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CONTENTS

Введение (Preface)	4
PART 1. JOB DESCRIPTION AND WELDING EDUCATION	6
Text 1. Welding & Machine Trades	7
Text 2. What is Welding and what do Welders Do	9
Text 3. Welding Skills	12
Text 4 (Table). Welding Education and Consultation	
Training Centre	16
Text 5. Taking the Plunge: A Guide to Starting	
an Underwater Welding Career	21
PART 2. THE HISTORY OF WELDING	25
Text 1. Welding History - A Story of Harnessing Heat	26
Text 2. From the History of Welding	31
Text 3. Welding's Vital Part in Major	
American Historical Events	35
PART 3. WELDING PROCESSES & EQUIPMENT	40
Text 1. Introduction to Welding Processes & Equipment	41
Text 2. Basic Principles of Welding	44
Text 3. Characteristics of the Principal Welding Processes	48
Master Chart of the Principal Welding Processes	49
Text 4. Alternative Types of Welding	52
PART 4. ARC AND GAS WELDING IN DETAIL	55
Text 1. Arc Welding	55
Text 2.Oxygas Cutting Equipment	67
Text 3. Oxy-Fuel Welding and Cutting	80
PART 5. MODERN DEVELOPMENTS	89
Text 1. Friction Stir Welding (FSW)	90

Text 2. New Welding Method for Aluminium	96
Text 3. Man-machine Communication for Multi-run Arc Welding	101
Text 4 .IT in Welding and Cutting for the Welding Engineer –	
PC Programs and the Internet	105
Text 5. Moving Weld Management from the Desk to the Desktop	113
PART 6. ADVANCED TECHNOLOGIES	
AND THE FUTURE OF WELDING	118
Text 1. Space-Age Welding: The Past, Present and Future	
of Aerospace Join Processes	119
Text 2. What Is Orbital Welding	124
Text 3. Welding Forges into the Future	128
PART 7. HEALTH, SAFETY AND ACCIDENT	
PREVENTION	137
Text 1. Health Risks of Welding Fume/Gases	138
Text 2. Safety and Scheduled Maintenance Protect	
Your Welding Assets	143
APPENDIX 1. WELDING THEORY & APPLICATION DEFINITIONS	147
APPENDIX 2. КЛАССИФИКАЦИЯ ВИДОВ И СПОСОБОВ СВАРКИ	175

Введение

Данное учебное пособие рассчитано на подготовку ПО английскому языку студентов высших учебных заведений, обучающихся по специальности 150202 «Оборудование и технология сварочного производства». В пособие включены аутентичные тексты на английском языке по основной сварочной тематике, снабженные упражнениями и заданиями, направленными на развитие навыков литературы чтения, реферирования И аннотирования с ПО специальности, а также навыков ведения беседы на специальные темы.

Работа с материалом, представленным в пособии, поможет студентам не только овладеть английской технической терминологией из области сварки и сварочных процессов, но и познакомиться с историей и современным состоянием отрасли, заглянуть в будущее технологии.

Пособие снабжено иллюстративным и справочным материалами и может использоваться как для аудиторной, так и для самостоятельной работы студентов.

PART 1. JOB DESCRIPTION AND WELDING EDUCATION

Lead-in

In the list below tick the places where welders are **not likely** to work. Add some more places to the list.

- machine-building factory workshop;
- bridge construction site;
- hospital;
- university department;
- shipyard;
- bank;
- repair shop;
- assembly site;
- bakery.

Vocabulary

weld	сварной шов, сварка, сваривать(ся)		
repair and maintenance	ремонт оборудования и уход за ним		
sheet metal work	1) обработка листового металла 2) изделие из		
	листового металла 3) жестяницкие работы		
hobbyist	человек, увлеченный своим хобби		
carpenter	плотник, столяр		
ironworker	металлург		
glazier	стекольщик		
tender	1) лицо, присматривающее за кем-л.,		
	обслуживающее кого-л., что-л. 2) механик,		
	оператор		
supervisor	контролер		
contractor	подрядчик, контрактор		
repair shop	ремонтная мастерская		
stoop	наклоняться, нагибаться		
awkward	неудобный; затруднительный, неловкий		
machine setting	1) наладка [настройка] станка		
nondestructive testing	1) неразрушающие испытания;		
	2) неразрушающий контроль		

Reading Pre-reading

Find the Russian equivalents for the words and word combinations in italics in the text.



Text 1. Welding & Machine Trades

Welding is a skill used by many trades: sheet metal workers, ironworkers, diesel mechanics, boilermakers, carpenters, marine construction, steamfitters, glaziers, repair and maintenance personnel in applications ranging from the home hobbyist to heavy fabrication of bridges, ships and many other projects. A variety of welding

processes are used to *join units of metal*. As a welder, you may work for shipyards, manufacturers, **contractors**, federal, state, county, and city governments, firms requiring *maintenance mechanics*, and **repair shops**.

Welding, while very physically demanding, can be very rewarding for those who enjoy working with their hands. Welders need *good eyesight*, *manual dexterity* and *hand-eye coordination*. They should also be able to concentrate for long periods of time on very detailed work, as well as be in good enough *physical shape* to bend and **stoop**, often holding awkward positions for long periods of time. Welders work in a variety of environments, both indoors and out, using heat to melt and fuse separate pieces of metal together. Training and skill levels can vary, with a few weeks of school or *on-the-job training* for the lowest level job and several years of school and experience for the more *skilled welding positions*.

Skilled welders often select and set up the welding equipment, execute the weld, and then examine the welds in order to make sure they meet the *appropriate specifications*. They may also be trained to work in a variety of materials, such as plastic, titanium or aluminum. Those with less training perform more *routine tasks*, such as the welds on jobs that have already been laid out, and are not able to work with as many different materials.

While the need for welders as a whole should continue to grow about as fast as average, according the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, the demand for *low-skilled welders* should decrease dramatically, as many companies move towards *automation*. However, this will be partially balanced out by the fact that the demand for **machine setters**, operators and **tenders** should increase. And more *skilled welders* on *construction projects* and equipment repair should not be affected, as most of these jobs cannot be easily automated. Because of the increased need for highly skilled welders, those with *formal training* will have a much better chance of getting the position they desire. For those considering to prepare themselves to a *meaningful welding-career*, there are many *options available*.

There are also different professional specialties and levels, that should be understood to make an informed choice. Some of these are: welder, welding machine operator, welding technician, welding schedule developer, welding procedure writer, testing laboratory technician, welding **non destructive testing** inspector, welding supervisor, welding instructor, welding engineer.

While-reading activity

Make a list of all the words in the text indicating:

a) welding professions and levels: welder, welding machine operator, ...

- b) trades where welding skill is used: ...
- c) places/fields a welder can work at (in): ...
- d) personal qualities a welder should have:

Answer the following questions on the text.

- 1. What are the trades where welding skills are used?
- 2. Where can welders work?
- 3. What personal characteristics should welders have?
- 4. How does the environment in which welders work vary?
- 5. What does it take to be s low-skilled/skilled welder?

6. What are welders able to do in terms of complexity of tasks and variety of materials?

7. What are the job opportunities for low-skilled/skilled welders for the nearest future as specified by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics?

8. What are the advantages of having formal training for making a welding career?

9. As you see, welding includes various professional specialties and levels. What is yours?

After-reading activity

Translate the following sentences from Russian into English:

1. Сфера применения сварки охватывает большое количество областей промышленности.

2. Профессия сварщика требует физической выносливости из-за частой необходимости работы в нестационарных условиях.

3. Для того чтобы стать квалифицированным сварщиком, необходима длительная теоретическая подготовка и практический опыт работы.

4. Квалифицированный сварщик должен сам уметь подбирать необходимое сварочное оборудование, материалы и технику сварки.

5. Чем выше квалификация сварщика, тем больше количество материалов, с которыми он может работать, и разнообразнее виды выполняемых работ.

6. В настоящее время имеются большие возможности для освоения профессии сварщика.

Look through the last paragraph of the text and say, what exactly, in your opinion, the following welding specialists do:

welder	
welding machine operator	
welding technician	
welding schedule developer	
welding procedure writer	
testing laboratory technician	
welding non destructive testing	
inspector	

Writing

Write five sentences (one per each paragraph) summarizing the main ideas of the text.

Reading

Skim the text to understand its main ideas

Text 2. What is welding and what do welders do?

Welding is the most economical and efficient way to join metals permanently. It is the only way of joining two or more pieces of metal to make them act as a single piece. Welding is vital to our economy. It is often said that over 50% of the gross national product of the U.S.A. is related to welding in one way or another. Welding ranks high among industrial processes and involves more sciences and variables than those involved in any other industrial process. There are many ways to make a weld and many different kinds of welds. Some processes cause sparks and others do not even



require extra heat. Welding can be done anywhere... outdoors or indoors, underwater and in outer space.

Nearly everything we use in our daily life is welded or made by equipment that is welded. Welders help build metal products from coffeepots to skyscrapers. They help build space vehicles and millions

of other products ranging from oil drilling rigs to automobiles. In construction, welders are virtually rebuilding the world, extending subways, building bridges, and helping to improve the environment by building pollution control devices. The use of welding is practically unlimited. There is no lack of variety of the type of work that is done.

Welders are employed in many industry groups. Machinery manufacturers

are responsible for agricultural, construction, and mining machinery. They are also involved in bulldozers, cranes, material handling equipment, food-processing machinery, papermaking and printing equipment, textiles, and office machinery.



The fabricated metals products compiles another

group including manufacturers of pressure vessels, heat exchangers, tanks, sheet metal, prefabricated metal buildings and architectural and ornamental work. Transportation is divided into two major groups: manufacturers of transportation equipment except motor vehicles; and motor vehicles and equipment. The first includes shipbuilding, aircraft, spacecraft, and railroads. The second includes automobiles, trucks, buses, trailers, and associated equipment.



A small group of welders belongs to the group of repair services. This includes maintenance and repair on automobiles or refers to the welding performed on industrial and electrical machinery to repair worn parts. The mining, oil extraction, and gas extraction industries form yet another group. A large portion of the work

involves drilling and extracting oil and gas or mining of ores, stone, sand and gravel.

Welders are also employed in the primary metals industries to include steel mills, iron and steel foundries, smelting and refining plants. Much of this work is maintenance and repair of facilities and equipment. Another group is the electrical and electronic equipment companies. Welding done by this group runs from work on electric generators, battery chargers, to household appliances.

Public administration employs welders to perform maintenance welding that is done on utilities, bridges, government armories and bases, etc. Yet another group involves wholesale and retail establishments. These would include auto and agricultural equipment dealerships, metal service centers, and scrap yards.

Probably the smallest group of welders, but perhaps those with the biggest impact on the public are the artist and sculptors. The St. Louis Arch is possibly one of the best known. But there are many other fountains and sculptures in cities and neighborhoods around the world.



While-reading activity

Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations: валовой национальный продукт, на открытом воздухе, в помещении, космический корабль, горное оборудование.

True or false?

- 1. Welding is an important process employed by modern industry.
- 2. All welding processes are similar.
- 3. All welding processes require work pieces to be heated.
- 4. The smallest group of welders belongs to the group of repair services.
- 5. Welding is the only way to join metals.

After-reading activity

Make up a summary of the text using the following sentences as a beginning:]

1. Welding is.... 2. Welding ranks... 3. There are many kinds... 4. Welding can be made... 5. Welders can... 6. The use of welding is... 7. Welders are employed in

Lead-in

You already know where welders are involved. Read the text below and find out if there are more such places.

Vocabulary

journeyman (person)	наемный квалифицированный рабочий
apprentice	ученик
plate working	обработка листового металла
blueprint	1) делать светокопию, копировать чертеж 2)
	делать разметку
brazing	пайка твердым припоем (из меди и цинка)
GTA (gas tungsten	сварка неплавящимся электродом
arc) welding	
TIG (ungsten inert	дуговая сварка вольфрамовым электродом в среде
gas welding)	инертного газа
SMAW (shielded	дуговая сварка покрытым металлическим
metal arc welding)	электродом
SAW (submerged arc	(дуговая) сварка под флюсом
welding)	
resistance welding	(контактная) сварка сопротивлением
flux core	флюсовая сердцевина (порошковой проволоки)
metal core	металлический сердечник
shift work	(по)сменная работа, работа по сменам

Reading

Text 3. Welding Skills

A Welder permanently joins pieces of metal with metal filler, using heat and/or pressure. Welders join parts being manufactured, they build structures and repair broken or cracked parts, according to specifications.

Job Related Skills, Interests and Values

- using and maintaining tools, material handling equipment and welding equipment;
- reading and interpreting **blueprints**;
- acquiring thorough knowledge of arc, gas and **resistance welding** theory;
- laying out, cutting and forming metals to specifications;
- preparing the work site;

- fitting sub-assemblies and assemblies together and preparing assemblies for welding ;
- welding using shielded metal arc welding, gas metal arc welding, gas tungsten arc welding, flux core or metal core arc welding, submerged arc welding and plasma arc welding processes;
- carrying out special processes such as welding studs and brazing;
- ensuring quality of product/process before, during and after welding;

What Preparation and Training Do You Need?

To become a Welder you should complete Grade 12 with credits in mathematics (particularly technical math) and some shop courses. In Ontario, welding is an unrestricted trade; completion of an apprenticeship could take approximately 3 years including 3 periods of 8 weeks (720 hours) in-school theory. Upon successful completion of the training agreement, you will receive a Certificate of Apprenticeship.

What's Your Future as a Welder?

Most workers in this occupation work full-time, sometimes in shift work, usually indoors. Those with the ability to work with high-technology welding applications may have better employment opportunities. The bulk of employment opportunities are predicted to occur in the non-electrical, machinery, construction and metal-fabricating industries. Some workers will become self-employed. Examples of companies that employ welders include:

- Fabricating shops;
- Manufacturers of structural steel and **platework**;
- Construction industries;
- Boilers;
- Heavy machinery contractors;
- Aircraft contractors;
- Ship building and other transportation contractors;
- Specialized welding shops.

Wage Rate

- as an apprentice you would start at a wage rate less than that of a **journeyperson**
- this rate increases gradually as you gain competency

• the wage range for fully qualified welders according to the Peel Halton Dufferin HRDC Wage Book is between \$9.50/hr to \$16.18/hr, with a median salary of \$12.50/hr.

After reading activity

Revise the information of Unit1 and make a list of the things welders should be able to do and places they can work at.

Self-Rating

Ask Yourself: Is Working as a Welder For You?

Are you good at preparing and planning a job from start to finish?	C	Yes	C	No
Can you look at a diagram or shop drawing and visualize how things come together?	C	Yes	C	No
Do you like figuring out what's wrong with something and then repairing it?	C	Yes	C	No
Are you able to bend, stretch, kneel, stand for long periods and lift material and supplies?		Yes	0	No
Would it bother you to work around dangerous gases and intense heat?	٥	Yes	O	No
Do you have good hand/eye coordination to guide a welding arc along the edges of metal?		Yes	0	No

If you answered Yes to most of these questions, welder may be for you!

Lead-in

You already know what sort of skills you should have to be a welder. Now think of the answers to the following questions:

1. How long should a person be trained to become a skilled welder?

2. Do you think that a welder should be able to use all kinds of welding?

3. What is more interesting to you personally: welding techniques, welding inspection (other)?

Vocabulary

technique	1) техника, способ, технические приемы 2) метод; методика,	
case study	учебный пример; разбор конкретного случая	
shielded metal arc	дуговая сварка покрытым металлическим	
welding	электродом	
arc welding	электродуговая сварка	
submerged arc welding	дуговая сварка под флюсом	
oxyfuel	газоплазменный	
electric resistance welding	(контактная) сварка сопротивлением	
tensile test	испытание на растяжение	
bending test	испытание на изгиб	
impact test	испытание на ударную вязкость	
discontinuity	отсутствие непрерывности, нарушение	
	последовательности; несплошность	
volumetric	объемный	
hardness	твердость, прочность; сопротивляемость	
	(механическим воздействиям)	
tension	натяжение; растяжение, растягивание, удлинение	
site welding	монтажные сварочные работы	
heat flow	тепловой поток	
heat treatment	термическая обработка	
welding metallurgy	металлургия сварки	
hardenability	1) закаливаемость 2) прокаливаемость 3)	
	способность к закаливанию	
weldability	свариваемость	
non-ferrous	цветной (о металле), не содержащий железа	
filler metal	присадочный металл	
alloy	сплав	
ASME	сокр. от American Society of Mechanical Engineers	
	Американское общество инженеров-механиков	
AWS	сокр. от American Welding Society Американское	
	сварочное общество	

Match the words from the list below with their definitions a) alloy, b) joint, c) inspection, d) welding, e) laser, f) design, g) property, h) course, j) plasma, k) arc. 1. To contrive, to formulate, to project, to draw, to plan, to sketch out;

2. Joining pieces of metal (or nonmetal) at faces rendered plastic or liquid by heat or pressure (or both).

3. a) A junction or mode of joining parts together; b) the place where two things are joined together

4. The luminous arc or bridge across a gap between two electrodes when an electric current is sent through them.

5. a) A careful, narrow or critical examination or survey; b) an official examination.

6. An instrument which amplifies light waves by stimulation to produce a powerful, coherent beam of monochromatic light, an optical maser.

7. Metal blended with some other metallic or nonmetallic substance to give it special qualities, such as resistance to corrosion, greater hardness, or tensile strength.

8. A planned programme of study.

9. Peculiar or inherent quality.

10. A hot, ionized gas containing approximately equal numbers of positive ions and electrons.

Reading and Speaking

Imagine you are a trying to choose a welding course to your needs. Which one will you choose if your needs are like these:

1. You have to know how to carry out mechanical tests.

2. You are interested in welding ferrous alloys and non ferrous alloys.

3. You want to introduce computers in your welding process.

4. You are new to welding and would like to be introduced to basic welding processes.

5. You want to learn how to choose the right type of welding for your specific purposes.

6. You want to be a highly qualified and certified expert in the field of welding.

7. You want to be familiar with welding standards

Use the table below to choose the course.

Text 5 (Table). Welding Education and Consultation Training Centre

Course	Course Objectives	Course Outlines
Welding	The main objective of this	Materials properties related to

Design	course is to introduce	welding. Welding process
- C	welding engineers to the	selection. Types of welded
	subject of welding design.	joints. Welding Accessibility
	Many factors have to be	and Inspection. Economical
	considered in this issue.	Analysis. Design information.
	These factors include:	Welding symbols. Case
	consumer requirement,	studies.
	technical specifications, and	
	environmental and	
	economical constrains	
Welding	The main objective of this	Welding processes: Shielded
Fundamentals	course is to familiarize	metal Arc welding, Arc
	engineers and inspectors to	welding, Gas tungsten Arc
	various aspects related to	welding, Submerged Arc
	welding techniques,	welding & Oxyfuel welding &
	inspection and quality	electric resistance. Cutting
	procedures in welding	processes: Oxygen cutting,
	industry. The course is	plasma cutting and laser
	designed for engineers of	cutting. Inspection of
	scientists with no or little	weldments: Nondestructive
	experience in the welding	testing of welments.
	field.	Mechanical testing of
		weldments (tensile, bending,
		impact).
Welding	The course discusses both	Significance of weld
Inspection	qualification inspections and	discontinuities. Welding
	on-line inspections of	inspection (non-destrutive
	welded joints. These include	testing techniques: surface
	mechanical tests (tension,	inspection, magnetic particle,
	bending, impact,etc, and	volumetric, radiography, and
	non destructive tests.	ultrasonic). Destructive testing
		techniques: hardness, tension,
		bending,etc. The control of
		quality during shop operations.
		The control of quality during
		site welding.
Non	Level I: Is to train inspectors	Physical principals of test.
Destructive	to be able to pass level I	Processing. Test equipment
testing	examination and to be able	and materials. Codes,
Certification:	to inspect using the chosen	standards, procedures and

Magnetic Particle & Liquid Penetrant Testing (MT & PT)	technique. Level II: Is to upgrade level I inspectors to be able to pass level II examination and to be able to inspect, write a report, etc in the chosen technique.	safety. Test physical principals. Equipment and radiation source. Radiographic recording. Work parameters and conditions. Defectology. Selection of techniques. Test methods according to standards. Personal safety and protection.
Welding Metallurgy	The course delineates the main changes in the microstructure and/or the morphology of the metals and alloys during welding that lead to changes in properties. Alloys discussed in the course include all types of steels, Cast Iron, Nickel, Copper alloys,etc	Heat flow in welding. Effect of pre-and-post weld heat treatment. Introduction to welding metallurgy (hardenability and weldability). Metallurgy of steels. Welding of ferrous alloys: Carbon-steels, Low alloy steels, Stainless steels, and Cast Iron. Welding of non ferrous alloys: Al- Ni- and Cu-alloys. Identification and specifications of welding filler metals. Case studies.
Welding Quality Assurance	For each application, the welding process is controlled by specific code or standard. The course includes discussions of ASME boiler and pressure vessel code AWS steel structure code and other standards.	Welding co-ordination: tasks & responsibility. Quality requirements for welding. Qualification of welding procedures and welders. International codes and standards. Mechanical testing of welds. Non-destructive testing of welds. Documents for weld quality assurance. Case studies.
Welding Techniques	Selection of the welding process is very important. The course discusses the variables of each welding process and gives directions for selecting the proper	Overview of welding techniques and processes. Conventional techniques: arc, Oxy fuel and resistance welding . Non-conventional: plasma, electron beam, laser

	process for specific application. Welding processes discussed include: SMAW, GMAW, GTAW, etc.	welding. Flame and arc cutting of metals. Computer applications in welding. Case studies.
AWS Certified welding Engineer	The highest level of certification in the field of welding	To get certified as a welding engineer you need to attend four exams: Fundamentals of science. Applied science. Fundamentals of welding. Applied welding.

Translate the following sentences into Russian:

1. Кислородная, плазменная и газовая резка изучаются в курсе «Основы сварочного производства».

2. Методика проведения разрушающих испытаний изучается в курсе «контролер сварочного участка» («приемщик сварочных изделий»).

3. К традиционным типам сварки относятся: электродуговая, кислородно-газовая и контактная электросварка.

4. Каждый сварщик должен знать правила личной безопасности и использовать индивидуальные средства (equipment) защиты, а также разбираться в международных кодах и стандартах.

5. Во время сварки происходит изменение микроструктуры металла, что приводит к изменению его свойств.

6. При проведении монтажных сварочных работ особенно важно контролировать качество шва.

Writing

Write a short summary about a welder's competence. Cover the following areas:

- welding courses welders can take;

- types of welding welders should be able to use,

- testing techniques welders should know about.

Lead-in

Before you read, think of the following questions: 1. What does it mean to be a surface welder?

- 2. When does it become necessary to weld underwater?
- 3. Do you consider underwater welding an interesting career opportunity?

Vocabulary

plunge	прыжок, ныряние, погружение (в воду или			
	другую среду)			
take the plunge	сделать решительный шаг			
commercial	1) коммерческий, торговый; 2) промышленный 3)			
	рентабельный, прибыльный Syn: profitable 4)			
	технический			
subsea	погруженный в воду, подводный			
rigging	1) оснастка, 2) сборка, регулировка, установка,			
	монтаж (конструкций, оборудования и т.д.) 3)			
	оборудование, оснащение, снаряжение			
fitter	сборщик, слесарь-сборщик			
alignment	выверка, выравнивание, регулировка			
beveling	разделка кромок			
stripping	сдирание, обдирание; зачистка; снятие верхнего			
	слоя			
patch	заплата			
scuba diver	лёгкий водолаз, аквалангист			
physical	врачебный/медицинский осмотр			
(examination)				
oxyfuel	горючая смесь газов			
draft	делать чертеж, проектировать			
lapse	юр. прекращение, недействительность права (на			
-	что-л.)			

While-reading activity

Think of the answers to the following questions:

- 1. How can you communicate to your company?
- 2. What can be a source of helpful information for a welder?
- 3. Who can be called *a certified welder*?
- 4. How do people *apply for employment?*
- 5. What professions are *physical demanding*?
- 6. What kind of *career goals* may a welder have?
- 7. What is *formal training*?

Give the Russian equivalents for the word combinations in italics in the text.

Reading

Text 5. Taking the Plunge: A Guide to Starting an Underwater Welding Career



Over the years, a number of people have expressed an interest in careers in underwater welding, but were unsure how to get started. Welders, students, divers, and other interested men and women have contacted the American Welding

Society (AWS) for guidance. In order to help those prospective underwater welder-divers, the D3B *Subcommittee on Underwater Welding* has provided answers for some commonly asked questions.

1. What skills are prerequisite to entering the field of underwater welding?

The skills suggested for entering the field of underwater welding can best be defined by the following typical description of a welder-diver from the AWS D3.6 Standard. "Welder-diver: A certified welder who is also a commercial diver, capable of performing tasks associated with commercial subsea work, weld setup and preparation, and who has the ability to weld in accordance with the AWS D3.6." By description, an experienced welderdiver must possess: *commercial diving skills* (i.e., be familiar with the use of specialized commercial diving equipment, have an understanding of diving physiology. diving safety. rigging, the underwater environment, communication, etc.); weld setup and preparation skills (i.e., the ability to perform tasks typically assigned to a **fitter** or rigger, such as materials alignment and materials preparation including beveling, stripping of concrete, fitting a steel **patch** or repair plate, etc.,); and the ability to certify to a required underwater weld procedure.

2. I am a certified surface welder, what other training do I need to qualify as a welder-diver?

The majority of work performed by an average welder-diver does not involve the welding operation itself, but rather executing the tasks that lead up to and follow the *actual welding activities*. Except under special circumstances, a welder-diver in most cases must posses both certified welder skills and commercial diving skills. It is suggested that if you have no prior commercial diving experience you should attend one of the recognized commercial diving schools. The candidate may be required to pass a diving physical prior to *school acceptance* and in some cases a written exam. It is suggested that a dive physical be taken regardless, to avoid going through the expense of training only to later find you have a disability that prevents your entering the profession. Once that basic commercial diver training is completed, it is common practice *to apply for employment* at one of many commercial diving companies that offer underwater welding as a service. An interview with the company of your choice is recommended to express your *career goals* in underwater welding and past welding experience. Expect to begin your career as a *diver tender (apprentice diver)* initially. As a diver tender you will gain valuable practical experience while learning the trade.

3. I am already a certified diver, what other training do I need to qualify as a welder-diver?

The welding processes, classes of weld and qualification tests associated with underwater welding are described in ANSI/AWS D3.6. We recommend the specification as a reference for weld procedure and welder qualification. It is also a good *source of other helpful information*. If you are already certified as a "commercial diver" and work for a company that offers underwater welding services, it is recommended that you *communicate to your company* your career objectives and ask what welder skills they are looking for. If you are certified as a "**scuba diver**", it is suggested that you attend a commercial diving school. Sport dive training does not include the safe use of commercial diving equipment, offshore commercial work environment/safety, and other education. Underwater welding is a skill you also have to master once you obtain the basic commercial diving skills required.

4. What are the age limitations of a welder-diver?

There is no age restriction on commercial welder-divers. There are, however, physical requirements. It is recommended and generally required that all commercial divers pass an annual dive **physical**. The commercial diving profession is *physical demanding*. It is rare to see an active commercial welder-diver over the age of 50.

5. What salary can I expect to make as a welder-diver?

We know some welder-divers earn \$15,000 per year while others earn in excess of \$100,000. Because the majority of welder-divers are paid on a *project-by-project basis*, salaries are subject to the same variables as work availability. In addition, other factors such as depth, dive method and diving environment affect pay rates. The company with whom you gain employment should be able to tell you the salary range you can expect to earn.

6. What other skills are recommended to supplement my qualifications as a welder-diver?

Ideally, a diving contractor would like its welder-divers to be "a jack of all trades and a master of them all!" Practically speaking, possessing the

skills that are common to underwater welding operations, in addition to welding and diving, are recommended. Primarily these skills are: underwater cutting (oxyfuel, abrasive water jet, mechanical cutting equipment, etc.); fitting and rigging; inspection and nondestructive testing (visual, magnetic particle, ultrasonics, radiography, eddy current, etc.); drafting; and underwater photography (still photo and video). The more skills the welderdiver maintains the more valuable he becomes in meeting project qualification requirements. The most desirable underwater welder-divers are those who are qualified to: assist the diving contractor in pre-job planning (e.g., having the ability to photograph/video, draft and report on work requirements prior to the actual underwater welding operation); cut, clean, rig, install, and fit up the sections they will weld; and work with personnel responsible for inspecting the completed welds. Formal training is recommended for whatever skills you wish to qualify for. Maintaining the qualifications you obtain is just as important as receiving them as there has been many a job lost to a welder-diver who has let his certification lapse.

7. What future career opportunities are there for an experienced welder-diver?

There are a number of career opportunities for experienced welderdivers. Many go on to become engineers, instructors, and diving operations supervisors, *fill management positions*, qualify as AWS Certified Welding Inspectors (CWI), and serve as consultants for underwater welding operations and other related fields. Ideally, a career as a welder-diver should serve as a *stepping stone* to other opportunities for those who choose the profession. Industry has and will continue to demand higher quality standards for underwater welds and more certification of underwater welding systems and personnel.

After-reading activity

Operations both surface and welder-divers do	Operations only welder-divers do
weld setup and preparation,	underwater cutting,

Continue filling in the following table:

Speaking

Correct the following statements to make them correspond to the text:

1. Welder-divers must have the skills of commercial diving but need not be certified.

2. The majority of work performed by an average welder-diver includes only welding operation itself.

3. Welder-divers apply for employment at commercial diving companies before their diver training is completed.

4. Commercial welder-diver is the same as scuba diver.

5. You cannot be a welder-diver if you are over 50 years old.

6. To possess commercial diving skills means to be able to do underwater weld procedures.

7. Welder-divers earn from \$15,000 to \$100,000 per year depending on their work experience.

8. To pass a physical examination for welder diver you need to go through formal training.

9. Past welding experience doesn't count if you choose to be a welder-diver.

Answer the following questions:

1. Who can be a welder-diver?

2. What sorts of basic and supplementary skills must a welder-diver possess?

3. How can certified surface welders become welder-divers?

4. What is more important: receiving the welder-diver qualifications or maintaining them?

5. Why do commercial divers pass an annual dive physical?

6. Do welder-divers have any future career opportunities?

7. Do you think surface welding equipment can be used underwater?

Translate the following sentences into Russian:

1. Большое количество людей проявляет интерес к профессии подводного сварщика.

2. Сварщик-подводник – это квалифицированный сварщик, обладающий всеми навыками, необходимыми для сварки на поверхности и под водой.

3. Перед зачислением в школу сварщиков-подводников кандидаты проходят обязательное медицинское освидетельствование.

4. Полезными навыками сварщиков-подводников являются: фото- и видеосъемка, создание чертежа, установка оснастки и др.

5. Для многих профессиональных сварщиков навыки подводной сварки становятся залогом дальнейшего карьерного роста.

Think and say

1. The word combination *taking the plunge* is a set phrase (связанное фразеологическое сочетание). Is it a good title for this text? Why?

2. Another set phrase in the text is *a stepping stone*. What are possible stepping stones in your welding career?

PART 2. THE HISTORY OF WELDING

Lead-in

Think of the answers for the following questions:

- 1. Why did welding become necessary?
- 2. Is welding a new profession?
- 3 Who were the first welders?
- 4. Who invented modern welding?

Vocabulary

forge	выковывать, ковать
oxyacetylene	1) автогенный 2) кислородно-ацетиленовый
welding rod	сварочный пруток
MIG	metal inert gas welding сварка металлическим
	электродом в инертном газе
TIG	tungsten inert gas welding дуговая сварка
	вольфрамовым электродом в среде инертного газа
torch	горелка
submerged arc	(дуговая) сварка под флюсом
welding	
molten pool/puddle	сварочная ванна; ванна жидкого металла

Reading

Text 1. Welding History - A Story of Harnessing Heat



Joining metal and welding history go back several millennia starting in the Bronze Age then Iron Age in Europe then the Middle East. Welding was used in the Iron pillar in Delhi, India, about 310 AD, weighing 5.4 metric tons (picture at left). The Middle Ages brought forge welding, blacksmiths pounded hot metal until it bonded. In 1540, Vannoccio Biringuccio released De la pirotechnia, which includes descriptions of the forging operation. Renaissance craftsmen gained skilled in the process, and the welding continued to grow during the following centuries.

Welding was transformed during the 19th century. In 1800, Sir Humphrey Davy invented the electric arc, and advances in welding continued with the metal electrode by a Russian, Nikolai Slavyanov, and an American, C.L. Coffin late in the 1800s.

Acetylene was discovered in 1836 by Edmund Davy, but was not practical in welding until about 1900, when a suitable blowtorch was developed. At first, oxyfuel welding was the more popular welding method due to its portability and relatively low cost. As the 20th century progressed, it fell out of favor for industrial applications. It was largely replaced with arc welding, as metal coverings (known as flux) for the electrode that stabilize the arc and shield the base material from impurities continued to be developed.

In 1881 a Russian inventor, Benardos demonstrated the carbon electrode welding process. An arc was formed between a moderately consumable carbon electrode and the work. A **rod** was added to provide needed extra metal.

Thermite welding was invented in 1893, another process, oxyfuel welding, became well established.

Around 1900, A. P. Strohmenger brought a coated metal electrode in Britain, which had a more stable arc, and



in 1919, alternating current welding was invented by C.J. Holslag, but did not become popular for another decade.

Resistance welding was developed during the end of the 19th century, with the first patents going to Elihu Thompson in 1885, and he produced advances over the next 15 years.

In 1904 Oscar Kjellberg in Sweden, who started ESAB, invented and patented the covered electrode. This electric welding process made strong welds of excellent quality.

World War I caused a major surge in the use of welding processes, with the various military powers attempting to determine which of the several new welding processes would be best. The British primarily used arc welding, even constructing a ship, the Fulagar, with an entirely welded hull. The Americans were more hesitant, but began to recognize the benefits of arc welding when the process allowed them to repair their ships quickly after a German attack in the New York Harbor at the beginning of the war. Arc welding was first applied to aircraft during the war as well, as some German airplane fuselages were constructed using the process.

During the 1920s, major advances were made in welding technology, including the introduction of automatic welding in 1920, in which electrode wire was fed continuously.

Shielding gas became a subject receiving much attention, as scientists attempted to protect welds from the effects of oxygen and nitrogen in the atmosphere. Porosity and brittleness were the primary problems, and the solutions that developed included the use of hydrogen, argon, and helium as welding atmospheres.

