WORKSHOP CALCULATION & SCIENCE

(NSQF)

1st YEAR

(As per Revised Syllabus July 2022)

Technician Mechatronics



DIRECTORATE GENERAL OF TRAINING
MINISTRY OF SKILL DEVELOPMENT & ENTREPRENEURSHIP
GOVERNMENTOF INDIA



NATIONAL INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA INSTITUTE, CHENNAI

Workshop Calculation & Science Technician Mechatronics - 1st Year NSQF As per Revised Syllabus July 2022

Developed & Published by



National Instructional Media Institute

Post Box No.3142 Guindy, Chennai - 600032 INDIA Email: chennai-nimi@nic.in Website: www.nimi.gov.in

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FOREWORD

The Government of India has set an ambitious target of imparting skills one out of every four Indians, to help them secure jobs as part of the National Skills Development Policy. Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) play a vital role in this process especially in terms of providing skilled manpower. Keeping this in mind, and for providing the current industry relevant skill training to Trainees, ITI syllabus has been recently updated with the help of comprising various stakeholder's viz. Industries, Entrepreneurs, Academicians and representatives from ITIs.

The National Instructional Media Institute (NIMI), Chennai, has now come up with instructional material to suit the revised curriculum for **Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics 1**st **Year** NSQF (Revised 2022) under CTS will help the trainees to get an international equivalency standard where their skill proficiency and competency will be duly recognized across the globe and this will also increase the scope of recognition of prior learning. NSQF trainees will also get the opportunities to promote life long learning and skill development. I have no doubt that with NSQF the trainers and trainees of ITIs, and all stakeholders will derive maximum benefits from these IMPs and that NIMI's effort will go a long way in improving the quality of Vocational training in the country.

The Executive Director & Staff of NIMI and members of Media Development Committee deserve appreciation for their contribution in bringing out this publication.

Jai Hind

Ms. TRISHALJIT SETHI,

Additional Secretary / Director General (Training), Ministry of Skill Development & Entrepreneurship, Government of India.

New Delhi - 110 001

PREFACE

The National Instructional Media Institute (NIMI) was set up at Chennai, by the Directorate General of Training, Ministry of skill Development and Entrepreneurship, Government of India, with the technical assistance from the Govt of the Federal Republic of Germany with the prime objective of developing and disseminating instructional Material for various trades as per prescribed syllabus and Craftsman Training Programme (CTS) under NSQF levels.

The Instructional materials are developed and produced in the form of Instructional Media Packages (IMPs), consisting of Trade Theory, Trade Practical, Test and Assignment Book, Instructor Guide. The above material will enable to achieve overall improvement in the standard of training in ITIs.

A national multi-skill programme called SKILL INDIA, was launched by the Government of India, through a Gazette Notification from the Ministry of Finance (Dept of Economic Affairs), Govt of India, dated 27th December 2013, with a view to create opportunities, space and scope for the development of talents of Indian Youth, and to develop those sectors under Skill Development.

The emphasis is to skill the Youth in such a manner to enable them to get employment and also improve Entrepreneurship by providing training, support and guidance for all occupation that were of traditional types. The training programme would be in the lines of International level, so that youths of our Country can get employed within the Country or Overseas employment. The **National Skill Qualification Framework** (**NSQF**), anchored at the National Skill Development Agency(NSDA), is a Nationally Integrated Education and competency-based framework, to organize all qualifications according to a series of **levels of Knowledge**, **Skill and Aptitude.** Under NSQF the learner can acquire the Certification for Competency needed at any level through formal, non-formal or informal learning.

The **Workshop Calculation & Science -** Technician Mechatronics 1st Year NSQF (Revised 2022) under CTS is one of the book developed by the core group members as per the NSQF syllabus.

The **Workshop Calculation & Science -** Technician Mechatronics 1st Year NSQF (Revised 2022) under CTS as per NSQF is the outcome of the collective efforts of experts from Field Institutes of DGT, Champion ITI's for each of the Sectors, and also Media Development Committee (**MDC**) members and Staff of **NIMI**. NIMI wishes that the above material will fulfill to satisfy the long needs of the trainees and instructors and shall help the trainees for their Employability in Vocational Training.

NIMI would like to take this opportunity to convey sincere thanks to all the Members and Media Development Committee (MDC) members.

Chennai - 600 032

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The National Instructional Media Institute (NIMI) sincerely acknowledge with thanks the co-operation and contribution of the following Media Developers to bring this IMP for the course **Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics 1**st **Year** as per NSQF Revised 2022.

MEDIA DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE MEMBERS

Shri. M. Sangara pandian - Training Officer (Retd.)

CTI, Govt. of India, Guindy, Chennai - 32.

Shri. G. Sathiamoorthy - Jr. Training Officer - SG (Retd.)

Govt I.T.I, Trichy, DET - Tamilnadu.

NIMI CO-ORDINATORS

Shri. Nirmalya Nath - Deputy General Manager,

NIMI, Chennai - 32.

Shri. G. Michael Johny - Manager,

NIMI, Chennai - 32.

NIMI records its appreciation of the **Data Entry**, **CAD**, **DTP Operators** for their excellent and devoted services in the process of development of this IMP.

NIMI also acknowledges with thanks, the efforts rendered by all other staff who have contributed for the development of this book.

INTRODUCTION

The material has been divided into independent learning units, each consisting of a summary of the topic and an assignment part. The summary explains in a clear and easily understandable fashion the essence of the mathematical and scientific principles. This must not be treated as a replacment for the instructor's explanatory information to be imparted to the trainees in the classroom, which certainly will be more elaborate. The book should enable the trainees in grasping the essentials from the elaboration made by the instructor and will help them to solve independently the assignments of the respective chapters. It will also help them to solve the various problems, they may come across on the shop floor while doing their practical exercises.

The assignments are presented through 'Graphics' to ensure communications amongst the trainees. It also assists the trainees to determine the right approach to solve the problems. The required relevent data to solve the problems are provided adjacent to the graphics either by means of symbols or by means of words. The description of the symbols indicated in the problems has its reference in the relevant summaries.

At the end of the exercise wherever necessary assignments, problems are included for further practice.

Time allotment:

Duration of 1st Year: 36 Hrs

Time allotment for each title of exercises has been given below. **Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics** 1st Year NSQF Revised Syllabus 2022.

S.No	Title	Exercise No.	Time in Hrs
1	Unit, Fractions	1.1.01 - 1.1.07	4
2	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage	1.2.08 - 1.2.14	6
3	Material Science	1.3.15 & 1.3.16	4
4	Mass, Weight, Volume and Density	1.4.17	2
5	Speed and Velocity, Work, Power and Energy	1.5.18 - 1.5.20	6
6	Heat & Temperature and Pressure	1.6.21 & 1.6.22	4
7	Basic Electricity	1.7.23 - 1.7.28	8
8	Trigonometry	1.8.29 & 1.8.30	2
		Total	36 Hrs

LEARNING / ASSESSABLE OUTCOME

On completion of this book you shall be able to

- Demonstrate basic mathematical concept and principles to perform practical operations.
- Understand and explain basic science in the field of study.

CONTENTS

Exercise No.	Title of the Exercise	Page No.
	Unit, Fractions	
1.1.01	Unit, Fractions - Classification of unit system	1
1.1.02	Unit, Fractions - Fundamental and Derived units F.P.S, C.G.S, M.K.S and SI units	2
1.1.03	Unit, Fractions - Measurement units and conversion	3
1.1.04	Unit, Fractions - Factors, HCF, LCM and problems	8
1.1.05	Unit, Fractions - Fractions - Addition, substraction, multiplication & division	9
1.1.06	Unit, Fractions - Decimal fractions - Addition, subtraction, multiplication & division	12
1.1.07	Unit, Fractions - Solving problems by using calculator	15
	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage	
1.2.08	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Square and square root	19
1.2.09	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Simple problems using calculator	20
1.2.10	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Applications of pythagoras theorem and related problems	21
1.2.11	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Ratio and proportion	23
1.2.12	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Ratio and proportion - Direct and indirect proportions	25
1.2.13	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Percentage	28
1.2.14	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Changing percentage to decimal and fraction	30
	Material Science	
1.3.15	Material science - Types of metals, types of ferrous and non ferrous metals	31
1.3.16	Material science - Introduction of iron and cast iron	33
	Mass, Weight, Volume and Density	
1.4.17	Mass, Weight, Volume and Density - Mass, volume, density, weight and specific gravity	36
	Speed and Velocity, Work, Power and Energy	
1.5.18	Speed and Velocity, Work, Power and Energy - Speed and velocity - Rest, motion, speed, velocity, difference between speed and velocity, acceleration and retardation	38
1.5.19	Speed and Velocity, Work, Power and Energy - Speed and velocity - Related problems on speed & velocity	42
1.5.20	Speed and Velocity, Work, Power and Energy - Work, power, energy, HP, IHP, BHP and efficiency	46
]

Exercise No.	Title of the Exercise	Page No.
	Heat & Temperature and Pressure	
1.6.21	Heat & Temperature and Pressure - Concept of heat and temperature, effects of heat, difference between heat and temperature, boiling point & melting point of different metals and non-metals	52
1.6.22	Heat & Temperature and Pressure - Scales of temperature, celsius, fahrenheit, kelvin and conversion between scales of temperature	54
	Basic Electricity	
1.7.23	Basic electricity - Introduction and uses of electricity, molecule, atom, how electricity is produced, electric current AC,DC their comparison, voltage, resistance and their units	56
1.7.24	Basic electricity - Conductor, insulator, types of connections - series and parallel	60
1.7.25	Basic electricity - Ohm's law, relation between V.I.R & related problems	65
1.7.26	Basic electricity - Electrical power, energy and their units, calculation with assignments	67
1.7.27	Basic electricity - Magnetic induction, self and mutual inductance and EMF generation	70
1.7.28	Basic electricity - Electrical power, HP, energy and units of electrical energy	73
	Trigonometry	
1.8.29	Trigonometry - Measurement of angles	75
1.8.30	Trigonometry - Trigonometrical ratios	77

SYLLABUS

1st Year

Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics Revised syllabus July 2022 under CTS

S.No.	Title	Time in Hrs
ı	Unit, Fractions	4
	1 Classification of Unit System	
	2 Fundamental and Derived Units F.P.S, C.G.S, M.K.S and SI Units	
	3 Measurement Units and Conversion	
	4 Factors, HCF, LCM and Problems	
	5 Fractions – Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication & Division	
	6 Decimal Fractions – Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication & Division	
	7 Solving Problems by using calculator	
Ш	Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage	6
	1 Square and Square root	
	2 Simple problems using calculator	
	3 Applications of Pythagoras theorem and related problems	
	4 Ratio and Proportion	
	5 Ratio and Proportion - Direct and Indirect proportions	
	6 Percentage	
	7 Percentage - Changing percentage to decimal and fraction	
Ш	Material Science	4
	1 Types of metal, types of ferrous and non ferrous metals	
	2 Introduction of iron and cast iron	
IV	Mass, Weight, Volume and Density	2
	1 Mass, volume, density, weight and specific gravity	
V	Speed and Velocity, Work, Power and Energy	6
	1 Speed and velocity - Rest, motion, speed, velocity, difference between speed and velocity, acceleration and retardation	
	2 Speed and velocity - Related problems on speed & velocity	
	3 Work, power, energy, HP, IHP, BHP and efficiency	
VI	Heat & Temperature and Pressure	4
	1 Concept of heat and temperature, effects of heat, difference between heat and temperature, boiling point & melting point of different metals and non-metals	

S.No.	Title	Time in Hrs
	2 Scales of temperature, Celsius, Fahrenheit, Kelvin and Conversion between scales of temperature	
VII	Basic Electricity	8
	1 Introduction and uses of electricity, molecule, atom, how electricity is produced, electric current AC, DC their comparison, voltage, resistance and their units	
	2 Conductor, Insulator, types of connections- Series and Parallel	
	3 Ohm's Law, relation between VIR & related problems	
	4 Electrical power, energy and their units, calculation with assignments	
	5 Magnetic induction, self and mutual inductance and EMF generation	
	6 Electrical Power, HP, Energy and units of electrical energy	
VIII	Trigonometry	2
	1 Measurement of angles	
	2 Trigonometrical ratios	
	Total	36

Unit, Fractions - Classification of unit system

Necessity

All physical quantities are to be measured in terms of standard quantities.

Unit

A unit is defined as a standard or fixed quantity of one kind used to measure other quantities of the same kind.

Classification

Fundamental units and derived units are the two classifications.

Fundamental units

Units of basic quantities of length, mass and time.

Derived units

Units which are derived from basic units and bear a constant relationship with the fundamental units. E.g. area, volume, pressure, force etc.

Systems of units

- F.P.S system is the British system in which the basic units of length, mass and time are foot, pound and second respectively.
- C.G.S system is the metric system in which the basic units of length, mass and time are centimeter, gram and seconds respectively.
- M.K.S system is another metric system in which the basic units of length, mass and time are metre, kilogram and second respectively.
- S.I. units are referred to as Systems International units which is again of metric and the basic units, their names and symbols are as follows.

Fundamental units and derived units are the two classifications of units.

Length, mass and time are the fundamental units in all the systems (i.e) F.P.S, C.G.S, M.K.S and S.I. systems.

Example

Length: What is the length of copper wire in the roll, if the roll of copper wire weighs 8kg, the dia of wire is 0.9cm and the density is 8.9 gm/cm³?

Solution

mass of copper wire in the roll = 8kg (or)8000grams
Dia of copper wire in the roll = 0.9cm
Density of copper wire = 8.9 gm/cm³

Area of cross section of copper wire

$$=\frac{\pi d^2}{4} = \frac{\pi \times (0.9^2)}{4} = 0.636cm^2$$

Volume of copper wire

$$= \frac{\text{Mass of copper wire}}{\text{Density of copper wire}} = \frac{8000 \text{grams}}{8.9 \text{ gm/cm}^3} = 898.88 \text{cm}^3$$

Length of copper wire

$$= \frac{\text{Volume of copper wire}}{\text{Area of cross section of copper wire}} = \frac{898.88 \text{cm}^3}{0.636 \text{cm}^2}$$
$$= 1413.33 \text{ cm}$$

Length of copper wire =1413cm.

Time: The S.I. unit of time, the second, is another base units of S.I., it is defined as the time interval occupied by a number of cycles of radiation from the calcium atom. The second is the same quantity in the S.I. in the British and in the U.S. systems of units.

Fundamental units of F.P.S, C.G.S, M.K.S and S.I

S.No.	Basic quantity	British un	its		Metric u	nits		Internation	al units
		F.P.S	Symbol	C.G.S	Symbol	M.K.S	Symbol	S.I Units	Symbol
1	Length	Foot	ft	Centimetre	cm	Metre	m	Metre	m
2	Mass	Pound	lb	Gram	g	Kilogram	kg	Kilogram	Kg
3	Time	Second	S	Second	S	Second	S	Second	s
4	Current	Ampere	Α	Ampere	Α	Ampere	Α	Ampere	А
5	Temperature	Fahrenheit	°F	Centigrade	°C	Centigrade	°C	Kelvin	K
6	Light intensity	Candela	Cd	Candela	Cd	Candela	Cd	Candela	Cd

Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics

Unit, Fractions - Fundamental and Derived units F.P.S, C.G.S, M.K.S and SI units

Derived units of F.P.S, C.G.S, M.K.S and SI system

2				4 4	1			1.00	
0.NO	Physical quantity	British units		Metr	Metric units			International units	
		FPS	Symbol	SDO	Symbol	MKS	Symbol	SIUnits	Symbol
7	Area	Squarefoot	ff ²	Square centimetre	cm^2	Squaremetre	m^2	Square metre	m^2
2	Volume	Cubic foot	ft3	Cubic centimetre	cm³	Cubicmetre	m³	Cubic metre	m ₃
3	Density	Pound per cubic foot	FJJ/GI	Gram per cubic centimetre	g/cm³	Kilogram per cubic metre	kg/m³	Kilogram per cubic metre	Kg/m³
4	Speed	Foot per second	ft/s	Centimetrepersecond	cm/sec	Metre per second	m/sec	Metre per second	m/sec
2	Velocity (linear)	Foot per second	ft/s	Centimetrepersecond	cm/sec	Metre per second	m/sec	Metre per second	m/sec
9	Acceleration	Foot per square	ft/s²	Centimetreper	cm/sec ²	Metre per square	m/sec ²	Metre per square	m/sec ²
		second		square second		second		second	
2	Retardation	Footper square Second	ft/s^2	Centimetre per square second	cm/sec ²	Metre per square second	m/sec ²	Metre square second	m/sec ²
8	Angularvelocity	Degree per second	Deg/sec	Radianpersecond	rad/sec	Radianpersecond	rad/sec	Radian per second	rad/sec
6	Mass	Pound (slug)	qı	Gram	б	Kilogram	kg	Kilogram	kg
10	Weight	Pound	ql	Gram	g	Kilogramweight	kg	Newton	Z
17	Force	Pounds	lbf	dyne	dyn	Kilogram force	kgf	Newton	$N(kgm/sec^2)$
12	Power	Foot pound per second	ft.lb/sec	Gram.centimetre/sec	g.cm/ sec	kilogram metre per second	kg.m/ sec	-	1
		Horse power	hр	Erg per second		watt	M	watt	W(J/sec)
13	Pressure, Stress	Pound per square inch	lb/in²	Gram per square centimetre	g/cm²	Kilogram per square metre	kg/m²	Newton per square metre	N/m²
41	Energy, Work	Foot.pound	ft.lb	Gram centimetre	g.cm	Kilogram metre	kg.m	joule	J(Nm)
15	Heat	British thermal unit	ВТЛ	calorie	Cal	joule	ſ	joule	J(Nm)
16	Torque	Pound force foot	lbf.ft	Newton millimetre	Nmm	Kilogram metre	kg.m	Newton metre	Nm
17	Temperature	DegreeFahrenheit	Ľ,	Degree Centigrade	్ళ	Kelvin	ス	Kelvin	¥

Unit, Fractions - Measurement units and conversion

Units and abbreviations

Quantity	Units	Abbreviation of unit
Calorificvalue	kilojoules per kilogram	kJ/kg
Specific fuel consumption	kilogram per hour per newton	kg/hr/N
Length	millimetre, metre, kilometre	mm, m, km
Mass	kilogram, gram	kg, g
Time	seconds, minutes, hours	s, min, h
Speed	centimetre per second, metre per second kilometre per hour, miles per hour	cm/s, m/s km/h, mph
Acceleration	metre-per-square second	m/s²
Force	newtons, kilonewtons	N,kN
Moment	newton-metres	Nm
Work	joules	J
Power	horsepower, watts, kilowatts	Hp, W, kW
Pressure	newton per square metre kilonewton per square metre	N/m² kN/m²
Angle	radian	rad
Angularspeed	radians per second radians-per-square second revolutions per minute revolutions per second	rad/s rad/s² Rpm rev/s

Decimal multiples and parts of unit

Decimal power	Value	Prefixes	Symbol	Stands for
10 ¹²	100000000000	tera	Т	billion times
10 ⁹	100000000	giga	G	thousand millintimes
10 ⁶	1000000	mega	М	million times
10 ³	1000	kilo	K	thousand times
10 ²	100	hecto	h	hundred times
10 ¹	10	deca	da	ten times
10 ⁻¹	0.1	deci	d	tenth
10-2	0.01	centi	С	hundredth
10 ⁻³	0.001	milli	m	thousandth
10 ⁻⁶	0.000001	micro	μ	millionth
10-9	0.00000001	nano	n	thousand millionth
10 ⁻¹²	0.00000000001	pico	р	billionth

SI units and the British units:

Quantity	SI unit → British unit	British unit → SI unit
Length	1 m = 3.281 ft 1 km = 0.621 mile	1 ft = 0.3048 m 1 mile = 1.609 km
Speed	1 m/s = 3.281 ft/s 1 km/h = 0.621 mph	1 ft/s = 0.305 m/s 1 mph = 1.61 km/h
Acceleration	1 m/s ² = 3.281 ft/s ²	1 ft/s ² = 0.305 m/s ²
Mass	1 kg = 2.205 lb	1 lb = 0.454 kg
Force	1 N = 0.225 lbf	1 lbf = 4.448 N
	1 MN	1 million newtons
Torque	1 Nm = 0.738 lbf ft	1 lbf ft = 1.355 Nm
Pressure	1 N/m ² = 0.000145 lbf/in ² 1 Pa = 1 N/m ²	1 lbf/in ² = 6.896 kN/m ²
	1 bar = 14.5038 lbf/in ²	1 lbf/in 2 = 6.895 kN/m 2
Energy, work	1 J = 0.738 ft lbf	1 ft lbf = 1.355 J
	1 J = 0.239 calorie	1 calorie = 4.186 J
	1 kJ = 0.948 BTU	1 BTU = 1.055 kJ
	(1 therm = 100 000 BTU) 1 kJ = 0.526 CHU	1 CHU = 1.9 kJ
Power	1 kW = 1.34 hp	1 hp = 0.7457 kW
Fuel consumption	1km/L = 2.82 mile/gallon	1 mpg = 0.354 km/L
Specific fuel	1 kg/kWh = 1.65 lb/bhp h	1 lb/bhp h = 0.606 kg/kWh
consumption	1 litre/kWh=1.575 pt/bhp h	1 pt/bhp h = 0.631 litre/kW
Calorificvalue	1 kJ/kg = 0.43 BTU/lb	1 BTU/lb = 2.326 kJ/kg
	1 kJ/kg = 0.239 CHU/lb	1 CHU/lb = 4.188 kJ/kg

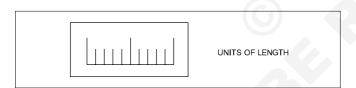
Prefixes for decimal multiples and submultiples

	Use	
1 Megapascal	= 1 MPa	= 1000000 Pa
1 Kilowatt	= 1 kW	= 1000 W
1 Hectolitre	= 1 hL=	100 L
Decanewton	= 1 daN	= 10 N
Decimetre	= 1 dm	= 0.1 m
1 Centimetre	= 1 cm	= 0.01 m
1 Millimetre	= 1 mm	= 0.001 m
1 Micrometre	= 1 um	= 0.000001 m

Conversion factors

1 inch	=	25.4 mm
1 mm	=	0.03937 inch
1 metre	=	39.37 inch
1 micron	=	0.00003937"
1 kilometre	=	0.621 miles
1 pound	=	453.6 g
1 kg	=	2.205 lbs
1 metric ton	=	0.98 ton

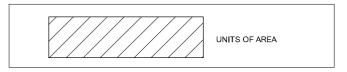
Units of physical quantities



Units of length

Micron	1μ	=(0.001 mm
Millimetre	1 mm	=	1000 μ
Centimetre	1 cm	=	10 mm
Decimetre	1 dm	=	10 cm
Metre	1 m	=	10 dm
Kilometre	1 km	=	1000 m
Inch	1"	=	25.4 mm
Foot	1'	=	0.305 m
Yard	1 Yd	=	0.914 m
Nautical mile	1 NM	=	1852 m
Geographical mile	1	=	1855.4 m

Units of area



Square millimetre	1 mm ²
Square centimetre	$1 \text{ cm}^2 = 100 \text{ mm}^2$
Square decimetre	$1 dm^2 = 100 cm^2$
Square metre	$1 \text{ m}^2 = 100 \text{ dm}^2$
Are	1 a = 100 m^2
Hectare	1 ha = 100 a
Square kilometre	$1 \text{ km}^2 = 100 \text{ ha}$
Square inch	1 sq.in = 6.45 cm^2
Square foot	1 sq.ft = 0.093 m^2
Square yard	$1 \text{ sq.yd} = 0.84 \text{ m}^2$
Square metre	$1 \text{ m}^2 = 10.76 \text{ ft}^2$
Acre	1 = 40.5 a
1 Acre = 100 cent	1 Hectare = 2.47 acres
1 Cent = 436 Sq. ft.	1 acre = 0.4047 Hec
1 Ground = 2400 Sq.ft.	tare
	1 Hectare = 10000 sq. metre

Units of weight



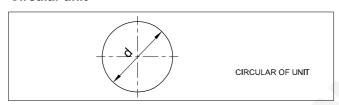
Milligram - force	1 mgf	
Gram-force	1 gf	1000 mgf
Kilogram-force	1 kgf	= 1000 gf
Tonne	1 t	= 1000 kgf
Ounce	1	= 28.35 gf
Pound	1 lbs	= 0.454 kgf
Longton	1	= 1016 kgf
Short ton	1	= 907 kgf



Units of volume and capacity

Cubic millimetre	1 mm ³	
Cubic centimetre	1 cm^3	= 1000 mm ³
Cubic decimetre	$1 dm^3$	$= 1000 \text{ cm}^3$
Cubic metre	1 m^3	$= 1000 \text{ dm}^3$
Litre	11	$= 1 dm^3$
Hectolitre	1 hl	= 100 I
Cubic inch	1 cu. in	$= 16.387 \text{ cm}^3$
Cubic foot	1 cu. ft	$= 28317 \text{ cm}^3$
Gallon (British)	1 gal	= 4.54 l
1cubic metre	1 m^3	= 1000 litres
1000 Cu.cm	1000 cm	n ³ = 1 litre
1 cubic foot	1 ft ³	= 6.25 Gallon
1 litre	1lt	= 0.22 Gallon

Circular unit



Radian

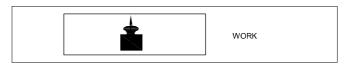
Relationship between Radian and Degree

1 Radian = $\frac{180^{\circ}}{\pi}$

180° = π Radian;

1 Degree = $\frac{\pi}{180}$ Radian

Work



Kilogram-force	1 kgfm	= 9.80665 J
Metre	1 kgfm	= 9.80665 Ws
Joule	1 J	= 1 Nm
Watt-second	1 Ws	= 0.102 kgfm
Kilowatt hour	1 kWh	$= 3.6 \times 10^6 \text{ J}$
		= 859.8456 kcal _{ıт}
I.T.Kilocalorie	1 kcal _{ıт}	= 426.kgfm

Power



Kilogram-force metre/second

1 kgfm/s = 9.80665 W

Kilowatt 1 kW = 1000 W = 1000 J/s

= 102 kgfm/s (approx.)

Metric horse power 1 HP = 75 kgfm/s

= 0.736 kW

1 Calorie = 4.187J

I.T.Kilocalorie/hour = 1 kcal $_{IT/h}$ = 1.163 W

Pressure

Pascal	1 Pa	= 1 N/m ²	1 atm	= 101325 Pa
Bar	$1 \text{ bar} = 10 \text{N/cm}^2$	= 100000 Pa-Torr	1 torr	$= \frac{101325}{760} \approx 133.32 \text{ pa}$
Atmosphere	1 atm	= 1 kgf/cm ²	1 kgf/cm ² =	= 735.6 mm of mercury

TEMPERATURE

Scale	Freezing point	Boiling point
Centigrade (°C)	0°C	100°C
Fahrenheit(°F)	32°F	212°F
Kelvin (K)	273K	373K
Reaumur(°R)	0°R	80°R



$$\frac{^{\circ}\text{R}}{80} = \frac{^{\circ}\text{C}}{100} = \frac{\text{K-}273}{100} = \frac{^{\circ}\text{F-}32}{180}$$

FORCE

Force In C.G.S. System: Force (Dyne) = Mass (gm)XAcceleration (cm/sec²)

In F.P.S. System: Force (Poundal) = Mass (Ib) X Acceleration (ft./sec²)

In M.K.S System: Force (Newton) = Mass (Kg) x Acceleration (mtr./sec²)

1 Dyne = 1 gm x1 cm/sec²

1 Poundal = 1 lb x 1 ft/sec²

1 Newton = 1 kg x 1 mtr/sec² = 10⁵ dynes

1 gm weight = 981 Dynes

1 lb weight = 32 Poundals

1 kg weight = 9.81 Newtons

ELECTRICAL QUANTITIES

$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$					
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	V	Electric potential	V	Volt	V(W/A)
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Е	Electromotive force	V	Volt	V(W/A)
e Specific resistance Ω m Ohm metre Vn	1	Electric current	Α	Ampere	А
	R	Electric resistance	Ω	Ohm	Ω (V/A)
G Conductance O-1 Siemens S	е	Specific resistance	Ω m	Ohm metre	Vm/A
C Conductance	G	Conductance	$\Omega^{ ext{-1}}$	Siemens	S

ELECTRICAL QUANTITIES

Assignment - Answer the following question.

