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Handbook

of

Civil Engineering

Useful For

GATE, ESE, PSUs & Other Competitive Exams

■ Praveen Dwivedi ■ Prachi Bajpai

Empowering Minds - Creating Opportunities

CL

Hand Book of

Civil Engineering

by
Praveen Dwivedi &
Prachi Bajpai

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About The Author

Praveen Dwivedi is currently employed with Reserve Bank of India as Technical Manager. He has formerly worked with Central Public Works Department. He obtained his B.Tech degree from Motilal Nehru National Institute of Technology, Allahabad in 2010. His main areas of interest include teaching and motivating students. All this while, he has been extensively involved in teaching at some of the best coaching institutes for Engineers.

Praveen has qualified several written examinations of national repute including UPSC, RBI Grade-B (Dr) (Twice), DSSSB-Manager AIR-1, BEL- AIR 1, NBCC -AIR 2, WAPCOS- AIR 3, MPPSC- AIR 4, DSSSB Assistant Manager AIR-7, SIDBI- AIR 8, Syndicate Bank- AIR 12, DFCCIL- Top 20, SSC – AIR 21, UP Nirman Nigam Ltd- AIR 79, NPCC and GATE (several times). The experience from all of these exams has been fully utilised in the making of this book.

His love towards technology, reading and writing has also driven him to work as content developer for some of the best coaching institutes and publication houses in India. In terms of practical exposure, he has also been actively involved in 'Mahayojana Project' of Allahabad city, Sasan Ultra Mega Power Project and several Residential and Official projects throughout the country.

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I am thankful to all the teachers who taught me during the concept building session of life, especially the Super Masters of my Alma Mater (NIT Allahabad), Kanchan Sir, Ankit Sir, my Mentor- Arun Pratap Singh and Master Abhinav Trivedi.

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I particularly want to thank my wonderful and talented students whom I have taught over the years, who in turn taught me how to be a good teacher.

Special thanks to Prachi Bajpai and Team GKP for their diligent efforts to prepare a book which is thoroughly checked, so as to eliminate any possibility of error.

Despite our sincere efforts to keep the book void of errors, there is a possibility that some errors might have been left unnoticed while printing. I would sincerely welcome constructive criticism for improving the book for its subsequent edition. The feedback can be shared at Praveenmnnit2k6@gmail.com.

Praveen Dwivedi

Preface

If you've got technical examinations such as GATE, ESE & PSUs around the corner and having to quickly go through a wide range of topics in a limited time, this is the book would be a complete solution for you. Technical exams being difficult in nature, has to be given enough priority and time during exam preparation. But it is also quite easy to score in these exams as you just need to be thorough with formulas, key points and techniques to quickly solve the questions.

GKP's Handbook Series is a collection of handbooks for Mechanical Engineering, Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Computer Science Engineering and Electronics & Communication Engineering. This series serves as a quick reference guide for students preparing for exams such as GATE, ESE, PSUs recruitment and any other technical exam. The handbooks include last minute preparation points, formulae with conceptual clarity and definitions and equations with explanatory figures.

We, at GK Publications have specially designed this book in line with the varying needs of each aspirant. This book is not only to prepare you for the technical exams but is also a good asset for your semester exam preparations.

Hard work in the right direction will surely fulfill your desires. Have a lot of self-belief; load it with a lot of practice, top it off with a little smart work and you are good to go.

We hope this little effort of ours will be helpful in achieving your dreams. If you have any suggestions on improvement of this book, you can write to us at gkp@gkpublications.com.

All the Best!

Team GKP

Contents

Unit-6 Building Material

Unit-7 Fluid Mechanics

Unit-8 Open Channel Flow

Unit-9 Environmental Engineering

Part-A

Part-B

Unit-10 Hydrology

Unit-11 Soil Mechanics

Unit-12 Irrigation

Unit-13 Highway

Unit-14 Surveying

Unit-15 Railway

Unit-16 Airport, Dock, Harbour and Tunnel Engineering

Civil Engineering

1

Strength of Materials

Contents

1 Properties of Metals, Stress and Strain

Rigid and Deformable Material:

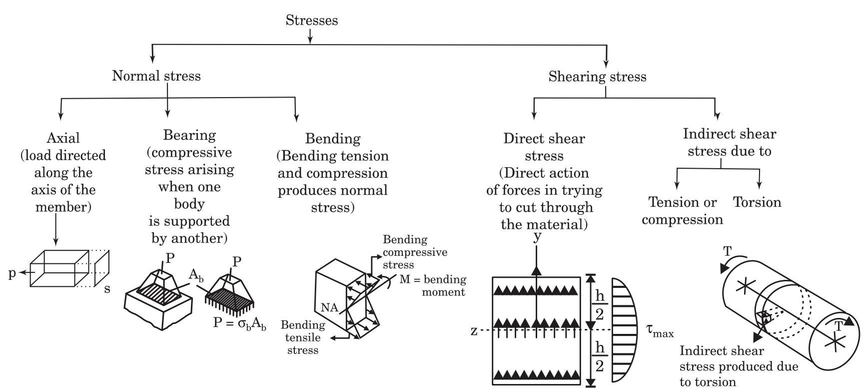
Rigid material is one which does not undergo any change in its geometry, size or shape. On the other hand, a deformable material is the one in which change in size, shape or both will occur when it is subjected to force/moment.

Stresses and strain:

Stresses (Force/Area) are generated as a resistance to the applied external forces or as a result of restrained deformations.

$$\text{Nominal stress (Engineering stress)} = \frac{\text{Load}}{\text{Original Area}}$$

$$\text{Actual/Truestress} = \frac{\text{Load}}{\text{Original (Actual) Area}}$$

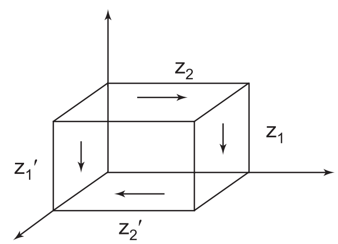


$$\text{Normal stress} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial A} = \sigma \Rightarrow P = \int \sigma dA$$

Equality of shear stress on perpendicular planes

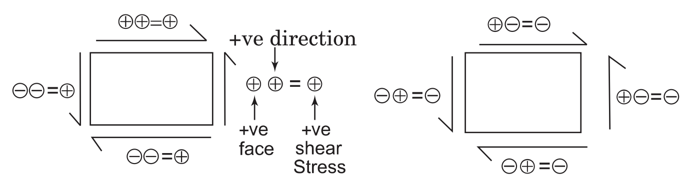
(1) Shear stress on opposite faces of an element are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction.

(2) Shear stress on adjacent and perpendicular faces of an element are equal in magnitude and have directions such that both stresses point towards or both point away from the line of intersection of the faces. These are called Complimentary shear stresses.



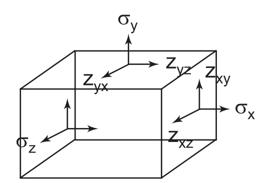
(Shear stress on opposite face are equal and opposite)

Sign convention for shear stress



Stresses under general loading conditions

1. Stress is NOT a Vector
2. **Stress** is a **2nd** order Tensor.
3. σ (Stress tensor) = $\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \tau_{xy} & \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{zx} & \tau_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$



4. Magnitude has only one dimension Hence it a 3° = zero order tensor
5. Direction has three dimension. Hence it is $3^2 = 1^{st}$ order tensor
6. Stress has 9-dimension ($3^2 = 2^{nd}$ order tensor)
7. At any point in 3D condition 9 stress elements are there.
   3 Normal stress components (σ_{xx}, σ_{yy}, σ_{zz})
   6 shear stress components (τ_{xy}, τ_{yx}, τ_{xz}, τ_{zx}, τ_{yz}, τ_{zy})

ONLY **6-stress** components are required to define conditions of stress at a point.

8. In 2-D condition, 4 stress elements exist (σ_x, σ_y, σ_{xy}, σ_{zy}) but ONLY 3-stress components are required to define conditions of stress at a point.

Design of members:

$$\text{Allowable stress} = \frac{\text{yield stress}}{\text{F.O.S}}$$

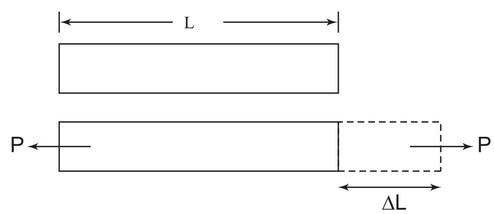
Margin of safety = FOS-1

For **Ductile material:** FOS is applied on **yield stress**

For **Brittle material:** FOS is applied on **Ultimate stress**.

