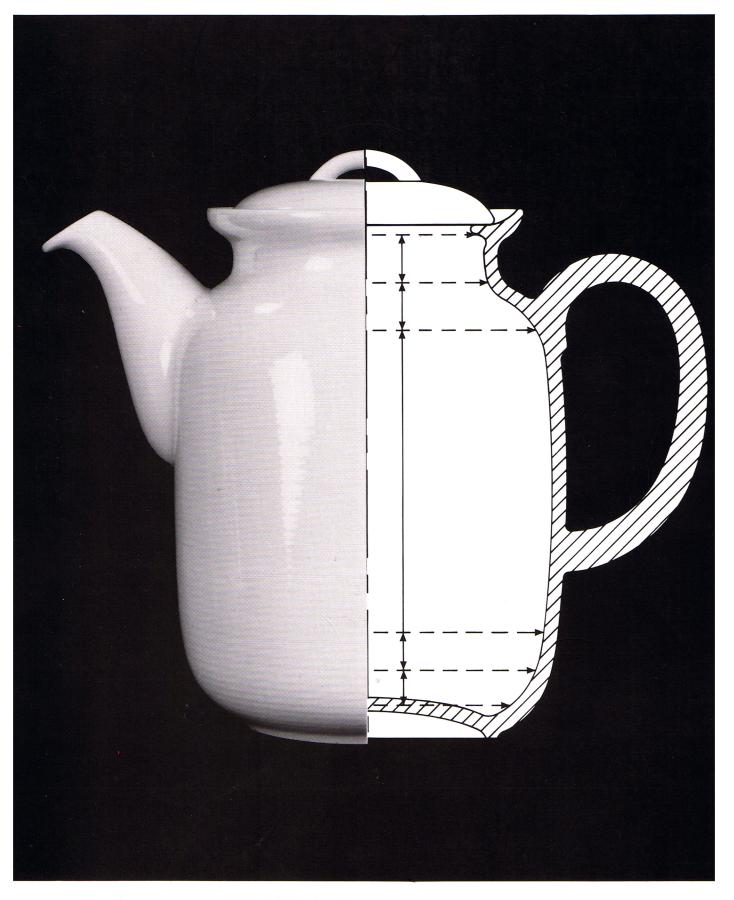
VOLUMETRIC CALCULATIONS

FOR DESIGNERS & CRAFTSPEOPLE



PREPARED BY QUEENSBERRY HUNT DESIGN CONSULTANTS

PUBLISHED BY POTTERYCRAFTS LTD

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Introduction

Designers, craftsmen and modellers need to be able to determine with accuracy the volume of a vessel. If it exists as a prototype, this can be done easily by filling it with water from a graduated cylinder or by weighing the water that is needed to fill it. If the design, however, exists only as a drawing or solid model, other methods have to be used. Design usually starts on paper, but not always, and it is impossible when designing let us say a wine glass, carafe or teapot to be sure that what you have put on paper will have the required capacity. It is important to be able to determine accurately the volume of what you have drawn and then if necessary adjust the drawing to give a required capacity.

Most people with a modest knowledge of maths know how to calculate the volume of a cube, cylinder or sphere, but the objects we are concerned with do not usually fall into these categories. There are no simple mathematical formulae to calculate the volume of these solids. In order to calculate the volume, it is necessary to divide them up into component parts such as cones or cylinders or break them down into slices in the way that salami is cut in a delicatessen. It is possible to calculate the volume of any 3-dimensional object with reasonable accuracy by establishing the sectional area of parallel slices at regular intervals. The more slices the greater the accuracy. This is, of course, easy to do if the object has a circular cross-section as the cross-sectional area of any slice can be derived from its radius. Unfortunately, many practitioners of design and modellers working in the ceramic industry have been taught to do this incorrectly. The system that is often used is to measure the sectional radii, average these and calculate the volume as a cylinder. In certain cases this method can give an error of such magnitude that it renders the calculation invalid. Using the same measurements, it is possible to perform an accurate volumetric calculations by employing a slightly different technique called Durand's Method.

In the following chapters, various techniques of volume calculation are given: these include the universally applicable Durand's Method, and some quicker methods based on geometric shapes such as cones and cylinders, and an intriguing method known as Pappus' Theorem.

The subject of volumetric calculations has not been covered previously for people with minimal mathematical knowledge. The ways that are recommended for these calculations are in many cases approximations, but with care, should give results accurate to a few percent. There are some tricks of the trade that are useful, like how to model a figurative piece, such as a Toby Jug, at a predetermined capacity. Few mathematicians would have any idea how this could be done.

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Volume Calculations of Solid Objects

It is normally recommended that brimful capacity should be measured. In the case of vessels with an internal fitting lid, the capacity should be measured to the underneath of the verge that supports the lid. Some coffee and tea pots overflow before the liquid rises to this point and if this is the case the capacity should be measured to this height.

With containers for liquids such as beer, wine and spirits, capacity has to take into account headspace: this is the capacity in the container above the point to which it will be filled. The head space is expressed as a percentage of the volume of the liquid that will be put in the container. This is termed the vacuity.

With a normal wine bottle holding 750cc and with a cork closure, the vacuity will be between 3.5 and 4.5%, giving a bottle with a brimful capacity of 776cc to 783cc.

MEASURING CYLINDERS

Fill the measuring cylinder accurately to a capacity greater than the volume of the vessel that you want to measure (volume A). Pour water from the cylinder into the vessel and then note the volume of the water left in the flask (volume B). The volume of the vessel is A-B. Always use the smallest diameter cylinder possible.

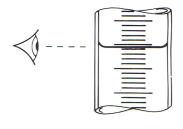
Taking the reading of a measuring cylinder is confused by the water climbing up the sides around the contact points with the glass, an action caused by surface tension. For accuracy the reading must be taken to the general level of the water away from the sides.

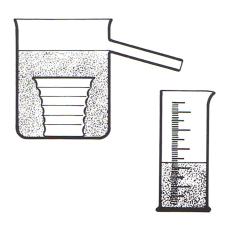
DISPLACEMENT

Any solid object that is immersed in a liquid displaces its own volume. This simple principle is evidenced when you get in the bath and the water rises. Archimedes was the first person to see the scientific importance of this. It is possible to determine the volume of a solid object by lowering it into a tank full up with water and measuring the volume of the water that overflows. Obviously, this would be a messy system so it is necessary to have a tank with an overflow pipe. The tank is then filled to the level of the overflow pipe. The object in question is lowered into the tank, causing water to be displaced through the overflow pipe. The volume of the displaced water is the same as that of the immersed object.

It needs to be noted that objects denser than water will sink by their own weight but objects that float need to be pushed under using a stiff, thin rod or immersed by attaching weights whose displacement can be determined separately. The other problem that may be encountered is porosity. If the object absorbs water the result will be inaccurate. This can be a problem with plaster, which is the most commonly used material for ceramic model making. The answer is to make sure the plaster model has been soaked thoroughly, or coated with a material that renders it impervious.







Weight

It is now possible to buy for a modest price accurate electronic kitchen scales with a digital display. The density of water is 1.00~(1g=1cc) so any weight of water in grammes can be transposed into a volumetric measurement in ccs. It is far easier to check volume by weight using electronic scales than by using a measuring cylinder. First weigh the vessel whose volume you wish to establish, then fill it with water and weigh again. The volume is the difference between the two weights, grammes equalling ccs. If you weigh in ounces then you have immediately got the capacity in fluid ounces. Most kitchen scales have a zero key so that you can cancel the weight of the vessel before filling it with water so it is only necessary to weigh once.

Densities

The density of an object is defined as the weight of the object divided by its volume. The density of water is 1.00g/cc whereas the density of fired ceramic material is approximately 2.5g/cc (ie. every cubic centimetre weighs 2.5g).

The volume of materials that make up an object can be calculated if the density and weight of the material is known. For example, an empty teacup has a weight of 225g. The volume of the ceramic material used can be calculated by dividing the weight of the teacup by the density of the constituent ceramic (2.5g/cc). Thus the volume of the ceramic material used in the construction is 225÷ 2.5 or 90cc. This information is particularly useful when determining volumes by complete displacement. The internal volume of an object equals the displacement volume less the material volume. A table of densities of common materials is given in Section 7.

Snips and Spouts

Jugs, coffeepots and teapots have some capacity in their pouring appendages, normally volumetric calculations disregard this. When making volumetric calculations of these vessels the following capacity increases are suggested:

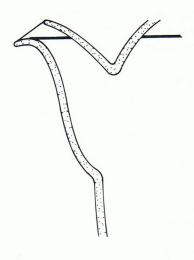
Pots with short spouts 65 mm add 20 cc Pots with long spouts 90 mm add 30 cc Cream jugs add 5 cc Gravy boats add 8 cc

Special Case (Toby Jug Method)

It is possible to model an irregular ceramic form like a Toby Jug to a given capacity without making a calculation. There is a reasonably accurate relationship between the volume of a clay sized model, and the fired size vessel produced from the model, provided the forms are of a general similarity. If it is known that a one pint Toby Jug is modelled from a particular volume of clay, then other Toby Jugs modelled from the same volume of clay will also have a one pint capacity. This system works if you assume the same ceramic body, firing temperature and wall thickness.









2. Volume Calculations of Designed Objects

For vessels at the design stage, prior to three-dimensional modelling, the methods demonstrated in the following sections can be used to calculate volumes. Whilst in most practical cases, it is usual to make certain approximations (decreasing the overall calculation time), it has been found that the methods described yield both reasonably accurate and useful results.

There are four basic methods of calculation:

- 1) Use of mathematical equations that describe or approximate closely the form of a vessel-drawing $\mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{b}$ on facing page.
- 2) Dividing the solid in question into a series of convenient conical or pyramidal sections that closely approximate the overall shape, calculating the volume of each section by simple formulae, and adding the volumes of each section together Drawing ${\bf c}$.
- 3) Dividing the solid into small slices of equal height and applying Durand's rule to the dimensions of each section to obtain the volume, the more slices the more accurate the result, (called Durand's method) drawing ${\bf d}$.
- 4) Pappus' Theorum drawing **e**.

Dividing an object up into many, very thin slices with the subsequent calculations is a task best suited to a digital computer. Computers are used for this purpose where very high accuracy and speed are required. It is anticipated that, with the advent of computer-aided design within the industry, more and more calculations will be performed using computers.

All the methods described here use simple arithmetic and are best performed using the provided calculation sheets with the aid of a pocket calculator.

