

# Engineering Mechanics

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# 1 Stress and Strain

## 1.1 External Forces

Rigid bodies are subjected to external force and couple moment systems that result from the effects of gravitational, electrical, magnetic, or contact forces. Contact forces can be surface, linear, or concentrated forces.

### 1.1.1 Types of Forces

- Compressive (pushing)
- Tensile (pulling)
- Shear (sliding)
- Torsional (twisting)
- Biaxial tension
- Hydrostatic compression
- Bending (induces tension, compression and shear)

## 1.2 Internal Loadings

External forces cause internal loadings that occur in equal and opposite collinear pairs as stresses and strains. Internal loading is associated with **stress** while **strain** is a measure of a body's deformation.

These loadings have no external effects on the body and are not included on a **Free Body Diagram** (FBD) if the entire body is considered.

To determine the forces in each member, we can use the method of sections to represent the internal loading as external forces.

## 1.3 Internal Resultant Loadings

Although the exact distribution of the internal loading may be *unknown*, we can determine the resultant force  $\mathbf{F}_R$  and resultant moment  $(\mathbf{M}_R)_O$  about a point  $O$  by applying the equations of equilibrium

$$\begin{aligned}\sum \mathbf{F} &= \mathbf{0} \\ \sum \mathbf{M}_O &= \mathbf{0}.\end{aligned}$$

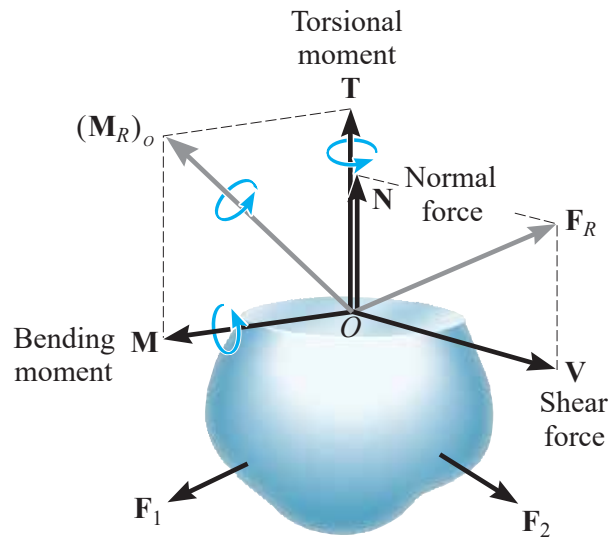


Figure 1: Resultant loadings acting on a body.

### 1.3.1 In 3D

In 3D, we can represent resultant loadings using four vectors acting over the sectioned area.

**Normal force  $\mathbf{N}$**  force acting perpendicular to the area

**Shear force  $\mathbf{V}$**  force acting on an axis tangent to the area

**Torsional moment  $\mathbf{T}$**  rotation about the perpendicular axis

**Bending moment  $\mathbf{M}$**  rotation about an axis tangent to the area

### 1.3.2 In 2D

In 2D, the body is subjected to a coplanar system of forces, where  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{0}$ .

### 1.3.3 In 1D

In 1D, the body is only subjected to axial forces, where  $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{M} = \mathbf{0}$ .

## 1.4 Stress

The force and moment acting at a specific point on a sectioned area of a body represent the resultant effects of the distribution of internal loading that acts over the sectioned area.

**Definition 1.1** (Stress). Consider the quotient of the force  $\Delta \mathbf{F}$  over an area  $\Delta A$ , then as the  $\Delta A \rightarrow 0$ , so does  $\Delta \mathbf{F}$ , while the quotient approaches a finite limit. This quotient is called the stress at that point.

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \lim_{\Delta A \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \mathbf{F}}{\Delta A}$$

Here the normal and shear stresses can be expressed using  $\sigma_z$  and  $\tau_{zx}$  and  $\tau_{zy}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_z &= \lim_{\Delta A \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta F_z}{\Delta A} \\ \tau_{zx} &= \lim_{\Delta A \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta F_x}{\Delta A} \\ \tau_{zy} &= \lim_{\Delta A \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta F_y}{\Delta A}\end{aligned}$$

Stress describes the intensity of the internal force acting on a specific region passing through a point.

The unit for stress is Pascal where 1 Pa or 1 N m<sup>-2</sup> and 1 MPa or 1 N mm<sup>-2</sup>.

To determine the average stress distribution acting over a cross-sectional area of an axially loaded bar, we assume that the material is both *homogeneous* and *isotropic*. This means the load  $P$  applied through the centroid of the cross-sectional area will cause the bar to deform uniformly throughout the central region of its length.

#### 1.4.1 Average Normal Stress

By passing a section through a bar, equilibrium requires the resultant normal force  $N$  at the section to be equal to the external force  $P$ . And because the material undergoes a uniform deformation, it is necessary that the cross-section is subjected to a constant normal stress distribution.

As a result, each small area  $\Delta A$  on the cross section is subjected to a force  $\Delta N = \sigma \Delta A$ , where the sum of these forces over the entire cross-sectional area is  $P$ . By letting  $\Delta A \rightarrow dA$  and therefore also  $\Delta N \rightarrow dN$ , then as  $\sigma$  is a constant, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\int dN &= \int_A \sigma dA \\ N &= \sigma A\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\sigma_{\text{avg}} = \frac{N}{A}$$

where in this case  $N = P$ .

**Theorem 1.4.1** (Equilibrium). *For an uniaxially loaded body, the equation of force equilibrium gives*

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma(\Delta A) - \sigma'(\Delta A) &= 0 \\ \sigma &= \sigma'\end{aligned}$$

*hence the normal stress components must be equal in magnitude but opposite in direction.*

*Under this condition, the material is subjected to **uniaxial stress** and this analysis applies to members subjected to tension or compression.*

### 1.4.2 Average Shear Stress

Shear stress is the stress component that acts in the plane of the sectioned area. Here we must consider the number of planes that are in stress due to the applied force, so that the shear force  $V = F/n$  for  $n$  planes, is applied to hold the segment in equilibrium.

