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THE CONTROL AND MEASUREMENT OF MINUTE CURVATURES IN A STEEL SHAFT - WILKES

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THE CONTROL AND MEASUREMENT OF MINUTE
CURVATURES IN A STEEL SHAFT

By

Donald F. Wilkes

A Thesis

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Science in Mechanical Engineering

The University of New Mexico

1961



This thesis, directed and approved by the candidate's committee, has been accepted by the Graduate Committee of the University of New Mexico in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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MASTER OF ARTS

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Thesis committee

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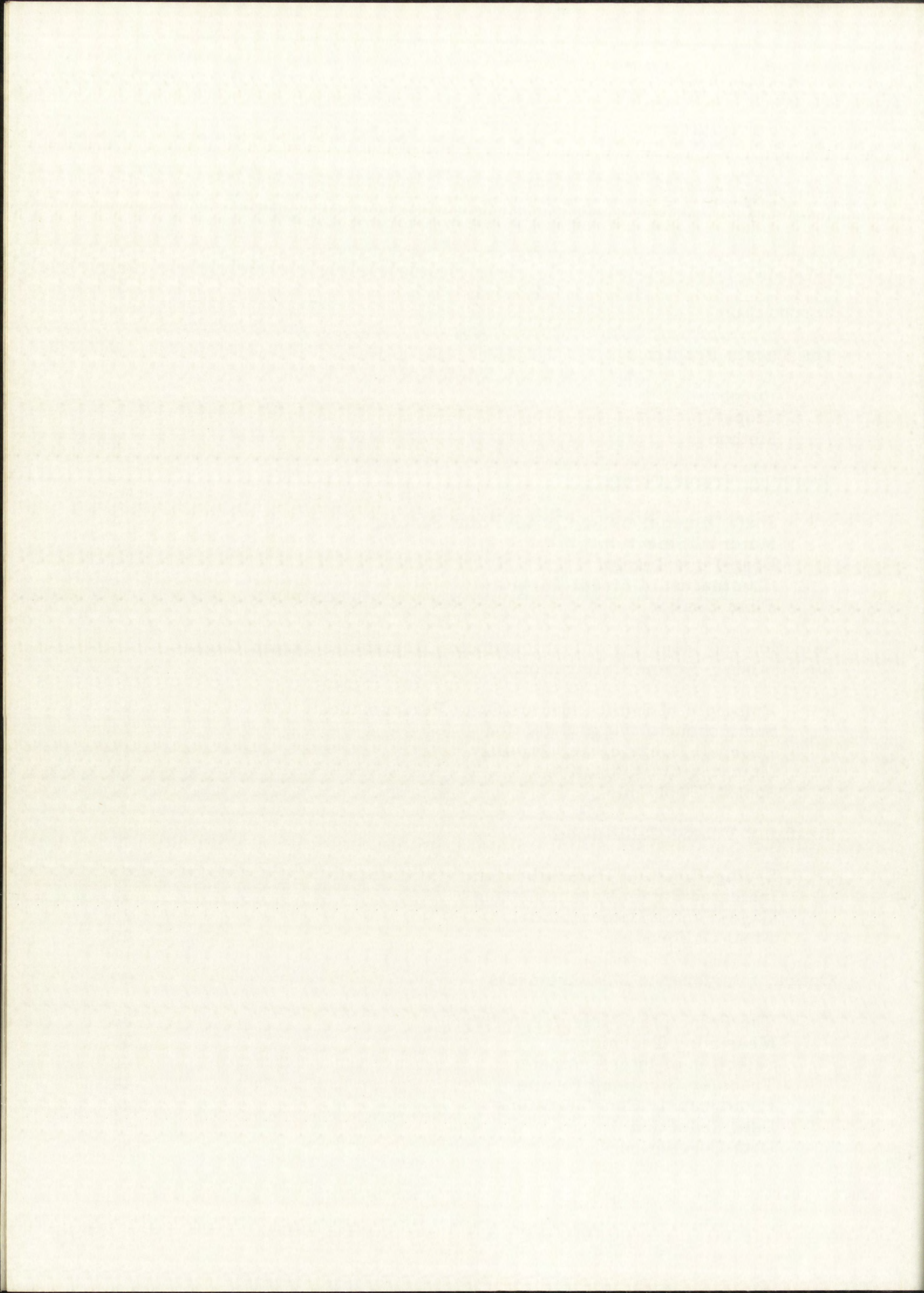


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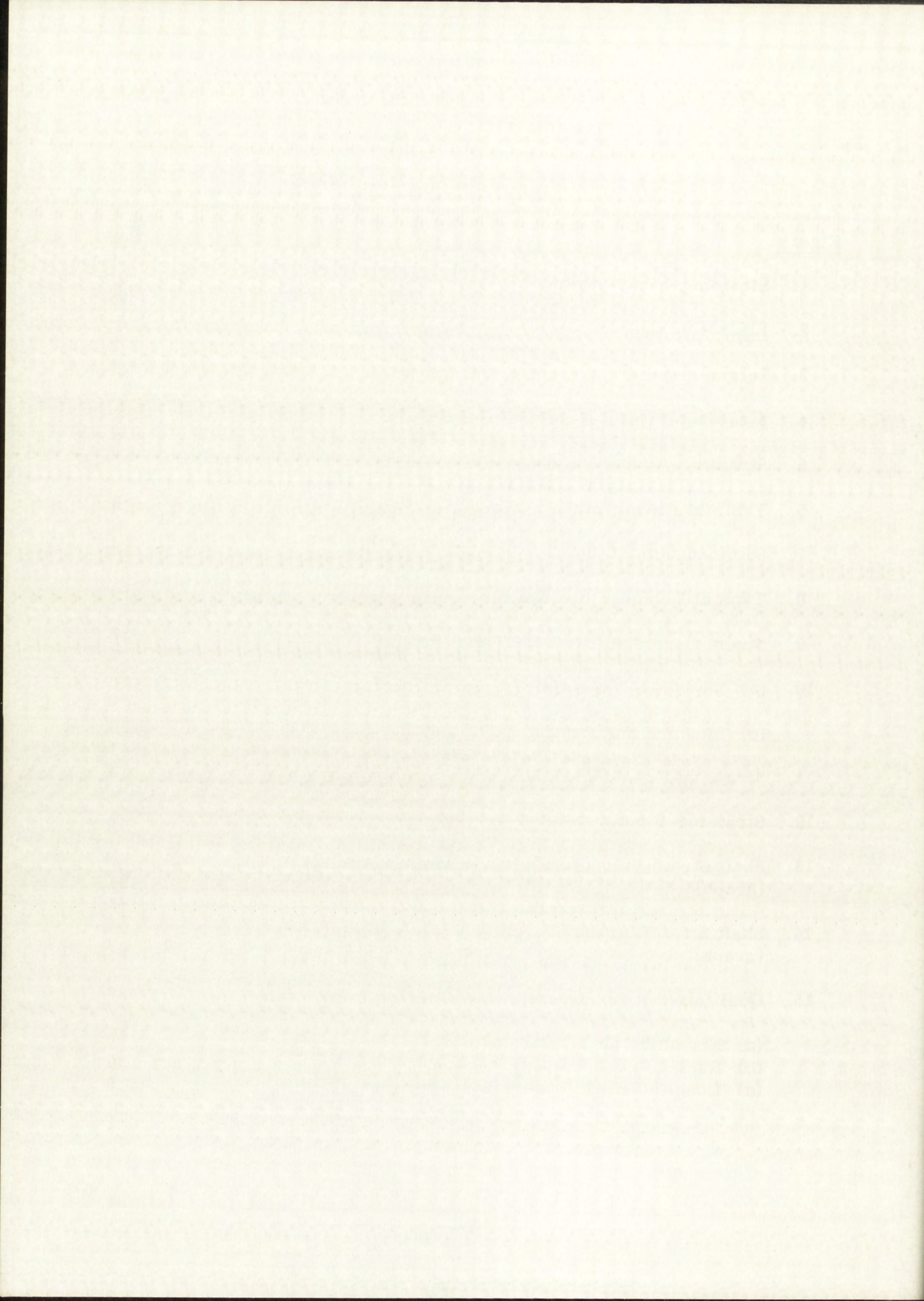
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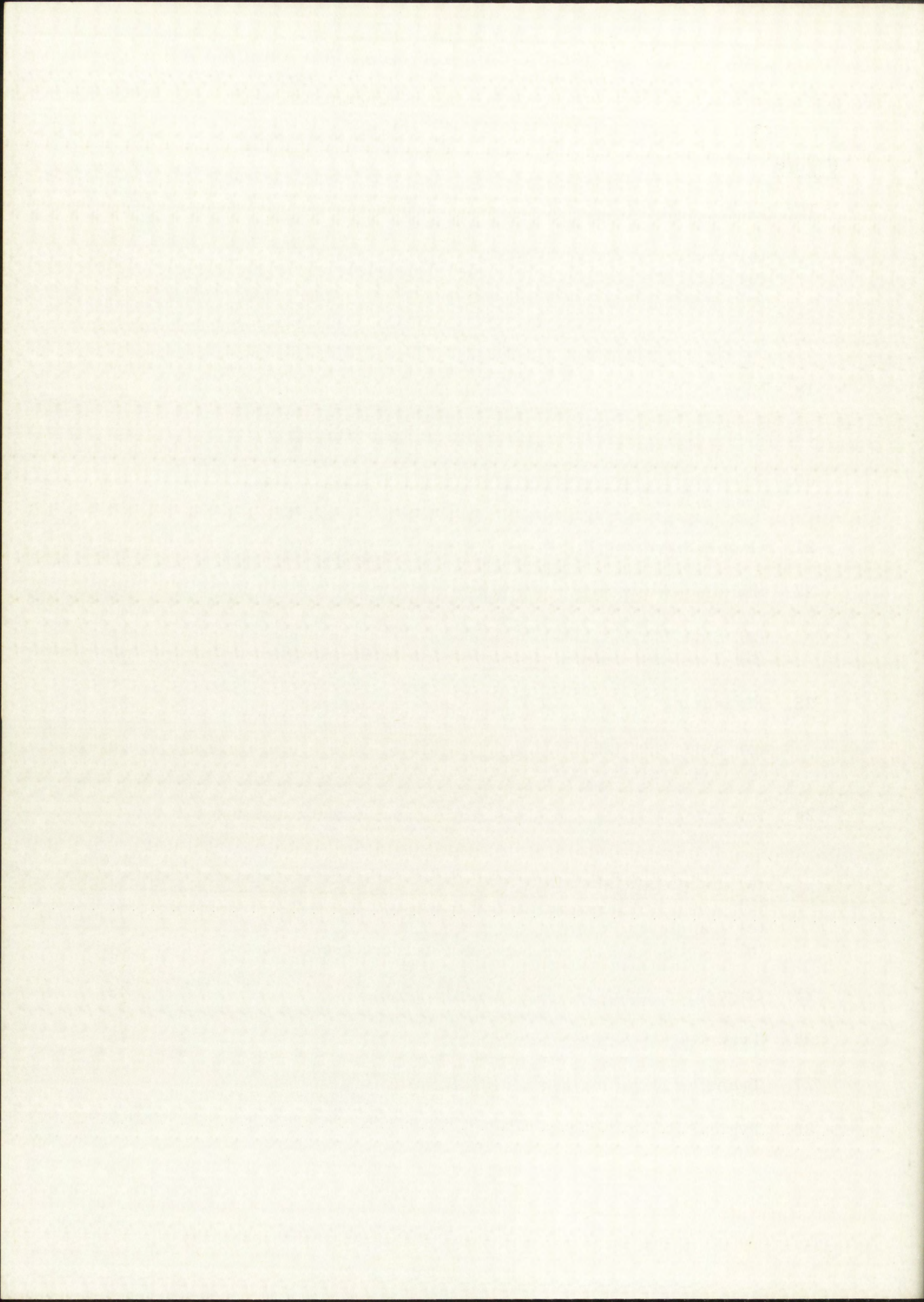
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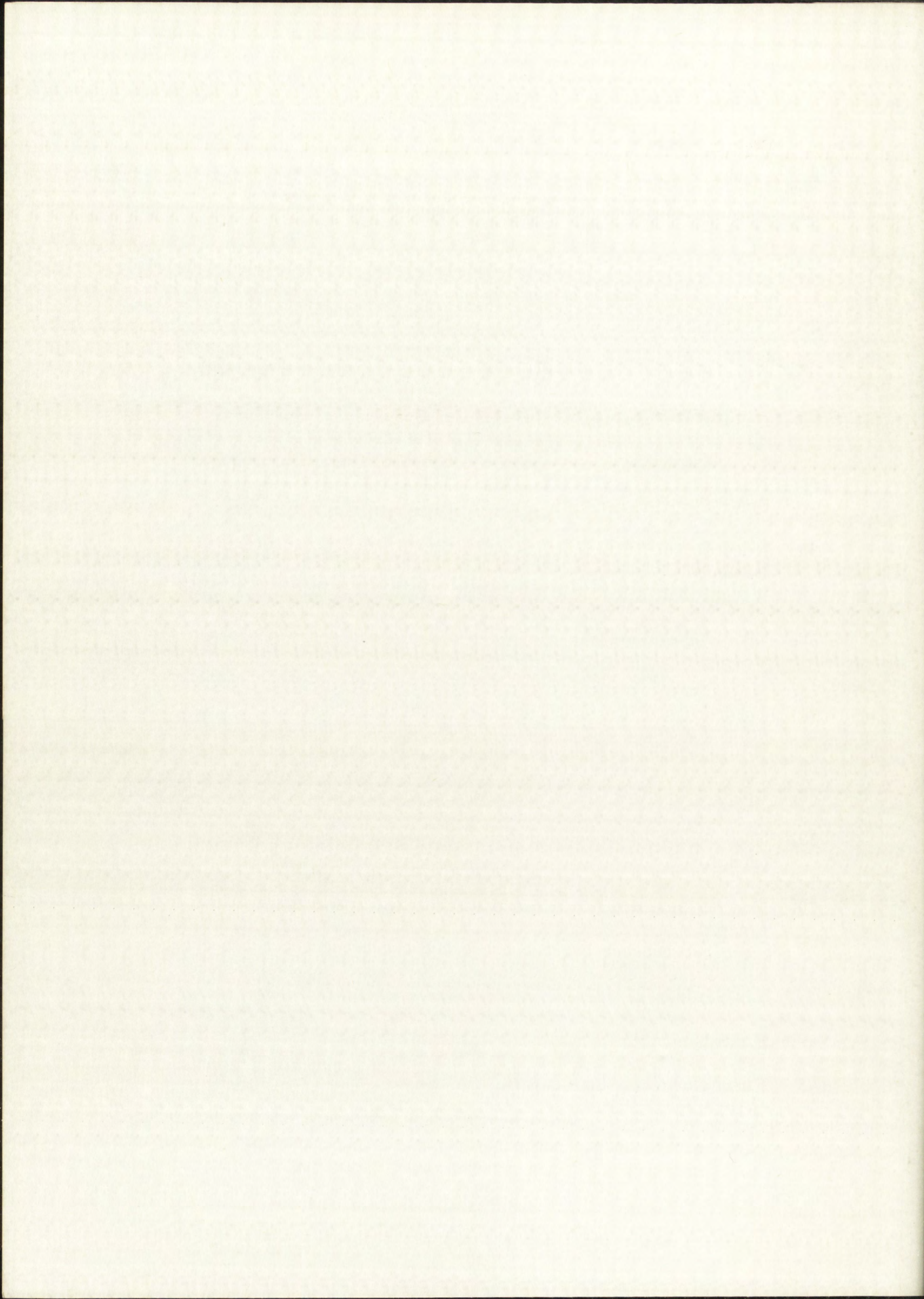
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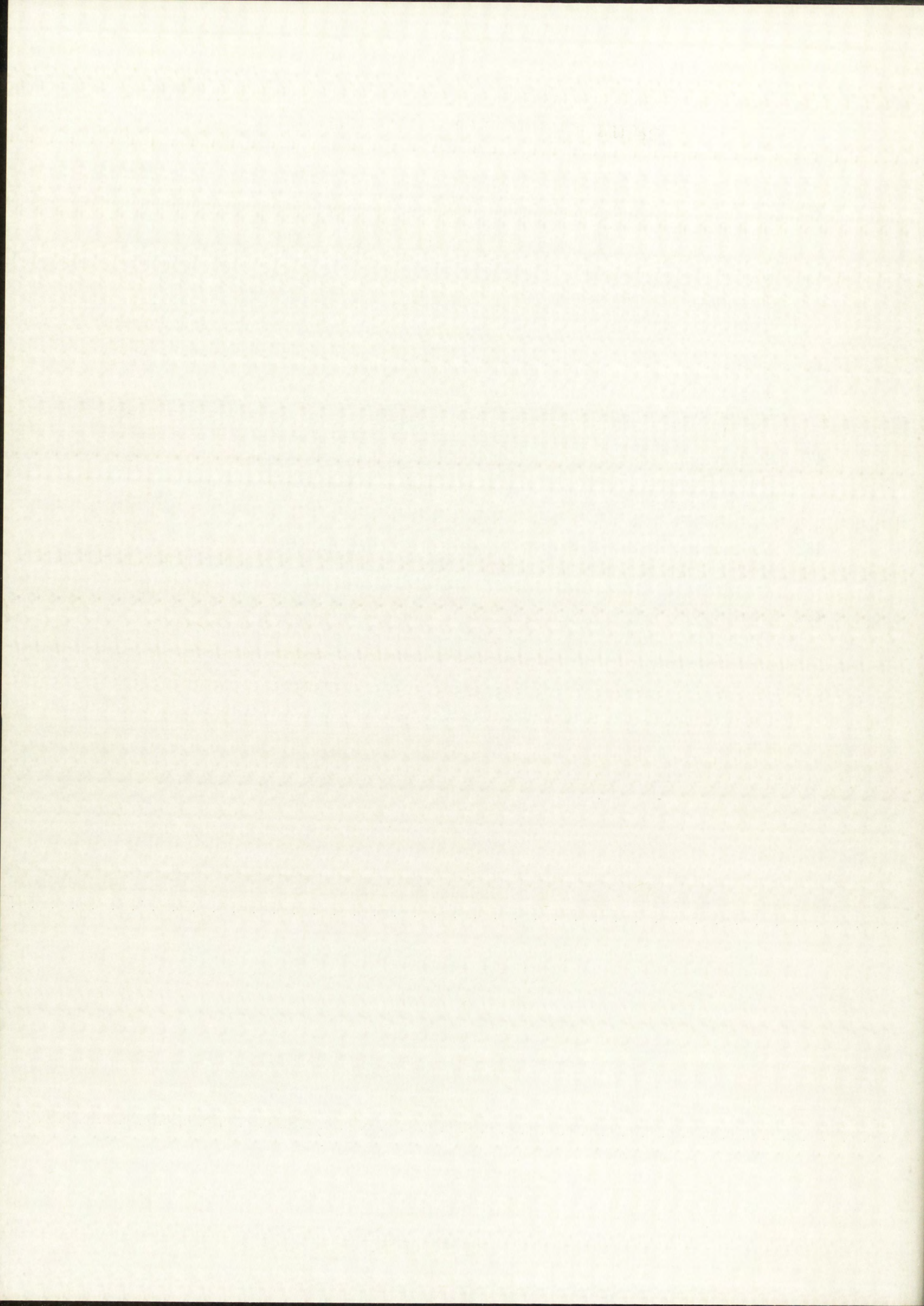
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THE CONTROL AND MEASUREMENT OF MINUTE CURVATURES IN A STEEL SHAFT

Introduction

The primary purpose of this thesis was the solution of several special problems relating to the establishment, adjustment, and measurement of small elastic curvatures and the associated strains in a metal shaft. The solution of these problems was an important link in the development of a new type of seismometer for measuring extremely long period earth vibrations (up to 60 seconds).^[1]* To achieve the sensitivity and long natural period of vibration required for accurate measurements of long-period waves,^[2] the seismometer employs a seismic mass which is suspended on an air film and constrained to follow an essentially horizontal guide rod. The guide rod, which was originally straight, is bowed elastically through use of a straining frame to form a plane curve which is concave upward. This combination of guidance and support forms a lightly damped gravity pendulum in which the seismic mass always seeks the lowest point on the curve. The natural period of this pendulum must be adjustable between the limits of 20 and 200 seconds to allow both ease of setup and high-fidelity performance. This is equivalent to saying that the guide-shaft radius of curvature must be adjustable from about 327 feet up to about 32,700 feet.

* Superscript numbers in [] brackets refer to references listed in the bibliography, page 81.

The Thesis Problems

Purpose

The problem of introducing these curvatures into the guide rod and measuring them was the principal concern of this thesis. Secondary objectives were: (1) to evaluate semiconductor strain gages for measuring minute strains, (2) to explore new ways to obtain precise functions through controlled elastic deformation, and (3) to develop a feasible technique for obtaining semicontinuous plots of minute elastic curves. A more complete explanation of the seismometer and the origin of the thesis problems is presented in Appendix I.

Scope

The following five closely related subprojects were undertaken in order to satisfy the primary purpose and still confine the thesis work to reasonable bounds.

1. The design of a straining frame to accurately induce and regulate the guide-shaft curvature. This frame was to be made compatible with the seismometer and designed for high stability with respect to time and temperature variations.
2. The calibration of the straining frame for theoretical periods and radii of curvature between 20 seconds or 350 feet and 200 seconds or 35,000 feet.
3. The verification of this calibration by completely different means.
4. The study of the fine details of several typical elastic curves introduced by loading, shaft weight, etc., so that the linearity of the seismometer may be evaluated.
5. The development of a measuring technique with sufficient accuracy and resolution to allow nearly continuous plots of minute curvatures to be drawn. The plotting of several

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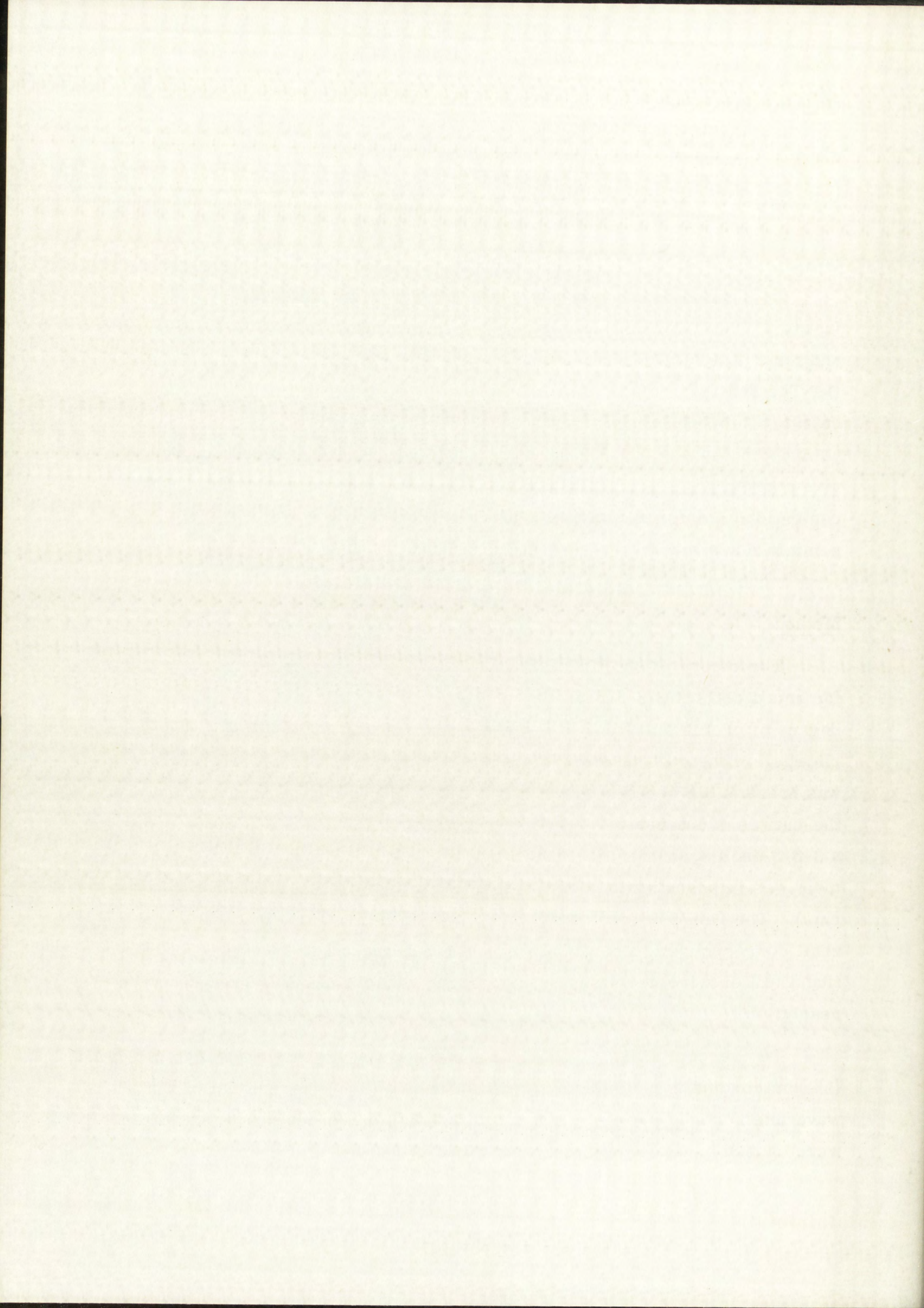
typical curves and the comparison of these with theoretical curves. This type of information was needed in order to evaluate and scientifically eliminate unwanted forces that were introduced into the seismometer by the suspension and readout systems.

In addition to the range of shaft curvatures already mentioned (350 feet to 35,000 feet), the following restrictions were imposed on the shaft and formulation of the problems because of the seismometer application: (1) The shaft was made of steel; (2) the shaft had a uniform 7/16-inch outside diameter and is 5-1/2 inches long; (3) the straining-frame load points were symmetrically oriented 3.375 inches and 4.375 inches apart to give approximately constant moment bending in the section between the two center load points; (4) only central loadings representative of interesting seismic mass loadings were considered; and (5) only approximately the center 2 inches of shaft curvature were of particular interest.

Method

The theory of shaft flexure is relatively simple and extremely accurate for small deflections. Thus the problems of this thesis were created by the degree of precision required in the measurements rather than by any complication of theory. Direct physical measurement of these elastic curves was not feasible because of the high degree of resolution needed. Some of the curves of interest had maximum deflections of about 4×10^{-6} inches in a 3-3/8-inch span. Another serious limitation on direct physical measurement was imposed by the best attainable surface finishes (1/2 to 1/4 μ in rms). The range of shaft curvatures needed in the 7/16-inch-diameter shaft corresponded to maximum strains of from 1.5 to 15 μ in/in. Conventional foil or wire resistance strain gages will not reliably give this type of resolution.

To overcome these limitations, two special techniques were employed: (1) semiconductor resistance strain gages and (2) measurement of light-wave interference patterns. The semiconductor resistance strain gages were chosen because they are from 30 to 100 times more sensitive than



conventional strain gages. Strain readings taken with semiconductor gages mounted to a dummy shaft were used in conjunction with flexure theory to calibrate the straining apparatus. The step of verification was made by timing the period of vibration of the seismic mass under different straining-frame settings. Fine detail study and continuous plotting were accomplished by taking measurements from photographs of optical fringe patterns set up on a dummy shaft. This dummy shaft was equipped with a very narrow, optically flat surface. The fringe pattern was set up between this flat and the reference-glass flat in the interferometer used. This procedure was chosen because no contact is made with the shaft, and a very precise quantity, the wavelength of helium green light, is used as the standard.

Straining-Frame Design

The design of a straining frame stable enough for use as a base for a 200-second seismometer required special attention. Practical considerations showed that tilts induced in the guide rod by the occurrence of stress relief or differential thermal expansion in any part of the seismometer structure would have to be held to less than 1×10^{-8} radians per week to make the instrument's extremely sensitive readout system useable. The important design considerations will now be discussed.

Shaft Dimensions and Load-Point Spacing

A 7/16-inch nominal diameter was selected for the guide rod because precision metal bushings were available in this diameter for use in developing the hydrodynamically suspended seismic mass needed in the seismometer. A minimum spacing between the inner walls or inner load-point surfaces of the straining frame of 3 inches for a 2-inch-long bushing was experimentally established. Lesser spacing resulted in excessive axial forces due to the aerodynamics of the spinning bushing. The requirements of extreme straightness, roundness, and constancy of diameter imposed on the guide rod by its role in the air-bearing suspension made it desirable to maximize the lateral stiffness of the rod for grinding. This was done by

making the rod as short as possible. The configuration and material shown in Figure 1 were chosen as the best compromise.

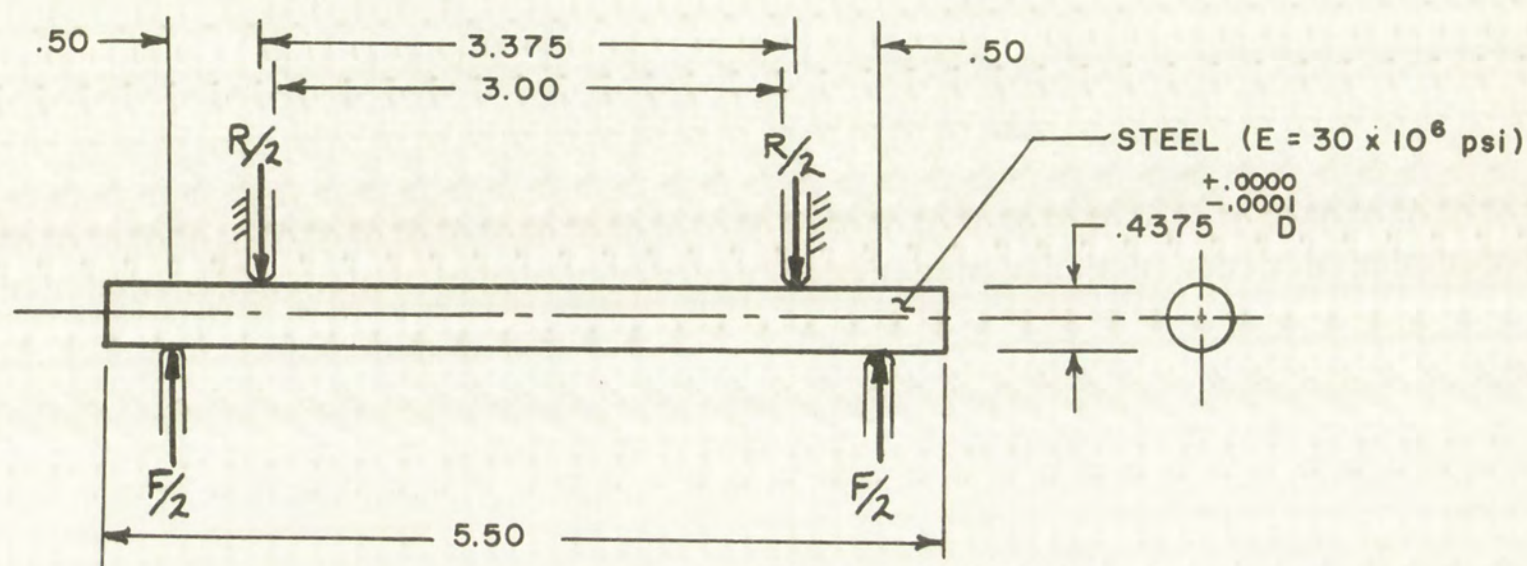
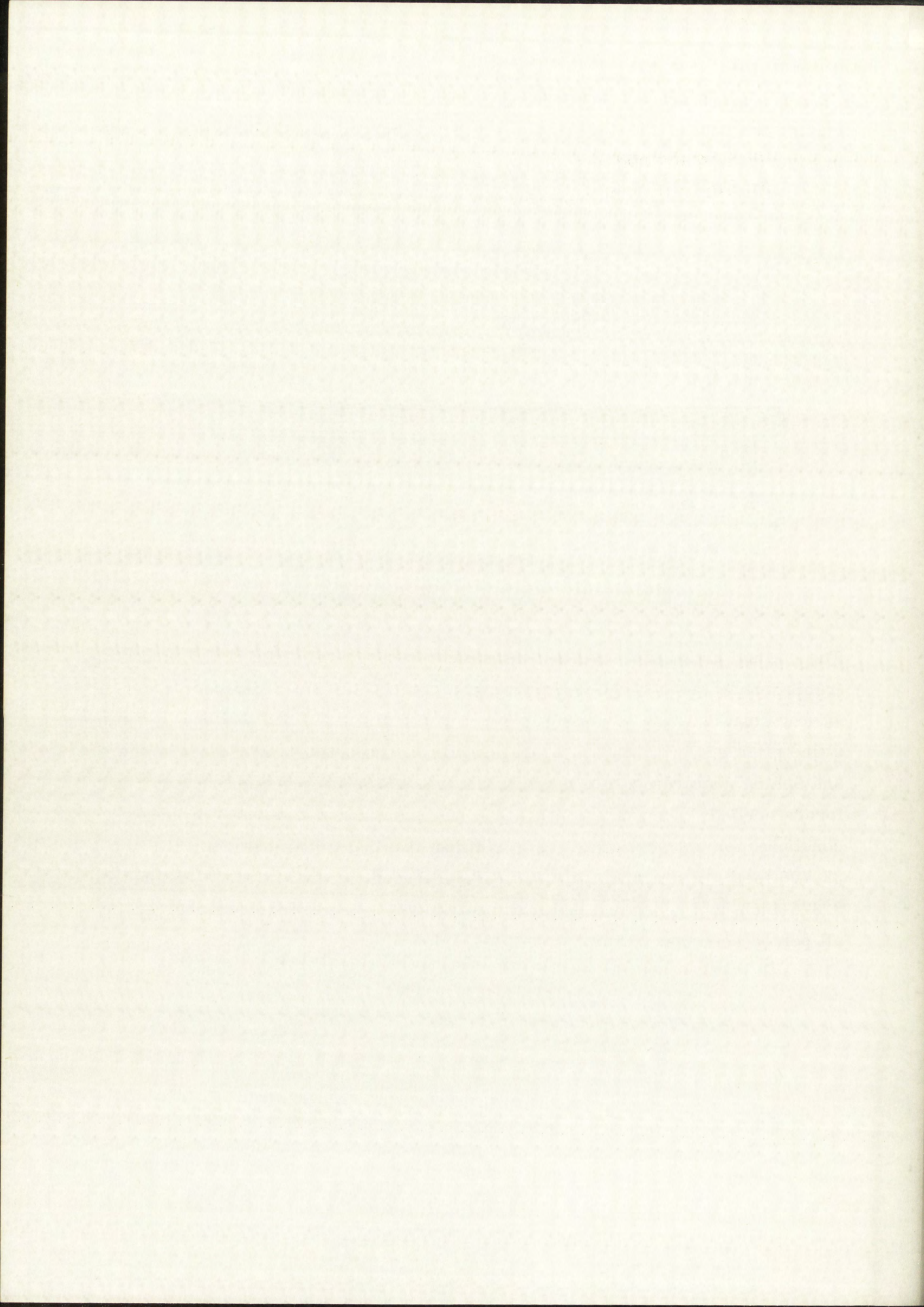


Figure 1. Straining-Frame Geometry

The method chosen for making the minute settings required of the straining frame was to use a large deflection of a spring element to produce a relatively small change in spring force. Practically, this can be done by using a fine pitch screw to extend a weak spring. The choice of the best screw and spring requires a knowledge of the resolution in force and range of forces needed. The maximum radius of curvature of interest for the constant-moment section of the guide rod (for 200-second period, $R_c = 32,700$ feet) corresponds to a central deflection, δ , of 7.3×10^{-6} inches in 3.375-inch central span. A maximum error of ± 1 percent was desired for all period settings. Thus, since the period of a gravity pendulum is:

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{R_c}{g}}$$



where

T = period of vibration (sec)

R_c = radius of curvature (in), and

g = gravitational constant = 386 in/sec^2 ,

and the radius of curvature in the constant moment is

$$R_c \propto \frac{1}{\delta}$$

where

δ = the central deflection (in)

thus the equation for the natural period of vibration may be written as

$$T \propto \sqrt{\frac{1}{\delta}} \quad \text{or} \quad T = C \sqrt{\frac{1}{\delta}}$$

where

C = constant = 0.538 in this situation.

Let $\Delta\delta$ equal the maximum permissible error in δ , and ΔT equal the maximum permissible error in T (1 percent of the nominal period T in this case). Thus, if the period T were set into the frame, the measured or true period should be within 1 percent of T . This may be written

$$T - \Delta T = C \sqrt{\frac{1}{\delta + \Delta\delta}} = 0.99T,$$

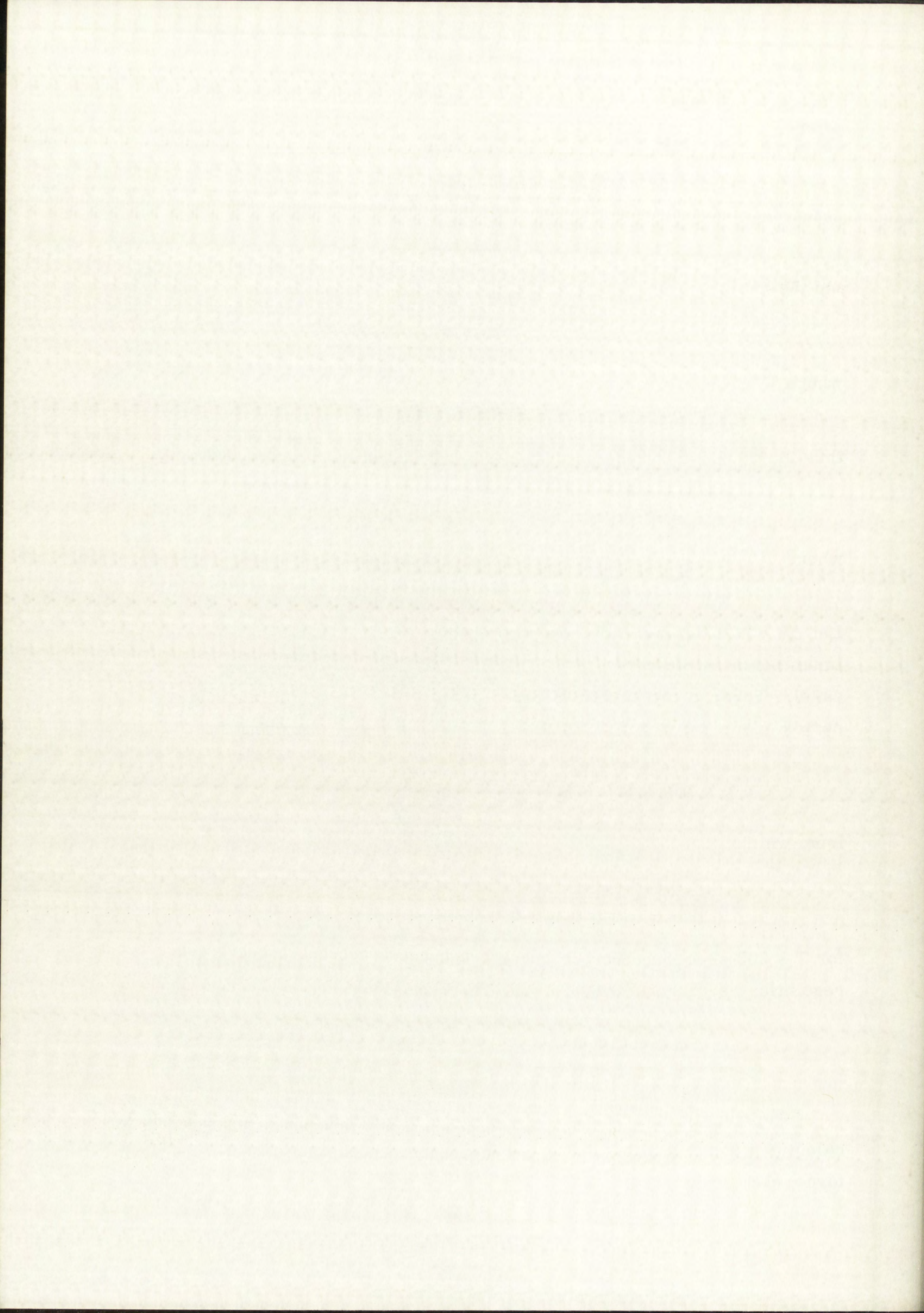
from which

$$\Delta\delta = \frac{C^2}{(T - \Delta T)^2} - \delta$$

for $T = 200$ seconds, $\Delta T = 2$ seconds, and $\delta = 7.3 \mu \text{ in}$; therefore, the resolution required in the central deflection is

$$\Delta\delta = \frac{(0.538)^2}{(198)^2} - 7.30 \times 10^{-6} = 7.39 - 7.30 \approx 0.1 \mu \text{ in.}$$

In order to determine the degree of force resolution needed, the $\Delta\delta$ calculated above will be converted into a maximum permissible change in force, ΔF .



Since only an approximation is needed, the rod will be assumed weightless and without any bushing load. For a constant moment section, the central deflection is given by the formula:

$$\delta = \frac{F d \ell^2}{16 E I}$$

where

d = spacing between the inner and outer load points = 0.5 in

$$E = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$$

$$I = \frac{1}{4} \pi r^4 = \frac{\pi}{4} (0.2188)^4 = 1.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ in}^4$$

$$\ell = 3.375 \text{ in}$$

or in terms of permissible errors,

$$\Delta \delta = \frac{\Delta F d \ell^2}{16 E I}$$

Solving for ΔF , the desired resolution in force is

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta F &= \frac{16 E I \Delta \delta}{\ell^2 d} = \frac{16 \times 30 \times 10^6 \times 1.8 \times 10^{-3} \times 1 \times 10^{-7}}{(3.375)^2 \times 0.5} \\ &= 0.0152 \text{ lbs} \\ &= 1.52 \times 10^5 \Delta \delta \text{ lbs.} \end{aligned}$$

Using the same formulas, one finds that the maximum force needed (for 20-second period, $\delta = 7.3 \times 10^{-4}$ inches) is

$$F_{\max} = 1.52 \times 10^5 \times 7.3 \times 10^{-4} = 111 \text{ lbs.}$$

If 1 inch of spring deflection is arbitrarily selected to give this maximum force, the spring constant becomes $k_S = 111 \text{ lbs/in.}$

If the 0.0152-pound resolution determined necessary above is to be maintained, this means that the 1 inch of spring deflection must be broken down into $111/0.0152 = 7300$ parts, or $1 \text{ inch}/7300 = 0.000137\text{-inch}$ increments. An 80-pitch thread is about the finest practical thread. This

pitch has a lead of 0.0125 inch per revolution so that each revolution would have to be broken into approximately 100 increments. Additional setting accuracy can be gained by adding a vernier scale to the 100-increment dial to further break each of these increments into 10 parts. This design was used: (1) 1-inch maximum travel, (2) $k_S \approx 111$ lb/in, (3) 80-pitch thread, and (4) scales and vernier to break each revolution into 1000 parts.

Material Selection

Hot-rolled 1018 steel was chosen for the basic structural material because it is soft, easy to machine, stable with time, easy to weld, and gives minimum distortion during machining. After welding, several times during rough machining, and again before final machining, the 1018 parts were uniformly heated to provide stress relief and were then slowly cooled to room temperature. This process reduced the warping, during and after machining, to the lowest possible figure. All parts of the frame except the spring and load points were made of 1018 steel. The spring was made of plain, heat-treated, high-carbon spring wire to match as closely as possible the thermal expansion of the rest of the frame.

Load-Point Design

The internal surfaces of the load rings were given a 1/2-inch radiused profile so that there would be a repeatable point (more realistically, an elliptical area) of contact, see Figure 2.

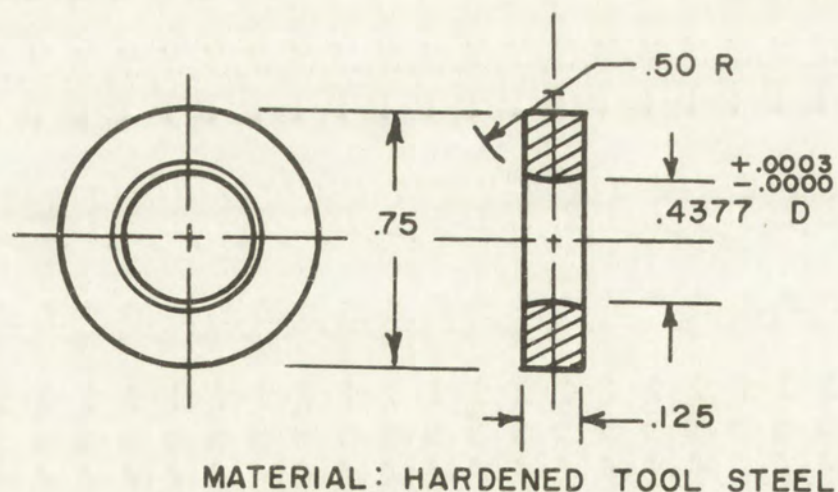


Figure 2. Load Ring

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These rings were made of hardened tool steel to withstand the high contact stresses without yielding.

Elimination of Stress Risers

In the interest of even greater stability, all welds were ground smooth and all machined parts amply filleted to eliminate stress concentrations which might possibly throw certain areas of the frame into the yield stress region during use.

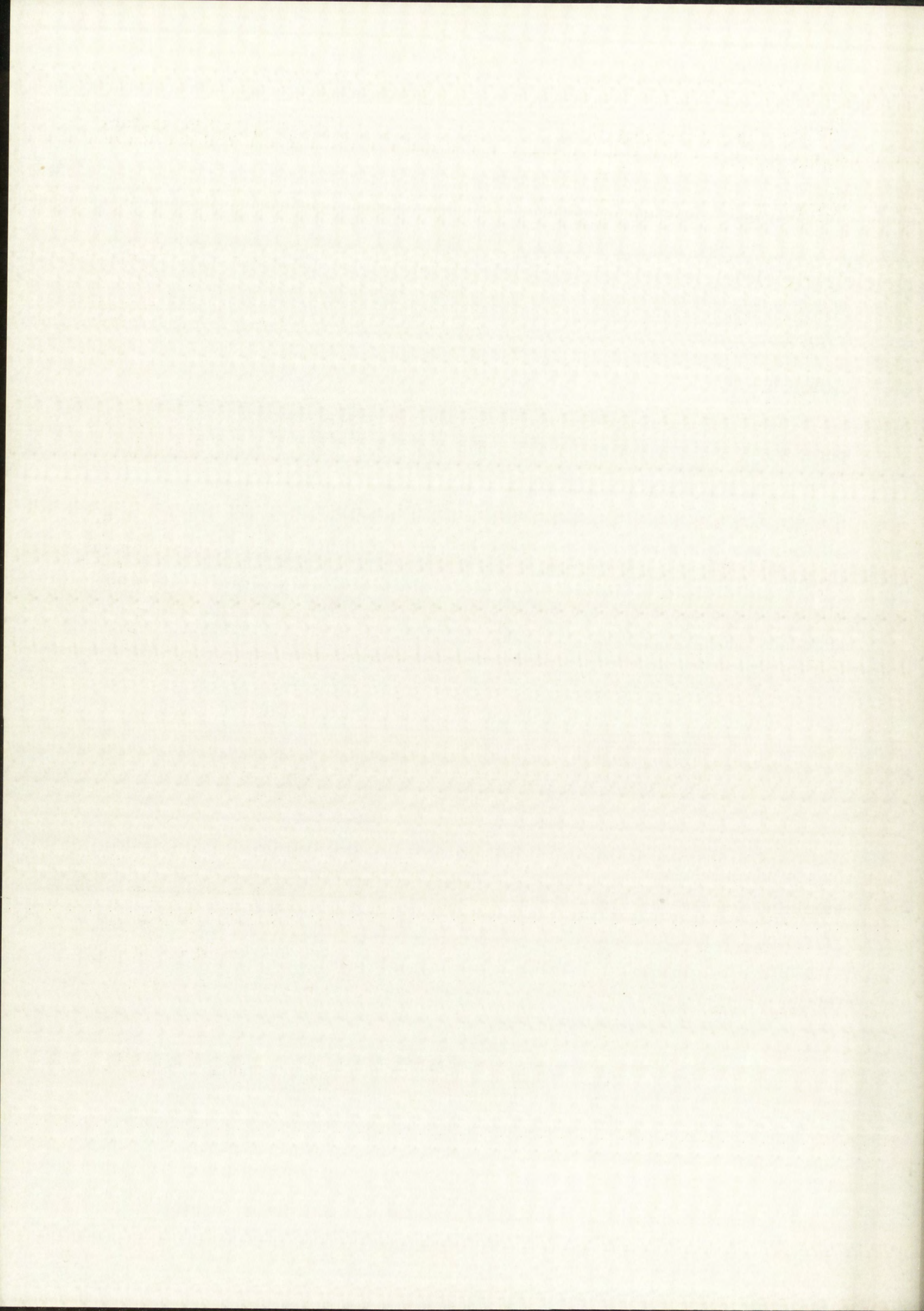
Final Design

The final straining-frame design layout, a photo of the frame, and a photograph of the parts is shown in Figures 3, 4, and 5. Notice that the minimum thickness of any structural part is 0.25 inch. This design includes all of the features and considerations mentioned above. In addition, all waste motions were reduced to the absolute minimum possible with hand fitting. This frame has been used successfully for more than 1 year, and all indications show that both the material and method of construction are adequate for the final instrument design. Detailed drawings of the parts are included in Appendix II.

Selection and Mounting of Semiconductor Resistance Strain Gages for Straining-Frame Calibration

The extreme resolution required in the straining-frame adjustment had to be matched with an equally sensitive method of calibration if the straining-frame settings were to be useful in establishing long periods of vibration for the seismometer. A simple calculation converts the required straining-frame resolution ($\Delta F = 0.0152$ pounds) into an equivalent resolution in maximum strain, $\Delta \epsilon$.

$$\Delta \epsilon = \frac{\Delta F dy}{2EI} = \frac{0.0152 \times 0.5 \times 0.21875}{2 \times 30 \times 10^6 \times 1.8 \times 10^{-3}} = 1.54 \times 10^{-8} \text{ in/in}$$



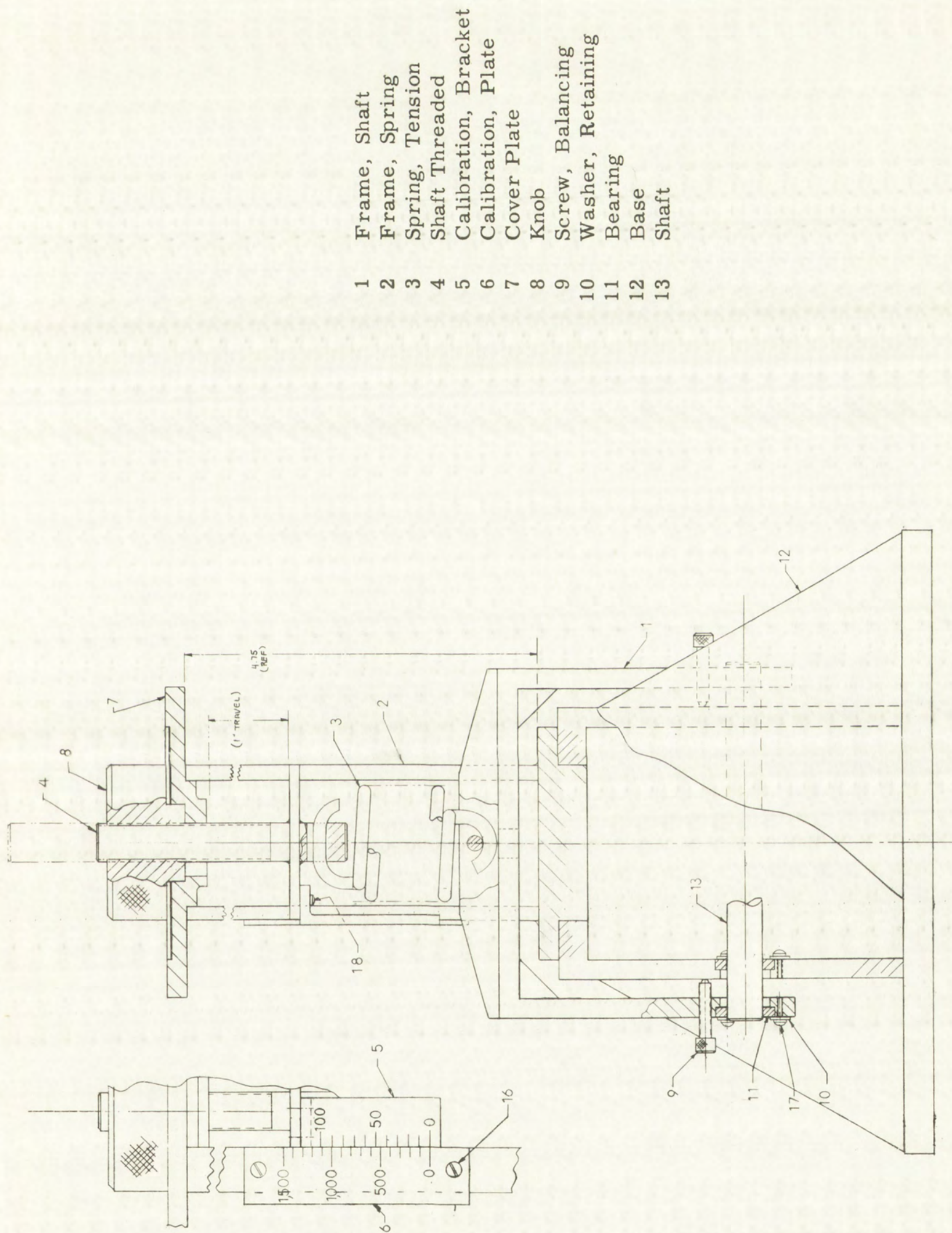
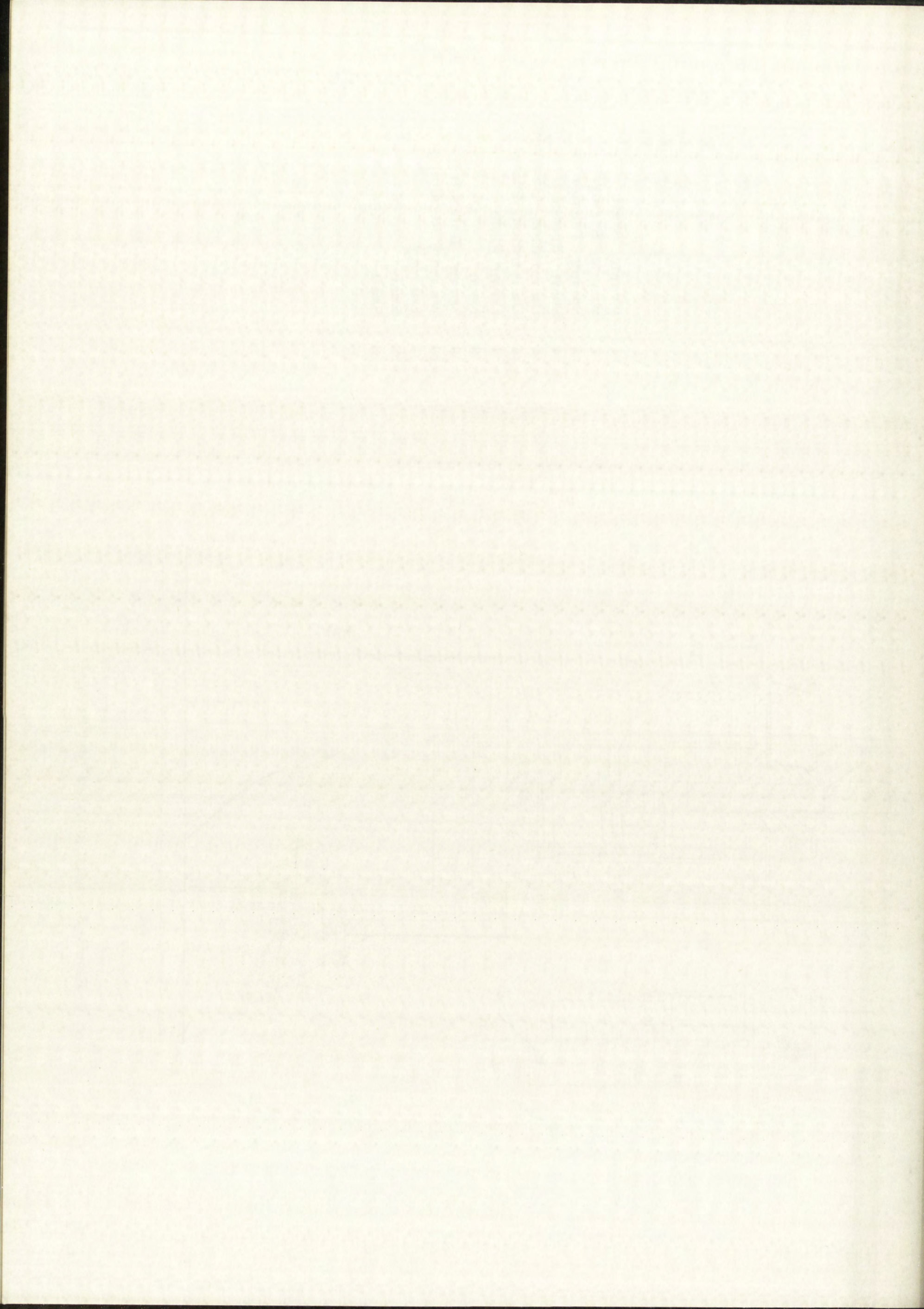


Figure 3. Seismometer Test Fixture



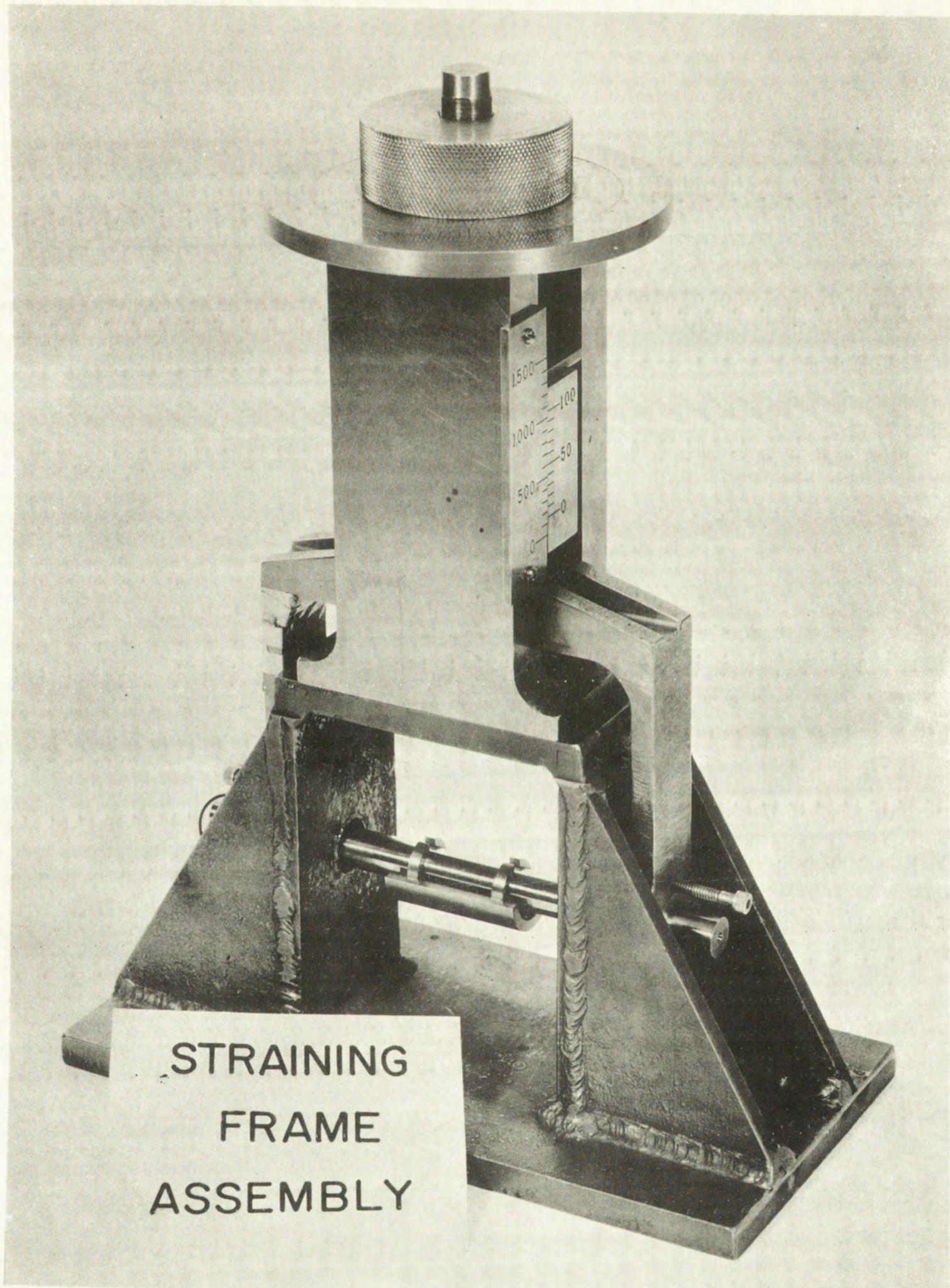
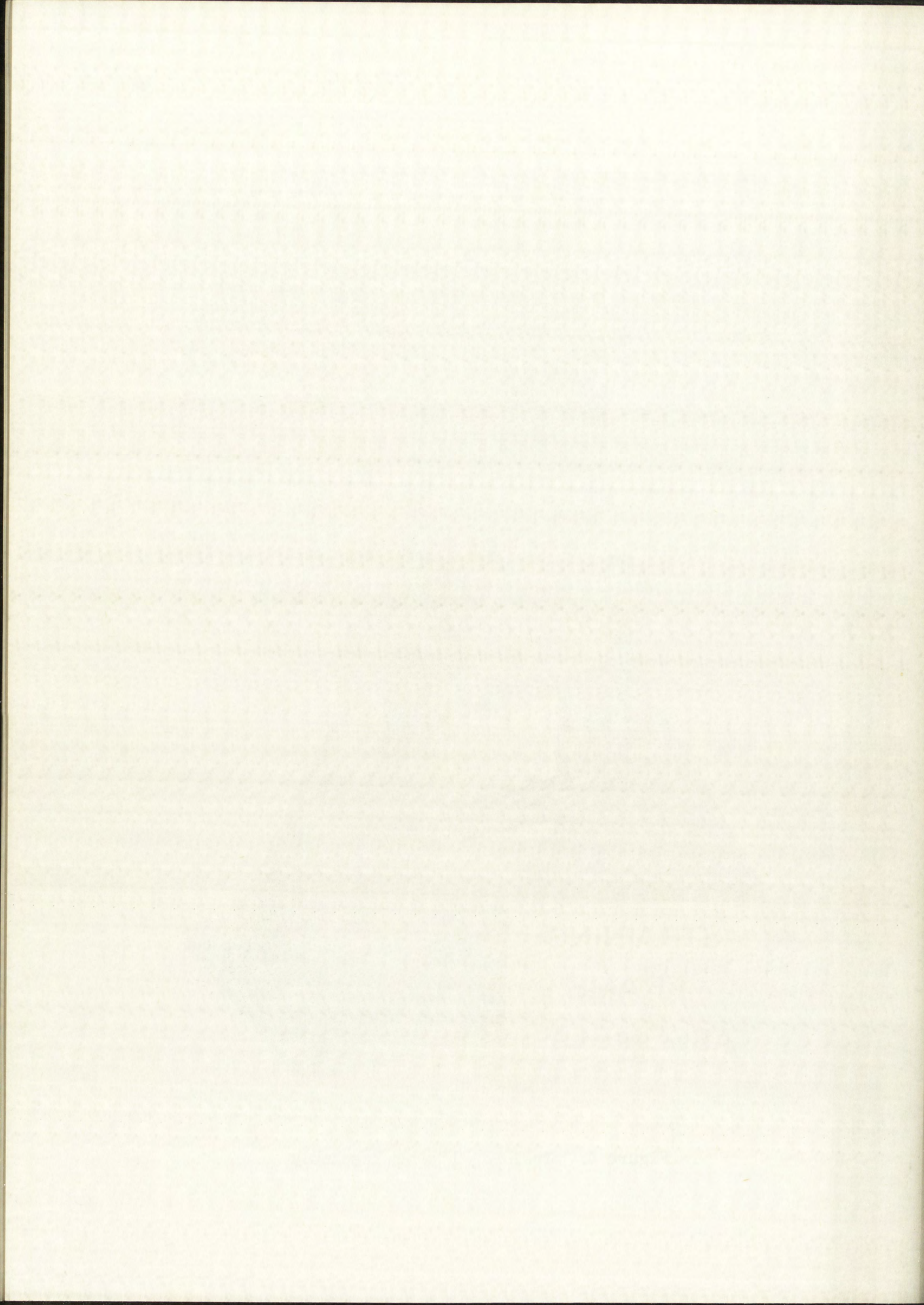


Figure 4. Straining-Frame Assembly



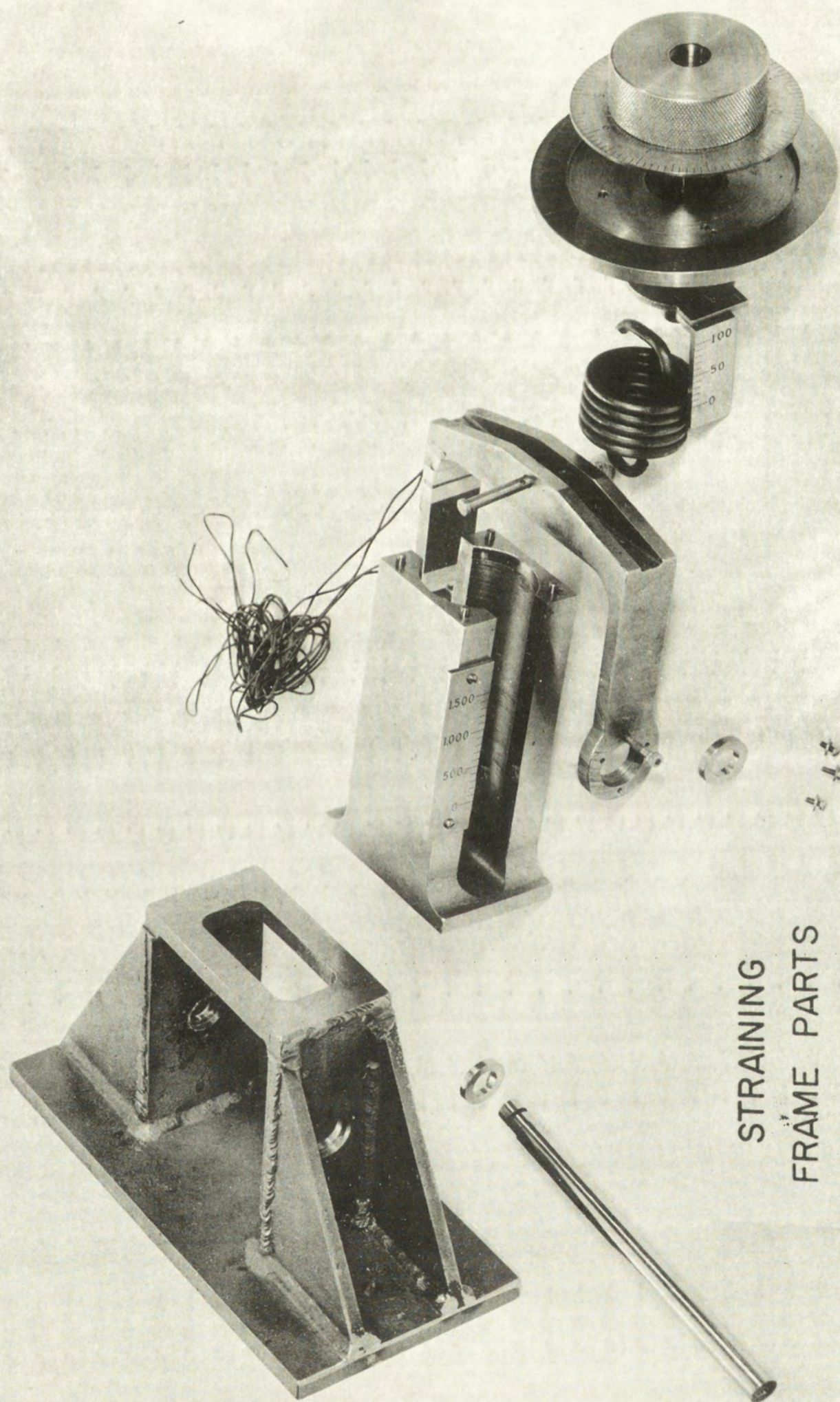
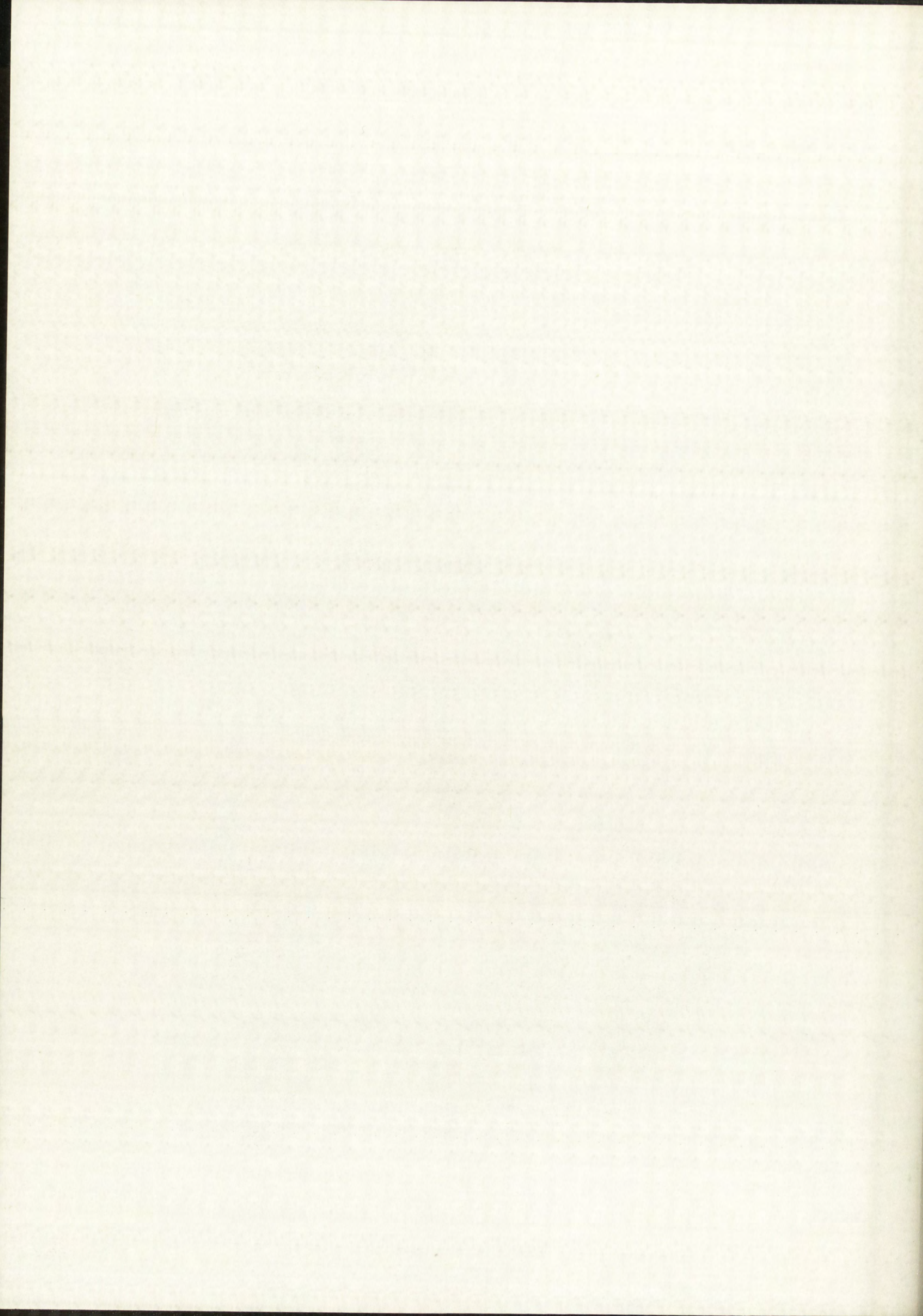


Figure 5. Straining-Frame Parts



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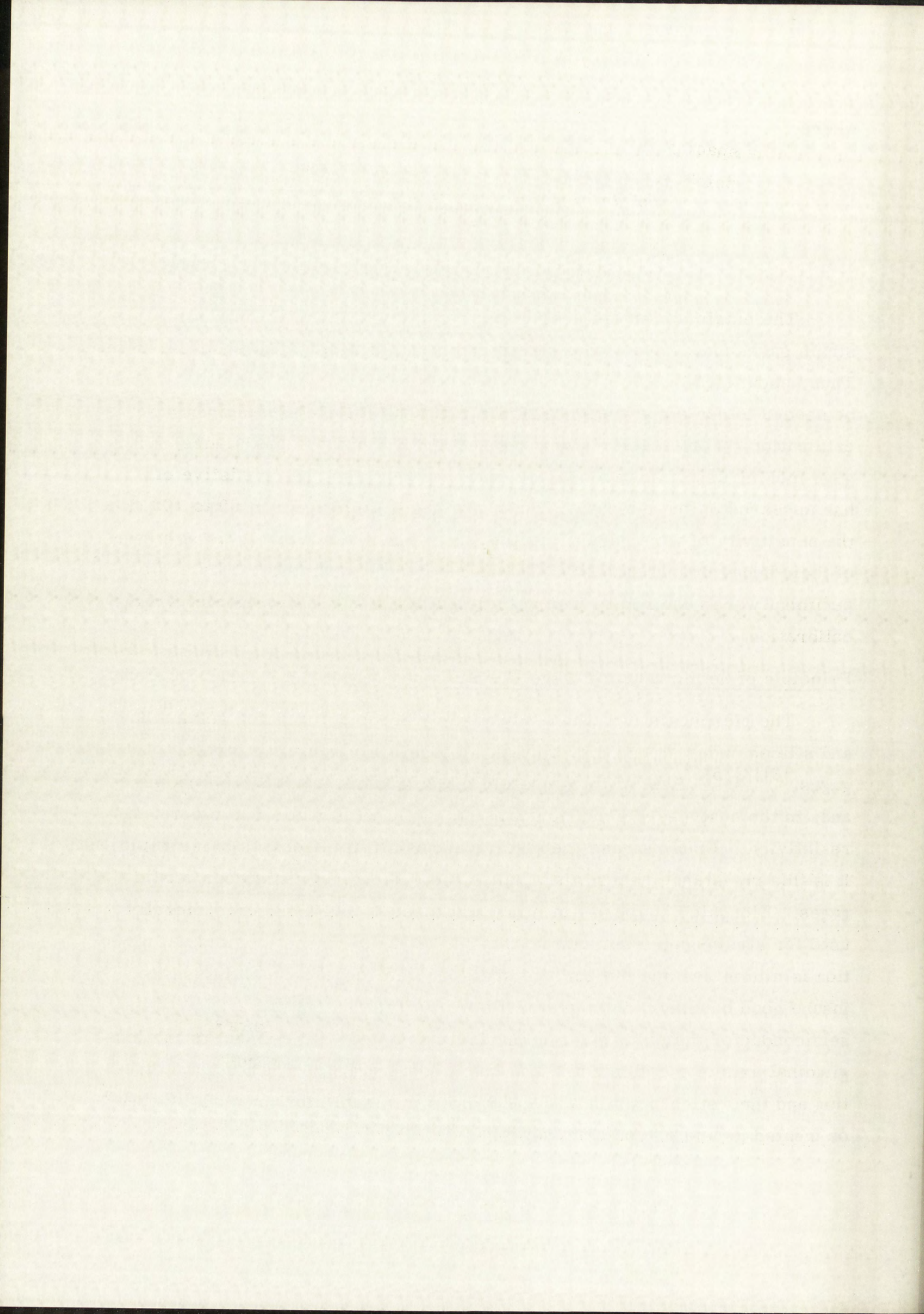
d = spacing between inner and outer load
points = 0.5 in,

y = distance from neutral axis to most
distant fiber = r = 0.2187 in.

