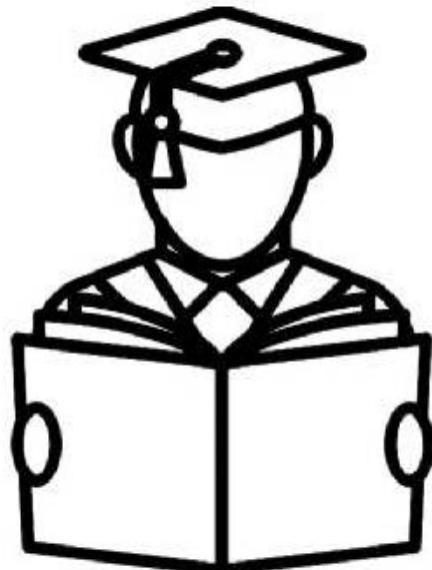


# चौधरी PHOTOSTAT

*"I don't love studying. I hate studying. I like learning. Learning is beautiful."*



*"An investment in knowledge pays the best interest."*

Hi, My Name is

Mechinical Engineering  
for GATE/IES  
(MADE EASY)

22nd Oct

# Theory of Machines

classmate

Date \_\_\_\_\_

Page \_\_\_\_\_

## Mechanics



Study of motion

According to the way of study



### Kinematics

Study of motion  
without considering  
the force  
→ 1-D projectile  
motion

### Dynamics

Study of motion  
considering ie  
force  
↓  
laws of motion

Inertia → It maintain its shape



Physical property

### Kinematic

No mass term will  
be there

$$m, \frac{m}{s}, \frac{m}{s^2}, \frac{m}{s^3}$$

### Dynamic

mass term appears in the  
unit:

$$\downarrow \text{Newton's 2nd law}$$

1st law  $\vec{F}_{ext} = 0$

$$\vec{F} = m\vec{a}$$

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d}{dt}(\vec{mv})$$

$$\vec{F} = m \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} + \vec{v} dm$$

2nd law

$$\vec{F}_{ext} \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{F}_{ext} = \frac{d}{dt}(\vec{mv})$$

Time is plot on x  
axis

# Theory of machine



## Kinematics of machine

## Dynamics of machine

Syllabus:-

- Simple mechanism
  - ↳ understanding

### Velocity analysis

(graphical)

Instantaneous centre approach.

Relative Velocity approach

• Acceleration (graphical)

• Gears & gear train (Analytical)

• Conroliers (Analytical)

• Flywheel (Analytical)

• Balancing (graph + analytical)

• Pairs of Cam & Followers

(Analytical + Graphical)

• Vibrations

• Automatic control

### Simple mechanisms:-

Link or element :- Every part of machine which moves relative to some other parts is known as link or element.

Note :- It is not necessary for the link to be perfectly rigid but it's necessary for link to be resisting so that it can transfer motion

Basic Concepts

Thermodynamics - It is the science of energy transfer and its effects on properties of system

The main aim of thermodynamic study is to convert disorganist form of energy (heat) into organist form of energy (work) in an efficiency manner.

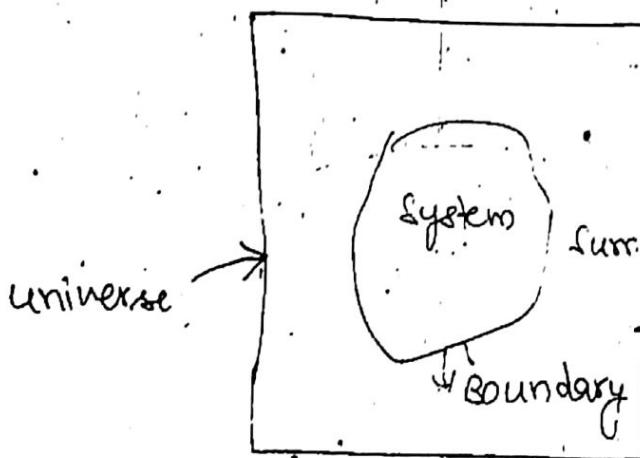
System - It is a region in space upon which study is focused.

Surroundings - Anything external to the system is known as surroundings.

Boundary - The separation b/w system & surr is known as boundary.