During the following decade, further advances allowed for the welding of reactive metals like aluminum and magnesium. This, in conjunction with developments in automatic welding, alternating current, and fluxes fed a major expansion of arc welding during the 1930s and then during World War



II.

A significant invention was defined in a patent by Alexander, filed in December 1924, and became known as the Atomic Hydrogen Welding Process. It looks like MIG welding but hydrogen is used as the shielding gas which also provides

extra heat. A major innovation was described in a patent that defines the Submerged Arc Process by Jones, Kennedy and Rothermund. This patent was filed in October 1935 and assigned to Union Carbide Corporation. The following was excepted from an article written by Bob Irving in he Welding Journal: "The importance of welding was emphasized early in the war when President Roosevelt sent a letter to Prime Minister Winston Churchill, who is said to have read it aloud to the members of Britain's House of Commons. The letter read in part, "Here there had been developed a welding technique (referring to **Submerged Arc Welding**) which enables us to construct

standard merchant ships with a speed unequalled in the history of merchant shipping."

Russell Meredith working at Northrop Aircraft Company in 1939-1941 invented the TIG process. This new process was called "Heliarc" as it used an electric arc to melt the base material and helium to shield the **molten puddle**. Mr.Jack Northrop's dream was to build a magnesium airframe for a lighter, faster warplanes and his welding group invented the process and developed the first TIG torches. The patents were sold to Linde who developed a number of torches for different applications. They also developed procedures for using Argon which was more available and less expensive than Helium.

In 1957, the flux-cored arc welding process debuted, in which the selfshielded wire electrode could be used with automatic equipment, resulting in greatly increased welding speeds, and that same year, plasma arc welding was invented. Electroslag welding was released in 1958, and it was followed by its cousin, electrogas welding, in 1961.

Other recent developments in welding include the 1958 breakthrough

of electron beam welding, making deep and narrow welding possible through the concentrated heat source. Following the invention of the laser in 1960, laser beam welding debuted several decades later, and has proved to be especially useful in high-speed, automated welding.



Both of these processes, however, continue to be quite expensive due the high cost of the necessary equipment, and this has limited their applications.

After-reading activity

Find equivalents for the following words combinations in the text:

Угольный электрод, электрод с покрытием, защитный газ, торговое судоходство, открытая печь, военный самолет, открытый горн, источник тепла, признавать преимущества электродуговой сварки, высокая стоимость.

Match the dates, names and inventions from the following table:

1540	Vannoccio Biringuccio	discovered acetylene
1800	Sir Humphrey Davy	invented the electric arc
1800s.	Nikolai Slavyanov, C.L. Coffin	developed metal

		electrode
1836	Edmund Davy	brought a coated metal
		electrode
1881	A. P. Strohmenger	invented and patented
		the covered electrode
1900	Benardos	described forging
		operation
1904	C.J. Holslag	invented alternating
		current
1919	Oscar Kjellberg	demonstrated the
		welding process with
		carbon electrode
1935	Jones, Kennedy and Rothermund	developed Submerged
		Arc Welding
1924	Alexander	patented Atomic
		Hydrogen Welding
		process

After-reading discussion

True or false?

1. Arc welding was used to build the Iron pillar in Delhi, India.

2. The discovery of acetylene made it possible to achieve higher heating temperatures.

- 3. The first electrode used in welding was a covered one.
- 4. The British Prime Minister Winston Churchill was a famous welder.
- 5. Oxygen is used as shielding gas in TIG welding.
- 6. The TIG process made it possible to construct planes faster.

Answer the following question on the text:

- 1. Which process was developed earlier, MIG or TIG?
- 2. Why is rod added in carbon electrode welding?

3. What is the difference between the Atomic Hydrogen Welding process and the MIG process?

- 4. What kind of gas was first used to shield the molten puddle?
- 5. Is tungsten electrode consumable?

Speaking

Translate the following sentences from Russian into English:

1. Ковка – первый в истории метод соединения металлов, при котором было необходимо нагреть соединяемые металлы до высокой температуры на открытом пламени.

2. Открытие ацетилена и соединение его с кислородом позволило значительно повысить температуру нагрева свариваемых металлов.

3. Российский изобретатель Бенардос впервые использовал неплавящийся угольный электрод.

4. Использование электрода с покрытием значительно повысило качество получаемых сварных соединений.

5. Изобретение дуговой сварки под флюсом позволило ускорить строительство торговых судов.

6. При дуговой сварке вольфрамовым электродом в качестве инертного газа использовался гелий, который позднее был заменен более дешевым в получении аргоном.

Vocabulary

joining, joint	соединение, связь, сращивание, шов
armour	броня
carburization	науглероживание
brittle	хрупкий, ломкий
interlayering	чередование слоев
high-carbon	высокоуглеродистый
hammer forging	свободная ковка на молоте
cast iron	чугун
blacksmith	кузнец
jeweler	ювелир
fusion	плавка; расплавление
riveting	производить клёпку — rivet, join by
	rivets
boiler	паровой котёл, бойлер
oxyacetylene	ацетилено-кислородный
consumable	расходуемый
bare	непокрытый
coating	покрытие
spot	точечная

seam	роликовая
sheet	лист
butt	стыковая
tungsten	вольфрам
beam	луч
bonding	соединение, (с)крепление,
	связывание

Skim the text to find out more facts about the history of welding. Find the English equivalents in the text for the following word combinations:

Сварочная технология, твердое железо, кухонная утварь, листовая сталь, сложное покрытие, алюминиевая проволока, сложное покрытие, острая необходимость, проволока без покрытия.

Reading

Text 2. From the History of Welding

Welding is a technique used for **joining** metallic parts usually through the application of heat. This technique was discovered during efforts to manipulate iron into useful shapes. Welded blades were developed in the first millennium AD, the most famous being those produced by Arab **armour**ers at Damascus, Syria. The process of **carburization** of iron to produce hard steel was known at this time, but the resultant steel was very **brittle**. The welding technique - which involved **interlayering** relatively soft and tough iron with **high-carbon** material, followed by **hammer forging -** produced a strong, tough blade.

In modern times the improvement in iron-making techniques, especially the introduction of **cast iron**, restricted welding to the **blacksmith** and the **jeweler**. Other joining techniques, such as fastening by bolts or rivets, were widely applied to new products, from bridges and railway engines to kitchen utensils.

Modern **fusion** welding processes are an outgrowth of the need to obtain a continuous **joint** on large steel plates. **Rivetting** had been shown to have disadvantages, especially for an enclosed container such as a **boiler**. Gas welding, arc welding, and **resistance** welding all appeared at the end of the 19th century. The first real attempt to adopt welding processes on a wide scale was made during World War I. By 1916 the **oxyacetylene** process was well developed, and the welding techniques employed then are still used. The main improvements since then have been in equipment and safety. Arc welding, using a **consumable** electrode, was also introduced in this period, but the bare wires initially used produced brittle welds. A solution was found by wrapping the **bare** wire with **asbestos** and an entwined aluminum wire. The modern electrode, introduced in 1907, consists of a bare wire with a complex **coating** of minerals and metals. Arc welding was not universally used until World War II, when the urgent need for rapid means of construction for shipping, power plants, transportation, and structures spurred the necessary development work.

Resistance welding, invented in 1877 by Elihu Thomson, was accepted long before arc welding for **spot** and **seam** joining of **sheet**. **Butt** welding for chain making and joining **bars** and **rods** was developed during the 1920s. In the 1940s the tungsten-inert gas process, using a nonconsumable **tungsten** electrode to perform fusion welds, was introduced. In 1948 a new gasshielded process utilized a wire electrode that was consumed in the weld. More recently, electron-**beam** welding, laser welding, and several solidphase processes such as diffusion **bonding**, friction welding, and ultrasonic joining have been developed.

After-reading activity

Refer the following statements to each of the passages of the text:

1. Application of welding techniques is decreasing nowadays.

2. Welding originated from the attempts to shape metal into useful forms.

3. Resistance welding is one of the earliest types of joining metals.

4. Industrial development in the 1950-s expedited (ускорять) the advance of welding technologies.

Speaking

True or false?

1. Only heat is used for joining metallic parts in welding.

2. The process of carburization of iron is rather new.

3. The blacksmith and the jeweler continue to use welding techniques in their work.

- 4. Welding is the only technique of joining metallic parts.
- 5. The modern electrode consists of a bare wire with asbestos.
- 6. Arc welding was not used after World War II.
- 7. Diffusion bonding and friction welding are solid-phase processes.

8. Rivetting is now widely used for producing an enclosed container such as a boiler.

Answer the following questions:

- 1. What is welding?
- 2. How was welding discovered?
- 3. Who were the first welders?
- 4. What did the first welding technique for making blades involve?

5. Did the improvement in iron-making techniques conduce to the development of welding?

6. Is it efficient to apply riveting for making boilers?

7. When did gas, arc and resistance welding appear?

8. What was the quality of the welds produced by the arc welding using bare wires like?

9. What does the coating of the modern electrode consist of?

10. What are the years 1877, 1916, and 1948 remarkable for in terms of welding?

Translate from Russian into English:

1. Арабских оружейников, изготавливавших кованые клинки, можно считать первыми сварщиками.

2. Появление методов сварки плавлением было обусловлено необходимостью производства изделий из крупнолистовой стали.

3. Впервые сварка стала использоваться в массовом производстве во время первой мировой войны.

4. Вторая мировая война ускорила внедрение электродуговой сварки.

5. Современный сварочный электрод имеет сложное покрытие, состоящее из композитных материалов.

6. Помимо сварки, клепка и болтовые соединения являются основными методами соединения металлов.

Writing

Write a short report on the history of welding mentioning:

Dates: first millennium AD, 1540, 1800, 1836, 1881, , 1877, 1881, 1892, 1900, 1904, 1907, 1924, 1935, 1948.

Names: Alexander, Jones, Kennedy and Rothermund, Morehead and Wilson, Oscar Kjellberg, Benardos, Russell Meredith, Edmund Davy, Nikolai Slavyanov, C.L. Coffin, Vannoccio Biringuccio, Sir Humphrey Davy. *Places:* Syria, Russia, Sweden, the US, Britain;

Inventions: modern electrode, resistance welding, oxyacetylene process, MIG, TIG, atomic hydrogen welding process, submerged arc welding, carbon electrode.

Lead-in

Think of the answers for the following questions:

1. How can welding influence the history of a country?

2. In what fields of industry, in your opinion, is welding especially important?

3. What modern machines and structures cannot be produced without welding processes?

4. What welding process, arc or gas ones, has played a more important part in developing new technologies? What particular aspect(s) of this process/processes is/are of significance for industry development?

Vocabulary

war effort	военная экономика
rivetting	клепка
brittle fracture	хрупкий излом
notch	зубец; вырез, паз, пропил, прорез
crack propagation	развитие трещин
fusion welding	сварка плавлением
field welding	сварка в полевых условиях, сварка при монтаже
toughness	твердость
planeload	полная загрузка самолета
X-ray inspection	рентгенодефектоскопия
induction heating	индукционный нагрев
structural steel	конструкционная сталь
rolled steel	стальной прокат
fillet weld	угловой сварной шов
contact face	поверхность контакта
electroslag welding	электрошлаковая сварка

Pre-reading activity

Find the following figures in the text and say what they relate to:

140, 20, 5171, **2200**, 1945, 525, 531, 2710, 250,000, 58, 117, 1915, 1931, 1977, 120, 176,000, 500,000, 586,000, 17,000, 80, 373,500, 52.

Model: 2200 - 2200 passengers were killed on the Mississippi River when the steamboat Sultana blew up.

Reading

Text 3. Welding's Vital Part in Major American Historical Events





The finest hours for U.S. shipbuilding were during World War II when 2710 Liberty ships, 531 Victory ships and 525 T-2 tankers were built for the **war effort**. Through 1945, some 5171 vessels of all types were constructed

to American Bureau of Shipping (ABS) class during the Maritime Commission wartime shipbuilding program. At this time in shipbuilding history, welding was replacing **riveting** as the main method of assembly.

The importance of welding was emphasized early in the war when President Roosevelt sent a letter to Prime Minister Winston Churchill, who is said to have read it aloud to the members of Britain's House of Commons. The letter read in part, "Here there had been developed a welding technique which enables us to construct standard merchant ships with a speed unequaled in the history of merchant shipping."

The technique the President was referring to was undoubtedly submerged arc welding, which was capable of joining steel plate as much as 20 times faster than any other welding process at that time.

During this period of assimilation, eight Liberty ships were lost due to a problem called **brittle fracture**. At first, many blamed welding, but history would soon prove that the real cause of brittle fracture was steels that were **notch sensitive** at operating temperatures. The steel was found to have high sulfur and phosphorus contents. On more than 1400 ships, crack **arrestors** were used to prevent **crack propagation**. No crack was known to grow past
an arrestor. This safeguard helped reduce casualties from 140 to 20 per month.

The ASME Code

In the late 1920s and early 1930s, the welding of pressure vessels came on the scene. Welding made possible a quantum jump in pressure attainable because the process eliminated the low structural efficiency of the riveted joint. Welding was widely utilized by industry as it strove to increase operating efficiencies by the use of higher pressures and temperatures, all of which meant thick-walled vessels. But before this occurred, a code for fabrication was born from the aftermath of catastrophe.

On April 27, 1865, the steamboat Sultana blew up while transporting 2200 passengers on the Mississippi River. The cause of the catastrophe was the sudden explosion of three of the steamboat's four boilers, and up to 1500 people were killed as a result. Most of the passengers were Union soldiers homeward bound after surviving Confederate prison camps. In another disaster on March 10, 1905, a fire tube boiler in a shoe factory in Brockton, Mass., exploded, killing 58, injuring 117 and causing damages valued at \$250,000. These two incidents, and the many others between them, proved there was a need to bring safety to boiler operation. So, a voluntary code of construction went into effect in 1915 - the ASME Boiler Code.

As welding began to be used, a need for nondestructively examining those welds emerged. In the 1920s, inspectors tested welds by tapping them with hammers, then listening to the sound through stethoscopes. A dead sound indicated a defective weld. By 1931, the revised Boiler Code accepted welded vessels judged safe by radiographic testing. By this time, magnetic particle testing was used to detect surface cracks that had been missed radiographic testing. By this time, magnetic particle testing was used to detect surface cracks that had been missed by radiographic inspection. In his history of the ASME Code, A. M. Greene, Jr., referred to the late 1920s and early 1930s as "the great years." It was during this period that **fusion welding** received widespread acceptance. Nowadays, thousands of individuals who make their living in welding live and breathe the ASME Code every minute of the working day.

In 1977, Leonard Zick, chairman of the main committee of the ASME Code, said, "It's more than a code; the related groups make up a safety system. Our main objective is to provide requirements for new construction of pressure-related items that, when followed, will provide safety to those who use them and those who might be affected by their use. "



LNG Tankers

A triumph of the code was the huge aluminum spheres built by General Dynamics in Charleston, S.C. They were built to criteria established by the U.S. Coast Guard and were based on Section VIII, Division 1, of the ASME Code.

At about 2 a.m. on October 2, 1976, the first welded aluminum sphere for a liquefied natural gas tanker was rolled out of a building in Charleston, then moved over to a special

stand for final hydropneumatic testing. It soon passed the test with flying colors. The sphere itself weighed 850 tons and measured 120 ft (36 m) in diameter. Each sphere consisted of more than 100 precisely machined plates, "orange peel" in shape. The plates were gas metal arc welded together using 7036 lb (3166 kg) of filler metal. Total length of the welds on each sphere was 48.6 miles. Completed spheres were barged along the coast and delivered onto steel tankers under construction at General Dynamics' shipyard in Quincy, Mass. This type of LNG tanker was based on the Moss-Rosenberg design from Norway.

At General Dynamics' facility in Charleston, 80% of the metalworking manhours were spent welding. Much of the filler metal deposited in Charleston was 5183 aluminum. The vertical joints were welded using special equipment from Switzerland in which the operator rode in a custom-designed chair alongside the welding arc. At this distance, he was able to monitor the weld and observe the oscillation of the 1Z.5 -mm diameter filler



metal. Actual welding was controlled remotely. About 30 weld passes were required for each joint.

The massive equatorial ring was welded outdoors. In this setup, nine heavily machined, curved aluminum extrusions had to be welded together. To do it, 88 GMA weld passes were made from the outside and 60 more from the

inside.

The Alaska Pipeline

Perhaps no single welding event in history ever received so much attention as did the Alaska Pipeline. Crews of seasoned welders braved Alaska's frigid terrain to weld this large-diameter pipeline, from start to finish. At one point, 17,000 people were working on the pipeline - 6% of the

total population of Alaska. The entire pipeline only disturbed about 12 square miles of the 586,000 square miles of the state of Alaska.

Welders were called upon to handle and weld a new steel pipe thicker and larger than most of them had ever encountered before, using electrodes also new to most. And, the requirements were the stiffest they had ever seen.

The U.S. Department of the Interior and a new pipeline coordinating group representing the state of Alaska instituted some changes. So, the original specifications for **field welding** were tossed, replaced by much stiffer requirements for **weld toughness**. Instead of the conventional pipeline welding electrode planned originally for the bulk of field welding, the new requirements required higher quality. The only electrode the engineers could find that met the new requirements was an E8010-G filler metal from Germany, so it was soon flown over by the **planeload**. Some of the Pipeline Welders Union out of Tulsa, Okla., then welding in Alaska, had used this electrode while working on lines in the North Sea, but most welders were seeing it for the first time.

One of the requirements was 100% **X-ray inspection** of all welds. The films were processed automatically in vans that traveled alongside the welding crews.

Welders worked inside protective aluminum enclosures intended to protect the weld joint from the wind. Lighting inside the enclosures enabled welders to see what they were doing during Alaska's dark winter.

On the main pipeline, preheat and the heat between weld passes was applied at first by spider-ring burners. **Induction heating** was used later during construction.

High-Rise Construction

About 30 years ago, steel construction went into orbit. The 100-story John Hancock Center in Chicago and the 110-story twin towers of New York's World Trade Center were under construction. Above ground, the World Trade Center required some 176,000 tons of fabricated **structural steel**. The Sears Tower came later. Bethlehem Steel Corp. had received orders for 200,000 tons of **rolled steel** products for the South Mall complex in Albany, N.Y. Allied Structural Steel Co. was reported to have used multiple-electrode gas metal arc welding in the fabrication of the First National Bank of Chicago Building.

In a progress report on the erection of the critical corner pieces for the first 22 floors of the 1107-ft (332-m) high John Hancock Center, an Allied Structural Steel spokesman said various welding processes were being used in that portion of the *high-rise building*. More than 12,000 tons of structural steel were used in that section. Webs and flanges for each *interior H column*

were made up of A36 steel plate with thicknesses up to 6172 in. (16.5 cm). The long **fillet welds** at the web-to-flange **contact faces** were made using the **submerged arc** process, while the box consumed in shop fabrication for this building, while 165,000 lb (74,250 kg) of weld metal was consumed during field erection. Weld *metal consumption* in shop fabrication for the U.S. Steel Building in Pittsburgh, Pa., reached 609,000 lb (274,050 kg).

During this same period, Kaiser Steel Corp. had used the consumable guide version of **electroslag welding** to deposit 24,000 welds in the Bank of America world *headquarters building* in San Francisco. At the time, this building was regarded as the tallest *earthquake-proof* structure ever erected on the West Coast. In terms of welding, one of the most intensive structures built during this period was NASA's Vertical Assembly Building on Merritt Island, Fla. Shop-welded sections for this giant structure consumed 830,000 lb (373,500 kg) of weld metal.

For the World Trade Center, Leslie E. Robertson, a partner in charge of the New York office of Skilling, Helle, Christiansen, Robertson, said a computer was used to produce the drawing lists, beam schedules, column details and all schedules for exterior wall panels. Millions of IBM cards were then sent to every fabricator. These cards gave fabricators the width, length, thickness and *grade* of steel of every plate and section in all of the columns and panels. "In addition," he said, "the fabricators are given all of the requirements of every weld needed to make up the columns and panels. Many of these cards are used as **equable** to the production of drawings. They are sent directly from the designer to the fabricators. Draftsmen never become involved."

Elsewhere in New York City, Leo Plofker, a partner in one of the city's leading design engineering firms, extensively used welding in design. Among Plofker's achievements are the Pan-Am Building and the all-welded, 52-story office building known as 140 Broadway. "Our decision to make extensive use of welding is strictly based on economics," he said. "Welded design results in savings in steel. Field welding can cause some problems, but they are not too serious as long as you maintain control over the welders and you insist that qualified personnel be employed to perform **nondestructive testing** of the welds."

After-reading activity

Find the following sentences in the text and express in your own words what they mean:

1. Nowadays, thousands of individuals who *make their living in welding* live and *breathe the ASME Code every minute of the working day*.

2. A. M. Greene, Jr. referred to the late 1920s and early 1930s as "the great years."

3. About 30 years ago, steel construction *went into orbit*.

4. Welded design results in savings in steel.

5. In the late 1920s and early 1930s, the welding of pressure vessels *came on the scene*.

6. In 1977, Leonard Zick, chairman of the main committee of the ASME Code, said, "*It's more than a code...*;"

Fill in the blanks:

1. Before welding, ... was the main assembly method in constructing standard merchant ships.

2. ... was the fastest welding process for joining steel plate in 1940s.

3. The first quality inspectors used ... to tap the metal and hear the noise.

4. The use of higher pressures and temperatures made it necessary to construct ... vessels.

5. Magnetic particle testing was more efficient than radiographic testing in detecting

6. The use of IBM cards during the construction of the World Trade Center made it possible not to involve

7. In case of X-ray inspection one has to process

Speaking

True or false?

1. In 1940s all the welding techniques known were fast enough to produce ships.

2. Americans lost a lot of ships because of problems associated with welding.

3. Introduction of welding into the high pressure and temperature structures construction made it possible to make a great advance in industry.

4. The ASME Code was introduced to ensure safety in boiler production.

5. Draftsmen played an important part in the construction of the World Trade Center.

PART 3. WELDING PROCESSES & EQUIPMENT

Lead-in

You already know what kind of training you should go through to become welder. Among other things, a welder should know about processes which are similar to welding. Look through the vocabulary and the text below and say what the main difference between welding and related metal joining processes is.

Vocabulary

soldering	пайка; пайка мягким (легкоплавким) припоем
tinning	лужение; облуживание
leading	свинцевание
brazing	1) пайка твердым припоем (из меди и цинка) 2)
	покрытие медью
sweat	паять, запаивать, припаивать (in, on)
gimmick	1) сложное приспособление Syn: gadget 2) a) прием,
	трюк, уловка, ухищрение, хитрость
filler metal	присадочный металл, присадка
filler rod	присадочный пруток; присадочная проволока
heat buildup	теплообразование, тепловведение
heat distortion	деформация (материала) из-за теплового нагрева
stitch welding	прерывистая шовная сварка; точечная сварка
	перекрывающимися точками; автоматическая
	точечная сварка

Reading

Text 1. Introduction to Welding Processes & Equipment

Among the first things a new welder needs to understand, is what the different kinds of welding processes and equipment are, and their application. A quick rundown:

Terms:

Soldering: Bonding by melting a soft metal to the surface of pieces to be joined. Low temperature. Good for joining dissimilar materials. Most common solders are lead-tin alloys.

Tinning: A soldering process, where the surface of a metal is coated with solder.

Leading: A form of soldering, solder is used to fill in the surface of metal.

Brazing: Similar to soldering, but uses a higher temperature to fuse the filler metal to the work pieces. Stronger bond. (Includes "Silver Soldering") Work heated to pre-melt temperatures.

Welding: Joining 2 similar work pieces by melting them together, usually with an additional filler rod of some sort to take up space. Materials must be similar.

Cutting: Work is heated to melting point and beyond, and "cut" by oxidizing metal. (Literally burning it away).

Shield: A barrier to keep oxygen away from heated work to prevent oxidation. Includes chemical coatings called **flux** (liquids, pastes, solids, which may be vaporized into a barrier gas when heated), and inert gasses. Oxidation of the surfaces will prevent proper bonding of the metals.

Gas Welding

Uses Flame from burning gas to create welding heat.

Propane torch: (*Soldering, heating*) Good for sweating pipes, starting fires, and spending hours trying to heat frozen bolts, while the surrounding metal gets just as hot.

Oxyacetylene torch: (*Cutting, welding, brazing, soldering, leading*) Most universal and useful welding tool. (Uses Acetylene gas and Oxygen for hot flame) With the right bits, rod, and technique, you can weld almost anything. Good for cutting anything from sheet metal to the turret off a tank, lead filling, brazing (a sort of hard soldering process) welding plate, welding sheet metal, welding aluminium, heating frozen bolts, or alternately cutting them off, drilling holes in plate, welding cast iron, shrinking and forming steel, and can double as a flame thrower in a pinch. Drawbacks are: Overheating of some types of work, harder to control quality of some processes.

Oxy-propane: (*Soldering, brazing, heating*) A cheap compromise between low cost and portable propane, and Oxy-Acetylene. Better than the former, not as good as the latter.

Arc welding

Uses an electric arc to create welding heat.

Basic AC & DC arc welders (AC is cheaper) Uses flux coated steel (or other) rods of various types for different jobs. Makes some of the best welds on heavy gauge steels and cast iron. Cutting rods can make clean holes through thick stock, and are about the only thing which can cut Kryptonite bike locks. Very difficult to weld thin metals. You can also get a **carbon arc torch** to use on an arc welder to braze. Eastwood's "**stitch**" welder is a gimmick used on an arc welder to buzz the rod in and out, which may help on thinner stock. (learning how to weld better, or going to a different process is usually a better idea.)

MIG (Metal Inert Gas): A DC arc welding process which uses filler metal fed in the form of a spool of thin wire, shielded by flow of inert gas (He, Argon) instead of flux used in Arc. Very fast, much easier than Arc Welding, with less **heat buildup**. Very good for sheet metal, due to minimal **heat distortion**. Harder to weld thick stock, as welds are weaker due to poorer penetration. The modern choice for steel body work, it can also be used for Aluminium with Argon as the shield gas.

TIG (Tungsten Inert Gas): A high frequency AC arc process which uses a tungsten electrode shielded by an inert gas to create a fine, controllable torch. Uses a separate filler rod, as in Oxy-Acetylene welding. Capable of welding very thin metals. About the best process for Aluminium, Stainless steel, and other exotic stuff.

Resistance welding: includes **spot welding:** Uses the heat generated by electricity flowing through work to melt and fuse. i.e.- put an electrode on either side of 2 overlapped sheets of steel, turn on power. Metal in between heats up, and melts together. An old favorite for assembling car bodies.

Plasma Cutters: Not a welder, but related. A high voltage arc is used to superheat and ionize a stream of air to the "plasma" state. The stream of plasma makes a rapid, clean, narrow cut with minimal heating of the work piece.

After-reading activity

Answer the following questions:

- 1. What is the main difference between soldering and brazing?
- 2. What is used by welders to prevent oxidation?
- 3. What makes soldering advantageous before welding?
- 4. What welding processes are suitable for welding thin/thick metal plates?
- 5. What makes plasma cutting better than gas cutting?

Vocabulary

coalescence filler material molten pool gas flame solid-phase ultrasonic friction	соединение, слипание; сращение присадочный материал ванна расплавленного металла, сварочная ванна газовое пламя твёрдая фаза ультразвуковой
friction	трение

furnace	печь
diffusion	1) рассеивание
	2) диффузия
high-current	сильноточный
low-voltage	низковольтный, низкого напряжения
discharge	разряд
arc column	столб дуги
direct current (dc)	постоянный ток
alternating current	переменный ток
(ac)	
layer	слой; пласт; ряд
molten-metal	капля жидкого металла
droplet	
flux	флюс
inert atmosphere	инертная среда
annulus	тех. узкое кольцо (зазор и т. п.)
torch	сварочная горелка (для автоматической сварки –
	головка)
base metal	основной металл
grain	зерно
precipitation	осаждение
residual stress	остаточное напряжение

Find the English equivalents for the following words and word combinations: источник тепла, расплавленный металл, необходимый размер, сварной шов, не нагретый металл, механические свойства, максимум быстрое температуры, защищать поверхности, охлаждение, препятствовать контроль, окислению, осуществлять вступать В химическую реакцию, термообработка, бомбардировка электронами, зона термического [теплового] воздействия, общая потребляемая энергия

Reading

Text 2. Basic Principles of Welding

A weld can be defined as a **coalescence** of metals produced by heating to a suitable temperature with or without the application of pressure, and with or without the use of a **filler material**. In fusion welding a heat source generates sufficient heat to create and maintain a **molten pool** of metal of the required size. The heat may be supplied by electricity or by a **gas flame**. Electric resistance welding can be considered fusion welding because some molten metal is formed.

Solid-phase processes produce welds without melting the base material and without the addition of a filler metal. Pressure is always employed, and generally some heat is provided. Frictional heat is developed in **ultrasonic** and **friction** joining, and **furnace** heating is usually employed in **diffusion** bonding.

The electric arc used in welding is a high-current, low-voltage discharge generally in the range 10–2,000 amperes at 10–50 volts. An arc column is complex but, broadly speaking, consists of a cathode that emits electrons, a gas plasma for current conduction, and an anode region that becomes comparatively hotter than the cathode due to electron bombardment. Therefore, the electrode, if consumable, is made positive and, if nonconsumable, is made negative. A direct current (dc) arc is usually used, but alternating current (ac) arcs can be employed.

Total energy input in all welding processes exceeds that which is required to produce a joint, because not all the heat generated can be effectively utilized. Efficiencies vary from 60 to 90 percent, depending on the process; some special processes deviate widely from this figure. Heat is lost by conduction through the base metal and by radiation to the surroundings.

Most metals, when heated, react with the atmosphere or other nearby metals. These reactions can be extremely detrimental to the properties of a welded joint. Most metals, for example, rapidly oxidize when molten. A **layer** of oxide can prevent proper bonding of the metal. **Molten-metal droplets** coated with oxide become entrapped in the weld and make the joint brittle. Some valuable materials added for specific properties react so quickly on exposure to the air that the metal deposited does not have the same composition as it had initially. These problems have led to the use of **fluxes** and **inert atmospheres**.

In fusion welding the flux has a protective role in facilitating a controlled reaction of the metal and then preventing oxidation by forming a blanket over the molten material. Fluxes can be active and help in the process or inactive and simply protect the surfaces during joining.

Inert atmospheres play a protective role similar to that of fluxes. In gas-shielded metal-arc and gas-shielded tungsten-arc welding an inert gas — usually argon—flows from an **annulus** surrounding the **torch** in a continuous stream, displacing the air from around the arc. The gas does not chemically react with the metal but simply protects it from contact with the oxygen in the air.

The metallurgy of metal joining is important to the functional capabilities of the joint. The arc weld illustrates all the basic features of a joint. Three zones result from the passage of a welding arc: (1) the weld metal, or fusion zone, (2) the heat-affected zone, and (3) the unaffected zone. The weld metal is that portion of the joint that has been melted during welding. The heat-affected zone is a region adjacent to the weld metal that has not been welded but has undergone a change in microstructure or mechanical properties due to the heat of welding. The unaffected material is that which was not heated sufficiently to alter its properties.

Weld-metal composition and the conditions under which it freezes (solidifies) significantly affect the ability of the joint to meet service requirements. In arc welding, the weld metal comprises **filler mater**ial plus the **base metal** that has melted. After the arc passes, rapid cooling of the weld metal occurs. A one-pass weld has a cast structure with **columnar grains** extending from the edge of the **molten pool** to the centre of the weld. In a multipass weld, this cast structure may be modified, depending on the particular metal that is being welded.

The base metal adjacent to the weld, or the heat-affected zone, is subjected to a range of temperature cycles, and its change in structure is directly related to the peak temperature at any given point, the time of exposure, and the cooling rates. The types of base metal are too numerous to discuss here, but they can be grouped in three classes: (1) materials unaffected by welding heat, (2) materials hardened by structural change, (3) materials hardened by **precipitation** processes.

Welding produces stresses in materials. These forces are induced by contraction of the weld metal and by expansion and then contraction of the heat-affected zone. The unheated metal imposes a restraint on the above, and as contraction predominates, the weld metal cannot contract freely, and a stress is built up in the joint. This is generally known as **residual stress**, and for some critical applications must be removed by heat treatment of the whole fabrication. Residual stress is unavoidable in all welded structures, and if it is not controlled bowing or distortion of the weldment will take place. Control is exercised by welding technique, jigs and fixtures, fabrication procedures, and final heat treatment.

After-reading activity

Complete the following sentences:

1. A characteristic fea	ture of fusion welding is:	
a) molten metal	b) low-voltage discharge	c) inert atmosphere

2. Furnace heating is usually employed in

a) friction joining b) diffusion bonding c) ultrasonic joining

3. The consumable electrode is made

a) negative b) positive c) neither

4. Total energy input in all welding processes is

a) is greater than required to produce a joint b) is smaller than required to produce a joint c) equals to required to produce a joint

5. Reactions of most metals with the atmosphere or other nearby metals can

1) improve the properties of a welded joint b) make the properties of a welded joint worse c) never influence the properties of a welded joint

6. The most common gas used in gas-shielded metal-arc and gas-shielded tungsten-arc welding is

a) argon b) oxygen c) carbon dioxide

7. If not controlled, residual stress results in

a) precipitation processes in welded structures, b) freezing of the weldmetal c) bowing or distortion of the weldment.

True or false?

1. There is always a welding pool in solid-phase welding processes.

2. Total energy input in all welding processes is greater than needed to produce a weld.

3. Reactions of metals with the atmosphere or other nearby metals are favorable to the properties of a welded joint.

4. Fluxes and inert atmospheres play a protective role and prevent oxidation.

5. The heat-affected zone is a region with unaltered properties.

6. Residual stress is present in all welded structures.

Answer the following questions:

- 1. What is a weld?
- 2. How can the heat be supplied for welding?
- 3. Is pressure employed in solid-phase processes?
- 4. What does an arc column consist of?
- 5. How is heat applied during welding?
- 6. What is the role of inert atmospheres?
- 7. What can make a joint brittle while welding?
- 8. What does the weld metal comprise in arc welding?
- 9. What is the base metal influenced by?

