

Applied Strength of Materials for Engineering Technology

Barry Dupen



25th ed.

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Preface

Purpose of the Book

2.04 million bachelors degrees are awarded annually in the US.* About 128 thousand are Engineering degrees, and about 19 thousand are Engineering Technology degrees and Technician degrees. The number of Mechanical Engineering Technology, Construction Engineering Technology, and Construction Management graduates is less than 5 thousand per year, so the market for algebra-based *Strength of Materials* textbooks for Engineering Technology is a small fraction of the market for calculus-based Engineering textbooks.

I believe most textbooks are too expensive. Since I attended college in the 1980s, textbook prices have risen about twice as fast as inflation. In those days, all textbooks were printed. Today there is another option: low-cost or free online e-books which are revised more frequently than printed books. While traditional textbooks are revised every 4 to 10 years based on input from experts in the topic, this e-book is revised every semester based on input from experts in learning: my students. The last problem I assign for each chapter is “Describe at least one improvement you would make to this chapter to make it more understandable.” Responses to this question lead, on average, to 80 revisions in the textbook every semester.

Students say the explanations in many Engineering Technology textbooks are too theoretical, too wordy, and too difficult to understand. Students also complain about the lack of complete unit conversions in example problems. In this textbook, the factor-label method of unit conversion is emphasized from the first chapter, and is used in all example problems. Inconsistent use of symbols between related courses also creates confusion, so this textbook uses the most commonly-used symbols. Reference tables list all of the symbols used in the textbook with common units, and definitions of technical terms.

Professors know that many students copy answers from the internet instead of learning to solve the problems for themselves, then these same students fail exams. Perhaps 10% of the learning in *Strength of Materials* occurs in class, and 90% occurs as students solve problems. Neither the homework problems for this textbook nor their solutions are available online. The homework set is changed every semester. Professors wanting the latest homework set can contact me directly.

Summarizing, the goals of this book are:

- Free distribution in pdf format over the internet, with low-cost distribution of a printed edition on Amazon.com
- Frequent revisions based on student input
- Concise explanations
- Examples with complete unit conversions
- Symbols consistent with those used in related courses

This e-book is revised on an ongoing basis, with a new edition every semester. In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, I posted YouTube lectures online in spring 2020. You can find them by searching YouTube for my name. Please send improvement suggestions, either for the book or for the online lectures, to me at met.dupen@gmail.com.

Barry Dupen

Metallurgist and Professor of Mechanical Engineering Technology

School of Polytechnic, Purdue University Fort Wayne, Fort Wayne, Indiana, December 2023



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* Data from 2019-2020. Current numbers are in the *Digest of Educational Statistics* (Table 318.30), published by the National Center for Educational Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, at nces.ed.gov.

Preface

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Cover photo: Bonneville Dam on the Columbia River, Oregon.

This book was created with Apache Software Foundation's OpenOffice software v. 4.1.14. OpenOffice was selected because it uses vector graphics, not bitmaps, which keeps the overall file size small. Also, OpenOffice's equation editor is outstanding.

Terminology

Symbols used in this book, with typical units

Because the Roman and Greek alphabets contain a finite number of letters, symbols are recycled and used for more than one term. Check the context of the equation to figure out what the unit means in that equation.

Other science and engineering disciplines use different symbols for common terms. For example, P is used for point load here; in Physics classes, F is commonly used for point load. Some older *Strength of Materials* texts use μ for Poisson's ratio, s for stress, and e for strain; the formulas are the same, but the labels differ.

Symbol	Term	U.S. Units	SI Units
α	Thermal expansion coefficient	$^{\circ}\text{F}^{-1}$	$^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
γ	Shear strain
γ	Specific weight	$\text{lb./in.}^3, \text{lb./ft.}^3$	N/m^3
δ	Change in dimension (length, diameter, etc.)	in.	mm
Δ	Change
Δ	Beam deflection	in.	mm
ϵ	Strain
η_{joint}	Joint efficiency	%	%
ν	Poisson's ratio
ρ	Density	slug/ft.^3	kg/m^3
σ	Normal (perpendicular) stress	psi, ksi	MPa
τ	Shear (parallel) stress	psi, ksi	MPa
θ	Angle of twist	(radians)	(radians)
A, a	Area	in.^2	mm^2, m^2
A'	Term in the General Shear Formula	in.^2	mm^2, m^2
b	Base dimension of a rectangle	in.	mm
c	Torsion problem: distance from centroid to outer surface Beam problem: distance from neutral axis to outer surface	in.	mm
d	Diameter	in.	mm
d	Depth of a steel wide-flange beam (W-beam)	in.	mm
d	Transfer distance	in.	mm
d_i, d_o	Inside and outside diameters of a hollow section	in.	mm
d_H	Hole diameter	in.	mm
e	Eccentricity	in.	mm
E	Young's modulus (a.k.a. modulus of elasticity)	psi, ksi	MPa
f_{weld}	Unit strength of a weld	kip/in.	kN/mm
F.S.	Factor of safety
G	Shear modulus (a.k.a. modulus of rigidity)	psi, ksi	MPa
h	Height dimension of a rectangle	in.	mm
h	Fillet weld throat	in.	mm
I	Moment of inertia	in.^4	mm^4
J	Polar moment of inertia	in.^4	mm^4
K	Stress concentration factor
K	Effective length factor (in column analysis)
l	Fillet weld leg	in.	mm
L	Length (of a tension member or a beam)	ft.	m
L	Total weld length	in.	cm

Terminology

Symbol	Definition	U.S. Units	SI Units
M	Moment	lb.·ft., kip·ft.	kN·m
n	Number of shear planes
N	Number of bolts
N_F	Number of holes in the fracture plane
p	Fluid pressure	psi, ksi	kPa
P	Point load	lb., kip	kN
P_{cr}	Euler critical buckling load	lb., kip	kN
P_G	Bolt load – gross tensile failure of the plate	lb., kip	kN
P_N	Bolt load – net tensile failure of the plate	lb., kip	kN
P_P	Bolt load – bearing failure of the plate	lb., kip	kN
P_S	Bolt load – bolt shear failure	lb., kip	kN
P_{weld}	Weld load (lapped plates loaded in tension)	lb., kip	kN
Q	Term in the General Shear Formula	in. ³	mm ³
r	Radius (of a hole, fillet, or groove)	in.	mm
r_G	Radius of gyration	in.	mm
R	Reaction force	lb., kip	kN
R	Radius of curvature	in., ft.	mm, m
S	Section modulus	in. ³	mm ³
t	Thickness	in.	mm
t_f	Thickness of the flange of a steel W-beam	in.	mm
t_{net}	Net thickness of a beam at the shear plane	in.	mm
t_w	Thickness of the web of a steel W-beam	in.	mm
T	Torque	lb.·ft., kip·ft.	kN·m
T	Temperature	°F	°C
V	Shear load	lb., kip	kN
w	Distributed load (weight per unit length)	lb./ft., kip/ft.	kN/m
W	Weight	lb., kip	kN
x, y, z	Orthogonal axes in three-dimensional space: x is horizontal, y is vertical, and z is into the page.
x	Distance along the x-axis	in., ft.	mm, m
y	Distance along the y-axis, such as the distance from the neutral axis in beam problems	in., ft.	mm, m
\bar{y}	Distance from the reference axis to the x-x axis of a composite shape [moment of inertia problems]	in.	mm
\bar{y}	Term in the General Shear Formula	in.	mm
z	Distance along the z-axis	in., ft.	mm, m
Z	Plastic section modulus	in. ³	mm ³

Terminology

Greek Letters

Upper case	Lower case	Name	Upper case	Lower case	Name
A	α	Alpha	N	ν	Nu
B	β	Beta	Ξ	ξ	Xi
Γ	γ	Gamma	O	\omicron	Omicron
Δ	δ	Delta	Π	π	Pi
E	ϵ	Epsilon	ρ	ρ	Rho
Z	ζ	Zeta	Σ	σ	Sigma
H	η	Eta	T	τ	Tau
Θ	θ	Theta	Y	υ	Upsilon
I	ι	Iota	Φ	ϕ	Phi
K	κ	Kappa	X	χ	Chi
Λ	λ	Lambda	Ψ	ψ	Psi
M	μ	Mu	Ω	ω	Omega

Definitions

Allowable (stress, load, etc.).....	Permitted for safe design.
AISC.....	The American Institute of Steel Construction is a technical and trade association which sets standards for structural steel products, design, and construction.
ASM International.....	Formerly the American Society for Metals, this professional organization publishes handbooks and hosts conferences focusing on metals, polymers, and ceramics.
ASME.....	The American Society of Mechanical Engineers is a technical, professional, research, and educational association which sets standards for boiler and pressure vessel design, fasteners, power plants, plumbing fixtures, etc.
ASTM International.....	Formerly the American Society for Testing and Materials, this standards organization develops standard test methods and standards for material composition and properties.
Bending moment, M	Moment in a beam that is loaded in bending with transverse loads.
Bending stress, σ	A normal stress along the length of a beam that develops due to transverse loading.
Buckling.....	Collapse of a long, thin member under longitudinal compressive loading, at a load much lower than the load that causes yielding in tension.
Density, ρ	Mass density is the mass of an object or fluid divided by its volume. See <i>specific weight</i> entry for weight density.
Depth of a W-beam, d	Dimension from top to bottom of a horizontally oriented steel wide-flange beam.
Distributed load, w	Force acting over a length (such as the weight of a beam) or area (such as a snow load on a roof). Compare <i>point load</i> .
Eccentricity, e	Distance between the neutral axis of a part and the location of an applied point load.
Effective length of a column.....	Portion of the length of a column that bows like a fully pinned column.
Elastic deformation.....	Temporary deformation; release the load and the part returns to its original shape. Compare <i>plastic deformation</i> .
Elastic modulus, E	A measure of the stiffness of a material (the resistance to elastically deforming under a given load.) The slope of the linear elastic portion of the stress-strain curve. Also called <i>Young's modulus</i> or <i>modulus of elasticity</i> .
Euler critical buckling load, P_{cr}	The load at which an ideal Euler column will fail, assuming perfect material and perfectly aligned loading.
Factor of Safety, F.S.....	The material's strength (typically yield strength) divided by the actual stress in the part. Also called "factor of ignorance" because it includes unknowns such as materials defects, improper installation, abuse by the operator, lack of maintenance, corrosion or rot, temperature variations, and the mismatch between theory and reality.
Fillet weld.....	A weld with a triangular cross section used for joining lapped plates. Unlike soldering or brazing, welding involves melting the base metal as well as the joining material.
Fracture plane.....	In a bolted joint that fails, fracture occurs through the bolt holes or through a plate away from the bolt holes...the site of fracture is called the fracture plane.
General shear formula.....	Equation for finding the shear stress within a beam of any shape.
Joint efficiency.....	The efficiency of a bolted or welded joint is the lowest allowable load divided by the allowable load of the weaker of the two plates some distance from the joint.
Longitudinal direction.....	Along the length of a part, such as a beam or shaft. Compare <i>transverse direction</i> .
Longitudinal (axial) stress, σ	Normal stress that develops in a tensile or compressive member due to axial loading.
Modulus of elasticity, E	See <i>elastic modulus</i> .
Moment, M	More accurately called a force moment, the product of a length and a transversely applied force. Used in beam problems. There are other types of moment (such as area moment: the product of a length and an area).
Moment of inertia, I	More accurately called "second moment of area". Divide a shape into n tiny areas a_i , each at a distance y_i from the x-x centroidal axis, and sum the areas and distances as $I_x = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i y_i^2$. The larger the moment of inertia, the greater the bending load a beam can support, and the less bending deflection will occur.
Normal.....	Perpendicular, in the mathematical sense.

Definitions

Normal stress, σ	Force divided by area, when the force acts perpendicular to the area. Tensile and compressive stresses are normal stresses.
Orthogonal axes.....	Axes at right angles to each other – the typical x-y-z axes in three-dimensional Cartesian space.
Plastic deformation.....	Permanent deformation; release the load and the part remains distorted. Compare <i>elastic deformation</i> .
Plastic section modulus, Z	Sum of the first moments of areas above and below the neutral axis of a steel beam. Used for calculating bending stresses in structural steel beams.
Point load, P	Force acting at a single point. Compare <i>distributed load</i> .
Poisson's ratio, ν	A mechanical property of engineering materials equal to the negative of the transverse strain divided by longitudinal strain. A measure of how much a tensile member will thin during elastic deformation.
Polar moment of inertia, J	More accurately called “polar second moment of area”. Divide a shape into n tiny areas a_i , each at a distance r from the centroid, and sum the areas and distances as $J = \sum_1^n a_i r_i^2$. The larger the polar moment of inertia, the greater the torque a shaft can support, and the less angular twist will be produced.
Pressure (of a fluid), p	Fluid equivalent of normal stress. A pressurized gas produces a uniform pressure perpendicular to the walls of the pressure vessel. A pressurized liquid produces a uniform pressure in a small pressure vessel; the pressure is nonuniform in a tall vessel due to gravity (lower pressure at the top, higher at the bottom).
Radius of curvature, R	If a beam segment is bent with a constant bending moment, the segment becomes a circular arc with a radius of curvature, R .
Radius of gyration, r_G	Concentrate an area at a distance r from the x-x neutral axis. If the moment of inertia of the original area is the same as for the concentrated area, then r_{Gx} is the radius of gyration about the x-x axis. The larger the radius of gyration, the more resistant a column is to buckling. Calculate $r_G = \sqrt{I/A}$.
Reaction moment, M_A or M_B	Moment at reaction point A or B supporting a transversely loaded cantilever beam.
Reaction force, R_A or R_B	Forces at reaction points A or B which support a transversely loaded beam.
SAE International.....	Formerly known as the Society of Automotive Engineers, this professional organization develops standards for products and materials used in transportation industries (automotive, aerospace, and commercial vehicles).
Section modulus, S	Moment of inertia divided by the distance from the neutral axis to the surface. The larger the section modulus, the more resistant a beam is to bending.
Shear load, V	Transverse load on a beam.
Shear modulus, G	The slope of the linear elastic portion of the shear stress – shear strain curve.
Shear plane.....	In a bolted joint with two plates pulling in opposite directions, the shear plane is the transverse plane within a bolt that lies at the interface of the two plates.
Shear strain, γ	Shear deflection divided by original unit length
Shear stress, τ	Force divided area, when the force acts parallel to the area.
Specific weight, γ	Specific weight (“weight density”), is the weight of an object or fluid divided by its volume. In this textbook, lower-case Greek letter gamma is shear strain, while bold gamma is specific weight. See <i>density</i> entry for mass density.
Strain (normal), ϵ	Change in length of a material under normal load divided by initial length.
Stress.....	See <i>normal stress</i> , <i>shear stress</i> , <i>bending stress</i> , <i>torsional stress</i> , <i>longitudinal stress</i> .
Stress concentration.....	A locally high stress due to a sharp discontinuity in shape, such as a hole or notch with a small radius. While the overall stress in the part may be at a safe level, the stress at the discontinuity can exceed yield or ultimate strength, causing failure.
Tensile strength, σ_{UTS}	Maximum stress on the stress-strain diagram. Beyond this point, the material necks and soon breaks.
Thermal expansion coefficient, α	Materials property that determines how much a material expands or contracts with changing temperature.

Definitions

Torque, T	Rotational moment applied to a shaft. Units of moment and torque are the same (force \times distance).
Torsion.....	Twisting of a shaft due to an applied torque.
Torsional stress, τ	A shear stress that develops in a shaft due to torsional loading.
Transfer distance, d	Term used in calculating moment of inertia of a compound shape.
Transverse direction.....	Perpendicular (crosswise) to the length of a long part, such as a beam or shaft. Compare <i>longitudinal direction</i> .
Ultimate tensile strength, σ_{UTS}	See <i>tensile strength</i> .
W-beam.....	Wide-flange steel beam having a cross-section I .
Yield strength, σ_{YS}	Below the yield strength, a material deforms elastically; above it, the material deforms plastically (undergoes permanent deformation).
Young's modulus, E	See <i>elastic modulus</i> .

Introduction to Strength of Materials

Plan of this Book

The **Table of Contents** at the beginning of the book and the **Index** at the end of the book can help you find topics. The index lists the first page in the book where a topic is explained, not every page where it is used.

Use the **Terminology** section if you need to know what a particular symbol means, along with its typical units.

The **Definitions** section describes what the various terms mean, so if you run into a technical term that was introduced in a previous chapter, you don't have to reread that chapter to find out what the word means.

The topics in the **16 chapters** are organized so that concepts you learn in one chapter are used in later chapters, as illustrated in the chart on the next page. We start with unit conversions because they are necessary in all future chapters. Next, we focus on stress and strain in various applications. More than a third of the book is devoted to beam analysis and design. After beams, we calculate buckling loads of columns, and finish with techniques for visualizing stress and strain.

The **Key Equations** introduced in each chapter are listed at the end of that chapter. You may find it useful to make your own list of equations, and build on it as you work through the book.

The **Appendices** contain data that you will need to solve homework problems, so consider printing a copy of the Appendices for this purpose.

Appendix A discusses unit conversions.

Appendix B lists mechanical and physical properties of common commercial metals, concrete, and stone.

Appendix C lists the properties of various shapes.

Appendix D lists the properties of steel beams, steel pipes, and copper tubing.

Appendix E lists mechanical, physical, and dimensional properties of softwood lumber.

Appendix F provides beam equations for a number of beam loading cases.

What is Strength of Materials?

The prerequisite for *Strength of Materials* at most colleges and universities is a course in *Statics*: the study of forces acting in equilibrium on rigid bodies. *Bodies* are solid objects, like steel cables, gear teeth, timber beams, bones, and axle shafts; *rigid* means the bodies do not stretch, bend, or twist; and *equilibrium* means the rigid bodies are not accelerating. Most problems in a *Statics* textbook also assume the rigid bodies are stationary. These assumptions do not match reality perfectly, but they make the math easier. This model is close enough to reality to be useful for many practical problems.

In *Strength of Materials*, we keep the assumptions of bodies in equilibrium, but we drop the “rigid” assumption. Real cables stretch under tension, real floor joists bend when you walk across a wood floor, real bones flex when you move, and real axle shafts twist under torsional load.

Strength of Materials is challenging because the topics are cumulative and highly interconnected. If you miss an early topic, you will not understand later topics.

Introduction to Strength of Materials

This table lists *Strength of Materials* topics, and shows which chapters use each topic. You can see how interconnected the topics are. Some topics are only used in one chapter, while others are used in multiple chapters.

	Algebra & some trig		Unit conversions																																					
			Normal stress	Normal strain	Yield strength	Tensile strength	Shear stress	Shear strain	Young's modulus	Axial deflection	Poisson's ratio	Transverse strain	Transverse deflection	Strain due to multiaxial loads	Thermal expansion	Thermal stress	Pressure vessels	Stress concentrations	Joint efficiency	Bolted joints	Welded joints	Moment of inertia of a simple shape	Moment of inertia of a compound shape	Polar moment of inertia	Radius of gyration	Torque	Shear modulus	Beam reactions	Shear diagrams	Moment diagrams	Deflection diagrams	Section modulus	Plastic section modulus	Interpolation / similar triangles						
Ch. 1																																								
Ch. 2																																								
Ch. 3																																								
Ch. 4																																								
Ch. 5																																								
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Strength of Materials is one of the most useful courses in an Engineering Technology education. It is the foundation for courses such as Structural Analysis and Machine Elements.

To be successful in a *Strength of Materials* course, you need the following:

Attention to Detail. Solve every problem methodically. Make your step-by-step solution easy for the reader (the grader) to understand, with the final solution at the bottom. Start by listing what you know, such as dimensions and materials properties. Next, identify an algebraic equation that includes what you know and the unknown variable.

Algebra. Solve the problem algebraically (using symbols) *before* introducing numbers and units.

Unit Conversions. Use the *Factor-Label Method of Unit Conversion*, the standard in Engineering and Chemistry. This method is explained in detail in Chapter 1. The convention in physics classes is to convert everything into SI units, plug numbers into the equation, and hope the units work out. In engineering and chemistry, we introduce the actual units into the equation, and add the unit conversions at the end of the equation, because real objects are dimensioned in multiple units. For example, in the U.S., steel beam lengths are in feet, while their depths are in inches; in Canada, steel beam lengths are in meters, depths are in millimeters. You might be able to convert inches to feet in your head, but it is easy to make mistakes when the unit is raised to an exponent (converting in.³ to ft.³ or mm⁴ to m⁴), so use the *Factor-Label Method* and avoid simple mistakes.

Strong Work Ethic. If you copy someone else's homework solutions instead of working them out, you will fail the exams, and you will have to repeat the course. The only way to learn this material is by practicing. For every hour of class time, expect to spend three to five hours doing homework. A good estimate is 10% of the learning occurs in the classroom; 90% of the learning occurs while you are solving the problems. Start the homework the same day as class

Introduction to Strength of Materials

(while your memory is fresh), work with other students in study groups, go to the professor's office hours if you do not understand something, and turn in every homework assignment on time.

Engineering Paper. It comes in light green or light yellow, with a grid printed on the back. Write on the front only; the printed grid on the back side helps you align graphics and text. With engineering paper, you can sketch beam problems to scale. The graphical result will tell you if the calculated numbers make sense.

Studying for Exams

High school students commonly believe that the best way to study for an exam is to reread the notes, and maybe skim the book. Educational research shows that this strategy does not really work. The most effective approach is to practice what you will actually do during an exam. If a history exam requires you to write what you know about a particular topic in history, then do that as practice, with the book closed. Once you are done, open the book and check what you missed. In *Strength of Materials*, the exams involve problem-solving, so the most effective exam preparation strategy is to solve similar types of problems. You can solve your homework problems again, then check the answers. This book includes many dozens of example problems, which you can work out, then check the answers.

Chapter 1: Unit Conversions

Strength of Materials involves solid parts that are loaded in bending, torsion, tension, or compression. These solid parts have dimensions with units, and the applied loads, applied torques, and resultant stresses also have units. We need a systematic, organized way to resolve the units so that the answer is in the correct units and all other units cancel. The simplest and most reliable approach is the *Factor-Label Method*, which is easier to debug than other methods. It tells you whether you have made an algebraic mistake, because if you have, in most cases the units come out wrong.

The Factor-Label Method of Unit Conversion

In Engineering disciplines, we use the three-step Factor-Label Method of Unit Conversion to solve algebraic problems with mixed units. Multiplying a mathematical expression by 1 does not change its value; we can use this approach to convert units. For example, $1 \text{ ft.} = 12 \text{ in.}$, therefore multiplying a mathematical expression by $\frac{1 \text{ ft.}}{12 \text{ in.}}$ does not change the value of the expression. Follow these three simple steps:

Step 1 Write the algebraic equation so the desired quantity is on the left of the equals sign, and an algebraic expression is on the right of the equals sign.

Step 2 Draw a horizontal line on the page, and enter numbers and units above and below the line according to the algebraic expression.

Step 3 Draw a vertical line to show the separation between each unit conversion, and enter all unit conversions necessary to solve the problem. If the unit is raised to a power, then the conversion factor **and** unit must be raised to that power. Consider memorizing the most common conversion factors, like the ones at the right. See **Appendix A** for more unit conversions and metric prefixes, and **Appendix B** for materials properties such as thermal expansion coefficient and Young's modulus. Table B1 gives these properties in U.S. Customary units, while Table B2 gives them in S.I. units.

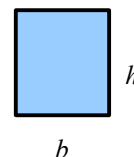
1 ft.	=	12 in.
1 m	=	100 cm
1 cm	=	10 mm
1 kip	=	10^3 lb.
1 Pa	=	1 N/m^2
1 N	=	$1 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s}^2$

Metric prefixes		
milli-	(m)	$= 10^{-3}$
centi-	(c)	$= 10^{-2}$
kilo-	(k)	$= 10^3$
Mega-	(M)	$= 10^6$
Giga-	(G)	$= 10^9$

The units in the final answer **must** appear in the equation, **and** all other units must cancel.

Example #1 – Area of a rectangle

The area of a rectangle is $A = b \cdot h$, as shown in Appendix C. Given a base $b = 83 \text{ in.}$ and a height $h = 45 \text{ ft.}$, calculate the area in square feet.



Step 1 The algebraic equation does not need to be manipulated.

Step 2 Draw a horizontal line. Enter 83 in. and 45 ft. in the numerator.

$$A = b \cdot h = \frac{83 \text{ in.} \cdot 45 \text{ ft.}}{\phantom{12 \text{ in.}}}$$

Step 3 We want to eliminate inches to obtain a final result in square feet. Therefore, put 12 inches in the denominator of the unit conversion, and 1 ft. in the numerator.

$$A = b \cdot h = \frac{83 \text{ in.} \cdot 45 \text{ ft.}}{12 \text{ in.}} \left| \frac{1 \text{ ft.}}{12 \text{ in.}} \right| = 311.25 \text{ ft.}^2$$

Example #2 – Unit conversion for stress in SI units

Stress is force divided by area. If the stress is 1 N/mm^2 , what is the stress in MPa?

Step 1 There is no algebra to solve here because we are converting one unit to another.

Step 2 Draw a horizontal line. Enter 1 N in the numerator, and mm^2 in the denominator.

$$\frac{1 \text{ N}}{\text{mm}^2}$$

Step 3 A pascal is defined as $\text{Pa} = \text{N/m}^2$, so enter Pa in the numerator. Instead of writing in N/m^2 the denominator, put N in the denominator and m^2 in the numerator.

$$\frac{1 \text{ N}}{\text{mm}^2} \left| \frac{\text{Pa}}{\text{N}} \right| \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{m}^2}$$

Now enter the unit conversions to eliminate the two area terms: m^2 and mm^2 . There are 10^3 mm in a meter, so use parentheses to square the number and the unit.

$$\frac{1 \text{ N}}{\text{mm}^2} \left| \frac{\text{Pa}}{\text{N}} \right| \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{m}^2} \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right|$$

Finally, $1 \text{ MPa} = 10^6 \text{ Pa}$. Put MPa in the numerator and 10^6 Pa in the denominator. If you write the equation without numbers, it looks like $\frac{\text{N}}{\text{mm}^2} \left| \frac{\text{Pa}}{\text{N}} \right| \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{m}^2} \left| \frac{\text{mm}^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{MPa}}{\text{Pa}}$. Cross out duplicate terms, and all terms cancel except for MPa. If you write the equation without units, it looks like $\frac{1}{10^6}$.

$$\frac{1 \text{ N}}{\text{mm}^2} \left| \frac{\text{Pa}}{\text{N}} \right| \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{m}^2} \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{MPa}}{10^6 \text{ Pa}}$$

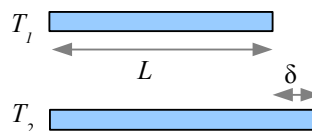
$$\frac{\text{N}}{\text{mm}^2} \left| \frac{\text{Pa}}{\text{N}} \right| \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{m}^2} \left| \frac{(\text{mm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{MPa}}{\text{Pa}}$$

Solving the equation with numbers and units, we get $1 \text{ N/mm}^2 = 1 \text{ MPa}$. This is a useful conversion factor.

$$\frac{1 \text{ N}}{\text{mm}^2} \left| \frac{\text{Pa}}{\text{N}} \right| \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{m}^2} \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{MPa}}{10^6 \text{ Pa}} = 1 \text{ MPa}$$

Example #3 – Thermal expansion

Deflection due to thermal expansion is $\delta = \alpha \cdot L \cdot \Delta T$. The upper-case Greek letter delta means “change”, so ΔT means “change in temperature.” An 8 ft. long bar at 70°F has a thermal expansion coefficient of $\alpha = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ in./in.}^\circ\text{F}$. How hot is the bar when it expands 0.060 in.?



Step 1 Use $\Delta T = T_2 - T_1$ to rewrite the equation algebraically and solve for T_2 .

$$\delta = \alpha \cdot L \cdot \Delta T = \alpha \cdot L (T_2 - T_1)$$

$$T_2 - T_1 = \frac{\delta}{\alpha L} \rightarrow T_2 = T_1 + \frac{\delta}{\alpha L}$$

Step 2 Enter 70°F , then draw a horizontal line. Enter 0.06 in. in the numerator. Since the units for α are a fraction, enter $5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ in.}$ in the denominator and $\text{in.}^\circ\text{F}$ in the numerator. Enter 8 ft. in the denominator.

$$T_2 = 70^\circ\text{F} + \frac{0.06 \text{ in.}}{5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ in.}} \frac{\text{in.}^\circ\text{F}}{8 \text{ ft.}}$$

Step 3 Convert feet to 12 inches so the length units to cancel, and the result is in $^\circ\text{F}$.

$$T_2 = 70^\circ\text{F} + \frac{0.06 \text{ in.}}{5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ in.}} \frac{\text{in.}^\circ\text{F}}{8 \text{ ft.}} \left| \frac{\text{ft.}}{12 \text{ in.}} \right| = 195^\circ\text{F}$$

Example #4 – Unit conversion for stress in US Customary units

Stress is force divided by area: $\sigma = \frac{P}{A}$. Given a force $P = 7000 \text{ lb.}$ acting on an area $A = 3 \text{ ft.}^2$, calculate the stress in units of pounds per square inch (psi).

Step 1 The equation does not need to be manipulated.

Step 2 Draw a horizontal line. Enter 7000 lb. in the numerator, and 3 ft.² in the denominator.

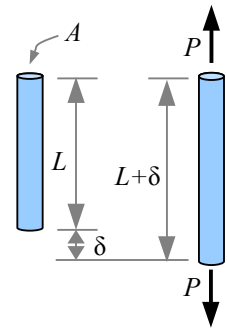
$$\sigma = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{7000 \text{ lb.}}{3 \text{ ft.}^2}$$

Step 3 The stress is in units of pounds per square foot. There are 12 inches in a foot, but we need to convert square feet, so square the number and the unit: (12 in.)². Square feet cancel, and the answer is in pounds per square inch, also written psi.

$$\sigma = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{7000 \text{ lb.}}{3 \text{ ft.}^2} \left| \frac{\text{ft.}^2}{(12 \text{ in.})^2} \right| = 16.2 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} = 16.2 \text{ psi}$$

Example #5 – Tensile bar

A steel tensile bar stretches an amount $\delta = \frac{P \cdot L}{A \cdot E}$ where P is the applied load, L is the length of the bar, A is the cross-sectional area, and E is Young's Modulus. The bar has a circular cross section. Given a load of 30 kN, a length of 80 cm, a diameter of 6 mm, and a Young's Modulus of 207 GPa (from Appendix B), calculate the deflection, δ , in millimeters.



Step 1 In math class, the area of a circle is given by $A = \pi r^2$. In real life, we measure diameter using calipers; it is much easier to measure a diameter than a radius on most objects. Convert radius to diameter, and the area equation becomes more useful. This is a good equation to memorize.

$$A = \pi r^2 = \pi \left(\frac{d}{2} \right)^2 = \frac{\pi d^2}{4} = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2$$

Combine the two equations to obtain a single algebraic equation.

$$\delta = \frac{P \cdot L}{A \cdot E} = \frac{4 P L}{\pi d^2 E}$$

Step 2 Draw a horizontal line and enter the numbers and units.

$$\delta = \frac{4 \cdot 30 \text{ kN} \cdot 80 \text{ cm}}{\pi (6 \text{ mm})^2 207 \text{ GPa}}$$

Step 3 The SI unit of stress or pressure is the pascal, where

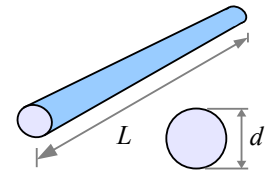
$\text{Pa} = \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}^2}$, so $\text{GPa} = \frac{10^9 \text{ N}}{\text{m}^2}$. Since $1 \text{ kN} = 10^3 \text{ N}$, we can write $\text{GPa} = \frac{10^6 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}^2}$. Three conversion factors are needed:

one to cancel GPa and kN; a second to cancel mm² and m²; and a third to put the final answer in mm.

$$\delta = \frac{4 \cdot 30 \text{ kN} \cdot 80 \text{ cm}}{\pi (6 \text{ mm})^2 207 \text{ GPa}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| \left| \frac{10 \text{ mm}}{\text{cm}} \right| = 4.1 \text{ mm}$$

Example #6 – Weight of a steel bar in US Customary units

The weight of a solid object is the specific weight (Greek letter gamma, γ) of the material times the volume of the object: $W = \gamma V$. The volume of a rod, pipe, or bar is the cross-sectional area times the length: $V = A L$. Calculate the weight of a 2 inch diameter, 3 foot long bar of steel. From Appendix B, the specific weight of steel is 0.284 lb./in.³



Step 1 Combine the two equations to solve for weight: $W = \gamma A L$. Since the rod is round, the cross-sectional area is $A = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2$, therefore $W = \frac{\gamma \pi d^2 L}{4}$

Step 2 Draw a horizontal line and enter the numbers and units.

$$W = \frac{\gamma \pi d^2 L}{4} = \frac{0.284 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^3} \cdot \frac{\pi (2 \text{ in.})^2 3 \text{ ft.}}{4}$$

Step 3 The only unit conversion is feet to inches.

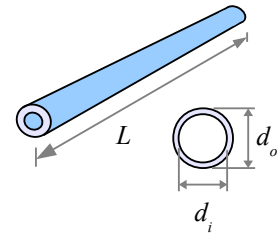
$$W = \frac{\gamma \pi d^2 L}{4} = \frac{0.284 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^3} \cdot \frac{\pi (2 \text{ in.})^2 3 \text{ ft.}}{4} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| = 32.1 \text{ lb.}$$

If the steel bars in Example #6 are sold on pallets with a 500 lb. load capacity, how many bars can you stack on a pallet?

Divide the load capacity by the weight of one bar: $\frac{500 \text{ lb.}}{\text{pallet}} \cdot \frac{\text{bar}}{32.1 \text{ lb.}} = 15.6 \text{ bars/pallet}$. The math is fine, but does the answer make sense? You're not going to ship 6/10 of a bar to a customer...so the answer is 15 bars/pallet.

Example #7 – Weight of a steel pipe in SI units

Calculate the weight of a 2 meter long steel pipe having an outside diameter of 5 cm and an inside diameter of 4 cm. From Appendix A, the acceleration of gravity is $g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$. From Appendix B, the density of steel is 7.85 g/cm³



Step 1 From Appendix C, the area of a hollow circle is $\frac{\pi}{4}(d_o^2 - d_i^2)$. From the previous example problem, we know that $W = \gamma A L$, and specific weight is density times gravity:

$$\gamma = \rho g, \text{ so the weight of the pipe is } W = \rho g A L = \frac{\rho g \pi (d_o^2 - d_i^2) L}{4}.$$

Step 2 Draw a horizontal line and enter the numbers and units.

$$W = \frac{\rho g \pi (d_o^2 - d_i^2) L}{4} = \frac{7.85 \text{ g}}{\text{cm}^3} \cdot \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \cdot \frac{\pi [(5 \text{ cm})^2 - (4 \text{ cm})^2] 2 \text{ m}}{4}$$

Step 3 The SI unit of weight is the newton:

$$\text{N} = \frac{\text{kg m}}{\text{s}^2}.$$

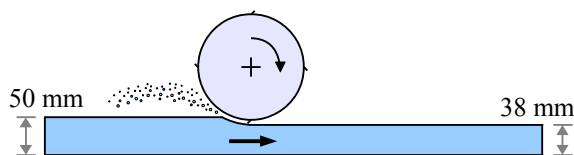
$$W = \frac{7.85 \text{ g}}{\text{cm}^3} \cdot \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \cdot \frac{\pi [(5 \text{ cm})^2 - (4 \text{ cm})^2] 2 \text{ m}}{4} \left| \frac{\text{kg}}{10^3 \text{ g}} \right| \left| \frac{100 \text{ cm}}{\text{m}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{N s}^2}{\text{kg m}} \right| = 109 \text{ N}$$

Notice the unit “g” for grams and the term “g” for gravity. In science and engineering, we tend to use roman type for units, and *italic type* for variables. In friction problems using SI units, capital letter N is used as a unit and as a variable (“N” stands for newtons and “N” stands for normal force).

Example #8 – Material removal percentage

A 50 mm thick wood board is planed to a thickness of 38 mm. Calculate how much material was removed, in percent.

Calculate the percent change by subtracting the initial value from the final value, then dividing by the initial value.



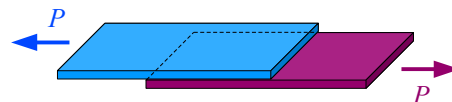
This method works whether you are calculating thickness change, weight change, price change, or any other kind of change. The word “percent” means “per hundred”, so a result of 0.36 is 36%.

$$\frac{t_f - t_o}{t_o} = \frac{38 \text{ mm} - 50 \text{ mm}}{50 \text{ mm}} = -0.24 \text{ or } -24\% \quad \text{The minus sign means the value decreased.}$$

Example #9 – Shear stress in a lap joint

Two pieces of carbon fiber composite are glued together as a lap joint.

Shear stress is $\tau = \frac{P}{A}$, where A is the overlapped area.



If the glue has a shear strength of 1.2 ksi and the joint is loaded with a shear load $P = 1700 \text{ lb.}$, what is the minimum glued surface area required for a good bond?

Solve algebraically, and split ksi into $\frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2}$. Minimum surface area $A = \frac{P}{\tau} = \frac{1700 \text{ lb.}}{1.2 \text{ kips}} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2}{1000 \text{ lb.}} \right| \frac{\text{kip}}{1000 \text{ lb.}} = 1.42 \text{ in.}^2$

Native Units

Every example problem in this book is solved entirely within the same unit system. Converting between unit systems introduces round-off error, so it is best to solve problems in their native units. Do not mix US Customary and SI units in the same problem.

Factor of Safety

In engineering design, we like to use a Factor of Safety to prevent failure. For example, the Factor of Safety for a structure can be expressed as $\text{F.S.} = \frac{\text{Load that a structure can support}}{\text{Actual load applied to a structure}}$. In Example #9, we calculated the glued surface area required to support the load of 1700 lb. Using $\text{F.S.} = 1.5$, the load carrying capacity would be $1.5 \times 1700 \text{ lb.} = 2550 \text{ lb.}$, and the required surface area would be $\frac{2550 \text{ lb.}}{1.2 \text{ kips}} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2}{1000 \text{ lb.}} \right| \frac{\text{kip}}{1000 \text{ lb.}} = 2.13 \text{ in.}^2$

Significant Digits and Engineering Notation

Properties of engineering materials, such as strength and density, are usually accurate to only 2 or 3 significant digits. In this textbook, answers are rounded to 3 significant digits *after* running the calculations. If you round intermediate results, the final answer may be off by several percent. This rounding error increases if variables are raised to exponents greater than 1. For example, the volume V of a cube is related to length of each side s as $V = s^3$. If the measurement of s is off by 5%, then the calculated volume will be $V = (1.05 s)^3 = 1.16 s^3$, an error of 16%.

In science classes you have seen *scientific notation*, where a number like 42,500,000 is easier to write as 4.25×10^7 and 0.000648 is easier to write as 6.48×10^{-4} . Scientific notation puts one nonzero digit to the left of the decimal and the remaining digits to the right of the decimal, followed by some power of 10. *Engineering notation* is similar, except the

Chapter 1: Unit Conversions

power of 10 is a multiple of 3. This means that 42,500,000 is written as 42.5×10^6 and 0.000648 is written as 648×10^{-6} . The advantage of engineering notation is that most SI prefixes are tied to 10 raised to some multiple of 3: kilo- is 10^3 , mega- is 10^6 , giga- is 10^9 , etc. When a number is written in engineering notation, you can tell instantly that 42.5×10^6 Pa is 42.5 MPa; 648×10^{-6} m is 648 μ m. The SI prefixes used in this book are listed in Appendix A.

The materials properties listed in Appendix B are presented in engineering notation. The US Customary values in Table B1 are in kips per square inch, where 1 kip is 10^3 lb. Young's modulus and shear modulus are given in 10^6 psi, while thermal expansion values are in 10^{-6} in./in. $^{\circ}$ F. The corresponding SI values in Table B2 are in MPa, GPa, and 10^{-6} mm/mm $^{\circ}$ C.

Chapter 2: Stress and Strain

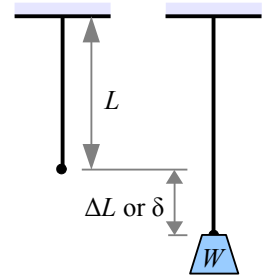
Normal Stress and Strain

The words “stress” and “strain” are used interchangeably in popular culture in a psychological sense: “I’m feeling stressed” or “I’m under a lot of strain.” In engineering, these words have specific, technical meanings. If you tie a steel wire to a hook in the ceiling and hang a weight on the lower end, the wire will stretch. Divide the change in length by the original length, and you have the strain in the wire. Divide the weight hanging from the wire by the wire’s cross sectional area, and you have the tensile stress in the wire. Stress and strain are ratios.

Tensile stress in the wire is the load divided by the cross-sectional area of the wire. Since the loading direction is perpendicular, or normal, to the cross-sectional area, this type of stress is called normal stress.

The symbol for normal stress is σ , the lower case Greek letter sigma. If the weight is 25 lb. and the cross-sectional area of the wire is 0.002 in.^2 , then the stress in the wire is $\sigma = \frac{W}{A} = \frac{25 \text{ lb.}}{0.002 \text{ in.}^2} = 12,500 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} = 12,500 \text{ psi}$.

The symbol for strain is ϵ , the lower case Greek letter epsilon. If the original length of the wire $L = 40 \text{ in.}$ and the change in length $\Delta L = 0.017 \text{ in.}$ (also written $\delta = 0.017 \text{ in.}$), then strain $\epsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L} = \frac{\delta}{L} = \frac{0.017 \text{ in.}}{40 \text{ in.}} = 0.000425$. This is a small number, so sometimes the strain number is multiplied by 100 and reported as a percent: $0.000425 = 0.0425\%$. You may also see strain reported in microstrain: $0.000425 \times 10^6 = 425 \text{ microstrain} = 425 \mu\text{strain}$. Strain is usually reported as a percent for highly elastic materials like rubber.

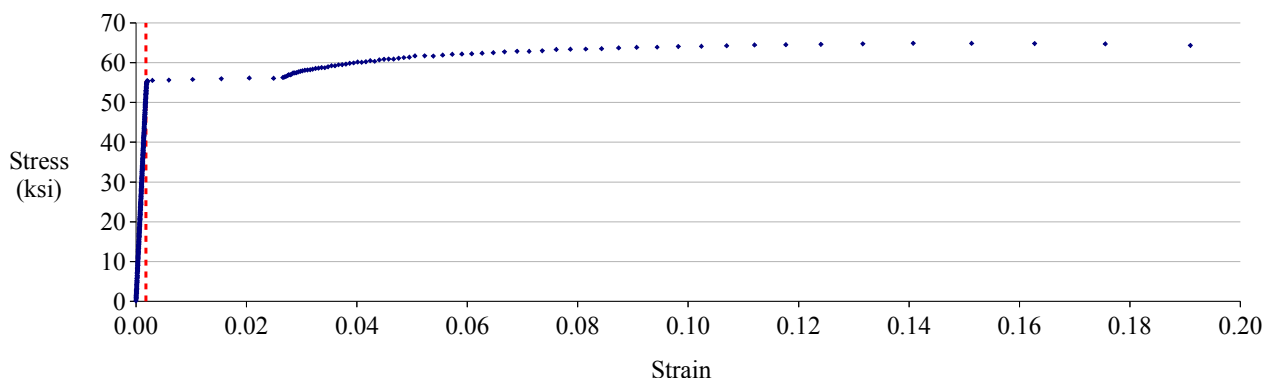


Example #1 – Strain in a wire

A 36 inch long copper wire is stretched to a total length of 36.05 inches. What is the strain?

Solution The change in anything is the final value minus the initial value. Here, the change in length is the final length minus the initial length: $\Delta L = L_f - L_o = 36.05 \text{ in.} - 36.0 \text{ in.} = 0.05 \text{ in.}$. Strain is $\epsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L} = \frac{0.05 \text{ in.}}{36.0 \text{ in.}} = 0.0014 = 0.14\%$.

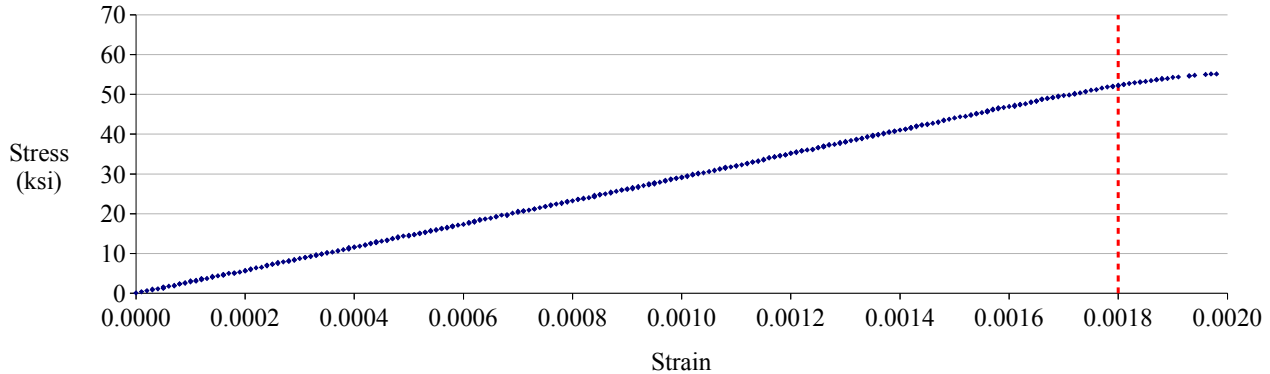
If we hang a bucket from the wire and gradually fill the bucket with water, the weight will gradually increase along with the stress and the strain in the wire, until finally the wire breaks. We can plot the stress vs. strain on an x-y scatter graph, and the result will look like this:



Chapter 2: Stress and Strain

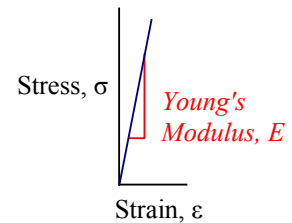
This graph shows the stress-strain behavior of a low-carbon steel. Stress is in units of ksi, or kips per square inch, where $1 \text{ kip} = 10^3 \text{ lb}$. (1 kilopound). The points to the left of the red dashed line are so close together that they smear into a line. This straight part of the stress-strain curve is the elastic portion of the curve. If you fill the bucket with only enough water to stretch the wire in the elastic zone, then the wire will return to its original length when you empty the bucket.

We can change the range of the strain axis from 0.0-0.2 to 0.000-0.002, to show the elastic data only:



This graph shows the leftmost 1% of the previous graph. The dashed red line is in the same position on both graphs. Now the individual data points are visible, and the curve is almost perfectly straight up, to a strain of about 0.0018. The straight line has a slope, called Young's Modulus,* or Elastic Modulus, E . The linear relationship between force and deflection was discovered by Robert Hooke in 1660, and is called Hooke's Law.

The slope of a straight line is the rise over run, so within this elastic zone, $E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$. Since strain is unitless, Young's modulus has the same units as stress. Young's modulus is a mechanical property of the material being tested: $30 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$ or 207 GPa for steels, $10 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$ or 70 GPa for aluminum alloys. It is a measure of the stiffness of the material. See **Appendix B** for materials properties of other materials.



Example #2 – Stress/strain relationship

What tensile stress is required to produce a strain of 8×10^{-5} in aluminum? Report the answer in MPa.

Solution Aluminum has a Young's modulus of $E = 70 \text{ GPa}$. Rewrite $E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$, solving for stress:

$$\sigma = E \epsilon = \frac{8 \times 10^{-5} \cdot 70 \text{ GPa}}{1} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ MPa}}{\text{GPa}} \right| = 5.6 \text{ MPa}$$

* Named for Thomas Young, an English physics professor, who defined it in 1807.

Chapter 2: Stress and Strain

This cartoon of a stress-strain curve illustrates the *elastic* and *plastic* zones. If you hang a light weight to the wire hanging from the ceiling, the wire stretches elastically; remove the weight and the wire returns to its original length. Apply a heavier weight to the wire, and the wire will stretch beyond the elastic limit and begins to plastically† deform, which means it stretches permanently. Remove the weight and the wire will be a little longer (and a little skinnier) than it was originally. Hang a sufficiently heavy weight, and the wire will break.

Two stress values are important in engineering design: yield strength and ultimate tensile strength. The yield strength, σ_{YS} , is the limit of elastic deformation; beyond this point, the material “yields,” which means it permanently deforms.

The ultimate tensile strength, σ_{UTS} (also called tensile strength, σ_{TS}) is the highest stress value on the stress-strain curve. The rupture strength is the stress at final fracture; this value is not particularly useful, because once the tensile strength is exceeded, the metal will break soon after. Young’s modulus, E , is the slope of the stress-strain curve before the test specimen starts to yield. The strain when the test specimen breaks is also called the elongation.

Many manufacturing operations on metals are performed at stress levels between the yield strength and the tensile strength. Bending a steel wire into a paperclip, deep-drawing sheet metal to make an aluminum can, or rolling steel into wide-flange structural beams are three processes that permanently deform the metal, so $\sigma_{YS} < \sigma_{Applied}$. During each forming operation, the metal must not be stressed beyond its tensile strength, otherwise it would break, so $\sigma_{YS} < \sigma_{Applied} < \sigma_{UTS}$. Manufacturers need to know the values of yield and tensile strength in order to stay within these limits.

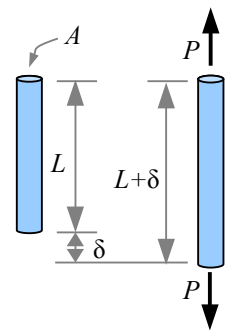
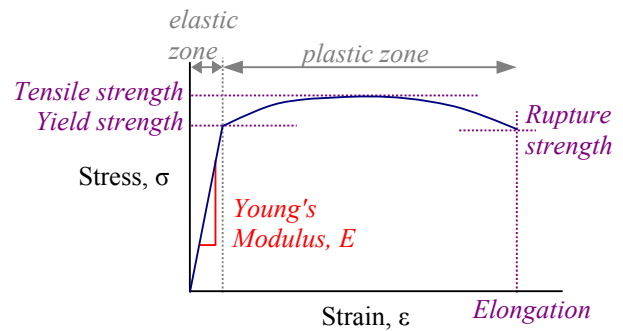
After they are sold or installed, most manufactured products and civil engineering structures are used below the yield strength, in the elastic zone.* In this textbook, almost all of the problems are elastic, so there is a linear relationship between stress and strain.

Take an aluminum rod of length L , cross-sectional area A , and pull on it with a load P . The rod will lengthen an amount δ . We can calculate δ in three separate equations, or we can use algebra to find a simple equation to calculate δ directly. Young’s modulus is defined as $E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$.

Substitute the definition of stress, $\sigma = \frac{P}{A}$, and $E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} = \frac{P}{A \cdot \epsilon}$.

Substitute the definition of strain, $\epsilon = \frac{\delta}{L}$, and $E = \frac{P}{A \cdot \epsilon} = \frac{PL}{A\delta}$.

Rewrite this equation to solve for the change in length of the rod: $\delta = \frac{PL}{AE}$.



† Here, the word *plastic* is used in its 17th century sense “capable of being deformed” rather than the 20th century definition “polymer.”

* One exception is the crumple zones in a car. During an auto accident, the hood and other sheet metal components yield, preventing damage to the driver and passengers. Another exception is a shear pin in a snow blower. If a chunk of ice jams the blades, the shear pin exceeds its ultimate strength and breaks, protecting the drivetrain by working as a mechanical fuse.

Example #3 – Axial stretching

A 6 foot long aluminum rod has a cross-sectional area of 0.08 in.^2 . How much does the rod stretch under an axial tensile load of 400 lb.? Report the answer in inches.

Solution The word *axial* means *along the axis* so an axial tensile load is pulling along the length of the rod. Sometimes it is called the *longitudinal direction* rather than the axial direction. Aluminum has a Young's modulus of $E = 10 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$.

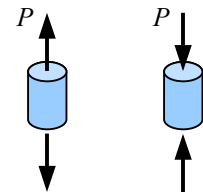
$$\text{Deflection } \delta = \frac{PL}{AE} = \frac{400 \text{ lb.} \cdot 6 \text{ ft.}}{0.08 \text{ in.}^2} \cdot \frac{\text{in.}^2}{10 \times 10^6 \text{ lb.}} \cdot \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} = 0.036 \text{ in.}$$

Note Young's modulus is in units of psi, but when you write it in an equation, split up the lb. and the in.^2 between numerator and denominator to avoid unit confusion.

Sign Convention

A load that pulls is called a *tensile* load. If the load pushes, we call it a *compressive* load. The equations are the same: compressive stress $\sigma = P/A$, compressive strain $\epsilon = \delta/L$, and compressive deflection $\delta = PL/AE$. Tensile stress, compressive stress are both normal stress, because the load is perpendicular to the area it is acting on. We need a way to differentiate between compression and tension, so we use a sign convention. Tensile loads and stresses are positive; compressive loads and stresses are negative. Increases in length are positive; decreases in length are negative.

Tension Compression

**Example #4 – Compressive stress, strain, and deflection**

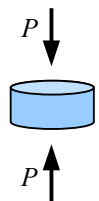
A 70 kN compressive load is applied to a 5 cm diameter, 3 cm tall, steel cylinder. Calculate stress, strain, and deflection.

$$\text{Solution} \text{ The load is } -70 \text{ kN, so the stress is } \sigma = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{4P}{\pi d^2} = \frac{4(-70 \text{ kN})}{\pi (5 \text{ cm})^2} \cdot \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \cdot \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^2}{\text{m}^2} = -35.6 \text{ MPa}$$

The negative sign tells us the stress is compressive. Young's modulus $E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$. Rewrite the equation to solve

$$\text{for strain: } \epsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{-35.6 \text{ MPa}}{207 \text{ GPa}} \cdot \frac{\text{GPa}}{10^3 \text{ MPa}} = -0.000172$$

Strain is defined as $\epsilon = \frac{\delta}{L}$. Rewrite to solve for deflection: $\delta = \epsilon L = \frac{-0.000172 \cdot 3 \text{ cm}}{1} \cdot \frac{10 \text{ mm}}{\text{cm}} = -0.0052 \text{ mm}$. The negative signs tell us that the cylinder is shrinking along the direction of the load.



Shear Stress and Strain

The stress in the previous examples is called “normal stress” because the stress acts on an area that is normal, or perpendicular, to the direction of the applied load. Imagine a tall stack of coins glued together on their faces. If you pull on the ends of the stack, the glue will experience a stress that is normal (perpendicular) to the face of each coin. If the glue is thick and tacky, maybe it will tend to stretch, and you can see the coins gradually pull apart along the direction of the applied load. If the load is 100 lb. and the face area of each coin is 1 in.², then the normal stress is 100 psi.

Next, imagine taking two coins that are glued together on their faces, and try to slide them apart. Now the stress is acting parallel to the glue instead of perpendicular to it. This stress is called *shear stress*, symbolized by the lower case Greek letter tau, τ . The units are the same as for normal stress because shear stress is also force divided by area. If the load is 25 lb. and the face area of each coin is 1 in.², then the shear stress is 25 psi.

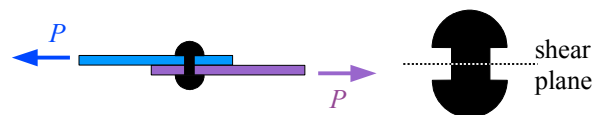
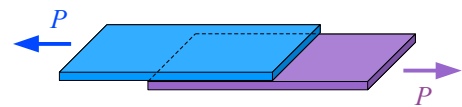
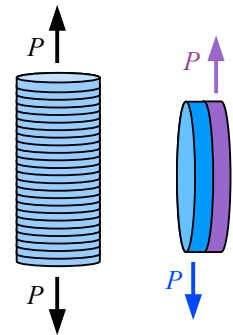
Sheet metal joints are often manufactured this way, with adhesive bonding two lapped sheets to form a lap joint. The load is parallel to the area under stress (the adhesive in the shear plane between the two lapped panels). Joints can be designed to put the adhesive in either tension or in shear; typically, the shear strength of an adhesive is not the same as the strength in tension.

For example, cyanoacrylate adhesive (“superglue”) is stronger in tension than in shear. An adhesive lap joint will fail when the shear strength of the adhesive is exceeded.

If the sheet metal is held together with rivets instead of glue, then each rivet is loaded in shear across its cross-section. The shear plane passes through the rivet where the two sheets meet. In a bolted joint, use a bolt with a smooth shank instead of a bolt that is threaded along its entire length. This way, the shear plane can pass through the smooth shank, which has a larger cross-

sectional area than the root of a thread, and therefore can handle a higher applied load. Later in the book, we will see that the thread root also acts as a stress concentration site – yet another reason for keeping threads out of shear planes.

One way to produce holes in sheet metal is by punching them out with a punch and die set. The punch shears the sheet metal, so we can use shear stress calculations to figure out the stress in the sheet metal, $\tau = \frac{P}{A}$, where P is the force of the punch and A is the sheared area (the perimeter of the shape that is punched times the thickness of the sheet metal t).

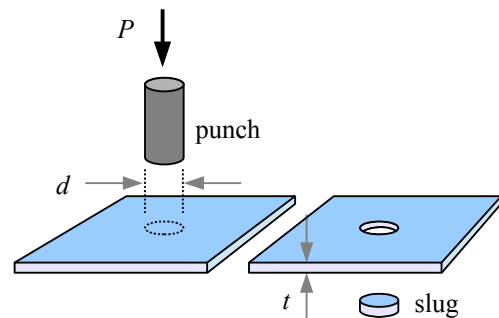


Example #5 – Punched sheet metal

A 3 mm thick aluminum sheet is cut with a 4 cm diameter flat-bottomed round punch. If the punch exerts a force of 6 kN, what is the shear stress in the sheet? Report the answer in MPa.

Solution The punch will create a round slug, where the cut edge is around the circumference of the slug. Think of the cut edge as the wall of a cylinder with a height of 3 mm and a diameter of 4 cm. The area equals the circumference of the circle times the thickness of the sheet metal: $A = \pi dt$.

$$\tau = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{P}{\pi dt} = \frac{6 \text{ kN}}{\pi \cdot 4 \text{ cm} \cdot 3 \text{ mm}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{100 \text{ cm}}{\text{m}} \right| \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ mm}}{\text{m}} \right| = 15.9 \text{ MPa}$$

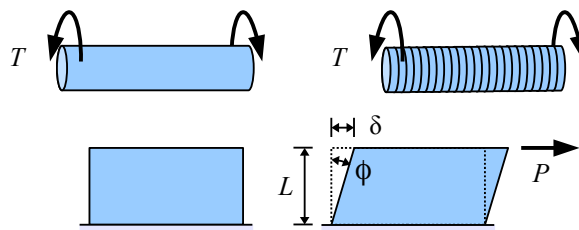


Chapter 2: Stress and Strain

A process engineer in a stamping plant will rewrite this equation to solve for P in order to find out whether a press is capable of punching out blanks of a given size in a sheet metal of known shear strength.

Shear stress controls the design of torsion members. Think of a round shaft as a series of disks glued together on their faces. If you twist the shaft with a torque T , the glue will be loaded in shear because the load is parallel to the face of each disk.

Consider a rectangular block loaded in shear. The block will distort as a parallelogram, so the top edge moves an amount δ . Divide the distortion by length L perpendicular to the distortion, and you have the shear strain, $\gamma = \frac{\delta}{L}$, where γ is the lower-



case Greek letter gamma. Like normal strain, shear strain is unitless. We can calculate the angle formed between the initial and loaded shapes of the block using trigonometry: $\tan \phi = \frac{\delta}{L}$. The strain in the cartoon is exaggerated. For metals, concrete, wood, and most polymers, angle ϕ is so small that $\tan \phi \approx \phi$ if we measure the angle in radians, therefore $\phi \approx \gamma = \frac{\delta}{L}$.

Factor of Safety

In Chapter 1, we defined the Factor of Safety in terms of forces: $F.S. = \frac{\text{Load that a structure can support}}{\text{Actual load applied to a structure}}$. We can also

define the Factor of Safety in terms of stresses: $F.S. = \frac{\text{Stress that a structure can support}}{\text{Actual stress applied to a structure}}$. Typically we use the yield

strength as the stress in the numerator, so $F.S. = \frac{\sigma_{ys}}{\text{Applied stress}}$. For example, if a steel rod loaded in tension develops a 20

ksi tensile stress, and its yield point is 35 ksi, then $F.S. = \frac{35 \text{ ksi}}{20 \text{ ksi}} = 1.75$. The steel rod is 75% stronger than it needs to be.

If a Factor of Safety is less than 1, then the part will fail, by definition.

Key Equations

Starting with this chapter, you will find a list of Key Equations at the end of each chapter. You can save time on homework problems by keeping your own list of equations in a handy place, such as a notebook.

Normal stress in a tensile or compressive member is the load divided by the cross-sectional area: $\sigma = \frac{P}{A}$.

Normal strain is the change in length parallel to the load divided by initial length: $\epsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L} = \frac{\delta}{L}$.

Young's modulus is the ratio of stress over strain within the elastic zone of the stress-strain diagram: $E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$

The change in length of a tensile or compressive member is derived from the three previous equations: $\delta = \frac{PL}{AE}$

Shear stress is the load divided by the area parallel to the load: $\tau = \frac{P}{A}$.

Shear strain is the deformation parallel to the load divided by initial length perpendicular to the load: $\gamma = \frac{\delta}{L}$.

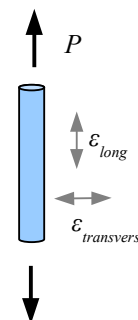
Factor of Safety is the load or stress capacity of a structure divided by the applied load or stress.

Chapter 3: Poisson's Ratio and Thermal Expansion

Poisson's Ratio

Stretch a thick rubber band, and you notice the material gets thinner as it gets longer. This effect occurs in metals, plastics, concrete, and many other materials. We can predict how much the thickness changes with a materials property called Poisson's ratio,* which relates the strain along the tensile axis with the strain in the transverse (crosswise) direction. The symbol for Poisson's ratio is ν , the lower case Greek letter nu, which looks similar to the lower case Roman letter v. Poisson's ratio

is $\nu = \frac{-\epsilon_{transverse}}{\epsilon_{long}}$, where $\epsilon_{transverse}$ is the strain in the transverse (crosswise) direction, and ϵ_{long} is the strain along the longitudinal axis (also called ϵ_{axial}). The sign convention for strain is positive for expansion, negative for shrinkage. Poisson's ratio is 0.25 for steel, 0.33 for aluminum, and 0.10 to 0.20 for concrete. We can calculate the change in length of a rod by taking the definition of strain, $\epsilon_{long} = \frac{\delta_{long}}{L}$, and rewriting it as $\delta_{long} = \epsilon_{long} L$. In the same way, we can calculate the change in



diameter by substituting $\epsilon_{transverse}$ for ϵ_{long} , and diameter d for length L : $\delta_{transverse} = \epsilon_{transverse} d$.

Example #1 – Diameter shrinkage due to a tensile load

An aluminum rod has a cross-sectional area of 0.19635 in.^2 . An axial tensile load of 6000 lb. causes the rod to stretch along its length, and shrink across its diameter. What is the diameter before and after loading? Report the answer in inches.

Solution The rod has a circular cross section, so the cross-sectional area before the rod is loaded is $A = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2$. Rewrite to solve for the initial diameter,

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{4A}{\pi}} = \sqrt{\frac{4 \cdot 0.19635 \text{ in.}^2}{\pi}} = 0.50000 \text{ in.}$$

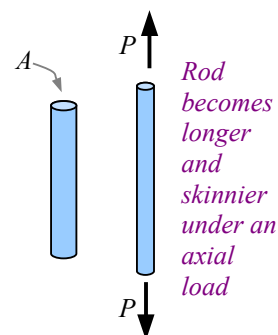
When the rod is loaded, the axial strain is

$$\epsilon_{long} = \frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{P}{AE} = \frac{6000 \text{ lb.}}{0.19635 \text{ in.}^2 \cdot 10 \times 10^6 \text{ lb.}} = 0.00306$$

Poisson's ratio $\nu = \frac{-\epsilon_{transverse}}{\epsilon_{long}}$, so $\epsilon_{transverse} = -\nu \cdot \epsilon_{long} = -0.33 \cdot 0.00306 = -0.00101$

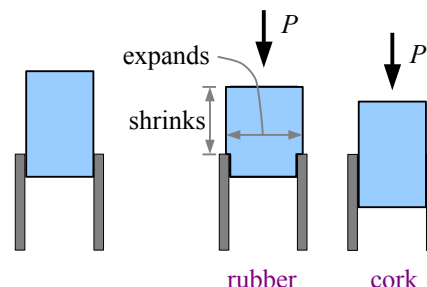
The change in diameter is $\delta_{transverse} = \epsilon_{transverse} \cdot d = -0.00101 \times 0.50000 \text{ in.} = -0.000504 \text{ in.}$

The final diameter $d_f = d_o + \delta_{transverse} = 0.50000 \text{ in.} - 0.000504 \text{ in.} = 0.4995 \text{ in.}$



In a civil engineering structure, a dimensional change of half a thousandth of an inch is insignificant, but in a machine it could affect performance. Imagine a machine part that slides in a slot: if the part is loaded axially in compression, Poisson's effect could change a part that slides (slip fit) into a part that sticks (press fit).

You can feel the effect of Poisson's ratio when you insert a rubber stopper or a cork in a bottle. The Poisson's ratio of rubber is about 0.5, while cork is about 0.0. If you try to push a rubber stopper into the neck of a bottle, the material above the neck will shorten and thicken, making it difficult to insert into the bottle. The harder you push, the more the stopper will expand in the transverse direction, and this expansion is about 50% of the compression in



* Named for Siméon Poisson, a French mathematician and physicist.

Chapter 3: Poisson's Ratio and Thermal Expansion

the axial direction. Natural cork is made from the bark of the cork oak tree, and does not expand transversely when you push on it. The only resistance comes from compressing the cork in the bottle neck, and friction.

Consider a block that is pulled in two directions by forces P_x and P_y . The strain in the x direction due to the axial stress from P_x is $\epsilon_{x\text{ axial}} = \frac{\sigma_x}{E}$. If P_x is positive (tension), then the strain is also positive...the bar is stretching along the x axis due to the action of P_x . However, tensile load P_y is acting to shrink the bar in the x direction; the strain due to this transverse load is $\epsilon_{x\text{ transverse}} = -\frac{\nu\sigma_y}{E}$. Add these two strains to find the

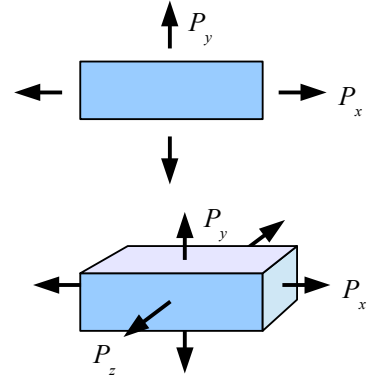
total strain in the x direction, $\epsilon_x = \frac{\sigma_x}{E} - \frac{\nu\sigma_y}{E} = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_y)$.

Similarly, the total strain in the y direction is $\epsilon_y = \frac{\sigma_y}{E} - \frac{\nu\sigma_x}{E} = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_y - \nu\sigma_x)$.

Real blocks, of course, are three-dimensional. If the block is loaded in all three

directions, calculate the strain in the x , y , and z directions as $\epsilon_x = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_y - \nu\sigma_z)$, $\epsilon_y = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_y - \nu\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_z)$, and

$$\epsilon_z = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_z - \nu\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_y).$$



Example #2 - Strains in a triaxially-loaded block

Calculate the strains in the x , y , and z directions for this steel block.

Solution First, calculate the normal stress in the x , y , and z directions as the force divided by the perpendicular surface that it acts on.

The stress in the x direction acts on the right face of the block, so the normal stress is $\sigma_x = \frac{P_x}{A_x} = \frac{3 \text{ kN}}{2 \text{ cm} \times 4 \text{ cm}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| = 3.75 \text{ MPa}$ where A_x is the area perpendicular to load P_x . The stress in the y direction acts on the top of the block, so the normal stress is

$$\sigma_y = \frac{P_y}{A_y} = \frac{5 \text{ kN}}{2 \text{ cm} \times 3 \text{ cm}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| = 8.33 \text{ MPa}.$$

The stress in the z direction acts on the front face of the block, so the normal stress is

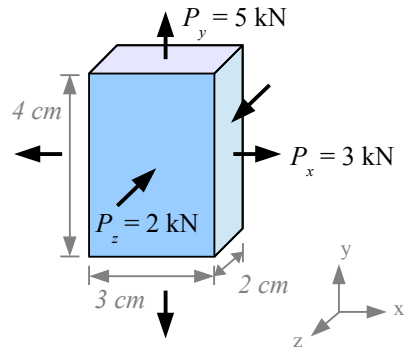
$$\sigma_z = \frac{P_z}{A_z} = \frac{-2 \text{ kN}}{3 \text{ cm} \times 4 \text{ cm}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| = -1.67 \text{ MPa}. \text{ The load and stress are negative because they are compressive.}$$

Next, calculate the strains. Since the block is steel, Young's modulus is 207 GPa and Poisson's ratio is 0.25.

$$\epsilon_x = \frac{1}{E}[\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_y - \nu\sigma_z] = \frac{1}{207 \times 10^3 \text{ MPa}}[3.75 \text{ MPa} - 0.25(8.33 \text{ MPa}) - 0.25(-1.67 \text{ MPa})] = 1.01 \times 10^{-5}$$

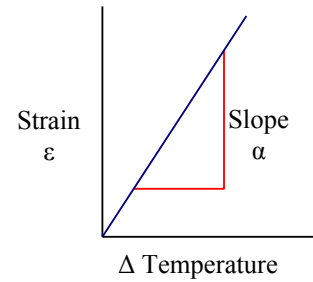
$$\epsilon_y = \frac{1}{E}[\sigma_y - \nu\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_z] = \frac{1}{207 \times 10^3 \text{ MPa}}[8.33 \text{ MPa} - 0.25(3.75 \text{ MPa}) - 0.25(-1.67 \text{ MPa})] = 3.77 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$\epsilon_z = \frac{1}{E}[\sigma_z - \nu\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_y] = \frac{1}{207 \times 10^3 \text{ MPa}}[-1.67 \text{ MPa} - 0.25(3.75 \text{ MPa}) - 0.25(8.33 \text{ MPa})] = -2.26 \times 10^{-5}$$



Thermal Expansion and Thermal Stress

Heat a piece of steel, wood, or concrete, and it expands. Cool the same piece, and it shrinks. Plot the strain as a function of temperature change, and for most materials, you get a relatively straight line. The slope of the line is called the thermal expansion coefficient, Greek letter α . It tells us how much strain we can expect for a given temperature change. From the graph, the slope $\alpha = \epsilon / \Delta T$. The units of α are strain divided by temperature: $\frac{\text{in./in.}}{^\circ\text{F}}$ or $\frac{\text{mm/mm}}{^\circ\text{C}}$, which we can write as $^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$ or $^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$.



Substitute the definition of strain, $\epsilon = \delta / L$, and we have $\alpha = \frac{\delta}{L(\Delta T)}$. Rewrite the equation to solve for thermal deflection: $\delta = \alpha L(\Delta T)$.

The thermal expansion coefficient is a materials property; different materials expand at different rates. For example, aluminum expands about twice as much as steel for a given temperature change, because $\alpha_{\text{Aluminum}} = 23 \times 10^{-6} ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ and $\alpha_{\text{Steel}} = 12 \times 10^{-6} ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$. One reason we use steel as a reinforcement in concrete is $\alpha_{\text{Concrete}} = 11 \times 10^{-6} ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$, so the steel and concrete expand and contract at roughly the same rate. If the matrix and reinforcement in a composite expand at different rates, then the matrix and reinforcement may separate under repeated thermal cycles.

We define the change in temperature as the final temperature minus the original temperature: $\Delta T = T_f - T_o$. If the material is cooled from 70°F to 40°F , the change in temperature is $\Delta T = 40^\circ\text{F} - 70^\circ\text{F} = -30^\circ\text{F}$, a negative number. If the material is heated from 70°F to 90°F , the change in temperature is $\Delta T = 90^\circ\text{F} - 70^\circ\text{F} = +20^\circ\text{F}$, a positive number. The sign of ΔT tells you whether the material is heating up or cooling down.

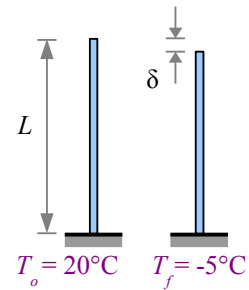
Example #3 – Thermal expansion of a flagpole

A 5 m aluminum flagpole is installed at 20°C . Overnight, the temperature drops to -5°C . How much does the height change, in millimeters? What is the final height of the flagpole, in meters?

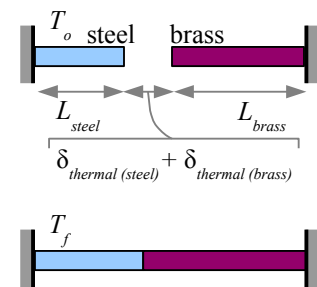
Solution First, calculate the change in length using $\delta = \alpha L(\Delta T)$. From the Appendix, the thermal expansion coefficient for aluminum is $\alpha_{\text{Aluminum}} = 23 \times 10^{-6} \frac{\text{mm}}{\text{mm } ^\circ\text{C}}$. Next, calculate the final length by adding the change in length to the original length.

$$\text{Change in length } \delta = \alpha L(\Delta T) = \frac{23 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}}{\text{mm } ^\circ\text{C}} \frac{5 \text{ m}(-5^\circ\text{C} - 20^\circ\text{C})}{10^3 \text{ mm}} = -2.88 \text{ mm}$$

The negative sign indicates the flagpole is getting shorter. Final length $L_f = L + \delta = 5 \text{ m} - \frac{2.88 \text{ mm}}{10^3 \text{ mm}} = 4.997 \text{ m}$.



Two cantilever beams made of different materials have a measurable gap between their ends. As the bars heat up, they grow towards each other and eventually meet if the temperature rises enough. Each bar has a different thermal coefficient of expansion. How do we calculate the temperature T_f at which they meet? Consider that the gap between the two bars equals $\delta_{\text{total}} = \delta_{\text{steel}} + \delta_{\text{brass}}$. Substitute the equation for thermal expansion, and we get $\delta_{\text{total}} = \alpha_{\text{steel}} L_{\text{steel}}(\Delta T_{\text{steel}}) + \alpha_{\text{brass}} L_{\text{brass}}(\Delta T_{\text{brass}})$. The change in temperature is the same for both materials, so $\delta_{\text{total}} = \Delta T(\alpha_{\text{steel}} L_{\text{steel}} + \alpha_{\text{brass}} L_{\text{brass}})$. Rewrite the equation to solve for temperature change: $\Delta T = \frac{\delta_{\text{total}}}{\alpha_{\text{steel}} L_{\text{steel}} + \alpha_{\text{brass}} L_{\text{brass}}}$.



The temperature change $\Delta T = T_f - T_o$, so we can solve for the final temperature: $T_f = T_o + \frac{\delta_{\text{total}}}{\alpha_{\text{steel}} L_{\text{steel}} + \alpha_{\text{brass}} L_{\text{brass}}}$.

Chapter 3: Poisson's Ratio and Thermal Expansion

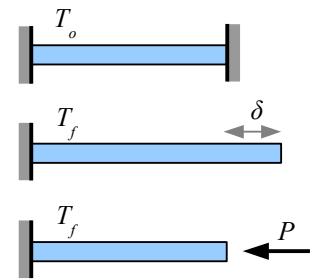
If the material is restrained from expanding or contracting while the temperature changes, then stress builds within the part. Consider a bar of steel embedded in two blocks of concrete. If the bar heats up, it will want to expand by an amount $\delta = \alpha L(\Delta T)$. However, the blocks of concrete prevent the bar from expanding, by exerting a force P on the bar.

We know from Chapter 2 that an axial load will cause a bar to deform an amount $\delta = \frac{PL}{AE}$.

However, the load P in this problem is compressive, so $\delta = \frac{-PL}{AE}$. Set the two deflections equal to each other, and $\alpha L(\Delta T) = \frac{-PL}{AE}$. Length L cancels from both sides, so

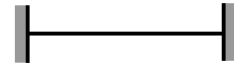
$\alpha(\Delta T) = \frac{-P}{AE}$. The thermal stress in the bar is $\sigma_{thermal} = \frac{P}{A}$, so we have

$\alpha(\Delta T) = \frac{-\sigma_{thermal}}{E}$. Solve for thermal stress: $\sigma_{thermal} = -\alpha E(\Delta T)$. The thermal stress does not depend on the length of the bar; it depends only on materials constants α and E and the temperature change.



Example #4 – Thermal stress in a wire

Two immovable concrete blocks are connected by a steel wire. At 72°F there is no stress in the wire. If the wire cools from 72°F to 55°F, what is the stress in the wire?



Solution Find these steel properties in the Appendix: $\alpha = 6.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ in./in.}^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$ and $E = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$.

$$\text{Thermal stress } \sigma = -\alpha E(\Delta T) = \frac{-6.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ in.}}{\text{in.}^\circ\text{F}} \cdot \frac{30 \times 10^6 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot (55^\circ\text{F} - 72^\circ\text{F}) = 3,315 \text{ psi}$$

The positive sign indicates the wire is under a tensile stress. The wire cooled and wanted to shrink, but the concrete blocks prevented it from shrinking, leaving the wire in tension.

Example #5 – Force created by thermal stress

Two immovable concrete blocks are connected with a 2 inch by 2 inch square steel bar. At 72°F there is no stress in the bar. If the bar heats from 72°F to 102°F, what is the stress in the bar? How much force do the blocks exert on the bar?



Solution Find these steel properties in the Appendix: $\alpha = 6.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ in./in.}^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$ and $E = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$.

$$\text{Thermal stress } \sigma = -\alpha E(\Delta T) = \frac{-6.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ in.}}{\text{in.}^\circ\text{F}} \cdot \frac{30 \times 10^6 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot (102^\circ\text{F} - 72^\circ\text{F}) = -5,850 \text{ psi}$$

The negative sign indicates the bar is under a compressive stress. The bar heated up and wanted to expand, but the concrete blocks prevented it from expanding, leaving the bar in compression. We can find the force exerted by the walls

from the thermal stress: $\sigma_{thermal} = \frac{P_{thermal}}{A}$. Rewrite the equation to solve for force:

$$P_{thermal} = \sigma_{thermal} A = \frac{-5,850 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot \frac{2 \text{ in.} \times 2 \text{ in.}}{1} = -23,400 \text{ lb.} \text{ The negative sign shows that the force is compressive.}$$

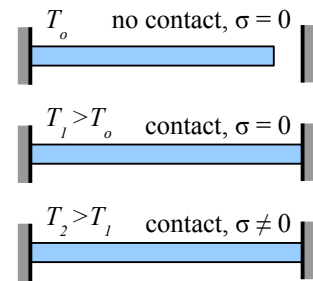


Chapter 3: Poisson's Ratio and Thermal Expansion

Some thermal expansion problems require both the deflection *and* the stress equations. For example, if this cantilever beam heats up sufficiently, it will meet the right-hand wall. If the temperature continues to rise, stress will build up in the beam. If you know the initial length, material, and temperatures T_o and T_2 (but not temperature T_1), how do you find the thermal stress?

Step 1 Use the thermal deflection equation and the temperature change $\Delta T = T_1 - T_o$ to figure out temperature T_1 .

Step 2 Use the thermal stress equation and the temperature change $\Delta T = T_2 - T_1$ to figure out $\sigma_{thermal}$ at temperature T_2 .



Key Equations

Poisson's ratio is the decrease in transverse strain to the increase in longitudinal strain: $\nu = \frac{-\epsilon_{transverse}}{\epsilon_{long}}$

Calculate the strains in an elastic block loaded in the x , y , and z directions as $\epsilon_x = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_y - \nu\sigma_z)$,

$\epsilon_y = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_y - \nu\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_z)$, and $\epsilon_z = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_z - \nu\sigma_x - \nu\sigma_y)$. If a load does not exist in one of the directions, then the stress term for that direction is zero, and the equations become simpler.

Change in length due to a change in temperature is a function of the thermal expansion coefficient, the initial length, and the change in temperature: $\delta = \alpha L(\Delta T)$

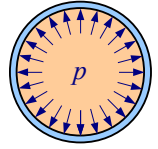
Stress due to a change in temperature is a function of the thermal expansion coefficient, Young's modulus, and the change in temperature: $\sigma_{thermal} = -\alpha E(\Delta T)$

Chapter 4: Pressure Vessels and Stress Concentrations

Thin-Walled Pressure Vessels

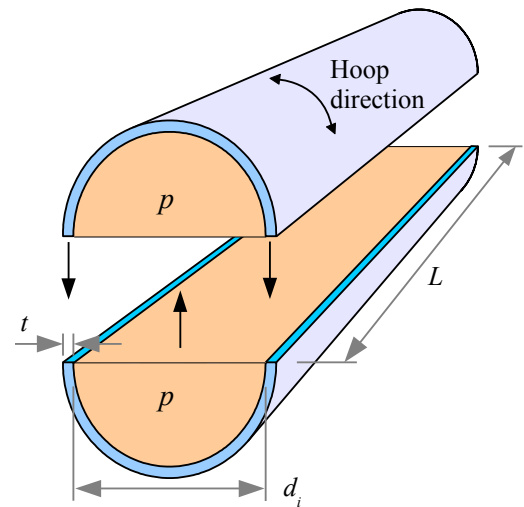
A pressure vessel is a container holding a fluid (liquid or gas) under pressure. Examples include carbonated beverage bottles, propane tanks, and water mains. Drain pipes are not pressure vessels because they are open to the atmosphere.

In a small pressure vessel such as a horizontal pipe, we can ignore the effects of gravity on the fluid. In the 17th century, French mathematician and physicist Blaise Pascal discovered that internal fluid pressure pushes equally against the walls of the pipe in all directions, provided the fluid is not moving. The SI pressure and stress unit, the pascal (Pa), is named after Pascal because of his work with fluid pressure. The symbol for pressure is lower-case p , not to be confused with upper-case P used for point loads.



If the thickness of the wall is less than 10% of the internal radius of the pipe or tank, then the pressure vessel is described as a thin-walled pressure vessel. Because the wall is thin, the stress in the wall is nearly the same on the inside and outside surfaces of the wall. (Thick-walled pressure vessels have a higher stress on the inner surface than on the outer surface, so cracks form from the inside out.)

Imagine cutting a thin-walled pipe lengthwise through the pressurized fluid and the pipe wall: the force exerted by the fluid must equal the force exerted by the pipe walls (sum of the forces equals zero). The force exerted by the fluid is $p \cdot A = p d_i L$ where A is the area that the pressure acts upon (the orange rectangle in the diagram), d_i is the inside diameter of the pipe, and L is the length of the pipe. The stress in the walls of the pipe is equal to the fluid force divided by the cross-sectional area of the pipe wall. This cross-section of one wall is the thickness of the pipe, t , times its length. Since there are two walls, the total cross-sectional area of the wall is $2 t L$. The stress is around the circumference, also called the hoop direction, so $\sigma_{hoop} = \frac{p d_i L}{2 t L} = \frac{p d_i}{2 t}$. Hoop stress is independent of the length of the pipe.



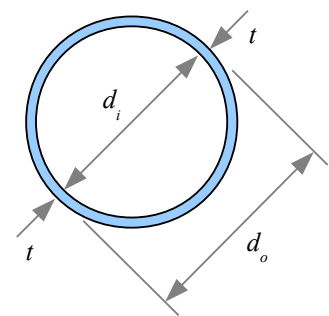
Example #1 – Hoop stress in a pipe

A pipe with a 15 in. outside diameter and a 14 in. inside diameter carries pressurized water at 110 psi. What is the hoop stress?

Solution First, calculate the wall thickness, t . From the diagram, see that $d_o = d_i + 2t$, therefore $t = \frac{d_o - d_i}{2} = \frac{15 \text{ in.} - 14 \text{ in.}}{2} = 0.5 \text{ in.}$

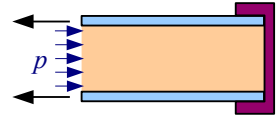
Next, check if the pipe is thin-walled. The ratio of the pipe wall thickness to the internal radius is $\frac{t}{r_i} = \frac{0.5 \text{ in.}}{\frac{1}{2}(14 \text{ in.})} = 0.071 < 0.10$, so the pipe is thin-walled.

