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MECHANICS OF MACHINES

Part I. Structure of Mechanisms

Study Guide

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Затверджено вченою радою Національного технічного університету «Дніпровська політехніка» як навчальний посібник для здобувачів вищої освіти в галузі знань 14 Електрична інженерія, спеціальності 141 Електроенергетика, електротехніка та електромеханіка (протокол № 4 від 27.04.2020).

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The content of the study-guide corresponds to the educational and professional program of higher education applicants in the field of knowledge 14 Electrical engineering of specialty 141 Electricity, electrical engineering and electromechanics, in particular – the discipline «Mechanics of machines». Structural analysis of mechanisms is considered. Examples of solving practical problems are given and tasks for self-study work are formulated.

Зміст навчального посібника відповідає освітньо-професійній програмі здобувачів вищої освіти галузі знань 14 Електрична інженерія, спеціальності 141 Електроенергетика, електротехніка та електромеханіка, зокрема дисципліни «Механіка машин». Розглянуто питання структурного аналізу механізмів. Наведено приклади розв'язування практичних задач і сформульовано завдання для самостійної роботи.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Study Object

Rationale:

Mechanics of Machines is a core Technology subject in Mechanical Engineering Discipline. Mechanical Engineering Diploma Holders often come across various machines in practice. He should be able to analyze, identify and interpret various mechanisms and machines in day-to-day life. In maintaining various machines, a diploma technician should have sound knowledge of fundamentals of machine and mechanism. It will be helpful to technician to understand the mechanisms from operational point of view in better way. This subject imparts the facts, concepts, principles, procedure, kinematics and dynamics involved in different machine elements and mechanisms like lever, gear, cam, follower, belt, flywheel, brake, clutch, etc.

Objectives:

1. To study Mechanics of machines, principles and also its related application areas.
2. To familiarize with various types of mechanisms and their motion.
3. To develop problem solving capabilities in the topics of velocity and acceleration.
4. To study structure, kinematics and dynamics of simple machine elements and devices.
5. To provide an understanding and appreciation of the variety of mechanisms employed in modern complex machines, such as automobiles, machine tools etc.

Student will be able to:

1. Know different machine elements and mechanisms and their purpose.
2. Determine degrees of freedom for a link and kinematic pair, describe kinematic pair and determine motion, distinguish and categories different type of links.
3. Know inversions of different kinematic chains.
4. Understand Kinematics and Dynamics of different machines and mechanisms.
5. Select Suitable Drives and Mechanisms for a particular application.
6. Appreciate concept of balancing.
7. Develop ability to come up with innovative ideas.
8. Understand the direct relevance of problems discussed in engineering practice.

1.2. Evolution of Theory of Mechanisms and Machines

The names of TMM (Theory of Mechanisms and Machines), are related to fields of Mechanical Engineering concerning with Mechanisms in broad sense. TMM is often misunderstood even in the engineering community, although it is recognized as the specific discipline of Mechanical Engineering related with mechanisms and machines. The meaning of TMM can be clarified by looking at the meaning of the topic over time through few definitions by significant Authors as in the following list [1]:

by Marco Pollione Vitruvius (he lived in 1st century B.C.), translated and discussed by Fra Giocondo in (1151): «A machine is a combination of materials and components that have the capability of moving weights»;

by Galileo Galilei in (1593): «A machine is a means by which a given weight will be transported to a given location by using a given force»;

by Jacob Leupold in (1724): He treated the description of machines and mechanisms referring to «their aim of modifying motion rather than just the construction of machinery»;

by José Maria de Lanz and Augustin de Betancourt in (1808): «In agreement with Mr. Monge, we consider as elements of machines the devices than can change the direction of the movements... the most complicated machines are only combinations of those capable of single movements»;

by Robert Willis in (1841): «I have employed the term Mechanisms as applying to combinations of machinery solely when considered as governing the relations of motion. Machinery as modifier of force»;

by Franz Reuleaux in (1875): «A machine is a combination of bodies capable of withstanding deformation, so arranged as to constrain the (mechanical) forces of nature to produce prescribed effect in response to prescribed input motions».

by Francesco Masi in (1897): «Hence we name: as mechanism a kinematic chain that has been fixed on one of its components; as machine a mechanism whose components make mechanical work»;

by Richard S. Hartenberg and Jacques Denavit in (1964): «The term machine is associated with the use and transformation of force, and although motion is varying degree is encountered in a machine, the idea of force dominates. Mechanism, on the other hand, definitely conjures up the idea of motion, and while forces do exist, they are relatively small and unimportant compared with the exploitation of motion».

In addition, the International Federation for the Promotion of MMS (IFTOMM 1991) terminology gives:

- *Machine*: mechanical system that performs a specific task, such as the forming of material, and the transference and transformation of motion and force.

- *Mechanism*: system of bodies designed to convert motions of, and forces on, one or several bodies into constrained motions of, and forces on, other bodies.

The meaning for word «Theory» needs further explanation. The Greek word for «Theory» comes from the corresponding verb, whose main semantic meaning is related both with examination and observation of existing phenomena. But, even the classic language the word «theory» includes practical aspects of observation as

experiencing the reality of the phenomena, so that theory means also practice of analysis results. In fact, this last meaning aspect is what was included in the discipline of modern TMM as Gaspard Monge (1746-1818) established it in the Ecole Polytechnique, (Chasles 1886), at the beginning of XIX-th century (see for example the book by Lanz and Betancourt (1808), whose text include early synthesis procedures).

In conclusion since the modern assessment, Mechanics of Machines has been considered as a discipline, which treats analysis, design and practice of mechanisms and machines. This will be also in the future, since we shall always have mechanical devices related with life and working of human beings. These mechanical devices need to be designed and enhanced with approaches from mechanical engineering because of the mechanical reality of the environment where the human beings will always live, although new technology will substitute some components or facilitate the operation of mechanical devices.

The term MMS (Machines and Mechanism Science) has been adopted within the IFToMM Community since the year 2000 (IFToMM Constitution 2000) after a long discussion, with the aim to give a better identification of the enlarged technical content and broader view of Mechanism knowledge and practice.

Indeed, the use of the term MMS has also stimulated an in-depth revision in the IFToMM terminology so that in a current proposal one can find the definition of MMS as (IFToMM PC for Terminology 2002):

- *Mechanism and Machine Science*: branch of science, which deals with the theory and practice of the geometry, motion, dynamics, and control of machines, mechanisms, and elements and systems thereof, together with their application in industry and other contexts, e.g. in Biomechanics and the environment. Related processes, such as the conversion and transfer of energy and information, also pertain to this field.

The evolution of the name from TMM to MMS can be considered as due both to an enlargement of technical fields to an Engineering Science but even to a great success in research and practice of TMM.

Mechanisms and Machines have addressed attention since the beginning of Engineering Technology and they have been studied and designed with successful activity and specific results. But TMM have reached a maturity as independent discipline only in XIX-th century. It is usually said that TMM activity has been started with the foundation of the Ecole Polytechnique in Paris in 1794, at which the formation of industrial engineers was a specific goal with a specific teaching. The need for a Technical University was required by a need of properly educated engineers for the developing Industrial Revolution. Thus, the previous curricula at Universities or at Military Schools were not considered satisfactorily oriented to form engineers for growing industrial environments.

The maturity of TMM can be recognized when the teaching of TMM has been recognized as fundamental in the Engineering Academic curricula. We can fix the start of the Golden Age for TMM in the year 1831, when TMM discipline was considered as fundamental also at Sorbonne University in Paris. Just after, many other Universities in Europe have started courses on TMM that were named on

Kinematics as regular fundamental courses. At the same time, professional skill on Mechanism Design has enhanced machinery and industrial process over the XIX-th century during the Industrial Revolution.

Thus, the successful activity increase was carried out at Universities both in teaching and research. The first approach by Monge was enlarged and criticized but was the inspiration to deepen Mechanism Analysis and Design through a mathematization that gave mainly graphical procedures and first analytical algorithms. After Monge's classification there were several attempts to have a unified view of mechanisms. Those mechanism classifications were proposed with a descriptive approach, like in (Giulio 1846); with an enlarged analysis of mechanism connections, like in (Willis 1841); by using the kinematic chain concept, like in (Reuleaux 1875); and even with practical view and formulation, like in (Masi 1883).

The analysis of mechanisms was mathematized with suitable formulation through closed-form expressions by using suitable kinematic models (Chebyshev 1899). In particular, the analytical approach of Chebyshev can be considered as fundamental in the modern mathematization process of mechanism analysis and design not only from historical viewpoint but still yet from practical engineering viewpoint for development of algorithms for design purposes.

Discovering and formulating basic kinematic and dynamic properties for practical procedures enhanced the analysis of mechanisms. Significant is the analysis of velocity and acceleration of mechanisms through the application of the relative motion in the form of vector sum. This analysis was well established at the end of the XIX-th century and it has been so widely applied that it is still a successful taught in courses on MMS.

Thus, the Golden Age of TMM can be considered in the second half of the XIX-th century when intense activity in teaching, research and practice on TMM was well established by giving as main results enhancements in machinery and automation in industrial processes.

At the beginning of the XX-th century TMM has been further assessed with great design activity. Mechanism designs achieved high complexity, never seen before, and they required further enhancements of analysis procedures, mainly for modeling and numerical aspects. At the same time 3D motion was attached not only from pure academic interest and was studied also to give first practical procedures.

The increased needs of industrial applications stimulated re-consideration of TMM with a modern view that is directed mainly to more efficient numerical calculations, yet on graphical basis, for optimized solutions. Thus, even new kinematic properties were re-discovered and newly formulated. New approaches were attempted as the successful case of matrix representation of mechanisms. In this period a great success of TMM can be recognized as due to demands of Industry for machinery and automatic systems with higher and higher speed and efficiency.

Modern TMM has approached the multi-dofs motions and 3D mechanisms. These subjects have requested further enhancement of knowledge and use of new means for developing and operating new solutions. Historically, TMM has included as main disciplines: Mechanism Analysis and Synthesis; Mechanics of Rigid Bodies, Mechanics of Machinery; Machine Design; Experimental Mechanics; Teaching of

TMM; Mechanical Systems for Automation; Control and Regulation of Mechanical Systems; Rotor Dynamics; Human-Machine Interfaces; Biomechanics.

Although the future Technology seems to be directed mainly to Informatics and Electronics means, mechanical systems will be always needed since the mechanical nature of human beings-environment interaction. Therefore, Mechanics of Machines will be always needed.

2. STRUCTURE OF MECHANISMS

2.1. Link

The term *machine* may be defined as a device which receives energy in some available form and uses it to do certain particular kind of work. *Mechanism* may be defined as a contrivance which transforms motion from one form to another [2,3].

A machine consists of a number of parts or bodies. We shall study the mechanisms of the various parts or bodies from which the machine is assembled. This is done by making one of the parts as fixed, and the relative motion of other parts is determined with respect to the fixed part.

Each part of a machine, which moves relative to some other part, is known as a *kinematic link* (or simply link). A link may consist of several parts, which are rigidly fastened together, so that they do not move relative to one another. Even if two or

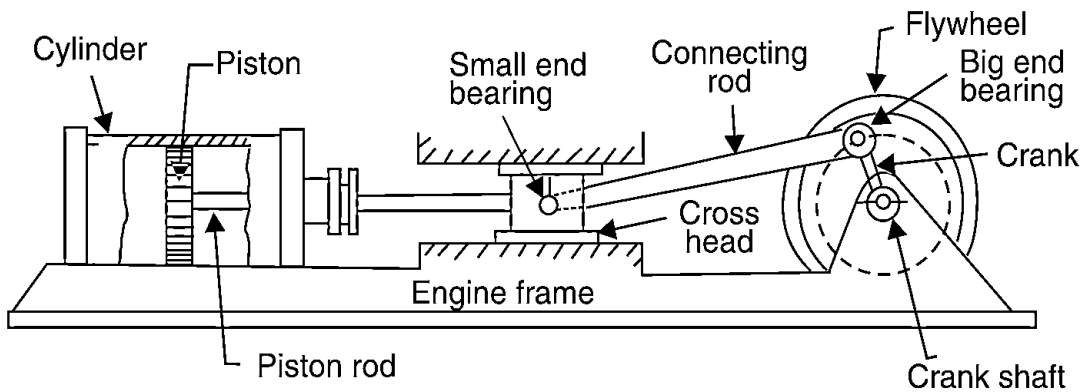


Fig. 2.1. Reciprocating steam engine

more connected parts are manufactured separately, they cannot be treated as different links unless there is a relative motion between them. For example, in a reciprocating steam engine, as shown in Fig. 2.1, piston, piston rod and cross head constitute one link; connecting rod with big and small end bearings constitute a second link; crank,

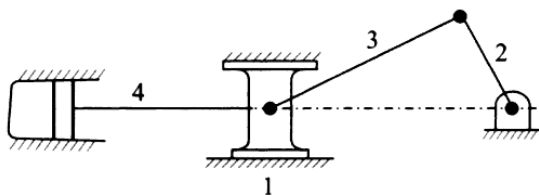


Fig. 2.2. Steam engine mechanism

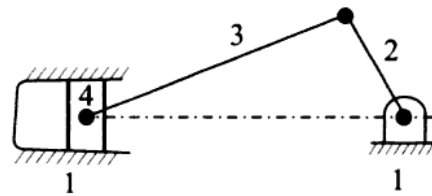


Fig. 2.3. I.C. engine mechanism

crank shaft and flywheel third link and the cylinder, engine frame and main bearings fourth link. Therefore, slider-crank mechanisms of a steam engine (Fig. 2.2) and I.C. engine (Fig. 2.3) are just the same. So, a *link* may be defined as a single part (or an assembly of rigidly connected parts) of a machine, which is a resistant body having a motion relative to other parts of the machine (mechanism).

A link needs not to be rigid body, but it must be a *resistant body*. A body is said to be a resistant one if it is capable of transmitting the required forces with

negligible deformation. Based on above considerations a spring which has no effect on the kinematics of a device and has significant deformation in the direction of applied force is not treated as a link but only as a device to apply force (Fig. 2.4). They are usually ignored during kinematic analysis, and their «force-effects» are introduced during dynamic analysis.

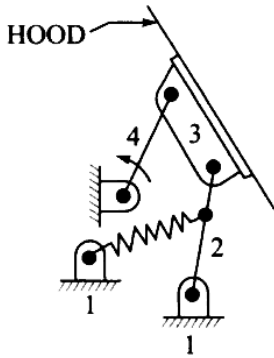


Fig. 2.4. Four link automobile-hood mechanism

treated as links only when they are in tension. Similarly, liquids on account of their incompressibility can be treated as links only when transmitting compressive force.

Thus a link should have the following two characteristics:

1. It should have relative motion, and
2. It must be a resistant body.

Structure is an assemblage of a number of resistant bodies (known as members) having no relative motion between them and meant for carrying loads having straining action. A railway bridge, a roof truss, machine frames etc., are the examples of a structure. The following differences between a machine (mechanism) and a structure are important from the subject point of view: 1. The parts of a machine move relative to one another, whereas the members of a structure do not move relative to one another. 2. A machine transforms the available energy into some useful work, whereas in a structure no energy is transformed into useful work. 3. The links of a machine may transmit both power and motion, while the members of a structure transmit forces only.

The kind of relative motion between links of a mechanism is controlled by the form of the contacting surfaces of the adjacent (connected) links. These contacting surfaces may be thought of as «working surfaces» of the connection between adjacent links. For instance, the connection between a lathe carriage and its bed is through working surfaces (ways) which are so shaped that only motion of translation is possible. Similarly, the working surface of I.C. engine piston and connecting rod at piston pin are so shaped that relative motion of rotation alone is possible. Each of these working surfaces is called an *element*.

An element may therefore be defined as a geometrical form provided on a link so as to ensure a working surface that permits desired relative motion between connected links.

There are machine members which possess one-way rigidity. For instance, because of their resistance to deformation under tensile load, belts (Fig. 2.5), ropes and chains are

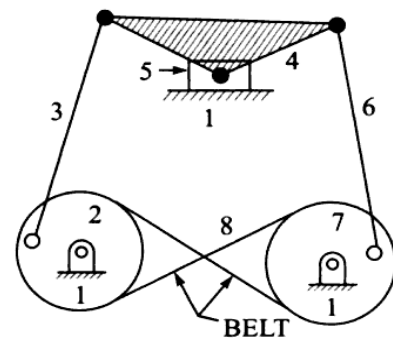


Fig. 2.5. Mechanism with belt-pulley combination

2.2. Classification of Links

A link can be called singular (unitary), binary, ternary, quaternary (etc.) link depending on the number of elements it has for pairing with other links. Thus a link carrying a single element is called a singular (unitary) link and a link with two elements is called a binary link. Similarly, a link having three elements is called a ternary link while a link having four elements is called a quaternary link. These links, along with their convention representation, are shown in Fig. 2.6.


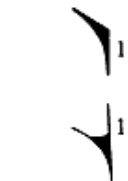





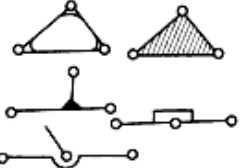


Type of Link	Typical Form	Schematic Representation
Single link (Typical shapes)		
Singular (Unitary) link		
Binary link		
Ternary		
Quaternary link		

Fig. 2.6. Conventional representation of different types of links

2.3. Kinematic Pair

The two contacting elements of a connection constitute a *kinematic pair*. A pair may also be defined as a connection between two adjacent links that permits a definite relative motion between them. It may be noted that the above statement is generally true. In the case of multiple joint, however, more than two links can be connected at a kinematic pair (also known as joint). Cylindrical contacting surfaces between I.C. engine cylinder and piston constitute a pair. Similarly, cylindrical contacting surfaces of a rotating shaft and a journal bearing also constitute a pair.

When all the points in different links in a mechanism move in planes which are mutually parallel the mechanism is said to have a planar motion. A motion other than planar one is a spatial motion.

When the links are assumed to be rigid, there can be no change in relative positions of any two arbitrarily chosen points on the same link. In particular, relative position of pairing elements on the same link does not change. As a consequence of assumption of rigidity, many of the intricate details, shape and size of the actual part (link) become unimportant in kinematic analysis. For this reason it is customary to draw highly simplified schematic diagrams which contain only the important features in respect of the shape of each link (e.g., relative locations of pairing elements). This necessarily requires to completely suppressing the information about real geometry of

manufactured parts. Schematic diagrams of various links, showing relative location of pairing elements, are shown in Fig. 2.2.-2.5. Conventions followed in drawing kinematic diagram are also shown there.

In drawing a kinematic diagram, it is customary to draw the parts (links) in the most simplified form so that only those dimensions are considered which affect the relative motion. One such simplified kinematic diagram of slider-crank mechanism of an I.C. engine is shown in Fig. 2.3 in which connecting rod 3 and crank 2 are represented by lines joining their respective pairing elements. The piston has been represented by the slider 4 while cylinder, being a fixed member, has been represented by frame link 1.

It may be noted, however, that these schematics, have a limitation in that they have little resemblance to the physical hardware. And, one should remember that kinematic diagrams are particularly useful in kinematic analysis and synthesis but they have very little significance in designing the machine components of such a mechanism.

2.4. Classification of Pairs

2.4.1. Classification of Pairs Based on Relative Motion

The relative motion of one element relative to the other one can be that of turning, sliding, screw (helical direction), planar, cylindrical or spherical. The controlling factor that determines the relative motions allowed by a given joint is the shapes of the mating surfaces or elements. Each type of joint has its own characteristic shapes for the elements, and each permits a particular type of motion, which is determined by the possible ways in which these elemental surfaces can move with respect to each other. The shapes of mating elemental surfaces restrict the totally arbitrary motion of two unconnected links to some prescribed type of relative motion.

Turning Pair (Also called a hinge, a pin joint or a revolute pair). This is the most common type of kinematic pair and is designated by the letter *R*.

A pin joint has cylindrical element surfaces and assuming that the links cannot slide axially, these surfaces permit relative motion of rotation only (Fig. 2.7). A pin joint allows the two connected links to experience relative rotation about the pin axis. Thus, the pair permits only one degree of freedom ($F=1$). Thus, the pair at piston pin, the pair at crank pin and the pair formed by rotating crank-shaft in bearing is all example of turning pairs.

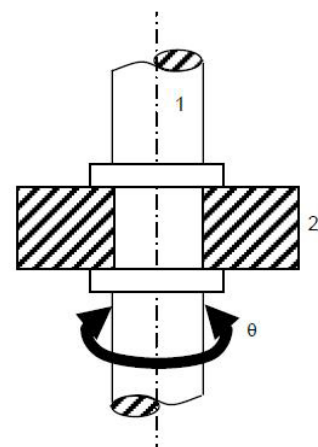


Fig. 2.7. Turning (revolute) pair *R*, $F=1$

Sliding or Prismatic Pair. This is also a common type of pair and is designated as P (Fig. 2.8). This type of pair permits relative motion of sliding only in one direction (along a line S) and has only one degree of freedom. Pairs between piston and cylinder, cross-head and guides, die-block and slot of slotted lever are all examples of sliding pairs.

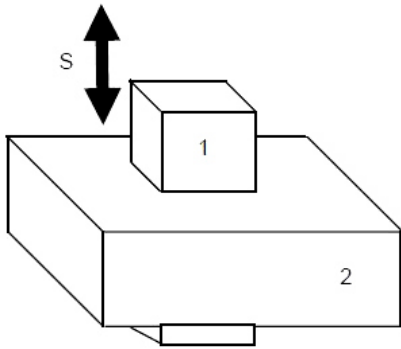


Fig. 2.8. Prismatic or sliding pair P , $F=1$

Screw Pair. This pair permits a relative motion between coincident points, on mating elements, along a helix curve. Both axial and rotational movement is

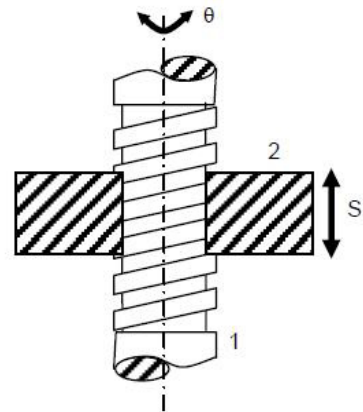


Fig. 2.9. Screw (helical) pair S , $F=1$

involved. But as the translational and rotational motions are related through helix angle θ , the pair has only one degree of freedom Fig (2.9.).The pair is commonly designated by the letter S . Example of such pairs are to be found in translational screws operating against rotating nuts to transmit large forces at comparatively low speed, e.g. in screw-jacks, screw-presses, valves and pressing screw of rolling mills. Other examples are rotating lead screws operating in nuts to transmit motion accurately as in lathes, machine tools, measuring instruments, etc.

Cylindrical Pair. A cylindrical pair permits a relative motion which is a combination of rotation θ and translation s along the axis of rotation between the contacting elements (Fig. 2.10). The pair has thus two degrees of freedom and is designated by a letter C . A shaft free to rotate in bearing and also free to slide axially inside the bearing provides example of a cylindrical pair.

