

#### **COURSE STRUCTURE**

#### UNIT I: STRESSES AND STRAINS(SIMPLE AND PRINCIPAL)

Concept of stress and strain, elasticity and plasticity, Hooke's law, stress-strain diagram for mild steel, Poisson's ratio, volumetric strain, elastic module and the relationship between them bars of varying section, composite bars, temperature stresses; Strain energy, modulus of resilience, modulus of toughness; stresses on an inclined section of a bar under axial loading; compound stresses; Normal and tangential stresses on an inclined plane for biaxial stresses; Two perpendicular normal stresses accompanied by a state of simple shear; Mohr's circle of stresses; Principal stresses and strains; Analytical and graphical solutions. Theories of Failure: Introduction, various theories of failure, maximum principal stress theory, maximum principal strain theory, strain energy and shear strain energy theory.

#### **COURSE STRUCTURE**

#### UNIT II: SHEAR FORCE AND BENDING MOMENT

Definition of beam – Types of beams – Concept of shear force and bending moment – S.F and B.M diagrams for cantilever, simply supported and overhanging beams subjected to point loads, uniformly distributed load, uniformly varying loads and combination of these loads – Point of contraflexure – Relation between S.F., B.M and rate of loading at a section of a beam.

#### UNIT III: FLEXURAL STRESSES AND SHEAR STRESSES IN BEAMS

Flexural Stresses: Theory of simple bending – Assumptions – Derivation of bending equation: M/I = f/y = E/R - Neutral axis – Determination of bending stresses – Section modulus of rectangular and circular sections (Solid and Hollow), I,T, Angle and Channel sections – Design of simple beam sections.

Shear Stresses: Derivation of formula – Shear stress distribution across various beam sections like rectangular, circular, triangular, I, T angle sections.

#### COURSE STRUCTURE

#### UNIT IV: TORSION OF CIRCULAR SHAFTS

Theory of pure torsion- derivation of torsion equations: - assumptions made in the theory of pure torsion - torsional moment of resistance - polar section modulus - power transmitted by shaft - combined bending and torsion and end thrust - design of shafts according to theories of failure. Introduction to springs- types of springs - deflection of close and open coiled helical springs under axial pull and axial couple - springs in series and parallel - carriage or leaf springs.

#### UNIT V: COLUMNS AND STRUTS: BUCKLING

Types of columns, short, medium and long columns, axially loaded compression members, crushing load, Euler's theorem for long columns, assumptions, derivation of Euler's critical load formulae for various end conditions. Equivalent length of a column, slenderness ratio, Euler's critical stress, limitations of Euler's theory, Rankine's and Gordon formula, long columns subjected to eccentric loading, secant formula, empirical formulae, straight line formula and Prof. Perry's formula. Laterally loaded struts, subjected to uniformly distributed and concentrated loads, maximum bending moment and stress due to transverse and lateral loading.

#### **TEXT BOOKS**

- 1. F. Beer, E. R. Johnston, J. De Wolf, "Mechanics of Materials", Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Limited, New Delhi, Indian 1st Edition, 2008.
- 2. B. C. Punmia, Ashok Kumar Jain, Arun Kumar Jain, "Mechanics of Materials", Laxmi Publications Private Limited, New Delhi, 4th Edition, 2007.
- 3. R. K. Rajput, "Strength of Materials: Mechanics of Solids", S. Chand & Co Limited, New Delhi, 3rd Edition, 2007.
- 4. S. S. Rattan, "Strength of Materials", Tata McGraw-Hill Publishers, 4th Edition, 2011

#### **REFERENCE BOOKS**

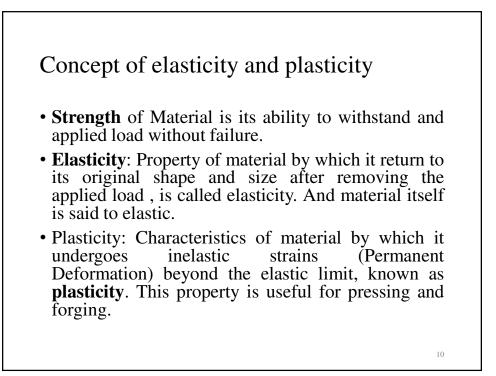
- 1. J. M. Gere, S.P. Timoshenko, "Mechanics of Materials", CL Engineering, USA, 5th Edition, 2000.
- 2. D. S. PrakashRao, "Strength of Materials A Practical Approach Vol.1", University Press India Private Limited, India, 1st Edition, 2007.
- S. S. Bhavikatti, "Strength of Materials", Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, 3rd Edition, 2013.

## **Teaching Strategies**

- The course will be taught via Lectures. Lectures will also involve the solution of tutorial questions. Tutorial questions are designed to complement and enhance both the lectures and the students appreciation of the subject.
- Course work assignments will be reviewed with the students.
- Daily assessment through questioning and class notes.

UNITS:							
	British	Metric	<u>S.I.</u>				
1. Force	Ib, kip, Ton	g, kg,	N, kN				
	1 kip = 1000 Ib 1 ton = 2240 Ib	1  kg = 1000  g Ton = 1000 kg	1  kN = 1000  N 1  kg = 10  N				
2. Long	in, ft	m, cm, mm	m, cm, mm				
	1 f = 12 in	1 m = 100 cm 1 cm = 10 mm 1 m = 1000 mm 1 in = 2.54 cm	1 m = 100 cm 1 cm = 10 mm 1 m =1000 mm 1 in = 2.54 cm				
3. Stress	psi, ksi p kip in <sup>2</sup> 'in <sup>2</sup>	Pa $\left(\frac{N}{mm^2}\right)$ , MPa, GPa					
MPa = 10 <sup>6</sup> Pa = 10 <sup>6</sup> N/mm <sup>2</sup> × $\frac{1}{1000^2 \frac{mm^2}{m^2}}$							
$MPa = \frac{N}{mm^2}$							
GPa = 10 <sup>9</sup> Pa = 10 <sup>9</sup> N/mm <sup>2</sup> × $\frac{1}{1000^2 \frac{mm^2}{m^2}} = 10^3 \frac{N}{mm^2} \times \frac{1}{1000 \frac{N}{kN}}$							
$GPa = kN/mm^2$							
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# UNIT –I Stresses and Strain (Simple and Principal)



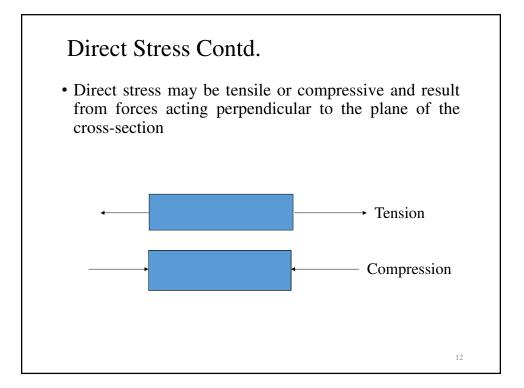
## Direct or Normal Stress

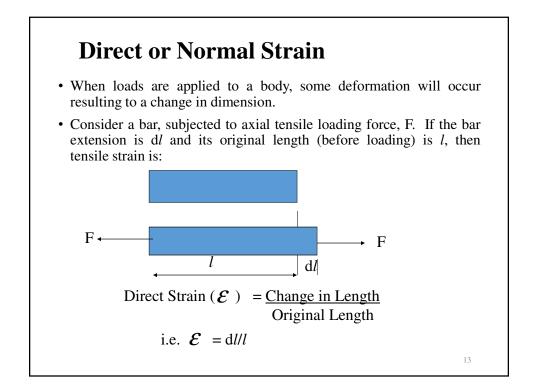
- When a force is transmitted through a body, the body tends to change its shape or deform. The body is said to be strained.
- Direct Stress = <u>Applied Force (F)</u> Cross Sectional Area (A)

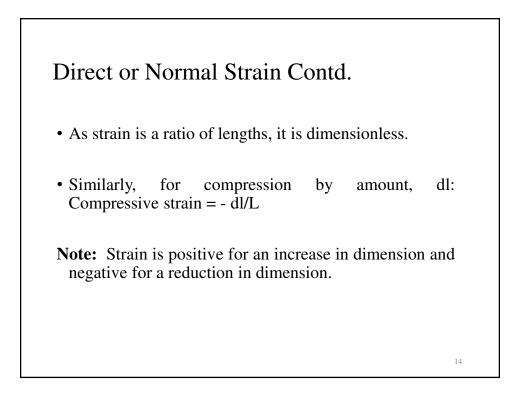
**Units:** Usually N/m<sup>2</sup> (Pa), N/mm<sup>2</sup>, MN/m<sup>2</sup>, GN/m<sup>2</sup> or N/cm<sup>2</sup>

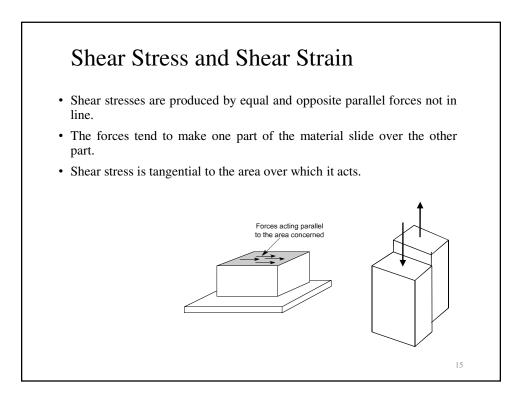
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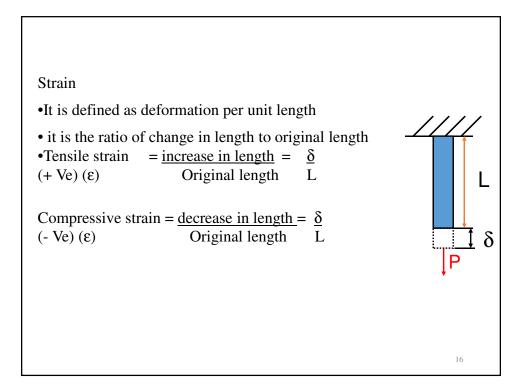
**Note:**  $1 \text{ N/mm}^2 = 1 \text{ MN/m}^2 = 1 \text{ MPa}$ 











## Ultimate Strength

The strength of a material is a measure of the stress that it can take when in use. The ultimate strength is the measured stress at failure but this is not normally used for design because safety factors are required. The normal way to define a safety factor is :

safety factor=	stressat failure	Ultimate stress	
	stress whenloaded	Permissible stress	

## Strain

We must also define **strain**. In engineering this is <u>not</u> a measure of force but is a measure of the deformation produced by the influence of stress. For tensile and compressive loads:

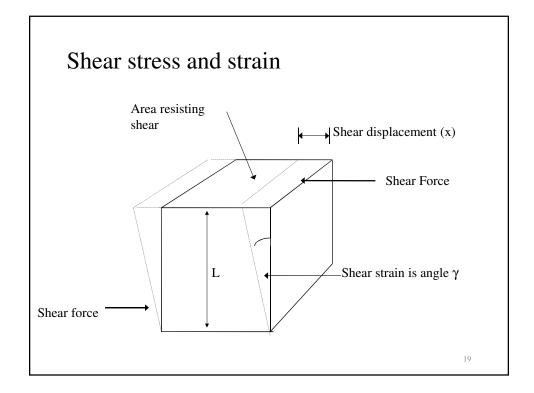
Strain is dimensionless, i.e. it is not measured in metres, kilograms etc.

