Engineering Mechanics

ME-205F

Second year B.Tech Degree

Basic & Derived Quantities

- Basic quantities
  - *Length*
  - *Time*
  - *Mass*
  - *Force*
- Idealizations
  - *Particle: which has a mass but no size.*
  - *Rigid body: can be considered as a combination of a large number of particles in which all the particles remain at a fixed distance from one to other, both before & after applying a load.*
  - *Conc. Force: assumed to act at a point on a body.*

General procedure for analysis

- Statics is the study of bodies that are at rest or move with constant velocity.
- A particle has a mass but a size that can be neglected.
- A rigid body does not deform under load.
- Concentrated forces are assumed to act at a point on a body.
- All Newton's three laws of motion are used throughout the subject.
- Mass is a measure of a quantity of matter that does not change from one location to other.
- Weight refers to the gravitational attraction from the earth on a body or quantity of mass. Its magnitude depends upon the elevation at which the mass is located.
- In SI unit of measurement the base units are meter, seconds & Kg while the unit of force is Newton, which is a derived unit.

Metric number prefixes

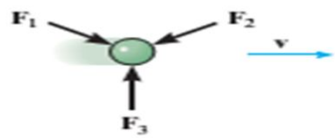
TABLE 1–3 Prefixes

	Exponential Form	Prefix	SI Symbol
Multiple			
1 000 000 000	10^9	giga	G
1 000 000	10^6	mega	M
1 000	10^3	kilo	k
Submultiple			
0.001	10^{-3}	milli	m
0.000 001	10^{-6}	micro	μ
0.000 000 001	10^{-9}	nano	n

Newton’s laws of motion

Newton’s Three Laws of Motion. Engineering mechanics is formulated on the basis of Newton’s three laws of motion, the validity of which is based on experimental observation. These laws apply to the motion of a particle as measured from a *nonaccelerating* reference frame. They may be briefly stated as follows.

First Law. A particle originally at rest, or moving in a straight line with constant velocity, tends to remain in this state provided the particle is *not* subjected to an unbalanced force, Fig. 1–1*a*.



Equilibrium

(a)

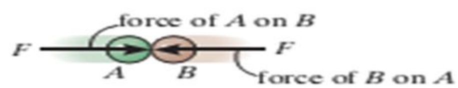
Second Law. A particle acted upon by an *unbalanced force* **F** experiences an acceleration **a** that has the same direction as the force and a magnitude that is directly proportional to the force, Fig. 1–1*b*.* If **F** is applied to a particle of mass *m*, this law may be expressed mathematically as

$$\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a} \qquad (1\text{–}1)$$

Accelerated motion

(b)

Third Law. The mutual forces of action and reaction between two particles are equal, opposite, and collinear, Fig. 1–1*c*.



Action – reaction

(c)

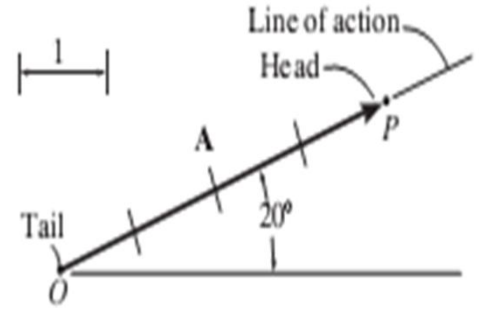
Fig. 1–1

Scalars & Vectors

All physical quantities in engineering mechanics are measured using either scalars or vectors.

Scalar. A *scalar* is any positive or negative physical quantity that can be completely specified by its *magnitude*. Examples of scalar quantities include length, mass, and time.

Vector. A *vector* is any physical quantity that requires both a *magnitude* and a *direction* for its complete description. Examples of vectors encountered in statics are force, position, and moment. A vector is shown graphically by an arrow. The length of the arrow represents the *magnitude* of the vector, and the angle θ between the vector and a fixed axis defines the *direction of its line of action*. The head or tip of the arrow indicates the *sense of direction* of the vector, Fig. 2–1.



