

Stress and Strain – Axial Loading



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Stress & Strain: Axial Loading

- Suitability of a structure or machine may depend on the deformations in the structure as well as the stresses induced under loading. Statics analyses alone are not sufficient.
- Considering structures as deformable allows determination of member forces and reactions which are statically indeterminate.
- Determination of the stress distribution within a member also requires consideration of deformations in the member.
- Chapter 2 is concerned with deformation of a structural member under axial loading. Later chapters will deal with torsional and pure bending loads.



Normal Strain

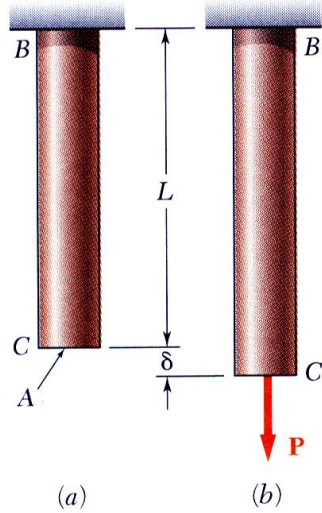


Fig. 2.1

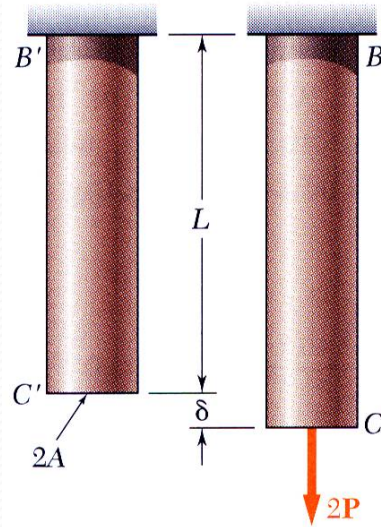


Fig. 2.3

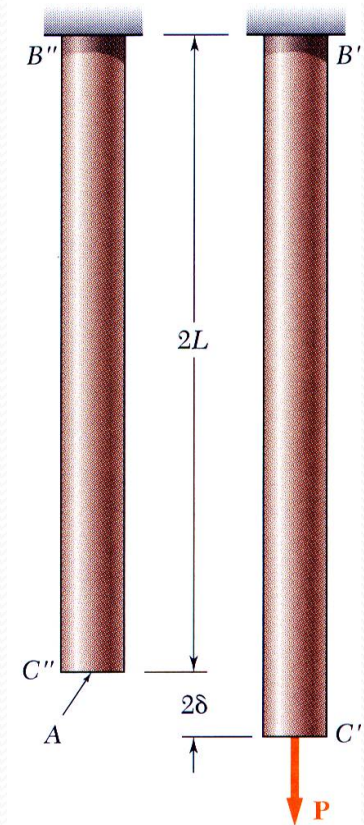


Fig. 2.4

$$\sigma = \frac{P}{A} = \text{stress}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\delta}{L} = \text{normal strain}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{2P}{2A} = \frac{P}{A}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\delta}{L}$$

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

$$\varepsilon = \frac{2\delta}{2L} = \frac{\delta}{L}$$



Stress-Strain Test

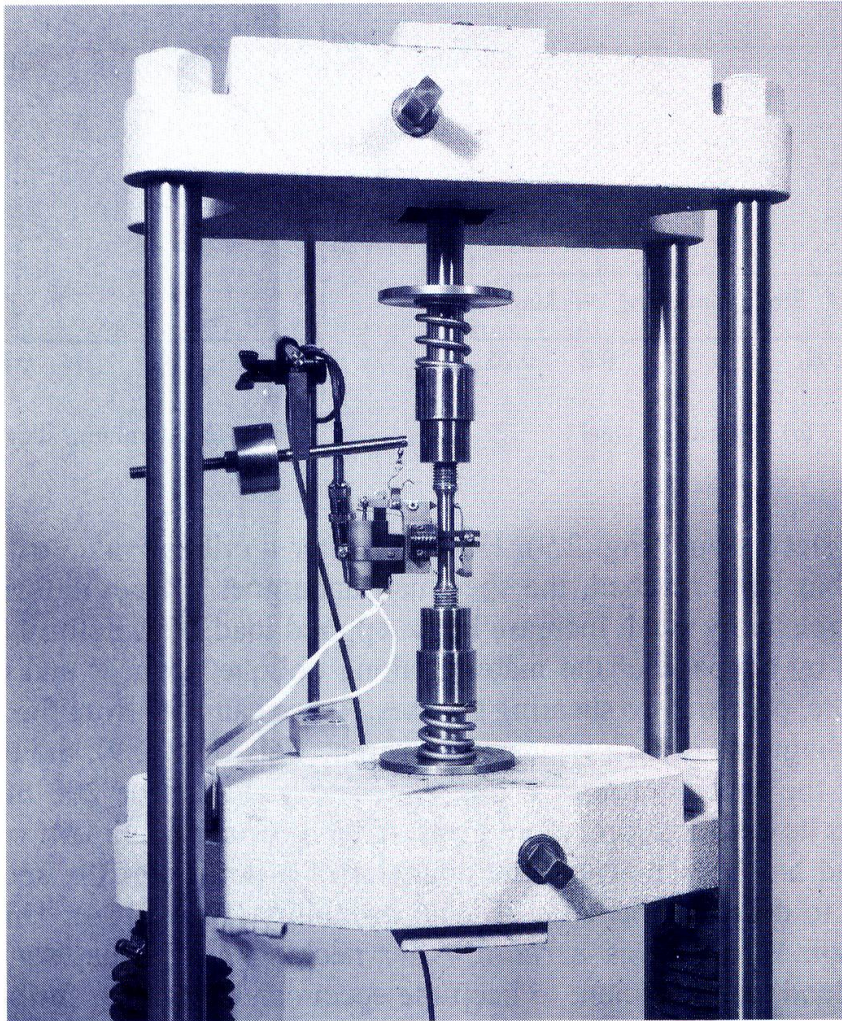


Fig. 2.7 This machine is used to test tensile test specimens, such as those shown in this chapter.

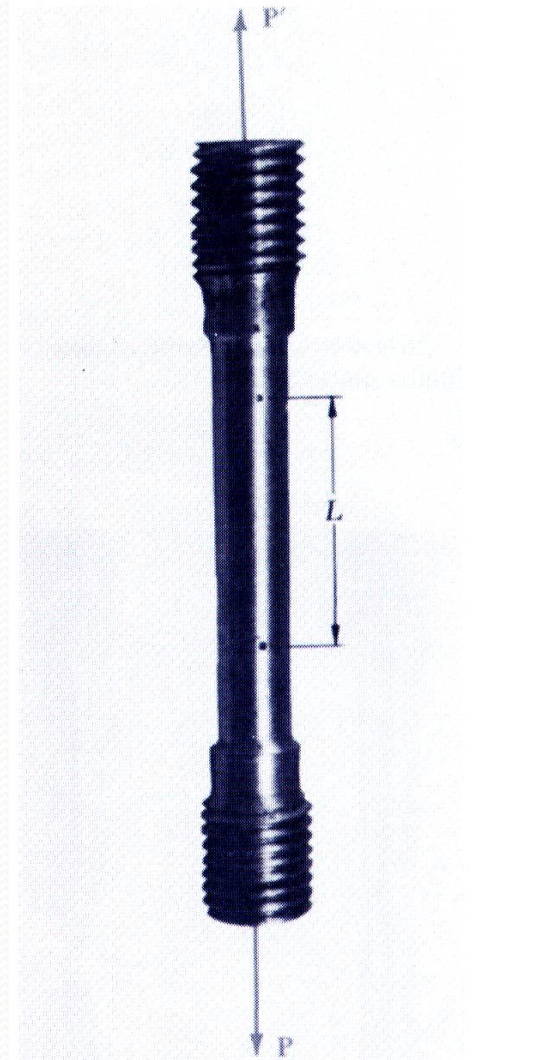
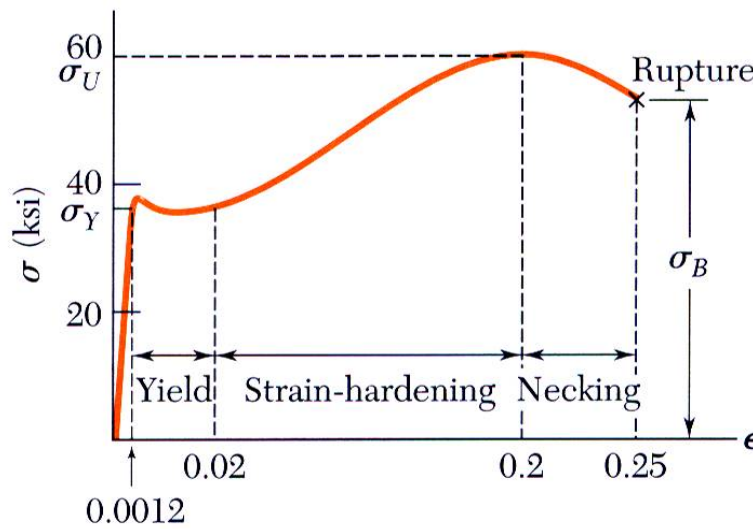
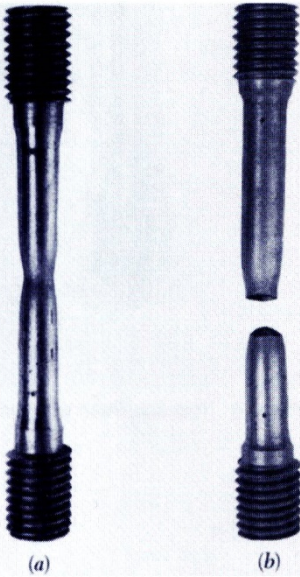