The average shear stress distributed over each sectioned area that develops this shear force is defined by

$$\tau_{\text{avg}} = \frac{V}{A}$$

The loading case discussed is an example of **simple or direct shear** as the shear is caused by the direct action of the applied load  $\mathbf{F}$ .

## 1.5 Strain

**Definition 1.2** (Deformation). Whenever a force is applied to a body, it will tend to change the body's shape and size. These changes are referred to as deformation.

**Definition 1.3** (Strain). To describe the deformation of a body through changes in lengths of line segments on the surface, we will develop the concept of strain. If an axial load  $P$  is applied to a bar, it will change the bar's length  $L_0$  to  $L$ . Then the **average normal strain** of the bar is defined

$$\epsilon_{\text{avg}} = \frac{L - L_0}{L_0}$$

where the numerator is often written as  $\delta = L - L_0$  and is known as elongation or extension.

The **normal strain**  $\epsilon$  at a point in a body with an arbitrary shape is defined similarly. Consider a small line segment  $\Delta s$  which becomes  $\Delta s'$  after deformation. Then the limit of the normal strain is

$$\epsilon = \lim_{\Delta s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta s' - \Delta s}{\Delta s}$$

In both cases, normal strain is positive when the initial length elongates, and negative when the length contracts.

Strain is a dimensionless quantity sometimes expressed mm/mm or m/m, or as a percentage.

## 1.6 Shear Strain

Deformations not only cause line segments to elongate or contract, but they also cause them to change direction. If we consider two line segments that are originally perpendicular to one another, then the change in angle that occurs between them is referred to as **shear strain**. This angle is denoted by  $\gamma$  and is always measured in radians.

The shear strain of a block can be measured using

$$\gamma = \frac{\pi}{2} - \theta$$

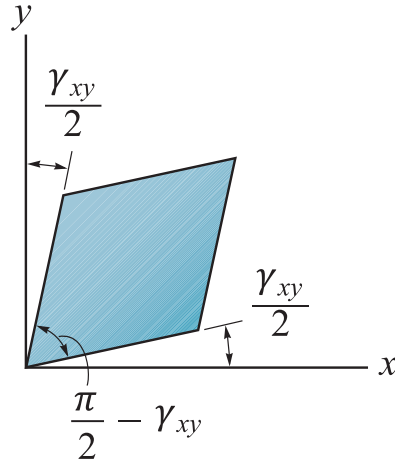


Figure 2: Shear block diagram.

We can also define shear stress as the change in angle

$$\gamma = \gamma_f - \gamma_o$$

### 1.7 Small Strain Analysis

Most engineering designs involve applications for which only small deformations are allowed (i.e.,  $\epsilon \ll 1$ ). Hence we can make the following approximations for the small change in angle  $\Delta\theta$ .

$$\sin(\Delta\theta) \approx \Delta\theta$$

$$\cos(\Delta\theta) \approx 1$$

$$\tan(\Delta\theta) \approx \Delta\theta$$

## 2 Tension and Compression Tests

To determine the strength of a material, we must perform a tension or compression test. This test measures the stress and strain from a load  $P$ , and the results can be used to produce a **stress-strain diagram**. There are two ways in which the stress-strain diagram is normally described.



## 2.1 Stress-Strain Diagram

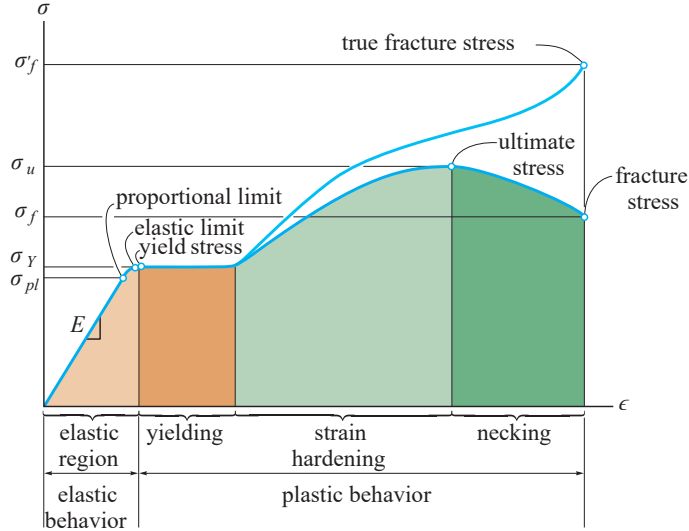


Figure 3: Stress-strain diagram for a typical metal.

### 2.1.1 Conventional Stress-Strain Diagram

The engineering stress assumes that the area  $A$  is constant throughout the gauge length

$$\sigma = \frac{P}{A_0}$$

where  $A_0$  is the *original* cross-sectional area of the specimen.

Likewise, the engineering strain uses the specimen's original length  $L_0$

$$\epsilon = \frac{\delta}{L_0}$$

### 2.1.2 True Stress-Strain Diagram

The true stress and true strain use the instantaneous area  $A$  and length  $L$  at each measurement.

## 2.2 Elastic Behaviour

The initial region of the curve is referred to as the **elastic region** where the deformation is *elastic* so that unloading causes the specimen to return to its original shape.

### 2.2.1 Proportional Limit

For the majority of the elastic deformation, the curve is *linear* up to the point where the stress reaches the **proportional limit** at  $(\sigma_{pl}, \epsilon_{pl})$ .

### 2.2.2 Modulus of Elasticity

The linear relationship up to this point is characterised by Hooke's law and is expressed as

$$\sigma = E\epsilon$$

where  $E$  is the constant of proportionality, called the **modulus of elasticity** or **Young's modulus**.

### 2.2.3 Elastic Limit

When the stress slightly exceeds the proportionality limit, the curve bends until the stress reaches an **elastic limit**.

