

UNIT-I

Introduction

The subject Machine Design is the creation of new and better machines and improving the existing ones. A new or better machine is one which is more economical in the overall cost of production and operation. The process of design is a long and time consuming one. From the study of existing ideas, a new idea has to be conceived. The idea is then studied keeping in mind its commercial success and given shape and form in the form of drawings. In the preparation of these drawings, care must be taken of the availability of resources in money, in men and in materials required for the successful completion of the new idea into an actual reality. In designing a machine component, it is necessary to have a good knowledge of many subjects such as Mathematics, Engineering Mechanics, Strength of Materials, Theory of Machines, Workshop Processes and Engineering Drawing.

Classifications of Machine Design

The machine design may be classified as follows:

- 1. Adaptive design.** In most cases, the designer's work is concerned with adaptation of existing designs. This type of design needs no special knowledge or skill and can be attempted by designers of ordinary technical training. The designer only makes minor alternation or modification in the existing designs of the product.
- 2. Development design.** This type of design needs considerable scientific training and design ability in order to modify the existing designs into a new idea by adopting a new material or different method of manufacture. In this case, though the designer starts from the existing design, but the final product may differ quite markedly from the original product.
- 3. New design.** This type of design needs lot of research, technical ability and creative thinking. Only those designers who have personal qualities of a sufficiently high order can take up the work of a new design. The designs, depending upon the methods used, may be classified as follows:
 - (a) Rational design.** This type of design depends upon mathematical formulae of principle of mechanics.
 - (b) Empirical design.** This type of design depends upon empirical formulae based on the practice and past experience.
 - (c) Industrial design.** This type of design depends upon the production aspects to manufacture any machine component in the industry.

(d) Optimum design. It is the best design for the given objective function under the specified constraints. It may be achieved by minimizing the undesirable effects.

(e) System design. It is the design of any complex mechanical system like a motor car.

(f) Element design. It is the design of any element of the mechanical system like piston, crankshaft, connecting rod, etc.

(g) Computer aided design. This type of design depends upon the use of computer systems to assist in the creation, modification, analysis and optimization of a design.

General Considerations in Machine Design

Following are the general considerations in designing a machine component:

1. Type of load and stresses caused by the load. The load, on a machine component, may act in several ways due to which the internal stresses are set up. The various types of load and stresses are discussed later.

2. Motion of the parts or kinematics of the machine. The successful operation of any machine depends largely upon the simplest arrangement of the parts which will give the motion required.

The motion of the parts may be:

- (a) Rectilinear motion which includes unidirectional and reciprocating motions.
- (b) Curvilinear motion which includes rotary, oscillatory and simple harmonic.
- (c) Constant velocity.
- (d) Constant or variable acceleration.

3. Selection of materials. It is essential that a designer should have a thorough knowledge of the properties of the materials and their behavior under working conditions. Some of the important characteristics of materials are: strength, durability, flexibility, weight, resistance to heat and corrosion, ability to cast, welded or hardened, machinability, electrical conductivity, etc. The various types of engineering materials and their properties are discussed later.

4. Form and size of the parts. The form and size are based on judgment. The smallest practicable cross-section may be used, but it may be checked that the stresses induced in the designed cross-section are reasonably safe. In order to design any machine part for form and

size, it is necessary to know the forces which the part must sustain. It is also important to anticipate any suddenly applied or impact load which may cause failure.

5. *Frictional resistance and lubrication.* There is always a loss of power due to frictional resistance and it should be noted that the friction of starting is higher than that of running friction. It is, therefore, essential that a careful attention must be given to the matter of lubrication of all surfaces which move in contact with others, whether in rotating, sliding, or rolling bearings.

6. *Convenient and economical features.* In designing, the operating features of the machine should be carefully studied. The starting, controlling and stopping levers should be located on the basis of convenient handling. The adjustment for wear must be provided employing the various take up devices and arranging them so that the alignment of parts is preserved. If parts are to be changed for different products or replaced on account of wear or breakage, easy access should be provided and the necessity of removing other parts to accomplish this should be avoided if possible. The economical operation of a machine which is to be used for production or for the processing of material should be studied, in order to learn whether it has the maximum capacity consistent with the production of good work.

7. *Use of standard parts.* The use of standard parts is closely related to cost, because the cost of standard or stock parts is only a fraction of the cost of similar parts made to order. The standard or stock parts should be used whenever possible; parts for which patterns are already in existence such as gears, pulleys and bearings and parts which may be selected from regular shop stock such as screws, nuts and pins. Bolts and studs should be as few as possible to avoid the delay caused by changing drills, reamers and taps and also to decrease the number of wrenches required.

8. *Safety of operation.* Some machines are dangerous to operate, especially those which are speeded up to insure production at a maximum rate. Therefore, any moving part of a machine which is within the zone of a worker is considered an accident hazard and may be the cause of an injury. It is, therefore, necessary that a designer should always provide safety devices for the safety of the operator. The safety appliances should in no way interfere with operation of the machine.

