



11

Belt, Rope and Chain Drives

Features (Main)

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11.1. Introduction

The belts or ropes are used to transmit power from one shaft to another by means of pulleys which rotate at the same speed or at different speeds. The amount of power transmitted depends upon the following factors :

1. The velocity of the belt.
2. The tension under which the belt is placed on the pulleys.
3. The arc of contact between the belt and the smaller pulley.
4. The conditions under which the belt is used.

It may be noted that

- (a) The shafts should be properly in line to insure uniform tension across the belt section.
- (b) The pulleys should not be too close together, in order that the arc of contact on the smaller pulley may be as large as possible.
- (c) The pulleys should not be so far apart as to cause the belt to weigh heavily on the shafts, thus increasing the friction load on the bearings.

- (d) A long belt tends to swing from side to side, causing the belt to run out of the pulleys, which in turn develops crooked spots in the belt.
- (e) The tight side of the belt should be at the bottom, so that whatever sag is present on the loose side will increase the arc of contact at the pulleys.
- (f) In order to obtain good results with flat belts, the maximum distance between the shafts should not exceed 10 metres and the minimum should not be less than 3.5 times the diameter of the larger pulley.

11.2. Selection of a Belt Drive

Following are the various important factors upon which the selection of a belt drive depends:

1. Speed of the driving and driven shafts,
2. Speed reduction ratio,
3. Power to be transmitted,
4. Centre distance between the shafts,
5. Positive drive requirements,
6. Shafts layout,
7. Space available, and
8. Service conditions.

11.3. Types of Belt Drives

The belt drives are usually classified into the following three groups :

1. Light drives. These are used to transmit small powers at belt speeds upto about 10 m/s, as in agricultural machines and small machine tools.

2. Medium drives. These are used to transmit medium power at belt speeds over 10 m/s but up to 22 m/s, as in machine tools.

3. Heavy drives. These are used to transmit large powers at belt speeds above 22 m/s, as in compressors and generators.

11.4. Types of Belts

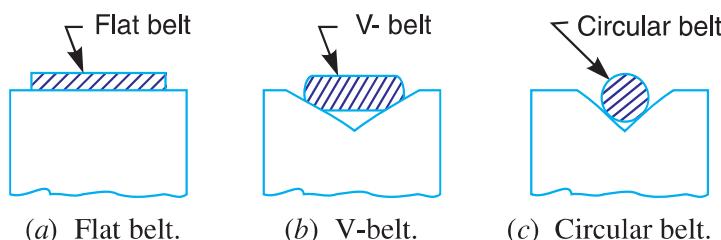


Fig. 11.1. Types of belts.

Though there are many types of belts used these days, yet the following are important from the subject point of view :

1. Flat belt. The flat belt, as shown in Fig. 11.1 (a), is mostly used in the factories and workshops, where a moderate amount of power is to be transmitted, from one pulley to another when the two pulleys are not more than 8 metres apart.

2. V-belt. The V-belt, as shown in Fig. 11.1 (b), is mostly used in the factories and workshops, where a moderate amount of power is to be transmitted, from one pulley to another, when the two pulleys are very near to each other.

3. Circular belt or rope. The circular belt or rope, as shown in Fig. 11.1 (c), is mostly used in the factories and workshops, where a great amount of power is to be transmitted, from one pulley to another, when the two pulleys are more than 8 meters apart.

If a huge amount of power is to be transmitted, then a single belt may not be sufficient. In such a case, wide pulleys (for V-belts or circular belts) with a number of grooves are used. Then a belt in each groove is provided to transmit the required amount of power from one pulley to another.

11.5. Material used for Belts

The material used for belts and ropes must be strong, flexible, and durable. It must have a high coefficient of friction. The belts, according to the material used, are classified as follows :

1. Leather belts. The most important material for the belt is leather. The best leather belts are made from 1.2 metres to 1.5 metres long strips cut from either side of the back bone of the top grade steer hides. The hair side of the leather is smoother and harder than the flesh side, but the flesh side is stronger. The fibres on the hair side are perpendicular to the surface, while those on the flesh side are interwoven and parallel to the surface. Therefore for these reasons, the hair side of a belt should be in contact with the pulley surface, as shown in Fig. 11.2. This gives a more intimate contact between the belt and the pulley and places the greatest tensile strength of the belt section on the outside, where the tension is maximum as the belt passes over the pulley.

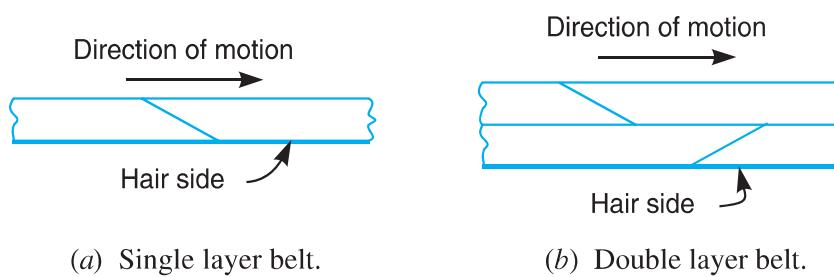


Fig. 11.2. Leather belts.

The leather may be either oak-tanned or mineral salt tanned *e.g.* chrome tanned. In order to increase the thickness of belt, the strips are cemented together. The belts are specified according to the number of layers *e.g.* single, double or triple ply and according to the thickness of hides used *e.g.* light, medium or heavy.

The leather belts must be periodically cleaned and dressed or treated with a compound or dressing containing neats foot or other suitable oils so that the belt will remain soft and flexible.

2. Cotton or fabric belts. Most of the fabric belts are made by folding canvass or cotton duck to three or more layers (depending upon the thickness desired) and stitching together. These belts are woven also into a strip of the desired width and thickness. They are impregnated with some filler like linseed oil in order to make the belts water proof and to prevent injury to the fibres. The cotton belts are cheaper and suitable in warm climates, in damp atmospheres and in exposed positions. Since the cotton belts require little attention, therefore these belts are mostly used in farm machinery, belt conveyor etc.

3. Rubber belt. The rubber belts are made of layers of fabric impregnated with rubber composition and have a thin layer of rubber on the faces. These belts are very flexible but are quickly destroyed if allowed to come into contact with heat, oil or grease. One of the principal advantage of these belts is that they may be easily made endless. These belts are found suitable for saw mills, paper mills where they are exposed to moisture.

4. Balata belts. These belts are similar to rubber belts except that balata gum is used in place of rubber. These belts are acid proof and water proof and it is not effected by animal oils or alkalies. The balata belts should not be at temperatures above 40° C because at this temperature the balata begins to soften and becomes sticky. The strength of balata belts is 25 per cent higher than rubber belts.

11.6. Types of Flat Belt Drives

The power from one pulley to another may be transmitted by any of the following types of belt drives:

1. Open belt drive. The open belt drive, as shown in Fig. 11.3, is used with shafts arranged parallel and rotating in the same direction. In this case, the driver *A* pulls the belt from one side (*i.e.* lower side *RQ*) and delivers it to the other side (*i.e.* upper side *LM*). Thus the tension in the lower side belt will be more than that in the upper side belt. The lower side belt (because of more tension) is known as **tight side** whereas the upper side belt (because of less tension) is known as **slack side**, as shown in Fig. 11.3.

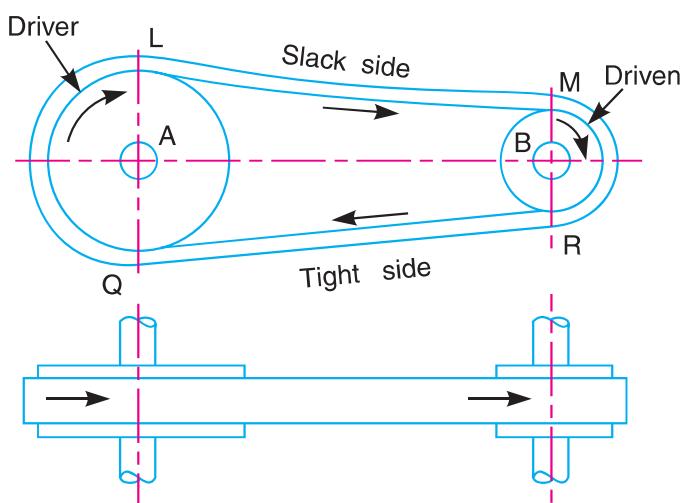


Fig. 11.3. Open belt drive.

2. Crossed or twist belt drive. The crossed or twist belt drive, as shown in Fig. 11.4, is used with shafts arranged parallel and rotating in the opposite directions.

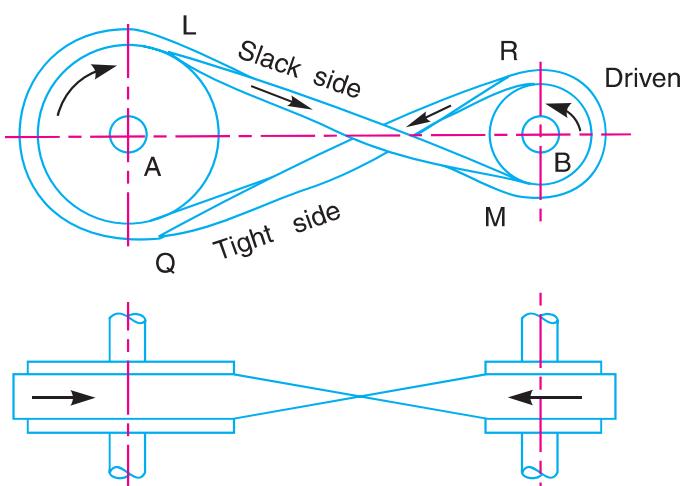


Fig. 11.4. Crossed or twist belt drive.

In this case, the driver pulls the belt from one side (*i.e.* *RQ*) and delivers it to the other side (*i.e.* *LM*). Thus the tension in the belt *RQ* will be more than that in the belt *LM*. The belt *RQ* (because of more tension) is known as **tight side**, whereas the belt *LM* (because of less tension) is known as **slack side**, as shown in Fig. 11.4.

A little consideration will show that at a point where the belt crosses, it rubs against each other and there will be excessive wear and tear. In order to avoid this, the shafts should be placed at a maximum distance of $20 b$, where b is the width of belt and the speed of the belt should be less than 15 m/s.

3. Quarter turn belt drive. The quarter turn belt drive also known as right angle belt drive, as shown in Fig. 11.5 (a), is used with shafts arranged at right angles and rotating in one definite direction. In order to prevent the belt from leaving the pulley, the width of the face of the pulley should be greater or equal to $1.4 b$, where b is the width of belt.

In case the pulleys cannot be arranged, as shown in Fig. 11.5 (a), or when the reversible motion is desired, then a **quarter turn belt drive with guide pulley**, as shown in Fig. 11.5 (b), may be used.

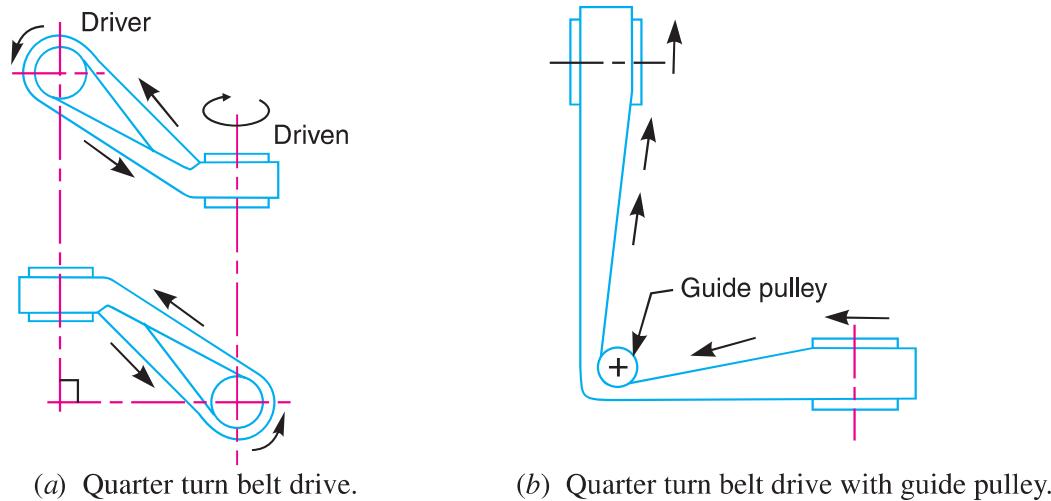


Fig. 11.5

4. Belt drive with idler pulleys. A belt drive with an idler pulley, as shown in Fig. 11.6 (a), is used with shafts arranged parallel and when an open belt drive cannot be used due to small angle of contact on the smaller pulley. This type of drive is provided to obtain high velocity ratio and when the required belt tension cannot be obtained by other means.

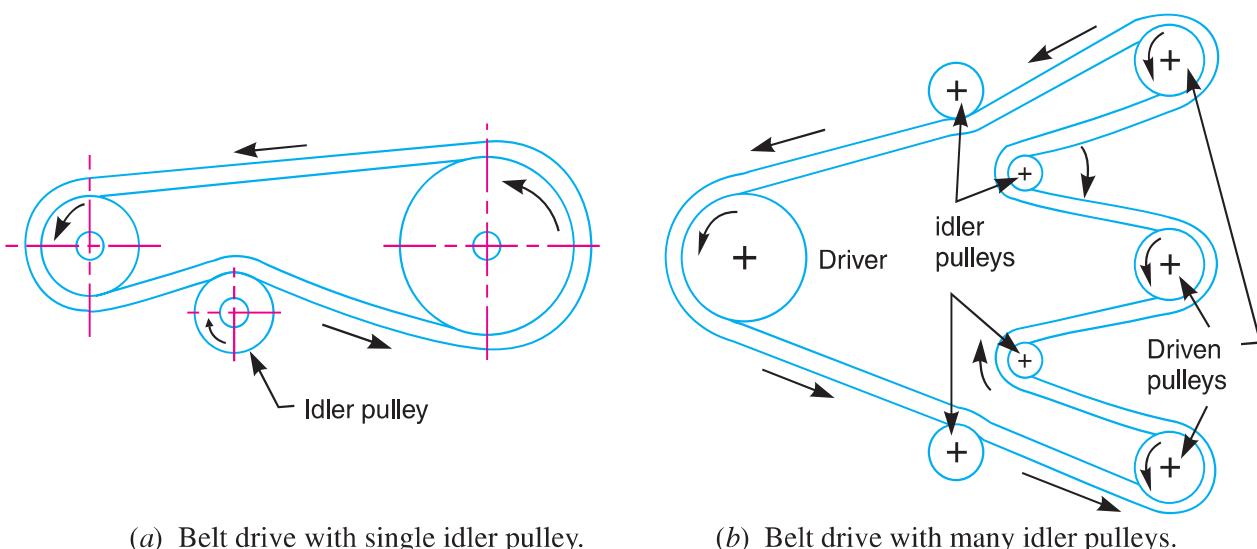


Fig. 11.6

When it is desired to transmit motion from one shaft to several shafts, all arranged in parallel, a belt drive with many idler pulleys, as shown in Fig. 11.6 (b), may be employed.

5. Compound belt drive. A compound belt drive, as shown in Fig. 11.7, is used when power is transmitted from one shaft to another through a number of pulleys.

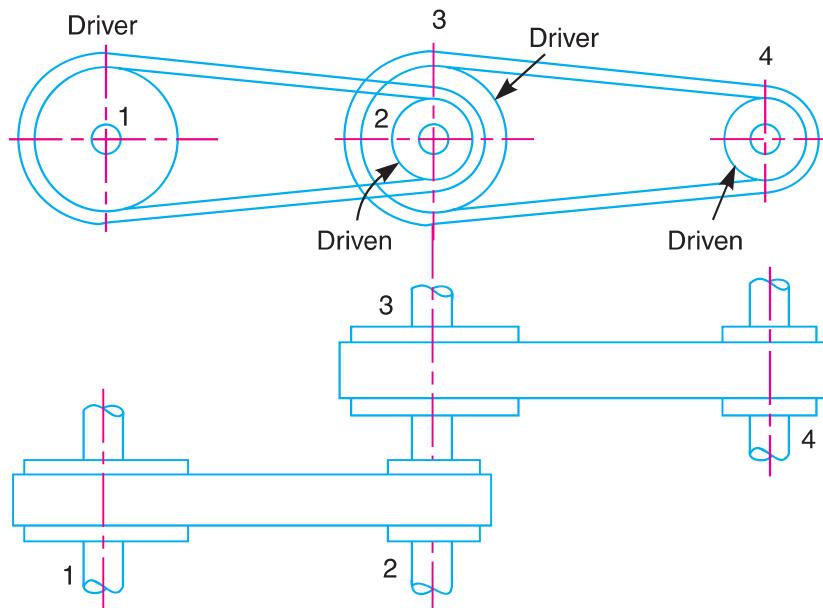


Fig. 11.7. Compound belt drive.

6. Stepped or cone pulley drive. A stepped or cone pulley drive, as shown in Fig. 11.8, is used for changing the speed of the driven shaft while the main or driving shaft runs at constant speed. This is accomplished by shifting the belt from one part of the steps to the other.

7. Fast and loose pulley drive. A fast and loose pulley drive, as shown in Fig. 11.9, is used when the driven or machine shaft is to be started or stopped when ever desired without interfering with the driving shaft. A pulley which is keyed to the machine shaft is called **fast pulley** and runs at the same speed as that of machine shaft. A loose pulley runs freely over the machine shaft and is incapable of transmitting any power. When the driven shaft is required to be stopped, the belt is pushed on to the loose pulley by means of sliding bar having belt forks.

