

FUNDAMENTALS OF ENGINEERING SUPPLIED-REFERENCE HANDBOOK

FIFTH EDITION

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FIFTH EDITION

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FOREWORD

During its August 1991 Annual Business Meeting, the National Council of Examiners for Engineering and Surveying (NCEES) voted to make the Fundamentals of Engineering (FE) examination an NCEES supplied-reference examination. Then during its August 1994 Annual Business Meeting, the NCEES voted to make the FE examination a discipline-specific examination. As a result of the 1994 vote, the FE examination was developed to test the lower-division subjects of a typical bachelor engineering degree program during the morning portion of the examination, and to test the upper-division subjects of a typical bachelor engineering degree program during the afternoon. The lower-division subjects refer to the first 90 semester credit hours (five semesters at 18 credit hours per semester) of engineering coursework. The upper-division subjects refer to the remainder of the engineering coursework.

Since engineers rely heavily on reference materials, the *FE Supplied-Reference Handbook* will be made available prior to the examination. The examinee may use this handbook while preparing for the examination. The handbook contains only reference formulas and tables; no example questions are included. Many commercially available books contain worked examples and sample questions. An examinee can also perform a self-test using one of the NCEES *FE Sample Questions and Solutions* books (a partial examination), which may be purchased by calling (800) 250-3196.

The examinee is not allowed to bring reference material into the examination room. Another copy of the *FE Supplied-Reference Handbook* will be made available to each examinee in the room. When the examinee departs the examination room, the *FE Supplied-Reference Handbook* supplied in the room shall be returned to the examination proctors.

The *FE Supplied-Reference Handbook* has been prepared to support the FE examination process. The *FE Supplied-Reference Handbook* is not designed to assist in all parts of the FE examination. For example, some of the basic theories, conversions, formulas, and definitions that examinees are expected to know have not been included. The *FE Supplied-Reference Handbook* may not include some special material required for the solution of a particular question. In such a situation, the required special information will be included in the question statement.

DISCLAIMER: *The NCEES in no event shall be liable for not providing reference material to support all the questions in the FE examination. In the interest of constant improvement, the NCEES reserves the right to revise and update the* FE Supplied-Reference Handbook *as it deems appropriate without informing interested* parties. Each NCEES FE examination will be administered using the latest version of the FE Supplied-Reference Handbook.

> So that this handbook can be reused, PLEASE, at the examination site, **DO NOT WRITE IN THIS HANDBOOK**.

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UNITS

This handbook uses the metric system of units. Ultimately, the FE examination will be entirely metric. However, currently some of the problems use both metric and U.S. Customary System (USCS). In the USCS system of units, both force and mass are called pounds. Therefore, one must distinguish the pound-force (lbf) from the pound-mass (lbm).

The pound-force is that force which accelerates one pound-mass at 32.174 ft/s². Thus, 1 lbf = 32.174 lbm-ft/s². The expression 32.174 lbm-ft/(lbf-s²) is designated as g_c and is used to resolve expressions involving both mass and force expressed as pounds. For instance, in writing Newton's second law, the equation would be written as $F = ma/g_c$, where *F* is in lbf, *m* in lbm, and *a* is in ft/s².

Similar expressions exist for other quantities. Kinetic Energy: $KE = mv^2/2g_c$, with KE in (ft-lbf); Potential Energy: $PE = mgh/g_c$, with *PE* in (ft-lbf); Fluid Pressure: $p = \rho gh/g_c$, with p in (lbf/ft²); Specific Weight: $SW = \rho g/g_c$, in (lbf/ft³); Shear Stress: $\tau =$ $(\mu/g_c)(dv/dy)$, with shear stress in (lbf/ft²). In all these examples, g_c should be regarded as a unit conversion factor. It is frequently not written explicitly in engineering equations. However, its use is required to produce a consistent set of units.

Note that the conversion factor g_c [lbm-ft/(lbf-s²)] should not be confused with the local acceleration of gravity g , which has different units $(m/s²)$ and may be either its standard value (9.807 m/s²) or some other local value.

If the problem is presented in USCS units, it may be necessary to use the constant g_c in the equation to have a consistent set of units.

FUNDAMENTAL CONSTANTS

MATHEMATICS

STRAIGHT LINE

The general form of the equation is

$$
Ax + By + C = 0
$$

The standard form of the equation is

$$
y = mx + b,
$$

which is also known as the *slope-intercept* form.

The *point-slope* form is $v - v_1 = m(x - x_1)$

Given two points: slope, $m = (y_2 - y_1)/(x_2 - x_1)$

The angle between lines with slopes m_1 and m_2 is

 α = arctan $[(m_2 - m_1)/(1 + m_2 \cdot m_1)]$

Two lines are perpendicular if $m_1 = -1/m_2$

The distance between two points is

$$
d = \sqrt{(y_2 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - x_1)^2}
$$

QUADRATIC EQUATION

 $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$

$$
Roots = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}
$$

CONIC SECTIONS

 $e =$ eccentricity = cos θ /(cos ϕ)

[Note: *X*′ and *Y*′, in the following cases, are translated axes.]

is the standard form of the equation. When $h = k = 0$, Focus: $(p/2,0)$; Directrix: $x = -p/2$

is the standard form of the equation. When $h = k = 0$,

Eccentricity: $e = \sqrt{1 - (b^2/a^2)} = c/a$ $b = a\sqrt{1-e^2}$;

Focus: $(\pm ae, 0)$; Directrix: $x = \pm a/e$

Case 3. Hyperbola *e* > 1:

$$
\frac{(x-h)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(y-k)^2}{b^2} = 1;
$$
 Center at (h,k)

is the standard form of the equation. When $h = k = 0$,

Eccentricity: $e = \sqrt{1 + (b^2/a^2)} = c/a$ $b = a\sqrt{e^2 - 1};$

Focus: $(\pm ae, 0)$; Directrix $x = \pm a/e$

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Case 4. Circle
$$
e = 0
$$
:
\n $(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 = r^2$; Center at (h, k)

is the general form of the equation with radius

$$
r = \sqrt{(x-h)^2 + (y-k)^2}
$$

Length of the tangent from a point. Using the general form of the equation of a circle, the length of the tangent is found from

 $P(x,y)$

$$
t^{2} = (x'-h)^{2} + (y'-k)^{2} - r^{2}
$$

by substituting the coordinates of a point $P(x', y')$ and the coordinates of the center of the circle into the equation and computing.

Conic Section Equation

The general form of the conic section equation is

$$
Ax^{2} + 2Bxy + Cy^{2} + 2Dx + 2Ey + F = 0
$$

where not both *A* and *C* are zero.

If
$$
B^2 - AC < 0
$$
, an ellipse is defined.

If $B^2 - AC > 0$, a *hyperbola* is defined.

If $B^2 - AC = 0$, the conic is a *parabola*.

If
$$
A = C
$$
 and $B = 0$, a *circle* is defined.

If
$$
A = B = C = 0
$$
, a straight line is defined.

$$
x^2 + y^2 + 2ax + 2by + c = 0
$$

is the normal form of the conic section equation, if that conic section has a principal axis parallel to a coordinate axis.

$$
h = -a; k = -b
$$

$$
r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 - c}
$$

If $a^2 + b^2 - c$ is positive, a *circle*, center $(-a, -b)$. If $a^2 + b^2 - c$ equals zero, a *point* at $(-a, -b)$. If $a^2 + b^2 - c$ is negative, locus is *imaginary*.

QUADRIC SURFACE (SPHERE)

The general form of the equation is

$$
(x-h)^2 + (y-k)^2 + (z-m)^2 = r^2
$$

with center at (*h*, *k*, *m*).

In a three-dimensional space, the distance between two points is

$$
d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}
$$

LOGARITHMS

The logarithm of *x* to the Base *b* is defined by

$$
\log_b(x) = c, \text{ where } b^c = x
$$

Special definitions for $b = e$ or $b = 10$ are:

$$
\ln x, \text{Base} = e
$$

$$
\log x, \text{Base} = 10
$$

To change from one Base to another:

 $\log_b x = (\log_a x) / (\log_a b)$

e.g., $\ln x = (\log_{10} x)/(\log_{10} e) = 2.302585 (\log_{10} x)$

Identities

$$
\log_b b^n = n
$$

\n
$$
\log x^c = c \log x; x^c = \text{antilog } (c \log x)
$$

\n
$$
\log xy = \log x + \log y
$$

\n
$$
\log_b b = 1; \log 1 = 0
$$

\n
$$
\log x/y = \log x - \log y
$$

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TRIGONOMETRY

Trigonometric functions are defined using a right triangle.

 $\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r} \cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$ r tan $θ = y/x$, cot $θ = x/y$ \mathbf{y} csc θ = *r/y*, sec θ = *r/x* $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ B $rac{a}{\sin A} = \frac{b}{\sin B} = \frac{c}{\sin A}$ *b c* **Law of Sines** *A B C* \mathbf{a} **Law of Cosines** \overline{A} $a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc \cos A$ $b^2 = a^2 + c^2 - 2ac \cos B$ b $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos C$

Identities

csc θ = 1*/*sin θ sec θ = $1/cos θ$ tan $θ = sin θ / cos θ$ cot θ = 1**/**tan θ $\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$ $\tan^2\theta + 1 = \sec^2\theta$ $\cot^2\theta + 1 = \csc^2\theta$ $\sin (\alpha + \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta$ cos $(\alpha + \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta$ $\sin 2\alpha$ = 2 sin α cos α cos $2\alpha = \cos^2 \alpha - \sin^2 \alpha = 1 - 2 \sin^2 \alpha = 2 \cos^2 \alpha - 1$ $\tan 2\alpha = (2 \tan \alpha)/(1 - \tan^2 \alpha)$ cot $2\alpha = (\cot^2 \alpha - 1)/(2 \cot \alpha)$ tan $(α + β) = (tan α + tan β)/(1 – tan α tan β)$ cot $(\alpha + \beta) = (\cot \alpha \cot \beta - 1)/(\cot \alpha + \cot \beta)$ $sin (\alpha - \beta) = sin \alpha cos \beta - cos \alpha sin \beta$ cos $(α – β) = cos α cos β + sin α sin β$ $tan (\alpha - \beta) = (tan \alpha - tan \beta)/(1 + tan \alpha tan \beta)$ cot $(\alpha - \beta) = (\cot \alpha \cot \beta + 1)/(\cot \beta - \cot \alpha)$ $\sin (\alpha/2) = \pm \sqrt{(1-\cos \alpha)/2}$ cos $(\alpha/2) = \pm \sqrt{(1+\cos \alpha)/2}$ tan $(\alpha/2) = \pm \sqrt{(1-\cos \alpha)/(1+\cos \alpha)}$ cot $(\alpha/2) = \pm \sqrt{(1 + \cos \alpha)/(1 - \cos \alpha)}$

 $\sin \alpha \sin \beta = (1/2)[\cos (\alpha - \beta) - \cos (\alpha + \beta)]$ cos α cos β = (1/2)[cos ($\alpha - \beta$) + cos ($\alpha + \beta$)] $\sin \alpha \cos \beta = (1/2)[\sin (\alpha + \beta) + \sin (\alpha - \beta)]$ $\sin \alpha + \sin \beta = 2 \sin (1/2)(\alpha + \beta) \cos (1/2)(\alpha - \beta)$ $\sin \alpha - \sin \beta = 2 \cos (1/2)(\alpha + \beta) \sin (1/2)(\alpha - \beta)$ cos α + cos β = 2 cos (1/2)(α + β) cos (1/2)(α - β) cos α – cos β = – 2 sin (1/2)(α + β) sin (1/2)(α – β)

COMPLEX NUMBERS

Definition
$$
i = \sqrt{-1}
$$

\n $(a + ib) + (c + id) = (a + c) + i (b + d)$
\n $(a + ib) - (c + id) = (a - c) + i (b - d)$
\n $(a + ib)(c + id) = (ac - bd) + i (ad + bc)$
\n $\frac{a + ib}{c + id} = \frac{(a + ib)(c - id)}{(c + id)(c - id)} = \frac{(ac + bd) + i(bc - ad)}{c^2 + d^2}$
\n $(a + ib) + (a - ib) = 2a$
\n $(a + ib) - (a - ib) = 2ib$
\n $(a + ib)(a - ib) = a^2 + b^2$

Polar Coordinates

 $x = r \cos \theta$; $y = r \sin \theta$; $\theta = \arctan (y/x)$ $r = |x + iy| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ $x + iy = r (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = re^{i\theta}$ $[r_1(\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_1)][r_2(\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2)]$ = $r_1r_2[\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)]$ $(x + iy)^n$ = $[r (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)]^n$ $= r^n(\cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta)$ $\frac{i(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta_1)}{(\cos\theta_2 + i\sin\theta_2)} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} [\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i\sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2)]$ 1 2 (cos $\sigma_2 + i \sin \sigma_2$ $\frac{1}{1}(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta_1) = \frac{r_1}{1} [\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i \sin \theta_1]$ $\frac{(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta_1)}{\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} [\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2)]$ $\theta_2 + i \sin \theta$ $\frac{\theta + i \sin \theta_1}{\theta_1} = \frac{r_1}{r_1} [\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1)]$ *r r* $r_2(\cos\theta_2+i\sin\theta_1)$ $r_1(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$

Euler's Identity $e^{i\theta}$ = cos θ + *i* sin θ $e^{-i\theta} = \cos \theta - i \sin \theta$ *i* $e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}$ *i* $e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}$ $\frac{12}{2}$, $\sin \theta = \frac{2}{2}$ $\cos \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2}, \quad \sin \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{2}$

Roots

If *k* is any positive integer, any complex number (other than zero) has *k* distinct roots. The *k* roots of *r* (cos $\theta + i \sin \theta$) can be found by substituting successively $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$,

 $(k - 1)$ in the formula

$$
w = \sqrt[k]{r} \left[\cos \left(\frac{\theta}{k} + n \frac{360^{\circ}}{k} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\theta}{k} + n \frac{360^{\circ}}{k} \right) \right]
$$

MATRICES

A matrix is an ordered rectangular array of numbers with *m* rows and *n* columns. The element *aij* refers to row *i* and column *j*.

Multiplication

If $A = (a_{ik})$ is an $m \times n$ matrix and $B = (b_{ki})$ is an $n \times s$ matrix, the matrix product AB is an $m \times s$ matrix

$$
\boldsymbol{C} = \left(\boldsymbol{c}_{i} \right) = \left(\sum_{l=1}^{n} a_{il} \boldsymbol{b}_{lj} \right)
$$

where *n* is the common integer representing the number of columns of *A* and the number of rows of *B* (*l* and $k = 1, 2$, …, *n*).

Addition

If $A = (a_{ij})$ and $B = (b_{ij})$ are two matrices of the same size $m \times n$, the sum $A + B$ is the $m \times n$ matrix $C = (c_{ij})$ where $c_{ii} = a_{ii} + b_{ii}$.

Identity

The matrix $I = (a_{ij})$ is a square $n \times n$ identity matrix where $a_{ii} = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ and $a_{ii} = 0$ for $i \neq j$.

Transpose

The matrix \boldsymbol{B} is the transpose of the matrix \boldsymbol{A} if each entry b_{ji} in *B* is the same as the entry a_{ij} in *A* and conversely. In equation form, the transpose is $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^T$.

Inverse

The inverse **B** of a square $n \times n$ matrix **A** is

$$
B = A^{-1} = \frac{adj(A)}{|A|}
$$
, where

adj(A) = adjoint of A (obtained by replacing A^T elements with their cofactors, see **DETERMINANTS**) and

 $|A| =$ determinant of *A*.

DETERMINANTS

A *determinant of order n* consists of n^2 numbers, called the *elements* of the determinant, arranged in *n* rows and *n* columns and enclosed by two vertical lines. In any determinant, the *minor* of a given element is the determinant that remains after all of the elements are struck out that lie in the same row and in the same column as the given element. Consider an element which lies in the *h*th column and the *k*th row. The *cofactor* of this element is the value of the minor of the element (if $h + k$ is *even*), and it is the negative of the value of the minor of the element (if $h +$ *k* is *odd*).

If *n* is greater than 1, the *value* of a determinant of order *n* is the sum of the *n* products formed by multiplying each element of some specified row (or column) by its cofactor. This sum is called the *expansion of the determinant* [according to the elements of the specified row (or column)]. For a second-order determinant:

$$
\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} = a_1b_2 - a_2b_1
$$

For a third-order determinant:

$$
\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \ \end{vmatrix} = a_1b_2c_3 + a_2b_3c_1 + a_3b_1c_2 - a_3b_2c_1 - a_2b_1c_3 - a_1b_3c_2
$$

Addition and *subtraction:*

 $A + B = (a_x + b_x)i + (a_y + b_y)j + (a_z + b_z)k$

$$
\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = (a_x - b_x)\mathbf{i} + (a_y - b_y)\mathbf{j} + (a_z - b_z)\mathbf{k}
$$

The *dot product* is a *scalar product* and represents the projection of **B** onto **A** times $|A|$. It is given by

$$
\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = a_x b_x + a_y b_y + a_z b_z
$$

$$
= |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}| \cos \theta = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}
$$

The *cross product* is a *vector product* of magnitude $|\mathbf{B}| |\mathbf{A}| \sin \theta$ which is perpendicular to the plane containing **A** and **B**. The product is

The sense of $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ is determined by the right-hand rule.

 $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = |\mathbf{A}| |\mathbf{B}| \mathbf{n} \sin \theta$, where

n = unit vector perpendicular to the plane of **A** and **B**.

Gradient, Divergence, and Curl

$$
\nabla \Phi = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}\right)\Phi
$$

\n
$$
\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}\right) \cdot \left(V_1\mathbf{i} + V_2\mathbf{j} + V_3\mathbf{k}\right)
$$

\n
$$
\nabla \times \mathbf{V} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}\right) \times \left(V_1\mathbf{i} + V_2\mathbf{j} + V_3\mathbf{k}\right)
$$

The Laplacian of a scalar function ϕ is

$$
\nabla^2 \phi = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2}
$$

Identities

 $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$; $\mathbf{A} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}$ $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A} = |\mathbf{A}|^2$ $\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{k} = 1$ $\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{i} = 0$ If $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$, then either $\mathbf{A} = 0$, $\mathbf{B} = 0$, or \mathbf{A} is perpendicular

to B.
\n
$$
A \times B = -B \times A
$$
\n
$$
A \times (B + C) = (A \times B) + (A \times C)
$$
\n
$$
(B + C) \times A = (B \times A) + (C \times A)
$$
\n
$$
i \times i = j \times j = k \times k = 0
$$
\n
$$
i \times j = k = -j \times i; j \times k = i = -k \times j
$$
\n
$$
k \times i = j = -i \times k
$$
\nIf $A \times B = 0$, then either $A = 0$, $B = 0$,

If $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = 0$, then either $\mathbf{A} = 0$, $\mathbf{B} = 0$, or \mathbf{A} is parallel to \mathbf{B} .

$$
\nabla^2 \phi = \nabla \cdot (\nabla \phi) = (\nabla \cdot \nabla) \phi
$$

\n
$$
\nabla \times \nabla \phi = 0
$$

\n
$$
\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times A) = 0
$$

\n
$$
\nabla \times (\nabla \times A) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot A) - \nabla^2 A
$$

PROGRESSIONS AND SERIES

Arithmetic Progression

To determine whether a given finite sequence of numbers is an arithmetic progression, subtract each number from the following number. If the differences are equal, the series is arithmetic.

- 1. The first term is *a*.
- 2. The common difference is *d*.
- 3. The number of terms is *n*.
- 4. The last or *n*th term is *l*.
- 5. The sum of *n* terms is *S*.

$$
l = a + (n-1)d
$$

$$
S = n(a+l)/2 = n [2a + (n-1) d]/2
$$

Geometric Progression

To determine whether a given finite sequence is a geometric progression (G.P.), divide each number after the first by the preceding number. If the quotients are equal, the series is geometric.

- 1. The first term is *a*.
- 2. The common ratio is *r*.
- 3. The number of terms is *n*.
- 4. The last or *n*th term is *l*.
- 5. The sum of *n* terms is *S*.

$$
l = ar^{n-1}
$$

\n
$$
S = a (1 - r^n)/(1 - r); r \neq 1
$$

\n
$$
S = (a - r l)/(1 - r); r \neq 1
$$

\n
$$
\lim_{n \to \infty} S_n = a/(1 - r), r < 1
$$

A G.P. converges if $|r| < 1$ and it diverges if $|r| \ge 1$.

Properties of Series

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} c = nc; \quad c = \text{constant}
$$
\n
$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} cx_i = c \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i
$$
\n
$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i + y_i - z_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i
$$
\n
$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} x = (n + n^2)/2
$$

- 1. A power series in *x*, or in $x a$, which is convergent in the interval $-1 < x < 1$ (or $-1 < x - a < 1$), defines a function of *x* which is continuous for all values of *x* within the interval and is said to represent the function in that interval.
- 2. A power series may be differentiated term by term, and the resulting series has the same interval of convergence as the original series (except possibly at the end points of the interval).
- 3. A power series may be integrated term by term provided the limits of integration are within the interval of convergence of the series.
- 4. Two power series may be added, subtracted, or multiplied, and the resulting series in each case is convergent, at least, in the interval common to the two series.
- 5. Using the process of long division (as for polynomials), two power series may be divided one by the other.

Taylor's Series

$$
f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + \dots
$$

is called *Taylor's series*, and the function $f(x)$ is said to be expanded about the point *a* in a Taylor's series.

If *a* = 0, the Taylor's series equation becomes a *Maclaurin's series*.

PROBABILITY AND STATISTICS

Permutations and Combinations

A *permutation* is a particular sequence of a given set of objects. A *combination* is the set itself without reference to order.

1. The number of different *permutations* of *n* distinct objects *taken r at a time* is

$$
P(n,r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}
$$

2. The number of different *combinations* of *n* distinct objects *taken r at a time* is

$$
C(n,r) = \frac{P(n,r)}{r!} = \frac{n!}{[r!(n-r)!]}
$$

3. The number of different *permutations* of *n* objects *taken n at a time*, given that n_i are of type *i*, where $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$ and $\Sigma n_i = n$, is

$$
P(n; n_1, n_2, \dots n_k) = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_k!}
$$

Laws of Probability

Property 1. General Character of Probability

The probability *P*(*E*) of an event *E* is a real number in the range of 0 to 1. The probability of an impossible event is 0 and that of an event certain to occur is 1.

Property 2. Law of Total Probability

 $P(A + B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A, B)$, where

- $P(A + B) =$ the probability that either *A* or *B* occur alone or that both occur together,
- $P(A)$ = the probability that *A* occurs,
- $P(B)$ = the probability that *B* occurs, and
- $P(A, B)$ = the probability that both *A* and *B* occur simultaneously.

Property 3. Law of Compound or Joint Probability If neither $P(A)$ nor $P(B)$ is zero,

$$
P(A, B) = P(A)P(B | A) = P(B)P(A | B)
$$
, where

- $P(B | A)$ = the probability that *B* occurs given the fact that *A* has occurred, and
- $P(A | B)$ = the probability that *A* occurs given the fact that *B* has occurred.

If either $P(A)$ or $P(B)$ is zero, then $P(A, B) = 0$.

Probability Functions

A random variable *x* has a probability associated with each of its values. The probability is termed a discrete probability if *x* can assume only the discrete values

$$
x = X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_i, \ldots, X_N
$$

The *discrete probability* of the event $X = x_i$ occurring is defined as *P*(*Xi*).

Probability Density Functions

If *x* is continuous, then the *probability density function* $f(x)$ is defined so that

 $\int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx$ = the probability that *x* lies between x_1 and x_2 . $\int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx$

The probability is determined by defining the equation for $f(x)$ and integrating between the values of x required.

Probability Distribution Functions

The *probability distribution function* $F(X_n)$ of the discrete probability function $P(X_i)$ is defined by

$$
F(X_n) = \sum_{k=1}^n P(X_k) = P(X_i \le X_n)
$$

When *x* is continuous, the *probability distribution function* $F(x)$ is defined by

$$
F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t)dt
$$

which implies that $F(a)$ is the probability that $x \le a$.

The *expected value* $g(x)$ of any function is defined as

$$
E\{g(x)\}=\int_{-\infty}^{x}g(t)f(t)dt
$$

Binomial Distribution

P(*x*) is the probability that *x* will occur in *n* trials. If $p =$ probability of success and $q =$ probability of failure = $1 - p$, then

$$
P(x) = C(n,x)p^{x}q^{n-x} = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!}p^{x}q^{n-x}
$$
, where

 $x = 0, 1, 2, ..., n$

 $C(n, x)$ = the number of combinations, and

 n, p = parameters.

Normal Distribution (Gaussian Distribution)

This is a unimodal distribution, the mode being $x = \mu$, with two points of inflection (each located at a distance σ to either side of the mode). The averages of *n* observations tend to become normally distributed as *n* increases. The variate x is said to be normally distributed if its density function $f(x)$ is given by an expression of the form

$$
f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}
$$
, where

 μ = the population mean,

 σ = the standard deviation of the population, and

ñ∞ ≤ *x* ≤ ∞

When $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = \sigma = 1$, the distribution is called a *standardized* or *unit normal* distribution. Then

$$
f(x) = {1 \over \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}
$$
, where $-\infty \le x \le \infty$.

A unit normal distribution table is included at the end of this section. In the table, the following notations are utilized:

 $F(x)$ = the area under the curve from $-\infty$ to *x*,

 $R(x)$ = the area under the curve from *x* to ∞ , and

 $W(x)$ = the area under the curve between $-x$ and *x*.

Dispersion, Mean, Median, and Mode Values

If X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n represent the values of *n* items or observations, the *arithmetic mean* of these items or observations, denoted \overline{X} , is defined as

$$
\overline{X} = (1/n)(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) = (1/n)\sum_{i=1}^n X_i
$$

 $\overline{X} \rightarrow \mu$ for sufficiently large values of *n*.

The *weighted arithmetic mean* is

$$
\overline{X}_w = \frac{\sum w_i X_i}{\sum w_i}
$$
, where

 \overline{X}_w = the weighted arithmetic mean,

 X_i = the values of the observations to be averaged, and

 w_i = the weight applied to the X_i value.

The *variance* of the observations is the *arithmetic mean* of the *squared deviations from the population mean*. In symbols, $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ represent the values of the *n* sample observations of a *population of size N*. If μ is the arithmetic mean of the population, the *population variance* is defined by

$$
\sigma^{2} = (1/N)[(X_{1} - \mu)^{2} + (X_{2} - \mu)^{2} + ... + (X_{N} - \mu)^{2}]
$$

= $(1/N)\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_{i} - \mu)^{2}$

The *standard deviation* of a population is

$$
\sigma = \sqrt{(1/N)\sum (X_i - \mu)^2}
$$

The *sample variance* is

$$
s^{2} = [1/(n-1)] \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \overline{X})^{2}
$$

The *sample standard deviation* is

$$
s = \sqrt{\left[\frac{1}{n-1}\right]_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \overline{X})^2}
$$

The *coefficient of variation* = $CV = s/\overline{X}$

The *geometric mean* = $\sqrt[n]{X_1 X_2 X_3 \dots X_n}$

The *root-mean-square value* = $\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum X_i^2}$

The *median* is defined as the *value of the middle item* when the data are *rank-ordered* and the number of items is *odd*. The *median* is the *average of the middle two items* when the rank-ordered data consists of an *even* number of items.

The *mode* of a set of data is the *value that occurs with greatest frequency*.

t-Distribution

The variate *t* is defined as the quotient of two independent variates *x* and *r* where *x is unit normal* and *r is the root mean square* of *n* other independent *unit normal variates*; that is,

 $t = x/r$. The following is the *t*-distribution with *n* degrees of freedom:

$$
f(t) = \frac{\Gamma[(n+1)]/2}{\Gamma(n/2)\sqrt{n\pi}} \frac{1}{(1+t^2/n)^{(n+1)/2}}
$$

where $-\infty \le t \le \infty$.

A table at the end of this section gives the values of $t_{\alpha,n}$ for values of α and n . Note that in view of the symmetry of the *t*-distribution,

 $t_{1-\alpha,n} = -t_{\alpha,n}$. The function for α follows:

$$
\alpha = \int_{t_{\alpha,n}}^{\infty} f(t) dt
$$

A table showing probability and density functions is included on page [149](#page-153-0) in the **INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERING SECTION** of this handbook.

GAMMA FUNCTION

 $\Gamma(n) = \int_0^\infty t^{n-1} e^{-t} dt, \quad n > 0$

CONFIDENCE INTERVALS

Confidence Interval for the Mean µ of a Normal Distribution

(a) Standard deviation σ is known

$$
\overline{X} - Z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \le \mu \le \overline{X} + Z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}
$$

(b) Standard deviation σ is not known

$$
\overline{X} - t_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \le \mu \le \overline{X} + t_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}
$$

where $t_{\alpha/2}$ corresponds to n – 1 degrees of freedom.

Confidence Interval for the Difference Between Two Means μ_1 and μ_2

(a) Standard deviations σ_1 and σ_2 known

$$
\overline{X}_1 - \overline{X}_2 - Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{{\sigma_1}^2}{n_1} + \frac{{\sigma_2}^2}{n_2}} \le \mu_1 - \mu_2 \le \overline{X}_1 - \overline{X}_2 + Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{{\sigma_1}^2}{n_1} + \frac{{\sigma_2}^2}{n_2}}
$$

(b) Standard deviations σ_1 and σ_2 are not known

$$
\overline{X}_{1} - \overline{X}_{2} - t_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\left(\frac{1}{n_{1}} + \frac{1}{n_{2}}\right) \left[(n-1)S_{1}^{2} + (n_{2} - 1)S_{2}^{2}\right]}{n_{1} + n_{2} - 2}} \leq \mu_{1} - \mu_{2} \leq \overline{X}_{1} - \overline{X}_{2} - t_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\left(\frac{1}{n_{1}} + \frac{1}{n_{2}}\right) \left[(n-1)S_{1}^{2} + (n_{2} - 1)S_{2}^{2}\right]}{n_{1} + n_{2} - 2}}
$$

where $t_{\alpha/2}$ corresponds to $n_1 + n_2 - 2$ degrees of freedom.

10

UNIT NORMAL DISTRIBUTION TABLE

*t***-DISTRIBUTION TABLE**

VALUES OF $t_{\alpha n}$

DIFFERENTIAL CALCULUS

The Derivative

For any function $y = f(x)$,

the derivative
$$
= D_x y = dy/dx = y'
$$

$$
y' = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} [(\Delta y)/(\Delta x)]
$$

$$
= \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \{ [f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)]/(\Delta x) \}
$$

 y' = the slope of the curve $f(x)$.

Test for a Maximum

$$
y = f(x)
$$
 is a maximum for

$$
x = a
$$
, if $f'(a) = 0$ and $f''(a) < 0$.

Test for a Minimum

 $y = f(x)$ is a minimum for

$$
x = a
$$
, if $f'(a) = 0$ and $f''(a) > 0$.

Test for a Point of Inflection

 $y = f(x)$ has a point of inflection at $x = a$,

if
$$
f''(a) = 0
$$
, and

if $f''(x)$ changes sign as *x* increases through $x = a$.

The Partial Derivative

In a function of two independent variables *x* and *y*, a derivative with respect to one of the variables may be found if the other variable is *assumed* to remain constant. If *y is kept fixed*, the function

$$
z = f(x, y)
$$

becomes a function of the *single variable x*, and its derivative (if it exists) can be found. This derivative is called the *partial derivative of z with respect to x*. The partial derivative with respect to *x* is denoted as follows:

$$
\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x}
$$

The Curvature of Any Curve

♦

The curvature K of a curve at P is the limit of its average curvature for the arc *PQ* as *Q* approaches *P*. This is also expressed as: the curvature of a curve at a given point is the rate-of-change of its inclination with respect to its arc length.

$$
K = \lim_{\Delta s \to 0} \frac{\Delta \alpha}{\Delta s} = \frac{d\alpha}{ds}
$$

Curvature in Rectangular Coordinates

$$
K = \frac{y''}{[1 + (y')^2]^{3/2}}
$$

When it may be easier to differentiate the function with respect to *y* rather than *x*, the notation x' will be used for the derivative.

$$
x' = dx/dy
$$

$$
K = \frac{-x''}{\left[1 + (x')^2\right]^{3/2}}
$$

The Radius of Curvature

The *radius of curvature R* at any point on a curve is defined as the absolute value of the reciprocal of the curvature *K* at that point.

$$
R = \frac{1}{|K|} \qquad (K \neq 0)
$$

$$
R = \frac{\left| \left[1 + (y')^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}}{|y''|} \qquad (y'' \neq 0)
$$

L'Hospital's Rule (L'Hôpital's Rule)

If the fractional function $f(x)/g(x)$ assumes one of the indeterminate forms $0/0$ or ∞/∞ (where α is finite or infinite), then

$$
\lim_{x\to\alpha}f(x)/g(x)
$$

is equal to the first of the expressions

$$
\lim_{x \to \alpha} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}, \lim_{x \to \alpha} \frac{f''(x)}{g''(x)}, \lim_{x \to \alpha} \frac{f'''(x)}{g'''(x)}
$$

which is not indeterminate, provided such first indicated limit exists.

INTEGRAL CALCULUS

The definite integral is defined as:

$$
\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x_i = \int_a^b f(x) dx
$$

Also, $\Delta x_i \rightarrow 0$ for all *i*.

A table of derivatives and integrals is available on page [15.](#page-19-0) The integral equations can be used along with the following methods of integration:

- A. Integration by Parts (integral equation #6),
- B. Integration by Substitution, and
- C. Separation of Rational Fractions into Partial Fractions.

[♦] Wade, Thomas L., *Calculus*, Copyright © 1953 by Ginn & Company. Diagram reprinted by permission of Simon & Schuster Publishers.

DERIVATIVES AND INDEFINITE INTEGRALS

In these formulas, *u*, *v*, and *w* represent functions of *x*. Also, *a*, *c*, and *n* represent constants. All arguments of the trigonometric functions are in radians. A constant of integration should be added to the integrals. To avoid terminology difficulty, the following definitions are followed: arcsin $u = \sin^{-1} u$, $(\sin u)^{-1} = 1/\sin u$.

$$
1. \quad dc/dx = 0
$$

- 2. $dx/dx = 1$
- 3. $d(cu)/dx = c \ du/dx$
- 4. $d(u + v w)/dx = du/dx + dv/dx dw/dx$
- 5. $d(uv)/dx = u dv/dx + v du/dx$
- 6. *d*(*uvw*)/ $dx = uv \frac{dw}{dx} + uw \frac{dv}{dx} + vw \frac{du}{dx}$

$$
7. \qquad \frac{d(u/v)}{dx} = \frac{v \, du/dx - u \, dv/dx}{v^2}
$$

- 8. $d(u^n)/dx = nu^{n-1} du/dx$
- 9. *d*[*f*(*u*)]/ $dx = \{d[f(u)]/du\}$ *du/dx*
- 10. *du/dx* = 1*/*(*dx/du*)

11.
$$
\frac{d(\log_a u)}{dx} = (\log_a e) \frac{1}{u} \frac{du}{dx}
$$

12.
$$
\frac{d(\ln u)}{dx} = \frac{1}{u} \frac{du}{dx}
$$

13.
$$
\frac{d(a^u)}{dx} = (\ln a) a^u \frac{du}{dx}
$$

- 14. $d(e^u)/dx = e^u du/dx$
- 15. $d(u^v)/dx = vu^{v-1} du/dx + (\ln u) u^v dv/dx$
- 16. $d(\sin u)/dx = \cos u \ du/dx$
- 17. $d(\cos u)/dx = -\sin u \ du/dx$ 18. $d(\tan u)/dx = \sec^2 u \ du/dx$
- 19. $d(\cot u)/dx = -\csc^2 u \ du/dx$
- 20. *d*(sec *u*)/ dx = sec *u* tan *u du*/ dx
- 21. $d(\csc u)/dx = -\csc u \cot u \ du/dx$

22.
$$
\frac{d(\sin^{-1}u)}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \frac{du}{dx} \qquad \left(-\pi/2 \le \sin^{-1}u \le \pi/2\right)
$$

23.
$$
\frac{d(\cos^{-1}u)}{dx} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \frac{du}{dx}
$$
 $(0 \le \cos^{-1} u \le \pi)$

24.
$$
\frac{d(\tan^{-1}u)}{dx} = \frac{1}{1+u^2}\frac{du}{dx} \qquad \left(-\frac{\pi}{2} < \tan^{-1}u < \frac{\pi}{2}\right)
$$

25.
$$
\frac{d(\cot^{-1}u)}{dx} = -\frac{1}{1+u^2}\frac{du}{dx}
$$
 $(0 < \cot^{-1}u < \pi)$

26.
$$
\frac{d(\sec^{-1}u)}{dx} = \frac{1}{u\sqrt{u^2 - 1}} \frac{du}{dx}
$$

$$
(0 \le \sec^{-1}u < \pi/2)(-\pi \le \sec^{-1}u < -\pi/2)
$$

27.
$$
\frac{d(\csc^{-1}u)}{dx} = -\frac{1}{u\sqrt{u^2 - 1}} \frac{du}{dx}
$$

$$
(0 < \csc^{-1}u \le \pi/2)(-\pi < \csc^{-1}u \le -\pi/2)
$$

5.11.
$$
\int df(x) = f(x)
$$

\n2. $\int dx = x$
\n3. $\int af(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx$
\n4. $\int [u(x) \pm v(x)] dx = \int u(x) dx \pm \int v(x) dx$
\n5. $\int x^m dx = \frac{x^{m+1}}{m+1}$ (*m* ≠ -1)
\n6. $\int u(x) dv(x) = u(x) v(x) - \int v(x) du(x)$
\n7. $\int \frac{dx}{ax + b} = \frac{1}{a} \ln |ax + b|$
\n8. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x}} = 2\sqrt{x}$
\n9. $\int a^x dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln a}$
\n10. $\int \sin x dx = -\cos x$
\n11. $\int \cos x dx = \sin x$
\n12. $\int \sin^2 x dx = \frac{x}{2} - \frac{\sin 2x}{4}$
\n13. $\int \cos^2 x dx = \frac{x}{2} + \frac{\sin 2x}{4}$
\n14. $\int x \sin x dx = \sin x - x \cos x$
\n15. $\int x \cos x dx = \cos x + x \sin x$
\n16. $\int \sin x \cos x dx = (\sin^2 x)/2$
\n17. $\int \sin ax \cos bx dx = -\frac{\cos(a - b)x}{2(a - b)} - \frac{\cos(a + b)x}{2(a + b)}$ ($a^2 \neq b^2$)
\n18. $\int \tan x dx = -\ln |\cos x| = \ln |\sec x|$
\n19. $\int \cot x dx = -\ln |\csc x| = \ln |\sin x|$
\n20. $\int \tan^2 x dx = \tan x - x$
\n21. $\int \cot^2 x dx = -\cot x - x$
\n22. $\int e^{ax} dx = (1/a) e^{ax}$
\n23. $\int xe^{ax} dx = (1/a) e^{ax}$
\n24. $\int \ln x dx = x \ln |x|$
\n25. $\int \frac{dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{a}$
\n26. $\int \$

27b.
$$
\int \frac{dx}{ax^2 + bx + c} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}} \ln \left| \frac{2ax + b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2ax + b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}} \right|
$$

(b² - 4ac > 0)
27c.
$$
\int \frac{dx}{ax^2 + bx + c} = -\frac{2}{2ax + b}, \qquad (b^2 - 4ac = 0)
$$

MENSURATION OF AREAS AND VOLUMES

♦

Nomenclature

- $A =$ total surface area
- *P* = perimeter
- $V =$ volume

Parabola

Ellipse

where

 $\lambda = (a - b)/(a + b)$

Circular Segment

Circular Sector

♦

Sphere

♦

◆ Gieck, K. & Gieck R., *Engineering Formulas*, 6th Ed., Copyright © 1967 by Gieck Publishing. Diagrams reprinted by permission of Kurt Gieck.

MENSURATION OF AREAS AND VOLUMES

♦

Regular Polygon (*n* equal sides)

♦

Right Circular Cone

$$
= \pi r \left(r + \sqrt{r^2 + h^2} \right)
$$

$$
A_x: A_b = x^2: h^2
$$

Right Circular Cylinder

$$
V = \pi r^2 h = \frac{\pi d^2 h}{4}
$$

 $A =$ side area + end areas = $2\pi r(h + r)$

Paraboloid of Revolution

♦ Gieck, K. & R. Gieck, *Engin*e*ering Formulas*, 6th Ed., Copyright 8 1967 by Gieck Publishing. Diagrams reprinted by permission of Kurt Gieck.

CENTROIDS AND MOMENTS OF INERTIA

The *location of the centroid of an area*, bounded by the axes and the function $y = f(x)$, can be found by integration.

$$
x_c = \frac{\int x dA}{A}
$$

$$
y_c = \frac{\int y dA}{A}
$$

$$
A = \int f(x) dx
$$

$$
dA = f(x) dx = g(y) dy
$$

The *first moment of area* with respect to the *y*-axis and the *x*-axis, respectively, are:

$$
M_y = f x dA = x_c A
$$

$$
M_x = f y dA = y_c A
$$

when either \bar{x} or \bar{y} is of finite dimensions then $\int x dA$ or $\int y dA$ refer to the centroid *x* or *y* of *dA* in these integrals. The *moment of inertia* (*second moment of area*) with respect to the *y*-axis and the *x*-axis, respectively, are:

$$
I_y = f x^2 dA
$$

$$
I_x = f y^2 dA
$$

The moment of inertia taken with respect to an axis passing through the area's centroid is the *centroidal moment of inertia*. The *parallel axis theorem* for the moment of inertia with respect to another axis parallel with and located *d* units from the centroidal axis is expressed by

$$
I_{\text{parallel axis}} = I_c + Ad^2
$$

In a plane, $J = \int r^2 dA = I_x + I_y$

Values for standard shapes are presented in a table in the **DYNAMICS** section.

DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

A common class of ordinary linear differential equations is

$$
b_n \frac{d^n y(x)}{dx^n} + \ldots + b_1 \frac{dy(x)}{dx} + b_0 y(x) = f(x)
$$

where b_n , ..., b_i , ..., b_1 , b_0 are constants.

When the equation is a homogeneous differential equation, $f(x) = 0$, the solution is

$$
y_h(x) = C_1 e^{r_i x} + C_2 e^{r_2 x} + \ldots + C_i e^{r_i x} + \ldots + C_n e^{r_n x}
$$

where r_n is the *n*th distinct root of the characteristic polynomial *P*(*x*) with

$$
P(r) = b_n r^n + b_{n-1} r^{n-1} + \dots + b_1 r + b_0
$$

If the root $r_1 = r_2$, then $C_2 e^{r_2 x}$ is replaced with $C_2 x e^{r_1 x}$.

Higher orders of multiplicity imply higher powers of *x*. The complete solution for the differential equation is

$$
y(x) = y_h(x) + y_p(x),
$$

where $y_p(x)$ is any solution with $f(x)$ present. If $f(x)$ has $e^{r_n x}$ terms, then resonance is manifested. Furthermore, specific $f(x)$ forms result in specific $y_p(x)$ forms, some of which are:

If the independent variable is time *t*, then transient dynamic solutions are implied.

First-Order Linear Homogeneous Differential Equations With Constant Coefficients

 $y' + ay = 0$, where *a* is a real constant:

Solution,
$$
y = Ce^{-at}
$$

where $C = a$ constant that satisfies the initial conditions.

First-Order Linear Nonhomogeneous Differential Equations

$$
\tau \frac{dy}{dt} + y = Kx(t) \qquad x(t) = \begin{cases} A & t < 0 \\ B & t > 0 \end{cases}
$$

$$
y(0) = KA
$$

 τ is the time constant

K is the gain

The solution is

$$
y(t) = KA + (KB - KA) \left(1 - \exp\left(\frac{-t}{\tau}\right) \right) \text{ or}
$$

$$
\frac{t}{\tau} = \ln \left[\frac{KB - KA}{KB - y} \right]
$$

Second-Order Linear Homogeneous Differential Equations with Constant Coefficients

An equation of the form

$$
y'' + 2ay' + by = 0
$$

can be solved by the method of undetermined coefficients where a solution of the form $y = Ce^{rx}$ is sought. Substitution of this solution gives

$$
(r^2+2ar+b)\ Ce^{rx}=0
$$

and since Ce^{rx} cannot be zero, the characteristic equation must vanish or

$$
r^2 + 2ar + b = 0
$$

The roots of the characteristic equation are

$$
r_{1,2} = -a \pm \sqrt{a^2 - b}
$$

and can be real and distinct for $a^2 > b$, real and equal for $a^2 = b$, and complex for $a^2 < b$.

If $a^2 > b$, the solution is of the form (overdamped)

$$
y = C_1 e^{r_1 x} + C_2 e^{r_2 x}
$$

If $a^2 = b$, the solution is of the form (critically damped)

$$
y = (C_1 + C_2 x)e^{r_1 x}
$$

If $a^2 < b$, the solution is of the form (underdamped)

$$
y = e^{\alpha x} (C_1 \cos \beta x + C_2 \sin \beta x), \text{ where}
$$

\n
$$
\alpha = -a
$$

\n
$$
\beta = \sqrt{b - a^2}
$$

FOURIER SERIES

Every function $F(t)$ which has the period $\tau = 2\pi/\omega$ and satisfies certain continuity conditions can be represented by a series plus a constant.

$$
F(t) = a_0/2 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos(n\omega t) + b_n \sin(n\omega t)]
$$

The above equation holds if $F(t)$ has a continuous derivative $F'(t)$ for all *t*. Multiply both sides of the equation by cos *m*ω*t* and integrate from 0 to τ.

$$
\int_0^{\tau} F(t) \cos(m\omega t) dt = \int_0^{\tau} (a_0/2) \cos(m\omega t) dt
$$

$$
\int_0^{\tau} F(t) \cos(m\omega t) dt = \int_0^{\tau} (a_0/2) \cos(m\omega t) dt
$$

+
$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \int_0^{\tau} \cos(m\omega t) \cos(m\omega t) dt
$$

+
$$
b_n \int_0^{\tau} \sin(m\omega t) \cos(m\omega t) dt]
$$

Term-by-term integration of the series can be justified if *F*(*t*) is continuous. The *coefficients* are

> $a_n = (2/\tau) \int_0^{\tau} F(t) \cos(n\omega t) dt$ and $b_n = (2/\tau) \int_0^{\tau} F(t) \sin(n\omega t) dt$, where

 $\tau = 2\pi/\omega$. The constants a_n , b_n are the *Fourier coefficients* of *F(t)* for the interval 0 to τ , and the corresponding series is called the *Fourier series* of *F*(*t*) over the same interval. The integrals have the same value over any interval of length τ .

If a Fourier series representing a periodic function is truncated after term $n = N$, the mean square value F_N^2 of the truncated series is given by the Parseval relation. This relation says that the mean square value is the sum of the mean square values of the Fourier components, or

$$
F_N^2 = (a_0/2)^2 + (1/2) \sum_{n=1}^N (a_n^2 + b_n^2)
$$

and the RMS value is then defined to be the square root of this quantity or F_N .

FOURIER TRANSFORM

The Fourier transform pair, one form of which is

$$
F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt
$$

$$
f(t) = [1/(2\pi)] \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega
$$

can be used to characterize a broad class of signal models in terms of their frequency or spectral content. Some useful transform pairs are:

Some mathematical liberties are required to obtain the second and fourth form. Other Fourier transforms are derivable from the Laplace transform by replacing *s* with j^ω provided

$$
f(t) = 0, t < 0
$$

$$
\int_0^\infty |f(t)| dt < \infty
$$

LAPLACE TRANSFORMS

The unilateral Laplace transform pair

$$
F(s) = \int_0^\infty f(t) e^{-st} dt
$$

$$
f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_0^{\sigma + i\infty} F(s) e^{st} dt
$$

represents a powerful tool for the transient and frequency response of linear time invariant systems. Some useful Laplace transform pairs are [Note: The last two transforms represent the Final Value Theorem (F.V.T.) and Initial Value Theorem (I.V.T.) respectively. It is assumed that the limits exist.]:

DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS

Difference equations are used to model discrete systems. Systems which can be described by difference equations include computer program variables iteratively evaluated in a loop, sequential circuits, cash flows, recursive processes, systems with time-delay components, etc. Any system whose input $v(t)$ and output $v(t)$ are defined only at the equally spaced intervals $t = kT$ can be described by a difference equation.

