

# **MACHINE TOOL APPLICATION**

## **LATHE MACHINE**

Traditionally, any machine we see is produced with the help of another machine. These machines which are used to produce other machines are called MACHINE TOOLS.

The very first machines however were manually made by highly skilled men who could work within the required accuracy.

With time however, higher and consistent degree of accuracy came into demand, together with greater forces required, and with increased rate of production due to demand, machines became a requirement in the production process.

### INTRODUCTION TO DIMENSION CONTROL AND INSPECTION

Any complete machine is composed of numerous parts, which are produced separately and then assembled. The processes of producing each of those parts involve careful dimension control to suit the required type of fit. When assembled, the two parts are fitted while bearing either of the following two points in mind:-

- 1) A fit that allows relative movement between the two ( clearance fit)
- 2) A fit that does not allow relative movement between the two – (interference fit)

There are three ways of achieving this.

- 1) Using individual assembly method,
- 2) Using selective assembly method,
- 3) Using Systems of Limits and Fits.

### INDIVIDUAL ASSEMBLY

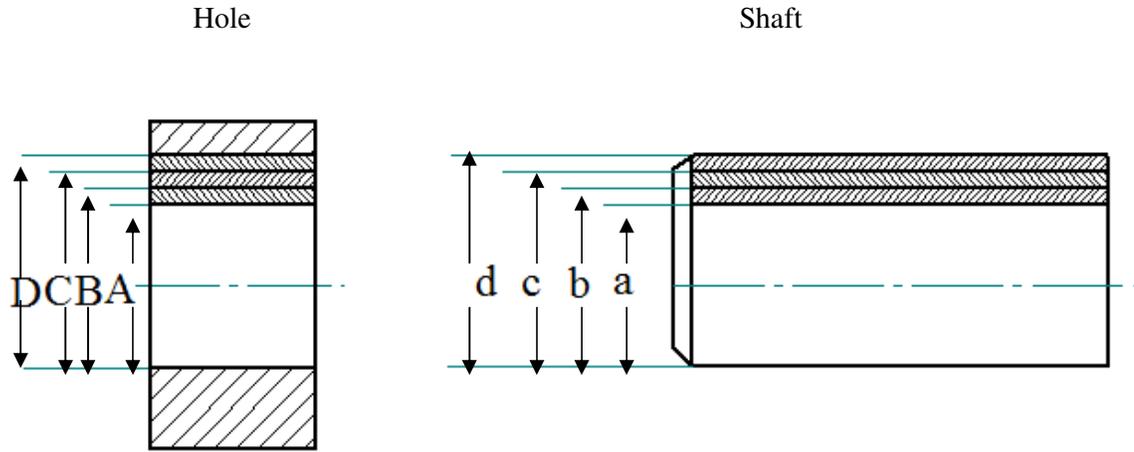
In this approach, one of the two parts to be assembled is first machined as close as possible to the required dimension in the working drawing. The second part is then machined while testing using the first piece until when the required fit is attained (clearance or interference).

The disadvantage of this method is that it is slow due to the numerous stoppages required for the frequent checks. It also needs highly skilled personnel for operating the machine. The parts are made for each other and may not fit properly with any other part made for the same purpose. All the above reasons make this method very costly.

### SELECTIVE ASSEMBLY

This approach takes into account the fact that it is impossible to produce a particular size on many components and be consistently exact, yet the small variations do not necessarily render the work piece useless. All parts with sizes that fall within acceptable range (tolerance) must therefore be used by selecting the pairs, which fit with each other for the required fit (clearance or interference).

For this reason, all parts produced are carefully measured to find out the range of sizes in which they fall. It therefore becomes possible to sort them according to sizes that fall within the same range and therefore be able to determine which ones do produce the right fit when assembled.



For clearance fit

B fits with a (Red)

C fits with b (Black)

D fits with c (Blue)

For interference fit

A fits with b (Yellow)

B fits with c (Green)

C fits with d (Grey)

Holes and shafts of particular ranges of sizes are separated in groups, which are marked, tagged or color-coded to make them readily identifiable. Groups of shafts and holes, which give the right fit when assembled, bear the same mark, tag or color code.

Much as this method may not require very high skill from a machine operator, making it slightly faster, it demands very high skill at the sorting stage, with measuring instruments of higher degree of accuracy. These instruments are also expensive.

Because parts are selected according to groups during assembly, for machines produced using this method, replacement of broken parts during repair are done by replacing the part with a whole assembly, which includes the broken part. If for example, the hole is worn out and the shaft is still in good condition, even the shaft is replaced.

## SYSTEMS OF LIMITS AND FITS

In this method, sizes of all components are determined by the designer at the designed stage and given *limits* within which a particular size on a component must fall.

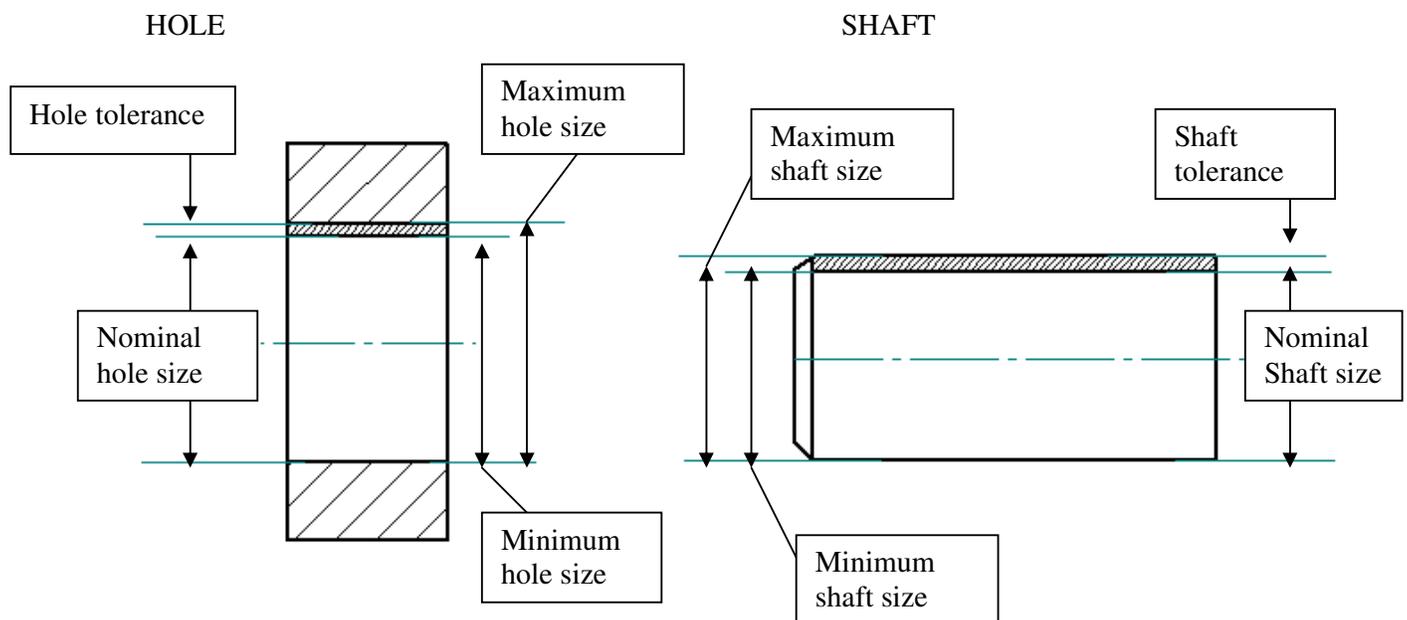
All these take place in the mind of the designer only. It becomes known to any other person only after the designer has put it down in drawing. This however can be transformed into components only if the designer produces a *working drawing* with the right limits determined by him.

## What are limits?

Because of machine error that depends on the machine condition and human error that depends on several factors, it is impossible to do machining and produce a size and say with certainty that the size obtained is the actual size, because even if the size has actually been got, there is human error in taking the measurement from the workpiece onto the measuring instrument and another in reading correctly to get the size indicated on it. On top of that is the error of the instrument, which depends on its accuracy.

The problem is even compounded when dealing with hard materials like metals, since small size variations in the order of thousands of a millimeter do matter a lot at assembly stage, and obtaining the right fit may not be possible.

This is why setting limits is very important. It is only the designer who knows what limits to set for a particular size in order to obtain a fit, which works best on the machine when properly assembled.



Dimension control during material removal is directly related to the amount (volume or weight) of material that remains on the final product (the component). Therefore, by setting limits, the designer sets the maximum and minimum size (and therefore weight or volume) of a component. This makes it possible to produce from one working drawing any number of that component, and all of them will be acceptable to the designer as long as their sizes fall within the limits specified in the working drawing.

The implication is that the component has conditions of maximum amount of material acceptable (*maximum metal condition*), and minimum amount of material acceptable (*minimum metal condition*).

It is then up to the machine operator to use the working drawing and produce components with sizes that fall within these limits for them (the components) to be acceptable.

There are three ways of controlling the sizes:-

- 1) Direct measurements using measuring instruments of the right accuracy.
- 2) Gauging using limit gauges.
- 3) Comparing using comparators.

## DIRECT MEASUREMENTS

In order to produce components whose sizes lie within the specified limits, the machine operator must not only know how to operate the machine for metal removal purposes, but also know how to take measurements properly using the instrument, and read the instrument down to the required accuracy. In this process, the operator stops the machine after passes of metal removal and takes the size of the remaining material (*shaft or hole*). The main aim is to see if the size falls within the one specified in the drawing. However with each pass of metal removal one of the following three situations is likely to result in both shaft and hole cases:-

For shafts,

- 1) The size is above the upper limit, meaning that the component is not yet acceptable because the weight or volume is still more than the one specified and the metal removed is insufficient. The next action from the operator is to remove more material.
- 2) The size is within the limits, meaning that sufficient metal has been removed and the component is acceptable. The next action is to remove it from the machine and it is ready for use or storage.
- 3) The size is below the lower limit, meaning that the metal removed is in excess and the component has less weight or volume than the one specified. The next action is to remove the component from the machine and discard it off, it is scrap.

For holes,

- 1) The size is above the upper limit, meaning that the material removed is in excess and the component has less weight or volume than the one specified. The next action is to remove the component from the machine and discard it off, it is scrap.
- 2) The size is within limits, meaning that sufficient metal has been removed and the component is acceptable. The component is removed from the machine and it is ready for use or storage.

3) The size is below the lower limit, meaning that the component is not yet acceptable because the weight or volume is *still* more than the one specified and the metal removed is insufficient. The next action from the operator is to remove more material.

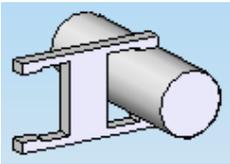
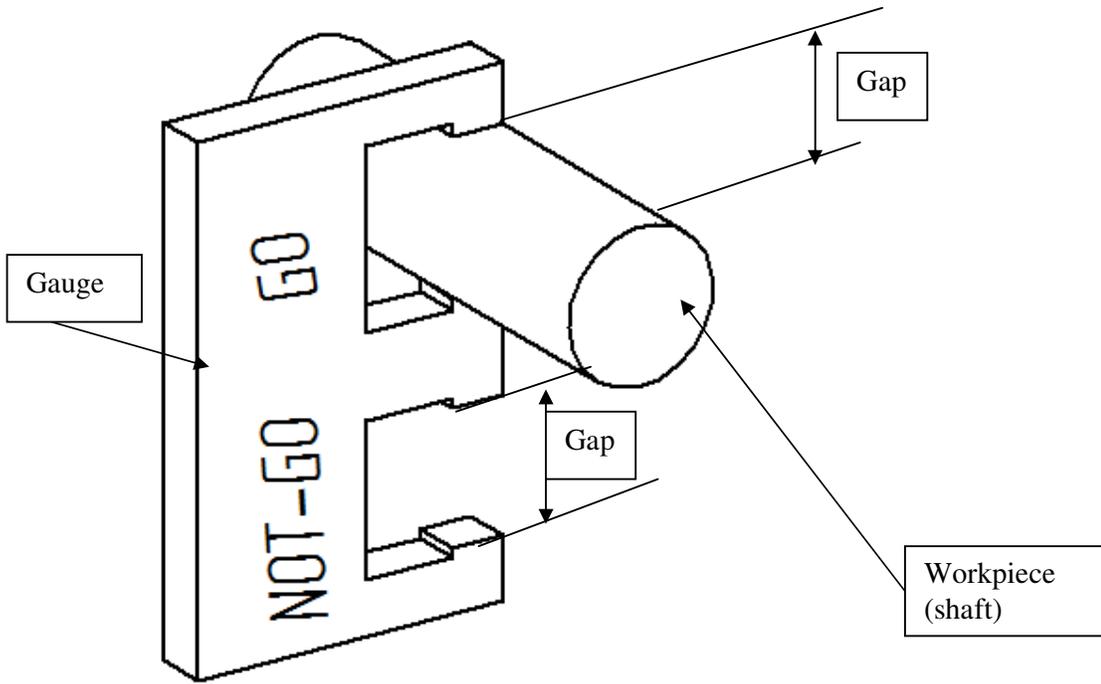
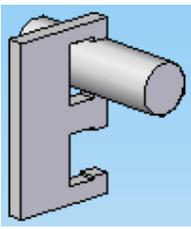
The main thing to note about direct measurement is that the *actual size* of the component is known because the operator reads it on the instrument to make sure that it falls within the required limit before accepting it. The operator must therefore be highly skilled.

The next two methods however only check whether or not the size falls within the specified limit. The operator does not know the real size.

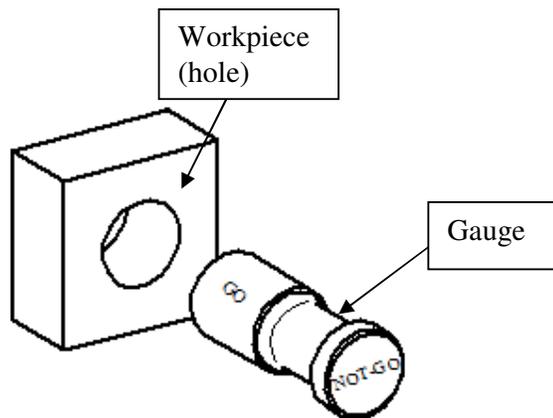
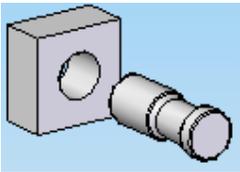
## GAUGING

This is done using a special instrument called *gauge*, which has two sizes available on it. One size corresponding to the upper limit and the other one corresponding to lower limit. It is therefore possible to gauge using this instrument to see if the size produced on the component falls within the specified limit before accepting it.

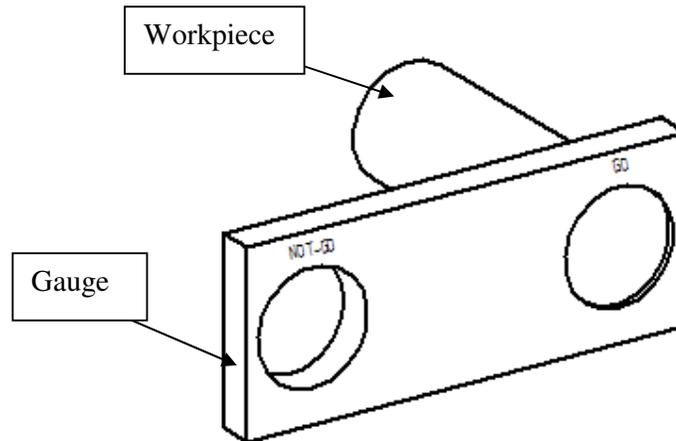
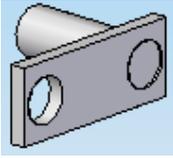
Using this method requires many gauges since every size must have its own gauge with the right limits.



**Gap gauge**



## Plug gauge



Ring gauge

The gauge is put in use during the metal removal process at the machining stage by the operator.

After some metal removal passes, the operator *offers* the *GO* side the gauge to the size being machined on the component. In so doing, the operator is expecting this side of the gauge to be accepted at the machined dimension. The process goes on in conjunction with metal removal until this side actually *goes*. This then marks the end of metal removal process for this dimension.

The big question is whether or not the size obtained falls within the limits specified by the designer. The answer to this question depends on what happens when the *NOT-GO* side of the gauge is offered to the same size on this work piece being machined and the work piece is still on the machine. This is what the operator wants to find out immediately, so he offers the *NOT-GO* side of the gauge to the dimension expecting it to either *GO* or *NOT-GO* depending on how much material he took care to remove in the *last* metal removal *pass* during the time he was checking the size using the *GO* side of the gauge. This is a crucial decision making moment and is done *only* by the machine operator who must interpret correctly the status of the work piece when the *NOT-GO* side of the gauge is offered to this machined size, *he must also be sincere* because any bad component taken as acceptable at this stage will be very difficult to detect with the naked eye. The effect can only be felt when it is put to use.

The act of checking with the *NOT-GO* side of the gauge is to make sure that this side of the gauge actually does not *go*, for the component to be acceptable because it will mean that the size produced as a result of metal removal in the last *pass* falls within the required limits.

If it happens so (does not go), the component is removed from the machine as a finished product, which is ready for use or storage.