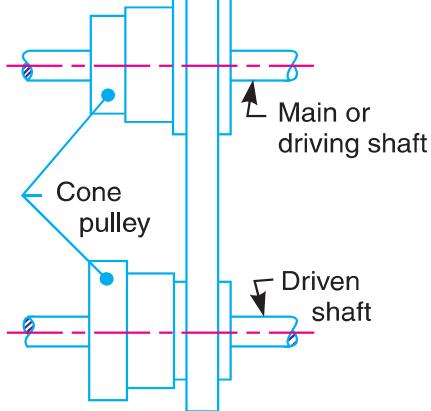


Fig. 11.8. Stepped or cone pulley drive.

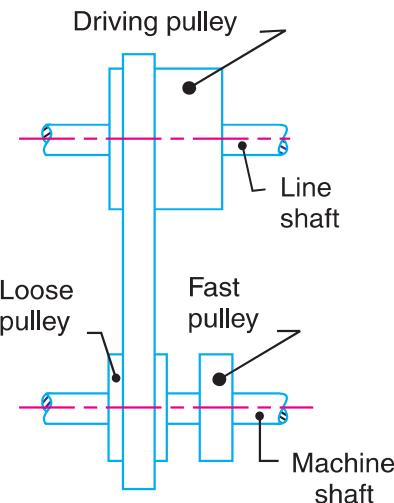


Fig. 11.9. Fast and loose pulley drive.

11.7. Velocity Ratio of Belt Drive

It is the **ratio between the velocities of the driver and the follower or driven.** It may be expressed, mathematically, as discussed below :

Let d_1 = Diameter of the driver,

d_2 = Diameter of the follower,

N_1 = Speed of the driver in r.p.m., and

N_2 = Speed of the follower in r.p.m.

∴ Length of the belt that passes over the driver, in one minute

$$= \pi d_1 \cdot N_1$$

Similarly, length of the belt that passes over the follower, in one minute

$$= \pi d_2 \cdot N_2$$

Since the length of belt that passes over the driver in one minute is equal to the length of belt that passes over the follower in one minute, therefore

$$\pi d_1 \cdot N_1 = \pi d_2 \cdot N_2$$



$$\therefore \text{Velocity ratio, } \frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{d_1}{d_2}$$

When the thickness of the belt (t) is considered, then velocity ratio,

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{d_1 + t}{d_2 + t}$$

Note: The velocity ratio of a belt drive may also be obtained as discussed below :

We know that peripheral velocity of the belt on the driving pulley,

$$v_1 = \frac{\pi d_1 \cdot N_1}{60} \text{ m/s}$$

and peripheral velocity of the belt on the driven or follower pulley,

$$v_2 = \frac{\pi d_2 \cdot N_2}{60} \text{ m/s}$$

When there is no slip, then $v_1 = v_2$.

$$\therefore \frac{\pi d_1 \cdot N_1}{60} = \frac{\pi d_2 \cdot N_2}{60} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{d_1}{d_2}$$

11.8. Velocity Ratio of a Compound Belt Drive

Sometimes the power is transmitted from one shaft to another, through a number of pulleys as shown in Fig. 11.7. Consider a pulley 1 driving the pulley 2. Since the pulleys 2 and 3 are keyed to the same shaft, therefore the pulley 1 also drives the pulley 3 which, in turn, drives the pulley 4.

Let d_1 = Diameter of the pulley 1,

N_1 = Speed of the pulley 1 in r.p.m.,

d_2, d_3, d_4 , and N_2, N_3, N_4 = Corresponding values for pulleys 2, 3 and 4.

We know that velocity ratio of pulleys 1 and 2,

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{d_1}{d_2} \quad \dots(i)$$

Similarly, velocity ratio of pulleys 3 and 4,

$$\frac{N_4}{N_3} = \frac{d_3}{d_4} \quad \dots(ii)$$

Multiplying equations (i) and (ii),

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} \times \frac{N_4}{N_3} = \frac{d_1}{d_2} \times \frac{d_3}{d_4}$$

or
$$\frac{N_4}{N_1} = \frac{d_1 \times d_3}{d_2 \times d_4} \quad \dots (\because N_2 = N_3, \text{ being keyed to the same shaft})$$

A little consideration will show, that if there are six pulleys, then

$$\frac{N_6}{N_1} = \frac{d_1 \times d_3 \times d_5}{d_2 \times d_4 \times d_6}$$

or
$$\frac{\text{Speed of last driven}}{\text{Speed of first driver}} = \frac{\text{Product of diameters of drivers}}{\text{Product of diameters of drivens}}$$

11.9. Slip of Belt

In the previous articles, we have discussed the motion of belts and shafts assuming a firm frictional grip between the belts and the shafts. But sometimes, the frictional grip becomes insufficient. This may cause some forward motion of the driver without carrying the belt with it. This may also cause some forward motion of the belt without carrying the driven pulley with it. This is called **slip of the belt** and is generally expressed as a percentage.

The result of the belt slipping is to reduce the velocity ratio of the system. As the slipping of the belt is a common phenomenon, thus the belt should never be used where a definite velocity ratio is of importance (as in the case of hour, minute and second arms in a watch).

Let $s_1\% = \text{Slip between the driver and the belt, and}$

$s_2\% = \text{Slip between the belt and the follower.}$

\therefore Velocity of the belt passing over the driver per second

$$v = \frac{\pi d_1 \cdot N_1}{60} - \frac{\pi d_1 \cdot N_1}{60} \times \frac{s_1}{100} = \frac{\pi d_1 \cdot N_1}{60} \left(1 - \frac{s_1}{100}\right) \dots (i)$$

and velocity of the belt passing over the follower per second,

$$\frac{\pi d_2 \cdot N_2}{60} = v - v \times \frac{s_2}{100} = v \left(1 - \frac{s_2}{100}\right)$$

Substituting the value of v from equation (i),

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\pi d_2 \cdot N_2}{60} &= \frac{\pi d_1 \cdot N_1}{60} \left(1 - \frac{s_1}{100}\right) \left(1 - \frac{s_2}{100}\right) \\ \frac{N_2}{N_1} &= \frac{d_1}{d_2} \left(1 - \frac{s_1}{100} - \frac{s_2}{100}\right) \dots \left(\text{Neglecting } \frac{s_1 \times s_2}{100 \times 100}\right) \\ &= \frac{d_1}{d_2} \left(1 - \frac{s_1 + s_2}{100}\right) = \frac{d_1}{d_2} \left(1 - \frac{s}{100}\right) \end{aligned}$$

\dots (where $s = s_1 + s_2$, i.e. total percentage of slip)

If thickness of the belt (t) is considered, then

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{d_1 + t}{d_2 + t} \left(1 - \frac{s}{100}\right)$$



Example 11.1. An engine, running at 150 r.p.m., drives a line shaft by means of a belt. The engine pulley is 750 mm diameter and the pulley on the line shaft being 450 mm. A 900 mm diameter pulley on the line shaft drives a 150 mm diameter pulley keyed to a dynamo shaft. Find the speed of the dynamo shaft, when 1. there is no slip, and 2. there is a slip of 2% at each drive.

Solution. Given : $N_1 = 150$ r.p.m. ; $d_1 = 750$ mm ; $d_2 = 450$ mm ; $d_3 = 900$ mm ; $d_4 = 150$ mm

The arrangement of belt drive is shown in Fig. 11.10.

Let N_4 = Speed of the dynamo shaft .

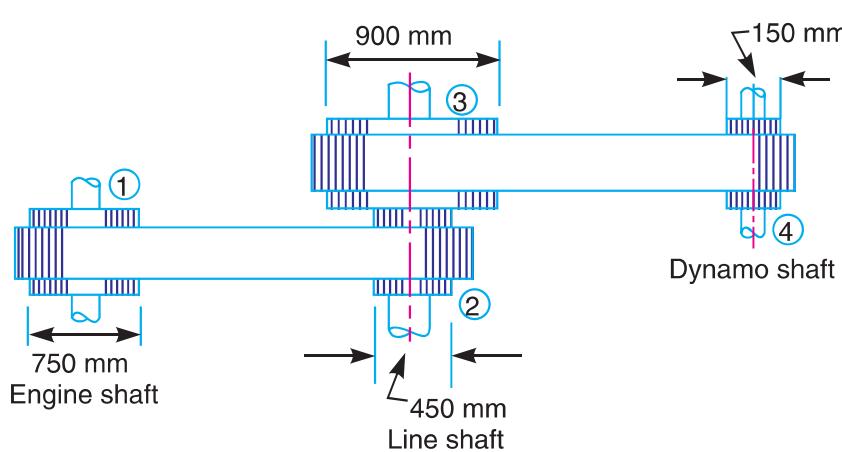


Fig. 11.10

1. When there is no slip

We know that $\frac{N_4}{N_1} = \frac{d_1 \times d_3}{d_2 \times d_4}$ or $\frac{N_4}{150} = \frac{750 \times 900}{450 \times 150} = 10$

$$\therefore N_4 = 150 \times 10 = 1500 \text{ r.p.m. Ans.}$$

2. When there is a slip of 2% at each drive

We know that $\frac{N_4}{N_1} = \frac{d_1 \times d_3}{d_2 \times d_4} \left(1 - \frac{s_1}{100}\right) \left(1 - \frac{s_2}{100}\right)$

$$\frac{N_4}{150} = \frac{750 \times 900}{450 \times 150} \left(1 - \frac{2}{100}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{100}\right) = 9.6$$

$$\therefore N_4 = 150 \times 9.6 = 1440 \text{ r.p.m. Ans.}$$

11.10. Creep of Belt

When the belt passes from the slack side to the tight side, a certain portion of the belt extends and it contracts again when the belt passes from the tight side to slack side. Due to these changes of length, there is a relative motion between the belt and the pulley surfaces. This relative motion is termed as **creep**. The total effect of creep is to reduce slightly the speed of the driven pulley or follower. Considering creep, the velocity ratio is given by

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{d_1}{d_2} \times \frac{E + \sqrt{\sigma_2}}{E + \sqrt{\sigma_1}}$$

where

σ_1 and σ_2 = Stress in the belt on the tight and slack side respectively, and

E = Young's modulus for the material of the belt.

Example 11.2. The power is transmitted from a pulley 1 m diameter running at 200 r.p.m. to a pulley 2.25 m diameter by means of a belt. Find the speed lost by the driven pulley as a result of creep, if the stress on the tight and slack side of the belt is 1.4 MPa and 0.5 MPa respectively. The Young's modulus for the material of the belt is 100 MPa.

Solution. Given : $d_1 = 1 \text{ m}$; $N_1 = 200 \text{ r.p.m.}$; $d_2 = 2.25 \text{ m}$; $\sigma_1 = 1.4 \text{ MPa} = 1.4 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$; $\sigma_2 = 0.5 \text{ MPa} = 0.5 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$; $E = 100 \text{ MPa} = 100 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$

Let N_2 = Speed of the driven pulley.

Neglecting creep, we know that

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{d_1}{d_2} \quad \text{or} \quad N_2 = N_1 \times \frac{d_1}{d_2} = 200 \times \frac{1}{2.25} = 88.9 \text{ r.p.m.}$$

Considering creep, we know that

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{d_1}{d_2} \times \frac{E + \sqrt{\sigma_2}}{E + \sqrt{\sigma_1}}$$

or

$$N_2 = 200 \times \frac{1}{2.25} \times \frac{100 \times 10^6 + \sqrt{0.5 \times 10^6}}{100 \times 10^6 + \sqrt{1.4 \times 10^6}} = 88.7 \text{ r.p.m.}$$

\therefore Speed lost by driven pulley due to creep

$$= 88.9 - 88.7 = 0.2 \text{ r.p.m. Ans.}$$

11.11. Length of an Open Belt Drive

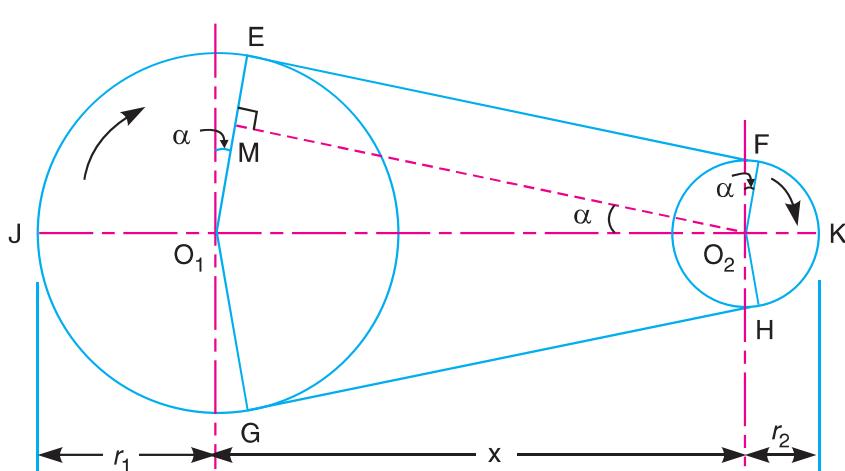


Fig. 11.11. Length of an open belt drive.

We have already discussed in Art. 11.6 that in an open belt drive, both the pulleys rotate in the **same** direction as shown in Fig. 11.11.

Let r_1 and r_2 = Radii of the larger and smaller pulleys,

x = Distance between the centres of two pulleys (*i.e.* $O_1 O_2$), and

L = Total length of the belt.

Let the belt leaves the larger pulley at E and G and the smaller pulley at F and H as shown in Fig. 11.11. Through O_2 , draw $O_2 M$ parallel to FE .

From the geometry of the figure, we find that $O_2 M$ will be perpendicular to $O_1 E$.

Let the angle $MO_2 O_1 = \alpha$ radians.

We know that the length of the belt,

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \text{Arc } GJE + EF + \text{Arc } FKH + HG \\ &= 2(\text{Arc } JE + EF + \text{Arc } FK) \end{aligned} \quad \dots(i)$$

From the geometry of the figure, we find that

$$\sin \alpha = \frac{O_1 M}{O_1 O_2} = \frac{O_1 E - EM}{O_1 O_2} = \frac{r_1 - r_2}{x}$$

Since α is very small, therefore putting

$$\sin \alpha = \alpha \text{ (in radians)} = \frac{r_1 - r_2}{x} \quad \dots(ii)$$

$$\therefore \text{Arc } JE = r_1 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \alpha \right) \quad \dots(iii)$$

$$\text{Similarly } \text{Arc } FK = r_2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \alpha \right) \quad \dots(iv)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} EF = MO_2 &= \sqrt{(O_1 O_2)^2 - (O_1 M)^2} = \sqrt{x^2 - (r_1 - r_2)^2} \\ &= x \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{r_1 - r_2}{x} \right)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Expanding this equation by binomial theorem,

$$EF = x \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{r_1 - r_2}{x} \right)^2 + \dots \right] = x - \frac{(r_1 - r_2)^2}{2x} \quad \dots(v)$$

Substituting the values of arc JE from equation (iii), arc FK from equation (iv) and EF from equation (v) in equation (i), we get

$$\begin{aligned} L &= 2 \left[r_1 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \alpha \right) + x - \frac{(r_1 - r_2)^2}{2x} + r_2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \alpha \right) \right] \\ &= 2 \left[r_1 \times \frac{\pi}{2} + r_1 \cdot \alpha + x - \frac{(r_1 - r_2)^2}{2x} + r_2 \times \frac{\pi}{2} - r_2 \cdot \alpha \right] \\ &= 2 \left[\frac{\pi}{2} (r_1 + r_2) + \alpha (r_1 - r_2) + x - \frac{(r_1 - r_2)^2}{2x} \right] \\ &= \pi (r_1 + r_2) + 2\alpha (r_1 - r_2) + 2x - \frac{(r_1 - r_2)^2}{x} \end{aligned}$$

Substituting the value of $\alpha = \frac{r_1 - r_2}{x}$ from equation (ii),

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \pi (r_1 + r_2) + 2 \times \frac{(r_1 - r_2)}{x} \times (r_1 - r_2) + 2x - \frac{(r_1 - r_2)^2}{x} \\ &= \pi (r_1 + r_2) + \frac{2(r_1 - r_2)^2}{x} + 2x - \frac{(r_1 - r_2)^2}{x} \\ &= \pi (r_1 + r_2) + 2x + \frac{(r_1 - r_2)^2}{x} \quad \dots(\text{In terms of pulley radii}) \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} (d_1 + d_2) + 2x + \frac{(d_1 - d_2)^2}{4x} \quad \dots(\text{In terms of pulley diameters}) \end{aligned}$$

11.12. Length of a Cross Belt Drive

We have already discussed in Art. 11.6 that in a cross belt drive, both the pulleys rotate in *opposite* directions as shown in Fig. 11.12.

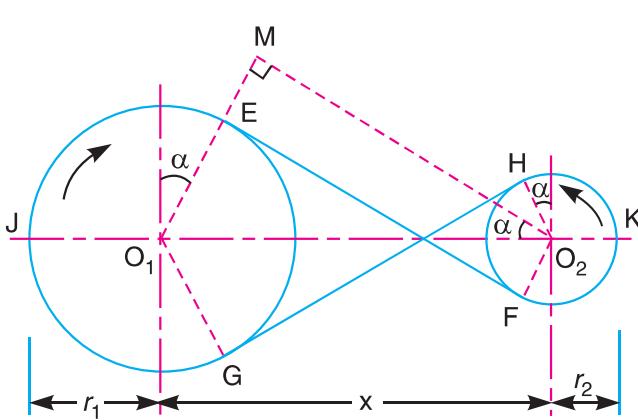


Fig. 11.12. Length of a cross belt drive.

