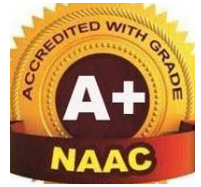




ROHINI COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY



DEPARTMENT OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING

UNIT I – FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS IN DESIGN

1.3 STRESS

Stress

When some external system of forces or loads acts on a body, the internal forces (equal and opposite) are set up at various sections of the body, which resist the external forces. This internal force per unit area at any section of the body is known as **unit stress** or simply a **stress**. It is denoted by a Greek letter sigma (σ). Mathematically,

$$\text{Stress, } \sigma = P/A$$

Where P = Force or load acting on a body, and

A = Cross-sectional area of the body.

In S.I. units, the stress is usually expressed in Pascal (Pa) such that $1 \text{ Pa} = 1 \text{ N/m}^2$. In actual practice, we use bigger units of stress *i.e.* megapascal (MPa) and gigapascal (GPa), such that

$$1 \text{ MPa} = 1 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2 = 1 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

$$\text{And } 1 \text{ GPa} = 1 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^2 = 1 \text{ kN/mm}^2$$

Strain

When a system of forces or loads act on a body, it undergoes some deformation. This deformation per unit length is known as **unit strain** or simply a **strain**. It is denoted by a Greek letter epsilon (ϵ). Mathematically, Strain, $\epsilon = \delta l / l$ or $\delta l = \epsilon \cdot l$.

Where δl = Change in length of the body, and

l = Original length of the body.

Tensile Stress and Strain

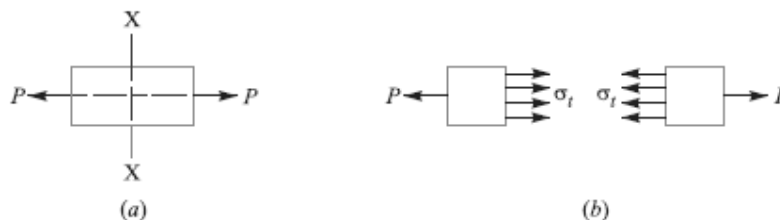


Fig. Tensile stress and strain

When a body is subjected to two equal and opposite axial pulls P (also called tensile load) as shown in Fig. (a), then the stress induced at any section of the body is known as **tensile stress**

as shown in Fig. (b). A little consideration will show that due to the tensile load, there will be a decrease in cross-sectional area and an increase in length of the body. The ratio of the increase in length to the original length is known as **tensile strain**.

Let P = Axial tensile force acting on the body,

A = Cross-sectional area of the body,

l = Original length, and

δl = Increase in length.

Then \square Tensile stress, $\sigma_t =$

P/A

and tensile strain, $\epsilon_t = \delta l / l$

Young's Modulus or Modulus of Elasticity

Hooke's law* states that when a material is loaded within elastic limit, the stress is directly proportional to strain, *i.e.*

$$\sigma \propto \epsilon \quad \text{or} \quad \sigma = E.\epsilon$$

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} = \frac{P \times l}{A \times \delta l}$$

where E is a constant of proportionality known as **Young's modulus** or **modulus of elasticity**. In S.I. units, it is usually expressed in GPa *i.e.* GN/m² or kN/mm². It may be noted that Hooke's law holds good for tension as well as compression.

The following table shows the values of modulus of elasticity or Young's modulus (E) for the materials commonly used in engineering practice.

Values of E for the commonly used engineering materials.

<i>Material</i>	<i>Modulus of elasticity (E) in GPa i.e. GN/m² for kN/mm²</i>
Steel and Nickel	200 to 220
Wrought iron	190 to 200
Cast iron	100 to 160
Copper	90 to 110
Brass	80 to 90
Aluminium	60 to 80
Timber	10

Shear Stress and Strain

When a body is subjected to two equal and opposite forces acting tangentially across the resisting section, as a result of which the body tends to shear off the section, then the stress

induced is called *shear stress*.

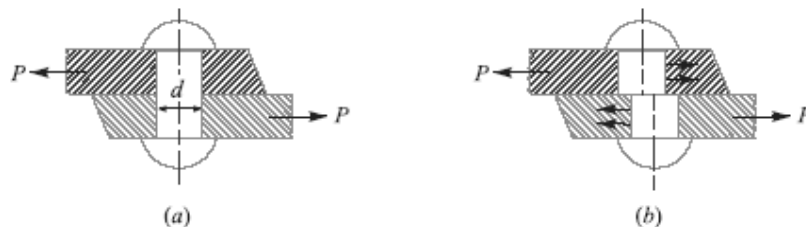


Fig. Single shearing of a riveted joint.