1	Convert 320 kilometres into miles	b	Ма	SS			
2	Convert 16 tons into kilograms		i	650 g	=		kg
3	Convert 40 inches into centimetres			120 mg	=		
4	Convert 8 metres into feet			· ·	_		_g
5	Convert 2.5 gallons into litres	С	For	ce			
	Convert 5 litres into gallons		i	1.2 N	=		_kg
7	120°C = °F.		ii	25 kg	=		_N
8	Expand the abbreviations of the following	d	Wo	ork, energ	ıy, amou	nt of hea	at
	a N/m²		i	120 KJ	=		_J
	b RPM		ii	300 wh	=		_kwh
9	Convert the following S.I. units as required.	е	Pov	wer			
	a Length		i	0.2 kW	=		_W
	i 3.4 m =mm		ii	350 W	=		_kW
	ii 10.2 km = mile	f	Co	nvert as re	equired.		
			i	5 N	=		ΚN

Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics

Exercise 1.1.04

Unit, Fractions - Factors, HCF, LCM and problems

Prime Numbers and whole Numbers

Factor

A factor is a small number which divides exactly into a bigger number.e.g.

To find the factors of 24, 72, 100 numbers

$$24 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$$

$$72 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 3$$

$$100 = 2 \times 2 \times 5 \times 5$$

The numbers 2,3,5 are called factors.

Definition of a prime factor

Prime factor is a number which divides a prime number into factors.e.g.

$$57 = 3 \times 19$$

The numbers 3 and 19 are prime factors.

They are called as such, since 3 & 19 also belong to prime number category.

Definition of H.C.F

The Highest Common Factor

The H.C.F of a given group of numbers is the highest number which will exactly divide all the numbers of that group.e.g.

To find the H.C.F of the numbers 24, 72, 100

$$24 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$$

$$72 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 3$$

$$100 = 2 \times 2 \times 5 \times 5$$

The factors common to all the three numbers are

$$2 \times 2 = 4$$
. So HCF = 4.

Definition of L.C.M

Lowest common multiple

The lowest common multiple of a group of numbers is the smallest number that will contain each number of the given group without a remainder.e.g.

· Factorise the following numbers

7,17 - These two belong to Prime numbers. Hence no factor except unity and itself.

Factors of $20 = 2 \times 2 \times 5$

Factors of $66 = 2 \times 3 \times 11$

<u>4</u> 2

2

Factors of 128 = 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2

Select prime numbers from 3 to 29

 Find the HCF of the following group of numbers HCF of 78, 128, 196

$$78 = 2 \times 3 \times 13$$

 $128 = 2 \times 2$

$$196 = 2 \times 2 \times 49$$

$$HCF = 2$$

Find LCM of 84,92,76

$$LCM = 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 7 \times 23 \times 19 = 36708$$

To find out the LCM of 36, 108, 60

LCM of the number

$$36, 108, 60 = 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 5 = 540$$

The necessity of finding LCM and HCF arises in subtraction and addition of fractions.

Unit, Fractions - Fractions - Addition, subtraction, multiplication & division

Description

A minimal quantity that is not a whole number. For e.g. .

 $\frac{1}{5}$ a vulgur fraction consists of a numerator and denominator.

Numerator/Denominator

The number above the line in a vulgar fraction showing how many of the parts indicated by the denominator are taken is the numerator. The total number of parts into which the whole quantity is divided and written below the line in a vulgar fraction is the denominator. e.g.

$$\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{7}{12}$$

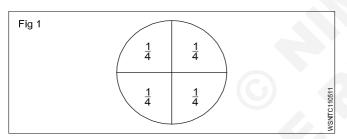
1,3,7 - numerators

4.12 - denominators

Fraction: Concept

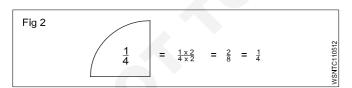
Every number can be represented as a fraction.e.g.

 $1\frac{1}{4} = \frac{5}{4}$, A full number can be represented as an apparent fraction.e.g. (Fig 1)



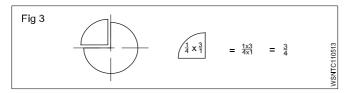
Fraction: Value

The value of a fraction remains the same if the numerator and denominator of the fraction are multiplied or divided by the same number. (Fig 2)



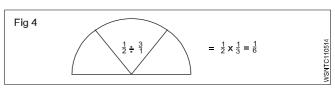
Multiplication

When fractions are to be multiplied, multiply all the numerators to get the numerator of the product and multiply all the denominators to form the denominator of the product. (Fig 3)



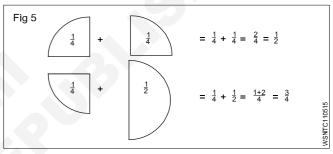
Division

When a fraction is divided by another fraction the dividend is multiplied by the reciprocal of the divisor. (Fig 4)



Addition and Subtraction

The denominators of the fractions should be the same when adding or subtracting the fractions. Unequal denominators must first be formed into a common denominator. It is the lowest common denominator and it is equal to the product of the most common prime numbers of the denominators of the fractions in question. (Fig 5)



Examples

- Multiply $\frac{3}{4}$ by $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{6}{12} = \frac{1}{2}$
- Divide $\frac{3}{8}$ by $\frac{3}{4}$,

$$\frac{3}{8} \div \frac{3}{4} = \frac{3}{8} \times \frac{4}{3} = \frac{1}{2}$$

• Add $\frac{3}{4}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$,

$$\frac{3}{4} + \frac{2}{3} = \frac{9}{12} + \frac{8}{12} = \frac{17}{12} = 1\frac{5}{12}$$

• $sub \frac{7}{16} from \frac{17}{32}$

$$\frac{17}{32} - \frac{7}{16} = \frac{17}{32} - \frac{14}{32} = \frac{(17 - 14)}{32} = \frac{3}{32}$$

Types of fractions

- Proper fractions are less than unity. Improper fractions have their numerators greater than the denominators.
- · A mixed number has a full number and a fraction.

Addition of fraction

Add
$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{5}{12}$$

To add these fractions we have to find out L.C.M of denominators 2,8,12.

Find L.C.M of 2,8,12

Step 1 L.C.M

Factors are 2,2,2,3

Hence L.C.M = $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3 = 24$

Step 2

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{5}{12} = \frac{12}{24} + \frac{3}{24} + \frac{10}{24}$$
$$= \frac{12 + 3 + 10}{24} = \frac{25}{24} = 1\frac{1}{24}.$$

Subtraction of fraction

subtract
$$9\frac{15}{32}$$
 from $17\frac{9}{16}$ or $(17\frac{9}{16} - 9\frac{15}{32})$

Step 1: Subtract whole number first 17 - 9 = 8

Step 2: L.C.M of 16,32 = 32

Since number 16 divides the number 32

Subtracting fractions = $\frac{3}{32}$

Adding with whole number from Step 1

we get
$$8 + \frac{3}{32} = 8 \frac{3}{32}$$

Common fractions

Problems with plus and minus sign

Example

solve
$$3\frac{3}{4} + 6\frac{7}{8} - 4\frac{5}{16} - \frac{9}{32}$$

Rule to be followed

- 1 Add all whole numbers
- 2 add all + Numbers
- 3 Add all Numbers
- 4 Find L.C.M of all denominators

Solution

Step 1: Add whole numbers = 3 + 6 - 4 = 5

Step 2: Add fractions =
$$\frac{3}{4} + \frac{7}{8} - \frac{5}{16} - \frac{9}{32}$$

L.C.M of 4,8,16,32 is 32

$$\frac{24 + 28 - 10 - 9}{32}$$

$$= \frac{52 - 19}{32}$$

$$= \frac{33}{32} = 1\frac{1}{32}$$

Step 3: Adding again with the whole number

we get
$$5 + 1\frac{3}{32} = 6\frac{3}{32}$$

Examples

Common fractions

Multiply

a
$$\frac{3}{8}$$
 by $\frac{4}{7} = \frac{3}{8} \times \frac{4}{7} = \frac{3}{14}$ b $\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{5}{8} = \frac{5}{16}$

Division

$$a \qquad \frac{5}{16} \div \frac{5}{32} = \frac{5}{16} \times \frac{32}{5} = 2$$

b
$$4\frac{2}{3} \div 3\frac{1}{7} = \frac{14}{3} \div \frac{22}{7} = \frac{14}{3} \times \frac{7}{22} = \frac{49}{33} = 1\frac{16}{33}$$

Addition

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8}$$

$$L..C.M = 2,4,8 = 8$$

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{4+2+1}{8} = \frac{7}{8}$$

Subtraction

$$5\frac{1}{4} - 3\frac{3}{4} = 5 - 3 + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{3}{4}$$
$$= 2 + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{3}{4} = 2\frac{1}{4} - \frac{3}{4}$$
$$= \frac{9}{4} - \frac{3}{4} = \frac{9 - 3}{4}$$
$$= \frac{6}{4} = \frac{3}{2} = 1\frac{1}{2}$$

Assignment

1 Convert the following into improper fractions.

a
$$1\frac{2}{7} =$$

b
$$4\frac{3}{5} =$$

c
$$3\frac{3}{5} =$$

2 Convert the following into mixed numbers.

a
$$\frac{12}{11} =$$

b
$$\frac{36}{14} =$$

$$c \frac{18}{10} =$$

3 Place the missing numbers.

a
$$\frac{11}{13} = \frac{x}{91}$$

b
$$\frac{3}{5} = \frac{42}{x}$$

$$c = \frac{9}{14} = \frac{x}{98}$$

4 Simplify.

a
$$\frac{45}{60} =$$

b
$$\frac{8}{12} =$$

5 Multiply.

a
$$5x\frac{2}{3} =$$

b
$$\frac{3}{4}$$
 x 2 = _____

$$c \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{5}{6} =$$

6 Divide

a
$$\frac{1}{4} \div \frac{3}{4} =$$

b
$$6 \div \frac{3}{4} =$$

$$c \quad \frac{3}{4} \div \frac{2}{7} = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$$

7 Place the missing numbers.

a
$$\frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{12} x_{\underline{\hspace{1cm}}}$$

b
$$\frac{14}{24} = \frac{1}{12}x$$

c
$$\frac{7}{8} = \frac{1}{12}x$$

8 Add the followings:

a
$$\frac{3}{4} + \frac{7}{12} =$$

b
$$\frac{7}{8} + \frac{3}{4} =$$

9 Subtract

a
$$\frac{4}{5} - \frac{2}{5} =$$

b
$$\frac{5}{6} - \frac{3}{4} =$$

10 Simplify

a
$$2\frac{6}{7} - \frac{3}{8} - \frac{1}{3} - 1\frac{1}{16} =$$

b
$$2\frac{2}{7} - \frac{5}{6} + 8 =$$

11 Express as improper fractions

a
$$5\frac{3}{4}$$

b
$$3\frac{5}{64}$$

c
$$1\frac{5}{12}$$

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Exercise 1.1.06

Unit, Fractions - Decimal fractions - Addition, subtraction, multiplication & division

Description

Decimal fraction is a fraction whose denominator is 10 or powers of 10 or multiples of 10 (i.e.) 10, 100, 1000, 10000 etc. Meaning of a decimal number:-

12.3256 means

$$(1 \times 10) + (2 \times 1) + \frac{3}{10} + \frac{2}{100} + \frac{5}{1000} + \frac{6}{10000}$$

Representation

The denominator is omitted. A decimal point is placed at different positions of the number corresponding to the magnitude of the denominator

$$Ex. \frac{5}{10} = 0.5, \frac{35}{100} = 0.35 \frac{127}{10000} = 0.0127, \frac{3648}{1000} = 3.648$$

Addition and subtraction

Arrange the decimal fractions in a vertical order, placing the decimal point of each fraction to be added or subtracted, in succession one below the other, so that all the decimal points are arranged in a straight line. Add or subtract as you would do for a whole number and place the decimal point in the answer below the column of decimal points.

Decimal fractions less than 1 are written with a zero before the decimal point. Example: 45/100 = 0.45 (and not simply .45)

Add 0.375 + 3.686

0.375

3.686

4.061

Subtract 18.72 from 22.61

22.61

18.72

3.89

Multiplication

Ignore the decimal points and multiply as whole numbers. Find the total number of digits to the right of the decimal point. Insert the decimal point in the answer such that the number of digits to the right of the decimal point equals to the sum of the digits found to the right of the decimal points in the problem.

Multiply 2.5 by 1.25

= $25 \times 125 = 3125$. The sum of the figures to the right of decimal point is 3. Hence the answer is 3.125.

Division

Move the decimal point of the divisor to the right to make it a full number. Move the decimal point in the dividend to

the same number of places, adding zeroes if necessary. Then divide.

Divide 0.75 by 0.25

0.25)0.75

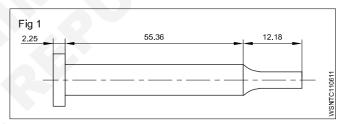
 $\frac{0.75}{0.25} \times \frac{100}{100} = \frac{75}{25}$

(25)75 = 3

Move the decimal point in the multiplicand to the right to one place if the multiplier is 10, and to two places if the multiplier is 100 and so on. When dividing by 10 move the decimal point one place to the left, and, if it is by 100, move them point by two places and so on.

Example

Allowance allowing 3 mm for cutting off each pin, how many pins can be made from a 900 mm long bar and how much material will be left out?



Total Length of pin = 2.25 + 55.36 + 12.18

= 69.79 mm

Cutting allowance = 3 mm

Total Length = length of pin + cutting allowance

= 69.79 mm + 3 mm

= 72.79 mm

Length of the bar = 900 mm

No.of pins to be cut $=\frac{900}{72.79} = 12.394$

= 12 pins

Left out material = Total length - length of pin +

cutting allowance

 $= 900 - 12 \times 69.79 + 12 \times 3$

= 900 - 837.48 + 36

= 900 - 873.48

Left out length = 26.52 mm

Conversion of Decimals into fractions and vice-versa

· Convert decimal into fractions

Example

Convert 0.375 to a fraction

Now place 1 under the decimal point followed by as many zeros as there are numbers

$$0.375 = \frac{375}{1000} = \frac{15}{40} = \frac{3}{8}$$
$$0.375 = \frac{3}{8}$$

· Convert fraction into decimal

Example

• Convert $\frac{9}{16}$ to a decimal

Proceed to divide $\frac{9}{16}$ in the normal way of division but put zeros (as required) after the number 9 (Numerator)

$$\frac{9}{16} = 0.5625$$

Recurring decimals

While converting from fraction to decimals, some fractions can be divided exactly into a decimal. In some fractions the quotient will not stop. It will continue and keep recurring. These are called recurring decimals.

Examples

• convert
$$\frac{1}{3}$$
, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{7}$

a
$$\frac{1}{3} = \frac{10000}{3} = 0.3333 - \text{Recurring}$$

b
$$\frac{2}{3} = \frac{20000}{3} = 0.666 - \text{Recurring}$$

c
$$\left(\frac{1}{7} = \frac{10000}{7} = 0.142857142 - \text{Recurring}\right)$$

Method of writing approximations in decimals

1.73556 = 1.7356 Correct to 4 decimal places 5.7343 = 5.734 Correct to 3 decimal places 0.9345 = 0.94 Correct to 2 decimal places

Multiplication and division by 10,100,1000

Multiplying decimals by 10

A decimal fraction can be multiplied by 10,100,1000 and so on by moving the decimal point to the right by as many places as there are zeros in the multiplier.

4.645 x 10 = 46.45 (one place)
 4.645 x 100 = 464.5 (two places)
 4.645 x 1000 = 4645 (three places)

Dividing decimals by 10

A decimal fraction can be divided by 10,100,1000 and so on, by moving the decimal point to the left by as many places as required in the divisor by putting zeros

Examples

3.732 ÷ 10 = 0.3732 (one place)
 3.732 ÷ 100 = 0.03732 (two places)
 3.732 ÷ 1000 = 0.003732 (three places)

Examples

 Rewrite the following number as a fraction 453.273

$$= (4 \times 100) + (5 \times 10) + (3 \times 1) + \frac{2}{10} + \frac{7}{100} + \frac{3}{100}$$
$$= 453 \frac{273}{1000}$$

- Write the representation of decimal places in the given number 0.386
 - 3 Ist decimal place
 - 8 IInd decimal place
 - 6 IIIrd decimal place
- Write approximations in the following decimals to 3 places.
 - a 6.9453 ----> 6.945
 - b 8.7456 ----> 8.746
- · Convert fraction to decimal

$$\frac{21}{24} = \frac{7}{8} = 0.875$$

· Convert decimal to fraction

$$0.0625 = \frac{625}{10000} = \frac{5}{80} = \frac{1}{16}$$

Assignment

- 1 Write down the following decimal numbers in the expanded form.
 - a 514.726
 - b 902.524
- 2 Write the following decimal numbers from the expansion.

a 500 + 70 + 5 +
$$\frac{3}{10}$$
 + $\frac{2}{100}$ + $\frac{9}{1000}$

b
$$200 + 9 + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{3}{100} + \frac{5}{1000}$$

- 3 Convert the following decimals into fractions in the simplest form.
 - a 0.72
 - b 5.45
 - c 3.64
 - d 2.05
- 4 Convert the following fraction into decimals
 - $a \frac{3}{5}$
 - b $\frac{10}{4}$
 - c $24 \frac{54}{1000}$
 - $d \frac{12}{25}$
 - $e \frac{8}{25}$
 - $f = 1 \frac{3}{25}$
- 5 Addition of decimals
 - a 4.56 + 32.075 + 256.6245 + 15.0358
 - b 462.492 + 725.526 + 309.345 + 626.602
- 6 Subtract the following decimals
 - a 612.5200 -9.6479
 - b 573.9246 -215.6000
- 7 Add and subtract the following
 - a 56.725 + 48.258 32.564
 - b 16.45 + 124.56 + 62.7 3.243

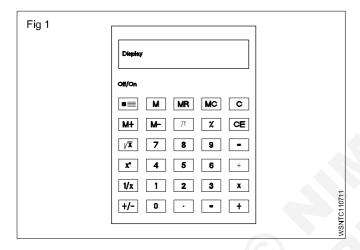
- 8 Multiply the following
 - a By 10,100,1000
 - i 3.754 x 10
 - ii 8.964 x 100
 - iii 2.3786 x 1000
 - iv 0.005 x 1000
 - b By whole numbers
 - i 8.4 x 7
 - ii 56.72 x 8
 - c By another decimal figure (use calculator)
 - i 15.64 x 7.68
 - ii 2.642 x 1.562
- 9 Divide the following
 - a $\frac{62.5}{25}$
 - b $\frac{64.56}{10}$
 - $c = \frac{0.42}{100}$
 - $d = \frac{48.356}{1000}$
- 10 Division
 - $\frac{16.8}{1.2}$
 - b $\frac{1.54}{1.1}$
- 11 Change the fraction into a decimal
 - $1\frac{5}{8}$
 - ii $\frac{12}{25}$
- 12 Find the value
 - 20.5 x 40 ÷ 10.25 + 18.50

Unit, Fractions - Solving problems by using calculator

A pocket calculator allows to spend less time in doing tedious calculations. A simple pocket calculator enables to do the arithmetical calculations of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, while a scientific type of calculator can be used for scientific and technical calculations also.

No special training is required to use a calculator. But it is suggested that a careful study of the operation manual of the type of the calculator is essential to become familiar with its capabilities. A calculator does not think and do. It is left to the operator to understand the problem, interpret the information and key it into the calculator correctly.

Constructional Details (Fig 1)



The key board is divided into five clear and easily recognizable areas and the display.

· Data entry keys

The entry keys are from $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}$ to $\begin{bmatrix} 9 \end{bmatrix}$

and a key for the decimal point .

· Clearing keys

These keys have the letter 'C'

C CLR Clear totally

CE Clear entry only

CM , MC Clear memory

+ Addition key

- Subtraction key

x Multiplication key

÷ Division key

= Equals key to display the result

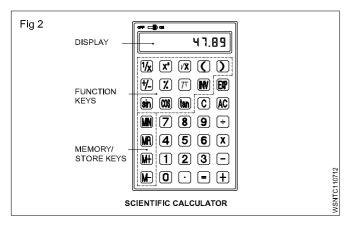
Function keys

- π Pi key
- $\left| \sqrt{x} \right|$ Square root key
- % Percentage key
- +/- Sign change key
- x² Square key
- $\frac{1}{X}$ Reciprocal key

Memory keys

- M Store the display number
- M+ The displayed value is added to the memory
- M- The displayed value is subtracted from the memory
- MR RCL The stored value is recalled on to the display

Further functional keys included in Scientific calculators are as shown in Fig 2.



Sin Cos Tan () For trigonometric functions and for brackets

Exp Exponent key

Some of the keys have coloured lettering above or below them. To use a function in coloured lettering, press INV key. INV will appear on the display. Then press the key that the coloured lettering identifies. INV will disappear from the display.

log , INV 10^x to obtain the logarithm of the displayed

number and the antilogarithm of the displayed value.

INV R-P to convert displayed rectangular coordinates

into polar coordinates.

INV P-R to convert displayed polar coordinates into rectangular coordinates.

The display

The display shows the input data, interim results and answers to the calculations.

The arrangement of the areas can differ from one make to another. Keying in of the numbers is done via. an internationally agreed upon set of ten keys in the order that the numbers are written.

Rules and Examples:

• Addition: Example 18.2 + 5.7

Sequence	Input	Display
Input of the 1st term of the sum	18.2	18.2
Press + key	+	18.2
Input 2nd term of the sum. the first term goes into the register	5.7	5.7
Press the = key	=	23.9

• Subtraction: Example 128.8 - 92.9

Sequence	Input	Display
Enter the subtrahend	128.8	128.8
Press - key	-	128.8
Enter the minuend. The subtrahend goes into the register	92.9	92.9
Press the = key		35.9

• Multiplication: Example 0.47 x 2.47

Sequence	Input	Display
Enter multiplicand	. 4 7	0.47
Press x key	X	0.47
Enter multiplier, multiplicand goes to register	2.47	2.47
Press = key		1.1609

• Division: Example 18.5/2.5

Sequence	Input	Display
Enter the dividend	18.5	18.5
Press ÷ Key	÷	18.5
Enter the divisor goes to the register Press = key	2.5	2.5 7.4

Multiplication & Division:

Example: 2.5 x 7.2 / 4.8 x 1.25

Example: 2.0 x 7.2 / 4.0 x 1.20		
Sequence	Input	Display
Enter 2.5	2. 5	2.5
Press x key	x	2.5
Enter 7.2	7. 2	7.2
Press ÷ key	÷	18
Enter Open bracket	(
Enter 4.8	4 . 8	4.8
Press x key	x	4.8
Enter 1.25	1 . 2 5	1.25
Enter Close bracket)	6
Press = key	=	3.0

• Store in memory Example (2+6) (4+3)

Sequence	Input	Display
Workout for the first	2	2
bracket	+	2
	6	6
	=	8
Store the first result in	STO, M	8
х	or M+	
Workout for the	4	4
2nd bracket	+	4
	3	3
	=	7
Press x key	x	7
Recall memory	RCL or MR	8
Press = key	=	56

• Percentage: Example 12% of 1500

Sequence	Input	Display
Enter 1500	1500	1500
Press x key	x	1500
Enter 12	1 2	12
Press INV %	INV %	12
Press = key	=	180

• Square root: Example $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3 \times 5}$

Sequence	Input	Display
Enter 2	2	2
Press √a key	√a	1.414
Press + key	+	1.414
Press bracket key	(1.414
Enter 3	3	3
Press √a key	√a	1.732
Press x key	x	1.732
Enter 5	5	5
Press √a key	\sqrt{a}	2.236
Press bracket close key		3.873
Press = key	=	5.2871969
$2\sqrt{+(3\sqrt{x})5}$] [] =	5.2871969

 $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3 \times 5} = 5.287$

• Common logarithm: Example log 1.23

 Sequence
 Input
 Display

 1
 .
 2
 3
 log
 =
 0.0899051

• **Power:** Example 123 + 30²

- Before starting the calculations be sure to press the 'ON' key and confirm that '0' is shown on the display.
- Do not touch the inside portion of the calculator. Avoid hard knocks and unduly hard pressing of the keys.
- Maintain and use the calculator in between the two extreme temperatures of 0° and 40° C.
- Never use volatile fluids such as lacquer, thinner, benzine while cleaning the unit.
- Take special care not to damage the unit by bending or dropping.
- Do not carry the calculator in your hip pocket.

Assignment

1 Using calculator solve the following

2 Using calculator simplify the following

3 Using calculator find the values of the following

c
$$678 \times 243 =$$

$$d 0.75 \times 0.24 =$$

4 Using calculator solve the following

5 Solve the following

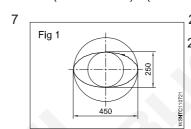
a
$$\frac{1170 \times 537.5}{13 \times 215}$$
 =

b
$$\frac{28.2 \times 18 \times 3500}{1000 \times 3 \times 0.8} =$$

6 Solve the following

a
$$\frac{(634+128) \times (384-0.52)}{8 \times 0.3} =$$

b $\frac{(389-12.2)\times(842-0.05-2.6)}{(3.89-0.021)\times(28.1+17.04)} =$



2a = 450 mm(major axis) 2b = 250mm(minor axis)

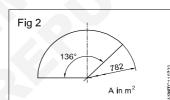
Perimeter of the ellipse

A = ____metre²

A-____inere

Hint A = π x a x b unit²

8

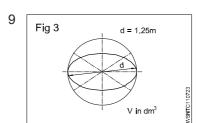


ø = 782 mm

 α = 136°

Area of the sector

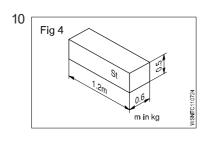
$$Hint A = \frac{\pi x d^2}{4} x \frac{\alpha}{360^{\circ}}$$



d = 1.25 metre

Volume of sphere

Hint V =
$$\frac{4}{3} \pi r^3$$



L = 1.2 metres

B = 0.6 metre

H = 0.5 metre

 $\ '\rho `(rho)\,density\,of\,steel$

 $= 7.85 \text{ kg/dm}^{3'}$

m = ____ kg

(mass 'm = $V \times \rho$)

Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Square and square root

a basic number

2 exponent

 $\sqrt{}$ radial sign indicating the square root.

 $\sqrt{a^2}$ square root of 'a' square

a² radicand

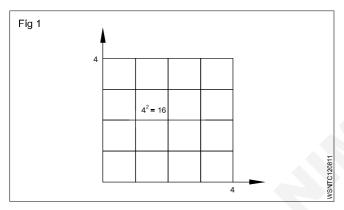
Square number

The square of a number is the number multiplied by itself.

Basic number x basic number = Square number

$$a \times a = a^2$$

 $4 \times 4 = 4^2 = 16$



Splitting up

A square area can be split up into sub-areas. The largest square of 36 is made up of a large square 16, a small square 4 and two rectangles 8 each.

Large square 4 x 4 = 16

a² 2ab

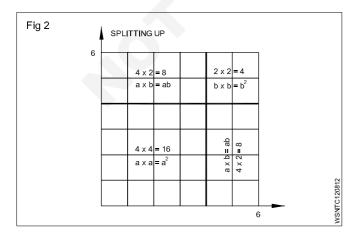
Two rectangles $2 \times 4 \times 2 = 16$

Small square $2 \times 2 = 4$

 b^2

Sum of sub-areas = $36 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$

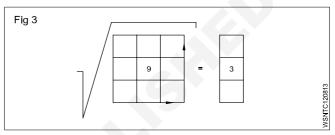
$$\sqrt{36} = \sqrt{a^2 + 2ab + b^2}$$



Result: In order to find the square root, we split up the square numbers.