Let r_1 and r_2 = Radii of the larger and smaller pulleys,

x = Distance between the centres of two pulleys (i.e. $O_1 O_2$), and

L = Total length of the belt.

Let the belt leaves the larger pulley at E and G and the smaller pulley at F and H , as shown in Fig. 11.12. Through O_2 , draw O_2M parallel to FE .

From the geometry of the figure, we find that O_2M will be perpendicular to O_1E .

Let the angle $MO_2 O_1 = \alpha$ radians.

We know that the length of the belt,

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \text{Arc } GJE + EF + \text{Arc } FKH + HG \\ &= 2(\text{Arc } JE + EF + \text{Arc } FK) \end{aligned} \quad \dots(i)$$

From the geometry of the figure, we find that

$$\sin \alpha = \frac{O_1 M}{O_1 O_2} = \frac{O_1 E + EM}{O_1 O_2} = \frac{r_1 + r_2}{x}$$

Since α is very small, therefore putting

$$\sin \alpha = \alpha \text{ (in radians)} = \frac{r_1 + r_2}{x} \quad \dots(ii)$$

$$\therefore \text{Arc } JE = r_1 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \alpha \right) \quad \dots(iii)$$

$$\text{Similarly } \text{Arc } FK = r_2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \alpha \right) \quad \dots(iv)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } EF &= MO_2 = \sqrt{(O_1 O_2)^2 - (O_1 M)^2} = \sqrt{x^2 - (r_1 + r_2)^2} \\ &= x \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{r_1 + r_2}{x} \right)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Expanding this equation by binomial theorem,

$$EF = x \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{r_1 + r_2}{x} \right)^2 + \dots \right] = x - \frac{(r_1 + r_2)^2}{2x} \quad \dots(v)$$

Substituting the values of arc JE from equation (iii), arc FK from equation (iv) and EF from equation (v) in equation (i), we get

$$\begin{aligned} L &= 2 \left[r_1 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \alpha \right) + x - \frac{(r_1 + r_2)^2}{2x} + r_2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \alpha \right) \right] \\ &= 2 \left[r_1 \times \frac{\pi}{2} + r_1 \cdot \alpha + x - \frac{(r_1 + r_2)^2}{2x} + r_2 \times \frac{\pi}{2} + r_2 \cdot \alpha \right] \\ &= 2 \left[\frac{\pi}{2} (r_1 + r_2) + \alpha (r_1 + r_2) + x - \frac{(r_1 + r_2)^2}{2x} \right] \\ &= \pi (r_1 + r_2) + 2\alpha (r_1 + r_2) + 2x - \frac{(r_1 + r_2)^2}{x} \end{aligned}$$

Substituting the value of $\alpha = \frac{r_1 + r_2}{x}$ from equation (ii),

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \pi (r_1 + r_2) + \frac{2(r_1 + r_2)}{x} \times (r_1 + r_2) + 2x - \frac{(r_1 + r_2)^2}{x} \\ &= \pi (r_1 + r_2) + \frac{2(r_1 + r_2)^2}{x} + 2x - \frac{(r_1 + r_2)^2}{x} \\ &= \pi (r_1 + r_2) + 2x + \frac{(r_1 + r_2)^2}{x} \quad \dots(\text{In terms of pulley radii}) \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} (d_1 + d_2) + 2x + \frac{(d_1 + d_2)^2}{4x} \quad \dots(\text{In terms of pulley diameters}) \end{aligned}$$

It may be noted that the above expression is a function of $(r_1 + r_2)$. It is thus obvious that if sum of the radii of the two pulleys be constant, then length of the belt required will also remain constant, provided the distance between centres of the pulleys remain unchanged.

Example 11.3. A shaft which rotates at a constant speed of 160 r.p.m. is connected by belting to a parallel shaft 720 mm apart, which has to run at 60, 80 and 100 r.p.m. The smallest pulley on the driving shaft is 40 mm in radius. Determine the remaining radii of the two stepped pulleys for 1. a crossed belt, and 2. an open belt. Neglect belt thickness and slip.

Solution. Given : $N_1 = N_3 = N_5 = 160$ r.p.m. ; $x = 720$ mm ; $N_2 = 60$ r.p.m.; $N_4 = 80$ r.p.m.; $N_6 = 100$ r.p.m. ; $r_1 = 40$ mm

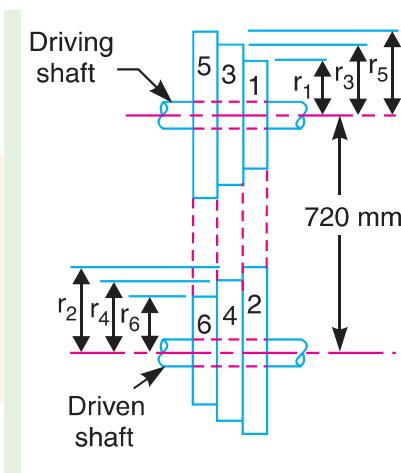


Fig. 11.13.

Let r_2, r_3, r_4, r_5 and r_6 be the radii of the pulleys 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 respectively, as shown in Fig. 11.13.

1. For a crossed belt

We know that for pulleys 1 and 2,

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{r_1}{r_2}$$

or

$$r_2 = r_1 \times \frac{N_1}{N_2} = 40 \times \frac{160}{60} = 106.7 \text{ mm } \text{Ans.}$$

and for pulleys 3 and 4,

$$\frac{N_4}{N_3} = \frac{r_3}{r_4} \quad \text{or} \quad r_4 = r_3 \times \frac{N_3}{N_4} = r_3 \times \frac{160}{80} = 2r_3$$

We know that for a crossed belt drive,

$$r_1 + r_2 = r_3 + r_4 = r_5 + r_6 = 40 + 106.7 = 146.7 \text{ mm} \quad \dots(i)$$

∴

$$r_3 + 2r_3 = 146.7 \quad \text{or} \quad r_3 = 146.7/3 = 48.9 \text{ mm } \text{Ans.}$$

and

$$r_4 = 2r_3 = 2 \times 48.9 = 97.8 \text{ mm } \text{Ans.}$$

Now for pulleys 5 and 6,

$$\frac{N_6}{N_5} = \frac{r_5}{r_6} \quad \text{or} \quad r_6 = r_5 \times \frac{N_5}{N_6} = r_5 \times \frac{160}{100} = 1.6r_5$$

From equation (i),

$$r_5 + 1.6r_5 = 146.7 \quad \text{or} \quad r_5 = 146.7/2.6 = 56.4 \text{ mm } \text{Ans.}$$

and

$$r_6 = 1.6r_5 = 1.6 \times 56.4 = 90.2 \text{ mm } \text{Ans.}$$

2. For an open belt

We know that for pulleys 1 and 2,

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} \quad \text{or} \quad r_2 = r_1 \times \frac{N_1}{N_2} = 40 \times \frac{160}{60} = 106.7 \text{ mm } \text{Ans.}$$

and for pulleys 3 and 4,

$$\frac{N_4}{N_3} = \frac{r_3}{r_4} \quad \text{or} \quad r_4 = r_3 \times \frac{N_3}{N_4} = r_3 \times \frac{160}{80} = 2r_3$$

We know that length of belt for an open belt drive,

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \pi(r_1 + r_2) + \frac{(r_2 - r_1)^2}{x} + 2x \\ &= \pi(40 + 106.7) + \frac{(106.7 - 40)^2}{720} + 2 \times 720 = 1907 \text{ mm} \end{aligned}$$

Since the length of the belt in an open belt drive is constant, therefore for pulleys 3 and 4, length of the belt (L),

$$1907 = \pi(r_3 + r_4) + \frac{(r_4 - r_3)^2}{x} + 2x$$

$$= \pi(r_3 + 2r_3) + \frac{(2r_3 - r_3)^2}{720} + 2 \times 720 \\ = 9.426 r_3 + 0.0014 (r_3)^2 + 1440$$

or $0.0014 (r_3)^2 + 9.426 r_3 - 467 = 0$

$$\therefore r_3 = \frac{-9.426 \pm \sqrt{(9.426)^2 + 4 \times 0.0014 \times 467}}{2 \times 0.0014} \\ = \frac{-9.426 \pm 9.564}{0.0028} = 49.3 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

and $r_4 = 2r_3 = 2 \times 49.3 = 98.6 \text{ mm Ans.}$

Now for pulleys 5 and 6,

$$\frac{N_6}{N_5} = \frac{r_5}{r_6} \quad \text{or}$$

$$r_6 = \frac{N_5}{N_6} \times r_5 = \frac{160}{100} \times r_5 = 1.6 r_5$$

and length of the belt (L),

$$1907 = \pi(r_5 + r_6) + \frac{(r_6 - r_5)^2}{x} + 2x \\ = \pi(r_5 + 1.6r_5) + \frac{(1.6r_5 - r_5)^2}{720} + 2 \times 720 \\ = 8.17 r_5 + 0.0005 (r_5)^2 + 1440$$

or $0.0005 (r_5)^2 + 8.17 r_5 - 467 = 0$

$$\therefore r_5 = \frac{-8.17 \pm \sqrt{(8.17)^2 + 4 \times 0.0005 \times 467}}{2 \times 0.0005} \\ = \frac{-8.17 \pm 8.23}{0.001} = 60 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

...(Taking +ve sign)

and $r_6 = 1.6 r_5 = 1.6 \times 60 = 96 \text{ mm Ans.}$



Milling machine is used for dressing surfaces by rotary cutters.

Note : This picture is given as additional information and is not a direct example of the current chapter.

11.13. Power Transmitted by a Belt

Fig. 11.14 shows the driving pulley (or driver) A and the driven pulley (or follower) B . We have already discussed that the driving pulley pulls the belt from one side and delivers the same to the other side. It is thus obvious that the tension on the former side (*i.e.* tight side) will be greater than the latter side (*i.e.* slack side) as shown in Fig. 11.14.

Let T_1 and T_2 = Tensions in the tight and slack side of the belt respectively in newtons,

r_1 and r_2 = Radii of the driver and follower respectively, and

v = Velocity of the belt in m/s.

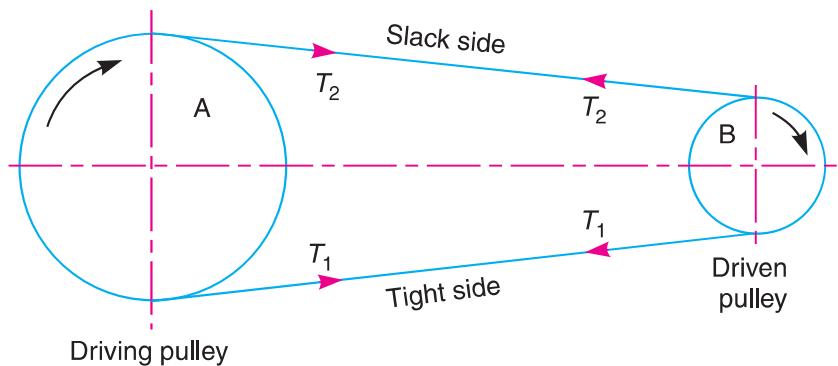


Fig. 11.14. Power transmitted by a belt.

The effective turning (driving) force at the circumference of the follower is the difference between the two tensions (*i.e.* $T_1 - T_2$).

$$\therefore \text{Work done per second} = (T_1 - T_2) v \text{ N-m/s}$$

$$\text{and power transmitted, } P = (T_1 - T_2) v \text{ W} \quad \dots (\because 1 \text{ N-m/s} = 1 \text{ W})$$

A little consideration will show that the torque exerted on the driving pulley is $(T_1 - T_2) r_1$. Similarly, the torque exerted on the driven pulley *i.e.* follower is $(T_1 - T_2) r_2$.

11.14. Ratio of Driving Tensions For Flat Belt Drive

Consider a driven pulley rotating in the clockwise direction as shown in Fig. 11.15.

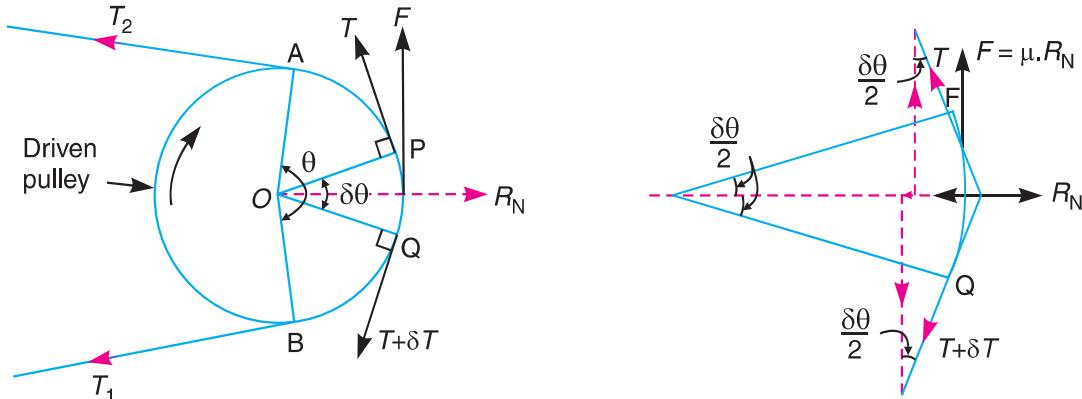


Fig. 11.15. Ratio of driving tensions for flat belt.

Let

T_1 = Tension in the belt on the tight side,

T_2 = Tension in the belt on the slack side, and

θ = Angle of contact in radians (*i.e.* angle subtended by the arc $A B$, along which the belt touches the pulley at the centre).

Now consider a small portion of the belt PQ , subtending an angle $\delta\theta$ at the centre of the pulley as shown in Fig. 11.15. The belt PQ is in equilibrium under the following forces :

1. Tension T in the belt at P ,
2. Tension $(T + \delta T)$ in the belt at Q ,
3. Normal reaction R_N , and
4. Frictional force, $F = \mu \times R_N$, where μ is the coefficient of friction between the belt and pulley.

Resolving all the forces horizontally and equating the same,

$$R_N = (T + \delta T) \sin \frac{\delta\theta}{2} + T \sin \frac{\delta\theta}{2} \quad \dots(i)$$

Since the angle $\delta\theta$ is very small, therefore putting $\sin \delta\theta / 2 = \delta\theta / 2$ in equation (i),

$$R_N = (T + \delta T) \frac{\delta\theta}{2} + T \times \frac{\delta\theta}{2} = \frac{T \cdot \delta\theta}{2} + \frac{\delta T \cdot \delta\theta}{2} + \frac{T \cdot \delta\theta}{2} = T \cdot \delta\theta \quad \dots(ii)$$

... $\left(\text{Neglecting } \frac{\delta T \cdot \delta\theta}{2} \right)$

Now resolving the forces vertically, we have

$$\mu \times R_N = (T + \delta T) \cos \frac{\delta\theta}{2} - T \cos \frac{\delta\theta}{2} \quad \dots(iii)$$

Since the angle $\delta\theta$ is very small, therefore putting $\cos \delta\theta / 2 = 1$ in equation (iii),

$$\mu \times R_N = T + \delta T - T = \delta T \quad \text{or} \quad R_N = \frac{\delta T}{\mu} \quad \dots(iv)$$

Equating the values of R_N from equations (ii) and (iv),

$$T \cdot \delta\theta = \frac{\delta T}{\mu} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\delta T}{T} = \mu \cdot \delta\theta$$

Integrating both sides between the limits T_2 and T_1 and from 0 to θ respectively,

$$\text{i.e.} \quad \int_{T_2}^{T_1} \frac{\delta T}{T} = \mu \int_0^\theta \delta\theta \quad \text{or} \quad \log_e \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2} \right) = \mu \cdot \theta \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{T_1}{T_2} = e^{\mu \cdot \theta} \quad \dots(v)$$

Equation (v) can be expressed in terms of corresponding logarithm to the base 10, i.e.

$$2.3 \log \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2} \right) = \mu \cdot \theta$$

The above expression gives the relation between the tight side and slack side tensions, in terms of coefficient of friction and the angle of contact.

11.15. Determination of Angle of Contact

When the two pulleys of different diameters are connected by means of an open belt as shown in Fig. 11.16 (a), then the angle of contact or lap (θ) at the smaller pulley must be taken into consideration.

Let

r_1 = Radius of larger pulley,

r_2 = Radius of smaller pulley, and

x = Distance between centres of two pulleys (i.e. $O_1 O_2$).

From Fig. 11.16 (a),

$$\sin \alpha = \frac{O_1 M}{O_1 O_2} = \frac{O_1 E - ME}{O_1 O_2} = \frac{r_1 - r_2}{x} \quad \dots(\because ME = O_2 F = r_2)$$

∴ Angle of contact or lap,

$$\theta = (180^\circ - 2\alpha) \frac{\pi}{180} \text{ rad}$$

From equations (i) and (ii),

$$T_1 = 1320.2 \text{ N ; and } T_2 = 387 \text{ N}$$

$$\therefore \text{Power transmitted, } P = (T_1 - T_2) v = (1320.2 - 387) 10 = 9332 \text{ W} = 9.332 \text{ kW}$$

Power transmitted when coefficient of friction is increased by 10%

We know that coefficient of friction,

$$\mu = 0.4$$

\therefore Increased coefficient of friction,

$$\mu' = 0.4 + 0.4 \times \frac{10}{100} = 0.44$$

Let T_1 and T_2 be the corresponding tensions in the tight side and slack side respectively.

