

Example 5.21. A masonry pier of width 4 m and thickness 3 m, supports a load of 30 kN as shown in Fig. 5.23. Find the stresses developed at each corner of the pier.

Solution. Given: $b = 4 \text{ m}$; $d = 3 \text{ m}$; $P = 30 \text{ kN}$; $e_x = 0.5 \text{ m}$; $e_y = 1 \text{ m}$

We know that cross-sectional area of the pier,

$$A = b \times d = 4 \times 3 = 12 \text{ m}^2$$

Moment of inertia of the pier about X -axis,

$$I_{XX} = \frac{b \cdot d^3}{12} = \frac{4 \times 3^3}{12} = 9 \text{ m}^4$$

and moment of inertia of the pier about Y -axis,

$$I_{YY} = \frac{d \cdot b^3}{12} = \frac{3 \times 4^3}{12} = 16 \text{ m}^4$$

Distance between X -axis and the corners A and B ,

$$x = 3 / 2 = 1.5 \text{ m}$$

Distance between Y -axis and the corners A and C ,

$$y = 4 / 2 = 2 \text{ m}$$

We know that stress at corner A ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_A &= \frac{P}{A} + \frac{P \cdot e_x \cdot x}{I_{XX}} + \frac{P \cdot e_y \cdot y}{I_{YY}} \quad \dots [\because \text{At } A, \text{ both } x \text{ and } y \text{ are +ve}] \\ &= \frac{30}{12} + \frac{30 \times 0.5 \times 1.5}{9} + \frac{30 \times 1 \times 2}{16} \\ &= 2.5 + 2.5 + 3.75 = 8.75 \text{ kN/m}^2 \text{ Ans.} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly stress at corner B ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_B &= \frac{P}{A} + \frac{P \cdot e_x \cdot x}{I_{XX}} - \frac{P \cdot e_y \cdot y}{I_{YY}} \quad \dots [\because \text{At } B, x \text{ is +ve and } y \text{ is -ve}] \\ &= \frac{30}{12} + \frac{30 \times 0.5 \times 1.5}{9} - \frac{30 \times 1 \times 2}{16} \\ &= 2.5 + 2.5 - 3.75 = 1.25 \text{ kN/m}^2 \text{ Ans.} \end{aligned}$$

Stress at corner C ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_C &= \frac{P}{A} - \frac{P \cdot e_x \cdot x}{I_{XX}} + \frac{P \cdot e_y \cdot y}{I_{YY}} \quad \dots [\text{At } C, x \text{ is -ve and } y \text{ is +ve}] \\ &= \frac{30}{12} - \frac{30 \times 0.5 \times 1.5}{9} + \frac{30 \times 1 \times 2}{16} \\ &= 2.5 - 2.5 + 3.75 = 3.75 \text{ kN/m}^2 \text{ Ans.} \end{aligned}$$

and stress at corner D ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_D &= \frac{P}{A} - \frac{P \cdot e_x \cdot x}{I_{XX}} - \frac{P \cdot e_y \cdot y}{I_{YY}} \quad \dots [\text{At } D, \text{ both } x \text{ and } y \text{ are -ve}] \\ &= \frac{30}{12} - \frac{30 \times 0.5 \times 1.5}{9} - \frac{30 \times 1 \times 2}{16} \\ &= 2.5 - 2.5 - 3.75 = -3.75 \text{ kN/m}^2 = 3.75 \text{ kN/m}^2 \text{ (tensile) Ans.} \end{aligned}$$

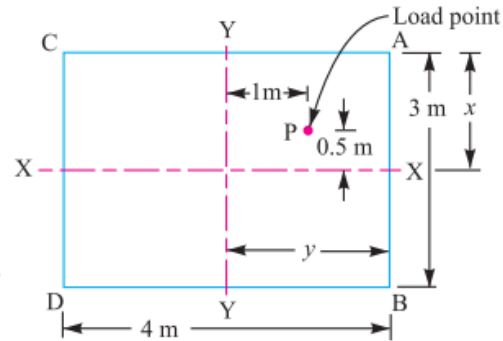
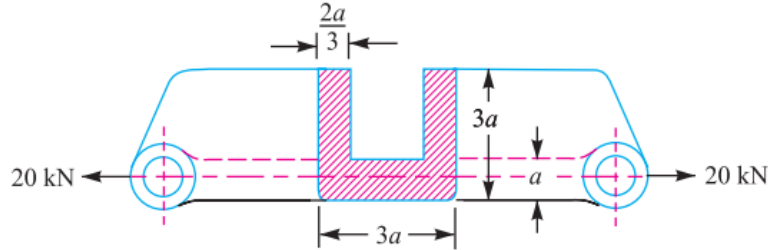