Extracting the square root procedure

- Starting from the decimal point form groups of two figures towards right and left. Indicate by a prime symbol. $\sqrt{4624.00}$
- Find the root of the first group, calculate the difference, bring down the next group.
- Multiply the root by 2 and divide the partial radicand.
- Enter the number thus calculated in the divisor for the multiplication.

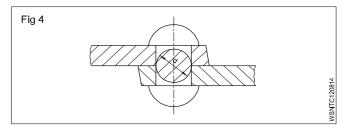


If there is a remainder, repeat the procedure.

Basic number x basic number = Square $\sqrt{\text{Square number}}$ = basic number

Example

The cross-section of a rivet is 3.46 cm². Calculate the diameter of the hole.



Rivet cross-section is the hole cross-section.

To find 'd',

Given that Area = 3.46 cm²

Area = $0.785 \times d^2$ (formula)

 $3.46 \text{ cm}^2 = d^2 \times 0.785$

 $d^2 = \frac{3.46 \text{ cm}^2}{0.785}$

 $d = \sqrt{\frac{3.46}{0.785}}$ cm

d = 2.1 cm (or) 21 mm

Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Simple problems using calculator

1 a $\sqrt{2916} =$ ______.

b
$$\sqrt{45796} =$$
_______.

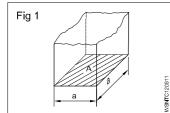
$$c \sqrt{8.2944} =$$
______.

d
$$\sqrt{63.845} =$$
______.

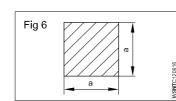
Fig 5

 $A = 807.77 \text{ cm}^2$ d = 140 mmD = _____mm

2



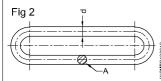
 $A = 2025 \text{ mm}^2$ a = _____mm



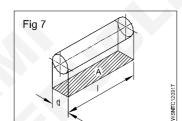
d=140mm A=807,77 sq.cm

 $a \times a = 543169 \text{ mm}^2$

3



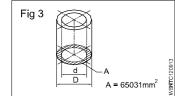
 $A = 176.715 \text{ mm}^2$



d: I = 1:1.5

 $A = 73.5 \text{ mm}^2$

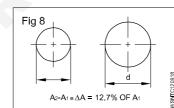
d = _____mm



 $A = 65031 \text{ mm}^2$

d = 140 mm

D= mm

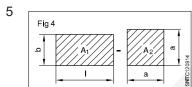


increase in area

A = 12.7%

 $A = 360 \text{ mm}^2$

(d = diameter after the increase in area)



I = 58 cm

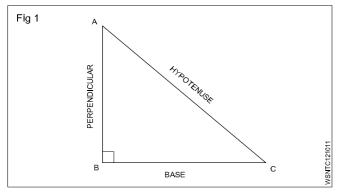
b = 45 cm

 $A_1 = A_2$

Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Applications of pythagoras theorem and related problems

Applications of Pythagoras Theorem

Some of the applications of the Pythagoras theorem are; (Fig 1)



- 1 The Pythagoras theorem is commonly used to find the lengths of sides of a right-angled triangle.
- 2 It is used to find the length of the diagonal of a square.
- 3 Pythagoras theorem is used in trigonometry to find the trigonometric ratios like sin, cos, tan, cosec, sec and cot.
- 4 Pythagoras theorem is used in security cameras for face recognition.
- 5 Architects use the technique of the Pythagoras theorem for engineering and construction fields.
- 6 The Pythagoras theorem is applied in surveying the mountains.
- 7 It is also used in navigation to find the shortest route.
- 8 By using the Pythagoras theorem, we can derive the formula for base, perpendicular and hypotenuse.
- 9 Painters use ladders to paint on high buildings with the help of the Pythagoras theorem.
- 10 Pythagoras theorem is used to calculate the steepness of slopes of hills or mountains.
- 11 The converse of the Pythagoras theorem is used to check whether a triangle is a right triangle or not.

Application of pythagoras theorem in real life

Pythagoras theorem states that

"In a right-angled triangle, the square of the hypotenuse side is equal to the sum of squares of the other two sides".

- 1 The sides of this triangle have been named Perpendicular, Base and Hypotenuse.
- 2 The hypotenuse is the longest side, as it is opposite to the angle 90°.

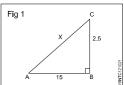
- 3 The sides of a right triangle (say AB, BC and CA) which have positive integer values, when squared, are put into an equation, also called a Pythagorean triplet.
- 4 To calculate the length of staircase required to reach a window
- 5 To find the length of the longest item can be kept in your room.
- 6 To find the steepness of the hills or mountains.
- 7 To find the original height of a tree broken due to heavy rain and lying on itself
- 8 To determine heights and measurements in the construction sites.

Examples

1 What is the side AC if AB = 15 cm, BC = 25 cm.

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

= $15^2 + 25^2$
= $225 + 625 = 850$



AC =
$$\sqrt{850}$$
 = 29.155 cm

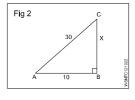
2 What is the side BC if AB = 10 cm, AC = 30 cm.

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

$$30^2 = 10^2 + BC^2$$

$$900 = 100 + BC^2$$

$$BC^2 = 900 - 100 = 800$$



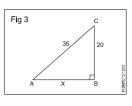
3 What is the side AB if BC = 20 cm, AC = 35 cm.

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

$$35^2 = AB^2 + 20^2$$

$$AB^2 = 1225 - 400 = 825$$

$$AB = 28.72 \text{ cm}$$



4 What is the value of side BC if AB = 8 cm, AC = 24 cm.

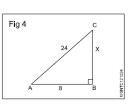
$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

$$24^2 = 8^2 + BC^2$$

$$576 = 64 + BC^2$$

$$BC^2 = 576 - 64 = 512$$

BC =
$$\sqrt{572}$$
 = 22.63 cm

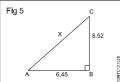


5 What is the value side AC if AB = 6.45 cm, BC = 8.52

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

 $AC^2 = 6.45^2 + 8.52^2$
 $AC^2 = 41.60 + 72.59$

= 114.19



AC =
$$\sqrt{114.19}$$
 = 10.69 cm

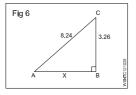
6 What is the value of side AB if BC = 3.26 cm, AC = 8.24 cm.

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

 $8.24^2 = AB^2 + 3.26^2$
 $67.9 = AB + 10.63$

 $AB^2 = 67.9 - 10.63$

= 57.27



AB =
$$\sqrt{57.27}$$
 = 7.57 cm

7 What is the value of side AB if AC = 12.5 cm, BC = 8.5 cm.

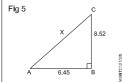
Fig 7

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

$$12.5^2 = AB^2 + 8.5^2$$

$$AB^2 = 156.25 - 72.25$$

AB =
$$\sqrt{84}$$
 = 9.17 cm



against a wall. The lower end being 7.5 metres from the wall. What height is the upper end above the ground.

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$
Fig 8

8 A ladder of 12.5 metre long is placed with upper end

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

$$BC^2 = AC^2 - AB^2$$

$$BC^2 = x^2$$

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

$$12.5^2 = x^2 + 7.5^2$$

$$x^{2} = (12.5)^{2} - (7.5)^{2}$$
$$= (12.5 + 7.5) (12.5 - 7.5)^{2}$$
$$= 20 \times 5$$

$$=\sqrt{100} = 10$$

$$x = 10 \text{ m}$$

9 What is the value of AB.

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

$$AB^2 = AC^2 - BC^2$$

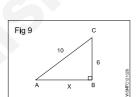
$$AB^2 = x^2$$

$$AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$$

$$10^2 = x^2 + 6^2$$

$$x^2 = 10^2 - 6^2$$

$$x = \sqrt{64}$$



Assignment

- 1 What is the value of side AB, in a right angled triangle of side AC = 10 cm and BC = 5 cm.
- 2 What is the value of side AC, in a right angled triangle of side AB = 6.5 cm and BC = 4.5 cm.
- 3 What is the value of side BC, in a right angled triangle of side AC = 14.5 cm and AB = 10.5 cm.
- 4 What is the value of side AC, in a right angled triangle of side AB = 7 cm and BC = 5 cm.
- 5 What is the value of side BC, in a right angled triangle of side AC = 13.25 cm and AB = 8.75 cm.

Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Ratio and proportion

Ratio

Introduction

It is the relation between two quantities of the same kind and is expressed as a fraction.

Expression

a, b two quantities of the same kind. $\frac{a}{b}$ or a:b or a \div b or a in b is the ratio.

Ratio is always reduced to the lowest terms.

Example

$$7:14 = \frac{7}{14} = \frac{1}{2} = 1:2$$

Proportion

It is the equality between the ratios, a: b is a ratio and c: d is another ratio. Both ratios are equal. Then

a :b :: c : d or
$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$$

Example

Proportion fundamentals

If
$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$$
 then

$$\frac{a}{c} = \frac{b}{d}$$

$$\frac{b}{a} = \frac{d}{c}$$

•
$$\frac{a+b}{b} = \frac{c+d}{c}$$
 and $\frac{a+b}{a} = \frac{c+d}{c}$

•
$$\frac{a-b}{b} = \frac{c-d}{d}$$

•
$$\frac{a+b}{b+d} = \frac{a}{c} = \frac{c}{d}$$

3:4::6:8 or
$$\frac{3}{4} = \frac{6}{8}$$

•
$$3 \times 8 = 6 \times 4$$

$$\frac{3}{6} = \frac{4}{8}$$

$$\frac{4}{3} = \frac{8}{6}$$

$$\frac{3+4}{4} = \frac{6+8}{8}$$

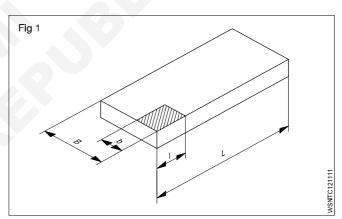
$$\frac{3-4}{4} = \frac{6-8}{8}$$

$$\frac{3+6}{4+8} = \frac{9}{12} = \frac{3}{4}$$

Ratio - relation of two quantities of the same kind. Proportion - equality between two ratios.

Example

• A steel plate of 800 x 1400 mm is to be drawn to a scale of 1:20. What will be the lengths in the Fig 1.

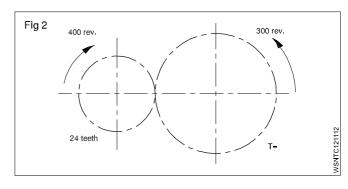


The reduction ratio is $\frac{1}{20}$

B is reduced from 800 to 800 x $\frac{1}{20}$ = 40 mm.

L is reduced from 1400 x $\frac{1}{20}$ = 70 mm.

 Find the number of teeth of the larger gear in the gear transmission shown in the Fig 2.



Speed ratio = 400 : 300

Teeth ratio = 24:T

$$\frac{400}{300} = \frac{T}{24}$$

$$T = \frac{24 \times 400}{300} = 32 \text{ Teeth}$$

Find the ratio of A:B:C

If A:B= 2:3 and B:C=4:5

A:B = 2:3

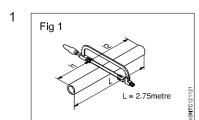
B:C = 4:5

A:B = 8:12 (Ratio 2:3 multiply by 4)

B:C = 12:15 (Ratio 4:5 multiply by 3)

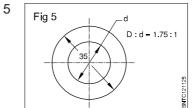
∴ A:B:C = 8:12:15

Assignment



 $I_1: I_2 = 2:3$ L = 2.75 metres $I_1 =$ ____ metres

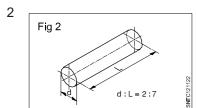
l₂=_____metres



D:d = 1.75:1

D = 35 mm

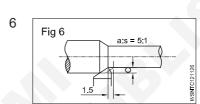
d = mm



d: L of shaft = 2:7

d = 40 mm

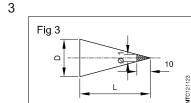
L = _____mm



a:s = 5:1

s = 1.5mm

a =_____mm



D:L=1:10

L=150mm

D=____mm

7 A:B=9:12

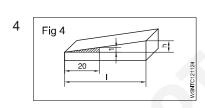
B:C=8:10

Then A:B:C=____

8 A:B=5:6

B:C=3:4

Then A:B:C=____



 $\frac{\Delta h}{I} = \frac{1}{20}$

I = 140 mm

∆h = ____ mm

9 A:55=9:11

A = ____

10 15:9.3=40:x

χ =

Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Ratio and Proportions - Direct and indirect proportions

Proportion

Description

It is the equality between the ratios, a:b is a ratio and c:d is another ratio. Both ratios are equal. Then

a:b::c:d or

e.g. 250: 2000::1:8

Rule of three

A three step calculation

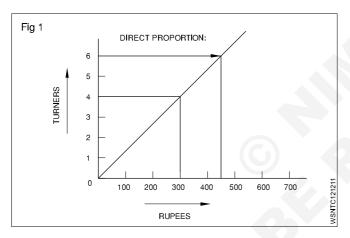
statement

single

multiple.

Direct proportion

The more in one the more in the other - An increase in one denomination produces an increase in the other. (Fig 1)



Examples

1 4 turners earn 300 Rupees. How much will 6 Turners earn?

Statement

4 turners = 300 Rupees

Single

1 Turner = 75 Rupees

Multiple

6 Turners = 6 x 75 = 450 Rupees

2 One vehicle consumes 30 litres of petrol per day how much petrol is used by 6 Vehicles operating under similar condition.

One vehicle uses petrol = 30 litres per day.

Then six vehicles will use = 6 Times as much

 $= 6 \times 30 = 180 \text{ litres/day}.$

3 4 vehicles consumes 120 gallons of petrol per day how much petrol will be used by 12 vehicles operating under the same condition.

4 vehicles use 120 gallons per day

1 Vehicle will use
$$\frac{120}{4}$$
 = 30 gallons/day

12 vehicles will use 12 x 30 = 360 gallons/day

Both examples are called simple proportion because only two quantities were used and the day is common for both ratios.

4 If 2 litres of petrol costs Rs 60. Find the cost of 50 litres.

Quantity of Petrol Cost of Petrol

2 litres Rs.60
50 litres x

1 litre petrol = $\frac{60}{2}$ = Rs.30

50 litres petrol = $30 \times 50 = \text{Rs} \cdot 1500$

5 A 150mm dia gear meshes with 50mm dia gear. If the larger gear has 30 teeth. How many teeth will have the smaller gear have?

Geardia No. of Teeth
150 mm 30
50 mm $x = \frac{50}{150} \times 30 = 10$ teeth.

6 A mechanic assembles 7 machines in 2½ days. How long will it take time to assemble 70 machines at the same rate.

Machines Days

7 $2\frac{1}{2}$ 70 x $x = \frac{70 \times 2.5}{7} = 25 \text{ days}$

Assemble for 70 machines will take 25 days.

7 A roll of wire weighs 1.24 kg from this roll a piece of 3.7cm long is cut and it is found to weigh 2.93 gm. What is the length of the wire in the roll?

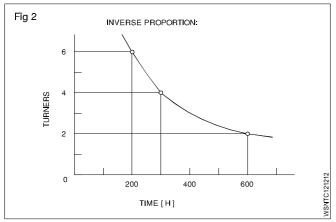
Weight of wire Length of wire 2.93 gm 3.7 cm 1.24 kg (1240 gm) x

$$x = \frac{1240}{2.93} \times 3.7 = 1566 \text{ cm}$$

Length of wire = 1566 cm.

Indirect or inverse proportion

The more in one the lesser other - Increase in one quantity will produce a decrease in the other. (Fig 2)



Example

1 4 turners finish a job in 300 hours. How much time will 6 turners take to do the same job?

Solution procedure in three steps:

Statement 4 turners taken = 300 hours

The time will reduce if 6 turners to do the same job. Therefore this is inverse proportion.

6 Turners = 200 hours

Result - The more the less.

2 8 workman take 6 days to complete a job. How many days it will take for 4 workman to complete the same job?

Vorkman	Days
8	6
4	\boldsymbol{x}
x =	$\frac{8}{4} \times 6 = 12 \text{ days}$

4 workers complete the work = 12 days.

3 5 men working on a job finished it in 32 days. Find out in how many days 8 men will finish the same job?

Men		Da	/S
5		32	2
8		X	
	<u>x</u> =	$\frac{5 \times 32}{8}$	= 4 x 5 = 20 days

8 men will complete the job = 20 days.

4 An engine running at 150 rpm drives a shaft by pulley diameter is 55cm and that of the driven shaft pulley is 33 cm. Find the speed of the shaft?

Dia of pulley	Rpm of shaft
55 cm	150
33 cm	x
<i>x</i> =	$\frac{55 \times 150}{33}$ = 250 rpm.

Speed of the 33cm diameter will run 250 rpm.

5 A pulley of 80 cm diameter is rotating at 100 rpm and drives another pulley of 40 cm diameter. Find the rpm of driven pulley. If slip is 2.5% find the rpm?

Dia of pulley	Rpm of pulley
80 cm	100
40 cm	x
40 cm diameter	= 200 rpm.
Slip is 2.5%	= 195 rpm.

Problems involving both

Example

2 turners need 3 days to produce 20 pieces. How long will it take for 6 turners to produce 30 such pieces?

Statement

2 turners, 20 pieces = 3 days

6 turners, 30 pieces = how many days.

First step (Fig 3)

Statement 2 turners for 20 pieces = 3 days

1 turner for 20 pieces = $3 \times 2 = 6$ days

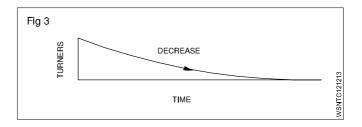
Multiple 6 turners for 20 pieces =
$$\frac{6}{6}$$
 = 1 day

Statement 6 turners for 20 pieces = 1 day

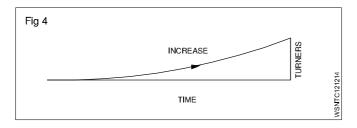
Single 6 turners for 1 piece =
$$\frac{1}{20}$$
 days

Multiple 6 turners for 30 pieces =
$$\frac{1}{20}$$
 x 30 = 1.5 days

Inverse proportion - More the less.



Second step (Fig 4)



Direct proportion - More the more.

Solve the problem by first writing the statement and proceed to single and then to the multiple according to the type of proportion that is involved.

Introduction

Proportional fundamentals, as applicable to motor vehicle calculations are discussed below.

Simple Proportion

Proportion

This is an equality between two ratios

Compound and Inverse proportions

Compound proportions

Example

5 Fitter take 21 days to complete overhauling of 6 vehicles how long 7 Fitters will take to over haul 8 vehicles (Assume time of overhauling each vehicle is constant)

In this both direct and indirect proportions are used.

- 1 Fitter will overhauling 1 vehicle in days (shorter
- Quantities (No. of days) are taken in last as that is the answer required in this case.

Fitters	Vehicle	Days
5	6	21
7	8	x

$$\left(\frac{21\times5}{6\times7}\times8\right) = 20 \text{ days}$$

Ans: 7 Fitters will overhaul 8 vehicles in 20 days.

Inverse proportion

Some times proportions are taken inversely.

Examples

If one water pump fills the fuel tank in 12 minutes, two pumps will take half the time taken.

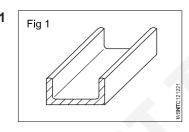
The time should not be doubled.

2 pumps will take 30 minutes to fill up a tank how long will 6 similar pumps take this to fill this tank.

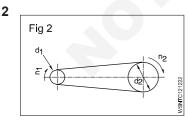
ump	Time
2	30
6	x

Ans: Time taken by 6 pumps = $\frac{30 \times 2}{6}$ = 10 minutes

Assignment

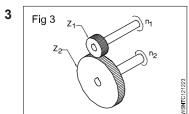


Length = 6.1 metre Weight = 32 kgf Weight of 1 metre of the same channel kaf

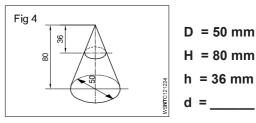


d, = 120 mm $d_{a} = 720 \text{ mm}$

n₁ = 1200 rpm



 $Z_{1} = 42 \text{ T}$ $n_2 = 96 \text{ rpm}$ $n_{1} = 224 \text{ rpm}$ **Z**₂ = _____ **T**



h = 36 mm

- 5 If a mechanic assembles 8 machines in 3 days, how long he will take to assemble 60 machines.
- 6 In an auto shop the grinding wheel makes 1000 rpm and the driven pulley is 200 mm dia. If the driving pulley is 150 mm dia. Find out the rpm of the driving pulley.
- 7 In a gearing of a vehicle the following facts are found.

A 180 mm dia of gear meshes with 60 mm dia gear. If the bigger gear makes 60 rpm. What will be the rpm of smaller gear.

8 A vehicular job is completed by 5 mechanics in 4 days. If only 3 mechanics are available, in how many days the work can be completed.

Exercise 1.2.13

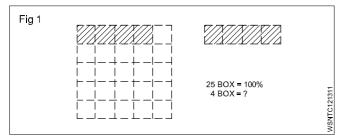
Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Percentage

Percentage

Percentage is a kind of fraction whose denominator is always 100. The symbol for percent is %, written after the number. e.g. 16%.

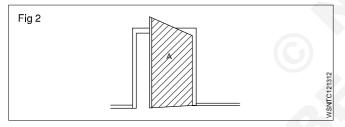
Ex.
$$\frac{16}{100} = 0.16$$

In decimal form, it is 0.16. Percentage calculation also involves rule of three. The statement (the given data), for unit, and then to multiple which is for calculating the answer. (Fig 1)



Example

The amount of total raw sheet metal to make a door was 3.6 metre² and wastage was 0.18 metre². Calculate the % of wastage. (Fig 2)



Solution procedure in three steps.

Statement:

Area of door (A) = $3.6 \text{ m}^2 = 100 \%$.

Wastage = 0.18 m²

Single: $\frac{100}{3.6}$ x 1 m²

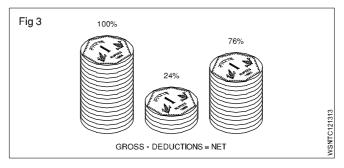
Multiple: for 0.18 m²= $\frac{100}{3.6}$ x 0.18. Wastage = 5%.

Analyse the given data and proceed to arrive at the answer through the unit.

Example

A fitter receives a take-home salary of 984.50 rupees.

If the deduction amounts to 24%, what is his total salary? (Fig 3)



Total pay 100%

Deduction 24%

Take home salary 76%

If the take home pay is Rs.76, his salary is 100.

For 1% it is
$$\frac{1}{76}$$

For Rs.984.50, it is
$$\frac{1}{76}$$
 x 984.50.

For 100% it is
$$\frac{984.50}{76}$$
 X100 = 1295.39

100% i.e. gross pay = Rs.1295.40.

Example 1

75 litres of oil is taken out from a oil barrel of 200 litres capacity. Find out the percentage taken in this.

Solution

% of oil taken = Oil taken out (litres) / Capacity of Barrel (litres) x 100

$$=\frac{75}{200} \times 100 = 37\frac{1}{2}\%$$

Example 2

A spare part is sold with 15%. Profit to a customer, to a price of Rs.15000/-. Find out the following (a) What is the purchase price (b) What is the profit.

Solution: CP = x,

CP = cost price

SP = sale price

SP=CP+15%of CP

$$15000 = x + \frac{15 x}{100} = \frac{100 x + 15 x}{100}$$

$$x = \frac{1500000}{115} = 13043.47$$

Profit = SP-CP = 15000-13043.47 = 1956.53

Purchase price = Rs.13,043/,Profit = Rs. 1957

Example 3

Out of 80000 cars, which were tested on road, only 16000 cars had no fault. What is the percentage in this acceptance.

$$= \frac{16000}{80000} \times 100 = \frac{100}{5} = 20\%$$

Example 4

The price of a motor cycle dropped to 92% of original price and now sold at Rs.18000/- What was the original price.

Solution

Present price of Motor cycle Rs.18000

This is the value of 92% of original price

Original Price =
$$18000 \times \frac{100}{92} = \frac{1800000}{92}$$

= Rs.19565

Example 5

A Motor vehicle uses 100 litres of Petrol per day when travelling at 30 kmph. After top overhauling the consumption falls to 90 litres per day. Calculate percentage of saving.

Percentage of saving = Decrease in consumption/Original consumption x 100

$$=(100-90)\frac{\text{litres}}{100} \times 100$$

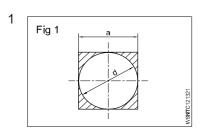
$$=\frac{10}{100} \times 100$$

Fig 7

Fig 8

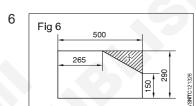
= 10% Saving in fuel.

Assignment



a = 400mm (side of square)

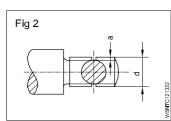
$$d = 400 \, \text{mm}$$



Shaded portion

Compression length =

2



d = 26mm

'a' depth of u/cut =

2.4mm

reduction of area at cross-section



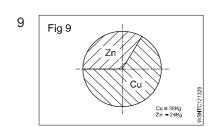
Percentage of increase

= 36%

Value of increase = 611.2 N/mm²

Original tensile strength

= N/mm².



Cu = 36 Kg

d = 360 mm

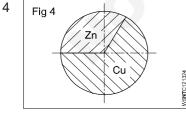
 $a = 0.707 \times d$

Wastage = %.

Zn = 24 Kg

Cu = %

Zn = _____%



Copper in alloy = 27 kg Zinc in alloy = 18 kg

% of Copper

% of Zinc = %.

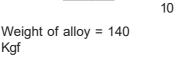
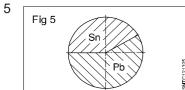


Fig 10

Cu = 42.3 Kg

Sn = 2.7 Kg



Weight of Sn 40% Pb = ____ Kgf

Exercise 1.2.14

Square root, Ratio and Proportions, Percentage - Changing percentage to decimal and fraction

Conversion of Fraction into Percentage

1 Convert $\frac{1}{2}$ into percentage.

Solution:
$$\frac{1}{2} \times 100$$

= 50%

2 Convert $\frac{1}{11}$ into percentage

Solution:
$$\frac{1}{11} \times 100 = \frac{100}{11}$$

= 9.01%

Convert the following fraction into percentage.

- $1 \frac{1}{4}$
- $2\frac{2}{5}$
- $3 \frac{2}{3}$
- $4 = \frac{3}{8}$

Conversion of Percentage into Fraction

1 Convert 24% into fraction.

Solution:
$$\frac{24}{100} = \frac{6}{25}$$

2 Convert $33\frac{1}{3}$ % into fraction.

Solution:
$$\frac{33\frac{1}{3}}{100} = \frac{\frac{100}{3}}{100} = \frac{100}{3} \times \frac{1}{100}$$
$$= \frac{1}{3}$$

Convert the following percentage into fraction

- 1 15%
- $2 87\frac{1}{2}\%$
- 3 80%
- 4 12.5%

Conversion of Decimal Fraction into Percentage

1 Convert 0.35 into percentage.

2 Convert 0.375 into percentage.

Convert the following Decimal Fraction into Percentage

- 1 0.2
- 2 0.004
- 3 0.875
- 4 0.052

Conversion of Percentage into Decimal fraction

1 Convert 30% into decimal fraction.

Solution:
$$\frac{30}{100} = 0.3$$

2 Convert $33\frac{1}{3}\%$ into decimal fraction.

Solution:
$$\frac{33\frac{1}{3}}{100} = \frac{\frac{100}{3}}{100} = \frac{100}{3} \times \frac{1}{100}$$

$$=\frac{1}{3}=0.333$$

Convert the following percentage into decimal fraction

- 1 15%
- 2 7%
- $3 12\frac{1}{2}\%$
- 4 90%

Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics Exercise 1.3.15

Material science - Types of metal, types of ferrous and non ferrous metals

Types of metals

The metals is of two types:

- 1 Ferrous metal
- 2 Non-ferrous metal
- 1 Ferrous metals: The metals that contains major part of iron and contain carbon are called ferrous metals such as pig iron, mild steel, nickel etc., they have iron properties such as rusting, magnetisations etc.
- 2 Non-ferrous metals: The metals that do not contains iron or carbon and do not have the property of iron are called non-ferrous metals such as copper, aluminum etc.

