

# Proceedings of International Conference on Future Technologies in Mechanical Engineering (ICFTME)



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HoD- Mech. Engg.

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***International Conference on  
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# ***Dyanamic Analysis of Machine Tools Structure***

*Sivasankara Gowda, B. Rajendra Prasad, B. Ashokkumar, Dr V. V. Prathibhabharathi*  
*Department of Mechanical Engineering, mrce, maisammaguda, secunderabad.*

*Sivasankara Gowda*

which may be represented as a simply supported beam loaded by concentrated force acting at its center, as shown in Fig. 1.1 below:

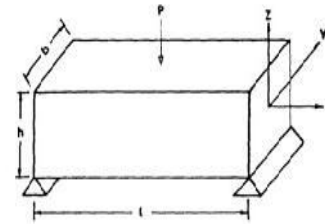


Fig. 1.1 simply supported beams

## **Profiles of Machine Tool Structures**

During the operation of the machine tool, a majority of its structures are subjected to compound loading and their resultant deformation consists of torsion, bending and tension or compression. Under simple tension or compressive loading, the strength and stiffness of an element depend only upon the area of cross-section. It is known from classical mechanics of elastic bodies that in the case of bending and torsion it is possible to decrease the requirement on material by a suitable choice of the form of the cross-section, by increasing the second moment of area at constant area of the cross-section i.e. at constant weight of the element.

The stiffness of four different commonly used sections of structures is compared with the  $I$  and  $J$  values in Table 1.3.

It is evident from Table 1.3 that the box-type section has the highest torsional stiffness and in the overall assessment seems best suited both in terms of strength and stiffness. The additional advantage that goes in its favor is the ease of proper mating with other surfaces. Thus, in the case of bending and especially for torsion the optimum from the point of view of stiffness is that of a closed box cross-section, the bending stiffness of which is as advantageous as that of the  $I$ -section and its torsional stiffness approaches that of a circular section.

## **Abstract-**

The objective of this present work is to estimate and the frequencies of mode shapes, Deflections, stresses that induced in the machine part used in a machine tool structure. The emphasis in this project is on the application of computer aided analysis using finite Element concept. A machine tool is a machine for shaping or machining metal or other rigid materials, usually by cutting, boring, grinding, shearing, or other forms of Deformation. Machine tool employs some sort of tool that does the cutting or shaping. All machine tool has some means of constraining the workpiece and provide a guided movement of the parts of the machine. In an analysis part the finite element of hollow machine member is created using solid tetrahedron elements, appropriate boundary conditions are applied, material properties are given and loads are applied as per its design, the resultant deformation and stresses and frequencies obtained are reported and discussed.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

Beds, bases, columns and box type housings are called "structures" in machine tools. In machine tools, 70-90% of the total weight of the machine is due to the weight of the structure.

In this chapter classification and functions of machine tool structure is described. Researchers have worked with different types of materials like cast iron, mild steel, granite and epoxy concrete for machine tool structure for different applications. Profile of the machine tool and selection of different stiffeners/ribs are

suggested by researchers. Quality of the job produced on these machine tools depends directly on the quality and performance of machine tools. To develop good products, design engineers need to study how their designs will behave in real-world conditions.



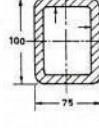
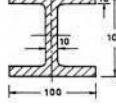
The limitations of physical model techniques have led to the development of mathematical models representing a variety of mechanical structures. As in this approach, whole structure is divided into finite elements, it is known as 'Finite Element Analysis'. The FEA is a very useful tool in engineering today and same has proved to be an important technique in machine tool structural analysis. Thus, Computer is an invaluable tool for a designer in his task for evaluating alternative designs to arrive at the optimum design and also predicting the static, dynamic and thermal behavior of the machine before arriving at the final design.

## **Design Criteria for Machine Tool Structure**

Consider a simple machine tool bed with two side walls,



Table 1.3 Comparison of stiffness of different sections having equal c/s area

Section	Area mm <sup>2</sup>	Weight kgf/m	Relative value of permissible			
			Bending moment		Torque	
			Stress	Deflection	Stress	Angle of twist
	29.0	22	1	1	1	1
	28.3	22	1.12	1.15	43	8.8
	29.5	22	1.4	1.6	38.5	31.4
	29.5	22	1.8	1.8	4.5	1.9





### Factors Affecting Stiffness of Machine Tool Structure and Methods to Improve It

In order to support the workpiece and position it correctly with respect to the cutter under the influence of cutting forces it is necessary for the structure to have high static and dynamic stiffness values. Stiffness of the structure is related to its shape of cross-section, cuts and apertures in walls of structures, cover plates, arrangement of ribs internally as well as externally etc.

#### Effect of aperture on torsional stiffness

In the most of the cases machine tool structures cannot be made of complete closed box type profile. There must be apertures, openings for free flow of chips and other purposes. Thus the actual machine tool profile is quite different from closed box profile. The apertures and openings in the structure have an adverse effect upon its strength and stiffness. It can be seen that a circular hole of diameter  $d$  affects a length of approximately twice the diameter, i.e. affected length,  $P=2Q$ . A long aperture affects the stiffness even more. The reduction in the static and dynamic stiffness of a structure can be partially compensated by using suitable cover plates. Results using cover plates are compared in Table 1.4.

Table 1.4 Effect of aperture and cover plate on stiffness of box type structures

	Relative stiffness about			Relative natural frequency of vibrations about			Relative damping of vibrations about		
	X-X	Y-Y	Z-Z	X-X	Y-Y	Z-Z	X-X	Y-Y	Z-Z
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	85	85	28	90	87	68	75	89	95
	89	89	35	95	91	90	112	95	165
	91	91	41	97	92	92	112	95	185

#### Effect of End Cover plate on stiffness of structure

Provision of an end cover plate reduces considerably the deflections in y and z directions of a thin walled column in torsion Fig. 1.3, while in case of bending no significant improvement is observed. Thickness of end cover plate is varied and behavior of structure is observed and after analysis optimum thickness of end cover plates should be taken.

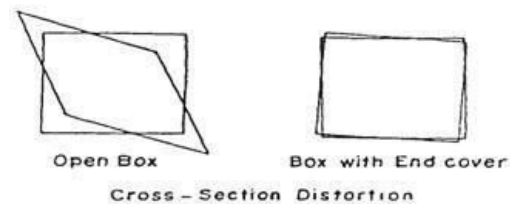


Fig. 1.3 Comparison of cross section deformation with and without end cover plate

#### Effect of ribs arrangement in closed box structure

For the purpose of direct comparison, different ribbing arrangement in case of closed box structure is shown in Table 1.6. But the most effective arrangement of ribs is 'diamond shaped ribs', which is not shown in above table. The results of above table can be realized with graphical plots, Fig. 1.4(a) and (b).

Fig. 1.4 (a)

Stiffness variation with different ribbing arrangement with and without end covers

(b) Stiffness variation as a function of different ribbing arrangement

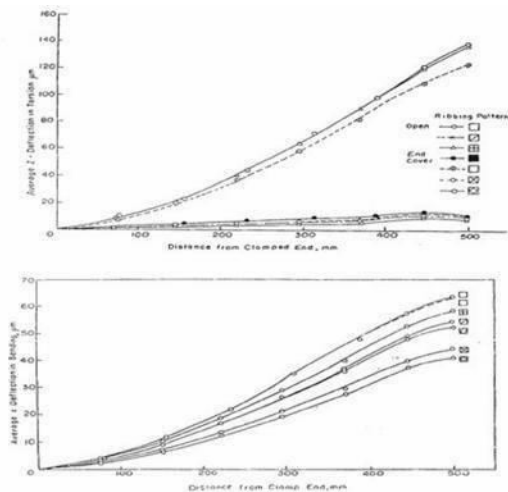


Table 1.6 Effect of stiffener on bending and torsional stiffness of box-type structures

Stiffener arrangement		Relative stiffness under		Relative weight	Relative stiffness per unit weight under	
		Bending	Torsion		Bending	Torsion
1		1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
2		1.10	1.65	1.1	1.0	1.48
3		1.06	2.04	1.14	0.95	1.79
4		1.17	2.16	1.38	0.85	1.56
5		1.78	3.65	1.45	1.20	3.07
6		1.55	2.94	1.26	1.23	2.39

### Effect of Fastening bolts and External Vertical stiffeners at bottom

The stiffness of structures can also be improved by providing a proper arrangement of fastening bolts. The effect of bolt arrangement and stiffening ribs on the bending and torsional stiffness of a vertical column is depicted. It is evident from Fig. 1.7 that by arranging the fastening bolts uniformly, the stiffness can be improved by 10 - 20%. By additionally providing flange stiffeners, at bottom, the column stiffness can be increased by almost 50%. Rigidity of the machine tool as a whole depends upon the rigidity with which various units are clamped. It should be kept in mind those joints between various structural elements.

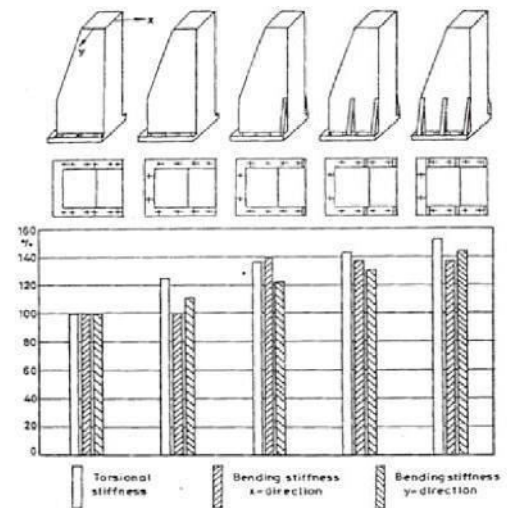
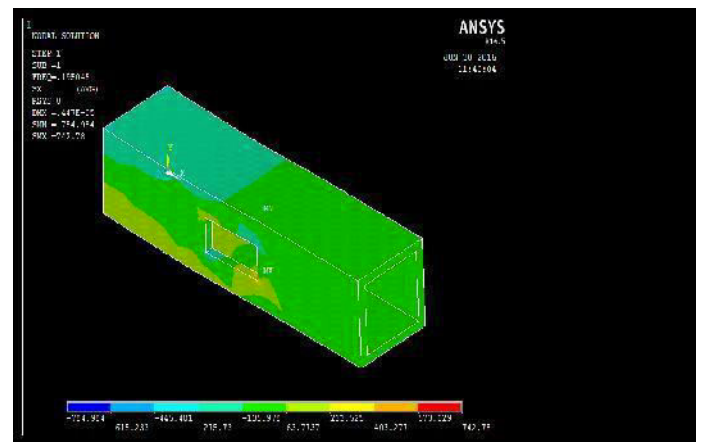


Fig. 1.7 different arrangement of flange type stiffeners

## II. RESULTS

Plot results → counterplot → nodal solution → stresses → X direction → ok

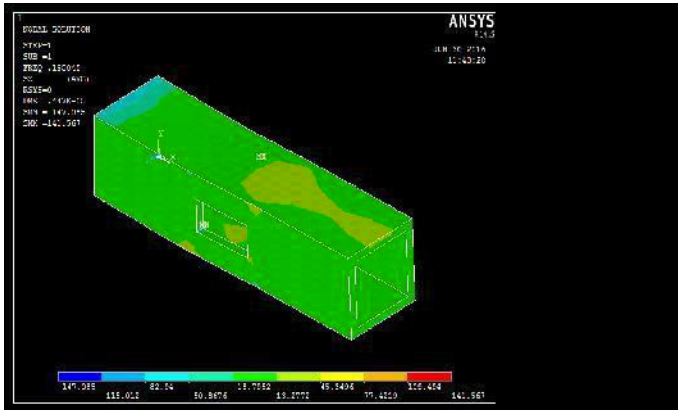


.Plot results → counterplot → nodal solution → stresses → Y direction → ok



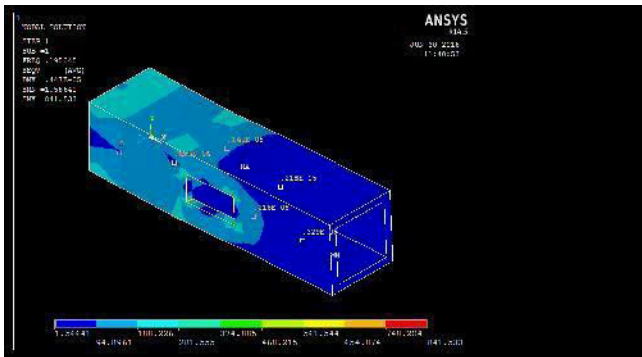


- Plotresults→counter plot→nodal solution→stresses→Zdirection→ok



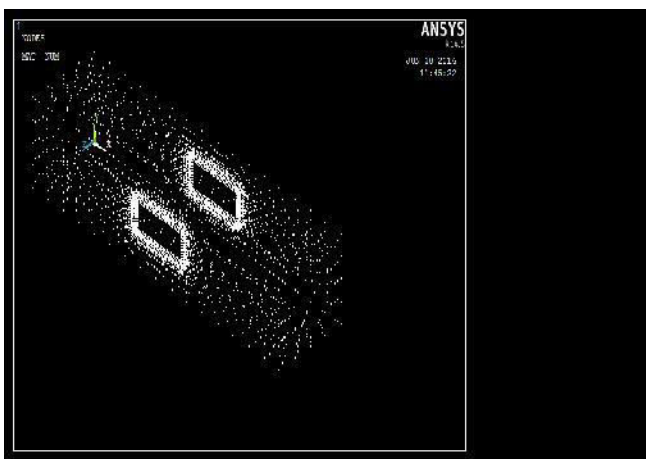
### III. CONCLUSION

- Queryresults→subgridsolutions→alldof→UYdirection→ok



The limitation of physical model techniques have led to the development of mathematical models representing a variety of mechanical structures. As in this approach, whole structure is divided into finite elements, it is known as 'Finite Element Analysis'. The FEA is a very useful tool in engineering today and same has proved to be an important technique in machine tool structural analysis. Thus, Computer is an invaluable tool for a designer in his task for evaluating alternative designs to arrive at the optimum design and also predicting the static, dynamic and thermal behavior of the machine before arriving at the final design. In an analysis part the finite element of hollow machine member is created using solid tetrahedron elements, appropriate boundary conditions are applied, material properties are given and loads are applied as per its design, the resultant deformation and stresses and frequencies obtained are reported and discussed.

- Plot→nodes→path operation→define path→by nodes→select nodes→ok



Path operations→define path→plot graph→ok

## Static Analysis of Machine Tool Structure

Sivasankara Gowda, B.Rajendra Prasad, Dr.V.V.PrathibhaBharathi

Mechanical Engineering Department, Mallareddy College of Engineering, Maisammaguda,Secunderabad

### Abstract—

theobjectiveofthispresentworkistoestimatethedeflection,stressesandthevonmisesStresses thatincludeinthemachinepartusedinamachine toolstructure.TheemphasisinThisprojectisontheapplicationofcomputer aided

analysisusingfiniteelementconceptAmachinetoolisamachineforshapingormachiningmetalorother rigid materials,byCutting,boring,grinding,shearing,orotherformsofdeformation.Machinetoolemploysomesortoftoolthatdoesthecuttingorshaping.Allmachinetoolshavesome meansofConstrainingtheworkpieceandprovideaguidedmovementofthepartsofthemachine.Inanalysispartthefiniteelementofhollowmachinememberiscreatedusing solid Tetrahedron elements, appropriate boundary conditions are applied, material properties Are given and loads are applied as per its design, the result ant deformation and stresses and obtained are reported and discussed.

**Keywords:** FEA,ANSYS, Meshing etc...

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION TO MACHINE TOOL

Beds,bases,columnsandboxtype housings are called “structures” in machinetools. In machinetools, 70-90% of the total weight of the machine is due to the weight of the structure. In this chapter classification and functions of machine tool structure is described. Researchers have worked with different types of materials like cast iron, mild steel, granite and epoxy concrete for machine tool structure for different applications. Profile of the machine tool and selection of different stiffeners/ribs are suggested by researchers. Quality of the job produced on these machine tools depends directly on the quality and performance of machine tools. To develop good products, design engineers need to study how their designs will behave in real-world conditions.

### 1.2 FUNCTION OF MACHINE TOOL STRUCTURE AND THEIR REQUIREMENTS

Machinetool parts, such as beds, bases, columns, box-type housings, overarms, carriages, table etc. are known as structures. Basic function of machine tool structure areas follows:

- Toproviderigid support on which various subassemblies can be mounted i.e.beds,bases.
- Toprovide housings for individual units or their assemblies like gearbox, spindle head.
- Tosupport and movetheworkpiece and tool relatively, i.e.table,carriage,tailstock etc.

Machinetool structures must satisfy the following requirements:

- All important mating surface of the structure should be machined with a high degree of accuracy to provide the desired geometrical accuracy;
- The initial geometrical accuracy of the structure should be maintained during the whole service life of the machine tool; and
- The shapes and sizes of the structure should not only provide a safe operation and maintenance of the machine tool but also ensure that working stresses and deformations do not exceed specific limits; it should be noted that the stresses and deformations are due to mechanical as well as thermal loading.
- Efficient thermal control on machine elements such as spindle, ballscrew and bearings for better part accuracy.
- Fast tool change system.
- Very high rapid traverse rates of around 40-60m/min for fast tool positioning and very high cutting feed rates for increased metal removal rates.

The design features that provide for ease of manufacture, maintenance, etc. are

peculiar to each structure and will, therefore, be discussed separately for different structures. However, there are two common features, which are fundamental to the satisfactory fulfillment of above requirements for all structures. These are:

- Proper selection of material.
- High static and dynamic stiffness.

### 1.3 CLASSIFICATION OF MACHINE TOOL STRUCTURE

Classification of machine tool structures which can be subdivided by various characteristics into the following groups:

- By purpose into:
  - Beds, frameworks, carrying bodies.
  - Bases, bed plates etc.
  - Housing, boxes, columns, pillar, brackets.
  - Castings and covers.
- By the method of manufacture into:
  - Cast.
  - Welded.
  - Combined cast and welded.
- By function they perform:
  - Beds and bases, upon which the various subassemblies are mounted.
  - Box type housings in which individual units are assembled.
  - Parts that serve for supporting and moving workpiece and tool i.e. table, carriage etc.



#### 1.4 BASIC DESIGN PROCEDURE FOR MACHINE TOOL STRUCTURE

In order to design a particular machine tool structure, it is first essential to draw up its design diagram. Machine tool structures have, as a rule, highly complicated profiles. In designing the structure of a machine tool a number of requirements must be respected. These are the possibility of placing the whole range of workpieces into the machine, then necessary ranges of travel, sufficient room for chips, room for all mechanisms and for hydraulic, electric and other equipment, the possibility of easy assembly of the structure and of its parts and of subsequent dismantling, easy access for the operator where necessary, and the limitation of thermal distortions of the structure. Further, it is necessary to design all parts of the frame with such shapes and of such dimensions as to ensure suitable rigidity of the frame.

Forces occur during the machining operation giving rise to deformations, which disturb the accuracy of machining. Some of the forces do not depend on the intensity of the cutting process as for instance the weight forces of the moving parts of the machine. Their influence on accuracy of the others, such as cutting forces, is related to the rate of machining. The relation between forces and deformations and their combined effect on the machining operation lead to requirements on the stiffness of the individual parts of the structure and of the structure as a whole.

According to various kinds of forces, which occur during the machining operation, various specifications of requirements on stiffness may be stated. These forces will be classified into four groups corresponding to four different criteria

##### A. DEFORMATIONS CAUSED BY WEIGHT FORCES

During the movement of the individual parts of the structure the distribution of their weights and of the weight of the workpiece varies. Consequently the deformations of the frame vary. The criterion is that any deviations arising do not disturb the prescribed geometric accuracy of the machine tool.

##### B. DEFORMATIONS CAUSED BY CUTTING FORCES

During the operation the cutting force varies and its point of application moves. In consequence, the deformations of the frame will vary causing deviations of the form of the machined surfaces. This effect may be limited by decreasing the cutting conditions and consequently the output of the operation. Cutting force depends upon the workpiece material; machining parameters, wear of cutting tool etc. For a designer knowledge about the nature and direction of the force and the point where it acts on the structure is often more important than a very precise knowledge of its magnitude.

##### C. FORCED VIBRATIONS

In the machine tool disturbing periodic forces occur. They are caused mainly by the unbalance of rotating parts and by errors of accuracy in some driving elements. They

excite forced vibrations, which result in the waviness of machined surfaces. The criterion is to limit forced vibrations so as to achieve the required surface quality.

##### D. SELF-EXCITED VIBRATIONS

Under certain conditions, generally connected with the increase of the machining rate self-excited vibrations occur and these are energized by the cutting process. They cause an unacceptable waviness of the machined surface and endanger the strength and life of the parts of the machine and of the tools. The criterion is that in the required range of operations and of cutting conditions self-excited vibrations shall not occur and the cutting process must be stable.

The individual criteria are almost independent of one another. Nevertheless, experience shows that criterion 4 prevails and if it is satisfied then criterion 2 and often also criterion 1 and 3 are more than fulfilled. The problem of stability of the frame against self-excited vibrations energized by the cutting process is not only the most important one but also the most difficult. All four criteria determine requirements on some resulting stiffness, static or dynamic, between the tool and the workpiece. By analyzing this resulting stiffness, requirements on the individual parts of the frame may be derived.

## II METHODS

### 2.1 FINITE ELEMENT METHOD

#### 2.1.1 Need of Finite Element Method

To predict the behavior of the structure the designer adopts three toolssuch as analytical, experimental and numerical methods. The analytical method is used for the regular sections of known geometric entities where the component geometry is expressed mathematically. The solution obtained through analytical method is exact and takes less time. This method cannot be used for the irregular sections and the shapes which require very complex mathematical equations.

The finite element method is so popular because of its adaptability towards use of digital computers. The finite element method predicts the component behavior at desired accuracy of any complex and irregular geometry at least price.

#### 2.1.2 General Description of Finite Element Method

In the finite element method, the actual continuum or body of matter like, solid, liquid or gas is represented as an assemblage of subdivisions called finite elements. These elements are considered to be interconnected at specific joints, which are called nodes or nodal points. The nodes usually lie on the element boundaries where adjacent elements are considered to be connected. Since the actual variation of the field variable (like displacement, temperature, pressure and velocity) inside the continuum is not known. We assume that the variation of the field variable inside a finite element can be approximated by a simple function. These approximating

functions (also called as interpolation models) are defined in terms of the values at the nodes.

When field equations (like equilibrium equations) for the whole continuum are rewritten, the new unknown will be the nodal values of the field variable. By solving the field equations, are generally in the form of matrix equations, the approximating function defines the field variable throughout the assemblage of elements.

The solution of a general continuum by the finite element method always follows an orderly step by step process. The step by step procedure for static structural problem can be stated as follows

**STEP1: Discretization of structure (domain)**

The first step in the finite element method is to divide the structure or solution region into sub-divisions or elements.

**STEP2: Selection of a proper interpolation model.**

Since the displacement (field variable) solution of a complex structure under any specified load conditions can't be predicted exactly. We assume some suitable solution within an element to approximate the unknown solution. The assumed solution must be simple from computational point of view, and it should satisfy certain convergence requirements.

**STEP3: Element stiffness matrices (characteristic matrices) and load vectors.**

From the assumed displacement model the stiffness matrix  $[K(e)]$  and the load vector

$F(e)$  of element 'e' are to be derived by using either the equilibrium conditions or a suitable variation principle.

**STEP4: Assemblage of element equations to obtain the overall equilibrium equations.** Since the structure is composed of several finite elements, the individual element stiffness matrices and load vectors are to be assembled in a suitable manner and the overall equilibrium equations have to be formulated as

$$[K]q = F$$

$[K]$  is called as assembled stiffness matrix,  $q$  is called the vector of nodal displacement and  $F$  is the vector of nodal forces of the complete structure.

**STEP5: Solution of system equations have to be modified to account for the boundary conditions of the problem.** After incorporation of the boundary conditions, the equilibrium can be expressed

$$[K]q = F$$

For linear problems, the vector 'q' can be solved very easily, But for nonlinear analysis problems, the solution has to be obtained in a sequence of steps, each step involving the modification of the stiffness matrix  $[k]$  and/or the load vector  $F$ .

**STEP6: Computation of Element Stresses and Strains.** From the known nodal displacements, if required, the element stresses and strains can be computed by using the necessary equations of solid or structural mechanics

**2.1.3 Explanation of FEM by Step by Step Procedure:**

The steps involved in the finite element analysis are stated in this section.

**1. Discretization of the domain:**

The discretization of the domain or solution region in the sub-region (finite elements) is the first step in the finite element method. This is equivalent to replacing the domain having an infinite number of degrees of freedom by a system having a finite number of degrees of freedom. The shapes, size, number and configuration of the elements have to be chosen carefully such that the original body is simulated as closely as possible without increasing the computational effort for the solution.

**2. Basic Element Shapes:**

For any given physical body we have to see engineering judgment in selection of appropriate elements for discretization. The type of element is indicated by the geometry of the body and the number of independent spatial co-ordinates necessary to describe the system. The geometry, material, properties and other parameters like stress, displacement, pressure and temperature can be described in terms of one or two spatial co-ordinates we can use one-dimensional element. When the configuration and the detail of the problem can be described in terms of two independent spatial co-ordinates, we can use the two-dimensional element. The basic element useful for the two-dimensional analysis is the triangular element. If the geometry, material properties and other parameters of the body can be described by three spatial co-ordinates, we can idealize the body by using the three-dimensional elements. The basic three-dimensional elements analogous to triangular elements are the tetrahedral elements.

**3. Size of Elements:**

The size of elements influences the convergence of the solutions directly and hence it has to be chosen with care.

If the size of the element is small, the final solution is expected to be more accurate.

The size of the element has to be very small near the region where stress concentration is expected compared to far away places.

Another characteristic related to the size of elements, which affects the finite element solution is the aspect ratio of the elements. For two-dimensional of the element to the smallest dimension. Elements with an aspect ratio of nearly unity generally yield best results.

**4. Location of Nodes:**

If the body has no abrupt changes in geometry, material properties and external conditions (like load, temperature etc) the body can be divided into equal subdivisions and hence the spacing of the nodes can be uniform. On the other hand, if there are any discontinuities in the problem, nodes have to be introduced obviously, at these discontinuities.

**5. Number of Elements:**

The number of elements to be chosen for idealization is related to the accuracy desired, size of elements and the number of degrees of freedom involved. Although an increase in number of elements generally means more accurate results, for any given problem they will be a certain number of elements which means more accurate results, and there can even be a number of elements beyond which the accuracy cannot be improved by any significant amount.



Moreover, since the use of a large number of elements involves a large number of degrees of freedom, we may not be able to store the resulting matrices in the available computer memory.

## 2.2 ANSYS

The following pages should give you a brief and basic introduction to the architecture and structure of a commercial finite element analysis program. The basic ideas can be applied in most programs but examples are taken from the software ANSYS. We will here only focus on structural mechanics in ANSYS.

### 2.2.1 BASIC PROGRAM STRUCTURE:

**Utility menu:** Here you can access and adjust properties about your session, such as file controls, listing and graphic controls. **Toolbar:** Push buttons to commonly used commands.

**Main menu:** Here you can find the processors used when analyzing your problem.

**Graphics window:** In the graphics window your model is displayed: geometry.

**Input window:** You can type commands in the input window.

### 1. Preprocessor:

Within the preprocessor the model is set up. It includes a number of steps and usually in the following order:

**Build geometry.** Depending on whether the problem geometry is one, two or three dimensional, the geometry consists of creating lines, areas or volumes. These geometries can then, if necessary, be used to create other geometries by the use of Boolean operations. The key idea when building the geometry like this is to simplify the generation of the element mesh. Hence, this step is optional but most often used. Nodes and elements can however be created from coordinates only.

**Define materials.** A material is defined by its material constants. Every element has to be assigned a particular material.

**Generate element mesh.** The problem is discretized with nodal points. The nodes are connected to form finite elements, which together form the material volume. Depending on the problem and the assumptions that are made, the element type has to be determined. Common element types are *truss, beam, plate, shell* and *solid elements*. Each element type may contain several subtypes, e.g. 2D 4-noded solid, 3D 20-noded solid elements. Therefore, care has to be taken when the element type is chosen.

The element mesh can in ANSYS be created in several ways. The most common way is that it is automatically created, however more or less controlled. For example you can specify a certain number of elements in a specific area, or you can force the mesh generator to maintain a specific element size within an area. Certain element shapes or sizes are not recommended and if these limits are violated, a warning will be generated in ANSYS. It is up to the user to create

a mesh which is able to generate results with a sufficient degree of accuracy.

### 2. Solution processor:

Here you solve the problem by gathering all specified information about the problem:

### 3. Postprocessor:

Within this part of the analysis you can for example:

**Visualize the results:** For example plot the deformed shape of the geometry or stresses.

**List the results:** If you prefer tabular listings or file printouts, it is possible.

## 3. PROBLEM FORMULATION AND METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 problem formulation:

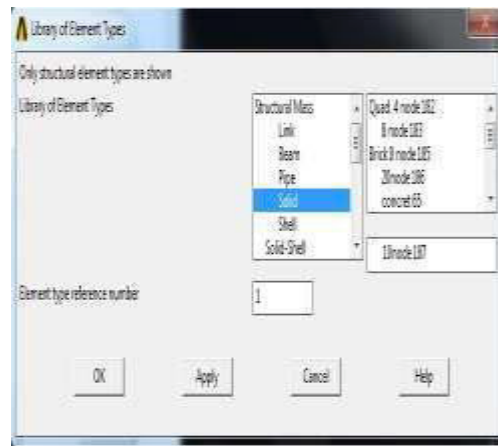
The objective of this present work is to estimate the deflection, stress and the von Mises stresses that induced in the machine part used in a machine tool structure. The emphasis in this project is on the application of computer aided analysis using finite element concept.

### 3.2 Methodology

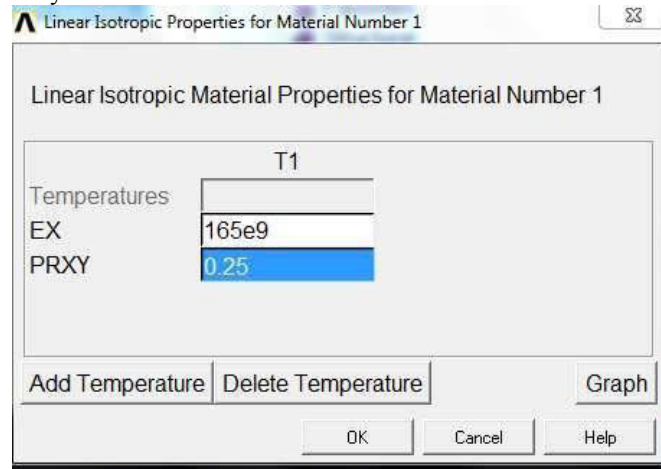
1. preferences → structural → ok



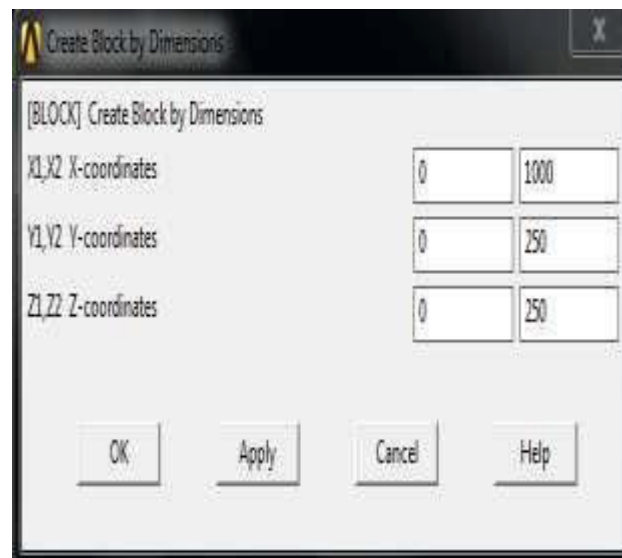
2. Preprocessor → element type → add → non defined → add → so lid → 10 node 187 → ok → close



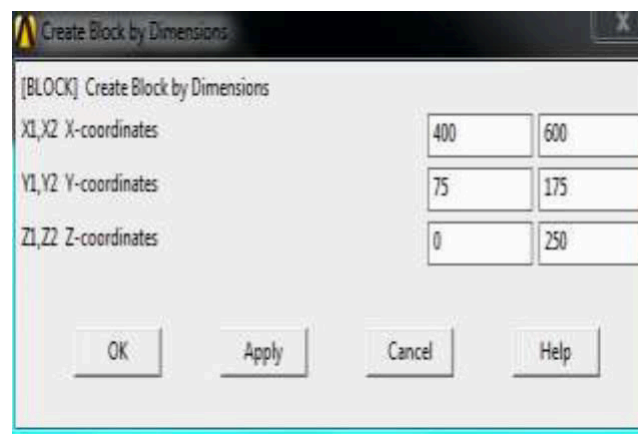
3. Material properties → material model → structure → linear → elastic → isotropic  $E = 165e9$   
 $\nu = 0.25$



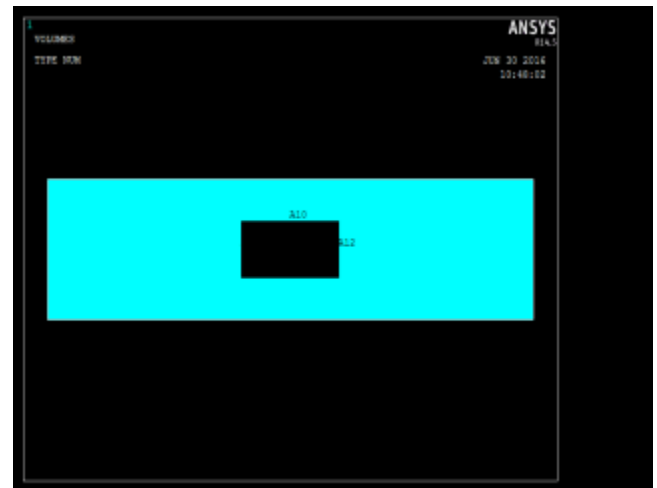
4. Modeling → create → volumes → block → by dimensions



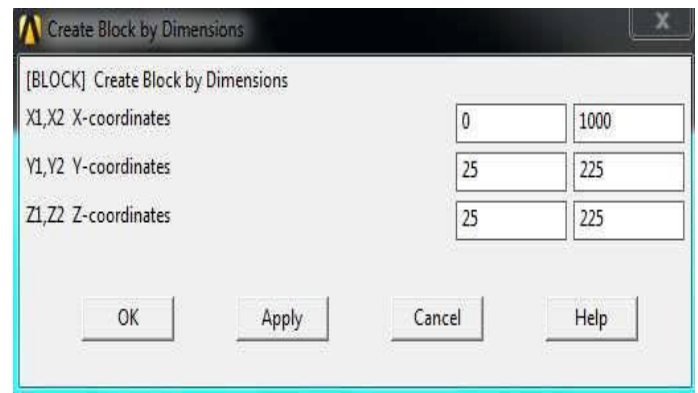
5. Modeling → create → volumes → block → by dimensions



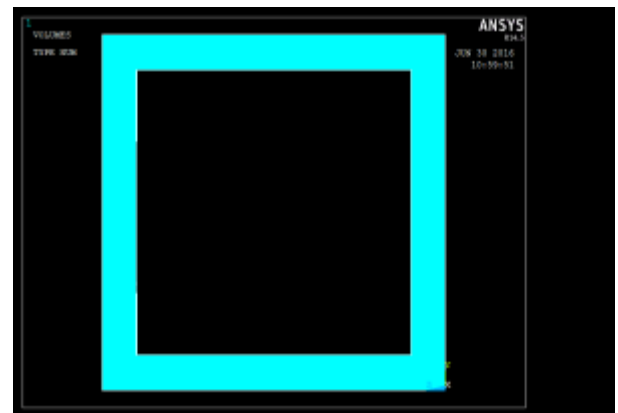
6. Modeling → operate → booleans → subtract → volumes



7. Modeling → create → volumes → block → by dimensions

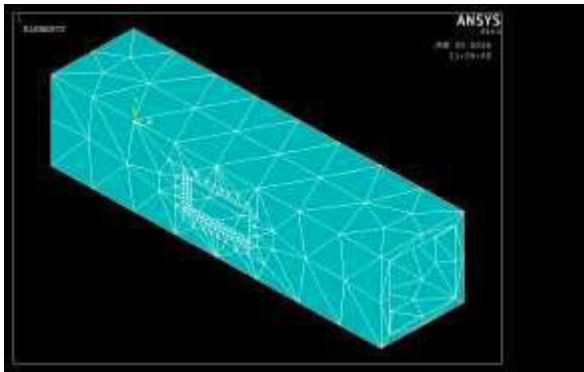


8. Modeling → operate → Booleans → subtract → volumes

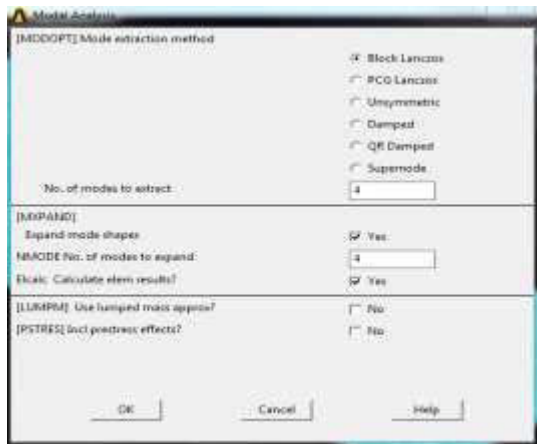


9. Meshing → mesh → volume → free → select volume → ok

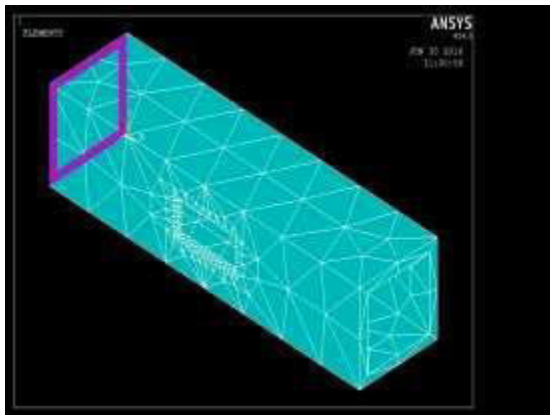




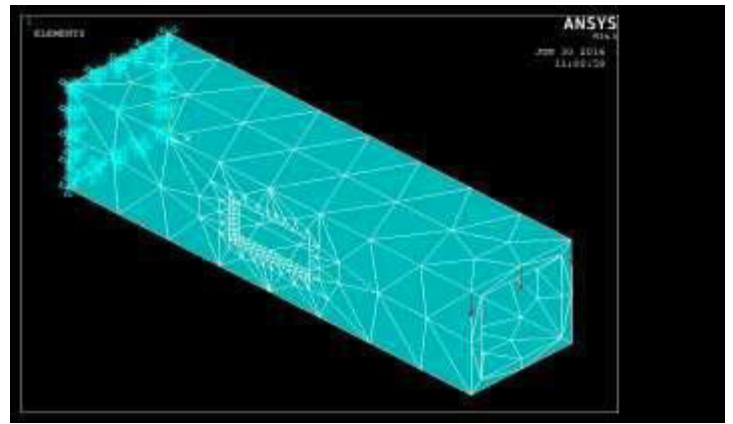
10 Loads→analysis→options→ok



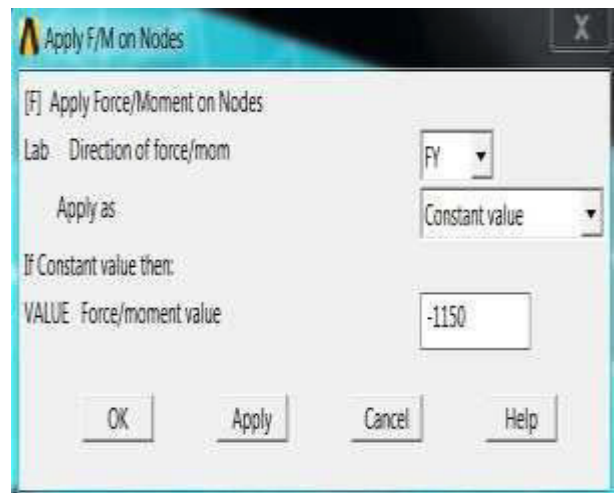
11. Loads→defineloads→apply→structural→displacement  
→onarea→selectarea→ok



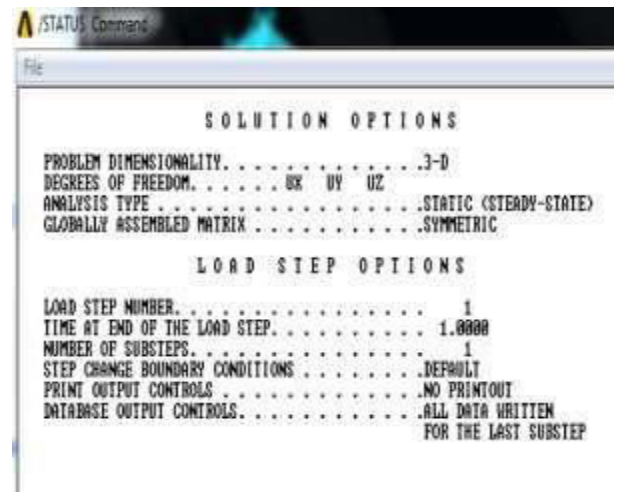
12. Loadsforcemomentonnodesselectnodesok



13. Select→ direction oftheload→  
giveforce/momentvalue→ok



14. Solution→solve→currentL.S→ok→close



11 Generalpostprocessor→readresults→firstset

12 Plotresults→deformedshapes→def+undeformed  
→ok

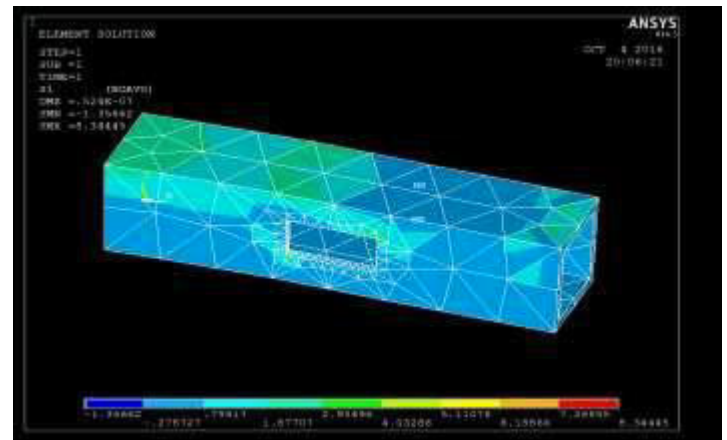
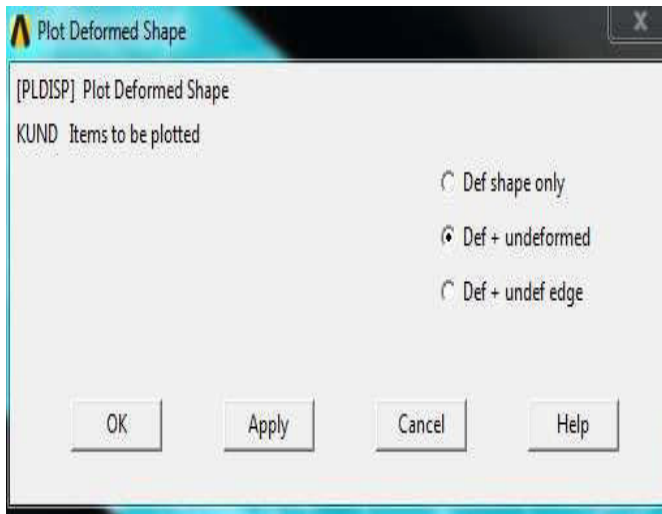


Fig5.3 Element solution of stress in S1 direction.