The maximum strain resolution feasible with conventional wire-type strain gages and conventional strain-indicating equipment is about $1 \mu\text{in/in}$. Thus, about $(1.54 \times 10^{-8}) / (1 \times 10^{-6}) \approx 70$ times more gage sensitivity would be needed to use a conventional strain indicator for the straining-frame calibration. Fortunately, a new type of highly sensitive resistance strain gage making use of semiconductor materials and the piezoresistive effect has appeared on the market. These new gages do have from 30 to 100 times the sensitivity of wire gages, but they are so new that very little is known of their behavior and stability. It was realized that further study and experiment were required to insure their suitability for the straining-frame calibration.

Principle of Semiconductor Gage Performance

The piezoresistive effect exhibited by properly oriented germanium and silicon under stress may be used to form very sensitive strain gages. [3][4][5] Both of these materials have cubic crystalline structure and, in the unstressed condition, are isotropic with respect to electrical resistivity. Under stress the electrical resistivity becomes anisotropic. It is this resistance change that makes them useful as resistance strain gages. Elongated shapes of minimal cross-sectional area are generally used for strain-gage elements so that the stiffness in the longitudinal direction is minimized and the surface area per unit length is maximized (to insure good bonding). For greatest sensitivity, the crystal lattice of the semiconductor material must be properly oriented with respect to the longitudinal axis of the element. The chart below (Figure 6) shows the direction and theoretical maximum gage factors attainable for properly "doped" or treated n- and p-type compositions. [6]



Material	Unstressed volumetric resistivity, ρ (ohm-cm)	Orientation of longitudinal axis for maximum sensitivity	Maximum gage factor $\frac{\Delta R/R}{\epsilon}$
Ge (p-type)	1.1	Equal angles with three crystal axes	+101.5
Ge (n-type)	16.6	Equal angles with three crystal axes	-157
Si (p-type)	7.8	Equal angles with three crystal axes	+175
Si (n-type)	11.7	Parallel to a crystal axis	-133

Figure 6. Table of Piezoresistive Properties

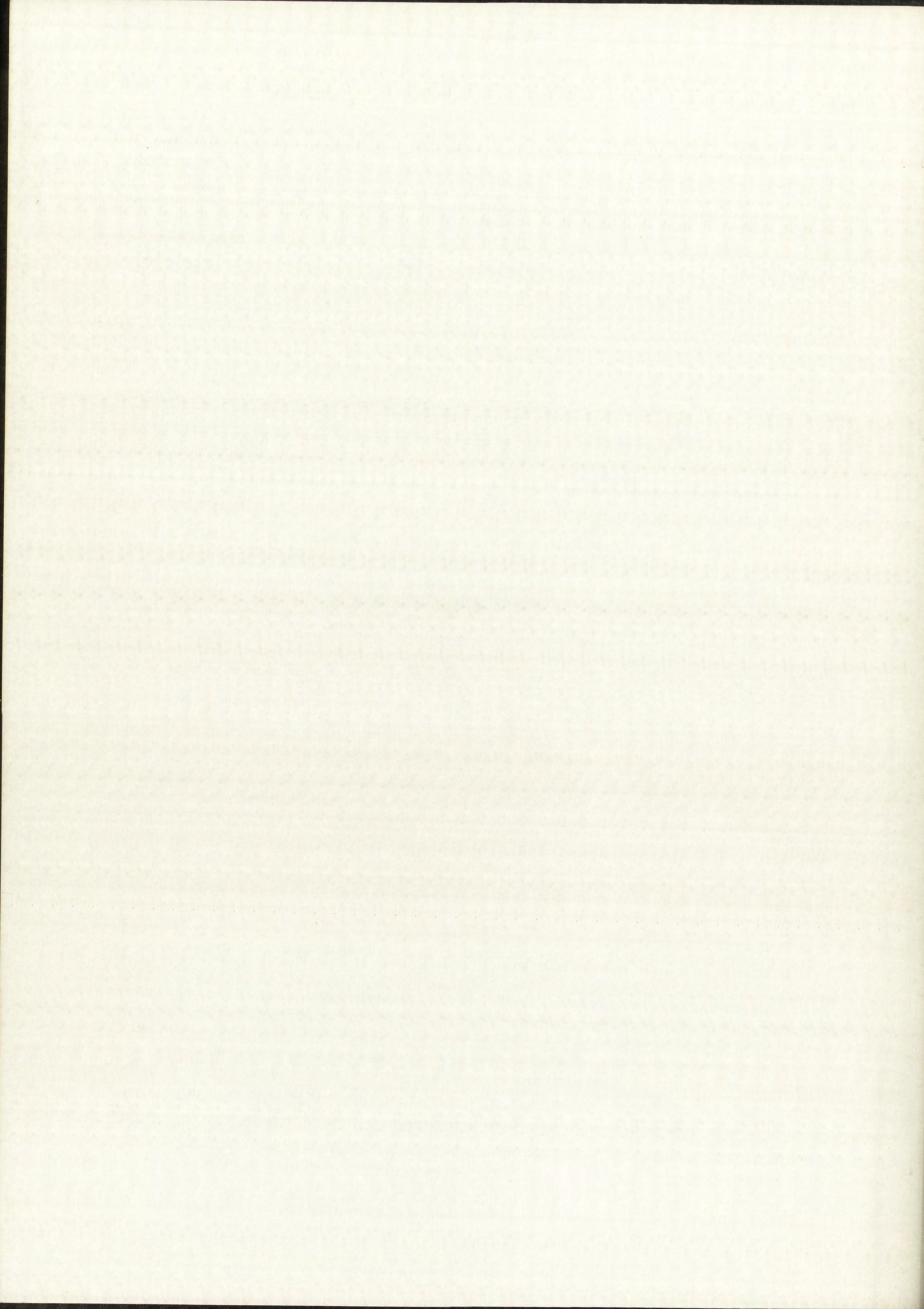
The maximum gage factors are generally not sought in semiconductor gage design because increased temperature sensitivity accompanies the heavy doping required. See References [3] through [9] for a more complete mathematical and physical description of semiconductor resistance gage performance.

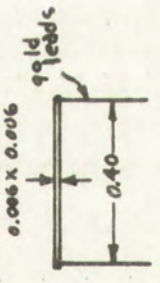
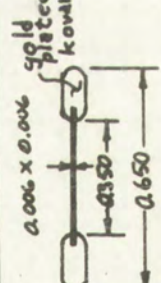
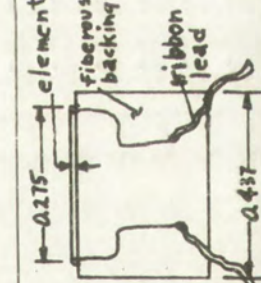
Semiconductor Gage Selection

Types Available -- Only three companies were making semiconductor gages during work on this thesis. Design data on these three types are presented in Figure 7.

Thermal Behavior and Stability

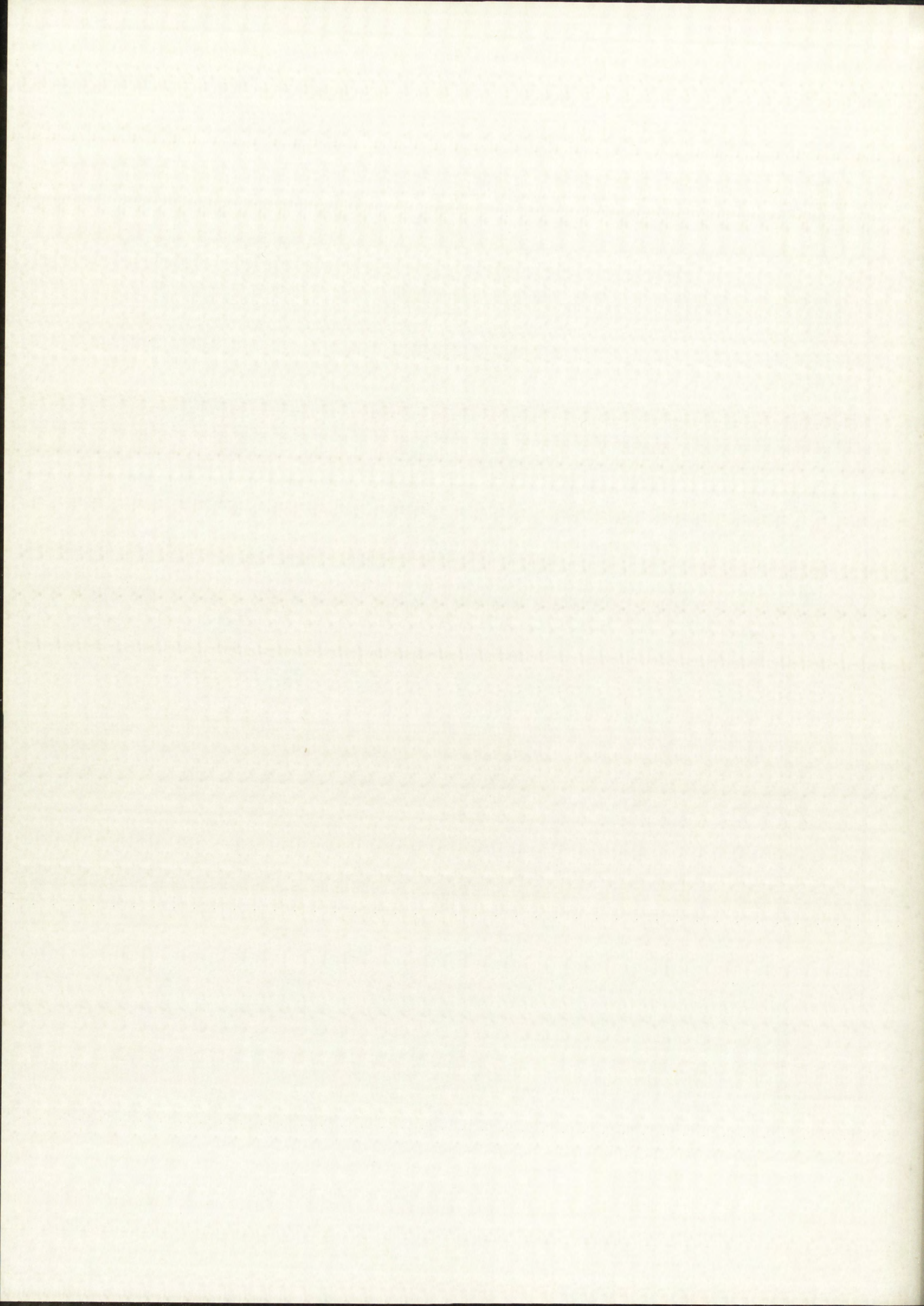
All semiconductor resistance strain gages are very temperature-sensitive.^{[6][8]} A graph of the temperature characteristics of the Model 711 Strainistor is shown in Figure 8; it is typical of the three types presently available. It is apparent that large thermal errors may be obtained, even with normal temperature variations. All of the manufacturer's data show that near-perfect temperature compensation can be achieved through use of two gages mounted to the same type of material in adjacent legs of the



Manufacturer	No. of Gage	Shape and Gage Length	Material	Nominal Resistance, R (ohms)	Gage Factor $\frac{\Delta R/R}{\epsilon}$	Linearity for Full Scale, for Single Gage (%)	Maximum Useful Strain (μ in/in)	Maximum Recommended Current (ma)
Bell Telephone Laboratories (experimental gages)	-		Ge (n-type)	70	65-75	?	?	?
Century Electronics	Strainistor Model 711		Si (p-type)	120 ohms $\pm 5\%$ (in matched pairs) 120 ohms $\pm 0.5\%$	120-140	2.5	± 2000	30
Kulite Bytrex Corporation	Kulite Model DA-101		Si (p-type)	62 ± 2	118 $\pm 5\%$?	± 1500	20

Recommended Bonding Agent	Bonding Technique	Lead Attachment	Difficulty of Gage Attachment	Comments
C-4 EPY-150	Must first apply insulating layer and let harden, then bond gage itself.	Solder to existing gold-plated lead (hard to keep from melting).	Very difficult to handle and position. Very brittle.	Not commercially available.
Eastman 910 EPY-150 Mithra No. 200	Must first apply insulating layer and let harden, then bond gage itself.	Solder to thin plates to end of gage. (Very hard to keep from breaking bond with soldering heat.)	Comes with handling frame. Easy to handle and bond, but frame obscures element and makes positioning difficult.	Cost \$35.00 each. More information available on this gage than on Bytrex type.
A-2 EPY-150	Bonds directly.	Solder to metal ribbons (easy).	Easy to handle and position.	

Figure 7. Semiconductor Gage Comparison Table



MODEL 711 STRAINISTOR

DATE 3-25-60

SENSITIVITY FACTOR 123 \pm 5%

LOT NO. 101

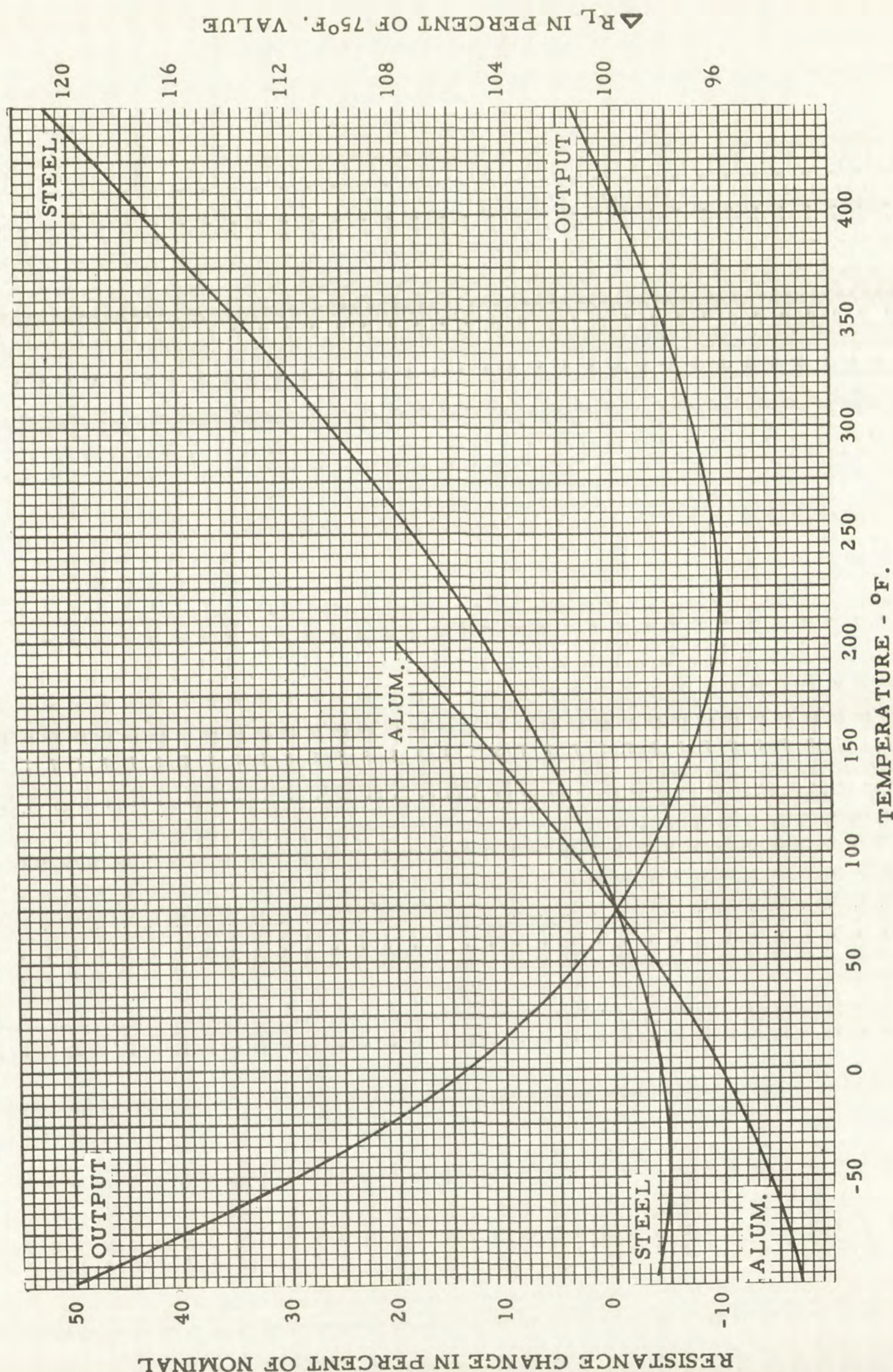
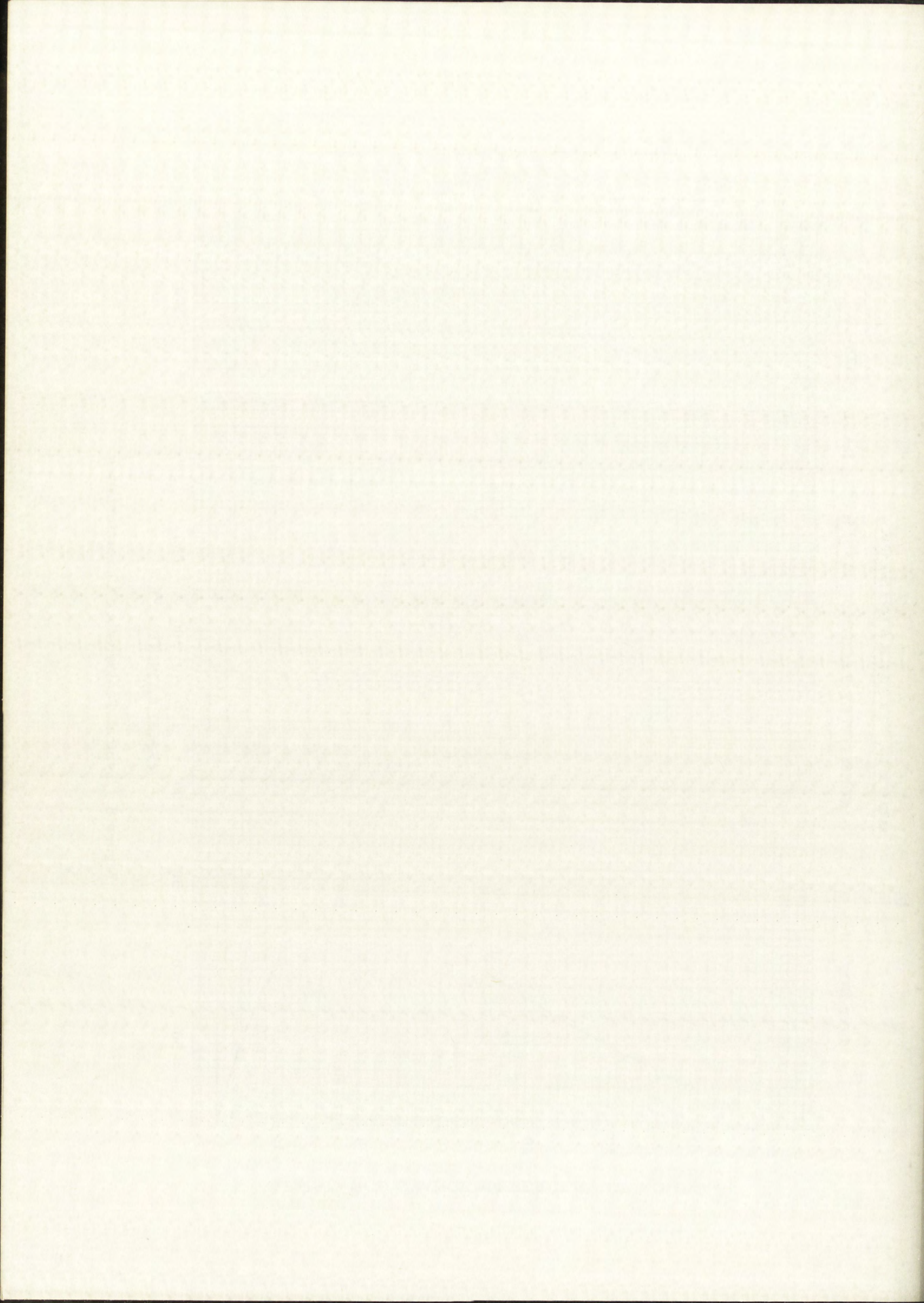


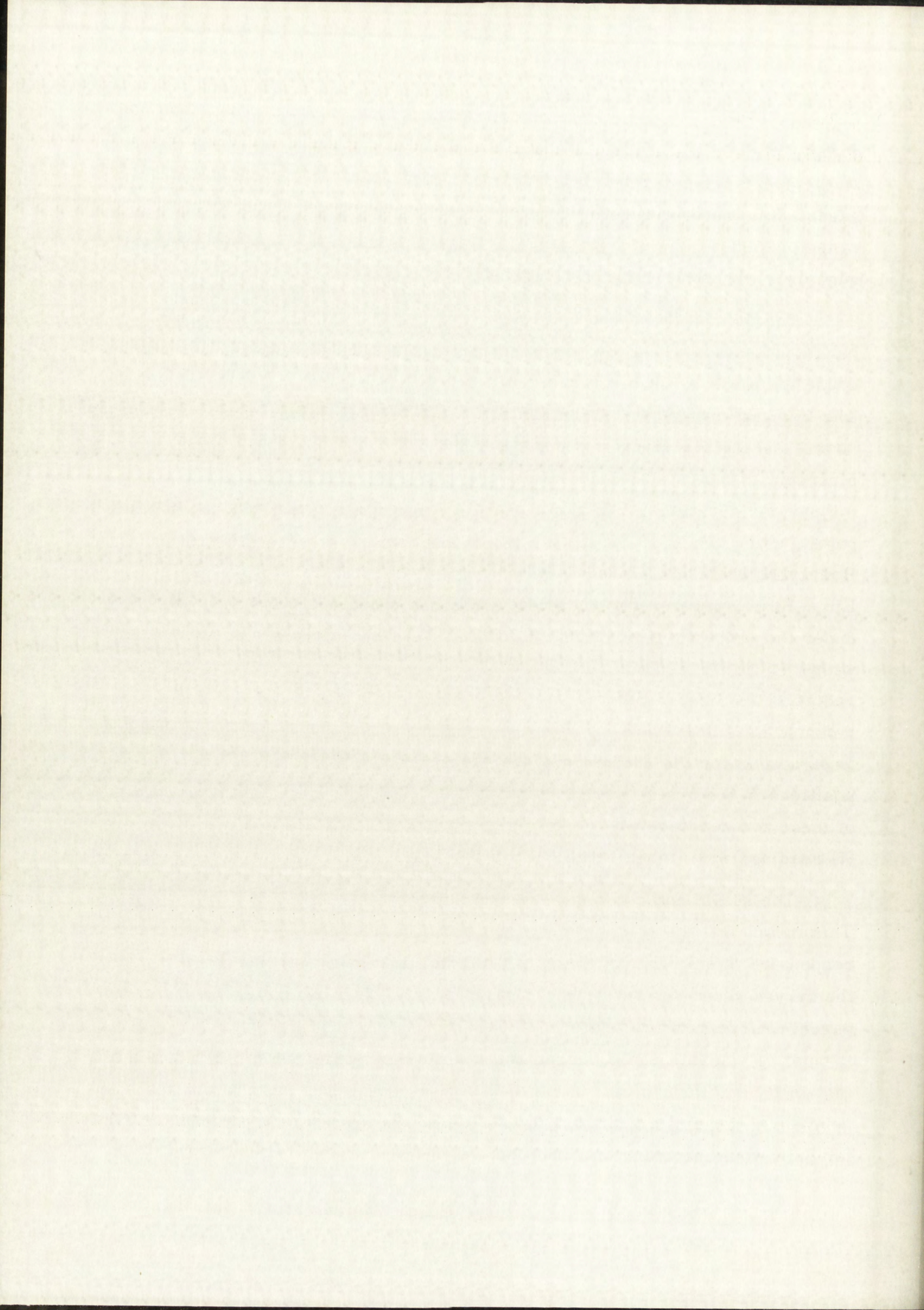
Figure 8. Typical Temperature Characteristics



indicator bridge circuit. This may be done either with one active and one dummy gage or with two active gages in the same manner that wire gages are temperature-compensated. With two active temperature-compensating gages, Strainistor claims a departure from linearity over the entire usable range of 2000μ in/in of 2 percent. In contrast, the departure with one active gage over the same range is 10 percent.

The thermal behavior and linearity were not particularly important considerations in selection of a gage for the straining-frame calibration because temperature compensation with two active gages was to be employed. The final calibration was to be carried out in a $\pm 1^\circ\text{F}$ temperature-controlled room, and the maximum measured strain was to be only 100μ in/in or about 5 percent of the rated maximum for the gages. Stability, however, was a major consideration. A 1-month stability test was run on BTL germanium gages, using two A-18 SR-4 wire gages for comparison (see Figure 9). Both types were bonded with Armstrong's C-4 epoxy cement. A Baldwin-Lima-Hamilton SR-4 Type N strain indicator was used. The test was made under the following controlled conditions: (1) temperature was controlled within $\pm 1^\circ\text{F}$; (2) test was run under a cover to protect gages from thermal radiation and heat currents; (3) a set testing cycle was used; (4) gages were mounted in temperature-compensating pairs; (5) gages were lightly strained to 42μ in/in for the entire time; (6) gage readings were taken, then the gage positions in the bridge were reversed, new readings made, and the average of these two readings was used to reduce indicator drifts to a minimum; and (7) readings were taken twice daily 5 days per week.

The strain-indicator gage factor selector was set at 1.8 for both gages. This meant that the germanium gages should have been $\frac{67.3}{1.8} \approx 37$ times more responsive to cold flow of the epoxy bonding material than the SR-4's. As the curves show, the two types of gages showed approximately the same apparent drift tendencies and even about the same statistical variation. Thus, it must be concluded that the indicator drift was by far the major source of instability and that, on the basis of this test, one would have to say that the germanium gages were at least as stable as the SR-4's. Apparently, indicator drift would be more of a problem in calibration than gage draft.



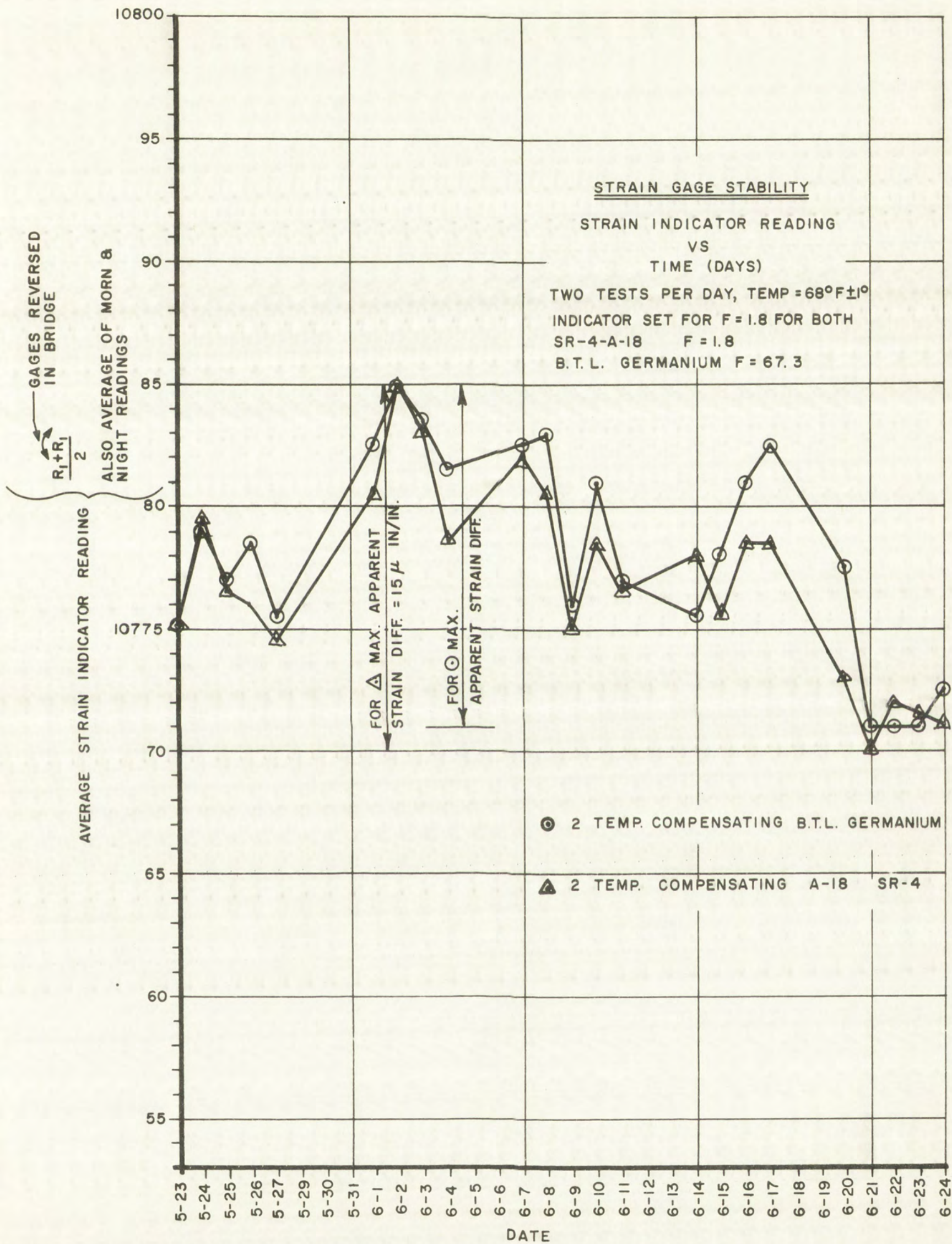


Figure 9. Strain Gage Stability with Time

100-100000
100-100000

Mounting Considerations

The natural location for gages to calibrate the straining frame would be at the center of a dummy shaft (identical to the seismometer guide rod). The best combination of temperature compensation and sensitivity would be realized with gages mounted at the top and bottom of the shaft in positions to measure the maximum tensile and compressive strains, and connected in adjacent legs of the indicator bridge.^[10] Thus, the gage selection should be made on the basis of the best gage for mounting parallel to the longitudinal axis of a 7/16-inch-diameter dummy shaft.

A comparison of shape, sensitivity, and availability of information showed the Strainistor Model 711 to be the best choice for the calibration even though it was harder to handle and position than the Kulite DA-101. In addition, the Kulite gage was too wide for convenient mounting to the shaft. See Figure 10a for a picture of the Strainistor in the holding bracket with which it comes.

Special Problems

Mounting and testing the strainistor gages presented special problems. Baldwin-Lima-Hamilton EPY-150 epoxy cement was chosen for the bonding agent because it is convenient to use (it comes in a two-chambered plastic tube; mixing of the two ingredients is done inside the tube) and has been especially developed for strain-gage work. First, two sets of gage locating lines were carefully scribed into the shaft at diametrically opposite locations. When the surface was slightly roughened with 320-grit emery paper and thoroughly cleaned with acetone, a coat of EPY-150, about 0.003 inch thick, was brushed on the mounting areas and allowed to cure. A positioning jig was made using a V-block for holding and centering the shaft and a rectangular guide hole (which just fit the Strainistor holder) to act as a guide for the gage. Next, a liberal coat of EPY-150 was brushed on the gage area and the gage positioned with the aid of the jig. The gage holder was left to supply the needed bonding pressure. Once the epoxy had cured, the holder was removed and a thin additional layer of epoxy applied over the top of the gage element. Next, the leads were soldered to the end tabs. Extreme care was needed to avoid loosening the epoxy bond during soldering

1900

The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been elected to the office of the Board of Directors of the Company for the year ending December 31, 1900. The names are listed in alphabetical order of their surnames.

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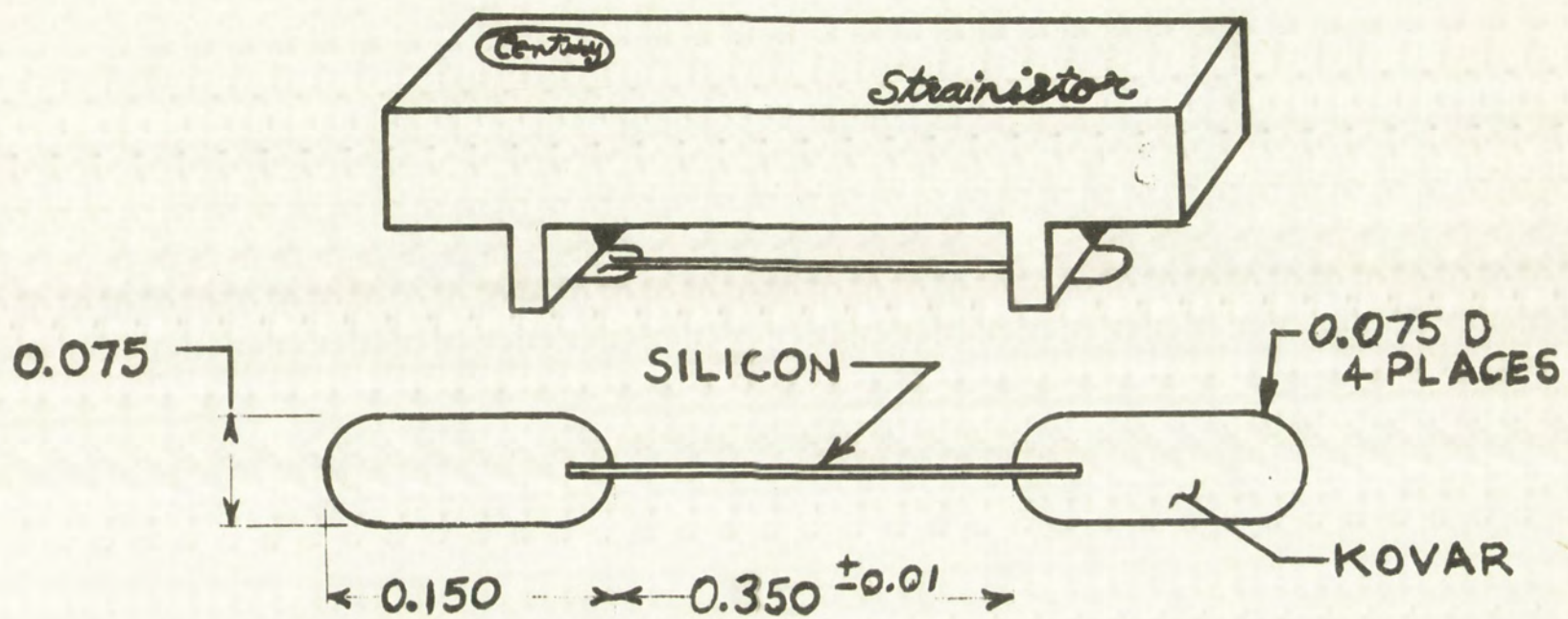


Figure 10(a). Model 711 Strainistor Gage in Handling Frame

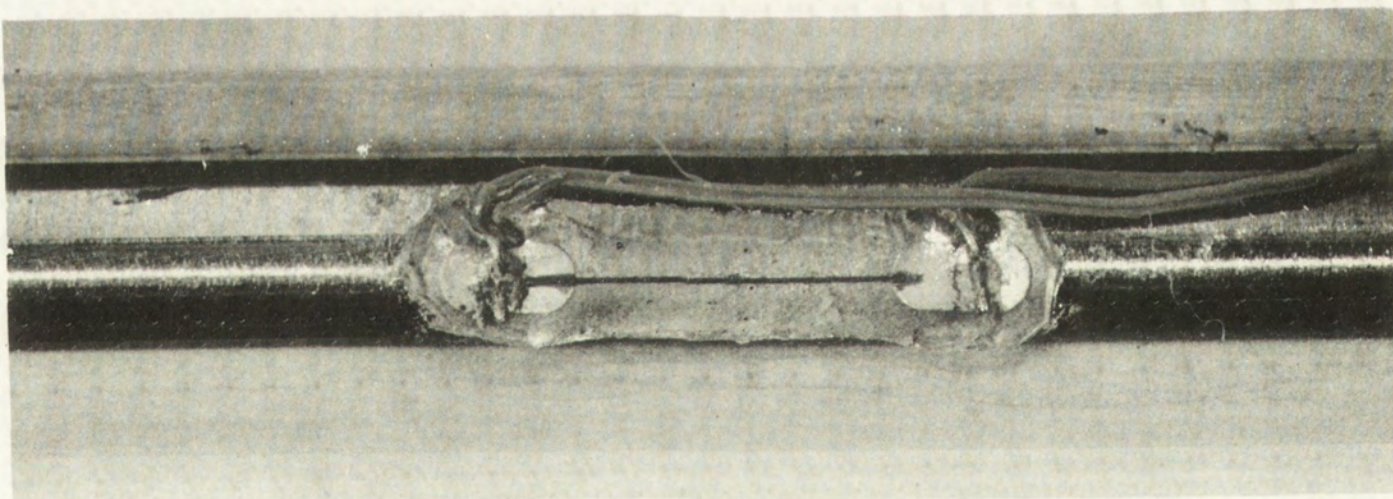
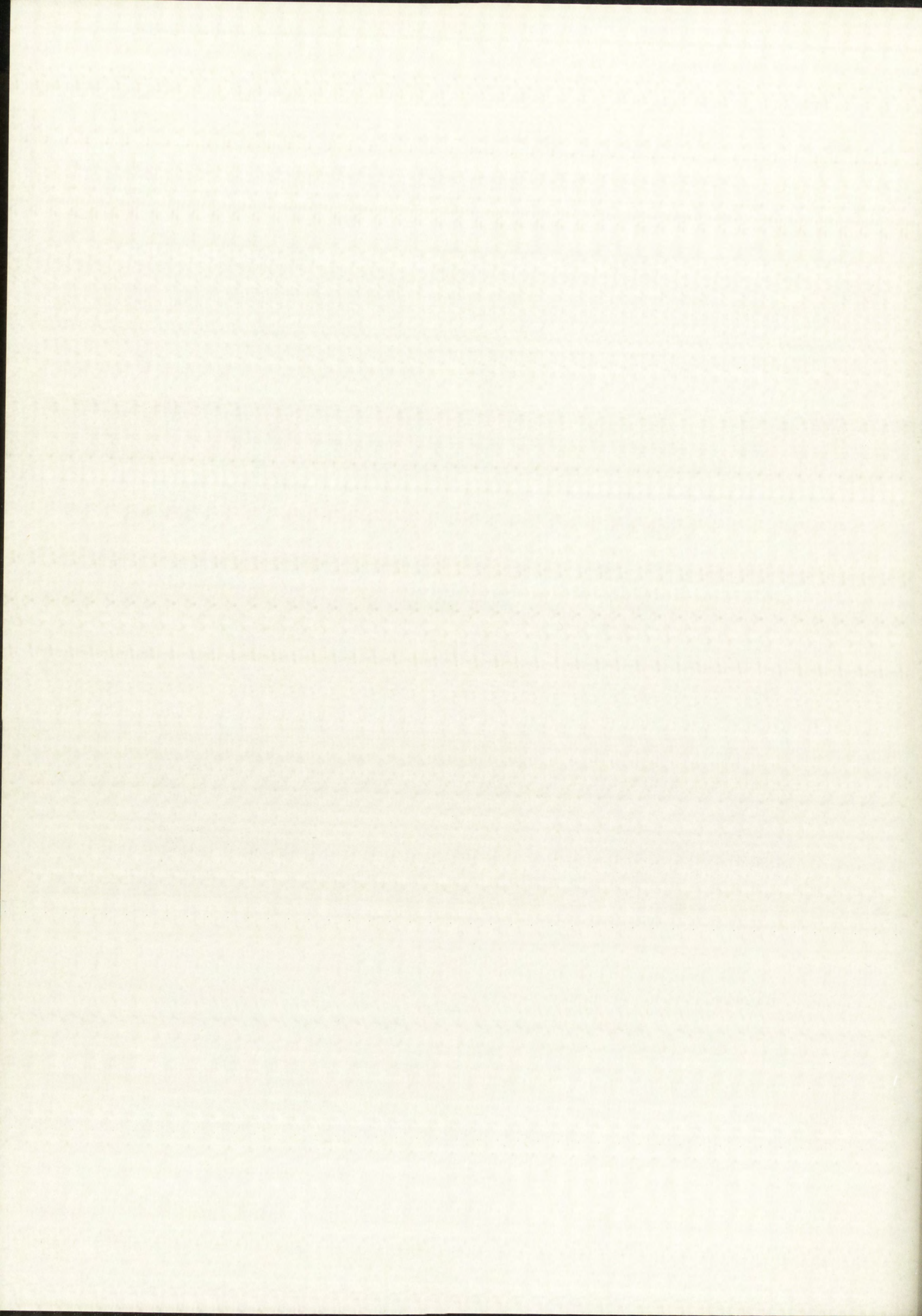


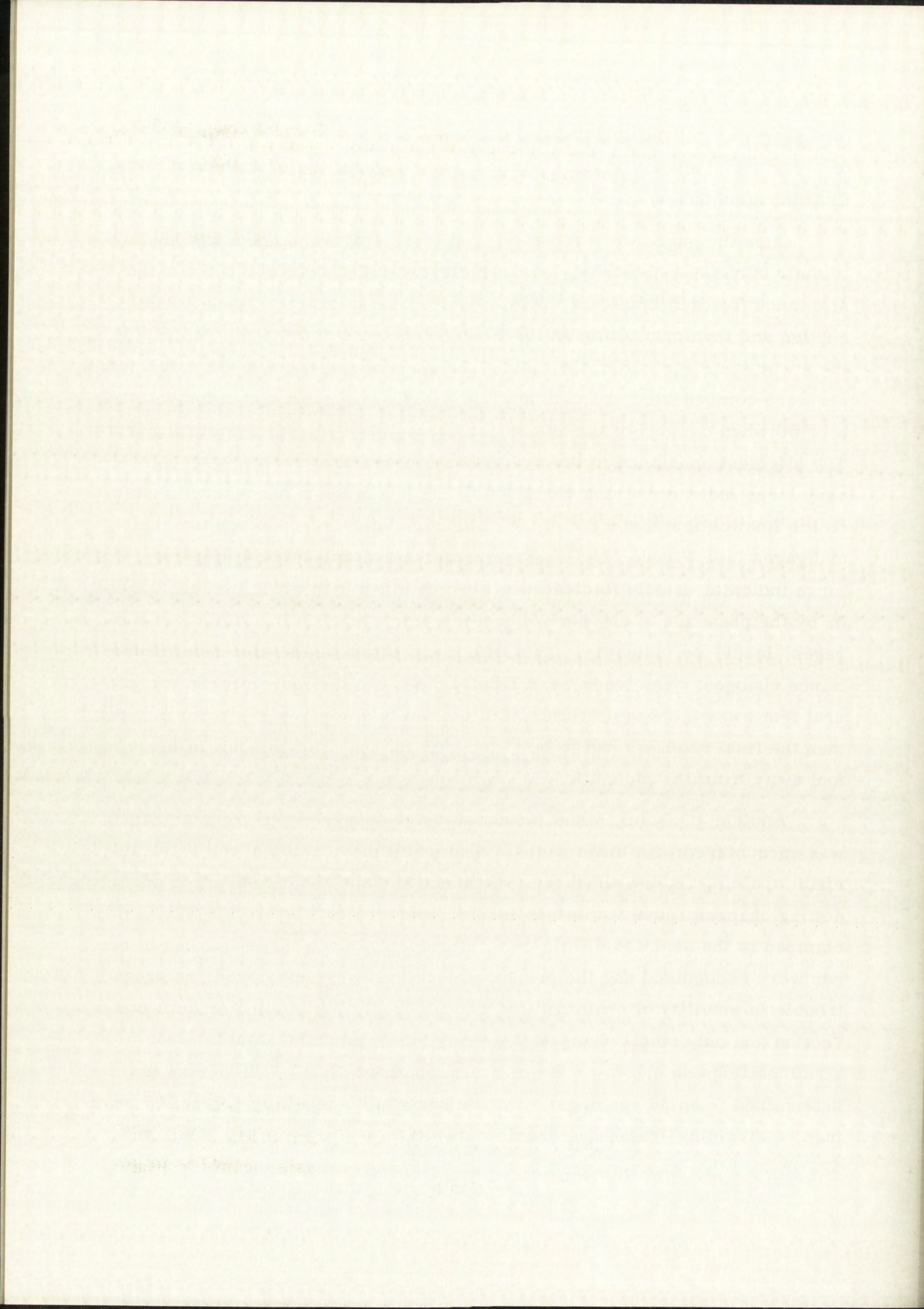
Figure 10(b). Mounted Semiconductor Resistance Strain Gage



(one gage was ruined in learning how to do this). A 7-watt iron, 230^oF solder, and rapid soldering were needed. See Figure 10b for a photo of the final mounted gages.

Once the gages were mounted, new problems were encountered. Due to their extreme sensitivity, strain indicator drift became important and allowance for drift had to be made by setting up an exactly timed testing rhythm and then correcting on the basis of the rate of drift determined by the error in closure after the test. The mounted gages were very well temperature-compensated and indicated very little change in strain (only 1 or 2 μ in/in) when one end of the dummy shaft was touched with a soldering iron. The slightest unbalance in the radiant energy reaching the two gages gave very large indicated strain variations, and it was found necessary to carry on the final calibration with a black box completely surrounding the shaft and gages (see Figure 11).^[9] Even with the radiation shield in place, large indicator-needle fluctuations were obtained by moving the lead wires or by the presence of any part of the operator's body in the vicinity of the gages, leads, or indicator. This effect was attributed to electrical capacitance changes. The leads were firmly taped and the indicator placed several feet away from the straining frame to minimize these variations. Even then the final readings had to be taken with the operator's hands at least 1 foot away from the indicator.

Another problem, which would not have appeared with regular gages, was encountered with these gages. The small movements of the extremely rigid straining fixture about the test-bench surface, which occurred during setting changes, gave variations in indicated strain. The fixture was firmly clamped to the bench to eliminate this problem. Once these sources of error were recognized and the proper precautions were employed, no great trouble in stability of readings was encountered. With indicator drift correction and only small changes in setting, the frame dial would repeat strain settings as shown on the indicator to about 3×10^{-8} in/in rms (as determined from 30 readings). On the basis of 30 carefully controlled readings, a straining-frame hysteresis between the settings of 610, 600, and 590 showed that an average of 6.9×10^{-8} in/in hysteresis occurred in the



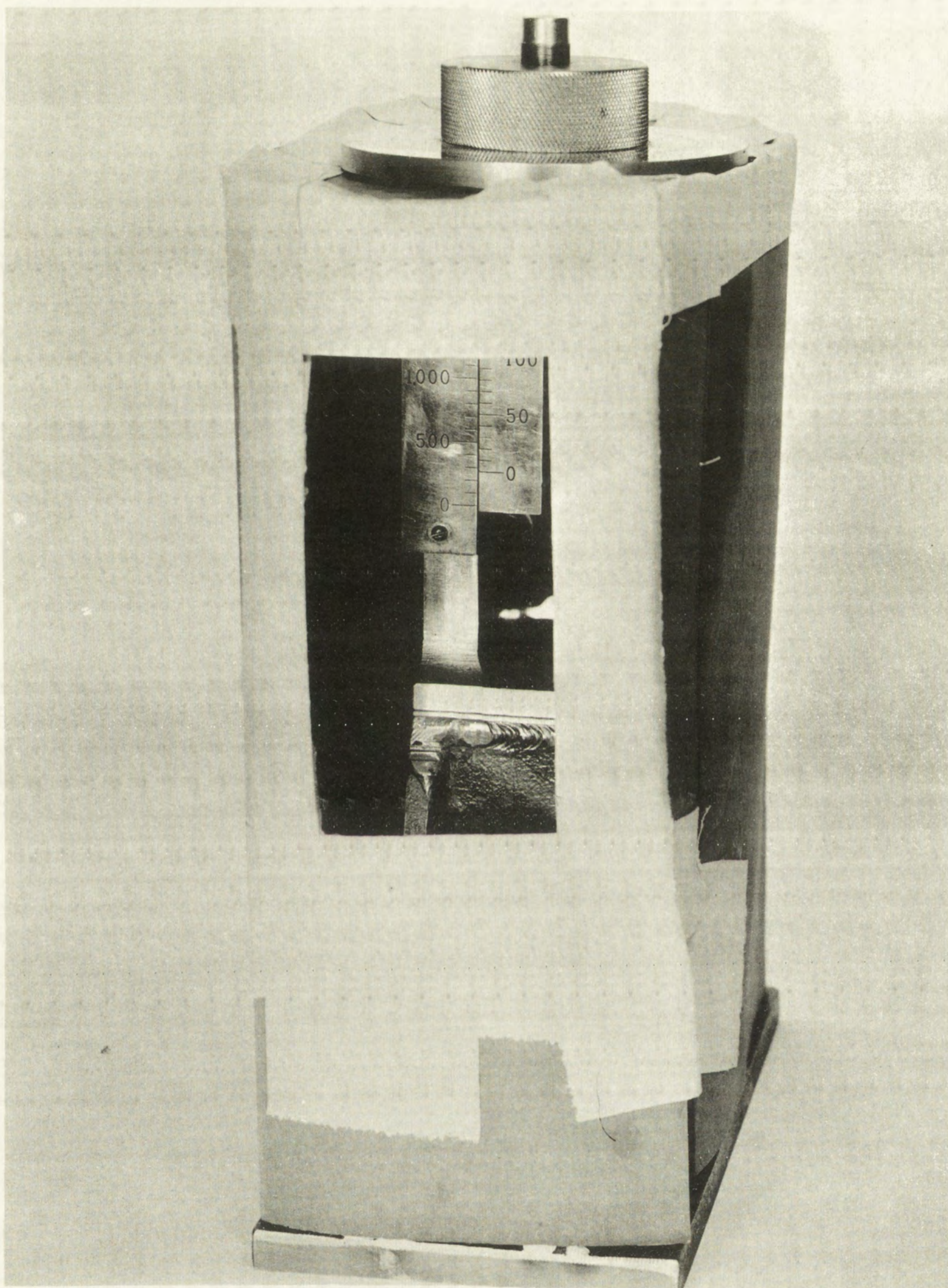


Figure 11. Straining Frame and Radiation Shielding

straining frame between an increase in setting of 10 and a decrease in setting of 10. Also, during this test, the rms variation about the mean for increasing settings was 2.18×10^{-8} in/in and 4.12×10^{-8} in/in for decreasing settings. This suggests that final settings should always be made in the direction of increasing settings.

Straining-Frame Calibration

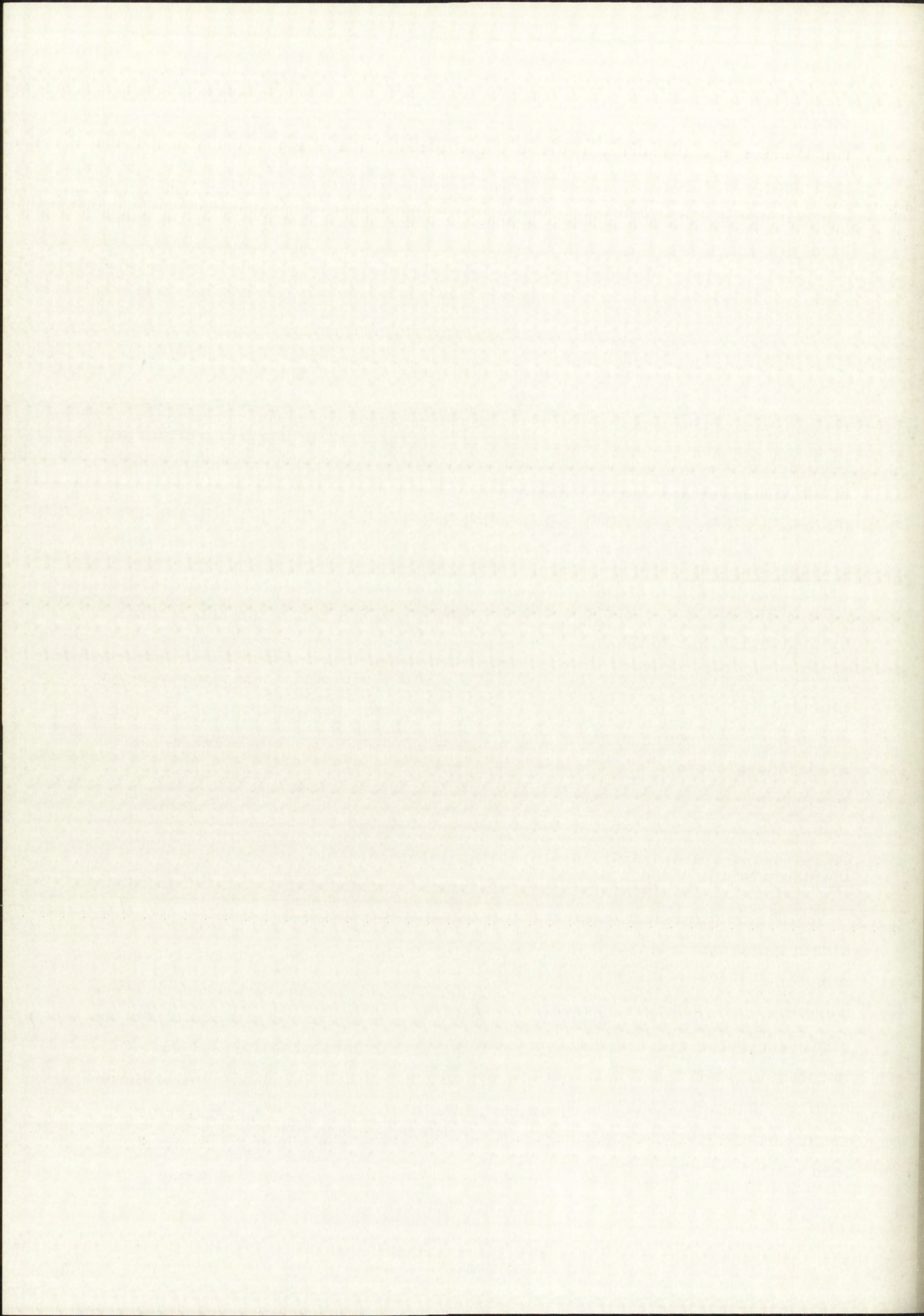
The work of straining-frame calibration consisted of four phases: (1) spring constant determination, (2) obtaining indicated strain versus setting, (3) gage-factor determination, and (4) the final calibration for period of vibration versus setting, based upon both experimental data and flexure theory.

Spring-Constant Determination

The spring constant for the straining-frame spring was determined by measuring the spring length inside the end hooks for different static loads. See Figure 12 for a plot of these data. Although the spring was not intended to have a preload force (bottomed coils), the actual spring turned out to have a 7-pound preload force. This would not be desirable for the final 200-second seismometer, but would be all right for developmental work up to 100 seconds. Thus, a spring with a 7-pound preload and a spring constant (as determined from Figure 12) of 121.3 lb/in was used.

Indicated Strain Versus Setting

The dummy shaft equipped with two centrally mounted semiconductor strain gages was centered in the straining frame. All of the previously mentioned precautions (such as using radiation shielding, taping leads, etc.) were taken to insure the best possible data. The gage factor selector on the strain indicator was set for a gage factor of 2 because the correct gage factor was not yet known and would be much larger than the maximum selector setting. A complete set of readings, from a maximum straining-frame setting of 800 down to 250 in increments of 50 and then down to the minimum load setting of 141.3 in increments of 10, was made. Then the same



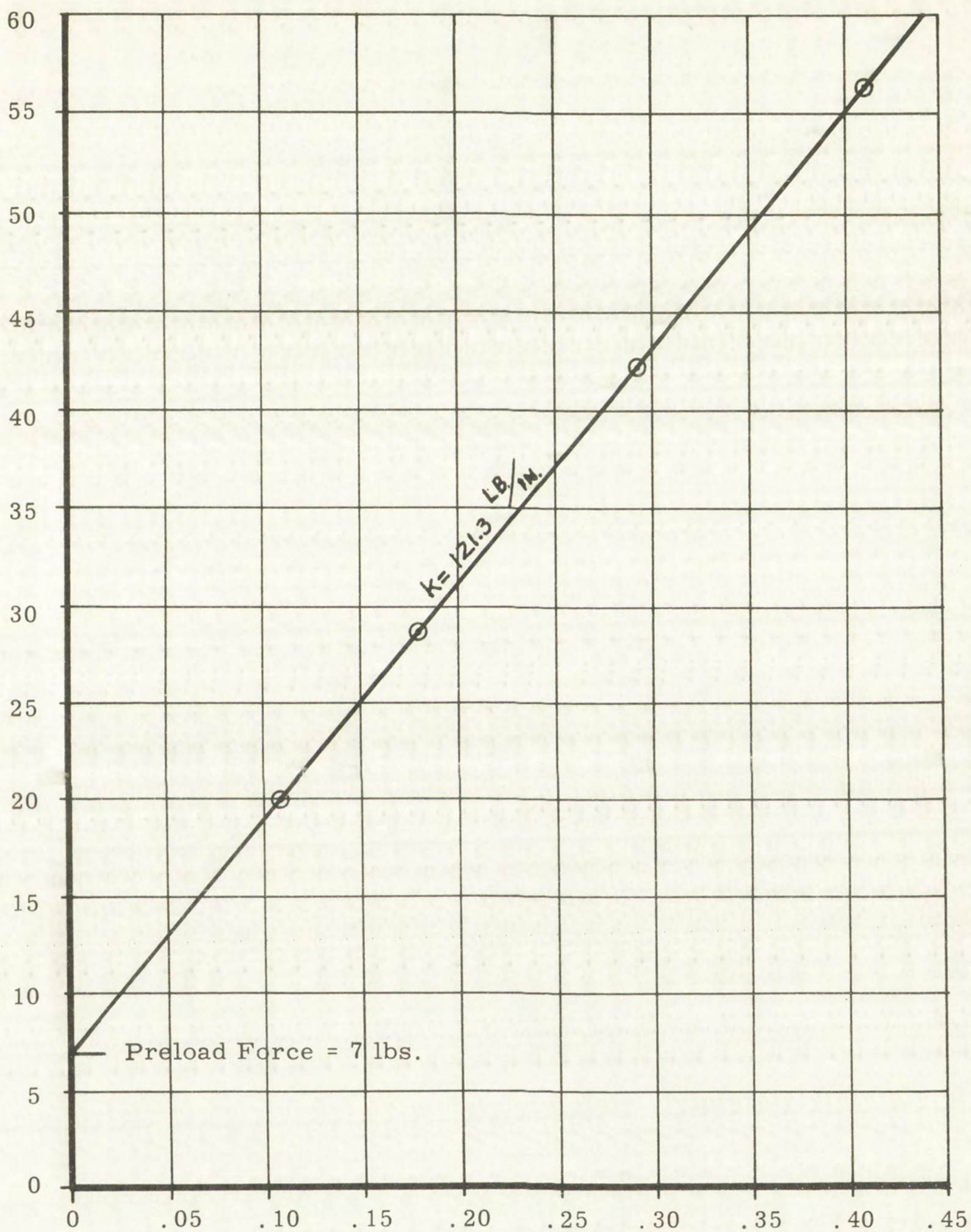
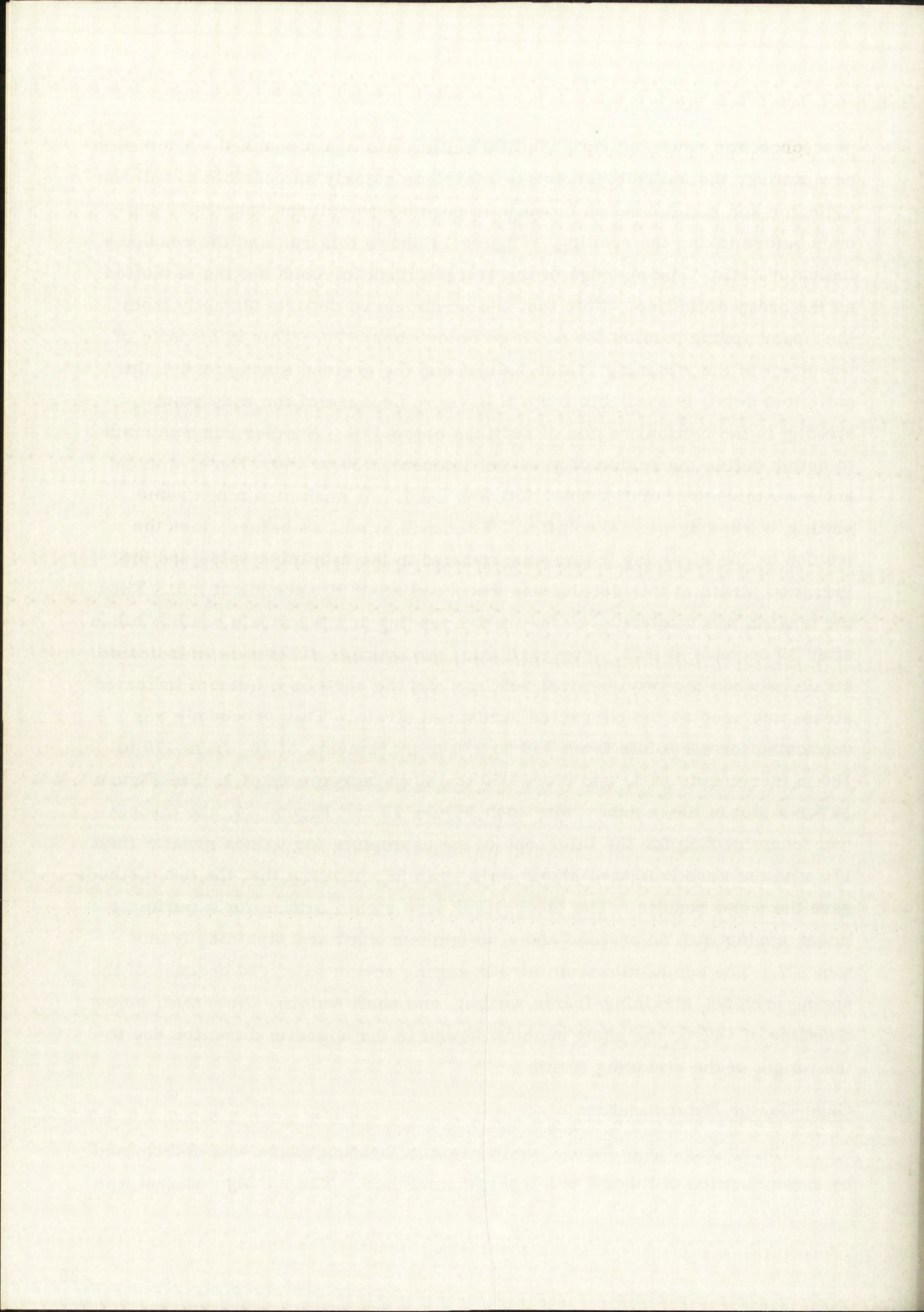


Figure 12. Straining-Frame Spring Force Versus Deflection

procedure was reversed until the 800 setting was again reached. After each new setting, the indicator knob was moved as quickly as possible to null the indicator and maintained as closely as possible to null for exactly 30 seconds before taking the reading. Figure 13 shows this run and the resulting indicator drift. The average of the two readings for each setting is plotted as the heavy solid line. Note that the strain curve departs abruptly from the linear spring portion for settings below about 170. This is because of the effect of the straining-frame weight and the preload spring force. Insufficient detail is available from this curve because of the wide point spacing in the critical region of settings below 170. Another run was made to better define the region of greatest interest, 250 to 140. Here, a more accurate method of drift correction was used. At each straining-frame setting, a reading was taken after 30 seconds at null as before, then the tension on the straining frame was reduced to the minimum value and the indicated strain at this setting was recorded after 30 seconds at null. Then the tension was readjusted to the initial reading and the strain reading taken after 30 seconds at null. For each run, the average difference in indicated strain between the two identical settings and the zero or minimum indicated strain was used as the corrected measured strain. This procedure was duplicated for all points from 250 to 170 in increments of 10, from 170 to 150 in increments of 5, and from 150 to 140 in increments of 1. See Figure 14 for a plot of these data. For both Figure 13 and Figure 14, the theoretical frame setting for the intercept of the asymptote for values greater than 170 with the zero indicated strain axis, was 98, showing that the two methods gave the same results. The theoretical zero strain setting for a perfectly linear spring with no preload and a weightless shaft and straining frame was 107. The actual minimum strain setting occurred at 140 because of the spring preload, straining-frame weight, and shaft weight. Note that, below a setting of 142.5, the shaft became bowed in the opposite direction due to the weight of the straining frame.