## 2.3 Plastic Behaviour

An increase in stress above the elastic limit will result in a breakdown of the material and cause it to deform plastically.

### 2.3.1 Yielding

This behaviour is called **yielding** and the stress that causes yielding occurs at the **yield point**  $(\sigma_Y, \epsilon_Y)$ . Although not shown in the diagram, the yield point is distinguished as two points. The **upper yield point** occurs first, followed by a sudden decrease in load-carrying capacity to a **lower yield point**. Once the yield point is reached, *the specimen will continue to elongate **without** any increase in load*. When the material behaves in this manner, it is often referred to as being **perfectly plastic**.

### 2.3.2 Yield Strength

Commonly the proportionality limit, the elastic limit, and yield point are indistinguishable, due to this, the **yield strength** is defined at  $(\sigma_{YS}, \epsilon_{YS})$ .

To determine this point, a 0.2% strain is chosen, and a line with gradient  $E$  is drawn from the  $\epsilon$  axis. The point where this line intersects the curve defines  $(\sigma_{YS}, \epsilon_{YS})$ .

### 2.3.3 Strain Hardening

Yielding ends when any loading causes the stress to increase, this rise in the curve is referred to as **strain hardening**.

When a plastically deformed ductile material is unloaded, the elastic strain is recovered as the material returns to its equilibrium state.

However the plastic strain is maintained, resulting in a **permanent set**.

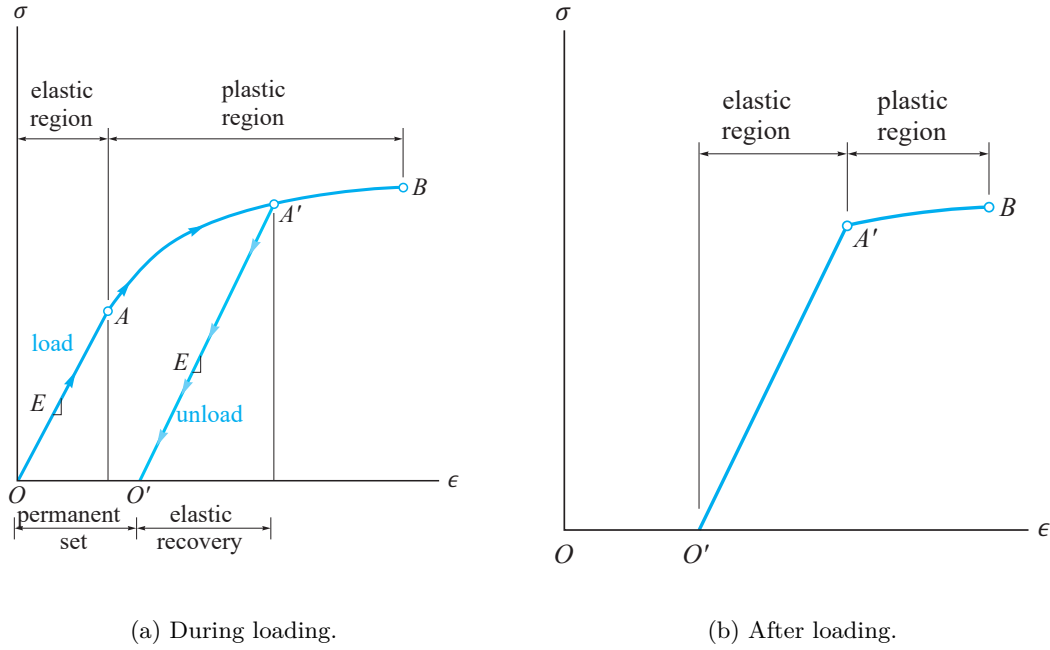


Figure 4: Elastic strain recovery under strain hardening.

### 2.3.4 Ultimate Tensile Stress

The maximum stress reached on the diagram is referred to as the **ultimate tensile stress** ( $\sigma_{UTS}$ ,  $\epsilon_{UTS}$ ).

### 2.3.5 Necking

While the specimen elongates up to  $\epsilon_{UTS}$ , its cross-sectional area will decrease *uniformly* over its gauge length. However after reaching  $\epsilon_{UTS}$ , the cross-sectional area will decrease *locally*, causing an increase in stress. As a result, a “neck” forms in this region, and the specimen experiences **necking**.

### 2.3.6 Fracture Stress

Finally, the specimen breaks where the curve ends at the **fracture point** at  $(\sigma_f, \epsilon_f)$ .

## 2.4 Allowable Stress Design

To ensure the safety of a structural member, it is necessary to restrict the applied load to one that is *less than* what a member can support.

This is done by specifying a **factor of safety** F.S. which determines the allowable load  $F_{\text{allow}}$  a member should be designed for.

$$\text{F.S.} = \frac{F_{\text{fail}}}{F_{\text{allow}}}$$

Here  $F_{\text{fail}}$  is found from experimental testing of the material. When the load is linearly related to the stress, we can express the factor of safety using the ratio of failure stress and allowable stress.

$$\text{F.S.} = \frac{\sigma_{\text{fail}}}{\sigma_{\text{allow}}}$$

$$\text{F.S.} = \frac{\tau_{\text{fail}}}{\tau_{\text{allow}}}$$

## 2.5 Ductility

**Definition 2.1** (Ductility). Ductility is a measure of the amount of plastic deformation a material can sustain under tensile stress before failure.

Ductility can be measured using the **percent elongation** (in length) or **percent reduction** (in area) of a material.

$$\text{Percent Elongation} = \frac{L_f - L_0}{L_0} 100\%$$

$$\text{Percent Reduction} = \frac{A_0 - A_f}{A_0} 100\%$$

As the elastic region is very brief in most materials, ductility is often measured using the original length and area, rather than the length and area when the material undergoes plastic deformation.

## 2.6 Brittleness

**Definition 2.2** (Brittleness). Brittleness describes the property of a material that fractures with little to no yielding.

