

GOVERNMENT POLYTECHNIC, NAYAGARH

STRENGTH OF MATERIALS

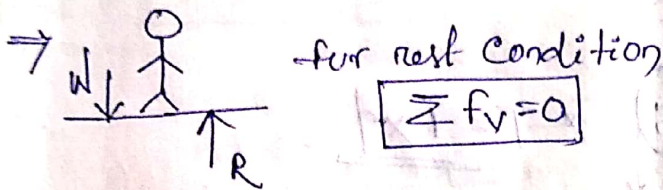
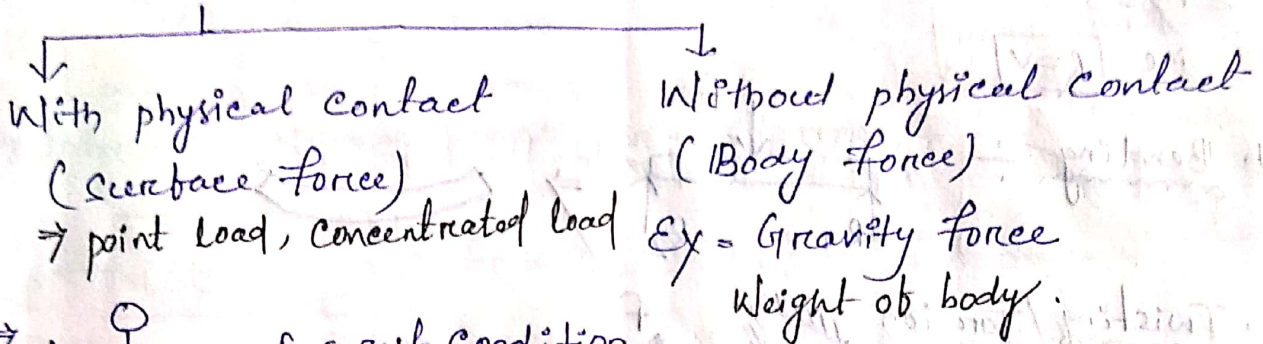
3 RD SEMESTER, MECHANICAL ENGG.

PREPARED BY- RAMYA RASHMI ROUT

* Strength of Materials [Crash Course]

We study about real solids (1) Effect of External force
(2) Effect of mechanical Energy of bodies at rest / stationary.

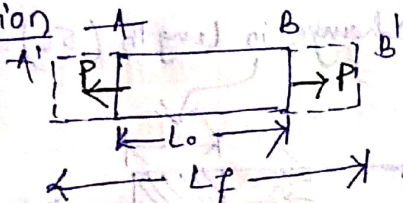
→ External forces



→ LOAD: External force which is acting on a body. force can change shape, size and state of motion. change in shape & size → Deformation.

→ Condition of static equilibrium is $\Sigma F_x = 0, \Sigma F_y = 0, \Sigma F_z = 0$
 $\Sigma M_x = 0, \Sigma M_y = 0, \Sigma M_z = 0$

1. Elongation

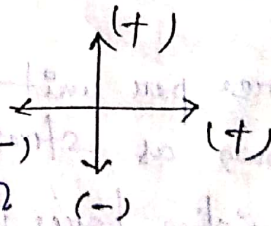


force is moving away from the surface force will stress the body.

here $\Sigma F_x = 0$, Body is at rest.

$P = P = 0$, so it is in static equilibrium

$L_f - L_0 =$ change in length size is increased.



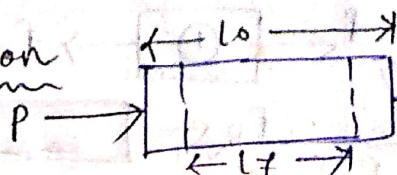
CW (+)
CCW (-)

(sign convention)

These forces are called tensile force (Effect of elongation)

→ ST/STR

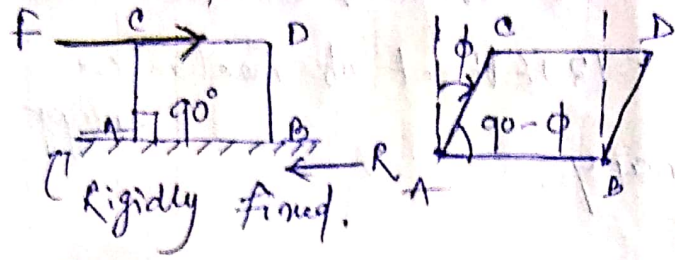
2. Contraction



(force is towards the surface)

These forces are called Compressive forces

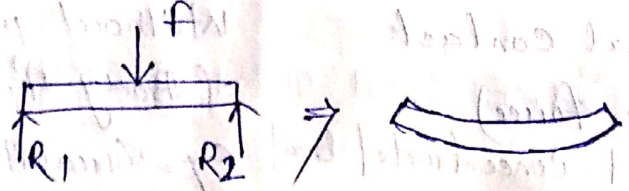
3. Shear/cutting / ~~bx~~ Tangential Force



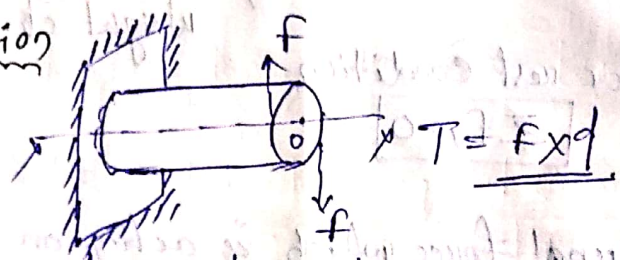
The force which change the shape called shear force

$\Sigma F_x = 0$
i.e. $R = V$

4. Bending



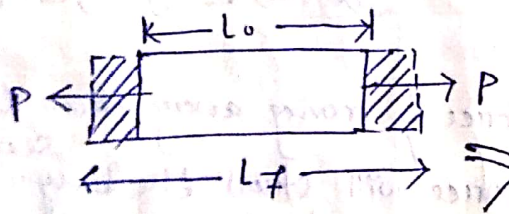
5. Twisting / Torsion



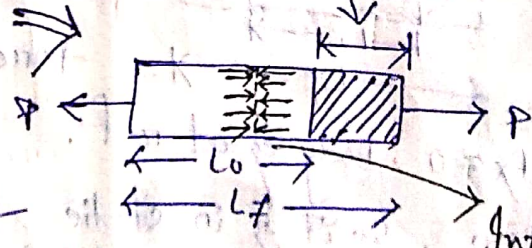
Strength of material is study of three S

- (i) Strength
- (ii) stiffness
- (iii) stability

* Stress & Strain



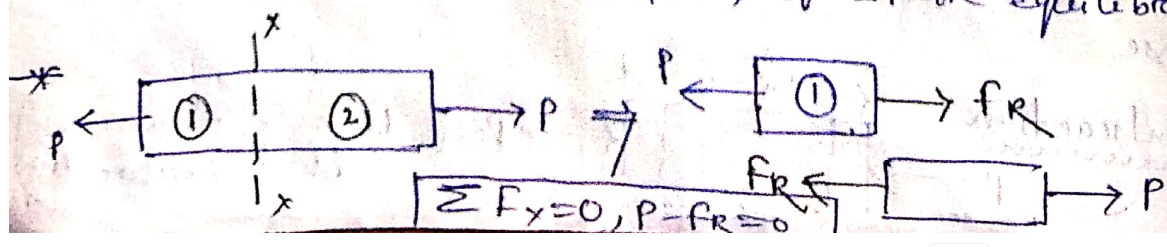
change in length $(\delta L) = L_f - L_0$



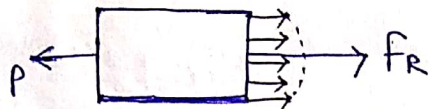
Resisting force per unit area is known as stress

To find resisting force we use method of section, Internal resisting force.

in this method we virtually cut the member so that it will follow condition of static equilibrium.



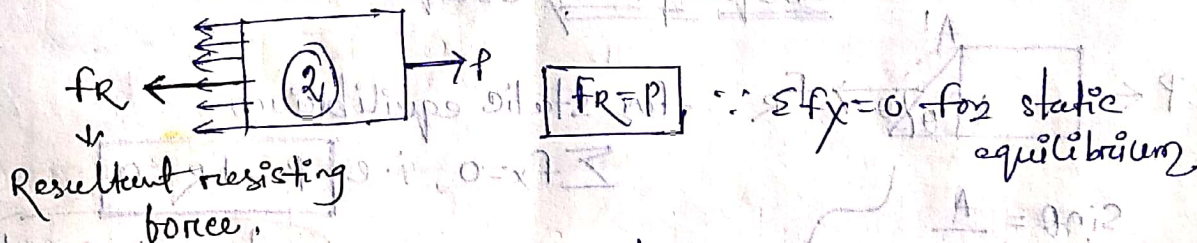
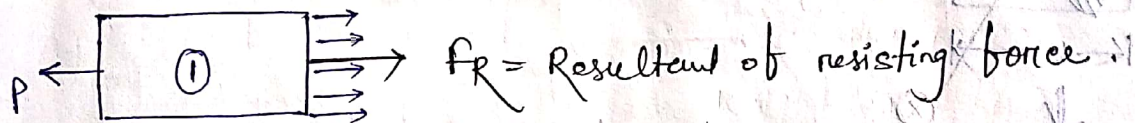
magnitude of resisting force is equal to the external force.



Average stress / Engineering stress := Resisting force per unit Original area

$$\sigma_{avg} = \frac{\text{Resisting force}}{\text{Original area}}$$

→ Internal resisting force per unit area is called stress.

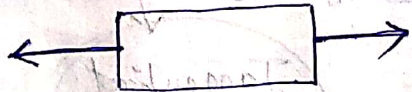


→ Engineering stress = $\frac{\text{Resisting force}}{\text{Original area}}$

* Strain

Engineering strain

Real solids (Deformable) / Resistant body.



Real Solids (Deformable)

↓ Resistant body

These bodies will transfer force will giving some noticeable deformation

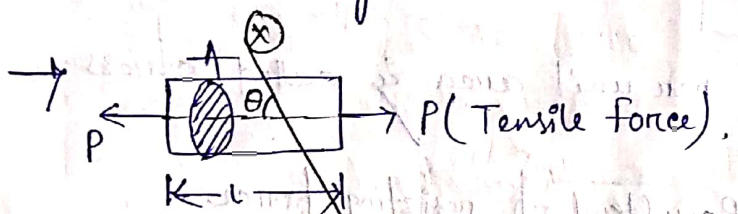
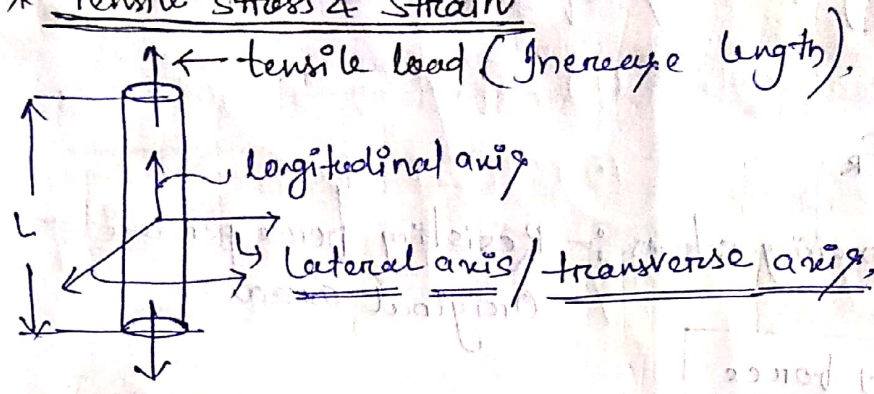
This body will transfer force will giving some noticeable deformation.

Strain (Engg. strain) → measure of deformation.

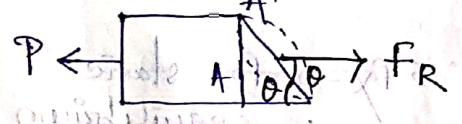
Strain is defined as deformation per unit original dimension.

$$\text{Strain} = \frac{\text{Deformation (Final dimension - Original dimension)}}{\text{Original dimension}}$$

* Tensile Stress & Strain



Oblique plane / Oblique section,

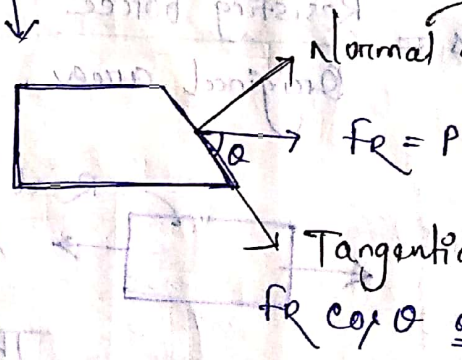


for static equilibrium

$$\sum f_x = 0, \text{ i.e. } P - f_R = 0$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{A}{A'}$$

$$A' = \frac{A}{\sin \theta}$$



Normal Resisting force, $f_R \sin \theta$ or $P \sin \theta$

Tangential direction $f_R \cos \theta$ or $P \cos \theta$

Tangential Resisting force

Normal stress (σ_n)

$$\sigma_n = \frac{\text{Normal resisting force}}{\text{Area carrying normal force}}$$

$$= \frac{P \sin \theta}{\frac{A}{\sin \theta}} = \left(\frac{P}{A}\right) \sin^2 \theta$$

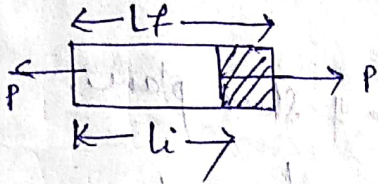
P = force in longitudinal direction

Normal stress on cross-sectional plane (A)

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

Resisting force.

* tensile stress is one type of longitudinal stress / Normal stress on cross-sectional plane



Tensile stress

$$\sigma = \frac{P}{A} (+) \because \text{length is increased}$$

Tensile strain (Longitudinal strain).

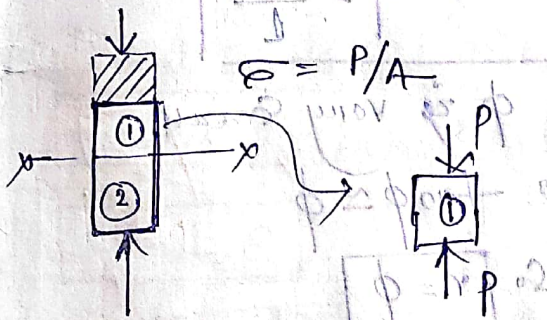
$$\epsilon = \frac{\text{Deformation}}{\text{Original Dimension}}$$

$$= \frac{L_f - L_i}{L_i}$$

$$= \frac{\Delta L}{L_i} \rightarrow \text{change in length}$$

$$L_i \rightarrow \text{Original length.}$$

* Compressive stress and strain



$$\sigma = P/A$$

$$\sigma = \frac{P}{A} \text{ (Compressive)}$$

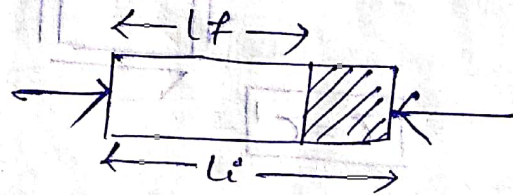
$$= \frac{P}{A} (-)$$

strain (compressive) [Longitudinal strain]

$$\epsilon = \frac{\text{Deformation}}{\text{Original Dimension}}$$

$$= \frac{\Delta L}{L} (-) (L_f < L_i)$$

\Rightarrow Negative



* Normal stress

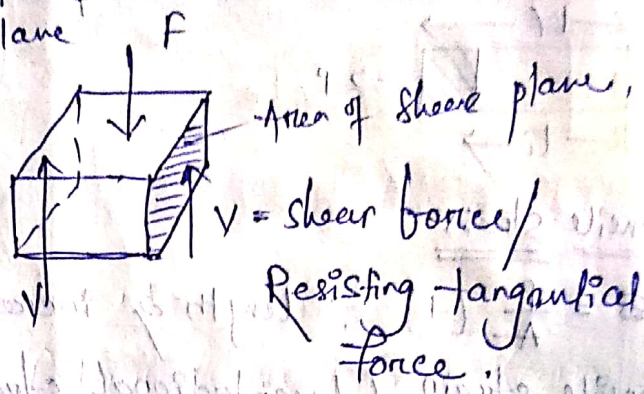
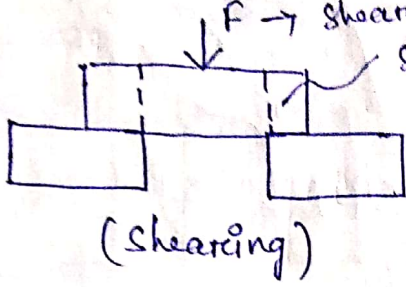
↓

Longitudinal stress

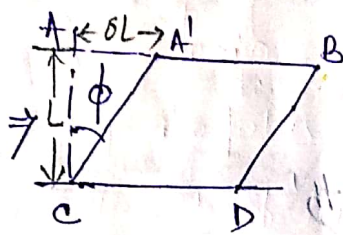
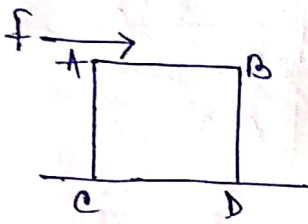
← Tensile

→ Compressive

→ Shear stress & Strain



$\tau = \frac{\text{Resisting shear force}}{\text{Area under shear}}$



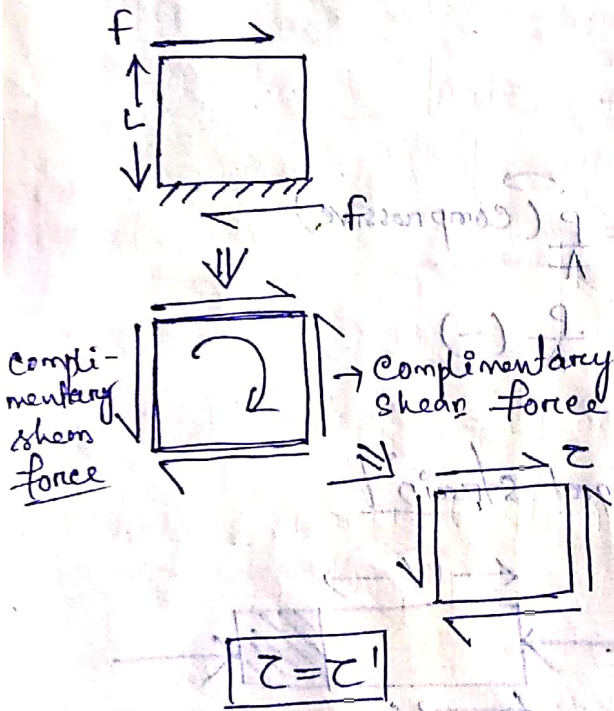
$\tan \phi = \frac{\delta L}{L}$ → slip

→ Shear strain (γ)

$\gamma = \tan \phi = \frac{\delta L}{L}$

* If ϕ is very small then $\tan \phi \approx \phi$

So $\gamma = \phi$



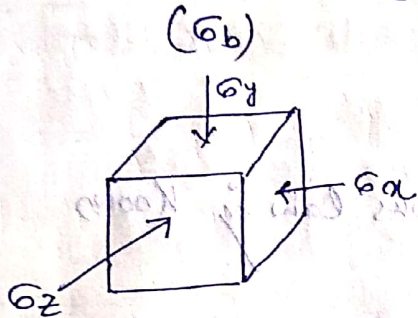
material which resist deformation, for solids

* Hooke's Law: → (for Elastic materials)

1. material is homogeneous & isotropic
2. load is applied gradually
3. There is no stress concentration.
4. Temperature is constant during loading

Stress & Strain

- Normal stress (σ_n) & Normal strain (ϵ_n)
- Longitudinal stress (σ) & Longitudinal strain (ϵ)
- Shear stress (τ) & Shear strain
- Bulk stress & Bulk strain (ϵ_v)

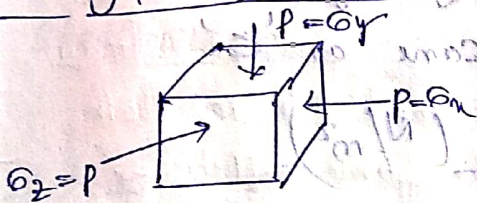


or Volumetric strain.

$$\text{Bulk Avg} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y + \sigma_z}{3}$$

$$\epsilon_v = \frac{\delta V}{V} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{change in Volume} \\ \text{Original Volume} \end{array} \right\}$$

for hydrostatic cond?



$$\sigma_b = -P$$

↳ Bulk stress

* Bulk stress is a three dimensional stress

* Normal Stress

$$\sigma_n = E \cdot \epsilon_n$$

E = Young's modulus of Elasticity.

$$\sigma = E \cdot \epsilon$$

$$\frac{P}{A} = E \cdot \left(\frac{\delta l}{L} \right)$$

strain ϵ is dimensionless

Dimension

$$\frac{N}{m^2} = Pa \text{ (Pascals)}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{MLT^{-2}}{L^2} = ML^{-1}T^{-2}$$

$$1 N/m^2 = 1 \text{ Pascals}$$

$$\epsilon = \frac{L}{L} = M^0 L^0 T^0$$

$$10^6 N/m^2 = 1 \text{ megapascal}$$

$$10^9 N/m^2 = 1 \text{ giga pascal}$$

strain is a dimensionless quantity

$$1 N/mm^2 = 1 \text{ mega pascal}$$

$$\Rightarrow SI \text{ unit of } E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \frac{N}{m^2}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{F}{A} = E \cdot \frac{\delta L}{L}$$

δL = deformation / change in length

$$\boxed{\frac{PL}{AE} = \delta L} \text{ or } \boxed{\delta L = \frac{\delta L}{E}}$$

$$\boxed{\sigma = E \cdot \epsilon} \rightarrow \text{Linear equations.}$$

* The material which follows Hooke's law is known as linear elastic material.

Shear Stress & Strain

$$\boxed{\tau = G \gamma} \quad G = \text{modulus of Rigidity / modulus of Shear}$$

$$\boxed{G = \frac{\tau}{\gamma}} \quad \text{SI unit of 'G' is same as 'E'}$$

$\text{Pa (N/m}^2\text{)}$

Bulk Stress & Strain

$$\boxed{\sigma_b = K \cdot \epsilon_v} \quad K = \text{Bulk modulus}$$

$$\boxed{K = \frac{\sigma_b}{\epsilon_v}} \quad \text{unit is } \left(\frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}^2} \right)$$

Poisson's Ratio ν (or $\frac{1}{m}$)

$$\nu = - \frac{\text{Lateral strain } (\epsilon_d)}{\text{Longitudinal strain } (\epsilon_l)}$$

$\frac{\text{change in lateral dim.}}{\text{Original lateral dim.}}$

-ve sign shows that lateral & longitudinal stresses are opposite in nature.