 α_n

First-Order Linear Difference Equation

The difference equation

$$
P_k = P_{k-1}(1+i) - A
$$

represents the balance *P* of a loan after the *k*th payment *A*. If P_k is defined as $y(k)$, the model becomes

$$
y(k) - (1 + i) y(k - 1) = -A
$$

Second-Order Linear Difference Equation

The Fibonacci number sequence can be generated by

$$
y(k) = y(k-1) + y(k-2)
$$

where $y(-1) = 1$ and $y(-2) = 1$. An alternate form for this model is $f(k + 2) = f(k + 1) + f(k)$

with
$$
f(0) = 1
$$
 and $f(1) = 1$.

z-Transforms

The transform definition is

$$
F(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f(k) z^{-k}
$$

The inverse transform is given by the contour integral

$$
f(k) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\Gamma} F(z) z^{k-1} dz
$$

and it represents a powerful tool for solving linear shift invariant difference equations. A limited unilateral list of *z*transform pairs follows [Note: The last two transform pairs represent the Initial Value Theorem (I.V.T.) and the Final Value Theorem (F.V.T.) respectively.]:

NUMERICAL METHODS

Newton's Method of Root Extraction

Given a polynomial $P(x)$ with *n* simple roots, $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ where

$$
P(x) = \prod_{m=1}^{n} (x - a_m)
$$

= $x^{n} + \alpha_1 x^{n-1} + \alpha_2 x^{n-2} + ... + \alpha_n$

and $P(a_i) = 0$. A root a_i can be computed by the iterative algorithm

$$
a_i^{j+1} = a_i^j - \frac{P(x)}{\partial P(x)/\partial x}\bigg|_{x=a_i^j}
$$

with $|P(a_i^{j+1})| \leq |P(a_i^{j})|$ Convergence is quadratic.

Newton's method may also be used for any function with a continuous first derivative.

Newton's Method of Minimization

Given a scalar value function

$$
h(x) = h(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)
$$

find a vector
$$
x^* \in R_n
$$
 such that

 $h(x^*) \leq h(x)$ for all *x*

Newton's algorithm is

$$
x_{K+I} = x_K - \left(\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x^2}\bigg|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_K}\right)^{-1} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}\bigg|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_K}, \text{ where}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial h}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}
$$

and

$$
\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_1^2} = \begin{bmatrix}\n\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\
\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} & \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} & \cdots & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_n^2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots \\
\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} & \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x_n^2}\n\end{bmatrix}
$$

Numerical Integration

Three of the more common numerical integration algorithms used to evaluate the integral

$$
\int_a^b f(x) dx
$$

are:

Euler's or Forward Rectangular Rule

$$
\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \Delta x \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(a + k\Delta x)
$$

Trapezoidal Rule

for $n = 1$

$$
\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \Delta x \left[\frac{f(a) + f(b)}{2} \right]
$$

for $n > 1$

$$
\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \frac{\Delta x}{2} \bigg[f(a) + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f(a + k\Delta x) + f(b) \bigg]
$$

Simpson's Rule/Parabolic Rule (*n* must be an even integer) for $n = 2$

$$
\int_a^b f(x)dx \approx \left(\frac{b-a}{6}\right) \left[f(a) + 4f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) + f(b)\right]
$$

for $n \geq 4$

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \frac{\Delta x}{3} \left[f(a) + 2 \sum_{k=2,4,6,...}^{n-2} f(a + k\Delta x) \right] + 4 \sum_{k=1,3,5,...}^{n-1} f(a + k\Delta x) + f(b)
$$

with $\Delta x = (b - a)/n$

Numerical Solution of Ordinary Differential Equations

Euler's Approximation

Given a differential equation

$$
dx/dt = f(x, t)
$$
 with $x(0) = x_o$

At some general time *k*∆*t*

$$
x[(k+1)\Delta t] \cong x(k\Delta t) + \Delta t f[x(k\Delta t), k\Delta t]
$$

which can be used with starting condition x_o to solve recursively for $x(\Delta t)$, $x(2\Delta t)$, \dots , $x(n\Delta t)$.

The method can be extended to *n*th order differential equations by recasting them as *n* first-order equations.

In particular, when $dx/dt = f(x)$

$$
x[(k+1)\Delta t] \cong x(k\Delta t) + \Delta t f[x(k\Delta t)]
$$

which can be expressed as the recursive equation

$$
x_{k+1} = x_k + \Delta t \left(dx_k / dt \right)
$$

FORCE

A *force* is a *vector* quantity. It is defined when its **(1)** magnitude, **(2)** point of application, and **(3)** direction are known.

RESULTANT (TWO DIMENSIONS)

The *resultant*, *F*, of *n* forces with components $F_{x,i}$ and $F_{y,i}$ has the magnitude of

$$
F=\!\!\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n F_{x,i}\right)^2+\! \left(\sum_{i=1}^n F_{y,i}\right)^2\right]^{\!\!V\!\!}_\!\!2
$$

The resultant direction with respect to the *x*-axis using fourquadrant angle functions is

$$
\theta = \arctan\bigg(\sum_{i=1}^{n} F_{y,i} / \sum_{i=1}^{n} F_{x,i}\bigg)
$$

The vector form of the force is

$$
\boldsymbol{F} = F_x \, \mathbf{i} + F_y \, \mathbf{j}
$$

RESOLUTION OF A FORCE

 $F_x = F \cos \theta_x$; $F_y = F \cos \theta_y$; $F_z = F \cos \theta_z$ $\cos \theta_x = F_x/F$; $\cos \theta_y = F_y/F$; $\cos \theta_z = F_z/F$ Separating a force into components (geometry of force is

known $R = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ $F_x = (x/R)F$; $F_y = (y/R)F$; $F_z = (z/R)F$

MOMENTS (COUPLES)

A system of two forces that are equal in magnitude, opposite in direction, and parallel to each other is called a *couple*.

A *moment M* is defined as the cross product of the *radius vector* distance *r* and the *force F* from a point to the line of action of the force.

$$
M = r \times F; \qquad M_x = yF_z - zF_y,
$$

$$
M_y = zF_x - xF_z, \text{ and}
$$

$$
M_z = xF_y - yF_x.
$$

SYSTEMS OF FORCES

$$
F = \sum F_n
$$

$$
M = \sum (r_n \times F_n)
$$

Equilibrium Requirements

 $\sum \boldsymbol{F}_n = 0$ $\sum M_n = 0$

CENTROIDS OF MASSES, AREAS, LENGTHS, AND VOLUMES

Formulas for centroids, moments of inertia, and first moment of areas are presented in the **MATHEMATICS** section for continuous functions. The following discrete formulas are for defined regular masses, areas, lengths, and volumes:

$$
r_c = \sum m_n r_n / \sum m_n
$$
, where

 m_n = the *mass of each particle* making up the system,

- r_n = the *radius vector* to each particle from a selected reference point, and
- r_c = the *radius vector* to the *center of the total mass* from the selected reference point.

The *moment of area* (*Ma*) is defined as

$$
M_{ay} = \sum x_n a_n
$$

$$
M_{ax} = \sum y_n a_n
$$

$$
M_{az} = \sum z_n a_n
$$

The *centroid of area* is defined as

$$
x_{ac} = M_{ay}/A
$$
 with respect to center

$$
y_{ac} = M_{ax}/A
$$
 of the coordinate system

$$
z_{ac} = M_{az}/A
$$

where $A = \sum a_n$

The *centroid of a line* is defined as

$$
x_{lc} = (\Sigma x_n l_n)/L, \text{ where } L = \Sigma l_n
$$

$$
y_{lc} = (\Sigma y_n l_n)/L
$$

$$
z_{lc} = (\Sigma z_n l_n)/L
$$

The *centroid of volume* is defined as

$$
x_{vc} = (\Sigma x_n v_n) / V, \text{ where } V = \Sigma v_n
$$

$$
y_{vc} = (\Sigma y_n v_n) / V
$$

$$
z_{vc} = (\Sigma z_n v_n) / V
$$

MOMENT OF INERTIA

The *moment of inertia*, or the second moment of

area, is defined as

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

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

The *polar moment of inertia J* of an area about a point is equal to the sum of the moments of inertia of the area about any two perpendicular axes in the area and passing through the same point.

$$
I_z = J = I_y + I_x = f(x^2 + y^2) dA
$$

= $r_p^2 A$, where

 r_p = the *radius of gyration* (see page [23\)](#page-27-0).

Moment of Inertia Transfer Theorem

The moment of inertia of an area about any axis is defined as the moment of inertia of the area about a parallel centroidal axis plus a term equal to the area multiplied by the square of the perpendicular distance *d* from the centroidal axis to the axis in question.

$$
I'_x = I_{x_c} + d_x^2 A
$$

$$
I'_y = I_{y_c} + d_y^2 A
$$
, where

 d_x , d_y = distance between the two axes in question,

 I_{x_c} , I_{y_c} = the moment of inertia about the centroidal axis, and I'_x , I'_y = the moment of inertia about the new axis.

Radius of Gyration

The *radius of gyration* r_p , r_x , r_y is the distance from a reference axis at which all of the area can be considered to be concentrated to produce the moment of inertia.

$$
r_x = \sqrt{I_x/A}; \quad r_y = \sqrt{I_y/A}; \quad r_p = \sqrt{J/A}
$$

Product of Inertia

The *product of inertia* (*Ixy*, etc.) is defined as:

 $I_{xy} = fxydA$, with respect to the *xy*-coordinate system,

 $I_{xz} = \int xz dA$, with respect to the *xz*-coordinate system, and

 $I_{yz} = \int yz dA$, with respect to the *yz*-coordinate system.

The *transfer theorem* also applies:

 $I'_{xy} = I_{x_c y_c} + d_x d_y A$ for the *xy*-coordinate system, etc.

where

 $d_x = x$ -axis distance between the two axes in question, and

 $d_v = y$ -axis distance between the two axes in question.

FRICTION

The largest frictional force is called the *limiting friction*. Any further increase in applied forces will cause motion.

 $F = \mu N$, where

 $F =$ friction force,

µ = *coefficient of static friction*, and

 $N =$ normal force between surfaces in contact.

SCREW THREAD

For a *screw-jack*, *square thread*,

 $M = Pr \tan (\alpha \pm \phi)$, where

- + is for screw tightening,
- $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ is for screw loosening,
- $M =$ external moment applied to axis of screw,
- $P =$ load on jack applied along and on the line of the axis,
- $r =$ the mean thread radius,
- α = the *pitch angle* of the thread, and
- μ = tan ϕ = the appropriate coefficient of friction.

BRAKE-BAND OR BELT FRICTION

 $F_1 = F_2 e^{\mu \theta}$, where

- F_1 = force being applied in the direction of impending motion,
- $F₂$ = force applied to resist impending motion,
- μ = coefficient of static friction, and
- θ = the total *angle of contact* between the surfaces expressed in radians.

STATICALLY DETERMINATE TRUSS

Plane Truss

A plane truss is a rigid framework satisfying the following conditions:

- 1. The members of the truss lie in the same plane.
- 2. The members are connected at their ends by frictionless pins.
- 3. All of the external loads lie in the plane of the truss and are applied at the joints only.
- 4. The truss reactions and member forces can be determined using the equations of equilibrium.

Σ *F* = 0; Σ *M* = 0

5. A truss is statically indeterminate if the reactions and member forces cannot be solved with the equations of equilibrium.

Plane Truss: Method of Joints

The method consists of solving for the forces in the members by writing the two equilibrium equations for each joint of the truss.

$$
\Sigma F_V = 0
$$
 and $\Sigma F_H = 0$, where

 F_H = horizontal forces and member components and

 F_V = vertical forces and member components.

Plane Truss: Method of Sections

The method consists of drawing a free-body diagram of a portion of the truss in such a way that the unknown truss member force is exposed as an external force.

CONCURRENT FORCES

A system of forces wherein their lines of action all meet at one point.

Two Dimensions

 $\Sigma F_r = 0$; $\Sigma F_v = 0$

Three Dimensions

 $\Sigma F_x = 0$; $\Sigma F_y = 0$; $\Sigma F_z = 0$

DYNAMICS

KINEMATICS

Vector representation of motion in space: Let $r(t)$ be the position vector of a particle. Then the velocity is

 $v = dr/dt$, where

 $v =$ the instantaneous velocity of the particle, (length/time), and

 $t =$ time.

The acceleration is

$$
\mathbf{a} = d\mathbf{v}/dt = d^2\mathbf{r}/dt^2
$$
, where

 $a =$ the instantaneous acceleration of the particle, (length/time/time).

Rectangular Coordinates

$$
\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}
$$

\n
$$
\mathbf{v} = d\mathbf{r}/dt = \dot{x}\mathbf{i} + \dot{y}\mathbf{j} + \dot{z}\mathbf{k}
$$

\n
$$
\mathbf{a} = d^2\mathbf{r}/dt^2 = \ddot{x}\mathbf{i} + \ddot{y}\mathbf{j} + \ddot{z}\mathbf{k}
$$
, where
\n
$$
\dot{x} = dx/dt = v_x, \text{ etc.}
$$

\n
$$
\ddot{x} = d^2x/dt^2 = a_x, \text{ etc.}
$$

Transverse and Radial Components for Planar Problems

Unit vectors e_r and e_{θ} are, respectively, colinear with and normal to the position vector.

$$
\mathbf{r} = r\mathbf{e}_r
$$

\n
$$
\mathbf{v} = \dot{r}\mathbf{e}_r + r\dot{\theta}\mathbf{e}_{\theta}
$$

\n
$$
\mathbf{a} = (\ddot{r} - r\dot{\theta}^2)\mathbf{e}_r + (r\ddot{\theta} + 2\dot{r}\dot{\theta})\mathbf{e}_{\theta}
$$
, where

 $r =$ the radius,

 θ = the angle between the x-axis and r,

 $\dot{r} = dr/dt$, etc., and

$$
\ddot{r} = d^2r/dt^2
$$
, etc.

Tangential and Normal Components

Unit vectors e_n and e_t are, respectively, normal and tangent to the path.

$$
\mathbf{v} = v_t \mathbf{e}_t
$$

$$
\mathbf{a} = (dv_t/dt) \mathbf{e}_t + (v_t^2/\rho) \mathbf{e}_n
$$
 where

ρ = instantaneous radius of curvature, and

 v_t = tangential velocity.

Plane Circular Motion

Rotation about the origin with constant radius: The unit vectors are $e_t = e_\theta$ and $e_r = -e_n$.

Angular velocity

$$
\omega = \dot{\theta} = v_t/r
$$

Angular acceleration

$$
\alpha = \dot{\omega} = \ddot{\theta} = a_t / r
$$

$$
s = r \theta
$$

$$
v_t = r \omega
$$

Tangential acceleration

$$
a_t = r \alpha = dv_t/dt
$$

Normal acceleration

$$
a_n = v_t^2/r = r \omega^2
$$

Straight Line Motion

Constant acceleration equations:

$$
s = s_0 + v_0 t + (a_0 t^2) / 2
$$

\n
$$
v = v_0 + a_0 t
$$

\n
$$
v^2 = v_0^2 + 2a_0(s - s_0)
$$
, where

- *s* = distance along the line traveled,
- s_0 = an initial distance from origin (constant),
- v_0 = an initial velocity (constant),
- a_0 = a constant acceleration,
- $t =$ time, and
- $v =$ velocity at time *t*.

For a free-falling body, $a_0 = g$ (downward)

Using variable velocity, $v(t)$

$$
s = s_o + \int_0^t v(t) \, dt
$$

Using variable acceleration, *a*(*t*)

$$
v = v_o + \int_0^t a(t) \, dt
$$

PROJECTILE MOTION

CONCEPT OF WEIGHT

 $W = mg$, where

 $W =$ weight, N (lbf),

 $m = \text{mass}$, kg (lbf-sec²/ft), and

 $g =$ local acceleration of gravity, m/sec² (ft/sec²).

KINETICS

Newton's second law for a particle

 $\Sigma F = d(mv)/dt$, where

 $\Sigma F =$ the sum of the applied forces acting on the particle, N (lbf).

For a constant mass,

 $\Sigma F = mdv/dt = ma$

One-Dimensional Motion of Particle

When referring to motion in the *x*-direction,

$$
a_x = F_x/m
$$
, where

 F_x = the resultant of the applied forces in the *x*-direction. F_x can depend on *t*, *x* and v_x in general.

If F_x depends only on t , then

$$
v_x(t) = v_{xo} + \int_0^t [F_x(t')/m] dt'
$$

$$
x(t) = x_o + v_{xo}t + \int_0^t v_x(t') dt'
$$

If the force is constant (independent of time, displacement, or velocity),

$$
a_x = F_x / m
$$

\n
$$
v_x = v_{x0} + (F_x / m) t = v_{x0} + a_x t
$$

\n
$$
x = x_0 + v_{x0}t + F_x t^2 / (2m)
$$

\n
$$
= x_0 + v_{x0}t + a_x t^2 / 2
$$

Tangential and Normal Kinetics for Planar Problems

Working with the tangential and normal directions,

$$
\Sigma F_t = ma_t = mdv_t/dt \text{ and}
$$

$$
\Sigma F_n = ma_n = m (v_t^2/\rho)
$$

Impulse and Momentum

Assuming the mass is constant, the equation of motion is

$$
mdv_x/dt = F_x
$$

\n
$$
mdv_x = F_x dt
$$

\n
$$
m[v_x(t) - v_x(0)] = \int_0^t F_x(t')dt'
$$

The left side of the equation represents the change in linear momentum of a body or particle. The right side is termed the impulse of the force $F_x(t')$ between $t' = 0$ and $t' = t$.

Work and Energy

Work *W* is defined as

 $W = \int \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$

(For particle flow, see **FLUID MECHANICS** section.)

Kinetic Energy

The kinetic energy of a particle is the work done by an external agent in accelerating the particle from rest to a velocity *v*.

$$
T = mv^2 / 2
$$

In changing the velocity from v_1 to v_2 , the change in kinetic energy is

$$
T_2 - T_1 = m v_2^2 / 2 - m v_1^2 / 2
$$

Potential Energy

The work done by an external agent in the presence of a conservative field is termed the change in potential energy.

Potential Energy in Gravity Field

 $U = meh$, where

 h = the elevation above a specified datum.

Elastic Potential Energy

For a linear elastic spring with modulus, stiffness, or spring constant k , the force is

 $F_s = k x$, where

 $x =$ the change in length of the spring from the undeformed length of the spring.

The potential energy stored in the spring when compressed or extended by an amount *x* is

 $U = k x^2 / 2$

The change of potential energy in deforming a spring from position x_1 to position x_2 is

$$
U_2 - U_1 = k x_2^2 / 2 - k x_1^2 / 2
$$

Principle of Work and Energy

If *Ti* and *Ui* are kinetic energy and potential energy at state *i*, then for conservative systems (no energy dissipation), the law of conservation of energy is

 $U_1 + T_1 = U_2 + T_2.$

If nonconservative forces are present, then the work done by these forces must be accounted for.

 $U_1 + T_1 + W_{1\rightarrow 2} = U_2 + T_2$

(Care must be exercised during computations to correctly compute the algebraic sign of the work term).

Impact

Momentum is conserved while energy may or may not be conserved. For direct central impact with no external forces

$$
m_1\mathbf{v}_1 + m_2\mathbf{v}_2 = m_1\mathbf{v}_1' + m_2\mathbf{v}_2',
$$
 where

 m_1 , m_2 = the masses of the two bodies,

 v_1 , v_2 = their velocities before impact, and

 v'_1, v'_2 = their velocities after impact.

For impact with dissipation of energy, the relative velocity expression is

$$
e = \frac{v'_{2_n} - v'_{1_n}}{v_{1_n} - v_{2_n}}
$$
, where

 e = the coefficient of restitution for the materials, and the subscript *n* denotes the components normal to the plane of impact.

Knowing *e*, the velocities after rebound are

$$
v'_{1_n} = \frac{m_2 v_{2_n} (1+e) + (m_1 - em_2) v_{1_n}}{m_1 + m_2}
$$

$$
v'_2 = \frac{m_1 v_{1_n} (1+e) - (em_1 - m_2) v_{2_n}}{m_1 + m_2}
$$

where $0 \le e \le 1$,

 $e = 1$, perfectly elastic, and

 $e = 0$, perfectly plastic (no rebound).

FRICTION

The Laws of Friction are

- 1. The total friction force *F* that can be developed is independent of the magnitude of the area of contact.
- 2. The total friction force F that can be developed is proportional to the normal force *N*.
- 3. For low velocities of sliding, the total friction force that can be developed is practically independent of the velocity, although experiments show that the force *F* necessary to start sliding is greater than that necessary to maintain sliding.

The formula expressing the laws of friction is

 $F = \mu N$, where

 μ = the coefficient of friction.

Static friction will be less than or equal to $\mu_s N$, where μ_s is the coefficient of static friction. At the point of impending motion,

$$
F=\mu_s N
$$

When motion is present

 $F = \mu_k N$, where

 μ_k = the coefficient of kinetic friction. The value of μ_k is often taken to be 75% of µ*s*.

Belt friction is discussed in the **STATICS** section.

MASS MOMENT OF INERTIA

$$
I_z = f(x^2 + y^2) dm
$$

A table listing moment of inertia formulas is available at the end of this section for some standard shapes.

Parallel Axis Theorem

 $I_z = I_{zc} + md^2$, where

- I_z = the mass moment of inertia about a specific axis (in this case, the *z*-axis),
- I_{zc} = the mass moment of inertia about the body's mass center (in this case, parallel to the *z*-axis),
- $m =$ the mass of the body, and
- $d =$ the normal distance from the mass center to the specific axis desired (in this case, the *z*-axis).

Also,

$$
I_z = mr_z^2
$$
, where

- $m =$ the total mass of the body, and
- r_z = the radius of gyration (in this case, about the *z*axis).

PLANE MOTION OF A RIGID BODY

For a rigid body in plane motion in the *x*-*y* plane

$$
\Sigma F_x = ma_{xc}
$$

$$
\Sigma F_y = ma_{yc}
$$

$$
\Sigma M_{zc} = I_{zc} \alpha
$$
, where

 $c =$ the center of gravity, and

 α = angular acceleration of the body.

Rotation About a Fixed Axis

 $\Sigma M_O = I_O \alpha$, where

O denotes the axis about which rotation occurs.

For rotation about a fixed axis caused by a constant applied moment *M*

$$
\alpha = M/I
$$

\n
$$
\omega = \omega_0 + (M/I) t
$$

\n
$$
\theta = \theta_0 + \omega_0 t + (M/2I) t^2
$$

The change in kinetic energy of rotation is the work done in accelerating the rigid body from ω_0 to ω .

$$
I_O \omega^2 / 2 - I_O \omega_O^2 / 2 = \int_{\theta_O}^{\theta} M d\theta
$$

Kinetic Energy

The kinetic energy of a body in plane motion is

$$
T = m \left(v_{xc}^2 + v_{yc}^2\right)/2 + I_c \omega^2/2
$$

Instantaneous Center of Rotation

The instantaneous center of rotation for a body in plane motion is defined as that position about which all portions of that body are rotating.

 $AC\dot{\theta} = r\omega$, and

$$
v_b = BC\dot{\theta}
$$
, where

 $C =$ the instantaneous center of rotation,

 $\dot{\theta}$ = the rotational velocity about C, and

 AC , BC = radii determined by the geometry of the situation.

CENTRIFUGAL FORCE

For a rigid body (of mass *m*) rotating about a fixed axis, the centrifugal force of the body at the point of rotation is

$$
F_c = mr\omega^2 = mv^2/r
$$
, where

= the distance from the center of rotation to the center of the mass of the body.

BANKING OF CURVES (WITHOUT FRICTION)

tan θ = v^2 /(*gr*), where

- θ = the angle between the roadway surface and the horizontal,
- $v =$ the velocity of the vehicle, and
- the radius of the curve.

FREE VIBRATION

•

The equation of motion is

$$
m\ddot{x} = mg - k\big(x + \delta_{st}\big)
$$

From static equilibrium

$$
mg = k\delta_{st}
$$

where

- $k =$ the spring constant, and
- δ_{st} = the static deflection of the spring supporting the weight (*mg*).

The above equation of motion may now be rewritten as

$$
m\ddot{x} + kx = 0, \text{ or}
$$

$$
\ddot{x} + (k/m)x = 0.
$$

The solution to this differential equation is

$$
x(t) = C_1 \cos \sqrt{\left(\frac{k}{m}\right)} t + C_2 \sin \sqrt{\left(\frac{k}{m}\right)} t
$$
, where

 $x(t) =$ the displacement in the *x*-direction, and

 C_1 , C_2 = constants of integration whose values depend on the initial conditions of the problem.

The quantity $\sqrt{k/m}$ is called the undamped natural frequency ω_n or $\omega_n = \sqrt{k/m}$

[•] Timoshenko, S. and D.H. Young, *Engineering Mechanics*, Copyright © 1951 by McGraw-Hill Company, Inc. Diagrams reproduction permission pending.

From the static deflection relation

$$
\omega_n = \sqrt{g/\delta_{st}}
$$

The period of vibration is

$$
\tau = 2\pi/\omega_n = 2\pi\sqrt{m/k} = 2\pi\sqrt{\delta_{st}/g}
$$

If the initial conditions are $x(0) = x_0$ and $\dot{x}(0) = v_0$, then

$$
x(t) = x_0 \cos \omega_n t + (v_0/\omega_n) \sin \omega_n t
$$

If the initial conditions are $x(0) = x_0$ and $\dot{x}(0) = 0$, then

 $x(t) = x_0 \cos \omega_n t$,

which is the equation for simple harmonic motion where the amplitude of vibration is x_0 .

Torsional Free Vibration

 $\ddot{\theta} + \omega_0^2 \theta = 0$, where

$$
\omega_n = \sqrt{k_t/I} = \sqrt{GJ/IL},
$$

 k_t = the torsional spring constant = *GJ*/*L*,

 $I =$ the mass moment of inertia of the body,

 $G =$ the shear modulus,

- $J =$ the area polar moment of inertia of the round shaft cross section, and
- $L =$ the length of the round shaft.

The solution to the equation of motion is

$$
\theta = \theta_0 \cos \omega_n t + (\dot{\theta}_0 / \omega_n) \sin \omega_n t
$$
, where

 θ_0 = the initial angle of rotation and

 $\dot{\theta}_0$ = the initial angular velocity.

The undamped circular natural frequency of torsional vibration is

$$
\omega_n = \sqrt{GJ/IL}
$$

The period of torsional vibration is

$$
\tau = 2\pi/\omega_n = 2\pi\sqrt{IL/GJ}
$$

31

MECHANICS OF MATERIALS

UNIAXIAL STRESS-STRAIN

Stress-Strain Curve for Mild Steel

The slope of the linear portion of the curve equals the modulus of elasticity.

Engineering Strain

 $\varepsilon = \Delta L / L_0$, where

- ϵ = engineering strain (units per unit),
- ΔL = change in length (units) of member,
- L_0 = original length (units) of member,

 ε_{pl} = plastic deformation (permanent), and

ε*el* = elastic deformation (recoverable).

Equilibrium requirements: $\Sigma \vec{F} = 0$: $\Sigma \vec{M} = 0$

Determine geometric compatibility with the restraints. Use a linear force-deformation relationship;

 $F = k\delta$.

DEFINITIONS

Shear Stress-Strain

 $\gamma = \tau/G$, where

- γ = shear strain,
- τ = shear stress, and
- *G* = *shear modulus* (constant in linear force-deformation relationship).

$$
G = \frac{E}{2(1+v)},
$$
 where

 $E =$ modulus of elasticity

v = *Poisson's ratio*, and

 $=$ - (lateral strain)/(longitudinal strain).

Uniaxial Loading and Deformation

 $\sigma = P/A$, where

- σ = stress on the cross section,
- $P =$ loading, and
- A = cross-sectional area.

 $\varepsilon = \delta/L$, where

- δ = longitudinal deformation and
- $L =$ length of member.

$$
E = \sigma/\varepsilon = \frac{P/A}{\delta/L}
$$

$$
\delta = \frac{PL}{AE}
$$

THERMAL DEFORMATIONS

 $\delta_t = \alpha L (T - T_o)$, where

- δ_t = deformation caused by a change in temperature,
- α = temperature coefficient of expansion,
- $L =$ length of member,
- $T =$ final temperature, and
- ^Τ*^o* = initial temperature.

CYLINDRICAL PRESSURE VESSEL

Cylindrical Pressure Vessel

For internal pressure only, the stresses at the inside wall are:

$$
\sigma_t = P_i \frac{r_o^2 + r_i^2}{r_o^2 - r_i^2}
$$
 and $0 > \sigma_r > -P_i$

For external pressure only, the stresses at the outside wall are:

$$
\sigma_t = -P_o \frac{r_o^2 + r_i^2}{r_o^2 - r_i^2}
$$
 and $0 > \sigma_r > -P_o$, where

- σ_t = tangential (hoop) stress,
- σ_r = radial stress.
- P_i = internal pressure,
- P_{o} = external pressure,
- r_i = inside radius, and
- r_o = outside radius.

For vessels with end caps, the axial stress is:

$$
\sigma_a = P_i \frac{r_i^2}{r_o^2 - r_i^2}
$$

These are principal stresses.

[♦]Flinn, Richard A. & Paul K. Trojan, *Engineering Materials & Their Applications,* 4th Ed. Copyright 1990 by Houghton Mifflin Co. Figure used with permission.

When the thickness of the cylinder wall is about one-tenth or less, of inside radius, the cylinder can be considered as thin-walled. In which case, the internal pressure is resisted by the hoop stress

$$
\sigma_t = \frac{P_i r}{t}
$$
 and $\sigma_a = \frac{P_i r}{2t}$

where $t =$ wall thickness.

STRESS AND STRAIN

Principal Stresses

For the special case of a *two-dimensional* stress state, the equations for principal stress reduce to

$$
\sigma_a, \sigma_b = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}
$$

$$
\sigma_c = 0
$$

The two nonzero values calculated from this equation are temporarily labeled σ_a and σ_b and the third value σ_c is always zero in this case. Depending on their values, the three roots are then labeled according to the convention: *algebraically largest* = σ_1 *, algebraically smallest* = σ_3 *, other* $=$ σ_2 . A typical 2D stress element is shown below with all indicated components shown in their positive sense.

Mohr's Circle – Stress, 2D

To construct a Mohr's circle, the following sign conventions are used.

- 1. Tensile normal stress components are plotted on the horizontal axis and are considered positive. Compressive normal stress components are negative.
- 2. For constructing Mohr's circle only, shearing stresses are plotted above the normal stress axis when the pair of shearing stresses, acting on opposite and parallel faces of an element, forms a clockwise couple. Shearing stresses are plotted below the normal axis when the shear stresses form a counterclockwise couple.

The circle drawn with the center on the normal stress (horizontal) axis with center, C, and radius, *R,* where

$$
C = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2}, \quad R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}
$$

The two nonzero principal stresses are then:

The maximum *inplane* shear stress is $\tau_{in} = R$. However, the maximum shear stress considering three dimensions is always

$$
\tau_{max} = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2}.
$$

Hooke's Law

Three-dimensional case:

$$
\varepsilon_x = (1/E)[\sigma_x - \nu(\sigma_y + \sigma_z)] \qquad \gamma_{xy} = \tau_{xy}/G
$$

\n
$$
\varepsilon_y = (1/E)[\sigma_y - \nu(\sigma_z + \sigma_x)] \qquad \gamma_{yz} = \tau_{yz}/G
$$

\n
$$
\varepsilon_z = (1/E)[\sigma_z - \nu(\sigma_x + \sigma_y)] \qquad \gamma_{zx} = \tau_{zx}/G
$$

Plane stress case (σ_z = 0):

$$
\varepsilon_x = (1/E)(\sigma_x - \nu \sigma_y) \n\varepsilon_y = (1/E)(\sigma_y - \nu \sigma_x) \n\varepsilon_z = -(1/E)(\nu \sigma_x + \nu \sigma_y) \qquad \begin{Bmatrix} \sigma_x \\ \sigma_y \\ \tau_{xy} \end{Bmatrix} = \frac{E}{1 - \nu^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \nu & 0 \\ \nu & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1 - \nu}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \varepsilon_x \\ \varepsilon_y \\ \varepsilon_y \\ \gamma_{xy} \end{Bmatrix}
$$

 $\overline{1}$

Г

Uniaxial case $(\sigma_v = \sigma_z = 0)$: $\sigma_x = E \varepsilon_x$ or $\sigma = E \varepsilon$, where

- ϵ_{x} , ϵ_{y} , ϵ_{z} = normal strain,
- σ_x , σ_y , σ_z = normal stress,

 $γ_{xy}, γ_{yz}, γ_{zx} = shear strain,$

- τ_{xy} , τ_{yz} , τ_{zx} = shear stress,
- $E =$ modulus of elasticity,
- $G =$ shear modulus, and
- $v = Poisson's ratio.$

STATIC LOADING FAILURE THEORIES

Maximum-Normal-Stress Theory

The maximum-normal-stress theory states that failure occurs when one of the three principal stresses equals the strength of the material. If $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \sigma_3$, then the theory predicts that failure occurs whenever $\sigma_1 \geq S_t$ or $\sigma_3 \leq -S_c$ where S_t and S_c are the tensile and compressive strengths, respectively.

Maximum-Shear-Stress Theory

The maximum-shear-stress theory states that yielding begins when the maximum shear stress equals the maximum shear stress in a tension-test specimen of the same material when that specimen begins to yield. If $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \sigma_3$, then the theory predicts that yielding will occur whenever $\tau_{\text{max}} \geq S_y/2$ where S_{ν} is the yield strength.

MECHANICS OF MATERIALS (continued)

Distortion-Energy Theory

The distortion-energy theory states that yielding begins whenever the distortion energy in a unit volume equals the distortion energy in the same volume when uniaxially stressed to the yield strength. The theory predicts that yielding will occur whenever

$$
\left[\frac{(\sigma_1-\sigma_2)^2+(\sigma_2-\sigma_3)^2+(\sigma_1-\sigma_3)^2}{2}\right]^{1/2}\geq S_y
$$

TORSION

$$
\gamma_{\varphi z} = \lim_{\Delta z \to 0} r(\Delta \varphi / \Delta z) = r(d\varphi / dz)
$$

The shear strain varies in direct proportion to the radius, from zero strain at the center to the greatest strain at the outside of the shaft. *d*φ/*dz* is the twist per unit length or the rate of twist.

$$
\tau_{\phi z} = G \gamma_{\phi z} = Gr (d\phi/dz)
$$

\n
$$
T = G (d\phi/dz) \int_A r^2 dA = GJ(d\phi/dz), \text{ where}
$$

J = *polar moment of inertia* (see table at end of **DYNAMICS** section).

$$
\Phi = \int_{o}^{L} \frac{T}{GJ} dz = \frac{TL}{GJ}
$$
, where

 ϕ = total angle (radians) of twist,

T = torque, and

 $L =$ length of shaft.

$$
\tau_{\phi z} = Gr[T/(GJ)] = Tr/J
$$

$$
\frac{T}{\phi} = \frac{GJ}{L}
$$
, where

T/φ gives the *twisting moment per radian of twist*. This is called the *torsional stiffness* and is often denoted by the symbol *k* or *c*.

For Hollow, Thin-Walled Shafts

$$
\tau = \frac{T}{2A_m t}
$$
, where

- *t* = thickness of shaft wall and
- A_m = the total mean area enclosed by the shaft measured to the midpoint of the wall.

BEAMS

Shearing Force and Bending Moment Sign Conventions

- 1. The bending moment is *positive* if it produces bending of the beam *concave upward* (compression in top fibers and tension in bottom fibers).
- 2. The shearing force is *positive* if the *right portion of the beam tends to shear downward with respect to the left*.

The relationship between the load (*q*), shear (*V*), and moment (*M*) equations are:

$$
q(x) = -\frac{dV(x)}{dx}
$$

\n
$$
V = \frac{dM(x)}{dx}
$$

\n
$$
V_2 - V_1 = \int_{x_1}^{x^2} [-q(x)] dx
$$

\n
$$
M_2 - M_1 = \int_{x_1}^{x^2} V(x) dx
$$

Stresses in Beams

•

 $\varepsilon_x = -y/\rho$, where

- ρ = the radius of curvature of the deflected axis of the beam, and
- $y =$ the distance from the neutral axis to the longitudinal fiber in question.

Using the stress-strain relationship $\sigma = E \varepsilon$,

Axial Stress: $\sigma_r = -E_y/\rho$, where

 σ_x = the normal stress of the fiber located *y*-distance from the neutral axis.

 $1/\rho = M/(EI)$, where

- $M =$ the moment at the section and
- *I* = the *moment of inertia* of the cross-section.

 $\sigma_x = -My/I$, where

 $y =$ the distance from the neutral axis to the fiber location above or below the axis. Let $y = c$, where *c* = distance from the neutral axis to the outermost fiber of a symmetrical beam section.

 $\sigma_x = \pm Mc/I$

Let $S = I/c$: then, $\sigma_x = \pm M/S$, where

S = the *elastic section modulus* of the beam member.

Transverse shear flow: $q = VQ/I$ and

Transverse shear stress: $\tau_{xy} = VQ/(Ib)$, where

- $q =$ shear flow,
- τ_{xy} = shear stress on the surface,
- $V =$ shear force at the section,
- $b =$ width or thickness of the cross-section, and
- $Q = A' \overline{y}'$, where
- A' = area above the layer (or plane) upon which the desired transverse shear stress acts and

 \bar{v}' = distance from neutral axis to area centroid.

[•] Timoshenko, S. & Gleason H. MacCullough, *Elements of Strength of Materials*, ©1949 by K. Van Nostrand Co. Used with permission from Wadsworth Publishing Co.

Deflection of Beams

Using $1/\rho = M/(EI)$,

EI
$$
\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}
$$
 = M, differential equation of deflection curve
\nEI $\frac{d^3 y}{dx^3}$ = dM(x)/dx = V
\nEI $\frac{d^4 y}{dx^4}$ = dV(x)/dx = -q

Determine the deflection curve equation by double integration (apply boundary conditions applicable to the deflection and/or slope).

$$
EI (dy/dx) = fM(x) dx
$$

$$
EIy = \int [\int M(x) dx] dx
$$

The constants of integration can be determined from the physical geometry of the beam.

COLUMNS

For long columns with pinned ends:

Euler's Formula

$$
P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 EI}{\ell^2}
$$
, where

 P_{cr} = critical axial loading,

 ℓ = unbraced column length.

substitute $I = r^2 A$:

$$
\frac{P_{cr}}{A} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(\ell/r)^2}
$$
, where

r = *radius of gyration* and

 ℓ/r = *slenderness ratio* for the column.

For further column design theory, see the **CIVIL ENGINEERING** and **MECHANICAL ENGINEERING** sections.

If the strain remains within the elastic limit, the work done during deflection (extension) of a member will be transformed into potential energy and can be recovered.

If the final load is *P* and the corresponding elongation of a tension member is δ, then the total energy *U* stored is equal to the work *W* done during loading.

$$
U = W = P\delta/2
$$

ELASTIC STRAIN ENERGY

The strain energy per unit volume is

 $u = U/AL = \sigma^2/2E$

(for tension)

MATERIAL PROPERTIES

Crandall, S.H. & N.C. Dahl, *An Introduction to The Mechanics of Solids*, Copyright 1959 by the McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. Table reprinted with permission from McGraw-Hill.

FLUID MECHANICS

DENSITY, SPECIFIC VOLUME, SPECIFIC WEIGHT, AND SPECIFIC GRAVITY

The definitions of density, specific volume, specific weight, and specific gravity follow:

$$
\rho = \lim_{\Delta V \to 0} \Delta m / \Delta V
$$

\n
$$
\gamma = \lim_{\Delta V \to 0} \Delta W / \Delta V
$$

\n
$$
\gamma = \lim_{\Delta V \to 0} g \cdot \Delta m / \Delta V = \rho g
$$

also $SG = \gamma / \gamma_w = \rho / \rho_w$, where

- ρ = *density* (also *mass density*),
- ∆*m* = mass of infinitesimal volume,
- $\Delta V =$ volume of infinitesimal object considered,
- γ = *specific weight,*
- ΔW = weight of an infinitesimal volume,
- *SG* = *specific gravity*, and
- ρ_w = mass density of water at standard conditions $= 1,000 \text{ kg/m}^3 \ (62.43 \text{ lbm/ft}^3).$

STRESS, PRESSURE, AND VISCOSITY

Stress is defined as

$$
\tau(P) = \lim_{\Delta A \to 0} \quad \Delta F / \Delta A \text{ , where}
$$

- $\tau(P)$ = surface stress vector at point *P*,
- ΔF = force acting on infinitesimal area ΔA , and
- ΔA = infinitesimal area at point *P*.

$$
\tau_n = -p
$$

$$
\tau_t = \mu \, (dv/dy)
$$
 (one-dimensional; i.e., y), where

 τ_n and τ_t = the normal and tangential stress components at point *P*,

 $p =$ the pressure at point *P*,

- µ = *absolute dynamic viscosity* of the fluid N⋅s*/*m 2 [lbm*/*(ft-sec)],
- *d*v = velocity at boundary condition, and
- *dy* = normal distance, measured from boundary.
	- $v = \mu/\rho$, where

$$
v =
$$
 kinematic viscosity; m²/s (ft²/sec).

For a thin Newtonian fluid film and a linear velocity profile,

 $v(y) = Vy/\delta$; $dv/dy = V/\delta$, where

- $V =$ velocity of plate on film and
- δ = thickness of fluid film.

For a power law (non-Newtonian) fluid

 $\tau_t = K (dv/dy)^n$, where

 $K = \text{consistency index}, \text{and}$

n = power law index.

 $n \leq 1$ ≡ pseudo plastic

 $n > 1 \equiv$ dilatant

SURFACE TENSION AND CAPILLARITY

Surface tension σ is the force per unit contact length

 σ = *F*/*L*, where

- σ = surface tension, force*/*length,
- $F =$ surface force at the interface, and
- $L =$ length of interface.

The *capillary rise h* is approximated by

 $h = 4\sigma \cos \frac{\beta}{\gamma d}$, where

- h = the height of the liquid in the vertical tube,
- σ = the surface tension.
- β = the angle made by the liquid with the wetted tube wall,
- γ = specific weight of the liquid, and
- $d =$ the diameter or the capillary tube.

THE PRESSURE FIELD IN A STATIC LIQUID AND MANOMETRY

The difference in pressure between two different points is

♦ Bober, W. & R.A. Kenyon, *Fluid Mechanics*, Copyright 1980 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Diagrams reprinted by permission of William Bober & Richard A. Kenyon.

For a simple manometer,

$$
p_{o} = p_2 + \gamma_2 h_2 - \gamma_1 h_1
$$

Absolute pressure $=$ atmospheric pressure $+$ gage pressure reading

Absolute pressure $=$ atmospheric pressure $-$ vacuum gage pressure reading

Another device that works on the same principle as the manometer is the simple barometer.

 p_v = vapor pressure of the barometer fluid

♦

FORCES ON SUBMERGED SURFACES AND THE CENTER OF PRESSURE

Forces on a submerged plane wall. (a) Submerged plane surface. (b) Pressure distribution.

The pressure on a point at a distance *Z*′ below the surface is

$$
p = p_0 + \gamma Z', \text{ for } Z' \ge 0
$$

If the tank were open to the atmosphere, the effects of p_0 could be ignored.

The coordinates of the *center of pressure CP* are

$$
y^* = (\gamma I_{y_c z_c} \sin \alpha) / (p_c A)
$$
 and

$$
z^* = (\gamma I_{y_c} \sin \alpha) / (p_c A)
$$
, where

- y^* = the *y*-distance from the centroid (*C*) of area (*A*) to the center of pressure,
- the *z*-distance from the centroid (C) of area (A) to the center of pressure,
- I_{v_a} and $I_{v_z z_a}$ = the moment and product of inertia of the area,
- p_c = the pressure at the centroid of area (*A*), and
- Z_c = the slant distance from the water surface to the centroid (*C*) of area (*A*).

If the free surface is open to the atmosphere, then

$$
p_o = 0
$$
 and $p_c = \gamma Z_c \sin \alpha$.

$$
y^* = I_{y_c z_c} / (AZ_c) \quad \text{and} \quad z^* = I_{y_c} / (AZ_c)
$$

The force on the plate can be computed as

$$
\mathbf{F} = [p_1 A_v + (p_2 - p_1) A_v / 2]\mathbf{i} + V_f \gamma_f \mathbf{j}, \text{ where}
$$

- $F =$ force on the plate,
- ¹ = pressure at the top edge of the plate area,
- p_2 = pressure at the bottom edge of the plate area,
- A_v = vertical projection of the plate area,
- V_f = volume of column of fluid above plate, and
- γ_f = specific weight of the fluid.

ARCHIMEDES PRINCIPLE AND BUOYANCY

- 1. The buoyant force exerted on a submerged or floating body is equal to the weight of the fluid displaced by the body.
- 2. A floating body displaces a weight of fluid equal to its own weight; i.e., a floating body is in equilibrium.

The *center of buoyancy* is located at the centroid of the submerged portion of the body.

In the case of a body lying at the *interface of two immiscible fluids*, the buoyant force equals the sum of the weights of the fluids displaced by the body.

ONE-DIMENSIONAL FLOWS

The Continuity Equation So long as the flow *Q* is continuous, the *continuity equation*, as applied to onedimensional flows, states that the flow passing two points (1 and 2) in a stream is equal at each point, $A_1V_1 = A_2V_2$.

 $Q = A V$ $\dot{m} = \rho Q = \rho A V$, where $Q =$ volumetric flow rate,

 \dot{m} = mass flow rate,

[♦] Bober, W. & R.A. Kenyon, *Fluid Mechanics*, Copyright 1980 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Diagrams reprinted by permission of William Bober & Richard A. Kenyon.

- $A = \csc$ area of flow,
- $V =$ average flow velocity, and
- ρ = the fluid density.

For steady, one-dimensional flow, m is a constant. If, in addition, the density is constant, then *Q* is constant.

The Field Equation is derived when the energy equation is applied to one-dimensional flows.

Assuming no friction losses and that no pump or turbine exists between sections 1 and 2 in the system,

$$
\frac{p_2}{\gamma} + \frac{V_2^2}{2g} + z_2 = \frac{p_1}{\gamma} + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} + z_1
$$
, where

 p_1, p_2 = pressure at sections 1 and 2,

- V_1 , V_2 = average velocity of the fluid at the sections,
- z_1, z_2 = the vertical distance from a datum to the sections (the potential energy),

 γ = the specific weight of the fluid, and

 $g =$ the acceleration of gravity.

FLOW OF A REAL FLUID

$$
\frac{p_1}{\gamma} + z_1 + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} = \frac{p_2}{\gamma} + z_2 + \frac{V_2^2}{2g} + h_f
$$

The pressure drop as fluid flows through a pipe of constant cross-section and which is held at a fixed elevation is

 $h_f = (p_1 - p_2)/\gamma$, where

 h_f = the head loss, considered a friction effect, and all remaining terms are defined above.

Fluid Flow

The velocity distribution for *laminar flow* **in circular tubes or between planes** is

$$
v = v_{max} \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2 \right]
$$
, where

 $r =$ the distance (m) from the centerline,

- $R =$ the radius (m) of the tube or half the distance between the parallel planes,
- $v =$ the local velocity (m/s) at *r*, and
- v_{max} = the velocity (m/s) at the centerline of the duct.

 $v_{\text{max}} = 1.18V$, for fully turbulent flow $(Re > 10,000)$

 $v_{\text{max}} = 2V$, for circular tubes in laminar flow and

 $v_{\text{max}} = 1.5V$, for parallel planes in laminar flow, where

 $V =$ the average velocity (m/s) in the duct.

The shear stress distribution is

$$
\frac{\tau}{\tau_w} = \frac{r}{R}
$$
, where

τ and τ*w* are the shear stresses at radii *r* and *R* respectively.

The *drag force* F_D on **objects immersed in a large body of flowing fluid or objects moving through a stagnant fluid** is

$$
F_D = \frac{C_D \rho V^2 A}{2}
$$
, where

 C_D = the *drag coefficient* (see page [46\)](#page-50-0),

 $V =$ the velocity (m/s) of the undisturbed fluid, and

A = the *projected area* (m^2) of bluff objects such as spheres, ellipsoids, and disks and plates, cylinders, ellipses, and air foils with axes perpendicular to the flow.

For **flat plates placed parallel with the flow**

$$
C_D = 1.33/Re^{0.5} (10^4 < Re < 5 \times 10^5)
$$
\n
$$
C_D = 0.031/Re^{1/7} (10^6 < Re < 10^9)
$$

The characteristic length in the Reynolds Number (Re) is the length of the plate parallel with the flow. For bluff objects, the characteristic length is the largest linear dimension (diameter of cylinder, sphere, disk, etc.) which is perpendicular to the flow.