## 5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### 5.1 Deformed structure

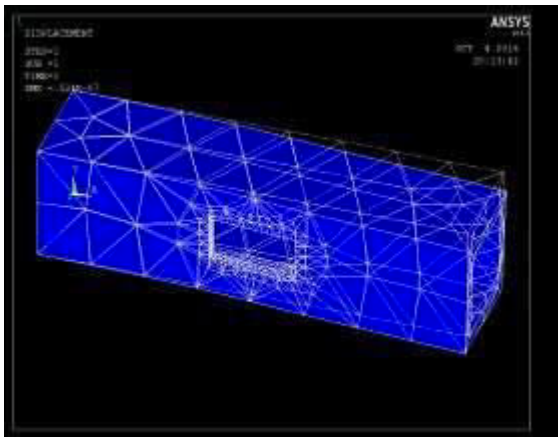


Fig5.1 deformed structure

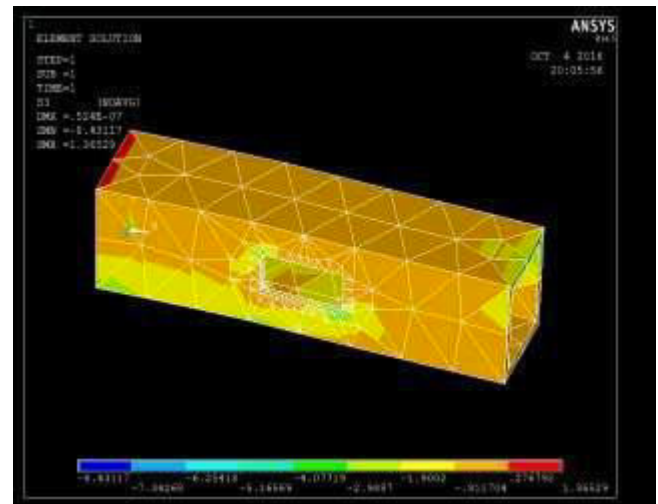


Fig5.4 Element solution of stresses in S3 direction

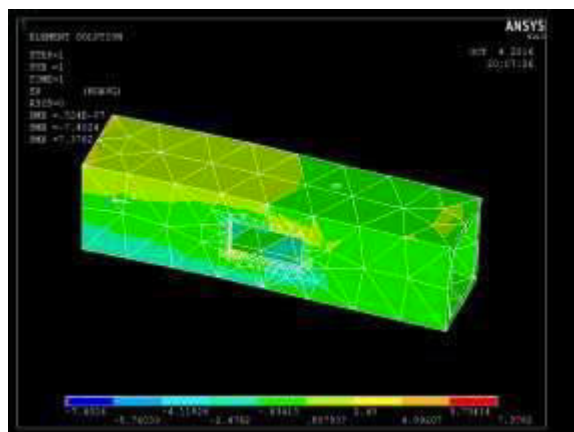


Fig5.2 Element solution of stresses in X direction.

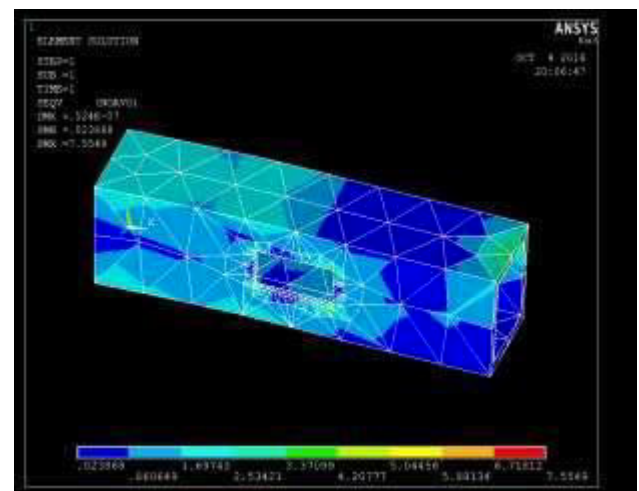


Fig5.5 Element solution of Equivalent von mises stresses



## 6 CONCLUSION & FUTURE SCOPE

The limitations of physical model techniques have led to the development of mathematical models representing a variety of mechanical structures. As in this approach, whole structure is divided into finite elements, it is known as 'Finite Element Analysis'. The FEA is a very useful tool in engineering today and same has proved to be an important technique in machine tool structural analysis. Thus, Computer is an invaluable tool for a designer in his task for evaluating alternative designs to arrive at the optimum design and also predicting the static behavior of the machine before arriving at the final design. Machine tool has some means of constraining the workpiece and provide a guided movement of the parts of the machine. In analysis of hollow machine member is created using solid tetrahedron elements, appropriate boundary conditions are applied, material properties are given and loads are applied as per its design, the resultant deformation and stresses vonmises stresses obtained are reported in Results.

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# ***Study of Mechanical and Water Absorption Behavior of Short Natural Fiber Reinforced Hybrid Composites***

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**Abstract**—The natural fiber composite materials are rapidly showing both in terms of their, individual applications and fundamental research they are renewable biodegradable, availability, low density, ecofriendly, price as well as satisfactory mechanical properties to make them attractive & ecological alternative to glass fibers used for manufacturing composite materials. The natural fiber composite materials are used in transportation, military applications, building and constructions industries, packing. In the present work hybrid composites are made using the *Kenaf* and *Cocus Nucifera* of 7mm lengths and PVC resin. Mechanical properties like tensile strength, impact strength and water absorption properties are evaluated.

**Keywords**—*Hybrid Short natural fiber composites; Mechanical propertie; water absorption properties .*

## **I. INTRODUCTION**

Present day quality of human life can be attributed to the advances taking place in materials and technologies in various fields. In fact, any technological advancement has its impact on biodiversity. Land, water and air are being polluted without concern for the flora and fauna causing extinction of various living species. Global warming and greenhouse effect are due to undue exploitation of the gifts of nature. To help our future generations in sustaining the hardships of life, it is our responsibility to preserve the earth as safe abode for human existence. It is possible by adopting policies for development and application of materials and technologies that cause least damage to the environment. Earlier concept of producing things that are rare, exotic and for trade gains has altogether changed towards preserving or enhancing the environment and life processes giving birth to concepts like: sustainable, eco-friendly or green. Green composites are reinforced plastic materials developed from renewable sources using natural fibers and polymers. Different kinds of plant or animal based of natural fibers and polymers from organic substances like cellulose, starch or vegetable oils are used for developing these composites.

## **II. IMPORTANCE OF GREEN COMPOSITES**

All human activity is entwined with the use of materials. For millennia, humans have endeavored to use the readily available materials like stone, clay, mud, wood, bone, hide and other vegetable produce for construction of their homes, tools

and implements and means of transport. As Centuries rolled over, man discovered the secrets of nature and started its exploitation. He started building synthetic materials. There has been a gradual decline of the direct application of natural resources. Further we have reached to view that the use of traditional materials is inferior to synthetic materials. Fiber reinforced composites have attracted the aerospace and transportation industry due to their weight savings and many other superior properties. Today they find wide applications in containers, sports goods, electronics and appliances as well as in medical field. These composites are synthesized from different kinds of fibers such as: glass, aramid, graphite, carbon, boron, etc. and matrix materials: polyester and epoxy resins. They have excellent properties but they are not biodegradable. Mostly they are incinerated or disposed in landfills resulting in emission of toxic gases or cause soil impermeability. Recycling and disposal pose adverse effect on the environment. Thus the need for sustainable technology has driven the concerned scientists and engineers for reviving the use of natural materials and development of composites called green composites.

The natural fiber composites are CO<sub>2</sub> neutral, consume low energy for their production, give less problem for health and safety of workers, less abrasive, more pleasant to handle and give natural image. They have good specific, thermal and acoustic properties. They are costly compared to glass fiber reinforced plastics but use of inexpensive fibers and biodegradable matrices may balance the cost. Moisture adsorption, fluctuation in quality, dimensional instability, susceptibility to rotting, swelling, etc., are certain limitations

### **A. Historical Applications [1]**

The 'green' concept in materials is not entirely new but dates back to the early examples of straw reinforced bricks, composite bows of mediaeval times. It was noted that even 3000 years ago, there have been designs of Egyptian chariots whose wheels were made of heat formed wood, laminated and bound with skin that made the wheel a tough and resilient composite and biodegradable vehicle part.

The advent of synthetic polymers and modern natural fiber reinforced polymers go back to the early part of the twentieth century. Even before that in 1850, frames for photographs were made using compound of shellac and wood flour. Consumer goods such as radio and speaker cases were

made using Bakelite molding resin along with wood flour or waste string and rags.

During 1924-1930s, there was an increased interest in the use of natural fibers and synthetic resins for the construction of air screws and primary materials for the aircraft. There were several war time applications for cellulose based composites employing paper impregnated with adhesives. Much interest was shown in making parts for several important applications such as wing spar, fuselage, pilot seat, and the fuel drop tank, etc. With the advent of strong, and stable synthetic fibers and liquid polymers such as unsaturated polyesters and epoxies, use of cellulose fiber reinforced composites in structural applications was superseded by wholly synthetic composites. Gordon-Aerolite was produced by laying up skeins of resin impregnated unbleached flax yarn to form a cross-ply laminate structure. Strengths comparable to duralumin were noted. The Cord-Aerolite was produced with reinforcement of woven cotton fabric in which number of cords in the warp direction formed around 90% of the total. These cords were embedded in bakelite matrix and the resulting composite has a tensile strength of 180 MPa and Young's modulus around 13.8 GPa. Early green composites were not only found in air craft structures but also in several automotive applications of the Ford Motors.

### B. Contemporary Applications

Waste fibers from recycled wood or news print and different natural fibers and resins produced from vegetable oils and other plant derivatives are used to produce the present day green composites. These composites find applications ranging from aerospace to consumer goods. The so-called Wood-fiber Plastic Composites (WPCs) produced using the above constituents help in removing waste stream materials that would otherwise be difficult to dispose off. Recycled wood fiber, waste agricultural fibers or byproducts from textile manufacture have all been considered as reinforcement in green composite materials. The wood-fiber plastic composites have advantages over the basic wood products such as good appearance, no splintering, improved resistance to biodegradation and insect attack as well as low maintenance.

Several products for building construction such as decking, window/door profiles, railings, fencing, siding, decorative trim, etc., offer great competition to the wood products. Several infrastructural applications include, boardwalks, bridge, guardrails, marine, small fishing boats, etc. In automobiles, upholstery, interior panels, rear shelves, truck floor, door trim panels, ducting, head liners can be made. Furniture, toys, gardening equipment, playground benches/tables, pallets and other consumer products can be made. Components such as computers and monitors, mobile phone covers could be produced from biodegradable composite materials. Bio-packaging can be introduced in the packaging industry.

## III. LITERATURE REVIEW

To utilize and design the materials successfully for industrial applications, it is first imperative to determine their properties that affect the performance. A summary of investigations by various researchers is presented here.

Wambua, P.[2] has investigated mechanical properties of sisal, kenaf, hemp, jute and coir reinforced polypropylene(PP) composites processed by compression molding using film stacking method. Akessonm, D.[3] has used two different bio-resins anepoxidized soy-bean oil(Tribest) resin and a functionalized PLA resin for hemp, wool, flax mats to develop natural fiber composites with spray impregnation from bio-based thermoset resins to investigate curing behavior and mechanical properties. Joffe, R.[4] has studied matrix/fiber compatibility, stiffness, strength and fracture toughness to select the best resin/fiber combination. Five different thermoset resins were used to manufacture flax fiber composites by resin transfer molding. Arbelaiz[5]has investigated the influence of maleic anhydride grafted polypropylene(MAPP)coupling agent on the mechanical properties of short flax fiber reinforced PP composites. Khalid, M.[6] has studied the effect of MAPP as coupling agent for PP-cellulose derived from oil palm empty fruit bunch fiber.

It was found that treatment of fiber has significant influence on mechanical properties. George, J.[7] has investigated fiber surface modifications by alkali, silane and isocyanate treatments to improve the fiber-matrix interactions of flax fiber reinforced epoxy composites. Karmakar, A.C.[8] has studied short jute fibers reinforced in PP. Addition of 50wt% of jute fibers increased bonding strength of virgin PP from 32.33MPa to 49.97MPa. Further improvement up to 87.66MPa was achieved by adding 3wt% MAPP as coupling agent. Santos P.A.[9] studied mercerization and N<sub>2</sub>plasma treatment for polyamide-6/vegetable fiber composite prepared by extrusion and injection molding. Caustic soda fiber treatment improved both tensile, flexural strengths and modulus. Soykeabkqcw, N. [10] has investigated jute and flax reinforced starch based composite foams. Addition of flax or jute fiber resulted in increase in tensile, flexural strengths and moduli. Doan, T.T.L. [11] has investigated jute fiber PP composites with respect to fiber content, matrix molecular weight and with or without matrix modifier. Modification of jute/pp composites using 2wt% MAHgPP has improved thermal, hydrothermal resistance.

It is found in the literature review that no work has been reported on hybrid composites of *Kenaf* and *Cocus Nucifera* fiber composites. Further, *Kenaf* trees and *Cocus Nucifera* are abundantly found in the forest areas that yield strong fibers from stem and are traditionally used by the farmers in domestic and agricultural applications. Observing these features, the *Kenaf* and *Cocus Nucifera* fibers have been chosen to produce green composite products that can be used for several applications such as panels in construction, casings for various domestic products, packaging applications, sport goods etc.



## IV. EXPERIMENTAL WORK

The objective of the present proposal is to develop biodegradable hybrid composite products using natural fibers from *Kenaf* and *Cocus nucifera* that belongs to the *Malvaceae* family and its Telugu vernacular name is *Gogu* and *Kobbari*.

The wooden mould is made of dimensions 300mm x 300mm x 3mm. After making the mould the laminates of 2mm thick are made by using *Kenaf* and *Cocus Nucifera* fibers and PVC as resin. Specimens for flexure test, tensile test and water absorption test are prepared as per ASTM standards.

In order to study the hybridization, *Cocus Nucifera* fiber is added to *Kenaf (Gogu)* fiber composite. The fiber length is fixed to 7mm and weight of composite is maintained at 50 g, and the fiber weight percentage of *Cocus Nucifera* fiber weight is varied from 0-50g.

## VIII. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The effect of hybridization of *Kenaf* and *Cocus Nucifera* fibers is investigated on the mechanical properties and also on water absorption properties. Results of hybridization are tabulated in Table I.

TABLE I. PROPERTIES OF KENAF/ COCUS NUCIFERA HYBRID COMPOSITES

Fiber -A Kenaf (grams)	Fiber-B Cocus Nucifera (grams)	Flexural strength (MPa)	Tensile strength (MPa)	Water absorption (%)
0	50	48.2	14.6	2.8
<b>20</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>74.0</b>	<b>11.1</b>	<b>4.5</b>
25	25	35.9	14.4	3.5
<b>30</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>54.4</b>	<b>15.8</b>	<b>3.7</b>
50	0	70.1	8.6	1.5

The optimum fiber length and weight of *Kenaf*, *Cocus Nucifera* composites are 7mm and 50g respectively, which provides a flexural and tensile strengths of 75MPa and 15.8 MPa. Comparison of composites made of purely with each of the two fibers, it is found that *Kenaf (Gogu)* fiber composite showed good flexural strength compared to *Cocus Nucifera* fiber composite, whereas *Cocus Nucifera* fiber composite exhibited good tensile strength compared to *Kenaf* fiber composite.

Addition of *Kenaf* fiber in *Cocus Nucifera* fiber composite has resulted in increase in flexural strength of the composite with marginal variation in tensile properties which may be due to poor interfacial bonding between matrix and fiber.

When the composite is made either with either *Kenaf* or *Cocus Nucifera* fiber, the moisture absorption is very less. But, when it is hybridized, the moisture absorption is increased due to poor interfacial bonding and voids.

## IX. CONCLUSION

Single fiber composites have exhibited extreme values for flexure and tensile strengths and water absorption properties. Reasonably good properties are noted for a combination of 3:2 ratio of either *kenaf* or *Cocus Nucifera* fibers. For other combinations, decrease in properties can be expected due to poor interfacial bonding due to mismatch of diameters and variation in bonding characteristics of fibers. Since the fibers taken are only untreated by any surface modification process, they can be very much improved by proper choice of alkali treatment, all the properties can be improved.

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## Dynamic Analysis of L-Shape Bracket

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### Abstract-

Bracket is an architectural element a structural or decorative member. It can be made of wood, stone, plaster, metal, or other materials. It projects from a wall, usually to carry weight and sometimes to strengthen an angle. In mechanical engineering, a bracket is any intermediate component for fixing one part to another, usually larger, part. What makes a bracket a bracket is the fact that it is intermediate between the two and fixes the one to the other. Brackets vary widely in shape, but a prototypical bracket would be the L-shaped metal piece that attaches a shelf (the smaller component) to a wall (the larger component); its vertical arm is fixed to one (usually large) element, and its horizontal arm protrudes outwards and holds another (usually small) element. In this project, L-shaped bracket is modeled in Ansys software. Boundary conditions applied dynamically respective frequencies for modes shapes were reported.

**Key words-** Lshape bracket, dynamic analysis

### I. INTRODUCTION

Brackets are used to support beams, conduits, pipes etc. When the roofing work is finished for a portal structure, the overhang of the sheets is supported by brackets. The louvers which are essential for ventilation in a shed system are supported by brackets. The railings provided around a walkway are supported by brackets. The typical cross-section of a bracket is channel. The best example of a bracket is the catenary support system used by railways.

The structure of a machine tool forms the vital link between the cutting tool and work piece on a metal cutting machine. The machine tool's metal removal rate, accuracy, overall cost, method of production and lead times, depend upon the type of structural material and its properties. The commonly used materials for machine tool structures are cast iron and steel.

While in some applications Granite and „Epoxy Concrete“, newly developed material, is also introduced. Cast iron structures were almost exclusively used in machine tools till a decade or so ago, but lately welded steel structures are finding wider application due to advances in welding technology. The choice of whether the structures should be made from cast iron or steel depends upon a number of factors.

### II. MATERIAL PROPERTIES

Important material properties of relevance are as under:

- Modulus of elasticity: For high stiffness it is necessary to choose materials with a high value of E. For instance, the highest strength nodular graphite cast iron has doubled the modulus of elasticity than the normal cast iron, apart from its high internal damping.

All steels have practically the same E and therefore mostly the non-expensive good commercial quality steel is used for machine tool structures.

- Specific stiffness: Material should have high specific stiffness.
- Damping: Cast iron has higher inherent damping properties, damping in steel structures occurs mainly in welds, if welded joints are properly designed, the damping of steel structure may approach that of cast iron.
- Long-term dimensional stability: The machine tool structural material must also have good long-term dimensional stability. Locked-in stress levels should be reduced to as close to zero as possible to achieve this.
- Coolant resistance: The material should be unaffected by coolant.
- Wear rate and frictional properties: Material should have low wear rate and low coefficient of friction.
- Thermal expansion coefficient: The material used should have a reasonably low coefficient of expansion. If several composite materials are used, each should have the same coefficient of expansion to avoid thermal bending/distortion.

Different Materials Used for machine tool structure As already stated, commonly used materials for machine tool structure are cast iron and steel. While in recent times, granite and epoxy concrete are also developed and used for structures. These materials are discussed here:

a) *Cast Iron*: From early times cast iron has been the most commonly used material for machine tool structures. It may be cast into complex and intricate shapes. It is easily machined and may be hand-scraped and lapped to a high degree of accuracy. It has fairly good damping properties and also has reasonably good anti-friction properties helped by the graphite contained in it. It can be given very good long-term dimensional stability by giving it a special long cycle stress relief annealing treatment. Cast iron should be preferred for complex structures subjected to normal loading, when the structures are to be made in large numbers. It does, however, have several disadvantages. One major disadvantage is the time and cost taken to produce a finished casting. Again care has to be taken at design



stage to ensure no abrupt changes in section thickness. Most manufacturing stages involve the moving of the component either in or outside the factory.

b) Mild steel weldments: since 1950's mild steel weldment have been used more and more as a machine tool structural material. They have a high stiffness and the strength is also high. Values of properties of steel are listed in table. It has lower weight compared to cast iron. If necessary, in mild steel structures thin wall sections can be used. While with cast iron the wall thickness is limited by the accuracy of casting. Steel should be preferred for simple, heavily loaded structures, which are to be manufactured in small numbers; this is due to the fact that in lightly loaded structures the higher mechanical properties of steel cannot be fully exploited.

This material too has some disadvantages. The material damping is low and mild steel weldments have a marked tendency to „ring“. Friction points are sometimes built-in; friction is high and cast iron or plastic inserts have to be used to reduce friction to avoid „pick-up“. Again for this material, manufacturing times are long. This material will rust, too. Long-term dimensional stability has not been verified to the same degree as cast iron. Finally, combined welded and cast structures are becoming popular, nowadays. They are generally used where a steel structure is economically suitable but is difficult to manufacture owing to the complexity of some portions; these complex portions are separately cast and welded to the main structure.

c) Granite: granite is used for surface tables and measuring machine structures. Its internal damping is better than that of cast iron. Its wear properties are good. It is reputed to be very stable dimensionally. Granite has a number of disadvantages. It is becoming more and more scarce. It takes a long time to cut it to the required size, grind and lap to shape. There are many types of granite, but most absorb water and the surrounding air humidity affects its dimensional stability and thus geometrical accuracy.

d) Epoxy concrete: it is a new material specifically developed over the past two decades for high precision machine tool structures. It is the mixture of binding agent reaction resin and the hardened together with carefully selected and mixed aggregates. It is completely new technology as compared with those of the materials mentioned above. Epoxy concrete offers great design freedom, similar to cast iron. It has outstanding damping properties—better than traditional concrete. It costs approximately the same as steel reinforced concrete or even less. Epoxy concrete does not expand and contract with change in humidity, as does ordinary concrete. Again various material properties can be controlled in epoxy concrete by the type of mixture chosen. Epoxy concrete has a very high long-term dimensional stability.

Another important factor for deciding the choice of material concerns the problems of manufacturing that are associated with the use of steel or cast iron structures:

- Wall thickness: For a given weight of the structure,

high strength and stiffness can be achieved by using large overall dimensions and small wall thickness. Thus walls of minimum possible thickness should be employed. Generally, reduction of

wall thickness in cast iron structures is restricted by process capability and depends upon the size of the casting. In case of cast iron. Welded structures made of steel can have much thinner walls as compared to cast structures as the technological constraints are much less.

Steel structures in which the wall thickness is less than that of the cast structure by up to 50% are known as thick walled structures. They are made of 10-12 mm thick plates and are easy to manufacture, but they are not particularly effective from point of view of economy of metal. Machining allowance for cast structures are generally larger than for welded steel structures, this is essential to remove the hardened skin of cast iron and also to account for casting defects, such as inclusions, scales, drops, etc., that result due to the falling of sand into the mould cavity. welded structure can, if required, be easily repaired and improved. Any corrections in a cast structure are much more difficult.

This property of steel structures is particularly useful in preparing a prototype. The final selection of material for structure will in most cases rest upon which of them provides for a lower cost of the structure

Correct selection can be made only on the basis of a comprehensive analysis of various factors, some of which are listed below:

- Economy of metal: Here it is important to remember that although the weight of the finished steel structure may be below, the actual metal consumption may be high; this is due to the fact that where as holes in castings are obtained with the help of cores, those in welded structures have to be machined. This results not only in scrap but also in additional labor cost.

- Cost of pattern and welding fixtures.

- Cost of machining.

Further, it is necessary to design all parts of the frame with such shapes and of such dimensions as to ensure suitability of the frame.

Forces occur during the machining operation giving rise to deformations, which disturb the accuracy of machining. Some of the forces do not depend on the intensity of the cutting process as for instance the weight forces of the moving parts of the machine. The influence on accuracy of the others, such as cutting forces, is related to the rate of machining. The relation between forces and deformations and their combined effect on the machining operation lead to requirements on the stiffness of the individual parts of the structure and of the structure as a whole.

According to various kinds of forces, which occur during the machining operation, various specifications of requirements on stiffness may be stated. These forces will be classified into four groups corresponding to four different criteria.

*a) Deformations caused by weight forces*

During the movement of the individual parts of the structure the distribution of their weights and of the weight of the workpiece varies. Consequently the deformations of the frame vary. The criterion is that any deviation arising does not disturb the prescribed geometric accuracy of the machine tool.

*b) Deformations caused by cutting forces*

During the operation the cutting force varies and its point of application moves. In consequence, the deformation of the frame will vary causing deviations of the form of the machined surfaces. This effect may be limited by decreasing the cutting conditions and consequently the output of the operation. Cutting force depends upon the workpiece material; machining parameters, wear of cutting tool etc. For a designer a knowledge about the nature and direction of the force and the point where it acts on the structure is often more important than a very precise knowledge of its magnitude.

*c) Forced vibrations*

In the machine tool disturbing periodic forces occur. They are caused mainly by the unbalance of rotating parts and by errors of accuracy in some driving elements. They excite forced vibrations, which result in the waviness of machined surfaces. The criterion is to limit forced vibrations so as to achieve the required surface quality.

*d) Self-excited vibrations*

Under certain conditions, generally connected with the increase of the machining rate self-excited vibrations occur and these are energized by the cutting process. They cause unacceptable waviness of the machined surface and endanger the strength and life of the parts of the machine and of the tools. The criterion is that in the required range of operations and of cutting conditions self-excited vibrations shall not occur and the cutting process must be stable. The individual criteria are almost independent of one another. Nevertheless, experience shows that criterion 4 prevails and if it is satisfied then criterion 2 and often also criterion 1 and 3 are more than fulfilled. The problem of stability of the frame against self-excited vibrations energized by the cutting process is not only the most important one but also the most difficult. All four criteria determine requirements on some resulting stiffness, static and dynamic, between the tool and the workpiece. By analyzing this resulting stiffness, requirements on the individual parts of the frame may be derived.

*Group 1:* Structures like beds and columns with fully or partially closed thin box profiles or consisting of two walls connected by parallel and diagonal stiffeners may be analyzed as statically indeterminate thin-wall bars.

*Group 2:* Closed box type structures like housing of speed and feed boxes are redesigned for forces perpendicular to the walls, as the latter have sufficient

stiffness in their own plane.

*Group 3:* Supporting structures like table knees, etc. which are generally loaded normal to their base plane are analyzed as plates.

Under general conditions of compound loading, most of the machine tool structures are analyzed as elements subject to bending in two perpendicular planes and torsion. It was pointed out earlier also that the basic design requirement of a machine tool is its stiffness. The common design strategy for machine tool structures can therefore be summarized as:

1. Design for bending stiffness,
2. Designing for torsional stiffness

### III. EFFECT OF APERTURE ON TORSIONAL STIFFNESS

In design of machine tool structure, designer is often faced with a decision as to on which plane the joints should be provided between two elements.

Again joints are represented as an essential part of the functional requirements in the operational movements, and also enable the manufacture and machining of the elements. In large machine tools, joints are also required to assist in the transportation of the finished machine. Joints in machine tools may be of two basic forms, depending upon the relative movement, which takes place between the joint interfaces:

- Joints, which connect structural parts without any intended motion, e.g., the joints between the headstock and bed of a lathe, these are called "fixed joints"
- Joints, which connect parts, which are to have intended relative motion to one another, e.g. joints between the saddle and bed of a lathe, these are called "sliding joints". It is sometimes necessary for elements to be jointed together and possess both the qualities of fixed and sliding joints, as in the case of the joint between the tailstock and bed of the lathe.

As the joints form a link or a number of links in the chain of elements closing the flow of the cutting forces, they should possess a stiffness matching that of the other structural elements; even having other structural elements of a high stiffness would not help if there were only one flexible joint in the chain of elements, i.e. springs in series.

Following properties of joints require attention:

- a) The static and dynamic stiffness of joint faces loaded in a plane normal to the joint surface;
- b) The significance of joints on the overall deflection of the structure
- c) The damping effect of joints

Research into the overall stiffness of structure has shown that the joints usually incorporate a high percentage of the overall deflection. According to some results, deflection due to joint is of the order of 85 to 90% of the total structural static deflection in a machine tool.

Investigation to study the dynamic characteristics

of joints has shown that damping may be obtained in a joint but only at the expense of stiffness. From the metal removal viewpoint, damping in a machine tool is advantageous. Joints do not introduce frictional damping which is greater in value than internal material damping. The relative displacement between sliding elements has to be limited especially when they are situated in series with other elements. In this case, an increase of frictional damping within joints, at the expense of decreasing their static stiffness, is hardly justified.

With regard to above facts, the most efficient method to achieve both stiffness and damping would be to design the joints for maximum stiffness and to introduce damping by external means such as vibration absorbers.

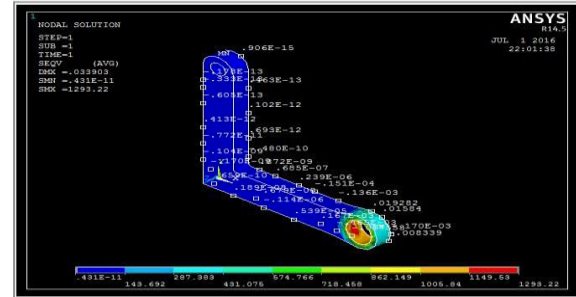


Fig3.Stress

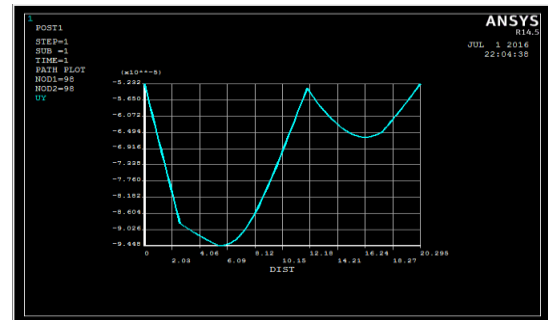


Fig 4.Set 1 graph

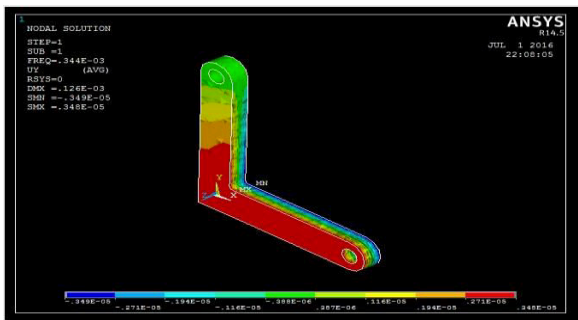


Fig1.Deformation at y

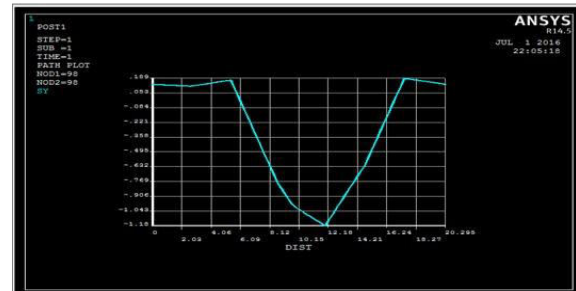


Fig5.Set 2 graph

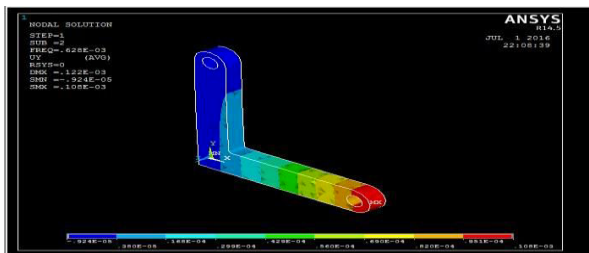


Fig1.Deformation at y

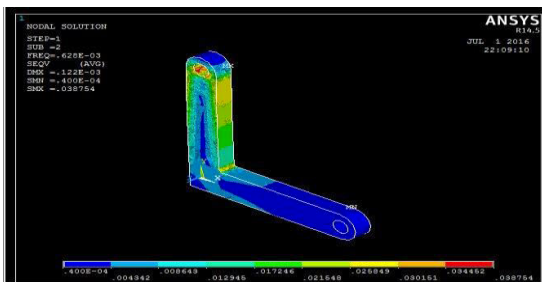


Fig2.Vonmises stress

## V. CONCLUSION

Generally the bracket thickness must be thin to reduce weight and cost and to serve its purpose in extreme environment. Any crack found in a bracket may cause the ducting to become unstable during mission and thus induce high cyclic fatigue load on the overall major structures and shorten the structure life. In this project Bracket is modelled in Classical Ansys with the respective dimensions with defined material properties. Loads applied modal deformations, stresses, vonmises stress and frequencies were obtained recorded in Results and graphs plotted.