Note : Boundary can be rigid or flexible and it can be real or imaginary.

$$\boxed{\text{universe} = \text{system} + \text{surroundings}}$$



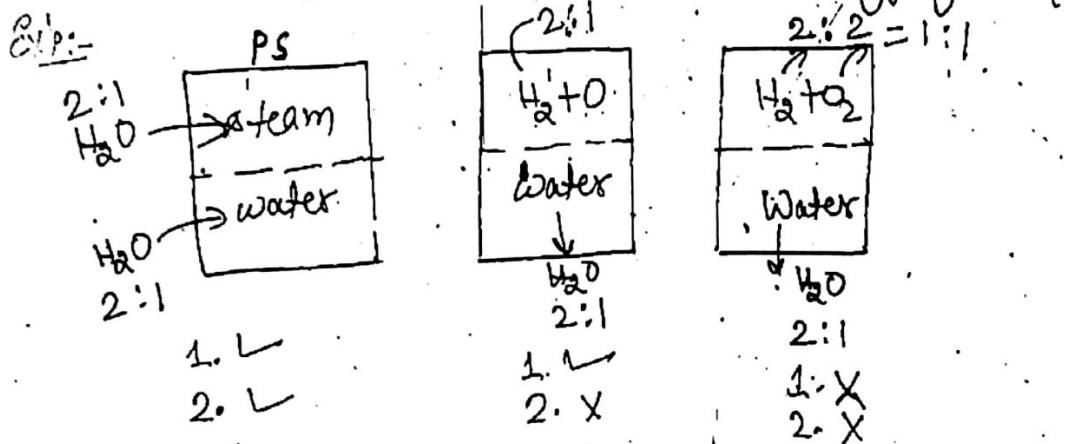
Types of system -

Type of system	Buggy Transfer	Mass transfer	Example
Closed	✓	✗	Piston-cylinder arrangement with valves
Open	✓	✓	Pump, Compressor
Isolated	✗	✗	Universe, Hot coffee in a well insulated flask

Microscopic & Macroscopic approach of thermodynamics -

- In microscopic approach the behaviour of individual molecules is taken into consideration and this approach is also known as 'Statistical Thermodynamics', and this approach is used at low densities (at higher altitudes).
- In macroscopic approach the behaviour of individual molecule is not taken into consideration but collection of molec. is taken into consideration, and it is also known as classical thermodynamics.

Pure substances — A substance is said to be pure substance if it is homogeneous in chemical composition & homogeneous in chemical aggregation (bonding).



## T.O.E.F OR(TOF)

M.P.S.T  $\rightarrow$  Suitable for  brittle materials,

Suitable for ductile materials under uniaxial state of stress & bi-axial s. of stress when  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are in same ratio

M.S.S.T  $\rightarrow$  Suitable for ductile material, it gives over-safe design  
(i.e. safe & uneconomic)

M.D.E.T  $\rightarrow$  Suitable for ductile material,

$\rightarrow$  Best T.O.F for ductile materials because it gives safe & economic design.

$$(\text{dimns})_{\text{MDET}} < (\text{dimns})_{\text{MSST}} \quad [ \because (S_{YS})_{\text{MDET}} > (S_{YS})_{\text{MSST}} ]$$

$$S_{YS} = \frac{S_{YT}}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$S_{YS} = \frac{S_{YT}}{2} = 0.5 S_{YT}$$

$$S_{YS} = 0.577 S_{YT}$$

for safe design,

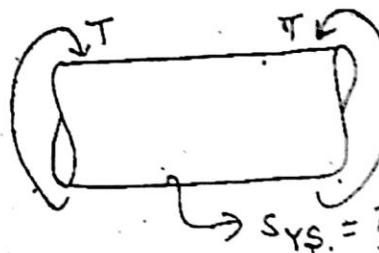
Max stress inst.  $\leq$  per stress

$$\frac{\text{Load}}{\text{Dimns}} \leq \frac{\text{failure stress}}{N}$$

$$\text{failure stress} \propto \frac{1}{\text{dimns}}$$

failure stress  $\uparrow \Rightarrow$  dimns  $\downarrow \Rightarrow$  safety  $\downarrow \Rightarrow$  cost  $\downarrow$

failure stress  $\downarrow \Rightarrow$  dimns  $\uparrow \Rightarrow$  safety  $\uparrow \Rightarrow$  cost  $\uparrow$



$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = T_{\text{max}} = T = \frac{16T}{\pi d^3}$$

Cond'n for failure in shear,

$$\tau_{\max} \geq s_{ys}$$

$$\tau > s_{ys}$$

$$\boxed{\tau = s_{ys}} \text{ at yielding}$$

$$s_{ys} = \tau = \sigma_1 = \sigma_2$$

MDELT  $\rightarrow$  Ellipse eqn

$$\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1 \sigma_2 = (s_{yt})^2$$

$$\tau^2 + (-\tau)^2 - (\tau_x - \tau) = (s_{yt})^2$$

$$3\tau^2 = (s_{yt})^2$$

$$\tau = \frac{s_{yt}}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\boxed{s_{ys} = \frac{s_{yt}}{\sqrt{3}}}$$