Reynolds Number

Re =
$$
VD\rho/\mu = VD/\nu
$$

Re' =
$$
\frac{V^{(2-n)}D^n\rho}{K\left(\frac{3n+1}{4n}\right)^n 8^{(n-1)}},
$$
 where

 ρ = the mass density,

- $D =$ the diameter of the pipe or dimension of the fluid streamline,
- μ = the dynamic viscosity,
- $v =$ the kinematic viscosity,

 $Re =$ the Reynolds number (Newtonian fluid),

 $Re' =$ the Reynolds number (Power law fluid), and

K and *n* are defined on page [38.](#page-42-0)

The critical Reynolds number $(Re)_c$ is defined to be the minimum Reynolds number at which a flow will turn turbulent.

Hydraulic Gradient (Grade Line)

The hydraulic gradient (grade line) is defined as an imaginary line above a pipe so that the vertical distance from the pipe axis to the line represents the *pressure head* at that point. If a row of piezometers were placed at intervals along the pipe, the grade line would join the water levels in the piezometer water columns.

Energy Line (Bernoulli Equation)

The Bernoulli equation states that the sum of the pressure, velocity, and elevation heads is constant. The energy line is this sum or the "total head line" above a horizontal datum.

The difference between the hydraulic grade line and the energy line is the $V^2/2g$ term.

STEADY, INCOMPRESSIBLE FLOW IN CONDUITS AND PIPES

The energy equation for incompressible flow is

$$
\frac{p_1}{\gamma} + z_1 + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} = \frac{p_2}{\gamma} + z_2 + \frac{V_2^2}{2g} + h_j
$$

If the cross-sectional area and the elevation of the pipe are the same at both sections (1 and 2), then $z_1 = z_2$ and $V_1 = V_2$. The pressure drop $p_1 - p_2$ is given by the following:

$$
p_1-p_2=\gamma h_f
$$

The *Darcy equation* is

$$
h_f = f \frac{L V^2}{D 2g}
$$
, where

 $f = f(Re, e/D)$, the friction factor,

- $D =$ diameter of the pipe,
- $L =$ length over which the pressure drop occurs,
- *e* = roughness factor for the pipe, and all other symbols are defined as before.

A chart that gives *f* versus Re for various values of *e/*D, known as a *Moody* or *Stanton diagram*, is available at the end of this section on page [45.](#page-49-0)

Friction Factor for Laminar Flow

The equation for Q in terms of the pressure drop Δp_f is the Hagen-Poiseuille equation. This relation is valid only for flow in the laminar region.

$$
Q = \frac{\pi R^4 \Delta p_f}{8\mu L} = \frac{\pi D^4 \Delta p_f}{128\mu L}
$$

Flow in Noncircular Conduits

Analysis of flow in conduits having a noncircular cross section uses the *hydraulic diameter* D_H , or the *hydraulic radius* R ^H, as follows

$$
R_H = \frac{\text{cross - sectional area}}{\text{wetted perimeter}} = \frac{D_H}{4}
$$

Minor Losses in Pipe Fittings, Contractions, and Expansions

Head losses also occur as the fluid flows through pipe fittings (i.e., elbows, valves, couplings, etc.) and sudden pipe contractions and expansions.

$$
\frac{p_1}{\gamma} + z_1 + \frac{V_1^2}{2g} = \frac{p_2}{\gamma} + z_2 + \frac{V_2^2}{2g} + h_f + h_{f, \text{ fitting}}
$$
, where

$$
h_{f, \text{fitting}} = C \frac{V^2}{2g}
$$

Specific fittings have characteristic values of *C*, which will be provided in the problem statement. A generally accepted *nominal value* for head loss in *well-streamlined gradual contractions* is

The *head loss* at either an *entrance* or *exit* of a pipe from or to a reservoir is also given by the h_f fitting equation. Values for *C* for various cases are shown as follows.

PUMP POWER EQUATION

 $\dot{W} = O\gamma h / \eta$, where

- $Q =$ quantity of flow (m³/s or cfs),
- $h =$ head (m or ft) the fluid has to be lifted,
- η = efficiency, and
- \dot{W} = power (watts or ft-lbf/sec).

THE IMPULSE-MOMENTUM PRINCIPLE

The resultant force in a given direction acting on the fluid equals the rate of change of momentum of the fluid.

$$
\Sigma \boldsymbol{F} = Q_2 \rho_2 V_2 - Q_1 \rho_1 V_1
$$
, where

- ΣF = the resultant of all external forces acting on the control volume,
- $Q_1 \rho_1 V_1$ = the rate of momentum of the fluid flow entering the control volume in the same direction of the force, and
- $Q_2 \rho_2 V_2$ = the rate of momentum of the fluid flow leaving the control volume in the same direction of the force.

Pipe Bends, Enlargements, and Contractions

The force exerted by a flowing fluid on a bend, enlargement, or contraction in a pipe line may be computed using the impulse-momentum principle.

$$
p_1A_1 - p_2A_2 \cos \alpha - F_x = Q\rho (V_2 \cos \alpha - V_1)
$$

F_y - W - p₂A₂sin \alpha = Q\rho (V₂sin \alpha - 0), where

 $F =$ the force exerted by the bend on the fluid (the force exerted by the fluid on the bend is equal in magnitude and opposite in sign), F_x and F_y are the *x*-component and *y*-component of the force,

[♦] Bober, W. & R.A. Kenyon, *Fluid Mechanics*, Copyright 1980 by John Wiley & sons, Inc. Diagram reprinted by permission of William Bober & Richard A. Kenyon.

 $h_{f, \text{ fitting}} = 0.04 \frac{V^2}{2g}$

[•] Vennard, J.K., *Elementary Fluid Mechanics*, Copyright 1954 by J.K. Vennard. Diagrams reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

- $p =$ the internal pressure in the pipe line,
- $A =$ the cross-sectional area of the pipe line,
- $W =$ the weight of the fluid,
- $V =$ the velocity of the fluid flow,
- α = the angle the pipe bend makes with the horizontal,
- ρ = the density of the fluid, and
- $Q =$ the quantity of fluid flow.

Jet Propulsion

- γ = the specific weight of the fluid,
- $h =$ the height of the fluid above the outlet,

 A_2 = the area of the nozzle tip,

$$
Q = A_2 \sqrt{2gh}, \text{and}
$$

 $V_2 = \sqrt{2gh}$.

Deflectors and Blades

Fixed Blade

Moving Blade

$$
-F_x = Q\rho(V_{2x} - V_{1x})
$$

= -Q\rho(V_1 - v)(1 - \cos\alpha)

$$
F_y = Q\rho(V_{2y} - V_{1y})
$$

= +Q\rho(V_1 - v) sin \alpha, where

 $v =$ the velocity of the blade.

Impulse Turbine

•

$$
\dot{W} = Q\rho (V_1 - v)(1 - \cos \alpha) v
$$
, where

 \dot{W} = power of the turbine.

$$
\dot{W}_{\text{max}} = Q\rho (V_1^2/4)(1 - \cos \alpha)
$$

When $\alpha = 180^\circ$,

•

$$
\dot{W}_{\text{max}} = (Q\rho V_1^2)/2 = (Q\gamma V_1^2)/2g
$$

MULTIPATH PIPELINE PROBLEMS

The same head loss occurs in each branch as in the combination of the two. The following equations may be solved simultaneously for V_A and V_B :

$$
h_L = f_A \frac{l_A}{D_A} \frac{V_A^2}{2g} = f_B \frac{l_B}{D_B} \frac{V_B^2}{2g}
$$

$$
(\pi D^2/4)V = (\pi D_A^2/4)V_A + (\pi D_B^2/4)V_B
$$

The flow Q can be divided into Q_A and Q_B when the pipe characteristics are known.

OPEN-CHANNEL FLOW AND/OR PIPE FLOW

Manning's Equation

 $V = (k/n)R^{2/3}S^{1/2}$, where

- $k = 1$ for SI units,
- $k = 1.486$ for USCS units,
- $=$ velocity (m/s, ft/sec),
- $=$ roughness coefficient,
- $R =$ hydraulic radius (m, ft), and
- $S =$ slope of energy grade line (m/m, ft/ft).

Hazen-Williams Equation

- $V = k_1 C R^{0.63} S^{0.54}$, where
- $C = \text{roughness coefficient},$
- k_1 = 0.849 for SI units, and
- k_1 = 1.318 for USCS units.

Other terms defined as above.

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MACH NUMBER

The *speed of sound c* in an ideal gas is given by

$$
c = \sqrt{kRT}
$$
, where

 $k = c_P/c_v$.

•

This shows that the acoustic velocity in an ideal gas depends only on its temperature.

The *mach number* Ma is a ratio of the fluid velocity *V* to the speed of sound:

$$
Ma = V/c
$$

FLUID MEASUREMENTS

The Pitot Tube – From the stagnation pressure equation for an *incompressible fluid*,

$$
V = \sqrt{(2/\rho)(p_o - p_s)} = \sqrt{2g(p_o - p_s)/\gamma}
$$
, where

 $V =$ the velocity of the fluid,

- p_{o} = the stagnation pressure, and
- p_s = the static pressure of the fluid at the elevation where the measurement is taken.

For a *compressible fluid*, use the above incompressible fluid equation if the mach number ≤ 0.3 .

Venturi Meters

$$
Q = \frac{C_{\nu} A_2}{\sqrt{1 - (A_2/A_1)^2}} \quad \sqrt{2g\left(\frac{p_1}{\gamma} + z_1 - \frac{p_2}{\gamma} - z_2\right)}, \text{ where}
$$

 C_v = the coefficient of velocity.

The above equation is for *incompressible fluids*.

Orifices The cross-sectional area at the vena contracta A_2 is characterized by a *coefficient of contraction* C_c and given by $C_c A$.

where *C*, the *coefficient of the meter*, is given by

$$
C = \frac{C_v C_c}{\sqrt{1 - C_c^2 (A/A_1)^2}}
$$

•

•

ORIFICES AND THEIR NOMINAL COEFFICIENTS SHARP ROUNDED SHORT TUBE **BORDA EDGED** $\mathbf C$ 0.61 0.98 0.80 0.51 1.00 1.00 0.52 $\mathtt{C_{c}}$ 0.62 $c_{\rm v}$ 0.98 0.98 0.80 0.98

Submerged Orifice operating under steady-flow conditions:

in which the product of C_c and C_v is defined as the *coefficient of discharge* of the orifice.

• Vennard, J.K., *Elementary Fluid Mechanics*, Copyright 1954 by J.K. Vennard. Diagrams reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Orifice Discharging Freely Into Atmosphere

 $Q = CA\sqrt{2gh}$

•

in which *h* is measured from the liquid surface to the centroid of the orifice opening.

DIMENSIONAL HOMOGENEITY AND DIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS

Equations that are in a form that do not depend on the fundamental units of measurement are called *dimensionally homogeneous* equations. A special form of the dimensionally homogeneous equation is one that involves only *dimensionless groups* of terms.

Buckingham's Theorem: The *number of independent dimensionless groups* that may be employed to describe a phenomenon known to involve *n* variables is equal to the number $(n - \bar{r})$, where \bar{r} is the number of basic dimensions (i.e., M, L, T) needed to express the variables dimensionally.

SIMILITUDE

In order to use a model to simulate the conditions of the prototype, the model must be *geometrically*, *kinematically*, and *dynamically similar* to the prototype system.

To obtain dynamic similarity between two flow pictures, all independent force ratios that can be written must be the same in both the model and the prototype. Thus, dynamic similarity between two flow pictures (when all possible forces are acting) is expressed in the five simultaneous equations below.

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\left[\frac{F_I}{F_p}\right]_p &= \left[\frac{F_I}{F_p}\right]_m = \left[\frac{\rho V^2}{p}\right]_p = \left[\frac{\rho V^2}{p}\right]_m \\
\left[\frac{F_I}{F_V}\right]_p &= \left[\frac{F_I}{F_V}\right]_m = \left[\frac{Vl\rho}{\mu}\right]_p = \left[\frac{Vl\rho}{\mu}\right]_m = \left[\text{Re}\right]_p = \left[\text{Re}\right]_m \\
\left[\frac{F_I}{F_G}\right]_p &= \left[\frac{F_I}{F_G}\right]_m = \left[\frac{V^2}{\lg}\right]_p = \left[\frac{V^2}{\lg}\right]_m = \left[\text{Fr}\right]_p = \left[\text{Fr}\right]_m \\
\left[\frac{F_I}{F_E}\right]_p &= \left[\frac{F_I}{F_E}\right]_m = \left[\frac{\rho V^2}{E_v}\right]_p = \left[\frac{\rho V^2}{E_v}\right]_m = \left[\text{Ca}\right]_p = \left[\text{Ca}\right]_m \\
\left[\frac{F_I}{F_T}\right]_p &= \left[\frac{F_I}{F_T}\right]_m = \left[\frac{\rho l V^2}{\sigma}\right]_p = \left[\frac{\rho l V^2}{\sigma}\right]_m = \left[\text{We}\right]_p = \left[\text{We}\right]_m\n\end{aligned}
$$

where

the subscripts *p* and *m* stand for *prototype* and *model* respectively, and

- F_I = inertia force,
- F_P = pressure force,
- F_V = viscous force,
- F_G = gravity force,
- F_E = elastic force,
- F_T = surface tension force,
- $Re =$ Reynolds number,
- $We = Weber number$,
- $Ca = Cauchy$ number,
- $Fr =$ Froude number,
- $l =$ characteristic length,
- $V =$ velocity,
- ρ = density,
- σ = surface tension,
- E_v = bulk modulus,
- μ = dynamic viscosity,
- *p* = pressure, and
- *g* = acceleration of gravity.

$$
Re = \frac{VD\rho}{\mu} = \frac{VD}{\nu}
$$

PROPERTIES OF WATERf

a
From "Hydraulic Models," *A.S.C.E. Manual of Engineering Practice*, No. 25, A.S.C.E., 1942. See footnote 2. e From J.H. Keenan and F.G. Keyes, *Thermodynamic Properties of Steam*, John Wiley & Sons, 1936. f Compiled from many sources including those indicated, *Handbook of Chemistry and Physics*, 54th Ed., The CRC Press, 1973, and *Handbook of Tables for Applied Engineering Science*, The Chemical Rubber Co., 1970. ²Here, if E/10⁶ = 1.98 then E = 1.98 × 10⁶ kPa, while if μ × 10³ = 1.781, then μ = 1.781 × 10⁻³ Pa's, and so on. Vennard, J.K. and Robert L. Street, *Elementary Fluid Mechanics*, Copyright 1954, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

• Vennard, J.K., *Elementary Fluid Mechanics*, Copyright 1954 by J.K. Vennard. Diagrams reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc

MOODY (STANTON) DIAGRAM

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DRAG COEFFICIENTS FOR SPHERES, DISKS, AND CYLINDERS

REYNOLDS NUMBER $Re = \frac{DV\rho}{\mu}$

THERMODYNAMICS

PROPERTIES OF SINGLE-COMPONENT SYSTEMS

Nomenclature

- 1. Intensive properties are independent of mass.
- 2. Extensive properties are proportional to mass.
- 3. Specific properties are lower case (extensive/mass).

State Functions (properties)

Absolute Temperature, *T* (°R or K)

Specific Volume, *v* λ /lbm or m³/kg)

Internal Energy, *u* (usually in Btu**/**lbm or kJ**/**kg)

Enthalpy, $h = u + Pv$ (same units as *u*)

Entropy, *s* $\left[$ in Btu/(lbm-°R) or kJ/(kg⋅K)]

Gibbs Free Energy, $g = h - Ts$ (same units as *u*)

Helmholz Free Energy, $a = u - Ts$ (same units as *u*)

Heat Capacity at Constant Pressure,
$$
c_p = \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial T}\right)
$$

Heat Capacity at Constant Volume, $v = \left(\overline{\partial T}\right)_v$ $c_v = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)$ $\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)$ l ſ ∂ $=\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)^2$

Quality *x* (applies to liquid-vapor systems at saturation) is defined as the mass fraction of the vapor phase:

P

-

 $x = m_g/(m_g + m_f)$, where

 m_g = mass of vapor, and

 m_f = mass of liquid.

Specific volume of a two-phase system can be written:

 $v = xv_\sigma + (1 - x)v_f$ or $v = xv_{f_\sigma} + v_f$, where

 v_f = specific volume of saturated liquid,

 v_g = specific volume of saturated vapor, and

 v_{fg} = specific volume change upon vaporization. $= v_g - v_f.$

Similar expressions exist for *u*, *h*, and *s*:

$$
u = xu_g + (1 - x) u_f
$$

\n
$$
h = xh_g + (1 - x) h_f
$$

\n
$$
s = xs_g + (1 - x) s_f
$$

For a simple substance, *specification of any two intensive, independent properties is sufficient* to fix all the rest.

For an ideal gas,
$$
Pv = RT
$$
 or $PV = mRT$, and

 $P_1v_1/T_1 = P_2v_2/T_2$, where

 $p =$ pressure,

 $v =$ specific volume,

 $m =$ mass of gas,

R = gas constant, and

T = temperature.

R is *specific to each gas* but can be found from

$$
R = \frac{\overline{R}}{(mol. wt.)}
$$
, where

 \overline{R} = the universal gas constant

 $= 1,545$ ft-lbf/(lbmol-°R) = 8,314 J/(kmol·K).

For *Ideal Gases*, $c_P - c_v = R$

Also, for *Ideal Gases*:

l ſ

$$
\left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial v}\right)_T = 0 \qquad \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v}\right)_T = 0
$$

For cold air standard, *heat capacities are assumed to be constant* at their room temperature values. In that case, the following are true:

$$
\Delta u = c_v \Delta T; \qquad \Delta h = c_P \Delta T
$$

\n
$$
\Delta s = c_P \ln (T_2/T_1) - R \ln (P_2/P_1);
$$
 and
\n
$$
\Delta s = c_v \ln (T_2/T_1) + R \ln (v_2/v_1).
$$

For heat capacities that are temperature dependent, the value to be used in the above equations for ∆h is known as the mean heat capacity (\overline{c}_p) and is given by

$$
\overline{c}_p = \frac{\int_{T_1}^{T_2} c_p dT}{T_2 - T_1}
$$

Also, for *constant entropy* processes:

$$
P_1 v_1^k = P_2 v_2^k;
$$

\n
$$
T_1 P_1^{(1-k)/k} = T_2 P_2^{(1-k)/k}
$$

\n
$$
T_1 v_1^{(k-1)} = T_2 v_2^{(k-1)},
$$
 where $k = c_p/c_v$

FIRST LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS

The *First Law of Thermodynamics* is a statement of conservation of energy in a thermodynamic system. The net energy crossing the system boundary is equal to the change in energy inside the system.

Heat Q is *energy transferred* due to temperature difference and is considered positive if it is inward or added to the system.

Closed Thermodynamic System

(no mass crosses boundary)

$$
Q - w = \Delta U + \Delta KE + \Delta PE
$$

where

 ΔKE = change in kinetic energy, and

 ΔPE = change in potential energy.

Energy can cross the boundary only in the form of heat or work. Work can be boundary work, w_b , or other work forms (electrical work, etc.)

Work w is considered *positive if it is outward* or *work done* by the system.

Reversible boundary work is given by $w_b = \int P dv$.

Special Cases of Closed Systems

(ideal gas) $T/v = constant$ Constant Volume: $w_b = 0$

Isentropic (ideal gas),

 Pv^k = constant: $w = (P_2v_2 - P_1v_1)/(1 - k)$

 $(i$ deal gas) $T/P = constant$

 $= R (T_2 - T_1)/(1 - k)$

Constant Temperature (*Boyle's Law*):

 $(i$ deal gas) $Pv = constant$ $w_b = RT \ln (v_2 / v_1) = RT \ln (P_1 / P_2)$ Polytropic (ideal gas), $Pv^n =$ constant: $w = (P_2v_2 - P_1v_1)/(1 - n)$

Open Thermodynamic System

(allowing mass to cross the boundary)

There is flow work (PV) done by mass entering the system. The reversible flow work is given by:

$$
w_{\text{rev}} = -\int v \, dP + \Delta KE + \Delta PE
$$

First Law applies whether or not processes are reversible.

FIRST LAW (energy balance)

$$
\Sigma \dot{m} [h_i + V_i^2 / 2 + gZ_i] - \Sigma \dot{m} [h_e + V_e^2 / 2 + gZ_e]
$$

+ $\dot{Q}_{in} - \dot{W}_{net} = d (m_s u_s) / dt$, where

 \dot{W}_{net} = rate of net or shaft work transfer,

 m_s = mass of fluid within the system,

 u_s = specific internal energy of system, and

^Q = rate of heat transfer (neglecting kinetic and potential energy).

Special Cases of Open Systems

Constant Volume: $w_{rev} = -v (P_2 - P_1)$

$$
V_{\text{rev}} = 0
$$

Constant Temperature:

Isentropic (ideal gas):

 $(i$ deal gas) $Pv = constant$: $w_{rev} = RT \ln (v_2/v_1) = RT \ln (P_1/P_2)$ Pv^k = constant: $w_{rev} = k (P_2 v_2 - P_1 v_1)/(1 - k)$ = *kR* (*T*2 ñ *T*1)*/*(1 ñ *k*)

$$
= kR (T_2 - T_1)/(1 - k)
$$

$$
w_{rev} = \frac{k}{k - 1} RT_1 \left[1 - \left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right)^{(k - 1)/k} \right]
$$

Polytropic:

 $Pv^n =$ constant

$$
w_{rev} = n (P_2 v_2 - P_1 v_1)/(1 - n)
$$

Steady-State Systems

The system does not change state with time. This assumption is valid for steady operation of turbines, pumps, compressors, throttling valves, nozzles, and heat exchangers, including boilers and condensers.

$$
\sum \dot{m}_i \left(h_i + V_i^2 / 2 + gZ_i \right) - \sum \dot{m}_e \left(h_e + V_e^2 / 2 + gZ_e \right)
$$

+ $\dot{Q}_{in} - \dot{W}_{out} = 0$ and

$$
\sum \dot{m}_i = \sum \dot{m}_e
$$

where

- \dot{m} = mass flow rate (subscripts *i* and *e* refer to inlet and exit states of system),
- *g* = acceleration of gravity,
- *Z* = elevation,
- $V =$ velocity, and

 \dot{w} = rate of work.

Special Cases of Steady-Flow Energy Equation

*Nozzles***,** *Diffusers:* Velocity terms are significant. No elevation change, no heat transfer, and no work. Single mass stream.

$$
h_i + V_i^2/2 = h_e + V_e^2/2
$$

Efficiency (nozzle) =
$$
\frac{V_e^2 - V_i^2}{2(h_i - h_{es})}
$$
, where

 h_{es} = enthalpy at isentropic exit state.

*Turbines***,** *Pumps***,** *Compressors:* Often considered adiabatic (no heat transfer). Velocity terms usually can be ignored. There are significant work terms and a single mass stream.

$$
h_i = h_e + w
$$

Efficiency (turbine) =
$$
\frac{h_i - h_e}{h_i - h_{es}}
$$

Efficiency (compressor, pump) = $e - n_i$ $e_s - n_i$ $h_e - h$ $h_{es} - h$ − −

Throttling Valves and Throttling Processes: No work, no heat transfer, and single-mass stream. Velocity terms often insignificant.

$$
h_i=h_e
$$

*Boilers***,** *Condensers***,** *Evaporators***,** *One Side in a Heat Exchanger:* Heat transfer terms are significant. For a singlemass stream, the following applies:

$$
h_i+q=h_e
$$

Heat Exchangers: No heat or work. Two separate flow rates m_1 and m_2 :

$$
\dot{m}_1(h_{1i} - h_{1e}) = \dot{m}_2(h_{2e} - h_{2i})
$$

*Mixers***,** *Separators***,** *Open or Closed Feedwater Heaters:*

$$
\sum \dot{m}_i h_i = \sum \dot{m}_e h_e \quad \text{and} \quad \sum \dot{m}_i = \sum \dot{m}_e
$$

BASIC CYCLES

Heat engines take in heat Q_H at a high temperature T_H , produce a net amount of work *w*, and reject heat Q_L at a low temperature T_L . The efficiency η of a heat engine is given by:

$$
\eta = w/Q_H = (Q_H - Q_L)/Q_H
$$

The most efficient engine possible is the *Carnot Cycle*. Its efficiency is given by:

 $\eta_c = (T_H - T_L)/T_H$, where

 T_H and T_L = absolute temperatures (Kelvin or Rankine).

The following heat-engine cycles are plotted on *P-v* and *T-s* diagrams (see page [52\)](#page-56-0):

Carnot, Otto, Rankine

Refrigeration Cycles are the reverse of heat-engine cycles. Heat is moved from low to high temperature requiring work *W*. Cycles can be used either for refrigeration or as heat pumps.

Coefficient of Performance (COP) is defined as:

 $COP = Q_H/W$ for heat pump, and as

$$
COP = Q_L/W
$$
 for refrigerators and air conditions.

Upper limit of COP is based on reversed Carnot Cycle:

 $COP_c = T_H/(T_H - T_L)$ for heat pump and

 $COP_c = T_L / (T_H - T_L)$ for refrigeration.

1 ton refrigeration = 12,000 Btu*/*hr = 3,516 W

IDEAL GAS MIXTURES

 $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ constituents. Each constituent is an ideal gas. Mole Fraction: N_i = number of moles of component *i*.

 $x_i = N_i/N$; $N = \sum N_i$; $\sum x_i = 1$

Mass Fraction:
$$
y_i = m_i/m
$$
; $m = \sum m_i$; $\sum y_i = 1$

Molecular Weight: $M = m/N = \sum x_i M_i$

Gas Constant: $R = \overline{R}/M$

To convert *mole fractions to mass fractions*:

$$
y_i = \frac{x_i M_i}{\sum (x_i M_i)}
$$

To convert *mass fractions to mole fractions*:

$$
x_i = \frac{y_i/M_i}{\sum (y_i/M_i)}
$$

Partial Pressures $p = \sum p_i$; $p_i = \frac{m_i R_i T}{V}$

Partial Volumes
$$
V = \sum V_i
$$
; $V_i = \frac{m_i R_i T}{p}$, where

 p, V, T = the pressure, volume, and temperature of the mixture.

$$
x_i = p_i / p = V_i / V
$$

Other Properties

 $u = \sum (y_i u_i); h = \sum (y_i h_i); s = \sum (y_i s_i)$ *ui* and *hi* are evaluated at *T*, and

si is evaluated at *T* and *pi*.

PSYCHROMETRICS

We deal here with a mixture of dry air (subscript *a*) and water vapor (subscript *v*):

$$
p=p_a+p_v
$$

Specific Humidity (absolute humidity) ω:

 $\omega = m_v/m_a$, where

 m_v = mass of water vapor and

$$
m_a = \text{mass of dry air.}
$$

$$
\omega = 0.622 p_v / p_a = 0.622 p_v / (p - p_v)
$$

Relative Humidity φ:

$$
\phi = m_v/m_g = p_v/p_g
$$
, where

 m_g = mass of vapor at saturation, and

pg = saturation pressure at *T*.

Enthalpy *h*: $h = h_a + \omega h_v$

Dew-Point Temperature T_{dr} *:*

$$
T_{dp} = T_{\text{sat}} \text{ at } p_g = p_v
$$

Wet-bulb temperature T_{wb} is the temperature indicated by a thermometer covered by a wick saturated with liquid water and in contact with moving air.

Humidity Volume: Volume of moist air*/*mass of dry air.

Psychrometric Chart

A plot of specific humidity as a function of dry-bulb temperature plotted for a value of atmospheric pressure. (See chart at end of section.)

PHASE RELATIONS

Clapeyron Equation for Phase Transitions:

$$
\left(\frac{dp}{dT}\right)_{sat} = \frac{h_{fg}}{Tv_{fg}} = \frac{s_{fg}}{v_{fg}}
$$
, where

 h_{fg} = enthalpy change for phase transitions,

- v_{fg} = volume change,
- s_{fg} = entropy change,

T = absolute temperature, and

 $(dP/dT)_{\text{sat}}$ = slope of vapor-liquid saturation line.

Gibbs Phase Rule

 $P + F = C + 2$, where

- *P* = number of phases making up a system,
- *F* = degrees of freedom, and
- $C =$ number of components in a system.

Gibbs Free Energy

Energy released or absorbed in a reaction occurring reversibly at constant pressure and temperature ∆*G*.

Helmholtz Free Energy

Energy released or absorbed in a reaction occurring reversibly at constant volume and temperature ∆*A*.

COMBUSTION PROCESSES

First, the combustion equation should be written and balanced. For example, for the stoichiometric combustion of methane in oxygen:

$$
CH_4 + 2 O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2 H_2O
$$

Combustion in Air

For each mole of oxygen, there will be 3.76 moles of nitrogen. For stoichiometric combustion of methane in air:

$$
CH_4 + 2 O_2 + 2(3.76) N_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2 H_2O + 7.52 N_2
$$

Combustion in Excess Air

The excess oxygen appears as oxygen on the right side of the combustion equation.

Incomplete Combustion

Some carbon is burned to create carbon monoxide (CO).

Air-Fuel Ratio (*A/F*): *A/F* = mass of fuel mass of air

Stoichiometric (theoretical) air-fuel ratio is the air-fuel ratio calculated from the stoichiometric combustion equation.

Percent Theoretical Air =
$$
\frac{(A/F)_{\text{actual}}}{(A/F)_{\text{stoichiometric}}} \times 100
$$

 $\text{Percent Excess Air} = \frac{(A/F)_{\text{actual}} - (A/F)_{\text{stoichiometric}}}{(A/F)_{\text{stoichiometric}}} \times 100$

SECOND LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS

Thermal Energy Reservoirs

$$
\Delta S_{\text{reservoir}} = Q/T_{\text{reservoir}}
$$
, where

Q is measured with respect to the reservoir.

Kelvin-Planck Statement of Second Law

No heat engine can operate in a cycle while transferring heat with a single heat reservoir.

COROLLARY to Kelvin-Planck: No heat engine can have a higher efficiency than a Carnot cycle operating between the same reservoirs.

Clausius' Statement of Second Law

No refrigeration or heat pump cycle can operate without a net work input.

COROLLARY: No refrigerator or heat pump can have a higher COP than a Carnot cycle refrigerator or heat pump.

VAPOR-LIQUID MIXTURES

Henry's Law at Constant Temperature

At equilibrium, the partial pressure of a gas is proportional to its concentration in a liquid. Henry's Law is valid for low concentrations; i.e., $x \approx 0$.

$$
p_i = py_i = hx_i
$$
, where

- *h* = Henry's Law constant,
- p_i = partial pressure of a gas in contact with a liquid,
- x_i = mol fraction of the gas in the liquid,
- y_i = mol fraction of the gas in the vapor, and
- *p* = total pressure.

Raoult's Law for Vapor-Liquid Equilibrium

Valid for concentrations near 1; i.e., $x_i \approx 1$.

 $p_i = x_i p_i^*$, where

- p_i = partial pressure of component *i*,
- x_i = mol fraction of component *i* in the liquid, and
- *pi ** vapor pressure of pure component *i* at the temperature of the mixture.

ENTROPY

$$
ds = (1/T) \, \delta Q_{\text{rev}}
$$

$$
s_2 - s_1 = \int_1^2 (1/T) \, \delta Q_{\text{rev}}
$$

Inequality of Clausius

$$
\oint (1/T) \, \delta Q_{rev} \le 0
$$

$$
\int_1^2 (1/T) \, \delta Q \le s_2 - s_1
$$

Isothermal, Reversible Process

$$
\Delta s = s_2 - s_1 = Q/T
$$

Isentropic process

$$
\Delta s = 0; \, ds = 0
$$

A reversible adiabatic process is isentropic.

Adiabatic Process

δ*Q* = 0; ∆*s* ≥ 0

Increase of Entropy Principle

$$
\Delta s_{\text{total}} = \Delta s_{\text{system}} + \Delta s_{\text{surroundings}} \ge 0
$$

$$
\Delta \dot{s}_{\text{total}} = \sum \dot{m}_{\text{out}} s_{\text{out}} - \sum \dot{m}_{\text{in}} s_{\text{in}}
$$

$$
-\sum (\dot{Q}_{\text{external}}/T_{\text{external}}) \ge 0
$$

Temperature-Entropy (*T-s***) Diagram**

$$
Q_{rev} = \int_1^2 T \, ds
$$

Entropy Change for Solids and Liquids

 $ds = c \frac{dT}{T}$ $s_2 - s_1 = \int c \, dT/T = c_{\text{mean}} \ln (T_2/T_1),$

where *c* equals the heat capacity of the solid or liquid.

Irreversibility

 $I = w_{\text{rev}} - w_{\text{actual}}$

Closed-System Availability

(no chemical reactions)

$$
\phi = (u - u_0) - T_0 (s - s_0) + p_0 (v - v_0)
$$

 $w_{\text{reversible}} = \phi_1 - \phi_2$

Open-System Availability

 $\Psi = (h - h_o) - T_o (s - s_o) + V^2/2 + gz$ $w_{\text{reversible}} = \psi_1 - \psi_2$

P-h DIAGRAM FOR REFRIGERANT HFC-134a

(metric units)

(Reproduced by permission of the DuPont Company)

Pressure (bar)

ASHRAE PSYCHROMETRIC CHART NO. 1

(metric units)
Reproduced by permission of ASHRAE

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HEAT CAPACITY (at Room Temperature)

There are three modes of heat transfer: conduction, convection, and radiation. Boiling and condensation are classified as convection.

Conduction

Fourier's Law of Conduction

$$
\dot{Q} = -kA\left(\frac{dT}{dx}\right), \text{ where}
$$

 \dot{Q} = rate of heat transfer.

Conduction Through a Plane Wall:

$$
\dot{Q} = -kA(T_2 - T_1)/L
$$
, where

 $k =$ the thermal conductivity of the wall,

 $A =$ the wall surface area.

 $L =$ the wall thickness, and

 T_1, T_2 = the temperature on the near side and far side of the wall respectively.

Thermal resistance of the wall is given by

$$
R = L/(kA)
$$

Resistances in series are added.

Composite Walls:

$$
R_{\text{total}} = R_1 + R_2, \text{ wh}
$$

$$
R_1 = L_1/(k_1A)
$$
, and

$$
R_2 = L_2/(k_2A).
$$

To Evaluate Surface or Intermediate Temperatures:

$$
T_2 = T_1 - \dot{Q}R_1; T_3 = T_2 - \dot{Q}R_2
$$

Conduction through a cylindrical wall is given by

$$
\dot{Q} = \frac{2\pi kL(T_1 - T_2)}{\ln(r_2/r_1)}
$$

$$
R = \frac{\ln(r_2/r_1)}{2\pi kL}
$$

Convection

Convection is determined using a convection coefficient (heat transfer coefficient) *h*.

$$
\dot{Q} = hA(T_w - T_{\infty}), \text{ where}
$$

 $A =$ the heat transfer area,

 T_w = work temperature, and

T∞ = bulk fluid temperature.

Resistance due to convection is given by

$$
R=1/(hA)
$$

FINS: For a straight fin,

$$
\dot{Q} = \sqrt{h p k A_c} (T_b - T_\infty) \tanh m L_c
$$
, where

- h = heat transfer coefficient,
- *p* = exposed perimeter,
- $k =$ thermal conductivity,
- A_c = cross-sectional area,
- T_b = temperature at base of fin,
- T_{∞} = fluid temperature,

$$
m = \sqrt{hp/(kA_c)}
$$
, and

$$
L_c = L + A_c / p
$$
, corrected length.

Radiation

The radiation emitted by a body is given by

$$
\dot{Q} = \varepsilon \sigma A T^4
$$
, where

 $T =$ the absolute temperature (K or R),

$$
\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/(m}^2 \cdot \text{K}^4) \n[0.173 \times 10^{-8} \text{ Btu/(hr-ft}^2 - ^{\circ} \text{R}^4)],
$$

 ϵ = the emissivity of the body, and

 $A =$ the body surface area.

For a body (1) which is small compared to its surroundings (2)

$$
\dot{Q}_{12} = \varepsilon \sigma A (T_1^4 - T_2^4), \text{ where}
$$

 \dot{Q}_{12} = the net heat transfer rate from the body.

A *black body* is defined as one which absorbs all energy incident upon it. It also emits radiation at the maximum rate for a body of a particular size at a particular temperature. For such a body

$$
\alpha = \varepsilon = 1
$$
, where

 α = the absorptivity (energy absorbed/incident energy).

A *gray body* is one for which $\alpha = \varepsilon$, where

 $0 < \alpha < 1$; $0 < \varepsilon < 1$

Real bodies are frequently approximated as gray bodies.

The net energy exchange by radiation between two black bodies, which see each other, is given by

$$
\dot{Q}_{12} = A_1 F_{12} \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)
$$
, where

 F_{12} = the shape factor (view factor, configuration factor); 0 $≤ F_{12} ≤ 1.$

For any body, $\alpha + \rho + \tau = 1$, where

- α = absorptivity,
- ρ = reflectivity (ratio of energy reflected to incident energy), and
- τ = transmissivity (ratio of energy transmitted to incident energy).

For an opaque body, $\alpha + \rho = 1$

For a gray body, $\epsilon + \rho = 1$

The following is applicable to the PM examination for mechanical and chemical engineers.

The overall *heat-transfer coefficient for a shell-and-tube heat exchanger* is

$$
\frac{1}{UA} = \frac{1}{h_i A_i} + \frac{R_{fi}}{A_i} + \frac{t}{k A_{avg}} + \frac{R_{fo}}{A_o} + \frac{1}{h_o A_o}
$$
, where

 $A =$ any convenient reference area (m²),

- A_{avg} = average of inside and outside area (for thin-walled tubes) (m^2) ,
- A_i = inside area of tubes (m²),
- A_o = outside area of tubes (m²),
- h_i = *heat-transfer coefficient* for inside of tubes $[W/(m^2 \cdot K)],$
- *ho* = *heat-transfer coefficient* for outside of tubes $[W/(m^2 \cdot K)],$
- $k =$ *thermal conductivity* of tube material [W/(m⋅K)],
- $R_{\hat{\mu}}$ = *fouling factor* for inside of tube (m²·K/W),
- R_{fo} = *fouling factor* for outside of tube (m²·K/W),
- $t =$ tube-wall thickness (m), and
- *U* = *overall heat-transfer coefficient* based on area *A* and the log mean temperature difference $[W/(m^2 \cdot K)]$.

The *log mean temperature difference* (LMTD) *for countercurrent flow in tubular heat exchangers* is

$$
\Delta T_{lm} = \frac{(T_{Ho} - T_{Ci}) - (T_{Hi} - T_{Co})}{\ln(\frac{T_{Ho} - T_{Ci}}{T_{Hi} - T_{Co})}}
$$

The *log mean temperature difference for concurrent* (parallel) *flow in tubular heat exchangers* is

$$
\Delta T_{lm} = \frac{(T_{Ho} - T_{Co}) - (T_{Hi} - T_{Ci})}{\ln \left(\frac{T_{Ho} - T_{Co}}{T_{Hi} - T_{Ci}} \right)}, \text{ where}
$$

 ΔT_{lm} = log mean temperature difference (K),

- T_{Hi} = inlet temperature of the hot fluid (K),
- T_{Ho} = outlet temperature of the hot fluid (K),
- T_{Ci} = inlet temperature of the cold fluid (K), and
- T_{Co} = outlet temperature of the cold fluid (K).

For individual heat-transfer coefficients of a fluid being heated or cooled in a tube, one pair of temperatures (either the hot or the cold) are the surface temperatures at the inlet and outlet of the tube.

Heat exchanger effectiveness =

actual heat transfer
\nmax possible heat transfer
$$
=
$$
 $\frac{q}{q_{max}}$
\n
$$
\epsilon = \frac{C_H (T_{Hi} - T_{Ho})}{C_{min} (T_{Hi} - T_{Ci})}
$$
\nor
\n
$$
\epsilon = \frac{C_C (T_{Co} - T_{Ci})}{C_{min} (T_{Hi} - T_{Ci})}
$$

Where C_{min} = smaller of C_c or C_H and $C = mc_p$

Number of transfer units, $NTU = \frac{UA}{C_{min}}$

At a cross-section in a tube where heat is being transferred

$$
\frac{\dot{Q}}{A} = h(T_w - T_b) = \left[k_f \left(\frac{dt}{dr}\right)_w\right]_{\text{fluid}}
$$

$$
= \left[k_m \left(\frac{dt}{dr}\right)_w\right]_{\text{metal}}, \text{ where}
$$

 \dot{Q}/A = local inward radial heat flux (W/m²),

h = local heat-transfer coefficient $[W/(m^2 \cdot K)]$,

 k_f = thermal conductivity of the fluid [W/(m⋅K)],

$$
k_m
$$
 = thermal conductivity of the tube metal [W/(m·K)],

 $(dt/dr)_{w}$ = radial temperature gradient at the tube surface (K*/*m),

 T_b = local bulk temperature of the fluid (K), and

$$
T_w
$$
 = local inside surface temperature of the tube (K).

Rate of Heat Transfer in a Tubular Heat Exchanger

For the equations below, the following definitions along with definitions previously supplied are required.

- $D =$ inside diameter
- Gz = Graetz number [RePr (*D*/*L*)],
- Nu = Nusselt number (*hD*/*k*),
- $Pr =$ Prandtl number $(c_P \mu/k)$,
- $A = \text{area upon which } U \text{ is based (m}^2),$
- $F =$ configuration correction factor,
- $g = \text{acceleration of gravity (9.81 m/s}^2),$
- $L =$ heated (or cooled) length of conduit or surface (m),
- \dot{Q} = inward rate of heat transfer (W),
- T_s = temperature of the surface (K),

 T_{sv} = temperature of saturated vapor (K), and

 λ = heat of vaporization (J/kg).

$$
\dot{Q} = UAF\Delta T_{lm}
$$

Heat-transfer for laminar flow ($Re < 2,000$) in a closed conduit.

$$
Nu = 3.66 + \frac{0.19Gz^{0.8}}{1 + 0.117Gz^{0.467}}
$$

Heat-transfer for <u>turbulent flow</u> (Re $> 10^4$, Pr > 0.7) in a closed conduit (Sieder-Tate equation).

$$
Nu = \frac{h_i D}{k_f} = 0.023 Re^{0.8} Pr^{1/3} (\mu_b / \mu_w)^{0.14}, where
$$

 μ_b = μ (T_b), and

 μ_w = $\mu(T_w)$, and Re and Pr are evaluated at T_b .

For non-circular ducts, use the equivalent diameter.

The equivalent diameter is defined as

$$
D_{\rm H} = \frac{4 \, \text{(cross - sectional area)}}{\text{witted perimeter}}
$$

For a circular annulus $(D_0 > D_i)$ the equivalent diameter is

$$
D_H = D_o - D_i
$$

For liquid metals $(0.003 \leq Pr \leq 0.05)$ flowing in closed conduits.

 $Nu = 6.3 + 0.0167Re^{0.85}Pr^{0.93}$ (constant heat flux)

 $Nu = 7.0 + 0.025Re^{0.8}Pr^{0.8}$ (constant wall temperature)

Heat-transfer coefficient for condensation of a pure vapor on a vertical surface.

$$
\frac{hL}{k} = 0.943 \left(\frac{L^3 \rho^2 g \lambda}{k \mu (T_{sv} - T_s)} \right)^{0.25}
$$

Properties other than λ are for the liquid and are evaluated at the average between T_{sv} and T_s .

For condensation outside horizontal tubes, change 0.943 to 0.73 and replace *L* with the tube outside diameter.

Heat Transfer to/from Bodies Immersed in a Large Body of Flowing Fluid

In all cases, evaluate fluid properties at average temperature between that of the body and that of the flowing fluid.

For flow parallel to a constant-temperature flat plate of length *L* (m)

Use the plate length in the evaluation of the Nusselt and Reynolds numbers.

For flow perpendicular to the axis of a constant-temperature circular cylinder

$$
Nu = cRe^{n}Pr^{1/3}
$$

(values of c and n follow)

Use the cylinder diameter in the evaluation of the Nusselt and Reynolds numbers.

For <u>flow</u> past a constant-temperature sphere. Nu = $2.0 +$ $0.60\overline{\mathrm{Re}^{0.5}\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}}$

 $(1 < Re < 70,000, 0.6 < Pr < 400)$

Use the sphere diameter in the evaluation of the Nusselt and Reynolds numbers.

Conductive Heat Transfer

Steady Conduction with Internal Energy Generation

For one-dimensional steady conduction, the equation is

$$
d^2T/dx^2 + \dot{Q}_{gen}/k = 0
$$
, where

 \dot{Q}_{gen} = the heat generation rate per unit volume, and

 $k =$ the thermal conductivity.

For a plane wall:

$$
T(x) = \frac{\dot{Q}_{gen}L^2}{2k} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{L^2}\right) + \left(\frac{T_{s2} - T_{s1}}{2}\right) \left(\frac{x}{L}\right) + \left(\frac{T_{s1} + T_{s2}}{2}\right)
$$

$$
\dot{Q}^{''}_{1} + \dot{Q}^{''}_{2} = 2\dot{Q}_{\text{gen}}L
$$
 , where

$$
\dot{Q}_1^{"} = k\left(\frac{dT}{dx}\right)_{-L}
$$
\n
$$
\dot{Q}_2^{"} = -k\left(\frac{dT}{dx}\right)_{L}
$$

For a long circular cylinder:

 Q' = the heat-transfer rate from the cylinder per unit length.

Transient Conduction Using the Lumped Capacitance Method

If the temperature may be considered uniform within the body at any time, the change of body temperature is given by

$$
\dot{Q} = hA_s(T - T_{\infty}) = -\rho c_p V(dT/dt)
$$

The temperature variation with time is

$$
T-T_{\infty}=(T_i-T_{\infty})e^{-(hA_s/pc_pV)t}
$$

The total heat transferred up to time *t* is

$$
Q_{\text{total}} = \rho c_P V (T_i - T)
$$
, where

 ρ = density,

$$
V = \text{volume},
$$

$$
c_P = \text{heat capacity},
$$

$$
t = \text{time},
$$

 A_s = surface area of the body,

T = temperature, and

 $h =$ the heat-transfer coefficient.

The lumped capacitance method is valid if

Biot number = $\text{Bi} = hV/kA_s \ll 1$

Natural (Free) Convection

For free convection between a vertical flat plate (or a vertical cylinder of sufficiently large diameter) and a large body of stationary fluid,

$$
h = C (k/L) \text{Ra}_L^n
$$
, where

 $L =$ the length of the plate in the vertical direction,

$$
Ra_L = \text{Rayleigh Number} = \frac{g\beta(T_s - T_\infty)L^3}{v^2} \text{Pr},
$$

Ts = surface temperature,

T∞ = fluid temperature,

$$
\beta
$$
 = coefficient of thermal expansion $\left(\frac{2}{T_s + T_\infty}\right)$ for an

ideal gas where *T* is absolute temperature), and

 $v =$ kinematic viscosity.

For free convection between a long horizontal cylinder and a large body of stationary fluid

$$
h = C(k/D) \operatorname{Ra}_D^n
$$
, where

$$
c\mathbf{B}(T - T)D^3
$$

$$
Ra_{D} = \frac{g\beta(T_s - T_{\infty})D^3}{v^2}Pr
$$

Radiation

Two-Body Problem

Applicable to any two diffuse-gray surfaces that form an enclosure.

$$
\dot{Q}_{12} = \frac{\sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{\frac{1 - \varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_1 A_1} + \frac{1}{A_1 F_{12}} + \frac{1 - \varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_2 A_2}}
$$

Generalized Cases

Radiation Shields

One-dimensional geometry with low-emissivity shield inserted between two parallel plates.

$$
\dot{Q}_{12} = \frac{\sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{\frac{1 - \varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_1 A_1} + \frac{1}{A_1 F_{13}} + \frac{1 - \varepsilon_{3,1}}{\varepsilon_{3,1} A_3} + \frac{1 - \varepsilon_{3,2}}{\varepsilon_{3,2} A_3} + \frac{1}{A_3 F_{32}} + \frac{1 - \varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_2 A_2}}
$$

Shape Factor Relations

Reciprocity relations:

$$
A_i F_{ij} = A_j F_{ji}
$$

Summation rule:

$$
\sum_{j=1}^N F_{ij} = 1
$$

Reradiating surfaces are considered to be insulated, or adiabatic $(\dot{Q}_R = 0)$.

