

# Equilibrium and Elasticity

## 12.1 EQUILIBRIUM

### Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

**12.1.1** Distinguish between equilibrium and static equilibrium.

**12.1.2** Specify the four conditions for static equilibrium.

**12.1.3** Explain center of gravity and how it relates to center of mass.

**12.1.4** For a given distribution of particles, calculate the coordinates of the center of gravity and the center of mass.

### Key Ideas

● A rigid body at rest is said to be in static equilibrium. For such a body, the vector sum of the external forces acting on it is zero:

$$\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of forces}).$$

If all the forces lie in the  $xy$  plane, this vector equation is equivalent to two component equations:

$$F_{\text{net},x} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad F_{\text{net},y} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of forces}).$$

● Static equilibrium also implies that the vector sum of the external torques acting on the body about *any* point is zero, or

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of torques}).$$

If the forces lie in the  $xy$  plane, all torque vectors are parallel to the  $z$  axis, and the balance-of-torques equation is equivalent to the single component equation

$$\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of torques}).$$

● The gravitational force acts individually on each element of a body. The net effect of all individual actions may be found by imagining an equivalent total gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  acting at the center of gravity. If the gravitational acceleration  $\vec{g}$  is the same for all the elements of the body, the center of gravity is at the center of mass.

## What Is Physics?

Human constructions are supposed to be stable in spite of the forces that act on them. A building, for example, should be stable in spite of the gravitational force and wind forces on it, and a bridge should be stable in spite of the gravitational force pulling it downward and the repeated jolting it receives from cars and trucks.

One focus of physics is on what allows an object to be stable in spite of any forces acting on it. In this chapter we examine the two main aspects of stability: the *equilibrium* of the forces and torques acting on rigid objects and the *elasticity* of nonrigid objects, a property that governs how such objects can deform. When this physics is done correctly, it is the subject of countless articles in physics and engineering journals; when it is done incorrectly, it is the subject of countless articles in newspapers and legal journals.

## Equilibrium

Consider these objects: (1) a book resting on a table, (2) a hockey puck sliding with constant velocity across a frictionless surface, (3) the rotating blades of a ceiling fan, and (4) the wheel of a bicycle that is traveling along a straight path at constant speed. For each of these four objects,

1. The linear momentum  $\vec{P}$  of its center of mass is constant.
2. Its angular momentum  $\vec{L}$  about its center of mass, or about any other point, is also constant.

We say that such objects are in **equilibrium**. The two requirements for equilibrium are then

$$\vec{P} = \text{a constant} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{L} = \text{a constant.} \quad (12.1.1)$$

Our concern in this chapter is with situations in which the constants in Eq. 12.1.1 are zero; that is, we are concerned largely with objects that are not moving in any way—either in translation or in rotation—in the reference frame from which we observe them. Such objects are in **static equilibrium**. Of the four objects mentioned near the beginning of this module, only one—the book resting on the table—is in static equilibrium.

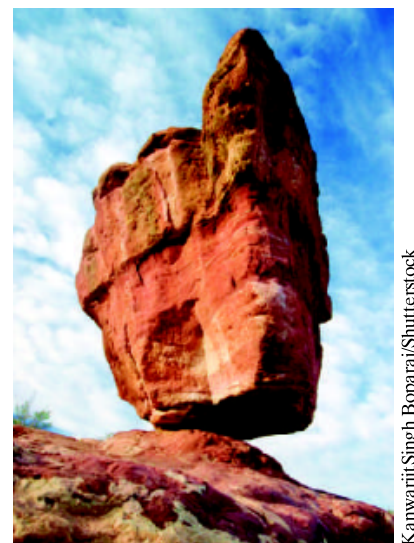
The balancing rock of Fig. 12.1.1 is another example of an object that, for the present at least, is in static equilibrium. It shares this property with countless other structures, such as cathedrals, houses, filing cabinets, and taco stands, that remain stationary over time.

As we discussed in Module 8.3, if a body returns to a state of static equilibrium after having been displaced from that state by a force, the body is said to be in *stable* static equilibrium. A marble placed at the bottom of a hemispherical bowl is an example. However, if a small force can displace the body and end the equilibrium, the body is in *unstable* static equilibrium.

**A Domino.** For example, suppose we balance a domino with the domino's center of mass vertically above the supporting edge, as in Fig. 12.1.2a. The torque about the supporting edge due to the gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  on the domino is zero because the line of action of  $\vec{F}_g$  is through that edge. Thus, the domino is in equilibrium. Of course, even a slight force on it due to some chance disturbance ends the equilibrium. As the line of action of  $\vec{F}_g$  moves to one side of the supporting edge (as in Fig. 12.1.2b), the torque due to  $\vec{F}_g$  increases the rotation of the domino. Therefore, the domino in Fig. 12.1.2a is in unstable static equilibrium.

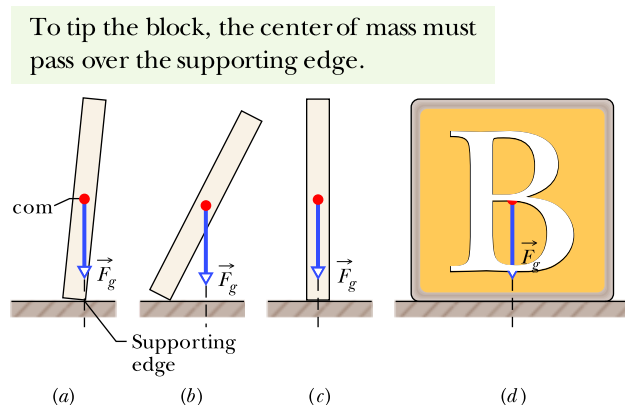
The domino in Fig. 12.1.2c is not quite as unstable. To topple this domino, a force would have to rotate it through and then beyond the balance position of Fig. 12.1.2a, in which the center of mass is above a supporting edge. A slight force will not topple this domino, but a vigorous flick of the finger against the domino certainly will. (If we arrange a chain of such upright dominos, a finger flick against the first can cause the whole chain to fall.) FCP

**A Block.** The child's square block in Fig. 12.1.2d is even more stable because its center of mass would have to be moved even farther to get it to pass above a supporting edge. A flick of the finger may not topple the block. (This is why you never see a chain of toppling square blocks.) The worker in Fig. 12.1.3 is like both



Kanwarjit Singh Boparai/Shutterstock

**Figure 12.1.1** A balancing rock. Although its perch seems precarious, the rock is in static equilibrium.



**Figure 12.1.2** (a) A domino balanced on one edge, with its center of mass vertically above that edge. The gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  on the domino is directed through the supporting edge. (b) If the domino is rotated even slightly from the balanced orientation, then  $\vec{F}_g$  causes a torque that increases the rotation. (c) A domino upright on a narrow side is somewhat more stable than the domino in (a). (d) A square block is even more stable.



**Figure 12.1.3** A construction worker balanced on a steel beam is in static equilibrium but is more stable parallel to the beam than perpendicular to it.

the domino and the square block: Parallel to the beam, his stance is wide and he is stable; perpendicular to the beam, his stance is narrow and he is unstable (and at the mercy of a chance gust of wind).

The analysis of static equilibrium is very important in engineering practice. The design engineer must isolate and identify all the external forces and torques that may act on a structure and, by good design and wise choice of materials, ensure that the structure will remain stable under these loads. Such analysis is necessary to ensure, for example, that bridges do not collapse under their traffic and wind loads and that the landing gear of aircraft will function after the shock of rough landings.

## The Requirements of Equilibrium

The translational motion of a body is governed by Newton's second law in its linear momentum form, given by Eq. 9.3.6 as

$$\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = \frac{d\vec{P}}{dt} \quad (12.1.2)$$

If the body is in translational equilibrium—that is, if  $\vec{P}$  is a constant—then  $d\vec{P}/dt = 0$  and we must have

$$\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of forces}). \quad (12.1.3)$$

The rotational motion of a body is governed by Newton's second law in its angular momentum form, given by Eq. 11.7.4 as

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = \frac{d\vec{L}}{dt}. \quad (12.1.4)$$

If the body is in rotational equilibrium—that is, if  $\vec{L}$  is a constant—then  $d\vec{L}/dt = 0$  and we must have

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of torques}). \quad (12.1.5)$$

Thus, the two requirements for a body to be in equilibrium are as follows:



1. The vector sum of all the external forces that act on the body must be zero.
2. The vector sum of all external torques that act on the body, measured about *any* possible point, must also be zero.

These requirements obviously hold for *static* equilibrium. They also hold for the more general equilibrium in which  $\vec{P}$  and  $\vec{L}$  are constant but not zero.

Equations 12.1.3 and 12.1.5, as vector equations, are each equivalent to three independent component equations, one for each direction of the coordinate axes:

Balance of forces	Balance of torques	
$F_{\text{net},x} = 0$	$\tau_{\text{net},x} = 0$	
$F_{\text{net},y} = 0$	$\tau_{\text{net},y} = 0$	
$F_{\text{net},z} = 0$	$\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$	(12.1.6)

**The Main Equations.** We shall simplify matters by considering only situations in which the forces that act on the body lie in the  $xy$  plane. This means that the only torques that can act on the body must tend to cause rotation around an axis parallel to

the  $z$  axis. With this assumption, we eliminate one force equation and two torque equations from Eqs. 12.1.6, leaving

$$F_{\text{net},x} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of forces}), \quad (12.1.7)$$

$$F_{\text{net},y} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of forces}), \quad (12.1.8)$$

$$\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of torques}). \quad (12.1.9)$$

Here,  $\tau_{\text{net},z}$  is the net torque that the external forces produce either about the  $z$  axis or about *any* axis parallel to it.

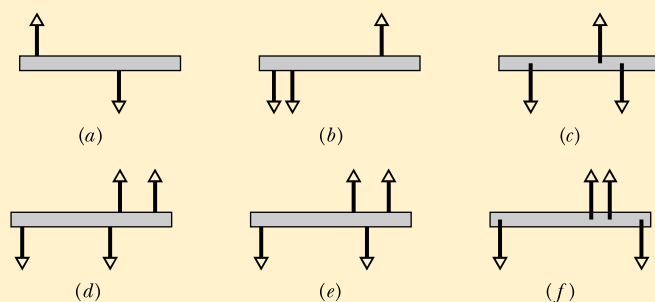
A hockey puck sliding at constant velocity over ice satisfies Eqs. 12.1.7, 12.1.8, and 12.1.9 and is thus in equilibrium *but not in static equilibrium*. For static equilibrium, the linear momentum  $\vec{P}$  of the puck must be not only constant but also zero; the puck must be at rest on the ice. Thus, there is another requirement for static equilibrium:



3. The linear momentum  $\vec{P}$  of the body must be zero.

### Checkpoint 12.1.1

The figure gives six overhead views of a uniform rod on which two or more forces act perpendicularly to the rod. If the magnitudes of the forces are adjusted properly (but kept nonzero), in which situations can the rod be in static equilibrium?



## The Center of Gravity

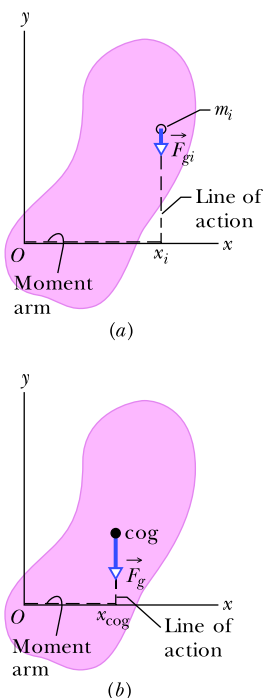
The gravitational force on an extended body is the vector sum of the gravitational forces acting on the individual elements (the atoms) of the body. Instead of considering all those individual elements, we can say that



The gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  on a body effectively acts at a single point, called the **center of gravity** (cog) of the body.

Here the word “effectively” means that if the gravitational forces on the individual elements were somehow turned off and the gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  at the center of gravity were turned on, the net force and the net torque (about any point) acting on the body would not change.

Until now, we have assumed that the gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  acts at the center of mass (com) of the body. This is equivalent to assuming that the center of gravity is at the center of mass. Recall that, for a body of mass  $M$ , the force  $\vec{F}_g$  is equal to  $M\vec{g}$ , where  $\vec{g}$  is the acceleration that the force would produce if the body were



**Figure 12.1.4** (a) An element of mass  $m_i$  in an extended body. The gravitational force  $\vec{F}_{gi}$  on the element has moment arm  $x_i$  about the origin  $O$  of the coordinate system. (b) The gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  on a body is said to act at the center of gravity (cog) of the body. Here  $\vec{F}_g$  has moment arm  $x_{\text{cog}}$  about origin  $O$ .

to fall freely. In the proof that follows, we show that



If  $\vec{g}$  is the same for all elements of a body, then the body's center of gravity (cog) is coincident with the body's center of mass (com).

This is approximately true for everyday objects because  $\vec{g}$  varies only a little along Earth's surface and decreases in magnitude only slightly with altitude. Thus, for objects like a mouse or a moose, we have been justified in assuming that the gravitational force acts at the center of mass. After the following proof, we shall resume that assumption.

### Proof

First, we consider the individual elements of the body. Figure 12.1.4a shows an extended body, of mass  $M$ , and one of its elements, of mass  $m_i$ . A gravitational force  $\vec{F}_{gi}$  acts on each such element and is equal to  $m_i\vec{g}_i$ . The subscript on  $\vec{g}_i$  means  $\vec{g}_i$  is the gravitational acceleration *at the location of the element  $i$*  (it can be different for other elements).

For the body in Fig. 12.1.4a, each force  $\vec{F}_{gi}$  acting on an element produces a torque  $\tau_i$  on the element about the origin  $O$ , with a moment arm  $x_i$ . Using Eq. 10.6.3 ( $\tau = r_{\perp}F$ ) as a guide, we can write each torque  $\tau_i$  as

$$\tau_i = x_i F_{gi} \quad (12.1.10)$$

The net torque on all the elements of the body is then

$$\tau_{\text{net}} = \sum \tau_i = \sum x_i F_{gi} \quad (12.1.11)$$

Next, we consider the body as a whole. Figure 12.1.4b shows the gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  acting at the body's center of gravity. This force produces a torque  $\tau$  on the body about  $O$ , with moment arm  $x_{\text{cog}}$ . Again using Eq. 10.6.3, we can write this torque as

$$\tau = x_{\text{cog}} F_g \quad (12.1.12)$$

The gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  on the body is equal to the sum of the gravitational forces  $\vec{F}_{gi}$  on all its elements, so we can substitute  $\sum F_{gi}$  for  $F_g$  in Eq. 12.1.12 to write

$$\tau = x_{\text{cog}} \sum F_{gi} \quad (12.1.13)$$

Now recall that the torque due to force  $\vec{F}_g$  acting at the center of gravity is equal to the net torque due to all the forces  $\vec{F}_{gi}$  acting on all the elements of the body. (That is how we defined the center of gravity.) Thus,  $\tau$  in Eq. 12.1.13 is equal to  $\tau_{\text{net}}$  in Eq. 12.1.11. Putting those two equations together, we can write

$$x_{\text{cog}} \sum F_{gi} = \sum x_i F_{gi}$$

Substituting  $m_i g_i$  for  $F_{gi}$  gives us

$$x_{\text{cog}} \sum m_i g_i = \sum x_i m_i g_i \quad (12.1.14)$$

Now here is a key idea: If the accelerations  $g_i$  at all the locations of the elements are the same, we can cancel  $g_i$  from this equation to write

$$x_{\text{cog}} \sum m_i = \sum x_i m_i \quad (12.1.15)$$

The sum  $\sum m_i$  of the masses of all the elements is the mass  $M$  of the body. Therefore, we can rewrite Eq. 12.1.15 as

$$x_{\text{cog}} = \frac{1}{M} \sum x_i m_i \quad (12.1.16)$$

The right side of this equation gives the coordinate  $x_{\text{com}}$  of the body's center of mass (Eq. 9.1.4). We now have what we sought to prove. If the acceleration of gravity is the same at all locations of the elements in a body, then the coordinates of the body's com and cog are identical:

$$x_{\text{cog}} = x_{\text{com}}. \quad (12.1.17)$$

## 12.2 SOME EXAMPLES OF STATIC EQUILIBRIUM

### Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

**12.2.1** Apply the force and torque conditions for static equilibrium.

**12.2.2** Identify that a wise choice about the placement

of the origin (about which to calculate torques) can simplify the calculations by eliminating one or more unknown forces from the torque equation.

### Key Ideas

● A rigid body at rest is said to be in static equilibrium. For such a body, the vector sum of the external forces acting on it is zero:

$$\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of forces}).$$

If all the forces lie in the  $xy$  plane, this vector equation is equivalent to two component equations:

$$F_{\text{net},x} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad F_{\text{net},y} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of forces}).$$

● Static equilibrium also implies that the vector sum of the external torques acting on the body about *any* point is zero, or

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of torques}).$$

If the forces lie in the  $xy$  plane, all torque vectors are parallel to the  $z$  axis, and the balance-of-torques equation is equivalent to the single component equation

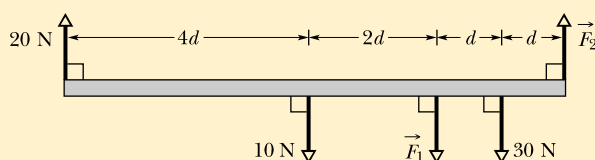
$$\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of torques}).$$

## Some Examples of Static Equilibrium

Here we examine several sample problems involving static equilibrium. In each, we select a system of one or more objects to which we apply the equations of equilibrium (Eqs. 12.1.7, 12.1.8, and 12.1.9). The forces involved in the equilibrium are all in the  $xy$  plane, which means that the torques involved are parallel to the  $z$  axis. Thus, in applying Eq. 12.1.9, the balance of torques, we select an axis parallel to the  $z$  axis about which to calculate the torques. Although Eq. 12.1.9 is satisfied for *any* such choice of axis, you will see that certain choices simplify the application of Eq. 12.1.9 by eliminating one or more unknown force terms.

