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VECTOR MECHANICS FOR ENGINEERS

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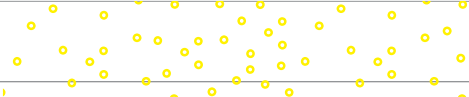
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Vector Mechanics For Engineers

Statics and Dynamics

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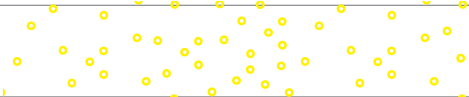
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VECTOR MECHANICS FOR ENGINEERS: STATICS AND DYNAMICS, 2024 RELEASE

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This book is printed on acid-free paper.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 LWI 29 28 27 26 25 24

ISBN 978-1-260-71089-2 (bound)

MHID 1-260-71089-0 (bound)

ISBN 978-1-266-71268-5 (loose-leaf)

MHID 1-266-71268-2 (loose-leaf)

Portfolio Manager: *Beth Bettcher*

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Cover Image: ©Zak Kendal/Getty Images; ©MichaelSvoboda/Getty Images

Compositor: *Straive*

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Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: Beer, Ferdinand P. (Ferdinand Pierre), 1915-2003, author. |

Johnston, E. Russell (Elwood Russell), 1925-2010, author. | Mazurek,

David F. (David Francis), author. | Cornwell, Phillip J., author. |

Self, Brian P., 1966- author.

Title: Vector mechanics for engineers. Statics and dynamics / Ferdinand P.

Beer, late of Lehigh University, E. Russell Johnston, Jr., late of

University of Connecticut, David F. Mazurek, U.S. Coast Guard Academy,

Phillip J. Cornwell, Rose-Hulman Institute of Technology, Brian P. Self,

California Polytechnic State University—San Luis Obispo.

Description: 2024 release. | New York, NY : McGraw Hill Education, 2024. |

Includes index.

Identifiers: LCCN 2023048865 | ISBN 9781260710892 (bound edition ;

acid-free paper) | ISBN 1260710890 (bound edition ; acid-free paper) |

ISBN 9781266712685 (loose leaf edition) | ISBN 1266712682 (loose leaf edition)

Subjects: LCSH: Statics. | Dynamics. | Mechanics, Applied.

Classification: LCC TA350 .B3552 2024 | DDC 620.1/054—dc23/eng/20231114

LC record available at <https://lccn.loc.gov/2023048865>

The Internet addresses listed in the text were accurate at the time of publication. The inclusion of a website does not indicate an endorsement by the authors or McGraw Hill LLC, and McGraw Hill LLC does not guarantee the accuracy of the information presented at these sites.

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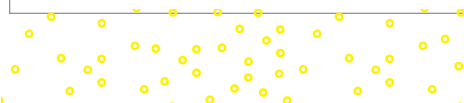
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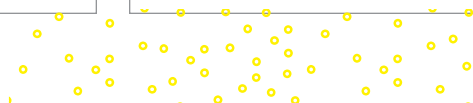
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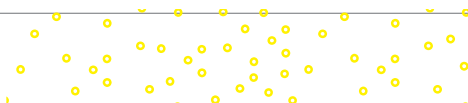
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Preface

Objectives

A primary objective in a first course in mechanics is to help develop a student's ability first to analyze problems in a simple and logical manner, and then to apply basic principles to their solutions. A strong conceptual understanding of these basic mechanics principles is essential for successfully solving mechanics problems. We hope this text will help instructors achieve these goals.

General Approach

Vector algebra is introduced at the beginning of the *Statics* volume and is used in the presentation of the basic principles of statics, as well as in the solution of many problems, particularly three-dimensional problems. Similarly, the concept of vector differentiation is introduced early in the *Dynamics* volume, and vector analysis is used throughout the presentation of dynamics. This approach leads to more concise derivations of the fundamental principles of mechanics. It also makes it possible to analyze many problems in kinematics and kinetics which could not be solved by scalar methods. The emphasis in this text, however, remains on the correct understanding of the principles of mechanics and on their application to the solution of engineering problems, and vector analysis is presented chiefly as a convenient tool.[†]

Practical Applications Are Introduced Early. One of the characteristics of the approach used in this book is that mechanics of *particles* is clearly separated from the mechanics of *rigid bodies*. This approach makes it possible to consider simple practical applications at an early stage and to postpone the introduction of the more difficult concepts. For example:

- In *Statics*, the statics of particles is treated first, and the principle of equilibrium of a particle is immediately applied to practical situations involving only concurrent forces. The statics of rigid bodies is considered later, at which time the vector and scalar products of two vectors are introduced and used to define the moment of a force about a point and about an axis.
- In *Dynamics*, the same division is observed. The basic concepts of force, mass, and acceleration, of work and energy, and of impulse and momentum are introduced and first applied to problems involving only particles. Thus, students can familiarize themselves with the three basic methods used in dynamics and learn their respective advantages before facing the difficulties associated with the motion of rigid bodies.

[†]In a parallel text, *Mechanics for Engineers*, fifth edition, the use of vector algebra is limited to the addition and subtraction of vectors, and vector differentiation is omitted.

2.2 ADDING FORCES BY COMPONENTS

In Sec. 2.1E, we described how to resolve a force into components. Here we discuss how to add forces by using their components, especially rectangular components. This method is often the most convenient way to add forces and, in practice, is the most common approach. (Note that we can really extend the properties of vectors established in this section to the rectangular components of any vector quantity, such as velocity or momentum.)

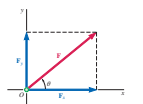


Fig. 2.14 Rectangular components of a force F .

2.2A Rectangular Components of a Force: Unit Vectors

In many problems, it is useful to resolve a force into two components that are perpendicular to each other. Figure 2.14 shows a force F resolved into a component F_x along the x axis and a component F_y along the y axis. The parallelogram drawn to obtain the two components is a rectangle, and F_x and F_y are called **rectangular components**.

The x and y axes are usually chosen to be horizontal and vertical, respectively, as in Fig. 2.14; they may, however, be chosen in any two perpendicular directions, as shown in Fig. 2.15. In determining the rectangular components of a force, you should think of the construction lines shown in Figs. 2.14 and 2.15 as being **parallel** to the x and y axes, rather than **perpendicular** to these axes. This practice will help avoid mistakes in determining **oblique** components, as in Sec. 2.1E.

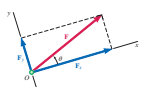


Fig. 2.15 Rectangular components of a force F for axes rotated away from horizontal and vertical.

Force in Terms of Unit Vectors. To simplify working with rectangular components, we introduce two vectors of unit magnitude, directed respectively along the positive x and y axes. These vectors are called **unit vectors** and are denoted by i and j , respectively (Fig. 2.16). Recalling the definition of the product of a scalar and a vector given in Sec. 2.1C, note that we can obtain the rectangular components F_x and F_y of a force F by multiplying respectively the unit vectors i and j by appropriate scalars (Fig. 2.17). We have

$$F_x = F_x i \quad F_y = F_y j \quad (2.6)$$

and

$$F = F_x i + F_y j \quad (2.7)$$

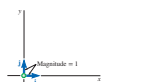


Fig. 2.16 Unit vectors along the x and y axes.

17.1 ENERGY METHODS FOR A RIGID BODY

We now use the principle of work and energy to analyze the plane motion of rigid bodies. As we pointed out in Chap. 13, the method of work and energy is particularly well-adapted to solving problems involving velocities and displacements. Its main advantage is that the work of forces and the kinetic energy of objects are scalar quantities.

17.1A Principle of Work and Energy

To apply the principle of work and energy to the motion of a rigid body, we again assume that the rigid body is made up of a large number n of particles of mass Δm_i . From Eq. (14.30) of Sec. 14.2B, we have

Principle of work and energy, rigid body

$$T_1 + U_{1 \rightarrow 2} = T_2 \quad (17.1)$$

where T_1, T_2 = the initial and final values of total kinetic energy of particles forming the rigid body
 $U_{1 \rightarrow 2}$ = work of all forces acting on various particles of the body

Just as we did in Chap. 13, we can express the work done by nonconservative forces as $U_{1 \rightarrow 2}^{NC}$, and we can define potential energy terms for conservative forces. Then we can express Eq. (17.1) as

$$T_1 + V_{g1} + V_{e1} + U_{1 \rightarrow 2}^{NC} = T_2 + V_{g2} + V_{e2} \quad (17.1')$$

where V_{g1} and V_{g2} are the initial and final gravitational potential energy of the center of mass of the rigid body with respect to a reference point or datum, and V_{e1} and V_{e2} are the initial and final values of the elastic energy associated with springs in the system.

We obtain the total kinetic energy

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta m_i v_i^2 \quad (17.2)$$

by adding positive scalar quantities, so it is itself a positive scalar quantity. You will see later how to determine T for various types of motion of a rigid body.

The expression $U_{1 \rightarrow 2}$ in Eq. (17.1) represents the work of all the forces acting on the various particles of the body, whether these forces are internal or external. However, the total work of the internal forces holding together the particles of a rigid body is zero. To see this, consider two particles A and B of a rigid body and the two equal and opposite forces $\mathbf{F}$ and $-\mathbf{F}$ they exert on each other (Fig. 17.1). Although, in general, small displacements $d\mathbf{r}$ and $d\mathbf{r}'$ of the two particles are different, the components of these displacements along AB must be equal; otherwise, the particles would not remain at the same distance from each other and the body would not be rigid. Therefore, the work of $\mathbf{F}$ is equal in magnitude and opposite in sign to the work of $-\mathbf{F}$.