We know that

$$2.3 \log \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2} \right) = \mu' \cdot \theta = 0.44 \times 3.067 = 1.3495$$

$$\log \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2} \right) = \frac{1.3495}{2.3} = 0.5867 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{T_1}{T_2} = 3.86 \quad \dots \text{(iii)}$$

... (Taking antilog of 0.5867)

Here the initial tension is constant, i.e.

$$T_0 = \frac{T_1 + T_2}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad T_1 + T_2 = 2 T_0 = 2 \times 776 = 1552 \text{ N} \quad \dots \text{(iv)}$$

From equations (iii) and (iv),

$$T = 1232.7 \text{ N and } T_2 = 319.3 \text{ N}$$

\therefore Power transmitted,

$$P = (T_1 - T_2) v = (1232.7 - 319.3) 10 = 9134 \text{ W} = 9.134 \text{ kW}$$

Since the power transmitted by increasing the initial tension is more, therefore in order to increase the power transmitted we shall adopt the method of increasing the initial tension. **Ans.**

Percentage increase in power

We know that percentage increase in power when the initial tension is increased

$$= \frac{9.332 - 8.48}{8.48} \times 100 = 10.05 \% \quad \text{Ans.}$$

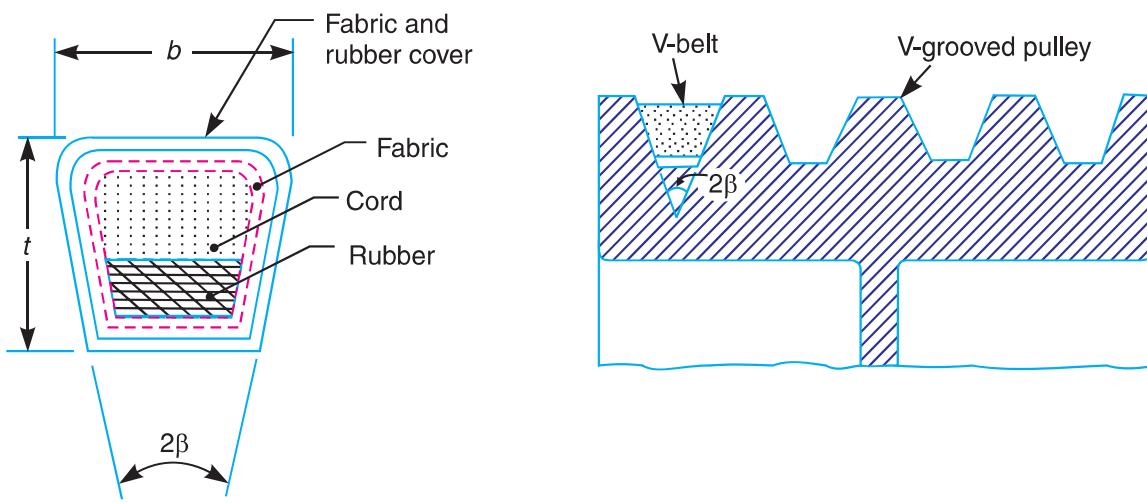
and percentage increase in power when coefficient of friction is increased

$$= \frac{9.134 - 8.48}{8.48} \times 100 = 7.7 \% \quad \text{Ans.}$$

11.20. V-belt drive

We have already discussed that a V-belt is mostly used in factories and workshops where a great amount of power is to be transmitted from one pulley to another when the two pulleys are very near to each other.

The V-belts are made of fabric and cords moulded in rubber and covered with fabric and rubber, as shown in Fig. 11.19 (a). These belts are moulded to a trapezoidal shape and are made endless. These are particularly suitable for short drives *i.e.* when the shafts are at a short distance apart. The included angle for the V-belt is usually from $30^\circ - 40^\circ$. In case of flat belt drive, the belt runs over the pulleys whereas in case of V-belt drive, the rim of the pulley is grooved in which the V-belt runs. The effect of the groove is to increase the frictional grip of the V-belt on the pulley and thus to reduce the tendency of slipping. In order to have a good grip on the pulley, the V-belt is in contact with the side faces of the groove and not at the bottom. The power is transmitted by the *wedging action between the belt and the V-groove in the pulley.



(a) Cross-section of a V-belt.

(b) Cross-section of a V-grooved pulley.

Fig. 11.19. V-belt and V-grooved pulley.

A clearance must be provided at the bottom of the groove, as shown in Fig. 11.19 (b), in order to prevent touching to the bottom as it becomes narrower from wear. The V-belt drive, may be inclined at any angle with tight side either at top or bottom. In order to increase the power output, several V-belts may be operated side by side. It may be noted that in multiple V-belt drive, all the belts should stretch at the same rate so that the load is equally divided between them. When one of the set of belts break, the entire set should be replaced at the same time. If only one belt is replaced, the new unworn and unstressed belt will be more tightly stretched and will move with different velocity.

11.21. Advantages and Disadvantages of V-belt Drive Over Flat Belt Drive

Following are the advantages and disadvantages of the V-belt drive over flat belt drive.

Advantages

1. The V-belt drive gives compactness due to the small distance between the centres of pulleys.
2. The drive is positive, because the slip between the belt and the pulley groove is negligible.
3. Since the V-belts are made endless and there is no joint trouble, therefore the drive is smooth.
4. It provides longer life, 3 to 5 years.

* The wedging action of the V-belt in the groove of the pulley results in higher forces of friction. A little consideration will show that the wedging action and the transmitted torque will be more if the groove angle of the pulley is small. But a smaller groove angle will require more force to pull the belt out of the groove which will result in loss of power and excessive belt wear due to friction and heat. Hence a selective groove angle is a compromise between the two. Usually the groove angles of 32° to 38° are used.

5. It can be easily installed and removed.
6. The operation of the belt and pulley is quiet.
7. The belts have the ability to cushion the shock when machines are started.
8. The high velocity ratio (maximum 10) may be obtained.
9. The wedging action of the belt in the groove gives high value of limiting ratio of tensions.

Therefore the power transmitted by V-belts is more than flat belts for the same coefficient of friction, arc of contact and allowable tension in the belts.

10. The V-belt may be operated in either direction with tight side of the belt at the top or bottom. The centre line may be horizontal, vertical or inclined.

Disadvantages

1. The V-belt drive cannot be used with large centre distances.
2. The V-belts are not so durable as flat belts.
3. The construction of pulleys for V-belts is more complicated than pulleys for flat belts.
4. Since the V-belts are subjected to certain amount of creep, therefore these are not suitable for constant speed application such as synchronous machines, and timing devices.
5. The belt life is greatly influenced with temperature changes, improper belt tension and mismatching of belt lengths.
6. The centrifugal tension prevents the use of V-belts at speeds below 5 m/s and above 50m/s.

11.22. Ratio of Driving Tensions for V-belt

A V-belt with a grooved pulley is shown in Fig. 11.20.

Let R_1 = Normal reaction between the belt and sides of the groove.

R = Total reaction in the plane of the groove.

2β = Angle of the groove.

μ = Coefficient of friction between the belt and sides of the groove.

Resolving the reactions vertically to the groove,

$$R = R_1 \sin \beta + R_1 \sin \beta = 2 R_1 \sin \beta$$

or
$$R_1 = \frac{R}{2 \sin \beta}$$

We know that the frictional force

$$= 2\mu \cdot R_1 = 2\mu \times \frac{R}{2 \sin \beta} = \frac{\mu \cdot R}{\sin \beta} = \mu \cdot R \operatorname{cosec} \beta$$

Consider a small portion of the belt, as in Art. 11.14, subtending an angle $\delta\theta$ at the centre. The tension on one side will be T and on the other side $T + \delta T$. Now proceeding as in Art. 11.14, we get the frictional resistance equal to $\mu \cdot R \operatorname{cosec} \beta$ instead of $\mu \cdot R$. Thus the relation between T_1 and T_2 for the V-belt drive will be

$$2.3 \log \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2} \right) = \mu \cdot \theta \operatorname{cosec} \beta$$

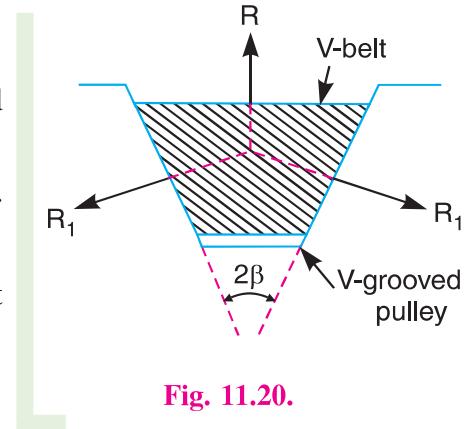


Fig. 11.20.

Length of each belt

We know that length of belt for an open belt drive,

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \frac{\pi}{2}(d_2 + d_1) + 2x + \frac{(d_2 - d_1)^2}{4x} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2}(1 + 0.33) + 2 \times 1.75 + \frac{(1 - 0.33)^2}{4 \times 1.75} \\ &= 2.1 + 3.5 + 0.064 = 5.664 \text{ m } \text{Ans.} \end{aligned}$$

11.23. Rope Drive

The rope drives are widely used where a large amount of power is to be transmitted, from one pulley to another, over a considerable distance. It may be noted that the use of flat belts is limited for the transmission of moderate power from one pulley to another when the two pulleys are not more than 8 metres apart. If large amounts of power are to be transmitted by the flat belt, then it would result in excessive belt cross-section. It may be noted that frictional grip in case of rope drives is more than that in V-drive. One of the main advantage of rope drives is that a number of separate drives may be taken from the one driving pulley. For example, in many spinning mills, the line shaft on each floor is driven by ropes passing directly from the main engine pulley on the ground floor.

The rope drives use the following two types of ropes :

1. Fibre ropes, and 2. Wire ropes.

The fibre ropes operate successfully when the pulleys are about 60 metres apart, while the wire ropes are used when the pulleys are upto 150 metres apart.

11.24. Fibre Ropes

The ropes for transmitting power are usually made from fibrous materials such as hemp, manila and cotton. Since the hemp and manila fibres are rough, therefore the ropes made from these fibres are not very flexible and possesses poor mechanical properties. The hemp ropes have less strength as compared to manila ropes. When the hemp and manila ropes are bent over the sheave (or pulley), there is some sliding of fibres, causing the rope to wear and chafe internally. In order to minimise this defect, the rope fibres are lubricated with a tar, tallow or graphite. The lubrication also makes the rope moisture proof. The hemp ropes are suitable only for hand operated hoisting machinery and as tie ropes for lifting tackle, hooks etc.

The cotton ropes are very soft and smooth. The lubrication of cotton ropes is not necessary. But if it is done, it reduces the external wear between the rope and the grooves of its sheaves. It may be noted that manila ropes are more durable and stronger than cotton ropes. The cotton ropes are costlier than manila ropes.

Note : The diameter of manila and cotton ropes usually ranges from 38 mm to 50 mm. The size of the rope is usually designated by its circumference or '**girth**'.

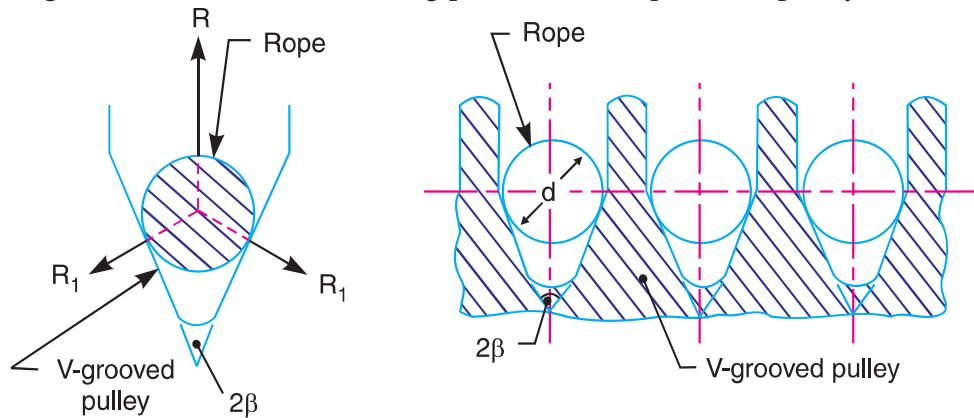
11.25. Advantages of Fibre Rope Drives

The fibre rope drives have the following advantages :

1. They give smooth, steady and quiet service.
2. They are little affected by out door conditions.
3. The shafts may be out of strict alignment.
4. The power may be taken off in any direction and in fractional parts of the whole amount.
5. They give high mechanical efficiency.

11.26. Sheave for Fibre Ropes

The fibre ropes are usually circular in cross-section as shown in Fig. 11.22 (a). The sheave for the fibre ropes is shown in Fig. 11.22 (b). The groove angle of the pulley for rope drives is usually 45° . The grooves in the pulleys are made narrow at the bottom and the rope is pinched between the edges of the V-groove to increase the holding power of the rope on the pulley.



(a) Cross-section of a rope.

(b) Sheave (Grooved pulley) for ropes.

Fig. 11.22. Rope and sheave.

11.27. Wire Ropes

When a large amount of power is to be transmitted over long distances from one pulley to another (*i.e.* when the pulleys are upto 150 metres apart), then wire ropes are used. The wire ropes are



This electric hoist uses wire ropes.

widely used in elevators, mine hoists, cranes, conveyors, hauling devices and suspension bridges. The wire ropes run on grooved pulleys but they rest on the bottom of the *grooves and are not wedged between the sides of the grooves. The wire ropes have the following advantage over cotton ropes.

* The fibre ropes do not rest at the bottom of the groove.

1. These are lighter in weight, 2. These offer silent operation, 3. These can withstand shock loads, 4. These are more reliable, 5. They do not fail suddenly, 6. These are more durable, 7. The efficiency is high, and 8. The cost is low.

11.28. Ratio of Driving Tensions for Rope Drive

The ratio of driving tensions for the rope drive may be obtained in the similar way as V-belts. We have discussed in Art. 11.22, that the ratio of driving tensions is

$$2.3 \log \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2} \right) = \mu \cdot \theta \operatorname{cosec} \beta$$

where, μ , θ and β have usual meanings.

Example 11.20. A rope drive transmits 600 kW from a pulley of effective diameter 4 m, which runs at a speed of 90 r.p.m. The angle of lap is 160° ; the angle of groove 45° ; the coefficient of friction 0.28; the mass of rope 1.5 kg/m and the allowable tension in each rope 2400 N. Find the number of ropes required.

Solution. Given : $P = 600 \text{ kW}$; $d = 4 \text{ m}$; $N = 90 \text{ r.p.m.}$; $\theta = 160^\circ = 160 \times \pi / 180 = 2.8 \text{ rad}$; $2\beta = 45^\circ$ or $\beta = 22.5^\circ$; $\mu = 0.28$; $m = 1.5 \text{ kg/m}$; $T = 2400 \text{ N}$

We know that velocity of the rope,

$$v = \frac{\pi d \cdot N}{60} = \frac{\pi \times 4 \times 90}{60} = 18.85 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\therefore \text{Centrifugal tension, } T_C = m \cdot v^2 = 1.5 (18.85)^2 = 533 \text{ N}$$

and tension in the tight side of the rope,

$$T_1 = T - T_C = 2400 - 533 = 1867 \text{ N}$$

Let

T_2 = Tension in the slack side of the rope.

We know that

$$2.3 \log \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2} \right) = \mu \cdot \theta \operatorname{cosec} \beta = 0.28 \times 2.8 \times \operatorname{cosec} 22.5^\circ = 2.05$$

$$\log \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2} \right) = \frac{2.05}{2.3} = 0.8913 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{T_1}{T_2} = 7.786$$

...(Taking antilog of 0.8913)

and

$$T_2 = \frac{T_1}{7.786} = \frac{1867}{7.786} = 240 \text{ N}$$

We know that power transmitted per rope

$$= (T_1 - T_2) v = (1867 - 240) 18.85 = 30670 \text{ W} = 30.67 \text{ kW}$$

$$\therefore \text{Number of ropes} = \frac{\text{Total power transmitted}}{\text{Power transmitted per rope}} = \frac{600}{30.67} = 19.56 \text{ or } 20 \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Example 11.21. A pulley used to transmit power by means of ropes has a diameter of 3.6 metres and has 15 grooves of 45° angle. The angle of contact is 170° and the coefficient of friction between the ropes and the groove sides is 0.28. The maximum possible tension in the ropes is 960 N and the mass of the rope is 1.5 kg per metre length. What is the speed of pulley in r.p.m. and the power transmitted if the condition of maximum power prevail?