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# Performance and Emission characteristics of a VCR engine fueled with Rice bran oil- diesel blends

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**Abstract**— Biodiesel, a promising substitute as an alternative fuel has gained significant attention due to the predicted shortness of conventional fuels and environmental concern. The Rice bran oil is converted into biodiesel by transesterification process. Experiments has been carried out to estimate the performance, and emission characteristics of a single cylinder four stroke variable compression ratio engine fuelled with rice bran oil and its blends with standard diesel. Test has been conducted using the fuel blends of B15, and B30 biodiesel with standard diesel, with an engine speed of 1500 rpm. During the test runs the compression ratio of the engine was varied from 15:1 to 18:1 and the torque is adjusted from zero to maximum value of 22 Nm. The performance characteristics such as the brake thermal efficiency, brake specific fuel consumption and mechanical efficiency of the engine are analyzed. The emission characteristics HC, NO<sub>x</sub>, CO are also analyzed. The performance characteristics, and engine emission are effective in the variable compression ratio engine with biodiesel and it is compared with diesel. B30 blend was found to be a favorable alternative for CI engine due to increased BTE, reduced BSEC at higher loads and lower CO, HC, emissions over the entire operating range at CR 18.

**Keywords**—VCR Engine; bio fuel; rice bran oil; diesel engine

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Energy demand is increasing due to ever-increasing number of vehicles employing internal combustion engines. Also, world is presently confronted with the twin crisis of fossil fuel deflection and environmental degradation. Fossil fuels are limited resources; hence, search for renewable fuels is becoming more and more prominent for ensuring energy security and environmental protection. There has been renewed interest in the use of vegetable oils for making biodiesel because it is less polluting and renewable. It is biodegradable and nontoxic, and has low emission profiles. Worldwide biodiesel production is mainly from edible oils

such as soybean, peanut, coconut, sunflower and canola oils Ramdas et al. [1] observed significant improvement in engine performance and emission characteristics for the biodiesel fuelled engine compared to diesel-fuelled engine. Thermal efficiency of the engine improved, brake specific energy consumption reduced and a considerable reduction in the exhaust smoke opacity was observed. Masjuki et al. [2] investigated preheated palm oil methyl ester in a diesel engine. Puhan et al. [3] transesterified mahua oil using methanol in presence of alkali and the biodiesel obtained was studied for fuel properties. The properties of rice bran oil compares well against other Vegetable oils have comparable energy density, cetane number, heat of vaporization and stoichiometric air-fuel ratio with that of the diesel fuel can be easily mixed with diesel in any proportion and can be used to partially substitute diesel. Therefore, in this study a simple method of increasing the efficiency and reducing the exhaust gas emissions of the diesel engine without any compromise on the power output of the engine has been adopted.[4-6].

## Nomenclature

VCR	Variable compression ratio
B10	Diesel blended with 10% biodiesel
B30	Diesel blended with 30% biodiesel
BSFC	Brake specific fuel consumption
HC	Hydrocarbon
NO <sub>x</sub>	Oxides of nitrogen
CO	Carbon monoxide
CR	Compression Ratio

## 2.EXPERIMENTAL

### 2.1. Bio diesel production

Vegetable oils have to undergo the process of transesterification to convert into biodiesel and it is usable in IC engines. In transesterification, rice bran oil was chemically reacted with

an alcohol in the presence of a catalyst to produce vegetable oil esters. Glycerol is produced as a by-product of the reaction. The mixture is stirred continuously and then allowed to settle under gravity in a separating funnel. Two distinct layers form after gravity settling for 24 h. The upper layer was ester and lower layer was of glycerol. The lower layer is separated out. The separated ester was mixed with some warm water (around 10% volume of ester) to remove the catalyst present in the ester and is allowed to settle under gravity for another 24 h. The ester was then blended with mineral diesel to be used in CI engine[7].

## 2.2 Fuel properties

The fuel properties are listed in Table 1.

## 2.3 Experiential setup

The present study was carried out to investigate the performance and emission characteristics of VCR engine using rice bran oil blended with diesel and the results are compared with pure diesel. The engine specifications are shown in table 2.

## 2.4. Experimental Procedure

The engine was first started by Manual cranking with diesel as fuel and it was allowed to reach its steady state (for about 10 min). The test fuels used during this program were neat (100%) diesel fuel, and blends of 15 and 30 percent biodiesel by volume in the diesel fuel.

The engine was sufficiently warmed up and stabilized before

taking all readings. The performance of the engine and emissions were studied at variable loads corresponding to the load at maximum power at an average speed of 1500 rpm. After the engine reached the stabilized working condition, the load applied, fuel consumption, brake power and exhaust temperature were measured from which brake specific fuel consumption, thermal efficiency and mechanical efficiency were computed. The emissions such as CO, HC, and NO<sub>x</sub> were measured using exhaust gas analyzer. Each test was repeated at CR 15, 16.5, 18. These performance and emission characteristics for different fuels are compared with the result of baseline diesel.

## 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### 3.1. Engine performance

The engine performance is evaluated in terms of brake thermal efficiency, Break specific fuel consumption, and Mechanical efficiency at different load conditions and at different CR's

#### 3.1.1. Brake Thermal Efficiency

The variations of brake thermal efficiency (BTE) with different torque, for three compression ratio and three test fuels are analysed. The increase in BTE is observed for increase in torque for all the test runs. Fig. 1 shows the results in variation of brake thermal efficiency of test runs. It is evident that the brake thermal efficiency of the blended fuels has higher value than that of diesel fuel. The blended fuel of B30 has higher thermal efficiency with the diesel fuel full load is observed for CR16.5:1.

#### 3.1.2. Mechanical Efficiency

The variations of mechanical efficiency (ME) with different torque, for three compression ratio and three test fuels are analysed. The increase in ME is observed for increase in torque for all the test runs. Fig. 2 shows the results in variation of mechanical efficiency of test runs. It is evident that the mechanical efficiency of the blended fuels has higher value than that of diesel fuel. The blended fuel of B30 has higher mechanical efficiency with the diesel fuel around 80% of rated loading is observed for CR16:1. The maximum thermal efficiency is 60% for B30 at CR16:1.

#### 3.1.3. Brake specific fuel consumption

The results of the BSFC of the study are shown in Fig. 3. The BSFC is found to be decreasing by the increase of torque for the entire compression ratio for all the three fuels tested in the present work. This may be due to better combustion and additional lubricity of the biodiesel.

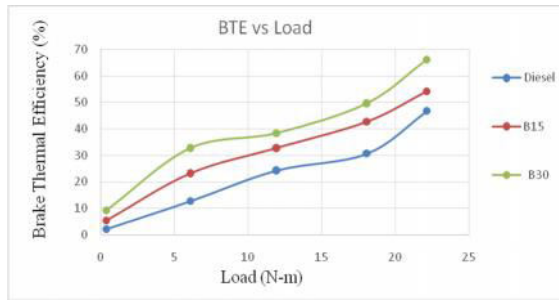
TABLE1. Fuel properties of diesel oil and biodiesel blend

Properties	Diesel	B10	B30	B100
Kinematic Viscosity at 32 <sup>o</sup> C, c st	4.2	4.53	5.54	16
Density at kg/m <sup>3</sup>	860	846	842	832
Flash point (°C)	56	65	68	111
Fire point (°C)	63	71	73	116
Calorific Value (kJ/kg)	42800	41510	40340	35406

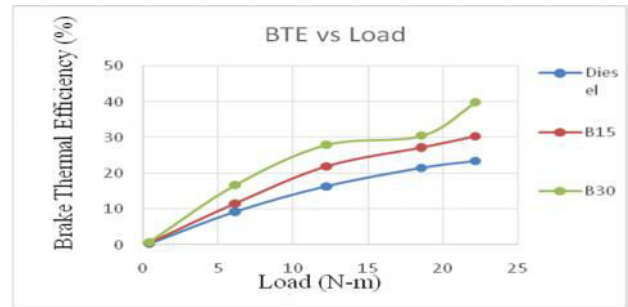
TABLE 2. ENGINE SPECIFICATIONS

Make	Kirloskar
Number of Strokes	4
Number of cylinders	single
Rated power	3.7kW
Speed	1500rpm
Number of cylinder	Single cylinder
Compression ratio	12:1–20:1(variable)
Bore	80mm
Stroke	110mm

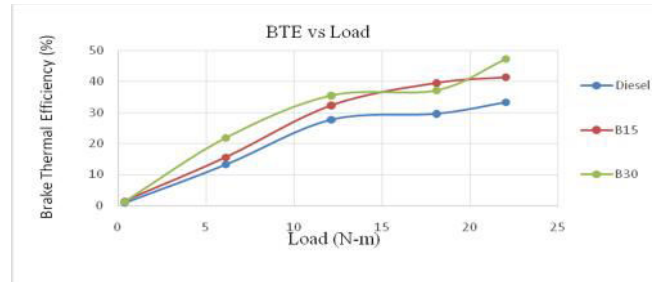




a. At CR 15:1

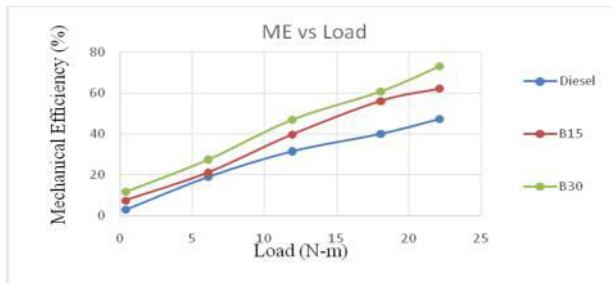


b. At CR 16.5:1

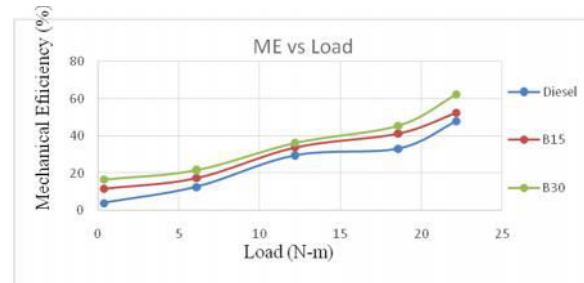


c. At CR 18:1

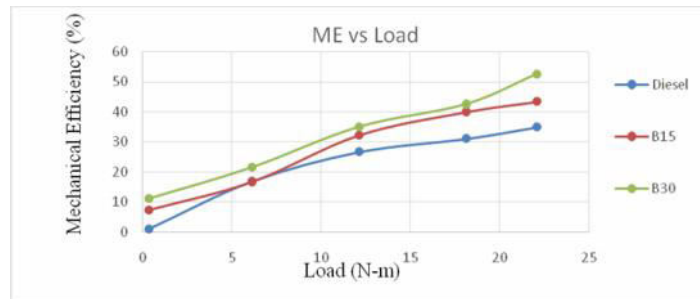
Fig 1 : Variation of Break thermal efficiency with varying loads at different Compression ratios



a. At CR =15:1

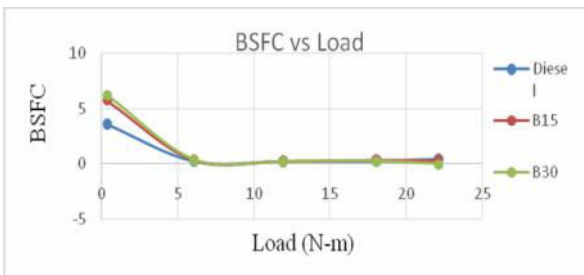


b. At CR = 16.5:1

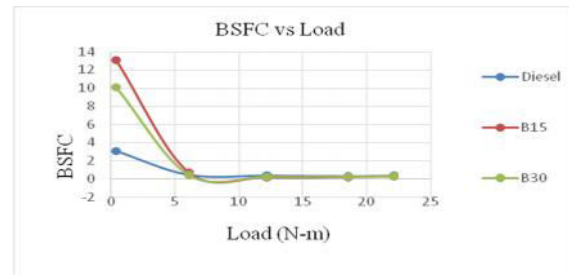


c. At CR =8:1

Fig 2: Variation of Mechanical Efficiency with Varying loads at different Compression Ratios



a. At CR =15:1

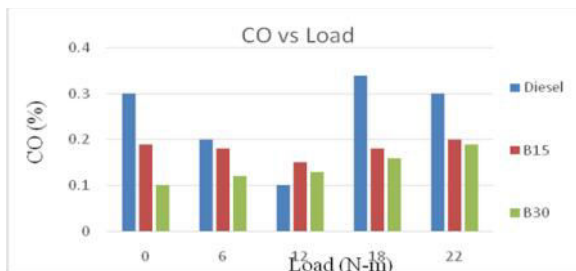


b. At CR =16.5

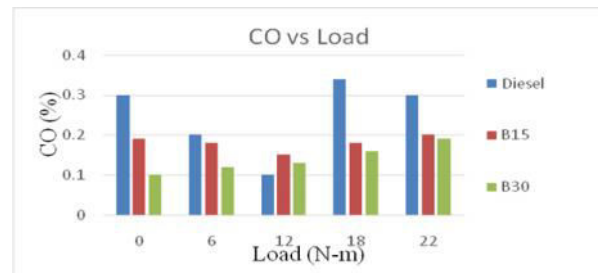


c. At CR=18:1

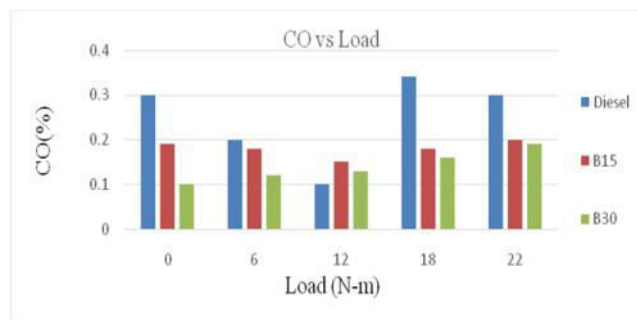
Fig 3: Variation of BSFC with varying loads at different Compression ratios



a. At CR = 15:1

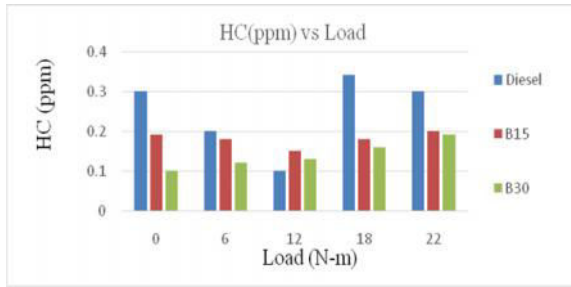


b. At CR =16.5:1

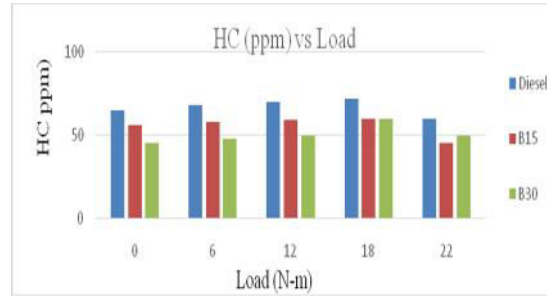


c. At CR=18:1

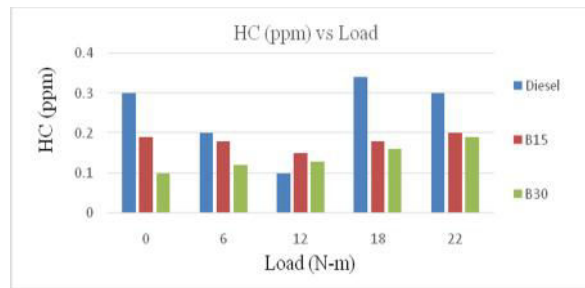
Fig 4. Variation of CO% with varying loads at different compression ratios



a. At CR=15:1

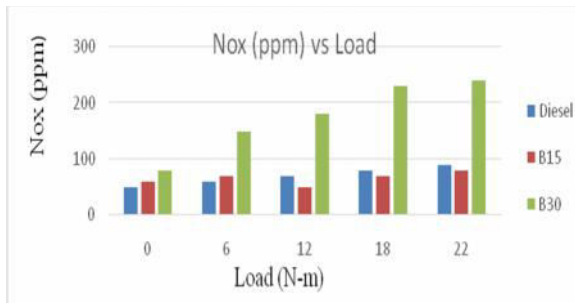


b. At CR = 16.5 :1

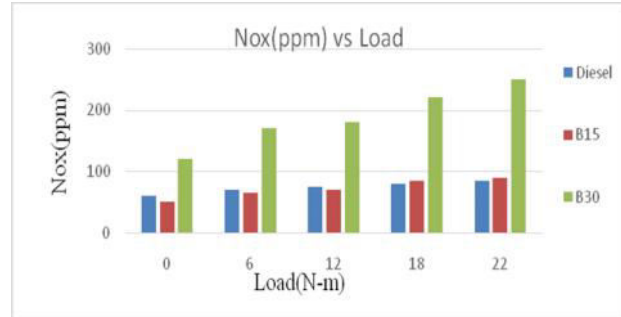


c. At CR= 18:1

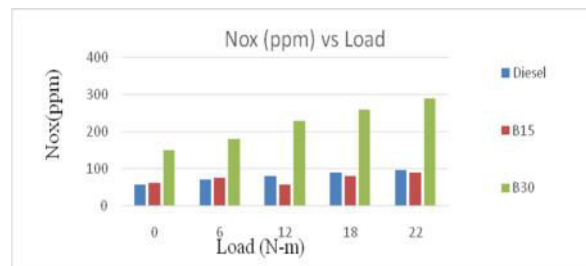
Fig 5. Variation of HC emissions with Varying loads at different Compression ratios



a. At CR =15:1



b. At CR= 16.5:1



c. At CR =18:1

Fig -6. Variation of No<sub>x</sub> emissions with varying loads at different compression ratios



### 3.2 .Engine emissions

#### 3.2.1. CO emissions

Fig.4 presents the variation of carbon monoxide emission with respect to VCR of the diesel engine using diesel, rice bran oil blends at different engine loads. As shown, CO emission decreases with the increase in load

#### 3.2.2 HC emissions

Fig.5 depicts the variation of unburned HC emission for diesel, and rice bran oil blends at different engine loads with respect to VCR. HC concentration in the exhaust of the diesel engine decreases with load applied for both diesel and blended fuel forms. The HC emissions are increased with B30 at CR 14& CR 18 due to insufficient combustion. The HC emissions are less at CR 16.5

#### 3.2.3. NO<sub>x</sub> Emissions

Fig. 6 represents the effect of changing CR and rice bran oil blends with diesel on NO<sub>x</sub> emission formed inside the engine cylinder at different engine load conditions. Fig.6 illustrates that the NO<sub>x</sub> level increases with increase in engine loads and CR for both diesel and blended fuel operations and also decreases with the increase in rice bran oil percentage in the blends.

### 4. Conclusions

Based on the performance results and investigation, It is concluded that the brake power of biodiesel is little more than that of standard diesel for all compression ratio in part load operation. The brake specific fuel consumption of the blended fuel is very close to the diesel fuel. The combustion duration of the biodiesel is decreased by increase of compression ratio as expected. Most significant reduction in emissions of blended fuel is achieved for all compression ratios. It proves that there is a necessity to identify the ways of exploitation of the energy from the biodiesel in a big way. It is proposed to carry out the analysis of the higher blend ratio under operating condition in future to account for the better use of biodiesel.

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# Structural Analysis of Household Gas Cylinder

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## Abstract—

The present work involved the Finite Element Analysis of existing LPG gas cylinder to verify the burst pressure. The LPG gas cylinder is manufactured from low carbon steel. The LPG tanks are subjected to incremental internal uniform pressure in the FEA model. 2D nonlinear plane models are developed and evaluated under non-uniform and axisymmetric boundary conditions. For the analysis, the required actual shell properties including weld zone and thickness variation are investigated. Therefore the stress distribution has been analyzed using ANSYS 14.0 software for which maximum shear stress; equivalent stress at critical area has been calculated. Therefore 3D solid model has been chosen in order to predict the detailed stress.

Computer aided investigations are carried using ANSYS to verify maximum stress and its location. To predict detailed stress 3D solid model has been chosen with the help of PROE software. Two different types of nonlinear FE models, plane and shell, were developed using 2D axisymmetric finite plane and shell elements, respectively. To create the FE models and simulate the experimental burst, first, shell MP and thickness variations of the LPG tanks due to spinning processes are investigated and input to the computer modeling processes. Additionally, after selecting the loading and boundary conditions and appropriate finite elements, the nonlinear axisymmetric 2D FE models were generated and simulated in non-uniform and non-homogeneous conditions.

**Keywords**—LPG, Burst pressure, nonlinear failure analysis

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Introduction to household gas cylinder:

Liquefied petroleum gas (also called LPG, GPL, LP Gas, autogas, or liquid propane gas) is a flammable mixture of hydrocarbon gases used as a fuel in heating appliances and vehicles. It is increasingly used as a aerosol propellant and a refrigerant, replacing chlorofluorocarbons in an effort to reduce damage to the Ozone layer.

With the related literature review and objective of this concern project, we will find relation between input parameters and corresponding output parameters and formulate relation between them to get required result.

This project set out to verify finite element analysis, or FEA, when applied to pressure vessel design. While finite element analysis offers another way to analyze structures, it requires an understanding of the program and subject being modeled. If the operator does not use the correct model, time is wasted and more importantly the data is useless. The primary problem of the manufacturer is to determine the burst pressures and volume expansion of the LPG tanks whose service and test pressures are known by the definition of the ECR-Rand TS Rules.

The service pressure (SP) is the working (operating) pressure where the tanks are filled and used in industrial applications. The test pressure (TP) is a given pressure that is applied and released at which the permanent volume expansion of the tank must exceed 10% of the initial measured volume.

Finite element analysis is a powerful tool in the field of engineering. Initially, finite element analysis was used in aerospace structural engineering. The difficulty is an analysis of stress and strain in structural engineering depends on the structure involved. As the structure grows in complexity, so does the analysis. Many of the more

commonly used structures in engineering have simplified calculations to approximate stress and strain. However, these calculations often provide solutions only for the maximum stress and strain at certain points in the structure. Furthermore, these calculations are usually only applicable given specific conditions applied to the structure.

Liquefied petroleum gas or liquid petroleum gas (LPG or LP gas), also referred to as simply propane or butane, are flammable mixtures of hydrocarbon gases used as a fuel in heating appliances, cooking equipment, and vehicles. It is increasingly used as a aerosol propellant and a refrigerant, replacing chlorofluorocarbons on ozone

layer. When specifically used as a vehicle fuel it is often referred to as autogas.

Varieties of LPG bought and sold include mixtures that are mostly propane (C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>), mostly butane (C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>10</sub>) and, most commonly, mixtures including both propane and butane. In the northern hemisphere winter, the mixtures contain more propane, while in summer, they contain more butane. In the United States, mainly two grades of LPG are sold: commercial propane and HD-5. These specifications are published by the Gas Processors Association (GPA) and the American Society of Testing and Materials (ASTM). Propane/butane blends are also listed in these specifications.

Propylene, butylene and various other hydrocarbons are usually also present in small concentrations. HD-5 limits the amount of propylene that can be placed in LPG to 5%, and is utilized as a autogas specification. A powerful odorant, ethanol, is added so that leaks can be detected easily. The internationally recognized European Standard is EN 589. In the United States, tetrahydrothiophene (thiophane) or amyl mercaptan are also approved odorants, although neither is currently being utilized.

LPG is prepared by refining petroleum or "wet" natural gas, and is almost entirely derived from fossil fuel sources, being manufactured during the refining of



petroleum (crude oil), or extracted from petroleum or natural gas streams as they emerge from the ground. It was first produced in 1910 by Dr. Walter Snelling, and the first commercial products appeared in 1912. It currently provides about 3% of all energy consumed, and burns relatively cleanly with no soot and very few sulfur emissions. As it is a gas, it does not pose ground or water pollution hazards, but it can cause air pollution. LPG has a typical specific calorific value of 46.1 MJ/kg compared with 42.5 MJ/kg for fuel oil and 43.5 MJ/kg for premium grade petrol (gasoline). However, its energy density per volume unit of 26 MJ/L is lower than either that of petrol or fuel oil, as its relative density is lower (about 0.5–0.58 kg/L, compared to 0.71–0.77 kg/L for gasoline).

As its boiling point is below room temperature, LPG will evaporate quickly at normal temperatures and pressures and is usually supplied in pressurised steel vessels. They are typically filled to 80–85% of their capacity to allow for thermal expansion of the contained liquid. The ratio between the volumes of the vaporized gas and the liquefied gas varies depending on composition, pressure, and temperature, but is typically around 250:1. The pressure at which LPG becomes liquid, called its vapour pressure, likewise varies depending on composition and temperature; for example, it is approximately 220 kilopascals (32 psi) for pure butane at 20°C (68°F), and approximately 2,200 kilopascals (320 psi) for pure propane at 55°C (131°F). LPG is heavier than air, unlike natural gas, and thus will flow along floors and tend to settle in low spots, such as basements. There are two main dangers from this. The first is a possible explosion if the mixture of LPG and air is within the explosive limits and there is an ignition source. The second is suffocation due to LPG displacing air, causing a decrease in oxygen concentration.

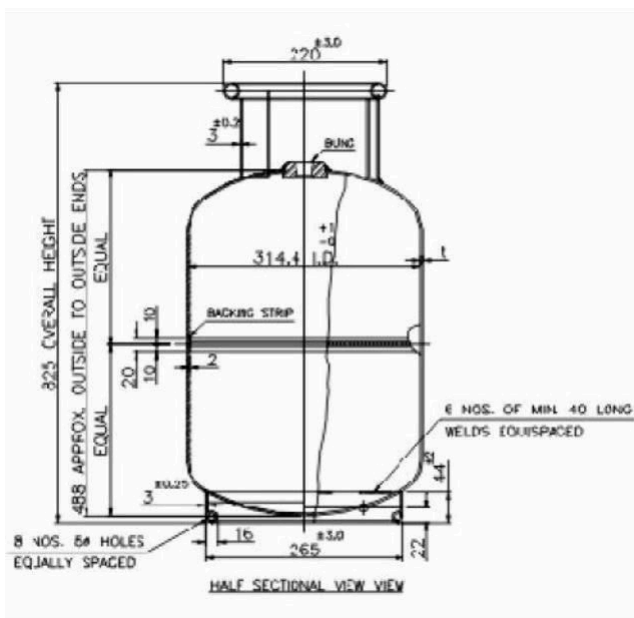


Fig. 1: LPG gas cylinder

## 1.2. Uses of household gas cylinder

LPG has a very wide variety of uses, mainly used for cylinders across many different markets as an efficient fuel container.

in the agricultural, recreation, hospitality, calefaction, construction, sailing and fishing sectors. It can serve as fuel for cooking, central heating and hot water heating and is a particularly cost-effective and efficient way to heat off-grid homes. In the safety of LPG cylinders must be updated to new standards in safety and user experience, giving a huge contribution for domestic usage.

### • Cooking

LPG is used for cooking in many countries for economic reasons, for convenience or because it is the preferred fuel source.

According to the 2011 census of India, 33.6 million (28.5%) Indian households used LPG as cooking fuel in 2011, which is supplied to their homes in pressurised cylinders. LPG is subsidised by the government in India. Increase in LPG prices has been a politically sensitive matter in India as it potentially affects the urban middle class voting pattern.

LPG was once a popular cooking fuel in Hong Kong; however, the continued expansion of town gas to buildings has reduced LPG usage to less than 24% of residential units.

LPG is the most common cooking fuel in Brazilian urban areas, being used in virtually all households, with the exception of the cities of Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, which have a natural gas pipeline infrastructure. Poor families receive a government grant ("Vale Gas") used exclusively for the acquisition of LPG.

LPG is commonly used in North America for domestic cooking and outdoor grilling.

### • Rural heating

Predominantly in Europe and rural parts of many countries, LPG can provide an alternative to electric heating, heating oil, or kerosene. LPG is most often used in areas that do not have direct access to piped natural gas.

LPG can be used as a power source for combined heat and power technologies (CHP). CHP is the process of generating both electrical power and useful heat from a single fuel source. This technology has allowed LPG to be used not just as fuel for heating and cooking, but also for decentralized generation of electricity.

LPG can be stored in a variety of manners. LPG, as with other fossil fuels, can be combined with renewable power sources to provide greater reliability while still achieving some reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

### • Motor fuel

When LPG is used to fuel internal combustion engines, it is often referred to as autogas or autopropane. In some countries, it has been used since the 1940s as a petrol alternative for spark ignition engines. In some countries, there are additives in the liquid that extend engine life and the ratio of butane to propane is kept quite precise in fuel LPG. Two recent studies have examined LPG-fuel-oil fuel mixes and found that smoke emissions and fuel consumption are reduced but hydrocarbon emissions are increased. The studies were split on CO emissions, with one finding significant increases and the other finding slight increases at low engine load but a considerable decrease at high engine load. Its advantage is that it is non-toxic, non-corrosive and free of tetraethyl lead or any additives, and has a high octane rating (102–108 RON).

depending on local specifications). It burns more cleanly than petrol or fuel-oil and is especially free of the particulates present in the latter.

LPG has a lower energy density than either petrol or fuel-oil, so the equivalent fuel consumption is higher. Many governments impose less tax on LPG than on petrol or fuel-oil, which helps offset the greater consumption of LPG than of petrol or fuel-oil. However, in many European countries this tax break is often compensated by a much higher annual road tax on cars using LPG than on cars using petrol or fuel-oil. Propane is the third most widely used motor fuel in the world. 2013 estimates are that over 24.9 million vehicles are fueled by propane gas worldwide. Over 25 million tonnes (over 9 billion US gallons) are used annually as a vehicle fuel.

Not all automobile engines are suitable for use with LPG as a fuel. LPG provides less super cylinder lubrication than petrol or diesel, so LPG-fueled engines are more prone to valve wear if they are not suitably modified. Many modern common rail diesel engines respond well to LPG as a supplementary fuel. This is where LPG is used as fuel as well as diesel. Systems are now available that integrate with OEM engine management systems.

## II METHODS

### 2.1 FINITE ELEMENT METHOD

#### 2.1.1 Need of Finite Element Method

To predict the behavior of the structure the designer adopts three tools such as analytical, experimental and numerical methods. The analytical method is used for the regular sections of known geometries where the component geometry is expressed mathematically. The solution obtained through an analytical method is exact and takes less time. This method cannot be used for the irregular sections and the shapes which require very complex mathematical equations.

The Finite element method is so popular because of its adaptability towards use of digital computers. The Finite element method predicts the component behavior at desired accuracy of any complex and irregular geometry at least price.

#### 2.1.2 General Description of Finite Element Method

In the Finite element method, the actual continuum or body of matter like, solid, liquid or gas is represented as an assemblage of subdivisions called finite elements. These elements are considered to be interconnected at specific joints, which are called nodes or nodal points. The nodes usually lie on the element boundaries where adjacent elements are considered to be connected. Since the actual variation of the field variable (like displacement, temperature, pressure and velocity) inside the continuum is not known. We assume that the variation of the field variable inside a finite element can be approximated by a simple function. These approximating functions (also called as interpolation models) are defined in terms of the values at the nodes.

When field equations (like equilibrium equations) for the whole continuum are written, the new unknown will be the nodal values of the field variable. By solving the field equations, are generally in the form of matrix equations, the approximating function defines the field variable throughout the assemblage of elements.

The solution of a general continuum by the finite element method always follows an orderly step by step process. The step by step procedure for static structural problem can be stated as follows

#### STEP1: Discretization of structure (domain)

The first step in the finite element method is to divide the structure or solution region into sub-divisions or elements.

#### STEP2: Selection of a proper interpolation model.

Since the displacement (field variable) solution of a complex structure under any specified load conditions can't be predicted exactly. We assume some suitable solution within an element to approximate the unknown solution. The assumed solution must be simple from computational point of view, and it should satisfy certain convergence requirements.

#### STEP3: Element stiffness matrices (characteristic matrices) and load vectors.

From the assumed displacement model the stiffness matrix  $[K(e)]$  and the load vector  $F(e)$

of element 'e' are to be derived by using either the equilibrium conditions or a suitable variation principle.

STEP4: Assemblage of element equations to obtain the overall equilibrium equations. Since the structure is composed of several finite elements, the individual element stiffness matrices and load vectors are to be assembled in a suitable manner and the overall equilibrium equations have to be formulated as

$$[K]q = F$$

$[K]$  is called as assembled stiffness matrix,  $q$  is called the vector of nodal displacement and  $F$  is the vector of nodal forces of the complete structure.

STEP5: Solution of system equations have to be modified to account for the boundary conditions of the problem. After incorporation of the boundary conditions, the equilibrium can be expressed

$$[K]q = F$$

For linear problems, the vector 'q' can be solved very easily. But for non-linear analysis problems, the solution has to be obtained in a sequence of steps, each step involving the modification of the stiffness matrix  $[k]$  and/or the load vector  $F$ .

#### STEP6: Computation of Element Stresses and Strains.

From the known nodal displacements, if required, the element stresses and strains can be computed by using the necessary equations of solid structural mechanics

#### 2.1.3 Explanation of FEM by Step by Step Procedure:

The Steps involved in the finite element analysis are stated in this section.

## 1. Discretization of the domain:

The discretization of the domain or solution region in the sub-region (finite elements) is the first step in the finite element method. This is equivalent to replacing the domain having an infinite number of degrees of freedom by a system having a finite number of degrees of freedom. The shapes, size, number and configuration of the elements have to be chosen carefully such that the original body is simulated as closely as possible without increasing the computational effort for the solution.

## 2. Basic Element Shapes:

For any given physical body we have to use engineering judgment in the selection of appropriate elements for discretization. The type of element is indicated by the geometry of the body and the number of independent spatial coordinates necessary to describe the system. The geometry, material, properties and other parameters like stress, displacement, pressure and temperature can be described in terms of one or two spatial coordinates. When the configuration and the detail of the problem can be described in terms of two independent spatial coordinates, we can use the two-dimensional element. The basic element useful for the two-dimensional analysis is the triangular element. If the geometry, material properties and other parameters of the body can be described by three spatial coordinates, we can idealize the body by using the three-dimensional elements. The basic three-dimensional elements analogous to triangular elements are the tetrahedral elements.

## 3. Size of Elements:

The size of elements influences the convergence of the solutions directly and hence it has to be chosen with care. If the size of the element is small, the final solution is expected to be more accurate. The size of the elements has to be very small near the region where the stress concentration is expected compared to far away places. Another characteristic related to the size of elements, which affects the finite element solution, is the aspect ratio of the elements. For two-dimensional elements, the aspect ratio is the ratio of the longest dimension of the element to the smallest dimension. Elements with an aspect ratio of nearly unity generally yield the best results.

## 4. Location of Nodes:

If the body has no abrupt changes in geometry, material properties and external conditions (like load, temperature etc.) the body can be divided into equal subdivisions and hence the spacing of the nodes can be uniform. On the other hand, if there are any discontinuities in the problem, nodes have to be introduced obviously at these discontinuities.

## 5. Number of Elements:

The number of elements to be chosen for idealization is related to the accuracy desired, size of elements and the number of degrees of freedom involved. Although an increase in the number of elements generally means more accurate results, for any given problem they will be a certain number of elements which means more accurate results, and there can be a number of elements beyond which the accuracy cannot be improved by any significant amount.

Moreover, since the use of a large number of elements involves a large number of degrees of freedom, we may not be able to store the resulting matrices in the available computer memory.

## 2.2 ANSYS

The following pages should give you a brief and basic introduction to the architecture and structure of a commercial finite element analysis program. The basic ideas can be applied in most programs but examples are taken from the software ANSYS. We will here only focus on structural mechanics in ANSYS.

### 2.2.1 BASIC PROGRAM STRUCTURE:

**Utility menu:** Here you can access and adjust properties about your session, such as file controls, listing and graphic controls. **Toolbar:** Push buttons to commonly use commands.

**Main menu:** Here you can find the processors used when analyzing your problem.

**Graphics window:** In the graphics window your model is displayed: geometry.

**Input window:** You can type commands in the input window.

### 1. Preprocessor:

Within the preprocessor the model is set up. It includes an number of steps and usually in the following order:

**Build geometry.** Depending on whether the problem geometry is one, two or three dimensional, the geometry consists of creating lines, areas or volumes. These geometries can then, if necessary, be used to create other geometries by the use of Boolean operations. The key idea when building the geometry like this is to simplify the generation of the element mesh. Hence, this step is optional but most often used. Nodes and elements can however be created from coordinates only.

**Define materials.** A material is defined by its material constants. Every element has to be assigned a particular material.

**Generate element mesh.** The problem is discretized with nodal points. Then the nodes are connected to form finite elements, which together form the material volume. Depending on the problem and the assumption that are made, the element type has to be determined. Common element types are *truss*, *beam*, *plate*, *shell* and *solid elements*. Each element type may contain several subtypes, e.g. 2D4-noded solid, 3D20-noded solid elements. Therefore, care has to be taken when the element type is chosen.

The element mesh can in ANSYS be created in several ways. The most common way is that it is automatically created, however more or less controlled. For example you can specify a certain number of elements in a specific area, or you can force the mesh generator to maintain a specific element size within an area. Certain element shapes or sizes are not recommended and if these limits are violated, a warning will be generated in ANSYS. It is up to the user to create

amesh which is able to generate results with a sufficient degree of accuracy.