New Concepts Are Introduced in Simple Terms. New concepts are presented in simple terms and every step is explained in detail. On the other hand, by discussing the broader aspects of the problems considered, and by stressing methods of general applicability, a definite maturity of approach has been achieved. For example, the concept of potential energy is discussed in the general case of a conservative force. Also, the study of the plane motion of rigid bodies is designed to lead naturally to the study of their general motion in space. This is true in kinematics as well as in kinetics, where the principle of equivalence of external forces and inertial terms is applied directly to the analysis of plane motion, thus facilitating the transition to the study of three-dimensional motion.

Fundamental Principles Are Placed in the Context of Simple Applications. The fact that mechanics is essentially a *deductive* science based on a few fundamental principles is stressed. Derivations have been presented in their logical sequence and with all the rigor warranted at this level. However, the learning process is largely inductive, and simple applications are considered first. For example:

- The statics of particles precedes the statics of rigid bodies, and problems involving internal forces are postponed until Chap. 6.
- In Chap. 4, equilibrium problems involving only coplanar forces are considered first and solved by ordinary algebra, while problems involving three-dimensional forces and requiring the full use of vector algebra are discussed in the second part of the chapter.
- The kinematics of particles (Chap. 11) precedes the kinematics of rigid bodies (Chap. 15).
- The fundamental principles of the kinetics of rigid bodies are first applied to the solution of two-dimensional problems (Chaps. 16 and 17), which can be more easily visualized by the student, while three-dimensional problems are postponed until Chap. 18.

The Presentation of the Principles of Kinetics Is Unified. This latest release of *Vector Mechanics for Engineers* retains the unified presentation of the principles of kinetics which characterized the previous twelve editions. The concepts of linear and angular momentum are introduced in Chap. 12 so that Newton's second law of motion can be presented not only in its conventional form $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$, but also as a law relating, respectively, the sum of the forces acting on a particle and the sum of their moments to the rates of change of the linear and angular momentum of the particle. This makes possible an earlier introduction of the principle of conservation of angular momentum and a more meaningful discussion of the motion of a particle under a central force (Sec. 12.3A). More importantly, this approach can be readily extended to the study of the motion of a system of particles (Chap. 14) and leads to a more concise and unified treatment of the kinetics of rigid bodies in two and three dimensions (Chaps. 16 through 18).

Systematic Problem-Solving Approach. All the sample problems are solved using the steps of **Strategy**, **Modeling**, **Analysis**, and **Reflect & Think**, or the "SMART" approach. This methodology is intended to give students confidence when approaching new problems, and students are encouraged to apply this approach in the solution of all assigned problems.

The topics covered in the optional sections in *Statics* include the reduction of a system of forces of a wrench, applications to hydrostatics, equilibrium of cables, products of inertia and Mohr's circle, the determination of the principal axes and the mass moments of inertia of a body of arbitrary shape, and the method of virtual work. The sections on the inertia properties of three-dimensional bodies are primarily intended for students who will later study in dynamics the three-dimensional motion of rigid bodies.

The topics covered in the optional sections in *Dynamics* include graphical methods for the solution of rectilinear-motion problems, the trajectory of a particle under a central force, the deflection of fluid streams, problems involving jet and rocket propulsion, the kinematics and kinetics of rigid bodies in three dimensions, damped mechanical vibrations, and electrical analogues. These topics are of particular interest when dynamics is taught in the junior year.

The material presented in the text and most of the problems require no previous mathematical knowledge beyond algebra, trigonometry, elementary calculus, and the elements of vector algebra presented in Chaps. 2 and 3 of the volume on statics. However, special problems are included, which make use of a more advanced knowledge of calculus, and certain sections, such as Secs. 19.5A and 19.5B on damped vibrations, should be assigned only if students possess the proper mathematical background. In portions of the text using elementary calculus, a greater emphasis is placed on the correct understanding and application of the concepts of differentiation and integration than on the nimble manipulation of mathematical formulas. It should be mentioned that the determination of the centroids of composite areas precedes the calculation of centroids by integration, thus making it possible to establish the concept of moment of area firmly before introducing the use of integration.

Guided Tour

Chapter Introduction. Each chapter begins with a list of learning objectives and an outline that previews chapter topics. An introductory section describes the material to be covered in simple terms, and how it will be applied to the solution of engineering problems.

Chapter Sections. The body of the text is divided into sections, each consisting of one or more sub-sections, several sample problems, and a large number of end-of-section problems for students to solve. Each section corresponds to a well-defined topic and generally can be covered in one lesson. In a number of cases, however, the instructor will find it desirable to devote more than one lesson to a given topic. *The Instructor's and Solutions Manual* contains suggestions on the coverage of each lesson.

Sample Problems. The Sample Problems are set up in much the same form that students will use when solving assigned problems, and they employ the SMART problem-solving methodology that students are encouraged to use in the solution of their assigned problems. They thus serve the double purpose of reinforcing the text and demonstrating the type of neat and orderly work that students should cultivate in their own solutions. In addition, in-problem references and captions have been added to the sample problem figures for contextual linkage to the step-by-step solution. In the digital version, many Sample Problems now have simulations to help students visualize the problem.

Concept Applications. Concept Applications are used within selected theory sections in the Statics volume to amplify certain topics, and they are designed to reinforce the specific material being presented and facilitate its understanding.

Solving Problems on Your Own. A feature entitled *Solving Problems on Your Own* is included for each section, between the sample problems and the problems to be assigned. The purpose of these is to help students organize in their own minds the preceding theory of the text and the solution methods of the sample problems so that they can more successfully solve the homework problems. Also included are specific suggestions and strategies that will enable the students to more efficiently attack any assigned problems.

Case Studies. Statics and dynamics principles are used extensively in engineering applications, particularly for the designing of solutions to problems and for failure analysis when those solutions do not work as planned. Much can be learned from the historical successes and failures of past designs, and unique insight can be gained by studying how engineers developed different products and structures. To this end, real-world Case Studies provide relevance and application to the principles of engineering mechanics being discussed. The Case Studies are developed using the SMART problem-solving methodology to present the story. In this way, they serve as both a practical illustration of the concepts linked to some real-world situation and reinforce the consistent five-step approach to solving engineering problems.



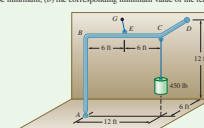
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Introduction

The tallest skyscraper in the Western Hemisphere, One World Trade Center is a prominent feature of the New York City skyline. From its foundation to its structural components and mechanical systems, the design and operation of the tower is based on the fundamentals of engineering mechanics.

Sample Problem 4.10

A 450-lb load hangs from the corner C of a rigid piece of pipe $ABCD$ that has been bent as shown. The pipe is supported by ball-and-socket joints A and D , which are fastened, respectively, to the floor and to a vertical wall, and by a cable attached at the midpoint E of the portion BC of the pipe and at a point G on the wall. Determine (a) where G should be located if the tension in the cable is to be minimum, (b) the corresponding minimum value of the tension.



STRATEGY: Draw the free-body diagram of the pipe showing the reactions at A and D and the force T exerted by the cable. Isolate the unknown tension T and the known weight W by summing moments about the diagonal line AD and compute values from the equilibrium equations.

MODELING and ANALYSIS:

Free-Body Diagram. The free-body diagram of the pipe includes the load W ($=450$ lb), the reactions at A and D , and the force T exerted by the cable (Fig. 1). To eliminate the reactions at A and D from the computations, take the sum of the moments of the forces about the line AD and set it equal to zero. Denote the unit vector along AD by λ , which enables you to write

$$\Sigma M_{AD} = 0: \lambda \cdot (AE \times T) + \lambda \cdot (AC \times W) = 0 \quad (1)$$

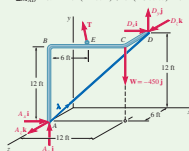


Fig. 1 Free-body diagram of the pipe. (continued)

CASE STUDY 1.1*

Located in Baltimore, Maryland, the Carrollton Viaduct is the oldest railroad bridge in North America and continues in revenue service today. Construction was completed and the bridge put into operation in 1829 by the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad. The structure includes the stone masonry arch shown in CS Photo 1.1, and spans 80 ft. Assuming that the span is solid granite having a unit weight of 170 lb/ft^3 , and that its dimensions can be approximated by those given in CS Fig. 1.1, let's estimate the weight of this span.



CS Photo 1.1 The Carrollton Viaduct in Baltimore, MD. ARS&A Bulletin 732 Volume 82 (October 1989).

STRATEGY: First calculate the volume of the span, and then multiply this volume by the unit weight.

*Adapted from American Railway Engineering Association, *Bulletin* 732, October 1989, p. 221.

(continued)

NEW!

Supported by photographs, selected problems involve real-world situations.

Review and Summary



In this chapter, we have studied the effect of forces on particles, i.e., on bodies of such shape and size that we may assume all forces acting on them apply at the same point.

Resultant of Two Forces

Forces are *vector quantities*; they are characterized by a point of application, a magnitude, and a direction, and they add according to the parallelogram law (Fig. 2.30). We can determine the magnitude and direction of the resultant **R** of two forces **P** and **Q** either graphically or by trigonometry using the law of cosines and the law of sines (Sample Prob. 2.1).

Components of a Force

Any given force acting on a particle can be resolved into two or more components, i.e., it can be replaced by two or more forces that have the same effect on the particle. A force **F** can be resolved into two components **P** and **Q** by drawing a parallelogram with **F** for its diagonal; the components **P** and **Q** are then represented by the two adjacent sides of the parallelogram (Fig. 2.31). Again, we can determine the components either graphically or by trigonometry (Sec. 2.1E).