The corresponding strain is known as *shear strain* and it is measured by the angular deformation accompanying the shear stress. The shear stress and shear strain are denoted by the Greek letters tau (τ) and phi (ϕ) respectively. Mathematically, Shear stress, $\tau = \frac{\text{Tangential force}}{\text{Resisting area}}$.

Consider a body consisting of two plates connected by a rivet as shown in Fig. (a). In this case, the tangential force P tends to shear off the rivet at one cross-section as shown in Fig. (b). It may be noted that when the tangential force is resisted by one cross-section of the rivet (or when shearing takes place at one cross-section of the rivet), then the rivets are said to be in *single shear*. In such a case, the area resisting the shear off the rivet,

$$A = \frac{\pi}{4} \times d^2$$

Now let us consider two plates connected by the two cover plates as shown in Fig. (a). In this case, the tangential force P tends to shear off the rivet at two cross-sections as shown in Fig.

(b). It may be noted that when the tangential force is resisted by two cross-sections of the rivet (or when the shearing takes place at Two cross-sections of the rivet), then the rivets are said to be in *double shear*. In such a case, the area resisting the shear off the rivet,

$$A = 2 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times d^2$$

and shear stress on the rivet cross-section.

$$\tau = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{P}{2 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times d^2} = \frac{2P}{\pi d^2}$$

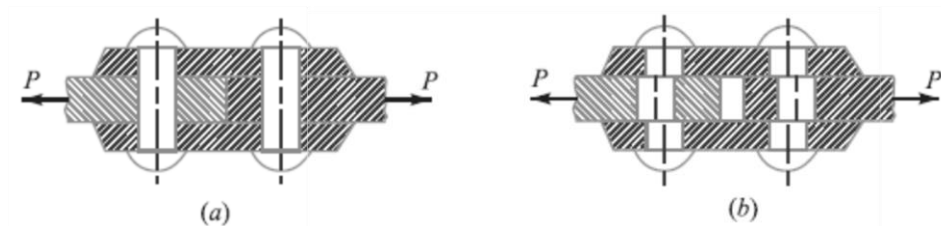


Fig. Double shearing of a riveted joint.

Notes:

1. All lap joints and single cover butt joints are in single shear, while the butt joints with double cover plates are in double shear.
2. In case of shear, the area involved is parallel to the external force applied.
3. When the holes are to be punched or drilled in the metal plates, then the tools used to perform the operations must overcome the ultimate shearing resistance of the material to be cut. If a hole of diameter ' d ' is to be punched in a metal plate of thickness ' t ', then the area to be sheared,

$$A = \pi d \times t$$

And the maximum shear resistance of the tool or the force required to punch a hole,

$$P = A \times \tau_u = \pi d \times t \times \tau_u$$

Where τ_u = Ultimate shear strength of the material of the plate.

Shear Modulus or Modulus of Rigidity

It has been found experimentally that within the elastic limit, the shear stress is directly proportional to shear strain. Mathematically

$$\tau \propto \phi \quad \text{or} \quad \tau = C \cdot \phi \quad \text{or} \quad \tau / \phi = C$$

Where τ = Shear stress,

ϕ = Shear strain, and

C = Constant of proportionality, known as shear modulus or modulus of rigidity. It is also denoted by N or G .

The following table shows the values of modulus of rigidity (C) for the materials in every day use:

Values of C for the commonly

sed materials

Material	Modulus of rigidity (C) in GPa i.e. GN/m ² or kNmm ²
Steel	80 to 100
Wrought iron	80 to 90
Cast iron	40 to 50
Copper	30 to 50
Brass	30 to 50
Timber	10

Linear and Lateral Strain

Consider a circular bar of diameter d and length l , subjected to a tensile force P as shown in Fig. (a).

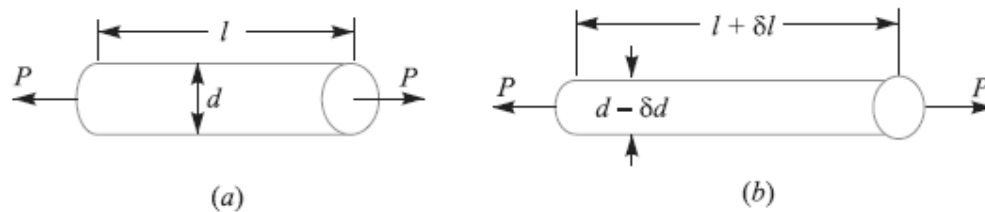


Fig. Linear and lateral strain.

A little consideration will show that due to tensile force, the length of the bar increases by an amount δl and the diameter decreases by an amount δd , as shown in Fig. (b). Similarly, if the bar is subjected to a compressive force, the length of bar will decrease which will be followed by increase in diameter.

It is thus obvious, that every direct stress is accompanied by a strain in its own direction which is known as **linear strain** and an opposite kind of strain in every direction, at right angles to it, is known as **lateral strain**.

