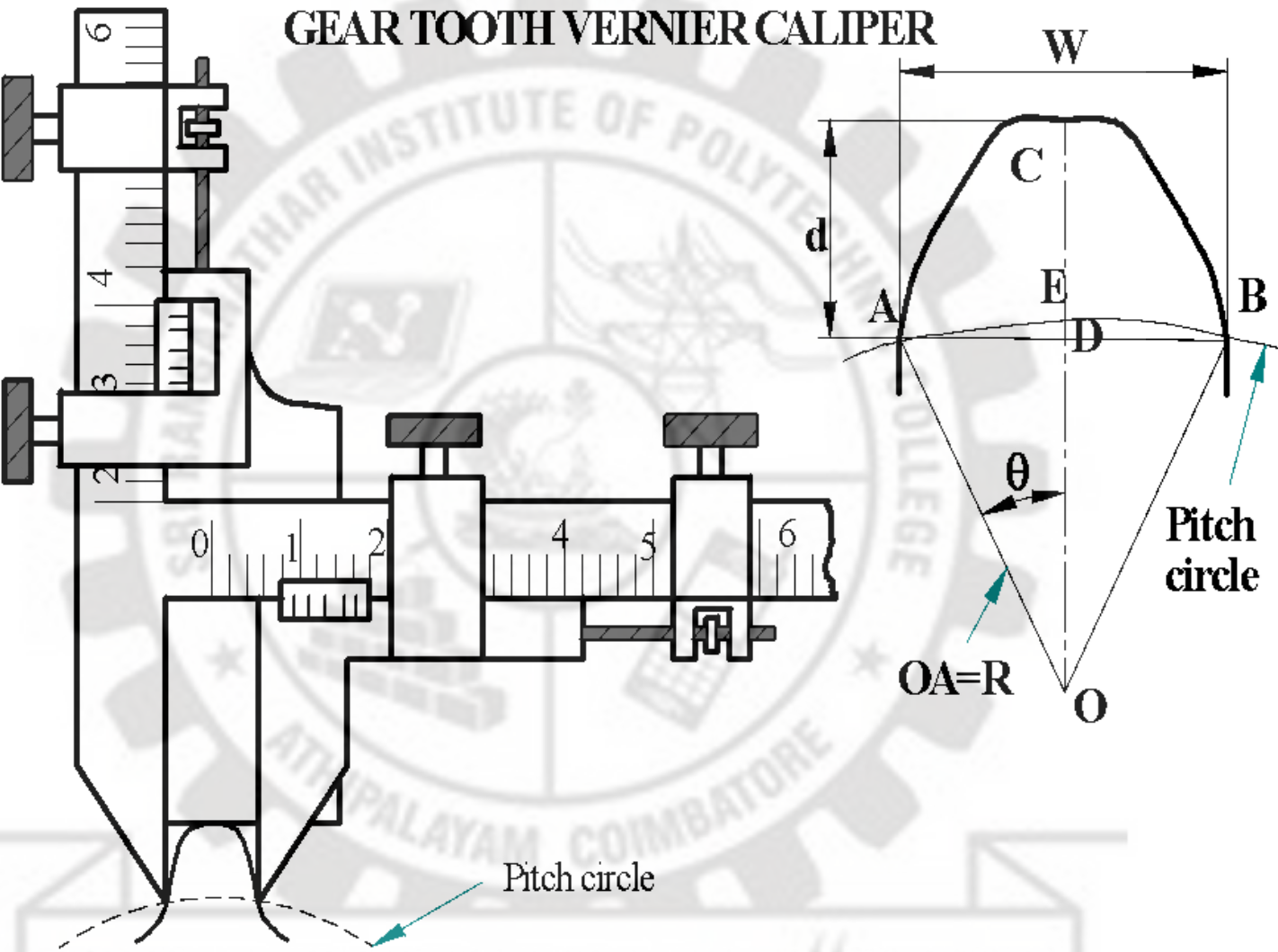


# GEAR TOOTH VERNIER CALIPER

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- The gear tooth thickness can be conveniently measured by a gear tooth vernier.
- Since the gear tooth thickness varies from the tip to the base circle of the tooth, the instrument must be capable of measuring the tooth thickness at a specified position on the tooth.
- The caliper has two vernier scales, the vertical vernier is used to set the depth ( $d$ ) along the pitch circle from the top surface of the tooth at which width ( $w$ ) has to be measured.
- The horizontal vernier scale is used to measure the width ( $w$ ) of the teeth.

