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BSc in ⟨Mechanical Engineering Sciences⟩

**CONTROL AND OPTIMIZATION OF  
HIGH-PRESSURE COMPRESSOR BLADE  
DIMENSIONS AND CLEARANCES**

**INTRODUÇÃO À DISSERTAÇÃO**

MASTER IN MECHANICAL ENGINEERING  
NOVA University Lisbon  
⟨february⟩, ⟨2025⟩



**NOVA**

NOVA SCHOOL OF  
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DEPARTMENT OF  
MECHANICAL AND INDUSTRIAL ENGINEER-  
ING

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# Acronyms

<b>CAD</b>	Computer-Aided Design <a href="#">20</a>
<b>CFMI</b>	CFM International <a href="#">3</a>
<b>CL</b>	Chord Length <a href="#">21</a>
<b>CMM</b>	Coordinate Measuring Machine <a href="#">1, 20, 21, 23, 31</a>
<b>EGT</b>	Exhaust gas temperature <a href="#">23</a>
<b>FOD</b>	Foreign Object Damage <a href="#">17</a>
<b>HP</b>	High Pressure <a href="#">5, 9</a>
<b>HPC</b>	High Pressure Compressor <a href="#">1, 9, 12–15, 18, 20, 23, 25, 26</a>
<b>HPT</b>	High Pressure Turbine <a href="#">9</a>
<b>LEAP</b>	Leading Edge Aviation Propulsion <a href="#">1, 3, 4, 6–8, 12–16, 23, 26</a>
<b>LET</b>	Leading Edge Thickness <a href="#">21</a>
<b>LP</b>	Low Pressure <a href="#">5, 7–10</a>
<b>LPC</b>	Low Pressure Compressor <a href="#">8, 9, 13</a>
<b>LPT</b>	Low Pressure Turbine <a href="#">9, 10</a>
<b>ME</b>	Maintenance and Engineering <a href="#">3, 19, 22, 27</a>
<b>MM</b>	Major Module <a href="#">9</a>
<b>MRO</b>	Maintenance, Repair, and Overhaul <a href="#">3</a>
<b>RTM</b>	Resin Transfer Molding <a href="#">8</a>
<b>SB</b>	Service Bulletin <a href="#">1</a>
<b>TAP</b>	Transportes Aéreos Portugueses <a href="#">1, 3, 6, 19, 22, 27, 39</a>
<b>TET</b>	Trailing Edge Thickness <a href="#">21</a>



# Introduction

## 1.1 Motivation

In 2016, CFMI launched the LEAP-1A engine, ushering in a new era of efficiency and performance for commercial aviation. This engine builds on the solid foundation laid by the CFM56, which has been one of the most trusted and widely used engines in the industry.

Over the course of its life, an engine undergoes numerous upgrades and refinements aimed at improving its performance and fuel efficiency. These improvements often focus on precise measurements and dimensional control, as well as maintenance standards that ensure the engine continues to run smoothly and reliably. By implementing these updates, the engine can perform at its best throughout its service life, maximizing efficiency and reducing operational costs. Additionally, these advancements are aligned with the growing need for more sustainable aviation technologies, helping to meet the industry's environmental goals.

Each time an engine manufacturer introduces an optimization, it is implemented through a [Service Bulletin \(SB\)](#), a document that communicates details of modifications that can be made to the aircraft.

In recent years, two students, Edgar Farinhas and Pedro Rendas, explored a method for measuring the rotor blade dimensions of the [HPC](#) using a [Coordinate Measuring Machine \(CMM\)](#) machine, focusing specifically on the blades of the CFM56 [HPC](#). [5]

Since it entered service, [TAP](#) has integrated the [LEAP-1A](#) into approximately half of its fleet, replacing the CFM56. As the performance of the [HPC](#) directly influences engine efficiency and overall operational effectiveness, establishing robust monitoring and control measures has become a critical priority, alongside investigating the factors that affect its performance.

## 1.2 Objectives

Various factors influence engine performance, and the high-pressure compressor (HPC) plays a key role in this. The efficiency of the HPC is largely determined by the design of its rotor blades, which operate under intense aerodynamic and thermal conditions. This directly impacts the engine's performance and fuel consumption. Despite their importance, TAP has no standardized dimensional inspection process for these components.

Using the available equipment at the TAP Engine Shop, including the 3D scanner and Coordinate Measuring Machine (CMM), this study aims to develop a practical and efficient method for measuring the chord length of HPC blades, as this parameter is crucial in assessing blade wear and its correlation with engine performance in test cell conditions. Additionally, the study seeks to create a tool to measure the total clearance of the entire stage after assembly, optimizing the assembly process and making it more efficient.

An important objective is to control the platform gap of the blades during their preparation for assembly, developing a tool capable of accurately simulating the blade fit. This will enable the immediate determination of the required number of wide and narrow platform blades, making the process faster and more efficient—an important consideration for TAP's operational needs.

By establishing this methodology, it will be possible to correlate these geometric characteristics with engine performance as tested in the test cell. Understanding these relationships will help optimize maintenance procedures and improve overall efficiency. This thesis represents an important step toward implementing a more advanced dimensional inspection process at TAP, contributing to the company's ongoing efforts to enhance engine performance and reliability.

## Company and LEAP-1A Overview

### 2.1 TAP M&E

**TAP** was founded in 1945, during the end of World War II, a period marked by significant development in the aviation industry.

**TAP Maintenance and Engineering (ME)** is responsible for performing maintenance and engineering support services to **TAP**'s airline fleet and third-party customers. Services such as Aircraft Maintenance, Engine Repair and Overhaul and Components Repair and Overhaul.

To maintain **TAP** Air Portugal's reputation as one of the most reliable airlines in the world, **TAP ME** embraces the concept of *Care2Quality*. This philosophy is founded on three key pillars: **Safety**, **Quality**, and **Relationships**. It is integrated across all **TAP ME** products and services, which are organized into five main departments: *Care2Airframe*, *Care2Engines*, *Care2Components*, *Care2Engineering*, and *Care2Technical Labs*.

**TAP ME** offers extensive **Maintenance, Repair, and Overhaul (MRO)** services for a variety of aircraft systems and engine models. For **CFM International (CFMI)** engines, including the CFM56 series and **LEAP-1A**, it provides light and heavy maintenance, engine testing, troubleshooting, redelivery checks, technical consulting, and engine trend monitoring.

Currently in its fleet **TAP** has the following aircraft:

Table 2.1: **TAP** Air Fleet Composition [3]

Aircraft	Active N°	Age
Airbus A319ceo	3	23
Airbus A320ceo	15	19
Airbus A320neo	15	3
Airbus A321ceo	3	22
Airbus A321neo	12	4
Airbus A321LRneo	11	3
Airbus A330ceo	3	16
Airbus A330neo	19	5

## 2.2 LEAP Engine

LEAP engine family, developed and produced by CFM International—a joint venture between Safran Aircraft Engines and GE Aerospace—continues the legacy of the CFM56 as a best-seller in commercial aviation. Introduced in 2016, the LEAP powers the Airbus A320neo, Boeing 737 MAX, and COMAC C919, delivering a 15% improvement in fuel efficiency, along with reduced noise and emissions, while maintaining industry-leading reliability and cost-effectiveness. This advanced engine reflects the enduring success of the partnership between Safran and GE, which has been extended until 2050.

The LEAP, like most modern commercial aircraft engines, is a turbofan engine.

### 2.2.1 Turbofan

The Turbofan engine applies the same principle as the turbojet and all jet engines, Newton's third law: "For every action, there is an equal and opposite reaction". In this case, the first object is the engine itself and the second is the atmospheric air that is forced to accelerate as it passes through the engine causing the airplane to move forward.

To understand how the turbofan engine works, it is a good approach to analyze the turbojet working cycle and how it is processed first. As shown in Figure 2.1 the working cycle of a TurboJet has 4 main stages: Air intake, Compression, Combustion and Exhaust. At intake, the air is at atmospheric pressure, but as it passes through the compressors, it is compressed to optimal pressure and temperature conditions for combustion. Upon entering the combustion chamber, fuel nozzles mix the fuel and air, creating a homogeneous mixture that minimizes the peak temperature during combustion. During the combustion process, this mixture burns at constant pressure, increasing the air's volume while causing a decrease in pressure. The gases resulting from combustion expand through the turbine and jet pipe back to atmosphere providing the force needed to propel the airplane forward. During this part of the cycle, some of the energy in the expanding gases is turned into mechanical power by the turbine.

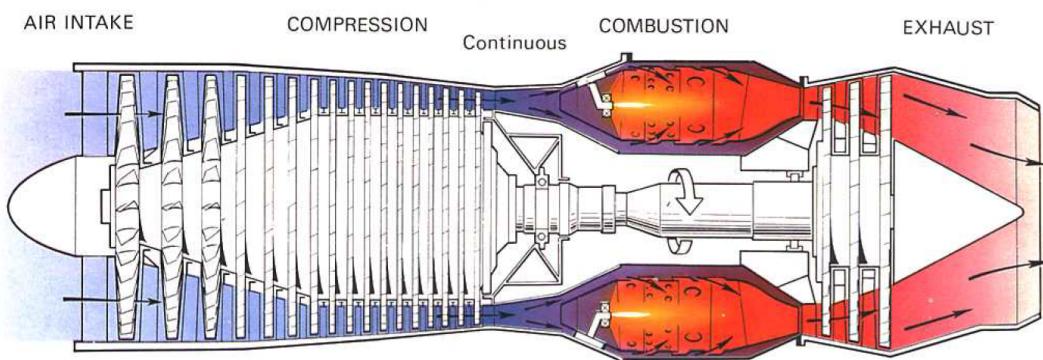


Figure 2.1: TurboJet Engine Work Cycle stages.[7]

Analysing the Turbofan work cycle requires a more complex approach since the air that goes through the combustor is now only responsible for 20% of the thrust power.

At the start, the engine's high-pressure shaft receives mechanical power with the assistance of a system called the Air Turbine Starter. This rotation drives the compressor blades, drawing air through the engine and initiating the compression process. The airflow through the engine also causes the fan to start moving. Once the engine reaches 20% of its maximum RPM, sufficient compression is generated to initiate combustion. With everything in motion, the engine enters a cycle similar to the turbojet working cycle. The gases produced from combustion expand through the **High Pressure (HP)** and **Low Pressure (LP)** turbines, delivering mechanical power to the **HP** and **LP** shafts. These shafts, in turn, transmit rotational energy to the **HP** and **LP** compressors as well as the front fan. As the fan rotates at high speed, it separates the incoming air into two distinct streams, forming the bypass ratio. Commercial aircraft engines, such as the LEAP-1A, are high-bypass ratio engines. In these engines, one stream of air enters the engine core, powering the turbojet-like working cycle. The remaining air, approximately 80% of the total intake, is channeled around the engine core. This bypassed air is directed into a narrow passage known as the fan duct, where its speed increases significantly. This accelerated airflow generates the majority of the thrust required to lift the aircraft.

In summary, the main differences between turbofan and turbojet engines lie in their airflow management and structural design. A key distinction is the large fan at the front of the turbofan, which directs a significant portion of the air around the engine core, defining the bypass ratio, which is the ratio of the amount of air bypassing the core to the amount of air passing through it, as illustrated in Figure 2.2. Weight wise, for the same power output, given the fact that all the high pressure rotating assemblies diameter can be reduced, the turbofan engines are lighter, improving the power-weight ratio of the engine. A low bypass ratio engine has a weight reduction of 20 percent compared to a pure jet engine for the same air mass flow.<sup>[7]</sup> Another significant advancement in turbofan engines is the introduction of the multi-spool or multi-shaft system, although this technology can also be applied to pure jet engines. The presence of both **LP** and **HP** turbines and compressors requires each assembly to rotate at different speeds, since just a percentage of the air that flows through the **LP** Compressor goes into the **HP** one (the majority of the air forms the bypass flow). This is essential for achieving higher efficiency, as each component operates at its optimal rotational velocity. Most commercial aircraft engines are high-bypass engines, and the typical configuration for these engines is a two-shaft system. As illustrated in Figure 2.2 the **LP** compressor is powered by a shaft coming from the **LP** turbine, and the same applies to the **HP** spool.

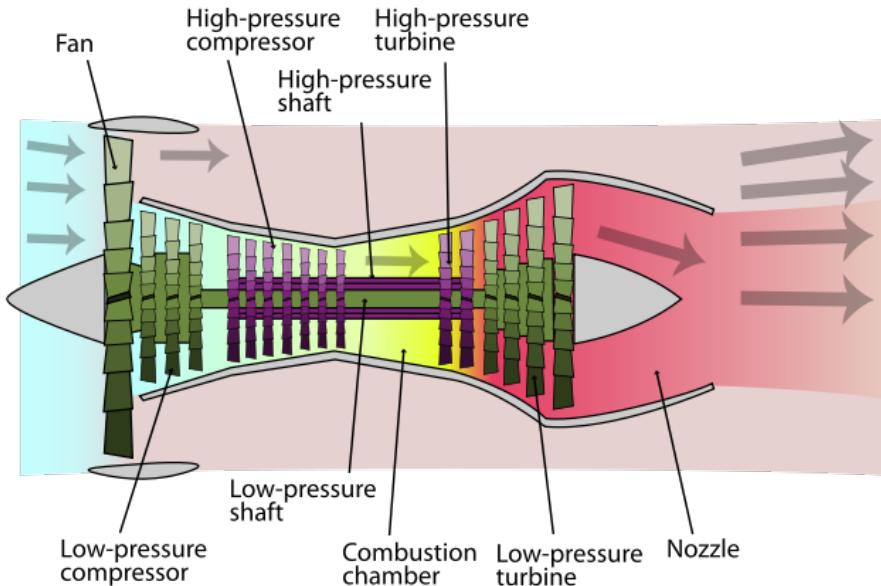


Figure 2.2: Turbofan Engine. [1]

### 2.2.2 LEAP Family

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the LEAP engine powers a variety of aircraft, with its characteristics varying depending on the application. Therefore, we can categorize the LEAP engine family based on application and thrust power.