MSSLT  $\rightarrow$  Hexagon eqn

$$(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2) = \frac{s_{yt}}{N}$$

$$\tau - (-\tau) = \frac{s_{yt}}{N}$$

(N=1 for failure)

$$2\tau = s_{yt}$$

$$\tau = \frac{s_{yt}}{2}$$

$$\boxed{s_{ys} = \frac{s_{yt}}{2}}$$

MPST  $\rightarrow$  ~~Square~~ eqn

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma s_{yt}$$

$$\tau = s_{yt}$$

$$\boxed{s_{ys} = s_{yt}}$$

MP.S.T.  $\rightarrow$  Rhombus eqn.

$$\sigma_1 - \mu \sigma_2 = s_{yt}$$

$$\tau - \mu(-\tau) = s_{yt}$$

Date - 10/10/11

## Power Plant

- Ideal cycles have only internal reversibility.
- Reversible cycles have both internal & external reversibility.
- Higher molecular weight decreases  $\gamma$  value, so efficiency decreases. e.g.:  $\gamma_{\text{air}} = 1.4$ ;  $\gamma_{\text{CO}_2} = 1.3$  &  $\gamma_{\text{Ethane}} = 1.2$
- Ideal gas can behave as real gas at very low pressure or very high temperature.
- $T \uparrow \rightarrow C_p \uparrow$ , but  $T \downarrow$ ; but we assume this is const.

### Cycles

Power cycles  
(+ work)  
(clockwise)

Refrigeration cycles  
(- work)  
(Anti-clockwise)

### Phase

#### Gas

e.g.: Gas turbine, IC engines, hydroelectric P.P.  
Working fluid remains in the gaseous phase throughout.

Net work output is high in comparison to vapour phase

They work at peak load & part load plants.

Less time reqd. to produce electricity

#### Vapour

e.g. Nuclear power plant etc  
Working fluid exist in the vapour phase during one part of the cycle and liquid phase during other part of cycle.  
They work at base-load plants.  
More time reqd. to produce electricity.

### closed cycles

- same working fluid
- Working fluid is returned to the initial state at the end of cycle and is recirculated.

### open cycle

- Working fluid is renewed at the end of each cycle; instead of being recirculated.

- No contact between working fuel & fluid  
so any fuel can be used. (No mixing b/w fuel & fluid)
- Work at below atm. pressure..
- $\eta$  High
- He, Ar can be used.  
(  $\gamma$  value high)
- working fuel & fluid are in direct contact. so pure fuel is used. (mixing b/w fuel & fluid)
- work at only at higher (above) atm. pressure.
- $\eta$  Low.
- Air is normally used.

### Internal combustion

- Heat is supplied internally by burning the fuel within the system boundary.  
e.g. IC engines.
- Limited power generating equipment.
- $\eta$  Low & combustion is incomplete.
- Less preferred.

### External combustion

- Heat is supplied from external source i.e. fuel is burnt outside the system  
e.g. steam & gas turbines.
- More power generating.
- $\eta$  High & combustion will be complete.
- These are generally preferred.

### Difference b/w

↓  
Steam P.P.  
(62-65%)  
power generated  
in India.

- Rankine cycle
- Vapour
- weight to power ratio : 55 kg / kw

- Install period: Highest
- Base load plant
- $T_{max}$  : 620°C

↓  
Gas P.P.  
(12-15%)

- Brayton/Toule cycle
- Gas
- 20 kg/kw.
- Preferred for aircraft due to least wt to power ratio.
- Medium
- Part & Peak load plant.
- 1200°C

↓  
IC engine P.P.  
(1-3%)

- Otto or Diesel
- Gas
- 115 kg / kw
- Lowest
- Domestic / Industrial
- 2500°C.

## Engg. Materials

↓  
Material  
science.

↓  
Engg. Metallurgy

Study of structure & properties  
of Engg. materials.

The term property denotes  
Quantitative index of response  
of a material to external  
stimulus.

Materials are classified based on structure  
Developed by 'BRAVAIS'

Crystalline

Amorphous  
or  
Non Crystalline

3 Dim<sup>n</sup>, long  
range & periodicity }  
Atoms.  
Molecules  
ions.

All crystalline materials are classified into three varieties—

- 1) Atomic solids (Atoms are placed inside internal structure so called atomic)
- 2) Molecular solids (If molecules exist)
- 3) Ionic solids (If ions exist)

\* Uniformity, homogeneity if exist in material so called molecular solids.

- All crystalline materials are molecular solids (or crystalline polymers)
- All metals & alloys are atomic solids.