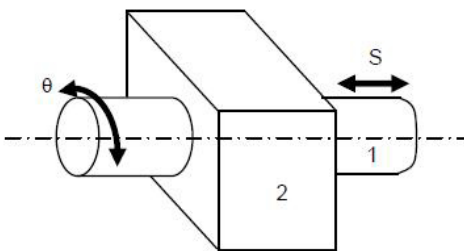


Fig. 2.10. Cylindrical pair C , $F=2$

Globular or Spherical Pair. Designated by the letter G , the pair permits relative motion such that coincident points on working surfaces of elements move along spherical surface. In other words, for a given position of spherical pair, the joint permits relative rotation about three mutually perpendicular axes. It has thus three degrees of freedom. A ball and socket joint (e.g., the shoulder joint at arm-pit of a human being) is the best example of spherical pair.

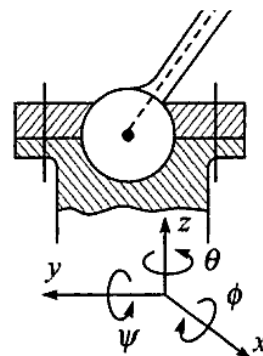


Fig. 2.11. Globular or spherical pair G , $F=3$

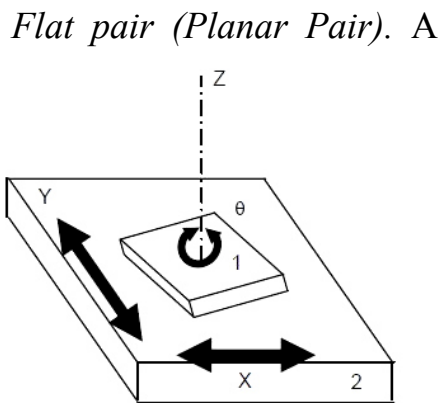


Fig. 2.12. Flat pair F , $F=3$

Flat pair (Planar Pair). A flat or planar pair is seldom, if ever, found in mechanisms. The pair permits a planar relative motion between contacting elements. This relative motion can be described in terms of two translational motions in x and y directions and a rotation about third direction z , x , y , z being mutually perpendicular directions. The pair is designated as F and has three degrees of freedom.

Rolling Pair. When surfaces of mating elements have a relative motion of rolling, the pair is called a rolling pair. Castor wheel of trolleys, ball and roller bearings, wheels of locomotive/wagon and rail are a few examples of this type.

trolleys, ball and roller bearings, wheels of locomotive/wagon and rail are a few examples of this type.

2.4.2. Classification of Pairs Based on Type of Contact

This is the best known classification of kinematic pairs on the basis of nature of contact:

Lower Pair. Kinematic pairs in which there is surfaces (area) contact between the contacting elements are called lower pairs. All revolute, sliding, screw, globular, cylindrical pairs and flat pairs are ones of this category.

Higher Pair. Kinematic pairs in which there is point or line contact between the contacting elements are called higher pairs. Meshing gear-teeth, cam follower pair, wheel rolling on a surface, ball and roller bearings and pawl and ratchet are a few examples of higher pairs.

Since lower pairs involve surface contact rather than line or point contact, it follows that lower pairs can be more heavily loaded for the same unit pressure. They are considerably more wear-resistant. For this reason, development in kinematics has involved more and more number of lower pairs. As against this, use of higher pairs implies lesser friction.

The real concept of lower pairs lies in the particular kind of relative motion permitted by the connected links. For instance, let us assume that two mating elements P and Q form kinematic pair. If the path traced by any point on the element P , relative to element Q , is identical to the path traced by a corresponding (coincident) point in the element Q relative to element P , then the two elements P and Q are said to form a lower pair. Elements not satisfying the above condition obviously form the higher pairs

Since a turning pair involves relative

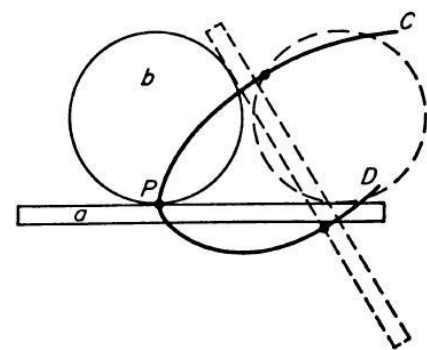


Fig. 2.13. Different paths of point P (PC -cycloid, PD -involute)

motion of rotation about pin-axis, coincident points on the two contacting elements will have circular areas of same radius as their path. Similarly elements of sliding pair will have straight lines as the path for coincident points. In the case of screw pair, the coincident points on mating elements will have relative motion along helices. As against this a point on periphery of a disk rolling along a straight line generates cycloidal path, but the coincident point on straight line generates involute path when the straight line rolls over the disk (Fig. 2.13). The two paths are thus different and the pair is a higher pair. *As a direct sequel to the above consideration, unlike a lower pair, a higher pair cannot be inverted. That is, the two elements of the pair cannot be interchanged with each other without affecting the overall motion of the mechanism.*

Lower pairs are further subdivided into linear motion and surface motion pairs. The distinction between these two sub-categories is based on the number of degrees of freedom of the pair. Linear motion lower pairs are those having one degree of freedom, i.e. each point on one element of the pair can move only along a single line or curve relative to the other element. This category includes turning pairs, prismatic pairs and screw pairs.

Surfaces-motion lower pairs have two or more degrees of freedom. This category includes cylindrical pair, spherical pair and the planar (flat) pair.

2.4.3. Classification of Pairs Based on Degrees of Freedom

A free body in space has six degrees of freedom (d.o.f.= $F=6$). In forming a kinematic pair, one or more degrees of freedom are lost. The remaining degrees of freedom of the pair can then be used to classify pairs.

Thus, d.o.f. of a pair = 6 – (Number of constraints).

Tab. 2.1. Classification of pairs

No in Fig. 2.14	Geometrical shapes of elements in contact	Number of restraints on		Total number of restraints	Class of pair
		translational motion	rotational motion		
(a)	Sphere and plane	1	0	1	I
(b)	Sphere inside a cylinder	2	0	2	II
(c)	Cylinder on plane	1	1	2	II
(d)	Sphere in spherical socket	3	0	3	III
(e)	Sphere in slotted cylinder	2	1	3	III
(f)	Prism on a plane	1	2	3	III
(g)	Spherical ball in slotted socket	3	1	4	IV
(h)	Cylinder in cylindrical hollow	2	2	4	IV
(i)	Collared cylinder in hollow cylinder	3	2	5	V
(j)	Prism in prismatic hollow	2	3	5	V

A kinematic pair can therefore be classified on the basis of number of restraints imposed on the relative motion of connected links. This is done in Tab. 2.1 for different forms of pairing element shown in Fig. 2.14.

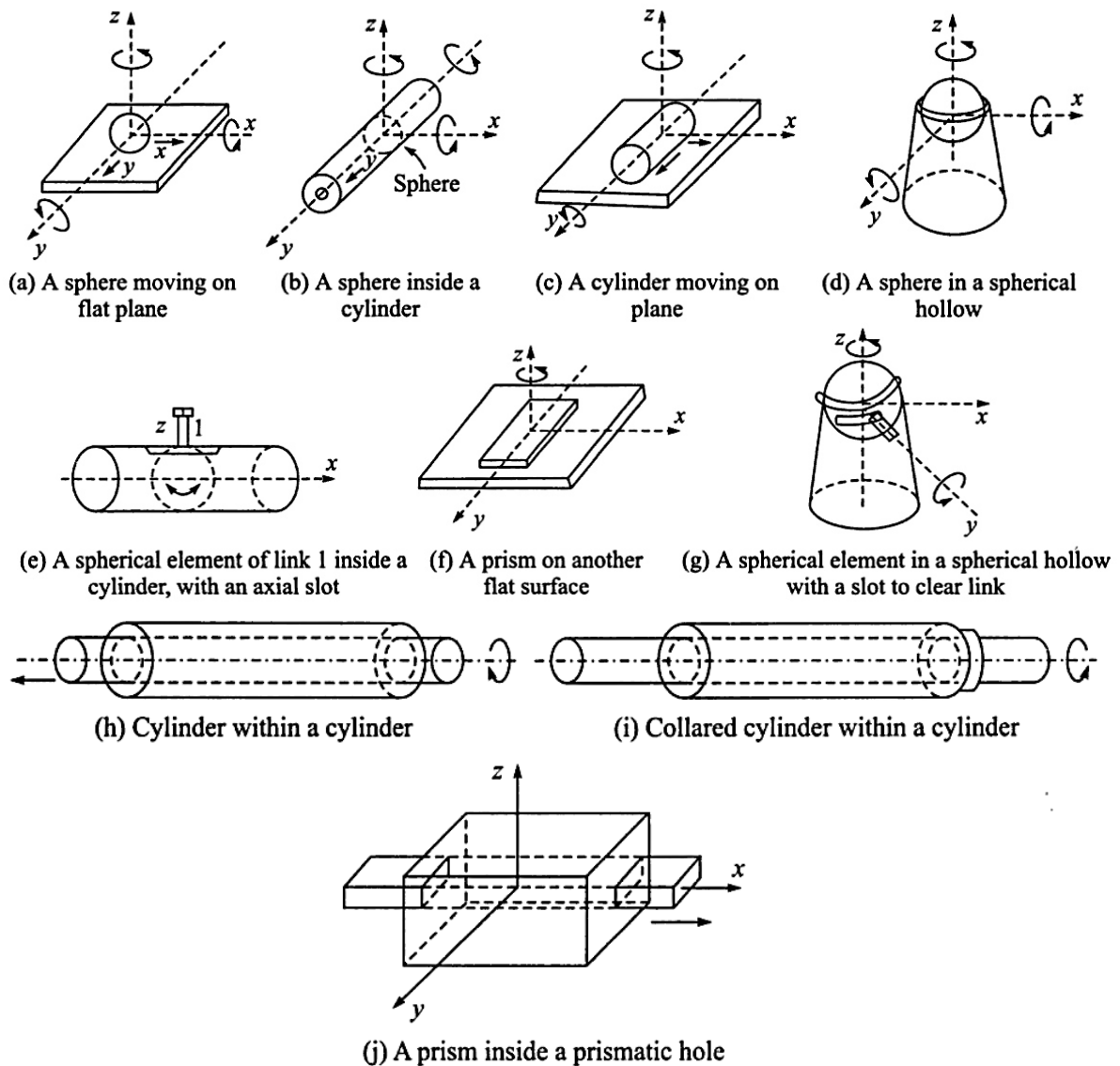


Fig. 2.14. Classification of pairs based on degrees of freedom

2.4.4. Classification of Pairs Based on Type of Closure

Another important way of classifying pairs is to group them as closed or self-closed kinematic pairs and open kinematic pairs.

In closed pairs, one element completely surrounds the other so that it is held in place in all possible positions. Restraint is achieved only by the form of pair and, therefore, the pair is called closed or self-closed pair. Therefore, closed pairs are those pairs in which elements are held together mechanically. All the lower pairs and a few higher

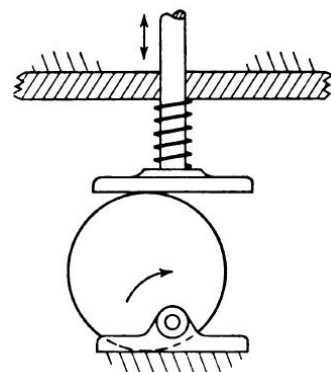


Fig. 2.15. Cam and roller-follower

pairs fall in the category of closed pairs

As against this, open kinematic pairs maintain relative positions only when there is some external means to prevent separation of contacting elements. Open pairs are also sometimes called as unclosed pairs. A cam and roller-follower mechanism, held in contact due to spring and gravity force, is an example of this type (Fig. 2.15).

2.5. Kinematic Chain

A kinematic chain can be defined as an assemblage of links which are interconnected through pairs, permitting relative motion between links. A chain is called a closed chain when links are so connected in sequence that first link is connected to

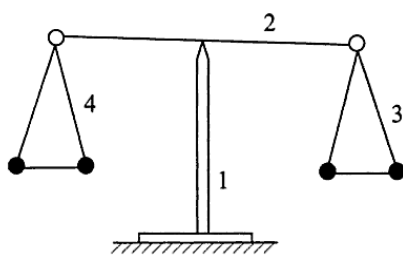


Fig. 2.16. Weighing scale

the last, ensuring that all pairs are complete because of mated elements forming working surfaces at joints. As against this, when links are connected in sequence, with first link not connected to the last (leaving incomplete pairs), the chain is called an open chain. Examples of planar open loop chain are not many but they have many applications in the area of robotics and manipulators as space

mechanisms. An example of a planar open-loop chain, which permits the use of a singular link (a link with only one element on it), is the common weighing scale shown in Fig. 2.16.

Various links are numbered in the figure. Links 3, 1 and 4 are singular links.

From the subject point of view, a mechanism may now be defined as a movable closed kinematic chain with one of its links fixed.

A mechanism with four links is known as *simple mechanism*, and the mechanism with more than four links is known as *compound mechanism*. Let's repeat once again when a mechanism is required to transmit power or to do some particular type of work, it then becomes a *machine*. In such cases, the various links or elements have to be designed to withstand the forces (both static and kinetic) safely. A little consideration will show that a mechanism may be regarded as a machine in which each part is reduced to the simplest form to transmit the required motion.

Sometimes one prefers to reserve the term *linkage* to describe mechanisms consisting of lower pairs only. But on a number of occasions this term has been used rather loosely synonymous to the term mechanism.

2.6. Number of Degrees of Freedom of Mechanisms

Constrained motion is defined as that motion in which all points move in predetermined paths, irrespective of the directions and magnitudes of the applied forces. Mechanisms may be categorized in number of ways to emphasize their similarities and differences. One such classification can be to divide mechanisms into

plane, spherical and spatial categories. A plane mechanism is one in which all particles of any link of a mechanism describe plane curves in space and all these curves lie in parallel planes.

In the design and analysis of a mechanism, one of the most important concerns is determining number of degrees of freedom, also called mobility, of the mechanism.

The number of independent input parameters which must be controlled independently so that a mechanism fulfills its useful purpose is called its degree of freedom or mobility. Degree of freedom equal to 1 (d.o.f. = $F = 1$) implies that when any point of the mechanism is moved in a prescribed way, all other points have uniquely determined (constrained) motions. When $F = 2$, it follows that two independent motions must be introduced in a mechanism, or two different forces or moments must be present as output resistances (as is the case in automotive differential).

It is possible to determine the number of degrees of freedom of a mechanism directly from the number of links and the number and types of pairs which it

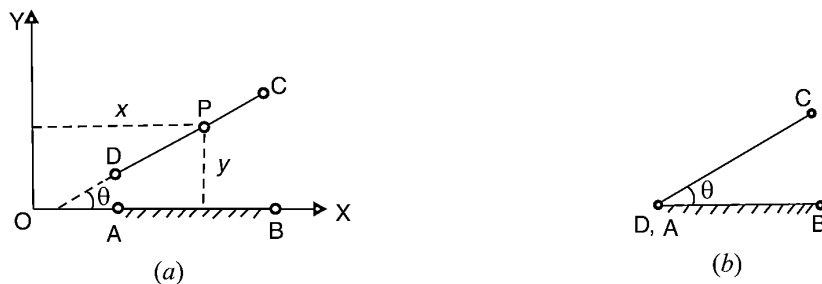


Fig. 2.17. Links in a plane motion

includes. In order to develop the relationship in general, consider two links AB and CD in a plane motion as shown in Fig. 2.17 (a)

The link AB with co-ordinate system OXY is taken as the reference link (or fixed link). The

position of point P on the moving link CD can be completely specified by the three variables, *i.e.* the co-ordinates of the point P denoted by x and y and the inclination θ of the link CD with X -axis or link AB . In other words, we can say that each link of a plane mechanism has three degrees of freedom before it is connected to any other link. But when the link CD is connected to the link AB by a turning pair at A , as shown in Fig. 2.17 (b), the position of link CD is now determined by a single variable θ and thus has one degree of freedom.

From above, we see that when a link is connected to a fixed link by a turning pair (*i.e.* lower pair) two degrees of freedom are destroyed (removed). This may be clearly understood from Fig. 2.18, in which the resulting four link mechanism has one degree of freedom (*i.e.* $F = 1$).

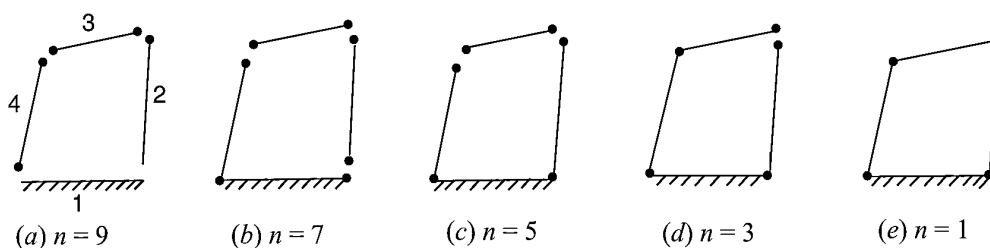


Fig. 2.18. Four link mechanism

Based on above discussions, expression for degrees of freedom of a plane kinematic chain, consisting of lower pairs (of d.o.f. = 1) only, is given by the following formula:

$$F = 3n - 2l,$$

where F is a number of degree of freedom, n - number of mobile links, l - number of lower pairs.

In case of a mechanism which is obtained from a chain by fixing one link, number of mobile links reduces to $(n - 1)$ and therefore, expression for degrees of freedom of a mechanism, consisting of lower pairs only, is given by-

$$F = 3(n - 1) - 2l. \quad (2.1)$$

Equation (2.1) is known as Chebyshev's or Grubler's equation, and is one of the most popular mobility equations.

Therefore, Fig. 2.18 illustrates the process of losing degrees of freedom, each time a turning pair is introduced, *i.e.* adding constraints, between two unconnected links.

Just as a lower pair cuts down 2 d.o.f., a higher pair cuts only 1 d.o.f. (this is because invariably rolling is associated with slipping, permitting 2 d.o.f.). Hence equation (2.1) can be further modified to include the effect of higher pairs also. Thus, for mechanism having lower and higher pairs we get:

$$F = 3(n - 1) - 2l - h, \quad (2.2)$$

where h is a number of higher pairs.

Equation (2.2) is the modified Grubler's equation. It is also as Kutzbach criterion for the mobility of a plane mechanism. It would be more appropriate to define, in equations (2.1) and (2.2), l to be the number of pairs of 1 d.o.f. and h to be the number of pairs of 2 d.o.f.

Spatial mechanisms do not incorporate any restriction on the relative motions of the particles. A spatial mechanism may have particles describing paths of double curvature. Chebyshev-Grubler's criterion was originally developed for planar mechanisms. If similar criterion is to be developed for spatial mechanisms, we must remember that an unconnected link has six in place of three degrees of freedom. As such, by fixing one link of a chain the total d.o.f. of $(n - 1)$ links separately will be $6(n - 1)$. Again a revolute and prismatic pair would provide 5 constraints (permitting 1 d.o.f), rolling pairs will provide 4 constraints, and so on. Hence, taking into account the tab. 2.1, an expression for d.o.f. of a closed spatial mechanism can be written as (Somov-Malyshev's formula):

$$F = 6(n - 1) - 5l_1 - 4l_2 - 3l_3 - 2l_4 - l_5, \quad (2.3)$$

where n - total number of links,

l_1 - number of pairs (joints) providing 5 constraints,

l_2 - number of pairs providing 4 constraints,

l_3 - number of pairs providing 3 constraints,

l_4 - number of pairs providing 2 constraints, and

l_5 - number of pairs providing only 1 constraint.

2.7. Application of Chebyshev-Grubler's Criterion to Plane Mechanisms

We have discussed that Chebyshev-Grubler's criterion for determining the number of degrees of freedom (F) of a plane mechanism is

$$F = 3(n - 1) - 2l - h.$$

Consider determining the number of degrees of freedom for some simple mechanisms having no higher pairs (*i.e.* $h = 0$), as shown in Fig. 2.19.

Example 2.1. Find out degrees of freedom (F) of mechanisms shown in Fig. 2.19.

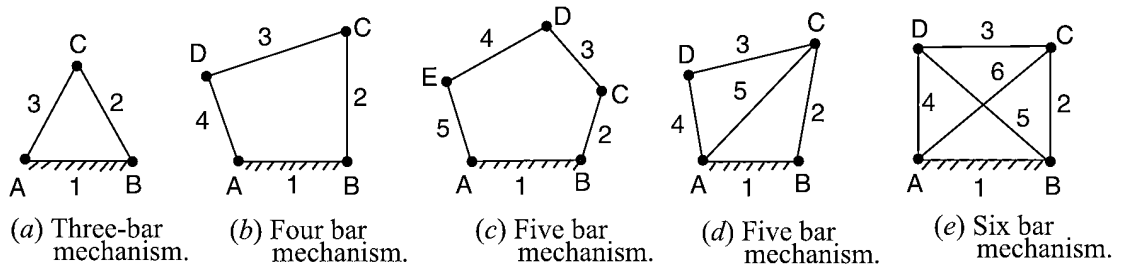


Fig. 2.19. Plane mechanisms

Solution:

1. The mechanism, as shown in Fig. 2.19 (a), has three links and three lower pairs, *i.e.* $l = 3$ and $n = 3$,

$$F = 3(3 - 1) - 2 \times 3 = 0.$$

2. The mechanism, as shown in 2.19 (b), has four links and four pairs, *i.e.* $l = 4$ and $n = 4$,

$$F = 3(4 - 1) - 2 \times 4 = 1.$$

3. The mechanism, as shown in Fig. 2.19 (c), has five links and five pairs, *i.e.* $l = 5$, and $n = 5$,

$$F = 3(5 - 1) - 2 \times 5 = 2.$$

4. The mechanism, as shown in Fig. 2.19 (d), has five links and six pairs (because there are two pairs at B and D , and four equivalent pairs at A and C), *i.e.* $l = 5$ and $n = 6$,

$$F = 3(5 - 1) - 2 \times 6 = 0.$$

5. The mechanism, as shown in Fig. 2.19 (e), has six links and eight pairs (because there are two pairs separately at A , B , C and D), *i.e.* $l = 6$ and $n = 8$,

$$F = 3(6 - 1) - 2 \times 8 = -1.$$

Therefore, it may be noted that

(a) When $F = 0$, then the mechanism forms a structure and no relative motion between the links is possible, as shown in Fig. 2.19 (a) and (d).

(b) When $F = 1$, then the mechanism can be driven by a single input motion, as shown in Fig. 2.19 (b)

(c) When $F = 2$, then two separate input motions are necessary for the mechanism, as shown in Fig. 2.19 (c).

(d) When $F = -1$ or less, then there are redundant constraints in the mechanism (chain) and it forms indeterminate structure, as shown in Fig. 2.19 (e).

Let's consider other examples.

Example 2.2. Find out degrees of freedom of mechanisms shown in Fig. 2.20.

Solution: (a) Here $n = 9$; $l = 11$,

$$F = 3(9 - 1) - 2(11) = 2.$$

(b) Here $n = 8$; $l = 9 + 2 = 11$,

$$F = 3(8 - 1) - 2(11) = -1.$$

i.e. the mechanism at Fig. 2.20 (b) is a statically indeterminate structure.