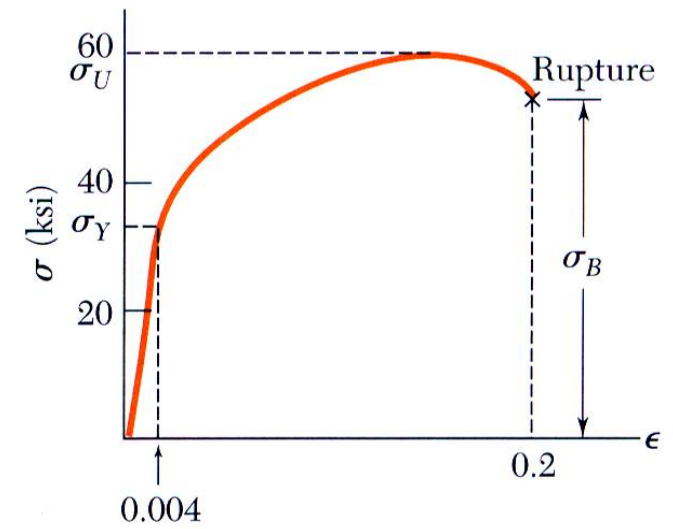
Fig. 2.8 Test specimen with tensile load.



Stress-Strain Diagram: Ductile Materials



(a) Low-carbon steel



(b) Aluminum alloy



Stress-Strain Diagram: Brittle Materials

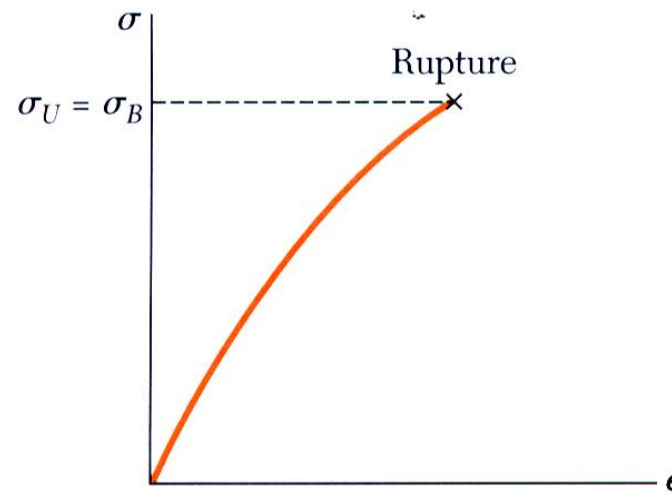
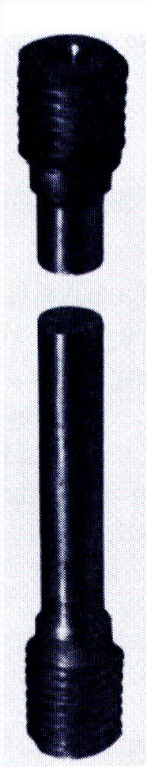


Fig. 2.11 Stress-strain diagram for a typical brittle material.



Hooke's Law: Modulus of Elasticity

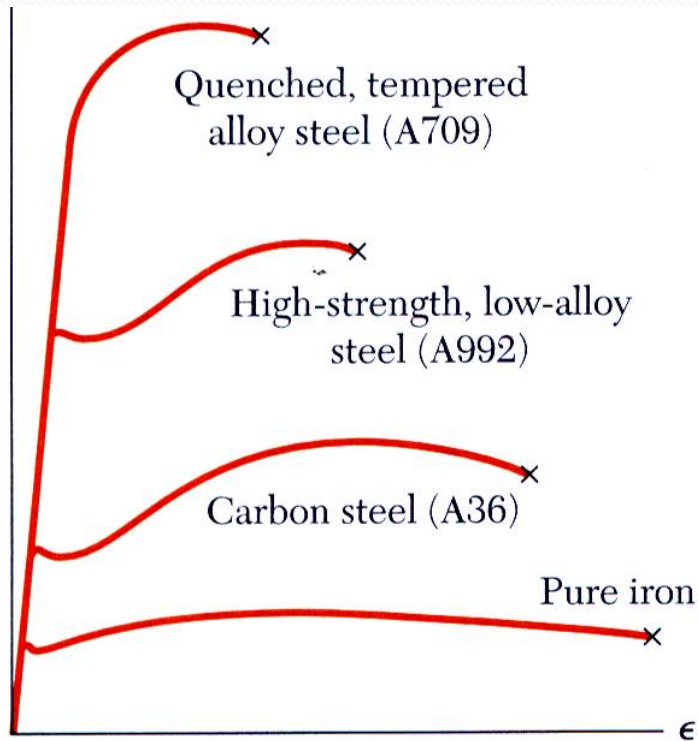


Fig. 2.16 Stress-strain diagrams for iron and different grades of steel.

- Below the yield stress

$$\sigma = E\epsilon$$

E = Young's Modulus or
Modulus of Elasticity

- Strength is affected by alloying, heat treating, and manufacturing process but stiffness (Modulus of Elasticity) is not.



Elastic vs. Plastic Behavior

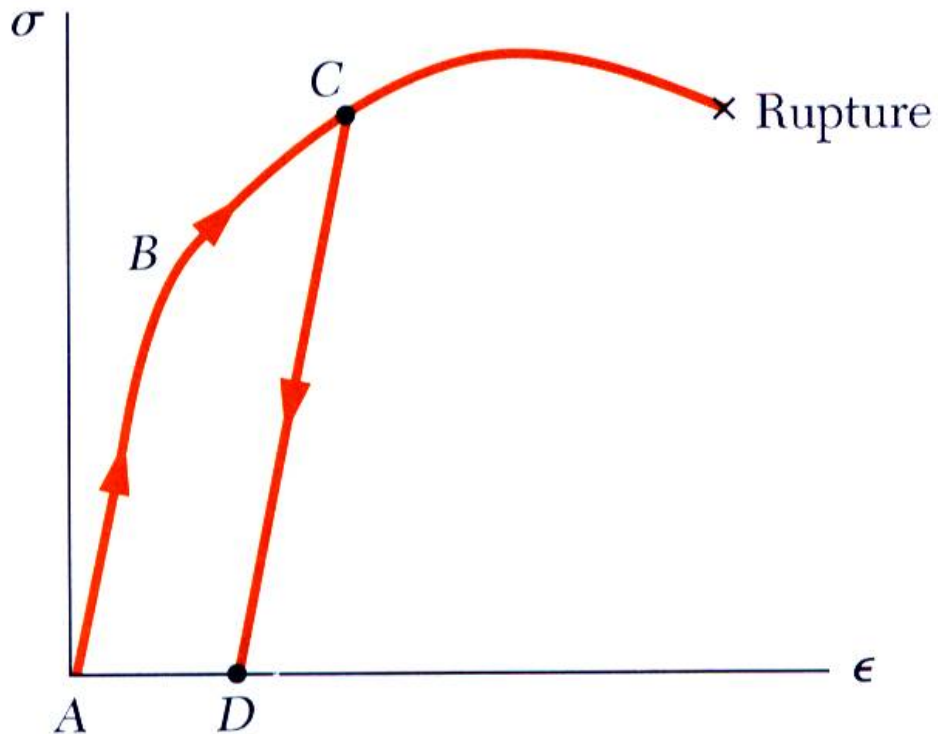


Fig. 2.18

- If the strain disappears when the stress is removed, the material is said to behave *elastically*.
- The largest stress for which this occurs is called the *elastic limit*.
- When the strain does not return to zero after the stress is removed, the material is said to behave *plastically*.