Solution. Given : $d = 3.6 \text{ m}$; No. of grooves = 15 ; $2\beta = 45^\circ$ or $\beta = 22.5^\circ$; $\theta = 170^\circ = 170 \pi \times 180 = 2.967 \text{ rad}$; $\mu = 0.28$; $T = 960 \text{ N}$; $m = 1.5 \text{ kg/m}$

We know that power transmitted per rope (P)

$$\begin{aligned} 2400 &= (T_1 - T_2)v = (T_1 - T_2)2.3 \\ \therefore T_1 - T_2 &= 2400 / 2.3 = 1043.5 \text{ N} \end{aligned} \quad \dots(i)$$

We know that

$$\begin{aligned} 2.3 \log\left(\frac{T_1}{T_2}\right) &= \mu \cdot \theta \operatorname{cosec} \beta = 0.28 \times 2.8 \times \operatorname{cosec} 22.5^\circ = 2.05 \\ \log\left(\frac{T_1}{T_2}\right) &= \frac{2.05}{2.3} = 0.8913 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{T_1}{T_2} = 7.786 \end{aligned} \quad \dots(ii)$$

...(Taking antilog of 0.8913)

From equations (i) and (ii),

$$T_1 = 1197.3 \text{ N, and } T_2 = 153.8 \text{ N}$$

We know that initial tension in each rope,

$$T_0 = \frac{T_1 + T_2}{2} = \frac{1197.3 + 153.8}{2} = 675.55 \text{ N} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Diameter of each rope

Let d_1 = Diameter of each rope,

We know that centrifugal tension,

$$T_C = m \cdot v^2 = 53 C^2 (2.3)^2 = 280.4 C^2 \text{ N}$$

and working tension (T),

$$122 \times 10^3 C^2 = T_1 + T_C = 1197.3 + 280.4 C^2$$

$$122 \times 10^3 C^2 - 280.4 C^2 = 1197.3$$

$$\therefore C^2 = 9.836 \times 10^{-3} \quad \text{or} \quad C = 0.0992 \text{ m} = 99.2 \text{ mm}$$

We know that girth (i.e. circumference) of rope (C),

$$99.2 = \pi d_1 \quad \text{or} \quad d_1 = 99.2 / \pi = 31.57 \text{ mm} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

11.29. Chain Drives

We have seen in belt and rope drives that slipping may occur. In order to avoid slipping, steel chains are used. The chains are made up of rigid links which are hinged together in order to provide the necessary flexibility for warping around the driving and driven wheels. The wheels have projecting teeth and fit into the corresponding recesses, in the links of the chain as shown in Fig. 11.23. The wheels and the chain are thus constrained to move together without slipping and ensures perfect velocity ratio. The toothed wheels are known as **sprocket wheels** or simply **sprockets**. These wheels resemble to spur gears.



The chains are mostly used to transmit motion and power from one shaft to another, when the distance between the centres of the shafts is short such as in bicycles, motor cycles, agricultural machinery, road rollers, etc.

11.30. Advantages and Disadvantages of Chain Drive Over Belt or Rope Drive

Following are the advantages and disadvantages of chain drive over belt or rope drive :

Advantages

1. As no slip takes place during chain drive, hence perfect velocity ratio is obtained.
2. Since the chains are made of metal, therefore they occupy less space in width than a belt or rope drive.
3. The chain drives may be used when the distance between the shafts is less.
4. The chain drive gives a high transmission efficiency (upto 98 per cent).
5. The chain drive gives less load on the shafts.
6. The chain drive has the ability of transmitting motion to several shafts by one chain only.

Disadvantages

1. The production cost of chains is relatively high.
2. The chain drive needs accurate mounting and careful maintenance.
3. The chain drive has velocity fluctuations especially when unduly stretched.

11.31. Terms Used in Chain Drive

The following terms are frequently used in chain drive.

1. Pitch of the chain : It is the distance between the hinge centre of a link and the corresponding hinge centre of the adjacent link as shown in Fig. 11.24. It is usually denoted by p .

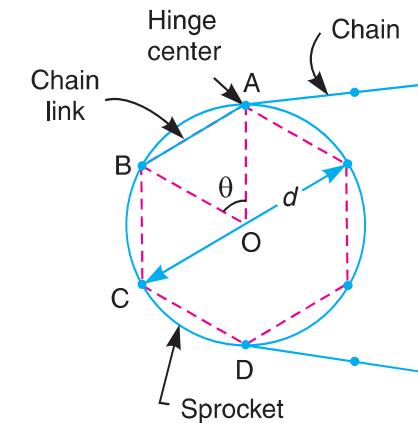
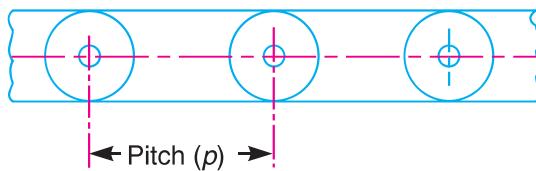


Fig. 11.24. Pitch of the chain.

Fig. 11.25. Pitch circle diameter of the chain sprocket.

2. Pitch circle diameter of the chain sprocket. It is the diameter of the circle on which the hinge centres of the chain lie, when the chain is wrapped round a sprocket as shown in Fig. 11.25. The points A , B , C , and D are the hinge centres of the chain and the circle drawn through these centres is called pitch circle and its diameter (d) is known as pitch circle diameter.

11.32. Relation Between Pitch and Pitch Circle Diameter

A chain wrapped round the sprocket is shown in Fig. 11.25. Since the links of the chain are rigid, therefore pitch of the chain does not lie on the arc of the pitch circle. The pitch length becomes a chord. Consider one pitch length AB of the chain subtending an angle θ at the centre of sprocket (or pitch circle).

Let

d = Diameter of the pitch circle, and

T = Number of teeth on the sprocket.

From Fig. 11.25, we find that pitch of the chain,

$$p = AB = 2AO \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = 2 \times \frac{d}{2} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = d \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

We know that

$$\theta = \frac{360^\circ}{T}$$

∴

$$p = d \sin\left(\frac{360^\circ}{2T}\right) = d \sin\left(\frac{180^\circ}{T}\right)$$

or

$$d = p \cosec\left(\frac{180^\circ}{T}\right)$$

11.33. Relation Between Chain Speed and Angular Velocity of Sprocket

Since the links of the chain are rigid, therefore they will have different positions on the sprocket at different instants. The relation between the chain speed (v) and angular velocity of the sprocket (ω) also varies with the angular position of the sprocket. The extreme positions are shown in Fig. 11.26 (a) and (b).

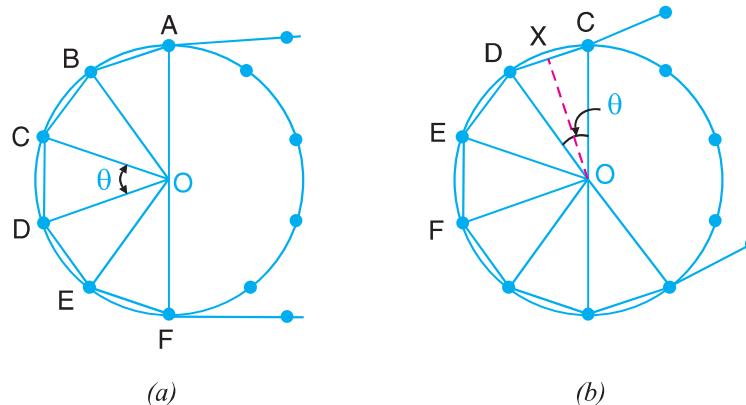


Fig. 11.26. Relation between chain speed and angular velocity of sprocket.

wheel. The result is that the total load falls on one teeth or on a few teeth. The stretching of the parts increase wear of the surfaces of the roller and of the sprocket wheel teeth.

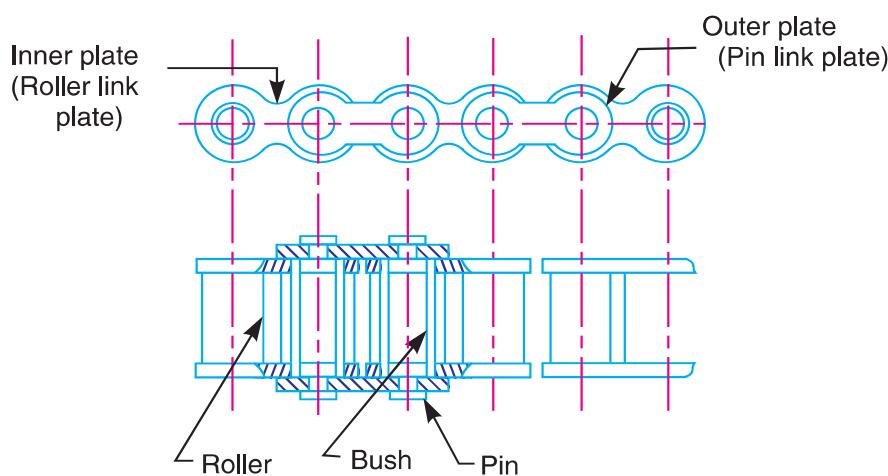


Fig. 11.32. Bush roller chain.

3. Inverted tooth or silent chain. An inverted tooth or silent chain is shown in Fig. 11.33. It is designed to eliminate the evil effects caused by stretching and to produce noiseless running. When the chain stretches and the pitch of the chain increases, the links ride on the teeth of the sprocket wheel at a slightly increased radius. This automatically corrects the small change in the pitch. There is no relative sliding between the teeth of the inverted tooth chain and the sprocket wheel teeth. When properly lubricated, this chain gives durable service and runs very smoothly and quietly.

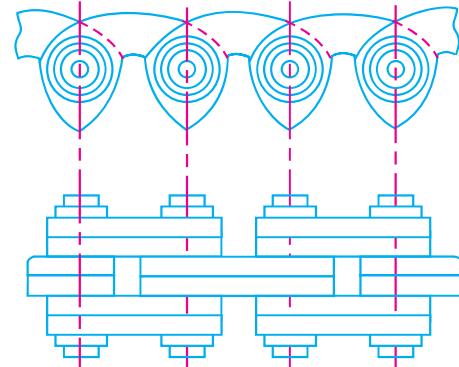


Fig. 11.33. Inverted tooth or silent chain.

11.39. Length of Chain

An open chain drive system connecting the two sprockets is shown in Fig. 11.34. We have already discussed in Art. 11.11 that the length of belt for an open belt drive connecting the two pulleys of radii r_1 and r_2 and a centre distance x , is

$$L = \pi(r_1 + r_2) + 2x + \frac{(r_1 - r_2)^2}{x} \quad (i)$$

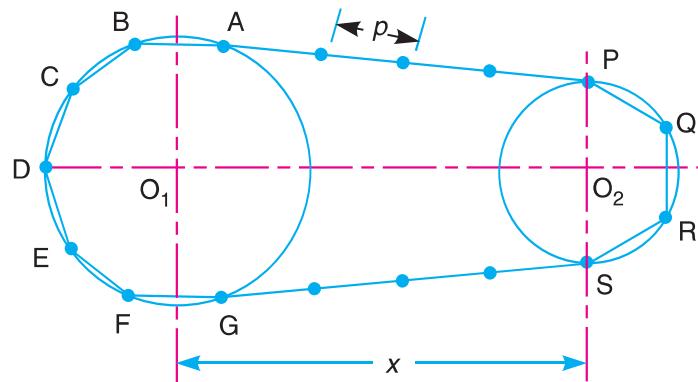


Fig. 11.34. Length of chain

If this expression is used for determining the length of chain, the result will be slightly greater than the required length. This is due to the fact that the pitch lines $A B C D E F G$ and $P Q R S$ of the sprockets are the parts of a polygon and not that of a circle. The exact length of the chain may be determined as discussed below :

Let

T_1 = Number of teeth on the larger sprocket,

T_2 = Number of teeth on the smaller sprocket, and

p = Pitch of the chain.

We have discussed in Art. 11.32, that diameter of the pitch circle,

$$d = p \operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T} \right) \text{ or } r = \frac{p}{2} \operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T} \right)$$

∴ For larger sprocket,

$$r_1 = \frac{p}{2} \operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_1} \right)$$

and for smaller sprocket, $r_2 = \frac{p}{2} \operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_2} \right)$

Since the term $\pi(r_1 + r_2)$ is equal to half the sum of the circumferences of the pitch circles, therefore the length of chain corresponding to

$$\pi(r_1 + r_2) = \frac{p}{2}(T_1 + T_2)$$

Substituting the values of r_1 , r_2 and $\pi(r_1 + r_2)$ in equation (i), the length of chain is given by

$$L = \frac{p}{2}(T_1 + T_2) + 2x + \frac{\left[\frac{p}{2} \operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_1} \right) - \frac{p}{2} \operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_2} \right) \right]^2}{x}$$

If $x = m.p$, then

$$L = p \left[\frac{(T_1 + T_2)}{2} + 2m + \frac{\left[\operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_1} \right) - \operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_2} \right) \right]^2}{4m} \right] = p.K$$

where

K = Multiplying factor

$$= \frac{(T_1 + T_2)}{2} + 2m + \frac{\left[\operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_1} \right) - \operatorname{cosec} \left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_2} \right) \right]^2}{4m}$$

The value of multiplying factor (K) may not be a complete integer. But the length of the chain must be equal to an integer number of times the pitch of the chain. Thus, the value of K should be rounded off to the next higher integral number.

Example 11.23. A chain drive is used for reduction of speed from 240 r.p.m. to 120 r.p.m. The number of teeth on the driving sprocket is 20. Find the number of teeth on the driven sprocket. If the pitch circle diameter of the driven sprocket is 600 mm and centre to centre distance between the two sprockets is 800 mm, determine the pitch and length of the chain.

Solution. Given : $N_1 = 240$ r.p.m ; $N_2 = 120$ r.p.m ; $T_1 = 20$; $d_2 = 600$ mm or $r_2 = 300$ mm = 0.3 m ; $x = 800$ mm = 0.8 m

Number of teeth on the driven sprocket

Let T_2 = Number of teeth on the driven sprocket.

We know that

$$N_1 \cdot T_1 = N_2 \cdot T_2 \quad \text{or} \quad T_2 = \frac{N_1 \cdot T_1}{N_2} = \frac{240 \times 20}{120} = 40 \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Pitch of the chain

Let p = Pitch of the chain.

We know that pitch circle radius of the driven sprocket (r_2),

$$0.3 = \frac{p}{2} \operatorname{cosec}\left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_2}\right) = \frac{p}{2} \operatorname{cosec}\left(\frac{180^\circ}{40}\right) = 6.37 p$$

$$\therefore p = 0.3 / 6.37 = 0.0471 \text{ m} = 47.1 \text{ mm} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Length of the chain

We know that pitch circle radius of the driving sprocket,

$$r_1 = \frac{p}{2} \operatorname{cosec}\left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_1}\right) = \frac{47.1}{2} \operatorname{cosec}\left(\frac{180^\circ}{20}\right) = 150.5 \text{ mm}$$

and

$$x = m \cdot p \quad \text{or} \quad m = x / p = 800 / 47.1 = 16.985$$

We know that multiplying factor,

$$K = \frac{(T_1 + T_2)}{2} + 2m + \frac{\left[\operatorname{cosec}\left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_1}\right) - \operatorname{cosec}\left(\frac{180^\circ}{T_2}\right) \right]^2}{4m}$$

$$= \frac{(20 + 40)}{2} + 2 \times 16.985 + \frac{\left[\operatorname{cosec}\left(\frac{180^\circ}{20}\right) - \operatorname{cosec}\left(\frac{180^\circ}{40}\right) \right]^2}{4 \times 16.985}$$

$$= 30 + 33.97 + \frac{(6.392 - 12.745)^2}{67.94} = 64.56 \text{ say } 65$$

∴ Length of the chain,

$$L = p \cdot K = 47.1 \times 65 = 3061.5 \text{ mm} = 3.0615 \text{ m} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXERCISES

1. An engine shaft running at 120 r.p.m. is required to drive a machine shaft by means of a belt. The pulley on the engine shaft is of 2 m diameter and that of the machine shaft is 1 m diameter. If the belt thickness is 5 mm ; determine the speed of the machine shaft, when 1. there is no slip ; and 2. there is a slip of 3%. [Ans. 239.4 r.p.m. ; 232.3 r.p.m.]
2. Two parallel shafts 6 metres apart are provided with 300 mm and 400 mm diameter pulleys and are connected by means of a cross belt. The direction of rotation of the follower pulley is to be reversed by changing over to an open belt drive. How much length of the belt has to be reduced ? [Ans. 203.6 mm]
3. A pulley is driven by a flat belt running at a speed of 600 m/min. The coefficient of friction between the pulley and the belt is 0.3 and the angle of lap is 160°. If the maximum tension in the belt is 700 N ; find the power transmitted by a belt. [Ans. 3.983 kW]



12

Toothed Gearing

Features

1. Introduction.
2. Friction Wheels.
3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Gear Drive.
4. Classification of Toothed Wheels.
5. Terms Used in Gears.
6. Gear Materials.
7. Law of Gearing.
8. Velocity of Sliding of Teeth.
9. Forms of Teeth.
10. Cycloidal Teeth.
11. Involute Teeth.
12. Effect of Altering the Centre Distance.
13. Comparison Between Involute and Cycloidal Gears.
14. Systems of Gear Teeth.
15. Standard Proportions of Gear Systems.
16. Length of Path of Contact.
17. Length of Arc of Contact.
18. Contact Ratio
19. Interference in Involute Gears.
20. Minimum Number of Teeth on the Pinion.
21. Minimum Number of Teeth on the Wheel.
22. Minimum Number of Teeth on a Pinion for Involute Rack in Order to Avoid Interference.
23. Helical Gears.
24. Spiral Gears.
25. Centre Distance For a Pair of Spiral Gears.
26. Efficiency of Spiral Gears.