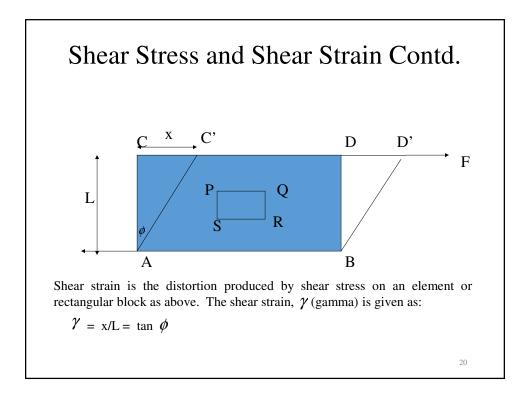
strain  $\varepsilon = \frac{\text{increase in length } x}{\text{original length } L}$ 

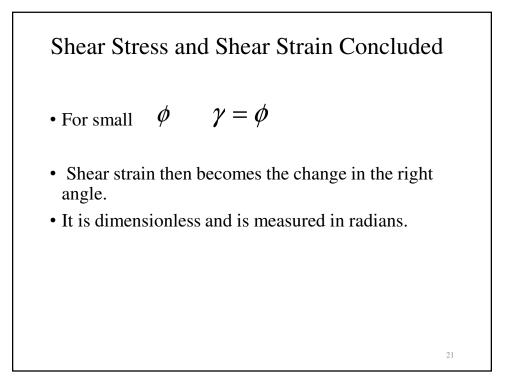
For shear loads the strain is defined as the angle  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  This is measured in radians

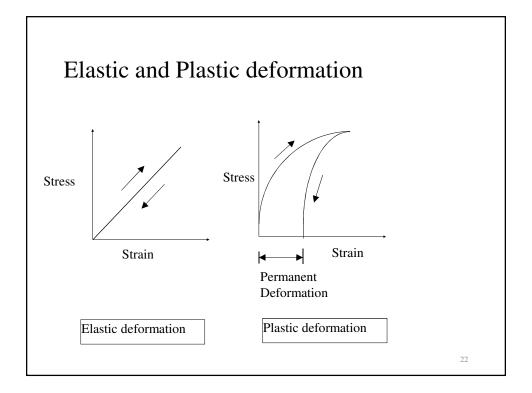
shear strain  $\gamma \approx \frac{\text{shear displacement } x}{\text{width } L}$ 

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#### Modulus of Elasticity

If the strain is "elastic" Hooke's law may be used to define

*Youngs Modulus* 
$$E = \frac{Stress}{Strain} = \frac{W}{x} \times \frac{L}{A}$$

Young's modulus is also called the modulus of elasticity or stiffness and is a measure of how much strain occurs due to a given stress. Because strain is dimensionless Young's modulus has the units of stress or pressure

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How to calculate deflection if the proof stress is applied and then partially removed. If a sample is loaded up to the 0.2% proof stress and then unloaded to a stress s the strain x = 0.2% + s/E where E is the Young's modulus  $u = \int_{0.2\% \text{ proof}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{9}} \int_{0.2\% \text{ p$ 

## **Volumetric Strain**

- Hydrostatic stress refers to tensile or compressive stress in all dimensions within or external to a body.
- Hydrostatic stress results in change in volume of the material.
- Consider a cube with sides x, y, z. Let dx, dy, and dz represent increase in length in all directions.
- i.e. new volume = (x + dx) (y + dy) (z + dz)

Volumetric Strain Contd. Neglecting products of small quantities: New volume = x y z + z y dx + x z dy + x y dz Original volume = x y z = z y dx + x z dy + x y dz Volumetric strain,  $\Delta \underbrace{z y dx + x z dy + x y dz}$   $\mathcal{E}_{v} \ x y z$   $\mathcal{E}_{v} \ = dx/x + dy/y + dz/z$  $\mathcal{E}_{v} \ = \mathcal{E}_{x} + \mathcal{E}_{y} + \mathcal{E}_{z}$ 

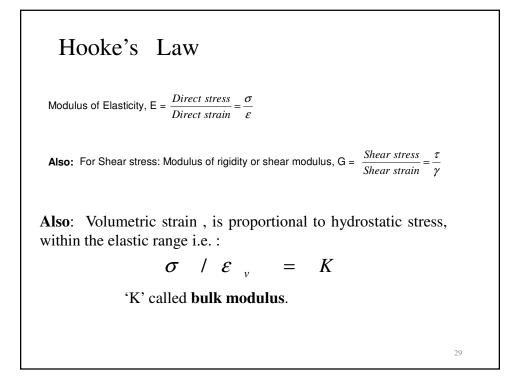
## Elasticity and Hooke's Law

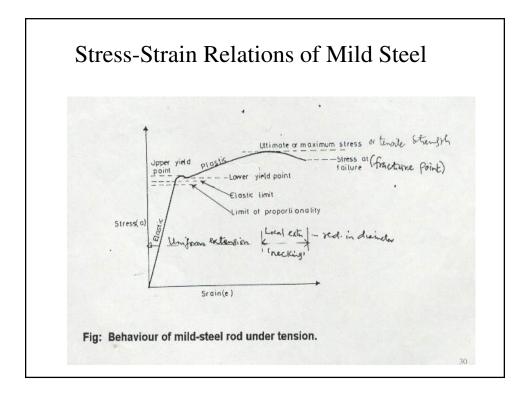
- All solid materials deform when they are stressed, and as stress is increased, deformation also increases.
- If a material returns to its original size and shape on removal of load causing deformation, it is said to be <u>elastic</u>.
- If the stress is steadily increased, a point is reached when, after the removal of load, not all the induced strain is removed.
- This is called the elastic limit.

Hooke's Law

- States that providing the limit of proportionality of a material is not exceeded, the stress is directly proportional to the strain produced.
- If a graph of stress and strain is plotted as load is gradually applied, the first portion of the graph will be a straight line.
- The slope of this line is the constant of proportionality called modulus of Elasticity, E or Young's Modulus.
- It is a measure of the stiffness of a material.

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## **Equation For Extension**

From the above equations:

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon} = \frac{F/A}{dl/L} = \frac{FL}{Adl}$$
$$dl = \frac{FL}{AE}$$

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This equation for extension is very important

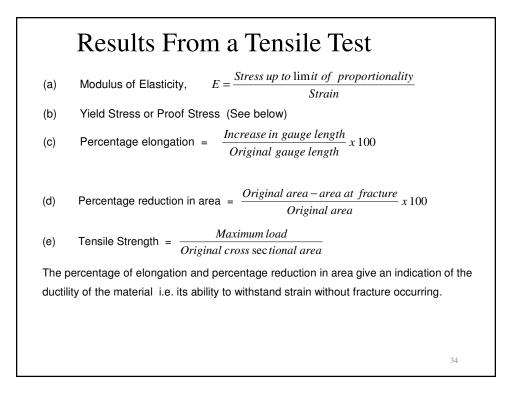
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## Factor of Safety Contd.

• Some reasons for factor of safety include the inexactness or inaccuracies in the estimation of stresses and the non-uniformity of some materials.

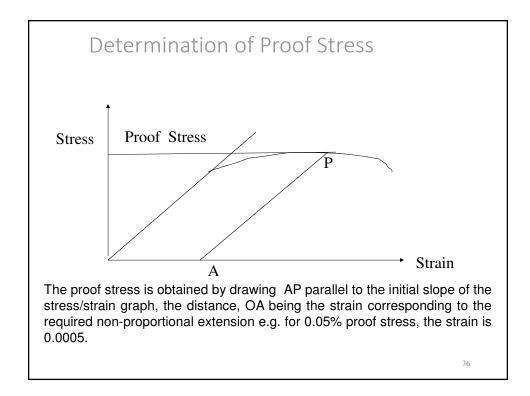
Factor of safety =  $\frac{Ultimate or yield stress}{Design or working stress}$ 

**Note:** Ultimate stress is used for materials e.g. concrete which do not have a well-defined yield point, or brittle materials which behave in a linear manner up to failure. Yield stress is used for other materials e.g. steel with well defined yield stress.



## **Proof Stress**

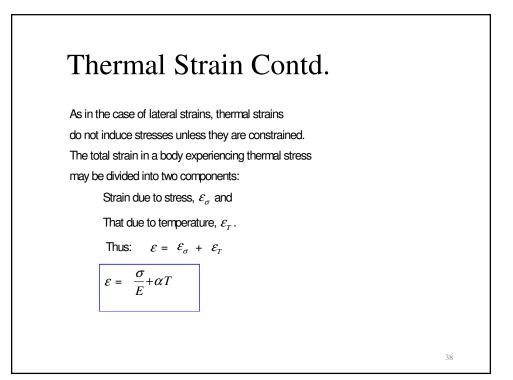
- High carbon steels, cast iron and most of the nonferrous alloys do not exhibit a well defined yield as is the case with mild steel.
- For these materials, a limiting stress called proof stress is specified, corresponding to a non-proportional extension.
- The non-proportional extension is a specified percentage of the original length e.g. 0.05, 0.10, 0.20 or 0.50%.