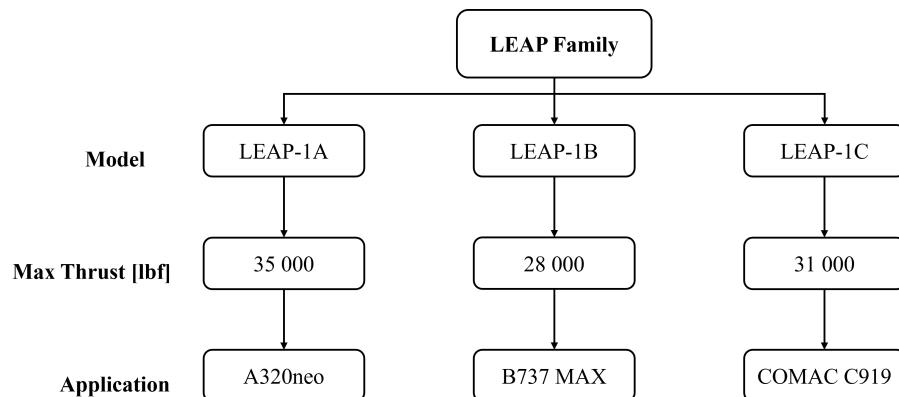


Figure 2.3: LEAP Family.[2]

Each model also has variations based on its thrust. For instance, the LEAP-1A can be further subcategorized into LEAP-1A23, LEAP-1A24, LEAP-1A26, LEAP-1A30, LEAP-1A32, LEAP-1A33, and LEAP-1A35. Considering that in 'LEAP-1A24', the '24' indicates the engine's thrust capacity of 24 klbf.

Currently, in the TAP Air Fleet Composition, the LEAP-1A26 and LEAP-1A32 engines are used respectively in the Airbus A320neo and A321neo.

### 2.2.3 LEAP-1A

The LEAP-1A, represented in Figure 2.4, is a high-bypass turbofan engine designed to power the next-generation Airbus A320neo. This section presents some of its key features, along with its main modules and innovations in comparison to its predecessor, the CFM56. Most of this information is derived from the engine's brochure and training manual.



Figure 2.4: LEAP-1A.[2]

This powerplant is presented with the following characteristics in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Characteristics of the LEAP-1A engine.[4]

Characteristic	Value
Takeoff thrust	Up to 35,000 lbf
Bypass ratio	11:1
Overall pressure ratio	40:1
Fan diameter	1.98 m (78 in)
Compressor stages (fan/booster/HPC)	1 + 3 + 10
Turbine stages (HP/LP)	2 + 7
Weight	3007 kg
Length	3.35 m (11 ft)
Width	2.53 m (8.3 ft)
Height	2.38 m (7.8 ft)

Design and function wise LEAP-1A present in its composition 4 Major modules. As represented in Figure 2.5, Fan and Booster, Core, LP Turbine and Accessory Drive Major Modules.

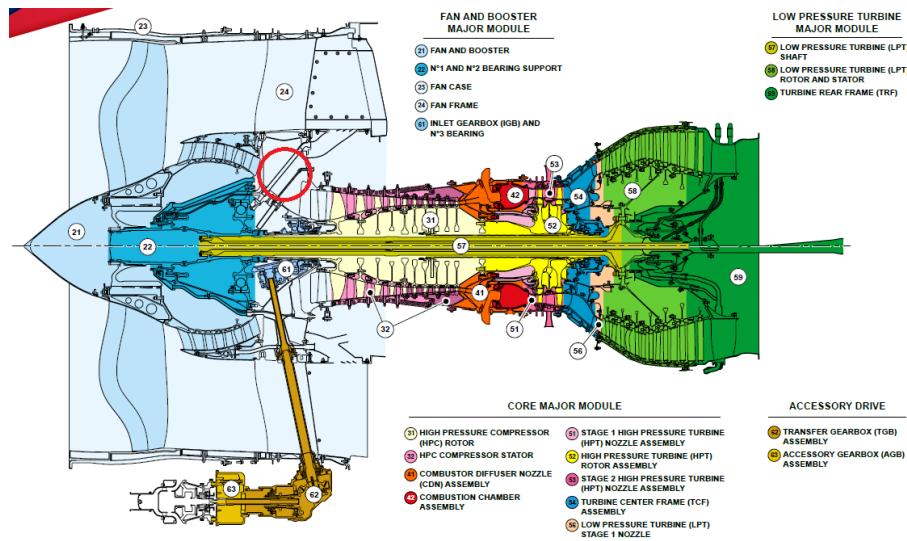


Figure 2.5: LEAP-1A Major Modules.[6]

### 2.2.3.1 Fan and Booster Major Module

As shown in Figure 2.5, the Fan and Booster Major Module consists of the Fan and Booster itself, two bearing supports, the fan case, the fan frame, the inlet gearbox, and the number 3 bearing.

The Fan and Booster assembly represents the integration of the front fan and the [LP Compressor](#).

The fan itself is composed of a single assembly that includes one front spinner, 18 fan blades, a flow splitter, and a platform front shroud.

The [Low Pressure Compressor \(LPC\)](#) consists of three stages: the first stage has 62 blades, the second stage has 75 blades, and the third stage has 72 blades.

One of the major technological breakthroughs in the new LEAP-1A engine is the production of its fan blades. These blades are manufactured using additive manufacturing with 3D-woven [Resin Transfer Molding \(RTM\)](#) carbon fiber composites. Compared to the solid titanium blades of the CFM56, this advancement allows for larger blades, as illustrated in Figure 2.6, without increasing the engine's weight. According to the company, this material helps reduce engine weight by 500 lbs per unit.

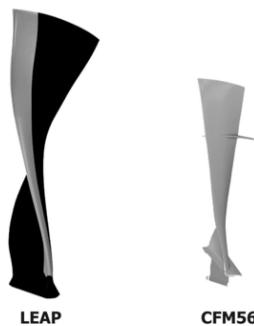


Figure 2.6: LEAP-1A fan blades vs CFM56 fan blades.[12]

In summary, the purpose of this engine assembly is to impart kinetic energy to the incoming airflow, separate the primary and secondary airflow, and expel the hot air generated by the engine.

### 2.2.3.2 Core

Next is the Core Major Module, which is responsible for generating thrust by producing power through highly compressed air.

This **Major Module (MM)** comprises the assembly of the **HPC**, combustion chamber, and **High Pressure Turbine (HPT)**. Additionally, it is divided into nine sub-modules.

The **HPC** consists of the HPC rotor and stator, while the **HPT** includes the HPT rotor along with the stage 1 and stage 2 nozzle assemblies. The Core Major Module also incorporates the Turbine Center Frame and the **LPT Stage 1 Nozzle**.

To achieve optimal performance, the **HPC** features 10 stages, as shown in Table 2.3. Each stage consists of one rotor and one stator. The first five stages of compression are achieved through blisks, while the remaining five stages use compressor blades with circumferential assembly. This mini module has the purpose of increasing the pressure of the booster discharge air for combustion.

Table 2.3: Number of blades per stage on HPC [12]

Stage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Number of blades	-	-	-	-	-	62+2+2	57+2+2	63+2+2	60+2+2	64+2+2

It is important to note that the HPC rotor is coupled with the HPT, as shown in Figure 2.7. This coupling allows the kinetic energy extracted from the HPT to be used for compressing the airflow. Likewise, the same principle applies to the **LPC** and **LPT**.

In Figure 2.7, the yellow assembly represents the Low-Pressure rotor, while the orange assembly corresponds to the High-Pressure rotor.

As mentioned in 2.2.1, these rotors rotate at different speeds. The **LP** rotor operates at N1 speed (3 850 RPM), whereas the **HP** rotor rotates at N2 speed (16 645 RPM).

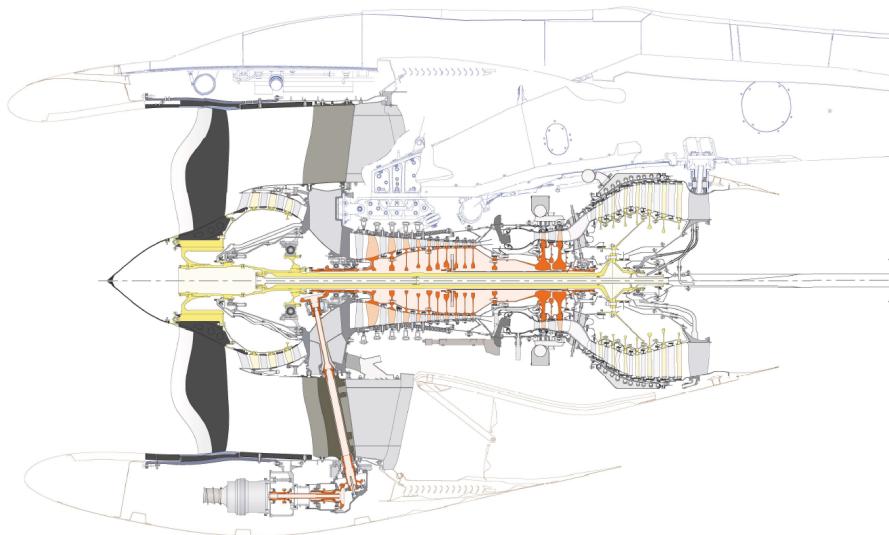


Figure 2.7: High and Low pressure rotors [12]

### 2.2.3.3 LP Turbine Major Module

The LP Turbine Major Module, represented in Figure 2.8, is composed by the LP turbine shaft, rotor and stator and the turbine rear frame.

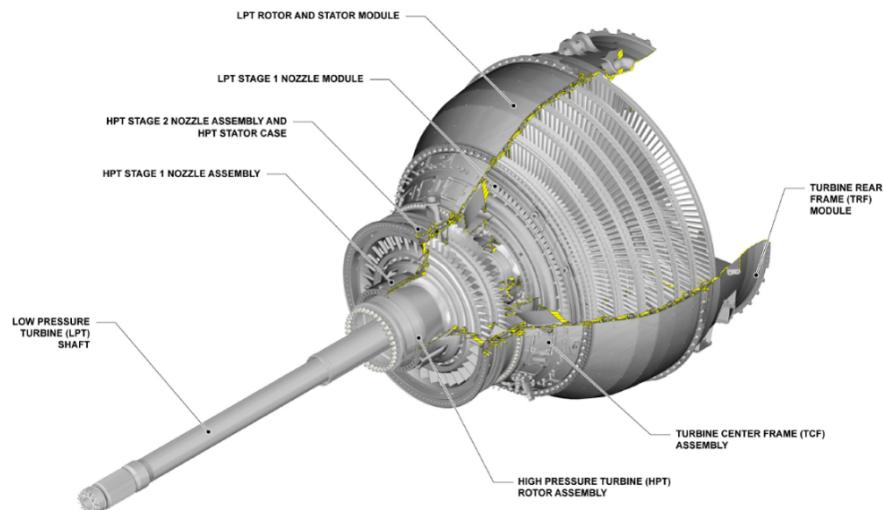


Figure 2.8: LPT. [12]

Its primary function is to supply mechanical power to the LP Compressor by converting the thermal energy from the hot gases released from the combustion chambers into kinetic energy while simultaneously decompressing it.

It is worth noting that while both turbines and compressors present similar designs and compositions, their functions are fundamentally opposite.

As previously mentioned, compressors consume energy and transfer it to the air, compressing it while increasing its velocity, whereas turbines absorb energy from the expansion of the combustion gases and convert it into mechanical power.

Both components consist of stages that include one stationary and one rotating element, but their purposes and arrangements differ. As illustrated in Figure 2.9, in a compressor, a rotor row is followed by a stationary vane row, while in a turbine, a stationary nozzle precedes a rotating rotor row. The stationary vanes in the compressor are responsible for further compressing the air through diffusion processes, whereas the nozzles in the turbine decompress the airflow and guide it in the most efficient direction, maximizing the kinetic energy absorbed by the turbine blades.

A more detailed explanation of the compressor's operation is provided in the following sections.

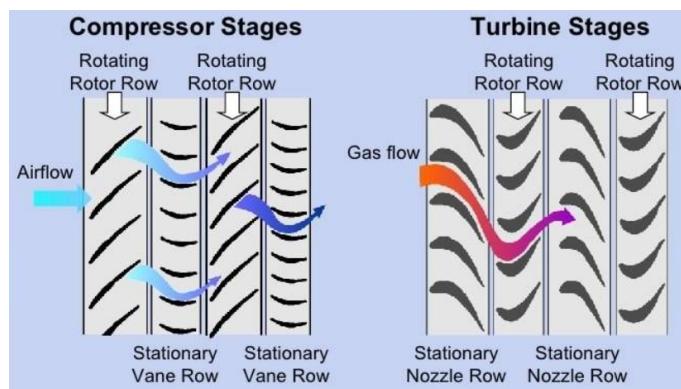


Figure 2.9: Axial Compressor vs Turbine flow [16]

#### 2.2.3.4 Accessory Drive

As shown in Figure 2.10, the accessory drive delivers torque to the HPC to initiate engine start-up, as described in 2.2.1, enabling the compression process (red arrow path). During the engine's operating cycle, it supplies mechanical energy to both the aircraft and engine accessories (orange arrow path).

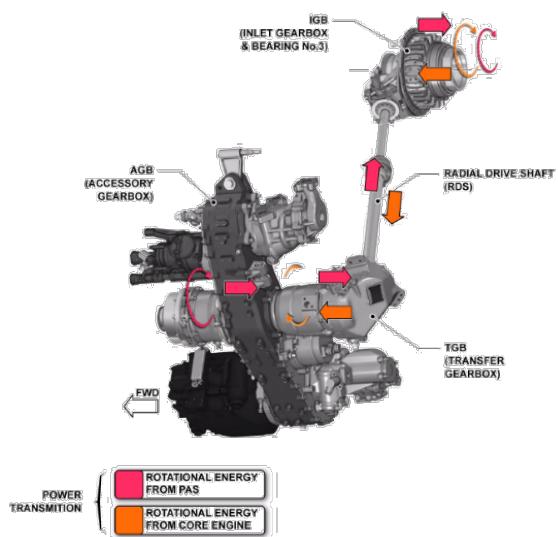


Figure 2.10: LEAP-1A Accessory Drives.[12]

# Compressor

Being the purpose of this thesis "*Control and Optimization of High-Pressure Compressor Blade Dimensions and Clearances,*" it is crucial to study the operation of engine compressors, understanding their working principles and the key criteria that must be considered in order to improve the blades dimensions and clearances in engine reliability and performance.

This section highlights the key criteria, provides an overview of the module's operation, and explains how compressor wear during the engine's operating cycle affects its performance.

## 3.1 Axial Compressor

In gas turbine engines, there are two primary types of compressors: axial and centrifugal flow compressors. Both are driven by a shaft connected to the turbine; however, the axial type is easier to manufacture and can be designed to achieve higher pressure ratios. For this reason, commercial turbofan engines typically utilize this type of compressor, specifically in the [LEAP-1A](#) engine.