Normal Strain:

1. Deformation per unit length
2. Strain = $\frac{\Delta L}{L}$ or $\frac{\delta L}{\delta L}$



3. Measured by **EXTENSOMETER** It is a **dimensionless** quanity

Mathematical definition of strain

$\varepsilon_x = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$ Normal strain in x-direction

$\varepsilon_y = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$ Normal strain in y-direction

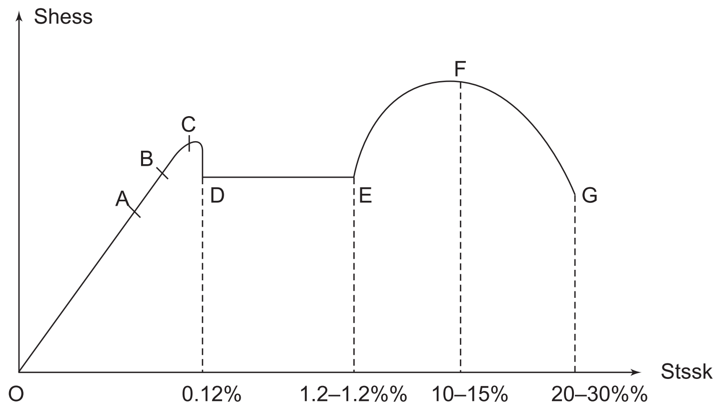
$\varepsilon_z = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial z}$ Normal strain in y-direction

$\gamma_{xy} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$ = Shearing strain in xy plane

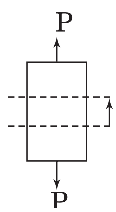
$\gamma_{xz} = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$ = Shearing strain in xz plane

$\gamma_{yz} = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}$ = Shearing strain in yz plane

Stress-strain Curve of mild steel (Low carbon steel-Ductile Steel) in Tension



OA = Linear curve
A = Proportional limit
B = Elastic limit
C = upper yield point
D = lower yield point
DE = plastic region
EF = strain hardening region
FG = Neeking region
F = ultimate stress point
G = Fracture point.



L_0 =Gauge length
= lnitiai length

stress = $\frac{p}{A_0}$ strain = $\frac{p}{A_0}$

Salient points:

(1) Volume of specimen increases from O to D

(2) Lower yield point should be used to determine the yield strength of material

(3) From D to E, large deformations but volume of specimen does not changes.

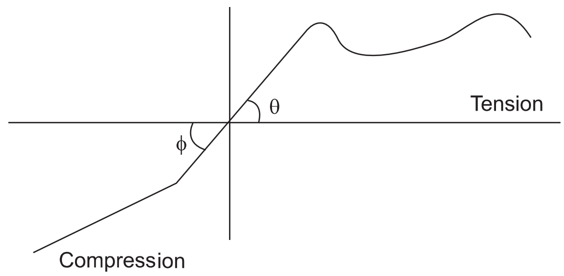
(4) From E to F, its strain hardening, i.e material undergoes changes in its crystalline structure.

(5) F to G, diameter of portion decreases due to instability called Necking.

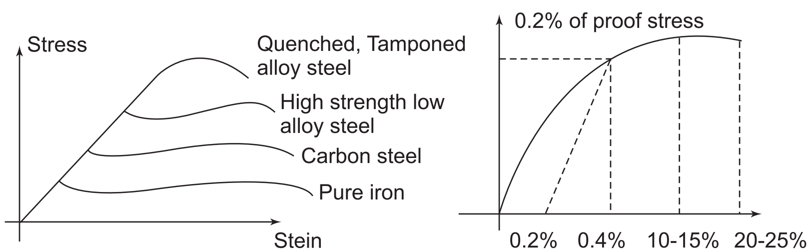
(6) Cup cone failure occurs at 45° with the load in ductile material.

Mild steel in compression

(1) The stress strain curve will eventually be same through its initial straight line portion and through the beginning of the portion corresponding to yield and strain hardening



(2) Modular of Elasticity in Tension= Modular of Elasticity in compression $\theta = \phi$



Stress-strain curves for other materials

(1) All of them possess some Modulas of Elasticity.