### Checkpoint 12.2.1

The figure gives an overhead view of a uniform rod in static equilibrium. (a) Can you find the magnitudes of unknown forces  $\vec{F}_1$  and  $\vec{F}_2$  by balancing the forces? (b) If you wish to find the magnitude of force  $\vec{F}_2$  by using a balance of torques equation, where should you place a rotation axis to eliminate  $\vec{F}_1$  from the equation? (c) The magnitude of  $\vec{F}_2$  turns out to be 65 N. What then is the magnitude of  $\vec{F}_1$ ?





### Sample Problem 12.2.1 Balancing a horizontal beam

In Fig. 12.2.1a, a uniform beam, of length  $L$  and mass  $m = 1.8$  kg, is at rest on two scales. A uniform block, with mass  $M = 2.7$  kg, is at rest on the beam, with its center a distance  $L/4$  from the beam's left end. What do the scales read?

#### KEY IDEAS

The first steps in the solution of *any* problem about static equilibrium are these: Clearly define the system to be analyzed and then draw a free-body diagram of it, indicating all the forces on the system. Here, let us choose the system as the beam and block taken together. Then the forces on the system are shown in the free-body diagram of Fig. 12.2.1b. (Choosing the system takes experience, and often there can be more than one good choice.) Because the system is in static equilibrium, we can apply the balance of forces equations (Eqs. 12.1.7 and 12.1.8) and the balance of torques equation (Eq. 12.1.9) to it.

**Calculations:** The normal forces on the beam from the scales are  $\vec{F}_l$  on the left and  $\vec{F}_r$  on the right. The scale readings that we want are equal to the magnitudes of those forces. The gravitational force  $\vec{F}_{g,beam}$  on the beam acts at the beam's center of mass and is equal to  $m\vec{g}$ . Similarly, the gravitational force  $\vec{F}_{g,block}$  on the block acts at the block's center of mass and is equal to  $M\vec{g}$ . However, to simplify Fig. 12.2.1b, the block is represented by a dot within the boundary of the beam and vector  $\vec{F}_{g,block}$  is drawn with its tail on that dot. (This shift of the vector  $\vec{F}_{g,block}$  along its line of action does not alter the torque due to  $\vec{F}_{g,block}$  about any axis perpendicular to the figure.)

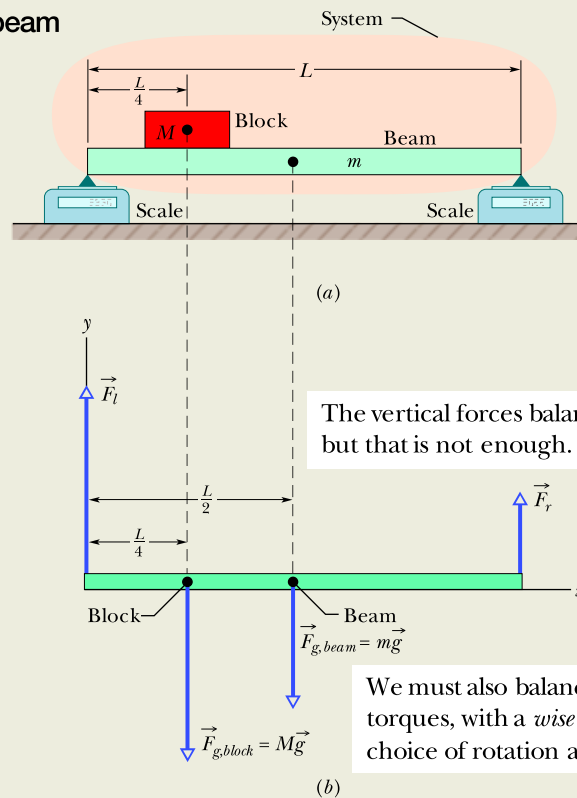
The forces have no  $x$  components, so Eq. 12.1.7 ( $F_{net,x} = 0$ ) provides no information. For the  $y$  components, Eq. 12.1.8 ( $F_{net,y} = 0$ ) gives us

$$F_l + F_r - Mg - mg = 0. \quad (12.2.1)$$

This equation contains two unknowns, the forces  $F_l$  and  $F_r$ , so we also need to use Eq. 12.1.9, the balance-of-torques equation. We can apply it to *any* rotation axis perpendicular to the plane of Fig. 12.2.1. Let us choose a rotation axis through the left end of the beam. We shall also use our general rule for assigning signs to torques: If a torque would cause an initially stationary body to rotate clockwise about the rotation axis, the torque is negative. If the rotation would be counterclockwise, the torque is positive. Finally, we shall write the torques in the form  $r_\perp F$ , where the moment arm  $r_\perp$  is 0 for  $\vec{F}_l$ ,  $L/4$  for  $M\vec{g}$ ,  $L/2$  for  $m\vec{g}$ , and  $L$  for  $\vec{F}_r$ .

We now can write the balancing equation ( $\tau_{net,z} = 0$ ) as

$$(0)(F_l) - (L/4)(Mg) - (L/2)(mg) + (L)(F_r) = 0,$$



**Figure 12.2.1** (a) A beam of mass  $m$  supports a block of mass  $M$ . (b) A free-body diagram, showing the forces that act on the system *beam + block*.

which gives us

$$\begin{aligned} F_r &= \frac{1}{4}Mg + \frac{1}{2}mg \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(2.7 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2) + \frac{1}{2}(1.8 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ &= 15.44 \text{ N} \approx 15 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

Now, solving Eq. 12.2.1 for  $F_l$  and substituting this result, we find

$$\begin{aligned} F_l &= (M + m)g - F_r \\ &= (2.7 \text{ kg} + 1.8 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2) - 15.44 \text{ N} \\ &= 28.66 \text{ N} \approx 29 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

*Notice the strategy in the solution:* When we wrote an equation for the balance of force components, we got stuck with two unknowns. If we had written an equation for the balance of torques around some *arbitrary* axis, we would have again gotten stuck with those two unknowns. However, because we chose the axis to pass through the point of application of one of the unknown forces, here  $\vec{F}_l$ , we did not get stuck. Our choice neatly eliminated that force from the torque equation, allowing us to solve for the other unknown force magnitude  $F_r$ . Then we returned to the equation for the balance of force components to find the remaining unknown force magnitude.

### Sample Problem 12.2.2 Balancing a leaning boom

Figure 12.2.2a shows a safe (mass  $M = 430$  kg) hanging by a rope (negligible mass) from a boom ( $a = 1.9$  m and  $b = 2.5$  m) that consists of a uniform hinged beam ( $m = 85$  kg) and horizontal cable (negligible mass).

(a) What is the tension  $T_c$  in the cable? In other words, what is the magnitude of the force  $\vec{T}_c$  on the beam from the cable?

#### KEY IDEAS

The system here is the beam alone, and the forces on it are shown in the free-body diagram of Fig. 12.2.2b. The force from the cable is  $\vec{T}_c$ . The gravitational force on the beam acts at the beam's center of mass (at the beam's center) and is represented by its equivalent  $m\vec{g}$ . The vertical component of the force on the beam from the hinge is  $\vec{F}_v$ , and the horizontal component of the force from the hinge is  $\vec{F}_h$ . The force from the rope supporting the safe is  $\vec{T}_r$ . Because beam, rope, and safe are stationary, the magnitude of  $\vec{T}_r$  is equal to the weight of the safe:  $T_r = Mg$ . We place the origin  $O$  of an  $xy$  coordinate system at the hinge. Because the system is in static equilibrium, the balancing equations apply to it.

**Calculations:** Let us start with Eq. 12.1.9 ( $\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$ ). Note that we are asked for the magnitude of force  $\vec{T}_c$  and not of forces  $\vec{F}_h$  and  $\vec{F}_v$  acting at the hinge, at point  $O$ . To eliminate  $\vec{F}_h$  and  $\vec{F}_v$  from the torque calculation, we should calculate torques about an axis that is perpendicular to the figure at point  $O$ . Then  $\vec{F}_h$  and  $\vec{F}_v$  will have moment arms of zero. The lines of action for  $\vec{T}_c$ ,  $\vec{T}_r$ , and  $m\vec{g}$  are dashed in Fig. 12.2.2b. The corresponding moment arms are  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $b/2$ .

Writing torques in the form of  $r_{\perp}F$  and using our rule about signs for torques, the balancing equation  $\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$  becomes

$$(a)(T_c) - (b)(T_r) - \left(\frac{1}{2}b\right)(mg) = 0. \quad (12.2.2)$$

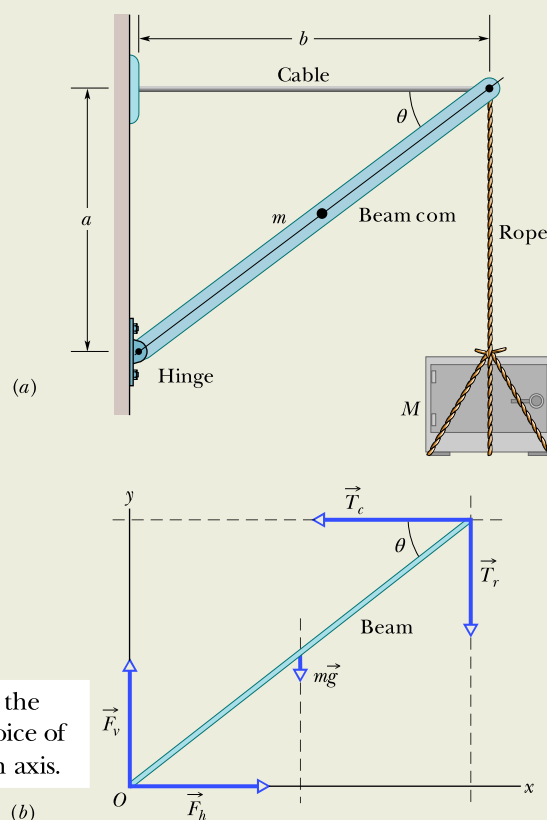
Substituting  $Mg$  for  $T_r$  and solving for  $T_c$ , we find that

$$\begin{aligned} T_c &= \frac{gb(M + \frac{1}{2}m)}{a} \\ &= \frac{(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2)(2.5 \text{ m})(430 \text{ kg} + 85/2 \text{ kg})}{1.9 \text{ m}} \\ &= 6093 \text{ N} \approx 6100 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

(b) Find the magnitude  $F$  of the net force on the beam from the hinge.

#### KEY IDEA

Now we want the horizontal component  $F_h$  and vertical component  $F_v$  so that we can combine them to get the



Here is the wise choice of rotation axis.

**Figure 12.2.2** (a) A heavy safe is hung from a boom consisting of a horizontal steel cable and a uniform beam. (b) A free-body diagram for the beam.

magnitude  $F$  of the net force. Because we know  $T_c$ , we apply the force balancing equations to the beam.

**Calculations:** For the horizontal balance, we can rewrite  $F_{\text{net},x} = 0$  as

$$F_h - T_c = 0, \quad (12.2.3)$$

and so

$$F_h = T_c = 6093 \text{ N}.$$

For the vertical balance, we write  $F_{\text{net},y} = 0$  as

$$F_v - mg - T_r = 0.$$

Substituting  $Mg$  for  $T_r$  and solving for  $F_v$ , we find that

$$\begin{aligned} F_v &= (m + M)g = (85 \text{ kg} + 430 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ &= 5047 \text{ N}. \end{aligned}$$

From the Pythagorean theorem, we now have

$$\begin{aligned} F &= \sqrt{F_h^2 + F_v^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(6093 \text{ N})^2 + (5047 \text{ N})^2} \approx 7900 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

Note that  $F$  is substantially greater than either the combined weights of the safe and the beam, 5000 N, or the tension in the horizontal wire, 6100 N.



### Sample Problem 12.2.3 Balancing a leaning ladder

In Fig. 12.2.3a, a ladder of length  $L = 12$  m and mass  $m = 45$  kg leans against a slick wall (that is, there is no friction between the ladder and the wall). The ladder's upper end is at height  $h = 9.3$  m above the pavement on which the lower end is supported (the pavement is not frictionless). The ladder's center of mass is  $L/3$  from the lower end, along the length of the ladder. A firefighter of mass  $M = 72$  kg climbs the ladder until her center of mass is  $L/2$  from the lower end. What then are the magnitudes of the forces on the ladder from the wall and the pavement?

#### KEY IDEAS

First, we choose our system as being the firefighter and ladder, together, and then we draw the free-body diagram of Fig. 12.2.3b to show the forces acting on the system. Because the system is in static equilibrium, the balancing equations for both forces and torques (Eqs. 12.1.7 through 12.1.9) can be applied to it.

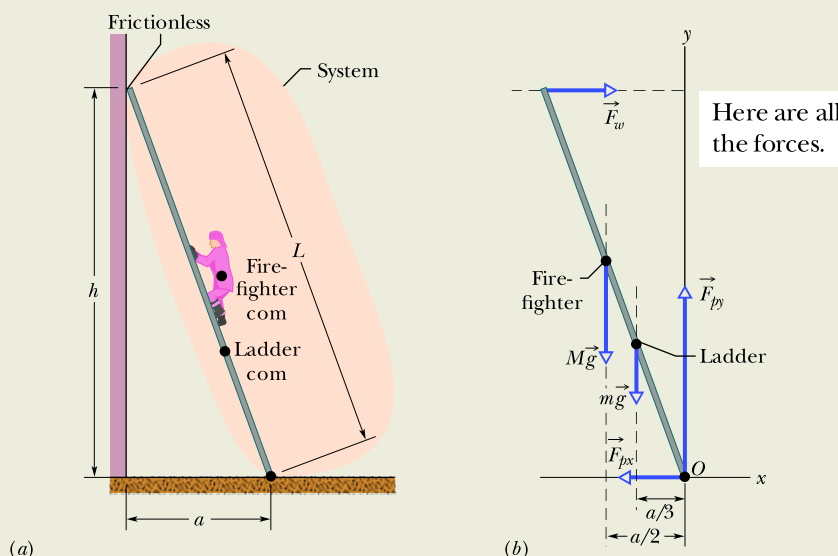
**Calculations:** In Fig. 12.2.3b, the firefighter is represented with a dot within the boundary of the ladder. The gravitational force on her is represented with its equivalent expression  $M\vec{g}$ , and that vector has been shifted along its line of action (the line extending through the force vector), so that its tail is on the dot. (The shift does not alter

a torque due to  $M\vec{g}$  about any axis perpendicular to the figure. Thus, the shift does not affect the torque balancing equation that we shall be using.)

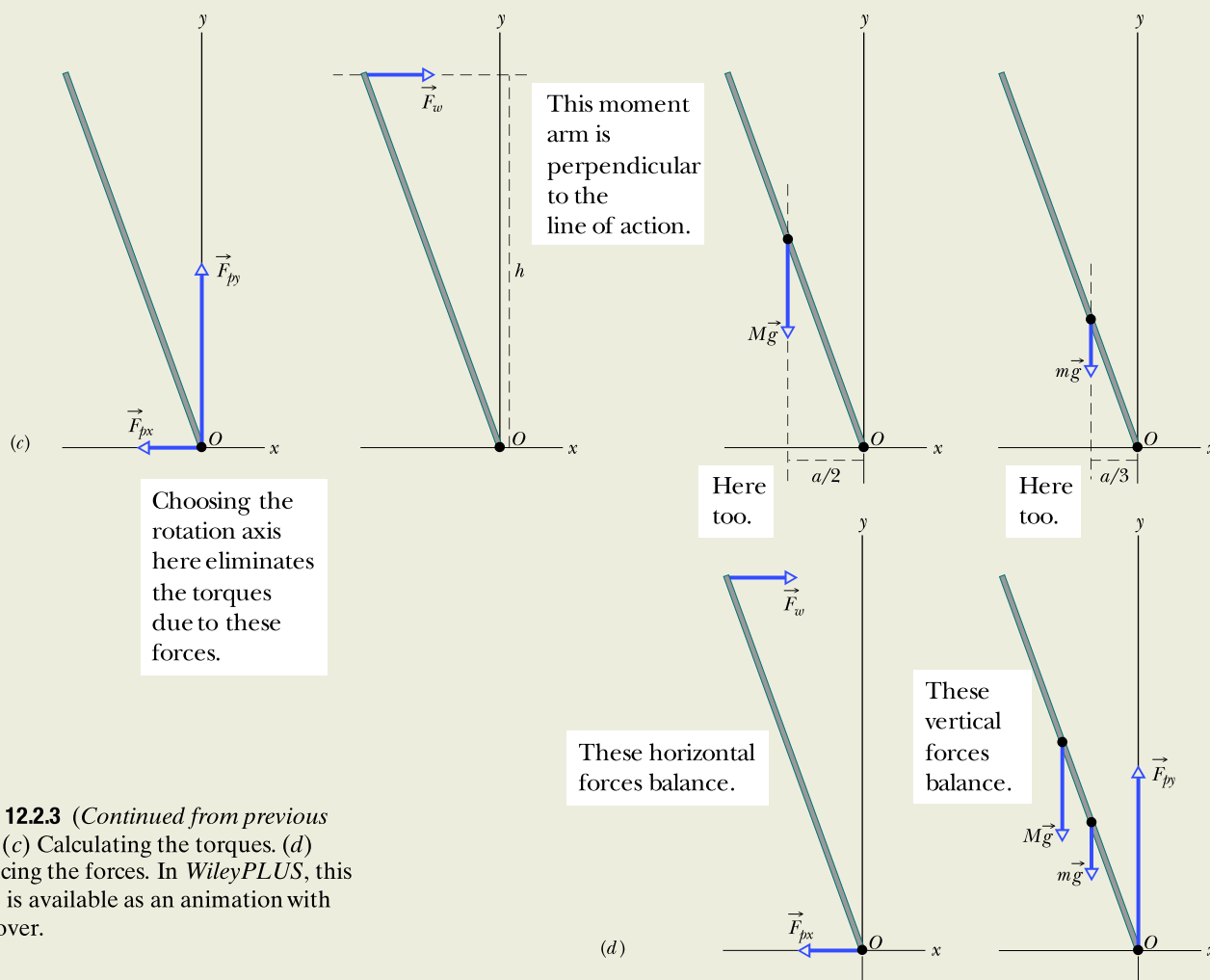
The only force on the ladder from the wall is the horizontal force  $\vec{F}_w$  (there cannot be a frictional force along a frictionless wall, so there is no vertical force on the ladder from the wall). The force  $\vec{F}_p$  on the ladder from the pavement has two components: a horizontal component  $\vec{F}_{px}$  that is a static frictional force and a vertical component  $\vec{F}_{py}$  that is a normal force.

