Section 6

Deformable Body Mechanics

6.1 Quick reference – mechanical notation

Principal symbols are used to represent mechanical engineering terms. Symbols may have several different meanings – the commonly used ones are shown below.

Symbol	Meaning		
а	Acceleration Crack length Strain hardening constant Bore radius of cylinder		
Α	Cross-sectional area Creep constant		
A ₁	Eutectoid temperature		
b	Rim radius of a cylinder		
В	A general constant		
С	Maximum distance from neutral axis		
С	A general constant		
CE	Carbon equivalent		
CVN	Charpy V-notch energy		
d	Diameter Depth		
е	Misalignment radial		
E	Young's modulus		
f	Force		
	Frequency		
f _{cr}	Critical whirling speed		
F	Force		
F _{cr}	Buckling load (Euler)		
g	Acceleration due to gravity		
G	Shear modulus		
G _c	Toughness (critical strain energy release rate)		
G _{1c}	Tougriness (plane)		
П	Depth		
НА7	Heat affected zone		
HR	Brinel hardness		
HBC	Bockwell C bardness		
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Table 6.1

Table 6.1 (Cont.)

Symbol	Meaning			
HV	Vickers hardness			
1	Second moment of area			
lx	Second moment of area			
	(parallel axis theory)			
J	Polar moment of area			
k	Spring constant			
<i>k</i> e	Equivalent shear stress (Von Mises)			
Κ	Bulk modulus			
K _c	Fracture toughness			
K	Stress intensity factor			
K _{1c}	Plane strain fracture toughness			
ΔK	K range in a fatigue cycle			
1	Length			
m	Mass			
	Exponent in crack growth or strain hardening			
	expression			
М	Bending moment			
	Couple			
n	Nominal strain			
N	Number of fatigue cycles			
N _f	Number of fatigue cycles to failure			
p	Pressure			
p _{cr}	Critical pressure (external-pressure buckling)			
P	Load			
Q	Creep activation energy			
r	Radius			
ry	Radius of plastic crack-zone tip			
R	Reaction force			
	Radius			
S	Nominal stress			
SCF	Stress concentration factor			
t	Thickness			
	Time			
t _f	Time to failure			
I	Tension			
	Iorque			
u	Displacement			
V	Velocity			
V	Volume			
	Shear force			
W	Uniformly distributed load			
VV	weight			
	width of a cracked component			
X	Co-ordinate direction			
у	Co-ordinate direction			
Ŷ	Crack geometry factor			
Ζ	Distance from neutral axis Co-ordinate direction			

6.2 Engineering structures – so where are all the pin joints?

Much of engineering mechanics is based on the assumption that parts of structures are connected by pin joints. Similarly, members are continually assumed to be 'simply supported' and structural members pretend to be infinitely long, compared with their section thickness. The question is: do such members really exist?

They are certainly not immediately apparent – look at a bridge or steel tower and you will struggle to find a single joint containing a pin. The structural members will be channels, I-beams, or box sections surrounded by a clutter of plates, gussets, and flanges, not simple beams of nice prismatic section. So where is the relevance of all those clean theories of statics and vector mechanics?

Fortunately, the answer exists already, hidden in 200 years of engineering experience. Calculations based on simple bending theory, for example, have been validated against actual maximum stresses and deflections experienced in real structures and proved sufficiently accurate (say $\pm 10\%$) to represent reality. Once a factor of safety is introduced (see Section 7.5), then the simplified calculations are as accurate as they need to be. They are, to all intents and purposes, *correct*.

Simply supported assumptions work the same way. The complicated-looking supports of a bridge deck do act like simple supports when you consider the length of the beamlike members they are supporting. Equally, the members themselves dissipate stresses induced by constraint from the 'real' supports within a short distance from the support, so they *act like* long thin members, even though they may not be.

The design of engineering structures is built around findings like this. They have been proven quantitatively, by using straingauges and measuring deflections, and by advanced techniques such as FE analysis and photo-elastic models. Complete structures, aeroplanes, ships, and buildings have been investigated to demonstrate the validity of taught theories of statics and mechanics. The results is that all these types of structures in the world are designed using equations which are unerringly similar – proof enough of the validity of the theories behind them. Try to improve theoretical techniques, by all means, but don't ignore what has been found already, including those assumptions about pin joints and simply supported beams.