Fig. 5.23

Example 5.23. A cast-iron link, as shown in Fig. 5.25, is to carry a load of 20 kN. If the tensile and compressive stresses in the link are not to exceed 25 MPa and 80 MPa respectively, obtain the dimensions of the cross-section of the link at the middle of its length.



Solution. Given : $P = 20 \text{ kN} = 20 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$; $\sigma_{t(max)} = 25 \text{ MPa} = 25 \text{ N/mm}^2$; $\sigma_{c(max)} = 80 \text{ MPa} = 80 \text{ N/mm}^2$

Since the link is subjected to eccentric loading, therefore there will be direct tensile stress as well as bending stress. The bending stress at the bottom of the link is tensile and in the upper portion is compressive.

We know that cross-sectional area of the link,

$$A = 3a \times a + 2 \times \frac{2a}{3} \times 2a = 5.67 a^2 \text{ mm}^2$$

\therefore Direct tensile stress,

$$\sigma_o = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{20 \times 10^3}{5.67 a^2} = \frac{3530}{a^2} \text{ N/mm}^2$$

Now let us find the position of centre of gravity (or neutral axis) in order to find the bending stresses.

Let

\bar{y} = Distance of neutral axis (N.A.) from the bottom of the link as shown in Fig. 5.26.

$$\therefore \bar{y} = \frac{3a^2 \times \frac{a}{2} + 2 \times \frac{4a^2}{3} \times 2a}{5.67 a^2} = 1.2 a \text{ mm}$$

Moment of inertia about N.A.,

$$I = \left[\frac{3a \times a^3}{12} + 3a^2 (1.2a - 0.5a)^2 \right] + 2 \left[\frac{\frac{2}{3} a \times (2a)^3}{12} + \frac{4a^2}{3} (2a - 1.2a)^2 \right] = (0.25 a^4 + 1.47 a^4) + 2 (0.44 a^4 + 0.85 a^4) = 4.3 a^4 \text{ mm}^4$$

Distance of N.A. from the bottom of the link,

$$y_t = \bar{y} = 1.2 a \text{ mm}$$

Distance of N.A. from the top of the link,

$$y_c = 3a - 1.2a = 1.8 a \text{ mm}$$

Eccentricity of the load (*i.e.* distance of N.A. from the point of application of the load),

$$e = 1.2a - 0.5a = 0.7 a \text{ mm}$$

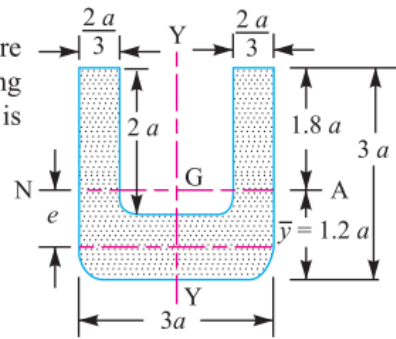


Fig. 5.26

We know that bending moment exerted on the section,

$$M = P.e = 20 \times 10^3 \times 0.7 a = 14 \times 10^3 a \text{ N-mm}$$

\therefore Tensile stress in the bottom of the link,

$$\sigma_t = \frac{M}{Z_t} = \frac{M}{I/y_t} = \frac{M \cdot y_t}{I} = \frac{14 \times 10^3 a \times 1.2 a}{4.3 a^4} = \frac{3907}{a^2}$$

and compressive stress in the top of the link,

$$\sigma_c = \frac{M}{Z_c} = \frac{M}{I/y_c} = \frac{M \cdot y_c}{I} = \frac{14 \times 10^3 a \times 1.8 a}{4.3 a^4} = \frac{5860}{a^2}$$