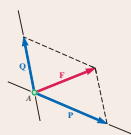


Fig. 2.31

Rectangular Components; Unit Vectors

A force **F** is resolved into two rectangular components if its components **F_x** and **F_y** are perpendicular to each other and are directed along the coordinate axes (Fig. 2.32). Introducing the unit vectors **i** and **j** along the *x* and *y* axes, respectively, we can write the components and the vector as (Sec. 2.2A)

$$\mathbf{F}_x = F_x \mathbf{i} \quad \mathbf{F}_y = F_y \mathbf{j} \quad (2.6)$$

and

$$\mathbf{F} = F_x \mathbf{i} + F_y \mathbf{j} \quad (2.7)$$

where **F_x** and **F_y** are the *scalar components* of **F**. These components, which can be positive or negative, are defined by the relations

$$F_x = F \cos \theta \quad F_y = F \sin \theta \quad (2.8)$$

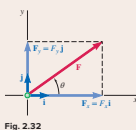


Fig. 2.32

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Review Problems

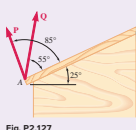


Fig. P2.127

2.127 Two forces **P** and **Q** are applied to the lid of a storage bin as shown. Knowing that $P = 48 \text{ N}$ and $Q = 60 \text{ N}$, determine by trigonometry the magnitude and direction of the resultant of the two forces.

2.128 Determine the *x* and *y* components of each of the forces shown.

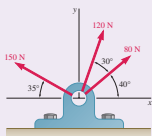


Fig. P2.128

2.129 A hoist trolley is subjected to the three forces shown. Knowing that $\alpha = 40^\circ$, determine (a) the required magnitude of the force **P** if the resultant of the three forces is to be vertical, (b) the corresponding magnitude of the resultant.

2.130 Knowing that $\alpha = 55^\circ$ and that boom **AC** exerts on pin **C** a force directed along line **AC**, determine (a) the magnitude of that force, (b) the tension in cable **BC**.

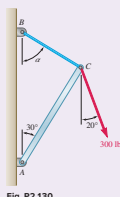


Fig. P2.130

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In some instances, these Case Studies are examined further in the accompanying digital content through Connect®. The digital content also provides additional cases that are developed in their entirety.

Homework Problem Sets. Most of the problems are of a practical nature and should appeal to engineering students. They are primarily designed, however, to illustrate the material presented in the text and to help students understand the principles of mechanics. The problems are grouped according to the portions of material they illustrate and, in general, are arranged in order of increasing difficulty. More advanced problems are indicated by asterisks. Answers to 70 percent of the problems are given at the end of the book. Problems for which the answers are given are set in straight type in the text, while problems for which no answer is given are set in italic and red font color.

Chapter Review and Summary. Each chapter ends with a review and summary of the material covered in that chapter. Prominent headings and cross-references have been included to help them find the portions of material requiring their special attention.

Review Problems. A set of review problems is included at the end of each chapter. These problems provide students further opportunity to apply the most important concepts introduced in the chapter.

Computer Problems. Problem sets for each chapter that are designed to be solved with computational software are also available through Connect. Many of these problems are relevant to the design process; they may involve the analysis of a structure for various configurations and loadings of the structure, or the determination of the equilibrium positions of a given mechanism that may require an iterative method of solution. Developing the algorithm required to solve a given mechanics problem will benefit the students in two different ways: (1) it will help them gain a better understanding of the mechanics principles involved; (2) it will provide them with an opportunity to apply their computer skills to the solution of a meaningful engineering problem.

Concept Questions. Educational research has shown that students can often choose appropriate equations and solve algorithmic problems without having a strong conceptual understanding of mechanics principles.[†] To help assess and develop student conceptual understanding, we have included Concept Questions, which are multiple choice problems that require few, if any, calculations. Each possible incorrect answer

[†]Hestenes, D., Wells, M., and Swakhamer, G (1992). The force concept inventory. *The Physics Teacher*, 30: 141–158.

Streveler, R. A., Litzinger, T. A., Miller, R. L., and Steif, P. S. (2008). Learning conceptual knowledge in the engineering sciences: Overview and future research directions, *JEE*, 279–294.

typically represents a common misconception (e.g., students often think that a vehicle moving in a curved path at constant speed has zero acceleration). Students are encouraged to solve these problems using the principles and techniques discussed in the text and to use these principles to help them develop their intuition. Mastery and discussion of these Concept Questions will deepen students' conceptual understanding and help them to solve dynamics problems.

Free Body and Impulse-Momentum Diagram Practice Problems.

Drawing diagrams correctly is a critical step in solving kinetics problems in dynamics. A new type of problem has been added to the text to emphasize the importance of drawing these diagrams. In Chaps. 12 and 16 the Free Body Practice Problems require students to draw a free-body diagram (FBD) showing the applied forces and an equivalent diagram called a “kinetic diagram” (KD) showing $m\mathbf{a}$ or its components and $\bar{I}\alpha$. These diagrams provide students with a pictorial representation of Newton's second law and are critical in helping students to correctly solve kinetic problems. In Chaps. 13 and 17 the Impulse-Momentum Diagram Practice Problems require students to draw diagrams showing the momenta of the bodies before impact, the impulses exerted on the body during impact, and the final momenta of the bodies. The answers to all of these questions can be accessed through Connect.

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Free-Body Diagram Tool

The tool provides immediate feedback for students learning how to draw FBDs. The tool ensures that students are drawing the FBD correctly before applying mechanics equations to solve the larger problem(s). It helps to reinforce the proper steps to solving mechanics problems and provides an early check (with targeted feedback for errors) to make sure students are proceeding correctly before they get too deep into a problem. Students get more practice opportunities and instructors save time grading.

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Acknowledgments

The authors thank the many companies and individuals that provided photographs for this edition.

The authors also thank the members of the staff at McGraw Hill Education for their support and dedication during the preparation of this new edition.

We particularly wish to acknowledge the contributions of Portfolio Manager Beth Bettcher, Senior Product Developer Heather Ervolino, Content Project Manager Jane Mohr, Copyeditor and Proofreader John Murdzek, and the entire team at McGraw Hill.

David F. Mazurek

Phillip J. Cornwell

Brian P. Self

The authors gratefully acknowledge the many helpful comments and suggestions offered by the following reviewers:

Beth Baran
Anne Arundel Community College
Bruce Bolon
Hamline University
Majid Chatsaz
Penn State Scranton
Scott Danielson
Arizona State University
Shahida Dar
Mohawk Valley Community College
Christine Delahanty
Bucks County Community College
William Eisenhauer
Portland State University
Lynnane Ellis George
University of Colorado, Colorado Springs

Kirk Gomes
Piedmont Virginia Community College
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List of Symbols

$\mathbf{a}, a$	Acceleration
a	Constant; radius; distance; semimajor axis of ellipse
$\bar{\mathbf{a}}, \bar{a}$	Acceleration of mass center
$\mathbf{a}_{B/A}$	Acceleration of B relative to frame in translation with A
$\mathbf{a}_{P/\mathcal{F}}$	Acceleration of P relative to rotating frame $\mathcal{F}$
$\mathbf{a}_c$	Coriolis acceleration
$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \dots$	Reactions at supports and connections
$A, B, C, \dots$	Points
A	Area
b	Width; distance; semiminor axis of ellipse
c	Constant; coefficient of viscous damping
C	Centroid; instantaneous center of rotation; capacitance
d	Distance
$\mathbf{e}_n, \mathbf{e}_t$	Unit vectors along normal and tangent
$\mathbf{e}_r, \mathbf{e}_\theta$	Unit vectors in radial and transverse directions
e	Coefficient of restitution; base of natural logarithms
E	Total mechanical energy; voltage
f	Scalar function
f_f	Frequency of forced vibration
f_n	Natural frequency
$\mathbf{F}$	Force; friction force
g	Acceleration of gravity
G	Center of gravity; mass center; constant of gravitation
h	Angular momentum per unit mass
$\mathbf{H}_O$	Angular momentum about point O
$\dot{\mathbf{H}}_G$	Rate of change of angular momentum $\mathbf{H}_G$ with respect to frame of fixed orientation
$(\dot{\mathbf{H}}_G)_{Gxyz}$	Rate of change of angular momentum $\mathbf{H}_G$ with respect to rotating frame $Gxyz$
$\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}$	Unit vectors along coordinate axes
i	Current
$I, I_x, \dots$	Moments of inertia
$\bar{I}$	Centroidal moment of inertia
$I_{xy}, \dots$	Products of inertia
J	Polar moment of inertia
k	Spring constant
k_x, k_y, k_O	Radii of gyration
$\bar{k}$	Centroidal radius of gyration
l	Length
$\mathbf{L}$	Linear momentum
L	Length; inductance
m	Mass
m'	Mass per unit length
$\mathbf{M}$	Couple; moment
$\mathbf{M}_O$	Moment about point O