Ferrous and Non ferrous alloys

Alloying metals and ferrous alloys

An alloy is formed by mixing two or more metals together by melting.

For ferrous metals and alloys, iron is the main constituent metal. Depending on the type and percentage of the alloying metal added, the property of the alloy steel will vary.

Metals commonly used for making alloy steels

Nickel (Ni)

This is a hard metal and is resistant to many types of corrosion rust.

It is used in industrial applications like nickel, cadmium batteries, boilertubes, valves of internal combustion engines, engine spark plugs etc. The melting point of nickel is 1450°C. Nickel can be magnetised. In the manufacture of permanent magnets a special nickel steel alloy is used. Nickel is also used for electroplating. Invar steel contains about 36% nickel. It is tough and corrosion resistant. Precision instruments are made of Invar steel because it has the least coefficient of expansion.

Nickel-steel alloys are available containing nickel from 2% to 50%.

Chromium (Cr)

Chromium, when added to steel, improves the corrosion resistance, toughness and hardenability of steel. Chromium steels are available which may contain chromium up to 30%.

Chromium, nickel, tungsten and molybdenum are alloyed for making automobile components and cutting tools.

Chromium is also used for electroplating components. Cylinder liners are chrome-plated inside so as to have wear resistance properties. Stainless steel contains about 13% chromium. Chromium-nickel steel is used for bearings. Chrome-vanadium steel is used for making hand tools like spanners and wrenches.

Manganese (Mn)

Addition of manganese to steel increases hardness and strength but decreases the cooling rate.

Manganese steel can be used to harden the outer surface for providing a wear resisting surface with a tough core. Manganese steel containing about 14% manganese is used for making agricultural equipment like ploughs and blades.

Silicon (Si)

Addition of silicon for alloying with steel improves resistance to high temperature oxidation.

This also improves elasticity, and resistance against corrosion. Silicon alloyed steels are used in manufacturing springs and certain types of steel, due to its resistance to corrosion. Cast iron contains silicon about 2.5%. It helps in the formation of free graphite which promotes the machinability of cast iron.

Tungsten (W)

The melting temperature of tungsten is 3380° C. This can be drawn into thin wires.

Due to this reason it is used to make filaments of electric lamps.

Tungsten is used as an alloying metal for the production of high speed cutting tools. High speed steel is an alloy of 18% tungsten, 4% chromium and 1% vanadium.

Stellite is an alloy of 30% chromium, 20% tungsten, 1 to 4% carbon and the balance cobalt.

Vanadium (Va)

This improves the toughness of steel. Vanadium steel is used in the manufacture of gears, tools etc. Vanadium helps in providing a fine grain structure in tool steels.

Chrome-vanadium steel contains 0.5% to 1.5% chromium, 0.15% to 0.3% vanadium, 0.13% to 1.10% carbon.

This alloy has high tensile strength, elastic limit and ductility. It is used in the manufacture of springs, gears, shafts and drop forged components.

Vanadium high speed steel contains 0.70% carbon and about 10% vanadium. This is considered as a superior high speed steel.

Cobalt (Co)

The melting point of cobalt is 1495°C. This can retain magnetic properties and wear- resistance at very high temperatures. Cobalt is used in the manufacture of magnets, ball bearings, cutting tools etc. Cobalt high speed steel (sometimes known as super H.S.S.) contains about 5 to 8% cobalt. This has better hardness and wear resistance properties than the 18% tungsten H.S.S.

Molybdenum (Mo)

The melting point of molybdenum is 2620°C. This gives high resistance against softening when heated. Molybdenum high speed steel contains 6% of molybdenum, 6% tungsten, 4% chromium and 2% vanadium. This high speed steel is very tough and has good cutting ability.

Cadmium (cd)

The melting point of cadmium is 320°C. This is used for coating steel components.

Alloying Metals and Non Ferrous Alloys

Non-ferrous Metals And Alloys

Copper and its alloys

Metals without iron are called non-ferrous metals. Eg. Copper, Aluminium, Zinc, Lead and Tin.

Copper

This is extracted from its ores 'MALACHITE' which contains about 55% copper and 'PYRITES' which contains about 32% copper.

Properties

Reddish in colour. Copper is easily distinguishable because of its colour.

The structure when fractured is granular, but when forged or rolled it is fibrous.

It is very malleable and ductile and can be made into sheets or wires.

It is a good conductor of electricity. Copper is extensively used as electrical cables and parts of electrical apparatus which conduct electric current.

Copper is a good conductor of heat and also highly resistant to corrosion. For this reason it is used for boiler fire boxes, water heating apparatus, water pipes and vessels in brewery and chemical plants. Also used for making soldering iron.

The melting temperature of copper is 1083° C.

The tensile strength of copper can be increased by hammering or rolling.

Copper Alloys

Brass

It is an alloy of copper and zinc. For certain types of brass small quantities of tin or lead are added. The colour of brass depends on the percentage of the alloying elements. The colour is yellow or light yellow, or nearly white. It can be easily machined. Brass is also corrosion-resistant.

Brass is widely used for making motor carradiator core and water taps etc. It is also used in gas welding for hard soldering/brazing. The melting point of brass ranges from $880 \text{ to } 930^{\circ}\text{C}$.

Brasses of different composition are made for various applications.

Bronze

Bronze is basically an alloy of copper and tin. Sometimes zinc is also added for achieving certain special properties. Its colour ranges from red to yellow. The melting point of bronze is about 1005°C. It is harder than brass. It can be easily machined with sharp tools. The chip produced is granular. Special bronze alloys are used as brazing rods.

Bronze of different compositions are available for various applications.

Lead and its alloys

Lead is a very commonly used non-ferrous metal and has a variety of industrial applications.

Lead is produced from its ore 'GALENA'. Lead is a heavy metal that is silvery in colour when molten. It is soft and malleable and has good resistance to corrosion. It is a good insulator against nuclear radiation. Lead is resistant to many acids like sulphuric acid and hydrochloric acid.

It is used in car batteries, in the preparation of solders etc. It is also used in the preparation of paints.

Lead Alloys

Babbitt metal

Babbitt metal is an alloy of lead, tin, copper and antimony. It is a soft, anti-friction alloy, often used as bearings.

An alloy of lead and tin is used as 'soft solder'.

Zinc and its alloys

Zinc is a commonly used metal for coating on steel to prevent corrosion. Examples are steel buckets, galvanized roofing sheets, etc.

Zinc is obtained from the ore-calamine or blende.

Its melting point is 420° C.

It is brittle and softens on heating; it is also corrosionresistant. Due to this reason it is used for battery containers and is coated on roofing sheets etc.

Galvanized iron sheets are coated with zinc.

Tin and tin alloys

Tin

Tin is produced from cassiterite or tinstone. It is silvery white in appearance, and the melting point is 231° C. It is soft and highly corrosion-resistant.

It is mainly used as a coating on steel sheets for the production of food containers. It is also used with other metals, to form alloys.

Example: Tin with copper to form bronze. Tin with lead to form solder. Tin with copper, lead and antimony to form Babbitt metal.

Aluminium

Aluminium is a non-ferrous metal which is extracted from 'BAUXITE'. Aluminium is white or whitish grey in colour. It has a melting point of 660° C. Aluminium has high electrical and thermal conductivity. It is soft and ductile, and has low tensile strength. Aluminium is very widely used in aircraft industry and fabrication work because of its lightness. Its application in the electrical industry is also on the increase. It is also very much in use in household heating appliances.

Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics Exercise 1.3.16

Material science - Introduction of iron and cast iron

Ferrous Metals

Metals which contain iron as a major content are called ferrous metals. Ferrous metals of different properties are used for various purposes.

Introduction of Iron, Cast Iron, wrought Iron and steel

The ferrous metals and alloys used commonly are:

- · Pig-iron
- Cast Iron
- Wrought Iron
- · Steels and Alloy steels

Different processes are used to produce iron and steel.

Pig-iron (Manufacturing process)

Pig-iron is obtained by the chemical reduction of iron ore. This process of reduction of the iron ore to Pig-iron is known as SMELTING.

The main raw materials required for producing Pig-iron are:

- Iron ore
- Coke
- Flux

Iron ore

The chief iron ores used are:

- · magnetite
- · hematite
- limonite
- · carbonite.

These ores contain iron in different proportions and are naturally available.

Coke

Coke is the fuel used to give the necessary heat to carry on the reducing action. The carbon from the coke in the form of carbon monoxide combines with the iron ore to reduce it to iron.

Flux

This is the mineral substance charged into a blast furnace to lower the melting point of the ore, and it combines with the non-metallic portion of the ore to form a molten slag.

Limestone is the most commonly used flux in the blast furnace.

Properties and use of Pig-iron

Pig-iron is, therefore, refined and remelted and used to produce other varieties of iron and steel.

Cast Iron (Manufacturing process)

The pig-iron which is tapped from the blast furnace is the crude form of raw material for the cupola, and should be further refined for making castings. This refining is carried out in the cupola furnace which is a small form of a blast furnace.

Generally cupolas are not worked continuously like blast furnaces but are run only as and when required.

Cast Iron (Types)

Cast iron is an alloy of iron, carbon and silicon. The carbon content ranges from 2 to 4%.

Types of cast iron

The following are the types of cast iron.

- Grey cast iron
- White cast iron
- Malleable cast iron
- Nodular cast iron

Grey cast iron

This is widely used for the casting of machinery parts and can be machined easily.

Machine base, tables, slideways are made of cast iron because it is dimensionally stable after a period of aging.

Because of its graphite content, cast iron provides an excellent bearing and sliding surface.

The melting point is lower than that of steel and as grey cast iron possesses good fluidity, intricate casting can be made.

Grey cast iron is widely used for machine tools because of its ability to reduce vibration and minimize tool chatter.

Grey cast iron, when not alloyed, is quite brittle and has relatively low tensile strength. Due to this reason it is not used for making components subjected to high stress or impact loads.

Grey cast iron is often alloyed with nickel, chromium, vanadium or copper to make it tough.

Grey cast iron is weldable but the base metal needs preheating.

White cast iron

This is very hard and is very difficult to machine, and for this reason, it is used in components which should be abrasion-resistant.

White cast iron is produced by lowering the silicon content and by rapid cooling. When cooled in this manner, it is called chilled cast iron.

White cast iron cannot be welded.

Malleable cast iron

Malleable cast iron has increased ductility, tensile strength and toughness when compared with grey cast iron.

Malleable cast iron is produced from white cast iron by a prolonged heat-treatment process lasting for about 30 hours.

Nodular cast iron

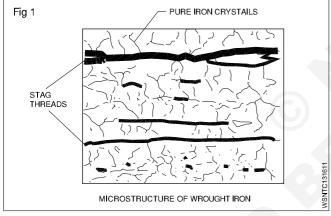
This is very similar to malleable cast iron. But this is produced without any heat treatment. Nodular cast iron is also known as: **Nodular Iron - Ductile Iron - Spheroidal Graphite Iron**

This has good machinability, castability, resistance to wear, low melting point and hardness.

Malleable and nodular castings are used for machine parts where there is a higher tensile stress and moderate impact loading. These castings are less expensive and are an alternative to steel castings.

Wrought Iron (Manufacturing process) (Fig 1)

Wrought iron is the purest form of iron. The analysis of Wrought iron shows as much as 99.9% of iron. (Fig 1) When heated, wrought iron does not melt, but only becomes pasty and in this form it can be forged to any shape.



Modern methods used to produce wrought iron in large quantities are the

- puddling process
- aston or Byers process

Steel

This is pure iron. Carbon content is more. Due to excessive carbon it is harder and tougher. Carbon content is from 0.15 to 1.5%. Besides there are other impurities like sulphur, phosphorous etc. are there which cannot be separated. This is hardened and tempered by heating it to a definite temperature and cooling it in oil or water.

The following methods are adopted for making different types of steel:

1 Cementation process 2 Crucible process

3 Bessemer process 4 Open hearth process

5 Electro thermo process 6 High frequency process.

Types of steel

Main two types of steel are:

- 1 Plain steel
- 2 Alloy steel
- 1 Plain steel. In this carbon and iron are mixed. According to the percentage of carbon plain steels are classified as:
 - A Low carbon steel
 - B Medium carbon steel
 - C High carbon steel
 - A Low carbon steel: It is also called mild steel. In this. the percentage of carbon is from 0.15%to0.25%. Due to less quantity of carbon is sufficiently soft and tolerates the strain. It can be put in different shapes through forging and rolling. This is not very hard or strong. This cannot be hardened or tempered by ordinary methods. Nuts, bolts, rivets, sheets, wires, T-iron and angle iron etc. are made out of it.
 - B Medium carbon steel: The carbon content is from 0.25% to 0.5%. Due to excess of carbon, it is harder and tougher than mild steel. The tenacity is more. This can be hardened or tempered. Various things are made by forging and rolling. This is used for making high tensile tubes, wires, agricultural implements, connecting rods, cam shafts, spanners, pulleys etc.
 - C High carbon steel: It has carbon content from 0.5% to 1.5%. It is very hard and wears least. This can be hardened by heat treatment. This can neither be cast nor rolled. This is very hard and tough. It acquires permanent magnetic properties. This is used for making pointed tools, springs, pumps, files, cutleries, cold chisels press die etc.

2 Alloy Steel

When the steel is mixed with other metals like vinoleum, manganese tungsten etc., it is called an alloy steel. Alloy steel has properties of its ingredients.

Types of Alloy Steel

Two types of alloy steel are:

- A Low alloy steel
- B High alloy steel
- A Low Alloy steel: Besides carbon other metals are in lesser quantity. Its tensile strength is more. The welding can work on it. This can also be hardened and tempered. It is used in manufacturing various parts of an aeroplane and cam shaft etc.
- **B** High Alloy Steel: Besides carbon it has a high percentage of the metals higher than low steel alloy. This is classified into following types:

- a High Speed Steel: It is also called high tungsten alloy steel because it has more quantity of tungsten. According to the quantity of tungsten it is classified into three types:
 - 1 Tungsten 22%, Chromium 4%, Vanadium 1%
 - 2 Tungsten 18%, Chromium 4%, Vanadium 1%
 - 3 Tungsten 14%, Chromium 4%, Vanadium 1%

Cutting tools are made out of it because it is very hard but becomes soft at low critical temperature. This temperature is raised out of cutting process of tool, then the cutting tool becomes useless and is unfit for work. But due to high percentage of tungsten it keeps working upto high temperature. It is used for cutting tools, drills, cutters, reamers, hacksaw blades etc.

- b Nickel Steel: In this 0.3% carbon and 0.25 to 0.35% nickel is present. Due to nickel its tensile strength, elastic limit and hardness is increased. It does not catch rust. Its cutting resistance increases 6 times more than plain carbon and steel due to 0.35% nickel present in it. This is used for making rivets, pipes, axle shafting, parts of buses and aeroplanes. If 5% of cobalt is mixed with 30-35% nickel, it becomes invar steel. It is mainly used for making precious instruments.
- c Vanadium Steel: It contains 1.5% carbon 12.5% tungsten, 4.5% chromium, 5% vanadium and 5% cobalt. Its elastic limit, tensile strength and ductility is more. It has strength to bear sharp jerks. It is mainly used to manufacture of tools.
- **d Manganese Steel:** It is also called special high alloy steel. It contains 1.6 to 1.9% of manganese

- and 0.4 to 0.5% carbon. It is hard and less wear. It is not affected by magnet. It is used in grinders and rail points etc.
- e Stainless Steel: Along with iron it contains 0.2 to 90.6% carbon, 12 to 18% chromium, 8% nickel and 2% molybdenum. It is used for making knives, scissors, utensils, parts of aeroplane, wires, pipes and gears etc.

Properties of stainless steel:

- 1 Higher corrosion resistance
- 2 Higher cryogenic toughness
- 3 Higher work hardening rate
- 4 Higher hot strength
- 5 Higher ductility
- 6 Higher strength and hardness
- 7 More attractive appearance
- 8 Lowermaintenance
- f Silicon Steel: It contains 14% of silicon. Its uses are multifarious according to the percentage of silicon. 0.5% to 1% silicon, 0.7 to 0.95% manganese mixture is used for construction work. 2.5 to 4% silicon content mixture is used for manufacturing electric motors, generators, laminations of transformers. In chemical industries 14% silicon content mixture is used.
- **g Cobalt Steel:** High carbon steel contains 5 to 35% cobalt. Toughness and tenacity is high. It has magnetic property therefore used to make permanent magnets.

Exercise 1.4.17

Mass, Weight, Volume and Density - Mass, volume, density, weight and specific gravity

Mass

Mass of a body is the quantity of matter contained in a body. The unit of mass in F.P.S system is pound (lb), in C.G.S. system gram (gr) and in M.K.S and S.I systems kilogram (kg). 1ton which is $1000\,\mathrm{kg}$ is also used sometimes. The conversion factor is 1000. Three decimal places are shifted during conversion.E.g.1 ton = $1000\,\mathrm{kg}$ 1g = $1000\,\mathrm{mg}$.

m - mass of a body

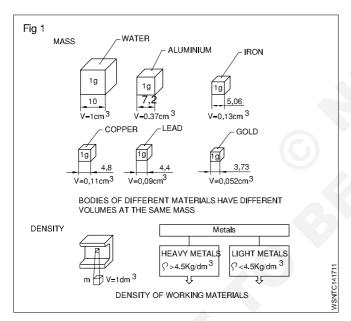
g - acceleration due to gravity in metre/sec² = 9.81 m/ sec²

V - volume of the body

 ρ - density (pronounced as `rho')

W or FG - weight or weight force

Mass (Fig 1)



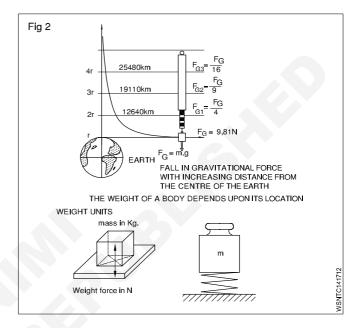
Density

Density is the mass of a body per unit volume. Hence its unit will be gr/cm³ or kg/dm³ or ton/m³.

Density =
$$\frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}} = \frac{\text{m}}{\text{v}} = \rho$$

Weight (Fig 2)

Weight is the force with which a body is attracted by the earth towards its centre. It is the product of the mass of the body and the acceleration due to gravity. The weight of a body depends upon its location.



weight = W or FG = mass x gravitational force = m x g

System	Absolute unit	Derived unit	Conversion
F.P.S. system	1 poundal	1 Lb wt	32.2 poundals (1 lb x 1 ft/sec ² = 1 pound)
C.G.S. system	1 dyne 1 gr x 1 cm/sec²	1 Gr.wt	981 dynes
M.K.S.	Newton	1 kg.wt	1 Newton =
S.I.system	Newton	Newton	1 kg x 1 m/sec ²

1 kg.wt = 9.81 Newton 1 Newton = 10⁵ dynes. (approximately 10N)

Difference between mass and weight

C Na	No. More Weight		
S. No	Mass	Weight	
1	Mass is the quantity of matter in a body (ie) measurement of matter in a body	Weight is measure of amount of force acting on mass due to acceleration due to gravity	
2	It does not depend on the position or space	It depends on the position, location and space	
3	Mass of an object will not be zero	Weight of an object will be zero if gravity is absent	
4	It is measured using by physical balance	It is measured using by spring balance	
5	It is a scalar quantity	It is a vector quantity	
6	When immersed in water mass does not change	When immersed in water weight will change	
7	The unit is in grams and kilogram	The unit is in kilogram weight, a unit of force	

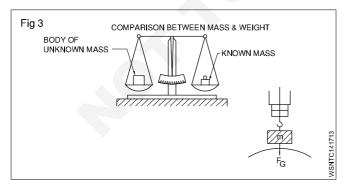
Mass and weight are different quantities.

Mass of a body is equal to volume x density.

Weight force is equal to mass x acceleration due to gravity.

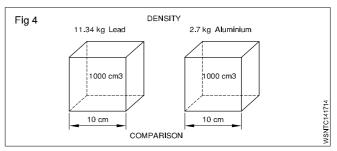
Weight, Density and Specific gravity

It is now seen that the mass of a substance is measured by its weight only without any reference to volume. But if equal weights of lead & aluminium, are compared the volume of lead is much smaller than volume of aluminium. So we can now say that lead is more dense than aluminium, i.e In other words the density of lead is greater than aluminium. (Fig 3 & 4)



The relation of mass and volume is called density.

The density expresses the mass of volume E.g. 1 dm^3 of water has the mass of 1 kg - thus the density of 1kg/dm^3 (Fig 2)



Unit

The density is measured as below

MKS/SI= Kg/m³, CGS = 1 gm/cm³ FPS = lbs/c ft

	Solids	gm/cc	Liquids	gm/cc
1	Aluminum	2.7	Water	1.00
2	Lead	11.34	Petrol	0.71
3	Cast iron	6.8 to 7.8	Oxygen	1.43
4	Steel	7.75 to 8.05	Diesel Oil	0.83

The specific gravity of a substance is also called its relative density.

Formula

Specific gravity (or) Relative density = $\frac{\text{Density of the substance}}{\text{Density of the water at } 4^{\circ}\text{C}}$

= Mass of any volume of a substance

Mass of an equal volume of water at 4°C

Comparison Between Density And Specific Gravity (Relative Density)

Density	Relative density or Specfic gravity
Mass per unit volume of a substance is called its density	The density of substance to density of water at 4°C is its relative density
Its unit is gm per cu cm; Ibs per cu.ft and kg/cubic meter	It has no unit of measure- ment simply expressed in a number
Density = Mass Volume	Relative density
	$= \frac{\text{Densityof the substance}}{\text{Densityof water at } 4^{\circ}\text{C}}$

	Solids	Sp.gy	Liquids	Sp.gy
1	Aluminium	2.72	Petrol	0.71
2	Lead	11.34	Battery acid	1.2 to 1.23
3	Cast iron	6.8 to 7.8	Water	1.00
4	Steel	7.82	Diesel Oil	0.83

From the above table, we can calculate the weight of any given volume of a substance (say Diesel oil) in any units provided we know the specific gravity of the substance. Also vice-versa for volume of density is known.

Exercise 1.5.18

Speed and Velocity, Work, Power and Energy - Speed and velocity - Rest, motion, speed, velocity, difference between speed and velocity, acceleration and retardation

Body at rest

When a body does not change its position, with respect to its surroundings, it is said to be at rest.

Body at motion

When a body changes its position, with respect to its surroundings, it is said to be in motion. The motion may be linear if the body moves in a straight line or it may be circular when it moves in a curved path.

Terms relating to motion

Displacement

When a body is in motion from one place to another, the displacement is the distance from the starting position to the final position.

Speed

It is the rate of change of displacement of a body in motion. It has got no direction and it is a scalar quantity.

Speed = distance travelled per unit time $\frac{s}{t} = \frac{\text{(Distance)}}{\text{Time}}$

Unit = m/s, km/Hr.mile/Hr.

Velocity

It is the rate of change of displacement of a body in motion in a given direction. It is a vector quantity and can be represented both in magnitude and direction by a straight line. Velocity may be linear or angular. The unit of linear velocity is metre/sec.

Velocity =
$$\frac{S}{+} = \frac{Displacement}{Time}$$

Unit = m/s, km/Hr, mile/Hr.

Difference between speed & velocity

Speed	Velocity
The rate of change of place of an object is its speed.	The speed in a definite direction is called velocity.
In the speed, direction is not indicated. Only the magnitude is expressed.	Both the magnitude and direction are expressed.
Speed = Distance covered Time	Velocity = Distance in definite direction Time

Acceleration

Rate of change of velocity is known as acceleration or it is the change of velocity in unit time. Its unit is metre/sec². It is a vector quantity.

$$a = \frac{\text{change in velocity}}{\text{Time}} \text{ m/sec}^2$$

unit = m/s² (metre per square second)

u = Initial velocity in metre per second(m/sec)

v = Final velocity in metre per second(m/sec)

s = Distance in metre (m)

t = Time in second (sec)

a = Acceleration m/sec² (positive value)

R = Retardation m/sec² (negative value of acceleration)

Equations of motion

Then v = u + at

$$s = ut + \frac{1}{2} at^2 \text{ and } v^2 - u^2 = 2as$$

 $v^2 = u^2 + 2as$

Retardation

When the body has its initial velocity lesser than its final velocity it is said to be in acceleration. When the final velocity is lesser than the initial velocity the body is said to be in retardation. Then the three equation of motion will be

$$v = u - at$$

$$s = ut - at^2$$

$$u^2 - v^2 = 2as$$

Average speed

Vm - Average speed in metre/min, (metre/sec)

n - Revolutions per minute or number of strokes per minute

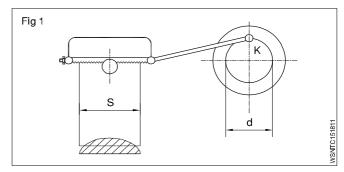
s - Distance travelled, length of stroke.

Stroke speed (Fig 1)

For one revolution of the point k, of the crank pin the distance the power saw blade moves = $2 \times s$

Therefore 'n' revolutions in a minute the distance = $2 \times x$ n. Since the stroke of the blade will be given in metre to determine the average speed

$$Vm = 2 \times s \times n$$

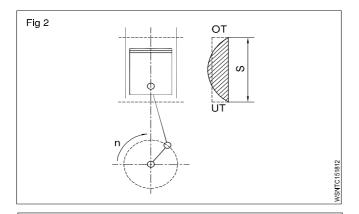


Piston speed (Fig 2)

As the piston moves backward and forward, its speed constantly changes between the upper and lower dead

centres. Hence in this case also the average speed $Vm = 2 \times s \times n$. Since s is expressed in mm and n in number of revolutions/per minute and since Vm is given in metre/sec, we have

$$Vm = 2 \times s \times \frac{n}{1000} \text{ metre/min.}$$
$$= \frac{2xsxn}{1000x60} \text{m/sec}$$



If s is given in metres then

$$Vm = 2 \times x \times \frac{n}{60} = x \times \frac{n}{60} \text{ metre/sec.}$$

2 x s denotes a double stroke.

In case of the reciprocating motion the average speed is taken into account for calculations.

Vm = 2 x s x n metre/min if s is given in metres

Example (Fig 3)

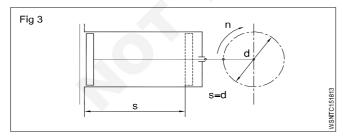
An extrusion press has a crank radius of 20 cm and an rpm of 30/min. Calculate the average speed in metre/min, metre/sec.

s = The diameter = 40 cm.

One crank revolution makes the piston to travel in 2s=80cm

$$Vm = 2 \times 40 \times \frac{30}{100}$$
 metre/min.

= 24 metre/min = 0.4 metre/sec



NEWTON'S LAWS OF MOTION

Equations of motions under gravity

$\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{Upward} & \mbox{Downward} \\ \mbox{V} = \mbox{u} - \mbox{gt} & \mbox{v} = \mbox{u} + \mbox{gt} \\ \mbox{s} = \mbox{ut} - \frac{1}{2} \mbox{gt}^2 & \mbox{s} = \mbox{ut} + \frac{1}{2} \mbox{gt}^2 \\ \mbox{u}^2 - \mbox{v}^2 = 2 \mbox{gs} & \mbox{v}^2 - \mbox{u}^2 = 2 \mbox{gs} \end{array}$

Motion under gravity

A body falling from a height, from rest, has its velocity goes on increasing and it will be maximum when it hits the ground. Therefore a body falling freely under gravity has a uniform acceleration. When the motion is upward, the body is subjected to a gravitational retardation. The acceleration due to gravity is denoted with 'g'.