ν is const. for a material.

$$\nu = - \frac{\epsilon_d}{\epsilon_l} = - \frac{\left(\frac{b_f - b}{b} \right)}{\left(\frac{L_f - L}{L} \right)}$$

$b = \text{width}$

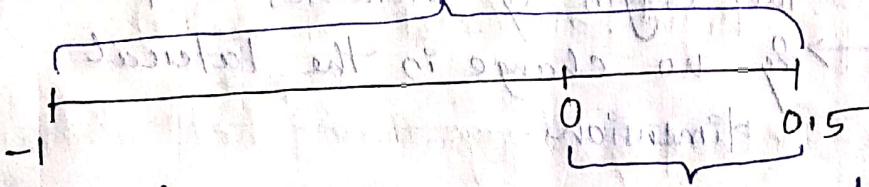
($\nu = +ve$) always for elastic material.
 from two one should be (-ve) so (-ve)/(-ve) become (+ve)

→ for elastic material.

$$\mu = \left| \frac{\text{Lateral Strain}}{\text{Longitudinal Strain}} \right|$$

* $-1 \leq \mu \leq 0.5$

Theoretical Poisson's ratio range

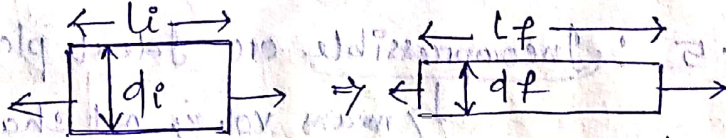


→ μ value for various materials. most material.

- Cork (0)
- Concrete (0.2)
- Steel & Copper (0.3)
- Cheese (0.45)
- Rubber (0.5)
- Aluminium (0.35)
- Rubber (0.5)

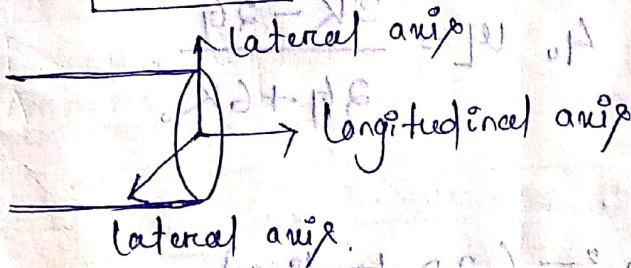
Lecture-4

Poisson's ratio :



$$\begin{matrix} L_f > L_i \\ d_f < d_i \end{matrix}$$

length increased and the lateral dimensions are decreased.



$$\mu = - \frac{\text{Lateral strain}}{\text{Longitudinal strain}}$$

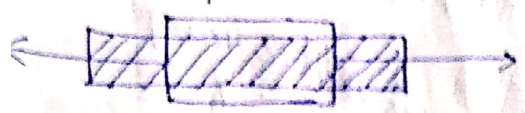
$$\mu = - \frac{\epsilon_d}{\epsilon_l} \quad (\text{for comp.})$$

$\mu = +ve$ (always for elastic material)

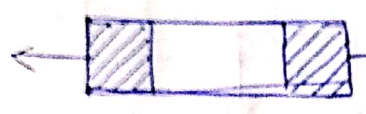
$-1 \leq \mu \leq 0.5$ (generally)

$0 \leq \mu \leq 0.5$ (for Elastic material)

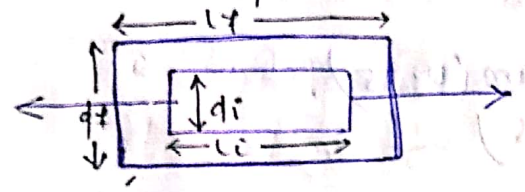
* for $0 < \nu < 0.5$:- If we provide tensile force then the length increases and the lateral dimension decrease.



* for $\nu = 0$:- If we provide tensile force then the length increases and there is no change in the lateral dimension.



* for $-1 < \nu < 0$:- If we provide tensile force then the length increases and also the lateral dimensions are increased. i.e. lateral strain and longitudinal strain both are of the same nature.



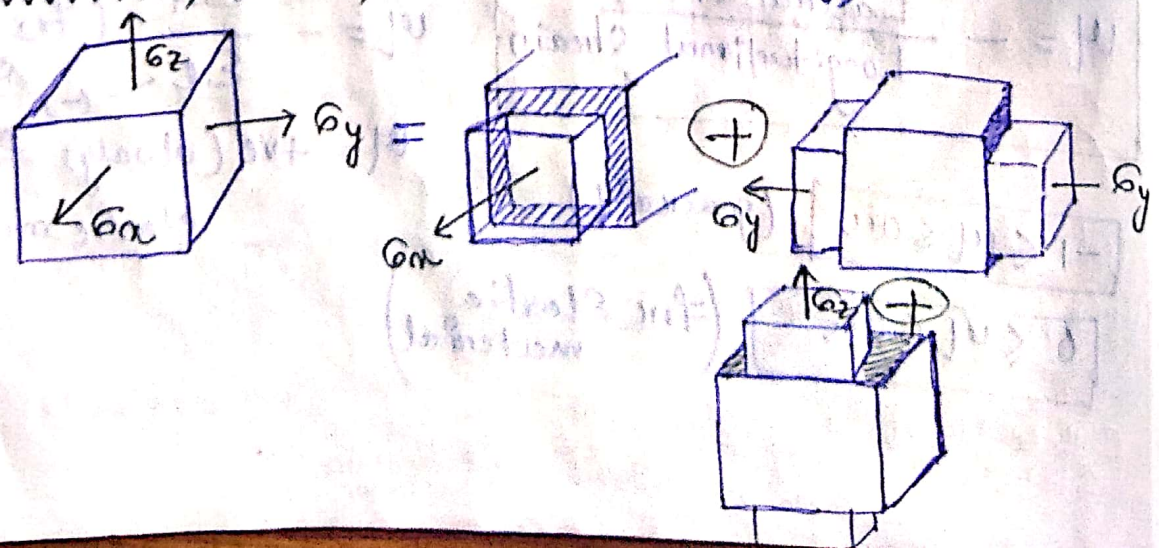
* $\nu = 0.5$: Incompressible or Ideal plastic material.
 ↳ means vol. is not changing

→ Relationship between Elastic Constant :-

1. $E = 2G(1 + \nu)$
2. $E = 3K(1 - 2\nu)$
3. $E = \frac{9KG}{3K + G}$

$$4. \nu = \frac{3K - 2G}{2G + 6K}$$

→ Generalized Hooke's Law :- (3D loading)



Effect of stress	Strain in x dir ⁿ	Strain in y dir ⁿ	Strain in z dir ⁿ
σ_x	$\left(\frac{\sigma_x}{E}\right)$	$-\mu\left(\frac{\sigma_x}{E}\right)$	$-\mu\left(\frac{\sigma_x}{E}\right)$
σ_y	$-\mu\left(\frac{\sigma_y}{E}\right)$	$\frac{\sigma_y}{E}$	$-\mu\left(\frac{\sigma_y}{E}\right)$
σ_z	$-\mu\left(\frac{\sigma_z}{E}\right)$	$-\mu\left(\frac{\sigma_z}{E}\right)$	$\left(\frac{\sigma_z}{E}\right)$

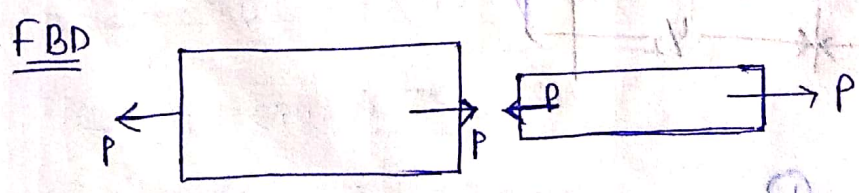
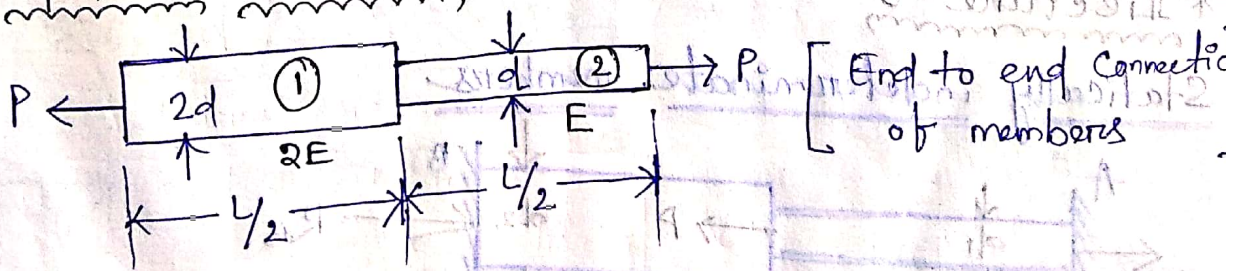
- * Strain in x dirⁿ (ϵ_x) = $\frac{\sigma_x}{E} - \mu\frac{\sigma_y}{E} - \mu\frac{\sigma_z}{E}$
 - * Strain in y dirⁿ (ϵ_y) = $\frac{\sigma_y}{E} - \mu\frac{\sigma_x}{E} - \mu\frac{\sigma_z}{E}$
 - * Strain in z dirⁿ (ϵ_z) = $\frac{\sigma_z}{E} - \mu\frac{\sigma_x}{E} - \mu\frac{\sigma_y}{E}$
- Generalized Hooke's Law

→ Volumetric strain (ϵ_v) = $\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y + \epsilon_z$

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

← Volumetric strain.

* Members in Series



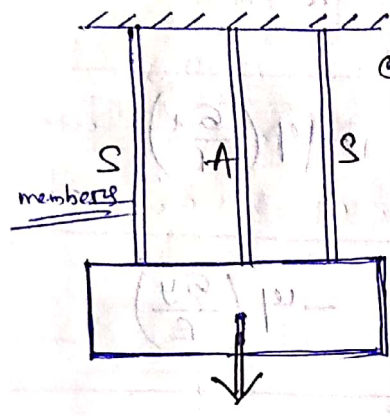
$$(\delta l)_n = \sum_{n=1}^n \delta l_n$$

total $\rightarrow \left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right)_n$

for members in series,

Members in parallel

S = steel
A = Aluminium



case (1) → Rigid bar must remain horizontal
case (2) → Rigid bar is tilting

← Rigid bar (Not deformable)

* Load is always shared betⁿ members

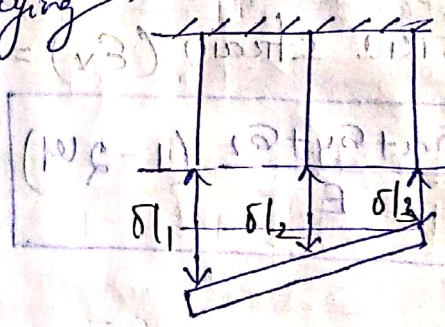
→ for case (1) i.e. rigid bar remain horizontal iⁿ

this case, the members are equally deformed.

i.e. $(\delta l)_1 = (\delta l)_2 = (\delta l)_3$
Deformation of members must be same

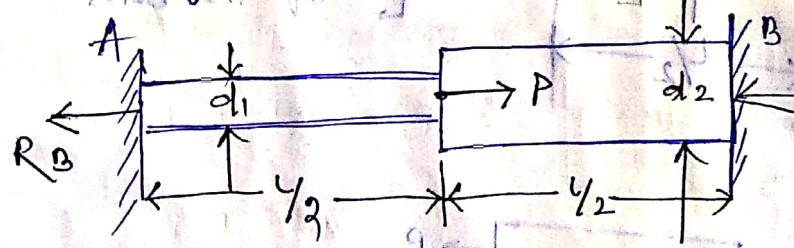
→ for case (2) i.e. Rigid bar is tilting, the deformation of members is varying

δl varies linearly from member to member.



* Lecture - 5

Statically indeterminate members



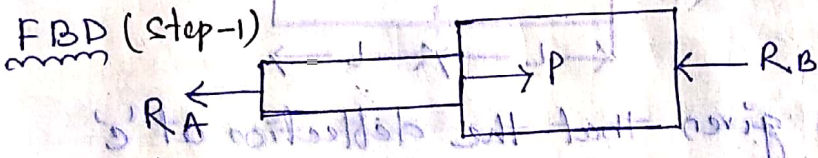
$$\sum F_x = 0$$

$$R_A + R_B = P \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\sum F_y = 0$$

$$\sum M_A = 0$$

here in this question there are two unknowns but we have only one equation
 → mathematically we know that for 'n' number of unknowns we need 'n' number of equations
 → So we can't solve this question with one equation
 So this kind of problem is called statically indeterminate.
 So here we require another one equation, i.e. compatibility equation.



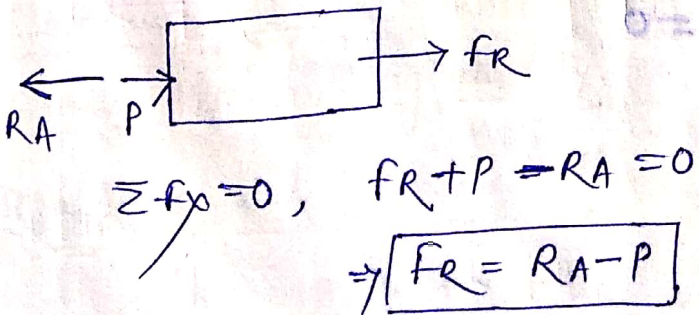
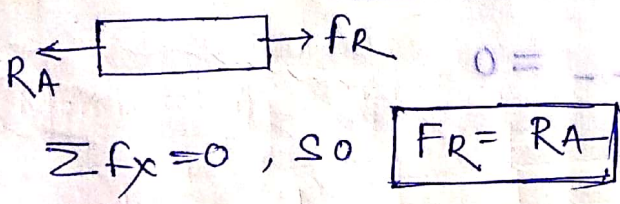
(step-2)
 find $\sum F = F_{net}$ (Don't count reactions, only count the loads)
 now put the reactions opposite to "Fnet".
 $R_A + R_B = P$ — (1)

(step-3) → static equilibrium Eqn.

(step-4) put compatibility Eqn.

$$(\delta L)_{total} = \sum_{n=1}^n \delta L_n = 0$$

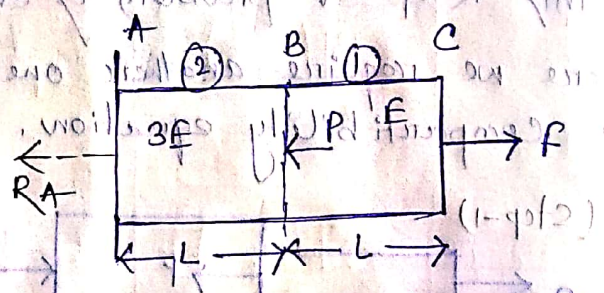
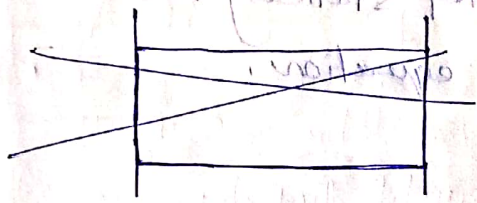
$$\left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right) = 9 - 7$$



$$(\delta L)_{total} = \left(\frac{FR \cdot L}{AE}\right)_1 + \left(\frac{FR \cdot L}{AE}\right)_2 + \dots - \left(\frac{FR \cdot L}{AE}\right)_n$$

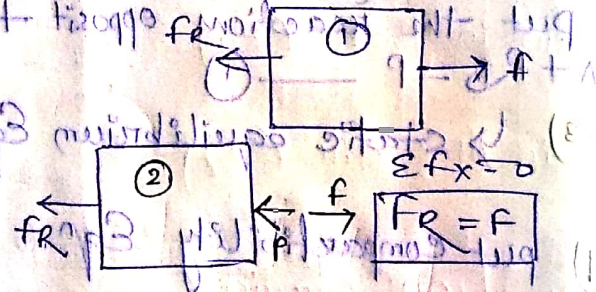
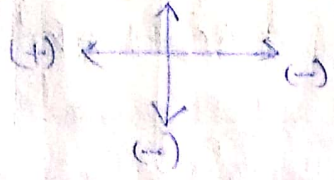
$$4 = \frac{9}{7}$$

Q. A horizontal beam with a constant cross-section is subjected to loading as shown in the figure. The young's modulus for the section AB & BC are $3E$ and E respectively, the deflection at C to be zero. the ratio $P:F$ is.



here in question it is given that the deflection at C to be zero.

i.e. $(\delta l)_{total} = zero$



$$\sum F_x = 0$$

$$0 = P - F - F_R$$

$$\Rightarrow F - P = F_R$$

Now $\left(\frac{F_R L}{AE}\right)_1 + \left(\frac{F_R L}{AE}\right)_2 = 0$

$$\left(\frac{F_R L}{AE}\right)_1 + \frac{(F-P) \cdot L}{AE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow F + \frac{F-P}{3} = 0$$

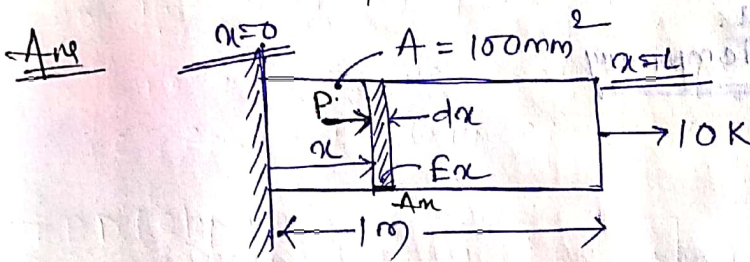
$$\Rightarrow \frac{3F + F - P}{3} = 0$$

$$4F - P = 0$$

$$P = 4F$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{P}{F} = 4} \leftarrow \text{Ans}$$

Q. A horizontal bar fixed at one end, has a length of 1 meter, cross-sectional area is $A = 100 \text{ mm}^2$. The Young's modulus $E(x) = 100 e^{-x} \text{ gpa}$ (x is in meters). An axial tensile load is applied at free end i.e. 10 kN. The axial displacement at the free end is mm?



$\delta l =$ change in length of element.

$$= \frac{P dx}{A_x \cdot E_x}$$

for change in length of bar

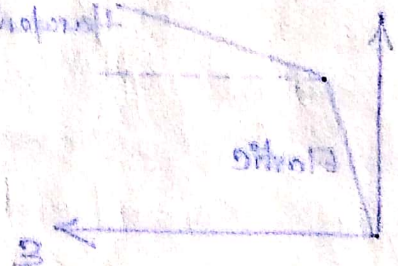
$$\delta L = \int_0^1 \frac{10 \times 10^3 \text{ N} \times dx}{100 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \times 100 \cdot e^{-x} \times 10^9 \text{ Pa}}$$

$$= \int_0^1 \frac{10 \times e^x dx \times 10^3}{100 \times 10^3 \times 100}$$

$$= 1.718 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

So $\delta L = 1.718 \text{ mm}$ (-Ans).

$$\delta L = \int_{x=0}^{x=L} \frac{P dx}{A_x E_x}$$

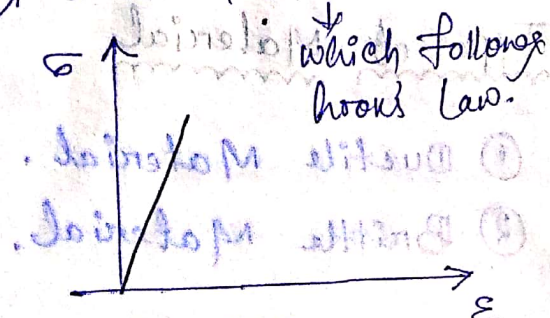


Lecture - 6
Stress Strain Diagram

*Rigid material (hypothetical).

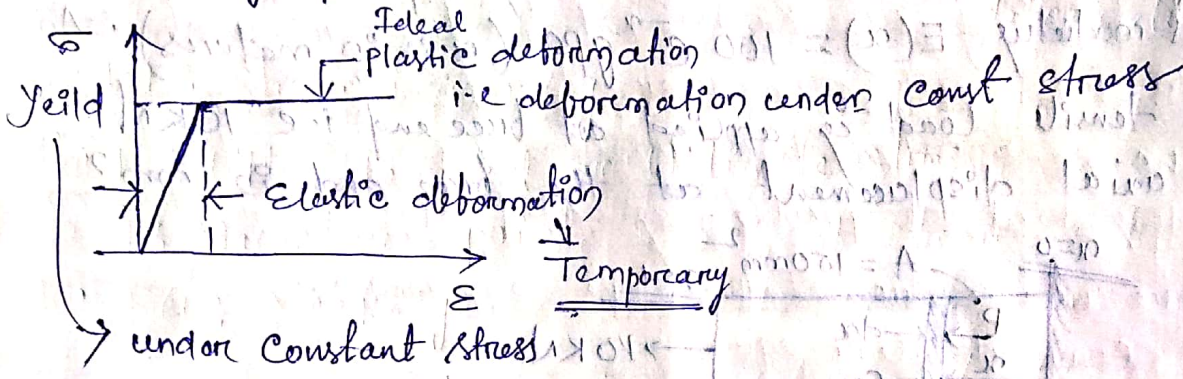


*Linear Elastic material, which follows Hooke's Law.



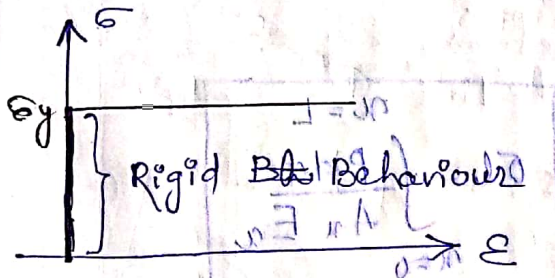
$$\sigma \propto \epsilon$$

* Ideal plastic or Elastic perfectly plastic

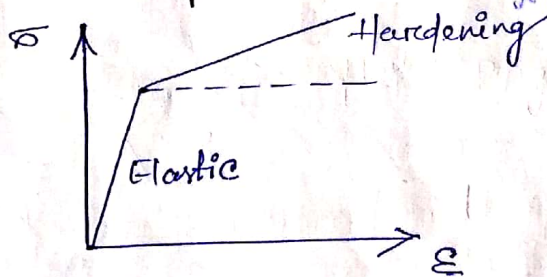


under constant stress the material will deform continuously

* Rigid perfect plastic



* Elastoplastic material with strain hardening



→ Percentage Elongation

$$\% \text{ elongation} = \frac{L_f - L_0}{L_0} \times 100\%$$

$$\% \text{ change in Area} = \frac{A_f - A_0}{A_0} \times 100\%$$

Types of Material

- ① Ductile Material.
- ② Brittle Material.

3x0

Ductile Material

→ Solid materials can undergo substantial plastic deformation prior to fracture are called ductile materials.

→ % Elongation $> 5\%$

Also

$5\% < \% \text{ Elongation} < 15\%$

Are known as intermediate ductile material

$\% \text{ Elongation} > 15\%$

Are known as completely ductile material.

→ Example of ductile material: mild steel, aluminum, copper, most plastics.