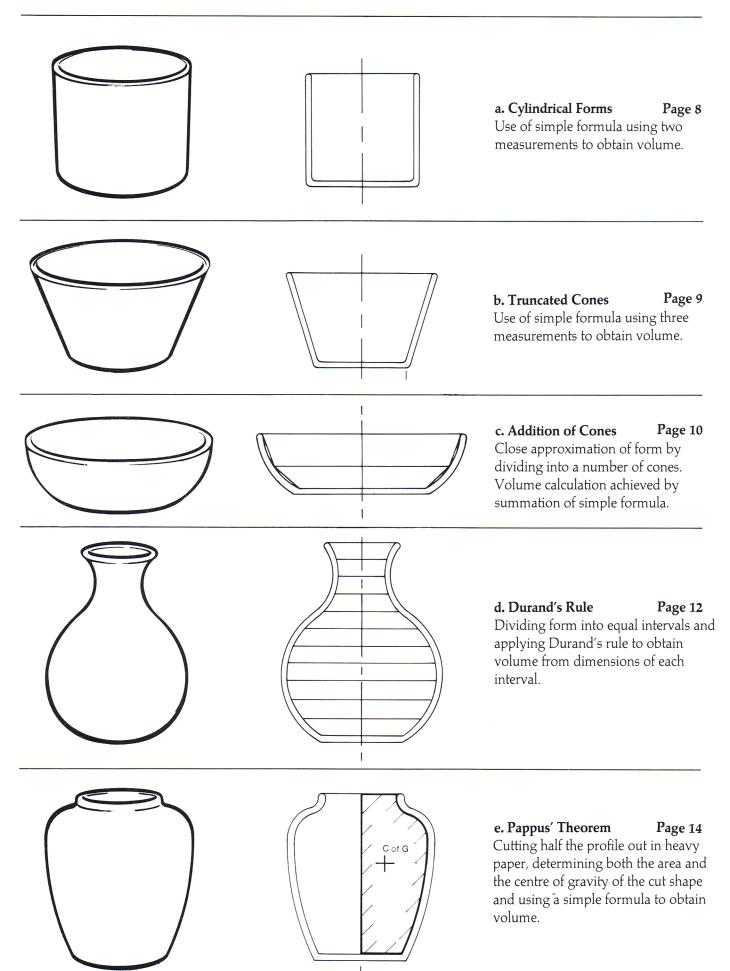
Standardised notation is used throughout all the diagrams, examples and calculations as described below.

MAJOR RADII (radii perpendicular	$R R_1 R_2$	ELLIPTICAL MAJOR AXIS	$a a_1 a_2$
to a central axis)		ELLIPTICAL MINOR AXIS	$b \ b_1 \ b_2$
OTHER RADII	$r r_1 r_2$	AREA	$A A_1 A_2$
HEIGHT	$h\;h_1\;h_2$	OTHER VARIABLES	DNW
LENGTH	$x x_1 x_2$	CONSTANT π	(3.1416)

It is strongly recommended that each calculation is performed with a layout identical to the ones given in the following examples. Blank calculation sheets are provided for this purpose towards the rear of this book.

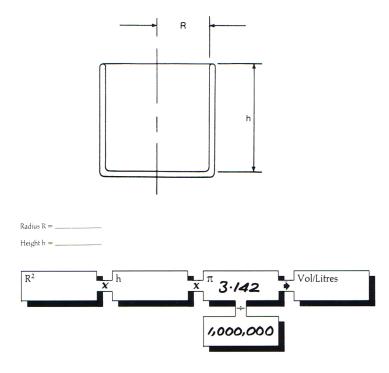
All measurements are worked throughout in millimetres. The resultant is divided by 1,000,000, converting cubic millimetres (millilitres) into litres, giving a figure for the volume which is easier to manage and understand.

2.1 Round Forms-Index of Calculating Methods

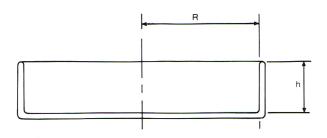


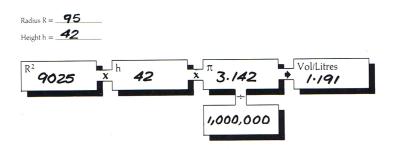
Cylindrical Forms

 $Volume = \pi R^2 h$



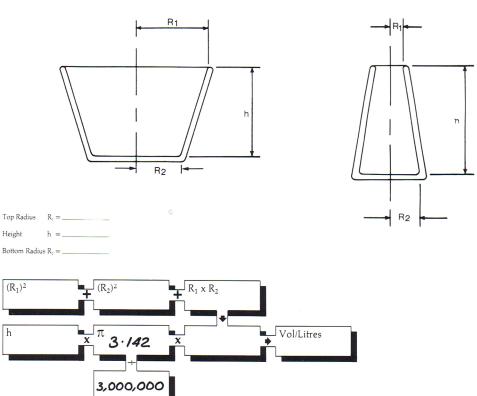
Example



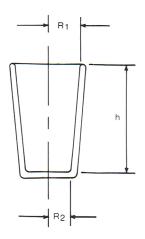


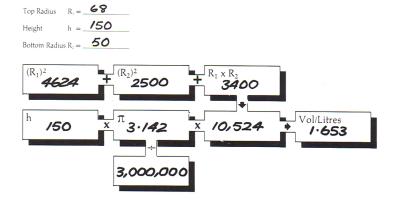
Truncated Forms

Volume = $\frac{\pi}{3}$ h [R₁²+R₂+R₁R₂]



Example

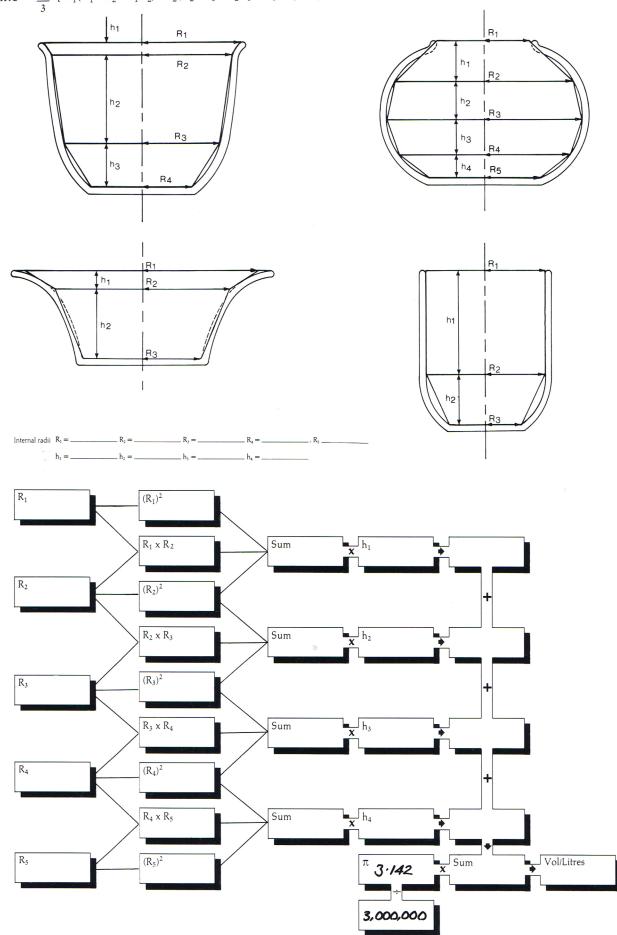




Addition of Cones

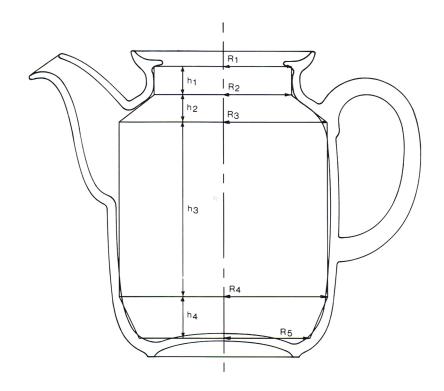
2, 3, & 4 Truncated Cone Combinations

 $Volume = \frac{\pi}{^3} \ [\ h_1(R_1^2 + R_2^2 + R_1R_2) + h_2(R_2^2 + R_3^2 + R_2R_3) + h_3 \ (R_3^2 + R_4^2 + R_3R_4) + h_4(R_4^2 + R_5^2 + R_4R_5)]$



Example, Thomas Coffee Pot (as shown on front cover)

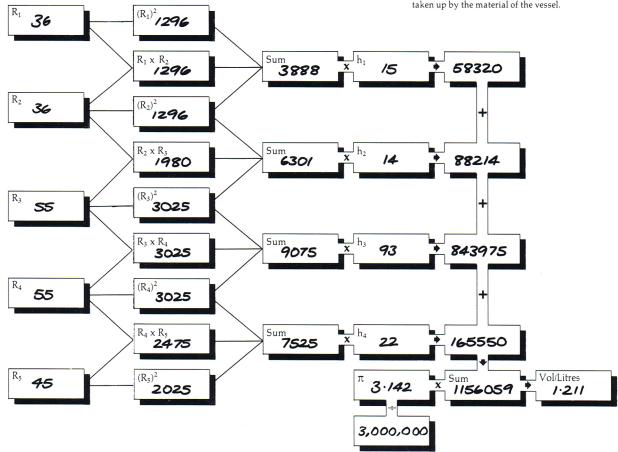
Calculation by Cones



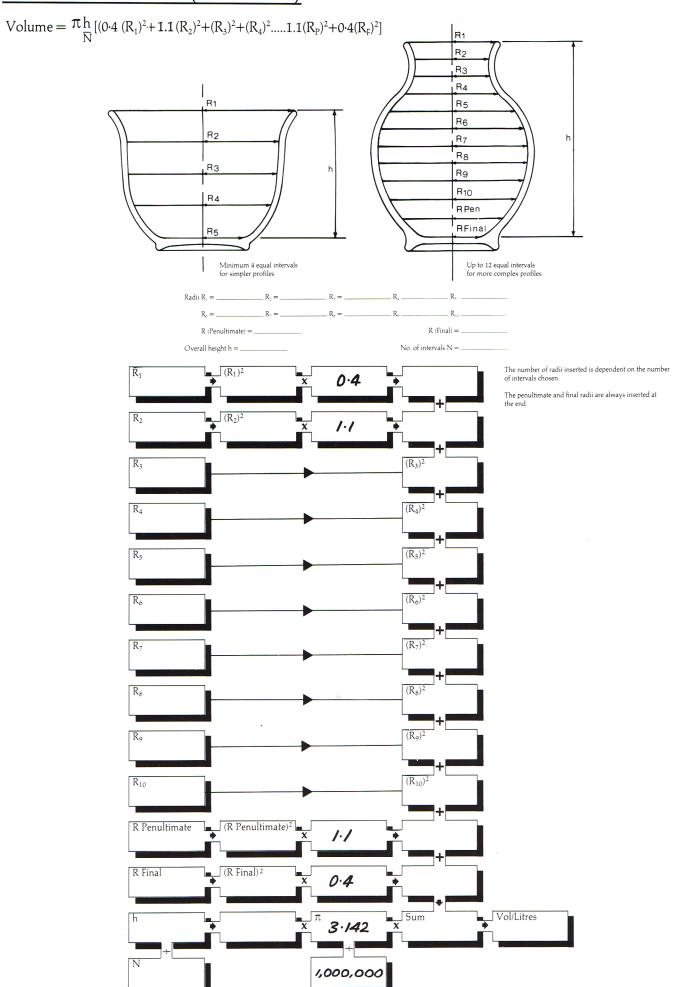
Internal radii
$$R_1 = 36$$
 $R_2 = 36$ $R_3 = 55$ $R_4 = 55$ $R_5 = 45$

When the internal volume is divided into cones an inaccuracy appears as the conic sections can only approximate the internal curved form.