(c) As in case (b), here too there are double joints as A and B . Hence

$$n = 10; l = 9 + 2(2) = 13,$$

$$F = 3(10 - 1) - 2(13) = 1.$$

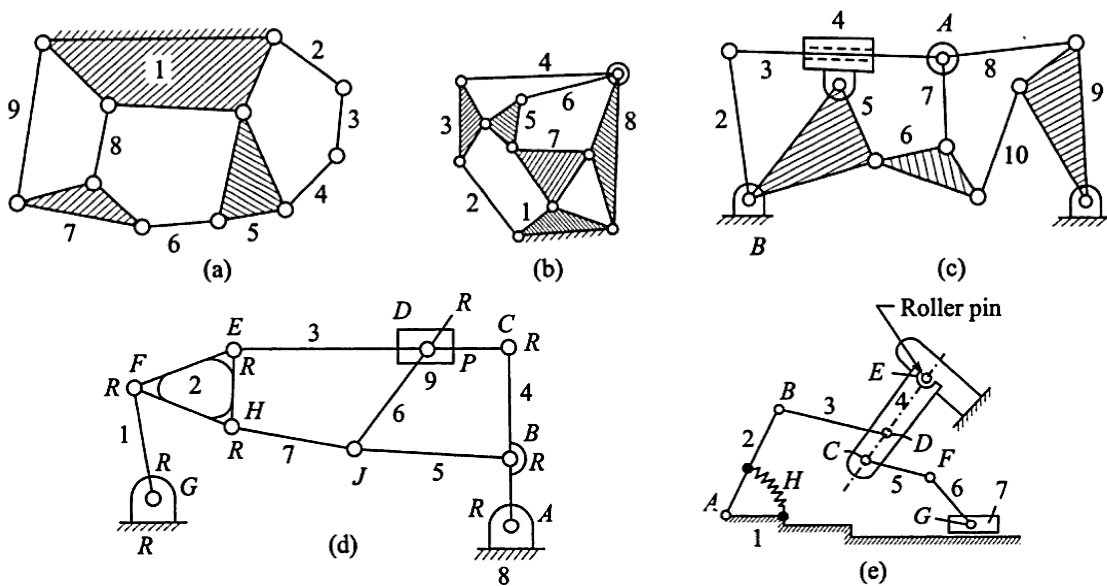


Fig. 2.20. Plane mechanisms

(d) The mechanism at Fig. 2.20 (d) has three ternary links (links 2, 3 and 4) and 5 binary links (links 1, 5, 6, 7 and 8) and one slider. It has 9 simple revolute pairs marked R , one sliding pair marked P and one double joint at J . Since the double joint J joints 3 links, it may be taken equivalent to two simple revolute pairs. Thus, $n = 9$; $l = 11$,

$$F = 3(9 - 1) - 2(11) = 2.$$

(e) The mechanism at Fig. 2.20 (e) has a roller pin at E and a spring at H . The spring is only a device to apply force, and is not a link. Thus, there are 7 links numbered through 7, one sliding pair, one rolling (higher) pairs at E besides 6 turning (revolute) pairs. So we get:

$$n = 7; l = 7 \text{ and } h = 1,$$

$$F = 3(7 - 1) - 2(7) - (1) = 18 - 14 - 1 = 3.$$

Example 2.3. Find out degrees of freedom of the mechanisms shown in Fig. 2.21 (a), (b).

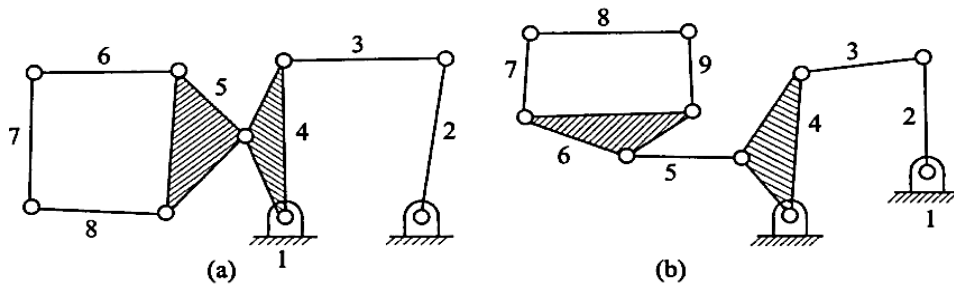


Fig. 2.21. Plane mechanisms

Solution: (a) $n = 8; l = 9, F = 3(8 - 1) - 2(9) = 3$.

(b) $n = 9, l = 10, F = 3(9 - 1) - 2(10) = 4$.

Example 2.4. Show that the automobile window glass guiding mechanism in Fig. 2.22 has a single degree of freedom.

Solution: There are total 7 links in mechanism. There are seven revolute pairs between link pairs (1,2), (2,3), (3,4), (3,7), (4,6), (4,1) and (1,5). Besides, there is one sliding pair between links 6 and 7 and a geared pair between links 4 and 5.

Thus, $l = 8$ and $h = 1$,
 $F = 3(7 - 1) - 2(8) - 1 = 1$.

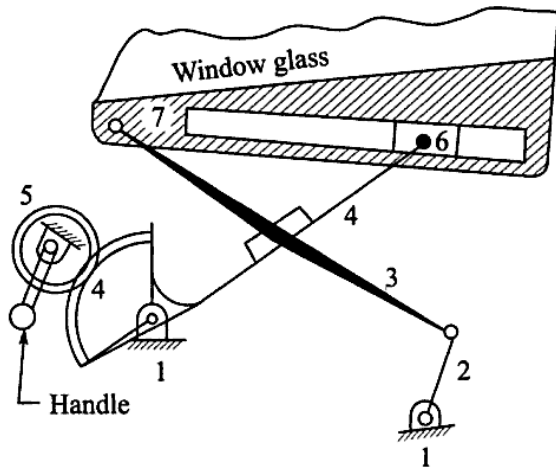


Fig. 2.22. Automobile window guidance linkage

2.8. Grubler's Equation for Plane Mechanisms

Chebyshev-Grubler's criterion applies to mechanisms *with only single degree of freedom pairs where the overall mobility of the mechanism is unity*. Substituting in (2.2) $F = 1$ and $h = 0$, we have

$$1 = 3(n - 1) - 2l \text{ or } 3n - 2l - 4 = 0.$$

This equation is known as the Grubler's criterion for plane mechanisms with constrained motion. It is obvious that a plane mechanism with a mobility of 1 and only low pairs (of one degree of freedom) cannot have odd number of links. The simplest possible mechanism of this type are a four link mechanism and a slider-crank mechanism in which $n = 4$ and $l = 4$.

Consider some cases when Grubler's equation gives incorrect results, particularly when

(1) the mechanism has a lower pair which could be replaced by a higher pair, without influencing output motion;

- (2) the mechanism has a redundant pair, and
- (3) there is a link with redundant degree of freedom.

Inconsistency at (1) may be illustrated by Figs. 2.23 (a) and (b). Fig. 2.23 (a) depicts a mechanism with three sliding pairs. According to Grubler's theory, this combination of links has a zero degree of freedom. But by inspection, it is clear that the links have a constrained motion, because as the 2 is pushed to the left, link 3 is lifted due to wedge action. But the sliding pair between; links 2 and 3 can be replaced by a slip rolling pair (Fig. 2.23 (b)), ensuring constrained motion. In the latter case, $n=3$, $l=2$ and $h=1$ which, according to Grubler's equation, gives $F=1$.

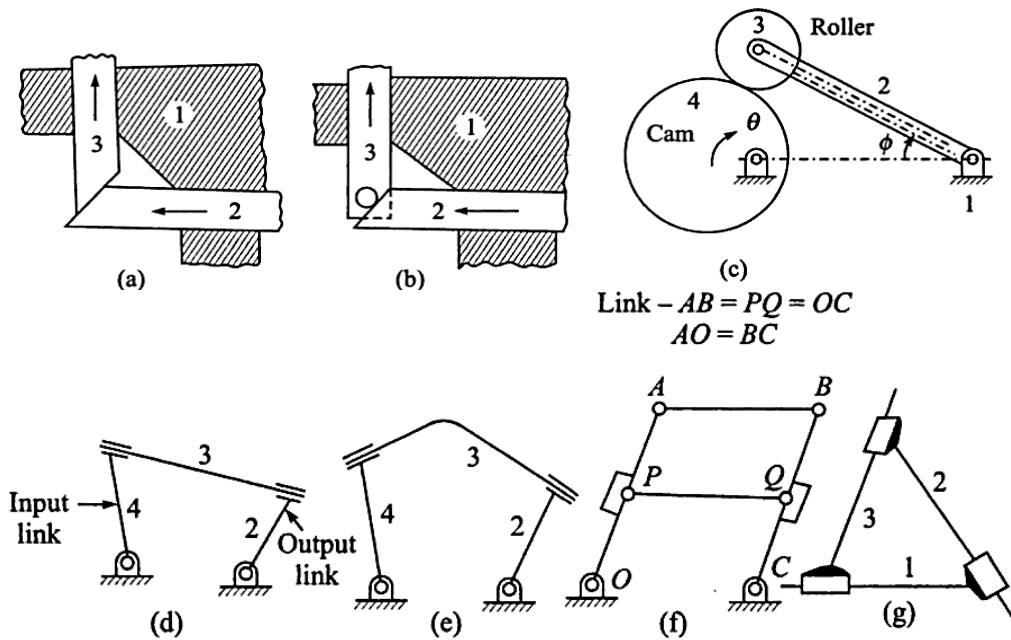


Fig. 2.23. Inconsistencies of Grubler's criterion

Fig. 2.23 (c) demonstrates inconsistency at (2). The cam follower mechanism has 4 links, 3 turning pairs and a rolling pair, giving d.o.f. as 2. However, a close analysis reveals that as a function generator, oscillatory motion of follower is a unique function of cam rotation, i.e. $\phi = f(\theta)$. In other words, d.o.f. of the above mechanism is only 1. It may be noted, however, that the function of roller in this case is to minimize friction; it does not in any way influence the motion of follower. For instance, even if the revolute pair between follower and roller is eliminated (rendering roller to be an integral part of follower), the motion of follower will not be affected. Thus, the kinematic pair between links 2 and 3 is redundant. Therefore, with this pair eliminated, $n=3$, $l=2$ and $h=1$, gives d.o.f. as one.

If a link can be moved without producing any displacement in the remaining links of mechanism, the link is said to have *redundant degree of freedom*. Link 3 in mechanism of Fig. 2.23 (d), for instance, can slide and rotate without causing any movement in links 2 and 4. Since the Grubler's equation gives d.o.f. as 1, the loss due to redundant d.o.f. of link 3 implies effective d.o.f. as zero, and Fig. 2.23 (d) represents a locked system. However, if link 3 is bent, as shown in Fig. 2.23 (e), the link 3 ceases to have redundant d.o.f. and constrained motion results for the mechanism. Fig. 2.23 (f) shows a mechanism in which one of the two parallel links

AB and PQ is redundant link, as none of them produces additional constraint. By discarding any of the two links, motion remains the same. It is logical therefore to consider only one of the two links in calculating degrees of freedom. Another example where Grubler's equation gives zero mobility is the mechanism shown in Fig. 2.23 (g), which has a constrained motion.

2.9. Chebyshev-Grubler's Criterion Application for Mechanisms with Higher Pairs

Higher pairs permit a greater number of degrees of freedom as against one degree freedom of relative motion permitted by revolute and sliding pairs. Each such higher pair is equivalent to as many lower pairs as the number of degrees of freedom of relative motion permitted by the given higher pair. Consider the cases discussed below:

a) *Rolling Contact without Sliding*. This allows only one d.o.f. of relative motion as only relative motion of rotation exists. A pure rolling type of joint can therefore be taken equivalent to lower pair with one d.o.f. (Fig. 2.24). The lower pair equivalent for instantaneous velocity is given by a simple hinge joint at the relative instantaneous center which is the point of contact between rolling links. Note that instantaneous velocity implies that in case a higher pair is replaced by a lower pair equivalent, the instantaneous relative velocity between the connecting links remains the same, but the relative acceleration may, in general, change.

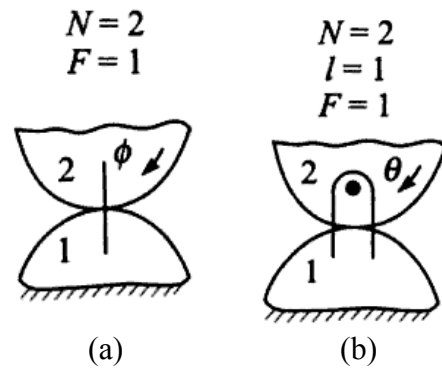


Fig 2.24. Rolling contact

b) *Roll-Slide Contact*. Due to sliding motion associated with rolling only one out of three plane motions is constrained, Fig. 2.25 (a). Thus, lower pair equivalence for instantaneous velocity is given by a slider and pin joint combination between the connected links, Fig. 2.25 (b).

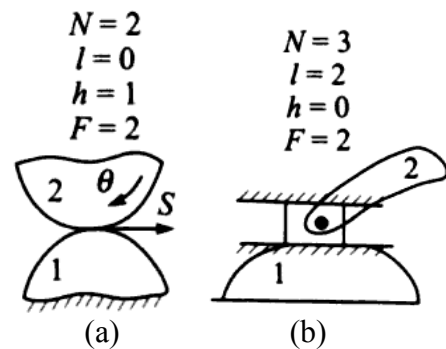


Fig. 2.25. Roll-Slide contact

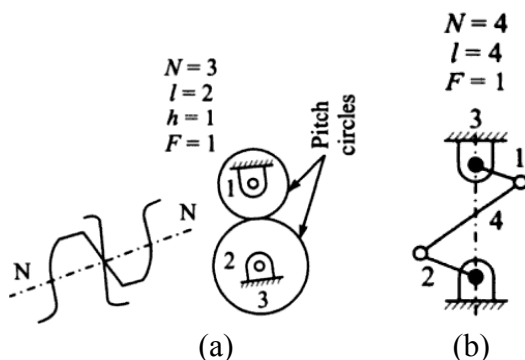


Fig. 2.26. Gear-tooth contact

c) *Gear-Tooth Contact (Roll-Slide)*. Gear tooth contact is a roll-slide pair and therefore makes a contribution to the term h in Grubler's equation. Thus, since there are two revolute pairs at gear centers together with a higher pair at contacting teeth, Fig. 2.26 (a), we get:

$$F = 3(3 - 1) - 2(2) - 1 = 1.$$

Lower pair equivalent for instantaneous velocity of such a pair is a 4-link mechanism with fixed pins at gear centers and moving pins at the centers of curvature of contacting tooth profiles, Fig. 2.26 (b). In case of involute teeth, these centers of curvature will coincide with points of tangency of common tangent drawn to base circles of the two gears. Such a 4-link mechanism gives d.o.f. equal to 1.

c) *A Spring Connection.* Purpose of a spring is to exert force on the connected links,

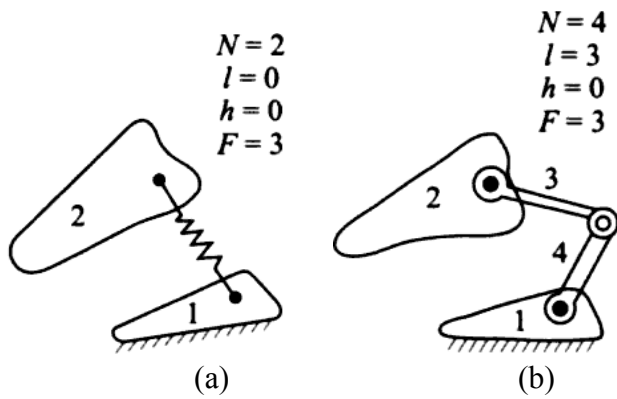


Fig. 2.27. Spring connection

but it does not participate in relative motion between connected links actively. Since the spring permits elongation and contraction in length, a pair of binary links, with a revolute pair connecting them, can be considered to constitute instantaneous velocity equivalent lower pair mechanism. A pair of binary links with a revolute (turning) pair permits variation in distance between their

other ends (unconnected), and allows same degree of freedom of relative motion between links connected by the spring (for $n = 4$, $l = 3$, $F = 3$). It may be noted that in the presence of spring, ($n = 2$, $l = 0$, $h = 0$) the d.o.f. would be 3.

d) *The Belt and Pulley or Chain and Sprockets Connection.* When the belt or chain is maintained tight, it provides plane connections (Fig. 2.28 (a)). Lower pair equivalence for instantaneous velocity can be found in a ternary link with three pin joints (sliding is not allowed) as in Fig. 2.28 (b). It can be verified that d.o.f. of equivalent six-link mechanism is

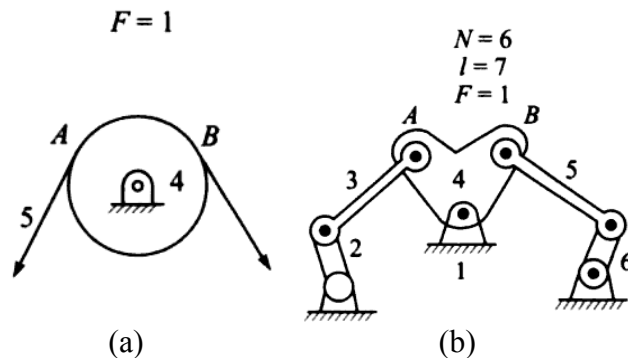


Fig. 2.28. Belt and pulley connection

$$F = 3(6 - 1) - 2(7) = 1.$$

Example 2.5. Define degrees of freedom of mechanisms shown in Fig. 2.29 (a), (b) and (c).

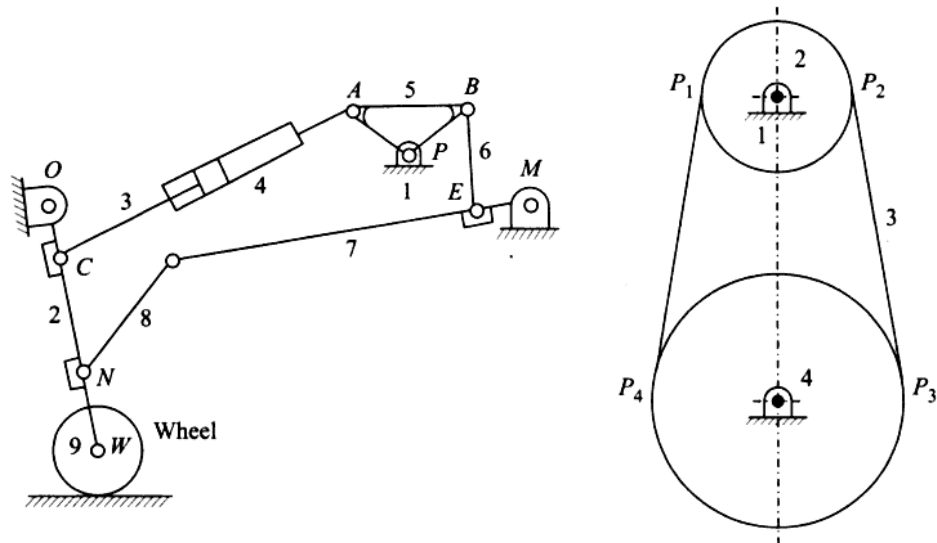
Solution: (a) In the case of undercarriage mechanism of aircraft in Fig. 2.29 (a), we note that the number of links $n = 9$, the total number of pairs of 1 d.o.f. is 11. The number of higher pair of 2 d.o.f. (between wheel and runway) is 1. Therefore

$$F = 3(9 - 1) - 2(11) - 1(1) = 1.$$

(b) In the case of belt-pulley drive, assuming the belt to be tight, the four links are marked as 1, 2, 3 and 4. The two distinct lower (turning) pairs are pivots of pulley 2 and 4. The points P_1, P_2, P_3 and P_4 at which belt enters/leaves pulley, constitute 4 higher pairs.

Thus, $n = 4$; $l = 2$; $h = 4$.

Therefore, $F = 3(4 - 1) - 2(2) - 4 = 1$.



(a) Undercarriage mechanism of aircraft (b) belt-pulley drive
Fig. 2.29. Degree of freedom of mechanisms

(c) In the case of mechanism at Fig. 2.29 (c), there is a double joint between links 4, 7, and 10. Therefore, this joint is equivalent to two simple joints. Besides above, there are 13 turning pairs.

Hence,

$$n = 12; l = 13 + 2 = 15.$$

Therefore,

$$F = 3(12 - 1) - 2(15) = 3.$$

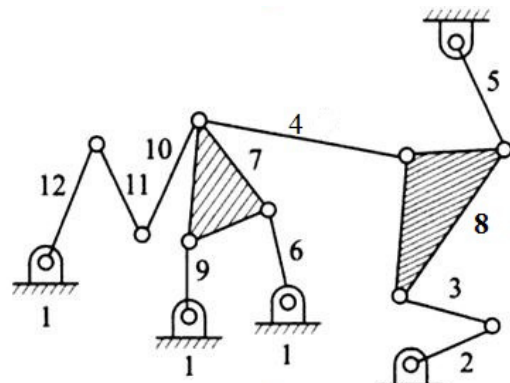


Fig. 2.29 (c). Mechanism with double pin joint

2.10. Mobility and Maneuverability of Manipulators

The most common kinds of spatial linkage mechanisms are manipulators, Fig. 2.30 (a). A manipulator is a spatial mechanism that performs actions similar to those of a human hand. Manipulators are designed to change the position of objects.

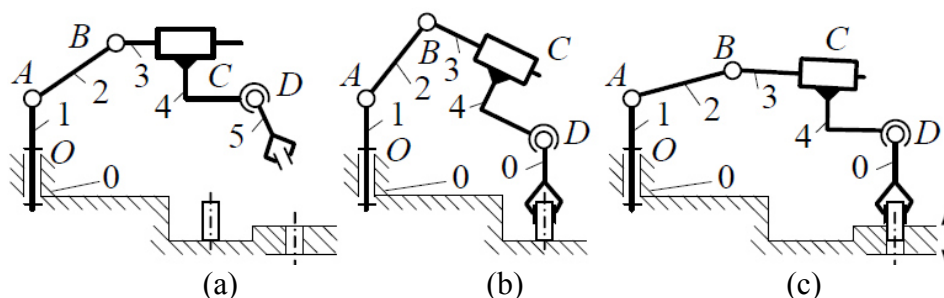


Fig. 2.30 (a). Scheme of the manipulator of an industrial robot

The links of manipulators of industrial robots form only open kinematic chains containing kinematic pairs of different classes, which allows such mechanisms to have mobility greater than one. Manipulators are characterized by the possibility of changing the structure of the mechanism in the process of its operation. In accordance with their functions two options are possible.