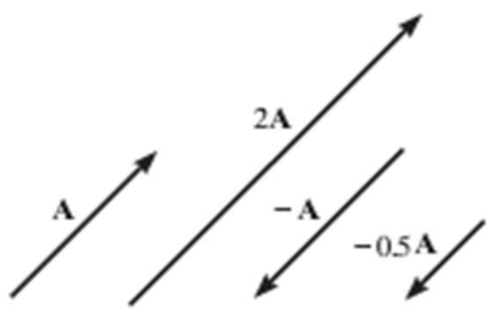
Vector operations

- Vector addition
- Vector subtraction
- Vector multiplication

- Finding resultant of vectors
- Finding components of a vector

Vector operations

Multiplication and Division of a Vector by a Scalar. If a vector is multiplied by a positive scalar, its magnitude is increased by that amount. Multiplying by a negative scalar will also change the directional sense of the vector. Graphic examples of these operations are shown in Fig. 2–2.



Scalar multiplication and division

Fig. 2–2

Addition of vectors

Vector Addition. All vector quantities obey the *parallelogram law of addition*. To illustrate, the two "*component*" *vectors* **A** and **B** in Fig. 2–3*a* are added to form a "*resultant*" *vector* **R** = **A** + **B** using the following procedure:

- First join the tails of the components at a point to make them concurrent, Fig. 2–3*b*.
- From the head of **B**, draw a line parallel to **A**. Draw another line from the head of **A** that is parallel to **B**. These two lines intersect at point *P* to form the adjacent sides of a parallelogram.
- The diagonal of this parallelogram that extends to *P* forms **R**, which then represents the resultant vector **R** = **A** + **B**, Fig. 2–3*c*.