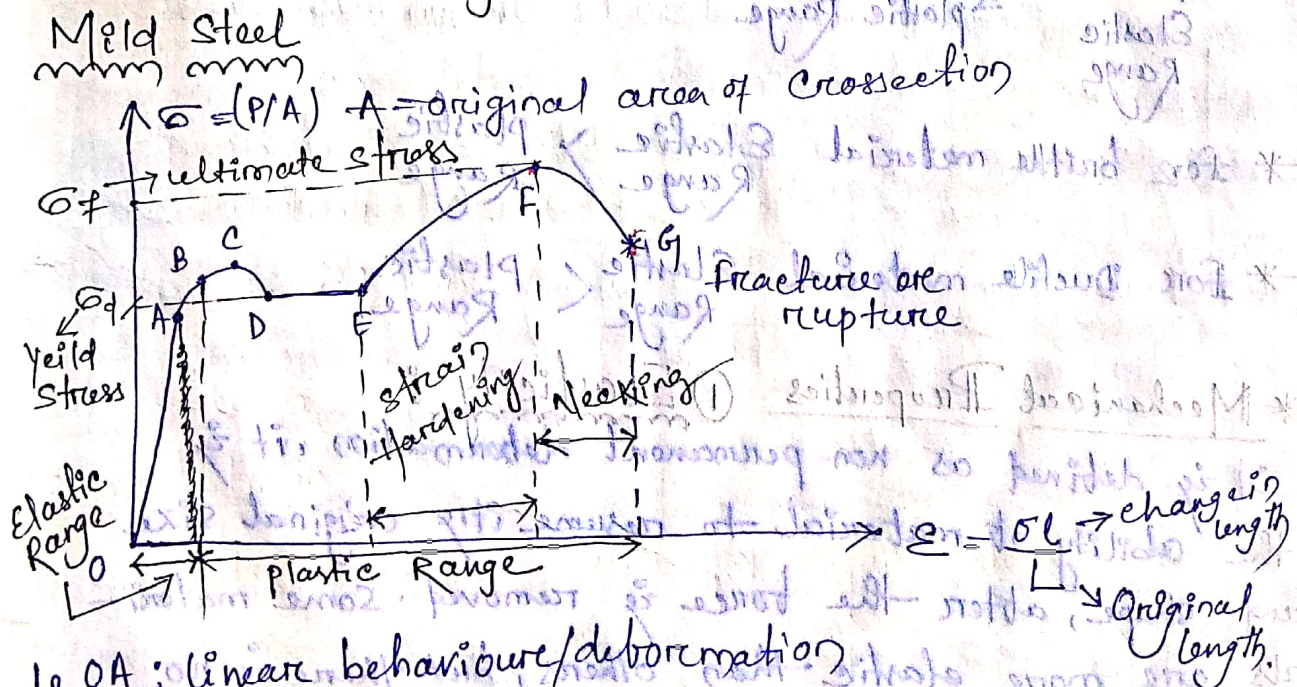
Brittle Material

→ Solid materials that exhibit negligible plastic deformation are called brittle materials.

→ % Elongation $< 5\%$

→ Examples of brittle material: cast iron, ceramics such as glass, cement, concrete, stone, ice.

* Stress-strain diagram for Ductile material.



1. OA: linear behaviour/deformation (Initial linearity)

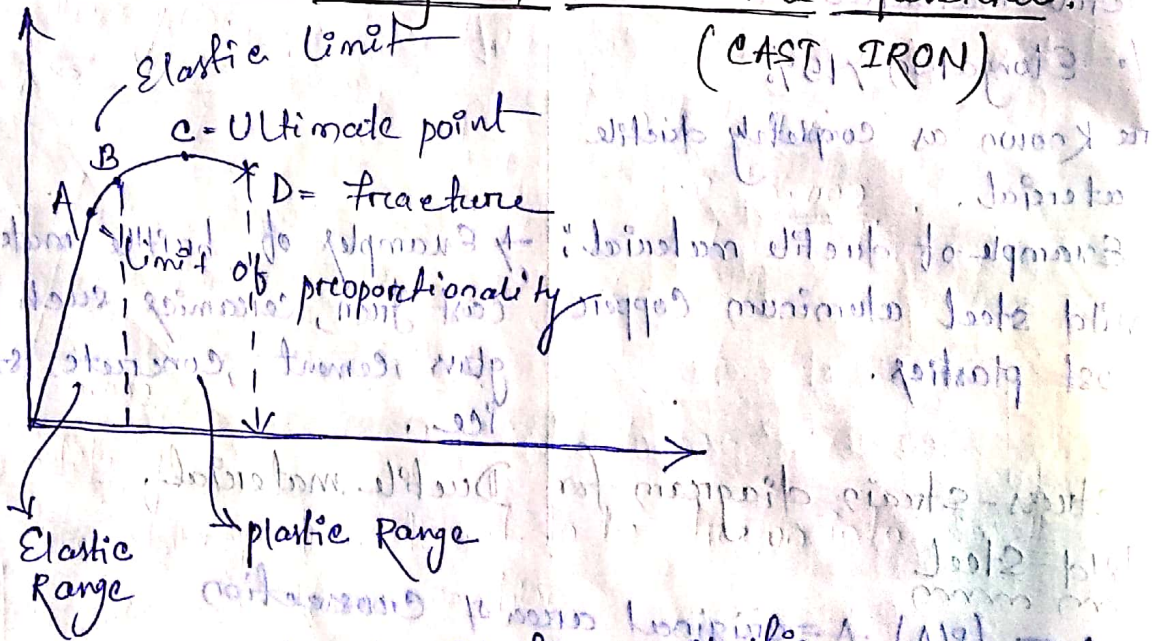
2. A: limit of proportionality.

3. B: Elastic limit.

4. C: Upper yield point

- 5. D: Lower yield point
- 6. DE: Deformation under const. stress / Ideal plastic deformation
- 7. EF: strain hardening ✓
- 8. F: Ultimate point or Ultimate stress
- 9. G: fracture point
- 10. FG: Necking

* Stress - strain Diagram for Brittle Material



* for brittle material Elastic Range > plastic Range

* for Ductile material Elastic Range < plastic Range

* Mechanical Properties ① Elasticity :

It is defined as non-permanent deformation, it is the ability of material to resume its original size and shape, after the force is removed. Some materials are more elastic than others, but there is no material which is perfectly elastic throughout the entire range of stress i.e. up to rupture.

Elasticity is mostly measured in terms of stress or elastic limit.

Elastic limit is the maximum stress that a material is capable to withstand, without permanent deformation. The more elastic material will have higher value of elastic limit.

2. Plasticity

It is the ability of material to be permanently deformed without fracture even after the removal of force. All materials are plastic to some extent. Plasticity is other extreme opposite of elasticity.

The plasticity of a material is its ability to undergo some degree of permanent deformation without rupture. Plastic deformation will take place only after the elastic range has been exceeded.

A general expression of plastic action would involve the time rate of strain since the plastic state,

3. Strength (maximum stress which a material can withstand without failure)
Strength may be defined as the capacity of metal to withstand load. It is expressed as force per unit area of cross-section. The material has to withstand different types of load such as tensile, bending, torsion, compressive and shear load. Hence, strength is known as tensile, bending, torsion, compressive and shear strength.

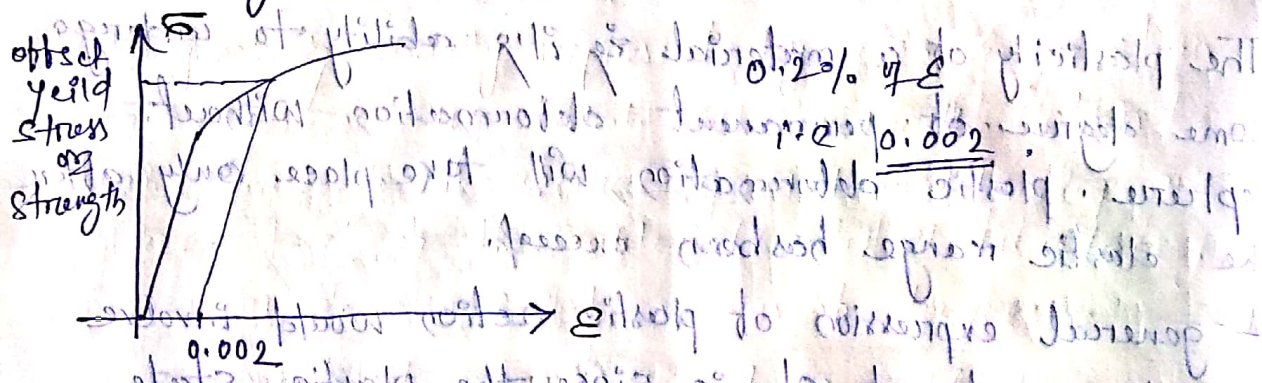
Tensile, torsion, bending and shear strength are greater in ductile materials while the compression strength is lower. For brittle material like stone, brick and cast iron, the ultimate compression strength will be much higher than the ultimate tensile strength.

- Ductile materials are weak in shear
- Brittle materials are weak in tension.

→ S_{ut} = ultimate strength (Brittle material).

S_{yt} = Yield strength (Ductile materials).

* For some materials we can't notice the upper yield point and the lower yield point Ex - Aluminium, for these cases we take 0.2% of strain and draw a parallel line with the linear ~~curve~~ of the diagram. The point where the line cut the curve is called offset yield stress or strength.

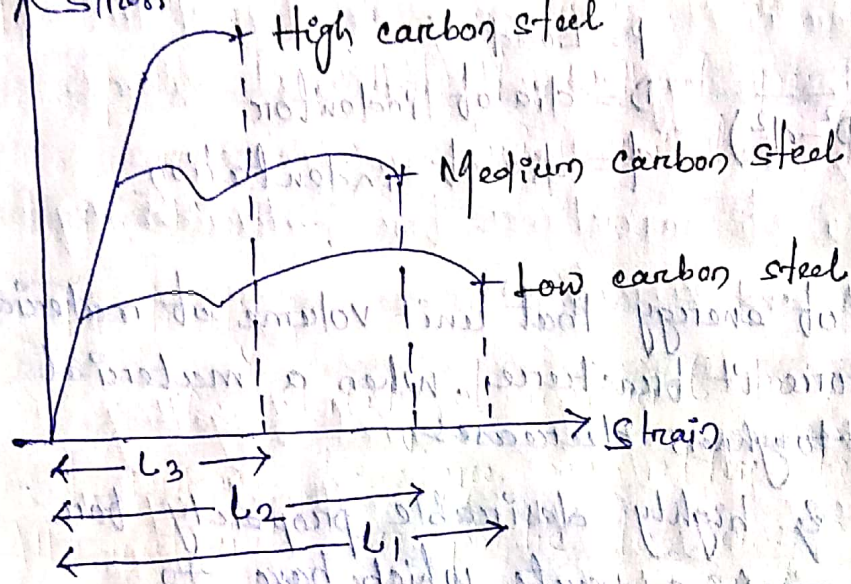


4) Ductility

It is the ability of material to be drawn into small section from a large-section. It is also expressed as plastic deformation at breaking point. Its value is expressed as elongation or percentage elongation is most widely used to measure ductility and its units are same as strain.

Any treatment which increases strength, decreases the ductility. The strength and ductility of material are appreciably affected by temperature. As temperature increases, the strength and elastic limit decreases and ductility increases.

Ex: - Copper, aluminium, nickel, and lead are ductile metals.



Ductility is degree of plastic deformation. more plastic deformation means more ductility

- Ductility is ability of material to undergo large reduction in cross-sectional area under action of tensile force.
- Ductility decreases as the strength increases

5. Brittleness

The property fracturing a material without warning or appreciable deformation is called brittleness.

Brittleness is opposite to ductility

- Most of brittle materials have high compressive strength. Usually, tensile strength of brittle materials is only a fraction of the compressive strength
- Cast Iron, concrete and glass are brittle materials
- Cast Iron shows a little deformation before rupture
- materials having less than 5% elongation are considered as brittle.

6. Hardness

Hardness of a material is defined as the resistance of a material to see scratch, wear or penetration of its surface by harder bodies. Hardness is mostly measured by determining the resistance to penetration (indentation) by different methods, as Brinell, Rockwell and Vickers hardness tests.

$$BHN \text{ or } HD = \frac{2P}{\pi D(D - \sqrt{D^2 - d^2})}$$

$P = \text{Load}$
 $D = \text{dia of indenter}$
 $d = \text{dia of indentation}$

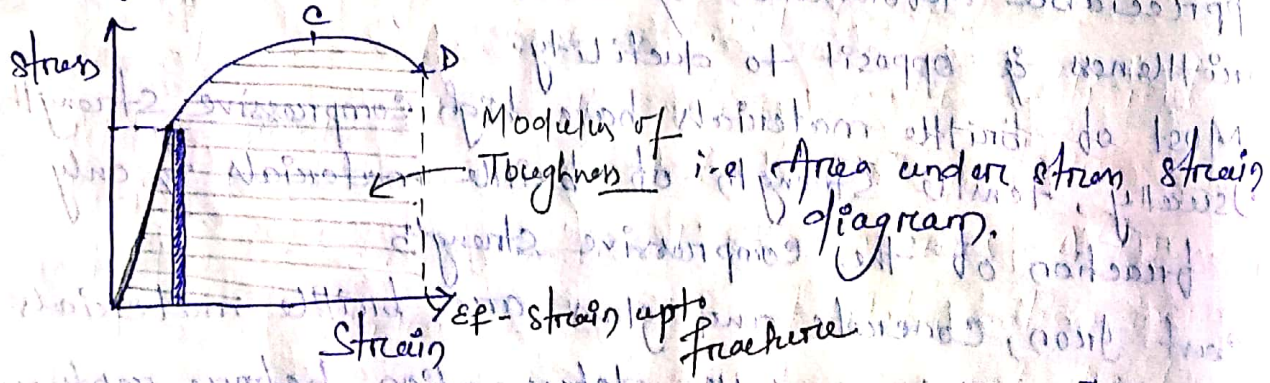
7. Toughness

It is the amount of energy that unit volume of material can absorb before it fractures. When a material is heated its toughness decreases.

→ Thus toughness is highly desirable property for structural and machine parts which have to withstand shock and vibration.

→ Toughness is usually represented by area under stress strain curve. The total area under the stress strain curve is the work expended in deforming one cubic meter of the material until it fractures. This work is also called modulus of toughness.

Brass, mild steel, manganese and wrought iron are tough materials.



[Stress-strain diagram of a ductile material]

$$dA = \sigma \cdot d\epsilon$$

$$A = \int_0^{\epsilon_f} \sigma \, d\epsilon$$

Unit $\frac{J}{m^3} = \frac{N \cdot m}{m^3} \cdot \frac{N}{m^2}$ modulus of toughness
 Energy per unit volume i.e. Toughness up to fracture.

7. Toughness :-

It is the amount of energy that material can absorb before fracture.
When a material is heated, its toughness decreases.

→ The total area under stress-strain curve is the work expended in deforming one cubic meter of the material until it fractures. This work is also called modulus of toughness.

→ Toughness is usually represented by area under a load vs deformation curve.

Brass, mild steel, manganese and wrought iron are tough materials.

8. Stiffness

→ Stiffness is the property of material which enables material to resist deformation.

The material which suffers less deformation under load, has high degree of stiffness. The greater the stress required to produce a given strain, the stiffer is the material.

→ The materials which follow Hooke's law, their stiffness is measured by Young's modulus of elasticity.

The materials which do not follow Hooke's law, their stiffness varies with stress.

→ The term flexibility is opposite to stiffness. The overall stiffness or flexibility is the function of dimensions, shape and characteristics of the material.

9. Resilience :-

It is measured by the amount of energy absorbed by material within elastic limit. This property is important in materials used for springs.

→ The maximum energy which can be stored in a body upto elastic limit is called proof resilience.

proof resilience per unit volume is called modulus of resilience. Thus the energy stored per unit volume at elastic limit is the modulus of resilience.

→ Resilience is also of importance for materials required to bear shocks and vibrations.

10. Malleability

→ Malleability is the property of material of getting permanently deformed by compression without rupture.

→ Malleability requires that the material should be plastic but not so much dependent on strength.

→ The common metals which are malleable:

Gold, Silver, Aluminium, Copper, Tin, platinum, Lead, Zinc, Iron, and Nickel.

11. Fatigue The failure of metal under alternating stress is known as fatigue.

12. Creep

The slow and progressive deformation of a material with time at constant stress is called creep.

→ After creep sets in, it continues until sufficient strain has occurred so that a necking down and a reduction of cross-sectional area occurs. After this and until rupture, the rate of deformation increases because there is less area to support the load.

→ The phenomenon of creep is observable in metals, ionic and covalent crystals, and amorphous metals such as glass and polymers. Metals generally, exhibit creep at high temperature, whereas plastic rubbers and similar amorphous materials are very temperature-sensitive to creep.

Creep is extremely structure sensitive and is much more affected by grain size, microstructure and previous strain history, for instance, cold work and many other factors.

Lecture - 7

* True stress and strain :-

Engineering stress and strain based on original dimension.

True stress and strain based on instantaneous dimension.

→ Relation between true stress & Engg. stress.

at $t = t_0$ (P₀) Load = P₀

$$\sigma_{\text{true}} = \frac{P}{A_f}$$

for Ideal plastic deformation

$$\delta V = 0, \delta v = 0$$

$$K = \frac{\sigma_b}{\epsilon_v} = \infty$$

$$E = 3K(1 - 2\nu)$$

⇒ $\nu = 0.5$ for ideal plastic deformation

$$A_0 L_0 = A_f L_f = A_i L_i$$

$$\sigma_{\text{true}} = \frac{P}{A_f} = \frac{P}{A_0} \times \frac{A_0}{A_f} = \sigma \times \frac{L_f}{L_0} \quad \left\{ L_f - L_0 = \delta L \right\}$$

$$\sigma_{\text{true}} = \sigma \times \frac{L_0 + \delta L}{L_0} = \sigma \times \left(1 + \frac{\delta L}{L_0} \right)$$

$$\sigma_{\text{true}} = \sigma (1 + \epsilon) \leftarrow \text{This is the relationship betw true stress and Engg. stress}$$

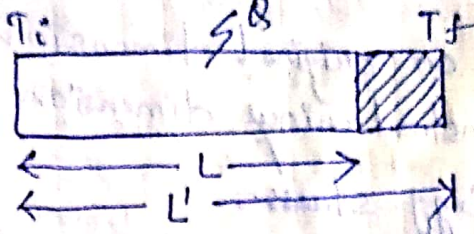
* True strain

$$\epsilon_{\text{true}} = \ln \left(\frac{L_f}{L_0} \right)$$

$$\epsilon_{true} = \ln \left(\frac{L_0 + \delta L}{L_0} \right)$$

$$\epsilon_{true} = \ln(1 + \epsilon)$$

→ Thermal stress & strain :-



$$\delta L_{th} = L' - L$$

Thermal strain (ϵ_{th})

$$\epsilon_{th} = \frac{\delta L_{th}}{L}$$

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon_{th} \propto \Delta T$$

$$\epsilon_{th} = \alpha \Delta T \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

α = Co-efficient of thermal expansion / Linear Expansion.
 α = per cent deg^oC or per Kelvin.

If $\Delta T = 1$ in eqn (1)

$$\epsilon_{th} = \alpha$$

* During free expansion the stress or thermal stress = 0

$$\epsilon_{th} = \alpha \Delta T$$

free expansion of bar is

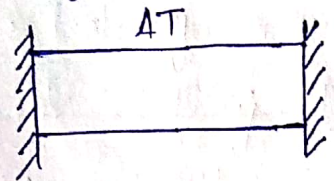
$$\delta L_{th} = \alpha \Delta T L$$

Thermal Stress (σ_{th})

Conditions

1. Temperature is being changed.
2. The expansion is restricted, either fully or partially.

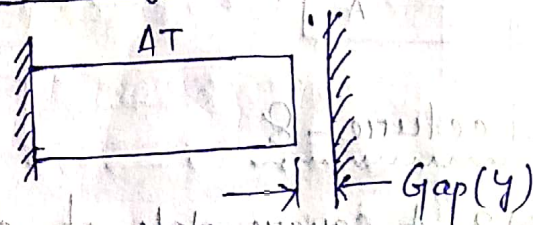
1. Fully restricted



$\Delta L_{total} = 0$

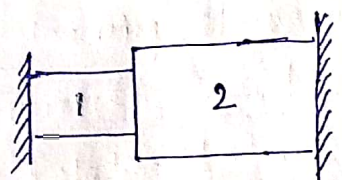
$\alpha ATL - \left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right) = 0$

2. partially Restricted

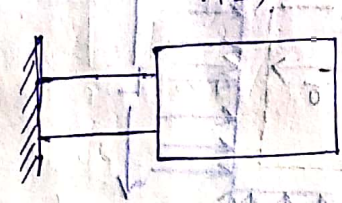


$\Delta L_{total} = \text{Gap}$

$\alpha ATL - \left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right) = \text{gap}$

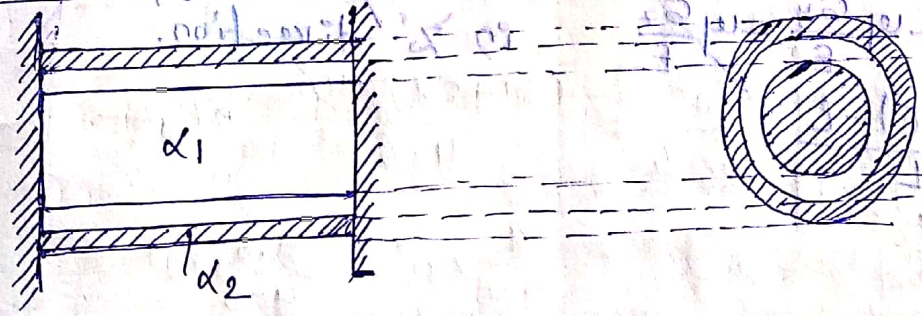


$\sum_{n=1}^{n=N} (\alpha ATL) - \sum_{n=1}^{n=N} \left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right) = 0$

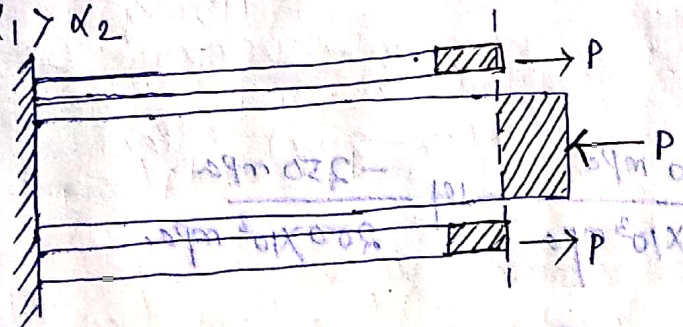


$\sum_{n=1}^{n=N} (\alpha ATL) - \sum_{n=1}^{n=N} \left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right) = \text{Gap}$

3. Circular bar inside a tube.



$d_1 > d_2$



for Rod $\left[(\alpha ATL)_1 - \left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right) \right] (\text{final length}) = \dots$

Tube $(\alpha ATL)_2 + \left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right) (\text{final length}) = \dots$

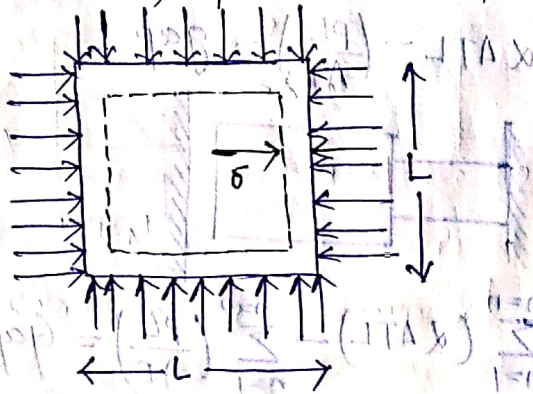
$(\alpha ATL)_1 - \left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right) = (\alpha ATL)_2 + \left(\frac{PL}{AE}\right)$

Remember $d_1 > d_2$

$$\sigma_{th} = \frac{P}{A}$$

Lecture - 8

Q3. A square plate of dimension $L \times L$ is subjected to a uniform pressure load $P = 250 \text{ mpa}$



$$P = 250 \text{ mpa}$$

$$E = 200 \text{ GPa}$$

$$L = 2 \text{ m}$$

$$\delta = 0.001 \text{ m}$$

$$\nu = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

Here put generalized hook's law.