# GEAR TOOTH VERNIER CALIPER



REVOLUTION THROUGH TECHNOLOGY

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# GEAR TOOTH VERNIER CALIPER

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- Considering one tooth, the theoretical values of  $w$  &  $d$  can be found which may be verified by the instrument.
- The fig shows the chord  $ADB$  which is width  $w$  but tooth thickness is arc distance  $AEB$ .
- Also the depth  $d$  adjusted on the instrument is slightly greater than the addendum  $CE$ , & hence the width  $w$  is called chordal thickness &  $d$  is called chordal addendum.



From the fig,  $w = AB = 2AD$ . Also  $\theta = \frac{360}{4N}$  where  $N$  is the number of teeth

In the triangle  $ADO$ ,  $w = 2AD = 2 \times AO \sin \theta = 2R \sin \frac{360}{4N}$

where  $R =$  pitch circle radius.

$$\text{Module } m = \frac{\text{Pitch circle dia}}{\text{No of teeth}} = \frac{2R}{N} \Rightarrow R = \frac{N \times m}{2}$$

$\therefore w = N \times m \sin \left( \frac{90}{N} \right)$ . Also from the fig  $d = (OC - OD)$

Addendum is equal to one module,  $\Rightarrow OC = OE + CE = (R + m) = \frac{Nm}{2} + m$

$$\text{Also } OD = R \cos \theta = \frac{Nm}{2} \cos \left( \frac{90}{N} \right) \Rightarrow d = \frac{Nm}{2} + m - \frac{Nm}{2} \cos \left( \frac{90}{N} \right)$$

$$d = \frac{Nm}{2} \left[ 1 + \frac{2}{N} - \cos \left( \frac{90}{N} \right) \right]$$