## 2. Solution processor:

Here you solve the problem by gathering all specified information about the problem:

## 3. Postprocessor:

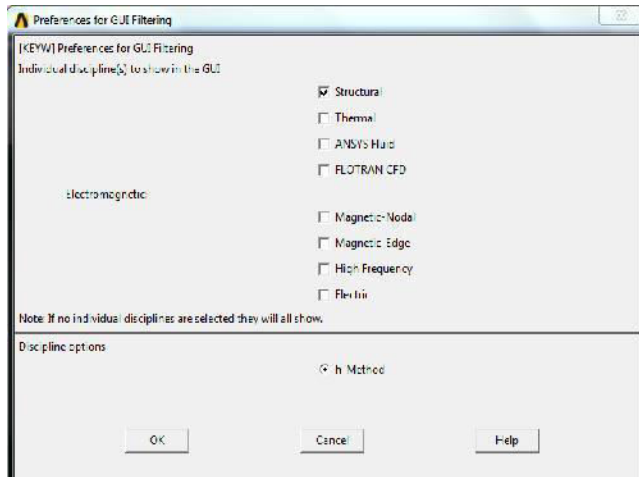
Within this part of the analysis you can for example:

**Visualize the results:** For example plot the deformed shape of the geometry or stresses.

**List the results:** If you prefer tabular listings or file printouts, it is possible.

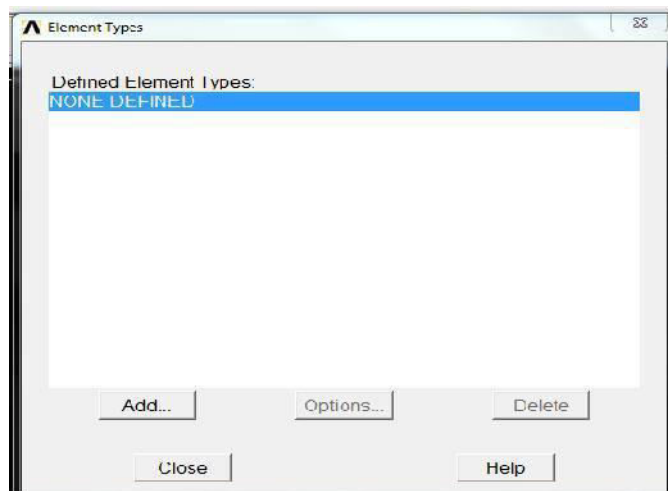
## III ANALYSES

- Preferences → Structural → OK

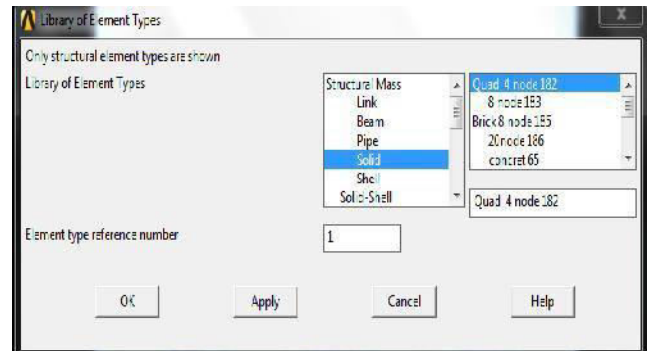


## Pre-Processor

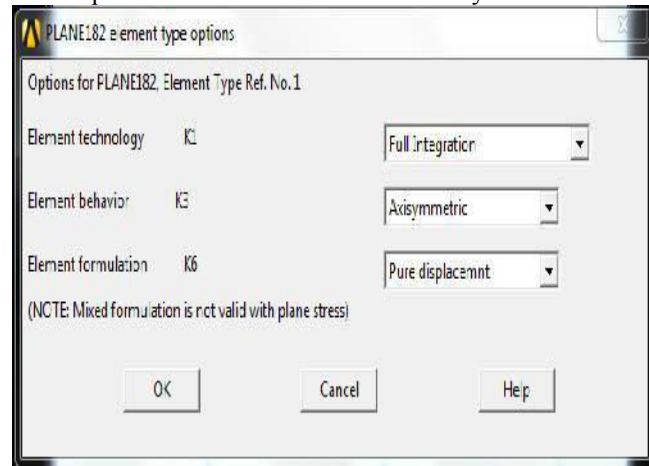
- Element type → Add/Edit/Delete → Add



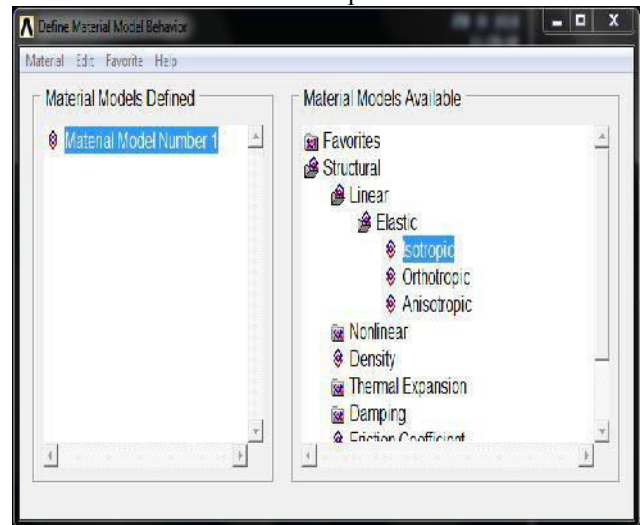
- Solid → Quad4Node182 → OK



- Options → Element Behavior K3 → Axisymmetric → OK

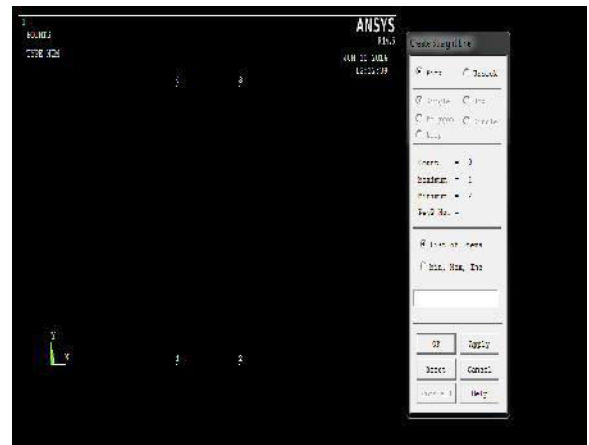
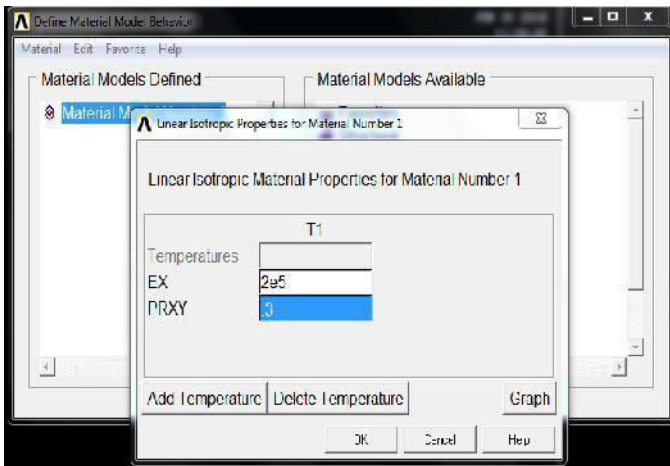


- Material Properties → Material Models → Structural → Linear → Elastic → Isotropic

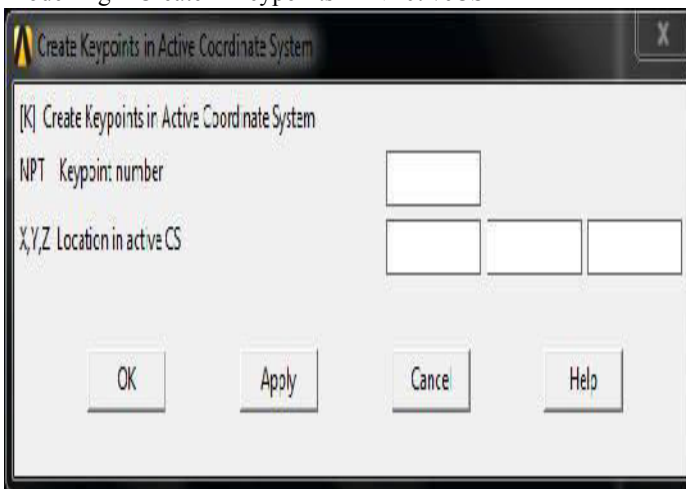


Young's Modulus –  $2 \times 10^5$   
 Poison's ratio – 0.3

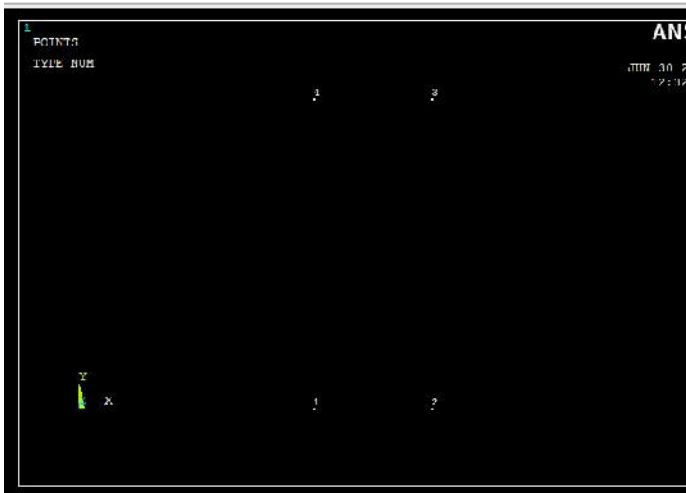
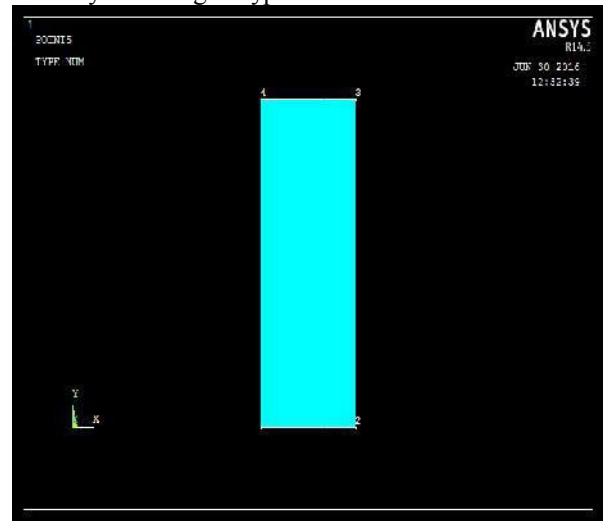




Modelling→Create→Keypoints→INActiveCS

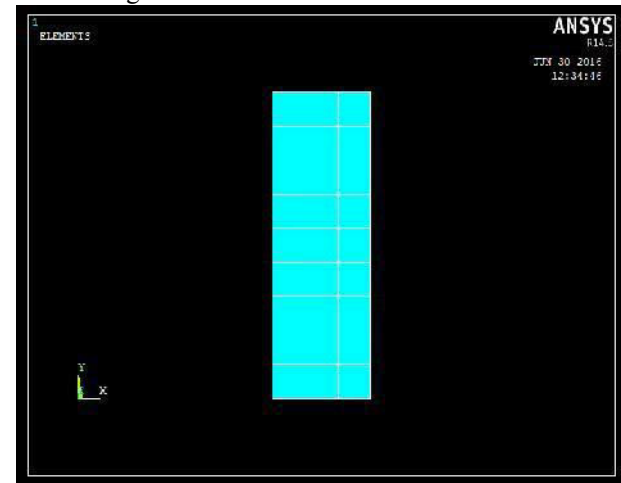


Area→Arbitrary→ThroughKeypoints

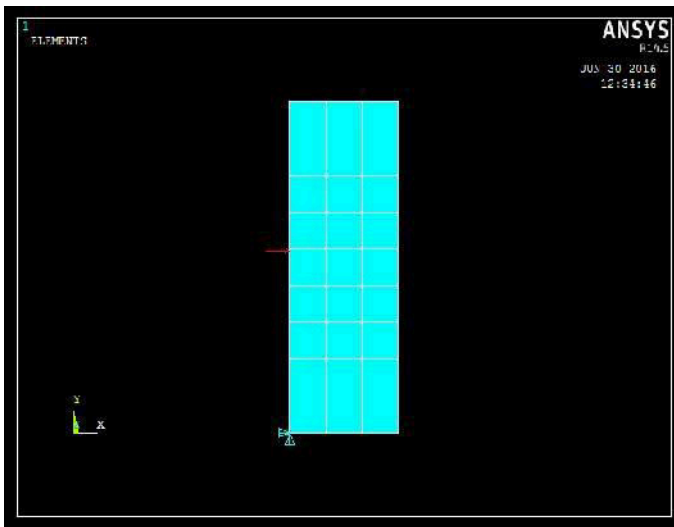


Lines→Lines→Straightlines→ThroughKeypoints

• Meshing→Mesh→Areas→Free

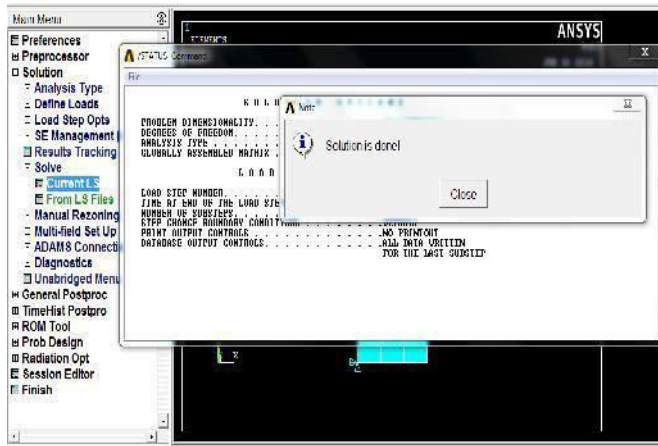


- Loads→DefineLoads  
→Apply→Structural→Displacement→OnKeyPointOnk  
eyPoint-AllDOF
- Loads→DefineLoads  
→Apply→Structural→Pressure→OnlinePressure-  
 $2.5 \times 10^6$  MPa

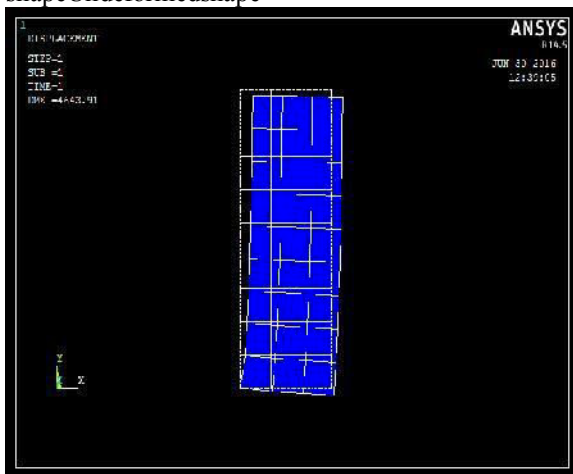


### IVRESULTS

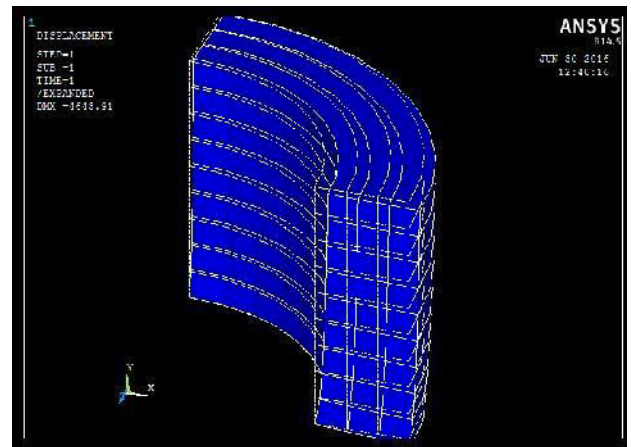
- Solve→CurrentLS→OK



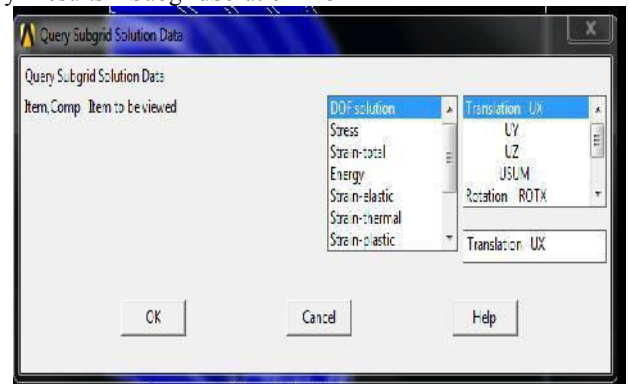
- Plot Results→Deformed shape→Deformed + Undeformed shape



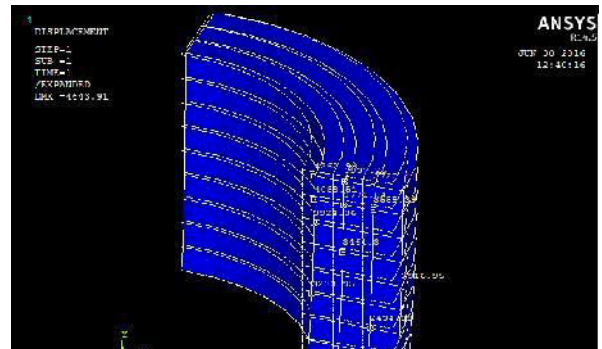
- Plot controls→Style→Symmetry→2D Axisymmetry



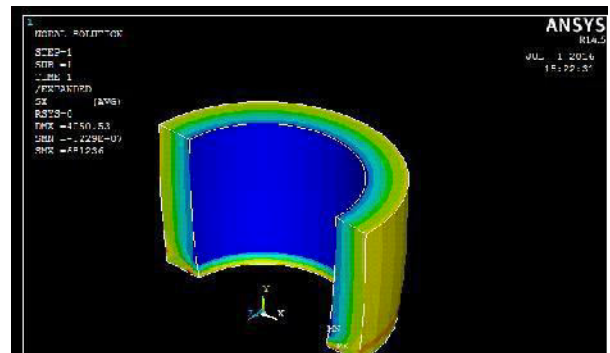
Query Results→SubgridSolution→OK

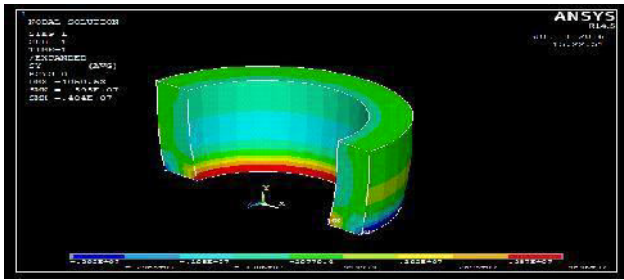


To check the displacement values, click at different positions in X direction

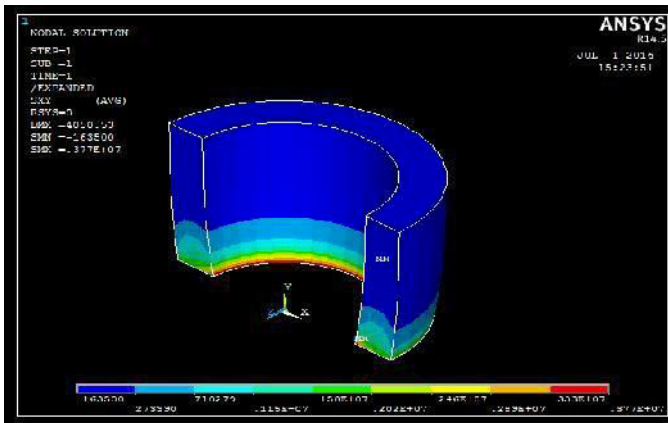
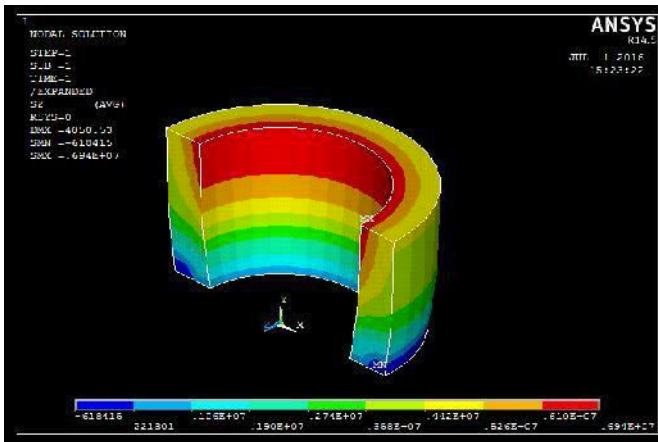


Plot results→Contour plot→Nodal solution X direction





Nodal solution  
Y direction  
Nodal solution  
Z direction



Nodal solution  
XY direction

As we seen above analysis and results for applied loads and condition the burst pressure of LPG gas cylinder has been determined by use of finite element analysis. max. and min. equivalent stress, maximum shear stress and deformation at critical area has been calculated.

## 5 CONCLUSION & FUTURE SCOPE

The limitations of physical model techniques have led to the development of mathematical models representing a variety of mechanical structures. As in this approach, whole structure is divided into finite elements, it is known as 'Finite Element Analysis'. The FEA is a very useful tool in engineering today

and same has proved to be an important technique in machine tool structural analysis. Thus, Computer is an invaluable tool for a designer in his task for evaluating alternative designs to arrive at the optimum design and also predicting the static behavior of the machine before arriving at the final design. Machine tool has some means of constraining the workpiece and provide a guided movement to the parts of the machine. In analysis part the finite element of hollow machine member is created using solid tetrahedron elements, appropriate boundary conditions are applied, material properties are given and loads are applied as per its design, the resultant deformation and stresses von mises stress obtained are reported in Results.

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## Design and Analysis of Bearing House

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Department of Mechanical Engineering Mallareddy College of Engineering

**Abstract**—Bearings are precision components; they require clean lubricants in adequate amounts to survive, and even seemingly small amounts of contamination can greatly reduce equipment reliability and uptime. The forging process is superior to casting in that the parts formed have denser microstructures, more defined grain patterns, and less porosity, making such parts much stronger than casting. All metals and alloys are forgeable, but each will have a forgeability rating from high to low. The factors involved are the material's composition, crystal structure, and mechanical properties all considered within a temperature range. The wider the temperature range, the higher the forgeability rating. Most forging is done on heated workpieces. "Cold forging" can occur at room temperatures. The most forgeable materials are aluminum, copper, and magnesium. Lower ratings are applied to the various steels, nickel, and titanium alloys. Hot forging temperatures range from 930°C (2000°F) to 1650°C (3000°F) for refractory metals.

In this project a component and die will be designed in CATIA V5 R20 and analysis were carried out in ANSYS.

**Keyword**-bearing house, cold forging, analysis

### I. INTRODUCTION

Housing is one of the accurate components to keep the bearing reliability and safety.

A new generation of bearing protectors is now available that can help maintain lubricant cleanliness, prevent loss of lubricants, and prolong the life of your rotating equipment.

Depending upon the design of a shaft or housing, the shaft may be influenced by an unbalanced load or other factors which can then cause large fluctuations in bearing efficiency. For this reason, it is necessary to pay attention to the following when designing shaft and housing:

- Bearing arrangement selection; most effective fixing method for bearing arrangement
- Selection of shoulder height and fillet radius of housing and shaft.
- Shape precision and dimension of fitting; are a run out tolerance of shoulder.
- Machining precision and mounting error of housing and shaft suitable for allowable alignment angle and inclination of bearing.

### II. MODELING AND MESHING

#### A. Introduction to CATIA

CATIA is a robust application that enables you to create rich and complex designs. The goal of the CATIA course is to teach you how to build parts and assemblies in CATIA, and how to make simple drawings of those parts and assemblies. This course focuses on the fundamental skills and concepts that enable you to create a solid foundation for your designs.

#### B. What is CATIA?

CATIA is mechanical design software. It is a feature-based, parametric solid modeling design tool that takes advantage of the easy-to-learn Windows graphical user interface. You can create fully associative 3D solid models with or without constraints while utilizing automatic or user-defined relations to capture design intent. To further clarify this definition, the italicized terms above will be further defined:

#### C. Feature-based:

Like an assembly is made up of a number of individual parts, a CATIA document is made up of individual elements. These elements are called features. When creating a document, you can add features such as pads, pockets, holes, ribs, fillets, chamfers, and drafts. As the features are created, they are applied directly to the workpiece.

Features can be classified as sketched-based or dress-up:

- **Sketched-based** features are based on a 2D sketch. Generally, the sketch is transformed into a 3D solid by extruding, rotating, sweeping, or lofting.
- **Dress-up** features are features that are created directly on the solid model. Fillets and chamfers are examples of this type of feature.

#### D. Parametric:

The dimensions and relations used to create a feature are stored in the model. This enables you to capture design intent, and to easily make changes to the model through these parameters.

Driving dimensions are the dimensions used when creating a feature. They include the dimensions associated with the sketch geometry, as well as those associated with the feature itself. Consider, for example, a cylindrical pad. The diameter of the pad is controlled by the diameter of the sketched circle, and the height of the pad is controlled by the depth to which the circle is extruded.

a) **Concentricity**: This type of information is typically communicated on drawings using feature control symbols. By capturing this information in the sketch, CATIA enables you to fully capture your design intent up front.

b) **Solid Modeling**: A solid model is the most complete type of geometric model used in CAD systems. It contains all the wireframe and surface geometry necessary to fully describe the edges and faces of the model. In addition to geometric information, solid models also convey their topology, which relates the geometry together. For example, topology might include identifying which faces (surfaces) meet at which edges (curves). This intelligence makes adding features easier. For example, if a model requires a fillet, you simply select an edge and specify a radius to create it.

#### c) Fully Associative:-

A CATIA model is fully associative with the drawings and parts or assemblies that reference it. Changes to the model are automatically reflected in the associated



drawings, parts, and/or assemblies. Likewise, changes in the context of the drawing or assembly are reflected back in the model.

*d) Constraints:-*

Geometric constraints (such as parallel, perpendicular, horizontal, vertical, concentric, and coincident) establish relationships between features in your model by fixing their positions with respect to one another. In addition, equations can be used to establish mathematical relationships between parameters. By using constraints and equations, you can guarantee that design concepts such as through holes and equal radii are captured and maintained.

*e) CATIA User Interface:* Below is the layout of the elements of the standard CATIA Application.

- A. Menu Commands
- B. Specification Tree
- C. Window of Active document
- D. Filename and extension of current document Icon
- E. Icon to maximize/minimize and close window
- F. Icon of the active workbench
- G. Toolbar specific to the active workbench
- H. Standard toolbar
- I. Compass
- J. Geometry area

*f) CATIA MODELING:*

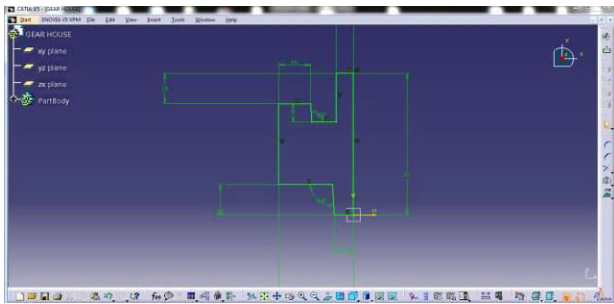


Fig-1: Dimension of bearing house

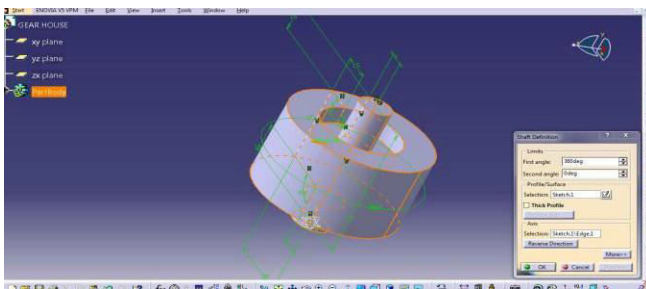


Fig-2: Isometric view of bearing house

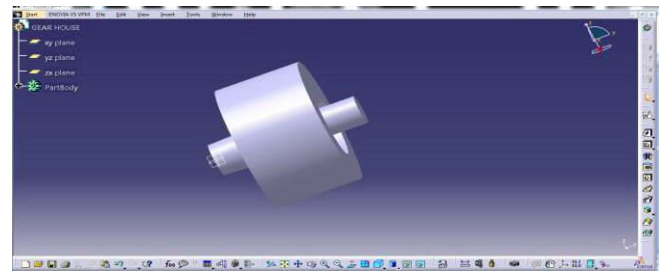


Fig-3: bearing house model

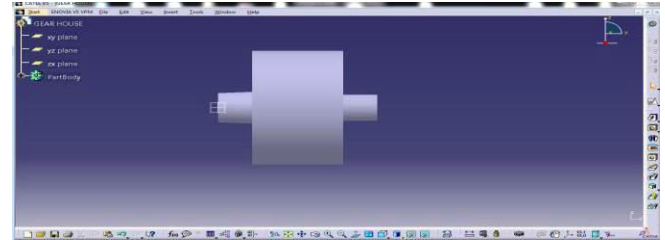


Fig-4: bearing house front view

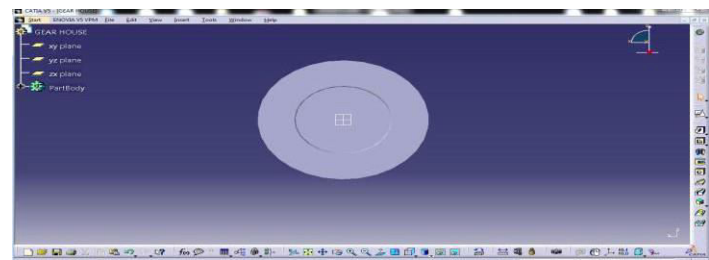


Fig-5: Bearing house bottom view

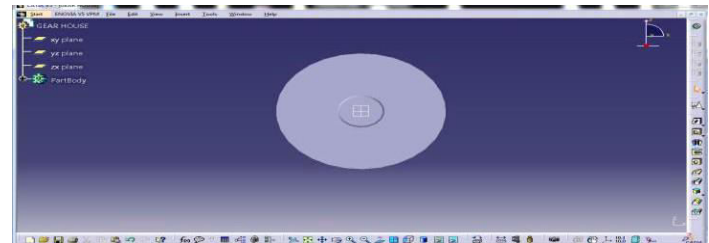


Fig-6: Bearing house top view

*G) MESHING:* Meshing is generated by using hypermesh software. Mesh the geometry by using tetrahedral elements. Element type is solid45.

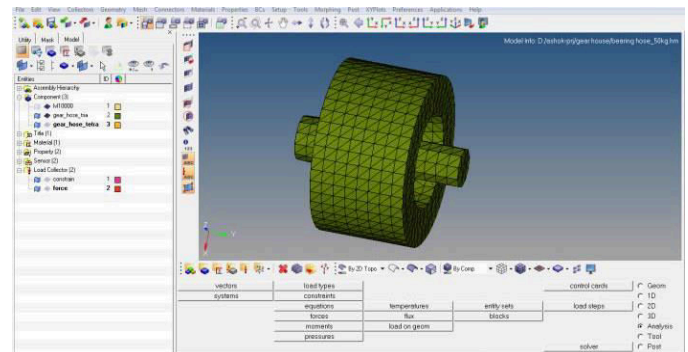


Fig-7: Mesh model of a gear box house

## H) ANALYSIS OF GEAR BOX HOUSE:

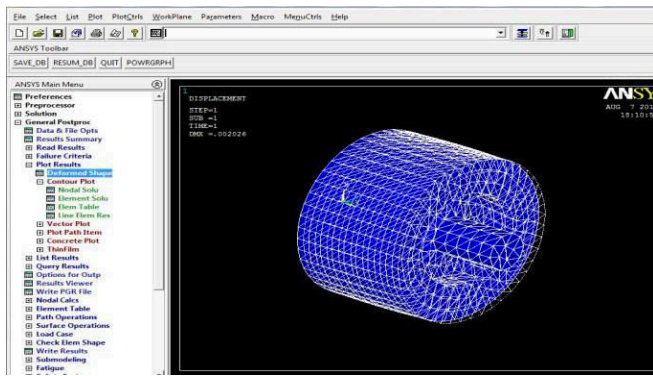


Fig-8: Deformed-undeformed shape of gear box house

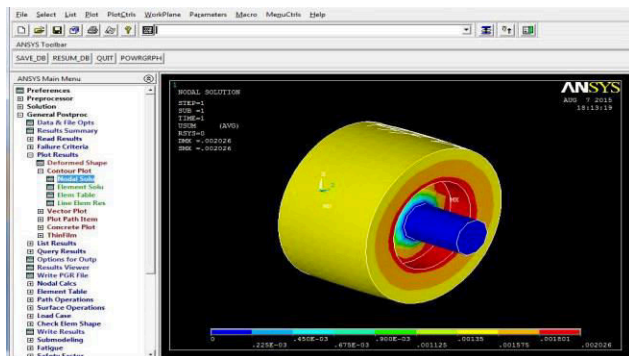


Fig-9: Displacement vector sum of gear box house is 0.002mm

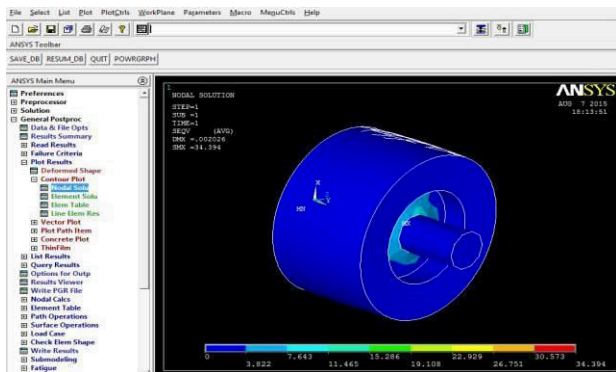


Fig-10: Vonmises stress of gear box house is 34.39n/mm<sup>2</sup>

## III. CONCLUSION

Designed housing for bearing which will be connected to shaft of an axle of a vehicle used for Cultivation. For the purpose of large quantity of production we are reproducing the components by using a method called forging.

The Bearing House was analyzed by finite element methods. From the above results the Maximum Vonmises stress observed is 34.39 N/mm<sup>2</sup>. This value is under a safe load condition.

The Maximum Displacement for Bearing House observed is 0.002mm, which can be omitted for very small values.

The Stress Levels for max load condition was safe and it suggests using for Heavy Engineering Equipment.

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## Static Analysis of Lathe Cutter

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**Abstract:-**Lathe is a machine tool used in the manufacturing industry; lathe is the mother of all machines. When a machine is manufactured it may fail due to stress acting on it. The machine is manufactured to withstand vibration. This paper analyzes the various stresses acting on the machine tool, using finite element analysis. The analyzed data helps to understand the behaviour of the machine tool; it helps to store design data for machine tool structures.

**Keywords:** machine tool, finite element analysis, ansys.

### I. INTRODUCTION

A lathe is a machine tool that rotates the workpiece on its axis to perform various operations such as cutting, knurling, drilling, or deformation, facing, turning, with tools that are applied to the workpiece to create an object with symmetry about an axis of rotation. Lathes are used in wood turning, metal working, metal spinning, thermal spraying, parts reclamation, and glass-working. Lathes can be used to shape pottery. Most suitably equipped metalworking lathes can also be used to produce most solid forms of revolution: screw threads or helices. Ornamental lathes can produce three-dimensional solids of incredible complexity. The workpiece is usually held in place by either one or two centres, at least one of which can typically be moved horizontally to accommodate varying workpiece lengths. Other work-holding methods include clamping the work about the axis of rotation using a chuck or collet, or to a faceplate, using clamps.

#### A) CUTTING TOOL

In the context of machining, a cutting tool or cutter is any tool that is used to remove material from the workpiece by means of shear deformation. Cutting may be accomplished by single-point or multipoint tools. Single-point tools are used in turning, shaping, planing and similar operations, and remove material by means of one cutting edge. Milling and drilling tools are often multipoint tools. Grinding tools are also multipoint tools. Each grain of abrasive functions as a microscopic single-point cutting edge (although of high negative rake angle), and shear a tiny chip.

#### B) Introduction to FINITE ELEMENT METHOD

The basic idea in the Finite Element Method is to find the solution of a complicated problem with relatively easy way. The Finite Element Method has been a powerful tool for the numerical solution of a wide range of engineering problems. Applications range from deformation and stress

analysis of automotive, aircraft, building, defence, missile and bridge structures to the field analysis of dynamics, stability, fracture mechanics, heat flux, fluid flow, magnetic flux, seepage and other flow problems. With the advances in computer technology and CAD systems, complex problems can be modelled with relative ease. Several alternate configurations can be tried out on a computer before the first prototype is built. The basics in engineering field are must to idealize the given structure for the required behaviour. The proven knowledge in the computational aspects of the Finite Element Method is essential. In the Finite Element Method, the solution region is connected as built up of many small, interconnected subregions called finite elements.

The step by step procedure for static structural problem can be stated as follows

#### STEP1: Discretization of structure (domain)

The first step in the finite element method is to divide the structure or solution region into sub-divisions or elements.

#### STEP2: Selection of a proper interpolation model.

Since the displacement (field variable) solution of a complex structure under any specified load conditions can't be predicted exactly. We assume some suitable solution within an element to approximate the unknown solution. The assumed solution must be simple from computational point of view, and it should satisfy certain convergence requirements.

#### STEP3: Element stiffness matrices (characteristic matrices) and load vectors.

From the assumed displacement model the stiffness matrix  $[K(e)]$  and the load vector  $F(e)$  of element 'e' are to be derived by using either equilibrium conditions or a suitable variation principle.

#### STEP4: Assembly of element equations to obtain the overall equilibrium equations.

Since the structure is composed of several finite elements, the individual element stiffness matrices and load vectors are to be assembled in a suitable manner and the overall equilibrium equations have to be formulated as

$$[K]q = F$$

$[K]$  is called assembled stiffness matrix,  $q$  is called the vector of nodal displacement and  $F$  is the vector of nodal forces for the complete structure.

#### STEP5: Solution of system equations have to be modified to account for the boundary conditions of the problem. After

incorporation of the boundary conditions, the equilibrium can be expressed as

$$[K]q = F$$

For linear problems, the vector 'q' can be solved very easily. But for nonlinear analysis problems, the solution has to be obtained in a sequence of steps, each step involving the modification of the stiffness matrix [k] and the load vector F.

**STEP 6:** Computation of Element Stresses and Strains. From the known nodal displacements, if required, the element stresses and strains can be computed by using the necessary equations of solid or structural mechanics.

#### C) Advantages of Finite Element Method:

In contrast to other variations and residual approaches the finite element method does not require trial solutions, which apply to the entire multi-dimensional continuum.

- The use of separate subregions or finite elements for the trial solutions permits a greater flexibility in considering continuation of complex shape.
- Rather than requiring every trial solution to satisfy the boundary conditions, one prescribes the conditions after obtaining the algebraic equations for the assemblage.
- As the boundary conditions do not enter into equations for the individual finite elements, one can use the same field variable for both internal and boundary elements.
- The field variable models need not be changed when the boundary conditions change.
- The introduction of boundary conditions into assembled equations is a relatively easy process. No special techniques or artificial devices are necessary.
- The finite element method not only accommodates complex geometry and boundary conditions, but also proves successful in representing various types of complicated material properties that are difficult to incorporate in other numerical methods.
- The finite element method readily accounts for non-homogeneity by the simple tactic of assigning different properties to different elements.
- The simple generality of the finite element procedure makes it a powerful and versatile tool for finite element method a wider range of problems.