The first option: you need to change the position of a stationary object (Fig. 2.30 (a)). At the initial time, the object whose position you want to change lies on a fixed plane and is at rest. Accordingly, the object and the plane impose certain connections on each other. Moreover, if the relationship between the plane and the object does not change its kinematic state, then they can be considered as one fixed link, which is a frame. At the point in time corresponding to the capture by the output link of the item in question, this link also becomes stationary and must be considered as a rack element (Fig. 2.30 (b)). Accordingly, the number of mobile links in the structure of the mechanism decreases by one, and the open kinematic chain, which the mechanism had possessed up to this point, becomes closed, which leads to a decrease in its mobility. At the next instant, there will be a need to detach the object from a fixed plane with the aim of further motion. However, to perform such an action, a manipulator that has a closed kinematic chain at a given time must have a mobility of at least one.

As soon as the object is separated from the fixed plane, it will lose the pre-existing relationships with this plane, and in the future it must be considered together with the output link as one moving link. At the time of the restoration of the mobility of the output link the kinematic chain of the manipulator again becomes open, which leads to the former mobility of the mechanism and the ability to move an object according to a given law.

The second option: you want to install the object into a hole of a certain shape, made in a fixed surface. At instant corresponding to the installation by the output link of the object into the hole, the output link remains movable, and the kinematic chain of the manipulator closes (Fig. 2.30 (c)). In this case, the number of movable links does not change, and the mobility of the mechanism changes in proportion to the mobility of the new kinematic pair formed by the object and the fixed surface into which it installed. At the end of the connection of the output link with the object, the kinematic chain becomes open, and the mechanism restores its properties.

From the situations considered, it follows that ensuring the operability of the manipulator is possible only at the following condition: $m \geq 1$, where m is the maneuverability of the manipulator.

Maneuverability is the mobility of the manipulator with a fixed output link.

The maneuverability of spatial mechanisms is determined by the expression obtained on the basis of the Somov's formula.

2.11. Equivalent Mechanisms

Equivalent mechanisms are commonly employed to duplicate instantaneously the position, velocity, and acceleration of a direct-contact (higher pair) mechanism by a mechanism with lower pairs (say, a four-link mechanism). The dimensions of

equivalent mechanisms are obviously different at various positions of given higher paired mechanism. It is obvious because for every position of a higher paired mechanism, different equivalent linkages are used.

Much of the developments in the subject of theory of machines are focused on four-link mechanisms. Some of the reasons are as follows:

1) A four-link mechanism is the simplest possible lower paired mechanism and is widely used.

2) Many mechanisms which do not have any resemblance with a four-link mechanism have four links for their basic skeletons, so a theory developed for the four-link applies to them also.

3) Many mechanisms have equivalence in four-link mechanism in respect of certain motion aspects. Thus, as far as these motions are concerned, four-link theory is applicable.

4) Many complex mechanisms have four-link structure as a basic element. Theory of four-link mechanisms is, therefore, important in their design.

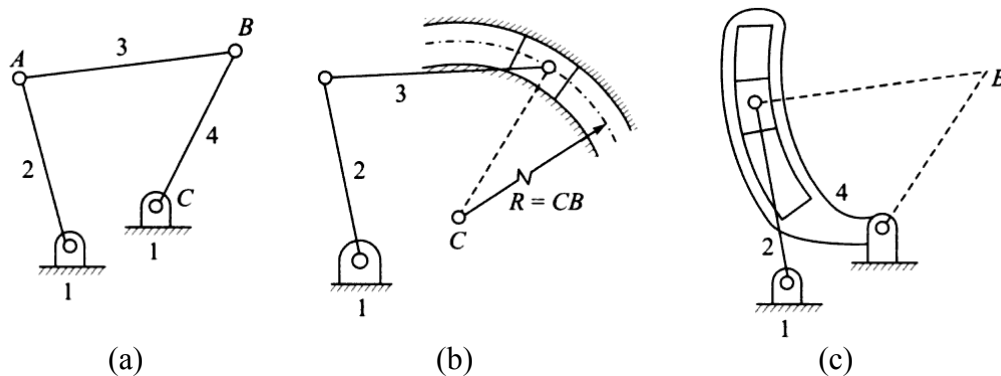


Fig. 2.31. Equivalent mechanisms having the four-link basic structure

Item 2) above, is illustrated in Figs. 2.31 (a), (b) and (c). In Fig. 2.31 (b), the link 4 in Fig. 2.31 (a) replaced by a curved slot and slider, with slot radius equal to link length. In Fig. 2.31 (c) the link 3 is replaced by a slider, sliding in curved slotted link 4 ensuring relative motion of rotation of pinned and A relative to B .

Item 3) is illustrated in Fig. 2.31. Mechanisms in which relative motion between driver and driven links 2 and 4 is identical are illustrated in Figs. 2.31 (a), (b) and (c).

In Fig. 2.32 (b) the centers of curvature of circular cam and roller constitute the end point of link AB ; link 3 becomes roller and link 2 becomes circular cam. For $d.o.f. = 1$, however, the rolling pair in (b) should be without slip.

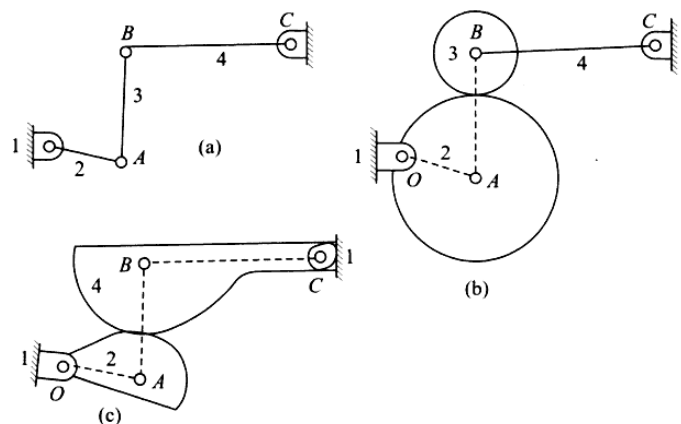


Fig. 2.32. Mechanisms having identical relative motions between driver and driven link

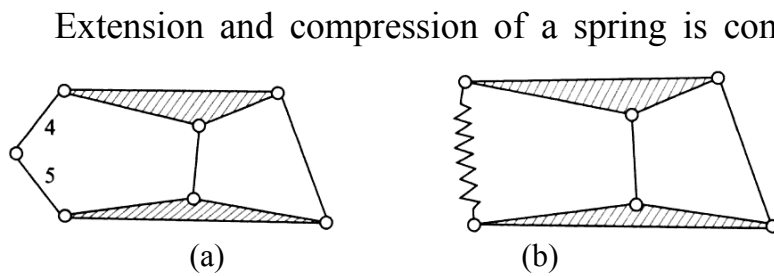


Fig. 2.33. Spring to replace a pair of binary links and ternary pairs

Extension and compression of a spring is comparable to variation in length between the revolute pairs accomplished by a pair of binary links connected through another revolute pair. For instance pair of binary links 4 and 5 of

the chain shown in Figs. 2.33 (a) and (b) can be replaced by a spring to obtain an equivalent mechanism.

When the belt or chain is maintained tightly without slipping, a ternary link with three revolute pairs is the instantaneous-velocity equivalent lower pair connection to the belt and pulley.

2.12. Inversion of Mechanisms

It has been discussed that when one of links is fixed in a kinematic chain, it is called a mechanism. So we can obtain as many mechanisms as the number of links in a kinematic chain can be fixed. This method of obtaining different mechanisms by fixing different links in a kinematic chain is known as *inversion of the mechanism*. It may be noted that the relative motions between the various links is not changed in any manner through the process of inversion, but their absolute motions (those measured with respect to the fixed link) may be changed drastically.

The part of a mechanism which initially moves with respect to the frame or fixed link is called *driver* and that part of the mechanism to which motion is transmitted is called *follower*. Most of the mechanisms are reversible, so that same link can play the role of a driver and follower at different times. For example, in a reciprocating steam engine, the piston is the driver and flywheel is a follower while in a reciprocating air compressor, the flywheel is a driver.

Important aspects of the concept of inversion can be summarized as follows:

1) The concept of inversion enables us to categorize a group of mechanisms arising out of inversions of a parent kinematic chain as a family of mechanisms. Members of this family have a common characteristic in respect of relative motion.

2) In case of direct inversions, as relative velocity and relative acceleration between two links remain the same, it follows that complex problems of velocity/acceleration analysis may often be simplified, by considering a kinematically simpler direct inversion of the original mechanism.

3) In many cases of inversions by changing proportions of lengths of links, desirable features of the inversion may be accentuated and many useful mechanisms may be developed.

The most important kinematic chains are those which consist of four lower pairs each pair being a sliding or a revolute one. The following three types of kinematic chains with four lower pairs are important from the subject point of view:

- 1) Four-link chain or quadric cyclic chain,
- 2) Single slider crank chain, and
- 3) Double slider crank chain.

These kinematic chains are discussed, in detail, in the following sections.

2.13. Quadric Cyclic Chain

We have already discussed that the kinematic chain is a combination of four or more kinematic pairs, such that the relative motion between the links or elements is completely constrained. The simplest and the basic kinematic chain is a four-link chain or quadric cycle chain, as shown in Fig. 2.34. It consists of four links, each of them forms a turning (revolute) pair at A, B, C and D . The four links may be of different lengths. According to *Grashof's law* for a four-link mechanism, the sum of the shortest and longest link lengths should not be greater than the sum of the remaining two link lengths if there is to be continuous relative motion between the two links. Thus, if s and l are the length of shortest and longest links respectively and p and q are the remaining two link lengths, then one of the links, in particular the shortest link, will rotate continuously relative to the other three links, if and only if

$$s + l \leq p + q.$$

If this inequality is not satisfied, the chain is called non-Grashof's chain in which none of the links can have complete revolution relative to other links. It is important to note that the Grashof's law does not specify the order in which the links are to be connected. Thus any of the links having the length l , p and q can be the link opposite to the link of the length s . A chain satisfying Grashof's law generates three distinct inversions only. A non-Grashof's chain, on the other hand, generates only one distinct inversion, namely the «rocker-rocker mechanism».

A very important consideration in designing a mechanism is to ensure that the input crank makes a complete revolution relative to the other links. The mechanism in which no link makes a complete revolution will not be useful. In a four-link chain, one of the links, in particular the shortest link, will make a complete revolution relative to the other three links, if it satisfies the Grashof's law. Such a link is known as *crank* or *driver*. In Fig. 2.34 AD (link 4) is a crank. The link BC (link 2) which makes a partial rotation or oscillates is known as *lever* or *rocker* or *follower* and the link CD (link 3) which connects the crank and lever is called *connecting rod* or *coupler*. The fixed link AB (link 1) is known as *frame* of the mechanism. When the crank (link 4) is the driver, the mechanism is transforming rotational motion into oscillating one.

Though there are many inversions of the four-link chain, yet the following are important from the subject point of view:

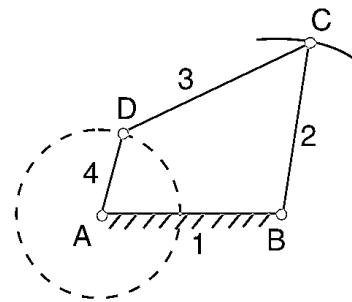


Fig. 2.34. Four-link mechanism

1. *Double crank mechanism (Coupling rod of a locomotive)*. The mechanism of a coupling rod of a locomotive (also known as double crank mechanism) which consists of four links is shown in Fig. 2.35.

In this mechanism, the links AD and BC (having equal length) act as cranks and are connected to the respective wheels. The link CD acts as a coupling rod and the link AB is fixed in order to maintain a constant center to center distance between them. This mechanism is designed for transmitting rotational motion from one wheel to the other one.

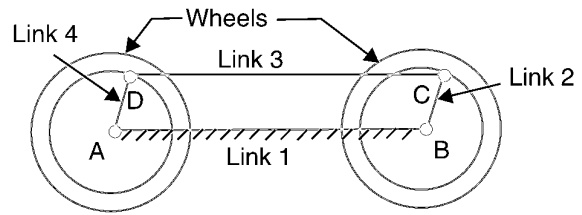


Fig. 2.35. Coupling rod of a locomotive

2. *Crank-rocker mechanism (Beam engine)*. A part of the mechanism of a beam engine (also known as cranks and lever mechanism), which consists of four links, is shown in Fig. 2.36. In this mechanism, when the crank rotates about the fixed centre O , the lever oscillates about a fixed centre C . The end D of the lever BCD is connected to a piston rod which reciprocates due to the rotation of the crank. In other words, the purpose of this mechanism is to convert rotational motion into reciprocating one.

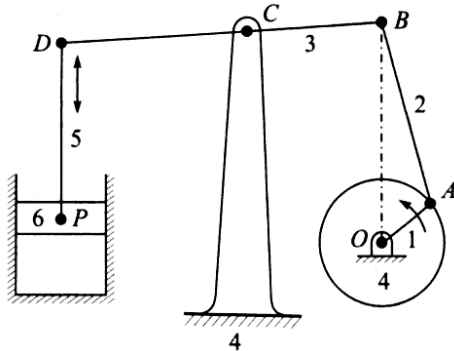


Fig. 2.36. Beam engine mechanism

3. *Double rocker mechanism*. When the link opposite to the shortest one is fixed a double rocker mechanism results. None of the two links (driver and driven) connected to the frame can have complete revolution but the coupler link can have full revolution, (Fig. 2.37)).

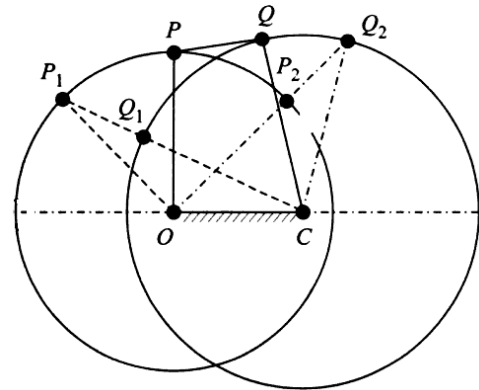


Fig. 2.37. Double rocker mechanism

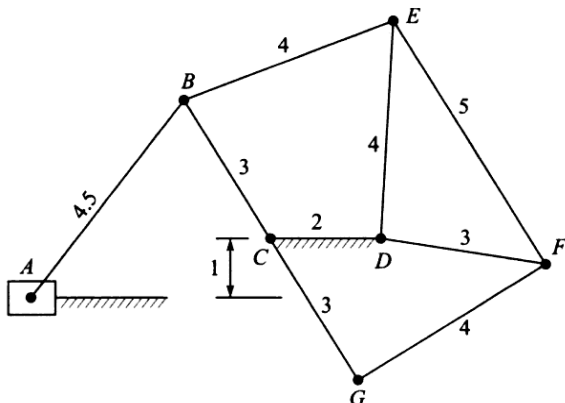


Fig. 2.38. Application of Grashof's law

Example 2.6. Figure 2.38 shows a plane mechanism with link-lengths given in some unit. If the slider A is a driver, will the link CG revolve or oscillate?

Solution: The loop formed by three links DE , EF and FD represents a structure. Thus the loop can be taken to represent a ternary link.

In the 4-link loop $CDEB$, $s = 2$; $l = 4$; and $p + q = 7$. Thus the 4-link loop

portion $CDEB$ satisfies Grashof's criterion. And as the shortest link CD is fixed, link CB is capable of complete revolution. Also, 4-link loop $CDFG$ satisfies Grashof's criterion ($l + s = p + q$) and the shortest link CD is fixed. Thus whether considered a part of 4-link loop $CDFB$ or that of $CDFG$, link BCG is capable of full revolution

Example 2.7. In a 4-link mechanism, the lengths of driver crank, coupler and follower are 150 mm, 250 mm and 300 mm respectively. The fixed link-length is L_0 . Find the range of values for L_0 , so as to make it a – 1) crank-rocker mechanism, and 2) crank-crank mechanism.

Solution: 1) For crank-rocker mechanism the conditions to be satisfied are:

(a) Link adjacent to fixed link must be the smallest link and, (b) $s + l \leq p + q$.

We have to consider both the possibilities, namely, when L_0 is the longest link and when L_0 is not the longest link.

When L_0 is the longest link, it follows from Grashof's criterion,

$$L_0 + 150 \leq 250 + 300 \text{ or } L_0 \leq 400 \text{ mm.}$$

When L_0 is not the longest link, it follows from Grashof's criterion,

$$300 + 150 \leq L_0 + 250 \text{ or } L_0 \geq 200 \text{ mm.}$$

Thus, for crank-rocker mechanism, the range of values for L_0 is

$$200 \leq L_0 \leq 400 \text{ mm.}$$

2) For crank-crank mechanism, the conditions to be satisfied are

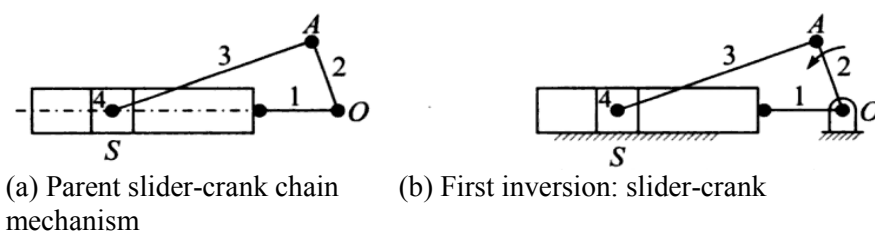
(a) Shortest link must be the frame link and, (b) $s + l \leq p + q$.

Thus, $L_0 + 300 \leq 150 + 250$ or $L_0 \leq 100$ mm.

2.14. Inversion of Single Slider Crank Chain

A single slider crank chain is a modification of the basic four-link chain. It consists of one sliding pair and three revolute (turning) pairs. It is, usually, found in reciprocating steam engine mechanisms. This type of mechanism converts rotational motion into reciprocating motion and vice versa.

We know that by fixing, in turn, different links in a kinematic chain, an inversion is obtained and we can obtain as many mechanisms as the links in a kinematic chain. It is thus obvious, that four inversions of a single slider crank chain are possible. These inversions are found in the following mechanisms.



(a) Parent slider-crank chain mechanism (b) First inversion: slider-crank mechanism

Fig. 2.39. First inversion of a slider crank mechanism

A parent chain is shown in Fig. 2.39 (a). *First Inversion.* It is obtained by fixing link 1 of the chain and the result is the crank-slider mechanism shown in Fig. 2.39 (b).

This mechanism is very commonly used in I.C. engines, steam engines and reciprocating compressor mechanism.

Second Inversion. It is obtained by fixing the connecting rod 3. The mechanism

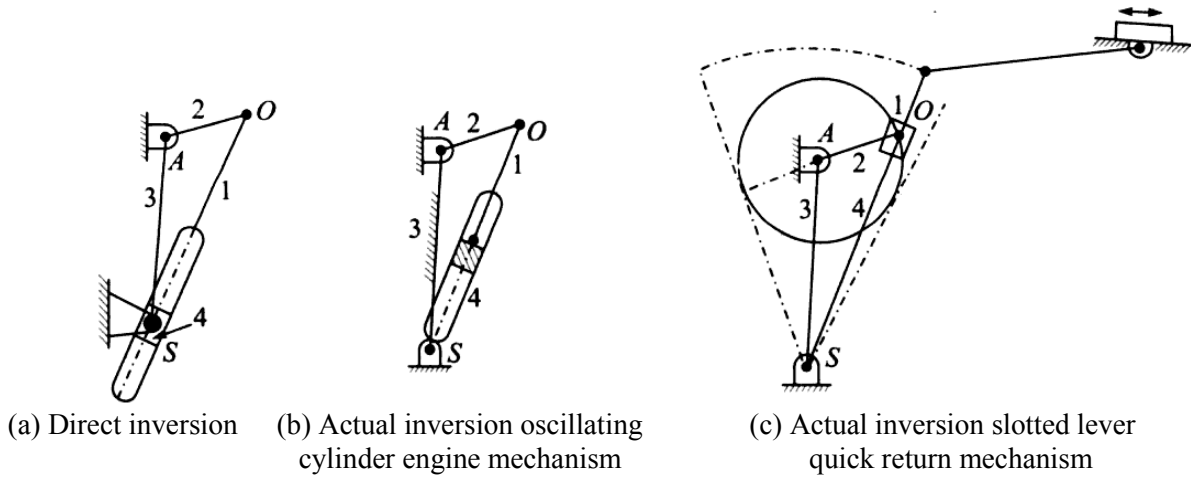


Fig. 2.40. Second inversion of a slider crank mechanism

obtained by direct inversion, as shown in Fig. 2.40 (a), has some practical difficulties. For instance, the oscillating cylinder will have to be slotted for clearing the pin through which slider is pivoted to the frame. The problem can be resolved if one remembers that any suitable alteration in shapes of links ensuring the same type of pairs between links 3 and 4 and also between links 1 and 4, is permissible. This gives an inversion at Fig. 2.40 (b). The resulting mechanism is oscillating cylinder engine mechanism. It is used in hoisting mechanism. In hoisting purposes its main advantage lies in its compactness of construction as it permits simple scheme of supplying steam to the cylinder.

Second application of the above inversion lays in slotted lever quick return mechanism, shown in Fig. 2.40 (c). The extreme position of lever 4 is decided by the tangents drawn from lever-pivot to the crank-circle on either side. Respective positions of crank 1 include angles, which correspond to cutting stroke angle and return stroke angle.

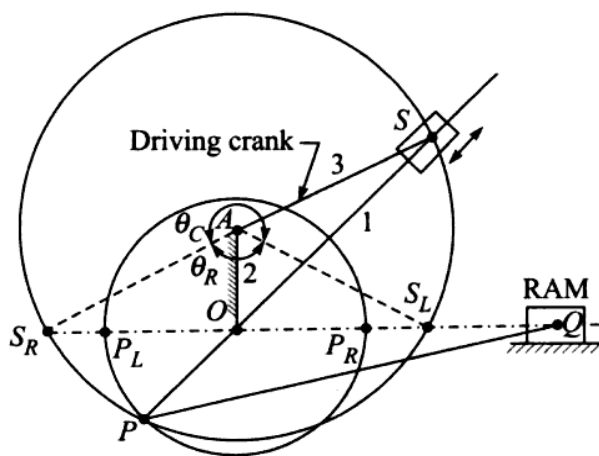


Fig. 2.41. Third inversion of a slider crank mechanism

Third Inversion. The third inversion is obtained by fixing crank 2. It is the slider-crank equivalent of

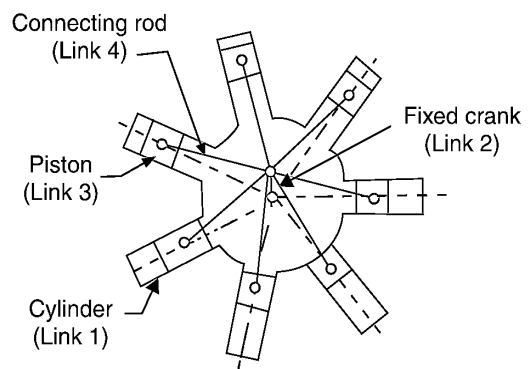
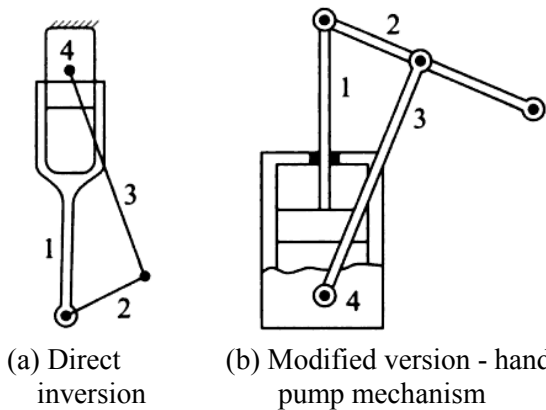


Fig. 2.42. Rotary internal combustion engine

Drag-link mechanism and forms the basis of *Whitworth Quick Return Mechanism*. Basic inversion is given by portion OAS . To derive advantage however, the slotted link 1 is extended up to P and here it is connected to reciprocating tool-post through a connecting link PQ and two revolute pairs. The cutting stroke angle θ_C and return stroke angle θ_R are shown in Fig. 2.41.