(2) As yield strength increases, Ductility falls.

(3) For ductile materials like Aluminium and Copper, do not have defined yield point. Yield strength is defined by offset method.

(4) $E_{AL} = \frac{1}{3} E_{st}$

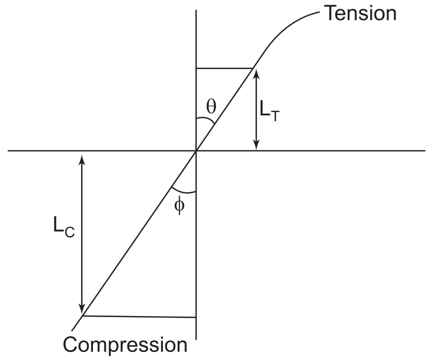
Stress-strain diagram for Brittle material

(1) $\phi = \theta$

(2) Linear Elastic range in compression is more than Tension

(3) Rupture stress = Ultimate stress

(4) No Necking occurs.



TRICK: to Remember failure surface:- Remember any one of the 4 given below and change at least two columns every time keeping the one constant.

(1) Ductile	Tension	45°
(2) Ductile	Torsion	90°
(3) Brittle	Tension	90°
(4) Brittle	Torsion	45°

Eg. Remember

Ductile Tension 45°

Same ↕ ↓ Change ↓

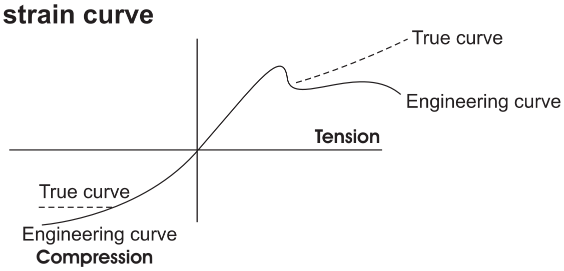
Ductile Torsion 90°

Brittle fracture:

(1) Ductile material at normal temp. may become brittle at very low temp.

(2) A Brittle material at low temp. may become ductile at very high temp.

True stress strain curve



(1) True stress curve is below Engineering stress in compression because resisting area in compression increases

(2) Engineering stress = $\frac{P}{A_0}$ True stress = $\frac{P}{A}$

Engineering stress = $\frac{\delta}{L_0}$ True stress = $\frac{\Delta L}{L}$

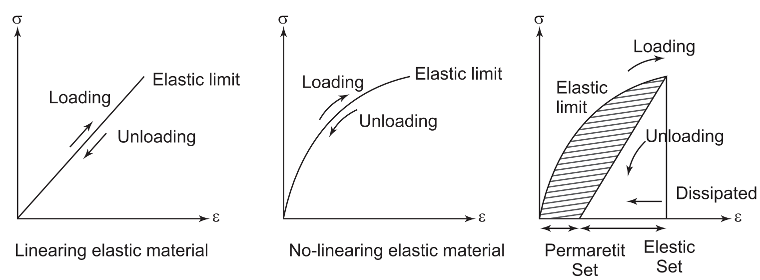
A_0, L_0 → Original Area & length

Relation between True stress and Engineering stress

In Tension: $A = \frac{A_o}{1+\xi}$, $\sigma = \sigma_o(1+\xi)$ In compression $A = \frac{A_o}{1-\xi}$, $\sigma = \sigma_o(1-\xi)$

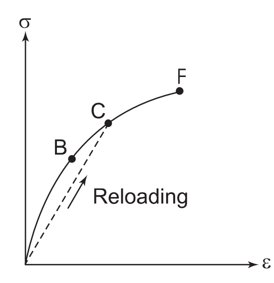
Properties of Materials

Elasticity:- Property by virtue of which material deformed under the load is enabled to **return** to its original dimension when the load is removed.



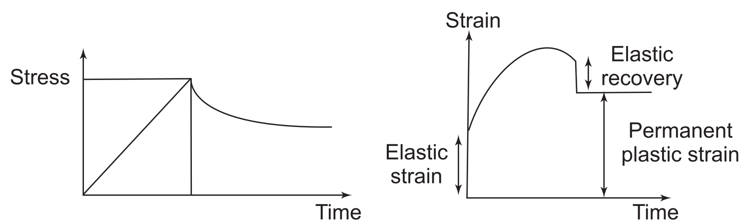
Plasticity:- The characteristics of material by which it undergoes **inelastic strain** beyond those at the **elastic limit**.