10. How can residual stress in welded structures be controlled?

Reading

Text 3. Characteristics of the Principal Welding Processes

Welding is the process of joining together pieces of metal or metallic parts by bringing them into intimate proximity and heating the places of contact to a state of fusion or plasticity. This leads to interpenetration of the atoms of the metals in the weld zone, and a strong inseparable joint is formed after the metals have cooled.

Welding finds widespread application in almost all branches of industry and construction. Welding is extensively employed in the fabrication and erection of steel structures in industrial construction and civil engineering (frames of industrial buildings, bridges, etc.), vessels of weldedplate construction (steel reservoirs, pipelines, etc.) and concrete reinforcement.

Welding processes may be classified according to the source of energy employed for heating the metals and the state of the metal at the place being welded. A master chart of the principal welding processes is shown on the next page.

In fusion welding the welding area is heated by a concentrated source of heat to a molten state and filler metal must be added to the weld. In accordance with the method applied for feeding the filler metal to the weld, welding procedures are classified as manual, semi-automatic or automatic welding.

Pressure welding processes involve the heating of the metallic parts only to a plastic or lightly fused state and forcing them together with external pressure. Pressure welding processes are applied to metals which are capable of being brought to a plastic state by heating or due to the action of external forces. It has been established that in this process the most weldable metals prove to be those metals which have higher thermal conductivity. Such metals more rapidly dissipate heat from the weld zone and do not allow an excessively high temperature to be concentrated in a small area (the latter may lead to considerable internal stress).

The quality of the joint obtained in pressure welding depends to a great extent upon the magnitude of the applied pressure and the temperature to which the metal is heated at the moment of welding. The higher this temperature, the less unit pressure will be required to produce the weld. Proper cleaning of the surface to be joined is one of the main conditions for obtaining high-quality welds in pressure-welding procedures.

Master Chart of the Principal Welding Processes



After-reading activity

Find equivalents in the text for the following word combinations:

Welding is widely used, welded area, disperse heat, parts made of steel, designing and producing metal structures, pressing together.

Translate the following sentences from Russian into English using the information from the text:

1. Взаимопроникновение атомов металлических изделий под действием высокой температуры и давления приводит к образованию сварного соединения.

2. Сварка находит широкое применение во всех отраслях промышленности и в строительстве.

3. При сварке давлением лучше свариваются металлы с большей теплопроводностью, а необходимым условием получения высококачественного соединения является предварительная очистка свариваемых поверхностей.

4. При сварке плавлением используется присадочный металл, подача которого может осуществляться автоматически.

5. Чем ниже температура нагрева металла, тем выше необходимое для получения соединения давление.

6. Изготовление и монтаж стальных конструкций невозможны без применения сварки.

7. Сварка широко применяется в строительстве для создания каркаса зданий.

8. По типу подачи присадочного материала сварочные процессы делятся на ручные и механизированные.

9. Концентрация высоких температур на малых участках (неравномерность нагрева) приводит к появлению внутреннего напряжения в металлах.

10. Свариваемые детали должны находиться в непосредственной близости друг от друга.

Use the information of the Master Chart of welding processes above to complete the following sentences:

1. The two basic welding processes are

2. The fusion processes consist of

3. Among these, arc welding can be accomplished ...

4. Arc welding with consumable electrodes includes the following types....

5. Carbon arc welding, atomic hydrogen welding, inert gas tungsten arc welding refer to

6. The pressure processes include

7. Resistance welding is divided into three types

Translate the following text from Russian into English:

Сварка – это процесс получения неразъёмного соединения деталей машин, конструкций и сооружений посредством местного разогрева (вплоть до плавления), пластической деформации или при совместном действии того и другого; суть сварки заключается в таком взаимном проникновении или сближении поверхностей свариваемых тел, при котором в месте соединения начинают действовать силы (межмолекулярного) сцепления. межатомного Различают сварку (дуговая, газовая, плазменная, электроннолучевая, плавлением лазерная) и сварку давлением (контактная, конденсаторная, холодная, ультразвуковая, термокомпрессионная, диффузионная). Выбор того или иного способа сварки зависит от физико-химических свойств свариваемых материалов, условий проведения сварки, от толщины соединяемых деталей и конструкции соединений.

Lead-in.

Remember all the welding types which you have read about before and make a complete list of these types.

Think and say: What can be the difference between the principle ("traditional") and alternative types of welding? Why are traditional welding processes not sufficient?

Vocabulary

холодная сварка (в вакууме) сварка трением
лазерная сварка
диффузное соединение
ультразвуковая сварка
сварка взрывом
стык наковальня пористый ребро, пластина

finished integrated circuitry fuse pneumatic tooling punch presses готовый; обработанный интегральная схемотехника плавить, расплавлять пневматический инструмент пресс-штамп

Reading

Text 4. Alternative Types of Welding

Cold welding

Cold welding, the joining of materials without the use of heat, can be accomplished simply by pressing them together. Surfaces have to be well prepared, and pressure sufficient to produce 35 to 90 percent deformation at the joint is necessary, depending on the material. Lapped joints in sheets and cold-**butt** welding of wires constitute the major applications of this technique. Pressure can be applied by **punch presses**, rolling stands, or **pneumatic tooling**. Pressures of 1,400,000 to 2,800,000 kilopascals (200,000 to 400,000 pounds per square inch) are needed to produce a joint in aluminum; almost all other metals need higher pressures.

Friction welding

In friction welding two work pieces are brought together under load with one part rapidly revolving. Frictional heat is developed at the interface until the material becomes plastic, at which time the rotation is stopped and the load is increased to consolidate the joint. A strong joint results with the plastic deformation, and in this sense the process may be considered a variation of pressure welding. The process is self-regulating, for, as the temperature at the joint rises, the friction coefficient is reduced and overheating cannot occur. The machines are almost like lathes in appearance. Speed, force, and time are the main variables. The process has been automated for the production of axle casings in the automotive industry.

Laser welding

Laser welding is accomplished when the light energy emitted from a laser source focused upon a workpiece to **fuse** materials together. The limited availability of lasers of sufficient power for most welding purposes has so far restricted its use in this area. Another difficulty is that the speed and the thickness that can be welded are controlled not so much by power but by the thermal conductivity of the metals and by the avoidance of metal vaporization at the surface. Particular applications of the process with very thin materials up to 0.5 mm (0.02 inch) have, however, been very successful. The process is useful in the joining of miniaturized electrical **circuitry**.

Diffusion bonding

This type of bonding relies on the effect of applied pressure at an elevated temperature for an appreciable period of time. Generally, the pressure applied must be less than that necessary to cause 5 percent deformation so that the process can be applied to **finished** machine parts. The process has been used most extensively in the aerospace industries for joining materials and shapes that otherwise could not be made—for example, multiple-**fin**ned channels and **honeycomb** construction. Steel can be diffusion bonded at above 1,000° C (1,800° F) in a few minutes.

Ultrasonic welding

Ultrasonic joining is achieved by clamping the two pieces to be welded between an **anvil** and a vibrating probe or sonotrode. The vibration raises the temperature at the interface and produces the weld. The main variables are the clamping force, power input, and welding time. A weld can be made in 0.005 second on thin wires and up to 1 second with material 1.3 mm (0.05 inch) thick. Spot welds and continuous seam welds are made with good reliability. Applications include extensive use on lead bonding to integrated circuitry, transistor canning, and aluminum can bodies.

Explosive welding

Explosive welding takes place when two plates are impacted together under an explosive force at high velocity. The lower plate is laid on a firm surface, such as a heavier steel plate. The upper plate is placed carefully at an angle of approximately 5° to the lower plate with a sheet of explosive material on top. The charge is detonated from the hinge of the two plates, and a weld takes place in microseconds by very rapid plastic deformation of the material at the interface. A completed weld has the appearance of waves at the joint caused by a jetting action of metal between the plates.

After-reading activity

1. Cold welding	A. Light energy is used to weld parts together.
2. Friction welding	B. The weld is formed at the expense of the applied pressure at a high temperature for a long period of time.

Match a welding type with its description

3. Laser welding	C. Vibration is used to generate heat necessary to
	produce a weld. e
4. Diffusion bonding	D. The heat to accomplish the joint is generated by
	rotation.
5. Ultrasonic welding	E. The most important factor to accomplish the weld
	is pressure. No heat is applied.
6. Explosive welding	F. Rapid plastic deformation of the welded materials
	is caused by detonation.

Fill in the blanks with the right words (namely, types of welding) from the list below:

1. ...welding is successfully used in manufacture of small elements of electric circuits.

- 2. Heat is not used in ... welding.
- 3. ... is widely used in aerospace industries.
- 4. Vibration is used in ...welding.
- 5. Plastic deformation is the basic principle in ... welding.
- 6. ... welding is impossible without pressure and high temperature.
- 7. In ... welding one of the parts being welded revolves.

Translate the following sentences into Russian:

1.При холодной сварке поверхности должны быть тщательно подготовлены.

2. Скорость и толщина свариваемых деталей зависит не столько от мощности лазера, сколько от теплопроводности металла.

3. Этот вид сварки наиболее широко используется в авиакосмической промышленности.

4. Холодная сварка – это сварка без использования тепловой энергии, когда две свариваемые поверхности, обладающие высокой пластичностью, с силой прижимают друг к другу.

5. Использование точечной и шовной сварки позволяет получать сварные соединения высокой прочности.

6. Основными переменными величинами при этом виде сварки являются подводимое тепло, время сварки и сила сжатия.

7. Фрикционным разогревом добиваются пластичности материала, затем вращение цапфы останавливают и увеличивают давление для обеспечения сваривания поверхностей.

8. Сварной шов имеет чешуйчатый вид, что является результатом обдува струей сжатого воздуха.

Writing

Make a summary of alternative welding processes indicating their application capabilities. Start like this:

1. Cold welding that is welding without heat makes it possible to join thin sheets of aluminum.

2. Friction welding...

PART 4. ARC AND GAS WELDING IN DETAIL

Lead-in

Remember the definition and description of arc welding from the previous chapters. What, in your opinion, makes arc welding one of the two main welding processes so widely applied in modern industry?

Find the English equivalents for the following Russian phrases in the text:

Постоянный/переменный ток, электрическая дуга, присадочный материал, источник питания, положительно заряженный анод, остатки флюса, волна типа "синусоида", гармоническая волна/ прямоугольная волна, плавящийся электрод, свариваемые металлы, пересечение нулевого уровня, пленка ПВХ, светофильтры, наплавка, горючие материалы

Reading

Text 1. Arc Welding

Arc welding refers to a group of welding processes that use a welding power supply to create an electric arc between an electrode and the base material to melt metals at the welding point. They can use either direct (DC) or alternating (AC) current, and consumable or non-consumable electrodes. The welding region is sometimes protected by some type of inert or semiinert gas, known as a shielding gas, and filler material is sometimes used as well.

Power supplies



A constant current welding power supply capable of AC and DC

To supply the electrical energy necessary for arc welding processes, a number of different power supplies can be used. The most common classification is constant current power supplies and constant voltage power supplies. In arc welding, the voltage is directly related to the length of the arc, and the current is related to the amount of heat input. Constant current power supplies are most often used for manual welding processes such as gas tungsten arc welding and

shielded metal arc welding, because they maintain a relatively constant current even as the voltage varies. This is important because in manual welding, it can be difficult to hold the electrode perfectly steady, and as a result, the arc length and thus voltage tend to fluctuate. Constant voltage power supplies hold the voltage constant and vary the current, and as a result, are most often used for automated welding processes such as gas metal arc welding, flux cored arc welding, and submerged arc welding. In these processes, arc length is kept constant, since any fluctuation in the distance between the wire and the base material is quickly rectified by a large change in current. For example, if the wire and the base material get too close, the current will rapidly increase, which in turn causes the heat to increase and the tip of the wire to melt, returning it to its original separation distance.

The type of current used in arc welding also plays an important role in welding. Consumable electrode processes such as shielded metal arc welding and gas metal arc welding generally use direct current, but the electrode can be charged either positively or negatively. In welding, the positively charged anode will have a greater heat concentration, and as a result, changing the polarity of the electrode has an impact on weld properties. If the electrode is positively charged, it will melt more quickly, increasing weld penetration and welding speed. Alternatively, a negatively charged electrode results in more shallow welds. Non-consumable electrode processes, such as gas tungsten arc welding, can use either type of direct current, as well as alternating current. However, with direct current, because the electrode only creates the arc and does not provide filler material, a positively charged electrode causes shallow welds, while a negatively charged electrode makes deeper welds. Alternating current rapidly moves between these two, resulting in medium-penetration welds. One disadvantage of AC, the fact that the arc must be re-ignited after

every zero crossing, has been addressed with the invention of special power units that produce a square wave pattern instead of the normal sine wave, making rapid zero crossings possible and minimizing the effects of the problem.

Consumable electrode methods



Shielded metal arc welding a pipe

One of the most common types of arc welding is shielded metal arc welding (SMAW), which is also known as manual metal arc welding (MMA) or stick welding. Electric current is used to strike an arc between the base material and consumable electrode rod, which is made of steel and is covered with a flux that protects the weld area from oxidation and contamination bv

producing CO₂ gas during the welding process. The electrode core itself acts as filler material, making a separate filler unnecessary. The process is very versatile, requiring little operator training and inexpensive equipment. However, weld times are rather slow, since the consumable electrodes must be frequently replaced and because slag, the residue from the flux, must be chipped away after welding. Furthermore, the process is generally limited to welding ferrous materials, though special electrodes have made possible the welding of cast iron, nickel, aluminum, copper, and other metals. The versatility of the method makes it popular in a number of applications, including repair work and construction.

Gas metal arc welding (GMAW), also known as metal inert gas (MIG) welding, is a semi-automatic or automatic welding process that uses a continuous wire feed as an electrode and an inert or semi-inert gas mixture to protect the weld from contamination. Since the electrode is continuous, welding speeds are greater for GMAW than for SMAW. However, because of the additional equipment, the process is less portable and versatile, but still useful for industrial applications. The process can be applied to a wide variety of metals, both ferrous and non-ferrous. A related process, flux-cored arc welding (FCAW), uses similar equipment but uses wire consisting of a steel electrode surrounding a powder fill material. This cored wire is more expensive than the standard solid wire and can generate fumes and/or slag, but it permits higher welding speed and greater metal penetration.

Submerged arc welding (SAW) is a high-productivity welding method in which the arc is struck beneath a covering layer of flux. This increases arc quality, since contaminants in the atmosphere are blocked by the flux. The slag that forms on the weld generally comes off by itself, and combined with the use of a continuous wire feed, the weld deposition rate is high. Working conditions are much improved over other arc welding processes, since the flux hides the arc and no smoke is produced. The process is commonly used in industry, especially for large products.

Non-consumable electrode methods



Gas tungsten arc welding

Gas tungsten arc welding (GTAW), or tungsten inert gas (TIG) welding, is a manual welding process that uses a nonconsumable electrode made of tungsten, an inert or semi-inert gas mixture, and a separate filler material. Especially useful for welding thin materials, this method is characterized by a stable arc and high quality welds, but it requires significant operator skill and can only be

accomplished at relatively low speeds. It can be used on nearly all weldable metals, though it is most often applied to stainless steel and light metals. It is often used when quality welds are extremely important, such as in bicycle, aircraft and naval applications. A related process, plasma arc welding, also uses a tungsten electrode but uses plasma gas to make the arc. The arc is more concentrated than the GTAW arc, making transverse control more critical and thus generally restricting the technique to a mechanized process. Because of its stable current, the method can be used on a wider range of material thicknesses than can the GTAW process, and furthermore, it is much faster. It can be applied to all of the same materials as GTAW except magnesium, and automated welding of stainless steel is one important application of the process. Other arc welding processes include atomic hydrogen welding, carbon arc welding, electroslag welding, electrogas welding, and stud arc welding.

Safety issues

Welding, without the proper precautions, can be a dangerous and unhealthy practice. However, with the use of new technology and proper protection, the risks of injury and death associated with welding can be greatly reduced. Because many common welding procedures involve an open electric arc or flame, the risk of burns is significant. To prevent them, welders wear protective clothing in the form of heavy leather gloves and protective long sleeve jackets to avoid exposure to extreme heat and flames. Additionally, the brightness of the weld area leads to a condition called arc eve in which ultraviolet light causes the inflammation of the cornea and can burn the retinas of the eyes. Goggles and helmets with dark face plates are worn to prevent this exposure, and in recent years, new helmet models have been produced that feature a face plate that self-darkens upon exposure to high amounts of UV light. To protect bystanders, transparent welding curtains often surround the welding area. These curtains, made of a polyvinyl chloride plastic film, shield nearby workers from exposure to the UV light from the electric arc, but should not be used to replace the filter glass used in helmets.

Welders are also often exposed to dangerous gases and particulate matter. Processes like flux-cored arc welding and shielded metal arc welding produce smoke containing particles of various types of oxides. The size of the particles in question tends to influence the toxicity of the fumes, with smaller particles presenting a greater danger. Additionally, many processes produce various gases, most commonly carbon dioxide and ozone, and fumes that can prove dangerous if ventilation is inadequate. Furthermore, because the use of compressed gases and flames in many welding processes pose an explosion and fire risk, some common precautions include limiting the amount of oxygen in the air and keeping combustible materials away from the workplace.

After reading activity

1. Anode	A Fabrication process that joins materials, usually metals or thermoplastics, by causing coalescence
2. Ultraviolet	B Difference of electrical potential between two points of
(UV) light	an electrical network, expressed in volts [1]. It is a measure
	of the capacity of an electric field to cause an electric

Match the terms and their meaning

	current in an electrical conductor.
3. Flux	C Electrical current whose magnitude and direction vary
	cyclically, as opposed to direct current, whose direction
	remains constant.
4. Welding	D (from the Greek $\alpha vo\delta o \varsigma = 'going up')$ is the electrode in a
	device that electrons flow out of to return to the circuit.
	Literally, the path through which the electrons ascend out
	of an electrolyte solution. The other charged electrode in
	the same cell or device is the cathode.
5. Alternating	E In metallurgy, a substance which facilitates soldering,
current (AC)	brazing, and welding by chemically cleaning the metals to
	be joined. Commons are: ammonium chloride or rosin
	for soldering tin; hydrochloric acid and zinc chloride for
	soldering galvanized iron (and other zinc surfaces); and
	borax for brazing, and welding ferrous metals.
6. Carbon	F Atmospheric gas comprised of one carbon and two
dioxide	oxygen atoms. A very widely known chemical compound,
	it is often referred to by its formula CO2. It is present in the
	Earth's atmosphere at a low concentration and acts as a
	greenhouse gas. In its solid state, it is called dry ice. It is a
	major component of the carbon cycle.
7. Oxidation	G Loss of an electron by a molecule, atom or ion
8. Goggles and	H (Formerly wolfram) is a chemical element that has the
safety glasses	symbol W (L. wolframium) and atomic number 74. A very
	hard, heavy, steel-gray to white transition metal, it is found
	in several ores including wolframite and scheelite and is
	remarkable for its robust physical properties, especially the
	fact that it has a higher melting point than any other non-
	alloy in existence. The pure form is used mainly in
	electrical applications but its many compounds and alloys
	are widely used in many applications (most notably in light
	bulb filaments, and as both the filament and target in most
	X-ray tubes and in space-age superalloys).
9. Ozone	I In metallurgy a ferrous alloy with a minimum of 10%
	chromium content. The name originates from the fact that it
	does not stain, corrode or rust as easily as ordinary steel.
	This material is also called corrosion resistant steel when it
	is not detailed exactly to its alloy type and grade,
	particularly in the aviation industry.
10. Toxicity	J also known as arc flash, welder's flash, corneal flash

	burns, or flash burns, is a painful ocular condition
	sometimes experienced by welders who have failed to use
	adequate eye protection. It can also occur due to light from
	sunbeds, light reflected from snow (known as snow
	blindness), water or sand. The intense ultraviolet light
	emitted by the arc causes a superficial and painful keratitis.
11. Stainless	K Triatomic molecule, consisting of three oxygen atoms. It
steel	is an allotrope of oxygen that is much less stable than the
	diatomic species O2. It is a pale blue gas at standard
	temperature and pressure. It forms a dark blue liquid below
	-112 °C and a dark blue solid below -193 °C. A powerful
	oxidizing agent. It is also unstable, decaying to ordinary
	diatomic oxygen: $2 \text{ O3} \rightarrow 3 \text{ O2}$.
12. Arc eye	L From Greek τοξικότητα – poisonousness). It can refer to
	the effect on a whole organism, such as a human or a
	bacterium or a plant, or to a substructure, such as the liver.
	By extension, the word may be metaphorically used to
	describe toxic effects on larger and more complex groups,
	such as the family unit or "society at large". The skull and
	crossbones is a common symbol for it.
13. Tungsten	M Forms of protective eyewear that usually enclose or
	protect the eye area in order to prevent particulates or
	chemicals from striking the eyes. They are used in
	chemistry laboratories and in woodworking. They are often
	used in snow sports as well, and in swimming. Goggles are
	often worn when using power tools such as drills or
	chainsaws to prevent flying particles from damaging the
	eyes.
14. Voltage	N Electromagnetic radiation with a wavelength shorter than
	that of visible light, but longer than soft X-rays.

Speaking

True or false?

- 1. Filler material is always necessary for arc welding.
- 2. The amount of heat input at the welding point depends on the voltage.
- 3. Shielded metal arc welding is a consumable electrode process.
- 4. Consumable welding processes use any type of current.
- 5. Consumable electrode methods are faster than none-consumable ones.
- 6. TIG welding requires little operator training.

7. Submerged arc welding is used to weld large work pieces.

Answer the following questions and summarize the text:

1. What is arc welding?

2. What kind of current and electrodes are used in arc welding?

3. What is the welded region protected by?

4. Why is constant current power supply most often used for manual welding processes?

5. How does the type of the electrode charge (positive/negative) influence the speed of welding and weld penetration?

6. What problem is related to the use of alternating current in gas tungsten welding?

7. What is the function of flux in shielded metal arc welding?

8. What are the main advantages and disadvantages of manual metal arc welding?

9. Which type of metal arc welding uses a separate filler material?

10. What do the welding protection clothes include?

Translate the following sentences from Russian into English:

1. Зона сварки при электродуговых процессах защищается защитным газом.

2. При сварке с использованием плавящихся электродов используется как постоянный, так и переменный ток.

3. При РДС электрод является присадочным материалом.

4. Благодаря разнообразию способов электродуговой сварки она находит широкое применение в различных отраслях производства.

5. Для защиты сварщиков от ультрафиолетового излучения электрической дуги используются светофильтры.

6. При недостаточной вентиляции газы могут представлять опасность для здоровья.

7. Благодаря отсутствию дыма при дуговой сварке под флюсом условия труда гораздо лучше, чем при других способах электродуговой сварки.

8. В целях предосторожности не следует держать воспламеняющиеся предметы вблизи проведения сварочных работ.

Reading

Below find information about some less frequently used arc welding processes. After reading the text, think and say why these processes are less common in industry. Consider their advantages and disadvantages.

Atomic Hydrogen Welding (AHW) is an arc welding process that uses an arc between two metal tungsten electrodes in a shielding atmosphere of hydrogen and without the application of pressure. Shielding is obtained from the hydrogen. Filler metal may or may not be used. In this process, the arc is maintained entirely independent of the work or parts being welded. The work is a part of the electrical circuit only to the extent that a portion of the arc comes in contact with the work, at which time a voltage exists between the work and each electrode.

Carbon Arc Welding (CAW) is a process which produces coalescence of metals by heating them with an arc between a nonconsumable carbon (graphite) electrode and the work-piece. It was the first arc-welding process ever developed but is not used for many applications today, having been replaced by twin carbon arc welding and other variations.

Twin carbon arc welding (TCAW) in which the arc is established between two carbon electrodes

Gas carbon arc welding (CAW-G) no longer has commercial significance **Electroslag welding** is a highly productive welding process developed in the United States during the 1930s. It involves the melting of the surfaces of the metal workpieces and the filler metal with a molten slag to cause coalescence. An electric arc is passed through the slag to heat it, but the arc itself is extinguished by the slag. Electroslag welding is commonly used to weld in a vertical orientation, and is particularly popular with steels. In the 1970s, it was used extensively in bridges, ships, and other large metal structures. However, in 1977 the Federal Highway Administration banned its use in welds for some structural members of bridges, due to concerns of weld imperfections and poor properties. Benefits of the process include its high metal deposition rates. Many welding processes require more than one pass for welding thick workpieces, but often a single pass is sufficient for electroslag welding. The process is also very efficient, since joint preparation and materials handling are minimized while filler metal utilization is high. The process is also safe and clean, with no arc flash and low weld splatter or distortion.

Electrogas welding (EGW) is a continuous vertical position arc welding process developed in 1961, in which an arc is struck between a consumable electrode and the workpiece. A shielding gas is sometimes used, but pressure

is not applied. A major difference between EGW and its cousin electroslag welding is that the arc in EGW is not extinguished, instead remaining struck throughout the welding process. It is used to make square-groove welds for butt and welding, especially in the shipbuilding industry and in the construction of storage tanks. In EGW, the heat of the welding arc causes the electrode and workpieces to melt and flow into the cavity between the parts being welded. This molten metal solidifies from the bottom up, joining the parts being welded together. The weld area is protected from atmospheric contamination by a separate shielding gas, or by the gas produced by the disintegration of a flux-cored electrode wire. The electrode is guided into the weld area by either a consumable electrode guide tube, like the one used in electroslag welding, or a moving head. When the consumable guide tube is used, the weld pool is composed of molten metal coming from the parts being welded, the electrode, and the guide tube. The moving head variation uses an assembly of an electrode guide tube which travels upwards as the weld is laid, keeping it from melting. Electrogas welding can be applied to most steels, including low and medium carbon steels, low alloy high strength steels, and some stainless steels. Quenched and tempered steels may also be welded by the process, provided that the proper amount of heat is applied. Welds must be vertical, varying to either side by a maximum of 15 degrees.

Like other arc welding processes, EGW requires that the operator wear a welding helmet and proper attire to prevent exposure to molten metal and the bright welding arc. Compared to other processes, a large amount of molten metal is present during welding, and this poses an additional safety and fire hazard. Since the process is often performed at great heights, the work and equipment must be properly secured, and the operator should wear a safety harness to prevent injury in the event of a fall. EGW uses a constant voltage, direct current welding power supply, and the electrode has positive polarity. A wire feeder is used to supply the electrode, which is selected based on the material being welded. The electrode can be flux-cored to provide the weld with protection from atmospheric contamination, or a shielding gas can be used with a solid wire electrode. The welding head is attached to an apparatus that elevates during the welding process. Also attached to the apparatus are backing shoes which restrain the weld to the width of the workpieces. To prevent them from melting, they are made of copper and are water-cooled. They must be fit tightly against the joint to prevent leaks.

Stud welding is a form of spot welding where a bolt or specially formed nut is welded on to another metal part. The bolts may be automatically fed into the spot welder. Weld nuts generally have a flange with small nubs that melt to form the weld. Studs have a necked down, unthreaded area for the same purpose.

Speaking

True or false

1. Electrogas welding is less hazardous than electroslag welding.

2. Electroslag welding is more frequently used to weld in a horizontal orientation.

- 3. Carbon Arc Welding is broadly used in industry in the present time.
- 4. Filler metal is always necessary in Atomic Hydrogen Welding.
- 5. Quenched and tempered steels are not welded using Electrogas welding.
- 6. Carbon Arc Welding is the newest arc welding process.

Answer the following questions:

1. What kind of electrodes are used in Electrogas and Atomic Hydrogen Welding processes?

- 2. What structures can be welded by Electrogas welding?
- 3. Can thick workpieces be easily welded by Electroslag welding?
- 4. Why is Electrogas welding relatively unsafe and hazardous?
- 5. What is the difference between Electrogas and Electroslag welding?
- 6. Why does the operator have to wear protective clothes?

Complete the following sentences:

1. To ensure safety while using arc welding processed operators have to wear....

2. Electroslag welding is no more used to weld....

3. In Electrogas welding the weld area is protected from atmospheric contamination

4. In Atomic Hydrogen Welding the work itself becomes....

5. Since Electrogas welding is performed at great heigh....

Writing

Write a short report arc welding mentioning:

Types (SMAW, MMA, GMAW, MIG, FCAW, SAW, GTAW, TIG, electroslag welding, stud arc welding, EGW, TCAW);

Types of filler material used (consumable/none-consumable, covered/bare electrode/wire);

Type of current used (direct/alternating);

Type of shielding gas used (helium, argon, CO2);

Major application areas.

Lead-in

Try to answer the following questions:

What is the difference in methods of gas gutting and gas welding?
Is there any difference in equipment used for gas welding and gas cutting?
What might be the advantages and disadvantages of gas cutting compared to other methods of cutting metals?
Do you remember what appeared before: arc or gas welding?
What type of cutting (arc or gas) is :
a) more expensive
b) more operator skills demanding
c) safer
e) faster
f) more precise?

Present your arguments.

Do you know what metals (steels) are better cut using gas welding?

Vocabulary

rig	какое-л. приспособление, устройство, механизм
	Syn: apparatus, device
hose	шланг
spark	искра
igniter	воспламенитель
wrench	гаечный ключ
outfit	агрегат; оборудование, принадлежности, набор
	(приборов, инструментов)
pressure gauge	манометр
leak	течь, протечка; утечка
orifice	отверстие
single-stage	однокамерный
(regulator)	
flashback	обратный удар пламени (проникающий в шланг сварочной горелки)

Reading

Text 2. Oxygas Cutting Equipment



An oxygas cutting outfit usually consists of a cylinder of acetylene or MAPP gas, a cylinder of oxygen, two regulators, two lengths of hose with

In addition to the basic equipment mentioned above, numerous types of auxiliary equipment are used in oxygas cutting. An important item is the

spark igniter that is used to light the torch (figure at right, view A). Another item you use is an apparatus wrench. It is similar in design to the one shown in figure at right, view B.



also

а

A Spark igniter and B Apparatus wrench



A portable oxygas cutting and welding outfit

The apparatus **wrench** is sometimes called a gang wrench because it fits all the connections on the cutting rig. Note that the wrench shown has a raised opening in the handle that serves as an acetylene tank key.

Other common accessories include tip cleaners, cylinder trucks, clamps, and holding jigs. Personal safety apparel, such as goggles, hand shields, gloves, leather aprons, sleeves, and leggings, are essential and should be worn as required for the job at hand.

Oxygas cutting equipment can be stationary or portable. A portable oxygas outfit, such as the one shown in figure above, is an advantage when it is necessary to move the equipment from one job to another.

To conduct your cutting requirements, you must be able to set up the cutting equipment and make the required adjustments needed to perform the cutting operation. For this reason it is important you understand the purpose and function of the basic pieces of equipment that make up the cutting outfit. But, before discussing the equipment, let's look at the gases most often used in cutting: acetylene, MAPP gas, and oxygen.

Acetylene

Acetylene is a flammable fuel gas composed of carbon and hydrogen having the chemical formula C2H2.When burned with oxygen, acetylene produces a hot flame, having a temperature between 5700°F and 6300°F. Acetylene is a colorless gas, having a disagreeable odor that is readily detected even when the gas is highly diluted with air. When a portable

welding outfit, similar to the one shown in figure above is used, acetylene is obtained directly from the cylinder. In the case of stationary equipment, similar to the acetylene cylinder bank shown in figure at right, the acetylene can be piped to a number of individual cutting stations.

Hazards: Pure acetylene is self-explosive if stored in the free state under a pressure of 29.4 pounds per square inch (psi). A slight shock is likely to cause it to explode.

WARNING: Acetylene becomes extremely dangerous if used above 15 pounds pressure.



- A. Line valve E. Regulator
- B. Release valve F. Flash arrestor C. Filler plug chamber

C. Filler plug

- D. Header pipe
- G. Escape pipe H. Check valve and drain plug I. Acetylene cyllinders

Cylinder Design

Acetylene can be safely compressed up to 275 psi when dissolved in acetone and stored in specially designed cylinders filled with porous material, such as balsa wood, charcoal, finely shredded asbestos, corn pith, portland cement, or infusorial earth. These porous filler materials aid in the prevention of high-pressure gas pockets forming in the cylinder.

Acetone is a liquid chemical that dissolves large portions of acetylene under pressure without changing the nature of the gas. Being a liquid, acetone can be drawn from an acetylene cylinder when it is not upright. You should not store acetylene cylinders on their side, but if they are, you must let the cylinder stand upright for a minimum of 2 hours before using. This allows the acetone to settle to the bottom of the cylinder.



NOTE: Acetone contaminates the hoses, regulators, torch, and disrupts the flame.

Acetylene is measured in cubic feet. The most cylinder common sizes are 130-, 290-, 330-cubic-foot and capacity. A common standard size cylinder holds 225 cubic feet acetylene. Just of because a cylinder has 225-cubic-foot а

capacity does not necessarily mean it has 225 cubic feet of acetylene in it. Because it is dissolved in acetone, you cannot judge how much acetylene is left in a cylinder by **gauge pressure**. The pressure of the acetylene cylinder will remain fairly constant until most of the gas is consumed.

An example of an acetylene cylinder is shown in figure above. These cylinders are equipped with fusible plugs that relieve excess pressure if the cylinder is exposed to undo heat. A common standard acetylene cylinder contains 225 cubic feet of acetylene and weighs about 250 pounds. The acetylene cylinder is yellow, and all compressed-gas cylinders are color-coded for identification. More on the color coding of cylinders is covered later in this lesson.

Mapp Gas

MAPP (methylacetylene-propadiene) is an all-purpose industrial fuel having the high-flame temperature of acetylene but has the handling characteristics of propane. Being a liquid, MAPP is sold by the pound, rather than by the cubic foot, as with acetylene. One cylinder containing 70 pounds of MAPP gas can accomplish the work of more than six and one-half 225cubic-foot acetylene cylinders; therefore, 70 pounds of MAPP gas is equal to 1,500 cubic feet of acetylene.

Cylinder Design

Total weight for a MAPP cylinder, which has the same physical size as a 225-cubic-foot acetylene cylinder, is 120 pounds (70 pounds which is MAPP gas). MAPP cylinders contain only liquid fuel. There is no cylinder packing or acetone to impair fuel withdrawal; therefore, the entire contents of a MAPP cylinder can be used. For heavy-use situations, a MAPP cylinder delivers more than twice as much gas as an acetylene cylinder for the same time period.