12.1. Introduction

We have discussed in the previous chapter, that the slipping of a belt or rope is a common phenomenon, in the transmission of motion or power between two shafts. The effect of slipping is to reduce the velocity ratio of the system. In precision machines, in which a definite velocity ratio is of importance (as in watch mechanism), the only positive drive is by means of **gears** or **toothed wheels**. A gear drive is also provided, when the distance between the driver and the follower is very small.

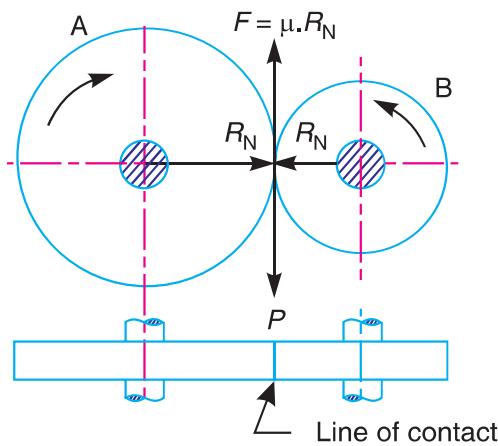
12.2. Friction Wheels

The motion and power transmitted by gears is kinematically equivalent to that transmitted by friction wheels or discs. In order to understand how the motion can be transmitted by two toothed wheels, consider two plain circular wheels *A* and *B* mounted on shafts, having sufficient rough surfaces and pressing against each other as shown in Fig. 12.1 (a).

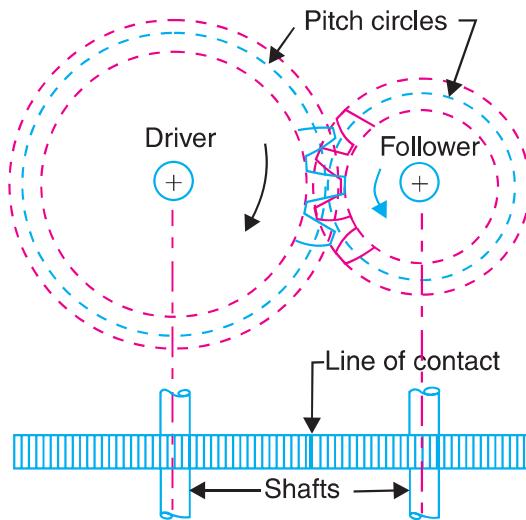


Let the wheel A be keyed to the rotating shaft and the wheel B to the shaft, to be rotated. A little consideration will show, that when the wheel A is rotated by a rotating shaft, it will rotate the wheel B in the opposite direction as shown in Fig. 12.1 (a).

The wheel B will be rotated (by the wheel A) so long as the tangential force exerted by the wheel A does not exceed the maximum frictional resistance between the two wheels. But when the tangential force (P) exceeds the *frictional resistance (F), slipping will take place between the two wheels. Thus the friction drive is not a positive drive.



(a) Friction wheels.



(b) Tooothed wheels.

Fig. 12.1

In order to avoid the slipping, a number of projections (called teeth) as shown in Fig. 12.1 (b), are provided on the periphery of the wheel A, which will fit into the corresponding recesses on the periphery of the wheel B. A friction wheel with the teeth cut on it is known as **toothed wheel or gear**. The usual connection to show the toothed wheels is by their **pitch circles.

Note : Kinematically, the friction wheels running without slip and toothed gearing are identical. But due to the possibility of slipping of wheels, the friction wheels can only be used for transmission of small powers.

12.3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Gear Drive

The following are the advantages and disadvantages of the gear drive as compared to belt, rope and chain drives :

Advantages

1. It transmits exact velocity ratio.
2. It may be used to transmit large power.
3. It has high efficiency.
4. It has reliable service.
5. It has compact layout.

Disadvantages

1. The manufacture of gears require special tools and equipment.
2. The error in cutting teeth may cause vibrations and noise during operation.

* The frictional force F is equal to $\mu \cdot R_N$, where μ = Coefficient of friction between the rubbing surface of two wheels, and R_N = Normal reaction between the two rubbing surfaces.

** For details, please refer to Art. 12.4.

12.4. Classification of Toothed Wheels

The gears or toothed wheels may be classified as follows :

1. According to the position of axes of the shafts. The axes of the two shafts between which the motion is to be transmitted, may be

- (a) Parallel, (b) Intersecting, and (c) Non-intersecting and non-parallel.

The two parallel and co-planar shafts connected by the gears is shown in Fig. 12.1. These gears are called **spur gears** and the arrangement is known as **spur gearing**. These gears have teeth parallel to the axis of the wheel as shown in Fig. 12.1. Another name given to the spur gearing is **helical gearing**, in which the teeth are inclined to the axis. The single and double helical gears connecting parallel shafts are shown in Fig. 12.2 (a) and (b) respectively. The double helical gears are known as **herringbone gears**. A pair of spur gears are kinematically equivalent to a pair of cylindrical discs, keyed to parallel shafts and having a line contact.

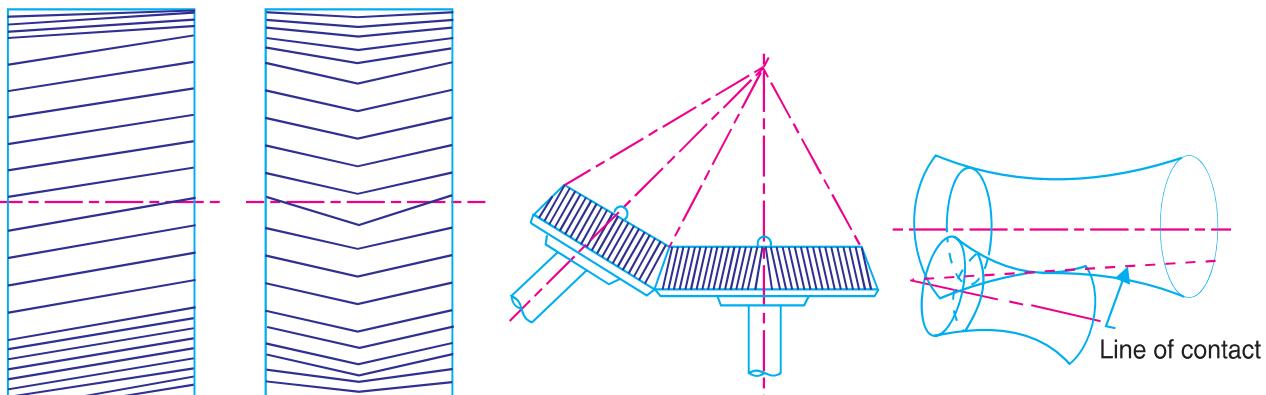
The two non-parallel or intersecting, but coplanar shafts connected by gears is shown in Fig. 12.2 (c). These gears are called **bevel gears** and the arrangement is known as **bevel gearing**. The bevel gears, like spur gears, may also have their teeth inclined to the face of the bevel, in which case they are known as **helical bevel gears**.

The two non-intersecting and non-parallel i.e. non-coplanar shaft connected by gears is shown in Fig. 12.2 (d). These gears are called **skew bevel gears** or **spiral gears** and the arrangement is known as **skew bevel gearing** or **spiral gearing**. This type of gearing also have a line contact, the rotation of which about the axes generates the two pitch surfaces known as **hyperboloids**.

Notes : (a) When equal bevel gears (having equal teeth) connect two shafts whose axes are mutually perpendicular, then the bevel gears are known as **mitres**.

(b) A hyperboloid is the solid formed by revolving a straight line about an axis (not in the same plane), such that every point on the line remains at a constant distance from the axis.

(c) The worm gearing is essentially a form of spiral gearing in which the shafts are usually at right angles.



(a) Single helical gear. (b) Double helical gear.

(c) Bevel gear.

(d) Spiral gear.

Fig. 12.2

2. According to the peripheral velocity of the gears. The gears, according to the peripheral velocity of the gears may be classified as :

- (a) Low velocity, (b) Medium velocity, and (c) High velocity.

The gears having velocity less than 3 m/s are termed as **low velocity** gears and gears having velocity between 3 and 15 m/s are known as **medium velocity gears**. If the velocity of gears is more than 15 m/s, then these are called **high speed gears**.



3. According to the type of gearing. The gears, according to the type of gearing may be classified as :

(a) External gearing, (b) Internal gearing, and (c) Rack and pinion.

In **external gearing**, the gears of the two shafts mesh externally with each other as shown in Fig. 12.3 (a). The larger of these two wheels is called **spur wheel** and the smaller wheel is called **pinion**. In an external gearing, the motion of the two wheels is always **unlike**, as shown in Fig. 12.3 (a).

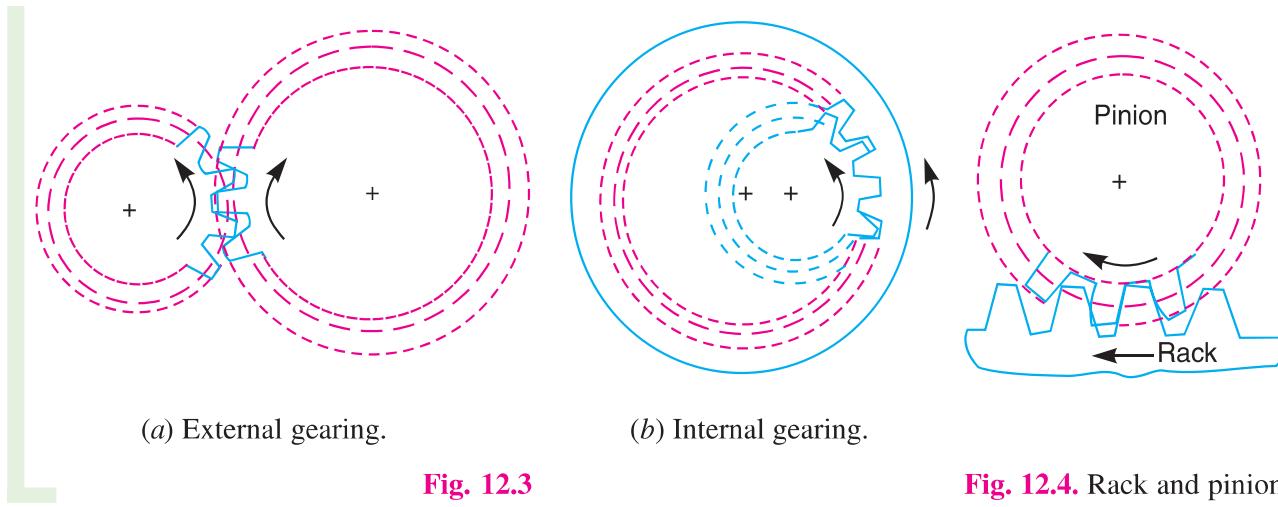


Fig. 12.3

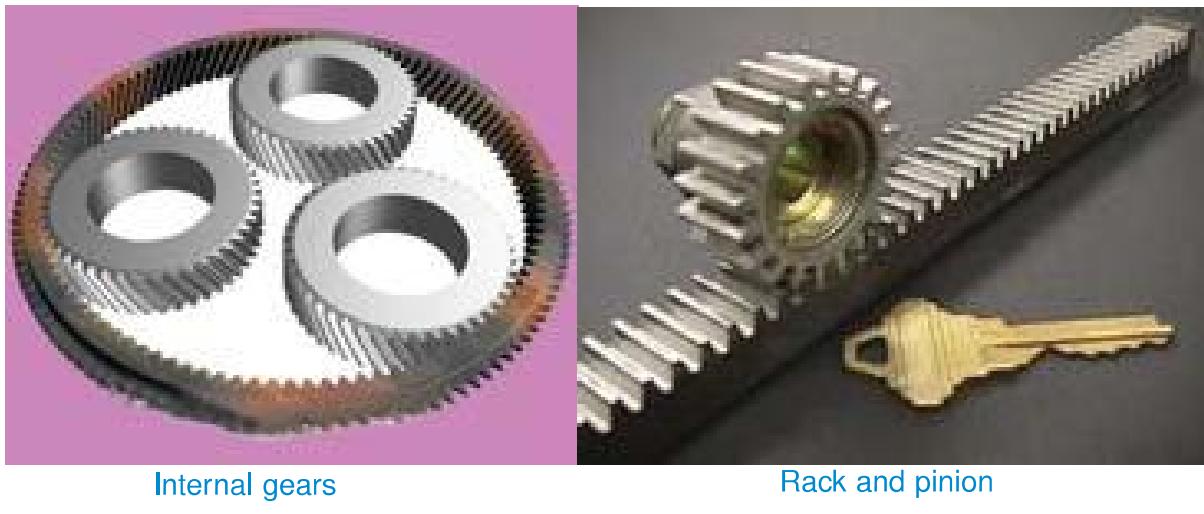
Fig. 12.4. Rack and pinion.

In **internal gearing**, the gears of the two shafts mesh **internally** with each other as shown in Fig. 12.3 (b). The larger of these two wheels is called **annular wheel** and the smaller wheel is called **pinion**. In an internal gearing, the motion of the two wheels is always **like**, as shown in Fig. 12.3 (b).

Sometimes, the gear of a shaft meshes externally and internally with the gears in a *straight line, as shown in Fig. 12.4. Such type of gear is called **rack and pinion**. The straight line gear is called rack and the circular wheel is called pinion. A little consideration will show that with the help of a rack and pinion, we can convert linear motion into rotary motion and **vice-versa** as shown in Fig. 12.4.

- 4. According to position of teeth on the gear surface.** The teeth on the gear surface may be
(a) straight, (b) inclined, and (c) curved.

We have discussed earlier that the spur gears have straight teeth where as helical gears have their teeth inclined to the wheel rim. In case of spiral gears, the teeth are curved over the rim surface.



12.5. Terms Used in Gears

The following terms, which will be mostly used in this chapter, should be clearly understood at this stage. These terms are illustrated in Fig. 12.5.

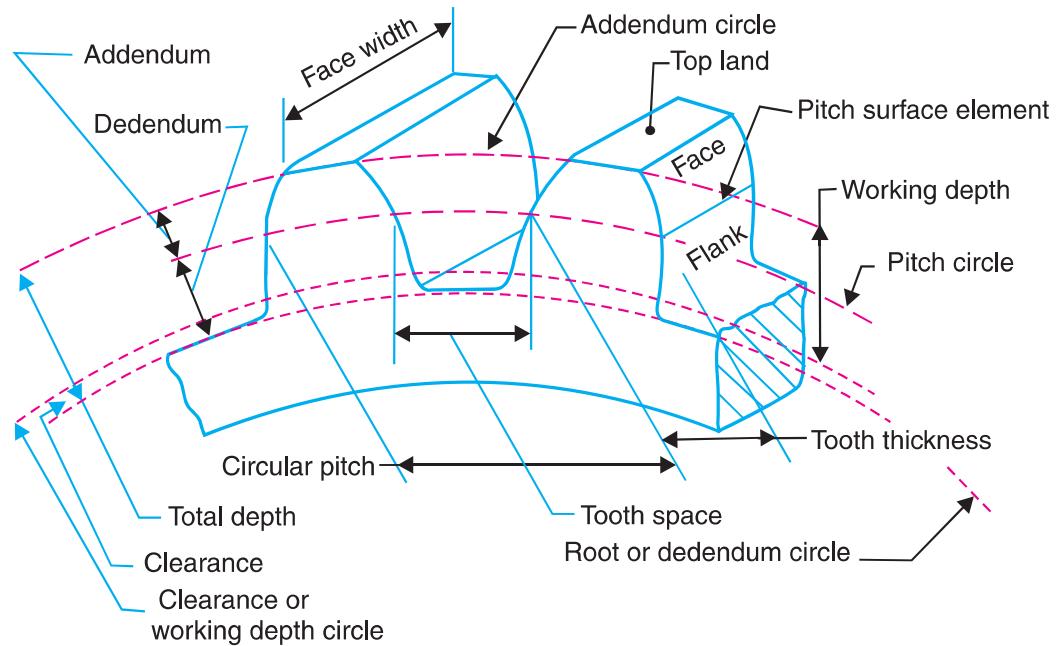


Fig. 12.5. Terms used in gears.

- 1. Pitch circle.** It is an imaginary circle which by pure rolling action, would give the same motion as the actual gear.

* A straight line may also be defined as a wheel of infinite radius.

2. Pitch circle diameter. It is the diameter of the pitch circle. The size of the gear is usually specified by the pitch circle diameter. It is also known as **pitch diameter**.

3. Pitch point. It is a common point of contact between two pitch circles.

4. Pitch surface. It is the surface of the rolling discs which the meshing gears have replaced at the pitch circle.

5. Pressure angle or angle of obliquity. It is the angle between the common normal to two gear teeth at the point of contact and the common tangent at the pitch point. It is usually denoted by ϕ . The standard pressure angles are $14\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ and 20° .

6. Addendum. It is the radial distance of a tooth from the pitch circle to the top of the tooth.

7. Dedendum. It is the radial distance of a tooth from the pitch circle to the bottom of the tooth.

8. Addendum circle. It is the circle drawn through the top of the teeth and is concentric with the pitch circle.

9. Dedendum circle. It is the circle drawn through the bottom of the teeth. It is also called root circle.

Note : Root circle diameter = Pitch circle diameter $\times \cos \phi$, where ϕ is the pressure angle.