Reloading:- Proportional limit increases from B to C but ductility decreases from 'B to F' to 'C to F'



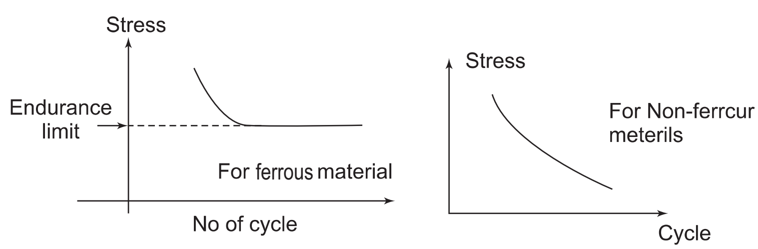
Creep: Property by virtue of which a material undergoes **additional deformation** (over and above due to applied load) with passage of time under sustained loading with in **elastic limit**

Relaxation:- The decrease in stress in steel as a result of creep with in steel under prolonged strain



Fatigue:- Deterioration of a material under repeated cycles of stress or strain resulting in progressive cracking that eventually produces fracture.

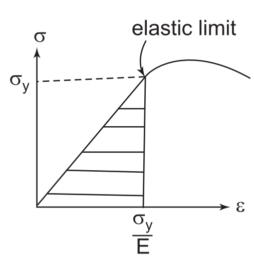
Endurance limit:- Stress level below which even large number of stress cycle cannot produce fatigue failure.



For structural steel, Endurance limit = $\frac{1}{2}\times$ ultimate strength

Resilience:- Property of material to absorb energy when it is deformed elastically and then upon unloading to have **this energy recovered.**

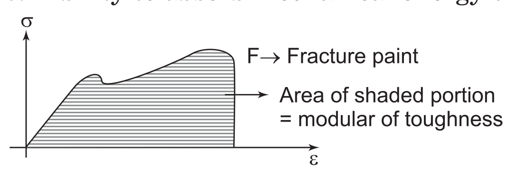
Modular of Resilience: Elastic strain energy stored **per unit volume**



$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \sigma_y \times \frac{\sigma_y}{E}$$

$$= \frac{\sigma_y^2}{2E}$$

Toughness:- Ability to absorb mechanical energy upto **failure**.



Toughness → Resists fracture

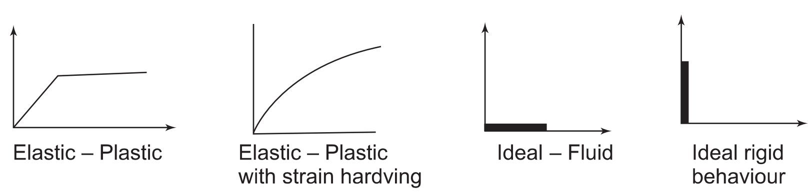
Hardness → Resists scratch or abration

Tenacity:- Property of material to resist fracture under the action of tensile load

Visco-Elastic material

Materials having both Viscous and Elastic properties and exhibit time dependent strain.

Approximate stress-strain curves



Hooke's law:-

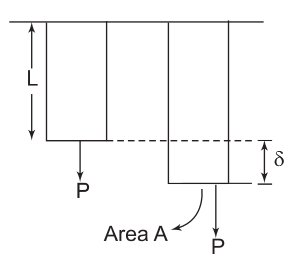
(a) Homogenous $\boxed{\sigma = E.\xi}$

(b) Isotropic

(c) Linearly elastic materials

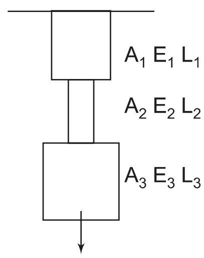
Deformation of member under axial load

(1)