Hoop stress $\sigma_{hoop} = \frac{p d_i}{2 t} = \frac{110 \text{ psi} \cdot 14 \text{ in.}}{2 \cdot 0.5 \text{ in.}} = 1,540 \text{ psi}$



Chapter 4: Pressure Vessels and Stress Concentrations

What if the pipe is capped? If the cap were loose, pressure would push the cap off the end. If the cap is firmly attached to the pipe, then a stress develops along the length of the pipe to resist pressure on the cap. Imagine cutting the pipe and pressurized fluid transversely. The force exerted by the fluid equals the force along the length of the pipe walls.

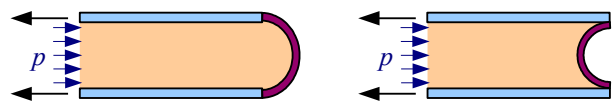


Pressure acts on a circular area of fluid, so the force exerted by the fluid is $P_{fluid} = p \cdot A = p \frac{\pi}{4} d_i^2$. The cross-sectional area of the pipe wall $A = \frac{\pi}{4} d_o^2 - \frac{\pi}{4} d_i^2 = \frac{\pi}{4} (d_o^2 - d_i^2)$. We can estimate the cross-sectional area of a thin-walled pipe pretty closely by multiplying the wall thickness by the circumference, so $A \approx \pi d_i t$. The stress along the length of the pipe is

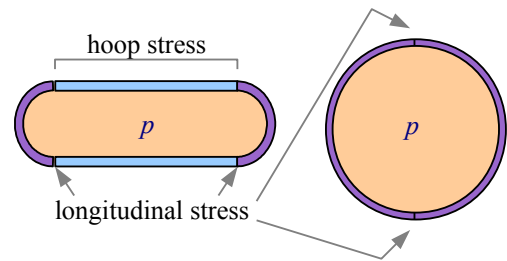
$$\sigma_{long} = \frac{P_{fluid}}{A_{pipe}} = \frac{p \pi d_i^2}{4 \pi d_i t} . \text{ Simplify by canceling } \pi \text{ and one of the diameters: } \sigma_{long} = \frac{p d_i}{4 t} .$$

In a thin-walled pipe, hoop stress is twice as large as longitudinal stress. If the pressure in a pipe exceeds the strength of the material, then the pipe will split along its length (perpendicular to the hoop direction).

Does the shape of the cap affect the longitudinal stress in the pipe? No, because only the cross-sectional area of the pipe matters. Typically, pressure vessels have concave or convex domes, because flat caps tend to deflect under pressure, but the shape has no effect on longitudinal stress in the pipe walls.



A welded steel outdoor propane tank typically consists of a tube with two convex hemispherical caps (right). Hoop stress controls the design in the tube portion. Where the caps are welded to the tubes, longitudinal stress controls the design. If the steel is all the same thickness (and the welds are perfect), then the tank will fail in the tube section because hoop stress is twice the longitudinal stress. A spherical tank (far right) only has longitudinal stress, so it can handle twice the pressure of a tubular tank. Think of a spherical tank as two hemispheres welded together; the weld prevents the two halves from separating.



In conclusion, if you have a pipe or a cylindrical tank, use $\sigma_{hoop} = \frac{p d_i}{2 t}$. If you have a spherical tank, use $\sigma_{long} = \frac{p d_i}{4 t}$.

The ASME Boiler Code recommends using an allowable stress $\sigma_{allowable} = \frac{1}{4} \sigma_{UTS}$ or $\sigma_{allowable} = \frac{2}{3} \sigma_{YS}$, whichever is *smaller*, for welded steel pressure vessels.

Example #2 – Wall thickness of a spherical tank

What is the minimum thickness of a spherical steel tank if the diameter is 10 feet, internal pressure is 600 psi, the tensile strength of the steel is 65ksi, and the yield strength of the steel is 30 ksi?

Solution First, calculate the allowable stress. Next, rewrite the stress equation for longitudinal stress (because this is a sphere, not a pipe) to solve for wall thickness.

Based on tensile strength, $\sigma_{allowable} = \frac{1}{4} \sigma_{UTS} = \frac{65 \text{ ksi}}{4} = 16.25 \text{ ksi}$. Based on yield strength,

$$\sigma_{allowable} = \frac{2}{3} \sigma_{YS} = \frac{2 \cdot 30 \text{ ksi}}{3} = 20 \text{ ksi} ; \text{ therefore, use } 16.25 \text{ ksi} \text{ because it is the smaller number.}$$

$$\text{Longitudinal stress } \sigma_{long} = \frac{p d_i}{4 t} . \text{ Rewrite the equation for thickness, } t = \frac{p d_i}{4 \sigma_{allowable}} = \frac{600 \text{ psi} \cdot 10 \text{ ft}}{4 \cdot 16.25 \text{ ksi}} \left| \frac{\text{ksi}}{10^3 \text{ psi}} \right| \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft}} \right| = 1.11 \text{ in.}$$

The welds in real steel tanks contain defects, which reduce the strength of the welds. We can measure the strength of welded joints in the lab and compare them with the strength of the base metal. If the strengths match, we say the joint is 100% efficient. The symbol for efficiency is the Greek letter eta, η .

Example #3 – Wall thickness of a spherical tank based on welded joint efficiency

What is the minimum thickness of the spherical steel tank in Example #2 if the joint efficiency is 80%?

Solution Use the same equations as before, except the allowable stress is multiplied by the welded joint efficiency.

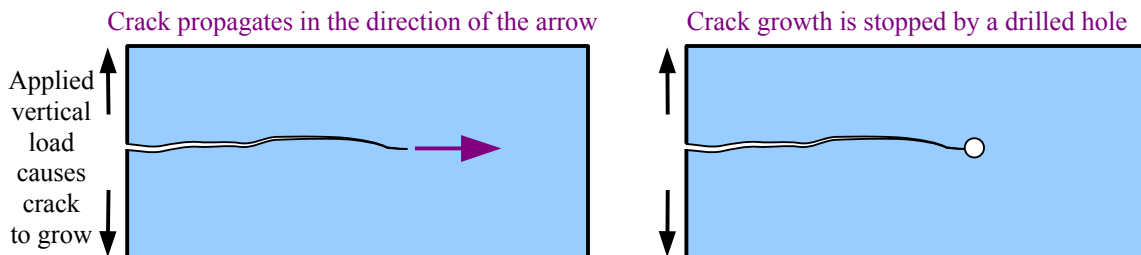
$$\text{Longitudinal stress } \eta_{\text{joint}} \sigma_{\text{long}} = \frac{p d_i}{4 t}, \text{ therefore } t = \frac{p d_i}{4 \eta_{\text{joint}} \sigma_{\text{allowable}}} = \frac{600 \text{ psi} \cdot 10 \text{ ft}}{4 \cdot 0.80 \cdot 16.25 \text{ ksi}} \left| \frac{\text{ksi}}{10^3 \text{ psi}} \right| \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft}} \right| = 1.38 \text{ in.}$$

Stress Concentration in Tension

Pull a solid bar in tension, and the tensile stress in the bar is uniform within the bar: $\sigma = \frac{P}{A_{\text{gross}}}$ where A_{gross} is the gross cross-sectional area of the bar. If the bar has a hole in it, we would expect the stress to be higher because there is less material: $\sigma_{\text{net}} = \frac{P}{A_{\text{net}}}$ where A_{net} is the net cross-sectional area of the bar (gross area minus the area of the hole). Experiments show the stress is *not* uniform within the remaining solid material; instead, it is highest next to the hole, and lower as you move away from the hole. We say that the stress is *concentrated* next to the hole.

The maximum stress adjacent to the hole is $\sigma_{\text{max}} = K \sigma_{\text{net}} = K \frac{P}{A_{\text{net}}}$, where K is a stress concentration factor that depends on the size of the bar and the diameter of the hole. In general, the smaller the radius, the higher the stress. For example, cracks have very high stress concentrations at their tips, exceeding the tensile strength of the material, even though the average stress in the part is below the yield strength. This is why cracks grow.

One way to prevent a crack from growing in a material is to drill a hole at its tip. The drilled hole has a larger radius than the crack tip, which reduces the stress to below the yield strength of the material, and the crack stops growing.



Stress concentrations can occur anywhere there is a change in geometry with a small radius, such as holes, fillets, and grooves. In the 1930s, M.M. Frocht* published a series of graphs relating K to the dimensions of the bar and hole (or fillet or groove), and R.E. Peterson published scientific papers on fatigue cracks which start at stress concentrations. Peterson's book

* M.M. Frocht, "Photoelastic Studies in Stress Concentration," *Mechanical Engineering*, Aug. 1936, 485-489. M.M. Frocht, "Factors of Stress Concentration Photoelastically Determined", *ASME Journal of Applied Mechanics* 2, 1935, A67-A68.

on stress concentration factors[†] is still in print.

This graph is based on Frocht's original work. Use a four-step process to solve stress concentration problems:

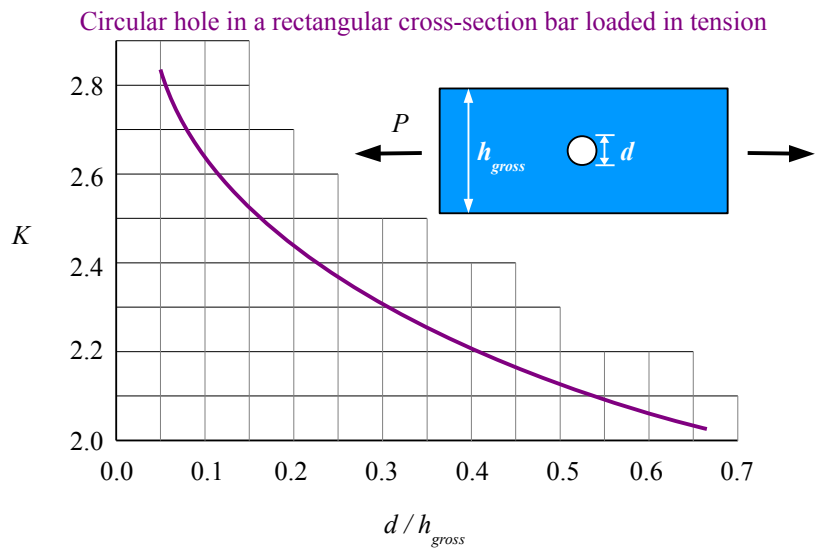
Step 1 Divide the hole diameter by the gross width of the bar to find the ratio d/h_{gross} .

Step 2 Find the value of K from the graph.

Step 3 Calculate the net cross-sectional area (gross cross-sectional area minus the cross-sectional area of the hole). The easiest way to find this value is to multiply the net width by the thickness.

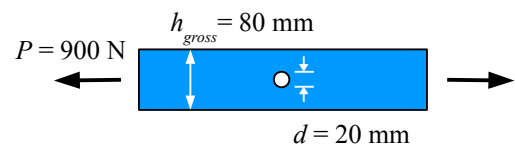
Step 4 Calculate the maximum stress using

$$\sigma_{max} = K \frac{P}{A_{net}}$$



Example #4 – Stress concentration from a drilled hole

A bar measuring 80 mm wide by 16 mm thick has a 20 mm diameter hole in the center. The tensile load on the bar is 900 N. Calculate the maximum stress in the bar due to the stress concentration. Report the result in MPa.



Solution Divide the hole diameter by the gross cross-sectional width

of the bar: $\frac{d}{h_{gross}} = \frac{20 \text{ mm}}{80 \text{ mm}} = 0.25$. Use the graph to find $K \approx 2.36$. The net cross-sectional area of the bar is the net width times the thickness. The net width is the gross width minus the hole diameter: $A_{net} = (80 \text{ mm} - 20 \text{ mm}) 16 \text{ mm} = 960 \text{ mm}^2$

Maximum stress is $\sigma_{max} = K \frac{P}{A_{net}} = 2.36 \frac{900 \text{ N}}{960 \text{ mm}^2} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{mm}^2}{\text{N}} \right| = 2.2 \text{ MPa}$

Use a similar four-step process to solve stress concentration problems in tensile bars having fillets or semicircular grooves.

Step 1 Divide the groove or fillet radius by the net width of the bar to find the ratio r/h_{net} .

Step 2 Find the value of K from the graph on the following page. Be sure to use the correct curve!

Step 3 Calculate the net cross-sectional area at the groove or fillet.

Step 4 Calculate the maximum stress using $\sigma_{max} = K \frac{P}{A_{net}}$ For both types of tensile bar, $A_{net} = h_{net} \cdot t$.

[†] Walter D. Pilkey, Deborah F. Pilkey, & Zuming Bi, *Peterson's Stress Concentration Factors*, 4th ed., Wiley, 2020.

Example #5 – Stress concentration from grooves

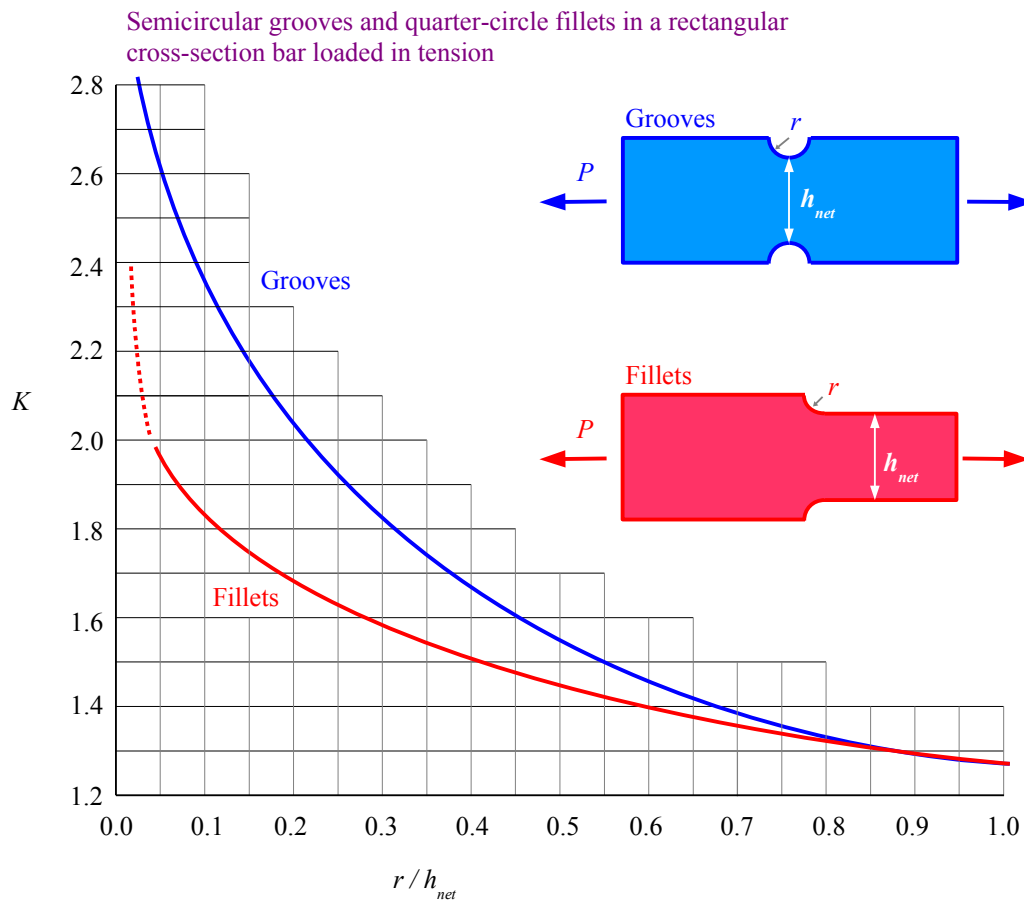
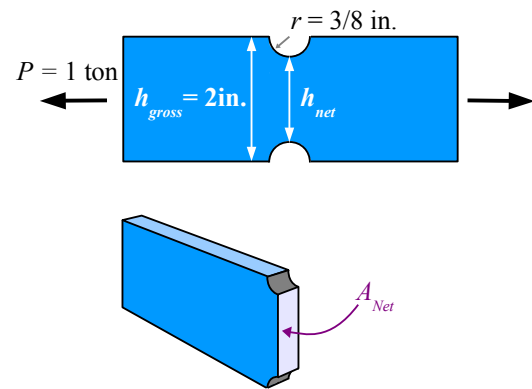
A $\frac{1}{8}$ in. thick, 2 in. wide bar has two semicircular $\frac{3}{8}$ in. radius grooves. Find the maximum stress in the bar due to the stress concentration. Report the result in ksi.

Solution Net width $h_{net} = 2 \text{ in.} - 2(0.375 \text{ in.}) = 1.25 \text{ in.}$

Calculate $\frac{r}{h_{net}} = \frac{0.375 \text{ in.}}{1.25 \text{ in.}} = 0.30$. From the graph below,

$K \approx 1.82$. The net cross-sectional area is the net width times the thickness: $A_{net} = 1.25 \text{ in.} \times 0.125 \text{ in.} = 0.156 \text{ in.}^2$. Max. stress is

$$\sigma_{max} = K \frac{P}{A_{net}} = 1.82 \frac{1 \text{ ton}}{0.156 \text{ in.}^2} \left| \frac{2 \text{ kips}}{\text{ton}} \right| = 23.3 \text{ ksi}$$



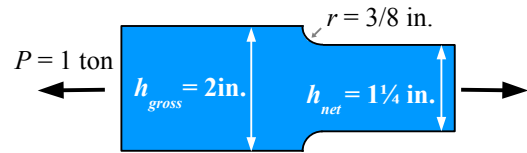
Example #6 – Which is stronger: grooves or fillets?

What if the plate from Example #5 were machined to make a plate with fillets instead of grooves, using $h_{net} = 1\frac{1}{4}$ in. ?

Solution Since there is no change to h_{gross} , h_{net} , A_{net} , r , and t , we

know that $\frac{r}{h_{net}}$ is still 0.30. From the graph, $K \approx 1.58$. Now the

maximum stress is $K \frac{P}{A_{net}} = 1.58 \frac{1 \text{ ton}}{0.156 \text{ in}^2} \left| \frac{2 \text{ kips}}{\text{ton}} \right| = 20.2 \text{ ksi}$

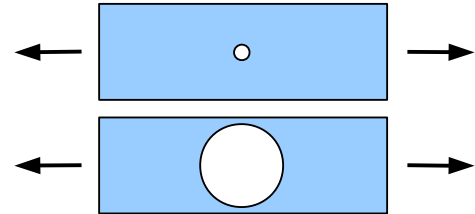


How much did the maximum stress change, as a percentage? Calculate change using $\frac{\text{Final value} - \text{Initial value}}{\text{Initial value}}$ which in this case is $\frac{20.2 \text{ ksi} - 23.3 \text{ ksi}}{23.3 \text{ ksi}} = -0.13 = -13\%$. The negative sign means the maximum stress for the fillet plate is less than the maximum stress for the grooved plate.

What if we wanted to know the smallest allowable radius, given an allowable stress of 24 ksi? Rewrite $\sigma_{max} = K \frac{P}{A_{net}}$ as

$K = \frac{\sigma_{max} A_{net}}{P} = \frac{24 \text{ kip}}{\text{in}^2} \frac{0.156 \text{ in}^2}{1 \text{ ton}} \left| \frac{1 \text{ ton}}{2 \text{ kip}} \right| = 1.88$ From the graph, $\frac{r}{h_{net}} \approx 0.07$, so $r = 0.07 h_{net} = 0.07 \cdot 1.25 \text{ in.} = 0.088 \text{ in.}$

With holes, grooves, and fillets, we have seen that the *smaller* the radius the higher the stress, but failure can also occur because a radius is too *big*. For example, if a hole in a plate is so large that the net cross sectional area is very small, the plate could be weaker than a plate with a smaller hole.

**Key Equations**

Hoop stress in a pressure vessel is equal to the internal pressure times the inside diameter divided by twice the wall thickness: $\sigma_{hoop} = \frac{p d_i}{2 t}$. This equation is used for pipes and cylinders.

Longitudinal stress in a pressure vessel is equal to the internal pressure times the inside diameter divided by four times the wall thickness: $\sigma_{long} = \frac{p d_i}{4 t}$. This equation is used for spherical pressure vessels.

For welded steel tanks, the ASME Boiler Code recommends using $\sigma_{all} = \frac{1}{4} \sigma_{UTS}$ or $\sigma_{all} = \frac{2}{3} \sigma_{YS}$, whichever is smaller, then multiply the allowable stress by the weld efficiency, η_{weld} .

Stress at a stress concentration is equal to the stress concentration factor times the average stress at the net cross-sectional area: $\sigma_{max} = K \sigma_{net} = K \frac{P}{A_{net}}$. Use stress concentration graphs to find the value of K .

Chapter 5: Bolted and Welded Joints

Bolted Lap Joints Loaded in Tension

Look at a steel bridge or steel skeleton of a building, and you see plates, columns, and beams. They intersect at joints, which transmit load from one member to the next. Large steel structures are typically bolted, riveted, or welded together. The strength of the joint may determine the strength of the structure.

Lap two steel plates, and pin them with a rivet or bolt. If you pull hard enough, the plates will want to twist. You can prevent twisting by butting the two main plates, and joining them with lapped splice plates.

Bolted joints have four possible failure modes. We can calculate the allowable load of the joint for each failure mode; the lowest value is the limiting case, and determines the strength of the joint.

Shear Failure The bolt shears off, preserving the integrity of the plates; this is the least expensive type of failure because bolts are cheaper and easier to replace than plates.

Bearing Failure The bolt crushes the plate where it bears against the plate.

Gross Tensile Failure The plate tears across its gross cross-sectional area (thickness times overall width), away from the bolt holes.

Net Tensile Failure The plate tears across its net cross-sectional area (thickness times actual material width) along a line of bolt holes.

Shear Failure

Imagine if we glue two plates together, so that they overlap with an area $A_{overlap}$. Pull on the plates with a tensile load P_s , and the shear stress

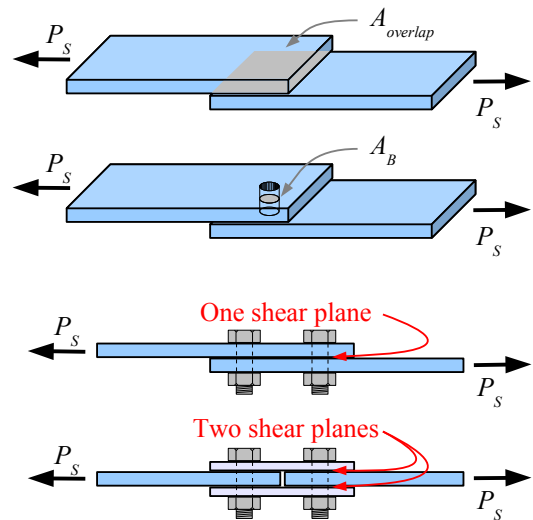
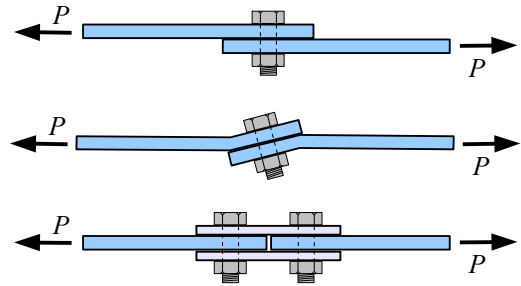
in the glue is $\tau = \frac{P_s}{A_{overlap}}$. If we know the allowable shear strength of

the glue, τ_{all} , we can calculate the tensile load that can be applied to the joint as $P_s = A_{overlap} \tau_{all}$. Now replace the glue with a bolt. The cross-sectional area of the bolt, A_B , carries the shear stress of the joint, so we can write $P_s = A_B \tau_{all}$, where the cross-sectional area of the bolt

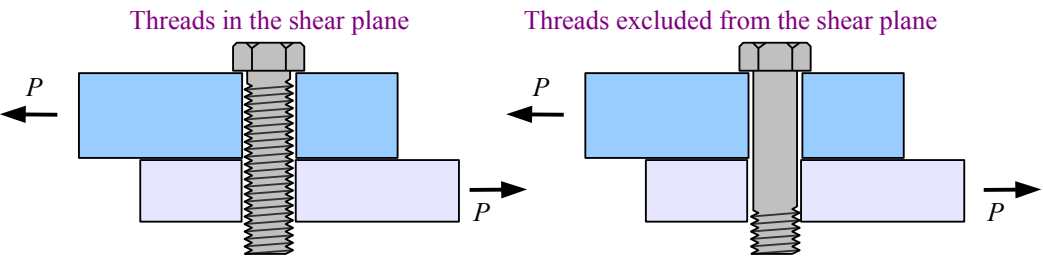
$A_B = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2$ and d is the bolt diameter. The bolt has a much smaller cross-sectional area than the area of the glue, which is compensated by the bolt's much higher shear strength.

If more than one bolt must shear off before the joint fails, then the number of these bolts is N , and $P_s = A_B \tau_{all} N$. (We're assuming all the bolts have the same diameter and strength.)

A bolt can carry the load through more than one shear plane. Define n as the number of shear planes, and $P_s = n A_B \tau_{all} N$.



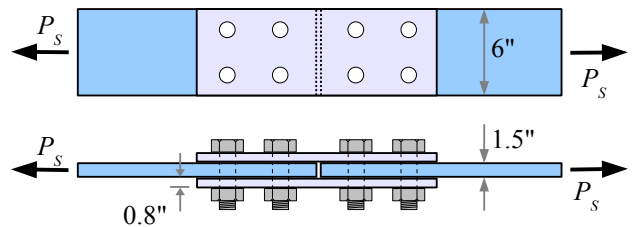
Appendix B3 lists allowable shear stresses for three bolt materials and two loading cases: either with the threads of the bolt in the shear plane, or with the smooth shank of the bolt in the shear plane.



A bolt is stronger if the threads are excluded from the shear plane because the threads act as stress concentration sites.

Example #1 – Bolt shear failure

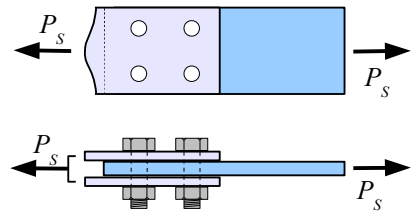
Two A-36 steel main plates (dark blue) are joined with two splice plates (light blue) and eight 3/4 in. diameter A325 bolts. The plates are 6 in. wide and 1.5 in. thick; the splice plates are the same width, and 0.8 in. thick. Bolt threads are excluded from the shear plane. Calculate the load that the joint can support in order to resist shear failure. Report the result in kips.



Solution From Appendix B3, A325 bolts with threads excluded from the shear plane have a shear strength of 30 ksi. The problem is symmetrical, so either the four bolts in the left plate will fail in shear first, or the four bolts in the right plate will fail first. Therefore, we can erase half of the diagram, and focus on four bolts, and $N = 4$.

The load is carried by two shear planes per bolt, so $n = 2$.

$$P_s = n A_B \tau_{all} N = \frac{2 \text{ shear planes}}{\text{bolt}} \cdot \frac{\frac{\pi}{4} (0.75 \text{ in.})^2}{\text{shear plane}} \cdot 30 \frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot 4 \text{ bolts} = 106 \text{ kips}$$



Bearing Failure

If one or more of the plates is crushed by the bolt, then the area that is crushed equals the bolt diameter, d , times the plate thickness, t . Multiply this area by the bearing strength of the plate, and we have the allowable bearing load for a joint with one bolt: $P_p = d t \sigma_{p-all}$.

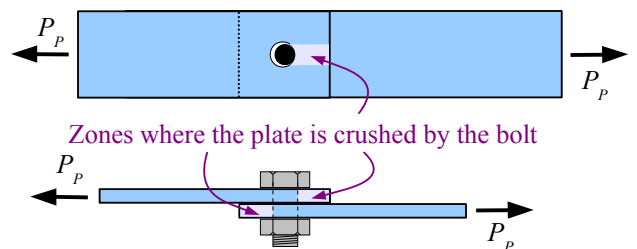
The allowable bearing load for a joint with multiple bolts is $P_p = d t \sigma_{p-all} N$.

Thickness t depends on the configuration of the plates.

- **Lapped plates:** Pick the thinner of the two plates.
- **Spliced plates:** Pick the smaller of these two options: the thickness of the main plate, or the sum of the thicknesses of the splice plates.

The allowable bearing stress is listed in Appendix B4; it is 1.5 times the ultimate tensile strength of the plate material.

When you tear a piece of paper out of a 3-ring binder, the paper fails by bearing failure.



Example #2 – Bearing failure

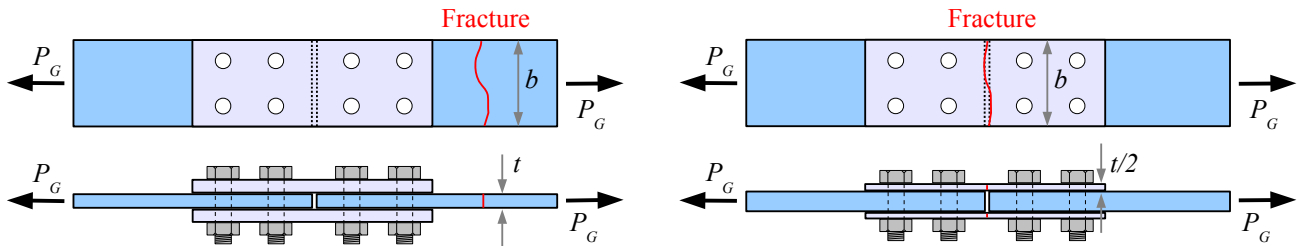
Calculate the load that the joint in Example #1 can support in order to resist bearing failure. Report the result in kips.

Solution From the Allowable Plate Stress table, A-36 steel plates have an allowable bearing strength of 87 ksi. The two splice plates have a combined thickness of 1.6 in., which is greater than the main plate thickness of 1.5 in. Using the smaller of the two numbers, $t = 1.5$ in.

$$P_p = d t \sigma_{p-all} N = \frac{0.75 \text{ in.}}{\text{bolt}} \cdot 1.5 \text{ in.} \cdot 87 \frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot 4 \text{ bolts} = 392 \text{ kips}$$

Gross Tensile Failure

The gross cross-sectional area of the plate some distance away from the bolt holes is the width, b , times the thickness, t . Check the gross cross-sectional areas of both the main plate and the splice plates, and use the smaller of the two. Multiply this area by the gross tensile strength of the plate to find the allowable gross tensile load for the joint: $P_G = b t \sigma_{G-allowable}$. The allowable gross tensile strength* is listed in Appendix B, Table B4.

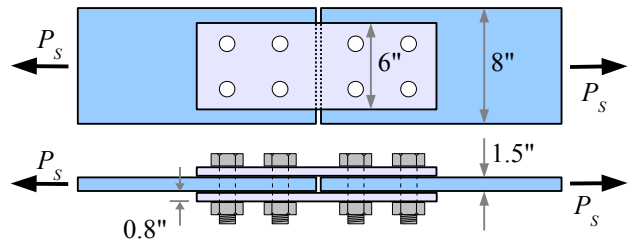
**Example #3 – Gross tensile failure**

Calculate the load that the joint in Example #1 can support in order to resist gross tensile failure. Report the result in kips.

Solution From Appendix B4, A-36 steel plates have an allowable gross tensile strength of 21.6 ksi.

$$P_G = b t \sigma_{G-all} = 6.0 \text{ in.} \cdot 1.5 \text{ in.} \cdot 21.6 \frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2} = 194 \text{ kips}$$

In Example #1, the widths of the main plate and splice plates were the same. If they are different, then choose the smallest cross-sectional area bt . In this diagram, the cross-sectional area of the main plate is $8 \text{ in.} \times 1.5 \text{ in.} = 12 \text{ in.}^2$ while the total cross-sectional area of the splice plates is $6 \text{ in.} \times (2 \times 0.8 \text{ in.}) = 9.6 \text{ in.}^2$, so the splice plates will fail first in gross tensile failure.

**Net Tensile Failure**

We calculate gross tensile failure by multiplying the gross cross-sectional area by the allowable stress:

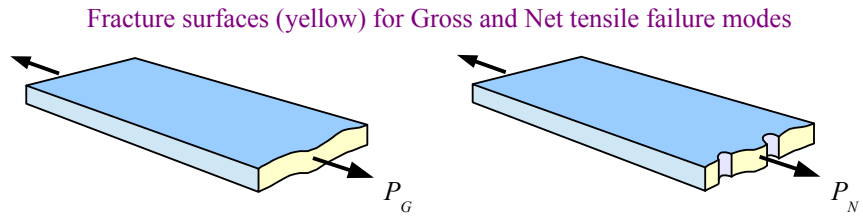
$P_G = A_G \sigma_{G-all} = b t \sigma_{G-all}$. Net tensile failure is similar; it is the net cross-sectional area multiplied by the allowable stress:

$P_N = A_N \sigma_{N-all}$. The trick is to calculate A_N correctly.

* Allowable gross tensile strength is equal to 60% of the yield strength of the plate material.

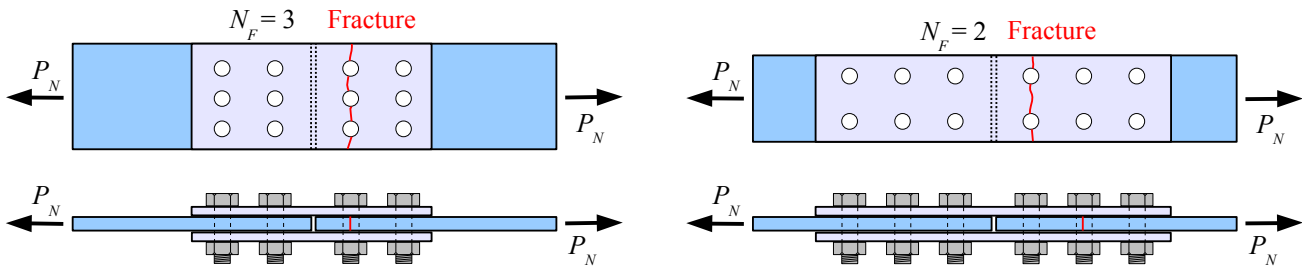
Chapter 5: Bolted and Welded Joints

The net cross-sectional area of the plate at the bolt holes is the gross cross-sectional area, A_G , minus the cross-sectional area of the holes, A_H . Each hole has a cross-sectional area perpendicular to the direction of the load equal to the hole diameter, d_H , times the plate thickness, t : $A_H = d_H t$.



As a rule of thumb for structural applications, use a hole diameter 1/8 inch or 3 mm larger than the nominal bolt diameter.

The plate will fail along the line of one set of holes. Defining the number of holes in the fracture plane as N_F , the net cross-sectional area is $A_N = A_G - A_H = bt - N_F d_H t$. The allowable net tensile load is this area times the allowable net tensile strength: $P_N = (bt - N_F d_H t) \sigma_{N-all}$. The allowable net tensile strength, listed in Appendix B4, is half of the ultimate tensile strength of the plate material.



Both joints have six bolts per symmetrical half, but the joint on the left has three holes in the fracture plane, while the joint on the right has two holes in the fracture plane.

Example #4 – Net tensile failure

Calculate the load that the joint in Example #1 can support in order to resist net tensile failure. Report the result in kips.

Solution From Appendix B4, A-36 steel plates have an allowable net tensile strength of 29 ksi. The hole diameter is 1/8 in. larger than the nominal bolt diameter, so $d_H = 3/4 \text{ in} + 1/8 \text{ in} = 7/8 \text{ in}$.

$$P_N = (bt - N_F d_H t) \sigma_{N-all} = \left(6 \text{ in.} \cdot 1.5 \text{ in.} - 2 \text{ holes} \frac{7/8 \text{ in.} \cdot 1.5 \text{ in.}}{\text{hole}} \right) 29 \frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2} = 185 \text{ kips}$$

Joint Efficiency

Punching holes in steel causes it to weaken, so a joint may be weaker than the base material. Analysis of the roof of the Hartford Civic Center, which collapsed in January 1978 under a load of heavy wet snow, showed that some joint plates consisted of 85% holes, 15% steel! This flaw was one of several design and construction errors that led to the roof collapse.

We can calculate the *efficiency* of the joint by dividing the minimum joint strength by the gross strength of the plate some distance away from the joint. The symbol for efficiency is η , the Greek letter eta.

Example #5 – Joint efficiency

Calculate the efficiency of the joint in the previous Examples. Report the result in percent.

Solution The minimum joint strength is 106 kips (bolt shear failure). The gross tensile load of the plate is 194 kips. Joint efficiency is $\eta_{joint} = \frac{106 \text{ kips}}{194 \text{ kips}} = 0.55 = 55\%$.

$\eta_{joint} < 100\%$ indicates an overloaded joint will fail before the structure does. This is the better failure mode for reparability, because it is easier to replace a bolt than to replace an I-beam. $\eta_{joint} \ll 100\%$ indicates a poorly designed joint, which could be improved with stronger bolts, more bolts, or a better hole pattern.

$\eta_{joint} > 100\%$ indicates an overdesigned joint – the structure will fail before the joint.

Solution Method for Bolted Joints

Use all of the previous steps. Solve for P based on bolt shear failure, bearing failure, gross tensile failure, and net tensile failure. The lowest value of P is the limiting case. Divide this result by P_G to find the efficiency of the joint.

Example #6 – Bolted joint problem

Two A-36 steel plates are joined with two splice plates and twelve 25 mm diameter A325-X high strength bolts. The main plates are 150 mm wide and 10 mm thick; the splice plates are 125 mm wide and 7 mm thick. Calculate the load that the joint can support; report the result in kN. Calculate the joint efficiency; report the result in percent.

Solution Solve for P based on shear, bearing, gross tensile, and net tensile; the lowest value is the limiting case. Divide this result by P_G to find the efficiency of the joint.

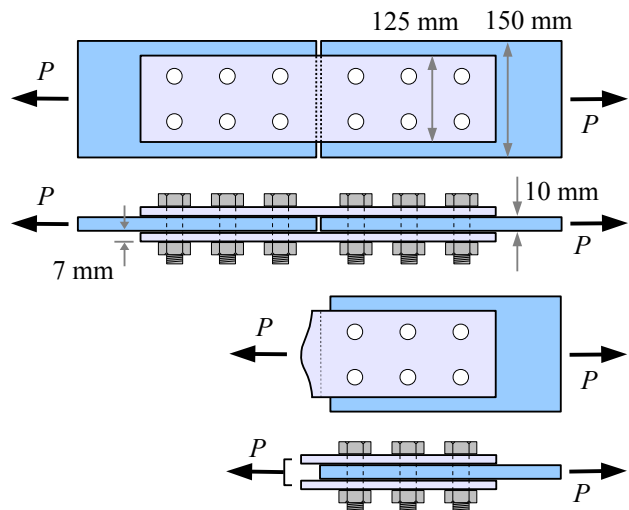
Shear The “X” in A325 -X means bolts with threads excluded from the shear plane. From the Bolt Shear Strength table, these bolts have a shear strength of 207 MPa.

The problem is symmetrical, so we can erase half of the diagram, and $N = 6$. The load is carried by two shear planes per bolt, so $n = 2$.

$$P_S = n A_B \tau_{allowable} N = \frac{2 \text{ shear planes}}{\text{bolt}} \frac{\frac{\pi}{4} (25 \text{ mm})^2}{\text{shear plane}} \frac{207 \text{ MPa} \cdot 6 \text{ bolts}}{\text{MPa m}^2} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ kN}}{\text{MPa m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{m}^2}{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2} = 1220 \text{ kN}$$

Bearing From Appendix B4, the allowable bearing stress in the plates is 600 MPa. The two splice plates have a total thickness of 14 mm, which is thicker than the 10 mm thick main plate, therefore $t = 10$ mm.

$$P_P = d t \sigma_{P-allowable} N = \frac{25 \text{ mm}}{\text{bolt}} \frac{10 \text{ mm} \cdot 600 \text{ MPa}}{\text{MPa m}^2} \frac{6 \text{ bolts}}{\text{MPa m}^2} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ kN}}{\text{MPa m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{m}^2}{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2} = 900 \text{ kN}$$



Example #6, continued

Gross Tensile From Appendix B4, the allowable gross tensile stress is 150 MPa. The splice and main plates have different thicknesses and widths, so use the smallest gross cross-sectional area. The cross-sectional area of the main plate is $150 \text{ mm} \times 10 \text{ mm} = 1500 \text{ mm}^2$, and the total cross-sectional area of the splice plates is $125 \text{ mm} \times 14 \text{ mm} = 1750 \text{ mm}^2$, therefore solve P_G for the main plate.

$$P_G = b t \sigma_{G-\text{allowable}} = \frac{150 \text{ mm} \cdot 10 \text{ mm} \cdot 150 \text{ MPa}}{\left| \frac{10^3 \text{ kN}}{\text{MPa m}^2} \right| \left| \frac{\text{m}^2}{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2} \right|} = 225 \text{ kN}$$

Net Tensile From Appendix B4, the allowable net tensile stress is 200 MPa. You could first calculate whether the smallest cross-sectional area is in the main plate or in the splice plates, or you can calculate P_N both ways and pick the smaller value.

Splice plates:

$$P_N = (b t - N_F d_H t) \sigma_{N-\text{allowable}} = \left(125 \text{ mm} \cdot 14 \text{ mm} - 2 \text{ holes} \frac{28 \text{ mm} \cdot 14 \text{ mm}}{\text{hole}} \right) 200 \text{ MPa} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ kN}}{\text{MPa m}^2} \right| \left| \frac{\text{m}^2}{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2} \right| = 193 \text{ kN}$$

Main plate:

$$P_N = (b t - N_F d_H t) \sigma_{N-\text{allowable}} = \left(150 \text{ mm} \cdot 10 \text{ mm} - 2 \text{ holes} \frac{28 \text{ mm} \cdot 10 \text{ mm}}{\text{hole}} \right) 200 \text{ MPa} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ kN}}{\text{MPa m}^2} \right| \left| \frac{\text{m}^2}{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2} \right| = 188 \text{ kN}$$

The lowest value is 188 kN, so the joint will fail first with the main plate fracturing across a line of bolt holes.

Joint Efficiency $P_{\min} = 188 \text{ kN}$ and $P_{G-\text{main plate}} = 225 \text{ kN}$. $\eta_{\text{joint}} = \frac{188 \text{ kN}}{225 \text{ kN}} = 0.84 = 84 \%$

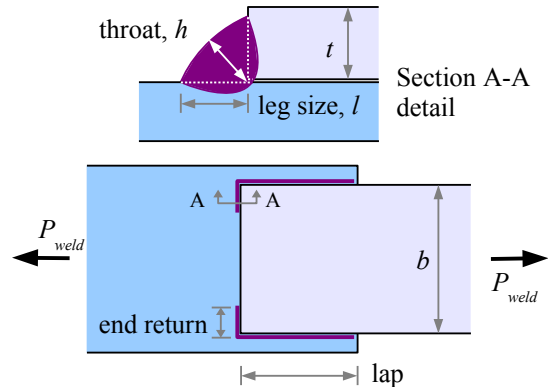
Terms for Bolted Joints

P_S	Shear load	n	Number of shear planes
P_P	Bearing load	N	Number of bolts (all for a lap joint; half for a splice joint)
P_G	Gross tensile load	N_F	Number of bolts in the fracture plane
P_N	Net tensile load	A_B	Bolt cross-sectional area
τ_{all}	Allowable shear stress	d	Bolt diameter
σ_{all}	Allowable normal stress	d_H	Hole diameter
b	Plate width	t	Total plate thickness that is failing

Welded Lap Joints

Bolted and riveted joints contain holes which may act as stress concentration sites. If joined plates have to be watertight, such as the plates in a tank or a ship, then welding is a better choice. Welding is a good choice for parts that will not be disassembled in the future. If you have ever soldered copper pipes or copper wire, you have melted the solder but not the pipes or wire. In welding, the weld metal *and* the base metal melt together. In electric arc welding, an electric arc is struck between an electrode and the base metal. The arc melts the metals, and the electrode is gradually consumed. This chapter focuses on continuous electric-arc fillet welds in lapped steel joints.

In cross-section, a fillet weld looks roughly like a right triangle. The size l of a fillet weld is the length of a leg of the triangle. Overloaded fillet welds fail by shearing along the throat h .



Using trigonometry, $h \approx l \sin 45^\circ$. The weld supports shear load P_s over area $h \times L$, where L is the total length of the weld. The allowable shear strength of the weld metal is $\tau_{allowable} = 0.3 \sigma_{UTS}$, where σ_{UTS} is the ultimate tensile strength* of the weld metal (not the plate metal). Combining these equations, the load that the welded joint can support is

$$P_{weld} = \tau_{allowable} \times \text{area} = 0.3 \sigma_{UTS} l \sin 45^\circ L = 0.212 \cdot l \cdot L \cdot \sigma_{UTS}$$

Weld strength is proportional to weld size, weld length, and the strength of the electrode. Mild steel electrodes are classified by their strength when welded, as E xx where xx is the ultimate tensile strength of the weld in ksi. For example, an E60 electrode has an ultimate tensile strength of 60 ksi, while an E70 electrode has a tensile strength of 70 ksi. Appendix B5 shows unit strengths for common weld sizes, using E60 and E70 electrodes. The values come from $P_{weld} = 0.212 \cdot l \cdot L \cdot \sigma_{UTS}$. Use Appendix B, Table 5, for common weld and plate sizes; use the equation for a different electrode such as E90, or for a nonstandard plate size. Use Appendix B, Table 6, to select a weld size. AISC recommends these weld sizes based on the thickness of the *thinner* of the two plates.

The strengths in the table are given as load per unit length; multiply this value by the total length of the weld to find the shear load capacity of the welded joint. For example, a 6 in. long, 7/16 in. weld, using an E60 electrode, has a unit strength of $f_{weld} = 5.57$ kips/in. The weld can support a load of $P_{weld} = L f_{weld} = \frac{6 \text{ in.} \cdot 5.57 \text{ kips}}{\text{in.}} = 33.4 \text{ kips}$.

Weld strength is not the only consideration when you design a welded joint. AISC recommends the following practices:

End Return The end of a fillet weld creates a stress concentration. Run the weld around the end of the top plate to minimize this effect. The length of the end return should be at least twice the nominal weld size; a 3/8 in. weld should wrap around the end at least 0.75 in. End returns are included in the total weld length, L .

Lap Based on Thickness Two plates in a lap joint should lap at least five times the thickness of the thinner plate, and no less than 1 inch. For example, a 3/8 in. thick plate welded to a 1/2 in. thick plate should lap at least $3/8 \text{ in.} \times 5 = 1.875 \text{ in.}$; an 1/8 in. plate welded to a 1/4 in. plate should lap at least 1 in. because $1/8 \text{ in.} \times 5 = 0.625 \text{ in.}$, which is less than an inch.

Lap Based on Width This rule applies to welds that are parallel to the loading direction. Two plates in a lap joint should lap at least the width b of the narrower plate, unless the weld wraps fully around the end of the plate (*i.e.*, the end returns meet at the centerline). For example, a 3/8 in. thick, 6 in. wide plate welded along its sides to a 1/2 in. thick, 8 in. wide plate should lap at least 6 in.

Weld Size The leg of a fillet weld can be made as large as the thickness of the top plate, or smaller; AISC recommends ranges of size according to Appendix B6. If the top plate is less than 1/4 in. thick, then the leg can be as large as the thickness; for thicker plates, the leg should be no larger than 1/16 in. less than the plate thickness.

* See Chapter 2 for more information on ultimate tensile strength.

Joint Efficiency

The efficiency of a welded joint is the joint load divided by the gross tensile load in the plate with the smaller cross-section.

Example #7 – Weld joint with E70 electrode

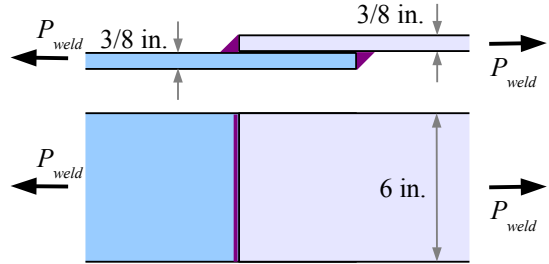
Two 3/8 in. thick, 6 in. wide plates made of A36 steel are welded as shown. Select the maximum size weld, and using an E70 electrode, determine the joint strength, reporting the result in kips. Also, calculate the efficiency of the joint.

Solution From Appendix B6, the maximum weld size is 5/16 in. From Appendix B5, a 5/16 in. weld made with an E70 electrode has a unit strength of $f_{weld} = 4.63$ kips/in. The total weld length is 12 in., so the welded joint can support a load of

$$P_{weld} = L f_{weld} = \frac{12 \text{ in.} \cdot 4.63 \text{ kips}}{\text{in.}} = 55.6 \text{ kips}$$

From Appendix B4, A36 steel has an allowable gross tensile strength of 21.6 ksi. The gross plate strength is

$P_G = b t \sigma_{G-allowable} = 6 \text{ in.} \cdot 3/8 \text{ in.} \cdot 21.6 \text{ ksi} = 48.6 \text{ kips}$. $\eta_{joint} = \frac{55.6 \text{ kips}}{48.6 \text{ kips}} = 1.14 = 114\%$, which means that the joint is stronger than the base metal. If the structure fails, the plate will crack while the joint remains intact.



Example #8 – Weld joint with E80 electrode

A 1/2 in. thick, 6 in. wide plate made of A36 steel is welded to a 5/8 in. thick, 8 in. wide plate using a 3/16 in. weld with an E80 electrode. Determine the joint strength, reporting the result in kips. Also, calculate the efficiency of the joint.

Solution Appendix B5 does not include data for the E80 electrode; instead, use the weld strength equation. The length of each weld is 7 in. plus the 1 in. end return, or 8 in. The total weld length

$L = 2(8 \text{ in.}) = 16 \text{ in.}$ The tensile strength of an E80 weld is 80 ksi. The joint can support a load of

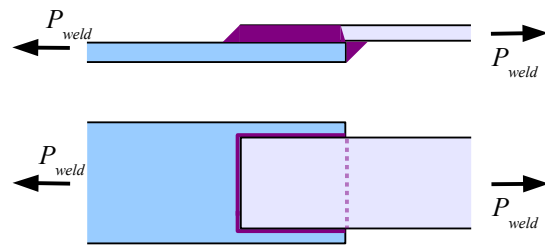
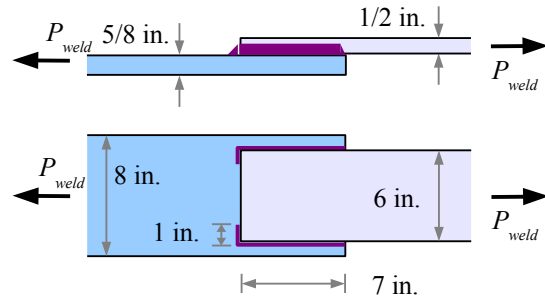
$$P_{weld} = 0.212 \cdot l \cdot L \cdot \sigma_{UTS} = 0.212 \cdot \frac{3}{16} \text{ in.} \cdot 16 \text{ in.} \cdot 80 \frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2} = 50.9 \text{ kips}$$

From Appendix B4, A36 steel has an allowable gross tensile strength of 21.6 ksi. Use the smaller plate cross-sectional area (the top plate). The gross plate strength is

$$P_G = b t \sigma_{G-allowable} = 6 \text{ in.} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \text{ in.} \cdot 21.6 \frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2} = 64.8 \text{ kips}$$

$$\eta_{joint} = \frac{50.9 \text{ kips}}{64.8 \text{ kips}} = 0.79 = 79\%$$

, which means that the joint is 21% weaker than the 6 in. plate. The joint could be strengthened with a larger weld bead, a stronger weld electrode, a continuous bead around the end of the top plate, or a weld bead underneath.



Chapter 5: Bolted and Welded Joints

Key Equations

Check bolted joints for shear, bearing, gross tensile, and net tensile failure; the lowest result is the limiting case. With a symmetrical spliced joint, erase half of the joint and solve.

The allowable shear load for a bolted joint is $P_S = n A_B \tau_{allowable} N$ where n is the number of shear planes per bolt, A_B is the cross-sectional area of the bolt (calculated from its nominal diameter), $\tau_{allowable}$ is the allowable shear stress of the bolt (see Appendix B3), and N is the number of bolts being considered.

The allowable bearing load for a bolted joint is $P_P = d t \sigma_{P-allowable} N$ where d is the nominal bolt diameter, t is the plate thickness (either the thickness of the main plate, or the combined thicknesses of the splice plates, whichever is smaller), and $\sigma_{P-allowable}$ is the allowable bearing stress in the plate (see Appendix B4).

The allowable gross tensile load for a bolted joint is $P_G = b t \sigma_{G-allowable}$ where b is the plate width and $\sigma_{G-allowable}$ is the allowable gross tensile stress in the plate.

The allowable net tensile load for a bolted joint is $P_N = (b t - N_F d_H t) \sigma_{N-allowable}$ where N_F is the number of holes in the fracture plane, d_H is the nominal hole diameter (1/8 inch or 3 mm larger than d), and $\sigma_{N-allowable}$ is the allowable net tensile stress in the plate.

Joint efficiency of a bolted joint is $\eta_{joint} = \frac{P_{min}}{P_G}$, where P_{min} is the smallest of P_S , P_P , P_G , and P_N .

The allowable tensile load of a fillet-welded joint is $P_{weld} = 0.212 \cdot l \cdot L \cdot \sigma_{UTS}$ where L is the total length of the weld. If standard plates and weld sizes are used with E60 or E70 electrodes, then use Appendix B (Table B5) and $P_{weld} = L f_{weld}$ to find the allowable tensile load.

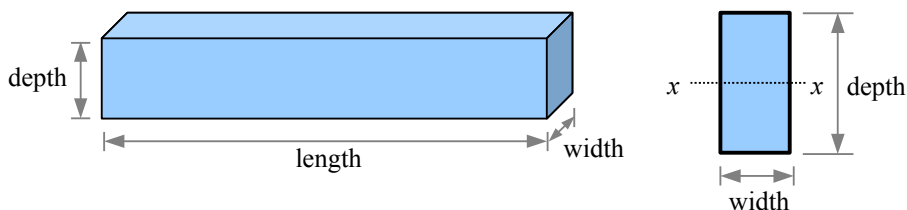
Joint efficiency of a welded joint is $\eta_{joint} = \frac{P_{weld}}{P_G}$.

Chapter 6: Properties of Areas

Cross-sectional areas of beams, shafts, and columns have seven properties that we need in order to calculate stresses, deflections, angles of twist, and buckling resistance in these structures. These properties are dimensions, area, centroid, centroidal x - x and y - y axes, moment of inertia, radius of gyration, and polar moment of inertia.

Dimensions and Area

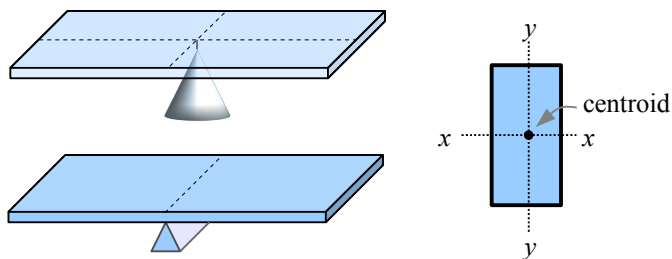
The *depth* of a beam is the distance from the top to the bottom (the height of the beam). The *width* is the distance from the front to the back, as you face the long length of the beam (the thickness of the beam).



The *area* is the cross-sectional area. For a rectangular beam, the area is the width times the depth.

Centroid and Centroidal Axes

Carefully balance a cardboard rectangle on a sharp point. The location of the point on the rectangle is called the *centroid* of the rectangle. The centroid of a two-dimensional shape is analogous to the center of gravity of a three-dimensional object.

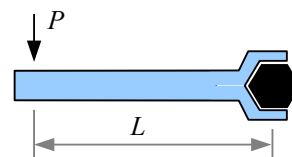


Carefully balance the rectangle on a straightedge so that two ends of the rectangle are parallel to the straightedge. The location of the balance line is a *centroidal axis* of the rectangle.

Every shape has a centroid and centroidal axes. We will use these properties in beam problems. Set a beam on edge, define the x and y axes as horizontal and vertical, and we have x - x and y - y centroidal axes of the beam cross-sectional area.

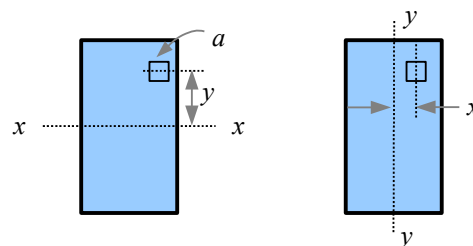
Moment of Inertia of a Rectangle

In everyday speech, the word “moment” means a short amount of time. In engineering mechanics, moment is the product of a quantity and the distance from that quantity to a given point or axis. For example, in *Statics*, a force acting on a wrench handle produces a torque, or moment, about the axis of a bolt: $M = P \times L$. This is the moment of a force.



We can also describe moments of areas. Consider a beam with a rectangular cross-section. The horizontal centroidal axis of this beam is the x - x axis in the drawing.

Take a small area a within the cross-section at a distance y from the x - x centroidal axis of the beam. The first moment of this area is $a \times y$. The second moment of this area is $I_x = (a \times y) \times y = ay^2$. In *Strength of Materials*, “second moment of area” is usually abbreviated “moment of inertia”.* If we divide the total area into many little areas, then the moment of inertia of the entire cross-section is the sum of the moments of inertia of all of the little areas. We can also calculate the moment of inertia about the vertical y - y centroidal axis: $I_y = (a \times x) \times x = ax^2$. The x and y in I_x and I_y refer to the centroidal axis.



* Engineers use the term “moment of inertia” out of habit. As A.P. Poorman states in *Applied Mechanics* in 1940, “the term moment of inertia has been in use too long to be changed,” as it was first used in this sense by Swiss mathematician Leonhard Euler in the 18th century.

This rectangular beam cross-section has a depth of 16 cm and a width of 5 cm. We can divide the beam into 8 equal segments 2 cm deep, 5 cm wide, so that each segment has an area $a = 2\text{ cm} \times 5\text{ cm} = 10\text{ cm}^2$. The centroidal axis of segment #1 is 7 cm from the x-x axis ($y_1 = 7\text{ cm}$); the centroidal axis of segment #2 is 5 cm from the x-x axis ($y_2 = 5\text{ cm}$); and so on. We can estimate the moment of inertia for the entire area as the sum of the moments

of inertia of the segments, written as $I_x = \sum_1^n a_i y_i^2$ where n = the total number of

segments, and i = the number of each segment (from 1 to n), or:

$$I_x = a_1 y_1^2 + a_2 y_2^2 + a_3 y_3^2 + a_4 y_4^2 + a_5 y_5^2 + a_6 y_6^2 + a_7 y_7^2 + a_8 y_8^2$$

With numbers and units, we have:

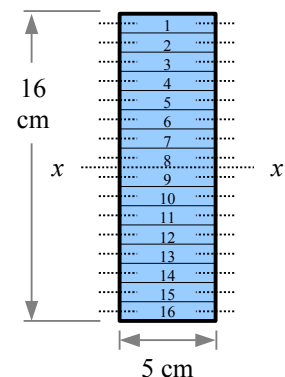
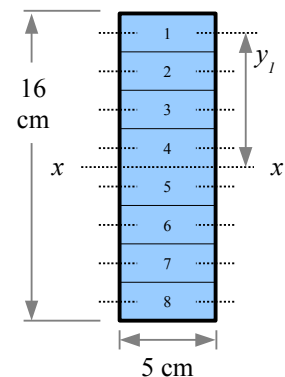
$$I_x = 10\text{ cm}^2(7\text{ cm})^2 + 10\text{ cm}^2(5\text{ cm})^2 + 10\text{ cm}^2(3\text{ cm})^2 + 10\text{ cm}^2(1\text{ cm})^2 + 10\text{ cm}^2(1\text{ cm})^2 + 10\text{ cm}^2(3\text{ cm})^2 + 10\text{ cm}^2(5\text{ cm})^2 + 10\text{ cm}^2(7\text{ cm})^2 = 1,680\text{ cm}^4$$

We can take the same beam and split it into 16 segments 1 cm deep.

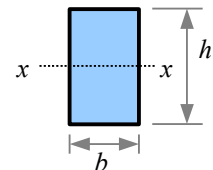
$$I_x = a_1 y_1^2 + a_2 y_2^2 + a_3 y_3^2 + a_4 y_4^2 + a_5 y_5^2 + a_6 y_6^2 + a_7 y_7^2 + a_8 y_8^2 + a_9 y_9^2 + a_{10} y_{10}^2 + a_{11} y_{11}^2 + a_{12} y_{12}^2 + a_{13} y_{13}^2 + a_{14} y_{14}^2 + a_{15} y_{15}^2 + a_{16} y_{16}^2$$

We can estimate the moment of inertia as:

$$I_x = 5\text{ cm}^2(7.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(6.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(5.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(4.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(3.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(2.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(1.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(0.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(0.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(1.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(2.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(3.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(4.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(5.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(6.5\text{ cm})^2 + 5\text{ cm}^2(7.5\text{ cm})^2 = 1,704.5\text{ cm}^4$$



As the segment size drops, the estimates converge on a solution. Split the beam into an infinite number of infinitely-small segments to get the actual solution, derived from calculus: $I_x = \frac{bh^3}{12}$, where b is the width and h is the depth. See Appendix C for moments of inertia of other simple shapes.



Example #1 – Moment of inertia of a rectangle

A rectangular beam has a depth of 16 cm and a width of 5 cm. What is the moment of inertia about the x-x centroidal axis? Report the answer in cm^4 .

Solution $I_x = \frac{bh^3}{12} = \frac{5\text{ cm}(16\text{ cm})^3}{12} = 1,706.7\text{ cm}^4$ The estimated I_x based on 8 segments was within 2% of the exact

answer; the estimated I_x based on 16 segments is within 0.1%. Estimates can get us close to the exact solution, but in this case, the math for the exact solution is less time-consuming (one equation instead of 16).

Compound Beams Sharing a Centroidal Axis

Laminated structural wood beams are manufactured by glueing planks together. If we stand the planks vertically and glue them along their facing surfaces, we can increase the moment of inertia. Since bending strength is directly proportional to I , if you double the moment of inertia you double the strength of the beam.

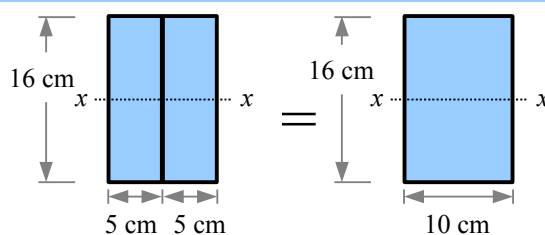
Example #2 – Moment of inertia of 2 rectangles

Two $5\text{ cm} \times 16\text{ cm}$ rectangular planks are glued together as shown. What is the moment of inertia about the x - x centroidal axis? Report the answer in cm^4 .

Solution The moment of inertia is

$I_x = \frac{bh^3}{12} = \frac{10\text{ cm}(16\text{ cm})^3}{12} = 3,413.3\text{ cm}^4$, which is twice the moment of inertia of a single beam. Therefore, we can add the

moments of inertia of two cross-sections as long as they share the same centroidal axis: $I_{x\text{total}} = I_{x1} + I_{x2}$. A laminated beam made of n parallel planks would have a moment of inertia of $I_{x\text{total}} = \sum_1^n I_{xn}$.



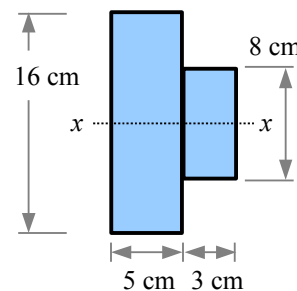
You can use this method even if the planks are not the same size, as long as they share the same centroidal axis.

Example #3 – Moment of inertia of 2 rectangles of different sizes

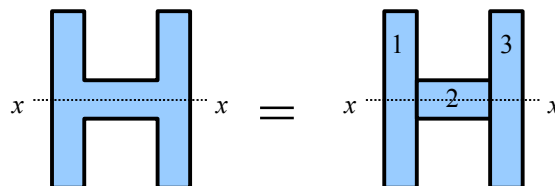
A $5\text{ cm} \times 16\text{ cm}$ rectangular plank is glued to an $8\text{ cm} \times 3\text{ cm}$ as shown, so they share the same neutral x - x axis. What is the moment of inertia about the centroidal axis? Report the answer in cm^4 .

Solution Add the moments of inertia of the individual planks:

$$I_x = \frac{b_1 h_1^3}{12} + \frac{b_2 h_2^3}{12} = \frac{b_1 h_1^3 + b_2 h_2^3}{12} = \frac{5\text{ cm}(16\text{ cm})^3 + 3\text{ cm}(8\text{ cm})^3}{12} = 1,834.7\text{ cm}^4$$



A compound beam shape may be made by welding or glueing two beams together, or it may be made by extruding or rolling. Aluminum extrusions are widely used in architecture, machine parts, furniture, automotive components, and other consumer goods. Steel is hot-rolled into railroad rails and wide-flange structural steel beams, channels, and angles. Draw construction lines on a cross-section and analyze it as if it were glued together with rectangles sharing a common centroidal axis.

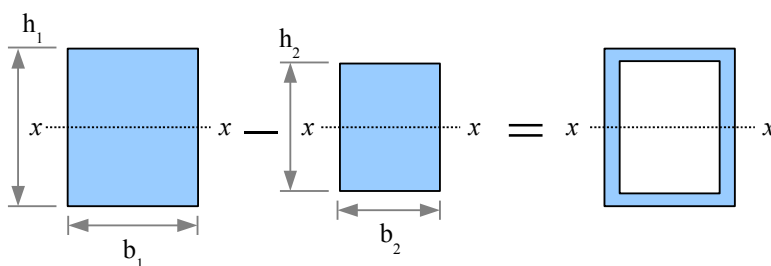


The moment of inertia for the entire shape is $I_{x\text{total}} = I_{x1} + I_{x2} + I_{x3} = \frac{b_1 h_1^3 + b_2 h_2^3 + b_3 h_3^3}{12}$.

Hollow Beams Sharing a Centroidal Axis

If a beam is hollow *and* the hollow space shares the same centroidal axis as the beam, then we can subtract the moment of inertia of the hollow area from the moment of inertia of an equivalent solid beam. For a rectangular hollow beam with a rectangular hollow section,

$$I_{x\text{total}} = I_{x1} - I_{x2} = \frac{b_1 h_1^3}{12} - \frac{b_2 h_2^3}{12} = \frac{b_1 h_1^3 - b_2 h_2^3}{12}$$

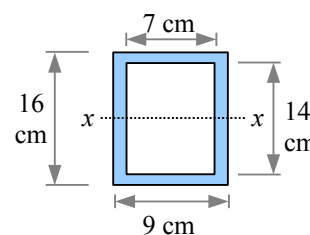


Example #4 – Moment of inertia of a hollow rectangle

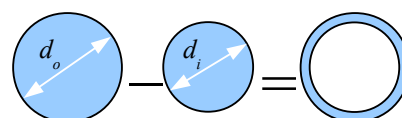
A hollow rectangular beam has 1 cm thick walls, as shown. What is the moment of inertia about the x - x centroidal axis? Report the answer in cm^4 .

Solution Subtract the moment of inertia of the hollow space from the moment of inertia of the outside dimensions.

$$I_x = \frac{b_o h_o^3}{12} - \frac{b_i h_i^3}{12} = \frac{9 \text{ cm} (16 \text{ cm})^3 - 7 \text{ cm} (14 \text{ cm})^3}{12} = 1,471 \text{ cm}^4$$



We can use the same technique for finding the moment of inertia of a hollow tube. From calculus, the moment of inertia of a circle is $I_x = \frac{\pi d^4}{64}$, therefore the moment of inertia of a hollow circle is $I_x = \frac{\pi d_o^4}{64} - \frac{\pi d_i^4}{64} = \frac{\pi (d_o^4 - d_i^4)}{64}$.

**Example #5 – Moment of inertia of a hollow circle**

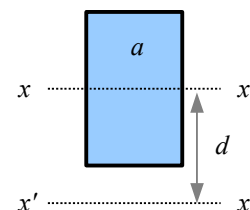
A standard 2" steel pipe has an outside diameter $d_o = 2.375$ in. and an inside diameter $d_i = 2.067$ in. What is the moment of inertia about the x - x centroidal axis? Report the answer in in^4 .

Solution Subtract the moment of inertia of the hollow space from the moment of inertia of the outside dimensions.

$$I_x = \frac{\pi [(2.375 \text{ in.})^4 - (2.067 \text{ in.})^4]}{64} = 0.6657 \text{ in}^4$$

The Transfer Formula

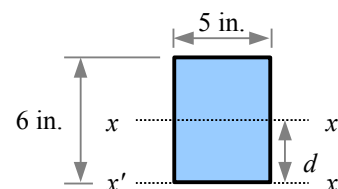
The moments of inertia calculated in the previous examples were evaluated about the centroidal axis of each shape. Sometimes we need to calculate the moment of inertia of a beam about a different, noncentroidal axis. The Transfer Formula* is $I = I_o + ad^2$, where I_o = moment of inertia about the x - x centroidal axis, I = moment of inertia about a parallel x' - x' axis, a = the area of the shape, and d = the distance between the x - x centroidal axis and the parallel x' - x' axis (the transfer distance). Note: the symbol d is also used for the diameter of a circle; these quantities are different, even though they share the same symbol.

**Example #6 – Moment of inertia about a different axis**

A beam has a width of 5 inches and a depth of 6 inches. What is the moment of inertia about the base of the beam, marked as the x' - x' axis? Report the answer in in^4 .

Solution The moment of inertia about the centroidal axis is

$$I_o = \frac{bh^3}{12} = \frac{5 \text{ in.} (6 \text{ in.})^3}{12} = 90 \text{ in}^4 \text{ and the cross-sectional area is } a = 5 \text{ in.} \times 6 \text{ in.} = 30 \text{ in}^2.$$



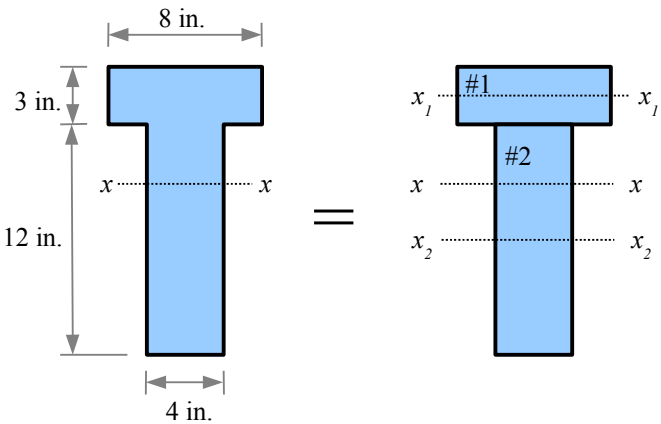
The distance from the x - x centroidal axis to the x' - x' axis $d = 3$ in. Using the Transfer Formula, $I_{x'} = I_o + ad^2 = 90 \text{ in}^4 + (30 \text{ in}^2)(3 \text{ in.})^2 = 360 \text{ in}^4$.

* Also known as the *Parallel Axis Theorem*.

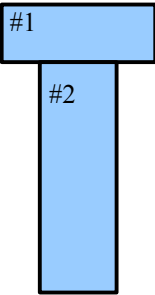
Compound Beams With Different Neutral Axes

Some compound cross-sections are made of segments which do not share the same centroidal axis. As long as the neutral axes are parallel, we can use the Transfer Formula to find the moment of inertia of the compound beam. For example, this beam cross-section consists of two rectangular segments, and the x - x centroidal axis of the beam is different from the x_1 - x_1 and x_2 - x_2 neutral axes of segments #1 and #2. Using the Transfer Formula, we can calculate the moment of inertia of each segment about the x - x centroidal axis of the compound shape, then add the results to obtain the total moment of inertia.

Using a 10-step process, we can calculate the moment of inertia of the compound beam. This approach is sometimes called a *tabular method* because you enter all of the required numbers in a table as you solve the problem.



Step 1 Divide the compound beam into simple shapes, and label the segments. This compound beam can be divided into two segments; the method also works for complex shapes made up of many simple shapes.



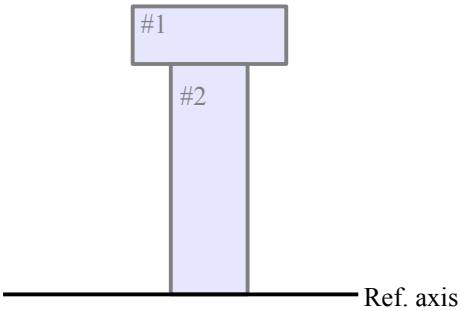
Step 2 Calculate the area a of each segment. Enter the areas and their sum into a table. Be sure to list the units, because in some problems, you may need to include a conversion factor in the calculation.

$$a_1 = 8 \text{ in.} \times 3 \text{ in.} = 24 \text{ in.}^2$$

$$a_2 = 4 \text{ in.} \times 12 \text{ in.} = 48 \text{ in.}^2$$

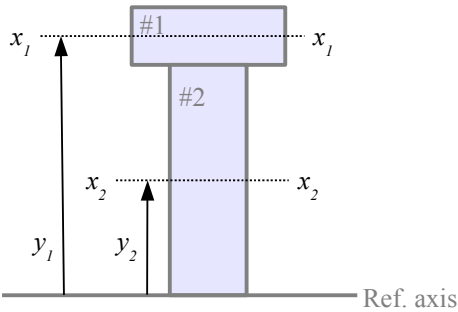
Seg- ment	a (in. ²)
#1	24
#2	48
Sum	72

Step 3 Pick a Reference Axis, and label it on the diagram. In theory, you can select any axis, but in practice, the math is usually easier if you pick an axis along the top or bottom of the complex shape, or along the centroidal axis of one of the segments.



Chapter 6: Properties of Areas

Step 4 Draw the distance from the Reference Axis to the centroidal axes of the segments, x_1 - x_1 and x_2 - x_2 . Label these distances y_1 , y_2 , etc. Enter these values into the table.



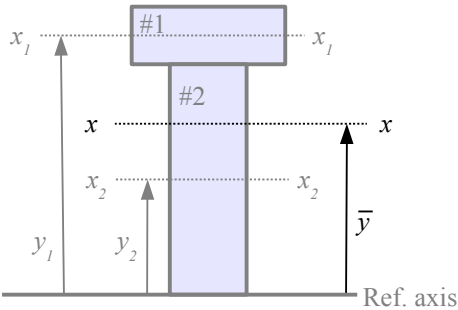
Seg- ment	a (in. ²)	y (in.)
#1	24	13.5
#2	48	6
Sum	72	

Step 5 Calculate the product $a \times y$ for each segment, and enter these values and their sum in the table.

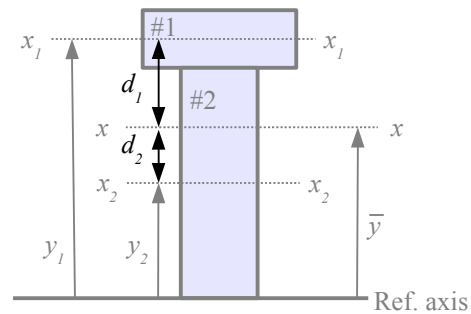
Seg- ment	a (in. ²)	y (in.)	ay (in. ³)
#1	24	13.5	324
#2	48	6	288
Sum	72		612

Step 6 Draw the distance from the Reference Axis to the x - x centroidal axis of the complex shape. Calculate this distance as

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum ay}{\sum a} = \frac{612 \text{ in.}^3}{72 \text{ in.}^2} = 8.5 \text{ in.}$$



Step 7 Draw the Transfer Distance d for each segment. This is the distance from the centroidal axis of the segment to the centroidal axis of the complex shape. Given the way this beam is drawn, $d_1 = y_1 - \bar{y}$ and $d_2 = \bar{y} - y_2$. For other compound beams, you will have to figure out the formulas for d_1, d_2, d_3 , etc. based on the drawing. Enter the results into the table.



Segment	a (in. ²)	y (in.)	ay (in. ³)	d (in.)
#1	24	13.5	324	5
#2	48	6	288	2.5
Sum	72		612	

Step 8 Calculate the product $a \times d^2$ for each segment, and enter the results and their sum in the table. Be sure to calculate $a \times d^2$, not $a \times d$...it's an easy error to make.

Segment 1: $a \times d^2 = 24 \text{ in.}^2 (5 \text{ in.})^2 = 600 \text{ in.}^4$

Segment 2: $a \times d^2 = 48 \text{ in.}^2 (2.5 \text{ in.})^2 = 300 \text{ in.}^4$

Enter these values and their sum into the table.

Segment	a (in. ²)	y (in.)	ay (in. ³)	d (in.)	ad ² (in. ⁴)
#1	24	13.5	324	5	600
#2	48	6	288	2.5	300
Sum	72		612		900

Step 9 Calculate I for each segment about its centroidal axis:

$$I_{o1} = \frac{bh^3}{12} = \frac{8 \text{ in.} (3 \text{ in.})^3}{12} = 18 \text{ in.}^4$$

$$I_{o2} = \frac{bh^3}{12} = \frac{4 \text{ in.} (12 \text{ in.})^3}{12} = 576 \text{ in.}^4$$

Enter these values and their sum into the table.

Segment	a (in. ²)	y (in.)	ay (in. ³)	d (in.)	ad ² (in. ⁴)	I _o (in. ⁴)
#1	24	13.5	324	5	600	18
#2	48	6	288	2.5	300	576
Sum	72		612		900	594

Step 10 Use the Transfer Formula to calculate I for the compound shape.

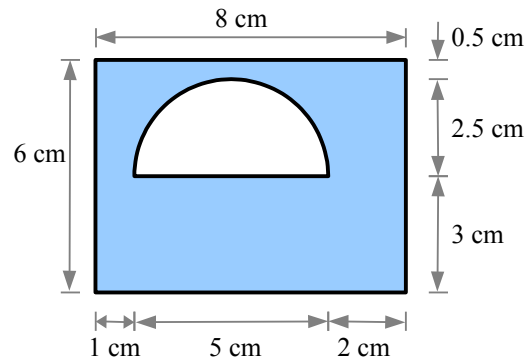
$$I = \sum I_o + \sum ad^2 = 594 \text{ in.}^4 + 900 \text{ in.}^4 = 1494 \text{ in.}^4$$

Hollow Beams With Different Neutral Axes

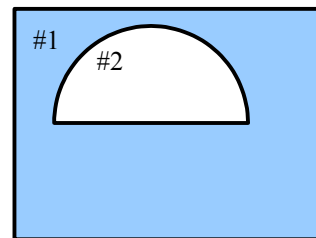
If the beam is hollow and the cavity does not share the same neutral axis as the outline of the solid shape, then we need the Transfer Formula. This example is a $6\text{ cm} \times 8\text{ cm}$ rectangle with a hole in the shape of a 5 cm diameter half circle.

Let Segment #1 be the solid shape (with no hole), and Segment #2 be the hole. In all calculations, the area of the hole and the moment of inertia of the hole are *negative* numbers. Thus a_1 , a_1y_1 , $a_1d_1^2$, and I_1 are positive numbers; a_2 , a_2y_2 , $a_2d_1^2$, and I_2 are negative numbers.

Note: the symbol d is used for the diameter of the half circle *and* for the distances between the neutral axis of the compound shape and the neutral axes of the component parts.



Step 1 Divide the compound beam into simple shapes, and label the segments.



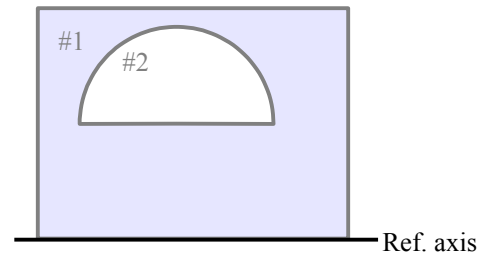
Step 2 Calculate the area a of each segment.

$$a_1 = 8\text{ cm} \times 6\text{ cm} = 48\text{ cm}^2$$

$$a_2 = -\frac{\pi}{8}d^2 = -\frac{\pi}{8}(5\text{ cm})^2 = -9.82\text{ cm}^2$$

Segment	a (cm^2)
#1	48.0
#2	-9.82
Sum	38.2

Step 3 Pick a Reference Axis, and label it on the diagram.

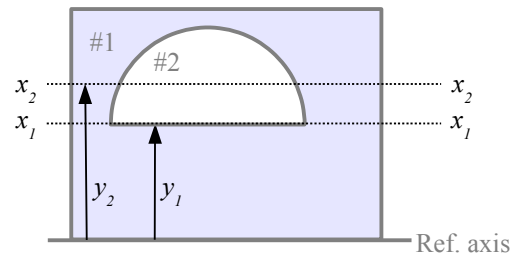


Step 4 Draw the distance from the Reference Axis to the centroidal axes of the segments, x_1 - x_1 and x_2 - x_2 . Label these distances y_1 , y_2 , etc. Enter these values into the table.

From Appendix C, the x-x neutral axis is $\frac{2d}{3\pi}$ above the base of the half circle.

$$\frac{2d}{3\pi} = \frac{2(5\text{ cm})}{3\pi} = 1.06\text{ cm}$$

Add the distance from the reference axis to the base of the half circle to get $y_2 = 3\text{ cm} + 1.06\text{ cm} = 4.06\text{ cm}$



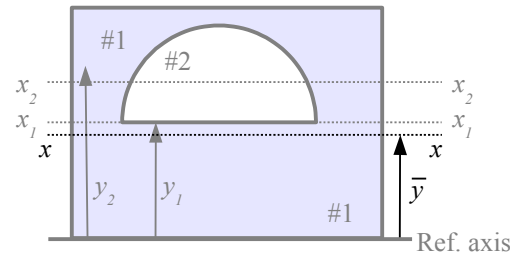
Seg- ment	a (cm ²)	y (cm)
#1	48.0	3
#2	-9.82	4.06
Sum	38.2	

Step 5 Calculate the product $a \times y$ for each segment, and enter these values and their sum in the table.

Seg- ment	a (cm ²)	y (cm)	ay (cm ³)
#1	48.0	3	144
#2	-9.82	4.06	-39.9
Sum	38.2		104

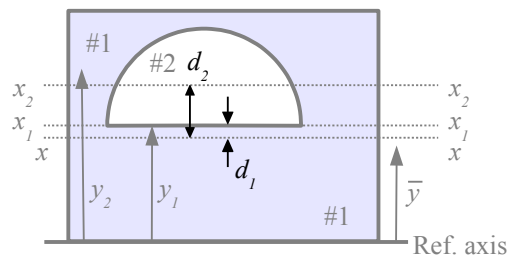
Step 6 Draw the distance from the Reference Axis to the x-x centroidal axis of the complex shape. Calculate this distance as

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum ay}{\sum a} = \frac{104\text{ cm}^3}{38.2\text{ cm}^2} = 2.72\text{ cm}$$



Step 7 Draw the Transfer Distance d for each segment. This is the distance from the centroidal axis of the segment to the centroidal axis of the complex shape. Enter the results into the table.

Placing a hole in the upper part of this beam shifts the centroidal axis downward, to where more of the material lies. Since $d_1 = 0.27\text{ cm}$, the centroidal axis of this hollow beam is 0.27 cm below the centroidal axis of a solid $6\text{ cm} \times 8\text{ cm}$ solid beam.



Seg- ment	a (cm ²)	y (cm)	ay (cm ³)	d (cm)
#1	48.0	3	144	0.27
#2	-9.82	4.06	-39.9	1.33
Sum	38.2		104	

Chapter 6: Properties of Areas

Step 8 Calculate the product $a \times d^2$ for each segment, and enter the results and their sum in the table. Be sure to calculate $a \times d^2$, not $a \times d$...it's an easy error to make.

Segment 1: $a_1 \times d_1^2 = 48 \text{ cm}^2 (0.27 \text{ cm})^2 = 3.57 \text{ cm}^4$

Segment 2: $a_2 \times d_2^2 = -9.82 \text{ cm}^2 (1.33 \text{ cm})^2 = -17.5 \text{ cm}^4$

Step 9 Calculate I for each segment about its centroidal axis. Note that I is negative for the hole.

$$I_{o1} = \frac{bh^3}{12} = \frac{8 \text{ cm} (6 \text{ cm})^3}{12} = 144 \text{ cm}^4$$

$$I_{o2} = -\frac{d^4}{145.78} = -\frac{(5 \text{ cm})^4}{145.78} = -4.29 \text{ cm}^4$$

Enter these values and their sum into the table.