The other observation expected by the operator when checking with the *NOT-GO* side of the gauge is for this side to also *go* the way the *GO* side did *go*. This would mean that the amount of metal removed in the

last metal removal *pass* was in excess of what he should have, and therefore the size produce as a result falls outside the required limits. The component is a reject (SCRAP).

Since all components are made from some material whose original *weight* or *volume* is either *equal* or *more* than that of the component, it is not difficult to see that the *condition* in which the original material, *the work piece*, is left in is either the same or less in weight or volume. Where metal removal is not involved only the shape or the original material changes whereas both weight and volume remain the same. This means that the *condition* of the original material has not changed in terms of weight and volume. However where metal removal is involved, both weight and volume must *reduce*. Sizes therefore play a big role in determining *metal condition* of the finished component in terms of weight and volume. The limits set by the designer, in fact, set the maximum and minimum *metal condition* of the component.

These two conditions are therefore very easily checked using the gauge since the *GO* gauge checks the *maximum metal condition* acceptable by the designer and the *NOT-GO* gauge checks the *minimum metal condition* allowed. This is true for ALL gauges be it for shafts or for holes. Dimension control using gauges does not require high skill and it is fast and easy. However, the initial cost or capital input is enormous due to the total cost of gauges required since each size requires a separate gauge and gauges are very expensive. This method of dimension control is recommended only for mass production.

## COMPARATORS

Comparators are more advanced measuring instruments, which are used, for either inspection in mass production of components produced using universal machine tools, or continuous dimension control in automatic machines tools or *machining centers*.

Their working principle is basically comparison. For a given dimension, the instrument is set using two sample pieces. One sample piece has the actual size equal to the *upper limit* size of the component and another sample with the actual size equal to the *lower limit* size of the component. Since the two sizes are different, the indicator on the instrument will assume *one* position when the sample with lower limit size is used and *another* position when the sample with the upper limit size is used. The signal from the sample is magnified, making it possible to see with the naked eye the difference between the sizes of the two sample pieces. This becomes a *zone* that represents the limits set by the designer on the working drawing. It therefore becomes very easy to compare the size of a component with the ones used for setting the two limits. Any size, which falls within the zone, is acceptable. Those that fall outside the zone are either corrected or scrapped.

In existence are mechanical, electrical, pneumatic and hydraulic comparators. Attempts are made to make the zone clearly visible using color zone or color liquid.

It is obvious, the fact that these instruments are very expensive although very easy to use and are very accurate. Just like in the case of using gauges, comparators are used only for quality control and mass production.

### **What are fits?**

Parts are made to work together after assembling a complete machine. During assembly, the worker must pay attention to the fact that some parts are assembled to allow relative movement between each other and others do not allow relative movement.

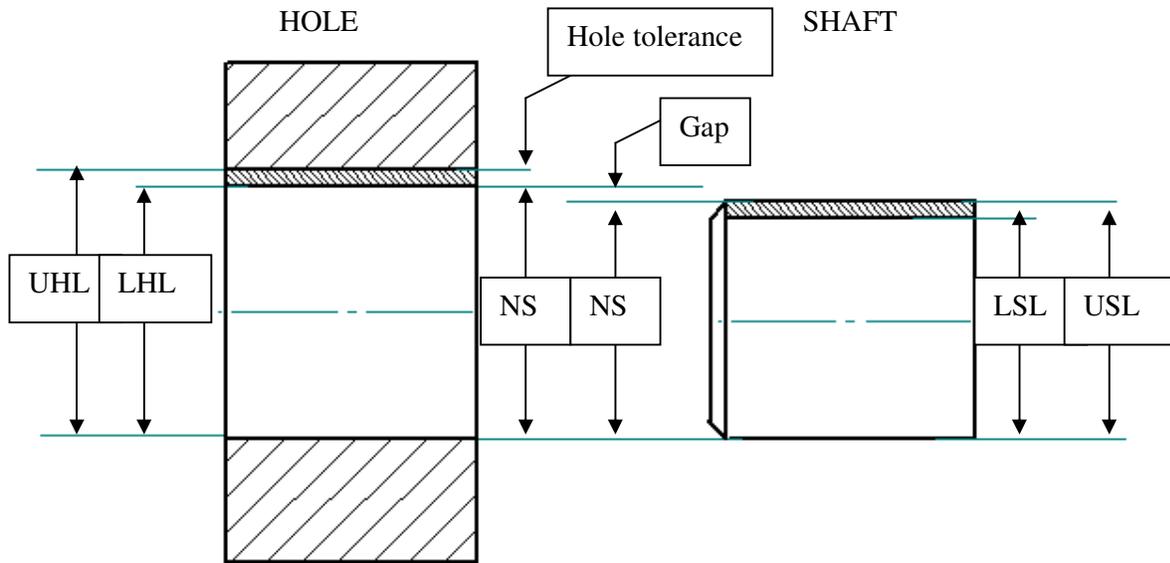
In individual assembly, this is taken care of by the machine operator who is himself skilled.

In selective assembly, this is done at the sorting stage where parts are matched or selected and color-coded for storage. It is important to note that there are no rejects here since all parts are matched according to how they fit best.

In the system of limits and fits however, this is taken care of at the design stage by the designer who sets limits for every size. Therefore, ALL parts produced within their limits *interchangeable*, and will fit perfectly during assembly and fully serve the purpose for which the machine was designed. This is because *only* parts whose sizes fall within the limits set by the designer are cleared as good by the machine operator. There are three types of fits technically known as CLEARANCE FIT, INTERFERENCE FIT and TRANSITION FIT.

The term FIT refers to *shaft* assembled with *hole* to produce either relative movement between each other or no relative movement at all between each other. The designer knows where relative motion is required and where it is not required. He therefore sets limits, which guarantees either free movement or no movement in the right places. It is therefore logical to try to see what goes on inside the designer's mind at this stage by studying the types of fit in detail.

## CLEARANCE FIT



UHL= Upper hole limit  
LHL= Lower hole limit

NS= Nominal size

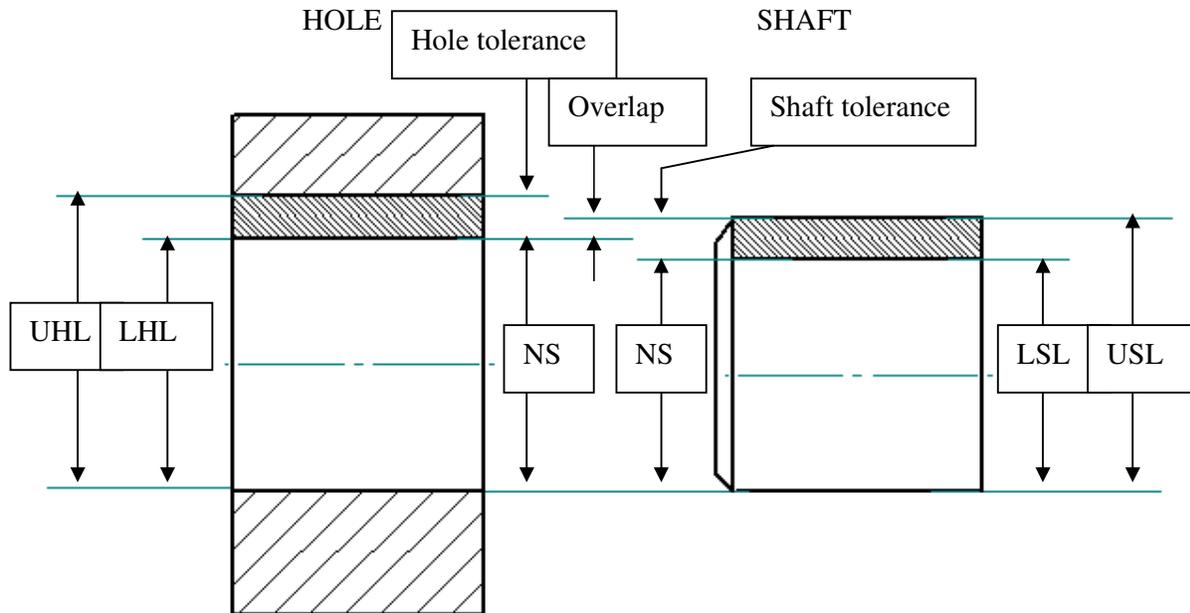
USL= Upper shaft limit  
LSL= Lower shaft limit

The *tolerance* zone of the hole is *above* that of the shaft and between them is a *gap*, which is a *minimum allowance* chosen by the designer to *guarantee* clearance fit between the two during assembly. Clearance fit is therefore an imaginary arrangement of shaft and hole working drawings brought together and assembled to show that the largest acceptable shaft is still *smaller* than the smallest acceptable hole or the smallest acceptable hole is still *larger* than the largest acceptable shaft. Designers know that this fit *allows relative* movement between the two parts.

Since any *shaft* or *hole*, whose size falls within the limits is acceptable it can easily be seen that the *minimum clearance allowance* possible for this fit is the difference between the smallest hole and the biggest shaft, and the *maximum clearance allowance* is the difference between the biggest hole and the smallest shaft. The magnitude of the allowance is very important and the designer takes care to make sure that the minimum allowance is there but as small as possible and the maximum allowance is big enough but does not affect the performance of the assembly. When clearance allowance is too big, some parts acceptable as good do assemble with too much ease to make very loose joints with short life span and very noisy when put to use.



## TRANSITION FIT



UHL= Upper hole limit

NS= Nominal size

USL= Upper shaft limit

LHL= Lower hole limit

LSL= Lower shaft limit

The *tolerance* zones of hole and shaft overlap. Transition fit is therefore an imaginary arrangement of shaft and hole working drawings brought together and assembled to show that the biggest hole is *bigger* than the smallest shaft and the smallest hole is *smaller* than the biggest shaft.

Designers know that this fit exists only on the working drawing because in reality during assembly only clearance and interference fits are obtained with no effect at all on the performance of the machine.

Since any *shaft* or *hole* whose size falls within the limits is acceptable, it can easily be seen that the *maximum clearance allowance* possible for this fit is the difference between the biggest hole and the smallest shaft, and the *maximum interference allowance* is the difference between the smallest hole and the biggest shaft.

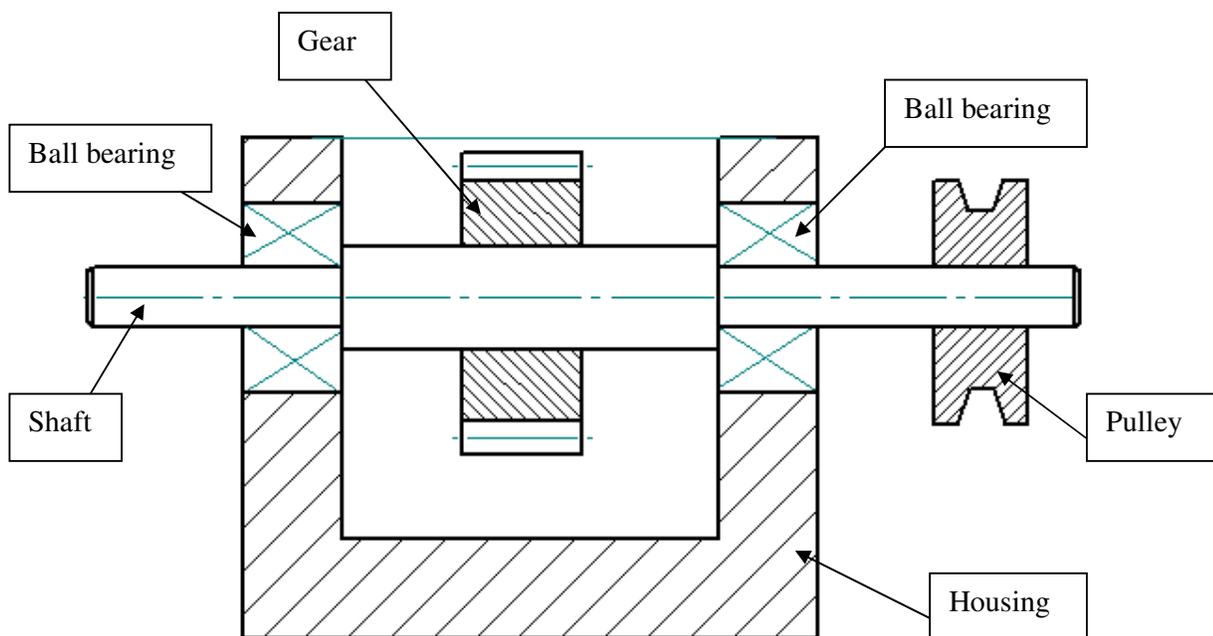
Because of the overlap between the hole and shaft tolerance zones, there is no minimum clearance or minimum interference. Theoretically, however there is a possibility of obtaining *zero* clearance or interference. This happens only if the shaft and hole are of the *same* size, and is possible only within the area of *tolerance zone overlap*.

## SYSTEMS OF FIT

When shafts and holes are produced on machine tools available to the designer, tolerance limits can easily be controlled to produce components with the sizes required for the right fit. Machine building however involves the use of ready-made components like bearings and plain shafts. The designer then finds himself in a situation where he can control the limits of only one of the two parts involved in the fit. Holes are also produced easily and more accurately using standard size tools like reamers. Systems therefore refer to the methods used to obtain the required fit, either clearance or interference, when one size is already available and on machining operation is required, or when one size is produced using a standard size tool.

There are two systems for obtaining fits and they are based on either the hole or the shaft depending on which one is already available with its fixed size.

### Hole basis system



Between ball bearings and shaft is interference fit.

Between gear and shaft is transition fit (either clearance fit or interference fit).

Between shaft and pulley is clearance fit.

Sizes of the holes already exist:-

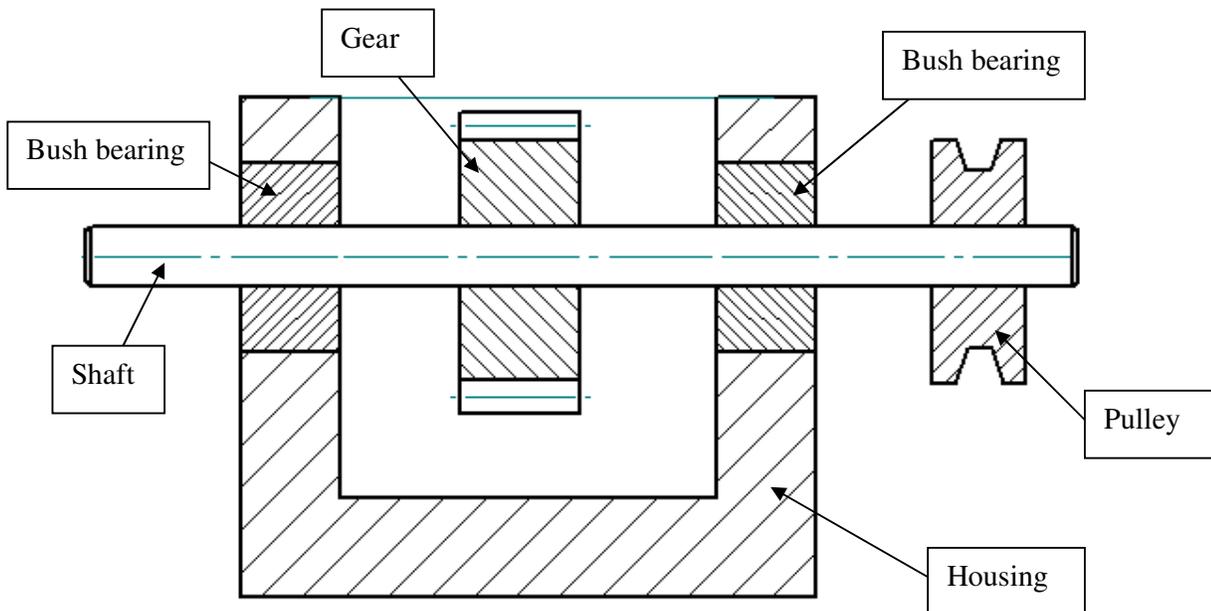
Ball bearings are ready made.

The hole in the gear is reamed using standard size reamer.

The hole in the pulley is reamed using standard size reamer.

The right fit is obtained by machining the shaft to the right size.

## Shaft basis system



Between bush bearing and shaft is clearance fit.

Between gear and shaft is transition fit.

Between pulley and shaft is clearance fit.

The shaft is a plain one of standard size.

The required size is obtained by machining:-

The bush bearing for clearance fit

The gear for interference fit.

The pulley for clearance fit.

### INSPECTION

In this section, inspection will refer to dimensions only. The methods used to inspect the sizes depend on the type of dimension control used in the production process.

Individual assembly method does not require any inspection since the operator does the right thing either independently or under supervision. Nothing is produced for storage, so there are no parts lying around for inspection. Vital components are stored in an assembled form.

Selective assembly method does require minimum inspection. This is because during the sorting process there are skilled personnel using more accurate measuring instruments. It is an extension of dimension control that ended during the machining stage since each and every component is again measured. Catastrophic errors however do happen, either by reading the measuring instrument wrongly or marking a component with wrong color code and therefore putting it in a different size group.