## Constant Chord Method

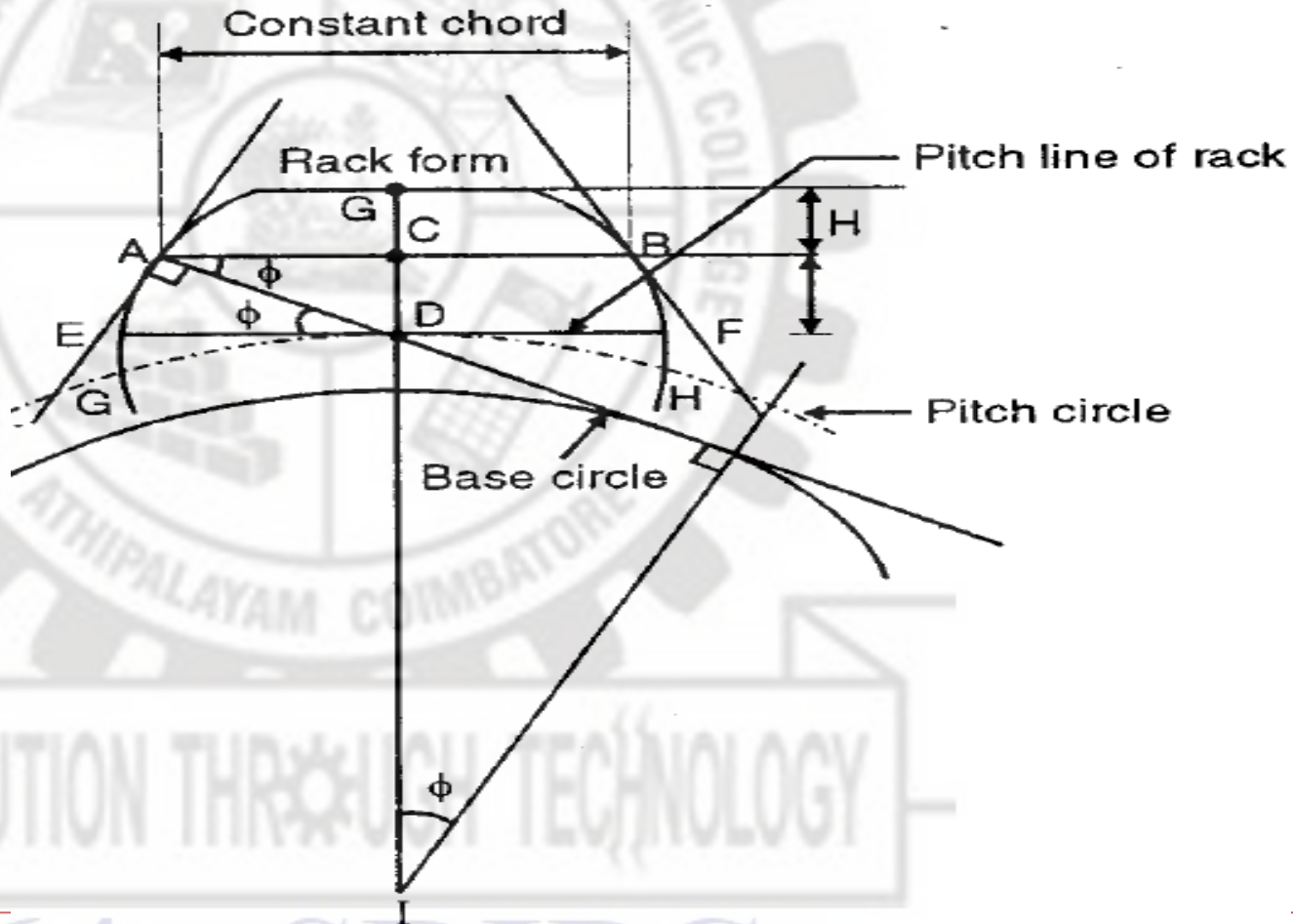
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- A constant chord is defined as, the chord, joining those points, on opposite faces of the tooth, which make contact with the mating teeth, when the center line of the tooth lies on the line of the gear centers.
- As the number of teeth varies in the gear tooth vernier Caliper method the value of tooth thickness and the depth  $d$  can be changed.
- Constant chord of a gear is measured, where the tooth flanks, touch the flanks of the basic rack.
- The teeth of the rack are straight and inclined to their center lines at the pressure angle .
- When gear rotates and all teeth come in contact with the rack then for the given size of tooth, the contact always takes place at point A and B. i.e. distance AS remains constant and hence called as constant chord.





# Constant Chord Method



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## Calculation

Derivation for calculating the chord length AB :

From the Fig. 3.16,  $l(DE) = l(DF) = \text{Arc DG}$

and  $\text{Arc DG} = \frac{1}{4} \times \text{circular pitch} = \frac{1}{4} \times \pi m$

$\therefore l(DE) = l(DF) = \frac{1}{4} \times \pi m$

Consider  $\triangle DAE$   $\angle ADE = \phi$

$$\therefore \cos \phi = \frac{AD}{DE}$$

$$\therefore AD = DE \cos \phi$$

$$AD = \frac{1}{4} \times \pi m \cos \phi$$

[ $\because$  from Equation (i)]

...(ii)

Consider  $\Delta DCA$ ,  $\angle CAD = \phi$

$$\therefore \cos \phi = \frac{CA}{AD}$$

$$CA = AD \cos \phi$$

$$CA = \frac{1}{4} \pi m \cos \phi \cdot \cos \phi \quad [\because \text{from Equation (ii)}]$$

$$\therefore CA = \frac{\cos^2 \phi \cdot \pi m}{4}$$

From the Fig. 3.16,

$$\text{Chord length } AB = 2 \times / (CA) = 2 \times \frac{\cos^2 \phi \cdot \pi m}{4}$$

$$\text{Chord length} = \frac{\pi m \cos^2 \phi}{2}$$

The depth  $h$  can be calculated as follow,

$$\text{From } \Delta DAC, \sin \phi = \frac{CD}{AD}$$

$$\therefore CD = AD \cdot \sin \phi$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \times \pi m \cdot \cos \phi \cdot \sin \phi \quad [\because \text{from Equation (ii)}] \quad \dots(\text{iii})$$