A yet another application of the third inversion is in Rotary internal combustion engine or Gnome engine (Fig. 2.42).

Fourth Inversion. The fourth inversion is obtained by fixing the slider 4. Fixing of slider implies that the slider should be position-fixed and also fixed in respect of rotation. The direct inversion is shown in Fig. 2.43 (a). This form has certain practical difficulties explained earlier. To overcome these difficulties, the shapes of piston and cylinder are exchanged as shown in Fig. 2.43 (b). This represents a hand pump mechanism.



(a) Direct inversion
(b) Modified version - hand pump mechanism
Fig. 2.43. Forth inversion of a slider crank mechanism

2.15. Applications of Single Slider Crank Chain Inversion

Consider crank and slotted lever quick return mechanism in detail. This mechanism is mostly used in shaping machines, slotting machines and in rotary internal combustion engines.

The link AC , i.e. link 3, forming the revolute pair is fixed, as shown in Fig. 2.44. This link corresponds to the connecting rod of a reciprocating steam engine. The driving crank CB revolves with uniform angular speed about the fixed center C .

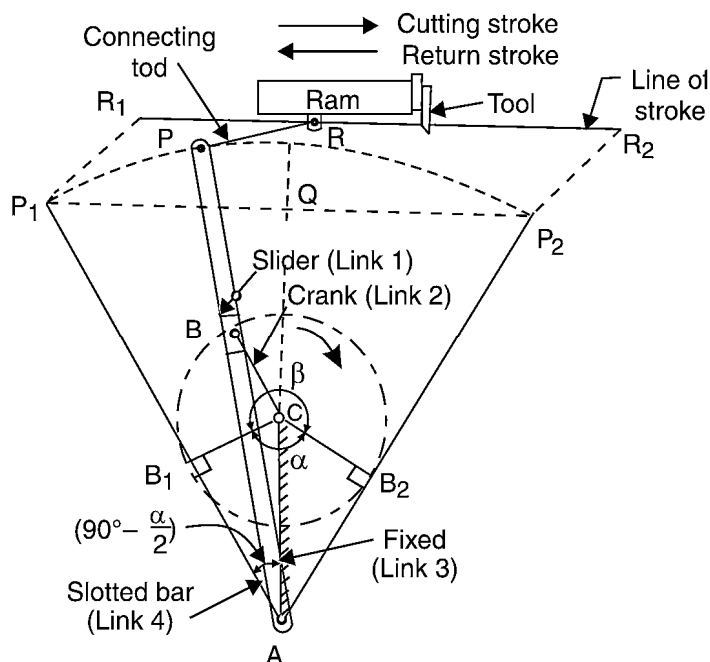


Fig. 2.44. Crank and slotted lever quick return mechanism

A sliding block attached to the crankpin at B slides along the slotted bar AP and thus causes AP to oscillate about the pivoted point A . A short link PR transmits the motion from AP to the ram which carries the

tool and reciprocates along the line of stroke R_1R_2 . In the extreme positions, AP_1 and AP_2 are tangential to the circle and the cutting tool is at the end of the stroke. The forward or cutting stroke occurs when the crank rotates from the position CB_1 to CB_2 (or through the angle β) in the clockwise direction. The return stroke occurs when the crank rotates from the position CB_2 to CB_1 (or through the angle α) in the clockwise direction. Since the crank has uniform angular speed, we get

$$\frac{\text{Time of cutting stroke}}{\text{Time of return stroke}} = \frac{\beta}{\alpha} = \frac{\beta}{360^\circ - \beta} = \frac{360^\circ - \alpha}{\alpha}$$

Since the tool travels a distance of R_1R_2 during cutting and return stroke, therefore travel of the tool or length of stroke is

$$\begin{aligned} R_1R_2 = P_1P_2 = 2P_1Q &= 2AP_1 \sin \angle P_1AQ = 2AP_1 \sin \left(90^\circ - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) = 2AP \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} = \\ &= 2AP \times \frac{CB_1}{AC} = 2AP \times \frac{CB}{AC}. \end{aligned}$$

From Fig. 2.44, we see that the angle β made by the forward or cutting stroke is greater than the angle α described by the return stroke. Since the crank rotates with uniform angular speed, therefore the return stroke is completed within shorter time. Thus it is called quick return motion mechanism.

Now consider *Whitworth quick return motion mechanism*. In this mechanism,

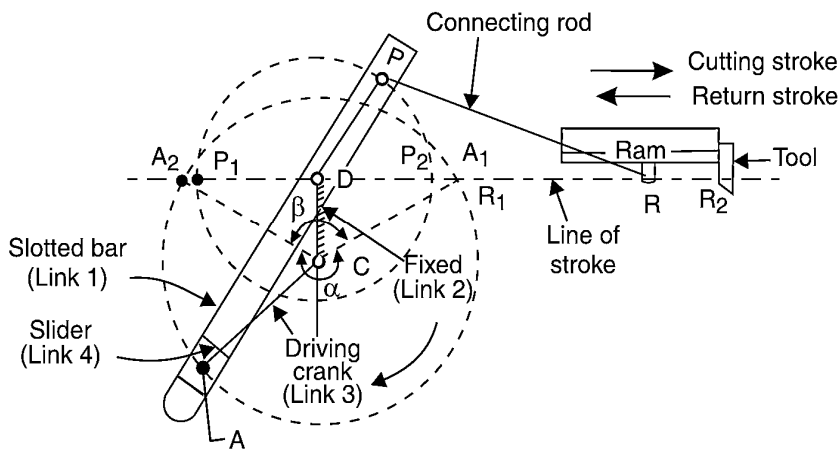


Fig. 2.45. Whitworth quick return motion mechanism.

the link CD (link 2) forming the revolute pair is fixed, as shown in Fig. 2.45. The link 2 corresponds to a crank in a reciprocating steam engine. The driving crank CA (link 3) rotates at a uniform angular speed. The slider (link 4) attached to the crank pin at A slides along the slotted bar PA (link 1) which oscillates at a

pivoted point D . The connecting rod PR carries the ram at R to which a cutting tool is fixed. The motion of the tool is constrained along the line RD produced, *i.e.* along a line passing through D and perpendicular to CD .

When the driving crank CA moves from the position CA_1 to CA_2 (or the link DP from the position DP_1 to DP_2) through an angle α in the clockwise direction, the tool moves from the left hand end of its stroke to the right hand end through a distance $2PD$. Now when the driving crank moves from the position CA_2 to CA_1 (or the link DP from DP_2 to DP_1) through an angle β in the clockwise direction, the

tool moves back from right hand end of its stroke to the left hand end. It is apparent that the time taken during the left to right movement of the ram (*i.e.* during forward or cutting stroke) will be equal to the time taken by the driving crank to move from CA_1 to CA_2 . Similarly, the time taken during the right to left movement of the ram (or during the return stroke) will be equal to the time taken by the driving crank to move from CA_2 to CA_1 . Since the crank link CA rotates at uniform angular velocity therefore time taken during the cutting stroke (or forward stroke) is more than the time taken during the return stroke. In other words, the mean speed of the ram during cutting stroke is less than the mean speed during the return stroke. The ratio between the time taken during the cutting and return strokes is given by

$$\frac{\text{Time of cutting stroke}}{\text{Time of return stroke}} = \frac{\alpha}{\beta} = \frac{360^\circ - \alpha}{\alpha} = \frac{360^\circ - \beta}{\beta}.$$

In order to find the length of effective stroke R_1R_2 , mark $P_1R_1 = P_2R_2 = PR$. The length of effective stroke is also equal to $2PD$.

Example 2.8. A crank and slotted lever mechanism used in a shaper has a center distance of 300 mm between the center of oscillation of the slotted lever and the center of rotation of the crank. The radius of the crank is 120 mm. Find the ratio of the time of cutting to the time of return stroke.

Solution. Given: $AC = 300$ mm; $CB_1 = 120$ mm. The extreme positions of the crank are shown in Fig. 2.46.

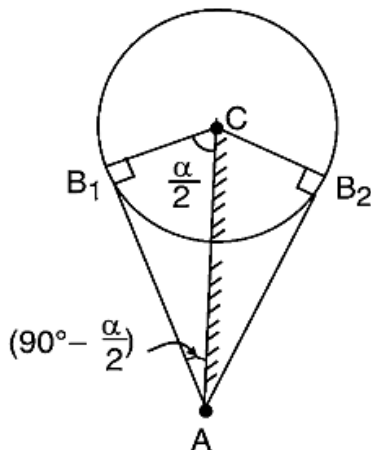


Fig. 2.46. Extreme positions of the crank

We know that

$$\sin \angle CAB_1 = \sin(90^\circ - \alpha/2) = \frac{CB_1}{AC} = \frac{120}{300} = 0.4,$$

whence $\angle CAB_1 = 90^\circ - \alpha/2 = \sin^{-1} 0.4 = 23.6^\circ$

or $\alpha/2 = 90^\circ - 23.6^\circ = 66.4^\circ$ and

$$\alpha = 2 \times 66.4^\circ = 132.8^\circ.$$

Finally we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\text{Time of cutting stroke}}{\text{Time of return stroke}} &= \frac{360^\circ - \alpha}{\alpha} = \\ &= \frac{360^\circ - 132.8^\circ}{132.8^\circ} = 1.72. \end{aligned}$$

Example 2.9. In a crank and slotted lever quick return motion mechanism, the distance between the fixed centers is 240 mm and the length of the driving crank is 120 mm. Find the inclination of the slotted bar with the vertical in the extreme position and the time ratio of cutting stroke to the return stroke. If the length of the slotted bar is 450 mm, find the length of the stroke if the line of stroke passes through the extreme positions of the free end of the lever.

Solution. Given: $AC = 240$ mm; $CB_1 = 120$ mm; $AP_1 = 450$ mm.

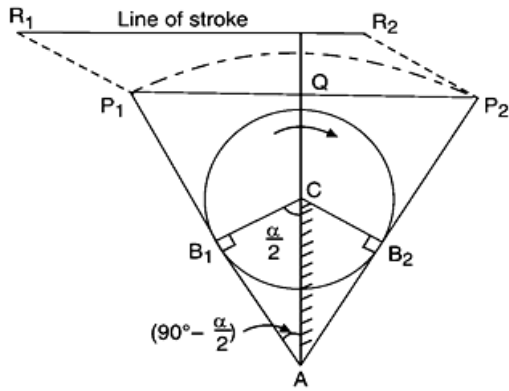


Fig. 2.47. Extreme positions of the crank

$$\alpha/2 = 90^\circ - 30^\circ = 60^\circ \text{ or } \alpha = 2 \times 60^\circ = 120^\circ.$$

$$\frac{\text{Time of cutting stroke}}{\text{Time of return stroke}} = \frac{360^\circ - \alpha}{\alpha} = \frac{360^\circ - 120^\circ}{120^\circ} = 2.$$

The length of the stroke,

$$\begin{aligned} R_1R_2 &= P_1P_2 = 2P_1Q = 2AP_1 \sin(90^\circ - \alpha/2) = \\ &= 2 \times 450 \sin(90^\circ - 60^\circ) = 900 \times 0.5 = 450 \text{ mm.} \end{aligned}$$

Example 2.10. Fig. 2.48 shows the layout of a quick return mechanism of the oscillating link type. The driving crank BC is 30 mm long and time ratio of the working stroke to the return stroke is to be 1.7. If the length of the working stroke of R is 120 mm, determine the dimensions of AC and AP .

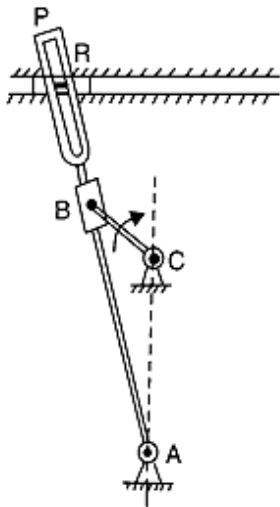


Fig. 2.48. Quick return mechanism

We get:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\text{Time of cutting stroke}}{\text{Time of return stroke}} &= \frac{360^\circ - \alpha}{\alpha} \\ \text{or } 1.7 &= \frac{360 - \alpha}{\alpha} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence, } \alpha = 133.3^\circ \text{ or } \alpha/2 = 66.65^\circ.$$

The extreme positions of the crank are shown in Fig. 2.49. From right angled triangle AB_1C , we find that

Let $\angle CAB_1$ be an inclination of the slotted bar with the vertical. The extreme positions of the crank are shown in Fig. 2.47. From the Fig. 2.47 it follows:

$$\sin \angle CAB_1 = \sin\left(90^\circ - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right) = \frac{B_1C}{AC} = \frac{120}{240} = 0.5,$$

hence,

$$\angle CAB_1 = 90^\circ - \frac{\alpha}{2} = \sin^{-1} 0.5 = 30^\circ.$$

Therefore, $90^\circ - \alpha/2 = 30^\circ$, then

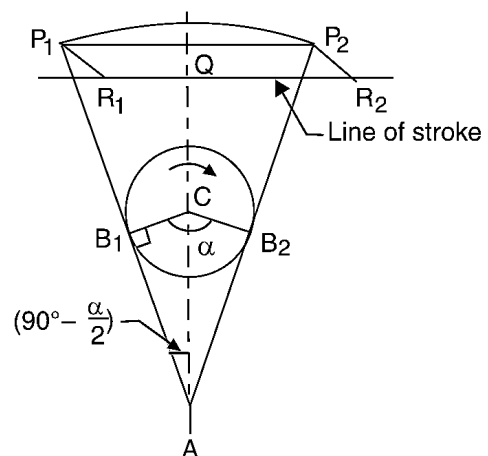


Fig. 2.49. Extreme positions of the crank

$$\sin(90^\circ - \alpha/2) = \frac{B_1C}{AC} \text{ or } AC = \frac{B_1C}{\sin(90^\circ - \alpha/2)} = \frac{BC}{\cos \alpha/2}.$$

Since $B_1C = BC$ we obtain

$$AC = \frac{30}{\cos 66.65^\circ} = \frac{30}{0.3963} = 75.7 \text{ mm.}$$

We know that length of stroke is

$$R_1R_2 = P_1P_2 = 2P_1Q = 2AP_1 \sin(90^\circ - \alpha/2) = 2AP_1 \cos \alpha/2, \text{ but } AP_1 = AP.$$

Then

$$120 = 2AP \cos 66.65^\circ = 0.7926AP \text{ and } AP = 120 / 0.7926 = 151.4 \text{ mm.}$$

Example 2.11. In a Whitworth quick return motion mechanism, as shown in

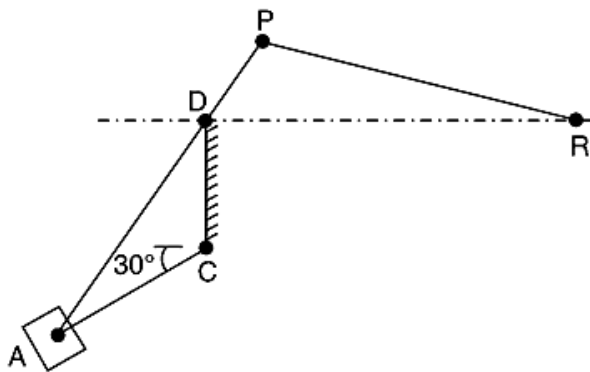


Fig. 2.50. Whitworth quick return motion mechanism

Fig. 2.50, the distance between the fixed centers is 50 mm and the length of the driving crank is 75 mm. The length of the slotted lever is 150 mm and the length of the connecting rod is 135 mm. Find the ratio of the time of cutting stroke to the time of return stroke and also the effective stroke.

Solution. Given: $CD = 50$ mm; $CA = 75$ mm; $PA = 150$ mm; $PR = 135$ mm.

The extreme positions of the driving crank are shown in Fig. 2.50. From the geometry of the figure,

$$\cos \beta/2 = \frac{CD}{CA_2} = \frac{50}{75} = 0.667,$$

$$\text{then } \beta = 96.4^\circ$$

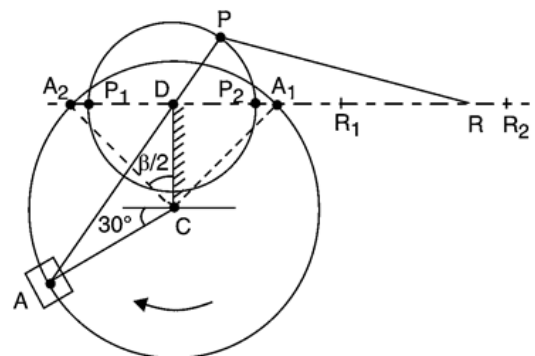


Fig. 2.51. Extreme positions of the driving crank

We know that

$$\frac{\text{Time of cutting stroke}}{\text{Time of return stroke}} = \frac{360 - \beta}{\beta} = \frac{360^\circ - 96.4^\circ}{96.4^\circ} = 2.735.$$

In order to find the length of effective stroke (*i.e.* R_1R_2), draw the space diagram of the mechanism to some suitable scale, as shown in Fig. 2.51. Mark $P_1R_2 = P_2R_2 = PR$. Therefore by measurement we find that,

Length of effective stroke is $R_1R_2 = 87.5$ mm.

2.16. Inversions of Double Slider Crank Chain

A kinematic chain which consists of two revolute (turning) pairs and two sliding pairs is known as *double slider crank chain*, as shown in Fig. 2.52. We see that the link 2 and link 1 form one turning pair and link 2 and link 3 form the second turning pair. The link 3 and link 4 form one sliding pair and link 1 and link 4 form the second sliding pair.

The following three inversions of a double slider crank chain are important from the subject point of view:

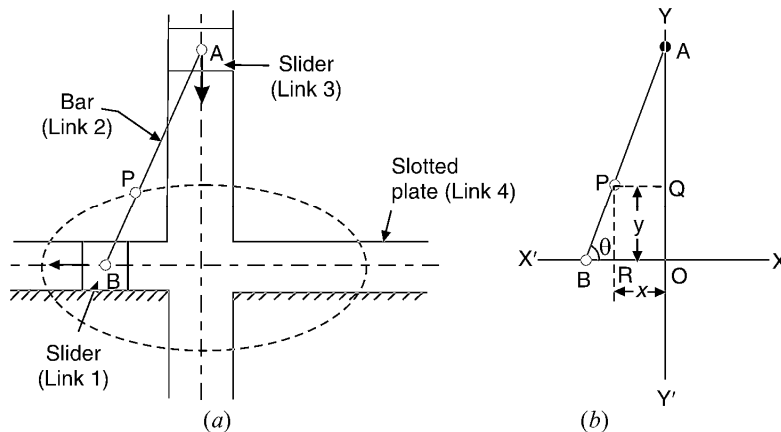


Fig. 2.52. Elliptical trammels

First inversion (Elliptical trammels). It is an instrument used for drawing ellipses. This inversion is obtained by fixing the slotted plate (link 4), as shown in Fig. 2.52. The fixed plate or link 4 has two straight grooves cut in it, at right angles to each other. The

link 1 and link 3 are known as sliders and form sliding pairs with the link 4. The link AB (link 2) is a bar which forms turning pair with links 1 and 3. When the links 1 and 3 slide along their respective grooves, any point on the link 2 such as P traces out an ellipse on the surface of link 4, as shown in Fig. 2.52 (a). It is apparent that AP and BP are the semi-major axis and semi-minor axis of the ellipse respectively. This can be proved as follows.

Let us take OX and OY as horizontal and vertical axes and let the link BA be inclined at an angle θ with the horizontal, as shown in Fig. 2.52 (b). Now the coordinates of the point P on the link BA will be

$$x = PQ = AP \cos \theta; \text{ and } y = PR = BP \sin \theta \text{ or}$$

$$\frac{x}{AP} = \cos \theta; \text{ and } \frac{y}{BP} = \sin \theta.$$

Squaring and adding, we obtain:

$$\frac{x^2}{(AP)^2} + \frac{y^2}{(BP)^2} = \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1.$$

This is the equation of an ellipse. Hence, the path traced by the point P is an ellipse whose semi-major axis is AP and semi-minor axis is BP .

If P is a mid-point of the link BA , then $AP = BP$. The above equation can be written as

$$\frac{x^2}{(AP)^2} + \frac{y^2}{(AP)^2} = 1 \text{ or } x^2 + y^2 = (AP)^2.$$

This is the equation of a circle whose radius is AP . Hence if P is the mid-point of the link BA , it will trace a circle.

Second inversion (Scotch yoke mechanism). This mechanism is used for converting rotational motion into a reciprocating one. The inversion is obtained by fixing either the link 1 or link 3. In Fig. 2.53, link 1 is fixed. In this mechanism, when the link 2, which corresponds to crank, rotates about B as center, the link 4, which corresponds to a frame, reciprocates. The fixed link 1 guides the frame.