## **Thermal Strain**

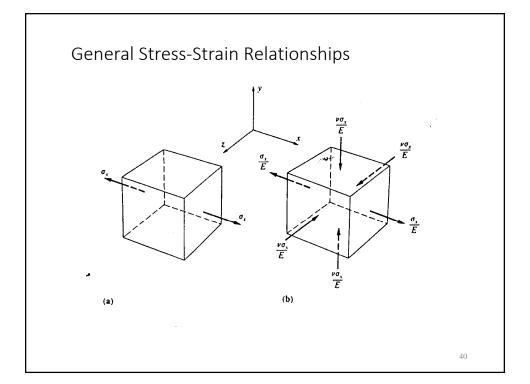
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Most structural materials expand when heated,
in accordance to the law: \varepsilon = \alpha T
where \varepsilon is linear strain and
\alpha is the coefficient of linear expansion;
T is the rise in temperature.
That is for a rod of Length, L;
if its temperature increased by t, the extension,
dI = \alpha L T.
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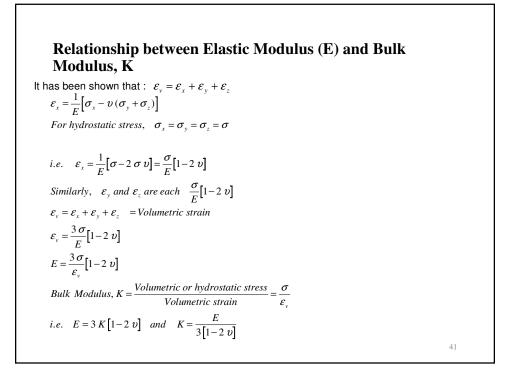
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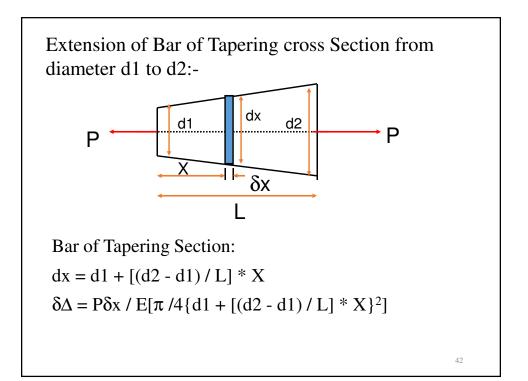




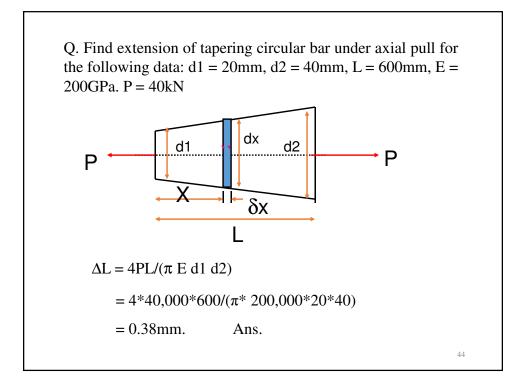
- It states that the effects of several actions taking place simultaneously can be reproduced exactly by adding the effect of each action separately.
- The principle is general and has wide applications and holds true if:
- (i) The structure is elastic
- (ii) The stress-strain relationship is linear
- (iii) The deformations are small.

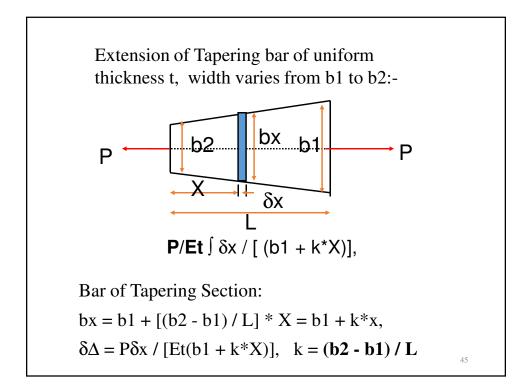






$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{0}^{L} \left\{ \int_{0}^{L} f(E \pi \{d1 + kx\}^{2}) \right\}_{0}^{L} \\ & = - \left[ 4P/\pi E \right] x \left[ \int_{1}^{L} f(d1 + kx) \right]_{0}^{L} dx \\ & = - \left[ 4PL/\pi E(d2 - d1) \right] \left\{ \int_{0}^{L} (d1 + d2 - d1) - 1/d1 \right\} \\ & \Delta = 4PL/(\pi E d1 d2) \end{aligned}$$
Check :-
$$\begin{aligned} & When d = d1 = d2 \\ & \Delta = PL/\left[ (\pi / 4)^{*} d^{2}E \right] = PL/AE \end{aligned}$$





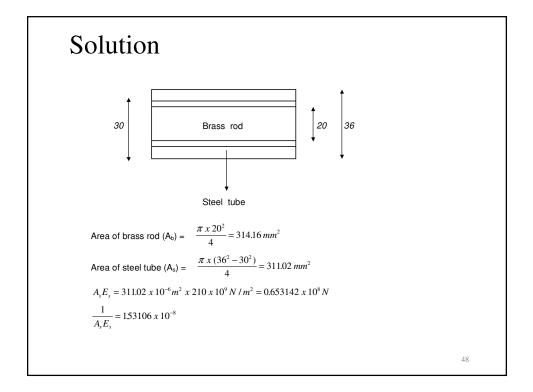
$$\Delta L = \int_{0}^{L} \Delta L = \int_{0}^{L} P \delta x / [Et(b1 - k^*X)],$$
$$= P/Et \int \delta x / [(b1 - k^*X)],$$
$$= -P/E t k^* \log_{e} [(b1 - k^*X)]_{0}^{L},$$
$$= PL \log_{e}(b1/b2) / [Et(b1 - b2)]$$

## Example

• A steel tube having an external diameter of 36 mm and an internal diameter of 30 mm has a brass rod of 20 mm diameter inside it, the two materials being joined rigidly at their ends when the ambient temperature is 18 °C. Determine the stresses in the two materials: (a) when the temperature is raised to 68 °C (b) when a compressive load of 20 kN is applied at the increased temperature.

For brass: Modulus of elasticity = 80 GN/m<sup>2</sup>; Coefficient of expansion =  $17 \times 10 - 6 / C$ 

For steel: Modulus of elasticity =  $210 \text{ GN/m}^2$ ; Coefficient of expansion =  $11 \times 10 - 6 / ^{\circ}\text{C}$ 



## Solution Contd.

$$A_b E_b = 314.16 \times 10^{-6} m^2 \times 80 \times 10^9 N / m^2 = 0.251327 \times 10^8 N$$

$$\frac{1}{A_b E_b} = 3.9788736 \ x \ 10^{-8}$$

 $T(\alpha_b - \alpha_s) = 50(17 - 11) \times 10^{-6} = 3 \times 10^{-4}$ 

With increase in temperature, brass will be in compression while steel will be in tension. This is because expands more than steel.

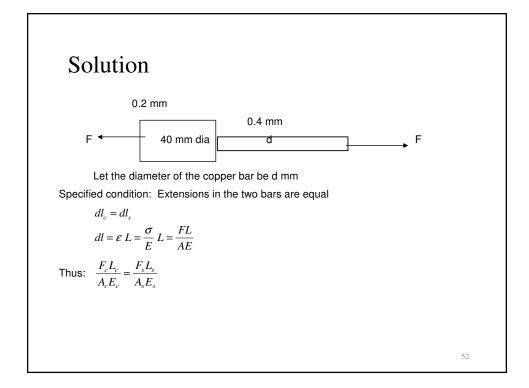
*i.e.* 
$$F[\frac{1}{A_sE_s} + \frac{1}{A_bE_b}] = T(\alpha_b - \alpha_s)$$
  
*i.e.*  $F[1.53106 + 3.9788736] \times 10^{-8} = 3 \times 10^{-4}$   
**F = 5444.71 N**

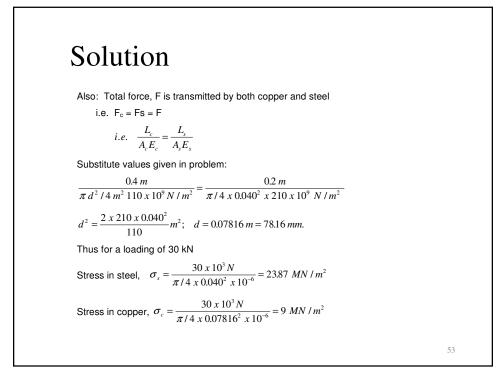
# Solution Concludes $\begin{aligned} <section-header> <section-header> = \sum_{k=1}^{k} \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{k} \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{$

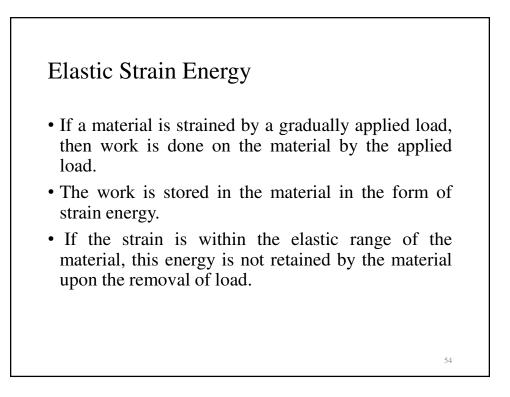
## Example

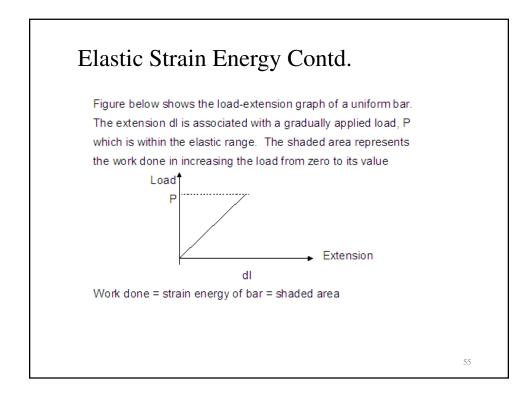
A composite bar, 0.6 m long comprises a steel bar 0.2 m long and 40 mm diameter which is fixed at one end to a copper bar having a length of 0.4 m.