MAPP Characteristics

Because of its superior heat transfer characteristics, MAPP produces a flame temperature of 5300°F when burned with oxygen. MAPP equals, or exceeds, the performance of acetylene for cutting, heating, and brazing. MAPP is not sensitive to shock and is nonflammable in the absence of oxygen. There is no chance of an explosion if a cylinder is bumped, jarred, or dropped. You can store or transport the cylinders in any position with no danger of forming an explosive gas pocket. The characteristic odor, while harmless, gives warnings of fuel **leaks** in the equipment long before a dangerous condition can occur. MAPP gas is not restricted to a maximum working pressure of 15 psig, as is acetylene. In jobs requiring higher pressures and gas flows, MAPP can be used safely at the full-cylinder pressure of 95 psig at 70°F. Because of this, MAPP is an excellent gas for underwater work.

Bulk MAPP Gas

Bulk MAPP gas facilities, similar to liquid oxygen stations, are installed at some activities where large supplies of the gas are used. In bulk installations, MAPP gas is delivered through a piping system directly to the user points. Maximum pressure is controlled centrally for efficiency and economy. Cylinder-filling facilities are also available from bulk installations that allow users to fill their cylinders on site. Filling a 70-pound MAPP cylinder takes one man about 1 minute and is essentially like pumping water from a large tank to a smaller one.

MAPP Gas Safety

MAPP gas vapor is stable up to 600°F and 1,100 psig when exposed to an 825°F probe. The explosive limits of MAPP gas are 3.4 percent to 10.8 percent in air or 2.5 percent to 80 percent in oxygen. As shown in figure 4-6, you can see these limits are narrow in comparison with that of acetylene. MAPP gas has a highly detectable odor. The smell is detectable at 100 ppm, or at a concentration of 1/340th of its lower explosive limit. Small fuel-gas systems may leak 1 or 1 1/2 pounds of fuel or more in an 8-hour shift; bulk systems will leak even more. Fuel-gas leaks are often difficult to find and often go unnoticed; however, a MAPP gas leak is easy to detect and can be repaired before it becomes dangerous. MAPP toxicity is rated "very slight," but high concentrations (5,000 ppm) may have an anesthetic effect. Local eye or skin contact with MAPP gas vapor causes no adverse effect; however, the liquid fuel can cause dangerous frostlike burns due to the cooling caused by the rapid evaporation of the liquid. The identification markings on a MAPP cylinder are a yellow body with band "B" colored orange and the top yellow.

Oxygen

Oxygen is a colorless, tasteless, and odorless gas and is slightly heavier than air. It is nonflammable but supports combustion with other elements. In its free state, oxygen is one of the more common elements. The atmosphere is made up of about 21 parts of oxygen and 78 parts of nitrogen, the remainder being rare gases. Rusting of ferrous metals, discoloration of copper, and corrosion of aluminum are all due to the action of atmospheric oxygen. This action is known as oxidation. Oxygen is obtained commercially either by the liquid-air process or by the electrolytic process. In the liquid-air process, the air is compressed and then cooled to a point where the gases become liquid (approximately -375° F). The temperature is then raised to above -321° F, at which point the nitrogen in the air becomes gas again and is removed. When the temperature of the remaining liquid is raised to -297° F, the oxygen forms gas and is drawn off. The oxygen is further purified and compressed into cylinders for use. The other process by which oxygen is produced— the electrolytic process-consists of running an electrical current through water to which an acid or an alkali has been added. The oxygen collects at the positive terminal and is drawn off through pipes to a container.

Oxygen is supplied for oxyacetylene welding in seamless steel cylinders. The color of a standard oxygen cylinder used for industrial purposes is solid green. Oxygen cylinders are made in several sizes. The size most often used in welding and cutting is the 244-cubic-foot capacity cylinder. This cylinder is 9 inches in diameter, 51 inches high, and weighs about 145 pounds and is charged to a pressure of 2,200 psi at 70°F. You can
determine the amount of oxygen in a compressed gas cylinder by reading the volume scale on the high-pressure gauge attached to the regulator.

Regulators

You must be able to reduce the high-pressure gas in a cylinder to a working pressure before you can use it. This pressure reduction is done by a regulator or reducing valve. The one basic job of all regulators is to take the high-pressure gas from the cylinder and reduce it to a level that can be safely used. Not only do they control the pressure but they also control the flow (volume of gas per hour).

Regulators come in all sizes and types. Some are designed for highpressure oxygen cylinders (2,200 psig), while others are designed for lowpressure gases, such as natural gas (5 psig). Some gases like nitrous oxide or carbon dioxide freeze when their pressure is reduced so they require electrically heated regulators.

Most regulators have two gauges: one indicates the cylinder pressure when the valve is opened and the other indicates the pressure of the gas coming out of the regulator. You must open the regulator before you get a reading on the second gauge. This is the delivery pressure of the gas, and you must set the pressure that you need for your particular job.

The pressures that you read on regulator gauges is called gauge pressure. If you are using pounds per square inch, it should be written as psig (this acronym means pounds per square inch gauge). When the gauge on a cylinder reads zero, this does not mean that the cylinder is empty. In actuality, the cylinder is still full of gas, but the pressure is equal to the surrounding atmospheric pressure. Remember: no gas cylinder is empty unless it has been pumped out by a vacuum pump.

There are two types of regulators that control the flow of gas from a cylinder. These are either single-stage or double-stage regulators.



Single-Stage Regulators

Regulators are used on both high- and low-pressure systems. Figure at left shows two SINGLE-STAGE regulators: one for acetylene and one for oxygen. The regulator mechanism consists of a nozzle through which the gases pass, a valve seat to close off the nozzle, a diaphragm, and balancing springs. These mechanisms are all enclosed in a suitable housing. Fuel-gas regulators and oxygen regulators are basically the same design. The difference being those designed for fuel gases are not made to withstand the high pressures that oxygen regulators are subjected to.

In the oxygen regulator, the oxygen enters through the high-pressure inlet connection and passes through a glass wool falter that removes dust and dirt. Turning the adjusting screw IN (clockwise) allows the oxygen to pass from the high-pressure chamber to the low-pressure chamber of the regulator, through the regulator outlet, and through the hose to the torch. Turning the adjusting screw further clockwise increases the working pressure; turning it counterclockwise decreases the working pressure.

The high-pressure gauge on an oxygen regulator is graduated from 0 to 3,000 psig and from 0 to 220 in cubic feet. This allows readings of the gauge to determine cylinder pressure and cubic content. Gauges are calibrated to read correctly at 70°F. The working pressure gauge may be graduated in "psig" from 0 to 150, 0 to 200, or from 0 to 400, depending upon the type of regulator used. For example, on regulators designed for heavy cutting, the working pressure gauge is graduated from 0 to 400.

The major disadvantage of single-stage regulators is that the working gas pressure you set will decrease as the cylinder pressure decreases; therefore, you must constantly monitor and reset the regulator if you require a fixed pressure and flow rate. Keeping the gas pressure and flow rate constant is too much to expect from a regulator that has to reduce the pressure of a full cylinder from 2,200 psig to 5 psig. This is where double-stage regulators solve the problem.



Double-Stage

Regulators The double-stage regulator is similar in principle to the onestage regulator.

The main difference being that the total pressure drop takes place in two stages instead of one. In the high-pressure stage, the cylinder pressure is reduced to

Double stage regulators

an intermediate pressure that was predetermined by the manufacturer. In the low-pressure stage, the pressure is again reduced from the intermediate pressure to the working pressure you have chosen. A typical double-stage regulator is shown in figure above.

Problems And Safety

Regulators are precise and complicated pieces of equipment. Carelessness can do more to ruin a regulator than any other gas-using equipment. One can easily damage a regulator by simply forgetting to wipe clean the cylinder, regulator, or hose connections. When you open a highpressure cylinder, the gas can rush into the regulator at the speed of sound. If there is any dirt present in the connections, it will be blasted into the precision-fitted valve seats, causing them to leak. This results in a condition that is known as creep. Creep occurs when you shut of the regulator but not the cylinder and gas pressure is still being delivered to the low-pressure side.

Regulators are built with a minimum of two relief devices that protect you and the equipment in the case of regulator creep or high-pressure gas being released into the regulator all at once. All regulator gauges have blowout backs that release the pressure from the back of the gauge before the gauge glass explodes. Nowadays, most manufacturers use shatterproof plastic instead of glass. The regulator body is also protected by safety devices. Blowout disks or spring-loaded relief valves are the two most common types of devices used. When a blowout disk ruptures, it sounds like a cannon. Spring-loaded relief valves usually make howling or shrieking like noises. In either case, your first action, after you recover from your initial fright, should be to turn off the cylinder valve. Remove the regulator and tag it for repair or disposal. When opening a gas cylinder, you should just "crack" the valve a little. This should be done before attaching the regulator and every time thereafter. By opening the cylinder before connecting the regulator, you blow out any dirt or other foreign material that might be in the cylinder nozzle. Also, there is the possibility of a regulator exploding if the cylinder valve is opened rapidly.

WARNING: Oil or other petroleum products must never be used around oxygen regulators because these products will either cause a regulator explosion or fire

Hoses

The hoses used to make the connections between the torch and the regulators must be strong, nonporous, light, and flexible enough to make torch movements easy. They must be made to withstand internal pressures that can reach as high as 100 psig. The rubber used in hose manufacture is specially treated to remove the sulfur that could cause spontaneous combustion.

Welding hose is available in single- and double-hose lengths. Size is determined by the inside diameter, and the proper size to use depends on the type of work for which it is intended. Hose used for light work has a 3/16 or 1/4 inch inside diameter and one or two plies of fabric. For heavy-duty welding and cutting operations, use a hose with an inside diameter of 5/16 inch and three to five plies of fabric. Single hose is available in the standard sizes as well as 1/2-, 3/4-, and 1-inch sizes. These larger sizes are for heavy-



duty heating and for use on large cutting machines.

The most common type of cutting and welding hose is the twin or double hose that consists of the fuel hose and the oxygen hose joined together side by side. They are joined together by either a special rib or by clamps. Because they are joined together, the hoses are less likely to become tangled and are easier to move from place to place.

The length of hose you use is important. The delivery pressure at the torch varies with the length of the hose. A 20-foot, 3/16-inch hose maybe adequate for a job, but if the same hose was 50 feet long, the pressure drop would result in insufficient gas flow to the torch. Longer hoses require larger inside diameters to ensure the correct flow of gas to the torch. When you are having problems welding or cutting, this is one area to check. The hoses used for fuel gas and oxygen are identical in construction, but they differ in color. The oxygen hose cover is GREEN, and the fuel-gas hose cover is RED. This color coding aids in the prevention of mishaps that could lead to dangerous accidents.

All connections for welding and cutting hoses have been standardized by the Compressed Gas Association. Letter grades A, B, C, D, and E plus the type of gas used correspond directly with the connections on the regulators. A, B, and C are the most common size connections. A-size is for low-flow rates; B-size for medium-flow rates; and C-size is for heavy-flow rates. D and E sizes are for large cutting and heating torches.

When ordering connections, you must specify the type of gas the hose will be carrying. This is because the connections will be threaded differently for different types of gas. Fuel gases use left-hand threads, while oxygen uses right-hand threads. The reason for this is to prevent the accidental hookup of a fuel gas to a life-support oxygen system or vice versa. The basic hose connection consists of a nut and gland. The nut has threads on the inside that match up with the male inlet and outlet on the torch and regulator. The gland slides inside the hose and is held in place by a ferrule that has been crimped. The nut is loose and can be turned by hand or a wrench to tighten the threaded nut onto the equipment.

Another important item that is often overlooked is check valves. These inexpensive valves prevent personal injuries and save valuable equipment from **flashbacks**. When ordering, make sure you specify the type of gas, connection size, and thread design. The check valves should be installed between the torch connection and the hose.

Cutting Torches

The equipment and accessories for oxygas cutting are the same as for oxygas welding except that you use a cutting torch or a cutting attachment instead of a welding torch. The main difference between the cutting torch and the welding torch is that the cutting torch has an additional tube for highpressure cutting oxygen. The flow of high-pressure oxygen is controlled from a valve on the handle of the cutting torch. In the standard cutting torch, the valve may be in the form of a trigger assembly like the one in figure below. On most torches, the cutting oxygen mechanism is designed so the cutting oxygen can be turned on gradually. The gradual opening of the cutting oxygen valve is particularly helpful in operations, such as hole piercing and rivet cutting.



Torch Body Most welding torches are designed so the body of the torch can accept either welding tips or a cutting attachment.

One piece oxygas cutting torch

This type of torch is called a combination torch. The advantage of this type of torch is the ease in changing from the welding mode to the cutting mode. There is no need to disconnect the hoses; you just unscrew the welding tip and then screw on the cutting attachment. The high-pressure cutting oxygen is controlled by a lever on the torch handle, as shown in figure below. Cutting Torch Tips

As in welding, you must use the proper size cutting tip if quality work is to be done. The preheat flames must furnish just the right amount of heat, and the oxygen jet orifice must deliver the correct amount of oxygen at just the right pressure and velocity to produce a clean cut. All of this must be done with a minimum consumption of oxygen and fuel gases. Careless workers and workers not acquainted with the correct procedures waste both oxygen and fuel gas.



Combination torch

Each manufacturer makes many different types of cutting tips. Although the orifice arrangements and the tips are much the same among the manufacturers, the part of the tip that fits into the torch head often differs in design.

Because of these differences, there is the possibility of having two or three different types of cutting torches in your kits. Make sure that the cutting tips match the cutting attachment and ensure that the cutting attachment matches the torch body. Figure above shows the different styles of tips, their orifice arrangements and their uses. The tips and sears are designed to produce an even flow of gas and to keep themselves as cool as possible. The seats must produce leakproof joints. If the joints leak, the preheat gases could mix with the cutting oxygen or escape to the atmosphere, resulting in poor cuts or the possibility of flashbacks.

To make clean and economical cuts, you must keep the tip orifices and passages clean and free of burrs and slag. If the tips become dirty or misshapened, they should be put aside for restoration.

Tip Maintenance

In cutting operations, the stream of cutting oxygen sometimes blows slag and molten metal into the tip orifices which partially clogs them. When this happens, you should clean the orifices thoroughly before you use the tip again. A small amount of slag or metal in an orifice will seriously interfere with the cutting operation. You should follow the recommendations of the torch manufacturer as to the size of drill or tip cleaner to use for cleaning the orifices. If you do not have a tip cleaner or drill, you may use a piece of soft copper wire. Do not use twist drills, nails, or welding rods for cleaning tips because these items are likely to enlarge and distort the **orifices**. Clean the orifices of the cutting torch tip in the same manner as the single orifice of the welding torch tip. Remember: the proper technique for cleaning the tips is to push the cleaner straight in and out of the orifice. Be careful not to turn or twist the cleaning wire. Figure above shows a typical set of tip cleaners.

Occasionally the cleaning of the tips causes enlargement and distortion of the orifices, even when using the proper tip cleaners. If the orifices become enlarged, you will get shorter and thicker preheating flames; in addition, the jet of cutting oxygen will spread, rather than leave the torch, in the form of a long, thin stream. If the orifices become belled for a short distance at the end, you can sometimes correct this by rubbing the tip back and forth against emery cloth placed on a flat surface. This action wears down the end of the tip where the orifices have been belled, thus bringing the orifices back to their original size.

Obviously, this procedure will not work if the damage is great or if the belling extends more than a slight distance into the orifice. After reconditioning a tip, you may test it by lighting the torch and observing the preheating flames. If the flames are too short, the orifices are still partially blocked. If the flames snap out when you close the valves, the orifices are still distorted.

If the tip seat is dirty or scaled and does not properly fit into the torch head, heat the tip to a dull red and quench it in water. This will loosen the scale and dirt enough so you can rub it off with a soft cloth.

Speaking

True or false?

1. Oxygas cutting outfit and cutting rig are different things.

2. A gang wrench is used to light the torch.

3. Acetone has a favourable effect on the cutting equipment.

4. The acetylene cylinder is painted blue.

5. MAPP is a very toxic gas.

6. Acetone is a solid body that dissolves large portions of acetylene under pressure.

7. Cylinder valve should be opened slowly to prevent explosion.

8. Local eye or skin contact with MAPP liquid fuel gas can cause dangerous frostlike burns.

9. Twist drills, nails, or welding rods must not be used for cleaning tips.

Continue the following sentences:

- 1. An oxygas cutting outfit usually includes....
- 2. The auxiliary cutting equipment may consist of
- 3. Acetylene is a flammable fuel gas that has the following characteristics: ...
- 4. Acetone is a liquid chemical that ...
- 5. MAPP is characterized by ...
- 6. The action of atmospheric oxygen, oxidation, manifests itself in ...
- 7. Personal safety clothes for welders involved in cutting operation include
- ... 8. The hoses that connect the torch and the regulators must be

Translate the following sentences into English:

1. Для правильного использования сварочной аппаратуры сварщик должен знать назначение и функции ее основных узлов.

2. Для обеспечения безопасности перед началом работы необходимо довести давление газа до рабочего и отрегулировать пламя.

3. Перед присоединением регулятора к цилиндру необходимо удалить с сопла цилиндра пыль и другие инородные материалы.

4. Редукторы давления выпускаются различных типов и размеров, как для цилиндров высокого, так и низкого давления.

5. Для предотвращения случайной подачи топливного газа к кислородной системе и наоборот используются соединения с разным направлением резьбы.

6. При засорении сопла резака пламя предварительного нагрева расширяется.

7. Соприкосновение редуктора давления с нефтепродуктами может вызвать взрыв или возгорание последнего.

8. По своим рабочим характеристикам метилацетилен-аллен превосходит ацетилен при резке, подогреве либо пайке.

9. Редукторы давления требуют тщательного ухода.

10. Шланги для подачи горючего газа и кислорода маркируются разными цветами и чаще всего скрепляются вместе для предотвращения спутывания.

11. Баллон с газом не может считаться пустым, пока газ не будет откачан насосом.

Compare operating characteristics of acetylene and MAPP gas according to some of the parameters and fill in the table below:

					Acetylene	MAPP
The	gas	is	sold	by		
(pounds or cubic meters)						

Cylinder packing (level	
of maximum	
compression)	
Stability (temperature)	
Cylinders contain (pure	
fuel or not)	
Dangerous effects on	
health	

Reading

Skim the text and do the tasks:

Text 3. Oxy-Fuel Welding and Cutting

Oxy-fuel welding is a welding process commonly called oxyacetylene welding since acetylene is the predominant choice for a fuel, or often simply gas welding. A virtually identical procedure, with a different type of gas torch, is used for cutting metal and called oxy-fuel cutting. In gas welding and cutting, the heat energy and high temperature needed to melt the metal is obtained by the combustion of a fuel gas with oxygen in a torch. This sort of torch is often called a blowtorch.



Compressed gas cylinders containing oxygen oxygen and MAPP gas

Fuels

The most commonly used fuel gas is acetylene. Other gases used are liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), natural gas, hydrogen, and MAPP gas.

Acetylene can be made near where the welding is being done in an acetylene generator. More often it is made elsewhere and shipped to the welding site in special containers. These containers are packed with various porous materials (e.g. kapok fibre), then filled about half way with acetone. The acetylene dissolves into the acetone. This method is necessary because above 207 kPa (30 lbf/in²) acetylene is unstable and may explode. There is about 1700

kPa (250 lbf/in²) of pressure in the tank when full. Acetylene when burned with oxygen gives a temperature of 3200°C to 3500°C (5800°F to 6300°F), which is the highest temperature of any of the commonly used gaseous fuels.

Hydrogen has a clean flame and is good for use on aluminum. It can be used at a higher pressure than acetylene and is therefore useful for underwater welding. For small torches, hydrogen is often produced, along with oxygen, by electrolysis of water in an apparatus which is connected directly to the torch.

MAPP gas is a registered product of the Dow Chemical Company. It is liquefied petroleum gas mixed with methylacelylene–propadiene. It has the storage and shipping characteristics of LPG and has a heat value a little less than acetylene.

Oxygen is not the fuel: It is what chemically combines with the fuel to produce the heat for welding. This is called 'oxidation', but the more general and more commonly used term is 'combustion'. In the case of hydrogen, the product of combustion is simply water. For the other hydrocarbon fuels, water and carbon dioxide are produced. The heat is released because the molecules of the products of combustion have a lower energy state than the molecules of the fuel and oxygen.

Oxygen is usually shorted to 'oxy' for use in the term 'oxy-acetylene torch'. Oxygen is usually produced elsewhere by distillation of liquefied air and shipped to the welding site in high pressure vessels (commonly called 'tanks' or 'cylinders') at a pressure of about 21000 kPa (3000 lbf/in² = 200 atmospheres). It is also shipped as a liquid in Dewar type vessels (like a large Thermos jar) to places that use large amounts of oxygen.

It is also possible to separate oxygen from air by passing the air, while under pressure, through a zeolite sieve which selectively absorbs the nitrogen and lets the oxygen (and argon) pass. This gives a purity of oxygen of about 93%. This works well for brazing.



Apparatus

The apparatus used in gas welding consists basically of a torch, two pressure regulators and twin flexible hoses. The torch is the part that the welder holds and manipulates to make the weld. It has two valves and two connections, one each for the fuel gas and the oxygen, a handle for the welder to grasp, a mixing chamber where the fuel gas and oxygen mix, and a tip where the flame issues from.

The regulators are attached to the fuel and to the oxygen sources. The oxygen regulator is attached to the oxygen tank and drops the pressure from about 21000 kPa (3000 lbf/in² = 200 atmospheres) to a lower pressure for the torch. This pressure can be adjusted to suit the job at hand by turning a knob on the regulator, and can be set from 0 to about 700–1400 kPa (100–200 lbf/in²). Likewise the fuel regulator is attached to the fuel source and drops the pressure to a level for the torch to use. For acetylene this is 0 to 100 kPa (15 lbf/in²).

The flexible hoses connect from the regulators to the torch and carry the fuel gas and the oxygen. The fuel gas connections have left hand threads and the oxygen connectors have right hand threads so that the two cannot be interchanged, so as to help prevent accidents.

The welder wears goggles or a shield with a shaded lens to protect his eyes from glare and flying sparks and splatter, and wears leather gloves to help protect his hands from burns. He should also wear clothes and shoes appropriate for welding. Sunglasses are <u>not</u> adequate.

Note that the procedures and equipment used for gas welding are essentially the same as for gas brazing.

]



Oxygen Rich Butane Blow Torch Flame

Setting up the equipment

When using fuel and oxygen tanks they should be fastened securely to a wall, a post or a portable cart in an upright position. An oxygen tank is especially dangerous for the reason that the oxygen is

at a pressure of 21 MPa (3000 lbf/in² = 200 atmospheres) when full and if the tank falls over and the valve strikes something and is knocked off, the tank will become an unguided and unpredictable missile powered by the compressed oxygen. It is for this reason that an oxygen tank should never be



Fuel Rich Butane Blow Torch Flame

moved around without the valve cap screwed in place.

Never lay the acetylene tank down while being used, as the acetone would start to come out through the valve. If it was laid

down while being transported, it must be set upright, valve on top.

After the oxygen tank is securely fastened, remove the valve cap. With the valve opening pointed away from the welder, open the valve slightly for just a moment and then close it. This serves two purposes. For one, it blows out any dirt or dust that may have settled in the valve. This dirt would otherwise end up in the regulator and shorten its life and accuracy. For another, when a tank is filled, the worker has a tendency to tighten the valve securely to make certain it is closed completely. It is better to break it loose now than when the regulator is in place. Attach the oxygen regulator and tighten the nut. Never use pliers, as the pliers will soon damage the brass nut; always use a wrench. Also, there is a tendency of welders to over tighten the nut. If it is not leaking, then it is tight enough. If a great amount of torque is needed to stop it leaking, or if it will not stop leaking in spite of any amount of tightening, then there is something wrong with the nut, the gasket or the valve.

Attach the fuel regulator to the fuel tank in the same manner. The nut on the fuel regulator usually has left hand threads.

Attach the flexible hoses from the regulators to the torch. The oxygen hose is usually colored green and the fuel hose red. The fuel hose has left hand threaded connectors at both ends and the oxygen has right hand threaded connectors.

With the valves on the torch closed, and the knobs on the regulators screwed out until loose (0 setting), open the valves on the fuel and oxygen tanks. Open the oxygen valve slightly and then wait while the high pressure gauge on the regulator stops rising. Then open the valve fully, until it stops turning. This is a back stop valve. Turning the valve all of the way out prevents leakage through the packing of the valve.

Open the fuel valve also. Only open an acetylene valve one quarter turn. This helps prevent the acetylene from being drawn off too quickly. If acetylene 'bubbles' too rapidly from the acetone, it might become unstable. Open the valve on a LPG tank out completely as on an oxygen tank and for the same reasons.

If there are any leaks in the connections, regulators or torch, or any other faults with the equipment, a safety hazard exists. The equipment should not be used.

Never oil an oxygen regulator. It will cause a fire or explosion — solid brass regulators can be blown apart from the force. Keep oxygen away from all combustibles.

The flame

After this preparation, set the regulators at the desired pressure. For acetylene, this should never be more than 103 kPa (15 lbf/in²). To prevent a large yellow, sooty flame when first lighting the torch, open both the fuel and the oxygen valves (more fuel than oxygen), and light a flame with a 'striker'

or by some other means. After the flame is adjusted to the proper size, open the oxygen valve and adjust it to give the desired balance of fuel and oxygen. Usually a neutral flame is used: this is a flame where the fuel and oxygen supplied to the torch tip are both completely combined with each other. An oxidizing flame has an excess of oxygen and a reducing flame has an excess of fuel (carbon). An oxidising flame is used for cutting and a reducing flame is used for annealing e.g. to soften steel sheet metal.

An acetylene flame (as is characteristic of most fuel/oxygen flames) has two parts; the light blue to white colored inner cone and the blue colored outer cone. The inner cone is where the acetylene and the oxygen combine. The tip of this inner cone is the hottest part of the flame. The outer cone is where hydrogen and carbon monoxide from the breakdown of the acetylene and partial combustion of the inner cone combine with the oxygen in the surrounding air and burns.

A neutral flame has a well defined inner cone. A reducing flame has a feathery inner cone. An oxidizing flame has a smaller inner cone that is sharply defined and is pale blue. The welder observes this while adjusting the fuel and oxygen valves on the torch to get the correct balance for the job at hand. There is also a difference in the noise the flame makes. Adjusting the flame is not a hard thing to do after a little experience and practice.

The size of the flame can be adjusted to a limited extent by the valves on the torch and by the regulator settings, but in the main it depends on the size of the orifice in the tip. In fact, the tip should be chosen first according to the job at hand, and then the regulators set accordingly.

The flame is applied to the base metal and held until a small puddle of molten metal is formed. The puddle is moved along the path where the weld bead is desired. Usually, more metal is added to the puddle as it is moved along by means of dripping metal from a wire ("welding rod" or "filler rod") into the molten metal puddle. The force of the jet of flame issuing from the torch tip helps to manipulate the puddle. The amount of heat can be controlled by the distance of the flame from the metal. There should be a bright, incandescent spot on the molten puddle. When the puddle is correctly maintained, a sound weld will result. The blowtorch



An old-fashioned kerosene blowtorch

A blowtorch is a special type of gas welder. It has an additional lever on the handle that, when squeezed, supplies an extra flow of oxygen out of a center hole in the mouthpiece. When the steel is heated to its melting point, the extra flow of oxygen will burn (oxidise) the molten iron and blow it away, effectively cutting the steel. The word "blowtorch" is often used loosely to mean any sort of oxy-gas torch.

After reading activity

Match each term with its meaning

1. acetylene	A. A flammable fuel gas composed of carbon and hydrogen having the chemical formula C2H2.When burned with oxygen, it produces a hot flame, having a temperature between 5700°F and 6300°F. It is a colorless gas, having a disagree-able odor that is readily detected even when the gas is highly diluted with air. When a portable welding outfit, it is obtained directly from the cylinder. In the case of stationary equipment, it can be piped to a number of individual cutting stations.
2. oxygen	B. A chemical element with the chemical symbol O and atomic number 8. It is the second most common element on Earth, composing around 49% of the mass of Earth's crust and 28% of the mass of Earth as a whole, and is the third most common element in the universe. On Earth, it is usually covalently or ionically bonded to other elements.
3. hydrogen	C. A chemical element in the periodic table that has the symbol H and atomic number 1. At standard temperature and pressure it is a colorless, odorless, nonmetallic, univalent, tasteless, highly flammable diatomic gas (H2). With an atomic mass of 1.00794 g/mol, it is the lightest element. It is also the most abundant, constituting roughly 75% of the universe's elemental matter

4. acetone	D. In chemistry, (also known as propanone, dimethyl ketone,
	2-propanone propan-2-one and B-ketopropane) it is the
	simplest representative of the ketones. It is a colorless mobile
	flammable liquid with molting point at -05.4 °C and boiling
	naminable inquid with meeting point at -95.4 °C and boining
	point at 56.53 °C. It has a relative density of 0.819 (at 0 °C). It
	is readily soluble in water, ethanol, ether, etc., and itself
	serves as an important solvent. The most familiar household
	use of it is as the active ingredient in nail polish remover. It is
	also used to make plastic, fibers, drugs, and other chemicals.
5. aluminum	E. A silvery and ductile member of the poor metal group of
	chemical elements. In the periodic table it has the symbol Al
	and atomic number 13. It is found primarily in the bauxite ore
	and is remarkable for its resistance to corrosion (due to the
	phenomenon of passivation) and its light weight. It is used in
	mony industries to monufacture a large veriety of products
	and is years important to the world soon any. Structurel
	and is very important to the world economy. Structural
	components made from this metal and its alloys are vital to
	the aerospace industry and very important in other areas of
	transportation and building.
6. carbon	F. A chemical element in the periodic table that has the
	symbol C and atomic number 6. An abundant nonmetallic,
	tetravalent element, it has several allotropic forms. It occurs in
	all organic life and is the basis of organic chemistry. This
	nonmetal also has the interesting chemical property of being
	able to bond with itself and a wide variety of other elements
	forming nearly ten million known compounds When united
	with average it forms as then dioxide which is with to plant
	with oxygen it forms carbon dioxide, which is vital to plant
	growth. when united with hydrogen, it forms various
	compounds called hydrocarbons which are essential to
	industry in the form of fossil fuels.
7. oxy-gas	G. A blowtorch has several meanings, which deal with tools
torch	that consume fuel. It may mean a cutting torch, a handheld
	torch used for cutting metal.
8. natural gas	H. Commonly referred to as gas, is a gaseous fossil fuel
	consisting primarily of methane. It is found in oil fields and
	natural gas fields, and in coal beds. When methane-rich gases
	are produced by the anaerobic decay of non-fossil organic
	material these are referred to as biogas. Sources of biogas
	include swamps marshes and landfills (see landfill gas) as
	well as sewage sludge and manure by way of anarchic
	digasters in addition to enteria formantation particularly in
	algesters, in addition to enteric refinentation particularly in

Speaking

True or false?

1. The only used fuel gas in oxy-fuel welding is acetylene.

2. 'Oxidation' and 'combustion' are two terms which mean one and the same process.

3. Oxygen is the best fuel in oxy-fuel welding.

4. The blowtorch has two valves and one connection.

5. The welder wears goggles to protect his hands from burns.

6. The procedures and equipment used for gas welding and gas brazing are different.

7. When setting up the equipment, the valve cap is removed before the oxygen tank is fastened.

8. Both pliers and a wrench are used to tighten the nut of the regulator.

9. Sunglasses can be used instead of goggles to protect eyes from sparks and splatter.

10. The size of the flame depends on the size of the orifice in the tip and can be adjusted by the valves on the torch and by the regulator settings.

Answer the following questions:

- 1. What are the other two names of the oxy-fuel welding process?
- 2. What does the high temperature needed to melt the metal obtained by?
- 3. Is acetylene always shipped to the welding site in containers?
- 4. Why is hydrogen useful for underwater welding?
- 5. How can hydrogen be produced for small torches?
- 6. How is oxygen delivered to the welding site?
- 7. What does the apparatus used in gas welding consist of?
- 8. What colour are the oxygen and fuel hoses?
- 9. What is a neutral flame?
- 10. How many parts does an acetylene flame have?

Use the plan to make a report about gas welding:

- 1. Difference between Oxy-fuel welding and oxy-fuel cutting.
- 2. Fuel gases used for gas welding.
- 3. Parts of the apparatus used in gas welding.
- 4. Rules of setting up the equipment

5. Regulating the flame.

Writing

Translate the following sentences from Russian into English:

1. Контактная сварка осуществляется нагревом или расплавлением металлов при прохождении электрического тока в месте контакта сдавливаемых изделий. Выполняется сжатием листовых заготовок между стержневыми электродами (точечная контактная сварка) или вращающимися роликами (шовная контактная сварка) либо прижатием торцов изделий (стыковая контактная сварка).

2. Дуговая сварка (электродуговая сварка) - вид сварки, при которой кромки свариваемых металлических частей расплавляют дуговым разрядом между электродом и металлом в месте соединения.

3. Электронно-лучевая сварка - сварка расплавлением материалов в месте их соединения пучком электронов с энергией до 100 кэВ. Выполняется в вакууме. Применяется для прецизионной сварки, сварки изделий из особо чистых, разнородных или тугоплавких металлов (например, в микроэлектронике).

4. Газовая сварка - способ сварки металлических изделий с помощью газового пламени, образованного при сгорании смеси горючего газа (ацетилена, водорода, паров бензина и др.) с кислородом. Применяют для сварки тонкостенных изделий из стали, цветных металлов и сплавов, для наплавки твёрдых сплавов при ремонтных работах.

5. Электрошлаковая сварка - сварка плавлением металлов в месте соединения. Источником нагрева металла служит теплота, которая выделяется при прохождении электрического тока через расплавленный шлак, находящийся в зазоре между соединяемыми деталями.

6. Печная сварка (кузнечная, горновая) - соединение пластическим деформированием (например, с помощью молота) металлических изделий, нагретых в печах или горнах.

7. Диффузионная сварка - производится сдавливанием предварительно нагретых (без расплавления материалов) соединяемых деталей в вакууме, в результате чего происходит диффузия атомов материалов контактирующих деталей. Используют для сварки изделий из трудносвариваемых металлов, неметаллов, пластмасс.

8. Термитная сварка - технологический процесс, при котором зазор между соединяемыми деталями, предварительно нагретыми до 400 — 700°С, заполняется металлическим расплавом, полученным при

сгорании термита. Используется для сварки проводов, труб, рельсовых стыков.