The use of limits and fits system however require strict inspection since the parts made within limit are assumed to work interchangeably with any other part made within limits for it. Because of this

interchangeability concept, parts that are passed as good by the worker are taken straight for use or storage for sale.

Bearing in mind the fact that the workers are semi skilled, inspection methods used should minimize or bring to zero the number of bad components accepted as good and therefore put to use, sold or stored.

Here the most common approach is the use of gauges. The inspection gauges are more accurate than the ones used during production. Since gauges are also manufactured, they are also given tolerances, but the tolerance zones of inspection gauges are smaller and fall within the tolerance zones of the size being checked.

The GO side of the gauge always wears with time and begins accepting *holes of smaller sizes* and *shafts of bigger sizes*.

This can be minimized or brought down to zero using different methods, depending on the volume and method of production. In general, active GO gauges should *never* be allowed to wear up to the *maximum tolerance size limits of shafts*, and *minimum tolerance size limits of holes*. Gauges must therefore be checked frequently using very accurate measuring instruments and replaced before they begin to accept sizes which are outside the tolerance limits.

The other approach is *random sampling* of finished components and replacing the measuring gauge if *a size* is found to fall *close* to the extreme limits of the sizes.

In this case, there is a possibility of *a wrong size* slipping through to assembly line, or even Sales Department.

In the assembly line, these cases are spotted out and handled either *individually* or *selectively*. However in the Sales Department, this is a source of *bad* reputation, which must be avoided at all costs.

Modern approach in production has introduced methods which require constant monitoring of sizes as they are being produced, and the measuring instruments best suited for this are comparators. They are fitted directly on the machine, making the constant size monitoring process possible.

Once the machine is set for a particular size, only tool wear remains basically the only factor in the size variations. As shafts become bigger and holes become smaller, a signal that switches off the machine is sent from a command within the machine before sizes that fall outside tolerance limit zone are produced and the tool is replaced.

Elements of inspection here are therefore the settings on the machine and the settings on the tool, and all parts produced are absolutely interchangeable and can be used, stored or soled without any worry.

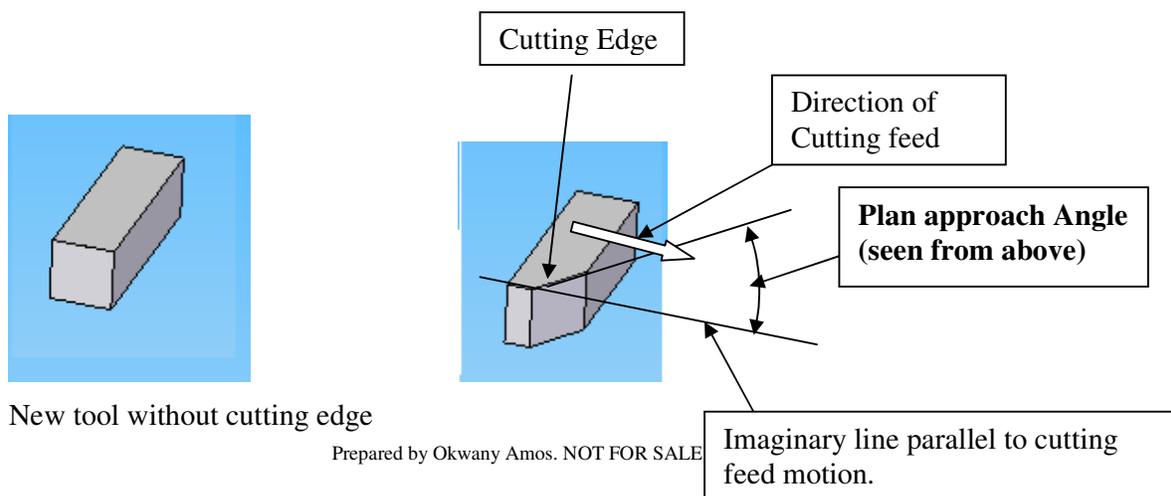
## MACHINING PRINCIPLES AND METAL CUTTING TOOLS

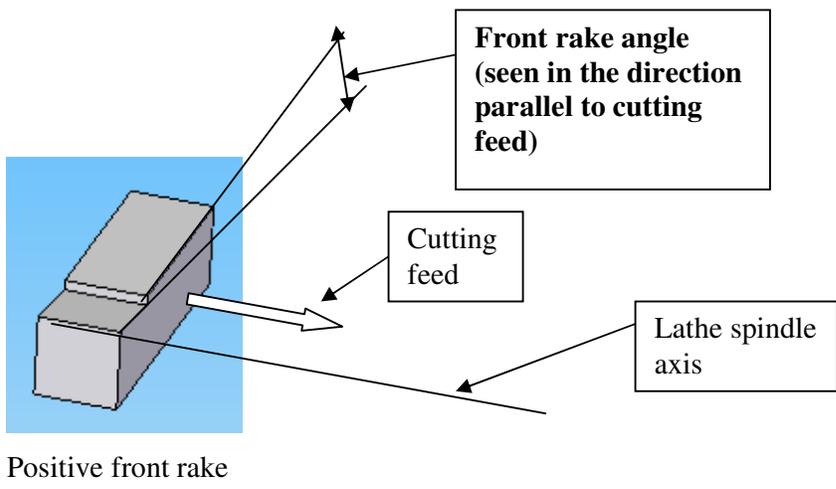
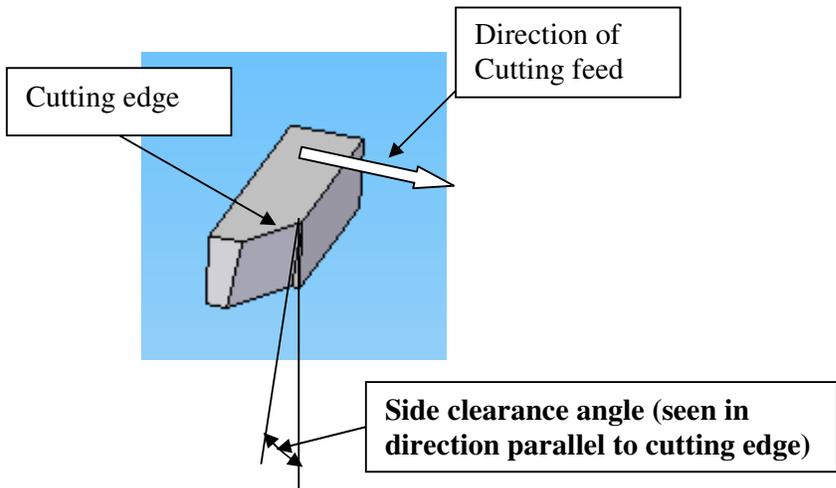
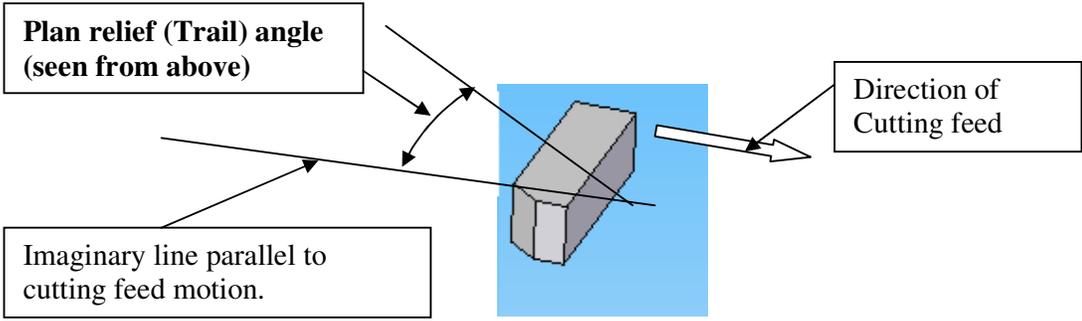
The following are daily life principles that equally do apply to machining of metals and cutting tools:-

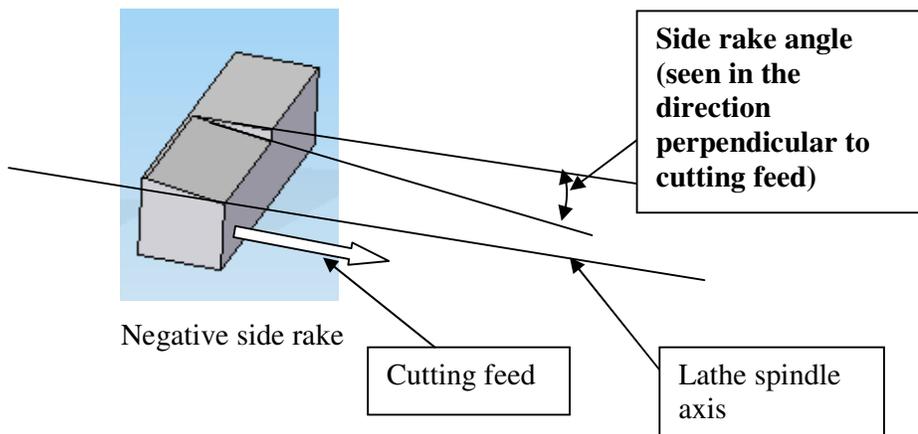
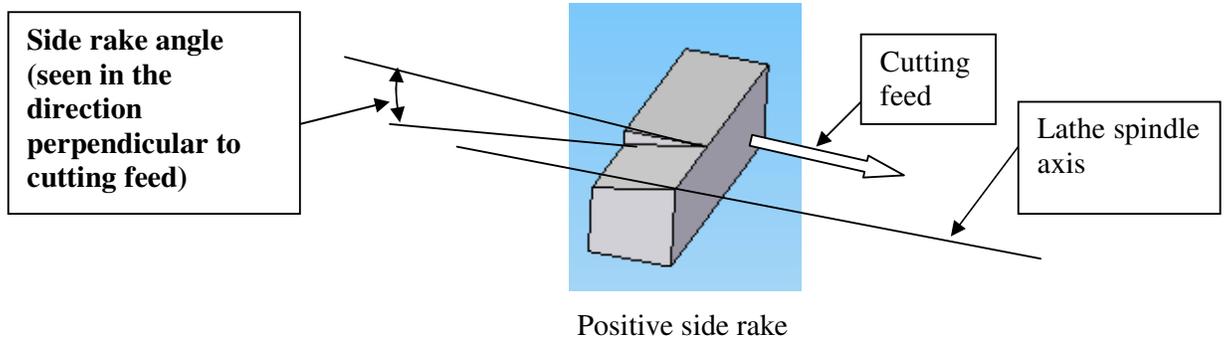
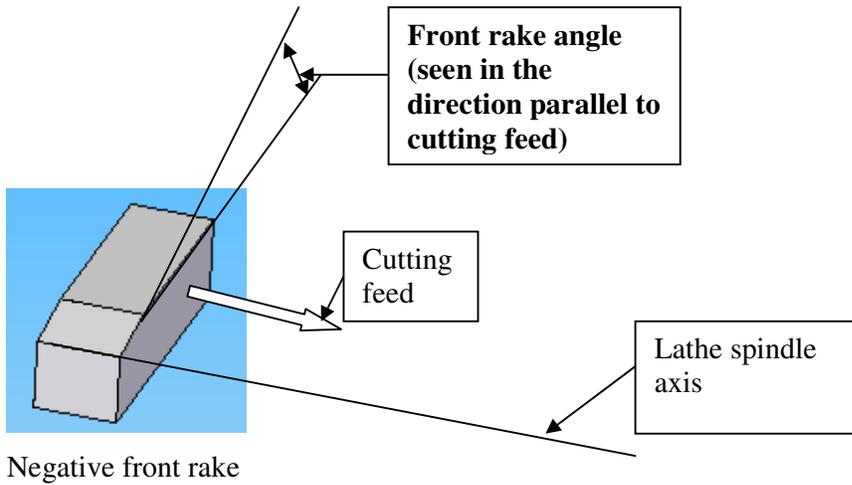
- 1) For any tool to be able to cut another material, the tool must be harder than that material, just like knife cuts bread because it is harder than bread.
- 2) Two materials or objects will never occupy the same space at any one given time. If an attempt is made to force them into that one space, there must be collision or accident and the stronger material displaces the weaker one and occupies the space.
- 3) The tool must have angles around the cutting edge to make the cutting edge stand alone in space so that it touches the material at the cutting edge only for maximum cutting or tearing effect.
- 4) There must be an effective work holding provision, a device that leaves the work firm and rigid on the machine.
- 5) There must be an effective tool holding provision, a device that leaves the tool firm and rigid on the machine.
- 6) There must be controlled motions on the machine, to force work and tool into each other, with contact between work piece and tool at cutting edge only.

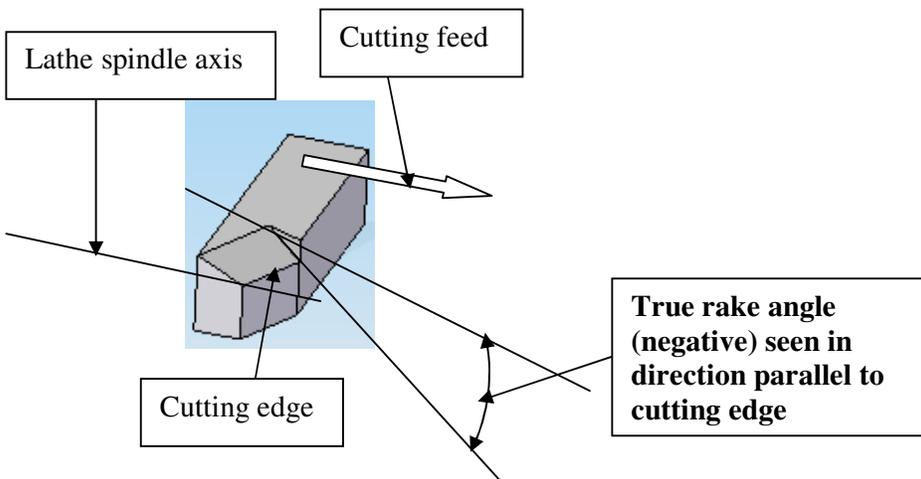
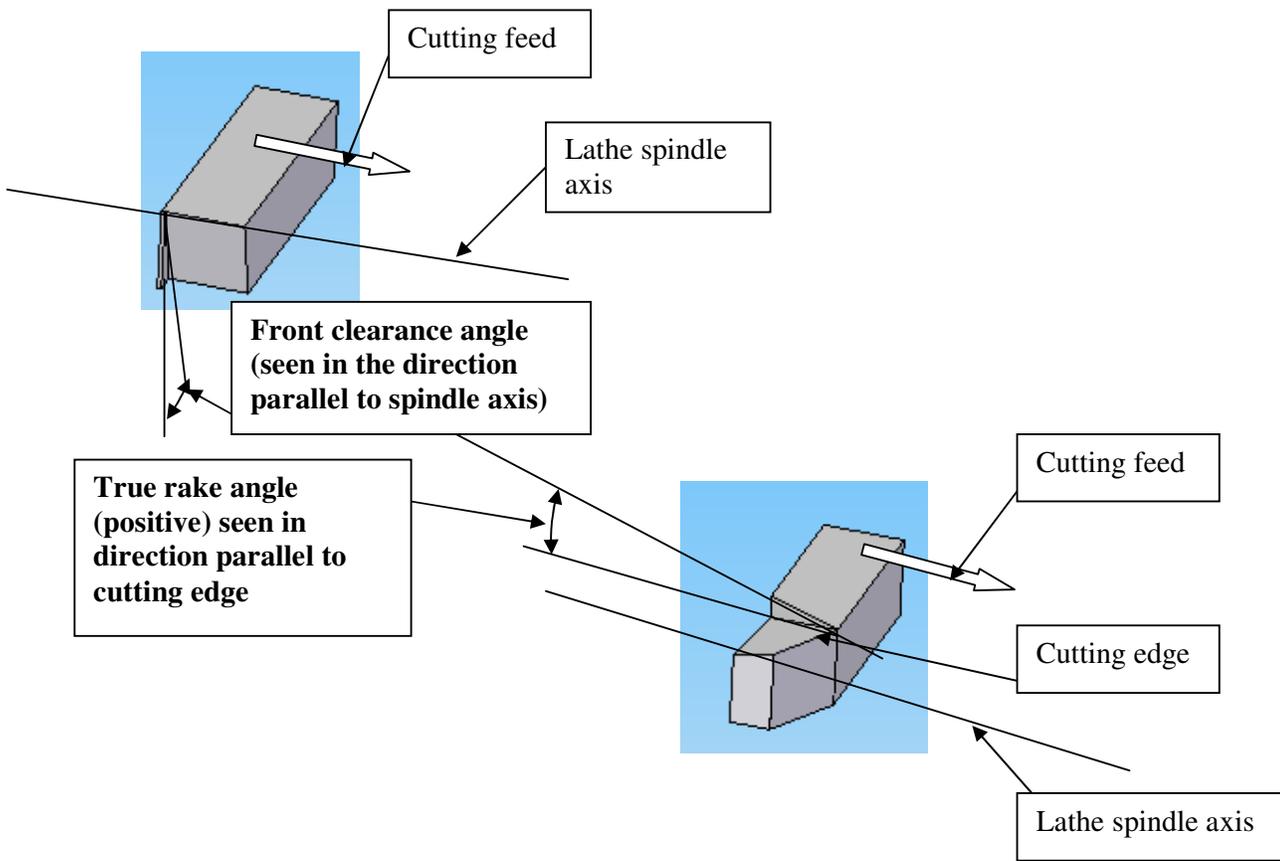
### TOOL ANGLES

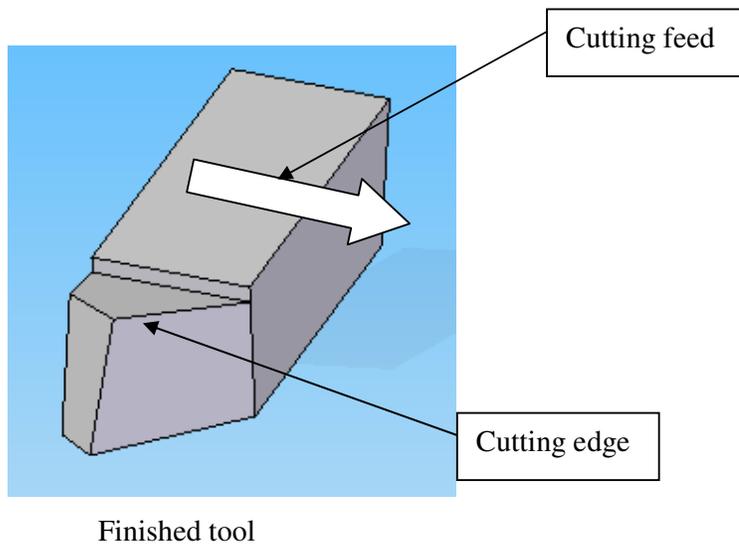
All attempts must be made to understand the position or location of the following angles in relation to the cutting edge of the tool and some particular motions on the machine. The angles are PLAN APPROACH angle, PLAN RELIEF (or TRAIL) angle, FRONT CLEARANCE angle, SIDE CLEARANCE angle, FRONT RAKE, and TRUE RAKE angles. These angles are shown on the turning tool below, but they can be identified on any other metal cutting tool.