Crystalline materials may be further classified → 7 crystal systems

- 1) Cubic
- 2) Tetragonal system
- 3) Hexagonal
- 4) Rhombohedral

(5) Orthorhombic

(6) Monoclinic

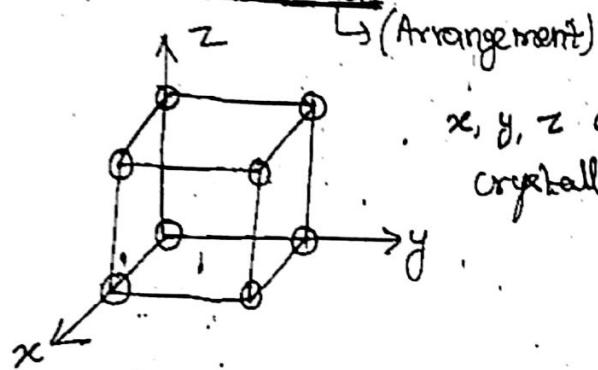
(7) Triclinic

- Unknown crystal structure materials can be determined by X-ray diffraction & Electron Microscopy techniques.

- All metals & alloys will crystallise in cubic & hexagonal crystal systems.
- Remaining few will crystallise in Minerals.

Some Important Definitions -

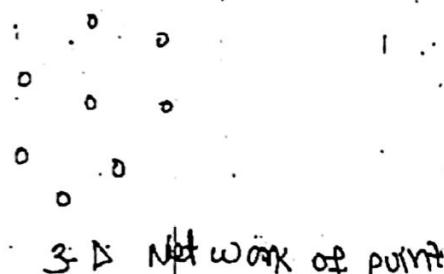
- 1) Unit Cell → A unit cell is defined as smallest representative group of atoms which when repeated in all the crystallographic directions for infinity no. of times results in the development of space lattice.



x, y, z are called as crystallographic directions.

- Space lattice is also called as Point lattice.

- 2) Space lattice - It is a 3-D network of pt. in space.  
This is also called as a point lattice.



3-D Network of point

①

→ LINEAR ALGEBRA  
(MATRICES)

→ PROPERTIES OF DETERMINANTS

- If 2 rows or columns of a matrix are identical, then the determinant is zero.

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

- If 2 rows or columns of a matrix are interchanged, then the sign of determinant changes.

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \quad \text{then} \quad -\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

- If 3 rows or columns of a matrix are interchanged, then the sign of determinant is unaltered.

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

- In the determinant of a matrix if any column containing the sum or difference of 2 elements, it can be split into the sum or difference of two determinants then

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & a^2 & a^3+1 \\ b & b^2 & b^3+1 \\ c & c^2 & c^3+1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & a^2 & a^3 \\ b & b^2 & b^3 \\ c & c^2 & c^3 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a & a^2 & 1 \\ b & b^2 & 1 \\ c & c^2 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

\*\*\*

- A matrix of  $n^{th}$  order allow only  $(n-1)$

- If all elements above the principal diagonal are zero, it is called a lower triangular matrix (LOT).

- If  $T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , then  $D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

- If all elements below the principal diagonal are zero, it is upper triangular matrix (UT)

If a matrix is either UPT or LPT then the determinant is the product of principal diagonal elements.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow |A| = 6 \times 3 \times 1 = 18$$

(LPT)

1:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & a^2 \\ 1 & b & b^2 \\ 1 & c & c^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ a & b & c \\ a^2 & b^2 & c^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - R_2, \quad R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_3$$

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & a-b & a^2-b^2 \\ 0 & b-c & b^2-c^2 \\ 1 & c & c^2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$|A| = (a-b)(b-c) \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & a+b \\ 0 & 1 & b+c \\ 1 & c & c^2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$|A| = (a-b)(b-c) \{ 1(b+c) - 1(a+b) \}$$

$$|A| = (a-b)(b-c)(c-a)$$

$$\text{So. } |A| = |A^T|$$

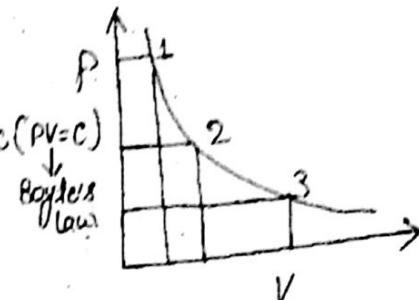
$$2: \quad A = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & a & bc \\ \frac{1}{b} & b & ca \\ \frac{1}{c} & c & ab \end{vmatrix}$$

$$A = \frac{1}{abc} \begin{vmatrix} bc & a & bc \\ ca & b & ca \\ ab & c & ab \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

## Some Thermodynamic Basic Concepts

Process:— When a system undergoes a change from one condition to another condition, it is then said to have completed a process.