Reradiating Surface

TRANSPORT PHENOMENA

MOMENTUM, HEAT, AND MASS TRANSFER ANALOGY

For the equations which apply to **turbulent flow in circular tubes**, the following definitions apply:

 $Nu = Nusselt Number \left[\frac{hD}{k} \right]$

 $Pr = Prandtl$ Number ($c_P \mu/k$),

- Re = Reynolds Number (*DV*ρ*/*µ),
- Sc = Schmidt Number $[\mu/(\rho D_m)]$,
- $\text{Sh} = \text{Sherwood Number } (k_m D/D_m),$
- St = Stanton Number $[h/(c_pG)]$,
- c_m = concentration (mol/m³),
- c_P = heat capacity of fluid [J/(kg⋅K)],
- $D =$ tube inside diameter (m),
- $D_m =$ diffusion coefficient (m²/s),

$$
(dc_m/dy)_w
$$
 = concentration gradient at the wall (mol/m⁴),

 $(dT/dy)_w$ = temperature gradient at the wall (K/m),

 $(dv/dy)_w$ = velocity gradient at the wall (s^{-1}) ,

- $f =$ Moody friction factor,
- $G = \text{mass velocity [kg/(m^2 \cdot s)]},$
- *h* = heat-transfer coefficient at the wall $[W/(m^2 \cdot K)]$,
- $k =$ thermal conductivity of fluid [W/(m⋅K)],
- k_m = mass-transfer coefficient (m/s),
- $L =$ length over which pressure drop occurs (m),
- $(N/A)_w$ = inward mass-transfer flux at the wall $[mol/(m^2 \cdot s)],$

 $(\dot{Q}/A)_{w}$ = inward heat-transfer flux at the wall (W/m²),

- $y =$ distance measured from inner wall toward centerline (m),
- ∆*cm* = concentration difference between wall and bulk fluid $(mol/m³)$,
- ΔT = temperature difference between wall and bulk fluid (K),
- μ = absolute dynamic viscosity (N⋅s/m²), and
- τ_w = shear stress (momentum flux) at the tube wall (N/m^2) .

Definitions already introduced also apply.

Rate of transfer as a function of gradients at the wall

Momentum Transfer:

$$
\tau_w = -\mu \left(\frac{dv}{dy}\right)_w = -\frac{f\rho V^2}{8} = \left(\frac{D}{4}\right)\left(-\frac{\Delta p}{L}\right)_f
$$

Heat Transfer:

$$
\left(\frac{\dot{Q}}{A}\right)_w = -k \left(\frac{dT}{dy}\right)_w
$$

Mass Transfer in Dilute Solutions:

$$
\left(\frac{N}{A}\right)_w = -D_m \left(\frac{dc_m}{dy}\right)_w
$$

Rate of transfer in terms of coefficients

Momentum Transfer:

$$
\tau_w = \frac{f \rho V^2}{8}
$$

Heat Transfer:

$$
\left(\frac{\dot{Q}}{A}\right)_w = h\Delta T
$$

Mass Transfer:

$$
\left(\frac{N}{A}\right)_w = k_m \Delta c_m
$$

Use of friction factor (f) to predict heat-transfer and masstransfer coefficients (turbulent flow)

Heat Transfer:

$$
j_H = \left(\frac{\text{Nu}}{\text{Re Pr}}\right) \text{Pr}^{2/3} = \frac{f}{8}
$$

Mass Transfer:

$$
j_M = \left(\frac{\text{Sh}}{\text{Re Sc}}\right) \text{Sc}^{2/3} = \frac{f}{8}
$$

Avogadro's Number: The number of elementary particles in a mol of a substance.

> 1 mol = 1 gram-mole 1 mol = 6.02×10^{23} particles

A *mol* is defined as an amount of a substance that contains as many particles as 12 grams of ^{12}C (carbon 12). The elementary particles may be atoms, molecules, ions, or electrons.

ACIDS AND BASES (aqueous solutions)

$$
pH = log_{10}\left(\frac{1}{[H^+]}\right)
$$
, where

 $[H^+]$ = molar concentration of hydrogen ion,

Acids have pH < 7.

Bases have $pH > 7$.

ELECTROCHEMISTRY

Cathode – The electrode at which reduction occurs.

Anode – The electrode at which oxidation occurs.

Oxidation – The loss of electrons.

Reduction – The gaining of electrons.

Oxidizing Agent – A species that causes others to become oxidized.

Reducing Agent $- A$ species that causes others to be reduced.

Cation – Positive ion

Anion – Negative ion

DEFINITIONS

Molarity of Solutions – The number of gram moles of a substance dissolved in a liter of solution.

Molality of Solutions – The number of gram moles of a substance per 1,000 grams of solvent.

Normality of Solutions - The product of the molarity of a solution and the number of valences taking place in a reaction.

Equivalent Mass – The number of parts by mass of an element or compound which will combine with or replace directly or indirectly 1.008 parts by mass of hydrogen, 8.000 parts of oxygen, or the equivalent mass of any other element or compound. For all elements, the atomic mass is the product of the equivalent mass and the valence.

Molar Volume of an Ideal Gas [at 0°C (32°F) and 1 atm (14.7 psia)]; 22.4 L/(g mole) [359 ft³/(lb mole)].

Mole Fraction of a Substance – The ratio of the number of moles of a substance to the total moles present in a mixture of substances. Mixture may be a solid, a liquid solution, or a gas.

Equilibrium Constant of a Chemical Reaction

$$
aA + bB \iff cC + dD
$$

$$
K_{\text{eq}} = \frac{[C]^{\text{e}}[D]^d}{[A]^a[B]^b}
$$

Le Chatelier's Principle for Chemical Equilibrium – When a stress (such as a change in concentration, pressure, or temperature) is applied to a system in equilibrium, the equilibrium shifts in such a way that tends to relieve the stress.

Heats of Reaction, Solution, Formation, and Combustion – Chemical processes generally involve the absorption or evolution of heat. In an endothermic process, heat is absorbed (enthalpy change is positive). In an exothermic process, heat is evolved (enthalpy change is negative).

Solubility Product of a slightly soluble substance *AB:*

$$
A_m B_n \to m A^{n+} + n B^{m-}
$$

Solubility Product Constant = $K_{SP} = [A^+]^m [B^+]^n$

Metallic Elements – In general, metallic elements are distinguished from non-metallic elements by their luster, malleability, conductivity, and usual ability to form positive ions.

Non-Metallic Elements – In general, non-metallic elements are not malleable, have low electrical conductivity, and rarely form positive ions.

Faraday's Law – In the process of electrolytic changes, equal quantities of electricity charge or discharge equivalent quantities of ions at each electrode. One gram equivalent weight of matter is chemically altered at each electrode for 96,485 coulombs, or one Faraday, of electricity passed through the electrolyte.

A *catalyst* is a substance that alters the rate of a chemical reaction and may be recovered unaltered in nature and amount at the end of the reaction. The catalyst does not affect the position of equilibrium of a reversible reaction.

The *atomic number* is the number of protons in the atomic nucleus. The atomic number is the essential feature which distinguishes one element from another and determines the position of the element in the periodic table.

Boiling Point Elevation – The presence of a non-volatile solute in a solvent raises the boiling point of the resulting solution compared to the pure solvent; i.e., to achieve a given vapor pressure, the temperature of the solution must be higher than that of the pure substance.

Freezing Point Depression – The presence of a non-volatile solute in a solvent lowers the freezing point of the resulting solution compared to the pure solvent.

PERIODIC TABLE OF ELEMENTS

IMPORTANT FAMILIES OF ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

Flinn, Richard A. and Paul K. Trojan, *Engineering Materials and Their Applications*, 4th Edition. Copyright © 1990 by Houghton Mifflin Company. Table used with permission.

NOTE: In some chemistry texts, the reactions and the signs of the values (in this table) are reversed; for example, the half-cell potential of zinc is given as -0.763 volt for the reaction $\text{Zn}^{2+} + 2\text{e} \rightarrow \text{Zn}$. When the potential E_0 is positive, the reaction proceeds spontaneously as written.
•

CRYSTALLOGRAPHY

Common Metallic Crystal Structures

body-centered cubic, face-centered cubic, and hexagonal close-packed.

Close-Packed (HCP)

Number of Atoms in a Cell

å.

- $BCC: 2$
- FCC: 4
- HCP: 6

Packing Factor

The packing factor is the volume of the atoms in a cell (assuming touching, hard spheres) divided by the total cell volume.

BCC: 0.68

FCC: 0.74

HCP: 0.74

Coordination Number

The coordination number is the number of closest neighboring (touching) atoms in a given lattice.

Miller Indices

The rationalized reciprocal intercepts of the intersections of the plane with the crystallographic axes:

- (111) plane. (axis intercepts at $x = y = z$)
- (112) plane. (axis intercepts at $x = 1$, $y = 1$, $z = 1/2$)

(010) planes in cubic structures. (*a*) Simple cubic. (*b*) BCC. (axis intercepts at $x = \infty$, $y = 1$, $z = \infty$)

 (b)

 (b)

(110) planes in cubic structures. (*a*) Simple cubic. (*b*) BCC. (axis intercepts at $x = 1$, $y = 1$, $z = \infty$)

ATOMIC BONDING

 (a)

 (a)

Primary Bonds

Ionic (e.g., salts, metal oxides)

Covalent (e.g., within polymer molecules)

Metallic (e.g., metals)

♦Flinn, Richard A. & Paul K. Trojan, *Engineering Materials & Their Application*, 4th Ed. Copyright © 1990 by Houghton Mifflin Co. Figure used with permission.

•Van Vlack, L., *Elements of Materials Science & Engineering*, Copyright 1989 by Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc. Diagram reprinted with permission of the publisher.

CORROSION

A table listing the standard electromotive potentials of metals is shown on page [67.](#page-71-0)

For corrosion to occur, there must be an anode and a cathode in electrical contact in the presence of an electrolyte.

Anode Reaction (oxidation)

 $M^{\circ} \rightarrow M^{n+} + n e^{-}$

Possible Cathode Reactions (reduction)

$$
\frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2 e^- + H_2O \rightarrow 2 \text{ OH}^-
$$

$$
\frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2 e^- + 2 H_3O^+ \rightarrow 3 H_2O
$$

$$
2 e^- + 2 H_3O^+ \rightarrow 2 H_2O + H_2
$$

When dissimilar metals are in contact, the more electropositive one becomes the anode in a corrosion cell. Different regions of carbon steel can also result in a corrosion reaction: e.g., cold-worked regions are anodic to non-coldworked; different oxygen concentrations can cause oxygendeficient region to become cathodic to oxygen-rich regions; grain boundary regions are anodic to bulk grain; in multiphase alloys, various phases may not have the same galvanic potential.

DIFFUSION

Diffusion coefficient

 $D = D_0 e^{-Q/(RT)}$, where

- $D =$ the diffusion coefficient,
- D_0 = the proportionality constant,
- $Q =$ the activation energy,
- *R* = the gas constant $[1.987 \text{ cal/(g mol·K)}]$, and
- *T* = the absolute temperature.

BINARY PHASE DIAGRAMS

Allows determination of (1) what phases are present at equilibrium at any temperature and average composition, (2) the compositions of those phases, and (3) the fractions of those phases.

Eutectic reaction (liquid \rightarrow two solid phases)

Eutectoid reaction (solid \rightarrow two solid phases)

Peritectic reaction (liquid + solid \rightarrow solid)

Pertectoid reaction (two solid phases \rightarrow solid)

Lever Rule

The following phase diagram and equations illustrate how the weight of each phase in a two-phase system can be determined:

(In diagram, $L =$ liquid) If $x =$ the average composition at temperature *T*, then

wt %
$$
\alpha = \frac{x_{\beta} - x}{x_{\beta} - x_{\alpha}} \times 100
$$

wt % $\beta = \frac{x - x_{\alpha}}{x_{\beta} - x_{\alpha}} \times 100$

Iron-Iron Carbide Phase Diagram

Gibbs Phase Rule

$$
P + F = C + 2
$$
, where

P = the number of phases that can coexist in equilibrium,

 $F =$ the number of degrees of freedom, and

 $C =$ the number of components involved.

[•]Van Vlack, L., *Elements of Materials Science & Engineering*, Copyright © 1989 by Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc. Diagram reprinted with permission of the publisher.

THERMAL PROCESSING

Cold working (plastically deforming) a metal increases strength and lowers ductility.

Raising temperature causes (1) recovery (stress relief), (2) recrystallization, and (3) grain growth. *Hot working* allows these processes to occur simultaneously with deformation.

Quenching is rapid cooling from elevated temperature, preventing the formation of equilibrium phases.

In steels, quenching austenite [FCC $(γ)$ iron] can result in martensite instead of equilibrium phases—ferrite [BCC (α)] iron] and cementite (iron carbide).

TESTING METHODS

Standard Tensile Test

Using the standard tensile test, one can determine elastic modulus, yield strength, ultimate tensile strength, and ductility (% elongation).

Endurance Test

Endurance tests (fatigue tests to find endurance limit) apply a cyclical loading of constant maximum amplitude. The plot (usually semi-log or log-log) of the maximum stress (σ) and the number (*N*) of cycles to failure is known as an *S-N* plot. (Typical of steel, may not be true for other metals; i.e., aluminum alloys, etc.)

The *endurance stress* (*endurance limit* or *fatigue limit*) is the maximum stress which can be repeated indefinitely without causing failure. The *fatigue life* is the number of cycles required to cause failure for a given stress level.

Impact Test

The *Charpy Impact Test* is used to find energy required to fracture and to identify ductile to brittle transition.

Impact tests determine the amount of energy required to cause failure in standardized test samples. The tests are repeated over a range of temperatures to determine the *transition temperature*.

HARDENABILITY

Hardenability is the "ease" with which hardness may be attained. *Hardness* is a measure of resistance to plastic deformation.

(#2) and (#8) indicated ASTM grain size

•

• Van Vlack, L., *Elements of Materials Science & Engineering*, Copyright © 1989 by Addison-Wesley Pub. Co., Inc. Diagrams reprinted with permission of the publisher.

ASTM GRAIN SIZE *SV* = 2*PL*

$$
S_V = 2P_L
$$

$$
N_{(0.0645 \text{ mm}^2)} = 2^{(n-1)}
$$

$$
\frac{N_{\text{actual}}}{\text{Actual Area}} = \frac{N}{(0.0645 \text{ mm}^2)}, \text{ where}
$$

- S_V = grain-boundary surface per unit volume,
- P_L = number of points of intersection per unit length between the line and the boundaries,
- $N =$ number of grains observed in a area of 0.0645 mm², and
- $n = \text{grain size (nearest integer} > 1).$

COMPOSITE MATERIALS

$$
\rho_c = \Sigma f_i \rho_i
$$

$$
C_c = \Sigma f_i c_i
$$

$$
E_c = \Sigma f_i E_i
$$
, where

- ρ_c = density of composite,
- C_c = heat capacity of composite per unit volume,
- E_c = Young's modulus of composite,
- f_i = volume fraction of individual material,
- c_i = heat capacity of individual material per unit volume, and
- E_i = Young's modulus of individual material.

Also

$$
(\Delta L/L)_1 = (\Delta L/L)_2
$$

 $(\alpha \Delta T + e)_1 = (\alpha \Delta T + e)_2$

$$
[\alpha \Delta T + (F/A)/E]_1 = [\alpha \Delta T + (F/A)/E]_2
$$
, where

- ΔL = change in length of a material,
- $L =$ original length of the material,
- α = coefficient of expansion for a material,
- $\Delta T =$ change in temperature for the material,
- *e* = elongation of the material,
- $F =$ force in a material,
- *A* = cross-sectional area of the material, and
- *E* = Young's modulus for the material.

HALF-LIFE

 $N = N_o e^{-0.693t/\tau}$, where

- N_o = original number of atoms,
- $N =$ final number of atoms,
- $t =$ time, and
- τ = half-life.

ELECTRIC CIRCUITS

UNITS

The basic electrical units are coulombs for charge, volts for voltage, amperes for current, and ohms for resistance and impedance.

ELECTROSTATICS

$$
\mathbf{F}_2 = \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon r^2} \mathbf{a}_{r12}
$$
, where

- \mathbf{F}_2 = the force on charge 2 due to charge 1,
- Q_i = the *i*th point charge,

 $r =$ the distance between charges 1 and 2,

 a_{r12} = a unit vector directed from 1 to 2, and

 ϵ = the permittivity of the medium.

For free space or air:

 $\epsilon = \epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12}$ Farads/meter

Electrostatic Fields

Electric field intensity **E** (volts**/**meter) at point 2 due to a point charge Q_1 at point 1 is

$$
\mathbf{E} = \frac{Q_1}{4\pi\epsilon r^2} \mathbf{a}_{r12}
$$

For a line charge of density ρ*L* C**/**m on the *z*-axis, the radial electric field is

> $L = \frac{P_L}{2\pi\epsilon r} \mathbf{a}_r$ $E_L = \frac{PL}{2}$ **a** $=\frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\epsilon}$

For a sheet charge of density ρ_s C/m² in the *x*-*y* plane:

$$
\mathbf{E}_s = \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon} \mathbf{a}_z, z > 0
$$

Gauss' law states that the integral of the electric flux density $D = \varepsilon E$ over a closed surface is equal to the charge enclosed or

$$
Q_{encl} = \oint_S \mathbf{\varepsilon} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{S}
$$

The force on a point charge *Q* in an electric field with intensity \bf{E} is $\bf{F} = \bf{QE}$.

The work done by an external agent in moving a charge *Q* in an electric field from point p_1 to point p_2 is

$$
W = -Q \int_{p_1}^{p_2} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}
$$

The energy stored W_F in an electric field **E** is

$$
W_E = (1/2) \iiint_V \varepsilon \mid \mathbf{E} \mid^2 d\nu
$$

Voltage

The potential difference *V* between two points is the work per unit charge required to move the charge between the points.

For two parallel plates with potential difference *V*, separated by distance *d*, the strength of the *E* field between the plates is

$$
E = \frac{V}{d}
$$

directed from the $+$ plate to the $-$ plate.

Current

Electric current $i(t)$ through a surface is defined as the rate of charge transport through that surface or

$$
i(t) = dq(t)/dt
$$
, which is a function of time t

since $q(t)$ denotes instantaneous charge.

A constant $i(t)$ is written as I , and the vector current density in amperes/ m^2 is defined as **J**.

Magnetic Fields

For a current carrying wire on the *z*-axis

$$
H = \frac{B}{\mu} = \frac{Ia_{\phi}}{2\pi r}, \text{ where}
$$

H = the magnetic field strength (amperes/meter),

 \mathbf{B} = the magnetic flux density (tesla),

- a_{ϕ} = the unit vector in positive ϕ direction in cylindrical coordinates,
- *I* = the current, and
- μ = the permeability of the medium.

For air:
$$
\mu = \mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7}
$$
 H/m

Force on a current carrying conductor in a uniform magnetic field is

$$
F = IL \times B
$$
, where

 $L =$ the length vector of a conductor.

The energy stored W_H in a magnetic field **H** is

$$
W_H = (1/2) \iiint_V \mu \mid \mathbf{H} \mid^2 dv
$$

Induced Voltage

Faraday's Law; For a coil of *N* turns enclosing flux φ:

$$
v = -N d\phi/dt
$$
, where

- $v =$ the induced voltage, and
- φ = the flux (webers) enclosed by the *N* conductor turns, and

 $\phi = \int_S \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$

Resistivity

For a conductor of length L , electrical resistivity ρ , and area *A*, the resistance is

$$
R = \frac{\rho L}{A}
$$

For metallic conductors, the resistivity and resistance vary linearly with changes in temperature according to the following relationships:

$$
\rho = \rho_o [1 + \alpha (T - T_o)], \text{ and}
$$

$$
R = R_o [1 + \alpha (T - T_o)],
$$
 where

 ρ_0 is resistivity at T_0 , R_0 is the resistance at T_0 , and

 α is the temperature coefficient.

Ohm's Law:
$$
V = IR
$$
; $v(t) = i(t) R$

Resistors in Series and Parallel

For series connections, the current in all resistors is the same and the equivalent resistance for *n* resistors in series is

$$
R_{\rm T}=R_1+R_2+\ldots+R_n
$$

For parallel connections of resistors, the voltage drop across each resistor is the same and the resistance for *n* resistors in parallel is

$$
R_{\rm T} = 1/(1/R_1 + 1/R_2 + \ldots + 1/R_n)
$$

For two resistors R_1 and R_2 in parallel

$$
R_T = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}
$$

Power in a Resistive Element

$$
P = VI = \frac{V^2}{R} = I^2 R
$$

Kirchhoff's Laws

Kirchhoff's voltage law for a closed loop is expressed by

$$
\Sigma V_{\text{rises}} = \Sigma V_{\text{drops}}
$$

Kirchhoff's current law for a closed surface is

 Σ *I*_{in} = Σ *I*_{out}

SOURCE EQUIVALENTS

For an arbitrary circuit

The Thévenin equivalent is

The open circuit voltage V_{oc} is $V_a - V_b$, and the short circuit current is $I_{\rm sc}$ from *a* to *b*.

The Norton equivalent circuit is

where $I_{\rm sc}$ and $R_{\rm eq}$ are defined above.

A load resistor *RL* connected across terminals *a* and *b* will draw maximum power when $R_L = R_{eq.}$

CAPACITORS AND INDUCTORS

The charge $q_C(t)$ and voltage $v_C(t)$ relationship for a capacitor *C* in farads is

$$
C = q_C(t)/v_C(t) \qquad \text{or} \qquad q_C(t) = Cv_C(t)
$$

A parallel plate capacitor of area *A* with plates separated a distance d by an insulator with a permittivity ε has a capacitance

$$
C = \frac{\varepsilon A}{d}
$$

The current-voltage relationships for a capacitor are

$$
v_C(t) = v_C(0) + \frac{1}{C} \int_0^t i_C(\tau) d\tau
$$

and $i_C(t) = C (dv_C/dt)$

The energy stored in a capacitor is expressed in joules and given by

Energy =
$$
Cv_c^2/2 = q_c^2/2C = q_Cv_C/2
$$

The inductance *L* of a coil is

$$
L = N\phi / i_L
$$

and using Faraday's law, the voltage-current relations for an inductor are

$$
v_L(t) = L (di_L/dt)
$$

$$
i_L(t) = i_L(0) + \frac{1}{L} \int_0^t v_L(\tau) d\tau
$$
, where

inductor voltage,

- *L* = inductance (henrys), and
- $i =$ current (amperes).

The energy stored in an inductor is expressed in joules and given by

Energy =
$$
Li_L^2/2
$$

Capacitors and Inductors in Parallel and Series

Capacitors in Parallel

$$
C_{\text{eq}} = C_1 + C_2 + \dots + C_n
$$

Capacitors in Series

$$
C_{\text{eq}} = \frac{1}{1/C_1 + 1/C_2 + \dots + 1/C_n}
$$

Inductors In Parallel

$$
L_{\text{eq}} = \frac{1}{1/L_1 + 1/L_2 + \dots + 1/L_n}
$$

Inductors In Series

$$
L_{\text{eq}} = L_1 + L_2 + \ldots + L_n
$$

RC AND RL TRANSIENTS

$$
t \ge 0; v_C(t) = v_C(0)e^{-t/RC} + V(1 - e^{-t/RC})
$$

$$
i(t) = \{[V - v_C(0)]/R\}e^{-t/RC}
$$

$$
v_R(t) = i(t) R = [V - v_C(0)]e^{-t/RC}
$$

$$
t \ge 0; \ i(t) = i(0)e^{-Rt/L} + \frac{V}{R}(1 - e^{-Rt/L})
$$

$$
v_R(t) = i(t) \ R = i(0) \ Re^{-Rt/L} + V(1 - e^{-Rt/L})
$$

$$
v_L(t) = L (di/dt) = -i(0) \ Re^{-Rt/L} + Ve^{-Rt/L}
$$

where $v(0)$ and $i(0)$ denote the initial conditions and the parameters *RC* and *L/R* are termed the respective circuit time constants.

OPERATIONAL AMPLIFIERS

 $v_0 = A(v_1 - v_2)$ where

A is large ($> 10⁴$), and

 $v_1 - v_2$ is small enough so as not to saturate the amplifier.

For the ideal operational amplifier, assume that the input currents are zero and that the gain *A* is infinite so when operating linearly $v_2 - v_1 = 0$.

For the two-source configuration with an ideal operational amplifier,

If $v_a = 0$, we have a non-inverting amplifier with

$$
v_o = \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}\right) v_b
$$

If $v_b = 0$, we have an inverting amplifier with

$$
v_o = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} v_a
$$

AC CIRCUITS

For a sinusoidal voltage or current of frequency *f* (Hz) and period *T* (seconds),

$$
f = 1/T = \omega/(2\pi)
$$
, where

 ω = the angular frequency in radians/s.

Average Value

For a periodic waveform (either voltage or current) with period *T*,

$$
X_{\text{ave}} = \left(\frac{1}{T}\right)^T \int_0^T x(t) dt
$$

The average value of a full-wave rectified sine wave is

$$
X_{\text{ave}} = (2X_{\text{max}})/\pi
$$

and half this for a half-wave rectification, where

 $X_{\text{max}} =$ the peak amplitude of the waveform.

Effective or RMS Values

For a periodic waveform with period *T*, the rms or effective value is

$$
X_{\rm rms} = \left[\left(1/T \right) \int_0^T x^2(t) dt \right]^{1/2}
$$

For a sinusoidal waveform and full-wave rectified sine wave,

$$
X_{\rm rms} = X_{\rm max} / \sqrt{2}
$$

For a half-wave rectified sine wave,

$$
X_{\rm rms} = X_{\rm max}/2
$$

Sine-Cosine Relations

cos (ω*t*) = sin (ω*t* + $\pi/2$) = – sin (ω*t* – $\pi/2$) $\sin (\omega t) = \cos (\omega t - \pi/2) = -\cos (\omega t + \pi/2)$

Phasor Transforms of Sinusoids

$$
P[V_{\text{max}}\cos{(\omega t + \phi)}] = V_{\text{rms}} \angle \phi = V
$$

 $P[I_{\text{max}} \cos (\omega t + \theta)] = I_{\text{rms}} \angle \theta = I$

For a circuit element, the impedance is defined as the ratio of phasor voltage to phasor current.

$$
Z = \frac{V}{I}
$$

For a Resistor,

$$
Z_{\rm R}=R
$$

For a Capacitor,

$$
Z_{\rm C} = \frac{1}{\text{j}\omega C} = \text{j}X_{\rm C}
$$

For an Inductor,

$$
Z_{\rm L} = j\omega L = jX_{\rm L}
$$
, where

 $X_{\rm C}$ and $X_{\rm L}$ are the capacitive and inductive reactances respectively defined as

$$
X_C = -\frac{1}{\omega C} \quad \text{and} \quad X_L = \omega L
$$

Impedances in series combine additively while those in parallel combine according to the reciprocal rule just as in the case of resistors.

Complex Power

Real power *P* (watts) is defined by

$$
P = (\frac{1}{2})V_{\text{max}}I_{\text{max}} \cos \theta
$$

$$
= V_{\text{rms}}I_{\text{rms}} \cos \theta
$$

where θ is the angle measured from *V* to *I*. If *I* leads (lags) *V*, then the power factor (*p*.*f*.),

 $p.f. = \cos \theta$

is said to be a leading (lagging) *p*.*f*.

Reactive power *Q* (vars) is defined by

$$
Q = (\frac{1}{2})V_{\text{max}}I_{\text{max}} \sin \theta
$$

$$
= V_{\rm rms} I_{\rm rms} \sin \theta
$$

Complex power *S* (volt-amperes) is defined by

$$
S = VI^* = P + jQ,
$$

where I^* is the complex conjugate of the phasor current.

For resistors, $\theta = 0$, so the real power is

$$
P = V_{rms}I_{rms} = V_{rms}^2/R = I_{rms}^2R
$$

RESONANCE

The radian resonant frequency for both parallel and series resonance situations is

$$
\omega_o = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} = 2\pi f_o \text{ (rad/s)}
$$

Series Resonance

$$
\omega_o L = \frac{1}{\omega_o C}
$$

 $Z = R$ at resonance.

$$
Q = \frac{\omega_o L}{R} = \frac{1}{\omega_o CR}
$$

$$
BW = \omega_o/Q \text{ (rad/s)}
$$

Parallel Resonance

$$
\omega_o L = \frac{1}{\omega_o C}
$$
 and

 $Z = R$ at resonance.

$$
Q = \omega_o RC = \frac{R}{\omega_o L}
$$

$$
BW = \omega_o/Q \text{ (rad/s)}
$$

Turns Ratio

$$
a = N_1 / N_2
$$

$$
a = \left| \frac{V_p}{V_s} \right| = \left| \frac{I_s}{I_p} \right|
$$

The impedance seen at the input is

$$
Z_{\rm P} = a^2 Z_{\rm S}
$$

ALGEBRA OF COMPLEX NUMBERS

Complex numbers may be designated in rectangular form or polar form. In rectangular form, a complex number is written in terms of its real and imaginary components.

$$
z = a + jb
$$
, where

- *a* = the real component,
- $b =$ the imaginary component, and

$$
j = \sqrt{-1}
$$

In polar form

$$
z = c \angle \theta, \text{ where}
$$
\n
$$
c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2},
$$
\n
$$
\theta = \tan^{-1} (b/a),
$$
\n
$$
a = c \cos \theta, \text{ and}
$$
\n
$$
b = c \sin \theta.
$$

Complex numbers are added and subtracted in rectangular form. If

$$
z_1 = a_1 + jb_1 = c_1 (\cos \theta_1 + j\sin \theta_1)
$$

\n
$$
= c_1 \angle \theta_1 \text{ and}
$$

\n
$$
z_2 = a_2 + jb_2 = c_2 (\cos \theta_2 + j\sin \theta_2)
$$

\n
$$
= c_2 \angle \theta_2, \text{ then}
$$

\n
$$
z_1 + z_2 = (a_1 + a_2) + j (b_1 + b_2) \text{ and}
$$

\n
$$
z_1 - z_2 = (a_1 - a_2) + j (b_1 - b_2)
$$

While complex numbers can be multiplied or divided in rectangular form, it is more convenient to perform these operations in polar form.

$$
z_1 \times z_2 = (c_1 \times c_2) \angle \theta_1 + \theta_2
$$

$$
z_1/z_2 = (c_1/c_2) \angle \theta_1 - \theta_2
$$

The complex conjugate of a complex number $z_1 = (a_1 + jb_1)$ is defined as $z_1^* = (a_1 - ib_1)$. The product of a complex number and its complex conjugate is $z_1z_1^* = a_1^2 + b_1^2$.

COMPUTERS, MEASUREMENT, AND CONTROLS

COMPUTER KNOWLEDGE

Examinees are expected to possess a level of computer expertise required to perform in a typical undergraduate environment. Thus only generic problems that do not require a knowledge of a specific language or computer type will be required. Examinees are expected to be familiar with flow charts, pseudo code, and spread sheets (Lotus, Quattro-Pro, Excel, etc.).

INSTRUMENTATION

General Considerations

In making any measurement, the response of the total measurement system, including the behavior of the sensors and any signal processors, is best addressed using the methods of control systems. Response time and the effect of the sensor on the parameter being measured may affect accuracy of a measurement. Moreover, many transducers exhibit some sensitivity to phenomena other than the primary parameter being measured. All of these considerations affect accuracy, stability, noise sensitivity, and precision of any measurement. In the case of digital measurement systems, the limit of resolution corresponds to one bit.

Examples of Types of Sensors

Fluid-based sensors such as manometers, orifice and venturi flow meters, and pitot tubes are discussed in the **FLUID MECHANICS** section.

Resistance-based sensors include resistance temperature detectors (RTDs), which are metal resistors, and thermistors, which are semiconductors. Both have electrical resistivities that are temperature dependent.

Electrical-resistance strain gages are metallic or semiconducting foils whose resistance changes with dimensional change (strain). They are widely used in load cells. The gage is attached to the surface whose strain is to be measured. The gage factor (G.F.) of these devices is defined by

$$
G.F. = \frac{\Delta R/R}{\Delta L/L} = \frac{\Delta R/R}{\epsilon}, \text{ where}
$$

 R = electrical resistance,

- $L =$ the length of the gage section, and
- ϵ = the normal strain sensed by the gage.

Strain gages sense normal strain along their principal axis. They do not respond to shear strain. Therefore, multiple gages must be used along with Mohr's circle techniques to determine the complete plane strain state.

Resistance-based sensors are generally used in a bridge circuit that detects small changes in resistance. The output of a bridge circuit with only one variable resistor (quarter bridge configuration) is given by

$$
V_{\text{out}} = V_{\text{input}} \times [\Delta R/(4R)]
$$

Half-bridge and full-bridge configurations use two or four variable resistors, respectively. A full-bridge strain gage circuit gives a voltage output of

$$
V_{\text{out}} = V_{\text{input}} \times G.F. \times (\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_3 - \varepsilon_4)/4
$$

Half- or full-strain gage bridge configurations can be developed that are sensitive to only some types of loading (axial, bending, shear) while being insensitive to others.

Piezoelectric sensors produce a voltage in response to a mechanical load. These transducers are widely used as force or pressure transducers. With the addition of an inertial mass, they are used as accelerometers.

Thermocouples are junctions of dissimilar metals which produce a voltage whose magnitude is temperature dependent.

Capacitance-based transducers are used as position sensors. The capacitance of two flat plates depends on their separation or on the area of overlap.

Inductance-based transducers or differential transformers also function as displacement transducers. The inductive coupling between a primary and secondary coil depends on the position of a soft magnetic core. This is the basis for the Linear Variable Differential Transformer (LVDT).

MEASUREMENT UNCERTAINTY

Suppose that a calculated result *R* depends on measurements whose values are $x_1 \pm w_1$, $x_2 \pm w_2$, $x_3 \pm w_3$, etc., where $R =$ $f(x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_n)$, x_i is the measured value, and w_i is the uncertainty in that value. The uncertainty in R , w_R , can be estimated using the Kline-McClintock equation:

$$
w_R = \sqrt{\left(w_1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}\right)^2 + \left(w_2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(w_n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}\right)^2}
$$

CONTROL SYSTEMS

The linear time-invariant transfer function model represented by the block diagram

can be expressed as the ratio of two polynomials in the form

$$
\frac{X(s)}{Y(s)} = G(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)} = K \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{M} (s - z_m)}{\prod_{n=1}^{N} (s - p_n)}
$$

where the *M* zeros, z_m , and the *N* poles, p_n , are the roots of the numerator polynomial, *N*(*s*), and the denominator polynomial, *D*(*s*), respectively.

One classical negative feedback control system model block diagram is

where $G_R(s)$ describes an input processor, $G_C(s)$ a controller or compensator, $G_1(s)$ and $G_2(s)$ represent a partitioned plant model, and *H*(*s*) a feedback function. *Y*(*s*) represents the controlled variable, *R*(*s*) represents the reference input, and *L*(*s*) represents a load disturbance. *Y*(*s*) is related to *R*(*s*) and $L(s)$ by

 \sim \sim

$$
Y(s) = \frac{G_c(s)G_1(s)G_2(s)G_R(s)}{1+G_c(s)G_1(s)G_2(s)H(s)}R(s)
$$

+
$$
\frac{G_2(s)}{1+G_c(s)G_1(s)G_2(s)H(s)}L(s)
$$

 $G_C(s)$ $G_1(s)$ $G_2(s)$ $H(s)$ is the open-loop transfer function. The closed-loop characteristic equation is

$$
1 + G_C(s) G_1(s) G_2(s) H(s) = 0
$$

System performance studies normally include:

1. Steady-state analysis using constant inputs is based on the Final Value Theorem. If all poles of a *G*(*s*) function have negative real parts, then

Steady State Gain =
$$
\lim_{s\to 0} G(s)
$$

For the unity feedback control system model

with the open-loop transfer function defined by

$$
G(s) = \frac{K_B}{s^T} \times \frac{\prod_{m=1}^{M} (1 + s/\omega_m)}{\prod_{n=1}^{N} (1 + s/\omega_n)}
$$

The following steady-state error analysis table can be constructed where *T* denotes the type of system; i.e., type 0, type 1, etc.

2. Frequency response evaluations to determine dynamic performance and stability. For example, relative stability can be quantified in terms of

a. Gain margin (GM) which is the additional gain required to produce instability in the unity gain feedback control system. If at $\omega = \omega_{180}$,

 $\angle G(i\omega_{180}) = -180^\circ$; then

 $GM = -20log_{10} (|G(j\omega_{180})|)$

b. Phase margin (PM) which is the additional phase required to produce instability. Thus,

$$
PM = 180^{\circ} + \angle G(j\omega_{\text{odB}})
$$

where ω_{bdB} is the ω that satisfies $|G(j\omega)| = 1$.

3. Transient responses are obtained by using Laplace Transforms or computer solutions with numerical integration.

Common Compensator/Controller forms are

PID Controller
$$
G_C(s) = K \left(1 + \frac{1}{T_I s} + T_D s \right)
$$

Lag or Lead Compensator $G_C(s) = K \left(\frac{1 + sT_1}{1 + sT_2} \right)$

depending on the ratio of T_1/T_2 .

Routh Test

For the characteristic equation

$$
a_n s^n + a_{n-1} s^{n-1} + a_{n-2} s^{n-2} + \dots + a_0 = 0
$$

the coefficients are arranged into the first two rows of an array. Additional rows are computed. The array and coefficient computations are defined by:

where

$$
b_1 = \frac{a_{n-1}a_{n-2} - a_n a_{n-3}}{a_{n-1}} \qquad c_1 = \frac{a_{n-3}b_1 - a_{n-1}b_2}{b_1}
$$

$$
b_2 = \frac{a_{n-1}a_{n-4} - a_n a_{n-5}}{a_{n-1}} \qquad c_2 = \frac{a_{n-5}b_1 - a_{n-1}b_3}{b_1}
$$

The necessary and sufficient conditions for all the roots of the equation to have negative real parts is that all the elements in the first column be of the same sign and nonzero.

Second-Order Control-System Models

One standard second-order control-system model is

$$
\frac{Y(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{K\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}
$$
, where

 $K =$ steady state gain,

 ζ = the damping ratio,

 ω_n = the undamped natural ($\zeta = 0$) frequency,

$$
\omega_d = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}
$$
, the damped natural frequency,

and

 $\omega_p = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - 2\zeta^2}$, the damped resonant frequency.

If the damping ratio ζ is less than unity, the system is said to be underdamped; if ζ is equal to unity, it is said to be critically damped; and if ζ is greater than unity, the system is said to be overdamped.

For a unit step input to a normalized underdamped secondorder control system, the time required to reach a peak value t_p and the value of that peak M_p are given by

$$
t_p = \pi \Big/ \Big(\omega_n \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2} \Big)
$$

$$
M_p = 1 + e^{-\pi \zeta / \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}}
$$

For an underdamped second-order system, the logarithmic decrement is

$$
\delta = \frac{1}{m} \ln \left(\frac{x_k}{x_{k+m}} \right) = \frac{2\pi\zeta}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}}
$$

COMPUTERS, MEASUREMENT, AND CONTROLS (continued)

where x_k and x_{k+m} are the amplitudes of oscillation at cycles *k* and $k + m$, respectively. The period of oscillation τ is related to ω*d* by

$$
\omega_d\,\tau=2\pi
$$

The time required for the output of a second-order system to settle to within 2% of its final value is defined to be

$$
T_s = \frac{4}{\zeta \omega_n}
$$

State-Variable Control-System Models

One common state-variable model for dynamic systems has the form

$$
\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}(t)
$$
 (state equation)

$$
\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{u}(t)
$$
 (output equation)

where

 $\mathbf{x}(t) = N \text{ by } 1 \text{ state vector } (N \text{ state variables}),$

 $u(t) = R$ by 1 input vector (*R* inputs),

 $y(t) = M$ by 1 output vector (*M* outputs),

 $A =$ system matrix,

B = input distribution matrix,

- $C =$ output matrix, and
- \mathbf{D} = feed-through matrix.

The orders of the matrices are defined via variable definitions.

State-variable models automatically handle multiple inputs and multiple outputs. Furthermore, state-variable models can be formulated for open-loop system components or the complete closed-loop system.

The Laplace transform of the time-invariant state equation is

$$
s\mathbf{X}(s) - \mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}(s) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{U}(s)
$$

from which

$$
\mathbf{X}(s) = \mathbf{\Phi}(s) \mathbf{x}(0) + \mathbf{\Phi}(s) \mathbf{B} \mathbf{U}(s)
$$

where the Laplace transform of the state transition matrix is

$$
\mathbf{\Phi}(s) = [s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}]^{-1}.
$$

The state-transition matrix

$$
\mathbf{\Phi}(t) = L^{-1}\{\mathbf{\Phi}(s)\}
$$

(also defined as e^{At}) can be used to write

$$
\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{\Phi}(t) \mathbf{x}(0) + \int_0^t \Phi(t - \tau) \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau
$$

The output can be obtained with the output equation; e.g., the Laplace transform output is

$$
\mathbf{Y}(s) = \{ \mathbf{C} \mathbf{\Phi}(s) \mathbf{B} + \mathbf{D} \} \mathbf{U}(s) + \mathbf{C} \mathbf{\Phi}(s) \mathbf{x}(0)
$$

The latter term represents the output(s) due to initial conditions whereas the former term represents the output(s) due to the **U**(*s*) inputs and gives rise to transfer function definitions.

ENGINEERING ECONOMICS

NOMENCLATURE AND DEFINITIONS

- *A*.......... Uniform amount per interest period
- *B*.......... Benefit
- *BV* Book Value
- *C*.......... Cost
- *d* Combined interest rate per interest period
- *Dj*......... Depreciation in year *j*
- *F*.......... Future worth, value, or amount
- *f* General inflation rate per interest period
- *G* Uniform gradient amount per interest period
- *i* Interest rate per interest period
- *i*_e.......... Annual effective interest rate
- *m* Number of compounding periods per year
- *n* Number of compounding periods; or the expected life of an asset
- *P*.......... Present worth, value, or amount
- *r*........... Nominal annual interest rate
- *Sn* Expected salvage value in year *n*

Subscripts

- *j* at time *j*
- *n* at time *n*
- ****** *P/G* = (*F/G*)**/**(*F/P*) = (*P/A*) × (*A/G*)
- \uparrow $F/G = (F/A n)/i = (F/A) \times (A/G)$

 \ddagger $A/G = [1 - n(A/F)]/i$

NON-ANNUAL COMPOUNDING

$$
i_e = \left(1 + \frac{r}{m}\right)^m - 1
$$

Discount Factors for Continuous Compounding

$$
(n \text{ is the number of years})
$$
\n
$$
(F/P, r\%, n) = e^{r n}
$$
\n
$$
(P/F, r\%, n) = e^{-r n}
$$
\n
$$
(A/F, r\%, n) = \frac{e^{r} - 1}{e^{r n} - 1}
$$
\n
$$
(F/A, r\%, n) = \frac{e^{r n} - 1}{e^{r} - 1}
$$
\n
$$
(A/P, r\%, n) = \frac{e^{r} - 1}{e^{r} - 1}
$$

$$
(A/P, r\%, n) = \frac{c}{1 - e^{-rn}}
$$

$$
(P/A, r\%, n) = \frac{1 - e^{-rn}}{e^{r} - 1}
$$

BOOK VALUE

 BV = initial cost – ΣD_i

DEPRECIATION

Straight Line

$$
D_j = \frac{C - S_n}{n}
$$

Accelerated Cost Recovery System (ACRS)

 D_i = (factor) C

A table of modified factors is provided below.

CAPITALIZED COSTS

Capitalized costs are present worth values using an assumed perpetual period of time.

> Capitalized Costs = $P =$ *i A*

BONDS

Bond Value equals the present worth of the payments the purchaser (or holder of the bond) receives during the life of the bond at some interest rate *i*.

Bond Yield equals the computed interest rate of the bond value when compared with the bond cost.

RATE-OF-RETURN

The minimum acceptable rate-of-return is that interest rate that one is willing to accept, or the rate one desires to earn on investments. The rate-of-return on an investment is the interest rate that makes the benefits and costs equal.

By altering the value of any one of the variables in a situation, holding all of the other values constant, it is possible to find a value for that variable that makes the two alternatives equally economical. This value is the breakeven point.

Break-even analysis is used to describe the percentage of capacity of operation for a manufacturing plant at which income will just cover expenses.

The payback period is the period of time required for the profit or other benefits of an investment to equal the cost of the investment.