Momentum

It is the quantity of motion possessed by a body and is equal to the product of its mass, and the velocity with which it is moving. Unit of momentum will be kg metre/sec.

Momentum = mass x velocity

Newton's laws

First law

Every body continues to be in a state of rest or of uniform motion in a straight line unless it is compelled to change that state of rest or of uniform motion by some external force acting upon it.

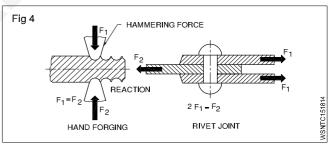
Second law

The rate of change of momentum of a moving body is directly proportional to the external force acting upon it and takes place in the direction of the force.

Third law

To every action there is always an equal and opposite reaction.

In the rivet joint equal forces act on the strap and they opposite force F_2 . (Fig 4)



Law of conservation of momentum

When two moving bodies have an intentional or unintentional impact, then sum of the momentum of the bodies before impact = sum of the momentum after impact, or the change in momentum after the impact is zero.

m, - mass of one body and

v, - velocity with which it moves

m₂ - mass of second body

v₂ - velocity with which it moves

Momentum = $m \times v = mass of the body \times its velocity$

Rate of change of momentum = force acting on the body

$$m\left(\frac{(V-u)}{t}\right) = F$$

force = mass x acceleration

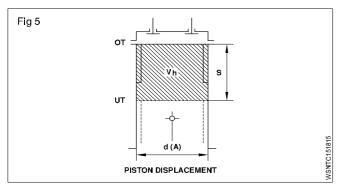
Momentum of two bodies before impact = momentum after impact

$$m_1 \times v_1 + m_2 \times v_2 = (m_1 + m_2)V$$

Terms - Some Examples in vehicles

Displacement

The piston displacement is the space between 2 dead centres (TDC and BDC) where in the piston moves in the cylinder. (Fig 5)



Speed

This is reckoned in 2 ways in a vehicle

- Vehicle speed in kmph/mph
- Engine speed in rpm

Velocity

A motor vehicle, normally changes its speed and direction on road. Hence used in velocity calculation.

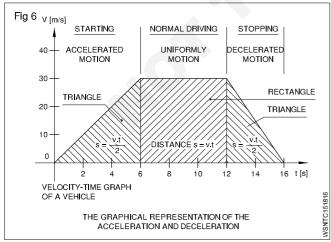
Acceleration (Fig 6)

When the speed of the vehicle is increased on road, it is said to be accelerated.

Deceleration (Fig 6)

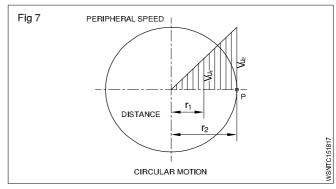
Deceleration or Retardation (this is further explained)

During the application of brakes of a vehicle the speed of the vehicle is decreased. Then it is said to be decelerated or retarded.



Circular or Angular motion (Fig 7)

When a body rotates about an axis, it is said to have angular motion or circular motion.



Example

In circular motion bodies (like shafts, axles, gear-wheels, pulleys, flywheels, grinding wheels) turn with constant speed around its axis.

The angular of circular motion is also called Angular velocity or Peripheral speed.

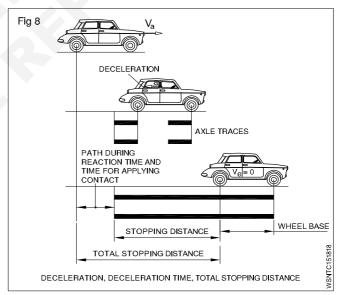
Expressed in Metre/sec or Radians per second.

Bodies at rest and in motion

Terms related to brake system

Every vehicle has a brake system. When brakes are applied on a moving vehicle (with certain velocity) its velocity is reduced and vehicle is decelerated and it stops at a certain distance. So the definition of the terms related to Brake application are set forth below.

Deceleration (a) (Fig 8)



This is the decrease in velocity within a certain time. e.g A car travelling at 90 kmph stops after 10 Sec.

The deceleration = $90 \times \frac{1000}{3600} \times 1/10$

= 25 m/s/10 sec

 $= 2.5 \text{ m/sec}^2$

Deceleration time

The time 10 seconds is called the above time to stop the vehicle.

Stopping distance

During the deceleration time the car travels a distance called i.e Stopping distance 'd'.

But the total stopping distance is reckoned as equal to normal stopping distance and distance travelled by the car during reaction time of the driver.

The reaction time is explained as below

During the application of brakes, the driver takes sometime to recognise the danger and then apply the brakes. The time (thus elapsed) is called reaction time. During this time the vehicle travels some more distance before coming to a stop. So the total stopping distance actually varies due to the reaction time of the driver and it is longer than the normal stopping distance. The reaction time varies between driver to driver.

Example

A car is travelling with a speed of 72 kmph and its acceleration (a) = 5 m/sec^2 . The reaction time of driver to apply brakes is 1.5 seconds. calculate the total stopping distance.

Solution

Velocity of car = 72 kmph

$$\left(1 \text{kmph} = \frac{1000 \text{ m}}{3600 \text{ sec}} = \frac{5}{18} \text{ m/sec}\right)$$

$$=\frac{5}{18} \times 72$$

= 20 m/sec

acceleration = 5 m/sec²

Normal stopping distance S =
$$\frac{V^2}{2a}$$
 (m) = $\frac{(20)^2}{2(5)}$ = 40

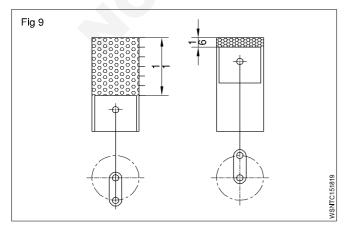
Total stopping distance

- = 40 metre + Velocity x Reaction time
- = 40 m + (20 x 1.5) m
- = 70 metres.

Newton's Law of Motion

Some Examples in vehicles

First law (with examples) (Fig 9)



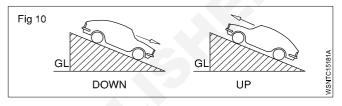
Bodies at rest or in Uniform motion

The diesel engine piston remains at rest at TDC or BDC due to its inertia. Expansion of gas pressure or flywheel momentum moves the piston from TDC or BDC.

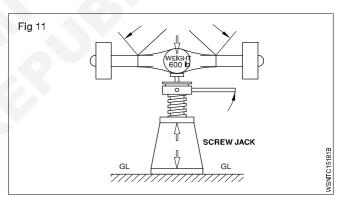
Second law (with examples) (Fig 10)

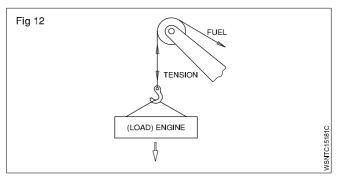
The rate of change of momentum of a moving body (say Engine part or Vehicle) is directly proportional to external force acting take place in the direction of force.

- A connecting rod in motion is brought to rest at BDC.
- The direction of movement of a vehicle is altered by force of wind.
- When a vehicle travels in a down gradient its speed increases.
- The speed of vehicle is decreased when travelling up gradient.



Third law (with examples) (Fig 11&12)





To every action there is always an equal and opposite reaction.

All upward force = All downward forces

- Jack is lifting a differential
- Crane rope is lifting an engine.

Exercise 1.5.19

Speed and Velocity, Work, Power and Energy - Speed and velocity - Related problems on speed & velocity

Examples

A body travels a distance of 168 metres in a straight line in 21 secs. What velocity the body is travelling.

Velocity = distance travelled/time

- = 168 metre / 21 sec
- = 8m/sec
- A train covers a distance of 150 kilometres, between two stations, in 2 1/2 hours. Determine the average velocity with which the train is moving.

Average velocity = Distance travelled/time taken

= 150 Km/2 1/2 hrs =
$$\frac{150}{\frac{5}{2}}$$
 = 150 × $\frac{2}{5}$ Km/hr

- = 60 Km/hr
- A vehicle accelerates uniformly from a velocity of 8 km/ hr to 24 km/hr in 4 secs. Determine the acceleration and the distance travelled by it during that time.

Initial velocity = 8 km/hr (u)

 $a = \frac{v - u}{t} \text{ m/sec}^2$

Final velocity = 24 km/hr (v)

acceleration (a)

∴v = u + at

time = $4 \sec(t)$

 $24 \text{ km/hr} = 8 \text{ km/hr} + a \times 4 \text{ sec}$

(24km/hr - 8km/hr = 16km/hr)

- :. 4a sec = 16 km/hr = 16000 metre/3600 sec
- ∴ acceleration (a) = 16000 metre/3600 x 4 sec²

Acceleration (a) = 1.1 metre/sec²

Distance travelled $(4a) = 4 \times 1.1 \text{m} = 4.4 \text{ m}$

 A car moving with a velocity of 50 km/hr is brought to rest in 45 secs. Find out the retardation.

Initial velocity = 50 km/hr

(1km= 1000 metres)

Final velocity = 0 km/hr

(1 Hour = 3600 seconds)

Time = 45 secs

v = u - at 50km/hr x $\frac{5}{18}$ m/sec = 13.88 m/sec

0 = u - at a = -

 $a = \frac{u}{t} = \frac{13.88 \text{ m/sec}}{45 \text{ sec}} = 0.3 \text{m/sec}^2$

u = at

 $50000/3600 \text{ metre/sec} = a \times 45 \text{ sec}$

- ∴ Retardation = 50000/3600 x 45 metre/sec²
- = 0.30 metre/sec²

• A body falling freely under the action of gravity reaches the ground in one second. Determine the height from which the body fell. Take g = 9.81 metre/sec².

Initial velocity = 0 metre/sec (U)

Acceleration due to gravity = 9.81 metre/sec²(g)

Time taken = 1 sec (t)

= ut +
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 gt² = 0 x 1 sec + $\frac{1}{2}$ x 9.81 m/sec² x 1² sec

= 0 x 1 sec +
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 x 9.81 metre/sec² x 1 sec²

1 Sec 2 = 4.905 metres.

s = 4.905 metres

 A force of 30 N acts on a body at rest. The mass of the body is 50 kg. Determine the velocity of the body after 4 secs, the distance it covers during that period and the acceleration

$$F = m \times a$$

30 N = 50 kg x a

 $30 \text{ kg x metre/sec}^2 = 50 \text{ kg x a}$

∴ acceleration = 30/50 metre/sec²

= 0.6 metre/sec²

 $a = 0.6 \text{ m/sec}^2$

v = u + at

 $= 0 + 0.6 \text{ metre/sec}^2 \times 4 \text{ sec} = 2.4 \text{ metre/sec}^2$

 $s = ut + 1/2 at^2 = 0 + 1/2 \times 0.6 metre/sec^2 \times 16 sec^2$

= 4.8 metre

s = 4.8 metre

 A stone is thrown vertically upwards with a velocity of 120 metre/sec. Determine (a) the maximum height to which it travels before starting to return to earth. (b) The total time taken by the stone to go up and come down.
 (c) The velocity with which it will strike the ground.

Initial velocity of throw = 120 metre/sec (u)

Final velocity = $0 \text{ metre/sec (v) (taken g = } 10 \text{ m/sec}^2)$

Retardation due to gravity = 10 metre/sec²

$$u^2-v^2 = 2g.s$$

 \therefore 120² metre²/sec² – 0 = 2 x 10 metre/sec² x s

 \therefore s = 120 x120/2 x 10 metre = $\frac{120 \times 120}{2 \times 10}$

= 720 metre

when it comes down its velocity at start = 0 metre/sec.

The acceleration due to gravity = 10 metre/sec² and the distance travelled = 720 metre

$$v^2 - u^2 = 2as$$
 $v^2 - 0 = 2x \cdot 10 \text{ m/sec}^2 x \cdot 720 \text{ m}$

$$v^2-0=2 \times 10 \times 720 \text{ metre}^2/\text{sec}^2$$
 $v=\sqrt{14400} \text{ m}^2/\text{sec}^2$

∴ v = 120 metre/sec

Time taken to go up and reach a velocity of 0 metre/sec = u/g = 120 metre/sec/10 metre/sec² = 12 sec.

Time taken to start from rest and attain a velocity of 120 metre/sec = v/g = 12 sec.

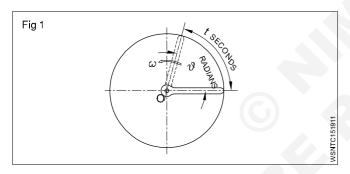
- ∴ Total time taken = 24 sec.
- Calculate the Angular velocity in radian/second of an engine flywheel when it is rotating at 2800 rpm. (Fig 1 & 2)

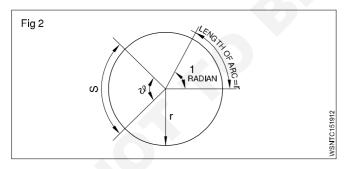
Angular velocity (W) = This is the rate of change of displacement or angle turned through per unit time.

Solution

Angular velocity of flywheel W = $2\pi N/60$ rad/sec. [N = 2800 rpm]

- $= 2\pi \times 2800/60 \text{ radian/sec.}$
- = 293.3 radian/sec.





 A motor car road wheel of dia 540 mm turns through an angle of 120°. Calculate the distance moved by a point on tyre tread of the wheel.

Solution

There are 2π radians in one turn of wheel. i.e 2π radians = 360°

Since wheel turns 120° angle, 120° = 120 x $2\pi/360$

= 2.094 radians

Distance moved by a point on tyre S - re

[where r = 270 mm

 $\theta = 2.094 \text{ radian}$

 $S = 270 \times 2.094 \text{ mm}$

= 565.38 mm

Circumferential distance moved by the point = 565.38 mm

 The rear wheels of a car have diameter of 600 mm. The rear axle makes 250 rpm. Find out the peripheral speed of rear wheels in m/sec.

Solution

Peripheral speed V =
$$\frac{\pi dN}{1000} \times \frac{1}{60}$$
 (m/s)

$$= \frac{3.14 \times 600}{60} \times \frac{250}{1000} = 7.85 \,\text{m/sec}$$

 Calculate the stopping distance of a car travelling with a speed of 72 km/h and being accelerated with a = 5 m/ sec².

Solution

Va (initial speed of a car) = 72 kmph

$$(1 \text{ kmph} \times \frac{1000}{3600} \text{ m/sec}) = 72 \frac{5}{18} \text{ m/sec}$$

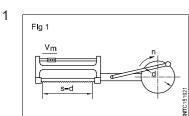
= 20 metres/sec

Stopping distance S =
$$\frac{Va^2}{2a}$$
 (metre)

$$=\frac{20^2}{2\times 5}=\frac{400}{10}$$

= 40metre

Assignment

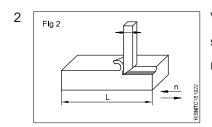


S = 180 mm

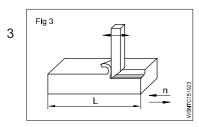
n = 65 (double stroke)

Vm = ____metre/min

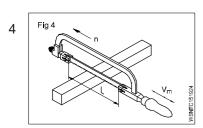
Vm is average cutting speed)



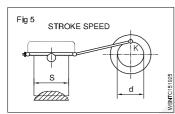
V = 16 metre/min s = 210 mm n = _____



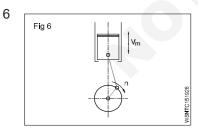
(Vis the cutting speed)
n = 22 strokes (Double stroke)/min
V = 18 metre/min
s = ____ mm



s = 240 mm n = 30 (working stroke) V = _____ metre/min



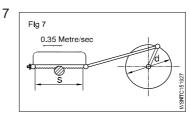
n = 50 cutting strokes
V = 32 metre/min
d = _____ mm
s = 64 mm



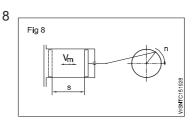
n = 3600 rpm

Vm = ____metre/sec

Vm is the average piston speed)

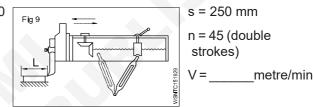


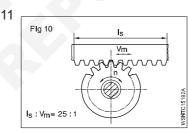
Vm = 0.35 metre/sec s = 200 mm n = _____rpm



s = 650 mm Vm = 90 metre/min n = _____rpm

9 Vm₁ = 5.2 metre/sec Increased to Vm₂ = 6.3 metre/sec Increase in n (rpm) = _



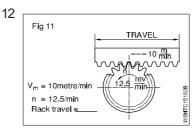


Is: Vm = 25: 1

n=___(double strokes)

Is = rack travel

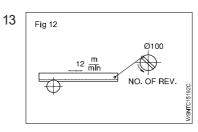
Vxm = stroke speed/min



Vm = 10 metre/min.

n = 12.5 / min.

Rack travel = _____



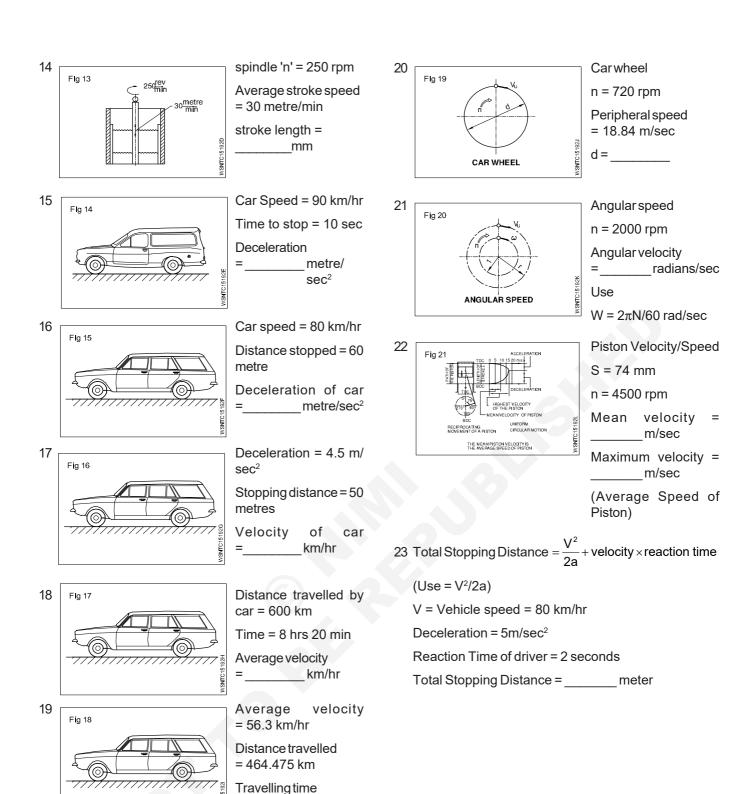
dia of crank = 100 mm

Rack

speed = 12 metre/min

Crank disc 'n" = _____
rpm

5



= hrs

Exercise 1.5.20

Speed and Velocity, Work, Power and Energy - Work, power, energy, HP, IHP, BHP and efficiency

Work (Fig 1)

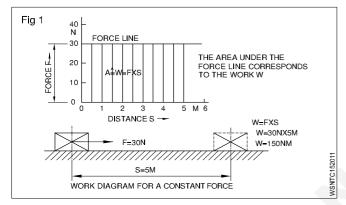
Work is said to be done by a force, when it moves, its point of application through a distance. Applied force 'F' moves a body through a distance's.

Work done 'W' = $F \times s$.

The S.I. unit of work is 1 joule which is the work done by a force of moving the body through a distance of 1 metre.

Therefore joule = 1 N x 1 metre = 1 Nm

Also 1 joule = $1 \text{ Nm} = 10^5 \text{ dynes x } 100 \text{ cm} = 10^7 \text{ dynes cm} = 10^7 \text{ ergs}.$



F - force or weight force in N

s - distance the body on which force acts is moved in metres

t - time in seconds

v - speed in metre/sec

w - work done by the force in joules

P - Power in Watts

Pout - Power output

P. - Power input

Force

A Force is that which changes or tends to change the state of rest or motion of a body.

Force = Mass x Acceleration

F = Ma

Unit

F = Mxa

= kg x m/sec²

= 1 Newton (SI unit)

(Newton: If 1 kg of mass accelerates at the rate of 1m/sec² then the force exerted on the mass is 1 newton)

FPS = 1 pound x 1 Feet/second 2

= 1 pound

CGS = $1 \text{ gm x } 1 \text{ cm/second}^2$

= Dyne

MKS = $1 \text{ kg x } 1 \text{ m/second}^2$

= Newton.

1 Newton = 10⁵ dynes

1 kg wt = 9.81 N

1 pound = 4.448N,

Newton = 0.225 pound.

Absolute units

In C.G.S. system unit of work = 1 erg = 1 dyne x 1 cm

In F.P.S system unit of work = 1 Foot poundal = 1 poundal x 1 foot

In M.K.S. system unit of work = 1 joule = 1 Newton x 1 metre

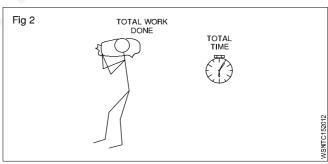
Derived units

C.G.S. system 1 gm Wt x 1 cm = 981 ergs.

F.P.S. system 1 ft lb = 981 foot poundal

M.K.S. system 1 kgf metre = 981 joule.

Power (Fig 2)



It is the work done in unit time.

Power
$$P = \frac{\text{total work done}}{\text{total time}}$$

$$P = \frac{Nm}{sec}$$

The S.I units of power = 1Nm/sec =
$$\frac{1 \text{ joule}}{\text{sec}}$$

which is = 1 watt. power in watts =
$$\frac{W}{t} = \frac{F.s}{t} = FXV$$

which is equal to 1 Watt. Power in watts = w/t = F.s/t = $F \times V$

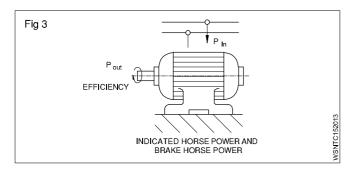
In M.K.S. system the unit is 1 kgf meter/sec. One horse power is = 75 kg metre/sec or 4500 kgf metre/min.

1HP (metric) = 735.5 Watts

1HP (British) = 746 Watts = 0.746 KW

1 KW = 1.34 HP

Power input is the power given to a machine to do work. Power output is what we get out of the machine. Power output is always less than power input due to friction in the machine. The ratio between power output to power input is efficiency of the machine and it is expressed in percentage. (Fig 3)



efficiency =
$$\frac{\text{power output}}{\text{power input}} \times 100\%$$

Indicated Horse Power and Brake Horse Power

The power actually generated by the engine or generator is the indicated horse power which is indicated on the plate.

The Brake horse power is the power available to do useful work. B.H.P is always less than I.H.P. due to losses to overcome frictional resistance.

∴ mechanical efficiency =
$$\frac{B.H.P}{I.H.P} \times 100\%$$

Work done by a force = Magnitude of the force x distance moved by the body

Power = Total work done / total time taken

efficiency =
$$\frac{\text{power output}}{\text{power input}} \times 100\%$$

Energy

The energy of a body is its capacity to do work. It is equal to power x time. Hence the unit of energy is the same as the unit of work in all systems.

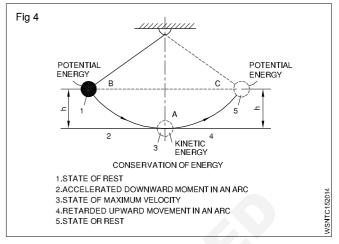
Forms of energy

Mechanical energy, Electrical energy, Atomic energy, Heat energy, Light energy, Chemical energy, sound energy. Energy of one form can be transformed into energy of another form.

Law of conservation of energy

- The energy can neither be created nor destroyed.
- Total energy possessed by a body remains the same.(Fig 4)

Depending upon the position of the body or body in motion, mechanical energy possessed by the body may be potential energy or kinetic energy respectively.



Examples

1 A man weighting 75kg climp 200 metre high hill. Find the Work done by a man?

Formula: Work done $(W) = F \times S$

Given data: F = 75 kg

S = 200 m

To find: Work done (W) = ?

Solution: Work done (W) = $F \times S$

= 75 x 200 = 15000

Ans: Work done (w) = 15000 kgm

2 Find the work required to lift a mass of 36.3 Newtons through a height of 3.7 metres?

Formula: Work done (W) = $F \times S$

Given data: F = 36.3 N

S = 3.7m

To find: Work done (W) = ?

Solution: Work done (W) = $F \times S$

= 36.3 x 3.7 N.m

= 134.31 Joules

Ans: Work done (W) = 134.31 Joules

3 Calculate the Work done by a man weighing 50kg in carrying a mass of 20kg over his head when he covers a distance of 15metres in vertical direction.

Formula: Work done (W) = $F \times S$

Given data: F = 50kg + 20kg = 70kg

 $S = 15 \, \text{m}$

To find: Work done (W) = ?

Solution: Work done (W) = $F \times S$

 $= 70 \times 15 = 1050$

Ans: Work done (W) = 1050 kg.m

4 A man weighing 60kg lifts a weight of 40kg to the top of building 12 metres height. Find the useful Work done by him and also the efficiency?

Formula: Work done (W) =
$$F \times S$$

Total weight
$$= 60 + 40 = 100$$
kg

b) Efficiency
$$(\eta) = ?$$

Solution:

a) Work done (W) =
$$F \times S$$

= $100 \times 12 = 1200 \text{ kg.m}$

b) Efficiency (
$$\eta$$
) = $\frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \times 100\%$
= $\frac{40 \times 12}{60 \times 12} \times 100\%$
= $\frac{480}{720} \times 100\%$
= 66.67%

b) Efficiency (
$$\eta$$
) = 66.67%

5 A pump pumps 4000kg of water from 50 metres depth in 40 minutes. Find the Work done by pump in one second?

Formula: Work done (W) =
$$F \times S$$

Given data:
$$F = 4000 \text{ kg}$$

$$S = 50 \text{ m}$$

To find: Work done per second = ?

Solution:

Work done in 40 minutes,

Work done (W) = F x S
=
$$4000 \times 50 = 200000 \text{ kgm}$$

= $\frac{200000}{40} = 5000$

Work done in 1 second =
$$\frac{5000}{60}$$
 = 83.3

6 A body of 225 kg is moved by 300 metres in 90 seconds. Find the power required to lift this body?

Formula: Power (P) =
$$\frac{FxS}{t}$$

Given data:
$$F = 225 \text{ kg}$$

$$S = 300 m$$

$$t = 90 sec$$

To find: Power
$$(P) = ?$$

Solution: Power
$$(P) = \frac{FxS}{t}$$

$$= \frac{225 \times 300}{90} \text{ kg.m/sec}$$

7 A hydraulic press lifts a load of 5 tonnes in 5 minutes to a height of 5 metres. Calculate the power of the press?

Formula: Power (P) =
$$\frac{FxS}{t}$$

Given data:
$$F = 5 \text{ tonnes} = 5000 \text{ kg}$$

$$t = 5 \text{ minutes} = 5 \times 60 = 300 \text{ sec}$$

To find: Power
$$(P) = ?$$

Solution: Power (P) =
$$\frac{FxS}{t}$$

$$=\frac{5000 \times 5}{300} = 83.33$$

8 A machine weighing 750N takes 25N material to a height of 10 metres in one minute. calculate the power of machine?

Formula: Power (P) =
$$\frac{FxS}{t}$$

Given data:

$$S = 10 \text{ m}$$

To find: Power
$$(P) = ?$$

Solution: Power (P) =
$$\frac{FxS}{A}$$

$$=\frac{775 \times 10}{60}$$
 = 129.17N m/sec

Ans: Power (P) = 129.17N m/sec (or) watts

9 What is the power of pump which takes 15 seconds to lift 90kg of water to a tank situated at a height of 30 metres. (Take g = 10m/sec²)?