6.3 Simple stress and strain



 $=\frac{\delta d/d}{\delta l/l}$ (a ratio, therefore no units)



Figure 6.2

Shear stress, $\tau = \frac{\text{shear load}}{\text{area}} = \frac{Q}{A}(\text{units are }N/\text{m}^2)$

Shear strain, $\gamma =$ angle of deformation under shear stress

Modulus of rigidity,
$$G = \frac{\text{shear stress}}{\text{shear strain}} = \frac{\tau}{y}$$

= Constant, G (units are N/m²)



Figure 6.3

Thermal stress, $\sigma_t \cong E\varepsilon = E\alpha t$

where

 α = linear coefficient t = temperature change





6.4 Simple elastic bending

Simple theory of elastic bending is:

$$\frac{M}{I} = \frac{\sigma}{v} = \frac{E}{R}$$

M = applied bending moment

I = second moment about the neutral axis

R = radius of curvature of neutral axis

E = Young's modulus

 σ = stress due to bending at distance *y* from neutral axis The second moment of area is defined, for any section, as

$$I = \int y^2 \mathrm{d}A$$

I for common sections is calculated as follows in Fig. 6.5. Section modulus Z is defined as

$$Z = \frac{l}{y}$$

Strain energy due to bending U is defined as

$$U = \int_{0}^{l} \frac{M^2 \mathrm{d}s}{2El}$$

For uniform beams subject to constant bending moment this reduces to

$$U = \frac{M^2 l}{2El}$$



/ about another axis (XX) can be found using the parallel axis theorem:





Steelwork sections



Figure 6.5 (cont.)

6.5 Slope and deflection of beams

Many engineering components can be modelled as simple beams.

The relationships between load W, shear force SF, bending moment M, slope, and deflection are

Deflection =
$$\delta(\text{or } y)$$

Slope = $\frac{dy}{dx}$

$$M = El \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}$$
$$F = El \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3}$$
$$W = El \frac{d^4 y}{dx^4}$$

Values for common beam configurations are shown in Fig 6.6.

Conditions of support and loading	Bending moment (maximum)	Shearing force maximum)	Sate Ioad W	Deflection (maximum)
	WL	w	M	ML ³ 3 Ēl
	<u>WL</u> ² 2	w	2 <u>M</u> L	WL ³ 8 El
	<u>WL</u> 4	₩ 2	4 <u>M</u> L	<u>WL³ 48<i>E</i></u> /
	<u>WL</u> ² 8	<u>₩</u> 2	8 <u>M</u> L	<u>5WL³ 384<i>El</i></u>
	<u>WL</u> 8	<u>₩</u> 2	8 <u>M</u> L	<u>ML³ 192<i>El</i></u>
	$\frac{WL^2}{12}$	₩2	<u>12M</u> L	<u>WL³</u> 384 El
$\frac{L}{2} \xrightarrow{W}_{1 \neq 0.447L}$	3 <u>ML</u> 16	<u>11W</u> 16	16M 3L	<u>WL³</u> 107 EI
W 0.375L	<u>WL</u> 8	<u>5₩</u> 8	8 <u>M</u> L	WL ³ 187 <i>E</i> 1

6.6 Torsion

For solid or hollow shafts of uniform cross-section, the torsion formula is

$$\frac{T}{J} = \frac{\tau}{R} = \frac{G\theta}{l}$$

- T =torque applied (N m)
- J = polar second moment of area (m⁴)
- τ = shear stress (N/m²)
- R = radius (m)
- G =modulus of rigidity (N/m²)
- θ = angle of twist (rad)



Figure 6.7

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The polar second motion of area (J) m⁴ is a measure of the stiffness of a member in pure twisting