9. Workshop facilities. A design engineer should be familiar with the limitations of this employer's workshop, in order to avoid the necessity of having work done in some other workshop. It is sometimes necessary to plan and supervise the workshop operations and to draft methods for casting, handling and machining special parts.

10. Number of machines to be manufactured. The number of articles or machines to be manufactured affects the design in a number of ways. The engineering and shop costs which are called fixed charges or overhead expenses are distributed over the number of articles to be manufactured. If only a few articles are to be made, extra expenses are not justified unless the machine is large or of some special design. An order calling for small number of the product will not permit any undue expense in the workshop processes, so that the designer should restrict his specification to standard parts as much as possible.

11. Cost of construction. The cost of construction of an article is the most important consideration involved in design. In some cases, it is quite possible that the high cost of an article may immediately bar it from further considerations. If an article has been invented and tests of handmade samples have shown that it has commercial value, it is then possible to justify the expenditure of a considerable sum of money in the design and development of automatic machines to produce the article, especially if it can be sold in large numbers. The aim of design engineer under all conditions should be to reduce the manufacturing cost to the minimum.

12. Assembling. Every machine or structure must be assembled as a unit before it can function. Large units must often be assembled in the shop, tested and then taken to be transported to their place of service. The final location of any machine is important and the design engineer must anticipate the exact location and the local facilities for erection.

General Procedure in Machine Design

In designing a machine component, there is no rigid rule. The problem may be attempted in several ways. However, the general procedure to solve a design problem is as follows:

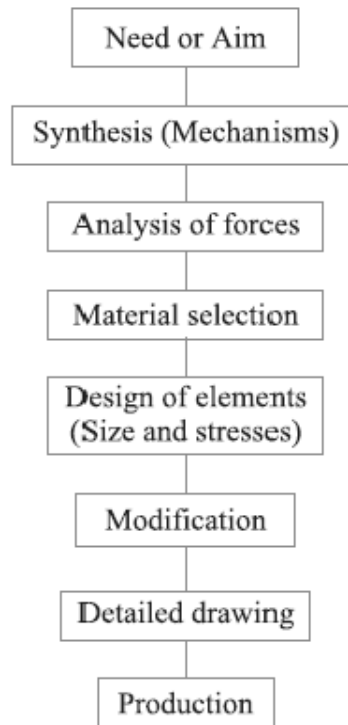


Fig.1. General Machine Design Procedure

- 1. *Recognition of need.*** First of all, make a complete statement of the problem, indicating the need, aim or purpose for which the machine is to be designed.
- 2. *Synthesis (Mechanisms).*** Select the possible mechanism or group of mechanisms which will give the desired motion.
- 3. *Analysis of forces.*** Find the forces acting on each member of the machine and the energy transmitted by each member.
- 4. *Material selection.*** Select the material best suited for each member of the machine.
- 5. *Design of elements (Size and Stresses).*** Find the size of each member of the machine by considering the force acting on the member and the permissible stresses for the material used. It should be kept in mind that each member should not deflect or deform than the permissible limit.

6. Modification. Modify the size of the member to agree with the past experience and judgment to facilitate manufacture. The modification may also be necessary by consideration of manufacturing to reduce overall cost.

7. Detailed drawing. Draw the detailed drawing of each component and the assembly of the machine with complete specification for the manufacturing processes suggested.

8. Production. The component, as per the drawing, is manufactured in the workshop. The flow chart for the general procedure in machine design is shown in Fig.

Note: When there are number of components in the market having the same qualities of efficiency, durability and cost, then the customer will naturally attract towards the most appealing product. The aesthetic and ergonomics are very important features which gives grace and lustre to product and dominates the market.

Engineering materials and their properties

The knowledge of materials and their properties is of great significance for a design engineer. The machine elements should be made of such a material which has properties suitable for the conditions of operation. In addition to this, a design engineer must be familiar with the effects which the manufacturing processes and heat treatment have on the properties of the materials. Now, we shall discuss the commonly used engineering materials and their properties in Machine Design.

Classification of Engineering Materials

The engineering materials are mainly classified as:

1. Metals and their alloys, such as iron, steel, copper, aluminum, etc.
2. Non-metals, such as glass, rubber, plastic, etc.

The metals may be further classified as:

(a) Ferrous metals and (b) Non-ferrous metals.

The **ferrous metals* are those which have the iron as their main constituent, such as cast iron, wrought iron and steel.

The ***non-ferrous*** metals are those which have a metal other than iron as their main constituent, such as copper, aluminum, brass, tin, zinc, etc.

Selection of Materials for Engineering Purposes

The selection of a proper material, for engineering purposes, is one of the most difficult problems for the designer. The best material is one which serves the desired objective at the minimum cost. The following factors should be considered while selecting the material:

1. Availability of the materials,
2. Suitability of the materials for the working conditions in service, and
3. The cost of the materials.

The important properties, which determine the utility of the material, are physical, chemical and mechanical properties. We shall now discuss the physical and mechanical properties of the material in the following articles.