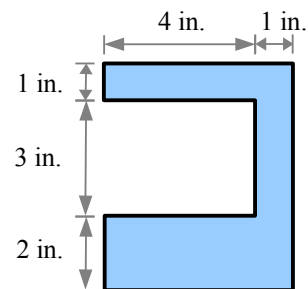
Step 10 Use the Transfer Formula to calculate I for the compound shape.

$$I = \sum I_o + \sum ad^2 = 139.7 \text{ cm}^4 - 13.9 \text{ cm}^4 = 125.8 \text{ cm}^4$$

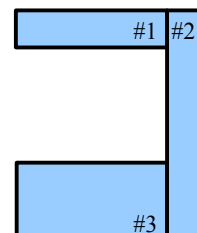
Some compound beams have more than two segments; the 10-step procedure is the same, with more rows in the table.

Moment of Inertia about the y-y Neutral Axis

The solution method for I_y is the same as for I_x , turned 90°. Instead of y terms in the table, we have x terms.



Step 1 Divide the compound beam into three rectangles.



Step 2 Calculate the area a of each segment.

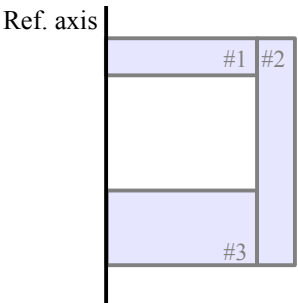
$$a_1 = 4 \text{ in.} \times 1 \text{ in.} = 4 \text{ in.}^2$$

$$a_2 = 6 \text{ in.} \times 1 \text{ in.} = 6 \text{ in.}^2$$

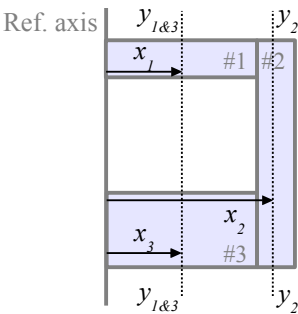
$$a_3 = 4 \text{ in.} \times 2 \text{ in.} = 8 \text{ in.}^2$$

Seg- ment	a (in. ²)
#1	4
#2	6
#3	8
Sum	18

Step 3 Pick a Reference Axis (easiest along the left edge or along the right edge).



Step 4 Draw the distance from the Reference Axis to the centroidal axes of the segments, y_1 - y_1 , y_2 - y_2 , and y_3 - y_3 . Label these distances x_1 , x_2 , etc. In this problem, the y_1 - y_1 and y_3 - y_3 centroidal axes are the same.



Seg- ment	a (in. ²)	x (in.)
#1	4	2
#2	6	4.5
#3	8	2
Sum	18	

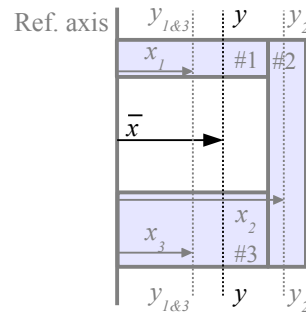
Step 5 Calculate the product $a \times x$ for each segment, and enter these values and their sum in the table.

Seg- ment	a (in. ²)	x (in.)	ax (in. ³)
#1	4	2	8
#2	6	4.5	27
#3	8	2	16
Sum	18		51

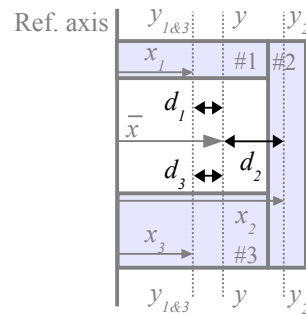
Chapter 6: Properties of Areas

Step 6 Draw the distance from the Reference Axis to the y - y centroidal axis of the complex shape. Calculate this distance as

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum ax}{\sum a} = \frac{51 \text{ in.}^3}{18 \text{ in.}^2} = 2.833 \text{ in.}$$



Step 7 Draw the Transfer Distance d for each segment. This is the distance from the centroidal axis of the segment to the centroidal axis of the complex shape. For this drawing, $d_1 = \bar{x} - x_1 = d_3$ and $d_2 = x_2 - \bar{x}$.



Seg- ment	a (in. ²)	x (in.)	ax (in. ³)	d (in.)
#1	4	2	8	0.83
#2	6	4.5	27	1.67
#3	8	2	16	0.83
Sum	18		51	

Step 8 Calculate the product $a \times d^2$ for each segment.

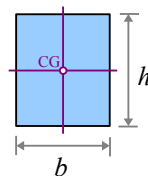
Seg- ment	a (in. ²)	x (in.)	ax (in. ³)	d (in.)	ad^2 (in. ⁴)
#1	4	2	8	0.83	2.78
#2	6	4.5	27	1.67	16.67
#3	8	2	16	0.83	5.56
Sum	18		51		25.00

Step 9 Calculate I for each segment about its centroidal axis:

$$I_{o1} = \frac{hb^3}{12} = \frac{1 \text{ in.} (4 \text{ in.})^3}{12} = 5.333 \text{ in.}^4$$

$$I_{o2} = \frac{hb^3}{12} = \frac{6 \text{ in.} (1 \text{ in.})^3}{12} = 0.5 \text{ in.}^4$$

$$I_{o3} = \frac{hb^3}{12} = \frac{2 \text{ in.} (4 \text{ in.})^3}{12} = 10.667 \text{ in.}^4$$



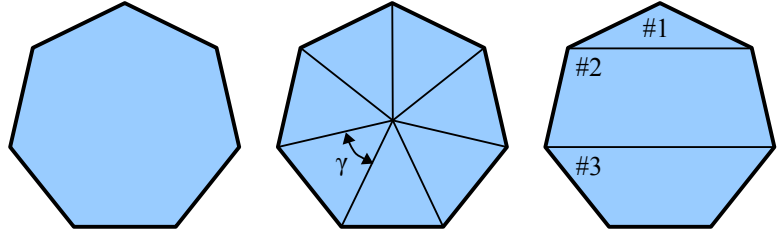
Seg- ment	a (in. ²)	x (in.)	ax (in. ³)	d (in.)	ad^2 (in. ⁴)	I_o (in. ⁴)
#1	4	2	8	0.83	2.78	5.33
#2	6	4.5	27	1.67	16.67	0.5
#3	8	2	16	0.83	5.56	10.67
Sum	18		51		25.00	16.50

Step 10 Use the Transfer Formula to calculate I_y for the compound shape.

$$I_y = \sum I_o + \sum ad^2 = 25.0 \text{ in.}^4 + 16.5 \text{ in.}^4 = 41.5 \text{ in.}^4$$

Picking Sensible Shapes

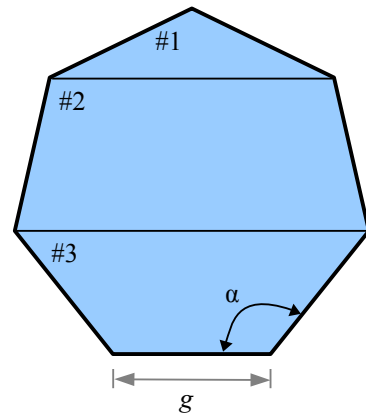
Dividing up an area into sensible shapes requires some thought. For example, a regular heptagon has 7 sides of equal length and equal angles. This shape can be divided into seven triangles, where angle γ is $1/7$ of $360^\circ = 51.4^\circ$. Unfortunately, only one triangle has an edge parallel to the horizontal axis. It makes more sense to divide the heptagon into one triangle and two trapezoids.



The next step is to find the angles and edge lengths of the three shapes. Each internal angle is α , and each edge length is g .

From geometry, the internal angle for an n -sided regular shape is

$$\alpha = \frac{n-2}{n} \times 180^\circ = \frac{7-2}{7} \times 180^\circ = 128.6^\circ$$



Area #1 is a triangle, so the sum of its internal angles is 180° . Solve $\alpha + 2\beta = 180^\circ$ for the unknown angles:

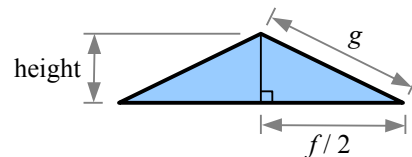
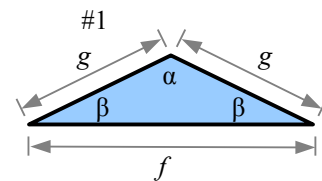
$$\beta = \frac{180^\circ - \alpha}{2} = \frac{180^\circ - 128.6^\circ}{2} = 25.7^\circ$$

Use the Law of Sines to find dimension f , the base of the triangle.

$$\frac{f}{\sin \alpha} = \frac{g}{\sin \beta} \quad \text{so} \quad f = g \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \beta} = g \frac{\sin 128.6^\circ}{\sin 25.7^\circ} = 1.80 g$$

Use the Pythagorean Theorem to find the height of the triangle.

$$\text{height} = \sqrt{g^2 - \left(\frac{f}{2}\right)^2} = \sqrt{g^2 - \left(\frac{1.80g}{2}\right)^2} = 0.434 g$$



Chapter 6: Properties of Areas

Area #2 is a trapezoid. We need angle ϕ in order to calculate the base of the trapezoid, but it takes a few steps.

From the diagram, angle $\phi = \alpha - \beta = 128.6^\circ - 25.7^\circ = 102.9^\circ$

Next, drop a couple of vertical lines from each vertex of the top edge of the trapezoid, creating two internal triangles and an internal rectangle.

Angle $\lambda = \phi - 90^\circ = 102.9^\circ - 90^\circ = 12.9^\circ$

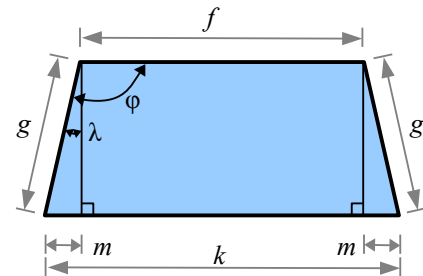
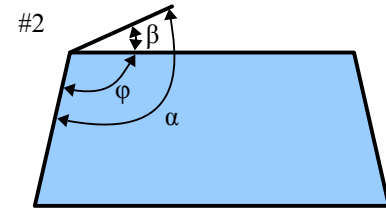
Length $m = g \sin \lambda = g \sin 12.9^\circ = 0.223 g$

The base of the trapezoid is equal to the base of the internal rectangle plus the bases of the two internal triangles:

$$k = f + 2m = 1.80 g + 2(0.223 g) = 2.25 g$$

Use trigonometry to find the height of the trapezoid:

$$\text{height} = g \cos \lambda = g \cos 12.9^\circ = 0.975 g$$

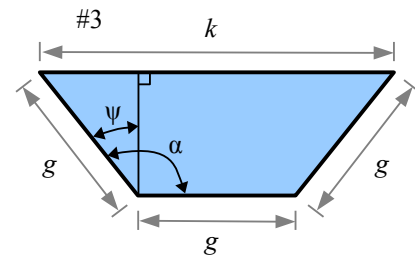


Area #3 is a trapezoid. Draw a vertical line from a vertex along the bottom edge.

Angle $\psi = \alpha - 90^\circ = 128.6^\circ - 90^\circ = 38.6^\circ$

Use trigonometry to find the height of the trapezoid:

$$\text{height} = g \cos \psi = g \cos 38.6^\circ = 0.782 g$$



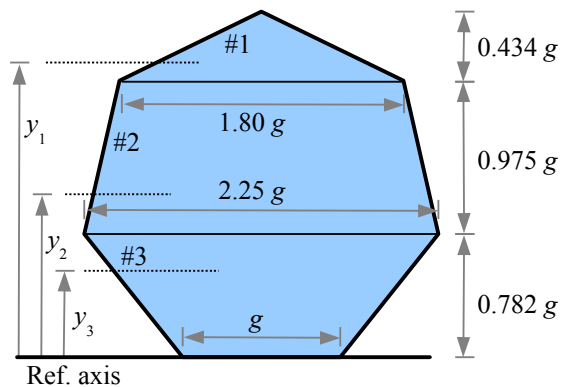
Now let's mark the various dimensions on the original diagram.

Use the dimensions to find y values. Shape #1 is a triangle; its neutral axis is one third of its height. Add that value to the heights of shapes

#2 and #3: $y_1 = \frac{0.434 g}{3} + 0.975 g + 0.782 g = 1.90 g$

Shapes #2 and #3 are isosceles trapezoids whose neutral axes are functions of their base dimensions and heights. See Appendix C for details.

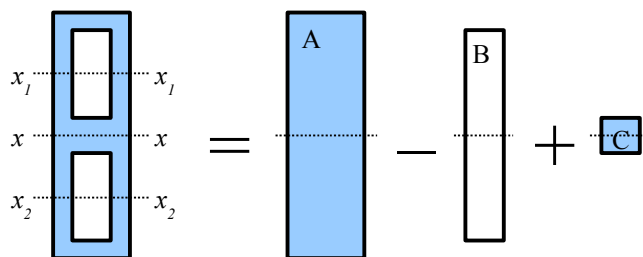
Solving for I_x requires a table; solving for I_y does not because the three shapes share the same y - y neutral axis.



Shortcuts

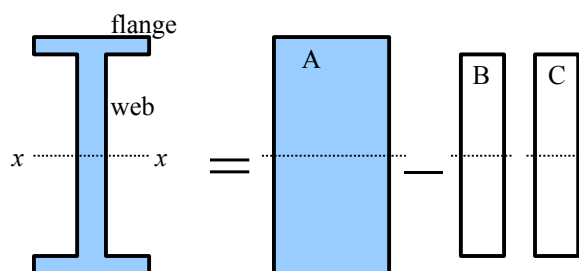
Some shapes look like they require the Transfer Formula, but creative segment choices make the problem easy. Consider a beam with two hollow sections. The moment of inertia could be calculated using the 10-step Transfer Formula method with segments #1 (large rectangle), #2 (upper cavity), and #3 (lower cavity), but it is easier to break it into rectangles sharing the same centroidal axis.

Calculate I_x of segment A (large rectangle), subtract I_x of segment B (two cavities joined together) and add I_x of segment C (material between the two cavities).



The moment of inertia of a wide-flange beam made of welded rectangular plates is easy to solve: subtract the moments of inertia of the spaces to the left and right of the web from the moment of inertia of a large rectangle.

Hot-rolled steel wide-flange beams, channels, and angles have rounded internal and external corners, which makes hand calculation of I_x and I_y difficult. Instead of calculating these values, you can look them up in tables (see Appendix D).



Radius of Gyration

The Transfer Formula lets us calculate the moment of inertia of a shape about any axis other than the neutral axis of that shape. Consider two rectangles which have the *same area* and the *same moment of inertia about the neutral axis of rectangle #1*. The moment of inertia of rectangle #2 about the x_1 - x_1

neutral axis is $I_{x1} = I_{x2} + ad^2$, so $\frac{b_1 h_1^3}{12} = \frac{b_2 h_2^3}{12} + a_2 d^2$. Since $a_1 = a_2$, we can

write $b_1 h_1 = b_2 h_2$, therefore $\frac{a h_1^2}{12} = \frac{a h_2^2}{12} + a d^2$. We can cancel the areas,

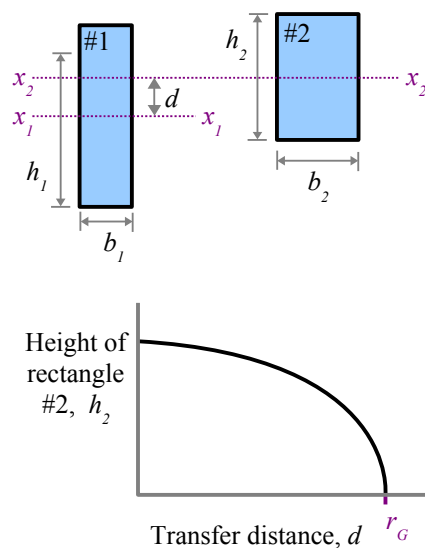
leaving $\frac{h_1^2}{12} = \frac{h_2^2}{12} + d^2$.

Solving this equation for the height of rectangle #2 gives us $h_2 = \sqrt{h_1^2 - 12d^2}$. Plotting h_2 as a function of transfer distance d shows that there is some maximum value of d where the height of rectangle #2 approaches zero (and its base grows very large).

Another way to rewrite the equation is $d = \sqrt{\frac{h_1^2 - h_2^2}{12}}$. Now we can see that as h_2

approaches zero, d approaches $\sqrt{\frac{h_1^2}{12}} = \frac{h_1}{\sqrt{12}}$. This special value of d is called

the radius of gyration, and is easily calculated for *any* shape as $r_G = \sqrt{I/A}$. The radius of gyration is used for analyzing columns, which are tall, thin structures loaded in compression. Columns fail by buckling at stresses below the expected yield strength of the material (see Chapter 14). The greater the radius of gyration, the more resistant a column is to buckling failure.



Polar Moment of Inertia

The moment of inertia of a cross-sectional area is $I_x = \sum_1^n a_i y_i^2$ relative to the x - x centroidal axis and $I_y = \sum_1^n a_i x_i^2$ relative to the y - y centroidal axis. In torsion problems, we need a moment of inertia relative to the centroid of the shape, so we use the radius of each elemental area from the center of gravity, r , to define the polar moment of inertia $J = \sum_1^n a_i r_i^2$. The units are the same as for moment of inertia: in.⁴ or mm⁴. From calculus, the exact equation for a circle is $J = \frac{\pi}{32} d^4$; for a hollow circle, $J = \frac{\pi}{32} (d_o^4 - d_i^4)$.

Using the Pythagorean Theorem, we know that $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$, so $J = I_x + I_y$ for *any* shape. As a result, for simple shapes that have the same dimensions in the x and y directions (squares and circles, either hollow or solid), $J = 2 I_x = 2 I_y$.

Key Equations

Moments of inertia of simple shapes about the x - x centroidal axis are in Appendix C.

Use the Transfer Formula to find the moment of inertia about a noncentroidal axis, or for calculating the moment of inertia of a compound shape: $I = I_o + ad^2$.

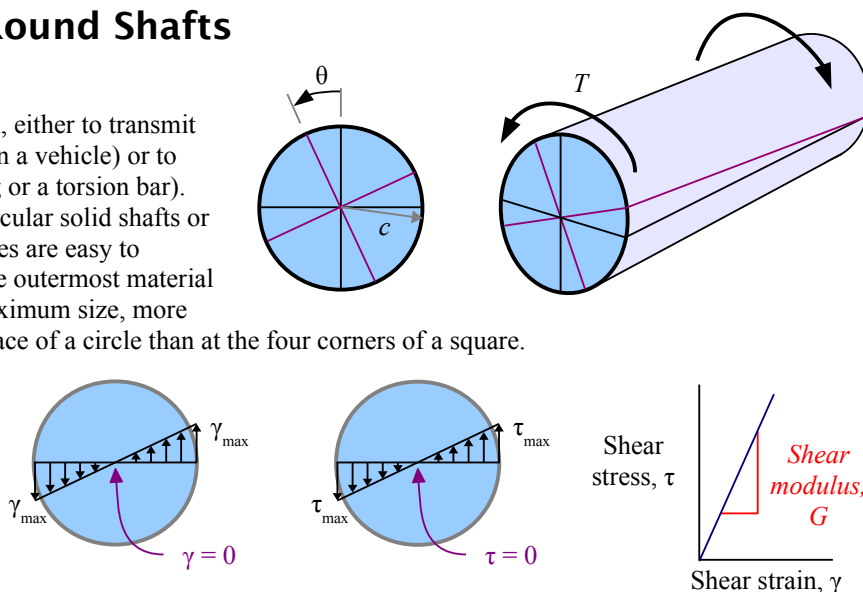
The polar moment of inertia for a solid circle is $J = \frac{\pi}{32} d^4$, and for a hollow circle is $J = \frac{\pi}{32} (d_o^4 - d_i^4)$.

Chapter 7: Torsion in Round Shafts

Shear Stress in a Round Shaft

Many machine parts are loaded in torsion, either to transmit power (like a driveshaft or an axle shaft in a vehicle) or to support a dynamic load (like a coil spring or a torsion bar). Power transmission parts are typically circular solid shafts or circular hollow shafts because these shapes are easy to manufacture and balance, and because the outermost material carries most of the stress. For a given maximum size, more material is available along the entire surface of a circle than at the four corners of a square.

Apply a torque T to a round shaft, and the shaft will twist through an angle θ . Twisting means the material is deforming, so we have strain in the material. The greatest shear strain, γ_{max} , is at the surface, while shear strain is zero at the center of the shaft. The strain increases linearly from the center to the surface of the shaft.



We saw in Chapter 2 that materials like steel and aluminum follow Hooke's law: the ratio of normal stress to normal strain is Young's modulus: $E = \sigma / \epsilon$. Young's modulus is a materials property (see Appendix B). In shear, the ratio of shear stress to shear strain is a materials property called shear modulus: $G = \tau / \gamma$ (also found in Appendix B). Therefore, the stress in the shaft also varies linearly from the center to the surface of the shaft. We also saw in Chapter 2 that this stress is a shearing stress, so $\tau = 0$ at the center, and $\tau = \tau_{max}$ at the surface.

Consider a small area a at a distance r from the center of the circle. If we define c as the distance from the centroid to the surface of the circle, then the shear stress at r is $\tau = \left(\frac{r}{c}\right) \tau_{surface}$. Since shear stress is force divided by area, the shear force

acting on area a is $P_{shear(a)} = \tau a = \frac{r \tau_{surface} a}{c}$. The torque on area a is the force

times the distance from the centroid: $T_{(a)} = P_{shear} r = \frac{r^2 \tau_{surface} a}{c} = \frac{\tau_{surface}}{c} a r^2$. The

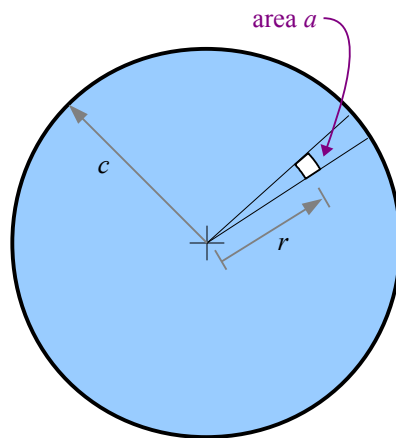
total torque on the entire circular area about the centroid is the sum of the torques on all the small areas that comprise the circle, so $T = \frac{\tau_{surface}}{c} \sum a r^2$.

We've seen the last part of this equation before: the polar moment of inertia of a

circle is $J = \sum a r^2$, therefore $T = \frac{\tau_{surface} J}{c}$.

For design purposes, only the maximum stress matters, so we usually drop the subscript from the shear stress, understanding that we mean the stress at the surface, so we write $T = \frac{\tau J}{c}$. In many problems, we know the applied torque and

dimensions, but need the stress. Solving for stress, $\tau = \frac{Tc}{J}$.



Example #1 – Shear stress in a solid round shaft

The torque on a ¼ inch diameter circular shaft is 5 ft.·lb. What is the shear stress? Report the answer in ksi.

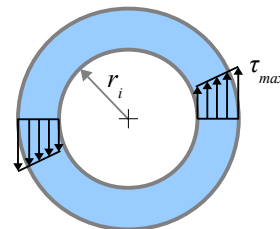
Solution The distance from the centroid to the surface is $c = \frac{d}{2} = \frac{0.25 \text{ in.}}{2} = 0.125 \text{ in.}$. The polar moment of inertia of a circle is $J = \frac{\pi d^4}{32}$. Shear stress $\tau = \frac{Tc}{J} = \frac{5 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.} \cdot 0.125 \text{ in.}}{\pi (0.25 \text{ in.})^4} \left| \frac{32}{1 \text{ ft.}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| = 19.6 \text{ ksi}$

Once we have the shear stress, we can compare it with the allowable shear stress for this material. If the calculated stress is higher than the allowable stress, then we can either select a stronger material or use a larger diameter shaft.

The shear stress in a hollow shaft varies linearly from the inside surface to the outside surface. Calculate the shear stress on the inside surface as $\tau = \frac{Tr_i}{J}$ where r_i is the inside radius.

Example #2 – Shear stress in a hollow round shaft

A torque of 800 N·m is applied to a hollow shaft. The inside diameter is 100 mm; the outside diameter is 120 mm. What is the shear stress on the inside and outside surfaces? Report the answer in MPa.



Solution The distance from the centroid to the inside surface is $r_i = \frac{d_i}{2} = \frac{100 \text{ mm}}{2} = 50 \text{ mm}$.

The distance from the centroid to the outside surface is $c = \frac{d_o}{2} = \frac{120 \text{ mm}}{2} = 60 \text{ mm}$.

From Appendix C, the polar moment of inertia of a hollow circle is $J = \frac{\pi (d_o^4 - d_i^4)}{32}$. We use the same J for both the inside and the outside shear stress calculations.

Shear stress on the inside surface:

$$\tau_i = \frac{Tr_i}{J} = \frac{800 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m} \cdot 50 \text{ mm}}{\pi [(120 \text{ mm})^4 - (100 \text{ mm})^4]} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ N}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^3}{\text{m}^3} \right| = 3.80 \text{ MPa} .$$

Shear stress on the outside surface:

$$\tau_o = \frac{Tc}{J} = \frac{800 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m} \cdot 60 \text{ mm}}{\pi [(120 \text{ mm})^4 - (100 \text{ mm})^4]} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ N}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^3}{\text{m}^3} \right| = 4.55 \text{ MPa}$$

Example #2 uses J for a hollow circle. A very common mistake is to calculate $J = \frac{\pi (d_o - d_i)^4}{32}$ instead of $J = \frac{\pi (d_o^4 - d_i^4)}{32}$.

What difference does it make? Using the dimensions in the Example, calculating the wrong equation gives us

$$J = \frac{\pi (d_o - d_i)^4}{32} = \frac{\pi (120 \text{ mm} - 100 \text{ mm})^4}{32} = 15.7 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^4 , \text{ while the actual polar moment of inertia is}$$

$$J = \frac{\pi (d_o^4 - d_i^4)}{32} = \frac{\pi [(120 \text{ mm})^4 - (100 \text{ mm})^4]}{32} = 10,540 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^4 . \text{ The mistaken value is only 0.15\% of the actual value.}$$

Since J is in the denominator, using the wrong formula for J will give you a shear stress that is 670 times too big. In most industries, a mistake this large is significant.

Chapter 7: Torsion in Round Shafts

In some problems, we know the applied torque and the shear strength of the material, and we need to calculate the minimum diameter that will work. Write the shear stress equation algebraically, substituting $\frac{\pi d^4}{32}$ for J and $\frac{d}{2}$ for c . Now rewrite the equation to solve for diameter: $d = \sqrt[3]{\text{algebraic expression}}$.

Angle of Twist in a Round Shaft

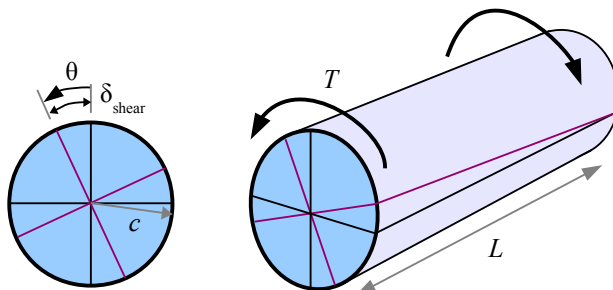
Normal strain is defined as the change in length of tensile member divided by its original length: $\epsilon = \delta / L$. We can define shear strain on a torsion member as the change in location of a point on the surface of the shaft divided by the length of the shaft: $\gamma = \delta_{\text{shear}} / L$.

The angle of twist, θ , is measured in radians, so we can substitute $\delta_{\text{shear}} = c\theta$. Now the shear strain is $\gamma = c\theta / L$. Substitute this value in the equation for shear modulus, and

$$G = \frac{\tau}{\gamma} = \frac{\tau L}{c\theta} . \text{ Rewrite the equation to find the angle of twist}$$

$$\theta = \frac{\tau L}{G c} .$$

Since shear stress $\tau = \frac{Tc}{J}$, we can substitute this expression into the angle of twist equation to get $\theta = \frac{\tau L}{G c} = \frac{Tc}{J} \frac{L}{G c} = \frac{TL}{JG}$.



Example #3 – Twist in a solid round shaft

A solid round aluminum shaft has a maximum allowable shear stress of 80 MPa. The shaft is 10 cm in diameter and 1 m long. What is the angle of twist? Report the answer in radians and in degrees.

Solution From Appendix B, the shear modulus of aluminum is $G = 28 \times 10^3 \text{ MPa}$. The angle of twist is

$$\theta = \frac{\tau L}{G c} = \frac{80 \text{ MPa} \cdot 1 \text{ m}}{28 \times 10^3 \text{ MPa} \cdot \frac{1}{2}(10 \text{ cm})} \left| \frac{100 \text{ cm}}{\text{m}} \right| = 0.057 \text{ rad}$$

Convert to degrees using the conversion button on your calculator, or use the Factor-Label Method of Unit Conversion:

$$\frac{0.057 \text{ rad}}{1} \left| \frac{180^\circ}{\pi \text{ rad}} \right| = 3.3^\circ$$

Example #4 – Twist in a hollow round shaft

A hollow round steel shaft has a torque of 600 ft.lb. The shaft has an outside diameter of 1.25 in., an inside diameter of 1.10 in., and a length of 36 in. What is the angle of twist? Report the answer in degrees.

Solution From Appendix B, the shear modulus of steel is $G = 12,000 \text{ ksi}$. The angle of twist is

$$\theta = \frac{TL}{JG} = \frac{32 TL}{\pi (d_o^4 - d_i^4) G} = \frac{32 \cdot 600 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.} \cdot 36 \text{ in.}}{\pi [(1.25 \text{ in.})^4 - (1.10 \text{ in.})^4] 12,000 \text{ kip}} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{kip}}{\text{ft.}} \right| \left| \frac{180^\circ}{\pi \text{ rad}} \right| = 12.9^\circ$$

Looking at the equations, you can see that the angle of twist is directly proportional to length: if you double the length of the shaft, the angle of twist doubles. In a tensile member, if you double the length the elongation doubles. Shear stress is independent of length, just as normal stress is independent of the length of a tensile member.

Stress Concentration in Torsion

If a shaft has a uniform diameter along its length, then the maximum shear stress at the surface is $\tau = \frac{Tc}{J}$. Many shafts in machines have different diameters in different locations, such as at the flange of an axle shaft, or adjacent to a bearing surface. A sudden change in diameter creates a stress concentration. The maximum stress in the smaller diameter section, at the base of the fillet, is $\tau = K \frac{Tc}{J}$ where K is the stress concentration factor. Other dimensional changes, such as keyways and transverse through-holes, also create stress concentrations in shafts.

Look at the diagram of the shaft: the fillet radius meets the flat face of the large diameter portion of the shaft. The two shaft diameters and fillet radius are all independent variables, so the stress concentration graph has several curves, each for a different ratio of shaft diameters. Use a five-step process for calculating the maximum shear stress at the stress concentration site:

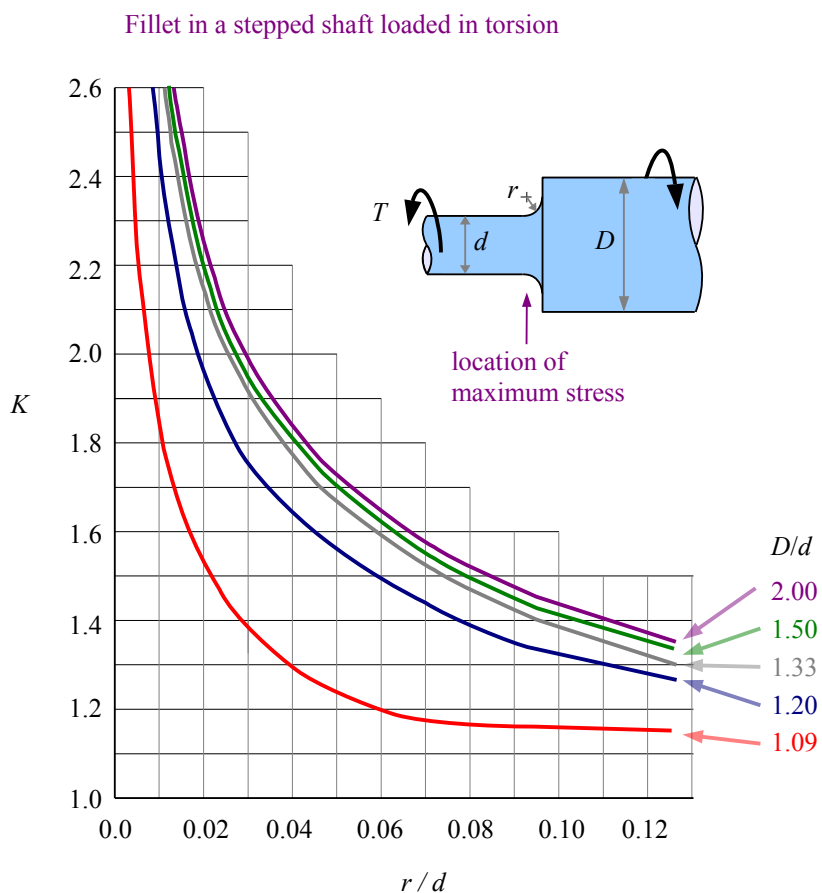
Step 1 Divide the fillet radius by the smaller shaft diameter find the ratio r/d .

Step 2 Divide the larger shaft diameter by the smaller shaft diameter find the ratio D/d .

Step 3 Using these two values, find the value of K from the graph. If your calculated D/d does not match the values on the graph, then estimate the value between the curves. For example, if $r/d = 0.06$ and $D/d = 1.15$, then $K \approx 1.35$.

Step 4 Calculate c and J using the smaller shaft diameter.

Step 5 Calculate the maximum stress using $\tau = K \frac{Tc}{J}$.



Example #5 – Stress concentration in a stepped shaft: find the stress

A 2¼ inch diameter shaft is welded to a 3 inch diameter shaft. The weld bead is ground to a radius of 0.125 inches. If the torque is 600 ft.lb., what is the maximum shear stress at the fillet? Report the answer in ksi.

Solution Calculate the ratios $\frac{D}{d} = \frac{3 \text{ in.}}{2.25 \text{ in.}} = 1.33$ and $\frac{r}{d} = \frac{0.125 \text{ in.}}{2.25 \text{ in.}} = 0.056$. Use the 1.33 line on the graph to find the stress concentration factor $K \approx 1.65$. $\tau_{\max} = K \frac{Tc}{J} = K T \frac{d}{2} \frac{32}{\pi d^4} = \frac{16 K T}{\pi d^3} = \frac{16 \cdot 1.65 \cdot 600 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}}{\pi (2.25 \text{ in.})^3} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} = 5.31 \text{ ksi}$

Chapter 7: Torsion in Round Shafts

We can compare the calculated shear stress in Example #5 with the allowable shear stress of the material to determine whether the design is safe.

What if want to find the smallest acceptable radius of a stepped shaft, given the shaft diameters, torque, and allowable shear stress for the material?

Example #6 – Stress concentration in a stepped shaft: find the radius

A 4 cm inch diameter shaft is welded to a 6 cm diameter shaft. The torque is 1.5 kN·m and the allowable shear stress for the shaft material is 230 MPa. What is the smallest allowable fillet radius? Report the answer in mm.

Solution Start with the shear stress equation, solving for K .

$$\tau_{max} = K \frac{Tc}{J} = K \frac{Td}{2} \frac{32}{\pi d^4} = K \frac{16T}{\pi d^3}$$
$$K = \frac{\tau_{max} \pi d^3}{16T} = \frac{230 \text{ MPa} \pi (4 \text{ cm})^3}{16 \cdot 1.5 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}} \left| \frac{\text{m}^3}{(100 \text{ cm})^3} \right| \frac{10^3 \text{ kN}}{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2} = 1.93$$

Next, calculate the ratio $\frac{D}{d} = \frac{6 \text{ cm}}{4 \text{ cm}} = 1.50$

Knowing K and D/d , use the chart to find $\frac{r}{d} \approx 0.03$ then solve for radius $r \approx 0.03 d = \frac{0.03 \cdot 4 \text{ cm}}{1} \left| \frac{10 \text{ mm}}{\text{cm}} \right| = 1.2 \text{ mm}$

Stress concentration problems with stepped shafts loaded in torsion involve variables r , d , D , T , K , and τ . Like previous problems in this book, if you know all but one of the variables you can calculate the remaining variable.

Key Equations

Shear stress on the surface of a round solid or hollow shaft is the torque times the distance from the center to the outside surface, divided by the polar moment of inertia: $\tau = \frac{Tc}{J}$

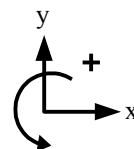
The angle of twist of a round solid or hollow shaft can be calculated with $\theta = \frac{\tau L}{Gc}$ or with $\theta = \frac{TL}{JG}$, depending on the available input variables.

With a stepped shaft, the maximum stress is $\tau = K \frac{Tc}{J}$ where K is the stress concentration factor. Use the values of c and J for the smaller diameter shaft.

Chapter 8: Beam Reactions, Shear Diagrams, and Moment Diagrams

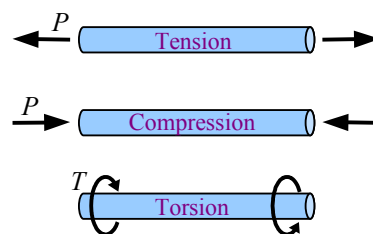
Sign Convention

In *Statics*, we learned how to calculate forces and moments acting on solid objects using two important equations: the sum of the forces in a given direction is zero, and the sum of the moments about a given point is zero. To use these equations effectively, we need to define positive and negative directions for force and moment. In this chapter, horizontal forces are defined as positive to the right; vertical forces are defined as positive upward; and moments are defined as positive counterclockwise (the right hand rule).



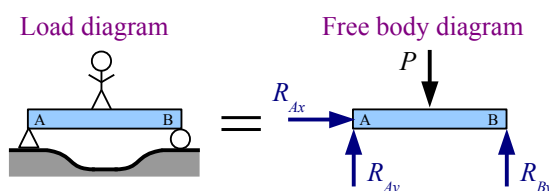
Loads on Beams

The way a part is loaded determines whether it is called a tensile or compressive member, a torsional shaft, or a beam. As we saw in Chapter 2, if you take a steel rod and pull it lengthwise with a load P , the rod will develop a tensile stress $\sigma = P/A$ where A is the cross-sectional area of the rod. Loading the rod in tension parallel to its axis makes the rod a tensile member; loading it in compression parallel to its axis makes it a compressive member. As we saw in Chapter 7, if you twist the steel rod with torque T , then we call it a torsional shaft.

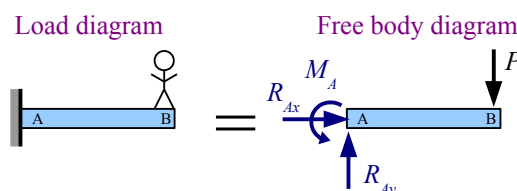


If loading is perpendicular (transverse) to its axis so that the rod bends, then the rod is called a *beam*. You can load a beam with point loads, uniformly distributed loads, or nonuniformly distributed loads. A person standing on a wooden board is an example of a point load on a beam, while a person lying down on a wooden board is an example of a distributed load. A point load P could be the weight of an object sitting on the beam, or it could be a load applied by a cable or rod attached to the beam at that point.

The beam has to be supported somehow. A *simply-supported beam* has two vertical supports, typically a pinned support at one end and a roller support at the other. The lefthand support point is labeled A, and the righthand support point is labeled B. In the load diagram, the triangle at point A represents a pinned support, which allows the beam to rotate about that point, like a door on a hinge. A pinned support may have vertical and horizontal reaction forces.

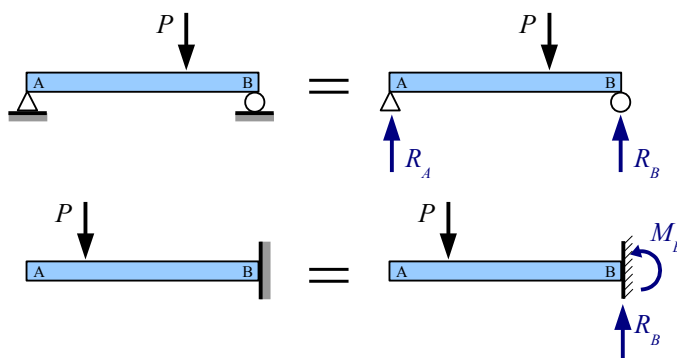


The circle at point B represents a roller support, allowing the beam to move horizontally. Since the beam is not restrained at the roller in the x direction, reaction force $R_{Bx} = 0$ and we do not need to include this reaction force in the diagram.



A *cantilever beam* is embedded in a wall, so the beam has reaction forces as well as a reaction moment.

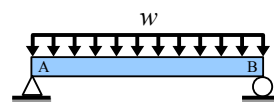
In this chapter's beam problems, there are no applied horizontal forces, so the horizontal reaction force is zero. We can simplify the free body diagrams by leaving out the horizontal reaction force, and by labeling the vertical reaction forces as R_A and R_B .



Also, we can leave the triangle, circle, or "wall" symbol in place to remind us of the original support condition. Strictly speaking, it's not a free-body diagram of the beam, but you can think of it as a free body diagram of the beam support, separated from the rest of the universe at the base of the support.

Chapter 8: Beam Reactions, Shear Diagrams, and Moment Diagrams

The weight of a beam is a uniform distributed load. The weight per unit length, w , typically has units of lb./ft., kips/ft., or kN/m. The total weight of the beam, W , is the weight per unit length times the length: $W = wL$, typically in units of lb., kips, or kN.



Consider a wide-flange beam, or “W-beam,” having a cross-section that looks like a Courier font capital letter **I**. The U.S. Customary W-beam designation system has two numbers: the first is the nominal depth, and the second is the weight per unit length.

For example, a W24×162 beam has a nominal depth of 24 inches and a weight per unit length $w = 162$ lb./ft. If the beam is 10 feet long, then the total weight, W , of the beam is $W = wL = \frac{162 \text{ lb.}}{\text{ft.}} \cdot 10 \text{ ft.} = 1,620 \text{ lb.}$

In Canada, W-beams are specified in SI (metric) units. These beams are designated by mass, not weight: a W250×115 wide flange beam has a nominal depth of 250 mm and a mass per unit length of 115 kg/m. From Newton’s Second Law, $\text{force} = \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration}$, or in this case, $\text{weight} = \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration of gravity}$. The SI unit of force and weight is the newton (N), defined as $1 \text{ N} = 1 \frac{\text{kg m}}{\text{s}^2}$, and the acceleration of gravity is 9.81 m/s^2 . The weight per unit length of a

W250×115 wide-flange beam is $w = \frac{115 \text{ kg}}{\text{m}} \cdot \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \left| \frac{\text{N s}^2}{\text{kg m}} \right| \frac{\text{kN}}{10^3 \text{ N}} = 1.13 \text{ kN/m}$. If the beam is 4 m long, then the total weight of the beam is $W = wL = \frac{1.13 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \cdot 4 \text{ m} = 4.51 \text{ kN}$.

You can also calculate the weight per unit length from the cross-sectional area and the specific weight of the material. Specific weight is weight divided by volume: $\gamma = W/V$. The volume of a beam of uniform cross-section is the cross-sectional area times the length: $V = A \cdot L$. Combining, $\gamma = \frac{W}{V} = \frac{W}{A \cdot L}$ or $\gamma \cdot A = \frac{W}{L}$. Weight per unit length $w = \frac{W}{L} = \gamma \cdot A$.

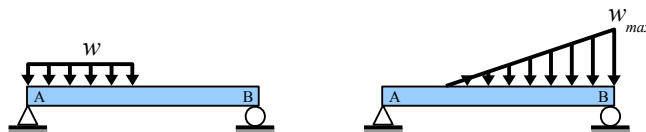
Example #1 – Weight per unit length of a steel rod

What is the weight per unit length of a 1 inch diameter steel rod? Report the answer in lb./ft.

Solution The cross-sectional area of a circle $A = \frac{\pi d^2}{4}$. From Appendix B, the specific weight of steel is 0.284 lb./in.^3

$$\text{Weight per unit length } w = \gamma \cdot A = \frac{\gamma \pi d^2}{4} = \frac{0.284 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^3} \cdot \frac{\pi (1 \text{ in.})^2}{4} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| = 2.68 \text{ lb./ft.}$$

A distributed load may run the length of the beam (like the beam’s weight), may run along a portion of the beam, or may be nonuniform.



Reactions for Simply-Supported Simple Beams

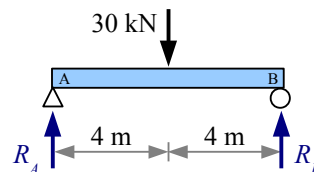
You can calculate the reaction forces for a symmetrically-loaded, simply-supported beam by dividing the total load by 2, because each end of the beam carries half the load. The reactions for the beam with a point load are $R_A = R_B = P/2$.

Example #2 – Reaction forces due to a point load

Calculate the reaction forces R_A and R_B for a beam with a 30 kN load at the midspan.

Solution Divide the total load by 2 to obtain the reaction forces,

$$R_A = R_B = \frac{P}{2} = \frac{30 \text{ kN}}{2} = 15 \text{ kN}$$



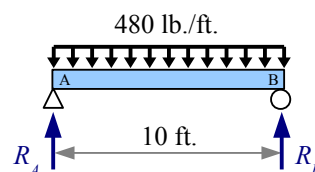
A simply-supported beam with a uniform distributed load also has a symmetrical loading pattern. Divide the total load on the beam by 2 to find the reaction forces.

Example #3 – Reaction forces due to a uniform distributed load

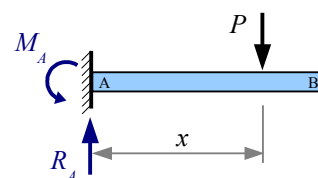
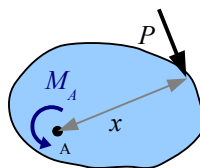
Calculate the reaction forces R_A and R_B for a 10-ft. beam with a 480 lb./ft. uniformly distributed load. Report the answer in kips.

Solution Multiply the uniform distributed load by the length to find the total load on the beam: $W = wL$. Divide the total load by 2 to obtain the reaction forces,

$$R_A = R_B = \frac{W}{2} = \frac{wL}{2} = \frac{480 \text{ lb.} \cdot 10 \text{ ft.}}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1000 \text{ lb.}} \cdot \frac{\text{kip}}{1} = 2.4 \text{ kips}$$



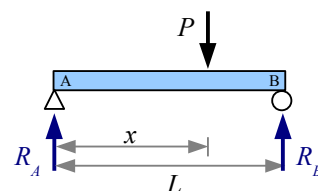
For beams with nonsymmetrical loading, we need two equations from *Statics*: the sum of the vertical forces equals zero, and the sum of the moments about a point equals zero. The moment about a point is the force acting on an object times the perpendicular distance from the force to the pivot point. Whether the object is a blob or a beam, the moment about point A is $M_A = P \cdot x$.



You can pick a pivot point at either end of a simply-supported beam. Most students find it easier to select the left end of the beam, point A. Since moment has a magnitude and a direction (clockwise or counterclockwise), we need to establish a convention for positive and negative moments. We'll select counterclockwise as positive, symbolized as \curvearrowright , and start adding up the moments about point A.

The load acts at a distance x from point A. Think of point A as a hinge point...the load causes the beam to rotate clockwise about point A, so the moment is negative. The reaction force R_B acts at a distance L from point A, and causes the beam to rotate counterclockwise about point A, so the moment is positive. The moment about point A is \curvearrowright

$\sum M_A = 0 = -Px + R_B L$. Now solve for the reaction force $R_B = \frac{Px}{L}$. Use the sum of the forces in the vertical direction to calculate the other reaction force.



Forces have magnitude and direction; pick upwards as positive, so $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - P + R_B$. Now solve for the reaction force $R_A = P - R_B$.

Example #4 – Reaction forces due to a point load

Calculate the reaction forces R_A and R_B for this simply-supported beam.

Solution Redraw the diagram, marking the distances to all loads and reactions from point A.

The moment about point A is $\sum M_A = 0 = -40 \text{ kN} \cdot 3 \text{ m} + R_B \cdot 10 \text{ m}$.

Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force $R_B = \frac{40 \text{ kN} \cdot 3 \text{ m}}{10 \text{ m}} = 12 \text{ kN}$.

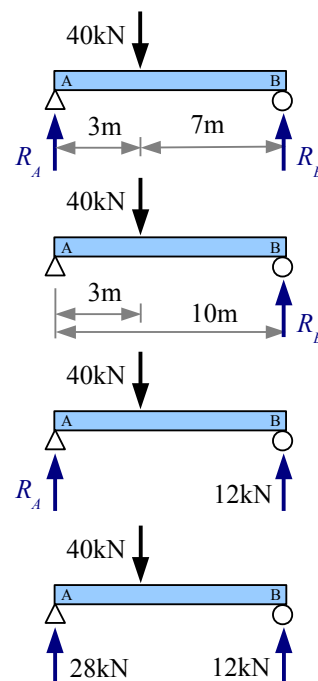
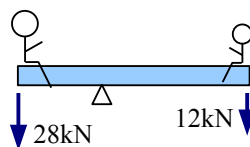
Use the sum of the forces in the vertical direction to calculate the other reaction force:

$$\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 40 \text{ kN} + 12 \text{ kN}$$

Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force $R_A = 40 \text{ kN} - 12 \text{ kN} = 28 \text{ kN}$.

You can check the answer by solving the sum of the moments about point B.

Most of the applied load is supported by the left end of the beam. Intuitively, this makes sense because the load is closer to the left end of the beam. Flip the beam upside down and it looks like two children on a see-saw: the pivot point has to be closer to the heavier child in order to balance the see-saw.



Use the same technique for a simply-supported beam with multiple point loads.

Example #5 – Reaction forces due to 2 point loads

Calculate the reaction forces R_A and R_B for a beam with two point loads.

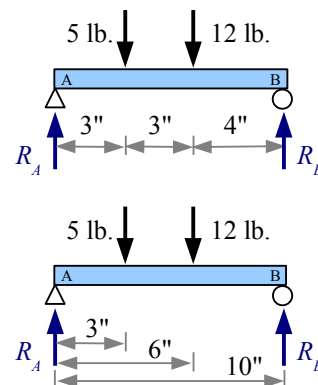
Solution Redraw the diagram, marking the distances to all loads and reactions from point A. This step may seem to be a waste of time, but as the loading conditions become more complicated, it becomes more important to redimension the drawing, in order to keep track of the distances used in the Sum of the Moments calculation.

The moment about point A is $\sum M_A = 0 = -5 \text{ lb} \cdot 3 \text{ in.} - 12 \text{ lb} \cdot 6 \text{ in.} + R_B \cdot 10 \text{ in.}$

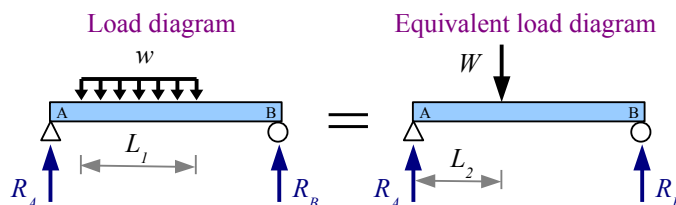
Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force $R_B = \frac{5 \text{ lb} \cdot 3 \text{ in.} + 12 \text{ lb} \cdot 6 \text{ in.}}{10 \text{ in.}} = 8.7 \text{ lb.}$

Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 5 \text{ lb.} - 12 \text{ lb.} + 8.7 \text{ lb.}$

Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force $R_A = 5 \text{ lb.} + 12 \text{ lb.} - 8.7 \text{ lb.} = 8.3 \text{ lb.}$



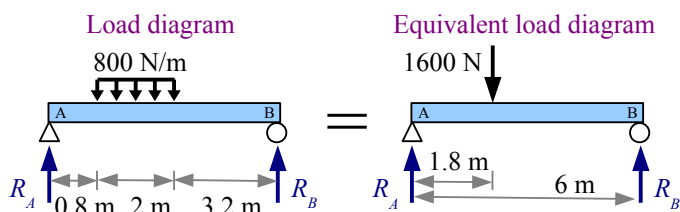
If a uniformly distributed load is not symmetrical, then we need to convert the distributed load into a point load equivalent to the total load $W = wL_1$ where L_1 is the length of the distributed load. The equivalent point load is located at the centroid of the distributed load... the center of the rectangle. Use the *equivalent load diagram* for calculating the reaction forces.



Example #6 – Equivalent load diagram

Calculate the reaction forces R_A and R_B for a beam with a uniform distributed load of 800 N/m. Report the result in N.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram, placing the equivalent load at the centroid of the distributed load. Use the equivalent load diagram to find the reaction forces.



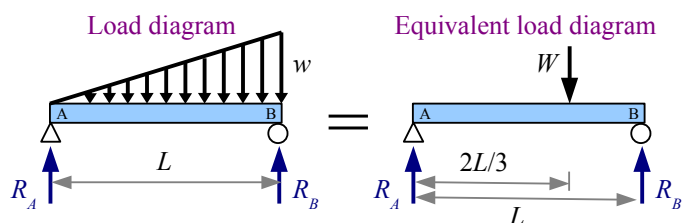
The distributed load runs for 2m, so the location of the equivalent load is 1m from the left end of the distributed load, or 1.8m from point A. The equivalent load $W = wL = \frac{800 \text{ N} \cdot 2 \text{ m}}{\text{m}} = 1600 \text{ N}$.

The moment about point A is $\sum M_A = 0 = -1600 \text{ N} \cdot 1.8 \text{ m} + R_B \cdot 6 \text{ m}$.

Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force $R_B = \frac{1600 \text{ N} \cdot 1.8 \text{ m}}{6 \text{ m}} = 480 \text{ N}$.

Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 1600 \text{ N} + 480 \text{ N}$. Solve for the reaction force $R_A = 1600 \text{ N} - 480 \text{ N} = 1120 \text{ N}$.

Use the same approach for a nonuniformly distributed load. Again, the location of the equivalent load is at the centroid of the distributed load. The centroid of a triangle is one third of the distance from the wide end of the triangle, so the location of the equivalent load is one third of the distance from the right end of this beam, or two thirds of the distance from the left end.



The load varies from 0 at the left end to w at the right end; therefore, the total load is the average of these

loads times the beam length: $W = \left(\frac{0+w}{2} \right) L = \frac{wL}{2}$. If the beam has point loads *and* distributed loads, draw an equivalent load diagram with the applied point loads and the equivalent point loads, then solve like Example #5.

Reactions for Overhanging Beams

A simply-supported beam is supported by a pinned connection at one end and a roller support at the other; all applied loads lie between these two points. An overhanging beam extends beyond one or both supports. The solution method is the same as for simply-supported beams: use the sum of the moments about one of the support points to find the reaction at the other support point.

Example #7 – Overhanging beam

Calculate the reaction forces R_A and R_B for an overhanging beam with two point loads.

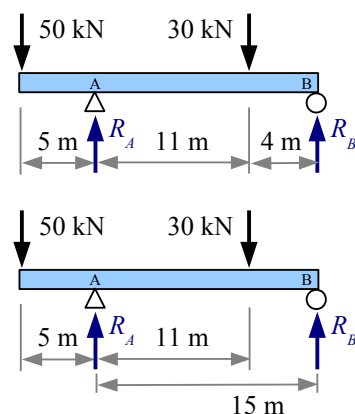
Solution Redraw the diagram, marking the distances to all loads and reactions from point A.

The moment about point A is $\sum M_A = 0 = 50 \text{ kN} \cdot 5 \text{ m} - 30 \text{ kN} \cdot 11 \text{ m} + R_B \cdot 15 \text{ m}$. Notice the 50 kN load produces a positive (counterclockwise) moment about point A, while the 30 kN load produces a negative (clockwise) moment about point A.

Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force

$$R_B = \frac{-50 \text{ kN} \cdot 5 \text{ m} + 30 \text{ kN} \cdot 11 \text{ m}}{15 \text{ m}} = 5.33 \text{ kN}$$

Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 50 \text{ kN} - 30 \text{ kN} + 5.33 \text{ kN}$. Solve for the reaction force $R_A = 50 \text{ kN} + 30 \text{ kN} - 5.33 \text{ kN} = 74.67 \text{ kN}$.



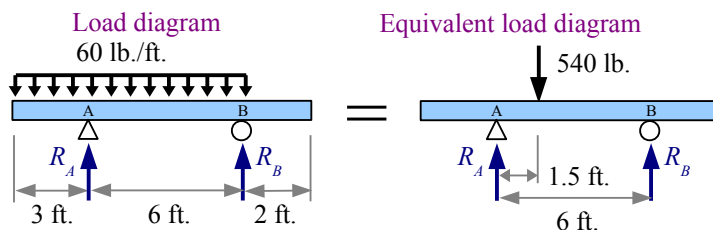
Notice that label A is at the support, not at the end of the beam, because it's more useful to calculate the sum of the moments about the support point, not about the free end.

Solve for the reactions to a distributed load on an overhanging beam the same way as for a distributed load on a simply-supported beam: draw an equivalent load diagram, then use the sum of the moments and the sum of the forces to find the reactions.

Example #8 – Overhanging beam

Calculate the reaction forces R_A and R_B for an overhanging beam with a uniform distributed load.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram, marking the distances to all loads and reactions from point A. We do not need the dimensions to the ends of the overhangs, because there are no loads outside of the two supports.



The distributed load runs for 9 ft., so the location of the equivalent load is 4.5 ft. from the left end of the distributed load, or 1.5 ft. to the right of point A. The equivalent load $W = wL = \frac{60 \text{ lb.} \cdot 9 \text{ ft.}}{\text{ft.}} = 540 \text{ lb.}$

The moment about point A is $\sum M_A = 0 = -540 \text{ lb.} \cdot 1.5 \text{ ft.} + R_B \cdot 6 \text{ ft.}$

Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force $R_B = \frac{540 \text{ lb.} \cdot 1.5 \text{ ft.}}{6 \text{ ft.}} = 135 \text{ lb.}$

Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 540 \text{ lb.} + 135 \text{ lb.}$. Solve for the reaction force $R_A = 540 \text{ lb.} - 135 \text{ lb.} = 405 \text{ lb.}$

Reactions for Cantilever Beams

A cantilever beam with a single support has a reaction force and a reaction moment.

The reaction force R_A equals the sum of the applied forces on the beam, so

$$R_A = P = 3 \text{ kN}$$

The sum of the moments about point A is zero. With the sign convention of counterclockwise = positive, reaction moment M_A is positive, and the moment created by the applied 3 kN load is negative. Summing the moments at the wall, we get

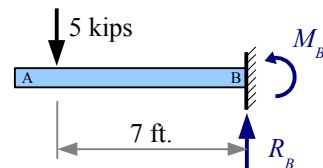
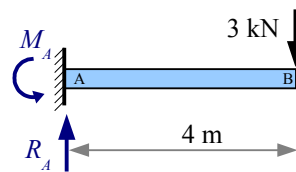
$$\sum M_{\text{wall}} = 0 = M_A - P \cdot x \rightarrow M_A = P \cdot x = 3 \text{ kN} \cdot 4 \text{ m} = 12 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

If the wall is at the right end of the beam instead, then the reaction force calculation is the same as before: $R_B = P = 5 \text{ kips}$

The sum of the moments about point B is zero. Keeping the same counterclockwise = positive sign convention, we draw M_B counterclockwise. The sum of the two moments at the wall give us $\sum M_{\text{wall}} = 0 = M_B + P \cdot x$ so

$$M_B = -P \cdot x = -5 \text{ kips} \cdot 7 \text{ ft.} = -35 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$$

The minus sign tells us that we drew the direction of M_B backwards: the moment reaction at the wall is actually clockwise.



Shear Diagrams

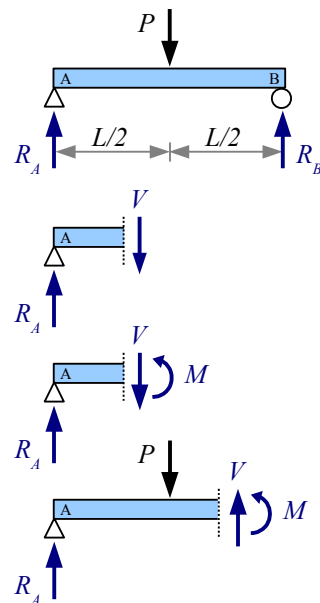
When we calculate reaction forces and torques on tension members, torsion members, and beams, we are calculating external forces and torques. Unless the material has no strength at all, the material resists these external loads by developing internal loads.

Apply a torque of 25 ft.lb. to each end of a $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter rod, and a resisting torque of 25 ft.lb. exists within the rod all along its length. Apply a tensile force of 400 N to each end of a 2 cm diameter rod, and a resisting tensile force of 400 N exists within the rod all along its length. Beams in bending also develop internal forces to resist external forces. Since the external forces on beams are transverse (perpendicular to the axis of the beam), the internal resisting forces are also transverse forces.

Imagine a simply-supported beam with a point load at the mid-span. Cut the beam to the left of the point load, and draw a free-body diagram of the beam segment. In a free-body diagram, forces must balance. Therefore, a downward force at the cut edge balances the upward support reaction R_A . We call this shear force V . It is a shear force because the force acts parallel to a surface (the cut edge of the beam).

The forces R_A and V are in balance (equal in value; opposite in sign), but our segment wants to spin clockwise about point A. To counteract this tendency to spin, a moment M develops within the beam to prevent this rotation. The moment equals the shear force times its distance from point A.

Cut the beam to the right of the point load, and draw the free-body diagram. Since P is larger than R_A , force V points upwards.



Example #9 – Shear load in a beam

Calculate the shear forces in this beam to the left and to the right of the 30 kN point load.

Solution The loading is symmetrical, so $R_A = R_B = \frac{P}{2} = \frac{30 \text{ kN}}{2} = 15 \text{ kN}$.

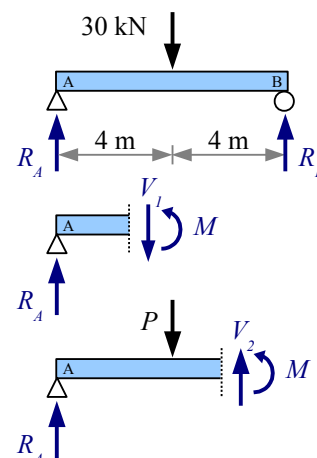
Use the sum of the forces to find V .

Between support A and point load P , $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - V_1$.

Solving for shear load, $V_1 = -R_A = -15 \text{ kN}$.

Between point load P and support B, $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - P + V_2$.

Solving for shear load, $V_2 = -R_A + P = -15 \text{ kN} + 30 \text{ kN} = 15 \text{ kN}$.



We can sketch V as a function of location along the beam using a *Shear Diagram*. Draw vertical construction lines below the load diagram wherever the applied loads and reactions occur. Draw a horizontal construction line, indicating zero shear load. Next, draw the value of V along the length of the beam, as follows:

Step 1 Starting at the left side of the shear diagram, go up 15 kN, because R_A is 15 kN upwards.

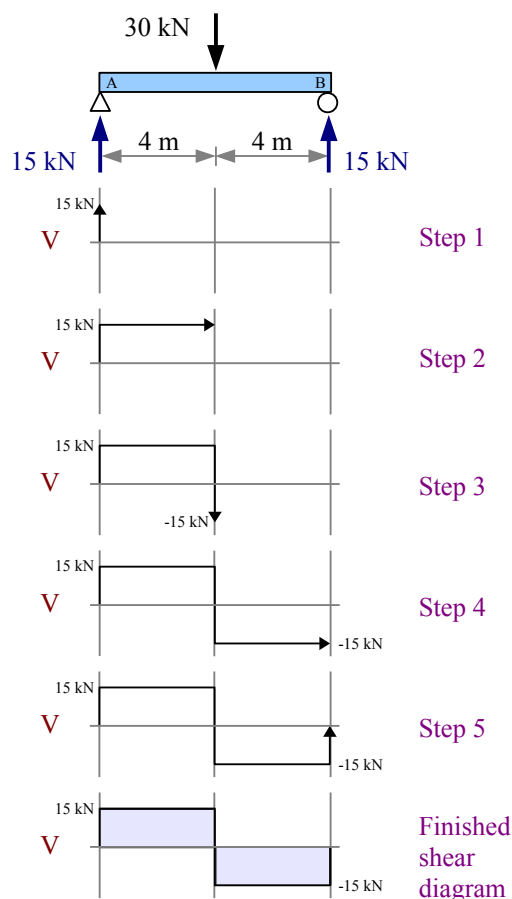
Step 2 There are no additional loads on the beam until you get to the midspan, so the shear value remains at 15 kN.

Step 3 The applied load at the midspan is 30 kN downwards, therefore the shear load is $15 \text{ kN} - 30 \text{ kN} = -15 \text{ kN}$.

Step 4 There are no additional loads on the beam until you get to point B, so the shear value remains at -15 kN.

Step 5 At point B, the reaction force $R_B = 15 \text{ kN}$ upwards, therefore the shear load is $-15 \text{ kN} + 15 \text{ kN} = 0$. If you don't get to 0, you know you made a mistake someplace.

Finish the shear diagram by shading the areas between your line and the horizontal zero shear line. Mark all significant points (anywhere the shear line changes direction). In the next chapter, we will use the maximum absolute value of shear load, $|V|_{\max}$, to calculate the maximum shear stress in the beam.



Chapter 8: Beam Reactions, Shear Diagrams, and Moment Diagrams

A point load at the midspan of a simply-supported beam produces identical reaction forces and a symmetric shear diagram with two rectangles. If the point load is not at the midspan, use sum of the moments and sum of the forces to calculate the reaction forces. Draw vertical construction lines below the applied loads and reaction forces, draw a horizontal line at zero shear, then draw the shear value along the length of the beam.

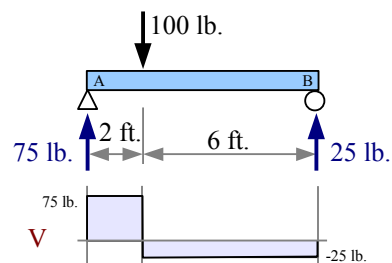
Example #10 – V diagram for 1 point load

Draw a complete shear diagram for a simply-supported 8 ft. beam with a 100 lb. point load 2 ft. to the right of point A.

Solution Use sum of the moments and sum of the forces to find the reaction forces R_A and R_B .

Starting the shear diagram at zero shear, go up $R_A = 75$ lb. at point A. There are no loads between point A and the applied point load, so the shear load does not change. Draw a horizontal line to the right, until you reach the point load. Draw a vertical line down 100 lb., reaching a value $V = -25$ lb. There are no loads between the point load and point B, so the shear load does not change.

Draw a horizontal line to the right, until you reach point B. The reaction force at B is 25 lb. upwards, so draw a vertical line up 25 lb., reaching a value $V = 0$. Again we have two rectangles, but they are not symmetric; the beam carries three times as much shear load to the left of the point load than it does to the right.



Multiple point loads produce a stepped shear diagram.

Example #11 – V diagram for 3 point loads

Draw a complete shear diagram for a simply-supported 8 ft. beam with 100 lb. point loads every 2 ft. along the length.

Solution The loading is symmetrical, so the reaction forces equal half the total applied load.

Calculate the shear values as:

$$V_1 = R_A = 150 \text{ lb.}$$

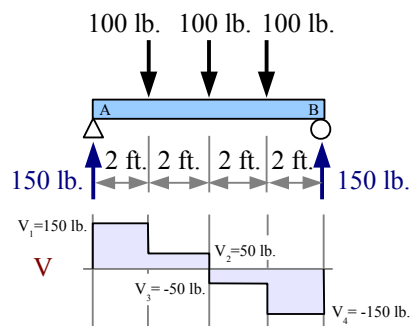
$$V_2 = V_1 - 100 \text{ lb.} = 50 \text{ lb.}$$

$$V_3 = V_2 - 100 \text{ lb.} = -50 \text{ lb.}$$

$$V_4 = V_3 - 100 \text{ lb.} = -150 \text{ lb.}$$

$$V_5 = V_4 + R_B = -150 \text{ lb.} + 150 \text{ lb.} = 0$$

$$\text{In this problem, } |V|_{\max} = 150 \text{ lb.}$$



A uniformly distributed load is like an infinite number of small point loads along the length of the beam, so the shear diagram is like a stepped multiple point load shear diagram with infinitely small steps.

Example #12 – V diagram for a uniformly distributed load

Draw a complete shear diagram for a simply-supported 4 m beam with a uniformly distributed load of 3 kN/m.

Solution The loading is symmetrical, so the reaction forces equal half the total

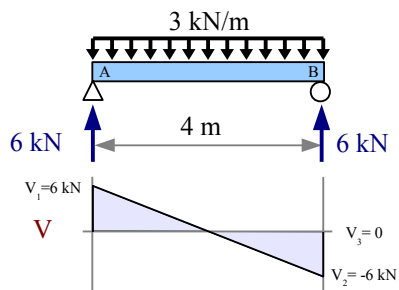
applied load. $R_A = R_B = \frac{W}{2} = \frac{wL}{2} = \frac{3 \text{ kN} \cdot 4 \text{ m}}{2} = 6 \text{ kN}$.

A complete shear diagram includes the values of the shear at locations of applied point loads and reaction forces.

$$V_1 = R_A = 6 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_2 = V_1 - \frac{3 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \cdot 4 \text{ m} = -6 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_3 = V_2 + R_B = -6 \text{ kN} + 6 \text{ kN} = 0 \quad \text{In this problem, } |V|_{\max} = 6 \text{ kN}$$

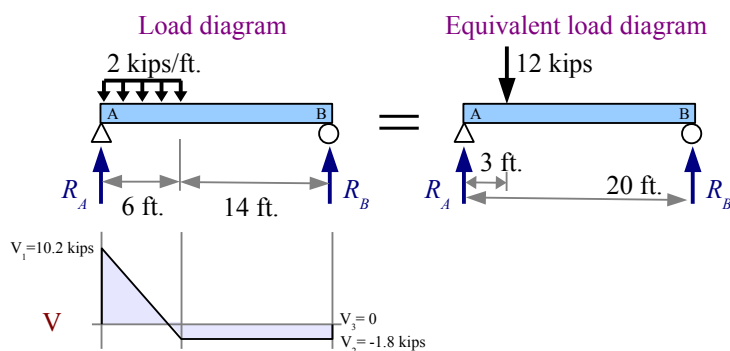


If the uniformly distributed load does not extend along the entire length of the beam, then draw an equivalent load diagram to find the reaction forces. Go back to the *original* load diagram to draw the shear diagram; do *not* use the equivalent load diagram to draw the shear diagram.

Example #13 – V diagram for a uniform distributed load

Draw a complete shear diagram for a simply-supported 20 ft. beam which has a uniform distributed load of 2 kips/ft. running from the left end for 6 feet.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram, placing the equivalent load at the centroid of the distributed load. Use the equivalent load diagram to find the reaction forces.



The distributed load runs for 6 ft., so the location of the equivalent load is 3 ft. from the left end of the beam.

The equivalent load $W = wL = \frac{2 \text{ kips} \cdot 6 \text{ ft.}}{\text{ft.}} = 12 \text{ kips}$.

The moment about point A is $\sum M_A = 0 = -12 \text{ kips} \cdot 3 \text{ ft.} + R_B \cdot 20 \text{ ft.}$

Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force $R_B = \frac{12 \text{ kips} \cdot 3 \text{ ft.}}{20 \text{ ft.}} = 1.8 \text{ kips}$.

Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 12 \text{ kips} + 1.8 \text{ kips}$. Solve for the reaction force $R_A = 12 \text{ kips} - 1.8 \text{ kips} = 10.2 \text{ kips}$.

Draw construction lines down from the original load diagram wherever a point load or reaction exists, and wherever a distributed load starts or stops. Calculate the shear loads at these points.

$$V_1 = R_A = 10.2 \text{ kips} \quad V_2 = V_1 - \frac{2 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \cdot 6 \text{ ft.} = -1.8 \text{ kips} \quad V_3 = V_2 + R_B = -1.8 \text{ kips} + 1.8 \text{ kips} = 0 \quad |V|_{\max} = 10.2 \text{ kips}$$

Multiple point loads of increasing load will give you an asymmetric stepped shear diagram.

Example #14 – V diagram for 3 point loads

Draw a complete shear diagram for a simply-supported 4 m beam which has a three different point loads as shown in the load diagram.

Solution Use sum of the moments and sum of the forces to find R_A and R_B .

Calculate the shear loads as follows:

$$V_1 = R_A = 250 \text{ N}$$

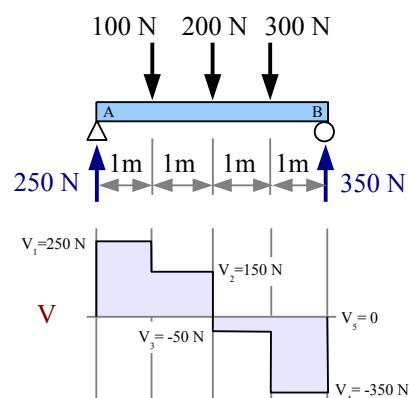
$$V_2 = V_1 - 100 \text{ N} = 150 \text{ N}$$

$$V_3 = V_2 - 200 \text{ N} = -50 \text{ N}$$

$$V_4 = V_3 - 300 \text{ N} = -350 \text{ N}$$

$$V_5 = V_4 + R_B = -350 \text{ N} + 350 \text{ N} = 0$$

In this problem, $|V|_{\max} = 350 \text{ kN}$

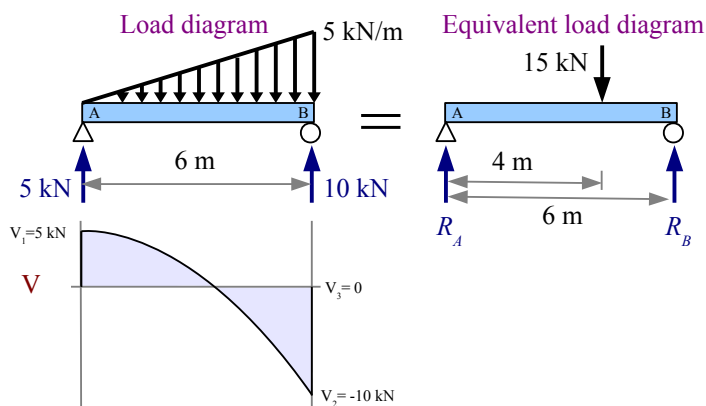


A nonuniformly distributed load produces two different reaction forces. Draw an equivalent load diagram to find the reaction forces. Go back to the *original* load diagram to draw the shear diagram. A wedge-shaped nonuniformly distributed load is like an infinite number of small point loads of increasing magnitude along the length of the beam, so the shear diagram is like the previous stepped multiple point load shear diagram in which the slope of the curve increases parabolically.

Example #15 – V diagram for a nonuniform distributed load

Draw a complete shear diagram for a simply-supported 6 m beam which has a wedge-shaped nonuniform distributed load of 0 kN/m at the left end of the beam to 5 kN/m at the right end of the beam.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram, placing the equivalent load at the centroid of the distributed load. The centroid of a triangle lies two-thirds of the distance from the point of the triangle. Use the equivalent load diagram to find the reaction forces.



The centroid is located at $x = \frac{2}{3}L = \frac{2 \cdot 6 \text{ m}}{3} = 4 \text{ m}$, measuring from the left end of the beam. The equivalent load is the average of the minimum and maximum distributed loads times the length of the distributed load:

$$W = \frac{(0+5) \text{ kN}}{2} \cdot \frac{6 \text{ m}}{\text{m}} = 15 \text{ kN}.$$

The moment about point A is $\sum M_A = 0 = -15 \text{ kN} \cdot 4 \text{ m} + R_B \cdot 6 \text{ m}$. Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force

$$R_B = \frac{15 \text{ kN} \cdot 4 \text{ m}}{6 \text{ m}} = 10 \text{ kN}.$$

Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 15 \text{ kN} + 10 \text{ kN}$. Solve for $R_A = 15 \text{ kN} - 10 \text{ kN} = 5 \text{ kN}$.

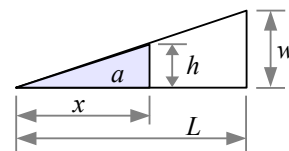
Draw construction lines down from the original load diagram at the two reaction forces. Calculate the shear loads at these points.

$$V_1 = R_A = 5 \text{ kN} \qquad V_2 = V_1 - 15 \text{ kN} = -10 \text{ kN} \qquad V_3 = V_2 + R_B = -10 \text{ kN} + 10 \text{ kN} = 0 \qquad |V|_{\max} = 10 \text{ kN}$$

The shear line crosses the axis where the area of the distributed load equals R_A . The area of the distributed load is one half the base times the height of the triangle, or $a = \frac{xh}{2}$. By

similar triangles, the height of the little triangle $h = \frac{x}{L}w$, so $a = \frac{x^2 w}{2L} = R_A$. Solving,

$x = \sqrt{\frac{2LR_A}{w}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \cdot 6 \text{ m} \cdot 5 \text{ kN}}{5 \text{ kN}}} = 3.46 \text{ m}$. The shear line crosses the axis 3.46 m from the left end of the beam.



Look at the shear diagrams, and you can see that point loads create rectangles, uniform distributed loads create triangles, and wedge-shaped (triangular) distributed loads create parabolas.

Shear diagrams for cantilever beams follow the same rules as for simply supported beams. First, find the reactions; next, draw the shear diagram using construction lines wherever a point load occurs or a distributed load starts or stops.

Example #16 - V diagram for a point load on a cantilever beam

Draw a complete shear diagram for a 10 foot cantilever beam having a 5 kip point load 8 feet from the wall.

Solution Since there is no reaction force at the left end, there is no shear load until we get to the applied load. Then, the shear load is negative (downward) until we get to the support, where R_B is positive (upward).

The reaction moment at the wall is $\sum M_{\text{wall}} = 0 = M_B + 5 \text{ kips} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.}$ therefore $M_B = -5 \text{ kips} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.} = -40 \text{ kip ft.}$ The negative sign tells us that the reaction moment is drawn backwards; it is actually a clockwise reaction moment.

Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_B - 5 \text{ kips}$ therefore $R_B = 5 \text{ kips}$.

Draw construction lines down from the original load diagram at the point load and the reaction force. Calculate the shear loads at these points.

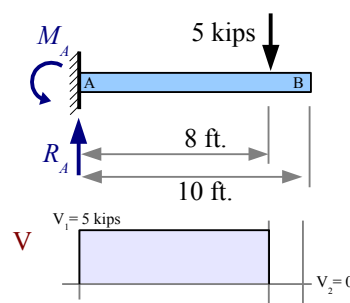
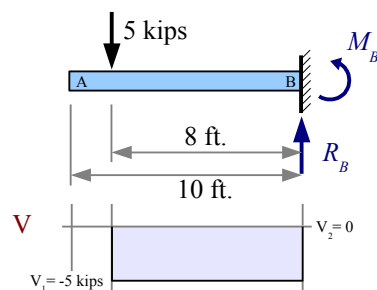
$$V_1 = P = -5 \text{ kips} \quad V_2 = V_1 + 5 \text{ kips} = 0 \quad |V|_{\text{max}} = 5 \text{ kips}$$

If the wall is at the left, then $\sum M_{\text{wall}} = 0 = M_A - 5 \text{ kips} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.}$ so $M_A = 5 \text{ kips} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.} = 40 \text{ kip ft.}$ The positive sign tells us that the reaction moment is drawn correctly, counterclockwise.

Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 5 \text{ kips}$ therefore $R_A = 5 \text{ kips}$, the same reaction force as before.

The shear diagram looks different; instead of hanging below the axis, the shear curve lies above the axis. Go up 5 kips at the wall, straight across, then down 5 kips at the applied load.

$$V_1 = R_A = 5 \text{ kips} \quad V_2 = V_1 - 5 \text{ kips} = 0 \quad |V|_{\text{max}} = 5 \text{ kips}$$

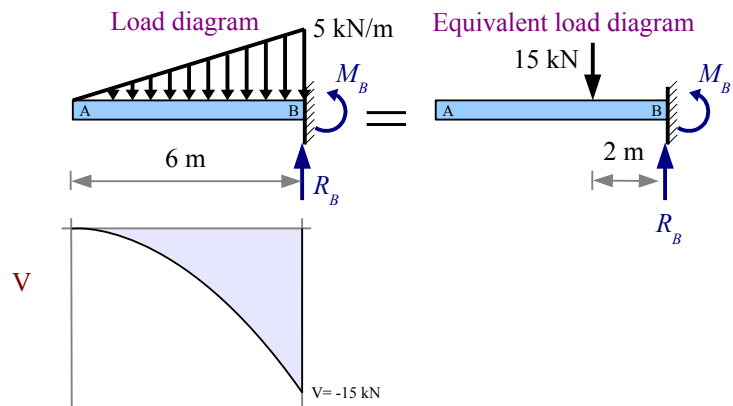


Example #17 – V diagram for a nonuniform distributed load on a cantilever beam

The beam in Example #15 is supported as a cantilever beam. Draw a complete shear diagram.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram as in Example #15 to find $R_B = 15 \text{ kN}$ and $M_B = -15 \text{ kN} \times 2 \text{ m} = -30 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$.

The path of the shear curve is identical to the curve in Example #15, although the starting and ending points have different values.



With a shear diagram, we can identify the location and size of the largest shear load in a beam. Therefore, we know the location of the largest shear stress, and we can calculate the value of this stress. Once we know the actual stress in the material, we can compare this values with the shear strength of the material, and we can know whether the beam will fail in shear. Shear diagrams are necessary for drawing *bending moment diagrams* (“moment diagrams”, for short), which we can use to identify the location and size of bending stresses that develop within beams. We can compare the actual bending stresses with the yield strength of the material, and we can know whether the beam will fail in bending.

Moment Diagrams

The moment about a point along a beam is defined as the distance from that point to a force acting perpendicular to the beam, so the units are force \times distance: lb. \cdot ft. (or ft. \cdot lb. – the order does not matter), lb. \cdot in., kip \cdot ft., N \cdot m, or kN \cdot m. We can graph the value of the bending moment along a beam by drawing a moment diagram.

To draw a moment diagram, sketch the value of the moment produced by the shear force V times the distance from the left end of the beam. At the first meter, $V = 15$ kN, so moment $M_1 = 15 \text{ kN} \times 1 \text{ m} = 15 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$.

At 2 m, $M_2 = M_1 + 15 \text{ kN} \times 1 \text{ m} = 30 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$

At 3 m, $M_3 = M_2 + 15 \text{ kN} \times 1 \text{ m} = 45 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$

At 4 m, $M_4 = M_3 + 15 \text{ kN} \times 1 \text{ m} = 60 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$

At 5 m, $M_5 = M_4 - 15 \text{ kN} \times 1 \text{ m} = 45 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$

At 6 m, $M_6 = M_5 - 15 \text{ kN} \times 1 \text{ m} = 30 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$

At 7 m, $M_7 = M_6 - 15 \text{ kN} \times 1 \text{ m} = 15 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$

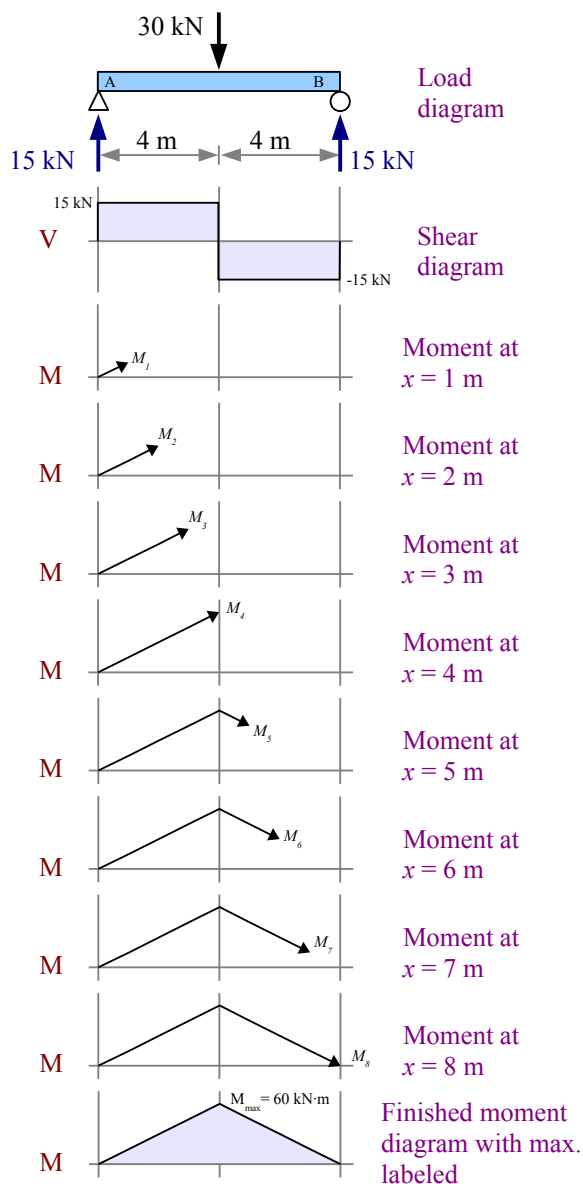
At 8 m, $M_8 = M_7 - 15 \text{ kN} \times 1 \text{ m} = 0 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$

Shade the finished diagram, marking all significant points (places where the moment line changes direction). The most important point is the maximum absolute value of M ; this is where the maximum bending stress occurs in the beam.