Formula: Power (P) =
$$\frac{FxS}{t}$$

$$S = 30 \text{ m}$$

To find: Power
$$(P) = ?$$

Solution: Power (P) =
$$\frac{FxS}{t}$$

$$= \frac{f \times g \times s}{t}$$

$$= \frac{90 \times 10 \times 30}{15}$$

10 A hoist lifts a weight of 1000kg through a height of 33 metres in one minute. Find out the horsepower of the hoist?

Formula: Horsepower HP =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

Given data:
$$F = 1000 \text{ kg}$$

$$S = 33 \text{ m}$$

Solution: Horsepower HP =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$= \frac{1000 \times 33}{60} \times \frac{1}{75}$$
$$= 7.33 \text{ H.P.}$$

Ans: Horsepower, HP = 7.33 H.P.

11 A pump can raise 900 litres of water per minute to a height of 45 metres. Calculate the H.P of pump?

Formula: Horsepower HP =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

Given data:
$$F = 900 \text{ litres} = 900 \text{ kg}$$

$$S = 45 \text{ m}$$

Solution: Horsepower HP =
$$\frac{\text{FxS}}{\text{t}} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$=\frac{900 \times 45}{60} \times \frac{1}{75} = 9 \text{ H.P}$$

Ans: Horsepower, HP = 9 H.P.

12 Find the horsepower of an engine to lift a weight of 2 tonnes to a height of 30 metres in two minutes?

Formula: Horsepower HP =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$S = 30 \text{ m}$$

Solution: Horsepower HP =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$=\frac{2000 \times 30}{120} \times \frac{1}{75} = 6.67 \text{ H.P.}$$

Ans: Horsepower, HP = 6.67 H.P.

13 Find out horsepower of a pump required to lift 10000 litres of water in 3 minutes at height of 16 metres. Assume efficiency of pump as 94%?

Formula: Horsepower HP =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \times 100\%$$

Solution: Horsepower HP =
$$\frac{\text{FxS}}{\text{t}} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$=\frac{10000 \times 16}{180} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \times 100\%$$

$$94 = \frac{11.85}{\text{Input}} \times 100$$

Input
$$=\frac{11.85 \times 100}{94} = \frac{1185}{94}$$

Ans: Input H.P of Pump = 12.606 H.P.

14 Find the horsepower of a motor which is required to lift 500 tonnes of coal per hour from a mine of 320 metre depth. Efficiency of motor is 0.75?

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \times 100\%$$

Output H.P =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

Given data:

$$F = 500 \text{ tonnes} = 500000 \text{ kg}$$

S = 320 metres

t = 1 hour = 3600 sec

$$\eta = 0.75 = 75\%$$

Solution:

Output HP =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$= \frac{500000 \times 320}{3600} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \times 100\%$$

$$75 = \frac{592.59 \times 100}{Input}$$

Input =
$$\frac{59259}{75}$$

Ans: Input = 790.12 H.P

15 A train weighing 25 tonnes is moving at a speed of 90km/hour. Find the horsepower of the engine, if the frictional force is 5kg per tonnes?

Formula: Horsepower HP = $\frac{FxS}{4} \times \frac{1}{75}$

Given data: Train speed = 90 km/hour

$$= 90 \times \frac{1000}{3600} = 25 \text{ m/sec}$$

Train weight = 25 tonnes

Frictional force per tonnes = 5 kg

25 tonnes frictional force

$$(F) = 25 \times 5 = 125 \text{kg}$$

To find: Horsepower of the engine =?

Solution:

$$HP = \frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

$$=\frac{125 \times 25}{1} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

Ans: HP = 41.67 H.P.

16 A pump delivers 9000 litres of water per minute to a height of 14 metres. The efficiency of the pump is 78%. The efficiency of electric motor which drives the pump is 92%. Find out the input of the motor?

Formula:

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \times 100\%$$

Output H.P =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

Given data:

$$F = 9000 \text{ litres} = 9000 \text{ kg}$$

pump
$$\eta = 75\%$$

motor
$$\eta = 92\%$$

Electric motor (KW) = ? To find:

Solution:

Pump Output HP =
$$\frac{FxS}{t} \times \frac{1}{75}$$

= $\frac{9000 \times 14}{60} \times \frac{1}{75}$
= 28 H.P.

Input of the pump

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \times 100\%$$

$$78 = \frac{28}{\text{Input}} \times 100$$

Input =
$$\frac{28 \times 100}{78}$$
 = 35.9 H.P

Output of the motor = Input of the pump

Output
$$= 35.9 \text{ H.P}$$

Input of the motor

Motor
$$\eta = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \times 100\%$$

$$92 = \frac{35.9}{\text{Input}} \times 100$$

Input
$$=\frac{35.9 \times 100}{92} = 39.02 \text{ H.P}$$

Ans: Motor input = 39.02 H.P

17 I.H.P of generator is 6 H.P and its efficiency is 90%. Find tis B.H.P.

Formula: $\eta = \frac{B.H.P}{I.H.P} \times 100\%$

Given data:

I.H.P = 6 H.P η = 90%

To find: B.H.P = ?

Solution: $\eta = \frac{B.H.P}{I.H.P} \times 100\%$

90 = $\frac{B.H.P}{6}$ x 100%

 $\frac{90x6}{100}$ = B.H.P

B.H.P = 5.4 H.P

Ans: B.H.P of generator = 5.4 H.P

18 A machine is working on 80% efficiency I.H.P of machine is 50. Calculate the power lost in friction.

Formula: I.H.P = B.H.P + Frictional loses

$$\eta = \frac{B.H.P}{I.H.P} \times 100\%$$

Given data: Efficiency $\eta = 80\%$

I.H.P = 50

To find: Friction = ?

Solution: $\eta = \frac{B.H.P}{I.H.P} \times 100\%$

 $80 = \frac{B.H.P}{I.H.P} \times 100\%$

 $80 = \frac{B.H.P}{50} \times 100\%$

 $\frac{80x50}{100}$ = B.H.P

B.H.P = 40

B.H.P = I.H.P - F.H.P

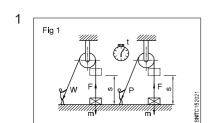
40 = 50 - F.H.P

40 + F.H.P = 50

F.H.P = 50 - 40 = 10

Ans: Loss of friction = 10 H.P

Assignment



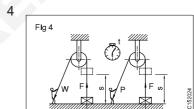
m = 55 kg

a) s = 1.82 metres W = _____joules

b) s = 1.40 metres W= ____joules

c) s = 0.85 metres

W =Joules



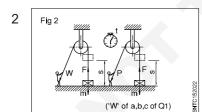
m = 75 kg

s = 100 metres

t = 12 secs

W = _____ N

P = _____ Watts

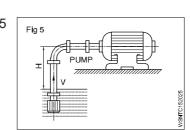


t = 8 secs

a) P = ____ Watts

b) P = ____ Watts

c) P = ____ Watts

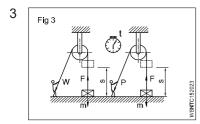


 $V = 1 \text{ m}^3/\text{min}$

H = 2 m

 $\eta = 0.75$

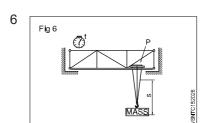
Power input = _____ kW



W = 1312.5 Joules

m = 350 kg

s = ____ metres



P = 12 kw

s = 4 metres

t = 20 secs

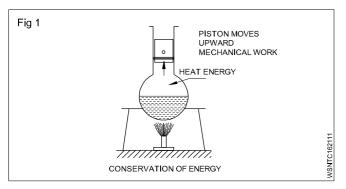
m = ____ kg

Exercise 1.6.21

Heat & Temperature and Pressure - Concept of heat and temperature, effects of heat, difference between heat and temperature, boiling point & melting point of different metals and non-metals

Heat

It is a form of energy. Heat energy can be transformed into other forms of energies. Heat flows from a hotter body to a colder body. (Fig 1)



Units of heat

Calorie: It is the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of 1 gram of water through 1°C.

BTHU: It is the quantity of heat required to raise 1 lb of water through 1°F. (British thermal unit).

C.H.U; It is the quantity of heat required to raise 1 lb of water through 1°C.

Joule: S.I. Unit (1 Calorie = 4.186 joule)

Effects of heat

- · Change in temperature
- · Change in size
- · Change in state
- · Change in structure
- Change in Physical properties

Specific heat

The quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of one gm of a substance through 1°C is called specific heat. It is denoted by the letter 's'.

Specific heat of water	= 1
Aluminium	= 0.22
Copper	= 0.1
Iron	= 0.12

Thermal capacity:

It is the amount of heat required to raise the temperature of a substance through 1°C is called the thermal capacity of the substance.

Thermal capacity = ms calories.

Calorific value: The amount of heat released by the complete combustion of unit quantity of the fuel (Mass or volume) is known as calorific value of fuels.

Water equivalent

It is the mass of water which will absorb the same amount of heat as the given substance for the same temperature rise. Water equivalent = Mass of the substance x specific heat of the substance.

Therefore water equivalent = ms

Types of heat

- 1 Sensible heat
- 2 Latentheat

1 Sensible heat

Sensible heat is the heat absorbed or given off by a substance without changing its physical state. It is sensible and can be absorbed by the variation of temperature in the thermometers.

2 Latent heat

The heat gained or given by the substance during a change of state (from solid to liquid to gas) is called latent heat or hidden heat. The heat absorbed or given off does not cause any temperature change in the substance.

Types, 1. Latent heat of fusion of solid

2. Latent heat of vaporisation of solid.

1 Latent heat of fusion of solid

The amount of heat required per unit mass of a substance at melting point to convert it from the solid to the liquid state is called latent heat of fusion of solid. Its unit is cal/gram.

Latent heat of fusion of ice

The amount of heat required to convert per unit mass of the ice into water at 0°C temperature is called latent heat of fusion of ice.

Latent heat of fusion of ice(L) = 80 cal/gram

2 Latent heat of vaporisation of liquid

The amount of heat required to vaporise a unit mass of liquid at its boiling point is called latent heat of vaporisation.

Latent heat of vaporisation of water or latent heat of steam

The amount of heat required to convert into steam of a unit mass of water at its boiling point (100°C) is called latent heat of vaporisation of water or latent heat of steam.

Latent heat of steam(L) = 540 cal/gram

Temperature

It is the degree of hotness or coldness of a body. The temperature is measured by thermometers.

Difference between heat and temperature

Heat	Temperature
1 It is a form of energy.	This tells the state of heat.
2 Its unit is calorie.	Its unit is degree.
3 Heat is measured by calorimeter.	Temperature is measured by thermometer.
By adding quantity of heat of two substances their total heat can be calculated.	By adding two temperatures we cannot find the temperature of the mixture.
5 By heating a substance the quantity of heat is increased regardless of increase in temperature.	Two substances may read the same temperature though they might be having different amount of heat in them.

Boiling point

Any substance starts turning into a gas shows the temperature at which it boils this is known as the boiling point. The boiling point of water is 100° C.

Melting point

The temperature at which any solid melts into liquid or liquid freezing to solid is called the melting point of substance. `The melting point of ice is 0° C.

List of melting point and boiling point of metals and Non -metals

Metals and Non-metals	Melting point °C	Boiling point °C
Aluminium	660.25	2519
Argon	-189.19	-185.85
Arsenic	817	614
Barium	729	1897
Beryllium	1287	2469
Bromine	-7.1	58.8
Cadmium	321.18	767
Calcium	839	1484
Carbon (diamond)	3550	4827
Carbon (graphite)	3675	4027
Chlorine	-100.84	-34.04
Cobalt	1495	2927
Copper	1084.6	2562
Gold	1064.58	2856
Helium	-	-268.93
Hydrogen	-259.98	-252.87
lodine	113.5	184.3
Iridium	2443	4428
Iron	1535	2861
Lead	327.6	1749
Lithium	180.7	1342
Magnesium	650	1090

Metals and Non-metals	Melting point °C	Boiling point °C
Manganese	1246	2061
Mercury	-38.72	357
Molybdenum	2617	4639
Nickel	1453	2913
Nitrogen	-209.86	-195.79
Oxygen	-226.65	-182.95
Phosphorus (white)	44.1	280
Plutonium	640	3228
Potassium	63.35	759
Radium	700	1737
Silicon	1410	3265
Silver	961	2162
Sodium	98	883
Sulfur	115.36	444.6
Tin	232.06	2602
Titanium	1660	3287
Tungsten (wolfram)	3422	5555
Uranium	1132	4131
Zinc	419.73	907

Exercise 1.6.22

Heat & Temperature and Pressure - Scales of temperature, celsius, fahrenheit, kelvin and conversion between scales of temperature

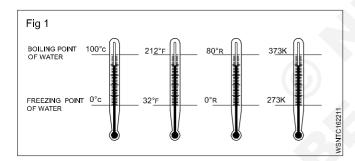
Temperature Scales

Temperature is calibrated between two fixed reference points namely the freezing point of water, and the boiling point of water. These two fixed points on different temperature scales are:

Scale	Freezing point	Boiling point
Centigrade (°C)	0°C	100°C
Fahrenheit(°F)	32°F	212°F
Kelvin (K)	273°K	373°K
Reaumur(°R)	0°R	80°R

Heat is a form of energy. Temperature is the degree of hotness or coldness of a body. The relationship for conversion from one temperature scale to the others is

$$\frac{{}^{\circ}R}{80} = \frac{{}^{\circ}C}{100} = \frac{{}^{\circ}K - 273}{100} = \frac{{}^{\circ}F - 32}{180}$$



1 Convert 0°C into °F

$${}^{\circ}F - 32 = {}^{\circ}C \over 100}$$

$${}^{\circ}F - 32 = {}^{\circ}C \over 100} \times 180$$

$${}^{\circ}F - 32 = {}^{\circ}C \times 180$$

$${}^{\circ}F - 32 = {}^{\circ}C \times 180$$

$${}^{\circ}F = 0 + 32$$

$$= 32{}^{\circ}F$$

$$\mathbf{0}^{\circ}C = \mathbf{32}^{\circ}F$$

2 Convert -40°C into °F

$$\frac{{}^{\circ}F - 32}{180} = \frac{{}^{\circ}C}{100}$$

$${}^{\circ}F - 32 = \frac{{}^{\circ}C}{100} \times 180$$

$${}^{\circ}F - 32 = \frac{-40}{100} \times 180$$

$$F - 32 = -72$$

$${}^{\circ}F = -72 + 32$$

$$= -40{}^{\circ}F$$

$$-40{}^{\circ}C = -40{}^{\circ}F$$

3 Convert 37°C into K

$$\frac{{}^{\circ}C}{100} = \frac{{}^{\circ}K - 273}{100}$$

$${}^{\circ}K - 273 = C$$

$${}^{\circ}K = C + 273$$

$${}^{\circ}K = 37 + 273$$

$$= 310 \text{ K}$$

$$37^{\circ}C = 310 \text{ K}$$

4 Convert 70°C into Reaumur

$$\frac{^{\circ}C}{100} = \frac{^{\circ}R}{80}$$

$$^{\circ}R = \frac{C}{100} \times 80$$

$$^{\circ}R = \frac{70}{100} \times 80 = 56$$

$$70^{\circ}C = 56^{\circ}R$$

$$\frac{{}^{\circ}C}{100} = \frac{{}^{\circ}F - 32}{180}$$

$$\frac{^{\circ}\text{C}}{100} = \frac{-25 - 32}{180}$$

$$^{\circ}$$
C = $\frac{-57}{180} \times 100$

$$^{\circ}$$
C = $\frac{-285}{9}$ = -31.66

$$-25^{\circ}F = -31.7^{\circ}C$$

6 Convert 98.6°F into °C

$$^{\circ}$$
C = $\frac{^{\circ}F - 32}{180} \times 100$

$$^{\circ}$$
C = $\frac{98.6 - 32}{180} \times 100$

$$=\frac{66.6}{180}\times100$$

$$=\frac{6660}{180}=37^{\circ}C$$

Assignment

Convert the following

$$4 80^{\circ}C = {}^{\circ}F$$

$$7 - 80^{\circ}C = _{0}F$$

8
$$200^{\circ}C = _{-}^{\circ}F$$

$$21\ 143^{\circ}C = K$$

24 At what temperature will the reading of a fahrenheit thermometer be double of a centigrade one.

Exercise 1.7.23

Basic Electricity - Introduction and uses of electricity, molecule, atom, how electricity is produced, electric current AC,DC their comparison, voltage, resistance and their units

Electricity is a kind of energy. It is the most useful sources of energy which is not visible but its presence can be felt by its effects. Electricity is obtained by conversion of other forms of energy like heat energy, chemical energy, nuclear energy, mechanical energy and energy stored in water etc.,

To understand electricity, one must understand the structure of an atom.

Basically an atom contains electrons, protons and neutrons. The protons and neutrons are located in the centre of an atom and the electrons, a negative electric charge particle revolving around the nucleus in an atom. The proton has a positive charge. Neutrons are neutral and have no charge.

Sources of electricity

Battery

Battery stores electrical energy in the form of chemical energy and it gives power when required. Battery is used in automobiles and electronics, etc.,

Generator

It is a machine which converts the mechanical energy into electrical energy.

When a conductor rotates between a magnetic field using prime mover an emf will be induced. By using this method all types of AC and DC generator - generates power.

E.g. Thermal power station

Hydro power station

Nuclear power station

Wind power station

Solar power station

Thermo couple

If two dissimilar pieces of metals are twisted together and its joined end is heated in a flame, then a potential difference or voltage will be induced across the ends of the wires. Such a device is known as a Thermo couple. Thermo couple is used to measure very high temperature of furnaces.

Effects of electric current

When an electric current flows through a medium, its presence can be felt by its effects, which are given below.

1 Physical effect

Human body is a good conductor. when the body touches the bare current carrying conductor, current flows through the human body to earth and body gets severe shock or cause even death in many cases.

2 Magnetic effect

When an electric current passes through a coil, a magnetic field is produced around it.

E.g.: Electromagnet Motor, Generator, Electric bell

3 Chemical effect

When an electric current passes through an electrolyte, chemical action takes place. Because of that, an electrical energy is stored in a battery as a chemical energy.

E.g.: Electroplating, Cells and battery charging, refining of metals etc.,

4 Heating effect

When an electric current passes through any conductor, heat is produced in the conductor due to its resistance.

E.g. : Electric heater, Electric iron box, Electric lamp, Geyser, Soldering iron, Electric kettles, Electric welding etc.,

5 X-ray and Laser rays effect

When a high frequency voltage is passed through a vacuum tube, a special type of rays come out, which is not visible. These rays are called x-rays. Laser rays also can be produced by electric current.

6 Gas effect

When electrons pass through a certain type of sealed glass shell containing gas, then it emits light rays.

E.g: Mercury vapour lamp, Sodium vapour lamp, Fluorescent lamp, Neon lamp etc.,

Uses of Electricity

1 Lighting - Lamps

2 Heating - Heaters, ovens

3 Power - Motor, fan

4 Traction - Electromotive, lift, crane

5 Communication - Telephone, telegraph, radio, wireless

6 Entertainment - Cinema, radio, T.V.

7 Medical - x-rays, shock treatment

8 Chemical - Battery charging, electroplating

9 Magnetic - Temporary magnets

10 Engineering - Magnetic chucks, welding, x-rays of welding

Classification

- · Static electricity
- Dynamic electricity

STATIC ELECTRICITY

If a dry glass rod is rubbed with silk cloth the glass rod gives out negative electrons, and therefore, becomes positively charged. The silk cloth receives negative electrons and therefore it becomes negatively charged. They acquire the property of attracting small pieces of paper etc. because like charges repel and unlike charges attract each other. The electric charge on the silk cloth is stationary and is called static electricity. This type of electricity cannot be transmitted from one place to another.

DYNAMIC ELECTRICITY

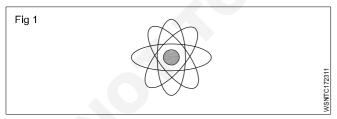
The electrons in motion are called current electricity or electric current. This type of electricity is carried through wires and cables. Therefore, this electricity can be transmitted from one place to another. This type of electricity can be produced by cells, batteries, generators alternators etc.

What is the difference between an atom and an element? How are molecules different from atoms? I am often asked these questions in my sessions over and over again and so I finally decided to write a comprehensive post on them. Find answers to all your questions in this section that is designed to help students explore and understand the relationship between atoms, elements, molecules, compounds and mixtures in a manner that is simple and easy to understand.

What is an Atom?

All the matter in the universe is made of tiny particles called atoms. There are 92 different kinds of atoms in nature. These 92 different atoms combine with one another to form different kinds of matter that we see in nature. (Fig 1)

Gold, for example, is made of only gold atoms. When matter is made of only one kind of atom, it is called an element. In the same way, silver is another element which is made of only silver atoms. Because there are 92 different kinds of atoms in nature, there are 92 different kinds of elements. Other examples of an atom are K (potassium) and Fe (iron).



What is a Molecule?

A molecule is the smallest unit of a chemical compound and it exhibits the same chemical properties of that specific compound. As molecules are made up of atoms jointly held by chemical bonds, they can vary greatly in terms of complexity and size. The oxygen we breathe has a molecular formula $\rm O_2$. Should we consider this as an element or compound? When two or more atoms of the same elements combine together, we call them Molecules. So, we call $\rm O_2$ as an oxygen molecule. In the same way, we find hydrogen molecules $\rm H_2$, chlorine molecules $\rm Cl_2$ and others in nature.

Types of electric current

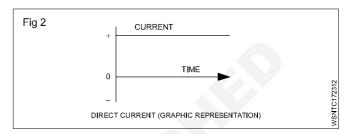
- Direct current
- · Alternating current

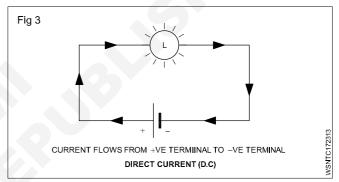
Direct current

In direct current (DC) the direction and magnitude of the current does not change (Fig 2). The steady current flow will be from the positive terminal to the negative terminal. (Fig 3)

Examples

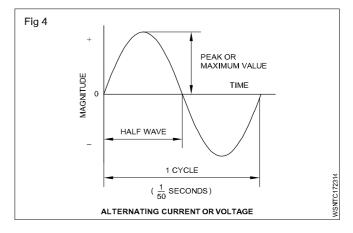
DC Sources: Cells, batteries and DC generators (Fig 3)





Alternating current (Fig 4)

The current flow will be from the phase terminal to the Neutral terminal. In the alternating current (AC) both the direction and magnitude of the current will be changing at definite intervals of time. The graph shows how an AC current or voltage changes with time. The current increases to the maximum value in one direction, falls to zero and increases to the maximum value in the other (opposite) direction before falling to zero again. Thus a cycle is one complete series of changes. The normal supply frequency is 50 cycles per second.



Difference between AC and DC

AC	DC
1 It is generated in the ranges of 6,600 V, 11000 V and 33,000 V.	It is generated up to 6,600 V only
Voltage can be stepped up or stepped down by using transformer	It is not possible
3 Transmission cost is less	Cost High
4 Less maintenance	High maintenance
5 Power up to 5,00,000 kw can be generated in a single alternator.	Power up to 10,000 kw can be generated in a single generator
6 AC generator can run at high speeds. So, speed control is not easy.	It can't run at high speeds. Speed control is easy.
7 Slip rings and brushes are used to collect the current.	Commutator and brushes are used to collect the current

Advantages of A.C.

- i In transmission there is saving in copper wire.
- ii Since there is no spark in A.C. machine there is no interference in Radio sound.
- iii This can be produced to maximum voltage i.e. 33000 volts.
- iv Voltage can be dropped or raised with the help of transformers.
- v Its mechanism is simple and cheap.
- vi Output is more due to availability of more than one phase.

Disadvantages of A.C.:

- i A single phase motor is not self-starter.
- ii Due to thin wire in A.C., the voltage drop is more.
- iii It cannot be used for electroplating and in charging secondary cells.
- iv The speed of motors run by it is difficult to change.
- v There is danger to security due to high voltage.

Electrical terms and units

Quantity of electricity

The strength of the current in any conductor is equal to the quantity of electrical charge that flows across any section of it in one second. If 'Q' is the charge and 't' is the time taken

then
$$I = \frac{Q}{t}$$
 $Q = I \times t$

The SI unit of current is coulomb. Coulomb is equivalent to the charge contained in nearly 6.24 x 10¹⁸ electrons.

Coulomb

In an electric circuit if one Ampere of current passes in one second, then it is called one coulomb. It is also called ampere second (As). Its larger unit is ampere hour (AH)

Electro motive force (EMF)

It is the force which causes to flow the free electrons in any closed circuit due to difference in electrical pressure or potential. It is represented by 'E.' Its unit is Volt.

Potential difference (P.D)

This is the difference in electrical potential measured across two points of the circuit. Potential difference is always less than EMF. The supply voltage is called potential difference. It is represented by V.

Voltage

It is the electric potential between two lines or phase and neutral. Its unit is volt. Voltmeter is used to measure voltage and it is connected parallel between the supply terminals.

Volt

It is defined as when a current of 1 ampere flows through a resistance of 1 ohm, it is said to have potential difference of 1 volt.

Current

It is the flow of electrons in any conductor is called current. It is represented by 'I' and its unit is Ampere. Ammeter is used to measure the current by connecting series with the circuit.

Ampere

When 6.24×10^{18} electrons flow in one second across any cross section of any conductor, the current in it is one ampere.(or) If the potential difference across the two ends of a conductor is 1 volt and the resistance of conductor is 1 ohm then the current through is 1 ampere.

Resistance

It is the property of a substance to oppose to the flow of electric current through it, is called resistance. Symbol: R, Unit: Ohm (Ω) , Ohm meter is used to measure the resistance.

Ohm

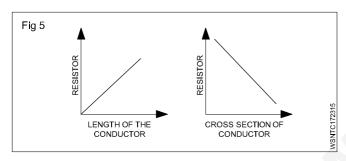
If the potential difference across the two ends of conductor is 1 volt and the current through it is 1 ampere, then the resistance of the conductor is 1 Ohm.

Laws of resistance

The resistance offered by conductor depends on the following factors.

The resistance of the conductor

- 1 is directly proportional to the length of the conductor (R α L)
- 2 Varies inversely proportional to its cross sectional area of the conductor $\left(R \ \alpha \ \frac{1}{A}\right)$
- 3 Depends on the material with which it is made.



4 depends on the temperature of the conductor

$$R \alpha L ; R \alpha \frac{1}{A} ; R \alpha \frac{L}{A} ; R = \rho \frac{L}{A}$$

Specific resistance

The specific resistance of a material is the resistance offered to a current it passed between the opposite faces of the unit cube of the material. Specific resistance is measured in Ohm - m or micro ohm - cm.

Each material has its own specific resistance or resistivity.

E.g. : Copper - 1.72
$$\mu\Omega$$
 cm, Silver - 1.64 $\mu\Omega$ cm, Eureka - 38.5 $\mu\Omega$ cm, Iron - 9.8 $\mu\Omega$ cm, Aluminium - 2.8 $\mu\Omega$ cm, Nickel - 7.8 $\mu\Omega$ cm.

$$R = \frac{\rho I}{A}$$
 ohm cm

R = Resistance in ohms

I = Length of the conductor in cm

ρ = Specific Resistance in ohm cm (symbol pronounced as rho)

A = Area of cross - section in cm²

Exercise 1.7.24

Basic Electricity - Conductor, insulator, types of connections - series and parallel

Conductors

Some materials and metals readily allow passage for electric current to flow. In such materials, called conductors, electrons are able to pass readily from atom to atom.

Properties of conductors

A good conductor should have the following properties.

Electrical properties

- · The conductivity must be good.
- Electrical energy spent in the form of heat must be low.
- Resistivity must be low (to reduce voltage drop and loss).
- Increase in resistance with temperature must be low.

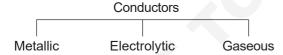
Mechanical properties

- · Ductility (the property of being drawn into thin wires).
- Solderability: the joint should have minimum contact resistance.
- Resistance to corrosion: should not get rusted when used outdoors.
- · Should withstand stress and strain.
- · It should be easy to fabricate.