Physical Properties of Metals

The physical properties of the metals include luster, colour, size and shape, density, electric and thermal conductivity, and melting point. The following table shows the important physical properties of some pure metals.

Mechanical Properties of Metals

The mechanical properties of the metals are those which are associated with the ability of the material to resist mechanical forces and load. These mechanical properties of the metal include strength, stiffness, elasticity, plasticity, ductility, brittleness, malleability, toughness, resilience, creep and hardness. We shall now discuss these properties as follows:

1. **Strength.** It is the ability of a material to resist the externally applied forces without breaking or yielding. The internal resistance offered by a part to an externally applied force is called stress.
2. **Stiffness.** It is the ability of a material to resist deformation under stress. The modulus of elasticity is the measure of stiffness.

3. Elasticity. It is the property of a material to regain its original shape after deformation when the external forces are removed. This property is desirable for materials used in tools and machines. It may be noted that steel is more elastic than rubber.

4. Plasticity. It is property of a material which retains the deformation produced under load permanently. This property of the material is necessary for forgings, in stamping images on coins and in ornamental work.

5. Ductility. It is the property of a material enabling it to be drawn into wire with the application of a tensile force. A ductile material must be both strong and plastic. The ductility is usually measured by the terms, percentage elongation and percentage reduction in area. The ductile material commonly used in engineering practice (in order of diminishing ductility) are mild steel, copper, aluminium, nickel, zinc, tin and lead.

6. Brittleness. It is the property of a material opposite to ductility. It is the property of breaking of a material with little permanent distortion. Brittle materials when subjected to tensile loads snap off without giving any sensible elongation. Cast iron is a brittle material.

7. Malleability. It is a special case of ductility which permits materials to be rolled or hammered into thin sheets. A malleable material should be plastic but it is not essential to be so strong. The malleable materials commonly used in engineering practice (in order of diminishing malleability) are lead, soft steel, wrought iron, copper and aluminium.

8. Toughness. It is the property of a material to resist fracture due to high impact loads like hammer blows. The toughness of the material decreases when it is heated. It is measured by the amount of energy that a unit volume of the material has absorbed after being stressed upto the point of fracture. This property is desirable in parts subjected to shock and impact loads.

9. Machinability. It is the property of a material which refers to a relative ease with which a material can be cut. The machinability of a material can be measured in a number of ways such as comparing the tool life for cutting different materials or thrust required to remove the material at some given rate or the energy required to remove a unit volume of the material. It may be noted that brass can be easily machined than steel.

10. Resilience. It is the property of a material to absorb energy and to resist shock and impact loads. It is measured by the amount of energy absorbed per unit volume within elastic limit. This property is essential for spring materials.

11. Creep. When a part is subjected to a constant stress at high temperature for a long period of time, it will undergo a slow and permanent deformation called **creep**. This property is considered in designing internal combustion engines, boilers and turbines.

12. Fatigue. When a material is subjected to repeated stresses, it fails at stresses below the yield point stresses. Such type of failure of a material is known as ***fatigue**. The failure is caused by means of a progressive crack formation which are usually fine and of microscopic size. This property is considered in designing shafts, connecting rods, springs, gears, etc.

13. Hardness. It is a very important property of the metals and has a wide variety of meanings. It embraces many different properties such as resistance to wear, scratching, deformation and machinability etc. It also means the ability of a metal to cut another metal. The hardness is usually expressed in numbers which are dependent on the method of making the test. The hardness of a metal may be determined by the following tests:

- (a) Brinell hardness test,
- (b) Rockwell hardness test,
- (c) Vickers hardness (also called Diamond Pyramid) test, and
- (d) Shore scleroscope.

Steel

It is an alloy of iron and carbon, with carbon content up to a maximum of 1.5%. The carbon occurs in the form of iron carbide, because of its ability to increase the hardness and strength of the steel. Other elements *e.g.* silicon, sulphur, phosphorus and manganese are also present to greater or lesser amount to impart certain desired properties to it. Most of the steel produced now-a-days is **plain carbon steel** or simply **carbon steel**. A carbon steel is defined as a steel which has its properties mainly due to its carbon content and does not contain more than 0.5% of silicon and 1.5% of manganese.

The plain carbon steels varying from 0.06% carbon to 1.5% carbon are divided into the following types depending upon the carbon content.

1. Dead mild steel — up to 0.15% carbon

2. Low carbon or mild steel — 0.15% to 0.45% carbon

3. Medium carbon steel — 0.45% to 0.8% carbon

4. High carbon steel — 0.8% to 1.5% carbon

According to Indian standard *[IS: 1762 (Part-I)–1974], a new system of designating the steel is recommended. According to this standard, steels are designated on the following two basis: (a) On the basis of mechanical properties, and (b) On the basis of chemical composition. We shall now discuss, in detail, the designation of steel on the above two basis, in the following pages.