The value of the moment diagram at any point equals the area of the shear diagram up to that point. The shear diagram has positive areas above the zero line, and negative areas below the zero line. When the shear area is positive, the moment increases; when the shear area is negative, the moment decreases.

You can draw the moment diagram faster by calculating the area of the left-hand rectangle in the shear diagram:

$M_{\max} = 15 \text{ kN} \times 4 \text{ m} = 60 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$. Verify that $M_8 = 0$ by subtracting the area of the second rectangle in the shear diagram: $M_8 = M_{\max} - 15 \text{ kN} \times 4 \text{ m} = 0 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$.

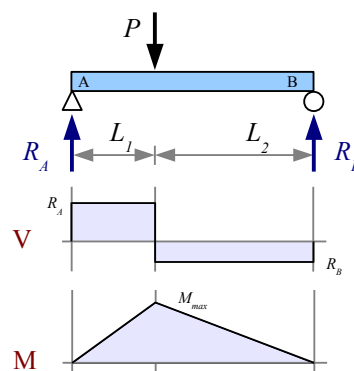


Chapter 8: Beam Reactions, Shear Diagrams, and Moment Diagrams

It is a good idea to check the moment at point B. If you end up with a value other than 0, then you know there is a mistake someplace.* Most likely, the error is in the reaction forces. You can draw a shear diagram that works with the wrong reaction forces, but you cannot draw a good moment diagram if R_A and R_B are wrong. This is an amazing feature of moment diagrams – they tell you if your solution is right!

If the point load is not at the midspan, then the maximum moment will also be offset. In this example, the maximum moment is the area of the shear diagram up to the point load: $M_{max} = R_A \cdot L_1$.

Multiple point loads will give you multiple rectangles on the shear diagram, and multiple triangles on the moment diagram.



Example #18 – V & M diagrams for 3 point loads

Draw complete shear and moment diagrams for an 8 foot long, simply-supported beam having 100 lb. point loads every 2 feet.

Solution The loading is symmetrical, therefore the reaction forces R_A and R_B are each equal to half the total applied load.

$$R_A = R_B = (100 \text{ lb.} + 100 \text{ lb.} + 100 \text{ lb.}) / 2 = 150 \text{ lb.}$$

Draw construction lines down from the load diagram at each reaction force and applied load. The shear diagram is a series of rectangles.

Calculate the values on the moment diagram as follows:

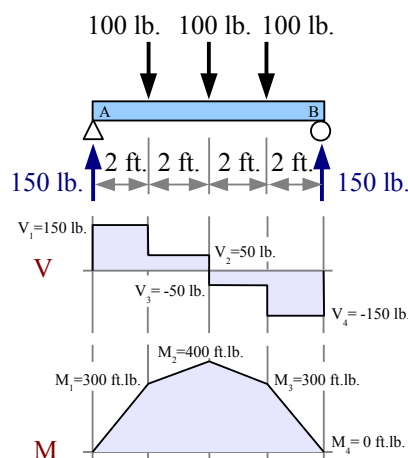
$$M_1 = 2 \text{ ft.} \times 150 \text{ lb.} = 300 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$$

$$M_2 = M_1 + 2 \text{ ft.} \times 50 \text{ lb.} = 400 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$$

$$M_3 = M_2 - 2 \text{ ft.} \times 50 \text{ lb.} = 300 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$$

$$M_4 = M_3 - 2 \text{ ft.} \times 150 \text{ lb.} = 0 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$$

$$|M|_{max} = 400 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$$



* Zero...or close to zero relative to the magnitude of the numbers on your moment diagram. If M_{max} is 400 ft·lb., and you land at 10 ft·lb. instead of zero, look for a mistake in the calculations. If M_{max} is 40,000 ft·lb., and you land at 10 ft·lb. instead of zero, the difference is round-off error and you can ignore it.

Chapter 8: Beam Reactions, Shear Diagrams, and Moment Diagrams

A uniformly distributed load produces a parabolic moment diagram. Close to point A, a large shear produces a steep slope in the moment diagram. As you approach the midspan, the smaller shear produces a shallower slope in the moment diagram. Beyond the midspan, an increasingly negative shear produces an increasingly steeper slope downwards.

The maximum moment equals the area of the left-hand triangle. Subtract the area of the right-hand triangle to get the moment at point B.

Example #19 – V & M diagrams for a uniform distributed load

Draw complete shear and moment diagrams for an 8 meter long, simply-supported beam having a uniform distributed load of 3 kN/m.

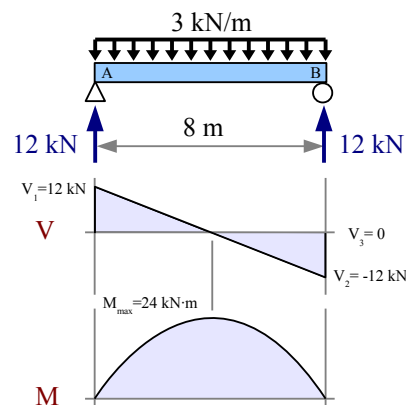
Solution The loading is symmetrical, therefore the reaction forces R_A and R_B are each equal to half the total applied load. $R_A = R_B = \frac{3 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \frac{8 \text{ m}}{2} = 12 \text{ kN}$

Draw construction lines down from the load diagram at each reaction force. The shear diagram is two triangles. Draw a construction line down from where the shear line crosses the zero axis.

The max. moment is equal to the area of the left-hand triangle: the base times the height divided by 2. The base of the triangle is half the beam length, 4 m.

$M_{\max} = \frac{12 \text{ kN} \times 4 \text{ m}}{2} = 24 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$ The moment at point B is the moment at the midspan minus the area of the right-hand triangle.

$$M_B = M_{\max} - \frac{12 \text{ kN} \times 4 \text{ m}}{2} = 0 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$



We've seen that a nonuniform wedge-shaped distributed load produces a parabolic shear diagram. The moment diagram looks like a parabola skewed to the right, with the maximum moment at the point where the shear diagram crosses the zero-load axis.

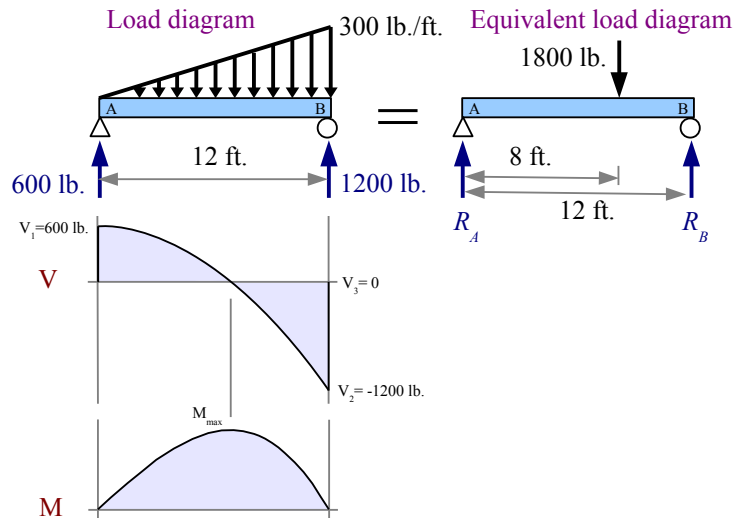
Example #20 – V & M diagrams for a nonuniform distributed load

Draw complete shear and moment diagrams for a 12 foot long, simply-supported beam having a wedge-shaped nonuniform distributed load of 0 lb./ft. at the left end of the beam and 300 lb./ft. at the right end of the beam.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram, placing the equivalent point load at the centroid of the distributed load. The centroid of a triangle lies $\frac{2}{3}$ of the distance from the tip of the triangle. Use the equivalent load diagram to find the reaction forces.

The centroid of the triangular load profile lies at $x = \frac{2}{3}L = \frac{2 \cdot 12 \text{ ft.}}{3} = 8 \text{ ft.}$, measuring from point A.

The equivalent load is the average of the minimum



and maximum distributed loads times the length of the distributed load: $W = \frac{(0 + 300) \text{ lb.}}{2} \cdot \frac{12 \text{ ft.}}{\text{ft.}} = 1800 \text{ lb.}$

The moment about point A is $\sum M_A = 0 = -1800 \text{ lb.} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.} + R_B \cdot 12 \text{ ft.}$. Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force

$R_B = \frac{1800 \text{ lb.} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.}}{12 \text{ ft.}} = 1200 \text{ lb.}$ Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 1800 \text{ lb.} + 1200 \text{ lb.}$ Solve for $R_A = 1800 \text{ lb.} - 1200 \text{ lb.} = 600 \text{ lb.}$

Draw construction lines down from the original load diagram at the two reaction forces. Calculate the shear loads at these points. $V_1 = R_A = 600 \text{ lb.}$, $V_2 = V_1 - 1800 \text{ lb.} = -1200 \text{ lb.}$, $V_3 = V_2 + R_B = -1200 \text{ lb.} + 1200 \text{ lb.} = 0$

Draw a construction line down from the shear diagram where the shear line crosses the zero axis – this construction line marks the location of the max. moment. We need to find the location of this point in order to calculate the max. moment.

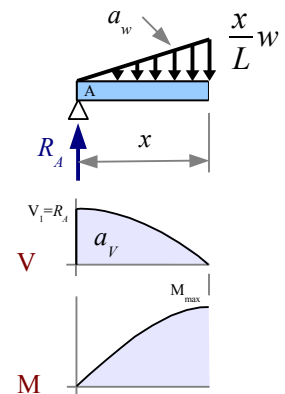
Consider that the value of V at any point along the shear diagram equals the reaction force R_A minus the area of the distributed load, a_w : $V = R_A - a_w$. The area of the triangle-shaped distributed load at any point equals one-half the base times the height of the triangle. Let the base be x , the distance from the left end of the beam. The height is a fraction of the distributed load w at point B. By similar triangles, height $= \frac{x}{L} w$, so area

$a_w = \frac{1}{2} x \frac{x}{L} w = \frac{x^2 w}{2L}$ and shear force $V = R_A - \frac{x^2 w}{2L}$. Where the shear line crosses the zero

line, $V = 0$, therefore $x = \sqrt{\frac{2LR_A}{w}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \cdot 12 \text{ ft.} \cdot 600 \text{ lb.}}{300 \text{ lb./ft.}}} = 6.928 \text{ ft.}$

The maximum moment is equal to the area of the shear diagram to the left of this construction line. Since the shear diagram is a parabola, the area of the shear diagram to the left of the construction line is $\frac{2}{3}$ of the base of the parabola times its height.

$M_{max} = a_V = \frac{2}{3} V_1 x = \frac{2 \cdot 600 \text{ lb.} \cdot 6.928 \text{ ft.}}{3} = 2770 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$



So far, all of the examples have shown moment diagrams with positive areas. A cantilever beam with a downward point load has a negative area in the moment diagram.

Example #21 – V & M diagrams for point load on a cantilever beam

Draw complete shear and moment diagrams for a cantilever beam having a point load of 5 kips, located 7 feet from the wall.

Solution By inspection, the reaction force $R_B = 5$ kips. The shear diagram is a rectangle, so the moment diagram will be a triangle.

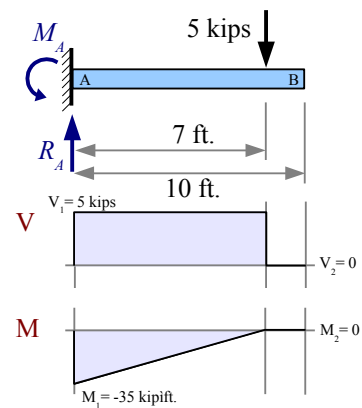
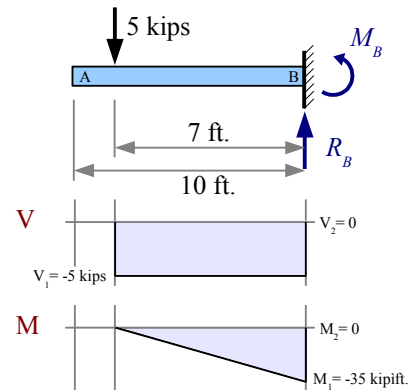
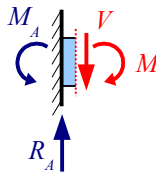
$\sum M_{wall} = 0 = M_B + 5 \text{ kips} \times 7 \text{ ft.}$ therefore $M_B = -35 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}$. The negative sign tells us that the moment reaction is actually clockwise.

In this problem, $|M|_{max} = 35 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}$

If the support is at the left, then the solution is a mirror image. As before, the reaction force $R_A = 5$ kips. $\sum M_{wall} = 0 = M_B - 5 \text{ kips} \times 7 \text{ ft.}$ therefore $M_A = 35 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}$. This is the moment reaction at the wall.

A few pages ago, we said “the value of the moment diagram at any point equals the area of the shear diagram up to that point,” which is true if we only have simple supports. However, the value of the moment diagram also changes if we have an applied moment or a reaction moment.

Think about the internal shear force and moment in the beam a short distance from the wall. The moment in the beam is equal and opposite to the moment at the wall, therefore $M_1 = -35 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}$, which is why the moment diagram starts at this value. The moment diagram slopes up to the right because the rectangle in the shear diagram is a positive area.



The shear diagram of a cantilever beam with a uniform distributed load is a triangle. Use an equivalent load diagram to find the reaction force and reaction moment, then draw shear and moment diagrams below the original load diagram.

Example #22 – V & M diagrams for a uniform distributed load on a cantilever beam

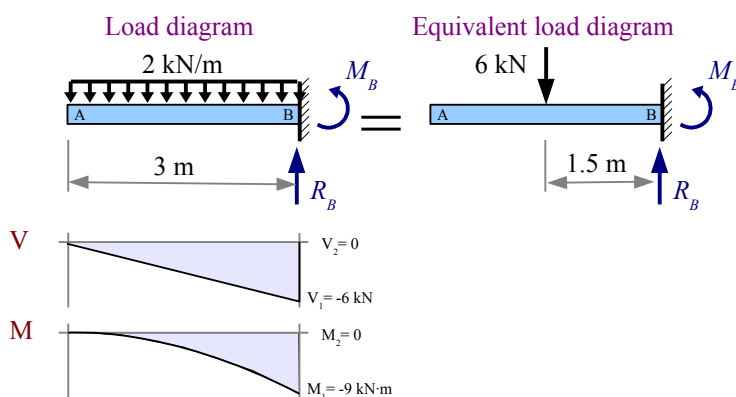
Draw complete shear and moment diagrams for a 3 m long cantilever beam having a uniform distributed load of 2 kN/m along its length.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram, placing the equivalent point load at the centroid of the distributed load. The centroid of a rectangle lies at the halfway point. Use the equivalent load diagram to find the reaction force and reaction moment.

$$R_B = \frac{2 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \frac{3 \text{ m}}{1} = 6 \text{ kN}$$

$$M_B = -6 \text{ kN} \times 1.5 \text{ m} = -9 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

The shear diagram is a triangle, so the moment diagram is a parabola with $|M|_{\max} = 9 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$.



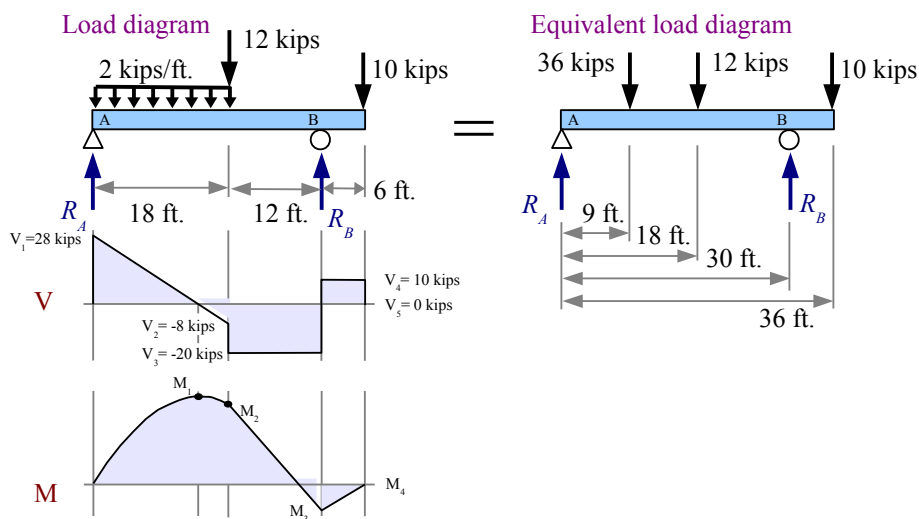
Follow the same procedures to draw the shear and moment diagrams of an overhanging beam with a distributed load and a two point loads.

Example #23 – V & M diagrams for an overhanging beam

Draw complete shear and moment diagrams for a 36 foot long overhanging beam having a uniform distributed load and two point loads as shown.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram, placing the equivalent point load at the centroid of the distributed load, which is 9 ft. from point A.

Use the equivalent load diagram to find the reaction forces, then draw the shear and moment diagrams below the original load diagram.



Example #23, continued

$$R_B = \frac{36 \text{ kips} \cdot 9 \text{ ft.} + 12 \text{ kips} \cdot 18 \text{ ft.} + 10 \text{ kips} \cdot 36 \text{ ft.}}{30 \text{ ft.}} = 30 \text{ kips}, \quad R_A = 36 \text{ kips} + 12 \text{ kips} + 10 \text{ kips} - 30 \text{ kips} = 28 \text{ kips}$$

Calculate the shear values: $V_1 = R_A = 28 \text{ kips}$, $V_2 = V_1 - \frac{2 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \cdot 18 \text{ ft.} = -8 \text{ kips}$, $V_3 = V_2 - 12 \text{ kips} = -20 \text{ kips}$,
 $V_4 = V_3 + 30 \text{ kips} = 10 \text{ kips}$, $V_5 = V_4 - 10 \text{ kips} = 0 \text{ kips}$

The moment curve starts with a parabola going up until the shear curve crosses zero; once the shear is negative, the moment curve drops parabolically until the end of the distributed load. In order to calculate the moment values, we need to know where the shear curve crosses the zero line. Use similar triangles to find x , then calculate the area of the left-hand

triangle in the shear diagram: $x = 18 \text{ ft.} \cdot \frac{28 \text{ kips}}{36 \text{ kips}} = 14 \text{ ft.}$

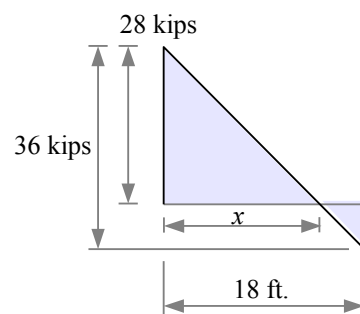
The area of the left-hand triangle is $M_1 = \frac{28 \text{ kips} \cdot 14 \text{ ft.}}{2} = 196 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$

Subtract the area of the right-hand triangle to find

$$M_2 = M_1 - \frac{8 \text{ kips} \cdot 4 \text{ ft.}}{2} = 180 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$$

Subtract the lower rectangle to find $M_3 = M_2 - 20 \text{ kips} \cdot 12 \text{ ft.} = -60 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$ Add the upper rectangle to find $M_4 = M_3 + 10 \text{ kips} \cdot 6 \text{ ft.} = 0 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$

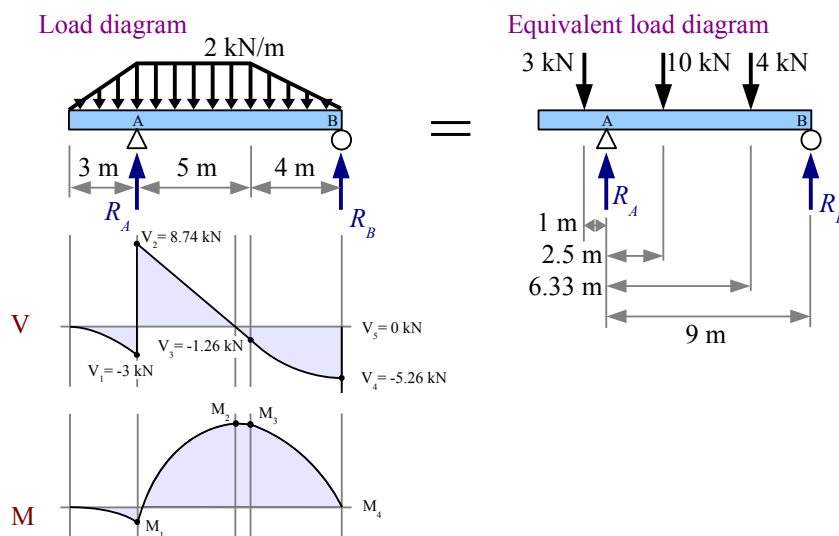
In this problem, $|M|_{\max} = 196 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$

**Example #24 - V & M diagrams for a nonuniform distributed load on an overhanging beam**

Draw complete shear and moment diagrams for a 12 meter long overhanging beam having a uniform distributed load and two nonuniform distributed loads.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram, placing the equivalent point loads at the centroids of the distributed loads (two triangular distributed loads and one rectangular distributed load).

Use the equivalent load diagram to find the reaction forces, then draw the shear and moment diagrams below the original load diagram.



Example #24, continued

The equivalent loads are $\frac{2 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \frac{3 \text{ m}}{2} = 3 \text{ kN}$, $\frac{2 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \frac{5 \text{ m}}{2} = 10 \text{ kN}$, and $\frac{2 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \frac{4 \text{ m}}{2} = 4 \text{ kN}$.

$$R_B = \frac{-3 \text{ kN} \cdot 1 \text{ m} + 10 \text{ kN} \cdot 2.5 \text{ m} + 4 \text{ kN} \cdot 6.33 \text{ m}}{9 \text{ m}} = 5.26 \text{ kN}, \quad R_A = 3 \text{ kN} + 10 \text{ kN} + 4 \text{ kN} - 5.26 \text{ kN} = 11.74 \text{ kN}$$

The shear diagram goes downward as a concave second-degree parabola under the nonuniform distributed load, straight up at R_A , downward at a diagonal under the uniform distributed load, then downward as a convex second-degree parabola under the nonuniform distributed load, and straight up at R_B .

Calculate the shear values: $V_1 = \frac{-2 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \frac{3 \text{ m}}{2} = -3 \text{ kN}$, $V_2 = V_1 + R_A = 8.74 \text{ kN}$, $V_3 = V_2 - \frac{2 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \frac{5 \text{ m}}{2} = -1.26 \text{ kN}$,

$$V_4 = V_3 - \frac{-2 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \frac{4 \text{ m}}{2} = -5.26 \text{ kN}, \quad V_5 = V_4 + R_B = 0 \text{ kN}$$

The moment curve goes downward as a concave third-degree parabola. To find the value of M_1 , calculate the area under the concave second-degree parabola at the left end of the shear diagram. From Appendix C, the area under a concave second-degree parabola is $\frac{bh}{3}$. Since $b=3 \text{ m}$ and $h=-3 \text{ kN}$, $M_1 = \frac{-3 \text{ kN} \cdot 3 \text{ m}}{3} = -3 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$

In order to calculate M_2 , we need to know where the shear curve crosses the zero line. Use similar triangles to find x , then calculate the area of the left-hand triangle in the shear diagram: $x = 5 \text{ m} \frac{8.74 \text{ kN}}{10 \text{ kN}} = 4.37 \text{ m}$

$$M_2 = M_1 + \frac{8.74 \text{ kN} \cdot 4.37 \text{ m}}{2} = 16.1 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

The base of the small triangle in the shear diagram is $5 \text{ m} - 4.37 \text{ m} = 0.63 \text{ m}$.

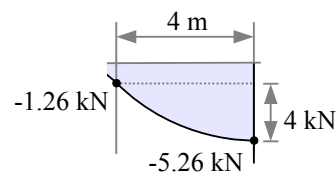
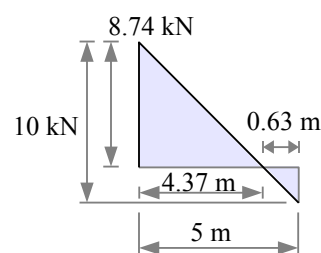
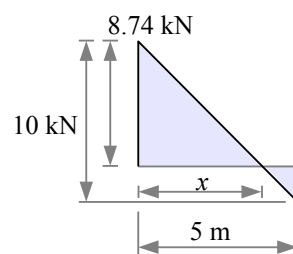
$$M_3 = M_2 - \frac{1.26 \text{ kN} \cdot 0.63 \text{ m}}{2} = 15.7 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

We could assume that $M_4 = 0 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$ to finish the moment diagram, but it's best to calculate it, to be sure that there are no errors in the reaction force calculations.

The rightmost segment in the shear diagram is a rectangle and a convex second degree parabola. From Appendix C, the area of a convex second degree parabola is $\frac{2bh}{3}$.

$$M_4 = M_3 - 1.26 \text{ kN} \cdot 4 \text{ m} - \frac{2 \cdot 4 \text{ m} \cdot 4 \text{ kN}}{3} = 0 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

In this problem, $|V_{\max}| = 8.74 \text{ kN}$ and $|M_{\max}| = 16.1 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$



Some engineering solutions require an algebraic solution. Imagine you are designing a set of beams using the same general loading case, but the loads change from one case to the next. If you can develop an algebraic solution, then you can plug in the numbers for each case (perhaps with a computer program) instead of solving every case from scratch. Example #25 shows how to create shear and moment diagrams for an algebraic problem.

Example #25 – V & M diagrams for a point load and uniform distributed load on an overhanging beam

Draw complete algebraic shear and moment diagrams for an overhanging beam loaded as shown.

Solution Draw an equivalent load diagram, placing the equivalent point load at the centroid of the distributed load.

Use Sum of the Moments and Sum of the Forces to find the reactions at points A and B.

$$R_B = \frac{-Pa + wb \cdot 0.5b}{b} = \frac{-Pa}{b} + \frac{wb}{2}$$

$$R_A = P + wb - R_B = P + \frac{Pa}{b} + \frac{wb}{2}$$

$$V_1 = -P$$

$$V_2 = V_1 + R_A = \frac{Pa}{b} + \frac{wb}{2}$$

$$V_3 = V_2 - wb = \frac{Pa}{b} - \frac{wb}{2}$$

$$V_4 = V_3 + R_B = 0$$

$$M_1 = -V_1 a = -Pa$$

Use Similar Triangles to determine the base of the upper triangle. The overall height is the weight per unit length times the distance it acts upon, bw .

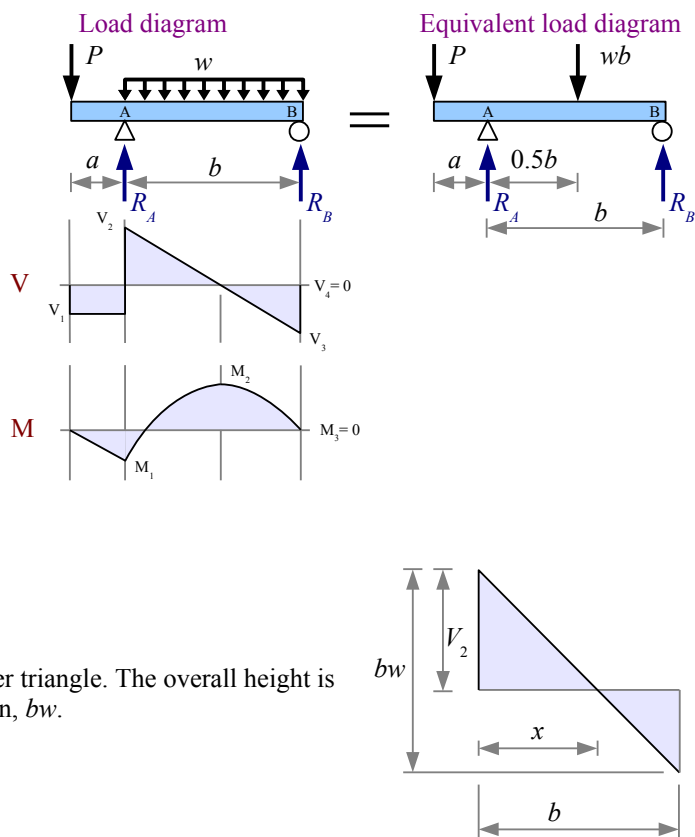
$$x = b \frac{V_2}{bw} = \frac{V_2}{w} = \frac{\frac{Pa}{b} + \frac{wb}{2}}{w} = \frac{Pa}{bw} + \frac{b}{2}$$

$$M_2 = M_1 + \frac{V_2 x}{2} = -Pa + \frac{\left(\frac{Pa}{b} + \frac{wb}{2}\right)\left(\frac{Pa}{bw} + \frac{b}{2}\right)}{2} = \frac{P^2 a^2}{2b^2 w} - \frac{Pa}{2} + \frac{wb^2}{8}$$

The base of the lower triangle is $b - x = b - \left(\frac{Pa}{bw} + \frac{b}{2}\right) = \frac{b}{2} - \frac{Pa}{bw}$

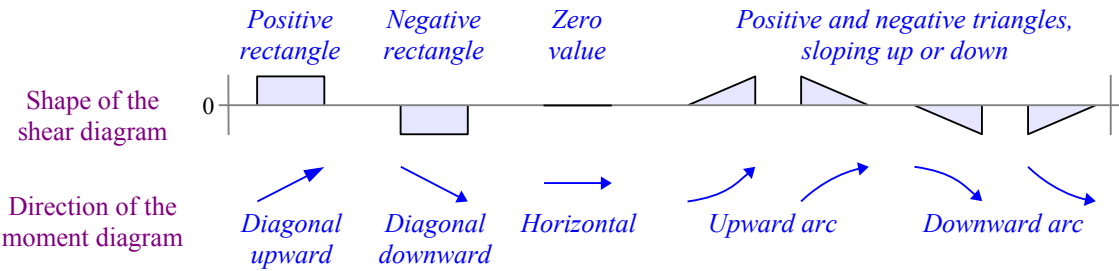
$$\begin{aligned} M_3 &= M_2 + \frac{V_3(b-x)}{2} = M_2 + \frac{\left(\frac{Pa}{b} - \frac{wb}{2}\right)\left(\frac{b}{2} - \frac{Pa}{bw}\right)}{2} = M_2 + \frac{\frac{Pab}{2b} - \frac{P^2 a^2}{b^2 w} - \frac{wb^2}{4} + \frac{Pabw}{2bw}}{2} \\ &= M_2 + \frac{\frac{Pa}{2} - \frac{P^2 a^2}{b^2 w} - \frac{wb^2}{4} + \frac{Pa}{2}}{2} = \frac{P^2 a^2}{2b^2 w} - \frac{Pa}{2} + \frac{wb^2}{8} + \frac{Pa}{2} - \frac{P^2 a^2}{2b^2 w} - \frac{wb^2}{8} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

We do not know in advance whether $M_{\max} = M_1$ or $M_{\max} = M_2$...it depends on the values of a , b , w , and P .



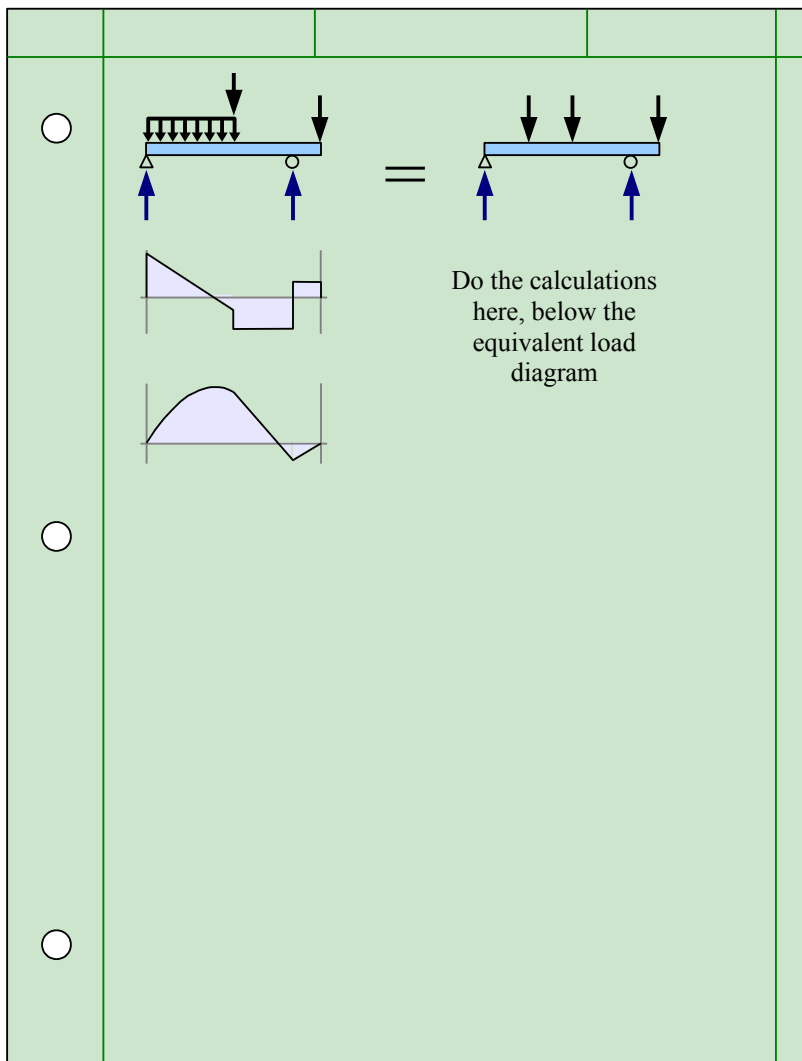
In summary, the value of the moment diagram at a given point equals the area of the shear diagram up to that point. The slope of the moment diagram at a given point equals the value of the shear load at that point.	Load type	Shear diagram shape	Moment diagram shape
	Point	Rectangles	Triangles
	Uniform distributed	Triangles	Parabolas (2 nd degree)
	Wedge-shaped nonuniform distributed	Parabolas (2 nd degree)	Parabolas (3 rd degree)

Shear and moment diagrams are related to each other in the same way that derivatives and integrals are related to each other in calculus. The *value* of the shear diagram is the *slope* of the moment diagram. If the shear value is positive, the moment diagram heads upwards. If the value of the shear diagram is negative, the moment diagram heads downwards. If the value of the shear diagram is zero, then the moment value is constant. Triangles in a shear diagram create parabolic curves in the moment diagram.



Solution Layout

One easy mistake to make in solving beam problems is to draw shear and moment diagrams below the *equivalent* load diagram, instead of below the *actual* load diagram. You can avoid this mistake by using the space below the equivalent load diagram for your calculations. If you do that, the only remaining space for the shear and moment diagrams is immediately below the actual load diagram.

**Key Equations**

Use $\sum M_A = 0$ and $\sum F_y = 0$ to find reaction forces for simply-supported beams.

Use $\sum M_{wall} = 0$ and $\sum F_y = 0$ to find the reaction moment and reaction force for cantilever beams.

Chapter 9: Stresses in Beams

In the last chapter, we learned how to draw shear and bending moment diagrams for beams. These diagrams tell us the location and magnitude of the maximum shear load and maximum bending moment. We can use V_{max} and M_{max} to calculate the maximum shear stress and max. bending stress in a beam, then we can compare these results with the allowable shear stress and bending stress of the material. If the actual value is less than the allowable value, then the beam is safe; if the actual value is greater than the allowable, then we need to select a different beam.

Bending Stress in Beams

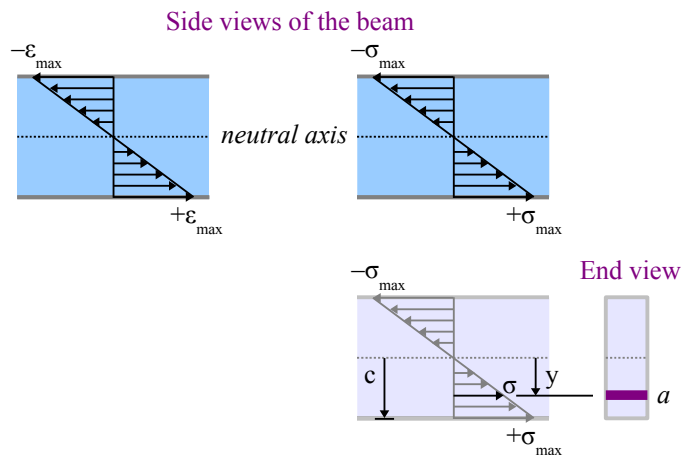
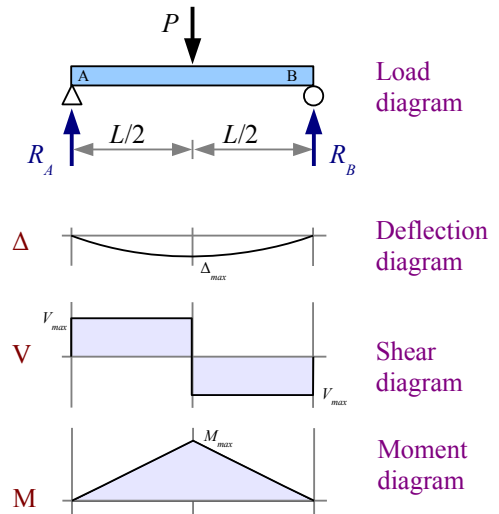
A point load at the midspan of a beam makes the beam bend. We can sketch a *deflection diagram* to show this bending. The deflection diagram shows the beam as if it had no depth, because it is easier to draw a curve than to draw a double curve with shading. A real beam has depth, and when it is bent, the top surface shortens while the bottom surface lengthens...the top surface has a negative strain, while the bottom surface has a positive strain. Plot strain vs. depth: the strain varies linearly from top to bottom, and is zero at the centroidal axis.

We saw in Chapter 2 that materials like steel and aluminum follow Hooke's law: the ratio of stress/strain is Young's modulus, a constant. Therefore, the stress in the beam also varies linearly from top to bottom, and is zero at the centroidal axis of the beam. We call this axis the *neutral axis*, where stress is zero.* This bending stress acts perpendicular to the cross-sectional area of the beam, so the stress is a normal stress; it is negative on the top and positive on the bottom.

We can calculate the bending stress at any position y from the neutral axis: the stress is proportional to the distance from the neutral axis, so $\sigma = \sigma_{max} \frac{y}{c}$ where c is the distance from the neutral axis to the surface of the beam. This is the same meaning of c that we used in torsion problems.

Think about a very small area a at a distance y from the neutral axis. Since stress is force divided by area, the force acting on this area is equal to the stress times the area: $P = \sigma \cdot a = \frac{\sigma_{max} a y}{c}$. The moment of this force with respect to the neutral axis is $M = P \cdot y = \frac{\sigma_{max} a y^2}{c}$. If we sum up the moment for all values of a and y , $M = \frac{\sigma_{max}}{c} \sum_1^n a_i y_i^2$. Recall from Chapter 5, the moment of inertia of a cross-sectional area relative to the x-x centroidal axis is $I_x = \sum_1^n a_i y_i^2$, therefore $M = \frac{\sigma_{max} I_x}{c}$.

Rewrite this equation to solve for bending stress at the surface: $\sigma = \frac{Mc}{I_x}$. This equation is called the *Flexure Formula*.



* The centroidal axis and the neutral axis are the same if the beam is made of a single material that obeys Hooke's law. The centroidal and neutral axes are often different in beams made of composite materials, like steel-reinforced concrete, or glass/epoxy composite.

Chapter 9: Stresses in Beams

We can use the moment equation if we want to know how much bending moment the beam can support. The allowable moment $M_{allowable} = \frac{\sigma_{allowable} I_x}{c}$.

Example #1 – Simply-supported beam with a uniform distributed load

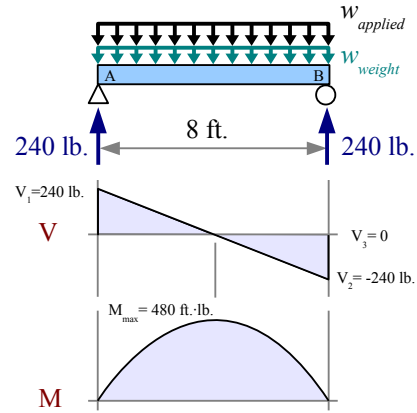
A 4×6 timber beam, 8 feet long, is loaded with a uniform distributed load of 54.65 lb./ft. The beam itself has a weight per unit length of 5.35 lb./ft. What is the maximum bending stress, and where does it occur? Report the answer in psi.

Solution The total uniform distributed load is the applied load plus the weight of the beam, $w_{total} = w_{applied} + w_{weight} = \frac{54.65 \text{ lb.}}{\text{ft.}} + \frac{5.35 \text{ lb.}}{\text{ft.}} = \frac{60 \text{ lb.}}{\text{ft.}}$

The load is symmetrical, so the reaction forces are equal to half of the applied load. $R_A = R_B = \frac{W}{2} = \frac{wL}{2} = \frac{60 \text{ lb.}}{\text{ft.}} \cdot \frac{8 \text{ ft.}}{2} = 240 \text{ lb.}$

The maximum moment equals the area of the left-hand triangle in the shear diagram: half the base times the height. $|M_{max}| = \frac{240 \text{ lb.} \cdot 4 \text{ ft.}}{2} = 480 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$

From Appendix E, $I_x = 48.5 \text{ in.}^4$. Since the depth of a 4×6 timber is 5.5", $c = \frac{h}{2} = \frac{5.5 \text{ in.}}{2} = 2.75 \text{ in.}$ The maximum bending stress occurs at the midspan: $\sigma = \frac{Mc}{I_x} = \frac{480 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.} \cdot (2.75 \text{ in.})}{48.5 \text{ in.}^4} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| = 327 \text{ psi}$. Bending stress diminishes to zero at the ends.



Sawmills produce rough-cut lumber to nominal sizes such as 4 in. by 6 in. Rough-sawn lumber was once widely used in construction, but now nearly all lumber is planed on all four sides to a finished size, so a nominal 4×6 has actual dimensions of 3½×5½ in., as listed in Appendix E.

What happens if you use the nominal dimensions instead of actual dimensions for the timber? $I_x = \frac{4 \text{ in.} \cdot (6 \text{ in.})^3}{12} = 72 \text{ in.}^4$, $c = \frac{6 \text{ in.}}{2} = 3 \text{ in.}$, and $\sigma = \frac{480 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.} \cdot (3 \text{ in.})}{72 \text{ in.}^4} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| = 240 \text{ psi}$, which is 26% lower than the actual stress.

Tables in the Appendix list values for I_x and I_y for many shapes, but no values for c . Instead, the tables give the section modulus, defined as $S_x = \frac{I_x}{c}$ and $S_y = \frac{I_y}{c}$. Section modulus makes the stress calculation easier, because it combines two

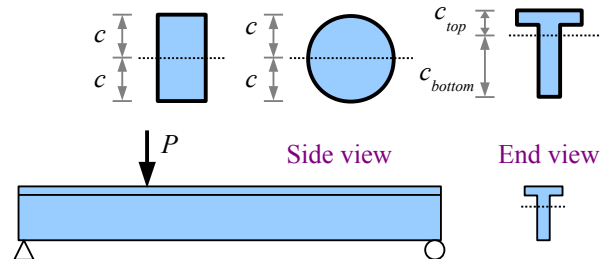
terms into one. Bending stress $\sigma = \frac{Mc}{I_x} = \frac{M}{S_x}$, and allowable

moment $M_{allowable} = \frac{\sigma_{allowable} I_x}{c} = \sigma_{allowable} S_x$. In Example #1,

the section modulus of a 4×6 timber is 17.6 in.³. Bending

stress is $\sigma = \frac{M}{S_x} = \frac{480 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}}{17.6 \text{ in.}^3} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| = 327 \text{ psi}$.

Simple shapes like rectangles and circles are symmetrical about the neutral axis, so the distance c from the neutral axis



Chapter 9: Stresses in Beams

to the top surface is the same as the distance c from the neutral axis to the bottom surface. Compound shapes like a T are not symmetrical about the x - x neutral axis, so there are two values to consider: c_{top} and c_{bottom} . From the flexure formula,

$\sigma = \frac{Mc}{I_x}$, the largest stress occurs on the surface with the largest value of c . In the case of a T-shaped beam loaded on the

top flange as shown, the largest stress is the tensile stress along the bottom surface of the beam: $\sigma = \frac{M c_{bottom}}{I_x}$.

Example #2 – Allowable bending moment of a timber beam

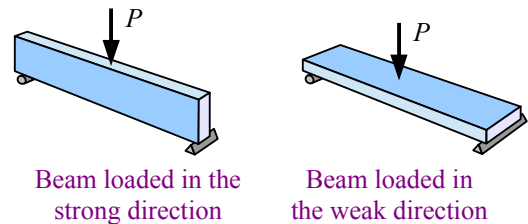
What is the allowable moment of a 2×4 Douglas fir beam? Report the answer in ft.·lb.

Solution The allowable moment is the largest bending moment that a beam can support. From Appendix E, the section modulus of a 2×4 timber is 3.06 in.³, and the allowable bending stress is 900 psi.

The allowable moment is $M_{allowable} = \sigma_{allowable} S_x = \frac{900 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot \frac{3.06 \text{ in.}^3}{12 \text{ in.}} = 230 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$

Loading Direction

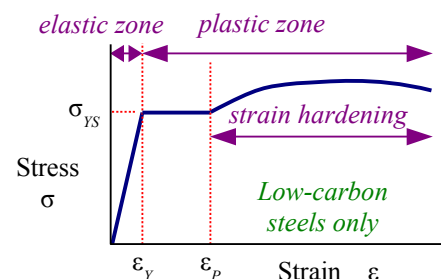
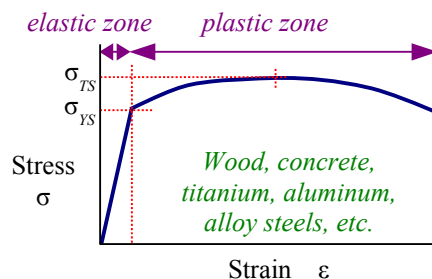
The direction of loading affects both the bending stress and the amount of deflection of a beam. A wood board used as a joist bends less and develops less bending stress than it would as a plank, so we describe the two loading directions as *strong* and *weak*. We use I_x and S_x for beams loaded in the strong direction, and I_y and S_y for beams loaded in the weak direction.



Bending Stress in Wide-Flange Steel Beams

Stress-strain diagrams for many materials are simplified as a cartoon showing a straight line segment for elastic behavior followed by an arc for plastic behavior. In the elastic zone, stress is proportional to strain; the ratio is Young's modulus

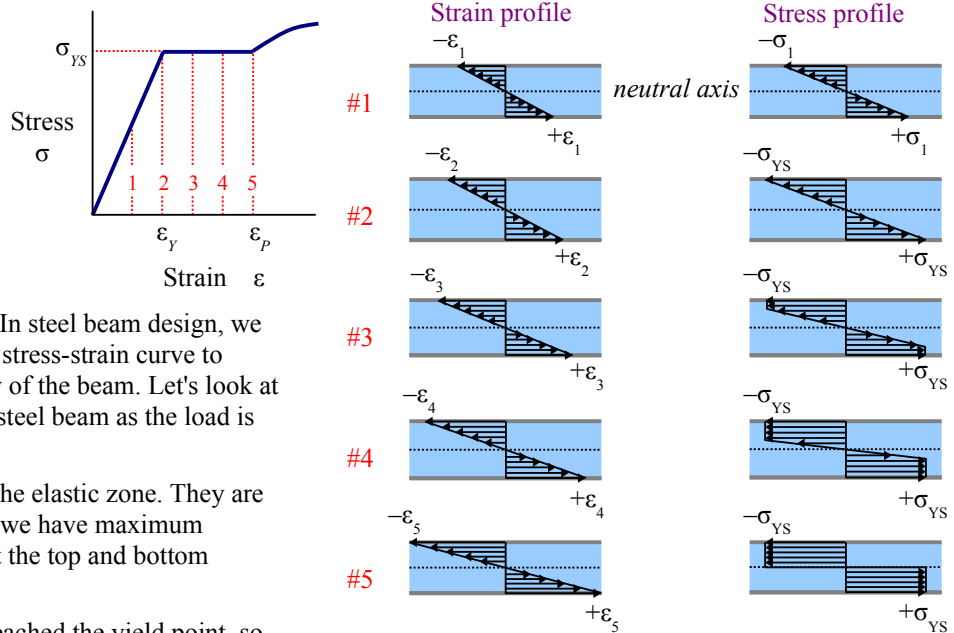
$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$$



Almost all equations in this book apply only to the elastic zone. In the plastic zone, the stress required to stretch the material increases due to *strain hardening* (also called *work hardening*) until the stress reaches a peak at the tensile strength of the material. After the peak, the material begins to thin, and the cross-sectional area shrinks, so there is less material to support the load, and eventually the material breaks.

Chapter 9: Stresses in Beams

Low-carbon steel used for wide-flange beams has an elastic zone followed by a horizontal plastic zone in which the stress does not change, so there is no strain hardening. The stress-strain curve for low-carbon sheet steel in Chapter 2 shows this effect clearly. As the strain builds up, eventually strain hardening begins, and the stress-strain curve arcs upwards. In steel beam design, we can use the horizontal part of the stress-strain curve to extend the load-carrying capacity of the beam. Let's look at the strain and stress profiles in a steel beam as the load is increased:



Point #1 Strain and stress are in the elastic zone. They are both zero at the neutral axis, and we have maximum compressive and tensile values at the top and bottom surfaces.

Point #2 Strain and stress have reached the yield point, so $\epsilon_2 = \epsilon_Y$ and $\sigma_2 = \sigma_{YS}$, the yield strength of the material.

Point #3 Strain continues to increase, but the stress does not exceed the yield strength. Material below the surface reaches the yield point, down to a certain depth. Below this depth, the interior bending stress remains in the elastic zone.

Point #4 Strain continues to increase. More of the material below the surface reaches the yield point, but the core is in the elastic zone.

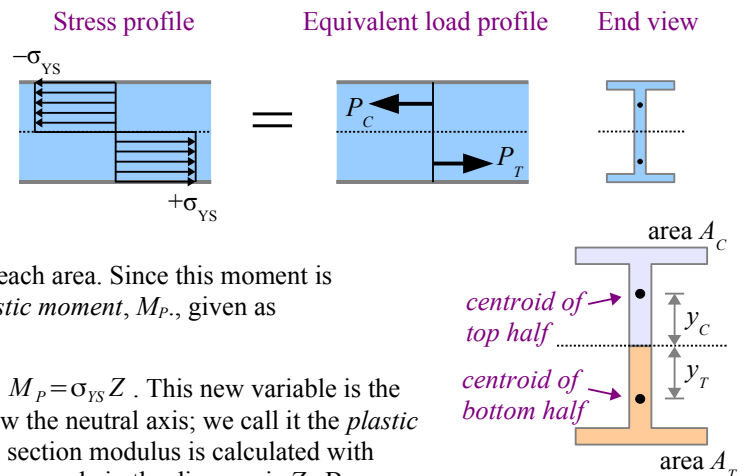
Point #5 Strain reaches the point of strain hardening, $\epsilon_5 = \epsilon_P$. All of the material has reached the yield point, becoming fully plastic. Any additional load on the beam will cause the beam to fail by bending at this location, like two hinged bars.

We can draw an equivalent load diagram for the fully-plastic beam at Point #5. The compressive force acting above the neutral axis equals the yield strength times the cross-sectional area of the beam in compression (the area above the neutral axis):

$P_C = \sigma_{YS} \cdot A_C$. Likewise, the tensile force below the neutral axis is $P_T = \sigma_{YS} \cdot A_T$. The beam develops an internal moment to counteract these forces, equal to each force times the distance from the neutral axis of the beam to the centroidal axis of each area. Since this moment is counteracting fully-plastic loading, we call it the *plastic moment*, M_P , given as

$$M_P = P_C y_C + P_T y_T = \sigma_{YS} A_C y_C + \sigma_{YS} A_T y_T.$$

If we define a new variable $Z = A_C y_C + A_T y_T$, then $M_P = \sigma_{YS} Z$. This new variable is the sum of the first moments of the areas above and below the neutral axis; we call it the *plastic section modulus*. Like section modulus, S , the plastic section modulus is calculated with reference to either the x - x or the y - y neutral axis. The example in the diagram is Z_x . Beams loaded in the strong direction will use Z_x ; beams that are either loaded from the side or tipped on the side will use Z_y .



Chapter 9: Stresses in Beams

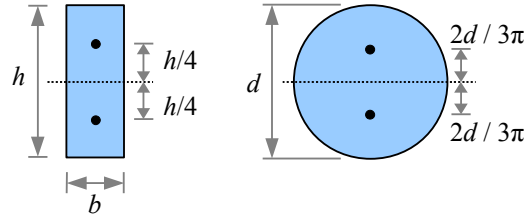
We can easily calculate Z for simple shapes; you can find Z_x and Z_y for complex shapes like wide-flanged beams in the Appendix.

Rectangle Each area is half the area of the rectangle. Each moment arm is half the height of each area, or a quarter of the height of the entire rectangle.

$$A_C = A_T = bh/2$$

$$y_C = y_T = h/4$$

$$Z_x = A_C y_C + A_T y_T = \frac{bh}{2} \frac{h}{4} + \frac{bh}{2} \frac{h}{4} = \frac{bh^2}{4} \quad \text{and} \quad Z_y = \frac{hb^2}{4}$$



Circle Each area is half the area of a circle. Find the moment arm in the Appendix.

$$A_C = A_T = \frac{\pi d^2}{4} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{\pi d^2}{8}, \quad y_C = y_T = \frac{2d}{3\pi}, \quad \text{and} \quad Z_x = Z_y = A_C y_C + A_T y_T = \frac{\pi d^2}{8} \frac{2d}{3\pi} + \frac{\pi d^2}{8} \frac{2d}{3\pi} = \frac{d^3}{6}$$

While ideal beams follow the ideal stress-strain curves in the preceding section, real beams vary in strength due to defects in manufacturing and handling. AISC recommends using a factor of safety of 1.67 in steel beam design, so

$$\sigma_{allowable} = \frac{\sigma_{YS}}{1.67} = 0.6 \sigma_{YS}. \quad \text{If we let the moment in a beam equal the plastic moment, then } M_{allowable} = \sigma_{allowable} Z = 0.6 \sigma_{YS} Z.$$

Example #3 – Allowable bending moment of a W-beam

What is the allowable moment of a W200×59 wide-flange beam made of A992 steel? Report the answer in kN·m.

Solution From Appendix D, the plastic section modulus is $652 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$. From Appendix B, the yield strength is 345 MPa.

$$\text{The allowable moment is } M_{allowable} = 0.6 \sigma_{YS} Z_x = \frac{0.6 \cdot 345 \text{ MPa} \cdot 652 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3}{(10^3 \text{ mm})^3} \left| \frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{mm}^3} \right| \frac{10^3 \text{ kN}}{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2} = 135 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

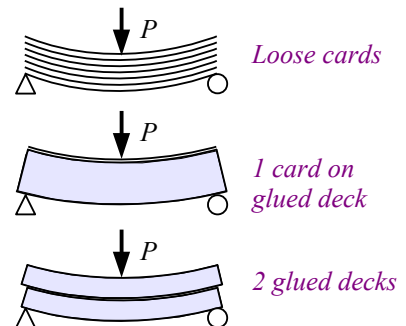
The bending stress in a low-carbon steel beam is $\sigma = \frac{M}{Z_x}$.

Shear Stress in Beams

Bending stress is a normal stress, acting perpendicularly to the cross-sectional area of the beam. Apply a downward load on top of a simply-supported beam, and the bending stress on the top surface is horizontal and compressive; along the bottom surface it is horizontal and tensile.

Beams also have a horizontal shear stress which acts parallel to the neutral axis of the beam. Take a deck of playing cards and flex it in your hand; the cards slide past each other. Think of this sliding as strain; if the cards had been glued together, then a corresponding shear stress would have developed in the adhesive.

Glue all but one of the cards on their faces, then place the free card on top of the glued deck. Bend the deck, and the top card slides very little with respect to the rest of the deck. Now take a second deck having the same number of cards as the first deck, and glue all of the cards in the second deck together. Place one deck on the other and bend them; the two decks slide with respect to each other. This experiment shows that the shear stress is zero at the surface of a beam, and maximum at the neutral axis.



Bend a simply-supported beam with a point load at the midspan, and the moment diagram is an isosceles triangle. Select two points on the beam that are separated by a small distance Δx . On the moment diagram, $M_1 < M_2$. Since bending stress is proportional to bending moment, $\sigma_1 < \sigma_2$. Pick a horizontal plane within the beam where you want to calculate the shear

stress. In this example, the shear plane is above the neutral axis. The cross-sectional area between the shear plane and the top of the beam is A' .

Draw a free-body diagram of the beam above the shear plane. The horizontal force acting on this area at point 1 is $P_1 = \sigma_1 A'$. Likewise, the horizontal force acting on this area at point 2 is $P_2 = \sigma_2 A'$. Since $\sigma_1 < \sigma_2$, $P_1 < P_2$. The sum of the forces in the x direction equals zero, so the difference between these forces is a horizontal shear force, $V_H = P_2 - P_1$.

The normal stress acting on area A' at point 1 varies with depth: it is highest on the top surface of the beam, and lower at the shear plane. We can break up area A' into many tiny areas, where each tiny area a is a distance y from the neutral axis. The average normal stress acting on area A' at point 1 is the sum of the normal stresses acting on all of the tiny areas, so $\sigma_{1avg} = \sum_y \frac{M_1 y}{I}$. The normal force acting on area

A' at point 1 is the average stress times the sum of these tiny areas, so $P_1 = \sum_y \frac{M_1 y a}{I} = \frac{M_1}{I} \sum_y y a$. Since $\sum_y y a = \bar{y} A'$, $P_1 = \frac{M_1 \bar{y} A'}{I}$.

Similarly, the normal force acting on area A' at point 2 is

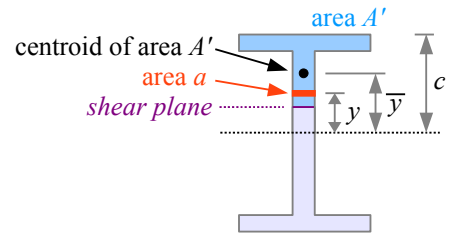
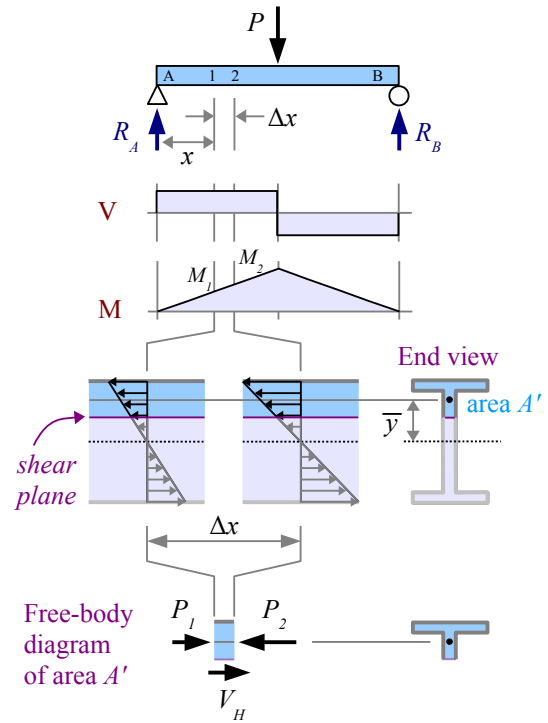
$$P_2 = \frac{M_2 \bar{y} A'}{I}. \text{ The shear force } V_H = P_2 - P_1 = \frac{(M_2 - M_1) \bar{y} A'}{I}.$$

The value of the bending moment at any point along a beam equals the area of the shear diagram up to that point, so $M_1 = Vx$ and

$$M_2 = V(x + \Delta x). \text{ The difference of the two moments is}$$

$$M_2 - M_1 = V(x + \Delta x) - Vx = V \cdot \Delta x. \text{ Substitute this result into the shear force equation, and we have } V_H = \frac{V \Delta x \bar{y} A'}{I}.$$

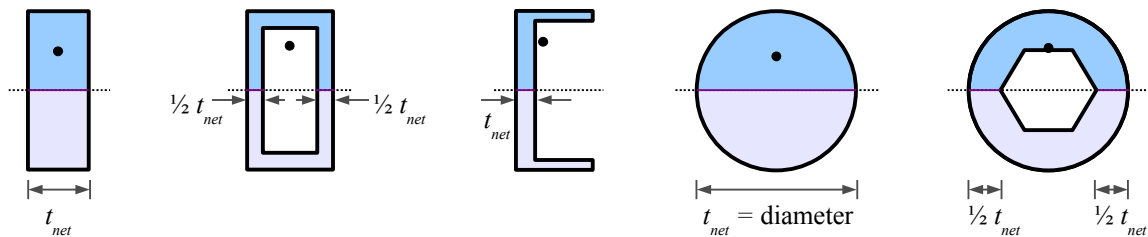
The shear stress acting in the shear plane equals the shear force V_H divided by the area it acts on: the net thickness of the beam in the shear plane times the length of beam between points 1 and 2: $\tau = \frac{V_H}{t \Delta x} = \frac{V \Delta x \bar{y} A'}{I t_{net} \Delta x} = \frac{V \bar{y} A'}{I t_{net}}$. The product $\bar{y} A'$ is the first moment of area A' about the neutral axis, defined as the variable $Q = \bar{y} A'$. Substituting, we have the *General Shear Formula* for beams: $\tau = \frac{VQ}{I t_{net}}$.



Terms in the General Shear Formula

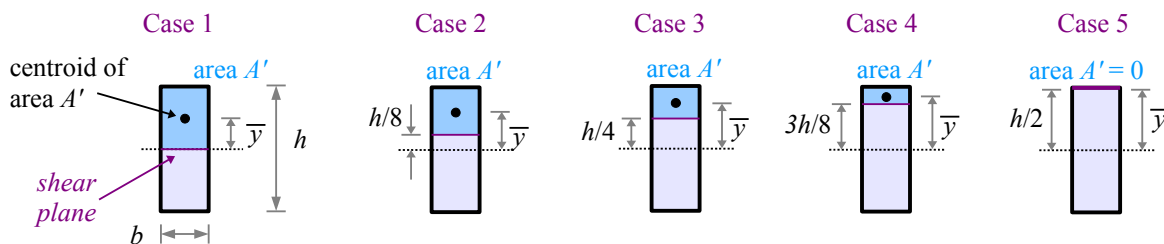
τ	Shear stress acting in a shear plane
V	Shear load acting on the beam, determined from the shear diagram
Q	Product of two terms: $Q = A' \cdot \bar{y}$
A'	Area of the beam above the shear plane, shaded blue in the diagram above
\bar{y}	Distance from the neutral axis of the beam to the centroid of area A'
I	Moment of inertia of the entire shape
t_{net}	Net thickness of the beam at the shear plane. For solid cross sections, this is the thickness of the beam; for hollow cross sections, this is the thickness of solid material at the shear plane.

The net thickness is the total thickness minus any hollow space.



Example #4 – Shear stress in a rectangular cross-section beam

Calculate the shear stress in a rectangular beam at five locations: at the neutral axis, $1/4$ of the way between the neutral axis and the top of the beam, $1/2$ way, $3/4$ of the way, and at the top of the beam.



Case 1 When the shear plane is at the neutral axis, $\bar{y} = \frac{h}{4}$ and $A' = \frac{bh}{2}$, so $Q = \bar{y} A' = \frac{h}{4} \frac{bh}{2} = \frac{bh^2}{8}$. The moment of inertia of a rectangle is $I = \frac{bh^3}{12}$ and the thickness of the beam at the shear plane is $t = b$. The shear stress is

$$\tau = \frac{VQ}{It_{net}} = \frac{V}{I} \frac{bh^2}{8} \frac{12}{bh^3} \frac{1}{b} = \frac{3V}{2bh}$$

Case 2 $\bar{y} = \frac{5}{16}h$ and $A' = \frac{3}{8}bh$, so $Q = \bar{y} A' = \frac{5h}{16} \frac{3bh}{8} = \frac{15bh^2}{128}$. The other two variables in the General Shear Equation,

I and t , are the same as before, so the shear stress is $\tau = \frac{VQ}{It_{net}} = \frac{V}{I} \frac{15bh^2}{128} \frac{12}{bh^3} \frac{1}{b} = \frac{45V}{32bh}$

Example #4, continued

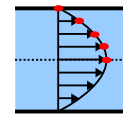
Case 3 $\bar{y} = \frac{3}{8}h$ and $A' = \frac{1}{4}bh$, so $Q = \bar{y}A' = \frac{3}{8}h \frac{bh}{4} = \frac{3bh^2}{32}$ and $\tau = \frac{VQ}{It_{net}} = \frac{V}{32} \frac{3bh^2}{bh^3} \frac{12}{b} = \frac{9V}{8bh}$

Case 4 $\bar{y} = \frac{7}{16}h$ and $A' = \frac{1}{8}bh$, so $Q = \bar{y}A' = \frac{7}{16}h \frac{bh}{8} = \frac{7bh^2}{128}$ and $\tau = \frac{VQ}{It_{net}} = \frac{V}{128} \frac{7bh^2}{bh^3} \frac{12}{b} = \frac{21V}{32bh}$

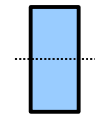
Case 5 $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{2}h$ and $A' = 0$, so $Q = \bar{y}A' = 0$ and $\tau = \frac{VQ}{It_{net}} = 0$

We can plot the results from this Example problem as a function of depth (red dots at the right). The shear stress profile for a rectangular beam looks like a parabola. The shear stress is a maximum at the neutral axis, diminishing to zero at the top and bottom surfaces. The profile looks different for wide-flange beams because the area is distributed differently, but the maximum shear stress will still be at the core and the surface will have zero shear stress.

Shear stress profile



End view



Example #5 – Shear stress in a solid round circular beam

A round 1.5 cm diameter rod is loaded in bending with a point load of 300 N at the midspan. Calculate the shear stress at the neutral axis. Report the result in MPa.

Solution The loading is symmetrical, so the reaction forces equal half the applied load: $R_A = R_B = \frac{300 \text{ N}}{2} = 150 \text{ N}$. Draw the shear diagram to find the maximum shear load, $V_{max} = R_A = 150 \text{ N}$.

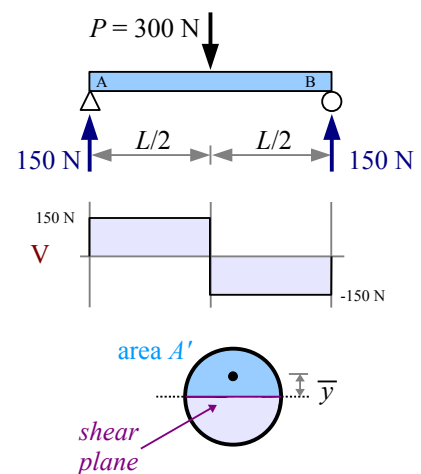
From Appendix C, the centroid of area A' is at $\bar{y} = \frac{2d}{3\pi}$.

Area A' is half the area of the circle: $A' = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\pi d^2}{4} = \frac{\pi d^2}{8}$.

Calculate $Q = \bar{y}A' = \frac{2d}{3\pi} \frac{\pi d^2}{8} = \frac{d^3}{12}$. The moment of inertia of a circle is

$I = \frac{\pi d^4}{64}$, and the thickness of the beam at the shear plane is d . Combine terms to find shear stress:

$$\tau = \frac{VQ}{It_{net}} = \frac{V}{12} \frac{d^3}{\pi d^4} \frac{64}{d} = \frac{16V}{3\pi d^2} = \frac{16 \cdot 150 \text{ N}}{3\pi (1.5 \text{ cm})^2} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ N}} \right| \left| \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| = 1.13 \text{ MPa}$$



Another way to solve this problem is to calculate numerical answers for \bar{y} , A' , Q , and I , with appropriate unit conversions, then calculate τ . Try it both ways, and you will find that the algebraic solution is shorter and requires fewer keystrokes on the calculator, which means fewer opportunities for error.

Chapter 9: Stresses in Beams

What if the beam in Example #5 was a hollow pipe instead of a solid round rod? From Appendix C, area A' is a half pipe, so $c = \frac{d_o}{2}$, $A' = \frac{\pi}{8}(d_o^2 - d_i^2)$, and $\bar{y} = \frac{2(d_o^3 - d_i^3)}{3\pi(d_o^2 - d_i^2)}$.

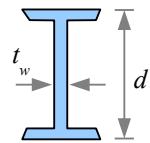
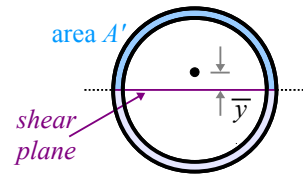
Solve for $Q = A' \bar{y} = \frac{\pi(d_o^2 - d_i^2)}{8} \frac{2(d_o^3 - d_i^3)}{3\pi(d_o^2 - d_i^2)} = \frac{(d_o^3 - d_i^3)}{12}$. If it is a standard-sized pipe,

the moment of inertia is probably in a table. Otherwise, $I_x = \frac{\pi}{64}(d_o^4 - d_i^4)$.

The net thickness of material in the shear plane is two wall thicknesses, so $t_{net} = d_o - d_i$. With a little more algebra, you can find the maximum shear stress for a hollow pipe.

Shear Stress in W-Beams

The General Shear Formula works well for simple shapes where \bar{y} and A' are easy to calculate. Steel wide-flange beams have a more complicated shape, so we can approximate the shear stress at the neutral axis using the *Average Web Shear Approach*: $\tau = \frac{V}{d t_w}$ where d is the depth of the beam and t_w is the thickness of the web.

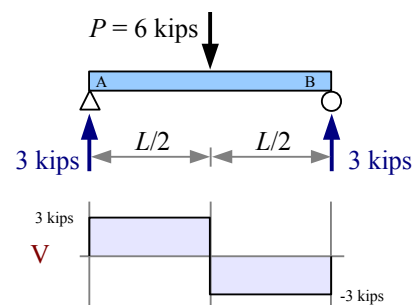


Example #6 – Shear stress in a W-beam

A W4×13 steel wide-flange beam is loaded in bending with a point load of 6 kips at the midspan. Calculate the shear stress at the neutral axis. Report the result in ksi.

Solution The loading is symmetrical, so the reaction forces equal half the applied load: $R_A = R_B = \frac{6 \text{ kips}}{2} = 3 \text{ kips}$. From the shear diagram, the maximum shear load $V_{max} = R_A = 3 \text{ kips}$. Use the Average Web Shear Approach to find the shear stress at the neutral axis:

$$\tau = \frac{V}{d t_w} = \frac{3 \text{ kips}}{4.16 \text{ in.} \times 0.280 \text{ in.}} = 2.58 \text{ ksi}.$$



How does the calculated shear stress compare with the actual shear strength of the material? While yield and ultimate strengths are easy to find in reference books and on the internet, shear strengths are rarely reported. A good estimate for steels is $\tau_{allowable} = 0.4 \sigma_{YS}$. If the beam in the previous Example is made of A36 steel with a yield strength of 36 ksi, the allowable shear stress is $\tau_{allowable} = 0.4(36 \text{ ksi}) = 14.4 \text{ ksi} > \tau_{applied}$, therefore the beam will not fail in shear.

In most of the problems so far, we have assumed that the beams are weightless. Real beams have real weight, so we need to include the weight as a uniform distributed load along the length of the beam.

Example #7 – Shear and bending stress in a W-beam

A 36 foot long W12×30 steel wide-flange beam is loaded in bending with a point load of 5 kips located 24 feet from the left end. The beam also has weight. Calculate the allowable bending moment in the beam. Calculate the maximum bending stress and maximum shear stress, and report the result in ksi. Report the locations of these maximum points.

Solution The loading is not symmetrical, so use an equivalent load diagram, sum of the moments and sum of the forces to find the reaction forces. A W12×30 beam has a weight per unit length $w = 30 \text{ lb./ft.}$, so the equivalent point load

$$W = \frac{30 \text{ lb.}}{\text{ft.}} \cdot \frac{36 \text{ ft.}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} = 1.08 \text{ kips at the midspan.}$$

The moment about point A is $\sum M_A = 0 = -1.08 \text{ kips} \cdot 18 \text{ ft.} - 5 \text{ kips} \cdot 24 \text{ ft.} + R_B \cdot 36 \text{ ft.}$

Rewrite the equation to find the reaction force $R_B = \frac{1.08 \text{ kips} \cdot 18 \text{ ft.} + 5 \text{ kips} \cdot 24 \text{ ft.}}{36 \text{ ft.}} = 3.873 \text{ kips}$

Sum of the forces $\uparrow + \sum F_y = 0 = R_A - 1.08 \text{ kips} - 5 \text{ kips} + 3.873 \text{ kips}$. Solve for the reaction force $R_A = 1.08 \text{ kips} + 5 \text{ kips} - 3.873 \text{ kips} = 2.207 \text{ kips}$. Calculate the inflection points on the shear diagram.

$$V_1 = R_A = 2.207 \text{ kips}, \quad V_2 = V_1 - \frac{0.030 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \cdot \frac{24 \text{ ft.}}{1} = 1.487 \text{ kips}, \quad V_3 = V_2 - 5 \text{ kips} = -3.513 \text{ kips},$$

$$V_4 = V_3 - \frac{0.030 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \cdot \frac{12 \text{ ft.}}{1} = -3.873 \text{ kips}, \quad V_5 = V_4 + R_B = 0 \text{ kips}$$

The maximum moment is the area of the left-hand trapezoid in the shear diagram:

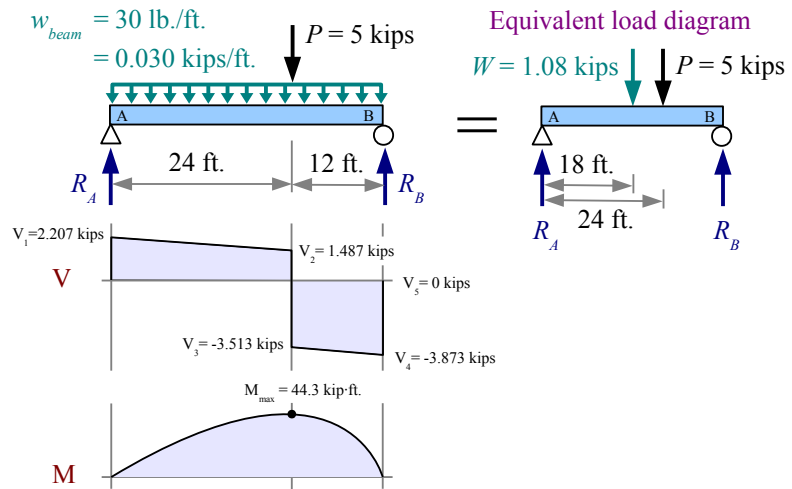
$$M_{\max} = \frac{2.207 \text{ kips} + 1.487 \text{ kips}}{2} \cdot \frac{24 \text{ ft.}}{1} = 44.3 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$$

The allowable bending moment $M_{\text{allowable}} = 0.6 \sigma_{YS} Z = \frac{0.6 \cdot 50 \text{ kips} \cdot 43.1 \text{ in.}^3}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot \frac{\text{ft.}}{12 \text{ in.}} = 107.8 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$

Since $M_{\text{allowable}} > M_{\text{applied}}$, the beam is strong enough to support the existing loads in bending.

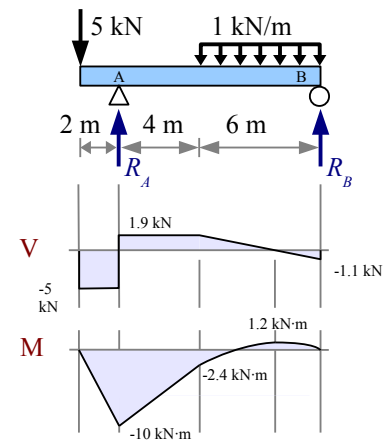
The maximum bending stress in the beam is $\sigma = \frac{M}{Z} = \frac{44.3 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}}{43.1 \text{ in.}^3} \cdot \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} = 12.34 \text{ ksi}$, and it occurs at the point load.

From the shear diagram, the maximum shear load $|V_{\max}| = 3.873 \text{ kips}$. Use the Average Web Shear Approach to find the maximum shear stress $\tau = \frac{V}{d t_w} = \frac{3.873 \text{ kips}}{12.34 \text{ in.} \times 0.260 \text{ in.}} = 1.21 \text{ ksi}$, which occurs at point B.



Chapter 9: Stresses in Beams

As a reminder, be sure to use the absolute values of V and M to find the maximum value for normal and shear stress calculations. With the beam at the right, $|V_{max}| = 5 \text{ kN}$ and $|M_{max}| = 10 \text{ kN}\cdot\text{m}$.



Allowable Load

Design engineers select beams that will support known loads. However, in many cases the structure already exists, and will be used with a different loading condition than it was originally intended. A manufacturing plant may bring in a larger piece of equipment, so the engineer calculates whether the existing floor will support the machine.

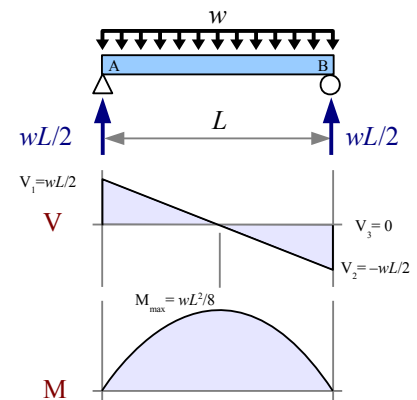
A simply-supported timber beam carries a uniform distributed load; how large a load can the beam support? Since the loading is symmetrical, the reaction forces equal half the applied load: $R_A = R_B = \frac{wL}{2}$. The maximum shear load is

$V_1 = R_A = \frac{wL}{2}$. The maximum moment equals the area of the left-hand triangle in the shear diagram, or one half the base times the height:

$$M_{max} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{L}{2} \frac{wL}{2} = \frac{wL^2}{8}. \text{ If we look at bending stress, then } \sigma = \frac{M}{S} = \frac{wL^2}{8S}.$$

Rewrite the equation to solve for the load, $w = \frac{8\sigma_{allowable}S}{L^2}$. If we look at shear stress, $\tau = \frac{VQ}{It_{net}} = \frac{wLQ}{2It_{net}}$. Rewrite the

equation to solve for the load, $w = \frac{2\tau_{allowable}It_{net}}{LQ}$.



Example #8 – Load-carrying capacity of a timber beam

A simply-supported, 8 foot long, 4×8 southern yellow pine timber supports a uniform distributed load. Calculate the maximum load the beam can support. Report the result in lb./ft.

Solution From the previous discussion, based on bending stress the beam can support a total load of $w_{total} = \frac{8\sigma_{allowable}S}{L^2}$. From the Appendix, the allowable bending stress of southern yellow pine is 1400 psi and the section modulus $S_x = 30.7 \text{ in.}^3$.

The total load is $w_{total} = \frac{8}{(8 \text{ ft.})^2} \frac{1400 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \frac{30.7 \text{ in.}^3}{12 \text{ in.}} = 448 \text{ lb./ft.}$. The

total load includes the beam's weight per unit length: $w_{total} = w_{applied} + w_{beam}$.

From the Appendix, a 4×8 timber has a weight of 7.05 lb./ft., so

$$w_{applied} = w_{total} - w_{beam} = 448 \text{ lb./ft.} - 7.05 \text{ lb./ft.} = 441 \text{ lb./ft.}$$

Also from the previous discussion, based on shear stress the beam can

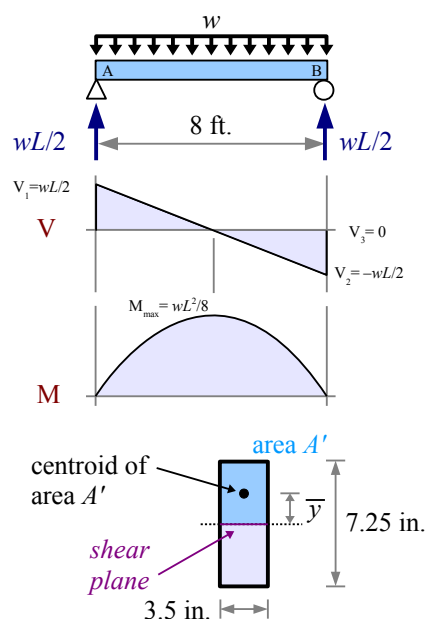
support a total load of $w_{total} = \frac{2\tau_{allowable} I t_{net}}{LQ}$. From the Appendix,

$$I_x = 111 \text{ in.}^4 \text{ and } \tau_{allowable} = 175 \text{ psi.}$$

Based on the dimensions, $\bar{y} = \frac{7.25 \text{ in.}}{4} = 1.8125 \text{ in.}$, $t_{net} = 3.5 \text{ in.}$, and $A' = \frac{3.5 \text{ in.} \cdot 7.25 \text{ in.}}{2} = 12.6875 \text{ in.}^2$, so $Q = A' \bar{y} = 12.6875 \text{ in.}^2 \cdot 1.8125 \text{ in.} = 22.9961 \text{ in.}^3$.

The total load is $w_{total} = \frac{2\tau_{allowable} I t_{net}}{LQ} = \frac{2}{8 \text{ ft.}} \frac{175 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \frac{111 \text{ in.}^4}{22.9961 \text{ in.}^3} \frac{3.5 \text{ in.}}{12 \text{ in.}} = 739 \text{ lb./ft.}$.

The applied load is $w_{applied} = 739 \text{ lb./ft.} - 7.05 \text{ lb./ft.} = 732 \text{ lb./ft.}$ The beam can support an applied load of 441 lb./ft. before it fails in bending, and a load of 732 lb./ft. before it fails in shear. Pick the lower of the two numbers because this is where failure will occur first.

**Key Equations**

Use the Flexure Formula to find the bending stress in any beam other than a steel W-beam: $\sigma = \frac{Mc}{I_x}$ or $\sigma = \frac{M}{S_x}$

The allowable moment of a beam is $M_{allowable} = \frac{\sigma_{allowable} I_x}{c}$ or $M_{allowable} = \sigma_{allowable} S_x$

For wide-flange steel beams *only*, the allowable moment is $M_{allowable} = 0.6 \sigma_{YS} Z_x$ and the bending stress is $\sigma = \frac{M}{Z_x}$

Use the General Shear Formula to find the maximum shear stress in a beam: $\tau = \frac{VQ}{I t_{net}}$ where $Q = \bar{y} A'$

Use the Average Web Shear Approach to find the maximum shear stress in a wide-flange steel beam: $\tau = \frac{V}{d t_w}$

For steels, use $\tau_{allowable} = 0.4 \sigma_{YS}$

Chapter 10: Beam Deflection

Radius of Curvature

A weightless beam with no loads has a horizontal elastic curve. Pick two points C and D that are a small distance x apart. If we add a load, the beam deflects, and the elastic curve bows downward. Points C and D now lie on an arc with a *radius of curvature*, labeled R on the diagram. At the bottom of the beam, points C and D are now $x + \delta$ apart, because the bottom of the beam has stretched a little. Draw a vertical line through point D, and we have a little triangle with height c and base δ . We can use the principle of similar triangles to compare the little triangle with the big triangle having a height R and

base x : $\frac{\delta}{c} = \frac{x}{R}$. Rewrite the equation

to solve for $\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{c}{R}$. Along the

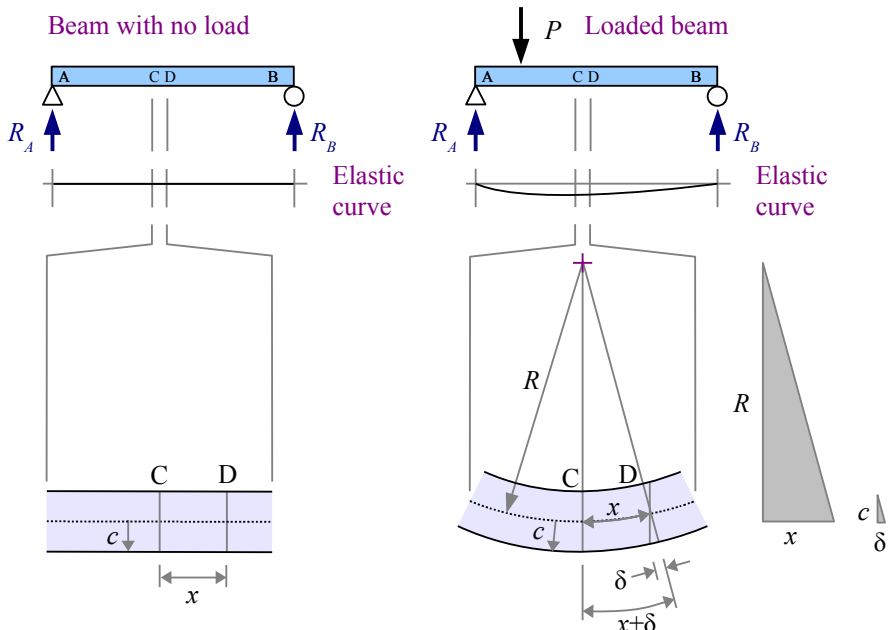
bottom surface of the beam, the strain is $\epsilon = \frac{\delta}{x}$, so $\epsilon = \frac{c}{R}$. As long as the beam is elastic, $E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$, which we can rewrite as

$\epsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E}$. Set the strain equations equal to each other, and $\frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{c}{R}$. Solving for stress, $\sigma = \frac{Ec}{R}$. We know another equation

for bending stress in a beam: $\sigma = \frac{Mc}{I}$. Set the stress equations equal to each other, and $\frac{Ec}{R} = \frac{Mc}{I} \rightarrow \frac{E}{R} = \frac{M}{I}$. Now

solve for radius of curvature, $R = \frac{EI}{M}$. Note: this equation only applies when bending moment is constant.