INFLATION

To account for inflation, the dollars are deflated by the general inflation rate per interest period *f*, and then they are shifted over the time scale using the interest rate per interest period *i*. Use a combined interest rate per interest period *d* for computing present worth values *P* and Net *P*. The formula for *d* is

$$
d = i + f + (i \times f)
$$

BREAK-EVEN ANALYSIS

BENEFIT-COST ANALYSIS

In a benefit-cost analysis, the benefits *B* of a project should exceed the estimated costs *C*.

$$
B - C \ge 0, \text{ or } B/C \ge 1
$$

Factor Table - $i = 0.50\%$

\boldsymbol{n}	P/F	P/A	P/G	F/P	F/A	A/P	A/F	A/G
	0.9950	0.9950	0.0000	1.0050	1.0000	1.0050	1.0000	0.0000
2	0.9901	1.9851	0.9901	1.0100	2.0050	0.5038	0.4988	0.4988
3	0.9851	2.9702	2.9604	1.0151	3.0150	0.3367	0.3317	0.9967
Δ	0.9802	3.9505	5.9011	1.0202	4.0301	0.2531	0.2481	1.4938
5	0.9754	4.9259	9.8026	1.0253	5.0503	0.2030	0.1980	1.9900
6	0.9705	5.8964	14.6552	1.0304	6.0755	0.1696	0.1646	2.4855
	0.9657	6.8621	20.4493	1.0355	7.1059	0.1457	0.1407	2.9801
8	0.9609	7.8230	27.1755	1.0407	8.1414	0.1278	0.1228	3.4738
9	0.9561	8.7791	34.8244	1.0459	9.1821	0.1139	0.1089	3.9668
10	0.9513	9.7304	43.3865	1.0511	10.2280	0.1028	0.0978	4.4589
11	0.9466	10.6770	52.8526	1.0564	11.2792	0.0937	0.0887	4.9501
12	0.9419	11.6189	63.2136	1.0617	12.3356	0.0861	0.0811	5.4406
13	0.9372	12.5562	74.4602	1.0670	13.3972	0.0796	0.0746	5.9302
14	0.9326	13.4887	86.5835	1.0723	14.4642	0.0741	0.0691	6.4190
15	0.9279	14.4166	99.5743	1.0777	15.5365	0.0694	0.0644	6.9069
16	0.9233	15.3399	113.4238	1.0831	16.6142	0.0652	0.0602	7.3940
17	0.9187	16.2586	128.1231	1.0885	17.6973	0.0615	0.0565	7.8803
18	0.9141	17.1728	143.6634	1.0939	18.7858	0.0582	0.0532	8.3658
19	0.9096	18.0824	160.0360	1.0994	19.8797	0.0553	0.0503	8.8504
20	0.9051	18.9874	177.2322	1.1049	20.9791	0.0527	0.0477	9.3342
21	0.9006	19.8880	195.2434	1.1104	22.0840	0.0503	0.0453	9.8172
22	0.8961	20.7841	214.0611	1.1160	23.1944	0.0481	0.0431	10.2993
23	0.8916	21.6757	233.6768	1.1216	24.3104	0.0461	0.0411	10.7806
24	0.8872	22.5629	254.0820	1.1272	25.4320	0.0443	0.0393	11.2611
25	0.8828	23.4456	275.2686	1.1328	26.5591	0.0427	0.0377	11.7407
30	0.8610	27.7941	392.6324	1.1614	32.2800	0.0360	0.0310	14.1265
40	0.8191	36.1722	681.3347	1.2208	44.1588	0.0276	0.0226	18.8359
50	0.7793	44.1428	1,035.6966	1.2832	56.6452	0.0227	0.0177	23.4624
60	0.7414	51.7256	1,448.6458	1.3489	69.7700	0.0193	0.0143	28.0064
100	0.6073	78.5426	3.562.7934	1.6467	129.3337	0.0127	0.0077	45.3613

Factor Table - $i = 1.00\%$

Factor Table - $i = 1.50\%$

\boldsymbol{n}	P/F	P/A	P/G	F/P	F/A	A/P	A/F	A/G
	0.9852	0.9852	0.0000	1.0150	1.0000	1.0150	1.0000	0.0000
\overline{c}	0.9707	1.9559	0.9707	1.0302	2.0150	0.5113	0.4963	0.4963
3	0.9563	2.9122	2.8833	1.0457	3.0452	0.3434	0.3284	0.9901
4	0.9422	3.8544	5.7098	1.0614	4.0909	0.2594	0.2444	1.4814
5	0.9283	4.7826	9.4229	1.0773	5.1523	0.2091	0.1941	1.9702
6	0.9145	5.6972	13.9956	1.0934	6.2296	0.1755	0.1605	2.4566
7	0.9010	6.5982	19.4018	1.1098	7.3230	0.1516	0.1366	2.9405
8	0.8877	7.4859	26.6157	1.1265	8.4328	0.1336	0.1186	3.4219
9	0.8746	8.3605	32.6125	1.1434	9.5593	0.1196	0.1046	3.9008
10	0.8617	9.2222	40.3675	1.1605	10.7027	0.1084	0.0934	4.3772
11	0.8489	10.0711	48.8568	1.1779	11.8633	0.0993	0.0843	4.8512
12	0.8364	10.9075	58.0571	1.1956	13.0412	0.0917	0.0767	5.3227
13	0.8240	11.7315	67.9454	1.2136	14.2368	0.0852	0.0702	5.7917
14	0.8118	12.5434	78.4994	1.2318	15.4504	0.0797	0.0647	6.2582
15	0.7999	13.3432	89.6974	1.2502	16.6821	0.0749	0.0599	6.7223
16	0.7880	14.1313	101.5178	1.2690	17.9324	0.0708	0.0558	7.1839
17	0.7764	14.9076	113.9400	1.2880	19.2014	0.0671	0.0521	7.6431
18	0.7649	15.6726	126.9435	1.3073	20.4894	0.0638	0.0488	8.0997
19	0.7536	16.4262	140.5084	1.3270	21.7967	0.0609	0.0459	8.5539
20	0.7425	17.1686	154.6154	1.3469	23.1237	0.0582	0.0432	9.0057
21	0.7315	17.9001	169.2453	1.3671	24.4705	0.0559	0.0409	9.4550
22	0.7207	18.6208	184.3798	1.3876	25.8376	0.0537	0.0387	9.9018
23	0.7100	19.3309	200,0006	1.4084	27.2251	0.0517	0.0367	10.3462
24	0.6995	20.0304	216.0901	1.4295	28.6335	0.0499	0.0349	10.7881
25	0.6892	20.7196	232.6310	1.4509	30.0630	0.0483	0.0333	11.2276
30	0.6398	24.0158	321.5310	1.5631	37.5387	0.0416	0.0266	13.3883
40	0.5513	29.9158	524.3568	1.8140	54.2679	0.0334	0.0184	17.5277
50	0.4750	34.9997	749.9636	2.1052	73.6828	0.0286	0.0136	21.4277
60	0.4093	39.3803	988.1674	2.4432	96.2147	0.0254	0.0104	25.0930
100	0.2256	51.6247	1.937.4506	4.4320	228.8030	0.0194	0.0044	37.5295

Factor Table - $i = 2.00\%$

ENGINEERING ECONOMICS (continued)

Factor Table - $i = 4.00\%$

\boldsymbol{n}	P/F	P/A	P/G	<i>F/P</i>	F/A	A/P	A/F	A/G
	0.9615	0.9615	0.0000	1.0400	1.0000	1.0400	1.0000	0.0000
2	0.9246	1.8861	0.9246	1.0816	2.0400	0.5302	0.4902	0.4902
3	0.8890	2.7751	2.7025	1.1249	3.1216	0.3603	0.3203	0.9739
4	0.8548	3.6299	5.2670	1.1699	4.2465	0.2755	0.2355	1.4510
5	0.8219	4.4518	8.5547	1.2167	5.4163	0.2246	0.1846	1.9216
6	0.7903	5.2421	12.5062	1.2653	6.6330	0.1908	0.1508	2.3857
	0.7599	6.0021	17.0657	1.3159	7.8983	0.1666	0.1266	2.8433
8	0.7307	6.7327	22.1806	1.3686	9.2142	0.1485	0.1085	3.2944
9	0.7026	7.4353	27.8013	1.4233	10.5828	0.1345	0.0945	3.7391
10	0.6756	8.1109	33.8814	1.4802	12.0061	0.1233	0.0833	4.1773
11	0.6496	8.7605	40.3772	1.5395	13.4864	0.1141	0.0741	4.6090
12	0.6246	9.3851	47.2477	1.6010	15.0258	0.1066	0.0666	5.0343
13	0.6006	9.9856	54.4546	1.6651	16.6268	0.1001	0.0601	5.4533
14	0.5775	10.5631	61.9618	1.7317	18.2919	0.0947	0.0547	5.8659
15	0.5553	11.1184	69.7355	1.8009	20.0236	0.0899	0.0499	6.2721
16	0.5339	11.6523	77.7441	1.8730	21.8245	0.0858	0.0458	6.6720
17	0.5134	12.1657	85.9581	1.9479	23.6975	0.0822	0.0422	7.0656
18	0.4936	12.6593	94.3498	2.0258	25.6454	0.0790	0.0390	7.4530
19	0.4746	13.1339	102.8933	2.1068	27.6712	0.0761	0.0361	7.8342
20	0.4564	13.5903	111.5647	2.1911	29.7781	0.0736	0.0336	8.2091
21	0.4388	14.0292	120.3414	2.2788	31.9692	0.0713	0.0313	8.5779
22	0.4220	14.4511	129.2024	2.3699	34.2480	0.0692	0.0292	8.9407
23	0.4057	14.8568	138.1284	2.4647	36.6179	0.0673	0.0273	9.2973
24	0.3901	15.2470	147.1012	2.5633	39.0826	0.0656	0.0256	9.6479
25	0.3751	15.6221	156.1040	2.6658	41.6459	0.0640	0.0240	9.9925
30	0.3083	17.2920	201.0618	3.2434	56.0849	0.0578	0.0178	11.6274
40	0.2083	19.7928	286.5303	4.8010	95.0255	0.0505	0.0105	14.4765
50	0.1407	21.4822	361.1638	7.1067	152.6671	0.0466	0.0066	16.8122
60	0.0951	22.6235	422.9966	10.5196	237.9907	0.0442	0.0042	18.6972
100	0.0198	24.5050	563.1249	50.5049	1.237.6237	0.0408	0.0008	22.9800

Factor Table - $i = 6.00\%$

ENGINEERING ECONOMICS (continued)

Factor Table - $i = 8.00\%$

\boldsymbol{n}	P/F	P/A	P/G	F/P	F/A	A/P	A/F	A/G
	0.9259	0.9259	0.0000	1.0800	1.0000	1.0800	1.0000	0.0000
2	0.8573	1.7833	0.8573	1.1664	2.0800	0.5608	0.4808	0.4808
$\overline{3}$	0.7938	2.5771	2.4450	1.2597	3.2464	0.3880	0.3080	0.9487
4	0.7350	3.3121	4.6501	1.3605	4.5061	0.3019	0.2219	1.4040
5	0.6806	3.9927	7.3724	1.4693	5.8666	0.2505	0.1705	1.8465
6	0.6302	4.6229	10.5233	1.5869	7.3359	0.2163	0.1363	2.2763
7	0.5835	5.2064	14.0242	1.7138	8.9228	0.1921	0.1121	2.6937
8	0.5403	5.7466	17.8061	1.8509	10.6366	0.1740	0.0940	3.0985
9	0.5002	6.2469	21.8081	1.9990	12.4876	0.1601	0.0801	3.4910
10	0.4632	6.7101	25.9768	2.1589	14.4866	0.1490	0.0690	3.8713
11	0.4289	7.1390	30.2657	2.3316	16.6455	0.1401	0.0601	4.2395
12	0.3971	7.5361	34.6339	2.5182	18.9771	0.1327	0.0527	4.5957
13	0.3677	7.9038	39.0463	2.7196	21.4953	0.1265	0.0465	4.9402
14	0.3405	8.2442	43.4723	2.9372	24.2149	0.1213	0.0413	5.2731
15	0.3152	8.5595	47.8857	3.1722	27.1521	0.1168	0.0368	5.5945
16	0.2919	8.8514	52.2640	3.4259	30.3243	0.1130	0.0330	5.9046
17	0.2703	9.1216	56.5883	3.7000	33.7502	0.1096	0.0296	6.2037
18	0.2502	9.3719	60.8426	3.9960	37.4502	0.1067	0.0267	6.4920
19	0.2317	9.6036	65.0134	4.3157	41.4463	0.1041	0.0241	6.7697
20	0.2145	9.8181	69.0898	4.6610	45.7620	0.1019	0.0219	7.0369
21	0.1987	10.0168	73.0629	5.0338	50.4229	0.0998	0.0198	7.2940
22	0.1839	10.2007	76.9257	5.4365	55.4568	0.0980	0.0180	7.5412
23	0.1703	10.3711	80.6726	5.8715	60.8933	0.0964	0.0164	7.7786
24	0.1577	10.5288	84.2997	6.3412	66.7648	0.0950	0.0150	8.0066
25	0.1460	10.6748	87.8041	6.8485	73.1059	0.0937	0.0137	8.2254
30	0.0994	11.2578	103.4558	10.0627	113.2832	0.0888	0.0088	9.1897
40	0.0460	11.9246	126.0422	21.7245	259,0565	0.0839	0.0039	10.5699
50	0.0213	12.2335	139.5928	46.9016	573.7702	0.0817	0.0017	11.4107
60	0.0099	12.3766	147.3000	101.2571	1,253.2133	0.0808	0.0008	11.9015
100	0.0005	12.4943	155.6107	2.199.7613	27,484.5157	0.0800		12.4545

Factor Table - $i = 10.00\%$

\boldsymbol{n}	P/F	P/A	P/G	F/P	F/A	A/P	A/F	A/G
	0.8929	0.8929	0.0000	1.1200	1.0000	1.1200	1.0000	0.0000
2	0.7972	1.6901	0.7972	1.2544	2.1200	0.5917	0.4717	0.4717
3	0.7118	2.4018	2.2208	1.4049	3.3744	0.4163	0.2963	0.9246
4	0.6355	3.0373	4.1273	1.5735	4.7793	0.3292	0.2092	1.3589
5	0.5674	3.6048	6.3970	1.7623	6.3528	0.2774	0.1574	1.7746
6	0.5066	4.1114	8.9302	1.9738	8.1152	0.2432	0.1232	2.1720
7	0.4523	4.5638	11.6443	2.2107	10.0890	0.2191	0.0991	2.5515
8	0.4039	4.9676	14.4714	2.4760	12.2997	0.2013	0.0813	2.9131
9	0.3606	5.3282	17.3563	2.7731	14.7757	0.1877	0.0677	3.2574
10	0.3220	5.6502	20.2541	3.1058	17.5487	0.1770	0.0570	3.5847
11	0.2875	5.9377	23.1288	3.4785	20.6546	0.1684	0.0484	3.8953
12	0.2567	6.1944	25.9523	3.8960	24.1331	0.1614	0.0414	4.1897
13	0.2292	6.4235	28.7024	4.3635	28.0291	0.1557	0.0357	4.4683
14	0.2046	6.6282	31.3624	4.8871	32.3926	0.1509	0.0309	4.7317
15	0.1827	6.8109	33.9202	5.4736	37.2797	0.1468	0.0268	4.9803
16	0.1631	6.9740	36.3670	6.1304	42.7533	0.1434	0.0234	5.2147
17	0.1456	7.1196	38.6973	6.8660	48.8837	0.1405	0.0205	5.4353
18	0.1300	7.2497	40.9080	7.6900	55.7497	0.1379	0.0179	5.6427
19	0.1161	7.3658	42.9979	8.6128	63.4397	0.1358	0.0158	5.8375
20	0.1037	7.4694	44.9676	9.6463	72.0524	0.1339	0.0139	6.0202
21	0.0926	7.5620	46.8188	10.8038	81.6987	0.1322	0.0122	6.1913
22	0.0826	7.6446	48.5543	12.1003	92.5026	0.1308	0.0108	6.3514
23	0.0738	7.7184	50.1776	13.5523	104.6029	0.1296	0.0096	6.5010
24	0.0659	7.7843	51.6929	15.1786	118.1552	0.1285	0.0085	6.6406
25	0.0588	7.8431	53.1046	17.0001	133.3339	0.1275	0.0075	6.7708
30	0.0334	8.0552	58.7821	29.9599	241.3327	0.1241	0.0041	7.2974
40	0.0107	8.2438	65.1159	93.0510	767.0914	0.1213	0.0013	7.8988
50	0.0035	8.3045	67.7624	289.0022	2,400.0182	0.1204	0.0004	8.1597
60	0.0011	8.3240	68.8100	897.5969	7,471.6411	0.1201	0.0001	8.2664
100		8.3332	69.4336	83,522.2657	696,010.5477	0.1200		8.3321

Factor Table - $i = 12.00\%$

Factor Table - $i = 18.00\%$

\boldsymbol{n}	P/F	P/A	P/G	F/P	F/A	A/P	A/F	A/G
	0.8475	0.8475	0.0000	1.1800	1.0000	1.1800	1.0000	0.0000
\overline{c}	0.7182	1.5656	0.7182	1.3924	2.1800	0.6387	0.4587	0.4587
3	0.6086	2.1743	1.9354	1.6430	3.5724	0.4599	0.2799	0.8902
4	0.5158	2.6901	3.4828	1.9388	5.2154	0.3717	0.1917	1.2947
5	0.4371	3.1272	5.2312	2.2878	7.1542	0.3198	0.1398	1.6728
6	0.3704	3.4976	7.0834	2.6996	9.4423	0.2859	0.1059	2.0252
7	0.3139	3.8115	8.9670	3.1855	12.1415	0.2624	0.0824	2.3526
8	0.2660	4.0776	10.8292	3.7589	15.3270	0.2452	0.0652	2.6558
9	0.2255	4.3030	12.6329	4.4355	19.0859	0.2324	0.0524	2.9358
10	0.1911	4.4941	14.3525	5.2338	23.5213	0.2225	0.0425	3.1936
11	0.1619	4.6560	15.9716	6.1759	28.7551	0.2148	0.0348	3.4303
12	0.1372	4.7932	17.4811	7.2876	34.9311	0.2086	0.0286	3.6470
13	0.1163	4.9095	18.8765	8.5994	42.2187	0.2037	0.0237	3.8449
14	0.0985	5.0081	20.1576	10.1472	50.8180	0.1997	0.0197	4.0250
15	0.0835	5.0916	21.3269	11.9737	60.9653	0.1964	0.0164	4.1887
16	0.0708	5.1624	22.3885	14.1290	72.9390	0.1937	0.0137	4.3369
17	0.0600	5.2223	23.3482	16.6722	87.0680	0.1915	0.0115	4.4708
18	0.0508	5.2732	24.2123	19.6731	103.7403	0.1896	0.0096	4.5916
19	0.0431	5.3162	24.9877	23.2144	123.4135	0.1881	0.0081	4.7003
20	0.0365	5.3527	25.6813	27.3930	146.6280	0.1868	0.0068	4.7978
21	0.0309	5.3837	26.3000	32.3238	174.0210	0.1857	0.0057	4.8851
22	0.0262	5.4099	26.8506	38.1421	206.3448	0.1848	0.0048	4.9632
23	0.0222	5.4321	27.3394	45.0076	244.4868	0.1841	0.0041	5.0329
24	0.0188	5.4509	27.7725	53.1090	289.4944	0.1835	0.0035	5.0950
25	0.0159	5.4669	28.1555	62.6686	342.6035	0.1829	0.0029	5.1502
30	0.0070	5.5168	29.4864	143.3706	790.9480	0.1813	0.0013	5.3448
40	0.0013	5.5482	30.5269	750.3783	4,163.2130	0.1802	0.0002	5.5022
50	0.0003	5.5541	30.7856	3,927.3569	21,813.0937	0.1800		5.5428
60	0.0001	5.5553	30.8465	20,555.1400	114,189.6665	0.1800		5.5526
100		5.5556	30.8642	15,424,131.91	85,689,616.17	0.1800		5.5555

Engineering is considered to be a "profession" rather than an "occupation" because of several important characteristics shared with other recognized learned professions, law, medicine, and theology: special knowledge, special privileges, and special responsibilities. Professions are based on a large knowledge base requiring extensive training. Professional skills are important to the well-being of society. Professions are self-regulating, in that they control the training and evaluation processes that admit new persons to the field. Professionals have autonomy in the workplace; they are expected to utilize their independent judgment in carrying out their professional responsibilities. Finally, professions are regulated by ethical standards.¹

The expertise possessed by engineers is vitally important to public welfare. In order to serve the public effectively, engineers must maintain a high level of technical competence. However, a high level of technical expertise without adherence to ethical guidelines is as much a threat to public welfare as is professional incompetence. Therefore, engineers must also be guided by ethical principles.

The ethical principles governing the engineering profession are embodied in codes of ethics. Such codes have been adopted by state boards of registration, professional engineering societies, and even by some private industries. An example of one such code is the NCEES *Model Rules of Professional Conduct*, which is presented here in its entirety. As part of his/her responsibility to the public, an engineer is responsible for knowing and abiding by the code.

The three major sections of the model rules address (1) Licensee's Obligations to Society, (2) Licensee's Obligations to Employers and Clients, and (3) Licensee's Obligations to Other Licensees. The principles amplified in these sections are important guides to appropriate behavior of professional engineers.

Application of the code in many situations is not controversial. However, there may be situations in which applying the code may raise more difficult issues. In particular, there may be circumstances in which terminology in the code is not clearly defined, or in which two sections of the code may be in conflict. For example, what constitutes "valuable consideration" or "adequate" knowledge may be interpreted differently by qualified professionals. These types of questions are called conceptual issues, in which definitions of terms may be in dispute. In other situations, factual issues may also affect ethical dilemmas. Many decisions regarding engineering design may be based upon interpretation of disputed or incomplete information. In addition, tradeoffs revolving around competing issues of risk *vs.* benefit, or safety *vs.* economics may require judgments that are not fully addressed simply by application of the code.

No code can give immediate and mechanical answers to all ethical and professional problems that an engineer may face. Creative problem solving is often called for in ethics, just as it is in other areas of engineering.

NCEES Model Rules of Professional Conduct

PREAMBLE

To comply with the purpose of the (identify jurisdiction, licensing statute)—which is to safeguard life, health, and property, to promote the public welfare, and to maintain a high standard of integrity and practice—the (identify board, licensing statute) has developed the following *Rules of Professional Conduct*. These rules shall be binding on every person holding a certificate of licensure to offer or perform engineering or land surveying services in this state. All persons licensed under (identify jurisdiction's licensing statute) are required to be familiar with the licensing statute and these rules. The *Rules of Professional Conduct* delineate specific obligations the licensee must meet. In addition, each licensee is charged with the responsibility of adhering to the highest standards of ethical and moral conduct in all aspects of the practice of professional engineering and land surveying.

The practice of professional engineering and land surveying is a privilege, as opposed to a right. All licensees shall exercise their privilege of practicing by performing services only in the areas of their competence according to current standards of technical competence.

Licensees shall recognize their responsibility to the public and shall represent themselves before the public only in an objective and truthful manner.

They shall avoid conflicts of interest and faithfully serve the legitimate interests of their employers, clients, and customers within the limits defined by these rules. Their professional reputation shall be built on the merit of their services, and they shall not compete unfairly with others.

The *Rules of Professional Conduct* as promulgated herein are enforced under the powers vested by (identify jurisdiction's enforcing agency). In these rules, the word "licensee" shall mean any person holding a license or a certificate issued by (identify jurisdiction's licensing agency).

^{1.} Harris, C.E., M.S. Pritchard, & M.J. Rabins, *Engineering Ethics: Concepts and Cases*, Copyright 1995 by Wadsworth Publishing Company, pages $27-28$

I. LICENSEEíS OBLIGATION TO SOCIETY

- a. Licensees, in the performance of their services for clients, employers, and customers, shall be cognizant that their first and foremost responsibility is to the public welfare.
- b. Licensees shall approve and seal only those design documents and surveys that conform to accepted engineering and land surveying standards and safeguard the life, health, property, and welfare of the public.
- c. Licensees shall notify their employer or client and such other authority as may be appropriate when their professional judgment is overruled under circumstances where the life, health, property, or welfare of the public is endangered.
- d. Licensees shall be objective and truthful in professional reports, statements, or testimony. They shall include all relevant and pertinent information in such reports, statements, or testimony.
- e. Licensees shall express a professional opinion publicly only when it is founded upon an adequate knowledge of the facts and a competent evaluation of the subject matter.
- f. Licensees shall issue no statements, criticisms, or arguments on technical matters which are inspired or paid for by interested parties, unless they explicitly identify the interested parties on whose behalf they are speaking and reveal any interest they have in the matters.
- g. Licensees shall not permit the use of their name or firm name by, nor associate in the business ventures with, any person or firm which is engaging in fraudulent or dishonest business or professional practices.
- h. Licensees having knowledge of possible violations of any of these *Rules of Professional Conduct* shall provide the board with the information and assistance necessary to make the final determination of such violation.

II. LICENSEEíS OBLIGATION TO EMPLOYER AND CLIENTS

- a. Licensees shall undertake assignments only when qualified by education or experience in the specific technical fields of engineering or land surveying involved.
- b. Licensees shall not affix their signatures or seals to any plans or documents dealing with subject matter in which they lack competence, nor to any such plan or document not prepared under their direct control and personal supervision.
- c. Licensees may accept assignments for coordination of an entire project, provided that each design segment is signed and sealed by the licensee responsible for preparation of that design segment.
- d. Licensees shall not reveal facts, data, or information obtained in a professional capacity without the prior consent of the client or employer except as authorized or required by law.
- e. Licensees shall not solicit or accept financial or other valuable consideration, directly or indirectly, from contractors, their agents, or other parties in connection with work for employers or clients.
- f. Licensees shall make full prior disclosures to their employers or clients of potential conflicts of interest or other circumstances which could influence or appear to influence their judgment or the quality of their service.
- g. Licensees shall not accept compensation, financial or otherwise, from more than one party for services pertaining to the same project, unless the circumstances are fully disclosed and agreed to by all interested parties.
- h. Licensees shall not solicit or accept a professional contract from a governmental body on which a principal or officer of their organization serves as a member. Conversely, licensees serving as members, advisors, or employees of a government body or department, who are the principals or employees of a private concern, shall not participate in decisions with respect to professional services offered or provided by said concern to the governmental body which they serve.

III. LICENSEE'S OBLIGATION TO OTHER LICENSEES

- a. Licensees shall not falsify or permit misrepresentation of their, or their associates', academic or professional qualifications. They shall not misrepresent or exaggerate their degree of responsibility in prior assignments nor the complexity of said assignments. Presentations incident to the solicitation of employment or business shall not misrepresent pertinent facts concerning employers, employees, associates, joint ventures, or past accomplishments.
- b. Licensees shall not offer, give, solicit, or receive, either directly or indirectly, any commission, or gift, or other valuable consideration in order to secure work, and shall not make any political contribution with the intent to influence the award of a contract by public authority.
- c. Licensees shall not attempt to injure, maliciously or falsely, directly or indirectly, the professional reputation, prospects, practice, or employment of other licensees, nor indiscriminately criticize other licensees' work.

CHEMICAL ENGINEERING

For additional information concerning heat transfer and fluid mechanics, refer to the **HEAT TRANSFER**, **THERMO-DYNAMICS**, or **FLUID MECHANICS** sections.

CHEMICAL THERMODYNAMICS

Vapor-Liquid Equilibrium

For a multi-component mixture at equilibrium

 $\hat{f}_i^V = \hat{f}_i^L$, where

 \hat{f}_i^V = fugacity of component *i* in the vapor phase, and

 \hat{f}_i^L = fugacity of component *i* in the liquid phase.

Fugacities of component *i* in a mixture are commonly calculated in the following ways:

For a liquid $\hat{f}_i^L = x_i \gamma_i f_i^L$, where

 x_i = mole fraction of component *i*,

 γ_i = activity coefficient of component *i*, and

 f_i^L = fugacity of pure liquid component *i*.

For a vapor $\hat{f}_i^V = y_i \hat{\Phi}_i P$, where

 y_i = mole fraction of component *i* in the vapor,

 $\hat{\Phi}_i$ = fugacity coefficient of component *i* in the vapor, and

 $P =$ system pressure.

The activity coefficient γ_i is a correction for liquid phase non-ideality. Many models have been proposed for γ*i* such as the Van Laar model:

$$
\ln \gamma_1 = A_{12} \left(1 + \frac{A_{12} x_1}{A_{21} x_2} \right)^{-2}
$$

\n
$$
\ln \gamma_2 = A_{21} \left(1 + \frac{A_{21} x_2}{A_{12} x_1} \right)^{-2}
$$
, where

- y_1 = activity coefficient of component 1 in a twocomponent system,
- γ_2 = activity coefficient of component 2 in a twocomponent system, and

 A_{12} , A_{21} = constants, typically fitted from experimental data. The pure component fugacity is calculated as:

$$
f_i^L = \Phi_i^{\text{sat}} P_i^{\text{sat}} \exp \{v_i^L (P - P_i^{\text{sat}})/(RT)\}\
$$
, where

 $\Phi_i^{\text{sat}} =$ fugacity coefficient of pure saturated *i*,

 $P_i^{\text{sat}} = \text{saturation pressure of pure } i$,

 v_i^L = specific volume of pure liquid *i*, and

R = Ideal Gas Law Constant.

Often at system pressures close to atmospheric:

$$
f_i^{\rm L} \cong P_i^{\rm sat}
$$

The fugacity coefficient $\hat{\Phi}_i$ for component *i* in the vapor is calculated from an equation of state (e.g., Virial). Sometimes it is approximated by a pure component value from a correlation. Often at pressures close to atmospheric, $\hat{\Phi}_i = 1$. The fugacity coefficient is a correction for vapor phase non-ideality.

For sparingly soluble gases the liquid phase is sometimes represented as

 $\hat{f}_i^L = x_i k_i$

where k_i is a constant set by experiment (Henry's constant). Sometimes other concentration units are used besides mole fraction with a corresponding change in *ki*.

Chemical Reaction Equilibrium

For reaction

$$
aA + bB = cC + dD
$$

\n
$$
\Delta G^{\circ} = -RT \ln K_a
$$

\n
$$
K_a = \frac{\left(\hat{a}_C^c \right) \left(\hat{a}_D^d \right)}{\left(\hat{a}_A^a \right) \left(\hat{a}_B^b \right)} = \prod_i \left(\hat{a}_i\right)^{v_i}
$$
, where

$$
\hat{a}_i
$$
 = activity of component i = $\frac{\hat{f}_i}{f_i^o}$

 f_i° = fugacity of pure *i* in its standard state

 v_i = stoichiometric coefficient of component *i*

$$
\Delta G^{\circ} =
$$
 standard Gibbs energy change of reaction

 K_a = chemical equilibrium constant

For mixtures of ideal gases:

 f_i° = unit pressure, often 1 bar

$$
\hat{f}_i = y_i P = p_i
$$

where p_i = partial pressure of component *i*.

Then
$$
K_a = K_p = \frac{\left(p_c^c \left(p_d^d \right)_{D} \right)}{\left(p_A^a \left(p_B^b \right)\right)} = P^{c+d-a-b} \frac{\left(y_c^c \left(y_d^d \right)_{D} \right)}{\left(y_A^a \left(y_B^b \right)\right)}
$$

For solids $\hat{a}_i = 1$

For liquids $\hat{a}_i = x_i \gamma_i$

The effect of temperature on the equilibrium constant is

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}\ln K}{\mathrm{d}T} = \frac{\Delta H^o}{RT^2}
$$

where ΔH° = standard enthalpy change of reaction.

HEATS OF REACTION

For a chemical reaction the associated energy can be defined in terms of heats of formation of the individual species $(\Delta \hat{H}^o_f)$

at the standard state

$$
\left(\Delta \hat{H}_r^o\right) = \sum_{\text{products}} \vee_i \left(\Delta \hat{H}_f^o\right)_i - \sum_{\text{reactants}} \vee_i \left(\Delta \hat{H}_f^o\right)_i
$$

The standard state is 25°C and 1 bar.

The heat of formation is defined as the enthalpy change associated with the formation of a compound from its atomic species as they normally occur in nature (i.e., $O_{2(g)}$, $H_{2(g)}$, $C_{(solid)}$, etc.)

The heat of reaction for a combustion process using oxygen is also known as the heat of combustion. The principal products are $CO_{2(g)}$ and $H₂O_(e)$.

CHEMICAL REACTION ENGINEERING

A chemical reaction may be expressed by the general equation

$$
aA + bB \leftrightarrow cC + dD.
$$

The rate of reaction of any component is defined as the moles of that component formed per unit time per unit volume.

$$
-r_A = -\frac{1}{V} \frac{dN_A}{dt}
$$
 [negative because A disappears]

$$
-r_A = \frac{-dC_A}{dt}
$$
 if V is constant

The rate of reaction is frequently expressed by

$$
-r_A = kf_r(C_A, C_B, \ldots)
$$
, where

k = reaction rate constant and

CI = concentration of component *I*.

The Arrhenius equation gives the dependence of *k* on temperature

$$
k = Ae^{-E_a/\overline{RT}}, where
$$

A = pre-exponential or frequency factor,

Ea = activition energy (J*/*mol, cal*/*mol),

 $T =$ temperature (K), and

$$
\overline{R} = \text{gas law constant} = 8.314 \text{ J/(mol·K)}.
$$

In the conversion of *A*, the fractional conversion X_A , is defined as the moles of *A* reacted per mole of *A* fed.

$$
X_A = (C_{A0} - C_A)/C_{A0}
$$
 if V is constant

Reaction Order

 $If - r_A = kC_A^x C_B^y$

the reaction is *x* order with respect to reactant *A* and *y* order with respect to reactant *B*. The overall order is

$$
n = x + y
$$

BATCH REACTOR, CONSTANT T AND V

Zero-Order Reaction

$$
-r_A = kC_A^o = k(1)
$$

\n
$$
-dC_A/dt = k
$$
 or
\n
$$
C_A = C_{Ao} - kt
$$

\n
$$
dX_A/dt = k/C_{Ao}
$$
 or
\n
$$
C_{Ao}X_A = kt
$$

First-Order Reaction

$$
-r_A = kC_A
$$

\n
$$
-dC_A/dt = kC_A
$$
 or
\n
$$
\ln(C_A/C_{A0}) = -kt
$$

\n
$$
dX_A/dt = k(1-X_A)
$$
 or
\n
$$
\ln(1-X_A) = -kt
$$

Second-Order Reaction

$$
-r_A = kC_A^2
$$

\n
$$
-dC_A/dt = kC_A^2
$$
 or
\n
$$
1/C_A - 1/C_{A0} = kt
$$

\n
$$
dX_A/dt = kC_{A0} (1 - X_A)^2
$$
 or
\n
$$
X_A/\lfloor C_{A0} (1 - X_A) \rfloor = kt
$$

Batch Reactor, General

For a well-mixed, constant-volume, batch reactor

$$
- \mathbf{r}_A = dC_A/dt
$$

$$
t = -C_{Ao} \int_0^{X_A} dX_A / (-r_A)
$$

If the volume of the reacting mass varies with the conversion according to

$$
V = V_{X_{A=0}} (1 + \varepsilon_A X_A)
$$

$$
\varepsilon_A = \frac{V_{X_A=1} - V_{X_A=0}}{V_{X_A=0}}
$$

then

$$
t = -C_{A0} \int_0^{X_A} dX_A / [(1 + \varepsilon_A X_A)(-r_A)]
$$

FLOW REACTORS, STEADY STATE

Space-time τ is defined as the reactor volume divided by the inlet volumetric feed rate. Space-velocity *SV* is the reciprocal of space-time, $SV = 1/\tau$.

Plug-Flow Reactor (PFR)

$$
\tau = \frac{C_{Ao} V_{PFR}}{F_{Ao}} = C_{Ao} \int_{o}^{X_A} \frac{dX_A}{(-r_A)},
$$
 where

 F_{Ao} = moles of *A* fed per unit time.

Continuous Stirred Tank Reactor (CSTR)

For a constant volume, well-mixed, CSTR

$$
\frac{\tau}{C_{\text{Ao}}} = \frac{V_{\text{CSTR}}}{F_{\text{Ao}}} = \frac{X_{\text{A}}}{-r_{\text{A}}}
$$
, where

 $-r_A$ is evaluated at exit stream conditions.

Continuous Stirred Tank Reactors in Series

With a first-order reaction $A \rightarrow R$, no change in volume.

$$
\tau_{N\text{-reactors}} = N\tau_{\text{individual}}
$$

= $\frac{N}{k} \left[\left(\frac{C_{A_o}}{C_{AN}} \right)^{1/N} - 1 \right]$, where

 $N =$ number of CSTRs (equal volume) in series, and

CAN = concentration of *A* leaving the *N*th CSTR.

DISTILLATION

Flash (or equilibrium) Distillation

Component material balance:

 $Fz_F = vV + xL$

Overall material balance:

$$
F = V + L
$$

Differential (Simple or Rayleigh) Distillation

 $= \int_{x_0}^{x} \frac{dx}{y-x_0}$ - \backslash $\overline{}$ l (W) ₁x \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} *dx W* $\ln\left(\frac{W}{\pi}\right)$

When the relative volatility α is constant,

$$
y = \alpha x / [1 + (\alpha - 1) x]
$$

can be substituted to give

$$
\ln\left(\frac{W}{W_o}\right) = \frac{1}{(\alpha - 1)} \ln\left[\frac{x(1 - x_o)}{x_o(1 - x)}\right] + \ln\left[\frac{1 - x_o}{1 - x}\right]
$$

For binary system following Raoult's Law

$$
\alpha = (y/x)_a / (y/x)_b = p_a / p_b
$$
, where

pi = partial pressure of component *i*.

Continuous Distillation (binary system)

Constant molal overflow is assumed (trays counted downward)

Overall Material Balances

Total Material:

 $F = D + B$

Component *A*:

$$
Fz_F = Dx_D + Bx_B
$$

Rectifying Section Total Material:

Operating Lines

$$
V_{n+1} = L_n + D
$$

Component *A*:

$$
V_{n+1}y_{n+1} = L_nx_n + Dx_D
$$

$$
y_{n+1} = [L_n/(L_n + D)] x_n + Dx_D/(L_n + D)
$$

Stripping Section

Total Material:

$$
L_m = V_{m+1} + B
$$

Component *A*:

$$
L_m x_m = V_{m+1} y_{m+1} + B x_B
$$

\n
$$
y_{m+1} = [L_m/(L_m - B)] x_m - B x_B/(L_m - B)
$$

Reflux Ratio

Ratio of reflux to overhead product

$$
R_D = L/D = (V - D)/D
$$

Minimum reflux ratio is defined as that value which results in an infinite number of contact stages. For a binary system the equation of the operating line is

$$
y = \frac{R_{\min}}{R_{\min} + 1} x + \frac{x_D}{R_{\min} + 1}
$$

Feed Condition Line

slope =
$$
q/(q-1)
$$
, where

$$
q = \frac{\text{heat to convert one mol of feed to saturated vapor}}{\text{molar heat of vaporization}}
$$

Murphree Plate Efficiency

$$
E_{ME} = (y_n - y_{n+1})/(y_n^* - y_{n+1}),
$$
 where

- *y* = concentration of vapor above plate *n*,
- y_{n+1} = concentration of vapor entering from plate below *n*, and
- y_n^* = concentration of vapor in equilibrium with liquid leaving plate *n*.

A similar expression can be written for the stripping section by replacing *n* with *m*.

Definitions:

- α = relative volatility,
- *B* = molar bottoms-product rate,
- $D =$ molar overhead-product rate,
- $F =$ molar feed rate,
- $L =$ molar liquid downflow rate,
- R_D = ratio of reflux to overhead product,
- $V =$ molar vapor upflow rate,
- $W =$ weight in still pot,
- $x =$ mole fraction of the more volatile component in the liquid phase, and
- $y =$ mole fraction of the more volatile component in the vapor phase.

Subscripts

- $B =$ bottoms product,
- *D* = overhead product,
- $F = \text{feed}$,
- $m =$ any plate in stripping section of column,

 $m+1 =$ plate below plate *m*,

- $n =$ any plate in rectifying section of column,
- $n+1$ = plate below plate *n*, and
- $o =$ original charge in still pot.

MASS TRANSFER

Diffusion

Molecular Diffusion

$$
\text{Gas: } \frac{N_A}{A} = \frac{p_A}{P} \left(\frac{N_A}{A} + \frac{N_B}{A} \right) - \frac{D_m}{RT} \frac{\partial p_A}{\partial z}
$$

$$
\text{Liquid: } \frac{N_A}{A} = x_A \left(\frac{N_A}{A} + \frac{N_B}{A} \right) - CD_m \frac{\partial x_A}{\partial z}
$$

in which $(p_B)_{lm}$ is the log mean of p_{B2} and p_{BI} ,

Unidirectional Diffusion of a Gas A Through a Second Stagnant Gas B $(N_b = 0)$

$$
\frac{N_A}{A} = \frac{D_m P}{\overline{R} T (p_B)_{\text{lm}}} \times \frac{(p_{A2} - p_{A1})}{z_2 - z_1}
$$

in which $(p_B)_{lm}$ is the log mean of p_{B2} and p_{B1} ,

- N_I = diffusive flow of component *I* through area *A*, in *z* direction, and
- D_m = mass diffusivity.

EQUIMOLAR COUNTER-DIFFUSION (GASES)

 $(N_B = -N_A)$

$$
N_A/A = D_m/(\overline{R}T) \times [(p_{A1} - p_{A2})/(z_2 - z_1)]
$$

Unsteady State Diffusion in a Gas

 $\partial p_A / \partial t = D_m \left(\frac{\partial^2 p_A}{\partial z^2} \right)$

CONVECTION

Two-Film Theory (for Equimolar Counter-Diffusion)

$$
N_A/A = k'_{G} (p_{AG} - p_{Ai})
$$

= $k'_{L} (C_{Ai} - C_{AL})$
= $K'_{G} (p_{AG} - p_A^*)$
= $K'_{L} (C_A^* - C_{AL})$

where p_A^* is partial pressure in equilibrium with C_{AL} , and

 C_A^* = concentration in equilibrium with p_{AG} .

Overall Coefficients

$$
1/K'_{G} = 1/k'_{G} + H/k'_{L}
$$

$$
1/K'_{L} = 1/Hk'_{G} + 1/k'_{L}
$$

Dimensionless Group Equation (Sherwood)

For the turbulent flow inside a tube the Sherwood number

$$
\left(\frac{k_m D}{D_m}\right)
$$
 is given by: $\left(\frac{k_m D}{D_m}\right) = 0.023 \left(\frac{D \vee \rho}{\mu}\right)^{0.8} \left(\frac{\mu}{\rho D_m}\right)^{1/3}$

where,

- $D =$ inside diameter.
- $D_m =$ diffusion coefficient,
- $V =$ average velocity in the tube,
- ρ = fluid density, and
- μ = fluid viscosity.

CIVIL ENGINEERING

GEOTECHNICAL

Definitions

- $c = \text{cohesion}$
- c_c = coefficient of curvature or gradation
- $= (D_{30})^2/[(D_{60})(D_{10})]$, where
- D_{10} , D_{30} , D_{60} = particle diameter corresponding to 10%, 30%, and 60% on grain-size curve.
- c_u = uniformity coefficient = D_{60}/D_{10}
- e = void ratio = V_v/V_s , where
- V_v = volume of voids, and
- V_s = volume of the solids.
- $K = \text{coefficient of permeability} = \text{hydraulic conductivity}$ = *Q/*(*iA*) (from Darcy's equation), where
- $Q =$ discharge,
- $i = \text{hydraulic gradient} = dH/dx$,
- $H =$ hydraulic head,
- *A* = cross-sectional area.
- q_u = unconfined compressive strength = 2*c*
- *w* = water content $(^{0}_{0}) = (W_{w}/W_{s}) \times 100$, where
- W_w = weight of water, and
- W_s = weight of solids.

 C_c = compression index = $\Delta e/\Delta \log p$

- $=$ $(e_1 e_2)/(\log p_2 \log p_1)$, where
- e_1 and e_2 = void ratio, and

 p_1 and p_2 = pressure.

- D_d = relative density (%)
	- $=$ $[(e_{\text{max}} e)/(e_{\text{max}} e_{\text{min}})] \times 100$
	- $=$ $[(1/\gamma_{\text{min}} 1/\gamma_d)/(1/\gamma_{\text{min}} 1/\gamma_{\text{max}})] \times 100$, where

*e*max and *e*min = maximum and minimum void ratio, and γ_{max} and γ_{min} = maximum and minimum unit dry weight.

- G = specific gravity = $W_s / (V_s \gamma_w)$, where γ_w = unit weight of water.
- $\Delta H =$ settlement = *H* $[C_c/(1 + e_i)] \log [(p_i + \Delta p)/p_i]$
- $= H\Delta e/(1 + e_i)$, where
- $H =$ thickness,
- ∆*e* = change in void ratio, and
- $p =$ pressure.
- $PI =$ plasticity index $= LL PL$, where
- $LL =$ liquid limit, and
- *PL* = plasticity limit.
- *S* = degree of saturation $(\%) = (V_w/V_v) \times 100$, where
- V_w = volume of free water, and
- V_v = volume of voids.
- $Q = KH(N_f/N_d)$ (for flow nets, Q per unit width), where

 $K = \text{coefficient permeability}$, $H =$ total hydraulic head (potential), N_f = number of flow tubes, and N_d = number of potential drips. γ = total unit weight of soil = W/V γ_d = dry unit weight of soil = W_s/V $= Gγ_w/(1 + e) = γ/(1 + w)$, where $G =$ specific gravity of particles *Gw* = *Se*, where *s* = degree of saturation. *e* = void ratio γ_s = unit of weight of solids = W_s / V_s η = porosity = V_v /*V* = *e*/(1 + *e*) τ = general shear strength = *c* + σtan φ, where ϕ = angle of internal friction, σ = normal stress = P/A , $P =$ force, and $A = \text{area}$. K_a = coefficient of active earth pressure $= \tan^2(45 - \phi/2)$ K_p = coefficient of passive earth pressure $= \tan^2(45 + \phi/2)$ P_a = active resultant force = $0.5\gamma H^2 K_a$, where $H =$ height of wall. q_{ult} = bearing capacity equation $= cN_c + \gamma D_f N_q + 0.5 \gamma B N_\gamma$, where N_c , N_a , and N_γ = bearing capacity, $B =$ width of strip footing, and D_f = depth of footing below surface. $FS =$ factor of safety (slope stability) $=\frac{cL + W\cos\alpha\tan\phi}{W\sin\alpha}$ *W* $\frac{cL + W \cos \alpha \tan \phi}{W}$, where $L =$ length of slip plane, α = slope of slip plane, ϕ = angle of friction, and $W =$ total weight of soil above slip plane. C_v = coefficient of consolidation = TH^2/t , where $T =$ time factor, $H =$ compression zone, and $t =$ consolidation time. C_c = compression index for ordinary clay $= 0.009$ (*LL* -10) $\sigma' =$ effective stress = $\sigma - u$, where

- σ = normal stress, and
- *u* = pore water pressure.

Major Divisions Group Group Symbols Typical Names Laboratory Classification Criteria are Depending on percentage of fines (fraction smaller than No. 200 sieve size), coarse-grained soils are $C_u = \frac{D}{D}$ ø. (More than half of coarse fraction is Clean gravels (Little or no Clean gravels (Little or no $C_u = \frac{C_{D_{\text{so}}}}{D_{\text{to}}}$ greater than 4;

Since $C_c = \frac{(D_{\text{so}})^2}{D_{\text{to}}}$ between 1 and 3

Since $\frac{1}{2}$ are the set of the set 5 to 12 percent *Borderline* cases requiring dual symbols^b $\frac{60}{ }$ greater than 4; greater than 4 (More than half of coarse fraction larger than No. 4 sieve size) larger than No. 4 sieve size) *D* GW Well-graded gravels, gravel-sand
mixtures, little or no fines 10 mixtures, little or no fines
 $C_c = \frac{(D_{30})^2}{\frac{12}{12}}$ between 1 and 3 fines) $C_c = \frac{(D_{\text{sc}})}{D_{\text{sc}} \times}$ 30 = Gravels $D_{\alpha} \times D$ Determine percentages of sand and gravel from grain-size curve. 10^{11} 60 (More than half of material is larger than No. 200 sieve size) (More than half of material is larger than No. 200 sieve size) GP Poorly graded gravels, gravel-sand
mixtures, little or no fines More than 12 percent GM, GC, SM, SC Less than 5 percent GW, GP, SW, SP Gravels with fines Gravels with fines d (Appreciable
amount of fines) amount of fines) Above "A" line GM^a Silty gravels, gravel-sand-silt mixtures $\left|\begin{array}{cc} g & g \\ h & g \end{array}\right|$ Atterberg limits below "A" (Appreciable with PI between 4 u line or PI less than 4 classified as follows: Coarse-grained soils and 7 are Coarse-grained soils *borderline* cases (More than half of coarse fraction is smaller than No. 4 (More than half of coarse fraction is smaller than No. 4 GC Clayey gravels, gravel-sand-clay requiring use of Atterberg limits below "A" dual symbols line with PI greater than 7 $C_u = \frac{D}{D}$ Clean sands (Little or no Clean sands (Little or no ⁶⁰ greater than 6; *D* SW Well-graded sands, gravelly sands, little
or no fines 10 or no fines
 $\begin{bmatrix} 8 & 8 & 6 \\ 6 & 16 & 10 \\ 6 & 16 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$ between 1 and 3 sieve size) fines) Sands $C_c = \frac{(D_{30})}{D_{10} \times}$ 30 = $D_{\alpha} \times D$ 10^{11} 60 SP Poorly graded sand, gravelly sands, little
or no fines For the state of the Merchan of SW

Solid Care of the SW (A)

Solid Care of PI less than 4

Solid Care of PI less than 4

Solid Care of the SW (A)

The tween 4 and

Solid Care of the SW (Care of the SW (Care of the SW (Car d

Silty sands, sand-silt mixtures

Clayey sands, sand-clay mixtures

Clayey sands, sand-clay mixtures
 \overrightarrow{AB}
 \overrightarrow{AB}
 \overrightarrow{BC} Limits plotting in d (Appreciable (Appreciable amount of
fines) Sands with SM^a Sands with amount of hatched zone with line or PI less than 4 fines PI between 4 and 7 are *borderline* Atterberg limits above "A" cases requiring use SC Clayey sands, sand-clay mixtures line with PI greater than 7 of dual symbols Inorganic silts and very fine sands, rock Silts and clays
(Liquid limit less (Liquid limit less ML flour, silty or clayey fine sands, or **PLASTICITY CHART** Silts and clays clayey silts with slight plasticity (More than half material is smaller than No. 200 sieve) (More than half material is smaller than No. 200 sieve) 60 than 50) Inorganic clays of low to medium CL plasticity, gravelly clays, sandy clays, 50 silty clays, lean clays OL Organic silts and organic silty clays of CН PLASTICITY INDEX low plasticity 40 Inorganic silts, micaceous or Fine-grained soils Fine-grained soils Silts and clays
(Liquid limit greater than 50) Silts and clays greater than 50) MH diatomaceous fine sandy or silty soils, (Liquid limit elastic silts 30 CH Inorganic clays of high plasticity, fat OH and MH $\hat{\gamma}$ clays 20 OH Organic clays of medium to high

UNIFIED SOIL CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM (ASTM D-2487)

 Division of GM and SM groups into subdivisions of d and u are for roads and airfields only. Subdivision is based on Atterberg limits; suffix d used when LL is 28 or less and the PI is 6 or less; the suffix u used when LL is greater than 28.

CL

ML and OL

> 40 $\overline{50}$ 60 $\overline{70}$ 80

LIQUID LIMIT

90 100

CL-ML

 10

0

 Ω 10 20 30

plasticity, organic silts

Pt Peat and other highly organic soils

Highly organic soils

Highly organic

a

b Borderline classification, used for soils possessing characteristics of two groups, are designated by combinations of group symbols. For example GW-GC, well-graded gravel-sand mixture with clay binder.

STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

Influence Lines

An influence diagram shows the variation of a function (reaction, shear, bending moment) as a single unit load moves across the structure. An influence line is used to (1) determine the position of load where a maximum quantity will occur and (2) determine the maximum value of the quantity.

Deflection of Trusses and Frames

Principle of virtual work as applied to deflection of trusses:

$$
\Delta = \Sigma F_Q \, \delta L
$$
, where

Frames:

 $\Delta = \Sigma \{ \int m \left[M/(EI) \right] dx \}$, where

 F_Q = member force due to unit loads,

 F_p = member force due to external load,

M = bending moment due to external loads, and

 P

.
M/h.

m = bending moment due to unit load.

'MM).