Fatigue

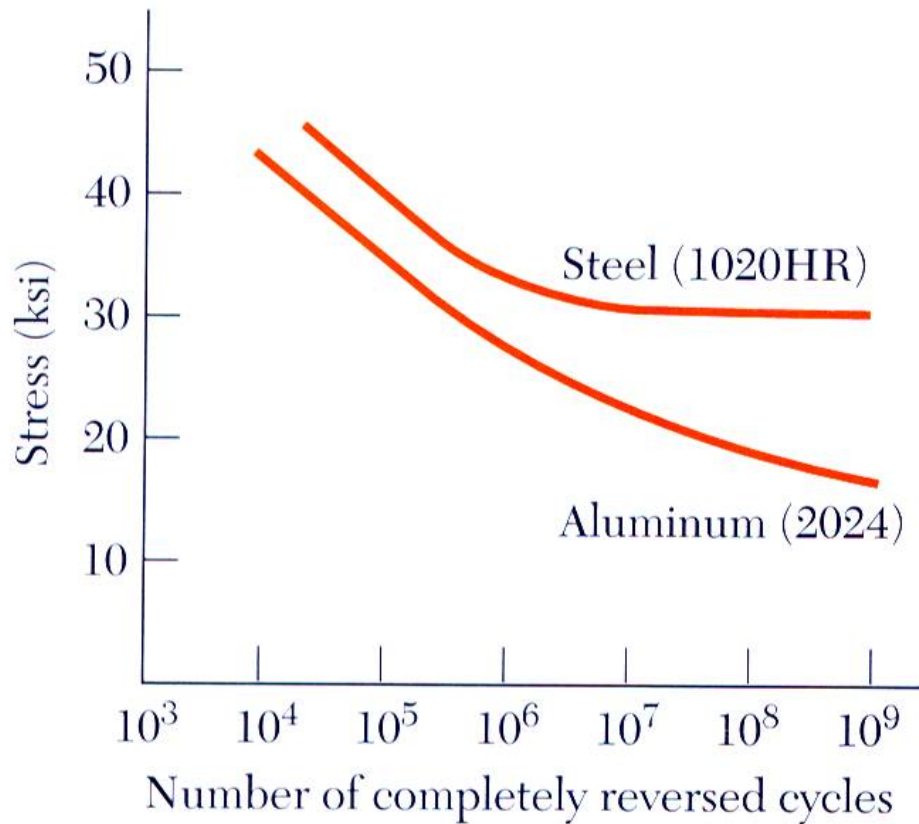


Fig. 2.21

- Fatigue properties are shown on S-N diagrams.
- A member may fail due to *fatigue* at stress levels significantly below the ultimate strength if subjected to many loading cycles.
- When the stress is reduced below the *endurance limit*, fatigue failures do not occur for any number of cycles.



Deformations Under Axial Loading

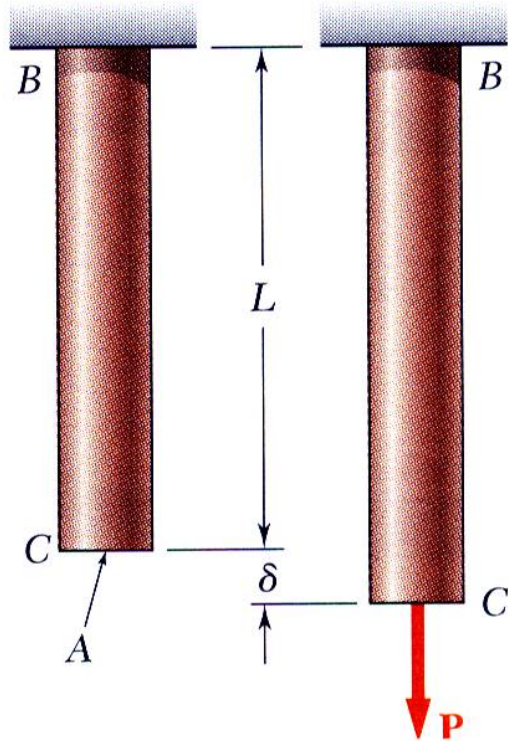


Fig. 2.22

- From Hooke's Law:

$$\sigma = E\varepsilon \quad \varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{P}{AE}$$

- From the definition of strain:

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\delta}{L}$$

- Equating and solving for the deformation,

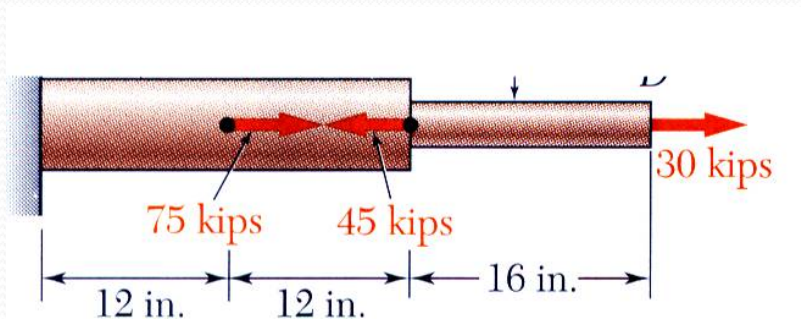
$$\delta = \frac{PL}{AE}$$

- With variations in loading, cross-section or material properties,

$$\delta = \sum_i \frac{P_i L_i}{A_i E_i}$$



Example 2.01



$$E = 29 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$$

$$D = 1.07 \text{ in.} \quad d = 0.618 \text{ in.}$$

Determine the deformation of the steel rod shown under the given loads.

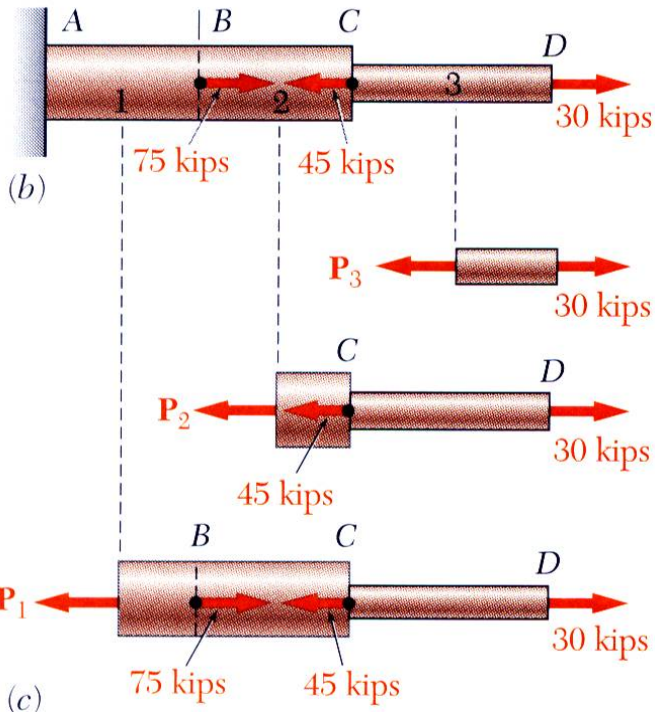


SOLUTION:

- Divide the rod into components at the load application points.
- Apply a free-body analysis on each component to determine the internal force
- Evaluate the total of the component deflections.

SOLUTION:

- Divide the rod into three components:



- Apply free-body analysis to each component to determine internal forces,

$$P_1 = 60 \times 10^3 \text{ lb}$$

$$P_2 = -15 \times 10^3 \text{ lb}$$

$$P_3 = 30 \times 10^3 \text{ lb}$$

- Evaluate total deflection,

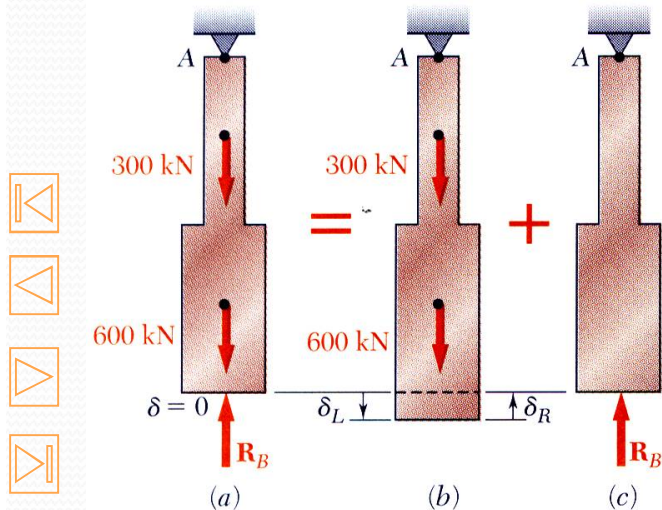
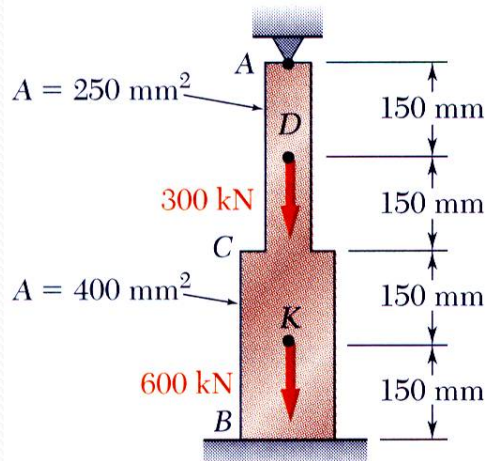
$$\begin{aligned} \delta &= \sum_i \frac{P_i L_i}{A_i E_i} = \frac{1}{E} \left(\frac{P_1 L_1}{A_1} + \frac{P_2 L_2}{A_2} + \frac{P_3 L_3}{A_3} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{29 \times 10^6} \left[\frac{(60 \times 10^3) 12}{0.9} + \frac{(-15 \times 10^3) 12}{0.9} + \frac{(30 \times 10^3) 16}{0.3} \right] \\ &= 75.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ in.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\delta = 75.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ in.}$$