Higher pressure ratios are proven to improve fuel consumption as shown on Figure 3.1

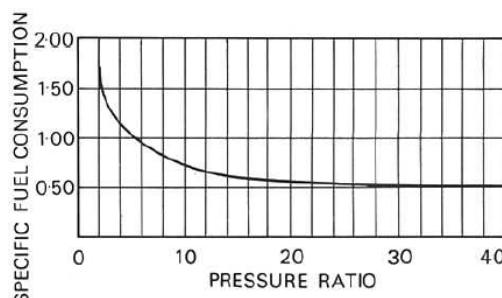


Figure 3.1: Specific Consumption.[\[7\]](#)

Using the [LEAP-1A HPC](#) as example, an axial compressor consists of one or more rotor assemblies which in turn can be one single part, representing a blisk, or a circumferential

### 3.1. AXIAL COMPRESSOR

blade assembly. These assemblies are mounted between the 2 bearing in a casing which incorporate the stator vanes.

As mentioned in the previous sections, this compressor is a twin-spool, multi-stage unit consisting of 3+10 stages.

In other words, the compressor is composed of the [LPC](#) with three stages, followed by the [HPC](#) with ten stages. Additionally, the front fan can also be considered part of the compression system, as it contributes to air compression despite not being its primary function, effectively serving as the first stage of the [LPC](#).

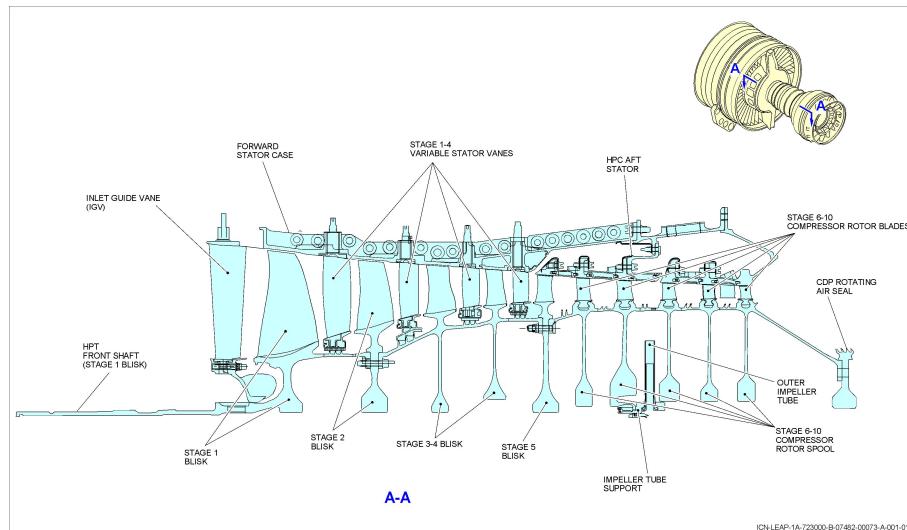


Figure 3.2: LEAP-1A HPC.[\[12\]](#)

With the engine running, the turbine transmits power to the compressor, driving it at high speed and ensuring a continuous airflow. As the air enters the [LPC](#), it passes through the first rotor, where the rotating airfoil-shaped blades transfer kinetic energy to the airflow by increasing its tangential momentum. Simultaneously, pressure rises with the aid of the diffusion process. Next the air flows into the vanes where kinetic energy increase is converted in pressure increase by the same process found in the rotational step.

The requirement for a high-pressure ratio on the shaft demands precise airflow control during engine operation to prevent airflow reversal, as a compressor inherently forces air from a low-pressure region to a higher-pressure zone. To achieve this, the guide vanes in the initial four stages functions as Variable Stator Vanes (VSV's), followed by fixed stator vanes in the subsequent stages. These variable vanes progressively close at lower airflow speeds to maintain an optimal air angle on the downstream rotor blades, preventing reverse flow and avoiding compressor stall.

During each stage the increase of pressure is relatively small as shown in Figure 3.3 in order to avoid air breakaway at the blades and subsequent blade stall. On another hand, the multi-stage process allows the [LEAP](#) to achieve an Overall Pressure ratio of 40:1. This ratio represents the Pressure ratio of all the engine not just the compressor.

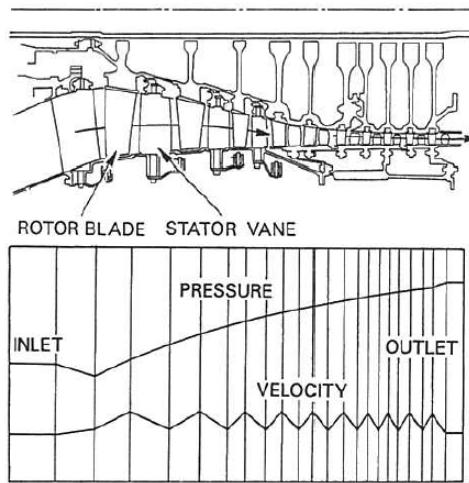


Figure 3.3: Axial Compressor Diagram and Pressure/Velocity Distribution.[\[7\]](#)

### 3.2 Blisks vs Bladed disks

In Figure 3.4, the HPC of the LEAP-1A engine is shown, consisting of five blisks, an impeller tube support, a five-stage rotor, and a rotating seal.

The incorporation of blisks in compressors represents a significant innovation in the LEAP-1A design compared to previous-generation turbofan engines. This advancement was introduced in aviation to enhance engine performance. Blisks significantly reduce rotor weight compared to conventional aero-engine disks. Since compressor and turbine disks contribute to over 20% of the engine's structural weight, their design presents numerous static and dynamic challenges.

From a design perspective, traditional bladed disks require the assembly of multiple components with different connection features, such as airfoil roots, disk roots, and locking mechanisms. In contrast, a blisk integrates all these elements into a single part, leading to several benefits:

- A reduction in the total number of parts, contributing to lower overall weight and faster assembly.
- Fewer contact surfaces, minimizing gaps where airflow could infiltrate and disrupt engine operation.
- Eliminates dovetails and its associated issues such as its weight and propensity for leakages.
- Simplified assembly during both production and maintenance, resulting in lower manufacturing costs and shorter lead times.

- The use of blisks imply bigger clearance between the blade tip and the stator which impacts engines performance.

However, blisks present significant drawbacks when compared to bladed disks, particularly in terms of maintenance and repairability. In the event of damage to an individual airfoil, the entire blisk must be replaced, leading to considerably higher costs than replacing a single blade. Additionally, as a single integrated component, the blisk eliminates the option of using different materials for the airfoil and the disk. The increased rigidity of the blisk also results in a lack of damping, which reduces its fatigue resistance.

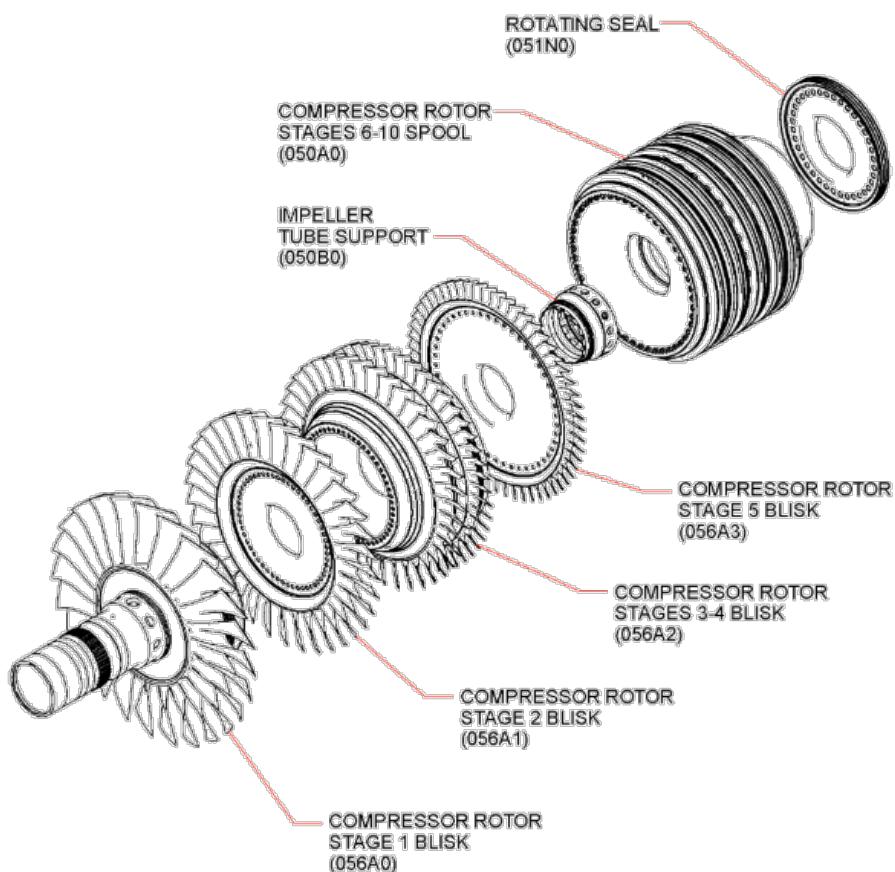


Figure 3.4: LEAP-1A HPC. [12]

### 3.3 Rotor Blades

As previously described, the **HPC** of the **LEAP-1A** consists of 10 stages, with the first five rotors designed as blisks and the last five as disks with fixed rotor blades. The attachment of these blades to the disk can be achieved through two different methods: axial or circumferential fixing, as illustrated in Figure 3.5.

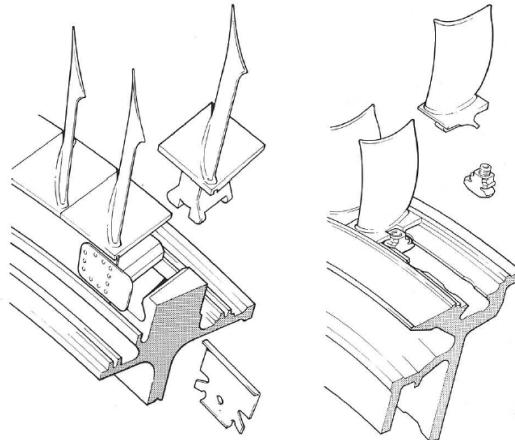


Figure 3.5: Axial Fixing on the left and circumferential on the right.[7]

The blades and disk shown in Figure 3.5 are not actual LEAP-1A components but merely illustrative examples.

The blades of the last five stages of the HPC are made from Inconel 718 and Inconel 718Plus. Inconel 718 is used in the first two stages, while Inconel 718Plus is used in stages 8, 9, and 10.

This material differs from the the blades found on the LPC or the blisks since with the increase of pressure temperature also rises.

INCONEL alloy 718 (UNS N07718/W.Nr. 2.4668) is a high-strength, corrosion-resistant nickel chromium material used at -252.78 to 704.44°C. [10]

Focusing on the last five stages of the HPC, in alignment with the objectives of this thesis, it is crucial to understand which dimensions impact the engine's performance, particularly as blade dimensions undergo changes due to excessive wear and usage, ultimately affecting engine performance and reliability.

TAP ME technicians are responsible for monitoring the most critical dimensions during the engine repair process.

These dimensions are specified in [12] and are illustrated in Figure 3.6. Based on this, the critical dimensions can be defined as follows: tip chord length (CH), blade tip length (H), leading edge thickness (TL), and trailing edge thickness (TU).

### 3.4. DEGRADATION MECHANISMS OF COMPRESSOR BLADES

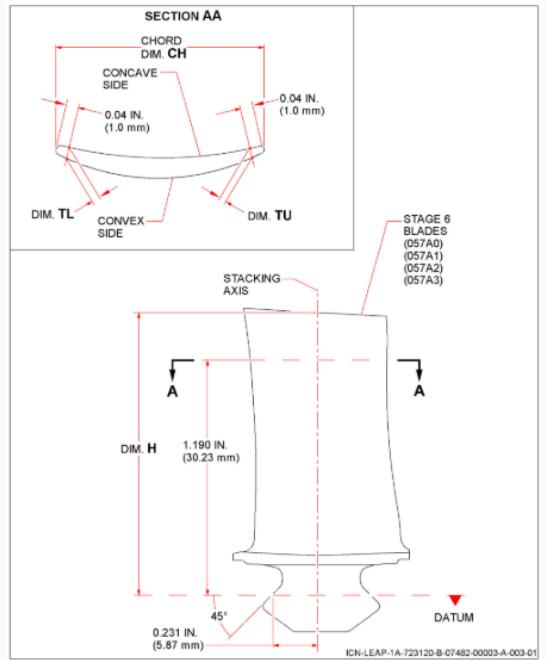


Figure 3.6: Stage 6 Blade Dimension Check.[\[12\]](#)

In each stage of the HPC, the blades can be categorized into three types: narrow body blades, wide body blades, and locking blades. The narrow and wide body blades are used to adjust the platform gaps, ensuring proper assembly and optimal aerodynamic performance. The locking blades, on the other hand, incorporate locking mechanisms that secure them in place, preventing movement during engine operation. The correct selection and placement of these blade types are essential to maintaining structural integrity and performance within the compressor. Therefore, ensuring the correct gap between the blades during the repair process is crucial to maintaining proper assembly, aerodynamic efficiency, and overall engine reliability.

## 3.4 Degradation Mechanisms of Compressor Blades

The degradation of compressor blades is a critical factor affecting engine performance and reliability. Commercial aircraft engines operate in diverse environments, exposing the engine core to various particles and contaminants.

These ingested particles, collectively known as **Foreign Object Damage (FOD)**, include sand, metal fragments, birds, and other debris. The ingestion of such contaminants has two main consequences: if the particle is a hardbody, it can cause direct erosion and structural damage to the blades, leading to dimensional loss. In contrast, if the particle is a softbody, such as a bird, it can obstruct airflow, causing performance degradation or even severe engine failure.

In particular, this section examines the impacts of FOD on the geometry of compressor blades. The ingestion of particles during the engine cycle can lead to a reduction in

blade chord, loss of blade thickness, alteration of the leading and trailing edge shapes, thinning of the blade trailing edge, blunting of the leading edge, and an increase in surface roughness.