BEAM FIXED-END MOMENT FORMULAS

$$
\text{FEM}_{AB} = -\frac{w_o L^2}{12} \qquad \qquad \text{FEM}_{BA} = +\frac{w_o I}{12}
$$

30

2 *Pa b L* 2 *woL* FEM *BA* = + 2 *woL AB* ⁼ [−] 20 2 *woL* FEM *BA* = +

REINFORCED CONCRETE DESIGN

FEM

Ultimate Strength Design

	ASTM Standard Reinforcing Bars								
Bar Size No.	Nominal Nominal Area in. ² Diameter in.		Nominal Weight lb/ft						
3	0.375	0.11	0.376						
4	0.500	0.20	0.668						
5	0.625	0.31	1.043						
6	0.750	0.44	1.502						
7	0.875	0.60	2.044						
8	1.000	0.79	2.670						
9	1.128	1.00	3.400						
10	1.270	1.27	4.303						
11	1.410	1.56	5.313						
14	1.693	2.25	7.650						
18	2.257	4.00	13.600						

Definitions

- A_g = gross cross-sectional area,
- A_s = area of tension steel,
- *Av* = area of shear reinforcement within a distance *s* along a member,
- $b =$ width of section,
- b_w = width of web,
- β = ratio of depth of rectangular stress block to the depth to the neutral axis,

$$
= 0.85 \ge 0.85 - 0.05 \left(\frac{f_c' - 4,000}{1,000} \right) \ge 0.65
$$

d = effective depth,

- E = modulus of elasticity of concrete,
- f_c' = compressive stress of concrete,
- f_v = yield stress of steel,
- M_n = nominal moment (service moment $*$ ultimate load factors),
- M_u = factored moment (nominal moment $*$ strength reduction factor),
- P_n = nominal axial load (with minimum eccentricity),
- P_o = nominal P_n for axially loaded column,
- ρ = reinforcement ratio, tension steel,
- ρ_b = reinforcement ratio for balanced strain condition,
- *s* = spacing of shear reinforcement,
- V_c = nominal concrete shear strength,
- V_s = nominal shear strength provided by reinforcement, and
- V_u = factored shear force.

Reinforcement Limits

$$
\rho = A_s/(bd)
$$

$$
\rho : \leq \rho \leq 0.75 \rho
$$

$$
ρ_{min} \le p \le 0.75 p_b
$$

\n
$$
ρ_{min} \ge \frac{3\sqrt{f_c'}}{f_y} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{200}{f_y}
$$

\n
$$
ρ_b = \frac{0.85β f_c'}{f_y} \left(\frac{87,000}{87,000 + f_y}\right)
$$

Moment Design

$$
\phi M_n = \phi 0.85 f_c' ab (d - a/2)
$$

= $\phi A_s f_y (d - a/2)$

$$
a = \frac{A_s f_y}{0.85 f_c' b}
$$

$$
M_u = 1.4 M_{\text{Dead}} + 1.7 M_{\text{Live}}
$$

$$
\phi M_n \ge M_u
$$

Shear Design

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\Phi \left(V_c + V_s \right) &\geq V_u \\
V_u &= 1.4 V_{\text{Dead}} + 1.7 V_{\text{Live}} \\
V_c &= 2 \sqrt{f_c'} \text{ bd} \\
V_s &= A_v f_y \, d/s \\
V_s \text{ (max)} &= 8 \sqrt{f_c'} \text{ bd}\n\end{aligned}
$$

Minimum Shear Reinforcement

$$
A_v = 50bs/f_y
$$
, when

$$
V_u > \phi V_c/2
$$

Maximum Spacing for Stirrups

If
$$
V_s \le 4\sqrt{f'_c}
$$

\n $s_{max} = min \begin{cases} 24 \text{ inches} \\ d/2 \end{cases}$
\nIf $V_s > 4\sqrt{f'_c} bd$
\n $s_{max} = min \begin{cases} 12 \text{ inches} \\ d/4 \end{cases}$

T-Beams

Effective Flange Width

$$
b_e = \min \begin{cases} 1/4 \times \text{span length} \\ b_w + 16 \times \text{slab depth} \\ b_w + \text{clear span between beams} \end{cases}
$$

Moment Capacity

$$
(a > slab depth)
$$

\n
$$
\phi M_n = \phi[0.85f_c'h_f(b_e - b_w)(d - h_f/2) + 0.85f_c'ab_w(d - a/2)]
$$

where

 h_f = slab depth, and

 b_w = web width.

Columns

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\Phi P_n > P_u \\
P_n &= 0.8 P_o \qquad \text{(tied)} \\
P_n &= 0.85 P_o \qquad \text{(spiral)} \\
P_o &= 0.85 f_c' A_{\text{concrete}} + f_y A_s \\
A_{\text{concrete}} &= A_g - A_s\n\end{aligned}
$$

Reinforcement Ratio

$$
\rho_g = A_s / A_g
$$

0.01 $\leq \rho_g \leq 0.08$

LOAD COMBINATIONS (LRFD)

where: $D =$ dead load due to the weight of the structure and permanent features

 $L =$ live load due to occupancy and moveable equipment

 L_r = roof live load

 $S =$ snow load

 $R =$ load due to initial rainwater (excluding ponding) or ice

 $W =$ wind load

TENSION MEMBERS: flat plates, angles (bolted or welded)

Gross area: $A_g = b_g t$ (use tabulated value for angles)

Net area: $A_n = (b_g - \Sigma D_h + \frac{b}{4g})$ $\frac{s^2}{t}$) t

across critical chain of holes

where: b_{α} = gross width

 $t =$ thickness

 $s =$ longitudinal center-to-center spacing (pitch) of two consecutive holes

 $g =$ transverse center-to-center spacing (gage) between fastener gage lines

 D_h = bolt-hole diameter

Effective area (bolted members):

 $U = 1.0$ (flat bars) $A_e = UA_n$ $\longleftarrow U = 0.85$ (angles with ≥ 3 bolts in line) $U = 0.75$ (angles with 2 bolts in line)

LRFD

Yielding: $\oint T_n = \oint_V A_g F_v = 0.9 A_g F_v$ Fracture: $\oint T_n = \oint f A_e F_u = 0.75 A_e F_u$ Block shear rupture (bolted tension members): A_{gt} = gross tension area $A_{\rm gv}$ = gross shear area A_{nt} = net tension area A_{nv} = net shear area When $F_u A_{nt} \geq 0.6 F_u A_{nv}$: $φR_n = 0.75$ [0.6 $F_v A_{\rho v} + F_u A_{nt}$] When $F_u A_{nt} < 0.6 F_u A_{nv}$. $φR_n = 0.75 [0.6 F_u A_{nv} + F_y A_{gt}]$

Effective area (welded members):

 $U = 1.0$ (flat bars, $L \geq 2w$) $A_e = UA_g$ $J = U = 0.87$ (flat bars, $2w > L \ge 1.5w$) *U* = 0.75 (flat bars, $1.5w > L \geq w$) $U = 0.85$ (angles)

ASD

Yielding: $T_a = A_g F_t = A_g (0.6 F_v)$ Fracture: $T_a = A_e F_t = A_e (0.5 F_u)$ Block shear rupture (bolted tension members): $T_a = (0.30 F_u) A_{uv} + (0.5 F_u) A_{uv}$ A_{nt} = net tension area A_{nv} = net shear area

 \rfloor

y

F , C

b

b

T b 1

BEAMS: homogeneous beams, flexure about x-axis

Flexure – local buckling:

No local buckling if section is **compact:**

$$
\frac{b_f}{2t_f} \le \frac{65}{\sqrt{F_y}} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{h}{t_w} \le \frac{640}{\sqrt{F_y}}
$$

where: For **rolled** sections, use tabulated values of *f f t* 2 and *wt h*

 b_f

For **built-up** sections, *h* is clear distance between flanges

For $F_y \le 50$ ksi, all **rolled shapes** except $W6 \times 19$ are compact.

Flexure – lateral-torsional buckling: L_b = unbraced length

LRFD—compact rolled shapes
\n
$$
L_{p} = \frac{300 r_y}{\sqrt{F_y}}
$$
\n
$$
L_{r} = \frac{r_y X_1}{F_L} \sqrt{1 + \sqrt{1 + X_2 F_L^2}}
$$
\nwhere: $F_L = F_y - 10$ ksi
\nwhere: $F_L = F_y - 10$ ksi
\n
$$
X_1 = \frac{\pi}{S_x} \sqrt{\frac{EGJA}{2}}
$$
\n
$$
X_2 = 4 \frac{C_w}{f_y} \left(\frac{S_x}{GJ}\right)^2
$$
\n
$$
= 0.90
$$
\n
$$
\phi M_p = \phi F_y Z_x
$$
\n
$$
\phi M_p = \phi F_y Z_x
$$
\n
$$
\phi M_n = C_b \left[\phi M_p - (\phi M_p - \phi M_r) \left(\frac{L_b - L_p}{L_r - L_p}\right)\right]
$$
\n
$$
= C_b (\phi M_p - BF(L_0 - L_p)) \le \phi M_p
$$
\n
$$
= \phi F_y X_z
$$
\n
$$
\phi M_n = C_b \left[\phi M_p - (\phi M_p - \phi M_r) \left(\frac{L_b - L_p}{L_r - L_p}\right)\right]
$$
\n
$$
= C_b (\phi M_p - BF(L_0 - L_p)) \le \phi M_p
$$
\n
$$
\phi M_n = \frac{\phi C_b S_x X_1 \sqrt{2}}{L_b \sqrt{r}} \sqrt{1 + \frac{X_1^2 X_2}{2(L_b / r_p)^2}} \le \phi M_p
$$
\n
$$
\phi M_n = \frac{\phi C_b S_x X_1 \sqrt{2}}{L_b / r} \sqrt{1 + \frac{X_1^2 X_2}{2(L_b / r_p)^2}} \le \phi M_p
$$
\n
$$
\phi M_n = \frac{\phi C_b S_x X_1 \sqrt{2}}{L_b / r} \sqrt{1 + \frac{X_1^2 X_2}{2(L_b / r_p)^2}} \le \phi M_p
$$
\n
$$
\phi M_n = \frac{\phi C_b S_x X_1 \sqrt{2}}{L_b / r} \sqrt{1 + \frac{X_1^2 X_2}{2(L_b / r_p)^2}} \le \phi M_p
$$
\n
$$
\phi M_n = \frac{\phi C_b S_x X_1 \sqrt{2}}{L_b / r} \sqrt{1 + \frac{X_1^2 X_2
$$

Shear – unstiffened beams:

LRFD $φ = 0.90$ $A_w = d t_w$ t_w ⁻ $\sqrt{F_y}$ $\oint V_n = \oint (0.6 F_y) A_w$ *y* $t_w - \sqrt{F_y}$ *h F* $\frac{418}{\sqrt{2}} < \frac{h}{\sqrt{2}} \le \frac{523}{\sqrt{2}}$ $\oint V_n = \oint (0.6 F_y) A_w \left[\frac{418}{(h/t_{av}) \sqrt{F_w}} \right]$ \rfloor 1 \mathbf{r} \mathbf{r} L Γ (h/t_w) _V F_y 418 $\frac{523}{\sqrt{2}} < \frac{h}{\sqrt{2}} \leq 260$ $\frac{1}{y}$ t_w $\frac{23}{F_v} < \frac{h}{t_w} \leq 260$ $\oint V_n = \oint (0.6 F_y) A_w \left[\frac{226,000}{(h/t_w)^2 F_y} \right]$ $\overline{}$ \rfloor 1 L \mathbf{r} L Γ $(h/t_w)^2 F_y$ 220,000

ASD
\nFor
$$
\frac{h}{t_w} \le \frac{380}{\sqrt{F_y}}
$$
: $F_v = 0.40 F_y$
\nFor $\frac{h}{t_w} > \frac{380}{\sqrt{F_y}}$: $F_v = \frac{F_y}{2.89} (C_v) \le 0.4 F_y$
\nwhere for unstiffened beams:
\n $k_v = 5.34$
\n $C_v = \frac{190}{h/t_w} \sqrt{\frac{k_v}{F_y}} = \frac{439}{(h/t_w) \sqrt{F_y}}$

COLUMNS

Column effective length *KL***:**

AISC Table C-C2.1 (**LRFD** and **ASD**)− *Effective Length Factors (K) for Columns AISC Figure C-C2.2* (**LRFD** and **ASD**)− *Alignment Chart for Effective Length of Columns in Frames*

Column capacities

Column slenderness parameter:

$$
\lambda_{\rm c} = \left(\frac{KL}{r}\right)_{max} \left(\frac{1}{\pi} \sqrt{\frac{F_y}{E}}\right)
$$

Nominal capacity of axially loaded columns (doubly symmetric section, no local buckling):

LRFD

 $\phi = 0.85$

$$
\lambda_c \le 1.5:
$$
\n $\phi F_{cr} = \phi \left(0.658^{\lambda_c^2} \right) F_y$ \n
\n $\lambda_c > 1.5:$ \n $\phi F_{cr} = \phi \left[\frac{0.877}{\lambda_c^2} \right] F_y$

See *Table 3-50: Design Stress for Compression Members (F_y = 50 ksi,* ϕ *= 0.85)* **ASD**

Column slenderness parameter:

$$
C_c = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 E}{F_y}}
$$

Allowable stress for axially loaded columns (doubly symmetric section, no local buckling):

When
$$
\left(\frac{KL}{r}\right)_{\text{max}} \leq C_c
$$

\n
$$
F_a = \frac{\left[1 - \frac{(KL/r)^2}{2C_c^2}\right] F_y}{\frac{5}{3} + \frac{3(KL/r)}{8C_c} - \frac{(KL/r)^3}{8C_c^3}}
$$
\nWhen $\left(\frac{KL}{r}\right)_{\text{max}} > C_c$: $F_a = \frac{12\pi^2 E}{23(KL/r)^2}$
\nSee Table C-50: Allowable Stress for Compression
\nMembers $(F_y = 50 \text{ ksi})$

BEAM-COLUMNS: sidesway prevented, x-axis bending, transverse loading between supports, ends unrestrained against rotation in the plane of bending

LRFD ≥ 0.2 : ΦP_n *u P* $\frac{P_u}{P} \ge 0.2$: $\frac{P_u}{P} + \frac{8}{2} \frac{M_u}{M} \le 1.0$ $\frac{8}{9} \frac{M_u}{\phi M_n} \leq$ φ + $\oint P_n$ 9 $\oint M_n$ *u n u M M P P* < 0.2 : ΦP_n *u P* $\frac{P_u}{P}$ < 0.2: $\frac{P_u}{P}$ + $\frac{M_u}{M}$ ≤ 1.0 $\frac{u}{2\Phi P_n} + \frac{m_u}{\Phi M_n} \leq$ φ + ϕP_n ϕM_n *u n u M M P P* where: $M_u = B_l M_{nt}$ B_I = 1 1 *e u m P P C* − ≥ 1.0 $C_m = 1.0$ for conditions stated above $P_{el} = \left| \frac{\pi E I_x}{(K I)^2} \right|$ -) L I l $\big(\pi$ 2 2 (KL_x) *x KL* $\left(\frac{E I_x}{2}\right)$ x-axis bending

ASD
\n
$$
\frac{f_a}{F_a} > 0.15: \qquad \frac{f_a}{F_a} + \frac{C_m f_b}{\left(1 - \frac{f_a}{F_e'}\right) F_b} \le 1.0
$$
\n
$$
\frac{f_a}{F_a} \le 0.15: \qquad \frac{f_a}{F_a} + \frac{f_b}{F_b} \le 1.0
$$
\nwhere:
\n
$$
C_m = 1.0 \qquad \text{for conditions stated above}
$$
\n
$$
F_e' = \frac{12\pi^2 E}{23 (K L_x / r_x)^2} \text{ x-axis bending}
$$

BOLTED CONNECTIONS: A_B = nominal bolt area, d = nominal bolt diameter, t = plate thickness **Basic bolt strengths:** A325-N and A325-SC bolts, $S =$ spacing $\geq 3d$, L_e = end distance $\geq 1.5d$

Reduced bolt strength: A325-N bolts, L_e = end distance < 1.5d, S = spacing < 3d Minimum permitted spacing and end distance:

*1 1/4" at ends of beam connection angles and shear end plates

LOAD FACTOR DESIGN SELECTION TABLE For shapes used as beams $φ_b = 0.90$ *Fy = 36 ksi Fy = 50 ksi BF L_r* L_p $\phi_b M_r$ $\phi_b M_p$ Z_x Shape $\phi_b M_p$ $\phi_b M_r$ L_p L_r BF **Kips Ft Ft Kip-ft Kip-ft In.³ Shape** Kip-ft | Kip-ft | Ft | Kips **12.7 16.6 5.6 222 362 134 W24**×**55 503 342 4.7 12.9 19.6** 8.08 23.2 7.0 228 359 133 W18×65 499 351 6.0 17.1 13.3 2.90 | 56.4 | 12.8 | 230 | 356 | 132 | W12×87 | 495 | 354 | 10.9 | 38.4 | 5.12 2.00 77.4 11.0 218 351 130 W10×100 488 336 9.4 50.8 3.66 5.57 32.3 10.3 228 351 130 W16×67 488 351 8.7 23.8 9.02 11.3 | 17.3 | 5.6 | 216 | 348 | 129 | W21×57 | 484 | 333 | 4.8 | 13.1 | 18.0 4.10 | 40.0 | 10.3 | 218 | 340 | 126 | W14×74 | 473 | 336 | 8.8 | 28.0 | 7.12 7.91 22.4 7.0 211 332 123 W18×60 461 324 6.0 16.7 12.8 2.88 51.8 12.7 209 321 119 W12×79 446 321 10.8 35.7 5.03 4.05 37.3 10.3 201 311 115 W14×68 431 309 8.7 26.4 6.91 1.97 68.4 11.0 192 305 113 W10×88 424 296 9.3 45.1 3.58 **7.65 21.4 7.0 192 302 112 W18**×**55 420 295 5.9 16.1 12.2 10.5 16.2 5.4 184 297 110 W21**×**50 413 284 4.6 12.5 16.4** 2.87 48.2 12.7 190 292 108 W12×72 405 292 10.7 33.6 4.93 6.43 22.8 6.7 180 284 105 W16×57 394 277 5.7 16.6 10.7 3.91 34.7 10.2 180 275 102 W14×61 383 277 8.7 24.9 6.51 **7.31 20.5 6.9 173 273 101 W18**×**50 379 267 5.8 15.6 11.5** 1.95 60.1 10.8 168 264 97.6 W10×77 366 258 9.2 39.9 3.53 2.80 | 44.7 | 12.6 | 171 | 261 | 96.8 | W12×65^b | 358 | 264 | 11.8 | 31.7 | 4.72 **9.68 15.4 5.3 159 258 95.4 W21**×**44 358 245 4.5 12.0 14.9** 6.18 21.3 6.6 158 248 92.0 W16×50 345 243 5.6 15.8 10.1 8.13 | 16.6 | 5.4 | 154 | 245 | 90.7 | W18×46 | 340 | 236 | 4.6 | 12.6 | 13.0 4.17 28.0 8.0 152 235 87.1 W14×53 327 233 6.8 20.1 7.02 2.91 | 38.4 | 10.5 | 152 | 233 | 86.4 | W12×58 | 324 | 234 | 8.9 | 27.0 | 4.96 1.93 53.7 10.8 148 230 85.3 W10×68 320 227 9.2 36.0 3.46 5.91 20.2 6.5 142 222 82.3 W16×45 309 218 5.6 15.2 9.43 **7.51 15.7 5.3 133 212 78.4 W18**×**40 294 205 4.5 12.1 11.7** 4.06 26.3 8.0 137 212 78.4 W14×48 294 211 6.8 19.2 6.70 2.85 | 35.8 | 10.3 | 138 | 210 | 77.9 | W12×53 | 292 | 212 | 8.8 | 25.6 | 4.77 1.91 48.1 10.7 130 201 74.6 W10×60 280 200 9.1 32.6 3.38 **5.54 19.3 6.5 126 197 72.9 W16**×**40 273 194 5.6 14.7 8.67** 3.06 30.8 8.2 126 195 72.4 W12×50 272 194 6.9 21.7 5.25 1.30 64.0 8.8 118 190 70.2 W8×67 263 181 7.5 41.9 2.38 3.91 24.7 7.9 122 188 69.6 W14×43 261 188 6.7 18.2 6.32 1.89 43.9 10.7 117 180 66.6 W10×54 250 180 9.1 30.2 3.30 **6.95 14.8 5.1 112 180 66.5 W18**×**35 249 173 4.3 11.5 10.7** 3.01 28.5 8.1 113 175 64.7 W12×45 243 174 6.9 20.3 5.07 5.23 18.3 6.3 110 173 64.0 W16×36 240 170 5.4 14.1 8.08 4.41 | 20.0 | 6.5 | 106 | 166 | 61.5 | W14×38 | 231 | 164 | 5.5 | 14.9 | 7.07 1.88 40.7 10.6 106 163 60.4 W10×49 227 164 9.0 28.3 3.25 1.27 | 56.0 | 8.8 | 101 | 161 | 59.8 | W8×58 | 224 | 156 | 7.4 | 36.8 | 2.32 2.92 | 26.5 | 8.0 | 101 | 155 | 57.5 | W12×40 | 216 | 156 | 6.8 | 19.3 | 4.82 1.96 35.1 8.4 95.7 148 54.9 W10×45 206 147 7.1 24.1 3.45 b indicates noncompact shape; $F_v = 50$ ksi **ZX**

Table C-C.2.1. K VALUES FOR COLUMNS

Figure $C - C.2.2$.

ALIGNMENT CHART FOR EFFECTIVE LENGTH OF COLUMNS IN CONTINUOUS FRAMES

$G_{\mathcal{A}}$	\boldsymbol{K}	G_B	G_A	К	G_B
50.0 = 10.0 = 5.0 3.0 $2.0 -$ $1.0 \cdot$ $0.8 -$ $0.7 -$ $0.6 -$ $0.5 -$ $0.4 -$ 0.3 0.2 $0.1 -$ $0 -$	-1.0 -0.9 0.8 0.7 0.6 \perp 0.5 SIDESWAY INHIBITED	$\frac{1}{2}$ 50.0 10.0 5.0 3.0 -2.0 -1.0 -0.8 -0.7 -0.6 -0.5 -0.4 -0.3 -0.2 -0.1 ∟ o	$100.0 -$ $50.0 -$ $30.0 -$ $20.0 \cdot$ $10.0 - 9.0 - 8.0 - 8.0 - 0.0$ $7.0 -$ $6.0 -$ 5.0 4.0 3.0 2.0 1.0 $\mathbf 0$	$\overline{\ddagger}$ ^{20.0} 5.0 -4.0 -3.0 2.0 1.5 -1.0 SIDESWAY UNINHIBITED	-100.0 -50.0 -30.0 -20.0 $\begin{bmatrix} 10.0 \\ -9.0 \\ -8.0 \\ -7.0 \end{bmatrix}$ -6.0 -5.0 -4.0 -3.0 -2.0 -1.0 ∟o

The subscripts A and B refer to the joints at the two ends of the column section being considered. G is defined as

$$
G = \frac{\Sigma (I_c / L_c)}{\Sigma (I_g / L_g)}
$$

in which Σ *indicates a summation of all members rigidly connected to that joint and lying on the plane in which buckling of the column is being considered. I_c is the moment of inertia and* L_c *the unsupported length of a column section, and* I_g *is the moment of inertia and Lg the unsupported length of a girder or other restraining member. I_c and I_g are taken about axes perpendicular to the plane of buckling being considered.*

For column ends supported by but not rigidly connected to a footing or foundation, G is theoretically infinity, but, unless actually designed as a true friction-free pin, may taken as "10" for practical designs. If the column end is rigidly attached to a properly designed footing, G may be taken as 1.0. Smaller values may be used if justified by analysis.
LRFD Table 3-50:

Design Stress for Compression Members of

	σ is specified yield su ess sieel, ψ_0								
Kl	$\oint_{\rm c} F_{cr}$	Kl	$\oint_{\rm c} F_{cr}$	Kl	$\oint_{\rm c} F_{cr}$	Kl	$\oint_{\rm c} F_{cr}$	Kl	$\oint_{\rm c} F_{cr}$
r	ksi	r	ksi	r	ksi	r	ksi	r	ksi
$\mathbf{1}$	42.50	41	37.59	81	26.31	121	14.57	161	8.23
\overline{c}	42.49	42	37.36	82	26.00	122	14.33	162	8.13
$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	42.47	43	37.13	83	25.68	123	14.10	163	8.03
$\overline{4}$	42.45	44	36.89	84	25.37	124	13.88	164	7.93
5	42.42	45	36.65	85	25.06	125	13.66	165	7.84
6	42.39	46	36.41	86	24.75	126	13.44	166	7.74
$\boldsymbol{7}$	42.35	47	36.16	87	24.44	127	13.23	167	7.65
$\,$ $\,$	42.30	48	35.91	88	24.13	128	13.02	168	7.56
9	42.25	49	35.66	89	23.82	129	12.82	169	7.47
$10\,$	42.19	50	35.40	90	23.51	130	12.62	170	7.38
11	42.13	51	35.14	91	23.20	131	12.43	171	7.30
12	42.05	52	34.88	92	22.89	132	12.25	172	7.21
13	41.98	53	34.61	93	22.58	133	12.06	173	7.13
14	41.90	54	34.34	94	22.28	134	11.88	174	7.05
15	41.81	55	34.07	95	21.97	135	11.71	175	6.97
16	41.71	56	33.79	96	21.67	136	11.54	176	6.89
17	41.61	57	33.51	97	21.36	137	11.37	177	6.81
18	41.51	58	33.23	98	21.06	138	11.20	178	6.73
19	41.39	59	32.95	99	20.76	139	11.04	179	6.66
$20\,$	41.28	60	32.67	100	20.46	140	10.89	180	6.59
21	41.15	61	32.38	101	20.16	141	10.73	181	6.51
22	41.02	62	32.09	102	19.86	142	10.58	182	6.44
23	40.89	63	31.80	103	19.57	143	10.43	183	6.37
24	40.75	64	31.50	104	19.28	144	10.29	184	6.30
25	40.60	65	31.21	105	18.98	145	10.15	185	6.23
26	40.45	66	30.91	106	18.69	146	10.01	186	6.17
27	40.29	67	30.61	107	18.40	147	9.87	187	6.10
28	40.13	68	30.31	108	18.12	148	9.74	188	6.04
29	39.97	69	30.01	109	17.83	149	9.61	189	5.97
30	39.79	70	29.70	110	17.55	150	9.48	190	5.91
31	39.62	71	29.40	111	17.27	151	9.36	191	5.85
32	39.43	72	20.09	112	16.99	152	9.23	192	5.79
33	39.25	73	28.79	113	16.71	153	9.11	193	5.73
34	39.06	74	28.48	114	16.42	154	9.00	194	5.67
35	38.86	75	28.17	115	16.13	155	8.88	195	5.61
36	38.66	76	27.86	116	15.86	156	8.77	196	5.55
37	38.45	77	27.55	117	15.59	157	8.66	197	5.50
38	38.24	78	27.24	118	15.32	158	8.55	198	5.44
39	38.03	79	26.93	119	15.07	159	8.44	199	5.39
40	37.81	80	26.62	120	14.82	160	8.33	200	5.33
[a] When element width-to-thickness ratio exceeds λ_r , see Appendix B5.3.									

50 ksi specified yield stress steel, $\phi_e = 0.85^{\text{[a]}}$

UNBRACED LENGTH (0.5 ft. increments)

^a When element width-to-thickness ratio exceeds noncompact section limits of Sect. B5.1, see Appendix B5.

^b Values also applicable for steel of any yield stress \geq 39 ksi.

Note: $C_c = 107.0$

ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING

For information about environmental engineering refer to the **ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING** section.

HYDROLOGY

NRCS (SCS) Rainfall-Runoff

$$
Q = \frac{(P - 0.2S)^2}{P + 0.8S},
$$

\n
$$
S = \frac{1,000}{CN} - 10,
$$

\n
$$
CN = \frac{1,000}{S + 10},
$$

P = precipitation (inches),

S = maximum basin retention (inches),

 $Q =$ runoff (inches), and

 $CN =$ curve number.

Rational Formula

 $Q = CIA$, where

- *A* = watershed area (acres),
- $C =$ runoff coefficient,
- *I* = rainfall intensity (in*/*hr), and
- $Q =$ discharge (cfs).

DARCY'S EQUATION

 $Q = -KA(dH/dx)$, where

- $Q =$ Discharge rate (ft³/s or m³/s),
- $K =$ Hydraulic conductivity (ft/s or m/s),
- $H =$ Hydraulic head (ft or m), and
- *A* = Cross-sectional area of flow $(\text{ft}^2 \text{ or } \text{m}^2)$.

SEWAGE FLOW RATIO CURVES

Open-Channel Flow

Specific Energy

$$
E = \alpha \frac{V}{2g} + y = \frac{\alpha Q^2}{2gA^2} + y
$$
, where

E = specific energy,

$$
Q = \text{discharge},
$$

 $V =$ velocity,

 $y =$ depth of flow,

- *A* = cross-sectional area of flow, and
- α = kinetic energy correction factor, usually 1.0.

Critical Depth $=$ that depth in a channel at minimum specific energy

> *T A g* $Q^2 = A^3$

where *Q* and *A* are as defined above,

- *g* = acceleration due to gravity, and
- $T =$ width of the water surface.

For rectangular channels

$$
y_c = \left(\frac{q^2}{g}\right)^{1/3}
$$
, where

 y_c = critical depth,

 $q =$ unit discharge = Q/B ,

- $B =$ channel width, and
- *g* = acceleration due to gravity.

Froude Number = ratio of inertial forces to gravity forces

$$
F = \frac{V}{\sqrt{gy_h}}
$$
, where

- $V =$ velocity, and
- y_h = hydraulic depth = A/T

Specific Energy Diagram

Alternate depths $-\text{depths}$ with the same specific energy.

Uniform Flow $-$ a flow condition where depth and velocity do not change along a channel.

Manning's Equation

$$
Q = \frac{K}{n} AR^{2/3} S^{1/2}
$$

 $Q =$ discharge (m³/s or ft³/s),

- $K = 1.486$ for USCS units, 1.0 for SI units,
- $A = \text{cross-sectional area of flow (m² or ft²),}$
- $R =$ hydraulic radius = A/P (m or ft),

 $P =$ wetted perimeter (m or ft),

- $S =$ slope of hydraulic surface (m/m or ft/ft), and
- $n =$ Manning's roughness coefficient.

Normal depth $-$ the uniform flow depth

$$
AR^{2/3} = \frac{Qn}{KS^{1/2}}
$$

Weir Formulas

Fully submerged with no side restrictions

 $Q = CLH^{3/2}$

V-Notch

 $Q = CH^{5/2}$, where

 $Q =$ discharge (cfs or m³/s),

- $C = 3.33$ for submerged rectangular weir (USCS units),
- $C = 1.84$ for submerged rectangular weir (SI units),
- $C = 2.54$ for 90° V-notch weir (USCS units),
- $C = 1.40$ for 90 \degree V-notch weir (SI units),
- $L =$ Weir length (ft or m), and
- $H =$ head (depth of discharge over weir) ft or m.

Hazen-Williams Equation

 $V = k_1 C R^{0.63} S^{0.54}$, where

- $C = \text{roughness coefficient},$
- k_1 = 0.849 for SI units, and
- k_1 = 1.318 for USCS units,
- R = hydraulic radius (ft or m),
- *S* = slope of energy gradeline,
	- $= h_f/L$ (ft/ft or m/m), and
- $V =$ velocity (ft/s or m/s).

CIVIL ENGINEERING (continued)

	Values of Hazen-Williams Coefficient C	

For additional fluids information, see the **FLUID MECHANICS** section.

TRANSPORTATION

Stopping Sight Distance

$$
S = \frac{v^2}{2g(f \pm G)} + Tv
$$
, where

S = stopping sight distance (feet),

- $v =$ initial speed (feet/second),
- *g* = acceleration of gravity,
- $f =$ coefficient of friction between tires and roadway,
- $G =$ grade of road (%/100), and
- *T* = driver reaction time (second).

Sight Distance Related to Curve Length

a. Crest - Vertical Curve:

$$
L = \frac{AS^2}{100(\sqrt{2h_1} + \sqrt{2h_2})^2}
$$
 for $S < L$

$$
L = 2S - \frac{200(\sqrt{h_1} + \sqrt{h_2})^2}{A}
$$
 for $S > L$

where

- $L =$ length of vertical curve (feet),
- $A =$ algebraic difference in grades $(\%)$,
- $S =$ sight distance (stopping or passing, feet),
- h_1 = height of drivers' eyes above the roadway surface (feet), and

 h_2 = height of object above the roadway surface (feet).

When $h_1 = 3.50$ feet and $h_2 = 0.5$ feet,

$$
L = \frac{AS^2}{1,329}
$$
 for $S < L$

$$
L = 2S - \frac{1,329}{A}
$$
 for $S > L$

b. $Sag - Vertical Curve (standard headlight criteria):$

$$
L = \frac{AS^2}{400 + 3.5 S}
$$
 for $S < L$
\n
$$
L = 2S - \frac{400 + 3.5 S}{A}
$$
 for $S > L$

c. Riding comfort (centrifugal acceleration) on sag vertical curve:

where
$$
L = \frac{AV^2}{46.5}
$$
,

 $L =$ length of vertical curve (feet), and

 $V =$ design speed (mph).

d. Adequate sight distance under an overhead structure to see an object beyond a sag vertical curve:

$$
L = \frac{AS^2}{800} \left(C - \frac{h_1 + h_2}{2} \right)^{-1}
$$
 for $S < L$
\n
$$
L = 2S - \frac{800}{A} \left(C - \frac{h_1 + h_2}{2} \right)
$$
 for $S > L$

where

- $C =$ vertical clearance for overhead structure (underpass) located within 200 feet (60 m) of the midpoint of the curve.
- e. Horizontal Curve (to see around an obstruction):

$$
M = \frac{5,729.58}{D} \left(1 - \cos \frac{DS}{200} \right)
$$

$$
M = \frac{S^2}{8R}
$$
, where

 $D = \text{degree of curve}$,

- $M =$ middle ordinate (feet),
- *S* = stopping sight distance (feet), and

 $R =$ curve radius (feet).

Superelevation of Horizontal Curves

a. Highways:

$$
e + f = \frac{v^2}{gR}
$$
, where

- *e* = superelevation,
- $f = side$ -friction factor,
- $g =$ acceleration of gravity,
- $v =$ speed of vehicle, and
- $R =$ radius of curve (minimum).
- b. Railroads:

$$
E = \frac{Gv^2}{gR}
$$
, where

 $g =$ acceleration of gravity,

- **CIVIL ENGINEERING (continued)**
- $v =$ speed of train,
- $E =$ equilibrium elevation of the outer rail,
- $G =$ effective gage (center-to-center of rails), and
- $R =$ radius of curve.

Spiral Transitions to Horizontal Curves

a. Highways:

$$
L_s = 1.6 \frac{V^3}{R}
$$

b. Railroads:

$$
L_s = 62E
$$

$$
E = 0.0007V^2D
$$

where

- $D =$ degree of curve,
- $E =$ equilibrium elevation of outer rail (inches),
- L_s = length of spiral (feet),
- $R =$ radius of curve (feet), and
- $V =$ speed (mph).

Metric Stopping Sight Distance

$$
S = 0.278 \, TV + \frac{V^2}{254(f \pm G)}
$$
, where

- $S =$ stopping sight distance (m),
- $V =$ initial speed km/hr,
- $G =$ grade of road $(\frac{9}{6} / 100)$,
- *T* = driver reaction time (seconds), and
- $f =$ coefficient of friction between tires and roadway.

Highway Superelevation (metric)

$$
\frac{e}{100} + f = \frac{V^2}{127R}
$$
, where

 e = rate of roadway superelevation in %,

- $f =$ side friction factor,
- *R =* radius of curve (minimum) (m), and
- $V =$ vehicle speed (km/hr).

Highway Spiral Curve Length (metric)

$$
L_s = \frac{0.0702 V^3}{RC}
$$
, where

- L_s = length of spiral (m),
- $V =$ vehicle speed (km/hr),
- $R =$ curve radius (m), and
- $C = 1$ to 3, often used as 1.

Sight Distance, Crest Vertical Curves (metric)

$$
L = \frac{AS^2}{100(\sqrt{2h_1} + \sqrt{2h_2})^2}
$$
 For $S < L$

$$
L = 2S - \frac{200(\sqrt{h_1} + \sqrt{h_2})^2}{A}
$$
 For $S > L$

where

- $L =$ length of vertical curve (m),
- $S =$ sight distance (stopping or passing, m),
- $A =$ algebraic difference in grades %,
- h_1 = height of driver's eye above roadway surface (m), and

 h_2 = height of object above roadway surface (m).

Sight Distance, Sag Vertical Curves (metric)

$$
L = \frac{AS^2}{120 + 3.5S}
$$
 For $S < L$

$$
L = 2S - \left(\frac{120 + 3.5S}{A}\right)
$$
 For $S > L$

Both 1° upward headlight illumination

Highway Sag Vertical Curve Criterion for Driver or Passenger Comfort (metric)

$$
L = \frac{AV^2}{395}
$$
, where

 $V =$ vehicle speed (km/hr).

Modified Davis Equation – Railroads

 $R = 0.6 + 20/W + 0.01V + KV^2/(WN)$

where

- *K* = air resistance coefficient,
- $N =$ number of axles,
- R = level tangent resistance [lb/(ton of car weight)],

 $V =$ train or car speed (mph), and

 $W =$ average load per axle (tons).

Standard values of *K*

 $K = 0.0935$, containers on flat car,

 $K = 0.16$, trucks or trailers on flat car, and

 $K = 0.07$, all other standard rail units.

Railroad curve resistance is 0.8 lb per ton of car weight per degree of curvature.

$$
TE = 375 \text{ (HP) } e/V \text{, where}
$$

- *e* = efficiency of diesel-electric drive system (0.82 to 0.93),
- $HP =$ rated horsepower of a diesel-electric locomotive unit,
- *TE* = tractive effort (lb force of a locomotive unit), and
- $V =$ locomotive speed (mph).

AREA Vertical Curve Criteria for Track Profile

Maximum Rate of Change of Gradient in Percent Grade per Station

Transportation Models

Optimization models and methods, including queueing theory, can be found in the **INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERING** section.

Traffic Flow Relationships (*q* = *kv*)

VOLUME q (veh/hr)

AIRPORT LAYOUT AND DESIGN

- 1. Cross-wind component of 12 mph maximum for aircraft of 12,500 lb or less weight and 15 mph maximum for aircraft weighing more than 12,500 lb.
- 2. Cross-wind components maximum shall not be exceeded more than 5% of the time at an airport having a single runway.
- 3. A cross-wind runway is to be provided if a single runway does not provide 95% wind coverage with less than the maximum cross-wind component.

LONGITUDINAL GRADE DESIGN CRITERIA FOR RUNWAYS

P.C. PT. PI. grade **+x** grade ' ^{gra}de \overline{B} PC. $/$ PT PI.

AUTOMOBILE PAVEMENT DESIGN

AASHTO Structural Number Equation

 $SN = a_1D_1 + a_2D_2 + ... + a_nD_n$, where

SN = structural number for the pavement

 a_i = layer coefficient and D_i = thickness of layer (inches).

EARTHWORK FORMULAS

Average End Area Formula, $V = L(A_1 + A_2)/2$,

Prismoidal Formula, $V = L (A_1 + 4A_m + A_2)/6$, where A_m = area of mid-section

Pyramid or Cone, V = h (Area of Base)*/*3,

AREA FORMULAS

Area by Coordinates: Area = $[X_A (Y_B - Y_N) + X_B (Y_C - Y_A) + X_C (Y_D - Y_B) + ... + X_N (Y_A - Y_{N-1})]/2$,

Trapezoidal Rule: Area =
$$
w\left(\frac{h_1 + h_n}{2} + h_2 + h_3 + h_4 + \dots + h_{n-1}\right)
$$

 $w =$ common interval,

Simpson's 1/3 Rule: Area = w $\left| h_1 + 2 \right| \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n-2} h_k \right| + 4 \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} h_k \right| + h_n \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} h_k \right|$ $2,4$ 2 $\left[h_1 + 2 \left(\sum_{k=3,5,...}^{n-2} h_k \right) + 4 \left(\sum_{k=2,4,...}^{n-1} h_k \right) + h_n \right]$ $\begin{bmatrix} h_1+2\begin{pmatrix} n-2\\ \sum h_k \end{pmatrix}+4\begin{pmatrix} n-1\\ \sum h_k \end{pmatrix}+$ J $\begin{pmatrix} n-2 \\ \sum h_k \end{pmatrix} + 4 \begin{pmatrix} n-1 \\ \sum h_k \end{pmatrix}$ + 2 $\left(\sum_{k=3,5,...}^{n-2} h_k\right)$ + 4 $\left(\sum_{k=2,4}^{n-2} h_k\right)$ − $\sum_{k=3,5,...}^{n_k}$ + $\prod_{k=2,4,...}^{n_k}$ + $\prod_{n=1}^{n_k}$ *n* $\sum_{k=2,4,...}^{k} h_k$ *n* $\binom{m}{k+1}$ $\binom{n}{k+1}$ $\binom{n}{k+2}$ $\binom{n}{k+2}$ $\binom{n}{k+1}$

n must be odd number of measurements,

 $w =$ common interval

CONSTRUCTION

Construction project scheduling and analysis questions may be based on either activity-on-node method or on activity-on-arrow method.

CPM PRECEDENCE RELATIONSHIPS (ACTIVITY ON NODE)

Start-to-start: start of B depends on the start of A

Finish-to-finish: finish of B depends on the finish of A

Finish-to-start: start of B depends on the finish of A

VERTICAL CURVE FORMULAS

NOT TO SCALE

- *L* = Length of Curve (horizontal) g_2 = Grade of Forward Tangent
- $PVC = Point of Vertical Curvature$ *a* = Parabola Constant
- $PVI = Point of Vertical Intersection$ *y* = Tangent Offset
- *PVT* = Point of Vertical Tangency *E* = Tangent Offset at PVI
- g_1 = Grade of Back Tangent r = Rate of Change of Grade
- *x* = Horizontal Distance from PVC (or point of tangency) to Point on Curve
-
-
-
-
-

 x_m = Horizontal Distance to Min/Max Elevation on Curve = $1 - 82$ $1 - 81$ $2a \t g_1 - g$ g_1L *a* $-\frac{g_1}{2a} = \frac{g_1}{g_1}$

Tangent Elevation = $Y_{\text{PVC}} + g_1 x$ and = $Y_{\text{PVI}} + g_2 (x - L/2)$ Curve Elevation = $Y_{\text{PVC}} + g_1 x + ax^2 = Y_{\text{PVC}} + g_1 x + [(g_2 - g_1)/(2L)]x^2$

$$
y = ax^2;
$$
 $a = \frac{g_2 - g_1}{2L};$

$$
E = a \left(\frac{L}{2}\right)^2; \qquad \qquad r = \frac{g_2 - g_1}{L}
$$

HORIZONTAL CURVE FORMULAS

- D = Degree of Curve, Arc Definition
- P.C. = Point of Curve (also called B.C.)
- P.T. = Point of Tangent (also called E.C.)
- P.I. = Point of Intersection
- I = Intersection Angle (also called Δ) Angle between two tangents
- $L =$ Length of Curve, from P.C. to P.T.
- T = Tangent Distance
- E = External Distance
- $R =$ Radius
- L.C. = Length of Long Chord
- M = Length of Middle Ordinate
- c = Length of Sub-Chord
- d = Angle of Sub-Chord

$$
R = \frac{L.C.}{2 \sin (L/2)}; \quad T = R \tan (L/2) = \frac{L.C.}{2 \cos(L/2)}
$$

\n
$$
R = \frac{5729.58}{D}; \qquad L = RI \frac{\pi}{180} = \frac{I}{D}100
$$

\n
$$
M = R [1 - \cos(L/2)]
$$

\n
$$
\frac{R}{E+R} = \cos (L/2); \quad \frac{R-M}{R} = \cos (L/2)
$$

\n
$$
c = 2R \sin (d/2);
$$

\n
$$
E = R \left[\frac{1}{\cos(L/2)} - 1 \right]
$$

Deflection angle per 100 feet of arc length equals $D/2$

ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING

PLANNING

Population Projection Equations

Linear Projection = Algebraic Projection

 $P_T = P_0 + k\Delta t$, where

 P_T = population at time T,

- P_0 = population at time zero (fitting parameter),
- $k =$ growth rate (fitting parameter), and
- Δt = elapsed time in years relative to time zero.

Log Growth = Exponential Growth = Geometric Growth

$$
P_T = P_0 e^{k\Delta t}
$$

ln $P_T = \ln P_0 + k\Delta t$, where

- P_T = population at time *T*,
- P_0 = population at time zero (fitting parameter),
- $k =$ growth rate (fitting parameter), and
- Δt = elapsed time in years relative to time zero.

WATER

For information about fluids, refer to the **CIVIL ENGINEERING** and **FLUID MECHANICS** sections.

For information about hydrology and geohydrology, refer to the **CIVIL ENGINEERING** section.

Stream Modeling: Streeter Phelps

$$
D = \frac{k_d S_o}{k_a - k_d} [\exp(-k_d t) - \exp(-k_a t)] + D_o \exp(-k_a t)
$$

$$
t_c = \frac{1}{k_a - k_d} \ln \left[\frac{k_a}{k_d} \left(1 - D_o \frac{(k_a - k_d)}{k_d S_o} \right) \right]
$$

 $D = DO_{sat} - DO$, where

- $D =$ dissolved oxygen deficit (mg/L),
- k_d = deoxygenation rate constant, base e, days⁻¹,
- $t = \text{time, days,}$
- k_a = reaeration rate, base e, days⁻¹,
- S_0 = initial BOD ultimate in mixing zone, mg/L,
- D_o = initial dissolved oxygen deficit in mixing zone (mg/L) ,
- t_c = time which corresponds with minimum dissolved oxygen (mg/L),
- DO_{sat} = saturated dissolved oxygen concentration (mg/L), and
- *DO* = dissolved oxygen concentration (mg/L).

WATER AND WASTEWATER TECHNOLOGIES

For information about reactor design (batch, plug flow, and complete mix), refer to the **CHEMICAL ENGINEERING** section.

Approach velocity = horizontal velocity = Q/A_x ,

Hydraulic loading rate = *Q*/*A*, and

Hydraulic residence time = $V/Q = \theta$. where

- $Q =$ flow rate,
- A_x = cross-sectional area,
- *A* = surface area, plan view, and
- $V =$ tank volume.

Lime-Soda Softening Equations

50 mg/L as $CaCO₃$ equivalent = 1 meq/L

- 1. Carbon dioxide removal $CO₂ + Ca (OH)₂ \rightarrow CaCO₃(s) + H₂O$
- 2. Calcium carbonate hardness removal Ca $(HCO₃)₂ + Ca (OH)₂ \rightarrow 2CaCO₃(s) + 2H₂O$
- 3. Calcium non-carbonate hardness removal $CaSO_4 + Na_2CO_3 \rightarrow CaCO_3(s) + 2Na^+ + SO_4^{-2}$
- 4. Magnesium carbonate hardness removal $Mg(HCO₃)₂ + 2Ca(OH)₂ \rightarrow 2CaCO₃(s) +$ $Mg(OH)_{2}(s) + 2H_{2}O$
- 5. Magnesium non-carbonate hardness removal $MgSO_4 + Ca(OH)_2 + Na_2CO_3 \rightarrow CaCO_3(s) +$ $Mg(OH)_2(s) + 2Na^+ + SO_4^{2-}$

6. Destruction of excess alkalinity

$$
2HCO_3^- + Ca(OH)_2 \rightarrow CaCO_3(s) + CO_3^{2-} + 2H_2O
$$

7. Recarbonation $Ca^{2+} + 2OH^{-} + CO_2 \rightarrow CaCO_3(s) + H_2O$

Rapid Mix and Flocculator Design

$$
G = \sqrt{\frac{P}{\mu V}} = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma H_L}{t \mu}}
$$

$$
Gt = 10^4 - 10^5
$$

where

- $G =$ mixing intensity = root mean square velocity gradient,
- $P = power$,
- $V =$ volume,

 μ = bulk viscosity,

- γ = specific weight of water,
- H_L = head loss in mixing zone, and

 $t =$ time in mixing zone.

Reel and Paddle

$$
P_{\text{BOARD}} = \frac{C_D A_p \rho_f v_p^3}{2}
$$
, where

- C_D = drag coefficient = 1.8 for flat blade with a $L:W > 20:1$,
- A_p = area of blade (m²) perpendicular to the direction of travel through the water,
- ρ_f = density of H₂O (kg/m³),
- v_p = relative velocity of paddle (m/sec), and
- $v = v_{\text{actual}}$ ⋅slip coefficient.

slip coefficient = $0.5 - 0.75$.