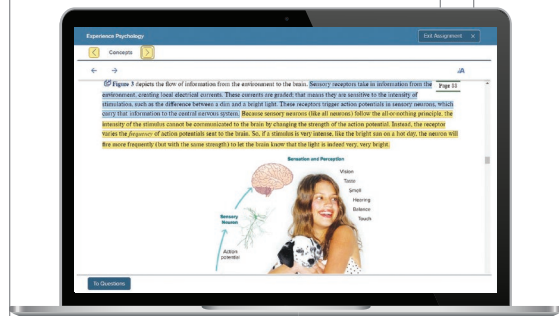
$\mathbf{M}_O^R$	Moment resultant about point O
M	Magnitude of couple or moment; mass of earth
M_{OL}	Moment about axis OL
n	Normal direction
$\mathbf{N}$	Normal component of reaction
O	Origin of coordinates
$\mathbf{P}$	Force; vector
$\dot{\mathbf{P}}$	Rate of change of vector $\mathbf{P}$ with respect to frame of fixed orientation
q	Mass rate of flow; electric charge
$\mathbf{Q}$	Force; vector
$\dot{\mathbf{Q}}$	Rate of change of vector $\mathbf{Q}$ with respect to frame of fixed orientation
$(\dot{\mathbf{Q}})_{Oxyz}$	Rate of change of vector $\mathbf{Q}$ with respect to frame $Oxyz$
$\mathbf{r}$	Position vector
$\mathbf{r}_{B/A}$	Position vector of B relative to A
r	Radius; distance; polar coordinate
$\mathbf{R}$	Resultant force; resultant vector; reaction
R	Radius of earth; resistance
$\mathbf{s}$	Position vector
s	Length of arc
t	Time; thickness; tangential direction
$\mathbf{T}$	Force
T	Tension; kinetic energy
$\mathbf{u}$	Velocity
u	Variable
U	Work
U_{1-2}^{NC}	work done by non-conservative forces
$\mathbf{v}, v$	Velocity
v	Speed
$\bar{\mathbf{v}}, \bar{v}$	Velocity, speed of mass center
$\mathbf{v}_{B/A}$	Velocity of B relative to frame in translation with A
$\mathbf{v}_{P/\mathcal{F}}$	Velocity of P relative to rotating frame $\mathcal{F}$
V	Volume; potential energy
w	Load per unit length
$\mathbf{W}, W$	Weight; load
x, y, z	Rectangular coordinates; distances
$\dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z}$	Time derivatives of coordinates x, y, z
$\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z}$	Rectangular coordinates of centroid, center of gravity, or mass center
$\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \alpha$	Angular acceleration
α, β, γ	Angles
γ	Specific weight
δ	Elongation
ϵ	Eccentricity of conic section or of orbit
$\boldsymbol{\lambda}$	Unit vector along a line
η	Efficiency
θ	Angular coordinate; Eulerian angle; angle; polar coordinate
μ	Coefficient of friction
ρ	Density; radius of curvature
τ	Periodic time
τ_n	Period of free vibration

ϕ	Angle of friction; Eulerian angle; phase angle; angle
φ	Phase difference
ψ	Eulerian angle
ω, ω	Angular velocity
ω_f	Circular frequency of forced vibration
ω_n	Natural circular frequency
Ω	Angular velocity of frame of reference

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Vector Mechanics For Engineers

Statics and Dynamics



1

Introduction

The tallest skyscraper in the Western Hemisphere, One World Trade Center is a prominent feature of the New York City skyline. From its foundation to its structural components and mechanical systems, the design and operation of the tower is based on the fundamentals of engineering mechanics.

Introduction

- 1.1 WHAT IS MECHANICS?
- 1.2 FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS AND PRINCIPLES
- 1.3 SYSTEMS OF UNITS
- 1.4 CONVERTING BETWEEN TWO SYSTEMS OF UNITS
- 1.5 METHOD OF SOLVING PROBLEMS
- 1.6 NUMERICAL ACCURACY

Objectives

- **Define** the science of mechanics and examine its fundamental principles.
- **Discuss** and compare the International System of Units and U.S. customary units.
- **Discuss** how to approach the solution of mechanics problems, and introduce the SMART problem-solving methodology.
- **Examine** factors that govern numerical accuracy in the solution of a mechanics problem.

1.1 WHAT IS MECHANICS?

Mechanics is defined as the science that describes and predicts the conditions of rest or motion of bodies under the action of forces. It consists of the mechanics of *rigid bodies*, mechanics of *deformable bodies*, and mechanics of *fluids*.

The mechanics of rigid bodies is subdivided into **statics** and **dynamics**. Statics deals with bodies at rest; dynamics deals with bodies in motion. In this text, we assume bodies are perfectly rigid. In fact, actual structures and machines are never absolutely rigid; they deform under the loads to which they are subjected. However, because these deformations are usually small, they do not appreciably affect the conditions of equilibrium or the motion of the structure under consideration. They are important, though, as far as the resistance of the structure to failure is concerned. Deformations are studied in a course in mechanics of materials, which is part of the mechanics of deformable bodies. The third division of mechanics, the mechanics of fluids, is subdivided into the study of *incompressible fluids* and of *compressible fluids*. An important subdivision of the study of incompressible fluids is *hydraulics*, which deals with applications involving water.

Mechanics is a physical science, because it deals with the study of physical phenomena. However, some teachers associate mechanics with mathematics, whereas many others consider it as an engineering subject. Both of these views are justified in part. Mechanics is the foundation of most engineering sciences and is an indispensable prerequisite to their study. However, it does not have the *empiricism* found in some engineering sciences, i.e., it does not rely on experience or observation alone. The rigor of mechanics and the emphasis it places on deductive reasoning makes it resemble mathematics. However, mechanics is not an *abstract* or even a *pure* science; it is an *applied* science.

The purpose of mechanics is to explain and predict physical phenomena and thus to lay the foundations for engineering applications. You need to know statics to determine how much force will be exerted on a point in a bridge design and whether the structure can withstand that force. Determining the force a dam needs to withstand from the water in a river requires statics. You need statics to calculate how much weight a crane can lift, how much force a locomotive needs to pull a freight train, or how much force a circuit board in a computer can withstand. The concepts of dynamics enable you to analyze the flight characteristics of a jet, design a building to resist earthquakes, and mitigate shock and vibration to passengers inside a vehicle. The concepts of dynamics enable

you to calculate how much force you need to send a satellite into orbit, accelerate a 200,000-ton cruise ship, or design a toy truck that doesn't break. You will not learn how to do these things in this course, but the ideas and methods you learn here will be the underlying basis for the engineering applications you will learn in your work.

1.2 FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS AND PRINCIPLES

Although the study of mechanics goes back to the time of Aristotle (384–322 B.C.) and Archimedes (287–212 B.C.), not until Newton (1642–1727) did anyone develop a satisfactory formulation of its fundamental principles. These principles were later modified by d'Alembert, Lagrange, and Hamilton. Their validity remained unchallenged until Einstein formulated his **theory of relativity** (1905). Although its limitations have now been recognized, **newtonian mechanics** still remains the basis of today's engineering sciences.

The basic concepts used in mechanics are *space*, *time*, *mass*, and *force*. These concepts cannot be truly defined; they should be accepted on the basis of our intuition and experience and used as a mental frame of reference for our study of mechanics.

The concept of **space** is associated with the position of a point P . We can define the position of P by providing three lengths measured from a certain reference point, or *origin*, in three given directions. These lengths are known as the *coordinates* of P .

To define an event, it is insufficient to indicate its position in space. We also need to specify the **time** of the event.

We use the concept of **mass** to characterize and compare bodies on the basis of certain fundamental mechanical experiments. Two bodies of the same mass, for example, are attracted by the earth in the same manner; they also offer the same resistance to a change in translational motion.

A **force** represents the action of one body on another. A force can be exerted by actual contact, like a push or a pull, or at a distance, as in the case of gravitational or magnetic forces. A force is characterized by its *point of application*, its *magnitude*, and its *direction*; a force is represented by a *vector* (Sec. 2.1B).

In newtonian mechanics, space, time, and mass are absolute concepts that are independent of each other. (This is not true in **relativistic mechanics**, where the duration of an event depends upon its position and the mass of a body varies with its velocity.) On the other hand, the concept of force is not independent of the other three. Indeed, one of the fundamental principles of newtonian mechanics listed below is that the resultant force acting on a body is related to the mass of the body and to the manner in which its velocity varies with time.

In this text, you will study the conditions of rest or motion of particles and rigid bodies in terms of the four basic concepts we have introduced. By **particle**, we mean a very small amount of matter, which we assume occupies a single point in space. A **rigid body** consists of a large number of particles occupying fixed positions with respect to one another. The study of the mechanics of particles is therefore a prerequisite to that of rigid bodies. Besides, we can use the results obtained for a particle directly in a large number of problems dealing with the conditions of rest or motion of actual bodies.

The study of elementary mechanics rests on six fundamental principles, based on experimental evidence.

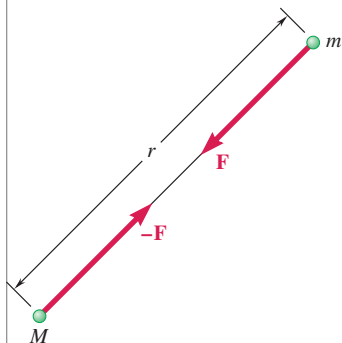


Fig. 1.1 From Newton's law of gravitation, two particles of masses M and m exert forces upon each other of equal magnitude, opposite direction, and the same line of action. This also illustrates Newton's third law of motion.

- **The Parallelogram Law for the Addition of Forces.** Two forces acting on a particle may be replaced by a single force, called their *resultant*, obtained by drawing the diagonal of the parallelogram with sides equal to the given forces (Sec. 2.1A).
- **The Principle of Transmissibility.** The conditions of equilibrium or of motion of a rigid body remain unchanged if a force acting at a given point of the rigid body is replaced by a force of the same magnitude and same direction, but acting at a different point, provided that the two forces have the same line of action (Sec. 3.1B).
- **Newton's Three Laws of Motion.** Formulated by Sir Isaac Newton in the late seventeenth century, these laws can be stated as follows:

FIRST LAW. If the resultant force acting on a particle is zero, the particle remains at rest (if originally at rest) or moves with constant speed in a straight line (if originally in motion) (Sec. 2.3B).