To apply the balancing equations, let's start with the torque balancing of Eq. 12.1.9 ( $\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$ ). To choose an axis about which to calculate the torques, note that we have unknown forces ( $\vec{F}_w$  and  $\vec{F}_p$ ) at the two ends of the ladder. To eliminate, say,  $\vec{F}_p$  from the calculation, we place the axis at point  $O$ , perpendicular to the figure (Fig. 12.2.3b). We also place the origin of an  $xy$  coordinate system at  $O$ . We can find torques about  $O$  with any of Eqs. 10.6.1 through 10.6.3, but Eq. 10.6.3 ( $\tau = r_{\perp}F$ ) is easiest to use here. *Making a wise choice about the placement of the origin can make our torque calculation much easier.*

To find the moment arm  $r_{\perp}$  of the horizontal force  $\vec{F}_w$  from the wall, we draw a line of action through that vector (it is the horizontal dashed line shown in Fig. 12.2.3c). Then  $r_{\perp}$  is the perpendicular distance between  $O$  and the line of action. In Fig. 12.2.3c,  $r_{\perp}$  extends along the  $y$  axis and is equal to the height  $h$ . We similarly draw lines of



**Figure 12.2.3** (a) A firefighter climbs halfway up a ladder that is leaning against a frictionless wall. The pavement beneath the ladder is not frictionless. (b) A free-body diagram, showing the forces that act on the firefighter + ladder system. The origin  $O$  of a coordinate system is placed at the point of application of the unknown force  $\vec{F}_p$  (whose vector components  $\vec{F}_{px}$  and  $\vec{F}_{py}$  are shown). (Figure 12.2.3 continues on following page.)



**Figure 12.2.3** (Continued from previous page) (c) Calculating the torques. (d) Balancing the forces. In WileyPLUS, this figure is available as an animation with voiceover.

action for the gravitational force vectors  $M\vec{g}$  and  $m\vec{g}$  and see that their moment arms extend along the  $x$  axis. For the distance  $a$  shown in Fig. 12.2.3a, the moment arms are  $a/2$  (the firefighter is halfway up the ladder) and  $a/3$  (the ladder's center of mass is one-third of the way up the ladder), respectively. The moment arms for  $\vec{F}_{px}$  and  $\vec{F}_{py}$  are zero because the forces act at the origin.

Now, with torques written in the form  $r_{\perp}F$ , the balancing equation  $\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0$  becomes

$$-(h)(F_w) + (a/2)(Mg) + (a/3)(mg) + (0)(F_{px}) + (0)(F_{py}) = 0. \quad (12.2.4)$$

(A positive torque corresponds to counterclockwise rotation and a negative torque corresponds to clockwise rotation.)

Using the Pythagorean theorem for the right triangle made by the ladder in Fig. 12.2.3a, we find that

$$a = \sqrt{L^2 - h^2} = 7.58 \text{ m}.$$

Then Eq. 12.2.4 gives us

$$\begin{aligned} F_w &= \frac{ga(M/2 + m/3)}{h} \\ &= \frac{(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2)(7.58 \text{ m})(72/2 \text{ kg} + 45/3 \text{ kg})}{9.3 \text{ m}} \\ &= 407 \text{ N} \approx 410 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

Now we need to use the force balancing equations and Fig. 12.2.3d. The equation  $F_{\text{net},x} = 0$  gives us

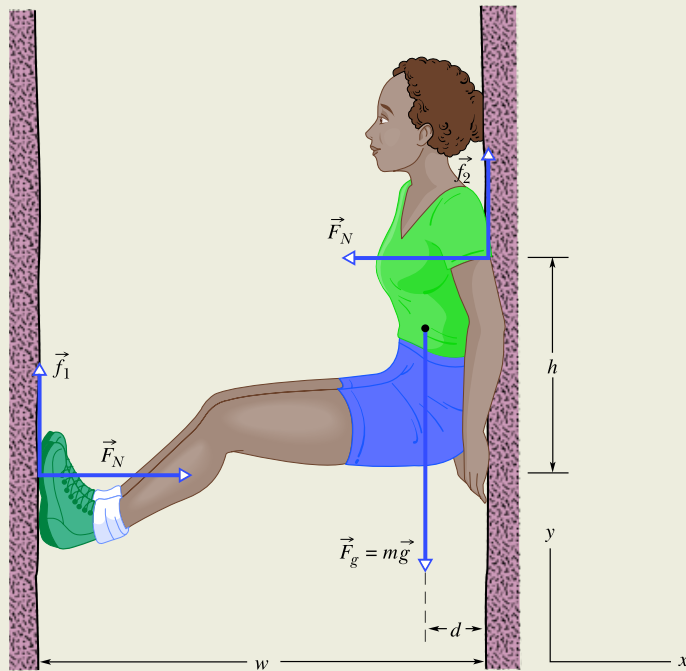
$$\begin{aligned} F_w - F_{px} &= 0, \\ \text{so } F_{px} &= F_w = 410 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

The equation  $F_{\text{net},y} = 0$  gives us

$$\begin{aligned} F_{py} - Mg - mg &= 0, \\ \text{so } F_{py} &= (M + m)g = (72 \text{ kg} + 45 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2) \\ &= 1146.6 \text{ N} \approx 1100 \text{ N}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

## Sample Problem 12.2.4 Chimney climb

In Fig. 12.2.4, a rock climber with mass  $m = 55 \text{ kg}$  rests during a chimney climb, pressing only with her shoulders and feet against the walls of a fissure of width  $w = 1.0 \text{ m}$ . Her center of mass is a horizontal distance  $d = 0.20 \text{ m}$  from the wall against which her shoulders are pressed. A static friction force  $\vec{f}_1$  acts on her feet with coefficient of static friction  $\mu_1 = 1.1$ . A static friction force  $\vec{f}_2$  acts on her shoulders with coefficient of static friction  $\mu_2 = 0.70$ . To rest, the climber wants to minimize her horizontal push on the walls. The minimum occurs when her feet and shoulders are both on the verge of sliding. (a) What is that minimum horizontal push on the walls?



**Figure 12.2.4** The forces on a climber resting in a rock chimney. The push of the climber on the chimney walls results in the normal  $\vec{F}_N$  and the static frictional forces  $\vec{f}_1$  and  $\vec{f}_2$ .

## KEY IDEAS

First, we choose our system as being the climber. Because she is in static equilibrium, we can apply a force balancing equation for the horizontal forces and also one for the vertical forces. In addition, the torques around any rotation axis balance.

**Calculations:** Figure 12.2.4 shows the forces that act on her. The only horizontal forces are the normal forces  $\vec{F}_N$  on her from the walls, at her feet and shoulders. The static friction forces on her are  $\vec{f}_1$  and  $\vec{f}_2$ , directed upward. The gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  with magnitude  $mg$  acts at her center of mass. The equation  $F_{\text{net},x} = 0$  tells us that the two normal forces on her must be equal in magnitude and opposite in direction.

We seek the magnitude  $F_N$  of those two forces, which is also the magnitude of her push against either wall.

The balancing equation for vertical forces  $F_{\text{net},y} = 0$  gives us

$$f_1 + f_2 - mg = 0.$$

We want the climber to be on the verge of sliding at both her feet and her shoulders. That means we want the static frictional forces there to be at their maximum values  $f_{s,\text{max}}$ . From Module 6.1, those maximum values are

$$f_1 = \mu_1 F_N \quad \text{and} \quad f_2 = \mu_2 F_N.$$

Substituting these expressions into the vertical-force balancing equation leads to

$$F_N = \frac{mg}{\mu_1 + \mu_2} = \frac{(55 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2)}{1.1 + 0.70} = 299 \text{ N} \approx 300 \text{ N}.$$

Thus, her minimum horizontal push must be about 300 N.

(b) For that push, what must be the vertical distance  $h$  between her feet and her shoulders if she is to be stable?

**Calculations:** Here we want to balance the torques on the climber. We can write the torques in the form  $r_\perp F$ , where  $r_\perp$  is the moment arm of force  $F$ . We can choose any rotation axis to do that, but a wise choice can simplify our work. Let's choose the axis through her shoulders. Then the moment arms of the forces acting there (the normal force and the frictional force) are simply zero. Frictional force  $\vec{f}_1$ , the normal force  $\vec{F}_N$  at her feet, and the gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  have moment arms  $w$ ,  $h$ , and  $d$ .

Recalling our rule about the signs of torques and the corresponding directions, we can now write the torque balancing equation  $\tau_{\text{net}} = 0$  around the rotation axis as

$$-(w)(f_1) + (h)(F_N) + (d)(mg) + (0)(f_2) + (0)(F_N) = 0.$$

Solving for  $h$ , setting  $f_1 = \mu_1 F_N$ , and substituting our result of  $F_N = 299 \text{ N}$  and other known values, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} h &= \frac{f_1 w - mgd}{F_N} = \frac{\mu_1 F_N w - mgd}{F_N} = \mu_1 w - \frac{mgd}{F_N} \\ &= (1.1)(1.0 \text{ m}) - \frac{(55 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2)(0.20 \text{ m})}{299 \text{ N}} \\ &= 0.739 \text{ m} \approx 0.74 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

If  $h$  is more than or less than 0.74 m, she must exert a force greater than 299 N on the walls to be stable. Here, then, is the advantage of knowing physics before you climb a chimney. When you need to rest, you will avoid the (dire) error of novice climbers who place their feet too high or too low. Instead, you will know that there is a “best” distance between shoulders and feet, requiring the least push and giving you a good chance to rest.

## 12.3 ELASTICITY

### Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

- 12.3.1** Explain what an indeterminate situation is.
- 12.3.2** For tension and compression, apply the equation that relates stress to strain and Young's modulus.
- 12.3.3** Distinguish between yield strength and ultimate strength.
- 12.3.4** For shearing, apply the equation that relates stress to strain and the shear modulus.
- 12.3.5** For hydraulic stress, apply the equation that relates fluid pressure to strain and the bulk modulus.

### Key Ideas

- Three elastic moduli are used to describe the elastic behavior (deformations) of objects as they respond to forces that act on them. The strain (fractional change in length) is linearly related to the applied stress (force per unit area) by the proper modulus, according to the general stress–strain relation

$$\text{stress} = \text{modulus} \times \text{strain}.$$

- When an object is under tension or compression, the stress–strain relation is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = E \frac{\Delta L}{L},$$

where  $\Delta L/L$  is the tensile or compressive strain of the object,  $F$  is the magnitude of the applied force  $\vec{F}$  causing the strain,  $A$  is the cross-sectional area over which  $\vec{F}$  is applied (perpendicular to  $A$ ), and  $E$  is the Young's modulus for the object. The stress is  $F/A$ .

- When an object is under a shearing stress, the stress–strain relation is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = G \frac{\Delta x}{L},$$

where  $\Delta x/L$  is the shearing strain of the object,  $\Delta x$  is the displacement of one end of the object in the direction of the applied force  $\vec{F}$ , and  $G$  is the shear modulus of the object. The stress is  $F/A$ .

- When an object undergoes hydraulic compression due to a stress exerted by a surrounding fluid, the stress–strain relation is written as

$$p = B \frac{\Delta V}{V},$$

where  $p$  is the pressure (hydraulic stress) on the object due to the fluid,  $\Delta V/V$  (the strain) is the absolute value of the fractional change in the object's volume due to that pressure, and  $B$  is the bulk modulus of the object.

## Indeterminate Structures

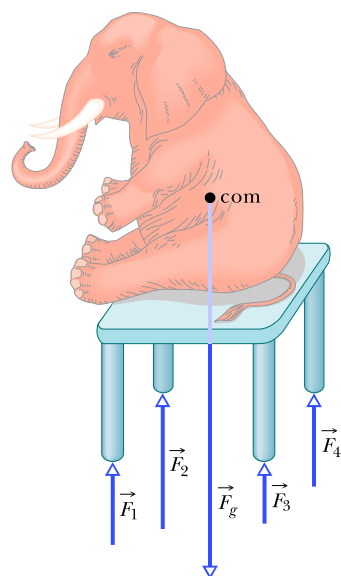
For the problems of this chapter, we have only three independent equations at our disposal, usually two balance-of-forces equations and one balance-of-torques equation about a given rotation axis. Thus, if a problem has more than three unknowns, we cannot solve it.

Consider an unsymmetrically loaded car. What are the forces—all different—on the four tires? Again, we cannot find them because we have only three independent equations. Similarly, we can solve an equilibrium problem for a table with three legs but not for one with four legs. Problems like these, in which there are more unknowns than equations, are called **indeterminate**.

Yet solutions to indeterminate problems exist in the real world. If you rest the tires of the car on four platform scales, each scale will register a definite reading, the sum of the readings being the weight of the car. What is eluding us in our efforts to find the individual forces by solving equations?

The problem is that we have assumed—without making a great point of it—that the bodies to which we apply the equations of static equilibrium are perfectly rigid. By this we mean that they do not deform when forces are applied to them. Strictly, there are no such bodies. The tires of the car, for example, deform easily under load until the car settles into a position of static equilibrium.

We have all had experience with a wobbly restaurant table, which we usually level by putting folded paper under one of the legs. If a big enough elephant sat on such a table, however, you may be sure that if the table did not collapse,



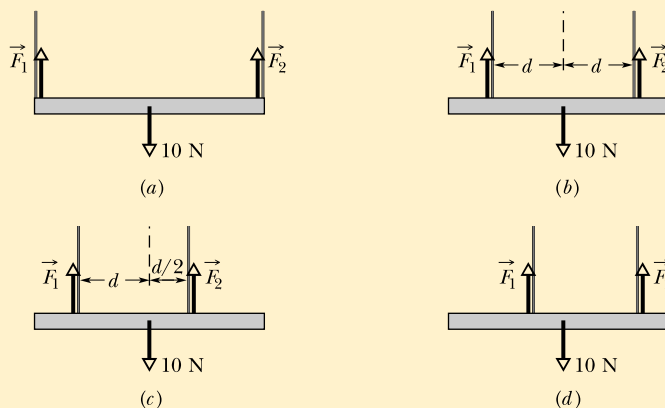
**Figure 12.3.1** The table is an indeterminate structure. The four forces on the table legs differ from one another in magnitude and cannot be found from the laws of static equilibrium alone.

it would deform just like the tires of a car. Its legs would all touch the floor, the forces acting upward on the table legs would all assume definite (and different) values as in Fig. 12.3.1, and the table would no longer wobble. Of course, we (and the elephant) would be thrown out onto the street but, in principle, how do we find the individual values of those forces acting on the legs in this or similar situations where there is deformation?

To solve such indeterminate equilibrium problems, we must supplement equilibrium equations with some knowledge of *elasticity*, the branch of physics and engineering that describes how real bodies deform when forces are applied to them.

### Checkpoint 12.3.1

A horizontal uniform bar of weight 10 N is to hang from a ceiling by two wires that exert upward forces  $\vec{F}_1$  and  $\vec{F}_2$  on the bar. The figure shows four arrangements for the wires. Which arrangements, if any, are indeterminate (so that we cannot solve for numerical values of  $\vec{F}_1$  and  $\vec{F}_2$ )?

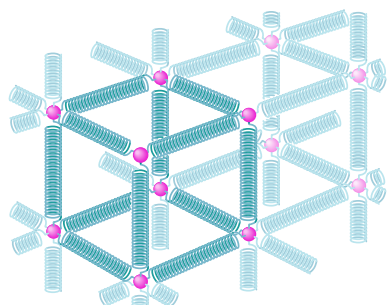


## Elasticity

When a large number of atoms come together to form a metallic solid, such as an iron nail, they settle into equilibrium positions in a three-dimensional *lattice*, a repetitive arrangement in which each atom is a well-defined equilibrium distance from its nearest neighbors. The atoms are held together by interatomic forces that are modeled as tiny springs in Fig. 12.3.2. The lattice is remarkably rigid, which is another way of saying that the “interatomic springs” are extremely stiff. It is for this reason that we perceive many ordinary objects, such as metal ladders, tables, and spoons, as perfectly rigid. Of course, some ordinary objects, such as garden hoses or rubber gloves, do not strike us as rigid at all. The atoms that make up these objects *do not* form a rigid lattice like that of Fig. 12.3.2 but are aligned in long, flexible molecular chains, each chain being only loosely bound to its neighbors.