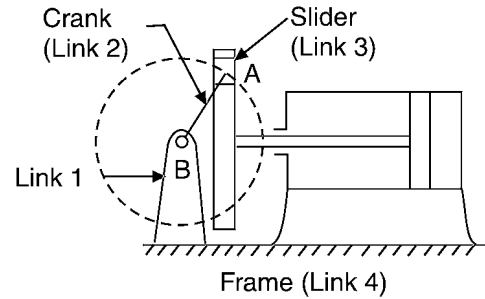


Fig. 2.53. Scotch yoke mechanism

Third inversion (Oldham's coupling). An Oldham's coupling is used for connecting two parallel shafts whose axes are at a small distance apart. The shafts are coupled in such a way that if one shaft rotates, the other shaft also rotates at the same speed. This inversion is obtained by fixing the link 2, as shown in Fig. 2.54 (a). The shafts to be connected have two flanges (the link 1 and

link 3) rigidly fastened at their ends by forging. The shafts are coupled in such a way that if one shaft rotates, the other shaft also rotates at the same speed. This inversion is obtained by fixing the link 2, as shown in Fig. 2.54 (a). The shafts to be connected have two flanges (the link 1 and

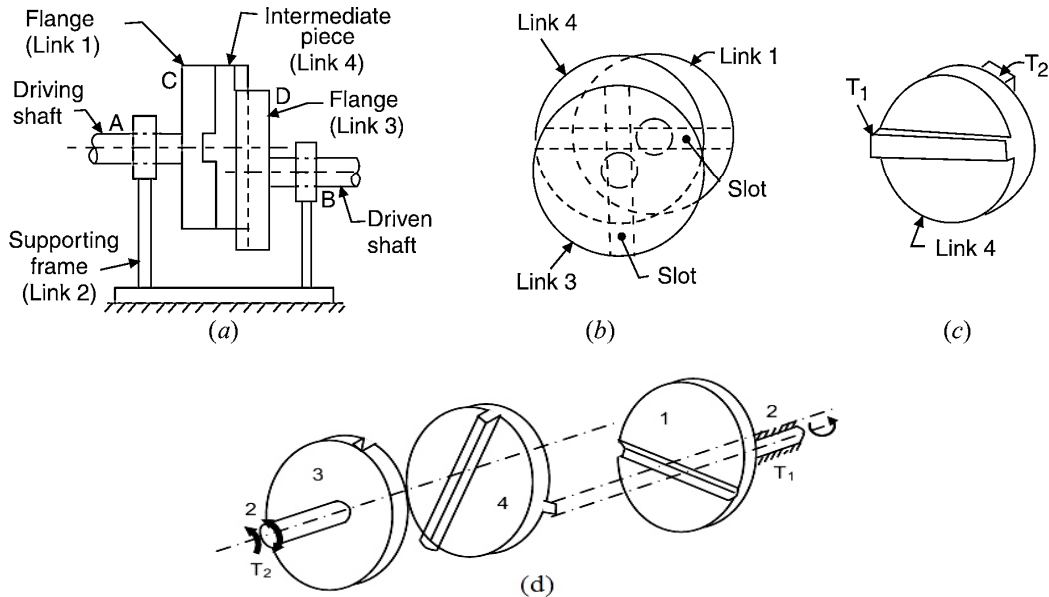


Fig. 2.54. Oldham's coupling

link 3) rigidly fastened at their ends by forging.

The link 1 and link 3 form turning pairs with link the 2. These flanges have diametrical slots cut in their inner faces, as shown in Fig. 2.54 (b). The intermediate piece (link 4), which is a circular disc, have two tongues (*i.e.* diametrical projections) T_1 and T_2 on each face at right angles to each other, as shown in Fig. 2.54 (c). The tongues on the link 4 closely fit into the slots in the two flanges (link 1 and link 3). The link 4 can slide or reciprocate in the slots in the flanges.

When the driving shaft A is rotated, the flange C (link 1) causes the intermediate piece (link 4) to rotate at the same angle through which the flange has rotated, and it further rotates the flange D (link 3) at the same angle and thus the shaft B rotates. Hence, the links 1, 3 and 4 have the same angular velocity at every instant. There is a sliding motion between the link 4 and each of the links 1 and 3. If

the distance between the axes of the shafts is constant, the center of intermediate piece will describe a circle of radius equal to the distance between the axes of the two shafts. Therefore, the maximum sliding speed of each tongue along its slot is equal to the peripheral velocity of the center of the disc along its circular path.

Let ω be an angular velocity of each shaft in rad/s, and r is a distance between the axes of the shafts in meters. Then maximum sliding speed of each tongue (in m/s) is

$$v = \omega \cdot r .$$

2.17. Structural Analysis by Assur-Artobolevsky

2.17.1. Composition Principle of Mechanisms

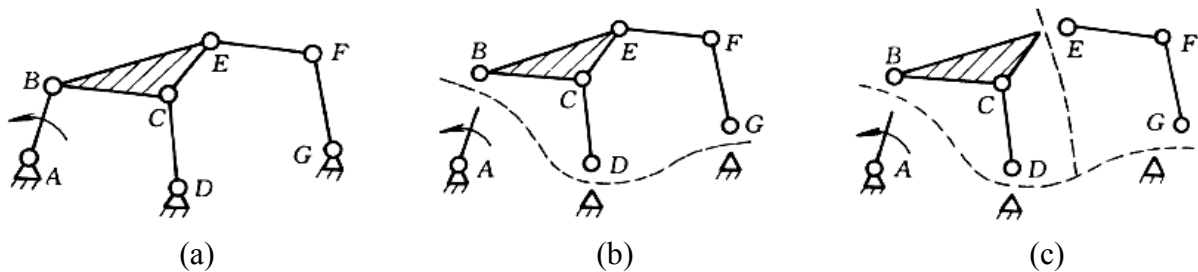


Fig. 2.55. Structural analysis of plane mechanism

The links and the kinematic pairs of a mechanism can be divided into two parts. The first part consists of the frame, the driver and the kinematic pair connecting the frame and the driver. Other links and pairs belong to the second part. The first part we will call the *basic mechanism* and the second part the system of driven links. The mechanism in Fig. 2.55 (a) can for example be divided into two such parts as shown in Fig. 2.55 (b). In such division and classification, the sum of links, the sum and types of kinematic pairs do not change. Therefore, the sum of the d.o.f. of the two parts should be equal to the d.o.f. of the original mechanism.

We have learned that in any mechanism which has a determined motion, the number of drivers must be equal to the d.o.f. of the mechanism. In the basic mechanism, the driver is always connected to the frame by a lower pair. Every driver (and its corresponding lower pair) has one d.o.f. Thus the d.o.f. of the basic mechanism is equal to the number of drivers, or equal to the d.o.f. of the original mechanism. The d.o.f. of the system of driven links must thus be zero. In some cases, the system of driven links can be divided into smaller groups. If the d.o.f. of each group is zero and no group can be divided further into two or more zero-d.o.f. groups, then such groups are called Assur-Artobolevsky's groups. For example, the system of driven links in Fig. 2.55 (b) can be further divided into two Assur's groups as shown in Fig. 2.55 (c).

In each Assur's group, one or more pairs are used to connect the links within the group. Such a pair is called an inner one. For example, the pair C in the group DCB and the pair F in the group GFE are the inner pairs for the groups concerned. Some pairs in an Assur group are used to connect the group to determined links. Such

pairs are called outer ones. For example, the group DCB is connected to the determined links (the frame and the driver) by lower pairs B and D . The pairs B and D are therefore the outer pairs of the group DCB . When the group DCB is connected to the determined links by the outer pairs D and B a four-bar mechanism $ABCD$ is created and all links in the group DCB become determined. The group GFE is then connected to the determined link BCE and the frame by lower pairs E and G . The pairs E and G are therefore the outer pairs of the group GFE . Note that the revolute pair E is not an outer pair of the group DCB . From the assembly order of the Assur's groups, we can see that the group DCB is the first group, while the group GFE is the second group.

Hence, as mentioned above, any mechanism which has a determined motion can be assembled from a basic mechanism by connecting Assur's groups to the determined links using outer pairs, group by group. This is the composition principle of mechanisms. Only after the former group is assembled the following one can be constructed, and so on.

2.17.2. Classification of Structural Assur's Groups

In a lower-pair Assur's group, $F = 3n - 2l = 0$. Therefore, $l = \frac{3n}{2}$. Since l and n are integers, the number n of links must be even. The groups in Fig. 2.55 (c) are the simplest lower-pair groups in which there are two links and three pairs.

If $n = 4$, the lower-pair group has two different constructions as shown in Fig.

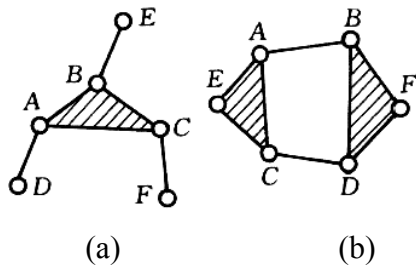


Fig. 2.56. Structural groups

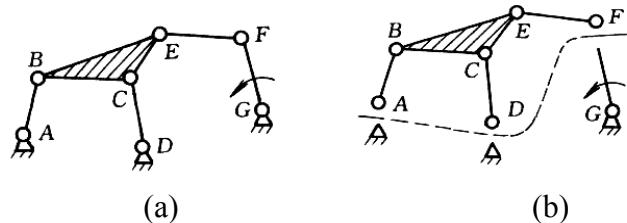


Fig. 2.57. Changing composition of mechanism

2.56. In Fig. 2.56 (a), lower pairs A, B and C are used to connect links within the group. They are the inner pairs of the group. The group will be connected to determined links by lower pairs D, E and F . Thus, the lower pairs D, E and F are the outer pairs of the group. In Fig. 2.56 (b), the lower pairs A, B, C and D are the inner pairs, while the lower pairs E and F are the outer pairs. Assur groups have different grades according to different number of links and different structure. The groups in Fig. 2.55 (c), Fig. 2.56 (a) and Fig. 2.56 (b) are classified as structural groups of the 2-nd, 3-rd and 4-th class, respectively. For the same kinematic chain, the composition can be changed if the frame and/or the driving link are changed. For example, the kinematic chain in Fig. 2.56 (a) is the same as that in Fig. 2.55 (a) but the driver in Fig. 2.57 (a) is the link GF . So the mechanism in Fig. 2.57 (a) is

composed of a basic mechanism and a structural group of the 3-rd class, as shown in Fig. 2.57 (b).

The class of a mechanism is defined by the highest class of the group in mechanism. Hence, the mechanism in Fig. 2.55 is the 2-nd class mechanism, while the mechanism in Fig. 2.57 is of the 3-rd class. The basic mechanism is sometimes called the mechanism of the 1-st class, e.g., a ceiling fan (consisting of only a single rotating link) is the 1-st class mechanism.

If all pairs in structural group are the revolute ones, this group is called the basic form of structural group. If one or more revolute pairs are replaced by sliding, some derivative forms of groups can be created. The group types, schematic diagrams, inner and outer pairs of some commonly used groups of the 2-nd class are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Second class structural groups

Group type	<i>RRR</i>	<i>RRP</i>	<i>RPR</i>	<i>PRP</i>
Schematic diagram				
Inner pair	revolute <i>B</i>	revolute <i>B</i>	sliding 1-2	revolute <i>A</i>
Outer pairs	revolute <i>C, A</i>	revolute <i>A</i> , sliding 2-3	revolute <i>B, A</i>	sliding 1-3, sliding 2-4

2.17.3. Structural Analysis

As mentioned above, a mechanism is constructed by starting with the basic mechanism and then by adding structural groups to the other groups using the outer pairs, group by group. The purpose of structural analysis is to disconnect the structural groups from the mechanism and to determine their types and construction order. The steps of structural analysis of the 2-nd class mechanisms are as follows [4]:

- (1) Delete all redundant constraints.
- (2) The frame and the basic mechanism are determined links. Other links are undetermined links.
- (3) From all undetermined links that are connected to determined links, choose two connected links. These two links constitute a 2-nd class structural group.
The pair connecting these two links is the inner pair of the group. The two pairs by which the group is connected to the determined links are the two outer pairs of the group.
- (4) When the group is joined to the determined links by the outer pairs, all links in the group become determined. Now repeat step (3) until all links become determined.

This procedure is sometimes called group dividing. In group dividing, any link and kinematic pair can only belong to one group and cannot appear twice in different groups.

Example 2.12. According to the steps mentioned above, for the mechanism shown in Fig. 2.58, the construction order of groups, type of groups, link numbers, inner and outer pairs of each group are listed in Table 2.3. Since the highest class of groups in this mechanism is 2, the mechanism is of the 2-nd class. In kinematic analysis of the mechanism, the first group must be analyzed first. Only after that, can the second group be analyzed.

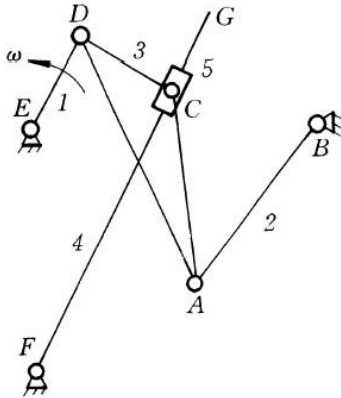


Fig. 2.58. Structure of mechanism

Table 2.3. Structural analysis of the mechanism shown in Fig. 2.58.

Group number	Type	Link numbers	Inner pair	Outer pairs
First group	<i>RRR</i>	2,3	<i>A</i>	<i>B, D</i>
Second group	<i>RPR</i>	4,5	sliding pair <i>C 4–5</i>	<i>F</i> , revolute <i>C 3–5</i>

2.18. Structural Synthesis

While kinematic analysis consists in analysis of the kinematic characteristics of a given machine or mechanism, kinematic synthesis aims at designing mechanisms that are required to fulfill certain motion. Kinematic synthesis can, therefore, be thought of as a reverse problem to kinematic analysis of mechanisms. Synthesis is a fundamental step of a design as it represents creation of a new basis to meet particular parameters of motion, namely displacements, velocities or accelerations—separately or in combination.

Probably, the most obvious external characteristics of a kinematic chain or mechanism are: the number of links and number of kinematic pairs. Mobility studies based on only these two parameters are called ‘number synthesis.’ The estimate of movability/mobility is known as the «Chebyshev-Grubler’s criterion». Effect of link lengths, position of instantaneous centers of velocity, complexity of joints, etc. are neglected in this approach. Mechanism number-synthesis is applied basically to linkages having revolute (turning) pairs (pin joints) only. This does not, however, restrict its application to mechanisms with turning pairs alone. Having once developed complete variety of pin jointed mechanisms the method can most readily be converted to analyze cams, gears, belt drives, hydraulic cylinder mechanisms and clamping devices.

Following conclusions will be important in deriving possible link combinations for a given number of links and given degree of freedom. It is assumed that all joints are simple and there is no singular link.

It follows from equation (2.1):

$$F = 3(n - 1) - 2l .$$

Rewriting this equation, we have

$$l = \frac{3(n - 1)}{2} - \frac{F}{2} . \quad (2.4)$$

Since total number of revolute pairs must be an integer number, it follows that either $(n - 1)$ and F should be both even or both odd. Thus, for l to be an integer number we have the following cases:

- (1) If F is odd (say, 1, 3, 5...), $(n - 1)$ should also be odd. In other words, n must be even.
- (2) If F is even (say 2, 4...), $(n - 1)$ should also be even. In other words for F to be even, n must be odd.

Summing up, for F to be even, n must be odd and for F to be odd, n must be even.

Let n_2 be a number of binary links, n_3 be a number of ternary links, n_4 - number of quaternary links, n_k - number of k -nary links.

The above number of links must add up to the total number of links in the mechanism.

Thus,

$$n = n_2 + n_3 + n_4 + \dots + n_k, \text{ or}$$

$$n = \sum_{i=2}^k n_i . \quad (2.5)$$

Since the discussions are limited to simple jointed chains, each joint/pair consists of two elements. Thus, if e is total number of elements in the mechanism, then

$$e = 2l . \quad (2.6)$$

By definition binary, ternary, quaternary, etc. links consist of 2, 3, 4 elements respectively. Hence, total number of elements is also given by

$$e = 2n_2 + 3n_3 + 4n_4 + \dots + k(n_k). \quad (2.7)$$

Comparing right hand side of equations (2.6) and (2.7), we have

$$2l = 2n_2 + 3n_3 + 4n_4 + \dots + k(n_k). \quad (2.8)$$

Substituting (2.5) and (2.8) in (2.1), we have

$$F = 3[(n_2 + n_3 + n_4 + \dots + n_k) - 1] - [2n_2 + 3n_3 + 4n_4 + \dots + kn_k].$$

Simplifying further,

$$F = [n_2 - n_4 - 2n_5 - 3n_6 - \dots - (k-3)n_k] - 3, \text{ or rearranging,} \\ n_2 = (F + 3) + [n_4 + 2n_5 + 3n_6 + \dots + (k-3)n_k]. \quad (2.9)$$

Thus, number of binary links required in mechanism depends on d.o.f. and also on the number of links having elements greater than 3. Thus, number of binary links required in mechanism depends on d.o.f. and also on the number of links having elements greater than 3. From eq. (2.9) it follows, that the minimum number of binary links is

$$\begin{aligned} n_2 &\geq 4, \text{ for } F = 1, \\ n_2 &\geq 5, \text{ for } F = 2, \\ n_2 &\geq 6 \text{ for } F = 3, \text{ etc.} \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

This proves that minimum number of binary links for $F = 1$ is 4, while the minimum number of binary links required for $F = 2$ is 5.

Let's determine maximum possible number of revolute pairs on any of the n links in a plane mechanism.

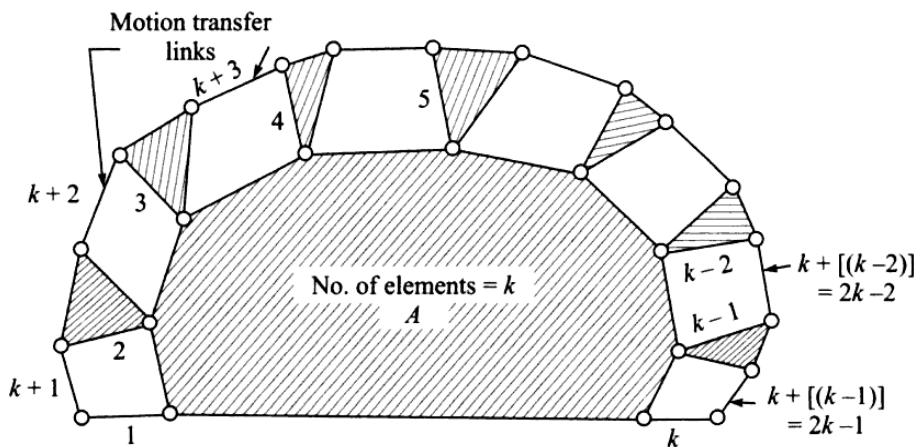


Fig. 2.59. Minimum number of links required for closure

The problem is resolved in an indirect manner. We formulate it to be that of finding minimum number of links n required for the chain closure when one of the links has the largest number of elements equal to k . An attempt is

now made to close the chain in Fig. 2.59 having link A of k elements.

For assembling the chain with a minimum number of links having no multiple pairs, it is necessary to interconnect ternary links at all the elements of link A except the first and last element. Connecting ternaries at intermediate elements ensures a continuity of motion from link 1 to link k . Links directly connected to link A are labeled 1 through k , while the motion transfer links shown in Fig. 2.59 are numbered as $(k+1), (k+2), (k+3), \dots, [k+(k-2)], [k+(k-1)]$. The last motion transfer link is thus numbered as $(2k-1)$. So, the minimum number of links required to assemble the chain is $(2k-1)$, besides the link of highest pairs.

In other words, for a given number of links $n = 2k$, a link can have a maximum of k elements. Hence,

$$k = \frac{n}{2}. \quad (2.11)$$

Thus, when n is even, the maximum possible number of elements which a link can have is $n/2$.

An important conclusion resulting out of eq. (2.9) is that the number of ternary links does not have any influence on degrees of freedom of a mechanism.

For a mechanism with d.o.f. = 1,

$$C = \frac{1}{2}n - 1, \quad (2.12)$$

where C is a number of independent loops, n is a number of links.

2.19. Enumeration of Kinematic Chains

Let N be the number of links and F degree of freedom, for which all feasible plane chains are needed to be established.

Step 1. For the given N and F establish the number of joints (hinges) using the formula (2.4):

$$l = \frac{3N - (F + 3)}{2}.$$

For $F = 1$, this reduces to

$$l = \frac{3N - 4}{2}.$$

Step 2. For the given N , establish maximum number of elements permissible on any link, using the relation:

$$k = \frac{N}{2}, \text{ for } F = 1, 3, 5$$

$$\text{and } k = \frac{(N + 1)}{2}, \text{ for } F = 2, 4.$$

Step 3. Substituting expression for N and $2l$, namely,

$$N = n_2 + n_3 + n_4 + \dots + n_k, \text{ and } 2l = 2n_2 + 3n_3 + 4n_4 + \dots + k(n_k)$$

in Chebyshev's or Grubler's equation (2.1) we have,

$$F = 3[(n_2 + n_3 + n_4 + \dots + n_k) - 1] - [2n_2 + 3n_3 + 4n_4 + \dots + kn_k] \text{ or}$$

$$F = [n_2 - (n_4 + 2n_5 + \dots + (k - 3)n_k) - 3].$$

Thus, for $F = 1$,

$$n_2 - n_4 - 2n_5 - \dots - (k - 3)n_k = 4.$$

Above equations may be used to list all possible combinations of n_2, n_4, n_5, \dots which satisfy given conditions.

Example 2.12. Enumerate all chains possible with $N = 6$ and $F = 1$.

Solution: Total number of hinges $l = \frac{3(6) - 4}{2} = 7$.

Also, for even number of links ($N = 6$), maximum number of hinges on any link is $6/2=3$. Thus, the chains will consist of binary and ternary links only. Hence, we have from eqs. (2.5) and (2.8),

$$n_2 + n_3 = N = 6 \text{ and } 2n_2 + 3n_3 = 2l = 14. \quad (2.13)$$

Substituting in Chebyshev-Grubler's criterion we have,

$$3(n_2 + n_3) - (2n_2 + 3n_3) - 4 = 0 \text{ or } n_2 - 4 = 0.$$

Thus, $n_2 = 4$ and from the second eq. (2.13), $n_3 = 2$.

We begin by considering the ways in which links of highest degree (i.e., links having largest number of elements) can be interconnected. The two ternaries can be either connected directly through a common pair or can be connected only through one or two binary links.

In Fig. 2.59 we considered the first possibility. The two ternaries of 2.60 (a) and (b) cannot be interconnected through a single link as it amounts to forming a structural loop (3-link loop). The only way to connect them through 4 binaries

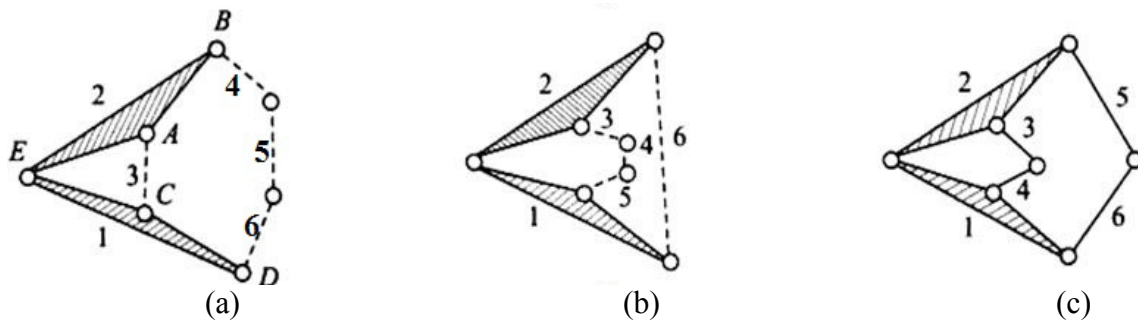


Fig. 2.60 (a) Undesirable due to existence of 3-link loop 1-2-3; (b) Undesirable due to formation of link loop 1-2-6; (c) Permissible combination as no 3-link loop exists

(avoiding formation of a 3-link loop) is therefore, as shown at Figs.2.60 (c).