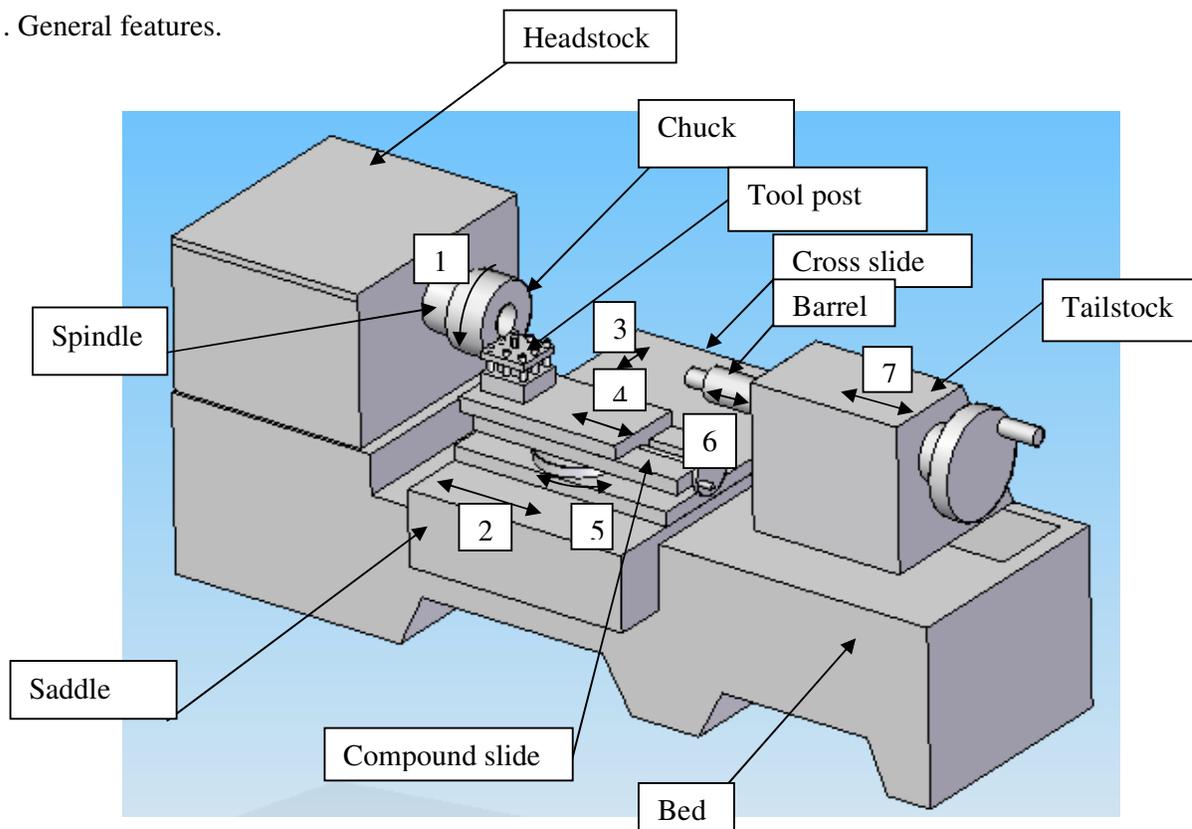




Finished tool

## THE LATHE

### 1. General features.



### 2. Motions.

- Motion 1- Rotary motion of the spindle. This is the main motion, and is power driven.
- Motion 2- Linear motion of the saddle parallel to spindle axis. It is both power and manual.
- Motion 3- Linear motion of cross slide perpendicular to Motion 2 and spindle axis. It is both power and manual.

-Motion 4- Linear motion of compound slide at some angle to spindle axis, motions 2 and 3. This motion is manual.

-Motion 5- Angular motion for setting the angle of motion 4. It is manual.

-Motion 6- Linear motion of the tailstock barrel, parallel to spindle axis and motion 2, and perpendicular to motion 3. It is manual.

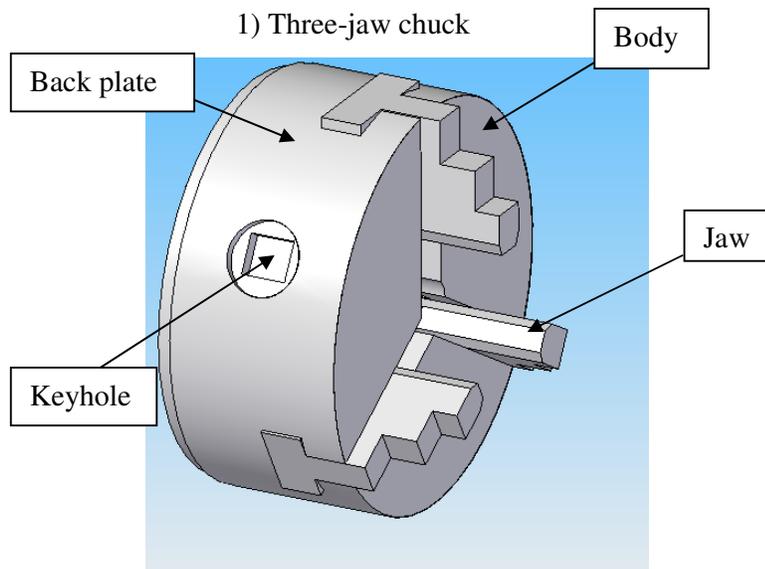
-Motion 7- Linear motion of tailstock for setting the position of the tailstock.

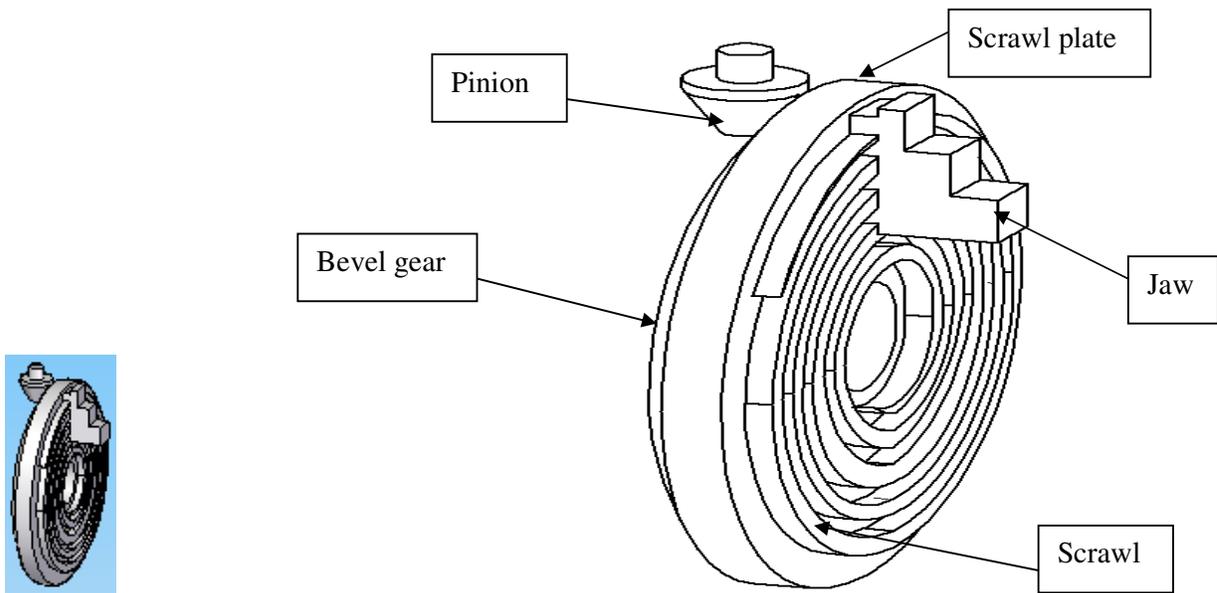
This depends on the length of barrel, tool and size of work piece. It is manual.

-Motion 8- Linear motion of tailstock top, perpendicular to spindle axis, for aligning the axis of tailstock barrel with that of the spindle. It is also used for offsetting tailstock axis away from or towards the operator for turning small taper angles.

-Motion 9- Linear motion of headstock, perpendicular to spindle axis. This motion is only for setting the initial position of the headstock during testing at the factory.

### 3. Work holding.

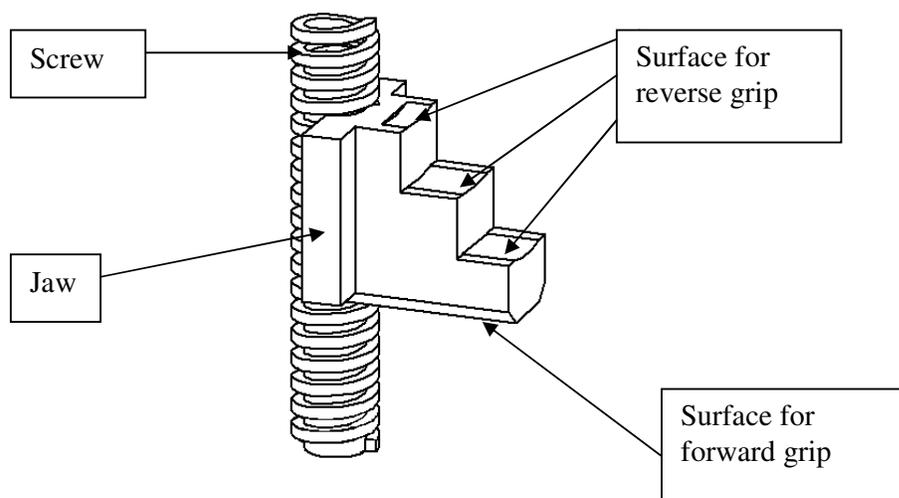
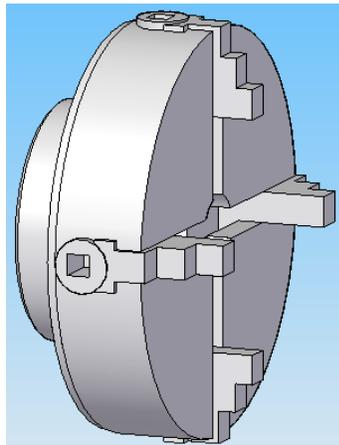
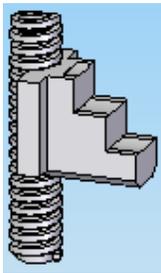




The chuck is fitted on the spindle nose and rotates with it as one. There are three jaws between which the work piece is held. All the three jaws move together at equal distance from spindle axis. The driving arrangement consists of the chuck body, inside which is a scrawl. The scrawl faces the front side of the chuck body where there are three slots acting as guides for each of the jaws. The back of the jaws have grooves which engage with the scrawl, making it possible to move all the three jaws at the same time just by rotating the scrawl relative to the chuck body, about the spindle axis. This is done with the help of a bevel gear pinion with the end protruding outside the body and its bevel gear meshing with a similar one cut at the back of the scrawl plate. Outside the chuck body, at the end of the pinion is a blind square hole in which a key is inserted and therefore it becomes possible to turn the pinion and rotate the scrawl plate on which is the scrawl itself. Because of the grooves at the back of the jaws, and the slot guide at the face of the body, the jaws acquire linear motion towards the center or away from it, depending on the direction in which the key is rotated.

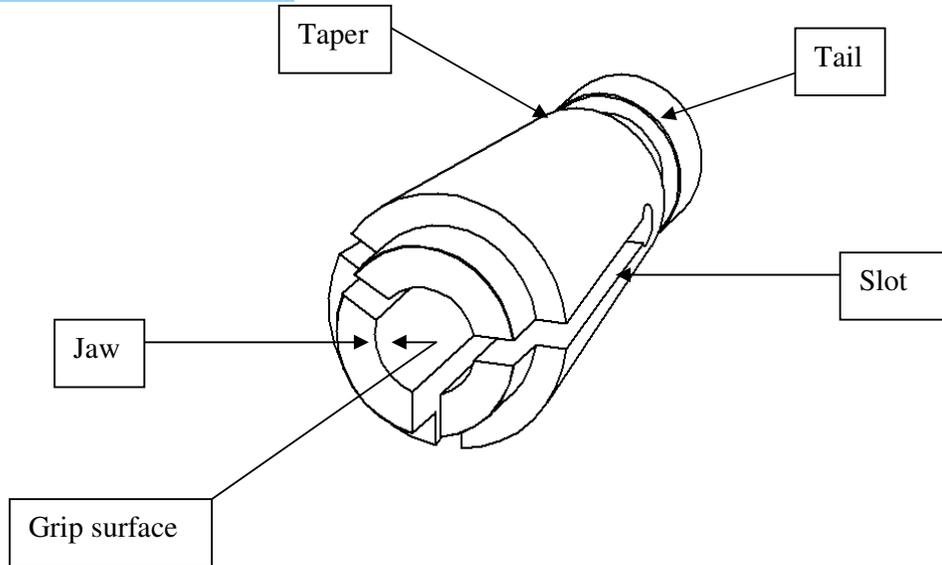
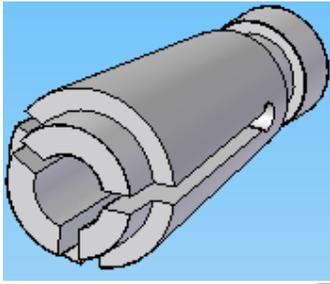
This work holding method is reliable only when the chuck is still new. With time, moving parts of the system and the contact points of the jaws themselves do wear, and because of the non-uniform nature of wear, the jaws lose concentricity, that is, the equal distance of the jaws from the center, get lost. It therefore becomes impossible to machine a surface concentric to the one held in the jaws. All attempts must therefore be made to do all necessary machining on a component in one setting when using this chuck. It is otherwise very easy and fast to set work on this chuck.

## Four-jaw chuck

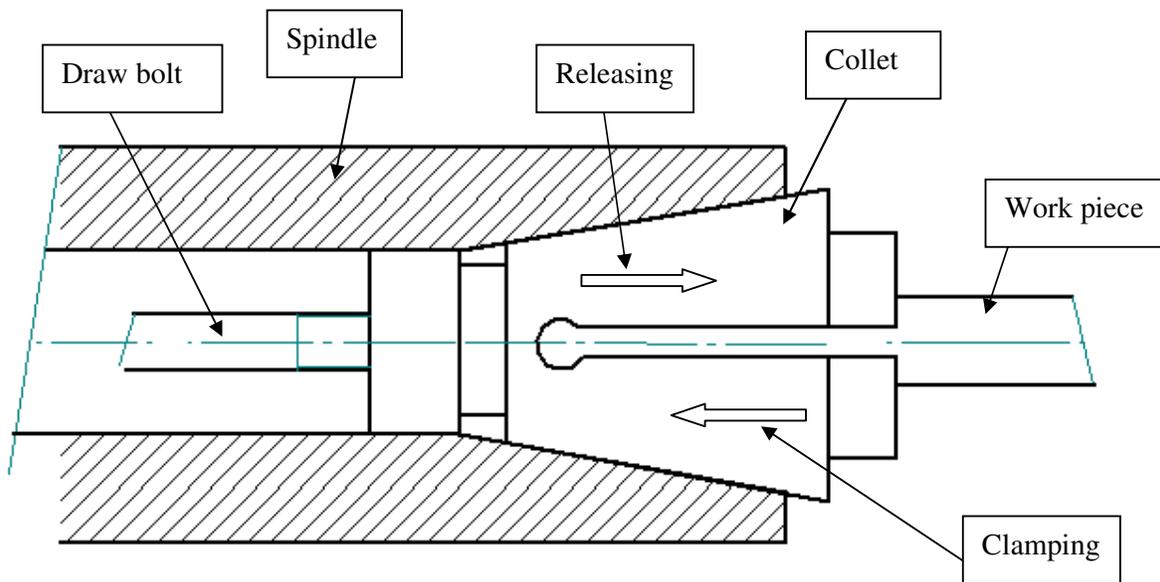


This chuck has four jaws, which are moved independently by their own individual screws. The distance of each jaw from the spindle axis can therefore be controlled at will, making it possible to put any work piece very accurately at spindle axis of rotation. The wear of moving parts and jaws does not affect the ability to set a work piece accurately. Setting on it however needs a relatively high skill, and takes time. If a surface must be concentric to an existing one, this jaw is better than a three-jaw. The jaws can also be reversed to increase the range of diameter that can be held.