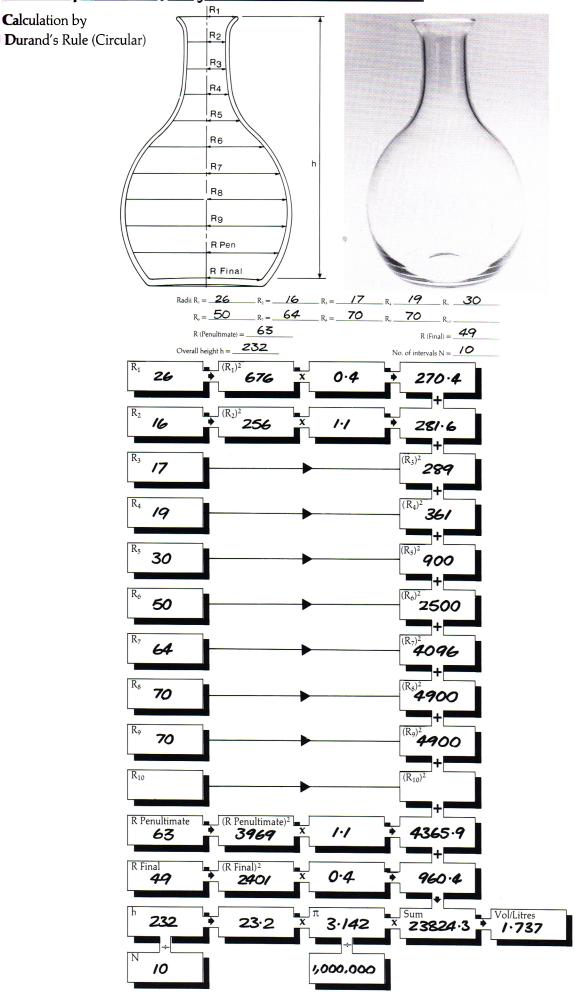
To increase the accuracy of the calculations the radius measurements of the conic sections can extend a little into the body making the straight line of the conic section average out the measured volume space between the internal space and that taken up by the material of the vessel.



Durand's Rule (Circular)

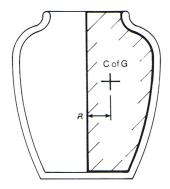


Example, Reijmyre Glass Decanter



Pappus' Theorem

Volume = $2 \pi AR$



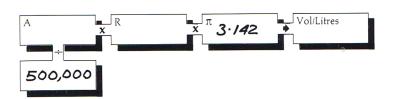
By locating the Centre of Gravity (C of G) and determining the area of half the internal vertical section Pappus' Theorem can be applied using the above formula.

The Centre of Gravity (C of G) is found by cutting the half profile out of card, and suspending it from at least two points around the periphery allowing the cut-out to fall freely, and marking on the cut-out where the perfect vertical lies for each suspension point. The place at which the vertical lines cross indicates the C of G. The radius from the central axis of the object to the C of G is found by direct measurement.

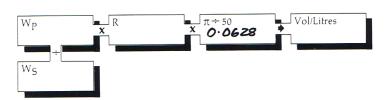
The area is found either by calculation using standard formulae for areas listed on page 45, by weighing or more easily by square counting.

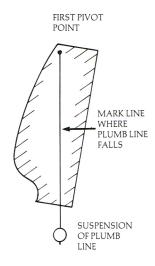
Square counting requires the half profile to be cut out, or marked out on millimetre graph paper. The area is given directly by the addition of all the squares within the shape.

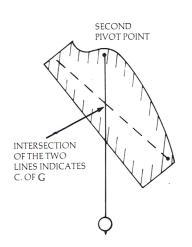
Area of half profile $A = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} mm^2$ Radius of C of G (millimetres) $R = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} mm$



The weighing method requires the use of an accurate balance to determine the weight of half the profile shape and also the weight of a square, measuring 100mm x 100mm, cut from the same piece of card.

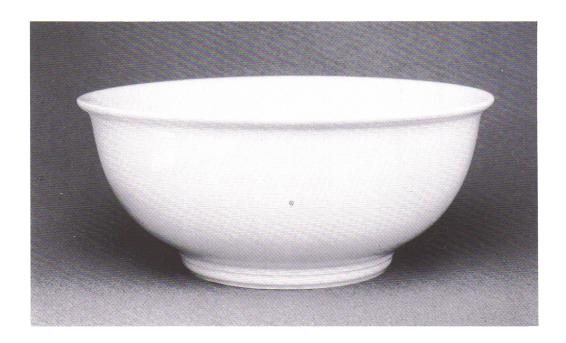


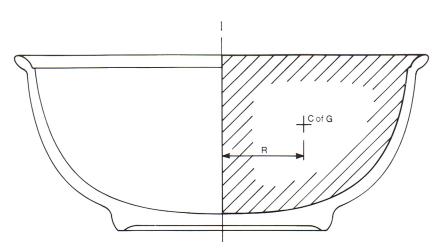


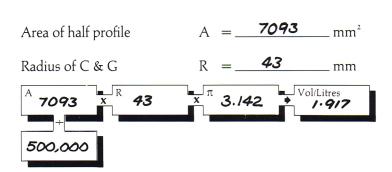


Example, Thomas Bowl

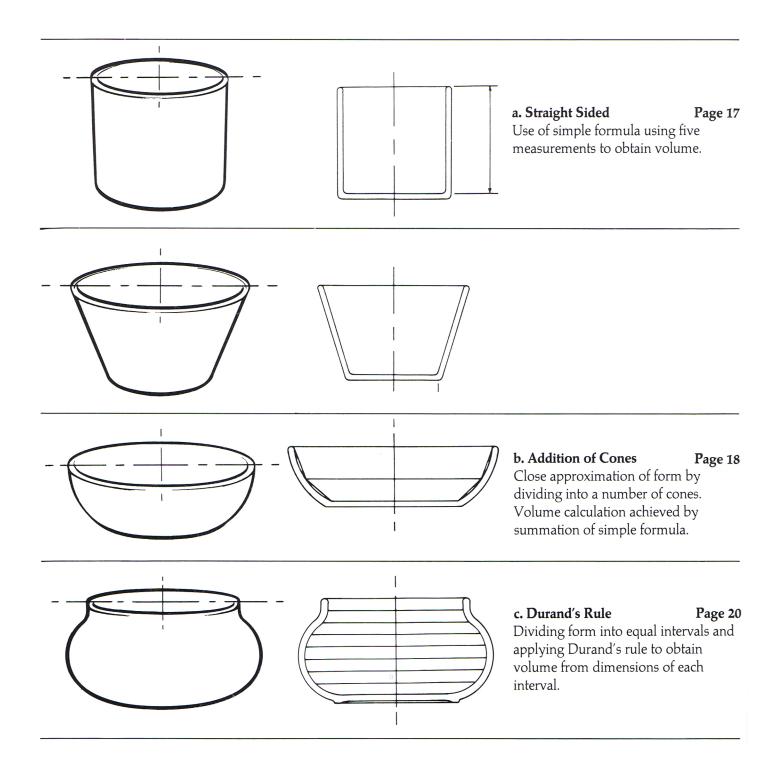
Calculation by Pappus' Theorem (Circular)







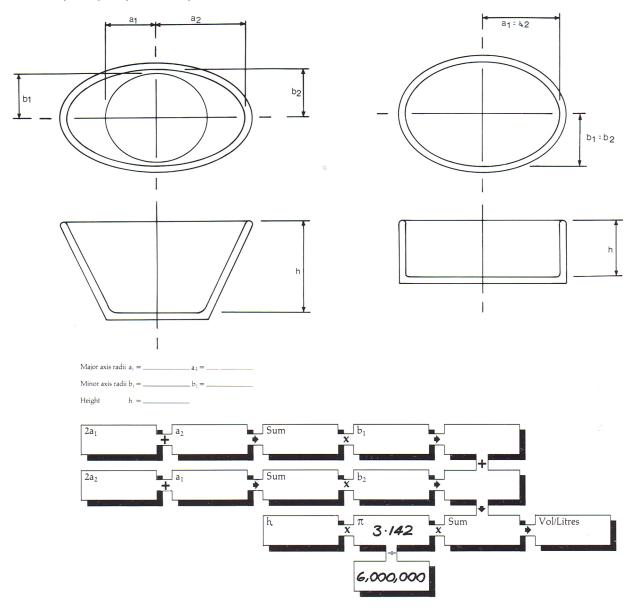
2.2 Elliptical Objects- Index of Calculating Methods



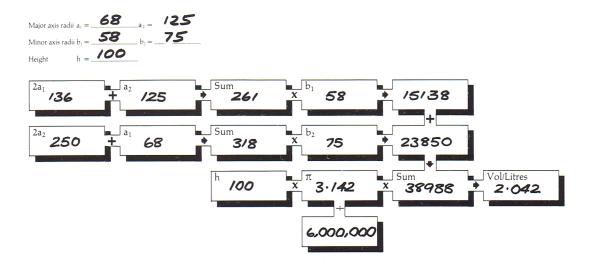
Straight Sided Elliptical Forms

Volume = $\frac{\pi}{6}$ h [(2a₁+a₂)b₁+(a₁+2a₂)b_z]

Different shape ellipses possible top & bottom

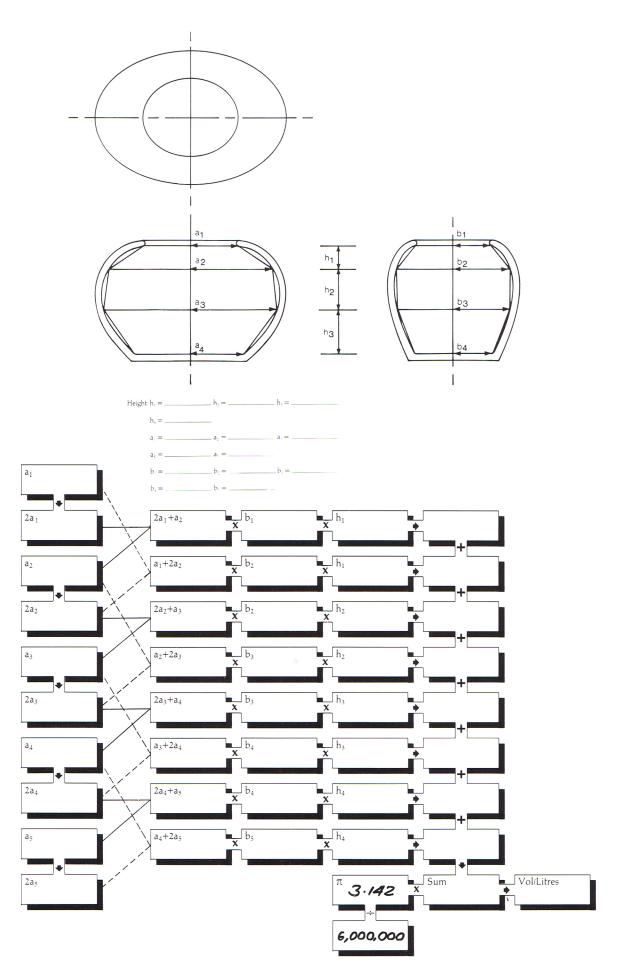


<u>Example</u>

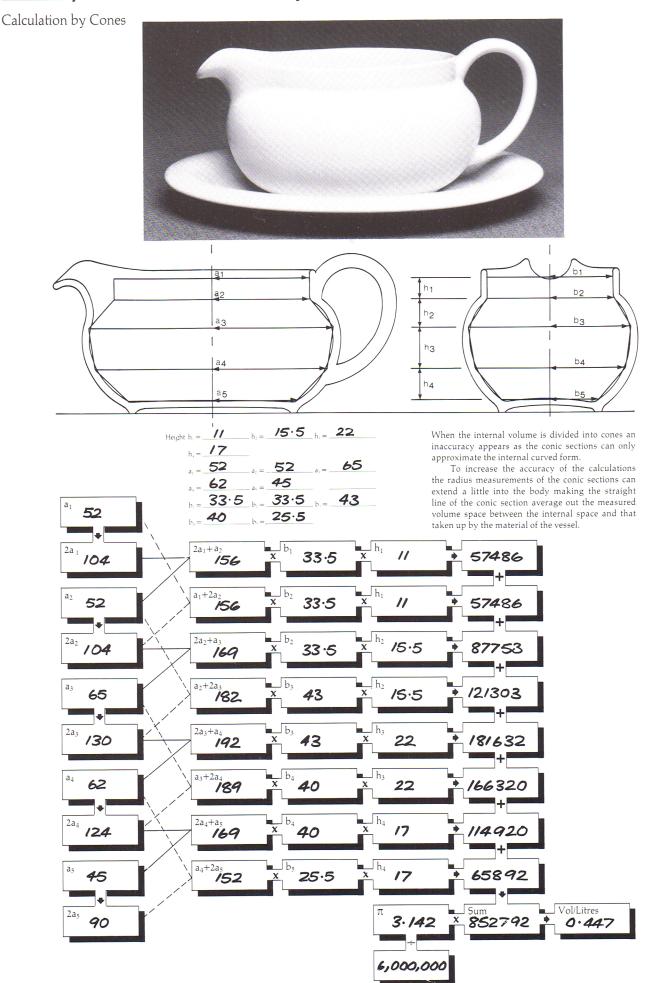


Addition of Cones (Elliptical)