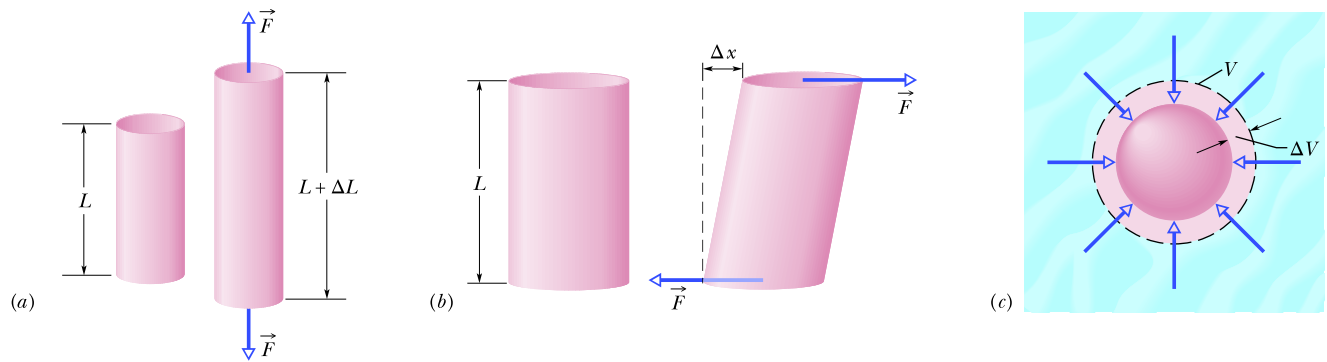
All real “rigid” bodies are to some extent **elastic**, which means that we can change their dimensions slightly by pulling, pushing, twisting, or compressing them. To get a feeling for the orders of magnitude involved, consider a vertical steel rod 1 m long and 1 cm in diameter attached to a factory ceiling. If you hang a subcompact car from the free end of such a rod, the rod will stretch but only by about 0.5 mm, or 0.05%. Furthermore, the rod will return to its original length when the car is removed.

If you hang two cars from the rod, the rod will be permanently stretched and will not recover its original length when you remove the load. If you hang three cars from the rod, the rod will break. Just before rupture, the elongation of the



**Figure 12.3.2** The atoms of a metallic solid are distributed on a repetitive three-dimensional lattice. The springs represent interatomic forces.





**Figure 12.3.3** (a) A cylinder subject to *tensile stress* stretches by an amount  $\Delta L$ . (b) A cylinder subject to *shearing stress* deforms by an amount  $\Delta x$ , somewhat like a pack of playing cards would. (c) A solid sphere subject to uniform *hydraulic stress* from a fluid shrinks in volume by an amount  $\Delta V$ . All the deformations shown are greatly exaggerated.

rod will be less than 0.2%. Although deformations of this size seem small, they are important in engineering practice. (Whether a wing under load will stay on an airplane is obviously important.)

**Three Ways.** Figure 12.3.3 shows three ways in which a solid might change its dimensions when forces act on it. In Fig. 12.3.3*a*, a cylinder is stretched. In Fig. 12.3.3*b*, a cylinder is deformed by a force perpendicular to its long axis, much as we might deform a pack of cards or a book. In Fig. 12.3.3*c*, a solid object placed in a fluid under high pressure is compressed uniformly on all sides. What the three deformation types have in common is that a **stress**, or deforming force per unit area, produces a **strain**, or unit deformation. In Fig. 12.3.3, *tensile stress* (associated with stretching) is illustrated in (a), *shearing stress* in (b), and *hydraulic stress* in (c).

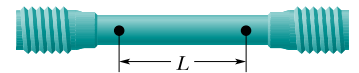
The stresses and the strains take different forms in the three situations of Fig. 12.3.3, but—over the range of engineering usefulness—stress and strain are proportional to each other. The constant of proportionality is called a **modulus of elasticity**, so that

$$\text{stress} = \text{modulus} \times \text{strain}. \quad (12.3.1)$$

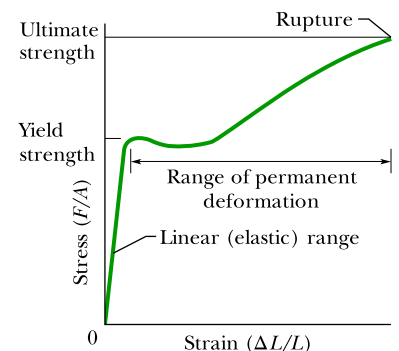
In a standard test of tensile properties, the tensile stress on a test cylinder (like that in Fig. 12.3.4) is slowly increased from zero to the point at which the cylinder fractures, and the strain is carefully measured and plotted. The result is a graph of stress versus strain like that in Fig. 12.3.5. For a substantial range of applied stresses, the stress–strain relation is linear, and the specimen recovers its original dimensions when the stress is removed; it is here that Eq. 12.3.1 applies. If the stress is increased beyond the **yield strength**  $S_y$  of the specimen, the specimen becomes permanently deformed. If the stress continues to increase, the specimen eventually ruptures, at a stress called the **ultimate strength**  $S_u$ .

### Tension and Compression

For simple tension or compression, the stress on the object is defined as  $F/A$ , where  $F$  is the magnitude of the force applied perpendicularly to an area  $A$  on the object. The strain, or unit deformation, is then the dimensionless quantity  $\Delta L/L$ , the fractional (or sometimes percentage) change in a length of the specimen. If the specimen is a long rod and the stress does not exceed the yield strength, then not only the entire rod but also every section of it experiences the same strain when a given stress is applied. Because the strain is dimensionless, the modulus in Eq. 12.3.1 has the same dimensions as the stress—namely, force per unit area.

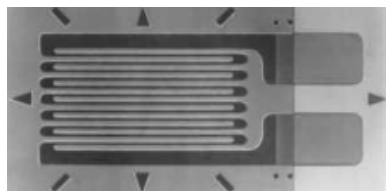


**Figure 12.3.4** A test specimen used to determine a stress–strain curve such as that of Fig. 12.3.5. The change  $\Delta L$  that occurs in a certain length  $L$  is measured in a tensile stress–strain test.



**Figure 12.3.5** A stress–strain curve for a steel test specimen such as that of Fig. 12.3.4. The specimen deforms permanently when the stress is equal to the *yield strength* of the specimen's material. It ruptures when the stress is equal to the *ultimate strength* of the material.





Courtesy Micro Measurements, a Division of Vishay Precision Group, Raleigh, NC

**Figure 12.3.6** A strain gage of overall dimensions 9.8 mm by 4.6 mm. The gage is fastened with adhesive to the object whose strain is to be measured; it experiences the same strain as the object. The electrical resistance of the gage varies with the strain, permitting strains up to 3% to be measured.

The modulus for tensile and compressive stresses is called the **Young's modulus** and is represented in engineering practice by the symbol  $E$ . Equation 12.3.1 becomes

$$\frac{F}{A} = E \frac{\Delta L}{L}. \quad (12.3.2)$$

The strain  $\Delta L/L$  in a specimen can often be measured conveniently with a *strain gage* (Fig. 12.3.6), which can be attached directly to operating machinery with an adhesive. Its electrical properties are dependent on the strain it undergoes.

Although the Young's modulus for an object may be almost the same for tension and compression, the object's ultimate strength may well be different for the two types of stress. Concrete, for example, is very strong in compression but is so weak in tension that it is almost never used in that manner. Table 12.3.1 shows the Young's modulus and other elastic properties for some materials of engineering interest.

### Shearing

In the case of shearing, the stress is also a force per unit area, but the force vector lies in the plane of the area rather than perpendicular to it. The strain is the dimensionless ratio  $\Delta x/L$ , with the quantities defined as shown in Fig. 12.3.3b. The corresponding modulus, which is given the symbol  $G$  in engineering practice, is called the **shear modulus**. For shearing, Eq. 12.3.1 is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = G \frac{\Delta x}{L}. \quad (12.3.3)$$

Shearing occurs in rotating shafts under load and in bone fractures due to bending.

### Hydraulic Stress

In Fig. 12.3.3c, the stress is the fluid pressure  $p$  on the object, and, as you will see in Chapter 14, pressure is a force per unit area. The strain is  $\Delta V/V$ , where  $V$  is the original volume of the specimen and  $\Delta V$  is the absolute value of the change in volume. The corresponding modulus, with symbol  $B$ , is called the **bulk modulus** of the material. The object is said to be under *hydraulic compression*, and the pressure can be called the *hydraulic stress*. For this situation, we write Eq. 12.3.1 as

$$p = B \frac{\Delta V}{V}. \quad (12.3.4)$$

The bulk modulus is  $2.2 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$  for water and  $1.6 \times 10^{11} \text{ N/m}^2$  for steel. The pressure at the bottom of the Pacific Ocean, at its average depth of about 4000 m, is  $4.0 \times 10^7 \text{ N/m}^2$ . The fractional compression  $\Delta V/V$  of a volume of water due to this pressure is 1.8%; that for a steel object is only about 0.025%. In general, solids—with their rigid atomic lattices—are less compressible than liquids, in which the atoms or molecules are less tightly coupled to their neighbors.

**Table 12.3.1** Some Elastic Properties of Selected Materials of Engineering Interest

Material	Density $\rho$ ( $\text{kg/m}^3$ )	Young's Modulus $E$ ( $10^9 \text{ N/m}^2$ )	Ultimate Strength $S_u$ ( $10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ )	Yield Strength $S_y$ ( $10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ )
Steel <sup>a</sup>	7860	200	400	250
Aluminum	2710	70	110	95
Glass	2190	65	50 <sup>b</sup>	—
Concrete <sup>c</sup>	2320	30	40 <sup>b</sup>	—
Wood <sup>d</sup>	525	13	50 <sup>b</sup>	—
Bone	1900	9 <sup>b</sup>	170 <sup>b</sup>	—
Polystyrene	1050	3	48	—

<sup>a</sup>Structural steel (ASTM-A36).

<sup>c</sup>High strength

<sup>b</sup>In compression.

<sup>d</sup>Douglas fir.

### Sample Problem 12.3.1 Stress and strain of elongated rod

One end of a steel rod of radius  $R = 9.5$  mm and length  $L = 81$  cm is held in a vise. A force of magnitude  $F = 62$  kN is then applied perpendicularly to the end face (uniformly across the area) at the other end, pulling directly away from the vise. What are the stress on the rod and the elongation  $\Delta L$  and strain of the rod?

#### KEY IDEAS

(1) Because the force is perpendicular to the end face and uniform, the stress is the ratio of the magnitude  $F$  of the force to the area  $A$ . The ratio is the left side of Eq. 12.3.2. (2) The elongation  $\Delta L$  is related to the stress and Young's modulus  $E$  by Eq. 12.3.2 ( $F/A = E \Delta L/L$ ). (3) Strain is the ratio of the elongation to the initial length  $L$ .

**Calculations:** To find the stress, we write

$$\text{stress} = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{F}{\pi R^2} = \frac{6.2 \times 10^4 \text{ N}}{(\pi)(9.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m})^2} = 2.2 \times 10^8 \text{ N/m}^2. \quad (\text{Answer})$$

The yield strength for structural steel is  $2.5 \times 10^8 \text{ N/m}^2$ , so this rod is dangerously close to its yield strength.

We find the value of Young's modulus for steel in Table 12.3.1. Then from Eq. 12.3.2 we find the elongation:

$$\Delta L = \frac{(F/A)L}{E} = \frac{(2.2 \times 10^8 \text{ N/m}^2)(0.81 \text{ m})}{2.0 \times 10^{11} \text{ N/m}^2} = 8.9 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m} = 0.89 \text{ mm}. \quad (\text{Answer})$$

For the strain, we have

$$\frac{\Delta L}{L} = \frac{8.9 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}}{0.81 \text{ m}} = 1.1 \times 10^{-3} = 0.11\%. \quad (\text{Answer})$$

### Sample Problem 12.3.2 Balancing a wobbly table

A table has three legs that are 1.00 m in length and a fourth leg that is longer by  $d = 0.50$  mm, so that the table wobbles slightly. A steel cylinder with mass  $M = 290$  kg is placed on the table (which has a mass much less than  $M$ ) so that all four legs are compressed but unbuckled and the table is level but no longer wobbles. The legs are wooden cylinders with cross-sectional area  $A = 1.0 \text{ cm}^2$ ; Young's modulus is  $E = 1.3 \times 10^{10} \text{ N/m}^2$ . What are the magnitudes of the forces on the legs from the floor?

#### KEY IDEAS

We take the table plus steel cylinder as our system. The situation is like that in Fig. 12.3.1, except now we have a steel cylinder on the table. If the tabletop remains level, the legs must be compressed in the following ways: Each of the short legs must be compressed by the same amount (call it  $\Delta L_3$ ) and thus by the same force of magnitude  $F_3$ . The single long leg must be compressed by a larger amount  $\Delta L_4$  and thus by a force with a larger magnitude  $F_4$ . In other words, for a level tabletop, we must have

$$\Delta L_4 = \Delta L_3 + d. \quad (12.3.5)$$

From Eq. 12.3.2, we can relate a change in length to the force causing the change with  $\Delta L = FL/AE$ , where  $L$  is the original length of a leg. We can use this relation to replace  $\Delta L_4$  and  $\Delta L_3$  in Eq. 12.3.5. However, note that we can approximate the original length  $L$  as being the same for all four legs.

**Calculations:** Making those replacements and that approximation gives us

$$\frac{F_4 L}{AE} = \frac{F_3 L}{AE} + d. \quad (12.3.6)$$

We cannot solve this equation because it has two unknowns,  $F_4$  and  $F_3$ .

To get a second equation containing  $F_4$  and  $F_3$ , we can use a vertically axis and then write the balance of vertical forces ( $F_{\text{net},y} = 0$ ) as

$$3F_3 + F_4 - Mg = 0, \quad (12.3.7)$$

where  $Mg$  is equal to the magnitude of the gravitational force on the system. (Three legs have force  $\vec{F}_3$  on them.) To solve the simultaneous equations 12.3.6 and 12.3.7 for, say,  $F_3$ , we first use Eq. 12.3.7 to find that  $F_4 = Mg - 3F_3$ . Substituting that into Eq. 12.3.6 then yields, after some algebra,

$$\begin{aligned} F_3 &= \frac{Mg}{4} - \frac{dAE}{4L} \\ &= \frac{(290 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2)}{4} - \frac{(5.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m})(10^{-4} \text{ m}^2)(1.3 \times 10^{10} \text{ N/m}^2)}{(4)(1.00 \text{ m})} \\ &= 548 \text{ N} \approx 5.5 \times 10^2 \text{ N}. \quad (\text{Answer}) \end{aligned}$$

From Eq. 12.3.7 we then find

$$\begin{aligned} F_4 &= Mg - 3F_3 = (290 \text{ kg})(9.8 \text{ m/s}^2) - 3(548 \text{ N}) \\ &\approx 1.2 \text{ kN}. \quad (\text{Answer}) \end{aligned}$$

You can show that the three short legs are each compressed by 0.42 mm and the single long leg by 0.92 mm.

## Review & Summary

**Static Equilibrium** A rigid body at rest is said to be in **static equilibrium**. For such a body, the vector sum of the external forces acting on it is zero:

$$\vec{F}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of forces}). \quad (12.1.3)$$

If all the forces lie in the  $xy$  plane, this vector equation is equivalent to two component equations:

$$F_{\text{net},x} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad F_{\text{net},y} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of forces}). \quad (12.1.7, 12.1.8)$$

Static equilibrium also implies that the vector sum of the external torques acting on the body about *any* point is zero, or

$$\vec{\tau}_{\text{net}} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of torques}). \quad (12.1.5)$$

If the forces lie in the  $xy$  plane, all torque vectors are parallel to the  $z$  axis, and Eq. 12.1.5 is equivalent to the single component equation

$$\tau_{\text{net},z} = 0 \quad (\text{balance of torques}). \quad (12.1.9)$$

**Center of Gravity** The gravitational force acts individually on each element of a body. The net effect of all individual actions may be found by imagining an equivalent total gravitational force  $\vec{F}_g$  acting at the **center of gravity**. If the gravitational acceleration  $\vec{g}$  is the same for all the elements of the body, the center of gravity is at the center of mass.

**Elastic Moduli** Three **elastic moduli** are used to describe the elastic behavior (deformations) of objects as they respond to forces that act on them. The **strain** (fractional change in length) is linearly related to the applied **stress** (force per unit area) by the proper modulus, according to the general relation

$$\text{stress} = \text{modulus} \times \text{strain}. \quad (12.3.1)$$

## Questions

**1** Figure 12.1 shows three situations in which the same horizontal rod is supported by a hinge on a wall at one end and a cord at its other end. Without written calculation, rank the situations according to the magnitudes of (a) the force on the rod from the cord, (b) the vertical force on the rod from the hinge, and (c) the horizontal force on the rod from the hinge, greatest first.

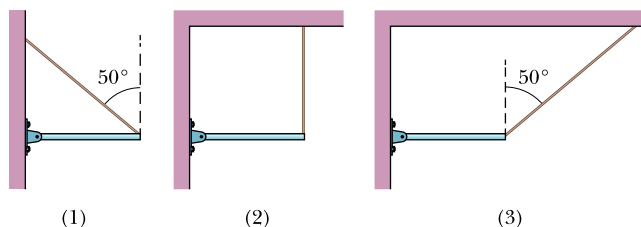


Figure 12.1 Question 1.

**2** In Fig. 12.2, a rigid beam is attached to two posts that are fastened to a floor. A small but heavy safe is placed at the six positions indicated, in turn. Assume that the mass of the beam is negligible

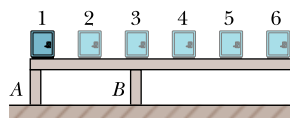


Figure 12.2 Question 2.

**Tension and Compression** When an object is under tension or compression, Eq. 12.3.1 is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = E \frac{\Delta L}{L}, \quad (12.3.2)$$

where  $\Delta L/L$  is the tensile or compressive strain of the object,  $F$  is the magnitude of the applied force  $\vec{F}$  causing the strain,  $A$  is the cross-sectional area over which  $\vec{F}$  is applied (perpendicular to  $A$ , as in Fig. 12.3.3a), and  $E$  is the **Young's modulus** for the object. The stress is  $F/A$ .

**Shearing** When an object is under a shearing stress, Eq. 12.3.1 is written as

$$\frac{F}{A} = G \frac{\Delta x}{L}, \quad (12.3.3)$$

where  $\Delta x/L$  is the shearing strain of the object,  $\Delta x$  is the displacement of one end of the object in the direction of the applied force  $\vec{F}$  (as in Fig. 12.3.3b), and  $G$  is the **shear modulus** of the object. The stress is  $F/A$ .