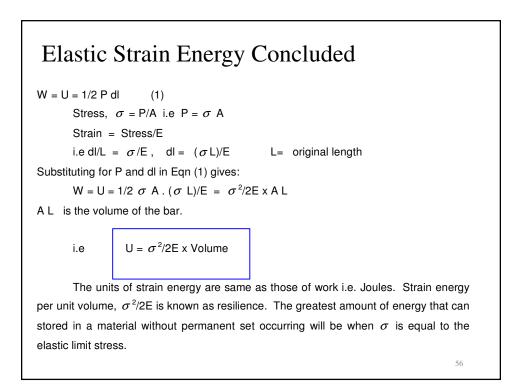
- i. Determine the necessary diameter of the copper bar in order that the extension of each material shall be the same when the composite bar is subjected to an axial load.
- ii. What will be the stresses in the steel and copper when the bar is subjected to an axial tensile loading of 30 kN? (For steel, E =  $210 \text{ GN/m}^2$ ; for copper, E =  $110 \text{ GN/m}^2$ )









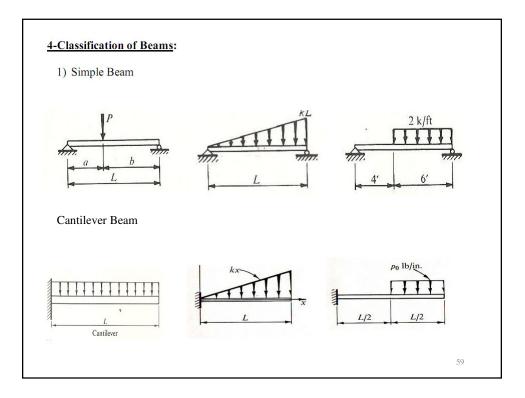


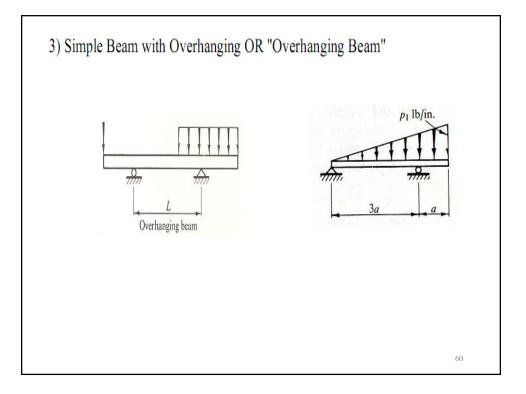
# UNIT 2

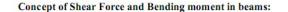
## Shear Force and Bending Moment

#### SHEAR FORCE AND BENDING MOMENT

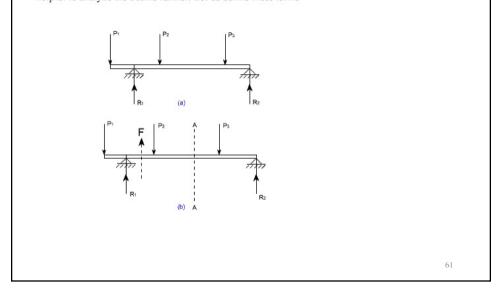
Definition of beam – Types of beams – Concept of shear force and bending moment – S.F and B.M diagrams for cantilever, simply supported and overhanging beams subjected to point loads, uniformly distributed load, uniformly varying loads and combination of these loads – Point of contraflexure – Relation between S.F., B.M and rate of loading at a section of a beam.

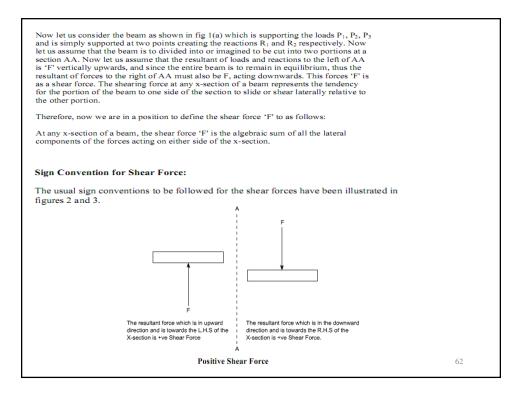


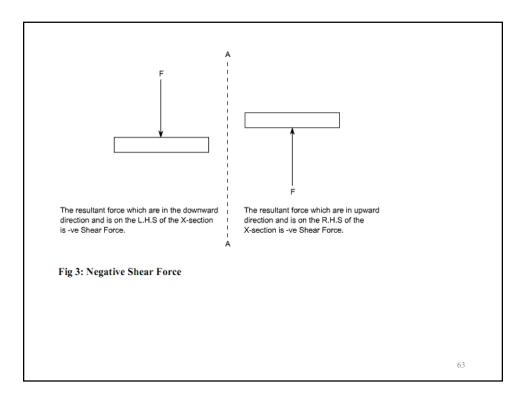


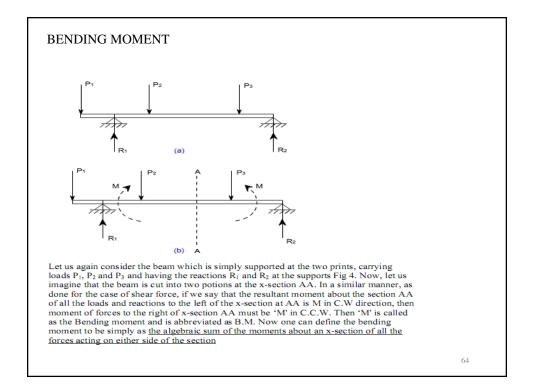


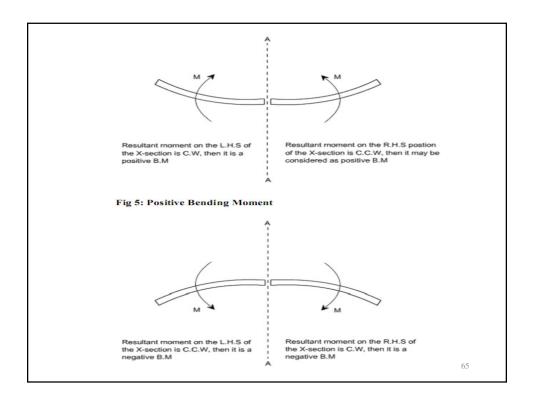
When the beam is loaded in some arbitrarily manner, the internal forces and moments are developed and the terms shear force and bending moments come into pictures which are helpful to analyze the beams further. Let us define these terms





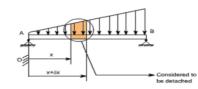




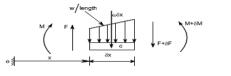


#### **Basic Relationship Between The Rate of Loading, Shear Force and Bending Moment:**

The construction of the shear force diagram and bending moment diagrams is greatly simplified if the relationship among load, shear force and bending moment is established. Let us consider a simply supported beam AB carrying a uniformly distributed load w/length. Let us imagine to cut a short slice of length dx cut out from this loaded beam at distance 'x' from the origin '0'.



Let us detach this portion of the beam and draw its free body diagram.



The forces acting on the free body diagram of the detached portion of this loaded beam are the following

• The shearing force F and F+ dF at the section x and x + dx respectively.

• The bending moment at the sections x and x + dx be M and M + dM respectively.

• Force due to external loading, if 'w' is the mean rate of loading per unit length then the total loading on this slice of length dx is w. dx, which is approximately acting through the centre 'c'. If the loading is assumed to be uniformly distributed then it would pass exactly through the centre 'c'. This small element must be in equilibrium under the action of these forces and couples.

Now let us take the moments at the point 'c'. Such that

$M + F \cdot \frac{\delta x}{2} + (F$	$+\delta F$ ). $\frac{\delta x}{2} = M + \delta M$			
$\Rightarrow$ F. $\frac{\delta x}{2}$ + (F + $\delta$ F	$\frac{\delta x}{2} = \delta M$			
$\Rightarrow F.\frac{\delta x}{2} + F.\frac{\delta x}{2} +$	$\delta F. \frac{\delta x}{2} = \delta M$ [Negled	ting the pro	duct of	
	δFand	δxbeingsm	nall quantities]	
$\Rightarrow F.\delta x = \delta M$				
$\Rightarrow F = \frac{\delta M}{\delta x}$				
Under the limi	ts δx → 0			
F	$= \frac{dM}{dx}$		(1)	
Resolving the for	rces vertically we get			
$W. \delta x + (F + \delta F)$	) = F			
$\Rightarrow w = -\frac{\delta F}{\delta x}$				
Under the limi	ts δx → 0			
$\Rightarrow$ w = $-\frac{dF}{dx}$ or $-$	$\frac{d}{dx}(\frac{dM}{dx})$			
w =	$-\frac{dF}{dx} = -\frac{d^2M}{dx^2}$		(2)	67

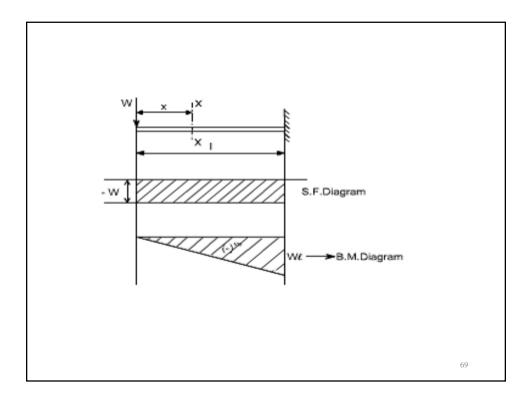
#### A cantilever of length carries a concentrated load 'W' at its free end. Draw shear force and bending moment.