$$GD = GC + CD$$

where  $GD = \text{addendum} = \text{module}$

( $\because$  for metric gear)

$$\therefore GD = m$$

$$\text{and } CD = \frac{1}{4} \pi m \cos \phi \cdot \sin \phi$$

[ $\because$  from Equation (iii)]

$$\text{and } GC = \text{depth} = h$$

$$\therefore m = h + \frac{1}{4} \pi m \cos \phi \cdot \sin \phi$$

$$\therefore h = m - \frac{1}{4} \pi m \cos \phi \cdot \sin \phi$$

$$\therefore \text{Depth } h = m \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{4} \pi \cos \phi \cdot \sin \phi \right]$$





## Base Tangent Method

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## Base Tangent Method

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- It is the most commonly used method for checking the tooth thickness of gear.
- The advantage of this method is that, it depends only on one vernier reading unlike gear tooth vernier Caliper where we require two vernier readings.
- The base tangent length is the distance between the two parallel planes which are tangential to the opposing tooth flanks.
- PQ is the base tangent. The number of teeth over which the measurement is to be made for a particular gear is selected from the gear hand book



## Formulae in Base Tangent Method

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- The base tangent length will consists of one base circular thickness of tooth and number of base pitches.
- Base tangent length = One base circular thickness + Number of base pitches
- Theoretically the base pitch is given by,

$$\text{Base pitch} = \pi m \cos \phi$$

where  $\phi$  is the pressure angle

- If  $S$  is the number of tooth spaces contained in the base tangent length being measured then,

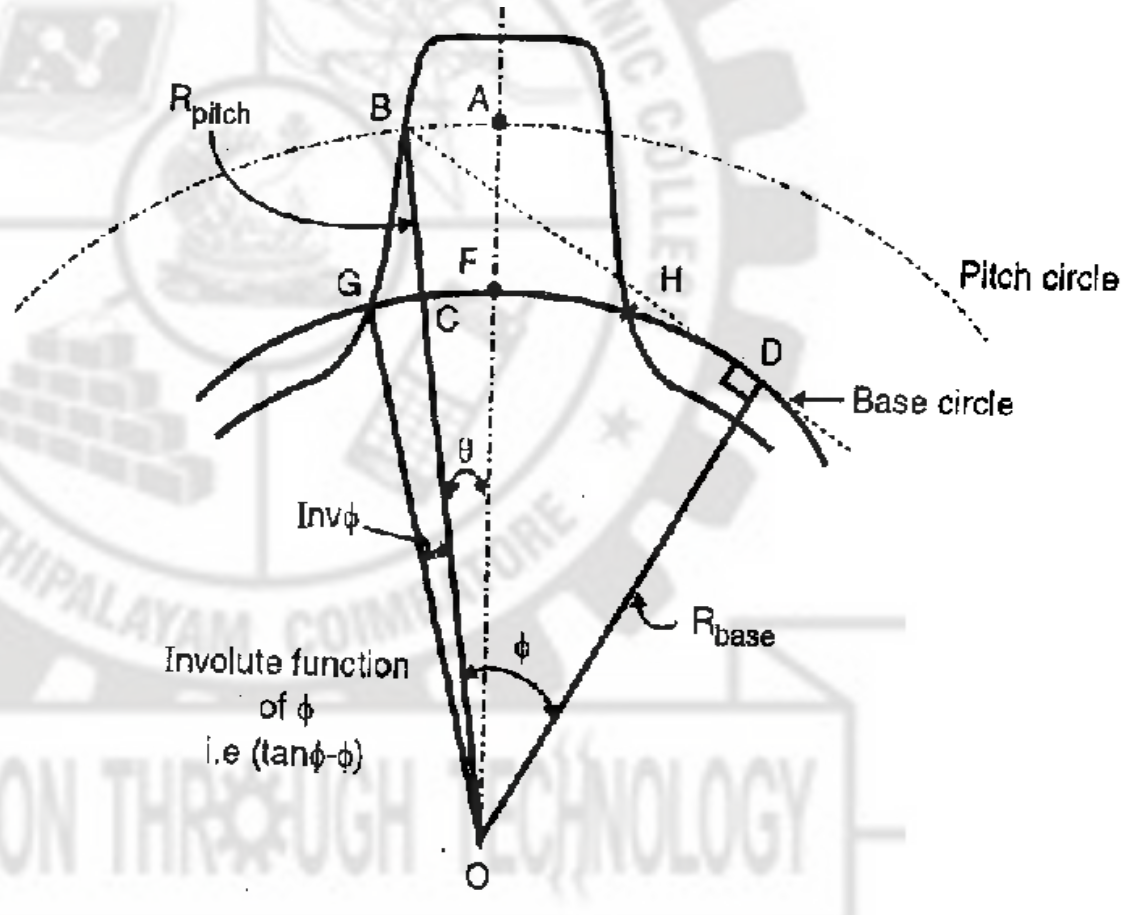
$$\text{Number of base pitches} = S \times \pi m \cos \phi$$