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

$$\epsilon_x = \frac{(L - 2\delta) - L}{L}$$

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

$$= \frac{-2 \times 0.001}{2}$$

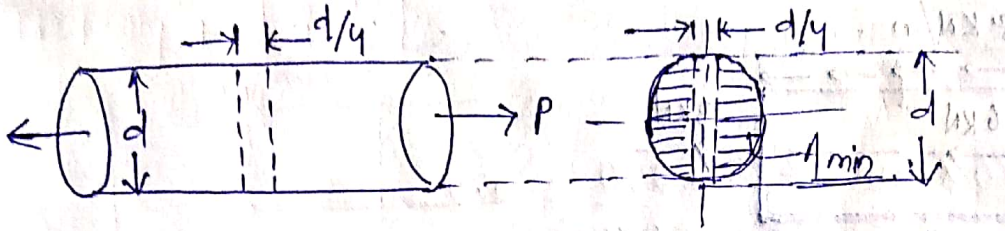
Now

$$\frac{-2 \times 0.001}{2} = \frac{-250 \text{ mpa}}{200 \times 10^3 \text{ mpa}} - \nu \frac{-250 \text{ mpa}}{200 \times 10^3 \text{ mpa}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-2 \times 0.001}{2} = \frac{1}{200 \times 10^3} \left[-250 + \nu \times 250 \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\nu = 0.2} \text{ (Ans)}$$

Q. A solid bar of circular cross section has a hole of diameter $D/4$ drilled laterally through the centre of the bar as shown in the figure



i) What is the relationship for allowable load that can the bar can carry in tension.

$$A_{min} = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 - \frac{d \times d}{4}$$

$$= \frac{\pi d^2}{4} - \frac{d^2}{4}$$

$$= d^2 \left(\frac{\pi - 1}{4} \right)$$

At the minimum area the stress is maximum.

$$\sigma_{max} \leq \sigma_{allow}$$

for limiting condⁿ $\sigma_{max} = \frac{P_{max}}{A_{min}} = \sigma_{allow}$

$$P_{max} = \left(\frac{\pi - 1}{4} \right) d^2 \sigma_{allow}$$

$$= 0.53539 d^2 \times \sigma_{allow}$$

$$P_{max} = 0.54 d^2 \sigma_{allow} \quad \text{Ans}$$

(ii) If the bar is made of brass, $d = 40 \text{ mm}$, $\sigma_{allow} = 80 \text{ MPa}$

$$\text{What is } P_{allow} = ?$$

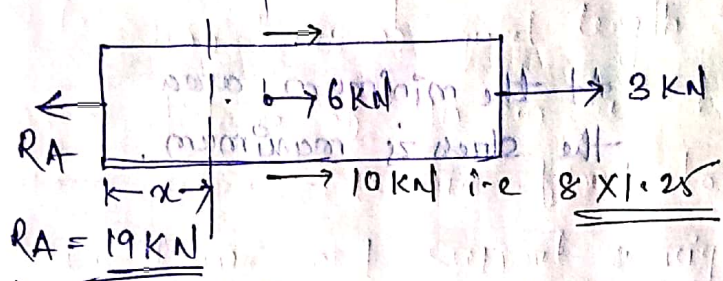
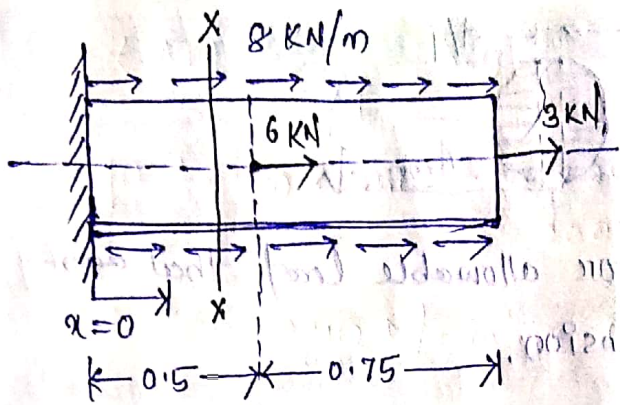
$$P_{max} = P_{allow} = 0.54 \times d^2 \times \sigma_{allow}$$

$$= 0.54 \times 40^2 \times 80 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

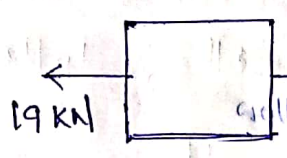
$$= 69120 \text{ N}$$

$$= 69.12 \text{ kN} \approx 70 \text{ kN}$$

Q. A bar has cross-sectional area of $400 \times 10^6 \text{ m}^2$. It is subjected to uniform axial distributed load along its length and two concentrated load as shown in the figure. The average normal stress in the bar as function of x , from $x=0$ to $x=0.5 \text{ m}$.



Reaction from support.



$$FR + 8x - 19 = 0$$

$$FR = 19 - 8x$$

Stress:
$$\sigma_x = \frac{FR \times 10^3}{400 \times 10^{-6}} = \frac{(19 - 8x) \times 10^9}{400} \text{ N/m}^2$$

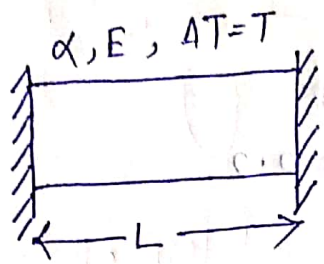
$$= \frac{19}{400} \times 10^9 - \frac{8 \cdot x}{400} \times 10^9$$

$$= 47.5 \times 10^6 - 20x \times 10^6$$

$$= (47.5 - 20x) \text{ MPa}$$

Lecture-9

An elastic bar of length l , uniform cross-sectional area A , coefficient of thermal expansion α , Young's modulus E . If fixed at two ends, if the temperature of the bar is doubled, the axial stress would be.



$\delta L = 0$ (\because both side fixed).

$$\alpha \Delta T L - \frac{PL}{AE} = 0$$

$$\alpha \Delta T L = \frac{PL}{AE} \rightarrow \sigma$$

$$\sigma = \alpha \Delta T E$$

(σ is independent of L)

σ will remain unchanged.

Q: 200 mm long steel rod at room temperature is held between two immovable rigid walls, temperature of the rod is uniformly raised by 250 of the the Young's modulus is 200 GPa & coefficient of thermal expansion 1×10^{-5} . The magnitude of longitudinal stress develop is?

Ans

$$\sigma = \alpha \Delta T E$$

$$= 1 \times 10^{-5} \times 250 \times 200 \times 10^3$$

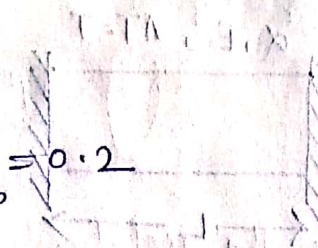
$$\sigma_{th} = 500 \text{ MPa}$$

Q: A circular metallic rod of 250 mm is placed between two rigid immovable walls. In the figure the rod is in perfect contact with the wall in the left side & there is a gap of 0.2 mm between the rod and the wall on the right side. If the temperature of the rod is increased by 200°C the axial stress developed in the rod is?

$$\alpha \Delta L - \frac{PL}{AE} = 0.2$$

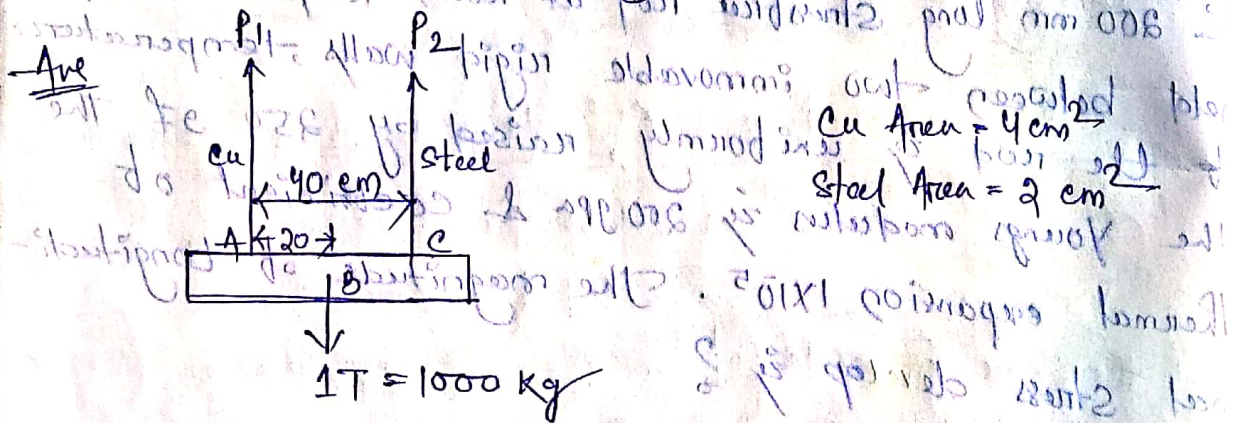
$$10^{-5} \times 200 \times 250 - \frac{\sigma \times 250}{250 \times 10^3} = 0.2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma = 240 \text{ N/mm}^2 \text{ or (mpa)}$$



Q7. Two bars of equal length are suspended vertically at a distance of 40 cm as shown in the figure below. Their upper ends are fixed to the ceiling while their lower ends support a rigid horizontal bar which carries a central load of midway between the wires. Details of the two wires are given.

What is the ratio of elongation.



$$P_1 + P_2 = W$$

$$\sum M_A = 0 \quad - P_2 \times 40 + W \times 20 = 0$$

$$P_2 = \frac{W \times 20}{40} = \frac{W}{2}$$

$$P_1 = \frac{W}{2}$$

$$\rightarrow \Delta L_{Cu} = \frac{P_1 L_1}{A_1 E_1} = \frac{500 \times 400 \text{ cm}}{4 \times 10^6}$$

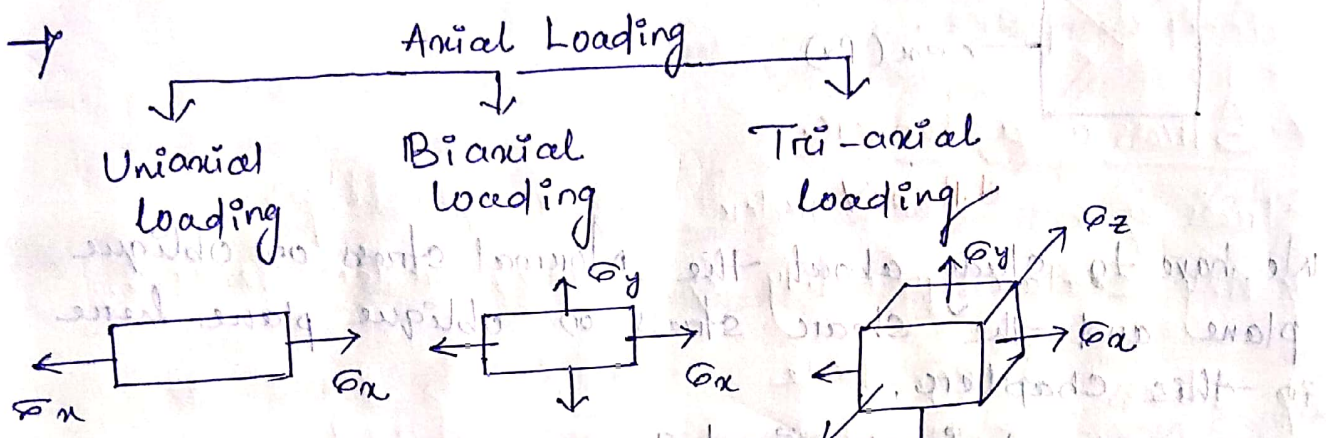
$$\Delta L_{Steel} = \frac{P_2 L_2}{A_2 E_2} = \frac{500 \times 400 \text{ cm}}{2 \times 10^6}$$

$$\frac{\Delta c}{\Delta s} = 1$$

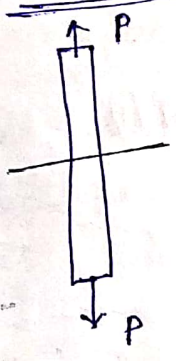
so the base is going to remain in the horizontal position.

Q.

Principal Stress & Strain / Complex stress or strain



1. Uniaxial loading



Longitudinal stress

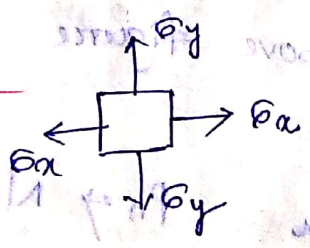
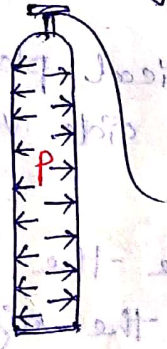
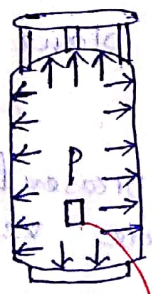
$$\sigma = P/A$$

Longitudinal strain

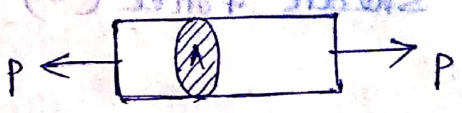
$$\epsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

2. Biaxial loading

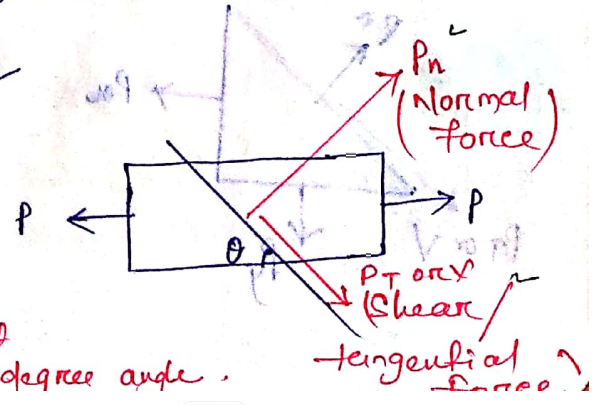
Ex = Inflated balloon, Gas cylinders, cylinders for welding
 All of them have pressurised gas.



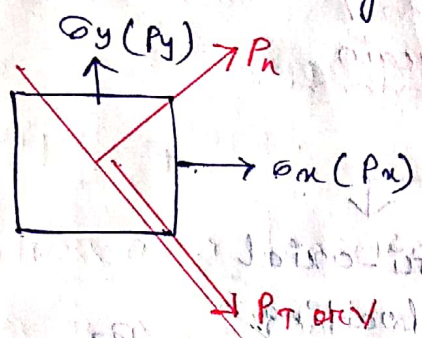
for uniaxial loading



if we cut a line at θ degree angle.



for bi-axial loading also.



We have to study about the Normal stress on oblique plane and the shear stress on oblique plane here in this chapter.

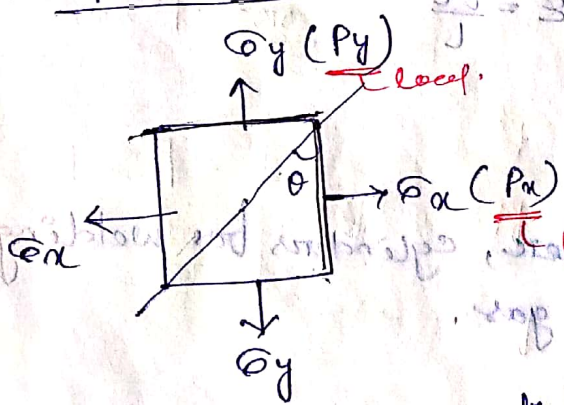
→ This concept is required in.

Thin cylindrical pressure vessel

Theories of failure.

Combined bending & torsion.

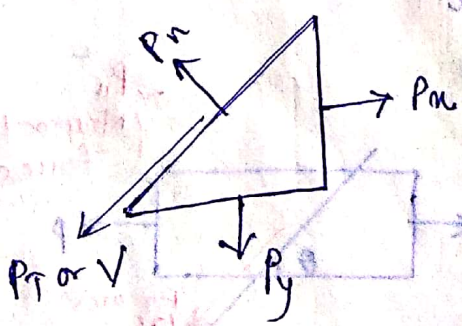
* principal stress and strain



→ Always take the vertical plane as reference plane.
 mainly take the right side vertical plane as the reference plane.

→ In the above figure the θ is present in clock wise direction from the right side vertical plane.

→ If we cut the above figure



P_n → Normal force.

P_T or V → Tangential force (F) or Shear force (V)

Let Area = 'A' of oblique plane.

$$\sigma_n = \frac{P_n}{A}, \quad \tau = \frac{V}{A} \rightarrow \text{on the oblique plane present in } \theta \text{ degree angle.}$$

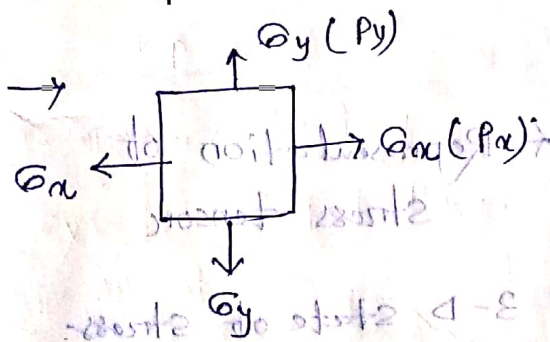
↓ ↓

Normal Stress Shear Stress.

→ At different value of θ we will get different value of σ_n and τ . At different oblique plane area (A) of plane will change.

→ θ = location of oblique plane w.r.t reference plane.

Principal plane :- There will be an oblique plane at which shear stress is zero ($\tau=0$). Oblique plane at which $\tau=0$, such plane is known as principal plane.



for biaxial loading there are two mutually perpendicular principal plane.

→ Location of principal plane is written as θ_p w.r.t reference plane.

→ Normal stress acting on principal plane is known as principal stress.

→ There are two type of principal stress. There are two principal plane i.e mutually perpendicular to each other.

→ The plane which carries greatest value of σ_n is called major principal plane.

→ The plane which carries lowest value of σ_n is called minor principal plane.

→ Major principal stress present in major principal plane and minor principal stress present in minor principal plane.

* Stress as a tensor

Stress is a second order tensor quantity.

→ Any scalar quantity is a zero order tensor.

→ stress $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{magnitude} \\ \text{direction} \\ \text{plane of application} \end{array} \right.$

→ Vectors are first order tensor quantity.

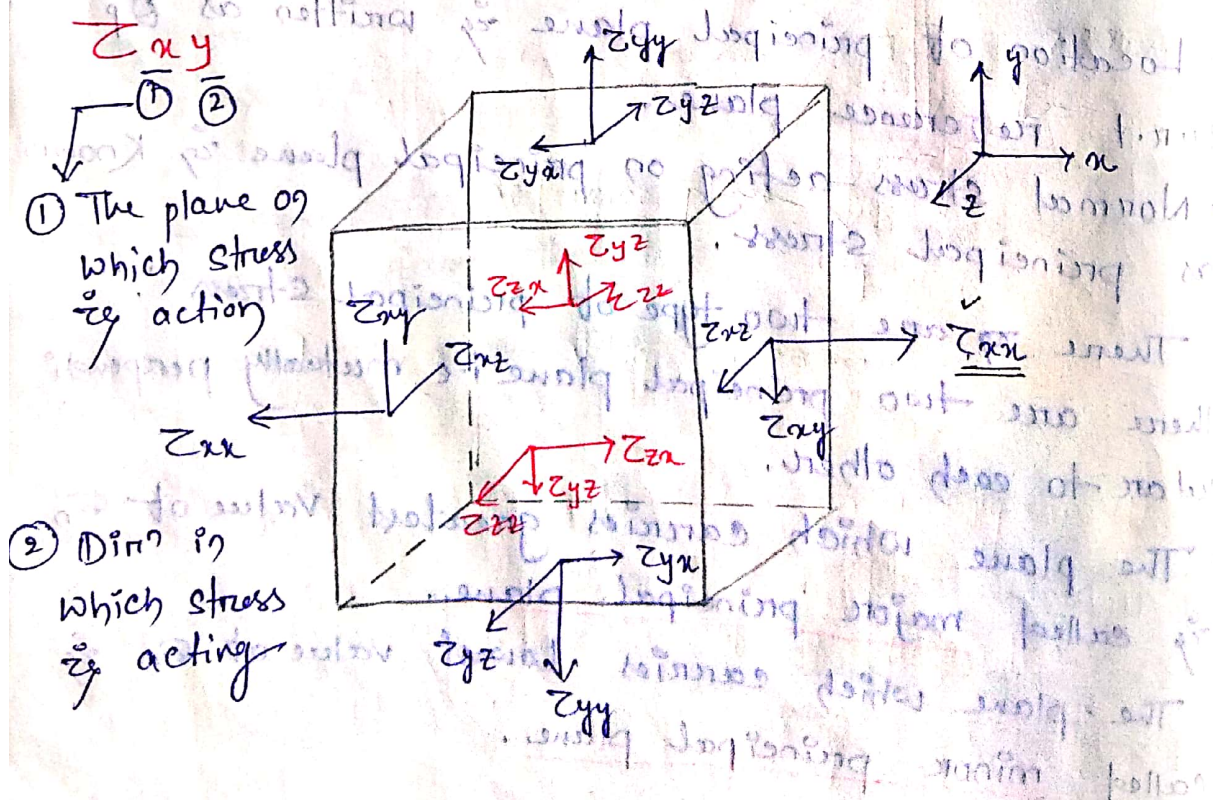
→ Stress is a second order tensor quantity.

Stress tensor

$$[\sigma] = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_{xz} \\ \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{zx} & \sigma_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$$

Representation of stress tensor

3-D state of stress



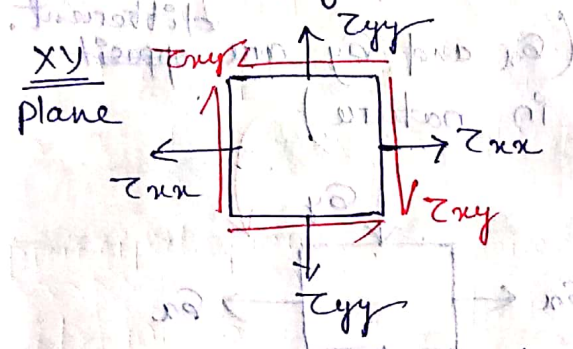
τ_{xx}
 $\downarrow \rightarrow \alpha$ direction.
 α -plane } called as normal stresses.