Alterations in the blade geometry, such as changes in chord length, thickness loss, and alterations to the leading and trailing edges, result in increased clearance losses at the blade tips, higher frictional losses, and a significant reduction in off-idle and open beta stall margins. In Figure 3.7 its possible to observe the damages caused on the leading edge by continuous erosion. [15]

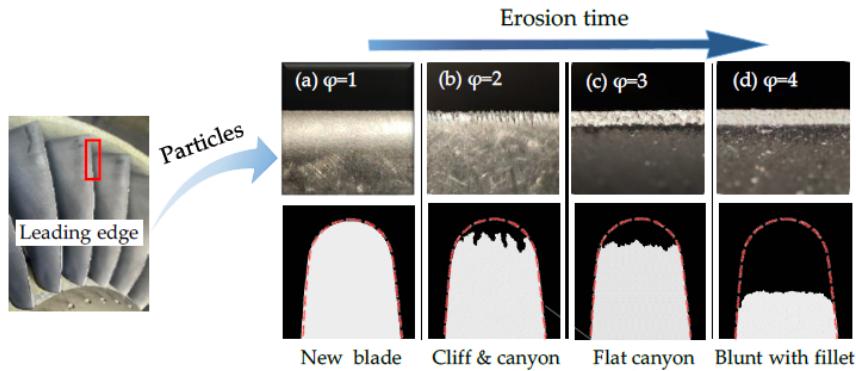


Figure 3.7: The effect on erosion trough time on the leading edge of a compressor blade [15]

These effects influence HPC efficiency and, consequently, engine performance. In particular, compressor blade erosion, coupled with efficiency losses throughout the engine, can increase fuel consumption by nearly 1 percent compared to new blades (see Figure 3.8) [15].

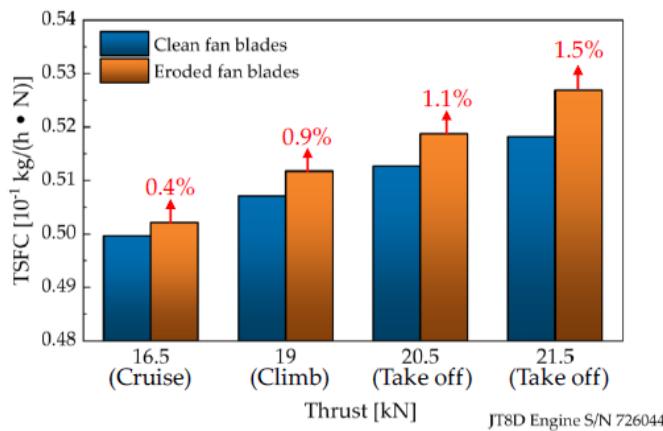


Figure 3.8: Comparison of thrust-specific fuel consumption (TSFC) between eroded and new compressor blades.[15]

# Dimensional Inspection and Measurement Equipment

This chapter introduces the equipment and methodology that can be used for dimensional inspection in engine component analysis. Keeping parts within the required tolerances is essential for ensuring performance and durability. A 3D scanner makes it possible to generate a digital model of the components, while a coordinate measuring machine (CMM) allows for precise measurement and comparison with nominal dimensions. These tools help improve the accuracy of the analysis and support potential optimization of the components at [TAP ME](#) Engine Shop.

The Engine Shop at [TAP ME](#) has a specialized Dimensional Inspection department responsible for verifying component dimensions in accordance with the manual, ensuring optimal engine performance and reliability.

## 4.1 Available Measurement Equipment

To ensure precise measurements, the department relies on advanced equipment, such as the Creaform HandySCAN 3D scanner, which captures highly accurate digital models of components, and the Mitutoyo Euro-C 121210 coordinate measuring machine (CMM), which provides detailed dimensional and geometric analysis. By using these tools, the team can carry out thorough inspections, verify tolerances, and explore opportunities for improving component performance.

### 4.1.1 Creaform HandySCAN 3D scanner

The HandySCAN 3D is a high-precision laser scanner developed by Creaform, designed for portable 3D scanning of objects with complex geometries. It uses laser triangulation to capture detailed 3D models with high accuracy and resolution. It presents the following technical data:

- **Accuracy:** 0.025 mm (0.0009 in)

- **Volumetric Accuracy:** Up to 0.020 mm + 0.015 mm/m
- **Light Source:** 22–30 blue laser lines
- **Working Distance:** 200 to 750 mm
- **Recommended Part Size Range:** 0.05 – 4 m
- **Weight:** 0.94 kg

The HandySCAN 3D laser scanner is used in conjunction with VXelements, an integrated 3D software platform that allows real-time data acquisition, post-processing, and analysis.

During the development of this thesis, this equipment will enable the practice of reverse engineering. Using the HandySCAN 3D scanner, detailed physical data from the HPC blades can be captured, and with the VXelements software, the point cloud is transformed into a 3D Computer-Aided Design (CAD) model. This model can then be imported into SolidWorks for further analysis and used to design the workpiece, which will be employed in the CMM to securely hold the blades during measurement.

#### 4.1.2 Mitutoyo Euro-C 121210

The CMM is a highly precise tool used to measure the geometry of parts and components. It works by using a probe that senses the physical contact with the object. While traditional CMMs rely on touch-trigger probes, there are other models that use laser or optical sensors to take measurements. The Mitutoyo Euro-C 121210 CMM is controlled by a computer and operates within a three-dimensional coordinate system.

This particular CMM is equipped with a Renishaw Revo-2, providing it with five degrees of freedom (DoF). In addition to moving along the three main axes, the machine can adjust the probe's angles, enabling it to measure even the most complex surfaces that would otherwise be difficult to reach. The machine setup includes a granite bed, probe, probe tree, arm, joystick, and specialized software, as shown in Figure 4.1.

Although four probes are available for use with the Renishaw Revo-2, only two are applicable to this project. Among them, the RSP2-3 is the sole probe that enables full five-degree-of-freedom operation. As illustrated in Figure 4.2, the first three DoFs (X, Y, and Z) are controlled by the CMM arm, while the remaining two ( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ) are executed by the probe itself.

Each probe has distinct characteristics suited for different tasks, as detailed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Renishaw probes available at TAP

Probe	DoF	Scanning Capability	Sphere Ø
RSP2-3	5	2D	6mm
RSP3	3	3D	4mm

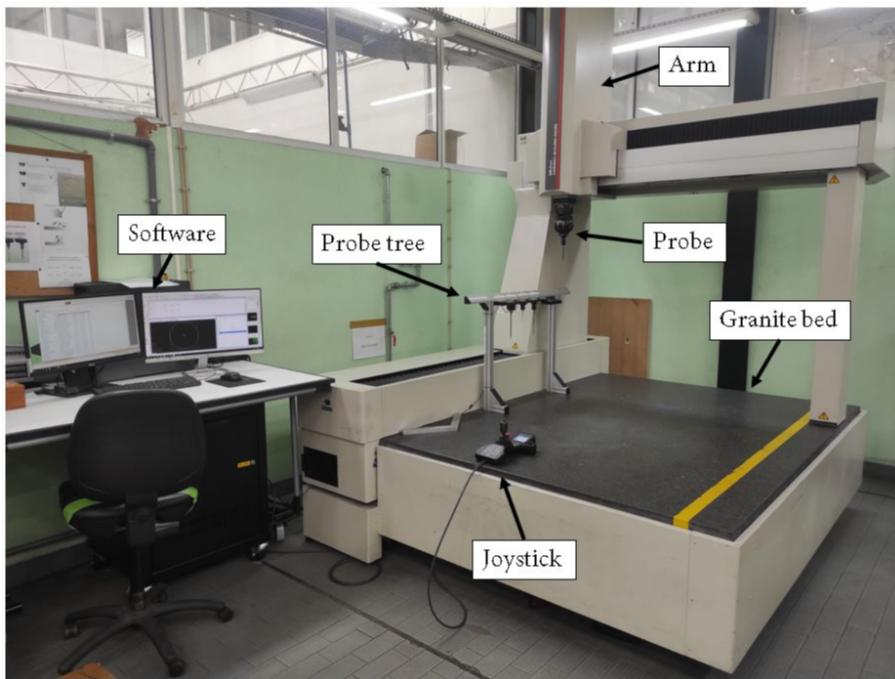


Figure 4.1: Mitutoyo Euro-C 121210 Components [15]

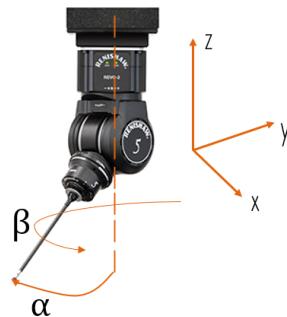


Figure 4.2: DOF of the Renishaw probe [14]

The integration of the CMM into this project plays a key role in ensuring that every high-pressure compressor rotor blade is measured quickly, accurately, and consistently. The development of a custom inspection program aims to enable the production team to measure entire sets of blades with minimal manual intervention, enhancing both efficiency and reliability.

Through the use of the CMM, it is possible to automatically verify critical dimensions, such as Chord Length (CL), Leading Edge Thickness (LET), Trailing Edge Thickness (TET), and overall airfoil geometry. This ensures that each blade meets the required tolerances while eliminating inconsistencies associated with manual measurement methods. Additionally, this automation reduces the workload of operators, allowing them to focus on other essential tasks while the machine performs the measurements.

Another significant advantage of the CMM is its ability to generate detailed inspection

reports, facilitating the tracking of blade conditions over time. This capability extends beyond simple compliance verification, contributing to predictive maintenance strategies that enhance engine performance and reduce unexpected maintenance costs.

By incorporating this level of automation and precision into the inspection process, the proposed approach aims to streamline production, improve quality control, and establish a more efficient and standardized methodology for [TAP](#)'s maintenance operations.

## 4.2 TAP ME: Previous Theses on Dimensional Inspection

In the past, several master's theses have been developed in collaboration with [TAP ME](#), contributing to the improvement of measurement and inspection processes for aircraft engine components. One of these studies was conducted by Farinha, E. [5], focusing on the design of a fixture and the development of a measurement method for high-pressure compressor (HPC) rotor blades. This research continued the work initiated by Rendas, P. [13], who laid the foundation for the development of a fixture specifically designed for HPC rotor blade inspection.

Additionally, Baptista, F. [13] contributed to this field by developing a model that predicts the off-design performance of the CFM56-5B turbofan engine. More recently, Guerreiro, A. [8] worked on the development of a process to measure the exit flow area of the low-pressure turbine (LPT) nozzles from the same engine model. His study focused on creating an automated program for Coordinate Measuring Machine (CMM) inspection, addressing a previously undeveloped process within [TAP ME](#)'s engine maintenance operations.

While previous studies have primarily focused on components of the CFM56-5B engine, this thesis aims to extend the dimensional inspection process to the HPC rotor blades of the LEAP-1A engine. One project involves developing an optimized CMM measurement program for assessing the blade chord to evaluate performance, utilizing data from the test bank. The second project focuses on measuring and controlling platform clearance to optimize the assembly process. These improvements, applied to both the LEAP and CFM engines, build on previous research, further advancing the continuous optimization of inspection methods to adapt to newer engine generations.

## Current Progress and Work Plan

The analysis of the operation of the Maintenance and Engineering Unit included a demonstration of the component scanning process and a session on the functionality of the CMM. Following this, the process through which blades go through maintenance was described in detail, as shown in Figure 5.1, outlining each step in the maintenance cycle.

Additionally, a collection of scrapped HPC blades from a LEAP-1A engine was carried out, involving the tracking of blades that had been discarded during previous maintenance activities. This collection enabled the scanning and dimensional comparison between a new and a worn blade, with the goal of analyzing the extent of blade degradation over time and understanding its potential impact on performance.

In parallel, work on test cell data analysis was initiated, aiming to develop a program to assess the impact of variations in sensor readings on the final engine **Exhaust gas temperature (EGT)** measurement. This analysis seeks to identify key parameters that influence test cell results and to understand how performance evaluation is carried out. By gaining deeper insights into these factors, it will be possible to facilitate future analyses of the impact of blade chord length variations on engine performance.

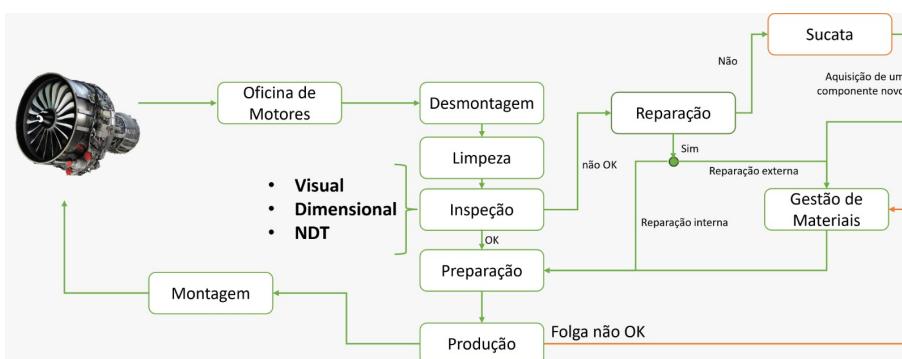


Figure 5.1: Process overview of blade maintenance cycle

## 5.1 Work Plan

To ensure a well-structured and efficient workflow, a provisional task plan has been created, as shown in Figure 5.2. The schedule will distribute key tasks over the coming months, allowing a balanced approach between research, development, and documentation. The initial phase focused on bibliographic research and drafting the dissertation introduction, providing a solid theoretical foundation. At the same time, work on scan processing and measurement tools will begin, setting the groundwork for later stages. Midway through the project, efforts will shift toward programming for chord measurement and analyzing test bench data—crucial steps for assessing engine performance. The final months will be dedicated to wrapping up the dissertation and completing the internship, ensuring all research components are properly integrated and documented. This structured approach is expected to help develop a project with practical value for the company while providing a highly enriching learning experience for the student.

	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September
<b>Bibliographic Research</b>	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red
Introdução à Dissertação	Red	Red	White						
<b>Scan and Mesh Processing</b>	Light Gray	Red	Light Gray						
<b>Clearance Measurement Tool</b>	White	Red	Red	Red	Red	White	White	White	White
<b>Blade Fixation Tool</b>	Light Gray	Red	Red	Red	Red	Light Gray	Light Gray	Light Gray	Light Gray
<b>Programming for Chord Measurement</b>	White	White	White	Red	Red	Red	White	White	White
<b>Analysis of Test Bench Data</b>	White	White	White	White	White	Red	Red	Red	Red
<b>Conclusions and Dissertation Writing</b>	White	White	Red						
Internship	Light Gray	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Light Gray	Light Gray	Light Gray

Figure 5.2: Work Plan.

## Problem Definition and Scope

This thesis tackles two key challenges in the assembly of HPC (High Pressure Compressor) blades. The goal is to ensure that the assembly process meets the required specifications and to better understand how blade geometry impacts engine performance.

The first challenge is to develop a process or tool that guarantees the correct assembly clearance for the blades. This clearance must comply with the specifications outlined in the engine manual, ensuring that the blades are assembled properly and function as intended.