We know that maximum tensile stress $[\sigma_{t(max)}]$,

$$25 = \sigma_t + \sigma_c = \frac{3907}{a^2} + \frac{5860}{a^2} = \frac{9767}{a^2}$$

$$\therefore a^2 = 9767 / 25 = 390.7 \quad \text{or} \quad a = 19.76 \text{ mm} \quad \dots(i)$$

and maximum compressive stress $[\sigma_{c(max)}]$,

$$80 = \sigma_c - \sigma_0 = \frac{5860}{a^2} - \frac{3530}{a^2} = \frac{2330}{a^2}$$

$$\therefore a^2 = 2330 / 80 = 29.12 \quad \text{or} \quad a = 5.4 \text{ mm} \quad \dots(ii)$$

We shall take the larger of the two values, *i.e.*

$$a = 19.76 \text{ mm} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Variable Stresses in Machine Parts

6.1 Introduction

We have discussed, in the previous chapter, the stresses due to static loading only. But only a few machine parts are subjected to static loading. Since many of the machine parts (such as axles, shafts, crankshafts, connecting rods, springs, pinion teeth etc.) are subjected to variable or alternating loads (also known as fluctuating or fatigue loads), therefore we shall discuss, in this chapter, the variable or alternating stresses.

6.2 Completely Reversed or Cyclic Stresses

Consider a rotating beam of circular cross-section and carrying a load W , as shown in Fig. 6.1. This load induces stresses in the beam which are cyclic in nature. A little consideration will show that the upper fibres of the beam (*i.e.* at point A) are under compressive stress and the lower fibres (*i.e.* at point B) are under tensile stress. After

half a revolution, the point B occupies the position of point A and the point A occupies the position of point B . Thus the point B is now under compressive stress and the point A under tensile stress. The speed of variation of these stresses depends upon the speed of the beam.

From above we see that for each revolution of the beam, the stresses are reversed from compressive to tensile. The stresses which vary from one value of compressive to the same value of tensile or *vice versa*, are known as **completely reversed** or **cyclic stresses**.

Notes: 1. The stresses which vary from a minimum value to a maximum value of the same nature, (*i.e.* tensile or compressive) are called **fluctuating stresses**.

2. The stresses which vary from zero to a certain maximum value are called **repeated stresses**.

3. The stresses which vary from a minimum value to a maximum value of the opposite nature (*i.e.* from a certain minimum compressive to a certain maximum tensile or from a minimum tensile to a maximum compressive) are called **alternating stresses**.

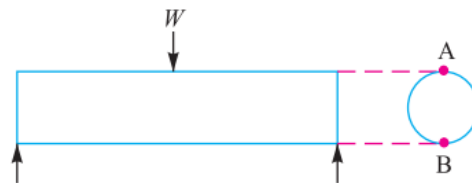


Fig. 6.1. Reversed or cyclic stresses.

6.3 Fatigue and Endurance Limit

It has been found experimentally that when a material is subjected to repeated stresses, it fails at stresses below the yield point stresses. Such type of failure of a material is known as **fatigue**. The failure is caused by means of a progressive crack formation which are usually fine and of microscopic size. The failure may occur even without any prior indication. The fatigue of material is effected by the size of the component, relative magnitude of static and fluctuating loads and the number of load reversals.