Figure 6.8 Torsion Formulae

For solid shafts

$$J = \frac{\pi D^4}{32}$$

For hollow shafts

$$J = \frac{\pi (D^4 - d^4)}{32}$$

For thin-walled hollow shafts

$$J \cong \pi D^3 t$$

where

r = mean radius of shaft wall t = wall thickness Strain energy in torsion

$$U = \frac{T^2 l}{2GJ} = \frac{GJ \,\theta^2}{2l}$$

Shaft under combined bending moment, M, and torque, T, from bending

$$\sigma = \frac{MD}{2l}$$

from torsion

$$\tau = \frac{TD}{2I}$$

This results in an 'equivalent' bending moment (M_e) of

$$M_e = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{M^2 + T^2})$$

A similar approach can be used to give an equivalent torque $T_{\rm e}$

$$T_e = \sqrt{M^2 + T^2}$$

6.7 Thin cylinders

Most pressure vessels have a diameter:wall thickness ratio of >20 and can be modelled using thin cylinder assumptions. The basic equations form the basis of all pressure vessel codes and standards.

Basic equations are

Circumferential(hoop)stress,
$$\sigma_{\rm H} = \frac{pd}{2t}$$

Hoop strain, $\varepsilon_{\rm H} = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_{\rm H} - v\sigma_{\rm L})$
Longitudinal(axial)stress, $\sigma_{\rm L} = \frac{pd}{4t}$
Longitudinal strain, $\varepsilon_{\rm L} = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_{\rm L} - v\sigma_{\rm H})$



Figure 6.9

6.8 Cylindrical vessels with hemispherical ends





For the cylinder

$$\sigma_{\rm HC} = \frac{pd}{2t_{\rm c}}$$
 and $\sigma_{\rm LC} = \frac{pd}{2t_{\rm c}}$

Hoop strain

$$\varepsilon_{\rm HC} = \frac{1}{E} (\sigma_{\rm HC} - \nu \sigma_{\rm LC})$$

For the hemispherical ends

$$\sigma_{\rm HS} = \frac{pd}{4t_{\rm s}}$$
 and $\varepsilon_{\rm HS} = \frac{pd}{4t_{\rm s}E}(1-v)$

The differences in strain produce *discontinuity stress* at a vessel head/shell joint.

6.9 Thick cylinders



Figure 6.11

Components such as hydraulic rams and boiler headers are designed using thick cylinder assumptions. Hoop and radial stresses vary through the walls, giving rise to the Lamé equations.

$$\sigma = A + \frac{B}{r^2}$$
 and $\sigma_{\rm r} = A - \frac{B}{r^2}$

where A and B are 'Lamé' constants

$$\varepsilon_{\rm H} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm H}}{E} - \frac{v\sigma_{\rm r}}{E} - \frac{v\sigma_{\rm L}}{E}$$
$$\varepsilon_{L} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm L}}{E} - \frac{v\sigma_{\rm r}}{E} - \frac{v\sigma_{\rm H}}{E}$$

Lamé constant (A) is given by

$$A = \frac{P_1 R_1^2 - P_2 R_2^2}{R_2^2 - R_1^2}$$

 P_1 = internal pressure P_2 = external pressure R_1 = internal radius R_2 = external radius

6.10 Buckling of struts

Long and slender members in compression are termed struts. They fail by buckling before reaching their true compressive yield strength. Buckling loads W_b depend on the loading case.



The *equivalent length*, l, of the strut is the length of a single 'bow' in the deflected condition.

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6.11 Flat circular plates

Many parts of engineering assemblies can be analysed by approximating them to flat circular plates or annular rings. The general equation governing slopes and deflections is

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r} \left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r} \left(r \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}r} \right) \right] = \frac{W}{D}$$

where

$$D = \frac{Et^3}{12(1 - v^2)}$$

 $\hat{y} = maximum$ deflection

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}r} = \mathrm{slope}$$

- W = applied load
- t =thickness
- D = flexural stiffness
- E = Young's modulus
- $\hat{\sigma}_r =$ maximum radial stress
- $\hat{\sigma}_z =$ maximum tangential stress



Figure 6.13

6.12 Stress concentration factors

The effective stress in a component can be raised well above its expected levels owing to the existence of geometrical features causing stress concentrations under dynamic elastic conditions. Typical factors are as shown in 6.14.