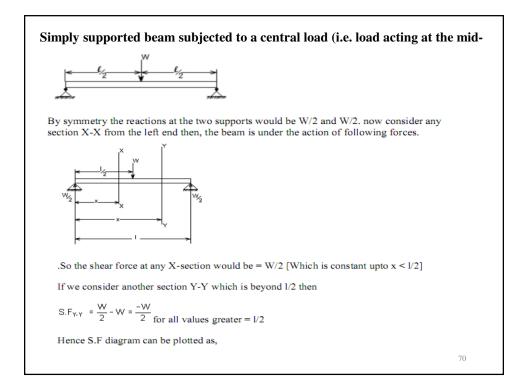
#### Solution:

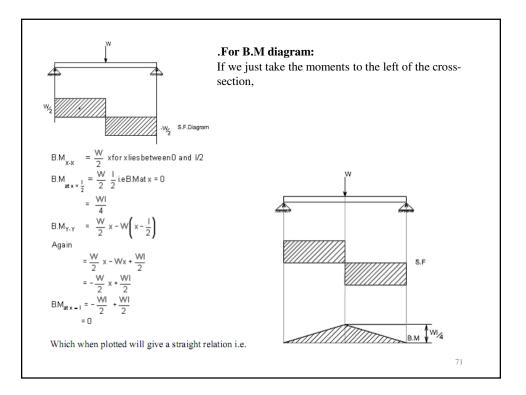
At a section a distance x from free end consider the forces to the left, then F = -W (for all values of x) -ve sign means the shear force to the left of the x-section are in downward direction and therefore negative.

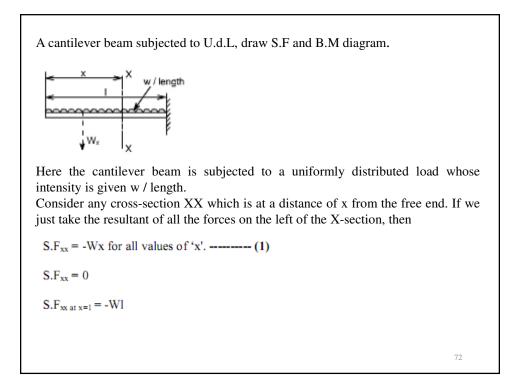
Taking moments about the section gives (obviously to the left of the section) M = -Wx (-ve sign means that the moment on the left hand side of the portion is in the anticlockwise direction and is therefore taken as -ve according to the sign convention) so that the maximum bending moment occurs at the fixed end i.e.

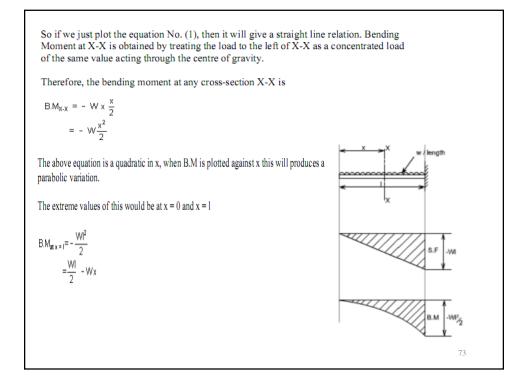
M = -WI From equilibrium consideration, the fixing moment applied at the fixed end is WI and the reaction is W. the shear force and bending moment are shown as,

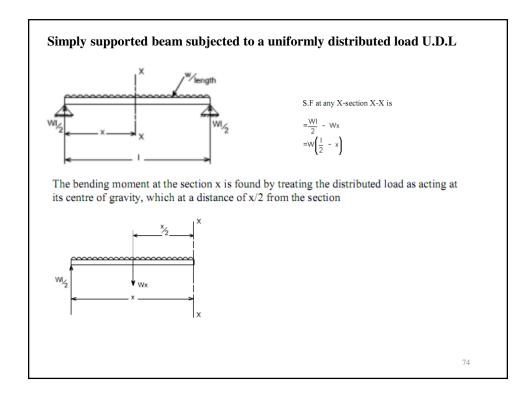


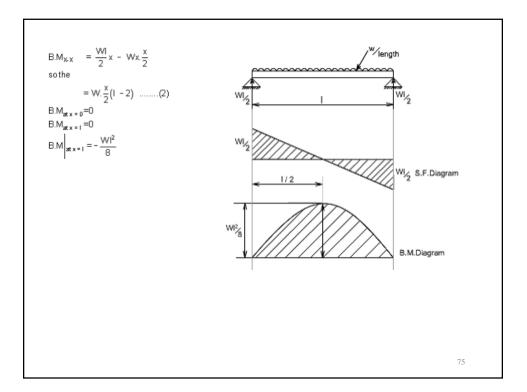


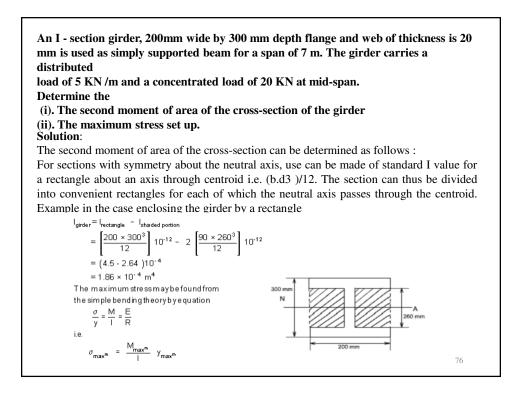


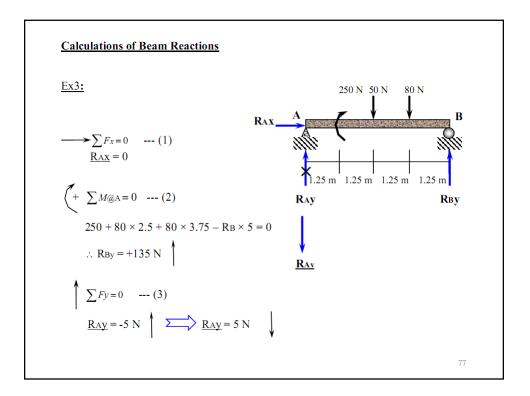


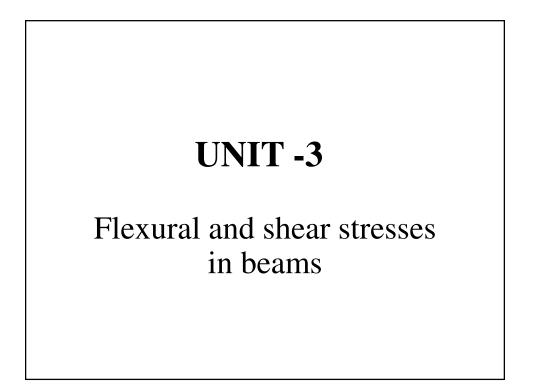


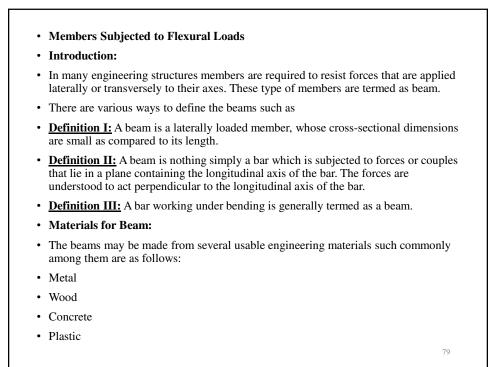


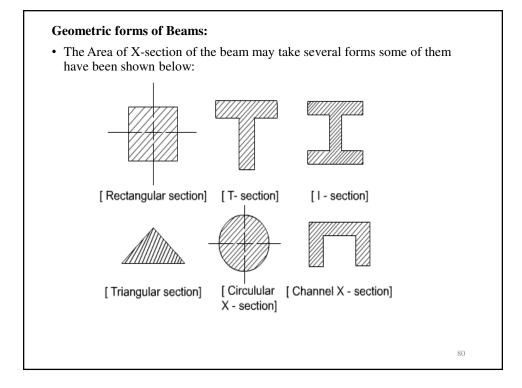












#### Loading restrictions:

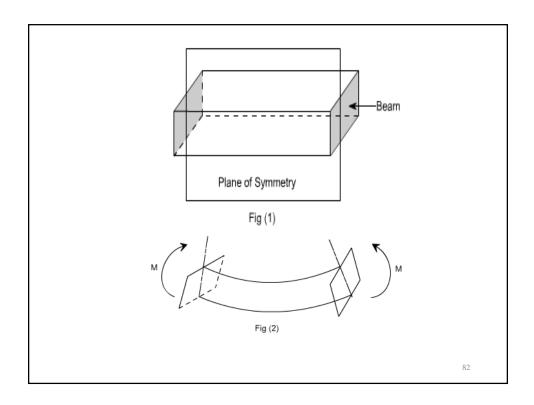
#### **Concept of pure bending:**

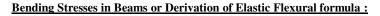
• As we are aware of the fact internal reactions developed on any crosssection of a beam may consists of a resultant normal force, a resultant shear force and a resultant couple. In order to ensure that the bending effects alone are investigated, we shall put a constraint on the loading such that the resultant normal and the resultant shear forces are zero on any cross-section perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of the member,

That means F = 0

since or M = constant.

Thus, the zero shear force means that the bending moment is constant or the bending is same at every cross-section of the beam. Such a situation may be visualized or envisaged when the beam or some portion of the beam, as been loaded only by pure couples at its ends. It must be recalled that the couples are assumed to be loaded in the plane of symmetry.