 $Volume = \frac{\pi}{6} \frac{[(2a_1 + a_2)b_1h_1 + (a_1 + 2a_2)b_2h_1 + (2a_2 + a_3)b_2h_2 + (a_2 + 2a_3)b_3h_2 + (2a_3 + a_4)b_3h_3 + (a_3 + 2a_4)b_4h_3 + (2a_4 + a_5)b_4h_4 + (a_4 + 2a_5)b_5h_4]$

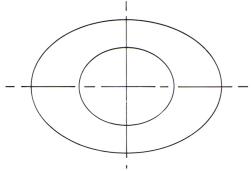


Example, Hornsea Gravy Boat

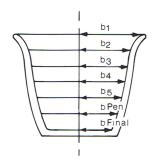


Durand's Rule (Elliptical)

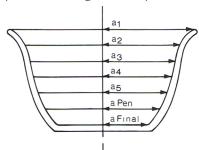
Volume = $\frac{h}{N}\pi$ (0.4 a_1b_1 +1.1 a_2b_2 + a_3b_3 + a_4b_4 ...1.1 a_pb_p +0.4 a_pb_p)

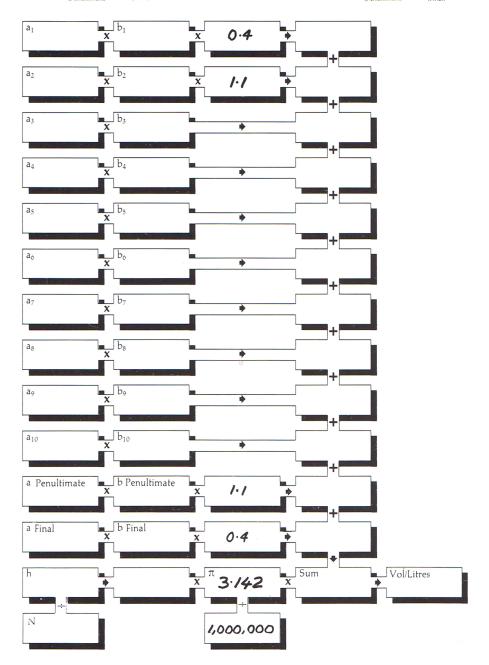


Ellipses can change from top to bottom



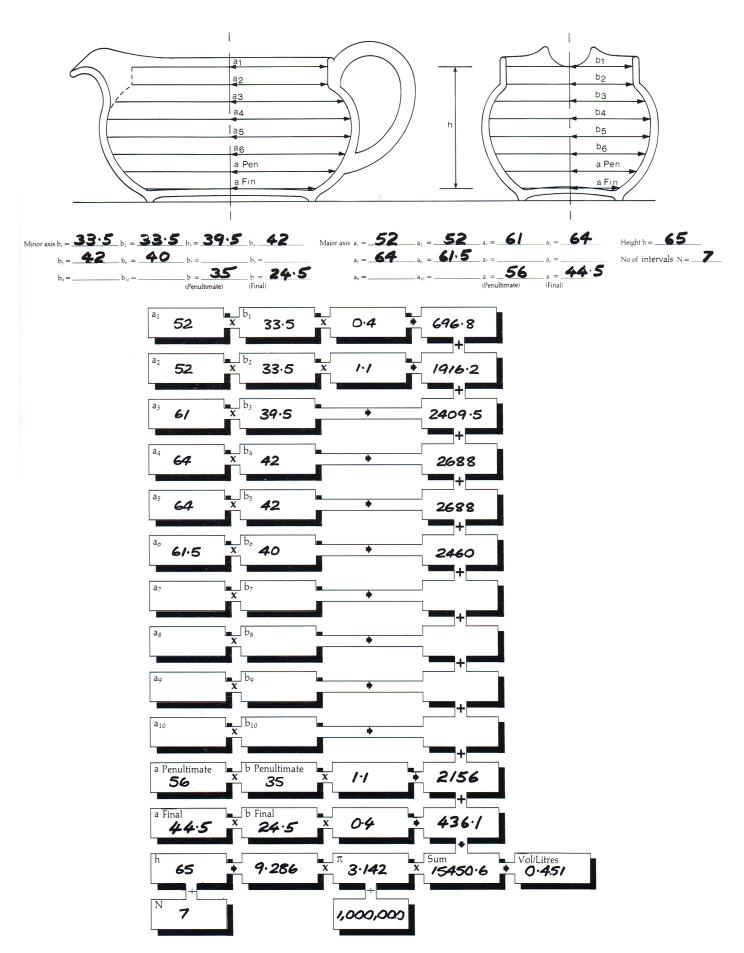




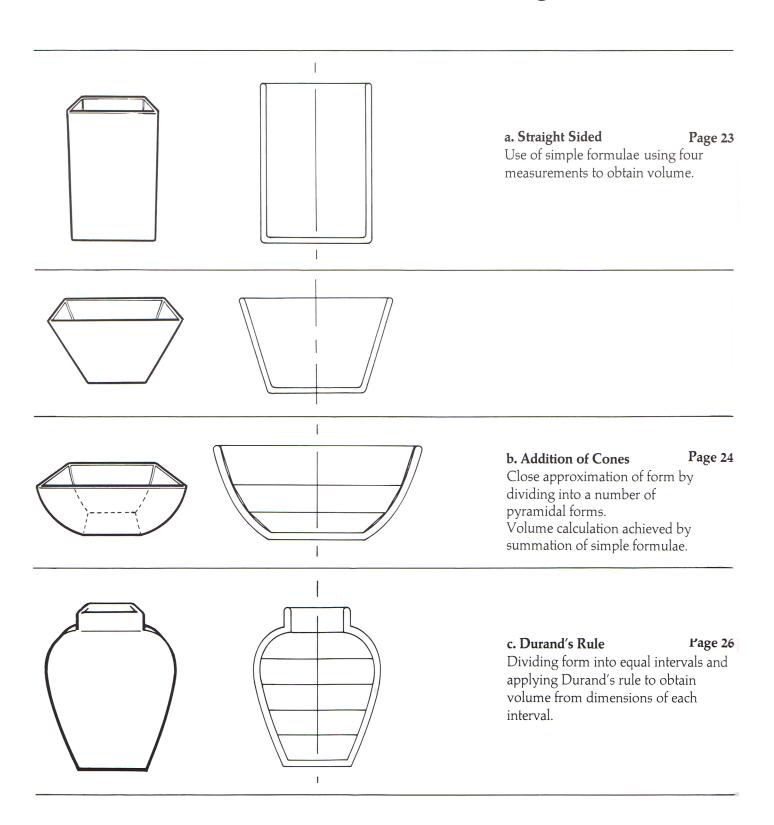


Example, Hornsea Gravy Boat

Calculation by Durland's Rule (Elliptical)



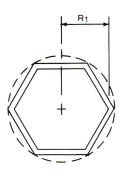
2.3 Geometric Forms Index of Calculating Methods

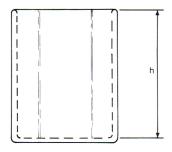


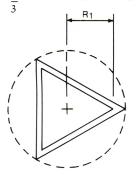
Straight Sided Geometric Form (Polygonal)

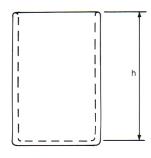
Volume of Cylindrical Polygonal Shapes = $Dh R^2$

Volume of Cylindrical Polygonial Shapes $=\frac{Dh}{3}(R_1^2+R_2^2+R_1\ R_2)$ Volume of Truncated Pyramidal Shapes (Polygonal into Round) $=\frac{h}{3}[(2D-\pi)\ (R_1)^2+D(R_2)^2+DR_1R_2]$



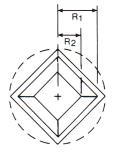


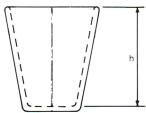


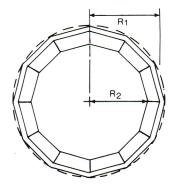


VALUE OF D No of sides of Polygon 1.299 2.0 2.3775 2.598 2.7363 2.8284 2.8926 2.9388 2.9736 3.0 3.0207 3.0372 3.0504 3.0615 3.0703 3.0783 3.0846 3.0903 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 ∞ $3.142 (\pi)$ ie. circular

R₁ = R₂ for cylindrical shapes

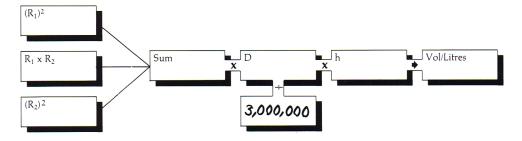








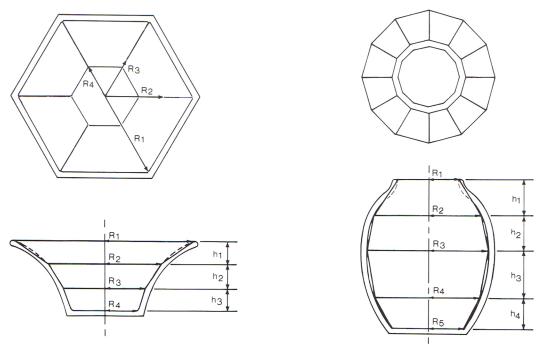
Radius of scribed circle around top polygon Radius of scribed circle around bottom polygon R2 Constant D from look-up tables Height of body



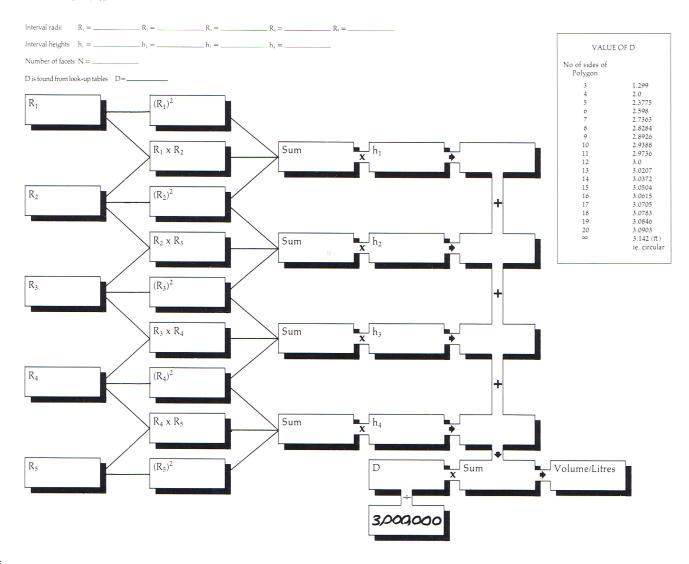
Pyramidal Forms

Volume = $\underline{D}[h_1(R_1^2 + R_1R_2 + R_2^2) + h_2(R_2^2 + R_2R_3 + R_3^2) +]$

Note: The twisting of a polygonal form has no effect on its volume.