Considering the second alternative, Fig. 2.61 (a) shows the two ternary links 1

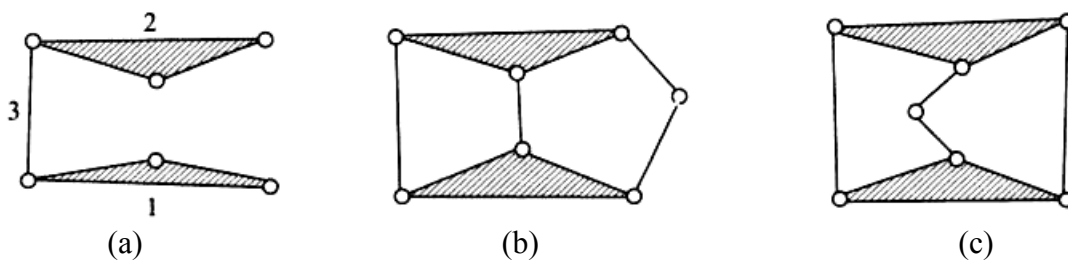


Fig. 2.61. (b) Valid chain; (c) Valid chain (same as that at b)

and 2 being connected through a single binary link 3. Then, between one of remaining two pairs of elements of the links 1 and 2, we may introduce a single binary and between the other pair of elements, two remaining binaries. The resulting arrangements are as at Fig. 2.61 (b) and (c). It is simple to check that the chains at Figs. 2.61 (b) and (c) are structurally equivalent.

Example 2.13. Enumerate all feasible chains of $N = 7$ and $F = 2$.

Solution: Total number of hinges $l = \frac{3(N) - (F + 3)}{2} = \frac{3(7) - (2 + 3)}{2} = 8$.

Maximum number of elements on any link is equal or less than $(N + 1) / 2 = 4$.

Hence, only binary, ternary and quaternary links are possible. Thus, from eqs. (2.5) and (2.8),

$$n_2 + n_3 + n_4 = N = 7, \quad 2n_2 + 3n_3 + 4n_4 = 2l = 16.$$

Substituting in Chebyshev-Grubler's equation,

$$F = 3(N - 1) - 2l,$$

we have

$$2 = 3[(n_2 + n_3 + n_4) - 1] - (2n_2 + 3n_3 + 4n_4) \text{ or } n_2 - n_4 = 5.$$

Thus, the possible combinations are (Note that for any mechanism with $F = 2, n_2 \geq 5$): $n_4 = 1; n_2 = 6; n_3 = 0; n_2 = 5$. Also check that $n_2 + n_3 + n_4 = 7$.

Obviously, remaining links in above combinations will be the ternaries. Thus, the two following combinations are feasible:

n_4	n_3	n_2	total N
1	0	6	7
0	2	5	7

Different chains that can be formed are as shown in Figs. 2.62 (a), (b), (c) and (d). The chain in Fig. 2.62 (a) involves a quaternary link with remaining 6 binary links forming two independent loops of $F = 1$. A mechanism of $F = 2$ is possible only when any link other than quaternary is fixed. Chain in Fig. 2.62 (b) involves two ternary links that are directly connected. A binary cannot be used singly to connect these ternaries at any of the remaining pairs of elements as that leads to a 3-link loop. Therefore, the only option is to connect these ternaries through two binaries and through three binaries at remaining pairs of elements. This is shown in Fig. 2.62 (b). When the two ternaries are connected through a single binary, the two possible ways of connecting remaining 4 binaries are shown at Fig. 2.62 (c) and (d).

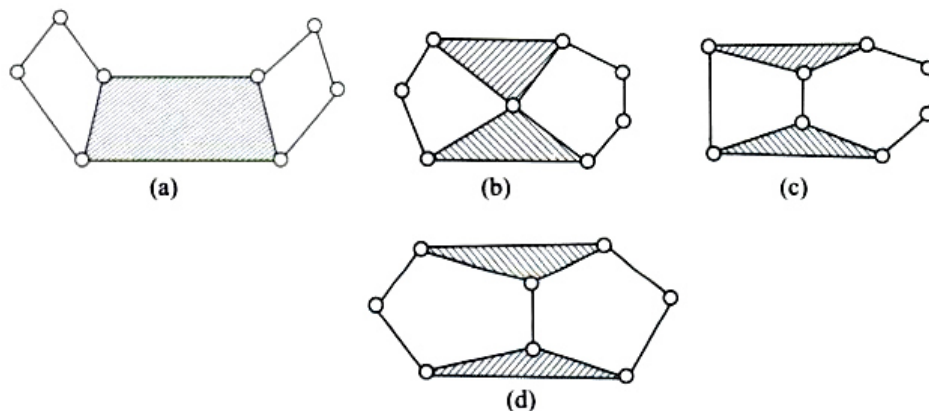


Fig. 2.62. Feasible chains of seven links

Example 2.14. Enumerate combination of links feasible in the case of a 8-link chain with $F = 1$.

Solution: Number of hinges is $l = \frac{3(8) - 4}{2} = 10$.

Maximum number of elements on one link is $\frac{8}{2} = 4$.

Hence, the chains can have binary, ternary and quaternary links only. From the equations (2.5) and (2.8),

$$n_2 + n_3 + n_4 = 8 \text{ and } 2n_2 + 3n_3 + 4n_4 = 20.$$

Substituting in Chebyshev-Grubler's criterion,

$$3(n_2 + n_3 + n_4) - (2n_2 + 3n_3 + 4n_4) - 4 = 0 \text{ or } (n_2 - n_4) = 4.$$

Analyze various combinations, taking into account the above expressions, with respect to their possibility:

n_4 (assumed)	$n_2 = n_4 + 4$	$n_3 = 8 - (n_2 + n_4)$	Results
4	8	-	Not acceptable as $n_2 + n_4 > N$
3	7	-	Not acceptable as $n_2 + n_4 > N$
2	6	-	acceptable
1	5	2	acceptable
0	4	4	acceptable

Thus, the three valid combinations of links are:

- 1) $n_4 = 2; n_3 = 0; n_2 = 6;$
- 2) $n_4 = 1; n_3 = 2; n_2 = 5;$
- 3) $n_4 = 0; n_3 = 4; n_2 = 4.$

The first combination yields the following two chains shown in Fig. 2.63.

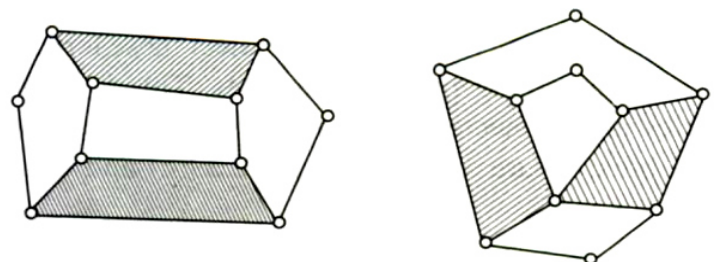


Fig. 2.63. Feasible chains for the first combination

The second combination of links yields the following five chains (see Fig. 2.64):

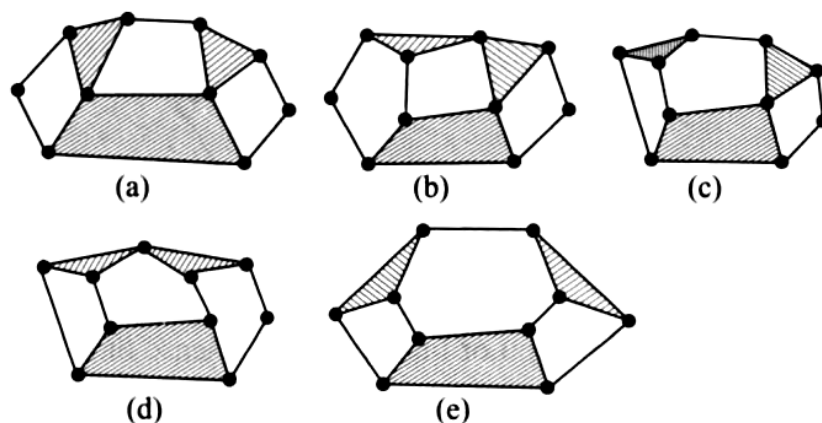


Fig. 2.64. Feasible chains for the second combination

The third combination ($n_4 = 0; n_3 = 4; n_2 = 4$) of links gives following chains (see Fig 2.65):

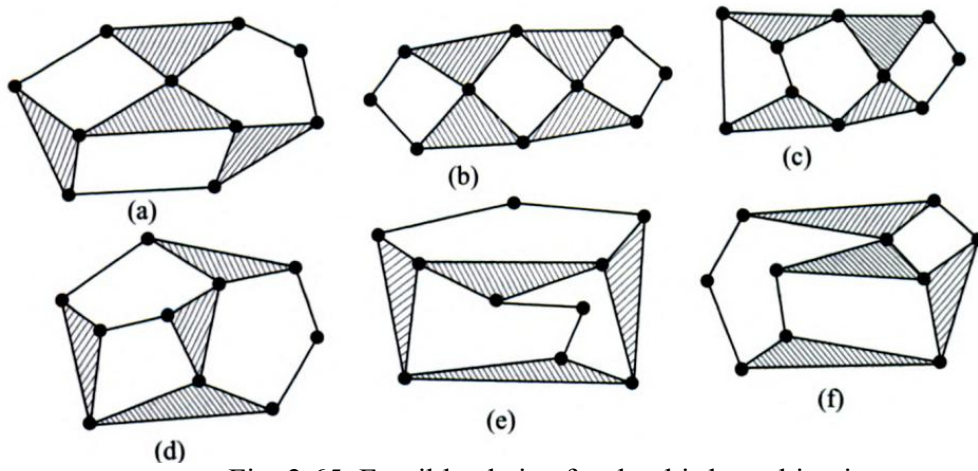


Fig. 2.65. Feasible chains for the third combination

3. PROBLEMS FOR SELF-STUDY WORK

3.1. Producing Structural Analysis of Plane Mechanism

Problem. Make structural analysis for mechanisms shown in Fig. 2.66 (diagrams 1-30).

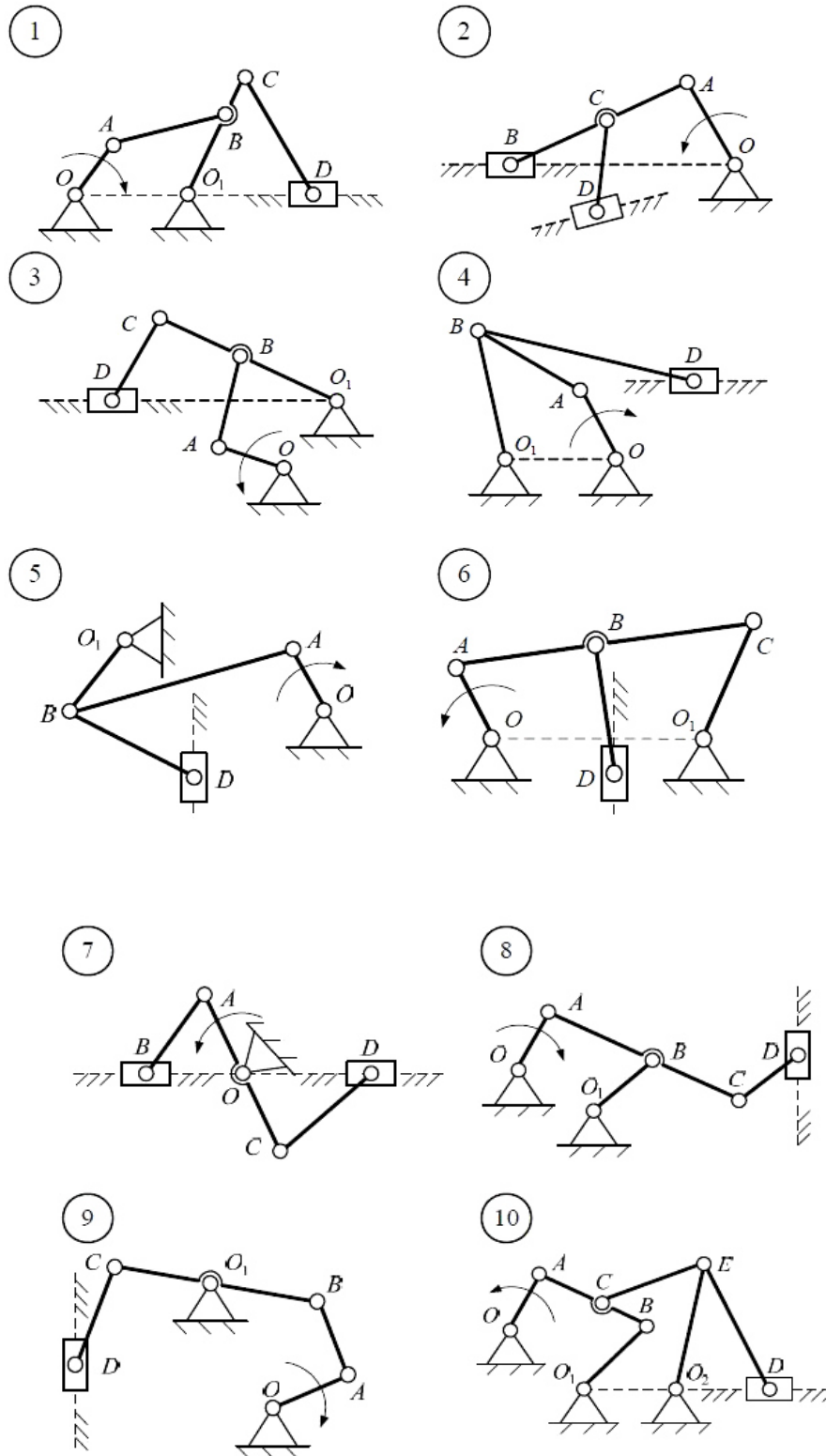


Fig. 2.66. Plane Mechanisms. Diagrams 1-10

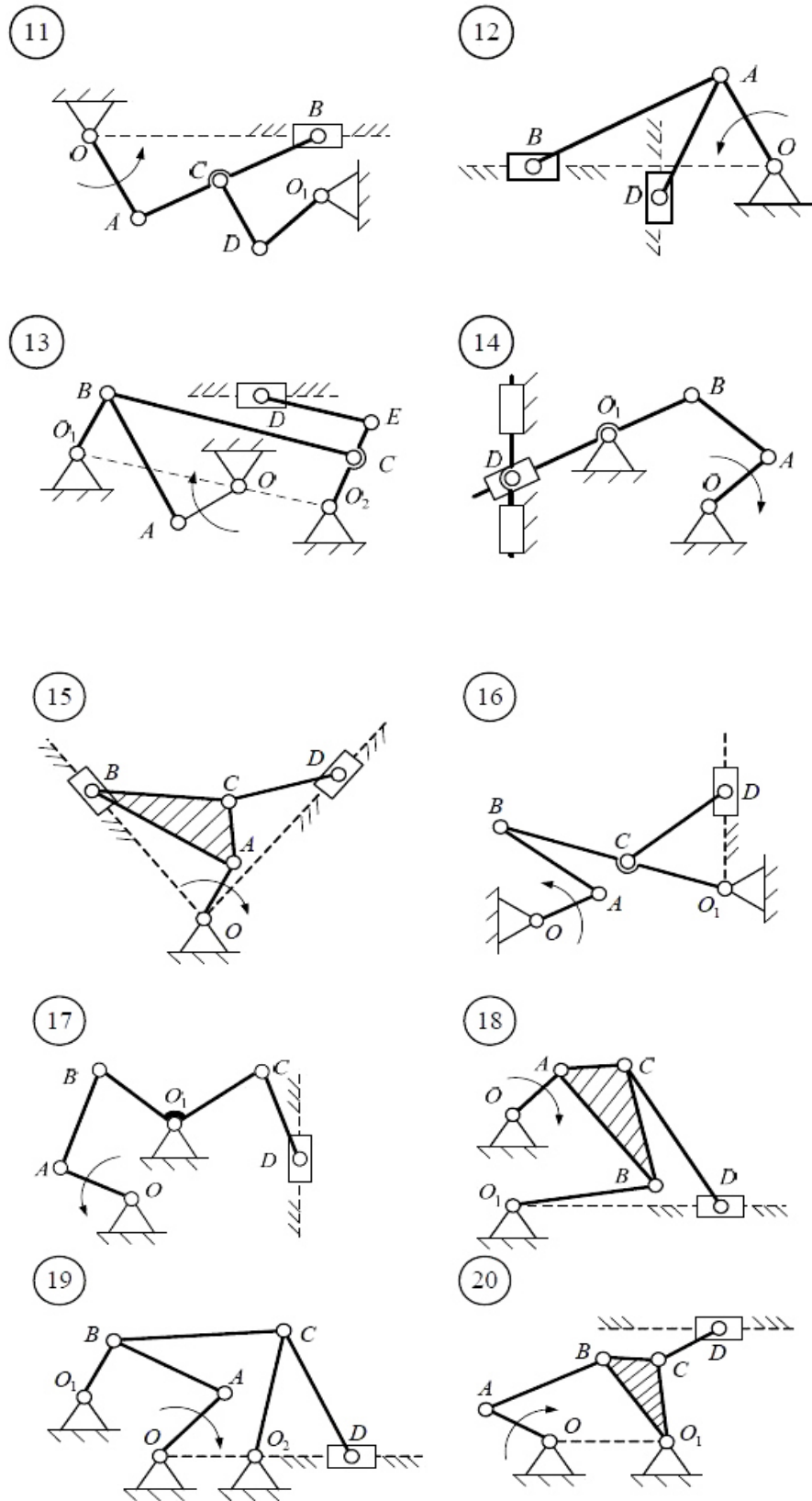


Fig. 2.66. Plane Mechanisms. Diagrams 11-20

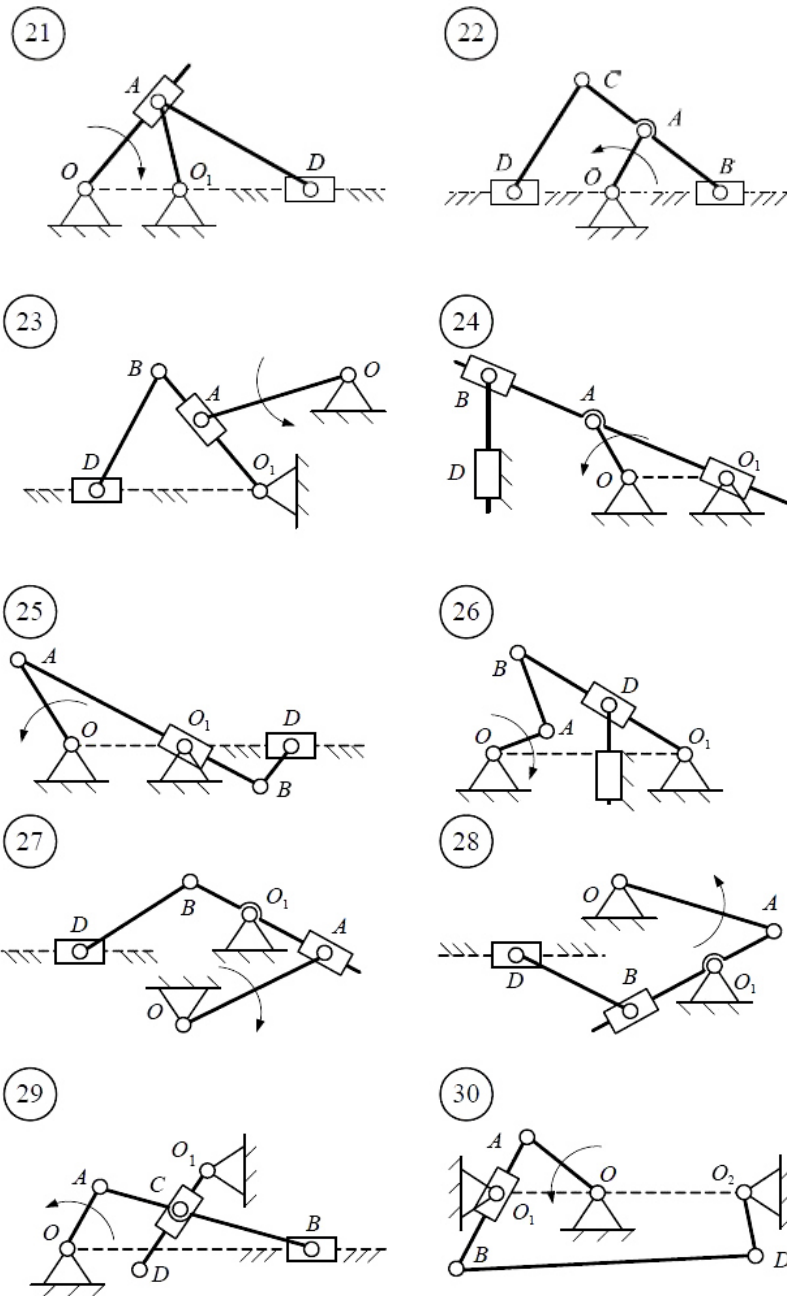


Fig. 2.66. Plane Mechanisms. Diagrams 21-30

Sample Problem. Produce a structural analysis for the swinging conveyor mechanism.

Solution. The mobility of the swinging conveyor mechanism is determined by the structural formula of Chebyshev.

To determine the mobility of the mechanism we analyze the structural diagram of the swinging conveyor (Fig. 2.67). The structural diagram of the mechanism consists of the six links: 0 – frame, 1-crank, 2-connecting rod, 3 - rocker, 4 - connecting rod, 5 – slider.

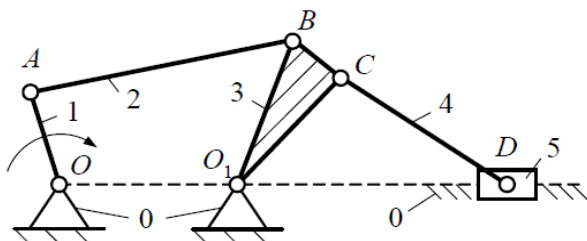


Fig. 2.67. Swinging conveyor mechanism.

connecting rod, 5 – slider.

The number of movable links is 5. There are 6 turning (revolute) pairs and 1 prismatic (sliding) pair in the diagram of mechanism. All pairs represent lower ones. Therefore, the mobility (number of degrees of freedom) of the mechanism is

$$F = 3n - 2l - h = 3 \cdot 5 - 2 \cdot 7 - 0 = 1.$$

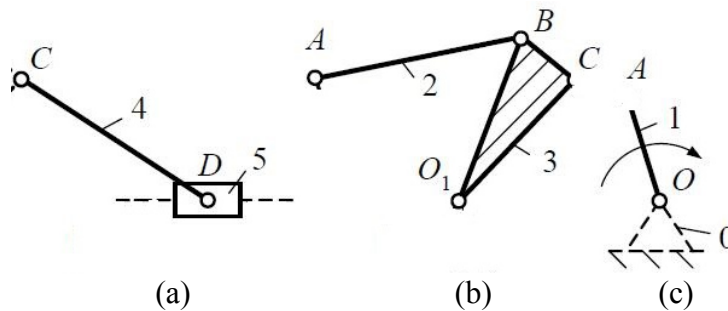


Fig. 2.68. Component structures of the swinging conveyor mechanism

The structural group of links 4 - 5 is shown in Fig. 2.68 (a). This group consists of two moving links: connecting rod 4 and slider 5 and three kinematic pairs of the fifth class: revolute pairs 4 - 5, 3 - 4 and prismatic (sliding) pair 5 - 0.