This equation helps us calculate the radius of curvature at a given point along the length of a beam. There are a few special cases where the moment M is constant over a long length, so the elastic curve is a circular arc along this length.



Example #1 – Radius of curvature with constant moment

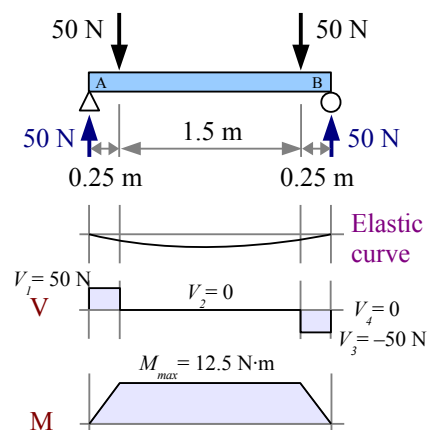
A 2 m long titanium beam is made of 1 cm square barstock. Two 50 N point loads lie 0.25 meters from each end. What is the radius of curvature of the beam between the two point loads? Report the answer in meters.

Solution Draw the elastic curve, shear diagram, and moment diagram. The loading is symmetrical, so the reaction forces $R_A = R_B = 50 \text{ N}$. The value of the moment diagram between the point loads equals the area of the left-hand rectangle in the shear diagram: $M = 0.25 \text{ m} \cdot 50 \text{ N} = 12.5 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$.

The moment of inertia of a square $I = \frac{bh^3}{12} = \frac{b^4}{12}$.

The radius of curvature of the beam between the two point loads is

$$R = \frac{EI}{M} = \frac{Eb^4}{12M} = \frac{114 \text{ GPa} (1 \text{ cm})^4}{12 \cdot 12.5 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}} \left| \frac{10^9 \text{ N}}{\text{GPa}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{m}^4}{(100 \text{ cm})^4} \right| = 7.6 \text{ m}$$



Chapter 10: Beam Deflection

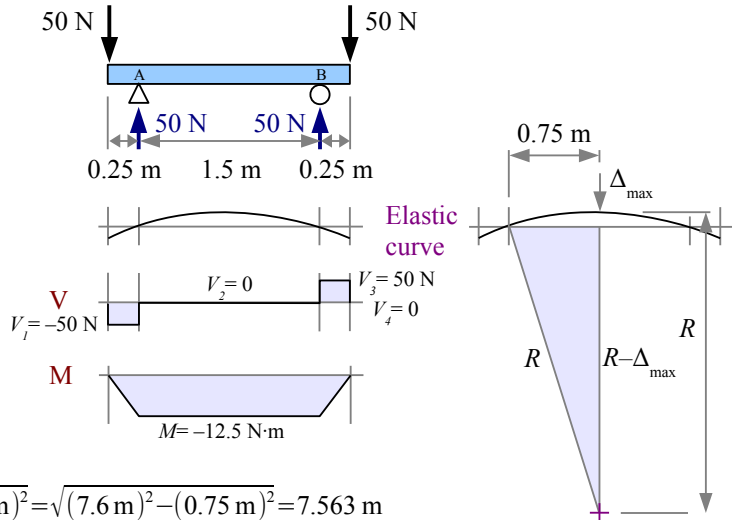
The blade on a bandsaw obeys the radius of curvature equation because the blade flexes elastically, and forms a semicircular arc at each bandsaw wheel.

In a few rare cases, we can calculate the maximum deflection of a beam using the radius of curvature, as in the following example.

Example #2 – Deflection with constant moment

What is the maximum deflection at the midspan of the beam in Example #1? Report the answer in cm.

Solution This problem is like Example #1 but flipped upside down. Draw the elastic curve with its radius of curvature and the center of curvature (cross at the bottom of the figure). The distance from the center of curvature to the beam is R ; the beam deflects a distance Δ_{\max} at the midspan; and the distance from the center of curvature to the undeflected beam is $R - \Delta_{\max}$. The base of the shaded triangle is half the distance between the supports, 0.75 m. Use the Pythagorean Theorem to



find the height of the triangle, $R - \Delta_{\max} = \sqrt{R^2 - (0.75 \text{ m})^2} = \sqrt{(7.6 \text{ m})^2 - (0.75 \text{ m})^2} = 7.563 \text{ m}$

Deflection at the midspan $\Delta_{\max} = R - (R - \Delta_{\max}) = \frac{7.600 \text{ m} - 7.563 \text{ m}}{1} \left| \frac{100 \text{ cm}}{\text{m}} \right| = 3.71 \text{ cm}$

The Formula Method for Simple Cases

We can use the Radius of Curvature Method to calculate deflection as long as the moment is constant. From the examples in previous chapters, we know that the moment usually changes along the length of a beam. There are a number of geometrical and calculus-based techniques for calculating deflection in these cases. Engineers have compiled these solutions in handbooks, so future engineers can use a worked-out algebraic solution, instead of deriving the solution from scratch. The most useful compilation is *Roark's Formulas for Stress and Strain*, which contains many hundreds of formulas for beams, shells, membranes, pressure vessels, and columns.

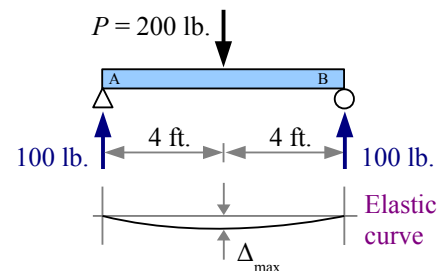
Look in Appendix F for Formula Method solutions for various beam problems. Each case includes a load diagram, shear diagram, moment diagram, reaction forces and moments, and formulas for shear, moment, the slope at the ends, and deflection at various positions along the beam. Use Appendices B, C, D, or E to find values for E and I , then solve.

Example #3 – Deflection by a point load on a simply-supported beam

Use the Formula Method to calculate the maximum deflection of a simply-supported 8-foot 4×4 Southern yellow pine timber loaded with a 200 lb. point load at the midspan. Report the result in inches.

Solution From Appendix F, the deflection at the midspan $\Delta_{\max} = \frac{P L^3}{48 E I}$, where Young's modulus is 1700 ksi and the moment of inertia is 12.5 in.^4 .

$$\Delta_{\max} = \frac{200 \text{ lb.} (8 \text{ ft.})^3}{48 \cdot 12.5 \text{ in.}^4} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2 (12 \text{ in.})^3}{\text{ft.}^3} \right| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} = 0.17 \text{ in.}$$



Example #4 – Deflection by a point load on a cantilever beam

Use the Formula Method to calculate the maximum deflection of a cantilever 8-foot 4×4 Southern yellow pine timber loaded with a 200 lb. point load at the end. Report the result in inches.

Calculate the slope at the end of the beam; report the result in degrees.

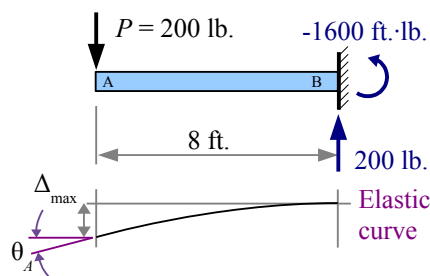
Solution From the Appendix, the deflection at the free end $\Delta_{max} = \frac{P L^3}{3 E I}$.

The moment of inertia and Young's modulus are the same as in the previous Example.

$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{200 \text{ lb.} (8 \text{ ft.})^3}{3 \cdot 12.5 \text{ in.}^4} \frac{\text{in.}^2}{1700 \text{ kip}} \left| \frac{(12 \text{ in.})^3}{\text{ft.}^3} \right| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} = 2.78 \text{ in.}$$

The equation for the slope at the free end is in radians, so include a conversion factor for degrees:

$$\theta_A = \frac{P L^2}{2 E I} = \frac{200 \text{ lb.} (8 \text{ ft.})^2}{2 \cdot 12.5 \text{ in.}^4} \frac{\text{in.}^2}{1700 \text{ kip}} \left| \frac{(12 \text{ in.})^2}{\text{ft.}^2} \right| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \frac{180^\circ}{\pi \text{ rad}} = 2.48^\circ$$



When the point load on a cantilever beam is at the end of the beam, the elastic curve is an arc. If the point load is located away from the end, then the elastic curve is an arc from the wall to the point load, and a straight line between the point load and the end of the beam. This portion of the beam is sloped but straight, as shown in Example #5.

Example #5 – Deflection by a point load on a cantilever beam

A cantilever 8-foot 4×4 Southern yellow pine timber loaded with a 200 lb. point load 2 feet from the end. Use the Formula Method to calculate the deflection at the point load. Calculate the deflection at the point load and the maximum deflection at the end. Report the results in inches.

Solution From Appendix F, the deflection at point C is $\Delta_C = \frac{P b^3}{3 E I}$, where b is the distance from the point load to the wall. The moment of inertia and Young's modulus are the same as in the previous two Examples.

$$\Delta_C = \frac{200 \text{ lb.} (6 \text{ ft.})^3}{3 \cdot 12.5 \text{ in.}^4} \frac{\text{in.}^2}{1700 \text{ kip}} \left| \frac{(12 \text{ in.})^3}{\text{ft.}^3} \right| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} = 1.17 \text{ in.}$$

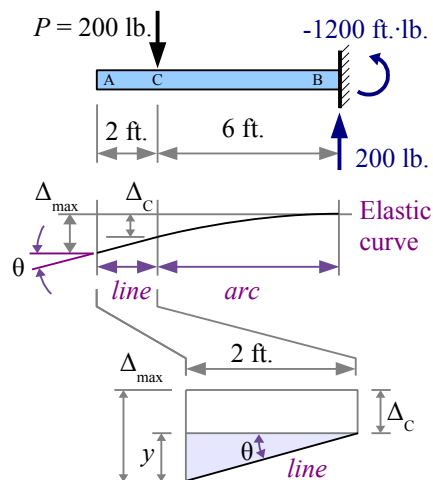
The slope of the straight portion of the beam from point C to the left end is

$$\theta = \frac{P b^2}{2 E I} = \frac{200 \text{ lb.} (6 \text{ ft.})^2}{2 \cdot 12.5 \text{ in.}^4} \frac{\text{in.}^2}{1700 \text{ kip}} \left| \frac{(12 \text{ in.})^2}{\text{ft.}^2} \right| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \frac{180^\circ}{\pi \text{ rad}} = 1.40^\circ$$

The portion of the beam to the left of the point load is a straight line. Use trigonometry to find the maximum deflection:

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{2 \text{ ft.}} \text{ so } y = \frac{2 \text{ ft.} \tan (1.40^\circ)}{1} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| = 0.59 \text{ in. and } \Delta_{max} = y + \Delta_C = 1.17 \text{ in.} + 0.59 \text{ in.} = 1.76 \text{ in.}$$

Alternatively, use $\Delta_{max} = \frac{P b^2}{6 E I} (3 L - b) = \frac{200 \text{ lb.} (6 \text{ ft.})^2}{6 \cdot 12.5 \text{ in.}^4} \frac{\text{in.}^2}{1700 \text{ kip}} \left| \frac{(12 \text{ in.})^3}{\text{ft.}^3} \right| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} = 1.76 \text{ in.}$

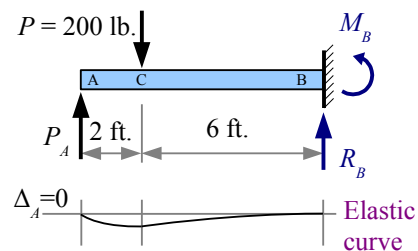


Example #6 – Force required to overcome deflection

An upward force P_A is applied to the end of the beam in Example #5, sufficient to produce zero deflection at the free end of the beam. Calculate the value of P_A . Report the results in pounds.

Solution From Appendix F, the deflection at point A due to a point load at the free end is $\Delta_A = \frac{P_A L^3}{3EI}$. Solve for P_A , setting $\Delta_A = \Delta_{max}$ from Example #5.

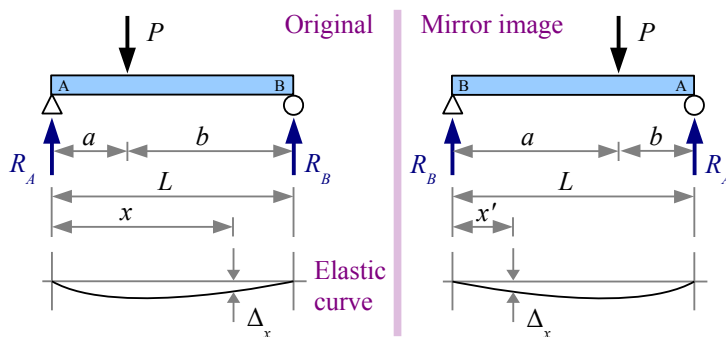
$$P_A = \frac{\Delta_A 3EI}{L^3} = \frac{1.76 \text{ in.} (3)}{(8 \text{ ft.})^3} \cdot \frac{1700 \text{ kip}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot \frac{12.5 \text{ in.}^4}{(12 \text{ in.})^3} \cdot \frac{\text{ft.}^3}{\text{kip}} = 127 \text{ lb.}$$

**Formula Method Hints**

Some Formula Method equations have conditions. This simply-supported beam has a single point load located at a distance a from the left end. The deflection at a distance x from the left end is

$$\Delta_x = \frac{Pbx}{6EIL}(L^2 - b^2 - x^2) \quad \text{when } x < a, \text{ so this}$$

equation applies only to the left of the point load. What if we want the deflection at a location to the right of the point load? Redraw the beam as a mirror image, swapping dimensions a and b , where x' is the distance from the left end.

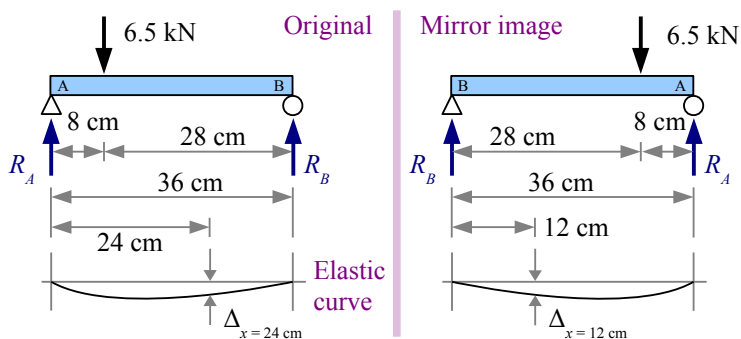
**Example #7 – Mirror image problem**

A simply-supported 36 cm long steel beam is loaded with a 6.5 kN point load 8 cm from the left end. The beam is made of 1.2 cm square barstock. Use the Formula Method to calculate the deflection 24 cm from the left end, in mm.

Solution From Appendix F, the

deflection at a distance x from the left end is

$$\Delta_x = \frac{Pbx}{6EIL}(L^2 - b^2 - x^2) \quad \text{when } x < a.$$



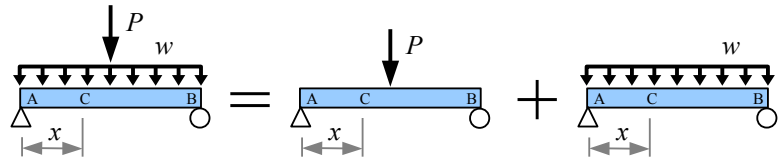
Since $x > a$, we have to draw a mirror image of the loading case.

The moment of inertia is $I = \frac{bh^3}{12} = \frac{b^4}{12} = \frac{(1.2 \text{ cm})^4}{12} = 0.1728 \text{ cm}^4$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{6.5 \text{ kN} \cdot 8 \text{ cm} \cdot 12 \text{ cm}}{6 \cdot 207 \text{ GPa} \cdot 0.1728 \text{ cm}^4 \cdot 36 \text{ cm}} \cdot \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \cdot \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \times \frac{((36 \text{ cm})^2 - (8 \text{ cm})^2 - (12 \text{ cm})^2)}{10 \text{ mm}} = 8.79 \text{ mm}$$

The Formula Method for Complex Cases: Superposition

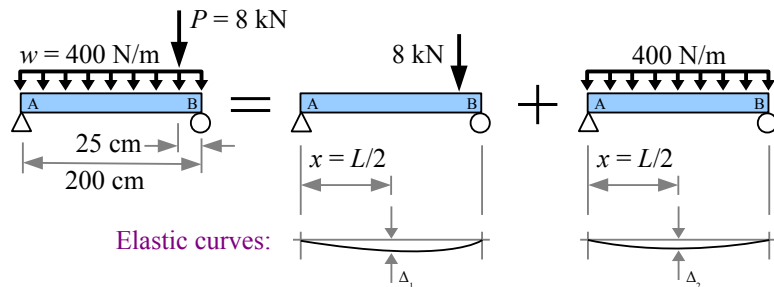
The Formula Method equations in the Appendix apply to simple loading cases. Many loading conditions are more complex, but you can separate a complex loading condition into its parts, solve for V , M , or Δ at any location along the beam, then add the results together to find the total V , M , or Δ at that location:



$$\Delta_{total} = \Delta_1 + \Delta_2 + \Delta_3 + \dots \Delta_n \text{ for } n \text{ cases.}$$

Example #8 – Superposition

A simply-supported 200 cm long, 51 mm standard steel pipe is loaded with a uniform distributed load of 400 N/m and a point load of 8 kN located 25 cm from the right end. Use the Formula Method and Superposition to calculate the deflection at the midspan (at $x = 1$ m). Report the results in mm.



Solution From Appendix F, the deflection due to the point load at a distance x from

$$\text{the left end is } \Delta_1 = \frac{Pbx}{6EIL} (L^2 - b^2 - x^2). \text{ At the midspan, } x = \frac{L}{2}, \text{ so } \Delta_1 = \frac{PbL}{6EIL2} \left(L^2 - b^2 - \left(\frac{L}{2} \right)^2 \right) = \frac{Pb}{12EI} \left(\frac{3}{4}L^2 - b^2 \right).$$

In this equation, b is 25 cm. Also from the Appendix, a 51 mm standard steel pipe has a moment of inertia

$$I = 0.285 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4$$

$$\Delta_1 = \frac{8 \text{ kN} \cdot 25 \text{ cm}}{12 \cdot 207 \text{ GPa} \cdot 0.285 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| \left| \frac{10 \text{ mm}}{\text{cm}} \right| \times \frac{(0.75(200 \text{ cm})^2 - (25 \text{ cm})^2)}{\text{cm}^2} \left| \frac{(10 \text{ mm})^2}{\text{cm}^2} \right| = 8.30 \text{ mm}$$

The deflection due to the distributed load at the midspan is $\Delta_2 = \frac{5wL^4}{384EI}$

$$\Delta_2 = \frac{5}{384} \frac{400 \text{ N}}{\text{m}} \frac{(200 \text{ cm})^4}{207 \text{ GPa} \cdot 0.285 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^9 \text{ N}} \right| \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ mm}}{\text{m}} \right| \left| \frac{(10 \text{ mm})^4}{\text{cm}^4} \right| = 1.41 \text{ mm}$$

$$\Delta_{total} = \Delta_1 + \Delta_2 = 8.30 \text{ mm} + 1.41 \text{ mm} = 9.71 \text{ mm}$$

In the previous Example, the maximum deflection due to the uniform distributed load is at the midspan ($x = 1$ m), but the maximum deflection due to the point load is located at $x = \sqrt{\frac{a(a+2b)}{3}} = \sqrt{\frac{175 \text{ cm}(175 \text{ cm} + 2(25 \text{ cm}))}{3}} = 114.5 \text{ cm}$, to the right of the midspan. Using the Method of Superposition, you can add the shear, moment, or deflection *at a given point along the beam*, but you cannot add the maximum shear, moment, or deflection, unless they occur at the same point along the beam. One example is a simply-supported beam with a point load at the midspan and a uniform distributed load; both loading conditions have the maximum deflection and maximum moment at the midspan.

Example #8 does not consider the weight of the pipe. From Appendix D, the mass per unit length is 5.44 kg/m. The SI unit of weight is the newton, equal to a kilogram meter per second squared. Multiply mass by gravity to get weight. Weight per

$$\text{unit length, } w = \frac{W}{L} = \frac{mg}{L} = \frac{5.44 \text{ kg}}{\text{m}} \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \left| \frac{\text{N} \cdot \text{s}^2}{\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}} \right| = 53.4 \text{ N/m}$$

Visualizing the Deflection Curve

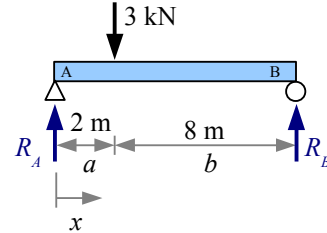
We can use the Formula Method for calculating the deflection of a beam at many points along its length, then graphing the result to see the deflection curve.

Example #9 – Deflection along the length of a timber beam

A 150×360 Douglas fir timber is loaded as shown. Use the Formula Method to calculate the deflection at 1 meter increments from left to right. Graph the deflection vs. position along the beam. Ignore the weight of the beam.

Solution From Appendix E, $E=11.7 \text{ GPa}$ and $I=471 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4$.

Since point A is pinned, $\Delta_{0ft}=0$.



From Appendix F, the deflection equation for this loading condition is $\Delta_x = \frac{Pbx}{6EIL} [L^2 - b^2 - x^2]$ for $x < a$ where $a=2 \text{ m}$ and $b=8 \text{ m}$. We can use this equation for $x=1 \text{ m}$.

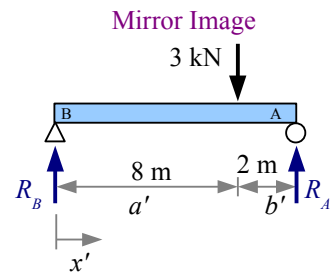
$$\text{At } x=1 \text{ m}, \Delta_{1m} = \frac{3 \text{ kN}(8 \text{ m})(1 \text{ m})[(10 \text{ m})^2 - (8 \text{ m})^2 - (1 \text{ m})^2]}{6 \cdot 11.7 \text{ GPa} \cdot 471 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4 \cdot 10 \text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^5}{\text{m}^5} = 2.54 \text{ mm}$$

At $x=2 \text{ m}$ (the point load), it is easier to use $\Delta_{2m} = \frac{Pa^2b^2}{3EIL}$

$$\Delta_{2m} = \frac{3 \text{ kN}(2 \text{ m})^2(8 \text{ m})^2}{3 \cdot 11.7 \text{ GPa} \cdot 471 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4 \cdot 10 \text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^5}{\text{m}^5} = 4.65 \text{ mm}$$

To the right of the point load, $x > a$, so we need to flip the diagram. Let's call the new dimensions a' and b' : $a'=8 \text{ m}$ and $b'=2 \text{ m}$. We also need new values of x , starting at point B and moving right in the mirror image...let's call it x' .

The value of x' is calculated as $x' = L - x$, so $\Delta_x = \frac{Pb'x'}{6EIL} [L^2 - b'^2 - x'^2]$



$$\text{At } x=3 \text{ m}, x'=7 \text{ m}, \Delta_{3m} = \frac{3 \text{ kN}(2 \text{ m})(7 \text{ m})[(10 \text{ m})^2 - (2 \text{ m})^2 - (7 \text{ m})^2]}{6 \cdot 11.7 \text{ GPa} \cdot 471 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4 \cdot 10 \text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^5}{\text{m}^5} = 5.97 \text{ mm}$$

$$\text{At } x=4 \text{ m}, x'=6 \text{ m}, \Delta_{4m} = \frac{3 \text{ kN}(2 \text{ m})(6 \text{ m})[(10 \text{ m})^2 - (2 \text{ m})^2 - (6 \text{ m})^2]}{6 \cdot 11.7 \text{ GPa} \cdot 471 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4 \cdot 10 \text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^5}{\text{m}^5} = 6.53 \text{ mm}$$

$$\text{At } x=5 \text{ m}, x'=5 \text{ m}, \Delta_{5m} = \frac{3 \text{ kN}(2 \text{ m})(5 \text{ m})[(10 \text{ m})^2 - (2 \text{ m})^2 - (5 \text{ m})^2]}{6 \cdot 11.7 \text{ GPa} \cdot 471 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4 \cdot 10 \text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^5}{\text{m}^5} = 6.44 \text{ mm}$$

$$\text{At } x=6 \text{ m}, x'=4 \text{ m}, \Delta_{6m} = \frac{3 \text{ kN}(2 \text{ m})(4 \text{ m})[(10 \text{ m})^2 - (2 \text{ m})^2 - (4 \text{ m})^2]}{6 \cdot 11.7 \text{ GPa} \cdot 471 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4 \cdot 10 \text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^5}{\text{m}^5} = 5.81 \text{ mm}$$

$$\text{At } x=7 \text{ m}, x'=3 \text{ m}, \Delta_{7m} = \frac{3 \text{ kN}(2 \text{ m})(3 \text{ m})[(10 \text{ m})^2 - (2 \text{ m})^2 - (3 \text{ m})^2]}{6 \cdot 11.7 \text{ GPa} \cdot 471 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^4 \cdot 10 \text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^5}{\text{m}^5} = 4.74 \text{ mm}$$

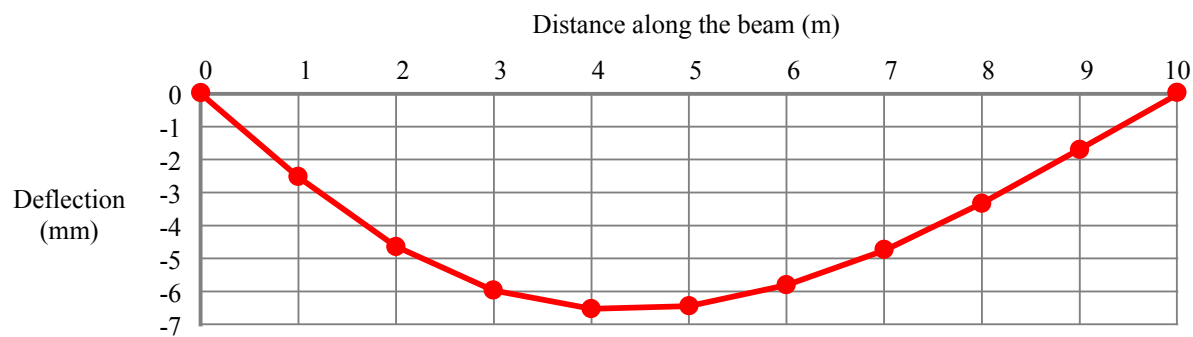
Example #9, continued

$$\text{At } x=8\text{ m, } x'=2\text{ m, } \Delta_{8\text{ m}} = \frac{3\text{ kN}(2\text{ m})(2\text{ m})[(10\text{ m})^2 - (2\text{ m})^2 - (2\text{ m})^2]}{6 \cdot 11.7\text{ GPa} \cdot 471 \times 10^6\text{ mm}^4 \cdot 10\text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6\text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3\text{ mm})^5}{\text{m}^5} \right| = 3.34\text{ mm}$$

$$\text{At } x=9\text{ m, } x'=1\text{ m, } \Delta_{9\text{ m}} = \frac{3\text{ kN}(2\text{ m})(1\text{ m})[(10\text{ m})^2 - (2\text{ m})^2 - (1\text{ m})^2]}{6 \cdot 11.7\text{ GPa} \cdot 471 \times 10^6\text{ mm}^4 \cdot 10\text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{GPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6\text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3\text{ mm})^5}{\text{m}^5} \right| = 1.72\text{ mm}$$

Since point B is pinned, $\Delta_{10\text{ ft}} = 0$

Deflection is plotted as negative numbers to show the beam deflecting downward under the applied load. Although the point load is 2 meters from the left end, the maximum deflection is at 4 meters.



Interpolation

The weight per unit length of a steel beam is the specific weight of steel (0.284 lb./in.^3) times the cross-sectional area of the beam. For metric sizes, the mass per unit length of a steel beam is the density of steel (7.85 g/cm^3) times the cross-sectional area of the beam. These values are listed in Appendix D.

In Example #9 we ignored the weight of the beam. How would the results change if we included it? With timber beams, the weight per unit length for a given timber size depends on the type of wood, because different wood species have different specific weights and densities. The density of Eastern white pine is 350 kg/m^3 . Look at Appendix E, Table E4, and there are three columns for mass per unit length, corresponding to densities of 320, 480, and 640 kg/m^3 ...but not 350 kg/m^3 , so we have to interpolate between numbers in the table.

Here are some rows of Table E4:

Designation	Width	Depth	Area	Moment of inertia	Section modulus	Mass per unit length $\rho = 320\text{ kg/m}^3$	Mass per unit length $\rho = 480\text{ kg/m}^3$	Mass per unit length $\rho = 640\text{ kg/m}^3$
	b (mm)	d (mm)	A (10^3 mm^2)	I_x (10^6 mm^4)	S_x (10^3 mm^3)	m/L (kg/m)	m/L (kg/m)	m/L (kg/m)
150×250	140	241	33.7	163	1360	10.8	16.2	21.6
150×300	140	292	40.9	290	1990	13.1	19.7	26.2
150×360	140	343	48.0	471	2750	15.4	23.1	30.8
150×410	140	394	55.2	714	3620	17.7	26.5	35.4

Chapter 10: Beam Deflection

From the 150×360 row, the mass per unit length is 15.4 kg/m for wood having a density of $\rho = 320 \text{ kg/m}^3$ and 23.1 kg/m

for wood having a density of $\rho = 480 \text{ kg/m}^3$. If you graph these values, you can see that the ratio of $\frac{350 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} - 320 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}}{480 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} - 320 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}}$ is

equal to $\frac{\left(\frac{m}{L}\right) - 15.4 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}}}{23.1 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} - 15.4 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}}}$. The math is essentially the same as a similar triangles calculation.

Rewrite the equation to solve for the mass per unit length:

$$\frac{m}{L} = \left[\frac{350 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} - 320 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}}{480 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} - 320 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}} \right] \left(23.1 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} - 15.4 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} \right) + 15.4 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} = 16.8 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}}$$

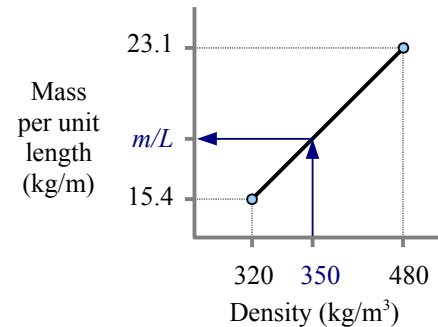
We need the weight per unit length, not the mass per unit length, so multiply by gravity:

$$w = \frac{m g}{L} = \frac{16.8 \text{ kg}}{\text{m}} \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \left| \frac{\text{N}}{\text{kg m}} \frac{\text{s}^2}{\text{m}} \right| = 165 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

Finding the weight per unit length of US Customary timbers is simpler because you do not have to convert mass to weight. Instead of density, you use specific weight.

Interpolation is a good skill to develop because it is used in many other technical fields, including physics, chemistry, heat transfer, fluid mechanics, and thermodynamics.

From Appendix F, the deflection due to beam weight is $\Delta_x = \frac{w x}{24 E I} (L^3 - 2 L x^2 + x^3)$. For each value of x in Example #9, use superposition to find the total deflection due to the point load and the beam weight.



Key Equations

If a beam segment has a constant moment, then the radius of curvature of that segment of beam is $R = \frac{E I}{M}$. The bending

stress in this segment of the beam is $\sigma = \frac{E c}{R}$. Otherwise, use the Formula Method and the equations in Appendix F.

Chapter 11: Beam Design

Wide-Flange Steel Beam Design in Six Easy Steps

In the previous three chapters, we learned how to calculate reaction forces and moments, how to draw shear and moment diagrams, how to calculate deflection, and how to calculate bending and shear stresses for a given beam size and shape. When you design a beam, you start with the applied loads, beam length, allowable stresses (and sometimes allowable deflection), and you must figure out what size beam to use. Use these six steps, and you can design a wide-flange steel beam.

Step 1 Identify all applied loads and design constraints (beam length, yield strength, and maximum deflection if specified).

Step 2 Draw the load diagram and calculate the reactions. Draw an equivalent load diagram if necessary.

Step 3 Draw shear and moment diagrams, and calculate V_{max} and M_{max} .

Step 4 Select the lightest beam from Appendix D that will support M_{max} , or has enough stiffness to limit Δ_{max} . The allowable moment in a steel beam $M_{allowable} = 0.6 \sigma_{YS} Z_x$, so the required plastic section modulus is $Z_{required} = \frac{M}{0.6 \sigma_{YS}} = \frac{1.67 M}{\sigma_{YS}}$. Solve for $Z_{required}$, then find the lightest W-beam that has a slightly larger value of Z .

U.S. Customary beams are identified by nominal depth and weight per unit length. For example, W12×40 is about 12 in. deep, and weighs 40 lb./ft.

Metric beams are identified by nominal depth and mass per unit length. For example, W360×110 is about 360 mm deep, and has a mass per unit length of 110 kg/m; convert to weight per unit length by multiplying by gravity (9.81 m/s^2), using the

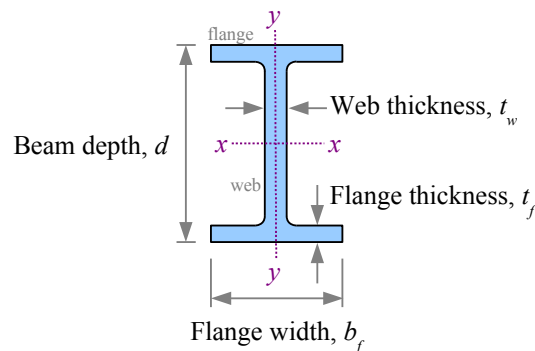
definition of a newton, $N = \frac{\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}}{\text{s}^2}$, to convert units: $w = \frac{m}{L} g = \frac{110 \text{ kg}}{\text{m}} \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \left| \frac{\text{N} \cdot \text{s}^2}{\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}} \right| \frac{\text{kN}}{10^3 \text{ N}} = 1.08 \text{ kN/m}$

If the maximum deflection is specified, write the equation for Δ_{max} , solve it for $I_{required}$, then find the lightest W-beam that has a slightly larger value of I .

Step 5 Add the beam weight to the load diagram, and recheck moment and deflection. You may have to draw completely new shear and moment diagrams. If $Z_{beam} > Z_{required}$, the beam is OK in bending, and if $I_{beam} > I_{required}$, the beam is OK in deflection. If either of these conditions is not met, pick a larger beam and recalculate.

Step 6 Check shear. For steel W-beams, $V_{applied} \leq 0.4 \sigma_{YS} d t_w$ where d is the beam depth and t_w is the thickness of the web. As long as this inequality is true, the beam is OK in shear.

The rule of thumb in these calculations is to use a beam that has more than you need (more I , more Z , more shear strength). Just like in real life, having more than you need is usually better than having less than you need (money, food, education, happiness, etc.)



Example #1 – Uniform distributed load on a W-beam

Select the lightest W-beam made of A992 steel that will support a uniform distributed load of 3 kip/ft. on a span of 20 ft.

Step 1 Identify loads and design constraints:

$$\begin{aligned} w &= 3 \text{ kip/ft.} \\ L &= 20 \text{ ft.} \\ \sigma_{YS} &= 50 \text{ ksi} \\ \Delta_{max} &\text{ is not constrained} \end{aligned}$$

Step 2 The loading is symmetrical:

$$R_A = R_B = \frac{wL}{2} = \frac{3 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \frac{20 \text{ ft.}}{2} = 30 \text{ kips}$$

Step 3 $V_{max} = 30 \text{ kips}$; $M_{max} = \frac{wL^2}{8} = \frac{3 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \frac{(20 \text{ ft.})^2}{8} = 150 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}$

Step 4

$$Z_{required} = \frac{1.67 M}{\sigma_{YS}} = \frac{1.67 \cdot 150 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}}{50 \text{ kips}} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2}{\text{ft.}} \right| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} = 60.1 \text{ in.}^3$$

Look in Appendix D for the lightest W-beam for which $Z > Z_{required}$. W18×35 has a plastic section modulus of 66.5 in.³ and is 35 lb./ft.; all other beams that meet the Z constraint are heavier.

Step 5 Add the beam weight to the shear and moment diagrams, and recalculate the maximum values. Since the shape of these diagrams has not changed, we can use the same equations as before, adding the beam weight to the applied weight.

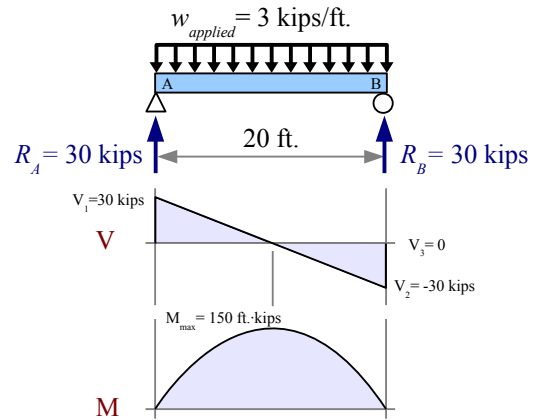
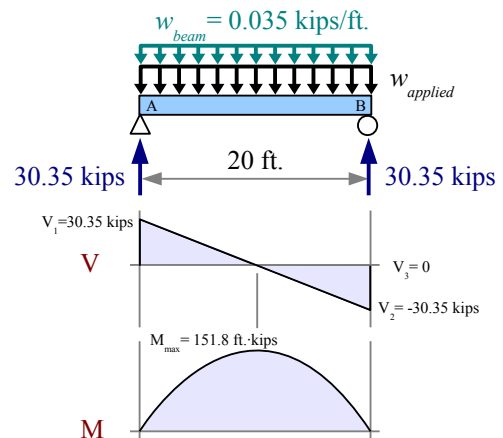
$$R_A = R_B = V_{max} = \frac{(w_{applied} + w_{beam})L}{2} = \frac{3.035 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \frac{20 \text{ ft.}}{2} = 30.35 \text{ kips}$$

$$M_{max} = \frac{(w_{applied} + w_{beam})L^2}{8} = \frac{3.035 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \frac{(20 \text{ ft.})^2}{8} = 151.8 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}$$

$$Z_{required} = \frac{1.67 M}{\sigma_{YS}} = \frac{1.67 \cdot 151.8 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}}{50 \text{ kips}} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2}{\text{ft.}} \right| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} = 60.8 \text{ in.}^3$$

We have $Z_{beam} = 66.5 \text{ in.}^3$. Since $Z_{beam} > Z_{required}$, the beam is OK in bending.

Step 6 The beam will support a shear load of $0.4 \sigma_{YS} d t_w = 0.4 \cdot 50 \frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot 17.7 \text{ in.} \cdot 0.300 \text{ in.} = 106 \text{ kips}$. Since we are applying only 30.35 kips in shear, the beam is OK in shear.

Applied load only**Applied load + beam weight**

Real engineering problems have multiple constraints. In the previous problem, we designed a beam that was strong enough to support the applied load and its own weight, without failing in bending or shear. In the next problem, we will add another constraint: maximum deflection. In many structures, deflection governs design; for example, most people feel uncomfortable walking across a strong floor that moves too much.

Example #2 – Uniform distributed load on a W-beam with a deflection constraint

Select the lightest W-beam made of A992 steel that will support a uniform distributed load of 3 kip/ft. on a span of 20 ft., and deflects no more than 0.6 in.

Step 1 Identify loads and design constraints:

$$w = 3 \text{ kip/ft.} \quad \sigma_{ys} = 50 \text{ ksi}$$

$$L = 20 \text{ ft.} \quad \Delta_{max} = 0.6 \text{ in.}$$

Steps 2 & 3 These steps are identical to Example #1:

$$R_A = R_B = 30 \text{ kips}, \quad V_{max} = 30 \text{ kips}, \quad \text{and} \quad M_{max} = 150 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}$$

Step 4 $Z_{required} = 60.1 \text{ in.}^3$ as in Example #1, therefore we should try W18×35 which has a plastic section modulus of 66.5 in.^3

For this loading case, $\Delta_{max} = \frac{5wL^4}{384EI}$. The moment of inertia required to support the deflection constraint is

$$I_{required} = \frac{5wL^4}{384E\Delta_{max}} = \frac{5}{384} \frac{3 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \frac{(20 \text{ ft.})^4}{30 \times 10^3 \text{ kip}} \frac{\text{in.}^2}{0.6 \text{ in.}} \left| \frac{(12 \text{ in.})^3}{\text{ft.}^3} \right| = 600 \text{ in.}^4.$$

The moment of inertia of a W18×35 beam is 510 in.^4 ... not enough.

The lightest W-beam with $I > 600 \text{ in.}^4$ is W21×50, which has

$$I_x = 984 \text{ in.}^4 \quad \text{and} \quad Z_x = 110 \text{ in.}^3$$

Step 5 Add beam weight to shear and moment diagrams; recalculate the max. values. The shape of the diagrams is unchanged; use the same equations as before, adding beam weight to applied weight.

$$R_A = R_B = V_{max} = \frac{(w_{applied} + w_{beam})L}{2} = \frac{3.05 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \frac{20 \text{ ft.}}{2} = 30.5 \text{ kips}$$

$$M_{max} = \frac{(w_{applied} + w_{beam})L^2}{8} = \frac{3.05 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \frac{(20 \text{ ft.})^2}{8} = 152.5 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}$$

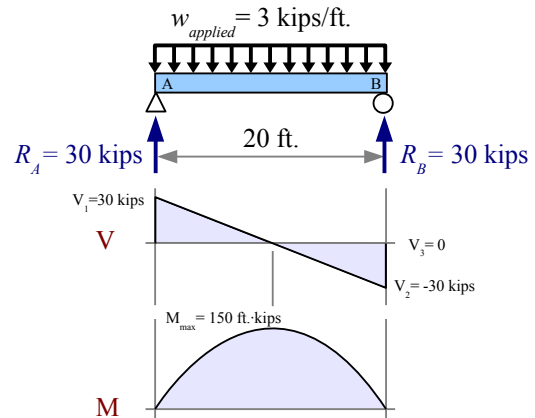
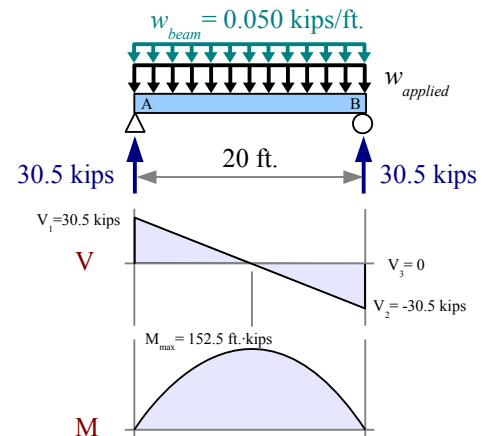
$$Z_{required} = \frac{1.67 M}{\sigma_{ys}} = \frac{1.67 \cdot 152.5 \text{ kip}\cdot\text{ft.}}{50 \text{ kips}} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2}{\text{ft.}} \right| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} = 61.1 \text{ in.}^3$$

We have $Z_{beam} = 110 \text{ in.}^3$. Since $Z_{beam} > Z_{required}$, the beam is OK in bending.

$$I_{required} = \frac{5(w_{applied} + w_{beam})L^4}{384E\Delta_{max}} = \frac{5}{384} \frac{3.05 \text{ kips}}{\text{ft.}} \frac{(20 \text{ ft.})^4}{30 \times 10^3 \text{ kip}} \frac{\text{in.}^2}{0.6 \text{ in.}} \left| \frac{(12 \text{ in.})^3}{\text{ft.}^3} \right| = 610 \text{ in.}^4$$

We have $I_{beam} = 984 \text{ in.}^4$. Since $I_{beam} > I_{required}$, the beam is OK in deflection.

Step 6 The beam will support a shear load of $0.4 \sigma_{ys} d t_w = 0.4 \cdot 50 \frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot 20.8 \text{ in.} \cdot 0.380 \text{ in.} = 158 \text{ kips}$. Since we are applying only 30.5 kips in shear, the beam is OK in shear.

Applied load only**Applied load + beam weight**

In these two Examples, the shear and moment diagrams retained their shapes when we added the weight of the beam. In most loading cases, we need to draw new shear and moment diagrams, as in Example #3.

Example #3 – Point load on a W-beam

Select the lightest W-beam made of A992 steel that will support a point load of 6 kips located 4 feet from the left end of a 12 ft. span.

Step 1 Identify loads and design constraints:

$$P = 6 \text{ kips} \quad \sigma_{ys} = 50 \text{ ksi}$$

$$L = 12 \text{ ft.} \quad \Delta_{max} \text{ is not constrained}$$

Step 2 For this loading case, $R_A = \frac{Pb}{L} = \frac{6 \text{ kips} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.}}{12 \text{ ft.}} = 4 \text{ kips}$ and

$$R_B = \frac{Pa}{L} = \frac{6 \text{ kips} \cdot 4 \text{ ft.}}{12 \text{ ft.}} = 2 \text{ kips}$$

Step 3 From the shear and moment diagrams, $V_{max} = 4 \text{ kips}$ and $M_{max} = 4 \text{ kips} \cdot 4 \text{ ft.} = 16 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$

Step 4 $Z_{required} = \frac{1.67 M}{\sigma_{ys}} = \frac{1.67 \cdot 16 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}}{50 \text{ kips}} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2}{\text{ft.}} \right| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} = 6.41 \text{ in.}^3$

From Appendix D, the best choice is W8×10 which has a $Z_x = 8.87 \text{ in.}^3$ and a weight per unit length of 10 lb./ft.

Step 5 Add beam weight to the load diagram; redraw shear & moment diagrams. Use the Method of Superposition to add the effects of the point load and the beam weight to find the reactions.

$$R_A = \frac{Pb}{L} + \frac{w_{beam}L}{2} = \frac{6 \text{ kips} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.}}{12 \text{ ft.}} + \frac{0.010 \text{ kips} \cdot 12 \text{ ft.}}{2} = 4.06 \text{ kips}$$

$$R_B = \frac{Pa}{L} + \frac{w_{beam}L}{2} = \frac{6 \text{ kips} \cdot 4 \text{ ft.}}{12 \text{ ft.}} + \frac{0.010 \text{ kips} \cdot 12 \text{ ft.}}{2} = 2.06 \text{ kips}$$

$$V_1 = R_A = 4.06 \text{ kips}$$

$$V_2 = V_1 - w_{beam} 4 \text{ ft.} = 4.02 \text{ kips}$$

$$V_3 = V_2 - 6 \text{ kips} = -1.98 \text{ kips}$$

$$V_4 = V_3 - w_{beam} 8 \text{ ft.} = -2.06 \text{ kips}$$

$$V_5 = V_4 + R_B = 0 \text{ kips} \quad \text{Since the maximum moment for the point}$$

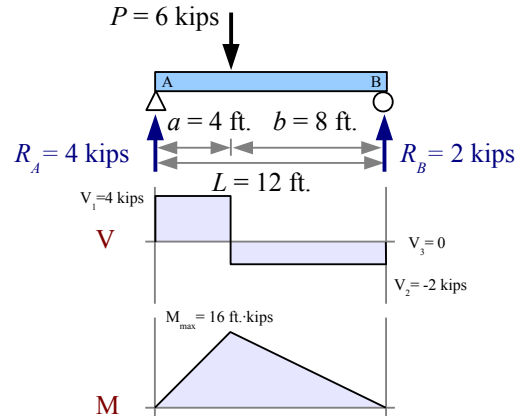
load occurs at the point load, and the maximum moment for the beam weight occurs at the midspan, we cannot add the M_{max} equations for each case. Instead, use the area of the first trapezoid in the shear diagram to find

$$M_{max} = \left(\frac{4.06 \text{ kips} + 4.02 \text{ kips}}{2} \right) \cdot 4 \text{ ft.} = 16.16 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.} \quad Z_{required} = \frac{1.67 M}{\sigma_{ys}} = \frac{1.67 \cdot 16.16 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}}{50 \text{ kips}} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2}{\text{ft.}} \right| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} = 6.48 \text{ in.}^3 \quad \text{We}$$

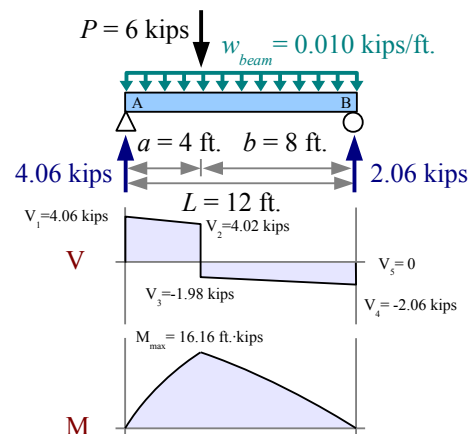
have $Z_{beam} = 8.87 \text{ in.}^3$. Since $Z_{beam} > Z_{required}$, the beam is OK in bending.

Step 6 The beam will support a shear load of $0.4 \sigma_{ys} d t_w = 0.4 \cdot 50 \frac{\text{kips}}{\text{in.}^2} \cdot 7.89 \text{ in.} \cdot 0.17 \text{ in.} = 26.8 \text{ kips}$. Since we are applying only 4.06 kips in shear, the beam is OK in shear.

Applied load only



Applied load + beam weight



Example #4 – Point loads on an overhanging W-beam

Select the lightest W-beam made of A992 steel that will support the point loads shown.

Step 1 Identify loads and design constraints.

$$\sigma_{YS} = 345 \text{ MPa}$$

Δ_{max} is not constrained

Step 2 Use Sum of the Moments and Sum of the Forces to find the reaction forces.

$$R_B = \frac{-40 \text{ kN} \cdot 1 \text{ m} + 180 \text{ kN} \cdot 3 \text{ m}}{5 \text{ m}} = 100 \text{ kN}$$

$$R_A = 40 \text{ kN} + 180 \text{ kN} - 100 \text{ kN} = 120 \text{ kN}$$

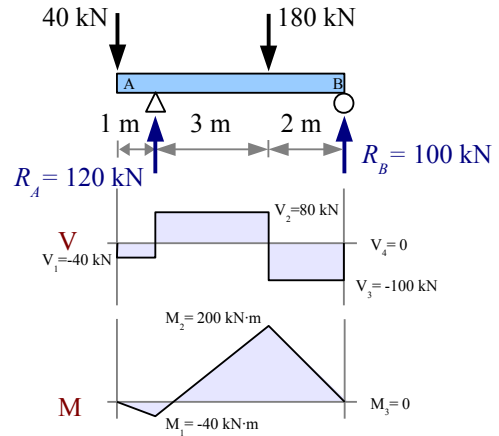
Step 3 Calculate the values for shear and moment diagrams.

$$V_1 = -40 \text{ kN}, \quad V_2 = V_1 + R_A = 80 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_3 = V_2 - 180 \text{ kN} = -100 \text{ kN}, \quad V_4 = V_3 + R_B = 0$$

$$M_1 = -40 \text{ kN} \cdot 1 \text{ m} = -40 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}, \quad M_2 = M_1 + 80 \text{ kN} \cdot 3 \text{ m} = 200 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m} = M_{max}, \quad M_3 = M_2 - 100 \text{ kN} \cdot 2 \text{ m} = 0$$

Applied load only



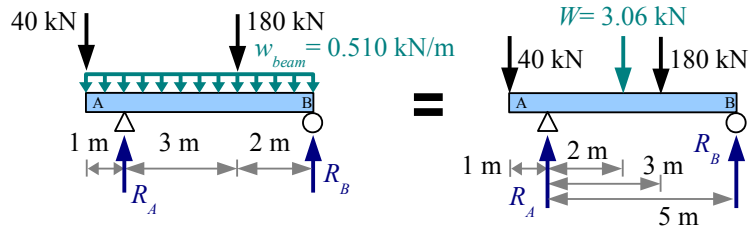
Step 4 $Z_{required} = \frac{1.67 M}{\sigma_{YS}} = \frac{1.67 \cdot 200 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}}{345 \text{ MPa}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^3}{\text{m}^3} = 968 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$ From Appendix D, the best choice is W460×52 which has a plastic section modulus of $1090 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$ and a mass per unit length of 52 kg/m. Multiply by gravity to get the weight per unit length, $w = \frac{52 \text{ kg}}{\text{m}} \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \left| \frac{\text{N}}{\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}} \right| \frac{\text{kN}}{10^3 \text{ N}} = 0.510 \frac{\text{kN}}{\text{m}}$

Step 5 Add beam weight to the load diagram, then draw an Equivalent Load Diagram to find the reactions.

The equivalent point load for the beam weight per unit length is

$$W = w \cdot L = \frac{0.510 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \cdot 6 \text{ m} = 3.06 \text{ kN}$$

Applied load + beam weight



It acts at the center of the beam, 2 m to the right of reaction R_A . Use Sum of the Moments and Sum of the Forces to find the reaction forces.

$$R_B = \frac{-40 \text{ kN} \cdot 1 \text{ m} + 3.06 \text{ kN} \cdot 2 \text{ m} + 180 \text{ kN} \cdot 3 \text{ m}}{5 \text{ m}} = 101.2 \text{ kN}$$

$$R_A = 40 \text{ kN} + 3.06 \text{ kN} + 180 \text{ kN} - 101.2 \text{ kN} = 121.8 \text{ kN}$$

Example #4, continued

Now draw the shear and moment diagrams

$$V_1 = -40 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_2 = V_1 - 0.51 \frac{\text{kN}}{\text{m}} \cdot 1 \text{ m} = -40.5 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_3 = V_2 + R_A = 81.3 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_4 = V_3 - 0.51 \frac{\text{kN}}{\text{m}} \cdot 3 \text{ m} = 79.8 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_5 = V_4 - 180 \text{ kN} = -100.2 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_6 = V_5 - 0.51 \frac{\text{kN}}{\text{m}} \cdot 2 \text{ m} = -101.2 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_7 = V_6 + R_B = 0$$

$$M_1 = -\left(\frac{40 \text{ kN} + 40.5 \text{ kN}}{2}\right) \cdot 1 \text{ m} = -40.3 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

$$M_2 = M_1 + \left(\frac{81.3 \text{ kN} + 79.8 \text{ kN}}{2}\right) \cdot 3 \text{ m} = 201.4 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

$$M_3 = M_2 - \left(\frac{100.2 \text{ kN} + 101.2 \text{ kN}}{2}\right) \cdot 2 \text{ m} = 0$$

$$Z_{\text{required}} = \frac{1.67 M}{\sigma_{YS}} = \frac{1.67 \cdot 201.4 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}}{345 \text{ MPa}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^3}{\text{m}^3} \right| = 975 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$$

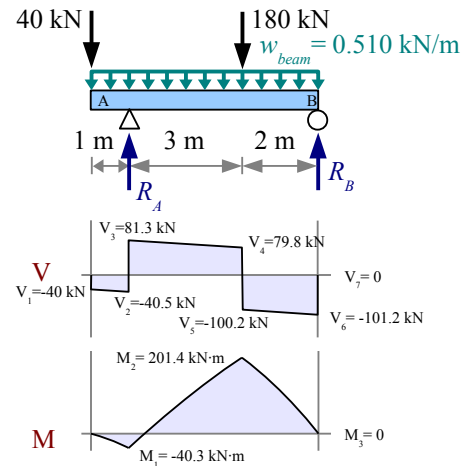
We have $Z_{\text{beam}} = 1090 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$ Since $Z_{\text{beam}} > Z_{\text{required}}$, the beam is OK in bending.

Step 6 The beam will support a shear load of

$$0.4 \sigma_{YS} d t_w = \frac{0.4 \cdot 345 \text{ MPa} \cdot 450 \text{ mm} \cdot 7.62 \text{ mm}}{\left| \frac{10^3 \text{ kN}}{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2} \right| \left| \frac{\text{m}^2}{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2} \right|} = 473 \text{ kN}$$

Since we are applying only 101.2 kN in shear, the beam is OK in shear.

Applied load + beam weight



Timber Beam Design in Six Easy Steps

Rectangular cross-section timber beam design is similar to wide-flange steel beam design, except we use section modulus S instead of plastic section modulus Z . Otherwise, the steps are the same:

Step 1 Identify all applied loads and design constraints.

Step 2 Draw the load diagram and calculate the reactions. Draw an equivalent load diagram if necessary.

Step 3 Draw shear and moment diagrams, and calculate V_{max} and M_{max} .

Step 4 Select the lightest beam from Appendix E that will support M_{max} , or has enough stiffness to limit Δ_{max} . The allowable moment in a timber beam $M_{allowable} = \sigma S_x$, so the required section modulus is $S_{required} = \frac{M}{\sigma_{allowable \text{ bending}}}$. Solve for $S_{required}$, then find the lightest timber beam that has a slightly larger value of S .

If the maximum deflection is specified, write the equation for Δ_{max} , solve it for $I_{required}$, then find the lightest timber beam that has a slightly larger value of I , just like we did for steel beams previously.

Step 5 Add the beam weight to the load diagram, and recheck moment and deflection. You may have to draw completely new shear and moment diagrams. If $S_{beam} > S_{required}$, the beam is OK in bending, and if $I_{beam} > I_{required}$, the beam is OK in deflection. If either of these conditions is not met, pick a larger beam and recalculate.

Step 6 Check shear. For rectangular cross-section timbers, $\tau = \frac{3V}{2A}$. If $V_{applied} < \frac{2A\tau_{allowable}}{3}$, the beam is OK in shear.

Example #5 – Point load on a cantilever timber beam with a deflection constraint

Select the lightest Southern yellow pine beam for this load that deflects no more than 0.5 in. at the free end.

Step 1 Identify loads and design constraints.

P	=	800 lb.
L	=	14 ft.
a	=	12 ft.
Δ_{max}	≤	0.5 in.
$\sigma_{allowable \text{ bending}}$	=	1400 psi (from Appendix E)
$\tau_{allowable}$	=	175 psi (from Appendix E)
E	=	1700 ksi (from Appendix E)
γ	=	34 lb./ft. ³ (from Appendix E)

Step 2 Solve for reactions: $R_A = P = 800 \text{ lb.}$ and $M_{max} = -Pa = -800 \text{ lb.} \times 12 \text{ ft.} = -9600 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$

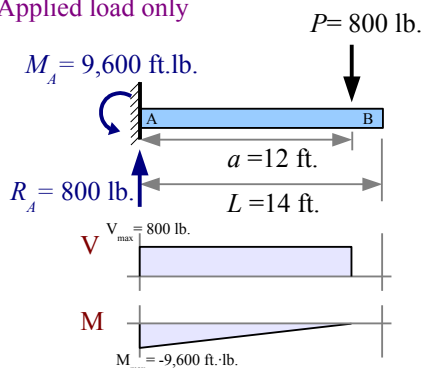
Step 3 Draw shear and moment diagrams, and identify maximum values: $|V_{max}| = 800 \text{ lb.}$, $|M_{max}| = 9600 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$

$$\text{Step 4 } S_{required} = \frac{M}{\sigma_{all. \text{ bending}}} = \frac{9,600 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}}{1400 \text{ lb.}} \left| \frac{\text{in.}^2}{\text{ft.}} \right| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} = 82.3 \text{ in.}^3$$

$$\text{From Appendix F, } \Delta_{max} = \frac{Pa^2(3L-a)}{6EI}$$

$$\text{Rewrite to solve for } I_{required} = \frac{Pa^2(3L-a)}{6E\Delta_{max}} = \frac{800 \text{ lb.} (12 \text{ ft.})^2 \text{ in.}^2}{6 (1700 \text{ ksi}) (0.5 \text{ in.})} \left| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| \left| \frac{(\text{in.})^3}{\text{ft.}^3} \right| = 1171 \text{ in.}^4$$

Applied load only



Example #5 (continued)

Look in Appendix E for the lightest Southern yellow pine beam for which $S > S_{required}$ and $I > I_{required}$. The lightest beam that meets the section modulus criterion is a 4×14 beam, with $S = 102 \text{ in.}^3$. However, this beam does not meet the moment of inertia criterion. The lightest beam that meets both criteria is a 6×16 beam, with $S = 220 \text{ in.}^3$ and $I = 1710 \text{ in.}^4$.

Step 5 Add the beam weight to the load diagram, and redraw the shear and moment diagrams. Since the specific weight of Southern yellow pine is 34 lb./ft.^3 , we need to interpolate, as described in Chapter 10.

$$w = \left[\frac{34 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}^3} - 30 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}^3}}{40 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}^3} - 30 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}^3}} \right] \left(23.7 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}} - 17.8 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}} \right) + 17.8 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}} = 20.2 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}}$$

Using the Method of Superposition, we can add the effects of the point load and the distributed load to find the reaction force and reaction moment.

$$R_A = V_{max} = P + wL = 800 \text{ lb.} + 20.2 \text{ lb./ft.} \times 14 \text{ ft.} = 1083 \text{ lb.}$$

$$M_A = M_{max} = -Pa - \frac{w_{beam} L^2}{2} \\ = -800 \text{ lb.} \times 12 \text{ ft.} - \frac{20.2 \text{ lb.} (14 \text{ ft.})^2}{2} = -11,580 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$$

$$S_{required} = \frac{M}{\sigma_{all.bending}} = \frac{11,580 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}}{1400 \text{ lb.}} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| = 99.3 \text{ in.}^3$$

We have $S_{beam} = 220 \text{ in.}^3$. Since $S_{beam} > S_{required}$, the beam is OK in bending.

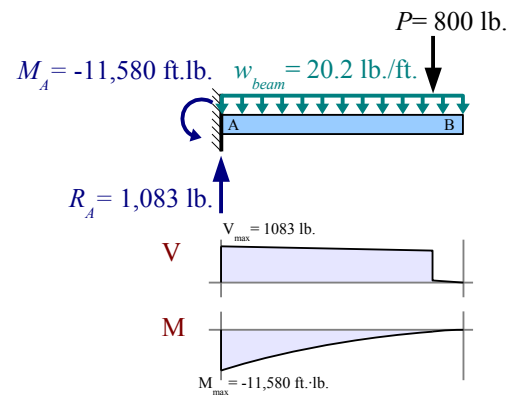
Using the Method of Superposition, we can add the effect of the beam weight to solve for $I_{required}$. From Appendix F, the maximum deflection due to a uniform distributed load on a cantilever beam is $\Delta_{max} = \frac{wL^4}{8EI}$, therefore

$$I_{required} = \frac{Pa^2(3L-a)}{6E\Delta_{max}} + \frac{wL^4}{8E\Delta_{max}} = 1171 \text{ in.}^4 + \frac{20.2 \text{ lb.} (14 \text{ ft.})^4 \text{ in.}^2}{8 \text{ ft.} \cdot 1700 \text{ kip} \cdot 0.5 \text{ in.}} \left| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| \left| \frac{(12 \text{ in.})^3}{\text{ft.}^3} \right| = 1368 \text{ in.}^4$$

We have $I_{beam} = 1710 \text{ in.}^4$. Since $I_{beam} > I_{required}$, the beam is OK in deflection.

Step 6 The beam can support a shear load of $\frac{2A\tau_{allowable}}{3} = \frac{2 \cdot 85.3 \text{ in.}^2 \cdot 175 \text{ lb.}}{3 \text{ in.}^2} = 9,952 \text{ lb.}$ Since we are applying only 1,083 lb. in shear, the beam is OK in shear.

Applied load + beam weight, 6×16 timber



Example #6 – Point loads and a uniform distributed load on a timber beam

Select the lightest Southern yellow pine beam that will support the point loads and distributed load shown.

Step 1 Identify loads and design constraints. From Appendix E,
 $\sigma_{allowable\ bending} = 9.7 \text{ MPa}$, $\tau_{allowable} = 1.2 \text{ MPa}$, and $\rho = 550 \text{ kg/m}^3$

Step 2 Solve for reactions by drawing an equivalent load diagram, where the uniform distributed load is equivalent to a 960 N point load.

$$R_B = \frac{-2500 \text{ N} \cdot 2 \text{ m} + 960 \text{ N} \cdot 3 \text{ m} + 800 \text{ N} \cdot 7 \text{ m}}{6 \text{ m}} = 580 \text{ N} \text{ and}$$

$$R_A = 2500 \text{ N} + 960 \text{ N} + 800 \text{ N} - 580 \text{ N} = 3680 \text{ N}$$

Step 3 Use the original load diagram to draw shear and moment diagrams, and identify maximum values $V_{max} = 2500 \text{ N}$ and $M_{max} = 5000 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$.

Step 4 Recalculate the section modulus.

$$S_{required} = \frac{M}{\sigma_{all. bending}}$$

$$= \frac{5000 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}}{9.7 \text{ MPa}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ N}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^3}{\text{m}^3} \right| = 515 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$$

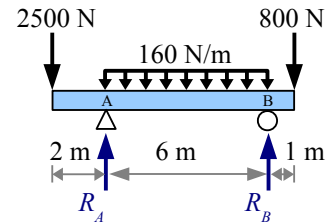
The lightest beam in Appendix E with a larger section modulus is a 50×300 beam, with $S = 519 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$.

Step 5 Add the beam weight to the load diagram, and redraw the shear and moment diagrams. Since the density of Southern yellow pine is 550 kg/m^3 , interpolation is necessary.

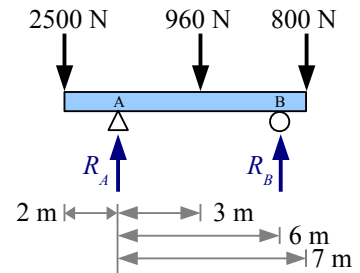
$$\frac{m}{L} = \left[\frac{550 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} - 480 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}}{640 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} - 480 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}} \right] \left(6.98 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} - 5.24 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} \right) + 5.24 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} = 6.00 \text{ kg/m}$$

$$\text{Multiply by gravity to obtain the weight per unit length } w = \frac{m}{L} g = \frac{6.00 \text{ kg}}{\text{m}} \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \left| \frac{\text{N} \cdot \text{s}^2}{\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}} \right| = 58.9 \text{ N/m}$$

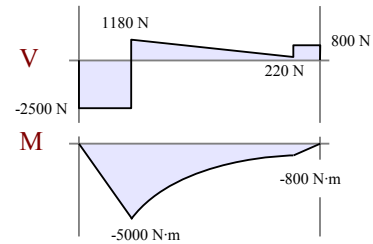
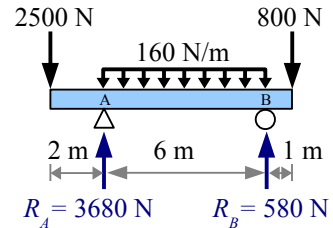
Applied loads only



Equivalent load diagram



Applied loads only

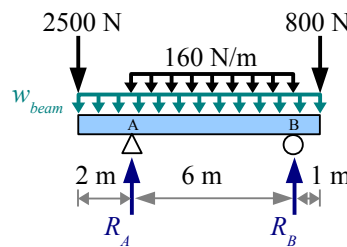
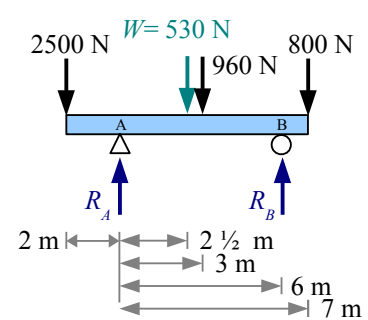


Example #6 (continued)

Using the Method of Superposition and an equivalent load diagram, we can calculate the additional reaction forces at points A and B due to the weight of the beam.

$$R_B = 580 \text{ N} + \frac{530 \text{ N} \cdot 2.5 \text{ m}}{6 \text{ m}} = 801 \text{ N}$$

$$R_A = 2500 \text{ N} + 960 \text{ N} + 800 \text{ N} + 530 \text{ N} - 801 \text{ N} = 3990 \text{ N}$$

Applied loads + beam weight**Equivalent load diagram**

Redraw the shear and moment diagrams, and identify maximum values

$$V_{\max} = 2618 \text{ N} \quad \text{and} \quad M_{\max} = 5118 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}$$

$$S_{\text{required}} = \frac{M}{\sigma_{\text{all, bending}}} = \frac{5118 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}}{9.7 \text{ MPa}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa m}^2}{10^6 \text{ N}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^3}{\text{m}^3} \right| = 528 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$$

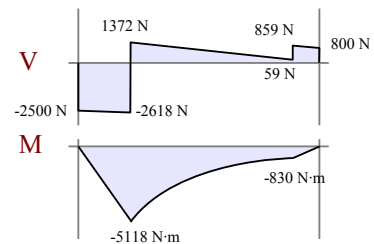
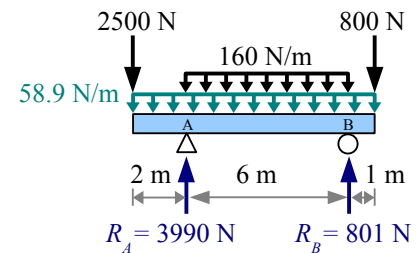
The selected beam has a smaller value of S , so this beam is not strong enough in bending. Try again with the next-lightest choice, a 50×360 beam, with $S = 721 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$.

Recalculate the mass per unit length:

$$\frac{m}{L} = \left[\frac{550 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} - 480 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}}{640 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} - 480 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}} \right] \left(8.23 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} - 6.17 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} \right) + 6.17 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}} = 7.07 \text{ kg/m}$$

Multiply by gravity to obtain the weight per unit length:

$$w = \frac{m g}{L} = \frac{7.07 \text{ kg}}{\text{m}} \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \left| \frac{\text{N s}^2}{\text{kg m}} \right| = 69.4 \text{ N/m}$$

Applied loads + 50×300 beam weight

Example #6 (continued)

Solve for reactions again. $R_B = 580 \text{ N} + \frac{624 \text{ N} \cdot 2.5 \text{ m}}{6 \text{ m}} = 840 \text{ N}$ and

$$R_A = 2500 \text{ N} + 960 \text{ N} + 800 \text{ N} + 624 \text{ N} - 840 \text{ N} = 4045 \text{ N}$$

Draw shear and moment diagrams, and identify maximum values

$$V_{\max} = 2639 \text{ N} \text{ and } M_{\max} = 5139 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$$

$$S_{\text{required}} = \frac{M}{\sigma_{\text{all.bending}}} = \frac{5139 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}}{9.7 \text{ MPa}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ N}} \right| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^3}{\text{m}^3} = 530 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^3$$

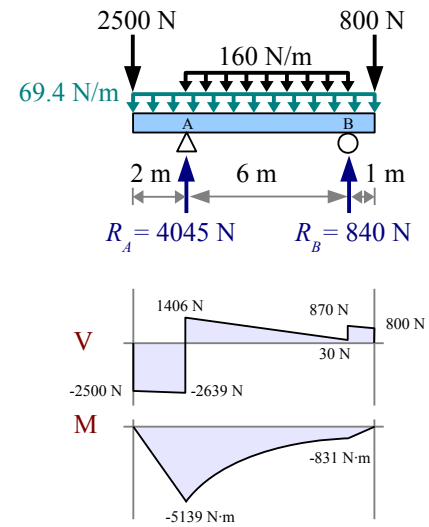
Since the selected beam has a larger value of S , the beam is good in bending.

Step 6 The beam can support a shear load of

$$\frac{2 A \tau_{\text{all}}}{3} = \frac{2 \cdot 12.8 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^2 \cdot 1.2 \text{ MPa}}{3} \left| \frac{10^6 \text{ N}}{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{m}^2}{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2} = 10,240 \text{ N}$$

Since we are applying only 2639 N in shear, the beam is OK in shear.

Applied loads + 50×360 beam weight



It is easy to compare the weights of steel W-beams because each beam's designation is **nominal depth × weight/length** (or **nominal depth × mass/length** for SI beams). Just look at the second number, and you can compare weights of different W-beams.

This is not the case for timber beams, which are designated as **nominal width × nominal depth**. The second number does not tell you anything about the weight of the beam. For example, a 2×10 timber beam is 28% lighter than a 4×6 timber beam. Instead, look at the weight per unit length in the columns at the right, in Appendix E.

All Other Beams

Beams can be made of other shapes and materials: aluminum extrusions, laminated wood with a nonrectangular cross-section, steel pipe, and so forth. If your beam is neither a wide-flange steel beam nor a rectangular cross-section timber beam, follow these 6 steps (essentially the same as the Timber Beam process, except for Step 6).

Step 1 Identify all applied loads and design constraints.

Step 2 Draw the load diagram and calculate the reactions. Draw an equivalent load diagram if necessary.

Step 3 Draw shear and moment diagrams, and calculate V_{\max} and M_{\max} .

Step 4 Select the lightest beam that will support M_{\max} , or has enough stiffness to limit Δ_{\max} . Solve for $S_{\text{required}} = \frac{M}{\sigma_{\text{allowable}}}$, then find the lightest beam that has a slightly larger value of S .

If the maximum deflection is specified, write the equation for Δ_{\max} , solve it for I_{required} , then find the lightest beam that has a slightly larger value of I .

Step 5 Add the beam weight to the load diagram, and recheck moment and deflection. If $S_{\text{beam}} > S_{\text{required}}$, the beam is OK in bending, and if $I_{\text{beam}} > I_{\text{required}}$, the beam is OK in deflection. If either of these conditions is not met, pick a larger beam and recalculate.

Step 6 Check shear. For rectangular cross-sections, use $V_{\text{applied}} < \frac{2 A \tau_{\text{allowable}}}{3}$ as we did with timber beams. For all other

shapes, rewrite the General Shear Formula $\tau = \frac{V Q}{I t_{\text{net}}}$ and use $V_{\text{applied}} < \frac{\tau_{\text{allowable}} I t_{\text{net}}}{Q}$. The allowable shear stress for timber is given in Appendix E. Allowable shear stress for steel is $0.4 \sigma_{\text{YS}}$.

Chapter 11: Beam Design

Key Equations

Steel wide-flange beam design

Follow the 6-step method for steel W-beams, using $Z_{required} = \frac{1.67 M}{\sigma_{YS}}$ and $V_{applied} \leq 0.4 \sigma_{YS} d t_w$.

Timber beam design

Follow the 6-step method for timber beams, using $S_{required} = \frac{M}{\sigma_{allowable bending}}$ and $V_{applied} < \frac{2 A \tau_{allowable}}{3}$.

All other beams

Follow the 6-step method for timber beams, using $S_{required} = \frac{M}{\sigma_{allowable}}$ and $V_{applied} < \frac{\tau_{allowable} I t_{net}}{Q}$.

Chapter 12: Combined Stresses

Tension + Bending

Previous chapters discussed how to solve bending, torsion, tension, thermal, and pressure problems independently. Many real problems combine states of stress: a steam pipe restrained at both ends (pressure + thermal stress), horizontal beams in a tall building (vertical bending due to gravity + horizontal bending due to wind loads), or a bolt as it is tightened (torsion + tension). We can use the *Method of Superposition* to solve these problems. Calculate the stresses at a given point due to each loading condition, then add the stresses. We use the same method to calculate deflections.

Example #1 – Pipe loaded in tension and bending

A 2 meter long, 51 mm diameter Schedule 40 steel pipe is loaded axially in tension with a load of 60 kN. The pipe is also a simply-supported beam, loaded transversely at the midspan with a load of 3 kN. Calculate the maximum stress in the pipe. Report the results in MPa.

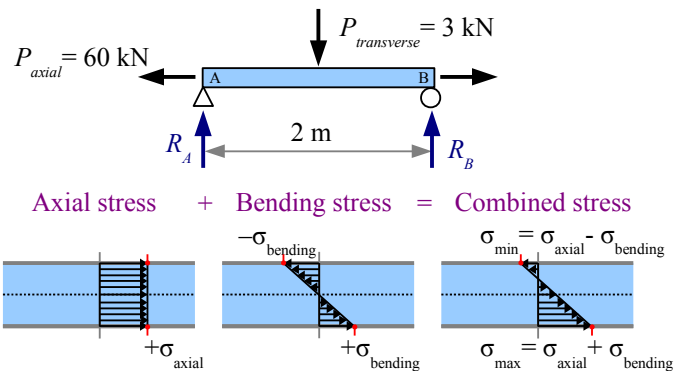
Solution Using the Method of Superposition, add the maximum tensile stresses resulting from the axial load and the bending load. The tensile stress in the pipe due to the axial load is

$$\sigma_{axial} = \frac{P_{axial}}{A} = \frac{60 \text{ kN}}{710 \text{ mm}^2} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ N}}{\text{kN}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{MPa mm}^2}{\text{N}} \right| = 84.5 \text{ MPa}$$

From the Formula Method (Appendix F), the maximum bending moment for this loading case is $M_{max} = \frac{PL}{4}$ where P is the transverse load $P_{transverse}$. Therefore, the bending stress is $\sigma_{bending} = \frac{M}{S} = \frac{P_{transverse} L}{4S}$.

$$\text{Solving, } \sigma_{bending} = \frac{3 \text{ kN} \cdot 2 \text{ m}}{4 \cdot 9410 \text{ mm}^3} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ N}}{\text{kN}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{MPa mm}^2}{\text{N}} \right| \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ mm}}{\text{m}} \right| = 159 \text{ MPa} .$$

The combined maximum stress is $\sigma_{combined} = \sigma_{axial} + \sigma_{bending} = 84.5 \text{ MPa} + 159 \text{ MPa} = 244 \text{ MPa}$. This maximum occurs on the bottom side of the pipe at the midspan. (On the top side of the pipe at the midspan, the combined stress is $\sigma_{combined} = \sigma_{axial} - \sigma_{bending} = 84.5 \text{ MPa} - 159 \text{ MPa} = -75 \text{ MPa}$.)



Bending in Two Directions

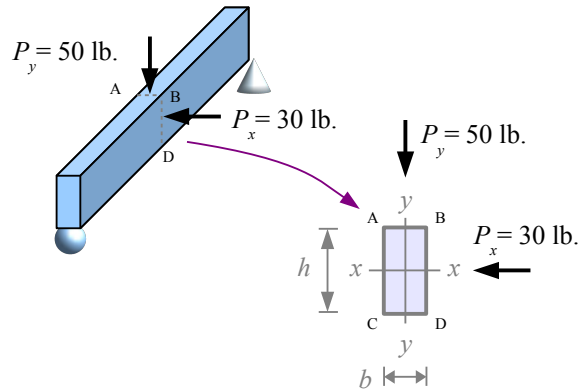
Consider a square cross-section beam loaded vertically at the midspan: the maximum bending stress occurs on the top and bottom surfaces. If the beam is loaded horizontally at the midspan, the maximum bending stress occurs on the side surfaces. We can add the stresses at the corners to find the extremes.

The beam deflects down and to the left; we can calculate these deflections, then combine them using trigonometry.

Example #2 – Board loaded in bending in 2 directions

A simply supported Douglas fir 2×4 timber is 84 in. long. It has a vertical load of 50 lb. and a horizontal load of 30 lb. at the midspan. Calculate the combined stresses at the edges of the beam, at the midspan (in psi). Also calculate vertical, horizontal, and total deflections (in inches).

Stress Solution From the Formula Method, the bending stress at the midspan due to the vertical load is $\sigma_y = \frac{M_x}{S_x} = \frac{P_y L}{4 S_x}$ where S_x is the section modulus about the x-x axis (listed in



Appendix E). This stress is positive (tension) at points C and D, because they are on the far side of the beam from the applied load.

The stress is negative (compression) at points A and B, because they are on the same side of the beam as the applied load.

$$\sigma_y = \frac{P_y L}{4 S_x} = \frac{50 \text{ lb.} \cdot 84 \text{ in.}}{4 \cdot 3.06 \text{ in.}^3} = 343 \text{ psi}, \text{ therefore } \sigma_{y(C)} = \sigma_{y(D)} = +343 \text{ psi} \text{ and } \sigma_{y(A)} = \sigma_{y(B)} = -343 \text{ psi}.$$

The bending stress at the midspan due to the horizontal load is $\sigma_x = \frac{M_y}{S_y} = \frac{P_x L}{4 S_y}$. This stress is positive (tension) at points A and C, negative (compression) at points B and D. Appendix E does not list S_y for timber beams, so we have to calculate it. $I_y = \frac{hb^3}{12} = \frac{3.5 \text{ in.} (1.5 \text{ in.})^3}{12} = 0.984 \text{ in.}^4$, therefore $S_y = \frac{I_y}{c} = \frac{I_y}{(b/2)} = \frac{0.984 \text{ in.}^4}{(1.5 \text{ in.}/2)} = 1.313 \text{ in.}^3$.

$$\sigma_x = \frac{P_x L}{4 S_y} = \frac{30 \text{ lb.} \cdot 84 \text{ in.}}{4 \cdot 1.313 \text{ in.}^3} = 480 \text{ psi}, \text{ therefore } \sigma_{x(A)} = \sigma_{x(C)} = +480 \text{ psi} \text{ and } \sigma_{x(B)} = \sigma_{x(D)} = -480 \text{ psi}.$$

The final step is to add the stresses at each location. The maximum tensile stress is 823 psi at point C; the maximum compressive stress is -823 psi at point B.

Deflection Solution From the Appendix, deflection due to a point load at the midspan is $\Delta_{max} = \frac{PL^3}{48EI}$.

Point	σ_y (psi)	σ_x (psi)	σ_{total} (psi)
A	-343	480	137
B	-343	-480	-823
C	343	480	823
D	343	-480	-137

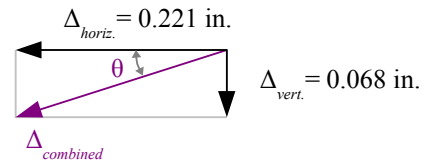
$$\text{Vertical deflection is } \Delta_{vert.} = \frac{P_y L^3}{48 E I_x} = \frac{50 \text{ lb.} (84 \text{ in.})^3}{48 \cdot 1700 \text{ kips} \cdot 5.36 \text{ in.}^4} \left| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| = 0.068 \text{ in. downward.}$$

$$\text{Horizontal deflection is } \Delta_{horiz.} = \frac{P_x L^3}{48 E I_y} = \frac{30 \text{ lb.} (84 \text{ in.})^3}{48 \cdot 1700 \text{ kips} \cdot 0.984 \text{ in.}^4} \left| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| = 0.221 \text{ in. to the left.}$$

Use trigonometry to find the combined deflection and its direction.

$$\Delta_{combined} = \sqrt{\Delta_{horiz.}^2 + \Delta_{vert.}^2} = \sqrt{(0.221 \text{ in.})^2 + (0.068 \text{ in.})^2} = 0.231 \text{ in.}$$

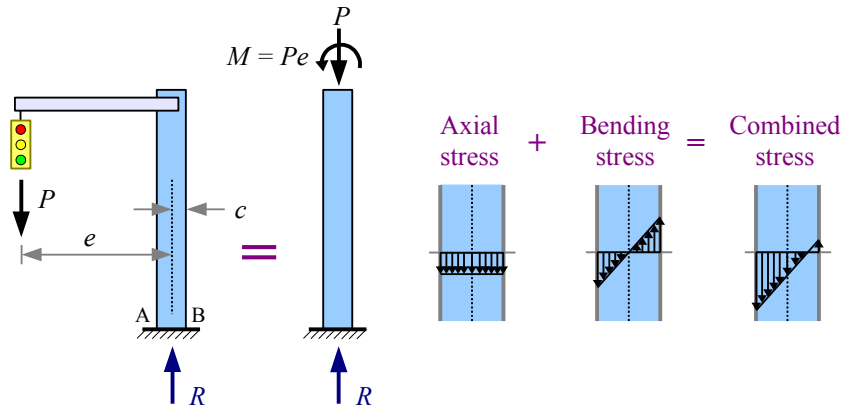
$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{\Delta_{vert.}}{\Delta_{horiz.}} = \tan^{-1} \frac{0.068 \text{ in.}}{0.221 \text{ in.}} = 17.1^\circ$$



Eccentric Loading

Consider an axial member loaded in tension or compression. If the load path is not along the neutral axis, then a bending moment develops in addition to the axial load.