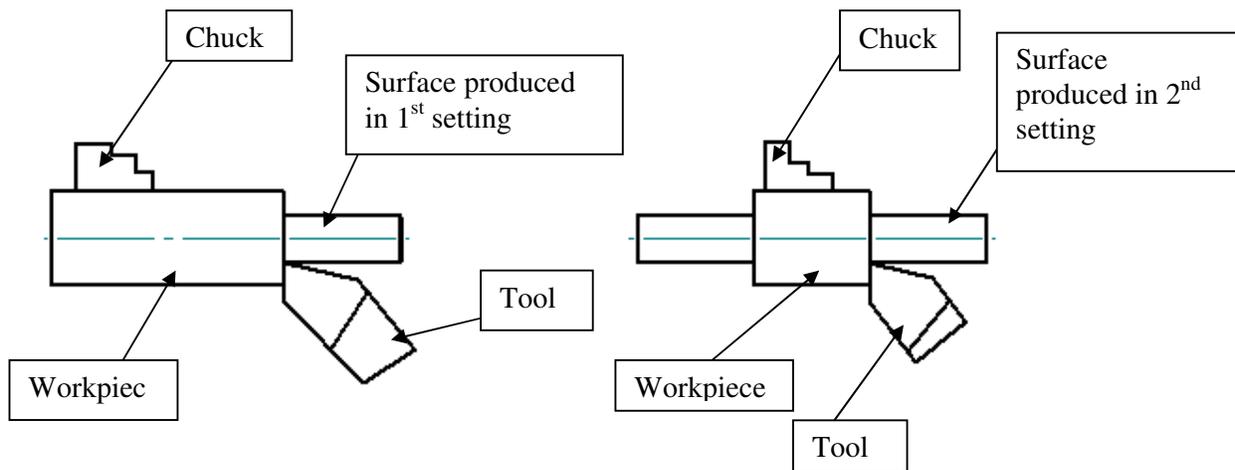
### 3. Collet chuck



This chuck fits in a taper at the spindle nose. It also has a matching taper and a tail, all accurately ground in one setting with the grip points. This makes it possible for the spindle, chuck and work piece to run concentric. Slots are provided to facilitate clamping. Clamping of the work piece is effected by drawing the chuck into the spindle nose taper using a draw bolt inserted through the back of the spindle. When the draw bolt is released, the jaws spring open and release the work piece because the chuck is made from spring material.

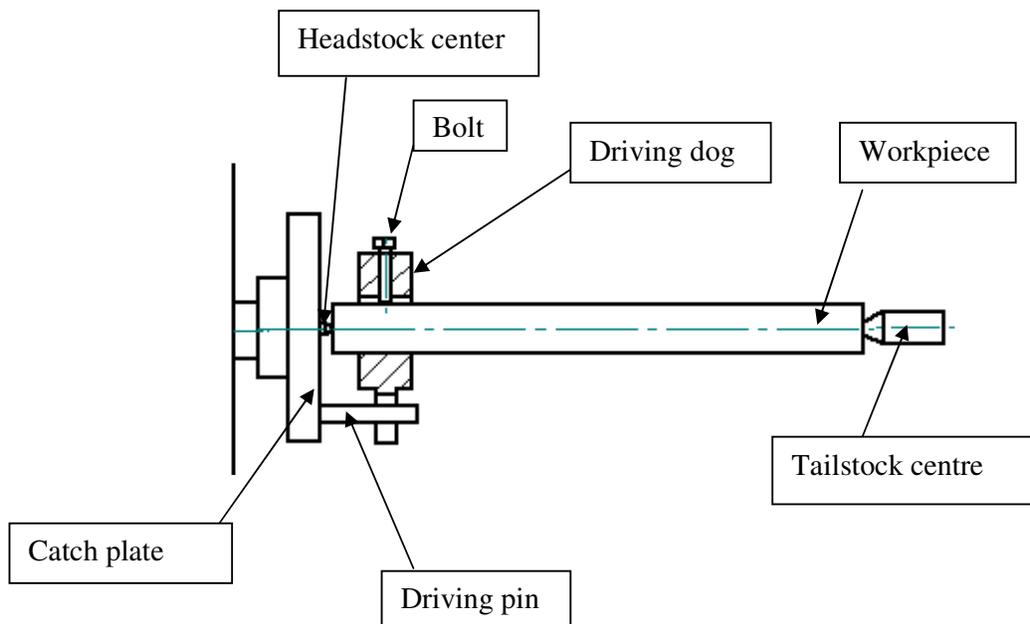
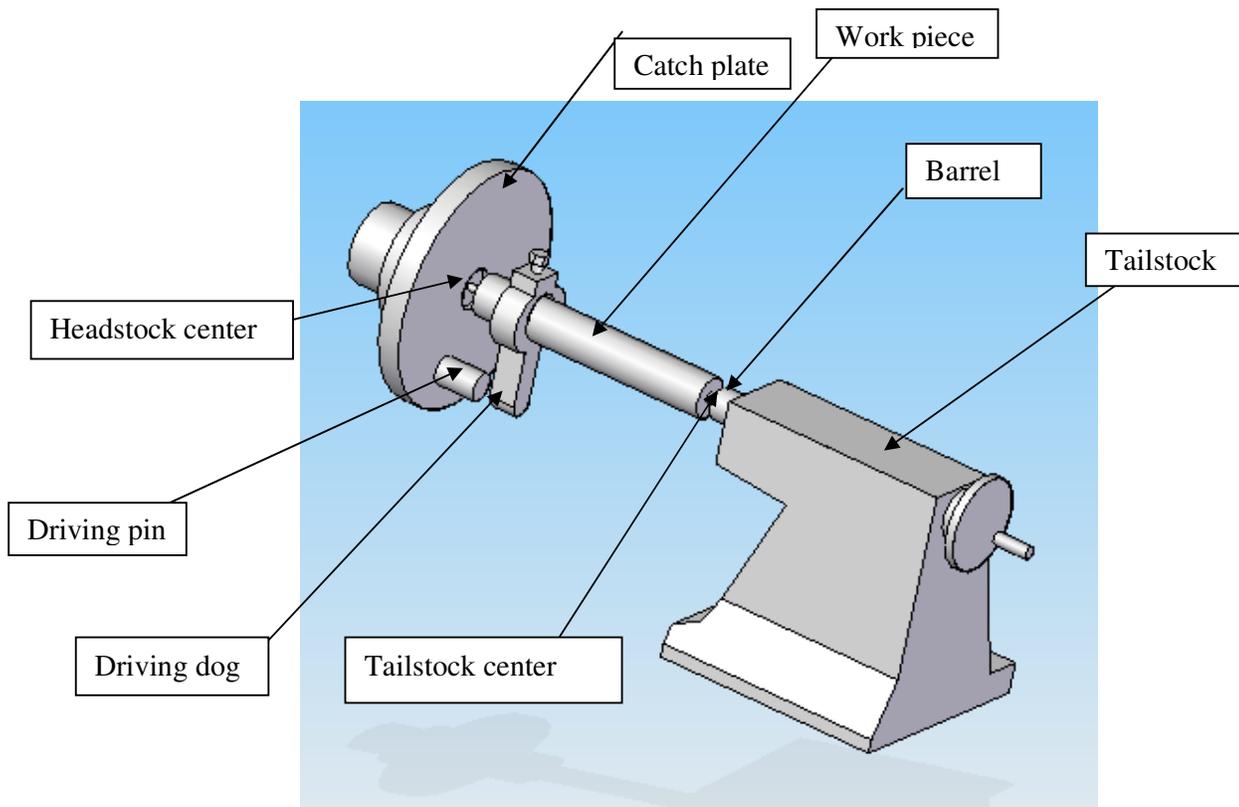


Because of the large surface grip area, the grip is more firm. This chuck is also easy to operate and puts the work piece very accurately at the axis of the spindle. It is therefore possible to obtain concentric surfaces to a previously machined one, known as second setting.



Production using these chucks is however very expensive since not only each size, but also each shape require its own chuck. Its use is therefore limited to common shapes and sizes and recommended for mass production only.

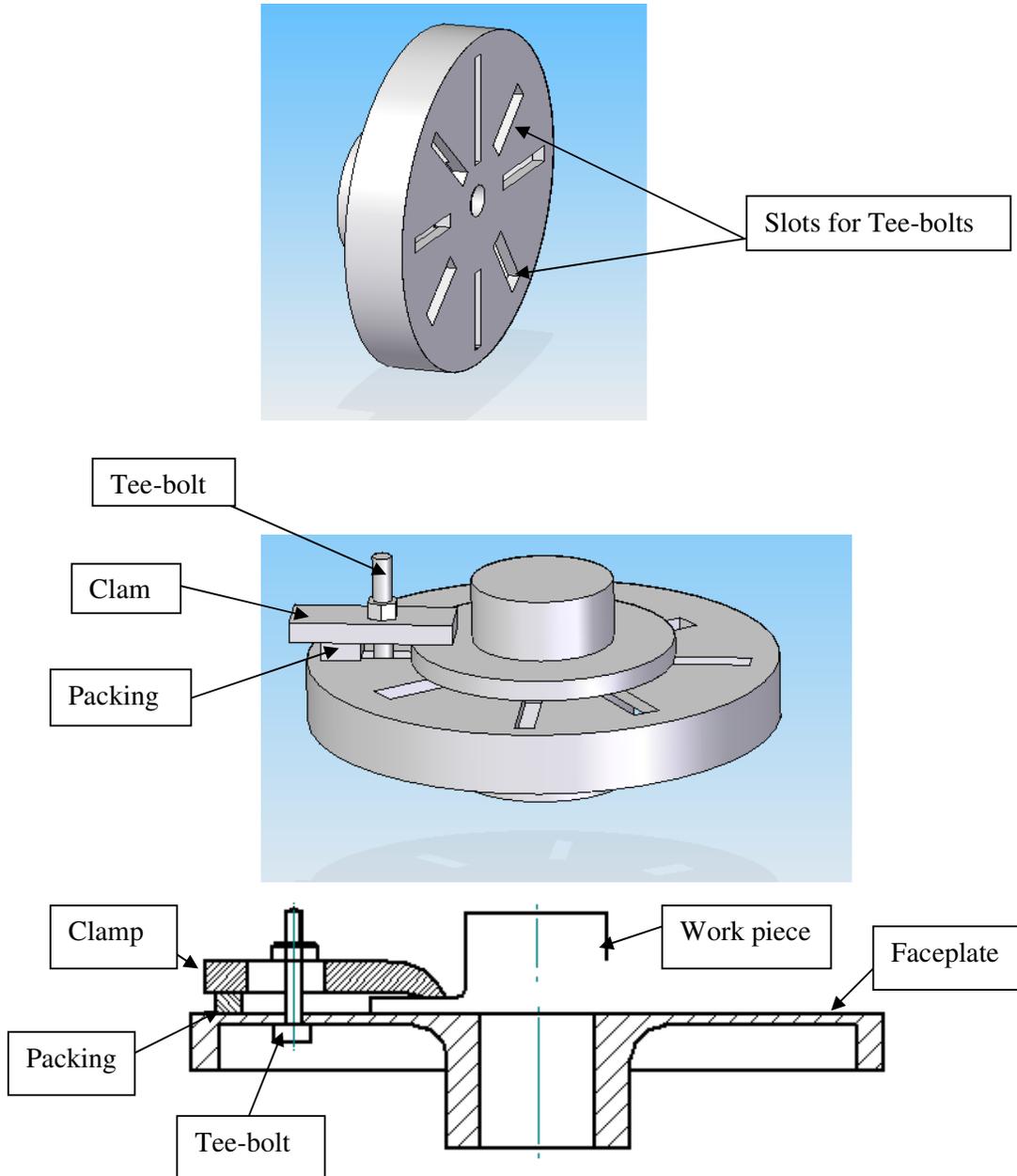
## Holding between centers



In order for holding to be possible between centers, it must have center drill holes at both centers, and these holes must be acceptable in the final product. It must also be of a length, which can be accommodated between the centers. One center is at the headstock (live center) and the other one is at the tailstock center (dead center). A driving dog is dressed on the work piece and held on it by menace of a bolt, making them able to move as one. This is possible through the driving pin on the catch plate fitted on the spindle nose and therefore rotates with the spindle. Since the work is supported between centers, it is

possible to remove it and quickly put it back at axis of spindle rotation without the need of any special setting process like is the case with the four-jaw chuck.

### Holding on face plate



This is a round plate with a flat surface. It is provided with slots, used for bolting or clamping the work piece onto the plate using tee-bolts. The plate fits on the spindle nose and therefore rotates with the spindle. Setting work on this plate requires great skill and takes time. However it provides a method of machining pieces of awkward shapes, which are impossible to hold using other means. Since work held in this way is usually irregular, the spindle is always left unbalanced, and balancing is necessary using appropriate weight opposite the heavier end of the plate. Clamps are used for this.

Depending on the size of the work piece, which is usually huge, the forces on the spindle are big, even after balancing. Only slow speeds should therefore be used.

#### 4. Tool holding.

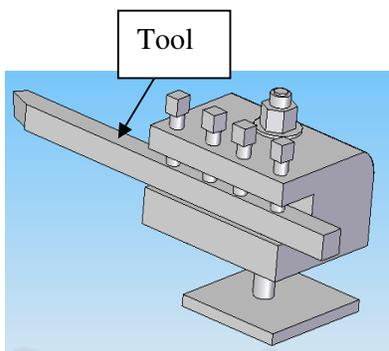
Tools can be held either in the tool post or at the tailstock

There are three types of tool posts in common use. One-way tool post, four-way tool post and American tool post.

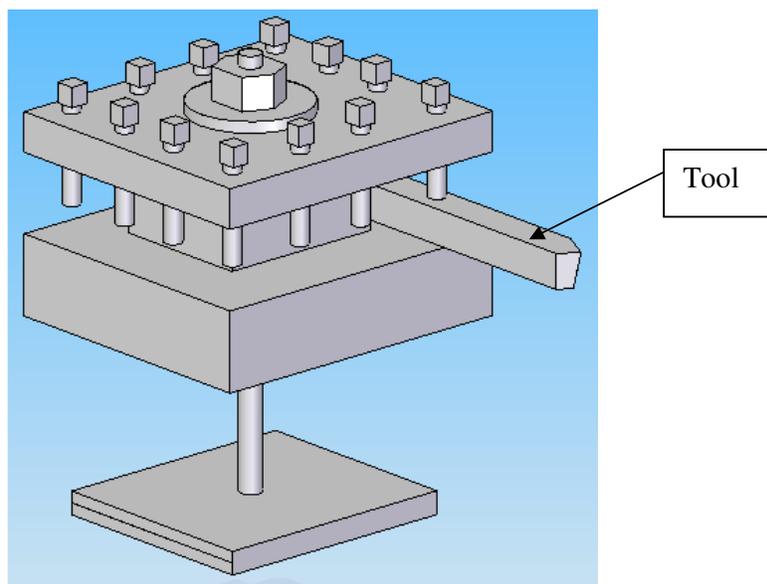
The tool is clamped onto the tool post using the bolts provided and the tool post itself is bolted down onto the compound slide. The tool therefore move as one either through the saddle or cross slide or the compound slide itself.

One-way tool post is used on a mass production machine and is not provided with tool height setting since this can be achieved through careful tool size choice and grinding. The four-way tool post is used on universal machine tools variety, for machining take place using any available tool and therefore must have provision for tool height control.