$\rightarrow \tau_{xx} = \sigma_x$

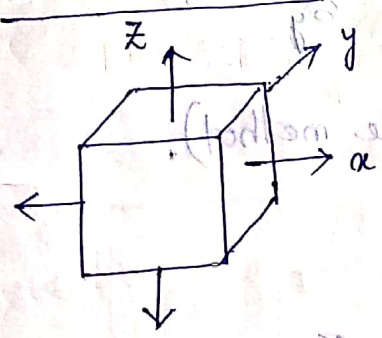
$\tau_{yy} = \sigma_y$

$\tau_{zz} = \sigma_z$

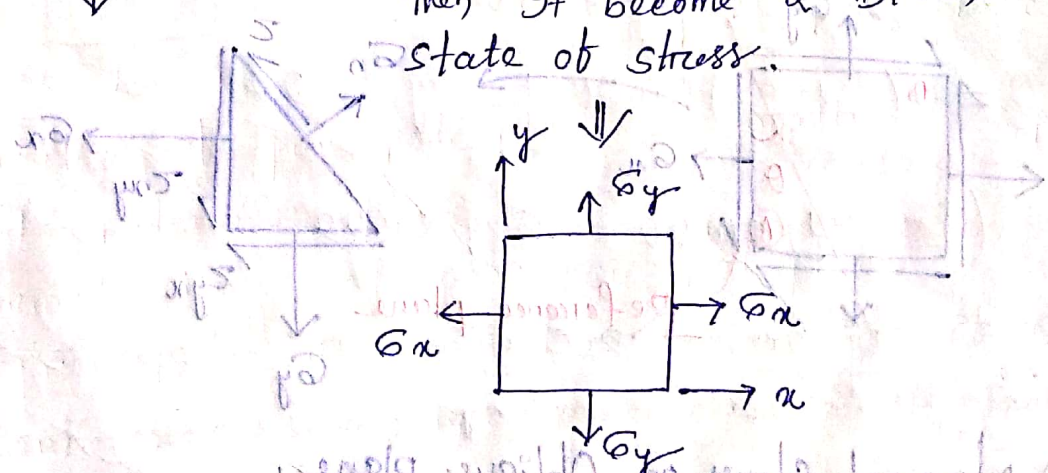
\rightarrow complementary shear stress



* 3-Dimensional State of stress

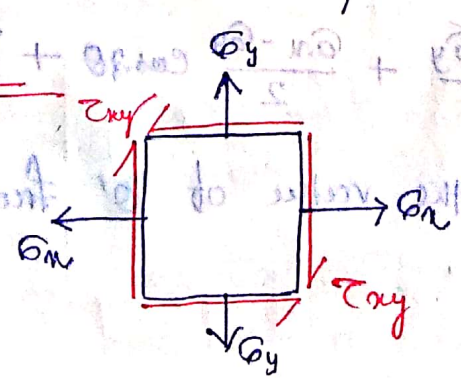


\rightarrow When in two direction stress is present and in one direction the stress is less or negligible then it become 2-Dimensional state of stress.



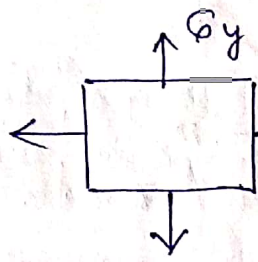
This is also called as plane stress

Complex stress



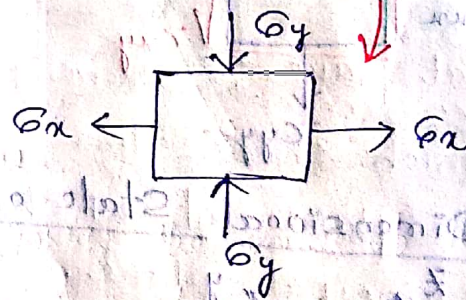
→ Complex stress is also a plane stress. In complex stress the normal stress and also the shear stress present.

→ plane stress or 2-D



Like stresses (σ_x & σ_y) are same in nature

Unlike stresses (σ_x and σ_y are different in nature)

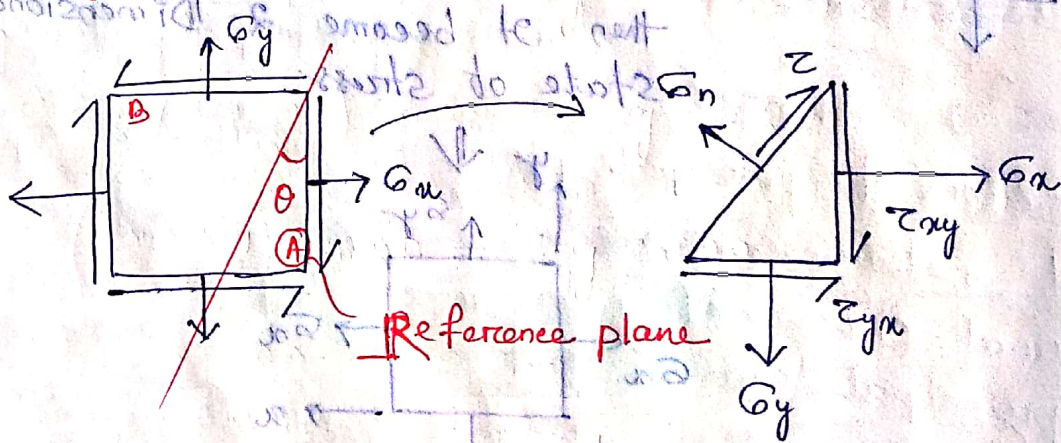


Analysis of state of stress

→ Analytical method

→ Graphical method. (Mohr's circle method).

* Analytical Method



① Normal stress on Oblique plane.

$$\sigma_n \text{ or } \sigma_\theta = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta$$

Always measure the value of θ from the reference plane.

(ii) Shear stress on oblique plane.

$$\tau_{\theta} \text{ or } \tau_{\theta} = -\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right) \sin 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta.$$

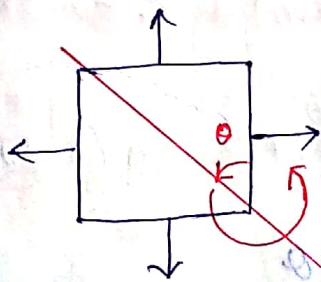
* $\theta = (+ve)$ if measured ~~ccw~~ clockwise from vertical plane.

$\theta = (-ve)$ if measured anticlockwise from vertical plane.

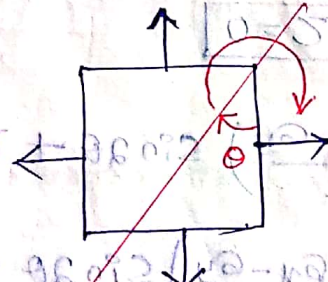
* If in the question only statement is given no diagram is there then assume θ is $(+ve)$ i.e. clockwise from the vertical reference plane.

σ_x is $(+ve)$ when tensile & $(-ve)$ when compressive.

σ_y is $(+ve)$ when tensile & $(-ve)$ when compressive.



θ is in anticlockwise from the reference plane



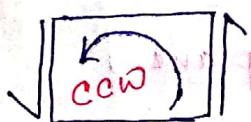
θ is in clockwise from the reference plane

→ put $\theta = -\theta$ in all formulae for calculation if θ is anti-clockwise from vertical reference plane.

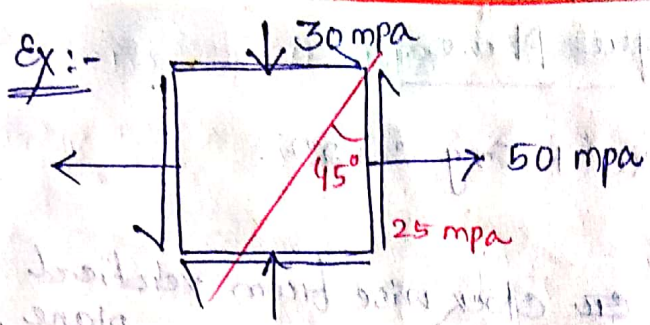
Shear stress (τ_{xy})



→ Take τ_{xy} as $(+ve)$ if giving a clockwise rotation.



→ Take τ_{xy} as $(-ve)$ if giving an anti-clockwise rotation.



$$\sigma_x = 50 \text{ mpa}$$

$$\sigma_y = -30 \text{ mpa}$$

$$\tau_{xy} = -25 \text{ mpa}$$

$$\theta = 45^\circ$$

Normal stress:-

$$(\sigma_n \text{ or } \sigma_\theta) = \left(\frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta$$

Shear stress:-

$$(\tau \text{ or } \tau_\theta) = -\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \sin 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta$$

Location of Principal plane

We know that the plane on which the value of the shear stress is zero is called principal plane.

→ so put $\tau = 0$

$$\tau = \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \sin 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta$$

$$0 = -\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \sin 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta$$

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \sin 2\theta = \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta$$

$$\frac{\sin 2\theta}{\cos 2\theta} = \frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}$$

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}$$

- At $\theta = \theta_{P_1}$
- $\theta_{P_1} = \theta_{P_1}$
- $\theta_{P_2} = \theta_{P_1} + 90^\circ$

$$\theta_P = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y} \right)$$

Location of principal plane

Location of plane of Maximum Shear Stress

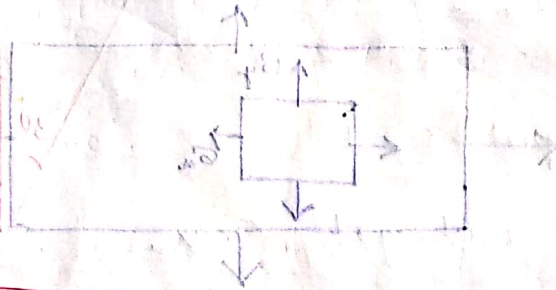
$$\rightarrow \frac{d\tau}{d\theta} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right) 2 \cos 2\theta + \left\{ -2\tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \right\} = 0$$

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right) 2 \cos 2\theta = -2\tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta$$

$$\frac{\sin 2\theta}{\cos 2\theta} = \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{-2\tau_{xy}}$$

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{-2\tau_{xy}}$$



$$\theta = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(-\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2\tau_{xy}} \right)$$

At this (value of θ) τ is maximum

We represent this as ϕ

ϕ is plane of maximum shear stress

$$\phi = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(-\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2\tau_{xy}} \right)$$

Principal Stresses

$$\sigma_{1,2} = \left(\frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} \right) \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

σ_1 = Major principal stress (max^m value of Normal stress)
 σ_2 = Minor principal stress (Min^m value of Normal stress)

Consider magnitude

$$\text{Ex: } \sigma_{1,2} = 75 \pm 13$$

$$\text{Major} \rightarrow \sigma_1 = 88, \quad \sigma_2 = 62 \leftarrow \text{minor}$$

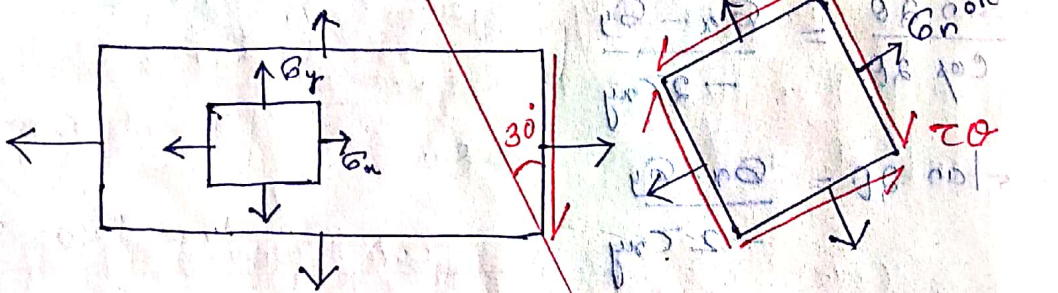
$$\sigma_{1,2} = -75 \pm 13$$

Major $\sigma_1 = -88$ Minor $\sigma_2 = -62$

$\sigma_1 = -88$
Major

$\sigma_2 = -62$
Minor

Transformation of stresses

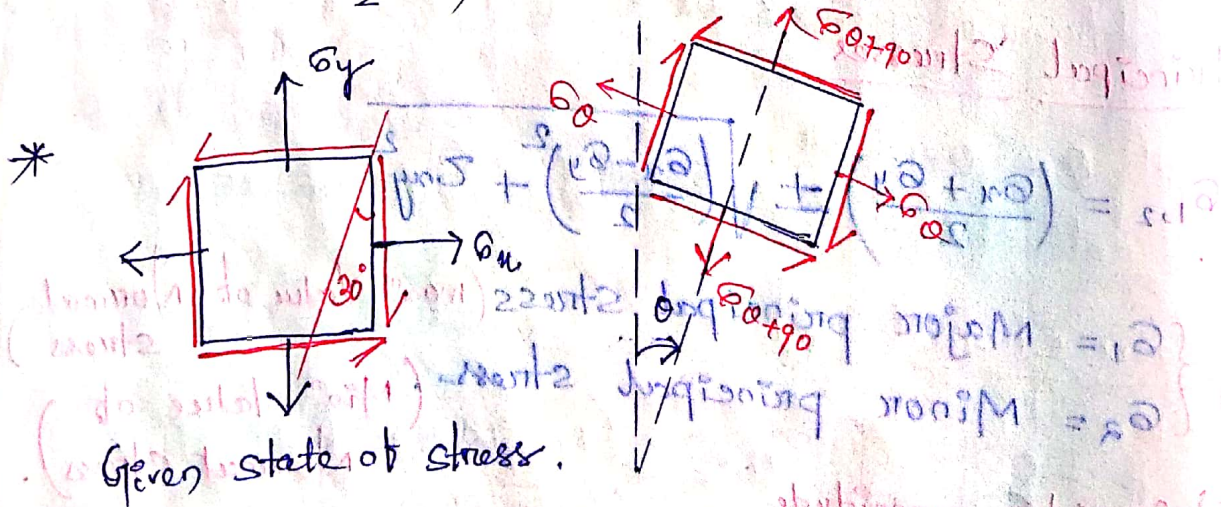


$$\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \tan \frac{\phi}{2} + \tau = 0$$

$$\sigma_n = \left(\frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_{\theta+90}}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_{\theta+90}}{2} \right) \cos(2 \times 30^\circ) + \tau \sin(2 \times 30^\circ)$$

$$\sigma_y = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_{\theta+90}}{2} + \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_{\theta+90}}{2} \right) \cos(2 \times 120^\circ) + \tau \sin(2 \times 120^\circ)$$

$$\tau_{xy} = - \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_{\theta+90}}{2} \right) \sin(2 \times 30^\circ) + \tau \cos(2 \times 30^\circ)$$



→ find out normal stresses on an oblique plane at θ° from 'A' (vertical plane, i.e. the reference plane)

→ find out state of stress when element is rotated by θ degrees.

$$\sigma_{\theta} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\sigma_{\theta+90} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2(\theta+90) + \tau_{xy} \sin 2(\theta+90)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos(180+2\theta) + \tau_{xy} \sin(180+2\theta)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} - \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2\theta - \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

eqn (1) + eqn (2)

$$\sigma_{\theta} + \sigma_{\theta+90} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} = \sigma_x + \sigma_y$$

$$\sigma_{\theta} + \sigma_{\theta+90} = \sigma_x + \sigma_y$$

→ for a given state of stress the sum of normal stresses on ϕ two mutually perpendicular planes remains const

→ for principal planes and principal stresses.

$$\sigma_p = \sigma_1$$

$$\sigma_{p+90} = \sigma_2$$

$$\sigma_p + \sigma_{p+90} = \sigma_x + \sigma_y \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Two mutually perpendicular principal planes.

$$\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 = \sigma_x + \sigma_y$$

$$\sigma_{1,2} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

$$\sigma_1 = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

$$\sigma_2 = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

By adding σ_1 & σ_2

$$\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 = \sigma_x + \sigma_y$$

* Maximum Shear stress

$$\phi = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2\tau_{xy}} \right)$$

$$\tau_{or} \tau_{\theta} = \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \sin 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta$$

put $\theta = \phi$

we will get τ_{max} .

$$\text{so; } \tau_{max} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

We know

$$\sigma_{1,2} = \left(\frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} \right) \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

$$\sigma_1 = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\sigma_2 = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

eqⁿ (1) - eqⁿ (2)

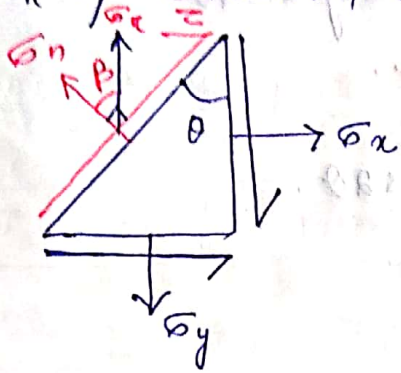
$$\sigma_1 - \sigma_2 = 2 \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

$$\frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2} = \tau_{max}$$

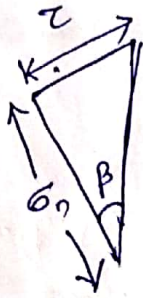
$$\Rightarrow \tau_{max} = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2}$$

Resultant Stress

σ_r is calculated on any (oblique plane)



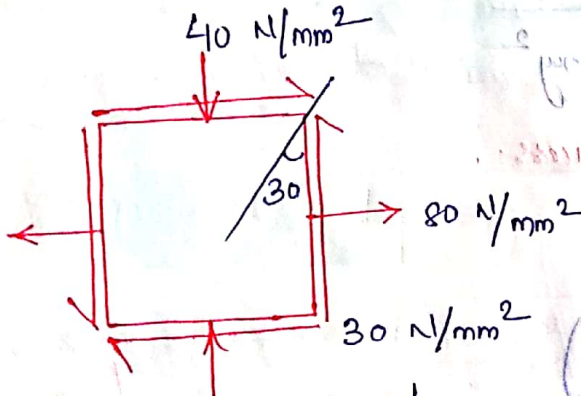
$$\sigma_r = \sqrt{\sigma_n^2 + \tau^2}$$



$$\tan \beta = \frac{\tau}{\sigma_n}$$

$$\beta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau}{\sigma_n} \right)$$

Q. 22



for the given state of stress; calculate

- (i) Normal and shear stresses on oblique plane
- (ii) Principal stress and its location.
- (iii) maximum shear stress and its plane.
- (iv) Obliquity and resultant stress.

Ans. To find

- ① σ_n, σ_θ & τ or τ_θ
- ② σ_1 & σ_2 & θ_p
- ③ τ_{max} & ϕ
- ④ β, σ_r

formulae

$$\sigma_n \text{ or } \sigma_\theta = \left(\frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta$$

Normal stress on any oblique plane.

$$\tau_{\text{or } \tau_\theta = - \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \sin 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta$$

Shear stress at an oblique plane.

$$\sigma_{1,2} = \left(\frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} \right) \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

principal stresses.

$$\theta_p = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y} \right)$$

Location of principal plane.

$$\tau_{\text{max}} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

maximum shear stress.

$$\tau_{\text{max}} = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2}$$

$$\phi = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(- \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2\tau_{xy}} \right)$$

Location of plane of maximum shear stress.

$$\sigma_r = \sqrt{\sigma_n^2 + \tau^2}$$

obliquity & Resultant stress

$$\sigma_r = \sqrt{\sigma_\theta^2 + \tau_\theta^2}$$

$$\beta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau_\theta}{\sigma_\theta} \right) \text{ or } \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau}{\sigma_n} \right)$$

Given data

$$\sigma_x = 80 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

$$\sigma_y = -40 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

$$\tau_{xy} = -80 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

↑ a plane y direction stress

$$\theta = 30^\circ \text{ (CW)}$$

1. Normal stress on oblique plane

$$\sigma_n = \left(\frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta$$

$$= \frac{80 - 40}{2} + \frac{80 - (-40)}{2} \cos(2 \times 30^\circ) + (-80) \sin(2 \times 30^\circ)$$

$$\sigma_n = -19.28 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

2. Shear stress on oblique plane

$$\tau_{or} \tau_\theta = - \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right) \sin 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta$$

$$= - \left(\frac{80 - (-40)}{2} \right) \sin(60^\circ) + (-80) \cos(60^\circ)$$

$$\tau = -91.96 \text{ N/mm}^2 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{here -ve means} \\ \text{clockwise} \end{array} \right.$$

3. Principal stresses

$$\sigma_{1,2} = \left(\frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} \right) \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

$$= \left(\frac{80 + 40}{2} \right) \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{80 - 40}{2} \right)^2 + (-80)^2}$$

$$= 20 \pm 100$$

for (+ve) $20 + 100 = 120 \text{ N/mm}^2$

for (-ve) $20 - 100 = -80 \text{ N/mm}^2$

only compare magnitude not the sign.

$\sigma_1 = 120 \text{ N/mm}^2 \rightarrow$ major principal stress

$\sigma_2 = -80 \text{ N/mm}^2 \rightarrow$ minor principal stress.

4. Location of principal plane.

$$\theta_p = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2 \times (-80)}{80 - 40} \right) = -26.565^\circ$$

principal plane is at 26.56° from vertical plane in anti-clockwise direction.

$$\tau_{max} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{80 + 40}{2}\right)^2 + (-80)^2}$$

$$= 100 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

6. plane of maximum shear stress

$$\phi = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(-\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2\tau_{xy}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(-\frac{80 + 40}{2 \times (-80)} \right)$$

$$= 18.435^\circ$$

plane of max^m shear stress is at 18.435° from vertical plane in clock-wise direction.

$$* \sigma_n = -19.28 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

$$\tau = -91.96 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

$$\text{Resultant stress} = \sqrt{\sigma_n^2 + \tau^2} \text{ or } \sqrt{\sigma_o^2 + \tau_o^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{(-19.28)^2 + (-91.96)^2}$$

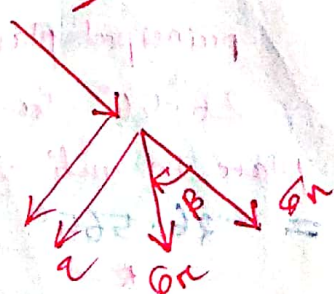
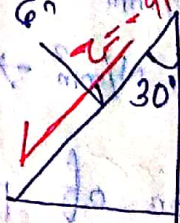
$$= 93.96 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

$$\text{Obliquity } (\beta) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau}{\sigma_n} \right) \text{ or } \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau_o}{\sigma_o} \right)$$

Always measured with Normal stress or direction of normal stress.