Turbulent Flow Impeller Mixer

 $P = K_T(n)^3 (D_i)^5 \rho_f$, where

- K_T = impeller constant (see table),
- $n =$ rotational speed (rev/sec), and

 D_i = impeller diameter (m).

Values of the Implement Constant
$$
K_T
$$
 (Assume Turbulent Flow)

Note: Constant assumes baffled tanks having four baffles at the tank wall with a width equal to 10% of the tank diameter.

Source: J. H. Rushton, "Mixing of Liquids in Chemical Processing," *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry*, v. 44, no. 12, p. 2931, 1952.

Settling Equations

General Spherical

$$
v_t = \sqrt{\frac{4/3 g(\rho_p - \rho_f) d}{C_D \rho_f}}
$$

\n
$$
C_D = \frac{24}{Re} \text{ (Laminar; Re} \le 1.0)
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{24}{Re} + \frac{3}{(Re)^{1/2}} + 0.34 \text{ (Transitional)}
$$

\n
$$
= 0.4 \text{ (Turbulent; } Re \ge 10^4 \text{)}
$$

$$
Re =
$$
 Reynolds number $=$ $\frac{v_t \rho d}{\mu}$, where

- *g* = gravitational constant,
- ρ_p and ρ_f = density of particle and fluid respectively,
- *d* = diameter of sphere,
- C_D = spherical drag coefficient,
- μ = bulk viscosity of liquid = absolute viscosity, and
- v_t = terminal settling velocity.

Stokes' Law

$$
v_t = \frac{g(\rho_p - \rho_f) d^2}{18\mu}
$$

Filtration Equations

Effective size = d_{10} Uniformity coefficient = d_{60} / d_{10}

 d_x = diameter of particle class for which $x\%$ of sample is less than (units meters or feet).

Head Loss Through Clean Bed

Rose Equation

Monosized Media Multisized Media

$$
h_f = \frac{1.067 (V_s)^2 LC_D}{g \eta^4 d} \qquad h_f = \frac{1.067 (V_s)^2 L}{g \eta^4} \sum \frac{C_{D_y} x_{ij}}{d_{ij}}
$$

Carmen-Kozeny Equation

Monosized Media Multisized Media

$$
h_f = \frac{f\mathcal{L}(1-\eta)V_s^2}{\eta^3 g d_p} \qquad h_f = \frac{L(1-\eta)V_s^2}{\eta^3 g} \sum \frac{f'_{ij}x_{ij}}{d_{ij}}
$$

$$
f' =
$$
 friction factor $= 150 \left(\frac{1-\eta}{Re} \right) + 1.75$, where

 h_f = head loss through the cleaner bed (m of H₂O),

- $L =$ depth of filter media (m),
- η = porosity of bed = void volume/total volume,
- V_s = filtration rate = empty bed approach velocity = *Q*/*A*plan (m/s), and
- $g =$ gravitational acceleration (m/s²).

$$
Re =
$$
 Reynolds number $=$ $\frac{V_s \rho d}{\mu}$

- d_{ij} , d_p , $d =$ diameter of filter media particles; arithmetic average of adjacent screen openings (m); $i =$ filter media (sand, anthracite, garnet); $j =$ filter media particle size,
- x_{ij} = mass fraction of media retained between adjacent sieves,
- f_{ii} = friction factors for each media fraction, and
- C_D = drag coefficient as defined in settling velocity equations.

Bed Expansion

Monosized Multisized

$$
L_{fb} = \frac{L_o(1 - \eta_o)}{1 - \left(\frac{V_B}{V_t}\right)^{0.22}} \qquad L_{fb} = L_o(1 - \eta_o) \sum \frac{x_{ij}}{1 - \left(\frac{V_B}{V_{t,i,j}}\right)^{0.22}}
$$

$$
\eta_{fb} = \left(\frac{V_B}{V_t}\right)^{0.22}, \text{ where}
$$

 L_{tb} = depth of fluidized filter media (m),

- V_B = backwash velocity (m/s), Q/A_{plan} ,
- V_t = terminal setting velocity, and

 η_{β} = porosity of fluidized bed.

 L_o = initial bed depth

 η_o = initial bed porosity

Design Criteria for Sedimentation Basins

Clarifier

Typical Primary Clarifier Efficiency Percent Removal

Design Data for Clarifiers for Activated-Sludge Systems

Source: Adapted from Metcalf & Eddy, Inc. [5−36]

Weir Loadings

- 1. Water Treatment—weir overflow rates should not exceed 20,000 gpd/ft
- 2. Wastewater Treatment
	- a. Flow ≤ 1 MGD: weir overflow rates should not exceed 10,000 gpd/ft
	- b. Flow > 1 MGD: weir overflow rates should not exceed 15,000 gpd/ft

Horizontal Velocities

- 1. Water Treatment—horizontal velocities should not exceed 0.5 fpm
- 2. Wastewater Treatment—no specific requirements (use the same criteria as for water)

Dimensions

- 1. Rectangular tanks
	- a. Length: Width ratio = $3:1$ to $5:1$
	- b. Basin width is determined by the scraper width (or multiples of the scraper width)
	- c. Bottom slope is set at 1%
	- d. Minimum depth is 10 ft
- 2. Circular Tanks
	- a. Diameters up to 200 ft
	- b. Diameters must match the dimensions of the sludge scraping mechanism
	- c. Bottom slope is less than 8%
	- d. Minimum depth is 10 ft

Length:Width Ratio

Activated Carbon Adsorption

Freundlich Isotherm

$$
\frac{x}{m} = X = KC_e^{1/n}
$$
, where

- *x* = mass of solute adsorbed,
- *m* = mass of adsorbent,
- $X =$ mass ratio of the solid phase—that is, the mass of adsorbed solute per mass of adsorbent,
- C_e = equilibrium concentration of solute, mass/volume, and

 $K, n =$ experimental constants.

Linearized Form

$$
ln\frac{x}{m} = 1/n ln C_e + ln K
$$

For linear isotherm, $n = 1$

Langmuir Isotherm

$$
\frac{x}{m} = X = \frac{aKC_e}{1 + KC_e}
$$
, where

- *a* = mass of adsorbed solute required to saturate completely a unit mass of adsorbent, and
- $K =$ experimental constant.

Linearized Form

Depth of Sorption Zone

 V_Z

$$
Z_s = Z \left[\frac{V_Z}{V_T - 0.5V_Z} \right], \text{ where}
$$
\n
$$
V_Z = V_T - V_B
$$
\n
$$
Z_S = \text{ depth of sorption zone},
$$
\n
$$
Z = \text{ total carbon depth},
$$
\n
$$
V_T = \text{ total volume treated at}
$$
\n
$$
\text{exhaustion } (C = 0.95 C_o),
$$
\n
$$
V_B = \text{ total volume at}
$$
\n
$$
\text{breakthrough } (C = C_{\alpha} = 0.05 C_o), \text{ and}
$$
\n
$$
C_o = \text{ concentration of}
$$
\n
$$
C_e
$$

 C_o = concentration of contaminant in influent.

Reverse Osmosis

Osmotic Pressure of Solutions of Electrolytes

$$
\pi = \phi v \frac{n}{V} RT
$$
, where

- π = osmotic pressure,
- ϕ = osmotic coefficient,
- $v =$ number of ions formed from one molecule of electrolyte,
- $n =$ number of moles of electrolyte,
- $V =$ volume of solvent,
- *R* = universal gas constant, and
- *T* = absolute pressure.

Water Flux

 $J_w = W_p \times (\Delta P - \Delta \pi)$, where

- J_w = water flux through the membrane [gmol/(cm²· s)],
- W_p = coefficient of water permeation, a characteristic of the particular membrane $\text{[gmol/(cm}^2 \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{atm})]$,
- ΔP = pressure differential across membrane = $P_{\text{in}} P_{\text{out}}$ (atm), and
- $\Delta \pi$ = osmotic pressure differential across membrane

 $\pi_{\text{in}} - \pi_{\text{out}}$ (atm).

Salt Flux through the Membrane

 $J_s = (D_s K_s / \Delta Z)(C_{in} - C_{out})$, where

- J_s = salt flux through the membrane $\text{[gmol/(cm^2} \cdot \text{s)}\text{]}$,
- D_s = diffusivity of the solute in the membrane (cm²/s),
- K_s = solute distribution coefficient (dimensionless),
- $C =$ concentration (gmol/cm³),
- ∆*Z* = membrane thickness (cm), and

$$
J_s = K_p \times (C_{\text{in}} - C_{\text{out}})
$$

 K_p = membrane solute mass transfer coefficient = *Z* $D_s K_s \bigg/_{\Delta Z}$ (L/t, cm/s).

Ultrafiltration

$$
J_w = \frac{\varepsilon r^2 \int \Delta P}{8\mu\delta}
$$
, where

 ϵ = membrane porosity,

= membrane pore size,

 $\Delta P =$ net transmembrane pressure,

 μ = viscosity,

 δ = membrane thickness, and

 J_w = volumetric flux (m/s).

Electrodialysis

In *n* Cells, the Required Current Is:

 $I = (FQN/n) \times (E_1 / E_2)$, where

- $I =$ current (amperes),
- $F =$ Faraday's constant = 96,487 C/g-equivalent,
- $Q =$ flow rate (L/s),
- $N =$ normality of solution (g-equivalent/L),
- $n =$ number of cells between electrodes,
- E_1 = removal efficiency (fraction), and
- E_2 = current efficiency (fraction).

Voltage

 $E = IR$, where

- $E =$ voltage requirement (volts), and
- $R =$ resistance through the unit (ohms).

Required Power

$$
P = I^2 R \text{ (watts)}
$$

Air Stripping

where

 A_{out} = concentration in the effluent air,

 $H =$ Henry's Law constant,

 $H' = H/RT =$ dimensionless Henry's Law constant,

 R = universal gas constant,

$$
Q_W
$$
 = water flow rate (m³/s),

 Q_A = air flow rate (m³/s),

- $A =$ concentration of contaminant in air (kmol/m³), and
- $C =$ concentration of contaminants in water (kmol/m³).

Stripper Packing Height = *Z*

$$
Z = HTU \times NTU
$$

NTU = $\left(\frac{R}{R-1}\right)ln\left(\frac{(C_{in}/C_{out})(R-1)+1}{R}\right)$

 $NTU = number of transfer units$

where

- *R* = stripping factor $H'(Q_A / Q_W)$ (dimensionless),
- C_{in} = concentration in the effluent water (kmol/m³), and
- C_{out} = concentration in the effluent water (kmol/m³).

 $M_W K_L a$ *L* $W^{I\!L}L$ HTU = Height of Transfer Units = $\frac{E}{16 \text{ Hz}}$,

where

- *L* = liquid molar loading rate $[kmol/(s·m^2)]$,
- $M_W =$ molar density of water (55.6 kmol/m³) = 3.47 lbmol/ ft^3 , and

 K_La = overall transfer rate constant (s⁻¹).

Environmental Microbiology

BOD Exertion

 $y_t = L (1 - e^{-kt})$

where

 k = reaction rate constant (base *e*, days⁻¹),

 $L =$ ultimate BOD (mg/L),

 $t =$ time (days), and

 y_t = the amount of BOD exerted at time *t* (mg/L).

Monod Kinetics

$$
\mu = \mu_{max} \frac{S}{K_x + S}, \text{ where}
$$

 μ = specific growth rate (time⁻¹),

 μ_{max} = maximum specific growth rate (time⁻¹),

- *S* = concentration of substrate in solution (mass/unit volume), and
- K_s = half-velocity constant = half-saturation constant (i.e., substrate concentration at which the specific growth rate is one-half μ_{max}) (mass/unit volume).

Half-Life of a Biologically Degraded Contaminant Assuming First-Order Rate Constant

$$
k = \frac{0.693}{t_{1/2}}
$$
, where

 $t_{1/2}$ = half-life (days).

ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING (continued)

V X

Activated Sludge

$$
X_A = \frac{\Theta_c Y(S_o - S_e)}{\Theta(1 + k_d \Theta_c)}, \text{ where}
$$

- X_A = biomass concentration in aeration tank (MLSS or MLVSS kg/m^3);
- S_0 = influent BOD or COD concentration (kg/m³);
- S_e = effluent BOD or COD concentration (kg/m^3) ;
- k_d = microbial death ratio; kinetic constant; day⁻¹; typical range $0.1-0.01$, typical domestic wastewater value = 0.05 day^{-1} ;
- *Y* = yield coefficient Kg biomass/Kg BOD consumed; range $0.4-1.2$; and

$$
\theta = \text{hydraulic residence time.}
$$

$$
\theta_c
$$
 = Solids residence time = $\frac{V_A X_A}{Q_w X_w + Q_e X_e}$

 (100) (% solids) $Q_s = \frac{M}{I}$ *s* ludge flow rate : $Q_s = \frac{M(100)}{\rho_s(\% \, solit)}$

Solids loading rate $= Q X/A$

For activated sludge secondary clarifier $Q = Q_0 + Q_R$

Organic loading rate (volumetric) =
$$
Q_o S_o / V
$$

Organic loading rate $(F:M) = Q_oS_o/(V_A X_A)$

Organic loading rate (surface area) = Q_oS_o/A_M

$$
SVI = \frac{Sludge \, volume \, after \, settling(mL/L)*1,000}{MLSS(mg/L)}
$$

Steady State Mass Balance for Secondary Clarifier:

 $(Q_0 + Q_R)X_A = Q_e X_e + Q_R X_w + Q_w X_w$

- $A =$ surface area of unit,
- A_M = surface area of media in fixed-film reactor,
- A_x = cross-sectional area of channel,
- $M =$ sludge production rate (dry weight basis),
- Q_0 = flow rate, influent
- Q_e = effluent flow rate,
- Q_w = waste sludge flow rate,
- ρ_s = wet sludge density,
- $R = \text{recycle ratio} = Q_R/Q_o$
- Q_R = recycle flow rate = Q_oR ,
- *Xe* = effluent suspended solids concentration,
- X_w = waste sludge suspended solids concentration,
- $V =$ tank volume,
- V_A = aeration basin volume,
- $Q =$ flow rate.

DESIGN AND OPERATIONAL PARAMETERS FOR ACTIVATED-SLUDGE TREATMENT OF MUNICIPAL WASTEWATER

Source: Adapted from Metcalf & Eddy, Inc. [5-36] and Steele and McGhee [5-50].

 $*PF = plug flow, CM = completely mixed.$

Facultative Pond

BOD Loading

Mass (lb/day) = Flow (MGD) \times Concentration (mg/L) × 8.34(lb/MGal)*/*(mg/L)

Total System \leq 35 pounds BOD₅/acre/day

 $Minimum = 3$ ponds

Depth $= 3-8$ ft

Minimum *t* = 90−120 days

Biotower

Fixed-Film Equation without Recycle

$$
\frac{S_e}{S_o} = e^{-kD/q'}
$$

Fixed-Film Equation with Recycle

$$
\frac{S_e}{S_a} = \frac{e^{-kD/q^n}}{(1+R) - R\left(e^{-kD/q^n}\right)}
$$

$$
S_a = \frac{S_o + RS_e}{1+R}
$$
, where

- S_e = effluent BOD₅ (mg/L),
- S_0 = influent BOD₅ (mg/L),
- $D =$ depth of biotower media (m),

q = hydraulic loading
$$
(m^3/m^2/min)
$$
,

$$
= (Q_o + RQ_o)/A_{\text{plan}} \text{ (with recycle)},
$$

 $k =$ treatability constant; functions of wastewater and medium (min[−]¹); range 0.01−0.1; for municipal wastewater and modular plastic media 0.06 min⁻¹ $@$ 20 $°C$,

$$
k_T = k_{2o}(1.035)^{T-20},
$$

 $n =$ coefficient relating to media characteristics; modular plastic, $n = 0.5$,

$$
R
$$
 = recycle ratio = Q_0 / Q_R , and

 Q_R = recycle flow rate.

Anaerobic Digester

Design parameters for anaerobic digesters

Source: Adapted from Metcalf & Eddy, Inc. [5-36]

Standard Rate

$$
Reactor Volume = \frac{V_1 + V_2}{2}t_r + V_2t_s
$$

High Rate

First stage

Reactor Volume = $V_1 t_r$

Second Stage

$$
Reactor Volume = \frac{V_1 + V_2}{2}t_t + V_2t_s
$$
, where

 V_1 = raw sludge input (m³/day),

 V_2 = digested sludge accumulation (m³/day),

- t_r = time to react in a high-rate digester = time to react and thicken in a standard-rate digester,
- t_t = time to thicken in a high-rate digester, and

 t_s = storage time.

Aerobic Digestion

Tank Volume

$$
V = \frac{Q_i(X_i + FS_i)}{X_d(K_d P_v + 1/\theta_c)},
$$
 where

$$
V = \text{volume of aerobic digester (ft}^3),
$$

- Q_i = influent average flowrate to digester (ft^3/d),
- X_i = influent suspended solids (mg/L),
- $F =$ fraction of the influent BOD₅ consisting of raw primary sludge (expressed as a decimal),
- S_i = influent BOD₅ (mg/L),
- X_d = digester suspended solids (mg/L),
- K_d = reaction-rate constant (d^{-1}) ,
- P_v = volatile fraction of digester suspended solids (expressed as a decimal), and
- θ_c = solids retention time (sludge age) (d).

AIR POLLUTION

For information on Ideal Gas Law equations refer to the **THERMODYNAMICS** Section.

Atmospheric Dispersion Modeling (Gaussian)

 $\sigma_{\rm v}$ and $\sigma_{\rm z}$ as a function of downwind distance and stability class, see following figures.

$$
C = \frac{Q}{2\pi\mu\sigma_y\sigma_z} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2}\right) \left[\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(z-H)^2}{\sigma_z^2}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(z+H)^2}{\sigma_z^2}\right)\right]
$$

where

- $C =$ steady-state concentration at a point (x, y, z) $(\mu g/m^3)$,
- $Q =$ emissions rate (μ g/s),
- σ_{v} = horizontal dispersion parameter (m),
- σ_z = vertical dispersion parameter (m),
- μ = average wind speed at stack height (m/s),
- $y =$ horizontal distance from plume centerline (m),
- *z* = vertical distance from ground level (m),

$$
H = \text{effective stack height (m)} = h + \Delta h
$$

where $h =$ physical stack height

Δh = plume rise, and

 $x =$ downwind distance along plume centerline (m).

Concentration downwind from elevated source

$$
C_{(max)} = \frac{Q}{\pi \mu \sigma_y \sigma_z} e^{\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{H^2}{\sigma_z^2}\right)} \quad \text{at } \sigma_z = (H/2)^{1/2}
$$

where variables as previous except

 $C_{\text{(max)}}$ = maximum ground-level concentration.

Notes:

a. Surface wind speed is measured at 10 m above the ground.

- b. Corresponds to clear summer day with sun higher than 60° above the horizon.
- c. Corresponds to a summer day with a few broken clouds, or a clear day with sun 35-60° above the horizon.
- d. Corresponds to a fall afternoon, or a cloudy summer day, or clear summer day with the sun 15-35°.
- e. Cloudiness is defined as the fraction of sky covered by the clouds.
- f. For $A-B$, $B-C$, or $C-D$ conditions, average the values obtained for each.

Regardless of wind speed, Class D should be assumed for overcast conditions, day or night.

SOURCE: Turner, 1970.

- E SLIGHTLY STABLE
- F MODERATELY STABLE

NOTE: Effective stack height shown on curves numerically.

SOURCE: Turner, D. B., "Workbook of Atmospheric Dispersion Estimates," Washington, DC, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 1970.

$$
\left(\frac{C_u}{Q}\right) \text{ max} = e^{\left[a + b \ln H + c \left(\ln H\right)^2 + d(\ln H)^3\right]}
$$

 $H =$ effective stack height, stack height + plume rise, m

Values of Curve-Fit Constants for Estimating $(Cu/Q)_{\text{max}}$ from *H* as a Function of Atmospheric Stability

	Constants					
Stability	a	h	\mathcal{C}	d		
A	-1.0563	-2.7153	0.1261	0		
B	-1.8060	-2.1912	0.0389	0		
C	-1.9748	-1.9980	θ	0		
D	-2.5302	-1.5610	-0.0934	θ		
E	-1.4496	-2.5910	0.2181	-0.0343		
F	-1.0488	-3.2252	0.4977	-0.0765		

Adapted from Ranchoux, 1976.

Incineration

$$
DRE = \frac{W_{\text{in}} - W_{\text{out}}}{W_{\text{in}}} \times 100\%
$$
, where

- DRE = destruction and removal efficiency $(\%),$
- W_{in} = mass feed rate of a particular POHC (kg/h or lb/h), and
- W_{out} = mass emission rate of the same POHC (kg/h or lb/h).

$$
CE = \frac{CO_2}{CO_2 + CO} \times 100\%
$$
, where

- $CO₂$ = volume concentration (dry) of $CO₂$ (parts per million, volume, ppmv),
- $CO =$ volume concentration (dry) of CO (ppmv),
- $CE =$ combustion efficiency, and

POHC = principal organic hazardous contaminant.

Cyclone

AIR POLLUTION CONTROL

Cyclone Ratio of Dimensions to Body Diameter

Cyclone Effective Number of Turns Approximation

$$
N_e = \frac{1}{H} \left[L_b + \frac{L_c}{2} \right], \text{ where}
$$

 N_e = number of effective turns gas makes in cyclone,
 H = inlet height of cyclone (m).

 $=$ inlet height of cyclone (m),

- L_b = length of body cyclone (m), and
- L_c = length of cone of cyclone (m).

Cyclone 50% Collection Efficiency for Particle Diameter

$$
d_{pc} = \left[\frac{9\mu W}{2\pi N_e v_i (\rho_p - \rho_g)}\right]^{0.5}
$$
, where

 d_{pc} = diameter of particle that is collected with 50% efficiency (m),

 μ = viscosity of gas (kg/m-s),
 W = inlet width of cyclone (m).

 $=$ inlet width of cyclone (m) ,

- N_e = number of effective turns gas makes in cyclone,
- v_i = inlet velocity into cyclone (m/s),
- ρ_p = density of particle (kg/m³), and

 ρ_g = density of gas (kg/m³).

Cyclone Collection Efficiency

Cyclone Collection (Particle Removal) Efficiency

$$
\eta = \frac{1}{1 + \left(d_{pc} / d_p\right)^2}
$$
, where

 d_{nc} = diameter of particle collected with 50% efficiency,

dp = diameter of particle of interest, and

η = fractional particle collection efficiency.

Air-to-Cloth Ratio for Baghouses

Bag House

Electrostatic Precipitator Efficiency

Deutsch-Anderson equation:

$$
\eta = 1 - e^{(-wA/Q)}, \text{ where}
$$

- η = fractional collection efficiency,
- $W =$ terminal drift velocity,
- *A* = total collection area, and
- *Q* = volumetric gas flow rate.

Note that any consistent set of units can be used for *W*, *A*, and Q (for example, ft/min, ft^2 , and ft^3 /min).

NOISE POLLUTION

 $SPL(dB) = 10 log_{10} (P^2 / P_o^2)$ $SPL_{\text{total}} = 10 \log_{10} \Sigma 10^{SPL/10}$

Point Source Attenuation Δ SPL (dB)= 10 $\log_{10} (r_1/r_2)^2$

Line Source Attenuation Δ SPL (dB)= 10 $log_{10} (r_1/r_2)$

where

RADIATION HALF-LIFE

 $N = N_o e^{-0.693t/\tau}$, where

 N_o = original number of atoms,

 $N =$ final number of atoms,

- $t =$ time, and
- τ = half-life.

Flux at distance 2 = (Flux at distance 1) $(r_1/r_2)^2$

RISK ASSESSMENT

Risk is a product of toxicity and exposure.

Risk assessment process

Dose is expressed as the mass intake of the chemical normalized to the body weight of the exposed individual and the time period of exposure.

- NOAEL= No Observable Adverse Effect Level. The dose below which there are no harmful effects.
- CSF = Cancer Slope Factor. Determined from the dose-response curve for carcinogenic materials.

Exposure and Intake Rates

Soil Ingestion Rate 100 mg/day (>6 years old) 200 mg/day (children 1 to 6 years old)

Exposure Duration 30 years at one residence (adult) 6 years (child)

Body Mass 70 kg (adult) 10 kg (child)

Averaging Period non-carcinogens, actual exposure duration carcinogens, 70 years

Water Consumption Rate 2.0 L/day (adult) 1.0 L/day (child)

Inhalation Rate $0.83 \text{ m}^3/\text{hr}$ (adult) $0.46 \text{ m}^3/\text{hr}$ (child)

Determined from the Noncarcinogenic Dose-Response Curve Using NOAEL

$RfD = NOAEL/a$ safety factor

Exposure assessment calculates the actual or potential dose that an exposed individual receives and delineates the affected population by identifying possible exposure paths.

Daily Does
$$
(mg/kg-day) = \frac{(C)(I)(EF)(ED)(AF)}{(AT)(BW)}
$$
, where
\n C = concentration (mass/volume),
\n I = intake rate (volume/time),
\nEF = exposure frequency (time/time),
\nED = exposure duration (time),
\nAF = absorption factor (mass/mass),
\nAT = averaging time (time),
\nBW = body weight (mose) and

BW = body weight (mass), and

LADD = lifetime average daily dose (daily dose, in mg/kg $-$ d, over an assumed 70-year lifetime).

Risk

Risk characterization estimates the probability of adverse incidence occurring under conditions identified during exposure assessment.

For carcinogens the added risk of cancer is calculated as follows:

Risk = dose \times toxicity = daily dose \times CSF

For noncarcinogens, a hazard index (HI) is calculated as follows:

 $HI = intake rate/RfD$

Risk Management

Carcinogenic risk between 10^{-4} and 10^{-6} is deemed acceptable by the U.S. EPA.

For noncarcinogens, a HI greater than 1 indicates that an unacceptable risk exists.

SAMPLING AND MONITORING

For information about Student t-Distribution, Standard Deviation, and Confidence Intervals, refer to the **MATHEMATICS** section.

FATE AND TRANSPORT

Partition Coefficients

Octanol-Water Partition Coefficient

The ratio of a chemical's concentration in the octanol phase to its concentration in the aqueous phase of a two-phase octanol-water system.

$$
K_{ow} = C_o / C_w
$$
, where

- C_0 = concentration of chemical in octanol phase (mg/L) or μ g/L) and
- C_w = concentration of chemical in aqueous phase (mg/L) or μ g/L).

Soil-Water Partition Coefficient
$$
K_{sw} = K_{\rho}
$$

$$
K_{sw} = X/C
$$
, where

 $X =$ concentration of chemical in soil (ppb or μ g/kg), and

 $C =$ concentration of chemical in water (ppb or μ g/kg).

Organic Carbon Partition Coefficient *Koc*

$$
K_{oc} = C_{\text{soil}} / C_{\text{water}}
$$
, where

 C_{solid} = concentration of chemical in organic carbon component of soil (µg adsorbed/kg organic *C*, or ppb), and

 C_{water} = concentration of chemical in water (ppb or μ g/kg)

$$
K_{sw} = K_{oc} f_{oc}
$$
, where

 f_{oc} = fraction of organic carbon in the soil (dimensionless).

Bioconcentration Factor (BCF)

The amount of a chemical to accumulate in aquatic organisms.

$$
BCF = C_{org} / C
$$
, where

 C_{org} = equilibrium concentration in organism (mg/kg or ppm), and

 $C =$ concentration in water (ppm).

Retardation Factor = R

 $R = 1 + (\rho/\eta)K_d$, where

- ρ = bulk density,
- η = porosity, and
- K_d = distribution coefficient.

LANDFILL

Gas Flux

$$
N_A = \frac{D\eta^{4/3} \left(C_{A_{atm}} - C_{A_{fill}}\right)}{L}
$$
, where

 N_A = gas flux of compound *A*, g/cm² ⋅ s(lb ⋅ mol/ft² ⋅ d),

- $C_{A_{\text{max}}}$ = concentration of compound *A* at the surface of the landfill cover, g/cm^3 (lb · mol/ft³),
- $C_{A_{\theta ll}} =$ concentration of compound A at the bottom of the landfill cover, g/cm^3 (lb · mol/ft³), and
- $L =$ depth of the landfill cover, cm (ft).

Typical values for the coefficient of diffusion for methane and carbon dioxide are $0.20 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ (18.6 ft²/d) and 0.13 cm^2/s (12.1 ft²/d), respectively.

- $D = \text{diffusion coefficient, cm}^2/\text{s} \text{ (ft}^2/\text{d)},$
- $\eta_{\text{gas}} = \text{gas-filled porosity, cm}^3/\text{cm}^3 \text{ (ft}^3/\text{ft}^3)$, and
- η = total porosity, cm³/cm³ (ft³/ft³)

Break-Through Time for Leachate to Penetrate a Clay Liner

$$
t = \frac{d^2 \eta}{K(d+h)},
$$
 where

 $t =$ breakthrough time (yr),

- $d =$ thickness of clay liner (ft),
- η = effective porosity,
- $K = \text{coefficient of permeability (ft/yr), and}$
- h = hydraulic head (ft).

Typical effective porosity values for clays with a coefficient of permeability in the range of 10^{-6} to 10^{-8} cm/s vary from 0.1 to 0.3.

Soil Landfill Cover Water Balance

 $\Delta S_{\text{LC}} = P - R - ET - PER_{\text{sw}}$, where

 ΔS_{LC} = change in the amount of water held in storage in a unit volume of landfill cover (in.),

P = amount of precipitation per unit area (in.),

ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING (continued)

- $R =$ amount of runoff per unit area (in.),
- $ET =$ amount of water lost through evapotranspiration per unit area (in.), and

 $PER_{sw} =$ amount of water percolating through the unit area of landfill cover into compacted solid waste (in.).

Effect of Overburden Pressure

$$
SW_p = SW_i + \frac{p}{a + bp}
$$

where

- SW_p = specific weight of the waste material at pressure *p* $(h/yd³)$ (typical 1,750 to 2,150),
- SW_i = initial compacted specific weight of waste (lb/yd^3) (typical 1,000),
- $p =$ overburden pressure (lb/in²),
- a = empirical constant (yd³/lb)(lb/in²), and
- $b =$ empirical constant (yd³/lb).

Data Quality Objectives (DQO) for Sampling Soils and Solids

EPA Document "EPA/600/8-89/046" Soil Sampling Quality Assurance User's Guide, Chapter 7. Confidence level: 1– (Probability of a Type I Error) = $1 - \alpha$ = size probability of not making a Type I error Power = 1– (Probability of a Type II error) = $1 - \beta$ = probability of not making a Type II error.

 $CV = (100 * s)/\bar{x}$ $CV = coefficient of variation$ $s = standard deviation of sample$ \bar{x} = sample average

Minimum Detectable Relative Difference = Relative increase over background $[100 (\mu_s - \mu_B)/\mu_B]$ to be detectable with a probability $(1-\beta)$

Number of samples required in a one-sided one-sample t-test to achieve a minimum detectable relative difference at confidence level (1– α) and power of (1– β)

ELECTRICAL AND COMPUTER ENGINEERING

ELECTROMAGNETIC DYNAMIC FIELDS

The integral and point form of Maxwell's equations are

$$
\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = -\iint_S (\partial \mathbf{B} \partial t) \cdot d\mathbf{S}
$$
\n
$$
\oint \mathbf{H} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = I_{\text{enc}} + \iint_S (\partial \mathbf{D} \partial t) \cdot d\mathbf{S}
$$
\n
$$
\oint_{S_V} \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_V \rho \, dv
$$
\n
$$
\oint_{S_V} \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0
$$
\n
$$
\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\partial \mathbf{B} \partial t
$$
\n
$$
\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \partial \mathbf{D} \partial t
$$
\n
$$
\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho
$$
\n
$$
\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0
$$

The sinusoidal wave equation in **E** for an isotropic homogeneous medium is given by

$$
\nabla^2 \mathbf{E} = -\omega^2 \mu \varepsilon \mathbf{E}
$$

The *EM* energy flow of a volume *V* enclosed by the surface S_V can be expressed in terms of the Poynting's Theorem

$$
-\oint_{S_V} (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}) \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_V \mathbf{J} \cdot \mathbf{E} \, dv
$$

$$
+ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \{ \iiint_V (\varepsilon E^2 / 2 + \mu H^2 / 2) \, dv \}
$$

where the left-side term represents the energy flow per unit time or power flow into the volume V , whereas the $J \cdot E$ represents the loss in *V* and the last term represents the rate of change of the energy stored in the **E** and **H** fields.

LOSSLESS TRANSMISSION LINES

The wavelength, λ , of a sinusoidal signal is defined as the distance the signal will travel in one period.

$$
\lambda = \frac{U}{f}
$$

where *U* is the velocity of propagation and *f* is the frequency of the sinusoid.

The characteristic impedance, Z_o , of a transmission line is the input impedance of an infinite length of the line and is given by

$$
Z_0 = \sqrt{L/C}
$$

where *L* and *C* are the per unit length inductance and capacitance of the line.

The reflection coefficient at the load is defined as

$$
\Gamma = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0}
$$

and the standing wave ratio SWR is

$$
SWR = \frac{1+|\Gamma|}{1-|\Gamma|}
$$

β = Propagation constant = $\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$

For sinusoidal voltages and currents:

Voltage across the transmission line:

$$
V(d) = V^+e^{j\beta d} + V^-e^{-j\beta d}
$$

Current along the transmission line:

$$
I(d) = I^+ e^{j\beta d} + I^- e^{-j\beta d}
$$

where $I^+ = V^+/Z_0$ and $I^- = -V^-/Z_0$ Input impedance at d

$$
Z_{in}(d) = Z_0 \frac{Z_L + jZ_0 \tan(\beta d)}{Z_0 + jZ_L \tan(\beta d)}
$$

AC MACHINES

The synchronous speed n_s for AC motors is given by

 $n_s = 120$ *f/p*, where

 $f =$ the line voltage frequency in Hz and

 $p =$ the number of poles.

The slip for an induction motor is

 $slip = (n_s - n)/n_s$, where

= the rotational speed (rpm).

DC MACHINES

The armature circuit of a DC machine is approximated by a series connection of the armature resistance R_a , the armature inductance *La*, and a dependent voltage source of value

 $V_a = K_a n \phi$ volts, where

 K_a = constant depending on the design,

n = is armature speed in rpm, and

 ϕ = the magnetic flux generated by the field.

The field circuit is approximated by the field resistance R_f , in series with the field inductance *Lf*. Neglecting saturation, the magnetic flux generated by the field current I_f is

$$
\phi = K_f I_f \qquad \text{webers}
$$

The mechanical power generated by the armature is

$$
P_m = V_a I_a \quad \text{watts}
$$

where I_a is the armature current. The mechanical torque produced is

$$
T_m = (60/2\pi)K_a \phi I_a
$$
 newton-meters.

BALANCED THREE-PHASE SYSTEMS

The three-phase line-phase relations are

$$
I_L = \sqrt{3}I_p
$$
 (for delta)

$$
V_L = \sqrt{3}V_p
$$
 (for wye)

where subscripts L/p denote line/phase respectively. Threephase complex power is defined by

$$
S = P + jQ
$$

 $S = \sqrt{3}V_I I_I (\cos\theta_p + j\sin\theta_p)$, where

S = total complex volt-amperes,

 $P =$ real power (watts),

Q = reactive power (VARs), and

 θ_p = power factor angle of each phase.

CONVOLUTION

Continuous-time convolution:

$$
V(t) = x(t) * y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) y(t - \tau) d\tau
$$

Discrete-time convolution:

$$
V[n] = x[n] * y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] y[n-k]
$$

DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING

A discrete-time, linear, time-invariant (DTLTI) system with a single input $x[n]$ and a single output $y[n]$ can be described by a linear difference equation with constant coefficients of the form

$$
y[n] + \sum_{i=1}^{k} b_i y[n - i] = \sum_{i=0}^{l} a_i x[n - i]
$$

If all initial conditions are zero, taking a z-transform yields a transfer function

$$
H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{l} a_i z^{k-i}}{z^k + \sum_{i=1}^{k} b_i z^{k-i}}
$$

Two common discrete inputs are the unit-step function *u*[*n*] and the unit impulse function $\delta[n]$, where

$$
u[n] = \begin{cases} 0 & n < 0 \\ 1 & n \ge 0 \end{cases} \text{ and } \delta[n] = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 0 \\ 0 & n \ne 0 \end{cases}
$$

The impulse response $h[n]$ is the response of a discrete-time system to $x[n] = \delta[n]$.

A finite impulse response (FIR) filter is one in which the impulse response $h[n]$ is limited to a finite number of points:

> $[n] = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i \delta[n-i]$ $h[n] = \sum_{i=0}^{k} a_i \delta[n - i]$

The corresponding transfer function is given by

$$
H(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} a_i z^{-i}
$$

where *k* is the order of the filter.

An infinite impulse response (IIR) filter is one in which the impulse response $h[n]$ has an infinite number of points:

$$
h[n] = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i \delta[n-i]
$$

COMMUNICATION THEORY CONCEPTS

Spectral characterization of communication signals can be represented by mathematical transform theory. An amplitude modulated (AM) signal form is

 $v(t) = A_c [1 + m(t)] \cos \omega_c t$, where

 A_c = carrier signal amplitude.

If the modulation baseband signal $m(t)$ is of sinusoidal form with frequency ω*m* or

$$
m(t) = m\cos\omega_m t
$$

then *m* is the index of modulation with $m > 1$ implying overmodulation. An angle modulated signal is given by

$$
v(t) = A\cos\left[\omega_c t + \phi(t)\right]
$$

where the angle modulation $\phi(t)$ is a function of the baseband signal. The angle modulation form

$$
\phi(t) = k_p m(t)
$$

is termed phase modulation since angle variations are proportional to the baseband signal *mi*(*t*). Alternately

$$
\phi(t) = k_f \int_{-\infty}^{t} m(\tau) d\tau
$$

is termed frequency modulation. Therefore, the instantaneous phase associated with $v(t)$ is defined by

$$
\phi_i(t) = \omega_c t + k_f \int_{-\infty}^t m(\tau) d\tau
$$

from which the instantaneous frequency

$$
\omega_i = \frac{d\phi_i(t)}{dt} = \omega_c + k_f m(t) = \omega_c + \Delta\omega(t)
$$

where the frequency deviation is proportional to the baseband signal or

$$
\Delta \omega(t) = k_f m(t)
$$

These fundamental concepts form the basis of analog communication theory. Alternately, sampling theory, conversion, and PCM (Pulse Code Modulation) are fundamental concepts of digital communication.

FOURIER SERIES

If $f(t)$ satisfies certain continuity conditions and the relationship for periodicity given by

$$
f(t) = f(t + T) \quad \text{for all } t
$$

then $f(t)$ can be represented by the trigonometric and complex Fourier series given by

$$
f(t) = A_o + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cos n\omega_o t + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin n\omega_o t
$$

and

$$
f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}
$$
, where

$$
\omega_o = 2\pi/T
$$

\n
$$
A_o = (1/T) \int_{t}^{t+T} f(\tau) d\tau
$$

\n
$$
A_n = (2/T) \int_{t}^{t+T} f(\tau) \cos n\omega_o \tau d\tau
$$

\n
$$
B_n = (2/T) \int_{t}^{t+T} f(\tau) \sin n\omega_o \tau d\tau
$$

\n
$$
C_n = (1/T) \int_{t}^{t+T} f(\tau) e^{-jn\omega_o \tau} d\tau
$$

Three useful and common Fourier series forms are defined in terms of the following graphs (with $\omega_o = 2\pi/T$).

then

$$
f_1(t) = \sum_{\substack{n=1 \ n \text{ odd}}}^{\infty} (-1)^{(n-1)/2} (4V_o/n\pi) \cos(n\omega_o t)
$$

Given:

then

$$
f_2(t) = \frac{V_o \tau}{T} + \frac{2V_o \tau}{T} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n\pi\tau/T)}{(n\pi\tau/T)} \cos(n\omega_o t)
$$

$$
f_2(t) = \frac{V_o \tau}{T} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n\pi\tau/T)}{(n\pi\tau/T)} e^{jn\omega_o t}
$$

Given:

 $f_s(t)$ ="a train of impulses with weights A "

then

$$
f_3(t) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} A \delta(t - nT)
$$

\n
$$
f_3(t) = (A/T) + (2A/T) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \cos(n\omega_o t)
$$

\n
$$
f_3(t) = (A/T) \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{jn\omega_o t}
$$

SOLID-STATE ELECTRONICS AND DEVICES

Conductivity of a semiconductor material:

 $\sigma = q (n\mu_n + p\mu_p)$, where

- $\mu_n \equiv$ electron mobility,
- μ_p = hole mobility,
- $n \equiv$ electron concentration,
- $p \equiv$ hole concentration, and
- $q \equiv$ charge on an electron.

Doped material:

p-type material; $p_p \approx N_a$

$$
n
$$
-type material; $n_n \approx N_d$

Carrier concentrations at equilibrium

$$
(p)(n) = n_i^2
$$
, where

 n_i ≡ intrinsic concentration.

Built-in potential (contact potential) of a *p-n* junction:

$$
V_0 = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \frac{N_a N_d}{n_i^2}
$$
, where

Thermal voltage

$$
V_T = \frac{kT}{q}
$$

 N_a = acceptor concentration,

- N_d = donor concentration,
- $T =$ temperature (K), and
- $k =$ Boltzmann's Constant = 1.38×10^{-23} *J*/*K*

Capacitance of abrupt $p - n$ junction diode

$$
C(V) = C_o / \sqrt{1 - V/V_{bi}}
$$
, where

- C_o = junction capacitance at $V = 0$,
- $V =$ potential of anode with respect to cathode, and
- V_{bi} = junction contact potential.

Resistance of a diffused layer is

 $R = R_{\Box} (L/W)$, where

- R_{n} = sheet resistance = ρ/d in ohms per square
- ρ = resistivity,
- $d =$ thickness,
- *L* = length of diffusion, and
- $W =$ width of diffusion.

TABULATED CHARACTERISTICS FOR: Diodes Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT) N-Channel JFET and MOSFET Enhancement MOSFETs follow on pages $137-140$.

NUMBER SYSTEMS AND CODES

An unsigned number of base-*r* has a decimal equivalent *D* defined by

$$
D = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k r^k + \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i r^{-i}
$$
, where

 a_k = the $(k+1)$ digit to the left of the radix point and

 a_i = the *i*th digit to the right of the radix point.

Binary Number System

In digital computers, the base-2, or binary, number system is normally used. Thus the decimal equivalent, D, of a binary number is given by

$$
D = \alpha_k 2^k + \alpha_{k-1} 2^{k-1} + \ldots + \alpha_0 + \alpha_{-1} 2^{-1} + \ldots
$$

Since this number system is so widely used in the design of digital systems, we use a short-hand notation for some powers of two:

 2^{10} = 1,024 is abbreviated "K" or "kilo"

 $2^{20} = 1,048,576$ is abbreviated "M" or "mega"

Signed numbers of base-*r* are often represented by the radix complement operation. If *M* is an *N*-digit value of base-*r*, the radix complement $R(M)$ is defined by

$$
R(M) = r^N - M
$$

The 2's complement of an *N*-bit binary integer can be written

2's Complement $(M) = 2^N - M$

This operation is equivalent to taking the 1's complement (inverting each bit of M) and adding one.

The following table contains equivalent codes for a four-bit binary value.

LOGIC OPERATIONS AND BOOLEAN ALGEBRA

Three basic logic operations are the "AND (\cdot) ," "OR $(+)$," and "Exclusive-OR ⊕" functions. The definition of each function, its logic symbol, and its Boolean expression are given in the following table.

As commonly used, *A* AND *B* is often written *AB* or *A*⋅*B*. The not operator inverts the sense of a binary value

 $(0 \rightarrow 1, 1 \rightarrow 0)$

NOT OPERATOR

DeMorgan's Theorem

first theorem: $A + B = A \cdot B$

second theorem: $A \cdot B = A + B$

These theorems define the NAND gate and the NOR gate. Logic symbols for these gates are shown below.

NAND Gates:
$$
\overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}
$$

NOR Gates: $\overline{A+B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$

FLIP-FLOPS

A flip-flop is a device whose output can be placed in one of two states, 0 or 1. The flip-flop output is synchronized with a clock (CLK) signal. Q_n represents the value of the flip-flop output before CLK is applied, and Q_{n+1} represents the output after CLK has been applied. Three basic flip-flops are described below.

Switching Function Terminology

Minterm, m_i – A product term which contains an occurrence of every variable in the function.

Maxterm, $M_i - A$ sum term which contains an occurrence of every variable in the function.

Implicant – A Boolean algebra term, either in sum or product form, which contains one or more minterms or maxterms of a function.

Prime Implicant $-$ An implicant which is not entirely contained in any other implicant.

Essential Prime Implicant $-$ A prime implicant which contains a minterm or maxterm which is not contained in any other prime implicant.

A function can be described as a sum of minterms using the notation

$$
F(ABCD) = \Sigma m(h, i, j, ...)
$$

= m_h + m_i + m_j + ...

A function can be described as a product of maxterms using the notation

$$
G(ABCD) = \Pi M(h, i, j, ...)
$$

$$
= M_h \cdot M_i \cdot M_j ...
$$

A function represented as a sum of minterms only is said to be in *canonical sum of products* (SOP) form. A function represented as a product of maxterms only is said to be in *canonical product of sums* (POS) form. A function in canonical SOP form is often represented as a *minterm list*, while a function in canonical POS form is often represented as a *maxterm list*.

A *Karnaugh Map* (K-Map) is a graphical technique used to represent a truth table. Each square in the K-Map represents one minterm, and the squares of the K-Map are arranged so that the adjacent squares differ by a change in exactly one variable. A four-variable K-Map with its corresponding minterms is shown below. K-Maps are used to simplify switching functions by visually identifying all essential prime implicants.

Four-variable Karnaugh Map

INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERING

LINEAR PROGRAMMING

The general linear programming (LP) problem is:

$$
Maximize Z = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + ... + c_n x_n
$$

Subject to:

$$
a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n \le b_1
$$

\n
$$
a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n \le b_2
$$

\n...
\n...
\n
$$
a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n \le b_m,
$$

\nwhere
\n
$$
x_1, \dots, x_n \ge 0
$$

An LP problem is frequently reformulated by inserting slack and surplus variables. Although these variables usually have zero costs (depending on the application), they can have nonzero cost coefficients in the objective function. A slack variable is used with a "less than" inequality and transforms it into an equality. For example, the inequality $5x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_2 \le$ 5 could be changed to $5x_1 + 3x_2 + 2x_3 + s_1 = 5$ if s_1 were chosen as a slack variable. The inequality $3x_1 + x_2 - 4x_3 \ge 10$ might be transformed into $3x_1 + x_2 - 4x_3 - s_2 = 10$ by the addition of the surplus variable s_2 . Computer printouts of the results of processing and LP usually include values for all slack and surplus variables, the dual prices, and the reduced cost for each variable.

DUAL LINEAR PROGRAM

Associated with the general linear programming problem is another problem called the dual linear programming problem. If we take the previous problem and call it the primal problem, then in matrix form the primal and dual problems are respectively:

If *A* is a matrix of size $[m \times n]$, then *y* is an $[1 \times m]$ vector, *c* is an $[1 \times n]$ vector, and *b* is an $[m \times 1]$ vector.

 \boldsymbol{x} is an [$n \times 1$] vector.

STATISTICAL QUALITY CONTROL

Average and Range Charts

- *X* = an individual observation
- $n =$ the sample size of a group
- $k =$ the number of groups
- *R* = (range) the difference between the largest and smallest observations in a sample of size *n*.

$$
\overline{X} = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}
$$
\n
$$
\overline{\overline{X}} = \frac{\overline{X}_1 + \overline{X}_2 + \dots + \overline{X}_k}{k}
$$
\n
$$
\overline{R} = \frac{R_1 + R_2 + \dots + R_k}{k}
$$

The *R* Chart equations are:

$$
CL_R = \overline{R}
$$

\n
$$
UCL_R = D_4 \overline{R}
$$

\n
$$
LCL_R = D_3 \overline{R}
$$

The \overline{X} Chart equations are:

$$
CL_X = \overline{\overline{X}}
$$

\n
$$
UCL_X = \overline{\overline{X}} + A_2 \overline{R}
$$

\n
$$
LCL_X = \overline{\overline{X}} - A_2 \overline{R}
$$

Standard Deviation Charts

$$
CL_X = X
$$

\n
$$
LCL_X = \overline{\overline{X}} - A_3 \overline{S}
$$

\n
$$
UCL_S = B_4 \overline{S}
$$

\n
$$
CL_S = \overline{S}
$$

\n
$$
LCL_S = B_3 \overline{S}
$$

Approximations

The following table and equations may be used to generate initial approximations of the items indicated.

$$
\hat{\sigma} = \overline{R}/d_2
$$

\n
$$
\hat{\sigma} = \overline{S}/c_4
$$

\n
$$
\sigma_R = d_3 \hat{\sigma}
$$

\n
$$
\sigma_s = \hat{\sigma}\sqrt{1 - c_4^2}
$$
, where

 $\hat{\sigma}$ = an estimate of σ ,

- σ_R = an estimate of the standard deviation of the ranges of the samples, and
- σ_S = an estimate of the standard deviation of the standard deviations.