- In order to compute the value of bending stresses developed in a loaded beam, let us consider the two cross-sections of a beam **HE** and **GF**, originally parallel as shown in fig 1(a).when the beam is to bend it is assumed that these sections remain parallel i.e. **H'E'** and **G'F'**, the final position of the sections, are still straight lines, they then subtend some angle
- Consider now fibre AB in the material, at a distance y from the N.A, when the beam bends this will stretch to A'B'

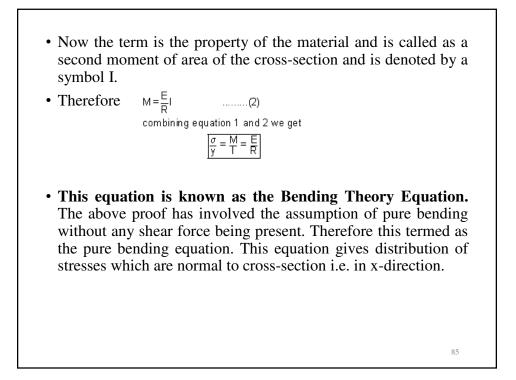
Therefore, strain in fibre  $AB = \frac{change in length}{orginal length}$   $= \frac{A'B' - AB}{AB}$  But AB = CD and CD = C'D'refer to fig1(a) and fig1(b)  $\therefore$  strain =  $\frac{A'B' - C'D'}{C'D'}$ 

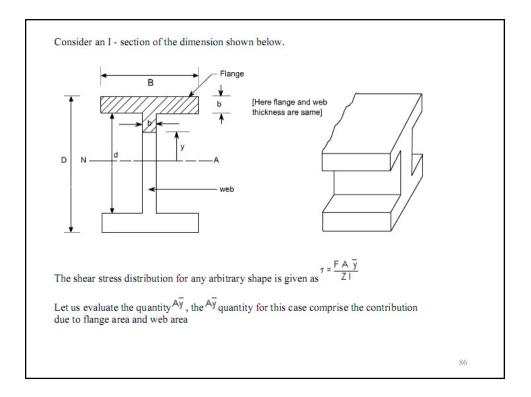
• Consider now fibre AB in the material, at a distance y from the N.A, when the beam bends this will stretch to A'B'

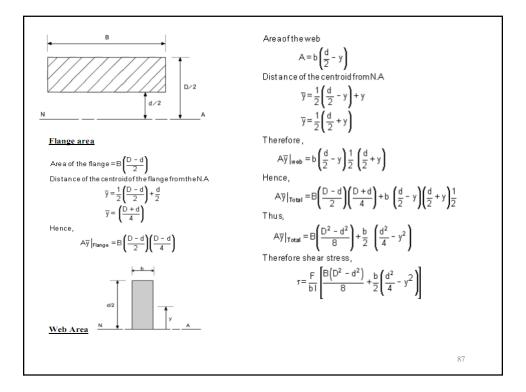
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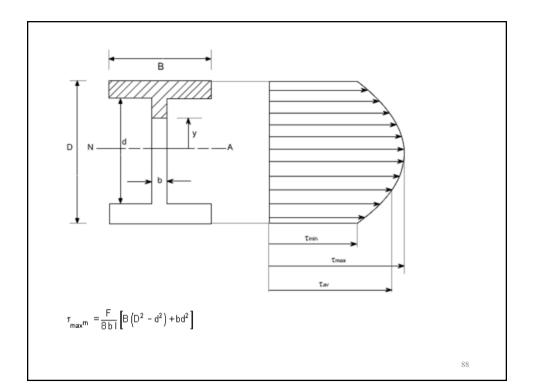
• Since CD and C'D' are on the neutral axis and it is assumed that the Stress on the neutral axis zero. Therefore, there won't be any strain on the neutral axis

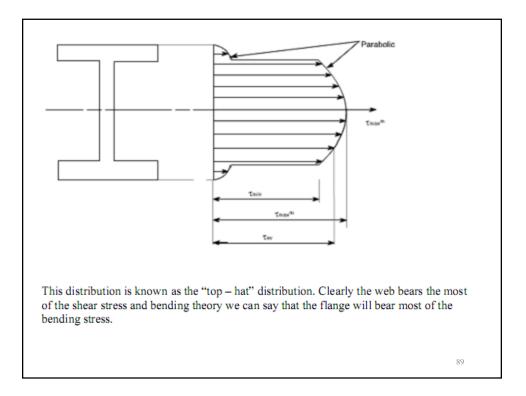
 $= \frac{(R + y)\theta - R\theta}{R\theta} = \frac{R\theta + y\theta - R\theta}{R\theta} = \frac{y}{R}$ However  $\frac{\text{stress}}{\text{strain}} = E$  where E = Young's Modulus of elasticity Therefore, equating the two strains as obtained from the two relations i.e,  $\frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{y}{R}$  or  $\frac{\sigma}{y} = \frac{E}{R}$  ......(1)  $\sigma = \frac{E}{R} y$ if the shaded strip is of are a'dA' then the force on the strip is  $F = \sigma \ \delta A = \frac{E}{R} y \ \delta A$ Moment about the neutral axis would be = F.  $y = \frac{E}{R} y^2 \ \delta A$ The to all moment for the whole cross-section is therefore equal to  $M = \sum \frac{E}{R} y^2 \ \delta A = \frac{E}{R} \sum y^2 \ \delta A$ 

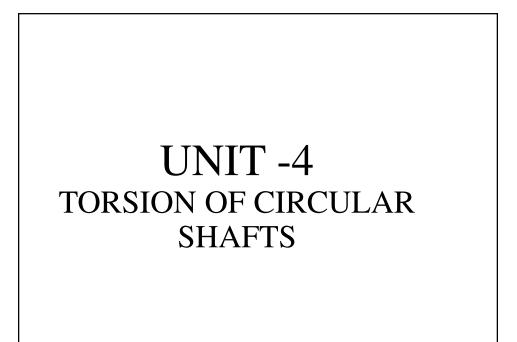


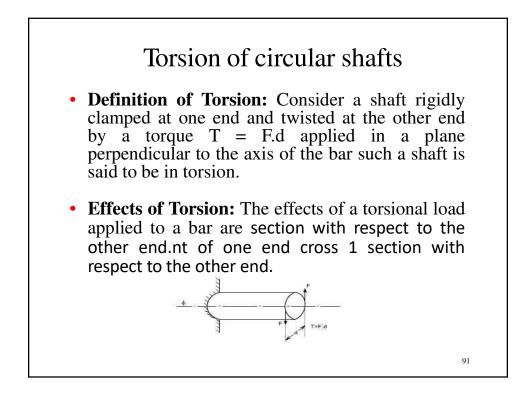


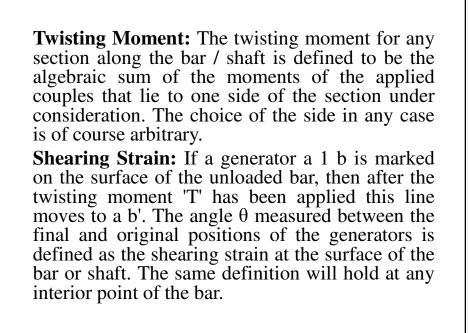


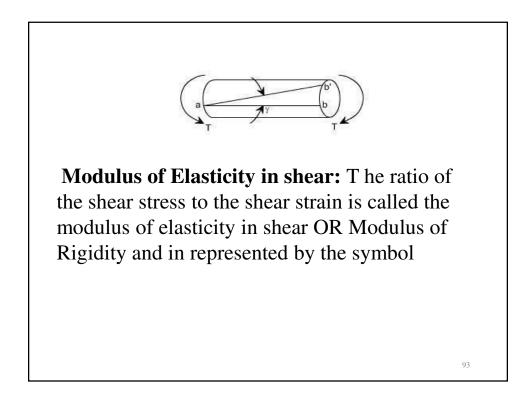


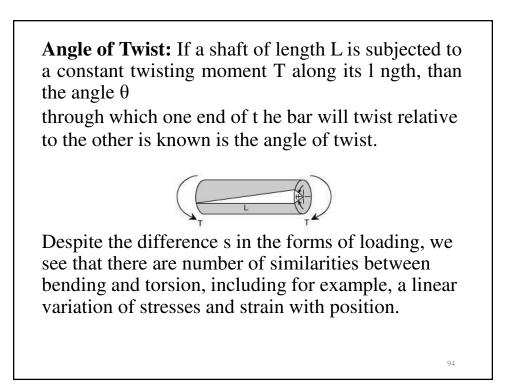










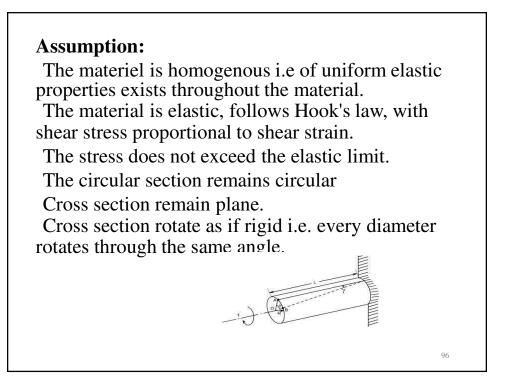


#### **Relationship in Torsion:**

**1st Term:** It refers to applied loading ad a property of section, which in the instance is the polar second moment of area.

**2nd Term:** This refers to stress, and the stress increases as the distance from the axis increases.

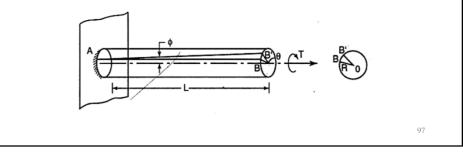
**3rd Term:** it refers to the deformation and contains in which is equivalent to strain for the purpose of designing a circular shaft to with stand a given torque we must develop an equation giving the relation between Twisting moments max m shear stain produced and a quantity representing the size and shape of the cross sectional area of the shaft.



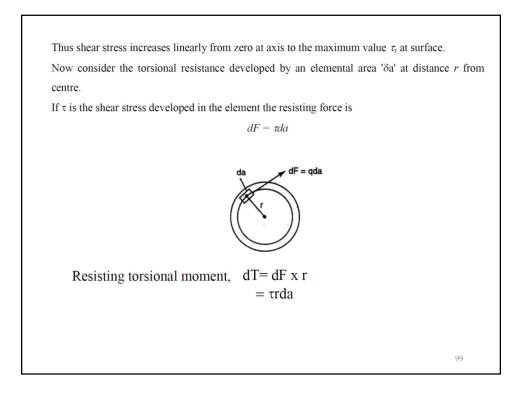
#### **DERIVATION OF TORSIONAL EQUATIONS**

Consider a shaft of length L, radius *R* fixed at one end and subjected to a torque T at the other end as shown in Fig.