Steels Designated on the Basis of Mechanical Properties

These steels are carbon and low alloy steels where the main criterion in the selection and inspection of steel is the tensile strength or yield stress. According to Indian standard IS: 1570 (Part-I)- 1978 (Reaffirmed 1993), these steels are designated by a symbol 'Fe' or 'Fe E' depending on whether the steel has been specified on the basis of minimum tensile strength or yield strength, followed by the figure indicating the minimum tensile strength or yield stress in N/mm². For example 'Fe 290' means steel having minimum tensile strength of 290 N/mm² and 'Fe E 220' means a steel having yield strength of 220 N/mm².

Steels Designated on the Basis of Chemical Composition

According to Indian standard, IS : 1570 (Part II/Sec I)-1979 (Reaffirmed 1991), the carbon steels are designated in the following order:

(a) Figure indicating 100 times the average percentage of carbon content,

(b) Letter 'C', and

(c) Figure indicating 10 times the average percentage of manganese content. The figure after multiplying shall be rounded off to the nearest integer.

For example 20C8 means a carbon steel containing 0.15 to 0.25 per cent (0.2 per cent on average) carbon and 0.60 to 0.90 per cent (0.75 per cent rounded off to 0.8 per cent on an average) manganese.

Effect of Impurities on Steel

The following are the effects of impurities like silicon, sulphur, manganese and phosphorus on steel.

1. Silicon. The amount of silicon in the finished steel usually ranges from 0.05 to 0.30%. Silicon is added in low carbon steels to prevent them from becoming porous. It removes the gases and oxides, prevent blow holes and thereby makes the steel tougher and harder.

2. Sulphur. It occurs in steel either as iron sulphide or manganese sulphide. Iron sulphide because of its low melting point produces red shortness, whereas manganese sulphide does not affect so much. Therefore, manganese sulphide is less objectionable in steel than iron sulphide.

3. Manganese. It serves as a valuable deoxidizing and purifying agent in steel. Manganese also combines with sulphur and thereby decreases the harmful effect of this element remaining in the steel. When used in ordinary low carbon steels, manganese makes the metal ductile and of good bending qualities. In high speed steels, it is used to toughen the metal and to increase its critical temperature.

4. Phosphorus. It makes the steel brittle. It also produces cold shortness in steel. In low carbon steels, it raises the yield point and improves the resistance to atmospheric corrosion. The sum of carbon and phosphorus usually does not exceed 0.25%.

References:

1. Machine Design - V.Bandari .
2. Machine Design – R.S. Khurmi
3. Design Data hand Book - S MD Jalaludin.

Manufacturing considerations in Machine design

Manufacturing Processes

The knowledge of manufacturing processes is of great importance for a design engineer. The following are the various manufacturing processes used in Mechanical Engineering.

1. *Primary shaping processes.* The processes used for the preliminary shaping of the machine component are known as primary shaping processes. The common operations used for this process are casting, forging, extruding, rolling, drawing, bending, shearing, spinning, powder metal forming, squeezing, etc.

2. *Machining processes.* The processes used for giving final shape to the machine component, according to planned dimensions are known as machining processes. The common operations used for this process are turning, planning, shaping, drilling, boring, reaming, sawing, broaching, milling, grinding, hobbing, etc.

3. *Surface finishing processes.* The processes used to provide a good surface finish for the machine component are known as surface finishing processes. The common operations used for this process are polishing, buffing, honing, lapping, abrasive belt grinding, barrel tumbling, electroplating, super finishing, sheradizing, etc.

4. *Joining processes.* The processes used for joining machine components are known as joining processes. The common operations used for this process are welding, riveting, soldering, brazing, screw fastening, pressing, sintering, etc.

5. *Processes effecting change in properties.* These processes are used to impart certain specific properties to the machine components so as to make them suitable for particular operations or uses. Such processes are heat treatment, hot-working, cold-working and shot peening.

Other considerations in Machine design

1. Workshop facilities.
2. Number of machines to be manufactured
3. Cost of construction

4. Assembling

Interchangeability

The term interchangeability is normally employed for the mass production of identical items within the prescribed limits of sizes. A little consideration will show that in order to maintain the sizes of the part within a close degree of accuracy, a lot of time is required. But even then there will be small variations. If the variations are within certain limits, all parts of equivalent size will be equally fit for operating in machines and mechanisms. Therefore, certain variations are recognized and allowed in the sizes of the mating parts to give the required fitting. This facilitates to select at random from a large number of parts for an assembly and results in a considerable saving in the cost of production.

Important Terms used in Limit System

The following terms used in limit system (or interchangeable system) are important from the subject point of view:

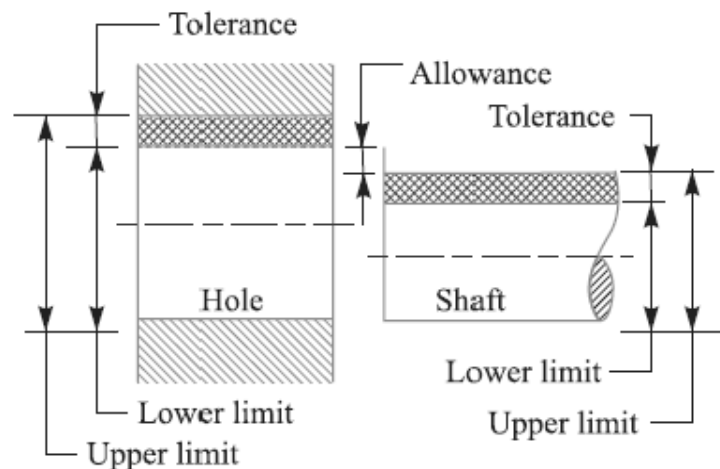


Fig. Limits of sizes.