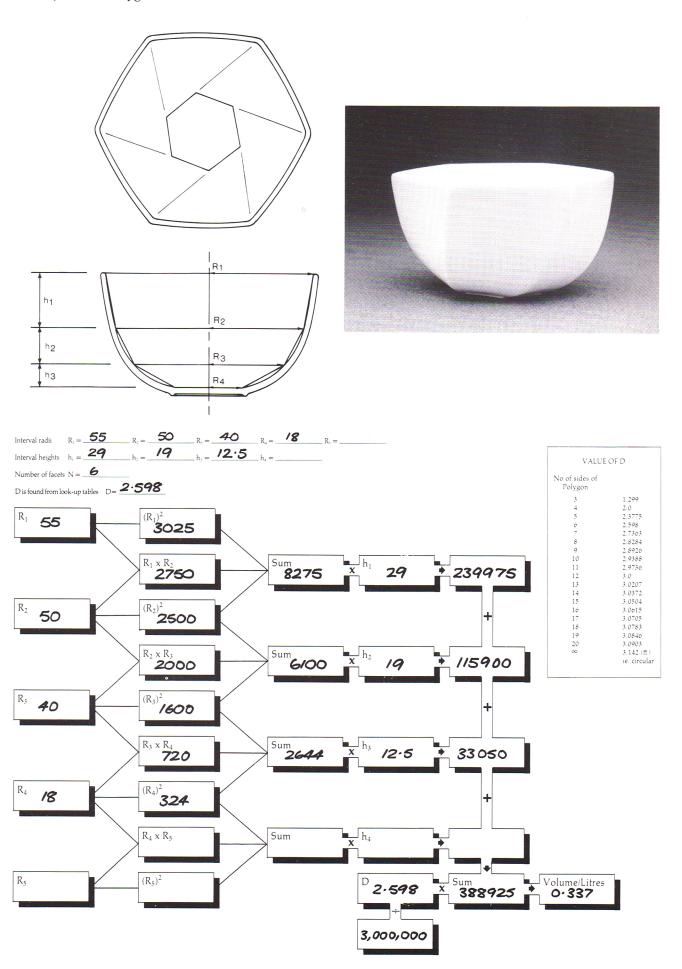


(The radius is always measured into the angle where the faces meet) Note: the twisting of a polygonal form has no effect on its volume.



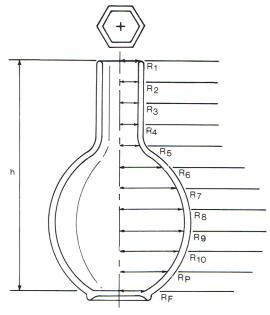
Example, Coalport Vase

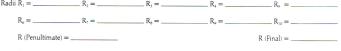
Calculation by Cones (Polygonal)

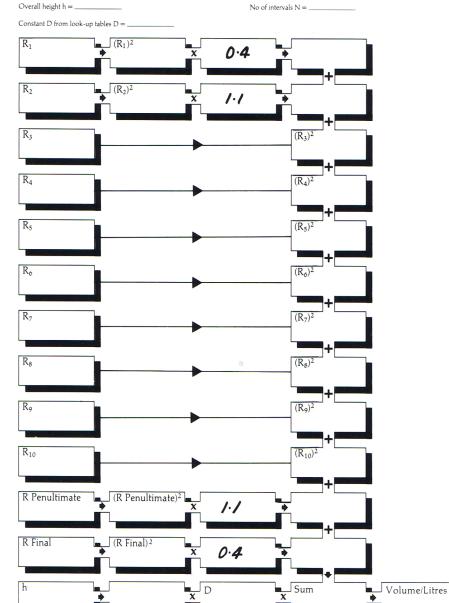


 $\frac{Durand's \ (Polygonal)}{\text{Volume} = \underset{\overline{N}}{\text{Dh}} [\ 0.4(R_{\text{I}})^2 + 1.1(R_2)^2 + (R_3)^2 + (R_4)^21.1(R_p)^2 + 0.4(R_p)^2]}$

Where $R_{\mbox{\tiny P}} = \mbox{Penultimate radius}.$ $R_{\mbox{\tiny F}} = \mbox{Final radius}.$





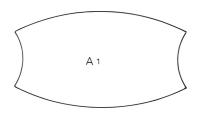


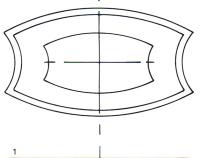
1.000,000

VALUE	OF D
No of sides of Polygon	
3	1.299
4	2.0
5	2.3775
6	2.598
7	2.7363
8	2.8284
9	2.8926
10	2.9388
11	2.9736
12	3.0
13	3.0207
14	3.0372
15	3.0504
16	3.0615
17	3.0705
18	3.0783
19	3.0846
20	3.0903
∞	3.142 (π)
	ie. circular
	ic. circular

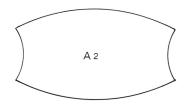
2.4 Irregular Polygons & Complex Forms

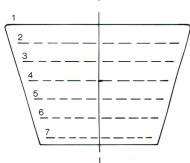
The volume of any form can be calculated using Durand's Rule, which is fundamentally a method of slicing the form into regular intervals and averaging the area measurements of all the cross-sections. The specific cases of using Durand's Rule for circular, elliptical and polygonal forms are covered in earlier chapters, but for irregular forms it is necessary to calculate the area of each cross-section.





Area $A_1 =$ $A_2 =$ $A_3 =$ $A_4 =$ $A_5 =$ $A_6 =$ $A_7 =$





The shape is divided into 6 equal intervals and the area of the 7 cross-sections calculated. The first and last cross-section represents the top and bottom shapes.

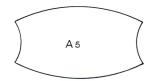


Аз

Three methods are described here for calculating areas:

1. Calculation

A shape can be simplified into triangles, rectangles and circles, then the component areas can be totalled together. More complicated shapes may require subtraction as well as addition to approximate the shape.



2. Graph Paper

Each cross-section can be drawn on graph paper and by counting the squares within the shape the area can be directly determined.

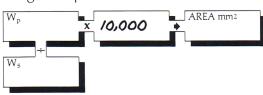


3. Weighing

Each cross-section can be cut out of a sheet of card and then weighed individually. The weight of a square (measuring $100 \text{mm} \times 100 \text{mm}$) cut from the same card is also determined.

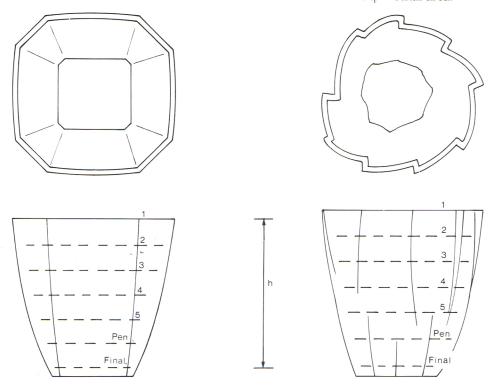


Weight of profile $W_p =$ Weight of square $W_s =$

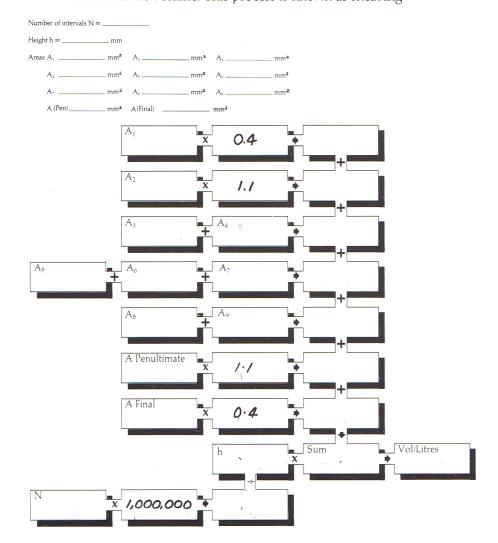


Durand's by Areas (Irregular Forms)

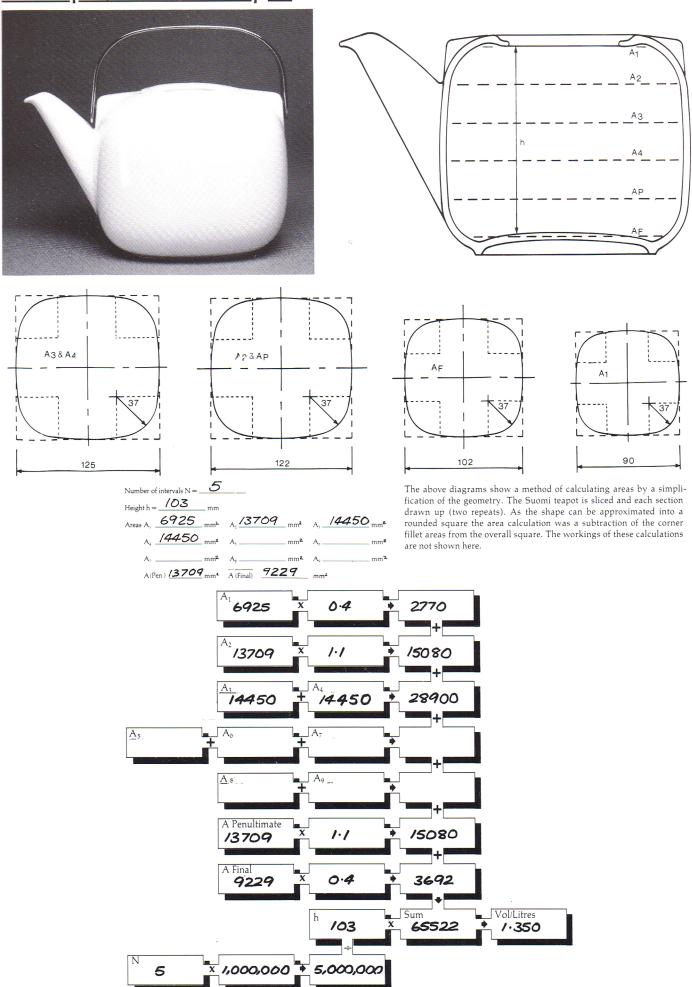
 $\begin{aligned} & Volume = \underset{\overline{N}}{h} \left[\ 0.4A_{1} + 1.1A_{2} + A_{3} + A_{4} + A_{5} + A_{6} + A_{7} + A_{8} + A_{9} + 1.1A_{P} + 0.4A_{F} \right] \quad A_{P} = Penultimate \ area. \\ & A_{F} = Final \ area. \end{aligned}$



Note: Lateral displacement or twisting of the constituent sections alters the form of the object but has no effect on its volume. This process is known as shearing