Tests for Out of Control

- 1. A single point falls outside the (three sigma) control limits.
- 2. Two out of three successive points fall on the same side of and more than two sigma units from the center line.
- 3. Four out of five successive points fall on the same side of and more than one sigma unit from the center line.
- 4. Eight successive points fall on the same side of the center line.

QUEUEING MODELS

Definitions

- P_n = probability of *n* units in system,
- $L =$ expected number of units in the system,
- L_q = expected number of units in the queue,
- $W =$ expected waiting time in system,
- W_a = expected waiting time in queue,
- λ = mean arrival rate (constant),
- μ = mean service rate (constant),
- ρ = server utilization factor, and
- *s* = number of servers.

Kendall notation for describing a queueing system: *A* / *B* / *s* / *M*

- $A =$ the arrival process,
- $B =$ the service time distribution,
- *s* = the number of servers, and
- $M =$ the total number of customers including those in service.

Fundamental Relationships

 $L = \lambda W$ $L_q = \lambda W_q$ $W = W_q + 1/\mu$ $\rho = \lambda / (su)$

Single Server Models (*s* **= 1)**

Poisson Input—Exponential Service Time: $M = \infty$

$$
P_0 = 1 - \lambda/\mu = 1 - \rho
$$

$$
P_n = (1 - \rho)\rho^n = P_0\rho^n
$$

$$
L = \rho/(1 - \rho) = \lambda/(\mu - \lambda)
$$

\n
$$
L_q = \lambda^2/[\mu (\mu - \lambda)]
$$

\n
$$
W = 1/[\mu (1 - \rho)] = 1/(\mu - \lambda)
$$

\n
$$
W_q = W - 1/\mu = \lambda/[\mu (\mu - \lambda)]
$$

Finite queue: $M < \infty$

$$
P_0 = (1 - \rho)/(1 - \rho^{M+1})
$$

\n
$$
P_n = [(1 - \rho)/(1 - \rho^{M+1})]\rho^n
$$

\n
$$
L = \rho/(1 - \rho) - (M+1)\rho^{M+1}/(1 - \rho^{M+1})
$$

\n
$$
L_q = L - (1 - P_0)
$$

Poisson Input—Arbitrary Service Time

Variance σ^2 is known. For constant service time, $\sigma^2 = 0$.

$$
P_0 = 1 - \rho
$$

\n
$$
L_q = (\lambda^2 \sigma^2 + \rho^2) / [2 (1 - \rho)]
$$

\n
$$
L = \rho + L_q
$$

\n
$$
W_q = L_q / \lambda
$$

\n
$$
W = W_q + 1/\mu
$$

Poisson Input—Erlang Service Times, $\sigma^2 = 1/(k\mu^2)$

$$
L_q = [(1 + k)/(2k)][(\lambda^2)/(\mu (\mu - \lambda))]
$$

= $[\lambda^2/(k\mu^2) + \rho^2]/[2(1 - \rho)]$

$$
W_q = [(1 + k)/(2k)] {\lambda /[\mu (\mu - \lambda)]}
$$

$$
W = W_q + 1/\mu
$$

Multiple Server Model (*s* **> 1)**

Poisson Input—Exponential Service Times

$$
P_0 = \begin{cases} \sum_{s=1}^{s-1} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^n + \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^s \left[1 - \frac{\lambda}{s \mu} \right] \\ = \frac{1}{\sum_{n=0}^{s-1} \left(\frac{s \rho}{n!} \right)^n + \left(\frac{s \rho}{s!} \right)^s} \\ = \frac{P_0 \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^s \rho}{n!} \\ L_q = \frac{P_0 \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu} \right)^s \rho}{s!(1-\rho)^2} \\ = \frac{P_0 s^s \rho^{s+1}}{s!(1-\rho)^2} \\ P_n = P_0 \left(\lambda / \mu \right)^n / n! \qquad 0 \le n \le s \\ P_n = P_0 \left(\lambda / \mu \right)^n / (s! \ s^{n-s}) \qquad n \ge s \\ W_q = L_q / \lambda \\ W = W_q + 1 / \mu \\ L = L_q + \lambda / \mu \end{cases}
$$

Calculations for P_0 and L_q can be time consuming; however, the following table gives formulae for 1, 2, and 3 servers.

MOVING AVERAGE

$$
\hat{d}_t = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n d_{t-i}}{n}
$$
, where

- \hat{d}_t $=$ forecasted demand for period *t*,
- d_{t-1} = actual demand for *i*th period preceding *t*, and
- $n =$ number of time periods to include in the moving average.

EXPONENTIALLY WEIGHTED MOVING AVERAGE

$$
\hat{d}_t = \alpha d_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha) \hat{d}_{t-1}
$$
, where

- *t d à* = forecasted demand for *t*, and
- α = smoothing constant

LINEAR REGRESSION AND DESIGN OF EXPERIMENTS

Least Squares

$$
y = \hat{a} + \hat{b}x, \text{ where}
$$

y-intercept: $\hat{a} = \bar{y} - \hat{b}\bar{x}$,
and slope: $\hat{b} = SS_{xy}/SS_{xx}$,

$$
S_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i - (1/n) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \right),
$$

$$
S_{xx} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - (1/n) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right)^2,
$$

$$
n = \text{sample size},
$$

$$
\bar{y} = (1/n) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \right), \text{ and}
$$

$$
\bar{x} = (1/n) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right).
$$

Standard Error of Estimate

$$
S_e^2 = \frac{S_{xx}S_{yy} - S_{xy}^2}{S_{xx}(n-2)} = MSE \text{ , where}
$$

$$
S_{yy} = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - (1/n) \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i\right)^2
$$

Confidence Interval for *a*

$$
\hat{a} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\overline{x}^2}{S_{xx}}\right)} MSE
$$

Confidence Interval for *b*

$$
\hat{b} \pm t_{\alpha/2, n-2} \sqrt{\frac{MSE}{S_{xx}}}
$$

Sample Correlation Coefficient

$$
r = \frac{S_{xy}}{\sqrt{S_{xx}S_{yy}}}
$$

2n FACTORIAL EXPERIMENTS

Factors: $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$

Levels of each factor: 1, 2

i

- $r =$ number of observations for each experimental condition (treatment),
- E_i = estimate of the effect of factor X_i , $i = 1, 2, ..., n$,
- E_{ii} = estimate of the effect of the interaction between factors X_i and X_i
- \overline{Y}_n = average response value for all r2ⁿ⁻¹ observations having X_i set at level $k, k = 1, 2,$ and \overline{Y}_{ik} =
- \overline{Y}_{ij}^{km} = average response value for all r2ⁿ⁻² observations

having X_i set at level $k, k = 1, 2,$ and X_i set at level $m, m = 1, 2.$

$$
E_i = \overline{Y}_{i2} - \overline{Y}_{i1}
$$

$$
E_{ij} = \frac{(\overline{Y}_{ij}^{22} - \overline{Y}_{ij}^{21}) - (\overline{Y}_{ij}^{12} - \overline{Y}_{ij}^{11})}{2}
$$

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA)

Given independent random samples of size *n* from *k* populations, then:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{ij} - \overline{x})^{2}
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{ij} - \overline{x})^{2} + n \sum_{i=1}^{k} (\overline{x}_{i} - \overline{x})^{2} \text{ or }
$$
\n
$$
SS_{\text{Total}} = SS_{\text{Error}} + SS_{\text{Treatments}}
$$

Let *T* be the grand total of all kn observations and T_i be the total of the *n* observations of the *i*th sample. See One-Way ANOVA table on page [149.](#page-153-0)

$$
C = T^2/(kn)
$$

\n
$$
SS_{\text{Total}} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij}^2 - C
$$

\n
$$
SS_{\text{Treatments}} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (T_i^2/n) - C
$$

\n
$$
SS = SS
$$

$$
SS_{Error} = SS_{Total} - SS_{Treatments}
$$

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR 2n FACTORIAL DESIGNS

Let *E* be the estimate of the effect of a given factor, let *L* be the orthogonal contrast belonging to this effect. It can be proved that

$$
E = \frac{L}{2^{n-1}}
$$

\n
$$
L = \sum_{c=1}^{m} a_{(c)} \overline{Y}_{(c)}
$$

\n
$$
SS_L = \frac{rL^2}{2^n}
$$
, where

- $m =$ number of experimental conditions ($m = 2^n$ for *n* factors),
- $a_{(c)} = -1$ if the factor is set at its low level in experimental condition *c*,
- $a_{(c)} = +1$ if the factor is set at its high level in experimental condition *c*,
- = number of replications for each experimental condition
- $\overline{Y}_{(c)}$ = average response value for experimental condition *c*, and

 SS_L = sum of squares associated with the factor.

The sum of the squares due to the random error can be computed as

$$
SS_{\text{error}} = SS_{\text{total}} - \Sigma_i \Sigma_j SS_{ij} - \dots - SS_{12...n}
$$

where SS_i is the sum of squares due to factor X_i , SS_{ii} is the sum of squares due to the interaction of factors X_i and X_j , and so on. The total sum of squares is equal to

$$
SS_{total} = \sum_{c=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{r} Y_{ck}^{2} - \frac{T^{2}}{N}
$$

where Y_{ck} , is the k^{th} observation taken for the c^{th} experimental condition, $m = 2^n$, T is the grand total of all observations and $N = r2^n$.

LEARNING CURVES

The time to do the repetition *N* of a task is given by

$$
T_N = KN^s
$$
, where

- $K =$ constant, and
- $s = \ln(\text{learning rate}, \text{as a decimal})/\ln 2$.

If *N* units are to be produced, the average time per unit is given by

$$
T_{\text{avg}} = \frac{K}{N(1+s)} \Big[(N+0.5)^{(1+s)} - 0.5^{(1+s)} \Big]
$$

INVENTORY MODELS

For instantaneous replenishment (with constant demand rate, known holding and ordering costs, and an infinite stockout cost), the economic order quantity is given by

$$
EOQ = \sqrt{\frac{2AD}{h}}
$$
, where

 $A = \text{cost to place one order},$

D = number of units used per year, and

h = holding cost per unit per year.

Under the same conditions as above with a finite replenishment rate, the economic manufacturing quantity is given by

$$
EMQ = \sqrt{\frac{2AD}{h(1 - D/R)}},
$$
 where

 $R =$ the replenishment rate.

ERGONOMICS

NIOSH Formula

Recommended Weight Limit (U.S. Customary Units)

$$
=51(10/H)(1-0.0075|V-30|)(0.82+1.8/D)(1-0.0032A)
$$

where

 $H =$ horizontal distance of the hand from the midpoint of the line joining the inner ankle bones to a point projected on the floor directly below the load center,

 $V =$ vertical distance of the hands from the floor,

 $D =$ vertical travel distance of the hands between the origin and destination of the lift, and

 $A =$ asymmetric angle, in degrees.

The NIOSH formula as stated here assumes that (1) lifting frequency is no greater than one lift every 5 minutes; (2) the person can get a good grip on the object being lifted.

Biomechanics of the Human Body

Basic Equations

 $H_{\rm r}$ + $F_{\rm r}$ = 0 $H_v + F_v = 0$ $H_{z} + F_{z} = 0$ $T_{Hxz} + T_{Fx} = 0$ $T_{Hvz} + T_{Fvz} = 0$ $T_{Hxy} + T_{Fxy} = 0$ The coefficient of friction μ and the angle α at which the floor is inclined determine the equations at the foot.

$$
F_x = \mu F_z
$$

With the slope angle α

 $F_r = \mu F_z \cos \alpha$

Of course, when motion must be considered, dynamic conditions come into play according to Newton's Second Law. Force transmitted with the hands is counteracted at the foot. Further, the body must also react with internal forces at all points between the hand and the foot.

FACILITY PLANNING

Equipment Requirements

- P_{ii} = desired production rate for product *i* on machine *j*, measured in pieces per production period,
- T_{ij} = production time for product *i* on machine *j*, measured in hours per piece,
- C_{ii} = number of hours in the production period available for the production of product *i* on machine *j*,
- M_i = number of machines of type *j* required per production period, and
- *n* = number of products.

Therefore, *Mj* can be expressed as

$$
M_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{P_{ij} T_{ij}}{C_{ij}}
$$

People Requirements

$$
A_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{P_{ij} T_{ij}}{C_{ij}}
$$
, where

- A_i = number of crews required for assembly operation *j*,
- P_{ii} = desired production rate for product *i* and assembly operation *j* (pieces per day),
- T_{ii} = standard time to perform operation *j* on product *i* (minutes per piece),
- C_{ii} = number of minutes available per day for assembly operation *j* on product *i*, and
- *n* = number of products.

STANDARD TIME DETERMINATION

$$
ST = NT \times AF
$$

where

NT = normal time, and

AF = allowance factor.

Case 1: Allowances are based on the *job time*.

$$
AF_{\text{job}} = 1 + A_{\text{job}}
$$

*A*job = allowance fraction (percentage) based on *job time*.

Case 2: Allowances are based on *workday*.

 AF _{time} = 1/(1 - A _{day})

*A*day = allowance fraction (percentage) based on *workday*.

Plant Location

The following is one formulation of a discrete plant location problem.

Minimize

$$
z = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij} y_{ij} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} f_j x_j
$$

subject to

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{ij} \le mx_j, \quad j = 1, ..., n
$$

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{ij} = 1, \quad j = 1, ..., m
$$

$$
y_{ij} \ge 0, \text{ for all } i, j
$$

$$
x_j = (0, 1), \text{ for all } j, \text{ where}
$$

- *m* = number of customers,
- *n* = number of possible plant sites,
- y_{ii} = fraction or portion of the demand of customer *i* which is satisfied by a plant located at site j ; $i = 1$, ..., $m; j = 1, ..., n$,
- x_i = 1, if a plant is located at site *j*,
- x_i = 0, otherwise,
- c_{ii} = cost of supplying the entire demand of customer *i* from a plant located at site *j*, and
- f_i = fixed cost resulting from locating a plant at site *j*.

Material Handling

Distances between two points (x_1, y_1) and (x_1, y_1) under different metrics:

Euclidean:

$$
D = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2}
$$

Rectilinear (or Manhattan):

$$
D = |x_1 - x_2| + |y_1 - y_2|
$$

Chebyshev (simultaneous *x* and *y* movement):

$$
D = \max(|x_1 - x_2|, |y_1 - y_2|)
$$

Line Balancing

$$
N_{\min} = \left(OR \times \sum_{i} t_{i} / OT \right)
$$

= Theoretical minimum number of stations

Idle Time/Station = $CT - ST$

$$
I = \text{Time/Cycle} = \Sigma (CT - ST)
$$

Percent Idle Time = $\frac{\text{Idle Time/Cycle}}{\text{N}} \times 100$ actual $\frac{N_{\text{actual}}}{N_{\text{actual}} \times CT} \times 100$, where

- *CT* = cycle time (time between units),
- *OT* = operating time/period,
- *OR* = output rate/period,
- $ST =$ station time (time to complete task at each station),

 t_i = individual task times, and

N = number of stations.

Job Sequencing

Two Work Centers-Johnson's Rule

- 1. Select the job with the shortest time, from the list of jobs, and its time at each work center.
- 2. If the shortest job time is the time at the first work center, schedule it first, otherwise schedule it last. Break ties arbitrarily.
- 3. Eliminate that job from consideration.
- 4. Repeat 1, 2, and 3 until all jobs have been scheduled.

CRITICAL PATH METHOD (CPM)

 d_{ij} = duration of activity (i, j) ,

- $CP =$ critical path (longest path),
- *T* = duration of project, and

$$
T = \sum_{(i,j)\in CP} d_{ij}
$$

PERT

 (a_{ii}, b_{ii}, c_{ii}) = (optimistic, most likely, pessimistic) durations for activity (*i*, *j*),

- μ_{ij} = mean duration of activity (i, j) ,
- σ_{ij} = standard deviation of the duration of activity (i, j) ,
- μ = project mean duration, and
- σ = standard deviation of project duration.

$$
\mu_{ij} = \frac{a_{ij} + 4b_{ij} + c_{ij}}{6}
$$
\n
$$
\sigma_{ij} = \frac{c_{ij} - a_{ij}}{6}
$$
\n
$$
\mu = \sum_{(i,j) \in CP} \mu_{ij}
$$
\n
$$
\sigma^2 = \sum_{(i,j) \in CP} \sigma_{ij}^2
$$

MACHINING FORMULAS

Material Removal Rate Formulas

1. Drilling:

 $MRR = (\pi/4) D^2 f N$, where

 $D =$ drill diameter,

 $f =$ feed rate, and

$$
N = \text{rpm of the drill.}
$$

Power = $MRR \times$ specific power

2. Slab Milling:

Cutting speed is the peripheral speed of the cutter

 $V = \pi DN$, where

D = cutter diameter, and

$$
N = \text{cutter rpm}.
$$

Feed per tooth *f* is given by

$$
f = v/(Nn)
$$
, where

 $v =$ workpiece speed and

 $n =$ number of teeth on the cutter.

 $t = (l + l_c)/v$, where

- $t =$ cutting time,
- *l* = length of workpiece, and
- l_c = additional length of cutter's travel

$$
=\sqrt{D}d
$$
 (approximately).

If
$$
l_c \ll l
$$

 $MRR = lwd/t$, where

$$
d = \text{depth of cut},
$$

- $w = \min$ (width of the cut, length of cutter), and cutting time $= t = l/v$.
- 3. Face Milling:

$$
MRR = \text{width} \times \text{depth of cut} \times \text{workpiece speed}
$$

$$
Cutting time = \frac{(working \text{} length + tool \text{} to the \text{} distance)}{\text{}}
$$

$$
= (l+2l_c)/V
$$

Feed (per tooth) = $V/(Nn)$

 l_c = tool travel necessary to completely clear the workpiece; usually = tool diameter*/*2.

Taylor Tool Life Formula

 $VTⁿ = C$, where

- $V =$ speed in surface feet per minute,
- $T =$ time before the tool reaches a certain percentage of possible wear, and
- $C, n =$ constants that depend on the material and on the tool.

Work Sampling Formulas

$$
D = Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} \quad \text{and} \quad R = Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{1-p}{pn}} \text{, where}
$$

- $p =$ proportion of observed time in an activity,
- $D =$ absolute error,
- R = relative error $(R = D/p)$, and

 $n =$ sample size.

ONE-WAY ANOVA TABLE

PROBABILITY AND DENSITY FUNCTIONS: MEANS AND VARIANCES

Table *A*. Tests on means of normal distribution—variance known.

Hypothesis	Test Statistic	Criteria for Rejection
$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ H_1 : $\mu \neq \mu_0$		$ Z_0 > Z_{\alpha/2}$
H_0 : μ = μ ₀ H_0 : μ < μ_0	$\boldsymbol{Z}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (\overline{y} - \mu_0) \left(\frac{\sigma}{n^{1/2}} \right)^{-1}$	Z_0 < $-Z_\alpha$
$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ <i>H</i> ₁ : $\mu > \mu_0$		$Z_0 > Z_{\alpha}$
$H_0: \mu_1 - \mu_2 = \gamma$ H_1 : $\mu_1 - \mu_2 \neq \gamma$		$ Z_0 > Z_{\alpha/2}$
<i>H</i> ₀ : μ ₁ – μ ₂ = γ H_1 : μ ₁ – μ ₂ < γ	$\mathbf{Z_0} = \left[(\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2) - \gamma \right] \left(\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2} \right)^{-1/2}$	$Z_0 \leftarrow Z_\alpha$
<i>H</i> ₀ : μ ₁ – μ ₂ = γ H_1 : μ ₁ – μ ₂ > γ		$Z_0 > Z_\alpha$

Table *B*. Tests on means of normal distribution—variance unknown.

In Table B, $S_p^2 = [(n_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)S_2^2]/v$

Table *C.* Tests on variances of normal distribution with unknown mean.

Hypothesis	Test Statistic	Criteria for Rejection
H_0 : σ ² = σ ₀ ² H_1 : $\sigma^2 \neq \sigma_0^2$		$X_0^2 > X_{\alpha/2, n-1^2}$ or $X_0^2 < X_{1-\alpha/2, n-1^2}$
H_0 : σ ² = σ ₀ ² H_1 : σ ² < σ ₀ ²	$X_0^2 = \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma_0^2}$	$X_0^2 < X_{1-\alpha/2, n-1}^2$
H_0 : σ ² = σ ₀ ² H_1 : σ ² > σ ₀ ²		$X_0^2 > X_{\alpha n-1}^2$
$H_0: \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ <i>H</i> ₁ : $\sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$	$F_0 = \frac{S_1^2}{S_2^2}$	$F_0 > F_{\alpha/2, n_1-1, n_2-1}$ $F_0 < F_{1-\alpha/2, n_1-1, n_2-1}$
$H_0: \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ H_1 : σ ₁ ² < σ ₂ ²	$F_0 = \frac{S_2^2}{S^2}$	$F_0 > F_{\alpha, n, -1, n-1}$
H_0 : σ ₁ ² = σ ₂ ² H_1 : σ ₁ ² > σ ₂ ²	$F_0 = \frac{S_1^2}{S_2^2}$	$F_0 > F_{\alpha, n_1-1, n_2-1}$

ERGONOMICS

US Civilian Body Dimensions, Female/Male, for Ages 20 to 60 Years

(Centimeters)

ERGONOMICS-HEARING

The average shifts with age of the threshold of hearing for pure tones of persons with "normal" hearing, using a 25-year-old group as a reference group.

Equivalent sound-level contours used in determining the A-weighted sound level on the basis of an octave-band analysis. The curve at the point of the highest penetration of the noise spectrum reflects the A-weighted sound level.

Estimated average trend curves for net hearing loss at 1,000, 2,000, and 4,000 Hz after continuous exposure to steady noise. Data are corrected for age, but not for temporary threshold shift. Dotted portions of curves represent extrapolation from available data.

Tentative upper limit of effective temperature (ET) for unimpaired mental performance as related to exposure time; data are based on an analysis of 15 studies. Comparative curves of tolerable and marginal physiological limits are also given.

Atmospheric Conditions

MECHANICAL ENGINEERING

Examinees should also review the material in sections titled **HEAT TRANSFER**, **THERMODYNAMICS**, **TRANS-PORT PHENOMENA**, **FLUID MECHANICS**, and **COMPUTERS, MEASUREMENT, AND CONTROLS**.

REFRIGERATION AND HVAC

Two-Stage Cycle

The following equations are valid if the mass flows are the same in each stage.

Air Refrigeration Cycle

(see also **THERMODYNAMICS** section)

HVAC—Pure Heating and Cooling

Cooling and Dehumidification

Heating and Humidification

$$
\dot{Q}_{\text{in}} = \dot{m}_a [(h_2 - h_1) + h_3 (\omega_2 - \omega_1)]
$$

$$
\dot{m}_w = \dot{m}_a (\omega_2 - \omega_1)
$$

Adiabatic Humidification (evaporative cooling)

 $(\omega_2 - \omega_1)$ *f* at I_{wb} $w = m_a$ $h_3 = h_f$ at *T* $\dot{m}_w = \dot{m}$ $a_3 = h_f$ at $2 - \omega_1$ $_2 - n_1 + n_3(\omega_2 - \omega_1)$ = $=$ \dot{m}_a (ω_2 – ω $\overline{n} = \overline{m}$

$$
\dot{m}_{a3} = \dot{m}_{a1} + \dot{m}_{a2} \n h_3 = \frac{\dot{m}_{a1}h_1 + \dot{m}_{a2}h_2}{\dot{m}_{a3}} \n \omega_3 = \frac{\dot{m}_{a1}\omega_1 + \dot{m}_{a2}\omega_2}{\dot{m}_{a3}}
$$

distance 3 $\overline{13} = \frac{m_{a2}}{a}$ *a* $\overline{a_1}$ *_ m*^{*a*} *m m* $=\frac{\dot{m}_{a2}}{\dot{m}_{a}} \times \text{distance}$ 12 measured on psychrometric chart

Heating Load (see also **HEAT TRANSFER** section)

 \dot{Q} = heat transfer rate,

A = wall surface area, and

R″ = thermal resistance.

Overall heat transfer coefficient = *U*

$$
U = 1/R''
$$

$$
\dot{Q} = UA (T_i - T_o)
$$

Cooling Load

 \dot{Q} = *UA* (CLTD), where

CLTD = effective temperature difference.

CLTD depends on solar heating rate, wall or roof orientation, color, and time of day.

Infiltration

Air change method

$$
\dot{Q} = \frac{\rho_a c_p V n_{AC}}{3,600} (T_i - T_o), \text{ where}
$$

 ρ_a = air density,

- c_P = air specific heat,
- $V =$ room volume,
- n_{AC} = number of air changes per hour,
- T_i = indoor temperature, and

To = outdoor temperature.

Crack method

$$
\dot{Q} = 1.2CL(T_i - T_o)
$$

where

C = coefficient, and

L = crack length.

FANS, PUMPS, AND COMPRESSORS

Scaling Laws

(see page [44](#page-48-0) on Similitude)

$$
\left(\frac{Q}{ND^3}\right)_2 = \left(\frac{Q}{ND^3}\right)_1
$$

$$
\left(\frac{\dot{m}}{\rho ND^3}\right)_2 = \left(\frac{\dot{m}}{\rho ND^3}\right)_1
$$

$$
\left(\frac{H}{N^2D^2}\right)_2 = \left(\frac{H}{N^2D^2}\right)_1
$$

$$
\left(\frac{P}{\rho N^2D^2}\right)_2 = \left(\frac{P}{\rho N^2D^2}\right)_1
$$

$$
\left(\frac{\dot{W}}{\rho N^3D^5}\right)_2 = \left(\frac{\dot{W}}{\rho N^3D^5}\right)_1
$$

where

- $Q =$ volumetric flow rate,
- \dot{m} = mass flow rate,
- $H =$ head,

P = pressure rise,

 \dot{W} = power,

 ρ = fluid density,

- *N* = rotational speed, and
- *D* = impeller diameter.

Subscripts 1 and 2 refer to different but similar machines or to different operating conditions of the same machine.

Fan Characteristics

Typical Fan Curves backward curved

$$
\dot{W} = \frac{\Delta PQ}{\eta_f}
$$
, where

 \dot{W} = fan power,

∆*P* = pressure rise, and

 η_f = fan efficiency.

Pump Characteristics

Net Positive Suction Head (*NPSH*)

$$
NPSH = \frac{P_i}{\rho g} + \frac{V_i^2}{2g} - \frac{P_v}{\rho g}
$$
, where

 P_i = inlet pressure to pump,

 V_i = velocity at inlet to pump, and

$$
P_v = \text{vapor pressure of fluid being pumped.}
$$

$$
\dot{W} = \frac{\rho g H Q}{\eta}
$$
, where

 \dot{W} = pump power,

η = pump efficiency, and

 $H =$ head increase.

Compressor Characteristics

where

 \dot{m} = mass flow rate and

$$
P_e/P_i
$$
 = exit to inlet pressure ratio.

$$
\dot{W} = m \left(h_e - h_i + \frac{V_e^2 - V_i^2}{2} \right)
$$

$$
= m \left(c_p (T_e - T_i) + \frac{V_e^2 - V_i^2}{2} \right)
$$

where

 \dot{W} = input power,

 h_e , h_i = exit, inlet enthalpy,

 V_e , V_i = exit, inlet velocity,

cP = specific heat at constant pressure, and

 T_e , T_i = exit, inlet temperature.

$$
h_e = h_i + \frac{h_{es} - h_i}{\eta}
$$

$$
T_e = T_i + \frac{T_{es} - T_i}{\eta}
$$
, where

hes = exit enthalpy after isentropic compression,

- *Tes* = exit temperature after isentropic compression, and
- η = compression efficiency.

ENERGY CONVERSION AND POWER PLANTS

(see also **THERMODYNAMICS** section)

Internal Combustion Engines

OTTO CYCLE (see **THERMODYNAMICS** section)

Diesel Cycle

Brake Power

$$
\dot{W}_b = 2\pi TN = 2\pi FRN
$$
, where

- \dot{W}_b = brake power (W),
- $T =$ torque (N·m),
- $N =$ rotation speed (rev/s),
- $F =$ force at end of brake arm (N), and
- $R =$ length of brake arm (m).

Indicated Power

$$
\dot{W}_i = \dot{W}_b + \dot{W}_f
$$
, where

 \dot{W}_i = indicated power (W), and

$$
\dot{W}_f = \text{friction power (W)}.
$$

Brake Thermal Efficiency

$$
\eta_b = \frac{\dot{W}_b}{\dot{m}_f (HV)}, \text{ where}
$$

 η_b = brake thermal efficiency,

 \dot{m}_f = fuel consumption rate (kg/s), and

 $HV =$ heating value of fuel (J/kg).

Indicated Thermal Efficiency

$$
\eta_i = \frac{\dot{W}_i}{\dot{m}_f (HV)}
$$

Mechanical Efficiency

Displacement Volume

 $V_d = \pi B^2 S$, m³ for each cylinder

Total volume = $V_t = V_d + V_c$, m³

 V_c = clearance volume (m³).

Compression Ratio

 $r_c = V_t/V_c$

Mean Effective Pressure (MEP)

$$
mep = \frac{\dot{W}n_s}{V_d n_c N}
$$
, where

 n_s = number of crank revolutions per power stroke,

 n_c = number of cylinders, and

 V_d = displacement volume per cylinder.

mep can be based on brake power (*bmep*), indicated power (*imep*), or friction power (*fmep*).

Volumetric Efficiency

$$
\eta_{\nu} = \frac{2\dot{m}_a}{\rho_a V_d n_c N}
$$
 (four-stroke cycles only)

where

 \dot{m}_a = mass flow rate of air into engine (kg/s), and

 ρ_a = density of air (kg/m³).

Specific Fuel Consumption (SFC)

$$
sfc = \frac{\dot{m}_f}{\dot{W}} = \frac{1}{\eta H V}, \quad \text{kg/J}
$$

Use η_b and \dot{W}_b for *bsfc* and η_i and \dot{W}_i for *isfc*.

Gas Turbines

Brayton Cycle (Steady-Flow Cycle)

Brayton Cycle With Regeneration

$$
q_{34} = h_4 - h_3 = c_P (T_4 - T_3)
$$

$$
q_{56} = h_6 - h_5 = c_P (T_6 - T_5)
$$

$$
\eta = w_{\text{net}}/q_{34}
$$

Regenerator efficiency

$$
\eta_{reg} = \frac{h_3 - h_2}{h_5 - h_2} = \frac{T_3 - T_2}{T_5 - T_2}
$$

$$
h_3 = h_2 + \eta_{reg} (h_5 - h_2)
$$

or
$$
T_3 = T_2 + \eta_{reg} (T_5 - T_2)
$$

Steam Power Plants

Feedwater Heaters

Steam Trap

$$
h_2 = h_1
$$

Junction

Pump

$$
w = -\frac{v(P_2 - P_1)}{\eta_2}
$$

MACHINE DESIGN

Variable Loading Failure Theories

Modified Goodman Theory: The modified Goodman criterion states that a fatigue failure will occur whenever

$$
\frac{\sigma_a}{S_e} + \frac{\sigma_m}{S_{ut}} \ge 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\sigma_{\text{max}}}{\text{Sy}} \ge 1, \quad \sigma_m \ge 0 \text{ , where}
$$

- *Se* = fatigue strength,
- S_{ut} = ultimate strength,
- S_v = yield strength,
- σ_a = alternating stress, and
- σ_m = mean stress.

σ*max* = σ*m* + σ*^a*

Soderberg Theory: The Soderberg theory states that a fatigue failure will occur whenever

$$
\frac{\sigma_a}{S_e} + \frac{\sigma_m}{S_y} \ge 1 , \qquad \sigma_m \ge 0
$$

Endurance Limit: When test data is unavailable, the endurance limit for steels may be estimated as

$$
S_e' = \begin{cases} 0.5 \text{ S}_{ut}, \text{ S}_{ut} \le 1,400 \text{ MPa} \\ 700 \text{ MPa}, \text{ S}_{ut} > 1,400 \text{ MPa} \end{cases}
$$

Endurance Limit Modifying Factors: Endurance limit modifying factors are used to account for the differences between the endurance limit as determined from a rotating beam test, S_e' , and that which would result in the real part, S_e .

$$
S_e = k_a k_b k_c k_d k_e S_e^{'}
$$

where

Surface Factor, k_a : $k_a = aS_{ut}^b$

Surface	Factor a		Exponent
Finish	kpsi	MPa	
Ground	1.34	1.58	-0.085
Machined or CD	2.70	4.51	-0.265
Hot rolled	14.4	57.7	-0.718
As forged	39.9	272.0	-0.995

Size Factor, *kb*:

For bending and torsion:

Load Factor, *kc*:

Temperature Factor, k_d *:*

for $T \leq 450^{\circ}$ C, $k_d = 1$

Miscellaneous Effects Factor, *ke*: Used to account for strength reduction effects such as corrosion, plating, and residual stresses. In the absence of known effects, use $k_e = 1$.

Shafts and Axles

Static Loading: The maximum shear stress and the von Mises stress may be calculated in terms of the loads from

$$
\tau_{max} = \frac{2}{\pi d^3} \left[(8M + Fd)^2 + (8T)^2 \right]^{1/2},
$$

$$
\sigma' = \frac{4}{\pi d^3} \left[(8M + Fd)^2 + 48T^2 \right]^{1/2}, \text{ where}
$$

 $M =$ the bending moment,

 $F =$ the axial load,

T = the torque, and

 $d =$ the diameter.

Fatigue Loading: Using the maximum-shear-stress theory combined with the Soderberg line for fatigue, the diameter and safety factor are related by

$$
\frac{\pi d^3}{32} = n \left[\left(\frac{M_m}{S_y} + \frac{K_f M_a}{S_e} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{T_m}{S_y} + \frac{K_{fs} T_a}{S_e} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}
$$

where

 $d =$ diameter, *n* = safety factor,

 M_a = alternating moment,

 M_m = mean moment,

- T_a = alternating torque,
- T_m = mean torque,
- *Se* = fatigue limit,
- S_v = yield strength,
- K_f = fatigue strength reduction factor, and
- K_f = fatigue strength reduction factor for shear.

Screws, Fasteners, and Connections

Square Thread Power Screws: The torque required to raise, T_R , or to lower, T_L , a load is given by

$$
T_R = \frac{Fd_m}{2} \left(\frac{l + \pi \mu d_m}{\pi d_m - \mu l} \right) + \frac{F\mu_c d_c}{2},
$$

$$
T_L = \frac{Fd_m}{2} \left(\frac{\pi \mu d_m - l}{\pi d_m + \mu l} \right) + \frac{F\mu_c d_c}{2},
$$
 where

 d_c = mean collar diameter,

 d_m = mean thread diameter,

$$
l = \text{lead},
$$

 $F =$ load,

- μ = coefficient of friction for thread, and
- μ_c = coefficient of friction for collar.

The efficiency of a power screw may be expressed as

$$
\eta = Fl/(2\pi T)
$$

Threaded Fasteners: The load carried by a bolt in a threaded connection is given by

$$
F_b = CP + F_i \qquad F_m < 0
$$

while the load carried by the members is

$$
F_m = (1 - C) P - F_i \qquad F_m < 0 \text{, where}
$$

 $C =$ joint coefficient,

$$
= k_b/(k_b + k_m)
$$

- F_b = total bolt load,
- F_i = bolt preload,
- F_m = total material load,
- *P* = externally applied load,
- k_b = the effective stiffness of the bolt or fastener in the grip, and

 k_m = the effective stiffness of the members in the grip.

Bolt stiffness may be calculated from

$$
k_b = \frac{A_d A_t E}{A_d l_t + A_t l_d}
$$
, where

 A_d = major-diameter area,

 A_t = tensile-stress area,

 $E =$ modulus of elasticity,

 l_d = length of unthreaded shank, and

 l_t = length of threaded shank contained within the grip.

If all members within the grip are of the same material, member stiffness may be obtained from

 $k_m = dE A e^{b(d/l)}$, where

d = bolt diameter,

 $E =$ modulus of elasticity of members, and

 $l =$ grip length.

Coefficient *A* and *b* are given in the table below for various joint member materials.

The approximate tightening torque required for a given preload F_i and for a steel bolt in a steel member is given by $T = 0.2 F_i d$.

Threaded Fasteners—Design Factors: The bolt load factor is

 $n_b = (S_p A_t - F_i)/CP$

The factor of safety guarding against joint separation is

$$
n_s = F_i / [P(1 - C)]
$$

Threaded Fasteners—Fatigue Loading: If the externally applied load varies between zero and *P*, the alternating stress is

 $\sigma_a = CP/(2A_t)$

and the mean stress is

$$
\sigma_m = \sigma_a + F_i / A_t
$$

Bolted and Riveted Joints Loaded in Shear:

(a) FASTENER IN SHEAR Failure by pure shear, (a)

 $\tau = F/A$, where

 $F =$ shear load, and

A = cross-sectional area of bolt or rivet.

(b) MEMBER RUPTURE

Failure by rupture, (b)

$$
\sigma = F/A
$$
, where

 $F =$ load and

 $A =$ net cross-sectional area of thinnest member.

$$
\vdash \leftarrow \left(\begin{array}{c|c} \cdot & \bigcirc \cdot \text{tr}(x) \\ \hline & \bigcirc \cdot \text{tr}(x) \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \vdash \vdash
$$

(c) MEMBER OR FASTENER CRUSHING Failure by crushing of rivet or member, (c)

 $\sigma = F/A$, where

$$
F = \text{load and}
$$

 $A =$ projected area of a single rivet.

(d) FASTENER GROUPS

*Fastener groups in shea*r, (d).

The location of the centroid of a fastener group with respect to any convenient coordinate frame is:

$$
\overline{x} = \frac{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n} A_i x_i}{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n} A_i}, \quad \overline{y} = \frac{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n} A_i y_i}{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n} A_i}, \text{ where}
$$

 $n =$ total number of fasteners,

 $i =$ the index number of a particular fastener,

Ai = cross-sectional area of the *i*th fastener,

 x_i = *x*-coordinate of the center of the *i*th fastener, and

 y_i = *y*-coordinate of the center of the *i*th fastener.

The total shear force on a fastener is the **vector** sum of the force due to direct shear *P* and the force due to the moment *M* acting on the group at its centroid.

The magnitude of the direct shear force due to *P* is

 $F_{1i}|=\frac{P}{n}$.

This force acts in the same direction as *P*.

The magnitude of the shear force due to *M* is

$$
|F_{2i}|=\frac{Mr_i}{\sum\limits_{i=1}^n r_i^2}.
$$

This force acts perpendicular to a line drawn from the group centroid to the center of a particular fastener. Its sense is such that its moment is in the same direction (CW or CCW) as *M*.

Mechanical Springs

Helical Linear Springs: The shear stress in a helical linear spring is

$$
\tau = K_s \frac{8FD}{\pi d^3}
$$
, where

d = wire diameter,

 $F =$ applied force,

D = mean spring diameter

 $K_s = (2C + 1)/(2C)$, and

$$
C = D/d.
$$

The deflection and force are related by $F = kx$ where the spring rate (spring constant) k is given by

$$
k = \frac{d^4 G}{8D^3 N}
$$

where *G* is the shear modulus of elasticity and *N* is the number of active coils. See Table of Material Properties at the end of the **MECHANICS OF MATERIALS** section for values of *G*.

Spring Material: The minimum tensile strength of common spring steels may be determined from

$$
S_{ut} = A/d^m
$$

where S_{tt} is the tensile strength in MPa, *d* is the wire diameter in millimeters, and *A* and *m* are listed in the following table.

Maximum allowable torsional stress for static applications may be approximated as

$$
S_{sy} = \tau = 0.45 S_{ut} \text{ cold-drawn} \text{ carbon steel} (A227, A228, A229)
$$

 $S_{sy} = \tau = 0.50 S_{ut}$ hardened and tempered carbon and low-alloy steels (A232, A401)

Compression Spring Dimensions

Helical Torsion Springs: The bending stress is given as

 σ = *K_i* [32*Fr*/(π*d*³)]

where F is the applied load and r is the radius from the center of the coil to the load.

$$
K_i = \text{correction factor}
$$

$$
= (4C2 - C - 1) / [4C (C - 1)]
$$

C = *D*/*d*

The deflection θ and moment *Fr* are related by

 $Fr = k\theta$

where the spring rate *k* is given by

$$
k = \frac{d^4 E}{64DN}
$$

where *k* has units of N·m/rad and θ is in radians.

Spring Material: The strength of the spring wire may be found as was done in the section on linear springs. The allowable stress σ is then given by

- $S_y = \sigma = 0.78 S_{ut}$ cold-drawn carbon steel (A227, A228, A229)
- $S_y = \sigma = 0.87 S_{ut}$ hardened and tempered carbon and low-alloy steel (A232, A401)

Ball/Roller Bearing Selection

The minimum required *basic load rating* (load for which 90% of the bearings from a given population will survive 1 million revolutions) is given by

$$
C = PL^{\frac{1}{a}}
$$
, where

- $C =$ minimum required basic load rating,
- $P =$ design radial load,
- $L =$ design life (in millions of revolutions), and
- *a* = 3 for ball bearings, 10*/*3 for roller bearings.

When a ball bearing is subjected to both radial and axial loads, an equivalent radial load must be used in the equation above. The equivalent radial load is

$$
P_{eq} = \quad XYF_r + YF_a, \text{ where}
$$

 P_{eq} = equivalent radial load,

 F_r = applied constant radial load, and

 F_a = applied constant axial (thrust) load.

For radial contact, groove ball bearings:

 $V = 1$ if inner ring rotating, 1.2 outer ring rotating,

$$
\text{If } F_a / (V F_r) > e,
$$

$$
X = 0.56
$$
, and $Y = 0.840 \left(\frac{F_a}{C_o}\right)^{-0.247}$
where $e = 0.513 \left(\frac{F_a}{C_o}\right)^{0.236}$, and

 C_o = basic static load rating, from bearing catalog. If $F_a/(VF_r) \le e$, $X = 1$ and $Y = 0$.

Press/Shrink Fits

The interface pressure induced by a press/shrink fit is

$$
p = \frac{0.5\delta}{\frac{r}{E_o} \left(\frac{r_o^2 + r^2}{r_o^2 - r^2} + v_o \right) + \frac{r}{E_i} \left(\frac{r^2 + r_i^2}{r^2 - r_i^2} + v_i \right)}
$$

where the subscripts *i* and *o* stand for the inner and outer member, respectively, and

- *p* = inside pressure on the outer member and outside pressure on the inner member,
- δ = the diametral interference,
- $r =$ nominal interference radius,
- r_i = inside radius of inner member,
- r_o = outside radius of outer member,
- *E* = Young's modulus of respective member, and
- $v = Poisson's ratio of respective member.$

See the **MECHANICS OF MATERIALS** section on thickwall cylinders for the stresses at the interface.

The maximum torque that can be transmitted by a press fit joint is approximately

T = $2πr^2$ μ*pl*,

where *r* and *p* are defined above,

- *T* = torque capacity of the joint,
- μ = coefficient of friction at the interface, and
- $l =$ length of hub engagement.

Intermediate- and Long-Length Columns

The slenderness ratio of a column is $S_r = l/k$, where *l* is the length of the column and *k* is the radius of gyration. The radius of gyration of a column cross-section is, $k = \sqrt{I/A}$

where *I* is the area moment of inertia and *A* is the crosssectional area of the column. A column is considered to be intermediate if its slenderness ratio is less than or equal to $(S_r)_D$, where

$$
(S_r)_D = \pi \sqrt{\frac{2E}{S_y}}
$$
, and

E = Young's modulus of respective member, and

 S_v = yield strength of the column material.

For intermediate columns, the critical load is

$$
P_{cr} = A \left[S_y - \frac{1}{E} \left(\frac{S_y S_r}{2\pi} \right)^2 \right], \text{ where}
$$

 P_{cr} = critical buckling load,

 $A = \csc$ - cross-sectional area of the column,

 S_v = yield strength of the column material,

E = Young's modulus of respective member, and

Sr = slenderness ratio.

For long columns, the critical load is

$$
P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 EA}{S_r^2}
$$

where the variable area as defined above.

For both intermediate and long columns, the effective column length depends on the end conditions. The AISC recommended values for the effective lengths of columns are, for: rounded-rounded or pinned-pinned ends, $l_{\text{eff}} = l$; fixed-free, $l_{\text{eff}} = 2.1l$; fixed-pinned, $l_{\text{eff}} = 0.80l$; fixed-fixed, l_{eff} = 0.65*l*. The effective column length should be used when calculating the slenderness ratio.

Gearing

Gear Trains: *Velocity ratio*, *mv*, is the ratio of the output velocity to the input velocity. Thus, $m_v = \omega_{out} / \omega_{in}$. For a two-gear train, $m_v = -N_{in}/N_{out}$ where N_{in} is the number of teeth on the input gear and *Nout* is the number of teeth on the output gear. The negative sign indicates that the output gear rotates in the opposite sense with respect to the input gear. In a *compound gear train*, at least one shaft carries more than one gear (rotating at the same speed). The velocity ratio for a compound train is:

 $m_v = \pm \frac{\text{product of number of teeth on driver years}}{\text{product of number of teeth on driven years}}$

A *simple planetary gearset* has a sun gear, an arm that rotates about the sun gear axis, one or more gears (planets) that rotate about a point on the arm, and a ring (internal) gear that is concentric with the sun gear. The planet gear(s)

mesh with the sun gear on one side and with the ring gear on the other. A planetary gearset has two, independent inputs and one output (or two outputs and one input, as in a differential gearset).

Often, one of the inputs is zero, which is achieved by grounding either the sun or the ring gear. The velocities in a planetary set are related by

$$
\frac{\omega_f - \omega_{arm}}{\omega_L - \omega_{arm}} = \pm m_v
$$
, where

 ω_f = speed of the first gear in the train,

 ω_L = speed of the last gear in the train, and

 ω_{arm} = speed of the arm.

Neither the first nor the last gear can be one that has planetary motion. In determining m_v , it is helpful to invert the mechanism by grounding the arm and releasing any gears that are grounded.

Loading on Straight Spur Gears: The load, *W*, on straight spur gears is transmitted along a plane that, in edge view, is called the *line of action*. This line makes an angle with a tangent line to the pitch circle that is called the *pressure angle* φ. Thus, the contact force has two components: one in the tangential direction, W_t , and one in the radial direction, *Wr*. These components are related to the pressure angle by

$$
W_r = W_t \tan(\phi).
$$

Only the tangential component W_t transmits torque from one gear to another. Neglecting friction, the transmitted force may be found if either the transmitted torque or power is known:

$$
W_t = \frac{2T}{d} = \frac{2T}{mN},
$$

$$
W_t = \frac{2H}{d\omega} = \frac{2H}{mN\omega},
$$
 where

 W_t = transmitted force (newton),

- $T =$ torque on the gear (newton-mm),
- $d =$ pitch diameter of the gear (mm),
- $N =$ number of teeth on the gear,
- $m =$ gear module (mm) (same for both gears in mesh),

$$
H = \text{power (kW), and}
$$

ω = speed of gear (rad*/*sec).

Stresses in Spur Gears: Spur gears can fail in either bending (as a cantilever beam, near the root) or by surface fatigue due to contact stresses near the pitch circle. AGMA Standard 2001 gives equations for bending stress and surface stress. They are:

$$
\sigma_b = \frac{W_t}{FmJ} \frac{K_a K_m}{K_v} K_s K_B K_I
$$
, bending and

$$
\sigma_c = C_p \sqrt{\frac{W_t}{FId} \frac{C_a C_m}{C_v} C_s C_f}
$$
, surface stress, where

- σ_b = bending stress,
- σ_c = surface stress,
- W_t = transmitted load,
- $F =$ face width,
- $m =$ module,
- *J* = bending strength geometry factor,
- K_a = application factor,
- K_B = rim thickness factor,
- K_l = idler factor,
- K_m = load distribution factor,
- K_s = size factor,
- K_v = dynamic factor,
- C_p = elastic coefficient,
- *I* = surface geometry factor,
- $d =$ pitch diameter of gear being analyzed, and
- C_f = surface finish factor.

 C_a , C_m , C_s , and C_v are the same as K_a , K_m , K_s , and K_v , respectively.

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