$$L_1 = L_2 = 12 \text{ in.} \quad L_3 = 16 \text{ in.}$$

$$A_1 = A_2 = 0.9 \text{ in}^2 \quad A_3 = 0.3 \text{ in}^2$$

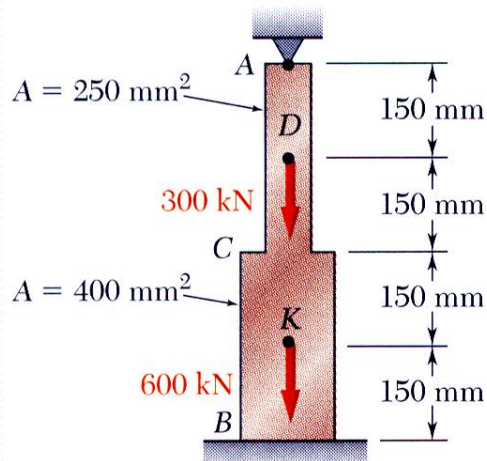
Static Indeterminacy



- Structures for which internal forces and reactions cannot be determined from statics alone are said to be *statically indeterminate*.
- A structure will be statically indeterminate whenever it is held by more supports than are required to maintain its equilibrium.
- Redundant reactions are replaced with unknown loads which along with the other loads must produce compatible deformations.
- Deformations due to actual loads and redundant reactions are determined separately and then added or *superposed*.

$$\delta = \delta_L + \delta_R = 0$$

Example 2.04



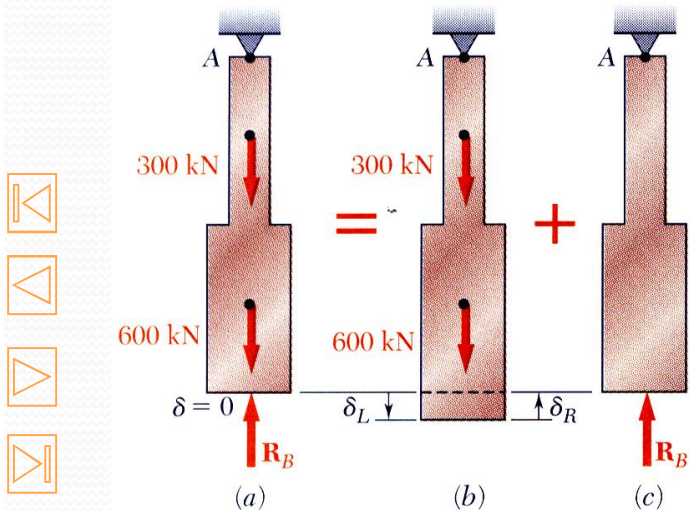
Determine the reactions at A and B for the steel bar and loading shown, assuming a close fit at both supports before the loads are applied.

SOLUTION:

- Consider the reaction at B as redundant, release the bar from that support, and solve for the displacement at B due to the applied loads.

- Solve for the displacement at B due to the redundant reaction at B .
- Require that the displacements due to the loads and due to the redundant reaction be compatible, i.e., require that their sum be zero.

- Solve for the reaction at A due to applied loads and the reaction found at B .



Example 2.04

SOLUTION:

- Solve for the displacement at B due to the applied loads with the redundant constraint released,

$$P_1 = 0 \quad P_2 = P_3 = 600 \times 10^3 \text{ N} \quad P_4 = 900 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$$

$$A_1 = A_2 = 400 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \quad A_3 = A_4 = 250 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2$$

$$L_1 = L_2 = L_3 = L_4 = 0.150 \text{ m}$$

$$\delta_L = \sum_i \frac{P_i L_i}{A_i E_i} = \frac{1.125 \times 10^9}{E}$$

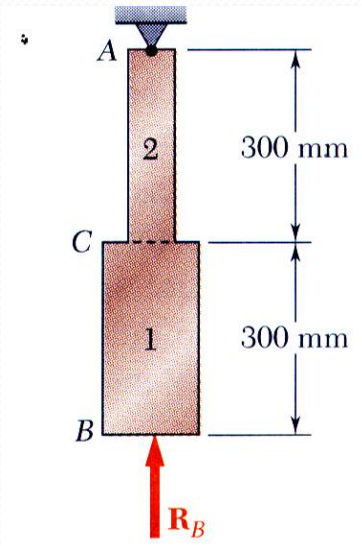
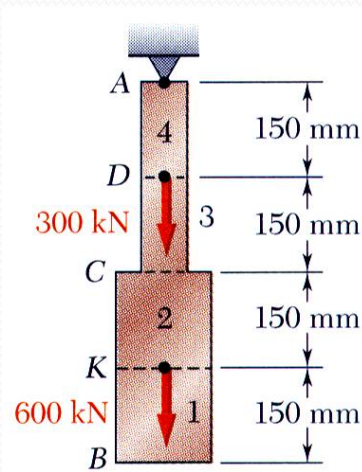
- Solve for the displacement at B due to the redundant constraint,

$$P_1 = P_2 = -R_B$$

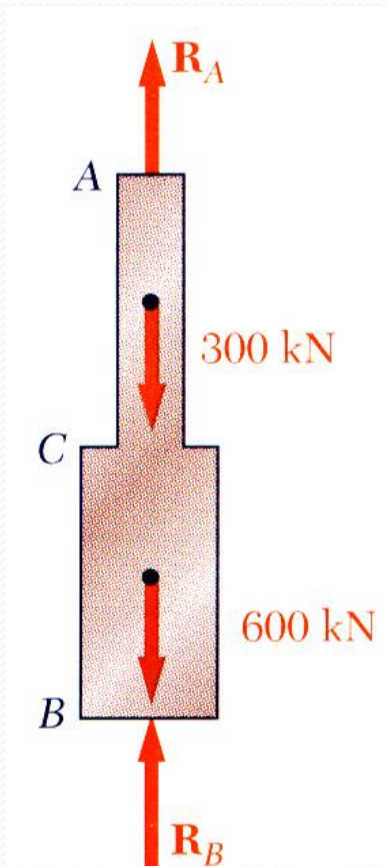
$$A_1 = 400 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \quad A_2 = 250 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2$$

$$L_1 = L_2 = 0.300 \text{ m}$$

$$\delta_R = \sum_i \frac{P_i L_i}{A_i E_i} = -\frac{(1.95 \times 10^3) R_B}{E}$$



Example 2.04



- Require that the displacements due to the loads and due to the redundant reaction be compatible,

$$\delta = \delta_L + \delta_R = 0$$

$$\delta = \frac{1.125 \times 10^9}{E} - \frac{(1.95 \times 10^3) R_B}{E} = 0$$

$$R_B = 577 \times 10^3 \text{ N} = 577 \text{ kN}$$

- Find the reaction at A due to the loads and the reaction at B

$$\sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 300 \text{ kN} - 600 \text{ kN} + 577 \text{ kN}$$

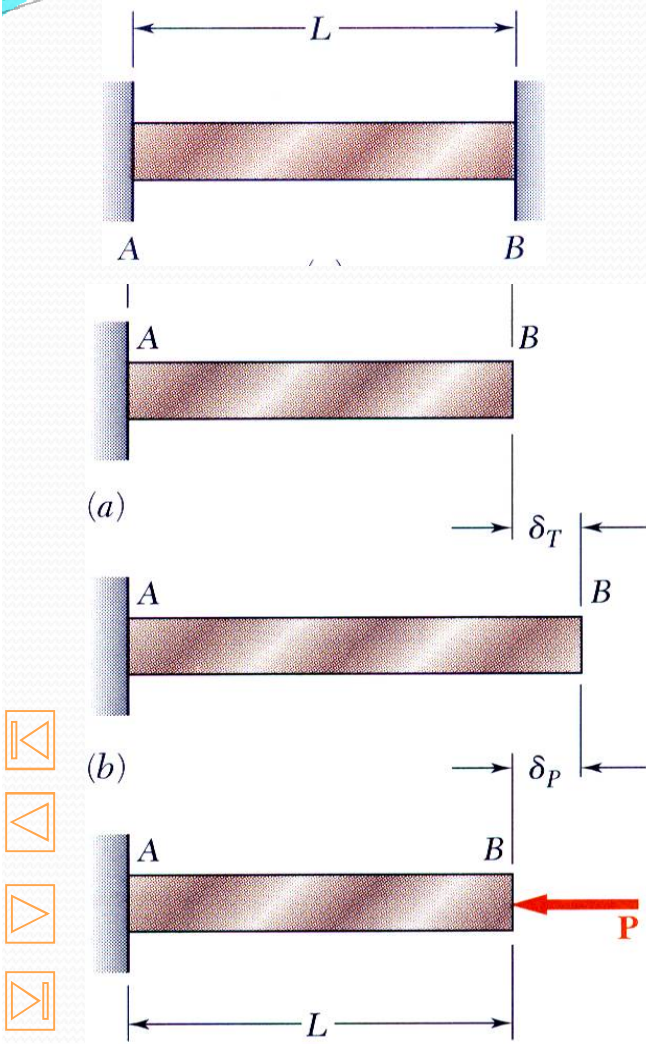
$$R_A = 323 \text{ kN}$$

$$R_A = 323 \text{ kN}$$

$$R_B = 577 \text{ kN}$$



Thermal Stresses



- A temperature change results in a change in length or *thermal strain*. There is no stress associated with the thermal strain unless the elongation is restrained by the supports.