## 2.7 Poisson's Ratio

When a deformable body is subjected to a force, it can elongate longitudinally and also contract laterally. The strain in the longitudinal (or axial) direction is given by

$$\epsilon_{\text{long}} = \frac{\delta}{L}$$

and the strain in the lateral (or radial) direction is given by

$$\epsilon_{\text{lat}} = \frac{\delta'}{r}$$

where  $\delta'$  is the change in the radius  $r$ .

Consider the ratio of these two quantities  $\nu$

$$\nu = -\frac{\epsilon_{\text{lat}}}{\epsilon_{\text{long}}}.$$

Within the elastic region,  $\nu$  will be constant, and it is referred to as **Poisson's ratio**.

Note the negative value is introduced as the longitudinal and lateral strains have opposite signs.

## 2.8 Strain Energy

As a material is deformed under external load, the load will do external work. This work is stored in the material as internal energy or **strain energy**.

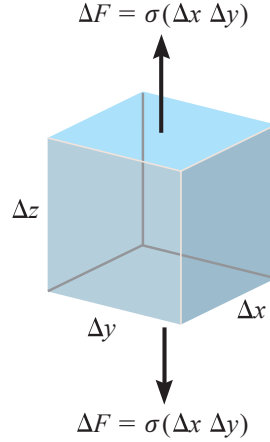


Figure 5: Internal energy in small element.

If we consider a small volume element of the material, then the force is equal to the average force magnitude  $\Delta F/2$  and the displacement is given by  $d$ . Therefore the strain energy  $\Delta U$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta U &= \frac{1}{2} \Delta F d \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\sigma \Delta x \Delta y) (\epsilon \Delta z) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sigma \epsilon \Delta V\end{aligned}$$

where  $\Delta V$  is the volume of the element. If we consider the strain energy *per unit volume*, then

$$u = \frac{\Delta U}{\Delta V} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma \epsilon$$

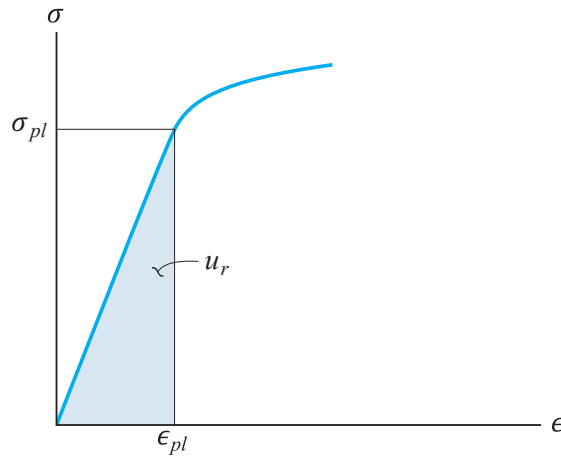
where  $u$  is the **strain energy density**.  $u$  can also be determined by finding the area under the stress-strain diagram, and hence has the units  $\text{J m}^{-3}$ .

### 2.8.1 Modulus of Resilience

When the stress in a material reaches the proportional limit, the strain energy density is referred to as the modulus of resilience.

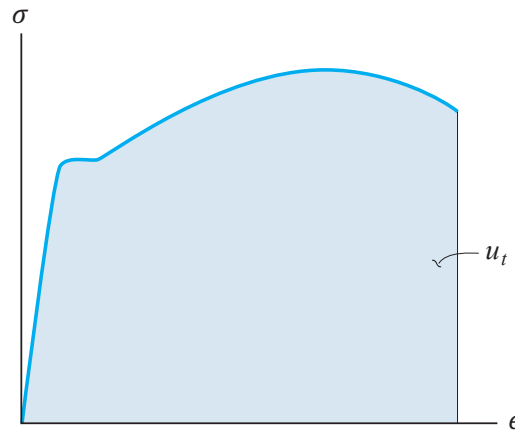
$$u_r = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{pl} \epsilon_{pl} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma_{pl}^2}{E}$$

The modulus of resilience is also the area under the proportional region of the stress-strain diagram.

Figure 6: Modulus of resilience  $u_r$ .

### 2.8.2 Modulus of Toughness

Another important property of a material is its modulus of toughness,  $u_t$ . This quantity represents the entire area under the stress-strain diagram.

Figure 7: Modulus of toughness  $u_t$ .

## 3 Shear Stress-Strain Diagram

Similar to a tensile test, we can use a thin tube and subject it to torsional loading. Using the data for the applied torque and resulting angle of twist, we can form a shear stress-strain diagram.

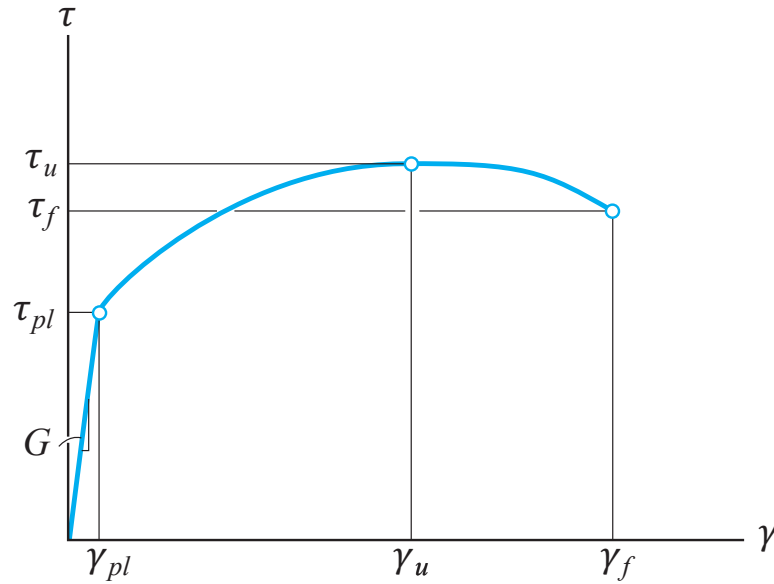


Figure 8: Shear stress-strain diagram.