Gage-Factor Determination

The average gage factor for the two calibrating gages was determined by a combination of theory and experimental data. The spring constant was



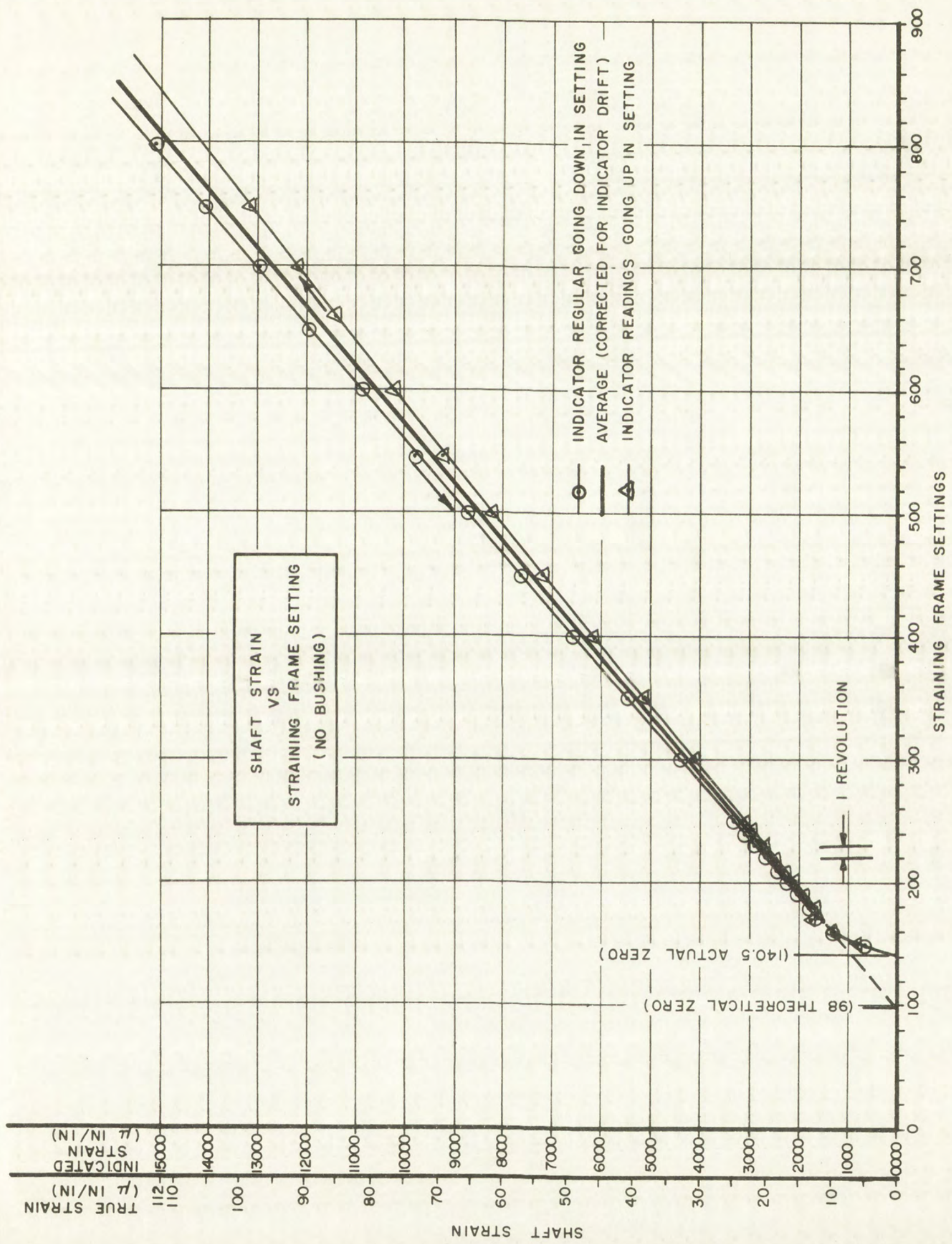
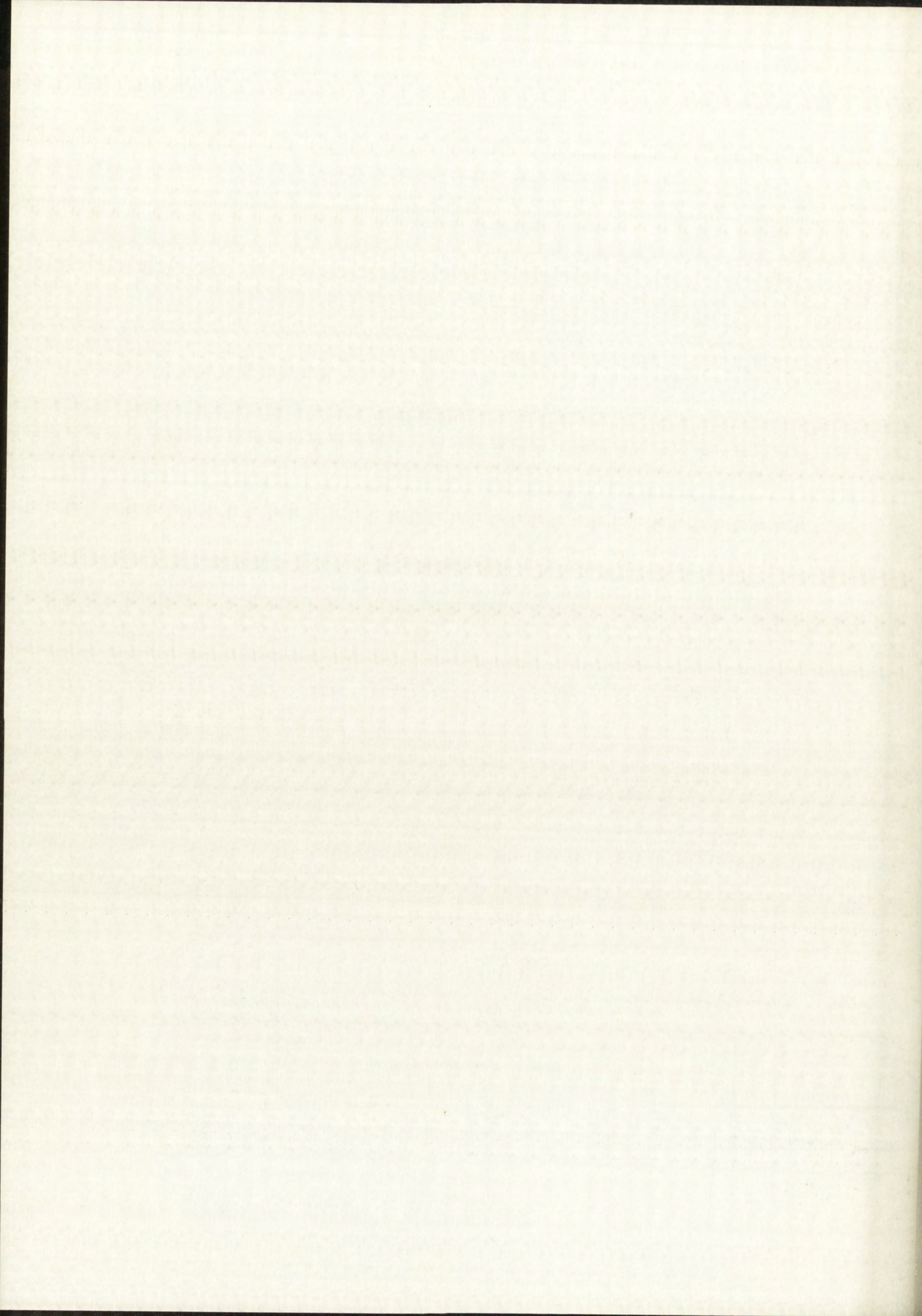


Figure 13. Shaft Strain Versus Straining-Frame Setting (140-800)



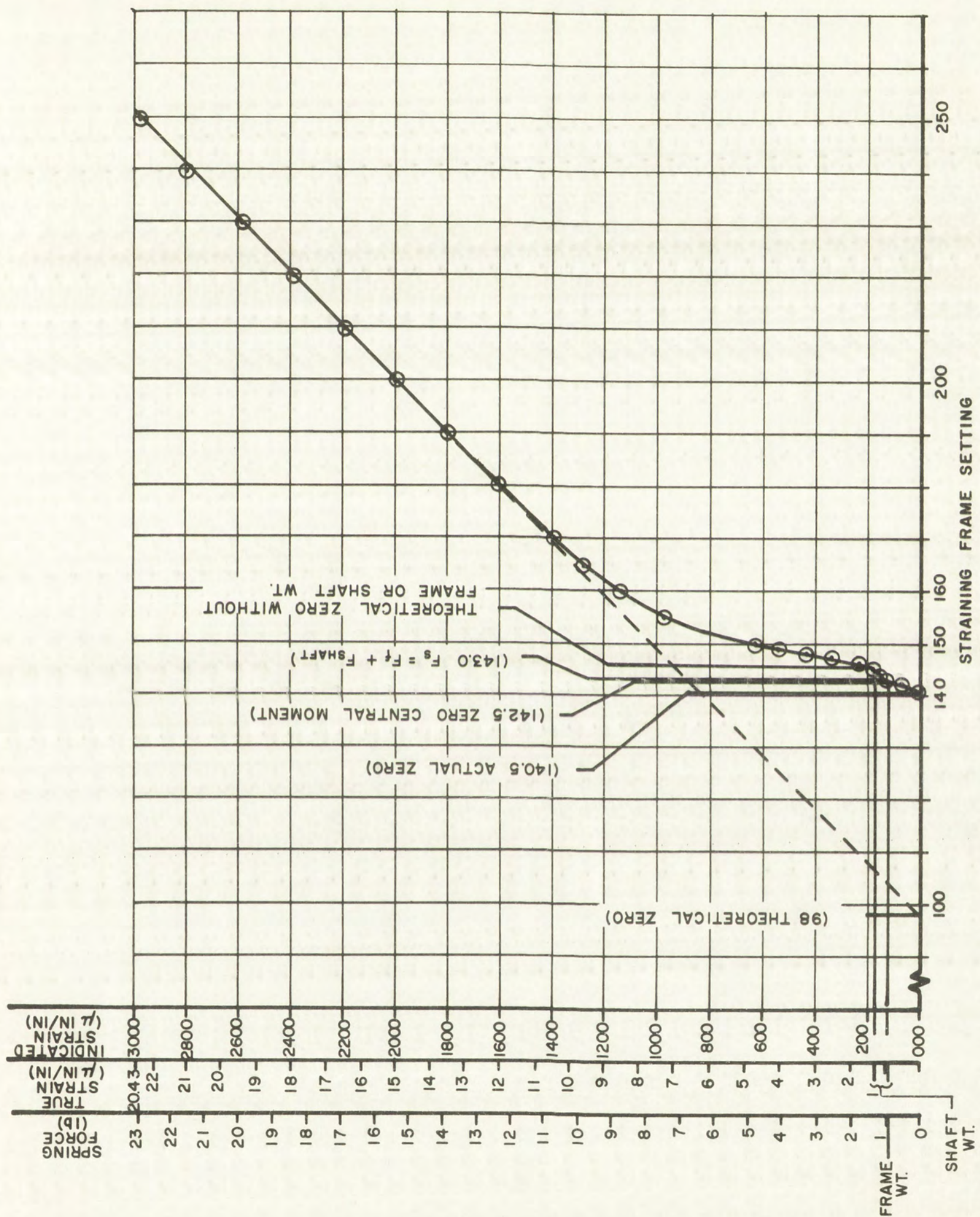


Figure 14. Shaft Strain Versus Straining-Frame Setting (140-250)

already found to be 121.3 lb/in. The straining-frame setting knob was equipped with an 80-pitch thread which has a lead of 0.0125 inch per revolution; therefore, the change in spring force per revolution is

$$\Delta F/\text{rev} = 0.0125 k = 0.0125 \times 121.3 = 1.51625 \text{ lb/rev.}$$

The maximum stress in a flexural member is

$$S = \frac{My}{I} = \frac{M}{Z},$$

where

y = the distance from the neutral axis to the
fiber = r in the case of a round rod,

Z = the section modulus

$$= \frac{\pi r^3}{4} = \frac{\pi (0.21875)^3}{4} = 8.17 \times 10^{-3} \text{ in}^3.$$

The moment, M , in the constant-moment section is

$$M = \frac{F}{2} \times 0.5 = 0.25 F.$$

Equating this M to the M derived from the stress formula yields

$$0.25 F = ZS = 8.17 \times 10^{-3} S$$

or

$$S = 30.60 F.$$

But stress is proportional to strain; hence,

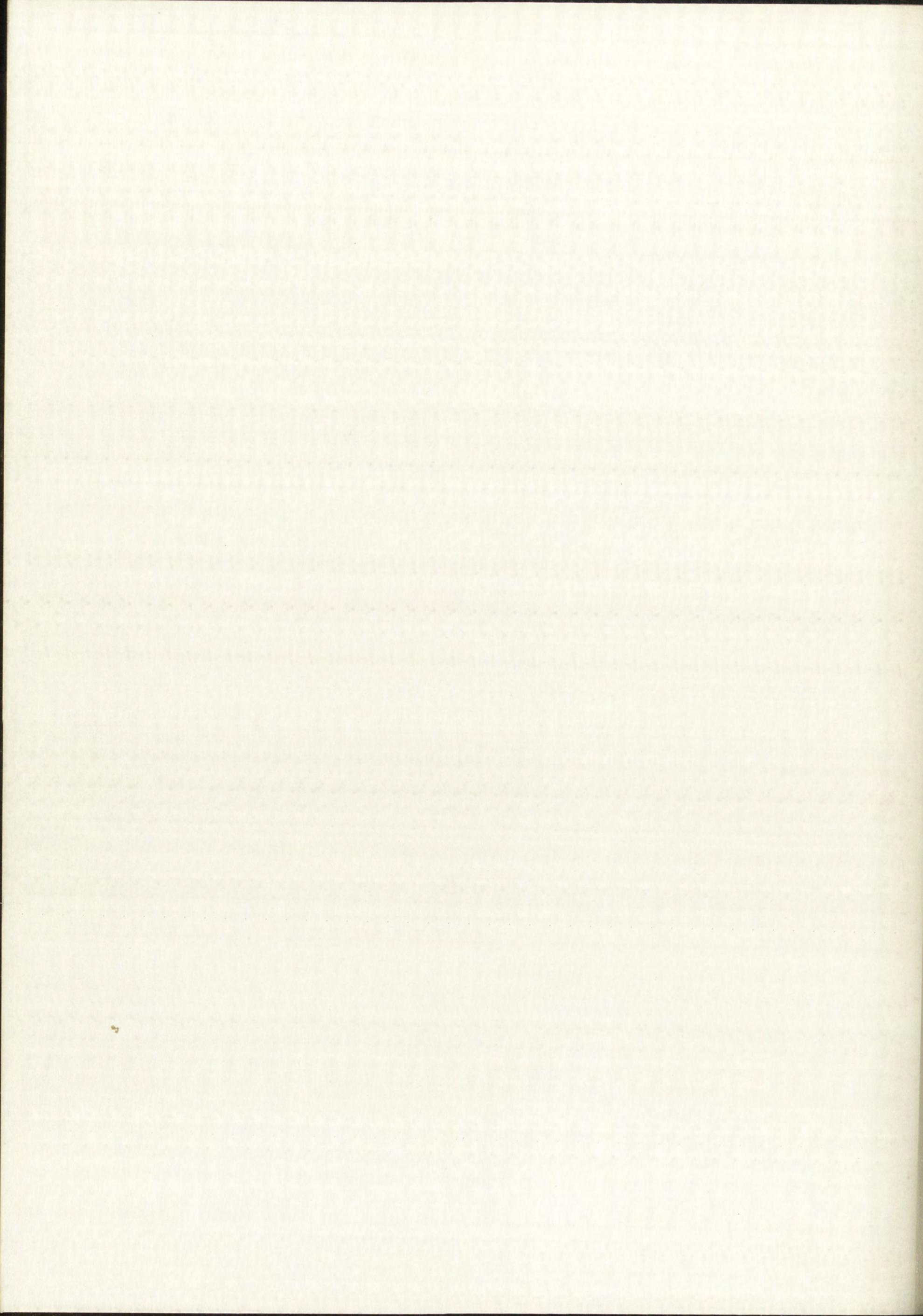
$$S = 30.60 F = E\epsilon,$$

from which

$$\epsilon = \frac{30.60 F}{E}.$$

Thus, the actual change in strain per revolution of the straining knob is

$$\epsilon/\text{rev} = \frac{30.60}{E} \times \frac{F}{\text{rev}} = \frac{30.60 \times 1.51625}{30 \times 10^6} = 1.548 \mu \text{ in/in/rev,}$$



but the indicated strain per revolution as determined from the upper part of the curve in Figure 14 was found to be $207 \mu \text{ in/in/rev}$. Therefore, the conversion factor for changing from measured strain to true strain (with the indicator gage selector set at 2.00) would be the ratio

$$\frac{1.548}{207} = 7.48 \times 10^{-3}.$$

The average gage factor, $\frac{\Delta R/R}{\epsilon}$, for the two strainistor calibrating gages is

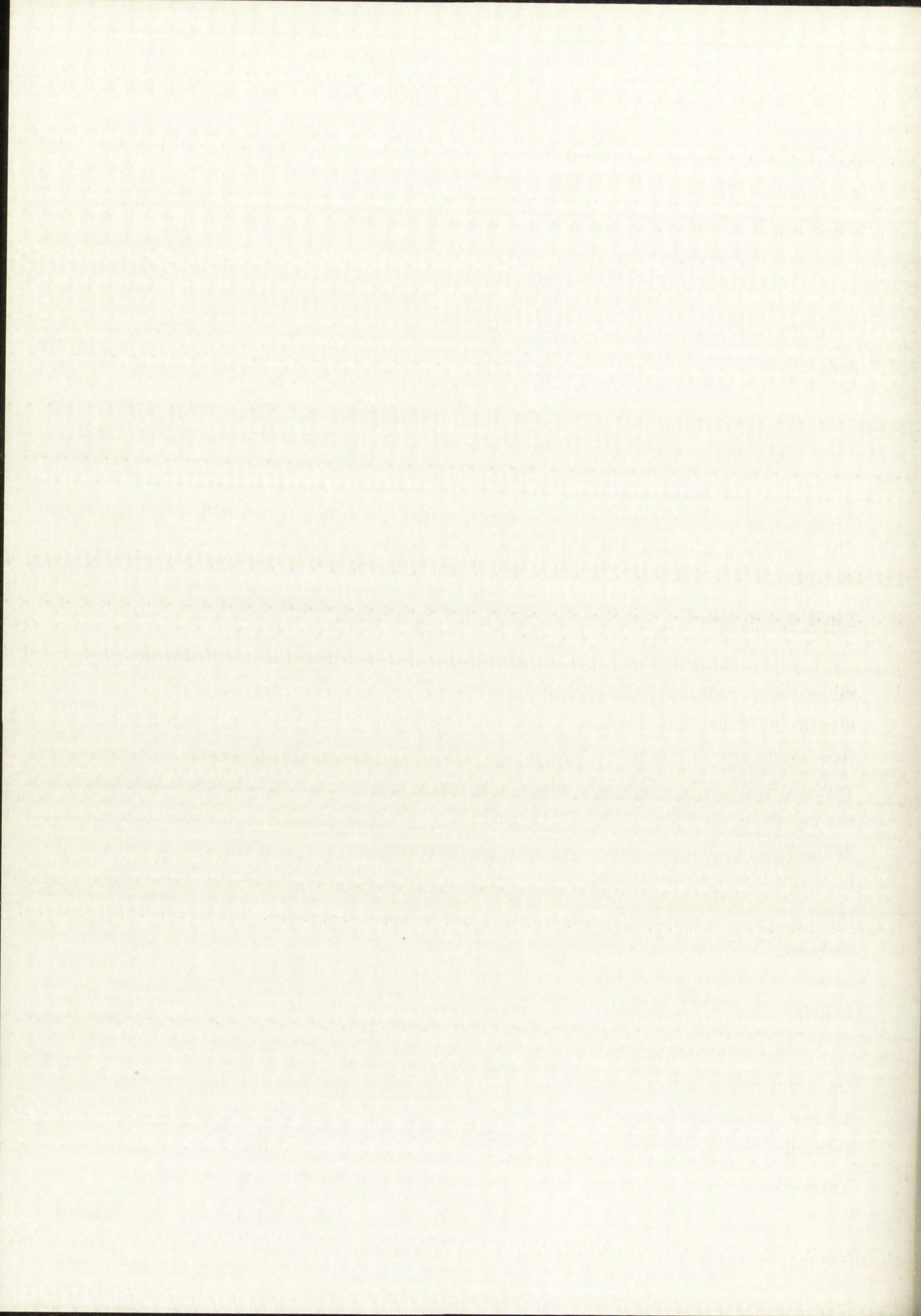
$$\frac{\Delta R/R}{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{7.48 \times 10^{-3}} = \frac{\text{Number of active gages}}{\text{indicator gage factor setting}} = \frac{1}{7.48 \times 10^{-3}} \times \frac{2}{2} = 133.7$$

This value is within the range 120 to 140, specified by the manufacturer. The conversion factor was used to add a true strain scale to Figures 13 and 14.

Final Calibration

The final calibration of the straining frame, in terms of period of vibration versus setting, had to account for the shaft deflections due to straining-frame loading, shaft weight, and bushing load. Also, the effective length of the suspended air-bearing bushing had to be included. The various deflections could be calculated separately and then added to obtain the resultant by making use of the principle of superposition. Calculations of the first two deflections are straightforward, but the way the bushing load is applied from a spinning bushing 1.56 inches long to a curved shaft through an air film is not readily subject to analysis. The three accompanying Figures 15a, 15b, and 15c, show in a qualitative way what is known about the distribution of pressure in straight-sleeve hydrodynamic gas bearings. [11][12]

The effect of a slightly downward bow in the shaft should be to change the axial pressure distribution as shown by the dotted lines in Figure 15c. Either the straight-shaft axial pressure distribution or the estimated distribution for the curved shaft would be fairly well approximated by two equal vertical forces (each equal to one-half the bushing weight) located halfway



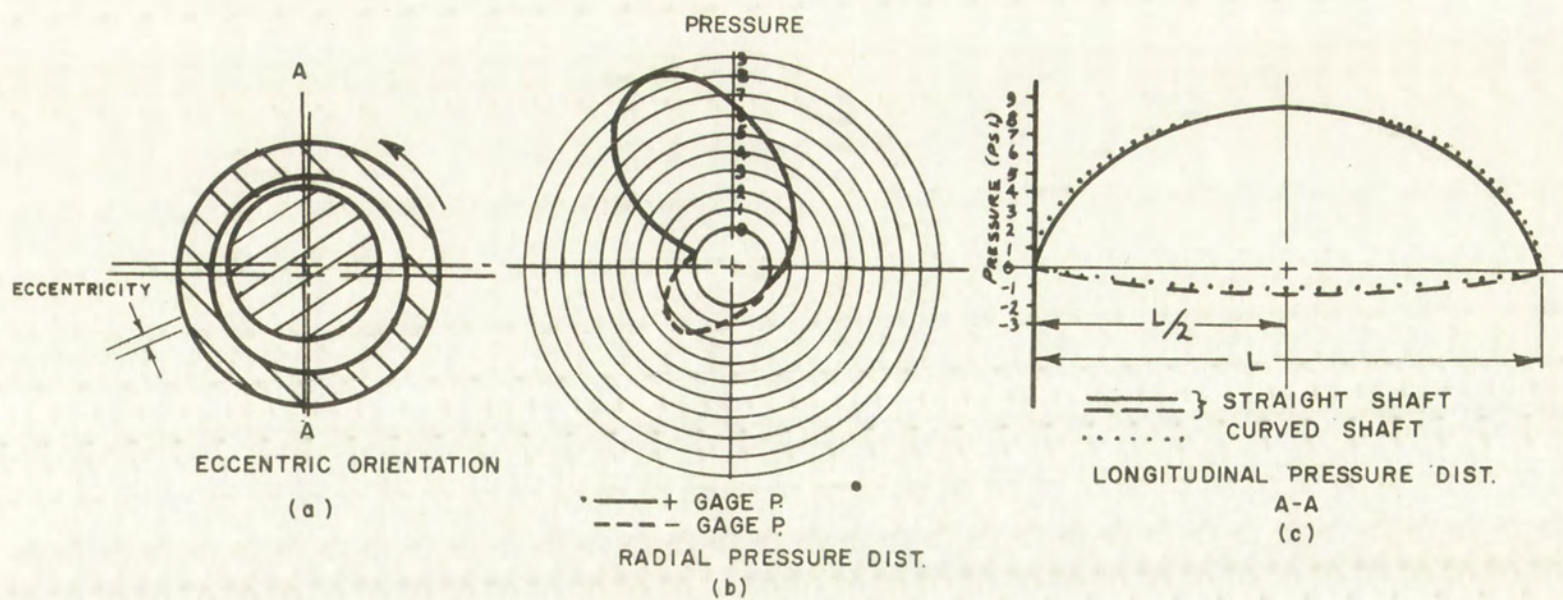


Figure 15. Qualitative Hydrodynamic Gas-Bearing Information

between the bushing center (shaft center) and the ends of the bushing. The effect of this simplified loading would be easy to calculate, since the seismic bushing normally makes very short axial excursions (a maximum of about 0.010 inch) about the shaft centerline; therefore, it will be assumed to be located at the center and stationary.

The three loading conditions to be superimposed are shown schematically below.

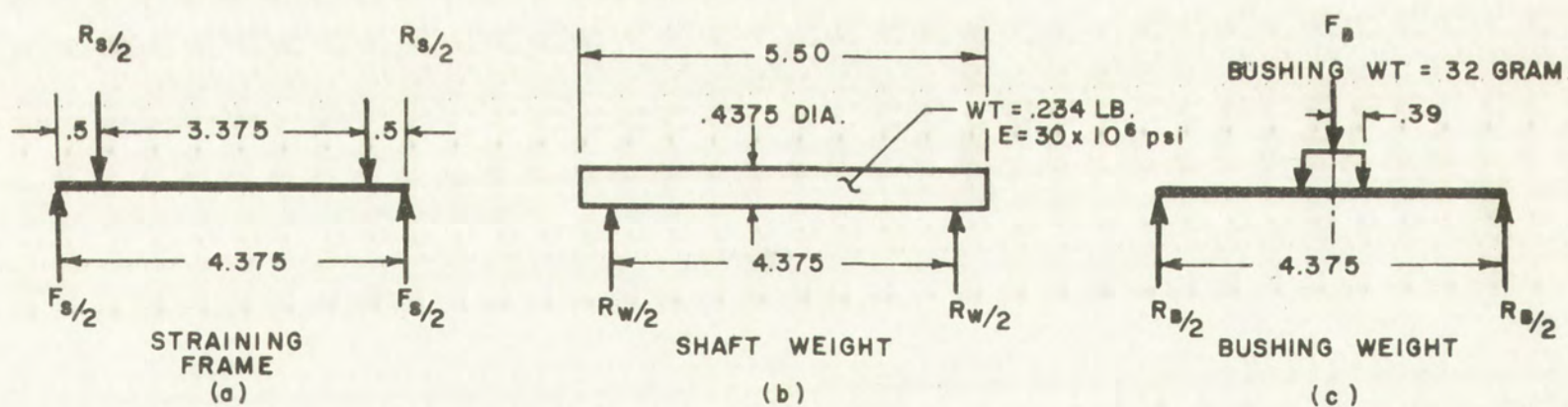
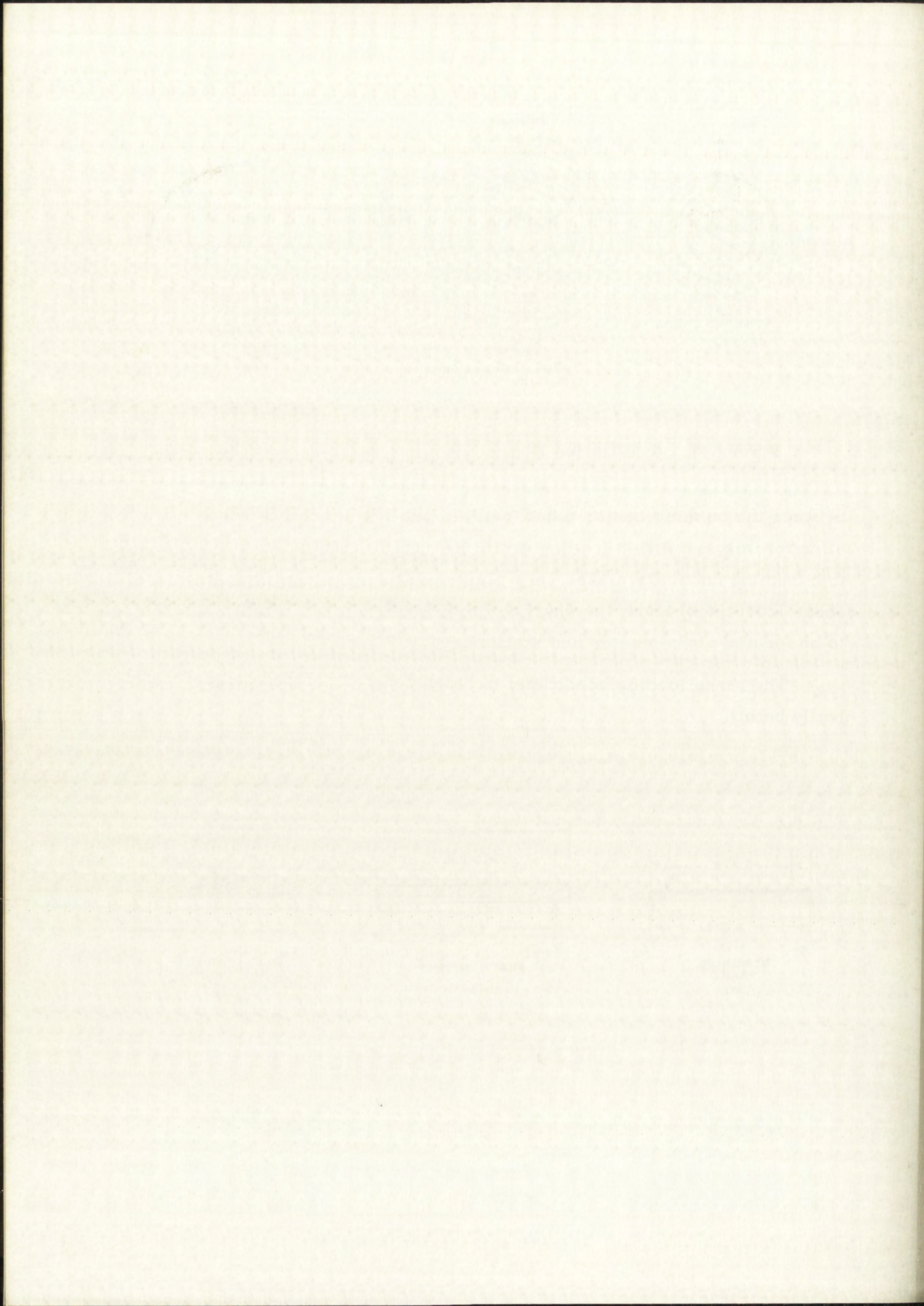


Figure 16. Loading Conditions



Strains due to the first two loadings (shown in Figures 16a and 16b) are automatically included in the setting versus strain plots (shown in Figures 16a and 16b) for the position of the gages. The effect of bushing weight must be added to predict the true strain or central moment for the final seismometer shaft. The bending moment or curvature of the central 2 inches of the shaft is constant due to the condition shown in Figure 16a, is not constant due to the condition shown in Figure 16b, and is constant inside the central 0.78 inch but not constant outside this region for Figure 16c. If the shaft curvatures at the two resultant bushing load points shown in Figure 16c (0.39 inch from centerline) are assumed to be controlling the period of vibration, it is reasonable to use the resultant moment at these locations as the criterion for period. The period will be calculated on this assumption and the additional assumption that this resultant moment is constant for small displacements. In truth, the resultant moment will be higher inside the 0.39-inch point and lower outside, but this average value is assumed for simplicity. The problem, then, is to convert the measured central strains into corrected resultant moments at the 0.39-inch load points. Referring to Figure 17, the moment due to the straining frame at position 3 is

$$M_{3F_S} = \frac{d}{2} (F_S - F_f) = \frac{0.5}{2} (F_S - 0.978) = 0.25 F_S - 0.2445 \text{ in/lb.}$$

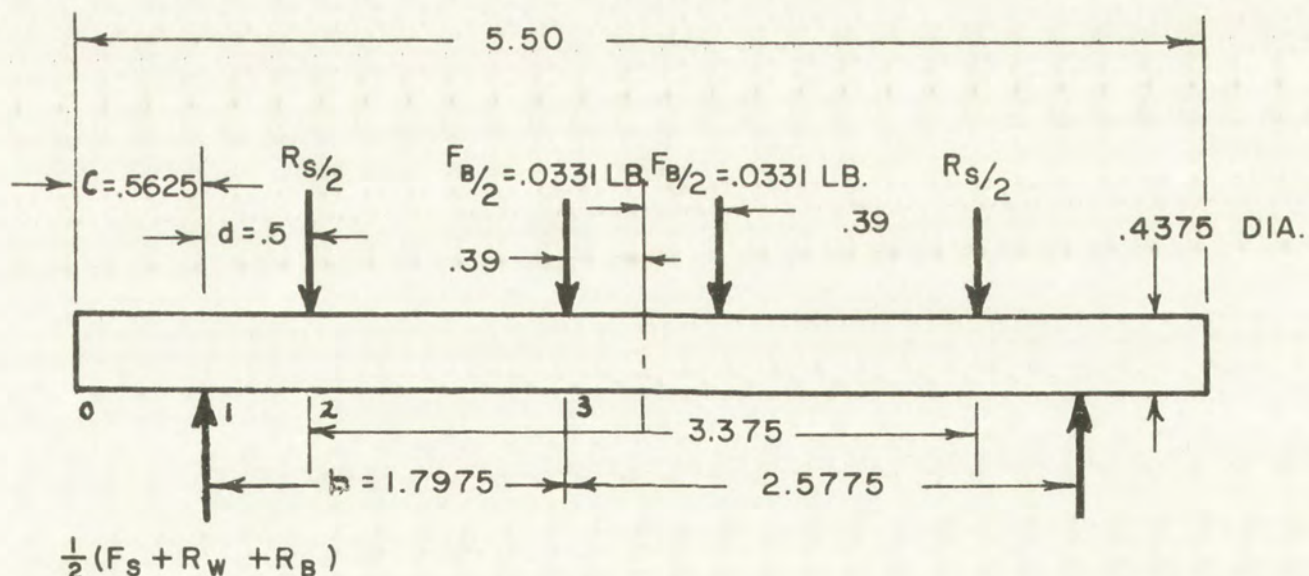
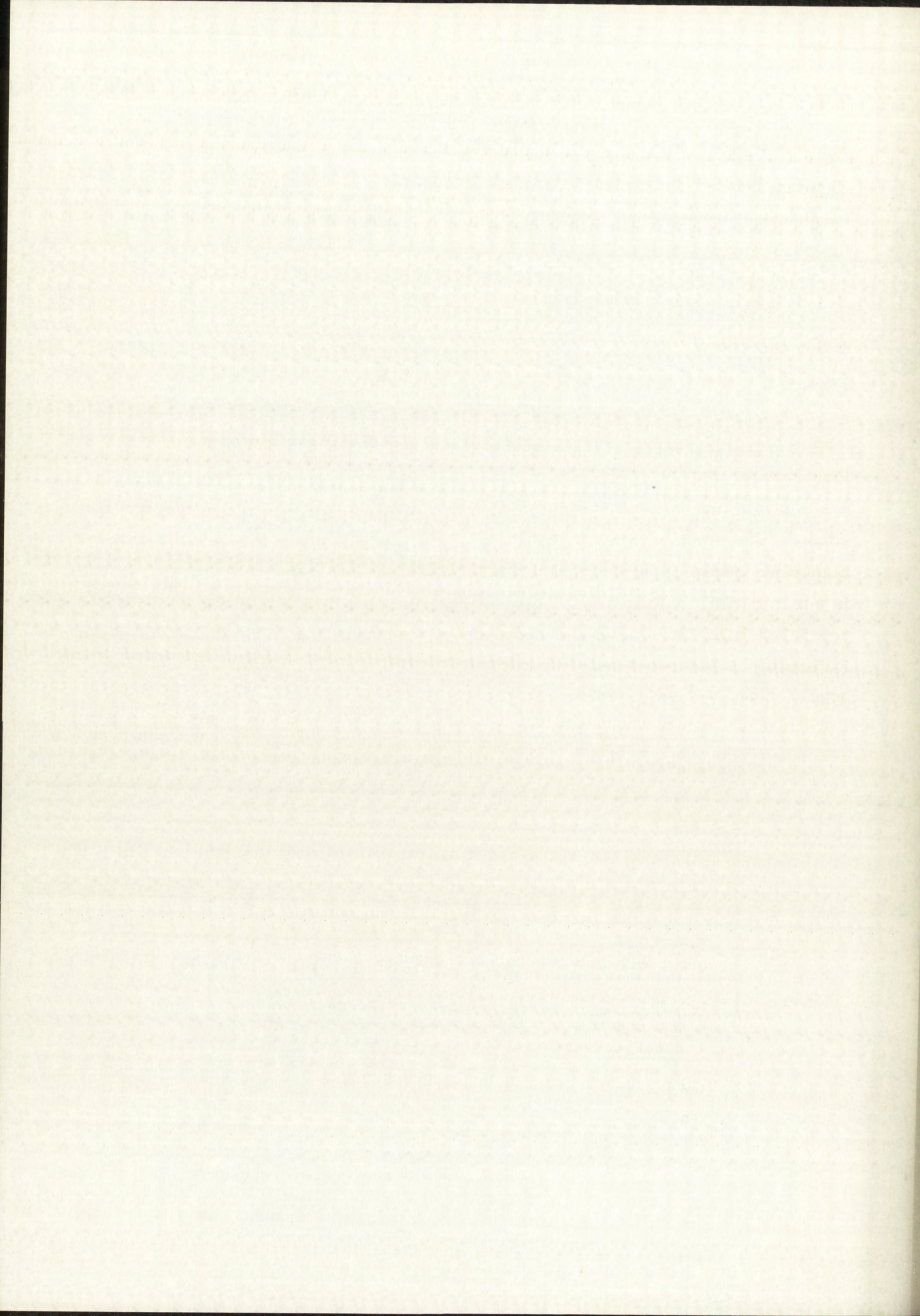


Figure 17. Combined Loading



The moment at 3 due to shaft weight is

$$M_{3W_S} = \frac{W_S b}{2} \left(1 - \frac{c}{b} - \frac{b}{\ell} \right) = \frac{0.234 \times 1.798}{2} \left(1 - \frac{0.5625}{1.798} - \frac{1.798}{5.5} \right) = 0.0758 \text{ in-lb.}$$

The moment at 3 due to bushing weight is

$$M_{3W_B} = \frac{W_B}{2} \times b = 0.0331 \times 1.798 = 0.0596 \text{ in-lb.}$$

Therefore, the resultant effective moment at 3 is

$$\begin{aligned} M_{3\text{Resultant}} &= M_{3F_S} + M_{3W_S} + M_{3W_B} = 0.25 F_S - 0.2445 + 0.0758 \\ &\quad + 0.0596 = 0.25 F_S - 0.1091. \end{aligned}$$

The period versus central deflection or moment for a constant-moment section will now be calculated. For a gravity pendulum, the period of vibration is given by the formula

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{R_c}{g}}$$

where

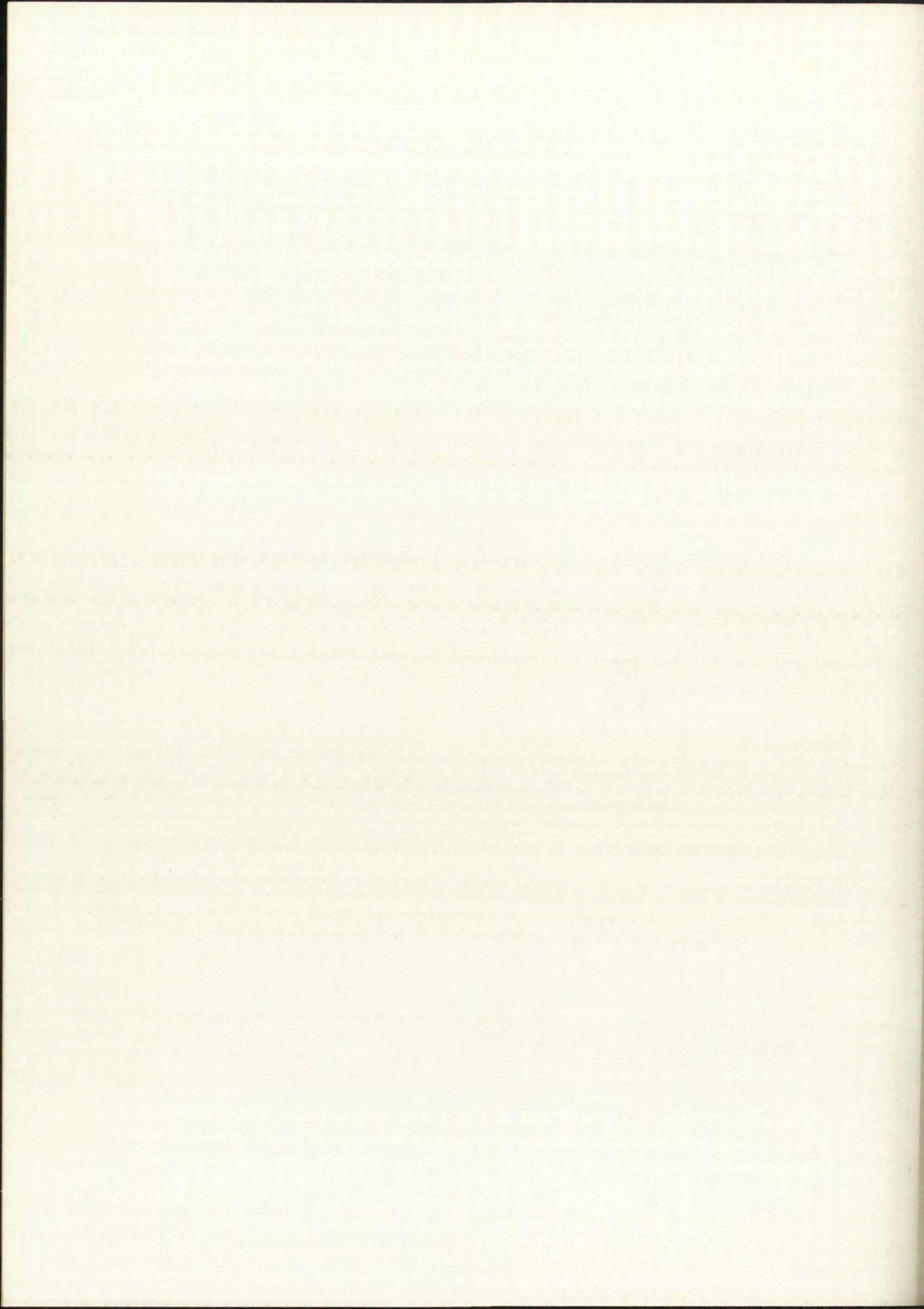
R_c = the length of the pendulum arm or radius of curvature in the present case.

The central deflection in a constant-moment section is given by the formula

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{\max} &= \frac{F d \ell^2}{2 \times 8EI} = \frac{F \times 0.5 \times (3.375)^2}{2 \times 8 \times 1.8 \times 10^{-3} \times 30 \times 10^6} \\ &= 6.59771 \times 10^{-6} F \end{aligned}$$

Referring to Figure 18, it can be seen that

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\delta}{1.6875} \approx \sin \theta = \frac{1.6875}{R_c}$$



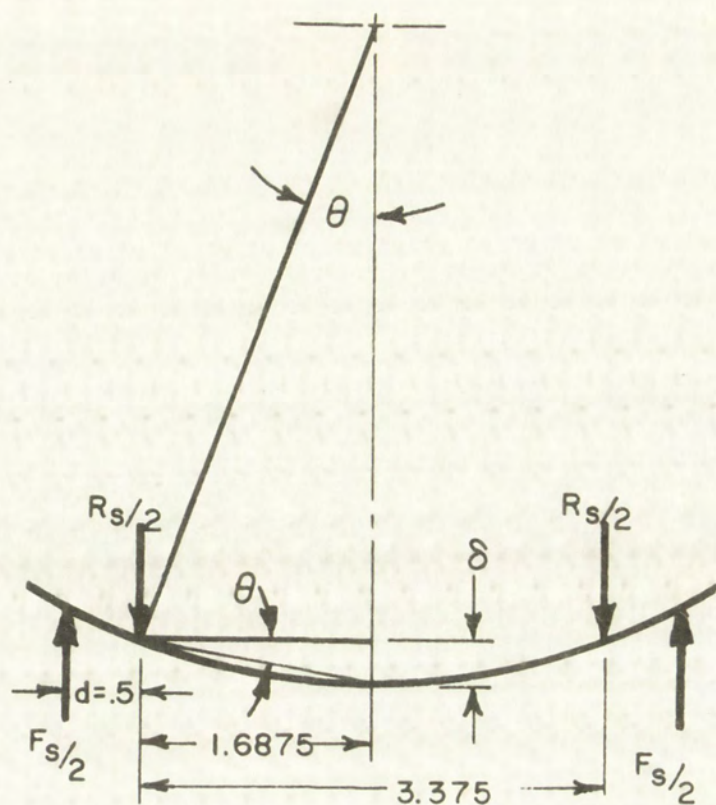


Figure 18. Central Deflection for Given Radius of Curvature

and that, therefore,

$$R_c \approx \frac{(1.6875)^2}{\delta} = \frac{2.84766}{\delta} \text{ in.}$$

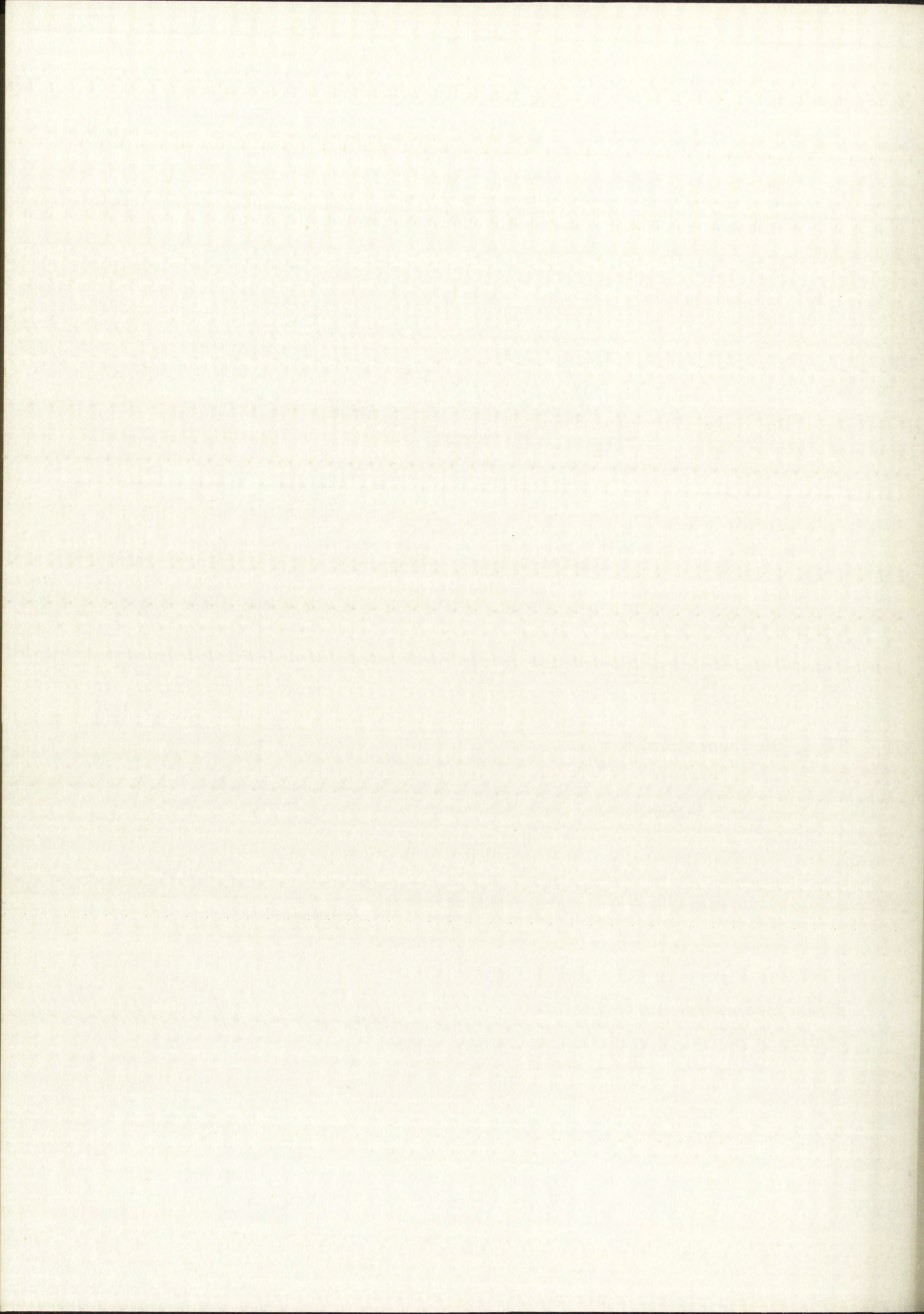
Thus, the theoretical period for the constant-moment section is

$$T_{\text{theoretical}} = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{g}} \sqrt{R_c} = 0.319 \sqrt{R_c}$$

or

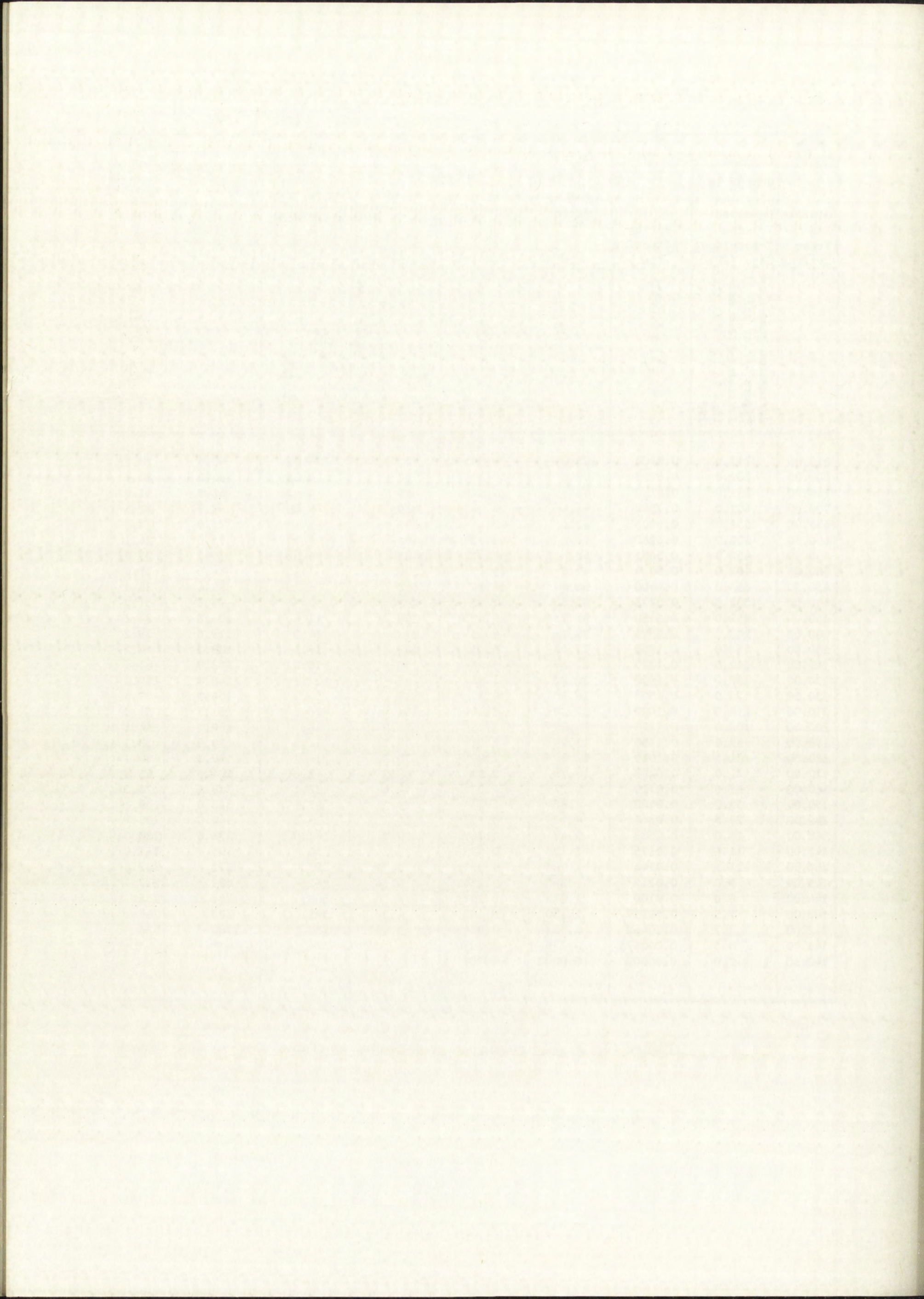
$$= 0.319 \sqrt{\frac{2.84766}{\delta}} = 0.538 \sqrt{\frac{1}{\delta}} \text{ sec.}$$

See Figure 19 for the data reduction and conversion of indicated strain measurements to final period data. Figure 20 shows the final calibration of period of vibration versus setting.



1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strain- ing Frame Setting	Change in Setting Measured from Theoretical Zero (98)	Spring Deflection (in.)	Spring Force, F_S (lb)	True Moment for Period, M_T (in-lb)	Central Deflection, S_T ($\times 10^{-6}$ in.)	Radius of Curvature, R_C ($\times 10^{-6}$ in.)	$\sqrt{R_C}$ ($\times 10^{3/2}$ in.)	True Period, T (sec)
	Correction made from Figure 14 for all Straining-Frame Set- tings in 1 less than 190	Column 2 $\times 0.00125$	$F_S = 3 \times k$ ($k =$ spring const. 121.3 (lb/in))	$M_T = 0.25 F_S - 0.1091$ $= 0.25 \times (4 \times 0.1091)$	$\delta_T = \frac{M_T l^2}{16EI}$ $= 26.35 M_T \times 10^{-6}$ <i>Central def for a constant moment of M_T</i>	$R_C = \left(\frac{l}{2}\right)^2 \times \frac{1}{\delta_T}$ $= \frac{2.84766}{\delta}$		$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{R_C}{G}}$ $= 0.319 \sqrt{R_C}$
810.00	712.0	0.8900	108.0	26.89	708	4.02	63.5	20.25
800.00	702.0	0.8775	106.5	26.51	698	4.08	64.0	20.4
750.00	652.0	0.8150	98.9	24.52	645	4.42	66.5	21.2
700.00	602.0	0.7530	91.4	23.49	619	4.60	67.9	21.6
650.00	552.0	0.6905	83.8	20.84	550	5.18	72.0	23.0
600.00	502.0	0.6280	76.2	18.93	499	5.71	75.6	24.1
550.00	452.0	0.5655	68.7	17.07	450	6.33	79.7	25.4
500.00	402.0	0.5030	61.1	15.17	399	7.15	84.6	27.0
450.00	352.0	0.4400	53.4	13.22	348	8.19	90.6	28.9
400.00	302.0	0.3775	45.8	11.33	299	9.53	97.8	31.2
350.00	252.0	0.3150	38.25	9.45	249	11.4	106.8	34.1
300.00	202.0	0.2525	30.65	7.55	199	14.3	119.6	38.2
250.00	152.0	0.1900	23.05	5.65	149	19.1	138.3	44.2
240.00	142.0	0.1775	21.55	5.28	139	20.4	143.0	45.7
230.00	132.0	0.1650	20.02	4.89	129	22.1	148.8	47.5
220.00	122.0	0.1525	18.50	4.52	119	23.9	154.7	49.4
210.00	112.0	0.1400	17.00	3.14	109	26.1	161.7	51.6
200.00	102.0	0.1276	15.48	3.76	99.2	28.7	169.7	54.1
190.00	92.0	0.1150	13.97	3.38	89.2	31.9	178.8	57.1
180.00	81.5	0.1019	12.38	2.99	78.8	36.1	190.2	60.7
170.00	71.0	0.0888	10.78	2.59	68.2	41.8	204.5	65.3
160.00	57.5	0.0719	8.72	2.07	54.6	52.1	228.5	73.0
150.00	32.0	0.0400	4.86	1.11	29.2	97.5	313.0	100.0
149.00	27.5	0.0344	4.17	0.937	24.7	115.2	340.0	108.5
148.00	23.0	0.0288	3.49	0.767	20.2	141.0	376.0	120.0
147.00	14.0	0.0175	2.123	0.425	11.2	254	505	161.0
146.00	11.5	0.0144	1.748	0.331	8.72	327	573	182.8
145.00	9.0	0.0112	1.360	0.234	6.16	462	681	217
144.00	8.0	0.0100	1.213	0.1975	5.20	548	741	236
143.00	7.5	0.00937	1.150	0.182	4.79	595	773	247
142.00	3.7	0.00462	0.561	0.0343	0.904	3150	1780	568
141.00	0.5	0.000675	0.759	-0.0870		"	"	"
140.50	0.0	0.00000	0.0000	-0.106				

Figure 19. Final Straining-Frame Calibration Table



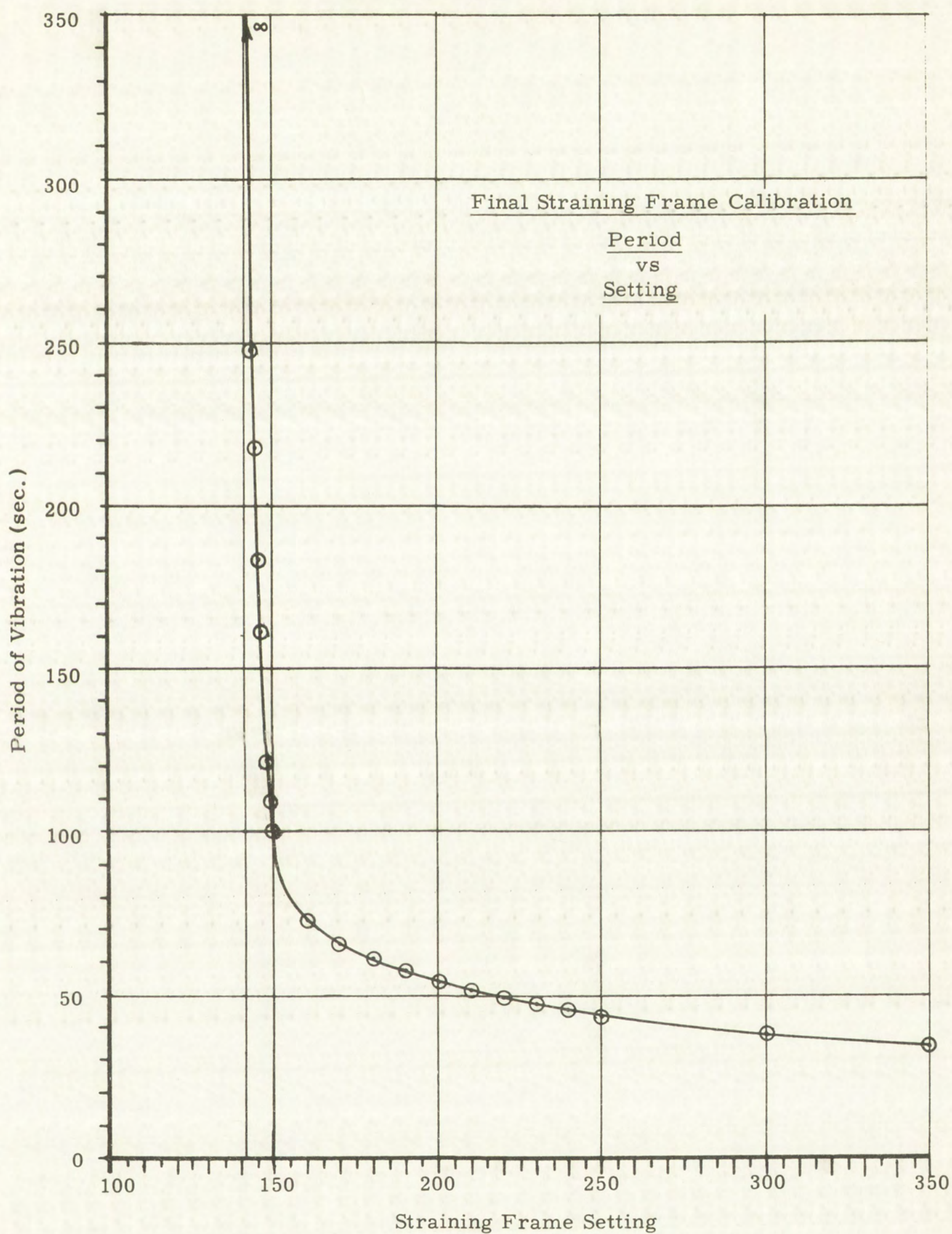
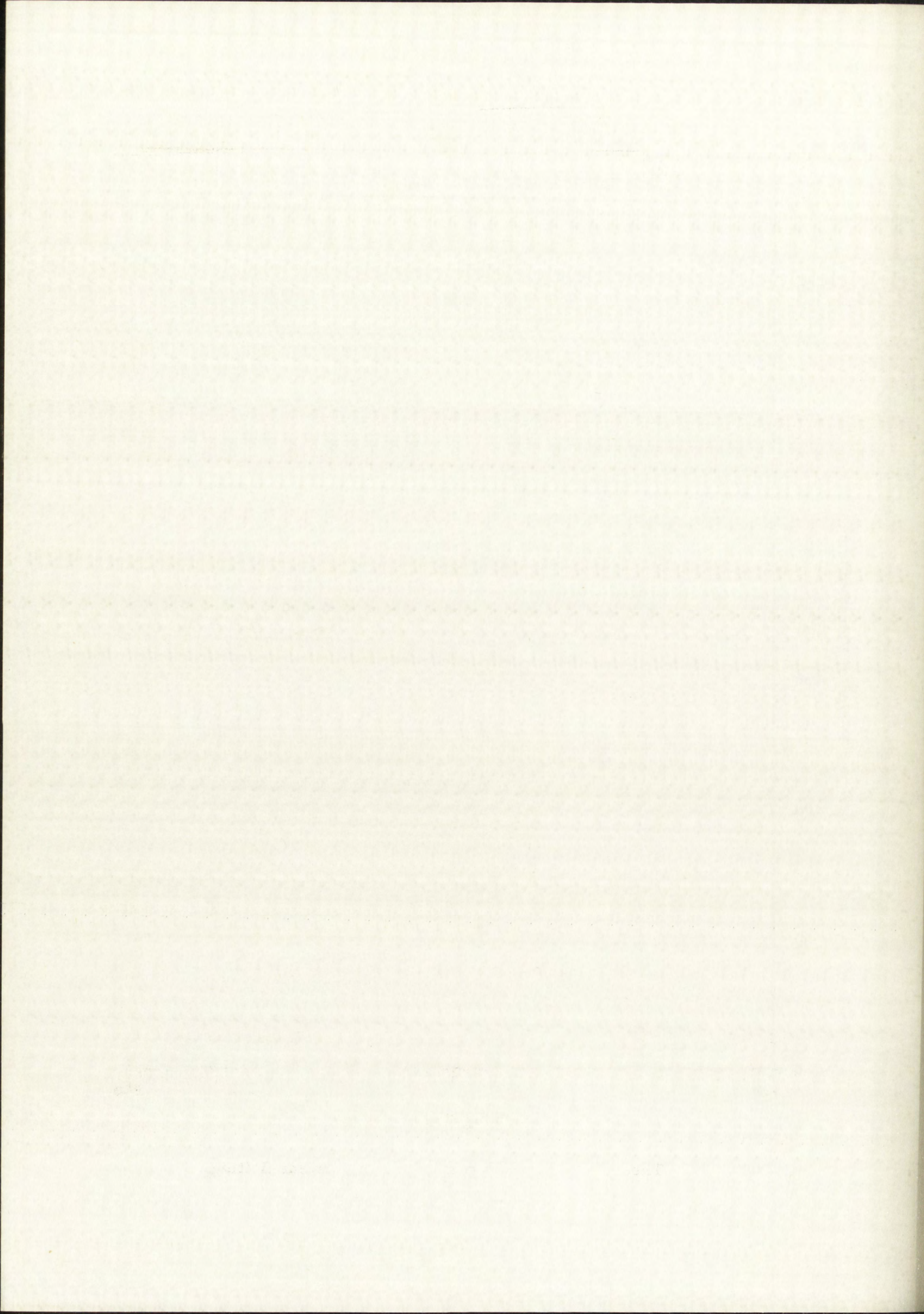


Figure 20. Theoretical Period Versus Straining-Frame Setting



Optical Interference Measurements

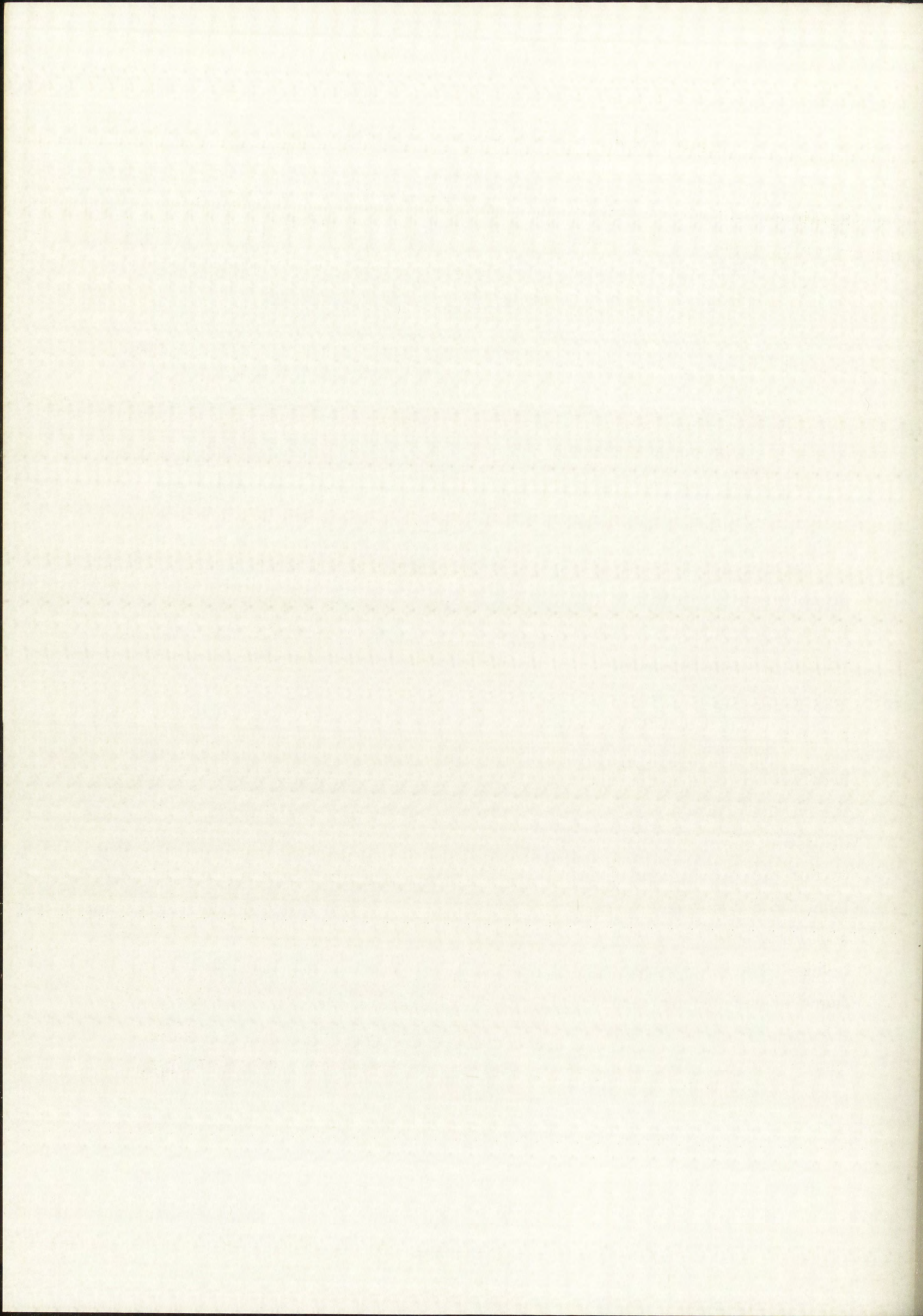
Semiconductor strain gages were ideal for the straining-frame calibration but would not be good for obtaining continuous plots because:

1. Finite gage length results in an average strain reading over the gage length (0.350 inch).
2. The large number of gages needed would drastically alter the elastic properties of the shaft if they were simultaneously mounted to the same shaft.
3. A large number of these gages would be too costly (\$35 each).
4. There is insufficient room to mount enough gages (at least 20 would be needed in the center 2 inches of the shaft).

Optical interference methods, in addition to being inherently accurate, do not require contact with the shaft. Because most engineers have had little experience with interferometry, a brief description of the principle will be presented.

The Principle of Interferometry

There are many types of interferometers and usually each type is best suited for a particular job. The range of uses runs from measuring the surface flatness of gage blocks to the measuring of the optical diameters of distant stars. In all cases, however, an interference condition between two or more coherent light beams is utilized. Normally, monochromatic light from a single source is divided into two or more beams which are then superimposed after doing something to one or more of the beams. After the beams have been recombined, the intensity in the region of superposition is found to vary from point to point between maxima which exceed the sum of the intensities of the individual beams and minima which may be zero. There are two main methods of obtaining multiple beams from a single source:



1. Division of wave front, in which one beam passes through apertures placed side by side. This method requires the use of a point source to maintain coherency.
2. Division of amplitude, in which the beam is divided at one or more partially reflecting surfaces. Here, an extended source may be used and greater fringe contrast and intensity obtained.

The type of interferometer commonly used for comparing gage block lengths and measuring surface flatness is referred to as a Fizeau-type or gage-measuring interferometer. This was the only type available to the writer which had sufficient field of view for the shaft-measuring job. See Figure 21 for an optical schematic of a gage-measuring interferometer. In this type of interferometer, the interference pattern is the result of standing waves created in the region between the reference optical flat and the surface being investigated by multiple reflections of the light beam. This situation is shown, greatly exaggerated, in Figure 22.