- Base tangent length = Arc GH + Arc HI = Arc GH +  $S \times \pi m \cos \phi$





## Base Tangent Method





## Calculation

The arc GH can be calculated as follows :

From the Fig. ,  $\text{Arc GH} = 2 \times \text{Arc GF}$

$$\text{Arc GH} = 2 \times (\text{Arc GC} + \text{Arc CF}) \quad \dots(i)$$

$$\text{As Arc } \frac{\text{GC}}{R_{\text{base}}} = \text{Involute function of } \phi \text{ in radians} = \tan \phi - \phi$$

$$\therefore (\tan \phi - \phi) = \frac{\text{Arc GC}}{R_{\text{base}}}$$

$$\therefore \text{Arc GC} = R_{\text{base}} \times (\tan \phi - \phi) \quad \dots(ii)$$

$$\text{As we know, } \cos \phi = \frac{\text{OD}}{\text{OB}} = \frac{D_{\text{base}}}{D_{\text{pitch}}} = \frac{R_{\text{base}}}{R_{\text{pitch}}}$$



$$\therefore R_{\text{base}} = R_{\text{pitch}} \times \cos \phi = \frac{Nm}{2} \cos \phi$$

Substituting  $R_{\text{base}}$  in Equation (ii)

$$\therefore \text{Arc GC} = \frac{Nm}{2} \cdot \cos \phi \cdot (\tan \phi - \phi)$$

$$\text{Now, As Arc BA} = \frac{1}{4} \times \text{circular pitch} = \frac{1}{4} \times \pi m$$



and from the Fig. ,  $\theta = \frac{\text{Arc BA}}{R_{\text{pitch}}}$

$$\theta = \frac{\frac{1}{4} \pi m}{\frac{Nm}{2}} = \frac{1}{4} \pi m \times \frac{2}{Nm}$$

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{2N}$$

...(iv)

Also from the Fig. ,  $\theta = \frac{\text{Arc CF}}{R_{\text{base}}}$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{Arc CF} &= R_{\text{base}} \times \theta \\ &= \frac{Nm}{2} \times \cos \phi \times \frac{\pi}{2N} \end{aligned}$$

[from Equations (iii) and (iv)]

Now, From Equation (i) Arc GH = 2 × [ (Arc GC + Arc CF) ]

$$= 2 \times \left[ \left( \frac{Nm}{2} \cdot \cos \phi \cdot (\tan \phi - \phi) \right) + \left( \frac{Nm}{2} \cos \phi \times \frac{\pi}{2N} \right) \right]$$

$$= Nm \cos \phi \left[ (\tan \phi - \phi) + \frac{\pi}{2N} \right]$$

Now Base tangent length = Arc GH + S × π m cos φ



$$= Nm \cos \phi \left[ (\tan \phi - \phi) + \frac{\pi}{2N} \right] + S \times \pi m \cos \phi$$

$$\text{Base tangent length} = Nm \cos \phi \left[ (\tan \phi - \phi) + \frac{\pi}{2N} + \frac{S\pi}{N} \right]$$

where  $N$  = Number of teeth

$m$  = Module

$\phi$  = Pressure angle (radian)

$S$  = Number of tooth spaces in base tangent length