**Hydraulic Stress** When an object undergoes *hydraulic compression* due to a stress exerted by a surrounding fluid, Eq. 12.3.1 is written as

$$p = B \frac{\Delta V}{V}, \quad (12.3.4)$$

where  $p$  is the pressure (*hydraulic stress*) on the object due to the fluid,  $\Delta V/V$  (the strain) is the absolute value of the fractional change in the object's volume due to that pressure, and  $B$  is the **bulk modulus** of the object.

compared to that of the safe. (a) Rank the positions according to the force on post A due to the safe, greatest compression first, greatest tension last, and indicate where, if anywhere, the force is zero. (b) Rank them according to the force on post B.

**3** Figure 12.3 shows four overhead views of rotating uniform disks that are sliding across a frictionless floor. Three forces, of magnitude  $F$ ,  $2F$ , or  $3F$ , act on each disk, either at the rim, at the center, or halfway between rim and center. The force vectors rotate along with the disks, and, in the “snapshots” of Fig. 12.3, point left or right. Which disks are in equilibrium?

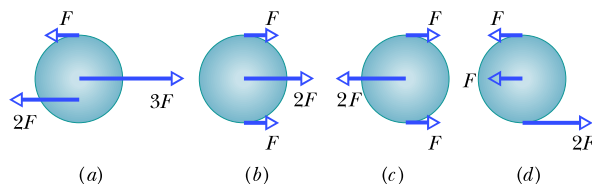


Figure 12.3 Question 3.

**4** A ladder leans against a frictionless wall but is prevented from falling because of friction between it and the ground. Suppose you shift the base of the ladder toward the wall. Determine whether the following become larger, smaller, or stay the same

same (in magnitude): (a) the normal force on the ladder from the ground, (b) the force on the ladder from the wall, (c) the static frictional force on the ladder from the ground, and (d) the maximum value  $f_{s,\max}$  of the static frictional force.

**5** Figure 12.4 shows a mobile of toy penguins hanging from a ceiling. Each crossbar is horizontal, has negligible mass, and extends three times as far to the right of the wire supporting it as to the left. Penguin 1 has mass  $m_1 = 48$  kg. What are the masses of (a) penguin 2, (b) penguin 3, and (c) penguin 4?

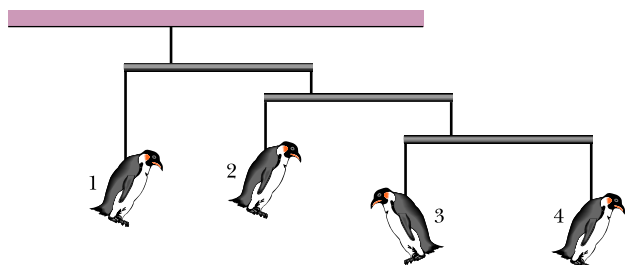


Figure 12.4 Question 5.

**6** Figure 12.5 shows an overhead view of a uniform stick on which four forces act. Suppose we choose a rotation axis through point  $O$ , calculate the torques about that axis due to the forces, and find that these torques balance. Will the torques balance if, instead, the rotation axis is chosen to be at (a) point  $A$  (on the stick), (b) point  $B$  (on line with the stick), or (c) point  $C$  (off to one side of the stick)? (d) Suppose, instead, that we find that the torques about point  $O$  do not balance. Is there another point about which the torques will balance?

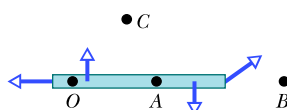


Figure 12.5 Question 6.

**7** In Fig. 12.6, a stationary 5 kg rod  $AC$  is held against a wall by a rope and friction between rod and wall. The uniform rod is 1 m long, and angle  $\theta = 30^\circ$ . (a) If you are to find the magnitude of the force  $\vec{T}$  on the rod from the rope with a single equation, at what labeled point should a rotation axis be placed? With that choice of axis and counter-clockwise torques positive, what is the sign of (b) the torque  $\tau_w$  due to the rod's weight and (c) the torque  $\tau_r$  due to the pull on the rod by the rope? (d) Is the magnitude of  $\tau_r$  greater than, less than, or equal to the magnitude of  $\tau_w$ ?

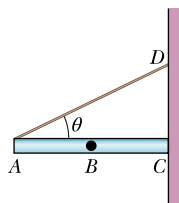


Figure 12.6 Question 7.

**8** Three piñatas hang from the (stationary) assembly of massless pulleys and cords seen in Fig. 12.7. One long cord runs from the ceiling at the right to the lower pulley at the left, looping halfway around all the pulleys. Several shorter cords suspend pulleys from the ceiling or piñatas from the pulleys. The weights (in newtons) of two piñatas are given. (a) What is the weight of the third piñata? (Hint: A cord that loops halfway around a

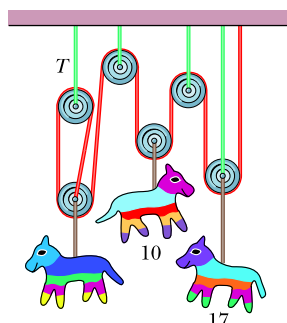


Figure 12.7 Question 8.

pulley pulls on the pulley with a net force that is twice the tension in the cord.) (b) What is the tension in the short cord labeled with  $T$ ?

**9** In Fig. 12.8, a vertical rod is hinged at its lower end and attached to a cable at its upper end. A horizontal force  $\vec{F}_a$  is to be applied to the rod as shown. If the point at which the force is applied is moved up the rod, does the tension in the cable increase, decrease, or remain the same?

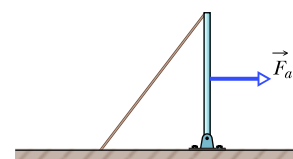


Figure 12.8 Question 9.

**10** Figure 12.9 shows a horizontal block that is suspended by two wires,  $A$  and  $B$ , which are identical except for their original lengths. The center of mass of the block is closer to wire  $B$  than to wire  $A$ . (a) Measuring torques about the block's center of mass, state whether the magnitude of the torque due to wire  $A$  is greater than, less than, or equal to the magnitude of the torque due to wire  $B$ . (b) Which wire exerts more force on the block? (c) If the wires are now equal in length, which one was originally shorter (before the block was suspended)?

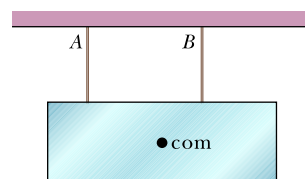


Figure 12.9 Question 10.

**11** The table gives the initial lengths of three rods and the changes in their lengths when forces are applied to their ends to put them under strain. Rank the rods according to their strain, greatest first.

	Initial Length	Change in Length
Rod A	$2L_0$	$\Delta L_0$
Rod B	$4L_0$	$2\Delta L_0$
Rod C	$10L_0$	$4\Delta L_0$

**12** A physical therapist gone wild has constructed the (stationary) assembly of massless pulleys and cords seen in Fig. 12.10. One long cord wraps around all the pulleys, and shorter cords suspend pulleys from the ceiling or weights from the pulleys. Except for one, the weights (in newtons) are indicated. (a) What is that last weight? (Hint: When a cord loops halfway around a pulley as here, it pulls on the pulley with a net force that is twice the tension in the cord.) (b) What is the tension in the short cord labeled with  $T$ ?

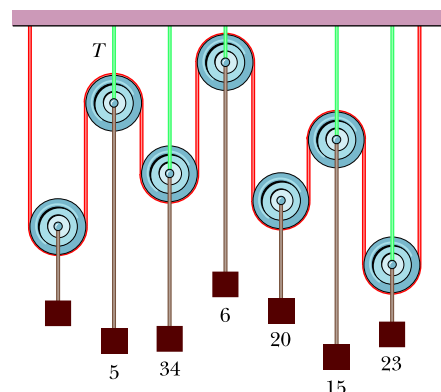


Figure 12.10 Question 12.



## Problems

**GO** Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in WileyPLUS  
**SSM** Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual  
**E** Easy **M** Medium **H** Hard  
**FCP** Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at [flyingcircusofphysics.com](http://flyingcircusofphysics.com)

**CALC** Requires calculus  
**BIO** Biomedical application

## Module 12.1 Equilibrium

**1 E** Because  $g$  varies so little over the extent of most structures, any structure's center of gravity effectively coincides with its center of mass. Here is a fictitious example where  $g$  varies more significantly. Figure 12.11 shows an array of six particles, each with mass  $m$ , fixed to the edge of a rigid structure of negligible mass. The distance between adjacent particles along the edge is 2.00 m. The following table gives the value of  $g$  ( $\text{m/s}^2$ ) at each particle's location. Using the coordinate system shown, find (a) the  $x$  coordinate  $x_{\text{com}}$  and (b) the  $y$  coordinate  $y_{\text{com}}$  of the center of mass of the six-particle system. Then find (c) the  $x$  coordinate  $x_{\text{cog}}$  and (d) the  $y$  coordinate  $y_{\text{cog}}$  of the center of gravity of the six-particle system.

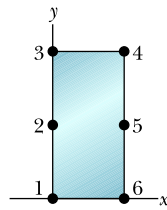


Figure 12.11  
Problem 1.

Particle	$g$	Particle	$g$
1	8.00	4	7.40
2	7.80	5	7.60
3	7.60	6	7.80

## Module 12.2 Some Examples of Static Equilibrium

**2 E** An automobile with a mass of 1360 kg has 3.05 m between the front and rear axles. Its center of gravity is located 1.78 m behind the front axle. With the automobile on level ground, determine the magnitude of the force from the ground on (a) each front wheel (assuming equal forces on the front wheels) and (b) each rear wheel (assuming equal forces on the rear wheels).

**3 E SSM** In Fig. 12.12, a uniform sphere of mass  $m = 0.85$  kg and radius  $r = 4.2$  cm is held in place by a massless rope attached to a frictionless wall a distance  $L = 8.0$  cm above the center of the sphere. Find (a) the tension in the rope and (b) the force on the sphere from the wall.

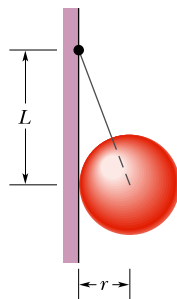


Figure 12.12  
Problem 3.

**4 E** An archer's bow is drawn at its midpoint until the tension in the string is equal to the force exerted by the archer. What is the angle between the two halves of the string?

**5 E** A rope of negligible mass is stretched horizontally between two supports that are 3.44 m apart. When an object of weight 3160 N is hung at the center of the rope, the rope is observed to sag by 35.0 cm. What is the tension in the rope?

**6 E** A scaffold of mass 60 kg and length 5.0 m is supported in a horizontal position by a vertical cable at each end. A window washer of mass 80 kg stands at a point 1.5 m from one end. What is the tension in (a) the nearer cable and (b) the farther cable?

**7 E** A 75 kg window cleaner uses a 10 kg ladder that is 5.0 m long. He places one end on the ground 2.5 m from a wall, rests the upper end against a cracked window, and climbs the ladder. He is 3.0 m up along the ladder when the window breaks. Neglect friction between the ladder and window and assume that the base of the ladder does not slip. When the window is on the verge of breaking, what are (a) the magnitude of the force on the window from the ladder, (b) the magnitude of the force on the ladder from the ground, and (c) the angle (relative to the horizontal) of that force on the ladder?

**8 E** A physics Brady Bunch, whose weights in newtons are indicated in Fig. 12.13, is balanced on a seesaw. What is the number of the person who causes the largest torque about the rotation axis at fulcrum  $f$  directed (a) out of the page and (b) into the page?

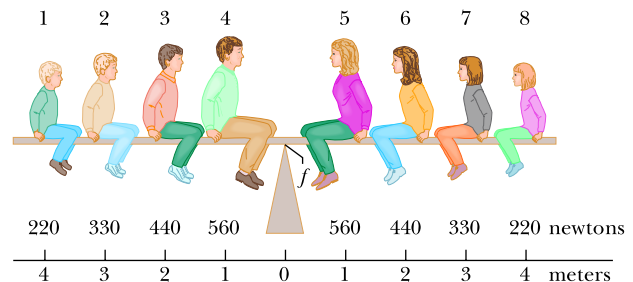


Figure 12.13 Problem 8.

**9 E SSM** A meter stick balances horizontally on a knife-edge at the 50.0 cm mark. With two 5.00 g coins stacked over the 12.0 cm mark, the stick is found to balance at the 45.5 cm mark. What is the mass of the meter stick?

**10 E GO** The system in Fig. 12.14 is in equilibrium, with the string in the center exactly horizontal. Block  $A$  weighs 40 N, block  $B$  weighs 50 N, and angle  $\phi$  is  $35^\circ$ . Find (a) tension  $T_1$ , (b) tension  $T_2$ , (c) tension  $T_3$ , and (d) angle  $\theta$ .

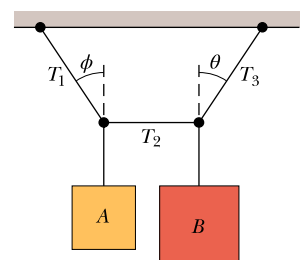


Figure 12.14 Problem 10.

**11 E SSM** Figure 12.15 shows a diver of weight 580 N standing at the end of a diving board with a length of  $L = 4.5$  m and negligible mass. The board is fixed to two pedestals (supports) that are separated by distance  $d = 1.5$  m. Of the forces acting on the board, what are the (a) magnitude and (b) direction (up or down) of the force from the left pedestal and the (c) magnitude and (d) direction (up or down) of the force from the right pedestal? (e) Which pedestal (left or right) is being stretched, and (f) which pedestal is being compressed?

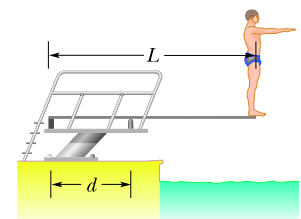


Figure 12.15 Problem 11.

**12 E** In Fig. 12.16, trying to get his car out of mud, a man ties one end of a rope around the front bumper and the other end tightly around a utility pole 18 m away. He then pushes sideways on the rope at its midpoint with a force of 550 N, displacing the center of the rope 0.30 m, but the car barely moves. What is the magnitude of the force on the car from the rope? (The rope stretches somewhat.)

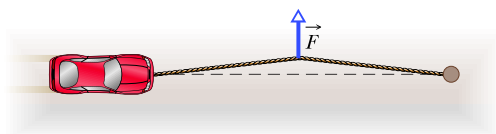


Figure 12.16 Problem 12.

**13 E BIO** Figure 12.17 shows the anatomical structures in the lower leg and foot that are involved in standing on tiptoe, with the heel raised slightly off the floor so that the foot effectively contacts the floor only at point  $P$ . Assume distance  $a = 5.0$  cm, distance  $b = 15$  cm, and the person's weight  $W = 900$  N.

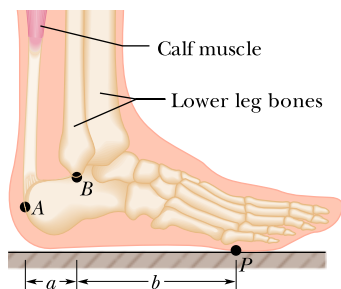


Figure 12.17 Problem 13.

Of the forces acting on the foot, what are the (a) magnitude and (b) direction (up or down) of the force at point  $A$  from the calf muscle and the (c) magnitude and (d) direction (up or down) of the force at point  $B$  from the lower leg bones?

**14 E** In Fig. 12.18, a horizontal scaffold, of length 2.00 m and uniform mass 50.0 kg, is suspended from a building by two cables. The scaffold has dozens of paint cans stacked on it at various points. The total mass of the paint cans is 75.0 kg. The tension in the cable at the right is 722 N. How far horizontally from *that* cable is the center of mass of the system of paint cans?

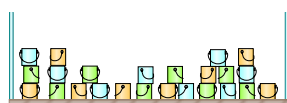


Figure 12.18 Problem 14.

**15 E** Forces  $\vec{F}_1$ ,  $\vec{F}_2$ , and  $\vec{F}_3$  act on the structure of Fig. 12.19, shown in an overhead view. We wish to put the structure in equilibrium by applying a fourth force, at a point such as  $P$ . The fourth force has vector components  $\vec{F}_h$  and  $\vec{F}_v$ . We are given that  $a = 2.0$  m,  $b = 3.0$  m,  $c = 1.0$  m,  $F_1 = 20$  N,  $F_2 = 10$  N, and  $F_3 = 5.0$  N. Find (a)  $F_h$ , (b)  $F_v$ , and (c)  $d$ .

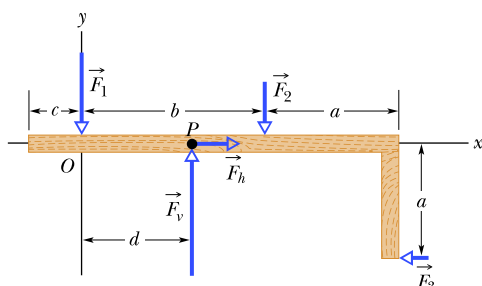


Figure 12.19 Problem 15.

**16 E** A uniform cubical crate is 0.750 m on each side and weighs 500 N. It rests on a floor with one edge against a very small, fixed obstruction. At what least height above the floor must a horizontal force of magnitude 350 N be applied to the crate to tip it?

**17 E** In Fig. 12.20, a uniform beam of weight 500 N and length 3.0 m is suspended horizontally. On the left it is hinged to a wall; on the right it is supported by a cable bolted to the wall at distance  $D$  above the beam. The least tension that will snap the cable is 1200 N. (a) What value of  $D$  corresponds to that tension? (b) To prevent the cable from snapping, should  $D$  be increased or decreased from that value?

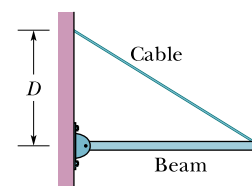


Figure 12.20 Problem 17.