- Treat the additional support as redundant and apply the principle of superposition.

$$\delta_T = \alpha(\Delta T)L$$

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

α = thermal expansion coef.

- The thermal deformation and the deformation from the redundant support must be compatible.

$$\delta = \delta_T + \delta_P = 0$$

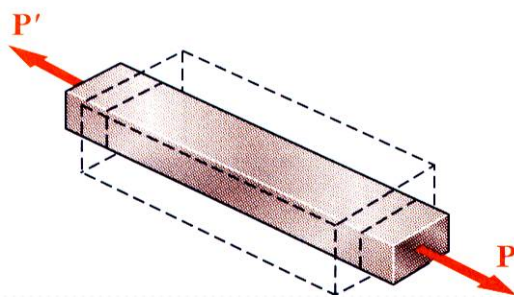
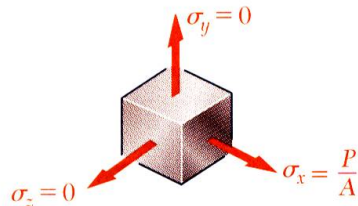
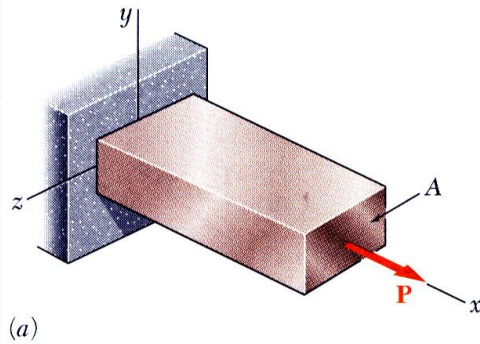
$$\delta = \delta_T + \delta_P = 0$$

$$\alpha(\Delta T)L + \frac{PL}{AE} = 0$$

$$P = -AE\alpha(\Delta T)$$

$$\sigma = \frac{P}{A} = -E\alpha(\Delta T)$$

Poisson's Ratio



- For a slender bar subjected to axial loading:

$$\epsilon_x = \frac{\sigma_x}{E} \quad \sigma_y = \sigma_z = 0$$

- The elongation in the x-direction is accompanied by a contraction in the other directions. Assuming that the material is isotropic (no directional dependence),

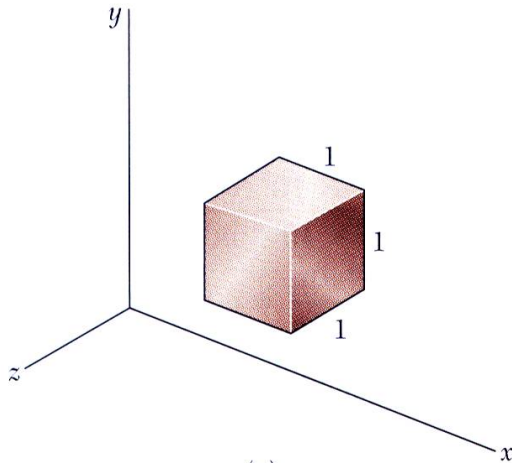
$$\epsilon_y = \epsilon_z \neq 0$$

- Poisson's ratio is defined as

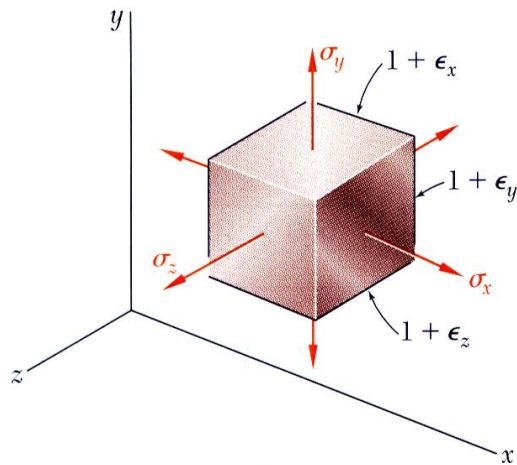
$$\nu = \left| \frac{\text{lateral strain}}{\text{axial strain}} \right| = -\frac{\epsilon_y}{\epsilon_x} = -\frac{\epsilon_z}{\epsilon_x}$$



Generalized Hooke's Law



(a)



(b)

- For an element subjected to multi-axial loading, the normal strain components resulting from the stress components may be determined from the *principle of superposition*. This requires:

- 1) strain is linearly related to stress
- 2) deformations are small

- With these restrictions:

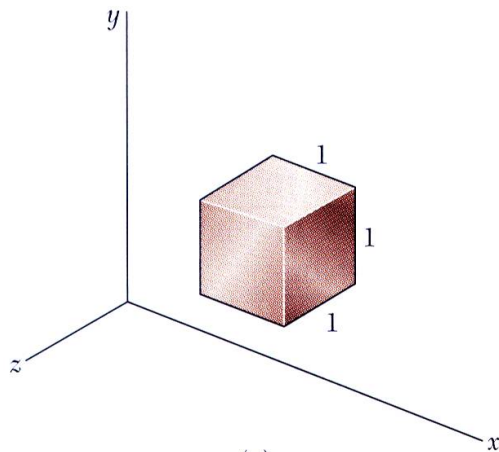
$$\epsilon_x = +\frac{\sigma_x}{E} - \frac{\nu\sigma_y}{E} - \frac{\nu\sigma_z}{E}$$

$$\epsilon_y = -\frac{\nu\sigma_x}{E} + \frac{\sigma_y}{E} - \frac{\nu\sigma_z}{E}$$

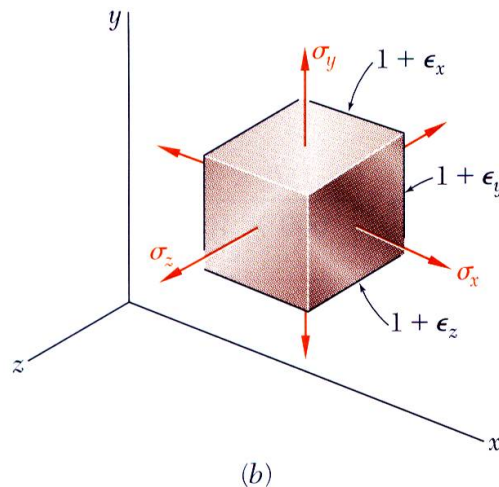
$$\epsilon_z = -\frac{\nu\sigma_x}{E} - \frac{\nu\sigma_y}{E} + \frac{\sigma_z}{E}$$



Dilatation: Bulk Modulus



(a)



(b)

- Relative to the unstressed state, the change in volume is

$$e = 1 - [(1 + \epsilon_x)(1 + \epsilon_y)(1 + \epsilon_z)] = 1 - [1 + \epsilon_x + \epsilon_y + \epsilon_z]$$

$$= \epsilon_x + \epsilon_y + \epsilon_z$$

$$= \frac{1 - 2\nu}{E} (\sigma_x + \sigma_y + \sigma_z)$$

= dilatation (change in volume per unit volume)