### 3.1 Elastic and Plastic Regions

The curve will have similar properties to the stress-strain curve, including the elastic and plastic deformation regions.

### 3.2 Shear Modulus

Within the proportional region of the curve, the elastic behaviour is linear, so we can apply Hooke's law for shear to obtain

$$\tau = G\gamma$$

where  $G$  is called the **shear modulus of elasticity** or the **modulus of rigidity**.

### 3.3 Relationship between $E$ , $G$ , and $\nu$

The three material constants,  $E$ ,  $G$ , and  $\nu$  can be related by the equation:

$$G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)}$$

## 4 Forces

### 4.1 Rigid Body Forces and Moments

**Definition 4.1** (Resultant force). In a system of  $n$  concurrent forces, the resultant force vector  $\mathbf{F}_R$  is given by

$$\mathbf{F}_R = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{F}_i$$

**Definition 4.2** (Moment). When a force is applied to a body it will cause the body to rotate about a point that is not on the line of action of the force. This tendency is called the moment of a force. The direction of the rotation is also known as the sense of direction of  $\mathbf{M}_O$ . A moment is a vector quantity measured in Newton metres (Nm).

**Definition 4.3** (Resultant moment). In a system of  $n$  concurrent forces, the resultant moment vector  $\mathbf{M}_R$  about a point  $O$  is given by

$$(\mathbf{M}_R)_O = \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{M}_O)_i$$

#### 4.1.1 Moments — Scalar Formulation

The magnitude of a moment about the point  $O$  can be determined using the formula

$$\|\mathbf{M}_O\| = \|\mathbf{F}\|d$$

where  $\mathbf{F}$  acts perpendicular to a line with distance  $d$ .

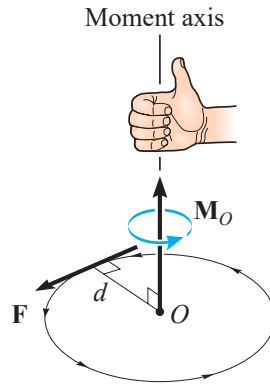


Figure 9: Moment scalar formulation when  $\mathbf{F}$  is perpendicular.

When the force is not perpendicular to the distance, we can use the **sliding vector**  $\mathbf{r}$  along with the angle between the two vectors to determine the magnitude of the moment.

$$\|\mathbf{M}_O\| = \|\mathbf{F}\|\|\mathbf{r}\| \sin(\theta)$$



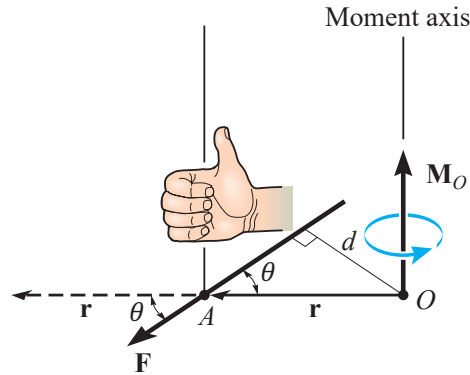


Figure 10: Moment scalar resolution when  $\mathbf{F}$  is not perpendicular.

This results in the relationship

$$d = \|\mathbf{r}\| \sin(\theta)$$

#### 4.1.2 Moments — Vector Formulation

Using the vector  $\mathbf{r}$  with the force  $\mathbf{F}$  we can define a relationship for the moment  $\mathbf{M}_O$

$$\mathbf{M}_O = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}$$

where the sense of direction is determined through the right-hand rule.

**Theorem 4.1.1** (Principle of transmissibility). *Any position vector  $\mathbf{r}$  from the point  $O$  to any point on the line of action of the force  $\mathbf{F}$  will yield the same moment vector  $\mathbf{M}_O$ .*

$$\mathbf{M}_O = \mathbf{r}_1 \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{r}_2 \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{r}_3 \times \mathbf{F}$$

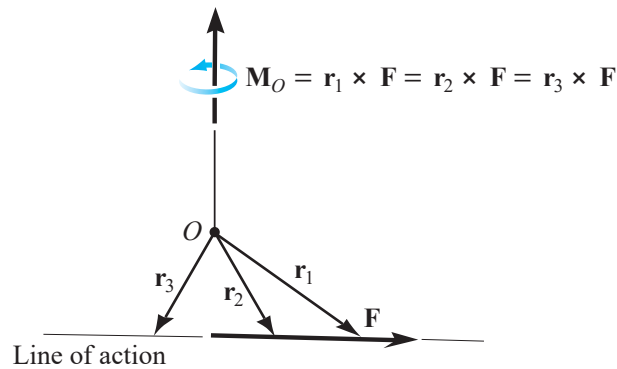


Figure 11: Principle of transmissibility.

**Theorem 4.1.2** (Principle of moments). *The moment of a force  $\mathbf{F}$  about a point  $O$  is equal to the sum of the moments of the components of the force about the same point.*

$$\mathbf{M}_O = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{r} \times (\mathbf{F}_1 + \mathbf{F}_2) = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}_1 + \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}_2$$

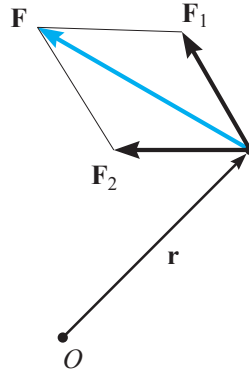
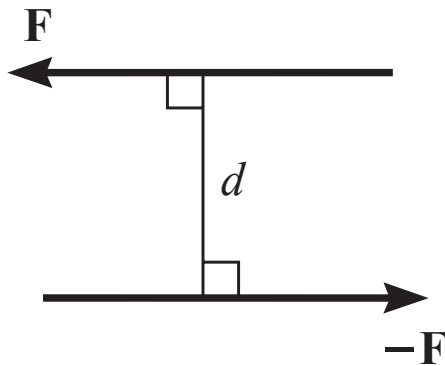


Figure 12: Principle of moments.