- (1)  $P = \text{Const}$  — Isochoric process
- (2)  $V = \text{Const}$  — Isometric or Isochoric
- (3)  $T = \text{Const}$  — Isothermal or Hyperbolic ( $PV = C$ )
- (4)  $PVR = \text{Const}$  — Adiabatic process
- (5)  $PVN = \text{Const}$  — Polytropic process



A gas can undergo different type of changes. For each change some condition will be specified. The different processes involving different conditions are—

- (1) Const. Pressure process or Isochoric.
- (2) Const. Volume process or Isometric or Isochoric.
- (3) Const. Temp. process or Isothermal or Hyperbolic process for gases only
- (4) Adiabatic process (No Heat supplied).
- (5) Polytropic process.

### Other eq. for diff. process—

- ① when  $P = \text{const}$ .

$$V dT \text{ or } V = CXT.$$

$$\therefore \frac{V}{T} = C \quad \therefore \boxed{\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2}} \quad [\text{charles law}]$$

- ② when  $V = \text{const}$ .

$$P dT$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\frac{P_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2}{T_2}} \quad [\text{charles law}]$$

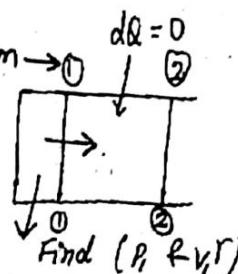
### \* Adiabatic Process —

$$PVR = C$$

$$P_1 V_1^r = P_2 V_2^r \quad \dots \textcircled{1}$$

$$\& \frac{P_1 V_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2 V_2}{T_2} \quad \dots \textcircled{2}$$

Piston Position  $\rightarrow$



$$dQ = 0$$

$$\text{Find } (P, R, V, T)$$

$$\left[ \begin{pmatrix} P_1 \\ V_1 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{n} \begin{pmatrix} P_2 \\ V_2 \end{pmatrix} \right] \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} P_2 \\ V_2 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{n} \begin{pmatrix} P_3 \\ V_3 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \dots \rightarrow (1)$$

\* Polytropic Process -

$$PV^n = C$$

→ The value of  $n$  can be any between  $0$  to  $\infty$  or  $0 = \infty$   
it means  $P \propto V^{-n}$

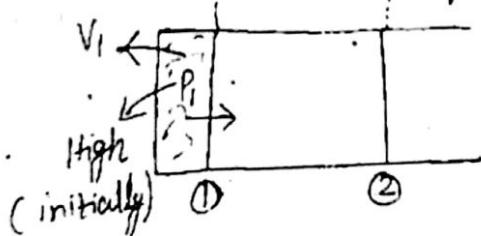
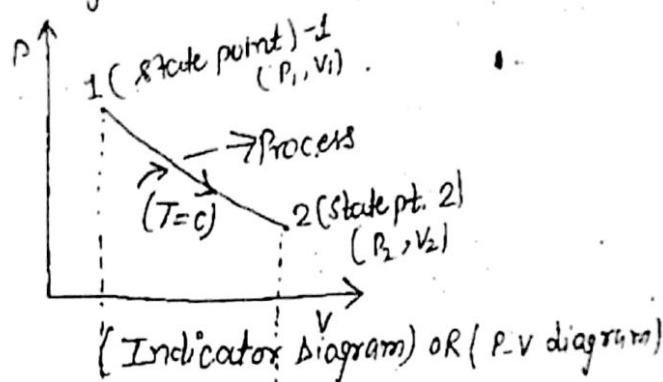
$$PV^{\frac{1}{n}} = C$$

$$P^{\frac{1}{n}} V = C^{\frac{1}{n}} = C$$

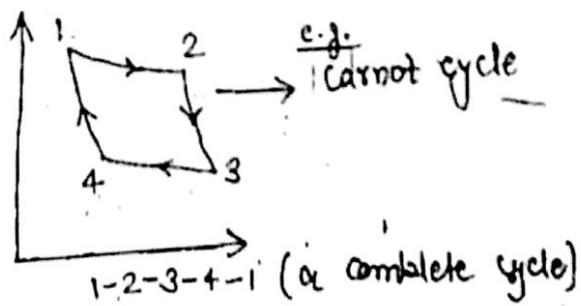
$$V = \text{const.}$$

For a polytropic process the index  $n$  is a variable and can have any value b/w  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$ .

\* P-V diagram:



\* Cycle: When a system, after undergoing a no. of processes (changes) such that it is able to attain its original conditions, it is then said to have completed a cycle.