**18 E GO** In Fig. 12.21, horizontal scaffold 2, with uniform mass  $m_2 = 30.0$  kg and length  $L_2 = 2.00$  m, hangs from horizontal scaffold 1, with uniform mass  $m_1 = 50.0$  kg. A 20.0 kg box of nails lies on scaffold 2, centered at distance  $d = 0.500$  m from the left end. What is the tension  $T$  in the cable indicated?

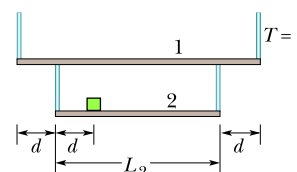


Figure 12.21 Problem 18.

**19 E** To crack a certain nut in a nutcracker, forces with magnitudes of at least 40 N must act on its shell from both sides. For the nutcracker of Fig. 12.22, with distances  $L = 12$  cm and  $d = 2.6$  cm, what are the force components  $F_\perp$  (perpendicular to the handles) corresponding to that 40 N?

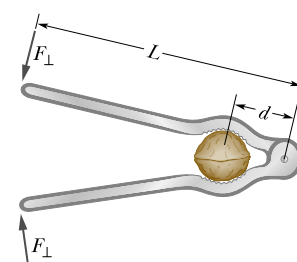


Figure 12.22 Problem 19.

**20 E BIO** A bowler holds a bowling ball ( $M = 7.2$  kg) in the palm of his hand (Fig. 12.23). His upper arm is vertical; his lower arm (1.8 kg) is horizontal. What is the magnitude of (a) the force of the biceps muscle on the lower arm and (b) the force between the bony structures at the elbow contact point?

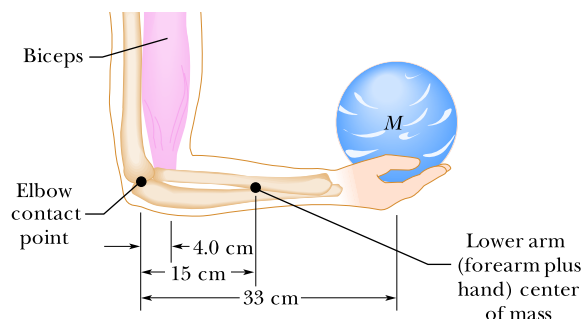


Figure 12.23 Problem 20.

**21 M** The system in Fig. 12.24 is in equilibrium. A concrete block of mass 225 kg hangs from the end of the uniform strut of mass 45.0 kg. A cable runs from the ground, over the top of the strut, and down to the block, holding the block in place. For angles  $\phi = 30.0^\circ$  and  $\theta = 45.0^\circ$ , find (a) the tension  $T$  in the cable and the (b) horizontal and (c) vertical components of the force on the strut from the hinge.

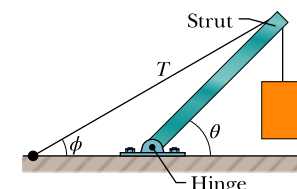


Figure 12.24 Problem 21.



**22 M BIO GO FCP** In Fig. 12.25, a 55 kg rock climber is in a lie-back climb along a fissure, with hands pulling on one side of the fissure and feet pressed against the opposite side. The fissure has width  $w = 0.20$  m, and the center of mass of the climber is a horizontal distance  $d = 0.40$  m from the fissure. The coefficient of static friction between hands and rock is  $\mu_1 = 0.40$ , and between boots and rock it is  $\mu_2 = 1.2$ . (a) What is the least horizontal pull by the hands and push by the feet that will keep the climber stable? (b) For the horizontal pull of (a), what must be the vertical distance  $h$  between hands and feet? If the climber encounters wet rock, so that  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  are reduced, what happens to (c) the answer to (a) and (d) the answer to (b)?

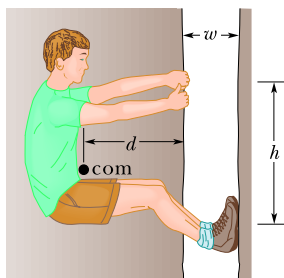


Figure 12.25 Problem 22.

**23 M GO** In Fig. 12.26, one end of a uniform beam of weight 222 N is hinged to a wall; the other end is supported by a wire that makes angles  $\theta = 30.0^\circ$  with both wall and beam. Find (a) the tension in the wire and the (b) horizontal and (c) vertical components of the force of the hinge on the beam.

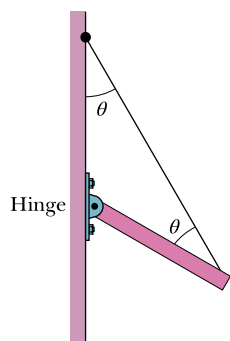


Figure 12.26 Problem 23.

**24 M BIO GO FCP** In Fig. 12.27, a climber with a weight of 533.8 N is held by a belay rope connected to her climbing harness and belay device; the force of the rope on her has a line of action through her center of mass. The indicated angles are  $\theta = 40.0^\circ$  and  $\phi = 30.0^\circ$ . If her feet are on the verge of sliding on the vertical wall, what is the coefficient of static friction between her climbing shoes and the wall?

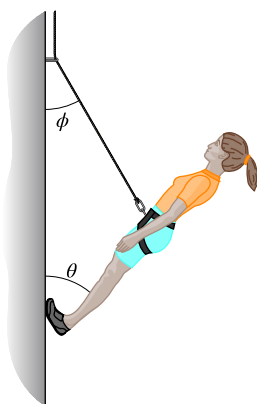


Figure 12.27 Problem 24.

**25 M SSM** In Fig. 12.28, what magnitude of (constant) force  $\vec{F}$  applied horizontally at the axle of the wheel is necessary to raise the wheel over a step obstacle of height  $h = 3.00$  cm? The wheel's radius is  $r = 6.00$  cm, and its mass is  $m = 0.800$  kg.

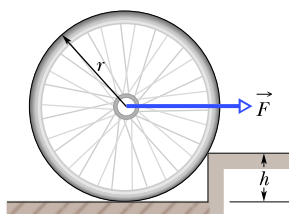


Figure 12.28 Problem 25.

**26 M GO FCP** In Fig. 12.29, a climber leans out against a vertical ice wall that has negligible friction. Distance  $a$  is 0.914 m and distance  $L$  is 2.10 m. His center of mass is distance  $d = 0.940$  m from

the feet–ground contact point. If he is on the verge of sliding, what is the coefficient of static friction between feet and ground?

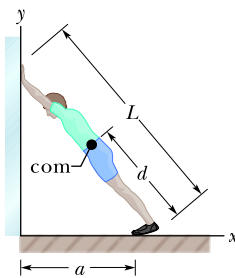


Figure 12.29 Problem 26.

**27 M BIO GO** In Fig. 12.30, a 15 kg block is held in place via a pulley system. The person's upper arm is vertical; the forearm is at angle  $\theta = 30^\circ$  with the horizontal. Forearm and hand together have a mass of 2.0 kg, with a center of mass at distance  $d_1 = 15$  cm from the contact point of the forearm bone and the upper-arm bone (humerus). The triceps muscle pulls vertically upward on the forearm at distance  $d_2 = 2.5$  cm behind that contact point. Distance  $d_3$  is 35 cm. What are the (a) magnitude and (b) direction (up or down) of the force on the forearm from the triceps muscle and the (c) magnitude and (d) direction (up or down) of the force on the forearm from the humerus?

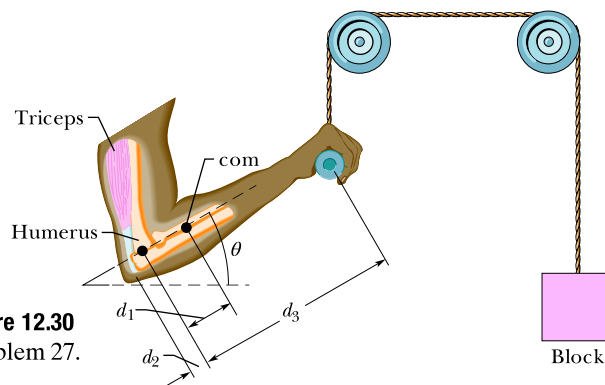


Figure 12.30 Problem 27.

**28 M GO** In Fig. 12.31, suppose the length  $L$  of the uniform bar is 3.00 m and its weight is 200 N. Also, let the block's weight  $W = 300$  N and the angle  $\theta = 30.0^\circ$ . The wire can withstand a maximum tension of 500 N. (a) What is the maximum possible distance  $x$  before the wire breaks? With the block placed at this maximum  $x$ , what are the (b) horizontal and (c) vertical components of the force on the bar from the hinge at A?

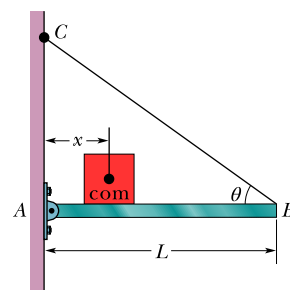


Figure 12.31 Problems 28 and 34.

**29 M** A door has a height of 2.1 m along a  $y$  axis that extends vertically upward and a width of 0.91 m along an  $x$  axis that extends outward from the hinged edge of the door. A hinge 0.30 m from the top and a hinge 0.30 m from the bottom each support half the door's mass, which is 27 kg. In unit-vector notation, what are the forces on the door at (a) the top hinge and (b) the bottom hinge?

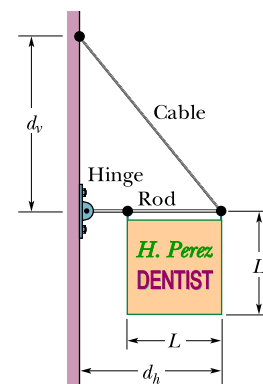


Figure 12.32 Problem 30.

**30 M GO** In Fig. 12.32, a 50.0 kg uniform square sign, of edge length  $L = 2.00$  m, is hung from a

horizontal rod of length  $d_h = 3.00$  m and negligible mass. A cable is attached to the end of the rod and to a point on the wall at distance  $d_v = 4.00$  m above the point where the rod is hinged to the wall. (a) What is the tension in the cable? What are the (b) magnitude and (c) direction (left or right) of the horizontal component of the force on the rod from the wall, and the (d) magnitude and (e) direction (up or down) of the vertical component of this force?

**31 M GO** In Fig. 12.33, a nonuniform bar is suspended at rest in a horizontal position by two massless cords. One cord makes the angle  $\theta = 36.9^\circ$  with the vertical; the other makes the angle  $\phi = 53.1^\circ$  with the vertical. If the length  $L$  of the bar is 6.10 m, compute the distance  $x$  from the left end of the bar to its center of mass.

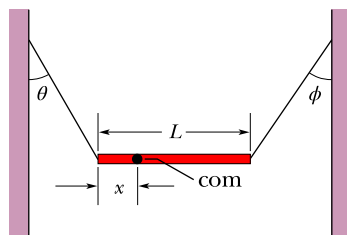


Figure 12.33 Problem 31.

**32 M** In Fig. 12.34, the driver of a car on a horizontal road makes an emergency stop by applying the brakes so that all four wheels lock and skid along the road. The coefficient of kinetic friction between tires and road is 0.40. The separation between the front and rear axles is  $L = 4.2$  m, and the center of mass of the car is located at distance  $d = 1.8$  m behind the front axle and distance  $h = 0.75$  m above the road. The car weighs 11 kN. Find the magnitude of (a) the braking acceleration of the car, (b) the normal force on each rear wheel, (c) the normal force on each front wheel, (d) the braking force on each rear wheel, and (e) the braking force on each front wheel. (Hint: Although the car is not in translational equilibrium, it is in rotational equilibrium.)

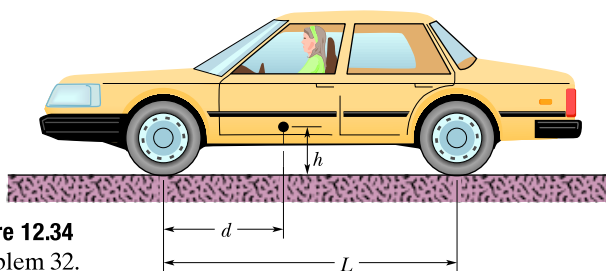


Figure 12.34 Problem 32.

**33 M** Figure 12.35a shows a vertical uniform beam of length  $L$  that is hinged at its lower end. A horizontal force  $\vec{F}_a$  is applied

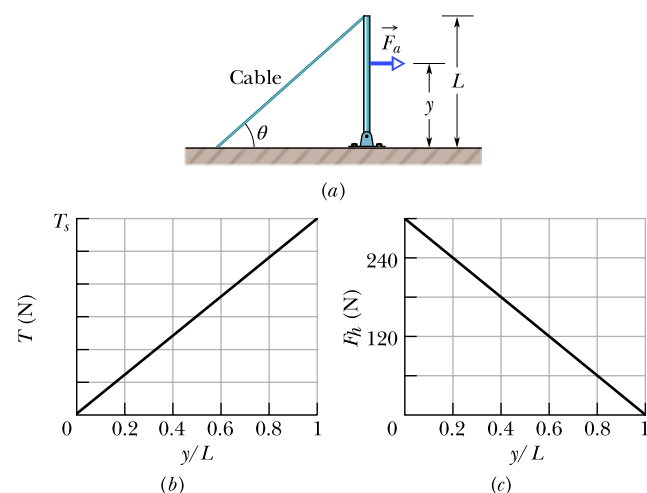


Figure 12.35 Problem 33.

to the beam at distance  $y$  from the lower end. The beam remains vertical because of a cable attached at the upper end, at angle  $\theta$  with the horizontal. Figure 12.35b gives the tension  $T$  in the cable as a function of the position of the applied force given as a fraction  $y/L$  of the beam length. The scale of the  $T$  axis is set by  $T_s = 600$  N. Figure 12.35c gives the magnitude  $F_h$  of the horizontal force on the beam from the hinge, also as a function of  $y/L$ . Evaluate (a) angle  $\theta$  and (b) the magnitude of  $\vec{F}_a$ .

**34 M** In Fig. 12.31, a thin horizontal bar  $AB$  of negligible weight and length  $L$  is hinged to a vertical wall at  $A$  and supported at  $B$  by a thin wire  $BC$  that makes an angle  $\theta$  with the horizontal. A block of weight  $W$  can be moved anywhere along the bar; its position is defined by the distance  $x$  from the wall to its center of mass. As a function of  $x$ , find (a) the tension in the wire, and the (b) horizontal and (c) vertical components of the force on the bar from the hinge at  $A$ .

**35 M SSM** A cubical box is filled with sand and weighs 890 N. We wish to “roll” the box by pushing horizontally on one of the upper edges. (a) What minimum force is required? (b) What minimum coefficient of static friction between box and floor is required? (c) If there is a more efficient way to roll the box, find the smallest possible force that would have to be applied directly to the box to roll it. (Hint: At the onset of tipping, where is the normal force located?)

**36 M BIO FCP** Figure 12.36 shows a 70 kg climber hanging by only the *crimp hold* of one hand on the edge of a shallow horizontal ledge in a rock wall. (The fingers are pressed down to gain purchase.) Her feet touch the rock wall at distance  $H = 2.0$  m directly below her crimped fingers but do not provide any support. Her center of mass is distance  $a = 0.20$  m from the wall. Assume that the force from the ledge supporting her fingers is equally shared by the four fingers. What are the values of the (a) horizontal component  $F_h$  and (b) vertical component  $F_v$  of the force on each fingertip?

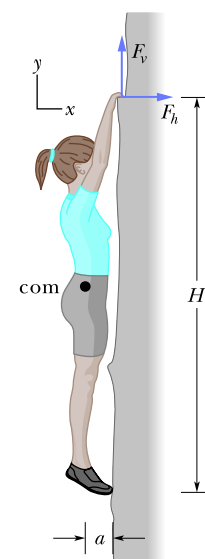


Figure 12.36 Problem 36.

**37 M GO** In Fig. 12.37, a uniform plank, with a length  $L$  of 6.10 m and a weight of 445 N, rests on the ground and against a frictionless roller at the top of a wall of height  $h = 3.05$  m. The plank remains in equilibrium for any value of  $\theta \geq 70^\circ$  but slips if  $\theta < 70^\circ$ . Find the coefficient of static friction between the plank and the ground.

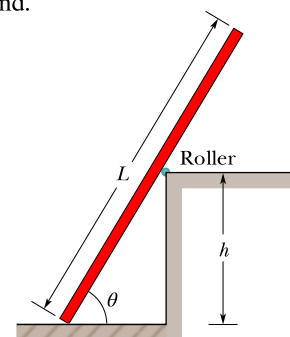


Figure 12.37 Problem 37.

**38 M** In Fig. 12.38, uniform beams  $A$  and  $B$  are attached to a wall with hinges and loosely bolted together (there is no torque of one

on the other). Beam  $A$  has length  $L_A = 2.40$  m and mass  $54.0$  kg; beam  $B$  has mass  $68.0$  kg. The two hinge points are separated by distance  $d = 1.80$  m. In unit-vector notation, what is the force on (a) beam  $A$  due to its hinge, (b) beam  $A$  due to the bolt, (c) beam  $B$  due to its hinge, and (d) beam  $B$  due to the bolt?

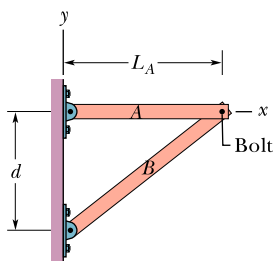


Figure 12.38 Problem 38.

**39 H** For the stepladder shown in Fig. 12.39, sides  $AC$  and  $CE$  are each  $2.44$  m long and hinged at  $C$ . Bar  $BD$  is a tie-rod  $0.762$  m long, halfway up. A man weighing  $854$  N climbs  $1.80$  m along the ladder. Assuming that the floor is frictionless and neglecting the mass of the ladder, find (a) the tension in the tie-rod and the magnitudes of the forces on the ladder from the floor at (b)  $A$  and (c)  $E$ . (Hint: Isolate parts of the ladder in applying the equilibrium conditions.)