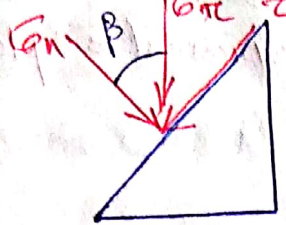
$$= \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{-91.96}{-19.28} \right)$$

$$= 78.16 \text{ N/mm}^2$$



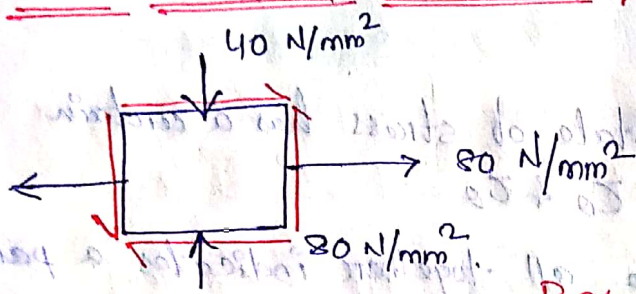
LR
(↑) +ve
(↓) -ve

RL
(↓) +ve
(↑) -ve



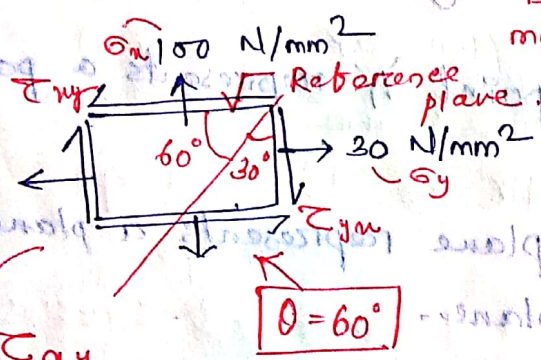
σ_n is towards the surface
So it is compressive.

* How to select reference plane



The plane which carries **maximum stress** in a given problem should be taken as reference plane.

Based on magnitude of stress.

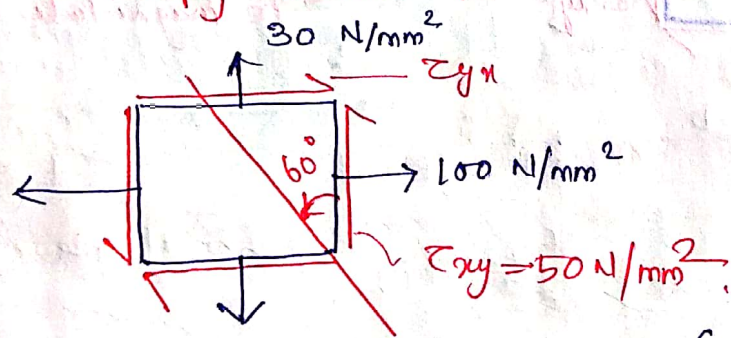


$\sigma_x > \sigma_y$

The highest stress value should be taken as σ_x .

shear stress on α -plane and y -direction.

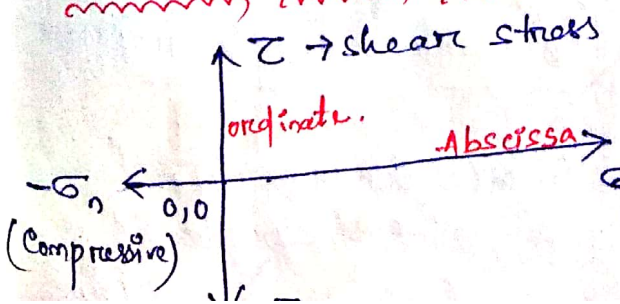
Simply rotate 90° of this type of a figure if given.



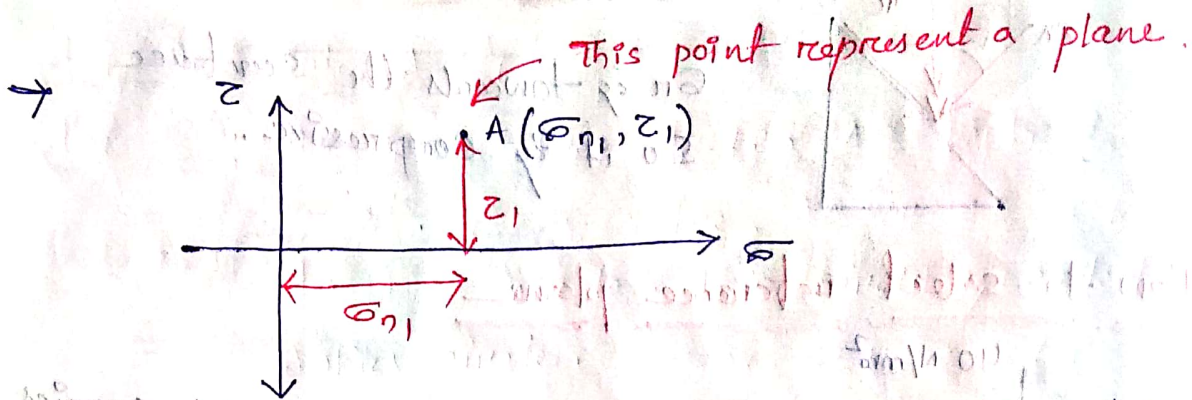
$\theta = 60^\circ$ {anti-clockwise}

23

Mohr's Circle Method.



for τ
 CW $\left[\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \tau \\ \hline \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow +ve$
 ACW $\left[\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \tau \\ \hline \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow -ve$

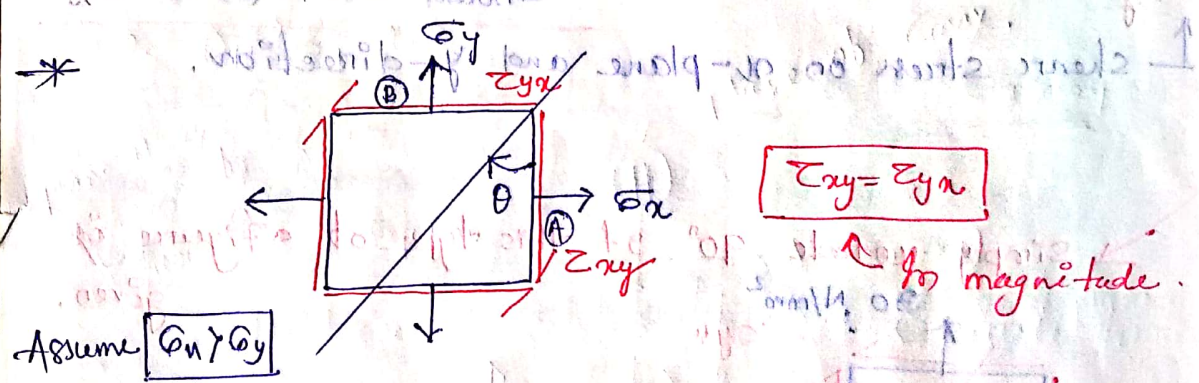


→ Each plane on a given state of stress has a certain values of σ_n & τ or τ_o & τ_o

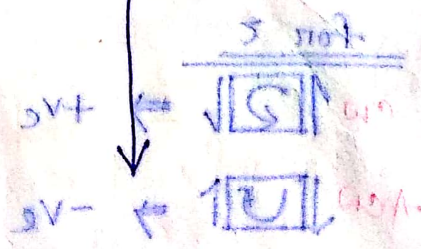
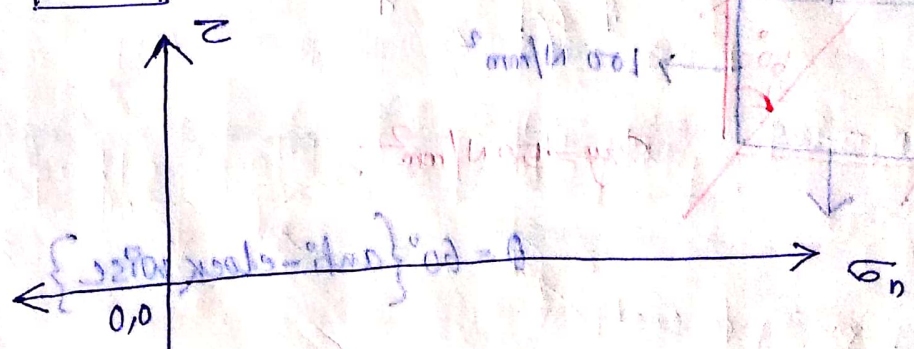
→ σ_n and τ or σ_o and τ_o all together indicates a particular oblique plane

→ In the above figure the point A represents a particular oblique plane.

→ A point drawn on $(\sigma_n - \tau)$ plane represents a plane or state of stress of a plane.



Assume $\sigma_n > \sigma_y$



(Tensile) σ_1

Normal stress

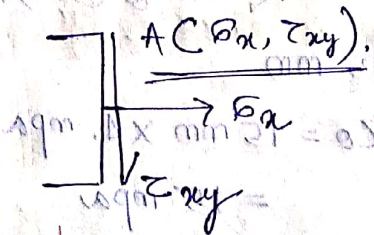
Sign Convention
mm mmmmm

$\sigma \rightarrow$ Tensile (+ve)
Compressive (-ve)

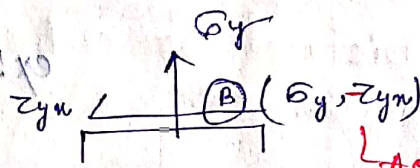
$\tau \rightarrow$ CW in plane (+ve)
ACW in plane (-ve)

$\theta \rightarrow$ CW from reference (+ve)
ACW from reference (-ve)

Plane A



Plane B



Step-1 Locate point 'A' & 'B' on $\sigma_n - \tau$ plane.

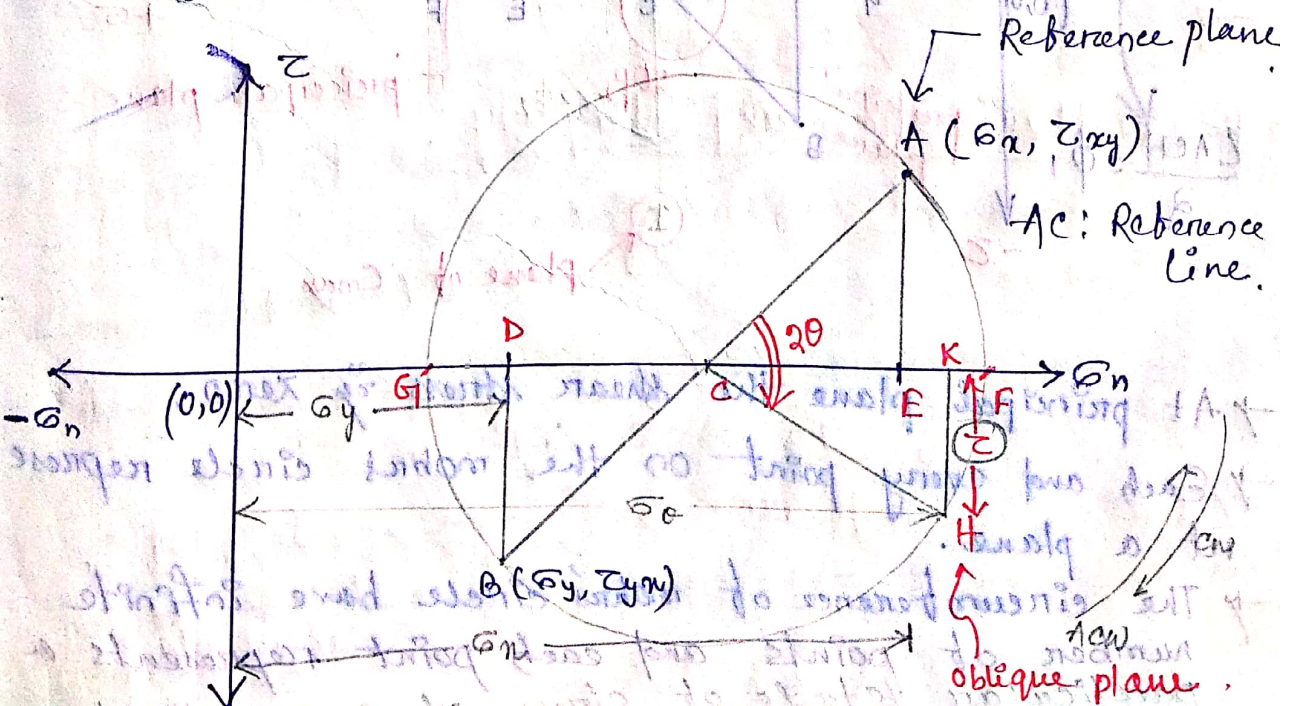
for given state of stress take suitable scale

To convert stress in terms of length.

$ex = 100 \text{ mpa} \rightarrow 10 \text{ cm}$

$1 \text{ mpa} \rightarrow \frac{10}{100} \text{ cm} = 0.1 \text{ cm} = 1 \text{ mm}$

$50 \text{ mpa} \rightarrow 5 \text{ cm}$



Step-2 : Join 'A' & 'B'

Step-3 : The intersection of line AB with σ_n axis is 'c'. C as centre, AC or CB as radius draw a circle. This circle is called as Mohr's circle.

Note:- The angles between any two planes on Mohr's circle is twice that of the actual angle.

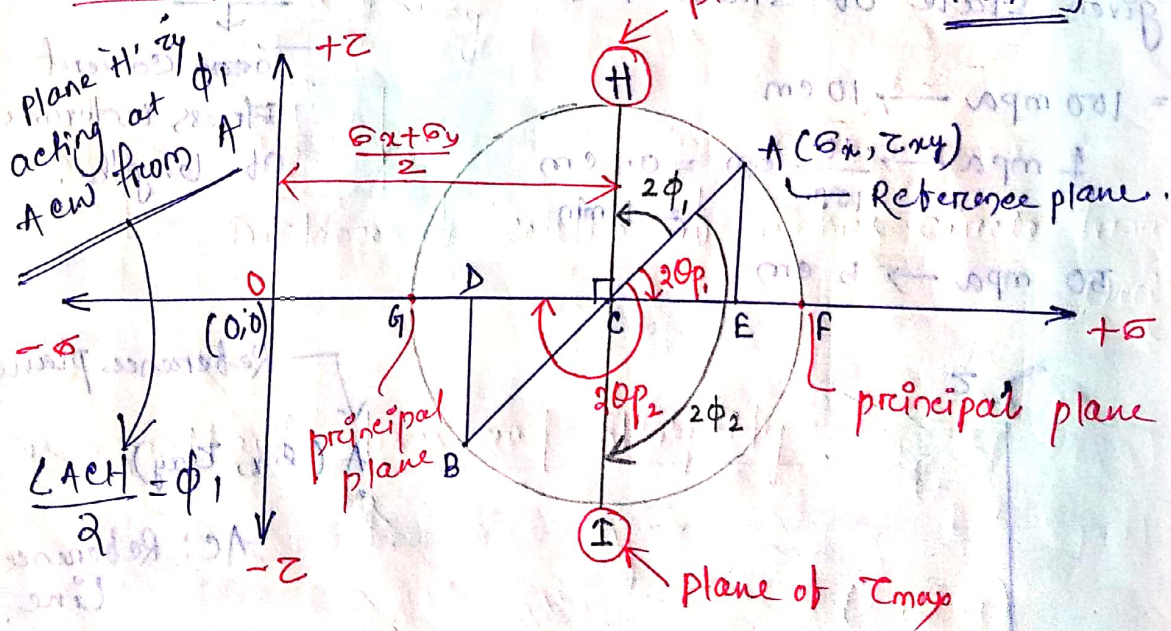
from the figure we can measure $HK = 2\tau$ (mm)
 $OK = \sigma_0$ (mm).

ex:- $HK = 15$ mm

$$HK = 2\tau = 15 \text{ mm} \times 1 \text{ mpa}$$

$$= 15 \text{ mpa}$$

* Location of principal plane and principal stresses
 i.e. σ_p, σ_1 & σ_2



- At principal plane the shear stress is zero.
- Each and every point on the Mohr's circle represents a plane.
- The circumference of Mohr's circle has infinite number of points and each point represents a particular state of stress at a particular

plane.

→ Location of principal plane is $\angle ACF = 2\theta_p$

$$2\theta_p = \angle ACF$$

$$\theta_p = \frac{\angle ACF}{2} \text{ (clockwise)}$$

→ From the Mohr's circle we can see that at point 'G' and 'F' the value of τ is zero so 'G' & 'F' point are the principal planes.

→ 'F' is the major principal plane coz value of normal stress is highest and the 'G' is the minor principal plane coz the value of normal stress is lowest.

→ Location of minor principal plane.

$$2\theta_p2 = \angle ACG$$

$$\theta_p3 = \frac{\angle ACG}{2} \text{ (clockwise)}$$

→ Principal stress

major principal stress is σ_1 (in mm)

minor principal stress is σ_2 (in mm)

→ The points where the Mohr's circle intersect the σ axis is called as principal plane.

* Maximum shear stress and its plane

→ The point on the Mohr's circle where the value of τ is maximum that point is known as maximum shear stress.

→ Draw a perpendicular line from σ_n axis from point 'C' the centre of Mohr's circle

$$\text{Now } CH = \tau_{\max} \text{ (+ve) clockwise}$$

maximum shear stress is equal to the radius of the Mohr's circle.



→ $Gf = \text{Diameter of Mohr's circle}$

τ_{max} i.e. radius of Mohr's circle = $\frac{Gf}{2}$

→ Diameter of Mohr's circle i.e. $Gf = \sigma_1 - \sigma_2$

$$\tau_{max} = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2} = \frac{Gf}{2}$$

$CI = -\tau_{max}$ (-ve) i.e. Anticlockwise

→ In plane of maximum shear stress, normal stress is not zero.

→ $OC = \text{Distance of centre of Mohr's circle from origin.}$

$$OC = OD + DC$$

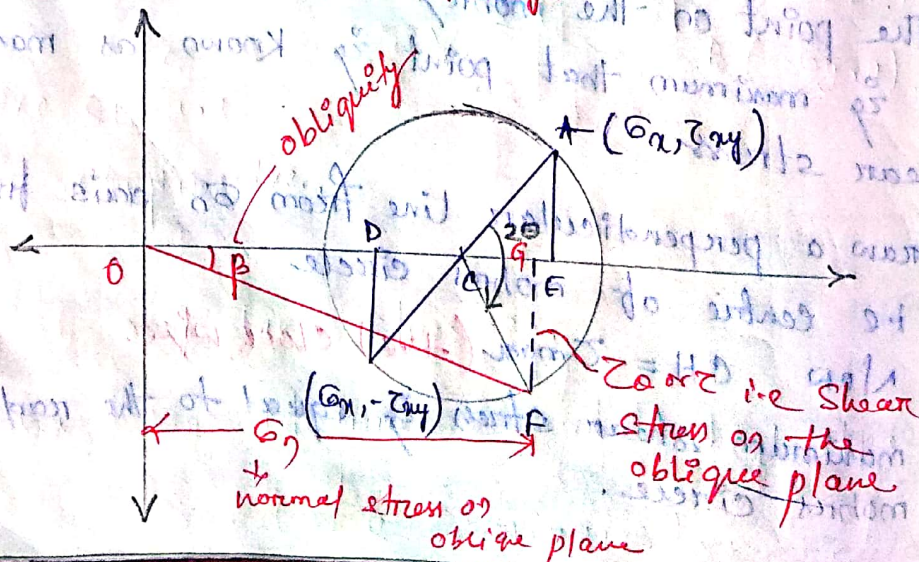
$$= \sigma_y + \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} + \sigma_y$$

$$OC = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2}$$

Distance of centre of Mohr's circle from Origin.

* Resultant stress and obliquity



Length of $OF = \sigma_r$

$\angle GOF = \beta$

$OG = \sigma_n$

$GF = \tau$

$OF = \sigma_r$

$\sigma_r = \sqrt{\sigma_n^2 + \tau^2}$

According to analytical method.

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→ plane state of stress means 2-D state of stress.

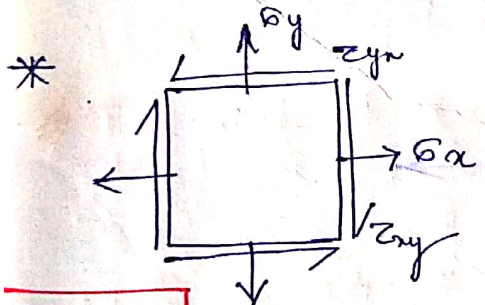
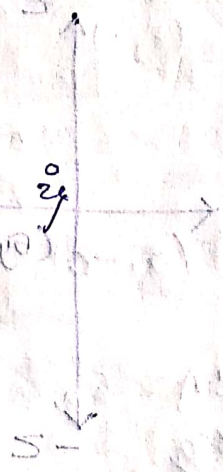
where $\sigma_z = 0$ for x-y plane.

$\left. \begin{matrix} \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{zy} \\ \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{xz} \end{matrix} \right\} = 0$

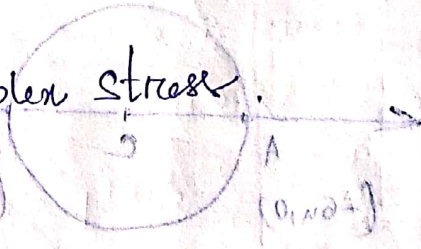
stress tensor for 2-D

$$[\tau] = \begin{bmatrix} \tau_{xx} & \tau_{xy} \\ \tau_{yx} & \tau_{yy} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x & \tau_{xy} \\ \tau_{yx} & \sigma_y \end{bmatrix}$$

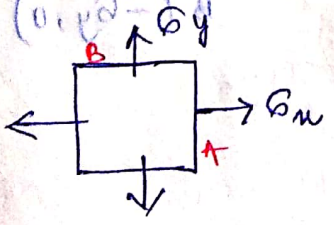


Complex stress.



Case - 1

(i) If τ_{yx} & τ_{xy} becomes zero.



This is like stress 2-D for $\tau = 0$.
 ∴ Nature of two stresses is same.
 σ_x & σ_y both tensile in nature.

→ What is principal plane in this case?

∴ For principal plane $\tau = 0$.

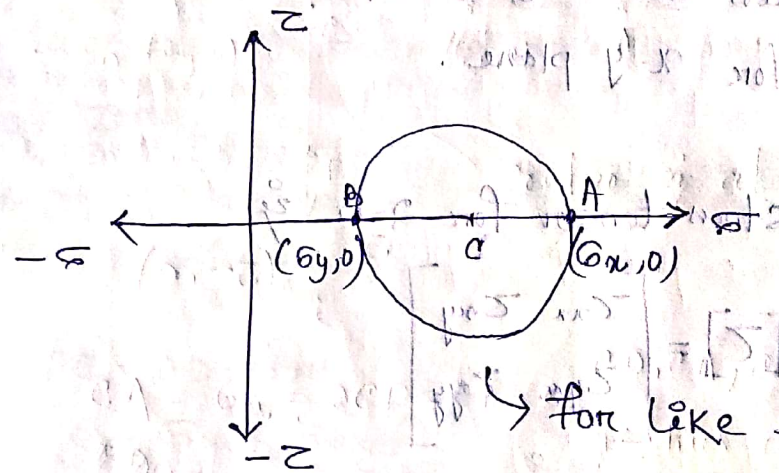
So here plane 'A' & 'B' are principal plane

→ What is principal stress in this case?