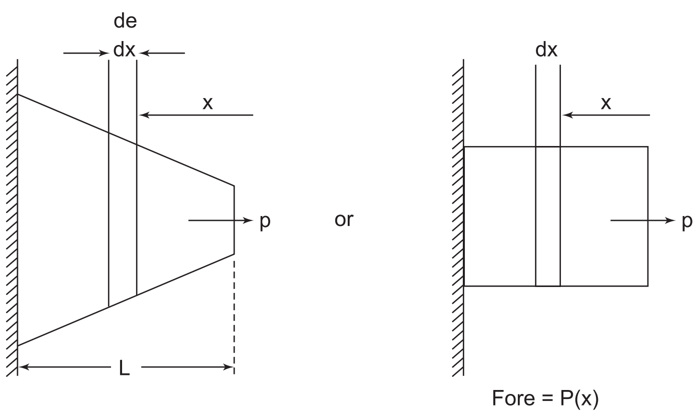
Load P is acting then $\delta = \frac{PL}{AE}$

(2)



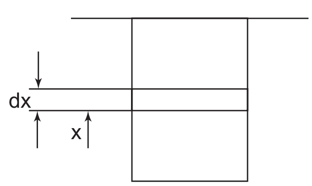
Load P is acting then $\boxed{\delta = \dfrac{P_1L_1}{A_1E_1} + \dfrac{P_2L_2}{A_2E_2} + \dfrac{P_3L_3}{A_3E_3}}$

(3) $\boxed{\delta = \int_0^L \dfrac{P(x)dx}{A(x)E}}$ then



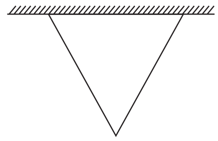
$\boxed{\delta = \int_0^L \dfrac{Pdx}{A(x)E}}$ $\boxed{\delta = \int_0^L \dfrac{P(x)dx}{AE}}$

(4) (a) In prismatic bar due to self weight



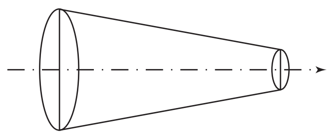
$\boxed{\delta = \dfrac{\gamma L^2}{2E} \text{ or } \dfrac{\left(W/2\right)L}{AE}}$

(b) Conical bar due to self weight



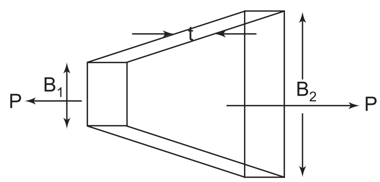
$$\boxed{\delta = \frac{\gamma L^2}{6E}} = \frac{1}{3} \text{ (deflection of prismatic bar of same length and same density)}$$

5.



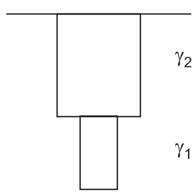
$$\boxed{\Delta = \frac{4PL}{\pi D_1 D_2 E}}$$

6.



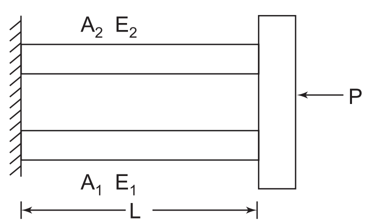
$$\boxed{\Delta = \frac{PL \log_e \left(B_2/B_1\right)}{Et(B_2 - B_1)}}$$

7.



$$\boxed{\Delta = \frac{\gamma L_1^2}{2E} + \frac{\gamma L_2^2}{2E} + \frac{\gamma \phi_1^2 L_1 L_2}{\phi_2^2 E}}$$

Composite Bars



$$P = P_1 = P_2$$

$$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = \frac{P_1 L}{A_1 E_1} = \frac{P_2 L}{A_2 E_2}$$

$$P_1 = \frac{A_1 E_1 P}{A_1 E_1 + A_2 E_2} \qquad P_2 = \frac{A_2 E_2 P}{A_1 E_1 + A_2 E_2}$$

(1) Principle of superposition is applicable only when stress is within proportional limit

(2) If temperature is increased and member is restrained, then force produced is compressive. If temperature is decreased the force produced is tensile.