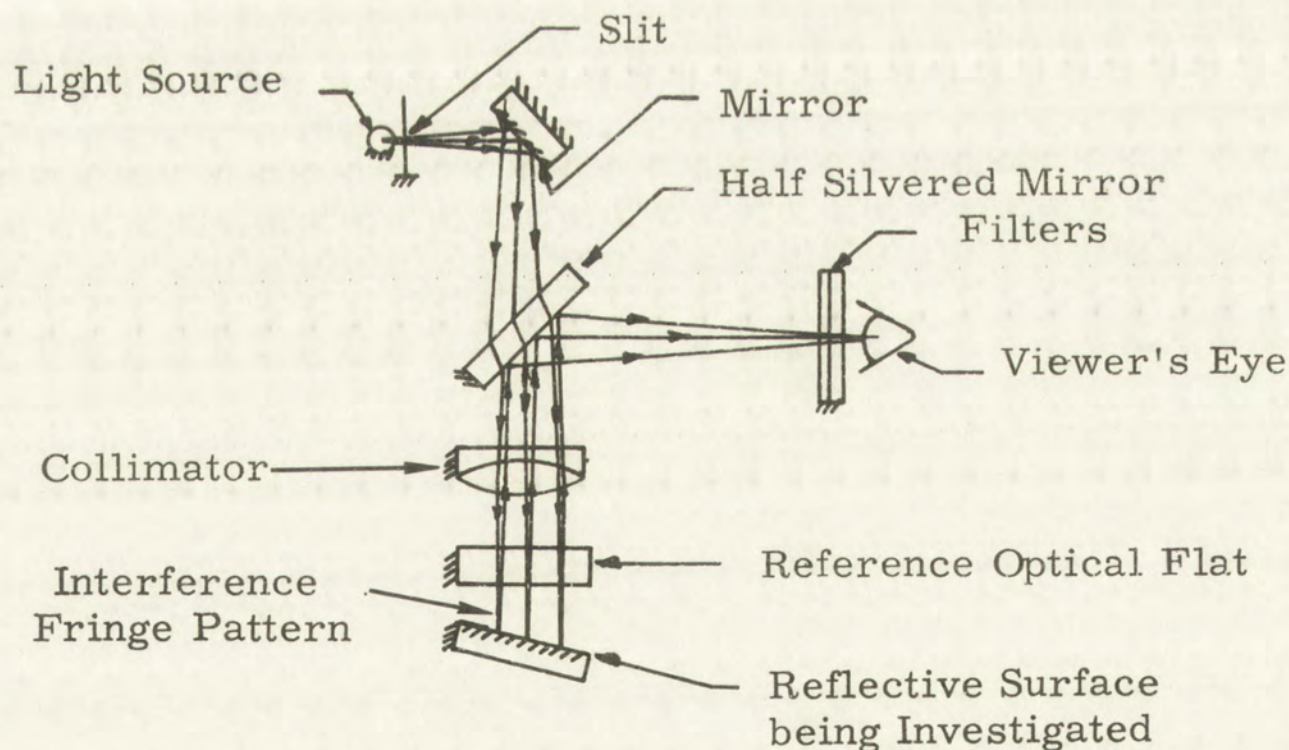


Figure 21. Gage-Measuring Interferometer

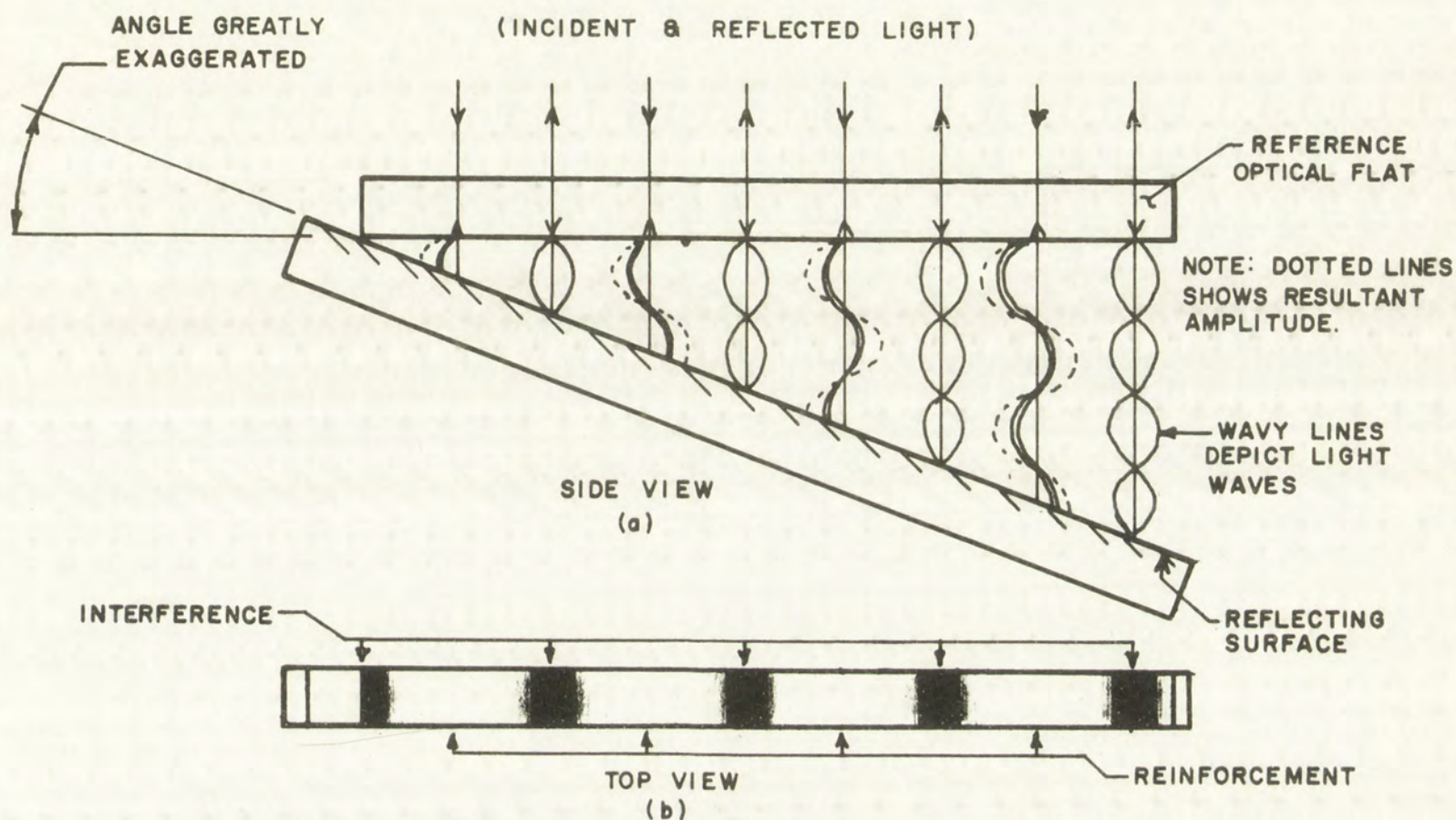
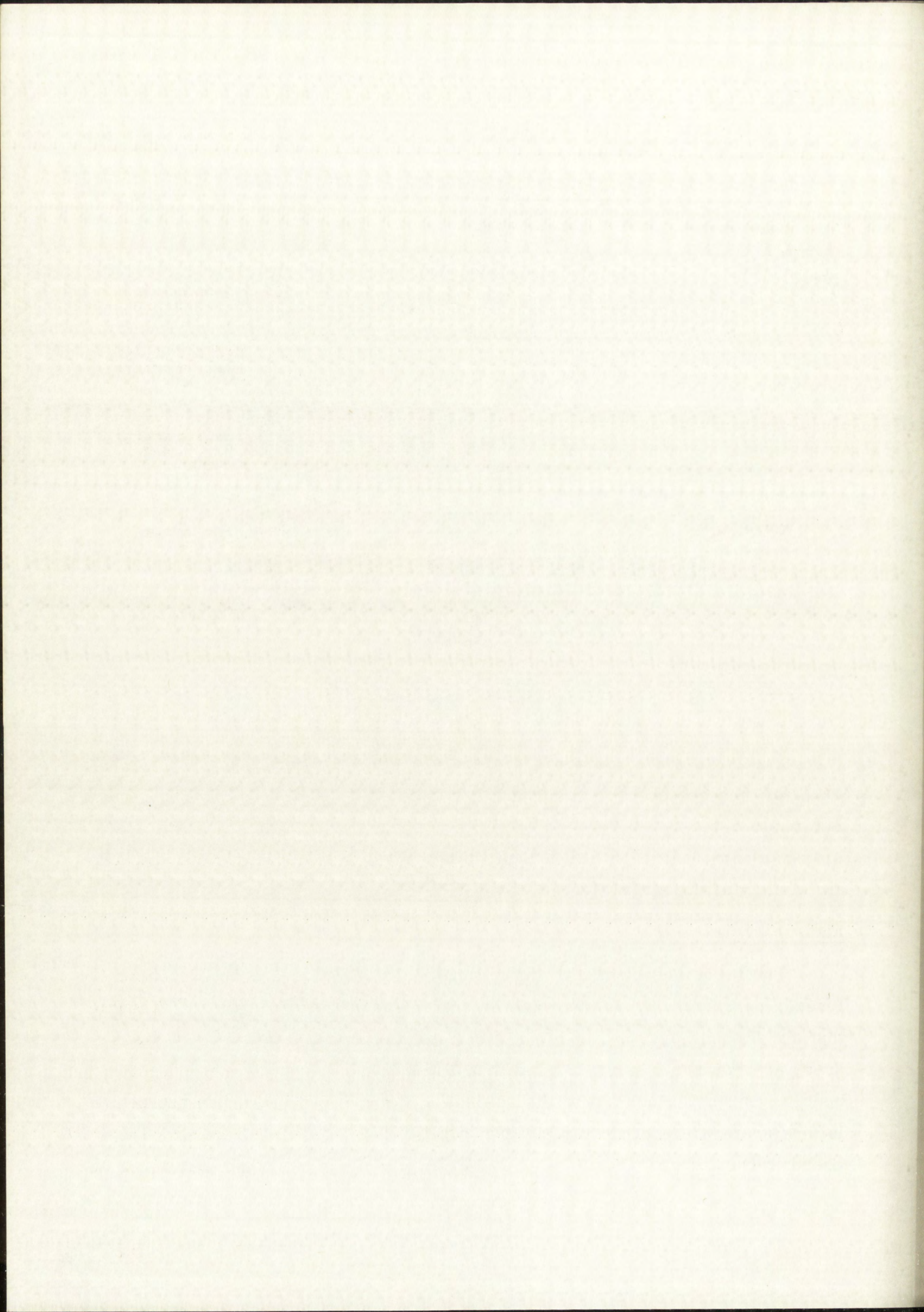


Figure 22. Standing-Wave Fringe Pattern

In this diagram, points 1, 3, 5, and 7 represent dark fringes or nodes. At all of these points, the resultant light-wave amplitude is zero; thus, there is complete dark. Points 2, 4, and 6 are antinodes or bands of maximum light intensity. Here, the resultant amplitude is seen to be greater than the amplitudes of the two reflected waves.^[13]

Measuring Technique

The technique of measuring minute shaft curvatures with light interference patterns will also be explained with exaggerated diagrams. Assume that a reference optical flat is resting upon the curved surface to be measured, as shown in Figure 23, and that a monochromatic collimated light beam is impinging normal to the reference flat. A vertical scale and parallel horizontal lines depicting integral multiples of $\lambda/2$ have been superimposed on the figure. It can be seen that an interference fringe will occur at



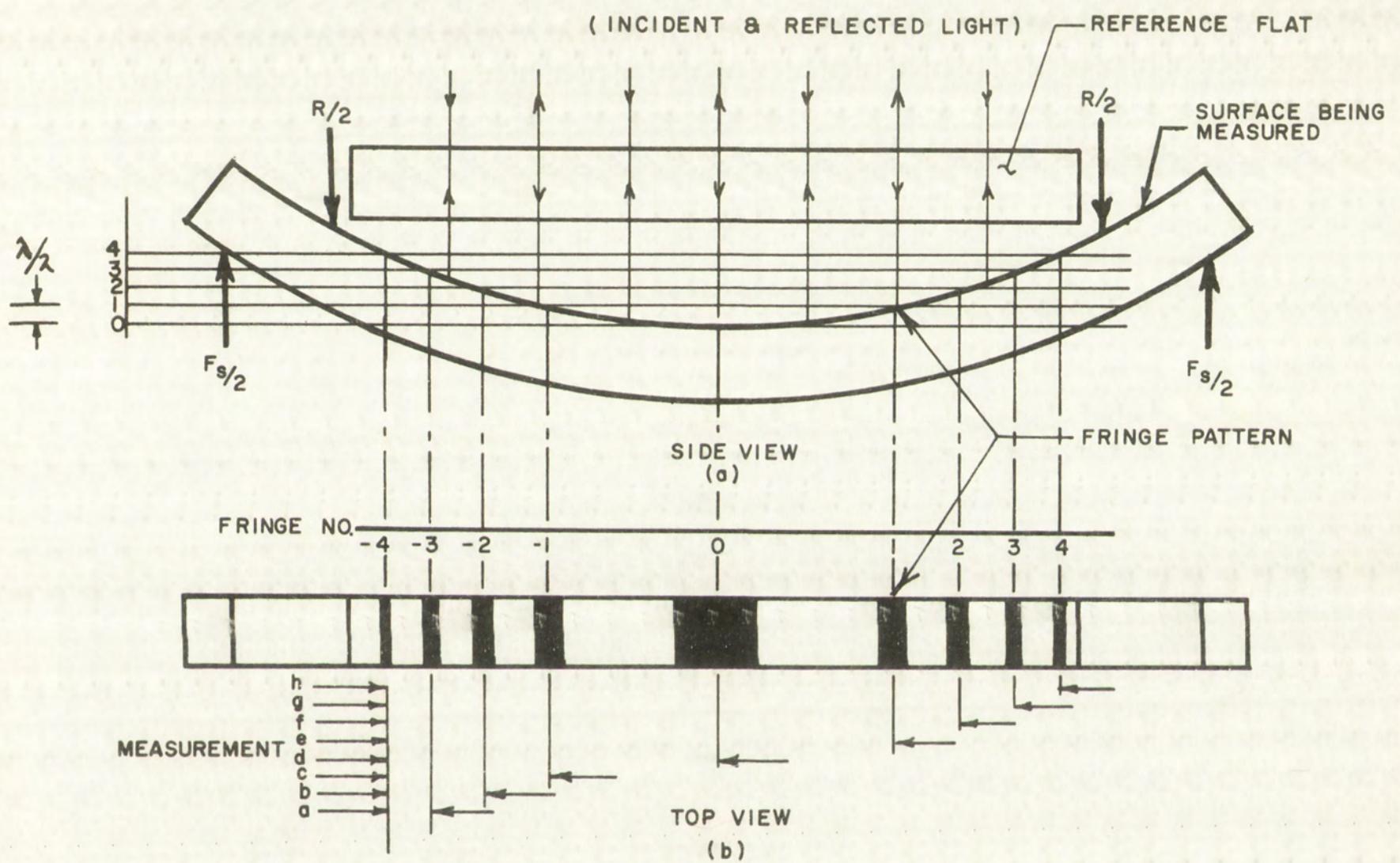
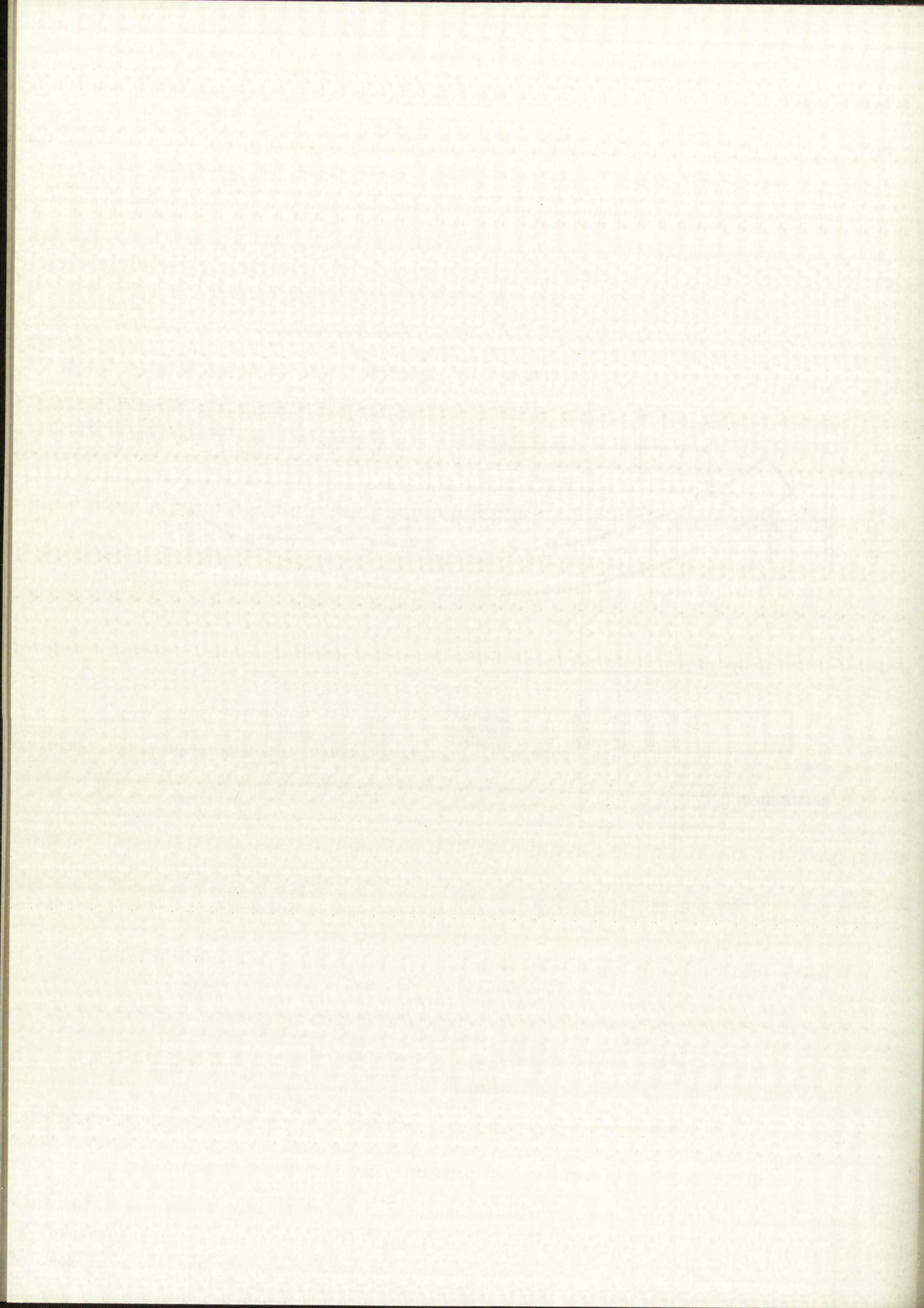


Figure 23. Measuring Curves with Interference Fringes



the intersections of the $\lambda/2$ lines with the curved surface. Figure 23b shows the top view of this hypothetical fringe pattern (in both views, 23a and 23b, only the centerline of the fringe has been drawn). It would be possible to measure the horizontal positions of the fringes in view 23b and then replot the shaft curvature to any vertical scale desired (to emphasize a minute curve, for instance), knowing that each successive fringe represents a change in vertical spacing of $\lambda/2$ of the measuring light. This measurement could be conveniently done from a photograph of the original fringe pattern. For small curvatures, only a very few fringes would appear in the arrangement shown in Figure 23a, and then it would be difficult to determine the exact centers of the fringes for measurement. Figure 24a-d shows an improved way of measuring small curvatures with the same apparatus.

Here, the curved surface is tilted so that the average fringe is narrow enough so that the center of the fringe can be easily and accurately determined. (The optimum width would usually be such that the fringes on the photograph were just slightly wider than the hairline of the measuring instrument.) In this case, the picture contains many more fringes than before, and each fringe may be more accurately located. The method of plotting will now be explained. Referring to Figure 24c, which shows the data-reduction process for the curve in Figure 24a, column 2 is the measured horizontal position of the various fringes. Column 3 is the theoretical fringe order (not an integer) at the position shown in column 2, assuming a perfectly flat surface of the same average slope as the curved surface. (This theoretically flat surface is also shown in Figure 24a.) Column 4 is the vertical difference between the theoretical flat and the curve in fringes ($\lambda/2$) at each position shown in column 2. Figure 24d shows a plot of columns 2 and 4 with the column 4 scale greatly exaggerated.

Selection of Interferometer

In order to use the method of measurement outlined in the preceding section, several requirements had to be met:

1. The interferometer had to have at least a 2-inch field of view.
2. The interferometer had to have provisions for delicate

The first part of the paper is devoted to a general discussion of the problem of the existence of a solution of the system of equations (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the system has a solution for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β if and only if the conditions (2) are satisfied. The second part of the paper is devoted to a detailed study of the properties of the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β is unique and depends continuously on the parameters α and β . The third part of the paper is devoted to a study of the properties of the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β is unique and depends continuously on the parameters α and β . The fourth part of the paper is devoted to a study of the properties of the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β is unique and depends continuously on the parameters α and β . The fifth part of the paper is devoted to a study of the properties of the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β is unique and depends continuously on the parameters α and β . The sixth part of the paper is devoted to a study of the properties of the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β is unique and depends continuously on the parameters α and β . The seventh part of the paper is devoted to a study of the properties of the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β is unique and depends continuously on the parameters α and β . The eighth part of the paper is devoted to a study of the properties of the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β is unique and depends continuously on the parameters α and β . The ninth part of the paper is devoted to a study of the properties of the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β is unique and depends continuously on the parameters α and β . The tenth part of the paper is devoted to a study of the properties of the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β . It is shown that the solution of the system (1) for arbitrary values of the parameters α and β is unique and depends continuously on the parameters α and β .

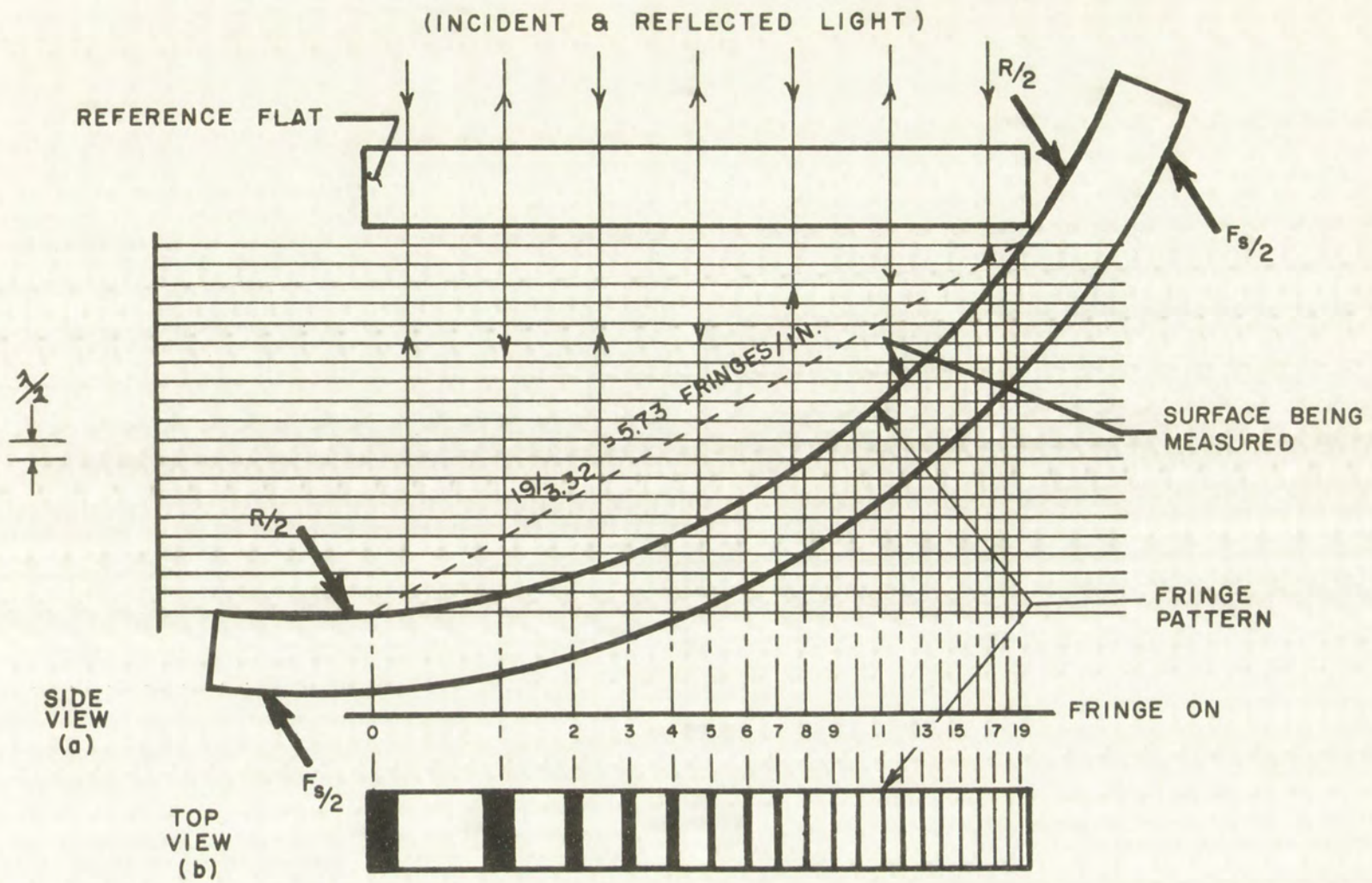


TABLE			
1 NO.	2 MEAS (IN)	3 THEOR	4 DIFF. (FRINGES)
0	0	0	0
1	.66	3.78	2.78
2	1.03	5.90	3.90
3	1.31	7.51	4.51
4	1.53	8.77	4.77
5	1.73	9.91	4.91
6	1.91	10.93	4.93
7	2.08	11.90	4.90
8	2.21	12.67	4.67
9	2.37	13.58	4.58
10	2.49	14.26	4.26
11	2.60	14.90	3.90
12	2.71	15.53	3.53
13	2.81	16.10	3.10
14	2.91	16.68	2.68
15	3.00	17.19	2.19
16	3.09	17.70	1.70
17	3.18	18.22	1.22
18	3.26	18.67	.67
19	3.32	19.02	0

(c)

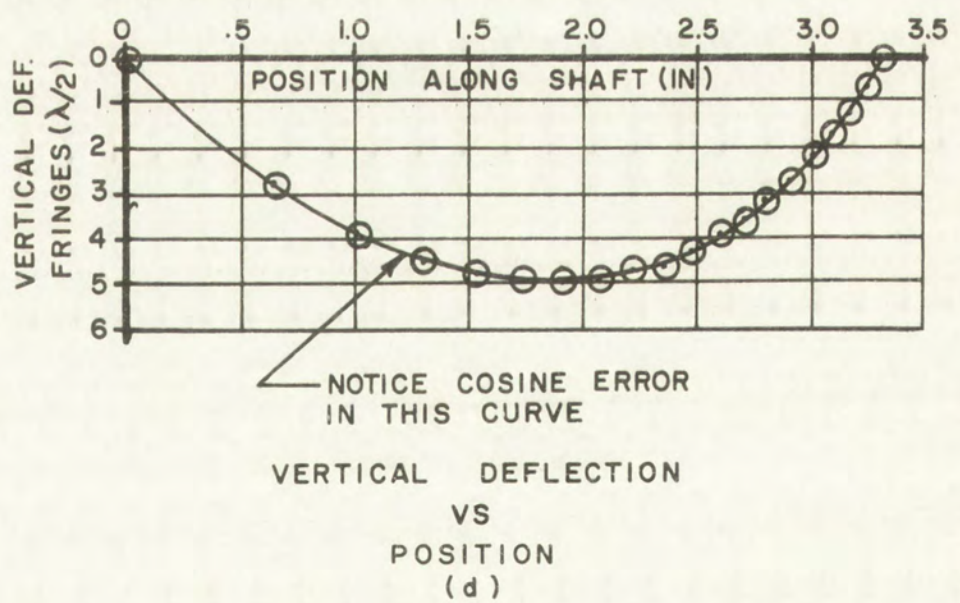
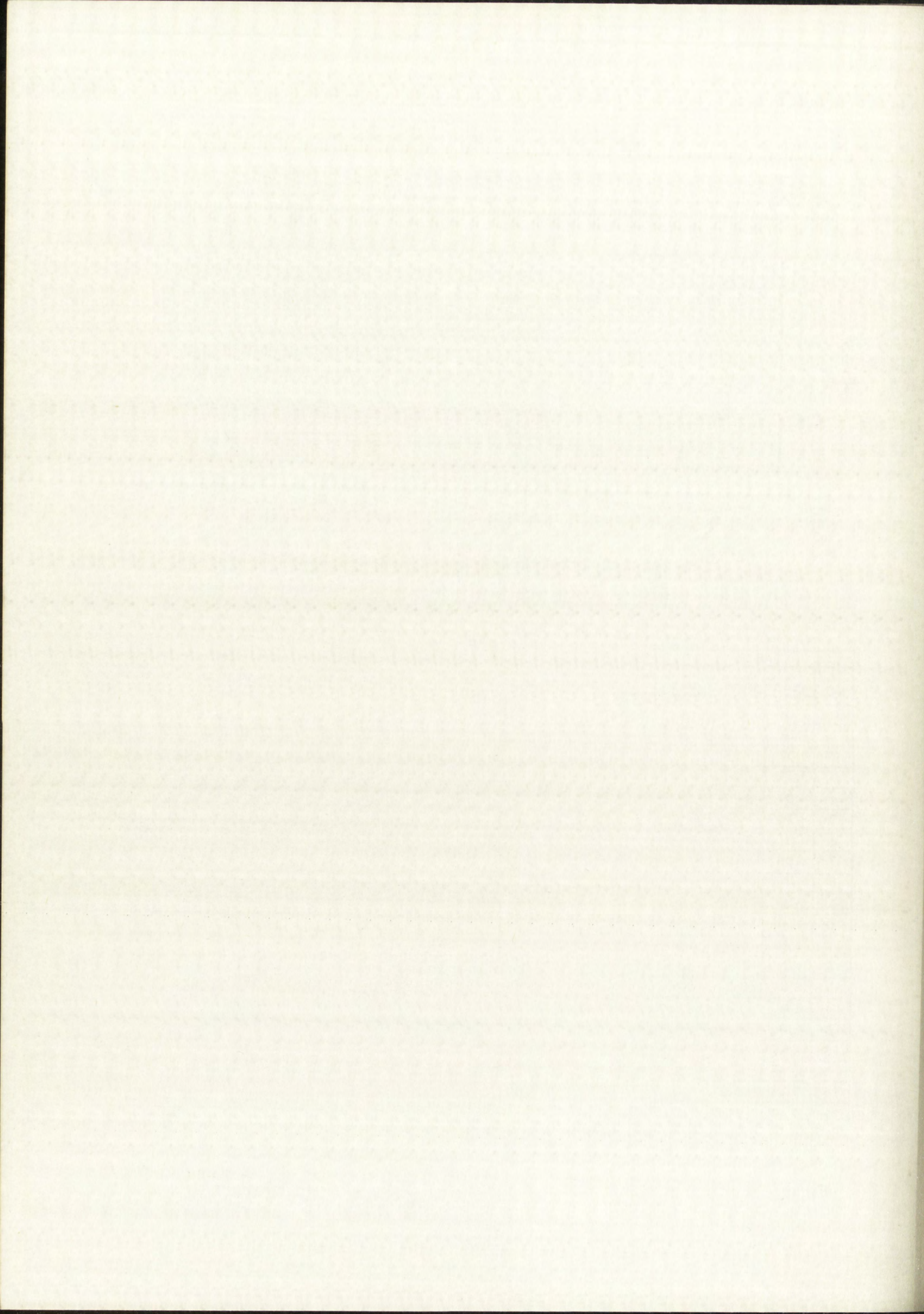


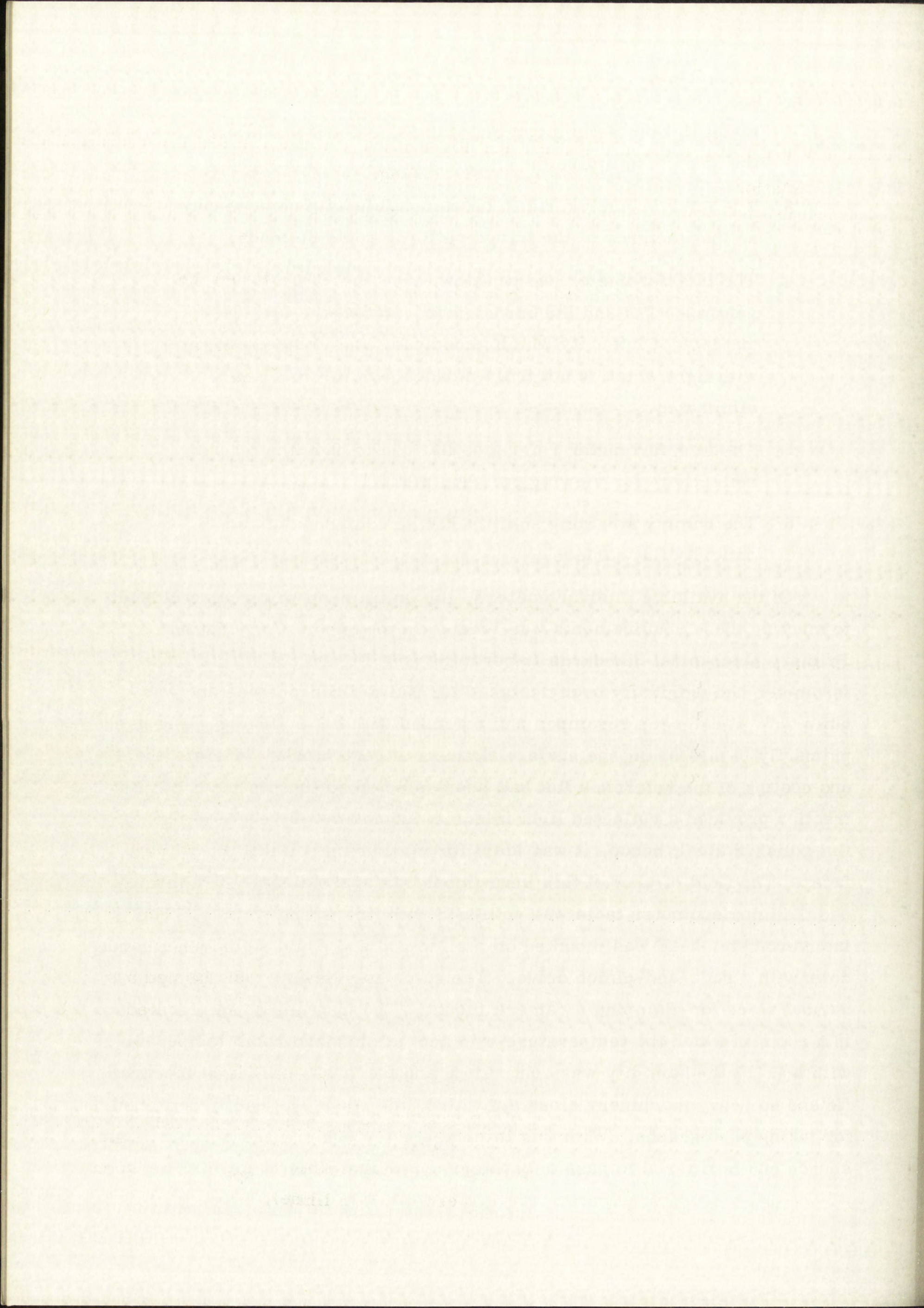
Figure 24. Improved Method for Measuring Curves with Interference Fringes



manipulation of the slope between the reference flat and the shaft to optimize the fringe spacing.

3. The interferometer had to be compatible with photography so that pictures of the fringe patterns could be made.
4. The interferometer had to allow close spacing between the reference flat and the bowed shaft, so that the fuzziness and lack of intensity which accompany high fringe orders with light which is not truly monochromatic would be eliminated.
5. The interferometer reference flat had to have the proper reflectivity for viewing polished metals.
6. The dummy straining shaft had to be equipped with an optically flat surface.

Of the available interferometers, the instrument which came closest to meeting these requirements was located in the Sandia Corporation Primary Mechanical Standards Laboratory (see Figure 25). This interferometer had originally been designed for Naval Ordnance use and was quite old. It had been revamped and equipped with better filters. It is used primarily in measuring the surface flatness of gage blocks. The material and coating of the reference flat had been selected so that its index of refraction provided a reflected light intensity approximately equal to that of flat polished steel; hence, it was ideal for measuring polished metal surfaces. The field of view of this instrument was approximately 2.5 inches, and the interferometer table was equipped with fine tilting screws. The interferometer head was mounted on a slide rod and could be driven up and down with a rack-and-pinion drive. The extending viewing tube formed a natural place for clamping a camera mount. The instrument was located in a room in which the temperature was kept at standard room temperature, within $\pm 1^{\circ}\text{F}$; the humidity was controlled; and there was only light foot traffic and no heavy machinery close by. Also, the room was easily darkened for taking photographs. With this interferometer (which uses a helium light source and is filtered to pass only the green helium line), a spacing between



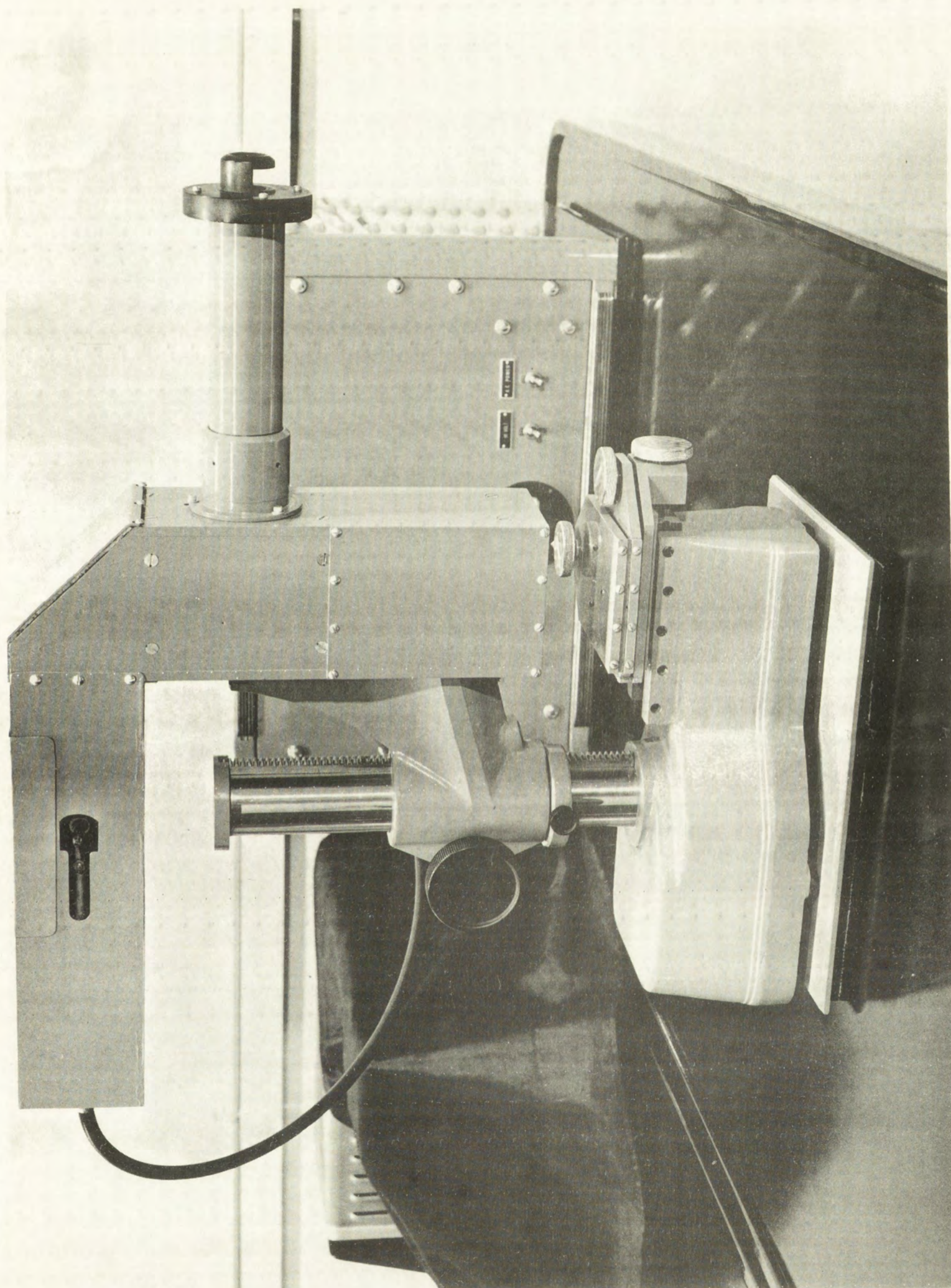
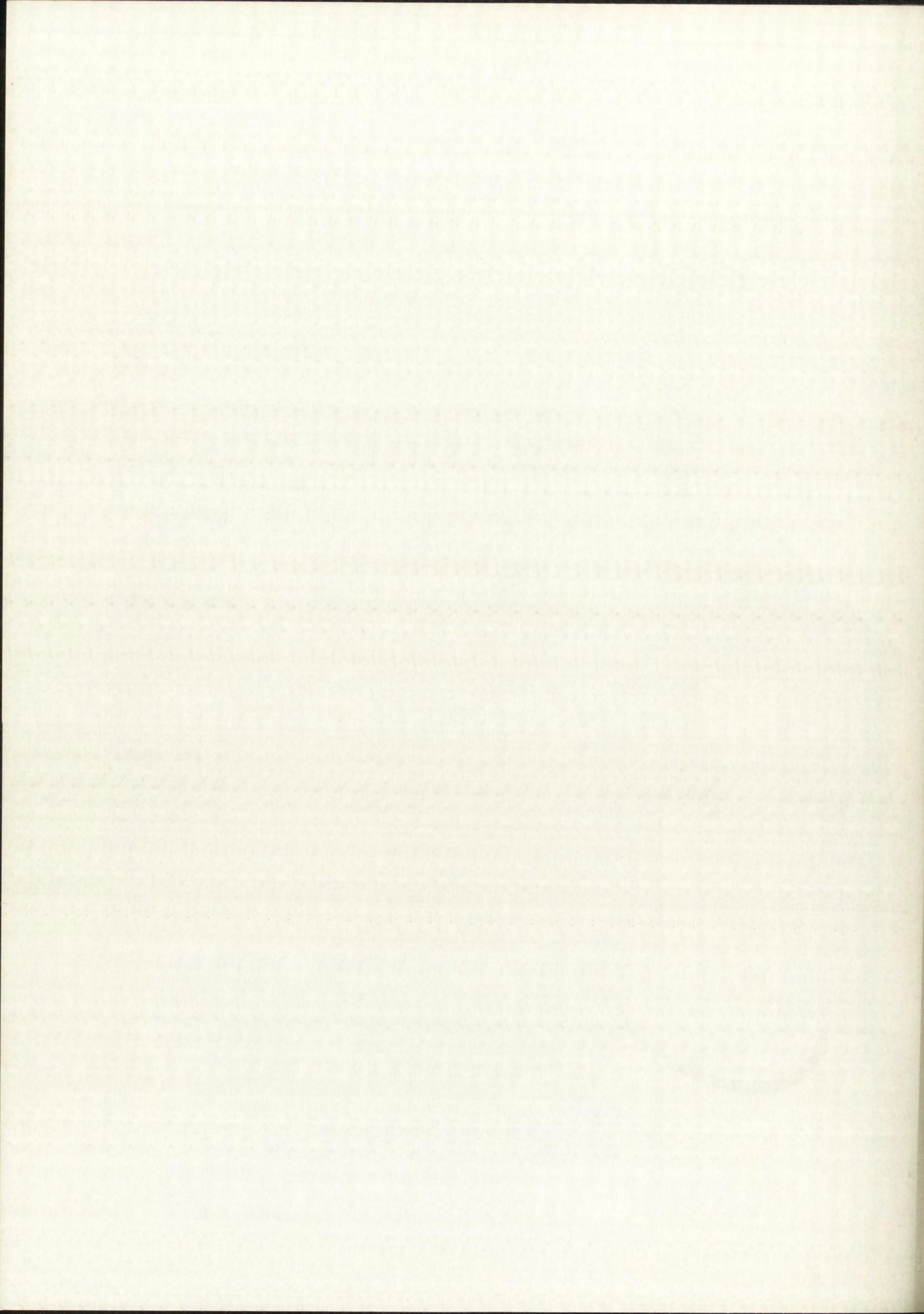


Figure 25. Gage-Measuring Interferometer



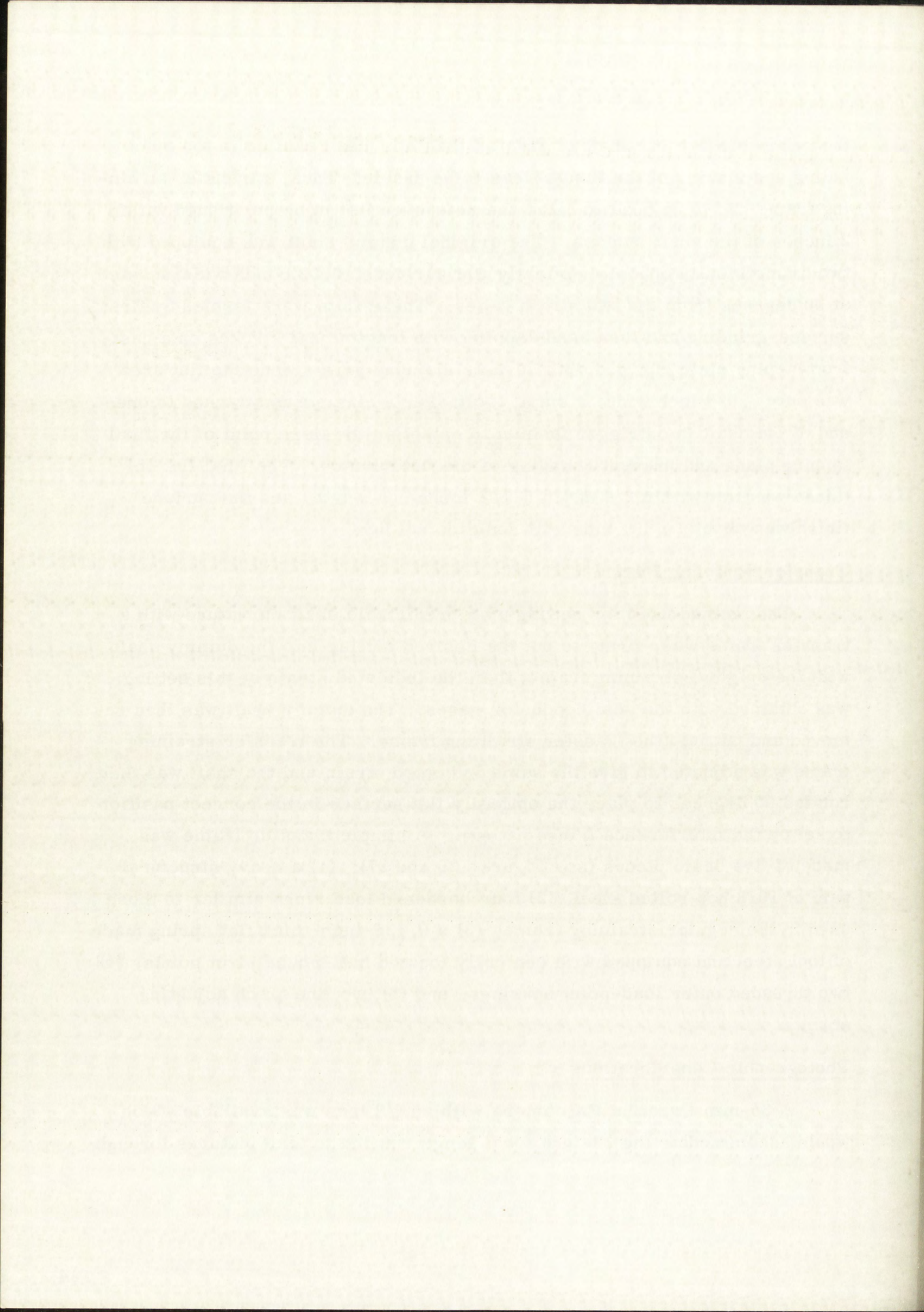
the reference flat and shaft of greater than 2 inches resulted in too much fading and fuzzing of the fringe lines to be usable. Thus, a transfer straining frame had to be built to allow the reference flat to be positioned within 2 inches of the shaft surface. The original dummy shaft was equipped with two diametrically opposite optically flat surfaces, 0.023-inch wide, located at 90 degrees from the two strain gages. These flats were formed by first surface-grinding and then hand-lapping with longitudinal strokes on a cast-iron lapping plate charged with 50- μ in. diamond grit. Since the flat area was only 0.023 inch wide, a small toolmaker's clamp was attached to one end of the shaft in outrigger fashion to establish the third point of the final lapping plane and prevent rounding of the flat surface. The final flat obtained was flat within 2 μ in. in 5-1/2 inches of length, and the surface finish was about 1 μ in. rms with longitudinal lay.

Transfer Straining Frame

The method used for setting up a predictable shaft curvature with a transfer frame was, first, to put the desired setting into the dummy shaft with the original straining frame; then the indicated strain at this setting was obtained with the semiconductor gages. The dummy shaft was then removed and put into the transfer straining frame. The transfer straining frame was adjusted to give the same indicated strain and the shaft was then rotated 90 degrees to place the optically flat surface in the correct position to set up the interference fringe pattern. A simple transfer frame was made of five basic pieces (see Figures 26 and 27): (1) a heavy structural part of 1018 hot-rolled steel, (2) four hardened load rings similar to those used in the regular straining frame, (3) a 0.125-inch-thick flat spring made of tool steel and equipped with centrally located half-round pivot points, (4) two threaded outer load-point housings, and (5) two fine-pitch adjusting screws.

Photographic Considerations

A 35-mm Practina FX camera with an f/2 lens was available which would accommodate the 18-inch focal length needed to take pictures through



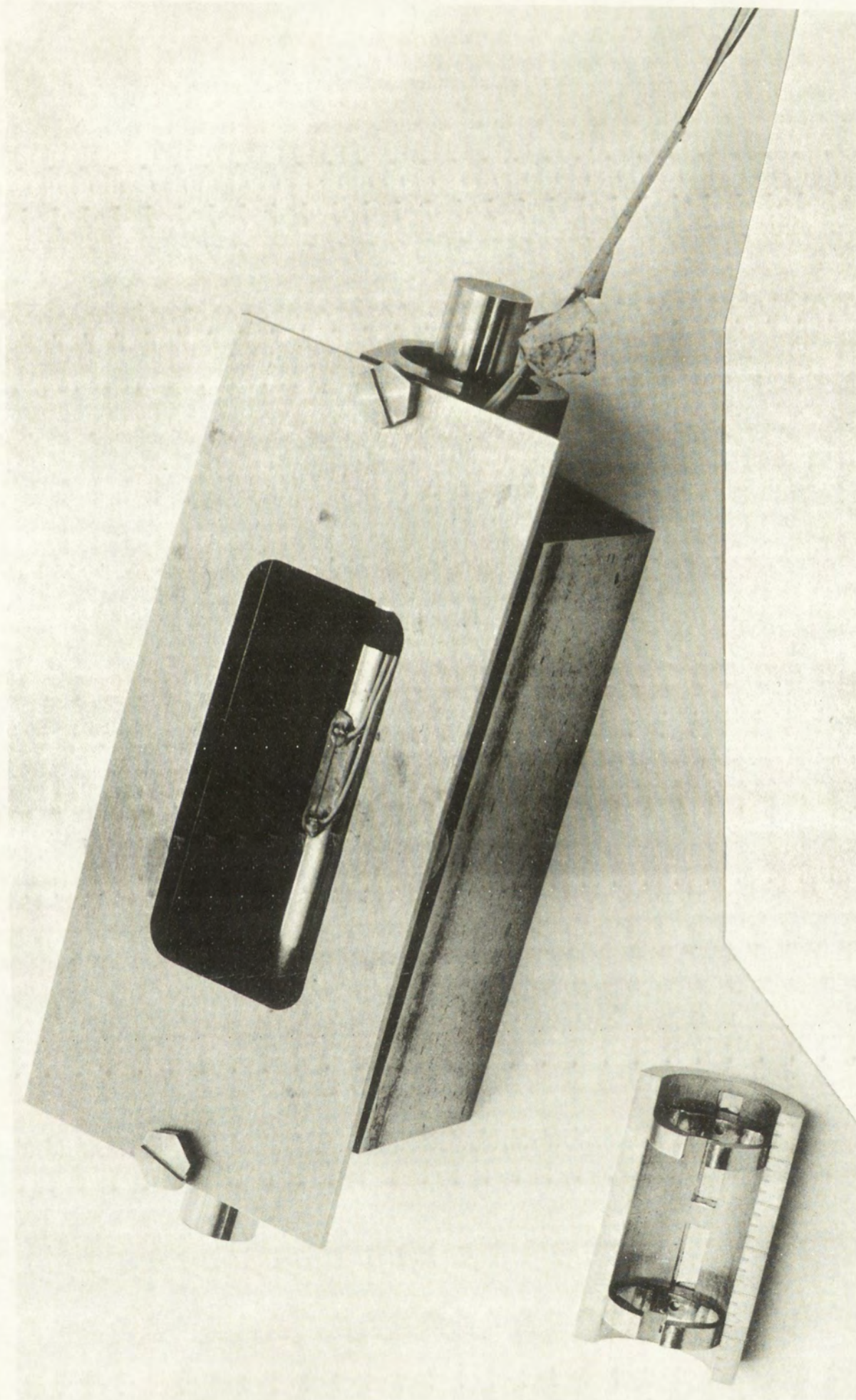
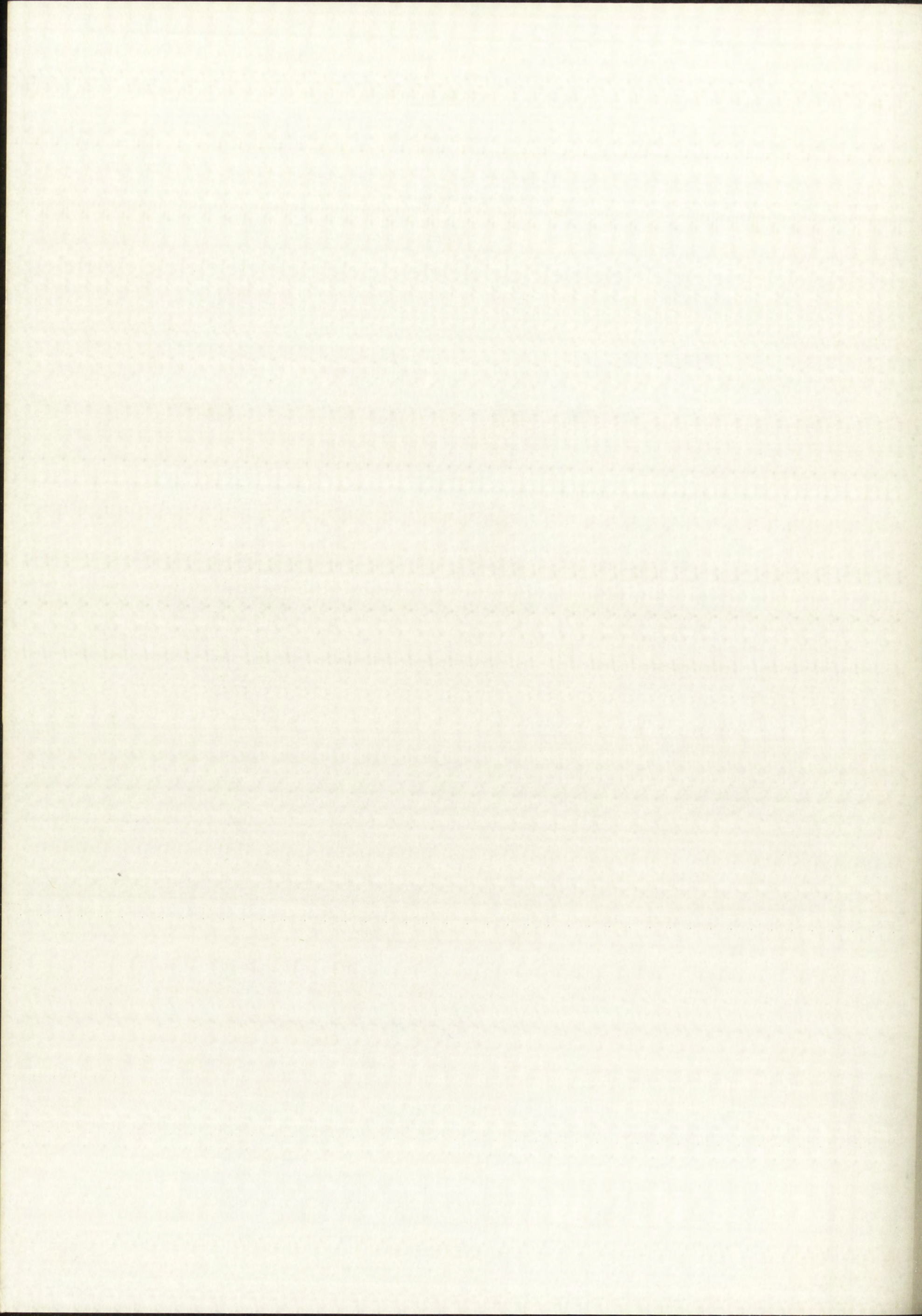


Figure 26. Transfer Straining Frame



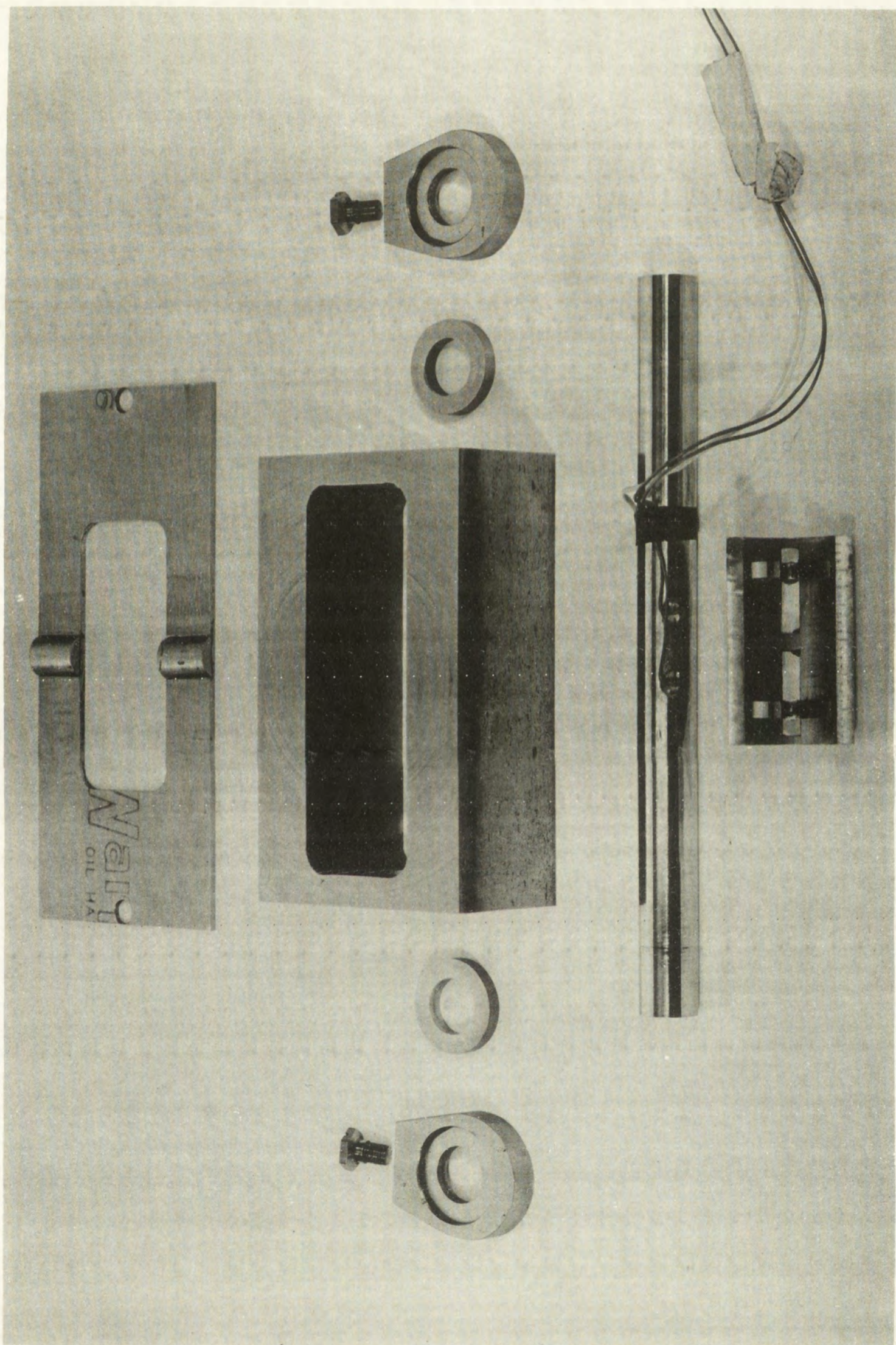
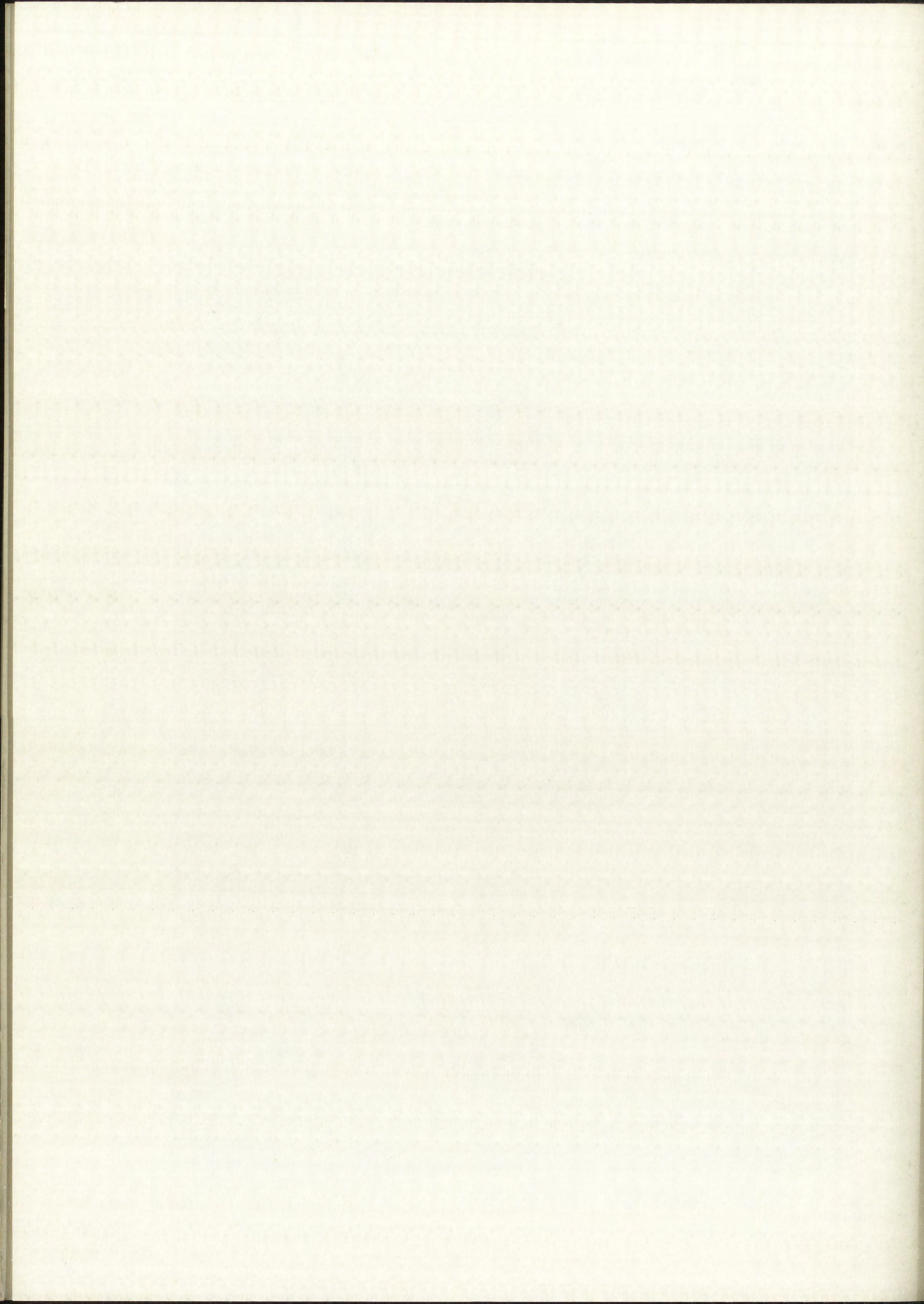


Figure 27. Transfer Straining Frame



the interferometer. The small amount of light given off by the 0.023-inch-wide fringe pattern 18 inches away would definitely mean a time exposure. It had already been noted that a slight vibration of the interferometer table caused the fringes to become fuzzy to the eye, so it was easy to see that extreme stability of the camera and interferometer were required for sharp time exposures. The electrical inlet cord from the helium exciter unit to the interferometer was vibration isolated to reduce a 60-cycle vibration. A sample series of photographs was made to determine in advance the suitability of the camera and to establish the best camera settings and times of exposure. The results showed that about 3 minutes in an entirely dark room was best. In the interest of uniformity, a remote shutter release and stop watch were used and the operator left the immediate area during the exposure. A fine-grained German film was used to allow ultimate resolution from the finished negatives. See Figure 28 for an enlarged print of a typical shaft fringe pattern (no difference in fringe spacing is discernible to the naked eye). See Figure 29 for a tabulation of the final photographs taken. All 33 negatives are available, but only 11 of them have been analyzed.

Data Reduction

The process of data reduction used follows the same general pattern as discussed in the section on measurement technique; however, several additional steps were necessary to get the data into a usable final form. A preliminary step was added to ease the fringe measurements and reduce the chances for errors in counting fringes. This consisted of (1) taping the negative to be measured to a glass microscope stage with masking tape, (2) taping a straightedge formed of 0.002-inch-thick brass shimstock along the edge of the fringe pattern, and (3) scribing a line in the brass opposite each fifth fringe. (The lines corresponding to each tenth fringe were made longer and were numbered for positive identification.) A fine needle ground to an even sharper point was used as a scribe. The scribing operation was done under 40x magnification. This numbering system eliminated further counting of the fringes, but the final measurements were taken directly from the negative.

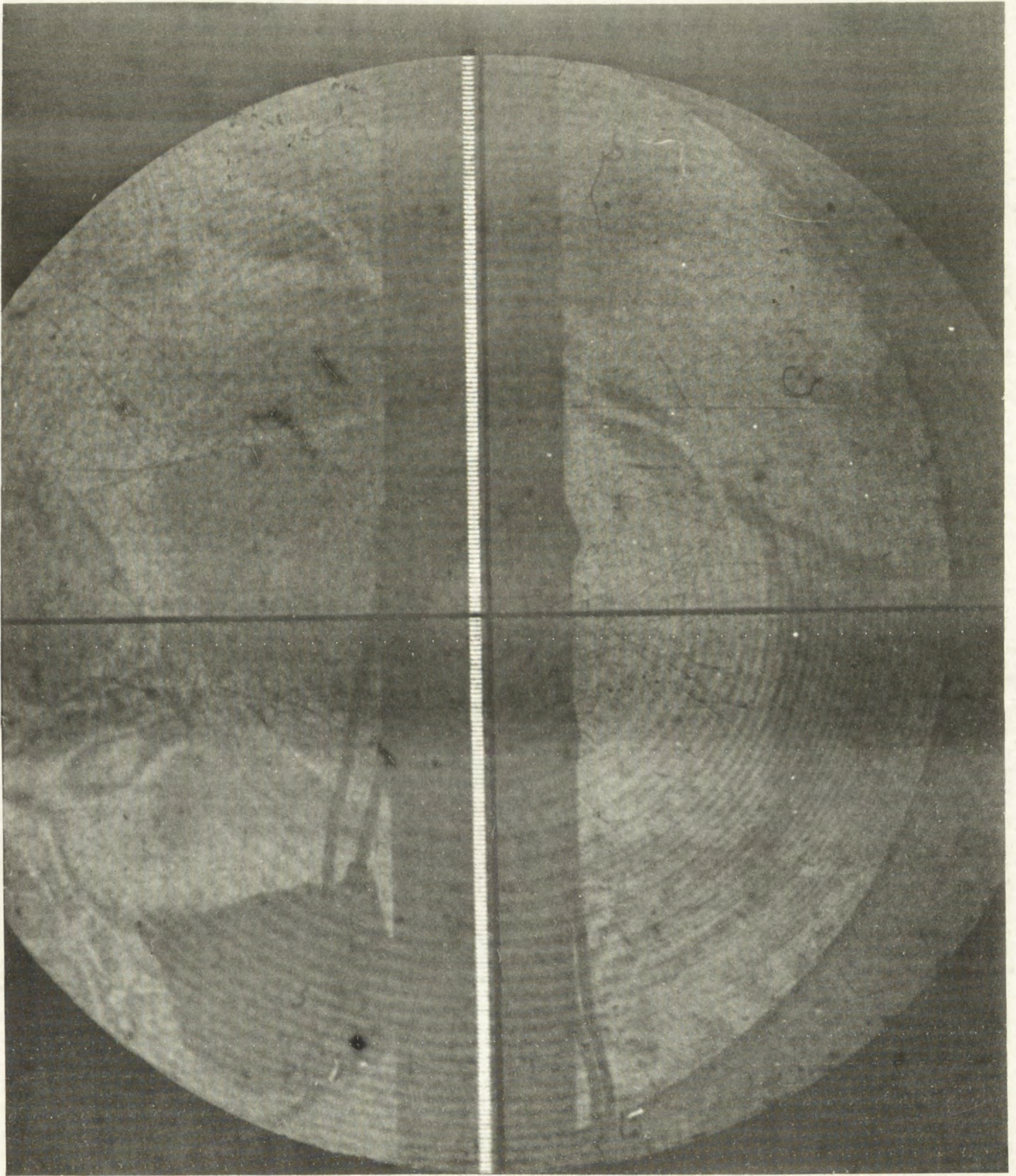
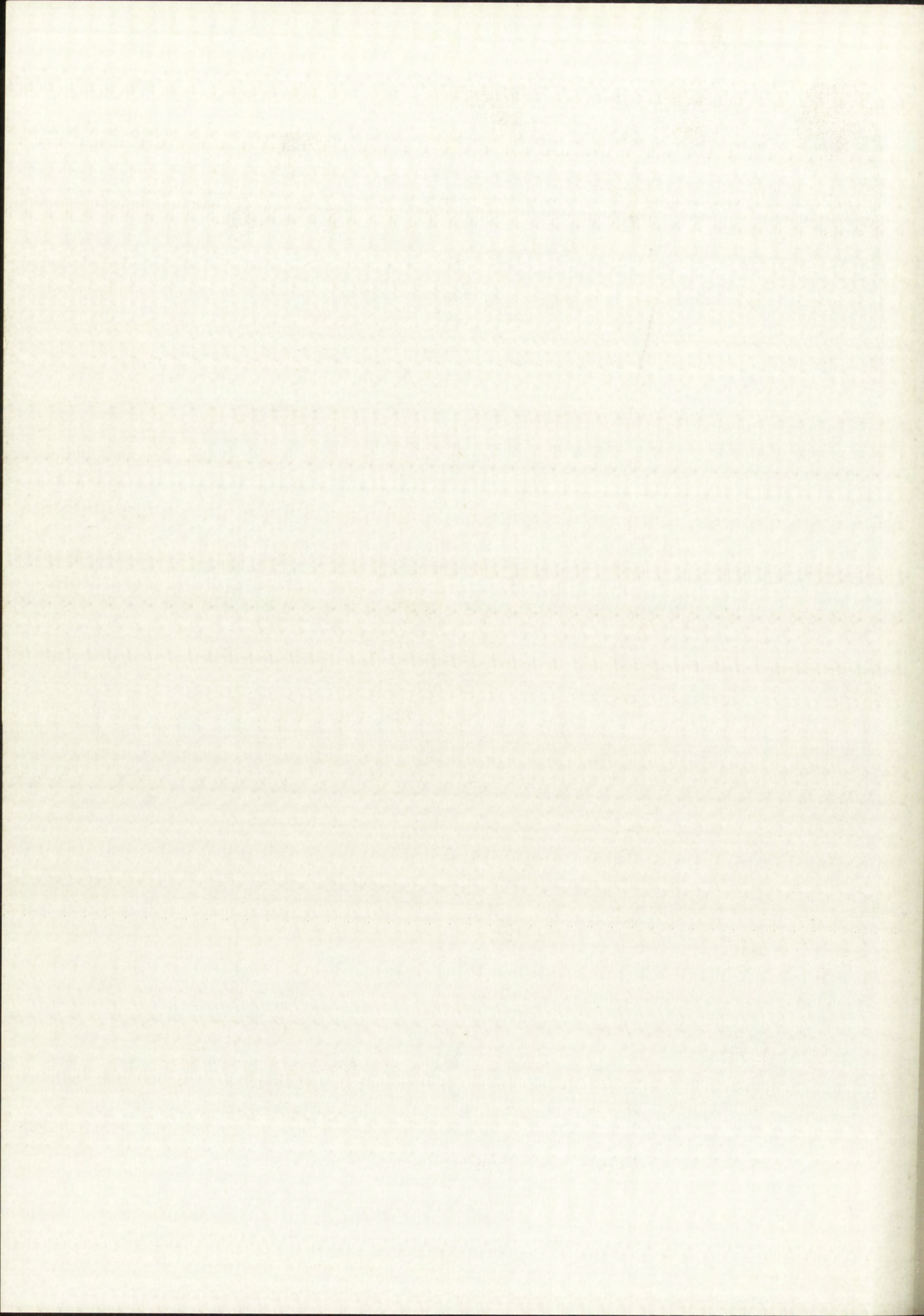
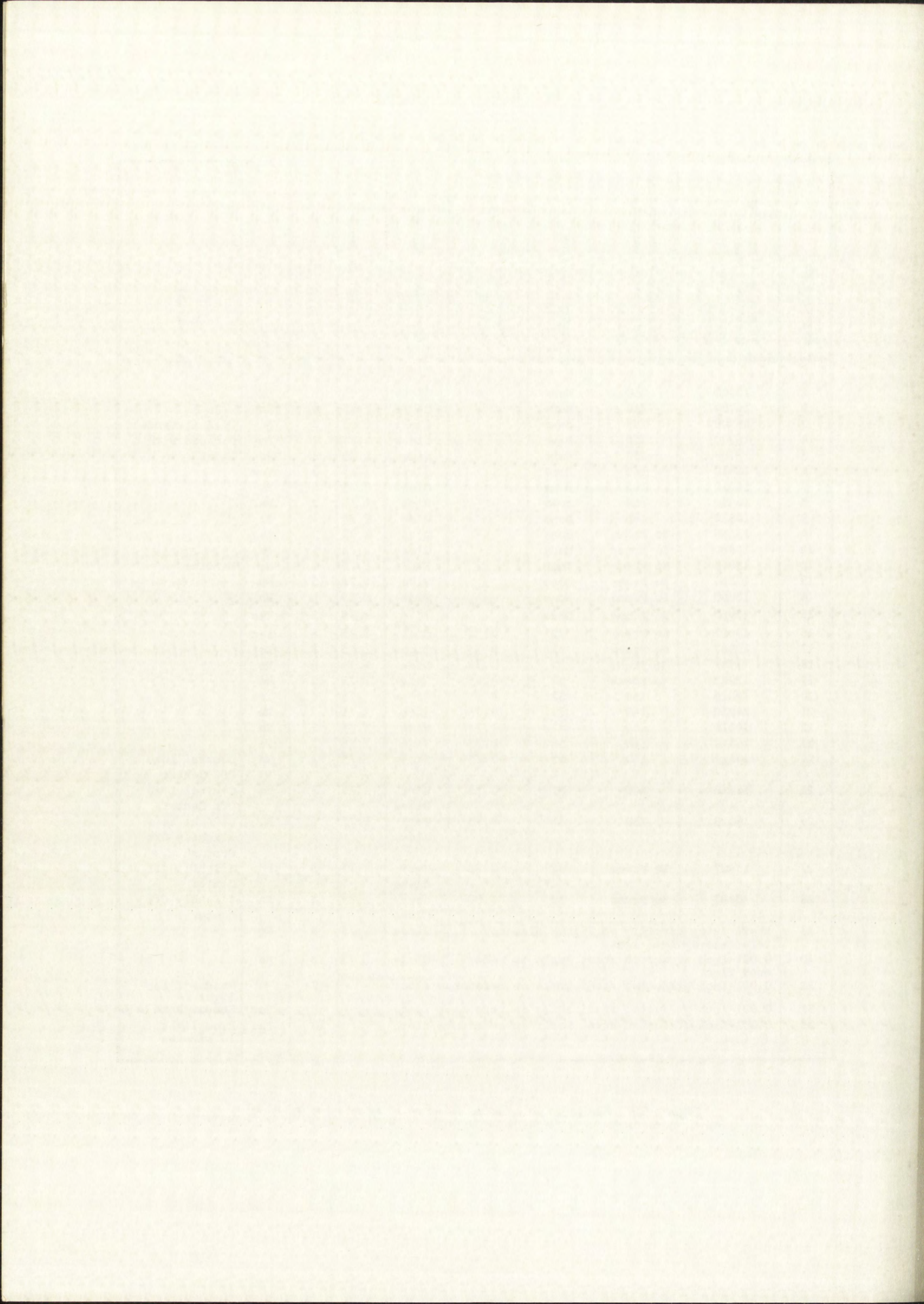


Figure 28. Typical Fringe Pattern



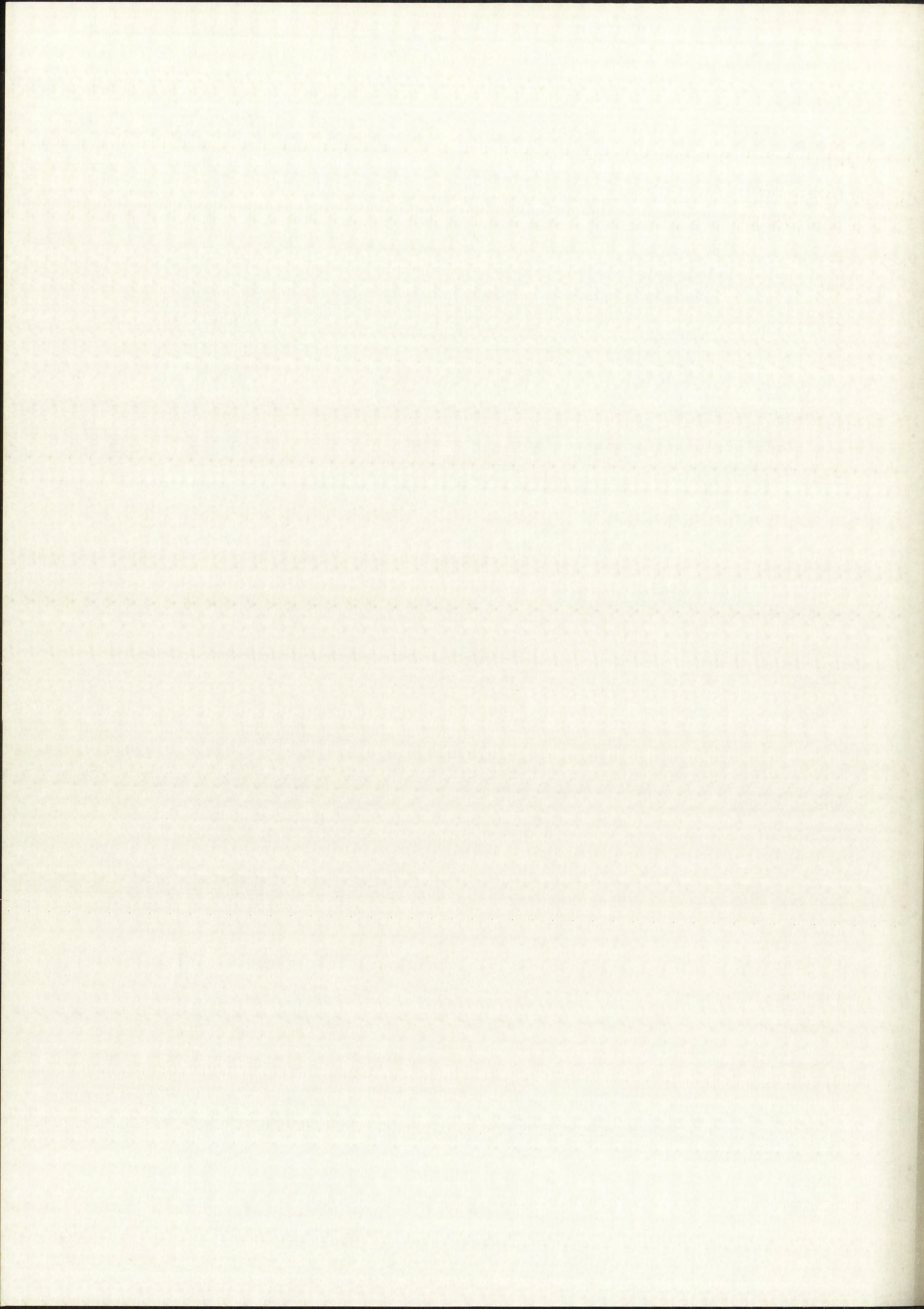
Negative No.	Strain Setting Before Rotation (Does not Correct for Indicator Drift)	Straining-Frame Setting (Neglecting Indicator Drift)	Central Loading (grams)	Central Loadpoint Spacing (in.)	Approximate Fringe Spacing	f Setting at 17.5-in. Distance	Exposure Time	Data Reduced?	Comments
1	16700	250	None		Close	1.65	3	Yes	
2	16700	250	None		Close	1.65	6	No	
3	16700	250	None		Close	1.65	3	No	19.2 distance
4	16700	250	None		Close	1.75	3	No	focused with
5	16700	250	None		Wide	1.75	3	No	light
6	14810	160	None		Close	1.75	3	Yes	
7	14810	160	None		Close	1.75	6	No	
8	14810	160	None		Wide	1.75	3	No	
9	14810	160	None		Wide	1.75	6	No	
10	13860	No Frame	None		Close	1.75	3	Yes	
11	13860	No Frame	None		Close	1.75	6	No	
12	13860	No Frame	None		Wide	1.75	3	No	Misfire
13	13860	No Frame	None		Wide	1.75	3	No	
14	13860	No Frame	None		Wide	1.75	6	No	
15	13860	No Frame	None		Very Close	1.75	3	Yes	
16	13987	No Frame	32	0.75	Close	1.75	6	Yes	
17	13987	No Frame	32	0.75	Close	1.75	3	No	
18	13987	No Frame	32	0.75	Wide	1.75	6	No	
19	13987	No Frame	32	0.75	Wide	1.75	3	No	
20	14810	160	32	0.75	Close	1.75	6	Yes	
21	14810	160	32	0.75	Close	1.75	3	No	
22	14810	160	32	0.75	Wide	1.75	6	No	
23	14810	160	32	0.75	Wide	1.75	3	No	
24	14810	160	32	0.75	Close	1.75	3	No	Central Load Off Center
25	14810	160	32	0.75	Very Close	1.75	3	No	Central Load Off Center
26	14810	160	32	0.75	Very Close	1.75	3	No	Central Load Slightly Off Center
27	13987	No Frame	32	0.75	Very Close	1.75	3	No	Slightly Off Center
28	13987	No Frame	32	1.00	Very Close	1.75	3	No	Slightly Off Center
29	Shaft lying directly on 3-inch diameter reference optical flat.				Close	1.75	3	No	
30	0.001-inch graduated steel scale on reference flat.				Close	1.75	3	No	
31	0.001-inch graduated steel scale on reference flat.						2		Random flash-light
32	0.001-inch graduated steel scale on reference flat.						2	Yes	Random bare bulb
33	0.001-inch graduated steel scale on reference flat.						10	Yes	Room light, 10 minutes

Figure 29. Photographic Data, 35-mm Practina Fx f/2 Lens



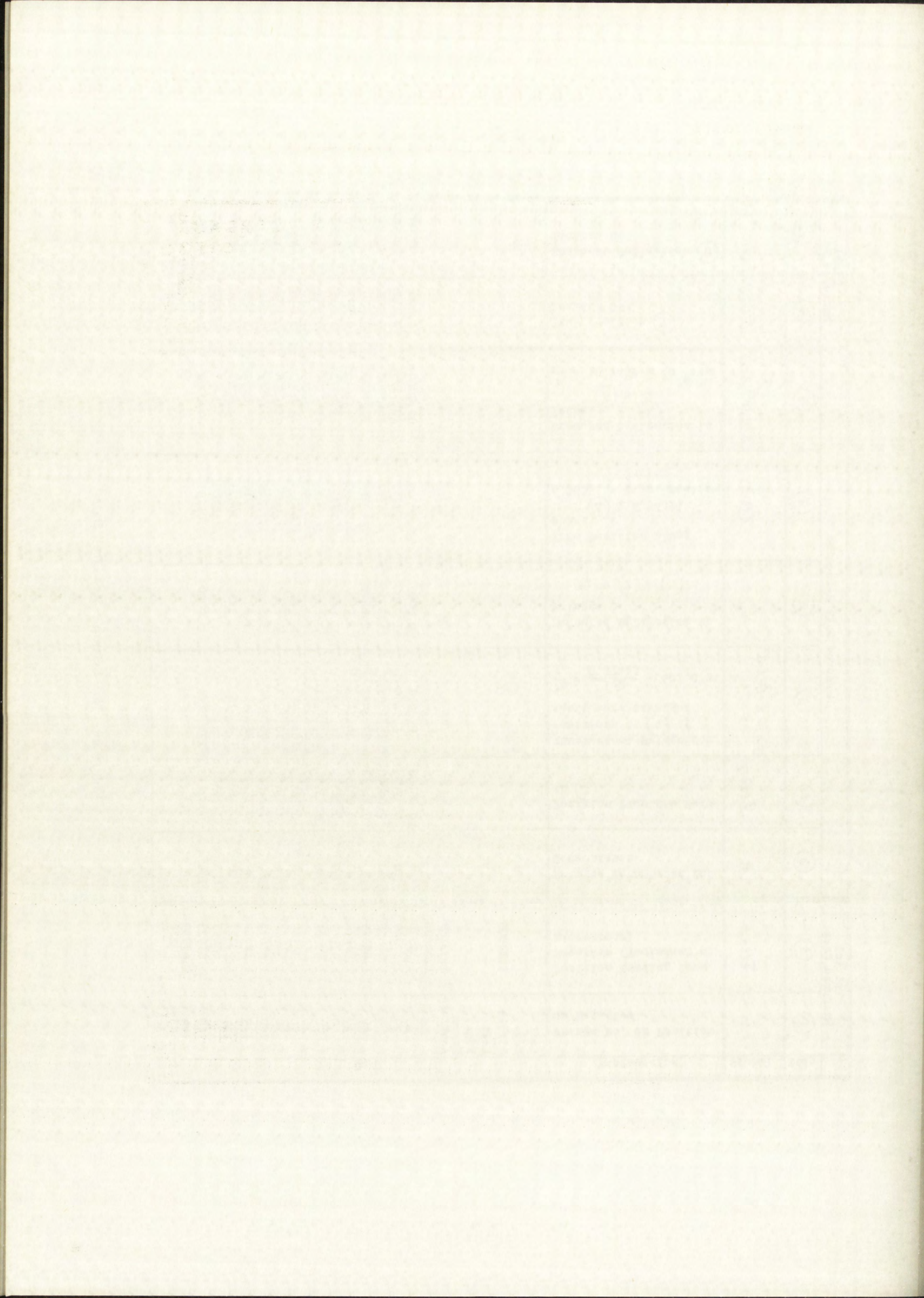
Explanation of the process of data reduction will be done by discussing the steps shown in Figure 30 for the data reduction of exposure No. 1. Columns 1 and 2 make up the initial measured data. Column 1 lists the position being measured. Usually this corresponds with one of the "tenth" lines scribed on the brass reference piece because only every tenth fringe was measured. Column 2 is the horizontal position measurement obtained from the negative with the aid of a toolmaker's microscope (see Figure 31 for a picture of this instrument). The micrometer wheels on this microscope read directly to 1×10^{-4} inches and, with practice, one may extrapolate to an accuracy of $\pm 1 \times 10^{-5}$ inches. The fifth decimal place in the horizontal-position measurements was retained until the final step of data reduction, to maintain the best statistical accuracy possible.