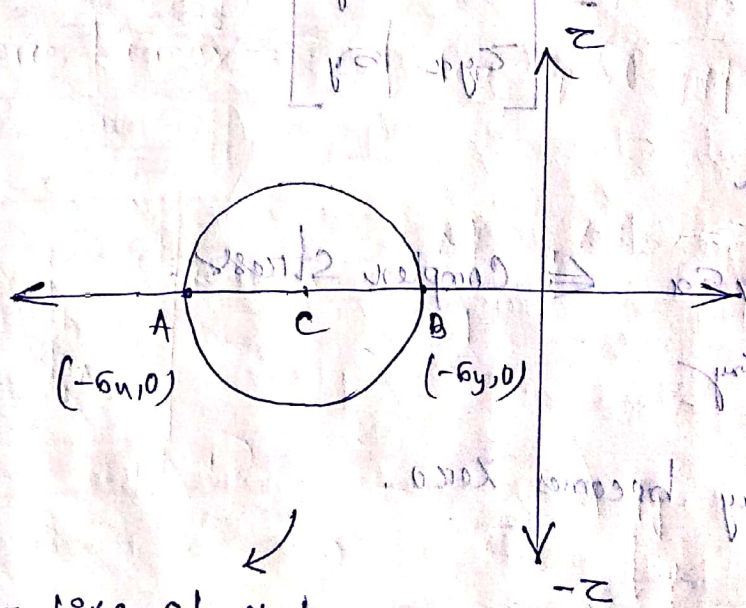
We know that the stress acting on the principal plane is called as principal stress. So σ_x & σ_y are the principal stresses.

If $\sigma_x > \sigma_y$ then $\sigma_1 = \sigma_x$
 $\sigma_2 = \sigma_y$

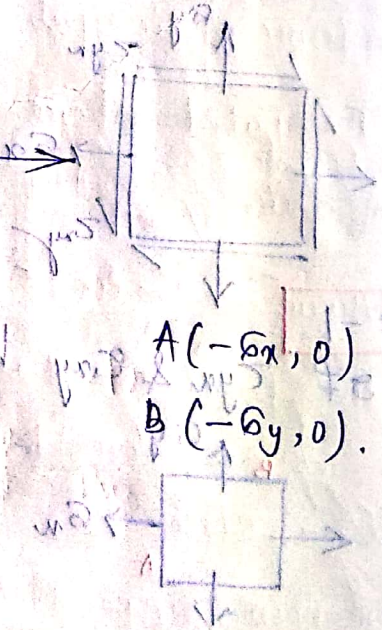
→ Mohr's Circle for above case:



for like stresses.
 for tensile



for like stresses
 for compressive

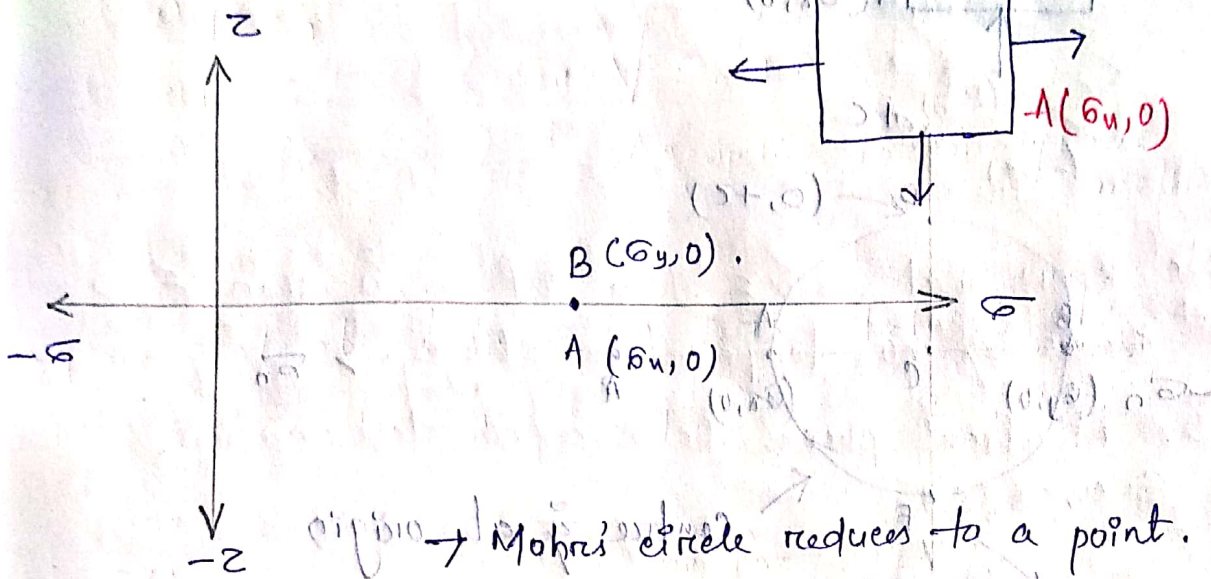


→ for equal and like stresses.

i.e. σ_x & σ_y Nature is same, but the
 (tensile, compressive)

magnitude of σ_x & σ_y is same ($\sigma_x = \sigma_y$).

Let σ_x & σ_y both are tensile.



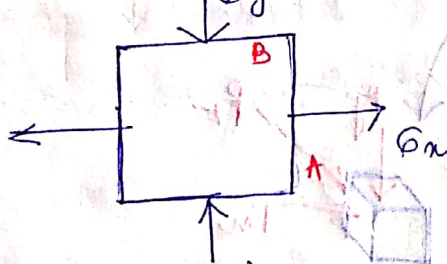
Mohr's circle reduces to a point. Radius of Mohr's circle is the maximum shear stress.

→ here shear stress is zero.

→ In case of equal and like stresses each and every oblique plane in a given state of stress is a principal plane.

* For Unlike stresses

$\tau_{xy}, \tau_{yx} = 0$



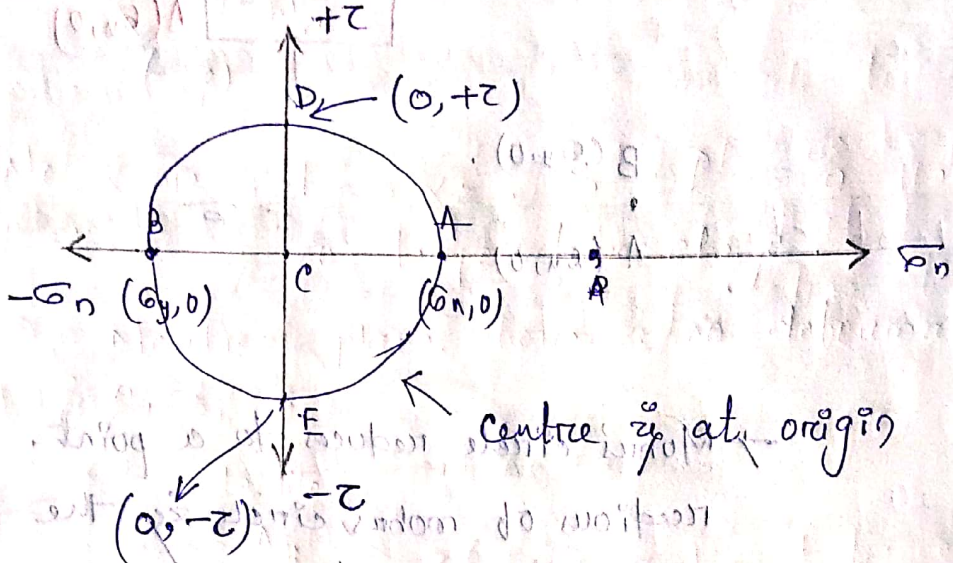
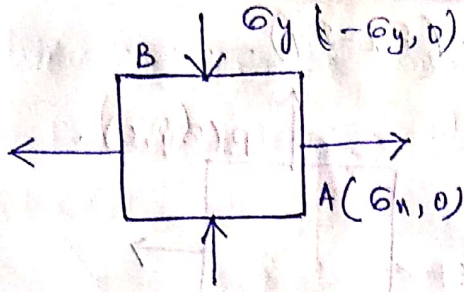
→ plane A' & B' are principal planes.

→ σ_x & σ_y are principal stresses.

* Equal & Unlike stresses

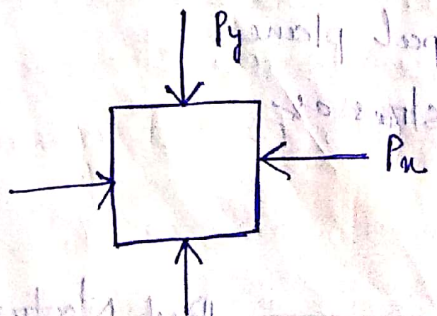
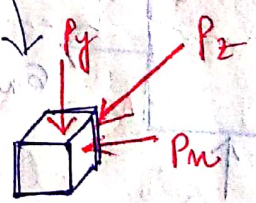
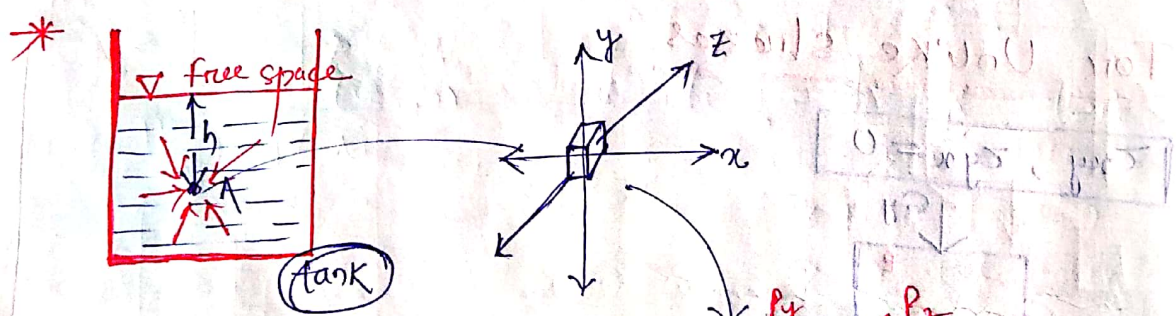
→ magnitude is same i.e. $\sigma_x = \sigma_y$

But Nature is Different.



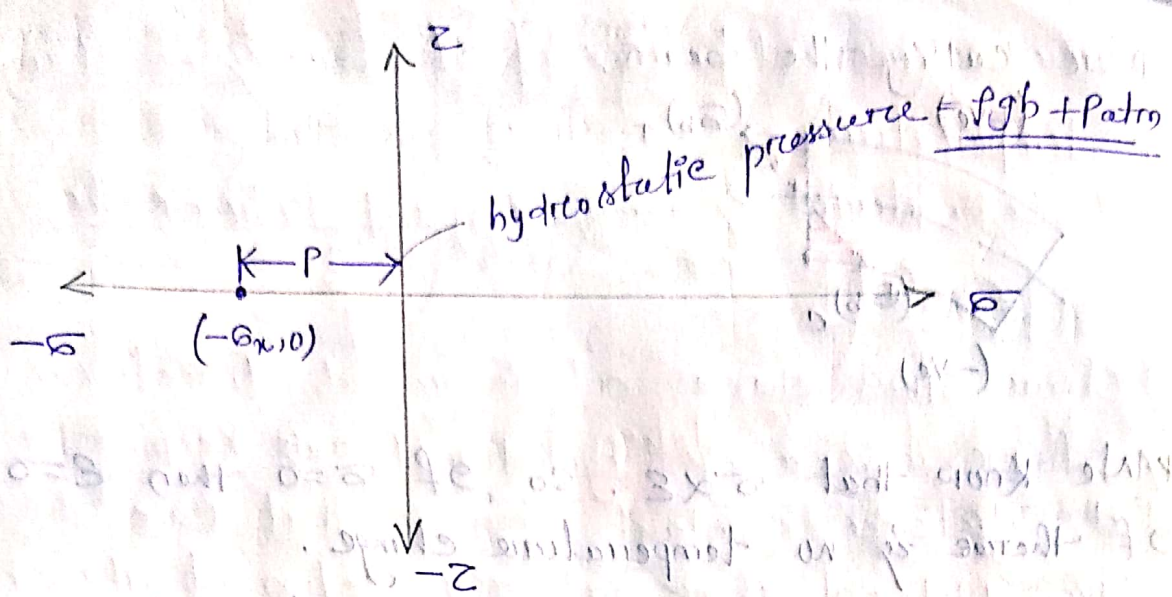
Centre z_0 at origin
 $CA = \sigma_n = CD = CE = CB$ } CD, CA, CE, CB are the radius of Mohr's circle.

here $\tau_{max} = \rho \alpha$ for equal and unlike stress.

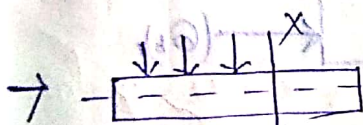
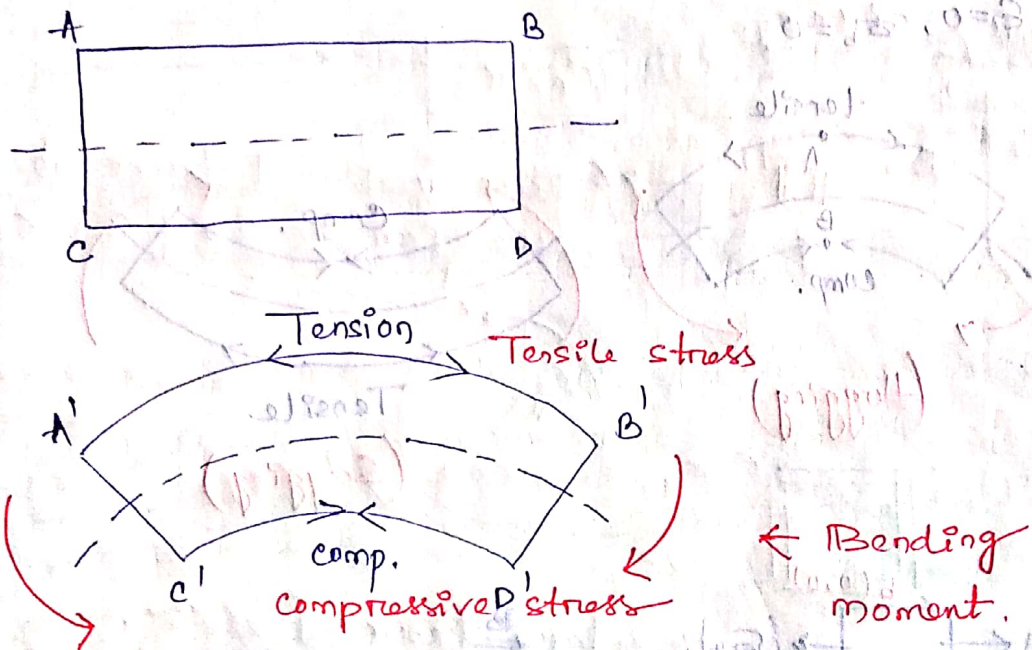


$P_x = P_y$

Equal & Like stress \rightarrow ~~increase~~ increase of hydrostatic pressure in a fluid element



25



Horizontal member is called beam.

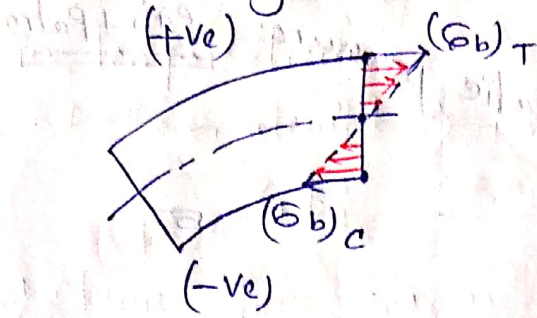
Beam carry vertical load in transverse direction.

$$M = f \cdot d$$

$\sum M_x \rightarrow$ summation of moment of forces upto section XX'

\rightarrow Due to application of Bending moment the tensile & compressive stress are setup in a in the beam these tensile and compressive stress are called Indirect stress.

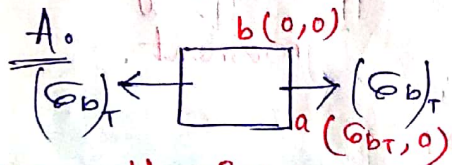
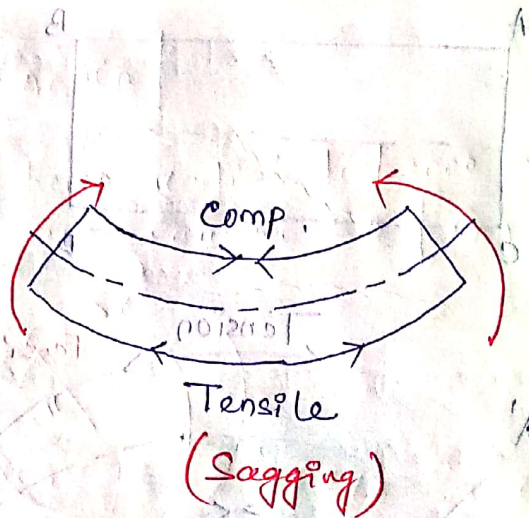
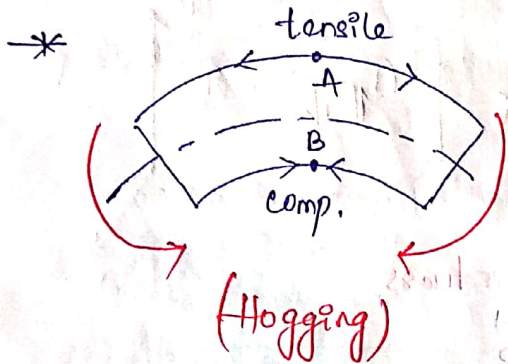
After cutting the beam,



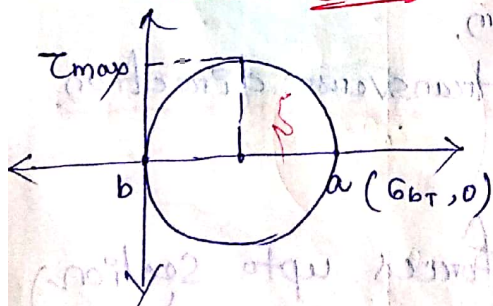
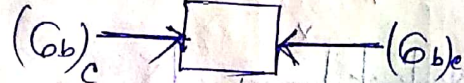
* We know that $\sigma \propto \epsilon$. So if $\sigma = 0$ then $\epsilon = 0$
 if there is no temperature change.

* In Neutral plane there is no deformation.

$\epsilon = 0, \sigma_b = 0$



For Hogging (A)

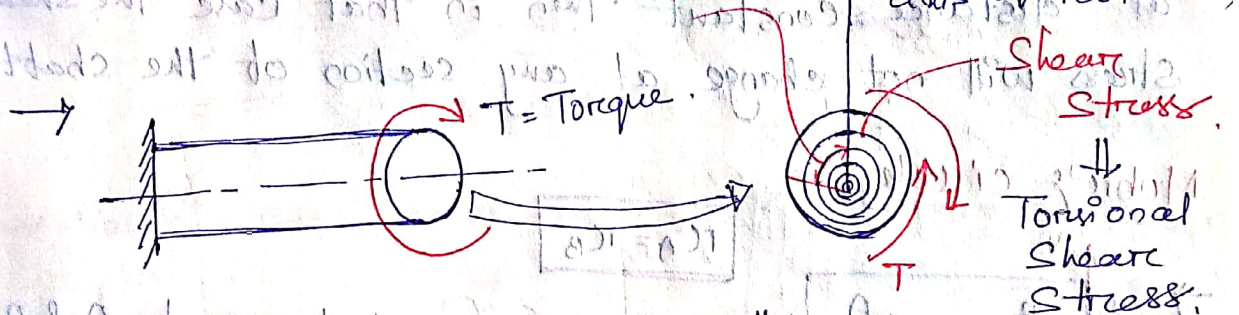
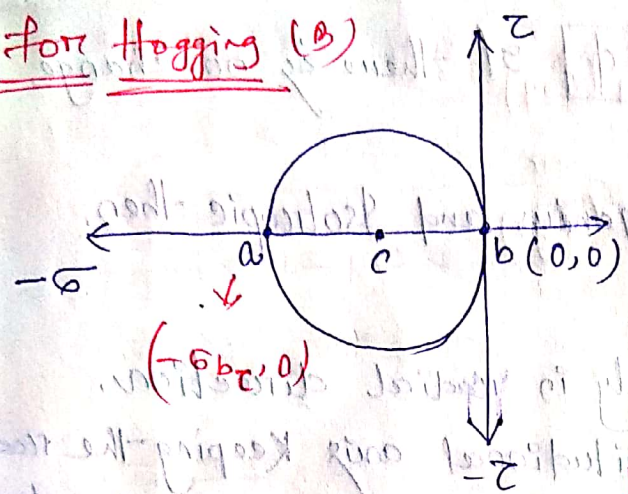


$\tau_{max} = \frac{\sigma_{bT}}{2}$

$(\tau_{max})_A = (\tau_{max})_B$ if $(\sigma_b)_A = (\sigma_b)_B$

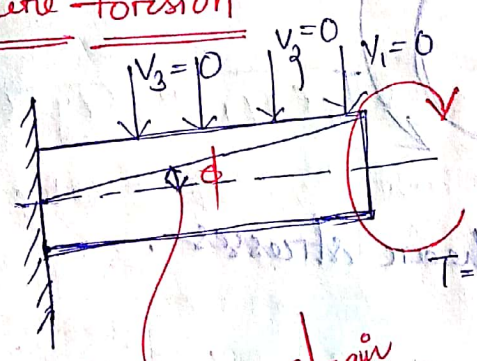
→

For Hooping (B)



Twist produced due to externally applied torque is known as pure torsion.

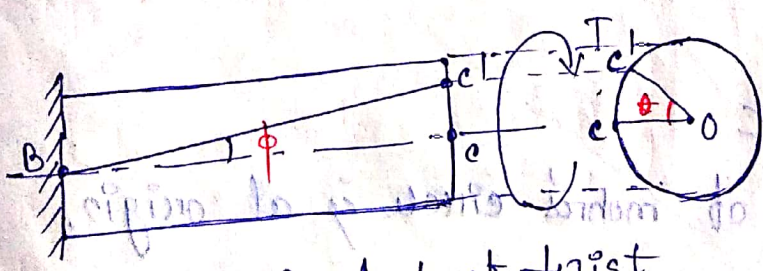
pure torsion



This is the case of pure torsion.

Torsional shear stress is function of radius.

i.e $\tau = f(r)$
 $\tau \propto \text{radius}$



$\theta = \text{Angle of twist}$
 $\phi = \text{Shear strain}$

• According to Hooke's law $\tau \propto \phi$ if there is no change in temperature.