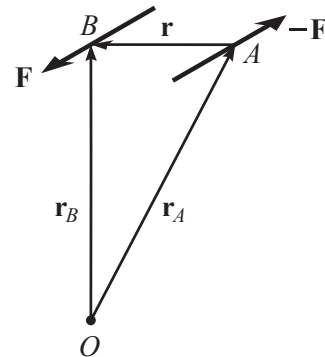
## 4.2 Couples

**Definition 4.4** (Couple). A couple is defined as two parallel forces that have the same magnitude, but opposite directions, that are separated by a perpendicular distance  $d$ . Since the resultant force is zero, the only effect of a couple is to produce a rotation.

The moment produced by a couple is called a *couple moment*. We can determine its value by finding the sum of the moments of both couple forces about any arbitrary point.



(a) In 2d.



(b) In 3d.

Figure 13: Moment of a couple.

The figures above illustrate how this moment can act at *any point* since  $\mathbf{M}$  depends *only* on the position vector  $\mathbf{r}$ .

The couple moment is determined using

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{r}_B \times \mathbf{F} + \mathbf{r}_A \times (-\mathbf{F}) = (\mathbf{r}_B - \mathbf{r}_A) \times \mathbf{F}$$

However,  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_B - \mathbf{r}_A$ , so that

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}$$

where  $\mathbf{M}$  does not require a subscript.

**Definition 4.5** (Resultant couple moment). In a system of  $n$  concurrent forces, the resultant couple moment vector  $\mathbf{M}_R$  is given by

$$\mathbf{M}_R = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{M}_i$$

In summary, we can reduce a force and couple system to a resultant force  $\mathbf{F}_R$ , and resultant moment  $(\mathbf{M}_R)_O$  about a point  $O$ , so that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{F}_R &= \sum \mathbf{F} \\ (\mathbf{M}_R)_O &= \sum \mathbf{M}_O + \sum \mathbf{M} \end{aligned}$$

### 4.3 Rigid-Body Equilibrium

When applying the equations of equilibrium we assume that the body remains rigid and does not deform under the applied load.

### 4.4 Weight

In a gravitational field, the gravitational force acting on an object is called its weight. Using Newton's Law of Gravitational Attraction, with  $g = G \frac{M}{r^2}$  where  $M$  and  $r$  are the mass and radius of the earth, we can calculate the force of gravity on an object of mass  $m$  with

$$W = mg.$$

### 4.5 Centre of Gravity

In a gravitational field, each particle in a body will have a weight  $dW$ . These weights form a parallel force system, so that the resultant of the system is the total weight of the body, which passes through a single point called the center of gravity  $G$ .

### 4.6 Friction

Friction is a force  $F$  that resists the movement  $P$  between two contacting surfaces that slide relative to one another. This force always acts tangent to the surface at the points of contact, and is directed so that it opposes the possible or existing motion between the surfaces.

#### 4.6.1 Static Friction

When the frictional force  $F$  is not great enough to balance the force  $P$ ,  $F$  is called the limiting static frictional force  $F_s$  as any increase in  $P$  will cause the object to move. This force is directly proportional to the resultant normal force  $N$ :

$$F_s = \mu_s N$$

where the constant of proportionality  $\mu_s$  is called the coefficient of static friction.

#### 4.6.2 Kinetic Friction

If the magnitude of  $P$  is increased so that it is greater than  $F_s$ , the frictional force at the contacting surface drops to a smaller value  $F_k$ , called the kinetic frictional force. The object will then begin to slide with increasing speed. The kinetic friction force is calculated similar to the static friction force,

$$F_k = \mu_k N$$




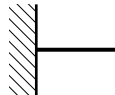
where the constant of proportionality  $\mu_k$  is called the coefficient of kinetic friction.

## 5 Structural Analysis

### 5.1 Supports

A support prevents the translation or rotation of a body by exerting a force or couple moment on the body.

The following table summarises basic supports in 2d, along with their symbols and reactions.

Name	Symbol	Reaction
Cable		$\mathbf{F}$ at fixed angle $\theta$
Roller		$\mathbf{F}_y$
Pin		$\mathbf{F}$
Fixed		$\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{M}$

### 5.2 Free Body Diagrams

To construct a free body diagram, we can use the following steps:

1. Draw outlined shape
  - (a) Isolate body
  - (b) Define a coordinate system
2. Show all external forces and couple moments
  - (a) Label all known forces and moments with magnitudes and directions
  - (b) Label all unknown forces and moments with appropriate letters
  - (c) Indicate any required dimensions on body

### 5.3 Trusses

A truss is a structure composed of members joined at their end points. Using the dimensions and loads on a truss, we can apply analysis techniques to determine the forces developed in the truss members.

### 5.4 Method of Joints

By drawing a free body diagram at each joint, we can use the force equilibrium equations to obtain the forces acting on each joint.

Generally, this requires starting at the external force and traversing each joint individually.

When applying the equilibrium equations assume that unknown forces are in tension so that positive magnitudes correspond to members in tension, and negative magnitudes correspond to members in compression.