The second objective is to create a reliable method for measuring the chord length of the blades and analyzing its correlation with engine performance in bench tests. By understanding this relationship, we can gain valuable insights into how small variations in manufacturing affect overall efficiency and explore ways to optimize the assembly process. Ultimately, this aims to guarantee and control engine performance according to operational needs.

Together, these objectives shape the scope of this work, which involves designing measurement tools, validating methodologies, and bridging the gap between manufacturing precision and engine performance.

In this chapter, the details of these challenges will be explored, along with the initial requirements and decisions that guided the approach taken. This will provide a comprehensive understanding of the context, constraints, and considerations that influenced the development of solutions throughout the project.

### 6.1 Blade Assembly Process and Clearance Requirements

This study focuses on the assembly of HPC stages 6 to 10, represented in Figure 6.1, as these are the stages that incorporate the blades under analysis, as previously mentioned. The assembly of HPC blades follows a standardized procedure to ensure precise positioning and compliance with the required specifications. The process begins with preparing the spool, where blade slots and wire seal grooves are cleaned and inspected. Contaminants are removed to ensure a smooth surface for blade insertion. Wire seals are then

installed in the grooves, adhering to specified clearance tolerances to maintain structural integrity.



Figure 6.1: LEAP-1A HPC.

The blades are then inserted into the spool, following a controlled sequence to ensure a uniform distribution. During this step, each blade is checked for free movement within the dovetail slot, as any restrictions may indicate the need for replacement. After all blades are in place, locking blades are installed in designated positions to secure the assembly.

To finalize the assembly, locking lugs are positioned and their set screws are torqued to the required values. A detailed verification is performed to ensure that the locking lugs are correctly engaged within the spool's dovetail lock slot, preventing unintended movement. To confirm the correct platform clearance, the blades are shifted in one direction to determine the maximum gap, and measurements are taken to verify compliance with the permissible range. This clearance, referred to as Clearance R, is represented in Figure 6.2. If necessary, adjustments are made by replacing narrow-platform blades with wide-platform ones.

## 6.1. BLADE ASSEMBLY PROCESS AND CLEARANCE REQUIREMENTS

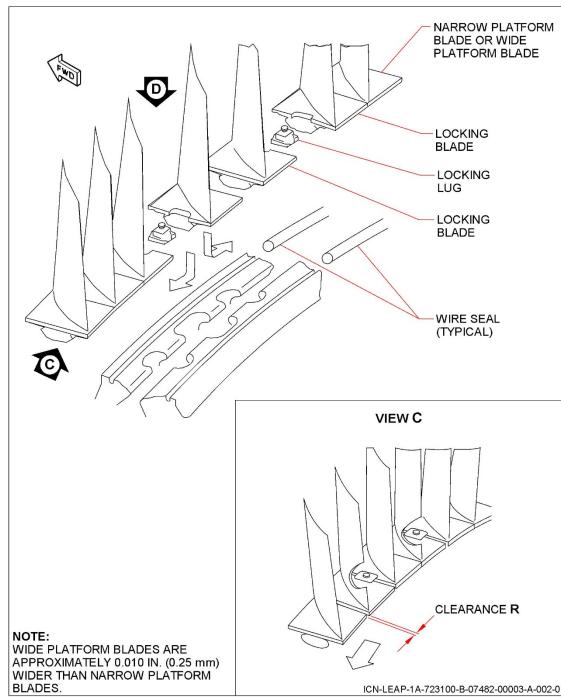


Figure 6.2: Stage Components and Clearance Representation

The measurement of the clearance is performed using a feeler gauge (with a corresponding image), ensuring precise determination of the gap. For each compressor stage, a predefined clearance value is specified, as presented in Table 6.1. In the aviation industry, these clearance values are typically provided in inches. However, throughout the development of this dissertation, all measurements have been converted to millimeters to maintain consistency.

Once the correct blade sequence and clearance are established, the assembly is re-installed, and a final torque check is performed on the locking lugs. Ensuring that all components remain within the prescribed limits is critical to maintaining engine performance and durability, as deviations from the specified tolerances can lead to excessive wear, unwanted vibrations, or mechanical failures.

Stage	Assembly Clearance Tolerance [in]	Assembly Clearance Tolerance [mm]	Clearance [mm]
6	0.010-0.030	0.254-0.762	
7	0.010-0.030	0.254-0.762	
8	0.010-0.030	0.254-0.762	0.508
9	0.080-0.100	2.032-2.54	
10	0.149-0.169	3.7846-4.2926	

Table 6.1: Assembly clearance tolerances for different stages.

Currently, in TAP's ME Engine Shop assembly process, there is no method to anticipate this clearance before the assembly stage. As a result, if the measured clearance after

assembly does not fall within the required specifications, additional wide-platform blades may need to be sourced from the supplier. This can introduce delays in the workflow, as the availability of the necessary blades depends on supplier lead times. As represented in Figure 6.2, wide-platform blades are approximately 0.25 mm wider than narrow blades, allowing for clearance adjustments when needed. Implementing a way to predict and control clearance earlier in the process would help streamline operations, reducing waiting times and improving overall efficiency.

As a first step, it is necessary to construct a nominal model of the blades from which further work can be carried out. This model will serve as the foundation for predicting and controlling assembly clearances, ensuring compliance with specifications, and improving process efficiency.

### 6.1.1 Defining Platform Tolerances and Tolerance Analysis Model for the Blade

One of the primary challenges in ensuring proper assembly clearance is the precision required to construct a nominal model of the blades. The assembly clearance depends on the individual blade dimensions, particularly the platform width, as these factors determine how the blades fit within the spool slots. To develop an effective process, it is essential to establish a nominal blade model with a precision level derived from the permissible clearance tolerances.

The required precision level can be derived from the assembly clearance by considering the maximum allowable variation that still maintains compliance. This ensures that the model reflects real-world manufacturing conditions and enables accurate clearance prediction.

To define the tolerance for the nominal model, a statistical approach is utilized, as described in [11]. Unlike the total interchangeability model, where tolerances are summed linearly, the statistical model considers the probability distribution of component variations. The assembly tolerance is calculated using the following equation:

$$T_{\text{conj}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n t_i^2} \quad (6.1)$$

where:

- $T_{\text{conj}}$  - Assembly Tolerance
- $t_i$  - Part Tolerance

This approach reduces the overall tolerance accumulation, making it more suitable for large-scale production where component variations follow a normal distribution. By applying this model, it is possible to maintain a precise nominal blade model while accommodating natural manufacturing variations.

### 6.1.1.1 Calculation of Platform Dimensional Tolerance for Each Blade Type and Stage Using the statistical model

To evaluate the dimensional tolerance for each compressor stage, the number of wide and narrow blades assembled in the engine was analyzed. Table 6.2 presents the distribution of wide and narrow blades for each stage, along with the total number of blades. The assembly data was collected from a motor assembled in the workshop to determine the exact number of blades used.

Stage	Wide Blades	Narrow Blades	Total Blades
6	26	36	62
7	24	33	57
8	24	39	63
9	23	37	60
10	26	39	65

Table 6.2: Number of wide and narrow blades per stage.

Using the equation 6.1, and considering an assembly tolerance of 0.508 mm, we analyze the case for stage 6, which has 26 wide blades and 36 narrow blades. Beign almost identical parts, its assumed that the wide body and narrow body blades present the same tolerance,  $T_w = T_n$ , the equation simplifies to:

$$T_{\text{conj}} = \sqrt{26T_w^2 + 36T_n^2} \quad (6.2)$$

$$T_{\text{conj}} = \sqrt{62T_w^2} = \sqrt{62}T_w \quad (6.3)$$

Since the total assembly tolerance is given as 0.508 mm:

$$0.508 = \sqrt{62}T_w \quad (6.4)$$

Solving for  $T_w$ :

$$T_w = \frac{0.508}{\sqrt{62}} = 0.0646 \text{ mm} \quad (6.5)$$

Thus, the tolerance for each blade in stage 6 is approximately \*\*0.0646 mm\*\*.

Based on this analysis, the clearance values were calculated. Table 6.3 presents the obtained results.

These calculations, derived from workshop data and statistical analysis, ensure that the clearance assessment aligns with real assembly conditions. Furthermore, they provide insight into the required precision needed to develop a nominal model that enables a feasible and applicable solution.

Stage	Clearance (mm)	$T_w = T_n$
6		0,064516065
7		0,067286244
8	0.508	0.00000
9		0,065582518
10		0,063009645

Table 6.3: Computed clearance values per stage.

#### 6.1.1.2 Calculation of Platform Dimensional Tolerance for Each Blade Type and Stage Using the Total Interchangeability Model

To assess the dimensional tolerance for each compressor stage under the total interchangeability model, we assume that all blades—wide and narrow—must individually conform to the overall assembly tolerance. This approach does not take into account statistical variations and instead assumes that each blade directly contributes to the total variation without reduction factors. The total interchangeability model represents a worst-case scenario and serves as a reference to highlight its impracticality compared to statistical models.

Using the same distribution of wide and narrow blades from Table 6.2, we analyze the tolerance requirement for each stage. The total tolerance allocation assumes that each blade's tolerance adds directly to the overall variation, leading to a simplified summation approach:

$$T_{\text{conj}} = (26 + 36)T_w = 62T_w \quad (6.6)$$

Given that the total assembly tolerance remains at 0.508 mm:

$$0.508 = 62T_w \quad (6.7)$$

Solving for :

$$T_w = \frac{0.508}{62} = 0.00819 \text{ mm} \quad (6.8)$$

Thus, under the total interchangeability model, each blade in stage 6 would require an individual tolerance of approximately 0.00819 mm, which is significantly tighter than the 0.0646 mm derived from the statistical model.

Applying the same method to other stages yields the results presented in Table 6.4.

These results clearly indicate that the total interchangeability model imposes unrealistically strict tolerances on each blade, making it practically infeasible for manufacturing and assembly. This reinforces the necessity of using statistical models to optimize tolerance allocation while maintaining feasible manufacturing constraints.

Stage	Clearance (mm)	(Total Interchangeability)
6	0.508	0.00819
7	0.508	0.00891
8	0.508	0.00806
9	0.508	0.00847
10	0.508	0.00782

Table 6.4: Computed clearance values per stage using total interchangeability.

As such, in this work, the statistical model was chosen as the reference for tolerance calculations, as it provides a more realistic and achievable approach while ensuring the necessary precision for assembly.

### 6.1.2 Analysis of Measurement Equipment Accuracy for Geometric Validation

Following this analysis, the next steps involve evaluating the available equipment previously mentioned in 4, specifically the Creaform HandySCAN 3D scanner and the Mitutoyo Euro-C 121210 CMM. While the application of reverse engineering using the scanner enables the creation of a model, its lower accuracy on edges may compromise the precision required to resolve the problem. Therefore, it is necessary to use the CMM to obtain the geometry with the required accuracy. Additionally, the scanner enables the development of the CMM fixture, which will be designed using knowledge from previous dissertations.

The accuracy of the available equipment is as follows:

- HandyScan accuracy: 0.001 in (0.0254 mm)
- Peripheral tape accuracy: 0.0005 in (0.0127 mm)
- CMM accuracy: 0.00001 in (0.00000254 mm)

These values highlight the significant difference in measurement precision, reinforcing the need for a combined approach to achieve the required accuracy.

It is essential to follow the golden rule of metrology, known as George Berndt's law, which states that "the measurement uncertainty should not exceed 1/10 of the tolerance of the dimension being controlled." This principle ensures that the selected measurement tools provide results with a level of precision suitable for the given tolerances.

It is important to note that the CMM at TAP is currently inoperative (INOP), and during this project, TAP proceeded with the purchase of a new machine. However, to expedite the work, a machine was made available by the R&D department of Hanon Systems, which will allow progress in the project and facilitate the measurement of the platform profile of the blades to properly define the dimensions required for the work

Therefore, while the HandyScan may be useful for generating general models, the CMM will be the preferred equipment to ensure that the calculated tolerances, particularly values as small as 0.0646 mm (for stage 6), are met with precision. The combination of these tools will provide a robust and accurate approach to validating and controlling assembly tolerances, ensuring that the blades fit correctly and optimizing engine performance.

### 6.1.3 Spool Measurements and Specifications

To ensure precise assembly and proper clearance for the HPC blades, it is essential to define the key dimensions of the spool. The spool serves as the foundational structure for blade installation, and its dimensions directly impact the assembly process.

These dimensions play a crucial role in determining the fit and function of the HPC blades. The slot width and depth directly influence how securely the blades are held in place, while the groove width and depth are vital for the proper installation of wire seals. Additionally, platform clearance values dictate the permissible gap between adjacent blades, ensuring compliance with operational specifications.

The diameter measurements were obtained using a Peripheral tape on a previously used spool. During the measuring process it was possible to differentiate two different spool diameters per stage,  $\phi Up$  and  $\phi Down$ , represented in Figure 6.3. Table 6.5 presents diameters measured.

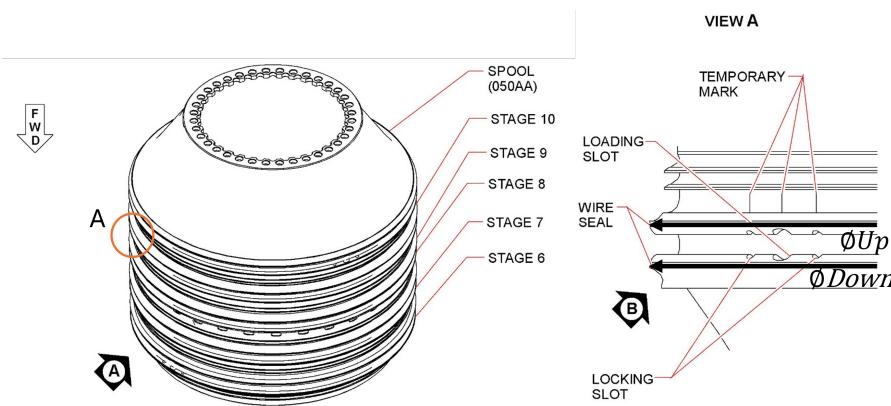


Figure 6.3: Stage Components and Clearance Representation

Stage	$\phi Up$ [in]	$\phi Down$ [in]	$\phi Up$ [mm]	$\phi Down$ [mm]
10	15.675	15.69	398.145	398.526
9	15.704	15.66	398.882	397.764
8	15.670	15.62	398.018	396.748
7	15.620	15.69	396.748	398.526
6	15.545	15.52	394.843	394.208

Table 6.5: Diameter values for each stage

By integrating these spool measurements into the assembly process analysis, it is possible to predict and optimize the blade fitting conditions before final assembly, reducing rework and improving overall efficiency.