• If the material is homogeneous and isotropic then,

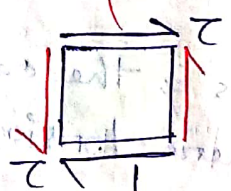
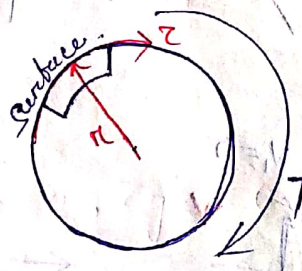
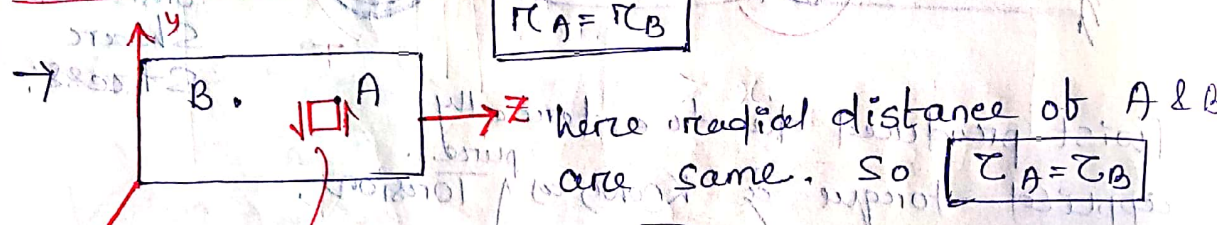
$$\tau = G\phi$$

→ Shear stress changes only in radial direction.

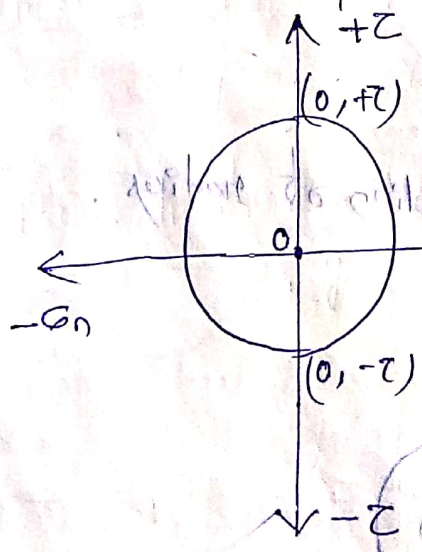
→ If we move along longitudinal axis keeping the radial distance constant then in that case the shear stress will not change at any section of the shaft.

Mohr's circle

$$\tau_A = \tau_B$$



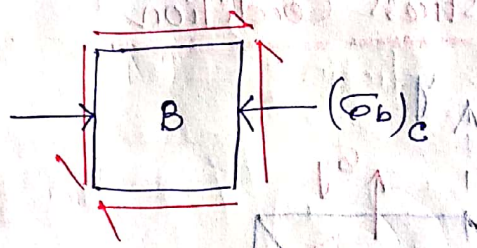
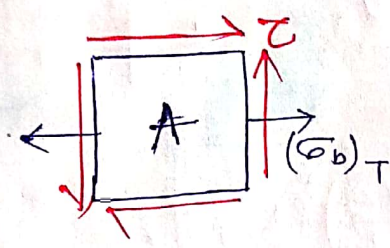
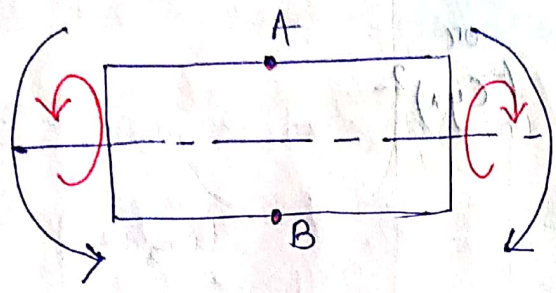
→ Complementary shear stresses.



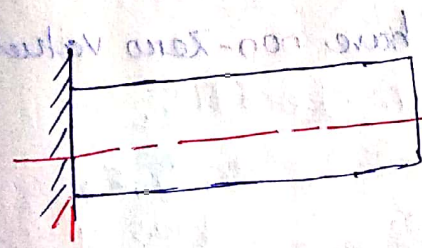
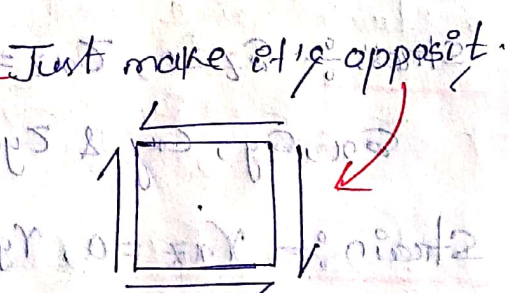
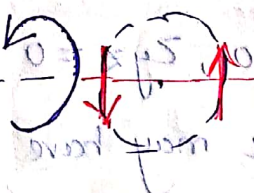
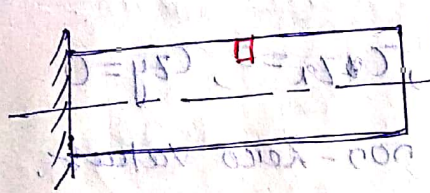
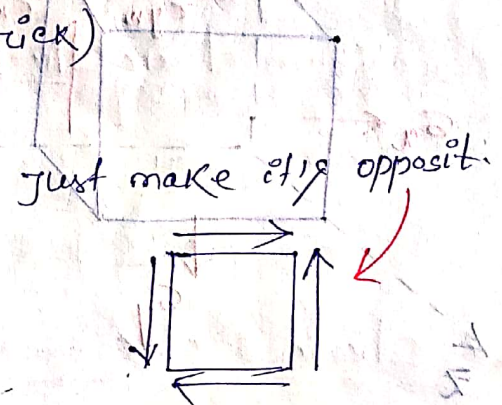
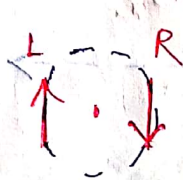
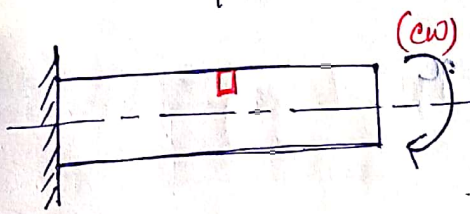
Same Mohr's circle is for
 → pure torsion
 → equal & unlike stresses

→ Here the centre of Mohr's circle is at origin.

* Mohr's Circle for Combined Bending & Torsion *

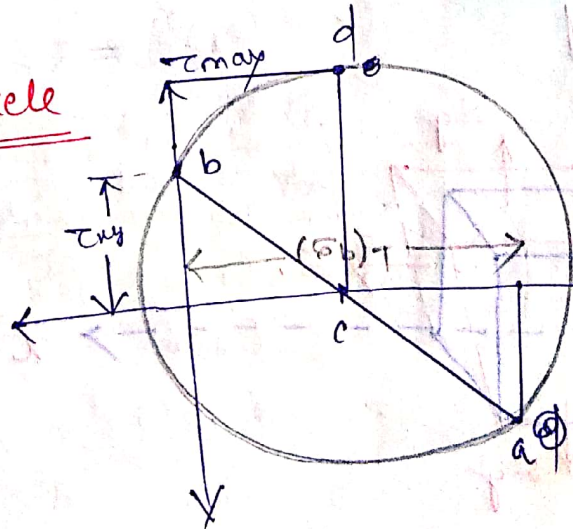


* How to place shear stress (trick)



Neutral Axis.

Mohr's Circle
for Element (A)

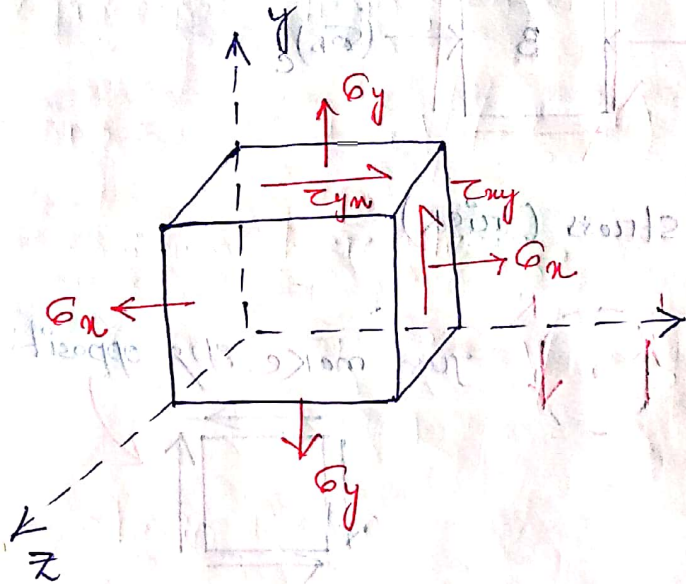


coordinates
A $(\sigma_{bT}, -\tau_{xy})$
B $(0, +\tau_{xy})$

→ Here $\tau_{max} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_b}{2}\right)^2 + (\tau_{xy})^2}$
 or $(\tau_{xy})^2$
Radius of Mohr's circle

(26)

* Plane stress Condition



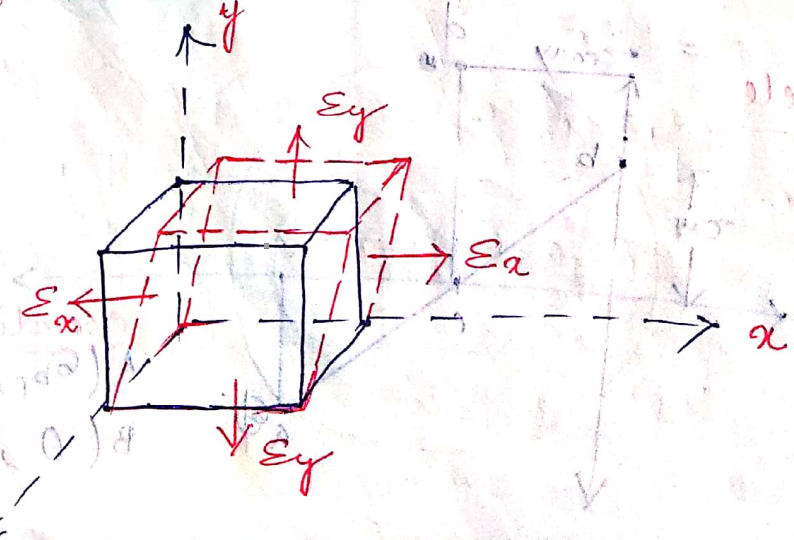
Stress :- $\sigma_z = 0, \tau_{xz} = 0, \tau_{yz} = 0, \tau_{zx} = 0, \tau_{zy} = 0$

$\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \tau_{xy}$ & τ_{yx} may have non-zero values.

Strain :- $\gamma_{xz} = 0, \gamma_{yz} = 0$

$\epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \epsilon_z, \gamma_{xy}$ & γ_{yx} may have non-zero values.

* Plane strain Condition



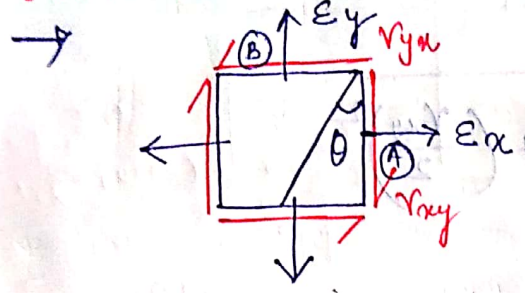
$\rightarrow \tau_{xz} = 0, \tau_{yz} = 0$

$\sigma_z, \sigma_x, \sigma_y$ and τ_{xy} & τ_{yz} may have non zero values.

$\rightarrow \epsilon_z = 0, \gamma_{xz} = 0, \gamma_{yz} = 0$

$\epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \gamma_{xy}$ & γ_{yz} may have zero values.

Transformation of strain:



Normal strain

$$\epsilon_\theta = \frac{\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2} \cos 2\theta + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2} \sin 2\theta$$

Shear strain on an oblique plane

$$\frac{\gamma}{2} = - \left(\frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2} \right) \sin 2\theta + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2} \cos 2\theta$$

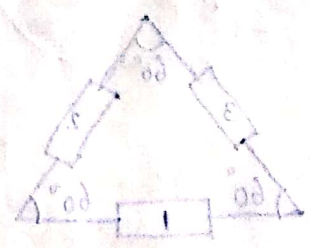
Principal plane ($\gamma = 0$)

$$- \left(\frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2} \right) \sin 2\theta + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2} \cos 2\theta = 0$$

$$\frac{\sin 2\theta}{\cos 2\theta} = \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}$$

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}$$

$$\theta_p = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\gamma_{xy}}{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y} \right)$$



Location of plane of maximum shear strain:

$$\frac{d\tau}{d\theta} = 0$$

$$\phi = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(- \frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{\gamma_{xy}} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_x &\rightarrow \epsilon_x \\ \sigma_y &\rightarrow \epsilon_y \\ \tau_{xy} &\rightarrow \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2} \end{aligned}$$

* Principal strain :-

$$\epsilon_{1,2} = \frac{\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\right)^2}$$

* maximum shear strain :-

$$\frac{\gamma_{max}}{2} = \frac{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2}{2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\right)^2}$$

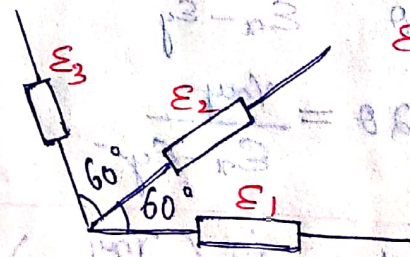
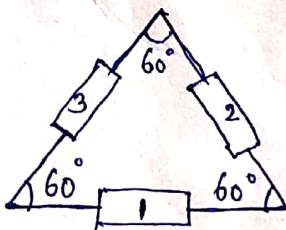
* Strain Rosette

→ strain gauge used to measure strain.

$$\rightarrow \epsilon_n = \frac{\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2} \cos 2\theta + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2} \sin 2\theta$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{\gamma}{2} = - \left(\frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2}\right) \sin 2\theta + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2} \cos 2\theta$$

(i) Delta type, Equi angular strain Rosette.



$\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3$
was given.

$$\theta_1 = 0^\circ$$

$$\theta_2 = 60^\circ$$

$$\theta_3 = 120^\circ$$

put values of θ in ϵ_n .

$$\epsilon_n = \frac{\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2} \cos 2\theta + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2} \sin 2\theta$$

then we get three equations.

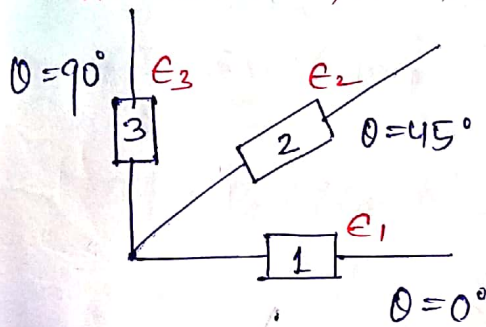
$$\epsilon_1 = \epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \gamma_{xy} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\epsilon_2 = \epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \gamma_{xy} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\epsilon_3 = \epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \gamma_{xy} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

here three equations, and three unknowns present by solving we can get the value of $\epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \gamma_{xy}$

2. Rectangular or Square (strain) rosette.



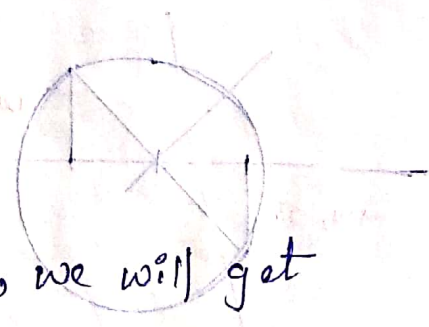
ϵ_1, ϵ_2 & ϵ_3 was given.

By putting values of θ in ϵ_n we get 3 equations

$$\epsilon_1 = \epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \gamma_{xy} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\epsilon_2 = \epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \gamma_{xy} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\epsilon_3 = \epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \gamma_{xy} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$



By solving these three equations, we will get $\epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \gamma_{xy}$.

* principal stresses through principal plane.

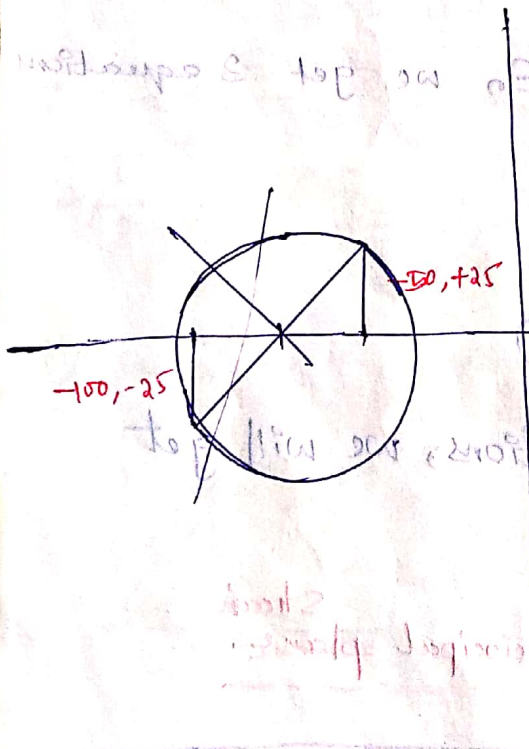
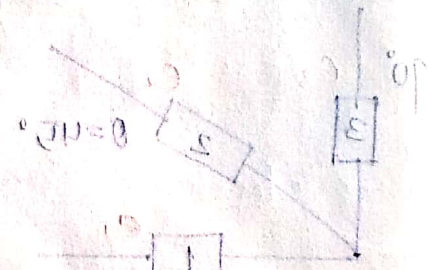
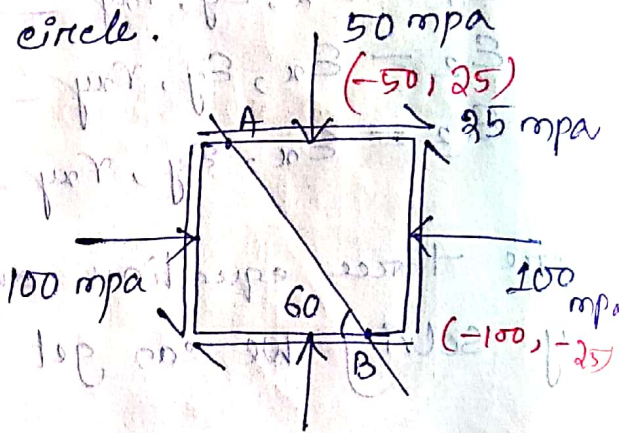
$$\sigma_1 = \frac{E(\epsilon_1 + \mu\epsilon_2)}{1 - \mu^2}$$

$$\sigma_2 = \frac{E(\mu\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2)}{1 - \mu^2}$$

27) A machine component is subjected to the stresses as shown in figure. Find the normal stress and shear stress on plane AB, inclined at an angle of 60° with X-axis. also find resultant stress on the section by Mohr's circle.

$\sigma_x = 100 \text{ mpa} = -100$
 $\sigma_y = 50 \text{ mpa} = -50$
 Vertical planes are our reference plane.

$\tau_{xy} = 25 \text{ mpa (ccw)}$
 $= -25 \text{ mpa}$
 $\theta = 60^\circ \text{ (ccw)}$
 $= 30^\circ \text{ (ccw)}$
 $= -30^\circ$

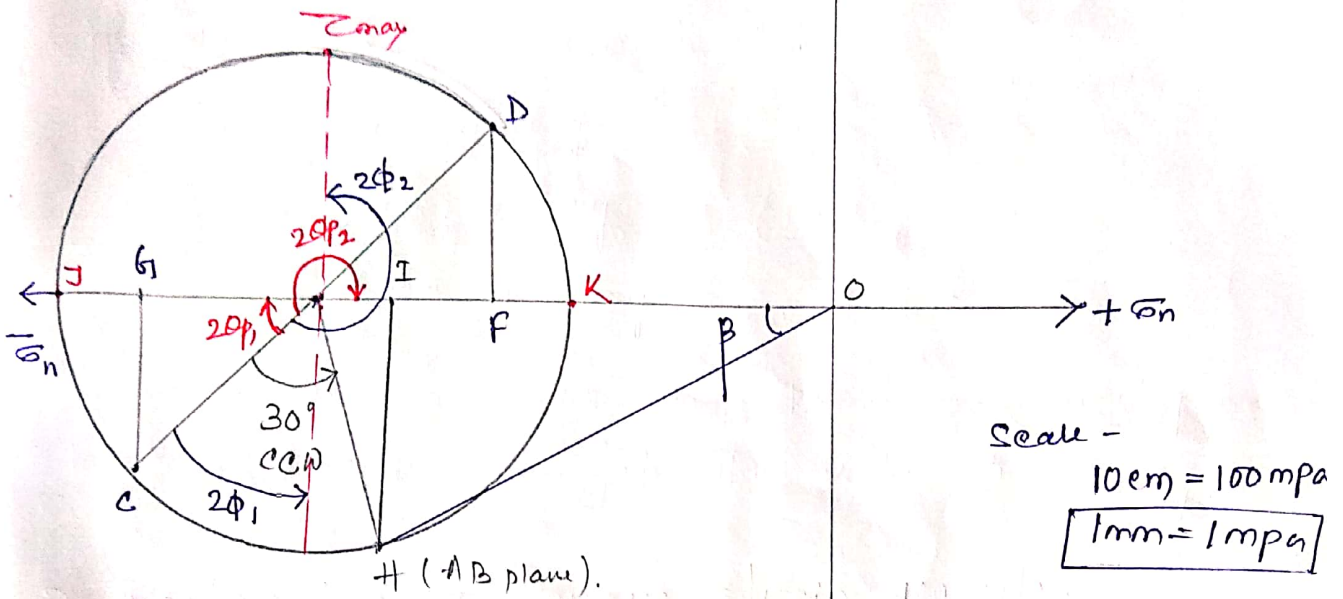


Scale = $1 \text{ cm} = 20 \text{ mpa}$
 $100 \text{ mpa} \rightarrow 5 \text{ cm}$

$1 \text{ mm} = \frac{20}{10} = 2$

$$\frac{(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) \epsilon}{\epsilon_{11} - 1} = 20$$

$$\frac{(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) \epsilon}{\epsilon_{11} - 1} = 10$$



$$\begin{aligned} OI = \sigma_n = 66 \text{ mm} = 66 \text{ mpa} \text{ (Normal stress)} \\ IH = \tau = 34 \text{ mm} = 34 \text{ mpa} \text{ (shear stress)} \end{aligned} \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} OI = \sigma_n = 66 \text{ mm} = 66 \text{ mpa} \text{ (Normal stress)} \\ IH = \tau = 34 \text{ mm} = 34 \text{ mpa} \text{ (shear stress)} \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{on oblique plane.}$$

$$OH = \text{Resultant stress} = 74 \text{ mm} = 74 \text{ mpa}$$

→ $\sigma_p = ?$, $\phi = ?$, $\sigma_1 \text{ \& \; } \sigma_2 = ?$, $\tau_{\text{max}} = ?$, $\beta = ?$
 let us find these values.

$OJ = \sigma_1 \rightarrow$ major principal stress #
 $OK = \sigma_2 \rightarrow$ minor principal stress.

$2\phi_1$ → location of major principal plane.
 $2\phi_2$ → location of minor principal plane.