Difference b/w Thermodynamics & Heat Transfer

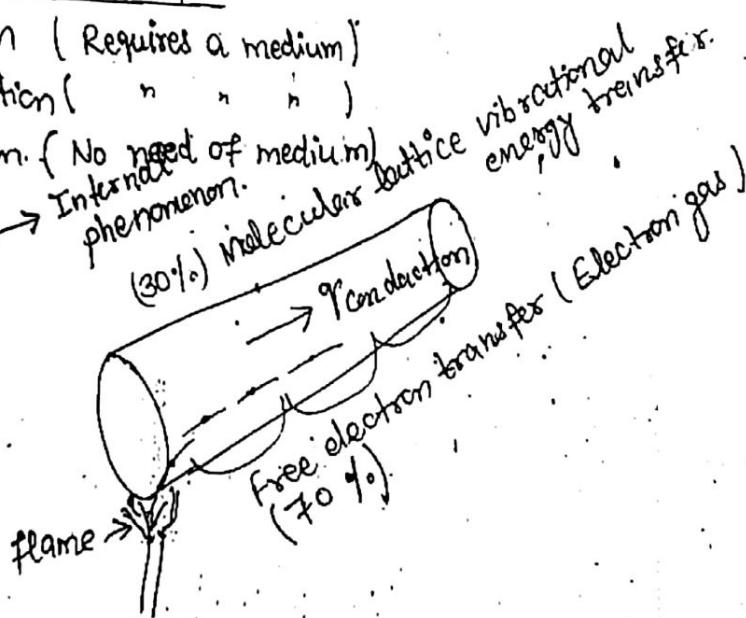
In thermodynamics, we deal with systems in equb i.e. how much heat energy is reqd. to bring a system from one equb. state to another.

But in heat transfer analysis of a problem we deal with at what rate (i.e./sec) heat is being transferred b/w the bodies due to temp. difference, satisfying clausius

II Law of Thermodynamics.Modes of Heat Transfer:

- 1) Conduction ( Requires a medium)
- 2) Convection ( " " " )
- 3) Radiation. ( No need of medium)

Conduction : → Internal molecular lattice vibrational energy transfer.  
Microscopic analysis.

Conductive materials:-

Diamond  $\rightarrow K = 2300 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$  & ~~so~~ Quartz  $\rightarrow$  perfectly crystalline materials  $\rightarrow$

Silver  $\rightarrow K = 405 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$

Copper  $\rightarrow K = 385 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$

Al  $\rightarrow K = 200 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$

Diamond has higher  $K$ .

Kglass  $\rightarrow 1.2 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$   $\rightarrow$  It is a Amorphous material  
so has less thermal conductivity.

$K_{\text{Steel}} = 17 \text{ to } 35 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$

$K_{\text{Air}} = 0.024 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$

Conduction is a mode of heat transfer which generally occurs in solids due to temp. difference by molecular lattice vibrational energy transfer (30%) and also by free electron transfer (70%).

All electrically good conductors are also good heat conductors becoz of the presence of abundant free electrons.

e.g.: All metals.

→ Insulators have very low thermal conductivity.

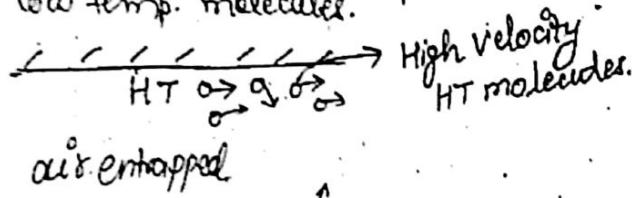
e.g.; Glass wool, asbestos, refractory bricks, Rock wool, saw dust → Bad Conductors of heat.

$$K_{\text{glass wool}} = 0.075 \text{ W/mK}$$

$$K_{\text{asbestos}} = 0.2 \text{ W/mK}$$

Note: Gasses also conduct heat by molecular momentum transfer when high velocity, high temp. molecules collide with the low velocity, low temp. molecules.

CxT



$$K_{\text{air}} = 0.024 \text{ W/mK}$$

→ Gasses are bad Conductors of heat.

Conduction in liquid &

$$K_{\text{water}} = 0.6 \text{ W/mK}$$

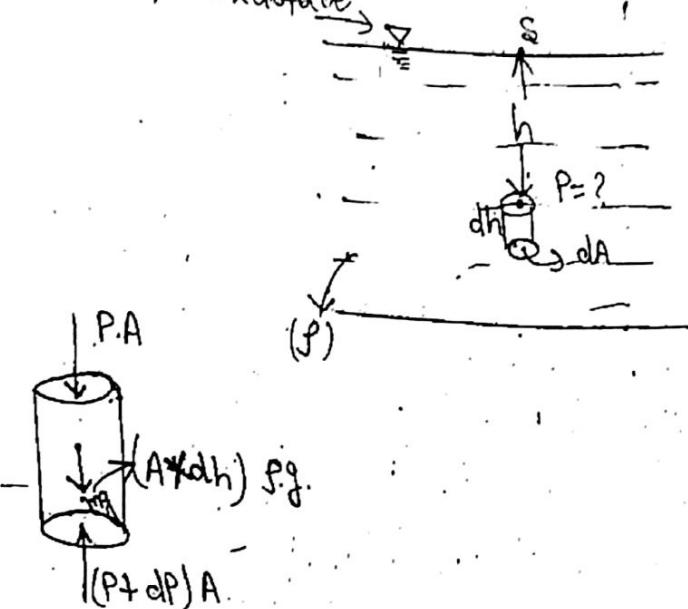
$$K_{\text{Hg}} = 0.2 \text{ W/mK}$$

(liquid metals)