The initial measured data were reduced as follows. A new fringe number scale was formed in column 3 to limit the data reduction to the region of interest (some of the additional information in this column was needed to establish the centerline and to check the validity of the end points used in column 3). Column 4 converted the readings in column 2 into positions along the negative from the zero point in column 3. Column 5 lists the theoretical fringe order for the position shown in column 4, assuming a perfectly straight shaft. The number in column 5 was obtained by multiplying column 4 by the average number of fringes per inch of negative, n_t/l_t , which in this case was $130/0.32413 = 401.073$ fringes per inch (notice this number is not an integer). Column 6 represents the vertical deviation of the curved shaft from the theoretical straight surface joining the 0 and 130 fringes at each horizontal position shown in column 4 (deviation measured in fringes or multiples of $\lambda/2$). The number in column 6 was obtained by subtracting column 5 from column 1. Column 7 converted column 4 into the true measurement along the shaft. The conversion factor for this operation was obtained by dividing the true diameter of the reference flat by the diameter of the reference flat measured from the negative. Column 8 converted the vertical deviation (in fringes) into actual deflection measured in μin . This was done by multiplying the deflection in fringes by 10.7457, the exact length of $\lambda/2$.



Step	Initial Measured Data		Measured Data Reduction							Final Measured Data	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	
Symbol	N	$\bar{L}(\text{in.})$	n	$\bar{L}(\text{in.})$	$\gamma = 4 \times \frac{n}{\bar{L}}(\text{in.})^{-1}$	$\Delta\gamma$	$L(\text{in.})$	$\delta(\times 10^{-6} \text{ in.})$	$L(\text{in.})$	$\delta(\times 10^{-6} \text{ in.})$	
Explanation	Fringe No. or Position on Negative	Position Reading from Negative (Toolmaker's Microscope)	Fringes Renumbered for Convenience	Position from New Zero in (3)	Theoretical Fringe for Positions in (4) if shaft were straight $\frac{n}{L} = \frac{130}{0.32413} = 401.073$	Measured Deflection in Fringes $\Delta\gamma = (3) - (5)$	True Position Along Shaft (4) $\times 6.36321$ 6.36321 = Dist. Scaling Factor	Measured Deflection in Inches (6) $\times \frac{2}{\lambda}$ $\frac{2}{\lambda} = 10.7457 \times 10^{-6} \text{ in.}$	True Position (7) Rounded Off	Measured Deflection (8) Rounded Off	
Data	Left Edge, Circle	1.22808									
	Left Edge, Frame Aperture	1.33139									
	1	1.33303									
	10	1.35510									
	20	1.37749									
	30	1.40030									
	40	1.42329									
	50	1.44672									
	60	1.47067									
	70	1.49501									
	80	1.51942									
	90	1.54490									
	100	1.57073									
	110	1.59682									
	120	1.62357									
130	1.65097										
140	1.67923										
144	1.69080										
Right Edge, Frame Aperture	1.69234										
Final Measured Data Plotted in Fig. 32											

Figure 30. No. 1 Sample Measured Data



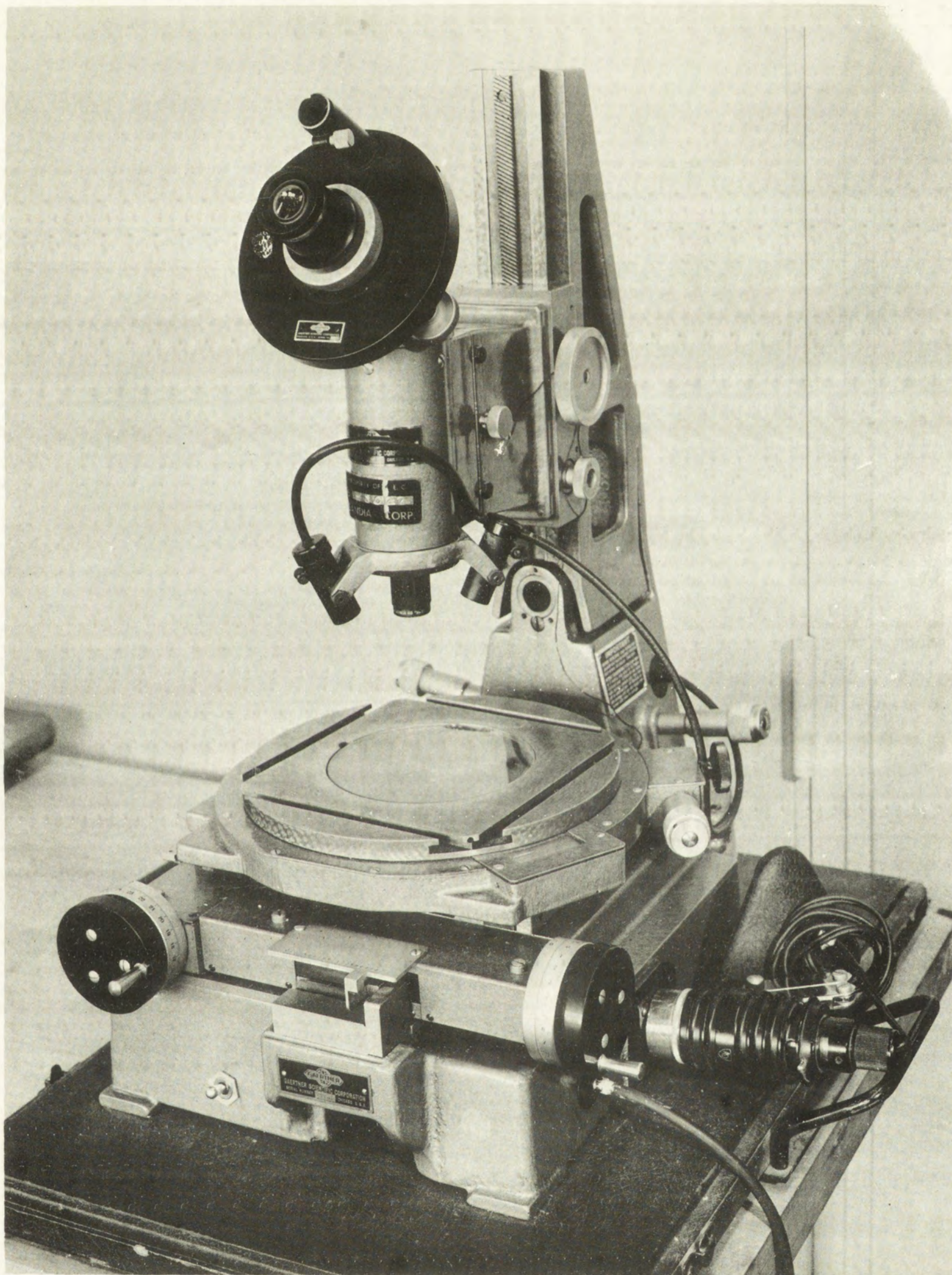
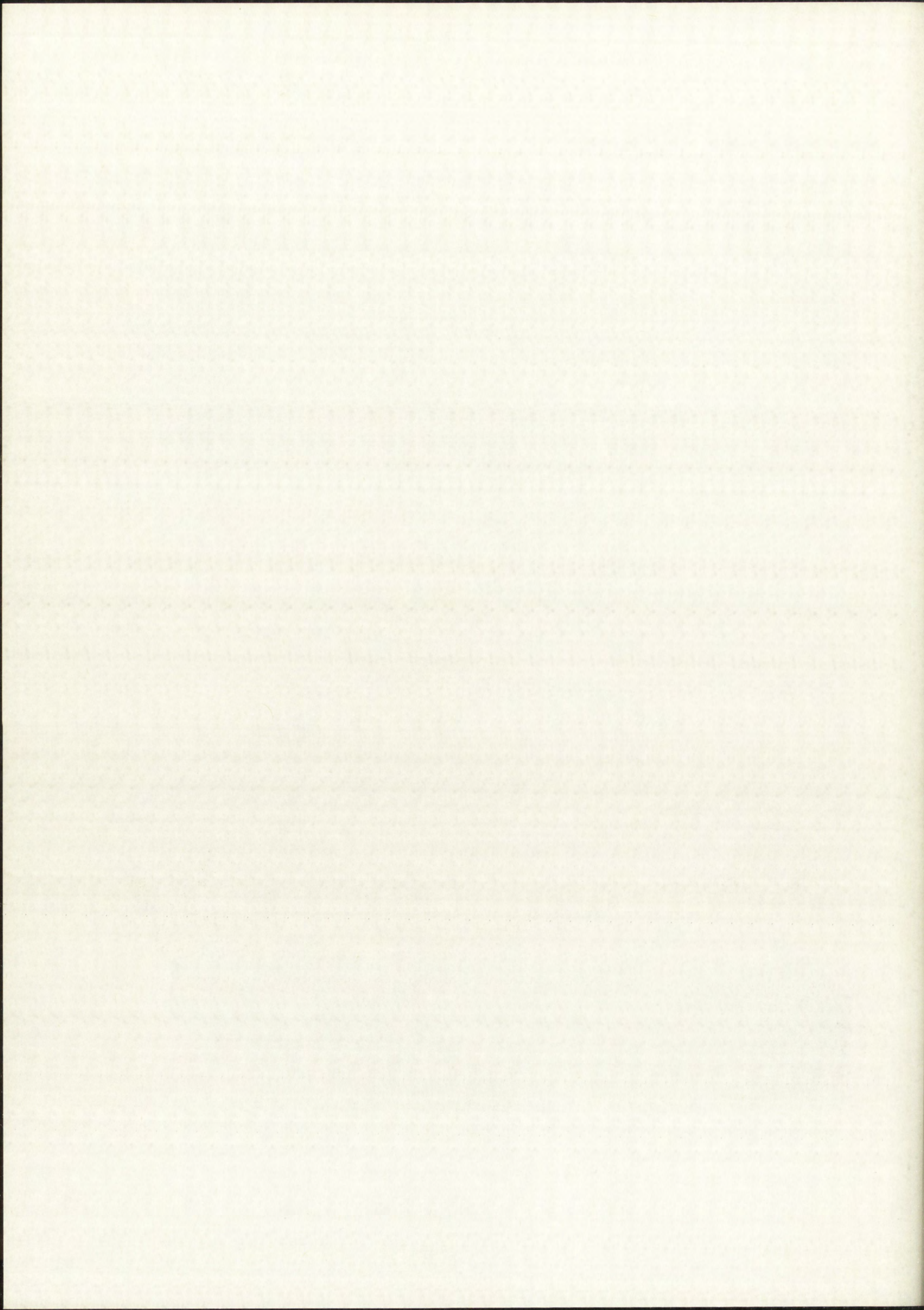


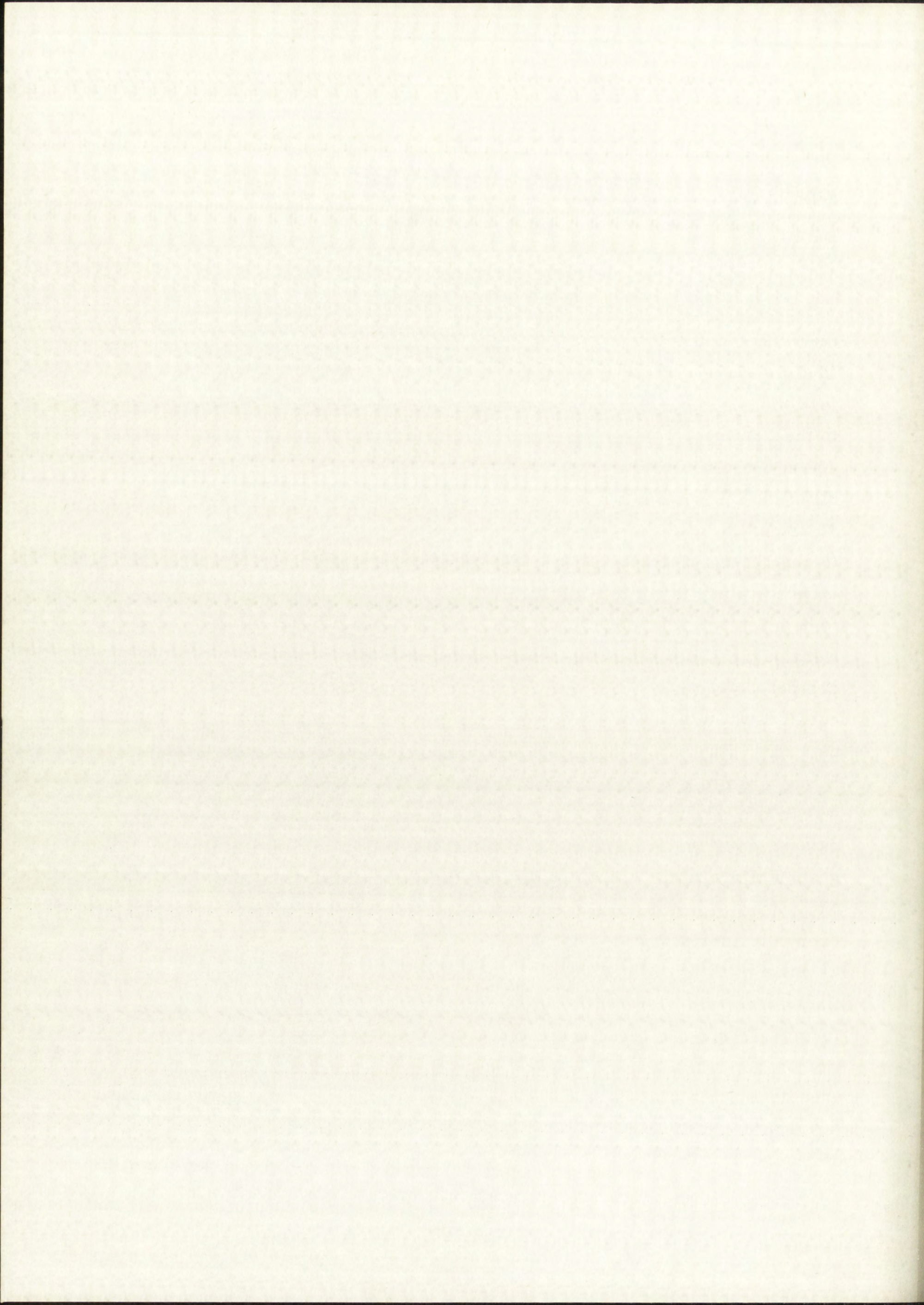
Figure 31. Toolmaker's Microscope



The final data appear in columns 9 and 10 and were obtained by merely "rounding off" columns 7 and 8. The final data for negative No. 1 are shown plotted in Figure 32.

Data Correction

A study of all of the final measured data from the 11 negatives which were analyzed showed that the reference flat on the interferometer had an over-all sag and a central discontinuity, both of which were distorting the final measured data. In addition, an unknown amount of photographic distortion undoubtedly was present. Figure 33 shows the way the correction to the final data was established. Columns 1, 2, 3, 9, and 10 for both No. 15 and No. 10 correspond to those already explained for No. 1 (naturally, all of the intervening steps were carried through). Negative Nos. 15 and 10 are of the shaft sagging under its own weight. The final measured data (9 and 10) are plotted in Figure 34. Notice that the measured data are negative in value, signifying an upward curvature, when the shaft was known to be slightly bowed downward. This could only occur if the reference flat were sagging more than the unstrained shaft. Because there was a slight central discontinuity and because the axial fringe measurements were not equally spaced on each side of the axial centerline, the two final measured data curves were essentially folded over at the centerline and the points all transferred to a single side of the folded graph. An averaged smooth curve was drawn through these points. See Figure 35 for a plot of the smoothed data which is the average of No. 10 and No. 15. The same folding and graphical averaging technique was applied to the final measured data for No. 1 (see Figure 36). The smoothed and averaged measured deflection at every 0.1 inch along the shaft was read off Figures 35 and 36, and appears as columns A and B of Figure 37 and columns 11 and 12 of Figure 38. The final correction curve is derived graphically in Figure 35 and in tabular form in Figure 37. The derivation is by addition of the theoretical deflection of the shaft under its own weight to the smoothed and averaged measured deflection obtained from negative Nos. 10 and 15. The final correction for each 0.1 inch along the center 2 inches of the shaft is shown in column D of Figure 37. The final correction shown in column D appears in column 13



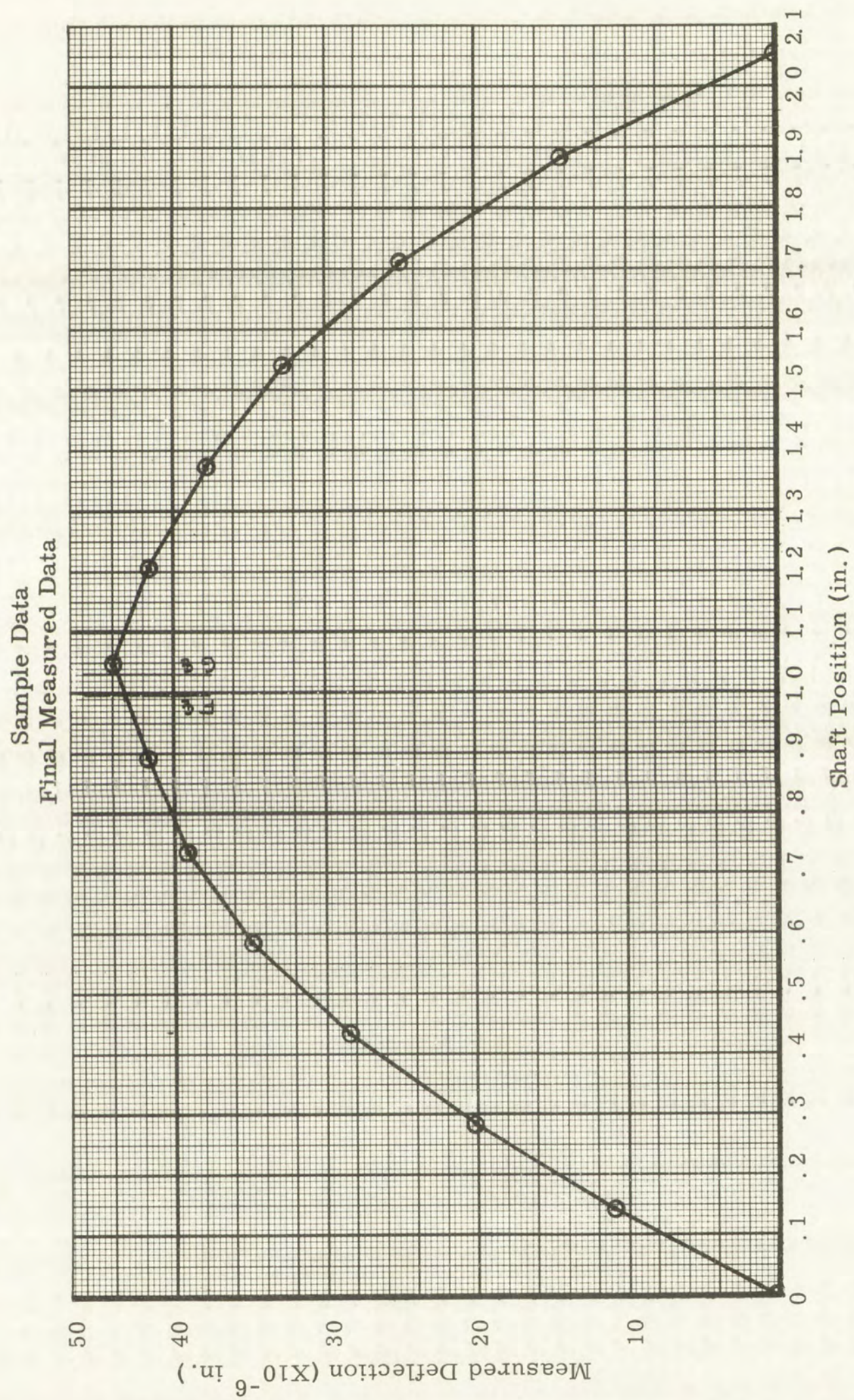
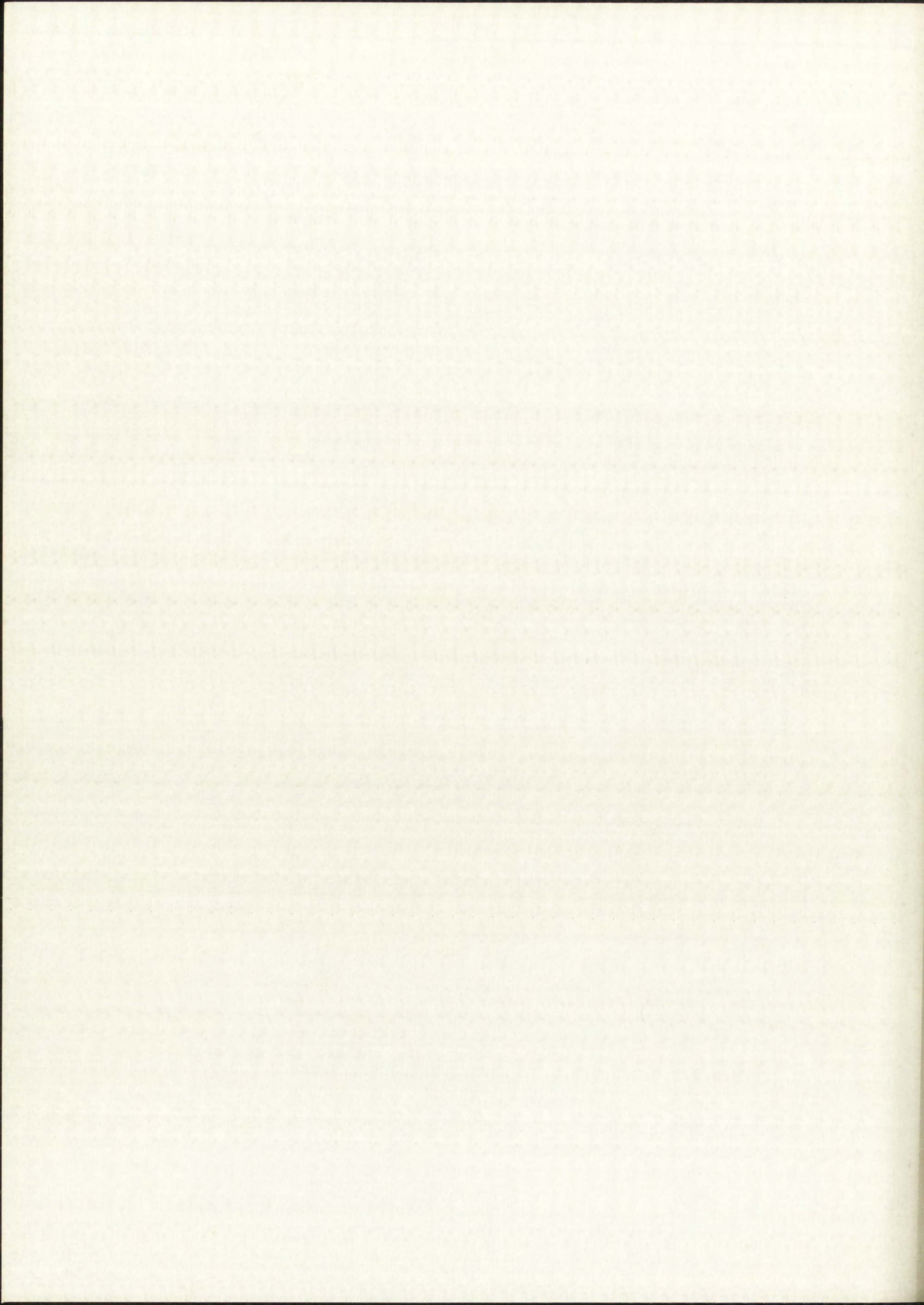
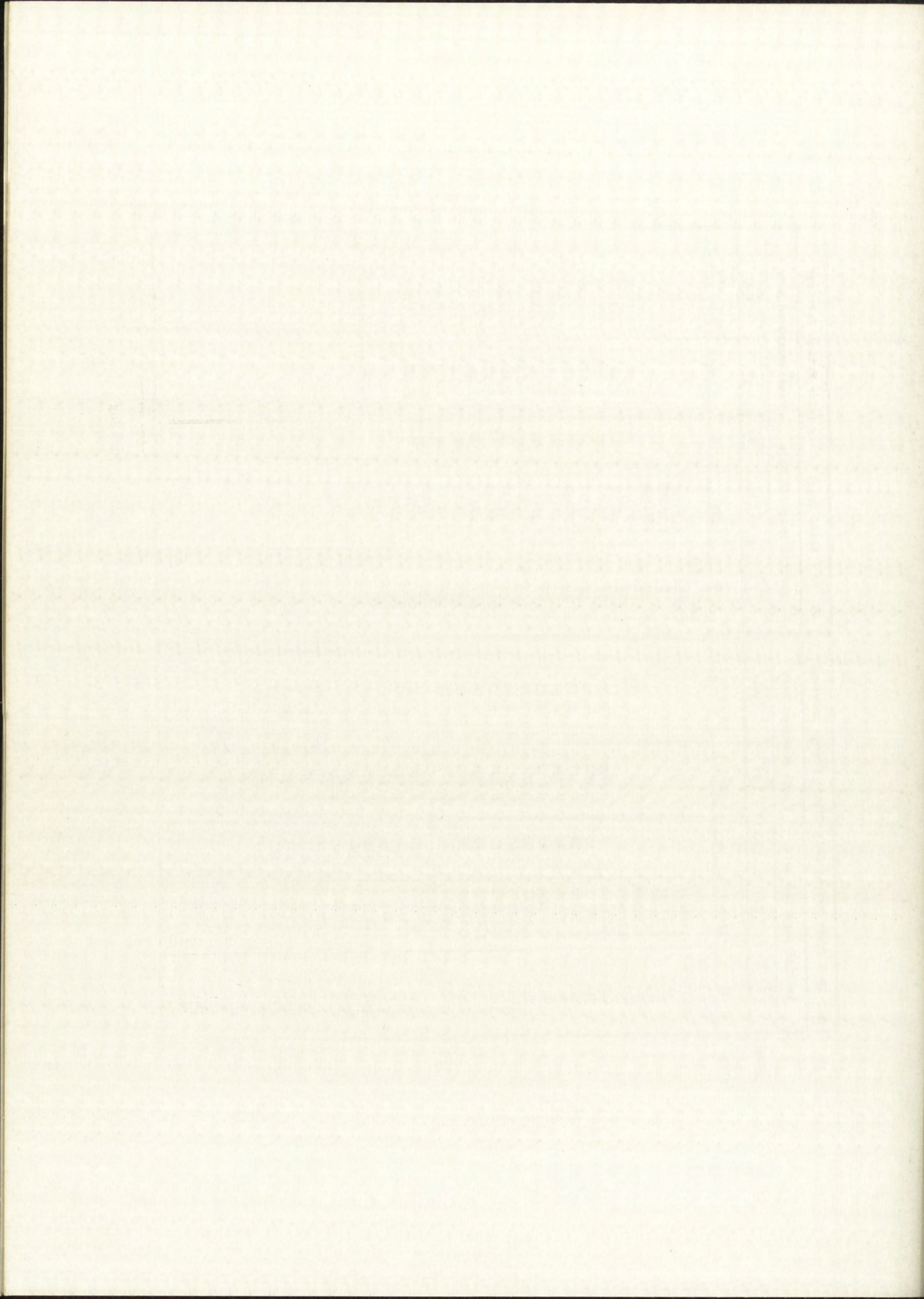


Figure 32. No. 1 Measured Deflection Versus Shaft Position





Final Measured Data

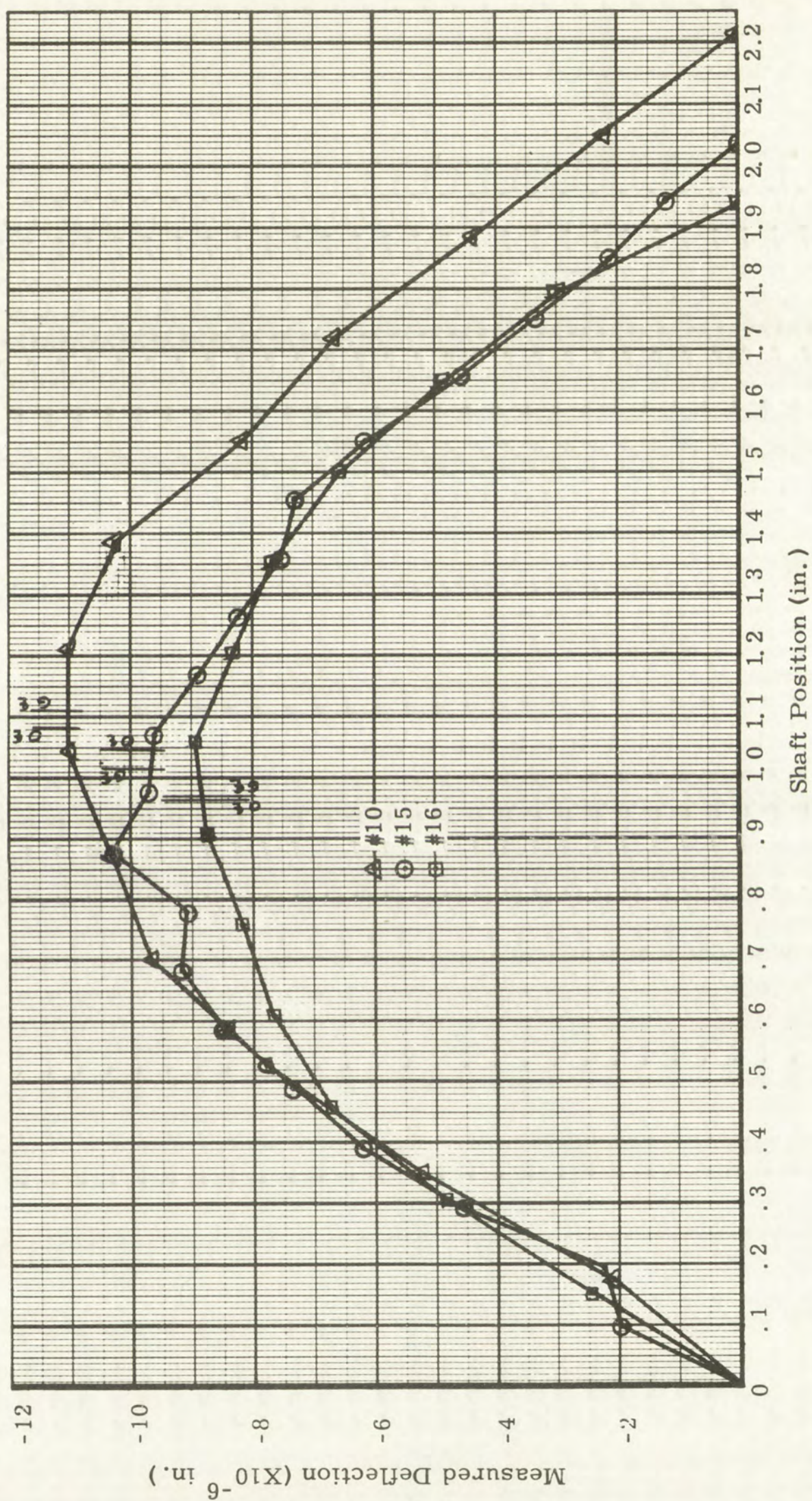
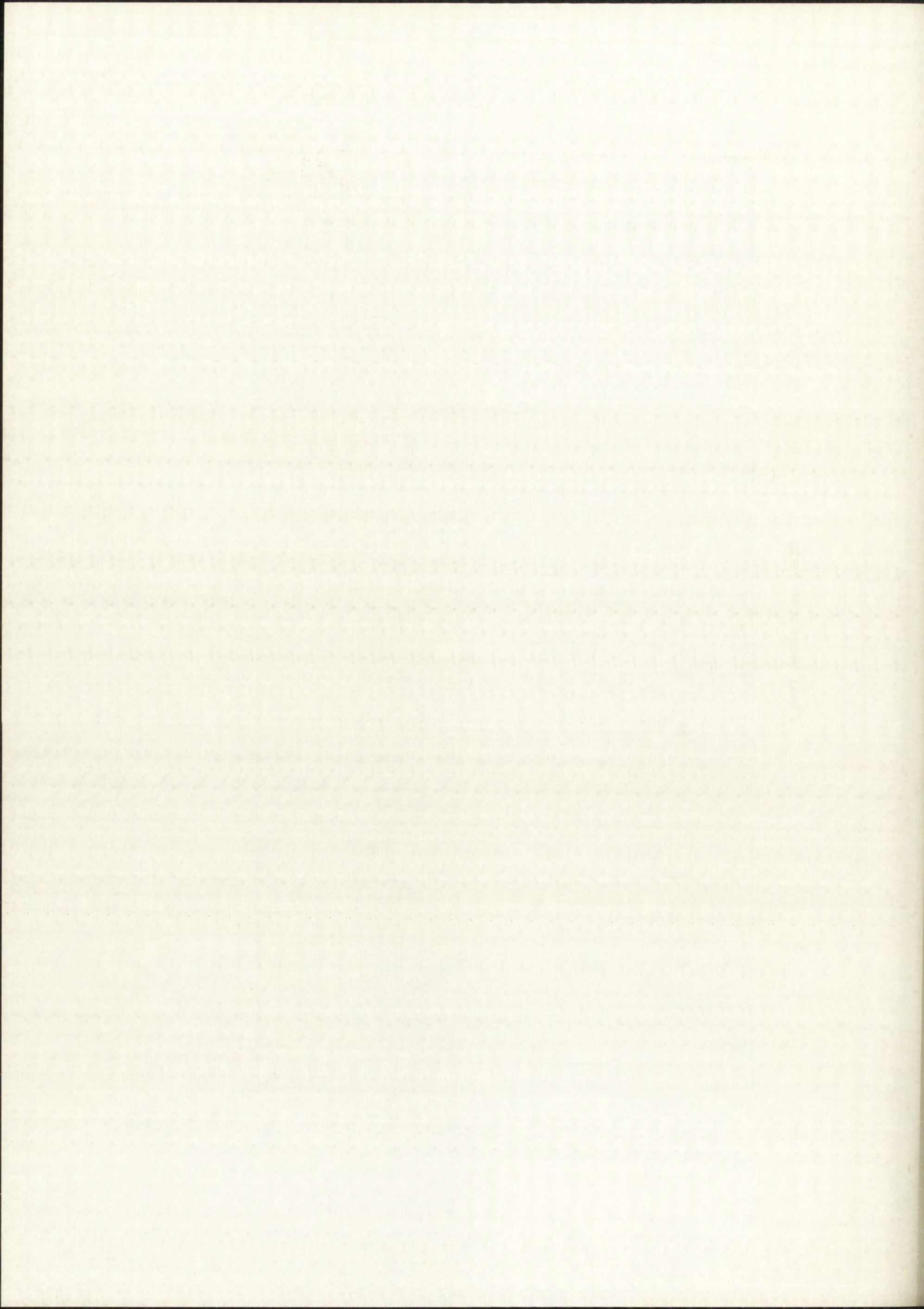


Figure 34. Nos. 10, 15, and 16 Measured Deflection Versus Shaft Position



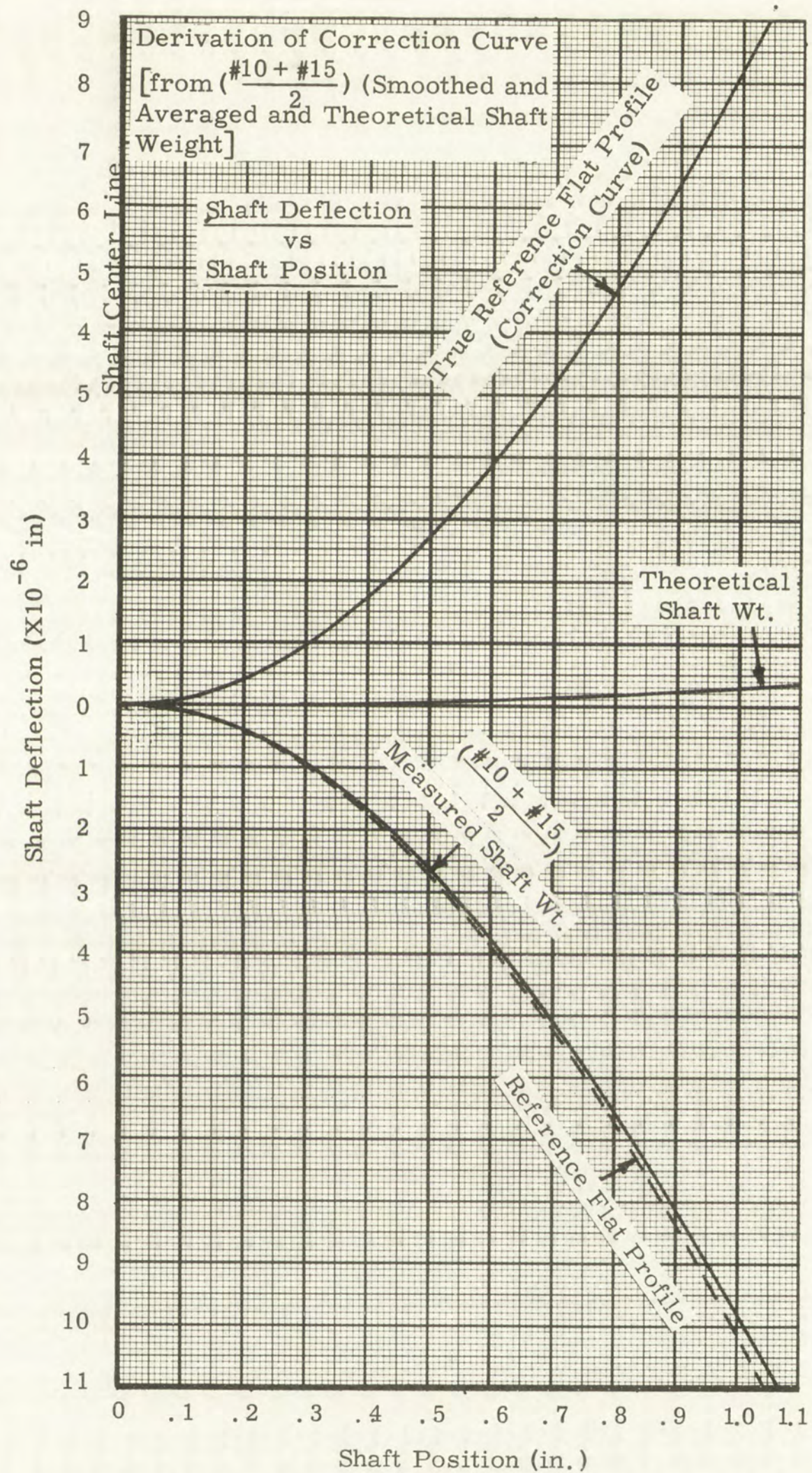


Figure 35. Nos. 10 and 15 Smoothed and Averaged Measured Shaft Deflection Versus Shaft Position (Theoretical Shaft Weight and Reference Flat Profile)

Measured Deflection (Averaged and Smoothed) ($\times 10^{-6}$ in.)
 Obtained by Folding Graph of Step Ten on Centerline and
 Graphically Averaging the Two Superimposed Smoothed Curves.

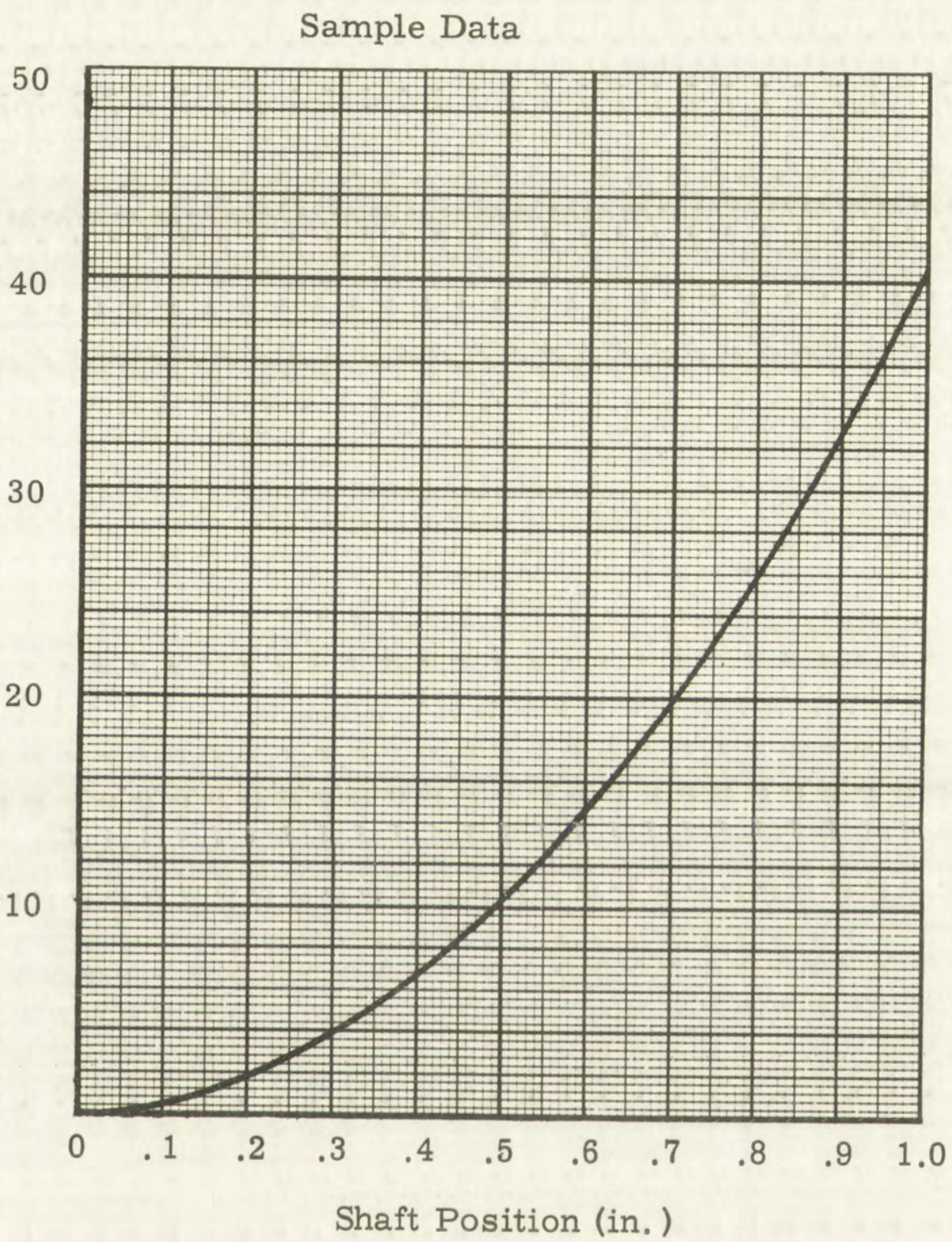
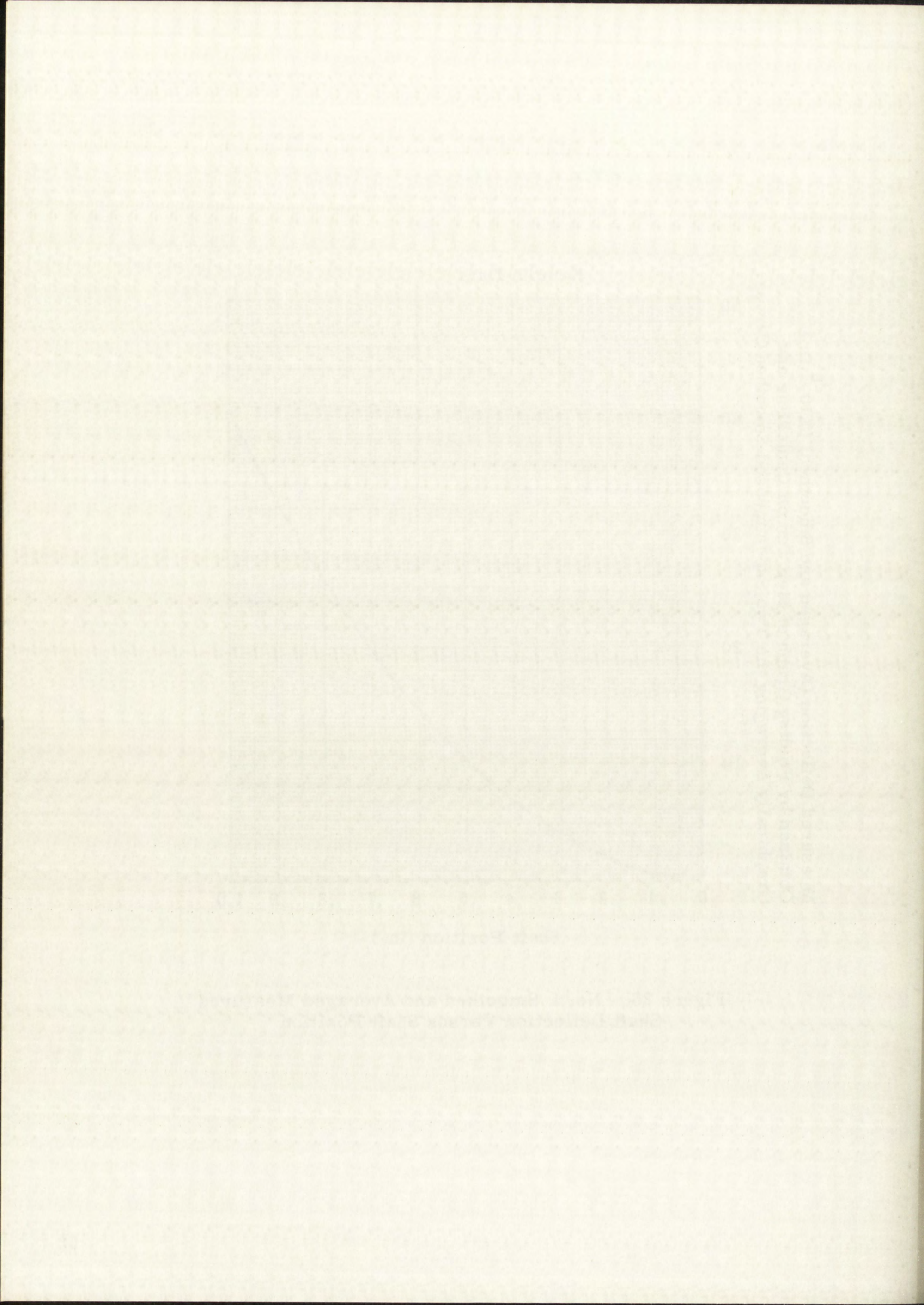
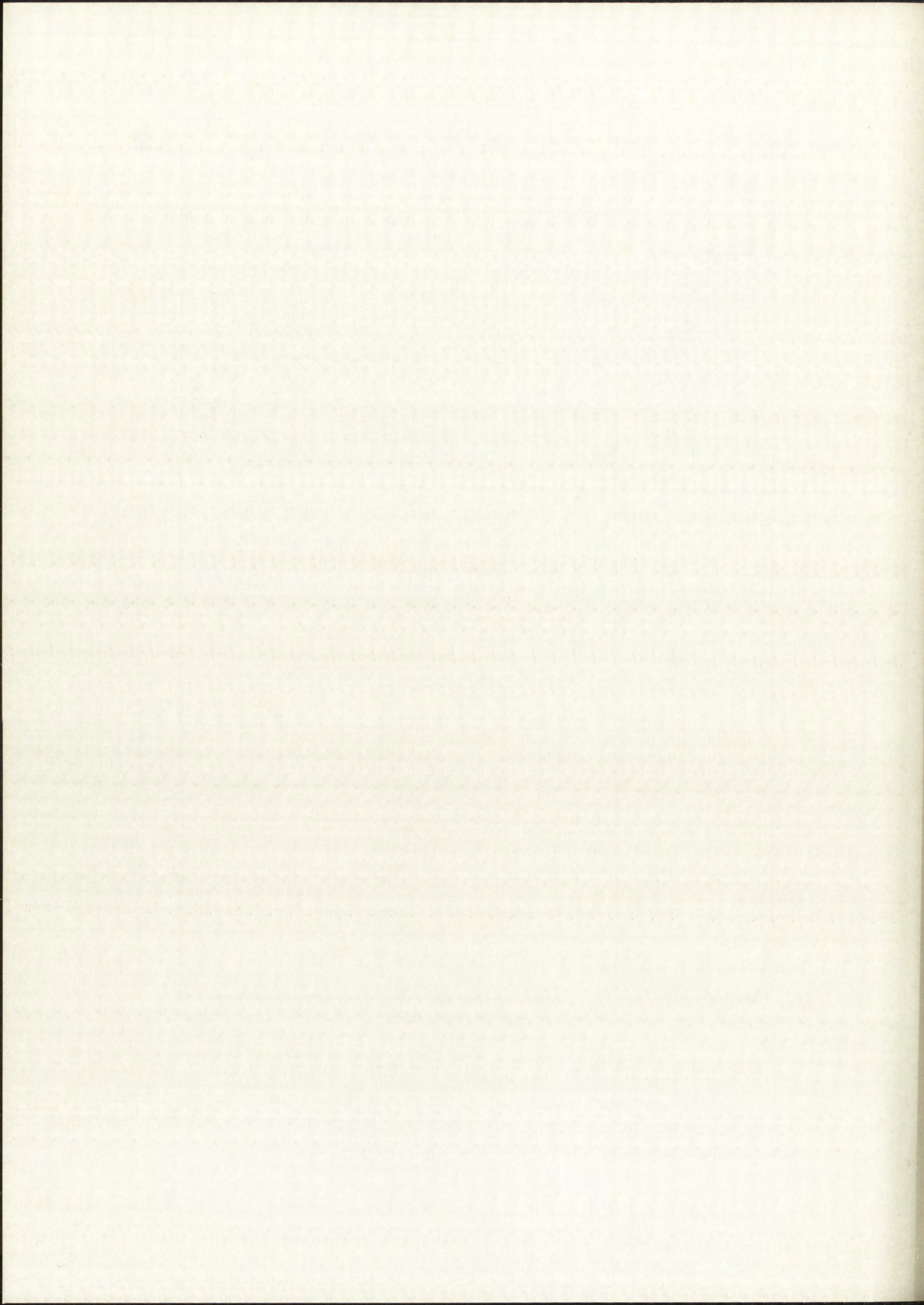


Figure 36. No. 1 Smoothed and Averaged Measured
 Shaft Deflection Versus Shaft Position



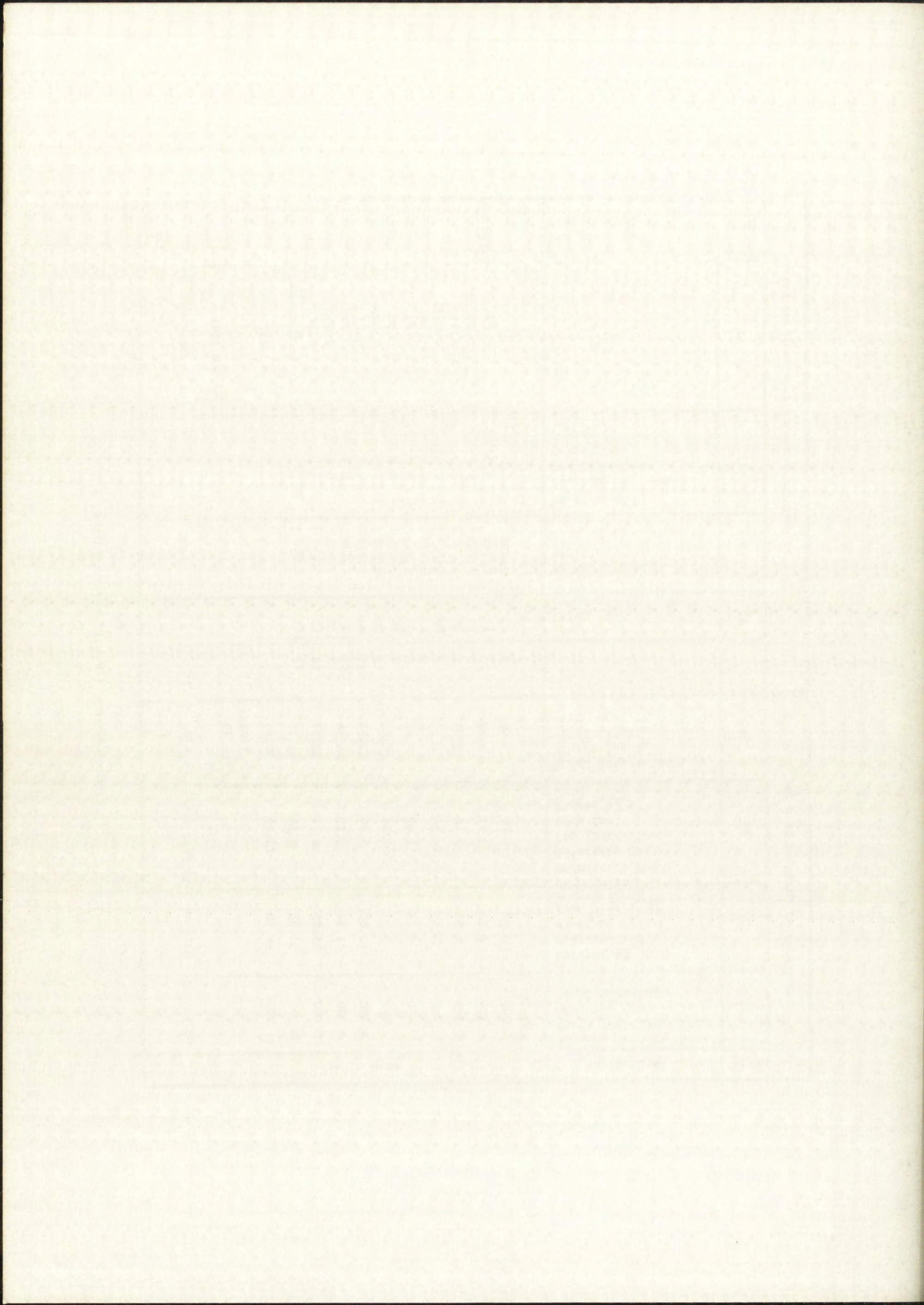
Step	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)
Symbol and Units	l (in.)	t ($\times 10^{-6}$ in.)	$\hat{\delta}$ ($\times 10^{-6}$ in.)	c ($\times 10^{-6}$ in.)
Explanation	Shaft Position Measured from Longitudinal C_L	Theoretical Deflection for Shaft Weight Only (See Page <u> </u> for Derivation)	Measured Deflection for Shaft Weight Only $\hat{\delta} = \left(\frac{\delta_{10} + \delta_{15}}{2} \right)$ Averaged and Smoothed from Figure 34	Correction for Flat Sag $(D) = (B) - (C)$ (To be added to all measured deflections)
Data	Shaft C_L	0.000	-0.00	0.00
	0.1	0.004	-0.12	0.124
	0.2	0.014	-0.43	0.44
	0.3	0.030	-0.93	0.96
	0.4	0.053	-1.64	1.69
	0.5	0.083	-2.58	2.66
	0.6	0.118	-3.73	3.84
	0.7	0.158	-5.04	5.20
	0.8	0.203	-6.52	6.72
	0.9	0.253	-8.09	8.34
	1.0	0.306	-9.78	10.09
	See Figure <u>35</u> for plots			

Figure 37. Final Data for Correction of Errors Introduced by Master Flat Sag (Both No. 10 and No. 15, Averaged for Distortion Reference)



No. 1 - Correction of Measured Data for Flat Sag					No. 1 - Determination of rms Measuring Error					
Step	11	12	13	14		15	16	17	18	19
Explanation	Shaft Position Measured from Longitudinal ϕ	Deflection Averaged and Smoothed (Taken from Figure 37)	Correction for Reference Flat Sag (Taken from data for Figure 37)	Final Deflection (Corrected Deflection) 12 and 13		Fringe No.	Measured Shaft Position ⁽⁹⁾	Difference Between 10 and Corresponding Value from Figure 37	⁽¹⁷⁾ 2	rms Error per Measured Point
Data	Shaft ϕ									0.509 μ in.
	0.000	0.00	0.00	0.00	1	0	0.000	0	0	
	0.100	0.50	0.12	0.62	2	10	0.142	0.3	0.09	
	0.200	1.65	0.44	2.09	3	20	0.288	0.7	0.49	
	0.300	3.45	0.96	4.41	4	30	0.434	0.5	0.25	
	0.400	6.13	1.69	7.82	5	40	0.583	0.05	0.0025	
	0.500	9.57	2.66	12.23	6	50	0.735	0.4	0.16	
	0.600	13.88	3.84	17.72	8	60	0.890	0.7	0.49	
	0.700	19.34	5.20	24.54	9	70	1.046	0.8	0.64	
	0.800	25.85	6.72	32.57	10	80	1.208	0.02	0.0004	
	0.900	33.05	8.34	41.39	11	90	1.372	0.1	0.01	
	1.000	40.90	10.09	50.99	12	100	1.538	0.2	0.04	
					13	110	1.708	0.5	0.25	
					14	120	1.883	1.1	1.21	
					15	130	2.063	0	0	
					$\sum_{0}^{14} = 3.6329$					
					$\frac{\sum}{14} = 0.2595$					
					rms - error = $\sqrt{0.2595}$ = 0.509 μ in.					
(NOTE: All Data on This Page are to be $\times 10^{-6}$ in.)										

Figure 38. No. 1 Final Corrected Data



of Figure 37. The final corrected data for No. 1 is shown in column 14 of Figure 38 and is the sum of columns 12 and 13.

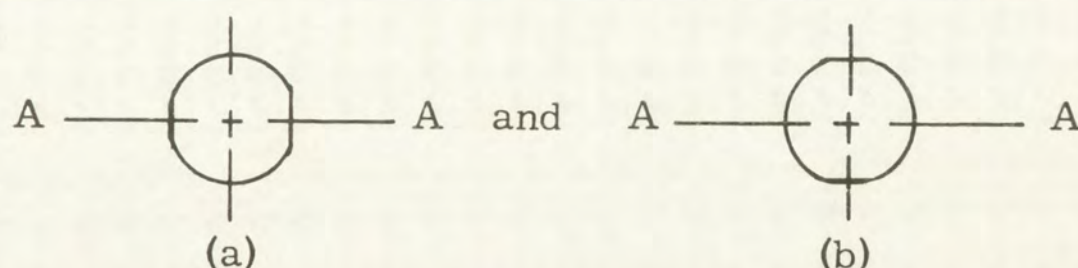
Columns 15 through 19 of Figure 38 show the method used in determining the rms measuring error. The final smoothed and averaged measured curve of Figure 36 was superimposed on the initial measured data curve (Figure 32) and the deviation at each measured shaft position recorded in column 17. These deviations were squared in column 18, these squares were averaged, and the square root was then extracted. The final rms measuring error occurs in column 19.

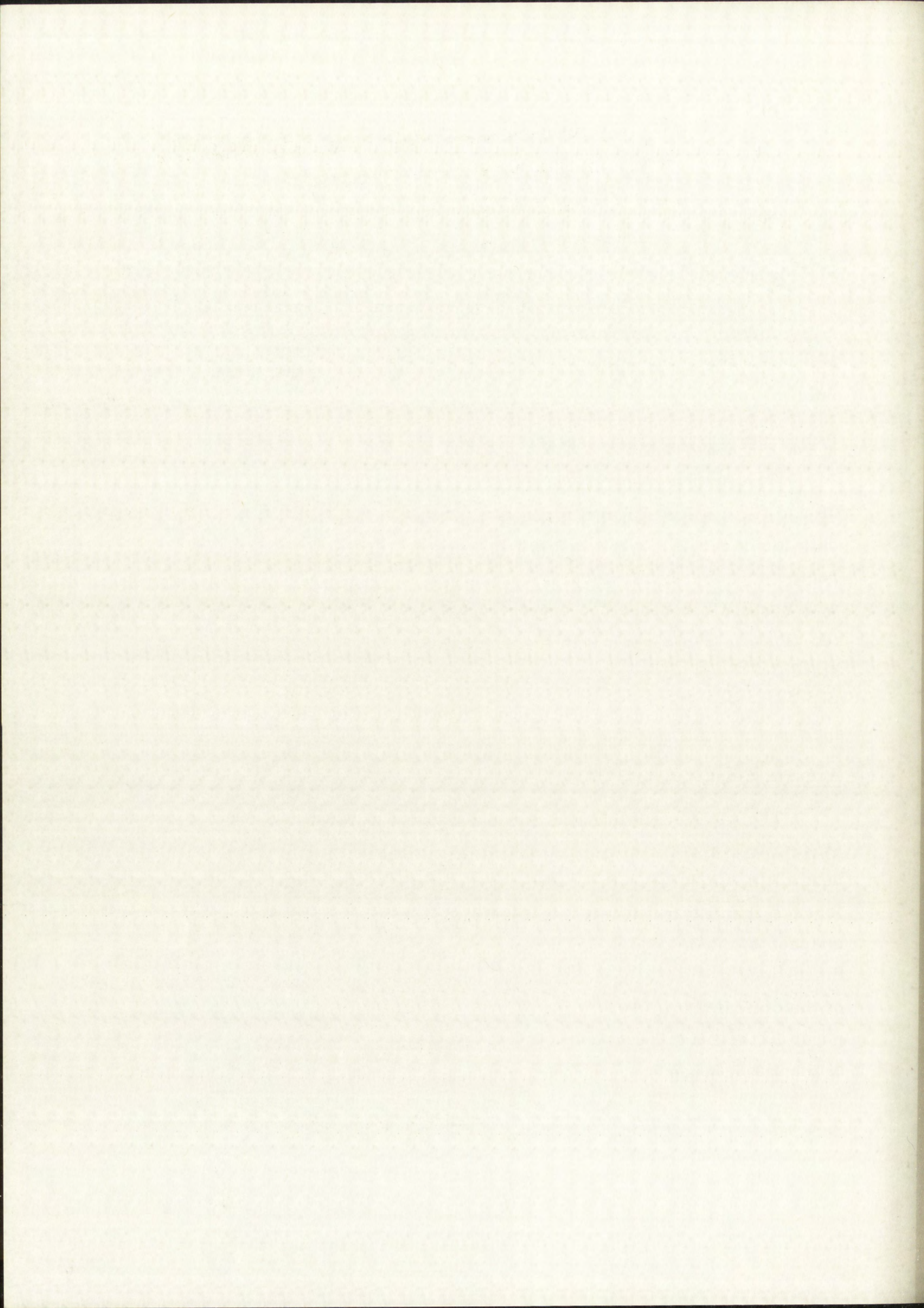
Remaining Optical Measurement Data

The final measured data for negatives 6 and 20 are shown in Figure 39 and for negative 16 in Figure 40. The smoothed and averaged measured data for curves 1, 6, 16, and 20 are shown in Figure 41. The final corrected data for these curves are tabulated in Figure 42 and plotted along with curve 15 in Figure 43. Figures 44, 45, and 46 show the final corrected plots in comparison with theoretical curves. Figure 47 shows the statistical variation obtained in closely spaced measurements and the central reference flat discontinuity in a plot of approximately the center 0.2 inch as the shaft.