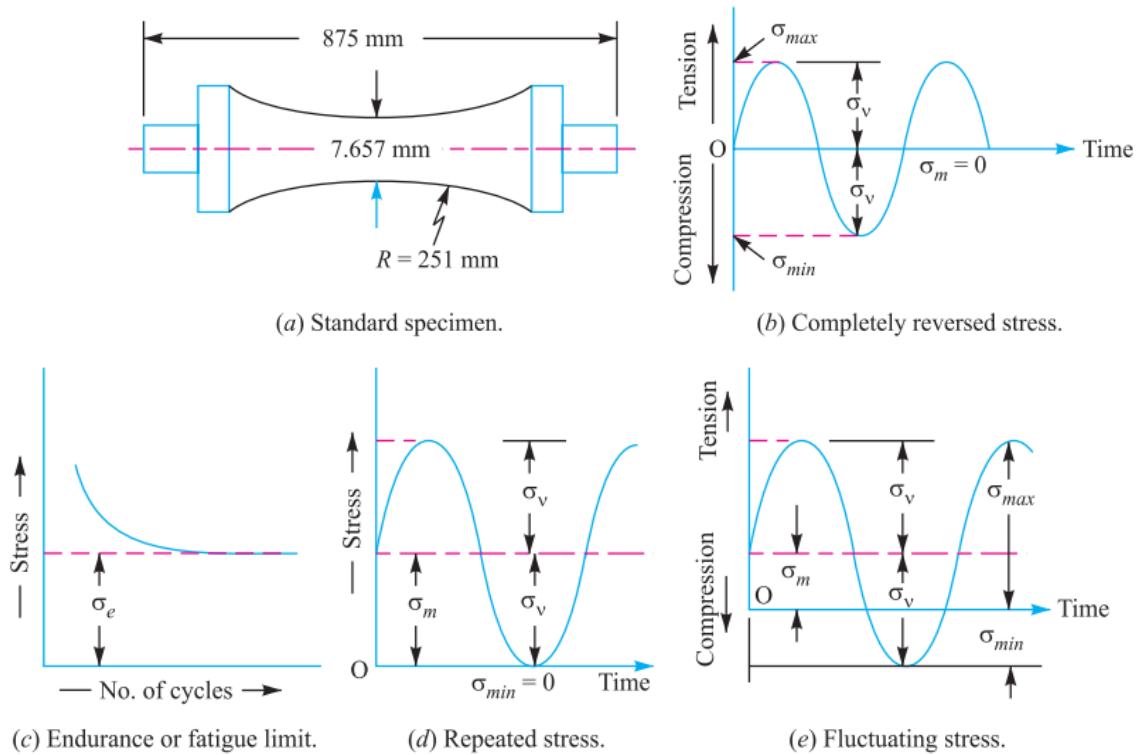


Fig. 6.2. Time-stress diagrams.

In order to study the effect of fatigue of a material, a rotating mirror beam method is used. In this method, a standard mirror polished specimen, as shown in Fig. 6.2 (a), is rotated in a fatigue testing machine while the specimen is loaded in bending. As the specimen rotates, the bending stress at the upper fibres varies from maximum compressive to maximum tensile while the bending stress at the lower fibres varies from maximum tensile to maximum compressive. In other words, the specimen is subjected to a completely reversed stress cycle. This is represented by a time-stress diagram as shown in Fig. 6.2 (b). A record is kept of the number of cycles required to produce failure at a given stress, and the results are plotted in stress-cycle curve as shown in Fig. 6.2 (c). A little consideration will show that if the stress is kept below a certain value as shown

by dotted line in Fig. 6.2 (c), the material will not fail whatever may be the number of cycles. This stress, as represented by dotted line, is known as **endurance** or **fatigue limit** (σ_e). It is defined as maximum value of the completely reversed bending stress which a polished standard specimen can withstand without failure, for infinite number of cycles (usually 10^7 cycles).

It may be noted that the term endurance limit is used for reversed bending only while for other types of loading, the term **endurance strength** may be used when referring the fatigue strength of the material. It may be defined as the safe maximum stress which can be applied to the machine part working under actual conditions.

We have seen that when a machine member is subjected to a completely reversed stress, the maximum stress in tension is equal to the maximum stress in compression as shown in Fig. 6.2 (b). In actual practice, many machine members undergo different range of stress than the completely reversed stress.