9. Газопрессовая сварка, соединение встык стержней, труб, фасонных профилей и т. д. нагревом мест сварки газовым пламенем до оплавления или пластического состояния металла и последующим сжиманием (осаживанием) соединяемых частей.

10. Высокочастотная сварка, сварка, при которой кромки свариваемых деталей нагревают токами ВЧ до их размягчения или оплавления и сжимают. Ток в изделии наводится индукционным или контактным способом. Используют, например, для сварки труб из ленты.

PART 5. MODERN DEVELOPMENTS

Lead-in

Prior to reading text, say if the method described below is a conventional one. What makes it conventional/unconventional?

Why does this welding process best fit for aluminium and its alloys? What should be changed in the parameters when shifting from welding aluminium to steel?

Vocabulary

ductile	гибкий, ковкий, поддающийся обработке
threaded	с резьбой, нарезной
pin	цапфа
shoulder	буртик; поясок
debris	осколки, обломки; обрезки; лом
shrinkage	усадочная деформация
solute	растворенное вещество, раствор

Find the English equivalent sin the text for the following Russian words and word combinations:

Традиционные технологии сварки, нагрев при трении, выработка теплоты (тепловыделение), инструментальная оснастка, в деформированном состоянии, нержавеющая сталь, шестивалентный хром, зона термического влияния, накаленный докрасна, механическая обработка, элемент конструкции.

Reading

Text 1. Friction Stir Welding (FSW)

H.H. Bhadeshia

Friction stir welding, a process invented at TWI, Cambridge in 1991, involves the joining of metals without fusion or filler materials. It is used already in routine, as well as critical applications, for the joining of structural components made of aluminium and its alloys. Indeed, it has been convincingly demonstrated that the process results in strong and ductile joints, sometimes in systems which have proved difficult using conventional welding techniques. The process is most suitable for components which are flat and long (plates and sheets) but can be adapted for pipes, hollow sections and positional welding. The welds are created by the combined action of frictional heating and mechanical deformation due to a rotating tool. The maximum temperature reached is of the order of 0.8 of the melting temperature.



The tool has a circular section except at the end where there is a **threaded** probe or more complicated flute; the junction between the cylindrical portion and the probe is known as the *shoulder*. The probe penetrates the work piece whereas the shoulder rubs with the top surface. The heat is generated primarily by friction between a rotating-translating tool, the shoulder of which rubs against the work piece. There is a volumetric contribution to heat generation from the **adiabatic** heating due to deformation near the pin. The welding parameters have to be adjusted so that

the ratio of frictional to **volumetric** deformation--induced heating decreases as the work piece becomes thicker. This is in order to ensure a sufficient heat input per unit length.

The microstructure of a friction-stir weld depends in detail on the tool design, the rotation and translation speeds, the applied pressure and the characteristics of the material being joined. There are a number of zones. The heat-affected zone (HAZ) is as in conventional welds. The central nugget region containing the onion-ring flow-pattern is the most severely deformed region, although it frequently seems to dynamically recrystallise, so that the detailed microstructure may consist of *equiaxed* grains. The layered (onion-ring) structure is a consequence of the way in which a threaded tool deposits material from the front to the back of the weld. It seems that cylindrical sheets of material are extruded during each rotation of the tool, which on a weld cross-section give the characteristic onion-rings.

The thermomechanically-affected zone lies between the HAZ and nugget; the grains of the original microstructure are retained in this region, but in a deformed state. The top surface of the weld has a different microstructure, a consequence of the shearing induced by the rotating toolshoulder.



Friction-stir welding machine

The Machine

This is a picture of a friction stir welding (FSW shows a typical) machine. This one is at the Joining and Welding Research Institute (JWRI) of Osaka University, Japan.

The Tool

An illustration of some types of tools. Each tool has a shoulder whose rotation against the substrate generates most of the heat required for welding. The **pin** on the tool is plunged into the substrate and helps stir the metal in the solid state.



The Fixture and Weld

The two halves to be joined must be rigidly fixed before the welding operation (first picture below). The pin, which is an integral part of the tool, is plunged into the metal to help stir it up; the **shoulder** of the tool generates much of the heat. As the weld is completed, the tool is withdrawn leaving behind a hole. The weld is designed so that such regions can be discarded from the component. The presence of a hole may not be appropriate when welding pipes or storage vessels. The hole can be avoided by designing the tool such that only the pin can be retracted automatically and gently into the shoulder, leaving behind an integral weld.



FSW of Steel

Steel can be friction stir welded but the essential problem is that tool materials wear rapidly. Indeed, the wear **debris** from the tool can frequently be found inside the weld. The process would therefore be used in special circumstances where other welding methods are inadequate. These circumstances have yet to be clarified. There are so many good methods by which steel can be welded. The example below is the FSW of 316L stainless steel. Notice that the sample becomes red-hot during welding.



Created by Hitachi for University of Cambridge Use Only

Since the tool gets red hot, it is necessary to protect it against the environment using a shielding gas. A possible use of FSW in the welding of steels is in the context of stainless steels. Austenitic stainless steels can easily be welded using conventional arc welding and other processes. However, FSW can offer lower distortion, lower shrinkage and porosity. More important is the avoidance of fumes containing hexavalent chromium which is carcinogenic. In addition, chemical segregation effects associated with welding processes involving solidification are avoided. Such segregation can lead to a degradation of corrosion resistance since electrochemical cells are set up between **solute**-rich and poor domains.

Friction Stir Welding of Cast Aluminium Alloy

The most popular aluminium casting-alloy contains about 8 wt% of silicon. It therefore solidifies to primary aluminium-rich dendrites and a eutectic mixture of aluminium solid-solution and almost pure silicon. The latter occurs as coarse silicon particles which tend to be brittle. The cast alloy usually has some porosity. Friction stir welding has the advantage that it breaks up the coarse silicon particles and heals any pores by the mechanical processing, as illustrated below.

TMAZ а HAZ b SN Defect RS C

A section through a friction stir weld made in an Al-Si casting alloy. There are pores indicated in the base metal (BM). HAZ represents the heat affected zone, TMAZ the thermomechanically affected zone, and SN the stir nugget. The photographs in this section have kindly been provided by Professor H. Fujii of JWRI, Japan.



Optical micrographs of regions (a), (b) and (c) of the stir nugget. The location

of these regions is identified in macroscopic section presented above.

Optical micrographs showing the microstructure in (a) the base metal; (b) heat-affected zone; (c) the thermo mechanically affected zone, where considerable refinement of the silicon has occurred.

Tensil	e strength	Proof	stress	Elongation (%)	Fracture local
(MPa)		(MPa)			
Joint	150	85		1.6	BM
Weld	179	87		5.3	TMAZ
SN	251	96		14.4	SN

The refinement of silicon and elimination of porosity leads to better mechanical properties in the weld than in the base plates.

True or false?

1. FSW is not used to weld steels.

2. It's impossible to avoid holes in welds made by FSW method.

3. The maximum temperature reached during FSW is above the melting temperature.

4. The characteristics of the material being joined affect the microstructure of a friction-stir weld.

5. FSW is the only method for welding austenitic stainless steels.

6. Pipes can be welded using FSW.

Translate the following sentences into English:

1. При сварке трением присадочный металл не используется.

2. Получаемые в результате сварки трением швы отличаются прочностью и пластичностью.

3. Шов при сварке трением образуется в результате нагрева при трении инструмента о свариваемую деталь и возникновения механической деформации.

4. Микроструктура шва, полученного при помощи сварки трением, определяется целым рядом параметров.

5. Поверхность шва внешне похожа на луковые кольца.

6. Наличие или отсутствие поры в зоне шва определяется конструкцией инструментальной оснастки и скоростью отвода инструмента.

7. Пары шестивалентного хрома являются канцерогенными.

8. Использование сварки трением позволяет снизить усадочную деформацию и пористость.

9. Существенным недостатком данного метода является быстрый износ инструмента.

10. При сваривании стальных конструкций сталь раскаляется докрасна.

Make a short description of the method using the following key words:

Fusion, filler material, aluminium and its alloys, plates and sheets, frictional heating and mechanical deformation, rotating tool, tool, shoulder, pin, work piece, heat generation, microstructure of a friction-stir weld, applied pressure, characteristics of the material, withdrawal of the tool, onion-ring structure, HAZ, integral weld.

Vocabulary

термостарение
испытание на изгиб
испытание на растяжение
heat affected zone зона термического влияния
стыковое соединение; соединение встык
торец; упор; опора,
опора

Reading

Read the text below and say what new facts you learn from it.

Text 2. New Welding Method for Aluminium

Friction welding has been used in the manufacture of rotating bodies since 1956 and has become well-known as an extremely rapid and reliable method. Unfortunately, its use has been limited to rotationally symmetrical bodies, as friction welding is based the principle of rotating two workpieces at high speed in relation to one another and then pressing them against once another with great force, thereby rapidly obtaining forging temperatures. As this method makes high productivity possible, the opportunity to use friction welding for other types of object has been eagerly awaited for many years.

Aluminium is normally welded using MIG, TIG, plasma or manual welding with coated electrodes. A new welding method, Friction Stir Welding, has been developed for welding aluminium. This method has been patented and developed by TWI. The necessary expertise has been acquired in a sponsorship project which has been run by TWI in collaboration with possible users and machine-builders.

In principle, the method is based on obtaining a sufficiently high temperature to forge two aluminium components, using a rotating tool which moves along the joint. The temperature is under the melting point of aluminium.

The aluminium components which are going to be joined are clamped to a TIG using a powerful fixture. A tool with a cylindrical shoulder and with a special profile is positioned above the centre line of the joint. The tool is rotated at at a peripheral speed and is pushed into the material with great force. The material comes plastic as a result of the frictional heat and is forced to rise around the rotating probe until the shoulder of the tool comes into direct contact with the surface of the aluminium. When the tool is moved along the joint, the material is plasticised by the frictional heat of the front of the rotating probe and moves behind the probe, thereby forming a weld. This process continues as long as the tool is moved along the joint.

The Friction Stir Welding of alumimium 60 82 -T6 or SS 4212-06 has been shown to produce high strength values. Typical values for the ultimate strength across joint are in the range of 211-230 N/mm2, without ageing. Higher strength can be obtained by thermal ageing. The specification for the base material is a minimum of 290 N/mm2. Bending tests and tensile tests have been conducted without any negative observations. Fractures took place in the base material HAZ.

Thick material. When welding materials of more than 15 mm, the welding is done from both sides. The maximum thickness is around 30 mm at 100% penetration. The welding speed is approximately 180 mm/min.

Welding speed. The welding speed depends on the dimensions and the alloys which are used. The spindle speed also affects the welding speed. For example, the welding speed in material 5 mm thick can be 610 mm/min with a 60 82-T6 alloy.

Joint types. Butt joints and lap joints can be welded. Corner joints and other special joints can also be welded, but the method, accessibility, complete penetration requirements and so on must be taken into account when they are planned.

Welding data. In Friction Stir Welding, the welding parameters are dependent on the aluminium alloy, the dimensions, the speed of the spindle and the traveling speed. In addition, the design of the tool has an important effect on the welding result. Work on all these parameters is in progress with the aim of building up data bank for the progress in order to facilitate the use of Friction Stir Welding. Working Environment. The working environment is improved dramatically when Friction Welding is used. Welding flash, fumes and ozone formation are totally eliminated. Steel brushing and interpass cleaning are also unnecessary.

Advantages

The advantages of the method are:

High, consistent quality.

Material thickness from 1.6-15 mm can be welded as single-pass procedures. Material from 15-30 mm can be welded on both sides.

No joint preparation, only degreasing.

No grinding or brushing.

No consumables.

No shielding gas.

Flat surface without weld reinforcement or splatter.

No magnetic blowing as the welding is done without an arc.

Environmentally-compatible method without flash, fumes or ozone formation. Less risk of pores and cracking as the temperature never reaches the melting point of aluminium.

No burning off of alloy substance as the temperature never reaches melting point.

Alloys which are difficult to weld can be welded as there is only a small risk of hot cracking. High productivity.

Disadvantages

The method can only be used on straight, flat workpieces or hollow profiles with an abutment or backing. The method requires a stable welding machine with good reproducibility. Powerful fixture which is able to hold the components in the correct position throughout the welding operation. The back of the object must be accessible if 100% penetration is necessary. As the method requires a stable welding machine with a powerful fixture, the welding equipment should preferably be stationary. This welding method leaves an end hole when the tool is pulled away from workpiece. In many cases, this hole can be cut off, but, in other cases, it has to be sealed using another method.

Applications

Suitable applications include extruded aluminium profiles for: shipbuilding; offshore platforms; railway wagons, trams and underground train carriages; the automobile, brewing, defense industries; production of electric motors, cooling elements.

Summary

Friction Stir Welding is a new welding method which enables two workpieces made of aluminium to be forged using friction. The method has characteristics which make it extremely interesting for the highly-productive joining of straight profiles and plates. In the longer term, this method will help to extend the use of aluminium.

After reading activity

Use the words and phrases from the list below to fill in the blanks in the sentences:

rotating bodies, manual welding, sponsorship project, necessary expertise, in collaboration with, frictional heat, without any negative observations, build up data bank, sufficiently high temperature, environmentally-compatible

1. ... is being replaced by automatic and semi-automatic types of welding in many applications.

2. They could buy the new equipment only thanks to a successfully realized

3. ... are necessary elements of friction stir welding.

4. The new project was realized ... foreign partners.

5. In order for the weld to be formed ... in the welding area should be provided.

6. After the thorough repairs the equipment had been running for 2 years

7. The quality control supervisors had to carry out ... before putting the welding machine into operation.

8. The experience the engineers had in welding such structures helped them ... necessary for further development of the product.

9. ... resulting from rotating bodies coming into direct contact can be removed by special coolers.

10. This new welding machine is both operator friendly and

Speaking

Say if the following is an advantage or disadvantage of friction stir welding:

1. A hole is left on the surface after the tool is pulled away from work piece.

- 2. The welding machine should be powerful and stable.
- 3. The joint doesn't need special preparation.

4. Flash, fumes and ozone are not formed.

- 5. Consumables and shielding gas are not required.
- 6. Abutment or backing is necessary.
- 7. Arc is not used.

Answer the following questions:

- 1. What is of Friction Stir Welding method based on?
- 2. How is the weld formed?
- 3. What do the welding parameters depend on?

4. What, in your opinion, are the most important advantages/disadvantages of the Friction Stir Welding method?

5. Want is the best sphere of application of this method at present?

Writing

Write a short report about FSW according to the following plan:

- 1. The principle of FSW.
- 2. Working environment.
- 3. Advantages and disadvantages.
- 4. Applications.

Lead-in

Think of the answers for the following questions:

- 1. What is an automated welding system?
- 2. What might be the advantages of automated welding systems compared with manual welding?

3. What part do you think can never be welded using automated welding?

Vocabulary

проход		
интерфейс челон	зек-машина	
автоматизирован	нная система	
последовательно	ость сварки; пор	ядок наложения
ШВОВ		
испытания б	без разрушен	ия образца,
неразрушающий	і контроль	
температура	начала	мартенситных
	проход интерфейс челон автоматизирован последовательно швов испытания б неразрушающий температура	проход интерфейс человек-машина автоматизированная система последовательность сварки; пор швов испытания без разрушен неразрушающий контроль температура начала

weld bead	
log file	
processing	

превращений наплавленный валик сварного шва системный журнал обработка

Reading

Text 3. Man-machine Communication for Multi-run Arc Welding

The multi-run welding of heavy components imposes special demands on **man-machine communication** (MMC) for **automated** welding **systems**. **Welding sequences** of several hours with limited *operator surveillance* necessitate pre-programming, not only of the nominal process data, but also of other conditions for the successful performance of the welding process in varying *external conditions*. Warnings of conditions requiring the *operator's attention* must be given during welding. Should a situation occur in which the quality of the weld is jeopardized, the process must be stopped *in a controlled manner* and the reason for the stop must be displayed. Upon completion of the weld, a presentation, indicating all the important events during the welding cycle, should be made to determine the amount of **non-destructive testing**. Provision should be made for further detailed investigations of optional parts of the cycle, as well as for the storage and documentation of the course of the process.

The *operator interface* for the ESAB multi-run MMC is an industrial PC. The *pre-programming modules* are divided into blocks of *set-up parameters*, process parameters, warnings, reports and stop limits. Different sets of process parameters can be automatically retrieved during the welding sequence. During welding, the screen shows the preprogrammed parameters, the actual measured values and the way the process is progressing (e.g. layer, bead and position).

If a warning is activated, the operator is given the choice of immediately stopping the process stopping it after the completion of the bead or allowing it to continue.

A small remote *control box*, which can be hand-held, contains the controls the operator needs for preparing, starting and stopping the process. The control system registers the welding sequence in two separate files, the Weld Report and the multi-run. In the Weld Report, all the installation parameters such as wire type and wire dimension, flux (or gas) type and permissible inter-pass temperatures are stored, together with the specified

process parameters such as *welding voltage*, *welding current* and *welding speeds* and their report, alarm and stop link.

All the important events during welding, such as start, stop(s), restarts, exceeded report limits and warnings for flux level, high or low interpass temperature, are stored in the Weld Report. All the events are stored together with the *actual date*, time, weld layer, **weld bead** and position in the joint. Should the event be an exceeded process parameter, the parameters at the time in question are also stored.

In the Log File, the position and process parameters are continuously registered (every 20 mm). A normal Log File report for a *thick-walled* welding object could fill 1,000 pages.

The Weld Report provides a good overview of important events during welding. The reported events provide valuable information for the planning of non-destructive testing and offer *easily-accessible* documentation of the welding process. If further investigations are deemed necessary, the Weld Report constitutes a good register for entering the Log Files in which detailed information from the sectors associated with the reported events can be found.

The multi-run control system can also be connected to customers' central computer systems for documentation or further **processing** of both Weld Reports and Log Files, together with other quality control data.

After reading activity

Match	the	words	and	their	transl	ation:	

1. operator surveillance	А текущая дата
2. external conditions	Всила тока при сварке
3. operator's attention	С программируемые модули
4. in a controlled manner	D автоматически
5. operator interface	Е внешние условия
6. pre-programming	F напряжение электрического тока при сварке
modules	
7. set-up parameters	G толстостенный
8. control box	Н скорость сварки
9. welding voltage	I внимание оператора
10. welding current	J легкодоступный
11. welding speed	К контроль со стороны оператора
12. actual date	L блок управления

13. thick-walled	М установленные параметры
14. easily-accessible	N операторский интерфейс

Answer the following questions:

- 1. What are the functions of the described automated system?
- 2. In what cases must the welding process be automatically stopped?
- 3. What does the system do when the weld is completed?
- 4. What do the pre-programming modules include?
- 5. What parameters are displayed on the screen during the welding process?

6. What can an operator do when he receives a warning from the automated system?

7. What does the remote control unit contain?

8. Where are all the important events happening during the welding process stored?

9. What is registered in the log file?

Translate the following sentences into English:

1. Использование автоматизированных сварочных систем позволяет легко определить объем необходимого контроля качества.

2. В случае возникновения угрозы качеству сварного шва сварочный процесс немедленно прекращается.

3. Оператор может контролировать подготовку, начало и завершение сварочных операций с помощью пульта дистанционного управления.

4. Данные о дате, времени выполнения операции сварки, сварном слое, наплавленном валике сварного шва сохраняются в отдельном файле.

5. Автоматизированные сварочные системы не требуют значительного вмешательства оператора в ход сварочного процесса.

6. Информация о типе и диаметре сварочной проволоки заносится в программу.

7. По окончании сварки на дисплее отображается вся наиболее важная информация о ходе процесса сварки.

8. Записанные параметры представляют собой ценную информацию о процессе сварки.

9 Данные поступают в центральную вычислительную систему для дальнейшей обработки.

10. Автоматизированная сварочная система обеспечивает успешное осуществление сварочного процесса.

Vocabulary

simulation	моделирование; имитация, воспроизведение
word processing	электронная обработка текста
software	программное или математическое обеспечение,
	программные средства
storage	хранение
CD ROM	Compact Disk Read-Only Memory - компакт-диск
consumable	расходные материалы
fatigue	усталость (материала)
rod	электрод
reel of wire	моток проволоки
parent metals	основной металл
complementary	дополнительный, добавочный
traceability	отслеживаемость
NDT	nondestructive test испытание без разрушения образцов
distortion	деформация; коробление
tolerance	тех. допуск, допустимое отклонение
butt joint	стыковое соединение; соединение встык
fillet joint	шпоночное соединение
supervisor	инспектор
welding fume	сварочный дым, сварочные аэрозоли
extraction	вытяжное (вентиляционное) оборудование
equipment	
regulations	правила, устав; нормы; инструкция
copper wires	медные провода, проволока
to gain access	получать доступ

While-reading activity

Find the English equivalents in the text for the following words and word combinations:

производство, частый пользователь, растущий рыночный спрос, источник информации по сварке, выполнять простые вычисления, новейшие программные технологии, заметный прогресс в производстве аппаратного обеспечения, графическая система, набор правил,

для контроля знаний, практический опыт, вопросы видеоряд, круглосуточно, богатый источник информационных технологий в области сварки, местный телефонный звонок, удобное средство связи, набор протоколов, гипертекстовая ссылка, каталог веб-страниц, поисковая машина, поиск технической информации, температура доступ персональному предварительного подогрева, иметь к компьютеру, обучающие программы, скорость обмена данными.

Reading

Text 4. IT in Welding and Cutting for the Welding Engineer – PC Programs and the Internet

The PC has now become an essential tool in the work of the engineer for not only **word processing** but also specialized tasks such as in design, **simulation** and performance assessment. Within the manufacturing industry sector, most engineers have access to a PC and the vast majority can be classed as frequent users. It is not surprising, therefore, that in response to the growing market demand, a wide range of computer programs have been written specifically for the welding engineer. Whilst PC programs can be considered to be a mature source of welding engineering IT, over the last year the Internet has emerged as a new exciting source of welding related information.

As the Internet is already widely used by many welding engineers as a source of IT, guidelines are provided on how the vast amount of information on welding engineering related topics can be accessed.

Welding engineering software for the PC

The first IT packages written for the welding engineer were for carrying out simple calculations such as the preheat temperature level to avoid hydrogen cracking. However, as the PC became more powerful (faster computing speeds and additional memory), their use was extended to mass storage of information in databases such as for welding procedures and welder qualification. More recently, software has incorporated novel programming techniques, expert systems for knowledge based advisory type software and multimedia systems for advisory and education and training software. The main advantage of expert systems is that they are capable of encapsulating expert knowledge, which may be largely subjective. Thus, operation of an expert system differs from that of a conventional software which progresses in a predetermined, step by step manner until a result is obtained e.g. the preheat temperature or the output of a database. Interrogation of a problem solving expert system will produce an output, which is usually advice or an opinion as to the likely cause of the problem and the recommendations to avoid the problem in the future.

A noteworthy advance in computer hardware in recent years has been the inclusion of a CD ROM player in the PC to provide a multimedia capability. Multimedia combines scanned photographs, graphics, animation, audio and video action with very fast processing and large databases to provide very visual / interactive software.

T he CD ROM disk is crucial in that with a capacity of 700MB can store over 250,000 pages of text, or up to 30 mins of video, equivalent to 450 high density 3.5 in floppy disks.

Commercially available software for the welding engineer

There is now a wide range of powerful software available to the welding engineer which makes best use of the computing, memory, knowledge based and/or *multimedia facilities* of the PC. The IT programs produced as aids for the welding engineer can be conveniently grouped into the following categories:

- ► Repetitive calculations;
- ► Storage of Information;
- ► Interpretation of Standards;
- ► Advisory;
- ► Simulation;
- ► Education and Training.

Many companies have written software for *in-house use* but the examples described here have been restricted to commercially available software.

Repetitive Calculations

This group was the first type of software written specifically to help the welding engineer carry out routine or time consuming calculations. Topics include the calculation of *weld volume*, **consumable** requirements, cost of fabrication and design calculations for **fatigue service**. WELDVOL is typical in that it will allow the user to calculate the volume of weld metal to be deposited and from this information, the number of **rods**, or **reels of wire**, to be purchased. The program can accommodate a range of arc processes, joint types and **parent metals**.

Storage of Information

XWELD is a welding procedure management system. The system is a *multi-user* relational database and has the following advantages over a paper based document control system:

- ► Integrated drawing system and graphics library;
- ► Electronic distribution of procedures;
- ► Search functionality for all essential variables of the procedure;

QMWELD is a **complementary** program for management of fabrication information for ensuring that a fabrication is completed on time and to an appropriate standard. The system gives full **traceability** with **NDT records**.

Interpretation of Standards

FATIGUEWISE is based on BSI 7910 (formally PD 6493), "Guidance on Methods for Assessing the Acceptability of Flaws in Fusion Welded Structures". The software allows analysis of structures, for safety critical applications, using either the fracture procedures or the general fatigue procedures.

FATIGUEWISE is a typical software for interpreting a standard which is a complex text procedure. A set of rules derived from the standard are **embedded** in the software ensuring that each time an assessment is made the standard is applied equally rigorously. As most **assessments** require numerous calculations, the software will save the user both time and costs especially when carrying out a *sensitivity* or *critical* analysis by varying one of the *input parameters*.

The use of a *friendly graphical interface* ensures that the user is only asked for information specific to the current assessment.

Advisory

STAYING IN SHAPE is an expert/multimedia system that provides *practical advice* and training on how to **overcome** the problem of **distortion** caused by welding and cutting operations. The information is based on expert knowledge and practical experience. Multimedia (video, animations, audio, scanned photographs and graphics) is used to **facilitate** the transfer of knowledge and learning.

The knowledge contained in the system includes:

- ► The different types of distortion and when they occur;
- ► The factors in welding affecting distortion;
- Practical steps to reduce distortion;
- ▶ Precautions for specific welding and cutting situations;
- ► Actions to correct distortion after welding.

The system also includes a series of quiz type questions that will test the user's understanding of distortion.

Simulation

MAGSIM simulates the GMA welding process calculating the weld shape and the thermal cycle at various points along the weld (7). Graphics is used to display the cross section of the weld and a 3-D view is used to visualize the simulation results; the calculated thermal cycle and shape of the **weld pool.** The program can be used to predict the weld quality for selected welding parameters with **tolerances**. For **butt and fillet joints** in CMn and alloy steels, welding parameters can be optimized for a specific task.

Education and Training

WELDING FUME TUTOR is a CD ROM based multimedia training course aimed at educating welders, **supervisors** and welding engineers on the risks to health that could arise from **inhalation of welding fume**. The program can also be used for training welders in fume control techniques and use of **extraction equipment**. The information contained is based on **statutory regulations**, expert knowledge and practical experience. The program is interactive and combines video clips, animated sequences, audio, scanned photographs and graphics.

Welding engineering IT and the Internet

The Internet is unique in that it contains a vast store of information which is readily available to engineers 24 hours a day. Its potential as a source of IT for welding engineers has yet to be fully realized. In order to realize this potential, welding engineers must have knowledge of:

- ► The Internet System;
- ► World Wide Web (WWW)
- ► Hardware Requirements
- ► Accessing and Searching the WWW

The Internet System

The Internet is not a single computer but a network of millions of computers linked by a telecommunication system (**copper wires**, *fibre optic cable* and satellites). In simple terms, the Internet can be considered a world-wide array of computer networks linked by the telephone.

Information is stored on the computers which are called "servers". Servers connected to each other form "local networks" and the networks connected together form the "inter-network" or Internet. The "client" is a computer that allows user access to information services over the network.

Hardware Requirements

The hardware requirements for accessing the Internet are:

► PC

► Modem

► Internet service account

► Telephone line

The standard PC, costing typically £1000, is suitable for connecting to the Internet but a modem will be required; the modem is a device which allows a computer to transmit and receive data via the telephone. Modems are increasingly being fitted to the PC as a standard feature but it is recommended that for efficient communication, the modem should be capable of a data exchange rate of at least 33.6kbs.

Electronic post or e-mail

Electronic or e-mail is widely used as the user can send and receive messages from anyone in the world who has an Internet compatible e-mail address e.g. wlucas@twi.co.uk. The advantages of the e-mail are that the messages cost no more than a local telephone call and are stored on the recipient's computer until he is ready to look at his mail. E-mail is a useful means of communication for engineers in that, in addition to messages, documents, software and video images can be transmitted.

World Wide Web (WWW)

The Internet is a physical network on which the information travels but the "World Wide Web" or WWW is a collection of protocols (rules) and standards used to access the information available on the Internet. Each Web site has a unique address e.g. Esab Europe's address is http://www.esab.se. Each document on the web site also has its own address termed Uniform Resource Locator (URL). For example, http://www twi.co.uk/bestprac is the URL of the document which contains technical information from on best practice for welding "Job Knowledge for Welders"; "http" tells the browser that it is a hypertext file (Hyper Text Transfer Protocol), and http://www.twi. co.uk is the server on which the web page is located.

The point-and-click user interface is similar to more conventional windows based PC programs. The protocol tells the user's computer how to

display the information. The hypertext links allows the user to browse through information held either on the same server or, more importantly, on any other computer connected to the Internet. The WWW protocol covers most types of information, including multimedia, and the method of communication.

Accessing and Searching the WWW

To enable a user to **gain access** to the Internet an account is required with a "Service Provider". When the user logs on to the Service Provider's server, the software will allow the user to browse the Internet accessing and retrieving information from the various servers/web sites.

To search for particular information on the WWW, a "search engine" is used to produce an index or a catalogue of web pages. Searching involves simply filling in a form with words or phrases which describe the information you require. The search engine will produce a list of Web pages which best match the query.

Welding engineering IT on the WWW

The main use of the Internet by engineers is to search for technical information, exchange technical data and to purchase products. Most of the sites have hypertext links to many more sites that contain related information on, for example, engineering, materials, manufacturing and non destructive testing. TWI is typical of the organizations offering technical information. The information available includes technical data sheets, "best practice" guides, directory of suppliers, standards information, abstracts of research projects.

The TWI Web site is accessed by over 6000 users each month and approximately half of the users are from the USA. The most requested pages relate to the technical information.

As advertising is freely practiced on the WWW, most commercial companies have Web pages devoted to the advertising and marketing of their products. The companies can make text, pictures, sounds and video available on their Web pages using the hypertext mark-up language. The ESAB WWW site (http://www.esab.se) contains the following PC programs available from Business Area Consumables:

► WELDCOST - selection of welding process from economic/productivity calculations;

► WELDOC - storage and retrieval of welding procedure specifications;

► PREHEAT -calculation of preheat temperature;

► EQUIST -steel grades and their equivalents;

► STAR - stainless steel consumables;

► CONQUEST - range of steel grades and their recommended consumables;

► THE SCHAEFFLER-DELONG—WRC'92 analysis program is particularly useful to welding engineers and metallurgists in that it can be used to select a suitable consumable when welding dissimilar metals, predict the microstructure of the resulting weld, warn about possible metallurgical risks on welding, build a database of commonly used metals and their consumables.

A typical screen display may show the composition of the resulting weld metal produced when welding 15 Mo 3 steel to AISI316L stainless steel using the type OK 67.60 consumable. The diagram may also contain a useful warning on the zones of weld metal compositions (nickel and chromium equivalents) in which cracking is likely to occur.

After reading activity

1. PC	А. мультимедийные средства
2. database	В. многопользовательский
3. expert system	С. чувствительность
4. step by step	D. введенные параметры
5. floppy disk	F. волоконно-оптический кабель
6.multimedia	G. ПК
facilities	
7. in-house use	Н. практический совет
8. weld volume	I. объем сварочных работ
9. multi-user	J. внутреннее использование
10. sensitivity	К. критический
11. critical	L. экспертная система
12.input	М. пошаговый
parameters.	
13. practical	N. гибкий диск
advice	
14. fibre optic	О. база данных
cable	

Match the words from the left and the right columns:

Answer the following questions:

1. How do engineers now use a PC?

2. What are the two modern sources of welding related information?

3. What were the first IT packages for the welding engineer used for?

4. What did faster computing speeds and additional memory make possible to do in the field of welding?

5. What is the difference between an expert system and conventional software?

6. What is multimedia?

7. What is the storage capacity of a CD-ROM disk?

8. How can the IT programs produced for the welding engineer be conveniently grouped?

9. What can XWELD, QMWELD, FATIGUEWISE, FATIGUEWISE, STAYING IN SHAPE, MAGSIM, WELDING FUME TUTOR do?

10. Why is the Internet a unique source of information to engineers?

11. Are you an Internet user?

Translate the following sentences from Russian into:

1. Персональный компьютер стал мощным инструментом в работе инженеров-сварщиков.

2. Многие инженеры сегодня имеют доступ к сети Интернет.

3. Компьютерные программы стали полноценным источником информации по сварке.

4. Компьютер позволяет хранить огромное количество информации в базах данных, выполнять вычисления, с его помощью можно повышать квалификацию сварщика.

5. Мультимедийные программы содержат фотографии, графические и аудио-данные, анимацию.

6. Специальные программа позволяет выполнять расчет уровня температуры предварительного подогрева во избежание образования трещин.

7. С помощью компьютерной программы можно рассчитать объем металла шва, количество электродов, мотков проволоки.

8. Интерактивные программы обучения позволяют совершенствовать знания сварщиков по различным аспектам, связанным с их профессиональной деятельностью.

9. Все программы имеют одинаковый интерфейс "указать и щёлкнуть".

10. Большинство коммерческих компаний используют Интернет для продвижения своей продукции.

Vocabulary

simulation	моделирование
word processing	1) электронная обработка текста 2) оперативное
	изготовление документов
IT	(information technology) информационная
	технология
storage	хранение
database	база данных
filing cabinet	1) шкаф для хранения документов; 2) картотека,
	каталог
power generation	производство электроэнергии
bottleneck	узкое место

Reading

Text 5. Moving Weld Management from the Desk to the Desktop

Part 1. Computers as Welding Expert Systems

Welding engineers have managed welding procedures and welder performance qualifications using computers for some years now. Engineers now readily access vital information - no more searching through piles of paper. They can easily develop procedures and qualifications through onscreen editing, get advance warning of expirations and produce a professional-looking document in the end. Most fabricators now have local or wide area networks so sharing information between key personnel is easier than ever before. Computers can integrate management of procedures and qualifications with production weld information and quality control (QC) data, and so the benefits abound.