- For element subjected to uniform hydrostatic pressure,

$$e = -p \frac{3(1 - 2\nu)}{E} = -\frac{p}{k}$$

$$k = \frac{E}{3(1 - 2\nu)} = \text{bulk modulus}$$

- Subjected to uniform pressure, dilatation must be negative, therefore

$$0 < \nu < \frac{1}{2}$$



Shearing Strain

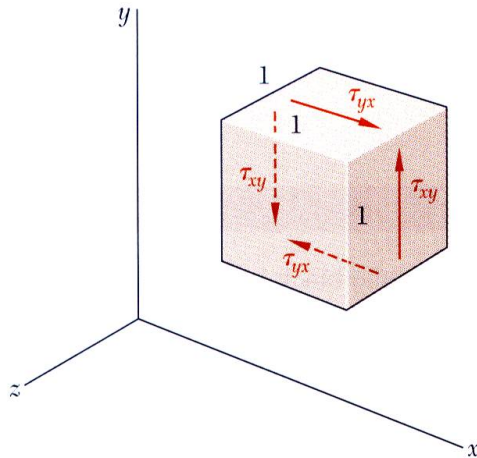


Fig. 2.46

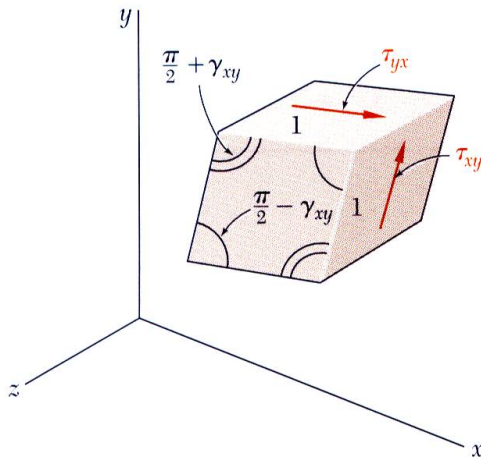


Fig. 2.47

- A cubic element subjected to a shear stress will deform into a rhomboid. The corresponding *shear* strain is quantified in terms of the change in angle between the sides,

$$\tau_{xy} = f(\gamma_{xy})$$

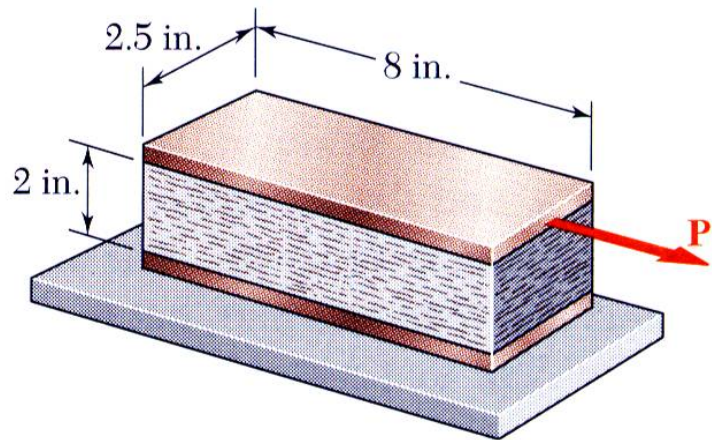
- A plot of shear stress vs. shear strain is similar the previous plots of normal stress vs. normal strain except that the strength values are approximately half. For small strains,

$$\tau_{xy} = G\gamma_{xy} \quad \tau_{yz} = G\gamma_{yz} \quad \tau_{zx} = G\gamma_{zx}$$

where G is the modulus of rigidity or shear modulus.



Example 2.10



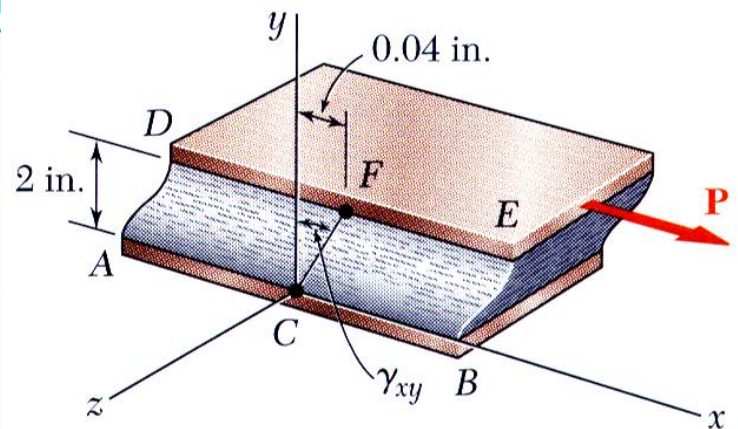
A rectangular block of material with modulus of rigidity $G = 90$ ksi is bonded to two rigid horizontal plates.

The lower plate is fixed, while the upper plate is subjected to a horizontal force P . Knowing that the upper plate moves through 0.04 in. under the action of the force, determine a) the average shearing strain in the material, and b) the force P exerted on the plate.

SOLUTION:

- Determine the average angular deformation or shearing strain of the block.
- Apply Hooke's law for shearing stress and strain to find the corresponding shearing stress.
- Use the definition of shearing stress to find the force P .





- Determine the average angular deformation or shearing strain of the block.

$$\gamma_{xy} \approx \tan \gamma_{xy} = \frac{0.04 \text{ in.}}{2 \text{ in.}} \quad \gamma_{xy} = 0.020 \text{ rad}$$

- Apply Hooke's law for shearing stress and strain to find the corresponding shearing stress.

$$\tau_{xy} = G\gamma_{xy} = (90 \times 10^3 \text{ psi})(0.020 \text{ rad}) = 1800 \text{ psi}$$

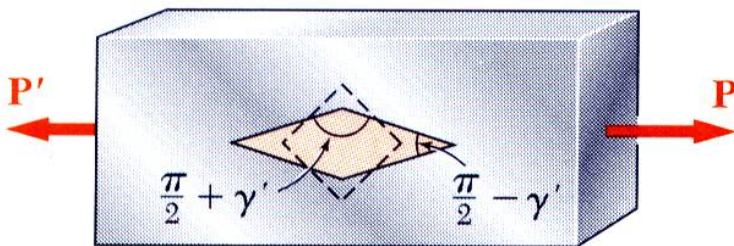
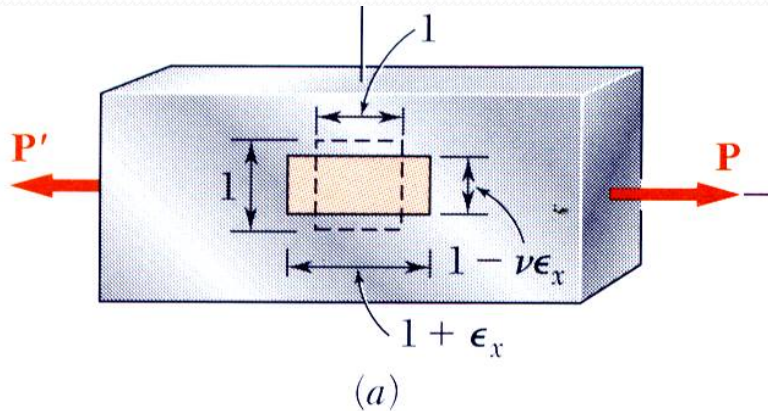
- Use the definition of shearing stress to find the force P .

$$P = \tau_{xy}A = (1800 \text{ psi})(8 \text{ in.})(2.5 \text{ in.}) = 36 \times 10^3 \text{ lb}$$

$$P = 36.0 \text{ kips}$$



Relation Among E , ν , and G

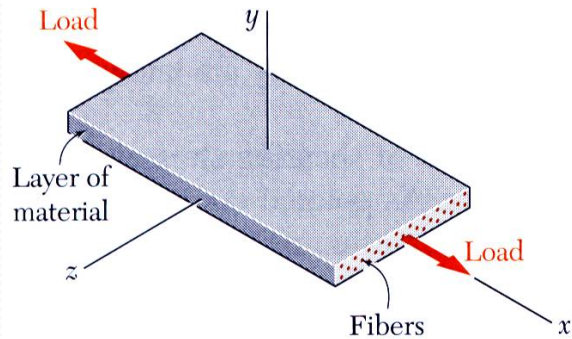


- An axially loaded slender bar will elongate in the axial direction and contract in the transverse directions.
- An initially cubic element oriented as in top figure will deform into a rectangular parallelepiped. The axial load produces a normal strain.
- If the cubic element is oriented as in the bottom figure, it will deform into a rhombus. Axial load also results in a shear strain.
- Components of normal and shear strain are related,

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

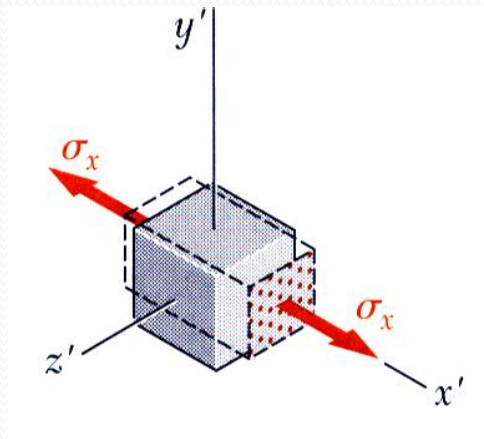


Composite Materials



- *Fiber-reinforced composite materials* are formed from *lamina* of fibers of graphite, glass, or polymers embedded in a resin matrix.
- Normal stresses and strains are related by Hooke's Law but with directionally dependent moduli of elasticity,

$$E_x = \frac{\sigma_x}{\varepsilon_x} \quad E_y = \frac{\sigma_y}{\varepsilon_y} \quad E_z = \frac{\sigma_z}{\varepsilon_z}$$