The stress **verses** time diagram for fluctuating stress having values σ_{min} and σ_{max} is shown in Fig. 6.2 (e). The variable stress, in general, may be considered as a combination of steady (or mean or average) stress and a completely reversed stress component σ_v . The following relations are derived from Fig. 6.2 (e):

1. Mean or average stress,

$$\sigma_m = \frac{\sigma_{max} + \sigma_{min}}{2}$$

2. Reversed stress component or alternating or variable stress,

$$\sigma_v = \frac{\sigma_{max} - \sigma_{min}}{2}$$

Note: For repeated loading, the stress varies from maximum to zero (i.e. $\sigma_{min} = 0$) in each cycle as shown in Fig. 6.2 (d).

$$\therefore \sigma_m = \sigma_v = \frac{\sigma_{max}}{2}$$

3. Stress ratio, $R = \frac{\sigma_{max}}{\sigma_{min}}$. For completely reversed stresses, $R = -1$ and for repeated stresses, $R = 0$. It may be noted that R cannot be greater than unity.

4. The following relation between endurance limit and stress ratio may be used

$$\sigma'_e = \frac{3\sigma_e}{2 - R}$$

where

σ'_e = Endurance limit for any stress range represented by R .

σ_e = Endurance limit for completely reversed stresses, and

R = Stress ratio.

6.4 Effect of Loading on Endurance Limit—Load Factor

The endurance limit (σ_e) of a material as determined by the rotating beam method is for reversed bending load. There are many machine members which are subjected to loads other than reversed bending loads. Thus the endurance limit will

also be different for different types of loading. The endurance limit depending upon the type of loading may be modified as discussed below:

Let K_b = Load correction factor for the reversed or rotating bending load.

Its value is usually taken as unity.

K_a = Load correction factor for the reversed axial load. Its value may be taken as 0.8.

K_s = Load correction factor for the reversed torsional or shear load. Its value may be taken as 0.55 for ductile materials and 0.8 for brittle materials.

∴ Endurance limit for reversed bending load, $\sigma_{eb} = \sigma_e \cdot K_b = \sigma_e$... (∵ $K_b = 1$)
 Endurance limit for reversed axial load, $\sigma_{ea} = \sigma_e \cdot K_a$
 and endurance limit for reversed torsional or shear load, $\tau_e = \sigma_e \cdot K_s$

6.5 Effect of Surface Finish on Endurance Limit—Surface Finish Factor

When a machine member is subjected to variable loads, the endurance limit of the material for that member depends upon the surface conditions. Fig. 6.3 shows the values of surface finish factor for the various surface conditions and ultimate tensile strength.

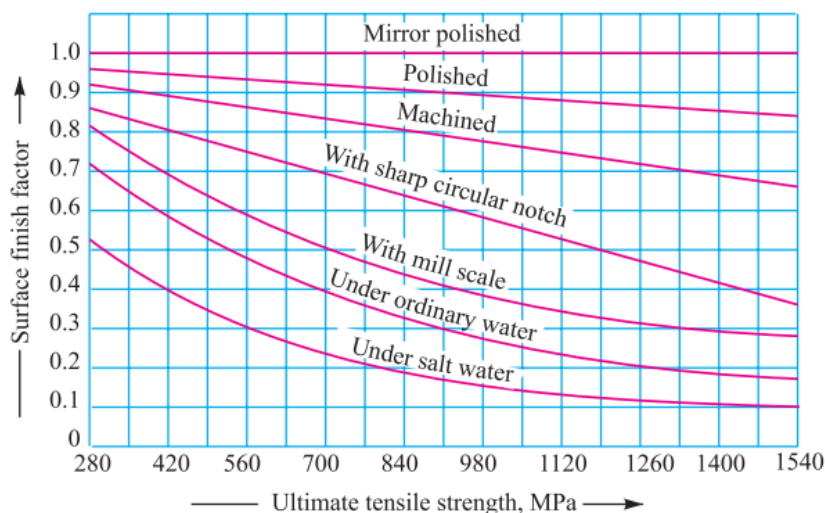


Fig. 6.3. Surface finish factor for various surface conditions.

When the surface finish factor is known, then the endurance limit for the material of the machine member may be obtained by multiplying the endurance limit and the surface finish factor. We see that

for a mirror polished material, the surface finish factor is unity. In other words, the endurance limit for mirror polished material is maximum and it goes on reducing due to surface condition.

Let K_{sur} = Surface finish factor.