⇒ All heat transfer processes are isobaric.

[FLUID MACHINES]  
BASICS OF FLUID MECHANICS

Hydrostatic Pressure - Hydrostatic pressure at a pt. below of free surface



$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}$$

$$(m = \rho \cdot \text{Volume})$$

$$m = \rho \cdot (A \cdot dh)$$

$$P.A + A.dh \cdot \rho.g - (P + dP).A = 0$$

$$A \cdot dh \cdot \rho.g = dP \cdot A$$

$$\boxed{\frac{dp}{dh} = \rho g} > 0$$

$$\int_0^P dp = \rho g \int_{h=0}^h dh$$

$$* \boxed{P = \rho gh} *$$

$$\text{units: } 1 \text{ } \frac{N}{m^2} = \underline{\underline{Pa}}$$

$$2. \underline{\underline{1 \frac{kgf}{cm^2}}} = \frac{9.81}{10^4} \frac{N}{m^2} = 9.81 \times 10^4 \underline{\underline{Pa}}$$

$$3. \underline{\underline{1 bar}} = 10^5 Pa$$

$$4. \quad 1 \text{ atm} = 101325 \text{ Pa}$$

$$1 \text{ atm} = 101325 \text{ Pa}$$

Water column:

$$101325 = 1000 \times g \times h \rightarrow g = \frac{101325}{1000 \times 9.81}$$

$$h = 10.3 \text{ m}$$

$$1 \text{ atm} = 101325 \text{ Pa} = 10.3 \text{ m (water)}$$

Hg:-

$$101325 = 13600 \times g \times h \rightarrow g = \frac{101325}{13600 \times 9.81}$$

$$h = 0.760 \text{ m}$$

$$h = 760 \text{ mm}$$

$$1 \text{ atm} = 101325 \text{ Pa} = 760 \text{ mm(Hg)}$$

$$10.3 \text{ m (water)} = 760 \text{ mm(Hg)}$$

Torr:

$P_{abs} > P_{atm}$

$$P_{atm} = 101325 \text{ Pa}$$

$P_{abs} < P_{atm}$

$$P = 0$$

Incompressible:

$f = \text{const. w.r.t } (\underline{\text{Pressure}})$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial P} = 0$$

Q:

Water:

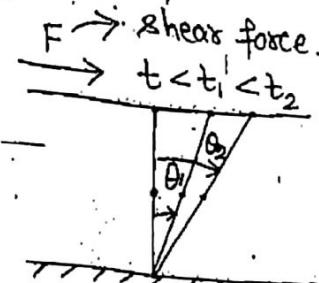
$$1 \text{ atm} \Rightarrow f_{water} = 998 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

## Fluid Mechanics:

A fluid is a substance which is capable of flowing or moving or deforming continuously under the action of shear force, however small the force may be. After the removal of force, fluids never gain their original position.

But whereas in the case of solids it is ~~a~~ if force is within elastic limit, on removal of force it regains in its original position. In solids deformation doesn't vary with time. But in fluids deformation varies with time and hence in fluids rate of deformation is important than deformation.

e.g.: Liquids, gases, vapours.



Note:- For a static fluid, shear force is equal = 0.

## FLUID PROPERTIES

1) Density or mass density ( $\rho$ ) :- It is the ratio of mass of fluid to its volume. Its unit is  $\text{kg/m}^3$  and its dimensional formula is  $[\text{ML}^{-3}]$ . Density of water is  $1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$ . Density depends upon temp & pressure.

$$\rho \begin{cases} T \uparrow \Rightarrow \rho \downarrow \\ P \uparrow \Rightarrow \rho \uparrow \end{cases}$$

2) Specific weight or weight density ( $\omega$ ) :- It is defined as the ratio of wt. of the fluid to its volume. Its unit is  $\text{N/m}^3$  and its dimensional formula is  $[\text{ML}^{-2}\text{T}^2]$ .

$$\omega = \frac{\text{wt. of fluid}}{\text{vol.}} \rightarrow \frac{N}{\text{m}^3} = \frac{\text{MLT}^{-2}}{\text{L}^3} = [\text{ML}^{-2}\text{T}^2]$$

$$\omega = \frac{mg}{\text{vol.}}$$

$$\boxed{\omega = fg}$$

$$\omega_{H_2O} = 10^3 \times 9.81$$

$$\omega_{H_2O} = 9810 \text{ N/m}^3$$

$$\omega \begin{cases} \rho \begin{cases} T \\ P \end{cases} \\ g \text{ (location)} \end{cases}$$

Note: Density is an absolute quantity whereas specific wt. is not an absolute quantity, becoz it varies from location to location.