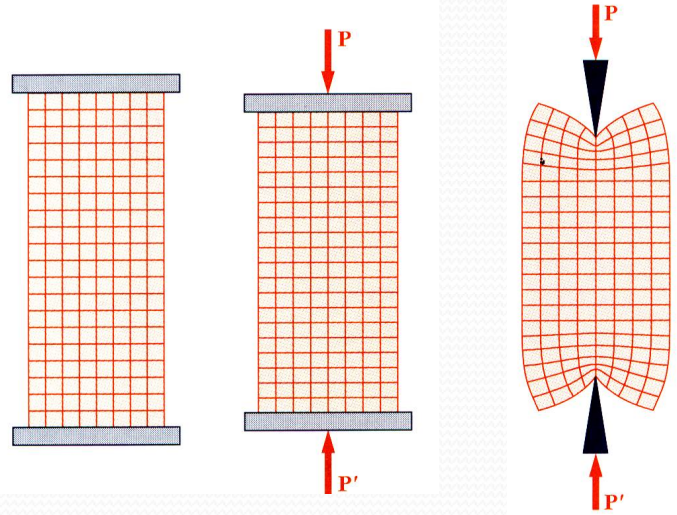
- Transverse contractions are related by directionally dependent values of Poisson's ratio, e.g.,

$$\nu_{xy} = -\frac{\varepsilon_y}{\varepsilon_x} \quad \nu_{xz} = -\frac{\varepsilon_z}{\varepsilon_x}$$

- Materials with directionally dependent mechanical properties are *anisotropic*.



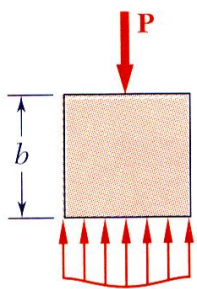
Saint-Venant's Principle



- Loads transmitted through rigid plates result in uniform distribution of stress and strain.

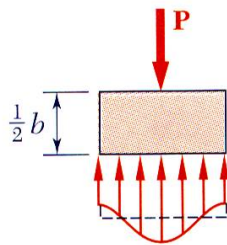
- Concentrated loads result in large stresses in the vicinity of the load application point.

- Stress and strain distributions become uniform at a relatively short distance from the load application points.



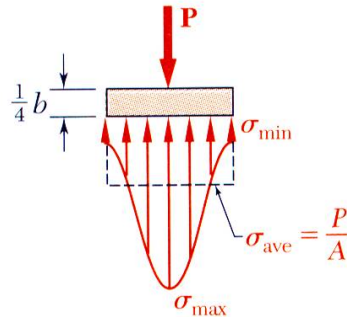
$$\sigma_{\min} = 0.973\sigma_{\text{ave}}$$

$$\sigma_{\max} = 1.027\sigma_{\text{ave}}$$



$$\sigma_{\min} = 0.668\sigma_{\text{ave}}$$

$$\sigma_{\max} = 1.387\sigma_{\text{ave}}$$

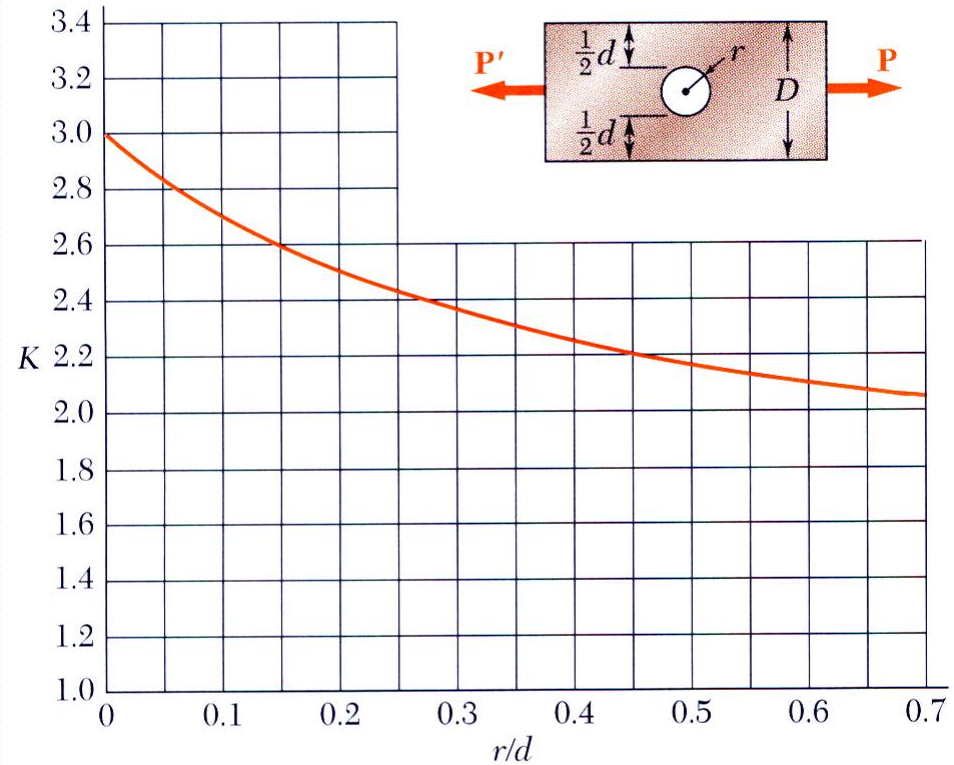
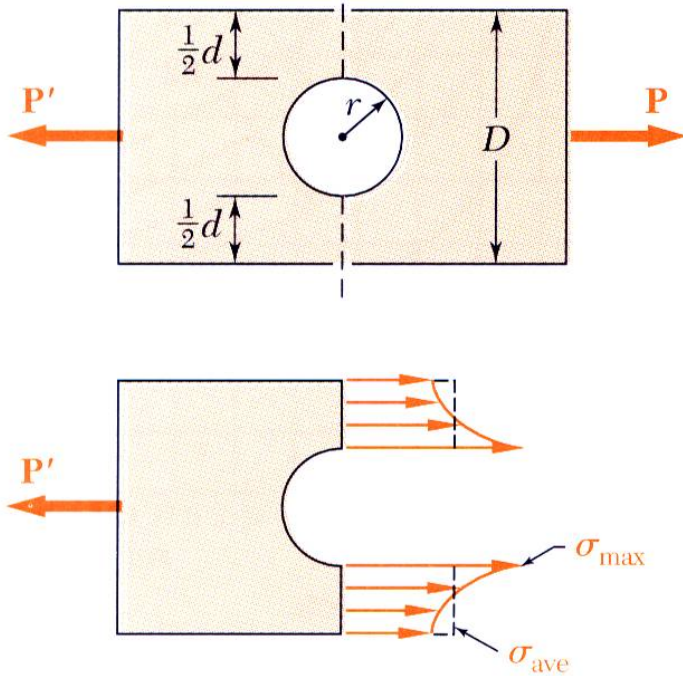


$$\sigma_{\min} = 0.198\sigma_{\text{ave}}$$

$$\sigma_{\max} = 2.575\sigma_{\text{ave}}$$

- **Saint-Venant's Principle:** Stress distribution may be assumed independent of the mode of load application except in the immediate vicinity of load application points.