The weight of a traffic light hanging from a cantilever arm creates an axial stress $\sigma_{axial} = -P/A$ in the vertical support pole (negative because the load is compressive), while the weight times the moment arm creates a bending moment in the support pole, causing a bending stress.



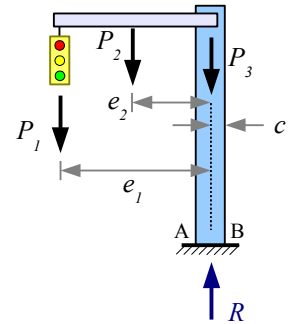
We know that moment is force times perpendicular distance. In the diagram above, the eccentric distance e is the distance between the neutral axis of the post and the line of direction of the applied force. Therefore, the moment is $M = Pe$. The bending stress at points A and B is $\sigma_{bending} = \pm \frac{Mc}{I} = \pm \frac{Pec}{I}$. The combined stress in the pole is

$$\sigma_{combined} = \sigma_{axial} + \sigma_{bending} = \frac{-P}{A} \pm \frac{Pec}{I}. \text{ At point A, the bending stress is compressive, so } \sigma_A = \frac{-P}{A} - \frac{Pec}{I}. \text{ At point B, the}$$

$$\text{bending stress is tensile, so } \sigma_B = \frac{-P}{A} + \frac{Pec}{I}.$$

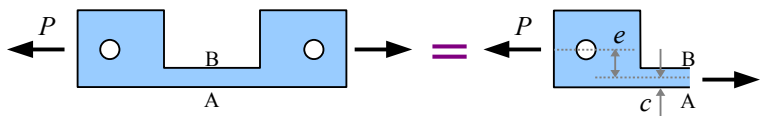
The problem is more realistic if you include the weights of the arm and the pole. Let P_1 = the weight of the light, P_2 = the weight of the arm, and P_3 = the weight of the pole. The method is the same, but now we have more terms. The combined stress in the pole is

$$\sigma_{combined} = \sigma_{axial} + \sigma_{bending} = \frac{-(P_1 + P_2 + P_3)}{A} \pm \left[\frac{P_1 e_1 c}{I} + \frac{P_2 e_2 c}{I} \right]$$



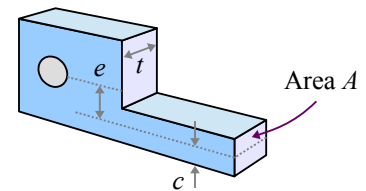
Note: since we're calculating the stresses *in the base of the vertical pole*, the values of A , I , and c are for the pole, not the arm.

Some problems that look like axial loading problems are actually eccentric loading problems. Consider this link in a conveyor belt chain. Pins in the two holes connect this link to neighboring links. To find the stresses at points A and B, cut the link as shown. The total stress at these points is



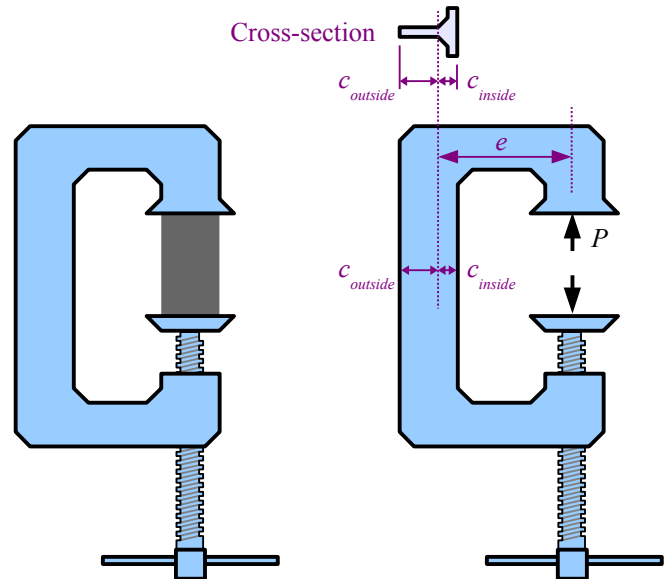
$$\sigma_{combined} = \sigma_{axial} + \sigma_{bending} = \frac{P}{A} \pm \frac{Pec}{I_x} \text{ where } A \text{ is the cross-sectional area at the cut}$$

section, and I_x is the moment of inertia in the link at the cut section. In this diagram, t is the thickness of the link.



A C-clamp or an arbor press is an eccentric load problem: the frame is eccentrically loaded with respect to the workpiece clamped between the anvils.

The cross-section of the body of a cast-iron C-clamp or arbor press is not a rectangle, because cast iron is weaker in tension than in compression. The inside surface of the clamp is loaded in tension, therefore it needs more material than the outside surface of the clamp. Calculate the moment of inertia of a compound shape, find the neutral axis, and determine two different values of c – one for the inside surface, and the other for the outside surface. Eccentricity e is the distance from the centerline of the clamp screw to the neutral axis of the clamp body.



Another type of eccentric load involves a block of stone or concrete...a so-called short-block problem. The block is short in comparison with a masonry column.

Consider a short masonry block with a vertical point load. If the load is concentric, then the stress at the base of the block is due to the point load and the weight of the block:

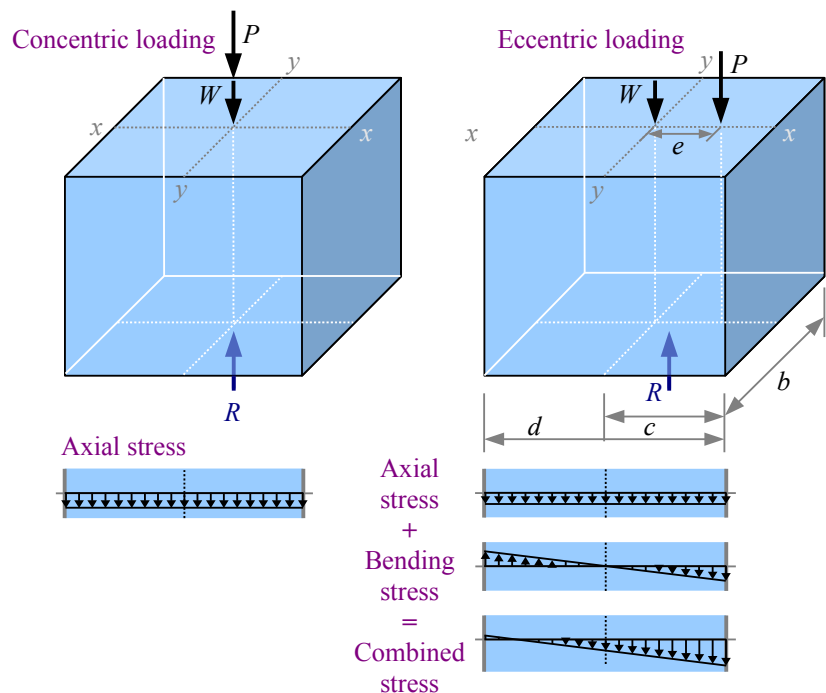
$$\sigma = \frac{-W}{A} - \frac{P}{A} . \text{ Both terms are negative}$$

because they are both compressive loads.

If the load is offset from the center, we have an eccentric load problem. The combined stress at the base of the block is the axial term plus the bending moment term. The weight (a concentric load) adds to the axial term, but not to the bending moment term.

The combined stress at the base of an eccentrically loaded short block is

$$\sigma = \frac{-W}{A} - \frac{P}{A} \pm \frac{P e c}{I_y} \text{ where } I_y = \frac{b d^3}{12} .$$



Example #3 – Short block with one eccentricity

A limestone block measuring 2.5 ft. × 4 ft. × 3 ft. has an eccentric load of 12 kips placed 1.5 ft. to the right of center as shown. From Appendix B, the specific weight of the stone is 0.0961 lb./in.³. Calculate the stresses at corners A, B, C, and D. Report the results in psi.

Solution Weight is specific weight times volume:

$$W = \gamma V = \frac{0.0961 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^3} \cdot \frac{2.5 \text{ ft.} \times 4 \text{ ft.} \times 3 \text{ ft.}}{\left(\frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}}\right)^3} = 4981 \text{ lb.}$$

Axial stress due to the weight is

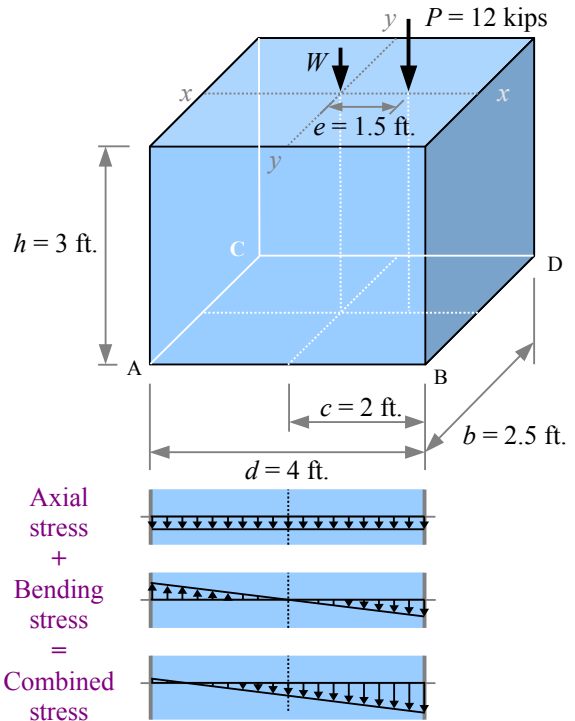
$$\sigma_w = \frac{-W}{A} = \frac{-4981 \text{ lb.}}{2.5 \text{ ft.} \times 4 \text{ ft.}} \left| \frac{\text{ft.}^2}{(12 \text{ in.})^2} \right| = -3.46 \text{ psi}$$

Axial stress due to the point load is

$$\sigma_p = \frac{-P}{A} = \frac{-12 \text{ kips}}{2.5 \text{ ft.} \times 4 \text{ ft.}} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ lb.}}{\text{kip}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{ft.}^2}{(12 \text{ in.})^2} \right| = -8.33 \text{ psi}$$

The moment of inertia of the plan-view of the block with

respect to the y-y axis is $I_y = \frac{b d^3}{12} = \frac{2.5 \text{ ft.} (4 \text{ ft.})^3}{12} = 13.3 \text{ ft.}^4$



$$\text{Bending stress due to the eccentric load is } \sigma_{\text{bending}} = \pm \frac{P e c}{I_y} = \pm \frac{12 \text{ kips} \cdot 1.5 \text{ ft.} \cdot 2 \text{ ft.}}{13.3 \text{ ft.}^4} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ lb.}}{\text{kip}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{ft.}^2}{(12 \text{ in.})^2} \right| = \pm 18.75 \text{ psi}$$

This stress is positive (tension) at points A and C, negative (compression) at points B and D.

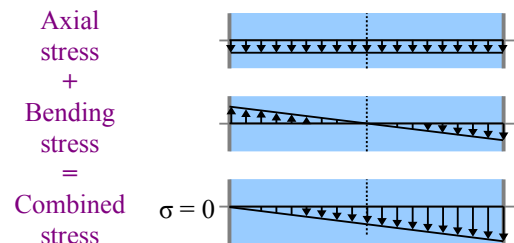
Create a table to add up the stresses. Along the left edge of the block, the stress is 6.25 psi in tension; along the right edge, the stress is 31.25 psi in compression.

Point	σ_w (psi)	σ_p (psi)	σ_{bending} (psi)	σ_{total} (psi)
A	-3.46	-8.33	+18.75	+6.96
B	-3.46	-8.33	-18.75	-30.54
C	-3.46	-8.33	+18.75	+6.96
D	-3.46	-8.33	-18.75	-30.54

In a masonry structure, tensile stress leads to cracks because stone and unreinforced concrete tend to be many times stronger in compression than in tension. One type of short block problem is to find the optimum location of P such that no tensile stress develops. We want the stress at

the left edge of this diagram to equal zero, so $\sigma = 0 = -\frac{W}{A} - \frac{P}{A} + \frac{P e c}{I_y}$.

Rewrite the equation to solve for e , then calculate the answer.

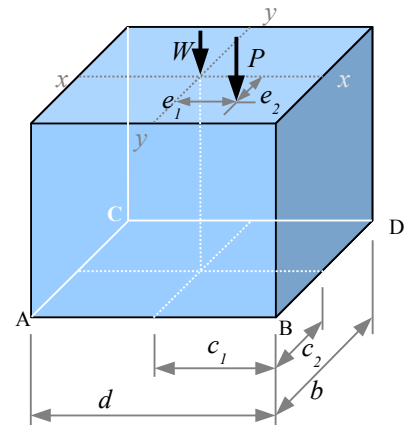


Chapter 12: Combined Stresses

We can modify this short block problem by shifting the point load so it is eccentric with respect to both the x - x and y - y neutral axes. Use the same technique as before, but add another term for the new eccentricity:

$$\sigma = \frac{-W}{A} - \frac{P}{A} \pm \frac{P e_1 c_1}{I_y} \pm \frac{P e_2 c_2}{I_x} \quad \text{where } I_y = \frac{b d^3}{12} \quad \text{and } I_x = \frac{d b^3}{12}.$$

Now the short block problem starts to look like an Accounting problem. The way this block is drawn, eccentricity e_1 will create a positive stress at A and C, a negative stress at B and D. Eccentricity e_2 will create a positive stress at C and D, a negative stress at A and B. The maximum compressive stress occurs at point B because the bending stresses due to both eccentricities are negative at that corner; the maximum tensile stress (or smallest compressive stress, if we don't achieve tension) is at point C, because the bending stresses due to both eccentricities are positive at that corner.



Example #4 – Short block with two eccentricities

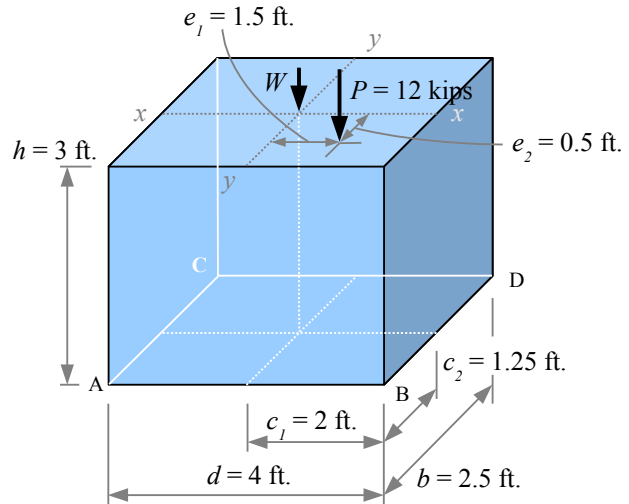
The limestone block from Example #3 has an eccentric load of 12 kips placed 1.5 ft. to the right of center and 0.5 ft. to the front of center. Calculate the corner stresses in psi.

Solution Axial stress due to the weight and the point load are the same as before: $\sigma_W = -3.46$ psi and

$\sigma_P = -8.33$ psi. The moment of inertia with respect to the y - y axis is the same as before: $I_y = \frac{b d^3}{12} = 13.3 \text{ ft.}^4$. The

moment of inertia with respect to the x - x axis is

$$I_x = \frac{d b^3}{12} = \frac{4 \text{ ft.} (2.5 \text{ ft.})^3}{12} = 5.21 \text{ ft.}^4.$$



Bending stress due to eccentricity e_1 is the same as before:

$$\sigma_{\text{bending } 1} = \pm \frac{P e_1 c_1}{I_y} = \pm \frac{12 \text{ kips} \cdot 1.5 \text{ ft.} \cdot 2 \text{ ft.}}{13.3 \text{ ft.}^4} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ lb.}}{\text{kip}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{ft.}^2}{(12 \text{ in.})^2} \right| = \pm 18.75 \text{ psi}.$$

$$\sigma_{\text{bending } 2} = \pm \frac{P e_2 c_2}{I_x} = \pm \frac{12 \text{ kips} \cdot 0.5 \text{ ft.} \cdot 1.25 \text{ ft.}}{5.21 \text{ ft.}^4} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ lb.}}{\text{kip}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{ft.}^2}{(12 \text{ in.})^2} \right| = \pm 10 \text{ psi}.$$

Create a table to add up the stresses. The maximum compressive stress is at the front right corner; the rear left is the only corner with a tensile stress.

Point	σ_W (psi)	σ_P (psi)	$\sigma_{\text{bending } 1}$ (psi)	$\sigma_{\text{bending } 2}$ (psi)	σ_{total} (psi)
A	-3.46	-8.33	+18.75	-10.00	-3.04
B	-3.46	-8.33	-18.75	-10.00	-40.54
C	-3.46	-8.33	+18.75	+10.00	+16.96
D	-3.46	-8.33	-18.75	+10.00	-20.54

Chapter 12: Combined Stresses

Solve a short-block problem in SI units the same way, except you will have to convert mass to weight: $W = mg$. For example, if a granite block measures 1 m by 0.8 m by 0.6 m high, the weight is

$$W = mg = \rho V g = \rho b d h g = \frac{2.69 \text{ g}}{\text{cm}^3} \frac{1 \text{ m} \times 0.8 \text{ m} \times 0.6 \text{ m}}{\text{m}^3} \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \left| \frac{\text{N s}^2}{\text{kg m}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{kN}}{10^3 \text{ N}} \right| \left| \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^3}{\text{m}^3} \right| \left| \frac{\text{kg}}{10^3 \text{ g}} \right| = 12.7 \text{ kN}$$

Once you have the weight, you can divide it by the area of the base to find the stress due to the weight:

$$\sigma_w = \frac{W}{A} = \frac{W}{b d} = \frac{12.7 \text{ kN}}{1 \text{ m} \times 0.8 \text{ m}} \left| \frac{\text{kPa m}^2}{\text{kN}} \right| = 15.8 \text{ kPa}$$

It is actually simpler to solve for the stress algebraically in a single equation, because the b and d terms cancel out:

$$\sigma_w = \frac{W}{A} = \frac{\rho b d h g}{b d} = \rho h g = \frac{2.69 \text{ g}}{\text{cm}^3} \frac{0.6 \text{ m}}{\text{m}} \frac{9.81 \text{ m}}{\text{s}^2} \left| \frac{\text{N s}^2}{\text{kg m}} \right| \left| \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^3}{\text{m}^3} \right| \left| \frac{\text{kg}}{10^3 \text{ g}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{kPa m}^2}{10^3 \text{ N}} \right| = 15.8 \text{ kPa}$$

Key Equations

Combine stresses due to multiple loads by adding the individual stresses.

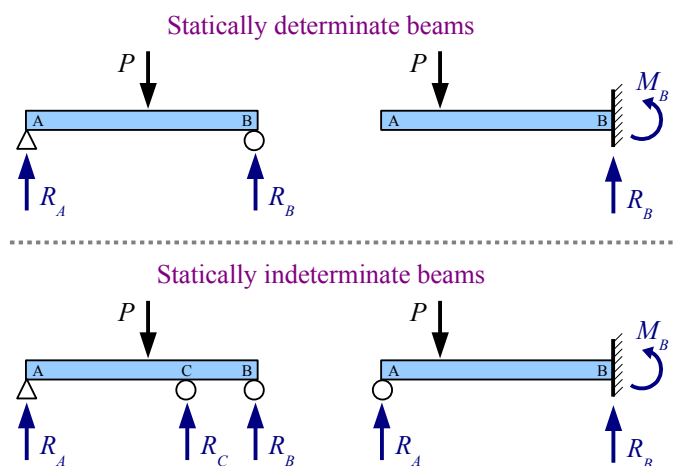
Solve short block problems with $\sigma = \frac{-W}{A} - \frac{P}{A} \pm \frac{P e_1 c_1}{I_y} \pm \frac{P e_2 c_2}{I_x}$ where $I_x = \frac{d b^3}{12}$ and $I_y = \frac{b d^3}{12}$

Chapter 13: Statically Indeterminate Beams

Defining Determinate and Indeterminate Beams

We know how to calculate deflection, reactions, shear stresses, and bending stresses in beams that have two reactions (either two reaction forces, or a reaction force and a reaction moment). These problems have two unknowns and two equations (sum of the moments, sum of the forces). Since the number of unknowns equals the number of equations, we can solve the problems directly with simple algebra, and we call these problems *statically determinate*.

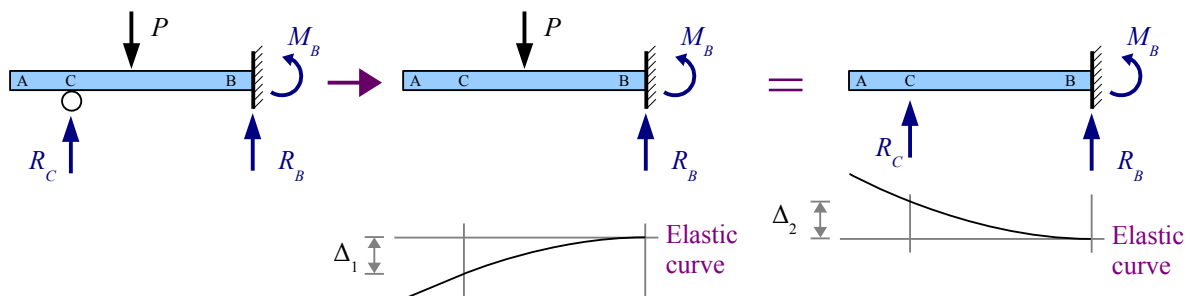
From a design perspective, a statically determinate structure is risky; if one of the supports fails, the entire structure collapses. If you are building a deck, adding extra supports will preserve the deck even if one support is damaged. However, each additional support adds an unknown without adding an equation, so we cannot solve the problem directly; it is a *statically indeterminate* beam.



There are several methods for calculating unknown reaction forces for statically indeterminate beams. These methods use known quantities, such as known slopes or displacements (the integration method), known strain energies (Castigliano's theorem), or known zero-displacement conditions (superposition).

Method of Superposition

We can split a statically *indeterminate* problem into two statically *determinate* problems. Consider a propped cantilever beam: if we remove the prop, the end of the beam deflects downward by an amount Δ_1 . If instead we remove the applied load and leave the prop in place, reaction force R_C causes the end of the beam to deflect upward by an amount Δ_2 . Since the end of the propped cantilever beam is a simple support and has zero deflection, $\Delta_1 = \Delta_2$. Use the Formula Method to find expressions for deflection, set them equal, and solve for reaction force R_C .



Procedure

Step 1 Identify the location of the extra support, having a force reaction only (no moment reaction).

Step 2 Remove the extra support from the original load diagram, and find the deflection formula in Appendix F for the location you selected in Step 1.

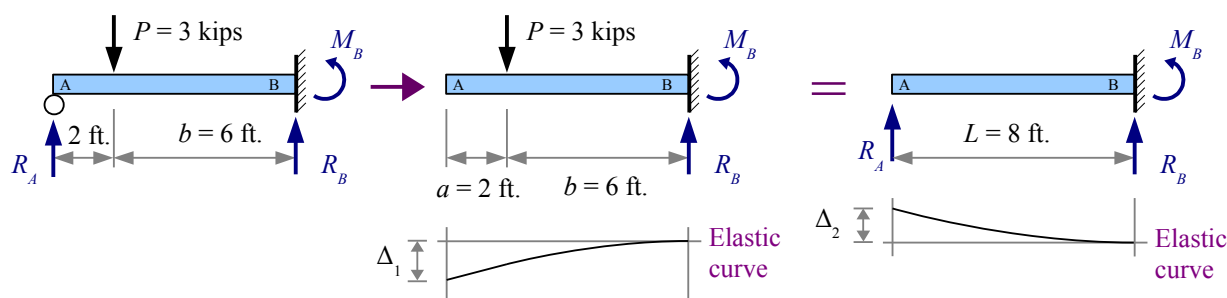
Step 3 Remove the applied loads from the original load diagram and find the deflection formula in Appendix F for the same location used in Step 2.

Step 4 Set the deflection formulas equal to each other, and solve for the unknown reaction force.

Step 5 Use sum of the forces and sum of the moments to find the remaining beam reactions.

Example #1 – Cantilever beam with a point load and a roller support at the end

A propped 8 foot long cantilever beam has an applied load of 3 kips located 2 feet from the prop. Calculate the reaction forces and reaction moment. Report the results in kips and kip-ft., respectively.



Step 1 Select the free end of the beam (Point A) for the deflection location.

Step 2 Remove support R_A . From Appendix F, the deflection at Point A due to the applied load P is $\Delta_1 = \frac{Pb^2}{6EI}(3L - b)$.

Step 3 Restore support R_A and remove the applied load P . From Appendix F, the deflection at Point A due to a point load at the free end is $\Delta_2 = \frac{PL^3}{3EI}$. However, the point load P in this equation is actually R_A , so $\Delta_2 = \frac{R_AL^3}{3EI}$.

Step 4 Set the deflection equations equal to each other: $\Delta_1 = \Delta_2 = \frac{Pb^2}{6EI}(3L - b) = \frac{R_AL^3}{3EI}$. Young's modulus and moment of inertia cancel, so the solution is independent of the cross-sectional shape and material of the beam:

$\frac{Pb^2}{6}(3L - b) = \frac{R_AL^3}{3}$. Divide both sides by 3 to get $\frac{Pb^2}{2}(3L - b) = R_AL^3$. Solve for the reaction force,

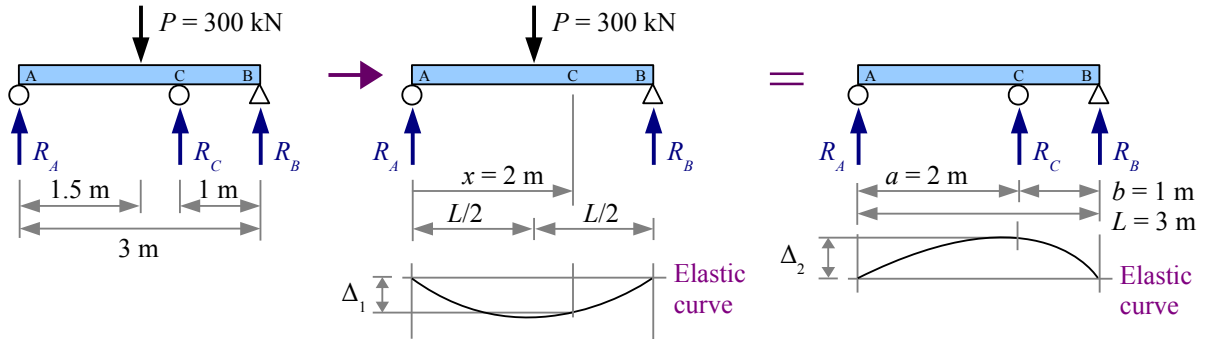
$$R_A = \frac{Pb^2}{2L^3}(3L - b) = \frac{3 \text{ kips} (6 \text{ ft.})^2}{2(8 \text{ ft.})^3}(3(8 \text{ ft.}) - 6 \text{ ft.}) = 1.90 \text{ kips}$$

Step 5 Sum of the Forces gives us $R_B = P - R_A = 3.00 \text{ kips} - 1.90 \text{ kips} = 1.10 \text{ kips}$

Sum of the Moments gives us $M_B = P \cdot b - R_A \cdot L = 3.00 \text{ kips} \cdot 6 \text{ ft.} - 1.90 \text{ kips} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.} = 2.80 \text{ kip} \cdot \text{ft.}$

Example #2 – Beam with three supports and a point load

A 3 meter long beam has an applied load of 300 kN located at the midspan. The beam is supported at the ends and with a third support 1 meter from the right end. Calculate the three reaction forces. Report the results in kN.



Step 1 Select location C for the deflection location.

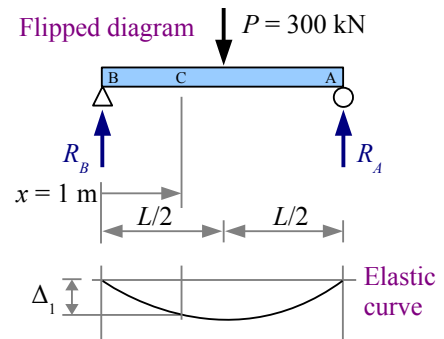
Step 2 Remove support R_C . From Appendix F, the deflection at Point C due to the applied load P at the midspan is $\Delta_1 = \frac{Px}{48EI} [3L^2 - 4x^2]$ for $x < \frac{L}{2}$.

Since $x = 2\text{ m} > \frac{L}{2}$, we have to flip the diagram, so $x = 1\text{ m}$, measured from the other end.

Step 3 Restore support R_C and remove the applied load P . From Appendix

F, the deflection at Point C due to a point load at Point C is $\Delta_2 = \frac{Pa^2b^2}{3EIL}$.

However, the point load P in this equation is actually R_C , so $\Delta_2 = \frac{R_C a^2 b^2}{3EIL}$.



Step 4 Set the deflection equations equal to each other: $\Delta_1 = \Delta_2 = \frac{Px}{48EI} [3L^2 - 4x^2] = \frac{R_C a^2 b^2}{3EIL}$. Once again, E and I

cancel. Solving, we get $R_C = \frac{PxL}{16a^2b^2} [3L^2 - 4x^2] = \frac{300\text{ kN} \cdot 1\text{ m} \cdot 3\text{ m}}{16(2\text{ m})^2(1\text{ m})^2} [3(3\text{ m})^2 - 4(1\text{ m})^2] = 323.4\text{ kN}$

Step 5 Sum of the Moments about point A gives us $M_A = 0 = -300\text{ kN} \cdot 1.5\text{ m} + 323.4\text{ kN} \cdot 2\text{ m} + R_B \cdot 3\text{ m}$. Solve for

$R_B = \frac{300\text{ kN} \cdot 1.5\text{ m} - 323.4\text{ kN} \cdot 2\text{ m}}{3\text{ m}} = -65.6\text{ kN}$. The negative sign means R_B acts downward.

Sum of the Forces gives us $R_A = P - R_B - R_C = 300\text{ kN} - (-65.6\text{ kN}) - 323.4\text{ kN} = 42.2\text{ kN}$, positive, therefore acting upward.

Once you have solved for the reactions, you can draw shear and moment diagrams to find maximum bending and shear stresses.

Example #3 – Bending & shear stresses for Example #2

Calculate the maximum bending and shear stresses for Example #2, assuming a Southern yellow pine 250×560 timber. Ignore the weight of the beam. Report the results in MPa.

Solution Calculate the values on the shear diagram values as follows:

$$V_1 = R_A = 42.2 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_2 = V_1 - 300 \text{ kN} = -257.8 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_3 = V_2 + 323.4 \text{ kN} = 65.6 \text{ kN}$$

$$V_4 = V_3 - 65.6 \text{ kN} = 0 \text{ kN}$$

Calculate the values on the moment diagram as follows:

$$M_1 = 42.2 \text{ kN} \times 1.5 \text{ m} = 63.3 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

$$M_2 = M_1 - 257.8 \text{ kN} \times 0.5 \text{ m} = -65.6 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

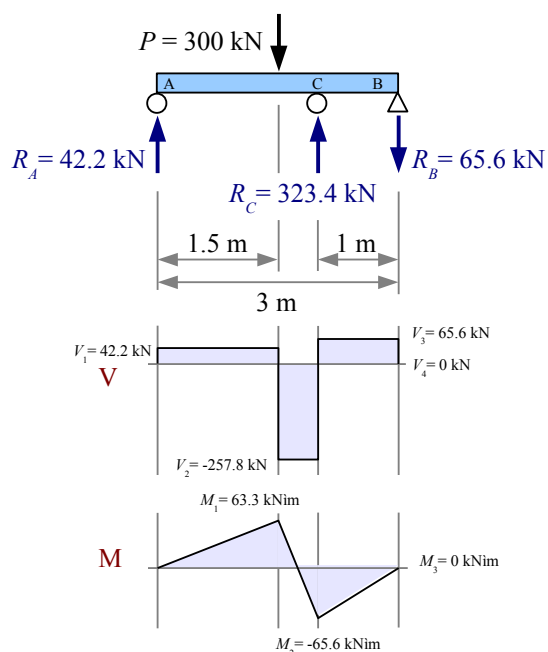
$$M_3 = M_2 + 65.6 \text{ kN} \times 1 \text{ m} = 0 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}$$

The maximum moment, 65.6 kNm, is at point C. The maximum bending stress is

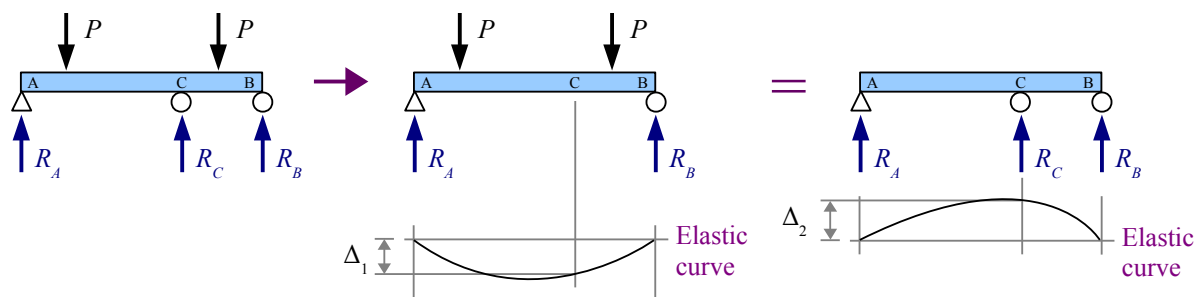
$$\sigma = \frac{M}{S} = \frac{65.6 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m}}{12.0 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^3} \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^3}{\text{m}^3} \right| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} = 5.47 \text{ MPa} ,$$

which is less than the allowable 9.65 MPa for Southern yellow pine, therefore the beam is OK in bending.

The maximum shear load is 257.8 kN, just to the right of the point load. The maximum shear stress for a rectangular cross-section is $\tau = \frac{3V}{2A} = \frac{3 \cdot 257.8 \text{ kN}}{2 \cdot 132 \times 10^3 \text{ mm}^2} \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} = 2.93 \text{ MPa}$, which is more than the 1.21 MPa allowable for Southern yellow pine, therefore the beam will fail in shear.

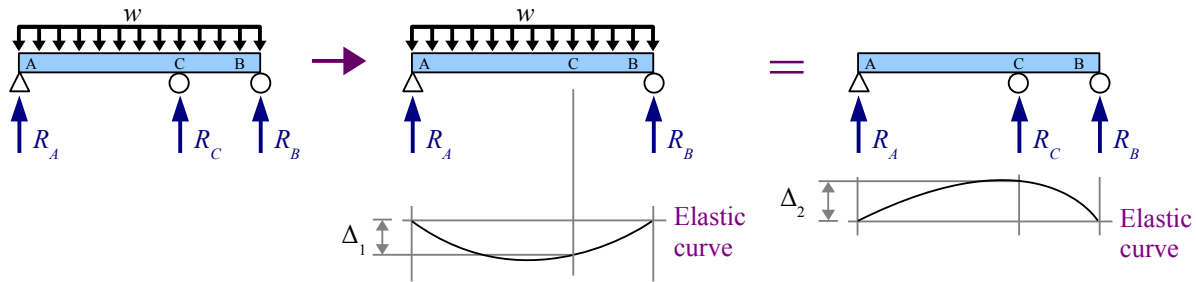


Each of these examples shows a single point load. If there is more than one point load, set up the problem by removing a support, then by removing the applied loads. Otherwise, the solution is the same as before.



Chapter 13: Statically Indeterminate Beams

Distributed load problems are solved the same way.



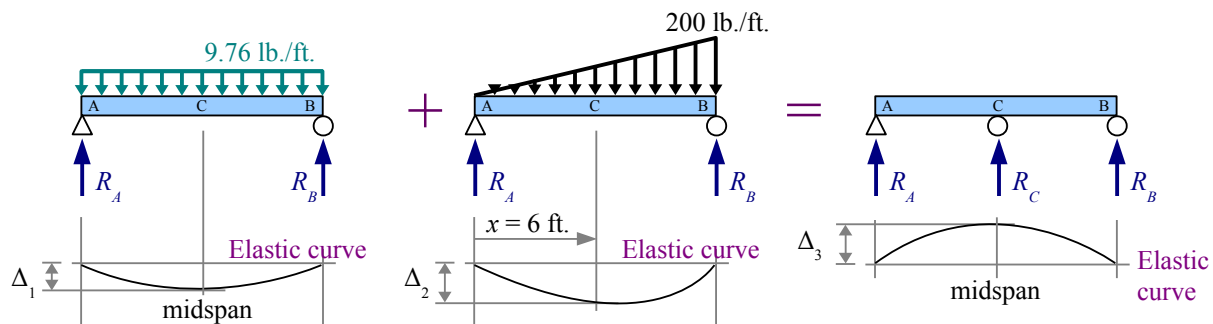
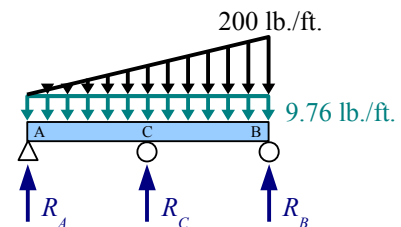
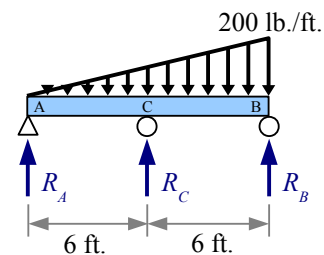
Example #4 – Beam with three supports and a nonuniform distributed load

A 12 foot long 8×8 hem-fir timber beam has a nonuniform applied load as shown. The beam is supported at the ends and with a third support at the midspan. Calculate the three reaction forces due to the applied load and the weight of the beam. Report the results in pounds.

Solution Calculate the weight per unit length of the beam. Since the specific weight of hem-fir is 25 lb./ft.^3 , interpolation is necessary.

$$w = \left[\frac{25 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}^3} - 20 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}^3}}{30 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}^3} - 20 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}^3}} \right] \left(11.7 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}} - 7.81 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}} \right) + 7.81 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}} = 9.76 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}}$$

Now the beam has two loads: the applied nonuniform distributed load plus the beam weight. Each load will create its own elastic curve.



Example #4, continued**Step 1** Select location C for the deflection location.**Step 2** Remove support R_C . From Appendix F, the deflection at the midspan due to the weight of the beam is

$$\Delta_1 = \frac{5 w_{beam} L^4}{384 E I}, \text{ and the deflection at any location } x \text{ due to the nonuniform distributed load is}$$

$$\Delta_2 = \frac{w_{max} x}{360 E I L} (3 x^4 - 10 L^2 x^2 + 7 L^4), \text{ so the total deflection due to the loads is}$$

$$\Delta_{1+2} = \frac{5 w_{beam} L^4}{384 E I} + \frac{w_{max} x}{360 E I L} (3 x^4 - 10 L^2 x^2 + 7 L^4). \text{ At the midspan, } x = \frac{L}{2}, \text{ so the deflection equation simplifies to}$$

$$\Delta_{1+2} = \frac{5 w_{beam} L^4}{384 E I} + \frac{w_{max} L}{360 E I L 2} \left(3 \left(\frac{L}{2} \right)^4 - 10 L^2 \left(\frac{L}{2} \right)^2 + 7 L^4 \right) = \frac{5 w_{beam} L^4}{384 E I} + \frac{5 w_{max} L^4}{768 E I}.$$

Step 3 Restore support R_C and remove the applied nonuniform distributed load. FromAppendix F, the deflection is $\Delta_3 = \frac{P L^3}{48 E I}$ where P is R_C .**Step 4** Set the deflection equations equal to each other:

$$\frac{R_C L^3}{48 E I} = \frac{5 w_{beam} L^4}{384 E I} + \frac{15 w_{max} L^4}{2304 E I}. \text{ Terms } L^3, E \text{ and } I \text{ cancel. Solving for } R_C \text{ we get}$$

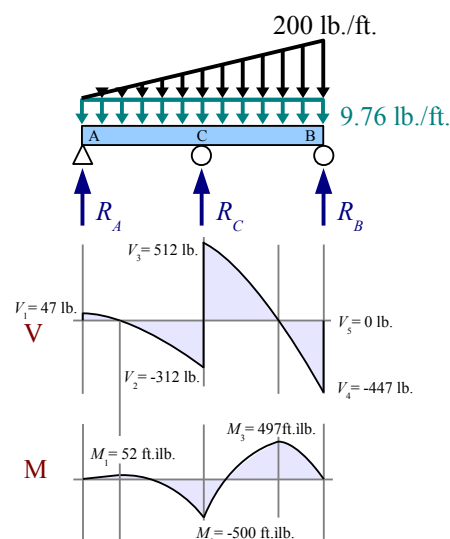
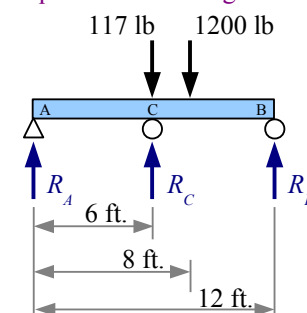
$$R_C = 48 \left[\frac{5 w_{beam} L}{384} + \frac{15 w_{max} L}{2304} \right] = 48 \left[\frac{5 \cdot 9.76 \text{ lb.} \cdot 12 \text{ ft.}}{384 \text{ ft.}} + \frac{15 \cdot 200 \text{ lb.} \cdot 12 \text{ ft.}}{2304 \text{ ft.}} \right] = 823 \text{ lb.}$$

Step 5 Use an Equivalent Load Diagram and Sum of the Moments to find the reaction R_B ; use Sum of the Forces to find reaction R_A .

$$R_B = \frac{117 \text{ lb.} \times 6 \text{ ft.} - 823 \text{ lb.} \times 6 \text{ ft.} + 1200 \text{ lb.} \times 8 \text{ ft.}}{12 \text{ ft.}} = 447 \text{ lb.}$$

$$R_A = (117 + 1200 - 823 - 447) \text{ lb.} = 47 \text{ lb.}$$

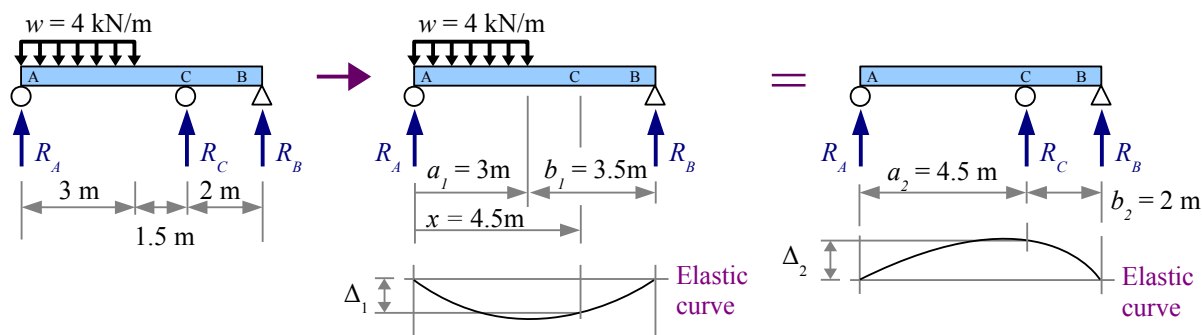
Once we have the reaction forces, we can draw shear and moment diagrams for the beam. With this loading case, it is a little complicated to find the places where the shear diagram crosses the zero axis. The easiest way to find these points and the values of the moment diagram is to solve for V and M computationally with a spreadsheet.

Equivalent load diagram

Many examples in Appendix F use dimensions a and b to locate the position of a point load or the starting or ending point of a distributed load. In the next example, there is more than one set of a and b dimensions. Subscripts help to keep them straight.

Example #5 – Beam with three supports and a uniform distributed load

A 6.5 meter long beam has an applied uniform distributed load over a portion of its length. Solve for the reactions, ignoring the beam's weight.



Step 1 Select location C for the deflection location.

Step 2 Remove support R_C . Use the equation in Appendix F that applies for $x \geq a_1$. The deflection at point C due to the uniform distributed load is $\Delta_1 = \frac{w a_1^2 (L-x)}{24 E I L} (4 x L - 2 x^2 - a_1^2)$.

Step 3 Restore support R_C and remove the applied distributed load w . From Appendix F, the deflection at Point C due to a point load at Point C is $\Delta_2 = \frac{P a_2^2 b_2^2}{3 E I L}$. Since P in this equation is actually R_C , $\Delta_2 = \frac{R_C a_2^2 b_2^2}{3 E I L}$.

Step 4 Set the deflection equations equal to each other: $\Delta_1 = \Delta_2 = \frac{w a_1^2 (L-x)(4 x L - 2 x^2 - a_1^2)}{24 E I L} = \frac{R_C a_2^2 b_2^2}{3 E I L}$. Cancel $3 E I L$ and divide both sides by $a_2^2 b_2^2$ to find

$$R_C = \frac{w a_1^2 (L-x)(4 x L - 2 x^2 - a_1^2)}{8 a_2^2 b_2^2}$$

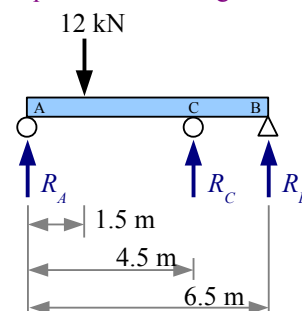
$$= \frac{4 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}} \frac{(3 \text{ m})^2 (6.5 \text{ m} - 4.5 \text{ m}) [4 (4.5 \text{ m}) (6.5 \text{ m}) - 2 (4.5 \text{ m})^2 - (3 \text{ m})^2]}{8 (4.5 \text{ m})^2 (2 \text{ m})^2} = 7.50 \text{ kN}$$

Step 5 Use an Equivalent Load Diagram and Sum of the Moments to find the reaction R_B ; use Sum of the Forces to find reaction R_A .

$R_B = \frac{12 \text{ kN} \times 1.5 \text{ m} - 7.50 \text{ kN} \times 4.5 \text{ m}}{6.5 \text{ m}} = -2.42 \text{ kN}$ The negative sign means the reaction is pushing *down*...the right end of the beam wants to lift.

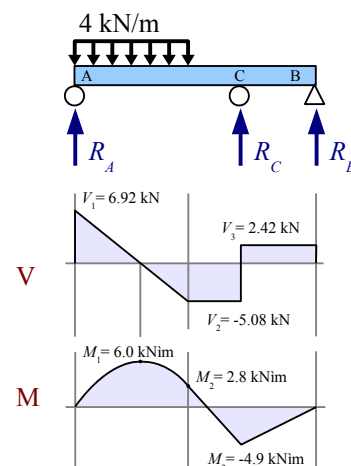
$$R_A = (12 - 7.5 - (-2.42)) \text{ kN} = 6.92 \text{ kN}$$

Equivalent load diagram



Example #5, continued

Once we have the reaction forces, we can draw shear and moment diagrams for the beam. Since the beam weight is neglected, the V and M diagrams are easy to draw.



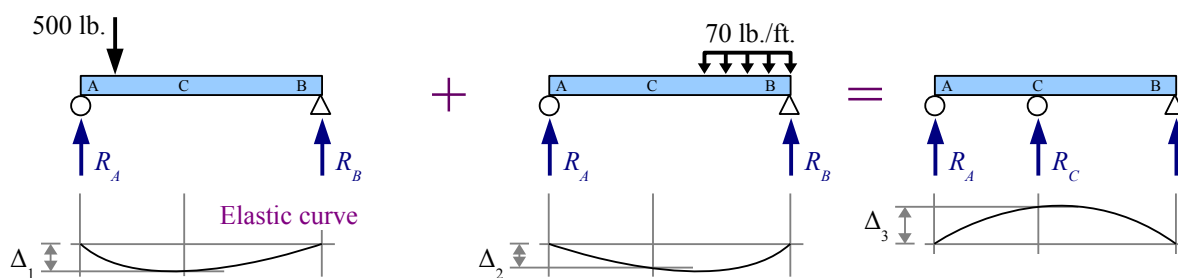
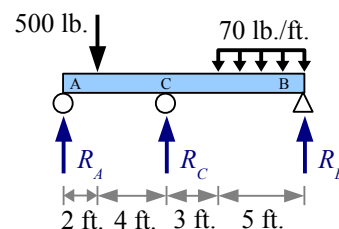
This final example includes two applied loads, one of which requires a mirror-image solution.

Example #6

A 14 ft. beam has a point load and a uniform distributed load. Ignoring the beam weight, find the reaction forces.

The deflection location is point C.

The next steps are to remove support R_C and the distributed load (left) to find Δ_1 , remove the point load and restore the distributed load to find Δ_2 , then remove the distributed load and restore support R_C to find Δ_3 . Solve for R_C by setting $\Delta_1 + \Delta_2 = \Delta_3$



Example #6, continued

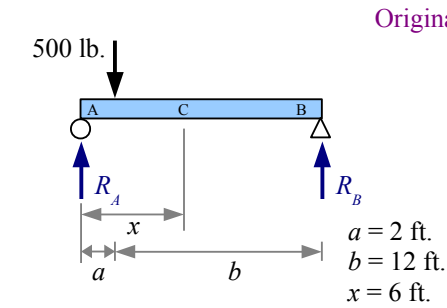
From Appendix F, the deflection at point C due to the 500 lb. applied load is

$$\Delta_x = \frac{P b x (L^2 - b^2 - x^2)}{6 E I L}$$

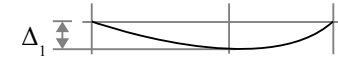
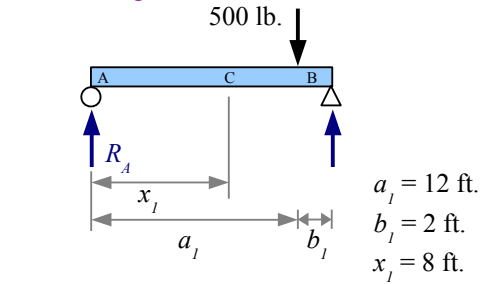
for $x < a$. Since $x > a$, we need to use a mirror image of the beam.

Rewrite as

$$\Delta_1 = \frac{P b_1 x_1 (L^2 - b_1^2 - x_1^2)}{6 E I L}$$

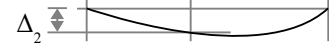
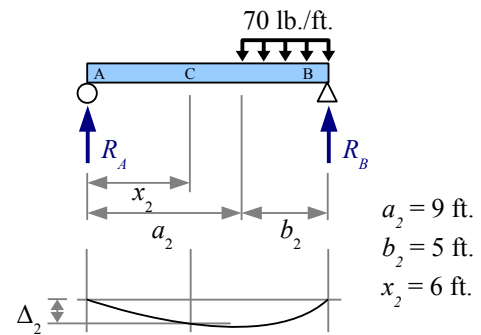


Mirror image

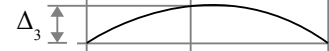
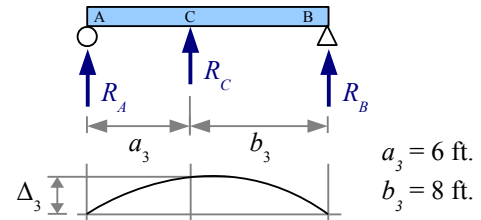


For the uniform distributed load, the deflection equation is

$$\Delta_2 = \frac{w b_2^2 x_2 [4 L (L - x_2) - 2 (L - x_2)^2 - b_2^2]}{24 E I L} \text{ for } x_2 < a_2$$



The deflection at point C is $\Delta_3 = \frac{R_C a_3^2 b_3^2}{3 E I L}$



Next, set the deflections due to the applied loads equal to the deflection due to the reaction force.

$$\frac{P b_1 x_1 (L^2 - b_1^2 - x_1^2)}{6 E I L} + \frac{w b_2^2 x_2 [4 L (L - x_2) - 2 (L - x_2)^2 - b_2^2]}{24 E I L} = \frac{R_C a_3^2 b_3^2}{3 E I L}$$

Multiply both sides by $24 E I L$ to get $4 P b_1 x_1 (L^2 - b_1^2 - x_1^2) + w b_2^2 x_2 [4 L (L - x_2) - 2 (L - x_2)^2 - b_2^2] = 8 R_C a_3^2 b_3^2$

Next, divide both sides by $8 a_3^2 b_3^2$ to get $R_C = \frac{4 P b_1 x_1 (L^2 - b_1^2 - x_1^2) + w b_2^2 x_2 [4 L (L - x_2) - 2 (L - x_2)^2 - b_2^2]}{8 a_3^2 b_3^2}$

Example #6, continued

Now enter numbers and units.

$$R_C = \frac{4 \cdot 500 \text{ lb.} \cdot 2 \text{ ft.} \cdot 8 \text{ ft.} \left((14 \text{ ft.})^2 - (2 \text{ ft.})^2 - (8 \text{ ft.})^2 \right) + 70 \frac{\text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}} \cdot (5 \text{ ft.})^2 \cdot 6 \text{ ft.} \left[4 \cdot 14 \text{ ft.} (14 \text{ ft.} - 6 \text{ ft.}) - 2 (14 \text{ ft.} - 6 \text{ ft.})^2 - (5 \text{ ft.})^2 \right]}{8 (6 \text{ ft.})^2 (8 \text{ ft.})^2}$$

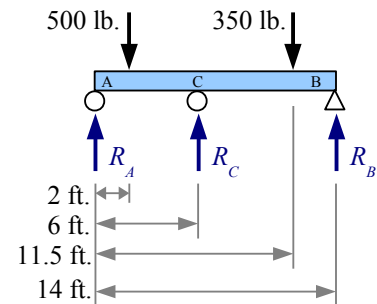
$$R_C = 54.2 \text{ lb.}$$

Draw an equivalent load diagram, then use the sum of the moments and sum of the forces to find the reaction forces at the ends.

$$R_B = \frac{500 \text{ lb.} \cdot 2 \text{ ft.} - 54.2 \text{ lb.} \cdot 6 \text{ ft.} + 350 \text{ lb.} \cdot 11.5 \text{ ft.}}{14 \text{ ft.}} = 335.7 \text{ lb.}$$

$$R_A = 500 \text{ lb.} + 350 \text{ lb.} - 54.2 \text{ lb.} - 335.7 \text{ lb.} = 460.1 \text{ lb.}$$

Use the original load diagram to draw shear and moment diagrams in the usual way.

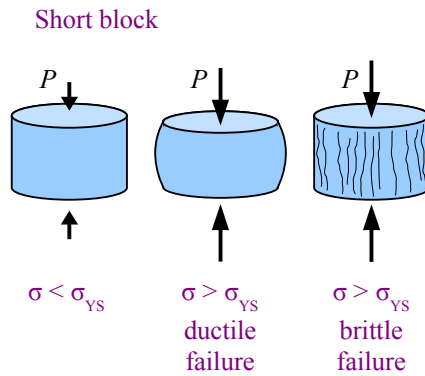
**Key Equations**

Use the Method of Superposition to solve statically indeterminate beam problems.

Chapter 14: Buckling of Columns

Types of Columns

Squeeze a short cylindrical block elastically, and the normal stress is $\sigma = P/A$. Squeeze hard enough to exceed the yield strength, and the block will either fail by distorting (if it is ductile) or by fracturing (if it is brittle). A ductile short block will yield at the same load, whether it is in tension or in compression.



Change the dimensions of the cylinder so it is very long and thin, and push on the ends: it will form a gentle bow at a normal stress that is less than the yield strength of the material. We call this a *slender column*.

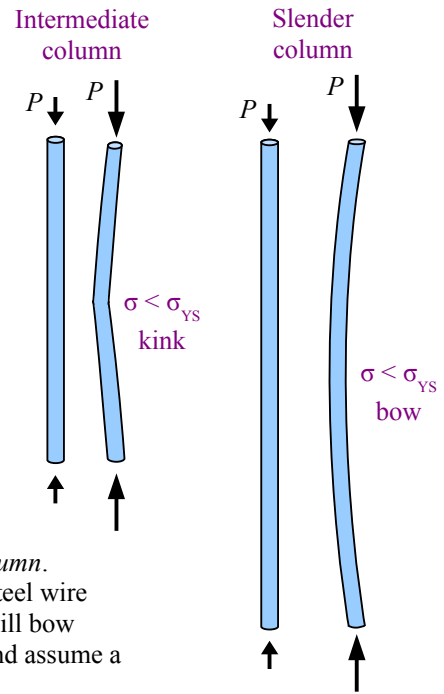
You can make a slender column by cutting out the longest straight segment of a steel wire coat hanger. Put one end on a kitchen scale and press on the other end; the wire will bow under a force of a couple of pounds. If we measure a wire diameter of 0.087 in. and assume a yield strength of 30 ksi, the wire will not yield in tension until the load reaches

$$P_{tension} = \sigma A = \frac{30 \text{ kips}}{\text{in.}^2} \frac{\pi (0.087 \text{ in.})^2}{4} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ lb.}}{\text{kip}} \right| = 178 \text{ lb.}$$

In tension, it takes almost 200 lb. to permanently

deform the wire, while in compression it takes about 2 lb. – a difference of two orders of magnitude! The extreme example of a slender column is a rope or cable: high tensile strength; no compressive strength.

Between the short block and the slender column is the *intermediate column*, not as skinny as the slender column, but longer and thinner than the short block. Push on the ends, and an intermediate column forms a kink about halfway up, at a normal stress that is less than the yield strength of the material. You can make an intermediate column with a 3 mm diameter piece of solder about 25 cm long.



Ideal Slender Columns

Euler Critical Load

Leonhard Euler, the Swiss mathematician who gave us the e^x button on the calculator, studied the mathematics of columns. He derived an equation for the critical load that causes buckling in an ideal

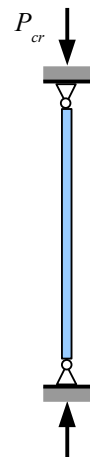
slender column that is pinned at both ends. The Euler critical load $P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E I}{L^2}$ where I is the smallest

moment of inertia for the cross-sectional area of the column. For example, if the column is a wide-flange beam, $I_y < I_x$, so use I_y . Euler's equation tells us the critical load for a 16.5 in. long coat hanger wire is

$$P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E I}{L^2} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{L^2} \frac{\pi d^4}{64} = \frac{\pi^2}{(16.5 \text{ in.})^2} \frac{30 \times 10^6 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \frac{\pi (0.087 \text{ in.})^4}{64} = 3.1 \text{ lb.},$$

which is pretty close to, but not the

same as, the 2 lb. measured in the kitchen. Why are the numbers different? Euler's equation assumes the wire is perfectly straight, the loads are applied in perfect alignment with the axis of the column, there are no materials defects in the steel, the cross-section is perfect and uniform along the length of the wire, there are no scratches on the wire's surface, and the ends can rotate freely with no friction.



What if you know the applied load, and have to select a solid round rod to support that load? Rewrite the Euler critical load

equation, solving for diameter: $P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E I}{L^2} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{L^2} \frac{\pi d^4}{64} \rightarrow d = \sqrt[4]{\frac{64 P_{cr} L^2}{\pi^3 E}}.$

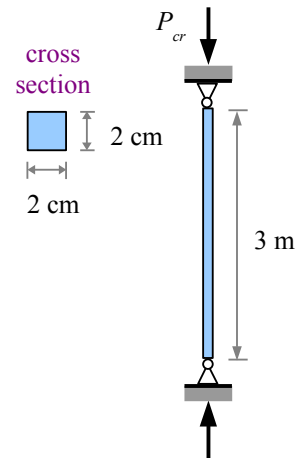
Example #1 – Ideal pinned column with a square cross section

A 2024-T4 aluminum column made of 2 cm square barstock is loaded as a pin-connected column. Calculate the Euler critical load for this column if the length is 3 m. Report the result in kN.

Solution The moment of inertia of a solid square is $I = \frac{bh^3}{12} = \frac{b^4}{12}$.

From Appendix B, $E = 70$ GPa.

$$P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 EI}{L^2} = \frac{\pi^2 b^4 E}{12 L^2} = \frac{\pi^2 (2 \text{ cm})^4 73 \text{ GPa}}{12 (3 \text{ m})^2} \left| \frac{10^6 \text{ kN}}{\text{GPa m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{m}^4}{(100 \text{ cm})^4} = 1.07 \text{ kN}$$

**Euler Stress**

Recall the definition for radius of gyration of an area: $r_G = \sqrt{I/A}$. Square both sides to get $r_G^2 = I/A$. The Euler critical load divided by the cross-sectional area of the column gives us the stress in the column:

$\frac{P_{cr}}{A} = \sigma_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 EI}{L^2 A} = \frac{\pi^2 E r_G^2}{L^2} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(L/r_G)^2}$. The quantity L/r_G is called the *slenderness ratio* of the column; the larger this value, the more slender the column. If r_{Gx} is not equal to r_{Gy} , use the *smaller* of the two numbers for r_G .

Support Conditions

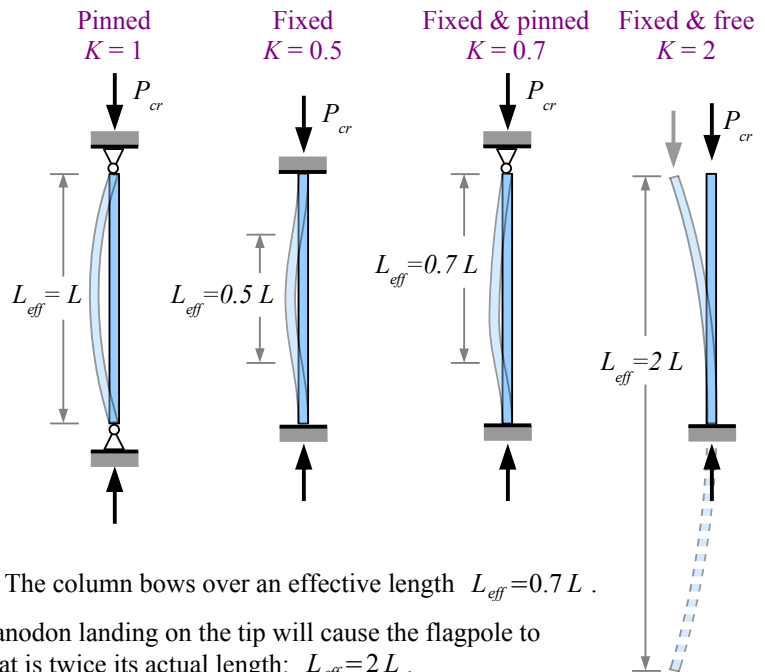
The end of a column can have one of three support conditions. It can be pinned: free to rotate, but prevented from sliding sideways. It can be fixed, like the wall-end of a cantilever beam: prevented from rotating or sliding. It can be free to rotate and slide, like the free end of a cantilever beam.

If both ends are pinned, the column bows in an arc equal to the length of the column. The *effective length* of the column is its own length.

If both ends are fixed, then the column cannot rotate at its ends. It bows in the center relative to two inflection points located $L/4$ from each end, so the effective length of the bow is half the column length, and $L_{eff} = 0.5 L$.

If one end is fixed while the other is pinned, then the column can rotate about the pinned connection. The column bows over an effective length $L_{eff} = 0.7 L$.

A fixed & free column looks like a flagpole; a pteranodon landing on the tip will cause the flagpole to sway. The column bows over an effective length that is twice its actual length: $L_{eff} = 2 L$.



We can modify Euler's critical load equation to include these support conditions: $P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 EI}{(KL)^2}$ where K is the effective

length factor 1, 0.5, 0.7, or 2, as appropriate. Likewise, the Euler stress is $\sigma_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(KL/r_G)^2}$.

Chapter 14: Buckling of Columns

These equations help us find the load and stress when buckling first starts, assuming perfect loading conditions and materials. In real life, we need to include a Factor of Safety, so $P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E I}{(KL)^2 \text{F.S.}}$ and $\sigma_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(KL/r_G)^2 \text{F.S.}}$.

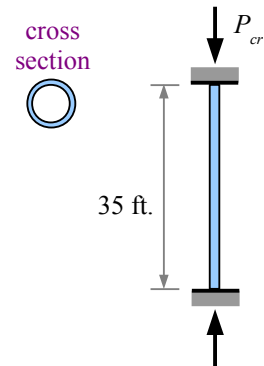
Example #2 – Ideal fixed column with a hollow round cross section

A nominal 4 inch Schedule 40 steel pipe 35 feet long is used as an Ideal fixed column. Using a factor of safety of 2, calculate the load that the pipe can support; report the result in kips. Calculate the stress in the pipe; report the result in ksi.

Solution Since the column is fixed, $K=0.5$. From Appendix D, a standard 4 inch pipe has a moment of inertia $I=7.23 \text{ in.}^4$, a radius of gyration $r_G=1.51 \text{ in.}$, and a cross-sectional area of 2.96 in.^2 .

$$P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E I}{(KL)^2 \text{F.S.}} = \frac{\pi^2}{(0.5 \cdot 35 \text{ ft.})^2 \cdot 2} \cdot \frac{30 \times 10^6 \text{ lb.} \cdot 7.23 \text{ in.}^4}{\text{in.}^2} \left| \frac{\text{kips}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| \cdot \frac{(\text{ft.})^2}{(12 \text{ in.})^2} = 24.3 \text{ kips}$$

$$\sigma_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{\left(\frac{KL}{r_G} \right)^2 \text{F.S.}} = \frac{\pi^2}{\left(\frac{0.5 \cdot 35 \text{ ft.} \cdot \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}}}{1.51 \text{ in.}} \right)^2 \cdot 2} \cdot \frac{30 \times 10^6 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \left| \frac{\text{kips}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| = 7.65 \text{ ksi}$$



The solution methods described so far apply in general, but there are several special cases requiring special formulas. Here are two special cases: wide-flange steel beams used as structural columns, and steel machine parts.

Structural Steel Columns Made from W-Beams

W-beams are often used as columns in steel structures. AISC recommends using the following formulas for calculating the allowable load. A factor of safety is built in to the equations.

If $\frac{KL}{r_G} > 200$ then the column is too slender for safe use; stop all calculations, and pick a shorter or deeper column.

If $\frac{KL}{r_G} > 4.71 \sqrt{\frac{E}{\sigma_{YS}}}$ then the column is slender, and $P_{all} = 0.525 \sigma_{cr} A$

If $\frac{KL}{r_G} < 4.71 \sqrt{\frac{E}{\sigma_{YS}}}$ then the column is intermediate, and $P_{all} = \frac{0.658^{(\sigma_{cr}/\sigma_{YS})} \sigma_{YS} A}{1.67}$

Solve Structural Steel Column problems in four steps:

1. Calculate KL/r_G and $4.71 \sqrt{E/\sigma_{YS}}$. Since $r_{Gy} < r_{Gx}$ for W-beams, use r_{Gy}
2. Calculate σ_{cr}
3. Use the appropriate formula to calculate P_{all}
4. Use $\sigma = P_{all}/A$ to find the stress in the column

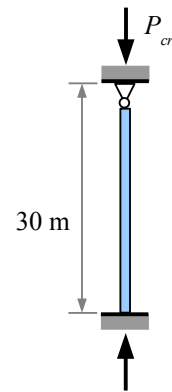
Example #3 – W-beam used as a fixed & pinned column

A 30 m long W200×59 wide-flange beam made from A36 steel is used as a fixed and pinned column. Calculate the allowable load; report the result in kN. Calculate the stress in the column; report the result in MPa.

Solution Since the column is fixed and pinned, $K=0.7$. From Appendix D, $r_{Gx}=89.7$ mm and $r_{Gy}=51.8$ mm. Use the smaller of these numbers. From Appendix B, the yield strength of A36 steel is 250 MPa.

$$\frac{KL}{r_G} = \frac{0.7 \cdot 30 \text{ m}}{51.8 \text{ mm}} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ mm}}{\text{m}} \right| = 405$$

Since $\frac{KL}{r_G} > 200$, the column is too slender for safe use.

**Example #4 – W-beam with a shorter length used as a fixed & pinned column**

Solve Example #3 using a 12 m long W200×59 wide-flange beam.

Solution The material and dimensional properties are the same as in Example #3.

$$\frac{KL}{r_G} = \frac{0.7 \cdot 12 \text{ m}}{51.8 \text{ mm}} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ mm}}{\text{m}} \right| = 162.2$$

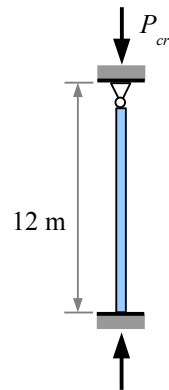
$$4.71 \sqrt{\frac{E}{\sigma_{ys}}} = 4.71 \sqrt{\frac{207 \text{ GPa}}{250 \text{ MPa}}} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ MPa}}{\text{GPa}} \right| = 136$$

Since $\frac{KL}{r_G} > 4.71 \sqrt{\frac{E}{\sigma_{ys}}}$, use $P_{all} = 0.525 \sigma_{cr} A$ where $\sigma_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(KL/r_G)^2}$. We can plug in the calculated value of KL/r_G from above.

$$\sigma_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 207 \text{ GPa}}{(162.2)^2} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ MPa}}{\text{GPa}} \right| = 77.7 \text{ MPa}$$

$$P_{all} = 0.525 \sigma_{cr} A = \frac{0.525 \cdot 77.7 \text{ MPa} \cdot 7550 \text{ mm}^2}{\text{MPa}} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ kN}}{\text{MPa}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{m}^2}{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2} \right| = 308 \text{ kN}$$

$$\text{The actual stress in the column is } \sigma = \frac{P_{all}}{A} = \frac{308 \text{ kN}}{7550 \text{ mm}^2} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \left| \frac{(10^3 \text{ mm})^2}{\text{m}^2} \right| = 40.8 \text{ MPa}$$

**Steel Machine Parts**

Structural columns are large – several feet to dozens of feet tall. Machines also use long, thin compression members, such as connecting rods in internal combustion engines. If $\frac{KL}{r_G} \geq \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 E}{\sigma_{ys}}}$ then the column is slender, and the allowable stress is

$\sigma_{all} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(KL/r_G)^2 \text{ F.S.}}$. This is the Euler equation for ideal columns. As before, r_G is the smaller value of r_{Gx} and r_{Gy} .

Chapter 14: Buckling of Columns

On the other hand, if $\frac{KL}{r_G} < \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 E}{\sigma_{YS}}}$ then the column is intermediate. Based on empirical data from real machine parts, J.B.

Johnson developed a formula for the allowable stress: $\sigma_{all} = \left[1 - \frac{\sigma_{YS} (KL/r_G)^2}{4\pi^2 E} \right] \frac{\sigma_{YS}}{\text{F.S.}}$.

Calculate the allowable load of a steel machine part by multiplying the allowable stress by the cross-sectional area.

Example #5 – Steel machine part with a solid round cross section used as a fixed & pinned column

A 20 inch long, 1 inch diameter steel rod with a yield strength of 35 ksi is used as a fixed and pinned column with a Factor of Safety of 2. Calculate the allowable stress in the machine part; report the result in ksi. Calculate the allowable load in the machine part; report the result in kips.

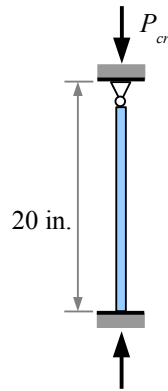
Solution Since the column is fixed and pinned, $K=0.7$. The radius of gyration of a solid circle is one quarter the diameter, so $r_G = 0.25$ in.

$$\frac{KL}{r_G} = \frac{0.7 \cdot 20 \text{ in.}}{0.25 \text{ in.}} = 56$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 E}{\sigma_{YS}}} = \frac{KL}{r_G} < \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 \cdot 30 \times 10^3 \text{ ksi}}{35 \text{ ksi}}} = 130$$

Since $\frac{KL}{r_G} < \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 E}{\sigma_{YS}}}$, the column is intermediate.

$$\sigma_{all} = \left[1 - \frac{\sigma_{YS} (KL/r_G)^2}{4\pi^2 E} \right] \frac{\sigma_{YS}}{\text{F.S.}} = \left[1 - \frac{35 \text{ ksi} (56)^2}{4\pi^2 30 \times 10^3 \text{ ksi}} \right] \frac{35 \text{ ksi}}{2} = 15.9 \text{ ksi} \quad \text{and} \quad P_{all} = \sigma_{all} A = \frac{15.9 \text{ kips}}{\text{in.}^2} \frac{\pi (1 \text{ in.})^2}{4} = 12.5 \text{ kips}$$



Some machine design problems start with a known load and column length; your job is to calculate the minimum diameter of a solid round rod to allow the column to survive buckling. Remember that the radius of gyration of a solid round rod is $d/4$ and the allowable stress is $\sigma_{all} = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{P}{(\pi/4)d^2}$, then follow these six steps:

Step 1 Assume the column is slender (because the math is easier): $\sigma_{all} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(KL/r_G)^2 \text{F.S.}} = \frac{P}{(\pi/4)d^2}$

Step 2 Rewrite $\frac{P}{(\pi/4)d^2} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(KL/r_G)^2 \text{F.S.}}$ to solve for diameter.

Step 3 Check that the column really is slender.

Step 4 If the column is not slender, then $\sigma_{all} = \left[1 - \frac{\sigma_{YS} (KL/r_G)^2}{4\pi^2 E} \right] \frac{\sigma_{YS}}{\text{F.S.}} = \frac{P}{(\pi/4)d^2}$

Step 5 Rewrite the equation to solve for diameter. This is a little tricky because of the number of terms.

Step 6 Check that the column really is intermediate; if it isn't, you made a mistake someplace.

If the cross-sectional area of the column is a different shape (such as a rectangle), follow these steps, using the appropriate equations for area and r_G .

Hollow Columns

The radius of gyration is defined as $r_G = \sqrt{\frac{I}{A}}$ where I is the moment of inertia of the cross section, and A is the cross-sectional area. If the cross section is an asymmetrical compound shape, then use the Transfer Formula in Chapter 6 to find I .

However, for simpler hollow columns where the outer and inner shapes share the same neutral axes, $r_G = \sqrt{\frac{\sum I}{\sum A}}$.

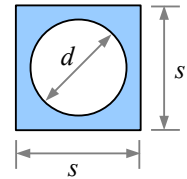
If a hollow column is made of a circular pipe with outer diameter d_o and inside diameter d_i , we know how to find $I = I_o - I_i$ and $A = A_o - A_i$ using formulas in Appendix C. However, it is important to realize that you cannot simply add or subtract radii of gyration: $r_G \neq r_{Go} - r_{Gi}$. Going back to the definition,

$$r_G = \sqrt{\frac{\sum I}{\sum A}} = \sqrt{\frac{I_o - I_i}{A_o - A_i}} = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{\pi}{64}(d_o^4 - d_i^4)}{\frac{\pi}{4}(d_o^2 - d_i^2)}} = \sqrt{\frac{d_o^4 - d_i^4}{16(d_o^2 - d_i^2)}} = \sqrt{\frac{(d_o^2 + d_i^2)(d_o^2 - d_i^2)}{16(d_o^2 - d_i^2)}} = \frac{\sqrt{d_o^2 + d_i^2}}{4}$$

This is the same formula given in Appendix C for a hollow circle.

Example #6 – Radius of gyration of a hollow square column

Calculate the radius of gyration for a hollow square column with a circular cavity, where each of the square's sides $s = 6\text{ cm}$ and the circle diameter $d = 5\text{ cm}$.



Solution The moments of inertia of the shapes are $I_{\text{square}} = \frac{s^4}{12} = \frac{(6\text{ cm})^4}{12} = 108\text{ cm}^4$ and

$$I_{\text{circle}} = \frac{\pi}{64}d^4 = \frac{\pi}{64}(5\text{ cm})^4 = 30.7\text{ cm}^4.$$

The areas of the two shapes are $A_{\text{square}} = s^2 = (6\text{ cm})^2 = 36\text{ cm}^2$ and $A_{\text{circle}} = \frac{\pi}{4}d^2 = \frac{\pi}{4}(5\text{ cm})^2 = 19.6\text{ cm}^2$

The radius of gyration of the hollow column is $r_G = \sqrt{\frac{\sum I}{\sum A}} = \sqrt{\frac{I_{\text{square}} - I_{\text{circle}}}{A_{\text{square}} - A_{\text{circle}}}} = \sqrt{\frac{108\text{ cm}^4 - 30.7\text{ cm}^4}{36\text{ cm}^2 - 19.6\text{ cm}^2}} = 2.17\text{ cm}$

What if we had calculated the radius of gyration of each shape, and subtracted the results?

$$r_{G\text{ square}} = \sqrt{\frac{I_{\text{square}}}{A_{\text{square}}}} = \sqrt{\frac{108\text{ cm}^4}{36\text{ cm}^2}} = 1.73\text{ cm} \quad \text{and} \quad r_{G\text{ circle}} = \sqrt{\frac{I_{\text{circle}}}{A_{\text{circle}}}} = \sqrt{\frac{30.7\text{ cm}^4}{19.6\text{ cm}^2}} = 1.25\text{ cm}$$

Subtracting, $r_{G\text{ square}} - r_{G\text{ circle}} = 1.73\text{ cm} - 1.25\text{ cm} = 0.48\text{ cm}$

The actual value is 4.5 times bigger, so this is clearly the wrong way to solve the problem. Since r_G is squared in the Euler stress equation, the final result will be off by a factor of 4.5^2 , which is about a factor of 20.

Chapter 14: Buckling of Columns

Key Equations

Ideal Slender Columns

The Euler critical load is $P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 EI}{(KL)^2 \text{ F.S.}}$, and the Euler critical stress is $\sigma_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(KL/r_G)^2 \text{ F.S.}}$. In all calculations involving r_G be sure to use the smaller value of r_{Gx} and r_{Gy} .

Structural Steel Columns

If $\frac{KL}{r_G} > 200$ then the column is too slender for safe use.

If $\frac{KL}{r_G} > 4.71 \sqrt{\frac{E}{\sigma_{YS}}}$ then the column is slender, and $P_{all} = 0.525 \sigma_{cr} A$

If $\frac{KL}{r_G} < 4.71 \sqrt{\frac{E}{\sigma_{YS}}}$ then the column is intermediate, and $P_{all} = \frac{0.658^{(\sigma_{YS}/\sigma_e)} \sigma_{YS} A}{1.67}$

Stress in the column is $\sigma = \frac{P_{all}}{A}$

Steel Machine Columns

If $\frac{KL}{r_G} \geq \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 E}{\sigma_{YS}}}$ then the column is slender, and the allowable stress is $\sigma_{all} = \frac{\pi^2 E}{(KL/r_G)^2 \text{ F.S.}}$.

If $\frac{KL}{r_G} < \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 E}{\sigma_{YS}}}$ then the column is intermediate, and $\sigma_{all} = \left[1 - \frac{\sigma_{YS} (KL/r_G)^2}{4\pi^2 E} \right] \frac{\sigma_{YS}}{\text{F.S.}}$.

Calculate $P_{all} = \sigma_{all} A$

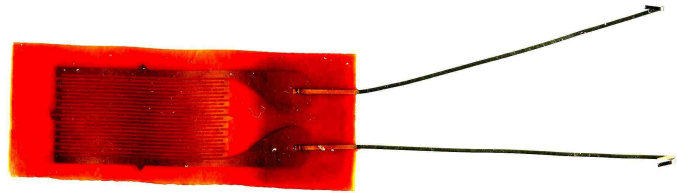
To find the smallest allowable diameter of a round solid rod, follow the 6-step procedure described in the chapter.

Chapter 15: Visualizing Stress and Strain

Measuring Stress

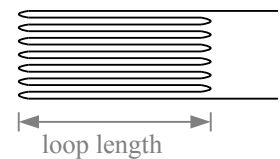
We can see deformation, if it's large enough, but we cannot see stress, and in most cases we cannot measure it directly. Instead, we can use a *strain gauge* to measure the strain on the surface of an object that is being elastically deformed, and use Young's Modulus to estimate the stress.

The earliest strain gauges in the 1930s were made of fine wire. If you glue a very thin wire along the bottom surface of a beam, then load the beam in bending, the wire will stretch and become thinner. The thinner the wire becomes, the higher its electrical resistance. By measuring this resistance you can determine strain, then calculate stress as $\sigma = E \cdot \epsilon$, provided the object is being strained elastically.



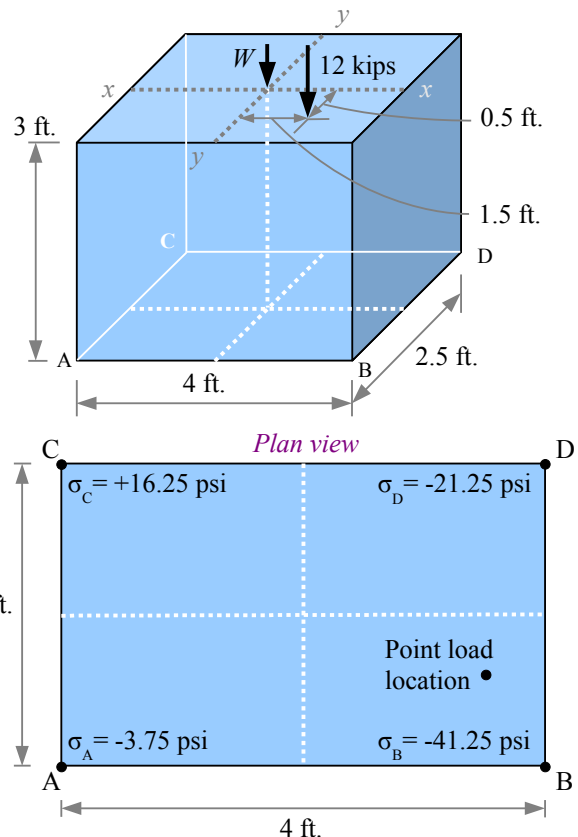
Modern strain gauges use the same principal, but are made of thin metal foil instead of wire. The foil is embedded in a pad that is easy to glue to the part being tested.

The longer the conductor, the more sensitive the gauge. With a foil strain gauge, the conductor loops back on itself many times. The total wire length is the loop length times twice the number of loops; in this cartoon, the total length is 14 times the loop length.



Stress at the Base of a Short Block

Consider the short block with a point load that is offset from both neutral axes. The total stress at the four corners is -3.75 psi, -41.25 psi, +16.25 psi, and -21.25 psi.



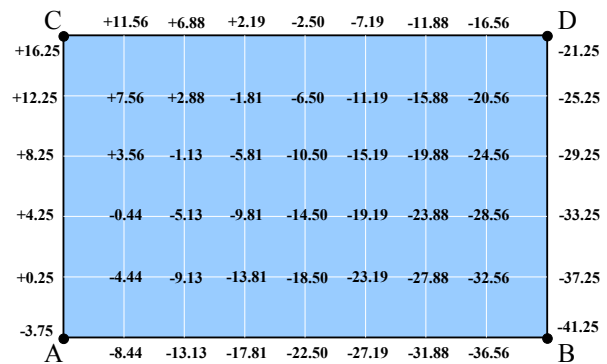
In plan view, point C has a tensile stress, while points A, B, and D have compressive stresses.

We can calculate the stress at any point along the edges by interpolating between the corner stresses, because the stress varies linearly from one corner to the next. For example, the location of the zero stress point between corners C and D is $4 \text{ ft} \cdot \frac{16.25 \text{ psi}}{16.25 \text{ psi} + 21.25 \text{ psi}} = 1.73 \text{ ft}$ from point C, or $4 \text{ ft} - 1.73 \text{ ft} = 2.27 \text{ ft}$ from point D.

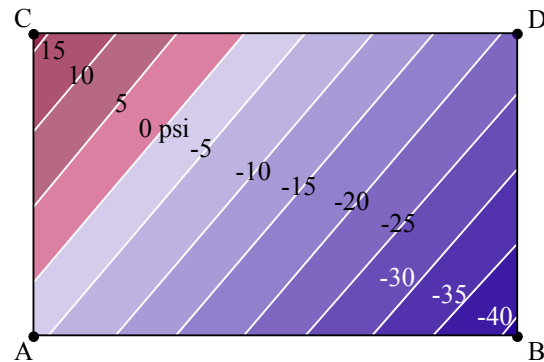
Likewise we can calculate the stresses within the area of the block by interpolating between the edge stresses.