SECOND LAW. If the resultant force acting on a particle is not zero, the particle has an acceleration proportional to the magnitude of the resultant and in the direction of this resultant force.

As you will see in Sec. 12.1, this law can be stated as

$$\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a} \quad (1.1)$$

where $\mathbf{F}$, m , and $\mathbf{a}$ represent, respectively, the resultant force acting on the particle, the mass of the particle, and the acceleration of the particle expressed in a consistent system of units.

THIRD LAW. The forces of action and reaction between bodies in contact have the same magnitude, same line of action, and opposite sense (Chap. 6, Introduction).

- **Newton's Law of Gravitation.** Two particles of mass M and m are mutually attracted with equal and opposite forces $\mathbf{F}$ and $-\mathbf{F}$ of magnitude F (Fig. 1.1), given by the formula

$$F = G \frac{Mm}{r^2} \quad (1.2)$$

where r = the distance between the two particles and G = a universal constant called the *constant of gravitation*. Newton's law of gravitation introduces the idea of an action exerted at a distance and extends the range of application of Newton's third law: the action $\mathbf{F}$ and the reaction $-\mathbf{F}$ in Fig. 1.1 are equal and opposite, and they have the same line of action.

A particular case of great importance is that of the attraction of the earth on a particle located on its surface. The force $\mathbf{F}$ exerted by the earth on the particle is defined as the **weight $\mathbf{W}$** of the particle. Suppose we set M equal to the mass of the earth, m equal to the mass of the particle, and r equal to the earth's radius R . Then, introducing the constant

$$g = \frac{GM}{R^2} \quad (1.3)$$

we can express the magnitude W of the weight of a particle of mass m as[†]

$$W = mg \quad (1.4)$$

The value of R in formula (1.3) depends upon the elevation of the point considered; it also depends upon its latitude, because the earth is not truly spherical. The value of g therefore varies with the position of the point considered.

[†]A more accurate definition of the weight $\mathbf{W}$ should take into account the earth's rotation.

However, as long as the point actually remains on the earth's surface, it is sufficiently accurate in most engineering computations to assume that g equals 9.81 m/s^2 or 32.2 ft/s^2 .

The principles we have just listed will be introduced in the course of our study of mechanics as they are needed. The statics of particles carried out in Chap. 2 will be based on the parallelogram law of addition and on Newton's first law alone. We introduce the principle of transmissibility in Chap. 3 as we begin the study of the statics of rigid bodies, and we bring in Newton's third law in Chap. 6 as we analyze the forces exerted on each other by the various members forming a structure. We introduce Newton's second law and Newton's law of gravitation in dynamics. We will then show that Newton's first law is a particular case of Newton's second law (Sec. 12.1) and that the principle of transmissibility could be derived from the other principles and thus eliminated (Sec. 16.1D). In the meantime, however, Newton's first and third laws, the parallelogram law of addition, and the principle of transmissibility will provide us with the necessary and sufficient foundation for the entire study of the statics of particles, rigid bodies, and systems of rigid bodies.

As noted earlier, the six fundamental principles listed previously are based on experimental evidence. Except for Newton's first law and the principle of transmissibility, they are independent principles that cannot be derived mathematically from each other or from any other elementary physical principle. On these principles rests most of the intricate structure of newtonian mechanics. For more than two centuries, engineers have solved a tremendous number of problems dealing with the conditions of rest and motion of rigid bodies, deformable bodies, and fluids by applying these fundamental principles. Many of the solutions obtained could be checked experimentally, thus providing a further verification of the principles from which they were derived. Only in the twentieth century has Newton's mechanics been found to be at fault, in the study of the motion of atoms and the motion of the planets, where it must be supplemented by the theory of relativity. On the human or engineering scale, however, where velocities are small compared with the speed of light, Newton's mechanics have yet to be disproved.

1.3 SYSTEMS OF UNITS

Associated with the four fundamental concepts just discussed are the so-called *kinetic units*, i.e., the units of *length*, *time*, *mass*, and *force*. These units cannot be chosen independently if Eq. (1.1) is to be satisfied. Three of the units may be defined arbitrarily; we refer to them as **base units**. The fourth unit, however, must be chosen in accordance with Eq. (1.1) and is referred to as a **derived unit**. Kinetic units selected in this way are said to form a **consistent system of units**.

International System of Units (SI Units).* In this system, which will be in universal use after the United States has completed its conversion to SI units, the base units are the units of length, mass, and time, and they are called, respectively, the **meter** (m), the **kilogram** (kg), and the **second** (s). All three are arbitrarily defined. The second was originally chosen to represent $1/86\,400$ of the mean solar day, but it is now defined as the duration of $9\,192\,631\,770$ cycles of the radiation corresponding to the transition between two levels of the fundamental state of the cesium-133 atom. The meter, originally defined as one

*SI stands for *Système International d'Unités* (French).

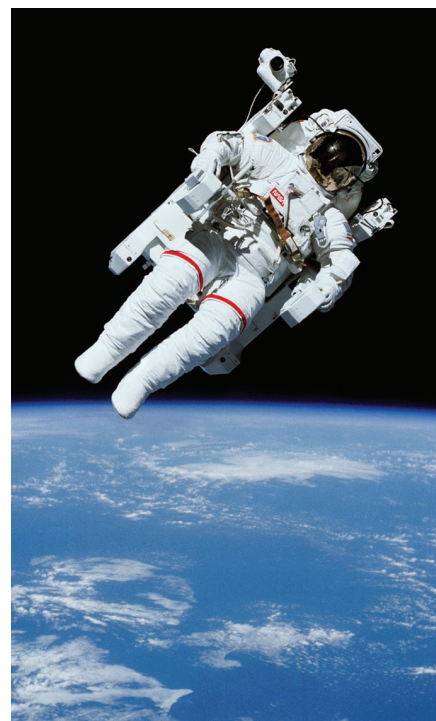


Photo 1.1 When in orbit of the earth, people and objects are said to be *weightless*, even though the gravitational force acting is approximately 90% of that experienced on the surface of the earth. This apparent contradiction will be resolved in Chapter 12 when we apply Newton's second law to the motion of particles. NASA



Fig. 1.2 A force of 1 newton applied to a body of mass 1 kg provides an acceleration of 1 m/s^2 .

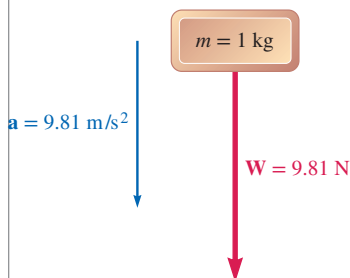


Fig. 1.3 A body of mass 1 kg experiencing an acceleration due to gravity of 9.81 m/s^2 has a weight of 9.81 N.

ten-millionth of the distance from the equator to either pole, is now defined as the length of the path traveled by light in a vacuum in $1/299\,792\,458$ of a second. (The newer definitions are much more precise, and with today's modern instrumentation, are easier to verify as a standard.) The kilogram, which is approximately equal to the mass of 0.001 m^3 of water, is defined in terms of the Planck constant as established by the General Conference on Weights and Measures. The unit of force is a derived unit. It is called the **newton** (N) and is defined as the force that gives an acceleration of 1 m/s^2 to a body of mass 1 kg (Fig. 1.2). From Eq. (1.1), we have

$$1 \text{ N} = (1 \text{ kg})(1 \text{ m/s}^2) = 1 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2 \quad (1.5)$$

The SI units are said to form an *absolute* system of units. This means that the three base units chosen are independent of the location where measurements are made. The meter, the kilogram, and the second may be used anywhere on the earth; they may even be used on another planet and still have the same significance.

The *weight* of a body, or the *force of gravity* exerted on that body, like any other force, should be expressed in newtons. From Eq. (1.4), it follows that the weight of a body of mass 1 kg (Fig. 1.3) is

$$\begin{aligned} W &= mg \\ &= (1 \text{ kg})(9.81 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ &= 9.81 \text{ N} \end{aligned}$$

Multiples and submultiples of the fundamental SI units are denoted through the use of the prefixes defined in Table 1.1. The multiples and submultiples of the units of length, mass, and force most frequently used in engineering are, respectively, the *kilometer* (km) and the *millimeter* (mm); the *megagram*[‡] (Mg) and the *gram* (g); and the *kilonewton* (kN). According to Table 1.1, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ km} &= 1000 \text{ m} & 1 \text{ mm} &= 0.001 \text{ m} \\ 1 \text{ Mg} &= 1000 \text{ kg} & 1 \text{ g} &= 0.001 \text{ kg} \\ 1 \text{ kN} &= 1000 \text{ N} \end{aligned}$$

The conversion of these units into meters, kilograms, and newtons, respectively, can be effected by simply moving the decimal point three places to the right or to the left. For example, to convert 3.82 km into meters, move the decimal point three places to the right:

$$3.82 \text{ km} = 3820 \text{ m}$$

Similarly, to convert 47.2 mm into meters, move the decimal point three places to the left:

$$47.2 \text{ mm} = 0.0472 \text{ m}$$

Using engineering notation, you can also write

$$\begin{aligned} 3.82 \text{ km} &= 3.82 \times 10^3 \text{ m} \\ 47.2 \text{ mm} &= 47.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

The multiples of the unit of time are the *minute* (min) and the *hour* (h). Because $1 \text{ min} = 60 \text{ s}$ and $1 \text{ h} = 60 \text{ min} = 3600 \text{ s}$, these multiples cannot be converted as readily as the others.

[‡]Also known as a *metric ton*.