1. **Nominal size.** It is the size of a part specified in the drawing as a matter of convenience.
2. **Basic size.** It is the size of a part to which all limits of variation (i.e. tolerances) are applied to arrive at final dimensioning of the mating parts. The nominal or basic size of a part is often the same.
3. **Actual size.** It is the actual measured dimension of the part. The difference between the basic size and the actual size should not exceed a certain limit; otherwise it will interfere with the interchangeability of the mating parts.
4. **Limits of sizes.** There are two extreme permissible sizes for a dimension of the part as shown in Fig. The largest permissible size for a dimension of the part is called **upper or high or maximum limit**, whereas the smallest size of the part is known as **lower or minimum limit**.
5. **Allowance.** It is the difference between the basic dimensions of the mating parts. The allowance may be **positive** or **negative**. When the shaft size is less than the hole size, then the allowance is **positive** and when the shaft size is greater than the hole size, then the allowance is **negative**.



Fig. Method of assigning Tolerances

6. **Tolerance.** It is the difference between the upper limit and lower limit of a dimension. In other words, it is the maximum permissible variation in a dimension. The tolerance may be **unilateral** or **bilateral**. When all the tolerance is allowed on one side of the nominal size, e.g. $20^{+0.000}_{-0.004}$, then it is said to be **unilateral system of tolerance**. The unilateral system is mostly used in industries as it permits changing the tolerance value while still retaining the same

allowance or type of fit. When the tolerance is allowed on both sides of the nominal size, e.g.

$20^{+0.002}_{-0.002}$, then it is said to be **bilateral system of tolerance**. In this case + 0.002 is the upper limit and – 0.002 is the lower limit.

7. Tolerance zone. It is the zone between the maximum and minimum limit size.

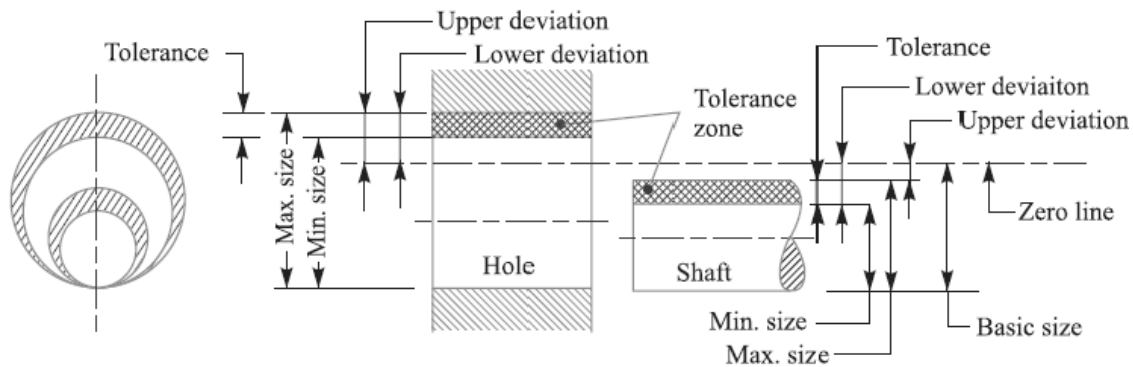


Fig. Tolerance Zone

8. Zero line. It is a straight line corresponding to the basic size. The deviations are measured from this line. The positive and negative deviations are shown above and below the zero line respectively.

9. Upper deviation. It is the algebraic difference between the maximum size and the basic size. The upper deviation of a hole is represented by a symbol ES (Ecart Superior) and of a shaft, it is represented by es.

10. Lower deviation. It is the algebraic difference between the minimum size and the basic size. The lower deviation of a hole is represented by a symbol EI (Ecart Inferior) and of a shaft, it is represented by ei.

11. Actual deviation. It is the algebraic difference between an actual size and the corresponding basic size.

12. Mean deviation. It is the arithmetical mean between the upper and lower deviations.

13. Fundamental deviation. It is one of the two deviations which are conventionally chosen to define the position of the tolerance zone in relation to zero line, as shown in Fig.