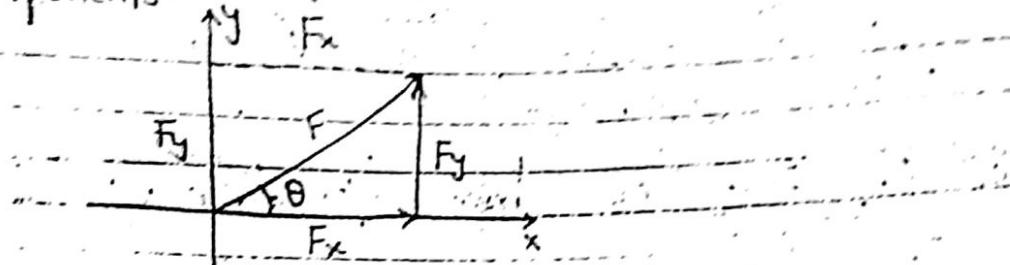
3) Specific Gravity ( $s$ ) :- It is the ratio of density of fluid to the density of std. fluid. In case of liquids the std. fluid is water and in case of gases, the std. fluid is either  $H_2$  or air at a given temp. & pressure. It is dimensionless ( $\text{ML}^0\text{T}^0$ ). Specific gravity of water  $\pm 1$  and that of mercury

23/10/09

EM  
COMPONENTS OF A FORCE:-  
Rectangular Components  
oblique Components

RECTANGULAR COMPONENTS →  
If the angle between the components is  $90^\circ$ ,  
then those components are called rectangular  
components.

CASE I:



If  $F$  makes angle  $\theta$  with  $x$ -axis,  
Then,

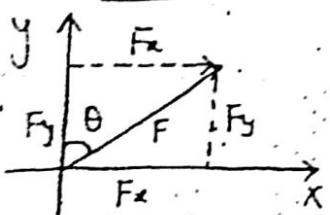
$$\cos \theta = \frac{F_x}{F} \Rightarrow F_x = F \cos \theta$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{F_y}{F} \Rightarrow F_y = F \sin \theta$$

$$F = \sqrt{F_x^2 + F_y^2}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{F_x}{F_y}$$

CASE II:



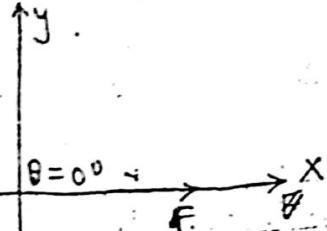
If  $F$  makes angle  $\theta$  with  $y$ -axis,

$$\cos \theta = \frac{F_x}{F} \Rightarrow F_y = F \cos \theta$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{F_x}{F} \Rightarrow F_x = F \sin \theta$$

(2)

E.i) If  $\theta = 0^\circ$ ,



$$F_x = F \cos \theta = F \cos 0 = F$$

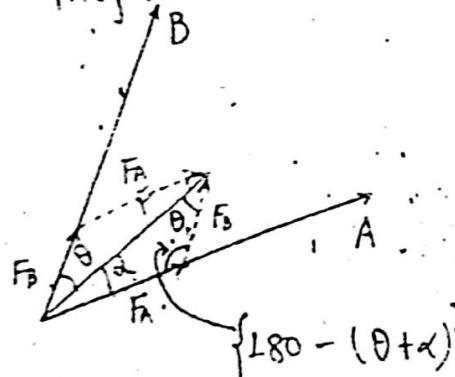
$$F_y = F \sin \theta = F \sin 0 = 0$$

The component of a force in its own direction is the force itself.

(ii) Any force can't have a component in its L direction

OBLIQUE COMPONENTS  $\rightarrow$

If the angle b/w the components is not  $90^\circ$ , then they are called oblique components.



By, Use Sine rule | Lame's theorem

$$\frac{F_A}{\sin \theta} = \frac{F_B}{\sin \alpha} = \frac{F}{\sin(180 - (\theta + \alpha))}$$

Knowing  $\theta, \alpha, F$  we can find  $F_A$  and  $F_B$  from the above Sine rule.

(3)