#### 6.1.4 Contact Point Analysis Between Blades

This section aims to identify the exact regions where contact occurs between adjacent blade platforms. The 3D scans of the blades do not offer sufficient resolution to precisely capture the geometry and curvature of the contact surfaces. Therefore, a more detailed analysis is required in these specific areas to understand how the platforms interact and to accurately determine where contact takes place during assembly and operation. To better understand how these surfaces interact, a two-part analysis was carried out: first through visual inspection of used blades to identify real contact marks, and then through precise CMM measurements to characterise the geometry of the contact areas.

To improve the dimensional characterization of the contact area between adjacent blade platforms, two reference profiles were defined: the left profile and the right profile. This naming helps simplify and organize the analysis that follows, making it easier to distinguish the different contact zones being assessed. Figure 6.4 shows the selected profiles and their location on the blade geometry.

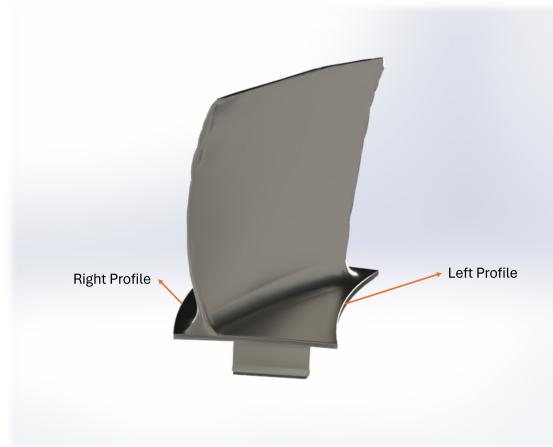


Figure 6.4: Contact zones identified by surface wear.

##### 6.1.4.1 Visual Inspection of Used Blades: Identifying Contact Zones

Initially, to understand where contact between adjacent blades occurs, five used narrow-body blades and five used wide-body blades were randomly selected from a worn LEAP-1A engine. Since these blades had already been in operation, the wear marks left by contact made it possible to visually identify the contact zones. Evidence of contact was observed mainly at the extremities of both profiles, as shown in Figure 6.5.



Figure 6.5: Contact zones identified by surface wear.

As shown in Figure 6.6, this contact pattern consistently appears across all the selected blades, confirming the repeatability of the phenomenon.

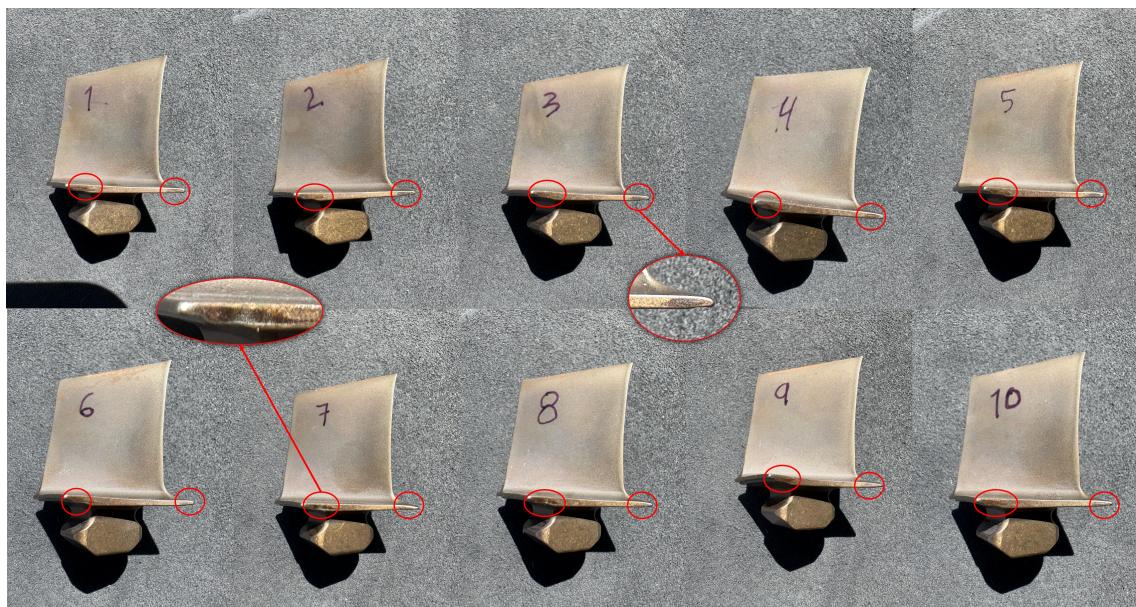


Figure 6.6: Contact zones identified by surface wear.

The presence of consistent wear marks at the extremities of both profiles suggests that these are the actual contact points during blade assembly. This indicates that the platform clearance is effectively defined at these specific regions, making them the critical areas to consider when trying to understand how the assembly gap is established in practice.

#### 6.1.4.2 Dimensional Characterization of Blade Contact Surfaces Using CMM

As established in Section 6.1.1, the dimensional tolerances required for blade manufacturing are extremely tight. For example, using the statistical tolerance model, the sixth stage of the HPC assembly demands a manufacturing tolerance of just **0.0645 mm** per blade. According to the metrology rule referred in 6.1.2, the measurement uncertainty must be no greater than one-tenth of the tolerance. Therefore the required measurement uncertainty must be below **0.00645 mm (6.45 µm)**.

As previously discussed, the HandySCAN 3D scanner, although highly useful for general reverse engineering tasks, does not provide the necessary accuracy in critical areas such as blade edges or contact surfaces. Its resolution is insufficient to guarantee the precision needed for meaningful dimensional comparison at this scale.

For this reason, it became essential to resort to measurement by Coordinate Measuring Machine (CMM), which provides the required level of precision to properly define the problem dimensionally and allow for accurate blade analysis.

The CMM available at TAP ME normally offers a precision of 0.001 inches ( $25.4 \mu\text{m}$ ). However, due to it being out of service at the time of this work, an alternative CMM was made available by the R&D department of Hanon Systems. This machine operates with a precision of  $1.6 + L/350 \mu\text{m}$ , where  $L$  is the length of the measured feature in millimetres.

For the measurements carried out on the contact profiles, this results in a measurement uncertainty of  $1.6605 \mu\text{m}$  for the left profile and  $1.6614 \mu\text{m}$  for the right profile—well within the required accuracy range for this analysis.

Before each measurement, the CMM performs an initial alignment process to establish the coordinate system (X, Y, and Z axes) and ensure that the fixation tool is correctly positioned. This procedure is illustrated in Figure 6.7, which shows the alignment sequence in three steps.

In the first step (left image), the probe detects four points on the base of the fixation tool to define the initial plane — the YX plane.

Next (middle and right images), the machine scans four points on each lateral side of the fixation tool, resulting in eight points in total. Based on these, it calculates an intermediate surface that defines the YZ plane.

Finally, a single point is probed on the front face of the fixation tool (right image), allowing the system to determine the XZ plane and complete the coordinate setup.

While this method ensures consistency in positioning, it also presents a limitation: the alignment is referenced to the fixation tool rather than the blade itself. As a result, slight geometric deviations between individual blades may go unnoticed, reducing the accuracy of contact surface comparisons.

In this analysis, the same ten randomly selected sixth stage blades previously examined for surface wear — five narrow-body and five wide-body — were measured to capture detailed geometric data from the contact zones and assess part-to-part variation.

The resulting coordinate system, defined through this alignment procedure, is represented in Figure 6.8, which was extracted from the CMM simulation software and visually illustrates the orientation of the X, Y, and Z axes relative to the fixture.

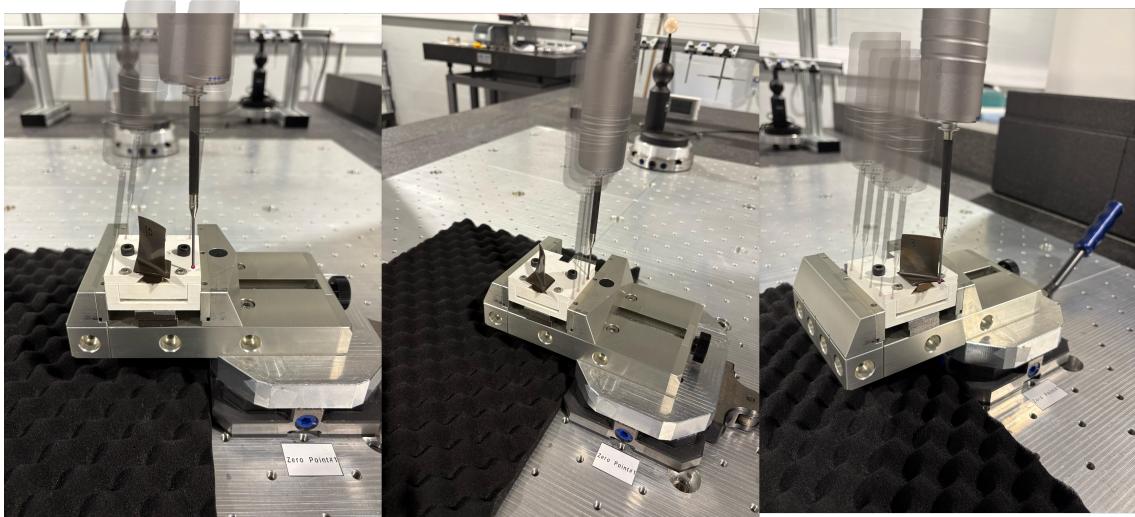


Figure 6.7: Contact zones identified by surface wear.

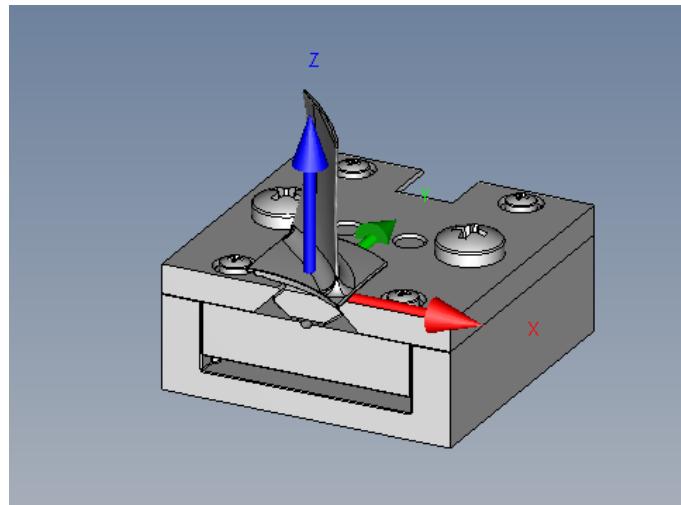


Figure 6.8: Contact zones identified by surface wear.

The CMM measurement procedure consisted of single passes along the contact profiles. For each blade, the probe performed three scan paths: one on the left profile and one on the right profile with 400 points each, and two additional passes on the left profile at different heights. These dense point clouds allowed for a detailed reconstruction of the contact surface geometry. Additionally, with the last two passes the system estimated the angle of the contact profile within the YZ plane to better understand the surface orientation. All individual measurements are presented in the annex, and the measured curvature radii are summarized in the following table.

## 6.1. BLADE ASSEMBLY PROCESS AND CLEARANCE REQUIREMENTS

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Table 6.6: CMM measured radii at left and right profiles for Narrow and Wide Body blades.

Narrow Body Radius (mm)			Wide Body Radius (mm)		
Blade N°	Left Profile	Right Profile	Blade N°	Left Profile	Right Profile
1	30.7734	30.548	6	30.6168	30.6588
2	30.7584	30.545	7	30.5421	30.6623
3	30.7627	30.5403	8	30.5850	30.6342
4	30.7451	30.5411	9	30.5942	30.6323
5	30.7355	30.5327	10	30.6379	30.6614
<b>Avg 30.7550</b>		<b>Avg 30.5414</b>	<b>Avg 30.5952</b>		<b>Avg 30.6498</b>

Table 6.7: Summary of average and variation between maximum and minimum CMM-measured radii.

Profile	Narrow Body (mm)		Wide Body (mm)	
	Left	Right	Left	Right
Average Radius	30.7550	30.5414	30.5952	30.6498
Max-Min Variation	0.0379	0.0153	0.0958	0.0300

Based on the results presented in Table 6.7, the average values of the measured radii for each profile were defined as the nominal dimensions to be used in the blade model. The corresponding variations between the maximum and minimum values measured for each profile are considered representative of the dimensional tolerance associated with each nominal value. This approach ensures that the nominal model reflects the actual manufacturing variability observed across the sampled blades.

Additionally, as shown in the reports presented in the appendix and previously referenced, these measurements also aimed to estimate the angle of the contact profile within the YZ plane. However, due to the complex geometry and the limited thickness available for probing, the resulting values showed significant variation between blades. This results are presented in Table 6.8

Table 6.8: Estimated angles of the contact profiles within the YZ plane (in degrees).

Left Profile Angle (°)	Right Profile Angle (°)
-23.0719	-34.9658
-31.6433	-34.7307
-36.5751	-36.2302
-35.0147	-37.0324
-38.9593	-32.0996

These results are presented in Table 6.8, which highlights the lack of consistency between the measured angles. Given this high variability, it was concluded that these values cannot be reliably used to define a nominal model for the contact profile geometry. Therefore, angle estimation was excluded from the subsequent dimensional analysis.

In the following chapters, if angle measurement becomes necessary, the measurement procedure will need to be revisited. This may involve using different probe paths or adopting a more suitable strategy to capture the angular orientation of these narrow surfaces with greater repeatability.

# Scan, Point Cloud Processing, and CAD Model

## 7.1 Scanning Process of the Compressor Blade

To generate an accurate digital model of the compressor blade, it was crucial to capture a complete and detailed point cloud of its geometry. Given the complex shape and critical role of the blade, a structured approach was followed to ensure precision in data acquisition and processing. The scanning process was designed to encompass all necessary surfaces while minimizing errors and distortions.

The first step in the scanning process involved attaching positioning targets to a fixed table. A technician from the Dimensional Inspection department at [TAP](#) carried out the scan using the Creaform HandyScan, a handheld 3D scanner. As represented in Figure , the targets placed on the table provided reference points that enhanced accuracy and enabled precise alignment of the scans. By positioning the blade in different orientations, it was possible to capture data from multiple angles, ensuring complete surface coverage. The VXelements software utilized these positioning targets to align the scans more precisely.

For this particular case, scanning was performed with the blade placed in two different positions. This ensured that all necessary surfaces were captured. After obtaining the individual scans, the merging process was conducted using the best-fit alignment method. This method, which employs an iterative closest point algorithm, minimizes the squared distances between overlapping scan points, thereby achieving a seamless integration of the different scans into a single mesh.