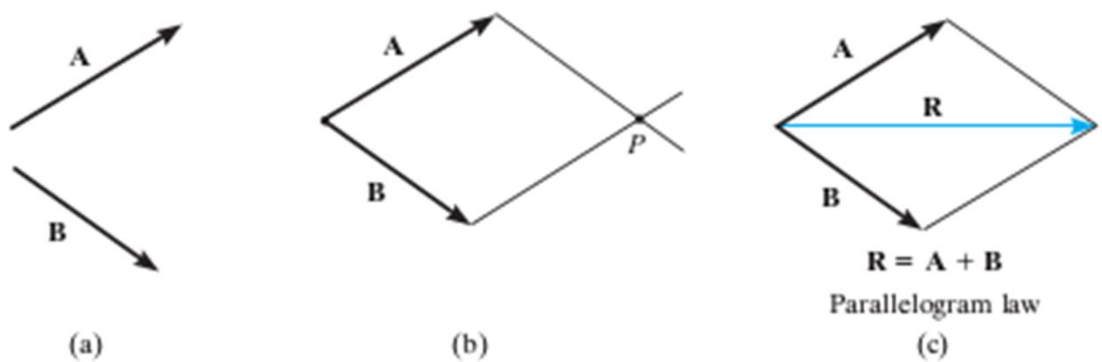


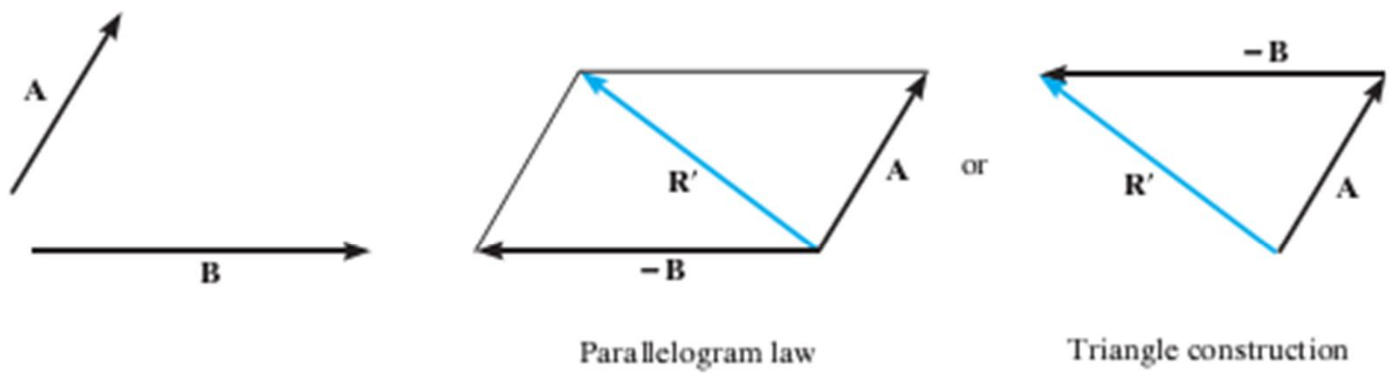
Fig. 2–3

Subtraction of vectors

Vector Subtraction. The resultant of the *difference* between two vectors **A** and **B** of the same type may be expressed as

$$\mathbf{R}' = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + (-\mathbf{B})$$

This vector sum is shown graphically in Fig. 2–6. Subtraction is therefore defined as a special case of addition, so the rules of vector addition also apply to vector subtraction.



Vector subtraction

Fig. 2–6

Resultant of vectors

Procedure for analysis

Parallelogram Law.

- Two "component" forces $\mathbf{F}_1$ and $\mathbf{F}_2$ in Fig. 2–10*a* add according to the parallelogram law, yielding a *resultant* force $\mathbf{F}_R$ that forms the diagonal of the parallelogram.

- If a force $\mathbf{F}$ is to be resolved into *components* along two axes u and v, Fig. 2–10*b*, then start at the head of force $\mathbf{F}$ and construct lines parallel to the axes, thereby forming the parallelogram. The sides of the parallelogram represent the components, $\mathbf{F}_u$ and $\mathbf{F}_v$.

- Label all the known and unknown force magnitudes and the angles on the sketch and identify the two unknowns as the magnitude and direction of $\mathbf{F}_R$, or the magnitudes of its components.

Trigonometry.

- Redraw a half portion of the parallelogram to illustrate the triangular head-to-tail addition of the components.

- From this triangle, the magnitude of the resultant force can be determined using the law of cosines, and its direction is determined from the law of sines. The magnitudes of two force components are determined from the law of sines. The formulas are given in Fig. 2–10*c*.

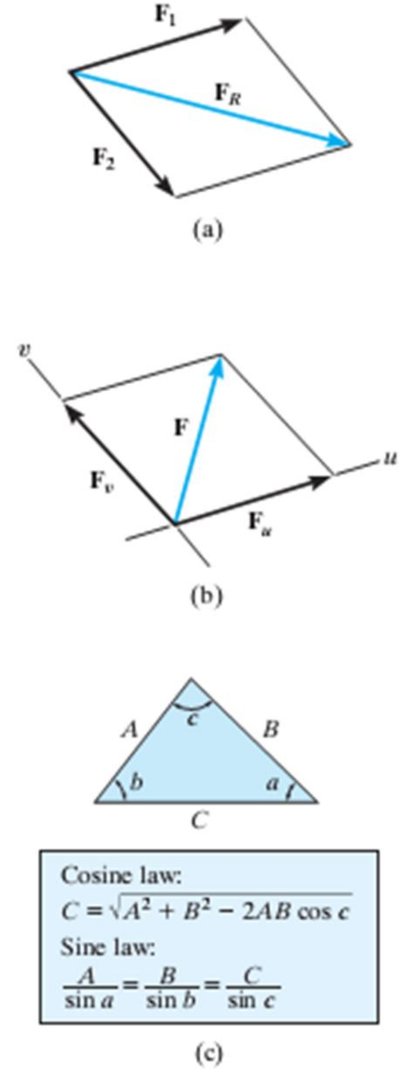
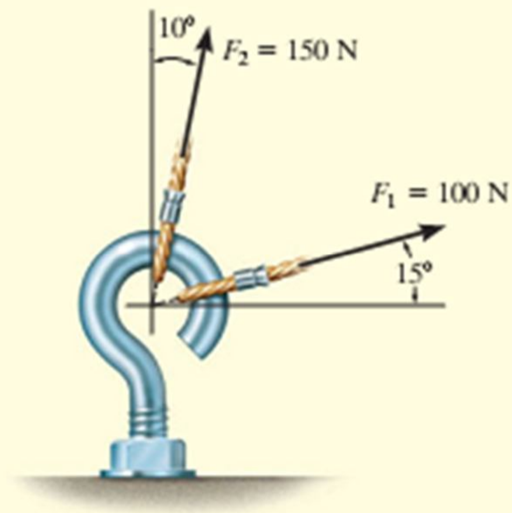