Economical factors

- · Low cost.
- · Easy availability.
- · Easy to manufacture.

Classification of conductors



The best conductors are metallic. The commonly used conductors in electrical appliances and machines are described hereunder.

Silver

It is a soft and extremely malleable metal. Even though it is the best conductor, its use is limited because of its high cost.

Copper

It is a very good conductor. It is malleable and ductile, and also has high resistance to corrosion by liquids. Therefore, it is widely used for wires, cables, overhead conductors, bus bars and conducting parts of various electrical appliances.

Aluminium

It is a metal light in weight. It is also ductile, malleable and a good conductor of electricity. Nowadays, it is more widely used (since it is cheaper than copper) for wires and cables. All aluminium conductors (AAC) and aluminium conductors (steel reinforced) (ACSR) are used in overhead and transmission lines. (More details on copper and aluminium are furnished under the topic 'non-ferrous metals and alloys as applicable to electrical trades').

RESISTANCE WIRES

These are conductors with very high resistance for specific applications like filaments of incandescent lamps, heating elements etc. The following are a few examples:

Tungsten
 Nichrome
 Eureka
 German silver
 Manganin
 Platinum
 Mercury
 Carbon
 Brass

The resistance values of the metallic resistances will increase with increase in temperature.

insulators

Description

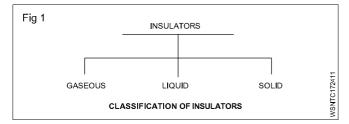
These are the materials which offer very high resistance to the flow of current and make current flow very negligible or nil. These materials have very high resistance - usually of many megohms (1 megohm = 10⁶ ohms) per centimetre cube. The insulators should also possesses high dielectric strength. This means that the insulating material should not break down or puncture even on application of a high voltage (or high electrical pressure) to a given thickness.

Properties of insulators

The main requirements of a good insulating material are:

- high specific resistance (many megohms/cm cube) to reduce the leakage currents to a negligible value
- good dielectric strength i.e. high value of breakdown voltage (expressed in kilovolts per mm)
- good mechanical strength, in tension or compression (It must resist the stresses set up during erection and under working conditions.)
- little deterioration with rise in temperature (The insulating properties should not change much with the rise in temperature i.e. when electrical machines are loaded.)
- non-absorption of moisture, when exposed to damp atmospheric condition. (The insulating properties, specially specific resistance and dielectric strength decrease considerably with the absorption of even a slight amount of moisture.)

Classification of insulators (Fig 1)



Air is an example of a gaseous insulator. Other examples are hydrogen, nitrogen and inert gases.

Liquid insulators

Mineral oils, synthetic liquids, resins and varnishes are the liquid insulators.

Transformer oil

In transformers the oil is used as an insulator and also for cooling of the transformer windings by convection. Therefore, the transformer oil should be dry and purified, since the presence of moisture will reduce the dielectric strength of the oil.

Purpose of transformer oil

- Transfer of heat by convection, from winding and core to the cooling surfaces.
- It maintains the insulation of winding and also extinguishes fire that occurs due to faults occurring in the windings.

Precaution

The insulating value of a transformer oil is reduced due to the formation of sludge as a result of oxidation due to air and temperature. To minimise oxidation, the oil should not be exposed to air.

Sludge is also formed due to the presence of acids and alkalis.

Sludge formation

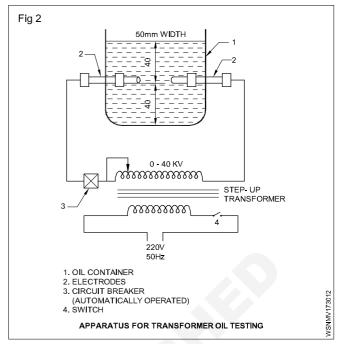
- Reduces the rate of heat transfer.
- Blocks the ducts.
- Increases the operating temperature.

To prevent moisture from entering the oil, the whole apparatus is made airtight, and calcium chloride, silicagel fillets are used.

Testing of transformer oil as per ISI Standard (Fig 2)

Dielectrical strength test (Refer to Fig 2): The oil should be 40 mm above and 40 mm below the electrodes. The gap between the two electrodes should be kept at $4 \text{ mm} \pm 0.02 \text{ mm}$).

A high voltage is applied across the electrodes through a step-up transformer, and increased till there is a spark in between the electrodes. The voltage noted on the voltmeters, when the spark occurs, is the breakdown voltage or dielectric strength of the oil. This is the maximum voltage the oil can withstand.



According to ISI specifications, the oil should be able to withstand 40 kV for one minute with a gap (4 mm \pm 0.02 mm) between the electrodes and with the diameter of the electrodes as 13 mm.

Moisture test: In this test, an oil sample is cooled in a closed vessel down to 15-25°. A dry test tube, 12.5 mm in diameter and 125 mm long, is taken and an adequate quantity of oil is poured into it.

The tube containing the oil is heated rapidly with the help of an electric heater till the oil begins to boil. During the process, oil should not produce cracking.

The other tests are:

- acidity test
- sludge resistance test.

Electrical insulating varnishes

They are of two types

Oil and resin varnishes.

Solid insulators/insulating materials

SI. No.	Classification	Examples
1	Mineral insulators	Mica, marble, slate.
2	Vitreous materials	Glass, quartz, procelain.
3	Rubber and rubber products	Rubber, vulcanised (India) rubber (V.I.R) ebonite
4	Waxes and compounds	Paraffin wax, bitumen.
5	Fibrous materials	Asbestos, paper, wood, Press pahn, leatheroid, cotton, silk, tapes etc.
6	Synthetic products	Bakelite, shellac, oil (for Transformer, Switchgear etc).

Paper

Various grades of insulating paper are available for use in capacitors, cables, etc. Paper, if moist, loses its insulating property. Therefore, it is used in an impregnated condition.

Wood

It is impregnated with oil or other substance for use as an insulator.

For example, in machine windings, bamboo wood is used as slot wedges.

Press board

It is widely used in windings to insulate parts which support windings. It is also used as spacers in electrical devices and transformers.

Asbestos

A fibrous, incombustible, fire-proof material-used for panel boards and as frames for winding resistance wires of regulators, rheostats etc.

Cotton

It is soaked in paraffin to avoid moisture. It is a good insulator for low voltages. It is used in conductors for armatures and field coils.

Silk

Like cotton, it is used for small jobs like telephone coils.

Tapes

Tapes of various types are used, such as cotton, silk, jute etc either pure or in impregnated form.

Empire cloth

It is made by varnishing a cotton cloth, silk or paper. It is not effected by moisture. It is available in yellow and black colours in different sizes. It is used as slots insulation in winding works and for coil insulation.

Press pahn

Press pahn is a form of paper made from hemp, rags, and wood pulp by special chemical treatment. It is widely used for lining armature slots, insulating coil sides, etc.

Leatheroid

It is a tough material made from cotton rags with chemical treatment. It is unaffected by grease or oil and is used for slot and coil insulation, transformer core coverings, etc.

Adhesive tape

It is used widely for taping of ends of conductors, leads and connections. Adhesive tape is made from cotton fabric coated with a compound of rubber, bitumen, resin, gum,

etc. It dries when exposed to air. It is available in sizes $\frac{1}{2}$,

3/4", 1" etc. These are also available as P.V.C. adhesive tape, cotton and bitumen tapes.

Bitumen

It is used for filling cable jointing boxes and for sealing the tops of the batteries etc. It is waterproof, but it will crack

under certain conditions. It can be valcanised in the same manner as rubber.

Mica

It is a mineral and available as large slabs. It can be easily separated into thin sheets. It is fireproof, waterproof, and is a good insulator. It should be used carefully since it is liable to crack. It is used in heating elements of electric iron etc.

Marble and slate

Marble and slate are mechanically strong insulators and are non- hygroscopic. When polished they form good mountings for switchboards, switches, resistance frames, etc. Slate is used generally for low voltages.

Micanite

It is made by sticking together pieces of mica with insulating cement like shellac. It can be bent to any shape by heating and pressing. Therefore, it is used as insulator for slots of armatures and to insulate the commutator from the shaft.

Paraffin wax

It melts at 55°C and does not absorb water. It is used to impregnate paper, wood, pressboard etc to reduce their moisture absorption.

Bakelite

It can be moulded to any shape. It is heat-resistant and highly insulating. It will not absorb oil and moisture. It is used for bodies of switches, plugs, holders, regulators etc.

Rubber

It has high insulating properties. It is used mainly on lighting cables and for flexible cables. It deteriorates gradually when exposed to atmosphere. Rubber is being replaced now by elastic plastics such as PVC or polyethylene which can resist alkalis, acids and mineral oils.

Valcanised India Rubber (VIR)

This is manufactured by treating pure rubber with sulphur. It is stronger than pure rubber and is not affected much by change in temperatures. It is used as coverings for low and medium voltage wires and cables.

Ebonite or vulcanite

Ebonite or Vulcanite is vulcanised rubber containing about 30% to 50% of sulphur, and subjected to a prolonged heating at 150°C. The material is hard and can be moulded into different shapes. It is less affected by chemicals and moisture. It is used for making containers of lead acid batteries, cases for instruments and switchgears, terminal plates and low voltage panel boards etc. It should not be subjected to heat.

Shellac

It is a good varnish which is used to improve the insulation and moisture resisting properties of paper, cloth, wood, slate etc.

Enamel

By this, an insulation coating is given on winding wires.

Polychloroprene (PCP)

It is a plastic material used for insulation of cables. It is resistant to oil and petrol. It can be used in conditions of exposure to sulphur fumes, steam, ammonia, lactic acid and direct sunlight.

Glass

It is heat-resistant and suitable for high temperatures. It is used as insulators, envelopes for lamps, radio tubes etc.

Quartz

Quartz (Silica) is a good insulator. As it has a very low temperature coefficient of expansion, it does not crack with sudden variations in temperature. It is used for pyrometer sheaths, for heating elements, sparking plugs, etc.

Porcelain

Porcelain is not so brittle as glass and is very widely used for carrying bare conductors, for making fuse carriers and other electrical fittings.

Red fibre

Mainly used in motor and transformer winding work, for slot insulation, separators etc.

Insulators classified according to their temperature limits

The permissible temperature limit at which the insulators may be worked safely without deterioration, depends upon the type and class of the insulation as detailed below. (IS:1271/1958)

Class Y - maximum temperature 90°C

Cotton, silk, paper products, press board, wood, valcanised fibre - not impregnated or immersed in oil.

Class A - maximum temperature 105°C

Cotton, silk, paper products, wood, valcanised fibre when impregnated or immersed in liquid dielectric, varnished paper and wire enamel (class A).

Class E – maximum temperature 120°C

Wire enamel, cotton fabric and paper laminates treated with oil, modified asphalt and synthetic resins, varnished polyethylene, textile treated with suitable varnish.

Class B - Maximum temperature 130°C

Glass fibre, asbestos, varnished glass fibre, textile, varnished asbestos, built up mica treated with synthetic resin varnishes.

Class F - maximum temperature 155°C

Similar to class B materials but treated with silicone resins.

Class H - maximum temperature 180°C

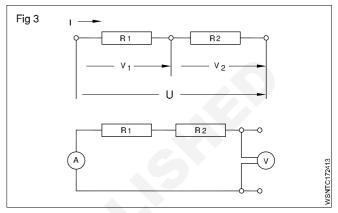
Same as class F materials but treated with silicone resins of higher thermal stability than class F.

Class C - maximum temperature above 180°C

Mica, porcelain and other ceramics, glass, quartz, asbestos, treated glass fibre textile, treated asbestos, built up mica treated with silicone resins possessing superior thermal stability (limited stability up to 225°C).

Series Connection

The total resistance is equal to the sum of all the resistances. In a series connection the end of the first load is connected to the beginning of the second load and all loads are connected end to end. (Fig 3)



Features of series connection:

- · The same current flows through all the loads.
- The voltage across each load is proportional to the resistance of the load.
- The sum of the voltages across each load is equal to the applied voltage.
- The Total resistance is equal to the sum of all the resistances.

$$| = | = | = | = |$$

$$V = V_1 + V_2 + ...$$

$$R = R_1 + R_2 + ...$$

Example

Three resistances of 3 ohms, 9 ohms and 5 ohms are connected in series. Find their resultant resistance.

Solution

$$R = R1 + R2 + R3$$

$$= 3 \Omega + 9 \Omega + 5 \Omega$$

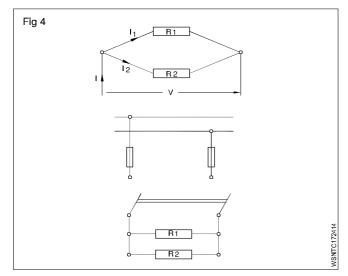
Total resistance = 17 Ω

Parallel connection

In a parallel connection the beginning and the ends of the loads are connected together.

Features of parallel connection:

- The current flowing through each load depends upon the resistance of the load.
- The voltage across each load is the same and is equal to the voltage applied to the circuit.



- The total resistance of a parallel connection is always smaller than the smallest resistance in the circuit.
- In parallel connection the reciprocal of the total resistance is equal to the sum of the reciprocals of all resistances in the circuit.

$$I = I_{1} + I_{2} + ...$$

$$V = V_{1} = V_{2} ...$$

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_{1}} + \frac{1}{R_{2}} +$$

Example

Two resistances of 4 ohms and 6 ohms are connected in parallel. Determine the total resistance.

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} +$$
 (since parallel connection)

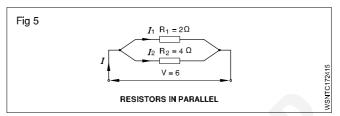
Therefore
$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{10}{24} = \frac{5}{12}$$

Therefore R =
$$\frac{24}{10}$$
 ohms = 2.4 ohms

Example

Two resistors of 2 and 4 ohms are switched in parallel to a 6V battery

- Calculate the total resistance
- Find the total current and partial current.



Solution

Total resistance

$$\frac{1}{R_{tot}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{2+1}{4}$$

$$= \frac{3}{4} \Omega$$

$$R_{tot} = \frac{4}{3} = 1 \frac{1}{3} \Omega$$

I Total = $I_1 + I_2$ current

$$ButI_1 = \frac{U}{R_1} = \frac{6V}{2\Omega} = 3A$$

$$I_2 = \frac{U}{R_2} = \frac{6V}{4\Omega} = 1.5A$$

I total=3A + 1.5A= 4.5 Amp

Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics Ex

Exercise 1.7.25

Basic Electricity - Ohm's law, relation between V.I.R & related problems

Ohm's law

V - Voltage in volts

I - Current in Ampere

R - Resistance in ohms.

In any closed circuit the basic parametres of electricity (Voltage, Current and resistance) are in a fixed relationship to each other.

Basic values

To clarify the basic electrical values, they can be compared to a water tap under pressure

Water pressure

- electron pressure

- Voltage

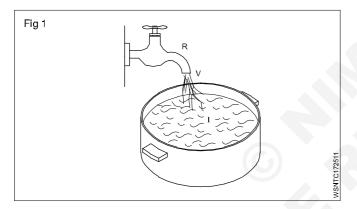
Amount of water

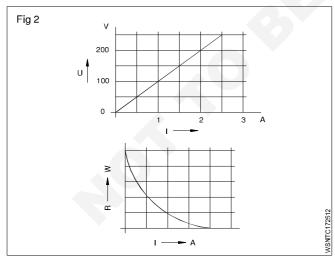
- electron flow

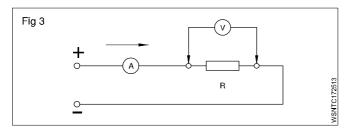
-Current

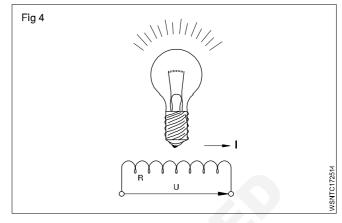
throttling of tap

 obstruction to electron flow - Resistance









Relationships

If the resistance is kept constant and the voltage is increased, the current is increased

$$I \propto V$$

If voltage is constant and the resistance is increased, current is decreased

$$I \propto \frac{1}{R}$$

Ohm's law

From the above two relationships we obtain Ohm's law,

$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$
 which is conveniently written as $V = R.I.$

Ohm's law states that at constant temperature the current passing through a closed circuit is directly proportional to the potential difference, and inversely proportional to the resistance.

By Ohm's law
$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

EXAMPLE

A bulb takes a current of 0.2 amps at a voltage of 3.6 volts. Determine the resistance of the filament of the bulb to find R. Given that V = 3.6 V and I = 0.2 A.

To find 'R'. Given that V = 3.6V and I = 0.2 A

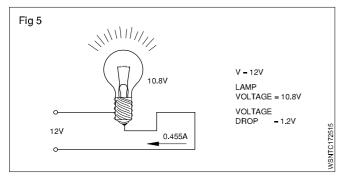
Therefore $V = I \times R$

3.6 V = 0.2 A x R

Therefore
$$R = \frac{3.6V}{0.2A} = 18$$
 ohms

Example

The voltage supply to a filament lamp is 10.8V. The voltage should be 12V. Find out loss of voltage. (Fig 5)



Voltage drop = 12V - 10.8 = 1.2V

The supply voltage is called Potential difference.

Example

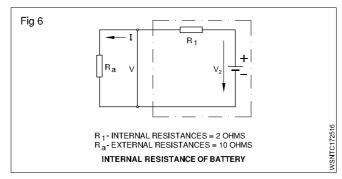
The Internal resistance of a dynamo is 0.1 ohm. The voltage of dynamo is 12V. What is the Voltage of dynamo when a current of 20 amps being supplied to an outside circuit.

Solution

Voltage drop = Current x Internal resistance

- $= 20 \times 0.1 \text{ volts}$
- = 2 volts

Example (Fig 6)



The Internal resistance of a Battery is 2 ohms. When a resistance of 10 ohms is connected to a battery it draws 0.6 amps. What is the EMF of the battery.

P.D = Current flowing x Resistance

- $= 0.6 \text{ A} \times 10\Omega$
- = 6 volts

V.D = Current flowing x Internal resistance of battery

- $= 0.6 \times 2 \text{ volts}$
- = 1.2 volts

EMF of the Battery = (6.00 + 1.2)V

= 7.2 volts

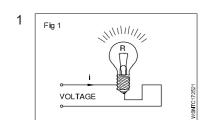
Resistance connections

V - Voltage (in volts)

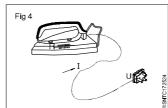
R - Resistance (in ohms)

I - Current intensity (in Amperes)

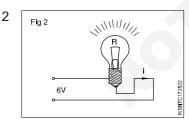
Assignment



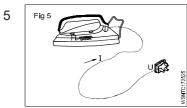
R = 40 Ohms
I = 6.5 Amps
V = Volts



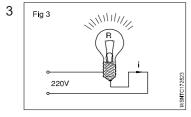
I = 4.5 Amps
V = 220 Volts
R =____Ohms



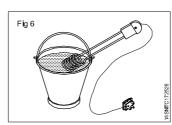
V = 6 Volts
I = 0.5 Amps
R = ____Ohms



R = 50 Ohms V = 220 Volts I = ____ Amps



V = 220 Volts
R = 820 Ohms
I = _____Amps



V = 110 Volts
I = 4.55 Amps
R = ____Ohms

6

Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics Exercise 1.7.26

Basic Electricity - Electrical power, energy and their units, calculation with assignments

Electric Power

In mechanical terms we defined power as the rate of doing work. The unit of power is Watt. In an electrical circuit also the unit of electrical power is 1 Watt. In mechanical terms 1 Watt is the work done by a force of 1 N to move the body through 1 metre in one second. In an electrical circuit, the electromotive force overcomes the resistance and does work. The rate of doing work depends upon the current flowing in the circuit in amperes. When an e.m.f of one volt causes a current of 1 ampere to flow the power is 1 Watt.

Hence Power = Voltage x Current

Power in Watts = Voltage in Volts x Current in Amperes

Electric work, energy

Electrical work or energy is the product of electrical power and time

Work in Watt seconds = Power in Watts x time in sec W = P x t

Since 1 joule represents 1 Watt x 1 sec, which is very small, larger units such as 1 Watt hour and 1 kilowatt hour are used.

1 W.h = 3600 Watt sec.

1 Kwh = 1000 Wh = 3600000 Watt sec

FPS System

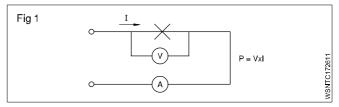
Metric System

1 H.P = 746 watts

1 H.P = 735.6 watts

= 0.746 K.W = 0.7356 K.W

Note: The charge for electric consumption is the energy cost per Kwh and it varies according to the country and states.



V - Voltage (Volts) V

i - Current Intensity (Amperes) A

P - Power (Watts, Kilowatts) W, kW

W - Work, Energy (Watt hour, Kilowatt hour) wh, Kwh

t - time (hours) h

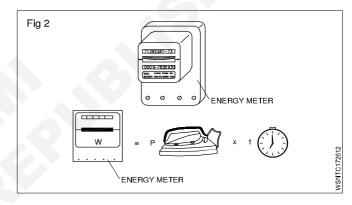


Table of analogies between mechanical and electrical quantities

Mechanical quantity	Unit	Electrical quantity	Unit
Force 'F'	N	Voltage 'V'	V
Velocity $v = \frac{\text{Displacement}}{\text{Time}}$	m/s	Current /	А
Time t	seconds	Time t	seconds
Power $P = F \times V$	N m/sec	Power P = V x i	$W = V \times A$
Energy = $F \times v \times t$	Energy = $F \times v \times t$ $j = Nm$		$j = W \times s$

$$W = VI$$

$$= I^{2}R$$

$$= \frac{V^{2}}{R}$$

$$R = \frac{V}{I}$$

$$= \frac{V^{2}}{W}$$

$$= \frac{W}{I^{2}}$$

$$V = IR$$

$$= \frac{W}{I}$$

$$= \sqrt{WR}$$

$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

$$= \frac{W}{V}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{W}{R}}$$

Example

1 Calculate the power rating of the lamp in the circuit, if 0.25 amperes of current flows and the voltage is 240 volts.

$$P = V \times I$$

V = 240 Volts

I = 0.25 Ampere

Therefore Power = 240 Volts x 0.25 Amperes

= 60 Volts Ampere

But 1 Watt = 1 Volt x 1 Ampere

Therefore Power = 60 Watts

2 A current of 15 amperes flow through a resistance of 10 Ohms. Calculate the power in kilowatts consumed.

Given that
$$R = 10$$
 and $I = 15A$

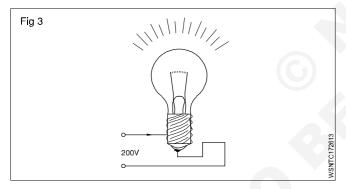
Power =
$$V \times I = I \times R \times I = I^2 \times R$$

Therefore Power = $15^2 \times 10 = 2250 \text{ Watts} = 2.25 \text{ kW}$

3 At a line voltage of 200 Volts a bulb consumes a current of 0.91 amperes. If the bulb is on for 12 hour calculate the work in Wh to find the work given that V = 200 Volts.

$$I = 0.91 \text{ Amps.}$$

$$t = 12 \text{ hours}$$



Therefore Power=V x I = 200 Volts x 0.91 Amps

= 182 Watts

Therefore Work = $P \times t = 182 \text{ Watts } \times 12 \text{ hours}$ = 2184 Watt hour.

4 An adjustable resistor bears the following label: 1.5 k Ohms/0.08 A. What is its rated power?

Find: P

 $V = R \times I = 1500 \text{ Ohms.} 0.08 \text{ A} = 120 \text{ volts}$

 $P = V \times I = 120 \text{ volts.} 0.08 \text{ A} = 9.6 \text{ W}$ alternatively:

 $P = 1^2.R = (0.08 \text{ A})^2.1500 \text{ Ohms} = 9.6 \text{ W}.$

5 Find the current and power consumed by an electric iron having 110Ω resistance when feed from a 220 v supply

Resistance of electric iron (R) =
$$110 \text{ ohms}$$

Current(I) =
$$\frac{V}{R}$$

= $\frac{220}{110}$ 2 amperes
Power(w) = $V \times I$

6 Find the total power if four 1000 W, 180 volt heaters are connected in series across 240 V supply and current carrying capacity is 15 amp. Find the total power.

No. of heaters
$$= 4$$

Heaterpower(W) = 1000 watts

Heatervoltage = 180 V

Supply voltage = 240 V

Heater resistance (R) =
$$\frac{V^2}{W}$$

$$= \frac{180 \times 180}{1000} = \frac{324}{10}$$

Total resistance = $32.4 \times 4 = 129.6$ ohms

Total current (I) =
$$\frac{V}{R}$$

$$=$$
 $\frac{240}{129.6}$ = 1.85 amperes

$$Total Power(W) = V x I$$

= 240 x 1.85 = 444 watts

7 If a 40 watt fluorescent lamp draws a current of 0.10 ampere. How much voltage will be required to illuminate it?

Lamp power
$$(W)$$
 = 40 watt

$$Current(I) = 0.10 ampere$$

Voltage (V) =
$$\frac{VV}{I}$$

$$=\frac{40}{0.1} = 400 \text{ volts}$$

8 Find the cost of running 15 HP motor for 15 days @ 6 hrs per day and the cost of energy is Rs. 3 per unit.

Motorpower(w) = 15 HP

 $= 15 \times 746 = 11,190 \text{ watts}$

Consumption per day = $11,190 \times 6$

= 67140 = 67.14 KWH

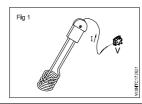
Consumption for 15 days = 67.14×15

= 1007 KWH (or) unit

Cost per unit = Rs. 3

Cost for total energy = 3×1007 = Rs. 3021

Assignment



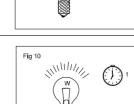
Current Consumed

I = 0.136 A

Voltage 'V' = 220 V

P = ____Watts

10



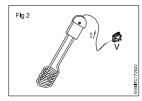
P = 100 W

t = 1 hour

Energy consumption

= kWh

2



P = 500 Watts

I = 2.27 A

V =____v

Energy consumed

= 1 kWh

Power 'P' = 100 W

3

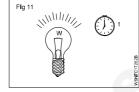


P = 750 W

V = 220 v

/ = ____A

11

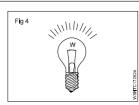


= 1.5 kWh

= 45 min.

= kW.

4



P = 60 W

V = 200 v

R =___ohms

12



Energy metre reading $W_{1} = 6755.3 \text{ kWh}$

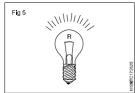
Increases to W_2

= 6759.8 kWh

t = 45 min.

P = _____ kW.

5

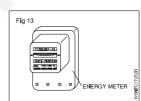


I = 0.455 A

R = 484 ohms

P = ____ Watts

13



Power consumed

P' = 6.2 kW

t = 8 hours

Charge per kwh

= 1.25 Rupees

Total cost

=___Rupees

7

6



P = 550 WR = 22 ohms

/ = ____A

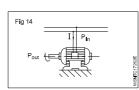


P consumed = 1.8 kW

R = 8 ohms

V =____v

14



I = 5.45 A

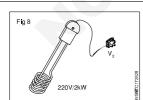
V = 220 v

Energy consumed

= 1 kWh

t = hr.

8



/ consumed = ____ A

P = 2 kW

 $V_1 = 220 \text{V}$ (Heating element voltage)

R = ____

Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics Exercise 1.7.27

Basic Electricity - Magnetic induction, self and mutual inductance and EMF generation

Magnetic induction

When a magnet is brought near to an iron bar is brought near to a magnet, a magnetism is produced in the iron bar. The phenomenon is known as magnetic induction. Actually, before attracting an iron bar towards it, a magnet induces an opposite polarity in the iron bar and then due to attraction between unlike poles, magnet attracts the iron bar. The magnet need not to touch the iron bar for magnetic induction.