During the scanning process, the reflective nature of the blade's surface further complicated the scanning process, causing inconsistencies in data capture. In some cases, fine particles such as talcum powder can be applied to reduce reflections and improve scan quality. For the sixth stage blade scan an error also occurred in the scanning process that resulted in missing data from a non-functional surface of the blade. This missing data is represented in Figure 7.1 with a blue mark. This issue was addressed within VXelements by performing mesh processing to refine and correct the scanned model.

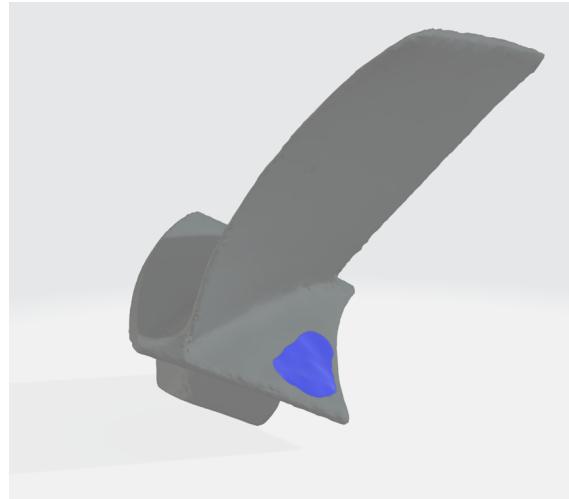


Figure 7.1: Missing data in Scan

VXelements was utilized to remove unwanted points captured from the surrounding environment to enhance the final mesh quality. Furthermore, specific mesh processing tools were applied to address minor irregularities and fill non-critical gaps. However, it is important to note that the wide and narrow regions of the blade did not require scanning, as their impact on the overall accuracy was minimal. This aspect will be further elaborated in the Blade CAD Model Accuracy section.

In summary, the scanning process for the compressor blade involved multiple viewpoints, best-fit merging, and mesh refinement to achieve a high-quality digital representation. Despite minor challenges, the final scans provided a reliable foundation for further CAD modeling and analysis. Figure 7.2 presents the point cloud obtained from the scanning process of the Sixth Stage blade.



Figure 7.2: Stage 6 Point Cloud

## 7.2 Point Cloud Processing and CAD Model Creation

To generate the CAD model from the scanned data, the point cloud was processed and imported into SolidWorks using the Xtract3D add-in. This tool facilitated working directly with the point cloud by enabling reference geometry creation and surface sculpting based on the scanned data.

Unlike traditional workflows where an STL file is imported as a surface body to optimize processing, Xtract3D allowed for direct manipulation of the point cloud without losing critical geometric information. This streamlined the modeling process, reducing the need for intermediate conversions and preserving the fidelity of the scanned data.

Using the Xtract3D slice feature, cross-sections were extracted from the point cloud, as represented in Figure 7.3. This allows guiding the creation of accurate profiles and lofted surfaces that replicated the original blade geometry with high precision. By leveraging these tools, the CAD model was refined iteratively to match the scanned data while ensuring manufacturability and compatibility with further analysis.

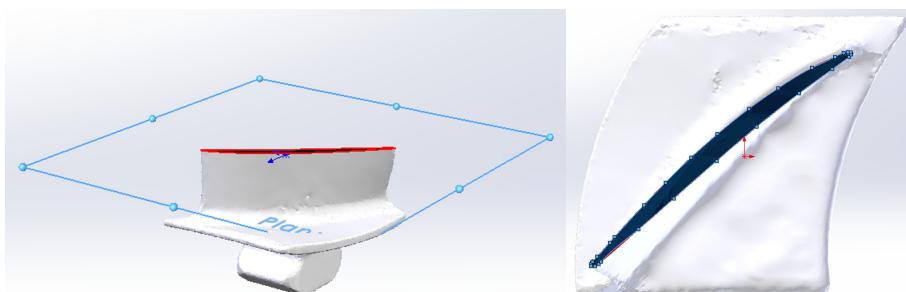


Figure 7.3: Mesh and CAD Comparison

As illustrated in Figure 7.4, this process enables the generation of an accurate CAD model from the scanned data.



Figure 7.4: Mesh and CAD Comparison

In the next section, the accuracy of the generated model will be evaluated against the scanned blade, accompanied by additional analyses, in order to ensure a parametric

model accurate enough to support the development of this dissertation.

## Design and Application of Tooling for CMM: Fixation System Modeling

### **8.1 Past Work**

### **8.2 Prototipe**

## Tool Design for Blade Clearance Control

Following the conclusions drawn in Section 6.1.4 regarding the actual contact points between blade platforms, it became necessary to verify whether the platform clearance measured during assembly (as illustrated in Figure 6.2) is indeed defined by these contact zones. To assess this, a comparative analysis was performed between the theoretical clearance—derived from nominal tolerances and the number of blades per stage, as listed in Table 6.2—and actual measurements taken from the same ten blades previously analyzed for contact geometry. This comparison aims to verify whether the observed clearance truly results from contact at the identified zones.

### Verification of Contact-Based Clearance

To confirm that the platform clearance measured during blade assembly (as shown in Figure 6.2) results from contact occurring at the extremities of the platform profiles—as identified in Section 6.1.4—it is necessary to compare the expected clearance arc with the geometric configuration of the assembly.

Given:

- Diameter:  $D = 394.208 \text{ mm}$
- Perimeter:  $p = \pi D = \pi \times 394.208 = 1238.441 \text{ mm}$
- Clearance:  $0.508 \text{ mm}$

### Angle and Arc Estimation

First it is critical to understand if the clearance chord corresponds to the arc length between two blades:

$$\text{Clearence Arc} = 0.508 \text{ mm}$$

To find the corresponding angle  $\theta$  (in radians):

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$$\text{Clearence Chord} = 2R \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

$$0.508 = 394.208 \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

$$\sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = \frac{0.508}{394.208} = 1.28866 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$\frac{\theta}{2} = \arcsin(1.28866 \times 10^{-3}) \Rightarrow \theta \approx 2.5773 \times 10^{-3} \text{ rad} \approx 0.147^\circ$$

$$\text{Arc Length (mm)} = R (\text{mm}) \cdot \theta (\text{rad})$$

$$\text{Clearence Arc Length} = \frac{394.208}{2} \cdot 2.5773 \times 10^{-3} = 0.508 \text{ mm}$$

Therefore it is possible to assume that chord  $\approx$  arc.

## Recalculation with Manufacturing Tolerances

Let:

- $W = \text{WideBodyBladeArcLength}$  mm
- $N = \text{NarrowBodyBladeArcLength}$  mm
- $Lock = \text{LockBladeArcLength}$  mm

$$p' = p - \text{Clearance Arc Length} = 1238.441 - 0.508 = 1237.933 \text{ mm}$$

According to

$$1237.933 = 26W + 36N + 4Lock \Rightarrow 1237.933 = 26(N + 0.254) + 36N + 4N$$

$$N = 18.7465 \text{ mm}$$

Chord Length associated to this value:

$$18.7465 = \frac{394.208}{2} \cdot \theta \Rightarrow \theta = 0.0951 \text{ rad}$$

$$\text{Chord} = 394.208 \cdot \sin\left(\frac{0.0951}{2}\right) \approx 18.7394 \text{ mm}$$

Table 9.1: Measured chord values (in mm) for Narrow and Wide Body blades.

<b>Narrow Body Chord (mm)</b>	<b>Wide Body Chord (mm)</b>
Blade 1	18.73
Blade 2	18.65
Blade 3	18.74
Blade 4	18.76
Blade 5	18.72
Blade 6	18.99
Blade 7	18.98
Blade 8	18.98
Blade 9	18.99
Blade 10	18.99

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# A

## Appendix

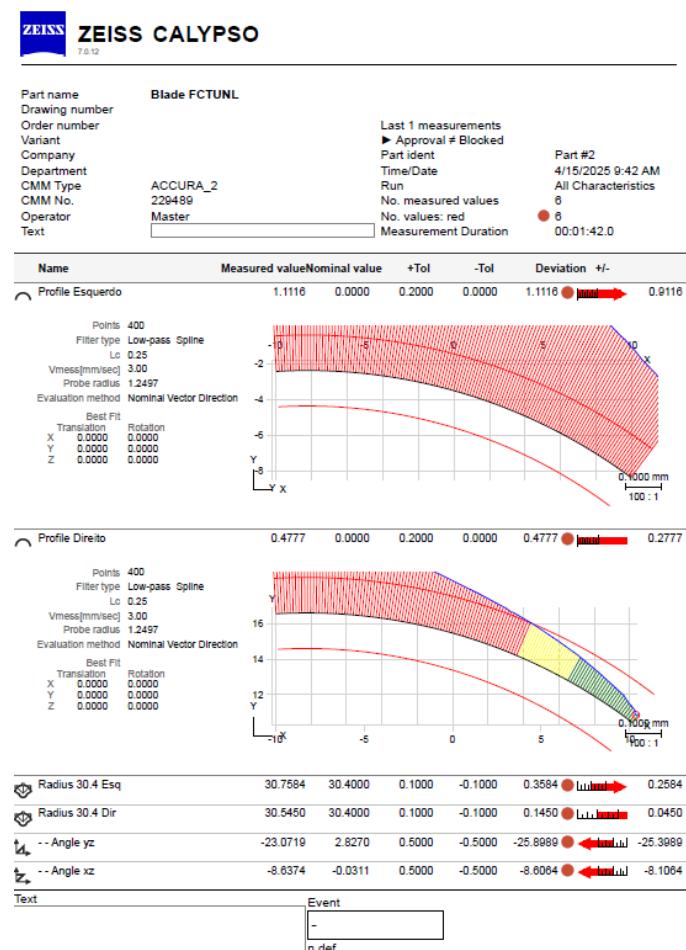


Figure A.1: Profile Measurement Report Blade 1

## APPENDIX A. APPENDIX

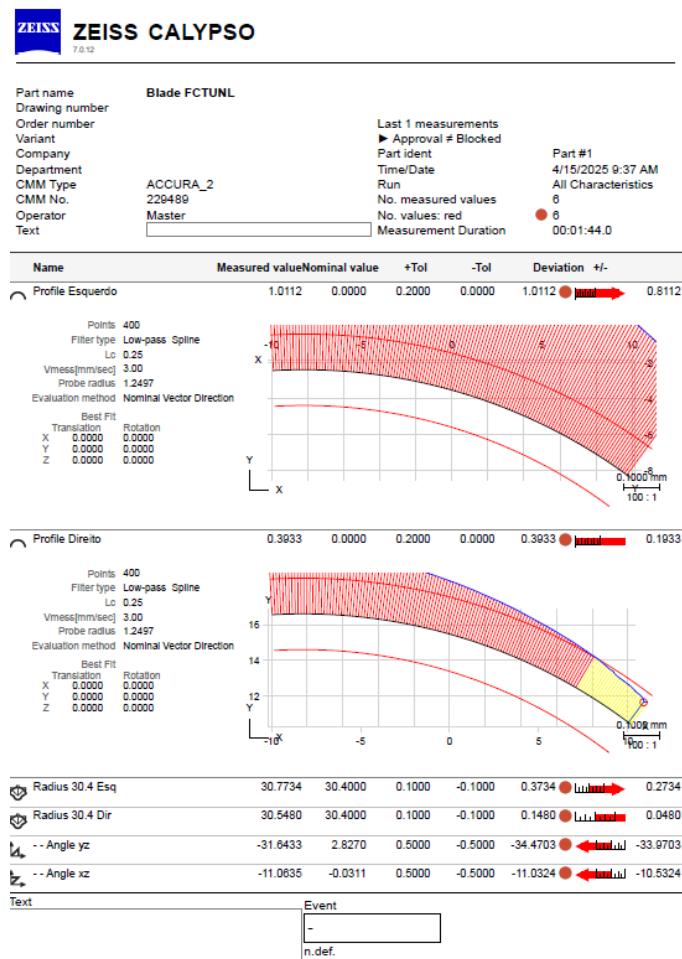


Figure A.2: Profile Measurement Report Blade 2

**ZEISS CALYPSO**

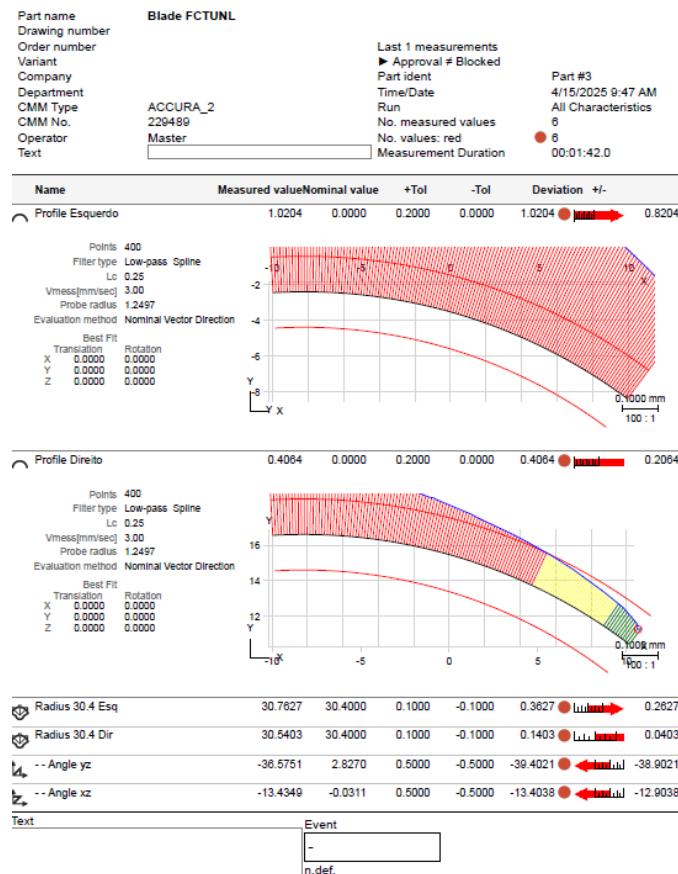


Figure A.3: Profile Measurement Report Blade 3

## APPENDIX A. APPENDIX

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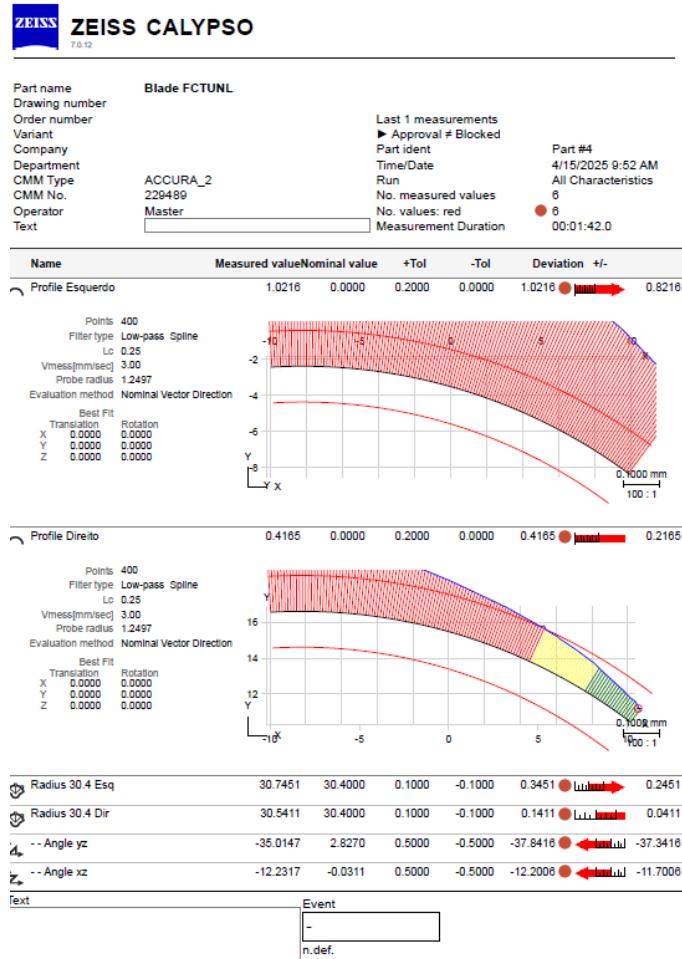