4.18 Poisson's Ratio

It has been found experimentally that when a body is stressed within elastic limit, the lateral strain bears a constant ratio to the linear strain, Mathematically,

$$\frac{\text{Lateral Strain}}{\text{Linear Strain}} = \text{Constant}$$

This constant is known as **Poisson's ratio** and is denoted by $1/m$ or μ .

Following are the values of Poisson's ratio for some of the materials commonly used in engineering practice.

Values of Poisson's ratio for commonly used materials

S.No.	Material	Poisson 's ratio (1/m or μ)
1	Steel Cast	0.25 to 0.33
2	iron Copper	0.23 to 0.27
3	Brass	0.31 to 0.34
4	Aluminium	0.32 to 0.42
5	Concrete	0.32 to 0.36
6	Rubber	0.08 to 0.18
7		0.45 to 0.50

Volumetric Strain

When a body is subjected to a system of forces, it undergoes some changes in its dimensions. In other words, the volume of the body is changed. The ratio of the change in volume to the original volume is known as **volumetric strain**. Mathematically, volumetric strain,

$$\varepsilon_v = \delta V / V$$

Where δV = Change in volume, and V = Original volume

Notes : 1. Volumetric strain of a rectangular body subjected to an axial force is given as

$$\varepsilon_v = \frac{\delta V}{V} = \varepsilon \left(1 - \frac{2}{m} \right); \text{ where } \varepsilon = \text{Linear strain.}$$

2. Volumetric strain of a rectangular body subjected to three mutually perpendicular forces is given by

$$\varepsilon_v = \varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y + \varepsilon_z$$

where ε_x , ε_y and ε_z are the strains in the directions x -axis, y -axis and z -axis respectively.

Bulk Modulus

When a body is subjected to three mutually perpendicular stresses, of equal intensity, then the ratio of the direct stress to the corresponding volumetric strain is known as **bulk modulus**. It is usually denoted by K . Mathematically, bulk modulus,

$$K = \frac{\text{Direct stress}}{\text{Volumetric strain}} = \frac{\sigma}{\delta V / V}$$

Relation Between Bulk Modulus and Young's Modulus

The bulk modulus (K) and Young's modulus (E) are related by the following relation,

$$K = \frac{m.E}{3(m-2)} = \frac{E}{3(1-2\mu)}$$

Relation between Young's Modulus and Modulus of Rigidity

The Young's modulus (E) and modulus of rigidity (G) are related by the following relation,

$$G = \frac{m.E}{2(m+1)} = \frac{E}{2(1+\mu)}$$

Factor of Safety

It is defined, in general, as the **ratio of the maximum stress to the working stress**.
Mathematically,

$$\text{Factor of safety} = \frac{\text{Maximum stress}}{\text{Working or design stress}}$$

In case of ductile materials *e.g.* mild steel, where the yield point is clearly defined, the factor of safety is based upon the yield point stress. In such cases,

$$\text{Factor of safety} = \frac{\text{Yield point stress}}{\text{Working or design stress}}$$

In case of brittle materials *e.g.* cast iron, the yield point is not well defined as for ductile materials. Therefore, the factor of safety for brittle materials is based on ultimate stress.

$$\text{Factor of safety} = \frac{\text{Ultimate stress}}{\text{Working or design stress}}$$

This relation may also be used for ductile materials.

The above relations for factor of safety are for static loading.

Problem:

A steel bar 2.4 m long and 30 mm square is elongated by a load of 500 kN. If poisson's ratio is 0.25, find the increase in volume. Take $E = 0.2 \times 10^6 \text{ N/mm}^2$.

Solution. Given : $l = 2.4 \text{ m} = 2400 \text{ mm}$; $A = 30 \times 30 = 900 \text{ mm}^2$; $P = 500 \text{ kN} = 500 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$;
 $l/m = 0.25$; $E = 0.2 \times 10^6 \text{ N/mm}^2$

Let $\delta V =$ Increase in volume.

We know that volume of the rod,

$$V = \text{Area} \times \text{length} = 900 \times 2400 = 2160 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$$

and Young's modulus, $E = \frac{\text{Stress}}{\text{Strain}} = \frac{P/A}{\epsilon}$

$$\therefore \epsilon = \frac{P}{A.E} = \frac{500 \times 10^3}{900 \times 0.2 \times 10^6} = 2.8 \times 10^{-3}$$

We know that volumetric strain,

$$\frac{\delta V}{V} = \epsilon \left(1 - \frac{2}{m} \right) = 2.8 \times 10^{-3} (1 - 2 \times 0.25) = 1.4 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$\therefore \delta V = V \times 1.4 \times 10^{-3} = 2160 \times 10^3 \times 1.4 \times 10^{-3} = 3024 \text{ mm}^3 \text{ Ans.}$$