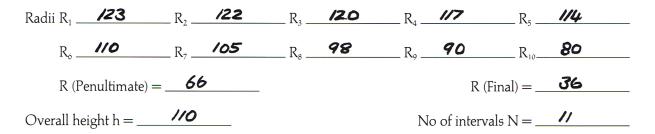
Example, Suomi Teapot

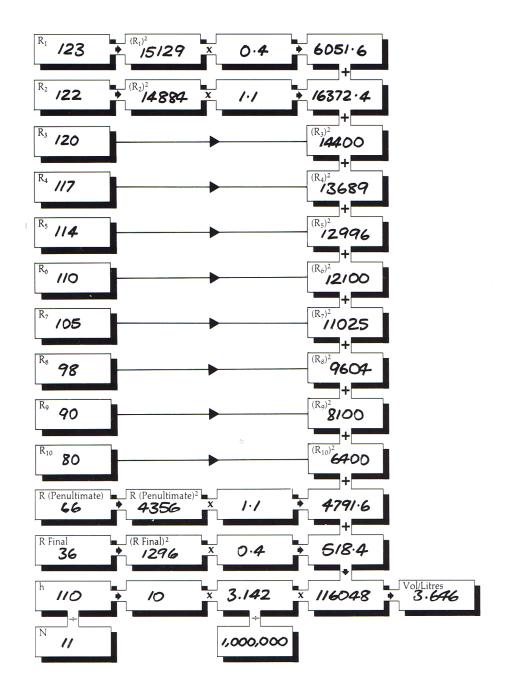


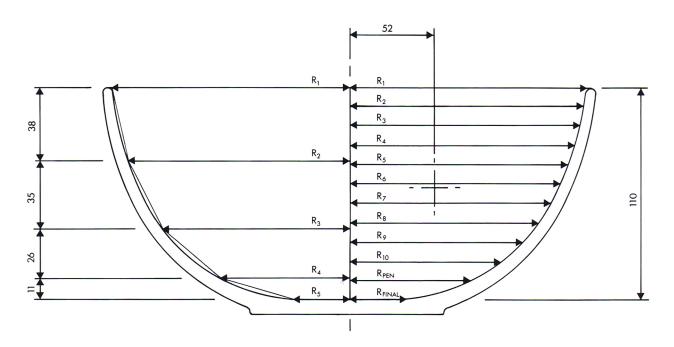
3. Comparison of Calculation Methods

All measurements are worked throughout in millimetres. The resultant is divided by 1,000,000 converting cubic millimetres (millilitres) into litres.

1. Durand's (Circular Form)

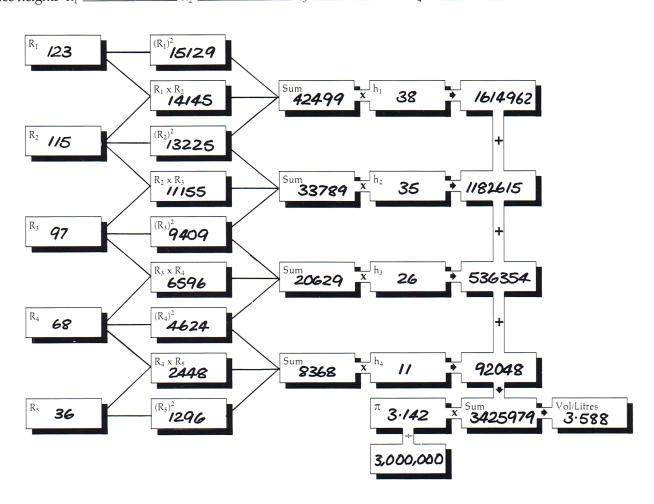






2. Addition of Cones (Circular Form)

Slice radii R_1 **123** R_2 **115** R_3 **97** R_4 **68** R_5 **36** Slice heights h_1 **38** h_2 **35** h_3 **26** h_4 **11**



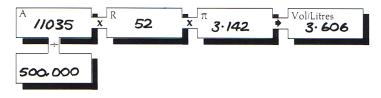
3. Averaging Radii

R ₁ 123	
R ₂ 122	
R ₃ 120	
R ₄ 117	$VOLUME = 3.142 \times 98.42 \times 98.42 \times 11$
R ₅ 114	
R ₆ 110	= 3.348 litre
R ₇ 105	
R ₈ 98	
R ₉ 90	
R ₁₀ 80	
R ₁₁ 66	
R_{12} 36	
1181	

Average radii = $\frac{1181}{12}$ = 98.42mm

4. Pappus' Theorem

Area by calculation $A = 11035 \text{mm}^2$ Radius to C of G R = 52 mm



Summary

1. Durand's	3.646 litre
2. Cones	3.588 litre
3. Averaging radii	3.348 litre
4. Pappus' Theorem	3.606 litre

Conclusion

Calculation of the volume by Durand's method, the Cones method and by using Pappus' theorem all give reasonable results. These three results vary by less than 1.6%. Calculation by the first method is expected to give an accurate result. The second method yield a lower volume; this is a result of the cones all being described completely within the shape, leaving thin pieces at the periphery (between the straight lines and the curve) ignored in the calculation. Pappus' theorem will also yield an accurate answer (errors are introduced by inaccuracies in measuring the area and determining the centre of gravity).

The third method, averaging the radii, give an erroneous result. This method is mathematically incorrect, and will, in most circumstances, produce a wrong answer (more extreme curves give far worse results). It is unfortunate that this method has been the most frequently taught to students at colleges, and it is recommended that this method should never be used. The first method, Durand's rule, will give an accurate answer and involves no more calculations than averaging the radii.

In terms of usefulness, Durand's method is accurate but involves making many measurements, the Cones method is almost as accurate and involves much fewer measurements. Pappus' theorem is very practical and involves making only two measurements but the accuracy is very much dependant on the skill of the user.

4. Scaling Three Dimensional Volumetric Scaling

			1			
Volume	Linear	Multiplication		Volume	Linear	Multiplication
Increase	Increase	Factor		Decrease	Decrease	Factor
0/0	0/0	ractor		0/0	0/0	ractor
1	0.3	1.0033		1	0.3	0.9967
2	0.7	1.0066		2	0.7	0.9933
3	1.0	1.0099		3	1.0	0.9899
4	1.3	1.0132		4	1.3	0.9865
5	1.6	1.0164		5	1.7	0.9830
6	2.0	1.0196		6	2.0	0.9796
7	2.3	1.0228		7	2.4	0.9761
8	2.6	1.0260		8	2.7	0.9726
9	2.9	1.0291		9	3.1	0.9691
10	3.2	1.0323		10	3.4	0.9655
11	3.5	1.0354	9	11	3.8	0.9619
12	3.8	1.0385		12	4.2	0.9583
13	4.2	1.0416		13	4.5	0.9546
14	4.5	1.0446		14	4.9	0.9510
15	4.8	1.0477		15	5.3	0.9310
16	5.1	1.0507		16	5.7	0.9473
17	5.4	1.0537		17	6.0	0.9398
18	5.7	1.0567		18	6.4	0.9360
19	6.0	1.0597		19	6.8	0.9322
20	6.3	1.0627		20	7.2	0.9322
21	6.6	1.0656		20 21	7.6	0.9244
22	6.9	1.0685		22	8.0	
23	7.1	1.0714		23	8.3	0.9205 0.9166
24	7.4	1.0743		23	8.7	0.9126
25	7.7	1.0743		25	9.1	0.9120
26	8.0	1.0801		26	9.6	0.9085
27	8.3	1.0829		27	10.0	0.9045
28	8.6	1.0858		28	10.4	
29	8.9	1.0886		29	10.4	0.8963 0.8921
30	9.1	1.0914		30	11.2	
31	9.4	1.0914		31	11.6	0.8879
32	9.7	1.0942		32		0.8837
33	10.0	1.0970		33	12.1 12.5	0.8794 0.8750
34	10.2	1.1025		34	12.5	0.8707
35	10.5	1.1052		35	13.4	0.8662
36	10.8	1.1032		36	13.4	0.8618
37	11.1	1.1106		37	14.3	0.8573
38	11.3	1.1133		38	14.5	0.8527
39	11.6	1.1160		39	15.2	0.8481
40	11.9	1.1187		40	15.7	0.8434
41	12.1	1.1213		41	16.1	0.8387
42	12.1	1.1213		41 42	16.6	0.8340
43	12.7	1.1240		42	17.1	0.8340
44	12.9	1.1292		43	17.1	0.8243
45	13.2	1.1292		45	18.1	0.8243
46	13.4	1.1319		45		
47	13.7	1.1370		40	18.6 19.1	0.8143 0.8093
48	14.0	1.1370		48		
49	14.0	1.1390		48	19.6	0.8041
50	14.5			50	20.1	0.7990
30	14.3	1.1447		50	20.6	0.7937

It is often necessary to change the capacity of a design by increasing or decreasing its dimensions. For example, if a designed pot has a volume of say 0.8 litres and it is desired to increase this by 25% to 1 litre, then it is necessary to know by what percentage its linear dimensions (usually length, breadth and height) be increased.

Using the three-dimensional scaling table, it can be seen that a 25% volume increase would necessitate a 7.7% linear increase (or multiply all linear measurements by 1.0772).

This table gives values for volume changes from a 50% decrease to a 50% increase. If the required volume change is outside this range, then the calculation should be split into two or more stages.

e.g. what linear change is required to decrease the volume of an object from 2 litre down to 0.6 litres?

2 litre less 50% = 1 litre (multiplication factor = 0.7937)

1 litre less 40% = 0.6 litre (multiplication factor = 0.8434)

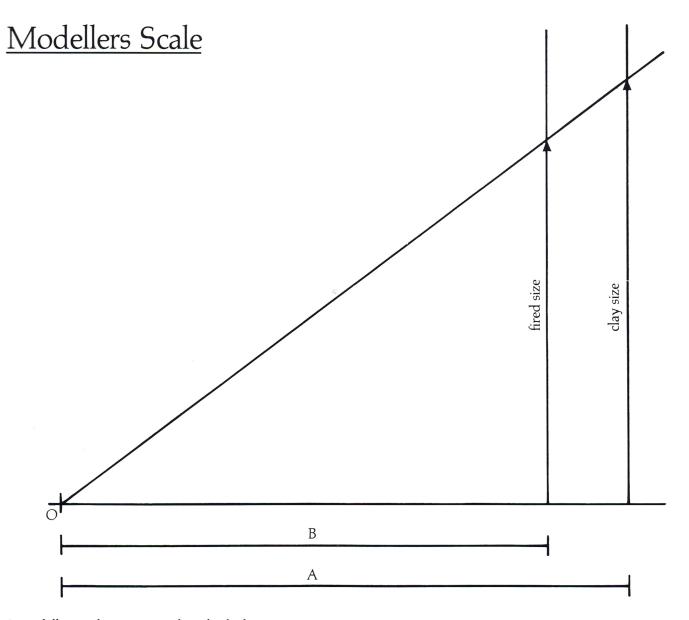
Overall linear multiplication factor = 0.7937×0.8434