Stress Concentration: Hole

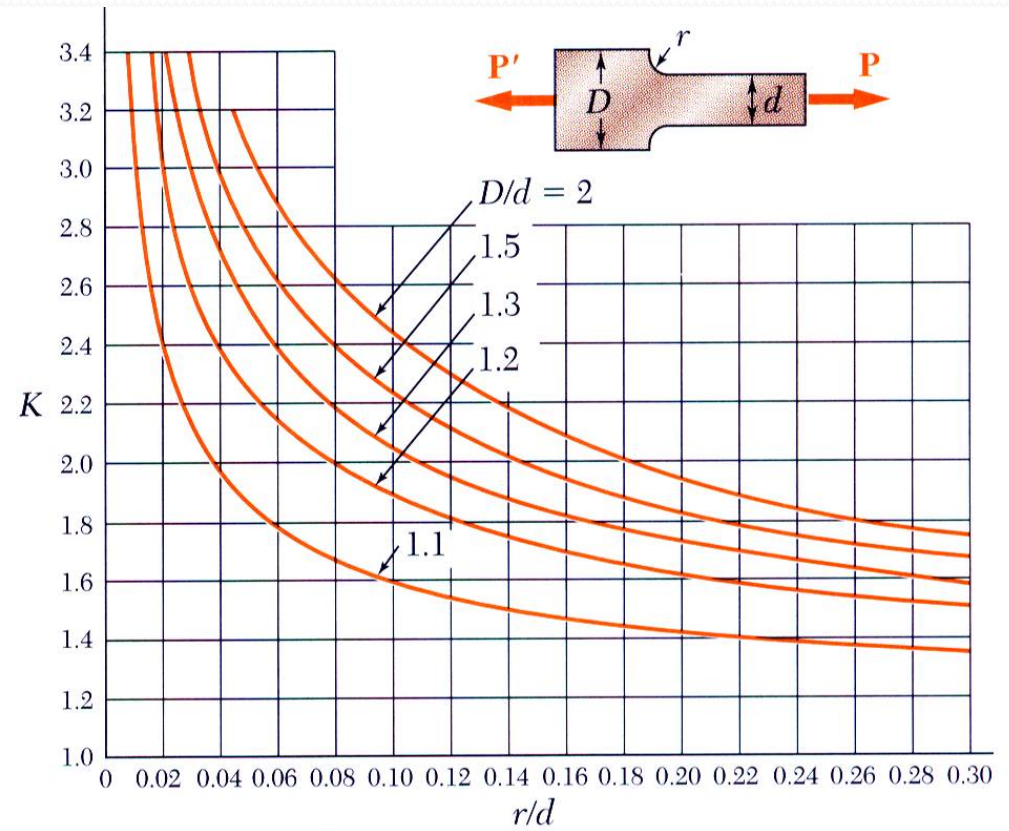
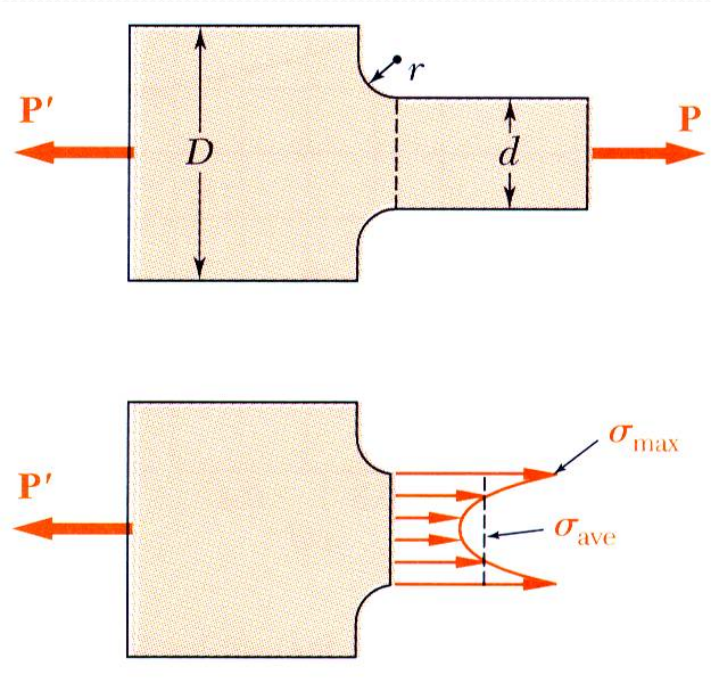


(a) Flat bars with holes

Discontinuities of cross section may result in high localized or *concentrated* stresses.

$$K = \frac{\sigma_{\max}}{\sigma_{\text{ave}}}$$

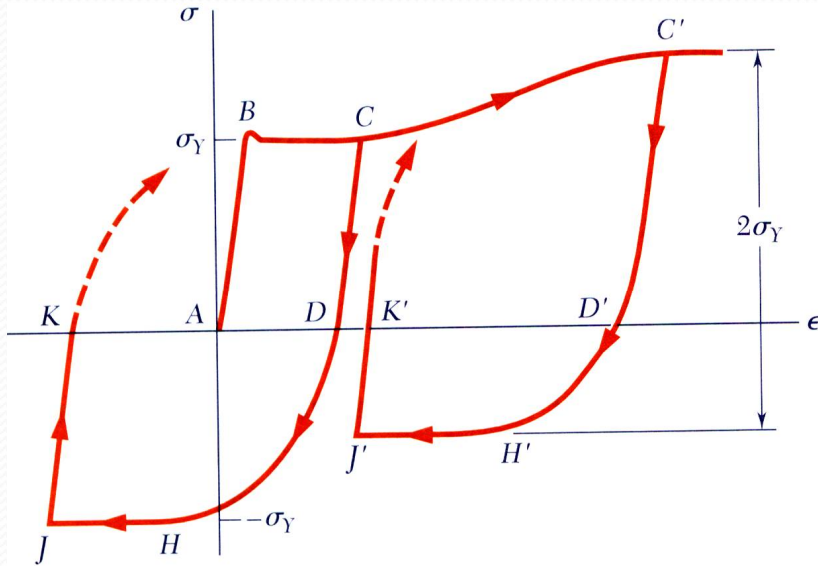
Stress Concentration: Fillet



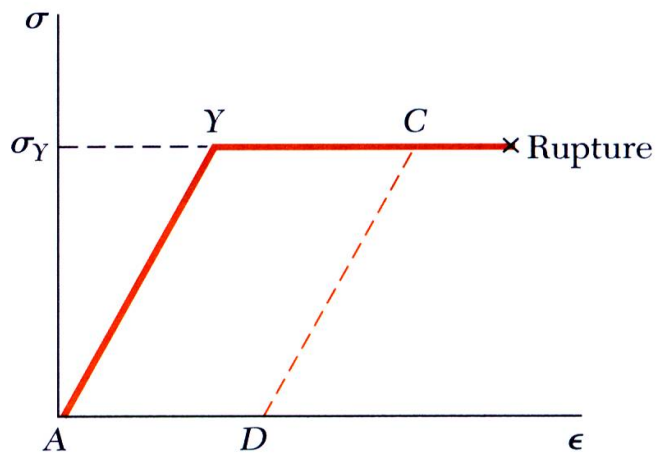
(b) Flat bars with fillets



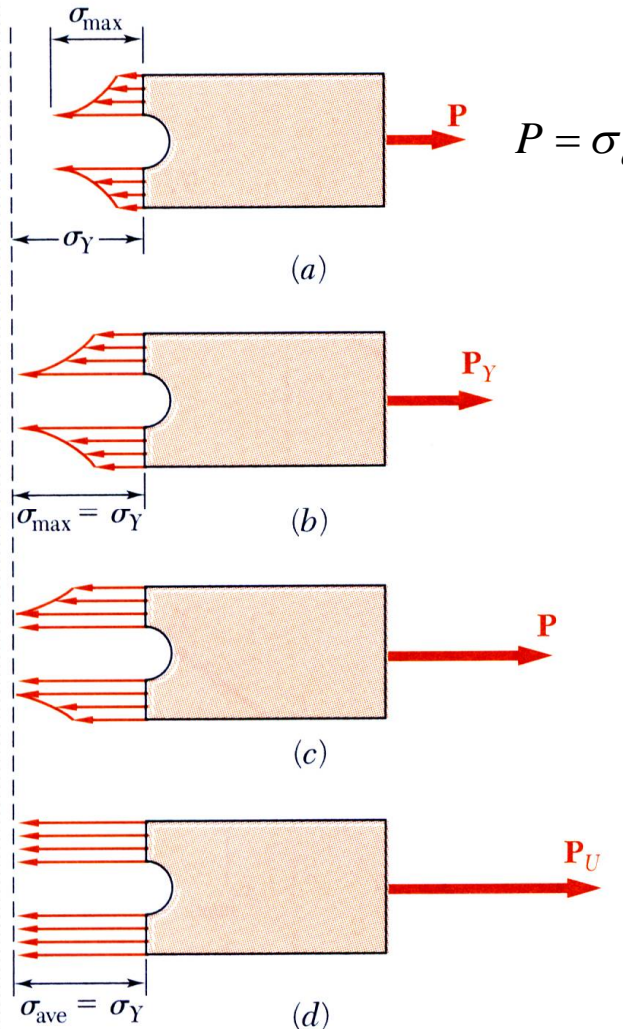
Elastoplastic Materials



- Previous analyses based on assumption of linear stress-strain relationship, i.e., stresses below the yield stress
- Assumption is good for brittle material which rupture without yielding
- If the yield stress of ductile materials is exceeded, then plastic deformations occur
- Analysis of plastic deformations is simplified by assuming an idealized *elastoplastic material*
- Deformations of an elastoplastic material are divided into elastic and plastic ranges
- Permanent deformations result from loading beyond the yield stress



Plastic Deformations



$$P = \sigma_{ave} A = \frac{\sigma_{max} A}{K}$$

$$P_Y = \frac{\sigma_Y A}{K}$$

$$P_U = \sigma_Y A = K P_Y$$

- Elastic deformation while maximum stress is less than yield stress
- Maximum stress is equal to the yield stress at the maximum elastic loading
- At loadings above the maximum elastic load, a region of plastic deformations develop near the hole
- As the loading increases, the plastic region expands until the section is at a uniform stress equal to the yield stress



Residual Stresses

- When a single structural element is loaded uniformly beyond its yield stress and then unloaded, it is permanently deformed but all stresses disappear. This is not the general result.
- *Residual stresses* will remain in a structure after loading and unloading if
 - only part of the structure undergoes plastic deformation
 - different parts of the structure undergo different plastic deformations
- Residual stresses also result from the uneven heating or cooling of structures or structural elements