Table 1.1 SI Prefixes

Multiplication Factor	Prefix [†]	Symbol
1 000 000 000 000 = 10^{12}	Tera	T
1 000 000 000 = 10^9	Giga	G
1 000 000 = 10^6	Mega	M
1 000 = 10^3	Kilo	k
100 = 10^2	Hecto [‡]	h
10 = 10^1	Deka [‡]	da
0.1 = 10^{-1}	Deci [‡]	d
0.01 = 10^{-2}	Centi [‡]	c
0.001 = 10^{-3}	Milli	m
0.000 001 = 10^{-6}	Micro	μ
0.000 000 001 = 10^{-9}	Nano	n
0.000 000 000 001 = 10^{-12}	Pico	p
0.000 000 000 000 001 = 10^{-15}	Femto	f
0.000 000 000 000 000 001 = 10^{-18}	Atto	a

[†]The first syllable of every prefix is accented, so that the prefix retains its identity. Thus, the preferred pronunciation of kilometer places the accent on the first syllable, not the second.

[‡]The use of these prefixes should be avoided, except for the measurement of areas and volumes and for the nontechnical use of centimeter, as for body and clothing measurements.

By using the appropriate multiple or submultiple of a given unit, you can avoid writing very large or very small numbers. For example, it is usually simpler to write 427.2 km rather than 427 200 m and 2.16 mm rather than 0.002 16 m.[‡]

Units of Area and Volume. The unit of area is the *square meter* (m^2), which represents the area of a square of side 1 m; the unit of volume is the *cubic meter* (m^3), which is equal to the volume of a cube of side 1 m. In order to avoid exceedingly small or large numerical values when computing areas and volumes, we use systems of subunits obtained by respectively squaring and cubing not only the millimeter, but also two intermediate submultiples of the meter: the *decimeter* (dm) and the *centimeter* (cm). By definition,

$$\begin{aligned}1 \text{ dm} &= 0.1 \text{ m} = 10^{-1} \text{ m} \\1 \text{ cm} &= 0.01 \text{ m} = 10^{-2} \text{ m} \\1 \text{ mm} &= 0.001 \text{ m} = 10^{-3} \text{ m}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the submultiples of the unit of area are

$$\begin{aligned}1 \text{ dm}^2 &= (1 \text{ dm})^2 = (10^{-1} \text{ m})^2 = 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \\1 \text{ cm}^2 &= (1 \text{ cm})^2 = (10^{-2} \text{ m})^2 = 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \\1 \text{ mm}^2 &= (1 \text{ mm})^2 = (10^{-3} \text{ m})^2 = 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2\end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the submultiples of the unit of volume are

$$\begin{aligned}1 \text{ dm}^3 &= (1 \text{ dm})^3 = (10^{-1} \text{ m})^3 = 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3 \\1 \text{ cm}^3 &= (1 \text{ cm})^3 = (10^{-2} \text{ m})^3 = 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \\1 \text{ mm}^3 &= (1 \text{ mm})^3 = (10^{-3} \text{ m})^3 = 10^{-9} \text{ m}^3\end{aligned}$$

Note that when measuring the volume of a liquid, the cubic decimeter (dm^3) is usually referred to as a *liter* (L).

[‡]Note that when more than four digits appear on either side of the decimal point to express a quantity in SI units—as in 427 000 m or 0.002 16 m—use spaces, never commas, to separate the digits into groups of three. This practice avoids confusion with the comma used in place of a decimal point, which is the convention in many countries.

Table 1.2 shows other derived SI units used to measure the moment of a force, the work of a force, etc. Although we will introduce these units in later chapters as they are needed, we should note an important rule at this time: When a derived unit is obtained by dividing a base unit by another base unit, you may use a prefix in the numerator of the derived unit, but not in its denominator. For example, the constant k of a spring that stretches 20 mm under a load of 100 N is expressed as

$$k = \frac{100 \text{ N}}{20 \text{ mm}} = \frac{100 \text{ N}}{0.020 \text{ m}} = 5000 \text{ N/m or } k = 5 \text{ kN/m}$$

but never as $k = 5 \text{ N/mm}$.

U.S. Customary Units. Most practicing American engineers still commonly use a system in which the base units are those of length, force, and time. These units are, respectively, the *foot* (ft), the *pound* (lb), and the *second* (s). The second is the same as the corresponding SI unit. The foot is defined as 0.3048 m. The pound is defined as the *weight* of a platinum standard, called the *standard pound*, which is kept at the National Institute of Standards and Technology outside Washington, DC, the mass of which is 0.453 592 43 kg. Because the weight of a body depends upon the earth's gravitational attraction, which varies with location, the standard pound should be placed at sea level and at a latitude of 45° to properly define a force of 1 lb. Thus, the U.S. customary units do not form an absolute system of units. Because they depend upon the gravitational attraction of the earth, they form a *gravitational* system of units.

Although the standard pound also serves as the unit of mass in commercial transactions in the United States, it cannot be used that way in engineering

Table 1.2 Principal SI Units Used in Mechanics

Quantity	Unit	Symbol	Formula
Acceleration	Meter per second squared	...	m/s ²
Angle	Radian	rad	†
Angular acceleration	Radian per second squared	...	rad/s ²
Angular velocity	Radian per second	...	rad/s
Area	Square meter	...	m ²
Density	Kilogram per cubic meter	...	kg/m ³
Energy	Joule	J	N·m
Force	Newton	N	kg·m/s ²
Frequency	Hertz	Hz	s ⁻¹
Impulse	Newton-second	...	kg·m/s
Length	Meter	m	‡
Mass	Kilogram	kg	‡
Moment of a force	Newton-meter	...	N·m
Power	Watt	W	J/s
Pressure	Pascal	Pa	N/m ²
Stress	Pascal	Pa	N/m ²
Time	Second	s	‡
Velocity	Meter per second	...	m/s
Volume			
Solids	Cubic meter	...	m ³
Liquids	Liter	L	10 ⁻³ m ³
Work	Joule	J	N·m

†Supplementary unit (1 revolution = 2π rad = 360°).

‡Base unit.

computations, because such a unit would not be consistent with the base units defined in the preceding paragraph. Indeed, when acted upon by a force of 1 lb—that is, when subjected to the force of gravity—the standard pound has the acceleration due to gravity, $g = 32.2 \text{ ft/s}^2$ (Fig. 1.4), not the unit acceleration required by Eq. (1.1). The unit of mass consistent with the foot, the pound, and the second is the mass that receives an acceleration of 1 ft/s^2 when a force of 1 lb is applied to it (Fig. 1.5). This unit, sometimes called a *slug*, can be derived from the equation $F = ma$ after substituting 1 lb for F and 1 ft/s^2 for a . We have

$$F = ma \quad 1 \text{ lb} = (1 \text{ slug})(1 \text{ ft/s}^2)$$

This gives us

$$1 \text{ slug} = \frac{1 \text{ lb}}{1 \text{ ft/s}^2} = 1 \text{ lb} \cdot \text{s}^2/\text{ft} \quad (1.6)$$

Comparing Figs. 1.4 and 1.5, we conclude that the slug is a mass 32.2 times larger than the mass of the standard pound.

The fact that, in the U.S. customary system of units, bodies are characterized by their weight in pounds rather than by their mass in slugs is convenient in the study of statics, where we constantly deal with weights and other forces and only seldom deal directly with masses. However, in the study of dynamics, where forces, masses, and accelerations are involved, the mass m of a body is expressed in slugs when its weight W is given in pounds. Recalling Eq. (1.4), we write

$$m = \frac{W}{g} \quad (1.7)$$

where g is the acceleration due to gravity ($g = 32.2 \text{ ft/s}^2$).

Other U.S. customary units frequently encountered in engineering problems are the *mile* (mi), equal to 5280 ft; the *inch* (in.), equal to $(1/12)$ ft; and the *kilopound* (kip), equal to 1000 lb. The *ton* is often used to represent a mass of 2000 lb but, like the pound, must be converted into slugs in engineering computations.

The conversion into feet, pounds, and seconds of quantities expressed in other U.S. customary units is generally more involved and requires greater attention than the corresponding operation in SI units. For example, suppose we are given the magnitude of a velocity $v = 30 \text{ mi/h}$ and want to convert it to ft/s . First we write

$$v = 30 \frac{\text{mi}}{\text{h}}$$

Because we want to get rid of the unit miles and introduce instead the unit feet, we should multiply the right-hand member of the equation by an expression containing miles in the denominator and feet in the numerator. However, because we do not want to change the value of the right-hand side of the equation, the expression used should have a value equal to unity. The quotient $(5280 \text{ ft})/(1 \text{ mi})$ is such an expression. Operating in a similar way to transform the unit hour into seconds, we have

$$v = \left(30 \frac{\text{mi}}{\text{h}}\right) \left(\frac{5280 \text{ ft}}{1 \text{ mi}}\right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ h}}{3600 \text{ s}}\right)$$

Carrying out the numerical computations and canceling out units that appear in both the numerator and the denominator, we obtain

$$v = 44 \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{s}} = 44 \text{ ft/s}$$

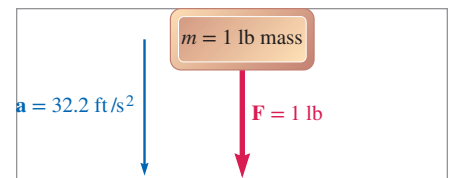


Fig. 1.4 A body of 1 pound mass acted upon by a force of 1 pound has an acceleration of 32.2 ft/s^2 .

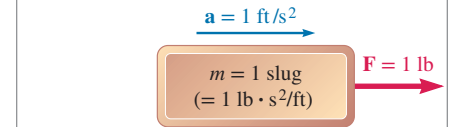


Fig. 1.5 A force of 1 pound applied to a body of mass 1 slug produces an acceleration of 1 ft/s^2 .