Let O be the centre of circular section and B a point on surface. AB be the line on the shaft parallel to the axis of shaft. Due to torque T applied, let *B* move to *B*'. If  $\gamma$  is shear strain (*angle BOB'*) and  $\theta$  is the angle of twist in length *L*, then



 $R\theta = BB' = L\gamma$ If  $\tau_s$  is the shear stress and G is modulus of rigidity then,  $\gamma = \frac{\tau}{G}$  $R\theta = L\frac{\tau_s}{G}$  $\frac{\tau_s}{R} = \frac{G\theta}{L}$ Similarly if the point B considered is at any distance r from centre instead of on the surface, it can be shown that  $\frac{\tau}{r} = \frac{G\theta}{L} \qquad \dots (i)$  $\frac{\tau_s}{R} = \frac{\tau}{r}$ 



Therefore, Total resisting torsional moment,	$\tau = \tau_s \frac{r}{R}$ $dT = \tau_s \frac{r^2}{R} da$ $T = \sum \tau_s \frac{r^2}{R} da$ $T = \frac{\tau_s}{R} \sum r^2 da$	
But $\sum r^2 da$ is nothing but polar moment of	of inertia of the section. Representing it by notation J	
we get, $T = \frac{\tau_s}{R} J$	Where, T - torsional moment , N-mm	
$\frac{T}{J} = \frac{\tau_s}{R}$	J - polar moment of inertia, $mm^4$	
$\frac{\tau_s}{R} = \frac{\tau}{r}$ $\frac{T}{J} = \frac{\tau}{r}$ $\frac{T}{I} = \frac{\tau}{r} = \frac{G\theta}{I}$	$\tau$ - shear stress in the element, N/mm <sup>2</sup> r- distance of element from centre of shaft, mm <i>G</i> - modulus of rigidity, N/mm <sup>2</sup> $\theta$ - angle of twist, rad <i>L</i> - length of shaft, mm	
$\frac{1}{J} - \frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{L}$		100

**Power Transmitted by a shaft :** If T is the applied to the shaft, then the power transmitted by the shaft is

# Distribution of shear stresses in circular Shafts subjected to torsion :

This states that the shearing stress varies directly as the distance 1r' from the axis of the shaft and the following is the stress distribution in the plane of cross section and also the complementary shearing stresses in an axial plane.

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**Torsional stiffness:** The torsional stiffness k is defined as the torque per radian twist .

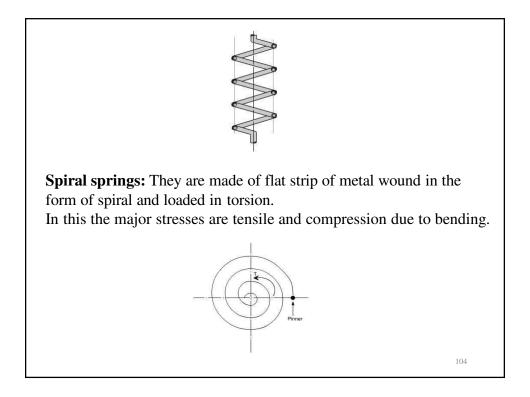
For a ductile material, the plastic flow begins first in the outer surface. For a material which is weaker in shear longitudinally than transverse ly for instance a wooden shaft, with the fibers parallel t o axis the first cracks will be produced by the shearing stresses acting in the axial section and they will upper on the surface of the shaft in the longitudinal direction.

**Definition:** A spring may be defined as an elastic member whose primary function is to deflect or distort under the action of applied load; it recovers its original shape when load is released.

### Important types of springs are:

There are various types of springs such as

**Helical spring:** They are made of wire coiled into a helical form, the load being applied along the axis of the helix. In these type of springs the major stresses is torsional shear stress due to twisting. They are both used in tension and compression.



# Uses of springs :

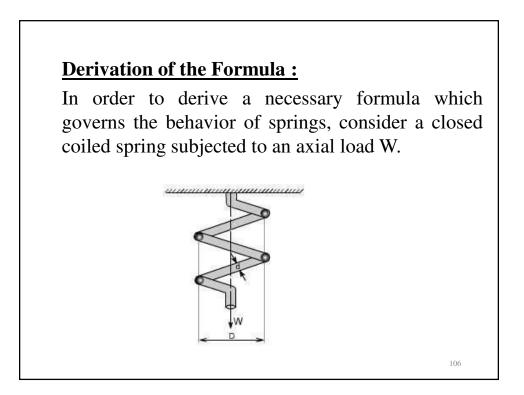
To apply forces and to control motions as in brakes and clutches.

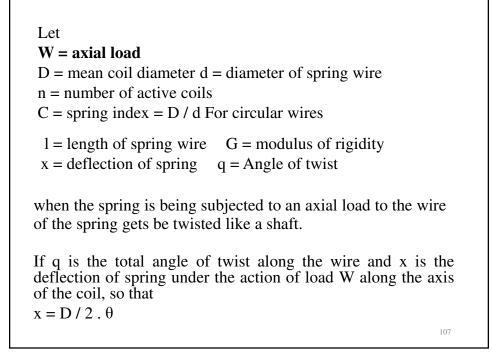
To measure forces as in spring balance.

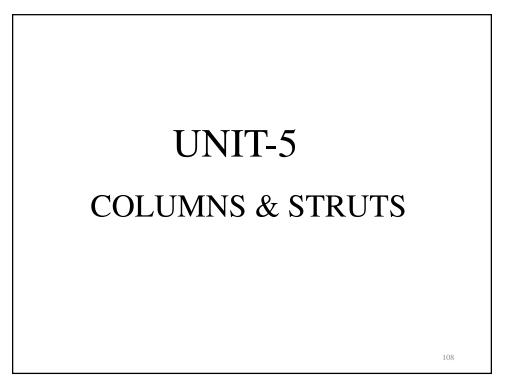
To store energy as in clock springs.

To reduce the effect of shock or impact loading as in carriage springs.

To change the vibrating characteristics of a member as inflexible mounting of motors.







# Introduction

Structural members which carry compressive loads may be divided into two broad categories depending on their relative lengths and crosssectional dimensions.

# **Columns:**

Short, thick members are generally termed columns and these usually fail by crushing when the yield stress of the material in compression is exceeded.

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## **Struts**

Long, slender columns are generally termed as struts, they fail by buckling some time before the yield stress in compression is reached. The buckling occurs owing to one the following reasons.

The strut may not be perfectly straight initially.

The load may not be applied exactly along the axis of the Strut.

One part of the material may yield in compression more readily than others owing to some lack of uniformity in the material properties through out the strut.

# **Euler's Theory**

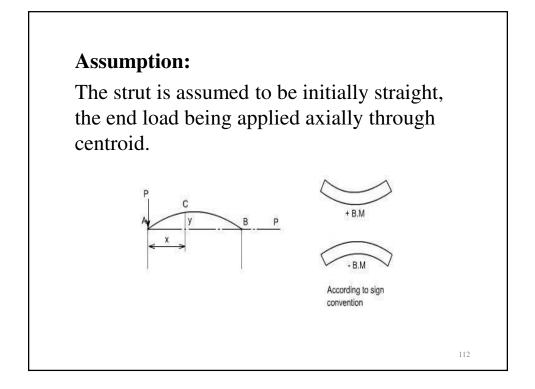
The struts which fail by buckling can be analyzed by Euler's theory. In the following sections, different cases of the struts have been analyzed.

## Case A

## Strut with pinned ends

Consider an axially loaded strut, shown below, and is subjected to an axial load 1P' this load 1P' produces a deflection 1y' at a distance 1x' from one end.

Assume that the ends are either pin jointed or rounded so that there is no moment at either end.



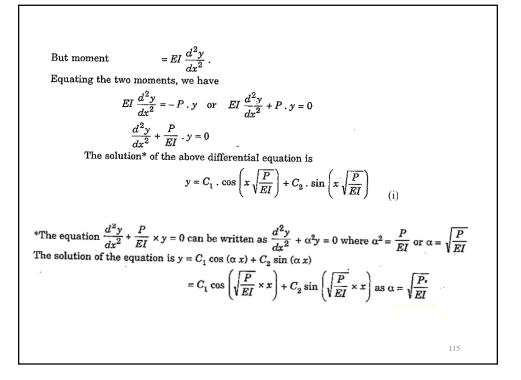
Let us define a operator D = d/dx(D2 + n 2)y = 0 where n2 = P/EI

This is a second order differential equation which has a solution of the form consisting of complimentary function and particular integral but for the time being we are interested in the complementary solution only[in this P.I = 0; since the R.H.S of Diff. equation = 0]

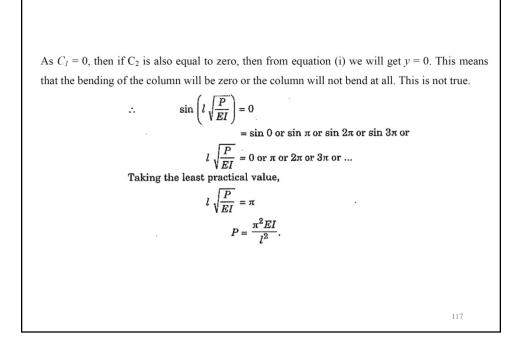
Thus  $y = A \cos(nx) + B \sin(nx)$  Where A and B are some constants.

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Consider a column AB of length 1 and uniform crosssectional area, hinged at both of its ends A and B. Let P be the crippling load at which the column has just buckled. Due to the crippling load, the column will deflect into a curved form ACB as shown in fig. 8.5. Consider any section at a distance x from the end A. Let y = Deflection (lateral displacement) at the section. The moment due to the crippling load at the section = -P. yFig. 8.5



Where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are the constants of integration. The values of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are obtained as given below: (*i*) At A, x = 0 and y = 0Substituting these values in equation (i), we get  $0 = C_1 \cdot \cos 0^\circ + C_2 \sin 0$  $= C_I \ge 1 + C_2 \ge 0$ Therefore,  $C_1=0$ (ii) (ii) At B, x=l and y=0Substituting these values in equation (i), we  $0 = C_1 \cdot \cos\left(l \times \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right) + C_2 \cdot \sin\left(l \times \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right)$  $= 0 + C_2 \cdot \sin \left( l \times \sqrt{\frac{P}{El}} \right) \qquad \qquad [\because C_1 = 0 \text{ from equation } (ii)]$  $=C_2\sin\left(l\sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right)$ ...(iii) From equation (iii), it is clear that either  $C_2 = 0$ 116

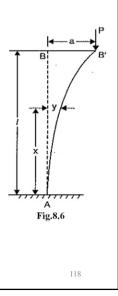


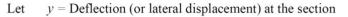
#### COLUMN ONE END FIXED AND OTHER END FREE

Consider a column AB, of length 1 and uniform crosssectional area, fixed at the end A and free at the end B. The free end will sway sideways when load is applied at free end and curvature in the length 1 will be similar to that of upper half of the column whose both ends are hinged. Let P is the crippling load at which the column has just buckled. Due to the crippling load P, the column will deflect as shown in Fig. 8.6 in which AB is the original position of the column and AB', is the deflected position due to crippling load P.