#### D) Limitations of Finite Element Method:

The finite element method does not accommodate few complex phenomena such as

- Cracking and Fracture behaviour.
- Contact problems.
- Bond failures of composite materials.
- Non-Linear material behaviour with work softening.

It does not account for transient, unconfined seepage problems.

The Finite Element analysis has reached a high level of development as a solution technique. However, the method yields realistic results only if the coefficients or material parameters which describe the basic phenomena are available. The most tedious aspect of the use of the finite element method is the basic processes of subdividing the continuum and of generating error-free input data for the computer. Errors in the input data may go undetected and erroneous results obtained may appear acceptable.

A large volume of solution information is generated by a finite element routine, but this data is worth only while

when its generation and interpretation are tempered by proper engineering judgment.

#### E) Applications of FEM:

Finite element method comes under the category of discretization methods. R. W. Clough appears to be the first to use this term of finite element, since early 1960's there has been much progress in this method. This method requires a large number of computations requiring a computer. In fact digital computer advances have been responsible for the expanding usage of the finite element method. The FEM was initially developed to solve structural problems. Its use of late, has been rapidly extended to various fields. The diversity of applications of the method is explained in the following:

##### a) Mechanical Design:

Stress concentration problems, stress analysis of pressure vessels, distance, composite materials, linkages and gears. Natural frequencies and stability of linkages, gears and machine tools. Crack and fracture problems under dynamic loads.

##### b) Civil Engineering Structures:

Static analysis of trusses, frames, roofs, bridges and prestressed concrete structures. Natural frequencies, modes and stability of structures. Propagation of stress waves and response of structures to periodic loads.

##### c) Aircraft Structures:

Static analysis of aircraft wings, fins, rockets, spacecraft and missile structures. Natural frequencies, flutter and stability of aircraft and missile structures. Response of aircraft structures to random loads, dynamic response of aircraft and spacecraft to periodic loads.

##### d) Heat Conduction:

Steady state temperature distribution in solids and fluids. Transient heat flow in rocket nozzles, internal combustion engines, turbine blades, fins and building structures.

##### e) Nuclear Engineering:

Analysis of nuclear pressure vessels steady and unsteady state temperature distribution in reactor components. Natural frequencies and stabilities of containment structures. Response of reactor containment structures to dynamic loads. Thermal and viscoelastic analysis of reactor structures.

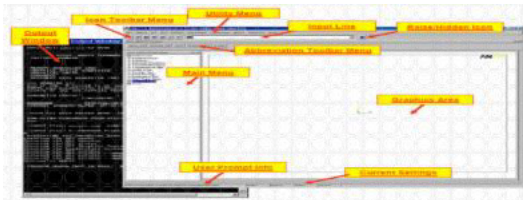
## II. INTRODUCTION TO ANSYS

ANSYS is commercial finite element analysis software with the capability to analyze a wide range of different problems. ANSYS runs under a variety of environments, including IRIX, Solaris, and Windows NT. Like any finite element software, ANSYS solves governing differential equations by breaking the problem into small elements. The governing equations of elasticity, fluid flow, heat transfer, and electromagnetism can all be solved by the finite element method in ANSYS. ANSYS can solve transient problems as well as nonlinear problems.

This document will focus on the basics of ANSYS using primarily structural examples.

#### A) LAYOUT OF ANSYS





### B) DATABASE AND FILES

The term ANSYS database refers to the data ANSYS maintains in memory as you build, solve, and postprocess your model. The database stores both your input data and ANSYS results data:

–Input data--

information you must enter, such as dimensions, material properties, and load data.

–Results data--

quantities that ANSYS calculates, such as displacements, stresses, and temperature.

### C) DEFINING THE JOBNAME

Utility Menu > File > Change Jobname

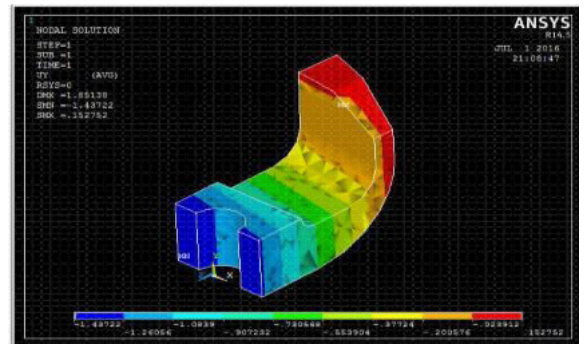
The jobname is a name up to 32 characters that identifies the ANSYS job. When you define a jobname for an analysis, the jobname becomes the first part of the name of all files the analysis creates. (The extension or suffix for these files' names is a file identifier such as .DB.)

By using a jobname for each analysis, you ensure that no files are overwritten.

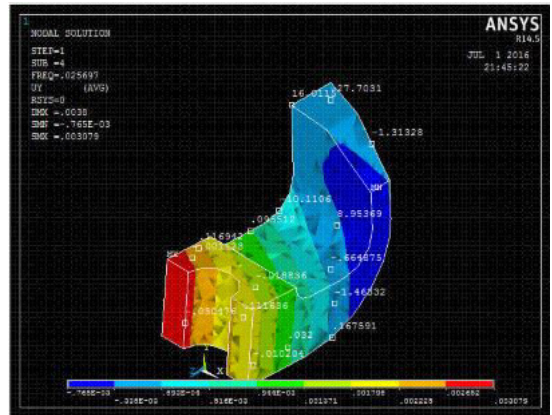
Typical files in Ansys jobname.db, .dbb: Database file, binary. Compatible across all supported platforms. jobname.log: Logfile, ASCII. Contains a log of every command issued during the session. If you start a second session with the same jobname in the same working directory, ANSYS will append to the previous log file (with a timestamp).

jobname.err: Errorfile, ASCII. Contains all errors and warnings encountered during the session. ANSYS will also append to an existing error file.

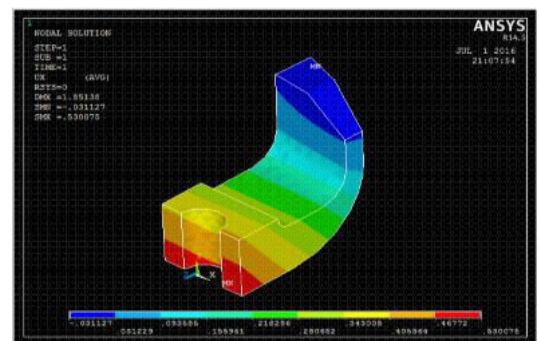
jobname.rst, .rth, .rmg, .rfl: Results files, binary. Contains results data calculated by ANSYS during solution. Compatible across all supported platforms.



POSTPROCEDURE-QUERY RESULTS  
SUBGRIDSOLUTION  
STRESS

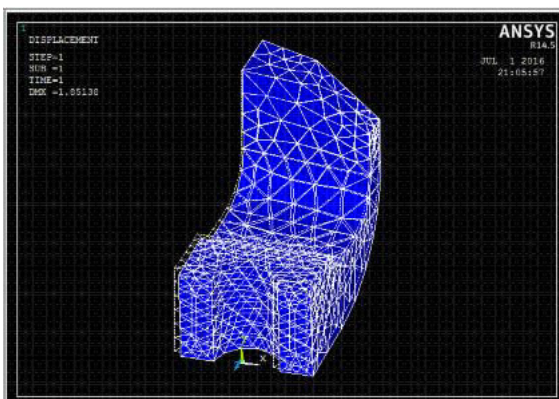


PLOT RESULTS-CONTOURED PLOT  
STRESS  
AT X COMPONENT

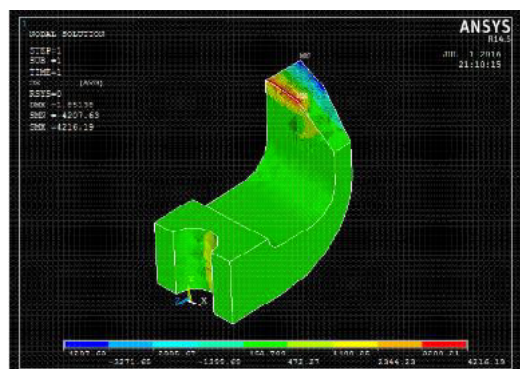


PLOT RESULTS-CONTOURED PLOT  
STRESS  
AT Y COMPONENT

### IV. RESULTS POST PROCEDURE- PLOT RESULTS DEFORMED SHAPE



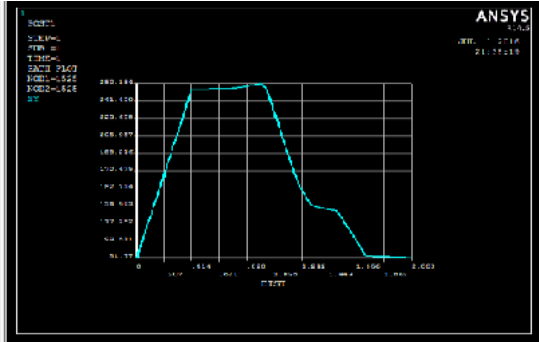
PLOT RESULTS-CONTOURED PLOT  
DEFORMATION AT  
Y COMPONENT



PLOT-NODES

POSTPROCEDURE-PATHOPERATIONS

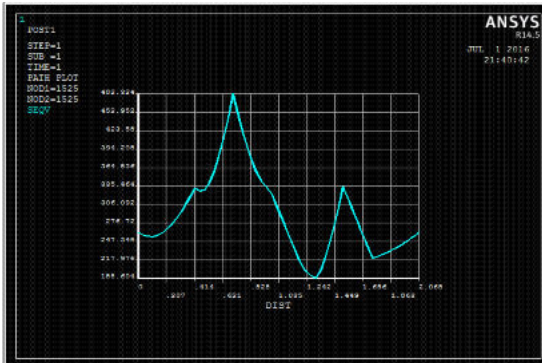
DEFINEPATHSELECT  
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PLOT-NODES

POSTPROCEDURE-PATHOPERATIONS

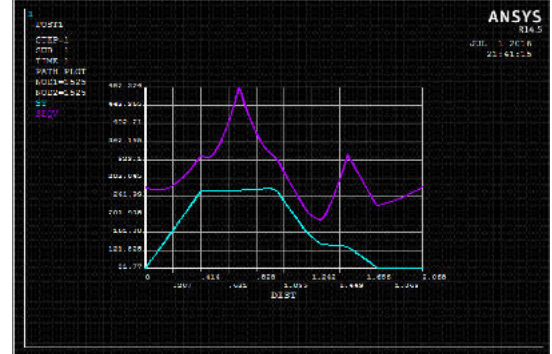
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PLOT-NODES

POSTPROCEDURE-PATHOPERATIONS

DEFINEPATHSELECT  
NODES-  
OKMAPONTOPATH  
SELECTVONMISES-  
OKPLOTPATHITEM  
ONGRAPH  
SELECTSEQYANDSY



## V.CONCLUSION

Lathes are used in wood turning, metal working, metal spinning, thermal spraying, parts reclamation, and glass-working. Lathes can be used to shape pottery. Most suitably equipped metal working lathes can also be used to produce most solid forms of revolution: screw threads or helices. In this project, the Lathe cutter is modelled with the respective dimensions and imported into Ansys in IGS format and done the static analysis. Found out the deformation of the body, with respective dimensions and contoured along with Von Mises stresses in components and graphs were plotted in some important component axes in Static analysis.

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# *Design and Analysis of Portable Gantry Hoist*

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## **Abstract-**

During Gantry Hoist, engineers have to manually evaluate various tools such as CAD and CAE tools. This process takes considerable amount of time and effort. Furthermore, the process of FEM simulation such as meshing and post processing is very iterative and time consuming. In this work, an alternative way to perform FEA will be presented. The main objective of this approach is to relieve engineers from time consuming and iterative work.

Before performing the topology optimization, the structural modeling of the Gantry Hoist needs to be developed by using CATIA software. The structural modeling is then imported into the computer-aided engineering (CAE) and began the meshing on the Gantry Hoist. The finite element modeling (FEM) processes were performed by using Ansys 15. The boundary condition (BC) and loadings selected and applied at the Gantry Hoist. The finite element analysis (FEA) then carried out at the Gantry Hoist. The Ansys 15 used to solve the analysis equation thus, producing the result of stress, strain and displacement where it will be used to analyze the critical area of the Gantry Hoist. Finally the results description in terms of factor of safety, stiffness, deformation and stress.

**Key words-** CATIA, FEM, ANSYS

## **I. INTRODUCTION**

There are currently many different cranes. Gantry cranes are one of them. Gantry cranes are built to move large loads, for example, filled containers from ship to shore. Gantry cranes are available in different sizes and structures depending on the task they do. In some lines of work it is necessary to have the loads moved quickly. For example harbor cranes, where each minute it takes to empty or load a ship can be extremely costly. The first gantry cranes were built over 40 years ago and since then they have undergone a major development. In 2009 the world's largest gantry crane was built in South Korea.

Gantry cranes are a type of crane built at a gantry, which is a structure used to straddle an object or workspace. They are also called portal cranes, the "portal" being the empty space straddled by the gantry. The terms gantry crane and overhead crane (or bridge crane) are often used interchangeably, as both types of cranes straddle their workload. The usual distinction drawn between the two is that with gantry cranes, the entire structure (including gantry) is usually wheeled (often on rails). By contrast, the supporting structure of an overhead crane is fixed in location, often in the form of the walls or ceiling of a building, to which is attached a movable hoist running overhead along a rail or beam (which may itself move). Further confusing the issue is that gantry cranes may also incorporate a movable beam-mounted hoist in addition to

the entire structure being wheeled, and some overhead cranes are suspended from a freestanding gantry.

Gantry cranes in the form of container cranes are prominent features of most container terminals, used to load and unload containers on and off container ships. They can range from enormous "full" gantry cranes, capable of lifting some of the heaviest loads in the world, to small shop cranes, used for tasks such as lifting automobile engines out of vehicles.

## *A. Background*

Portable lifting equipment is a large component of any mechanical shop. This can be achieved through the use of forklifts, chain lifts, etc. While motor-powered equipment is expensive and requires maintenance and fuel, manually operated lifts are inexpensive and do not require much or any maintenance. Ease of maneuverability is a big issue for most shops along with variable terrain.

## *B. Justification*

The plan for this project is to design and validation of overhead lift with a chain hoist that can be broken down and easily moved to different job sites and have a 2 ton lifting capacity. Using materials that are already available will cut down on costs and allow for more money to be put into a higher quality hoist. The casters/wheels will be high strength solid rubber wheels so there are no problems with flat tires while it still has the ability to be maneuvered in more hostile terrain such as soft soil and gravel driveways. They will also have to have a higher load rating than the 2 ton rated capacity to account for the extra weight of the frame, hoist, and trolley. Building a custom hoist will allow for plenty of customization and personal addition to the basic overhead hoist designs such as racks for tools, parts, and other items could be useful in the work area.

## *C. VARIANTS:*

Container crane

A ship-to-shore rail mounted gantry crane is a specialised version of the gantry crane in which the horizontal gantry rails and their supporting beam are cantilevered out from between frame uprights spaced to suit the length of a standard freight container, so that the beams supporting the rails project over a quay side and over the width of an adjacent ship allowing the hoist to lift containers from the quay and move out along the rail to place the containers on the ship. The uprights have wheels



which run in tracks allowing the crane to move along the quay top position on the containers at any point on the length of the ship. The first quay side container gantry crane was developed in 1959 by Paceco, Inc. <sup>[1]</sup> Paceco's name for their line of quay side cranes, "Portainer", has since become something of a genericised trademark, used to refer to any quay side container gantry crane.

#### D. Full gantry crane

Taisun, the world's strongest gantry crane, at Yantai Raffles Shipyard, Yantai, China

"Full" gantry cranes (where the load remains beneath the gantry structure, supported from a beam) are well suited to lifting massive objects such as ships' engines, as the entire structure can resist the torque created by the load, and counterweights are generally not required. For example, Samson and Goliath, two full gantry cranes located in the Harland and Wolff shipyard in Belfast have spans of 140 metres and can lift loads of up to 840 tonnes to a height of 70 metres.

In 2008, the world's strongest gantry crane, Taisun, which can lift 20,000 metric tons, was installed in Yantai, China at the Yantai Raffles Shipyard.

#### E. Workstation gantry crane

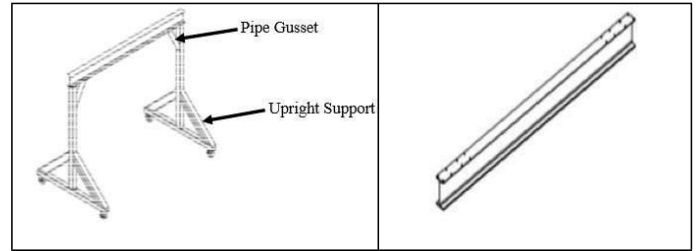
Workstation gantry cranes are used to lift and transport small items around a working area in a factory or machine shop. Some workstation gantry cranes are equipped with an enclosed track, while others use an I-beam, or other extruded shapes, for the running surface. Most workstation gantry cranes are intended to be stationary when loaded, and mobile when unloaded. Workstation Gantry Cranes can be outfitted with either a Wire Rope hoist or a lower capacity Chain Hoist.

#### F. Rubber tyred gantry crane

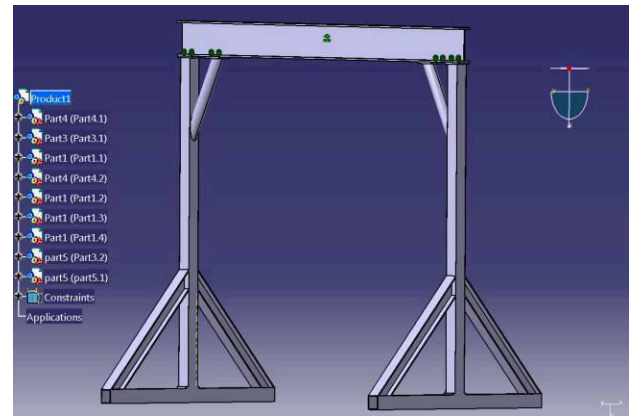
Smaller gantry cranes are also available running on rubber tyres so that tracks are not needed. Rubber tyred gantry cranes are used in container terminals to straddle multiple lanes of rail/road and container storage; straddle carriers are used when moving individual

## II. DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

The design was based off of previously built gantry hoists. The RoseFlo hoist was used as a design to avoid especially the "A" frame section used for the supports. The material used was based on what was available and what would be strong but not overkill to avoid adding too much weight on the casters. The upright supports were made to be cut at 45 degrees to make it easy to cut. The pipe gussets were made at a sharper angle because that allowed the trolley to have a wider distance to move back and forth. The specifications for the members can be found in Appendix A. The material that was available was the S10X25.4.



CATIA Modelling:



#### FE Analysis

In this section, the steps taken to perform a structural analysis in ANSYS are explained. It is necessary to identify the tedious and time-consuming steps and try to automate them to reduce the FE simulation time and to avoid the constant interaction of the user with the FE tool. Following the list of steps are represented.

**Geometry.** The first step to take in order to perform the analysis is to define the geometry to be evaluated. This geometry is normally done in CAD software and later imported into a dedicated FE program.

**Material.** After having the geometry defined, the next step is to assign a material to this geometry. Depending on the type of analysis, some properties have more importance than others. For a structural analysis, the Young's modulus and the Poisson ratio are the most important. The importance of automating this step is to avoid the need of manually selecting the required material from a long list located in ANSYS, especially when the user knows beforehand the name of the material.

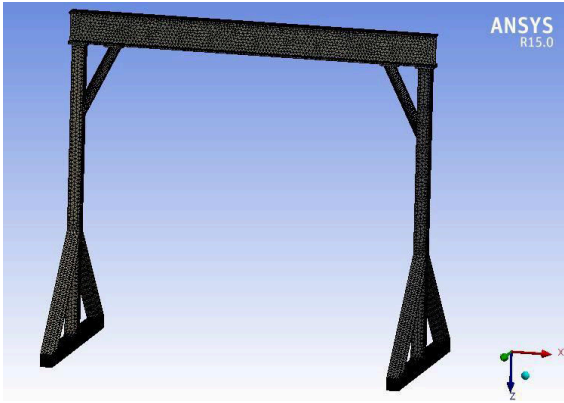
**Meshing.** One of the most relevant steps in the Finite Element Analysis is the meshing. The speed and the accuracy of the results have a direct connection in how this part is done. The higher the number of nodes, the higher the accuracy of the results, however, the speed of the simulation decreases.

Tetrahedrons second order mesh is used for the structure. Body size of 20 mm used for the structure.

Total No of Nodes: 158255 Total N

oof Elements: 74717





**Fig: Mesh of the structure**

**Pre-processing.** After meshing the structure, the Boundary Condition shavetobeapplied in the model. For obtaining the stress the algorithm first calculates the displacements, hence the necessity to fix the model.

Furthermore, after fixing the model the load condition that influence the structure are given as input to the analysis. In Figure 6 it is possible to observe how these boundary conditions are placed in the structure.

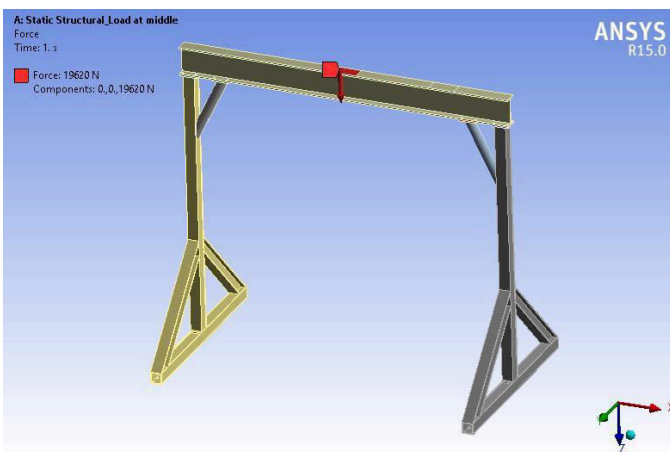
*Loads:*

The structure is designed for the 2ton capacity, so that the load will be applied is 2000kg.

Applied is =  $2000 \times 9.81$  N Total applied load = 19620 N

One load case is considered in the present analysis. Case 1:

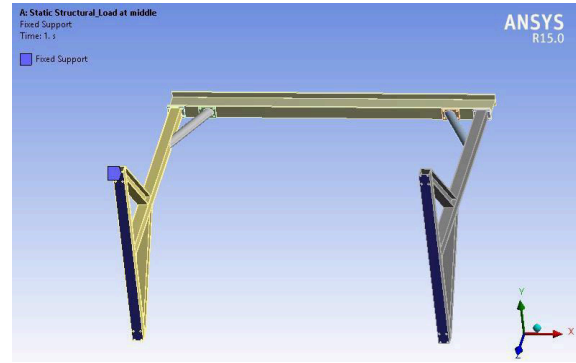
Load acting at the centre of the structure Case 1:



**Fig Load applied in case 1**

*Boundary conditions:*

The structure bottom is fixed in all degrees of freedom ( $U_x, U_y$  &  $U_z = 0$  mm)



**Fig Boundary condition applied in the structure**

*Postprocessing.*

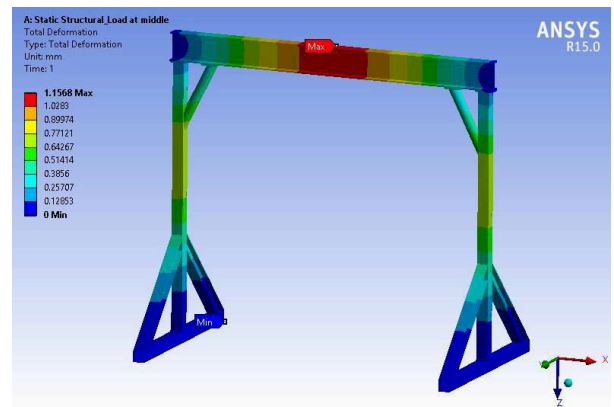
The final step is to run the simulations, but before it has to be specific if which results are required by the user. In order to determine if the model can resist the loads applied to it, it is necessary to know, e.g. the Maximum Von Mises stress and the displacement. Knowing these results the user can compare with the data from the material used and applying the safety factor it can be determined if the structure is stiff enough. Another use is being able to extract the results automatically for the possibility to optimize the structure.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

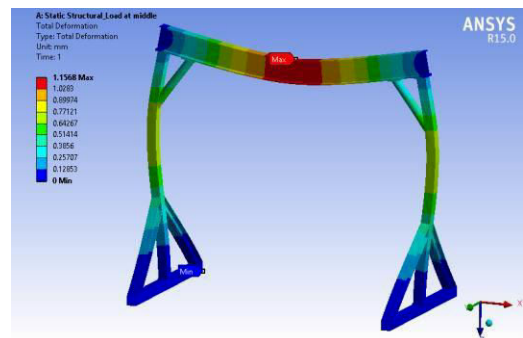
#### ANALYSIS RESULTS

This chapter is intended for presenting the results obtained after learning the theories and applying the method described in the two previous chapters. It starts with the validation of the model.

#### Case 1: Results



**Fig Total deformation \_ Truescale**



**Fig Total deformation \_ Autoscale**

Total deformation observed in the structure is 1.15 mm.

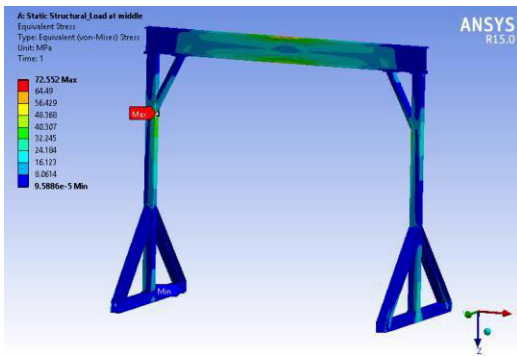


Fig: von Mises stress\_case1

Maximum von Mises stress observed in the structure is 72 MPa.

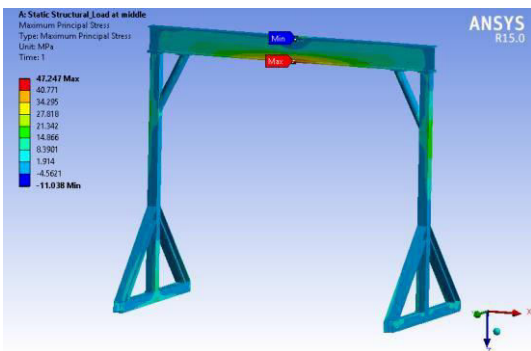


Fig: Maximum principal stress\_case1

Maximum principal stress observed in the structure is 47 MPa

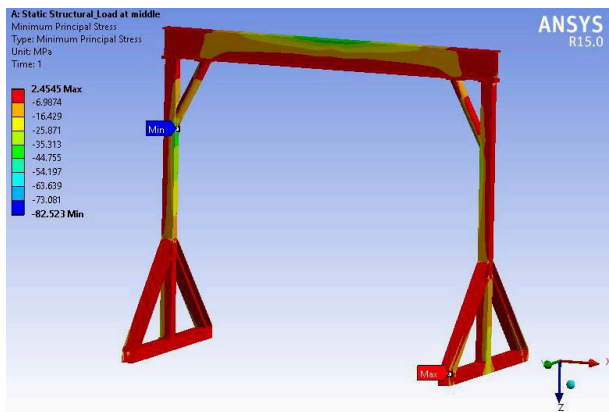


Fig: Minimum principal stress\_case1

Minimum principal stress observed in the structure is 82 MPa

## CONCLUSION

The max stress was about 75 MPa which is below the max bending stress of 317 MPa. A more in-depth structural analysis should be performed to find a least that could be made cheaper and lighter if the materials would have to be purchased in order to save money. The pipe gussets were made with such a sharp angle to allow for the trolley to have more travel side to side. The downside was cutting the angle with a grinder instead of a bandsaw but it still came out close enough to get a strong weld on it. The beam was

able to lift the weight it was rated for. The limiting factor for the weight rating turned out to be the casters, if the hoist was to be rated for 3 tons they would not hold 125% of the rated weight along with the hoist weight.

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# Determination of Stress Intensity Factors Under Mode-I Fracture of C45 Steel

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## Abstract—

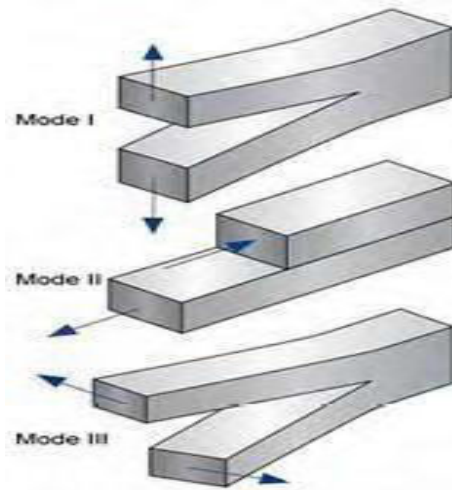
The focus of this paper is to investigate how a crack propagates and grows in a rectangular plate with an elliptical crack through the centre. The finite element analysis tool Ansys is used to propagate the failure criteria and to compute stresses and Stress Intensity factor SIF(K). A specific object was created and central crack was investigated. This configuration was introduced since the engineers often detect Mode I Open type crack in object. The Stress Intensity Factor obtained theoretically is compared against same by Ansys 17.2 tool. Both of them obtained and also maximum stress zone is located at the crack tip in Ansys.

## Keywords-

Fracture Mechanics, ANSYS, Central Crack, Crack Propagation, Linear Elastic Fracture Mechanics (LEFM), Finite Element Method, Stress Intensity Factor, High Grade Steel C45. I.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Failure of the engineering structures is caused by cracks, which is depending on the design and operating conditions that extend beyond a safe size. Cracks present to some extent in all structures, either as a result of manufacturing defects or localized damage in service [2]. The crack growth leads to a decrease in the structural strength. Fracture, the final catastrophic event, takes place very rapidly and is preceded by crack growth. Damage Tolerance (DT) assessment is a procedure that defines whether a crack can be sustained safely during the projected service life of the structure. The fundamental assumption of linear elastic fracture mechanics is that the crack behavior is determined solely by the values of the stress intensity factors which are a function of the applied load and the geometry of the cracked structure. Fracture mechanics deals with the study of how a crack in a structure propagates under applied loads, propagation and failure with experimental results [5]. Calculating fracture parameters such as stress intensity factor in the crack region [1], which is used to estimate the crack growth, makes the analytical predictions. Some typical parameters are: Stress intensity factors (Open mode (a) KI, Shear mode (b) KII, Tearing mode (c) KIII



**Figure 1: Three Types Of Loading On A Cracked Body; (A) Mode I; (B) Mode II And (C) Mode III**

## II. REVIEW

Dayal R. Parhi and Sasanka Choudhury a cantilever beam with a single crack has been taken into consideration. Finite element method is used to find out the natural frequencies of the faulty cantilever beam. A fuzzy controller has been designed using trapezoidal, Gaussian as well as triangular membership function to find out the crack depth and crack location [5, 7]

D.K. Agarwalla concludes crack detection and localization is the main topic of discussion for various researchers across the globe. It is concluded that results obtained from experiment have a very good agreement with the results obtained from FEM and the structure vibrates with more frequency in the presence of a crack away from the fixed end.

An analytical and experimental approach by H. Nahvi and M. Jabbari et al. to the crack detection in cantilever beams by vibration analysis. Sensitivity analysis of the inverse problem of the crack parameters (location and depth) determined by M.B. Rosales, C.P. Filipich and F.S. Bueza et al. An efficient numerical technique is necessary to obtain significant results.

### III. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Cracks often develop in the corners of a structural member due to high stress concentration factor in those areas. If one can calculate the rate of crack growth, an engineer can schedule inspection accordingly and repair or replace the part before failure happens. Moreover, being able to predict the path of a crack helps a designer to incorporate adequate geometric tolerance in structural design to increase the part life [11]. While producing durable, reliable and safe structures are the goals of every aerospace component manufacturer, there are technical challenges that are not easy to be solved. Given limited engine design space, engineers strive to optimize using material geometry to produce high efficient and high performance engines that will operate at minimum weight and cost [6]. Engineers often look to have materials from component and design the thinnest possible components. Benefits from this approach included reduced weight, and smaller probability of encountering brittleness inducing microstructural defects. The focus of this paper is to investigate the corner crack growth in a steel alloy plate. This paper will examine the stress near the crack tip, compute the stress intensity factors and compare it against material toughness to determine the influence of the crack on the plate.

### IV. METHODOLOGY

Engineers strive to optimize part geometry by designing the thinnest possible components because this approach not only reduce engine weight but also reduce the risk of brittle structure often found in bulk materials [9]. Being able to determine the rate of crack growth, an engineer can schedule inspection accordingly and repair or replace the part before failure happens. Being able to predict the path of a crack helps a designer to incorporate adequate geometric tolerance in structural design to increase the part life [10]. The methodology used to investigate the mechanics of crack propagation consists of the following steps:

- Model creation
- Elastic stress analysis of the uncracked body
- Flaw implementation
- Crack propagation
- Elastic stress analysis of the cracked body
- Calculation of stress intensity factor
- Interpretation of results

### V. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

Model is having with the dimension of 0.1 m in height, 0.1 m in width, and crack length is 0.02 m. In addition, the symmetry boundary condition of steel plate as shown in below fig 2.

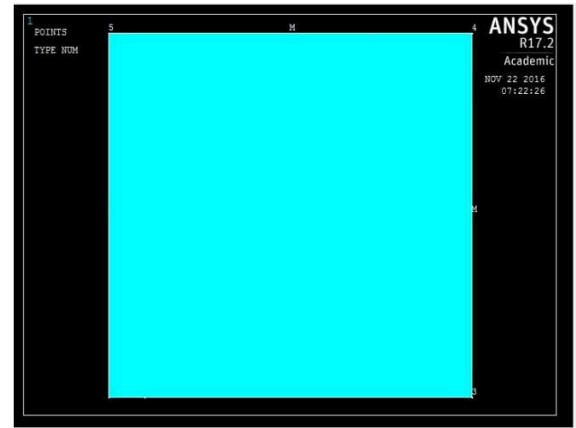


Figure 2: Basic model

Among all the steel based alloys, according to Immarigeon et al [3], high grade steel C45 is by far the most widely used, accounting for almost half of all steel used in aircraft because the material can increase the strength-to-weight ratio in structures and provide heat resistance with weight savings. However, the significant weight savings permitted by the steel application developments generates specific drawbacks that need particular technological developments. Among the most important concerns are brittle inclusions, which are difficult to detect by non-destructive testing, can initiate cracks and produce early failure of the structures [2]. Material imperfections due to manufacturing process, for example, voids and impurities can develop flaws that may cause the material to become weak. For those reasons, the material chosen in this study is high grade steel C45 and the properties are summarized in Table 1

QUANTITY	MAX	MIN	UNITS
Density	7850	7850	Kg/m <sup>3</sup>
Young's modulus	210000	210000	Mpa
Poisson's ratio	0.27	0.3	
Tensile strength	600	800	Mpa
Yield strength	340	400	Mpa

### THEORETICAL STRESS INTENSITY FACTOR (K<sub>I</sub>):

1. Stress intensity factor (K<sub>I</sub>) =  $C\sigma\sqrt{\pi a}$  2. C

= (1 -

0.1 + 0.96)  $\sqrt{1/\cos(\pi\eta)}$  Where C is a constant.

3.  $\eta = a/b$



Using the numerical package Ansys 17.2, we also determined the value of the stress intensity factor  $K_I$  for the same geometry. This was computed using finite elements on a mesh with quadratic triangular elements on the vicinity of the crack tip, and quadratic rectangular elements everywhere else. Quarter point elements, formed by placing the mid-side node near the crack tip at the quarter point, were used to account for the crack singularity.

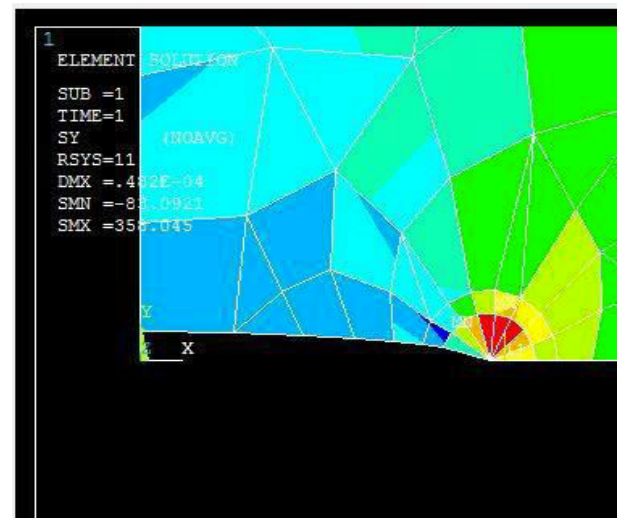
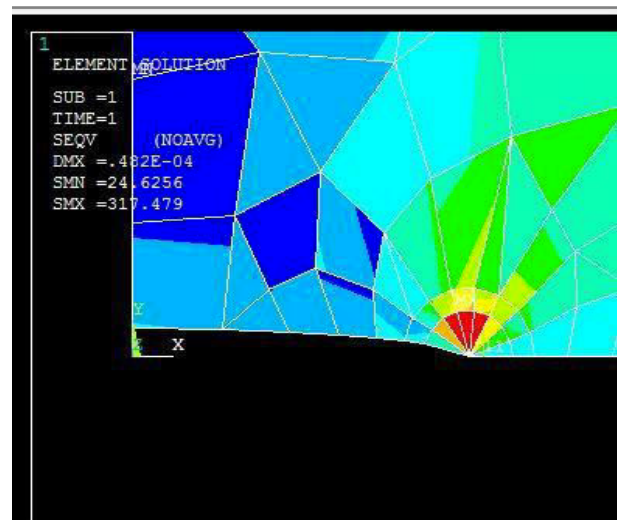
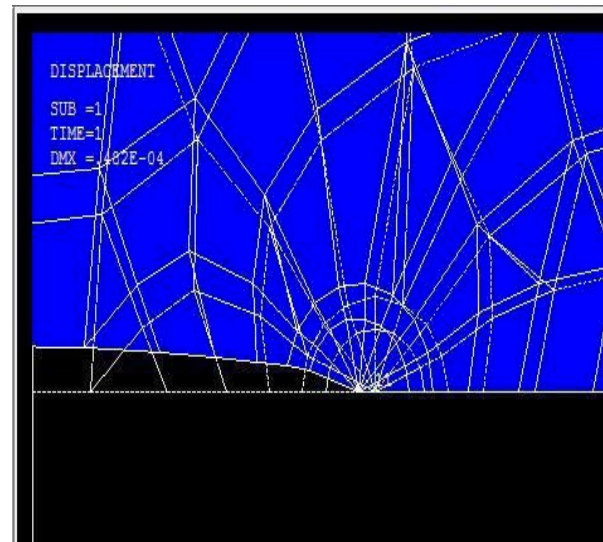
STRESS INTENSITY FACTOR $K_I$	THEORETICAL	ANSYS
	27.785	23.433

**ANALYSIS OF FAILURE CRITERIA** A static fracture analysis was performed, where the goal was merely to compute the stress intensity factors.