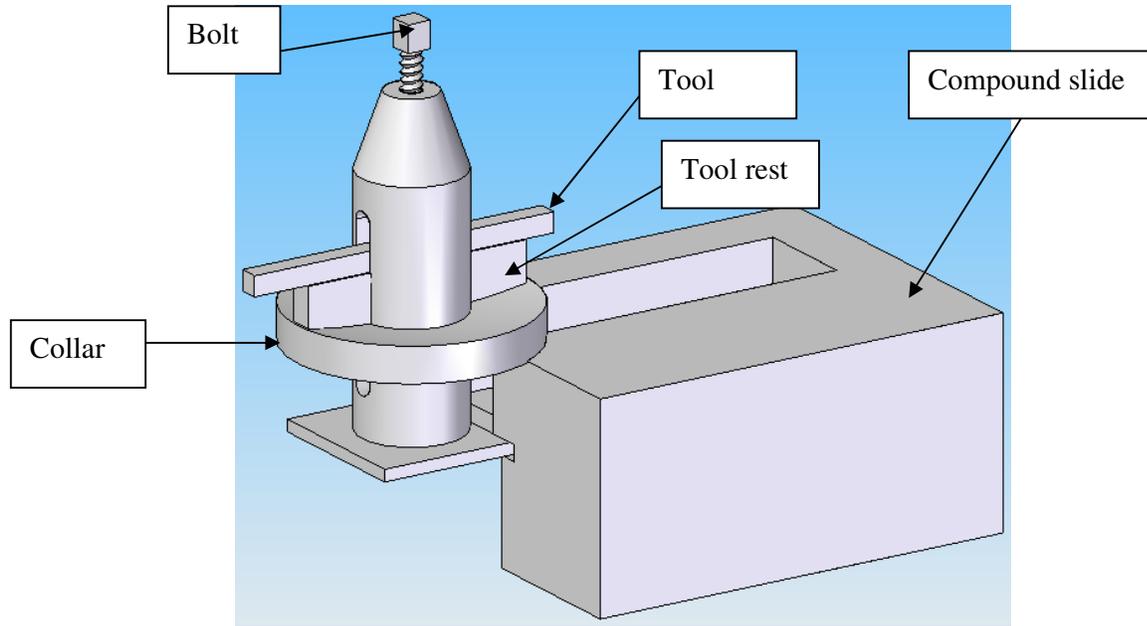
The American tool post is also for universal machine tools. A rocking tool rest is used for tool height control. This method tends to affect the rake angle of the tool. This must be taken into account when grinding the tool, depending on the material being machined.



One-way Tool post

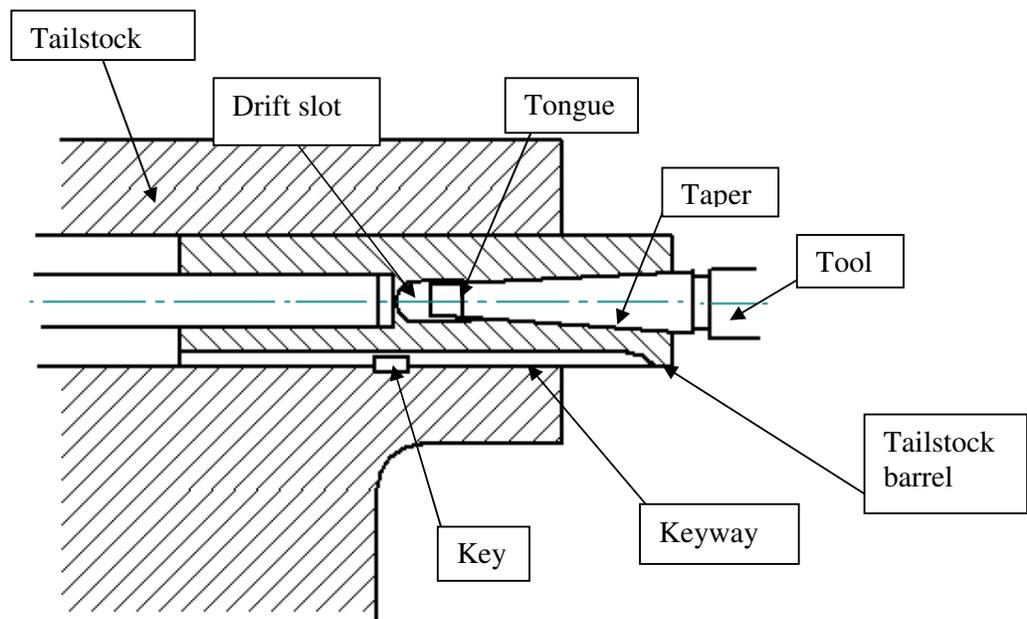


Four-way tool post



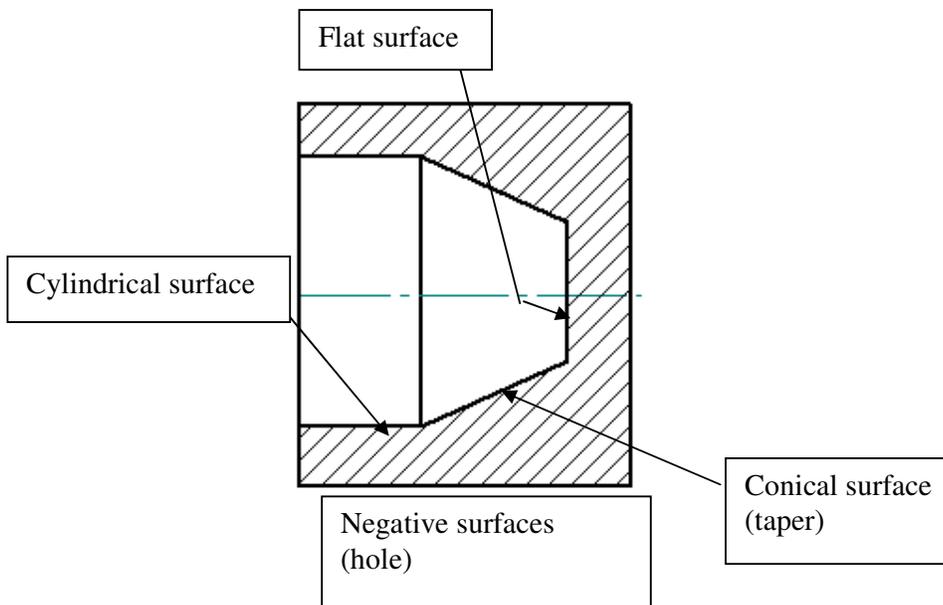
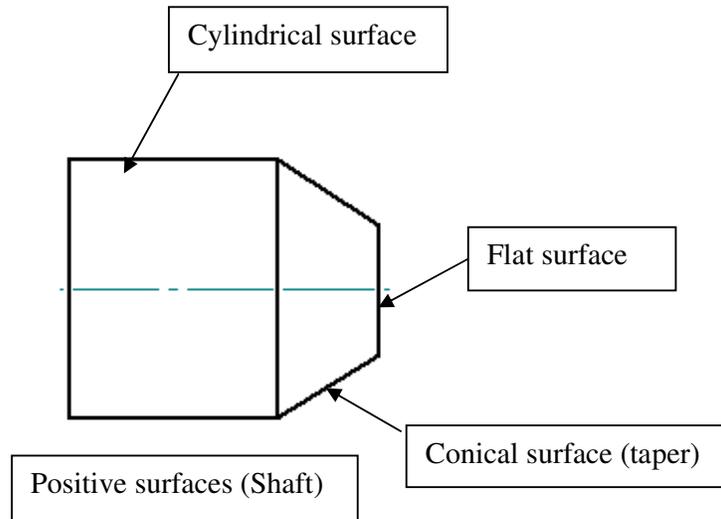
American tool post

At the tailstock, the tool is held in a taper. This taper is of small angle (Morse taper), which gives the tool a self-locking ability and also perfect alignment of the tool axis and spindle axis. Positive force that resists the torque from the turning work piece is provided by a tongue at the end of the tool. This tongue fits in a slot inside the tool post barrel. The barrel itself is prevented from rotating with the tool by a key.



## 5. Operations.

The lathe machine is designed to produce three types of surfaces, namely; cylindrical, conical and flat. A round shaft is a positive cylindrical surface. A round hole is a negative cylindrical surface. An external taper is a positive taper. A tapered hole is a negative taper. A flat at the end of a shaft is a positive flat surface, and a flat at the bottom of a hole is a negative flat surface.



The result of all operations is always a surface of some form produced. This comes about as a generated surface using single point tool or copying the form from the tool onto the work piece.

In both cases it is possible to produce a surface only if at least two motions of the lathe are present at the same time. These are active motions, one of which must be spindle rotation, which is the main motion.

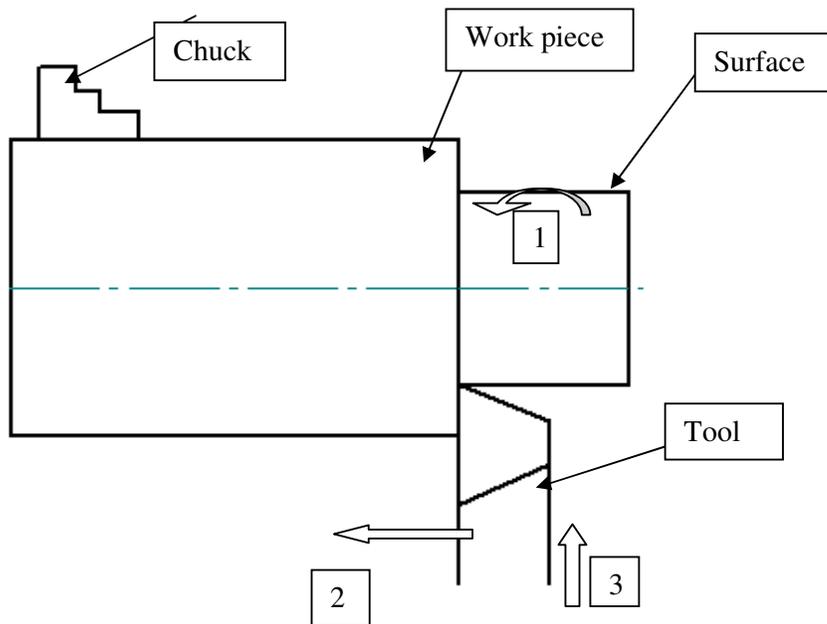
Another motion, which is very important but does not exist during actual cutting process is the one used to set the cutting depth. This is passive motion. It is the motion used to give the work piece its size.

Tool post operations.

These are operations, which are carried out with the tool at the tool post.

Turning.

This operation produces a positive cylindrical surface, a shaft.

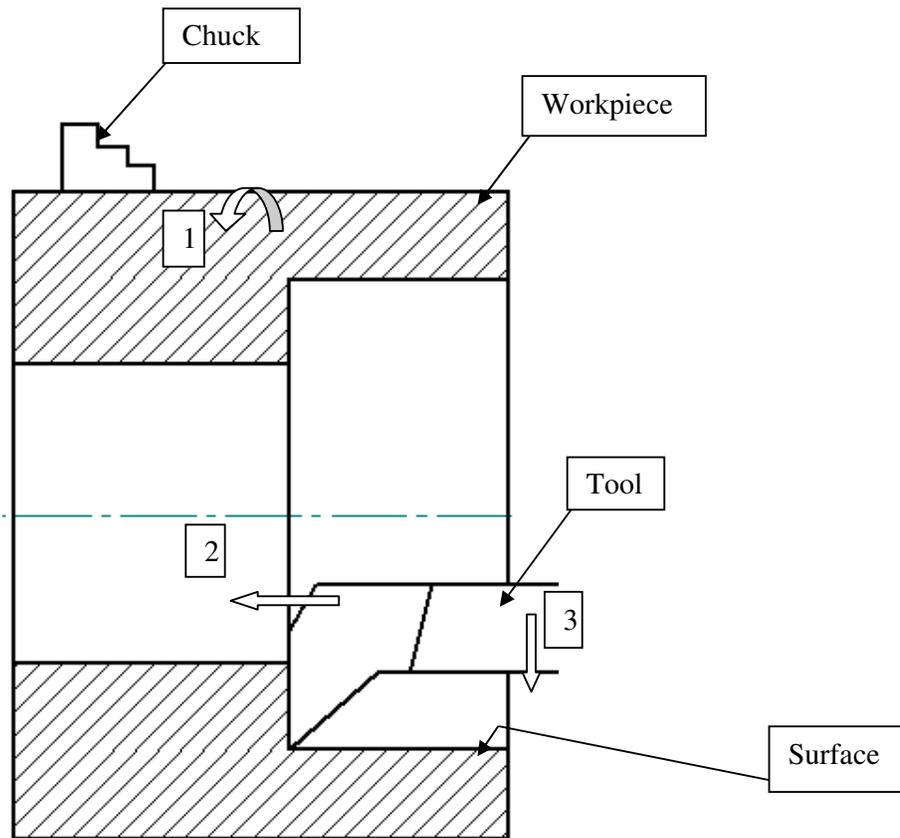


- Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)
- Motion 2- Active cutting feed motion
- Motion 3- Passive sizing motion

Active cutting feed motion 2 is supplied with power feed and therefore good surface finish can be obtained depending on the value of feed set.

## Boring.

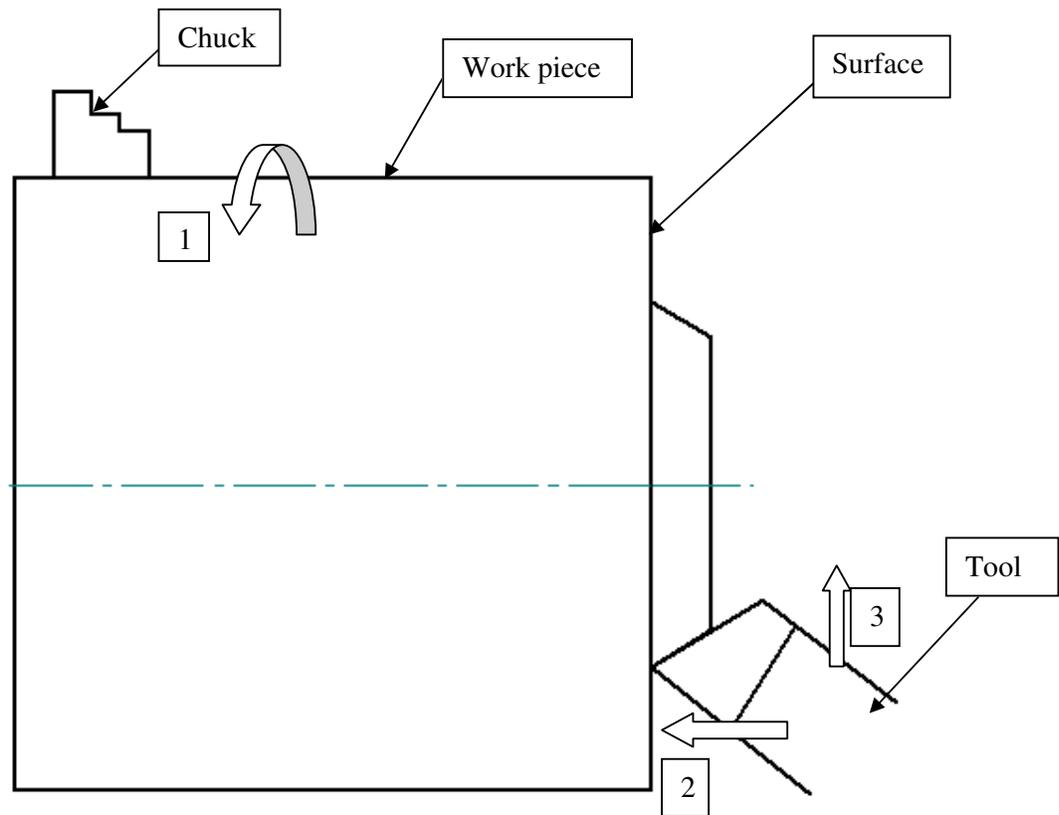
This operation produces a negative cylindrical surface, a hole.



- Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)
- Motion 2- Active cutting feed motion
- Motion 3- Passive sizing motion

## Facing.

This operation produces a positive or negative flat surface. The tool should be correctly ground for the negative surface.



-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)

-Motion 2- Passive sizing motion

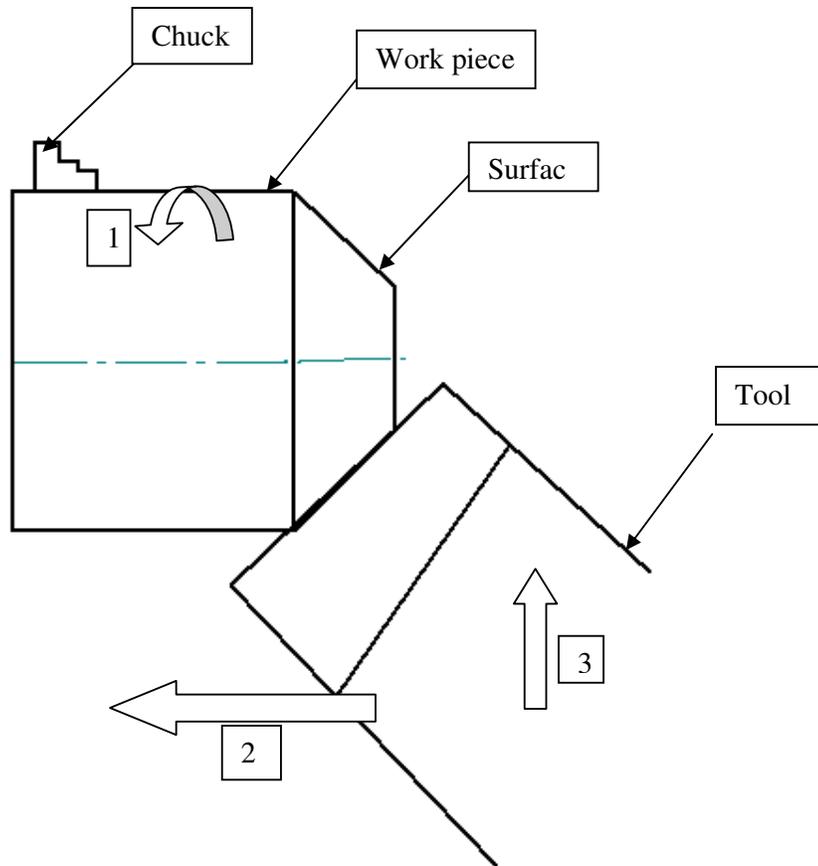
-Motion 3- Active cutting feed motion

Active cutting motion 3 is also supplied with automatic feed.