Two Dimensional Volumetric Scaling Proportional

Volume Increase %	Linear Increase %	Multiplication Factor		Volume Decrease %	Linear Decrease %	Multiplication Factor
1	0.5	1.0050	-	1	0.5	0.9950
2	1.0	1.0100		2	1.0	0.9899
3	1.5	1.0149		3	1.5	0.9849
4	2.0	1.0198		4	2.0	0.9798
5	2.5	1.0247		5	2.5	0.9747
6	3.0	1.0296		6	3.0	0.9695
7	3.4	1.0344		7	3.6	0.9644
8	3.9	1.0392		8	4.1	0.9592
9	4.4	1.0440		9	4.6	0.9539
10	4.9	1.0488		10	5.1	0.9339
11	5.4	1.0536		11	5.7	0.9434
12	5.8	1.0583		12	6.2	0.9381
13	6.3	1.0630		13	6.7	0.9327
14	6.8	1.0677		14	7.3	0.9327
15	7.2	1.0724		15	7.3	0.9274
16	7.7	1.0770		16	8.4	
17	8.2	1.0817		17		0.9165
18	8.6	1.0863			8.9	0.9110
19	9.1	1.0909		18	9.5	0.9055
20	9.5	1.0954		19	10.0	0.9000
21	10.0			20	10.6	0.8944
22	10.5	1.1000		21	11.1	0.8888
		1.1045		22	11.7	0.8832
23	10.9	1.1091		23	12.3	0.8775
24	11.4	1.1136		24	12.8	0.8718
25	11.8	1.1180		25	13.4	0.8660
26	12.3	1.1225		26	14.0	0.8602
27	12.7	1.1269		27	14.6	0.8544
28	13.1	1.1314		28	15.2	0.8485
29	13.6	1.1358		29	15.7	0.8426
30	14.0	1.1402		30	16.3	0.8367
31	14.5	1.1446		31	16.9	0.8307
32	14.9	1.1489		32	17.5	0.8246
33	15.3	1.1533		33	18.2	0.8185
34	15.8	1.1576		34	18.8	0.8124
35	16.2	1.1619		35	19.4	0.8062
36	16.6	1.1662		36	20.0	0.8000
37	17.1	1.1705		37	20.6	0.7937
38	17.5	1.1747		38	21.3	0.7874
39	17.9	1.1790		39	21.9	0.7810
40	18.3	1.1832		40	22.5	0.7746
41	18.7	1.1874		41	23.2	0.7681
42	19.2	1.1916		42	23.8	0.7616
43	19.6	1.1958		43	24.5	0.7550
44	20.0	1.2000		44	25.2	0.7483
45	20.4	1.2042		45	25.8	0.7416
46	20.8	1.2083		46	26.5	0.7348
47	21.2	1.2124		s 47	27.2	0.7280
48	21.7	1.2166		48	27.9	0.7211
49	22.1	1.2207		49	28.6	1.7141
50	22.5	1.2247		50	29.3	1.7071

Sometimes it is desirable to change only the linear measurements in two dimensions, keeping the third dimension fixed. For example, if it was desired to increase the capacity of a 0.8 litre pot by 25% with the restriction that the height should not change, then it is necessary to know by how much the horizontal measurements should be increased. Using the two-dimensional scaling table, it can be seen that an 11.8% increase (or multiply by 1.1180) in the horizontal measurements (length and breadth) is required.

If the required volume change is beyond the limits of the table then the calculation should be split into two or more stages.



A modellers scale is a practical method of scaling up or down a model or a drawing. It is widely used in the ceramic industry by modellers who have to take into account the shrinkage that occurs in most ceramic bodies and can be used for any form of proportional scaling. For example:

Earthenware has a shrinkage of 1 in 12 so a plate made from a 12" diameter mould will give an 11" diameter fired plate. To make a modellers scale for earthenware shrinkage proceed as follows:

Draw a base line from point 0 of any length but for convenience choose a length that is divisible by 12 (say 24 cms), then strike a point on your base line that is 1/12 shorter, ie. 22 cms. Erect 2 perpendiculars from the base line at 22 and 24 cms from point 0. Any measurement made on one of the perpendiculars if drawn through in a straight line to point 0 will cross the other perpendicular, giving an 11 to 12 relationship. This scale is widely used by modellers using calipers working from a fired size to a clay size model; they do not need to know the actual measurements that they are taking.

5. Thicknesses that might be expected with different materials and products

It is only possible to calculate the volume of a vessel from a drawing or model if you know the wall thickness of the material from which the article is to be made. The following list gives the approximate wall thicknesses to be expected with holloware items made in ceramic, glass and certain other materials.

CERAMIC TABLEWARE

<u>Materials</u>	mms
Cup Bone China	2.5 – 3
Cream, Bone China	3
Sugar Bone China	3
Coffeepot Bone China	3.5 - 4
Teapot Bone China	3.5 - 4
Gravy Boat Bone China	4
Mug Bone China	2.5 - 3
Cast Giftware Bone China	3
Cup Earthenware	3.5 - 4
Cream Earthenware	4
Sugar Earthenware	4 – 5
Coffeepot Earthenware	4
Teapot Earthenware	4
Mug Earthenware	4 - 5
Cookware Earthenware	5 – 7
Cookware Porcelain	5 – 7
Cookware Stoneware	5 – 7

Tableware Porcelain high quality as bone china Tableware Porcelain low quality as earthenware Tableware Stoneware as earthenware

GLASS HOLLOWARE

Stemware Handblown	not cut	1 – 2
Stemware Machine made	high quality	1.5 – 2
Stemware Cut Crystal	hand blown	2 - 2.5
Tumblers Machine made	high quality	2 – 3
Tumblers Hand Blown	not cut	2 – 3
Tumblers Cut Crystal	hand blown	2 – 3
Cookware Pressed	small pieces	4 – 5
Cookware Pressed	large pieces	5 - 6
Storage Jars	machine made	4 - 6
Jugs, Decanters	hand blown not cut	3 – 5
Bottles	machine made	2.5

METAL COOKWARE

Cast iron	4 - 6
Enamel Steel	1.5 - 2
Aluminium	2.4
Stainless Steel	1

Useful Capacities for Ceramic Tableware

Perceived capacity is what really matters and the following must be seen only as a general guide:

		litres
Breakfast Cup	most markets	.35
Tea Cup	most markets	.25
Coffee Cup	Germany/Scandinavia	.20
Expresso Cup	Italy/Greece	.10
Sugar	most markets	.35
Cream	most markets	.35
Cream	Germany	.18
Gravy Boat	most markets	.50
Tea Pot	most markets	1.20
Coffee Pot	most markets	1.20
Vegetable Casserole Dish	most markets	1.75

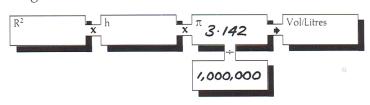
6. Calculation sheets for photocopying

All measurements must be worked in millimetres. The resultant is divided converting cubic millimetres (millilitres) into litres.

Cylindrical Forms (Circular) see page 8

Radius R = _____

Height h = _____

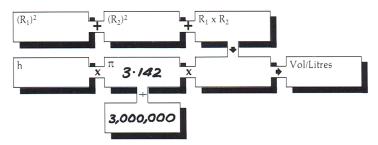


Truncated Cones (Circular) see page 9

Top Radius $R_1 =$

Height h =

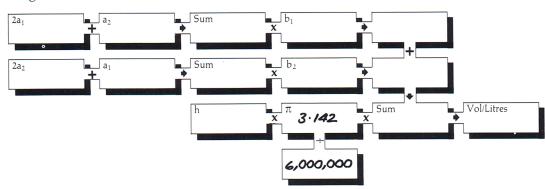
Bottom Radius $R_2 =$



Straight Sided Elliptical Forms see page 17

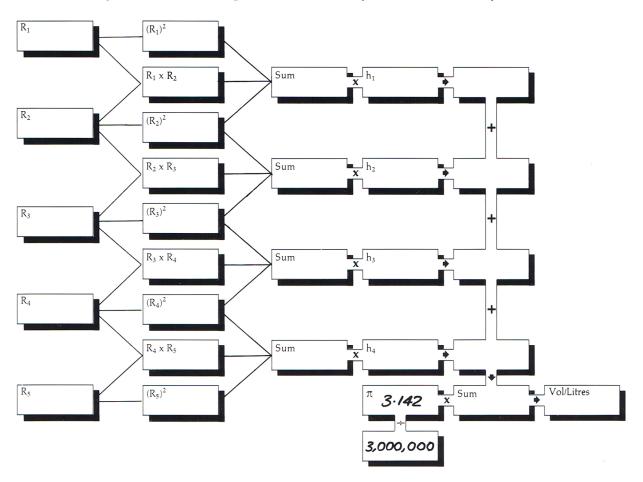
Minor axis radii $b_1 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} b_2 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$

Height $h = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$



Addition of Cones (Circular Forms) see page 10

Internal radii $R_1 =$ $R_2 =$ $R_3 =$ $R_4 =$ $R_5 =$

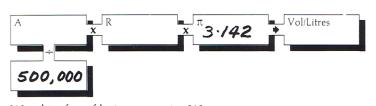


Pappus' Theorem (Circular Forms)

see page 14

Area of half profile $A = \underline{\qquad} mm^2$

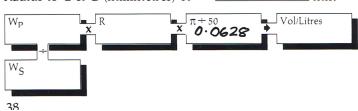
Radius of C of G $R = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} mm$



Weight of profile (grammes) $W_p = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} g$

Weight of square (grammes) $W_s = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} g$

Radius to C & G (millimetres) $R = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} mm$

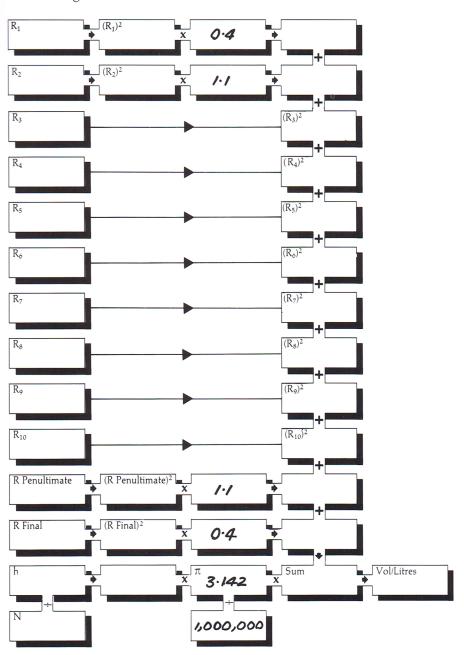


All measurements must be worked in millimetres.
The resultant is divided converting cubic millimetres (millilitres) into litres.

Durand's Rule (Circular Forms) see page 12

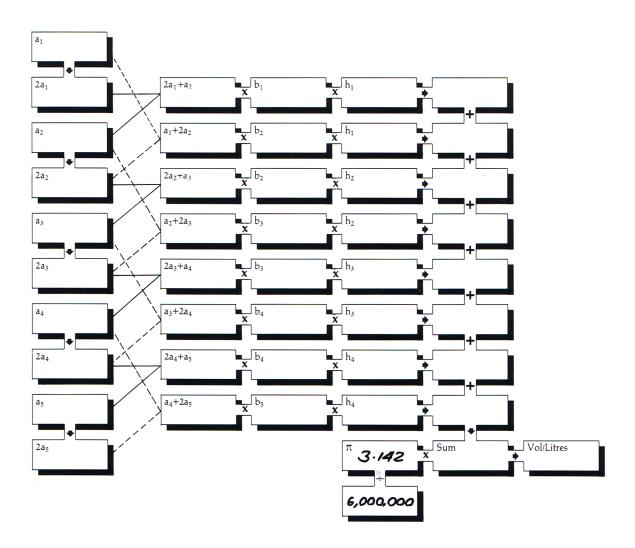
Overall height h = _____

No. of intervals N = _____



All measurements must be worked in millimetres. The resultant is divided converting cubic millimetres (millilitres) into litres.