1.4 CONVERTING BETWEEN TWO SYSTEMS OF UNITS

In many situations, an engineer might need to convert into SI units a numerical result obtained in U.S. customary units or vice versa. Because the unit of time is the same in both systems, only two kinetic base units need to be converted. Thus, because all other kinetic units can be derived from these base units, only two conversion factors need to be remembered.

Units of Length. By definition, the U.S. customary unit of length is

$$1 \text{ ft} = 0.3048 \text{ m} \quad (1.8)$$

It follows that

$$1 \text{ mi} = 5280 \text{ ft} = 5280(0.3048 \text{ m}) = 1609 \text{ m}$$

or

$$1 \text{ mi} = 1.609 \text{ km} \quad (1.9)$$

Also,

$$1 \text{ in.} = \frac{1}{12} \text{ ft} = \frac{1}{12} (0.3048 \text{ m}) = 0.0254 \text{ m}$$

or

$$1 \text{ in.} = 25.4 \text{ mm} \quad (1.10)$$

Units of Force. Recall that the U.S. customary unit of force (pound) is defined as the weight of the standard pound (of mass 0.4536 kg) at sea level and at a latitude of 45° (where $g = 9.807 \text{ m/s}^2$). Then, using Eq. (1.4), we write

$$W = mg$$

$$1 \text{ lb} = (0.4536 \text{ kg})(9.807 \text{ m/s}^2) = 4.448 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2$$

From Eq. (1.5), this reduces to

$$1 \text{ lb} = 4.448 \text{ N} \quad (1.11)$$

Units of Mass. The U.S. customary unit of mass (slug) is a derived unit. Thus, using Eqs. (1.6), (1.8), and (1.11), we have

$$1 \text{ slug} = 1 \text{ lb} \cdot \text{s}^2/\text{ft} = \frac{1 \text{ lb}}{1 \text{ ft/s}^2} = \frac{4.448 \text{ N}}{0.3048 \text{ m/s}^2} = 14.59 \text{ N} \cdot \text{s}^2/\text{m}$$

Again, from Eq. (1.5),

$$1 \text{ slug} = 1 \text{ lb} \cdot \text{s}^2/\text{ft} = 14.59 \text{ kg} \quad (1.12)$$

Although it cannot be used as a consistent unit of mass, recall that the mass of the standard pound is, by definition,

$$1 \text{ pound mass} = 0.4536 \text{ kg} \quad (1.13)$$

We can use this constant to determine the *mass* in SI units (kilograms) of a body that has been characterized by its *weight* in U.S. customary units (pounds).

To convert a derived U.S. customary unit into SI units, simply multiply or divide by the appropriate conversion factors. For example, to convert the moment of a force that is measured as $M = 47 \text{ lb}\cdot\text{in.}$ into SI units, use formulas (1.10) and (1.11) and write

$$\begin{aligned} M &= 47 \text{ lb}\cdot\text{in.} = 47(4.448 \text{ N})(25.4 \text{ mm}) \\ &= 5310 \text{ N}\cdot\text{mm} = 5.31 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m} \end{aligned}$$

You can also use conversion factors to convert a numerical result obtained in SI units into U.S. customary units. For example, if the moment of a force is measured as $M = 40 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}$, follow the procedure at the end of Sec. 1.3 to write

$$M = 40 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m} = (40 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m})\left(\frac{1 \text{ lb}}{4.448 \text{ N}}\right)\left(\frac{1 \text{ ft}}{0.3048 \text{ m}}\right)$$

Carrying out the numerical computations and canceling out units that appear in both the numerator and the denominator, you obtain

$$M = 29.5 \text{ lb}\cdot\text{ft}$$

The U.S. customary units most frequently used in mechanics are listed in Table 1.3 with their SI equivalents.

1.5 METHOD OF SOLVING PROBLEMS

You should approach a problem in mechanics as you would approach an actual engineering situation. By drawing on your own experience and intuition about physical behavior, you will find it easier to understand and formulate the problem. Once you have clearly stated and understood the problem, however, there is no place in its solution for arbitrary methodologies.

The solution must be based on the six fundamental principles stated in Sec. 1.2 or on theorems derived from them.

Every step you take in the solution must be justified on this basis. Strict rules must be followed, which lead to the solution in an almost automatic fashion, leaving no room for your intuition or “feeling.” After you have obtained an answer, you should check it. Here again, you may call upon your common sense and personal experience. If you are not completely satisfied with the result, you should carefully check your formulation of the problem, the validity of the methods used for its solution, and the accuracy of your computations.

In general, you can usually solve problems in several different ways; there is no one approach that works best for everybody. However, we have found that students often find it helpful to have a general set of guidelines to use for framing problems and planning solutions. In the Sample Problems throughout this text, we use a four-step method for approaching problems, which we refer to as the SMART methodology: **S**trategy, **M**odeling, **A**nalysis, and **R**eflect and **T**hink.

- 1. Strategy.** The statement of a problem should be clear and precise, and it should contain the given data and indicate what information is required. The first step in solving the problem is to decide what concepts you have learned that apply to the given situation and to connect the data to the required information. It is often useful to work backward from the information you are trying to find: Ask yourself what quantities you need to

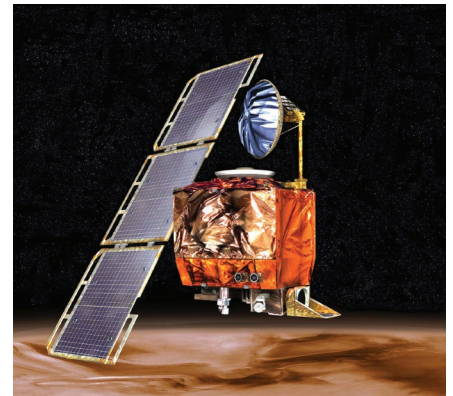


Photo 1.2 In 1999, The *Mars Climate Orbiter* entered orbit around Mars at too low an altitude and disintegrated. Investigation showed that the software on board the probe interpreted force instructions in newtons, but the software at mission control on the earth was generating those instructions in terms of pounds.

NASA/JPL/Corby Waste

Table 1.3 U.S. Customary Units and Their SI Equivalents

Quantity	U.S. Customary Unit	SI Equivalent
Acceleration	ft/s ²	0.3048 m/s ²
	in./s ²	0.0254 m/s ²
Area	ft ²	0.0929 m ²
	in ²	645.2 mm ²
Energy	ft·lb	1.356 J
Force	kip	4.448 kN
	lb	4.448 N
	oz	0.2780 N
Impulse	lb·s	4.448 N·s
Length	ft	0.3048 m
	in.	25.40 mm
	mi	1.609 km
Mass	oz mass	28.35 g
	lb mass	0.4536 kg
	slug	14.59 kg
	ton	907.2 kg
Moment of a force	lb·ft	1.356 N·m
	lb·in.	0.1130 N·m
Moment of inertia		
	Of an area	in ⁴ 0.4162 × 10 ⁶ mm ⁴
	Of a mass	lb·ft·s ² 1.356 kg·m ²
Momentum	lb·s	4.448 kg·m/s
Power	ft·lb/s	1.356 W
	hp	745.7 W
Pressure or stress	lb/ft ²	47.88 Pa
	lb/in ² (psi)	6.895 kPa
Velocity	ft/s	0.3048 m/s
	in./s	0.0254 m/s
	mi/h (mph)	0.4470 m/s
	mi/h (mph)	1.609 km/h
Volume	ft ³	0.02832 m ³
	in ³	16.39 cm ³
Liquids	gal	3.785 L
	qt	0.9464 L
Work	ft·lb	1.356 J

know to obtain the answer, and if some of these quantities are unknown, how can you find them from the given data.

- 2. **Modeling.** The first step in modeling is to define the system; that is, clearly define what you are setting aside for analysis. After you have selected a system, draw a neat sketch showing all quantities involved, with a separate diagram for each body in the problem. For equilibrium problems, indicate clearly the forces acting on each body along with any relevant geometrical data, such as lengths and angles. (These diagrams are known as **free-body diagrams** and are described in detail in Sec. 2.3C and the beginning of Chap. 4.)
- 3. **Analysis.** After you have drawn the appropriate diagrams, use the fundamental principles of mechanics listed in Sec. 1.2 to write equations expressing the conditions of rest or motion of the bodies considered. Each equation should be clearly related to one of the free-body diagrams and should be numbered. If you do not have enough equations to solve for the unknowns, try selecting another system, or reexamine your strategy to see if you can apply other principles to the problem. Once you

have obtained enough equations, you can find a numerical solution by following the usual rules of algebra, neatly recording each step and the intermediate results. Alternatively, you can solve the resulting equations with your calculator or a computer. (For multipart problems, it is sometimes convenient to present the Modeling and Analysis steps together, but they are both essential parts of the overall process.)

- 4. Reflect and Think.** After you have obtained the answer, check it carefully. Does it make sense in the context of the original problem? For instance, the problem may ask for the force at a given point of a structure. If your answer is negative, what does that mean for the force at the point?

You can often detect mistakes in *reasoning* by checking the units. For example, to determine the moment of a force of 50 N about a point 0.60 m from its line of action, we write (Sec. 3.3A)

$$M = Fd = (50 \text{ N})(0.60 \text{ m}) = 30 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}$$

The unit N·m obtained by multiplying newtons by meters is the correct unit for the moment of a force; if you had obtained another unit, you would know that some mistake had been made.

You can often detect errors in *computation* by substituting the numerical answer into an equation that was not used in the solution and verifying that the equation is satisfied. The importance of correct computations in engineering cannot be overemphasized.