## Taper turning.

This can be done in three ways.

### 1) Using form tool.



The tool is ground with straight cutting edge and it is that edge which determines the taper angle. Both positive and negative tapers can be produced using this method.

-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (Main motion)

-Motion 2- Active cutting feed motion

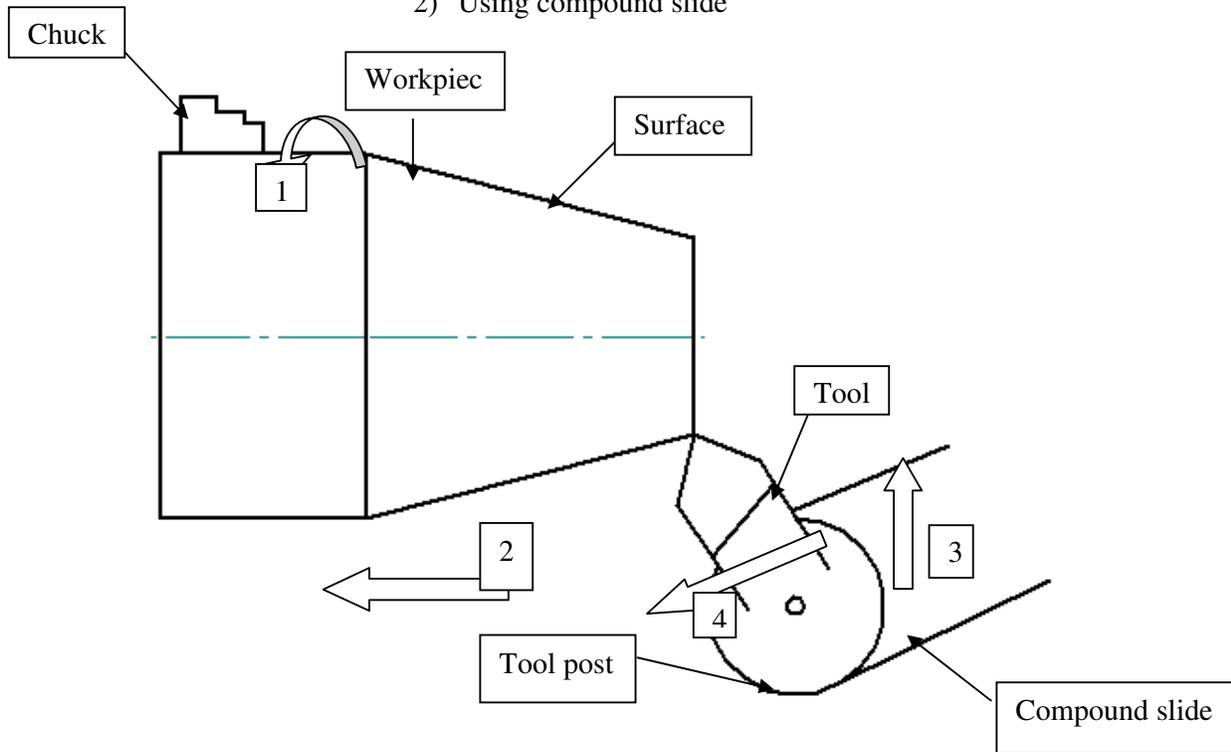
-Motion 3- Passive sizing motion

OR

-Motion 2- Passive sizing motion

-Motion 3- Active cutting feed motion

## 2) Using compound slide



The compound slide is set at half the value of the included angle of the taper using motion 5.

-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)

-Motion 4- Active cutting feed motion

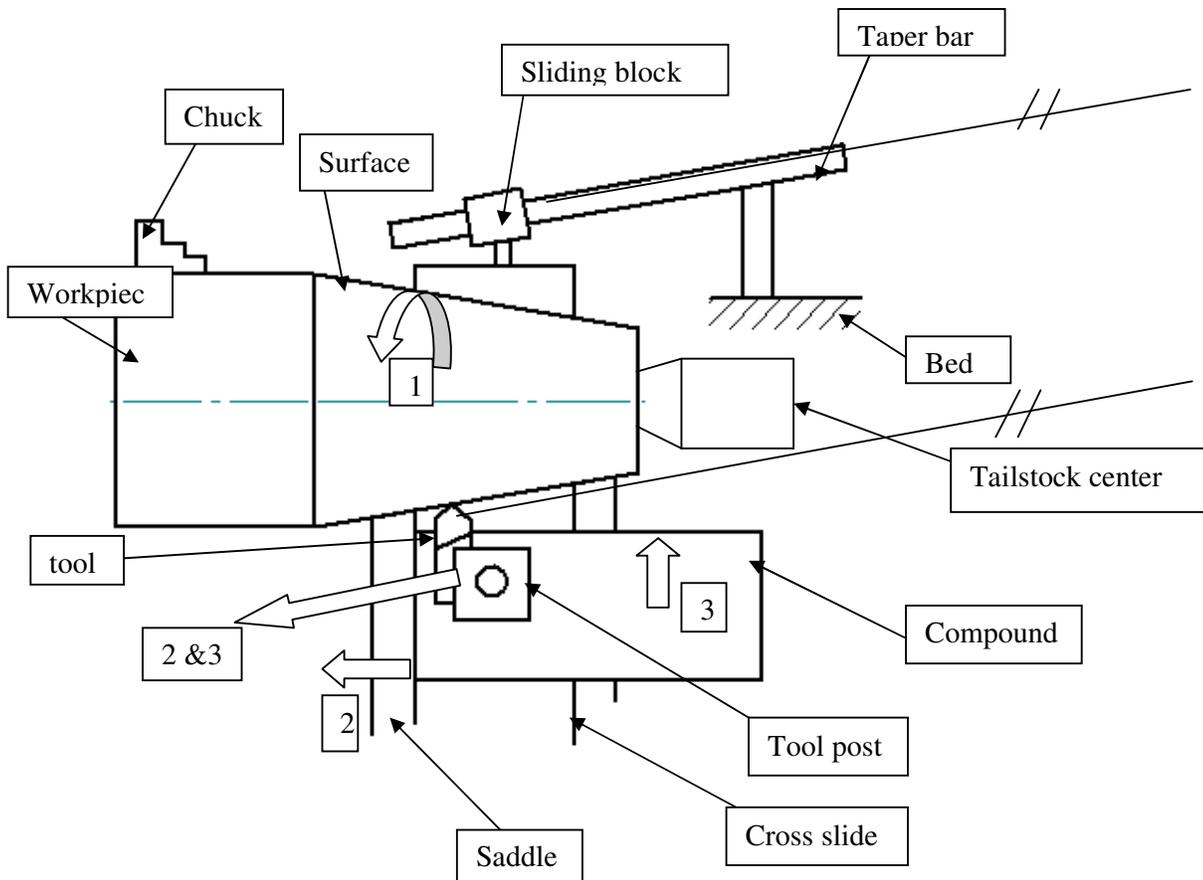
-Motion 2- Passive sizing motion

OR

-Motion 3- Passive sizing motion

Active cutting motion 4 is not supplied with power feed, therefore spindle speed and the manual feed of motion 4 must be correctly chosen for good surface finish. Length of taper that can be produced here depends on the compound slide length, but is longer than those that can be produced using form tool method.

### 3. Using taper turning attachment



-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)

-Motion 2- Passive sizing feed motion

-Motion 3- Passive sizing motion

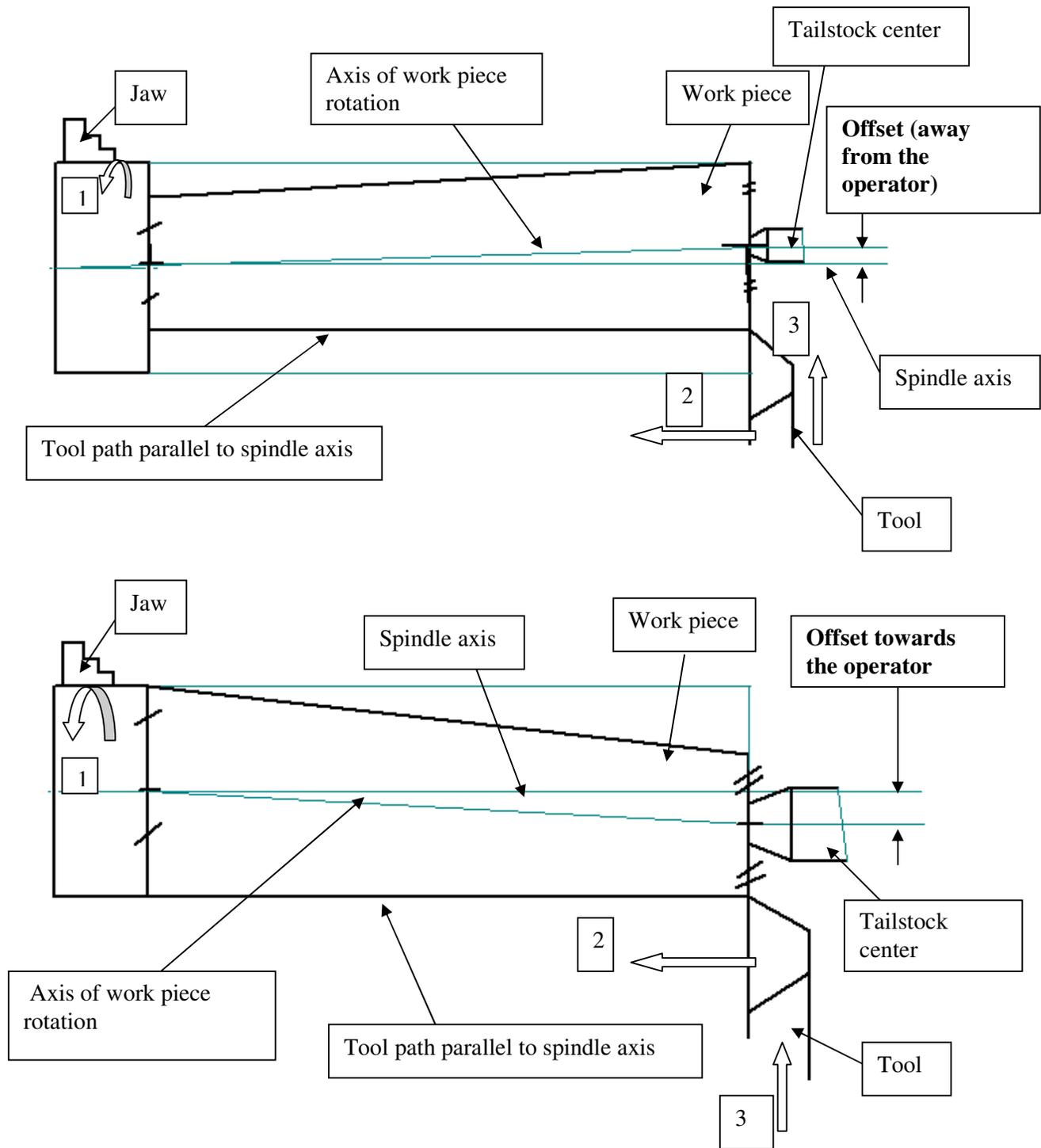
-Motions 2&3- Active cutting motion (combined)

The taper bar is set at half the value of the included angle of the taper. Sitting on the taper bar is a sliding block fitted at the end of the cross slide. The taper bar sits on a plate, which in turn is attached onto the bed and makes part of it. Therefore, by moving the saddle, the sliding block together with cross slide, compound slide, tool post and tool are forced either away or towards the operator, producing the required angle.

The cross slide screw is idle and simply slides into or out of its hand wheel, where it is either keyed or splined.

Active cutting feed motion has automatic feed therefore a good surface finish can be obtained. However only small angles up to 15 degrees included can be produced.

#### 4) Using tailstock offset



- Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)
- Motion 2- Active cutting feed motion
- Motion 3- Passive sizing motion

The tailstock can be offset either away from the operator or towards the operator

When this is done away from the operator, the tool cuts less material at the tailstock than at the chuck.

The taper is therefore bigger at the tailstock than at the chuck.

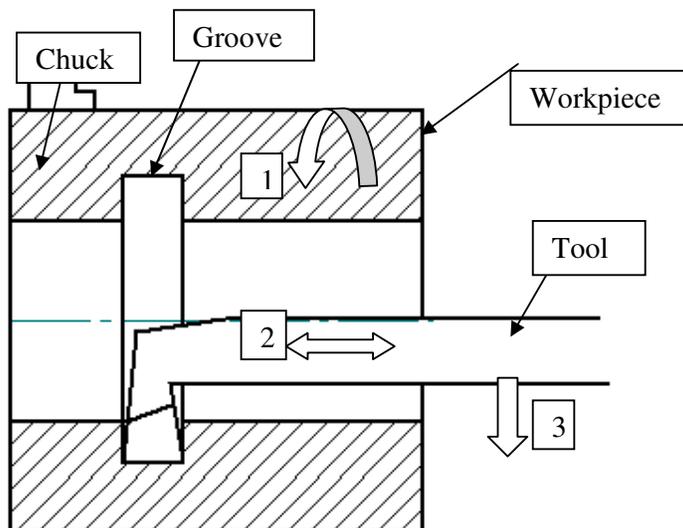
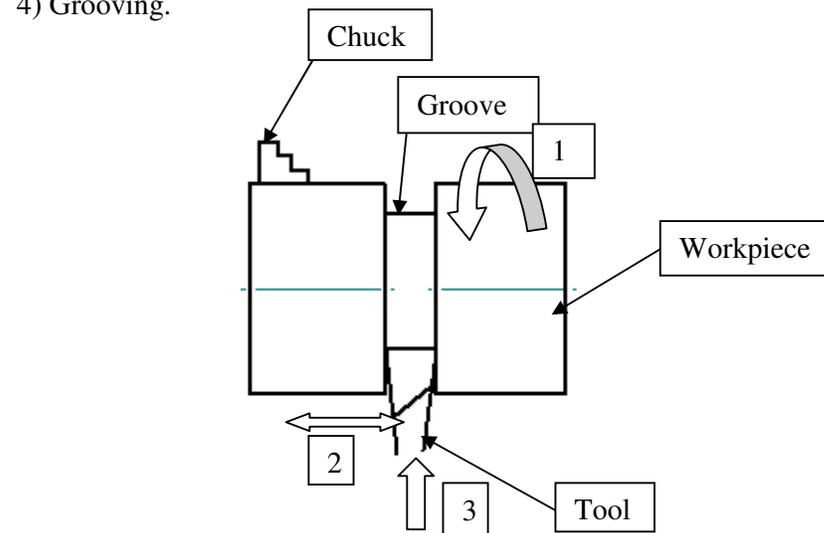
When it is done towards the operator, the tool cuts more material at the tailstock than at the chuck. The taper is therefore smaller at the tailstock and bigger at the chuck.

Since the possible amount of offset is very small, only small tapers of up to 5 degrees are possible.

Automatic feed is possible and therefore a good surface finish can be obtained.

It is important to reset the tailstock immediately afterwards since the offset is too small to be detected with the naked eye and may not be noticed by the next user who can produce an unnecessary taper and scrap a very useful component.

#### 4) Grooving.



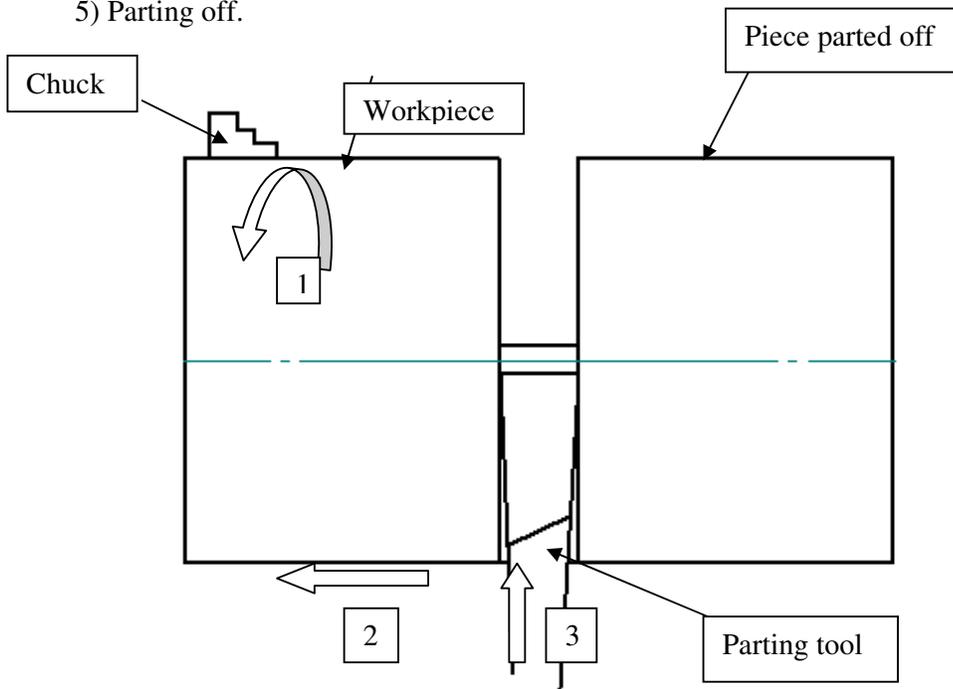
-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)

-Motion 2- Passive sizing motion

-Motion 3- Active cutting feed motion

The shape of the tool is copied from the tool profile, the width depends on tool width, but can be widened using motion 2 and the depth is obtained using motion 3.