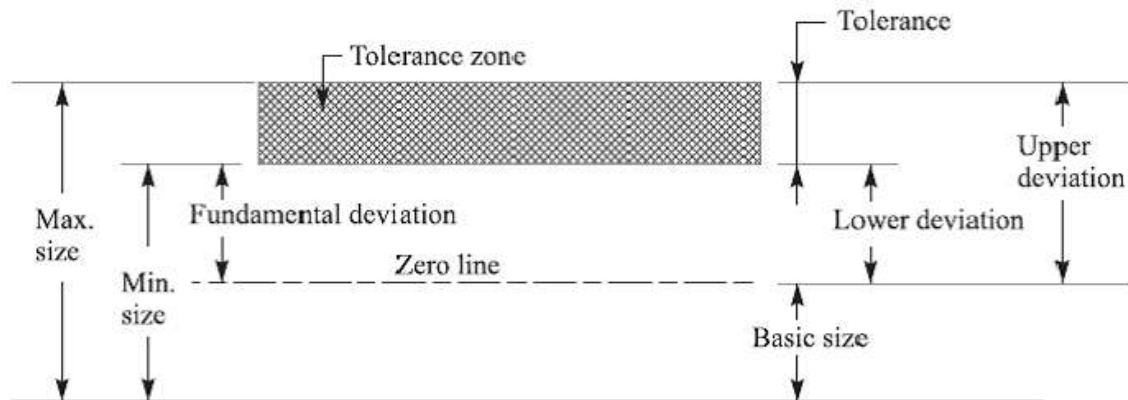


Fig. Fundamental deviation.

Fits

The degree of tightness or looseness between the two mating parts is known as a *fit* of the parts. The nature of fit is characterized by the presence and size of clearance and interference. The **clearance** is the amount by which the actual size of the shaft is less than the actual size of the mating hole in an assembly as shown in Fig. 3.5 (a). In other words, the clearance is the difference between the sizes of the hole and the shaft before assembly. The difference must be **positive**.

The **clearance** is the amount by which the actual size of the shaft is less than the actual size of the mating hole in an assembly as shown in Fig. (a). In other words, the clearance is the difference between the sizes of the hole and the shaft before assembly. The difference must be **positive**.

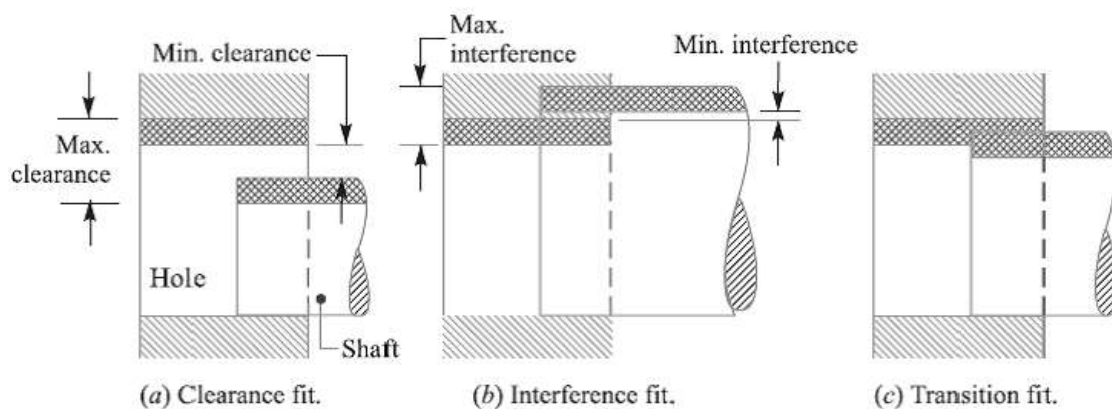


Fig. Types of fits.

The **interference** is the amount by which the actual size of a shaft is larger than the actual finished size of the mating hole in an assembly as shown in Fig. (b). In other words, the

interference is the arithmetical difference between the sizes of the hole and the shaft, before assembly. The difference must be **negative**.

Types of Fits

According to Indian standards, the fits are classified into the following three groups:

1. Clearance fit. In this type of fit, the size limits for mating parts are so selected that clearance between them always occur, as shown in Fig. (a). It may be noted that in a clearance fit, the tolerance zone of the hole is entirely above the tolerance zone of the shaft. In a clearance fit, the difference between the minimum size of the hole and the maximum size of the shaft is known as **minimum clearance** whereas the difference between the maximum size of the hole and minimum size of the shaft is called **maximum clearance** as shown in Fig. (a). The clearance fits may be slide fit, easy sliding fit, running fit, slack running fit and loose running fit.

2. Interference fit. In this type of fit, the size limits for the mating parts are so selected that interference between them always occur, as shown in Fig. (b). It may be noted that in an interference fit, the tolerance zone of the hole is entirely below the tolerance zone of the shaft. In an interference fit, the difference between the maximum size of the hole and the minimum size of the shaft is known as **minimum interference**, whereas the difference between the minimum size of the hole and the maximum size of the shaft is called **maximum interference**, as shown in Fig. (b).

The interference fits may be shrink fit, heavy drive fit and light drive fit.

3. Transition fit. In this type of fit, the size limits for the mating parts are so selected that either a clearance or interference may occur depending upon the actual size of the mating parts, as shown in Fig. (c). It may be noted that in a transition fit, the tolerance zones of hole and shaft overlap. The transition fits may be force fit, tight fit and push fit.