In various electrical measuring instruments, soft iron pole pieces are used along with bar magnets in order to given the desired shape to the magnet used, such pole piece work on the principle of magnetic induction.

Intensity of magnetic field

The force acting on a unit pole placed in a magnetic field (attractive or repulsive force) is called the intensity of magnetic field. It is denoted by letter H and its unit is Wb/m.

Principles and laws of electromagnetic induction

Faraday's laws of electromagnetic induction are also applicable for conductors carrying alternating current.

Faraday's laws of electromagnetic induction

Faraday's first law states that whenever the magnetic flux is linked with a circuit changes, an emf is always induced in it.

The second law states that the magnitude of the induced emf is equal to the rate of change of flux linkage.

Dynamically induced EMF

Accordingly induced emf can be produced either by moving the conductor in a stationery magnetic field or by changing magnetic flux over a stationery conductor. When conductor moves and produces emf, the emf is called as dynamically induced emf Example: Generators.

Statically induced EMF

When changing flux produces emf the emf is called as statically induced emf as explained below. Example:Transformer.

Statically induced emf: When the induced emf is produced in a stationery conductor due to changing magnetic field, obeying Faraday's laws of electro magnetism, the induced emf is called as statically induced emf.

There are two types of statically induced emf as stated below:

- 1 Self induced emf produced with in the same coil.
- Mutually induced emf produced in the neighbouring coil.

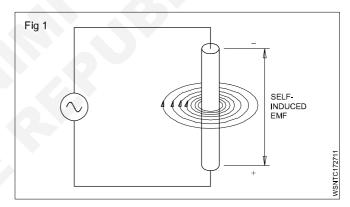
Self-induction: The production of an electromotive force in a circuit, when the magnetic flux linked with the circuit changes as a result of the change in a current inducing in the same circuit.

At any instant, the direction of the magnetic field is determined by the direction of the current flow.

With one complete cycle, the magnetic field around the conductor builds up and then collapses. It then builds up in the opposite direction, and collapses again. When the magnetic field begins building up from zero, the lines of force or flux lines expand from the centre of the conductor outward. As they expand outward, they can be thought of cutting through the conductor.

Self induction

According to Faraday's Laws, an emf is induced in the conductor. Similarly, when the magnetic field collapses, the flux lines cut through the conductor again, and an emf is induced once again. This is called self-induction (Fig 1).

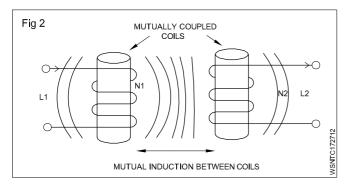


Mutual induction

When two or more coils one magnetically linked together by a common magnetic flux, they are said have the property of mutual inductance. It is the basic operating principal of the transformer, motor generators and any other electrical component that interacts with another magnetic field. It can define mutual induction on the current flowing in one coil that induces as voltage in an adjacent coil.

In the Fig 2 current flowing in coil L1 sets up a magnetic field around it self with some of its magnetic field line passing through coil L2 giving in mutual inductance coil one L on has a current of I, and N, turns while coil two L2, has N2 turns therefore mutual inductance M, of coil two that exists with respect to coil one L, depend on their position with inspect to each other.

The mutual inductance M that exists between the two coils can be greatly measured by positioning them on a common soft iron cone or by measuring the number of turns of either coil on wound be found in a transformer.



The two coils are tightly wound one on top of the other over a common soft iron core unit said to exist between them as any losses due to the leakage of flux will be extremely small. Then assuring a perfect flux leakage between the two coils the mutual inductance M.

Dynamically induced EMF

Generator: An electrical generator is a machine which converts mechanical energy into electrical energy.

Principle of the Generator: To facilitate this energy conversion, the generator works on the principle of Faraday's Laws of Electromagnetic induction.

Faraday's laws of electromagnetic induction: There are two laws

The first law states:

 whenever the flux linking to a conductor or circuit changes, an emf will be induced.

The second law states:

 the magnitude of such induced emf (e) depends upon the rate of change of the flux linkage.

Types of emf: According to Faraday's Laws, an emf can be induced, either by the relative movement of the conductor and the magnetic field or by the change of flux linking on a stationary conductor.

Dynamically induced emf: In case, the induced emf is due to the movement of the conductor in a stationary magnetic field as shown in Fig 3a or by the movement of the magnetic field on a stationary conductor as shown in Fig 3b, the induced emf is called dynamically induced emf.

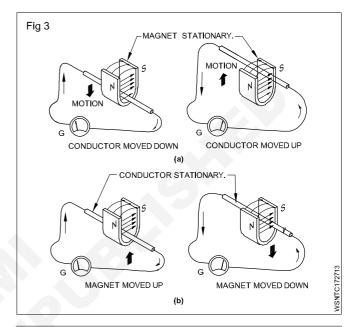
As shown in Fig 3a & 3b, the conductor cuts the lines of force in both cases to induce an emf, and the presence of the emf could be found by the deflection of the needle of the galvanometer 'G'. This principle is used in DC and AC generators to produce electricity.

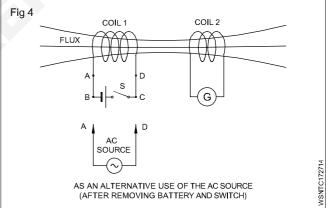
Statically induced emf: In case, the induced emf is due to change of flux linkage over a stationary conductor as shown in Fig 2, the emf thus induced is termed as statically induced emf. The coils 1 and 2 shown in Fig 2 are not touching each other, and there is no electrical connection between them.

According to Fig 4, when the battery (DC) supply is used in coil 1, an emf will be induced in coil 2 only at the time of closing or opening of the switch S. If the switch is permanently closed or opened, the flux produced by coil 1

becomes static or zero respectively and no emf will be induced in coil 2. EMF will be induced only when there is a change in flux which happens during the closing or opening of the circuit of coil 1 by the switch in a DC circuit.

Alternatively the battery and switch could be removed and coil 1can be connected to an AC supply as shown in Fig4. Then an emf will be induced in coil 2 continuously as long as coil 1 is connected to an AC source which produces alternating magnetic flux in coil 1 and links with coil 2. This principle is used in transformers.





Production of dynamically induced emf: (Fig 5) Whenever a conductor cuts the magnetic flux, a dynamically induced emf is produced in it. This emf causes a current to flow if the circuit of the conductor is closed.

For producing dynamically induced emf, the requirements are:

- magnetic field
- · conductor
- relative motion between the conductor and the magnetic field.

If the conductor moves with a relative velocity 'v' with respect to the field, then the induced emf 'e' will be

= BLV Sinθ Volts

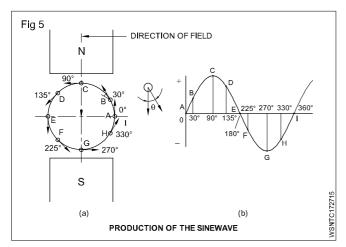
where

B = magnetic flux density, measured in tesla

L = effective length of the conductor in the field in metres

V = relative velocity between field and conductor in metre/second.

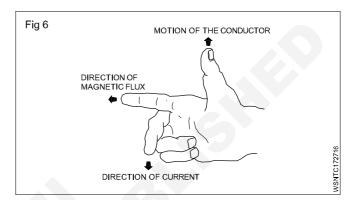
 θ = the angle at which the conductor cuts the magnetic field



Likewise for every position of the remaining conductors in the periphery, the emfinduced could be calculated. If these values are plotted on a graph, it will represent the sine wave pattern of induced emf in a conductor when it rotates under N and S poles of uniform magnetic field.

The emf induced by this process is basically alternating in nature, and this alternating current is converted into direct current in a DC generator by the commutator.

Fleming's right hand rule: The direction of dynamically induced emf can be identified by this rule. Hold the thumb, forefinger and middle finger of the righ hand at right angles to each other as shown in Fig 6 such that the forefinger is in the direction of flux and the thumb is in the direction of the motion of the conductor, then the middle finger indicates the direction of emf induced, i.e. towards the observer or away from the observer.



Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics Exercise 1.7.28

Basic Electricity - Electrical power, HP, energy and units of electrical energy

Electric Power

In mechanical terms we defined power as the rate of doing work. The unit of power is Watt. In an electrical circuit also the unit of electrical power is 1 Watt. In mechanical terms 1 Watt is the work done by a force of 1 N to move the body through 1 metre in one second. In an electrical circuit, the electromotive force overcomes the resistance and does work. The rate of doing work depends upon the current flowing in the circuit in amperes. When an e.m.f of one volt causes a current of 1 ampere to flow the power is 1 Watt.

The rate of work is called Power. Its units is watt. In a circuit with one volt pressure the quanity of electric current produced represents one watt of power. Power is obtained from circuit voltage multiplied by current.

If voltage is V and current I, then power

$$P = V \times I$$
 watts

According to Ohm's law

$$V = I \times R$$

 $P = I \times R \times I$
 $= I^2 \times R \text{ watts}$

Horsepower Definition Science

Horsepower is defined as the work done per unit time and this term was invented by James Watt. It is a unit of power that relates a machine's power to the muscle power of a horse. It was once used to compare the output of steam engines to the power of draught horses. It was later expanded to include other piston engines, electric motors, turbines, and other machinery.

Horsepower

The practical unit of power is Horsepower.

one horsepower = 735.6 watts

FPS System	Metric System		
1 HP = 746 watts	1 HP = 735.6 watts		
= 0.746 K.W	= 0.7356 K.W		

Energy

The capacity to work is called energy. In electricity energy is produced by power through work in a given time. In a circuit, power W is spent in time (t) then it will be said that energy used in circuit = W x t. The unit of energy is watt seconds or joule.

:. Energy = Power in watt x time in seconds

Unit of Electrical Energy

This is bigger unit of energy. Its full name is Board of Trade Unit but in short it is called Unit. In this, power is measured in kW and the time is in hours. Its unit is kilowatt hour or kWh.

Example

1 A D.C motor takes 7.106 amps at 110 volts and has an efficiency of 80%. How much HP does it deliver?

Current (I) = 7.106 amp
volt (V) = 110 volts
efficiency = 80%
Horsepower = Output ?
Input = V x I watts
Power Input = 110 x 7.106 = 781.66 watts

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \times 100\%$$

$$80 = \frac{\text{Output}}{781.66} \times 100$$
Power Output = $\frac{80 \times 781.66}{100} = 625.3 \text{ watts}$

$$1 \text{ HP} = 746 \text{ watts}$$

$$HP = \frac{625.3}{746} = 0.8382$$
Motor power = 0.8382 HP

2 A factory having 4 motors each 5 HP runs 8 hours per day for 30 days. Calculate the electricity expenditure if Rs.2 per unit.

Total electricity expenditure = Rs. 7161.60/-

Motor = 5 HP

No. of Motor = 4

Runs per day = 8 hours

No. of days run = 30 days

Total HP =
$$4 \times 5 = 20 \text{ HP}$$

Total running = $8 \times 30 = 240 \text{ hours}$
 $1 \text{ HP} = 746 \text{ watts}$
 $1 \text{ kW} = 1000 \text{ watts}$

Total kWh = $\frac{20 \times 240 \times 746}{1000}$
= 3580.8 kWh

1 kWh electricity charge = 2×3580.8

Trigonometry - Measurement of angles

Introduction:

Trigonometry is the branch of mathematics which deals with the study of measurement and relationship of the three sides and three angles of a triangle.

Units:

Measurement of Angles

There are three systems of measuring the angle:

(i) Sexagesimal System

This is called British System. In this system, one right angle is divided into 90 equal parts which are called degrees. Each part is divided into 60 parts which are called minutes. Each minute is divided into 60 parts which are called seconds. The parts so divided respectively are called:

One degree (1°), one minute (1') and one second (1")

It means 1 right angle = 90° (90 degrees)

1 degree (1°) = 60' (60 minutes)

1 minute (1') = 60" (60 seconds)

In Trigonometry, mostly this system is used.

(ii) Centesimal System

This is called French System. In this system, the right angle is divided into 100 equal parts which are called grades. Each grade is divided into 100 minutes and each minute is divided into 100 seconds.

Parts so divided are respectively called:

One grade (1 g), one minute (1'), one second (1").

It means 1 right angle = 100 grades (100g)

1 grade (1 g) = 100 minutes (100')

1 minute (1') = 100 seconds (100")

90° = 100g (because each is a right angle)

This system is easier than Sexagesimal System. But to use this system many other systems will have to be devised that is why this system is not used.

(iii) Circular System

In this system, the unit of measuring angles is radian. It is that angle which is formed at the centre and is formed of an arc of length equal to radius in a circle.

There is one constant ratio between the circumference and dia of a circle. This is represented by $\,\pi\,$.

 $\frac{1}{1}$ Diameter = constant point = π

Circumference = π x dia

= $2\pi r$ (where r is radius of the circle)

$$\pi = \frac{22}{7}$$

Circumference makes an angle $(2\pi r) = 360^{\circ}$

Radius of the circle makes an angle (r) = 1 Radian

ie:
$$\frac{C}{r} = \frac{360^{\circ}}{1Radian}$$

$$\frac{2\pi r}{r} = \frac{360^{\circ}}{1Radian}$$

$$2\pi = \frac{360^{\circ}}{1\text{Radian}}$$

 2π Radian = 360°

 π Radian = 180°

1 Radian =
$$\frac{180^{\circ}}{\pi}$$

$$1^{\circ} = \frac{\pi}{180^{\circ}}$$
 Radian

Examples

1 Convert 45°36'20" into degree and decimal of degree.

60 seconds = 1 minute

20 seconds =
$$\frac{20}{60}$$
 = 0.333'

60 minutes = 1 degree

$$36.333 \text{ minutes} = \frac{36.333}{60} = 0.606^{\circ}$$

$$45^{\circ}36'20" = 45.606^{\circ}$$

2 Convert 24.59° into degree, minute and second

1 degree = 60 minutes

 $0.59 \text{ degree} = 0.59 \times 60 = 35.4$

1 minute = 60 seconds

 $0.4 \, \text{minute} = 60 \, \text{sec} \, x \, 0.4$

= 24"

Therefore $24.59^{\circ} = 24^{\circ}35'24''$

3 Change 50°37'30" into degrees

By changing angle degrees into decimals

$$30" = \frac{30}{60} = 0.50$$

37'30" = 37.5'

$$37.5' = \frac{37.5}{60} = 0.625^{\circ}$$

 $50^{\circ}37'30" = 50.625^{\circ}$

4 Convert 23°25' 32" into radians

We know
$$1^{\circ} = 60' = 3600"$$

Therefore 23°25'32"

$$= \left(23 + \frac{25}{60} + \frac{32}{3600}\right) \text{ degrees}$$

$$= \frac{82800 + 1500 + 32}{3600}$$

$$= \frac{84332}{3600}$$

But
$$180^{\circ} = \pi$$
 radians

Therefore 23.4255 degrees

$$= \frac{23.4255}{180} \pi \text{ radians}$$
$$= \frac{23.4255}{180} \times \frac{22}{7} \text{ radians}$$

5 Convert 87º19' 57" into Radian.

19'57" = 19' +
$$\frac{57''}{60}$$

= 19' + 0.95'
= 19.95'
87°19.95' = 87° + $\frac{19.95'}{60}$
= 87° + 0.332° = 87.33°
1° = $\frac{\pi}{180}$ radian
87.33° = $\frac{\pi}{180}$ x 87.33 radian
= 1.524 radian

6 Convert 67°11'43" into Radian

$$11'43'' = 11' + \frac{43''}{60}$$

$$= 11' + 0.716'$$

$$= 11.72'$$

$$67°11.72' = 67° + \frac{11.72'}{60}$$

$$= 67° + 0.195°$$

$$= 67.2°$$

$$1° = \frac{\pi}{180} \text{ radian}$$

$$67.2° = \frac{\pi}{180} \times 67.2 \text{ radian}$$

$$= 1.173 \text{ radian}$$

7 Convert $\frac{4}{7}$ m radian into degrees

1 radian =
$$\frac{180}{\pi}$$
 degree

$$\frac{4}{7}\pi$$
 radian = $\frac{180}{\pi} \times \frac{4}{7}\pi$ degree
= 102.9 degree
= 102° 0.9 x 60'
= 102° 54'

8 Convert 0.8357 radian into degrees

1 radian =
$$\frac{180}{\pi}$$
 degree
0.8357 radian = $\frac{180}{\pi}$ x 0.8357 degree
= 47.88°
= 47° 0.88 x 60'
= 47° 52.80'
= 47° 52'0.8 x 60"
= 47° 52'48"

9 Convert 2.752 radian into degrees

1 Radian =
$$\frac{180}{\pi}$$
 degree
2.7520 radian = $\frac{180}{\pi}$ x 2.752 degree
= 157.7°
= 157.7° x 60'
= 157°42'

10 Convent $\frac{3}{5}\pi$ radian into degrees

1 Radian =
$$\frac{180}{\pi}$$
 degree
 $\frac{3}{5}\pi$ radian = $\frac{180}{\pi} \times \frac{3}{5}\pi$ degree
= 108°

Assignment

Convert into Degree

1 12 Radian

Convert into Radians

2 78°

3 47020'

4 52036'45"

5 25°38"

Convert into degree, minute and seconds

6 46.723°

7 68.625°

8 0.1269 Radian

9 2.625 Radians

10 3/5 Radian

Workshop Calculation & Science - Technician Mechatronics

Exercise 1.8.30

Trigonometry - Trigonometrical ratios

Dependency

The sides of a triangle bear constant ratios for a given definite value of the angle. That is, increase or decrease in the length of the sides will not affect the ratio between them unless the angle is changed. These ratios are trigonometrical ratios. For the given values of the angle a value of the ratios

$$\frac{BC}{AB}$$
, $\frac{AC}{AB}$, $\frac{BC}{AC}$, $\frac{AB}{BC}$, $\frac{AB}{AC}$ and $\frac{AC}{BC}$ do not change even when

the sides AB, BC, AC are increased to AB', BC' and AC' or decreased to AB", BC" and AC".

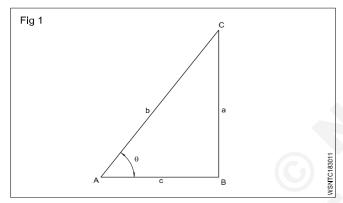
For the angle

AC is the hypotenuse

AB is the adjacent side

BC is the opposite side.

The ratios



The six ratios between the sides have precise definitions.

Sine
$$\theta = \frac{BC}{AC} = \frac{Opposite \ side}{Hypotenuse} = Sin \theta$$

Cosine
$$\theta = \frac{AB}{AC} = \frac{Adjacent \ side}{Hypotenuse} = Cos \theta$$

$$Tangent \ \theta = \frac{BC}{AB} = \frac{Opposite \ side}{Adjacent \ side} = Tan \ \theta$$

Cosecant
$$\theta = \frac{AC}{BC} = \frac{Hypotenuse}{Opposite side} = Cosec \theta$$

Secant
$$\theta = \frac{AC}{AB} = \frac{Hypotenuse}{Adjacent side} = Sec \theta$$

$$\label{eq:cotangent} \text{Cotangent} \quad \theta = \frac{AB}{BC} = \frac{\text{Adjacent side}}{\text{Opposite side}} = \text{Cot } \theta$$

Relationship between the ratios

$$Cosec \ \theta = \frac{AC}{BC} = \frac{1}{\frac{BC}{AC}} = \frac{1}{\sin \theta}$$

$$sec \ \theta = \frac{AC}{AB} = \frac{1}{\frac{AB}{AC}} = \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$$

$$\cot \theta = \frac{AB}{BC} = \frac{1}{\frac{BC}{AB}} = \frac{1}{\tan \theta}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{\text{sideBC}}{\text{sideAC}} = \frac{a}{b}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\text{side AB}}{\text{sideAC}} = \frac{c}{b}$$

$$\frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta} = \frac{\frac{a}{b}}{\frac{c}{b}} = \frac{a}{b} \times \frac{b}{c} = \frac{a}{c}$$

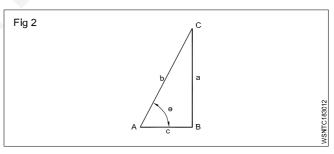
$$= \frac{\text{side BC}}{\text{side AB}} = \tan \theta$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{1}{\cos ec \ \theta} \text{ or cosec } \theta = \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \text{ or } \sin \theta. \text{ cosec } \theta = 1$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{\sec \theta} \text{ or sec } \theta = \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \text{ or } \cos \theta. \sec \theta = 1$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{1}{\cot \theta}$$
 or $\cot \theta = \frac{1}{\tan \theta}$ or $\cot \theta \cdot \tan \theta = 1$

By pythogoras theorem we have, $AC^2 = AB^2 + BC^2$



Dividing both sides of the equation by AC2, we have

$$\frac{AC^2}{AC^2} = \frac{AB^2}{AC^2} + \frac{BC^2}{AC^2}$$

$$= \left[\frac{AB}{AC}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{BC}{AC}\right]^2$$

$$1 = (\cos \theta)^2 + (\sin \theta)^2$$

$$\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$$

Sine, Cosine, Tangent, Cosec, Sec and Cotangent are the six trigonometrical ratios

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$$
 and $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$

$$\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$$

It can be transformed as

$$\sin^2\theta = 1 - \cos^2\theta$$

$$\sin \theta = \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 \theta}$$

or
$$\cos^2 \theta = 1 - \sin^2 \theta$$

$$\cos \theta = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta} = \frac{\sqrt{1 - \cos^2 \theta}}{\cos \theta}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta}}$$

We know $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$

Dividing both sides by $\cos^2 \theta$.

$$\frac{\sin^2\theta}{\cos^2\theta} + \frac{\cos^2\theta}{\cos^2\theta} = \frac{1}{\cos^2\theta}$$

or 1 +
$$tan^2\theta = sec^2\theta$$

Using the same equation

$$\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1.$$

Dividing both sides by sin²q,

$$\frac{\text{Sin}^2\theta}{\text{Sin}^2\theta} + \frac{\text{Cos}^2\theta}{\text{Sin}^2\theta} = \frac{1}{\text{Sin}^2\theta}$$

$$1 + \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{\sin^2 \theta} = \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta}$$

$$1 + \cot^2 q = \csc^2 q$$

$$1 + \tan^2 q = \sec^2 q$$

Trigonometrical Tables

Ratio	0°	30°	45°	60°	90°
sin θ	0	1/2	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1
cos θ	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	1/2	0
tan θ	0	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	√3	8

When q increases,

Sine value increases;

Cosine value decreases;

Tangent value increases to more than 1 when the angle is more than 45° (tan60° = 1.732)

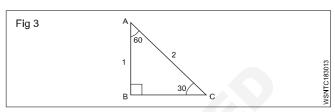
Sine of an angle = Cosine of its complementary angle

Cosine of an angle = Sine of its complementary angle

Examples

If $\sin 30^\circ = \frac{1}{2}$ find the value of $\sin 60^\circ$

By applying pythagores theorem



$$BC^2 = AC^2 - AB^2$$

$$BC^{2} = 2^{2} - 1^{2}$$
$$= 4 - 1$$
$$= 3$$

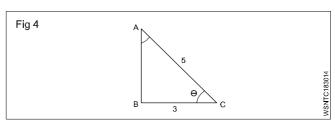
$$BC = \sqrt{3}$$

$$\sin 60^{\circ} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

 $Cos\theta = \frac{3}{5}$ Find the other trigonometrical ratios

By applying pythagores theorem

$$AB^{2} = AC^{2} - BC^{2}$$
$$= 5^{2} - 3^{2} = 25 - 9$$
$$= 16$$



AB =
$$\sqrt{16}$$
 = 4

Now
$$\sin\theta = \frac{4}{5}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{4}{3}$$

Cosec
$$\theta = \frac{5}{4}$$

$$\sec \theta = \frac{5}{3}$$

$$\cot \theta = \frac{3}{4}$$

Signs of trigonometrical functions for angles more than 90°

Ratio	90 - θ	90 + θ	180 - θ	180 + θ	270 - θ	270 + θ	360 - θ	- θ
sin	cos	cos	sin	- sin	- cos	- cos	- sin	- sin
cos	sin	- sin	- cos	- cos	- sin	sin	cos	cos
tan	cot	- cot	- tan	tan	cot	- cot	- tan	- tan
cosec	sec	sec	cosec	- cosec	- sec	- sec	- cosec	- cosec
sec	cosec	- cosec	- sec	- sec	- cosec	cosec	sec	sec
cot	tan	- tan	- cot	cot	tan	- tan	- cot	- cot

Simplify:

$$\cot \theta + \tan (180+\theta) + \tan(90-\theta) + (\tan 360 - \theta)$$
$$= \cot \theta + \tan \theta - \cot \theta - \tan \theta$$
$$= 0$$

Simplify:

$$\frac{\cos(90+\theta)\sec(-\theta)\tan(180-\theta)}{\sec(360-\theta)\sin(180+\theta)\cos(90-\theta)}$$

$$=\frac{(-\sin\theta)x(\sec\theta)x(-\tan\theta)}{(\sec\theta)x(-\sin\theta)x(-\sin\theta)}$$

$$=\frac{\tan\theta}{\sin\theta} = \frac{1}{\cos\theta} = \sec\theta$$

simplify:

$$\frac{\cos(90^{\circ} + \theta)\sec(-\theta)\tan(180^{\circ} - \theta)}{\sec(360^{\circ} - \theta)\sin(180^{\circ} + \theta)\cot(90^{\circ} - \theta)}$$
$$\cos(90^{\circ} + \theta) = -\sin\theta$$
$$\sec(-\theta) = \sec\theta$$
$$\tan(180^{\circ} - \theta) = -\tan\theta$$

$$sec (360^{\circ} - \theta) = sec \theta$$

$$\sin (180^{\circ} + \theta) = -\sin \theta$$

$$\cot (90^{\circ} + \theta) = - \tan \theta$$

$$\frac{\cos \left(90^{\circ}+\theta\right) \sec \left(-\theta\right) \tan \left(180^{\circ}-\theta\right)}{\sec \left(360^{\circ}-\theta\right) \sin \left(180^{\circ}+\theta\right) \cot \left(90^{\circ}-\theta\right)}$$

$$=\frac{(-\sin\theta)(\sec\theta)(\tan\theta)}{(\sec\theta)(-\sin\theta)(-\tan\theta)}$$

Simplify:

Cot
$$\theta$$
 + tan (180° + θ) + tan (90° + θ) + tan (360° - θ)

$$\tan (180^{\circ} - \theta) = \tan \theta$$

$$\tan (90^0 + \theta) = -\cot \theta$$

$$\tan (360^{\circ} - \theta) = - \tan \theta$$

$$\cot \theta + \tan (180^{\circ} + \theta) + \tan (90^{\circ} + \theta) + \tan (360^{\circ} - \theta)$$

$$\cot \theta + \tan \theta - \cot \theta - \tan \theta = 0$$

Assignment

- 1 Given $\sin 30^\circ = 1/2$, find the value of $\tan 60^\circ$
- 2 If $\cos \theta = 4/5$, find the other radios
- 3 If $\sin A = 3/5$, find $\cos \theta$, $\tan \theta \& \sec \theta$
- 4 If $\tan \theta = 24/7$, find $\sin \theta$ and $\cos \theta$
- 5 Find the value of $\cos \theta$ and $\tan \theta$, if $\sin \theta = 1/2$
- 6 If $\cos \theta = 5/13$, find the value of $\tan \theta$
- 7 If $\sin \theta = 1/2$, find the value of $\sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta$

8 What is the value of

$$\frac{\sin^2 30^\circ}{\cos^2 45^\circ} + \frac{\tan 45^\circ}{\sec 60^\circ} - \frac{\sin 60^\circ}{\cot 45^\circ} - \frac{\cos 30^\circ}{\sin 90^\circ}$$

Simplify:

$$2 \quad \frac{\cos(90+\theta) \cdot \sec(-\theta) \cdot \tan(180-\theta)}{\sec(360+\theta) \cdot \sin(180+\theta) \cdot \cot(90+\theta)}$$