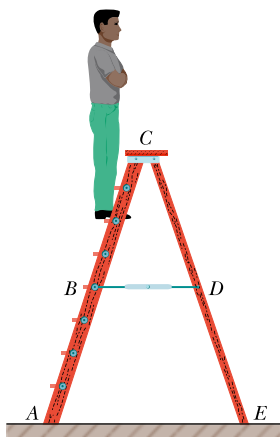


Figure 12.39 Problem 39.

**40 H** Figure 12.40a shows a horizontal uniform beam of mass  $m_b$  and length  $L$  that is supported on the left by a hinge attached to a wall and on the right by a cable at angle  $\theta$  with the horizontal. A package of mass  $m_p$  is positioned on the beam at a distance  $x$  from the left end. The total mass is  $m_b + m_p = 61.22$  kg. Figure 12.40b gives the tension  $T$  in the cable as a function of the package's position given as a fraction  $x/L$  of the beam length. The scale of the  $T$  axis is set by  $T_a = 500$  N and  $T_b = 700$  N. Evaluate (a) angle  $\theta$ , (b) mass  $m_b$ , and (c) mass  $m_p$ .

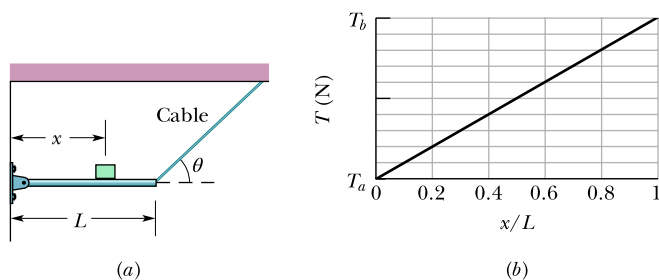


Figure 12.40 Problem 40.

**41 H** A crate, in the form of a cube with edge lengths of  $1.2$  m, contains a piece of machinery; the center of mass of the crate and its contents is located  $0.30$  m above the crate's geometrical center. The crate rests on a ramp that makes an angle  $\theta$  with the horizontal. As  $\theta$  is increased from zero, an angle will be reached at which the crate will either tip over or start to slide down the ramp. If the coefficient of static friction  $\mu_s$  between ramp and crate is  $0.60$ , (a) does the crate tip or slide and (b) at what angle  $\theta$  does this occur? If  $\mu_s = 0.70$ , (c) does the crate tip or slide and (d) at what angle  $\theta$  does this occur? (Hint: At the onset of tipping, where is the normal force located?)

**42 H** In Fig. 12.2.3 and the associated sample problem, let the coefficient of static friction  $\mu_s$  between the ladder and the

pavement be  $0.53$ . How far (in percent) up the ladder must the firefighter go to put the ladder on the verge of sliding?

### Module 12.3 Elasticity

**43 E SSM** A horizontal aluminum rod  $4.8$  cm in diameter projects  $5.3$  cm from a wall. A  $1200$  kg object is suspended from the end of the rod. The shear modulus of aluminum is  $3.0 \times 10^{10}$  N/m<sup>2</sup>. Neglecting the rod's mass, find (a) the shear stress on the rod and (b) the vertical deflection of the end of the rod.

**44 E** Figure 12.41 shows the stress-strain curve for a material. The scale of the stress axis is set by  $s = 300$ , in units of  $10^6$  N/m<sup>2</sup>. What are (a) the Young's modulus and (b) the approximate yield strength for this material?

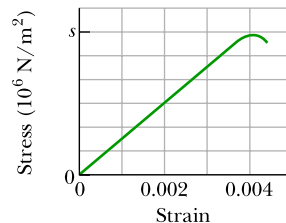


Figure 12.41 Problem 44.

**45 M** In Fig. 12.42, a lead brick rests horizontally on cylinders  $A$  and  $B$ . The areas of the top faces of the cylinders are related by  $A_A = 2A_B$ ; the Young's moduli of the cylinders are related by  $E_A = 2E_B$ . The cylinders had identical lengths before the brick was placed on them. What fraction of the brick's mass is supported (a) by cylinder  $A$  and (b) by cylinder  $B$ ? The horizontal distances between the center of mass of the brick and the centerlines of the cylinders are  $d_A$  for cylinder  $A$  and  $d_B$  for cylinder  $B$ . (c) What is the ratio  $d_A/d_B$ ?

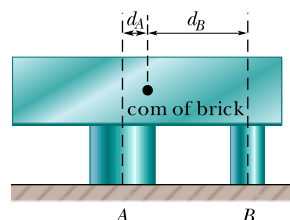


Figure 12.42 Problem 45.

**46 M BIO CALC FCP** Figure 12.43 shows an approximate plot of stress versus strain for a spider-web thread, out to the point of breaking at a strain of  $2.00$ . The vertical axis scale is set by values  $a = 0.12$  GN/m<sup>2</sup>,  $b = 0.30$  GN/m<sup>2</sup>, and  $c = 0.80$  GN/m<sup>2</sup>. Assume that the thread has an initial length of  $0.80$  cm, an initial cross-sectional area of  $8.0 \times 10^{-12}$  m<sup>2</sup>, and (during stretching) a constant volume. The strain on the thread is the ratio of the change in the thread's length to that initial length, and the stress on the thread is the ratio of the collision force to that initial cross-sectional area. Assume that the work done on the thread by the collision force is given by the area under the curve on the graph. Assume also that when the single thread snares a flying insect, the insect's kinetic energy is transferred to the stretching of the thread. (a) How much kinetic energy would put the thread on the verge of breaking? What is the kinetic energy of (b) a fruit fly of mass  $6.00$  mg and speed  $1.70$  m/s and (c) a bumble bee of mass  $0.388$  g and speed  $0.420$  m/s? Would (d) the fruit fly and (e) the bumble bee break the thread?

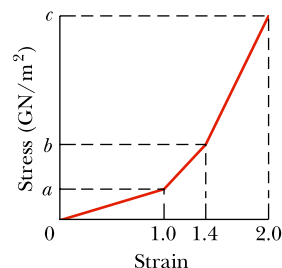


Figure 12.43 Problem 46.

- 47 M** A tunnel of length  $L = 150$  m, height  $H = 7.2$  m, and width 5.8 m (with a flat roof) is to be constructed at distance  $d = 60$  m beneath the ground. (See Fig. 12.44.) The tunnel roof is to be supported entirely by square steel columns, each with a cross-sectional area of  $960$  cm<sup>2</sup>. The mass of  $1.0$  cm<sup>3</sup> of the ground material is  $2.8$  g. (a) What is the total weight of the ground material the columns must support? (b) How many columns are needed to keep the compressive stress on each column at one-half its ultimate strength?

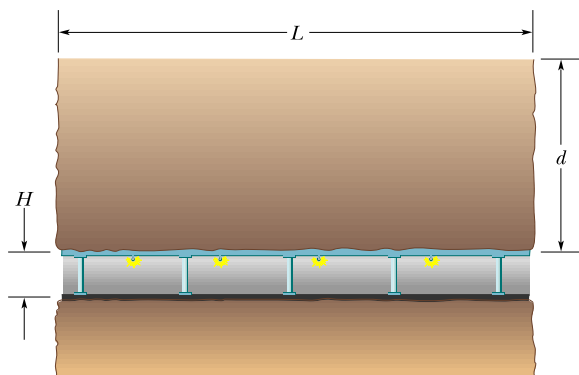


Figure 12.44 Problem 47.

- 48 M CALC** Figure 12.45 shows the stress versus strain plot for an aluminum wire that is stretched by a machine pulling in opposite directions at the two ends of the wire. The scale of the stress axis is set by  $s = 7.0$ , in units of  $10^7$  N/m<sup>2</sup>. The wire has an initial length of  $0.800$  m and an initial cross-sectional area of  $2.00 \times 10^{-6}$  m<sup>2</sup>. How much work does the force from the machine do on the wire to produce a strain of  $1.00 \times 10^{-3}$ ?

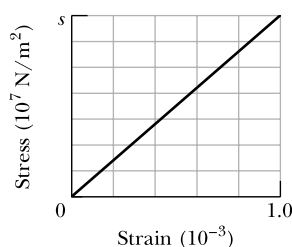


Figure 12.45 Problem 48.

- 49 M GO** In Fig. 12.46, a  $103$  kg uniform log hangs by two steel wires,  $A$  and  $B$ , both of radius  $1.20$  mm. Initially, wire  $A$  was  $2.50$  m long and  $2.00$  mm shorter than wire  $B$ . The log is now horizontal. What are the magnitudes of the forces on it from (a) wire  $A$  and (b) wire  $B$ ? (c) What is the ratio  $d_A/d_B$ ?

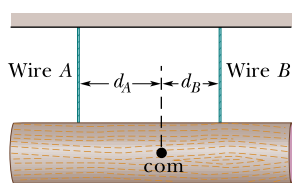


Figure 12.46 Problem 49.

- 50 H BIO FCP GO** Figure 12.47 represents an insect caught at the midpoint of a spider-web thread. The thread breaks under a stress of  $8.20 \times 10^8$  N/m<sup>2</sup> and a strain of  $2.00$ . Initially, it was horizontal and had a length of  $2.00$  cm and a cross-sectional area of  $8.00 \times 10^{-12}$  m<sup>2</sup>. As the thread was stretched under the weight of the insect, its volume remained constant. If the weight of the insect puts the thread on the verge of breaking, what is the insect's mass? (A spider's web is built to break if a potentially harmful insect, such as a bumble bee, becomes snared in the web.)



Figure 12.47 Problem 50.

- 51 H GO** Figure 12.48 is an overhead view of a rigid rod that turns about a vertical axle until the identical rubber stoppers  $A$  and  $B$  are forced against rigid walls at distances  $r_A = 7.0$  cm and

$r_B = 4.0$  cm from the axle. Initially the stoppers touch the walls without being compressed. Then force  $\vec{F}$  of magnitude  $220$  N is applied perpendicular to the rod at a distance  $R = 5.0$  cm from the axle. Find the magnitude of the force compressing (a) stopper  $A$  and (b) stopper  $B$ .

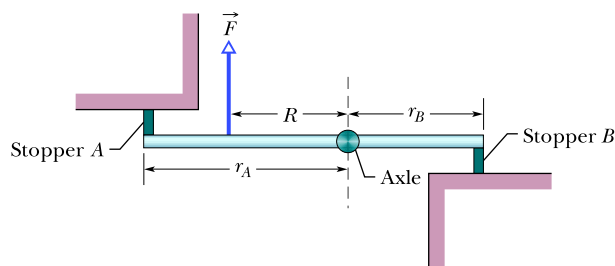


Figure 12.48 Problem 51.

### Additional Problems

- 52** After a fall, a  $95$  kg rock climber finds himself dangling from the end of a rope that had been  $15$  m long and  $9.6$  mm in diameter but has stretched by  $2.8$  cm. For the rope, calculate (a) the strain, (b) the stress, and (c) the Young's modulus.

- 53 SSM** In Fig. 12.49, a rectangular slab of slate rests on a bedrock surface inclined at angle  $\theta = 26^\circ$ . The slab has length  $L = 43$  m, thickness  $T = 2.5$  m, and width  $W = 12$  m, and  $1.0$  cm<sup>3</sup> of it has a mass of  $3.2$  g. The coefficient of static friction between slab and bedrock is  $0.39$ . (a) Calculate the component of the gravitational force on the slab parallel to the bedrock surface. (b) Calculate the magnitude of the static frictional force on the slab. By comparing (a) and (b), you can see that the slab is in danger of sliding. This is prevented only by chance protrusions of bedrock. (c) To stabilize the slab, bolts are to be driven perpendicular to the bedrock surface (two bolts are shown). If each bolt has a cross-sectional area of  $6.4$  cm<sup>2</sup> and will snap under a shearing stress of  $3.6 \times 10^8$  N/m<sup>2</sup>, what is the minimum number of bolts needed? Assume that the bolts do not affect the normal force.

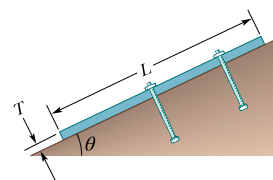


Figure 12.49 Problem 53.

- 54** A uniform ladder whose length is  $5.0$  m and whose weight is  $400$  N leans against a frictionless vertical wall. The coefficient of static friction between the level ground and the foot of the ladder is  $0.46$ . What is the greatest distance the foot of the ladder can be placed from the base of the wall without the ladder immediately slipping?

- 55 SSM** In Fig. 12.50, block  $A$  (mass  $10$  kg) is in equilibrium, but it would slip if block  $B$  (mass  $5.0$  kg) were any heavier. For angle  $\theta = 30^\circ$ , what is the coefficient of static friction between block  $A$  and the surface below it?

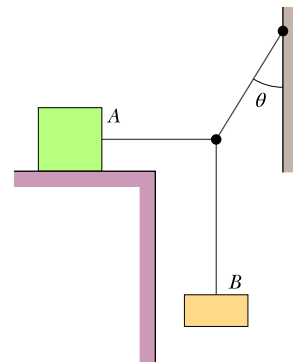


Figure 12.50 Problem 55.

- 56** Figure 12.51a shows a uniform ramp between two buildings that allows for motion between the buildings due to strong winds. At its left end, it is hinged to the building wall; at its



right end, it has a roller that can roll along the building wall. There is no vertical force on the roller from the building, only a horizontal force with magnitude  $F_h$ . The horizontal distance between the buildings is  $D = 4.00$  m. The rise of the ramp is  $h = 0.490$  m. A man walks across the ramp from the left. Figure 12.51b gives  $F_h$  as a function of the horizontal distance  $x$  of the man from the building at the left. The scale of the  $F_h$  axis is set by  $a = 20$  kN and  $b = 25$  kN. What are the masses of (a) the ramp and (b) the man?

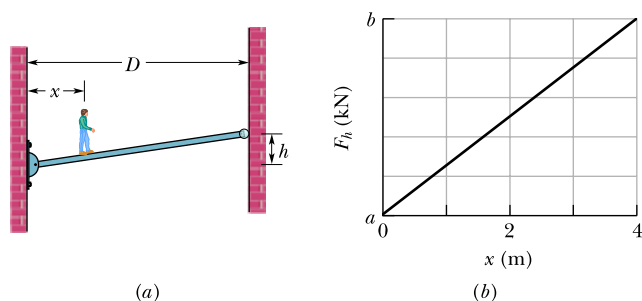


Figure 12.51 Problem 56.

**57 GO** In Fig. 12.52, a 10 kg sphere is supported on a frictionless plane inclined at angle  $\theta = 45^\circ$  from the horizontal. Angle  $\phi$  is  $25^\circ$ . Calculate the tension in the cable.

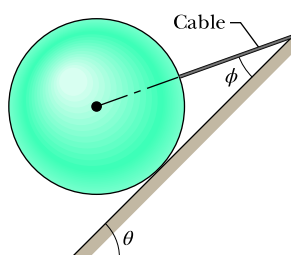


Figure 12.52 Problem 57.

**58** In Fig. 12.53a, a uniform 40.0 kg beam is centered over two rollers. Vertical lines across the beam mark off equal lengths. Two of the lines are centered over the rollers; a 10.0 kg package of tamales is centered over roller B. What are the magnitudes of the forces on the beam from (a) roller A and (b) roller B? The beam is then rolled to the left until the right-hand end is centered over roller B (Fig. 12.53b). What now are the magnitudes of the forces on the beam from (c) roller A and (d) roller B? Next, the beam is rolled to the right. Assume that it has a length of 0.800 m. (e) What horizontal distance between the package and roller B puts the beam on the verge of losing contact with roller A?

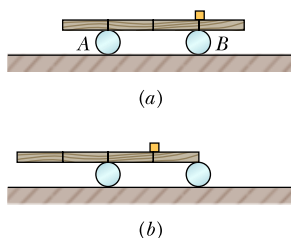


Figure 12.53 Problem 58.

**59 SSM** In Fig. 12.54, an 817 kg construction bucket is suspended by a cable A that is attached at O to two other cables B and C, making angles  $\theta_1 = 51.0^\circ$  and  $\theta_2 = 66.0^\circ$  with the horizontal. Find the tensions in (a) cable A, (b) cable B, and (c) cable C. (Hint: To avoid solving two equations in two unknowns, position the axes as shown in the figure.)

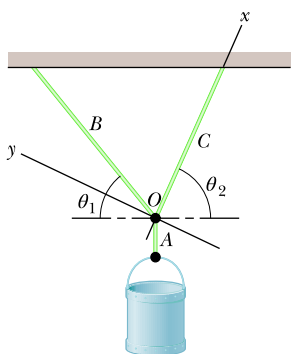


Figure 12.54 Problem 59.

**60** In Fig. 12.55, a package of mass  $m$  hangs from a short cord that is tied to the wall via cord 1 and to the ceiling via cord 2. Cord 1 is at angle  $\phi = 40^\circ$  with the horizontal; cord 2 is at angle  $\theta$ . (a) For what value of  $\theta$  is the tension in cord 2 minimized? (b) In terms of  $mg$ , what is the minimum tension in cord 2?

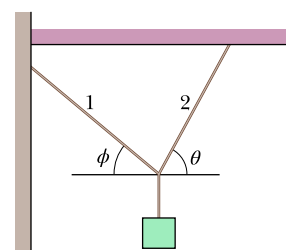


Figure 12.55 Problem 60.

**61** The force  $\vec{F}$  in Fig. 12.56 keeps the 6.40 kg block and the pulleys in equilibrium. The pulleys have negligible mass and friction. Calculate the tension  $T$  in the upper cable. (Hint: When a cable wraps halfway around a pulley as here, the magnitude of its net force on the pulley is twice the tension in the cable.)