Addition of Cones (Elliptical Forms) see page 18



All measurements must be worked in millimetres. The resultant is divided converting cubic millimetres (millilitres) into litres.

Durand's Rule (Elliptical Forms) see page 20

Major axis $a_1 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} a_2 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} a_3 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} a_4 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$

$$a_5 =$$
______ $a_6 =$ ______ $a_7 =$ ______ $a_8 =$ ______

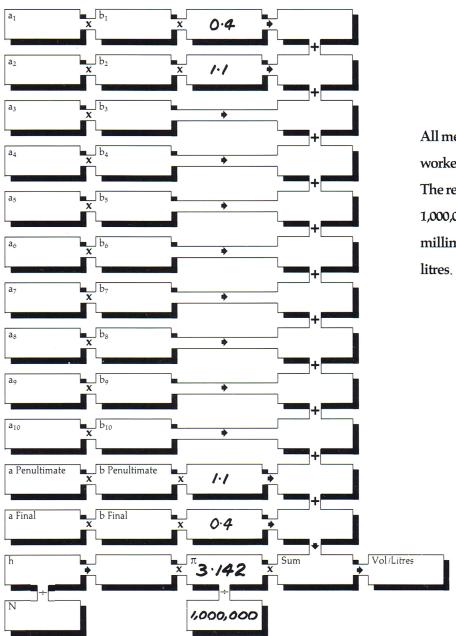
$$a_9 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} a_{10} = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} a = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} a = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$$

$$Penultimate Final$$

Minor axis $b_1 =$ _______ $b_2 =$ ________ $b_3 =$ ________ $b_4 =$ ________

$$b_5 =$$
______ $b_6 =$ ______ $b_7 =$ ______ $b_8 =$ ______

Height h =______ No. of Intervals N =_____



All measurements must be worked in millimetres.
The resultant is divided by 1,000,000 converting cubic millimetres (millilitres) into litres.

Straight Sided Geometric Forms (Polygonal) see page 23

Radius of scribed circle around top polygon

Radius of scribed circle around bottom polygon R₂

worked in millimetres.

All measurements must be

The resultant is divided

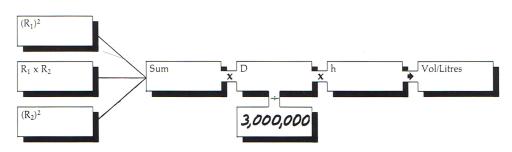
Constant D from look-up tables

converting cubic millimetres

Height of body

(millilitres) into litres.

 $R_1 = R_2$ for cylindrical shapes



VALUE OF D No of sides of 2.0 2.3775 2.598 2.7363 2.8284 2.8926 2.9388 2.9736 3.0 3.0207 3.0207 3.0372 3.0504 3.0615 3.0705 3.0783 3.0846 3.0903 $3.142~(\pi)$ ie. circular

Pyramidal Forms see page 24

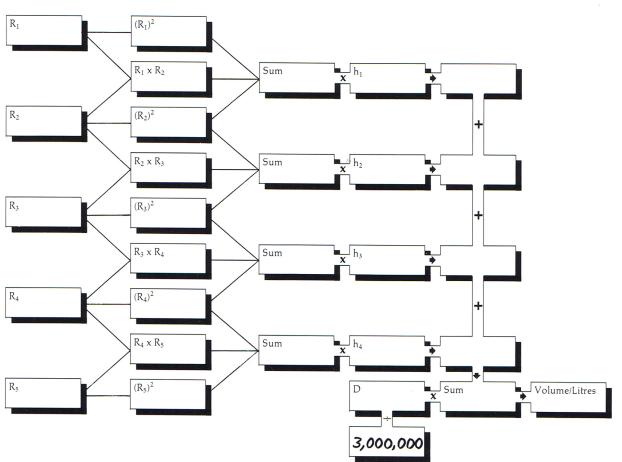
Interval heights $h_1 =$ ______ $h_2 =$ ______ $h_3 =$ ______ $h_4 =$ ______

Interval radii

 $R_1 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} R_2 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} R_3 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}} R_4 = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$

Number of facets N =

D is found from look-up table $D = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$



Durand's Rule (Polygonal Forms) see page 26

Radii
$$R_1 =$$
_____ $R_2 =$ ____ $R_3 =$ ____ $R_4 =$ ____ $R_5 =$ _____

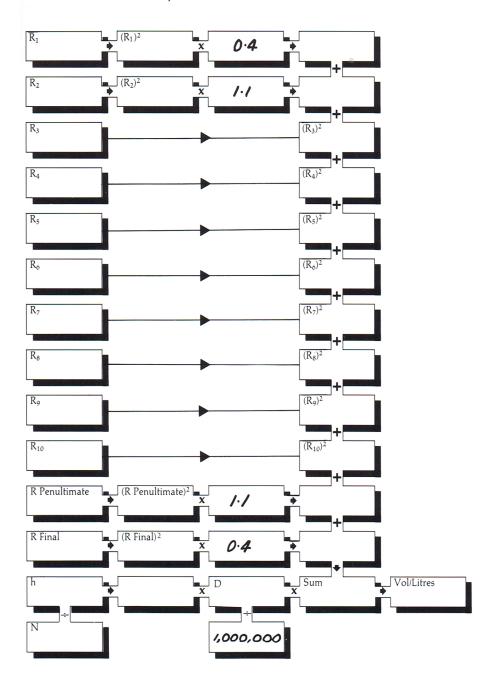
$$R_6 =$$
______ $R_7 =$ ______ $R_8 =$ ______ $R_9 =$ ______ $R_{10} =$ ______

R (Final) = _____

Overall height h = _____

No of intervals N = _____

Constant D from look-up tables D = _____



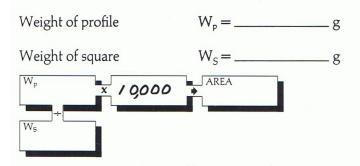
VALUE	OF D
No of sides of	
Polygon	
3	1.299
4	2.0
5	2.3775
6	2.598
7	2.7363
8	2.8284
9	2.8926
10	2.9388
11	2.9736
12	3.0
13	3.0207
14	3.0372
15	3.0504
16	3.0615
17	3.0705
18	3.0783
19	3.0846
20	3.0903
∞	$3.142 (\pi)$
	ie. circular

All measurements must be worked in millimetres. The resultant is divided by 1,000,000 converting cubic millimetres (millilitres) into litres.

<u>Durand's Rule</u>

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Irregular Polygonal & Complex Forms see page 28



All measurements must be worked in millimetres. The resultant is divided by 1,000,000 converting cubic millimetres (millilitres) into litres.

7. Factors, Densities & Formulae

Conversion Factors (Metric/Imperial)

To change	into	multiply by	To change	into	multiply by
LENGTH Inches	Centimetres	2.5400	Centimetres	Inches	0.3937
AREA Square inches	Square centimetres	6.4516	Square centimetres	Square inches	0.1550
VOLUME Cubic inches Cubic feet Cubic feet Cubic yards Imperial gallons Imperial gallons Pints	Cubic centimetres Litres Cubic metres Imperial gallons Cubic metres Litres U.S. gallons Litres	16.387 28·317 0·02832 6·237 0·7645 4·5460 1·205 0·5682	Cubic centimetres Litres Cubic metres Imperial gallons Cubic metres Litres U.S. gallons Litres	Cubic inches Cubic feet Cubic feet Cubic yards Imperial gallons Imperial gallons Pints	0.06102 0.03531 35:311 0.1603 1:3080 0.2200 0.830 1:7598
MASS Grains Ounces (avoir) Pounds	Grams Grams Kilograms	0·0648 28·352 0·4536	Grams Grams Kilograms	Grains Ounces (avoir) Pounds	15·432 0·03527 2·20462

Densities of Ceramic Materials

Earthenware 2.2 g/cm³ Stoneware 2.3 g/cm³ Porcelain 2.4 g/cm - 2.7 g/cm³ Bone China 2.5 g/cm - 2.8 g/cm³

Volumes of Circular Forms

Cylindrical (see page 8)

 $V = \pi R^2 h$

Truncated Cones (page 9)

 $V = \underline{\pi} h (R_1^2 + R_2^2 + R_1 R_2)$

Addition of Cones (page 10)

 $V = \underline{\pi} [(R_1^2 + R_2^2 + R_1 R_2)h_1 + (R_2^2 + R_3^2 + R_2 R_3) h_2 \dots]$

Durand's Rule (page 12)

 $V \!=\! \pi \frac{h}{N} \left(0 \!\cdot\! 4 \; R_1^2 + 1 \!\cdot\! 1 \; R_2^2 + R_3^2 + R_4^2 \ldots \ldots \! 1 \!\cdot\! 1 \; R_p^2 \! + 0 \!\cdot\! 4 \; R_p^2 \right)$

Pappus' Theorem (page 14)

 $V = 2 \pi AR$

Volumes of Elliptical Forms

Cylindrical & Truncated Forms (page 17)

 $V = \frac{\pi}{6} h ((2a_1 + a_2) b_1 + (a_1 + 2a_2) b_2)$

Addition of Cones (page 18)

 $V = \frac{\pi}{6}((2a_1 + a_2)b_1 \ h_1 + (a_1 + 2a_2)b_2 \ h_1 + (2a_2 + a_3)b_2 \ h_2 + \\ (a_2 + 2a_3)b_3 \ h_2 + \ldots \ldots)$

Durand's Rule (Page 20)

 $V = \frac{h}{N} \pi \left(0.4a_1b_1 + 1.1a_2 \ b_2 + a_3 \ b_3 + a_4 \ b_4 \dots \dots \right. \\ \frac{1.1a}{N} \quad b + 0.4a \quad b) \\ \frac{1}{N} \quad \text{Final} \quad \text{Final} \quad \text{Final}$

Volumes of Polygons

Cylindrical Shapes (page 23)

 $V = D hR^2$

Truncated Pyramids (page 23)

 $V = Dh(R_1^2 + R_2^2 + R_1 R_2)$

Addition of Cones (page 24)

 $V = \underline{\underline{D}}((R_1^2 + R_2^2 + R_1 R_2)h_1 + (R_2^2 + R_3^2 + R_2 R_3)h_2...)$

Durand's Method. (page 26)

 $V = Dh(0.4R_1^2 + 1.1R_2^2 + R_3^2 + R_4^2 \dots 1.1R_2^2 + 0.4R_2^2)$

Area Equations

Rectangle A = xy

 $A = \pi R^2$ Circle

Eclipse $A = \pi ab$

Polygon $A = DR^2$

Volume Equations

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

Cone $V = \frac{1}{3} \pi R^2 h$

Irregular Forms

Using Durand's Method. (Page 28)

 $V = \underline{h} (0.4A_1 + 1.1A_2 + A_3 + A_4 \dots 1.1A + 0.4A)$

QUEENSBERRY HUNT

Queensberry Hunt is one of England's leading product design groups. They are particularly well known for their work in the ceramic field. The partners have between them won six Design Council Awards and the German Bundes Preis (Gute Form). The partner's work is also well represented in the permanent collection of the Victoria & Albert Museum. David Queensberry, who was Professor of Ceramics and Glass at the Royal College of Art until 1984, founded the group with one of his students, Martin Hunt RDI, in 1966. In recent years two younger designers have become partners, Robin Levien and John Horler. The partnership has worked for many distinguished manufacturers and retailers, these include:

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