Computers have always been good at storing, sorting and searching through large amounts of data, making them suitable for pure **database** applications. Such applications have required the user to know certain parameters, with little or no help from the software. In welding, such systems have been used for managing welding procedures and welder performance qualification. But, to date, most have had limited, if any, expertise in welding.

The problem with building expertise into software it is necessary to have a deep understanding of both software development and the technology being computerized. In the welding industry, this includes metallurgy, engineering, production, quality control and standards. Standards are particularly important, as many aspects of fabrication are specified via national and international standards, such as ASME IX, AWS D1.1, EN 287/288 AND ISO 9000.

Software houses with no depth of welding expertise or engineers with no depth of software development skills both find it difficult to develop expert welding systems. It may be possible for individual engineers to develop software, but long-term support is difficult at best, and in most cases impossible. For storage of large amounts of information, where considerable time is invested in entering the data, long-term support is critical.

In addition, most existing software systems in the fabrication industry are tools for individuals, not for large parts of organizations, because, until recently, most organizations have simply not had the infrastructure to allow information to be distributed electronically. E-mail has helped change this. Electronic mail has driven most fabricators to use local and wide area networks. These networks make it possible to share welding procedures or welder approvals across a company via a multi-user software system.

The management of welding procedures is one of the most timeconsuming jobs of a welding engineer. Creating, verifying and approving new procedures and checking, adapting and approving existing ones take a ling time. Plus, searching for existing procedures for new production welds requires expert skills. Consequently, this was one of the first welding engineering tasks to be computerized.

The first welding procedure database management systems were simply electronic **filing cabinets**. They used the speed of data sorting that computers could offer to make searching for existing procedures much quicker. Documents could be copied and edited to create new documents quickly and easily. What they could not easily do, however, was help the welding engineer create new procedures for new application.

The sources of such information are wide and disparate. They comprise standards (welding and application), consumable and base material handbooks, technical literature; most difficult of all to computerize is experience. To build all this into a computer program would be impossible without a wide knowledge of the sources available.

After-reading activity

True or false?

1. There are a lot of computer programs for welding engineers.

2. It is more important to have a deep understanding of software development than the technology being computerized.

3. Most existing software systems in the fabrication industry are tools for large companies.

3. The first database management systems could not create new procedures for new application.

Part 2. Weldspec 4

Taking all this into account, The Welding Institute (TWI), Cambridge, U.K., and C-spec, Pleasant Hill, California, have collaborated to develop a new version of Weldspec. Weldspec 4 has been designed to help the welding engineer write and draft new welding procedures while still giving the benefits of speed and editing of existing procedures in Microsoft Windows®. The software comes from many backgrounds, including the following:

- Worldwide welding and application standards from such organizations as ASME, AWS, European standards and API;

- Industry practice in developing, qualifying and using welding procedures;

- Typical interactions between customer, fabricator and inspector;

- Welding engineering and metallurgy;

- Software development and knowledge representation techniques.

Software so vitally based on knowledge and recommendations from standards needs to be frequently updated; indeed, ASME IX is updated annually. Because anything hard coded within software is difficult to change, Weldspec's knowledge base is stored externally to the main program so it can be modified.

Managing welder performance qualifications (WPQs) is very similar to welding procedures: Both are designed by standards. Variables that must be recorded, the extent of approval given by a test and the destructive and nondestructive examination (NDE) regimes are specified in national and international standards.

However, unlike welding procedures, WPQs are only valid for a specified time without practice or additional testing. Certificates expire, so the fast sorting capability of computers is even more beneficial. By integrating another program called Welderqual 4 with Weldspec 4 to share a database of welder details, WPQs can be created directly from welding procedures.

An integrated software system such as Welding Co-ordinator can help. Welding Co-ordinator is designed to be used live to manage fabrication as it is progressing. It is usually based around an electronic weld map, weld data sheet or weld schedule, into which data are entered as welds are designed, engineered, welded and tested. The weld map would also usually have some space for approval, either weld by weld, or once a project or structure has been completed. The Figure below shows a detail of a typical weld map for a fabricator in the **power generation** industry.

Data are usually entered into the system from four functions, as follows:

At the design stage, where information such as the weld ID number and other design parameters (material type, thickness, joint type, etc.) are entered.

At welding engineering, where a procedure is assigned. It may also be possible to identify suitable welders or classes of welders qualified to make the weld, although this is more likely to be done at the production stage. At production, where the completion of a weld is registered (usually by entering the date) and visual inspection carried out and approved.

At quality control, where acceptance of the weld is registered. This may be simply by typing test report numbers into the system, or it may be done with live links to electronic NDE reports.

The system also gives instant progress reporting. Anyone with access to the system can see how fabrication is progressing. This may be simply by looking at the weld data sheet on screen or by explicitly programmed progress reports. These can identify **bottlenecks** (by, for example, comparing the number of welds competed with the number of weld radiographed), or help to produce reports for stage payments in large projects.

It also provides automatic assignment of welding procedures and welder. If enough information is supplied at the design stage, the system searches through a database of procedures for suitable welding procedure specifications (WPSs). This may be a single WPS of a number from which to choose from, with a click of a mouse button. Having chosen a suitable WPS, the system searches through WPQs for qualified welders. If necessary, the system can list welders in order of their certificate expiration dates; with those due to expire soonest at the top of the list; so maximum benefit can be made of extending their qualification.

The system can also produce reports on repair rates per welder (to identify training requirements), by procedure (to highlight **defect-prone** procedures) or by any other measure, providing the relevant data are recorded.

It also automatically generates document packs on completion of a project. A very time-consuming task manually, it's again ideally suited for computerization. With the click of a button, the system can print the weld maps for a project, along with all the WPSs used (with backup procedure qualification records (PQRs) if necessary and all the WPQs, which are updated automatically based on satisfactory production welds. In addition, if NDE specifications have been used to report testing, the system can print relevant NDE reports as well. This information can also be archived on CD.

It can also instantly trace production welds to the information backing them up. If the inspector wants to see a WPS that was used on a weld, or proof that the welder was suitably qualified, this can be done with the click of a button. This can be especially useful while inspection a structure after a number of years of service. If a defect is found, the engineer can access the original WPS, for repair purposes, or the NDE report, to see if evidence of the defect was present at testing.

Welding Co-ordin	ator - [₩eld data	i Sheet - 0]				
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Answer the following questions:

- 1. What can Weldspec 4 do?
- 2. What are the main sources from which Weldspec 4 originated?
- 3. How can Weldspec 4 be updated?
- 4. How is data entered into the system?
- 5. In what ways can the system produce reports?
- 6. What time-consuming tasks can Weldspec 4 perform with a click of a button?
- 7. What is the difference of a usual welding software from an expert system?
- 8. What, in your opinion, computers will never be able to do in welding?

Writing

Imagine you are given a task by the head of a big welding company to make a research and decide whether it's worth while introducing computers into the production process. Write a report to your boss mentioning the following points:

- What kind of software is available for welding engineers?
- How can welders get access to welding related information?
- How can computers improve the work of welders?
- What welding procedures can be best computerized?

PART 6. ADVANCED TECHNOLOGIES AND THE FUTURE OF WELDING

Lead-in

Think of the answers for the following questions:

1. Why can welding be necessary on board of a spaceship?

2. What kinds of welding methods, in your opinion, are good for use in space?

3. Why is welding in space such a difficult task?

Vocabulary

instrumentation	оснащение	инструментами	и, приборами,
	аппаратурой,	комплект	инструментов,
	аппаратура		
reflecting shield	отражающий	экран	
preventive maintenance	профилактиче	ское обслужив	ание
arc discharge	дуговой элект	рический разря	Д
globular	шаровидный,	сферический,	сфероидальный,
	шарообразный	й	
retrofitting	подгонка, нас	тройка	
deposition	осаждение		

While reading activity

Match the words in italic from the text with their Russian equivalents below: Вакуумная камера, летательный аппарат, источник тепла, космический корабль, открытый космос, солнечная энергия, компьютерное моделирование, ручной инструмент, банк данных, улучшенный материал (материал с улучшенными свойствами).

Reading

Text 1. Space-Age Welding: The Past, Present and Future of Aerospace Join Processes

By B.E. Paton

April 10, 2003

On Oct. 16, 1969, astronauts performed the world's first welding and cutting experiment in a depressurized compartment. In flight aboard the Soyuz 6 spaceship, they tested three welding processes with a semiautomatic



Two cosmonauts conduct preflight training of a crew with Vulkan hardware in October 1969

Vulkan unit (see Figure below): consumable electrode arc in vacuum, low-pressure plasma, and electron beam welding. They studied how to weld aluminum and titanium alloys and stainless steel. They verified the possibility of thermal-cutting these materials and investigated the behavior of molten metal and features of its solidification.

This experiment convinced experts that they could use automatic welding to produce permanent, tight joints in space. They expanded this work with a

series of investigations conducted under short-time microgravity conditions in flying laboratories and space simulation test chambers. In 1973 NASA experts conducted a flight experiment with electron

beam cutting, brazing, and welding in the Skylab orbital station.

Space welding technologies have advanced since then. In-space repair and construction of space facilities and their equipment and **instrumentation** were defined in the 1980s. Another major area identified was producing *advanced materials* in space with new or improved properties using different *heat sources*.

Over the years scientists and specialists had to address construction of various experimental *space vehicles*, namely, orbital and interplanetary stations, radio telescopes, antennas, **reflecting shields**, and *helio power* generation systems - in *outer space*.

In addition to the original problems of *assembly and erection* in outer space, as well as their view of how long these vehicles would be used and

increases in the vehicles' weight and dimensions, specialists focused more attention on **preventive maintenance** and repairs.

Initial Welding Experiments

The first welding experiments conducted in space demonstrated that arc welding processes, which were widely accepted on earth and at first were promising, had unfavorable characteristics in space, such as unstable, weakly constricted **arc discharge**; unstable **globular** transfer; and increased weld porosity.

During experimental **retrofitting** in simulation facilities-chiefly in space simulation chambers placed in flying laboratories-the difficulties related to these characteristics were successfully resolved. Specialized welding equipment and techniques also were developed for this purpose, and the required welding consumables often were selected from those used in the aerospace industry.

However, it was clear to space system developers that almost all maintenance and repair of long-term *flying vehicles* - for which neither the scope of work needed nor the components to be repaired and restored are known in advance-had to be performed manually with only partial mechanization. This increased specialists' interest in studying the possibility of manual welding in space, which led them to consider which of the existing welding processes to use.

Welding processes such as electron beam, consumable and nonconsumable electrode arc in vacuum, flash-butt, hollow cathode, and helio welding were tested in *vacuum chambers* and in flying laboratories at different stages of experimental studies in the 1970s and 1980s.

Technology and material versatility and minimal power consumption ultimately were deciding factors that led them to choose the electron beam



Cosmonauts test an electron beam hand tool at the Salvut 7 orbital station.

process. This process allowed technicians to perform operations that could be required to produce a permanent joint in open space: heating, brazing, welding, cutting, and coating **deposition**.

But selecting this process didn't solve all the problems. As investigations progressed, the number of problems, technical and psychological, increased. An opinion existed that this process,

which involves high-accelerating voltage, the possibility of X-ray radiation

from the weld pool, and manipulation of a sharply focused electron beam, couldn't be done manually.

A series of experiments in a ground-based, manned space simulation chamber enabled the engineers to solve the key technological and hardware issues and develop a flight sample of an onboard electron beam *hand tool*. In 1984 and 1986 this tool was successfully tried out on the outer surface of the Salyut 7 orbital complex (see Figure above).

Based on new engineering systems that corrected technical parameters and suggestions from the test engineers and crews during experiments in the Salyut station, engineers developed a new electron beam hand tool in the 1990s. The tool passed lengthy testing at NASA's Marshall Space Flight Center and Johnson Space Center. During testing in a flying laboratory and at zero buoyancy, as well as in a manned space simulation test chamber in Russia, the developers were able to solve almost all the technical and procedural problems with the tool.

Further Aerospace Welding Exploration

Almost 40 years' experience of technology developments and their application leads to the conclusion that in this new century, major, complicated space work will have to be addressed. Welding technologies will be of tremendous importance.

Such technologies are partially in place, but further space exploration will require developing new welding, cutting, brazing, and coating processes. New exotic materials will be introduced in the new century, and their processing and joining will require completely new technologies.



A number of space operations can be performed remotely, using robots and manipulators.

Welding in space might become widely accepted only if completely new methods of nondestructive testing and diagnosing welded structures can be developed. This can be supported by *data banks* that allow automatic selection of the process and *computer simulation*.

Laser applications in space, including such hybrid processes as laser-plasma and laser-arc welding, offer promise, especially diode lasers. Friction welding and resistance seam-roller welding also are of interest.

Advanced space systems will continue to be developed both on the ground and in orbit. New welding and related processes and technologies will have an important role in those developments.

B.E. Paton is director of the E.O. Paton Electric Welding Institute, Kiev, Ukraine.The E.O. Paton Electric Welding Institute is a multidisciplinary research institute that realizes fundamental and applied research works and develops technologies, materials, equipment and control systems, rational welded structures and weldments, and methods and equipment for diagnostics and nondestructive quality control. Paton also is president of the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine.

Speaking

True or false?

1. The world's first welding and cutting experiment was carried out in the outer space.

2. Thermal-cutting of aluminium, titanium alloys and stainless steel is impossible in space.

3. Only automatic welding is of importance for aerospace.

4. A flight sample of an onboard electron beam hand tool was produced as a result of series of experiments.

5. Space welding is used for maintenance and repair purposes.

Translate the following sentences into English:

1. На борту космического корабля исследователи изучали поведение расплавленного металла и особенности его кристаллизации в условиях кратковременной микрогравитации.

2. Технологии космической сварки шагнули далеко вперед.

3. Одна из задач, решаемых с помощью сварки в открытом космосе, - профилактическое обслуживание и ремонт оборудования космического корабля.

4. Разнообразие используемых материалов и невысокая энергоемкость оборудования являются решающими факторами, обусловливающими возможность использования сварки в открытом космическом пространстве.

5. Дальнейшее освоение космического пространства потребует усовершенствования практически всех видов сварочных технологий, а также резания, пайки и нанесения покрытий.

6. Специфика используемого на космических кораблях оборудования обусловливает необходимость использования прежде всего ручной сварки при частичной автоматизации процесса.

7. Электроннолучевой ручной сварочный аппарат прошел успешные испытания на орбитальном комплексе в условиях открытого космоса.

8. Использование новейших материалов в следующем столетии потребует разработки совершенно новых технологий получения неразъемных соединений.

The title of the text under review is "The past, present and future of aerospace join processes". Look through the text again and say which event relates to:

- a) the past
- b) the present
- c) the future

The key words from the table below will help you

The past	The present	The future	
1969, 1973, 1980s,	testing in a flying	completely new methods	
1990s, verifying the	laboratory, the electron	of nondestructive testing	
possibility of thermal-	beam process, manned	and diagnosing welded	
cutting and welding in	space simulation	structures, advanced	
space	chamber, solving almost	space systems	
	all the technical and	development, new	
	procedural problems	exotic materials	

Vocabulary

down-hand welding	сварка в нижнем положении
celestial body	небесное тело
bend load	нагрузка на изгиб
welding sequence	последовательность сварки; порядок
	наложения швов
tensile load	растягивающая нагрузка
pressure load	сжимающая нагрузка, усилие сжатия
root pass	корневой шов, проход, сварка корневого
	шва
tolerance	допуск
manual welding	ручная сварка
post-polishing	последующее полирование
tack weld	прихваточный сварной шов, прихватка
X-ray testing	рентгеновская дефектоскопия
(qualification)	

high duty clamping fixture ASME	жесткий режим прижимное устройство American Society of Mechanical Engineers Американское общество инженеров- механиков
DIN	нем. Deutsche Industrie-Normen Немецкие промышленные стандарты
ID	inside dimensions внутренние размеры
U-shape (bend)	двойной изгиб; U-образное колено, двойное
	колено
grinding	шлифовка
weld seam	сварной шов
filler wire	присадочная проволока
saw blade	1) пильное полотно; пильная лента 2)
	ленточная пила; дисковая пила 3) режущий диск
bevelling	1) отточка косая 2) угол фаски 3)
C	фацетирование
performance capabilities	1) возможности 2) рабочие характеристики
work piece	обрабатываемая деталь

Reading

Text 2. What Is Orbital Welding

The term Orbital-Welding is based on the Latin word ORBIS = circle. This has been adopted primarily by aerospace and used in terms of Orbit (noun) or Orbital (adjective) for the trajectory of a man-made or natural satellite or around a celestial body. The combination Orbital Welding specifies a process by which an arc travels circumferentially around a work piece (usually a tube or pipe). The concept Orbital Welding is basically a loosely defined term that is usually used for processes only, where the arc is travels at least 360 degrees around the work piece without interruption. Consequently, processes, which interrupt the full 360-weld sequence such as for better puddle control (often used for MIG/MAG welding, using the downhand welding sequence in 2 half-circles), can not truly be called orbital welding.

Possibilities and Limitations

From welding terminology Orbital Welding belongs to the category *semi-mechanized (TIG-) welding*. Because of the need for good control of the weld puddle, the Orbital-Welding process is only practiced with the TIG

process and relevant rules like selection of gases, cleanness, weldability of specific materials and consequential mechanical strength specifications such as tensile and bend loading, are very important.

Orbital-welding is presently used whenever the quality of the weld joint has the highest priority. These demands are not only limited to mechanical strength and X-ray qualification, but also to the important aspects of the aesthetics of the weld seam. For any users a uniform, flat and smooth root-pass is the main reason for using this process. Consequently, it is favoured in the following areas: chemical industry, pharmaceutical industry, bio-technology, high-purity water systems, semiconductor industry, aircraftand aerospace industry. Moreover, because of the weld joint's uniform outside shape and almost complete absence of need for any post-polishing, Orbital-welding is even used for bends on door-handles, hand-guards, or in dead foot-elements for champagne-glasses! Interested applicants for this technology should certainly note that they have to confirm a couple of indispensable premises.

The following presents the basic rules for this process, valid for all manufacturers and systems.

Even knowing that some competitors are announcing features, which would potentially violate the basic physical laws of nature and knowledge, moreover, making promises and statements which are at least detected as impossible to meet when the welding system must work under high dutycycle production conditions. Indiscriminate and exactly defined dimensions with tolerances must be thorough and complete. The much liked standpoint, that the welded tubes and pipes are in accordance to DIN or ASME standards are not acceptable criteria. These qualifications only define tolerances in percentage to the wall thickness relating to pressure loading and not to weldability using the Orbital-Welding-Process.

For the Orbital-Welding-Process absolute tolerance values are necessary, and furthermore, the more complicated the application, the tighter the tolerances must be. This means, that for an easy application like welding a stainless steel tube of 53 x 1,5 mm, a tolerance in alignment of about 0,5 mm (about 30% of the wall thickness) can be compensated, but for much more critical applications like welding a carbon-steel pipe of 114,3 x 3,6 mm, the same percentage can result in unacceptable weld quality. Therefore, the question of acceptable tolerances should be researched and defined for each application individually.

That Orbital-Welding can be used successfully and economically is proven by the constantly increasing number of users. Field experience has shown that Orbital-welding can be justified based upon economic reasons alone, where the welds can be done in squared-butt no-gap preparation utilizing a single pass. With advanced digital welding systems this is possible up to a wall-thickness of 4 mm, and with welding systems with lower performance capabilities (limited levels, no pulse-synchronized cold-wirefeeding), up to 3 mm.

Joint preparation is simple but requires high quality with an exact 90\'b0 angle to the tube/pipe axis; a high quality saw cut is usually enough. Of course, the joints should be deburred and cleaned out of corrosion, oil, tinder, etc. With appropriate quality-demands, this should be even obvious for manual welds! The tube joints will be then fit together without any visible gap. This can be done with small autogenous tack-welds or with internal or external clamping fixtures. For larger wall-thickness it is necessary to bevel the weld-joints, far as possible in a U-shape. Since a very precise and uniform root pass is important, a weld joint is prepared with an. I.D. related and fixed bevelling-machine. Manual grinding or the use of bevelling saw blades is not precise enough for repeatable welding results. Because an Orbital-Welding job usually requires a lot in time and money, the Orbitalmulti-pass-welding is not used very often and only where it is strictly recommended on quality reasons. A good qualified manual welder will, in most cases, be faster than an Orbital-welding-system. Additionally, an Orbital-system for multi-pass welds will be much more expensive and even more complicated than a system without this option.

Visual inspections of the weld-seam clone can never be sufficient as the sole criterion. Other quality controls, such as, corrosion, consistency, mechanical strength must also be considered. Also, allowed tolerances in contents of alloys on specific materials, such as sulphur content, can result in significantly different welding results, even when the material code is the same. Usually, you can expect that stainless steel materials up to 3 mm wallthickness can be done without filler-wire. For higher wall-thickness applications, you have to decide on a case-by-case basis. In some eventualities even carbon steel can be done without filler-material, although it's even recommended on the thinner wall-thickness to use filler-wire in any way.

After reading activity

Find the English equivalents in the text for the following word combinations:

противоречить законам физики, обращаться вокруг обрабатываемой детали, иметь первостепенное значение, контроль сварочной ванны, красивый внешний вид сварного шва, гладкий и ровный проход при заварке корня шва, шлифовка вручную, приемлемый допуск,

недопустимое качество сварки, квалифицированный сварщик, содержание серы, механическая прочность, искусственный спутник, система высокой очистки воды, обязательное условие.

Characterize orbital welding by filling in the right side of the following table:

Parameter	Description
Model:	An arc travels circumferentially
Principle of the process	around a work piece (usually a tube or
	pipe).
Category	
Application areas	
Limitations	

Speaking

True or false?

1. Orbital Welding is a process, where the arc travels at least 360 degrees around the work piece with some interruptions.

2. MIG/MAG welding, using the down-hand welding sequence in 2 halfcircles, refers to orbital welding.

3. Puddle control is very important for Orbital welding.

4. The number of Orbit Welding users stays the same for a long period of time.

5. Aerospace industry is the only area of Orbital Welding application.

- 6. Joint preparation is not necessary.
- 7. Orbital-welding-system is very fast and cheap.

8. Filler-wire is used for all wall thickness applications.

Describe Orbital welding by completing the following sentences:

1. The term Orbital comes from the Latin word ORBIS and means 2. The Orbital Welding is a process in which an arc travels 3. By category it belongs to 4. It is practiced only with 5.Orbital-welding is presently used in such areas as 6. It is used to produce 7. The basic rules for this process are 8. Absolute tolerances in Orbital-Welding Process are important because 9. Wall-thickness of 4 mm is possible 10. Joint preparation includes 11. Orbital-multi-pass-welding is rather expensive and its use is only justified when 12. Filler-wire is necessary to use only

Additional Reading

Text 3. Welding Forges into the Future

Answers from a survey of industry leaders give valuable feeedback on the state of welding for the year 2000 and beyond.

By Andrew Cullision and Mary Ruth Johnson

The pulse of the welding community beats strongly heading into the 21st century and overall projections for the future are generally optimistic, but a few gray clouds roam the horizon. Those sentiments were expressed by respondents to a recent Welding Journal survey. To get a firm feel for that pulse of present and future conditions in the world of welding, the Editors queried AWS Sustaining Member companies, which include producers of a variety of welded products, providers of research and design services and manufacturers of welding equipment, consumables and accessories.

The Editors would like to thank all those who took the time to put down their thoughts and ideas on paper. The responses were diverse, direct and, most of all, very interesting. Those questions and a summary of their answers are presented below.

- Do you believe welding will be used more or less in the next decade? If more, where do you see the growth? If less, why do you believe so?

The majority of respondents feel welding is here to stay and will be used more in the future, although many qualified their answers, and there were a few dissenting voices as well. Steve Sumner, manager marketing product development, Lincoln Electric Co., replied positively, "Welding will continue to be used more in the future because it has proven to be a productive and cost-effective way to join metals." He went on to speculate that "the consumer welding market will continue to provide opportunities for growth," with home improvement and the retail infrastructure to support it becoming a "burgeoning market." One respondent felt that for costcompetitive reasons industry will continue to replace mechanical joining with semiautomatic and automatic joining processes, giving a definite boost to welding. David Landon, corporate welding engineer, Vermeer Manufacturing Co., said, "More, because welding is the most effective way to join materials for structural integrity. Growth will be in alternative materials such as plastics, composites and new alloys." Phil Plotica, senior V.P., sales and marketing North America, ESAB Welding and Cutting Products, replied,

"Overall, I expect welding growth will keep pace with growth in the GNP. Some specialized segments, such as aluminum, will grow faster than others, while the continuing developments in nonmetallic materials will slow some segments."

The feeling that growth will be in specialized areas was repeated often. Areas that were mentioned included welding automation, GTA welding because of the increasing need for accuracy and precision in welding new metals; GMA welding with mixed gas shielding; sheet metal industry; construction industry; infrastructure repair; transportation industry; marine structures; aerospace; and automotive, especially its use of aluminum alloys. Some feel the growth will primarily be in countries with emerging economies, while the growth in the United States will be relatively stagnant. Terry O'Connell, V.P. sales and marketing, Genesis Systems Group, commented, "The U.S. welding market is flat to declining. Growth is expected in Mexico and other developing countries. Labor shortages in the U.S. will contribute to a steady growth in the robotic welding market." Joe Scott, president, Devasco International, Inc., echoed the sentiment, "Less in the U.S. with expectations of a slight decline in the economy, as well as the

continuing transition to a service/information economy. Outside the U.S., growth is expected as economic stability returns to troubled regions and their need for infrastructure grows."

The perspective of some, though, is that welding will be used less in the future. Chris Anderson, product manager, Motoman, Inc., opined, "There will be less welding in the next decade. The number of welded products will remain the same, but designs will be more efficient to minimize the amount of welding."

- Which welding process (es) will see an increase in use and which will see a decrease in use during the next decade?

There was much speculation as to which processes would see more use in the future, but almost unanimously the process chosen for decline was shielded metal arc welding (SMAW). A very few speculated a decline in the use of gas metal arc (GMAW) and gas tungsten arc welding (GTAW).

A significant group felt the continuous wire processes (FCAW, GMAW) would experience the most use. The GTAW process was the next most mentioned. One of the reasons stated for its increase was "the need for high-quality work on thin materials."

Don Connell, welding engineer, Detroit Edison, stated, "Any process that can be automated will increase." Landon also had the same perspective, "GMAW will increase along with automation." But he also speculated, "Low-fume generating processes will increase." The concept of increased use of automation at the expense of semiautomatic operation was voiced throughout.

The laser beam welding process was mentioned for future growth, and the specialized process friction stir welding was also targeted for expanded use. Other processes mentioned for increased use were resistance welding, plasma arc welding and capacitor discharge welding.

- Do you foresee a shortage of skilled welders in your area of business during 1999; in the next decade?

Without question, the majority of replies indicated there is a shortage now and there will be a shortage in the future. The breakdown was 72% consider the situation problematic now and for the long term, 14% did not see a shortage and the remaining 14% either see no shortage now, but expect one in the future or see a shortage for 1999, but not for the future.

John Emmerson, president, Magnatech Ltd. Partnership, made a typical comment for those who see a far reaching problem, "There is a shortage of skilled welders everywhere in the world, and it is only getting worse as each year passes. Despite the fact that welding is used in virtually every industry, it seems virtually ignored as a manufacturing science. Connecticut [the state of location for Magnatech], for example, dropped its Vo-Tech welding classes in 1997. In addition, population dynamics in recent years in the U.S., Europe and Japan indicate that the next decade will see a much smaller number of young people entering the work force. This, by itself, will result in fewer welders."

ESAB's Plotica had a similar take on the situation, "There is a shortage of skilled welders now in most major market areas, and this shortage will worsen unless substantial programs are implemented to promote welding as an attractive career choice for young people."

Landon of Vermeer Manufacturing stated, "We have had a shortage for the past five years. I see no turnaround, and we will not see a turnaround until the establishment acknowledges welding as a viable career path. To meet our immediate demands, the company has developed its own welder training program. The company is also involved in proactive programs that make instructors at high schools and area colleges aware of welding as a viable career."

Connell of Detroit Edison, does not see an immediate problem, as he encouragingly stated, "There is a renewed interest in the boilermaker's welding program, bringing in a good influx of people. I don't foresee a shortage in 1999." Another respondent took a contrary view, noting a shortage of skilled welders in 1999, but projecting a leveling of demand in the next decade.

J Julio Villafuerte, director research and development, Tregaskiss, had a slightly different perspective. "The need for plain skill welders will decrease slightly with the slowdown of manual welding. However, the need for welding engineers will increase dramatically as welding automation becomes more prominent."

- Where do you see the use of welding automation heading in your industry?

If there is any one thing to bank on for the future, it is the increased use of automation in welding operations. There was an overwhelming affirmative from our respondents on this point, although it was not completely universal. The perspective of those few who did not see increased use might be expressing an influence from their particular industry. A structural steel fabricator mentioned the difficulty in automating for weldments that do not have a high degree of repetitiveness and variations in fitup and joint geometry. Another individual felt automation will not replace welding equipment for manual operations if the equipment is developed to be fast, safe and economical.

But by far the majority feel the same as Magnetech's Emmerson, who stated, "We see more and more companies of all sizes automating applications that were being done manually. Many are exploring their first use of automation, and the declining number of skilled welders will continue this trend." The lack of, or declining numbers of, skilled welders was frequently mentioned as reason for the growth of automation.

Philip Winslow, V.P. sales and marketing, Hypertherm, Inc., noted another often stated reason, "Usage will increase, primarily because of the consistency it gives to welding and cutting operations, especially with CNC (computer numerical control) and robotically controlled processes." Lincoln's Sumner was emphatic in his assessment, "Automation is the single most important growth sector in the welding industry. The drive for higher productivity and reduced costs will keep automation at the forefront." Other reasons for the increasing use of automation included safety and the effort to remove the welder from tiring, repetitive conditions and long-term exposure to fumes.

Chip Cable, president, Bug-O-Systems, isolated shipbuilding and the trucking and railroad industries as areas that will experience growth in automation. A fabricator of offshore steel structures has targeted automation for heavy tubular splices, plate girders and process piping. Small companies and job shops are anticipated to at least try robotics and CNC equipment.

- What are the strengths of the welding industry? What are its weaknesses?

Although our respondents listed plenty of strengths and weaknesses for the welding industry, Plotica of ESAB, perhaps best summed up the two most commonly held opinions. Regarding the industry's strengths, he said, "We are a well-established, mature industry, with a solid track record in technology and process advancements." And as to its weaknesses, "We are not attracting enough young people into welding careers," Plotica said. "Welding is still perceived by many as a crude and dirty process."

While many saw the industry's maturity - the reputation of welded components for being reliable and economical, the industry's commitment to research and development and the dedication of its work force - as signs of its strength, nearly as many others saw it as a weakness. They believe the industry is set in its ways and slow to change. According to one respondent, the industry's strength is that the people involved in it are "slow to change, with a show me attitude." On the other side of the coin, he said, "Its weakness is that they're slow to change even after you show them." And while a number of respondents lauded the industry's commitment to research and development, others claimed it's too esoteric and takes too long to transfer from the academic level to the factory floor.

Thomas C. Conard, president of Alexander Binzel Corp., had another take on the industry's weak spots. He noted welding is not a separate industry in and of itself but instead makes up part of many other industries. The implication here might be that welding lacks a clear-cut image and direction.

- What business improvements during the next ten years would be in your company's best interests?

As might be expected, there were nearly as many different answers to this question as there were respondents. These ranged from broad-based desires, such as a wish for growth in any field that uses metallic materials, to a more narrow focus, such as wanting increased use of electronic commerce and supply chain management. Better trained workers, improved communication techniques, designing for manufacturability and lessening the time it takes to get new products to market were all mentioned as in companies' best interests. Several persons called for increased automation.

Several respondents said a change in the government's role with regard to their operations would improve their businesses. This could occur either through less government involvement or through such things as restriction of imports, "reasonable environmental legislation that does not drive up the cost of doing business," tort reform in product liability and lower taxes. "We spend a tremendous percentage of our income toward research and development," explained Emmerson of Magnatech. "The continuation of tax credits for small company R&D would be beneficial. We note that several of the Canadian provinces are very aggressive in nurturing technical innovation and the growth of small companies, and allow virtually all R&D expenditures to be written off against income. I believe there would be an explosion of new development and company growth if any of the state governments undertook similar tax credit programs."

- What has to be done in the future to keep the welding industry healthy?

More than 50% of the respondents believe improving the image of welding so top students will be drawn to the industry and bettering training methods for welders and welding engineers are the keys to welding's future.

We need to "totally revise the public education system in the United States to acknowledge the trades as an acceptable alternative for students," according to Connell of Detroit Edison. This echoed the opinion of David Yapp, team leader, arc welding and automation, Edison Welding Institute, who said there needs to be "a radical change in education at all levels." He added, however, "This is not likely to happen without strong leadership and commitment."

In fact, respondents touched on a variety of aspects related to training all with an eye toward welding's future. In the opinion of Jackie Morris, quality manager at Bender Shipbuilding & Repair Co., Inc., the level of cooperation between manufacturers and schools must improve so that manufacturers' needs are met. Genesis' O'Connell said the welding industry needs to do two things: "Enhance ease of use through technical training and technology advancement," and "concentrate on making welding the low cost, best performance choice for material joining." For the question regarding welding's weaknesses, Anderson stated it's "often not scientifically applied, which leads to overdesigned weldments and process parameters that are not optimized." Anderson touched on the topic again in answer to the above question, when he said, we must "continue to educate students on the basics of the process and how to implement it. (We must) teach the economics of welding to designers so they understand the costs of a weld."

Respondents also mentioned improved salaries for welders, staying ahead of environmental and health issues and more practical research and development as ways the welding industry can help itself stay healthy.

- Are you optimistic or pessimistic about the future of your particular industry?

Overwhelmingly, the respondents to the survey said they were optimistic about the future of their industries. In fact, 92% of respondents indicated they are at least guardedly optimistic about the future. One respondent summed up his reasons this way: "Metallics will be around for a long time and they will need to be joined."

Much the same opinion was held by Lincoln's Sumner. "I am optimistic," he said. "Even though we are mainly tied to the steel industry, which has seen a slight decline, we have much more to learn about welding and furthering the process of joining metals. I believe products and services that the welding industry provides will continue to be in demand worldwide."