*Steps in Analysis Procedure:*

- Pre-processing
- Give the job name
- Define Element Type
- 3 Define Material Properties
- Define Key Points
- Define Line Segments
- Discretize Lines L3, L4 & L5
- Create the Concentration Keypoint (Crack Tip)
- Create the Area
- Apply Boundary Conditions
- Apply Loads
- Mesh the Model
  - Processing (Solving the Solution)
  - Post Processing
- Zoom the Crack-Tip Region
- Define Crack-Face Path
- Define Local Crack-Tip Coordinate System
- Activate the Local Crack-Tip Coordinate System
- Define the Model-1 crack deformation Define the Model-1 Stress Intensity Factor using KCALC
- Define the model-1 failure criteria From these figures it seems that the stress intensity factor & failure criteria of crack propagation to occur mainly in model 1, during continued fracture.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS



From the above figures the stress intensity factor & failure criteria of crack propagation to occur mainly in model 1, during continued fracture.

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# **THERMAL ANALYSIS ON HEAT EXCHANGER**

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## **Abstract—**

**a Heat Exchanger is a device built for the efficient heat transfer from one fluid to another, whether the fluids are separated by a solid wall so that they never mix, or the fluids are directly in contact. An objective of the present dissertation work is to design and develop a Tube in tube type Heat exchanger. The Dissertation is about preparing the model and performing experiment on an experimental setup of tube in tube heat exchanger and use of different inputs for the estimation of heat transfer. Analytical calculations were made to analyze the temperature drops as a function of both inlet velocity and inlet temperature and how each varies with the other in the heat exchanger models. The CFD analysis is done with CFD package, ANSYS 15.0.**

**Keywords:** ANSYS, FEA, Heat Exchanger etc...

## **INTRODUCTION**

The heat exchanger is a device which transfers the heat from hot medium to cold medium without mixing both of the mediums since both mediums are separated with a solid wall generally. There are many types of heat exchanger that are used based on the application. For example, double pipe heat exchanger is used in chemical processes like condensing the vapour to the liquid. When to construct this type of heat exchanger, the size of material that wants to use must be considered since it affects the overall heat transfer coefficient. For this type of heat exchanger, the outlet temperature for both hot and cold fluids that produced is estimated by using the best design of this type of heat exchanger. etc. The purpose of constructing a heat exchanger is to get an efficient method of heat transfer from one fluid to another, by direct contact or by indirect contact.

Heat exchange between flowing fluids is one of the most important physical processes of concern, and a variety of heat exchangers are used in different types of installations, as in process industries, compact heat exchangers nuclear power plant, HVACs, food processing, refrigeration. The heat transfer occurs by three principles: conduction, convection and radiation. In a heat exchanger the heat transfer through radiation is not taken into account as it is negligible in comparison to conduction and convection.

## **1.1 Scopes of Research**

The scopes of this research are as follows:

- i. Study on heat transfer for heat exchangers specific to double pipe heat exchanger types.
- ii. Design the double pipe heat exchanger by using GAMBIT.
- iii. Simulation in double pipe heat exchanger by using FLUENT software.
- iv. Analysis the heat exchanger specific to flow rate of hot and cold fluid.
- v. To simulate heat transfer in concentric tube heat exchanger by using CFD-Fluent software.

- vi. To analyze the heat transfer in concentric tube heat exchanger by comparing the simulation result to the Analytical calculations. Validate simulation result to the Analytical calculations within 5% error.

## **1.2 Heat exchanger**

It is a piece of equipment built for efficient heat transfer from one medium to another. The medium may be separated by a solid wall to prevent mixing or they may be in direct contact. They are widely used in space heating, refrigeration, air conditioning, power plants, chemical plants, petrochemical plants, petroleum refineries, natural gas processing, and sewage treatment. The classic example of a heat exchanger is found in an internal combustion engine in which a circulating fluid known as engine coolant flows through radiator coils and air flows past the coils, which cool the coolant and heat the incoming air.

There are three primary classifications of heat exchangers according to their flow arrangement. In parallel-flow heat exchangers, the two fluids enter the exchanger at the same end, and travel in parallel to one another to the other side. In counter-flow heat exchangers, the fluids enter the exchanger from opposite ends. The counter-current design is the most efficient, in that it can transfer the most heat from the heat (transfer) medium per unit mass due to the fact that the average temperature difference along any unit length is higher. See counter-current exchange. In a cross-flow heat exchanger, the fluid travels roughly perpendicular to one another through the exchanger.



**Figure-1.1 Double pipe heat exchanger**

Double pipe heat exchangers are the simplest exchangers used in industries. On one hand, these heat exchangers are cheap for both design and maintenance, making them a good choice for small industries. On the other hand, their low efficiency

coupled with the high space occupied in large scales, has led modern industries to use more efficient heat exchangers like shell and tube or plate. However, since double pipe heat exchangers are simple, they are used to teach heat exchanger design basic to students as the fundamental rules for all heat exchangers are the same. To start the design of a double pipe heat exchanger, the first step is to calculate the heat duty of the heat exchanger. It must be noted that for easier design, it's better to ignore heat loss to the environment for initial design. The heat duty can be defined as the heat gained by cold fluid which is equal to the heat loss of the hot fluid.

### 1.2.1 Shell and tube heat exchanger

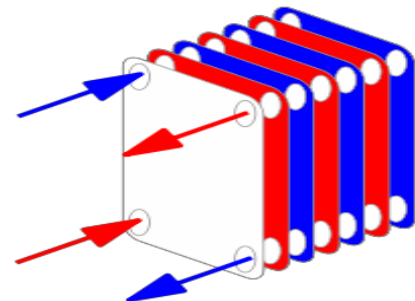
Shell and tube heat exchangers consist of series of tubes. One set of the tubes contains the fluid that must be either heated or cooled. The second fluid runs over the tubes that are being heated or cooled so that it can neither provide the heat nor absorb the heat required. A set of tubes is called the tube bundle and can be made up of several types of tubes: plain, longitudinally finned, etc. Shell and tube heat exchangers are typically used for high-pressure applications (with pressures greater than 30 bar and temperatures greater than 260°C). This is because the shell and tube heat exchangers are robust due to their shape. Several thermal design features must be considered when designing the tubes in the shell and tube heat exchangers. There can be many variations on the shell and tube design. Typically, the ends of each tube are connected to plenums (sometimes called water boxes) through holes in tube sheets. The tubes may be straight or bent in the shape of a U, called U-tubes.

- **Tube diameter:** Using a small tube diameter makes the heat exchanger both economical and compact. However, it is more likely for the heat exchanger to foul up faster and the small size makes mechanical cleaning of the fouling difficult. To prevail over the fouling and cleaning problems, larger tube diameters can be used. Thus to determine the tube diameter, the available space, cost and fouling nature of the fluids must be considered.
- **Tube thickness:** The thickness of the wall of the tube is usually determined to ensure:
  - There is enough room for corrosion
  - That flow-induced vibration has resistance
  - Axial strength
  - Availability of spare parts
  - Hoop strength (to withstand internal tube pressure)
  - Buckling strength (to withstand overpressure in the shell)
- **Tube length:** Heat exchangers are usually cheaper when they have a small shell diameter and a long tube length. Thus, typically there is an aim to make the heat exchanger as long as physically possible whilst not exceeding production capabilities. However, there are many limitations for this, including space available at the installation site and the need to ensure tubes are available in lengths that are twice the required length (so they can be withdrawn and replaced). Also, long, thin tubes are difficult to take out and replace.

- **Tube pitch:** When designing the tubes, it is practical to ensure that the tube pitch (i.e., the centre-centre distance of adjoining tubes) is not less than 1.25 times the tubes' outside diameter. A large tube pitch leads to a larger overall shell diameter, which leads to a more expensive heat exchanger.
- **Tube corrugation:** This type of tubes, mainly used for the inner tubes, increases the turbulence of the fluids and the effect is very important in the heat transfer giving a better performance.
- **Tube Layout:** Refers to how tubes are positioned within the shell. There are four main types of tube layout, which are, triangular (30°), rotated triangular (60°), square (90°) and rotated square (45°). The triangular patterns are employed to give greater heat transfer as they force the fluid to flow in a more turbulent fashion around the piping. Square patterns are employed where high fouling is experienced and cleaning is more regular.

### 1.2.2 Plate heat exchanger

Another type of heat exchanger is the plate heat exchanger. One is composed of multiple, thin, slightly separated plates that have very large surface areas and small fluid flow passages for heat transfer. This stacked-plate arrangement typically has a lower volume and cost than the shell and tube heat exchanger. Advances in gasket and brazing technology have made the plate-type heat exchanger increasingly practical. In HVAC applications, large heat exchangers of this type are called plate-and-frame; when used in open loops, these heat exchangers are normally of the gasket type to allow periodic disassembly, cleaning, and inspection. There are many types of permanently bonded plate heat exchangers, such as dip-brazed, vacuum-brazed, and welded plate varieties, and they are often specified for closed-loop applications such as refrigeration. Plate heat exchangers also differ in the types of plates that are used, and in the configuration of those plates. Some plates may be stamped with "chevron", dimpled, or other patterns, where others may have machined fins and/or grooves.



**Figure-1.2:** Conceptual diagram of a plate and frame heat exchanger



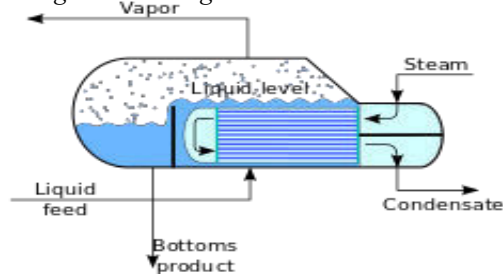


**Figure-1.3:** Single plate heat exchanger

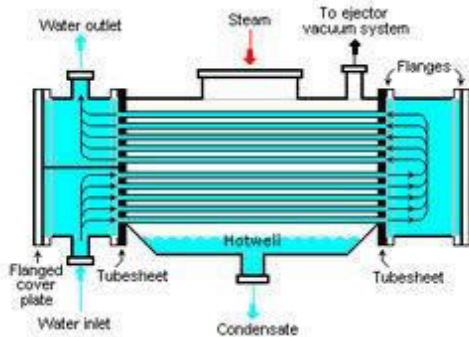
### 1.2.3 Plate and shell heat exchanger

A third type of heat exchanger is a plate and shell heat exchanger, which combines plate heat exchanger with shell and tube heat exchanger technologies. The heart of the heat exchanger contains a fully welded circular plate pack made by pressing and cutting ground plates and welding them together. Nozzles carry flow in and out of the plate pack (the 'Plate side' flowpath). The fully welded plate pack is assembled into an outer shell that creates a second flowpath (the 'Shell side'). Plate and shell technology offers high heat transfer, high pressure, high operating temperature, compact size, low fouling and close approach temperature. In particular, it does completely without gaskets, which provides security against leakage at high pressures and temperatures.

#### Phase-change heat exchangers



**Figure-1.4:** Typical kettle reboiler used for industrial distillation towers



**Figure-1.5:** Typical water-cooled surface condenser

In addition to heating up or cooling down fluids in just a single phase, heat exchangers can be used either to heat a liquid to evaporate (or boil) it or used as a condenser to cool a vapor and condense it to a liquid. In chemical

plants and refineries, reboilers used to heat incoming feed for distillation towers are often heat exchangers.

Distillation set-ups typically use a condenser to condense distillate vapours back into liquid. Power plants that use steam-driven turbines commonly use heat exchangers to boil water into steam. Heat exchangers or similar units for producing steam from water are often called boilers or steam generators.

In the nuclear power plants called pressurized water reactors, special large heat exchangers pass heat from the primary (reactor plant) system to the secondary (steam plant) system, producing steam from water in the process. These are called steam generators. All fossil-fueled and nuclear power plants using steam-driven turbines have surface condensers to convert the exhaust steam from the turbines into condensate (water) for re-use.

To conserve energy and cooling capacity in chemical and other plants, regenerative heat exchangers can transfer heat from a stream that must be cooled to another stream that must be heated, such as distillate cooling and boiler feed pre-heating.

This term can also refer to heat exchangers that contain a material within their structure that has a change of phase. This is usually a solid to liquid phase due to the small volume difference between these states. This change of phase effectively acts as a buffer because it occurs at a constant temperature but still allows for the heat exchanger to accept additional heat. One example where this has been investigated is for use in high power aircraft electronics.

### 1.3 OPTIMIZATION

There are three goals that are normally considered in the optimal design of heat exchangers: (1) Minimizing the pressure drop (pumping power), (2) Maximizing the thermal performance and (3) Minimizing the entropy generation (thermodynamic).

### 1.4 METHODS

#### 2.1 Computational Fluid Dynamics

CFD is useful for studying fluid flow, heat transfer, chemical reactions etc. by solving mathematical equations with the help of numerical analysis. CFD resolves the entire system in small cells and applies governing equations on these discrete elements to find numerical solutions regarding pressure distribution, temperature gradients. This software can also build a virtual prototype of the system or device before it can be applied to real-world physics to the model, and the software will provide it with images and data, which predict the performance of that design. More recently, the method has been applied to the design of internal combustion engines, combustion chambers of gas turbines and furnaces, also fluid flows and heat transfer in heat exchangers. The development in the CFD field provides a capability comparable to other Computer Aided Engineering (CAE) tools such as stress analysis codes. Basic Approach to using CFD

- a) Pre-processor: Establishing the model
  - 1. Identify the processor equipment to be evaluated.

- └ Represent the geometry of interest using CAD tools.
- └ Use the CAD representation to create a volume flow domain around the equipment containing the critical flow phenomena.
- └ Create a computational mesh in the flow domain.
- b) Solver:
  - └ Identify and apply conditions at the domain boundary.
  - └ Solve the governing equations on the computational mesh using analysis software.
- c) Postprocessor: Interpreting the results
  - └ Post-
    - └ Interpret the prediction to determine design iterations or process the completed solution to highlight findings.

ions, if needed

## 2.2 FLUENT/GAMBIT Fluids Analysis

Below are step-by-step instructions on how to create a mesh in Gambit, how to save and export the mesh, how to import the mesh from within Fluent and finally, how to solve the problem using the solvers and models contained in Fluent. You will then be given a problem that you are to investigate and report on.

### GAMBIT

Take care to ensure that you are in the correct directory. Fire up gambit from the command prompt by typing gambit filename. The first thing that you should do is to specify which solver you need from the Solve menu. Choose 'Fluent 5/6'. This will determine what type of menu pop up throughout your session.

**Generate grid.** There are two ways of generating a mesh. Gambit calls them 'top down' or 'bottom-up' in the user manuals. These instructions are bottom-up. You will create vertices upon which the edges will be built upon. Connecting edges will create a face. Connecting faces will create a volume (3D). Once the face or volume is created, a mesh can be generated on it. For this example, we will stick to 2D, no edge->edge->face-> mesh. Remember to save and save often.

**Vertex:** There are four buttons under the word OPERATIONS in the top right corner of Gambit. They are, from left to right, the geometry, mesh, zones and tools command. At this time, click on the geometry button. Note: most of the buttons in Gambit toggle off and on. The blank space under the buttons on the right and side is now showing more buttons and windows. Directly under OPERATIONS is GEOMETRY with 5 buttons: vertex, edge, face, volume, and groups. Click on the vertex button. By this time, you will have noticed that as you move the mouse over the function button a window near the bottom of Gambit tells you what that button does. Use this function to familiarize yourself with the various buttons in Gambit. Once you have clicked on the vertex button more buttons appear below. To remedy this, click on the Fit to Window button, the top left big button in the GRAPHICS/WINDOWS CONTROL area (near bottom right). If at any time you wish to undo the command you just did, look for the button that has the arrow that is 'spinning' from right to left. The Undo command can undo more than one command, just keep clicking.

For more complicated geometry, such as an airfoil, the vertex data can be imported. Go to File->Import->Vertex Data. Enter the path to the file or use the browser. The data file Gambit can read has to have the file extension .dat.

**Edges:** Once the vertices are created, you want to create edges connecting them. Under GEOMETRY, click on the edge button (second from left). When the EDGE button pops up, right click on the first button on the left. A drop down list will appear giving different options for the edge type. When one of these options is selected a floating window will be displayed. To create smooth curved edges use the NURBS option. There are two methods for the NURBS, interpolate and approximate. The approximate method with a tolerance of zero will give a smooth curve. To select the vertices for the NURBS line left click the up arrow on the right side of the yellow vertices box. Select the vertices with the mouse and click on the ---> button. Once the vertices are selected, the final one will turn red and the others will turn pink. If the vertices are the ones you want to connect with an edge then click Apply in the floating window. An edge will appear in yellow. Use this procedure to create an edge for the top and bottom of the airfoil and the control volume.

**Face:** Under GEOMETRY, click on the face button (third from left). When the FACE button pops up click on the first button on the left: Create Face. A floating window called Create Face From Wireframe will appear. Selecting an edge is the same as selecting a vertex. Hold the shift key down and left click on the edge. The edge will turn red. Select a second edge: the first will turn pink and the second will turn red. Select all edges comprising the face and click Apply in the window. A face will be created, its color is light blue. To create a single face from two faces use the Boolean Operations Subtract option.

**Mesh:** A mesh can now be created on the face. Under the OPERATIONS button, click on the Mesh Command button. Where the word GEOMETRY used to be, the word MESH will appear with five buttons: boundary-layer, edge, face, volume and group. You want to mesh the face that you have just created, so click on face. Click on the top left button in the FACE menu area, the button is called: Mesh Faces. This will cause the Mesh Faces floating window to pop up. Let everything stay at its default, select the face and click Apply. Gambit may hesitate while it's thinking and then you will see the mesh in yellow. You can play around with mesh spacing but keep the elements and type at Gambit's default setting.

**Boundary Conditions:** You can set or change the boundary conditions in Fluent but you can also do it in Gambit, in fact, it's a little bit easier. Up in the OPERATIONS menu; click on the Zones button. Under the word ZONES two buttons will appear: Specify Boundary Types and Specify Continuum. Click on the Specify Boundary Types button. A floating window called Specify Boundary Types will appear. Make sure that at the top of this window the solver name 'Fluent 5/6' appears, if not go to the solver menu and choose 'Fluent 5/6'. You must have this correct as

different solvers specify BC's differently. Change the Entity pop down menu to edges. Select the edge that will be the velocity inlet and under the Type pop down menu choose Velocity Inlet. It is recommended that you label the different edges. This will help you keep track of them in the Fluent output reports. The labels must be one word, i.e. no spaces or tabs. To finish creating the BC click Apply. Now select the edge that will be the outlet and choose Outflow. The top and bottom edges of the airfoil and control volume are Walls. There is a list at the top of this window that should reflect the two BC's that you have created.

**Save and Export:** The file that you have been saving to throughout the session is a Gambit file and is different from a mesh file. To create the mesh file for Fluent to import click on File->Export->Mesh. Then the next pop up window will have file type (UNS/RAMPANT/FLUENT5) and filename. Type in the name as you please but keep the .msh file name extension. If the geometry is 2D, then check the box "Export 2d Mesh". You may now quit Gambit. FLUENT Once Fluent is loaded, type 2d at the command prompt. The instructions below should be followed roughly in the order that they are written. A choice in one menu may alter choices in another menu. Note that in the title bar of the Fluent window, there are the descriptors: [2d, segregated, lam]. These will help you keep track of what models/solvers you are using.

**Read in the grid.** There are two files that contain data that Fluent needs to solve problems. The first is the Case file, which stores all of the information on boundary conditions, what solvers and models were used, etc. The second is the Data file, which stores the solution. Even though the mesh is not a true case file, read in the mesh using the File->Read->Case command. You will have to navigate to your working directory. Fluent will tell you what it is doing as it reads in the mesh. Be sure to follow this dialog and spot any errors.

**Check, Display and Scale the Grid.** Fluent assumes that the grid units are in meters (SI units). If you created your mesh in Gambit in any thing other than meters you will need to scale the grid. Goto Grid->Scale. In the pop up window, change the pull down menu "Grid Was Created In" to whatever units you used in Gambit (ft). Click on Scale, then the Xmax and Ymax fields should now reflect the proper values. Close the window. The proper values should also be shown when you check the grid. Go to Grid->Check. A list of statistics will appear in the activity window. To display the grid, goto Display->Grid. A display window will show the grid. The inlet will be blue, the outlet red, walls white and the mesh green. This will give a visual check on the boundary conditions. There are two ways to fix incorrectly specified BC's. One way is to fire up Gambit, redo the BC's, export the correct mesh and re-import the mesh into Fluent. Another quicker way is to fix them within Fluent. This will be explained in the Boundary Conditions section.

**Definition of Properties:** Once the grid is correct, you can define the properties of your problem. The three crucial categories under Define are Models, Materials and Boundary Conditions. It is a good habit to specify these in order; for

example, changes in the Models menu will change the menu in Boundary Conditions.

### Models-

**>Solver:** You will not change anything here, however, take a look around and familiarize yourself with the various options available for solvers.

**Models->Energy:** Turn the energy equation on or off (default).

**Models->Viscous:** There are various assumptions used when numerically solving the governing equations. The first is to assume that the flow is inviscid. The second is to assume laminar flow (default), not turbulence. And the third is to turn on a turbulence model, for example, the k-epsilon turbulence model. How will each of these assumptions affect your solution? Which turbulence model is correct for your flow configuration? Do you have to worry about wall effects?

**Materials:** The default fluid is air. If you'd like to change the material then click on the Database button, choose the material that you need and click on Copy. This copies the material properties from the database into Fluent. Once this is done, make sure that the material that you want to use is in the Name field. Close the Materials window.

**Boundary Conditions:** The condition for the velocity inlet is the only BC that needs to be set. Change the velocity magnitude (m/s) and direction to the desired values. To set the conditions at the inlet, click on the word velocity\_inlet in the Zone area. The Type area should adjust to reflect "velocity\_inlet". If you wanted to change this in to something else, in the Type list click on the boundary condition needed. A window will pop up to make sure that this change is what you want, click yes or no. If the specification is correct, click on the Set button. Enter the velocity and click OK in the pop up window. Close the Boundary Conditions window.

**Solve:** You can now solve the problem. Goto Solve->Solve->Iterate. A window appears that has a field where you can specify how many iterations to perform. It is always good to choose a small number at first to see if the solution is going wild (i.e. incorrect BC's) or see if it settles down. Enter a small number, say 20 and click on Iterate. You'll see the residuals printed in the activity area and the plot of residuals displayed in the plot window. If everything is okay, then put in a higher number, say 100, and click Iterate. Do this until Fluent says "Solution Converged".

**Display the Solution:** Is your solution correct? You'll want to view vector, contour and XY plots of your data. Under the Display menu, you'll see Contours, Velocity Vectors, Path Lines and Particle Tracks among others. These will plot the various quantities for you. If you'd like to see an XY plot of, for example, the temperature along a wall, goto Plot->XY Plot.

**Hardcopy:** Fluent does not have the capability of printing the plots that it generates. It does, however, let you save these plots as postscript, tiff, EPS, PICT, etc., files. To do this, display the

plot that you want to save in the display window. Then go to File->Hardcopy. A window will appear which have all of the formats listed. For your report choose TIFF. Choose color or grayscale. DONOT change the resolution field. I know it says "0" but it will work out ok. Click on Save and navigate to your working directory.

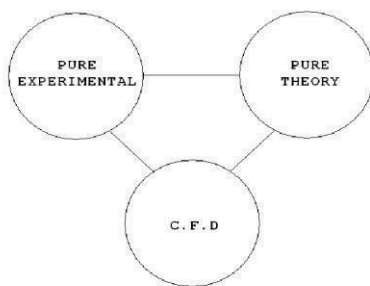
**Saving Case and Data files:** You've done a lot by now so it would be good to save both the case and data files. Go to File->Write->Case & Data. Navigate to where you want to be and click ok. Since you have already saved the case file, it will ask you if you want to overwrite. If you don't, click cancel and save the data file separately using File->Write->Data. You may now quit Fluent and all of the information is safely stored in the case and data files. When you want to review or change this simulation just fire up Fluent and read in the case and data files, File->Read->Case & Data. You can change inlet conditions and recalculate a different solution, or try new models and save them as different case and data files.

Over the past half-century, we have witnessed the rise in the new methodology for attacking complex problems in fluid mechanics, heat transfer and combustion. It has come to the state that wherever there is a flow, computer can help to understand and analyze the same. This new methodology of solving a flow problem using a computer is given the name CFD. Computational Fluid Dynamics or CFD is the analysis of systems involving fluid flow, heat transfer and associated phenomena such as chemical reactions by means of computer-based numerical approach. In this numerical approach, the equations (usually in partial differential form) that govern a process of interest are solved numerically. The technique is very powerful and spans a wide range of industrial and non-industrial application areas.

### 3.2 Analysis of a fluid flow problem

There are three methods to analyze a fluid flow problem.

1. Experimental
2. Theoretical
3. Computational (CFD)



**Fig2.1:** The “three dimensions” of fluid dynamics

CFD synergistically complements the other approaches but will never replace either of them. The future advancement of fluid dynamics will rest upon a proper balance of all three approaches, with CFD to interpret and understand theory and experiment and vice versa.

### Experimental approach

- Most reliable information
- Full scale tests are prohibitively expensive and often impossible
- The general rules for modeling and extrapolation to full scale are often unavailable
- Simulation of all the features such as combustion or boiling are often omitted from model tests
- Serious difficulties of measurement in many situations
- Measuring instruments have uncertain errors

### Theoretical or Analytical approach

- Solve mathematical models rather than physical models
- Analytical methods cannot predict many phenomena
- Analytical or exact solutions are possible only for very simple and ideal situations with many assumptions  
Examples: ideal flows (potential flows), Couette flow, Blasius flow etc.

## 2.3 COMPUTATIONAL FLUID DYNAMICS:

### Advantages

- Low cost, high speed
- Complete information at any inaccessible point
- Ability to simulate realistic conditions and also ideal conditions
- Can handle any complex geometry

### Disadvantages

- Proper mathematical model may not be available
- Validation of computer results needs experimental data

### Pre-Requisites for CFD

- Fluid mechanics
- Heat transfer
- Partial differential equations
- Numerical methods

## 2.4 Mathematical behaviour of governing equations in computational fluid dynamics

The development of the high speed digital computer combined with the development of accurate numerical algorithms for solving problems on these computers has had a great impact on the way principles from the science of Fluid Mechanics are applied to problems of design in modern engineering practice.

The physical aspects of any fluid flow are governed by three fundamental principles: conservation of mass, conservation of momentum, conservation of energy and these can be expressed in terms of basic mathematical equations which in their more general form are either integral equations or partial differential equations in computational approach; these equations that govern a process are solved numerically.

These partial differential equations have certain mathematical behavior. This behavior is not fixed and varies from one circumstance to another, depending on the magnitude of the dimensionless flow parameters governing,



the situation, the equations governing the flow and the steady or unsteady nature of the flow.

## 2.5. Discretization

The word “discretization” requires some explanation. Obviously, it comes from “discrete,” defined in *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* as “constituting a separate thing; individual; distinct; consisting of unconnected distinct parts.” However, the word “discretization” cannot be found in the same dictionary; it cannot be found in *Webster’s New World Dictionary* either.

The fact that it does not appear in two of the most popular dictionaries of today implies, at the very least, that it is a rather new and esoteric word. Indeed, it seems to be unique to the literature of numerical analysis, first being introduced in the German literature in 1955 by “W. R. Wasow,” carried on by Ames in 1965 in his classic book on partial differential equations, and recently embraced by the CFD community as closed-form mathematical expression, such as a function or a differential or integral equation involving functions, all of which are reviewed as having an infinite continuum of values throughout some domain, is approximated by a analogous points or volumes in the domain. This may sound a bit mysterious, so let us elaborate for the sake of clarity. Also, we will single out partial differential equations for the purposes of discussion. Therefore, the remainder of this introductory section dwells on the meaning of “discretization”.

### 2.5.1. INTRODUCTION TO FINITE DIFFERENCES

Here, we are interested in replacing a partial derivative with its suitable algebraic difference quotient, i.e., a *finite difference*. Most common finite-difference representations of derivatives are based on Taylor’s series

expansions. For example, if  $u_{i,j}$  denotes the  $x$  component of velocity at point  $(i,j)$ , then the velocity  $u_{i+1,j}$  at point  $(i+1,j)$  can be expressed in terms of a Taylor series expanded about point  $(i,j)$  as follows

$$u_{i+1,j} = u_{i,j} + \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)_{i,j} \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_{i,j} (\Delta x)^2 + \frac{1}{6} \left( \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x^3} \right)_{i,j} (\Delta x)^3 + \dots \quad (2.1)$$

Equation (2.1) is mathematically an exact expression for  $u_{i+1,j}$  if the number of terms is infinite and the series

converges and/or  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ .

Solving Eq. (2.1) for  $\left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)_{i,j}$  we obtain

$$\left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)_{i,j} = \frac{u_{i+1,j} - u_{i,j}}{\Delta x} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \right)_{i,j} \Delta x + \frac{1}{6} \left( \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x^3} \right)_{i,j} (\Delta x)^2 + \dots \quad (2.2)$$

In Eq. (2.2) the actual partial derivative evaluated at point  $(i,j)$  is given on the left side. The first term on the right

side, namely  $\frac{(u_{i+1,j} - u_{i,j})}{\Delta x}$  is a finite-difference

representation of the partial derivative. The remaining terms on the right side constitute the *truncation error*. That is, if we wish to approximate the partial derivative with the above algebraic finite-difference quotient,

$$\left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)_{i,j} \approx \frac{u_{i+1,j} - u_{i,j}}{\Delta x} \quad \dots (2.3)$$

Then the truncation error in Eq. (3.2) tells us what is being neglected in this approximation. In Eq. (3.2), the lowest-order term in the truncation error involves  $\Delta x$  to the first power; hence, the finite-difference expression in Eq. (3.3) is called *first-order-accurate*. We can more formally write Eq. (2.2) as

$$\left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right)_{i,j} = \frac{u_{i+1,j} - u_{i,j}}{\Delta x} + O(\Delta x) \quad \dots (2.4)$$

## 2.6 Explicit and implicit approaches:

### 2.6.1 Definitions and Contrasts:

We have discussed some basic elements of the finite

difference method. We have done nothing more than just create some numerical tools for future use; we have not yet described how these tools can be put to use for the solutions of CFD problems. The way that these tools are put together and used for a given solution can be called a *CFD technique*, and we have not yet discussed any specific techniques. However, once you choose a specific technique to solve your given problem, you will find that the technique falls into one of the two different general approaches, an *explicit* approach or an *implicit* approach. It is appropriate to introduce and define these two general approaches now; they represent a fundamental distinction between various numerical techniques, a distinction for which we need to have some appreciation at this stage of our discussion.

For simplicity, let us return to the one-dimensional equation

given by Eq. (2.5) repeated below.

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial t} + \alpha \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} = 0 \quad \dots (2.5)$$

We will treat Eq. (2.5) as a “model equation” for our discussion in this section; all the necessary points concerning explicit and implicit approaches can be made using this model equation without going to the extra complexity of the governing flow equations. Above, we used Eq. (3.a) to illustrate what was meant by a difference equation. In

particular, in that section we chose to represent  $\frac{\partial V}{\partial t}$  with a

forward difference and  $\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2}$  with a central second difference, leading to the particular form of the difference equation given by Eq. (2.6) repeated below:

$$\frac{V_{i+1}^n - V_i^n}{\Delta t} = \alpha \frac{V_{i+1}^n - 2V_i^n + V_{i-1}^n}{(\Delta x)^2} \quad \dots (2.6)$$

With some rearrangement, this equation can be written as

$$V_i^{n+1} = V_i^n + \alpha \Delta t \frac{V_{i+1}^n - 2V_i^n + V_{i-1}^n}{(\Delta x)^2} \quad \dots (2.7)$$

$$AV_{i-1} - BV_i + AV_{i+1} = K_i \quad \dots (2.8)$$

Note that ' $K_i$ ' in Eq. (3.24) consists of properties at time level ' $n$ ', which are known. Hence, ' $K_i$ ' is a known number in Eq. (3.24). Returning to fig. (3.a2), we now apply Eq. (2.8) sequentially to grid points '2' through '6'.

At grid point 2:

$$AV_1 - BV_2 + AV_3 = K_2 \quad \dots (2.9)$$

Here, we have dropped the superscript for convenience; it is easy to remember that  $V_1, V_2, V_3$  represent three values at time level ' $n+1$ ', and ' $K_2$ ' is a known number as stated before. Moreover, because of the stipulated boundary conditions at grid points '1' and '7',  $V_1$  in Eq. (3.25) is a known number. Hence, in Eq. (3.25) the term involving the known  $V_1$  can be transferred to the right-hand side, resulting in

$$-BV_2 + AV_3 = K_2 - AV_1 \quad \dots (2.10)$$

Denoting  $K_2 - AV_1$  by  $K_2'$ , where  $K_2'$  is a known number, Eq. (2.10) is written as

$$-BV_2 + AV_3 = K_2' \quad \dots (2.11)$$

At grid point 3:

$$AV_2 - BV_3 + AV_4 = K_3 \quad \dots (2.12)$$

At grid point 4:

$$AV_3 - BV_4 + AV_5 = K_4 \quad \dots (2.13)$$

At grid point 5:

$$AV_4 - BV_5 + AV_6 = K_5 \quad \dots (2.14)$$

At grid point 6:

$$AV_5 - BV_6 + AV_7 = K_6 \quad \dots (2.15)$$

## 2.7 Finite Volume:

Finite volume method is one of the very popular approximate methods to solve the governing equations originated from fluid dynamics. The governing equations discretized using this method may resemble similar to the equations discretized with finite difference method but the basic idea behind these two schemes is very different. In general, in finite difference method, the mathematically modeled differential or integral equations are taken as the correct and appropriate form of the conservation principles governing the physical problem and then making use of Taylor series or integral method the differential or integral equations are converted into algebraic form. However, in finite volume method, after discretizing the domain under consideration into sub-domains called control volumes, the conservation statements are applied in each of these control volumes. That is, the conservation principles are made to satisfy in each of the control volumes. The

generation of control volumes can be done in two ways

1. *Cell-Centered method:* In this method, the control volumes are identified first and then grid points will be placed at the center of each cell.
2. *Cell-Vertex method:* In cell vertex method the grid points will be identified first and then the boundaries of the control volume are fixed at half way between the grid points. If the grid points are identified non-uniformly in this scheme then these points need not be at the geometric centre of the control volumes.

## 2.8 MacCormack's technique

MacCormack's technique is a variant of the Lax-Wendroff approach but is much simpler in its application. Like the Lax-Wendroff method, the MacCormack method is also an explicit finite-difference technique which is second order accurate in both space and time. First introduced in 1969, it became the most popular explicit finite difference method for solving fluid flows for the next 15 years. Today, the MacCormack method has been mostly supplanted by more sophisticated approaches. However, the understanding of the program. Moreover, the results obtained by using MacCormack's method are perfectly satisfactory for many fluid flow applications.

## 3 Design and analysis of concentric tube heat exchanger

### 3.1 Concentric tube heat exchanger:

Concentric Tube (or Pipe) Heat Exchangers are used in a variety of industries for purposes such as material processing, food preparation and air-conditioning. They create a temperature driving force by passing fluid streams of different temperatures parallel to each other, separated by a physical boundary in the form of a pipe. This induces forced convection, transferring heat to/from the product.

The primary advantage of a concentric configuration, as opposed to a plate or shell and tube heat exchanger, is the simplicity of their design. As such, the insides of both surfaces are easy to clean and maintain, making it ideal for fluids that cause fouling. Additionally, their robust build means that they can withstand high pressure operations. They also produce turbulent conditions at low flow rates, increasing the heat transfer coefficient, and hence the rate of heat transfers. There are significant disadvantages however, the two most noticeable being their high cost in proportion to heat transfer area and the impractical lengths required for high heat duties. They also suffer from comparatively high heat losses via their large, outer shells.

The simplest form is composed of straight sections of tubing encased within the outer shell, however alternative vessels such as corrugated or curved tubing conserve space while maximizing heat transfer area per unit volume. They can be arranged in series or in parallel depending on the heating requirements. Typically constructed from stainless steel, spacers are inserted to retain concentricity, while the tubes are sealed with O-rings, packing, or welded depending on the operating pressure.

While both co and counter configurations are possible, the counter current method is more common. The preference is

topass the hot fluid through the inner tube to reduce heat losses, while the annulus is reserved for the high viscosity stream to limit the pressure drop. Beyond double stream heat exchangers, designs involving triple (or more) streams are common; alternating between hot and cool streams, thus heating/cooling the product from both sides.