Chapter 15: Visualizing Stress and Strain

One way to visualize these stresses is with a grid pattern in plan view, identifying the stress at each location, or node. In the diagram, the nodes are at half-foot intervals.



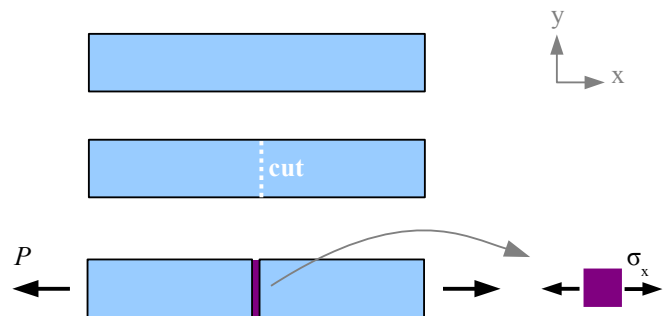
Alternatively, we can calculate contour lines of stress (a.k.a. isostress lines), coloring the spaces between the lines. The pattern shows that the pink areas are in tension, while the blue areas are in compression. The picture helps us see that the isostress lines are diagonals, and there is a zero stress line stretching from the AC edge to the CD edge.



Mohr's Circle

Normal and shear stresses in uniaxial tension

Take a tensile bar, cut it in half transversely to the axis, and glue the bar back together. If you pull on the bar along the x-axis, a normal stress $\sigma_x = \frac{P}{A}$ develops in the adhesive. Area A is the cut surface area of the bar (the cross-sectional area). There is no shear stress, because the adhesive is not loaded in shear. Consider a little square piece of adhesive: it has a normal stress σ_x acting on the left and right faces, but no normal stress on the top or bottom faces, and no shear stresses.

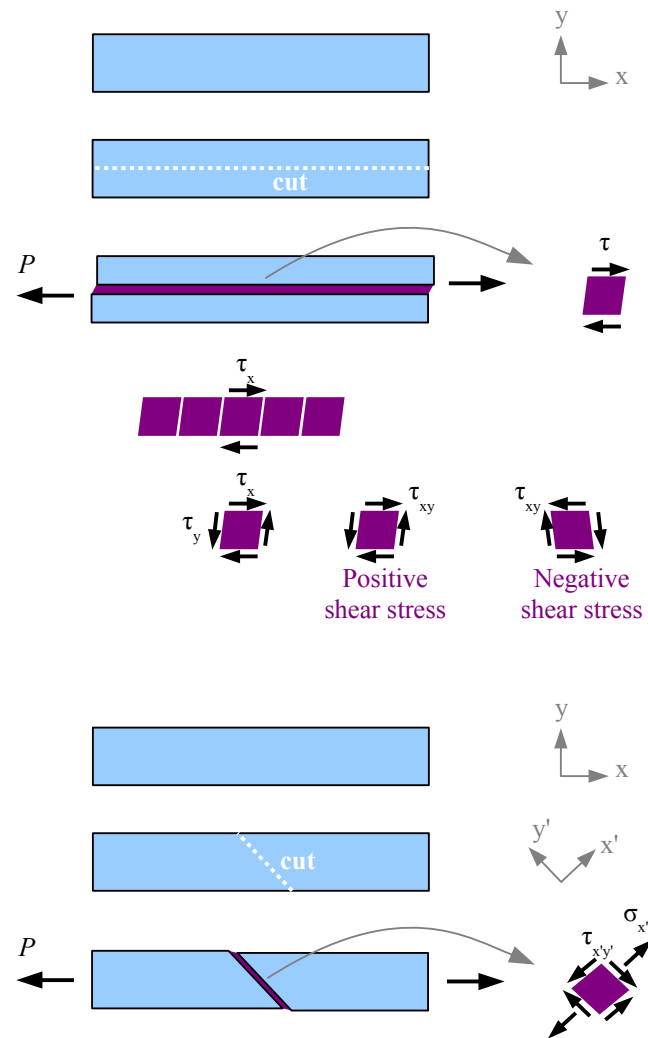


Cut a similar tensile bar in half along its x -axis, and glue the bar back together. If you load the bar as shown, a shear stress $\tau = \frac{P}{A}$ develops in the adhesive. Again, area A is the cut surface area of the bar. There is no normal stress, because the adhesive is only loaded in shear. A little square piece of adhesive has a shear stress acting on the top and bottom faces, in the x direction. The square becomes a parallelogram as it distorts.

We could call this shear stress τ_x , because it acts along the x direction. Think about how the little square of adhesive distorts relative to other little squares of adhesive on its left and right: its neighbors try to prevent the piece from parallelogramming, so there are shear stresses in the y direction too. The stress required to produce the parallelogram is the same along each edge, so $\tau_x = \tau_y$; we'll use a single term $\tau_{xy} = \tau_x = \tau_y$. A positive shear stress is one that distorts the square clockwise relative to its base; a negative shear stress distorts the square counterclockwise.

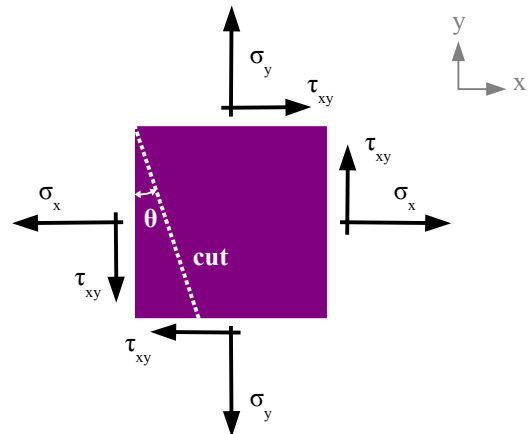
Cut another bar at an angle to the axis, and glue it back together. If you pull on the bar, the adhesive is loaded in normal tension *and* in shear. The two segments of the bar want to pull away from each other *and* slide along each other. Let's define two new axes, x' and y' , perpendicular and parallel to the cut surface. We have a shear stress τ acting parallel to the cut surface, and a tensile stress σ_x acting perpendicular to the cut surface, in the x' direction.

We don't have to actually cut the bar and use an adhesive; instead, we can imagine the stresses that act in various directions within the material. Draw a square that represents the piece of adhesive, and rotate it in different directions. We can calculate the stresses in the x' and y' directions by using equations from Statics: sum of the forces in any particular direction equals zero.

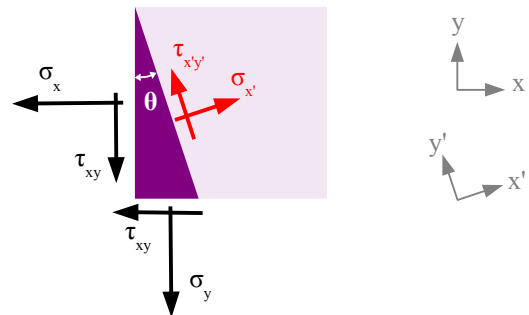


Chapter 15: Visualizing Stress and Strain

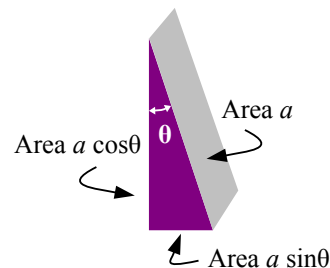
First, draw the square element. In the general case, there could be a vertical normal stress σ_y , so include this stress in the sketch.



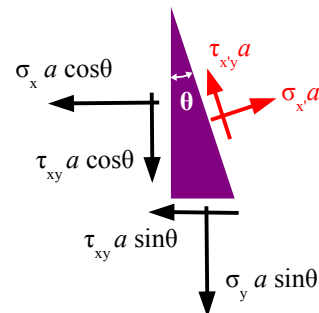
Next, cut the square along a diagonal in the y' direction, so the normal stress acting on this surface is $\sigma_{x'}$ and the shear stress acting on this surface is $\tau_{x'y'}$. The new x' - y' coordinate axes are tilted at angle θ counterclockwise from the original x - y coordinate axes.



The square has a depth (the thickness of the stressed part), so each edge is actually an area in three dimensions. Let the area of the cut surface be area a . Using trigonometry, the area of the left surface is $a \cos \theta$ and the area of the bottom surface is $a \sin \theta$.



The force acting on each face is equal to the stress times the area. We have 6 forces acting on the triangular body.



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Look at the components of the forces acting in the x' direction. If you add them up, the sum is zero.

$$\sigma_{x'} a = \sigma_x a \cos^2 \theta + \sigma_y a \sin^2 \theta + 2 \tau_{xy} a \cos \theta \sin \theta$$

Notice that area a cancels, so we can write

$$\sigma_{x'} = \sigma_x \cos^2 \theta + \sigma_y \sin^2 \theta + 2 \tau_{xy} \cos \theta \sin \theta$$

There are some trig identities that will help simplify the equation into something useful: $\cos^2 \theta = \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2}$,

$$\sin^2 \theta = \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2}, \quad \sin 2\theta = 2 \cos \theta \sin \theta, \quad \text{and}$$

$$\cos 2\theta = \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta.$$

Now we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{x'} &= \sigma_x \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} + \sigma_y \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2} + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \\ &= \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_x \cos 2\theta + \sigma_y + \sigma_y \cos 2\theta}{2} + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \\ &= \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \end{aligned}$$

Following the same procedure, we can calculate the sum of the forces in the y' direction.

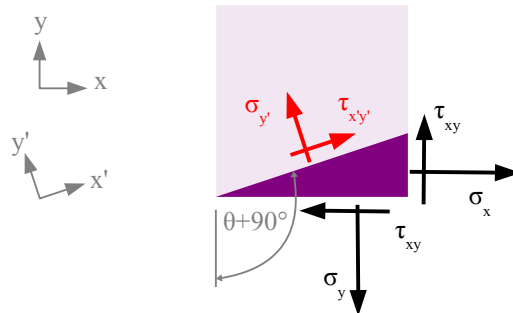
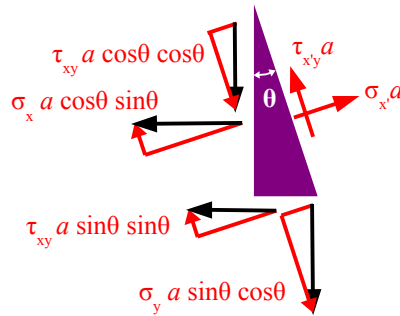
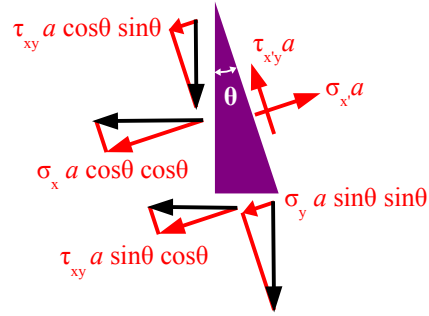
$$\begin{aligned} \tau_{x'y'} a &= -\sigma_x a \cos \theta \sin \theta + \sigma_y a \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ &\quad - \tau_{xy} a \sin^2 \theta + \tau_{xy} a \cos^2 \theta \end{aligned}$$

Area a cancels. Using the trig identities, we can simplify the equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_{x'y'} &= (-\sigma_x + \sigma_y) \cos \theta \sin \theta + \tau_{xy} (\cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta) \\ &= -(\sigma_x - \sigma_y) \frac{\sin 2\theta}{2} + \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta \\ &= \frac{-(\sigma_x - \sigma_y)}{2} \sin 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \cos 2\theta \end{aligned}$$

We can calculate the stress in the y' direction by taking angle $\theta + 90^\circ$. Using free-body diagrams and trig identities, we get:

$$\sigma_{y'} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} - \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2\theta - \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta$$



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Now we have three equations that are functions of σ_x , σ_y , and τ_{xy} , and θ . Let's pick values of normal and shear stresses, and see how $\sigma_{x'}$, $\sigma_{y'}$, and $\tau_{x'y'}$ vary by plotting stress vs. angle θ . The graph at the right shows $\sigma_{x'}$ as a function of angle θ if we pick $\sigma_x = 1 \text{ ksi}$, $\sigma_y = 0.5 \text{ ksi}$, and $\tau_{xy} = 1.2 \text{ ksi}$. The graph is a sine wave, with peaks, valleys, and zero values. Picking different values of σ_x , σ_y , and τ_{xy} will change the amplitude and vertical position of the sine wave, but not the period.

Notice that the maximum values of $\sigma_{x'}$ occur at $\theta = 40^\circ$ and 220° , the minimum values occur at $\theta = 130^\circ$ and 310° , and $\sigma_{x'} = 0$ at $\theta = 100^\circ$, 155° , 283° , and 385° .

This graph shows $\sigma_{y'}$ as a function of angle θ for the same set of σ_x , σ_y , and τ_{xy} .

The maximum values of $\sigma_{y'}$ occur at $\theta = 130^\circ$ and 310° , the minimum values occur at $\theta = 40^\circ$ and 220° , and $\sigma_{y'} = 0$ at $\theta = 13^\circ$, 65° , 193° , and 235° .

This graph of $\sigma_{y'}$ is shifted 90° to the right of the graph of $\sigma_{x'}$; as a result, you can find the angles for the maximum values of $\sigma_{y'}$ by adding 90° to the angles for the maximum values of $\sigma_{x'}$.

This graph shows $\tau_{x'y'}$ as a function of angle θ for the same set of σ_x , σ_y , and τ_{xy} .

The maximum values of $\tau_{x'y'}$ occur at $\theta = 175^\circ$ and 355° , shifted 45° from the maximum values of $\sigma_{x'}$. The minimum values of $\tau_{x'y'}$ occur at $\theta = 85^\circ$ and 265° , and $\tau_{x'y'} = 0$ at $\theta = 39^\circ$, 129° , 219° , and 309° .

We can see how the three stresses interrelate by plotting them together. There are normal stresses for which the shear stress is zero, and there are shear stresses for which the normal stress is zero. The values and angles depend on the input conditions (σ_x , σ_y , and τ_{xy}).

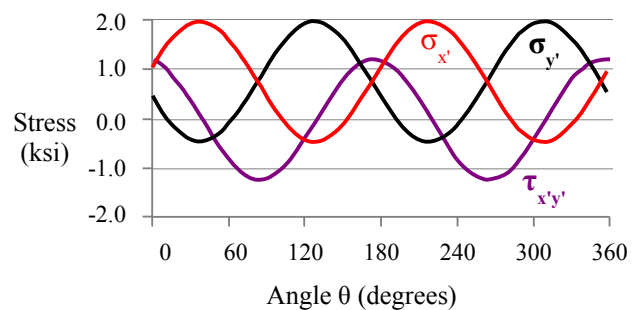
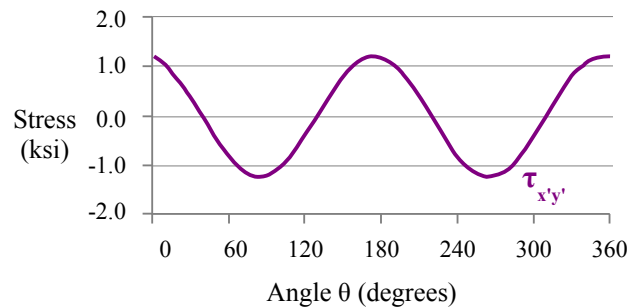
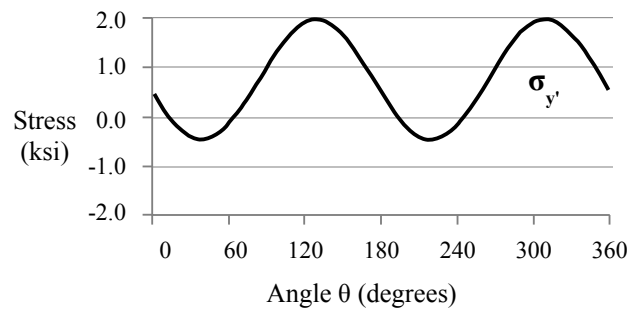
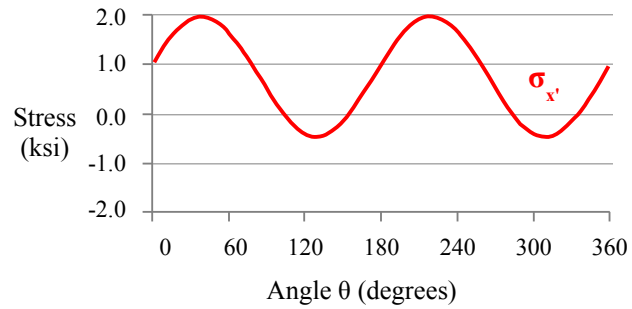
Let's take another look at the equations for $\sigma_{x'}$ and $\tau_{x'y'}$:

$$\sigma_{x'} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta$$

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

Rewrite the $\sigma_{x'}$ equation, putting two terms on the left:

$$\sigma_{x'} - \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} = \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2} \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta$$



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Square both sides of the $\sigma_{x'}$ and $\tau_{x'y'}$ equations:

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

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

Next, add these two equations together:

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\sigma_{x'} - \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{x'y'}^2 &= \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 \cos^2 2\theta + (\sigma_x - \sigma_y) \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy}^2 \sin^2 2\theta \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 \sin^2 2\theta - (\sigma_x - \sigma_y) \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \cos 2\theta + \tau_{xy}^2 \cos^2 2\theta \end{aligned}$$

We can eliminate two terms because $(\sigma_x - \sigma_y) \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \cos 2\theta - (\sigma_x - \sigma_y) \tau_{xy} \sin 2\theta \cos 2\theta = 0$. Rewriting the equation, we have:

$$\left(\sigma_{x'} - \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{x'y'}^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 (\cos^2 2\theta + \sin^2 2\theta) + \tau_{xy}^2 (\sin^2 2\theta + \cos^2 2\theta)$$

Using the trig identity $\cos^2 2\theta + \sin^2 2\theta = 1$, the equation simplifies to $\left(\sigma_{x'} - \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{x'y'}^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2$.

The term $\frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2}$ is an average of two stress values, so let's call it σ_{avg} . Now the equation is even simpler:

$$(\sigma_{x'} - \sigma_{avg})^2 + \tau_{x'y'}^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2. \text{ If we define the right side of the equation as } R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2} \text{ then}$$

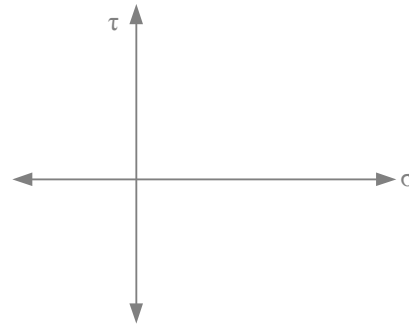
$(\sigma_{x'} - \sigma_{avg})^2 + \tau_{x'y'}^2 = R^2$. This is the equation of a circle with a radius R and a center at coordinates $(\sigma_{avg}, 0)$. In 1880, Otto Mohr developed this method for visualizing stresses in two-dimensional and three-dimensional objects. His graphical method is also used for diagramming strains. We can use Mohr's Circle to determine the value and direction of maximum stresses within a loaded part.

Follow this 6-step process for drawing Mohr's circle for the stresses acting at a point within a stressed object. For best results, use a compass and straightedge on graph paper.

In this example, use the same stresses as before:

$$\sigma_x = 1 \text{ ksi}, \sigma_y = 0.5 \text{ ksi}, \text{ and } \tau_{xy} = 1.2 \text{ ksi}.$$

Step 1 Draw two axes. Label the horizontal axis σ and the vertical axis τ .



Step 2 Mark the center of the circle at coordinates $(\sigma_{avg}, 0)$ and label it **C** for center. In this case,

$$\sigma_{avg} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} = \frac{1 \text{ ksi} + 0.5 \text{ ksi}}{2} = 0.75 \text{ ksi} .$$

Step 3 Mark points $(\sigma_x, -\tau_{xy})$ and (σ_y, τ_{xy}) on the graph; in this case, $(1 \text{ ksi}, -1.2 \text{ ksi})$ and $(0.5 \text{ ksi}, 1.2 \text{ ksi})$. Label these points **A** and **B**.

Step 4 Placing your compass point at the center of the circle, draw a circle passing through points **A** and **B**. The radius of Mohr's circle is:

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

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{1 \text{ ksi} - 0.5 \text{ ksi}}{2}\right)^2 + (1.2 \text{ ksi})^2} = 1.226 \text{ ksi}$$

A straight line connecting points **A** and **B** is the diameter of Mohr's circle.

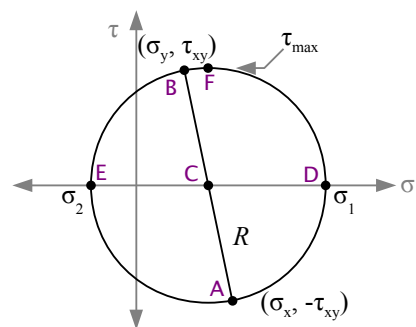
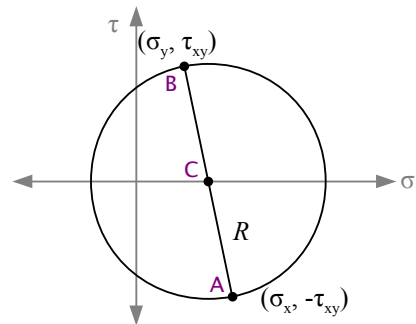
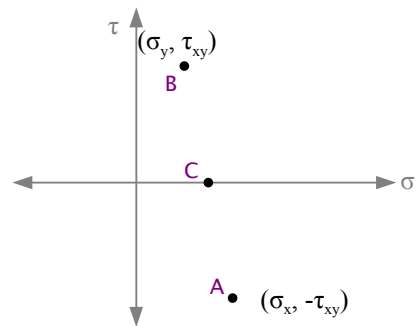
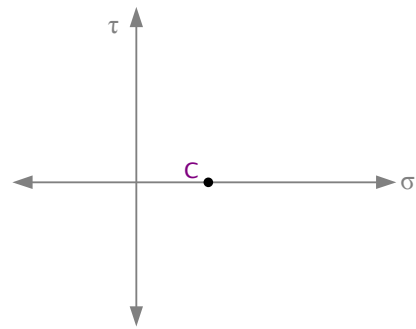
Step 5 The maximum normal stress (σ_1) occurs at point **D**, and the minimum normal stress (σ_2) occurs at point **E**. These two stresses are called *Principal Stresses*. The maximum shear stress (τ_{max}) occurs at point **F**.

You can measure these values off the graph, or you can calculate them:

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_{avg} + R = 0.75 \text{ ksi} + 1.226 \text{ ksi} = 1.976 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\sigma_2 = \sigma_{avg} - R = 0.75 \text{ ksi} - 1.226 \text{ ksi} = -0.476 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\tau_{max} = R = 1.226 \text{ ksi}$$



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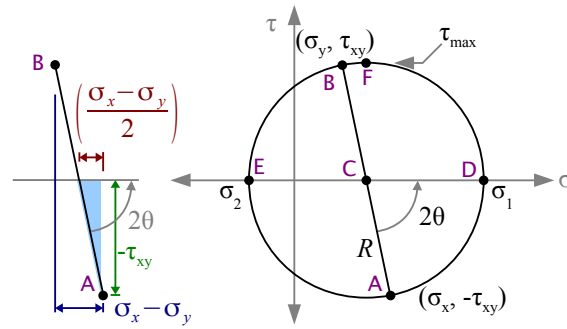
Step 6 Starting on line segment **A-C**, measure the angle counterclockwise about point **C** to line segment **C-D**. This angle is 2θ .

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y} = \frac{2(1.2 \text{ ksi})}{1 \text{ ksi} - 0.5 \text{ ksi}} = 4.8$$

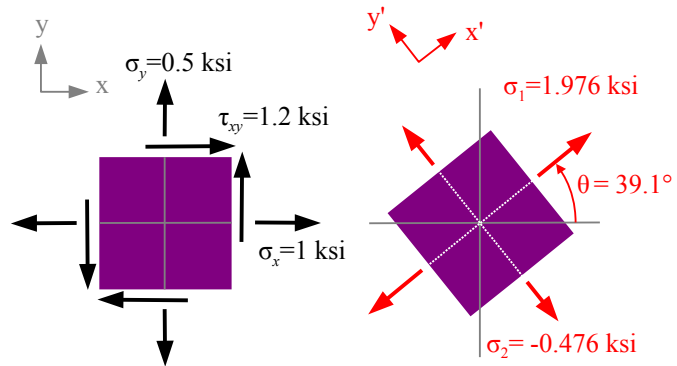
$$2\theta = \tan^{-1} 4.8 = 78.2^\circ$$

$$\theta = \frac{78.2^\circ}{2} = 39.1^\circ$$

This is the angle of the principal stress σ_1 . The angle of principal stress σ_2 is $\theta = 90^\circ + 39.1^\circ = 129.1^\circ$.



Going back to the original stress element, we had $\sigma_x = 1 \text{ ksi}$, $\sigma_y = 0.5 \text{ ksi}$, and $\tau_{xy} = 1.2 \text{ ksi}$. If we rotate the element counterclockwise 39.1° , in this orientation there are no shear stresses, and the principal stresses are $\sigma_1 = 1.976 \text{ ksi}$ tension and $\sigma_2 = -0.476 \text{ ksi}$ compression. The maximum shear stress $\tau_{max} = 1.226 \text{ ksi}$ is oriented 45° from the maximum normal stress, at $\theta = 45^\circ + 39.1^\circ = 84.1^\circ$.



Terms and Equations for Mohr's Circle

σ_x	Applied normal stress in the x direction, which could be from tension or compression (P/A), bending (Mc/I or M/Z), hoop stress ($p d_i/2t$), longitudinal stress ($p d_i/4t$), etc.
σ_y	Applied normal stress in the y direction, which could be from tension or compression (P/A), bending (Mc/I or M/Z), hoop stress ($p d_i/2t$), longitudinal stress ($p d_i/4t$), etc.
τ_{xy}	Applied shear stress. Could be from bending (VQ/It), torsion (Tc/J), applied shear load (P/A), etc.
R	Radius of Mohr's circle, equal to maximum shear stress τ_{max} and calculated as $R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$
Point A	Point on Mohr's circle, plotted as $(\sigma_x, -\tau_{xy})$
Point B	Point on Mohr's circle, plotted as $(\sigma_y, +\tau_{xy})$
Point C	Point on Mohr's circle, plotted as $(\sigma_{avg}, 0)$ where $\sigma_{avg} = (\sigma_x + \sigma_y)/2$
Point D	Principal stress σ_1 which is the maximum normal stress, calculated as $\sigma_1 = \sigma_{avg} + R$
Point E	Principal stress σ_2 which is the minimum normal stress, calculated as $\sigma_2 = \sigma_{avg} - R$
θ	Angle at which the principal stresses act. All angles on Mohr's circle axes are double angles. Calculate as $\tan 2\theta = \frac{2\tau_{xy}}{(\sigma_x - \sigma_y)}$. One common mistake is to enter τ_{max} in place of τ_{xy} .
x', y'	Axes along which the principal stresses act.

Example #1 – Rod loaded in uniaxial tension

A brass rod with a diameter of 0.5 inches is pulled with a load of 2000 lb. as shown. Calculate the applied stresses σ_x , σ_y , and τ_{xy} . Use Mohr's circle to find the principal stresses σ_1 and σ_2 , angle θ , and the maximum shear stress τ_{max} at point 1.

Solution

The applied normal stress is in the y direction; there is no applied shear stress.

$$\sigma_x = 0 \quad \sigma_y = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{4P}{\pi d^2} = \frac{4 \cdot 2000 \text{ lb.}}{\pi (0.5 \text{ in.})^2} \left| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| = 10.2 \text{ ksi} \quad \tau_{xy} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{avg} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} = \frac{0 \text{ ksi} + 10.2 \text{ ksi}}{2} = 5.09 \text{ ksi}$$

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

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{0 \text{ ksi} - 10.2 \text{ ksi}}{2} \right)^2 + (0 \text{ ksi})^2} = 5.09 \text{ ksi}$$

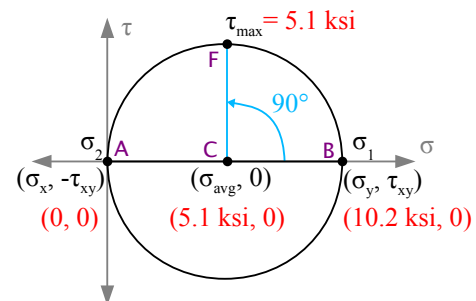
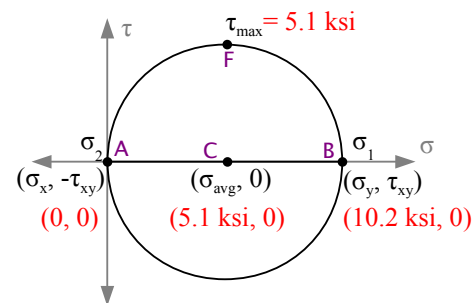
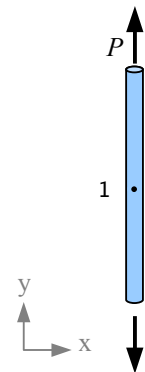
$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_{avg} + R = 5.09 \text{ ksi} + 5.09 \text{ ksi} = 10.2 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\sigma_2 = \sigma_{avg} - R = 5.09 \text{ ksi} - 5.09 \text{ ksi} = 0 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\tau_{max} = R = 5.09 \text{ ksi}$$

Angle $\theta = 0^\circ$, by inspection, confirming that the maximum normal stress (principal stress #1) is the normal stress in the y direction.

Rotate line segment B-C about point C to create line segment C-F 90° to the principal stress direction. Since all angles in Mohr's circle are double angles, we see that the maximum shear stress acts 45° to the principal stresses.



This photograph of a broken tensile specimen proves the existence of the maximum shear stress acting 45° to the axis of the rod. The specimen is pulled beyond its yield strength. Internally, microscopic voids form in a plane perpendicular to the axis; these voids coalesce to form a crack that grows from the center towards the surface of the rod. At some point, there is not enough material to support the load, and the rod shears at 45° , creating the classic cup-and-cone fracture surface of a ductile tensile specimen.



Example #2 – Rod loaded in tension and torsion

The rod in Example #1 is pulled as before, and also twisted with a torque of 45 ft·lb.

Solution

Once again the applied normal stress is in the y direction, but the torque creates an applied shear stress.

$$\sigma_x = 0$$

$$\sigma_y = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{4P}{\pi d^2} = \frac{4 \cdot 2000 \text{ lb.}}{\pi (0.5 \text{ in.})^2} \left| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| = 10.2 \text{ ksi as before}$$

$$\tau_{xy} = \frac{Tc}{J} \text{ where } c = \frac{d}{2} \text{ and } J = \frac{\pi d^4}{32}$$

(see Chapter 7 – torsion in a round shaft produces a shear stress at the surface)

$$\text{Substituting, } \tau_{xy} = \frac{T}{2} \frac{d}{\pi d^4} = \frac{16T}{\pi d^3} = \frac{16}{\pi (0.5 \text{ in.})^3} \left| \frac{45 \text{ ft} \cdot \text{lb.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{kip}}{10^3 \text{ lb.}} \right| = 22.0 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\sigma_{avg} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} = \frac{0 \text{ ksi} + 10.2 \text{ ksi}}{2} = 5.09 \text{ ksi}$$

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

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{0 \text{ ksi} - 10.2 \text{ ksi}}{2} \right)^2 + (22.0 \text{ ksi})^2} = 22.6 \text{ ksi}$$

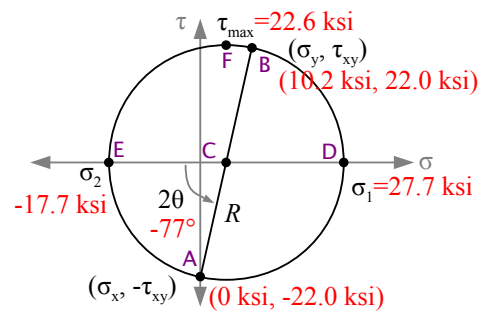
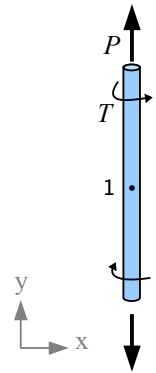
$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_{avg} + R = 5.09 \text{ ksi} + 22.6 \text{ ksi} = 27.7 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\sigma_2 = \sigma_{avg} - R = 5.09 \text{ ksi} - 22.6 \text{ ksi} = -17.5 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\tau_{max} = R = 22.6 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y} = \frac{2(22.0 \text{ ksi})}{0 \text{ ksi} - 10.2 \text{ ksi}} = -4.32$$

$$2\theta = \tan^{-1} -4.32 = -77.0^\circ; \quad \theta = \frac{-77.0^\circ}{2} = -38.5^\circ; \quad -38.5^\circ + 90^\circ = 51.5^\circ$$



We can also use Mohr's circle to find out the stress in a plane at any angle α . Rotate counterclockwise through angle 2α from line segment A-C to a new line segment A'-C to find the shear and normal stresses acting in this direction.

Example #3 – Pressurized cylindrical tank

A cylindrical tank with a 20" inside diameter and a 1/4" wall thickness is pressurized to 700 psi. If the barrel of the tank is made from a strip of steel welded in a spiral at 65°, what are the normal and shear stresses acting on the weld?

Solution

From Chapter 4,

$$\sigma_x = \sigma_{long} = \frac{p d_i}{4t} = \frac{700 \text{ psi} \cdot 20 \text{ in.}}{4 \cdot 0.25 \text{ in.}} \left| \frac{\text{ksi}}{10^3 \text{ psi}} \right| = 14 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_{hoop} = \frac{p d_i}{2t} = \frac{700 \text{ psi} \cdot 20 \text{ in.}}{2 \cdot 0.25 \text{ in.}} \left| \frac{\text{ksi}}{10^3 \text{ psi}} \right| = 28 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\tau_{xy} = 0$$

Now solve the Mohr's circle equations.

$$\sigma_{avg} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} = \frac{14 \text{ ksi} + 28 \text{ ksi}}{2} = 21 \text{ ksi}$$

$$R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{14 \text{ ksi} - 28 \text{ ksi}}{2}\right)^2 + (0 \text{ ksi})^2} = 7 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_{avg} + R = 21 \text{ ksi} + 7 \text{ ksi} = 28 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\sigma_2 = \sigma_{avg} - R = 21 \text{ ksi} - 7 \text{ ksi} = 14 \text{ ksi}$$

$$\tau_{max} = R = 7 \text{ ksi}$$

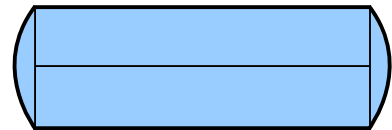
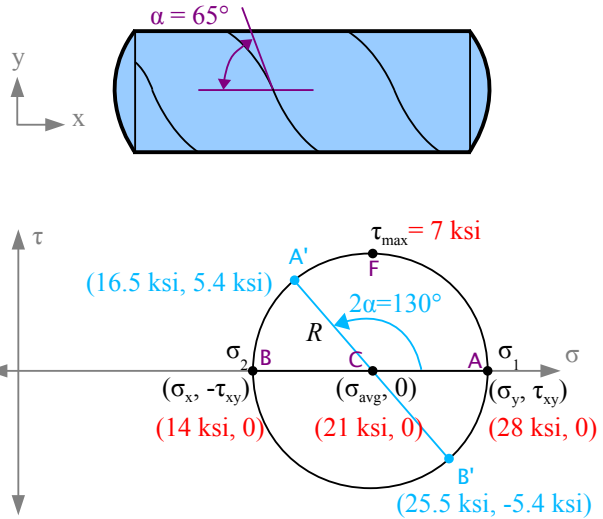
Angle $\theta = 0^\circ$, by inspection.

Rotate counterclockwise through angle $2\alpha = 2 \cdot 65^\circ = 130^\circ$ from line segment **A-C** to a new line segment **A'-C**. The normal stresses acting perpendicular and parallel to the weld are $\sigma_{avg} \pm R \cos 2\alpha = 21 \text{ ksi} \pm 7 \text{ ksi} \cos(130^\circ) = 16.5 \text{ ksi} \text{ \& } 25.5 \text{ ksi}$. The shear stress acting along the weld $R \sin 2\alpha = 7 \text{ ksi} \sin(130^\circ) = 5.4 \text{ ksi}$.

Since the normal stress acting on the spiral weld is 91% of the maximum normal stress (the hoop stress), the weld efficiency can be as low as 91% before the tank will fail at a weld.

If the tank were manufactured like welded pipe, with a longitudinal weld instead of a spiral weld, then anything less than 100% weld efficiency would cause the tank to fail at the weld instead of splitting in the base metal from excessive hoop stress.

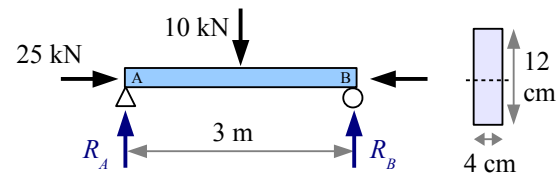
The end cap welds can have as little as 50% weld efficiency and still survive, because the longitudinal stress is 50% of the hoop stress.



Chapter 9 discussed normal and shear stresses in beams. We can use Mohr's circle to look at the normal and shear stresses at any location within a beam.

Example #4 – Beam loaded in bending and in compression along its axis

A 4 cm × 12 cm titanium bar is loaded as a beam and as a compression member. Find the stresses in the bar 1 cm above the neutral axis, at the midspan.

**Solution**

First, determine whether the bar will fail in buckling. From

Chapter 14, $P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 E I}{L^2}$.

If the load is greater than P_{cr} , then the bar fails in buckling. The moment of inertia about the weak axis is

$$I = \frac{12 \text{ cm} (4 \text{ cm})^3}{12} = 64 \text{ cm}^4, \text{ therefore } P_{cr} = \frac{\pi^2 114 \text{ GPa } 64 \text{ cm}^4}{(3 \text{ m})^2} \left| \frac{10^6 \text{ kN}}{\text{GPa m}^2} \right| \frac{\text{m}^4}{(100 \text{ cm})^4} = 80 \text{ kN}.$$

Since the applied axial load is less than 80 kN, the bar does not buckle.

The axial stress in the bar is

$$\sigma_{x \text{ axial}} = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{-25 \text{ kN}}{4 \text{ cm} \cdot 12 \text{ cm}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^2}{\text{m}^2} = -5.21 \text{ MPa}$$

The bending stress in the bar at the top or bottom surface is

$$\sigma_{x \text{ bending}} = \frac{M c}{I}, \text{ but we need the bending stress at a location 1 cm}$$

above the neutral axis, so $\sigma_{x \text{ bending}} = \frac{M y}{I}$ where $y = 1 \text{ cm}$. The beam is being bent in the strong direction, so

$$I = \frac{4 \text{ cm} (12 \text{ cm})^3}{12} = 576 \text{ cm}^4$$

$$\sigma_{x \text{ bending}} = \frac{7.5 \text{ kN} \cdot \text{m} \cdot 1 \text{ cm}}{576 \text{ cm}^4} \left| \frac{\text{MPa m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^3}{\text{m}^3} = 13.0 \text{ MPa}$$

Add the axial and bending stresses together to find the total stress in the x direction.

$$\sigma_{x \text{ total}} = \sigma_{x \text{ axial}} + \sigma_{x \text{ bending}} = -5.21 \text{ MPa} + 13.0 \text{ MPa} = 7.81 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\sigma_y = 0$$

Shear stress in the beam is $\tau_{xy} = \frac{V Q}{I t_{net}}$ where

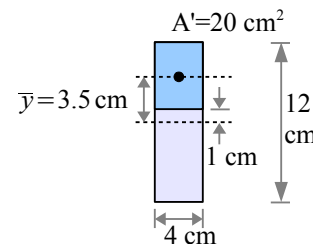
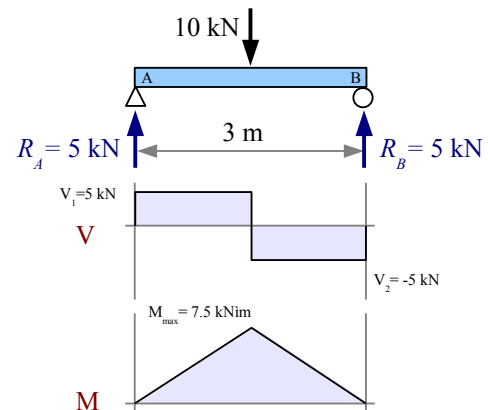
$$Q = A' \bar{y} = (4 \text{ cm} \times 5 \text{ cm}) 3.5 \text{ cm} = 70 \text{ cm}^3$$

$$\tau_{xy} = \frac{5 \text{ kN}}{576 \text{ cm}^4} \frac{70 \text{ cm}^3}{4 \text{ cm}} \left| \frac{\text{MPa m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| \frac{(100 \text{ cm})^2}{\text{m}^2} = 1.52 \text{ MPa}$$

Axial load only



Bending load only



Example #4, continued

Now solve the Mohr's circle equations.

$$\sigma_{avg} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} = \frac{7.81 \text{ MPa} + 0 \text{ MPa}}{2} = 3.91 \text{ MPa}$$

$$R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{7.81 \text{ MPa} - 0 \text{ MPa}}{2}\right)^2 + (1.52 \text{ MPa})^2} = 4.19 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_{avg} + R = 3.91 \text{ MPa} + 4.19 \text{ MPa} = 8.10 \text{ MPa}$$

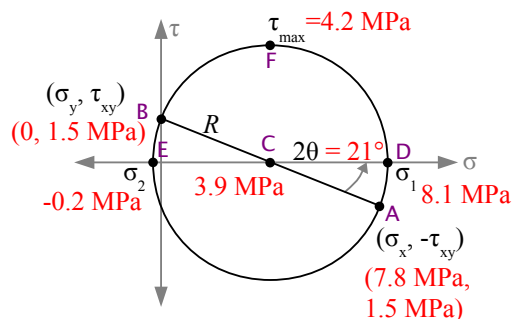
$$\sigma_2 = \sigma_{avg} - R = 3.91 \text{ MPa} - 4.19 \text{ MPa} = -0.29 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\tau_{max} = R = 4.19 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y} = \frac{2(1.52 \text{ MPa})}{7.81 \text{ MPa} - 0} = 0.389$$

$$2\theta = \tan^{-1}(0.389) = 21.3^\circ$$

$$\theta = \frac{21.0^\circ}{2} = 10.6^\circ; \quad 10.6^\circ + 90^\circ = 100.6^\circ$$

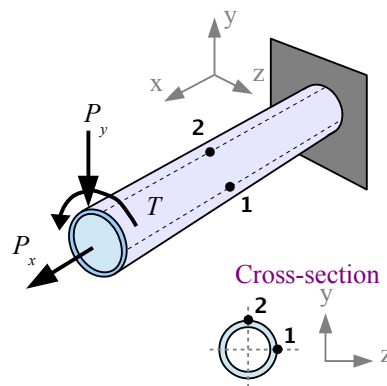
**Example #5 – Cantilever tube loaded in bending, tension, and torsion**

A 6 ft. long, 3 in. diameter thin-walled hollow tube has a wall thickness of 0.060 in. The tube is loaded in tension, torsion and bending, as shown, and it is pressurized to 450 psi. $P_x = 600 \text{ lb.}$, $P_y = 150 \text{ lb.}$ and $T = 75 \text{ ft.}\cdot\text{lb.}$. Points 1 and 2 are on the surface of the tube at the midspan (3 ft. from the wall), with point 1 at the neutral axis and point 2 at the top.

The x direction is horizontal along the axis of the pipe, the y direction is vertical, and the z direction is horizontal and transverse to the axis of the pipe.

Solution Calculate the normal and shear stresses due to the applied loads, then add up the terms. Horizontal applied load P_x creates a tensile stress $\sigma_x = P_x/A$ at points 1 and 2. Vertical applied load P_y creates a shear stress $\tau_{xy} = VQ/It$ at point 1 and a bending stress $\sigma_x = Mc/I$ at point 2. Torque T creates a shear stress $\tau_{xy} = Tc/J$ at point 1 and a shear stress $\tau_{xz} = Tc/J$ at point 2. Pressure p creates a hoop stress $\sigma_y = pd_i/2t$ at point 1, a hoop stress $\sigma_z = pd_i/2t$ at point 2, and a longitudinal stress $\sigma_x = pd_i/4t$ at points 1 and 2.

After combining the σ_x terms, the σ_y terms, the σ_z terms, the τ_{xy} terms, and the τ_{xz} terms. Draw Mohr's circle for point 1 using σ_x , σ_y , and τ_{xy} . Draw Mohr's circle for point 2 using σ_x , σ_z , and τ_{xz} .



Example #5, continued

First, calculate quantities that will be needed in multiple equations.

Inside diameter $d_i = d_o - 2t = 3 \text{ in.} - 2 \times 0.060 \text{ in.} = 2.88 \text{ in.}$

Dimension $c = \frac{d_o}{2} = \frac{3 \text{ in.}}{2} = 1.5 \text{ in.}$

Cross-sectional area $A = \frac{\pi}{4} [d_o^2 - d_i^2] = \frac{\pi}{4} [(3 \text{ in.})^2 - (2.88 \text{ in.})^2] = 0.5542 \text{ in.}^2$

Moment of inertia about the x-x axis $I_x = \frac{\pi}{64} [d_o^4 - d_i^4] = \frac{\pi}{64} [(3 \text{ in.})^4 - (2.88 \text{ in.})^4] = 0.5990 \text{ in.}^4$

Polar moment of inertia about the x-x axis $J_x = \frac{\pi}{32} [d_o^4 - d_i^4] = \frac{\pi}{32} [(3 \text{ in.})^4 - (2.88 \text{ in.})^4] = 1.198 \text{ in.}^4$

Net thickness of the pipe wall $t_{net} = 2 \times \text{wall thickness} = 2(0.060 \text{ in.}) = 0.120 \text{ in.}$

Stresses due to axial load P_x only

At points 1 and 2, $\sigma_{x1} = \sigma_{x2} = \frac{P_x}{A} = \frac{600 \text{ lb.}}{0.5542 \text{ in.}^2} = 1,083 \text{ psi}$

Stresses due to transverse load P_y only

There is no bending stress at point 1 because it is at the neutral axis.

To calculate the bending stress at point 2, we need the bending moment at the midspan of a cantilever beam due to a point load at the free end. Use the Formula Method to find

$$M_{x=3\text{ft.}} = -P_y x = -150 \text{ lb.} \times 3 \text{ ft.} = -450 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.}$$

Bending stress $\sigma_{x2} = \frac{M c}{I} = \frac{450 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.} \cdot 1.5 \text{ in.}}{0.5990 \text{ in.}^4} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| = 13,520 \text{ psi}$

Vertical load P_y creates a shear stress $\tau = \frac{V Q}{I t_{net}}$ due to bending at point 1 but not at point 2, where shear stress due to bending is zero.

Point 1 is at the neutral axis, so A' is the cross-sectional area of a half pipe:

$$A' = \frac{\pi}{8} [d_o^2 - d_i^2] = \frac{\pi}{8} [(3 \text{ in.})^2 - (2.88 \text{ in.})^2] = 0.2271 \text{ in.}^2$$

The distance from the neutral axis to the center of gravity of a half pipe is

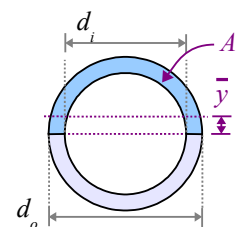
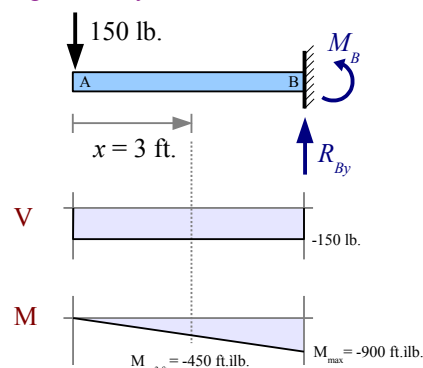
$$\bar{y} = \frac{2 [d_o^3 - d_i^3]}{3 \pi [d_o^2 - d_i^2]} = \frac{2 [(3 \text{ in.})^3 - (2.88 \text{ in.})^3]}{3 \pi [3 \text{ in.}^2 - (2.88 \text{ in.})^2]} = 0.9360 \text{ in.}$$

$$Q = A' \bar{y} = 0.2271 \text{ in.}^2 \times 0.9360 \text{ in.} = 0.2593 \text{ in.}^3, \text{ so } \tau_{xy1} = \frac{V Q}{I t_{net}} = \frac{150 \text{ lb.} \cdot 0.2593 \text{ in.}^3}{0.5990 \text{ in.}^4 \cdot 0.120 \text{ in.}} = 541 \text{ psi}$$

Stresses due to torque T only

Torque produces the same value of shear stress at points 1 and 2.

$$\tau_{xy1} = \tau_{xz2} = \frac{T c}{J} = \frac{75 \text{ ft.} \cdot \text{lb.} \cdot 1.5 \text{ in.}}{1.198 \text{ in.}^4} \left| \frac{12 \text{ in.}}{\text{ft.}} \right| = 1,127 \text{ psi}$$

Axial load only**Bending load only**

Example #5, continued

Stresses due to pressure p only

At both points, longitudinal stress $\sigma_{x1} = \sigma_{x2} = \frac{p d_i}{4t} = \frac{450 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \frac{2.88 \text{ in.}}{4 \cdot 0.060 \text{ in.}} = 5,400 \text{ psi}$

At both points, hoop stress $\sigma_{y1} = \sigma_{z2} = \frac{p d_i}{2t} = \frac{450 \text{ lb.}}{\text{in.}^2} \frac{2.88 \text{ in.}}{2 \cdot 0.060 \text{ in.}} = 10,800 \text{ psi}$

Mohr's Circle for Point 1

$$\sigma_{x1} = 1,083 \text{ psi} + 5,400 \text{ psi} = 6,483 \text{ psi} \quad \sigma_{y1} = 10,800 \text{ psi} \quad \tau_{xy1} = 1,127 \text{ psi} + 541 \text{ psi} = 1,668 \text{ psi}$$

$$\sigma_{avg1} = \frac{\sigma_{x1} + \sigma_{y1}}{2} = \frac{6,483 \text{ psi} + 10,800 \text{ psi}}{2} = 8,642 \text{ psi}$$

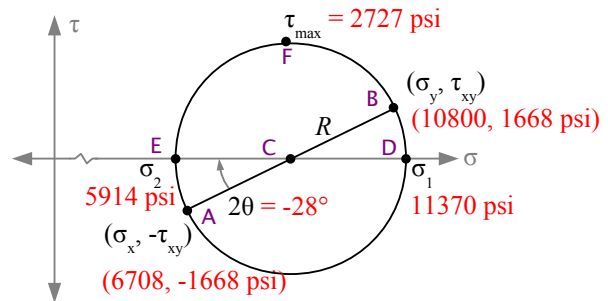
$$R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_{x1} - \sigma_{y1}}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy1}^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{6,483 \text{ psi} - 10,800 \text{ psi}}{2}\right)^2 + (1,668 \text{ psi})^2} = 2,727 \text{ psi}$$

$$\sigma_{P1\#1} = \sigma_{avg1} + R = 11,370 \text{ psi} \quad \sigma_{P1\#2} = \sigma_{avg1} - R = 5,914 \text{ psi}$$

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y} = \frac{2(1,668 \text{ psi})}{6,483 \text{ psi} - 10,800 \text{ psi}} = -0.773$$

$$2\theta = \tan^{-1}(-0.773) = -38^\circ, \quad \theta = \frac{-38^\circ}{2} = -19^\circ, \quad -19^\circ + 90^\circ = 71^\circ$$



Mohr's Circle for Point 2

$$\sigma_{x2} = 1,083 \text{ psi} + 13,520 \text{ psi} + 5,400 \text{ psi} = 20,003 \text{ psi} \quad \sigma_{z2} = 10,800 \text{ psi} \quad \tau_{xy2} = 1,127 \text{ psi}$$

$$\sigma_{avg2} = \frac{\sigma_{x2} + \sigma_{z2}}{2} = \frac{20,003 \text{ psi} + 10,800 \text{ psi}}{2} = 15,402 \text{ psi}$$

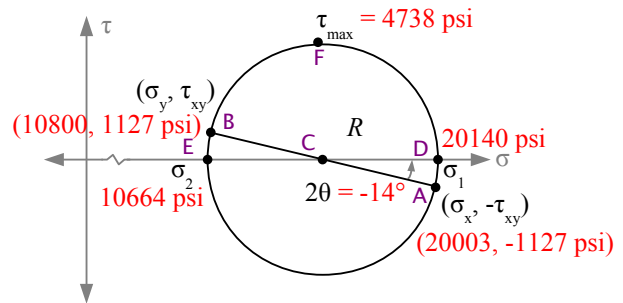
$$R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_{x2} - \sigma_{z2}}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xz2}^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{20,003 \text{ psi} - 10,800 \text{ psi}}{2}\right)^2 + (1,127 \text{ psi})^2} = 4,738 \text{ psi}$$

$$\sigma_{P2\#1} = \sigma_{avg2} + R = 20,140 \text{ psi} \quad \sigma_{P2\#2} = \sigma_{avg2} - R = 10,664 \text{ psi}$$

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_z} = \frac{2(1,127 \text{ psi})}{20,003 \text{ psi} - 10,800 \text{ psi}} = 0.24$$

$$2\theta = \tan^{-1} 0.24 = 14^\circ, \quad \theta = \frac{14^\circ}{2} = 7^\circ, \quad 7^\circ + 90^\circ = 97^\circ$$



Chapter 15: Visualizing Stress and Strain

Key Equations

The average normal stress (center of Mohr's circle) is $\sigma_{avg} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2}$, and the radius is $R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{xy}^2}$

The principal stresses are $\sigma_1 = \sigma_{avg} + R$ and $\sigma_2 = \sigma_{avg} - R$. The maximum shear stress $\tau_{max} = R$

Find the angle of principal stresses with

$$\tan 2\theta = \left[\frac{\tau_{xy}}{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)} \right] \rightarrow 2\theta = \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{\tau_{xy}}{\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)} \right] \rightarrow \theta = \frac{[2\theta]}{2} \text{ and } 90^\circ + \frac{[2\theta]}{2}$$

Chapter 16: What it All Means

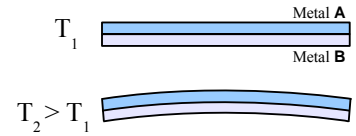
This introductory textbook teaches you the foundation of Strength of Materials. You can build on this foundation with additional knowledge to solve more advanced problems in the design of machine elements (gears, connecting rods, bearings, shafts, cams) and civil engineering structures (buildings, columns, roof trusses, bridges).

We made many simplifying assumptions in this textbook in order to learn the basics. For example, we ignored the weight of beams and shafts when first learning how to calculate reaction forces, reaction moments, and stresses. In many problems, we applied only one design criterion, but in real life, engineers design products and structures to maximize several performance criteria, usually while minimizing cost.

Thermal Expansion

Chapter 3 focused on materials which expand uniformly in all directions. Some ceramics, polymers, and composites expand to a different extent in each direction. For example, carbon atoms join together in atom-thick sheets to form graphite. The atomic bonds within the sheet are stronger than the atomic bonds between parallel sheets, and strong bonds prevent a material from expanding. As a result, when graphite is heated, it expands 27 times as much in the direction perpendicular to the sheets as it does in the direction parallel to the sheets. Some ceramics have a crystal structure enabling them to expand in two perpendicular directions (x and y) while *contracting* in the third direction (z).

Chapter 3 did not consider thermal expansion and thermal stress in composite materials. One example of a laminar composite is a bimetallic strip, made of two dissimilar metal sheets bonded together. Metal A has a greater thermal expansion coefficient than metal B. As the strip heats up, metal A expands more than metal B, and the strip begins to curve. We can use this behavior to build a thermometer, because the higher the temperature, the greater the curvature. Kitchen oven thermometers use bimetallic strips.

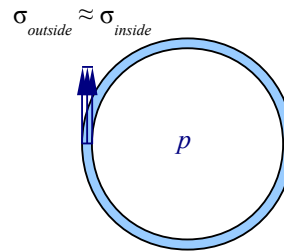


Pressure Vessels

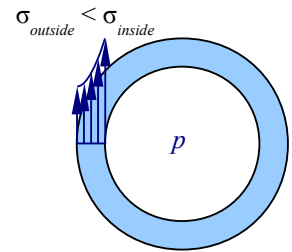
In Chapter 4 we focused on thin-walled pressure vessels, where the hoop stress on the inside surface is about the same as the hoop stress on the outside surface. Carbonated beverage cans are good examples – the wall is very thin compared with the diameter of the can. We also ignored external pressure, so the analysis does not apply to a buried tank or a sunken pipe.

Thick-walled pressure vessels have a higher stress at the inside surface than at the outside surface, so we need a different set of equations to analyze stress.

Thin-walled pressure vessel



Thick-walled pressure vessel



One difficulty is deciding on the transition point between thin- and thick-walled vessels. In Chapter 4 we said a pipe is thin-walled if the ratio of wall thickness to inside radius is $t/r_o < 0.1$. Where does this ratio come from?

The hoop stress for a thin-walled pressure vessel is $\sigma_{hoop(thin-walled)} = \frac{p d_i}{2t}$. Substituting $t = \frac{1}{2}(d_o - d_i)$, we find that

$\sigma_{hoop(thin-walled)} = \frac{p d_i}{2t} = \frac{p d_i}{2(\frac{1}{2}(d_o - d_i))} = \frac{p d_i}{d_o - d_i}$. In a thick-walled pressure vessel, the maximum hoop stress is on the inside surface, and is equal to $\sigma_{hoop(thick-walled)} = \frac{p(d_o^2 + d_i^2)}{d_o^2 - d_i^2}$. Thick-walled equations are more accurate because they assume the stress can vary from the inside to the outside of the pressure vessel. Taking the ratio of the thin-walled solution to the thick-walled solution, we get $\frac{\sigma_{hoop(thin-walled)}}{\sigma_{hoop(thick-walled)}} = \frac{p d_i (d_o^2 - d_i^2)}{(d_o - d_i) p (d_o^2 + d_i^2)} = \frac{d_i (d_o^2 - d_i^2)}{(d_o - d_i) (d_o^2 + d_i^2)}$.

It's easy enough to invent values of d_i and d_o , enter them into a spreadsheet, and graph the result as a function of t/r_o . The graph shows that the thin-walled solution produces an error for *any* wall thickness; the greater the ratio of t/r_o , the greater the error. We see that the thin-walled equation is 95% accurate for $t/r_o=0.1$, 90% accurate for $t/r_o=0.2$, and 86% accurate for $t/r_o=0.3$. Therefore, our assumption that the thin-walled solution is good for $t/r_o < 0.1$ is based on a decision that 5% error is acceptably small, and that a sensible factor of safety will take care of this error.

Stress Concentrations

Chapters 4 and 7 discussed stress concentrations in four cases: three flat bars loaded in tension, plus a round rod loaded in torsion. In machine design textbooks you can find dozens of additional cases (bending, combined bending and torsion, etc.) The best-known source is *Peterson's Stress Concentration Factors* (see Bibliography).

Stress concentrations can be design features or they can be defects in materials. For example, United Airlines flight 232 crashed in Sioux City, Iowa, in July 1989 because a hard metallurgical defect in a titanium fan disk acted as a stress concentration site for fatigue cracks. When the fan disk ruptured, it cut through the hydraulic lines, and the pilots crash-landed the aircraft by adjusting engine thrust, since they couldn't control the flaps. The hard defect was only about 1 mm across.

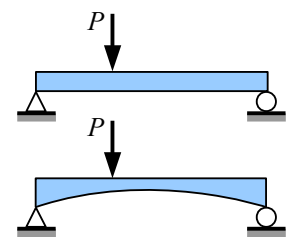
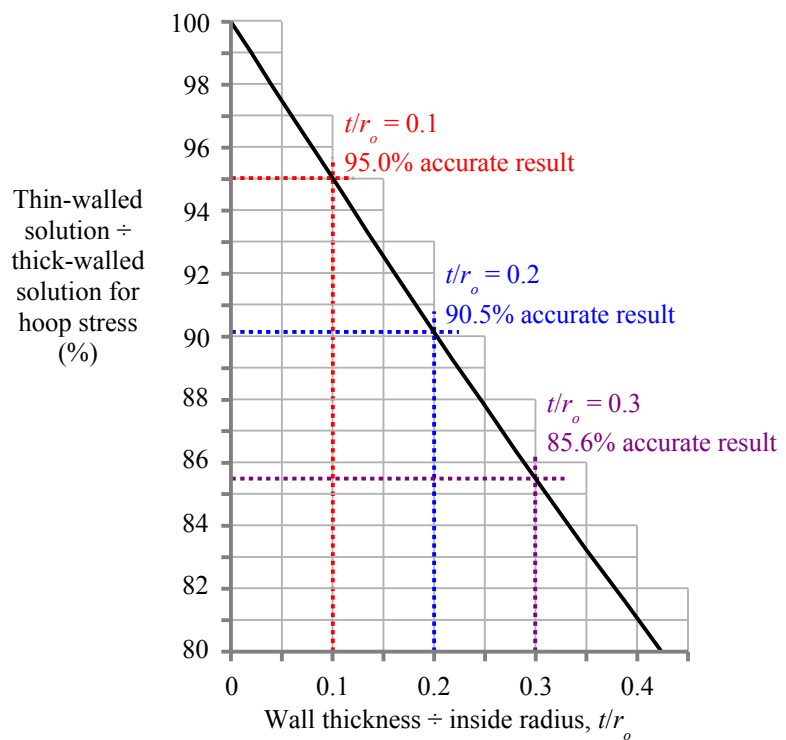
Beams

Chapters 8 through 13 posed problems with uniform cross sections and uniform materials. Many beams have varying cross sections as shown at the right, or are made of composites such as steel-reinforced concrete. You can find solutions to these types of problems in more advanced Strength of Materials textbooks and in *Roark's Formulas for Stress and Strain* (see Bibliography). Finite element analysis is often required for complex shapes.

In beam design, we focused on four constraints: minimizing deflection and weight (a proxy for cost) while maximizing bending strength and shear strength. Most real engineering problems have multiple constraints, including size, compatibility with neighboring parts, corrosion resistance, materials availability, manufacturability, health & safety, etc.

Formula Method

Appendix F includes about a dozen cases, but you can find hundreds more in *Roark's Formulas for Stress and Strain*, including many more beam loading conditions, pressure vessels, stress concentrations, flat plates, curved beams, columns, thermal stresses, etc.



Columns

Chapter 14 discusses ideal columns and two special cases: W-beams used as structural steel columns, and steel machine elements. Buckling formulas exist for other special cases:

Material	Source of equations	Factors influencing buckling
Aluminum	The Aluminum Association	Alloy, heat treatment, usage
Concrete reinforced by rebar	The American Concrete Institute	Concrete strength, placement of rebar
Concrete-steel composite	The American Institute of Steel Construction	Material strength, design (filled tube vs. encased steel member)
Timber	The American Forest and Paper Association (National Design Specification for Wood Construction)	Wood species, wood grade, moisture level, load duration

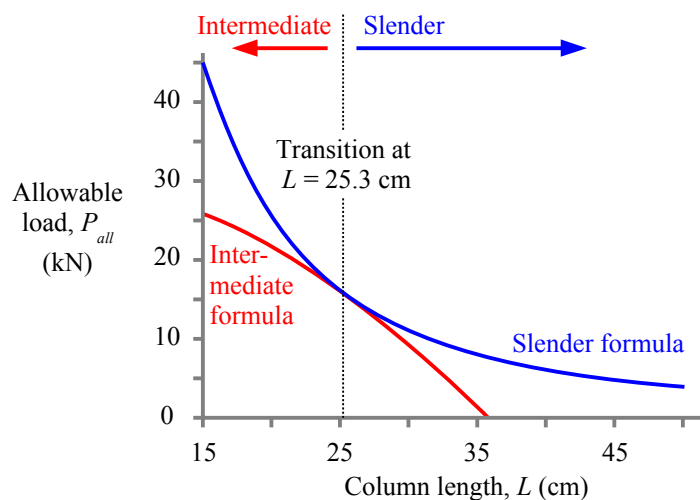
In each special case there are formulas for slender columns and different formulas for intermediate columns. The reason for the difference is that the failure modes are different: slender columns bow, while intermediate columns kink. The column problems teach you to use the right equation, because the wrong one gives different results. Consider a solid round steel machine part with a 1 cm diameter that is loaded as a pinned column. If the yield strength is 400 MPa, then

$$\sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 E}{\sigma_{ys}}} = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi^2 207 \text{ GPa}}{400 \text{ MPa}}} \frac{10^3 \text{ MPa}}{\text{GPa}} = 101. \text{ If } \frac{KL}{r_G} \geq 101 \text{ then the column is slender, and } P_{all} = \sigma_{all} A = \frac{\pi^2 E A}{(KL/r_G)^2 \text{ F.S.}}$$

$$\text{If } \frac{KL}{r_G} < 101 \text{ then the column is intermediate, and } P_{all} = \sigma_{all} A = \sigma_{all} = \left[1 - \frac{\sigma_{ys} (KL/r_G)^2}{4\pi^2 E} \right] \frac{\sigma_{ys} A}{\text{F.S.}}$$

Plotting P_{all} vs. L , we find that the column length at the transition is 25.3 cm. Columns shorter than 25.3 cm are intermediate; columns longer than 25.3 cm are slender.

If you use the slender equation (blue curve) when the column is actually intermediate, you will think the column can support more load than it really can, and the column will collapse. If you use the intermediate equation (red curve) when the column is actually slender, you will think the column can support less load than it really can, and you will waste material. Look at where the red curve meets the horizontal axis: the intermediate equation says that a 1 cm diameter pinned column of alloy steel cannot support *any* load if it is longer than 35 cm...which defies common sense.



Mohr's Circle

With computer stress analysis widely available, why would anybody need to understand Mohr's circle? One reason is that principal stresses help us predict failure of mechanical and structural parts.

Theories of Failure

Design engineers don't prevent failure, they manage it by designing products and structures so that *when* they fail due to old age, abuse, or ordinary service, nobody is injured. How do we define failure? It depends on the product or structure. A bridge deck could be described as a failure if it deflects too far, even though it does not break. A shear pin in a snowblower fails if it does *not* break when the blades are overloaded by ice, or *does* break under ordinary snow load.

Chapter 16: What it All Means

In Strength of Materials, elastic formulas do not work in the plastic zone, and usually we do not want plastic deformation during service, therefore we can define failure as yielding for most products or structures.

William Rankine, a 19th century Scottish engineer, developed the *Maximum Normal Stress Theory* for materials having the same strength in tension and compression (such as steel, not cast iron or wood). He proposed a failure stress criterion $\sigma_f = \sigma_{Pmax}$ where σ_f is the failure stress and σ_{Pmax} is the maximum principal stress. If we plot principal stresses σ_1 and σ_2 on x and y coordinates, the part is considered safe if the combined stress point is within the shaded square.

Charles-Augustin de Coulomb, a 19th century French physicist, and Henri Tresca, a 19th century French engineer, developed the *Maximum Shear Stress Theory* (or *Tresca Theory*), defining failure as $\tau_f = \tau_{max} = (\sigma_{max} - \sigma_{min})/2$. This theory is more conservative than the *Maximum Normal Stress Theory*, as it has a smaller “safe zone”.

Metals have a linear elastic stress-strain curve before yielding. The area under the curve equals the strain energy per unit volume, $u = (\sigma \epsilon)/2$.

Richard Edler von Mises was a Jewish mathematician who escaped Austria when the Nazis rose to power, and later joined the faculty at Harvard University. From the energy per unit volume equation, he derived $\sigma_f = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 - \sigma_1 \sigma_2 + \sigma_2^2}$ for calculating failure stress from principal stresses. The *von Mises* or *Maximum Distortion Energy Theory* produces an elliptical “safe zone”.

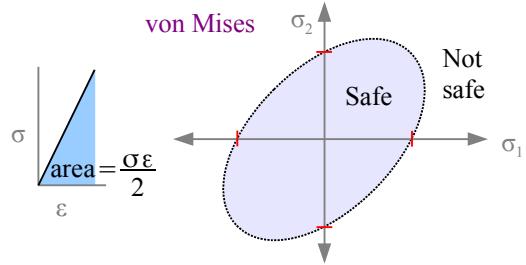
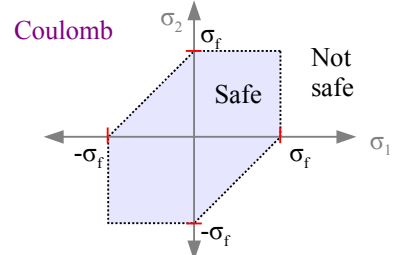
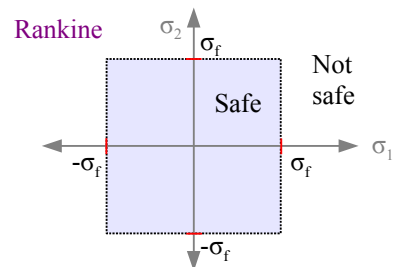
On all three principal stress graphs, the “safe” envelopes all pass through the same four points on the two axes, marked in red. Several other failure theories apply to special cases, such as the *Maximum Strain Theory* of Barré de Saint-Venant, and the *Internal Friction Theory*. However, *von Mises* is used in finite element software programs because it fits the most data.

Mechanical Properties

The materials properties listed in Appendix B are either minimum values or typical values for room-temperature conditions. As the temperature rises, all of these properties will change. Metals become softer, weaker, and less stiff at higher temperatures, so if you are designing a steel conveyor system in an oven, you will need to know the yield strength and stiffness of steel at oven temperatures.

Heat treatment, alloying, and cold work alters the mechanical properties of metals significantly. For example, heat treatment can increase the yield strength of 8620 alloy steel from 385 to 560 MPa. Type 304 stainless steel has a yield strength of 205 MPa in the fully-annealed (soft) condition, but cold work (rolling or drawing) increases the yield strength to as high as 965 MPa – more than 4½ times stronger! Appendix B lists the yield strength of cold-rolled Type 304 stainless steel as 760 MPa, but there is a range of strengths available, depending on the degree of cold work. You can order this material in the ¼ hard, ½ hard, or fully hardened condition.

Design rules for composites, polymers, and ceramics are different because these materials behave differently than metals. For example, many polymers have a nonlinear elastic stress-strain curve. Composite materials can have more than one Young's modulus: as the load increases, the soft matrix can fail while the strong fiber reinforcement is carrying the load.



Conclusions

- **Models.** The real world is more complicated than the mathematical models presented in this textbook. No model matches reality perfectly, but some models are more useful than others.
- **Accuracy.** Most materials properties are only known to 2 or 3 places, so it makes no sense to report an answer with more significant digits.
- **Problem-solving.** Now that you have finished the book, you know that *defining the problem* is the hard part. Once a problem is defined, the rest is just math.

Bibliography

Textbooks

Sometimes when you are learning a new topic, it's helpful to look at other textbooks. The Engineering Technology textbooks listed below focus on algebraic and trigonometric solutions, while Engineering textbooks also use calculus. Symbols used in these textbooks vary; authors use different symbols for force (C, F, N, P, Q, T), normal stress/strength (σ, s, f, F, S), shear stress/strength (τ, s_s, S_s), Poisson's ratio (ν, μ), section modulus (S, Z), length (L, l), temperature (T, t), pressure (p, R), radius of curvature (R, ρ), radius of gyration (r, k, q), and stress concentration (k, K, K_{conc}, K_t). Check the table of terminology before using the equations.

The basic theory of Strength of Materials has not changed in many decades. Material properties have improved – structural steel is better than it used to be – and some industry standards for factors of safety have changed. Newer textbooks have full-color diagrams and online resources, including videos and animations.

Engineering Technology Textbooks

George Limbrunner & Craig D'Allaird, *Applied Statics and Strength of Materials*, 6th ed., Pearson Prentice Hall, 2016.

Fa-Hwa Cheng, *Statics and Strength of Materials*, 2nd ed., Glencoe/McGraw-Hill, 1997.

Lawrence J. Wolf, *Statics and Strength of Materials: A Parallel Approach to Understanding Structures*, Merrill, 1988.

Engineering Textbooks

R.C. Hibbeler, *Statics and Mechanics of Materials*, 5th ed., Pearson Prentice Hall, 2016.

Madhukar Vable, *Intermediate Mechanics of Materials*, 2nd ed., Expanding Educational Horizons, 2013.

William Riley, Leroy Sturges, & Don Morris, *Mechanics of Materials*, 6th ed., John Wiley & Sons, 2007.

Ferdinand Beer, E. Russell Johnston, Jr., John DeWolf, & David Mazurek, *Mechanics of Materials*, 8th ed., McGraw-Hill, 2019. Beer & Johnston pioneered the design of modern mechanics textbooks, using many examples and drawings.

Other Reading Material

A textbook is usually written for a specific course. Other books that are not course-specific are still useful in engineering practice; these include histories of technology, handbooks of design specifications, anthologies of mechanism designs, etc.

Richard Budynas & Ali Sadegh, *Roark's Formulas for Stress and Strain*, 9th ed., McGraw-Hill, 2020.

Wood Handbook – 2010 Centennial Edition, General Technical Report FPL-GTR-190. Madison, WI: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Forest Products Laboratory. Available online at www.fpl.fs.fed.us.

Walter Pilkey, Deborah Pilkey, & Zhuming Bi, *Peterson's Stress Concentration Factors*, 4th ed., Wiley, 2020. The original edition of 1953 contains hundreds of 7"×10" hand-drawn graphs. Most of the data was developed experimentally using photoelastic tests; some graphs are based on mathematical models. Rudolph Peterson was the manager of the Mechanics department at Westinghouse Research Laboratories.

Ali Sadegh & William Worek, ed.s, *Marks' Standard Handbook for Mechanical Engineers*, 12th ed., McGraw-Hill, 2017. Harvard and MIT professor Lionel Marks assembled his first handbook in 1916, based on the earlier German handbook *Hütte* (1857). Mechanical engineering is the most technically-diverse engineering field, so handbook topics range from basic sciences to applications in specific industries.

J.E. Gordon, *Structures: Or Why Things Don't Fall Down*, Da Capo Press, 2009

J.E. Gordon, *The New Science of Strong Materials: Or Why You Don't Fall Through the Floor*, Princeton U. Press, 2018.

Stephen P. Timoshenko, *History of Strength of Materials*, Dover, 1983 (reprint from McGraw-Hill, 1953).

Appendix A: Units

SI System of Units

The SI system of units (Système International), also commonly called the metric system, uses prefixes to indicate scale. Learn the prefixes, and unit conversion will become easy. For example, 1 kN is 10^3 newtons, 1 MPa is 10^6 pascals, and 1 Pa is 1 N/m^2 . These are the same prefixes we use with computer memory (megabytes, gigabytes, terabytes, etc.)

If you are converting 600 kN/m^2 to MPa, you can either convert everything to the lowest level of meters and newtons:

$$\frac{600 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}^2} \left| \frac{10^3 \text{ N}}{\text{kN}} \right| \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^6 \text{ N}} \right| = 0.6 \text{ MPa}$$

or you can recognize that 1 MPa is equal to 10^3 kPa and take fewer steps:

$$\frac{600 \text{ kN}}{\text{m}^2} \left| \frac{\text{MPa} \cdot \text{m}^2}{10^3 \text{ kN}} \right| = 0.6 \text{ MPa}$$

A very useful SI conversion factor for stress:

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

US Customary System of Units

The US Customary system of units, also called the English system, generally does not use prefixes to indicate scale; the exception is “kips” for “kilopounds” (1000 lb.). Instead, we use conversion factors to go from one scale to the next.

Most US Customary unit symbols are abbreviations with periods: “ft.” not “ft”, “in.” not “in”; exceptions include “psi” and “ksi” which have no periods.

The construction industry uses the length term “yard” to mean “cubic yard” or 27 cubic feet.

Gravitational Constant

The acceleration of gravity at sea level is $g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2 = 32.2 \text{ ft./s}^2$

Which Unit System is Easier to Use?

In most strength of materials problems, the unit system makes no difference to the difficulty of the problem, so the system you are most familiar with is the easiest for you to use. Beam design problems are simpler to solve in US Customary units because steel W-beams are sold by weight per unit length in the US, and by mass per unit length in SI countries. Therefore, an SI beam design problem requires the extra step of converting mass to weight.

Prefix	Abbrev.	Multiplier	Literal meaning
nano-	n	$= 10^{-9}$	dwarf (Greek)
micro-	μ	$= 10^{-6}$	small (Greek)
milli-	m	$= 10^{-3}$	thousand (Latin)
centi-	c	$= 10^{-2}$	hundred (Latin)
kilo-	k	$= 10^3$	thousand (Greek)
Mega-	M	$= 10^6$	great (Greek)
Giga-	G	$= 10^9$	giant (Greek)
Tera-	T	$= 10^{12}$	monster (Greek)

Quantity	Unit	Symbol	Definition
Length	meter	m	
Mass	kilogram	kg	
Force or Weight	newton	N	$\text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}^2$
Stress or Pressure	pascal	Pa	N/m^2
Moment or Torque	newton meter	N·m	

Quantity	Unit	Symbol	Definition
Length	foot	ft.	
Mass	slug	S	
Force or Weight	pound	lb.	$\text{S} \cdot \text{ft./s}^2$
Stress or Pressure	lb. per sq. in.	psi	lb./in.^2
Moment or Torque	foot pound	ft.·lb.	

Unit	Equivalent
1 ft.	= 12 in.
1 yard	= 3 ft.
1 kip	= 1,000 lb.
1 ksi	= 1,000 psi
1 ton	= 2,000 lb.

Appendix B: Materials Properties

Apply a load to a material and measure the response to obtain *Mechanical Properties* such as yield strength, Young's modulus, elongation, impact resistance, and fatigue life. All other properties are called *Physical Properties*, including thermal expansion, electrical conductivity, density, color, and specific heat. Some properties vary very little, while others have large ranges. For example, Young's modulus for steels varies less than $\pm 1\frac{1}{2}\%$ because this property is related to bond strength at the atomic level. The yield strength of a grade of steel can vary $\pm 15\%$ due to variations in composition and processing. The weakest steels have a yield strength < 25 ksi, while the strongest have a yield strength > 300 ksi.

Table B1: Materials Properties at Room Temperature (U.S. Customary units)

Material	Specific weight	Yield strength (tension)	Ultimate strength (tension)	Ultimate strength (compression)	Ultimate strength (shear)	Young's modulus	Shear modulus	Thermal expansion coefficient	Poisson's ratio
	γ (lb./in. ³)	σ_{YS} (ksi)	σ_{UTS} (ksi)	σ_{UCS} (ksi)	τ_{ult} (ksi)	E (10 ⁶ psi)	G (10 ⁶ psi)	α (10 ⁻⁶ in./in. [°] F))	ν -
Steels									
ASTM A36	0.284	36	58	-	-	30	12	6.5	0.25
ASTM A992 (HSLA)	0.284	50	65	-	-	30	12	6.5	0.25
AISI 80X (HSLA)	0.284	80	100	-	-	30	11.6	6.5	0.28
AISI 1020, annealed	0.284	43	57	-	-	30	12	6.8	0.25
AISI 1020, cold rolled	0.284	48	65	-	-	30	12	6.8	0.25
AISI 1040, annealed	0.284	51	75	-	-	30	12	6.3	0.25
AISI 1040, cold rolled	0.284	60	90	-	-	30	12	6.3	0.25
AISI 4140, annealed	0.284	61	95	-	-	30	12	6.8	0.25
AISI 8620, annealed	0.284	56	78	-	-	30	12	6.2	0.25
Stainless steels									
Type 304, annealed	0.290	30	75	-	-	28	12.5	9.6	0.29
Type 304, cold rolled	0.290	110	150	-	-	28	12.5	9.6	0.29
Type 409, annealed	0.280	30	55	-	-	29	11.3	6.5	0.28
Cast irons									
Grade 4 austempered ductile iron	0.260	155	200	-	-	24.4	9.4	5.9	0.25
Class 35 gray cast iron	0.260	-	35	125	48.5	10.9	6.4	7.2	0.29
Aluminum alloys									
2024-T4	0.101	47	68	-	41	10.6	4.0	12.9	0.33
6061-T6	0.098	40	45	-	30	10.0	3.8	13.1	0.33
7075-T6	0.101	73	83	-	48	10.4	3.9	13.1	0.33
Magnesium alloys									
AZ80A, as extruded	0.065	36	49	-	22	6.5	2.4	14.0	0.35
AZ80A, T5 temper	0.065	40	55	-	24	6.5	2.4	14.0	0.35
Copper alloys									
C10800 copper, hard drawn	0.323	32	40	-	26	17.0	6.4	9.4	0.33
C26000 cartridge brass, annealed	0.308	16	48	-	34	16.0	6.0	11.1	0.38
C26000 cartridge brass, rolled	0.308	52	70	-	42	16.0	6.0	11.1	0.38
C63000 aluminum bronze, annealed	0.274	53	111	-	-	17.0	6.4	9.0	0.33
Titanium alloys									
Ti-6Al-4V, annealed	0.160	120	130	-	80	16.5	6.1	4.8	0.34
Ti-6Al-4V, heat treated	0.160	160	170	-	-	16.5	6.1	4.8	0.34
Concrete & Stone									
Unreinforced concrete (range of grades)	0.0868		$0.1 \times \sigma_{UCS}$	3 to 4	$0.5 \times \sigma_{UCS}$	2.5 to 4		5.5	0.1 to 0.20
Granite (typical)	0.0972			25		7.0		3.6	0.28
Limestone (typical)	0.0961			8 to 16		6.0		2.8	0.21
Sandstone (typical)	0.0903			6		2.5		5.2	0.28

Appendix B: Materials Properties

Table B2: Materials Properties at Room Temperature (SI units)

Material	Density	Yield strength (tension)	Ultimate strength (tension)	Ultimate strength (compression)	Ultimate strength (shear)	Young's modulus	Shear modulus	Thermal expansion coefficient	Poisson's ratio
	ρ (g/cm ³)	σ_{YS} (MPa)	σ_{UTS} (MPa)	σ_{UCS} (MPa)	τ_{ult} (MPa)	E (GPa)	G (GPa)	α (10 ⁻⁶ mm/(mm°C))	ν -
Steels									
ASTM A36	7.85	250	400	-	-	207	83	11.7	0.25
ASTM A992 (HSLA)	7.85	345	450	-	-	207	83	11.7	0.25
AISI 80X (HSLA)	7.85	550	690	-	-	207	80	11.7	0.28
AISI 1020, annealed	7.85	295	395	-	-	207	83	11.7	0.25
AISI 1020, cold rolled	7.85	330	450	-	-	207	83	11.7	0.25
AISI 1040, annealed	7.85	350	520	-	-	207	83	11.3	0.25
AISI 1040, cold rolled	7.85	415	620	-	-	207	83	11.3	0.25
AISI 4140, annealed	7.85	420	655	-	-	207	83	12.3	0.25
AISI 8620, annealed	7.85	385	540	-	-	207	83	11.1	0.25
Stainless steels									
Type 304, annealed	8.00	205	515	-	-	193	86	17.2	0.29
Type 304, cold rolled	8.00	760	1035	-	-	193	86	17.2	0.29
Type 409, annealed	7.80	205	380	-	-	200	78	11.7	0.28
Cast irons									
Grade 4 austempered ductile iron	7.1	1100	1400	-	-	168	65	10.6	0.25
Class 35 gray cast iron	7.1		241	855	334	110	44	13.0	0.29
Aluminum alloys									
2024-T4	2.78	325	470	-	285	73	28.0	23.2	0.33
6061-T6	2.70	275	310	-	205	69	26.0	23.6	0.33
7075-T6	2.80	505	570	-	330	72	26.9	23.6	0.33
Magnesium alloys									
AZ80A, as extruded	1.80	250	340	-	150	45	17	26.0	0.35
AZ80A, T5 temper	1.80	275	380	-	165	45	17	26.0	0.35
Copper alloys									
C10800 copper, hard-drawn	8.94	220	275	-	180	115	44	17.0	0.33
C26000 cartridge brass, annealed	8.53	110	330	-	235	110	40	19.9	0.38
C26000 cartridge brass, rolled	8.53	360	480	-	290	110	40	19.9	0.38
C63000 aluminum bronze, annealed	7.58	370	766			115	44	16.2	0.33
Titanium alloys									
Ti-6Al-4V, annealed	4.43	830	900	-	550	114	42	8.6	0.34
Ti-6Al-4V, heat treated	4.43	1100	1170	-	-	114	42	8.6	0.34
Concrete & Stone									
Unreinforced concrete (range of grades)	2.40		$0.1 \times \sigma_{UCS}$	21 to 28	$0.5 \times \sigma_{UCS}$	17 to 28		9.9	0.1 to 0.20
Granite (typical)	2.69			170		48		6.5	0.28
Limestone (typical)	2.66			55 to 110		40		5.0	0.21
Sandstone (typical)	2.50			40		17		9.4	0.28

For most metals, the ultimate strength in compression is equal to the ultimate strength in tension.