Paul D. Cunningham, president of Weldsale, indicated he was optimistic because "gains in technology via software and the Internet will help increase productivity in the U.S.A." Winslow of Hypertherm foresees a bright future: "If we improve our understanding of our worldwide customers' needs, we have a road map to unrestricted growth."

However, some respondents, such as Thomas A. Ferri, a welding process specialist with Airgas, expressed optimism while adding a word of caution. Ferri said he was "optimistic so long as we know our industry needs some changes." Morris of Bender said he was "optimistic in that shipbuilding and repair is a sound profession with an increasing market; pessimistic in that environmental restraints are greatly increasing operating costs and decreasing profit margins. There is a need for better dialog between industry and the private sector."

- During the 1990s, the trend has been for company buyouts and mergers. Do you see that trend continuing and is it healthy for your industry?

Not all of the respondents answered both parts of the above question. From the answers received, three times as many respondents believed the trend for company buyouts and mergers will continue. Several stated, however, that the pace will slow from that of the early 1990s. Besides slowing down, "a certain degree of counteraction, i.e., divestitures, may also begin to take place," according to Plotica. "For the most part, the buyouts and mergers have been healthy by providing resources and growth opportunities to small- to medium-sized companies that would have not been possible otherwise." With regard to it being a positive trend, most respondents agreed with Plotica. In fact, three times as many respondents stated it is a healthy trend as opposed to those who believe it is not good for industry. "Every buyout and merger has victims and winners," one respondent said. "It also creates opportunities. Ultimately the industry does become more efficient, which is healthy." It appeared, however, that respondents who work for welding equipment and consumables manufacturers rather than end users were more likely to consider it a negative trend. "The welding industry is getting smaller every year," one respondent wrote. Another said, "Who's left to buy without creating an antitrust monopoly issue?"

Langdon of Vermeer presented a case for both sides. On the positive side, Langdon said, "Larger companies have more resources for research and development. Also, mergers present a larger buying power and, in some cases, allegiances to manufacturers. Some of the buyouts that we are seeing, especially in the equipment rental industry, could be a real boon to our company." On the negative side, "less competition," he said.

While stating that "company buyouts and mergers can have very positive benefits for the industry and the consumer," Emmerson also put in a word of caution. "To use an overworked phrase," he said, "if there are no 'synergies' between a group of companies beyond the fact that they are associated with the welding industry, the risk is that the performance of small, newly acquired companies will suffer as their original owners bail out and no strong management fills the void."

Sumner voiced the opinion of several respondents when he said, "I believe that these consolidations have fostered an environment that is healthy for the industry with more focused competition between larger manufacturers. This competition is good for all of us to help move the industry forward and provide customer solutions."

Conclusion

Since time machines still exist only in the stories of H. G. Wells and other works of science fiction, no one can tell us exactly how welding will fare in the 21st century. However, the people who responded to the Welding Journal survey represent a cross section of fabricators of welded products and producers of welding equipment and related products. Together they offer a wide range of experience and knowledge. Answering the questions separately, in their respective cities, they still formed a consensus. They agree the future looks promising for welding. It remains and will continue to be a productive, cost-effective manufacturing method. However, steps must be taken to bring more skilled personnel into the industry, or changes must be made to accommodate for the lack of skilled personnel (e.g., welding automation). They also indicated the welding industry must embrace all of the modern-day technological tools to keep pace with the rest of the world.

After reading activity

Continue the list of optimistic and pessimistic scenarios for welding technology development in the future.

"projections for the future are	"but a few gray clouds roam the
generally optimistic "	horizon"
1. Welding is here to stay and will be	1. Designs will be more efficient to
used more in the future.	minimize the amount of welding.
2. The consumer welding market will	2. There will be a decline in the use
continue to provide opportunities for	of gas metal arc (GMAW) and gas
growth.	tungsten arc welding (GTAW).
3	3

Translate the following sentences into Russian:

1. Производители сварочного оборудования, приспособлений и присадочного материала уверены, что их рынок сбыта будет в дальнейшем расширяться.

2. Технологии получения механических соединений будут вытесняться в промышленности полу- и автоматическими технологиями соединений, что приведет к дальнейшему развитию сварки.

3. Для сварки новых металлов потребуется большая точность.

4. Даже на малых предприятиях могут появиться роботы и оборудование с числовым программным управлением.

5. Для успешного развития сварочных технологий необходимо привлекать высококвалифицированный персонал.

6. Стремление к увеличению производительности и сокращению расходов делает необходимым дальнейшую автоматизацию сварочного производства.

7. Поглощение и слияние компаний, занятых в сфере производства сварочного оборудования и расходных материалов, будет в ближайшее время продолжаться.

8. Научные исследования и опытно-конструкторские разработки положительно сказываются на качестве сварочного оборудования и расходных материалах.

9. Сварка в настоящее время остается одним из эффективных и рентабельных технологических процессов.

PART 7. HEALTH, SAFETY AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION

In this part guidelines are given on the principal health and safety considerations to ensure safe welding practices and prevent accidents. Health risks associated with fume and gases generated during welding are highlighted.

Pre reading activity

Think and say:

1. Do you think welding is a dangerous/hazardous profession?

2. What type/types of welding do you consider the most/least hazardous? Why?

Vocabulary

irritation	раздражение
respiratory tract	дыхательные пути
susceptibility	чувствительность; восприимчивость
fever	жар, лихорадка; какое-л. заболевание, основным
	симптомом которого является очень высокая
	температура
tickling	першение (в горле)
chest tightness	стесненное дыхание
flu	грипп
coughing	кашель
limb	конечность (человека или животного)
siderosis	сидероз
pneumonia	воспаление легких, пневмония
pulmonary	отек легких
oedema	
asphyxiation	удушье
exposure	подвергание какому-л. воздействию; выставление,
	оставление на солнце, под дождем и т. п.
cancer	рак

Reading

Text 1. Health Risks of Welding Fume/Gases

What is welding fume/gases?

Welding fume is a mixture of airborne fine particles. Toxic gases may also be generated during welding and cutting.

Particulate fume

More than 90% of the particulate fume arises from vaporisation of the consumable electrode, wire or rod as material is transferred across the arc or flame. The range of



welding particles size is shown in relation to the more familiar types of dust and fume. The respirable fraction of particles (especially less than $3\mu m$) are potentially the more harmful as they can penetrate to the innermost parts of the lung.

Gases

Gases encountered in welding may be:

- Fuel gases which, on combustion, form carbon dioxide and, if the flame is reducing, carbon monoxide;

- Shielding gases such as argon, helium and carbon dioxide, either alone or in mixtures with oxygen or hydrogen;

- Carbon dioxide and monoxide produced by the action of heat on the welding flux or slag;

- Nitric oxide, nitrogen dioxide and ozone produced by the action of heat or ultraviolet radiation on the atmosphere surrounding the welding arc;

- Gases from the degradation of solvent vapours or surface contaminants on the metal.

The degree of risk to the welder's health from fume/gases will depend on composition, concentration, the length of time the welder is exposed, the welder's **susceptibility**.

Health hazards from particulate fume

The potential hazards from breathing in particulate fume are:



1. Irritation of the respiratory tract. Fine particles can cause dryness of the throat, **tickling**, **coughing** and if the concentration is particularly high, tightness of the chest and difficulty in breathing.

2. Metal fume fever. Breathing in metal oxides such as zinc and copper can lead to an acute flu-like illness called 'metal fume fever'. It most commonly

occurs when welding galvanised steel; symptoms usually begin several hours

after exposure with a thirst, cough, headache, sweat, pain in the **limbs** and fever. Complete recovery usually occurs within 1 to 2 days of removal from the exposure, without any lasting effects.

3. Longer term effects. The continued inhalation of welding fume over long periods of time can lead to the deposition of iron particles in the lung, giving rise to a benign condition called **siderosis**. There is evidence that welders have a slightly greater risk of developing lung **cancer** than the general population. In certain welding situations, there is potential for the fume to contain certain forms of chromium and/or nickel compounds - substances which have been associated with lung cancer in processes other than welding. As yet, no direct link has been clearly established. Nevertheless, as a sensible precaution and to minimise the risk, special attention should be paid to controlling fumes which may contain them.

Additional hazards

A number of other specific substances known to be hazardous to health can be found in welding fume such as barium and fluorides which do not originate from the metal. If the metal contains a surface coating, there will also be a potential risk from any toxic substances generated by thermal degradation of the coating.

Health hazards from gases

The potential hazards from breathing in gases during welding are:

1. Irritation of the respiratory tract. Ozone can cause delayed irritation of the respiratory tract which may progress to bronchitis and occasionally pneumonia. Nitrogen oxides can cause a dry irritating cough and **chest tightness**. Symptoms usually occur after a delay of 4 to 8 hours. In severe cases, death can occur from **pulmonary oedema** (fluid on the lungs) or **pneumonia**.

2. Asphyxiation. There may be a risk of asphyxiation due to replacement of air with gases produced when welding in a workshop or area with inadequate ventilation. Special precautions are needed when welding in confined spaces where there is the risk of the build up of inert shielding gases. Carbon monoxide, formed as a result of incomplete combustion of fuel gases, can also cause asphyxiation by replacing the oxygen in the blood.

Establishing safe levels of fume in the workplace

The COSHH Regulations* require that **exposure** is controlled below specific limits. The limits, known as occupational exposure limits, are detailed in EH 40 which is revised periodically. The majority of limits listed are for single substances. Only a few relate to substances which are complex mixtures; welding fume is one of these. It has an occupational exposure limit but account must also be taken of the exposure limits of the individual constituents. So, in considering what would be safe exposure levels to welding fume, not only should exposure be controlled to within the welding fume limit but also the individual components must be controlled to within their own limits. The assessment of exposure to fume from welding processes is covered in EH 54.

Substances may have a maximum exposure limit (MEL) or an occupation exposure standard (OES).

A MEL is the maximum concentration of an airborne substance to which people may be exposed under any circumstances. Exposure must be reduced as far as is reasonably practicable and at least below any MEL.

An OES is the concentration of an airborne substance, for which (according to current information) there is no evidence that it is likely to cause harm to a person's health , even if they are exposed day after day. Control is thought to be adequate if exposure is reduced to or below the standard.

The OESs and the MELs of some of the substances found in welding fume are listed in Table below; the absence of other substances from this list does not indicate that they are safe.

	8hr TWA	15 min STEL
Substances Assigned a Maximum Exposure Limit		
Beryllium	0.002 mg/m ³	
Cadmium oxide fume (as Cd)	0.025 mg/m ³	
Chromium VI compounds (as Cr)	0.05 mg/m	
Cobalt	0.1 mg/m^{3}	
Nickel (insoluble compounds)	0.5 mg/m 3	
Substances Assigned an Occupational Exposure Standard		

Table. Occupational Exposure Limits

Welding fume	5 mg/m^3	
Fluoride (as F)	2.5 mg/m 3	
Iron oxide, fume (as Fe)	5 mg/m^3	10 mg/m 3
Zinc oxide, fume	5 mg/m^3	10 mg/m 3
Manganese, fume (as Mn)	0.5 mg/m 3	
Ozone		0.2 ppm
Nitric Oxide	1 ppm	
Nitrogen dioxide	1 ppm	
Chromium III compounds (as Cr)	0.5 mg/m 3	
Barium compounds, soluble (as Ba)	0.5 mg/m 3	
Carbon monoxide	50 ppm	300 ppm
Copper fume	0.2 mg/m 3	

If the fume contains only substances such as iron or aluminium which are of low toxicity, an 8 hour (TWA) OES of 5mg/m3 applies; this figure is the average concentration of particulate fume that should not be exceeded in an 8 hour day.

* Control of Substances Hazadous to Health (COSHH) Regulations. The Control of Substances Hazardous to Health (COSSH) Regulations 2002 require employers to monitor the safe use of chemicals and hazardous substances at work. It requires them to: control exposure to hazardous substances to prevent ill health both now and any future cumulative effects they may have, protect both employees and others who might be exposed, compile records of employees using these materials, supply employees with suitable personal protective equipment.

After reading activity

Think of Russian equivalents for the following word combinations from the text:

Innermost parts of the lung, fuel gas, fine particles, respirable fraction of particles, carbon dioxide, ultraviolet radiation, galvanised steel, lasting effects, welding situations, lung cancer, sensible precaution, surface coating, general population, inadequate ventilation, risk of the build up of inert shielding gases, incomplete combustion, occupational exposure limit, to cause harm to a person's health.

Speaking

True or false?

1. The smaller the particles the more harmful the fume is.

2. The risk to the welder's health from fume or gases depends on the welding arc.

3. Welders have lung cancer more often than the general population.

4. Asphyxiation may happen due to inadequate ventilation.

5. Metal fume fever is an incurable illness.

Fill in the gaps in the following sentences or complete them:

1. Argon is a ... gas.

2. Particulate fume is very ... for man's health.

3. When exposed to particulate fume of high concentration for a long time, a welder may

4. Welding galvanised steel may cause

5. Asphyxiation may happen due to

6. To minimise the risk, special attention should be paid to controlling fumes which may contain chromium or ... compounds.

7. In case of metal fume fever, recovery occurs soon after removal of the welder from the exposure.

8. ... is a disease caused by fluid on the lungs.

9. MEL means maximum ... limit.

10. OES is ... exposure standard.

11. Gases encountered in welding are

Answer the following questions:

1. What is the difference between welding fume and welding gas?

2. What does the major part of the particulate fume arise from?

3. What does the degree of risk to the welder's health from fume or gases depend on?

4. Under what condition is control over the exposure of welders to hazardous fumes or gases considered adequate?

5. Do the COSHH Regulations state only single substances?

Vocabulary

bare spot	оголенный участок
wire feeder	механизм подачи (электродной или присадочной)
	проволоки
ground	1) заземление, замыкание на землю 2) соединение на
connection	корпус
power	переключатель мощности
switch	
rupture	а) пробой (изоляции) б) излом, разрушение, разрыв
confined	замкнутый объём, замкнутое пространство
space	
exhaust	вытяжной шкаф; вытяжной колпак
hood	

Reading

Text 2. Safety and Scheduled Maintenance Protect Your Welding Assets

Q: What can I do to avoid electrical shocks?

A: Wet working conditions must be avoided, because water is an excellent conductor and electricity will always follow the path of least resistance. Even a person's perspiration can lower the body's resistance to electrical shock. Poor connections and **bare spots** on cables further increase the possibility of electrical shock, and therefore, daily inspection of these items is recommended. Equipment operators should also routinely inspect for proper **ground connections**.

Q: How can I inspect and maintain my wire feeder?

A: Periodically inspect the electrode wire drive rolls. If dirty, remove the drive rolls and clean with a wire brush. Deformed drive rolls should be replaced. Drive rolls should be changed, adjusted or cleaned only when the wire feeder is shut off. In addition, check the inlet and outlet guides and replace if they are deformed from wire wear. Remember that when power is applied to a wire feeder, fingers should be kept away from the drive roll area.

Q: What are some important electrode safety considerations?

A: Welding power sources for use with MIG and TIG welding normally are equipped with devices that permit on/off control of the welding power output. If so, the electrode becomes electrically hot when the power source switch is ON and the welding gun switch is closed. Never touch the electrode wire or any conducting object in contact with the electrode circuit, unless the welding power source is off. Welding power sources used for shielded metal arc welding (SMAW or Stick welding) may not be equipped with welding power
output on/off control devices. With such equipment, the electrode is electrically hot when the **power switch** is turned ON.

Q: How should I store my gas cylinders?

A: Cylinders should be securely fastened at all times. Chains are usually used to secure a cylinder to a wall or cylinder cart. When moving or storing a cylinder, a threaded protector cap must be fastened to the top of the cylinder. This protects the valve system should it be bumped or dropped. Cylinders should not be stored or used in a horizontal position. This is because some cylinders contain a liquid which would leak out or be forced out if the cylinder was laid in a flat position. Also, welding guns and other cables should not be hung on or near cylinders. A gun could cause an arc against the cylinder wall or valve assembly, possibly resulting in a weakened cylinder or even a **rupture**.

Q: How can I tell if my regulator is faulty?

A: The following symptoms indicate a faulty regulator:

Leaks - if gas leaks externally.

Excessive creep - if delivery pressure continues to rise with the downstream valve closed.

Faulty gauge - if gauge pointer does not move off the stop pin when pressurized, nor returns to the stop pin after pressure release. Do not attempt to repair a faulty regulator. It should be sent to your designated repair center, where special techniques and tools are used by trained personnel.

Q: What are some tips for a safe welding environment?

A: The area surrounding the welder will be subjected to light, heat, smoke, sparks and fumes. Permanent booths or portable partitions can be used to contain light rays in one area. The heat and sparks given off are capable of setting flammable materials on fire. Therefore, welding should not be done in areas containing flammable gases, vapors, liquids or dusty locations where explosions are a possibility. Metals with plating, coatings or paint that come near the region of the arc may give off smoke and fumes during welding. These fumes may pose a health hazard to the lungs, therefore an **exhaust hood** or booth should be used to remove fumes from the area. When welding in **confined spaces**, such as inside tanks, large containers or even compartments of a ship, toxic fumes may gather. Also, in an enclosed room, breathable oxygen can be replaced by shielding gases used for welding or purging. Care must be taken to ensure enough clean air for breathing. In many companies, it is routine to provide welders with air masks or self-contained breathing equipment.

Q: How should an operator dress for optimum safety?

A: Gloves and clothing should be flame-resistant. Clothing made from a dark-colored, tightly woven material is best suited for welding. Gauntlet-type

leather gloves should be worn to protect the hands and wrists. Shirt collars and shirt cuffs should be buttoned, and open front pockets are not advisable as they may catch sparks. Also, operators should never store matches or lighters in their pockets. Pants cuffs are not recommended, as they will also catch sparks. Tennis shoes do not qualify as adequate foot protection. Hightop leather shoes or boots are absolutely necessary.

Q: Is there a daily maintenance schedule I should follow?

A: Below is a general engine drive routine daily maintenance schedule, but it should be modified according to a company's specific conditions. By following a regimen of appropriate and thorough maintenance and safety, a welder from Miller Electric can run dependably for decades. Designed to withstand rough use, these machines use high quality components and are tested for durability.

After reading activity

Find the Russian equivalents for the following English word combinations: electrical shock, daily inspection, wire brush, power sources, flammable gases, cylinder cart, toxic fumes, open front pockets, toxic substances, flat position, airborne substance, trained personnel, air mask, flame-resistant.

Find the English equivalents in the text for the following word combinations: путь наименьшего сопротивления, поражение электрическим током, соображения безопасности, защитный колпак, обученный персонал, наносить вред, грубое обращение.

Speaking

Answer each of the above questions in just one sentence:

Model: Q: What can I do to avoid electrical shocks?

A: To avoid electrical shocks you should not operate in wet working conditions check your circuit for poor connections and bare spots.

Look at a Maintenance Schedule Chart below and say what a welder should do in terms of maintenance:

- once a working day;
- once a week;
- once a month.

Maintenance Schedule Chart

8 Hours	Wipe up oil and fuel spills immediately	
	Check fluid levels (oil & fuel)	
	Service the air filter (refer to engine manual for specifics)	
50 Hours	Service air filter element (refer to engine manual for specifics)	
	Clean and tighten weld terminals	
100	Change oil	
Hours	Change oil filter (refer to engine manual for specifics)	
	Clean and tighten battery connections	
	Clean cooling system (refer to engine manual for specifics)	
200	Replace unreadable labels (order from parts list)	
Hours	Replace fuel filter	
	Check valve clearance (refer to engine manual for specifics)	
250	Check and clean spark arrestor	
Hours		
500	Tape or replace cracked cables	
Hours	Clean/Set injectors (refer to engine manual for specifics)	
1000	Blow out or vacuum inside equipment. During heavy service, do	
Hours	this monthly.	

Answer the following questions:

1. What should be inspected daily by a welding operator to avoid electric shock?

2. What should be cleaned/ changed/ replaced while maintaining wire feeder?

3. Why shouldn't you touch the electrode wire when the welding power source is on?

- 4. Why shouldn't cylinders be stored or used in a horizontal position?
- 5. Should you try to repair a faulty regulator yourself?
- 6. What are booths and partitions used for?

7. What shouldn't a welder store in his pockets?

Writing

Summarize the information of the text using the following incomplete sentences as a plan:

1. To avoid electrical shocks a welder should/shouldn't... (inspect, repair, etc.)

2. The following things should be remembered when inspecting and maintaining wire feeder

3. To use and store electrodes safely, one should/shouldn't

4. Gas cylinders should be stored in the following way:

5. If the regulator is faulty, you can observe the following:

6. Safe welding environment is obtained by

7. Welding operators should be dressed in

8. To keep welding equipment running for decades, operator should do some operations on a regular basis, such as

APPENDIX 1. WELDING THEORY & APPLICATION DEFINITIONS

ACETONE:

A flammable, volatile liquid used in acetylene cylinders to dissolve and stabilize acetylene under high pressure.

ACETYLENE:

A highly combustible gas composed of carbon and hydrogen. Used as a fuel gas in the oxyacetylene welding process.

ACTUAL THROAT:

See THROAT OF FILLET WELD.

AIR-ACETYLENE:

A low temperature flare produced by burning acetylene with air instead of oxygen.

AIR-ARC CUTTING:

An arc cutting process in which metals to be cut are melted by the heat of the carbon arc.

ALLOY:

A mixture with metallic properties composed of two or more elements, of which at least one is a metal.

ALTERNATING CURRENT:

An electric current that reverses its direction at regularly recurring intervals.

AMMETER:

An instrument for measuring electrical current in amperes by an indicator activated by the movement of a coil in a magnetic field or by the longitudinal expansion of a wire carrying the current.

ANNEALING:

A comprehensive term used to describe the heating and cooling cycle of steel in the solid state. The term annealing usually implies relatively slow cooling. In annealing, the temperature of the operation, the rate of heating and cooling, and the time the metal is held at heat depend upon the composition, shape, and size of the steel product being treated, and the purpose of the treatment. The more important purposes for which steel is annealed are as follows: to remove stresses; to induce softness; to alter ductility, toughness, electric, magnetic, or other physical and mechanical properties; to change the crystalline structure; to remove gases; and to produce a definite microstructure.

ARC BLOW:

The deflection of an electric arc from its normal path because of magnetic forces.

ARC BRAZING:

A brazing process wherein the heat is obtained from an electric arc formed between the base metal and an electrode, or between two electrodes.

ARC CUTTING:

A group of cutting processes in which the cutting of metals is accomplished by melting with the heat of an arc between the electrode and the base metal. See CARBON-ARC CUTTING, METAL-ARC CUTTING, ARC-OXYGEN CUTTING, AND AIR-ARC CUTTING.

ARC LENGTH:

The distance between the tip of the electrode and the weld puddle. ARC-OXYGEN CUTTING:

An oxygen-cutting process used to sever metals by a chemical reaction of oxygen with a base metal at elevated temperatures.

ARC VOLTAGE:

The voltage across the welding arc.

ARC WELDING:

A group of welding processes in which fusion is obtained by heating with an electric arc or arcs, with or without the use of filler metal.

AS WELDED:

The condition of weld metal, welded joints, and weldments after welding and prior to any subsequent thermal, mechanical, or chemical treatments.

ATOMIC HYDROGEN WELDING:

An arc welding process in which fusion is obtained by heating with an arc maintained between two metal electrodes in an atmosphere of

hydrogen. Pressure and/or filler metal may or may not be used.

AUSTENITE:

The non-magnetic form of iron characterized by a face-centered cubic lattice crystal structure. It is produced by heating steel above the upper

critical temperature and has a high solid solubility for carbon and alloying elements.

AXIS OF A WELD:

A line through the length of a weld, perpendicular to a cross section at its center of gravity.

BACK FIRE:

The momentary burning back of a flame into the tip, followed by a snap or pop, then immediate reappearance or burning out of the flame. BACK PASS:

A pass made to deposit a back weld.

BACK UP:

In flash and upset welding, a locator used to transmit all or a portion of the upsetting force to the workpieces.

BACK WELD:

A weld deposited at the back of a single groove weld.

BACKHAND WELDING:

A welding technique in which the flame is directed towards the completed weld.

BACKING STRIP:

A piece of material used to retain molten metal at the root of the weld and/or increase the thermal capacity of the joint so as to prevent excessive warping of the base metal.

BACKING WELD:

A weld bead applied to the root of a single groove joint to assure complete root penetration.

BACKSTEP:

A sequence in which weld bead increments are deposited in a direction opposite to the direction of progress.

BARE ELECTRODE:

An arc welding electrode that has no coating other than that incidental to the drawing of the wire.

BARE METAL-ARC WELDING:

An arc welding process in which fusion is obtained by heating with an unshielded arc between a bare or lightly coated electrode and the work. Pressure is not used and filler metal is obtained from the electrode.

BASE METAL:

The metal to be welded or cut. In alloys, it is the metal present in the largest proportion.

BEAD WELD:

A type of weld composed of one or more string or weave beads deposited on an unbroken surface.

BEADING:

See STRING BEAD WELDING and WEAVE BEAD.

BEVEL ANGLE:

The angle formed between the prepared edge of a member and a plane perpendicular to the surface of the member.

BLACKSMITH WELDING:

See FORGE WELDING.

BLOCK BRAZING:

A brazing process in which bonding is produced by the heat obtained from heated blocks applied to the parts to be joined and by a nonferrous filler metal having a melting point above 800 °F (427 °C), but below that of the base metal. The filler metal is distributed in the joint by capillary attraction.

BLOCK SEQUENCE:

A building up sequence of continuous multipass welds in which separated lengths of the weld are completely or partially built up before intervening lengths are deposited. See BUILDUP SEQUENCE.

BLOW HOLE:

see GAS POCKET.

BOND:

The junction of the welding metal and the base metal.

BOXING:

The operation of continuing a fillet weld around a corner of a member as an extension of the principal weld.

BRAZING:

A group of welding processes in which a groove, fillet, lap, or flange joint is bonded by using a nonferrous filler metal having a melting point above 800 °F (427 °C), but below that of the base metals. Filler metal is distributed in the joint by capillary attraction.

BRAZE WELDING:

A method of welding by using a filler metal that liquefies above 450 °C (842 °F) and below the solid state of the base metals. Unlike brazing, in braze welding, the filler metal is not distributed in the joint by capillary action.

BRIDGING:

A welding defect caused by poor penetration. A void at the root of the weld is spanned by weld metal.

BUCKLING:

Distortion caused by the heat of a welding process. BUILDUP SEQUENCE: The order in which the weld beads of a multipass weld are deposited with respect to the cross section of a joint. See BLOCK SEQUENCE.

BUTT JOINT:

A joint between two workpieces in such a manner that the weld joining the parts is between the surface planes of both of the pieces joined. BUTT WELD:

A weld in a butt joint.

BUTTER WELD:

A weld caused of one or more string or weave beads laid down on an unbroken surface to obtain desired properties or dimensions.

CAPILLARY ATTRACTION:

The phenomenon by which adhesion between the molten filler metal and the base metals, together with surface tension of the molten filler metal, causes distribution of the filler metal between the properly fitted surfaces of the joint to be brazed.

CARBIDE PRECIPITATION:

A condition occurring in austenitic stainless steel which contains carbon in a supersaturated solid solution. This condition is unstable. Agitation of the steel during welding causes the excess carbon in solution to precipitate. This effect is also called weld decay.

CARBON-ARC CUTTING:

A process of cutting metals with the heat of an arc between a carbon electrode and the work.

CARBON-ARC WELDING:

A welding process in which fusion is produced by an arc between a carbon electrode and the work. Pressure and/or filler metal and/or shielding may or may not be used.

CARBONIZING FLAME:

An oxyacetylene flame in which there is an excess of acetylene. Also called excess acetylene or reducing flame.

CASCADE SEQUENCE: Subsequent beads are stopped short of a previous bead, giving a cascade effect.

CASE HARDENING:

A process of surface hardening involving a change in the composition of the outer layer of an iron base alloy by inward diffusion from a gas or liquid, followed by appropriate thermal treatment. Typical hardening processes are carbonizing, cyaniding, carbonitriding, and nitriding.

CHAIN INTERMITTENT FILLET WELDS:

Two lines of intermittent fillet welds in a T or lap joint in which the welds in one line are approximately opposite those in the other line. CHAMFERING:

The preparation of a welding contour, other than for a square groove weld, on the edge of a joint member.

COALESCENCE:

The uniting or fusing of metals upon heating. COATED ELECTRODE:

An electrode having a flux applied externally by dipping, spraying, painting, or other similar methods. Upon burning, the coat produces a gas which envelopes the arc.

COMMUTORY CONTROLLED WELDING:

The making of a number of spot or projection welds in which several electrodes, in simultaneous contact with the work, progressively function under the control of an electrical commutating device.

COMPOSITE ELECTRODE:

A filler metal electrode used in arc welding, consisting of more than one metal component combined mechanically. It may or may not include materials that improve the properties of the weld, or stabilize the arc.

COMPOSITE JOINT:

A joint in which both a thermal and mechanical process are used to unite the base metal parts.

CONCAVITY:

The maximum perpendicular distance from the face of a concave weld to a line joining the toes.

CONCURRENT HEATING:

Supplemental heat applied to a structure during the course of welding. CONE:

The conical part of a gas flame next to the orifice of the tip. CONSUMABLE INSERT:

Preplaced filler metal which is completely fused into the root of the joint and becomes part of the weld.

CONVEXITY:

The maximum perpendicular distance from the face of a convex fillet weld to a line joining the toes.

CORNER JOINT:

A joint between two members located approximately at right angles to each other in the form of an L.

COVER GLASS:

A clear glass used in goggles, hand shields, and helmets to protect the filter glass from spattering material.

COVERED ELECTRODE:

A metal electrode with a covering material which stabilizes the arc and improves the properties of the welding metal. The material may be an external wrapping of paper, asbestos, and other materials or a flux covering.

CRACK:

A fracture type discontinuity characterized by a sharp tip and high ratio of length and width to opening displacement.

CRATER:

A depression at the termination of an arc weld.

CRITICAL TEMPERATURE:

The transition temperature of a substance from one crystalline form to another.

CURRENT DENSITY:

Amperes per square inch of the electrode cross sectional area. CUTTING TIP:

A gas torch tip especially adapted for cutting.

CUTTING TORCH:

A device used in gas cutting for controlling the gases used for preheating and the oxygen used for cutting the metal.

CYLINDER:

A portable cylindrical container used for the storage of a compressed gas.

DEFECT:

A discontinuity or discontinuities which, by nature or accumulated effect (for example, total crack length), render a part or product unable to meet the minimum applicable acceptance standards or specifications. This term designates rejectability.

DEPOSITED METAL:

Filler metal that has been added during a welding operation. DEPOSITION EFFICIENCY:

The ratio of the weight of deposited metal to the net weight of electrodes consumed, exclusive of stubs.

DEPTH OF FUSION:

The distance from the original surface of the base metal to that point at which fusion ceases in a welding operation.

DIE:

a. <u>Resistance Welding</u>. A member, usually shaped to the work contour, used to clamp the parts being welded and conduct the welding current.
b. <u>Forge Welding</u>. A device used in forge welding primarily to form the work while hot and apply the necessary pressure.

DIE WELDING:

A forge welding process in which fusion is produced by heating in a furnace and by applying pressure by means of dies.

DIP BRAZING:

A brazing process in which bonding is produced by heating in a molten chemical or metal bath and by using a nonferrous filler metal having a melting point above 800 °F (427 °C), but below that of the base metals. The filler metal is distributed in the joint by capillary attraction. When a metal bath is used, the bath provides the filler metal.

DIRECT CURRENT ELECTRODE NEGATIVE (DCEN):

The arrangement of direct current arc welding leads in which the work is the positive pole and the electrode is the negative pole of the welding arc.

DIRECT CURRENT ELECTRODE POSITIVE (DCEP):

The arrangement of direct current arc welding leads in which the work is the negative pole and the electrode is the positive pole of the welding arc.

DISCONTINUITY:

An interruption of the typical structure of a weldment, such as lack of homogeneity in the mechanical, metallurgical, or physical characteristics of the material or weldment. A discontinuity is not necessarily a defect.

DRAG:

The horizontal distance between the point of entrance and the point of exit of a cutting oxygen stream.

DUCTILITY:

The property of a metal which allows it to be permanently deformed, in tension, before final rupture. Ductility is commonly evaluated by tensile testing in which the amount of elongation and the reduction of area of the broken specimen, as compared to the original test specimen, are measured and calculated.

DUTY CYCLE:

The percentage of time during an arbitrary test period, usually 10 minutes, during which a power supply can be operated at its rated output without overloading.

EDGE JOINT:

A joint between the edges of two or more parallel or nearly parallel members.

EDGE PREPARATION:

The contour prepared on the edge of a joint member for welding. EFFECTIVE LENGTH OF WELD: The length of weld throughout which the correctly proportioned cross section exits.

ELECTRODE:

a. <u>Metal-Arc</u>. Filler metal in the form of a wire or rod, whether bare or covered, through which current is conducted between the electrode holder and the arc.

b. <u>Carbon-Arc</u>. A carbon or graphite rod through which current is conducted between the electrode holder and the arc.

c.<u>Atomic</u>. One of the two tungsten rods between the points of which the arc is maintained.

d. <u>Electrolytic Oxygen-Hydrogen Generation</u>. The conductors by which current enters and leaves the water, which is decomposed by the passage of the current.

e. <u>Resistance Welding</u>. The part or parts of a resistance welding machine through which the welding current and the pressure are applied directly to the work.

ELECTRODE FORCE:

a. <u>Dynamic</u>. In spot, seam, and projection welding, the force (pounds) between the electrodes during the actual welding cycle.

b. <u>Theoretical</u>. In spot, seam, and projection welding, the force, neglecting friction and inertia, available at the electrodes of a resistance welding machine by virtue of the initial force application and the theoretical mechanical advantage of the system.

c. <u>Static</u>. In spot, seam, and projection welding, the force between the electrodes under welding conditions, but with no current flowing and no movement in the welding machine.

ELECTRODE HOLDER:

A device used for mechanically holding the electrode and conduct- ing current to it.

ELECTRODE SKID:

The sliding of an electrode along the surface of the work during spot, seam, or projection welding.

EMBOSSMENT:

A rise or protrusion from the surface of a metal.

ETCHING:

A process of preparing metallic specimens and welds for macrographic or micrographic examination.

FACE REINFORCEMENT:

Reinforcement of weld at the side of the joint from which welding was done.

FACE OF WELD:

The exposed surface of a weld, made by an arc or gas welding process, on the side from which welding was done.