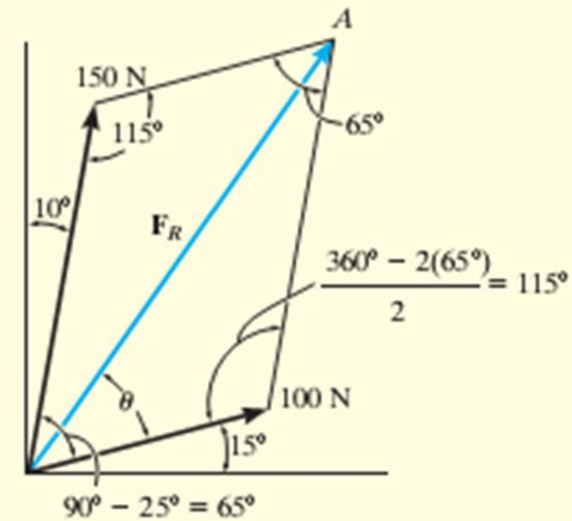
Fig. 2–10

Numerical

The screw eye in Fig. 2–11*a* is subjected to two forces, $\mathbf{F}_1$ and $\mathbf{F}_2$. Determine the magnitude and direction of the resultant force.



(a)



(b)

Numerical

Resolve the horizontal 600 kg force in Fig. 2–12*a* into components acting along the *u* and *v* axes and determine the magnitudes of these components.