∴ Endurance limit,

$$\sigma_{e1} = \sigma_{eb} \cdot K_{sur} = \sigma_e \cdot K_b \cdot K_{sur} = \sigma_e \cdot K_{sur} \quad \dots (\because K_b = 1)$$

...(For reversed bending load)

$$= \sigma_{ea} \cdot K_{sur} = \sigma_e \cdot K_a \cdot K_{sur} \quad \dots (\text{For reversed axial load})$$

$$= \tau_e \cdot K_{sur} = \sigma_e \cdot K_s \cdot K_{sur} \quad \dots (\text{For reversed torsional or shear load})$$

Note : The surface finish factor for non-ferrous metals may be taken as unity.

6.6 Effect of Size on Endurance Limit—Size Factor

A little consideration will show that if the size of the standard specimen as shown in Fig. 6.2 (a) is increased, then the endurance limit of the material will decrease. This is due to the fact that a longer specimen will have more defects than a smaller one.

Let K_{sz} = Size factor.

∴ Endurance limit,

$$\sigma_{e2} = \sigma_{e1} \times K_{sz} \quad \dots (\text{Considering surface finish factor also})$$

$$= \sigma_{eb} \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} = \sigma_e \cdot K_b \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} = \sigma_e \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} \quad (\because K_b = 1)$$

$$= \sigma_{ea} \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} = \sigma_e \cdot K_a \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} \quad \dots (\text{For reversed axial load})$$

$$= \tau_e \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} = \sigma_e \cdot K_s \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} \quad \dots (\text{For reversed torsional or shear load})$$

Notes: 1. The value of size factor is taken as unity for the standard specimen having nominal diameter of 7.657 mm.

2. When the nominal diameter of the specimen is more than 7.657 mm but less than 50 mm, the value of size factor may be taken as 0.85.

3. When the nominal diameter of the specimen is more than 50 mm, then the value of size factor may be taken as 0.75.



6.7 Effect of Miscellaneous Factors on Endurance Limit

In addition to the surface finish factor (K_{sur}), size factor (K_{sz}) and load factors K_b , K_a and K_s , there are many other factors such as reliability factor (K_r), temperature factor (K_t), impact factor (K_i) etc. which has effect on the endurance limit of a material. Considering all these factors, the endurance limit may be determined by using the following expressions :

1. For the reversed bending load, endurance limit,

$$\sigma'_e = \sigma_{eb} \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} \cdot K_r \cdot K_t \cdot K_i$$

2. For the reversed axial load, endurance limit,

$$\sigma'_e = \sigma_{ea} \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} \cdot K_r \cdot K_t \cdot K_i$$

3. For the reversed torsional or shear load, endurance limit,

$$\sigma'_e = \tau_e \cdot K_{sur} \cdot K_{sz} \cdot K_r \cdot K_t \cdot K_i$$

In solving problems, if the value of any of the above factors is not known, it may be taken as unity.

6.8 Relation Between Endurance Limit and Ultimate Tensile Strength

It has been found experimentally that endurance limit (σ_e) of a material subjected to fatigue loading is a function of ultimate tensile strength (σ_u). Fig. 6.4 shows the endurance limit of steel corresponding to ultimate tensile strength for different surface conditions. Following are some empirical relations commonly used in practice :