Basis of Limit System

The following are two bases of limit system:

1. Hole basis system. When the hole is kept as a constant member (*i.e.* when the lower deviation of the hole is zero) and different fits are obtained by varying the shaft size, as shown in Fig. (a), then the limit system is said to be on a hole basis.

2. Shaft basis system. When the shaft is kept as a constant member (*i.e.* when the upper deviation of the shaft is zero) and different fits are obtained by varying the hole size, as shown in Fig.(b), Then the limit system is said to be on a shaft basis.

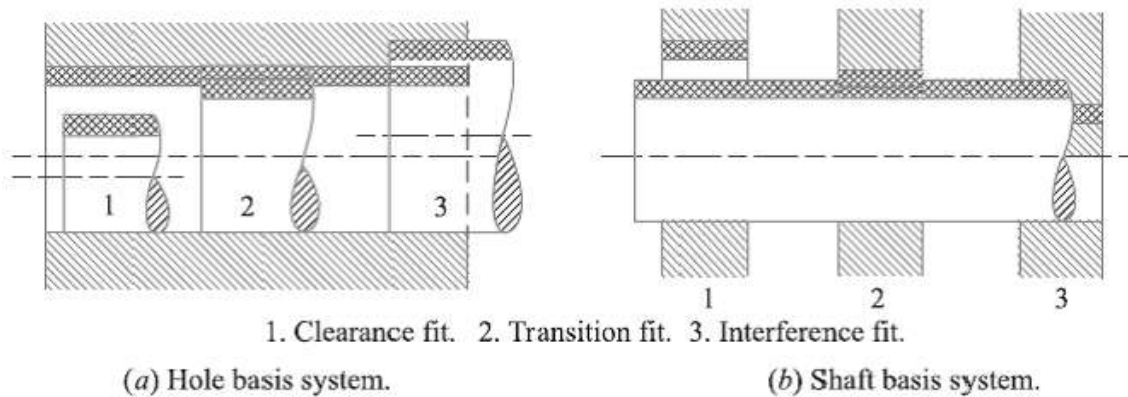


Fig. Bases of Limit System.

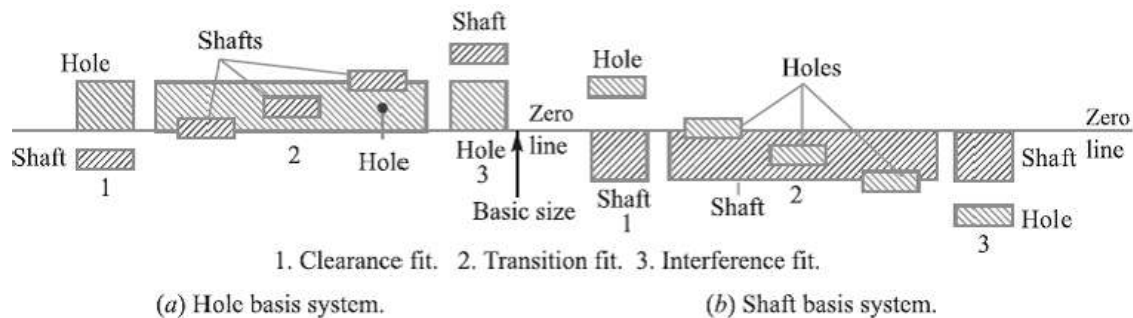


Fig. Bases of Limit System

The hole basis and shaft basis system may also be shown as in Fig. with respect to the zero line. It may be noted that from the manufacturing point of view, a hole basis system is always preferred. This is because the holes are usually produced and finished by standard tooling like drill, reamers, etc., whose size is not adjustable easily. On the other hand, the size of the shaft (which is to go into the hole) can be easily adjusted and is obtained by turning or grinding operations.

References:

1. Machine Design - V.Bandari .
2. Machine Design – R.S. Khurmi
3. Design Data hand Book - S MD Jalaludin.

Problem-1:

The dimensions of the mating parts, according to basic hole system, are given as follows:

Hole : 25.00 mm Shaft : 24.97 mm

25.02 mm 24.95 mm

Find the hole tolerance, shaft tolerance and allowance.

Solution. Given : Lower limit of hole = 25 mm ; Upper limit of hole = 25.02 mm ;
Upper limit of shaft = 24.97 mm ; Lower limit of shaft = 24.95 mm

Hole tolerance

We know that hole tolerance

$$= \text{Upper limit of hole} - \text{Lower limit of hole} \\ = 25.02 - 25 = 0.02 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

Shaft tolerance

We know that shaft tolerance

$$= \text{Upper limit of shaft} - \text{Lower limit of shaft} \\ = 24.97 - 24.95 = 0.02 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

Allowance

We know that allowance

$$= \text{Lower limit of hole} - \text{Upper limit of shaft} \\ = 25.00 - 24.97 = 0.03 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

Problem-2:

Calculate the tolerances, fundamental deviations and limits of sizes for the shaft designated as 40 H8 / f7.