Figure A.4: Profile Measurement Report Blade 4

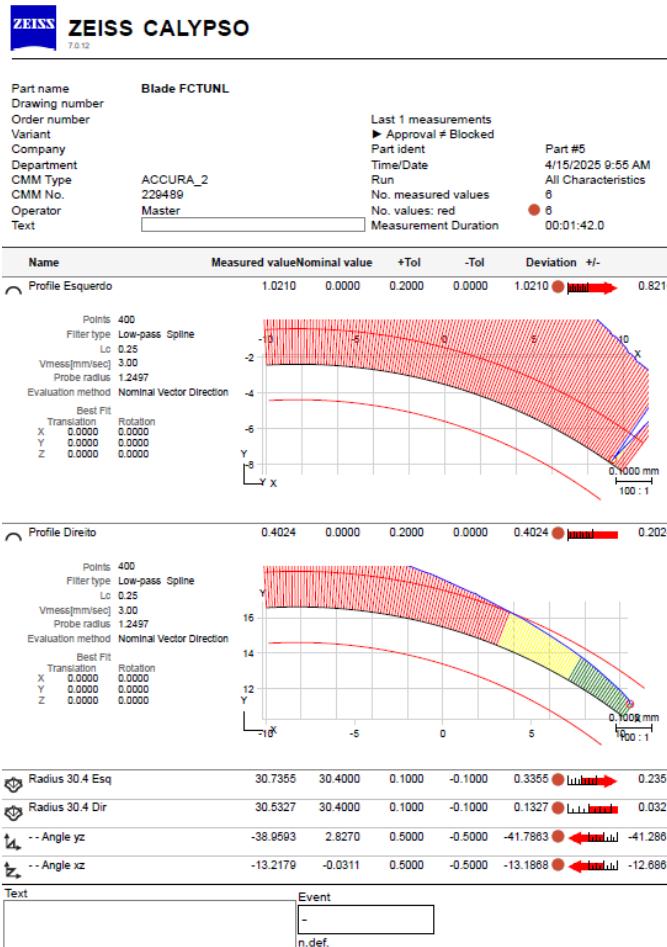


Figure A.5: Profile Measurement Report Blade 5

## APPENDIX A. APPENDIX

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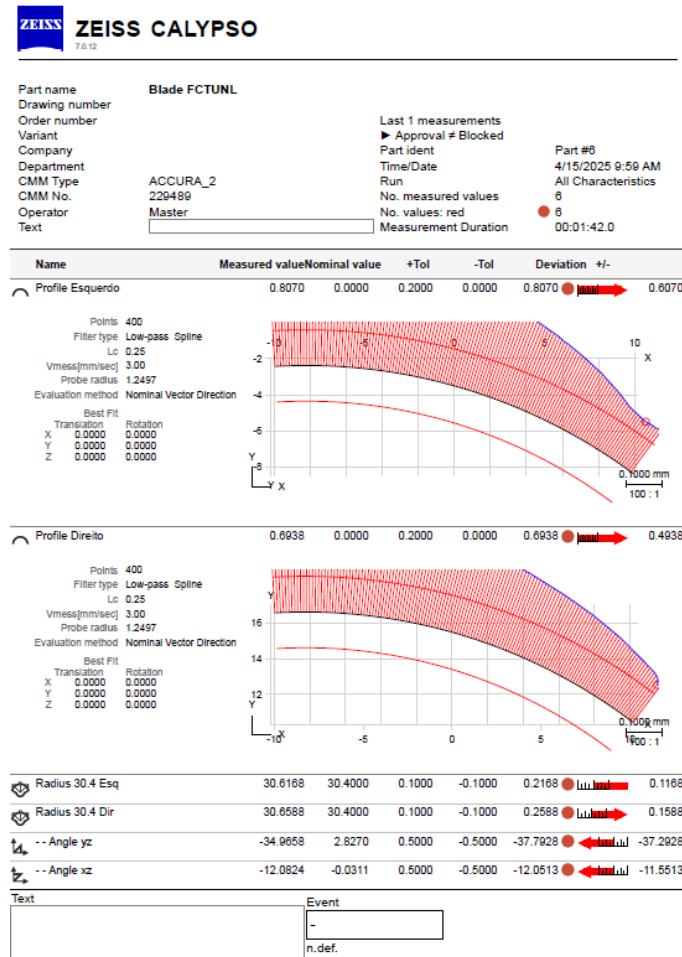


Figure A.6: Profile Measurement Report Blade 6

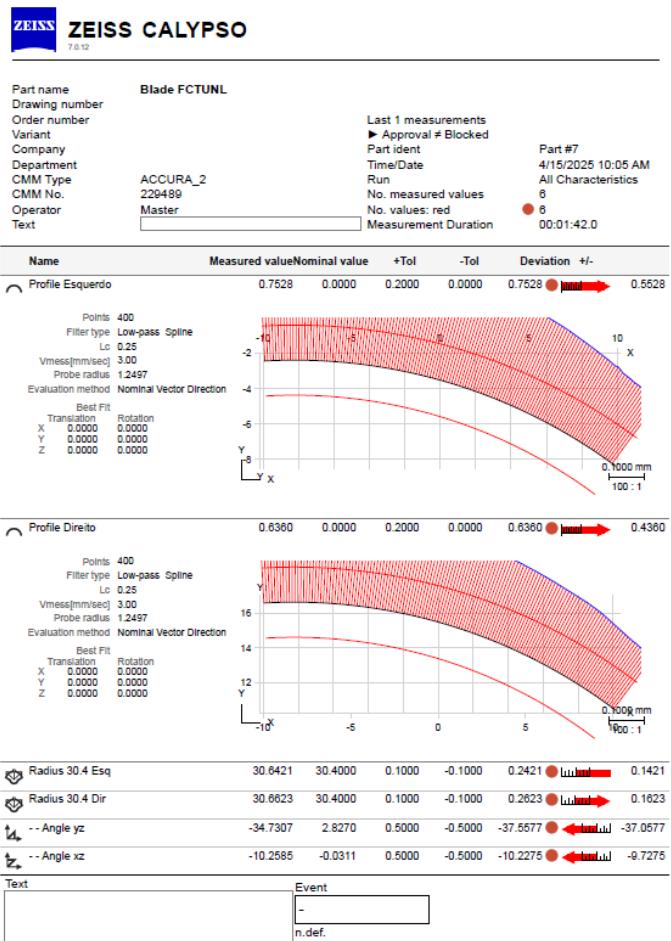


Figure A.7: Profile Measurement Report Blade 7

## APPENDIX A. APPENDIX

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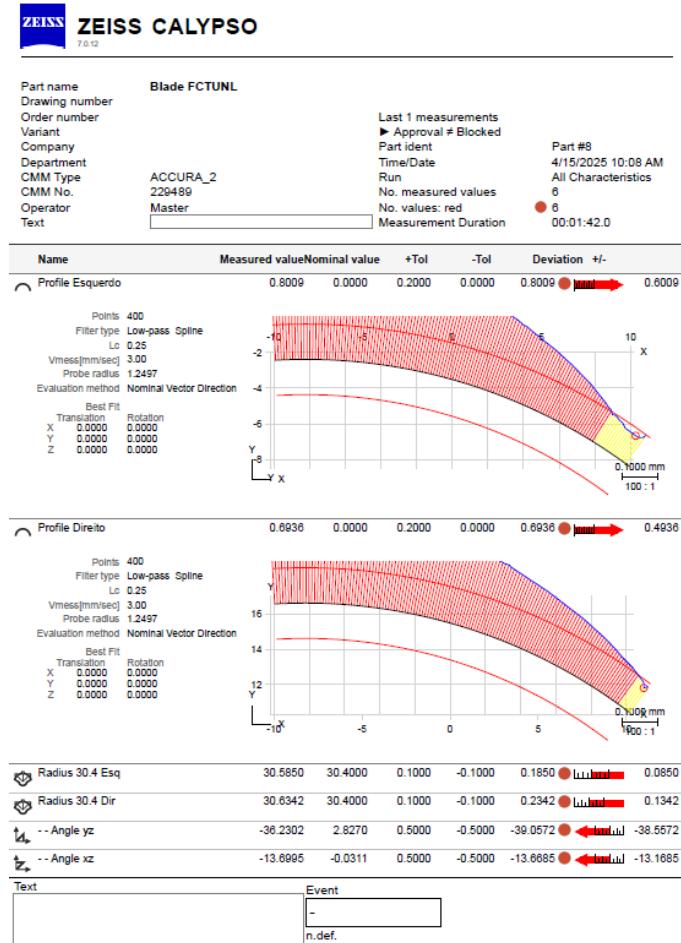


Figure A.8: Profile Measurement Report Blade 8

**ZEISS CALYPSO**

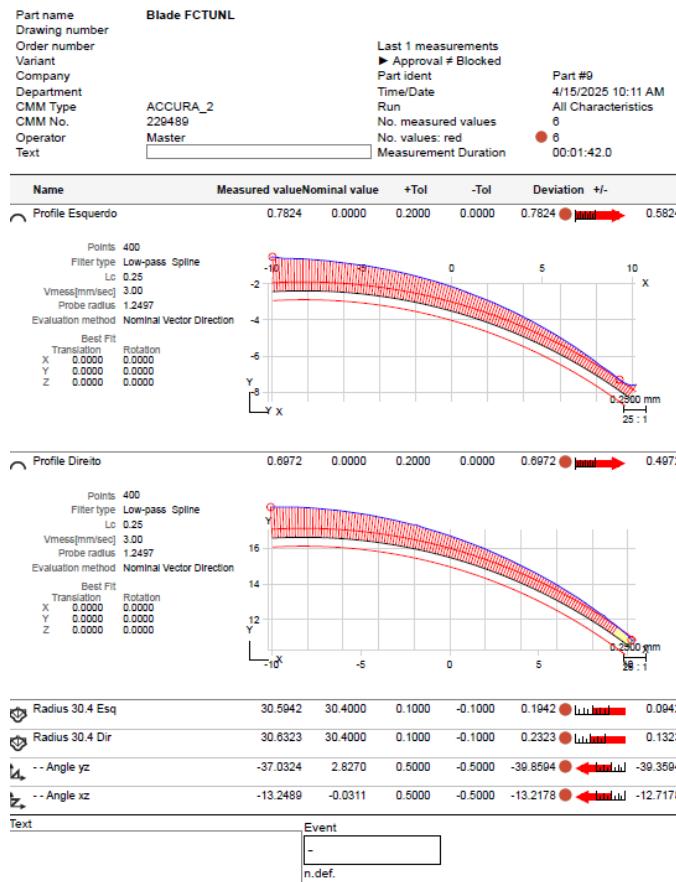


Figure A.9: Profile Measurement Report Blade 9

## APPENDIX A. APPENDIX

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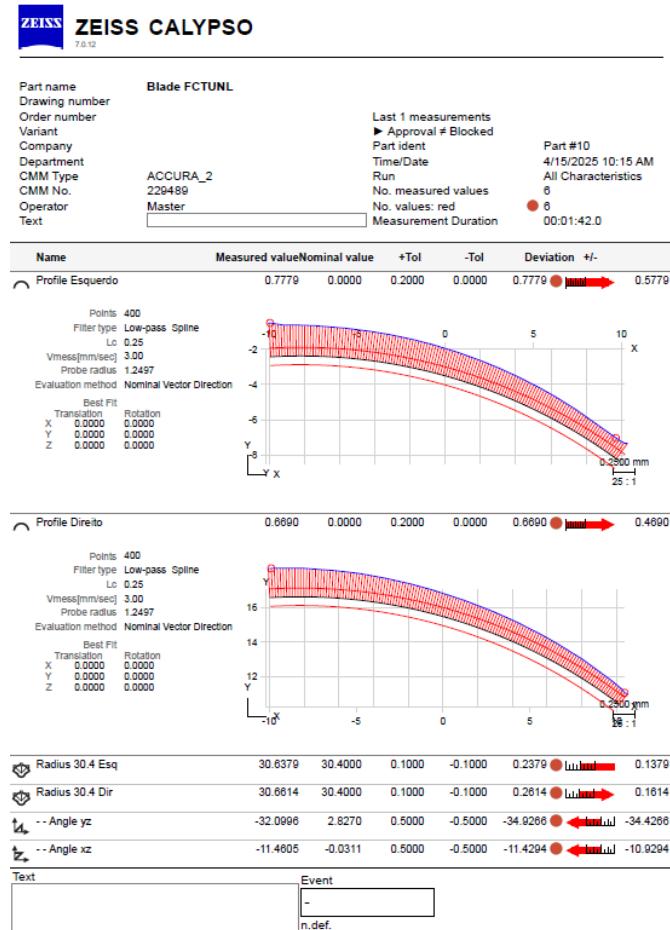


Figure A.10: Profile Measurement Report Blade 10



# THE MONTGOMERY COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Montgomery County Public Schools