Accuracy and Errors

The wavelength of helium green light is known to 10^{-13} inches ($\lambda/2 = 10.74570045$ inches). Additional accuracy is gained due to the sharpness of the dark fringes in helium green (see Figure 28). The dark interference fringes are nearly one-fourth the width of the light bands. The sources of error other than in the reference flat, which has already been discussed, are: (1) the accuracy of the transfer operation, (2) the accuracy of the optical flats, and (3) the accuracy of measurements. The sources of error in the transfer operations are threefold: (1) the difference in moment of inertia between





Final Measured Data

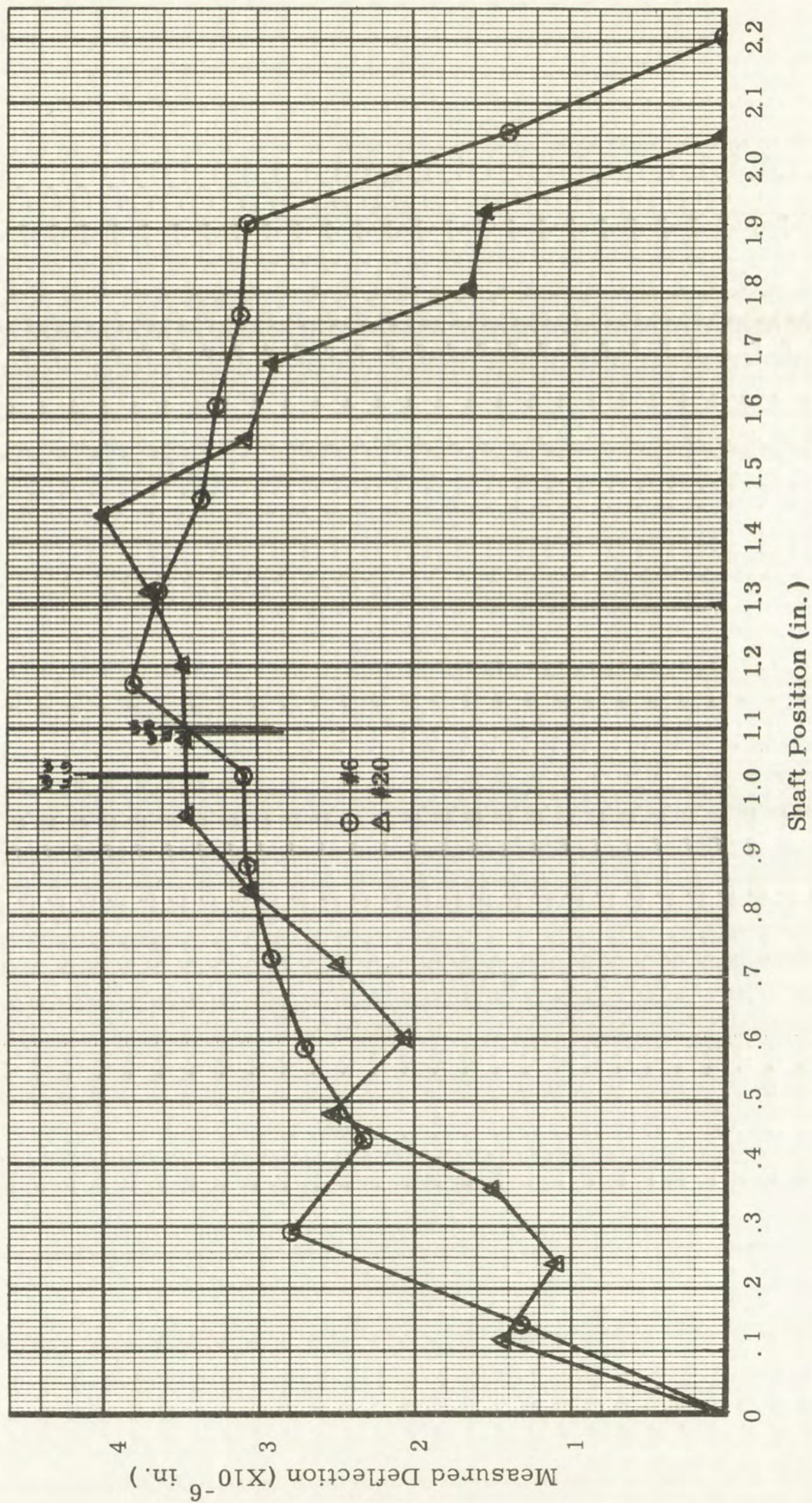
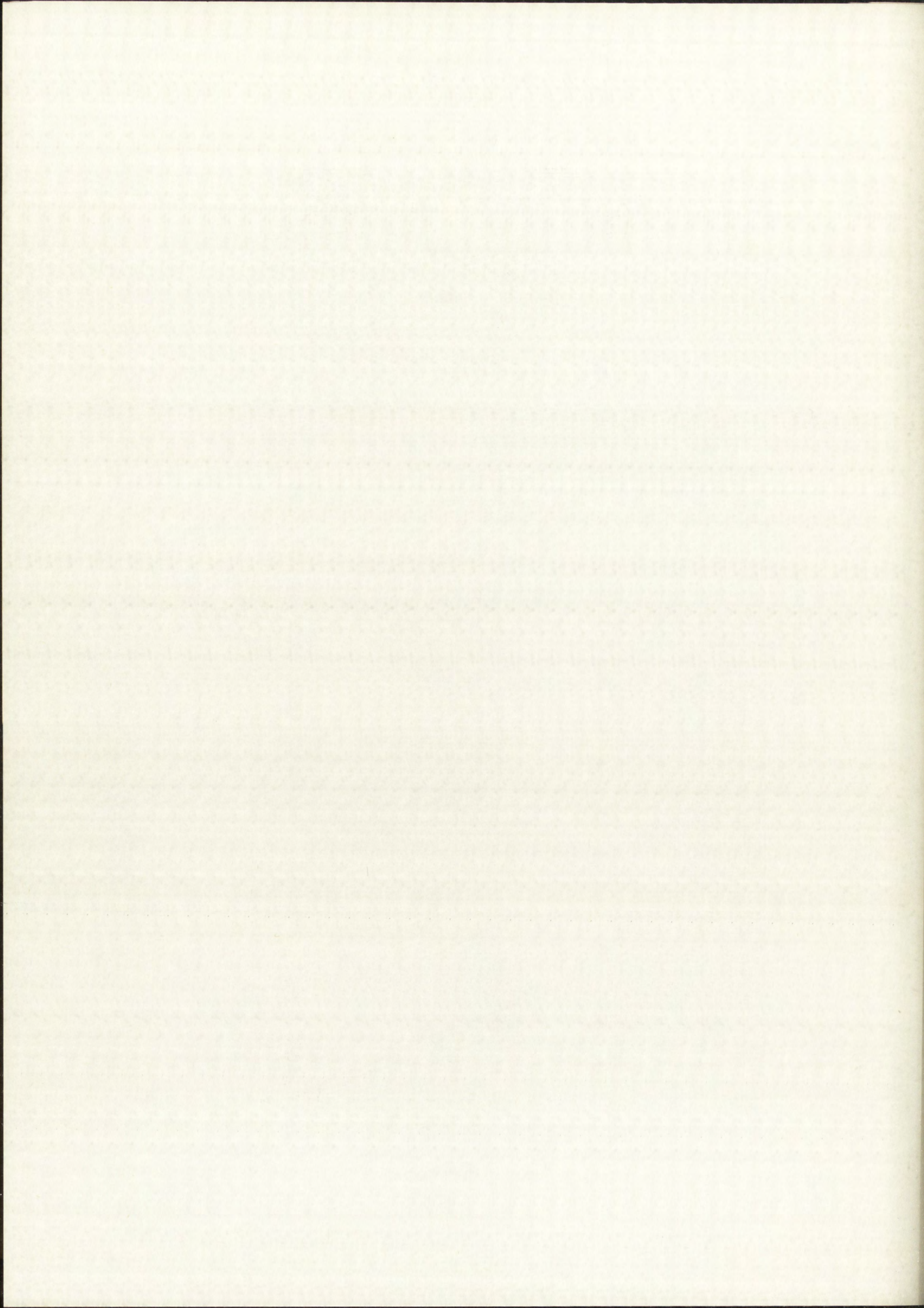


Figure 39. Nos. 6 and 20 Measured Deflection Versus Shaft Position



Final Measured Data

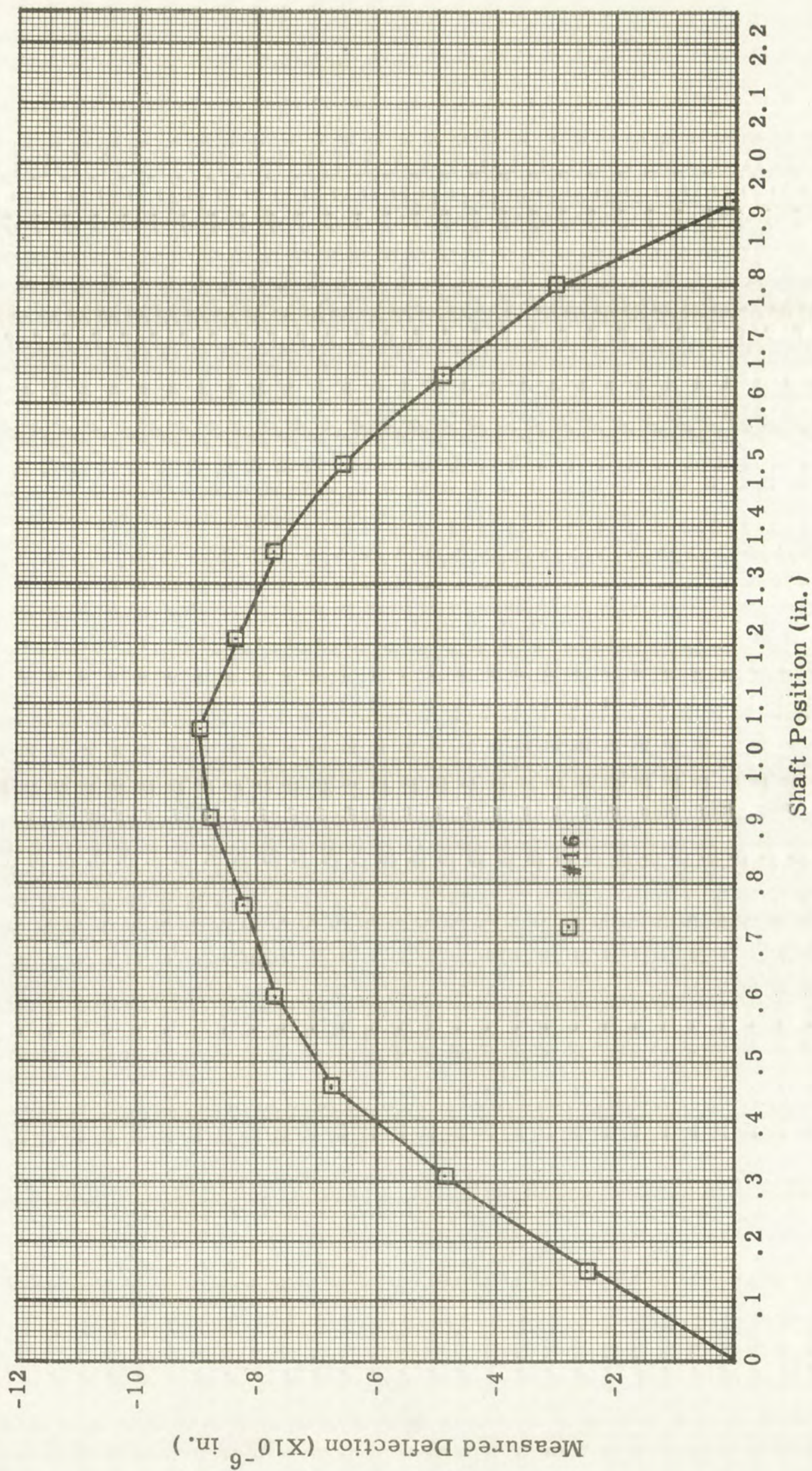
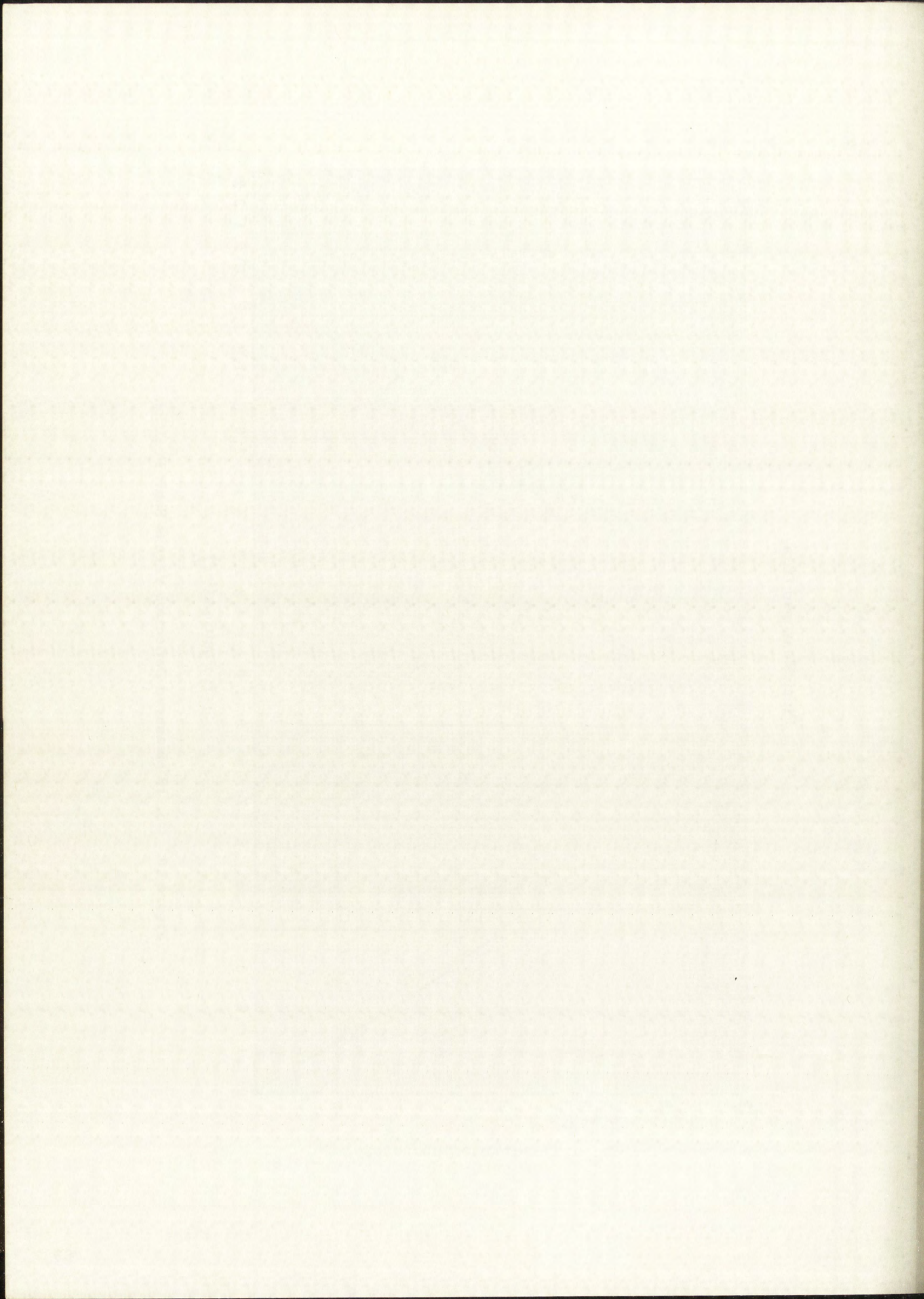


Figure 40. No. 16 Measured Deflection Versus Shaft Position



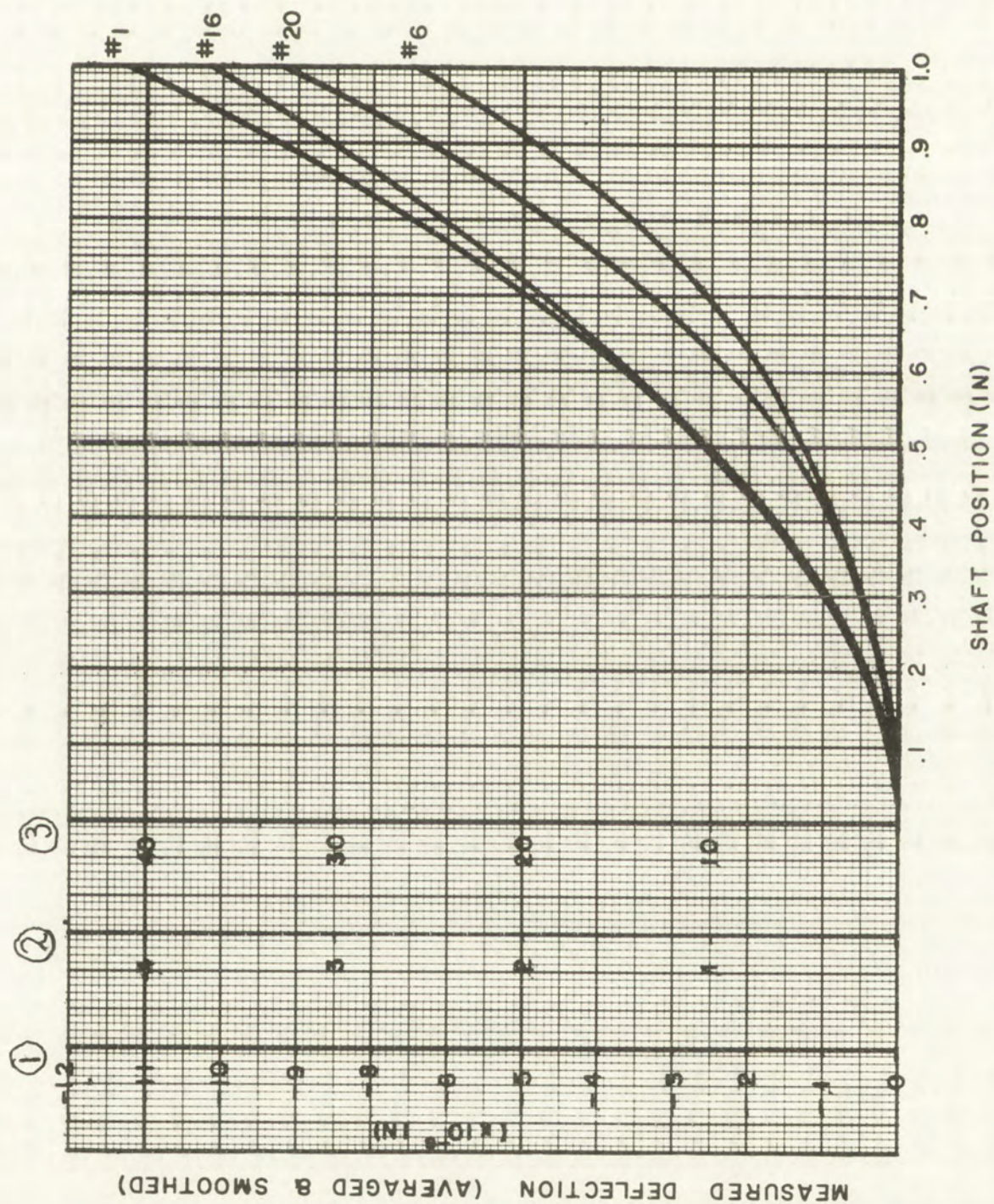
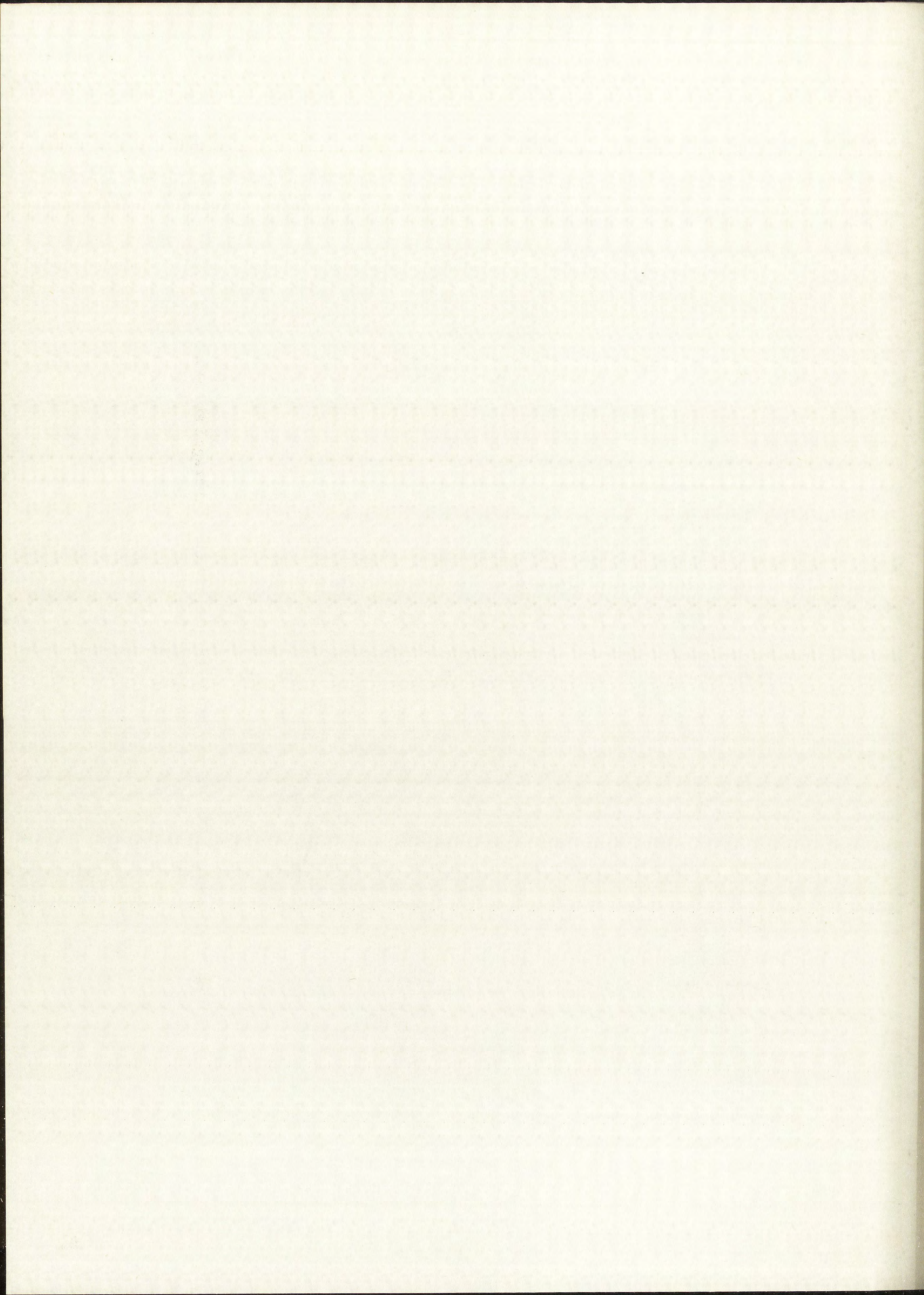


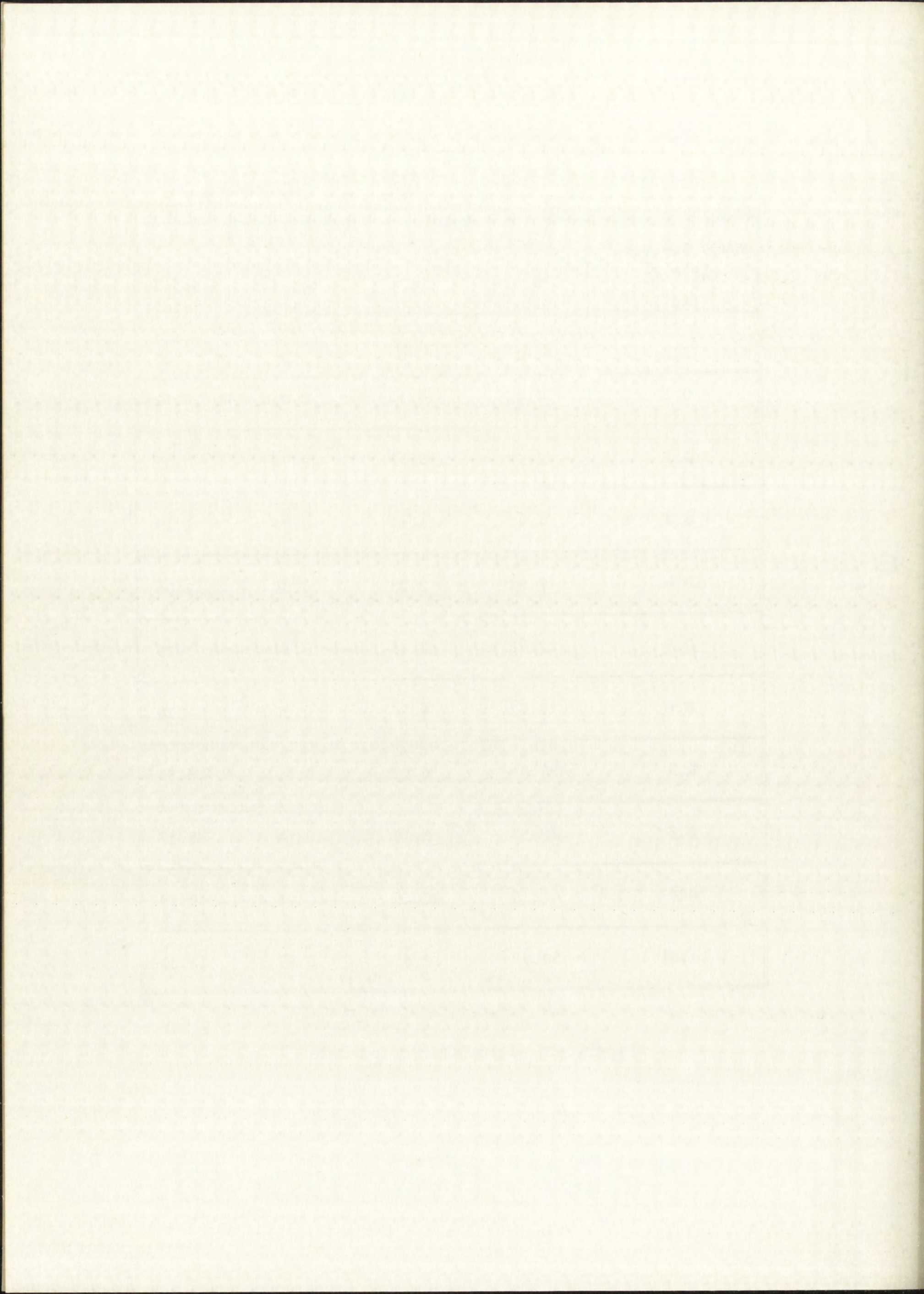
PHOTO	SET	BUSHING ?	SCALE
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# 6	160	NO	②
# 16	0	YES	①
# 20	160	YES	②

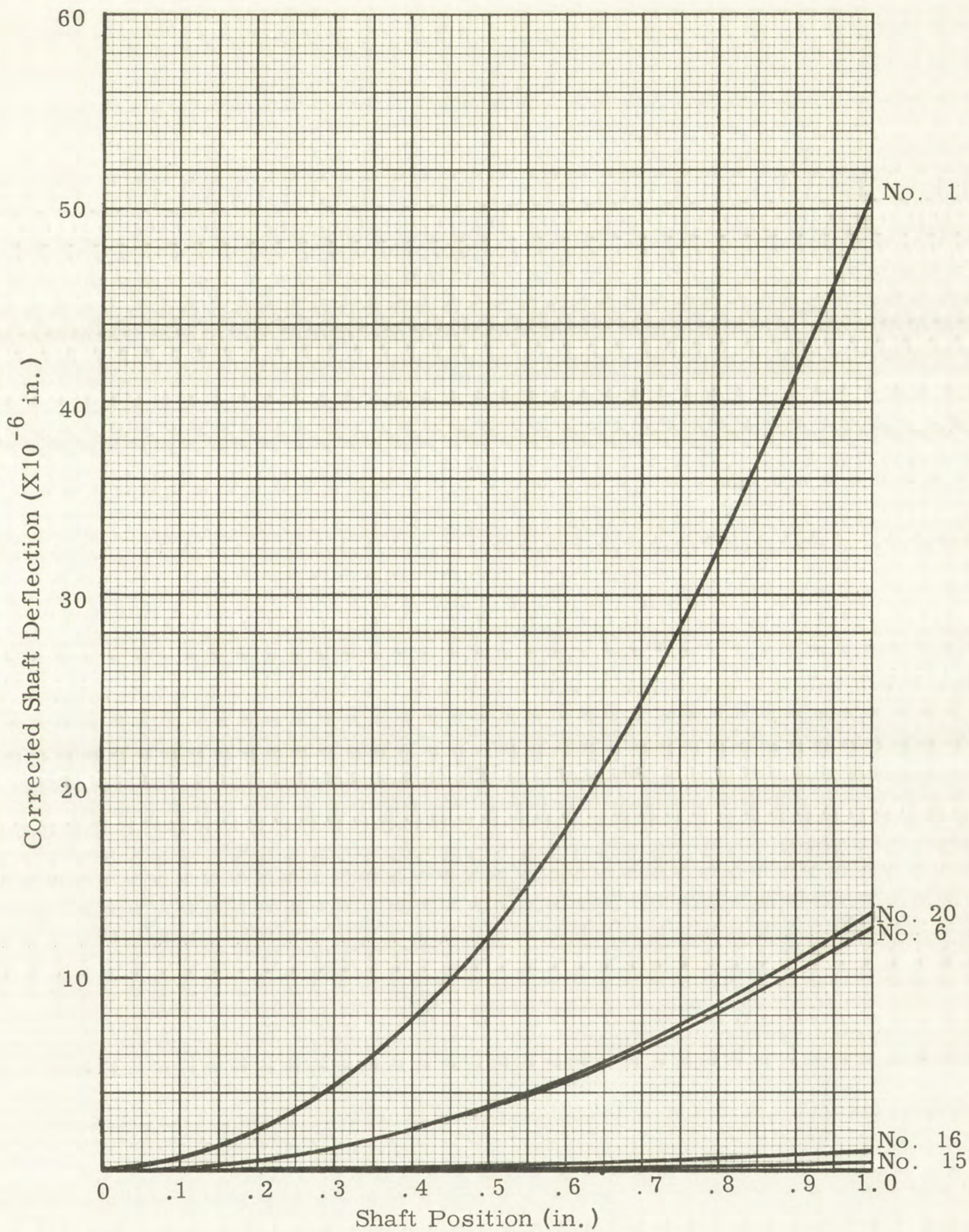
Figure 41. Nos. 1, 6, 16, and 20 Measured Deflection (Averaged and Smoothed) Versus Shaft Position



Shaft Position from \mathcal{C} (in.)	No. 1 (μ in.)	No. 6 (μ in.)	No. 16 (μ in.)	No. 20 (μ in.)
0	0	0	0	0
0.1	0.62	0.14	0.014	0.126
0.2	2.09	0.53	0.03	0.55
0.3	4.41	1.15	0.05	1.19
0.4	7.82	2.03	0.09	2.06
0.5	12.23	3.18	0.18	3.25
0.6	17.72	4.58	0.30	4.74
0.7	24.54	6.22	0.46	6.53
0.8	32.57	8.14	0.64	8.57
0.9	41.39	10.25	0.79	10.79
1.0	50.99	12.65	0.97	13.37

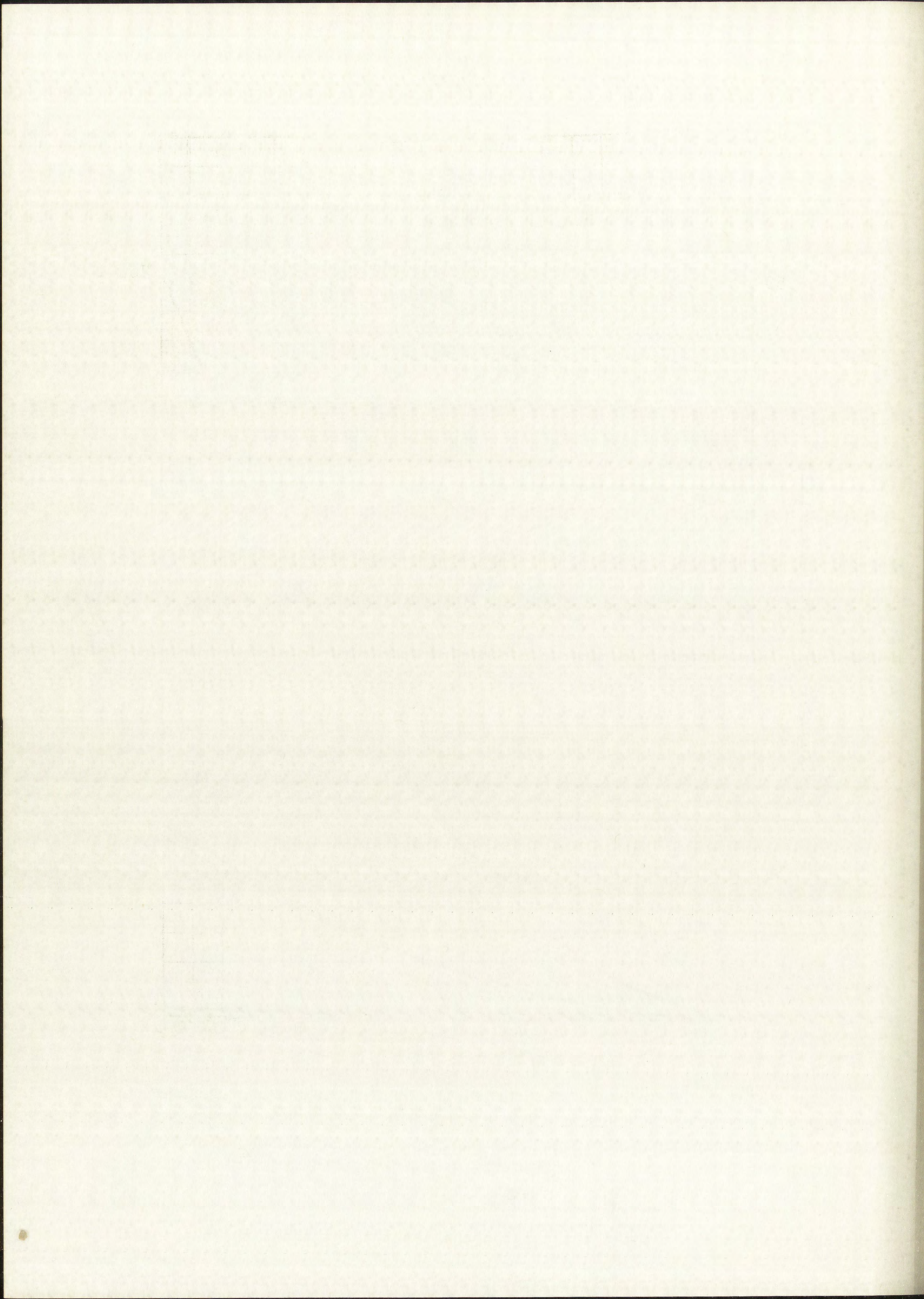
Figure 42. Final Corrected Data





Shaft ϕ

Figure 43. Final Corrected Shaft Deflection
Versus Shaft Position
(All Curves)



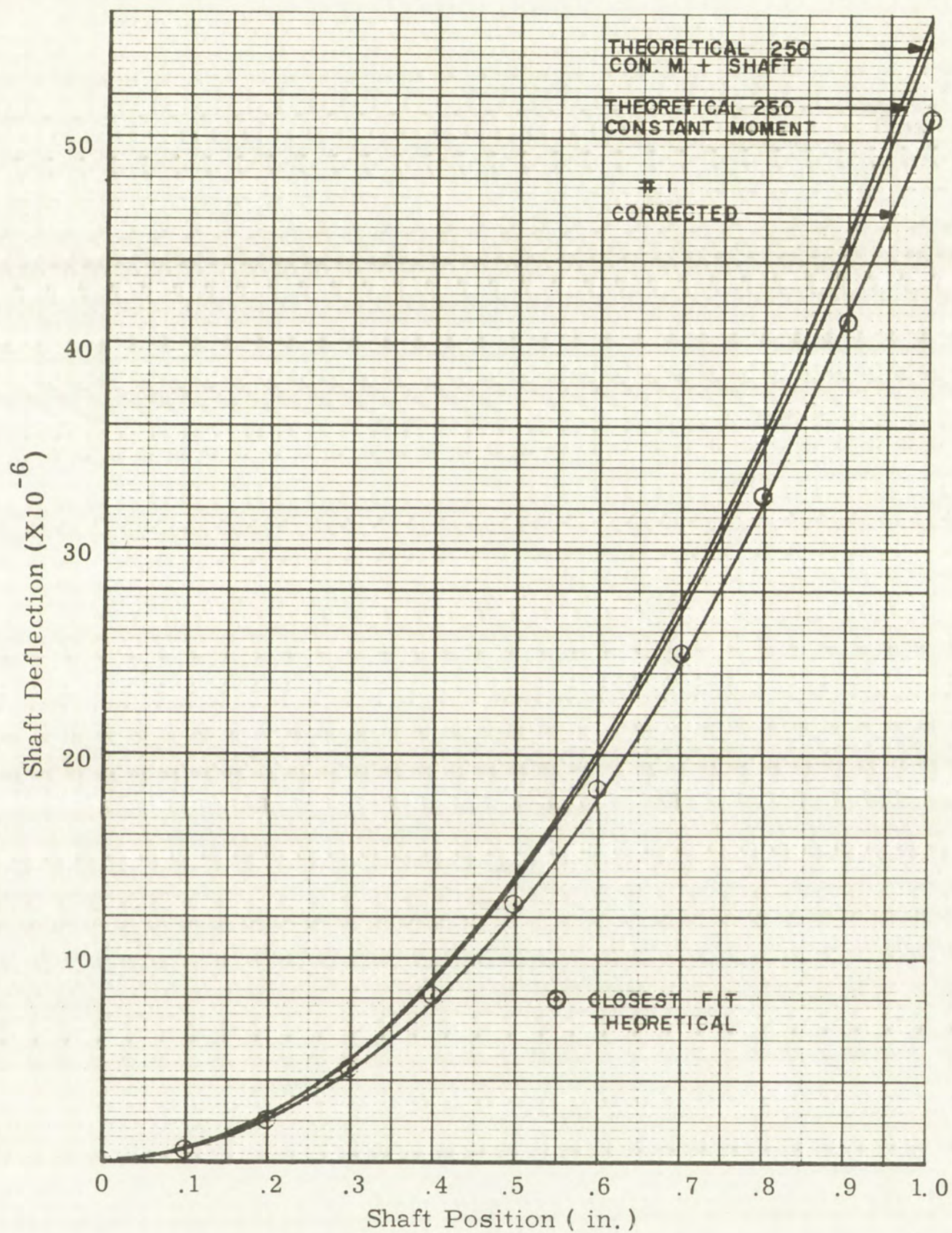
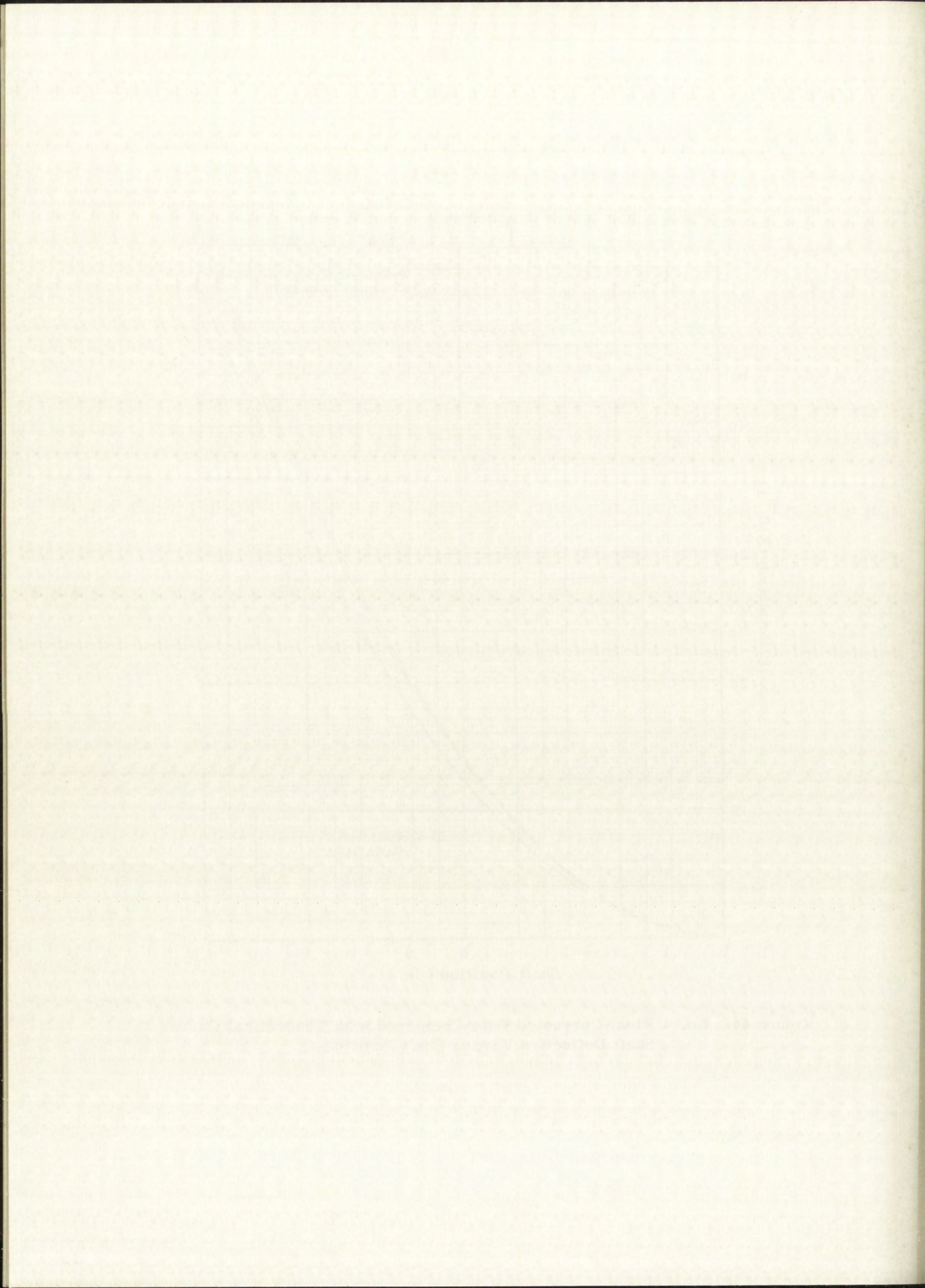


Figure 44. No. 1 Final Corrected Data Compared with Theoretical Curves
Shaft Deflection Versus Shaft Position



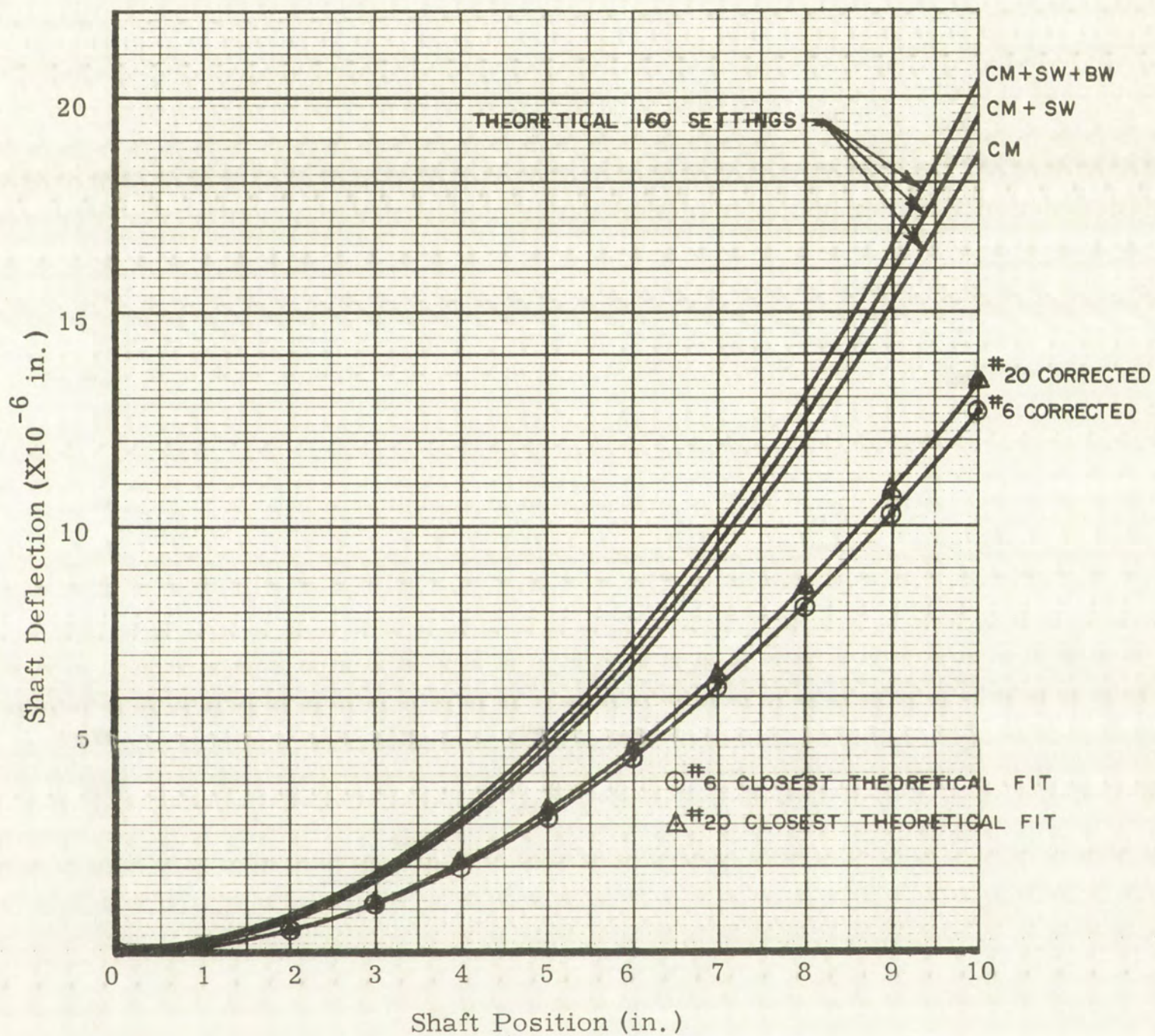
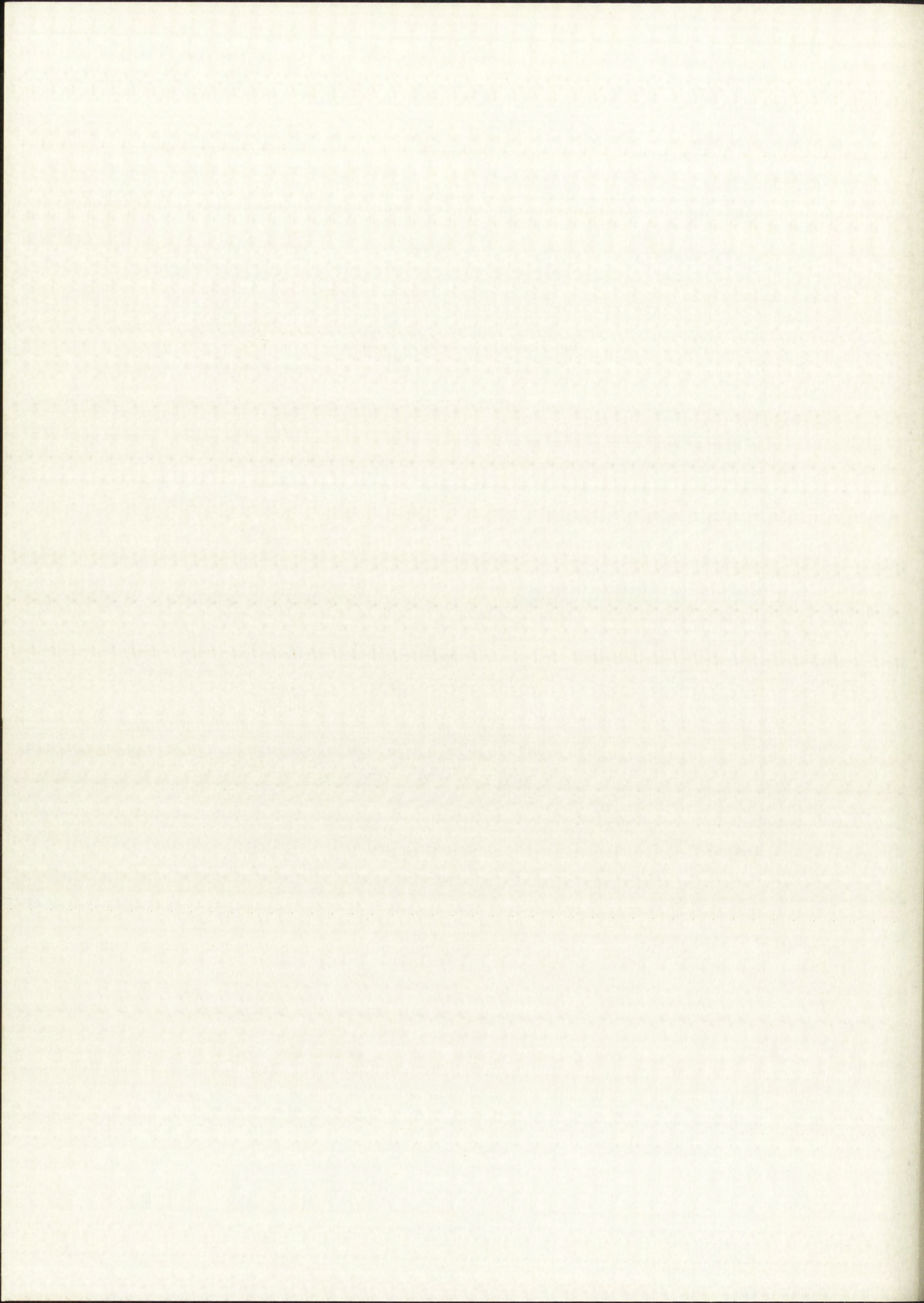


Figure 45. No. 6 and No. 20 Final Corrected Data Compared with Theoretical Curves
Shaft Deflection Versus Shaft Position



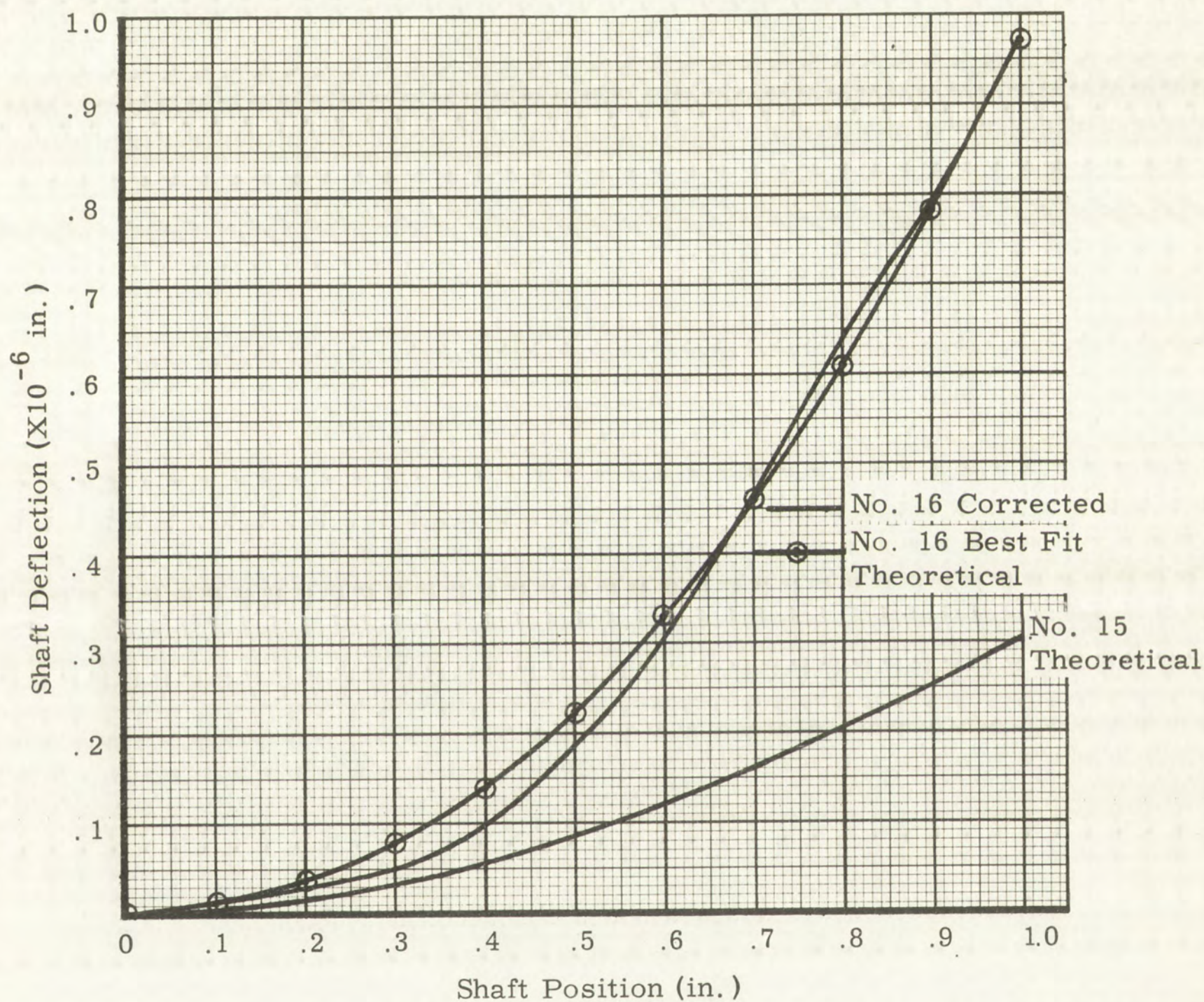
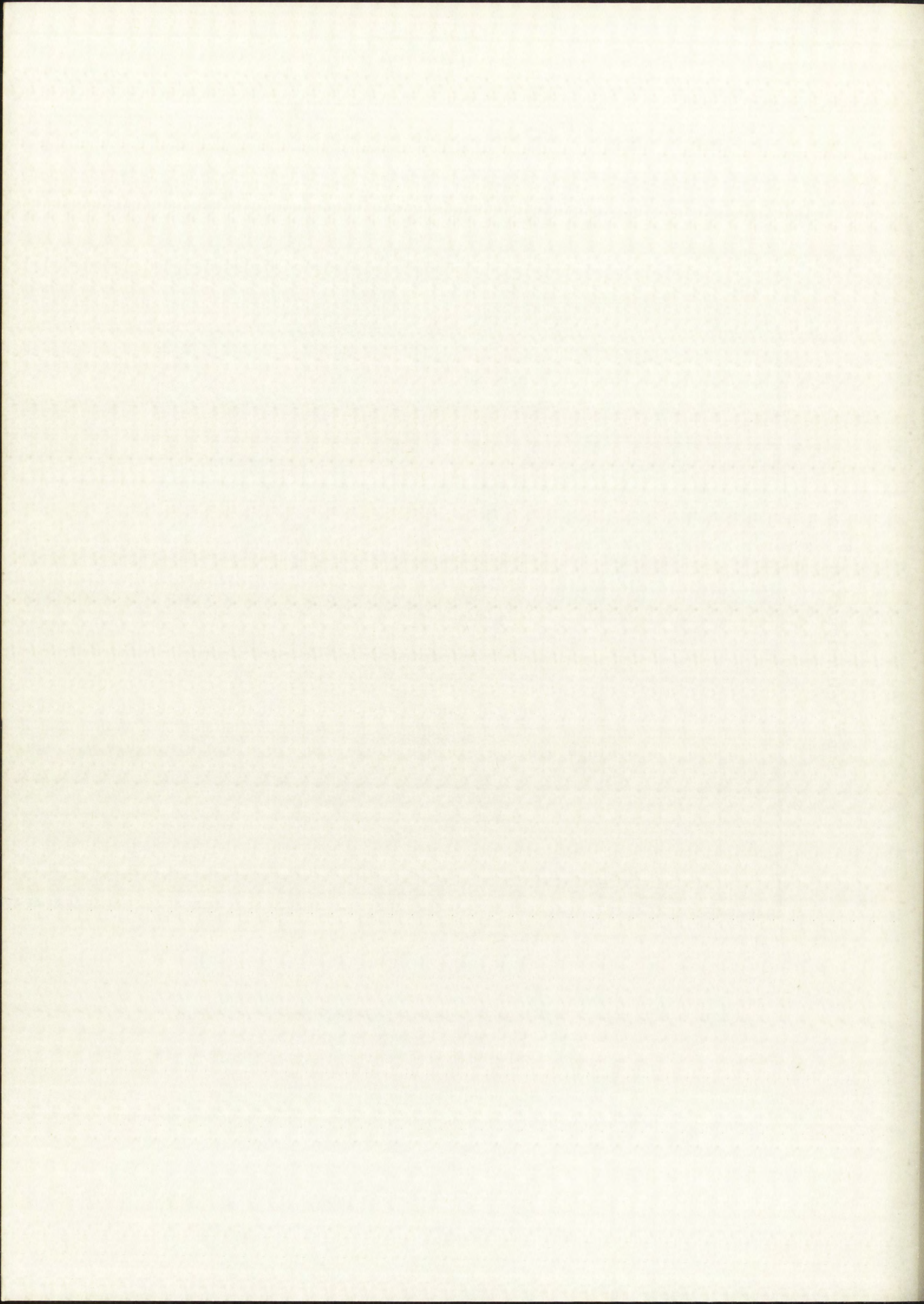


Figure 46. No. 16 Final Corrected Data Compared with Best Fit Theoretical Curve and No. 15 Theoretical Shaft Deflection Versus Shaft Position



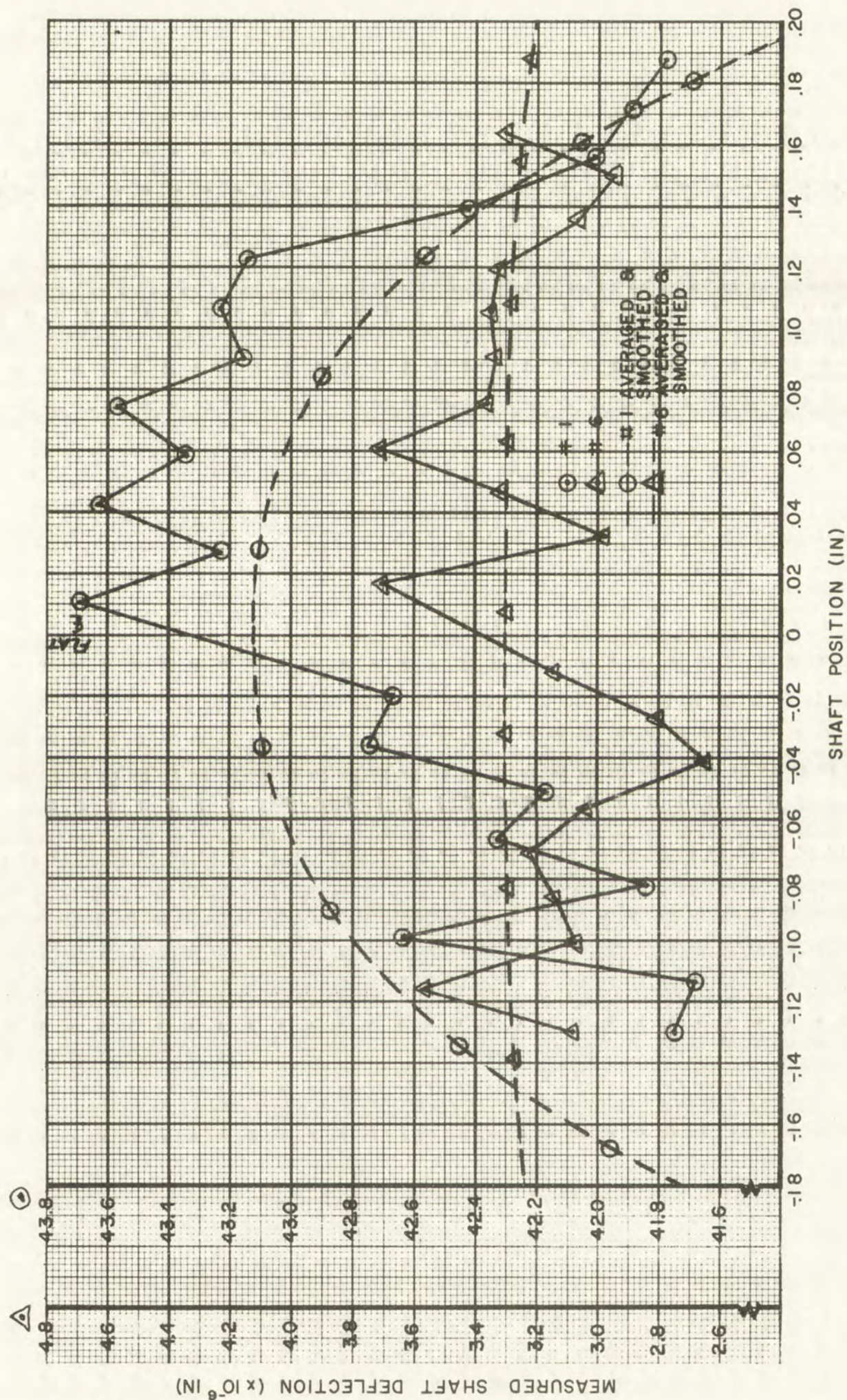
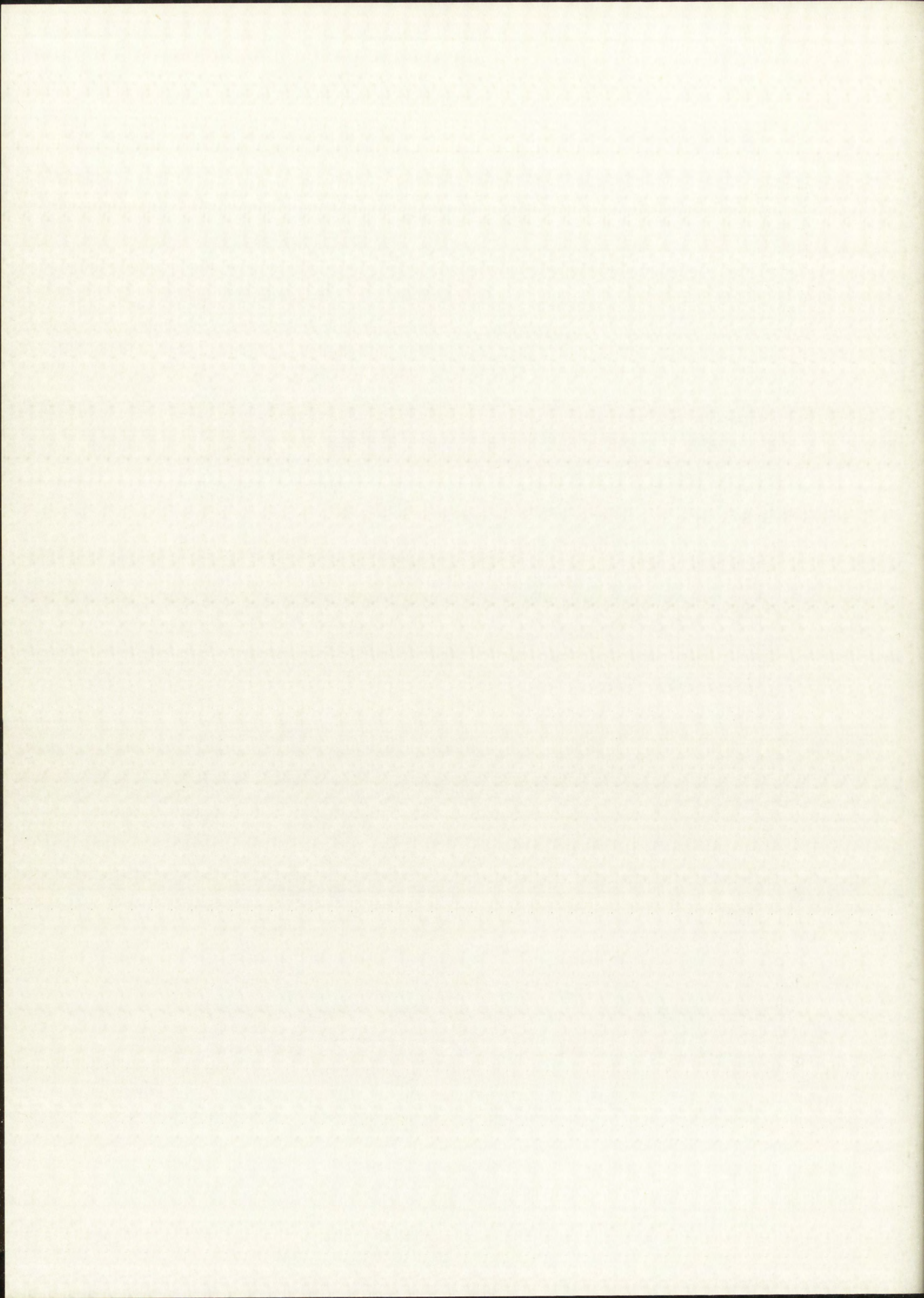


Figure 47. Statistical Measuring Error Analysis #1 and #6 Measured Data (Central Section)
Measured Shaft Deflection Versus Shaft Position



which occurs due to rotation, (2) the other errors which occur during transfer due to movement of load points, etc., and (3) indicator drift.

The first type of error may be analyzed in general, but the other two are functions of the amount of shaft curvature and time required. The moment of inertia of view (a) will be very closely approximated by the moment of inertia of a circular section; hence,

$$I_1 \approx \frac{\pi r^4}{4} = \frac{\pi (0.21890)^4}{4} = 1.80332 \times 10^{-3} \text{ in}^4 \quad r = 0.21890$$

$$\begin{aligned} I_2 &= 4 \int_0^{y_m} xy^2 dy = 4 \int_0^{y_m} \sqrt{r^2 - y^2} - y^2 dy \\ &= 4 \left[-\frac{y_m}{4} \sqrt{(r^2 - y_m^2)^3} + \frac{r^2}{8} \left(y_m \sqrt{r^2 - y^2} \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. + r^2 \arcsin \frac{y_m}{r} \right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

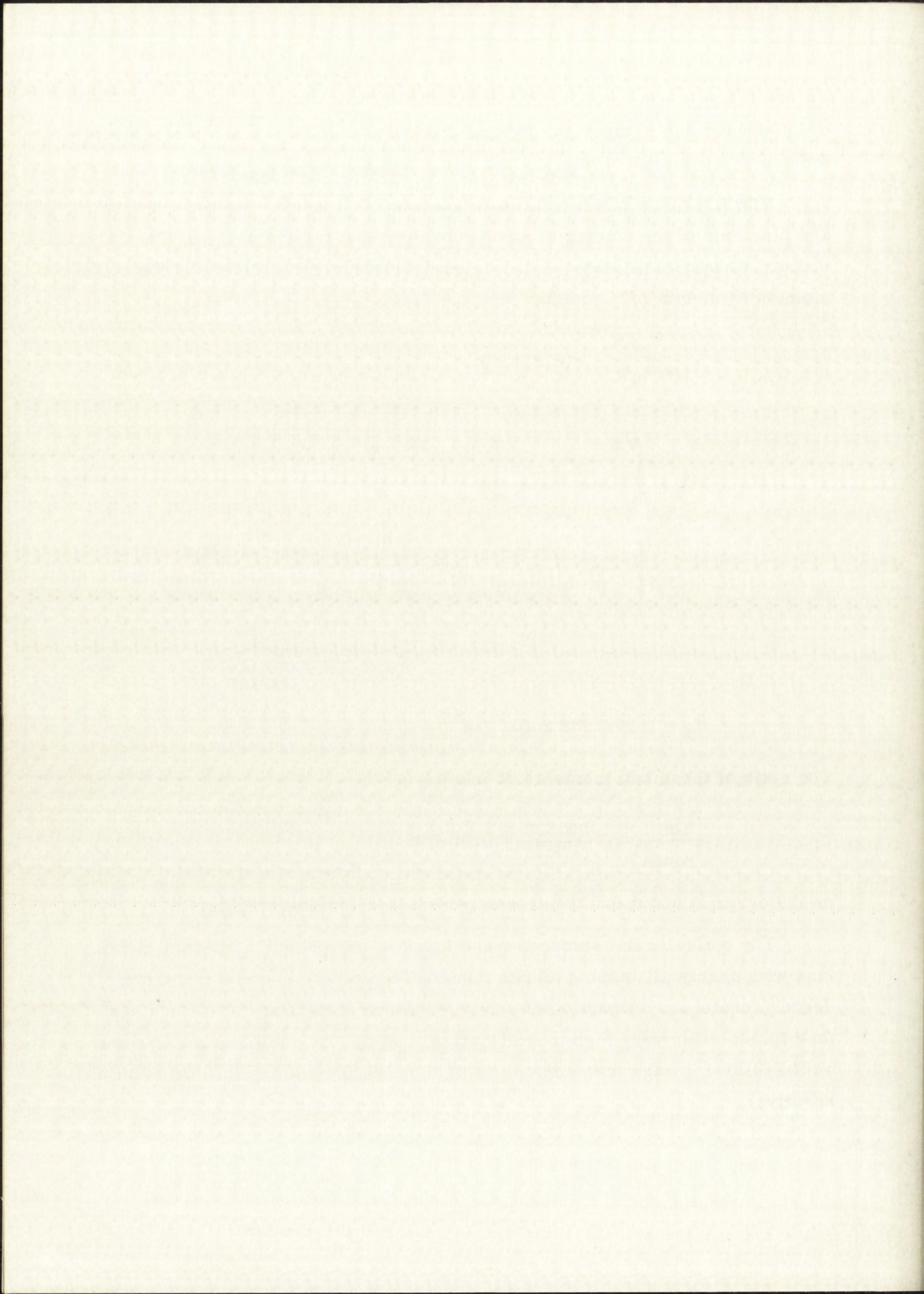
$$I_2 = 1.8026988 \times 10^{-3} \text{ in}^4$$

The ratio of these two moments of inertia is

$$\frac{I_{\text{flat}}}{I_{\text{round}}} = \frac{1.802699}{1.80332} = 0.999666$$

or the error is about 0.033 percent, which is completely negligible.

The optically flat surfaces were found to have about a 2- μ inch finish rms with nearly all lapping marks running longitudinally and a few much deeper scratches. A portion of a fringe pattern with about a 3- μ inch surface finish under very high magnification, say 1000x would appear as shown on the following page (remember the light spots are really the fringes on a negative).