Solution. Given: Shaft designation = 40 H8 / f7

The shaft designation 40 H8 / f7 means that the basic size is 40 mm and the tolerance grade for the hole is 8 (*i.e.* IT 8) and for the shaft is 7 (*i.e.* IT 7).

Tolerances

Since 40 mm lies in the diameter steps of 30 to 50 mm, therefore the geometric mean diameter,

$$D = \sqrt{30 \times 50} = 38.73 \text{ mm}$$

We know that standard tolerance unit,

$$i = 0.45 \sqrt[3]{D} + 0.001 D \\ = 0.45 \sqrt[3]{38.73} + 0.001 \times 38.73 \\ = 0.45 \times 3.38 + 0.03873 = 1.559 73 \text{ or } 1.56 \text{ microns} \\ = 1.56 \times 0.001 = 0.001 56 \text{ mm} \quad \dots (\because 1 \text{ micron} = 0.001 \text{ mm})$$

From Table 3.2, we find that standard tolerance for the hole of grade 8 (IT 8)

$$= 25 i = 25 \times 0.001 56 = 0.039 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

and standard tolerance for the shaft of grade 7 (IT 7)

$$= 16 i = 16 \times 0.001 56 = 0.025 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

Fundamental deviation

We know that fundamental deviation (lower deviation) for hole H ,

$$EI = 0$$

From Table 3.7, we find that fundamental deviation (upper deviation) for shaft f ,

$$\begin{aligned} es &= -5.5 (D)^{0.41} \\ &= -5.5 (38.73)^{0.41} = -24.63 \text{ or } -25 \text{ microns} \\ &= -25 \times 0.001 = -0.025 \text{ mm Ans.} \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore$ Fundamental deviation (lower deviation) for shaft f ,

$$ei = es - IT = -0.025 - 0.025 = -0.050 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

The -ve sign indicates that fundamental deviation lies below the zero line.

Limits of sizes

We know that lower limit for hole

$$= \text{Basic size} = 40 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

Upper limit for hole = Lower limit for hole + Tolerance for hole

$$= 40 + 0.039 = 40.039 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

Upper limit for shaft = Lower limit for hole or Basic size - Fundamental deviation

(upper deviation) $\dots (\because \text{Shaft } f \text{ lies below the zero line})$

$$= 40 - 0.025 = 39.975 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

and lower limit for shaft = Upper limit for shaft - Tolerance for shaft

$$= 39.975 - 0.025 = 39.95 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

Problem-3:

A journal of nominal or basic size of 75 mm runs in a bearing with close running fit. Find the limits of shaft and bearing. What is the maximum and minimum clearance?

Solution. Given: Nominal or basic size = 75 mm

From Table 3.5, we find that the close running fit is represented by $H 8/g 7$, i.e. a shaft $g 7$ should be used with $H 8$ hole.

Since 75 mm lies in the diameter steps of 50 to 80 mm, therefore the geometric mean diameter,

$$D = \sqrt{50 \times 80} = 63 \text{ mm}$$

We know that standard tolerance unit,

$$\begin{aligned} i &= 0.45 \sqrt[3]{D} + 0.001 D = 0.45 \sqrt[3]{63} + 0.001 \times 63 \\ &= 1.79 + 0.063 = 1.853 \text{ micron} \\ &= 1.853 \times 0.001 = 0.001 853 \text{ mm} \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore$ Standard tolerance for hole ' H ' of grade 8 ($IT 8$)

$$= 25 i = 25 \times 0.001 853 = 0.046 \text{ mm}$$

and standard tolerance for shaft ' g ' of grade 7 ($IT 7$)

$$= 16 i = 16 \times 0.001 853 = 0.03 \text{ mm}$$

From Table 3.7, we find that upper deviation for shaft g ,

$$\begin{aligned} es &= -2.5 (D)^{0.34} = -2.5 (63)^{0.34} = -10 \text{ micron} \\ &= -10 \times 0.001 = -0.01 \text{ mm} \end{aligned}$$

∴ Lower deviation for shaft g ,

$$ei = es - IT = -0.01 - 0.03 = -0.04 \text{ mm}$$

We know that lower limit for hole

$$= \text{Basic size} = 75 \text{ mm}$$

Upper limit for hole = Lower limit for hole + Tolerance for hole

$$= 75 + 0.046 = 75.046 \text{ mm}$$

Upper limit for shaft = Lower limit for hole – Upper deviation for shaft

... (∵ Shaft g lies below zero line)

$$= 75 - 0.01 = 74.99 \text{ mm}$$

and lower limit for shaft = Upper limit for shaft – Tolerance for shaft

$$= 74.99 - 0.03 = 74.96 \text{ mm}$$

We know that maximum clearance

$$= \text{Upper limit for hole} - \text{Lower limit for shaft}$$

$$= 75.046 - 74.96 = 0.086 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

and minimum clearance = Lower limit for hole – Upper limit for shaft

$$= 75 - 74.99 = 0.01 \text{ mm Ans.}$$

References:

1. Machine Design - V. Bandari .
2. Machine Design – R.S. Khurmi
3. Design Data hand Book - S MD Jalaludin.