5) Parting off.



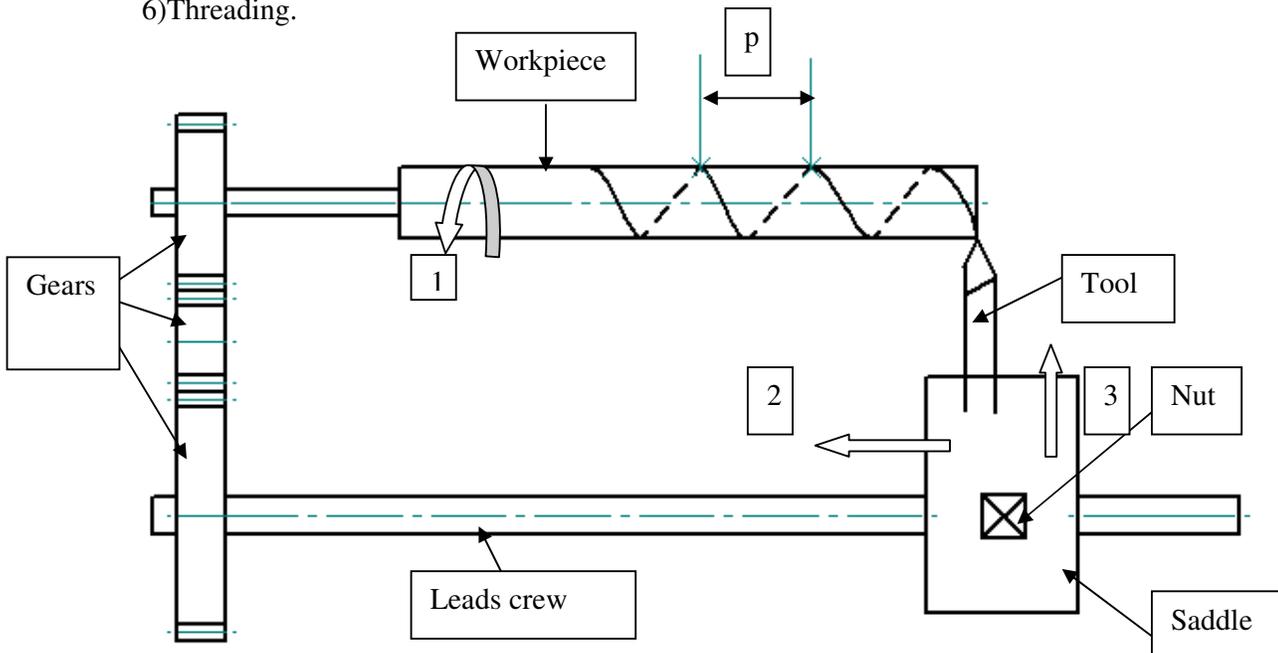
-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion).

-Motion 2- Passive sizing motion.

-Motion 3- Active cutting feed motion.

This is positive grooving carried out up to zero diameter. It is used to cut off pieces. These pieces are either the useful ones or useless ones (off-cuts).

6) Threading.



-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)

-Motion 2- Active cutting feed motion

### -Motion 3- Passive sizing motion

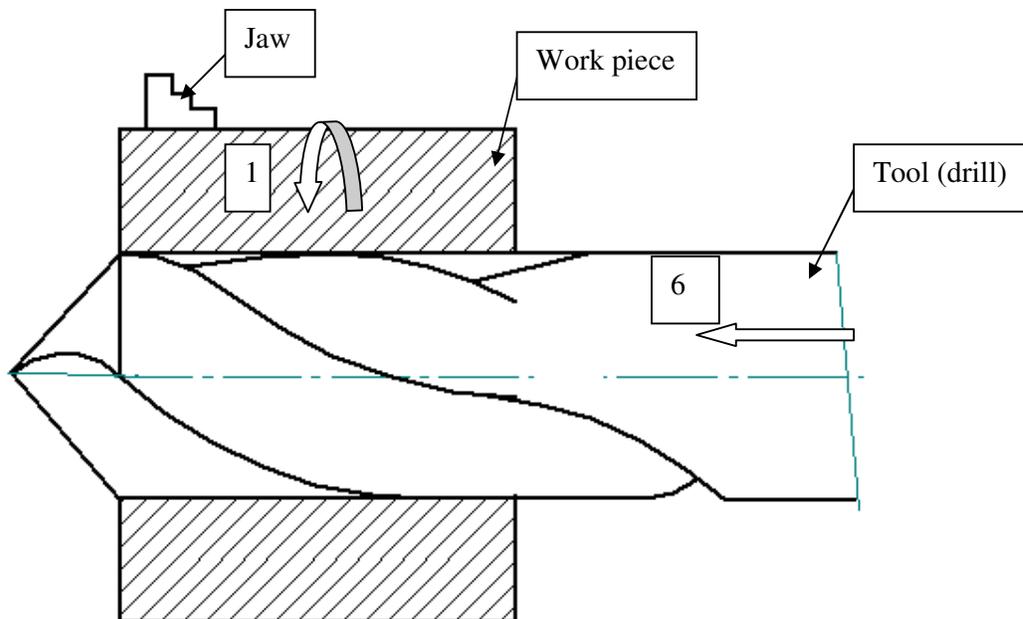
The arrangement is such that spindle motion is made the driver of the tool through gears at the back of the lathe and a leadscrew with its nut fixed on the saddle and therefore moves the saddle. The tool movement therefore becomes a controlled one, such that for every turn of the spindle and therefore the work piece, the tool moves a particular and constant distance known as the lead. The lead screw simply pulls or pushes the saddle with everything on it including the tool, when its nut is engaged.

Tailstock operations.

These are operations, which are carried out with the tool at the tailstock.

#### 1) Drilling.

This operation produces a hole where there is none.



-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)

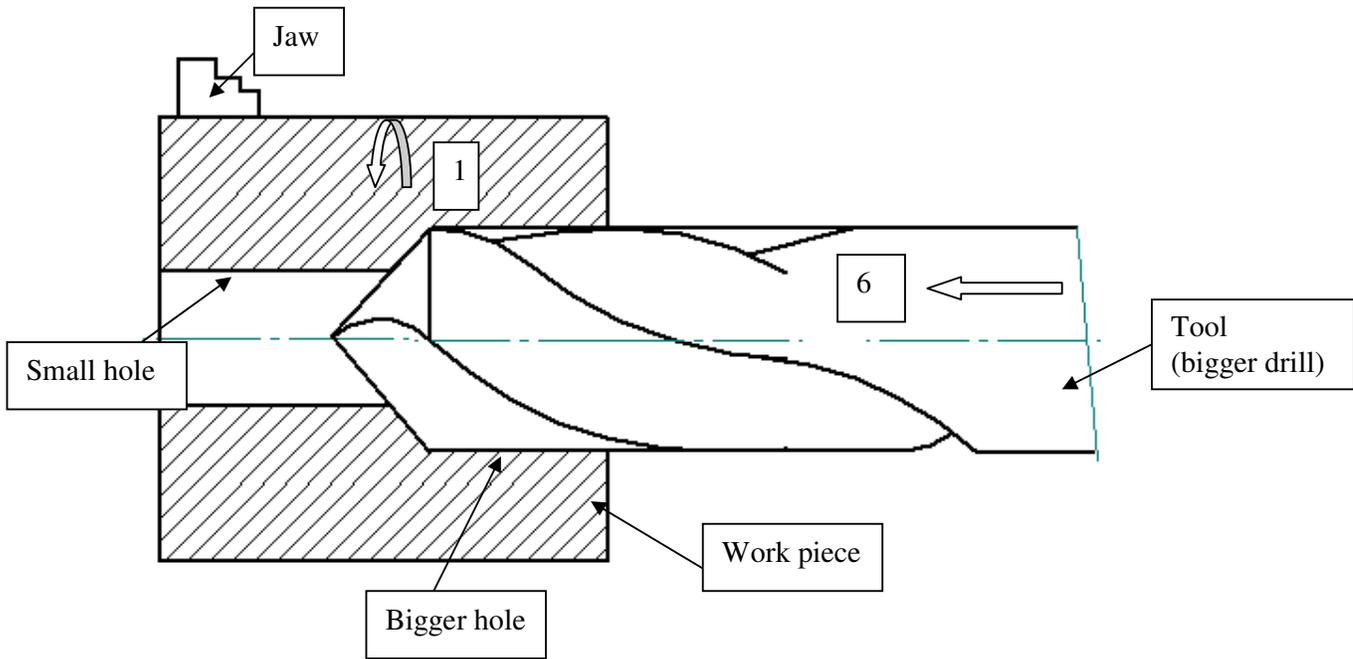
-Motion 6- Active cutting feed motion.

The length or depth of hole depends on barrel stroke and position of tailstock on the bed.

All the following operations are carried out in the same way as drilling, with the only difference being the tool.

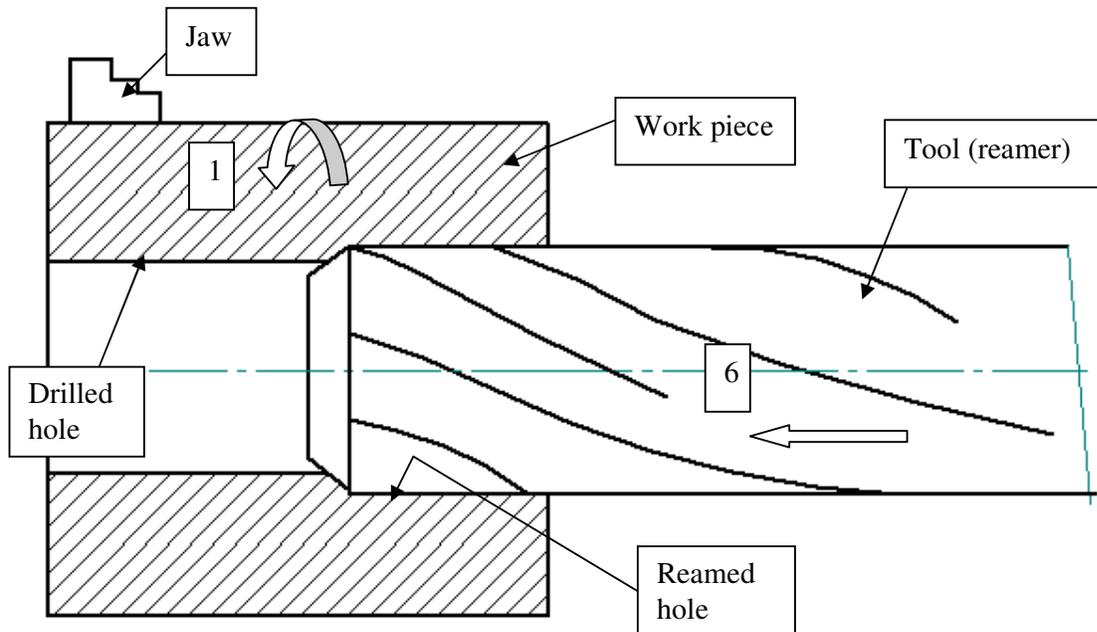
## 2) Counter drilling.

This operation enlarges an existing hole.



- Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)
- Motion 6- Active cutting feed motion.

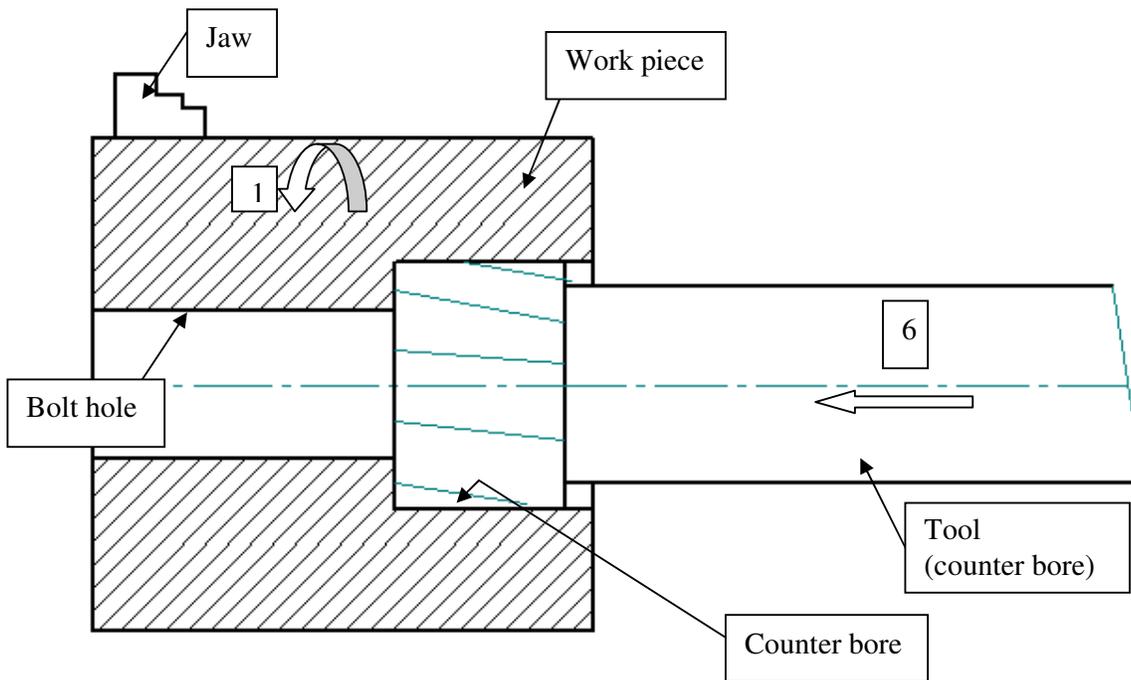
## Reaming.



- Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)
- Motion 6- Active cutting feed motion.

This operation improves the surface finish and size of an existing hole.

## 2) Counter boring.

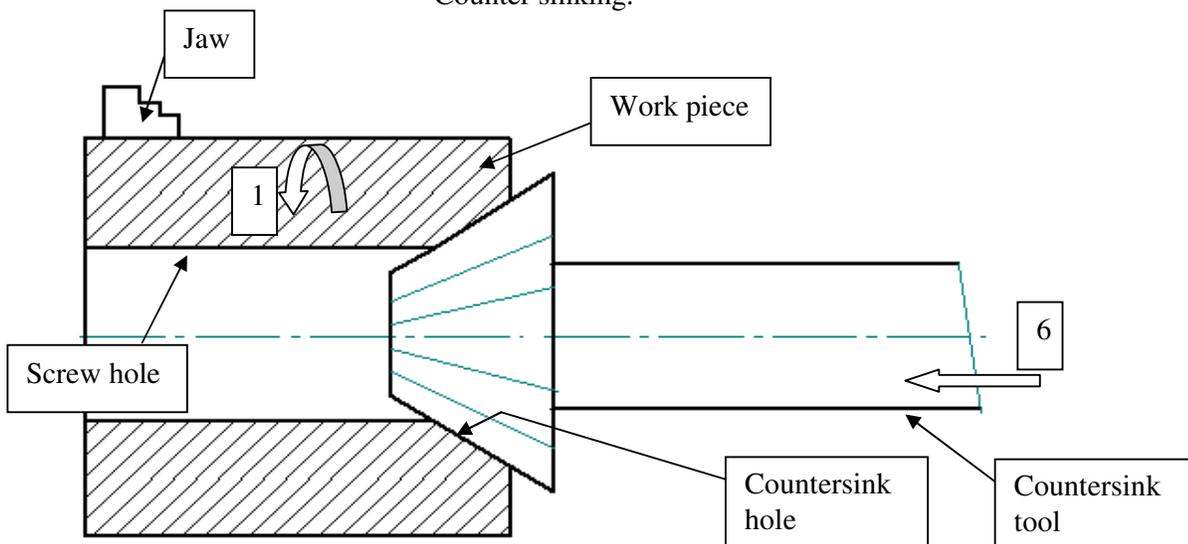


-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)

-Motion 6- Active cutting feed motion.

This operation produces hole with a flat bottom on top of a smaller one. This becomes a recess for hiding the head of a bolt or screw below a surface.

## Counter sinking.



-Motion 1- Active spindle rotary motion (main motion)

-Motion 6- Active cutting feed motion.

This operation produces a countersink hole on top of a smaller one. This becomes a recess for hiding the head of a countersink bolt or screw below a surface.