10. Circular pitch. It is the distance measured on the circumference of the pitch circle from a point of one tooth to the corresponding point on the next tooth. It is usually denoted by p_c . Mathematically,

$$\text{Circular pitch, } p_c = \pi D/T$$

where

D = Diameter of the pitch circle, and

T = Number of teeth on the wheel.

A little consideration will show that the two gears will mesh together correctly, if the two wheels have the same circular pitch.

Note : If D_1 and D_2 are the diameters of the two meshing gears having the teeth T_1 and T_2 respectively, then for them to mesh correctly,

$$p_c = \frac{\pi D_1}{T_1} = \frac{\pi D_2}{T_2} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{D_1}{D_2} = \frac{T_1}{T_2}$$

11. Diametral pitch. It is the ratio of number of teeth to the pitch circle diameter in millimetres. It is denoted by p_d . Mathematically,

$$\text{Diametral pitch, } p_d = \frac{T}{D} = \frac{\pi}{p_c} \quad \dots \left(\because p_c = \frac{\pi D}{T} \right)$$

where

T = Number of teeth, and

D = Pitch circle diameter.

12. Module. It is the ratio of the pitch circle diameter in millimeters to the number of teeth. It is usually denoted by m . Mathematically,

$$\text{Module, } m = D/T$$

Note : The recommended series of modules in Indian Standard are 1, 1.25, 1.5, 2, 2.5, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 16, and 20. The modules 1.125, 1.375, 1.75, 2.25, 2.75, 3.5, 4.5, 5.5, 7, 9, 11, 14 and 18 are of second choice.

13. Clearance. It is the radial distance from the top of the tooth to the bottom of the tooth, in a meshing gear. A circle passing through the top of the meshing gear is known as **clearance circle**.

14. Total depth. It is the radial distance between the addendum and the dedendum circles of a gear. It is equal to the sum of the addendum and dedendum.

15. Working depth. It is the radial distance from the addendum circle to the clearance circle. It is equal to the sum of the addendum of the two meshing gears.

16. Tooth thickness. It is the width of the tooth measured along the pitch circle.

17. Tooth space. It is the width of space between the two adjacent teeth measured along the pitch circle.

18. Backlash. It is the difference between the tooth space and the tooth thickness, as measured along the pitch circle. Theoretically, the backlash should be zero, but in actual practice some backlash must be allowed to prevent jamming of the teeth due to tooth errors and thermal expansion.

19. Face of tooth. It is the surface of the gear tooth above the pitch surface.

20. Flank of tooth. It is the surface of the gear tooth below the pitch surface.

21. Top land. It is the surface of the top of the tooth.

22. Face width. It is the width of the gear tooth measured parallel to its axis.

23. Profile. It is the curve formed by the face and flank of the tooth.

24. Fillet radius. It is the radius that connects the root circle to the profile of the tooth.

25. Path of contact. It is the path traced by the point of contact of two teeth from the beginning to the end of engagement.

26. *Length of the path of contact. It is the length of the common normal cut-off by the addendum circles of the wheel and pinion.

27. **Arc of contact. It is the path traced by a point on the pitch circle from the beginning to the end of engagement of a given pair of teeth. The arc of contact consists of two parts, i.e.

(a) **Arc of approach.** It is the portion of the path of contact from the beginning of the engagement to the pitch point.

(b) **Arc of recess.** It is the portion of the path of contact from the pitch point to the end of the engagement of a pair of teeth.

Note : The ratio of the length of arc of contact to the circular pitch is known as **contact ratio** i.e. number of pairs of teeth in contact.

12.6. Gear Materials

The material used for the manufacture of gears depends upon the strength and service conditions like wear, noise etc. The gears may be manufactured from metallic or non-metallic materials. The metallic gears with cut teeth are commercially obtainable in cast iron, steel and bronze. The non-metallic materials like wood, raw hide, compressed paper and synthetic resins like nylon are used for gears, especially for reducing noise.

The cast iron is widely used for the manufacture of gears due to its good wearing properties, excellent machinability and ease of producing complicated shapes by casting method. The cast iron gears with cut teeth may be employed, where smooth action is not important.

The steel is used for high strength gears and steel may be plain carbon steel or alloy steel. The steel gears are usually heat treated in order to combine properly the toughness and tooth hardness.

The phosphor bronze is widely used for worm gears in order to reduce wear of the worms which will be excessive with cast iron or steel.

12.7. Condition for Constant Velocity Ratio of Toothed Wheels—Law of Gearing

Consider the portions of the two teeth, one on the wheel 1 (or pinion) and the other on the

* For details, see Art. 12.16.

** For details, see Art. 12.17.



13

Features

1. Introduction.
2. Types of Gear Trains.
3. Simple Gear Train.
4. Compound Gear Train.
5. Design of Spur Gears.
6. Reverted Gear Train.
7. Epicyclic Gear Train.
8. Velocity Ratio of Epicyclic Gear Train.
9. Compound Epicyclic Gear Train (Sun and Planet Wheel).
10. Epicyclic Gear Train With Bevel Gears.
11. Torques in Epicyclic Gear Trains.

Gear Trains

13.1. Introduction

Sometimes, two or more gears are made to mesh with each other to transmit power from one shaft to another. Such a combination is called **gear train** or **train of toothed wheels**. The nature of the train used depends upon the velocity ratio required and the relative position of the axes of shafts. A gear train may consist of spur, bevel or spiral gears.

13.2. Types of Gear Trains

Following are the different types of gear trains, depending upon the arrangement of wheels :

1. Simple gear train, 2. Compound gear train, 3. Reverted gear train, and 4. Epicyclic gear train.

In the first three types of gear trains, the axes of the shafts over which the gears are mounted are fixed relative to each other. But in case of epicyclic gear trains, the axes of the shafts on which the gears are mounted may move relative to a fixed axis.

13.3. Simple Gear Train

When there is only one gear on each shaft, as shown in Fig. 13.1, it is known as **simple gear train**. The gears are represented by their pitch circles.

When the distance between the two shafts is small, the two gears 1 and 2 are made to mesh with each other to

transmit motion from one shaft to the other, as shown in Fig. 13.1 (a). Since the gear 1 drives the gear 2, therefore gear 1 is called the **driver** and the gear 2 is called the **driven or follower**. It may be noted that the motion of the driven gear is opposite to the motion of driving gear.

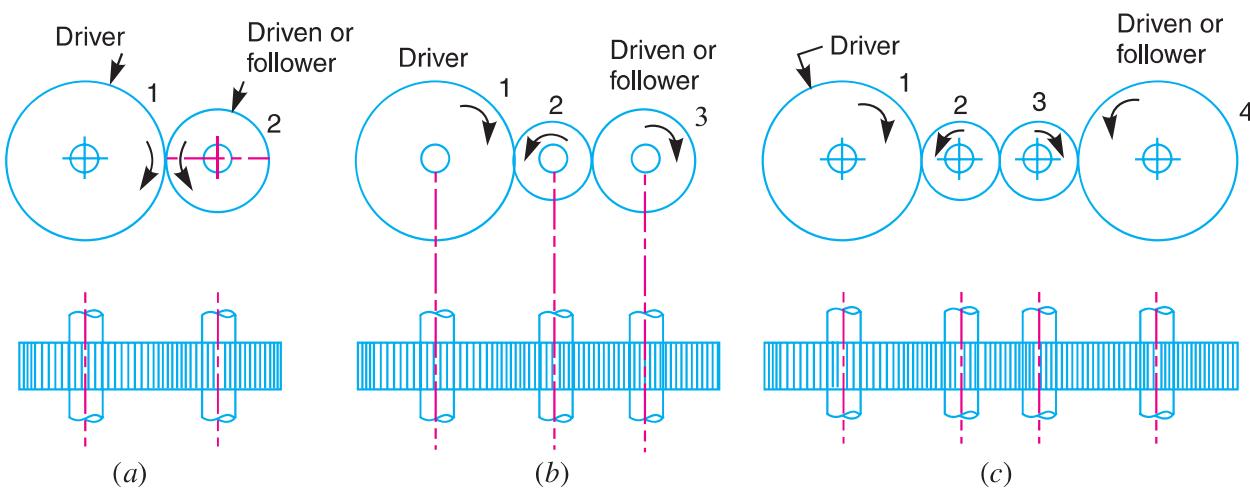


Fig. 13.1. Simple gear train.

Let

N_1 = Speed of gear 1(or driver) in r.p.m.,

N_2 = Speed of gear 2 (or driven or follower) in r.p.m.,

T_1 = Number of teeth on gear 1, and

T_2 = Number of teeth on gear 2.

Since the speed ratio (or velocity ratio) of gear train is the ratio of the speed of the driver to the speed of the driven or follower and ratio of speeds of any pair of gears in mesh is the inverse of their number of teeth, therefore

$$\text{Speed ratio} = \frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{T_2}{T_1}$$

It may be noted that ratio of the speed of the driven or follower to the speed of the driver is known as **train value** of the gear train. Mathematically,

$$\text{Train value} = \frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{T_1}{T_2}$$

From above, we see that the train value is the reciprocal of speed ratio.

Sometimes, the distance between the two gears is large. The motion from one gear to another, in such a case, may be transmitted by either of the following two methods :

1. By providing the large sized gear, or 2. By providing one or more intermediate gears.

A little consideration will show that the former method (*i.e.* providing large sized gears) is very inconvenient and uneconomical method ; whereas the latter method (*i.e.* providing one or more intermediate gear) is very convenient and economical.

It may be noted that when the number of intermediate gears are **odd**, the motion of both the gears (*i.e.* driver and driven or follower) is **like** as shown in Fig. 13.1 (b).

But if the number of intermediate gears are **even**, the motion of the driven or follower will be in the opposite direction of the driver as shown in Fig. 13.1 (c).

Now consider a simple train of gears with one intermediate gear as shown in Fig. 13.1 (b).

Let

N_1 = Speed of driver in r.p.m.,

N_2 = Speed of intermediate gear in r.p.m.,

N_3 = Speed of driven or follower in r.p.m.,

T_1 = Number of teeth on driver,

T_2 = Number of teeth on intermediate gear, and

T_3 = Number of teeth on driven or follower.

Since the driving gear 1 is in mesh with the intermediate gear 2, therefore speed ratio for these two gears is

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{T_2}{T_1} \quad \dots(i)$$

Similarly, as the intermediate gear 2 is in mesh with the driven gear 3, therefore speed ratio for these two gears is

$$\frac{N_2}{N_3} = \frac{T_3}{T_2} \quad \dots(ii)$$

The speed ratio of the gear train as shown in Fig. 13.1 (b) is obtained by multiplying the equations (i) and (ii).

$$\therefore \frac{N_1}{N_2} \times \frac{N_2}{N_3} = \frac{T_2}{T_1} \times \frac{T_3}{T_2} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{N_1}{N_3} = \frac{T_3}{T_1}$$

i.e.

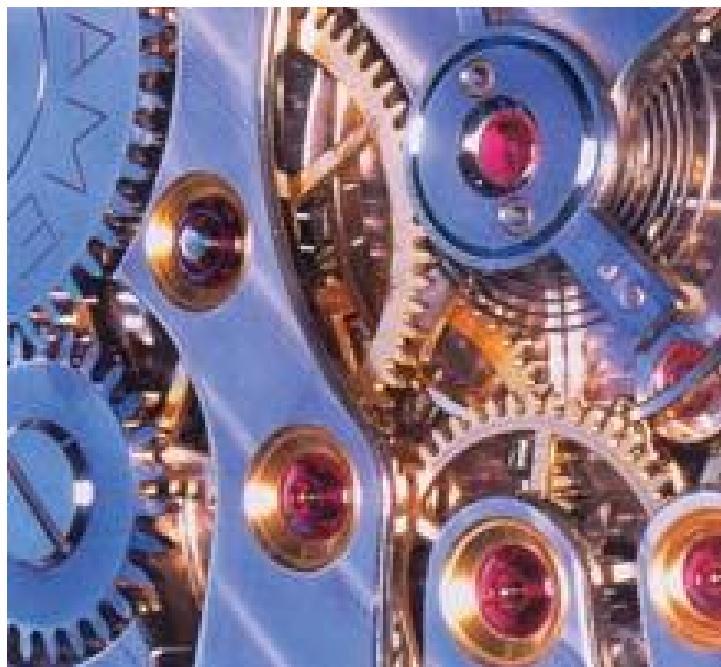
$$\text{Speed ratio} = \frac{\text{Speed of driver}}{\text{Speed of driven}} = \frac{\text{No. of teeth on driven}}{\text{No. of teeth on driver}}$$

and

$$\text{Train value} = \frac{\text{Speed of driven}}{\text{Speed of driver}} = \frac{\text{No. of teeth on driver}}{\text{No. of teeth on driven}}$$

Similarly, it can be proved that the above equation holds good even if there are any number of intermediate gears. From above, we see that the speed ratio and the train value, in a simple train of gears, is independent of the size and number of intermediate gears. These intermediate gears are called **idle gears**, as they do not effect the speed ratio or train value of the system. The idle gears are used for the following two purposes :

1. To connect gears where a large centre distance is required, and
2. To obtain the desired direction of motion of the driven gear (*i.e.* clockwise or anticlockwise).



Gear trains inside a mechanical watch

13.4. Compound Gear Train

When there are more than one gear on a shaft, as shown in Fig. 13.2, it is called a **compound train of gear**.

We have seen in Art. 13.3 that the idle gears, in a simple train of gears do not effect the speed ratio of the system. But these gears are useful in bridging over the space between the driver and the driven.

But whenever the distance between the driver and the driven or follower has to be bridged over by intermediate gears and at the same time a great (or much less) speed ratio is required, then the advantage of intermediate gears is intensified by providing compound gears on intermediate shafts. In this case, each intermediate shaft has two gears rigidly fixed to it so that they may have the same speed. One of these two gears meshes with the driver and the other with the driven or follower attached to the next shaft as shown in Fig.13.2.

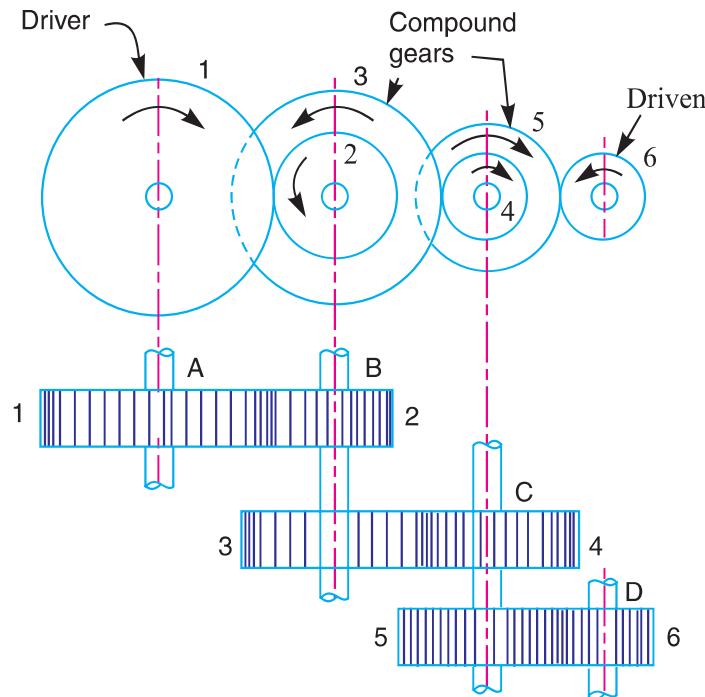


Fig. 13.2. Compound gear train.

In a compound train of gears, as shown in Fig. 13.2, the gear 1 is the driving gear mounted on shaft A, gears 2 and 3 are compound gears which are mounted on shaft B. The gears 4 and 5 are also compound gears which are mounted on shaft C and the gear 6 is the driven gear mounted on shaft D.

Let

$$N_1 = \text{Speed of driving gear 1,}$$

$$T_1 = \text{Number of teeth on driving gear 1,}$$

$$N_2, N_3, \dots, N_6 = \text{Speed of respective gears in r.p.m., and}$$

$$T_2, T_3, \dots, T_6 = \text{Number of teeth on respective gears.}$$

Since gear 1 is in mesh with gear 2, therefore its speed ratio is

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{T_2}{T_1} \quad \dots(i)$$

Similarly, for gears 3 and 4, speed ratio is

$$\frac{N_3}{N_4} = \frac{T_4}{T_3} \quad \dots(ii)$$

and for gears 5 and 6, speed ratio is

$$\frac{N_5}{N_6} = \frac{T_6}{T_5} \quad \dots(iii)$$

The speed ratio of compound gear train is obtained by multiplying the equations (i), (ii) and (iii),

$$\therefore \frac{N_1}{N_2} \times \frac{N_3}{N_4} \times \frac{N_5}{N_6} = \frac{T_2}{T_1} \times \frac{T_4}{T_3} \times \frac{T_6}{T_5} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{N_1}{N_6} = \frac{T_2 \times T_4 \times T_6}{T_1 \times T_3 \times T_5}$$

* Since gears 2 and 3 are mounted on one shaft B, therefore $N_2 = N_3$. Similarly gears 4 and 5 are mounted on shaft C, therefore $N_4 = N_5$.

i.e.

$$\text{Speed ratio} = \frac{\text{Speed of the first driver}}{\text{Speed of the last driven or follower}}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Product of the number of teeth on the drivens}}{\text{Product of the number of teeth on the drivers}}$$

and

$$\text{Train value} = \frac{\text{Speed of the last driven or follower}}{\text{Speed of the first driver}}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Product of the number of teeth on the drivers}}{\text{Product of the number of teeth on the drivens}}$$

The advantage of a compound train over a simple gear train is that a much larger speed reduction from the first shaft to the last shaft can be obtained with small gears. If a simple gear train is used to give a large speed reduction, the last gear has to be very large. Usually for a speed reduction in excess of 7 to 1, a simple train is not used and a compound train or worm gearing is employed.