Concrete, stone, and gray cast iron are significantly stronger in compression than in tension. The elastic portion of their stress-strain curves are not linear, so Young's modulus is not clearly defined for these materials.

The numbers in these tables are either typical or minimum values, for use in homework problems only. Use standards published by ASTM, SAE, et al., for materials property values before designing anything.

Appendix B: Materials Properties

Table B3: Materials Properties of Bolts in Bolted Joints*

Bolt Specification	τ_{all} (ksi)	τ_{all} (MPa)
ASTM A307 low-carbon steel	12.0	82.5
ASTM A325N, threads in the shear plane	24.0	165
ASTM A325X, threads excluded from the shear plane	30.0	207
ASTM A490N, threads in the shear plane	30.0	207
ASTM A490X, threads excluded from the shear plane	37.5	260

Table B4: Materials Properties of Plates in Bolted Joints or Welded Joints

Plate Material	σ_{YS} (ksi)	σ_{YS} (MPa)	σ_{UTS} (ksi)	σ_{UTS} (MPa)	σ_{P-all} (ksi)	σ_{P-all} (MPa)	σ_{G-all} (ksi)	σ_{G-all} (MPa)	σ_{N-all} (ksi)	σ_{N-all} (MPa)
ASTM A36 low-carbon steel	36	250	58	400	87	600	21.6	150	29	200
ASTM A992 high-strength low-alloy steel	50	345	65	448	97.5	672	30	207	32.5	224

Table B5: Unit Strengths for Fillet Welds

Weld Size (in.)	E60 electrode f_{weld} (kip/in.)	E70 electrode f_{weld} (kip/in.)
1/16	0.795	0.925
1/8	1.59	1.85
3/16	2.39	2.78
1/4	3.18	3.70
5/16	3.98	4.63
3/8	4.77	5.55
7/16	5.57	6.48
1/2	6.36	7.40
9/16	7.16	8.33
5/8	7.95	9.25
11/16	8.75	10.18
3/4	9.54	11.10
13/16	10.34	12.03
7/8	11.13	12.95

Table B6: AISC Recommended Weld Sizes

Plate Thickness (in.)	Weld Size (in.)
1/8	1/8
3/16	1/8 to 3/16
1/4	1/8 to 3/16
5/16	3/16 to 1/4
3/8	3/16 to 5/16
7/16	3/16 to 3/8
1/2	3/16 to 7/16
9/16	1/4 to 1/2
5/8	1/4 to 9/16
11/16	1/4 to 5/8
3/4	1/4 to 11/16
13/16	5/16 to 3/4
7/8	5/16 to 13/16

* ASTM Standard F3125 replaced ASTM Standards A325 and A490 in 2015. However, since A325 and A490 had been used for more than half a century before this change, we label the bolts as Grade A325 and Grade A490 under ASTM Standard F3125.

Table B7: Descriptions of Materials and their Common Uses*

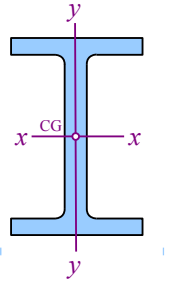
Steels	
ASTM A36	Low-carbon, low-strength, low-cost rolled structural steel used for W-beams, I-beams, C-channels, etc.
ASTM A992 (HSLA) & AISI 80X (HSLA)	High-strength, low-alloy steels contain grain-refining elements such as boron which create very small grains, resulting in higher strength. Reheating to welding temperatures causes grains to grow, ruining the strength of the steel, therefore bolting or riveting are preferred. Used for structural steel in buildings and large trucks. By definition, few alloying elements are added, keeping costs low.
AISI 1020	Low-carbon steel containing 0.20% carbon, 0.45% manganese. Cold rolling increases strength & decreases ductility.
AISI 1040	Medium-carbon steel containing 0.40% carbon, 0.75% manganese. Added carbon makes the alloy stronger than AISI 1020. Cold rolling further increases strength and decreases ductility.
AISI 4140	Add 0.95% chromium, 0.20% molybdenum, and a little manganese to AISI 1040 steel. Cost and strength increase. Quench & temper heat treatment can raise yield strength above 230 ksi. Used for machine parts.
AISI 8620	Add 0.55% nickel, 0.50% chromium, 0.20% molybdenum, and a little manganese to AISI 1020 steel. Cost and strength increase. Carburize to make a hard, wear-resistant high-carbon surface for gears and bearings.
Stainless steels	
Type 304	Most common stainless steel, with 18% Cr, 8% Ni. Used for food handling equipment (cutlery, pots and pans), tubing, cryogenic equipment. Hardenable by cold work, but not through heat treatment. Not magnetic.
Type 409, annealed	Contains 11% Cr, ½% Ni, therefore cheaper than type 304, with less corrosion resistance. Widely used for stainless exhaust pipes on cars and trucks. Magnetic.
Cast irons	
Grade 4 austempered ductile iron	Contains 3 to 4% carbon as spherical graphite particles which reduce stress concentrations. Austempering heat treatment gives it the strength and wear resistance of steel with the low cost and castability of cast iron. Used for crankshafts and other machine parts.
Class 35 gray cast iron	Contains 2.5 to 4% carbon in the form of graphite flakes which help absorb vibration, but create stress concentrations which reduce strength. Used for engine blocks and machinery bases. The elastic stress-strain curve is not linear, so yield strength is not reported.
Aluminum alloys	
2024-T4	Contains 4.4% copper, 1.5% magnesium, 0.6% manganese. Used widely in the aircraft industry owing to its high strength to weight ratio. T4 heat treatment quadruples yield strength of the soft annealed condition.
6061-T6	Contains 1% Mg, 0.6% Si, 0.3% Cu, 0.2% Cr. Used in canoes, trucks, pipelines, and other applications where good strength to weight ratio, corrosion resistance, and weldability are needed. T6 heat treat raises yield strength 2½ times vs. annealed condition.
7075-T6	Contains 5.6% zinc, 2.5% magnesium, 1.6% copper, 0.23% chromium. Used widely in the aircraft industry owing to its high strength to weight ratio and corrosion resistance. T6 heat treatment quadruples yield strength.
Magnesium alloys	
AZ80A	Contains 8.5% aluminum, 0.5% zinc. Commonly used as an extrusion. T5 heat treatment increases strength by 10%.
Copper alloys	
C12200 phosphorus deoxidized copper	Contains min. 99.9% copper. Copper tube used for domestic water, medical gas, air conditioning, and refrigeration. Allowable stress depends on the amount of cold work, from 6 ksi (annealed) to 10 ksi (as-drawn) at room temp.
C26000 cartridge brass	Contains 70% Cu, 30% Zn. Cold work and heat treatment substantially improve mechanical properties. Widely used in electrical, hardware, ammunition, plumbing, and automotive industries. Susceptible to stress-corrosion cracking in the presence of ammonia.
C63000 Al bronze	Contains 82% copper, 10% aluminum, 5% nickel, 3% iron. Used for pump parts, valve seats, faucet balls, gears, and cams.
Titanium alloys	
Ti-6Al-4V	Titanium alloys are expensive to produce partly because molten titanium explodes in air. Ti-6-4 is widely used in aerospace because it has half the density of steel, but higher strength and stiffness than aluminum aerospace alloys.
Concrete & Stone	
Unreinforced concrete	10 times stronger in compression than in tension; commonly reinforced with steel to improve tensile strength. Wet curing increases strength as the concrete ages; 90% of strength reached within 28 days of pouring.
Granite	Igneous rock. Hard, strong, durable material used for building exteriors and curbstones. Resistant to acid rain.
Limestone	Sedimentary rock. Softer than granite, used for building exteriors and gravel for paving. Sensitive to acid rain.
Sandstone	Sedimentary rock. Easier to carve than other rock. Used for paving and building exteriors.

* For more information, consult ASTM Standards, SAE Standards, the ASM Handbook series published by ASM International, the Copper Tube Handbook, and other engineering handbooks.

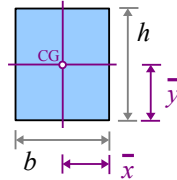
Appendix C: Properties of Areas

In these diagrams, the polar moment of inertia, J , is about the center of gravity (the small circle marked "CG").

The moments of inertia, I_x and I_y , and radii of gyration, r_{Gx} and r_{Gy} , are about the x-x and y-y neutral axes (horizontal and vertical magenta lines). In every case, $J = I_x + I_y$ and $r_G = \sqrt{I/A}$.



Rectangle



$$\bar{x} = \frac{b}{2}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{h}{2}$$

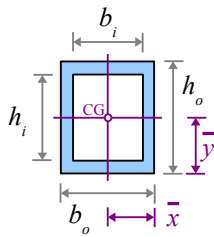
$$A = b h$$

$$I_x = \frac{b h^3}{12}, \quad I_y = \frac{h b^3}{12}$$

$$J = \frac{b h (h^2 + b^2)}{12}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{12}}, \quad r_{Gy} = \frac{b}{\sqrt{12}}$$

Hollow rectangle



$$\bar{x} = \frac{b_o}{2}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{h_o}{2}$$

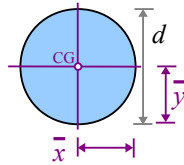
$$A = b_o h_o - b_i h_i$$

$$I_x = \frac{b_o h_o^3 - b_i h_i^3}{12}, \quad I_y = \frac{h_o b_o^3 - h_i b_i^3}{12}$$

$$J = \frac{(b_o h_o^3 + h_o b_o^3) - (b_i h_i^3 + h_i b_i^3)}{12}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \sqrt{\frac{b_o h_o^3 - b_i h_i^3}{12 A}}, \quad r_{Gy} = \sqrt{\frac{h_o b_o^3 - h_i b_i^3}{12 A}}$$

Circle



$$\bar{x} = \bar{y} = \frac{d}{2}$$

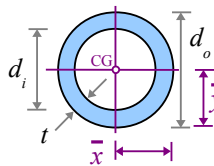
$$A = \frac{\pi d^2}{4}$$

$$I_x = I_y = \frac{\pi d^4}{64}$$

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

$$r_{Gx} = r_{Gy} = \frac{d}{4}$$

Hollow circle



$$\bar{x} = \bar{y} = \frac{d_o}{2}$$

$$A = \frac{\pi (d_o^2 - d_i^2)}{4}$$

$$t = \frac{d_o - d_i}{2}$$

$$I_x = I_y = \frac{\pi (d_o^4 - d_i^4)}{64}$$

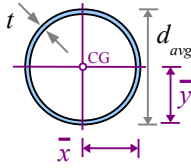
$$J = \frac{\pi (d_o^4 - d_i^4)}{32}$$

$$r_{Gx} = r_{Gy} = \frac{\sqrt{d_o^2 + d_i^2}}{4}$$

Appendix C: Properties of Areas

Thin-walled circle

(A hollow circle with thin wall of thickness t , has an area equal to the circumference \times wall thickness. The cross-section of a copper water pipe is a good example.)



$$d_{avg} = \frac{d_o + d_i}{2}$$

$$\bar{x} = \bar{y} = \frac{d_{avg}}{2}$$

$$A = \pi d_{avg} t$$

$$I_x = I_y = \frac{\pi d_{avg}^3 t}{8} \quad (99\% \text{ accurate for } t < 0.1 d_o)$$

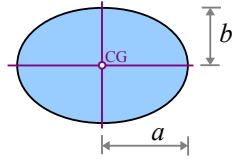
$$I_x = I_y = \frac{\pi}{8} [d_{avg}^3 t + d_{avg} t^3] \quad (\text{exact answer})$$

$$J = \frac{\pi d_{avg}^3 t}{4} \quad (99\% \text{ accurate for } t < 0.1 d_o)$$

$$J = \frac{\pi}{4} [d_{avg}^3 t + d_{avg} t^3] \quad (\text{exact answer})$$

$$r_{Gx} = r_{Gy} = \frac{\sqrt{d_{avg} t}}{2} = \sqrt{\frac{d_{avg}^2 + t^2}{8}} \approx \frac{d_{avg}}{\sqrt{8}}$$

Ellipse



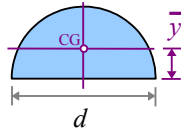
$$A = \pi a b$$

$$I_x = \frac{\pi a b^3}{4}, \quad I_y = \frac{\pi b a^3}{4}$$

$$J = \frac{\pi a b (a^2 + b^2)}{4}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{b}{2}, \quad r_{Gy} = \frac{a}{2}$$

Half circle



$$\bar{y} = \frac{2d}{3\pi}$$

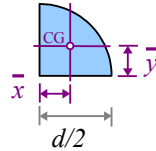
$$A = \frac{\pi d^2}{8}$$

$$I_x = \frac{\pi d^4}{128} \left[1 - \left(\frac{8}{3\pi} \right)^2 \right] = \frac{d^4}{145.78}, \quad I_y = \frac{\pi d^4}{128},$$

$$J = \frac{\pi d^4}{128} \left[2 - \left(\frac{8}{3\pi} \right)^2 \right] = \frac{d^4}{31.84}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{d}{7.566}, \quad r_{Gy} = \frac{d}{4}$$

Quarter circle



$$\bar{x} = \bar{y} = \frac{2d}{3\pi}$$

$$A = \frac{\pi d^2}{16}$$

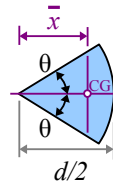
$$I_x = I_y = \frac{d^4}{291.4}$$

$$J = \frac{d^4}{145.7}$$

$$r_{Gx} = r_{Gy} = \frac{d}{7.564}$$

Segment of a circle

(In these equations, θ is in radians)



$$\bar{x} = \frac{d \sin \theta}{3\theta}$$

$$A = \frac{\theta d^2}{4},$$

$$I_x = \frac{d^4 (2\theta - \sin 2\theta)}{128}, \quad I_y = \frac{d^4 (2\theta + |\sin 2\theta|)}{128}$$

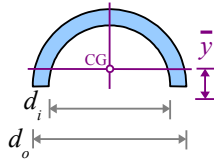
$$J = \frac{\theta d^4}{32}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \sqrt{\frac{d^2 (2\theta - \sin 2\theta)}{32\theta}}$$

$$r_{Gy} = \sqrt{\frac{d^2 (2\theta + \sin 2\theta)}{32\theta}}$$

Appendix C: Properties of Areas

Half pipe



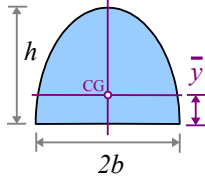
$$\bar{y} = \frac{2(d_o^3 - d_i^3)}{3\pi(d_o^2 - d_i^2)}$$

$$I_x = \frac{d_o^4 - d_i^4}{145.7} - \frac{d_o^2 d_i^2 (d_o - d_i)}{56.5(d_o + d_i)}$$

$$A = \frac{\pi}{8}(d_o^2 - d_i^2)$$

$$I_y = \frac{\pi(d_o^4 - d_i^4)}{128}$$

2nd degree parabola



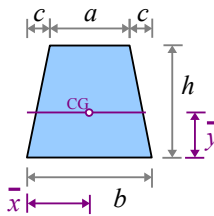
$$\bar{y} = \frac{2h}{5}$$

$$I_x = \frac{16bh^3}{175}, \quad I_y = \frac{4hb^3}{15}$$

$$A = \frac{4bh}{3}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{12}{175}}\right)h, \quad r_{Gy} = \frac{b}{\sqrt{5}}$$

Isosceles trapezoid, parallel top and bottom edges, sides have equal slopes



$$\bar{x} = \frac{b}{2}$$

$$I_x = \frac{h^3}{36} \left(\frac{a^2 + 4ab + b^2}{a+b} \right)$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{h}{3} \left(\frac{2a+b}{a+b} \right)$$

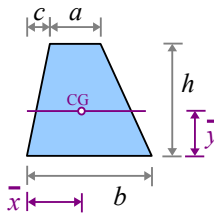
$$I_y = \frac{h}{48} (a+b)(a^2 + b^2)$$

$$A = h \left(\frac{a+b}{2} \right)$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{h\sqrt{2(a^2 + 4ab + b^2)}}{6(a+b)}$$

$$r_{Gy} = \sqrt{\frac{a^2 + b^2}{24}}$$

Trapezoid, parallel top and bottom edges



$$\bar{y} = \frac{h}{3} \left(\frac{2a+b}{a+b} \right)$$

$$I_x = \frac{h^3}{36} \left(\frac{a^2 + 4ab + b^2}{a+b} \right)$$

$$A = h \left(\frac{a+b}{2} \right)$$

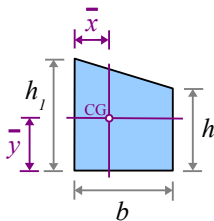
$$I_y = \frac{hX}{36(a+b)} \quad \text{where}$$

$$X = a^4 + b^4 + 2a^3b + 2ab^3 + a^2c^2 + a^3c + b^2c^2 - cb^3 + 4abc^2 + 3a^2bc - 3ab^2c$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{h\sqrt{2(a^2 + 4ab + b^2)}}{6(a+b)}$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{a^2 + b^2 + ab + 2ac + bc}{3(a+b)}$$

Trapezoid, parallel left and right edges and right angles at the base



$$\bar{x} = \frac{b}{3} \left(\frac{h_1 + 2h_2}{h_1 + h_2} \right)$$

$$I_x = \frac{b}{36(h_1 + h_2)} [h_1^4 + h_2^4 + 2h_1h_2(h_1^2 + h_2^2)]$$

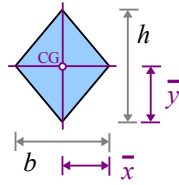
$$\bar{y} = \frac{h_1^2 + h_1h_2 + h_2^2}{3(h_1 + h_2)}$$

$$I_y = \frac{b^3}{36} \left(\frac{h_1^2 + 4h_1h_2 + h_2^2}{h_1 + h_2} \right)$$

$$A = b \left(\frac{h_1 + h_2}{2} \right)$$

Appendix C: Properties of Areas

Diamond



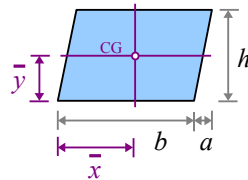
$$A = \frac{bh}{2}$$

$$I_x = \frac{bh^3}{48}, \quad I_y = \frac{hb^3}{48}$$

$$J = \frac{bh(h^2 + b^2)}{48}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{24}}, \quad r_{Gy} = \frac{b}{\sqrt{24}}$$

Parallelogram



$$\bar{x} = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

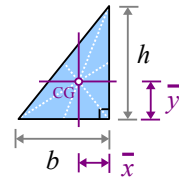
$$I_x = \frac{bh^3}{12}, \quad I_y = \frac{bh(a^2 + b^2)}{12}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{h}{2}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{12}}, \quad r_{Gy} = \sqrt{\frac{a^2 + b^2}{12}}$$

$$A = bh$$

Right triangle



$$\bar{x} = \frac{b}{3}$$

$$I_x = \frac{bh^3}{36}, \quad I_y = \frac{hb^3}{36}$$

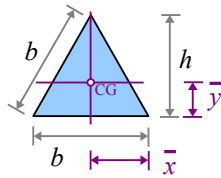
$$\bar{y} = \frac{h}{3}$$

$$J = \frac{bh^3 + hb^3}{36}$$

$$A = \frac{bh}{2}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{18}}, \quad r_{Gy} = \frac{b}{\sqrt{18}}$$

Equilateral triangle



$$\bar{x} = \frac{b}{2}$$

$$I_x = I_y = \frac{bh^3}{36} = \frac{hb^3}{48} = \frac{b^4 \sqrt{3}}{96} = \frac{h^4 \sqrt{3}}{54}$$

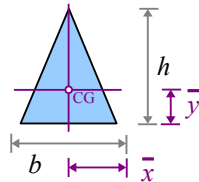
$$\bar{y} = \frac{h}{3}$$

$$J = \frac{4bh^3 + 3hb^3}{144} = \frac{b^4 \sqrt{3}}{48} = \frac{h^4 \sqrt{3}}{27}$$

$$A = \frac{bh}{2}, \quad h = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}b$$

$$r_{Gx} = r_{Gy} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{18}} = \frac{b}{\sqrt{24}}$$

Isosceles triangle



$$\bar{x} = \frac{b}{2}$$

$$I_x = \frac{bh^3}{36}, \quad I_y = \frac{hb^3}{48}$$

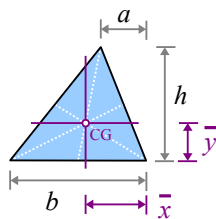
$$\bar{y} = \frac{h}{3}$$

$$J = \frac{4bh^3 + 3hb^3}{144}$$

$$A = \frac{bh}{2}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{18}}, \quad r_{Gy} = \frac{b}{\sqrt{24}}$$

General triangle



$$\bar{x} = \frac{a+b}{3}$$

$$I_x = \frac{bh^3}{36}, \quad I_y = \frac{bh(b^2 - ab + a^2)}{36}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{h}{3}$$

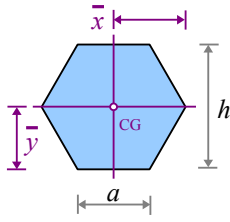
$$J = \frac{bh(h^2 + b^2 - ab + a^2)}{36}$$

$$A = \frac{bh}{2}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{18}}, \quad r_{Gy} = \sqrt{\frac{a^2 - ab + b^2}{18}}$$

Appendix C: Properties of Areas

Regular hexagon



$$\bar{x} = a = \frac{h}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} a = \frac{h}{2}$$

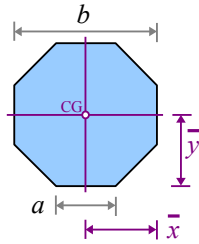
$$A = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2} a^2$$

$$I_x = I_y = \frac{5\sqrt{3}}{16} a^4 = \frac{5\sqrt{3}}{144} h^4$$

$$J = \frac{5\sqrt{3}}{8} a^4 = \frac{5\sqrt{3}}{72} h^4$$

$$r_{Gx} = r_{Gy} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{5}{24}} \right) a = \left(\sqrt{\frac{5}{72}} \right) h$$

Regular octagon



$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x} &= \bar{y} \\ &= a \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{2}}{2} \right) = \frac{b}{2} \end{aligned}$$

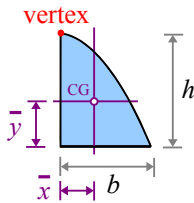
$$A = 2a^2(1+\sqrt{2})$$

$$I_x = I_y = \frac{a^4(11+8\sqrt{2})}{12} = \frac{b^4(11+8\sqrt{2})}{12(1+\sqrt{2})^4}$$

$$J = \frac{a^4(11+8\sqrt{2})}{6} = \frac{b^4(11+8\sqrt{2})}{6(1+\sqrt{2})^4}$$

$$r_{Gx} = r_{Gy} = \frac{a}{2} \sqrt{\frac{11+8\sqrt{2}}{3(1+\sqrt{2})}} = \frac{b}{2} \sqrt{\frac{11+8\sqrt{2}}{3(1+\sqrt{2})^3}}$$

2nd degree half parabola, vertex at the top



$$\bar{x} = \frac{3}{8} b$$

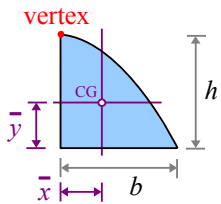
$$\bar{y} = \frac{2}{5} h$$

$$A = \frac{2}{3} b h$$

$$I_x = \frac{8bh^3}{175}, \quad I_y = \frac{19hb^3}{480}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{12}{175}} \right) h, \quad r_{Gy} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{19}{320}} \right) b$$

nth degree half parabola, vertex at the top

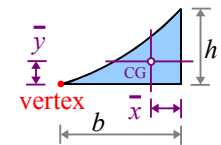


$$\bar{x} = \frac{b(n+1)}{2(n+2)}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{hn}{2n+1}$$

$$A = \frac{nbh}{n+1}$$

2nd degree half parabola, vertex at the left



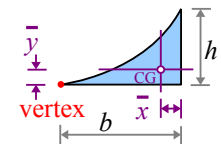
$$\bar{x} = \frac{b}{4}, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{3}{10} h$$

$$A = \frac{1}{3} b h$$

$$I_x = \frac{37bh^3}{2100}, \quad I_y = \frac{hb^3}{80}$$

$$r_{Gx} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{37}{700}} \right) h, \quad r_{Gy} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{3}{80}} \right) b$$

nth degree half parabola, vertex at the left



$$\bar{x} = \frac{b}{n+2}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{h(n+1)}{4n+2}$$

$$A = \frac{bh}{n+1}$$

$$I_x = \left[\frac{1}{3(3n+1)} - \frac{n+1}{(4n+2)^2} \right] b h^3$$

$$I_y = \left[\frac{1}{n+3} - \frac{n+1}{(n+2)^2} \right] h b^3$$

Appendix D: Properties of Steel Beams and Pipes

W-beams

Steel is hot-rolled to manufacture beams in shapes that look like the letters I or L . In this diagram, the flanges are the top and bottom horizontal portions of the beam; the web is the vertical portion. I -shaped steel beams with wide flanges are called W-beams.

The tables below list geometric properties of hot-rolled steel beams.

U.S. Customary W-beams are designated by the nominal depth and the weight per unit length: a W18×40 beam has a depth of about 18 inches and a weight per unit length of 40 lb./ft.

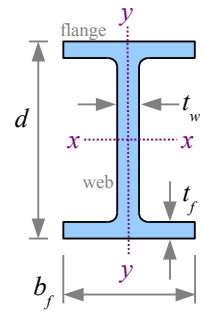


Table D1: U.S. Customary W-Beams

Beam	Area	Depth	Flange width	Flange thickness	Web thickness	Properties with respect to the x-x neutral axis (moment of inertia, section modulus, radius of gyration, and plastic section modulus)				Properties with respect to the y-y neutral axis		
w	A	d	b _f	t _f	t _w	I _x	S _x	r _{Gx}	Z _x	I _y	S _y	r _{Gy}
(in.)×(lb./ft.)	(in. ²)	(in.)	(in.)	(in.)	(in.)	(in. ⁴)	(in. ³)	(in.)	(in. ³)	(in. ⁴)	(in. ³)	(in.)
W44×335	98.5	44.0	15.9	1.77	1.03	31100	1410	17.8	1620	1200	150	3.49
W44×290	85.4	43.6	15.8	1.58	0.865	27000	1240	17.8	1410	1040	132	3.49
W44×262	77.2	43.3	15.8	1.42	0.785	24100	1110	17.7	1270	923	117	3.47
W44×230	67.8	42.9	15.8	1.22	0.710	20800	971	17.5	1100	796	101	3.43
W40×397	117	41.0	16.1	2.20	1.22	32000	1560	16.6	1800	1540	191	3.64
W40×297	87.3	39.8	15.8	1.65	0.930	23200	1170	16.3	1330	1090	138	3.54
W40×199	58.8	38.7	15.8	1.07	0.650	14900	770	16.0	869	695	88.2	3.45
W40×149	43.8	38.2	11.8	0.830	0.630	9800	513	15.0	598	229	38.8	2.29
W36×395	116	38.4	16.8	2.20	1.22	28500	1490	15.7	1710	1750	208	3.88
W36×302	89.0	37.3	16.7	1.68	0.945	21100	1130	15.4	1280	1300	156	3.82
W36×194	57.0	36.5	12.1	1.26	0.765	12100	664	14.6	767	375	61.9	2.56
W36×150	44.3	35.9	12.0	0.940	0.625	9040	504	14.3	581	270	45.1	2.47
W36×135	39.9	35.6	12.0	0.790	0.600	7800	439	14.0	509	225	37.7	2.38
W33×387	114	36.0	16.2	2.28	1.26	24300	1350	14.6	1560	1620	200	3.77
W33×201	59.1	33.7	15.7	1.15	0.715	11600	686	14.0	773	749	95.2	3.56
W33×130	38.3	33.1	11.5	0.855	0.580	6710	406	13.2	467	218	37.9	2.39
W33×118	34.7	32.9	11.5	0.740	0.550	5900	359	13.0	415	187	32.6	2.32
W30×391	115	33.2	15.6	2.44	1.36	20700	1250	13.4	1450	1550	198	3.67
W30×292	86.0	32.0	15.3	1.85	1.02	14900	930	13.2	1060	1100	144	3.58
W30×211	62.3	30.9	15.1	1.32	0.775	10300	665	12.9	751	757	100	3.49
W30×148	43.6	30.7	10.5	1.18	0.650	6680	436	12.4	500	227	43.3	2.28
W30×90	26.3	29.5	10.4	0.610	0.470	3610	245	11.7	283	115	22.1	2.09
W27×368	109	30.4	14.7	2.48	1.38	16200	1060	12.2	1240	1310	179	3.48
W27×281	83.1	29.3	14.4	1.93	1.06	11900	814	12.0	936	953	133	3.39
W27×194	57.1	28.1	14.0	1.34	0.750	7860	559	11.7	631	619	88.1	3.29
W27×146	43.2	27.4	14.0	0.975	0.605	5660	414	11.5	464	443	63.5	3.20
W27×114	33.6	27.3	10.1	0.930	0.570	4080	299	11.0	343	159	31.5	2.18
W27×84	24.7	26.7	10.0	0.640	0.460	2850	213	10.7	244	106	21.2	2.07
W24×370	109	28.0	13.7	2.72	1.52	13400	957	11.1	1130	1160	170	3.27
W24×279	81.9	26.7	13.3	2.09	1.16	9600	718	10.8	835	823	124	3.17
W24×192	56.5	25.5	13.0	1.46	0.810	6260	491	10.5	559	530	81.8	3.07
W24×104	30.7	24.1	12.8	0.750	0.500	3100	258	10.1	289	259	40.7	2.91
W24×76	22.4	23.9	8.99	0.680	0.440	2100	176	9.69	200	82.5	18.4	1.92
W24×55	16.2	23.6	7.01	0.505	0.395	1350	114	9.11	134	29.1	8.30	1.34
W21×201	59.3	23.0	12.6	1.63	0.910	5310	461	9.47	530	542	86.1	3.02
W21×166	48.8	22.5	12.4	1.36	0.750	4280	380	9.36	432	435	70.0	2.99
W21×147	43.2	22.1	12.5	1.15	0.720	3630	329	9.17	373	376	60.1	2.95
W21×83	24.4	21.4	8.36	0.835	0.515	1830	171	8.67	196	81.4	19.5	1.83
W21×62	18.3	21.0	8.24	0.615	0.400	1330	127	8.54	144	57.5	14.0	1.77
W21×50	14.7	20.8	6.53	0.535	0.380	984	94.5	8.18	110	24.9	7.64	1.30

Appendix D: Properties of Steel Beams and Pipes

Table D1: U.S. Customary W-Beams (continued)

Beam	Area	Depth	Flange width	Flange thickness	Web thickness	Properties with respect to the x-x neutral axis (moment of inertia, section modulus, radius of gyration, and plastic section modulus)				Properties with respect to the y-y neutral axis		
w	A	d	b _f	t _f	t _w	I _x	S _x	r _{Gx}	Z _x	I _y	S _y	r _{Gy}
(in.)×(lb./ft.)	(in. ²)	(in.)	(in.)	(in.)	(in.)	(in. ⁴)	(in. ³)	(in.)	(in. ³)	(in. ⁴)	(in. ³)	(in.)
W18×311	91.6	22.3	12.0	2.74	1.52	6970	624	8.72	754	795	132	2.95
W18×211	62.3	20.7	11.6	1.91	1.06	4330	419	8.35	490	493	85.3	2.82
W18×130	38.3	19.3	11.2	1.20	0.670	2460	256	8.03	290	278	49.9	2.70
W18×86	25.3	18.4	11.1	0.770	0.480	1530	166	7.77	186	175	31.6	2.63
W18×60	17.6	18.2	7.56	0.695	0.415	984	108	7.47	123	50.1	13.3	1.68
W18×35	10.3	17.7	6.00	0.425	0.300	510	57.6	7.04	66.5	15.3	5.12	1.22
W16×100	29.4	17.0	10.4	0.985	0.585	1490	175	7.10	198	186	35.7	2.51
W16×67	19.6	16.3	10.2	0.665	0.395	954	117	6.96	130	119	23.2	2.46
W16×40	11.8	16.0	7.00	0.505	0.305	518	64.7	6.63	73.0	28.9	8.25	1.57
W16×31	9.13	15.9	5.53	0.440	0.275	375	47.2	6.41	54.0	12.4	4.49	1.17
W16×26	7.68	15.7	5.50	0.345	0.250	301	38.4	6.26	44.2	9.59	3.49	1.12
W14×159	46.7	15.0	15.6	1.19	0.745	1900	254	6.38	287	748	96.2	4.00
W14×99	29.1	14.2	14.6	0.780	0.485	1110	157	6.17	173	402	55.2	3.71
W14×82	24.0	14.3	10.1	0.855	0.510	881	123	6.05	139	148	29.3	2.48
W14×38	11.2	14.1	6.77	0.515	0.310	385	54.6	5.87	61.5	26.7	7.88	1.55
W14×22	6.49	13.7	5.00	0.335	0.230	199	29.0	5.54	33.2	7.00	2.80	1.04
W12×152	44.7	13.7	12.5	1.40	0.870	1430	209	5.66	243	454	72.8	3.19
W12×106	31.2	12.9	12.2	0.990	0.610	933	145	5.47	164	301	49.3	3.11
W12×72	21.1	12.3	12.0	0.670	0.430	597	97.4	5.31	108	195	32.4	3.04
W12×50	14.6	12.2	8.08	0.640	0.370	391	64.2	5.18	71.9	56.3	13.9	1.96
W12×40	11.7	11.9	8.01	0.515	0.295	307	51.5	5.13	57.0	44.1	11.0	1.94
W12×30	8.79	12.3	6.52	0.440	0.260	238	38.6	5.21	43.1	20.3	6.24	1.52
W12×19	5.57	12.2	4.01	0.350	0.235	130	21.3	4.82	24.7	3.76	1.88	0.822
W12×14	4.16	11.9	3.97	0.225	0.200	88.6	14.9	4.62	17.4	2.36	1.19	0.753
W10×100	29.3	11.1	10.3	1.12	0.680	623	112	4.60	130	207	40.0	2.65
W10×60	17.7	10.2	10.1	0.680	0.420	341	66.7	4.39	74.6	116	23.0	2.57
W10×49	14.4	10.0	10.0	0.560	0.340	272	54.6	4.35	60.4	93.4	18.7	2.54
W10×39	11.5	9.92	7.99	0.530	0.315	209	42.1	4.27	46.8	45.0	11.3	1.98
W10×30	8.84	10.5	5.81	0.510	0.300	170	32.4	4.38	36.6	16.7	5.75	1.37
W10×19	5.62	10.2	4.02	0.395	0.250	96.3	18.8	4.14	21.6	4.29	2.14	0.874
W10×12	3.54	9.87	3.96	0.210	0.190	53.8	10.9	3.90	12.6	2.18	1.10	0.785
W8×67	19.7	9.00	8.28	0.935	0.570	272	60.4	3.72	70.1	88.6	21.4	2.12
W8×40	11.7	8.25	8.07	0.560	0.360	146	35.5	3.53	39.8	49.1	12.2	2.04
W8×31	9.13	8.00	8.00	0.435	0.285	110	27.5	3.47	30.4	37.1	9.27	2.02
W8×24	7.08	7.93	6.50	0.400	0.245	82.7	20.9	3.42	23.1	18.3	5.63	1.61
W8×10	2.96	7.89	3.94	0.205	0.170	30.8	7.81	3.22	8.87	2.09	1.06	0.841
W6×25	7.34	6.38	6.08	0.455	0.320	53.4	16.7	2.70	18.9	17.1	5.61	1.52
W6×15	4.43	5.99	5.99	0.260	0.230	29.1	9.72	2.56	10.8	9.32	3.11	1.45
W6×9	2.68	5.90	3.94	0.215	0.170	16.4	5.56	2.47	6.23	2.20	1.11	0.905
W4×13	3.83	4.16	4.06	0.345	0.280	11.3	5.46	1.72	6.28	3.86	1.90	1.00

Appendix D: Properties of Steel Beams and Pipes

W-beams in SI units are designated by the nominal depth and the *mass* per unit length. See the first part of Chapter 8 for the method to calculate *w*, the *weight* per unit length.

Table D2: SI W-Beams

Beam	Area	Depth	Flange width	Flange thickness	Web thickness	Properties with respect to the x-x neutral axis (moment of inertia, section modulus, radius of gyration, and plastic section modulus)				Properties with respect to the y-y neutral axis		
(mm)×(kg/m)	A (mm ²)	d (mm)	b_f (mm)	t_f (mm)	t_w (mm)	I_x (10 ⁶ mm ⁴)	S_x (10 ³ mm ³)	r_{Gx} (mm)	Z_x (10 ³ mm ³)	I_y (10 ⁶ mm ⁴)	S_y (10 ³ mm ³)	r_{Gy} (mm)
W1100×499	63500	1120	404	45.0	26.2	12900	23100	452	26500	499	2460	88.6
W1100×433	55100	1110	401	40.1	22.0	11200	20300	452	23100	433	2160	88.6
W1100×390	49800	1100	401	36.1	19.9	10000	18200	450	20800	384	1920	88.1
W1100×343	43700	1090	401	31.0	18.0	8660	15900	445	18000	331	1660	87.1
W1000×591	75500	1040	409	55.9	31.0	13300	25600	422	29500	641	3130	92.5
W1000×443	56300	1010	401	41.9	23.6	9660	19200	414	21800	454	2260	89.9
W1000×296	37900	983	401	27.2	16.5	6200	12600	406	14200	289	1450	87.6
W1000×222	28300	970	300	21.1	16.0	4080	8410	381	9800	95.3	636	58.2
W920×588	74800	975	427	55.9	31.0	11900	24400	399	28000	728	3410	98.6
W920×449	57400	947	424	42.7	24.0	8780	18500	391	21000	541	2560	97.0
W920×289	36800	927	307	32.0	19.4	5040	10900	371	12600	156	1010	65.0
W920×223	28600	912	305	23.9	15.9	3760	8260	363	9520	112	739	62.7
W920×201	25700	904	305	20.1	15.2	3250	7190	356	8340	93.7	618	60.5
W840×576	73500	914	411	57.9	32.0	10100	22100	371	25600	674	3280	95.8
W840×299	38100	856	399	29.2	18.2	4830	11200	356	12700	312	1560	90.4
W840×193	24700	841	292	21.7	14.7	2790	6650	335	7650	90.7	621	60.7
W840×176	22400	836	292	18.8	14.0	2460	5880	330	6800	77.8	534	58.9
W760×582	74200	843	396	62.0	34.5	8620	20500	340	23800	645	3240	93.2
W760×434	55500	813	389	47.0	25.9	6200	15200	335	17400	458	2360	90.9
W760×314	40200	785	384	33.5	19.7	4290	10900	328	12300	315	1640	88.6
W760×220	28100	780	267	30.0	16.5	2780	7140	315	8190	94.5	710	57.9
W760×134	17000	749	264	15.5	11.9	1500	4010	297	4640	47.9	362	53.1
W690×548	70300	772	373	63.0	35.1	6740	17400	310	20300	545	2930	88.4
W690×419	53600	744	366	49.0	26.9	4950	13300	305	15300	397	2180	86.1
W690×289	36800	714	356	34.0	19.1	3270	9160	297	10300	258	1440	83.6
W690×217	27900	696	356	24.8	15.4	2360	6780	292	7600	184	1040	81.3
W690×170	21700	693	257	23.6	14.5	1700	4900	279	5620	66.2	516	55.4
W690×125	15900	678	254	16.3	11.7	1190	3490	272	4000	44.1	347	52.6
W610×551	70300	711	348	69.1	38.6	5580	15700	282	18500	483	2790	83.1
W610×415	52800	678	338	53.1	29.5	4000	11800	274	13700	343	2030	80.5
W610×285	36500	648	330	37.1	20.6	2610	8050	267	9160	221	1340	78.0
W610×155	19800	612	325	19.1	12.7	1290	4230	257	4740	108	667	73.9
W610×113	14500	607	228	17.3	11.2	874	2880	246	3280	34.3	302	48.8
W610×82	10500	599	178	12.8	10.0	562	1870	231	2200	12.1	136	34.0
W530×300	38300	584	320	41.4	23.1	2210	7550	241	8690	226	1410	76.7
W530×248	31500	572	315	34.5	19.1	1780	6230	238	7080	181	1150	75.9
W530×219	27900	561	318	29.2	18.3	1510	5390	233	6110	157	985	74.9
W530×123	15700	544	212	21.2	13.1	762	2800	220	3210	33.9	320	46.5
W530×92	11800	533	209	15.6	10.2	554	2080	217	2360	23.9	229	45.0
W530×74	9480	528	166	13.6	9.65	410	1550	208	1800	10.4	125	33.0

Appendix D: Properties of Steel Beams and Pipes

Table D2: SI W-Beams (continued)

Beam	Area	Depth	Flange width	Flange thickness	Web thickness	Properties with respect to the x-x neutral axis (moment of inertia, section modulus, radius of gyration, and plastic section modulus)				Properties with respect to the y-y neutral axis		
	A	d	b_f	t_f	t_w	I_x	S_x	r_{Gx}	Z_x	I_y	S_y	r_{Gy}
(mm)×(kg/m)	(mm ²)	(mm)	(mm)	(mm)	(mm)	(10 ⁶ mm ⁴)	(10 ³ mm ³)	(mm)	(10 ³ mm ³)	(10 ⁶ mm ⁴)	(10 ³ mm ³)	(mm)
W460×464	59100	566	305	69.6	38.6	2900	10200	221	12400	331	2160	74.9
W460×315	40200	526	295	48.5	26.9	1800	6870	212	8030	205	1400	71.6
W460×193	24700	490	284	30.5	17.0	1020	4200	204	4750	116	818	68.6
W460×128	16300	467	282	19.6	12.2	637	2720	197	3050	72.8	518	66.8
W460×89	11400	462	192	17.7	10.5	410	1770	190	2020	20.9	218	42.7
W460×52	6650	450	152	10.8	7.62	212	944	179	1090	6.37	83.9	31.0
W410×149	19000	432	264	25.0	14.9	620	2870	180	3240	77.4	585	63.8
W410×100	12600	414	259	16.9	10.0	397	1920	177	2130	49.5	380	62.5
W410×60	7610	406	178	12.8	7.75	216	1060	168	1200	12.0	135	39.9
W410×46.1	5890	404	140	11.2	6.99	156	773	163	885	5.16	73.6	29.7
W410×38.8	4950	399	140	8.76	6.35	125	629	159	724	3.99	57.2	28.4
W360×237	30100	381	396	30.2	18.9	791	4160	162	4700	311	1580	102
W360×147	18800	361	371	19.8	12.3	462	2570	157	2830	167	905	94.2
W360×122	15500	363	257	21.7	13.0	367	2020	154	2280	61.6	480	63.0
W360×57.8	7230	358	172	13.1	7.87	160	895	149	1010	11.1	129	39.4
W360×32.9	4190	348	127	8.51	5.84	82.8	475	141	544	2.91	45.9	26.4
W310×226	28800	348	318	35.6	22.1	595	3420	144	3980	189	1190	81.0
W310×158	20100	328	310	25.1	15.5	388	2380	139	2690	125	808	79.0
W310×107	13600	312	305	17.0	10.9	248	1600	135	1770	81.2	531	77.2
W310×74	9420	310	205	16.3	9.40	163	1050	132	1180	23.4	228	49.8
W310×60	7550	302	203	13.1	7.49	128	844	130	934	18.4	180	49.3
W310×44.5	5670	312	166	11.2	6.60	99.1	633	132	706	8.45	102	38.6
W310×28.3	3590	310	102	8.89	5.97	54.1	349	122	405	1.57	30.8	20.9
W310×21	2680	302	101	5.72	5.08	36.9	244	117	285	0.982	19.5	19.1
W250×149	18900	282	262	28.4	17.3	259	1840	117	2130	86.2	655	67.3
W250×89	11400	259	257	17.3	10.7	142	1090	112	1220	48.3	377	65.3
W250×73	9290	254	254	14.2	8.64	113	895	110	990	38.9	306	64.5
W250×58	7420	252	203	13.5	8.00	87.0	690	108	767	18.7	185	50.3
W250×44.8	5700	267	148	13.0	7.62	70.8	531	111	600	6.95	94.2	34.8
W250×28.4	3630	259	102	10.0	6.35	40.1	308	105	354	1.79	35.1	22.2
W250×17.9	2280	251	101	5.33	4.83	22.4	179	99.1	206	0.907	18.0	19.9
W200×100	12700	229	210	23.7	14.5	113	990	94.5	1150	36.9	351	53.8
W200×59	7550	210	205	14.2	9.14	60.8	582	89.7	652	20.4	200	51.8
W200×46.1	5890	203	203	11.0	7.24	45.8	451	88.1	498	15.4	152	51.3
W200×35.9	4570	201	165	10.2	6.22	34.4	342	86.9	379	7.62	92.3	40.9
W200×15	1910	200	100	5.21	4.32	12.8	128	81.8	145	0.870	17.4	21.4
W150×37.1	4740	162	154	11.6	8.13	22.2	274	68.6	310	7.12	91.9	38.6
W150×22.5	2860	152	152	6.60	5.84	12.1	159	65.0	177	3.88	51.0	36.8
W150×13.5	1730	150	100	5.46	4.32	6.83	91.1	62.7	102	0.916	18.2	23.0
W100×19.3	2470	106	103	8.76	7.11	4.70	89.5	43.7	103	1.61	31.1	25.4

Appendix D: Properties of Steel Beams and Pipes

Steel Pipes

In the 1920s, iron and steel pipes were available in three thickness grades: Standard Weight, Extra Strong (XS), and Double Extra Strong (XXS). Subsequently, the “schedule” designation system was developed to cover other pipe wall thicknesses. Schedule 40 is the same as Standard Weight; Schedule 80 is the same as Extra Strong. Pipes are available from Schedule 5 to Schedule 160. Regardless of the Schedule, the OD is identical between nominal sizes, so pipes of different Schedules can thread into the same fittings. The heavier Schedules have thicker walls, therefore smaller IDs.

Table D3: US Customary Steel Pipes

	Nominal diameter	Inside diameter	Outside diameter	Wall thickness	Area	Moment of inertia	Section modulus	Radius of gyration	Polar moment of inertia	Weight per unit length
	(in.)	d_i (in.)	d_o (in.)	t (in.)	A (in. ²)	I (in. ⁴)	S (in. ³)	r_G (in.)	J (in. ⁴)	w (lb./ft.)
Schedule 40 pipes (Standard Weight)	1	1.049	1.315	0.133	0.494	0.0873	0.133	0.421	0.175	1.68
	2	2.067	2.375	0.154	1.07	0.666	0.561	0.787	1.33	3.66
	3	3.068	3.500	0.216	2.23	3.02	1.72	1.16	6.03	7.58
	4	4.026	4.500	0.237	3.17	7.23	3.21	1.51	14.5	10.8
	5	5.047	5.563	0.258	4.30	15.2	5.45	1.88	30.3	14.6
	6	6.065	6.625	0.280	5.58	28.1	8.50	2.25	56.3	19.0
	8	7.981	8.625	0.322	8.40	72.5	16.8	2.94	145	28.6
Schedule 80 pipes (Extra-Strong)	1	0.957	1.315	0.179	0.639	0.106	0.161	0.407	0.211	2.18
	2	1.939	2.375	0.218	1.48	0.868	0.731	0.766	1.74	5.03
	3	2.900	3.500	0.300	3.02	3.89	2.23	1.14	7.79	10.3
	4	3.826	4.500	0.337	4.41	9.61	4.27	1.48	19.2	15.0
	5	4.813	5.563	0.375	6.11	20.7	7.43	1.84	41.3	20.8
	6	5.761	6.625	0.432	8.40	40.5	12.2	2.19	81.0	28.6
	8	7.625	8.625	0.500	12.8	106	24.5	2.88	211	43.5

Table D4: SI Steel Pipes

	Nominal diameter	Inside diameter	Outside diameter	Wall thickness	Area	Moment of inertia	Section modulus	Radius of gyration	Polar moment of inertia	Mass per unit length
	(mm)	d_i (mm)	d_o (mm)	t (mm)	A (mm ²)	I (10 ⁶ mm ⁴)	S (10 ³ mm ³)	r_G (mm)	J (10 ⁶ mm ⁴)	(kg/m)
Schedule 40 pipes (Standard Weight)	25	26.7	33.5	3.40	322	0.0369	2.20	10.7	0.0738	2.52
	51	52.5	60.5	4.00	710	0.285	9.41	20.0	0.569	5.57
	76	78.0	88.9	5.45	1429	1.25	28.1	29.6	2.50	11.2
	102	102	114	6.00	2036	2.98	52.2	38.2	5.96	16.0
	127	128	141	6.50	2747	6.23	88.3	47.6	12.5	21.6
	152	154	168	7.00	3541	11.5	137	57.0	23.0	27.8
	203	203	219	8.00	5303	29.6	270	74.7	59.1	41.6
Schedule 80 pipes (Extra-Strong)	25	24.3	33.5	4.60	418	0.0447	2.67	10.3	0.0894	3.28
	51	49.3	60.5	5.60	966	0.368	12.2	19.5	0.735	7.58
	76	73.7	88.9	7.60	1941	1.62	36.4	28.9	3.24	15.2
	102	97.3	114	8.35	2771	3.89	68.3	37.5	7.78	21.8
	127	122	141	9.50	3925	8.53	121	46.6	17.1	30.8
	152	146	168	11.0	5426	16.8	200	55.6	33.6	42.6
	203	194	219	12.5	8109	43.4	396	73.1	86.8	63.7

Additional data on steel beams and pipes are freely available online from AISC.

Copper Tubing

In the 1930s, thin-walled copper tubing was introduced throughout North America for domestic potable water and baseboard hot water heating. Three types are available in the U.S.:

Type K with the thickest wall, useable for underground applications.

Type L with an intermediate wall thickness, used in interior applications.

Type M with the thinnest wall, used in interior applications (in some areas, legal only for nonpressurized applications such as condensate drains).

Copper pipes are made with C10800 oxygen-free low-phosphorus copper. The nominal diameter is approximately equal to the inside diameter. The outside diameters are identical for all Types so they will fit the same elbows, valves, and other

fittings, and are 1/8 of an inch larger than the nominal diameters. Wall thickness $t = \frac{d_o - d_i}{2}$.

Table D5: U.S. Customary Copper Tubing

Nominal diameter	Type K Inside diameter	Type L Inside diameter	Type M Inside diameter	All Types Outside diameter
(in.)	d_i (in.)	d_i (in.)	d_i (in.)	d_o (in.)
$\frac{3}{8}$	0.402	0.430	0.450	0.500
$\frac{1}{2}$	0.528	0.545	0.569	0.625
$\frac{3}{4}$	0.652	0.668	0.690	0.750
$\frac{3}{4}$	0.745	0.785	0.811	0.875
1	0.995	1.025	1.055	1.125
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.245	1.265	1.291	1.375
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.481	1.505	1.527	1.625
2	1.959	1.985	2.009	2.125
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.435	2.465	2.495	2.625
3	2.907	2.945	2.981	3.125

Copper water tube sold in SI units comes in Types A, B, and C (similar to Types K, L, and M, above). Nominal diameter is the outside diameter.

Table D6: SI Copper Tubing

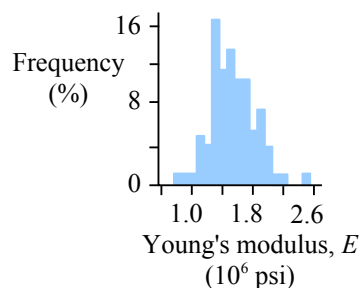
Nominal diameter	Type A Inside diameter	Type B Inside diameter	Type C Inside diameter	All Types Outside diameter
(mm)	d_i (mm)	d_i (mm)	d_i (mm)	d_o (mm)
10	8.2	8.4	8.8	10
12	9.6	10.2	10.8	12
15	12.6	13.0	13.6	15
18	15.6	16.0	16.6	18
22	18.8	19.8	20.4	22
28	24.8	25.6	26.2	28
35	31.8	32.2	32.8	35
42	38.4	39.0	39.6	42
54	49.8	50.6	51.0	54
67	62.2	63.0	63.8	67

More sizes are available; see ASTM Standards B 88 and B 89 for a complete list.

Appendix E: Mechanical and Dimensional Properties of Wood

Mechanical Properties of Air-Dried Boards and Timber

Wood is a natural material which varies in mechanical properties. Factors affecting strength and stiffness include defects (knots, insect and woodpecker holes), moisture content, service temperature, age of the tree at cutting, direction within the wood (along the grain, tangential, and radial), and geographic source of the tree. For example, this graph from the Forest Products Laboratory of the U.S. Department of Agriculture* shows variation in the same visual grade of lumber (same quality & equivalent species), cut from a wide geographical area.



The Allowable Stress Design method (ASD) sets the design stress at the bottom 5th percentile of wood within a stress grade. In theory, 5% of the wood used in any structure is weaker than the required strength...so use a Factor of Safety to prevent failure.

Table E1: U.S. Customary Materials Properties of Timber

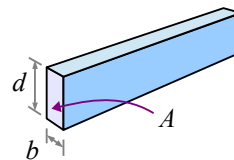
Tree species	Allowable Stresses				Specific weight γ (lb./ft. ³)	Young's modulus E (ksi)
	Bending	Horizontal shear	Tension parallel to grain	Compression parallel to grain		
	(psi)	(psi)	(psi)	(psi)		
Eastern white pine	600	135	275	725	22	1100
Southern yellow pine	1400	175	825	1250	34	1700
Hem-fir	1000	150	500	1300	25	1400
Douglas fir	900	180	625	1050	30	1700
Redwood	1000	160	600	1050	25	1300

Table E2: SI Materials Properties of Timber

Tree species	Allowable Stresses				Density ρ (kg/m ³)	Young's modulus E (GPa)
	Bending	Horizontal shear	Tension parallel to grain	Compression parallel to grain		
	(MPa)	(MPa)	(MPa)	(MPa)		
Eastern white pine	4.1	0.93	1.9	5.0	350	7.6
Southern yellow pine	9.7	1.2	5.7	8.6	550	11.7
Hem-fir	6.9	1.0	3.4	9.0	400	9.7
Douglas fir	6.2	1.2	4.3	7.2	480	11.7
Redwood	6.9	1.1	4.1	7.2	400	9.0

Additional data on timber are freely available online from the U.S. Forest Products Laboratory of the U.S. Department of Agriculture at <http://www.fpl.fs.fed.us>.

In the following two tables, the width b and depth d are defined for timber standing on edge (as a beam, not a plank), so $b < d$. Area A is the cross-sectional area of the timber.



If the specific weight of your wood species does not match one of the values in the header of Table E3 (20, 30, or 40 lb./ft.³) then use interpolation to find the weight per unit length – see the end of Chapter 10 for details. Similarly, use interpolation if the density of your wood species is not in the header of Table E4 (320, 480, or 640 kg/m³) to find the mass per unit length.

* General Technical Report FPL GTR 190, Chapter 7, p. 7-6.

Softwood Lumber and Timber Sizes

Softwood is “dressed” or planed from nominal size to the sizes listed below. These sizes are *S4S* (surfaced four sides). Weight per unit length depends on the density of the wood. Dried softwoods range in specific weight from 20 to 40 lb./ft.³ (320 to 640 kg/m³). If a 2×4 is made of wood with a specific weight of 30 lb./ft.³, its weight per unit length is 1.09 lb./ft.

Table E3: U.S. Customary Timber Sizes

Nominal size designation	Width	Depth	Cross-sectional area	Moment of inertia	Section modulus	Weight per unit length $\gamma = 20 \text{ lb./ft.}^3$	Weight per unit length $\gamma = 30 \text{ lb./ft.}^3$	Weight per unit length $\gamma = 40 \text{ lb./ft.}^3$
	b (in.)	d (in.)	A (in. ²)	I_x (in. ⁴)	S_x (in. ³)	w (lb./ft.)	w (lb./ft.)	w (lb./ft.)
2×2	1.5	1.5	2.25	0.422	0.563	0.313	0.469	0.625
2×3	1.5	2.5	3.75	1.95	1.56	0.521	0.781	1.04
2×4	1.5	3.5	5.25	5.36	3.06	0.729	1.09	1.46
2×6	1.5	5.5	8.25	20.8	7.56	1.15	1.72	2.29
2×8	1.5	7.25	10.9	47.6	13.1	1.51	2.27	3.02
2×10	1.5	9.25	13.9	98.9	21.4	1.93	2.89	3.85
2×12	1.5	11.25	16.9	178	31.6	2.34	3.52	4.69
4×4	3.5	3.5	12.3	12.5	7.1	1.70	2.55	3.40
4×6	3.5	5.5	19.3	48.5	17.6	2.67	4.01	5.35
4×8	3.5	7.25	25.4	111	30.7	3.52	5.29	7.05
4×10	3.5	9.25	32.4	231	49.9	4.50	6.74	8.99
4×12	3.5	11.25	39.4	415	73.8	5.47	8.20	10.9
4×14	3.5	13.25	46.4	678	102	6.44	9.66	12.9
4×16	3.5	15.25	53.4	1034	136	7.41	11.12	14.8
6×6	5.5	5.5	30.3	76.3	27.7	4.20	6.30	8.40
6×8	5.5	7.5	41.3	193	51.6	5.73	8.59	11.5
6×10	5.5	9.5	52.3	393	82.7	7.26	10.9	14.5
6×12	5.5	11.5	63.3	697	121	8.78	13.2	17.6
6×14	5.5	13.5	74.3	1130	167	10.3	15.5	20.6
6×16	5.5	15.5	85.3	1710	220	11.8	17.8	23.7
6×18	5.5	17.5	96.3	2460	281	13.4	20.1	26.7
6×20	5.5	19.5	107	3400	349	14.9	22.3	29.8
8×8	7.5	7.5	56.3	264	70.3	7.81	11.7	15.6
8×10	7.5	9.5	71.3	536	113	9.90	14.8	19.8
8×12	7.5	11.5	86.3	951	165	12.0	18.0	24.0
8×14	7.5	13.5	101	1540	228	14.1	21.1	28.1
8×16	7.5	15.5	116	2330	300	16.1	24.2	32.3
8×18	7.5	17.5	131	3350	383	18.2	27.3	36.5
8×20	7.5	19.5	146	4630	475	20.3	30.5	40.6
10×10	9.5	9.5	90.3	679	143	12.5	18.8	25.1
10×12	9.5	11.5	109	1200	209	15.2	22.8	30.3
10×14	9.5	13.5	128	1950	289	17.8	26.7	35.6
10×16	9.5	15.5	147	2950	380	20.5	30.7	40.9
10×18	9.5	17.5	166	4240	485	23.1	34.6	46.2
10×20	9.5	19.5	185	5870	602	25.7	38.6	51.5
10×22	9.5	21.5	204	7870	732	28.4	42.6	56.7
10×24	9.5	23.5	223	10300	874	31.0	46.5	62.0
12×12	11.5	11.5	132	1460	253	18.4	27.6	36.7
12×14	11.5	13.5	155	2360	349	21.6	32.3	43.1
12×16	11.5	15.5	178	3570	460	24.8	37.1	49.5
12×18	11.5	17.5	201	5140	587	28.0	41.9	55.9
12×20	11.5	19.5	224	7110	729	31.1	46.7	62.3
12×22	11.5	21.5	247	9520	886	34.3	51.5	68.7
12×24	11.5	23.5	270	12400	1060	37.5	56.3	75.1

Appendix E: Mechanical and Dimensional Properties of Wood

Timber beams in SI units are listed by their *mass* per unit length, not by their weight per unit length. A 200×360 timber beam made of wood with a density of 320 kg/m³ has a *mass* per unit length of 21 kg/m. Multiply by the mass per unit length

by gravity to obtain weight per unit length:

Table E4: SI Timber Sizes

Nominal size designation	Width	Depth	Cross-sectional area	Moment of inertia	Section modulus	Mass per unit length $\rho = 320 \text{ kg/m}^3$	Mass per unit length $\rho = 480 \text{ kg/m}^3$	Mass per unit length $\rho = 640 \text{ kg/m}^3$
	b (mm)	d (mm)	A (10 ³ mm ²)	I_x (10 ⁶ mm ⁴)	S_x (10 ³ mm ³)	m/L (kg/m)	m/L (kg/m)	m/L (kg/m)
50×100	38.1	88.9	3.39	2.23	50.2	1.09	1.63	2.17
50×150	38.1	140	5.33	8.71	124	1.71	2.56	3.42
50×200	38.1	184	7.01	19.8	215	2.25	3.37	4.49
50×250	38.1	235	8.95	41.2	351	2.87	4.30	5.74
50×300	38.1	286	10.9	74.3	519	3.49	5.24	6.98
50×360	38.1	337	12.8	122	721	4.12	6.17	8.23
50×410	38.1	387	14.7	184	951	4.73	7.09	9.45
100×100	88.9	88.9	7.90	5.21	117	2.53	3.80	5.07
100×150	88.9	140	12.4	20.3	290	3.99	5.98	7.98
100×200	88.9	184	16.4	46.2	502	5.24	7.86	10.5
100×250	88.9	235	20.9	96.1	818	6.70	10.0	13.4
100×300	88.9	286	25.4	173	1212	8.15	12.2	16.3
100×360	88.9	337	30.0	284	1683	9.60	14.4	19.2
100×410	88.9	388	34.5	433	2230	11.1	16.6	22.1
150×150	140	140	19.6	32.0	457	6.28	9.42	12.6
150×200	140	191	26.7	81.3	851	8.57	12.9	17.1
150×250	140	241	33.7	163	1360	10.8	16.2	21.6
150×300	140	292	40.9	290	1990	13.1	19.7	26.2
150×360	140	343	48.0	471	2750	15.4	23.1	30.8
150×410	140	394	55.2	714	3620	17.7	26.5	35.4
150×460	140	445	62.3	1030	4620	20.0	30.0	39.9
150×510	140	496	69.4	1420	5740	22.3	33.4	44.5
200×200	191	191	36.5	111	1160	11.7	17.5	23.4
200×250	191	241	46.0	223	1850	14.8	22.1	29.5
200×300	191	292	55.8	396	2710	17.9	26.8	35.7
200×360	191	343	65.5	642	3750	21.0	31.5	42.0
200×410	191	394	75.3	974	4940	24.1	36.2	48.2
200×460	191	445	85.0	1400	6300	27.2	40.9	54.5
200×510	191	496	94.7	1940	7830	30.4	45.5	60.7
250×250	241	241	58.1	281	2330	18.6	27.9	37.2
250×300	241	292	70.4	500	3420	22.6	33.8	45.1
250×360	241	343	82.7	810	4730	26.5	39.7	53.0
250×410	241	394	95.0	1230	6240	30.4	45.7	60.9
250×460	241	445	107	1770	7950	34.4	51.6	68.7
250×510	241	495	119	2440	9840	38.2	57.4	76.5
250×560	241	546	132	3270	12000	42.2	63.3	84.3
250×610	241	597	144	4270	14300	46.1	69.2	92.2
300×300	292	292	85	606	4150	27.3	41.0	54.7
300×360	292	343	100	982	5730	32.1	48.2	64.2
300×410	292	394	115	1490	7550	36.9	55.3	73.7
300×460	292	445	130	2140	9640	41.6	62.5	83.3
300×510	292	495	145	2950	11900	46.3	69.5	92.7
300×560	292	546	159	3960	14500	51.1	76.7	102
300×610	292	597	174	5180	17300	55.9	83.8	112

Appendix F: Beam Equations

Terminology Used in Beam Equations

R_A and R_B are the reaction forces at points A and B. M_B is the reaction moment at point B.

V_x , M_x and Δ_x are the shear load, bending moment, and deflection at a distance x from the left end of the beam.

M_a and Δ_a are the bending moment and deflection at a distance $x = a$ from the left end of the beam (typically the starting or ending point of a distributed load, or the location of a point load).

θ is the slope of the deflection curve in *radians*. Use the conversion factor $180^\circ = \pi \text{ rad}$ to convert results into degrees. θ_x is the slope at a distance x from the left end of the beam, θ_a is the slope at a distance $x = a$ from the left end of the beam, and θ_A and θ_B are the slopes at points A and B.

Every beam in this Appendix has a length L .

Point load at the midspan of a simply-supported beam

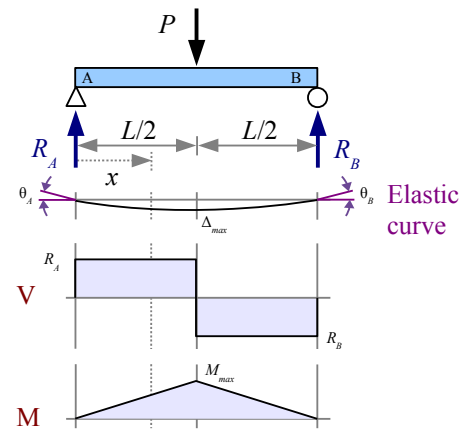
$$R_A = R_B = V_{\max} = \frac{P}{2}$$

$$M_{\max} = \frac{PL}{4} \text{ at the point load} \quad M_x = \frac{Px}{2} \text{ for } x < \frac{L}{2}$$

$$\Delta_{\max} = \frac{PL^3}{48EI} \text{ at the point load}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{Px(3L^2 - 4x^2)}{48EI} \text{ for } x \leq \frac{L}{2}$$

$$\theta_A = \theta_B = \frac{PL^2}{16EI}$$



Point load at any location on a simply-supported beam

$$R_A = \frac{Pb}{L}, \quad R_B = \frac{Pa}{L}, \quad V_{\max} \text{ is the greater of the two}$$

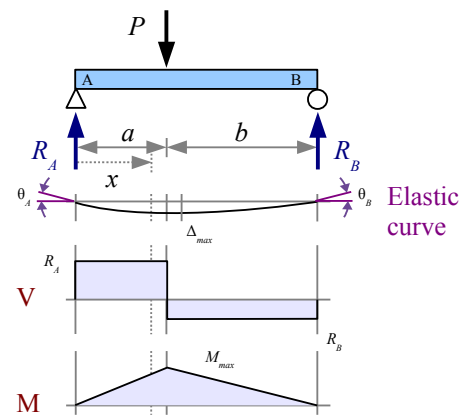
$$M_{\max} = \frac{Pab}{L} \text{ at the point load} \quad M_x = \frac{Pbx}{L} \text{ for } x < a$$

$$\Delta_{\max} = \frac{Pab(a+2b)\sqrt{3a(a+2b)}}{27EIL} \text{ at } x = \sqrt{\frac{a(a+2b)}{3}} \text{ when } a > b$$

$$\Delta_a = \frac{Pa^2b^2}{3EIL} \text{ at the point load}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{Pbx(L^2 - b^2 - x^2)}{6EIL} \text{ for } x < a$$

$$\theta_A = \frac{Pb(L^2 - b^2)}{6ELI} \quad \theta_B = \frac{Pa(L^2 - b^2)}{6ELI}$$



Two identical point loads, symmetrically placed on a simply-supported beam

$$R_A = R_B = V_{max} = P$$

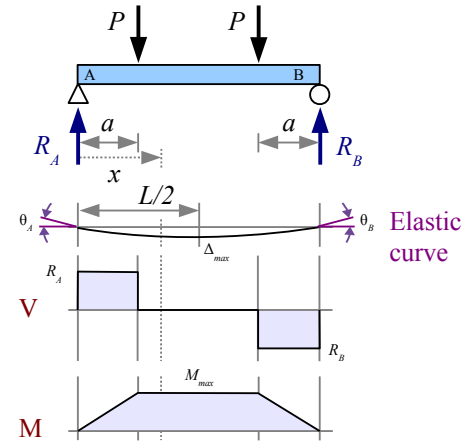
$$M_{max} = P a \text{ between point loads} \quad M_x = P x \text{ for } x < a$$

$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{P a (3 L^2 - 4 a^2)}{24 E I} \text{ at the midspan}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{P x (3 L a - 3 a^2 - x^2)}{6 E I} \text{ for } x \leq a$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{P a (3 L x - 3 x^2 - a^2)}{6 E I} \text{ between point loads}$$

$$\theta_A = \theta_B = \frac{P(a+b)(L^2 - b^2)}{6 E I}$$



Uniform distributed load along the entire length of a simply-supported beam

$$R_A = R_B = V_{max} = \frac{wL}{2}$$

$$V_x = w \left(\frac{L}{2} - x \right)$$

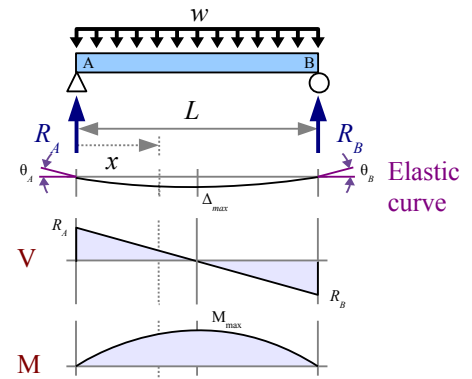
$$M_{max} = \frac{wL^2}{8} \text{ at the midspan}$$

$$M_x = \frac{wx(L-x)}{2}$$

$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{5wL^4}{384 E I} \text{ at the midspan}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{wx(L^3 - 2Lx^2 + x^3)}{24 E I}$$

$$\theta_A = \theta_B = \frac{wL^3}{24 E I}$$



Uniform distributed load on a simply-supported beam

$$R_A = V_{max} = \frac{wa(2L-a)}{2L}$$

$$R_B = \frac{wa^2}{2L}$$

$$V_x = R_A - wx \text{ for } x \leq a$$

$$V_x = -R_B \text{ for } x \geq a$$

$$M_{max} = \frac{R_A^2}{2w} \text{ at } x = \frac{R_A}{w}$$

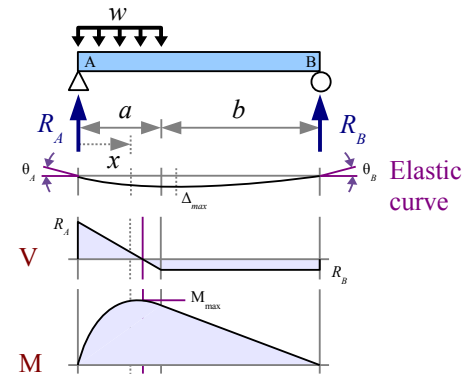
$$M_x = R_A x - \frac{wx^2}{2} \text{ for } x \leq a; \quad M_x = R_B(L-x) \text{ for } x \geq a$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{wx[a^2(b+L)^2 - 2ax^2(b+L) + Lx^3]}{24 E I L} \text{ for } x \leq a$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{wa^2(L-x)(4xL - 2x^2 - a^2)}{24 E I L} \text{ for } x \geq a$$

$$\theta_A = \frac{w(L^2 - b^2)^2}{24 E I L}$$

$$\theta_B = \frac{w(L-b)^2(L^2 - 2bL - b^2)}{24 E I L}$$



Uniform distributed load on a simply-supported beam

$$R_A = \frac{wb}{2L} \quad R_B = V_{max} = \frac{wb(2L-b)}{2L}$$

$$V_x = R_A - wx \text{ for } x \leq a \quad V_x = -R_B \text{ for } x \geq a$$

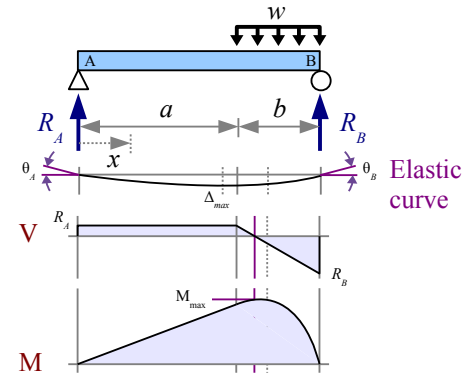
$$M_{max} = R_A \left(a + \frac{b^2}{4L} \right) \text{ at } x = a + \frac{b^2}{2L}$$

$$M_x = R_A x \text{ for } x \leq a \quad M_x = R_B(L-x) - \frac{w(L-x)^2}{2} \text{ for } x \geq a$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{wb^2x[4L(L-x) - 2(L-x)^2 - b^2]}{24EIL} \text{ for } x < a$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{w(L-x)[b^2(L+a)^2 - 2a(L-x)^2(L+a) + L(L-x)^3]}{24EIL} \text{ for } x \geq a$$

$$\theta_A = \frac{w(L-a)^2(L^2 - 2aL - a^2)}{24EIL} \quad \theta_B = \frac{w(L^2 - a^2)^2}{24EIL}$$



Nonuniform distributed load, tapered along the length

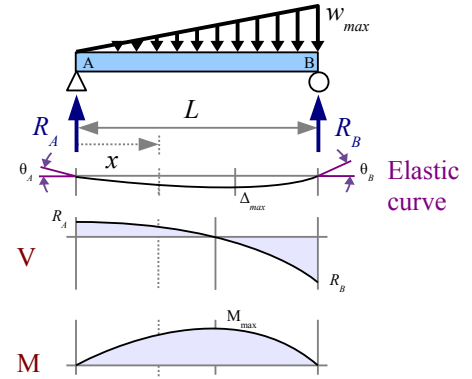
$$R_A = \frac{w_{max}L}{6}, \quad R_B = \frac{w_{max}L}{3} \quad V_x = \frac{w_{max}L}{6} - \frac{w_{max}x^2}{2L}$$

$$M_{max} = \frac{w_{max}L^2}{9\sqrt{3}} \text{ at } x = \frac{L}{\sqrt{3}} \quad M_x = \frac{w_{max}Lx(L^2 - x^2)}{6L^2}$$

$$\Delta_{max} = 0.00652 \frac{w_{max}L^4}{EI} \text{ at } x = L\sqrt{1 - \sqrt{\frac{8}{15}}}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{w_{max}x(3x^4 - 10L^2x^2 + 7L^4)}{360EIL}$$

$$\theta_A = \frac{7w_{max}L^3}{360EI} \quad \theta_B = \frac{8w_{max}L^3}{360EI}$$



Nonuniform distributed load on a simply-supported beam, tapering from the midspan to the ends

$$R_A = R_B = V_{max} = \frac{w_{max}L}{4} \quad V_x = \frac{w_{max}}{4L}(L^2 - 4x^2) \text{ for } x < \frac{L}{2}$$

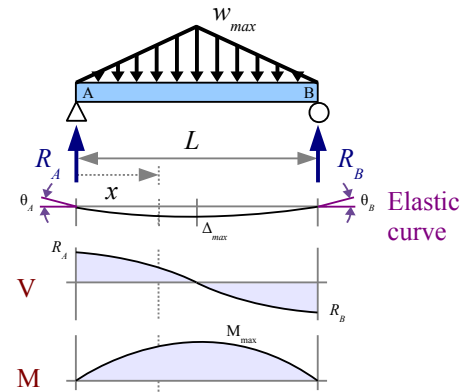
$$M_{max} = \frac{w_{max}L^2}{12} \text{ at the midspan}$$

$$M_x = \frac{w_{max}Lx}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{2x^2}{3L^2} \right) \text{ for } x < \frac{L}{2}$$

$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{w_{max}L^4}{120EI} \text{ at the midspan}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{w_{max}x(5L^2 - 4x^2)^2}{960EIL} \text{ for } x < \frac{L}{2}$$

$$\theta_A = \theta_B = \frac{5w_{max}L^3}{192EI}$$



Point load at the end of a left-wall cantilever beam

$$R_B = V_{max} = P$$

$$M_A = M_{max} = -PL$$

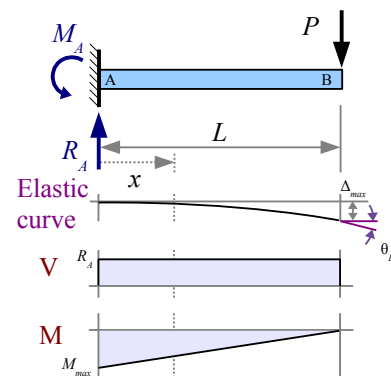
$$M_x = -P(L - x)$$

$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{PL^3}{3EI} \text{ at the free end}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{Px^2(3L - x)}{6EI}$$

$$\theta_A = 0$$

$$\theta_B = \frac{PL^2}{2EI}$$



Point load at the end of a right-wall cantilever beam

$$R_B = V_{max} = P$$

$$M_B = M_{max} = -PL$$

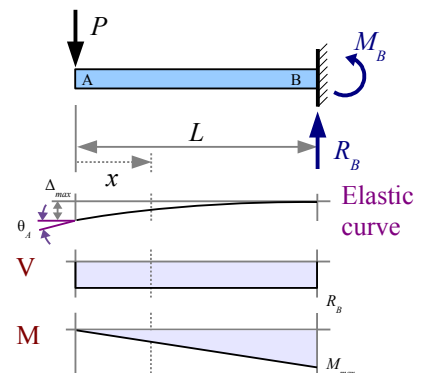
$$M_x = -Px$$

$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{PL^3}{3EI} \text{ at the free end}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{P(2L^3 - 3L^2x + x^3)}{6EI}$$

$$\theta_A = \frac{PL^2}{2EI}$$

$$\theta_B = 0$$



Point load at any location on a left-wall cantilever beam

$$R_A = V_{max} = P$$

$$M_A = M_{max} = -Pa \quad M_x = -P(a-x) \quad \text{for } x < a$$

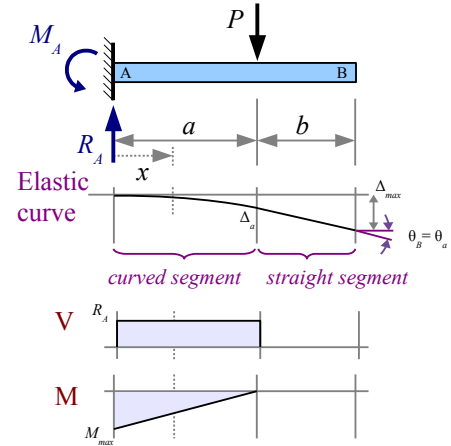
$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{Pa^2(3L-a)}{6EI} \quad \text{at the free end}$$

$$\Delta_a = \frac{Pa^3}{3EI} \quad \text{at the point load}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{Px^2(3a-x)}{6EI} \quad \text{for } x < a \quad \Delta_x = \frac{Pa^2(3x-a)}{6EI} \quad \text{for } x > a$$

The beam bends in an arc between the support and the point load. To the right of the point load, the deflection curve is a straight line, therefore the slope between the point load and the free end is constant.

$$\theta_A = 0 \quad \theta_B = \theta_a = \frac{Pa^2}{2EI}$$



Point load at any location on a right-wall cantilever beam

$$R_B = V_{max} = P$$

$$M_B = M_{max} = -Pb \quad M_x = -P(x-a) \quad \text{for } x > a$$

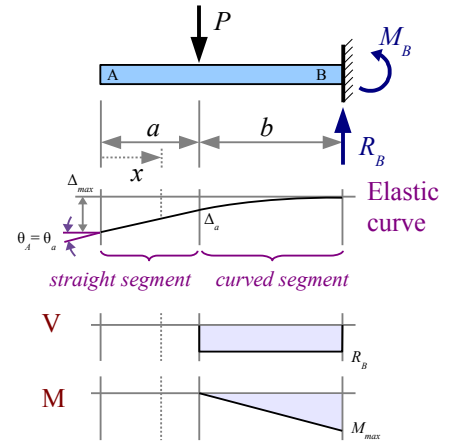
$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{Pb^2(3L-b)}{6EI} \quad \text{at the free end}$$

$$\Delta_a = \frac{Pb^3}{3EI} \quad \text{at the point load}$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{Pb^2(3L-3x-b)}{6EI} \quad \text{for } x < a$$

$$\Delta_x = \frac{P(L-x)^2(3b-L+x)}{6EI} \quad \text{for } x > a$$

$$\theta_A = \theta_a = \frac{Pb^2}{2EI} \quad \theta_B = 0$$



Uniform distributed load along the entire length of a left-wall cantilever beam

$$R_A = V_{max} = wL$$

$$V_x = w(L-x)$$

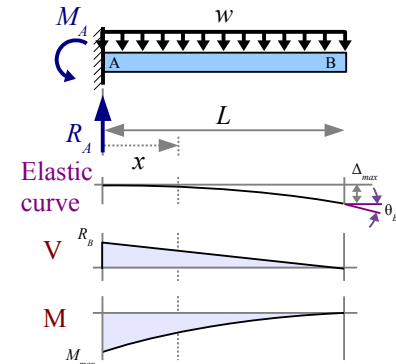
$$M_A = M_{max} = \frac{-wL^2}{2}$$

$$M_x = \frac{-w(L-x)^2}{2}$$

$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{wL^4}{8EI} \quad \text{at the free end}$$

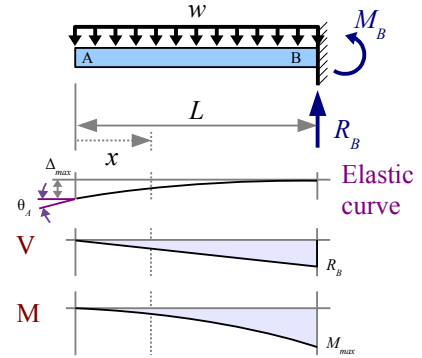
$$\Delta_x = \frac{w(6L^2x^2 - 4Lx^3 + x^4)}{24EI}$$

$$\theta_A = 0 \quad \theta_B = \frac{wL^3}{6EI}$$



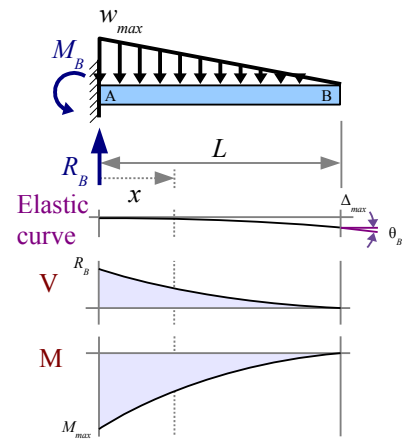
Uniform distributed load along the entire length of a right-wall cantilever beam

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_B = V_{max} &= wL & V_x &= wx \\
 M_B = M_{max} &= \frac{-wx^2}{2} & M_x &= \frac{-wx^2}{2} \\
 \Delta_{max} &= \frac{wL^4}{8EI} \text{ at the free end} & \Delta_x &= \frac{w(x^4 - 4L^3x + 3L^4)}{24EI} \\
 \theta_A &= \frac{wL^3}{6EI} & \theta_B &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$



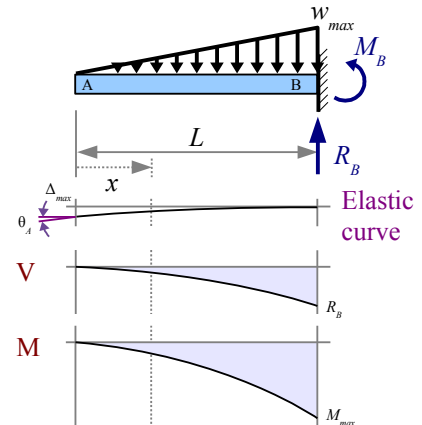
Nonuniform distributed load along the entire length of a left-wall cantilever beam, tapering from the support to the free end

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_A = V_{max} &= \frac{w_{max}L}{2} & V_x &= \frac{w_{max}(L-x)^2}{2L} \\
 M_A = M_{max} &= \frac{-w_{max}L^2}{6} & M_x &= \frac{-w_{max}(L-x)^3}{6L} \\
 \Delta_{max} &= \frac{w_{max}L^4}{30EI} \text{ at the free end} \\
 \Delta_x &= \frac{w_{max}(10L^3x^2 - 10L^2x^3 + 5Lx^4 - x^5)}{120EIL} \\
 \theta_A &= 0 & \theta_B &= \frac{wL^3}{24EI}
 \end{aligned}$$



Nonuniform distributed load along the entire length of a right-wall cantilever beam, tapering from the support to the free end

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_B = V_{max} &= \frac{w_{max}L}{2} & V_x &= \frac{w_{max}x^2}{2L} \\
 M_B = M_{max} &= \frac{-w_{max}L^2}{6} & M_x &= \frac{-w_{max}x^3}{6L} \\
 \Delta_{max} &= \frac{w_{max}L^4}{30EI} \text{ at the free end} & \Delta_x &= \frac{w_{max}(x^5 - 5L^4x + 4L^5)}{120EIL} \\
 \theta_A &= \frac{wL^3}{24EI} & \theta_B &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$



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