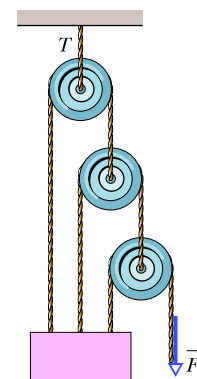


Figure 12.56 Problem 61.

**62** A mine elevator is supported by a single steel cable 2.5 cm in diameter. The total mass of the elevator cage and occupants is 670 kg. By how much does the cable stretch when the elevator hangs by (a) 12 m of cable and (b) 362 m of cable? (Neglect the mass of the cable.)

**63 FCP** Four bricks of length  $L$ , identical and uniform, are stacked on top of one another (Fig. 12.57) in such a way that part of each extends beyond the one beneath. Find, in terms of  $L$ , the maximum values of (a)  $a_1$ , (b)  $a_2$ , (c)  $a_3$ , (d)  $a_4$ , and (e)  $h$ , such that the stack is in equilibrium, on the verge of falling.

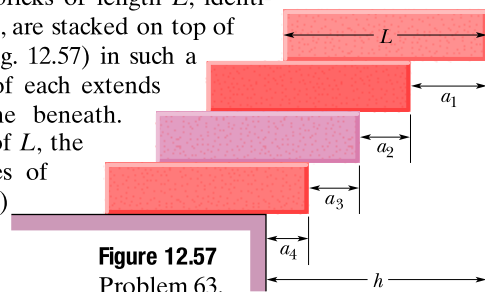


Figure 12.57 Problem 63.

**64** In Fig. 12.58, two identical, uniform, and frictionless spheres, each of mass  $m$ , rest in a rigid rectangular container. A line connecting their centers is at  $45^\circ$  to the horizontal. Find the magnitudes of the forces on the spheres from (a) the bottom of the container, (b) the left side of the container, (c) the right side of the container, and (d) each other. (Hint: The force of one sphere on the other is directed along the center-center line.)

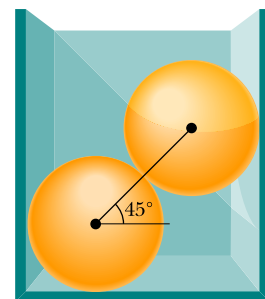


Figure 12.58 Problem 64.

**65** In Fig. 12.59, a uniform beam with a weight of 60 N and a length of 3.2 m is hinged at its lower end, and a horizontal force  $\vec{F}$  of magnitude 50 N acts at its upper end. The beam is held vertical by a cable that makes angle  $\theta = 25^\circ$  with the ground and is attached to the beam at height  $h = 2.0$  m. What are (a) the tension in the cable and (b) the force on the beam from the hinge in unit-vector notation?

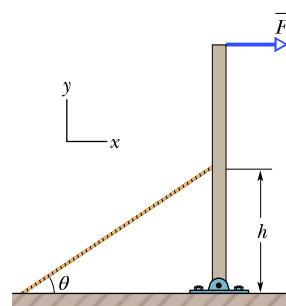


Figure 12.59 Problem 65.

**66** A uniform beam is 5.0 m long and has a mass of 53 kg. In Fig. 12.60, the beam is supported in a horizontal position by a hinge and a cable, with angle  $\theta = 60^\circ$ . In unit-vector notation, what is the force on the beam from the hinge?

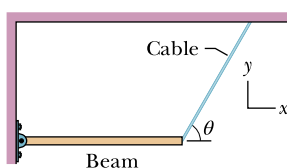


Figure 12.60 Problem 66.

**67** A solid copper cube has an edge length of 85.5 cm. How much stress must be applied to the cube to reduce the edge length to 85.0 cm? The bulk modulus of copper is  $1.4 \times 10^{11} \text{ N/m}^2$ .

**68 BIO** A construction worker attempts to lift a uniform beam off the floor and raise it to a vertical position. The beam is 2.50 m long and weighs 500 N. At a certain instant the worker holds the beam momentarily at rest with one end at distance  $d = 1.50 \text{ m}$  above the floor, as shown in Fig. 12.61, by exerting a force  $\vec{P}$  on the beam, perpendicular to the beam. (a) What is the magnitude  $P$ ? (b)

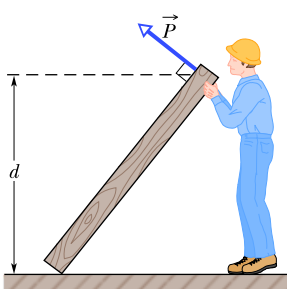


Figure 12.61 Problem 68.

What is the magnitude of the (net) force of the floor on the beam? (c) What is the minimum value the coefficient of static friction between beam and floor can have in order for the beam not to slip at this instant?

**69 SSM** In Fig. 12.62, a uniform rod of mass  $m$  is hinged to a building at its lower end, while its upper end is held in place by a rope attached to the wall. If angle  $\theta_1 = 60^\circ$ , what value must angle  $\theta_2$  have so that the tension in the rope is equal to  $mg/2$ ?

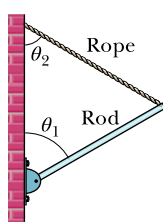


Figure 12.62 Problem 69.

**70** A 73 kg man stands on a level bridge of length  $L$ . He is at distance  $L/4$  from one end. The bridge is uniform and weighs 2.7 kN. What are the magnitudes of the vertical forces on the bridge from its supports at (a) the end farther from him and (b) the nearer end?

**71 SSM** A uniform cube of side length 8.0 cm rests on a horizontal floor. The coefficient of static friction between cube and floor is  $\mu$ . A horizontal pull  $\vec{P}$  is applied perpendicular to one of the vertical faces of the cube, at a distance 7.0 cm above the floor on the vertical midline of the cube face. The magnitude of  $\vec{P}$  is gradually increased. During that increase, for what values of  $\mu$  will the cube eventually (a) begin to slide and (b) begin to tip? (Hint: At the onset of tipping, where is the normal force located?)

**72** The system in Fig. 12.63 is in equilibrium. The angles are  $\theta_1 = 60^\circ$  and  $\theta_2 = 20^\circ$ , and the ball has mass  $M = 2.0 \text{ kg}$ . What is the tension in (a) string  $ab$  and (b) string  $bc$ ?

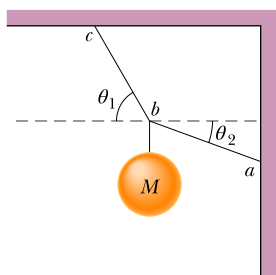


Figure 12.63 Problem 72.

**73 SSM** A uniform ladder is 10 m long and weighs 200 N. In Fig. 12.64, the ladder leans against a vertical, frictionless wall at height  $h = 8.0 \text{ m}$  above the ground. A horizontal force  $\vec{F}$  is applied to the ladder at distance  $d = 2.0 \text{ m}$  from its base (measured along the ladder). (a) If force magnitude  $F = 50 \text{ N}$ , what is the force of the ground on the ladder, in unit-vector notation? (b) If  $F = 150 \text{ N}$ , what is the force of the ground on the ladder, also in unit-vector notation? (c) Suppose the coefficient of static friction between the ladder and the ground is 0.38; for what minimum value of the force magnitude  $F$  will the base of the ladder just barely start to move toward the wall?

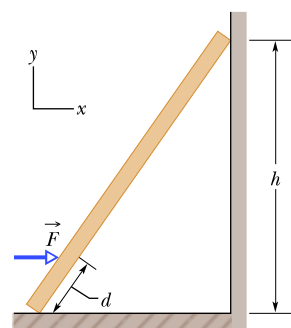


Figure 12.64 Problem 73.

**74** A pan balance is made up of a rigid, massless rod with a hanging pan attached at each end. The rod is supported at and free to rotate about a point not at its center. It is balanced by unequal masses placed in the two pans. When an unknown mass  $m$  is placed in the left pan, it is balanced by a mass  $m_1$  placed in the right pan; when the mass  $m$  is placed in the right pan, it is balanced by a mass  $m_2$  in the left pan. Show that  $m = \sqrt{m_1 m_2}$ .

**75** The rigid square frame in Fig. 12.65 consists of the four side bars  $AB$ ,  $BC$ ,  $CD$ , and  $DA$  plus two diagonal bars  $AC$  and  $BD$ , which pass each other freely at  $E$ . By means of the turnbuckle  $G$ , bar  $AB$  is put under tension, as if its ends were subject to horizontal, outward forces  $\vec{T}$  of magnitude 535 N. (a)

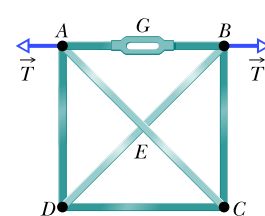


Figure 12.65 Problem 75.

Which of the other bars are in tension? What are the magnitudes of (b) the forces causing the tension in those bars and (c) the forces causing compression in the other bars? (Hint: Symmetry considerations can lead to considerable simplification in this problem.)

**76 BIO Bandage pressure.** Chronic venous leg ulcers are commonly treated with compression bandages. The pressure  $P$  of the bandage is given by the *Laplace equation* in which the *surface tension*  $T$  of the curved wall of a container depends on the wall's radius of curvature  $R$  and the pressure  $P$  that the inward pull of the surface tension produces inside the wall. Here we write that equation as

$$P = \frac{T}{R},$$

where  $T$  is the surface tension of the bandage (force per unit length across the bandage) and  $R$  is the radius of curvature of the leg. The pressure value is important to maintain proper return of blood from the ankle without excessive pressure that can result in tissue damage. For  $T = 16 \text{ N/m}$  and the radius of curvature of the leg at mid-calf level, what is the pressure of a bandage in the physician commonly used pressure unit of mmHg (millimeters of mercury)?

**77 Leaning tower.** The leaning Tower of Pisa (Fig. 12.66) is 55 m high and 7.0 m in diameter. The top of the tower is displaced 4.5 m from the vertical. Treat the tower as a uniform, circular cylinder. (a) What additional displacement, measured



at the top, would bring the tower to the verge of toppling? (b) What angle would the tower then make with the vertical?

**78 Moving heavy logs.** Here is a way to move a heavy log through a tropical forest. Find a young tree in the general direction of travel; find a vine that hangs from the top of the tree down to the ground level; pull the vine over to the log and wrap it around a limb on the log; pull hard enough on the vine to bend the tree over; and then tie off the vine on the limb. Repeat this procedure with several trees. Eventually the net force of the vines on the log moves the log forward. Although tedious, this technique allowed workers to move heavy logs long before modern machinery (such as helicopters) was available. Figure 12.67 shows the essentials of the technique. There a single vine is shown attached to a branch at one end of a uniform log of mass  $M$ . The coefficient of static friction between the log and the ground is 0.80. If the log is on the verge of sliding, with the left end raised slightly by the vine, what are (a) the angle  $\theta$  and (b) the magnitude  $T$  of the force on the log from the vine?

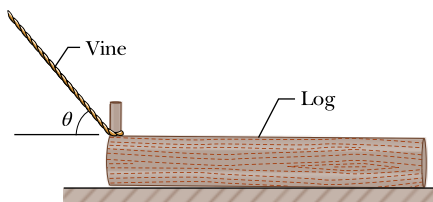


Figure 12.67 Problem 78.

**79 Ice block.** In an ice plant, 200 kg blocks of ice slide down a frictionless ramp that makes an angle of  $\theta = 10.0^\circ$  with the horizontal. To keep the blocks of ice from moving too quickly, they are restrained by an attached cable that is parallel to the ramp. If the blocks are temporarily held at rest on the ramp by the cable, what is the tension  $T$  in the cable?

**80 Diving board.** In Fig. 12.68, a uniform diving board with mass  $m = 40$  kg is 3.5 m long and is attached to two supports. When a diver stands on the end of the board, the support on the other end exerts a downward force of 1200 N on the board. At what distance from the left side of the board should the diver stand to reduce that force to zero? (Hint: First find the diver's mass.)

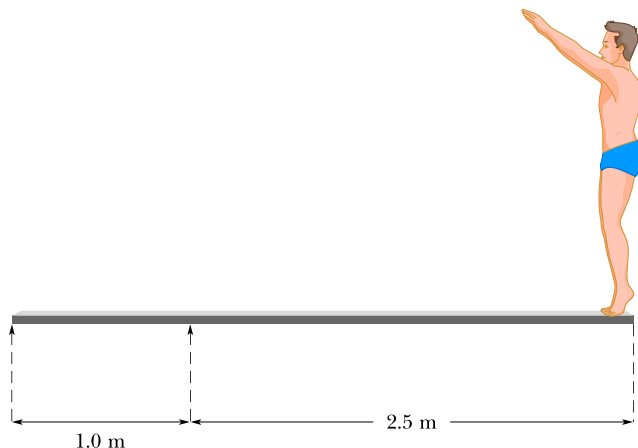


Figure 12.68 Problem 80.



Figure 12.66

Problem 77.

**81 Brick wall height.** Many houses and short buildings have brick walls, but tall buildings never have load-bearing brick walls. One reason might be that the load of a tall wall on the bottom bricks exceeds the yield strength  $S_y$  of brick. Consider a column of bricks with height  $H$ . Take the density of brick to be  $\rho = 1.8 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3$  and neglect the mortar between the bricks. What value of  $H$  puts the bottom brick at the yield strength of  $S_y = 3.3 \times 10^7 \text{ N/m}^2$ ?

**82 BIO Standing on tiptoes.** In Fig. 12.69, a person with weight  $mg = 700$  N stands on “tiptoes” (actually, the ball of the forefoot) with the weight evenly distributed on each foot and with the plane of each foot at angle  $\theta = 20^\circ$  with the floor. The support is an upward force at distance  $d_f = 0.18$  m from the ankle about which the foot can rotate. At distance  $d_b = 0.070$  m from the ankle, the Achilles tendon (connecting the heel to the calf muscle) pulls on the heel with force  $\vec{T}$  at an angle of  $\phi = 5.0^\circ$  from a perpendicular to the plane of the foot. What is the magnitude of  $\vec{T}$ ?

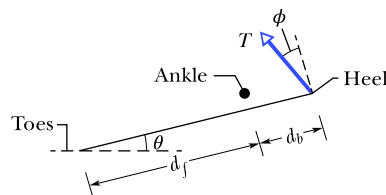


Figure 12.69 Problem 82.

**83 Lifting cable danger.** A crane is to lift a steel beam at a construction site (Fig. 12.70). The beam has length  $L = 12.0$  m, a square cross section with edge length  $w = 0.540$  m, and density  $\rho = 7900 \text{ kg/m}^3$ . The main cable from the crane is attached to two short steel cables of length  $h = 7.00$  m and radius  $r = 1.40$  cm symmetrically attached to the beam at distance  $d$  from the midpoint. There are three attachment points at  $d_1 = 1.60$  m,  $d_2 = 4.24$  m, and  $d_3 = 5.90$  m. What is the tension  $T_{\text{short}}$  in each short cable for (a)  $d_1$ , (b)  $d_2$ , and (c)  $d_3$ ? What is the stress  $\sigma$  in each short cable for (d)  $d_1$ , (e)  $d_2$ , and (f)  $d_3$ ? Safety protocol requires that the stress in those cables not exceed 80% of the yield stress of  $415 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ . (g) Which of the attachment points pass that requirement?

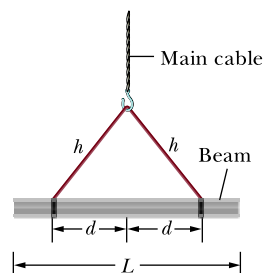


Figure 12.70 Problem 83.

**84 BIO Snowshoes.** You cannot walk over deep snow in regular shoes without sinking deeply into the snow. Instead, you walk with snowshoes (Fig. 12.71). For a person with the body weight of 170 lb on a single foot (while walking), what is the stress under a shoe in psi (pounds per square inch) for (a) a standard shoe measuring 11 in. by 4.0 in. and (b) a snowshoe measuring 26 in. by 9.5 in.? Assume a rectangular area for each shoe. (c) By what percentage does the snowshoe reduce the stress?



Figure 12.71 Problem 84.

**85 BIO FCP** Figure 12.72a shows details of a finger in the crimp hold of the climber in Fig. 12.36. A tendon that runs from muscles in the forearm is attached to the far bone in the finger. Along the way, the tendon runs through several guiding sheaths called *pulleys*. The A2 pulley is attached to the first finger bone; the A4 pulley is attached to the second finger bone. To pull the finger toward the palm, the forearm muscles pull the tendon through the pulleys, much like strings on a marionette can be

pulled to move parts of the marionette. Figure 12.72b is a simplified diagram of the second finger bone, which has length  $d$ . The tendon's pull  $\vec{F}_t$  on the bone acts at the point where the tendon enters the A4 pulley, at distance  $d/3$  along the bone. If the force components on each of the four crimped fingers in Fig. 12.36 are  $F_h = 13.4\text{ N}$  and  $F_v = 162.4\text{ N}$ , what is the magnitude of  $\vec{F}_t$ ? The result is probably tolerable, but if the climber hangs by only one or two fingers, the A2 and A4 pulleys can be ruptured, a common ailment among rock climbers.

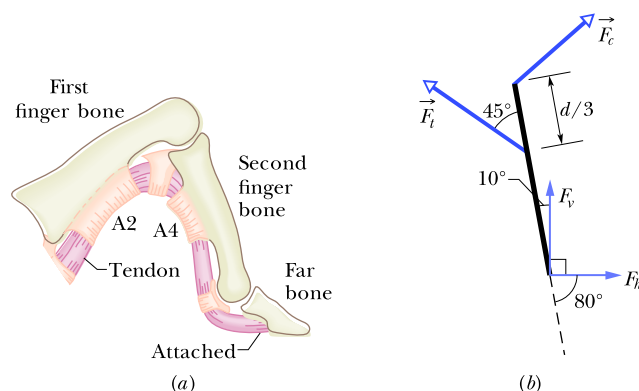


Figure 12.72 Problem 85.