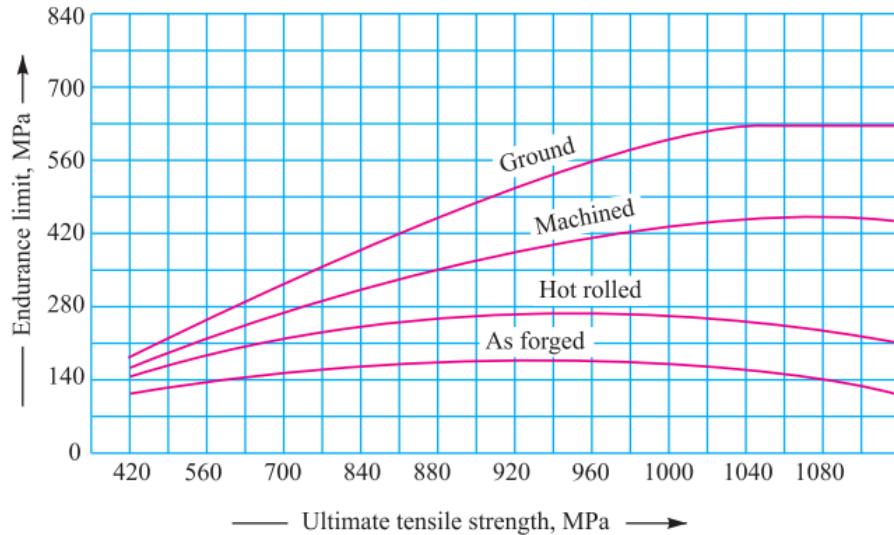


Fig. 6.4. Endurance limit of steel corresponding to ultimate tensile strength.

- For steel, $\sigma_e = 0.5 \sigma_u$;
- For cast steel, $\sigma_e = 0.4 \sigma_u$;
- For cast iron, $\sigma_e = 0.35 \sigma_u$;
- For non-ferrous metals and alloys, $\sigma_e = 0.3 \sigma_u$

6.9 Factor of Safety for Fatigue Loading

When a component is subjected to fatigue loading, the endurance limit is the criterion for failure. Therefore, the factor of safety should be based on endurance limit. Mathematically,

$$\text{Factor of safety (F.S.)} = \frac{\text{Endurance limit stress}}{\text{Design or working stress}} = \frac{\sigma_e}{\sigma_d}$$

Note: For steel,
where

- $\sigma_e = 0.8 \text{ to } 0.9 \sigma_y$
- σ_e = Endurance limit stress for completely reversed stress cycle, and
- σ_y = Yield point stress.

Example 6.1. Determine the design stress for a piston rod where the load is completely reversed. The surface of the rod is ground and the surface finish factor is 0.9. There is no stress concentration. The load is predictable and the factor of safety is 2.

Solution. Given : $K_{sur} = 0.9$; $F.S. = 2$

The piston rod is subjected to reversed axial loading. We know that for reversed axial loading, the load correction factor (K_a) is 0.8.

If σ_e is the endurance limit for reversed bending load, then endurance limit for reversed axial load,

$$\sigma_{ea} = \sigma_e \times K_a \times K_{sur} = \sigma_e \times 0.8 \times 0.9 = 0.72 \sigma_e$$

We know that design stress,

$$\sigma_d = \frac{\sigma_{ea}}{F.S.} = \frac{0.72 \sigma_e}{2} = 0.36 \sigma_e \text{ Ans.}$$

6.10 Stress Concentration

Whenever a machine component changes the shape of its cross-section, the simple stress distribution no longer holds good and the neighbourhood of the discontinuity is different. This irregularity in the stress distribution caused by abrupt changes of form is called **stress concentration**. It occurs for all kinds of stresses in the presence of fillets, notches, holes, keyways, splines, surface roughness or scratches etc.

In order to understand fully the idea of stress concentration, consider a member with different cross-section under a tensile load as shown in Fig. 6.5. A little consideration will show that the nominal stress in the right and left hand sides will be uniform but in the region where the cross-section is changing, a re-distribution of the force within the member must take place. The material

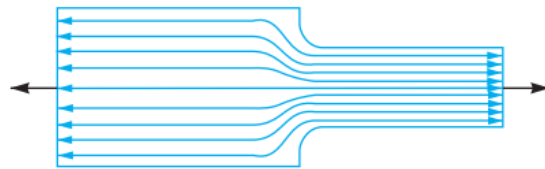


Fig. 6.5. Stress concentration.

near the edges is stressed considerably higher than the average value. The maximum stress occurs at some point on the fillet and is directed parallel to the boundary at that point.

6.11 Theoretical or Form Stress Concentration Factor

The theoretical or form stress concentration factor is defined as the ratio of the maximum stress in a member (at a notch or a fillet) to the nominal stress at the same section based upon net area. Mathematically, theoretical or form stress concentration factor,

$$K_t = \frac{\text{Maximum stress}}{\text{Nominal stress}}$$

The value of K_t depends upon the material and geometry of the part.