### 3.2 Problem description and modeling:

#### 3.2.1 Concentric Tube parallel Flow Heat

#### Exchanger without Thickness:

##### 3.2.1(a): Modeling in GAMBIT

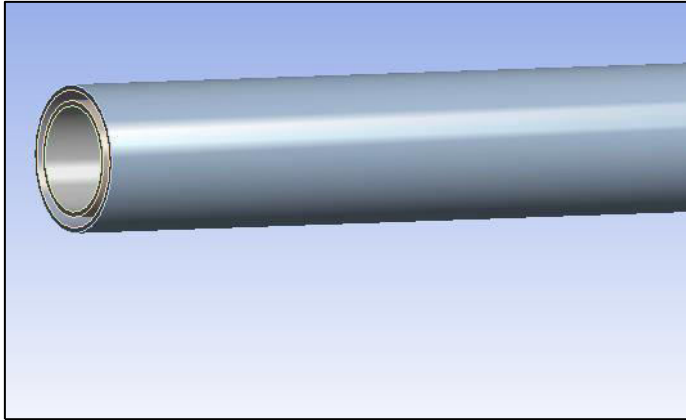


Figure-3.1: Modelling in Ansys fluent

##### 3.2.1 (b): MESHING

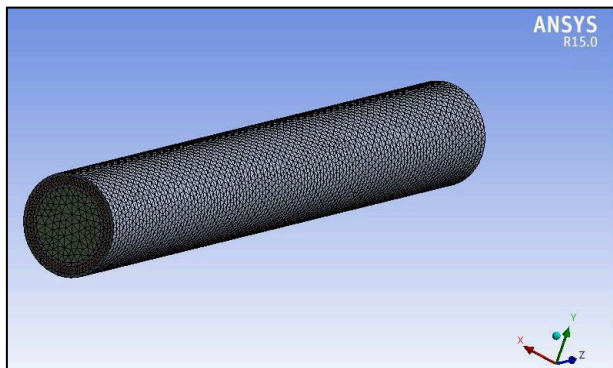
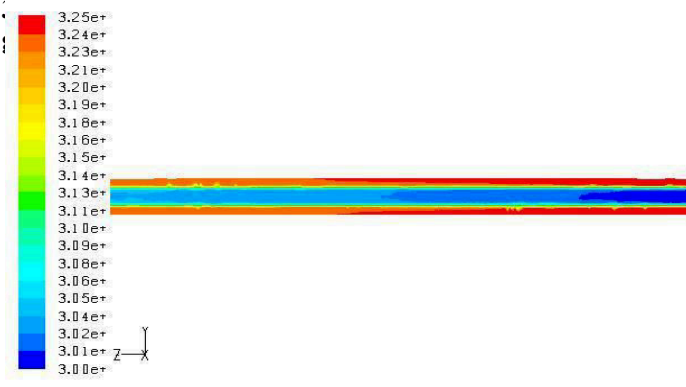


Figure-3.2: MESHING

##### 3.2.2 Problem results



##### Figure-

##### 3.3: Temperature profile of Concentric Tube Heat Exchanger

##### 3.2.2(b): Velocity profile of Concentric Tube Heat Exchanger

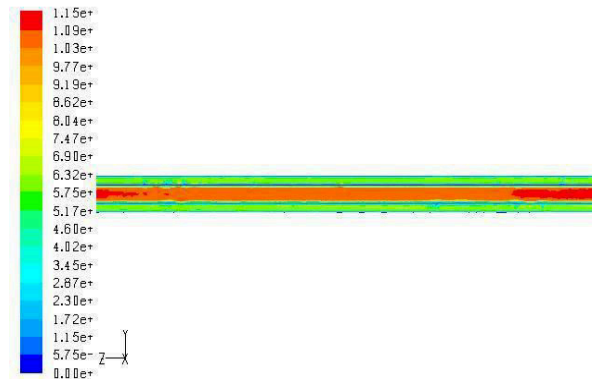


Figure-3.4: Velocity profile of Concentric Tube Heat Exchanger

##### 3.2.2(c) Figure-

##### 14: Pressure variation of Concentric Tube Heat Exchanger

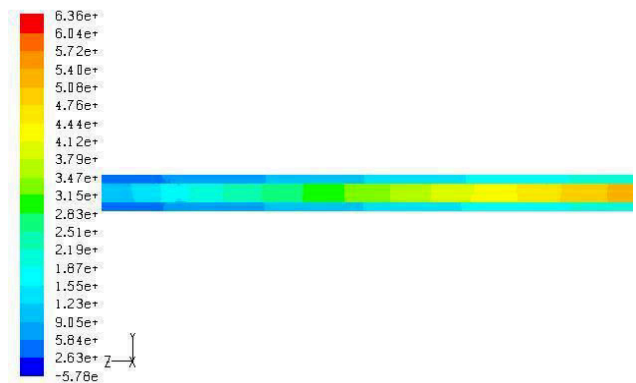


Figure-3.5: Pressure variation of Concentric Tube Heat Exchanger

### 3.3 Geometry Modeling Of Actual Problem:

The geometry is made in Ansys fluent. The geometry consists of a length of 1m. Concentric tube of inner tube inner diameter 0.012m and inner tube outer diameter 0.015m and outer tube diameter is 0.025m. For this project, fully developed turbulent incompressible fluid flow will be analyzed in two heat exchanger cases: parallel flow and counter flow heat exchanger. The resulting temperature difference will be compared and determined as a function of the inlet velocity and inlet temperatures. The overall objective is to determine the maximum temperature difference. The type of heat exchanger used will be of concentric tube design. Water is the cooling medium and the working fluid.

### 3.3.1:PARAMETERS

**Table-3.1:Parameters**

S.no	Dimensions	Values
1	Length $L$	1m
2	Innertube Inner diameter $d_i$	0.012m
3	Innertube Outer diameter $d_o$	0.015m
4	Outertube Diameter $D$	0.025m
5	Mass flow inlet of cold water $M_c$	0.04545m/sec
6	Mass flow inlet of hot water $M_h$	0.02272m/sec
7	Hot water inlet temperature $T_h$	52°=325kelvin
8	Cold water inlet temperature $T_c$	27°=300kelvin

### 4.3.2 Boundary Conditions

Boundary conditions are used according to the need of the model. The inlet and outlet conditions are defined as velocity inlet and pressure outlet. As this is a counter-flow with two tubes so there are two inlets and two outlets. The walls are separately specified with respective boundary conditions. No slip condition is considered for each wall. Except the tube wall, each wall is set to zero heat flux condition. The details about all boundary conditions can be seen in the table 2 as given below.

**Table 3.2: Naming of various parts of the body with statetype**

S.no	Part of the model	Statetype
1	Hot Inlet	Fluid
2	Cold inlet	Fluid
3	Innertubes	Solid
4	Outertube	Solid

### IV/CONCLUSIONS

CFD analysis was done on concentric tube heat exchanger. The conclusion of this investigating area follows.

- The main objective of this project was to analyse the fluid flow in concentric tube heat exchangers.
- ACFD package (ANSYS 15.0) was used for the numerical study of heat transfer characteristics of a concentric tube heat exchanger.
- Characteristics of the fluid flow were also studied for the constant temperature
- From the studies CFD can be considered as a powerful tool for analysis of fluid and heat transfer problems.

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## Design and modal analysis of an excavator arm

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**Abstract**-An excavator is a typical hydraulic heavy-duty human-operated machine used in general versatile construction operations, such as digging, ground leveling, carrying loads, dumping loads and straight traction. These operations require coordinated movement of boom, arm and bucket in order to control the bucket tip position to follow a desired trajectory. An excavator is comprised of three planar implements connected through revolute joints known as the boom, arm, and bucket, and one vertical revolute joint known as the swing joint. It will bring bigger dynamic stress because of impact and vibration of the hydraulic excavator when it is working, which may lead to the damage of its structure. The model of the arm of a small-scaled hydraulic excavator is built by using Pro-engineer. The 3D Simulation Analysis of arm of excavator is carried out in ANSYS. The natural frequencies and mode shapes of excavator arm are determined using ANSYS.

**Key words:** CATIA, ANSYS, Excavator etc..

### INTRODUCTION

#### a) Excavator

An excavator is a typical hydraulic heavy-duty human-operated machine used in general versatile construction operations, such as digging, ground leveling, carrying loads, dumping loads and straight traction. These operations require coordinated movement of boom, arm and bucket in order to control the bucket tip position to follow a desired trajectory. An excavator is comprised of three planar implements connected through revolute joints known as the boom, arm, and bucket, and one vertical revolute joint known as the swing joint. An excavator has a boom, stick, bucket and cab on a rotating platform known as the house. The house sits atop an undercarriage with tracks or wheels. A cable-operated excavator uses winches and steel rope to accomplish the movements. They are a natural progression from the steam shovels and often called power shovels. All movement and functions of a hydraulic excavator are accomplished through the use of hydraulic fluid, with hydraulic cylinders and hydraulic motors. Due to the linear actuation of hydraulic cylinders, their mode of operation is fundamentally different from cable-operated excavators.

Excavators are also called diggers and mechanical shovels. Tracked excavators are sometimes called "track hoes" by analogy to the back hoe. In the UK, wheeled excavators are sometimes known as "rubber ducks."

#### b) Compact excavator

A compact mini excavator is a tracked or wheeled vehicle with an approximate operating weight from 0.7 to 8.5 tonnes. It generally includes a standard backfill blade and features independent boom swing. Hydraulic Excavators are somewhat

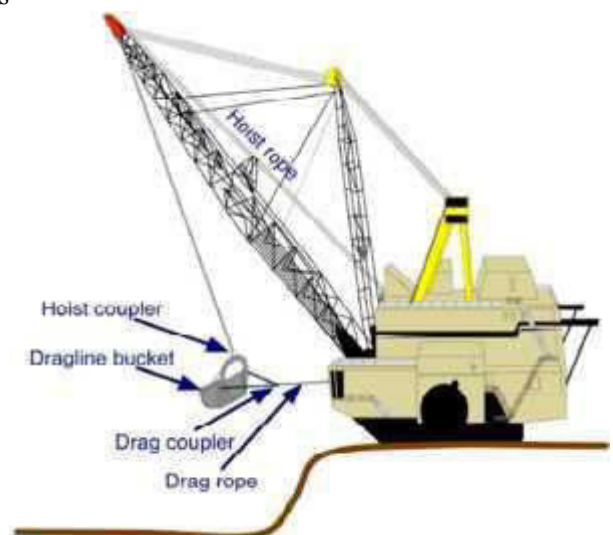
different from other construction equipment in that all movement and functions of the machine are accomplished through the transfer of hydraulic fluid. The compact excavator's work group and blade are activated by hydraulic fluid acting upon hydraulic cylinders. The excavator's slew (rotation) and travel functions are also activated by hydraulic fluid powering hydraulic motors.

#### c) Dragline excavator:

A dragline excavator is a piece of heavy equipment used in civil engineering and surface mining. Draglines used in civil engineering are almost always of the smaller, crane type. These are used for road, port construction, pond and canal dredging, and as piledriving rigs. These types are built by crane manufacturers such as Link-Belt and Hydrant.

The much larger type which is built on site is commonly used in strip-mining operations to remove overburden above coal and more recently for tar-sand mining. The largest heavy draglines are among the largest mobile land machines ever built. The smallest and most common of the heavy type weigh around 8,000 tons while the largest built weigh around 13,000 tons.

A dragline bucket system consists of a large bucket which is suspended from a boom (a large truss-like structure) with wire ropes. The bucket is maneuvered by means of a number of ropes and chains. The hoist rope, powered by large diesel or electric motors, supports the bucket and hoist-coupler assembly from the boom. The drag rope is used to draw the bucket assembly horizontally. By skillful maneuver of the hoist and the drag rope the bucket is controlled for various operations.



**Fig.1 Dragline excavator**

d) Longreach excavator:

The long reach excavator or high reach excavator is a type of excavator with a long boom arm that is primarily used for demolition. Instead of excavating ditches, the long reach excavator is designed to reach the upper storey of buildings that are being demolished and pull down the structure in a controlled fashion. It has largely replaced the wrecking ball as the primary tool for demolition. Also using some special purpose works.



Fig.2 Longreach excavator

e) What is an excavator arm?

The hydraulic excavator operates on different levels. The first is the arm of the vehicle. The arm is comprised

of two boom, which is on the upper part of the arm. The arm moves in two parts just like a

human arm would: at the wrist and the elbow. Inside of the hydraulic cylinder is a rod, which is the inner part of the cylinder, and a piston, which is at the end of the cylinder and

the arm to move with the help of oil. If there were no

oil, the piston would drop to the bottom, but because of the nature of oil, its volume always stays the same. 2.

Oil is pumped through the end of the piston and in turn pushes

the rod through the cylinder, thus creating movement of one or both parts of the arm. By controlling the amount of oil is

pumped through the valve, the accuracy of the arm can be easily manipulated. This movement is activated by the use of 4. control valves that are positioned inside the cab where the 5. menu bar, and select the part driver seat is



Fig.3 Excavator arm

II METHODS

Pro/ENGINEER was developed by parametric technology corporation (PTC), USA. Pro/ENGINEER is a CAD/CAM system integration on 3D modeling software package used for various engineering design services, including structural analysis, Process simulation and evaluation as well as for

product and process design documentation.

Pro/ENGINEER is a suite of programs that are used in the design, analysis, and manufacturing of a virtually unlimited range of product. In PRO-E we will be dealing only with the major front-end module used for part and assembly design and model creation, and production of engineering drawings Schamtickoo (4). There are a wide range of additional modules available to handle tasks ranging from sheet metal operations, piping layout mold design, wiring harness design, NC machining and other operations.

In a nutshell, PRO-ENGINEER is a parametric, feature-based solid modeling system, "Feature based" means that you can create part and assembly by defining feature like extrusions, sweep, cuts, holes, slots, rounds, and so on, instead of specifying low-level geometry like lines, arcs, and circle & features are specifying by setting values and attributes of elements such as reference planes or

surfaces direction of creation, pattern parameters, shape, dimensions and others.

"Parametric" means that the physical shape of hydraulic cylinders, a bucket and a

part or assembly is driven by the values assigned to the

attributes (primarily dimensions) of its features. Parametric may define or modify a feature's dimensions or other attributes at any time.

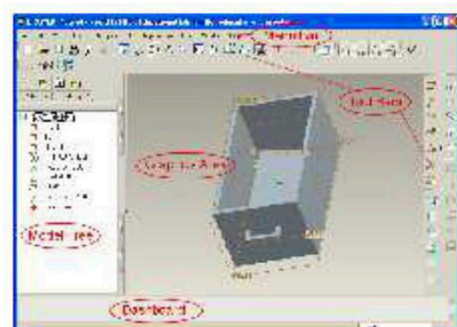
Hide the browser by clicking on the arrows at the right of the enable

screen, as shown in the figure. You graphics are aware where parts will be displayed.

Select [File]-, thus creating movement of one or and select the folder in which you downloaded the part. All

work you do will be saved to the folder you set as the working directory.

Select [File]->[Open] from the you downloaded.



b) Capabilities and Benefits:

1. Complete 3D modeling capabilities enable you to exceed quality and time to market goals.
2. Maximum production efficiency through automated generation of associative CAD tooling design, assembly instructions, and machine code.
3. Ability to simulate and analysis virtual prototype to improve production performance and optimized product design.
4. Ability to share digital product data seamlessly among all appropriate team members
5. Compatibility with myriad CAD tools - including associative data exchange and industry standard data formats.

c) Features of Pro-Engineering:

Pro/Engineering is a one-stop for any manufacturing industry. It offers effective features, incorporated for a wide variety of purpose. Some of the important features are as follows:

- Simple and powerful tool
- Parametric design
- Feature-based approach
- Parent-child relationship
- Associative and model-centric

Two selected surfaces become coplanar and face in **opposite directions**. This constrains 3 degrees of freedom (two rotations and one translation)

**Mate Offset**

Two surfaces are made parallel with a specified offset distance.

**Align Coincident**

Two selected surfaces become coplanar and face in the same direction. Can also be applied to revolved surfaces. This constrains 3 degrees of freedom (two rotations and one translation). When Align is used on revolved surfaces, they become coaxial (axis through the centers align).

**Align Offset**

This can be applied to planar surfaces only; surfaces are made parallel with a specified offset distance.

**Align Orient**

Two planar surfaces are made parallel, not necessarily coplanar, and face the same direction (similar to Align Offset except without the specified distance).

**Insert**

This constraint can only be applied to two revolved surfaces in order to make them coaxial (coincident).

**Adding Components:**

In the pull-down menu, select **Insert > Component > Assemble** or pick the **Add Component** button in the right toolbar. Browse and open the file for the first component.



d) Introduction to Ansys:

ANSYS is a general-purpose finite element modeling package for numerically solving a wide variety of mechanical problems. These problems include: static/dynamic structural analysis (both linear and non-linear), heat transfer and fluid problems, as well as acoustic and electromagnetic problems. It enables engineers to perform the following tasks: build computer models or transfer CAD models of structures, products, components or systems, apply operating loads or other design performance conditions, study physical responses such as stress levels, temperature distributions or electromagnetic fields, optimize a design early in the development process to reduce production costs, carry out prototype testing in an environment where it otherwise would be undesirable or impossible.

e) Finite Element Analysis:

The finite element is a mathematical method for solving ordinary and partial differential equations. Because it is a numerical method, it has the ability to solve complex problems that can be represented in differential equation form. As these types of equations occur naturally in virtually all fields of the physical sciences, the applications of the finite element method are limitless as regards the solution of practical design problems.

Due to the high cost of computing power of years gone by, FEA has a history of being used to solve complex and cost-critical problems. In recent years, FEA has been used almost universally to solve structural engineering problems. One discipline that has relied heavily on this technology is the Automotive and Aerospace industry. Due to the need to meet the extreme demands for faster, stronger, efficient and lightweight Automobiles and Aircrafts, manufacturers have to rely on the Technology to stay components and the high media coverage that the Industry is exposed to, Automotive and Aircraft companies need to ensure that none of their components fail, that is to cease providing the Service that the

f) Meshing:

A. Meshing the solid model:

The procedure for generating a mesh of nodes and element consists of three main steps:

Set mesh controls (optimal). ANSYS offers a large number of mesh controls, which we can choose from to suit our needs. Generally, the mesh (Described in Meshing Your Solid Model). The second step, setting mesh controls, is not always necessary because the default mesh controls are appropriate for many models. If no controls are specified, the program will use the default settings on the DESIZE command to produce a free mesh. As an alternative, you can use the Smart Size feature to produce a better quality free mesh. Before meshing the model, and even before building the model, it is important to think about whether a free mesh or a mapped mesh is appropriate for the analysis. A free mesh has no restrictions in terms of element shapes, and has no specified pattern applied to it.

Compared to a free mesh, a mapped mesh is restricted in terms of element shape; it contains a defined pattern of the mesh. A mapped area mesh contains either only quadrilateral or only triangular elements, while a mapped volume mesh contains only hexahedral elements. In addition, a mapped mesh typically has a regular pattern, with obvious rows of elements. If we want this type of mesh to build the geometry as a series of fairly regular volumes and/or areas that can accept a mapped mesh.

When the effect of friction is taken into account, the vibration is said to be "Damped Vibration".

Thus, there are four distinct cases of vibration possible:

- Free vibrations without damping
- Free vibrations with damping
- Forced vibrations without damping
- Forced vibrations with damping.

The frequency associated with any vibration is called natural frequency. While vibrating, if the frequency of vibration coincides with the natural frequency, the amplitude of vibration increases. This phenomenon is called "Resonance". The consequences of Resonance are very ominous as it leads to the failure of the machine as a whole.

The decay of vibration with time due to resistance to the motion of the vibrating body is called "Damping". It provides an effective means of reducing vibrations in any machine.

#### g) Forced vibration

Vibration that takes place under the excitation of external forces is called forced vibrations. When the excitation is oscillatory, the system is forced to vibrate at the excitation frequency. If the frequency of excitation coincides with one of the natural frequencies of the system, a condition of resonance is encountered.

#### h) Design of an excavator arm by using pro-e

##### Step1:

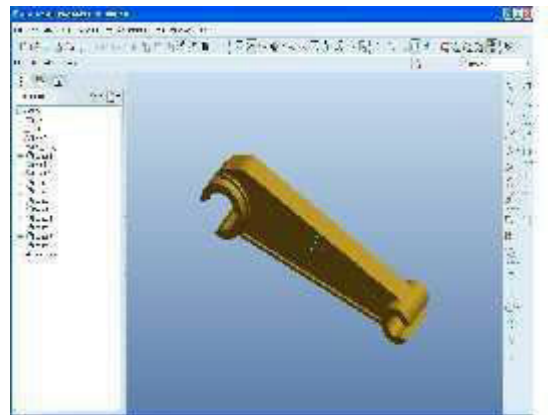
The first step in proceeding to select that part options since the design of any component can be done in part drawing. The name of the part to be drawn should be given below in the name box. And the subtype should be selected as solid since we are designing a solid model.

**Step2:** The second step is to select the plane in which to view the component. The figure is represented below. We can select any one among the three planes shown above to design the component.

##### Step3:

We select the option named extrude which is one among many options and we proceed our design. The completed design of the excavator is done by using extrude and offset option.

The dimensions for the design of an excavator arm are taken as a rough figure in order to get the general design of an excavator arm. After all the procedures we finally obtain an excavator arm which is shown below and we paint it in dull yellow since most of the excavator arm's are like that.



#### i) Modal and structural analysis of an excavator arm by using ansys:

Modal analysis is performed on the excavator arm to determine the natural frequencies and mode shapes. By determining the natural frequencies and mode shapes we finally calculate the vibration characteristics of an excavator arm and also the internal deflection.

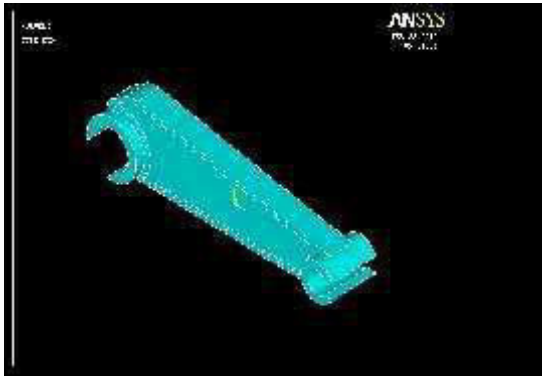
##### Procedure of modal analysis:-

1. Import model from IGES file.
2. Give element type, material properties.
3. Mesh the domain.
4. Give boundary condition (all dof) only. (noted on 't apply pressure)
6. Solution---analysis type---analysis---options----- take block on z axis method.
7. Enter no of modes to extract = 3. No of modes to expand = 3. Enter ok.
8. Solve---current L.S



# **Analysis process:**

Import the IGS file into ANSYS Software.



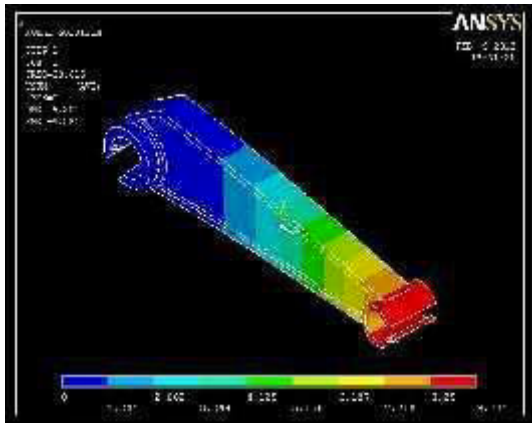
**Fig.4 Importing IGS file into ANSYS**

## **RESULTS**

a) To determine the vibration frequency:

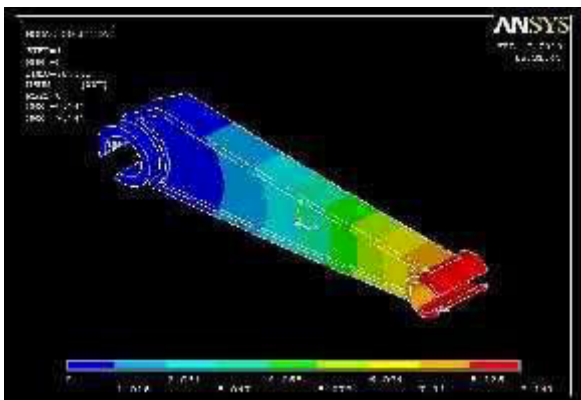
In order to determine the vibration frequency, we must find out the natural frequencies at different modes. The vibration frequency can be determined only without applying loads and the frequency is self-frequency.

### **1. Mode1**



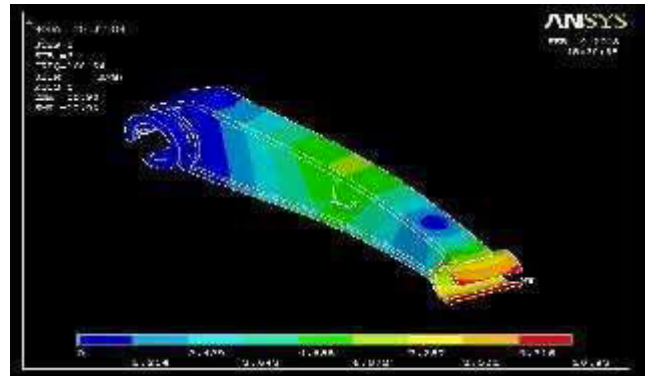
**For mode 1 (SUB1) the frequency obtained is 30.615 HZ**

### **Mode 2**



**For mode 2 (SUB2) the frequency obtained is 78.332 HZ**

### **3. Mode 3**



**For mode 3 (SUB3) the frequency obtained is 160.51 HZ**

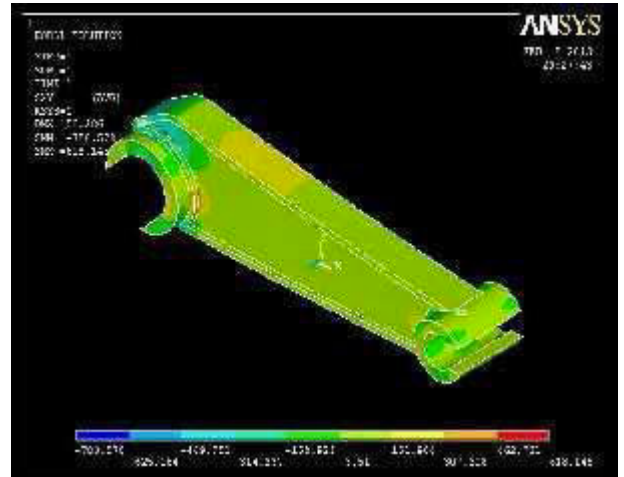
### **e1 Mode and frequency after ANSYS**

Mode	Frequency
Mode1	30.615 HZ
Mode2	78.332 HZ
Mode3	160.54 HZ

From the above analysis, it is noted that the excavator arm can withstand the frequency up to a maximum of 160.54 HZ with the deflection of 10.93 mm, beyond that will lead to failure of the excavator arm.

**To calculate the shear stress at a load of 1000 N (internal deflection)**  
The shear stress is calculated on the member when the static load applied is 1000 N. The shear stress is calculated in XY, YZ and ZX direction.

### **1. Shear stress in xy direction:**



**The shear stress is applied in XY direction with a value of 618.145 MPa**

## 2. Shearstressinyzdirection:



The shear stress is applied in YZ direction with a value of 571.919 MPA

## 3. Shearstressinxzdirection:



The shear stress is applied in XZ direction with a value of 720.929 MPA

Table 1.4 Direction and shear stress after Ansys

DIRECTION	SHEARSTRESS
XY	618.145MPA
YZ	571.919MPA
XZ	720.929MPA

From the above Analysis, it is noted that the excavator arm has a shear stress distributed in 3 directions. The maximum shear stress is obtained in XZ direction and minimum shear stress is obtained in YZ direction.

## IV CONCLUSION

The excavator arm was successfully designed by using Pro-E and by performing modal analysis on an excavator arm we have determined the natural frequencies, mode shapes and also the deflection on the member in overall directions. It is obtained that among the 3 modes of frequencies, in mode 3 we are getting a maximum frequency of 160.51 HZ with the deflection of 10.93 MM. And also the mode shape at 160.51 HZ is varying a little bit from the original shape of the excavator arm.

The shear stress on the excavator arm is also calculated when a static load of 1000 N is applied in all

directions XY, YZ, XZ respectively. The shear stress in YZ direction is minimum with a value of 571.919 MPA and in XZ direction the maximum value is obtained which is 720.29 MPA. It is considered that in Z-direction we are getting a larger frequency with mode deflection and high shear stress.

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# MODELLING AND ANALYSIS OF PULSATING HEAT PIPE

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**Abstract**— Thermal management in different fields of technology like aerospace, electronics etc. has become an important criterion and many devices have come up for this purpose. One among them is a heat pipe. A simple pipe consists of a tube with a suitable working fluid, an evaporator and a con-denser side. The transfer of heat takes place by absorption of heat from the evaporator side by the working fluid and dissipating it at the condenser side through latent heat. An improvement in the heat pipes is pulsating heat pipe which is also called as PHP. Pulsating heat pipe s have emerged as alternatives to conventional heat transfer technologies. Pulsating heat pipe (PHP) is a heat transfer device which is a combination of mechanisms like bubble nucleation, agglomeration and collapse, change of flow regimes, perturbations of pressure and temperatures etc. The working phenomenon of pulsating heat pipe differs from that of a regular heat pipe. The PHP has a lot of thermo-hydrodynamic characteristics which define its performance. The two phase flow which includes evaporation and condensation of the working fluid causes the transfer of heat. The various factors that affect the performance of the PHP's are the diameter of the pipe, volume fractions of fluids, different working fluids , , heat flux as an input, orientation etc. The present paper describes the detailed experimental analysis and working principle of PHP with water as working fluid and the results are compared with thermal analysis. Index Terms: Pulsating Heat Pipe (PHP), heat transfer, working fluid, thermal analysis.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Heat pipes are heat transfer devices which have a very good efficiency. These pipes absorb heat from a hot source and release it at a colder sink with the help of a working fluid. The phase change from liquid to vapor occurs in the evaporator and the vapor changes to liquid in the condenser. These heat transfer devices were developed in the 1960's and since then have been constantly studied. Today there are many classifications in heat pipes. One such simple and intriguing device is the pulsating heat pipe (PHP). The pulsating heat pipe belongs to the family of two phase heat transfer devices. Pulsating heat pipe consists of a tube wound in a serpentine manner. Before partially filling with working fluid the PHP's are initially evacuated.

### COMPARISON BETWEEN CONVENTIONAL AND PULSATING HEAT PIPE

A heat pipe consists of a small tube with evaporator and condenser at both its ends.. A PHP consists of a tube which is structured in a serpentine manner with a number of turns. The detailed comparison is given below.

CONVENTIONAL HEAT PIPE	PULSATING HEAT PIPE
------------------------	---------------------

Wick structure for fluid transfer	Slug- plug formation of fluid for fluid transfer
Conduction and phase transfer are responsible for heat transfer	Conduction and pulsating action are responsible for phase transfer
Gravity force acts as main driving force for fluid flow	Vapor bubbles formed acts as driving force for fluid flow
Heat pipe can be a single pipe with a Condenser and an evaporator	A pulsating heat pipe must have few number of turns for pulsating action to occur
Counter flow of liquid and vapor occurs	Counter flow of liquid and vapor does not occur as there is no wick structure

TABLE1 COMPARISON OF HEAT PIPES

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In the 1990's, Akachi *proposed* the pulsating heat pipe. According to Akachi, [7] PHP is- "when one end of the bundle of turns of the undulating capillary tube is subjected to high temperature, the working fluid inside temperature increases the vapor pressure which causes the bubble in the evaporator zone to grow. This pushes the liquid column towards the low temperature end.

The condensation at the low temperature end will further increase the pressure difference between the two ends. Because of interconnection of tubes, motion of the fluid slug and the vapor bubbles at one end section of tube towards the condenser also leads to the motion of slugs and bubbles in the next section to the high temperature end. This works as a restoring force. The interplay between the driving force and restoring force leads to oscillation of the vapor bubbles and liquid slugs in the axial direction. Khandekar and Groll studied effect of number of turns on the performance of the device [1]. Their study states that gravity effects in systems with low number of turns. Khandekar and Groll also observed the stop over phenomenon and came to the conclusion that a minimum number of turns are mandatory for the PHP device to work [6]. Akachi. Studied the closed loop PHP and proposed that a closed loop PHP with check valves is the most effective heat transfer device [7]. It has a simple structure and fast thermal response.

### 3 CLASSIFICATION

Pulsating heat pipes can be classified into two types [1]

- open loop pulsating heat pipe (OLPHP)
- closed loop pulsating heat pipe (CLPHP)

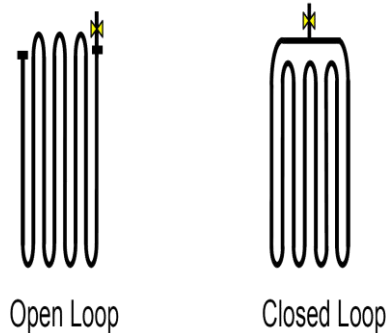


FIG1 CLASSIFICATION OF PHP

### 4.0 STRUCTURE OF CLPHP

PHP's consists of one evaporator zone, one condenser zone and an optional adiabatic zone. Sealed pipe or tube of a small internal diameter is taken. The material of the CLPHP should have high thermal conductivity such as copper, aluminum etc. This sealed tube is evacuated and then partially filled with the working fluid. The working fluid distributes itself into liquid plugs and vapor slugs inside the tube due to the heatflux provided at the evaporator.

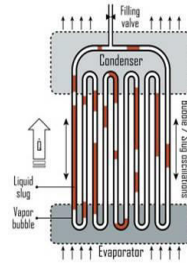


FIG 2 STRUCTURE OF CLPHP

### 4.1 PRINCIPLE OF HEAT TRANSFER

Performance of a PHP depends on the continuous maintenance of non-equilibrium conditions within the system. Due to the heat absorbed at the evaporator end, a temperature gradient is formed between both the evaporator and condenser zone[6]. The boiling and condensation heat transfer takes place towards the bubbles and plugs motion of the flow. As the liquid plugs move back and forth in the pipe sensible heat transfer take place between the wall and the fluid along with latent heat transfer. [5][3] There exists an asymmetric and different volumetric distribution of working fluid in each tube. This leads to imbalances in pressure resulting in a two phase flow of liquid-vapor plugs and slugs. The generating and collapsing bubbles act as the pumping elements for transporting the liquid plugs. This flow ultimately helps in the thermo fluidic transport and the heat transfer becomes a combination of sensible and latent heat portions. Continual generation of vapor bubbles from the evaporator and the condensation at the other end help in the formation of a sustained non-equilibrium oscillating state.

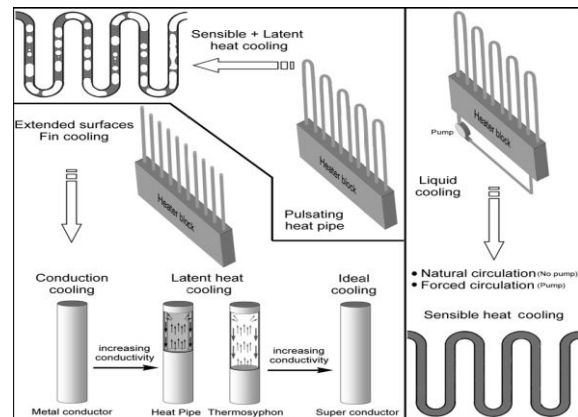


FIG3 COMPARISION OF VARIOUS HEAT TRANSFER TECHNOLOGIES

### 4.2 FLOW REGIMES

As the vapor pressure builds up in the evaporator zone due to the formation of tiny bubbles, the liquid above



the bubbles gets pushed above. More amount of vapour is formed due to the continuously increasing heat input given to the evaporator. These small vapour bubbles start coming together to form larger bubbles and these bubbles, in turn, acquiesce and form into vapour slugs. Thus the flow regime changes from bubble to slug flow[10]. In this flow, both the liquid and the vapour phase co-exist with a definite interface between them. These liquid plugs and vapour slugs keep moving towards the condenser due to increasing pressure. This acts as the primary and driving force. The same mechanism takes place in the adjacent turns of the loop. This acts as the restoring force for the first tube. The simultaneous occurrence of the driving and restoring force leads to the pulsating or oscillating motion of the liquid-vapor plugs and slugs. This slug flow slowly transitions into a semi-annular/annular flow where the vapour slugs reduce in size and the velocity of the liquid plugs increases. The pressure drop in a slug flow is divided into

- Drop in liquid slug
- Drop around the ends of the bubble
- Drop along the body of the bubble

### 4.3 FACTORS AFFECTING THE PERFORMANCE OF CLPHP

- Internal diameter of PHP
- Input heat flux
- Working fluid
- Filling ratio
- Orientation of tubes
- Number of turns

#### 4.3.1 DIAMETER AS PARAMETER

The pulsating action in the CLPHP is possible only to a certain range of internal diameter values [6]. The design rule is given by the critical bond number criterion.

$$D_{crit} = 2 (\sigma / g (\rho_l - \rho_v))^{0.5}$$

$$Bo = D_{crit} * (g (\rho_l - \rho_v) / \sigma)^{0.5}$$

$$Eö = [Bo]^2$$

Eö: Eötvös Number

Bo: Bond Number

D: Internal diameter of tube

g: Acceleration due to gravity

$\rho$ : Density

$\sigma$ : Surface Tension

By following this criterion, there is no possibility of agglomeration of vapor bubbles. So the liquid plugs and vapor slugs are continually maintained. If diameter is increased beyond the critical diameter, the device will start acting like an interconnected array of two phase thermo syphon. If diameter is reduced below the critical diameter, dissipative losses increase

and lead to poor performance.

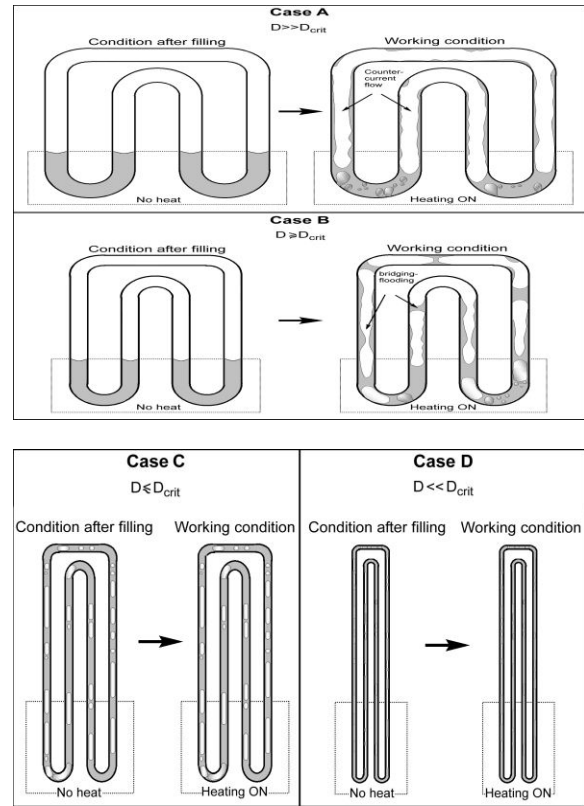


FIG4 EFFECT OF DIAMETER ON FLUID DISTRIBUTION N TUBES

#### 4.3.2 INPUT HEAT FLUX:

PHP's require high heat flux for good operation. The Heat flux applied effects the dynamics of the bubble growth and its sizes, flow perturbations and instabilities and also flow pattern in slug, annular and semiannual flows.

#### 4.3.3 WORKING FLUID:

The properties of working fluid affect the formation of two phase flow and thus have to be considered as an important parameter [4, 9].