**Theorem 5.4.1** (Determinate trusses). *Given the number of members  $m$ , joints  $j$  and reactions  $r$ , the following relationship must hold for a statically determinate system.*

$$m = 2j - r$$

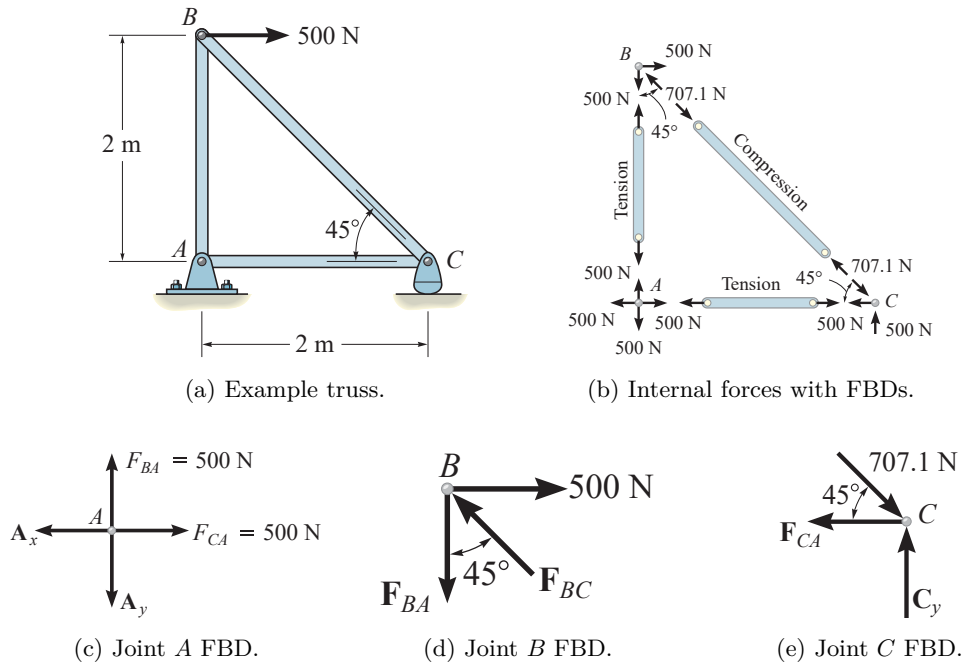
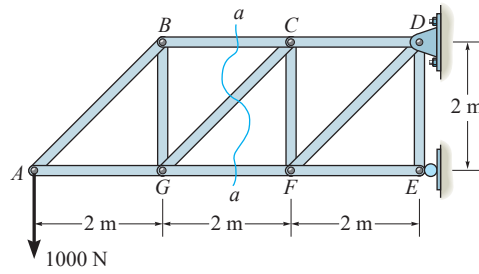


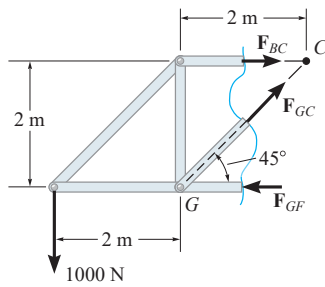
Figure 14: Method of joints example.

### 5.5 Method of Sections

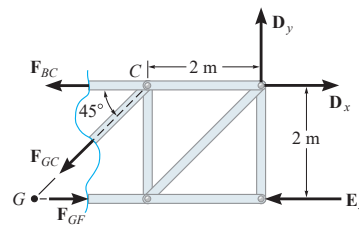
To calculate the force of an arbitrary member in a truss we can utilise the method of sections. In this method, we can create a section that cuts through a maximum of 3 members, corresponding to the three equilibrium equations. Then the sectioned members can be treated as tension forces and their internal forces can be determined using the equilibrium equations.



(a) Example truss.



(b) Left section.



(c) Right section.

Figure 15: Method of sections example.

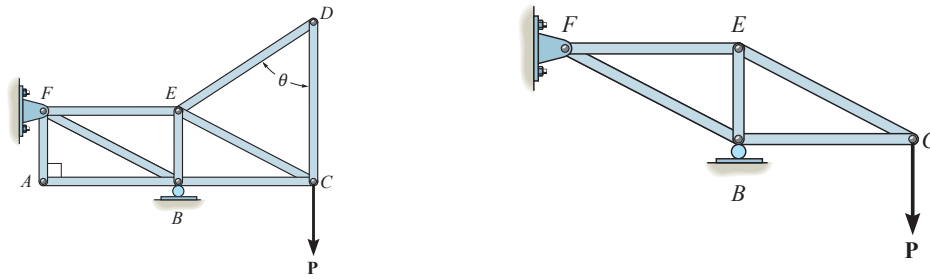
## 5.6 Zero Force Members

A zero force member does not carry any load and thus has an internal force of 0. These members are used to increase the stability of structures in the event that loading changes.

By identifying these members, we can reduce the number of members when applying the method of joints.

Zero force members can be identified by two properties:

1. At a **two** member joint, if both members are **not** parallel and no external loads are applied at the joint, then **both** members are zero force members.

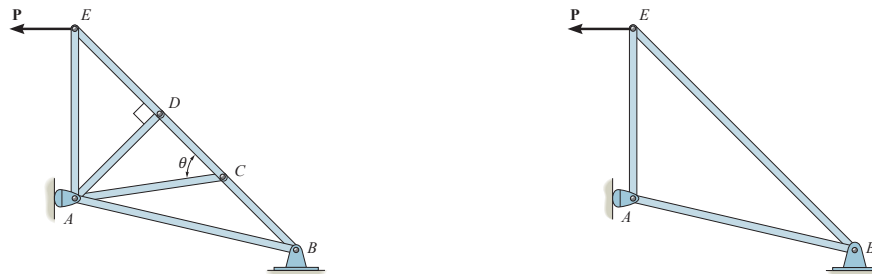


(a) Example truss.

(b) Simplified truss.

Figure 16: Identifying two member joint zero force members.

2. At a **three** member joint, if **two** members are parallel and no external loads are applied at the joint, then the **third** member is a zero force member.



(a) Example truss.

(b) Simplified truss.

Figure 17: Identifying three member joint zero force members.

## 5.7 Frames and Machines

Frames and machines are two types of structures which are often composed of pin-connected multi-force members, i.e., members that are subjected to more than two forces. Frames are used to support loads, whereas machines contain moving parts and are designed to transmit and alter the effect of forces.

Provided a frame or machine contains no more supports or members than are necessary to prevent its collapse, then the forces acting at the joints and supports can be determined by applying the equations of equilibrium to each of its members.