Then mobility of this group is $F = 3n - 2l - h = 3 \cdot 2 - 2 \cdot 3 - 0 = 0$.

Therefore, the group 4-5 is a structural group of the 2-nd class of the 2-nd order of the 2-nd type *RRS*.

The second group is the group of the links 2 - 3 (Fig. 2.68 (b)). This group consists of two mobile links: connecting rod 2 and rocker 3 and three kinematic pairs of the fifth class: revolute pairs: 2 - 3, 1 - 2, 3 - 0.

Therefore, $F = 3n - 2l - h = 3 \cdot 2 - 2 \cdot 3 - 0 = 0$, and the link group 2 - 3 is a structural group of the 2-nd class of the 2-nd order of the 1-st type *RRR*.

The third group of links 0 - 1 is shown in Fig. 2.68 (c). This group consists of the movable link - the crank 1, the frame 0 and the revolute pair of the fifth class 0 - 1.

Substituting the found values into the Chebyshev's formula, we get:

$F = 3n - 2l - h = 3 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 2 - 0 = 1$. Therefore, the link group 0 - 1 is not a structural group, and represents the basic mechanism, the mobility of which is equal to 1.

It follows from the analysis that the swinging conveyor mechanism has the following structural composition: the primary mechanism with mobility equal to 1, and two structural groups of the 2-nd class of the 2-nd order of the 1-st and 2-nd types (Fig. 2.69).

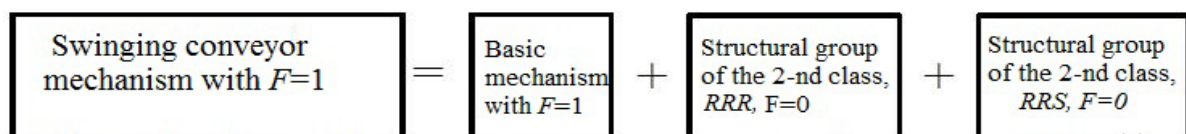


Fig.2.69. Structure of the swinging conveyor mechanism

Conclusion: the result obtained shows that the swinging conveyor mechanism is a second-class mechanism and regardless of the number of structural groups, its mobility is determined by the mobility of the basic (primary) mechanism.

3.2. Determining Movability and Maneuverability of Spatial Mechanisms

Problem. Determine movability (number of degree of freedom) and maneuverability of manipulators shown in Fig. 2.70 (diagrams 1-30).

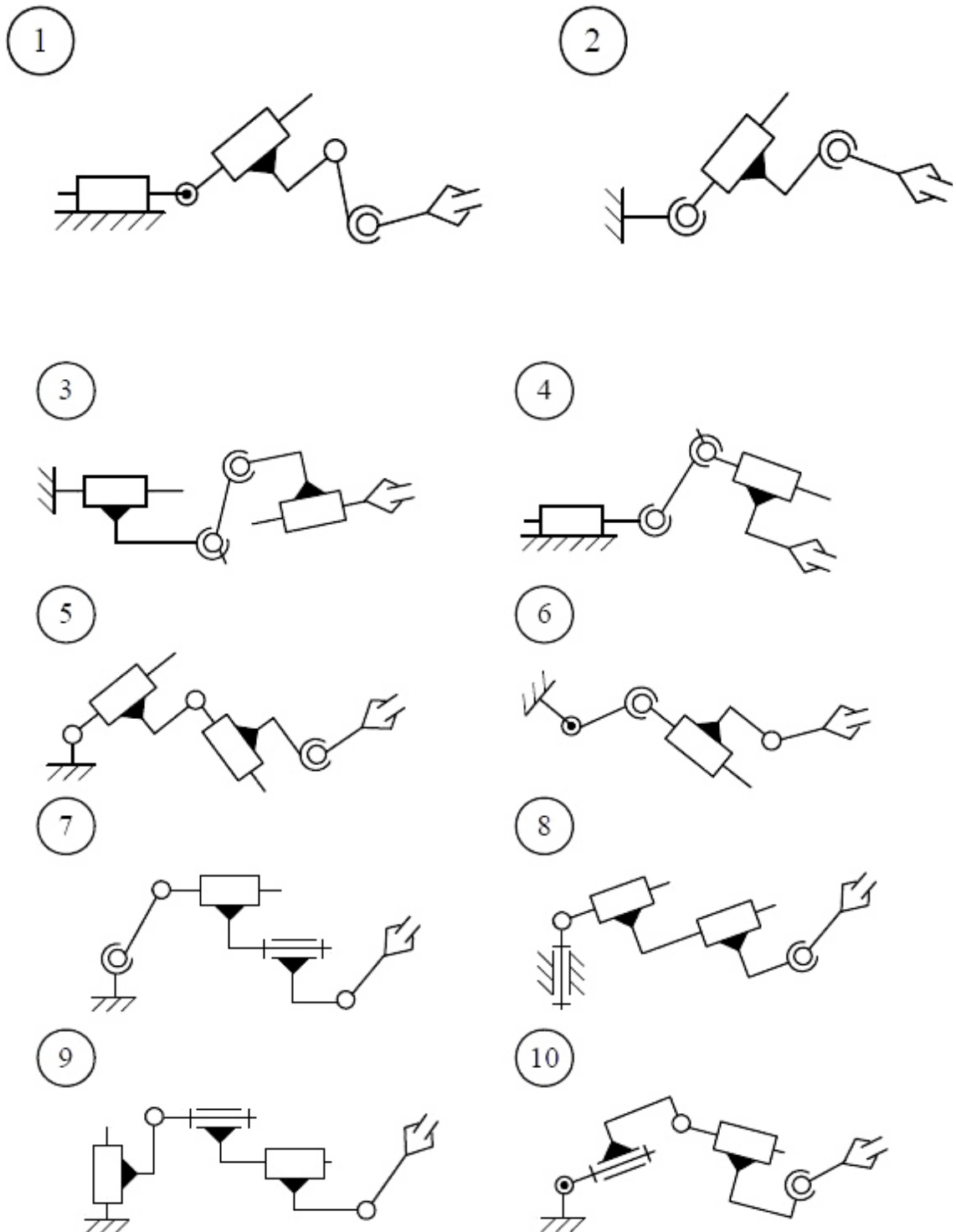


Fig. 2.70. Spatial Mechanisms. Diagrams 1-10

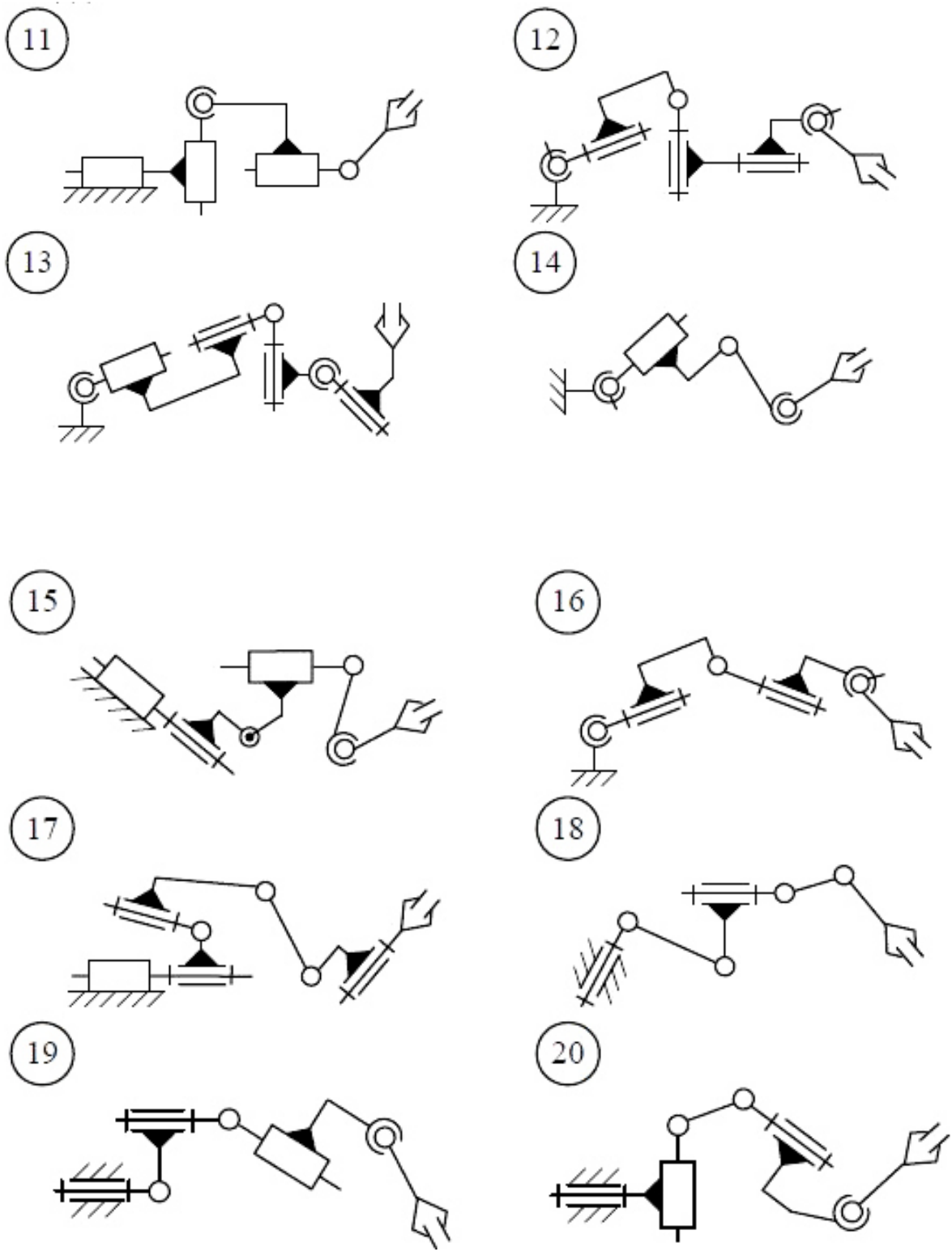


Fig. 2.70. Spatial Mechanisms. Diagrams 11-20

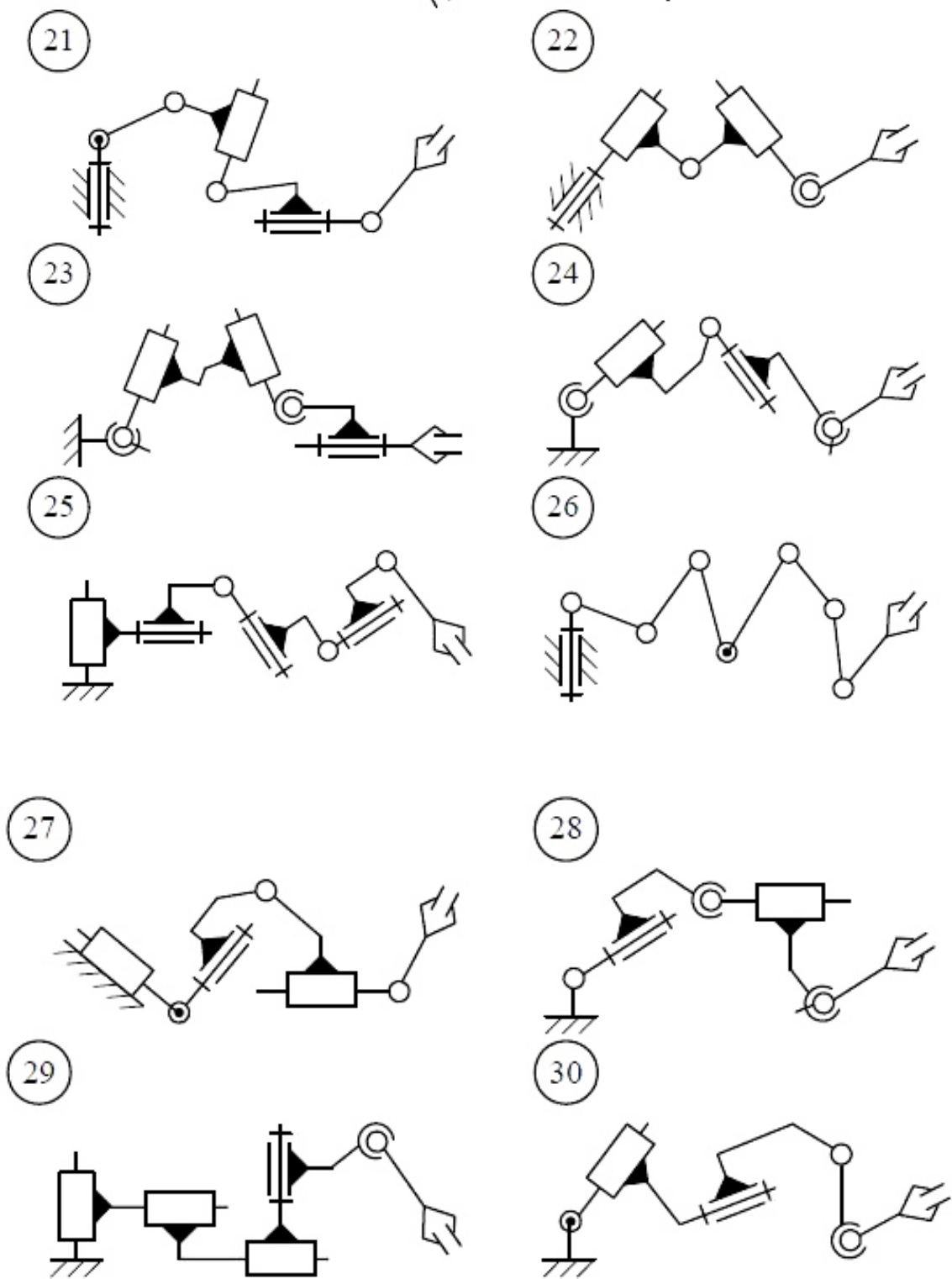


Fig. 2.70. Spatial Mechanisms. Diagrams 21-30

Sample Problem. Determine the mobility and manoeuvrability of the industrial robot arm mechanism (Fig. 2.70).

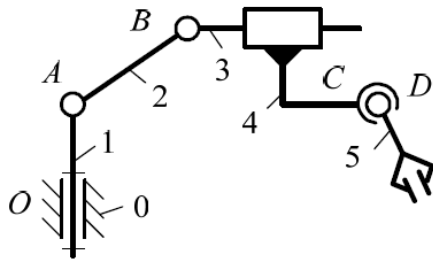


Fig. 2.70. Manipulator mechanism diagram

Solution. The scheme of the mechanism of the industrial manipulator consists of one fixed link – the frame 0 and movable links 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. Therefore, the number of mobile links is five, i.e., $n = 5$.

The scheme of the mechanism is an open spatial kinematic chain, the links of which form four pairs of the fifth class: 0 - 1, 1 - 2, 2 - 3, 3 - 4 and one spherical pair of the third class - 4 - 5.

Therefore, from the formula (2.3) we get: $l_1 = 4; l_2 = 0; l_3 = 1; l_4 = 0; l_5 = 0$. Substituting the found values of the coefficients into Somov – Malyshev’s structural formula, we obtain:

$$F = 6 \cdot 5 - 5 \cdot 4 - 4 \cdot 0 - 3 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 0 - 0 = 30 - 20 - 3 = 7.$$

The result indicates that for a one-valued description of the positions of the links of this manipulator in space, seven generalized coordinates are needed.

Maneuverability is the mobility of the spatial mechanism with a fixed link 5. Maneuverability is denoted by m and determined by Somov – Malyshev’s formula.

To determine maneuverability, it is necessary to stop (forbid to move) the output link 5. Therefore, the number of movable links becomes equal to four, that is, $n = 4$. The values of all other coefficients do not change.

Substituting the found values of the coefficients in the expression for maneuverability, we obtain:

$$m = 6 \cdot 4 - 5 \cdot 4 - 4 \cdot 0 - 3 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 0 - 0 = 24 - 20 - 3 = 1.$$

The result suggests that in this case for a one-value determining the positions of the links of the mechanism of the manipulator having a closed kinematic chain, one generalized coordinate is sufficient.

Check the resulting value: $m = F - 6 = 7 - 6 = 1$.

Conclusion. Calculation of both expressions gives the same value of maneuverability, which satisfies the condition of operability of the spatial linkage mechanism, which states that maneuverability should be greater than or equal to one.

3.3. Review Questions

1. Explain the term *Link*. Give the classification of links.
2. Can spring, belt, liquids be treated as links? Justify your answer.
3. What is a *Mechanism*?
4. Giving example, differentiate between a machine, mechanism and a structure.
5. Explain why I.C. engine mechanism and steam engine mechanism are kinematically identical.
6. Define the terms *Element* and *Pair*.

7. Write notes on complete and incomplete constraints in lower and higher pairs, illustrating your answer with sketches.
8. Explain different kinds of kinematic pairs giving example for each one of them.
9. Explain the terms: *Lower pair*, *Higher pair*. Is there some more convincing definition than the conventional one, based on point/line and area contact basis?
10. Explain various methods of classifying pairs, giving examples.
11. Explain the term *Kinematic Chain*.
12. In what way a mechanism differ from a machine?
13. What is the significance of degrees of freedom of a kinematic chain when it functions as a mechanism? Give examples.
14. Explain Chebyshev-Grubler's criterion for determining degrees of freedom of mechanisms.
15. Using Grubler's criterion for plane mechanism, prove that the minimum number of binary links in a mechanism with simple hinges is four.
16. What is the interpretation when mobility turns out to be -1,0,+1 and +2?
17. Write down Somov-Malyshev's formula. Explain it.
18. Sketch and explain the various inversions of a slider crank chain.
19. Sketch and describe the four link chain mechanism. Why it is considered to be the basic one?
20. Formulate Grashof's Law.
21. Show that slider crank mechanism is a modification of the basic four link mechanism.
22. Explain the term *Inversion of Mechanisms*. What are the properties of Inversion? Explain advantages arising out of the concept of Inversion.
23. Sketch slider crank chain and its various inversions, stating actual machines in which these are used in practice.
24. Sketch and describe the working of quick return mechanisms. Give examples of their applications. Derive an expression for the ratio of times taken in forward and return stroke for one of these mechanisms.
25. Sketch and explain any two inversions of a double slider crank chain.
26. Sketch and explain the following mechanisms: 1) Steam engine mechanism; 2) Beam engine; 3) Whitworth quick return motion mechanism; 4) Elliptical trammels.
27. What is a *Structural Group* of mechanism?
28. Classify and sketch structural groups for plane mechanisms.
29. Explain the idea of the structural analysis by Assur-Artobolevsky.
30. Define the term *Manipulator*.
31. What is a *Mobility* and *Maneuverability* of manipulator?
32. Enumerate all possible chains for $N = 6$ and d.o.f=1.
33. Enumerate all possible chains for $N = 7$ and d.o.f = 2.
34. Show that number of ternary links has no effect on d.o.f a mechanism.
35. Show that maximum possible number of elements of any link of a chain with N links is $N/2$.

3.4. Objective Type Questions

1. In a reciprocating steam engine, which of the following forms a kinematic link?
(a) cylinder and piston; (b) piston rod and connecting rod; (c) crank shaft and flywheel; (d) flywheel and engine frame.
2. The motion of a piston in the cylinder of a steam engine is an example of
(a) completely constrained motion; (b) incompletely constrained motion;
(c) successfully constrained motion; (d) none of these.
3. The motion transmitted between the teeth of gears in mesh is
(a) sliding; (b) rolling; (c) may be rolling or sliding depending upon the shape of teeth; (d) partly sliding and partly rolling.
4. The cam and follower without a spring forms a
(a) lower pair; (b) higher pair; (c) self-closed pair; (d) force closed pair.
5. A ball and a socket joint forms a
(a) revolute (turning) pair; (b) rolling pair; (c) sliding pair; (d) spherical pair.
6. The lead screw of a lathe with nut forms a
(a) sliding pair; (b) rolling pair; (c) screw pair; (d) revolute pair.
7. When the elements of the pair are kept in contact by the action of external forces, the pair is said to be a
(a) lower pair; (b) higher pair; (c) self-closed pair; (d) force closed pair.
8. Which of the following is a revolute (turning) pair?
(a) piston and cylinder of a reciprocating steam engine; (b) shaft with collars at both ends fitted in a circular hole; (c) lead screw of a lathe with nut; (d) ball and socket joint.
9. A combination of kinematic pairs joined in such a way that the relative motion between the links is completely constrained, is called a
(a) structure; (b) mechanism; (c) kinematic chain; (d) inversion.
10. The relation between the number of pairs (p) forming a kinematic chain and the number of links (l) is
(a) $l = 2p - 2$; (b) $l = 2p - 3$; (c) $l = 2p - 4$; (d) $l = 2p - 5$.
11. The relation between the number of links (l) and the number of binary joints (j) for a kinematic chain having constrained motion is given by $j = \frac{3}{2}l - 2$. If the left hand side of this equation is greater than right hand side, then the chain is
(a) locked chain; (b) completely constrained chain; (c) successfully constrained chain; (d) incompletely constrained chain.
12. In a kinematic chain, a quaternary joint is equivalent to
(a) one binary joint; (b) two binary joints; (c) three binary joints; (d) four binary joints.
13. If n links are connected at the same joint, the joint is equivalent to (a) $(n - 1)$ binary joints; (b) $(n - 2)$ binary joints; (c) $(2n - 1)$ binary joints; (d) none of these.
14. In a 4-bar linkage, if the lengths of shortest, longest and the other two links are denoted by s , l , p and q , then it would result in Grashof's linkage provided that
(a) $l + p < s + q$; (b) $l + s < p + q$; (c) $l + p = s + q$; (d) none of these.

15. A kinematic chain is known as a mechanism when
 (a) none of the links is fixed; (b) one of the links is fixed; (c) two of the links are fixed; (d) all of the links are fixed.
16. The Grubler's criterion for determining the degrees of freedom (F) of a plane mechanism is
 (a) $F = (n - 1) - l$; (b) $F = 2(n - 1) - 2l$; (c) $F = 3(n - 1) - 2l$; (d) $F = 4(n - 1) - 3l$,
 where n - number of links, and l - number of binary joints (lower pairs).
17. The mechanism forms a structure, when the number of degrees of freedom is equal to
 (a) 0; (b) 1; (c) 2 (d) 3.
18. In a four link chain or quadric cycle chain
 (a) each of the four pairs is a turning pair; (b) one is a turning pair and three are sliding pairs; (c) three are turning pairs and one is sliding pair; (d) each of the four pairs is a sliding pair.
19. Which of the following is an inversion of single slider crank chain?
 (a) beam engine; (b) Watt's indicator mechanism; (c) elliptical trammels; (d) Whitworth quick return motion mechanism.
20. Which of the following is an inversion of double slider crank chain?
 (a) coupling rod of a locomotive; (b) pendulum pump; (c) elliptical trammels; (d) oscillating cylinder engine.

ANSWERS

1. (c); 2. (a); 3. (d); 4. (c); 5. (d); 6. (c); 7. (d); 8. (b); 9. (c); 10. (c); 11. (a); 12. (c); 13. (a); 14. (b); 15. (b); 16. (c); 17. (a); 18. (a); 19. (d); 20. (c).

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