CASE STUDY 1.1*

Located in Baltimore, Maryland, the Carrollton Viaduct is the oldest railroad bridge in North America and continues in revenue service today. Construction was completed and the bridge put into operation in 1829 by the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad. The structure includes the stone masonry arch shown in CS Photo 1.1, and spans 80 ft. Assuming that the span is solid granite having a unit weight of 170 lb/ft^3 , and that its dimensions can be approximated by those given in CS Fig. 1.1, let's estimate the weight of this span.



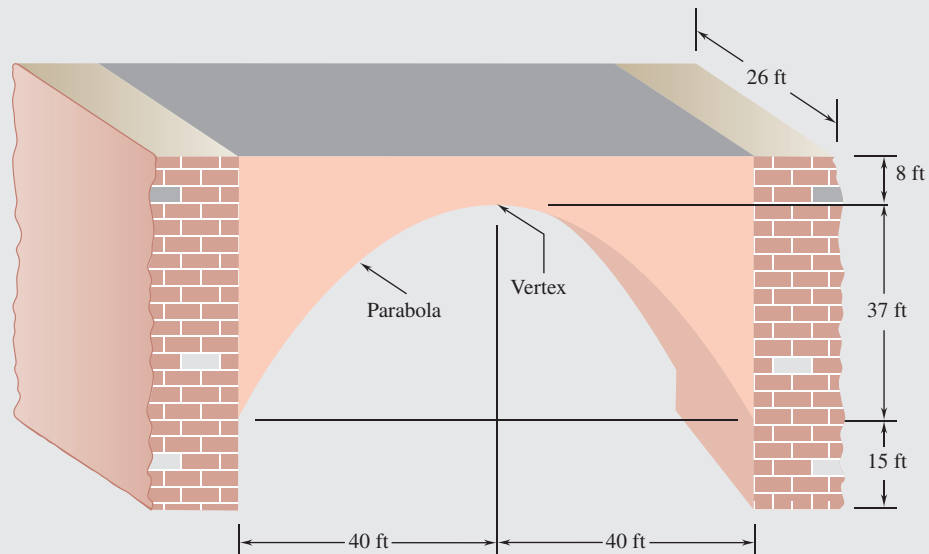
CS Photo 1.1 The Carrollton Viaduct in Baltimore, MD.
AREMA Bulletin 732 Volume 92 (October 1991)

STRATEGY:

First calculate the volume of the span, and then multiply this volume by the unit weight.

*Adapted from American Railway Engineering Association, Bulletin 732, October 1991, p. 221.

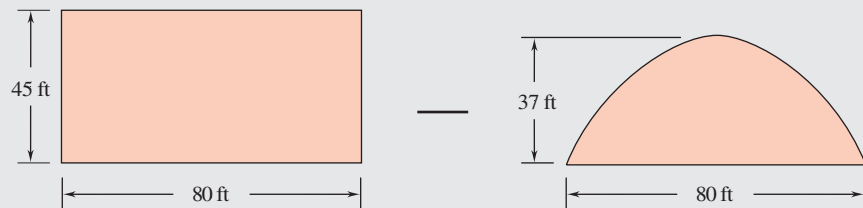
(continued)



CS Fig. 1.1 Assumed arch span geometry.

MODELING:

The span can be represented by a body where a parabolic portion has been removed from a rectangular portion as shown in CS Fig. 1.2 (with both parts having a depth of 26 ft).



CS Fig. 1.2 Modeling the arch span.

ANALYSIS:

Volume of the Span, V . Removing the parabolic region from the rectangle,

$$V = \left[(80 \text{ ft})(45 \text{ ft}) - \frac{2}{3} (80 \text{ ft})(37 \text{ ft}) \right] (26 \text{ ft}) = 42,300 \text{ ft}^3$$

Weight of the Span, W . Multiplying the volume by the unit weight,

$$W = (170 \text{ lb/ft}^3)(42,300 \text{ ft}^3) = 7.19 \times 10^6 \text{ lb}$$

REFLECT AND THINK:

Though completed in 1829, regular locomotive usage didn't begin on this bridge until 1831 with the steam-powered *York*, which weighed approximately 7000 lb. (Up to that point, trains had been pulled by horses.) Then in 1832, there was initially concern regarding the ability of the stone arch to support a newer and heavier locomotive, the 13,000-lb *Atlantic*.^{*} As our knowledge of engineering mechanics has progressed since then, we better understand that a massive arch

(continued)

like this can indeed sustain such loads quite easily. This is illustrated by the modern-day coal cars shown crossing this same span in CS Photo 1.1, where each car has a rated weight of 263,000 lb. Arches derive load-carrying capacity through compression and are well-suited for stone masonry construction, because it provides high compressive strength. And while trains traversing the bridge would tend to introduce other types of effects into the span, the massiveness of the span itself (which we estimated to be 7.19×10^6 lb) far exceeds the car loads and therefore keeps the barrel (or portal) of the arch in compression.

1.6 NUMERICAL ACCURACY

The accuracy of the solution to a problem depends upon two items: (1) the accuracy of the given data and (2) the accuracy of the computations performed. The solution cannot be more accurate than the less accurate of these two items.

For example, suppose the loading of a bridge is known to be 75,000 lb with a possible error of 100 lb either way. The relative error that measures the degree of accuracy of the data is

$$\frac{100 \text{ lb}}{75,000 \text{ lb}} = 0.0013 = 0.13\%$$

In computing the reaction at one of the bridge supports, it would be meaningless to record it as 14,322 lb. The accuracy of the solution cannot be greater than 0.13%, no matter how precise the computations are, and the possible error in the answer may be as large as $(0.13/100)(14,322 \text{ lb}) \approx 20 \text{ lb}$. The answer should be properly recorded as $14,320 \pm 20 \text{ lb}$.

In engineering problems, the data are seldom known with an accuracy greater than 0.2%. It is therefore seldom justified to write answers with an accuracy greater than 0.2%. A practical rule is to use four figures to record numbers beginning with a “1” and three figures in all other cases. Unless otherwise indicated, you should assume the data given in a problem are known with a comparable degree of accuracy. A force of 40 lb, for example, should be read as 40.0 lb, and a force of 15 lb should be read as 15.00 lb.

Electronic calculators are widely used by practicing engineers and engineering students. The speed and accuracy of these calculators facilitate the numerical computations in the solution of many problems. However, you should not record more significant figures than can be justified merely because you can obtain them easily. As noted previously, an accuracy greater than 0.2% is seldom necessary or meaningful in the solution of practical engineering problems.



2

Statics of Particles

Many engineering problems can be solved by considering the equilibrium of a “particle.” In the case of this beam that is being hoisted into position, a relation between the tensions in the various cables involved can be obtained by considering the equilibrium of the hook to which the cables are attached.

Objectives

- **Describe** force as a vector quantity.
- **Examine** vector operations useful for the analysis of forces.
- **Determine** the resultant of multiple forces acting on a particle.
- **Resolve** forces into components.
- **Add** forces that have been resolved into rectangular components.
- **Introduce** the concept of the free-body diagram.
- **Use** free-body diagrams to assist in the analysis of planar and spatial particle equilibrium problems.

Introduction

In this chapter, you will study the effect of forces acting on particles. By the word “particle” we do not mean only tiny bits of matter, like an atom or an electron. Instead, we mean that the sizes and shapes of the bodies under consideration do not significantly affect the solutions of the problems. Another way of saying this is that we assume all forces acting on a given body act at the same point. This does not mean the object must be tiny—if you were modeling the mechanics of the Milky Way galaxy, for example, you could treat the sun and the entire Solar System as just a particle.

Our first step is to explain how to replace two or more forces acting on a given particle by a single force having the same effect as the original forces. This single equivalent force is called the *resultant* of the original forces. After this step, we will derive the relations among the various forces acting on a particle in a state of *equilibrium*. We will use these relations to determine some of the forces acting on the particle.

The first part of this chapter deals with forces contained in a single plane. Because two lines determine a plane, this situation arises any time we can reduce the problem to one of a particle subjected to two forces that support a third force, such as a crate suspended from two chains or a traffic light held in place by two cables. In the second part of this chapter, we examine the more general case of forces in three-dimensional space.

2.1 ADDITION OF PLANAR FORCES

Many important practical situations in engineering involve forces in the same plane. These include forces acting on a pulley, projectile motion, and an object in equilibrium on a flat surface. We will examine this situation first before looking at the added complications of forces acting in three-dimensional space.

2.1A Force on a Particle: Resultant of Two Forces

A force represents the action of one body on another. It is generally characterized by its **point of application**, its **magnitude**, and its **direction**. Forces acting on a given particle, however, have the same point of application. Thus,

Introduction

2.1 ADDITION OF PLANAR FORCES

2.1A Force on a Particle: Resultant of Two Forces

2.1B Vectors

2.1C Addition of Vectors

2.1D Resultant of Several Concurrent Forces

2.1E Resolution of a Force into Components

2.2 ADDING FORCES BY COMPONENTS

2.2A Rectangular Components of a Force: Unit Vectors

2.2B Addition of Forces by Summing x and y Components

2.3 FORCES AND EQUILIBRIUM IN A PLANE

2.3A Equilibrium of a Particle

2.3B Newton's First Law of Motion

2.3C Free-Body Diagrams and Problem Solving

2.4 ADDING FORCES IN SPACE

2.4A Rectangular Components of a Force in Space

2.4B Force Defined by Its Magnitude and Two Points on Its Line of Action

2.4C Addition of Concurrent Forces in Space

2.5 FORCES AND EQUILIBRIUM IN SPACE