Consider any section at a distance x from the fixed end A.

Let y = Deflection (or lateral displacement) at the section





a = Deflection at the free end B. Then moment at the section due to the crippling load = P (a - y)

But moment,

 $M = EI\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ 

Equating the two moments, we get

$$EI \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = P (a - y) = P \cdot a - P \cdot y$$
$$EI \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + P \cdot y = P \cdot a$$
$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{P}{EI} \cdot y = \frac{P}{EI} \cdot a.$$

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(i)

The solution\* of the differential equation is

$$y = C_1 \cdot \cos\left(x\sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right) + C_2 \cdot \sin\left(x\sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right) + a$$

(ii)

Where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are constant of integration; the values of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are obtained from boundary conditions. The boundary conditions are:

(i) For a fixed end, the deflection as well as slope is zero.

Hence at end A (which is fixed), the deflection y = 0 and also slope  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ 

Hence at A, x = 0 and y = 0

Substituting these values in equation (i), we get

$$\theta = C_1 \cos \theta + C_2 \sin \theta + a$$
  
=  $C_1 x l + C_2 x \theta + a$   
=  $C_1 + a$ 

At A, 
$$x = 0$$
 and  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$   
Differentiating the equation (i) w.r.t. x, we get  

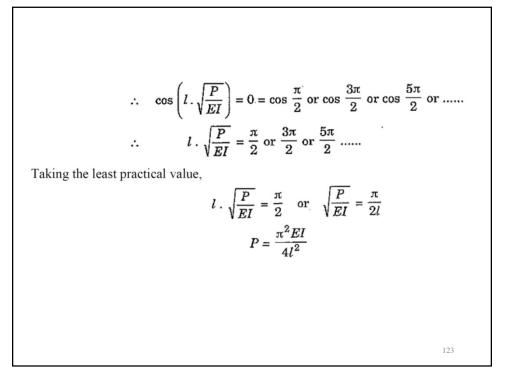
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = C_1 \cdot (-1) \sin\left(x \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}} + C_2 \cos\left(x \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}} + 0$$

$$= -C_1 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}} \sin\left(x \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right) + C_2 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}} \cos\left(x \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right)$$
But at  $x = 0$  and  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$   
The above equation becomes as  

$$0 = -C_1 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}} \sin 0 + C_2 \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}} \cos 0$$

$$= -C_1 \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}} \times 0 + C_2 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}} \times 1 = C_2 \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}$$

From the above equation it is clear that either  $C_2 = 0$ , or  $\sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}} = 0$ But for the crippling load P, the value of  $\sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}$  cannot be equal to zero. Therefore,  $C_2 = 0$ . Substituting the values of  $C_I = -a$  and  $C_2 = 0$  in equation (i) we get  $y = -a \cdot \cos\left(x\sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right) + a$  (iii) But at the free end of the column, x = l and y = a. Substituting these values in equation (*iii*) we get  $a = -a \cdot \cos\left(l \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right) + a$   $0 = -a \cdot \cos\left(l \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right)$  or  $a \cos\left(l \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{EI}}\right) = 0$ But 'a' cannot be equal to zero

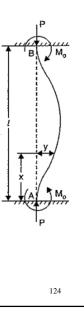


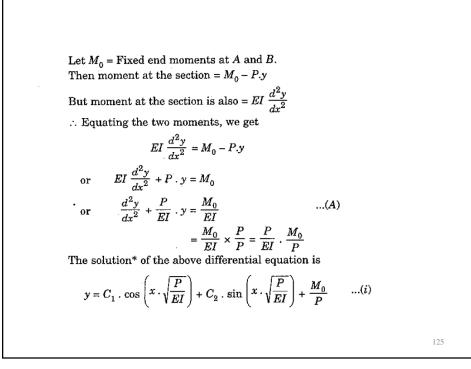
#### COLUMN BOTH THE ENDS OF THE COLUMN ARE FIXED

Consider a column AB, of length l and uniform cross-sectional area, both ends A and B fixed. Let P is the crippling load at which the column has just buckled. Due to the crippling load P, the column will deflect as shown in Figure. Due to fixed ends, there will be fixed end moments (say Mo) at the ends A and B. The fixed end moments will be acting in such direction so that slope at the fixed ends becomes zero.

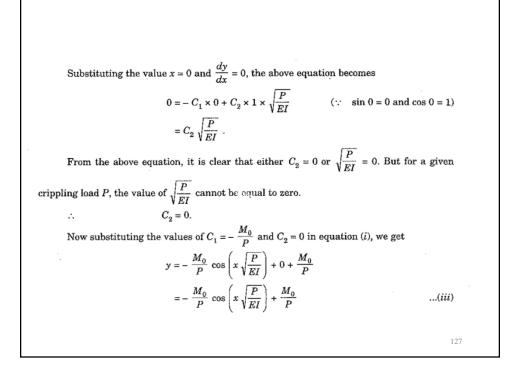
Consider any section at a distance x from the fixed end A.

Let y = Deflection (or lateral displacement) at the section As the both the ends of the column are fixed and column carries a crippling load, there will be some fixed end moments at A and B.





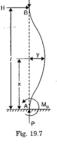
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#### COLUMN ONE END FIXED AND OTHER END HINGED

Consider a column AB of length l and uniform cross-sectional area fixed at the end A and hinged at the end B as shown in Fig. 19.7. Let P is the crippling load at which the column has buckled. Due to the crippling load P, the column will deflect as shown in Fig. 19.7.

There will be fixed end moment  $(M_0)$  at the fixed end A. This will try to bring back the slope of deflected column zero at A. Hence it will be acting anticlock wise at A. The fixed end moment  $M_0$  at A is to be balanced. This will be balanced by a horizontal reaction (H) at the top end B as shown in Fig. 19.7.



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Consider a section at a distance x from the end A. Let y = Deflection of the column at the section,  $M_0 = \text{Fixed}$  end moment at A, and

H = Horizontal reaction at B.

The moment at the section = Moment due to crippling load at B

+ Moment due to horizontal reaction at B

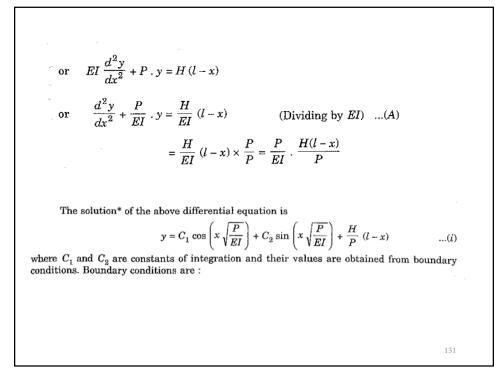
$$-P \cdot y + \dot{H} \cdot (l-x)$$

But the moment at the section is also

$$= EI \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}$$

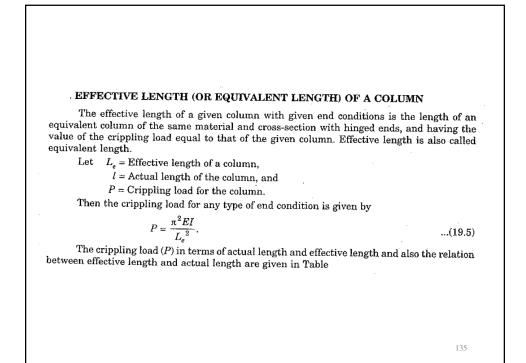
Equating the two moments, we get

$$EI\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -P \cdot y + H(l-x)$$



or  

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{H}{P}\sqrt{\frac{BI}{P}}\sin\left(l\sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}}\right) = \frac{H}{P}l\cos\left(l\sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}}\right) \\
\text{or} & \sin\left(l\sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}}\right) = \frac{H}{P} \cdot l \times \frac{P}{H} \times \sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}} \cdot \cos\left(l\sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}}\right) \\
& = l \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}} \cdot \cos\left(l \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}}\right) \\
\text{or} & \tan\left(l\sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}}\right) = l \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}} \\
\text{or} & \tan\left(l\sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}}\right) = l \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}} \\
\text{or} & \tan\left(l\sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}}\right) = l \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}} \\
\text{He solution to the above equation is, } l \cdot \sqrt{\frac{P}{BI}} = 4.5 \text{ radians} \\
\text{squaring both sides, we get} \\
& l^{2} \cdot \frac{P}{BI} = 4.5^{2} = 20.25 \\
\therefore & P = 20.25 \frac{BI}{l^{2}} \\
\text{But approximately } 20.25 = 2\pi^{2} \\
\therefore & P = \frac{2\pi^{2}BI}{l^{2}}
\end{array}$$



S.No. End conditions of column		Crippling load in terms of		Relation between
	of column	Actual length	Effective length	effective length and actual length
1.	Both ends hinged	$\frac{\pi^2 EI}{l^2}$	$\frac{\pi^2 EI}{{L_e}^2}$	$L_e = l$
2.	One end is fixed and other is free	$\frac{\pi^2 EI}{4l^2}$	$\frac{\pi^2 EI}{{L_e}^2}$	$L_e = 2l$
3.	Both ends fixed	$\frac{4\pi^2 EI}{l^2}$	$rac{\pi^2 EI}{{L_c}^2}$	$L_e = \frac{l}{2}$
4.	One end fixed and other is hinged	$\frac{4\pi^2 EI}{l^2}$	$\frac{\pi^2 EI}{{L_e}^2}$	$L_e = \frac{l}{\sqrt{2}}$

There are two values of moment of inertia *i.e.*,  $I_{xx}$  and  $I_{yy}$ . The value of I (moment of inertia) in the above expressions should be taken as the least value of the two moments of inertia as the column will tend to bend in the direction of least moment of inertia.