### 5.7.1 Free Body Diagrams

To determine the forces acting at the joints and supports of a frame or machine, the structure must be disassembled and the free-body diagrams of its parts must be drawn.

The following important points must be observed:



- Isolate each part by drawing its outlined shape and show all the forces and couple moments that act on the part.
- Identify all the two-force members in the structure and represent their free-body diagrams as having two equal but opposite collinear forces acting at their points of application (i.e., the pins). By doing this, we can avoid solving an unnecessary number of equilibrium equations.
- Forces common to any two contacting members act with equal magnitudes but opposite sense on the free-body diagrams of the respective members.

## 6 Centroids

Given the 1d region  $L : [x_1, x_2]$ , 2d region  $R : [x_1, x_2] \times [y_1, y_2]$  and 3d region  $V : [x_1, x_2] \times [y_1, y_2] \times [z_1, z_2]$ , the following definitions represent various geometric properties of a body.

### 6.1 Mass

The mass of a body with density  $\rho$  is a measure of the quantity of matter.

For a length:

$$M = \int_L \rho \, dL$$

For an area:

$$M = \iint_A \rho \, dA$$

For a volume:

$$M = \iiint_V \rho \, dV$$

### 6.2 Weight

The weight of a body is its attraction to another body (e.g., Earth), developed by a gravitational field with acceleration  $g$ .

For a length:

$$W = \int_L \rho g \, dL$$

For an area:

$$W = \iint_A \rho g \, dA$$

For a volume:

$$W = \iiint_V \rho g \, dV$$

### 6.3 Centre of Mass

The resultant mass of the particles in a body pass through a single point called the center of mass. For a length:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{M} \int_L \rho x \, dL$$

For an area:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{M} \iint_A \rho x \, dA \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{M} \iint_A \rho y \, dA$$

For a volume:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{M} \iiint_V \rho x \, dV \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{M} \iiint_V \rho y \, dV \qquad \bar{z} = \frac{1}{M} \iiint_V \rho z \, dV$$

### 6.4 Center of Gravity

The resultant weight of the particles in a body pass through a single point called the center of gravity.

For a length:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{W} \int_L \rho g x \, dL$$

For an area:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{W} \iint_A \rho g x \, dA \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{W} \iint_A \rho g y \, dA$$

For a volume:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{W} \iiint_V \rho g x \, dV \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{W} \iiint_V \rho g y \, dV \qquad \bar{z} = \frac{1}{W} \iiint_V \rho g z \, dV$$

### 6.5 Uniform Gravitational Field

In a uniform gravitational field where  $g \in \mathbb{R}$  is a constant. The weight simplifies to

$$W = Mg$$

and the center of mass and center gravity are equal.

### 6.6 Geometric Measures

The measure of a body represents its length in 1d, area in 2d, and volume in 3d.

For a length:

$$L = \int_L dL$$

For an area:

$$A = \iint_A dA$$

For a volume:

$$V = \iiint_V dV$$

## 6.7 Centroids

The geometric center of a body is known as its centroid.

For a length:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{L} \int_L \mathbf{r} \, dL$$

For an area:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{A} \iint_A x \, dA \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{A} \iint_A y \, dA$$

For a volume:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{V} \iiint_V x \, dV \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{V} \iiint_V y \, dV \qquad \bar{z} = \frac{1}{V} \iiint_V z \, dV$$

## 6.8 Composite Bodies

A composite body consists of  $n$  connected “simpler” shaped bodies. To determine the center of gravity of such a body, we can use the sum of individual components:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x A_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n A_i} \qquad \bar{y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y A_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n A_i}$$

where  $A_i$  is the area of each shape.

## 6.9 Distributed Loads

A distributed load on a 1d rod of length  $L$  can be represented as a point load  $\mathbf{F}_R$  applied at the position  $0 \leq \bar{x} \leq L$  on the rod.

$$\mathbf{F}_R = \int_0^L w(x) \, dx$$

## 6.10 Moment of Inertia

The moment of inertia describes the resistance of a moment when a force is applied perpendicular to the axis of rotation.

The moment of inertia about the  $x$  and  $y$  axes are given by

$$I_x = \iint_A y^2 \, dA$$

$$I_y = \iint_A x^2 \, dA$$

and the polar moment of inertia is given by

$$J_O = I_x + I_y.$$

**Theorem 6.10.1** (Parallel axis theorem). *If the moment of inertia is known about an axis passing through the centroid of a region, then the parallel-axis theorem can be used to find the moment of inertia about any axis that is parallel to the centroidal axis.*

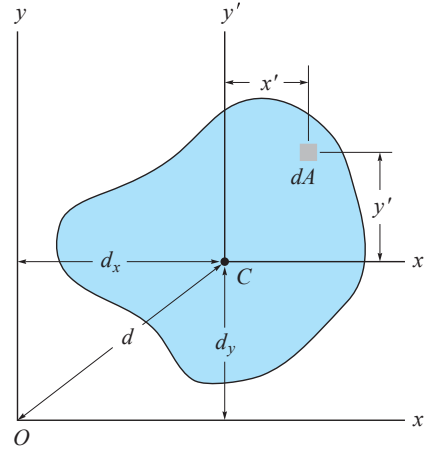


Figure 18: Region with known moment of inertia about its centroidal axis.

In the figure above, if  $I_{x'}$  represents the moment of inertia about the centroidal axis  $x'$ , then the moment of inertia about the  $x$ -axis is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_x &= \iint_R (y' + d_y)^2 dA \\
 &= \iint_R y'^2 dA + 2d_y \iint_R y' dA + d_y^2 \iint_R dA \\
 &= \iint_R y'^2 dA + Ad_y^2 \\
 &= I_{x'} + Ad_y^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly for  $I_{y'}$ , we have

$$I_y = I_{y'} + Ad_x^2$$

so that the polar moment of inertia is given by

$$J_O = J_C + Ad^2$$

where  $J_C = I_{x'} + I_{y'}$  and  $d^2 = d_x^2 + d_y^2$ .