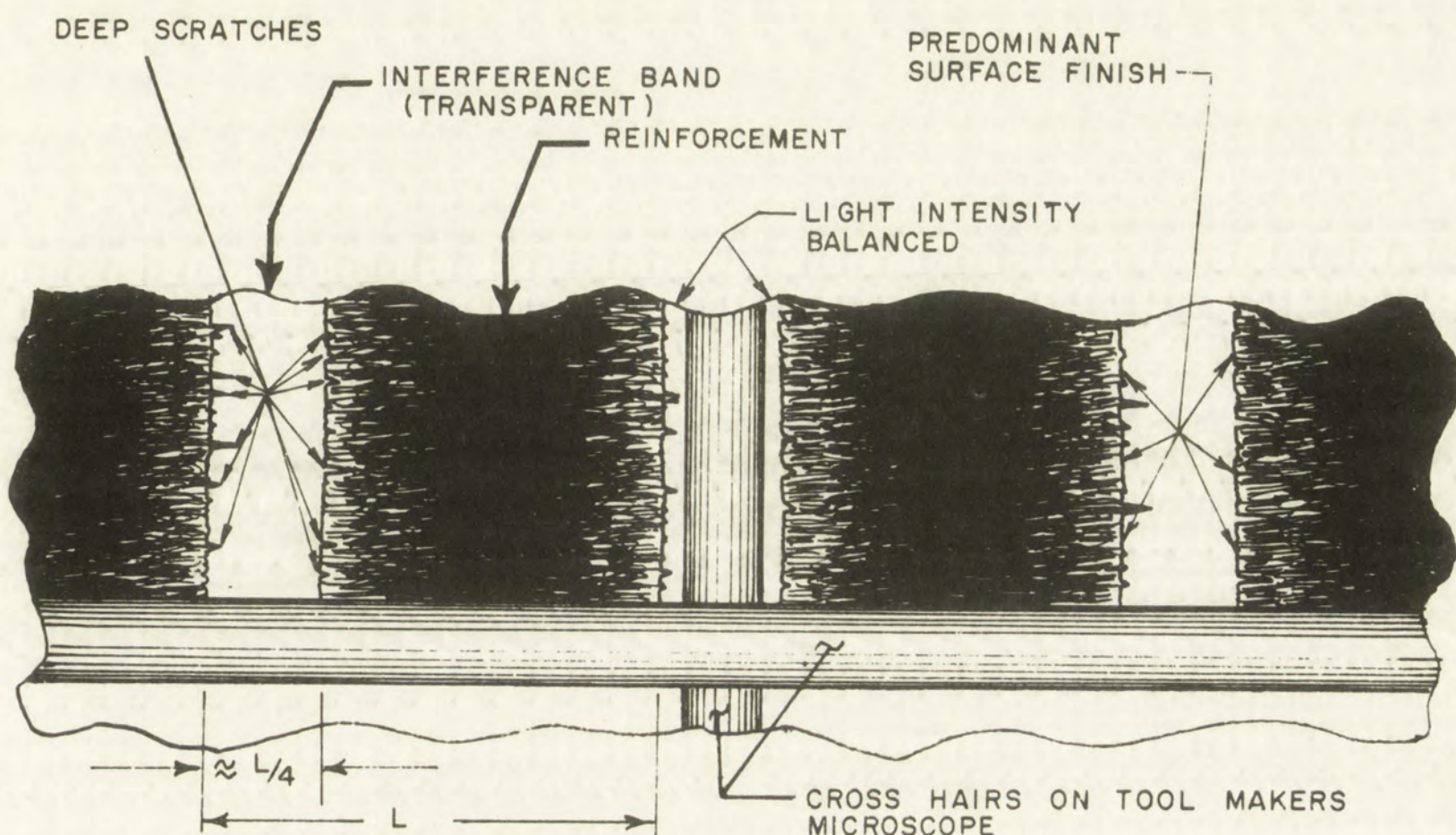
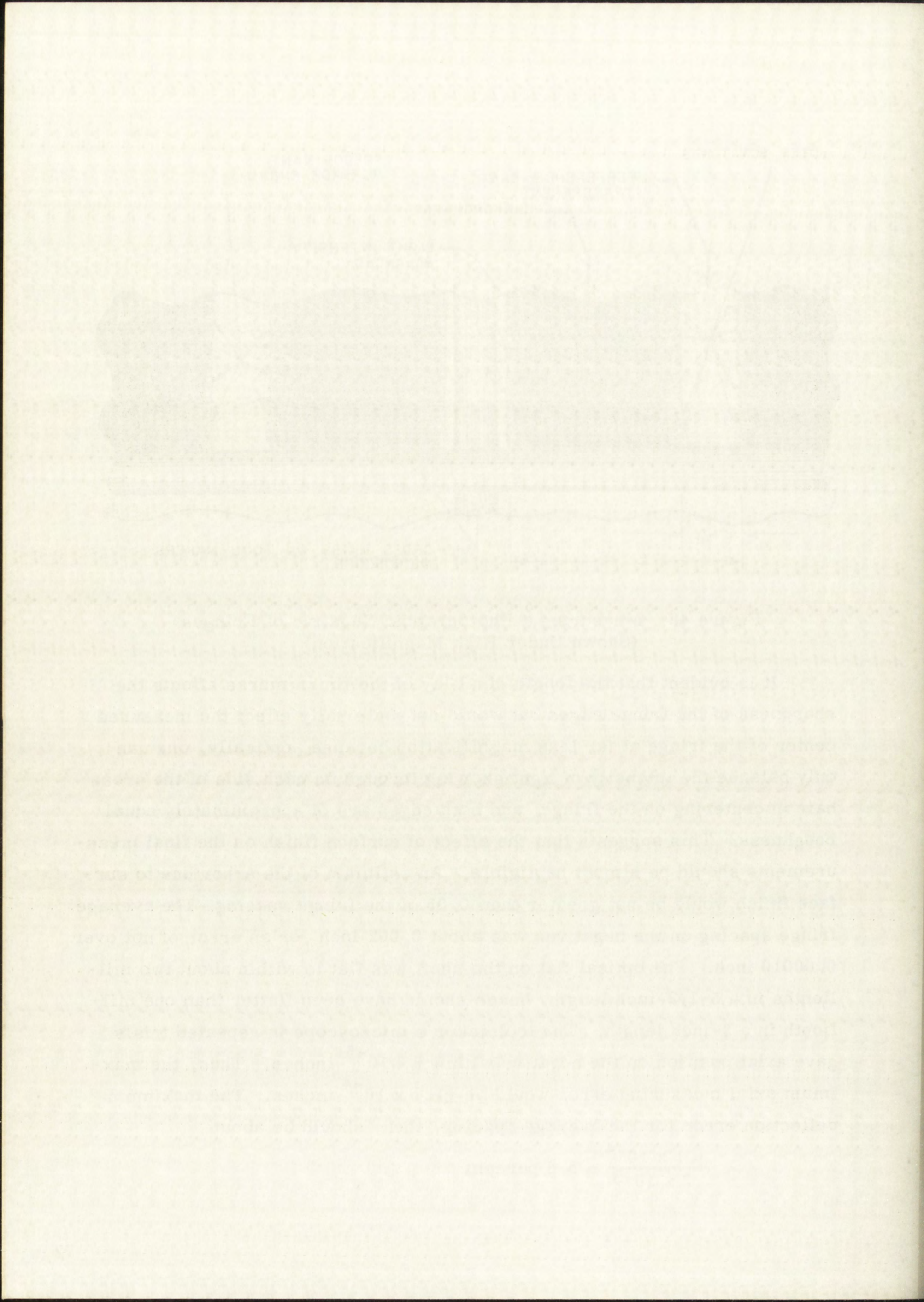


Figure 48. Measuring a Photographic Negative of Fringes
(Shown Under High Magnification)

It is evident that the longitudinal lay of the finish marks affects the sharpness of the fringe edges but would not materially affect the measured center of the fringe at far less magnification because, optically, one can only balance the intensity of light showing through on each side of the cross hair in centering on the fringe, and both edges are of approximately equal roughness. This suggests that the effect of surface finish on the final measurements should be almost negligible. An estimate of the error due to surface finish would be not greater than 0.05 of the fringe spacing. The average fringe spacing on the negatives was about 0.002 inch, or an error of not over 0.00010 inch. The optical flat on the shaft was flat to within about two millionths in a 5-1/2-inch length, hence should have been flatter than one millionth in a 2-inch length. The toolmaker's microscope in repeated trials gave axial position on the negative within $\pm \times 10^{-5}$ inches. Thus, the maximum axial measuring error would be $\pm 1.1 \times 10^{-4}$ inches. The maximum deflection error for the average spacing, then, should be about

$$\frac{1.1 \times 10^{-4}}{2 \times 10^{-3}} \approx 5.5 \text{ percent}$$



of the $\lambda/2$ for the helium green light used. This corresponds to approximately

$$5.5\% \times 10.745 \times 10^{-6} \approx 0.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ inches.}$$

Verification of Calibration

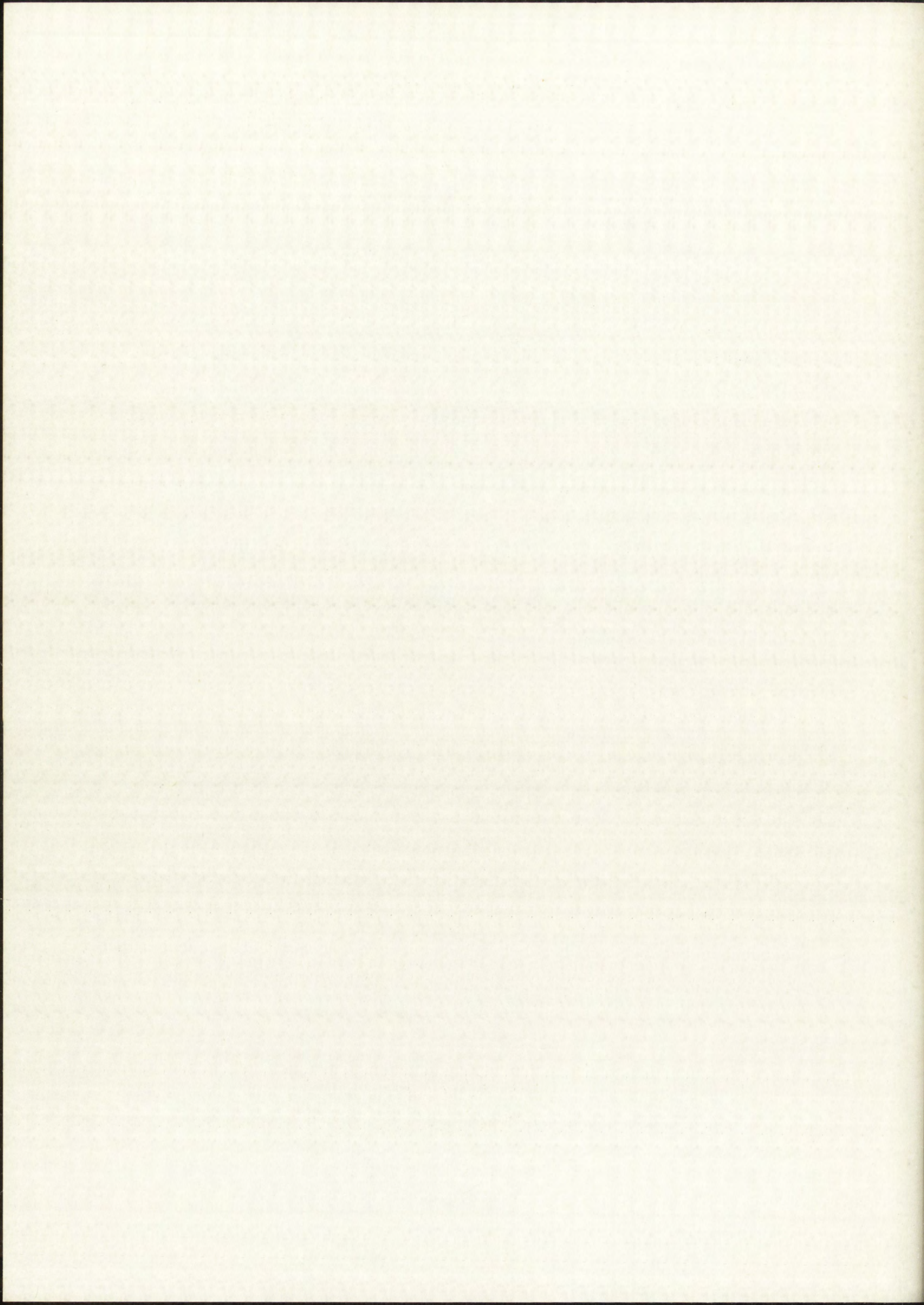
The primary method used for verification of the straining-frame calibration was a comparison of period measurements of bushing vibration on the seismometer with different straining-frame settings. At the time these measurements were taken, the electrical spin motor was introducing restoring forces which caused the bushing to vibrate with a 55-second period for small amplitude oscillations, even though no strain was introduced into the shaft by the frame. That is, only the shaft weight and bushing weight were contributing to the shaft deflection. According to the final calibration (Figure 20), the period should have been about 412 seconds. Thus, the forces introduced by the curved shaft were only

$$\left(\frac{55}{412}\right)^2 = 0.013 \text{ or } 1.3 \text{ percent}$$

of the motor forces (because restoring force varies inversely as the square of the period). With straining-frame setting of 800, which should have yielded a period of 20.4 seconds according to the strain-gage calibration, an average period of 18.9 seconds was obtained, based on 10 measurements. Lack of better correlation is attributable to three factors: (1) the timing was done with a stop watch; (2) the presence of the operator near the seismometer disturbed the bushing; and (3) the motor restoring forces. In this case, the latter effect should have been by far the greatest. A calculation of the error due to motor restoring forces follows.

$$T_{\text{set}} = 20.4 \text{ seconds}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T_{\text{motor}} &= T_{\text{shaft and bushing weight}} + T_{\text{measured}} \\ &= \sqrt{1.013} \times 55 \approx 55.3 \text{ seconds} \end{aligned}$$



Therefore,

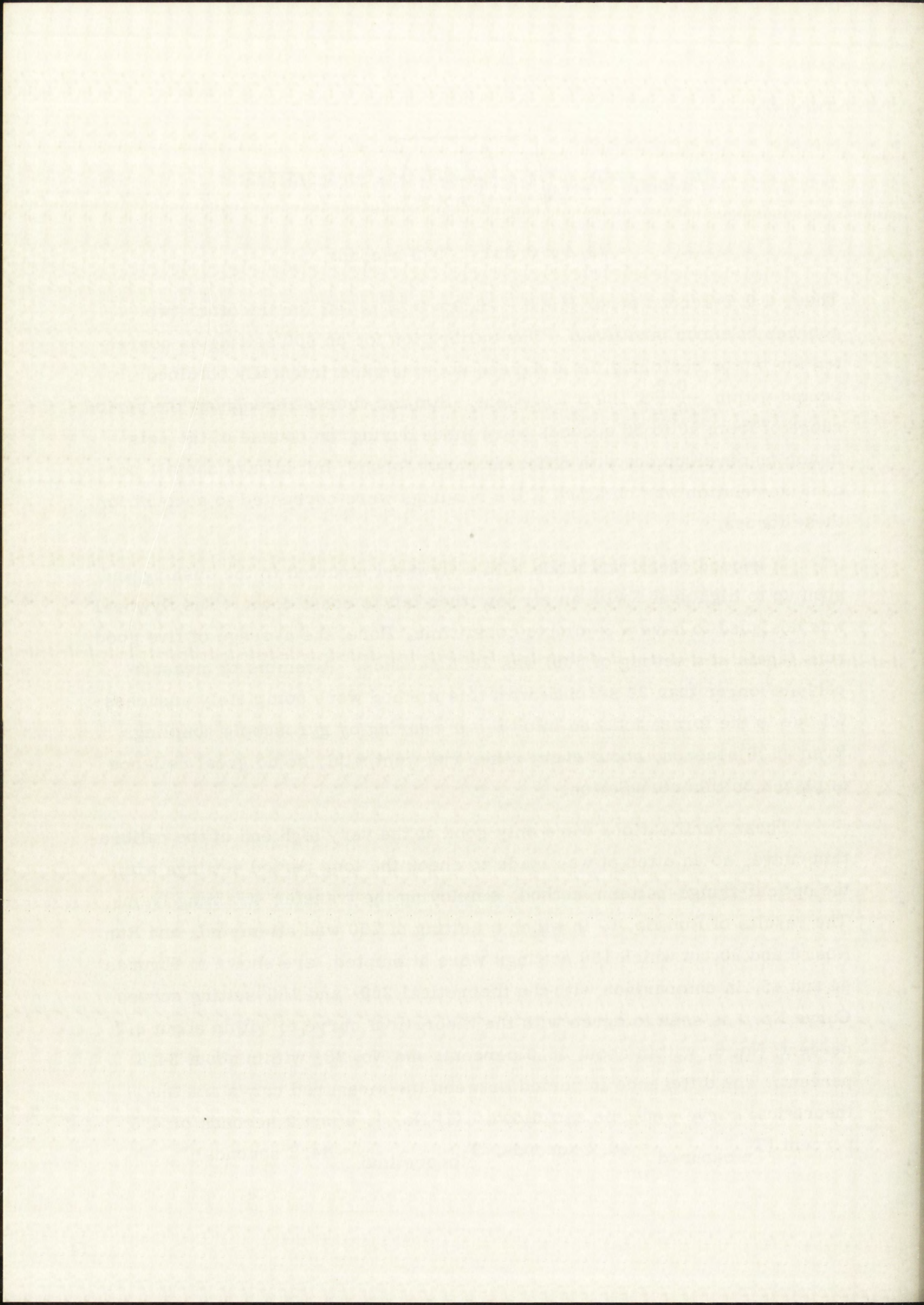
$$T_{\text{actual}} = T_{\text{set}} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{T_{\text{set}}}{T_{\text{motor}}} \right)^2} = 20.4 \sqrt{0.864}$$

$$= 20.4 \times 0.931 = 19.0 \text{ seconds}$$

Thus, a 0.1-second error ($19.0 - 18.9 = 0.1$) is left for the other two sources of error mentioned. The calibration for an 800 setting as corrected for motor restoring force agrees with the experimentally obtained period within $\frac{0.2}{19.1} \times 100 \approx 1$ percent. Similar checks throughout the period range of from 20 to 30 seconds were made during the course of the seismometer development with different motor forces, but always about 1 percent correlation was obtained if the readings were corrected to account for these forces.

A second check was made with a flywheel mounted to the bushing and spun up to high speed with an air jet, then left to coast down. The flywheel was designed to have a 3-minute coast time. Here, the average of five good runs (again at a setting of 800) was 20.8 seconds. Attempts to measure periods longer than 30 seconds with this method were completely unsuccessful due to the forces induced into the air bearing by gyroscopic coupling. Even at 20 seconds, about every other run went wild, so no great reliance is placed on this correlation.

These verifications were only good at the very high end of the calibration curve, so an attempt was made to check the long period settings with the optical-fringe-pattern method, employing the transfer straining frame. The results of Run No. 1, in which a setting of 250 was attempted, and Run Nos. 6 and 20, in which 160 settings were attempted, are shown in Figures 44 and 45, in comparison with the theoretical 250- and 160-setting curves. Curve No. 1 is seen to agree with the theoretical curve to within about 8.7 percent; No. 6, within about 35.3 percent; and No. 20, within about 34.6 percent. The difference in period between the measured curve and the theoretical curve would be as follows: (1) No. 1, about 2 seconds or 4.5 percent ($T_{\text{measured}} = 46.2$ seconds, $T_{\text{theoretical}} = 44.2$ seconds);

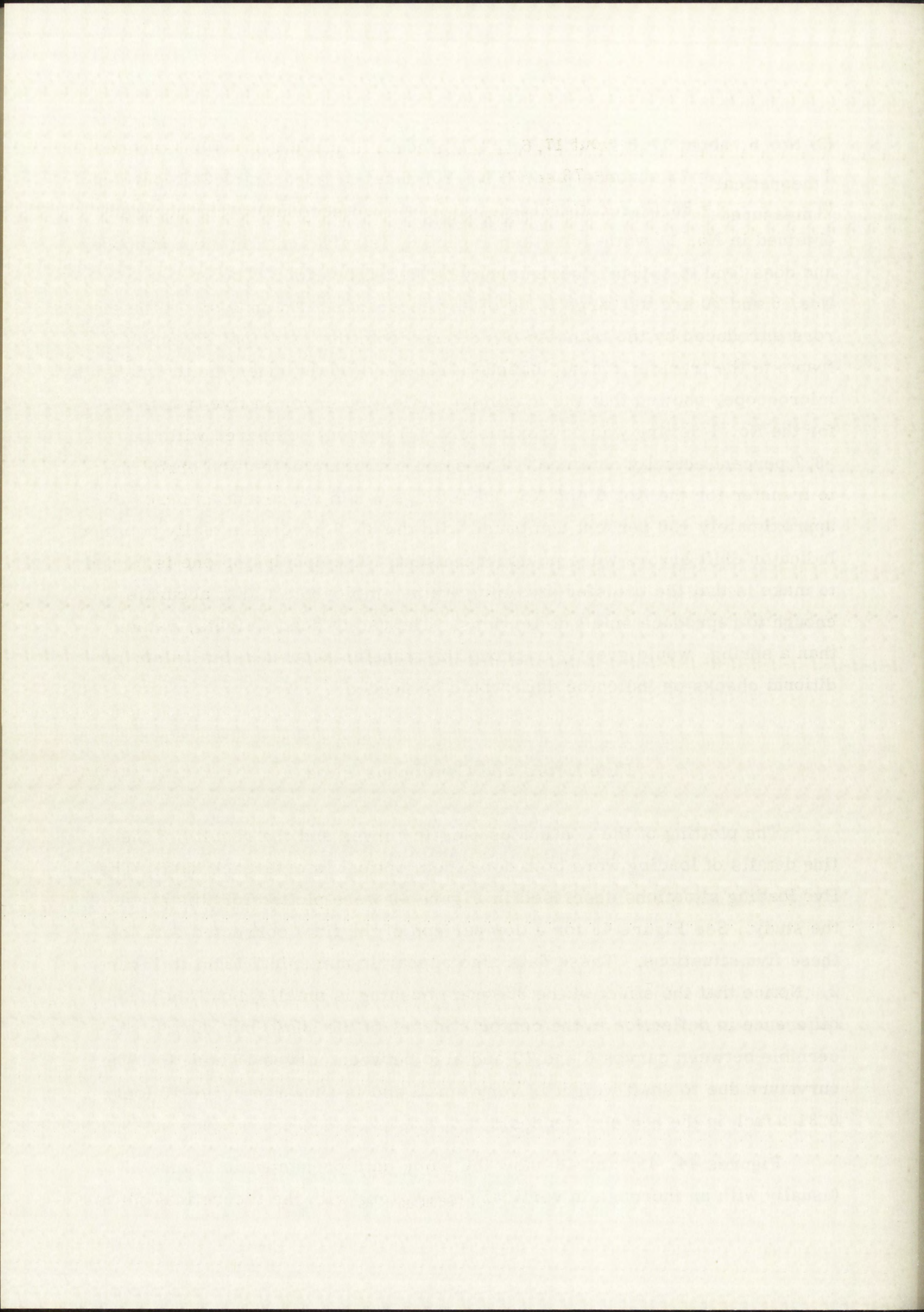


(2) No. 6, about 17.6 seconds or 24.1 percent ($T_{\text{measured}} = 90.6$ seconds, $T_{\text{theoretical}} = 73$ seconds; and (3) No. 20, about 17 seconds or 24.1 percent ($T_{\text{measured}} = 88.6$ seconds, $T_{\text{theoretical}} = 71.6$ seconds). The accuracy obtained in No. 1, while less than expected, is sufficient for most purposes and does tend to support the accuracy of the calibration. The errors in Nos. 6 and 20 are too large to be of any assurance. An analysis of the errors introduced by the transfer of settings from the principal straining frame to the transfer frame, based on repeated trials under the toolmaker's microscope, showed that the maximum deflection error in five transfers for the No. 1 setting was approximately ± 15 percent compared with the -8.7 percent actually obtained. The same maximum deflection error due to transfer for the No. 6 and No. 20 settings would represent an error of approximately ± 30 percent compared with the 35.3 percent actually obtained. Indicator drift errors were no doubt present. The conclusion one is forced to make is that the transfer straining frame employed was not accurate enough to reproduce small deflections. The use of dead weights, rather than a spring, would greatly improve the transfer accuracy; but, also, additional checks on indicator drift would be needed.

Fine Detail and Continuous Plots

The plotting of the continuous elastic curves and the results of the fine details of loading were both done from optical interference data. The five loading situations described in Figure 49 were plotted for this phase of the study. See Figure 43 for a comparison of the final corrected data for these five situations. These data also appear in numerical form in Figure 2. Notice that the effect of the 32-gram bushing is small (about 8μ inch difference in deflection in the center 2 inches of the shaft) but clearly discernible between curves 6 and 20 and also between curves 15 and 16. The curvature due to shaft weight is very small and is shown in curve 15 (only 0.31μ inch in the center 2 inches).

Figures 44, 45, and 46 show the same data presented in Figure 43 (usually with an increase in vertical scale) along with the theoretical curves



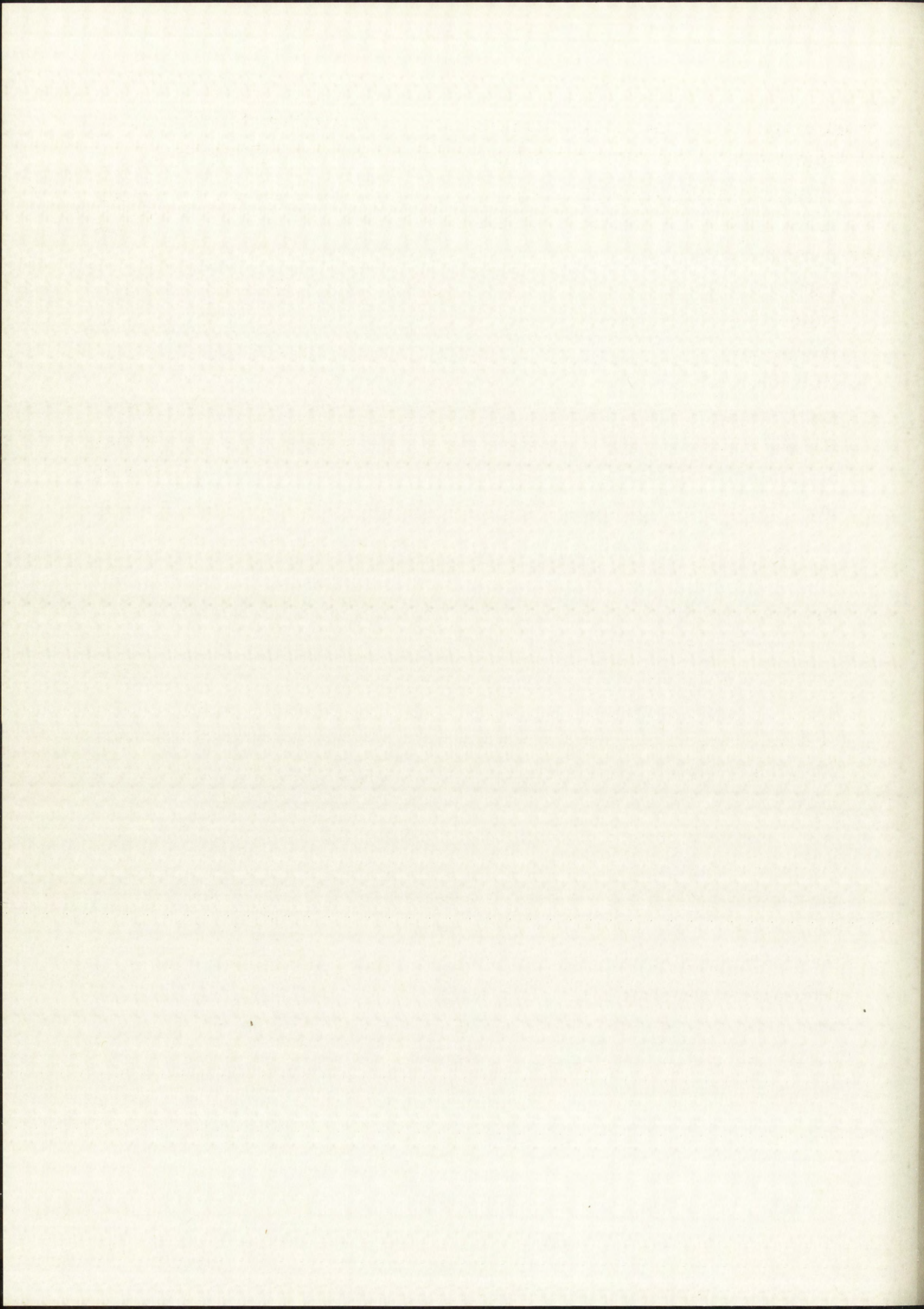
Negative No.	Straining frame used ?	Attempted setting	Bushing used ?	Period corresponding to measured curvature (sec)
1	Yes	250	No	46.2
6	Yes	160 (without bushing)	No	90.6
20	Yes	160 (with bushing)	Yes	88.6
15	No	-	No	55.4
16	No	-	Yes	41.2

Figure 49. Loading Situations Measured With Optical Interference Technique

of the attempted settings and of the best-fit theoretical curves (which pass through the end point of the final corrected curve). The formulas for the theoretical curves were derived for the three components of deflection due to (1) primary loading from the straining frame, (2) shaft weight, and (3) bushing weight. These formulas were for the deflection measured from the shaft centerline, assuming the deflection at the centerline to be zero since this form yielded data which was best suited for comparison with the measured data. See Appendix III for the derivation of these formulas and the final tabulated theoretical deflection data. Figure 44 shows the very close agreement obtained between the measured curve (shown as a solid line) for No. 1 and the closest fit theoretical curve (shown by circled dots). Here, $0.6 \mu\text{in}$ is the largest error and the rms error is $0.313 \mu\text{in}$. Even closer agreement between the measured and closest fit theoretical curves was obtained for Nos. 6 and 20, shown in Figure 45. The vertical scale graduations are one-half the values in Figure 44 (twice the magnification) and still almost no deviation is discernible. Here, $0.04 \mu\text{in}$ is the largest error for No. 6; $0.07 \mu\text{in}$, the largest for No. 20. The rms for No. 6 is

0.02 μ in and for No. 20 is 0.04 μ in. Figure 46, showing Nos. 15 and 16 to 10 times the vertical magnification of Figure 4, again shows remarkably close correlation between No. 16 as measured and the best-fit theoretical curve. Here, the largest error was only 0.053 μ in and the rms error was 0.025 μ in. Thus, the average rms value for these four curves is only 0.099 μ in. As discussed previously under the section on verification of calibration, the transfer operation was not very successful in establishing the intended settings; but, on the basis of the close fits obtained with best-fit theoretical curves, it at least shows that the curves obtained were correctly shaped. The close fits also show that the correction for reference-flat sag must have been highly accurate. A better appreciation of this may be gained by comparing the measured data shown in Figures 35 and 41 with the corrected data in Figure 43.

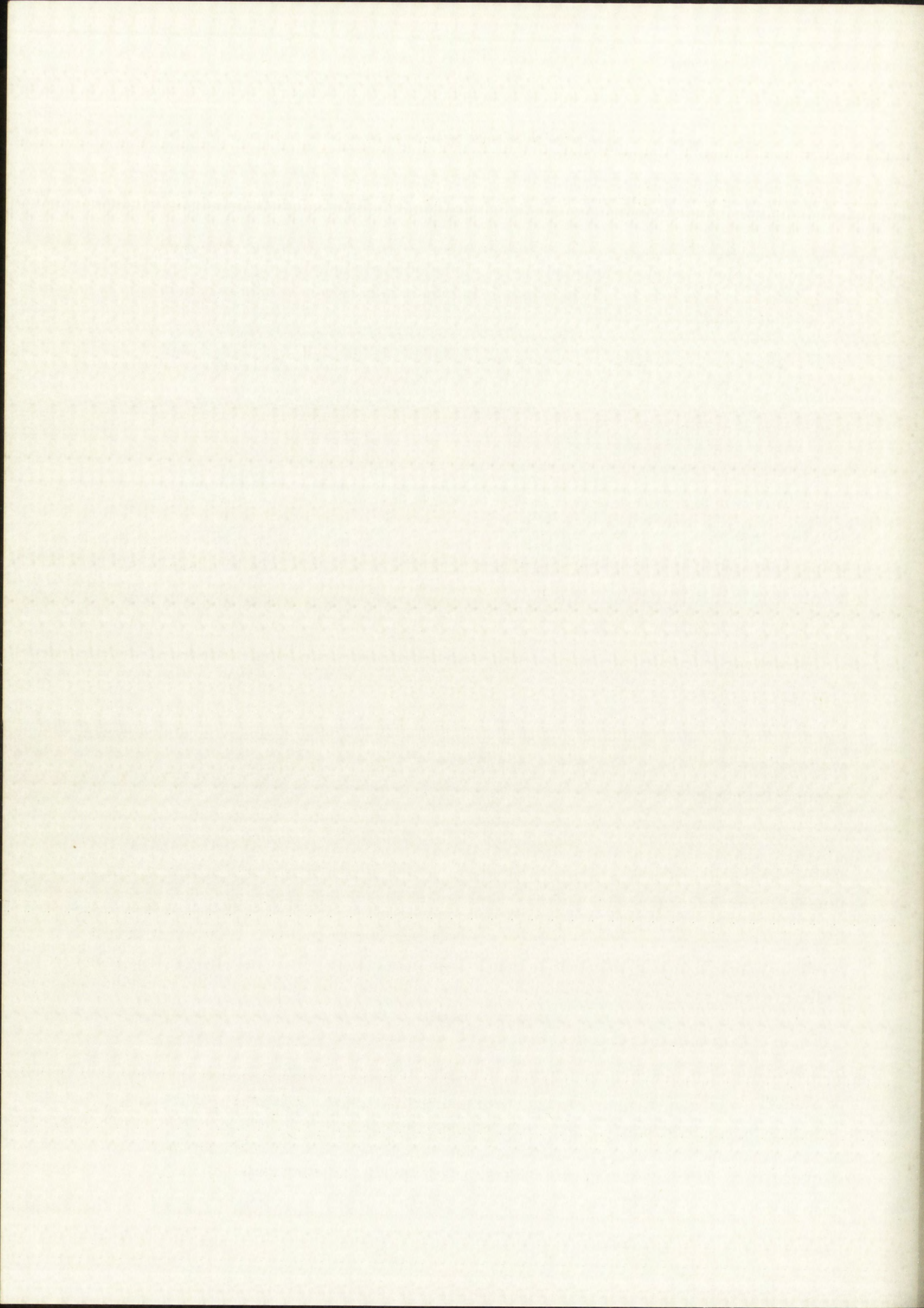
Another interesting question is "What accuracy was obtained on individual points in the continuous plots?" Figure 47 shows the uncorrected data obtained by measuring every fringe (instead of every tenth fringe) in the central part of the shaft for curves 1 and 6. The center 20 fringes in each case were measured. For each curve, the averaged and smoothed but uncorrected curves are shown as dotted lines. Notice that the points do have a random distribution on either side of the centerline but that the statistical means on the right of the centerline are above the dotted lines in both cases, and on the left of the centerline, are both below the dotted line. This is because a discontinuity of about 0.4- μ in height occurred at the center cross hair of the reference optical flat. These two curves in themselves would not prove the existence of this discontinuity, but the same condition was noted in all of the 11 negatives analyzed. In all cases, the discontinuity occurred at the centerline of the flat rather than at the centerline of the shaft or straining frame. (These features could not be accurately aligned in the interferometer.) In spite of the central discontinuity, the rms measuring error between the averaged and smoothed curves and the unsmoothed data for both curves was 0.45 μ in.



Results and Conclusions

A number of specific conclusions may be drawn from this thesis work.

1. The straining-frame design was satisfactory in all respects.
2. The semiconductor resistance strain gages were ideal for the straining-frame calibration.
3. An rms resolution in strain of about 3×10^{-8} in/in for a single setting of the straining frame was obtained using the semiconductor gages and a conventional SR-4 strain indicator.
4. The optical interference method of plotting elastic curves was laborious, but uncorrected data did give an rms resolution about the mean for the deflection measurements of a single point on the shaft of about 0.4 μ in. Even with the most precise interferometers, adequate cross checks to obtain corrections for reference flat sag and photographic distortions would be needed to insure accurate results.
5. The comparison of the straining-frame period calibration obtained with strain gages for a setting of 800 with actual period measurements show agreement within 1 percent. Direct correlation for periods over 30 seconds was not possible because of the presence of electrical motor forces and ground instability.
6. The optical interference verification of the strain-gage calibration was poor (4.5-percent period difference at a 250 setting and 24.1-percent period difference at a 160 setting), not because of any inherent barrier, but primarily because of poor transfer straining-frame design. Another significant source of error was the lack of time to allow perfect setup and strain-indicator drift corrections.
7. Repeatable transfers of loading conditions using strain gages would be possible in a simple transfer frame if better load-point guidance were provided and dead-weight loading were used in place of leaf-spring loading.
8. The average rms deviation (in deflection of four sets of elastic curves) plotted from corrected optical interference data from the best-fit



theoretical curves was $0.099 \mu\text{in.}$ This degree of fit would not have been possible if there were significant differences between the theoretical and experimental curves.

9. Based on the close agreement between experiment and theory shown in item 8, the accuracy of the correction made to the measured optical interference data must have been better than $0.099 \mu\text{in rms}$ for each point.

10. The use of theoretical elastic curvatures for future calibrations and analyses is completely justified by the test results.

11. Controlled use of elastic deformations is a valuable technique for obtaining precision adjustments, particularly if these adjustments are of a relative nature and can be monitored by some other suitably sensitive means.

12. Controlled elastic deformation of structural elements can be used to generate certain types of precise geometric shapes, provided proper consideration is given to the elastic properties and yield stresses.

The tangible results of this thesis are to be found in the following contributions to the seismometer development program:

1. The straining frame (proven by 1 year of testing) acted as a forerunner for the final seismometer straining frame and base.

2. The accurate straining-frame calibration, made possible by semiconductor resistance strain gages, has been a great aid in setting up specific periods of vibration and in locating and measuring undesirable axial force fields in the developmental seismometer.

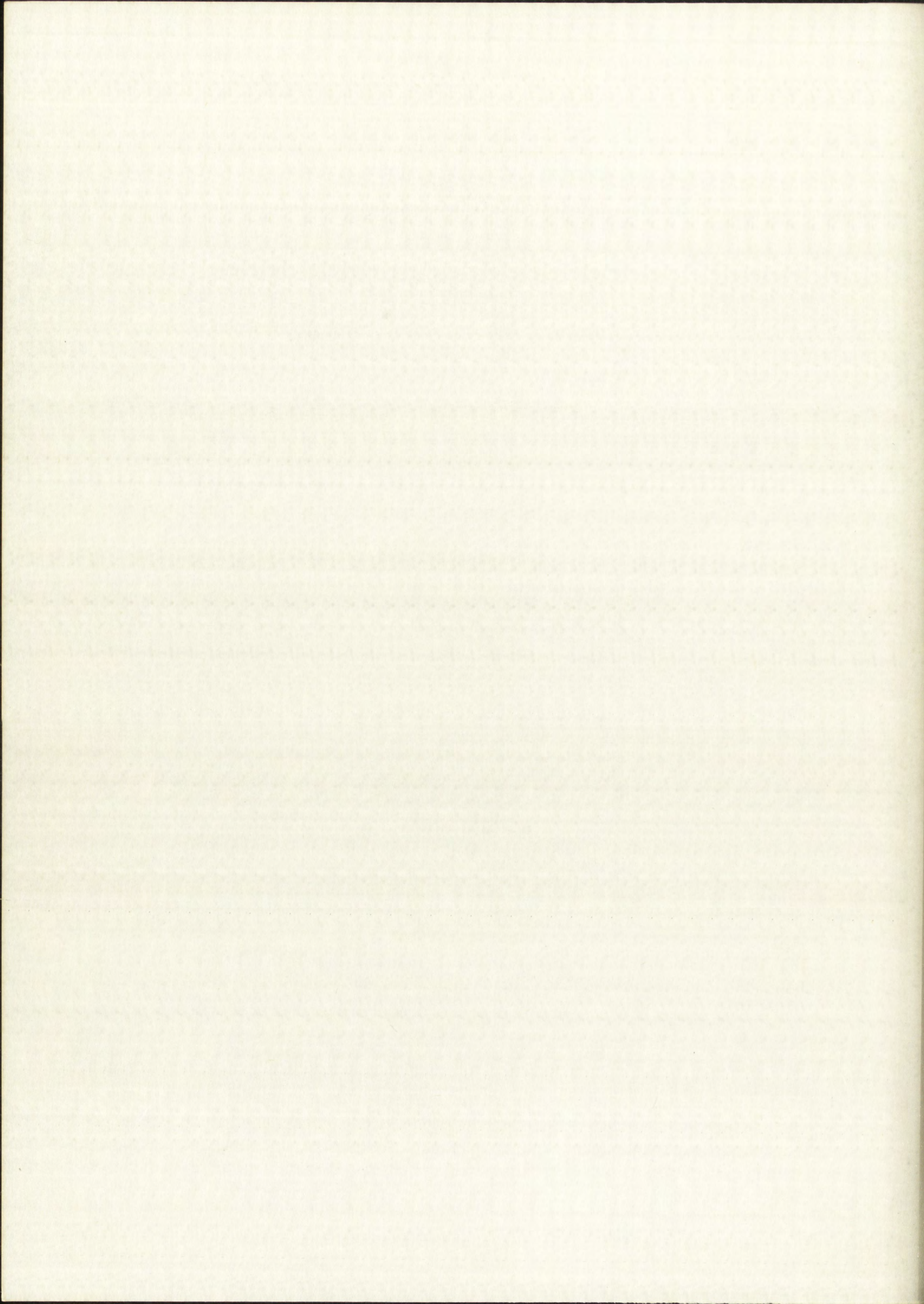
3. The continuous plots of typical elastic curvatures, both measured and theoretical, have allowed nonlinear axial force fields in the seismometer, due to aerodynamic forces, electrical forces, magnetic forces, internal-bearing forces, and gyroscopic effects to be plotted with great accuracy. From this knowledge and other observations, the sources have been located and steps taken to eliminate or reduce these effects.

4. Realistic design goals for the final seismometer design were calculated from the information gained.

In addition to these tangible results, this work has created increased confidence in the final long-period horizontal air-beaming seismometer design.

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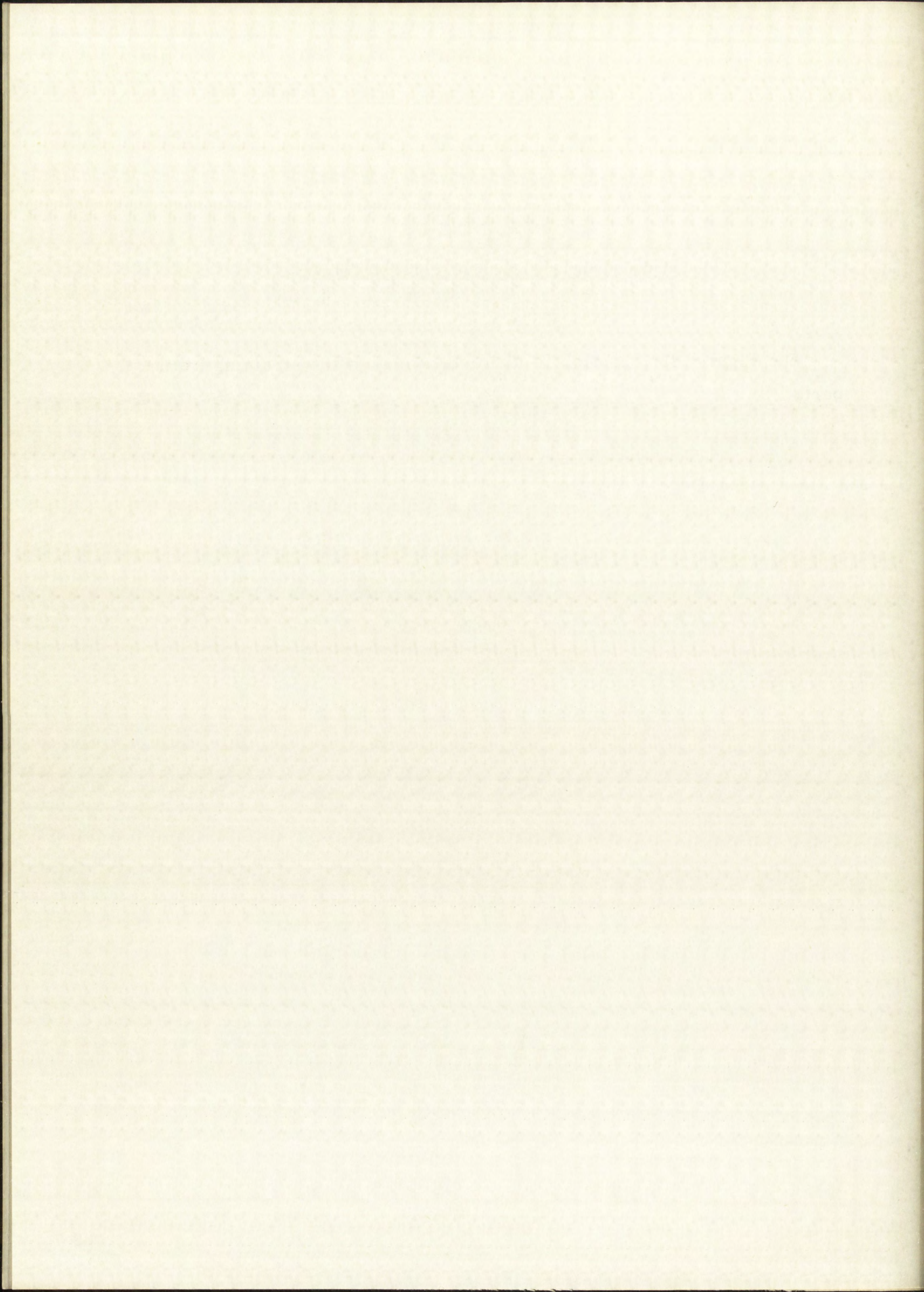
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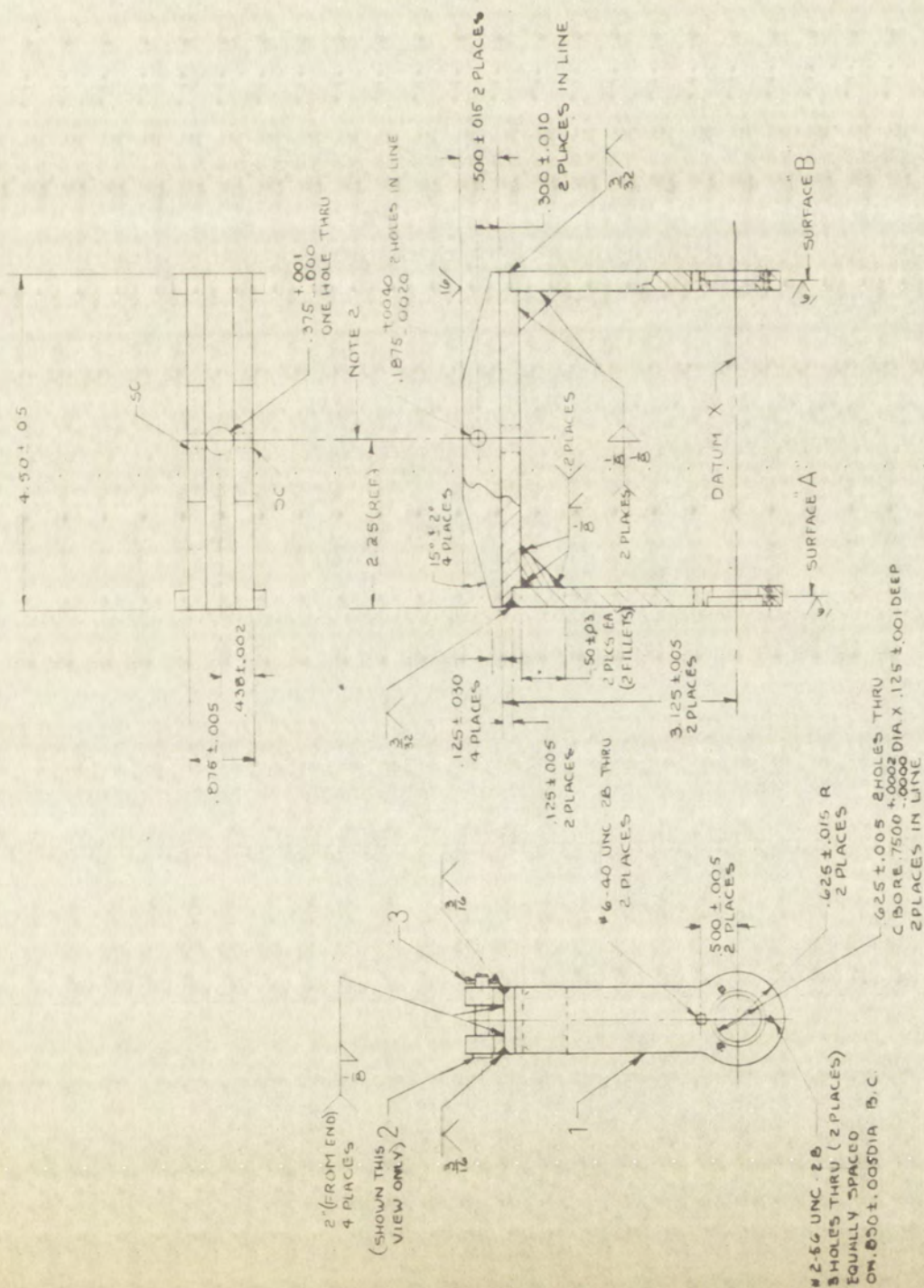
APPENDIX II

STRAINING FRAME PARTS DRAWINGS

See Figures II-1 through II-12 for drawings of the straining frame parts.

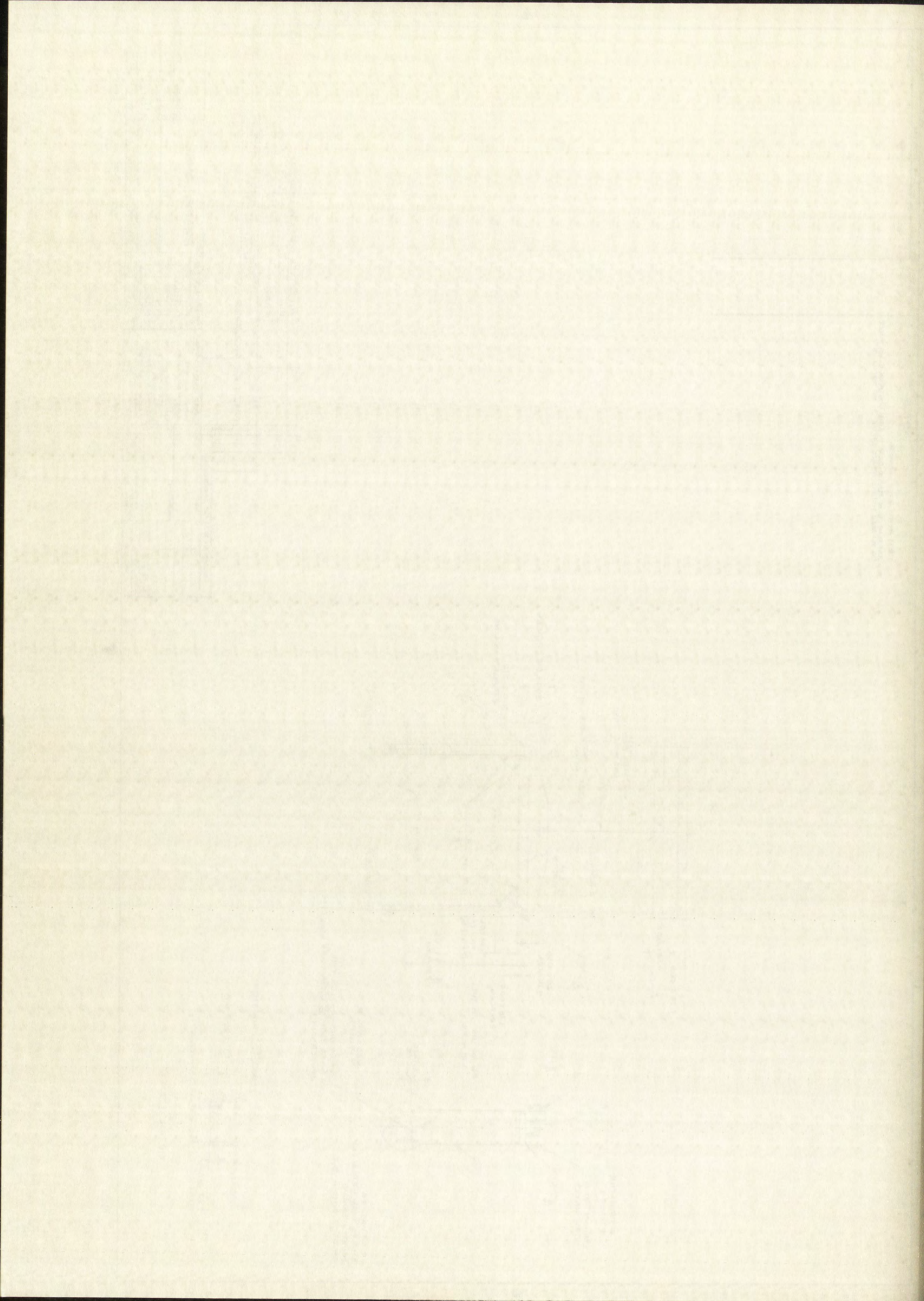


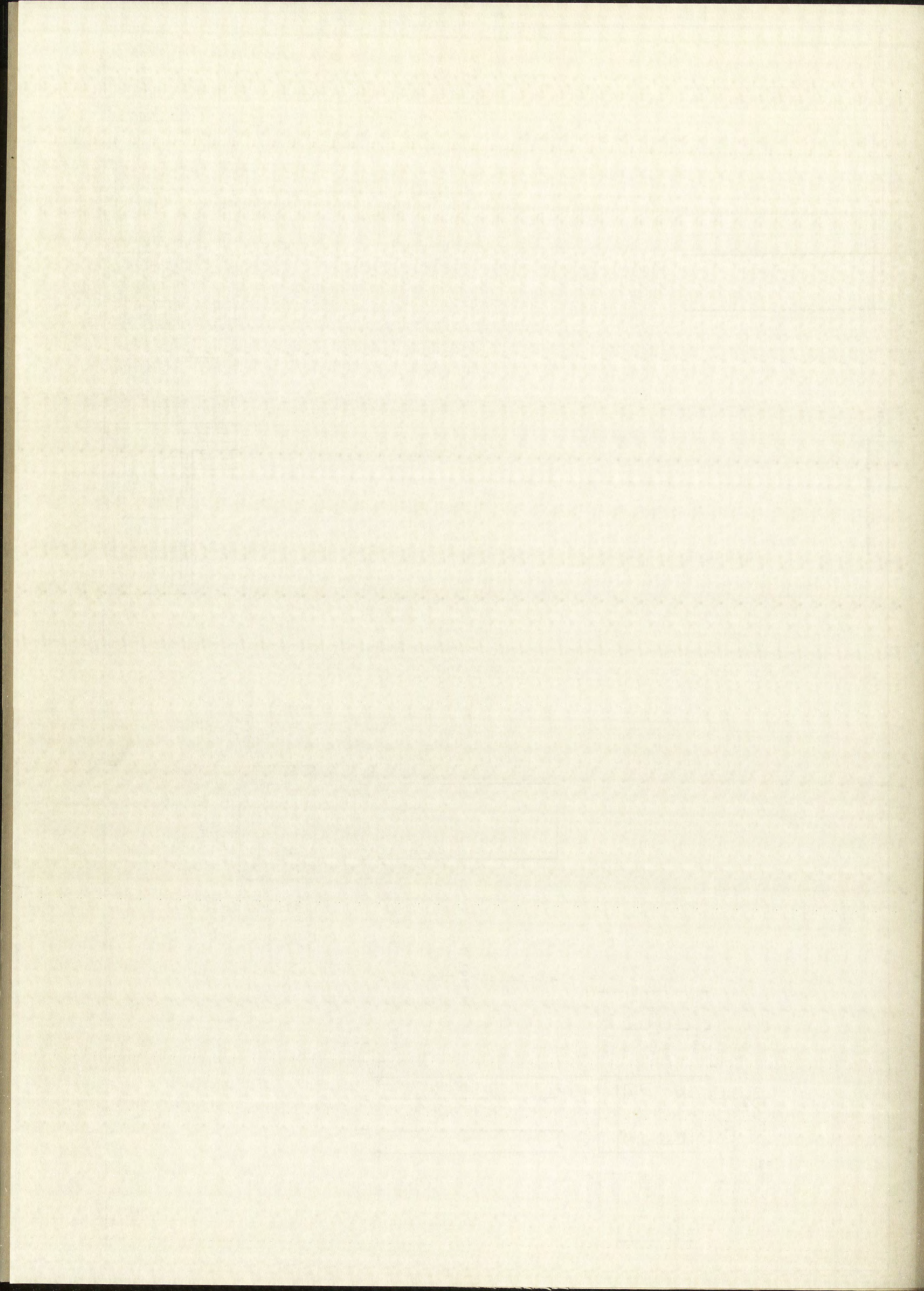
1. STRESS RELIEVE BEFORE MACHINING.
2. CENTERLINE TO BE PERPENDICULAR TO DATUM CENTERLINE X AND BISECT THE MEASURED DISTANCE BETWEEN SURFACE "A" AND SURFACE "B".



DETAIL - ITEM 2

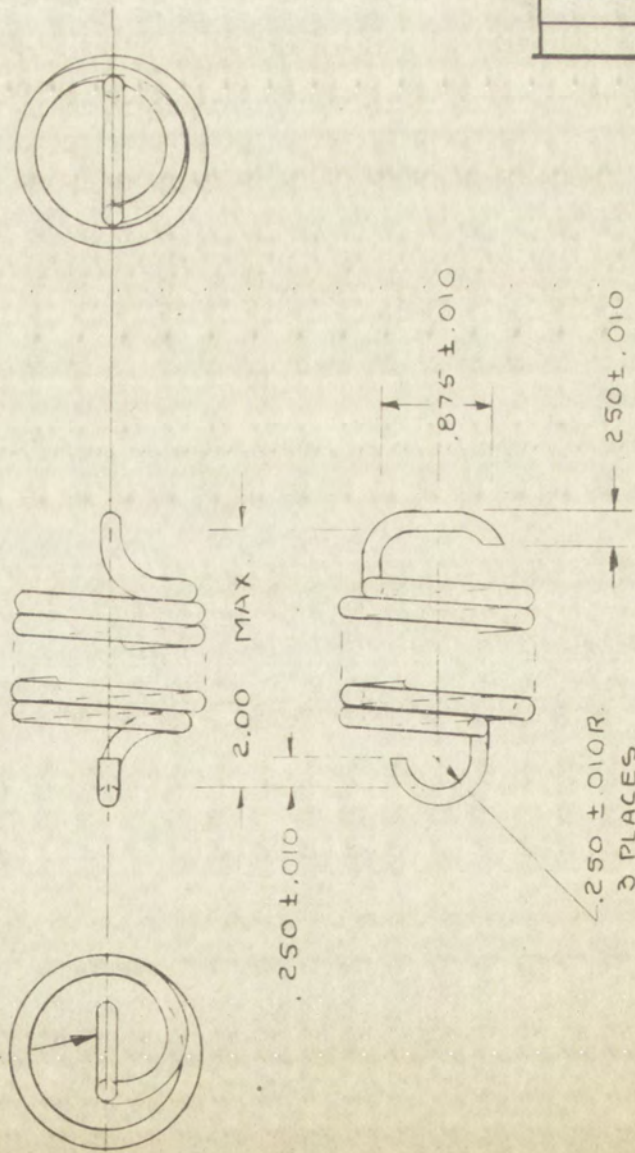
DRAWING SIZE										PART NO.										MPR NO.										DESCRIPTION										MATERIAL										MATERIAL SPEC.										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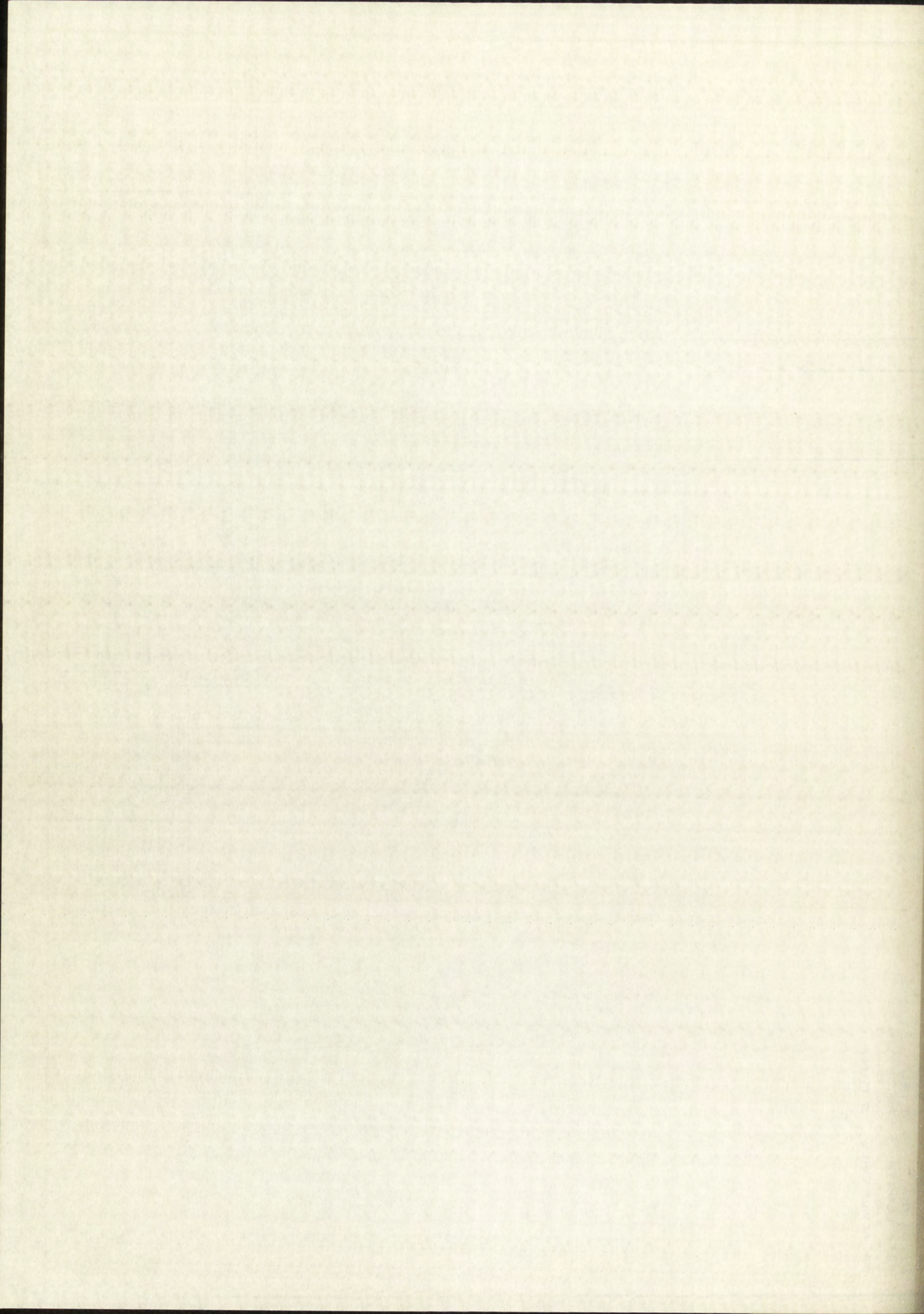


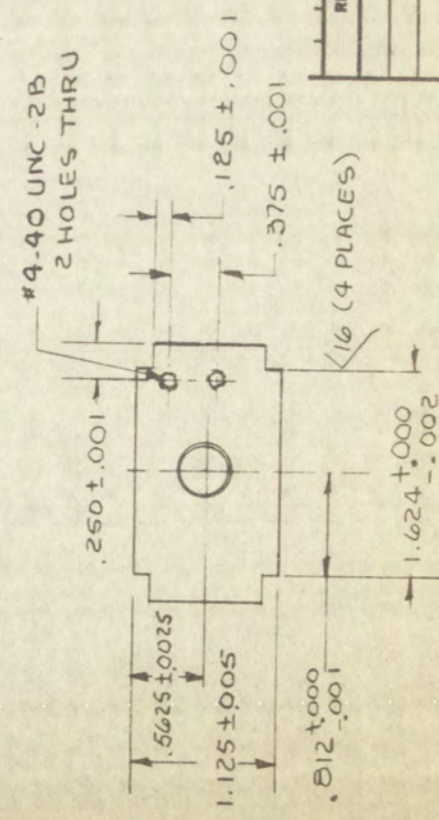
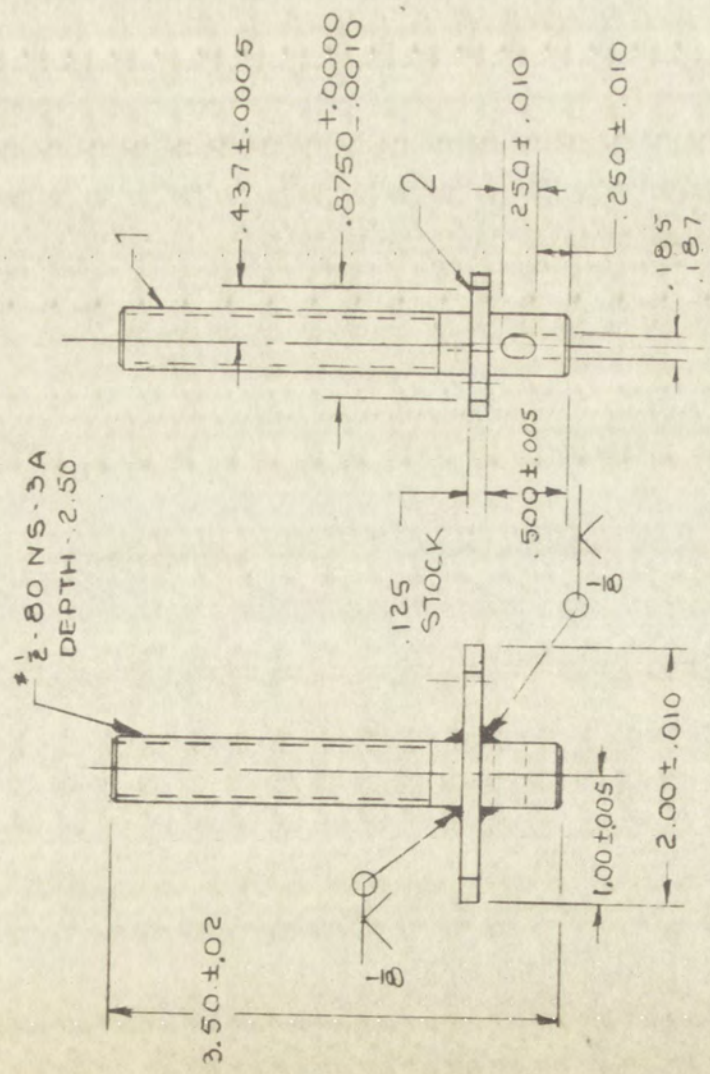
OUTSIDE DIA 1.500
INSIDE DIA 1.146
FREE LENGTH AS SHOWN
TYPE ENDS AS SHOWN
NO. ACTIVE COILS 5 MIN.

ORIENTATION OF ENDS
MAY VARY 10°

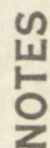


DRAWING SIZE		PART NO.	MFR'S. NO.	DESCRIPTION	MATERIAL	MATERIAL SPEC.	NOTE	ZONE	ITEM
REQUIRED PER NOTED ASSY. (✓) DENOTES AS REQ'D		PART CLASSIFICATION		DWG. CLASSIFICATION		LIST OF MATERIAL			
MATERIAL HARD DRAWN SPRING WIRE A.S. 20 ASTM. A 227-47 ADDITIVE FINISH		UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED DIMENSIONS ARE IN INCHES. LIMITS APPLY OVER NON-PAINTED FINISHES. SURFACE ROUGHNESS HEIGHT RATING EXPRESSED AS MICRO-INCHES. LIMITS OF ACCEPTABLE WORKMANSHIP ARE DEFINED IN SC-7012 (SP) FOR EXPLANATION OF TOLERANCES OF POSITION AND FORM, INCLUDING MFC, SEE SC-7016 (SP)		DRWN APPD DES BY MAYL MYS DPTB	CHKD R3 OBS INITIALS	TITLE SPRING, TENSION			
M12210 NEXT ASSY		CONTRACTOR PREPARED CHKD ENGR		MFR'S. DWG. NO.		SUPERSEDES 5Y DWG. C 1 DWG. NO. N12214			
C* NOTATION IS FOR DESIGN AGENCY INFORMATION ONLY		NOT REVIEWED		SCALE FULL		RAW STK WT LBS		UNIT WT LBS	
APPLICATION		SHEET 1 OF 1		PRINTED IN U.S.A. SC 8408-C 3-99					





PART NO.		MFR. NO.		DESCRIPTION		MATERIAL		MATERIAL SPEC.		NOTE		ZONE		ITEM	
				PLATE SHAFT		STEEL (1020)		HOT ROLLED						2	
PART CLASSIFICATION				DWG. CLASSIFICATION				LIST OF MATERIAL							
UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED				DIMENSIONS ARE IN INCHES.				LIMITS APPLY OVER NON-PAINTED FINISHES.							
SURFACE ROUGHNESS HEIGHT RATING				EXPRESSED AS MICRO-INCHES.				LIMITS OF ACCEPTABLE WORKMANSHIP ARE DEFINED IN SC-7012 (SP)							
FOR EXPLANATION OF TOLERANCES				OF POSITION AND FORM, INCLUDING MNC, SEE SC-7016 (SP)											
DRAWING SIZE				DRWN				R3				CHD			
INITIALS				DES				STR				MNTL			
SPR				SPR				SPR				SPR			
CONTRACTOR PREPARED				CONTRACTOR PREPARED				CONTRACTOR PREPARED				CONTRACTOR PREPARED			
SCALE				FULL				SCALE				SCALE			
UNIT WT				UNIT WT				UNIT WT				UNIT WT			
LBS				LBS				LBS				LBS			
SHEET 1 OF 1				SHEET 1 OF 1				SHEET 1 OF 1				SHEET 1 OF 1			
SUPERSEDES				SUPERSEDES				SUPERSEDES				SUPERSEDES			
5Y				5Y				5Y				5Y			
DWG. NO.				DWG. NO.				DWG. NO.				DWG. NO.			
N 12216				N 12216				N 12216				N 12216			
MFR. DWG. NO.				MFR. DWG. NO.				MFR. DWG. NO.				MFR. DWG. NO.			
SHAFT THREADED				SHAFT THREADED				SHAFT THREADED				SHAFT THREADED			
TITLE				TITLE				TITLE				TITLE			
REQUIRED PER NOTED ASSY. (✓ DENOTES AS REQD)				REQUIRED PER NOTED ASSY. (✓ DENOTES AS REQD)				REQUIRED PER NOTED ASSY. (✓ DENOTES AS REQD)				REQUIRED PER NOTED ASSY. (✓ DENOTES AS REQD)			
MATERIAL				MATERIAL				MATERIAL				MATERIAL			
L/M				L/M				L/M				L/M			
ADDITIVE FINISH				ADDITIVE FINISH				ADDITIVE FINISH				ADDITIVE FINISH			
C* NOTATION IS FOR				C* NOTATION IS FOR				C* NOTATION IS FOR				C* NOTATION IS FOR			
DESIGN AGENCY				DESIGN AGENCY				DESIGN AGENCY				DESIGN AGENCY			
INFORMATION ONLY				INFORMATION ONLY				INFORMATION ONLY				INFORMATION ONLY			
NOT REVIEWED				NOT REVIEWED				NOT REVIEWED				NOT REVIEWED			
APPLICATION				APPLICATION				APPLICATION				APPLICATION			
N12210				N12210				N12210				N12210			
NEXT ASSY				NEXT ASSY				NEXT ASSY				NEXT ASSY			



1. BRASS, SHEET OR STRIP (65-35) PER QQ-B-613.
2. ENGRAVE CHARACTERS, 1/8 HIGH, GOTHIC, .015 STROKE WIDTH, AND GRADUATION MARKS .006 WIDE, .250 LONG FOR MAJOR DIVISIONS AND .125 LONG FOR MINOR DIVISIONS. FILL WITH BLACK AND POLISH.

REVISIONS					
PART NO. TABLE	SYM.	DESCRIPTION	DATE	APPROVED	
				CHK	ENG
	1		6/3/60		

PART NO.		MFR'S. NO.		DESCRIPTION		MATERIAL		MATERIAL SPEC.		NOTE		ZONE		ITEM	
PART CLASSIFICATION				DWG. CLASSIFICATION				LIST OF MATERIAL							
UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED DIMENSIONS ARE IN INCHES. LIMITS APPLY OVER NON-PAINTED FINISHES. SURFACE ROUGHNESS HEIGHT RATING EXPRESSED AS MICRO-INCHES. LIMITS OF ACCEPTABLE WORKMANSHIP ARE DEFINED IN SC-7012 (SP) FOR EXPLANATION OF TOLERANCES OF POSITION AND FORM, INCLUDING MMC, SEE SC-7016 (SP)				DRWN		RJ		CHKD		TITLE CALIBRATION, BRACKET					
				APPD		ORG		INITIALS							
				DES											
				STR											
				MATL											
				MFG											
				DFTG											
CONTRACTOR PREPARED				DRWN		CHKD		ENGR		SCALE		FULL		RAW STK WT LBS	
				UNIT WT LBS		SHEET		1		OF		1			
REQUIRED PER NOTED ASSY. (✓DENOTES AS REQ'D)				DRAWING SIZE											
MATERIAL				SEE NOTES											
ADDITIVE FINISH															
C* NOTATION IS FOR DESIGN AGENCY INFORMATION ONLY				NOT REVIEWED											
N12210				NEXT ASSY											
APPLICATION															
SUPERSEDES				5Y		DWG. B		SIZE		DWG. 188.		DWG. NO. N12217			
MFR'S. DWG. NO.															

PART NO. TABLE		REVISIONS		
SYM.	DESCRIPTION	DATE	APPROVED	
			CHK	ENG
1		6/3/60		

NOTES

1. BRASS, SHEET OR STRIP (65-35) PER QQ-B-613.
2. ENGRAVE CHARACTERS, 1/8 HIGH, GOTHIC, .015 STROKE WIDTH, AND GRADUATION MARKS .006 WIDE, .250 LONG FOR MAJOR DIVISIONS AND .125 LONG FOR MINOR DIVISIONS. FILL WITH BLACK AND POLISH.

.094 STOCK

.750 ± .010

2.88 ± .03

15 SPACES
@ .125 ± .001
= 1.875 ± .001
TOL'S. NOT
CUMULATIVE

.50 REF

.063 DIA. 2 PILOT HOLES
FOR #2 FL. HD. SCREW @ ASSY.

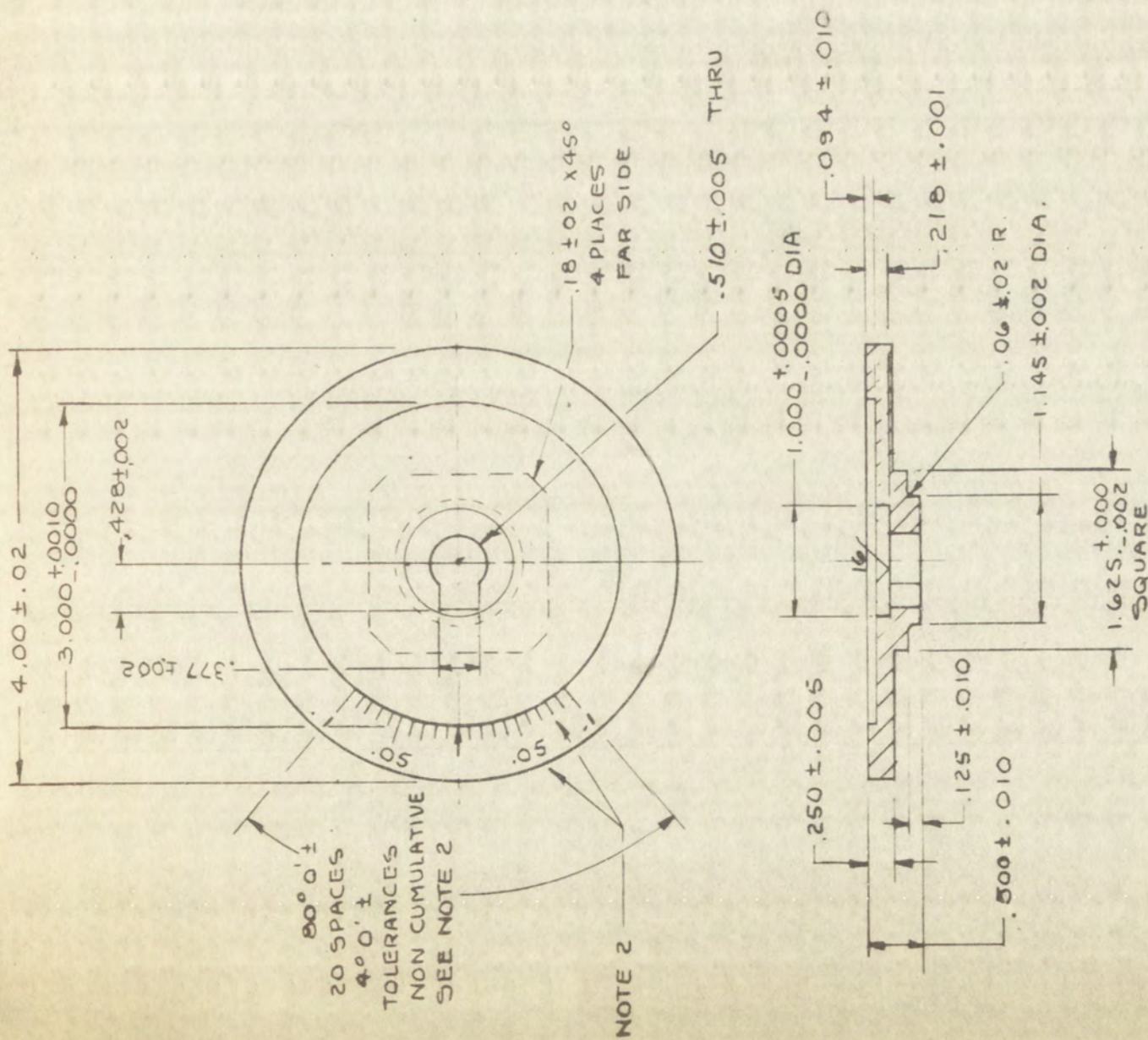
NOTE 2

.188 ± .005
2 PLCS.