Notes: 1. In static loading, stress concentration in ductile materials is not so serious as in brittle materials, because in ductile materials local deformation or yielding takes place which reduces the concentration. In brittle materials, cracks may appear at these local concentrations of stress which will increase the stress over the rest of the section. It is, therefore, necessary that in designing parts of brittle materials such as castings, care should be taken. In order to avoid failure due to stress concentration, fillets at the changes of section must be provided.

2. In cyclic loading, stress concentration in ductile materials is always serious because the ductility of the material is not effective in relieving the concentration of stress caused by cracks, flaws, surface roughness, or any sharp discontinuity in the geometrical form of the member. If the stress at any point in a member is above the endurance limit of the material, a crack may develop under the action of repeated load and the crack will lead to failure of the member.

6.12 Stress Concentration due to Holes and Notches

Consider a plate with transverse elliptical hole and subjected to a tensile load as shown in Fig. 6.6 (a). We see from the stress-distribution that the stress at the point away from the hole is practically uniform and the maximum stress will be induced at the edge of the hole. The maximum stress is given by

$$\sigma_{max} = \sigma \left(1 + \frac{2a}{b} \right)$$

and the theoretical stress concentration factor,

$$K_t = \frac{\sigma_{max}}{\sigma} = \left(1 + \frac{2a}{b} \right)$$

When a/b is large, the ellipse approaches a crack transverse to the load and the value of K_t becomes very large. When a/b is small, the ellipse approaches a longitudinal slit [as shown in Fig. 6.6 (b)] and the increase in stress is small. When the hole is circular as shown in Fig. 6.6 (c), then $a/b = 1$ and the maximum stress is three times the nominal value.

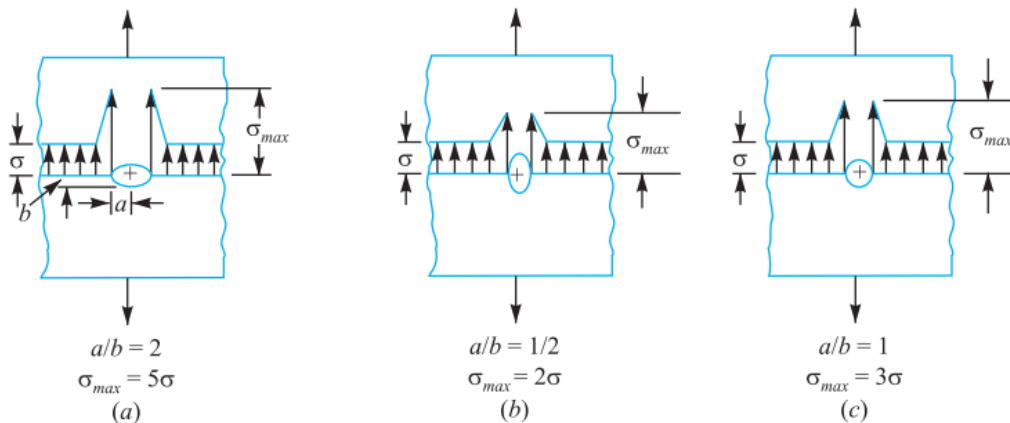


Fig. 6.6. Stress concentration due to holes.

The stress concentration in the notched tension member, as shown in Fig. 6.7, is influenced by the depth a of the notch and radius r at the bottom of the notch. The maximum stress, which applies to members having notches that are small in comparison with the width of the plate, may be obtained by the following equation,

$$\sigma_{max} = \sigma \left(1 + \frac{2a}{r} \right)$$

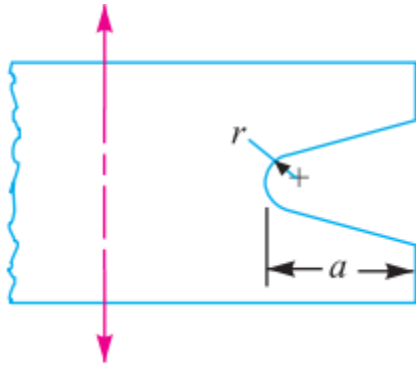


Fig. 6.7. Stress concentration due to notches.