 $F \simeq F_1 + F_2\left(\frac{2a}{D}\right) + F_3\left(\frac{2a}{D}\right)^2 + F_4\left(\frac{2a}{D}\right)^3$ $F_2 \simeq -0.351 - 0.021 \sqrt{\frac{a}{b}} - \frac{2.483a}{b}$ $F_3 \simeq -3.621 - 5.183 \sqrt{\frac{a}{b}} + \frac{4.494a}{b}$ $F_4 \simeq -2.27 + 5.2 \sqrt{\frac{a}{b}} - \frac{4a}{b}$

Figure 6.15

Approximate stress concentration factors (Elastic Stresses)

Deformable Body Mechanics



V-notch in circular shaft under torsion



U-notch in circular shaft under axial tension







Unotch in circular shaft under torsion

$$\begin{split} F_{u} &= \text{stress concentration for U-notch} \\ F_{u} &= F_{1} + F_{2} \left(\frac{2h}{D}\right) + F_{3} \left(\frac{2h}{D}\right)^{2} + F_{4} \left(\frac{2h}{D}\right)^{3} \\ \text{for } 0.25 \leq \frac{h}{r} \leq 2 \\ F_{1} &= 1.24 + 0.26 \sqrt{\frac{h}{r}} + 0.5 \frac{h}{r} \\ F_{2} &= -3 + 3.3 \sqrt{\frac{h}{r}} + \frac{3.63h}{r} \\ F_{3} &= 7.2 - 11.3 \sqrt{\frac{h}{r}} + \frac{8.3h}{r} \\ F_{4} &= -4.4 + 7.75 \sqrt{\frac{h}{r}} - \frac{5.17h}{r} \end{split}$$



Rectangular hole with round corners in "infinite" plate under uniaxial stress

$$\begin{split} \widehat{\sigma} &= F\sigma_{1} \\ F &\simeq F_{1} + F_{2} \left(\frac{b}{a}\right) + F_{3} \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{2} + F_{4} \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{3} \\ \text{for } 0.2 &\leq \frac{F}{b} \leq 1 \text{ and } 0.3 \leq \frac{b}{a} \leq 1 \\ F_{1} &\simeq 14.8 - 15.8 \sqrt{\frac{F}{b}} + \frac{8.15r}{b} \\ F_{2} &= -11.2 - 9.7 \sqrt{\frac{F}{b}} + \frac{9.6r}{b} \\ F_{3} &= 0.2 + 38.6 \sqrt{\frac{F}{b}} - \frac{27.4r}{b} \\ F_{4} &= 3.2 - 23 \sqrt{\frac{F}{b}} + \frac{15.5r}{b} \end{split}$$

Figure 6.15 (Cont.)



Row of circular holes in "infinite plate under uniaxial stress



V-notch in rectangular section under bending



Unotch in rectangular section under bending

F_V = Stress concentration factor for V-notch

$$F_{\rm V} = 1.11 F_{\rm u} - \left[0.03 + 0.11 \left(\frac{\theta^{\circ}}{150}\right)^4\right] F_{\rm u}^2$$

where F_{ij} = Stress concentration factor for U-notch

$$\begin{split} F_{u} &= \text{Stress concentration factor for} \\ u \text{ unotch} \\ F_{u} &= F_{1} + F_{2} \Big(\frac{h}{d} \Big) + F_{3} \Big(\frac{h}{d} \Big)^{2} + F_{4} \Big(\frac{h}{d} \Big)^{3} \\ \text{for } 0.5 &\leq \frac{h}{r} \leq 4 \\ F_{1} &\simeq 0.72 + 2.4 \sqrt{\frac{h}{r}} - \frac{0.13h}{r} \\ F_{2} &\simeq 1.98 - 11.5 \sqrt{\frac{h}{r}} + \frac{2.2h}{r} \\ F_{3} &\simeq -4.4 + 18.75 \sqrt{\frac{h}{r}} + \frac{4.6h}{r} \\ F_{4} &\simeq 2.7 - 9.7 \sqrt{\frac{h}{r}} + \frac{2.5h}{r} \end{split}$$

Figure 6.15 (Cont.)