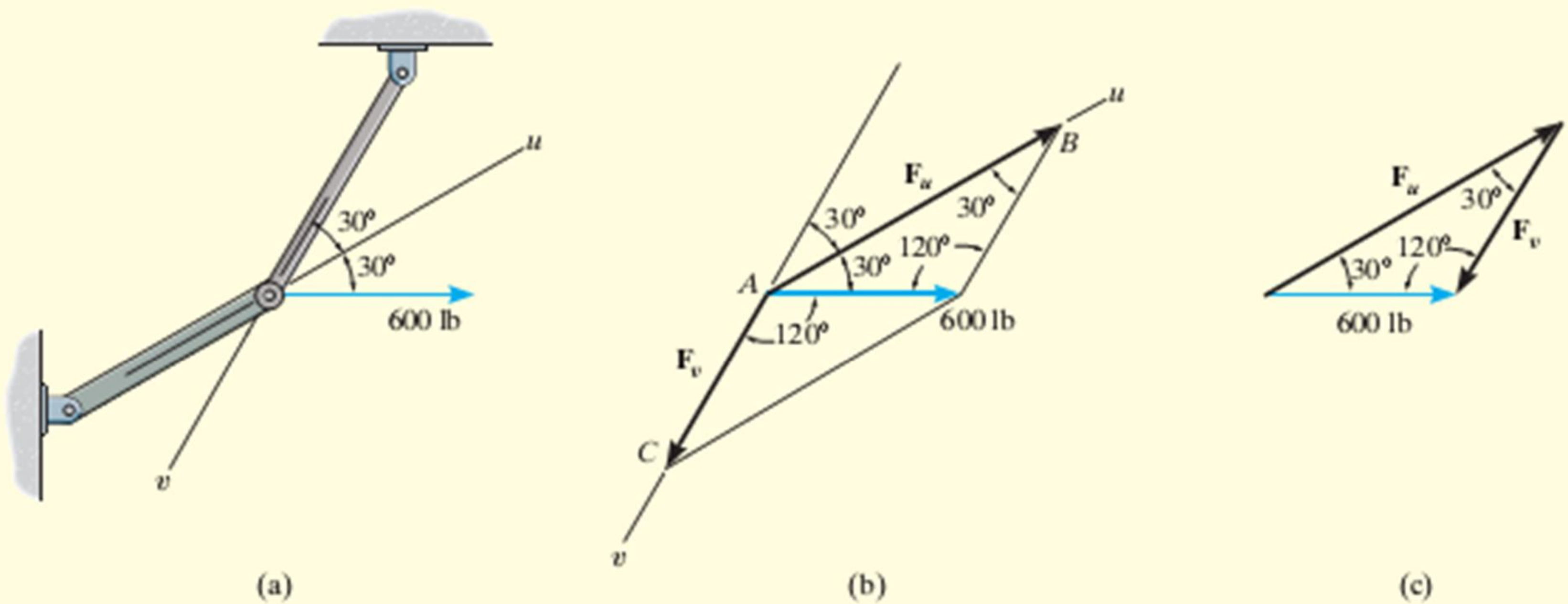


Fig. 2–12

Condition for equilibrium for a particle

A particle is said to be in *equilibrium* if it remains at rest if originally at rest, or has a constant velocity if originally in motion. Most often, however, the term "equilibrium" or, more specifically, "static equilibrium" is used to describe an object at rest. To maintain equilibrium, it is *necessary* to satisfy Newton's first law of motion, which requires the *resultant force* acting on a particle to be equal to *zero*. This condition may be stated mathematically as

$$\Sigma \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0} \qquad (3\text{–}1)$$

where $\Sigma \mathbf{F}$ is the vector *sum of all the forces* acting on the particle.

Free Body diagram & procedure for drawing FBD

Successful application of the equations of equilibrium requires a complete specification of *all* the known and unknown external forces that act *on* the body. The best way to account for these forces is to draw a free-body diagram. This diagram is a sketch of the outlined shape of the body, which represents it as being *isolated* or "free" from its surroundings, i.e., a "free body." On this sketch it is necessary to show *all* the forces and couple moments that the surroundings exert *on the body* so that these effects can be accounted for when the equations of equilibrium are applied. *A thorough understanding of how to draw a free-body diagram is of primary importance for solving problems in mechanics.*

Procedure

Since we must account for *all the forces acting on the particle* when applying the equations of equilibrium, the importance of first drawing a free-body diagram cannot be overemphasized. To construct a free-body diagram, the following three steps are necessary.

Draw Outlined Shape.

Imagine the particle to be *isolated* or cut "free" from its surroundings by drawing its outlined shape.

Show All Forces.

Indicate on this sketch *all* the forces that act *on the particle*. These forces can be *active forces*, which tend to set the particle in motion, or they can be *reactive forces* which are the result of the constraints or supports that tend to prevent motion. To account for all these forces, it may be helpful to trace around the particle's boundary, carefully noting each force acting on it.

Identify Each Force.

The forces that are *known* should be labeled with their proper magnitudes and directions. Letters are used to represent the magnitudes and directions of forces that are unknown.

Equations for equilibrium

When a body is subjected to a system of forces, which lies in one plane (e.g. x-y plane), then these forces can be resolved into their x & y components. Consequently the equations of equilibrium are;

$$\Sigma F_x = 0$$
$$\Sigma F_y = 0$$
$$\Sigma M_O = 0$$

Here ΣF_x and ΣF_y represent, respectively, the algebraic sums of the x and y components of all the forces acting on the body, and ΣM_O represents the algebraic sum of the couple moments and the moments of all the force components about the z axis, which is perpendicular to the x–y plane and passes through the arbitrary point O.