.500 ± .005
2 PLCS

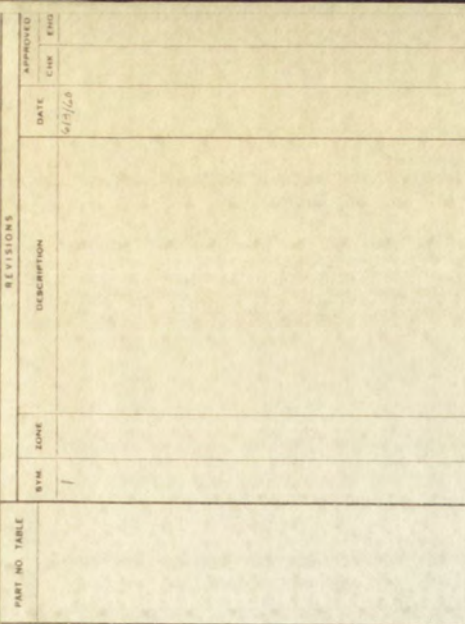
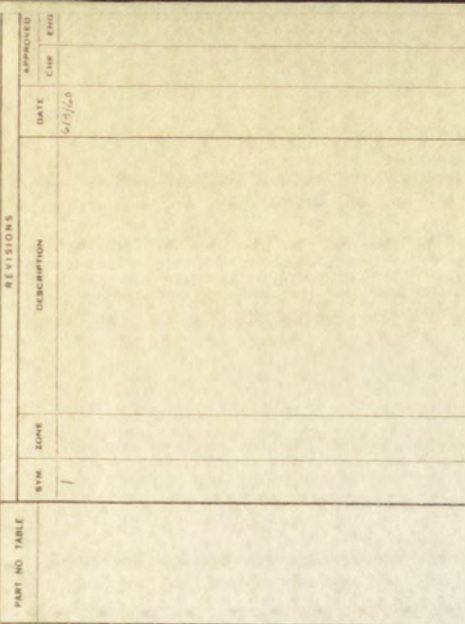
PART NO.		MFR'S. NO.		DESCRIPTION		MATERIAL		MATERIAL SPEC.		NOTE		ZONE		ITEM	
PART CLASSIFICATION				DWG. CLASSIFICATION				LIST OF MATERIAL							
UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED				DIMENSIONS ARE IN INCHES. LIMITS APPLY OVER NON-PAINTED FINISHES.				SURFACE ROUGHNESS HEIGHT RATING EXPRESSED AS MICRO-INCHES. LIMITS OF ACCEPTABLE WORKMANSHIP ARE DEFINED IN SC-7012 (SP)				FOR EXPLANATION OF TOLERANCES OF POSITION AND FORM, INCLUDING MMC, SEE SC-7016 (SP)			
DRAWN				CHKD				INITIALS				TITLE			
APPD				DES				STR				MTRL			
MFR'S				DFTG				CONTRACTOR PREPARED				SCALE			
DRAWN				CHKD				ENGR				UNIT WT			
RAW STK				WT LBS				FULL				LBS			
MFR'S. DWG. NO.				DWG. NO.				DWG. B				DWG. 1			
N12210				N12218				SHEET 1				OF 1			
NEXT ASSY				APPLICATION				C° NOTATION IS FOR DESIGN AGENCY INFORMATION ONLY				NOT REVIEWED			
REQUIRED PER NOTED ASSY. (✓ DENOTES AS REQD)				MATERIAL				SEE NOTES				ADDITIVE FINISH			

09/05/10

[illegible]

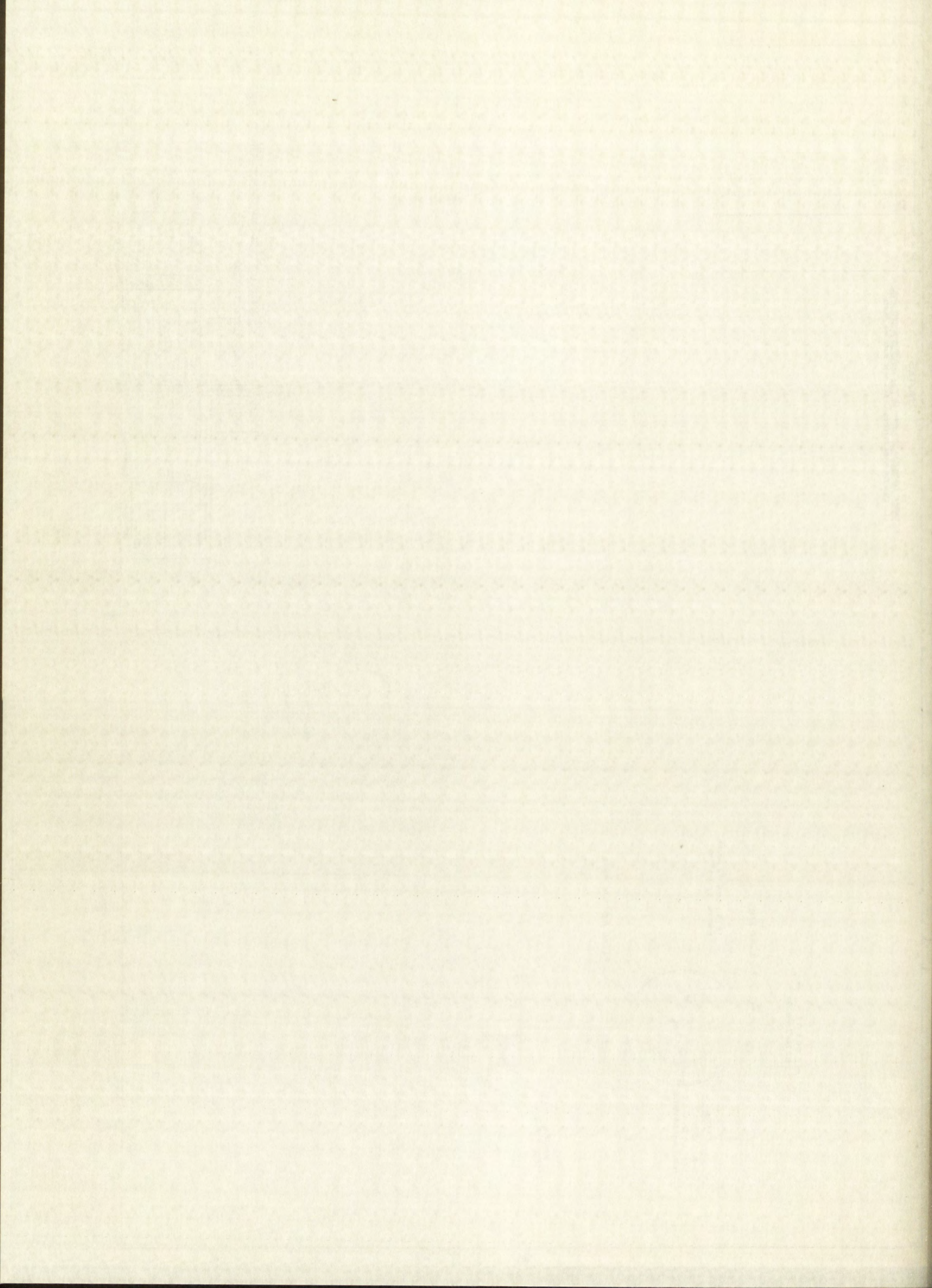
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		1			5/12/68				

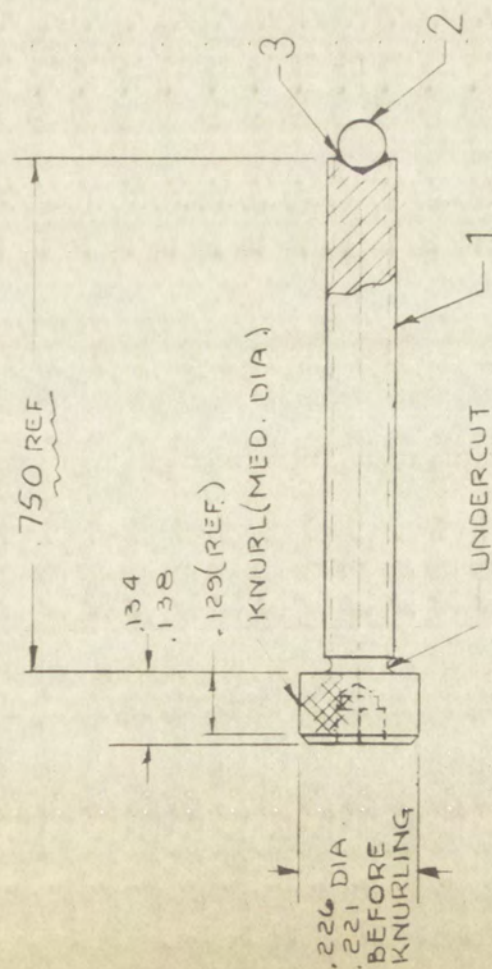
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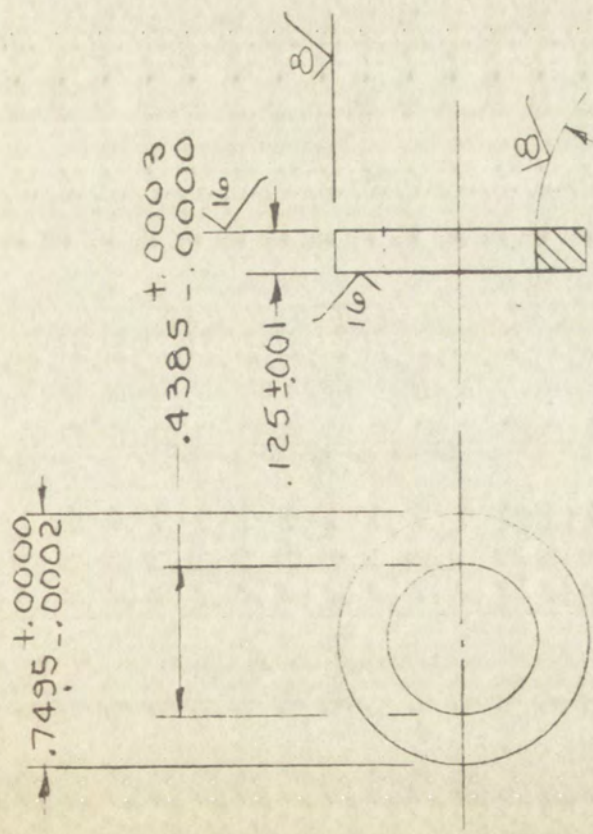


PART NO	TABLE	SYM	ZONE	DESCRIPTION	REVISIONS			APPROVED	
					DATE	CHK	PHD	CHK	PHD
		1			5/12/68				

PART NO	TABLE	SYM	ZONE	DESCRIPTION	REVISIONS			APPROVED	
					DATE	CHK	PHD	CHK	PHD
		1			5/12/68				



[illegible]

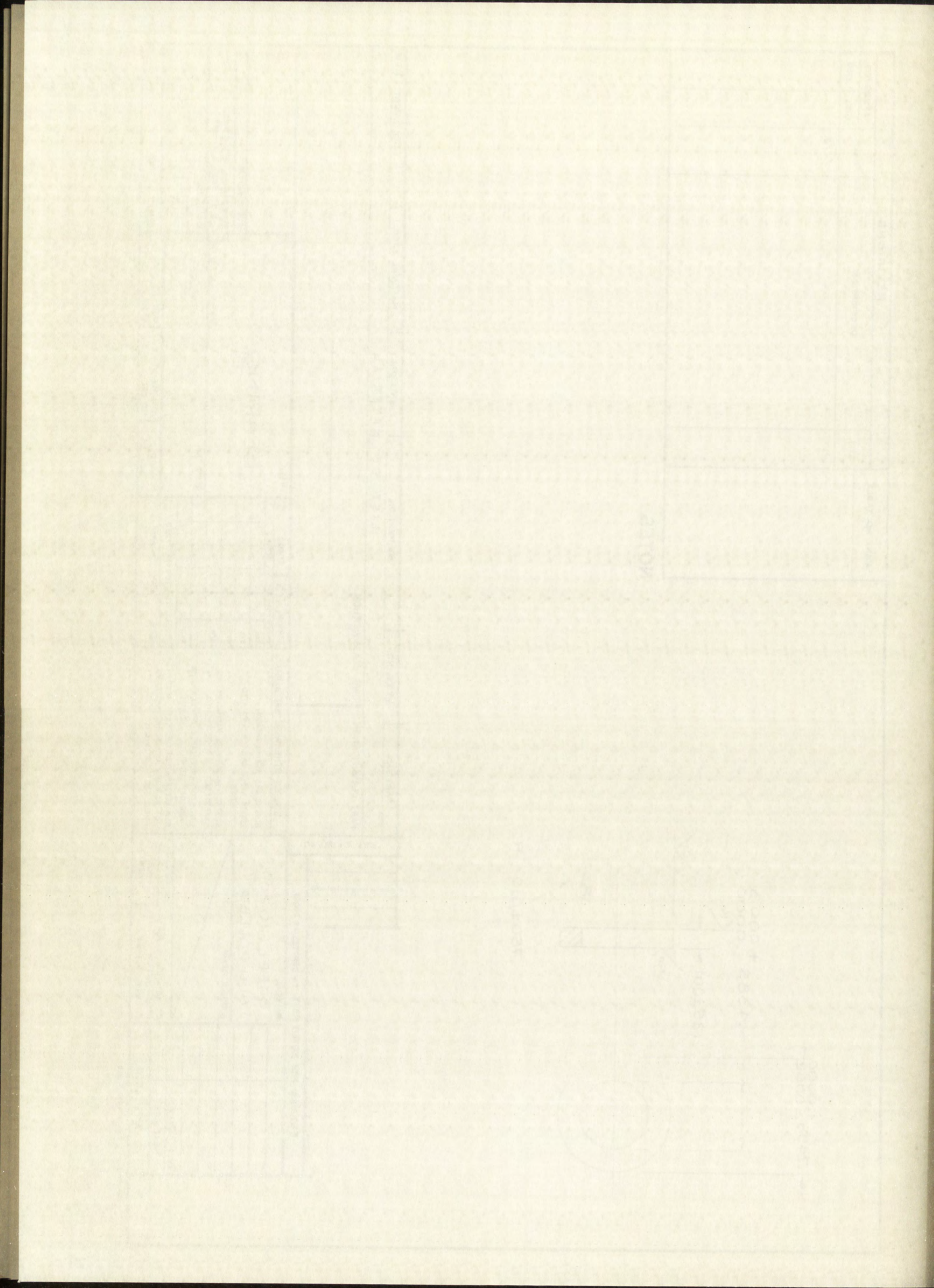


.750 ±.010 R.

NOTES

REVISIONS			
PART NO. TABLE	DESCRIPTION	DATE	APPROVED
SYM.			CHK ENG
1		6/3/60	

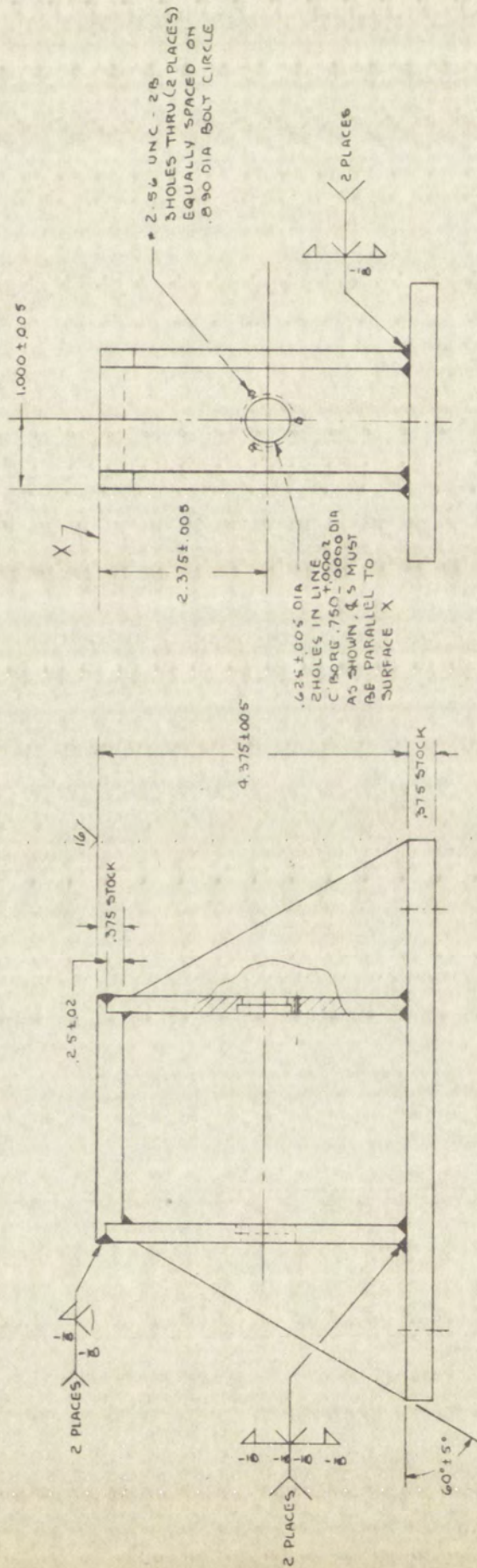
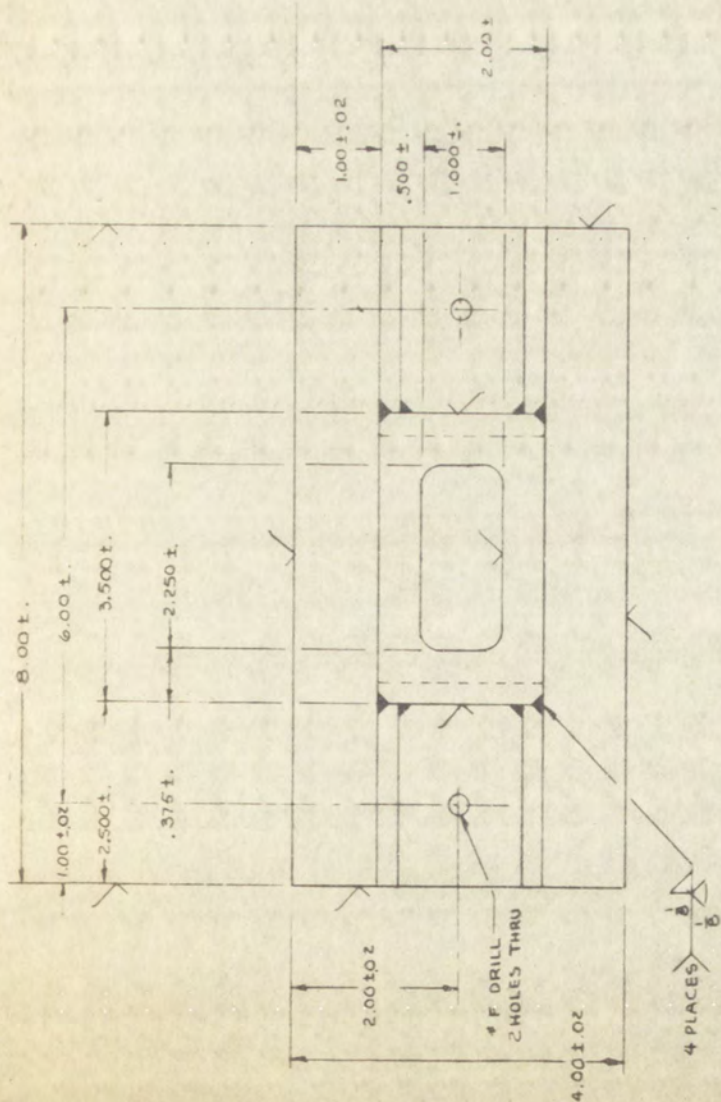
PART CLASSIFICATION		MFR'S. NO.		DESCRIPTION		MATERIAL		MATERIAL SPEC.		NOTE		ZONE		ITEM	
DWG. CLASSIFICATION															
UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED		DRWN		RJ		CHKD		INITIALS		TITLE		SUPERSEDES		DWG. NO.	
DIMENSIONS ARE IN INCHES.		APTD		DES		STR		MAYL		MFG		DFTG		5Y DWG. B DWG. 1	
LIMITS APPLY OVER NON-PAINTED FINISHES.		DES		STR		MAYL		MFG		DFTG		MFR'S. DWG. NO.		N12223	
SURFACE ROUGHNESS HEIGHT RATING EXPRESSED AS MICRO-INCHES.		DES		STR		MAYL		MFG		DFTG		SCALE 2/1		RAW STK WT LBS	
LIMITS OF ACCEPTABLE WORKMANSHIP ARE DEFINED IN SC-7012 (SP)		DES		STR		MAYL		MFG		DFTG		UNIT WT LBS		SHEET 1 OF 1	
FOR EXPLANATION OF TOLERANCES OF POSITION AND FORM, INCLUDING MMC, SEE SC-7016 (SP)		DES		STR		MAYL		MFG		DFTG					
MATERIAL		STEEL (1020)		COLD ROLLED		ADDITIVE FINISH		C° NOTATION IS FOR DESIGN AGENCY INFORMATION ONLY		NOT REVIEWED					
REQUIRED PER NOTED ASSY. (✓ DENOTES AS REQD)															
APPLICATION		N12210		NEXT ASSY											



NOTES

1. MATERIAL: STEEL (1020) HOT ROLLED PLATE PER QQ-S-741(3) TYPE II GRADE A .250 STOCK UNLESS OTHERWISE NOTED.

- ## 2. STRESS RELIEVE BEFORE MACHINING.

[illegible]

APPENDIX III

DERIVATION OF THEORETICAL CURVES (CONSIDERING THE LONGITUDINAL SHAFT CENTER AS ZERO)

Due to the symmetry of loading, only the right half of each curve will be evaluated.

Deflection Due to Spring Force, F_S

The diagrams for loading, vertical shear force, and bending moment are shown below.

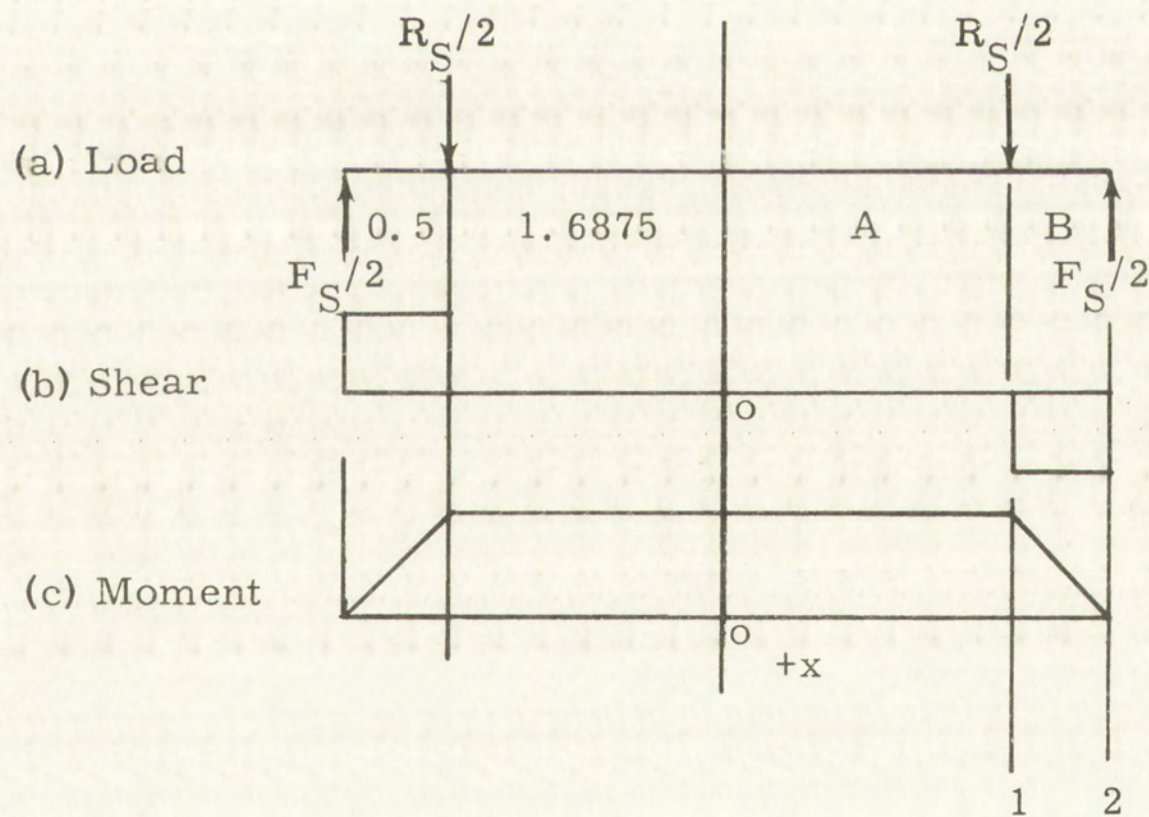


Figure III-1. Loading Due to Straining Frame



As shown in Figure III-1a, the vertical shear equations are:

$$V_{01} = 0 \quad (1a)$$

and

$$V_{12} = -0.5 F_S . \quad (1b)$$

The moment equations are formed by integrating the slope equations with respect to x .

$$M_{01} = C_1 \quad (2a)$$

$$M_{12} = -0.5 F_S x + C_2 \quad (2b)$$

Integration of moment equations, 2a and 2b, and division by EI yield the slope equations:

$$\theta_{01} = \frac{1}{EI} (C_1 x + C_3) \quad (3a)$$

$$\theta_{12} = \frac{1}{EI} (-0.25 F_S x^2 + C_2 x + C_4) \quad (3b)$$

The deflection equations are found by integrating the slope equation.

$$\delta_{01} = \frac{1}{EI} (0.5 C_1 x^2 + C_3 x + C_5) \quad (4a)$$

$$\delta_{12} = \frac{1}{EI} (-0.0833 F_S x^3 + 0.5 C_2 x^2 + C_4 x + C_6) \quad (4b)$$

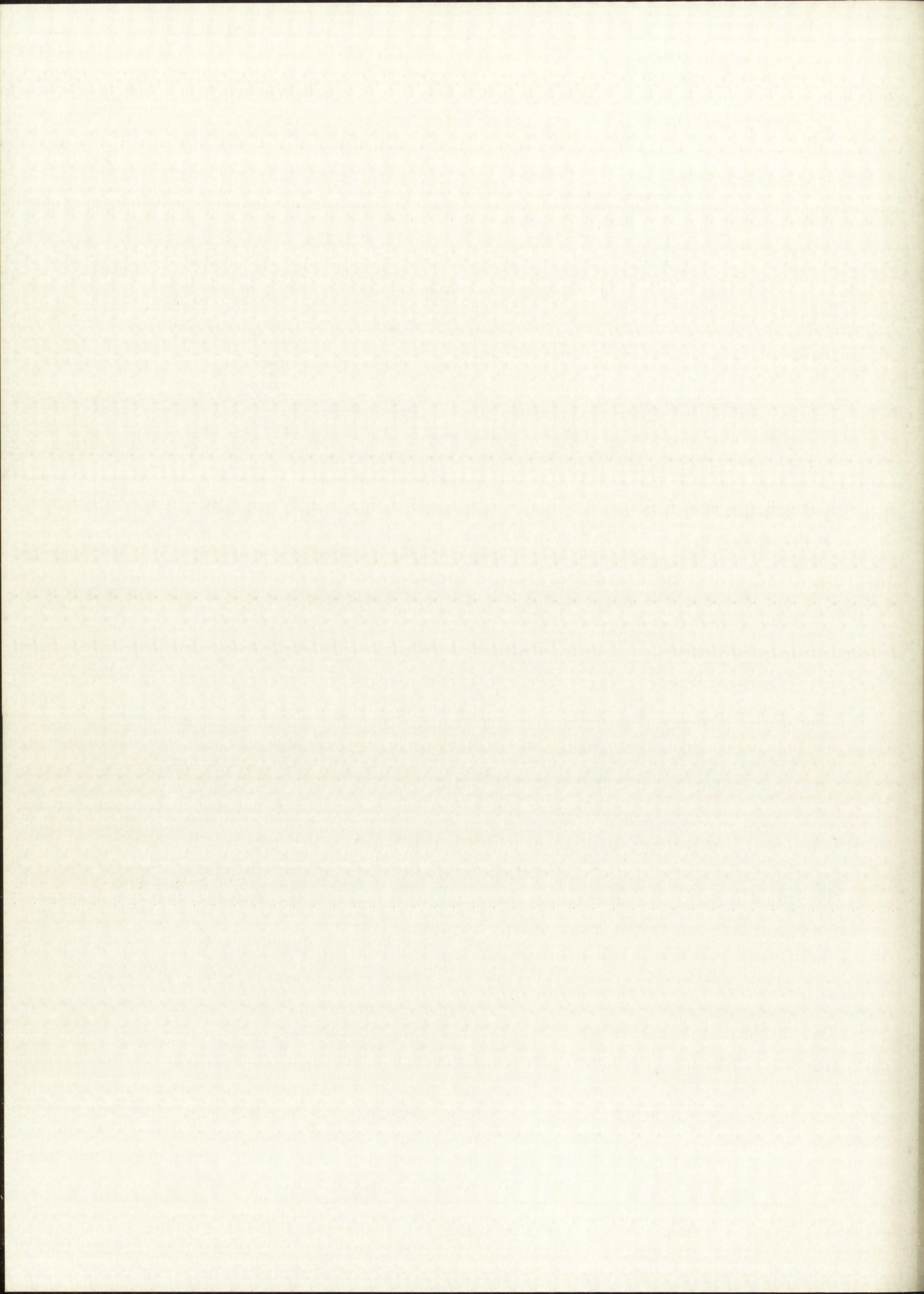
The constants are evaluated from the known boundary conditions as follows:

The central point has been selected as zero; thus, from Equation 4a,

$$EI \delta_0 = C_5 = 0 . \quad (5)$$

The slope at the center of a symmetrical span is zero; thus, from Equation 3,

$$EI \theta_0 = C_3 = 0 . \quad (6)$$



From Figure III-1c the moment is zero at point 2, thus from Equation 2b,

$$C_2 = 0.5 F_S x \Big|_0^{A+B} = 0.5 F_S (A + B) . \quad (7)$$

Equating Equations 2a and 2b at position 1 gives C_1 .

$$C_1 = -0.5 F_S x \Big|_0^A + C_2 = -0.5 F_S A + 0.5 F_S (A + B) = 0.5 F_S B \quad (8)$$

The additional constants, C_4 and C_6 , remain to be evaluated. The slopes given by Equations 3a and 3b must be equal at point 1. Thus,

$$C_1 A = -0.25 F_S A^2 + C_2 A + C_4$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} C_4 &= 0.25 F_S A^2 - 0.5 F_S (A + B) A + 0.5 F_S B A \\ &= 0.25 F_S A^2 - 0.5 F_S A^2 = -0.25 F_S A^2 . \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

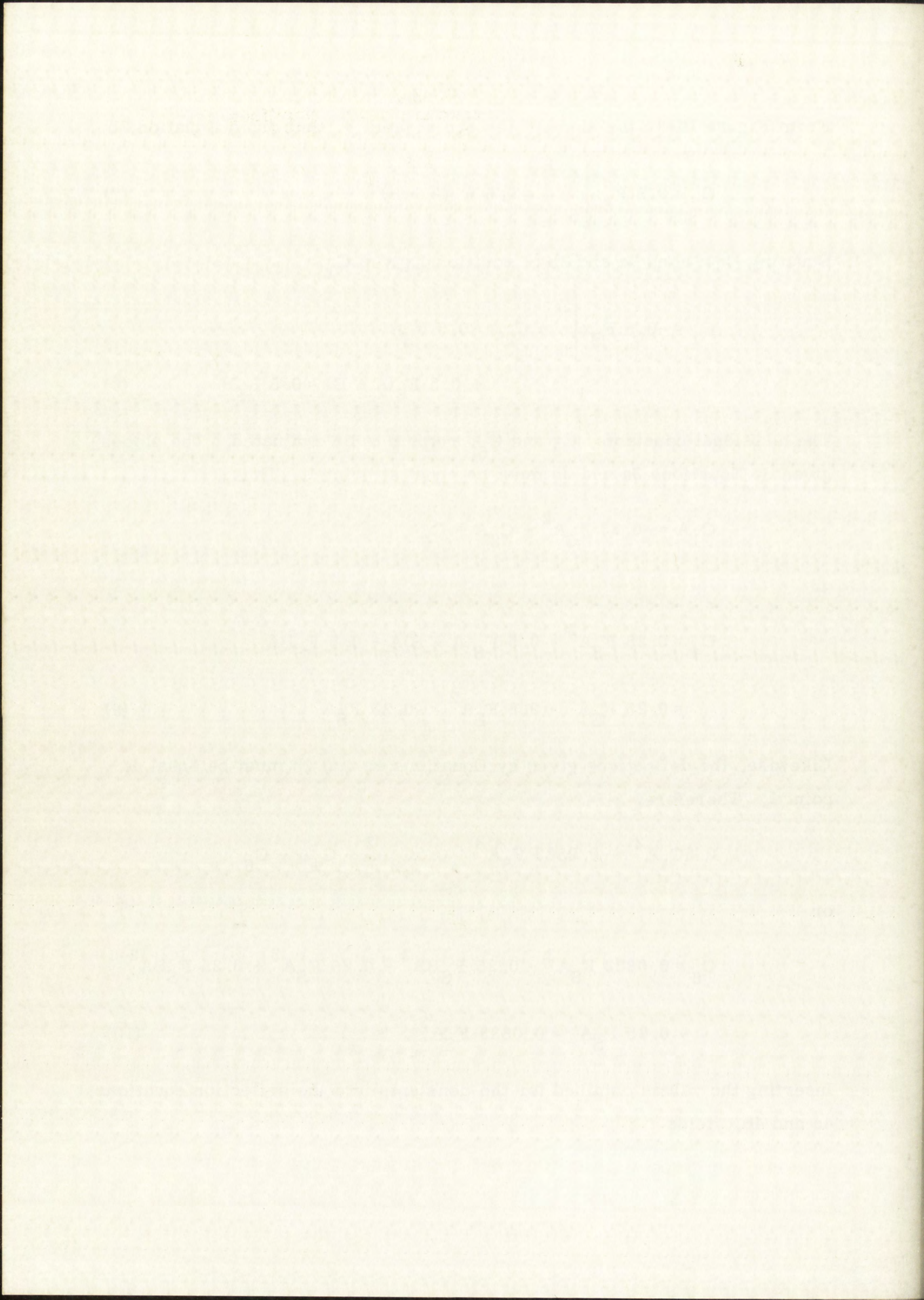
Likewise, the deflections given by Equations 4a and 4b must be equal at point 1. Therefore,

$$0.5 C_1 A^2 = -0.0833 F_S A^3 + 0.5 C_2 A^2 + C_4 A + C_6$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} C_6 &= 0.0833 F_S A^3 - 0.25 F_S B A^2 - 0.25 F_S A^3 + 0.25 F_S B A^2 \\ &+ 0.25 F_S A^3 = 0.0833 F_S A^3 . \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Inserting the values obtained for the constants into the deflection equations, 4a and 4b, yields



$$\delta_{01} = \frac{0.25 F_S B x^2}{EI} \quad (11a)$$

and

$$\delta_{12} = \frac{F_S}{EI} [-0.0833x^3 + 0.25(A + B)x^2 - 0.25A^2x + 0.0833A^3] . \quad (11b)$$

In this case, only the δ_{01} is of interest. For the 0.4375-inch-diameter steel shaft: $E = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ lb/in}^2$ and $I = 1.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ in}^4$. Thus, $EI = 5.4 \times 10^4 \text{ lb/in}^2$. Inserting this value and the value $B = 0.5 \text{ inch}$ into Equation 11a yields the final deflection formula for the right half of the central section.

$$\delta_{01} = \frac{0.125 F_S x^2}{5.4 \times 10^4} = 2.31 \times 10^{-6} F_S x^2 . \quad (12)$$

Deflection Due to Bushing Weight (F_B)

The diagrams for bushing load, vertical shear force, and bending moment are shown below.

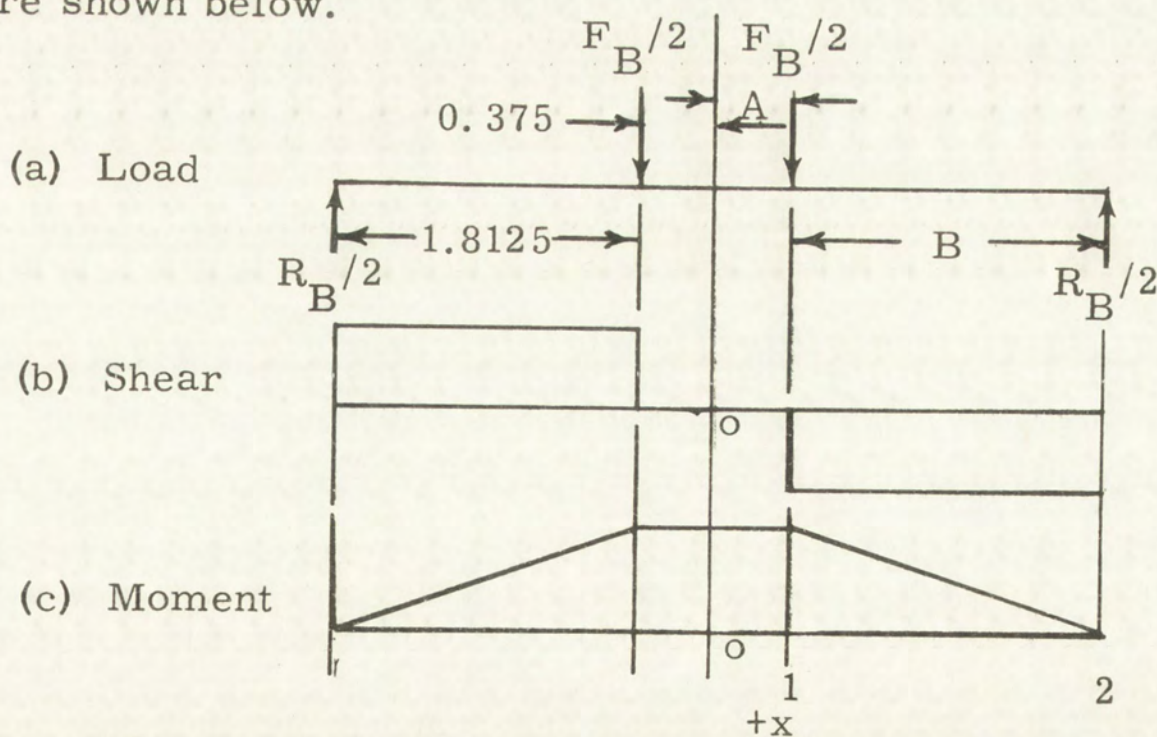


Figure III-2. Loading Due to Bushing Weight

Because of the similarity of this derivation to the preceding one, only the last step of substitution needs to be redone. Other than this, the only difference is that F_S is replaced by F_B . Substituting the values $EI = 5.4 \times 10^4 \text{ lb/in}^2$, $A = 0.375 \text{ inch}$, $B = 1.8125 \text{ inches}$, and $F_B = 0.0706 \text{ pound}$, the final equations for this loading are obtained.

$$\delta_{01} = \frac{0.25 \times 0.0706 \times 1.8125x^2}{5.4 \times 10^4} = 0.5924 \times 10^{-6} x^2 \text{ in.} \quad (13a)$$

and

$$\delta_{12} = (-0.1089x^3 + 0.7148x^2 - 0.04591x + 0.00573) \times 10^{-6}. \quad (13b)$$

Another bushing-weight loading situation is of interest. In this case, the straining yoke is not used. Thus, $A = 0.375 \text{ inch}$ and $B = 1.3125 \text{ inches}$, and the final equations are:

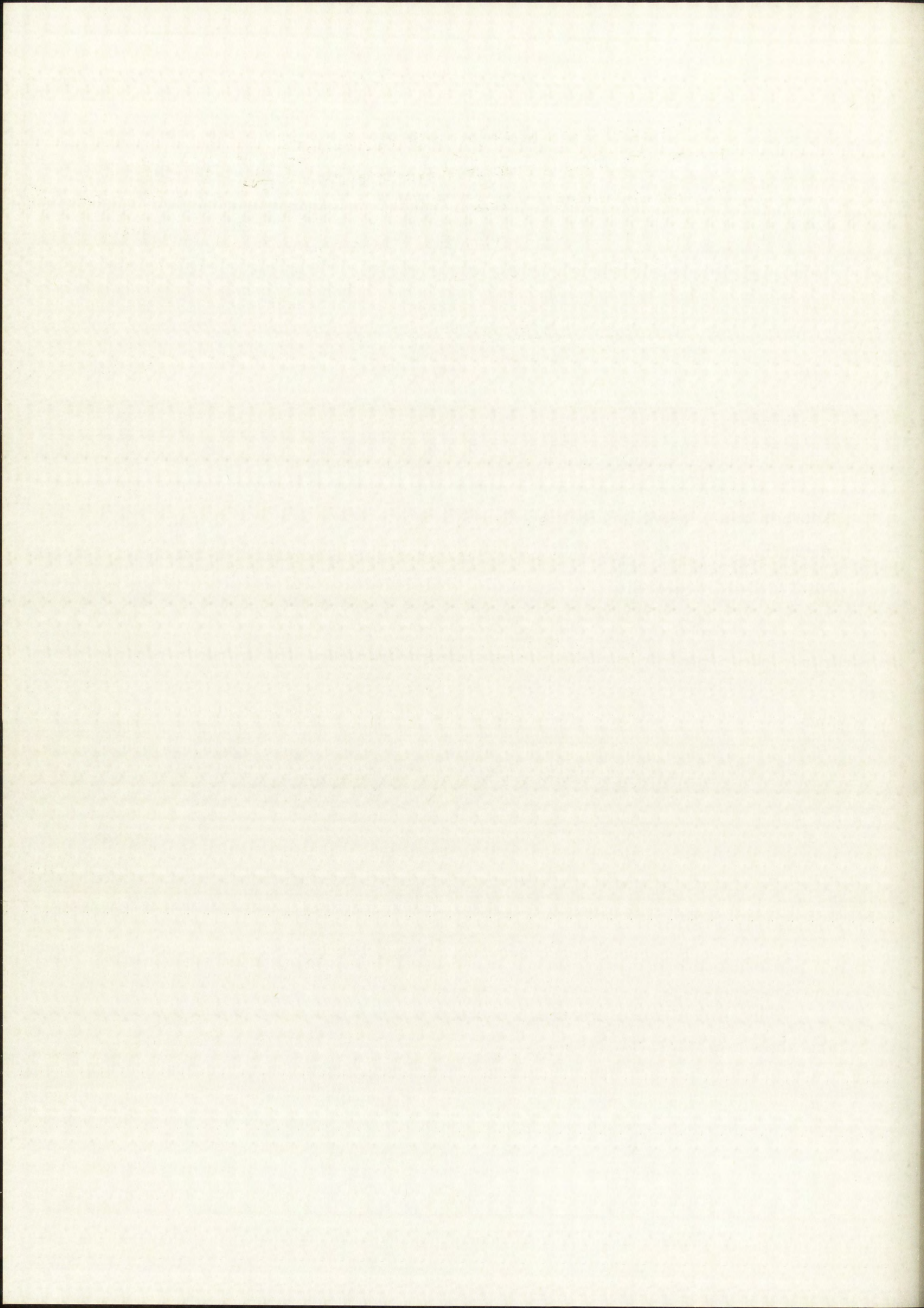
$$\delta_{01} = \frac{0.25 \times 0.0706 \times 1.3125x^2}{5.4 \times 10^4} = 0.4290 \times 10^{-6} x^2 \text{ in.} \quad (14a)$$

and

$$\delta_{12} = (-0.1089x^3 + 0.5514233x^2 - 0.04591x + 0.00573) \times 10^{-6}. \quad (14b)$$

Deflection Due to Shaft Weight

The diagrams for loading, vertical shear force, and bending moment are shown on the following page.



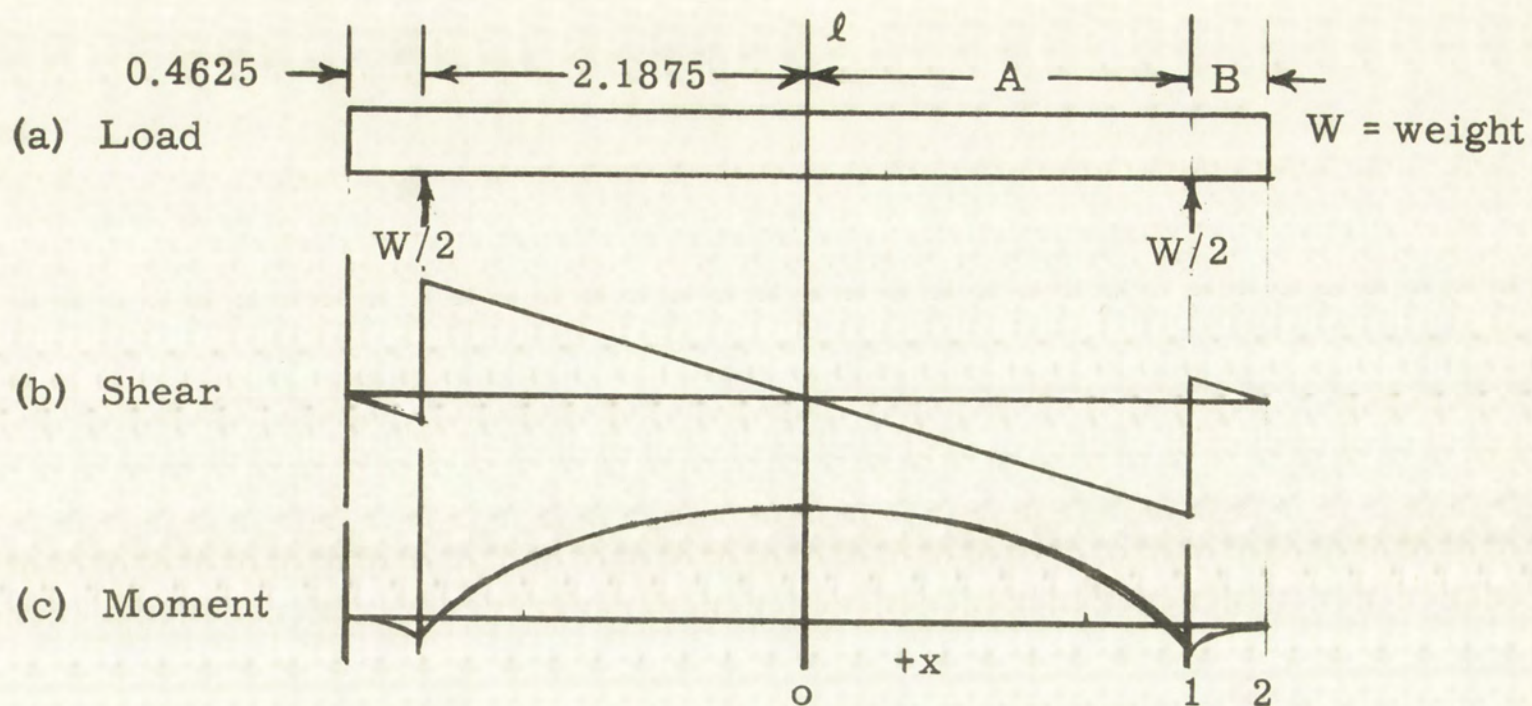


Figure III-3. Loading Due to Shaft Weight

As shown in Figure III-3a, the vertical shear equations are:

$$V_{01} = -\frac{W}{\ell}x \quad (15a)$$

and

$$V_{12} = -\frac{W}{\ell}[x - (A + B)] \quad (15b)$$

Again, the moment equations are found by integration.

$$M_{01} = -\frac{W}{\ell}\left[0.5x^2 + C_1\right] \quad (16a)$$

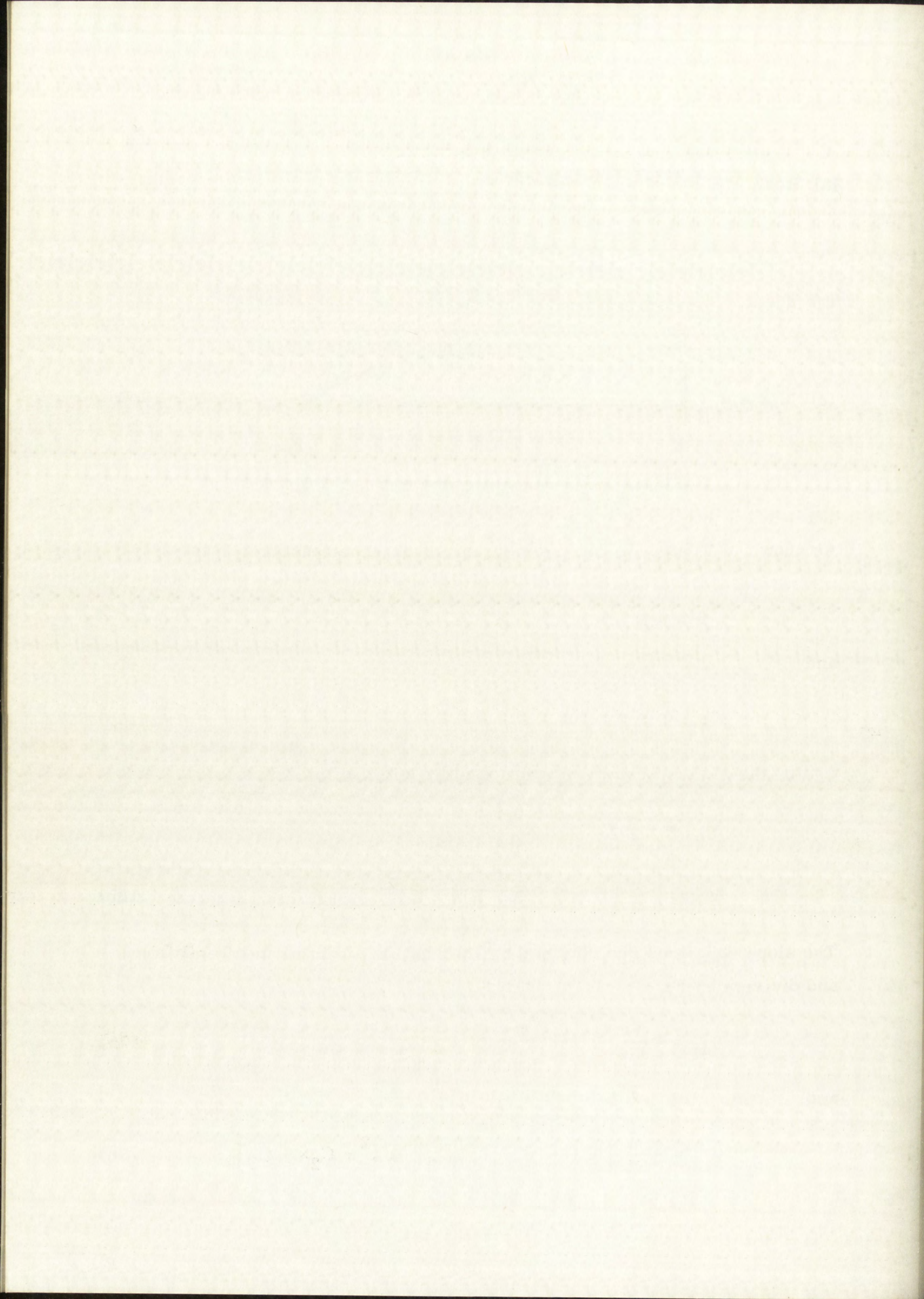
$$M_{12} = -\frac{W}{\ell}\left[0.5x^2 - (A + B)x + C_2\right] \quad (16b)$$

The slope equations are obtained by integration of the moment equations and division by EI .

$$\theta_{01} = -\frac{W}{EI\ell}\left[0.1667x^3 + C_1x + C_3\right] \quad (17a)$$

and

$$\theta_{12} = -\frac{W}{EI\ell}\left[0.1667x^3 - 0.5(A + B)x^2 + C_2x + C_4\right] \quad (17b)$$



The deflection equations are obtained by integrating the slope equations.

$$\delta_{01} = -\frac{W}{EI\ell} \left[0.04167x^4 + 0.5C_1x^2 + C_3x + C_5 \right] \quad (18a)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{12} = -\frac{W}{EI\ell} \left[0.04167x^4 - 0.1667(A+B)x^3 + 0.5C_2x^2 \right. \\ \left. + C_4x + C_6 \right] \end{aligned} \quad (18b)$$

Here, only the δ_{01} is of interest, so all of the constants do not have to be evaluated.

The central point has been selected as zero; thus, from Equation 18a,

$$\frac{EI\ell}{W} 0 = -C_5 = 0. \quad (19)$$

The slope at the center of a symmetrical span is zero; thus, from Equation 17a,

$$\frac{EI\ell\theta}{W} = -C_3 = 0. \quad (20)$$

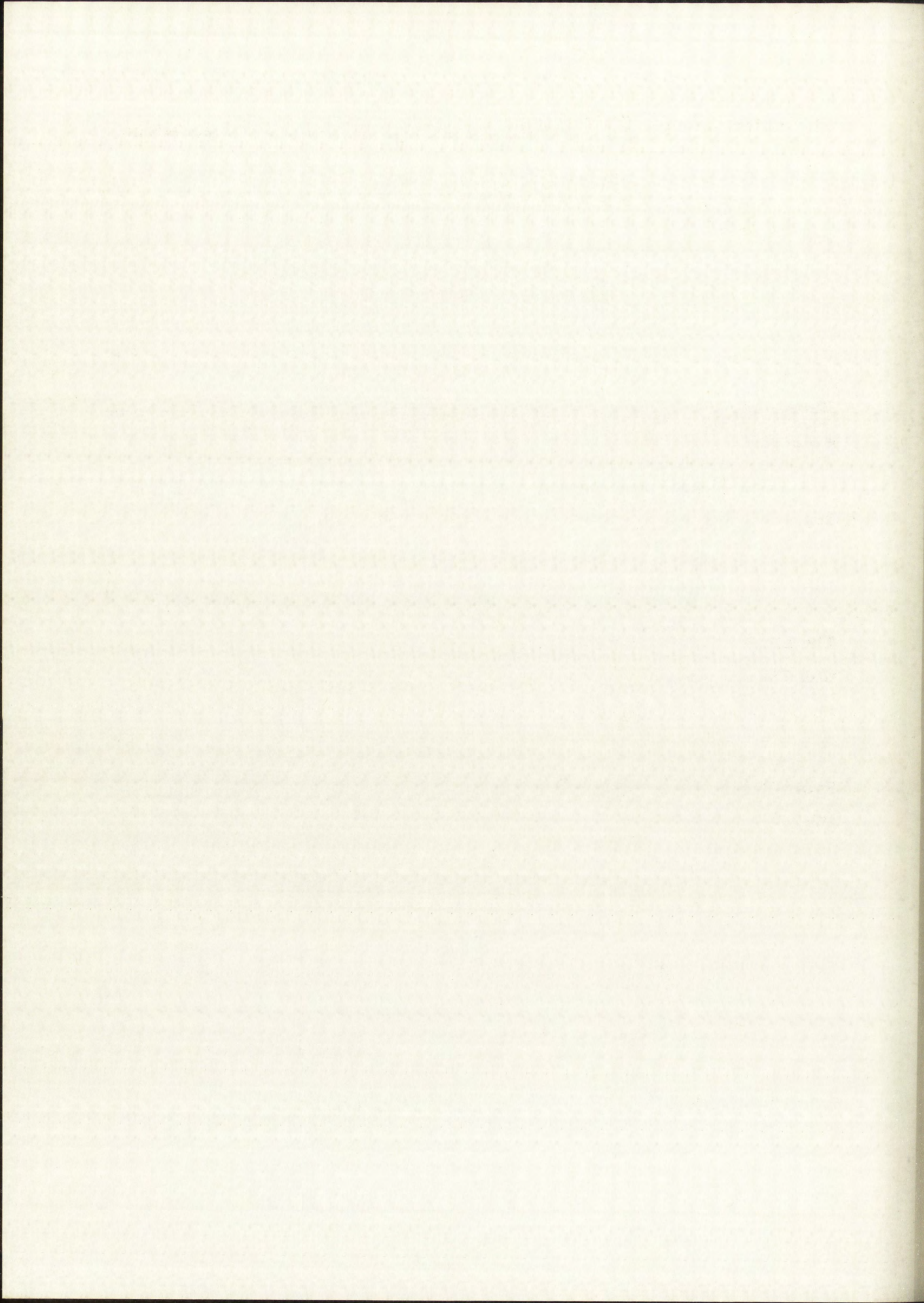
From Figure III-3c, the moment is zero at point 2; thus, from Equation 16b,

$$C_2 = \left[-0.5x^2 + (A+B)x \right]_0^{A+B} = 0.5(A+B)^2. \quad (21)$$

Equating Equations 16a and 16b at position 1 allows solution of C_1 :

$$C_1 = -(A+B)A + C_2 = -(A+B)A + [0.5(A+B)^2]. \quad (22)$$

Inserting these values into Equation 18a yields



$$\delta_{01} = -\frac{W}{EI\ell} \left\{ \left\{ 0.04167x^4 - 0.5 \{ (A + B)A - [0.5(A + B)^2] \} x^2 \right\} \right\}. \quad (23)$$

Substituting the values $EI = 5.4 \times 10^4 \text{ lb/in}^2$, $A = 2.1875 \text{ inches}$, $B = 0.4625 \text{ inch}$, $\ell = 5.5 \text{ inches}$, and $W = 0.234 \text{ pound}$ into Equation 23 yields

$$\delta_{01} = (0.8799x^2 - 0.03282x^4) \times 10^{-6} \text{ in.} \quad (24)$$

The equation for δ_{01} , when the straining-frame yoke is not used, is derived also from Equation 23 by using $A = 1.6875 \text{ inches}$, $B = 1.0625 \text{ inches}$.

$$\delta_{01} = (0.33843x^2 - 0.03282x^4) \times 10^{-6} \text{ in.} \quad (25)$$

Theoretical Data

The calculated data for the theoretical curves is shown in Figure III-4.

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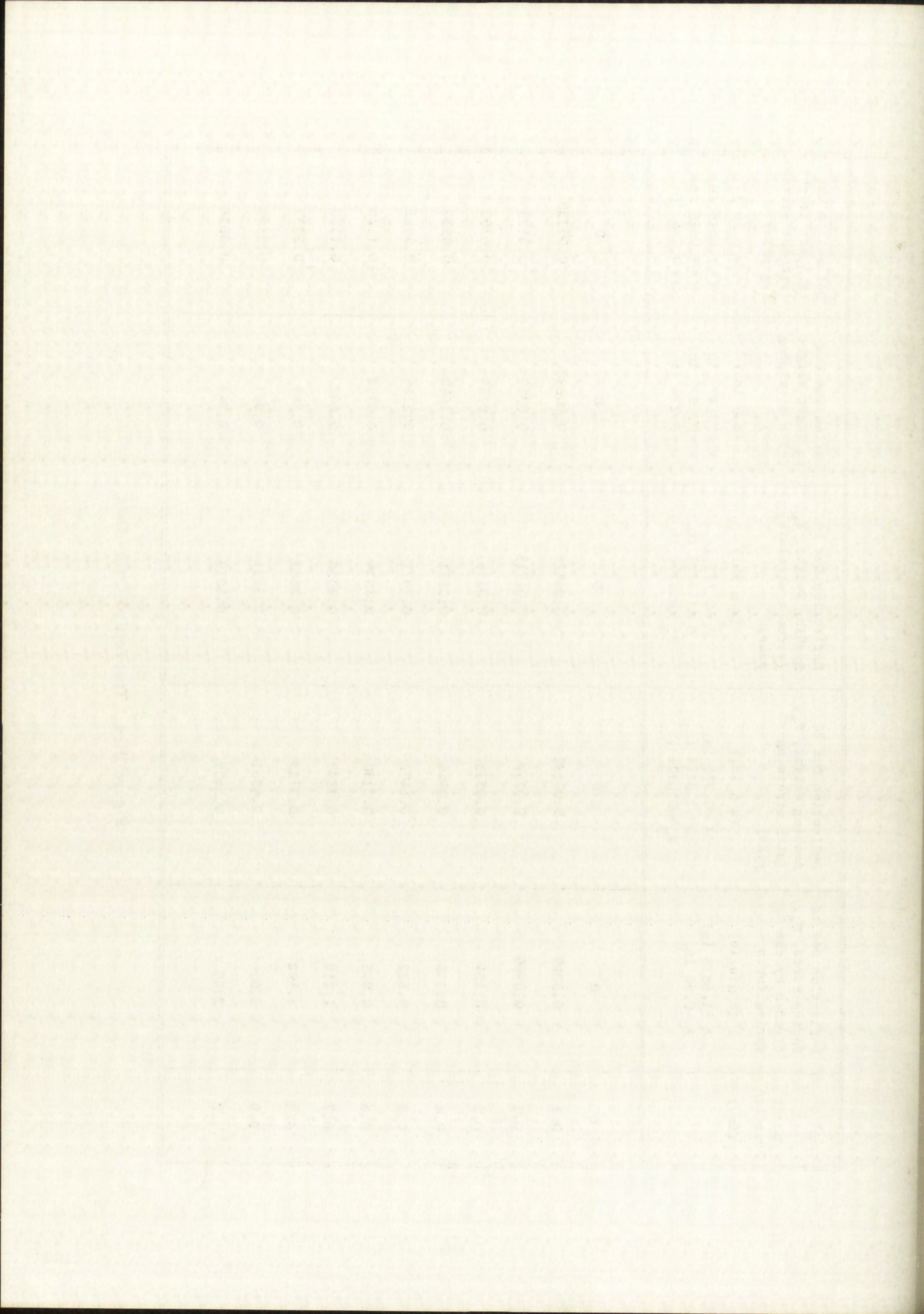
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Shaft Position (in.)	Deflection Due to Spring Force, F_s , divided by the spring force (x μ in./lb) $A = 1.6875$ in. $B = 0.50$ in.	Deflection Due to Bushings Weight, F_B , (with straining yoke) (x μ in.) $A = 0.375$ in. $B = 1.8125$ in. $F_B = 0.0706$ lb	Deflection Due to Bushings Weight, F_B , (without straining yoke) (x μ in.) $A = 0.375$ in. $B = 1.3125$ in. $F_B = 0.0706$ lb	Deflection Due to Shaft Weight (with straining yoke) (x μ in.) $A = 2.1875$ in. $B = 0.4625$ in. $W = 0.234$ lb	Deflection Due to Shaft Weight (without straining yoke) (x μ in.) $A = 1.6875$ in. $B = 1.0625$ in. $W = 0.234$ lb
0	0	0	0	0	0
0.1	0.0249	0.00592	0.00429	0.00880	0.00338
0.2	0.0994	0.0237	0.01715	0.0352	0.0135
0.3	0.224	0.0533	0.0386	0.0789	0.0302
0.4	0.398	0.0944	0.0677	0.1440	0.0533
0.5	0.622	0.1487	0.1071	0.2186	0.0828
0.6	0.895	0.2130	0.1534	0.3115	0.1176
0.7	1.218	0.2893	0.2076	0.432	0.1580
0.8	1.592	0.3723	0.2663	0.549	0.2033
0.9	2.01	0.4561	0.3221	0.691	0.2527
1.0	2.49	0.5659	0.4019	0.846	0.3058

Figure III-4. Theoretical Curve Data

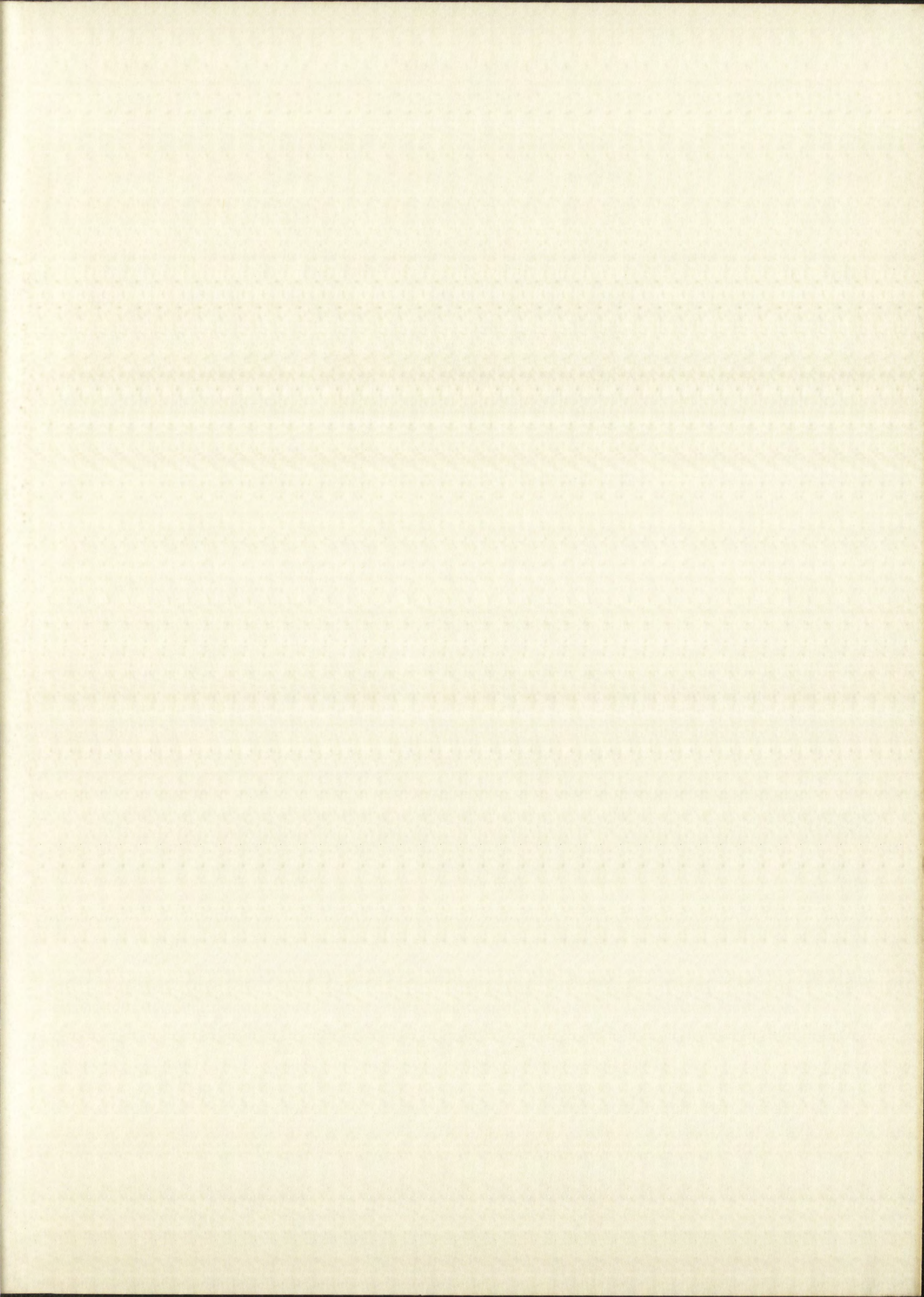


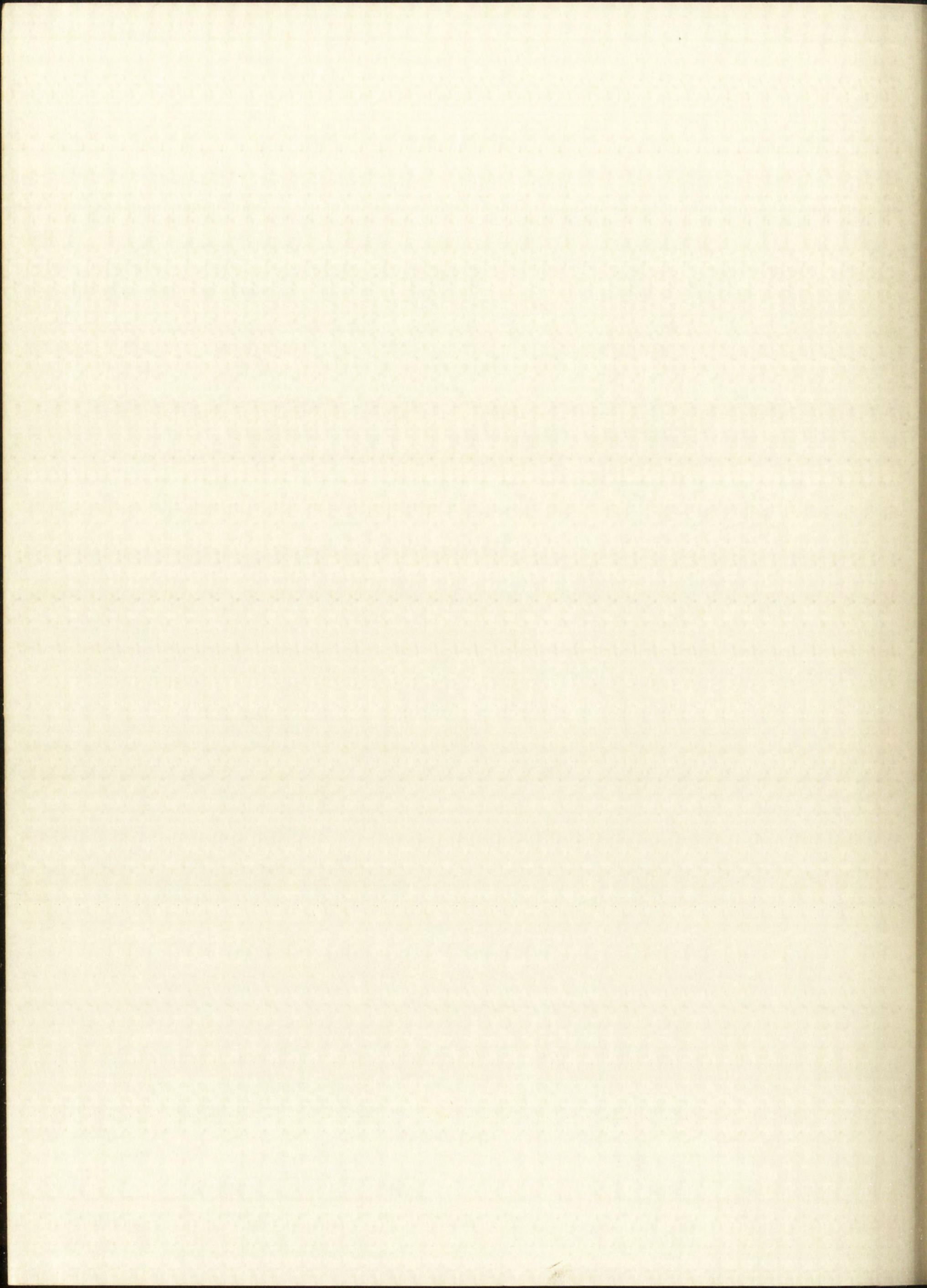
THE COLLEGE

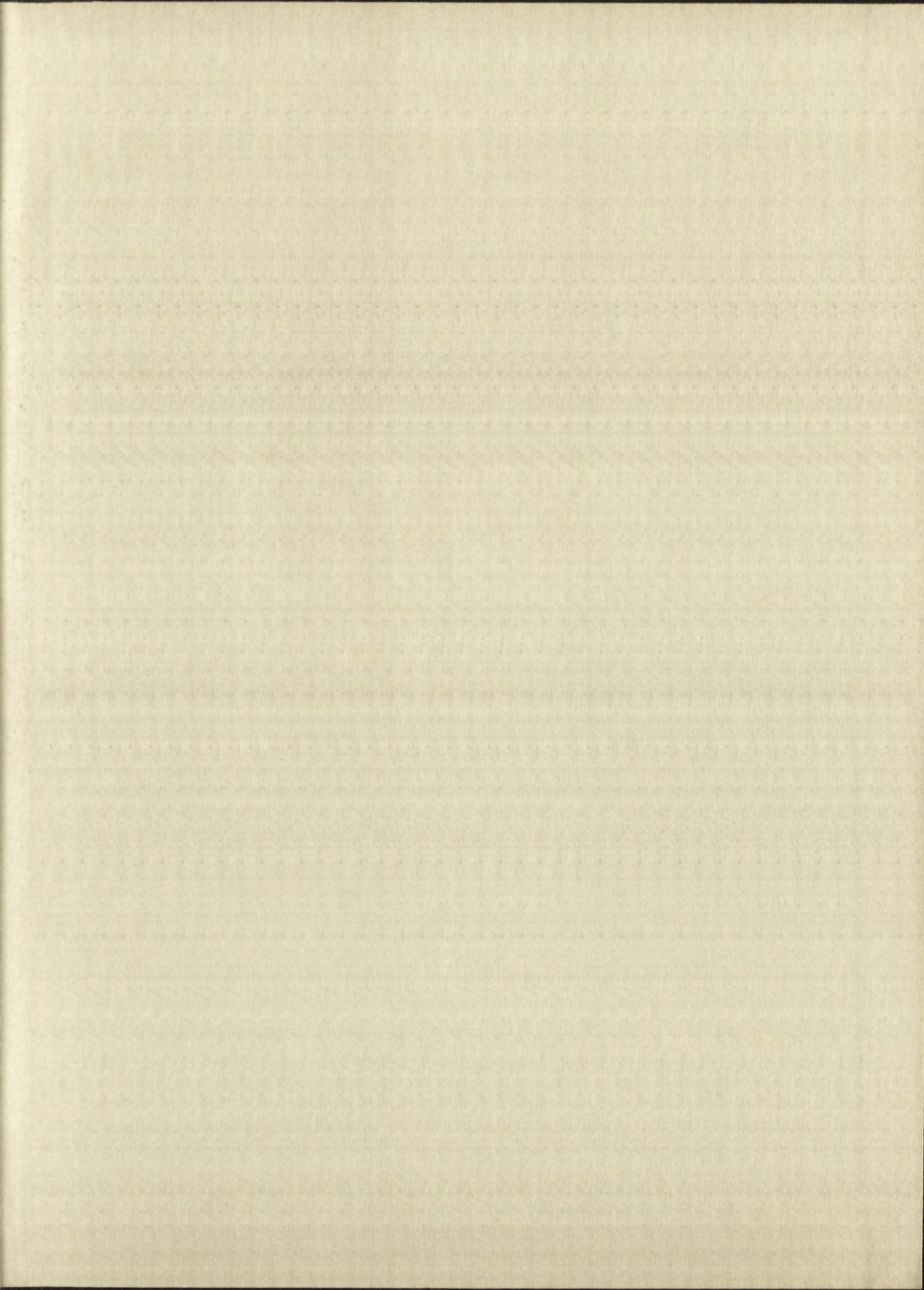
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