- High thermal conductivity.
- Low latent heat.
- High specific heat-
- Low dynamic viscosity

The working fluids that are generally preferred are water, methanol, ethanol, Ethyl Alcohol etc.

#### 4.3.4 FILLING RATIO:

For the CLPHP to work, the tube should be only partially filled with the working fluid. The volumetric filling ratio affects the performance of the PHP.. Therefore, the proper range of filling ratio is within 40% to 60%.

#### 4.3.5 ORIENTATION OF TUBES:

Horizontal orientation of tubes does not give as good a performance as vertical orientation. Large number of turns supported by a high input heat flux tends to improve the performance of horizontal orientation of tubes in a CLPHP. The tubes may be inclined to 0 degrees, 30,45,60,90 and 180 degrees.

#### 4.3.6 NUMBER OF TURNS:

There is a certain critical value for the number of turns below which stop over phenomenon occurs in a PHP. Therefore an optimum number of turns is necessary so that the level of perturbations and the pulsating motion inside the device increases. In general 5 to 23 turns can be used.

### 5.0 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

#### 5.1 MODELLING OF PHP

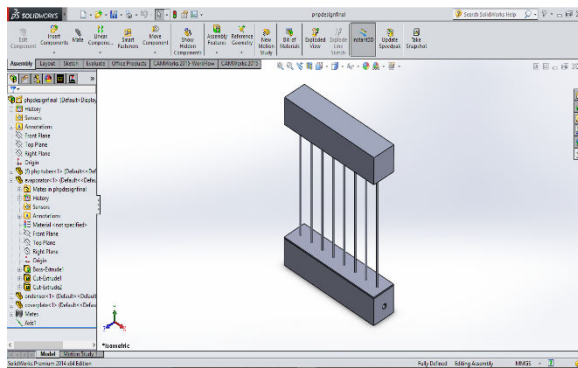


FIG5 DEIGN OF PHP IN SOLIDWORKS

The modelling is done by using solid works. In this experiment we are first winding a tube of 4.7m length in a serpentine manner of four turns. The tube has an inner diameter of 4mm and an outer diameter of 6mm. This tube is then attached to the evaporator and condenser through suitable manufacturing process. The evaporator and condenser both are made up of stainless steel and have a dimension of 100x140x450.

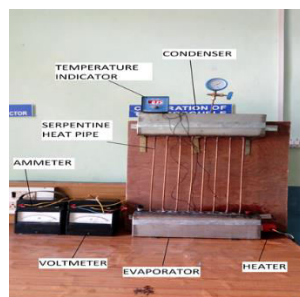


FIG6 EXPERIMENTAL SETUPOF PHP

Experiment is carried out to study the heat transfer performance of a Closed Loop Pulsating Heat pipe [CLPHP] and to study the temperature profile and the heat transfer rate at different sections [11]

Experiment is carried out for a number of iterations and a model calculation is given below

S.No	VOLTAGE	CURRENT	T <sub>1</sub>	T <sub>2</sub>	T <sub>3</sub>	T <sub>4</sub>	T <sub>5</sub>	T <sub>6</sub>
1	230	9.5	82	81	72	65	66	66

TABLE 2 EXPERIMENTAL READINGS

### 6.0 THERMAL ANALYSIS

The analysis of the project is done in ANSYS.

#### 6.1 STEADY STATE THERMAL ANALYSIS

The feature that was used for analyzing the pulsating heat pipe is “Thermal Analysis” [5].

The analysis component system we used is Steady state – Thermal. A steady state thermal analysis calculates the effects of steady thermal loads on a system or component and can be used to determine temperatures, thermal gradients, heat flow rates and heat fluxes in an object that are caused by thermal loads which do not vary much with time. Such loads include convection, radiation, constant temperature boundaries etc.

The tasks involved in performing a steady state thermal analysis are

1. Building the model.
2. Applying loads and obtaining solution.
3. Reviewing the results.

#### 6.2 BUILDING THE MODEL

The model is already built in the Solid works software. So it is simply imported into the workspace of Ansys steady state thermal.

#### 6.3 Applying loads and obtaining solution

Then the model needs to be meshed for loading.. The tetrahedron 10 node element has been chosen as it is default for thermal analysis of solids. The meshing is performed on the object with fine sizing and high smoothing

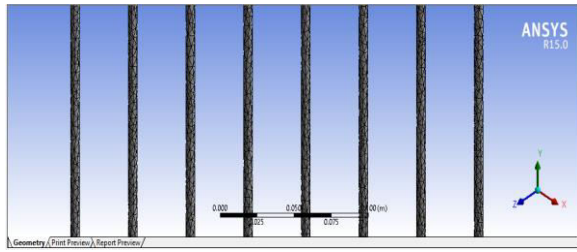


FIG6 MESHING OF PHP

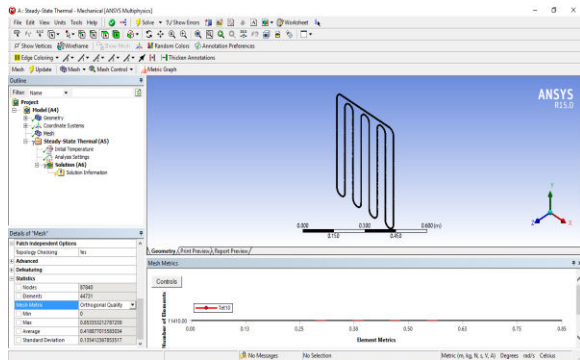


FIG7 NODES AND ELEMENTS AFTER MESHING

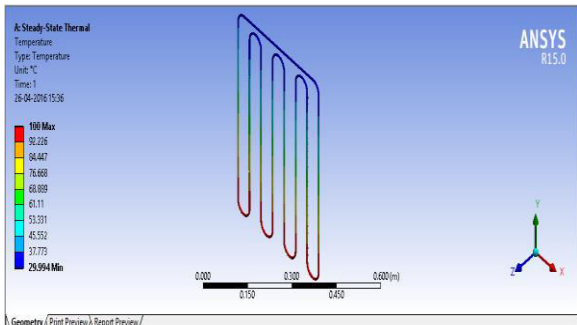
The number of nodes and elements formed are 87840 and 44731 respectively.

## 7.0 RESULTS

Apply boundary conditions and loads after meshing is done. The boundary conditions of 100°C in the evaporator zone and 30°C in the condenser zone are given along with the calculated value of heat flow due to convection which is 31.29W. These loads are applied to the given solid material made of copper material. After mentioning all boundary conditions required, the software is asked to solve the problem with the above constraints.

### Reviewing the results

Once the solver gives the results, they can be checked



by clicking on solution information. The solution of temperature distribution was found out. The temperature distribution contours are formed in the pipe.

FIG8 CONTOURS OF TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION

As steady state was formed at a condenser zone temperature of 50°C, the temperature distribution contours are found for that too

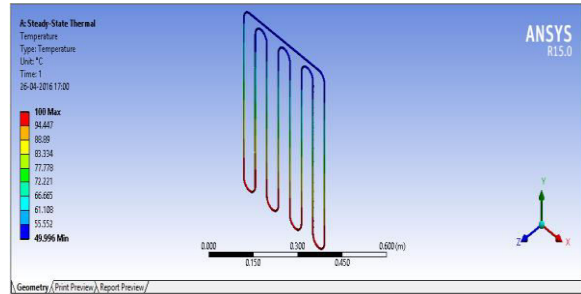


FIG9 TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION FOR 50°C

## 7.1 COMPARISON OF TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTIONS

The temperature distributions that were achieved in various analyses of experimental, finite element and ansys are to be compared to validate the behavior and working of a pulsating heat pipe.

The temperature range from condenser to evaporator when steady state was achieved at a condenser zone temperature of 50°C is 66°C at the condenser part of PHP and 82°C at the evaporator zone of PHP. Steady state thermal analysis performed at 50°C gave the temperature contours ranging from 100°C to 50°C from evaporator to condenser.

	EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS	ANSYS THERMAL ANALYSIS
TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION RANGE FROM CONDENSER TO EVAPORATOR	66°C to 82°C	50°C to 100°C

TABLE4 COMPARISON OF ANALYSES RESULTS

## 7.2 COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS WITH LITERATURE SURVEY

In the paper,[8] "Thermal characteristics of an aluminum closed-loop pulsating heat pipe charged with ammonia" by Md Shahidul Haque and in "Thermal simulation of a pulsating heat pipe" by M.Mamelli, M.Marengo and S. Zinna, the behavior of

temperature with time has been established under various differing factors and values[3]. It was observed that the evaporator temperature and condenser temperature increase with time. It can be observed in our experimental results and graphs that the evaporator and condenser temperature increase per every time step

PROPERTIES	WICKED HEAT PIPE (LITERATURE)	PULSATING HEAT PIPE (LITERATURE)	PULSATING HEAT PIPE (EXPERIMENTAL)
TEMPERATURE RANGE	Range of 30°C to 120°C	Range of 50°C to 160°C	56°C to 82°C
TOTAL POWER	Up to 200 W	Up to 3000 W	2160 W

TABLE5 COMPARISON WITH LITERATURE

## 8.0 CONCLUSIONS

1. PHP is a device which is comparatively a simpler and efficient heat transfer device.
2. By controlling the various factors affecting its performance, their performance can be improved.
3. The mathematical representation of the working of a PHP is not easily understandable due to its complex thermo hydrodynamic behavior.
4. PHP are useful in control of electronic and electrical devices and they are one of the best option in the thermal management.
5. PHP are having more efficiency than conventional heat pipes they are highly used in space applications.

## 9.0 FUTURE SCOPE

1. The experiments can be carried out with different working fluids such as ethanol, methanol, ethyl alcohol etc.
2. By changing amount of heat supplied value effective performance of PHP can be obtained.
3. The heat source can also be obtained from sun's radiation by using solar collector.
4. The number of tubes can be increased for better flow and efficiency.
5. The change in the tubes orientation is also used to improve efficiency of thermal systems.
6. The length of evaporator, condenser and adiabatic zones can be changed.

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# A Review on Computer Aided Process Planning Technique in Casting Industries

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***Abstract:** The cost reduction with High quality of product design based on CAD made by casting is very important task in the up to date competitive global market trends. This research represents an approach of Computer Aided Process Planning technique for reducing cost minimization and High quality improvement of casting based products in the Computer Integrated Manufacturing (CIM) environment area. Computer aided Process planning involves materials and machines for different steps, requirement of trained skilled labours & making the right process plan sheets used in casting process.*

*This research will show an offline control of designing layout, production based & decision making process plans at the initial stages and thus enables starting prediction and prevention of manufacturing processes associated with the product design for reducing the cost of the designed products with improved High quality.*

***Keywords:** MCU, NC, Stereo- lithography, CAPP, CAD, CAM, CIM, FEM, Off-line control sheets,.*

The current standard to program NC machine tools has had no significant change since the early 1950's when the first NC (numerical control) machine was developed at M.I.T. (Massachusetts Institute of Technology), U.S.A. These early NC machines and today's NC machines continue to use the same standard for programming namely G & M codes based on the ISO 6893 standard. Industrial world has witnessed significant improvements in product design and manufacturing since the advent of computer aided design (CAD) and computer aided manufacturing (CAM) technologies. Although CAD and CAM have been significantly developed over the last three decades, they have traditionally been treated as separate activities.

CAPP is a highly effective technology for discrete manufacturers with a significant number of products and process steps. The first step is the implementation of FT classification and coding. Commercially available software exists to support both GT and CAPP. As a result, many companies can achieve the benefits of GT and CAPP with minimum cost and risks.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

CAD/CAM (computer-aided design and computer aided manufacturing) refers to computer software that is used to both design and manufacture products. CAD is the use of computer technology for design and design documentation. CAD/CAM applications are used to both design a product and program manufacturing processes, specifically, CNC machining. CAM software uses the models and assemblies created in CAD software to generate tool paths that drive the machines that turn the designs into physical parts. CAD/CAM software is most often used for machining of prototypes and finished parts.

***Parametric Design:*** In 1989 T-FLEX and later Pro/ENGINEER introduced CADs based on parametric engines. Parametric modeling means that the model is defined by parameters. A change of dimension values in one place also changes other dimensions to preserve relation of all elements in the design. MCAD systems introduced the concept of constraints that enable you to define relations between parts in assembly. Designers started to use a bottom-up approach when parts are created first and then assembled together. Modeling is more intuitive, precise and later analysis, especially kinematics easier.

Effective use of these tools can improve a manufacturer's competitive advantage too. Technological advances are reshaping the face of

manufacturing, creating paperless manufacturing environments in which computer automated process planning (CAPP) will play a preeminent role. The two reasons for this effect are: costs are declining, which encourages partnerships between CAD and CAPP developers and access to manufacturing data is becoming easier to accomplish in multivendor environments. With the introduction of computers in design and manufacturing, the process planning part needed to be automated.

The shop trained people who were familiar with the details of machining and other processes were gradually retiring and these people would be unavailable in the future to do process planning. An alternative way of accomplishing this function was needed and Computer Aided Process Planning (CAPP) is an alternative. Computer aided process planning is usually considered to be a part of CAD.

However computer aided manufacturing is a standalone system. In fact a synergy results when CAM is combined with CAD to create a CAD/CAM system. In such a system CAPP becomes the direct connection between design and manufacturing. The goal is to find a useful reliable solution to a real manufacturing problem in a safer environment. If alternate plans exist, rating including safer conditions is used to select the best plans.

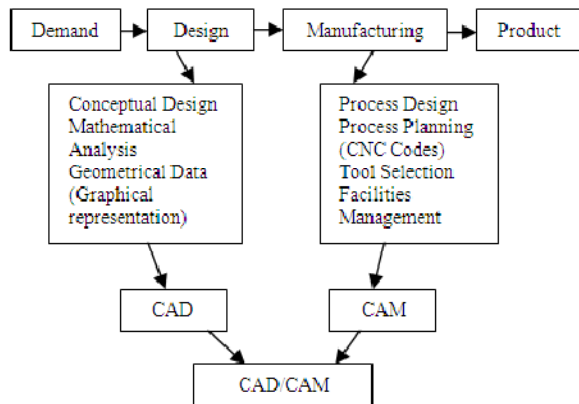


Figure: Structure of CAD/CAM

## 2. BACKGROUND

### 2.1 Computer Aided Design (CAD):

A product must be defined before it can be casted. Computer Aided Design involves any type of design activity that makes use of the computer to develop, analyze or modify an engineering design. There are a number of fundamental reasons for implementing a computer aided design system, which may be proven

as a better design.

- Increase the productivity of the designer: This is accomplished by helping the designer to visualize the product and its component subassemblies and parts; and by reducing the time required in synthesizing, analyzing, and documenting the design.
- This productivity improvement translates not only into lower design cost but also into shorter project completion times.
- To improve the quality of the design: A CAD system permits a more thorough engineering analysis and a larger number of design alternatives can be investigated.
- Design errors are also reduced through the greater accuracy provided by the system.

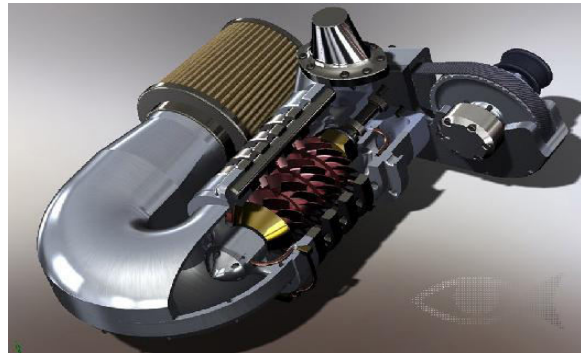


Figure: Machine Design

The following speculations are separated into strong probability of adoption, medium, and weak.

- CAD format standardization based on XML (Strong)
- Full virtual prototypes (strong)
- CAD specialization (strong)
- Real time ray tracing (strong)
- Development of open source CAD (medium)
- Small scale and rapid manufacturing (medium)
- Dynamic Physical Rendering (weak)
- CAD based on genetic programming (weak)

Some of the applications of this technology are:

- Production of drawings and design documents
- Visualization tool for generating shaded images and animated displays
- Engineering analysis of the geometric models
- Process planning and generation of NC part programs.

## 2.2 Computer Aided Manufacturing (CAM):

By the time computer use in design began, numerical control technology (NC technology) had matured to become cost effective for applications in casting and machining. An important aspect in numerical control is part-programming. A part-program is simply a set of statements comprehensible to the machine control unit (MCU) that oversees slide and tool movements and other auxiliary functions. In the case of components with complex geometries, many part programs had to carry out lengthy calculations for which it is logical to use computers.

This gave rise to machine control units (MCU) with built in microprocessors- the building blocks of computers. The use of computers in extending the applications of NC technology, especially to part-programming was earlier termed Computer Aided Machining (CAM) and the associated technology was called Computer Numerical Control (CNC). Later Computer Aided Machining became an acronym for Computer Aided Manufacturing (CAM). Earlier Computer Aided Manufacturing used to denote computer use in part-programming only. Today it means any non design function of manufacturing that is computer aided. In figure, CNC welding machine assisting in casting products.

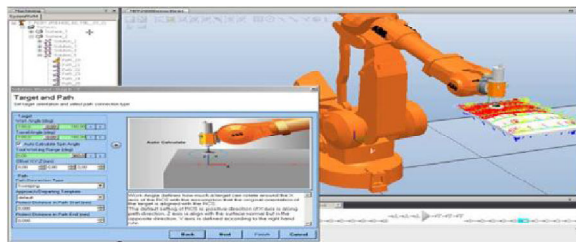


Figure: Design pattern using CAD/CAM

## 3. EXISTING SYSTEM

### Computer Aided Process Planning (CAPP):

A number of cost reducing with estimation approaches are available today for estimating product cost at design stage with the reduction of cost. These include intuitive, analogical (Duverline and Castelain 1999, Wang et al. 2003), analytical (Feng and Zhang 1999), feature based (Feng et al. 1996, Ou-Yang and Lin 1997) and parametric (DoD 1999, Farineau et al. 2001). The intuitive method is based on the experience of the estimator. Process planning translates design information into the process steps with instructions to

efficiently and effectively manufacturing the products (figure: 3). As the design process is supported by many computer-aided tools, computer-aided process planning (CAPP) has evolved to simplify the process planning and achieve more effective use of manufacturing resources.

Process planning is concerned with determining the sequence of individual manufacturing operations needed to produce a given part or product. The resulting operation sequence is documented on a form typically referred to as a route sheet containing a listing of the production operations and associated machine tools for a work part or assembly. Process planning in manufacturing also refers to the planning of use of blanks, spare parts, packaging material, user instructions (manuals) etc.

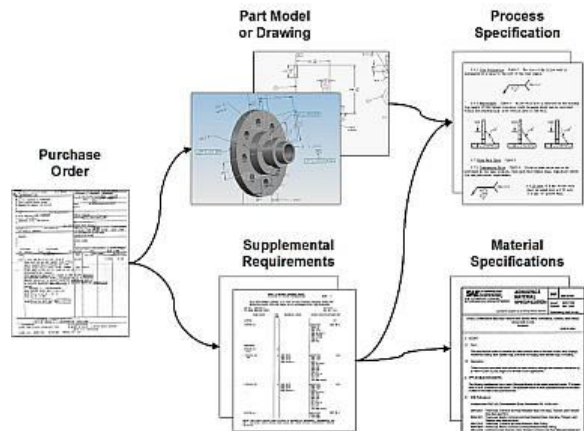


Figure: Computer Aided Process Planning

### CAPP Benefits

Significant benefits can result from the implementation of CAPP. In a detailed survey of twenty-two large and small companies using generative-type CAPP systems, the following estimated cost savings were achieved:

- Reduced process planning and production Lead-time; faster response to engineering changes
- Greater process plan consistency; access to upto-Date information in a central database
- Improved cost estimating procedures and fewer Calculation errors
- More complete and detailed process plans
- Improved production scheduling and capacity Utilization

Improved ability to introduce manufacturing Technology and rapidly update process plans to

Utilize the improved technology. CAPP, thus, results to a highly effective technology for discrete manufacturers with a significant number of products and process steps. Rapid strides are being made to develop generative planning capabilities and incorporate CAPP into a computer-integrated manufacturing architecture. The first step is the implementation of GT or FT classification and coding.

Commercially-available software tools currently exist to support both GT and CAPP. As a result, many companies may achieve the benefits of GT and CAPP with minimal cost and risk. Effective use of these tools can collaborate to manufacturer's profit.

### Finite Element Modeling (FEM)

FEM is a numerical technique to find out the approximate solution of partial differential equation (PDE) as well as of integral equation. The solution approach is based on eliminating the differential equation completely or rendering the PDE into an approximating system of ordinary differential equations, which are then numerically, integrated using standard techniques such as Euler's method or Runge-Kutta.

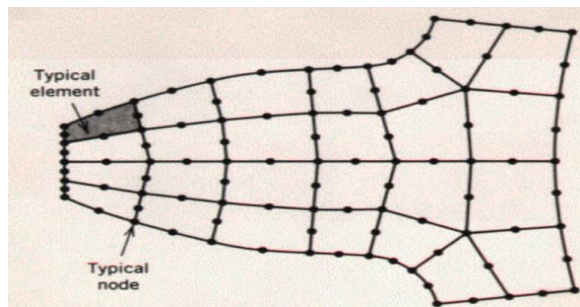


Figure: Finite Element Modeling

In FE modeling first we divide the whole structure is divided into pieces (elements and nodes) as shown in figure (4), after that behavior of physical quantities on each element is described. Further assembly of elements at the node to form an approximate system of equations for the whole structure is done. Solve the system of equations involving unknown quantities at the nodes (e.g., displacement) now at the end calculate desired quantities (e.g., strain and stresses) at selected elements.

FEM now days integrated with CAD software. FEM analysis allow user to virtually analyze or simulate the product with an actual conditions (stresses and actual forces). This will help designer to modify and

optimize the design of product for the sake of increasing its reliability.

In figure Finite element analysis of a product is shown, here we can see how the stresses are generated and at high portion stresses are maximum. By FE analysis we reached to the conclusion that the portion which has maximum stresses is most likely to fail. So we have to pay bit more attention to design this portion.

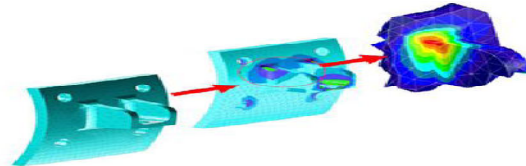


Figure: Finite Element Modeling process analysis

### 4. PRAPOSED SYSTEM K

Computer-aided design (CAD) involves creating computer models defined by geometrical parameters. These models typically appear on a computer monitor as a three-dimensional representation of a part or a system of parts, which can be readily altered by changing relevant parameters. CAD systems enable designers to view objects under a wide variety of representations and to test these objects by simulating real-world conditions.

Computer-aided manufacturing (CAM) uses geometrical design data to control automated machinery. CAM systems are associated with computer numerical control (CNC) or direct numerical control (DNC) systems. These systems differ from older forms of numerical control (NC) in that geometrical data are encoded mechanically. Since both CAD and CAM use computer-based methods for encoding geometrical data, it is possible for the processes of design and manufacture to be highly integrated. Computer-aided design and manufacturing systems are commonly referred to as CAD/CAM.

Commercial mechanical CAD/CAM packages provide a rather low level of automation of process planning tasks and a weak connection between their CAD and CAM/NC part programming modules. Automated process planning involves two important tasks; machining feature extraction and feature-based process planning. The CAD model of the part and the stock is exported via STEP from the commercial CAD system to an external machining feature recognition system.



The development of CAD and CAM and particularly the linkage between the two overcame traditional NC shortcomings in expense, ease of use, and speed by enabling the design and manufacture of a part to be undertaken using the same system of encoding geometrical data. This innovation greatly shortened the period between design and manufacture and greatly expanded the scope of production processes for which automated machinery could be economically used. Just as important, CAD/CAM gave the designer much more direct control over the production process, creating the possibility of completely integrated design and manufacturing processes.

The rapid growth in the use of CAD/CAM technologies after the early 1970s was made possible by the development of mass-produced silicon chips and the microprocessor, resulting in more readily affordable computers. As the price of computers continued to decline and their processing power improved, the use of CAD/CAM broadened from large firms using large-scale mass production techniques to firms of all sizes.

The scope of operations to which CAD/CAM was applied broadened as well. In addition to parts-shaping by traditional machine tool processes such as stamping, drilling, milling, and grinding, CAD/CAM has come to be used by firms involved in producing consumer electronics, electronic components, molded plastics, and a host of other products. Computers are also used to control a number of manufacturing processes (such as chemical processing) that are not strictly defined as CAM because the control data are not based on geometrical parameters

## 5.RESULT

### Casting Methodology for improvement of Quality with Cost Reduction

For carrying out efficient solid modeling of casting process the software application would require the faceted model in stereo lithography tessellated language format. This format would make the representation to be given as input in a simpler and efficient way. The stereo lithography tessellated language format also helps in generation of mesh which further helps in the process of analyzing stresses, filling of moulds and during solidification of castings. Proper care and steps must be taken to speed up the process of analysis.

In this direction to name one could be to remove minute filets in model before transferring the stereo

lithography tessellated language file. The above steps help in reducing the file size and there by helps in achieving speed in analysis with efficiency in process by reducing the errors generated during analysis.

### Software Used

The complete job estimation and castings are obtained By using software "K-form Project Manager v.2.5" This software includes a complete information starting from order in and order out in any organization working in CIM environment by using CAPP technique.

This enables the cost reduction with improved quality in the limited time period and also it forms the various route sheets which will be processed in the manufacturing unit for completion of the job step by step. So by using this software the time taken in the process can be minimize and also complete information is available on a single work-station in the organization, which can be managed by a single trained person. Hence it reduces the cost of administration required which directly effects the cost of the final product. The main inputs to the software are as follows:

- Part description with quantity and time of supply.
- Raw material required in casting as well as in Machining processes.
- Processes required step by step for making the Product.
- No. of skilled workers & staff with their wages.
- Other administrative expenses & overheads.

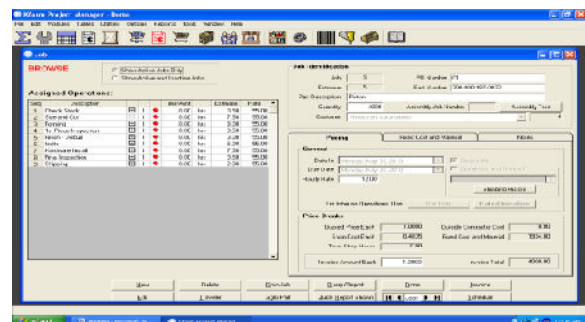


Figure: Result Analysis

By using the inputs, abovementioned, the software automatically prepares the estimate and costing of the products with the complete route sheet to be followed in the manufacturing unit at every stage of processing.

## 6. CONCLUSION

This research concludes that this approach to CAPP technique for cost reduction and quality improvement

of casting products in the CIM environment is the requirement for the present and future competitive market for any organization. Because CAPP involves deciding the methods, materials and machines for various steps, requirement of trained labours & making the process plan sheets used in casting process at the early stage of the production of any casted product by using CAPP software at a single workstation.

Hence in this technique a very low administration is required, which directly affects the cost of the product. Also, the time taken at various products can be estimated & reduced at the early stages, so it increases the productibility of the organization with the reduction of the cost. Also at early stages, by using the casting analysis for the product to be cast reduces the cost of the product with improved quality.

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# Heat Transfer design calculations in Combustion chamber of Torpedo Engine

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**Abstract:** A heat transfer model has been developed that uses quasi-steady heat flux relations to calculate the heat transfer from combustion gases through the cylinder wall to the coolant in an internal combustion engine. The treatment of convective heat transfer accounts for the physical problems of rotating and impinging axial flow inside the engine cylinder. The radioactive heat transfer includes gas radiation ( $CO_2$ ,  $H_2O$ , and  $CO$ ) and soot-particle radiation.

Cylinder wall temperatures can be accurately predicted from this model for both the gas and the coolant sides. The present model's heat transfer results for the motoring case are in good agreement with results from empirical correlations based on instantaneous heat flux data. The calculated radiative heat flux and gas emissivity show reasonable agreement with data in the literature.

**Keyword:** Heat, Tehrmo Dynamics, Cylinder Gas,TDC

## 1.INTRODUCTION

In internal combustion (IC) engines, heat loss from combustion gases through the cylinder wall to the coolant strongly influences the thermodynamics of the engine cycle. This heat loss is an important part of the energy balance, which influences gas temperature and pressure, piston work, engine performance, and emissions.

### HEAT TRANSFER MODEL

The physical system under consideration is quasi- steady, one-dimensional heat flow

through the solid medium separating the cylinder gas and coolant.

The basic assumptions used with the present model are as follows:

- ✚ The coolant temperature is known.
- ✚ The cylinder wall comprises seven heat transfer areas (intake valve, exhaust valve, cylinder head, liner, piston top, cup wall, and cup bottom), each of which is at its uniform temperature and has its uniform heat flux at every instant of the cycle. (See Fig. 1.)

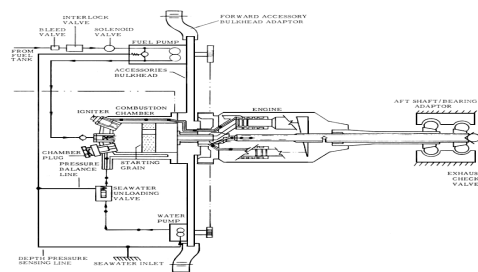


Figure.1: Schematic diagram of engine cylinder

- ✚ The convective heat transfer coefficients on both sides of the walls are uniform over each heat transfer area.
- ✚ The equivalent wall thickness at each heat transfer area is the same.

- ✚ The possible effects of surface scales or deposits on either side of the cylinder wall are not considered, and the heat losses through leaks at the valve seats or at the gap between the liner and the piston are neglected.
- ✚ The heat flow is quasi-steady, and the wall temperatures may be determined using simple network analysis.

## 2. EXISTING SYSTEM

The process by which heat is transferred from the cylinder gas through the wall to the coolant consists of three parts: convective and radioactive heat transfer from cylinder gas to combustion-chamber surface, conductive heat transfer through the cylinder wall, and convective heat transfer from the cylinder wall to the coolant.

Under the quasi-steady flow assumption, the heat flux is considered to be the same across each element:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{q}/A &= U (T_g - T_c) & (1) \\ &= h_g (T_g - T_{wg}) & (2) \\ &= k (T_{wg} - T_{wc})/L & (3) \\ &= h_c (T_{wc} - T_c) & (4) \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{h_g} + \frac{L}{k} + \frac{1}{h_c} \quad (5)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{q}(4) &= \sum_{i=1}^N h_{g,i} (T_{g,i}^{(4)} - T_{wg,i}^{(4)}) A_i & (6) \\ \dot{Q} &= \int_0^{2\pi} \dot{q}(\theta) d\theta & (7) \end{aligned}$$

$$h_{g0}/h_g = 0.0166 \text{ Pr Re}^{0.8} \quad (8)$$

## 3. PROPOSED SYSTEM

### CONVECTIVE HEAT TRANSFER

Heat Transfer from Cylinder Gas to Walls:

A very fundamental rotating-disk flow and forced rotating-tube flow are considered for the calculation of heat transfer between the cylinder gas and the wall in swirl engines. For piston top and cylinder head, the turbulent flow over a disk rotating at constant speed about its axis is assumed. The analysis, based on Hartnett (6), is performed by integrating the continuity, momentum, and energy equations for the fully turbulent flow. The heat transfer coefficient,  $h_{gc}$ , over the disk plate is written as follows:

where  $Re (= \rho g R^2 \omega / \mu_g)$ ,  $Pr$ ,  $kg$  and  $R$  are Reynolds number, Prandtl number, thermal conductivity of gas, and equivalent radius, respectively. For the liner and the piston-cup wall, the turbulent fluid flowing inside a pipe rotating about its longitudinal axis is assumed. The heat transfer coefficient is obtained from the results of Cannon and Kays (7):

Heat Transfer from Cylinder Wall to Coolant

The heat transfer from the cylinder head and liner to the coolant is modeled by turbulent cross-flow forced convection. An average heat transfer over the cylindrical surface was correlated by McAdams for water and hydrocarbon oils (8).

where  $Prc$ ,  $kc$ ,  $Re (= \rho c V_c D O / \mu_c)$ , and  $DO$  are the Prandtl number of the coolant, thermal conductivity of the coolant, Reynolds number, and outside diameter of the engine cylinder, respectively.  $V_c$  is a mean velocity of the coolant.

The heat transfer from the back surface of the valve to the inlet gas is treated differently during the periods when the valves are open and closed. When the valve is open, the correlation of Kapadia and Borman is used for the heat



transfer from the back surface of an open valve to the flowing air, based on steady-flow analysis and experiment (9):

where  $Re (= MDh/\mu gA_e)$ ,  $M$ ,  $Dh$  and  $A_e$  are Reynolds number, mass flow rate, hydraulic diameter, and effective flow area, respectively. When the valve is closed, the heat transfer is treated as natural convective heat transfer over a horizontal plate facing upward. The empirical correlations to be used are given in Eqs. 12 and 13, taken from Rohsenow and Hartnett (10): where  $Gr$  and  $D_v$  are Grashof number and valve diameter, respectively.

The heat transfer from the piston wall to the lubricating oil depends on the movement of oil, the amount of oil in the cooling cavity, etc. Due to this complexity, the heat transfer coefficient in the oil side is assumed to be  $2400 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ , and the oil temperature is assumed to be  $366 \text{ K}$  (11, 12).

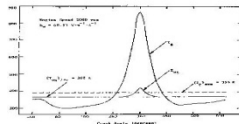
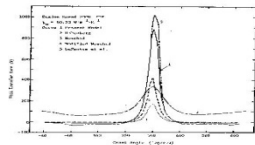


Figure.2: Comparison of Heat Transfer Rates

#### 4.RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to calculate the heat transfer in a reciprocating IC engine, an engine cycle simulation code was incorporated with the present heat transfer model.

Figure 2 shows the heat transfer rates for the motoring case calculated by the present model and under the same engine geometry and comparable conditions, using the empirical correlations available in the literature. The present (model) results are in good agreement

with those of the LeFeuvre model (3), and LeFeuvre's correlation is known to be good for the motoring case. LeFeuvre et al. applied Dorfman's rotational- and turbulent flow concepts (16) to correlate their instantaneous temperature and heat flux measurements with the analytical predictions.

The present results and the results using Woschni's model (1) are in reasonable agreement for the intake and exhaust periods. Woschni's model required an average wall temperature for several cycles. Although his empirical equation was based on the turbulent flow in the duct, it required several constants that were determined by the engine geometry and operating conditions.

The peak heat transfer rate of the present model is about five times higher than that of Woschni's model. This may be due to the omission of swirl, which is important in compression and expansion processes, in his equation. Woschni's equation was modified by Hiraki to consider the swirl of the gas inside the combustion chamber (17). The results are shown on curve 4 of Fig. 2, which displays a better fit to that of the present model. Hohenberg claimed that his heat transfer calculation (2) was precise due to his accurate surface temperature, combustion pressure, and heat flux measurements.

His heat transfer correlation required the mean velocity, mean wall temperature, and mean gas temperature during the cycle calculation; because of this averaging process, his results could be expected to be higher at intake and exhaust processes and to be lower at compression and expansion processes than the results obtained using the present model; these trends are observable on curve 2 of Fig. 2.

The majority of the above mentioned correlations, except LeFeuvre's, are not based on instantaneous data but on time-averaged data. Although LeFeuvre's correlation can predict the instantaneous heat flux, it is highly dependent on the engine geometry and operating conditions. The present model can also predict the instantaneous heat flux by using very physical

fundamentals to calculate convection and a basic spectral absorption model to calculate radiation.

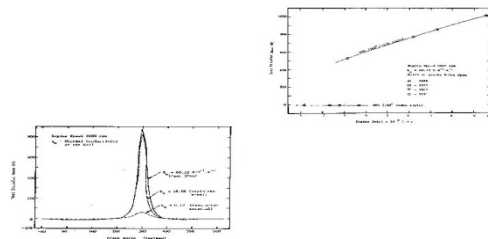


Figure. 3 Wall- and Gas-Temperature Histories

Figure 3 shows the histories of the gas and wall temperatures for the entire cycle. Note that  $(T_{wg})_{ave}$  and  $(T_g)_{ave}$  are the averaged wall and gas temperatures, respectively, over the entire cycle.

The calculated gas emissivities and radioactive heat fluxes obtained using the present model and those obtained from the measurements by Flynn et al. (5) are compared in Table 1. Flynn et al. performed a detailed investigation of radioactive heat flux in a diesel engine. They studied the radiative heat flux by varying a number of operating conditions, such as engine speed, fuel-to-air ratio, fuel- injection timing, fuel type, etc.

The radiation intensity was measured at seven wavelengths by using an infrared detector and an infrared monochromatic. Only those data obtained using No. 2 diesel oil were compared. In order to compare the present calculated radiation results with those of Flynn et al., two important parameters mean beam length and concentrations of gas species are required.

The value of the mean beam length was taken as 3.6 times the ratio of cylinder gas volume to its surface area based on Flynn's test engine at top dead center (TDC). The concentrations of the gas species and the in-cylinder pressures were obtained from the engine cycle simulation code, based on the values of peak gas temperatures and the equivalence ratios from Flynn et al.

The reported maximum wall temperatures (5), which were assumed to occur at the same time

(or crank angle) as the peak gas temperatures for the present calculations, were also used for the present comparison. The calculated and measured gas emissivities were in reasonable agreement (within 10%).

The heat fluxes calculated by using the present model are also in reasonable agreement with the measured values, except for run no. 54 at an engine speed of 1010 rpm.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

A heat transfer model that uses quasi-steady heat flux relations to calculate the heat transfer from combustion gases to the coolant in IC engines has been developed. The treatment of convective heat transfer accounts for the physical problems of rotating and impinging axial flow inside the engine cylinder. The radioactive heat transfer includes gas radiation ( $CO_2$ ,  $H_2O$ , and  $CO$ ) and soot-particle radiation. The wall temperatures can be accurately predicted from this model for both the gas and coolant sides of the combustion-chamber walls.

The heat transfer results of the present model for the motoring case are in good agreement with those of LeFeuvre's empirical correlation, which was obtained from instantaneous heat flux data. The calculated radioactive heat flux and gas emissivity show reasonable agreement with those based on Flynn's measurements.

The present model is a step toward analysis of the thermal effects in engines and of cooling systems. The model can be used to study the effects of a number of parameters on heat transfer and wall temperatures for example, the effects of in-cylinder flows and of wall thickness and wall materials.

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