Note: The gears which mesh must have the same circular pitch or module. Thus gears 1 and 2 must have the same module as they mesh together. Similarly gears 3 and 4, and gears 5 and 6 must have the same module.

Example 13.1. The gearing of a machine tool is shown in Fig. 13.3. The motor shaft is connected to gear A and rotates at 975 r.p.m. The gear wheels B, C, D and E are fixed to parallel shafts rotating together. The final gear F is fixed on the output shaft. What is the speed of gear F ? The number of teeth on each gear are as given below :

Gear	A	B	C	D	E	F
No. of teeth	20	50	25	75	26	65

Solution. Given : $N_A = 975$ r.p.m. ;
 $T_A = 20$; $T_B = 50$; $T_C = 25$; $T_D = 75$; $T_E = 26$;
 $T_F = 65$

From Fig. 13.3, we see that gears A, C and E are drivers while the gears B, D and F are driven or followers. Let the gear A rotates in clockwise direction. Since the gears B and C are mounted on the same shaft, therefore it is a compound gear and the direction of rotation of both these gears is same (i.e. anticlockwise). Similarly, the gears D and E are mounted on the same shaft, therefore it is also a compound gear and the direction of rotation of both these gears is same (i.e. clockwise). The gear F will rotate in anticlockwise direction.

Let

 N_F = Speed of gear F, i.e. last driven or follower.

We know that

$$\frac{\text{Speed of the first driver}}{\text{Speed of the last driven}} = \frac{\text{Product of no. of teeth on drivens}}{\text{Product of no. of teeth on drivers}}$$

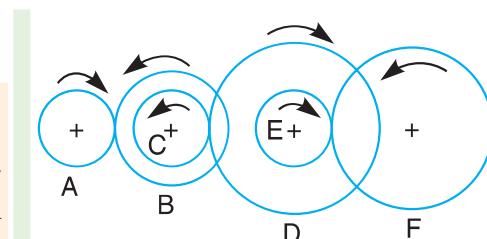


Fig. 13.3



Battery Car: Even though it is run by batteries, the power transmission, gears, clutches, brakes, etc. remain mechanical in nature.

Note : This picture is given as additional information and is not a direct example of the current chapter.

or

$$\frac{N_A}{N_F} = \frac{T_B \times T_D \times T_F}{T_A \times T_C \times T_E} = \frac{50 \times 75 \times 65}{20 \times 25 \times 26} = 18.75$$

$$\therefore N_F = \frac{N_A}{18.75} = \frac{975}{18.75} = 52 \text{ r. p. m. Ans.}$$

13.5. Design of Spur Gears

Sometimes, the spur gears (*i.e.* driver and driven) are to be designed for the given velocity ratio and distance between the centres of their shafts.

Let

 x = Distance between the centres of two shafts, N_1 = Speed of the driver, T_1 = Number of teeth on the driver, d_1 = Pitch circle diameter of the driver, N_2, T_2 and d_2 = Corresponding values for the driven or follower, and p_c = Circular pitch.

We know that the distance between the centres of two shafts,

$$x = \frac{d_1 + d_2}{2} \quad \dots(i)$$

and speed ratio or velocity ratio,

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{d_2}{d_1} = \frac{T_2}{T_1} \quad \dots(ii)$$

From the above equations, we can conveniently find out the values of d_1 and d_2 (or T_1 and T_2) and the circular pitch (p_c). The values of T_1 and T_2 , as obtained above, may or may not be whole numbers. But in a gear since the number of its teeth is always a whole number, therefore a slight alterations must be made in the values of x, d_1 and d_2 , so that the number of teeth in the two gears may be a complete number.

Example 13.2. Two parallel shafts, about 600 mm apart are to be connected by spur gears. One shaft is to run at 360 r.p.m. and the other at 120 r.p.m. Design the gears, if the circular pitch is to be 25 mm.

Solution. Given : $x = 600 \text{ mm}$; $N_1 = 360 \text{ r.p.m.}$; $N_2 = 120 \text{ r.p.m.}$; $p_c = 25 \text{ mm}$

Let

 d_1 = Pitch circle diameter of the first gear, and d_2 = Pitch circle diameter of the second gear.

We know that speed ratio,

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{d_2}{d_1} = \frac{360}{120} = 3 \quad \text{or} \quad d_2 = 3d_1 \quad \dots(i)$$

and centre distance between the shafts (x),

$$600 = \frac{1}{2} (d_1 + d_2) \quad \text{or} \quad d_1 + d_2 = 1200 \quad \dots(ii)$$

From equations (i) and (ii), we find that

$$d_1 = 300 \text{ mm, and } d_2 = 900 \text{ mm}$$

\therefore Number of teeth on the first gear,

$$T_1 = \frac{\pi d_2}{p_c} = \frac{\pi \times 300}{25} = 37.7$$

and number of teeth on the second gear,

$$T_2 = \frac{\pi d_2}{p_c} = \frac{\pi \times 900}{25} = 113.1$$

Since the number of teeth on both the gears are to be in complete numbers, therefore let us make the number of teeth on the first gear as 38. Therefore for a speed ratio of 3, the number of teeth on the second gear should be $38 \times 3 = 114$.

Now the exact pitch circle diameter of the first gear,

$$d_1' = \frac{T_1 \times p_c}{\pi} = \frac{38 \times 25}{\pi} = 302.36 \text{ mm}$$

and the exact pitch circle diameter of the second gear,

$$d_2' = \frac{T_2 \times p_c}{\pi} = \frac{114 \times 25}{\pi} = 907.1 \text{ mm}$$

∴ Exact distance between the two shafts,

$$x' = \frac{d_1' + d_2'}{2} = \frac{302.36 + 907.1}{2} = 604.73 \text{ mm}$$

Hence the number of teeth on the first and second gear must be 38 and 114 and their pitch circle diameters must be 302.36 mm and 907.1 mm respectively. The exact distance between the two shafts must be 604.73 mm. **Ans.**

13.6. Reverted Gear Train

When the axes of the first gear (*i.e.* first driver) and the last gear (*i.e.* last driven or follower) are co-axial, then the gear train is known as **reverted gear train** as shown in Fig. 13.4.

We see that gear 1 (*i.e.* first driver) drives the gear 2 (*i.e.* first driven or follower) in the opposite direction. Since the gears 2 and 3 are mounted on the same shaft, therefore they form a compound gear and the gear 3 will rotate in the same direction as that of gear 2. The gear 3 (which is now the second driver) drives the gear 4 (*i.e.* the last driven or follower) in the same direction as that of gear 1. Thus we see that in a reverted gear train, the motion of the first gear and the last gear is **like**.

Let

T_1 = Number of teeth on gear 1,

r_1 = Pitch circle radius of gear 1, and

N_1 = Speed of gear 1 in r.p.m.

Similarly,

T_2, T_3, T_4 = Number of teeth on respective gears,

r_2, r_3, r_4 = Pitch circle radii of respective gears, and

N_2, N_3, N_4 = Speed of respective gears in r.p.m.

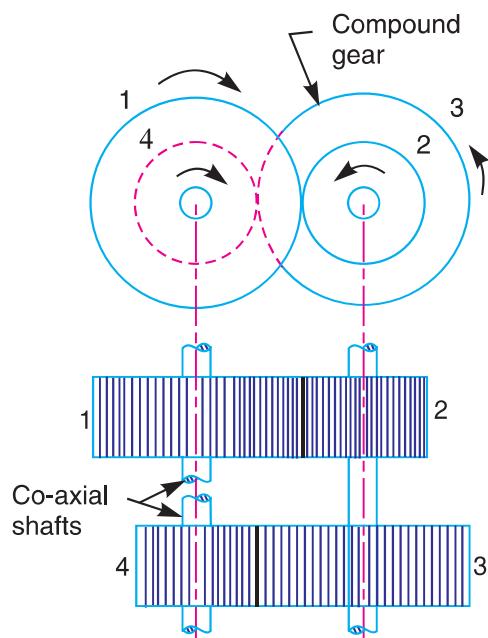


Fig. 13.4. Reverted gear train.

Since the distance between the centres of the shafts of gears 1 and 2 as well as gears 3 and 4 is same, therefore

$$r_1 + r_2 = r_3 + r_4 \quad \dots(i)$$

Also, the circular pitch or module of all the gears is assumed to be same, therefore number of teeth on each gear is directly proportional to its circumference or radius.

$$\therefore *T_1 + T_2 = T_3 + T_4 \quad \dots(ii)$$

and

$$\text{Speed ratio} = \frac{\text{Product of number of teeth on drivers}}{\text{Product of number of teeth on driven}}$$

or

$$\frac{N_1}{N_4} = \frac{T_2 \times T_4}{T_1 \times T_3} \quad \dots(iii)$$

From equations (i), (ii) and (iii), we can determine the number of teeth on each gear for the given centre distance, speed ratio and module only when the number of teeth on one gear is chosen arbitrarily.

The reverted gear trains are used in automotive transmissions, lathe back gears, industrial speed reducers, and in clocks (where the minute and hour hand shafts are co-axial).

Example 13.3. The speed ratio of the reverted gear train, as shown in Fig. 13.5, is to be 12. The module pitch of gears A and B is 3.125 mm and of gears C and D is 2.5 mm. Calculate the suitable numbers of teeth for the gears. No gear is to have less than 24 teeth.

Solution. Given : Speed ratio, $N_A/N_D = 12$; $m_A = m_B = 3.125 \text{ mm}$; $m_C = m_D = 2.5 \text{ mm}$

Let N_A = Speed of gear A,

T_A = Number of teeth on gear A,

r_A = Pitch circle radius of gear A ,

N_B, N_C, N_D = Speed of respective gears,

T_B, T_C, T_D = Number of teeth on respective gears, and

r_B, r_C, r_D = Pitch circle radii of respective gears.

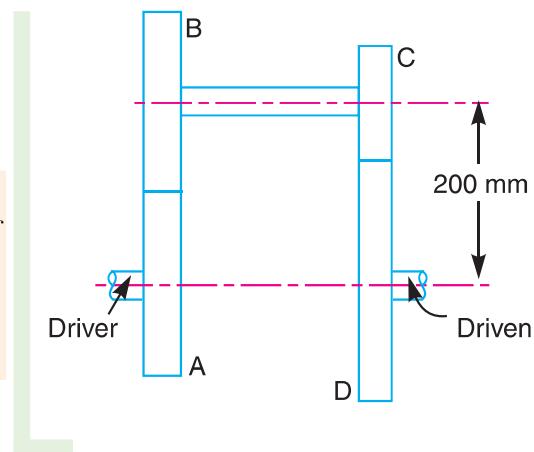


Fig. 13.5

* We know that circular pitch,

$$p_c = \frac{2\pi r}{T} = \pi m \quad \text{or} \quad r = \frac{mT}{2}, \text{ where } m \text{ is the module.}$$

$$\therefore r_1 = \frac{mT_1}{2}; r_2 = \frac{mT_2}{2}; r_3 = \frac{mT_3}{2}; r_4 = \frac{mT_4}{2}$$

Now from equation (i),

$$\frac{mT_1}{2} + \frac{mT_2}{2} = \frac{mT_3}{2} + \frac{mT_4}{2}$$

$$T_1 + T_2 = T_3 + T_4$$

Since the speed ratio between the gears A and B and between the gears C and D are to be same, therefore

$$^* \frac{N_A}{N_B} = \frac{N_C}{N_D} = \sqrt{12} = 3.464$$

Also the speed ratio of any pair of gears in mesh is the inverse of their number of teeth, therefore

$$\frac{T_B}{T_A} = \frac{T_D}{T_C} = 3.464 \quad \dots(i)$$

We know that the distance between the shafts

$$x = r_A + r_B = r_C + r_D = 200 \text{ mm}$$

or $\frac{m_A \cdot T_A}{2} + \frac{m_B \cdot T_B}{2} = \frac{m_C \cdot T_C}{2} + \frac{m_D \cdot T_D}{2} = 200 \quad \dots \left(\because r = \frac{m \cdot T}{2} \right)$

$$3.125(T_A + T_B) = 2.5(T_C + T_D) = 400 \quad \dots (\because m_A = m_B, \text{ and } m_C = m_D)$$

$$\therefore T_A + T_B = 400 / 3.125 = 128 \quad \dots(ii)$$

and $T_C + T_D = 400 / 2.5 = 160 \quad \dots(iii)$

From equation (i), $T_B = 3.464 T_A$. Substituting this value of T_B in equation (ii),

$$T_A + 3.464 T_A = 128 \quad \text{or} \quad T_A = 128 / 4.464 = 28.67 \text{ say } 28 \text{ Ans.}$$

and $T_B = 128 - 28 = 100 \text{ Ans.}$

Again from equation (i), $T_D = 3.464 T_C$. Substituting this value of T_D in equation (iii),

$$T_C + 3.464 T_C = 160 \quad \text{or} \quad T_C = 160 / 4.464 = 35.84 \text{ say } 36 \text{ Ans.}$$

and $T_D = 160 - 36 = 124 \text{ Ans.}$

Note : The speed ratio of the reverted gear train with the calculated values of number of teeth on each gear is

$$\frac{N_A}{N_D} = \frac{T_B \times T_D}{T_A \times T_C} = \frac{100 \times 124}{28 \times 36} = 12.3$$

13.7. Epicyclic Gear Train

We have already discussed that in an epicyclic gear train, the axes of the shafts, over which the gears are mounted, may move relative to a fixed axis. A simple epicyclic gear train is shown in Fig. 13.6, where a gear A and the arm C have a common axis at O_1 about which they can rotate. The gear B meshes with gear A and has its axis on the arm at O_2 , about which the gear B can rotate. If the

* We know that speed ratio $= \frac{\text{Speed of first driver}}{\text{Speed of last driven}} = \frac{N_A}{N_D} = 12$

Also $\frac{N_A}{N_D} = \frac{N_A}{N_B} \times \frac{N_C}{N_D} \quad \dots (N_B = N_C, \text{ being on the same shaft})$

For $\frac{N_A}{N_B}$ and $\frac{N_C}{N_D}$ to be same, each speed ratio should be $\sqrt{12}$ so that

$$\frac{N_A}{N_D} = \frac{N_A}{N_B} \times \frac{N_C}{N_D} = \sqrt{12} \times \sqrt{12} = 12$$

arm is fixed, the gear train is simple and gear A can drive gear B or *vice-versa*, but if gear A is fixed and the arm is rotated about the axis of gear A (i.e. O_1), then the gear B is forced to rotate *upon* and *around* gear A. Such a motion is called **epicyclic** and the gear trains arranged in such a manner that one or more of their members move upon and around another member are known as **epicyclic gear trains** (*epi.* means upon and *cyclic* means around). The epicyclic gear trains may be **simple** or **compound**.

The epicyclic gear trains are useful for transmitting high velocity ratios with gears of moderate size in a comparatively lesser space. The epicyclic gear trains are used in the back gear of lathe, differential gears of the automobiles, hoists, pulley blocks, wrist watches etc.

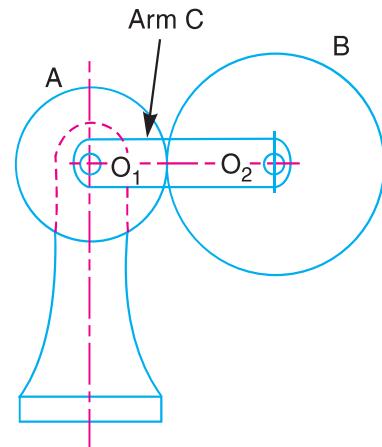


Fig. 13.6. Epicyclic gear train.

13.8. Velocity Ratioz of Epicyclic Gear Train

The following two methods may be used for finding out the velocity ratio of an epicyclic gear train.

1. Tabular method, and 2. Algebraic method.

These methods are discussed, in detail, as follows :

1. **Tabular method.** Consider an epicyclic gear train as shown in Fig. 13.6.

Let

T_A = Number of teeth on gear A , and

T_B = Number of teeth on gear B .

First of all, let us suppose that the arm is fixed. Therefore the axes of both the gears are also fixed relative to each other. When the gear A makes one revolution anticlockwise, the gear B will make $*T_A / T_B$ revolutions, clockwise. Assuming the anticlockwise rotation as positive and clockwise as negative, we may say that when gear A makes + 1 revolution, then the gear B will make $(-T_A / T_B)$ revolutions. This statement of relative motion is entered in the first row of the table (see Table 13.1).

Secondly, if the gear A makes $+x$ revolutions, then the gear B will make $-x \times T_A / T_B$ revolutions. This statement is entered in the second row of the table. In other words, multiply the each motion (entered in the first row) by x .

Thirdly, each element of an epicyclic train is given $+y$ revolutions and entered in the third row. Finally, the motion of each element of the gear train is added up and entered in the fourth row.



Inside view of a car engine.

Note : This picture is given as additional information and is not a direct example of the current chapter.

* We know that $N_B / N_A = T_A / T_B$. Since $N_A = 1$ revolution, therefore $N_B = T_A / T_B$.