FAYING SURFACE:

That surface of a member that is in contact with another member to which it is joined.

FERRITE:

The virtually pure form of iron existing below the lower critical temperature and characterized by a body-centered cubic lattice crystal structure. It is magnetic and has very slight solid solubility for carbon.

FILLER METAL:

Metal to be added in making a weld.

FILLET WELD:

A weld of approximately triangular cross section, as used in a lap joint, joining two surfaces at approximately right angles to each other.

FILTER GLASS:

A colored glass used in goggles, helmets, and shields to exclude harmful light rays.

FLAME CUTTING:

see OXYGEN CUTTING.

FLAME GOUGING:

See OXYGEN GOUGING.

FLAME HARDENING:

A method for hardening a steel surface by heating with a gas flame followed by a rapid quench.

FLAME SOFTENING:

A method for softening steel by heating with a gas flame followed by slow cooling.

FLASH:

Metal and oxide expelled from a joint made by a resistance welding process.

FLASH WELDING:

A resistance welding process in which fusion is produced, simultaneously over the entire area of abutting surfaces, by the heat obtained from resistance to the flow of current between two surfaces and by the application of pressure after heating is substantially completed. Flashing is accompanied by expulsion of metal from the joint.

FLASHBACK:

The burning of gases within the torch or beyond the torch in the hose, usually with a shrill, hissing sound.

FLAT POSITION:

The position in which welding is performed from the upper side of the joint and the face of the weld is approximately horizontal.

FILM BRAZING:

A process in which bonding is produced by heating with a molten nonferrous filler metal poured over the joint until the brazing temperature is attained. The filler metal is distributed in the joint by capillary attraction. See BRAZING.

FLOW WELDING:

A process in which fusion is produced by heating with molten filler metal poured over the surfaces to be welded until the welding temperature is attained and the required filler metal has been added. The filler metal is not distributed in the joint by capillary attraction.

FLUX:

A cleaning agent used to dissolve oxides, release trapped gases and slag, and to cleanse metals for welding, soldering, and brazing.

FOREHAND WELDING:

A gas welding technique in which the flare is directed against the base metal ahead of the completed weld.

FORGE WELDING:

A group of welding processes in which fusion is produced by heating in a forge or furnace and applying pressure or blows.

FREE BEND TEST:

A method of testing weld specimens without the use of a guide. FULL FILLET WELD:

A fillet weld whose size is equal to the thickness of the thinner member joined.

FURNACE BRAZING:

A process in which bonding is produced by the furnace heat and a nonferrous filler metal having a melting point above 800 °F (427 °C), but below that of the base metals. The filler metal is distributed in the joint by capillary attraction.

FUSION:

A thorough and complete mixing between the two edges of the base metal to be joined or between the base metal and the filler metal added during welding.

FUSION ZONE (FILLER PENETRATION):

The area of base metal melted as determined on the cross section of a weld.

GAS CARBON-ARC WELDING:

An arc welding process in which fusion is produced by heating with an electric arc between a carbon electrode and the work. Shielding is

obtained from an inert gas such as helium or argon. Pressure and/or filler metal may or may not be used.

GAS METAL-ARC (MIG) WELDING (GMAW):

An arc welding process in which fusion is produced by heating with an electric arc between a metal electrode and the work. Shielding is obtained from an inert gas such as helium or argon. Pressure and/or filler metal may or my not be used.

GAS POCKET:

A weld cavity caused by the trapping of gases released by the metal when cooling.

GAS TUNGSTEN-ARC (TIG) WELDING (GTAW):

An arc welding process in which fusion is produced by heating with an electric arc between a tungsten electrode and the work while an inert gas forms around the weld area to prevent oxidation. No flux is used.

GAS WELDING:

A process in which the welding heat is obtained from a gas flame. GLOBULAR TRANSFER (ARC WELDING):

A type of metal transfer in which molten filler metal is transferred across the arc in large droplets.

GOGGLES:

A device with colored lenses which protect the eyes from harmful radiation during welding and cutting operations.

GROOVE:

The opening provided between two members to be joined by a groove weld.

GROOVE ANGLE:

The total included angle of the groove between parts to be joined by a groove weld.

GROOVE FACE:

That surface of a member included in the groove.

GROOVE RADIUS:

The radius of a J or U groove.

GROOVE WELD:

A weld made by depositing filler metal in a groove between two members to be joined.

GROUND CONNECTION:

The connection of the work lead to the work.

GROUND LEAD:

See WORK LEAD.

GUIDED BEND TEST:

A bending test in which the test specimen is bent to a definite shape by means of a jig.

HAMMER WELDING:

A forge welding process.

HAND SHIELD:

A device used in arc welding to protect the face and neck. It is equipped with a filter glass lens and is designed to be held by hand.

HARD FACING:

A particular form of surfacing in which a coating or cladding is applied to a surface for the main purpose of reducing wear or loss of material by abrasion, impact, erosion, galling, and cavitations.

HARD SURFACING:

The application of a hard, wear-resistant alloy to the surface of a softer metal.

HARDENING:

a. The heating and quenching of certain iron-base alloys from a temperature above the critical temperature range for the purpose of producing a hardness superior to that obtained when the alloy is not quenched. This term is usually restricted to the formation of martensite.

b. Any process of increasing the hardness of metal by suitable treatment, usually involving heating and cooling.

HEAT AFFECTED ZONE:

That portion of the base metal whose structure or properties have been changed by the heat of welding or cutting.

HEAT TIME:

The duration of each current impulse in pulse welding.

HEAT TREATMENT:

An operation or combination of operations involving the heating and cooling of a metal or an alloy in the solid state for the purpose of obtaining certain desirable conditions or properties. Heating and cooling for the sole purpose of mechanical working are excluded from the meaning of the definition.

HEATING GATE:

The opening in a thermit mold through which the parts to be welded are preheated.

HELMET:

A device used in arc welding to protect the face and neck. It is

equipped with a filter glass and is designed to be worn on the head. HOLD TIME: The time that pressure is maintained at the electrodes after the welding current has stopped.

HORIZONTAL WELD:

A bead or butt welding process with its linear direction horizontal or inclined at an angle less than 45 degrees to the horizontal, and the parts welded being vertically or approximately vertically disposed.

HORN:

The electrode holding arm of a resistance spot welding machine. HORN SPACING:

In a resistance welding machine, the unobstructed work clearance between horns or platens at right angles to the throat depth. This distance is measured with the horns parallel and horizontal at the end of the downstroke.

HOT SHORT:

A condition which occurs when a metal is heated to that point, prior to melting, where all strength is lost but the shape is still maintained.

HYDROGEN BRAZING:

A method of furnace brazing in a hydrogen atmosphere.

HYDROMATIC WELDING:

See PRESSURE CONTROLLED WELDING.

HYGROSCOPIC:

Readily absorbing and retaining moisture.

IMPACT TEST:

A test in which one or more blows are suddenly applied to a specimen. The results are usually expressed in terms of energy absorbed or number of blows of a given intensity required to break the specimen.

IMPREGNATED-TAPE METAL-ARC WELDING

An arc welding process in which fusion is produced by heating with an electric arc between a metal electrode and the work. Shielding is obtained from decomposition of impregnated tape wrapped around the electrode as it is fed to the arc. Pressure is not used, and filler metal is obtained from the electrode.

INDUCTION BRAZING:

A process in which bonding is produced by the heat obtained from the resistance of the work to the flow of induced electric current and by using a nonferrous filler metal having a melting point above 800 °F (427 °C), but below that of the base metals. The filler metal is distributed in the joint by capillary attraction.

INDUCTION WELDING:

A process in which fusion is produced by heat obtained from resistance of the work to the flow of induced electric current, with or without the application of pressure.

INERT GAS:

A gas which does not normally combine chemically with the base metal or filler metal.

INTERPASS TEMPERATURE:

In a multipass weld, the lowest temperature of the deposited weld meal before the next pass is started.

JOINT:

The portion of a structure in which separate base metal parts are joined.

JOINT PENETRATION:

The maximum depth a groove weld extends from its face into a joint, exclusive of reinforcement.

KERF:

The space from which metal has been removed by a cutting process. LAP JOINT:

A joint between two overlapping members.

LAYER:

A stratum of weld metal, consisting of one or more weld beads. LEG OF A FILLET WELD:

The distance from the root of the joint to the toe of the fillet weld. LIQUIDUS:

The lowest temperature at which a metal or an alloy is completely liquid.

LOCAL PREHEATING:

Preheating a specific portion of a structure.

LOCAL STRESS RELIEVING:

Stress relieving heat treatment of a specific portion of a structure. MANIFOLD:

A multiple header for connecting several cylinders to one or more torch supply lines.

MARTENSITE:

Martensite is a microconstituent or structure in quenched steel characterized by an acicular or needle-like pattern on the surface of polish. It has the maximum hardness of any of the structures resulting from the decomposition products of austenite.

MASH SEAM WELDING:

A seam weld made in a lap joint in which the thickness at the lap is reduced to approximately the thickness of one of the lapped joints by applying pressure while the metal is in a plastic state.

MELTING POINT:

The temperature at which a metal begins to liquefy. MELTING RANGE:

The temperature range between solidus and liquidus.

MELTING RATE:

The weight or length of electrode melted in a unit of time.

METAL-ARC CUTTING:

The process of cutting metals by melting with the heat of the metal arc. METAL-ARC WELDING:

An arc welding process in which a metal electrode is held so that the heat of the arc fuses both the electrode and the work to form a weld.

METALLIZING:

A method of overlay or metal bonding to repair worn parts. MIXING CHAMBER:

That part of a welding or cutting torch in which the gases are mixed for combustion.

MULTI-IMPULSE WELDING:

The making of spot, projection, and upset welds by more than one impulse of current. When alternating current is used each impulse may consist of a fraction of a cycle or a number of cycles.

NEUTRAL FLAME:

A gas flame in which the oxygen and acetylene volumes are balanced and both gases are completely burned.

NICK BREAK TEST:

A method for testing the soundness of welds by nicking each end of the weld, then giving the test specimen a sharp hammer blow to break the weld from nick to nick. Visual inspection will show any weld defects.

NONFERROUS:

Metals which contain no iron. Aluminum, brass, bronze, copper, lead, nickel, and titanium are nonferrous.

NORMALIZING:

Heating iron-base alloys to approximately 100 °F (38 °C) above the critical temperature range followed by cooling to below that range in still air at ordinary temperature.

NUGGET:

The fused metal zone of a resistance weld. OPEN CIRCUIT VOLTAGE:

The voltage between the terminals of the welding source when no current is flowing in the welding circuit.

OVERHEAD POSITION:

The position in which welding is performed from the underside of a joint and the face of the weld is approximately horizontal.

OVERLAP:

The protrusion of weld metal beyond the bond at the toe of the weld. OXIDIZING FLAME:

An oxyacetylene flame in which there is an excess of oxygen. The unburned excess tends to oxidize the weld metal.

OXYACETYLENE CUTTING:

An oxygen cutting process in which the necessary cutting temperature is maintained by flames obtained from the combustion of acetylene with oxygen.

OXYACETYLENE WELDING:

A welding process in which the required temperature is attained by flames obtained from the combustion of acetylene with oxygen.

OXY-ARC CUTTING:

An oxygen cutting process in which the necessary cutting temperature is maintained by means of an arc between an electrode and the base metal.

OXY-CITY GAS CUTTING:

An oxygen cutting process in which the necessary cutting temperature is maintained by flames obtained from the combustion of city gas with oxygen.

OXYGEN CUTTING:

A process of cutting ferrous metals by means of the chemical action of oxygen on elements in the base metal at elevated temperatures.

OXYGEN GOUGING:

An application of oxygen cutting in which a chamfer or groove is formed.

OXY-HYDROGEN CUTTING:

An oxygen cutting process in which the necessary cutting temperature is maintained by flames obtained from the combustion of city gas with oxygen.

OXY-HYDROGEN WELDING:

A gas welding process in which the required welding temperature is attained by flames obtained from the combustion of hydrogen with oxygen.

OXY-NATURAL GAS CUTTING:

An oxygen cutting process in which the necessary cutting temperature is maintained by flames obtained by the combustion of natural gas with oxygen.

OXY-PROPANE CUTTING:

An oxygen cutting process in which the necessary cutting temperature is maintained by flames obtained from the combustion of propane with oxygen.

PASS:

The weld metal deposited in one general progression along the axis of the weld.

PEENING:

The mechanical working of metals by means of hammer blows.

Peening tends to stretch the surface of the cold metal, thereby relieving contraction stresses.

PENETRANT INSPECTION:

a. <u>Fluorescent</u>. A water washable penetrant with high fluorescence and low surface tension. It is drawn into small surface openings by capillary action. When exposed to black light, the dye will fluoresce.
b. <u>Dye</u>. A process which involves the use of three noncorrosive liquids. First, the surface cleaner solution is used. Then the penetrant is applied and allowed to stand at least 5 minutes. After standing, the penetrant is removed with the leaner solution and the developer is applied. The dye penetrant, which has remained in the surface discontinuity, will be drawn to the surface by the developer resulting in bright red indications.

PERCUSSIVE WELDING:

A resistance welding process in which a discharge of electrical energy and the application of high pressure occurs simultaneously, or with the electrical discharge occurring slightly before the application of pressure.

PERLITE:

Perlite is the lamellar aggregate of ferrite and iron carbide resulting from the direct transformation of austenite at the lower critical point.

PITCH:

Center to center spacing of welds.

PLUG WELD:

A weld is made in a hole in one member of a lap joint, joining that member to that portion of the surface of the other member which is exposed through the hole. The walls of the hole may or may not be parallel, and the hole may be partially or completely filled with the weld metal.

POKE WELDING:

A spot welding process in which pressure is applied manually to one electrode. The other electrode is clamped to any part of the metal much in the same manner that arc welding is grounded.

POROSITY:

The presence of gas pockets or inclusions in welding. POSITIONS OF WELDING:

All welding is accomplished in one of four positions: flat, horizontal, overhead, and vertical. The limiting angles of the various positions depend somewhat as to whether the weld is a fillet or groove weld.

POSTHEATING:

The application of heat to an assembly after a welding, brazing, soldering, thermal spraying, or cutting operation.

POSTWELD INTERVAL:

In resistance welding, the heat time between the end of weld time, or weld interval, and the start of hold time. During this interval, the weld is subjected to mechanical and heat treatment.

PREHEATING:

The application of heat to a base metal prior to a welding or cutting operation.

PRESSURE CONTROLLED WELDING:

The making of a number of spot or projection welds in which several electrodes function progressively under the control of a pressure sequencing device.

PRESSURE WELDING:

Any welding process or method in which pressure is used to complete the weld.

PREWELD INTERVAL:

In spot, projection, and upset welding, the time between the end of squeeze time and the start of weld time or weld interval during which the material is preheated. In flash welding, it is the time during which the material is preheated.

PROCEDURE QUALIFICATION:

The demonstration that welds made by a specific procedure can meet prescribed standards.

PROJECTION WELDING:

A resistance welding process between two or more surfaces or between the ends of one member and the surface of another. The welds are localized at predetermined points or projections.

PULSATION WELDING:

A spot, projection, or seam welding process in which the welding current is interrupted one or more times without the release of pressure or change of location of electrodes.

PUSH WELDING:

The making of a spot or projection weld in which the force is aping current is interrupted one or more times without the release of pressure or change of location of electrodes.

PUSH WELDING:

The making of a spot or projection weld in which the force is applied manually to one electrode and the work or a backing bar takes the place of the other electrode.

QUENCHING:

The sudden cooling of heated metal with oil, water, or compressed air. REACTION STRESS:

The residual stress which could not otherwise exist if the members or parts being welded were isolated as free bodies without connection to other parts of the structure.

REDUCING FLAME:

See CARBONIZING FLAME.

REGULATOR:

A device used to reduce cylinder pressure to a suitable torch working pressure.

REINFORCED WELD:

The weld metal built up above the surface of the two abutting sheets or plates in excess of that required for the size of the weld specified.

RESIDUAL STRESS:

Stress remaining in a structure or member as a result of thermal and/or mechanical treatment.

RESISTANCE BRAZING:

A brazing process in which bonding is produced by the heat obtained from resistance to the flow of electric current in a circuit of which the workpiece is a part, and by using a nonferrous filler metal having a melting point above 800 °F (427 °C), but below that of the base metals. The filler metal is distributed in the joint by capillary attraction.

RESISTANCE BUTT WELDING:

A group of resistance welding processes in which the weld occurs simultaneously over the entire contact area of the parts being joined. RESISTANCE WELDING:

A group of welding processes in which fusion is produced by heat obtained from resistance to the flow of electric current in a circuit of which the workpiece is a part and by the application of pressure.

REVERSE POLARITY:

The arrangement of direct current arc welding leads in which the work is the negative pole and the electrode is the positive pole of the welding arc.

ROCKWELL HARDNESS TEST:

In this test a machine measures hardness by determining the depth of penetration of a penetrator into the specimen under certain arbitrary fixed conditions of test. The penetrator may be either a steel ball or a diamond spherocone.

ROOT:

See ROOT OF JOINT and ROOT OF WELD.

ROOT CRACK:

A crack in the weld or base metal which occurs at the root of a weld. ROOT EDGE:

The edge of a part to be welded which is adjacent to the root. ROOT EACE:

ROOT FACE:

The portion of the prepared edge of a member to be joined by a groove weld which is not beveled or grooved.

ROOT OF JOINT:

That portion of a joint to be welded where the members approach closest to each other. In cross section, the root of a joint may be a point, a line, or an area.

ROOT OF WELD:

The points, as shown in cross section, at which the bottom of the weld intersects the base metal surfaces.

ROOT OPENING:

The separation between the members to be joined at the root of the joint.

ROOT PENETRATION:

The depth a groove weld extends into the root of a joint measured on the centerline of the root cross section.

SCARF:

The chamfered surface of a joint.

SCARFING:

A process for removing defects and checks which develop in the rolling of steel billets by the use of a low velocity oxygen deseaming torch.

SEAL WELD:

A weld used primarily to obtain tightness and to prevent leakage. SEAM WELDING:

Welding a lengthwise seam in sheet metal either by abutting or overlapping joints.

SELECTIVE BLOCK SEQUENCE:

A block sequence in which successive blocks are completed in a certain order selected to create a predetermined stress pattern.

SERIES WELDING:

A resistance welding process in which two or more welds are made simultaneously by a single welding transformer with the total current passing through each weld.

SHEET SEPARATION:

In spot, seam, and projection welding, the gap surrounding the weld between faying surfaces, after the joint has been welded.

SHIELDED WELDING:

An arc welding process in which protection from the atmosphere is obtained through use of a flux, decomposition of the electrode covering, or an inert gas.

SHOULDER:

See ROOT FACE.

SHRINKAGE STRESS:

See RESIDUAL STRESS.

SINGLE IMPULSE WELDING:

The making of spot, projection, and upset welds by a single impulse of current. When alternating current is used, an impulse may consist of a fraction of a cycle or a number of cycles.

SIZE OF WELD:

a. <u>Groove weld</u>. The joint penetration (depth of chamfering plus the root penetration when specified).

b. <u>Equal leg fillet welds</u>. The leg length of the largest isosceles right triangle which can be inscribed within the fillet weld cross section.

c. <u>Unequal leg fillet welds</u>. The leg length of the largest right triangle which can be inscribed within the fillet weld cross section.

d. <u>Flange weld</u>. The weld metal thickness measured at the root of the weld.

SKIP SEQUENCE:

See WANDERING SEQUENCE.

SLAG INCLUSION:

Non-metallic solid material entrapped in the weld metal or between the weld metal and the base metal.

SLOT WELD:

A weld made in an elongated hole in one member of a lap or tee joint joining that member to that portion of the surface of the other member

which is exposed through the hole. The hole may be open at one end and may be partially or completely filled with weld metal. (A fillet welded slot should not be construed as conforming to this definition.)

SLUGGING:

Adding a separate piece or pieces of material in a joint before or during welding with a resultant welded joint that does not comply with design drawing or specification requirements.

SOLDERING:

A group of welding processes which produce coalescence of materials by heating them to suitable temperature and by using a filler metal having a liquidus not exceeding 450 °C (842 °F) and below the solidus of the base materials. The filler metal is distributed between the closely fitted surfaces of the joint by capillary action.

SOLIDUS:

The highest temperature at which a metal or alloy is completely solid. SPACER STRIP:

A metal strip or bar inserted in the root of a joint prepared for a groove weld to serve as a backing and to maintain the root opening during welding.

SPALL:

Small chips or fragments which are sometimes given off by electrodes during the welding operation. This problem is especially common with heavy coated electrodes.

SPATTER:

The metal particles expelled during arc and gas welding which do not form a part of the weld.

SPOT WELDING:

A resistance welding process in which fusion is produced by the heat obtained from the resistance to the flow of electric current through the workpieces held together under pressure by electrodes. The size and shape of the individually formed welds are limited by the size and contour of the electrodes.

SPRAY TRANSFER:

A type of metal transfer in which molten filler metal is propelled axially across the arc in small droplets.

STAGGERED INTERMITTENT FILLET WELD:

Two lines of intermittent welding on a joint, such as a tee joint, wherein the fillet increments in one line are staggered with respect to those in the other line.

STORED ENERGY WELDING:

The making of a weld with electrical energy accumulated electrostatically, electromagnetically, or electrochemically at a relatively low rate and made available at the required welding rate.

STRAIGHT POLARITY:

The arrangement of direct current arc welding leads in which the work is the positive pole and the electrode is the negative pole of the welding arc.

STRESS RELIEVING:

A process of reducing internal residual stresses in a metal object by heating to a suitable temperature and holding for a proper time at that temperature. This treatment may he applied to relieve stresses induced by casting, quenching, normalizing, machining, cold working, or welding.

STRING BEAD WELDING:

A method of metal arc welding on pieces 3/4 in. (19 mm) thick or heavier in which the weld metal is deposited in layers composed of strings of beads applied directly to the face of the bevel.

STUD WELDING:

An arc welding process in which fusion is produced by heating with an electric arc drawn between a metal stud, or similar part, and the other workpiece, until the surfaces to be joined are properly heated. They are brought together under pressure.

SUBMERGED ARC WELDING:

An arc welding process in which fusion is produced by heating with an electric arc or arcs between a bare metal electrode or electrodes and the work. The welding is shield by a blanket of granular, fusible material on the work. Pressure is not used. Filler metal is obtained from the electrode, and sometimes from a supplementary welding rod.

SURFACING:

The deposition of filler metal on a metal surface to obtain desired properties or dimensions.

TACK WELD:

A weld made to hold parts of a weldment in proper alignment until the final welds are made.

TEE JOINT:

A joint between two members located approximately at right angles to each other in the form of a T.

TEMPER COLORS:

The colors which appear on the surface of steel heated at low temperature in an oxidizing atmosphere.

TEMPER TIME:

In resistance welding, that part of the postweld interval during which a current suitable for tempering or heat treatment flows. The current can be single or multiple impulse, with varying heat and cool intervals.

TEMPERING:

Reheating hardened steel to some temperature below the lower critical temperature, followed by a desired rate of cooling. The object of tempering a steel that has been hardened by quenching is to release stresses set up, to restore some of its ductility, and to develop toughness through the regulation or readjustment of the embrittled structural constituents of the metal. The temperature conditions for tempering may be selected for a given composition of steel to obtain almost any desired combination of properties.

TENSILE STRENGTH:

The maximum load per unit of original cross-sectional area sustained by a material during the tension test.

TENSION TEST:

A test in which a specimen is broken by applying an increasing load to the two ends. During the test, the elastic properties and the ultimate tensile strength of the material are determined. After rupture, the broken specimen may be measured for elongation and reduction of area.

THERMIT CRUCIBLE

The vessel in which the thermit reaction takes place.

THERMIT MIXTURE:

A mixture of metal oxide and finely divided aluminum with the addition of alloying metals as required.

THERMIT MOLD:

A mold formed around the parts to be welded to receive the molten metal.

THERMIT REACTION:

The chemical reaction between metal oxide and aluminum which produces superheated molten metal and aluminum oxide slag.

THERMIT WELDING:

A group of welding processes in which fusion is produced by heating with superheated liquid metal and slag resulting from a chemical reaction between a metal oxide and aluminum, with or without the application of pressure. Filler metal, when used, is obtained from the liquid metal.

THROAT DEPTH:

In a resistance welding machine, the distance from the centerline of the electrodes or platens to the nearest point of interference for flatwork or sheets. In a seam welding machine with a universal head, the throat depth is measured with the machine arranged for transverse welding. THROAT OF FILLET WELD:

a. <u>Theoretical</u>. The distance from the beginning of the root of the joint perpendicular to the hypotenuse of the largest right triangle that can be inscribed within the fillet-weld cross section.

b. <u>Actual</u>. The distance from the root of the fillet weld to the center of its face.

TOE CRACK:

A crack in the base metal occurring at the toe of the weld.

TOE OF THE WELD:

The junction between the face of the weld and the base metal.

TORCH:

See CUTTING TORCH or WELDING TORCH.

TORCH BRAZING:

A brazing process in which bonding is produced by heating with a gas flame and by using a nonferrous filler metal having a melting point above 800 °F (427 °C), but below that of the base metal. The filler metal is distributed in the joint of capillary attraction.

TRANSVERSE SEAM WELDING:

The making of a seam weld in a direction essentially at right angles to the throat depth of a seam welding machine.

TUNGSTEN ELECTRODE:

A non-filler metal electrode used in arc welding or cutting, made principally of tungsten.

UNDERBEAD CRACK:

A crack in the heat affected zone not extending to the surface of the base metal.

UNDERCUT:

A groove melted into the base metal adjacent to the toe or root of a weld and left unfilled by weld metal.

UNDERCUTTING:

An undesirable crater at the edge of the weld caused by poor weaving technique or excessive welding speed.

UPSET:

A localized increase in volume in the region of a weld, resulting from the application of pressure.

UPSET WELDING:

A resistance welding process in which fusion is produced simultaneously over the entire area of abutting surfaces, or progressively along a joint, by the heat obtained from resistance to the flow of electric current through the area of contact of those surfaces. Pressure is applied before heating is started and is maintained throughout the heating period.

UPSETTING FORCE:

The force exerted at the welding surfaces in flash or upset welding. VERTICAL POSITION:

The position of welding in which the axis of the weld is approximately vertical. In pipe welding, the pipe is in a vertical position and the welding is done in a horizontal position.

WANDERING BLOCK SEQUENCE:

A block welding sequence in which successive weld blocks are completed at random after several starting blocks have been completed.

WANDERING SEQUENCE:

A longitudinal sequence in which the weld bead increments are deposited at random.

WAX PATTERN:

Wax molded around the parts to be welded by a thermit welding process to the form desired for the completed weld.

WEAVE BEAD:

A type of weld bead made with transverse oscillation.

WEAVING:

A technique of depositing weld metal in which the electrode is oscillated. It is usually accomplished by a semicircular motion of the arc to the right and left of the direction of welding. Weaving serves to increase the width of the deposit, decreases overlap, and assists in slag formation.

WELD:

A localized fusion of metals produced by heating to suitable temperatures. Pressure and/or filler metal may or may not be used. The filler material has a melting point approximately the same or below that of the base metals, but always above 800 °F (427 °C).

WELD BEAD:

A weld deposit resulting from a pass.

WELD GAUGE:

A device designed for checking the shape and size of welds. WELD METAL:

That portion of a weld that has been melted during welding. WELD SYMBOL:

A picture used to indicate the desired type of weld. WELDABILITY:

The capacity of a material to form a strong bond of adherence under pressure or when solidifying from a liquid.

WELDER CERTIFICATION:

Certification in writing that a welder has produced welds meeting prescribed standards.

WELDER PERFORMANCE QUALIFICATION:

The demonstration of a welder's ability to produce welds meeting prescribed standards.

WELDING LEADS:

a. <u>Electrode lead</u>. The electrical conductor between the source of the arc welding current and the electrode holder.

b. <u>Work lead</u>. The electrical conductor between the source of the arc welding current and the workpiece.

WELDING PRESSURE:

The pressure exerted during the welding operation on the parts being welded.

WELDING PROCEDURE:

The detailed methods and practices including all joint welding procedures involved in the production of a weldment.

WELDING ROD:

Filler metal in wire or rod form, used in gas welding and brazing processes and in those arc welding processes in which the electrode does not provide the filler metal.

WELDING SYMBOL:

The assembled symbol consists of the following eight elements, or such of these as are necessary: reference line, arrow, basic weld symbols, dimension and other data, supplementary symbols, finish symbols, tail, specification, process, or other references.

WELDING TECHNIQUE:

The details of a manual, machine, or semiautomatic welding operation which, within the limitations of the prescribed joint welding procedure, are controlled by the welder or welding operator.

WELDING TIP:

The tip of a gas torch especially adapted to welding.

WELDING TORCH:

A device used in gas welding and torch brazing for mixing and controlling the flow of gases.

WELDING TRANSFORMER:

A device for providing current of the desired voltage.

WELDMENT:

An assembly whose component parts are formed by welding.

WIRE FEED SPEED:

The rate of speed in mm/sec or in./min at which a filler metal is consumed in arc welding or thermal spraying.

WORK LEAD:

The electric conductor (cable) between the source of arc welding current and the workpiece.

X-RAY:

A radiographic test method used to detect internal defects in a weld. YIELD POINT:

The yield point is the load per unit area value at which a marked increase in deformation of the specimen occurs with little or no increase of load; in other words, the yield point is the stress at which a marked increase in strain occurs with little or no increase in stress.

АРРЕNDIX2. КЛАССИФИКАЦИЯ ВИДОВ И СПОСОБОВ СВАРКИ

Таблица 1. Классификация сварки металлов по ГОСТ 19521-74

Класс сварки	Определение	Вид сварки
Термический	Виды сварки, осуществляемы плавлением с использованием тепловой энергии	дуговая, электрошлаковая, электронно-лучевая, плазменно-лучевая, ионно-лучевая, тлеющим разрядом, световая, индукционная, газовая, термитная, литейная.
Термомеханический	Виды сварки, осуществляемые с использованием тепловой энергии и давления	контактная, диффузионная, индукционно- прессовая, газопрессовая, термокомпрессионная, дугопрессовая, шлакопрессовая,

		термитно-прессовая,
		печная
Механический	Виды сварки,	холодная, взрывом,
	осуществляе мые с	ультразвуковая,
	использованием ме	трением, магнитно-
	ханической энергии и	импульсная.
	дав ления	

Таблица 2. Термины и определение сварочных материалов по ГОСТ 2601-84

2001-04	
Термин	Определение
Сварочная проволока	Проволока для использования в качестве
	плавящегося электрода либо присадочного
	металла при сварке плавлением
Электродная	Сварочная проволока для использования в
проволока	качестве плавящегося электрода
Присадочная	Сварочная проволока, используемая как
проволока	присадочный металл и не являющаяся
	электродом
Самозащитная	Электродная проволока, содержащая вещества,
проволока	которые защищают расплавленный металл от
	вредного воздействия воздуха при сварке
Порошковая	Сварочная проволока, состоящая из
проволока	металлической оболочки, заполненной
	порошкообразными веществами
Неплавящийся	Деталь из электропроводного материала,
электрод для дуговой	включаемая в цепь сварочного тока для подвода
сварки	его к сварочной дуге и не расплавляющаяся при
	сварке
Плавящийся электрод	Металлический электрод, включаемый в цепь
для дуговой сварки	сварочного тока для подвода его к сварочной
	дуге, расплавляющийся при сварке и служащий
	присадочным металлом
Покрытый электрод	Плавящийся электрод для дуговой сварки,
	имеющий на поверхности покрытие,
	адгезионно связанное с металлом электрода
Покрытие электрода	Смесь веществ, нанесенная на электрод для
	усиления ионизации, защиты от вредного
	воздействия среды, металлургической
	обработки сварочной ванны

Таблица 3. Сварные соединения и швы

Сварное соединение	неразъемное соединение, выполненное сваркой
Стыковое соединение	двух элементов, примыкающих друг к другу
	торцевыми поверхностями
humberry	
Угловое соединение	двух элементов, расположенных под углом и
D D	сваренных в месте примыкания их краев
RUUR BUILD	
Нахлесточное	в котором сваренные элементы расположены
соединение	параллельно и частично перекрывают друг
	друга
1	
Тавровое соединение	в котором торец одного элемента примыкает
	под углом и приварен к боковой поверхности
ATTIC MARKEN AND AND AND AND AND AND AND AND AND AN	другого элемента
Торцевое соединение	в котором боковые поверхности сваренных
(NITTITIT)	элементов примыкают друг к другу
(SUITITY)	
Сварная конструкция	металлическая конструкция, изготовленная
	сваркой отдельных деталей
Сварной узел	часть конструкции, в которой сварены
	примыкающие друг к другу элементы
Сварной шов	участок сварного соединения, образовавшийся в
	результате кристаллизации расплавленного
	металла или пластической деформации при
	сварке давлением или сочетания
	кристаллизации и деформации
Проход при сварке	однократное перемещение в одном направлении
	источника теплоты при сварке и (или) наплавке
Основной металл	Металл подвергающихся сварке соединяемых
	частей
Глубина проплавления	Наибольшая глубина расплавления основного
	металла в сечении шва или наплавленного
	валика
Сварочная ванна	часть металла свариваемого шва, находящаяся
	при сварке плавлением в жидком состоянии
Присадочный металл	Исталл для введения в сварочную ванну в

	дополнение к расплавленному основному
	металлу
Наплавленный металл	Переплавленный присадочный металл,
	введенный в сварочную ванну или
	наплавленный на основной металл
Металл шва	Сплав, образованный расплавленным основным
	и наплавленным металлами или только
	переплавленным основным металлом
Угар при сварке	Потери металла на испарение и окисление при
	сварке
Свариваемость	Металлический материал считается
	поддающимся сварке до установленной степени
	при данных процессах и для данной цели, когда
	сваркой достигается металлическая целостность
	при соответствующем технологическом
	процессе, чтобы свариваемые детали отвечали
	техническим требованиям как в отношении их
	собственных качеств, так и в отношении их
	влияния на конструкцию,которую они образуют
Сварочный флюс	Материал, используемый при сварке для
	химической очистки соединяемых
	поверхностей и улучшения качества шва
Флюс для дуговой	Сварочный флюс, защищающий дугу и
сварки	сварочную ванну от вредного воздействия
	окружающей среды

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