(3) Temp ↑→more value of α → compression
Temp ↓→ more value of α → Tension

Nut and Bolt problem:

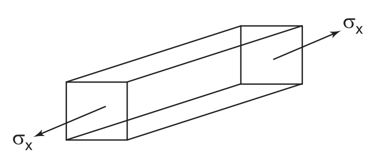
Extension of Bolt + Contraction of Tube = Movement of nut

$$\boxed{\frac{\sigma_b L}{E_b} + \frac{\sigma_T L}{E_c} = np}$$

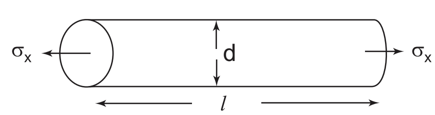
n = no. of rotations of bolt

p = pitch of thread.

Poisson's Ratio:- For **Homogenous** and **isotropic** material, Elongation (or contraction) produced by any Axial Force in the direction of force is accompanied by contraction (or elongation) in all transverse directions and all such contractions (or elongations) are same.



$$\boxed{\mu = -\left(\frac{\text{Lateral Strain}}{\text{Axial Strain}}\right)} = \frac{-\varepsilon_y}{\varepsilon_x} = -\frac{\varepsilon_Z}{\varepsilon_x}$$



$$\boxed{\mu = \frac{-\Delta d / d}{\Delta l / l}}$$

$\mu = 0$ for cork
$\mu = 0.1 - 0.2$ for concrete
$\mu = 0.5$ Perfectly elastic rubber

Volume of rod remains unchanged as a result of combined effect of elongation and transverse condition.

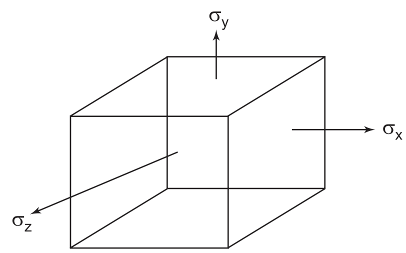
Dilation, Bulk modulas:-

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

If $\sigma_x = \sigma_y = \sigma_z = p$ than

$$\varepsilon_v = \frac{3p}{E}(1 - 2\mu)$$

$$K = \frac{p}{\varepsilon_v} = \frac{E}{3(1 - 2\mu)}$$



$$\text{Hydrostatic Pressure} = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y + \sigma_z}{3}$$

(1) Stretching of material in one direction i.e due to □x will lead to increase in volume

(2) During plastic deformation, volume of specimen remains constant.

Shearing Strain:-

(1) Hooke's law for shearing stress and strain

$$\tau_{xy} = G\gamma_{xy}$$

(2) Modulas of rigidity or shear modulas G, $G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \mu)}$

as $0 < \mu < 0.5$ then $\frac{E}{3} < G < \frac{E}{2}$

(3) If only shearing stresses are acting then volume of the specimen does not change.

Relationship between Elastic Constants

$G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \mu)}$ $K = \frac{E}{3(1 - 2\mu)}$ $E = \frac{9KG}{3K + G}$ $\mu = \frac{3K - 2G}{6K + 2G}$

No. of Independent Elastic Constants

(1) Homogenous and Isotropic $\rightarrow 2$

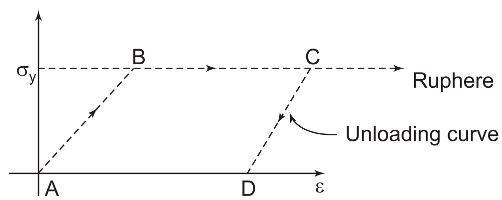
(2) Orthotropic (wood) $\rightarrow 9$

(3) Anisotropic $\rightarrow 21$

Saint-Venant Principle: Except in the immediate vicinity of application of loads, the stress distribution may be assumed independent of the actual mode of application of loads.

Plastic deformation:-

When yield stress of material is exceeded, plastic flow occurs.



Idealised curve for elasto plastic material

Residual stress:-When some part of an indeterminate structure undergoes plastic deformation, or different part undergoes different plastic deformation the stress in various parts of the structure will not return to zero after the load has been removed. These stresses are called Residual stresses

Thermal Stress and Strain:-

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

$$\Delta = L\alpha\Delta t$$

$$\text{Strain} = \frac{L\alpha\Delta t}{L} = \alpha\Delta t$$

$$\alpha_{\text{Aluminum}} > \alpha_{\text{Brass}} > \alpha_{\text{Copper}} > \alpha_{\text{Steel}}$$

$$\boxed{\text{TRICK} \;\; A > B > C > S}$$

When bar is not restrained, then there will be no induced temperature stresses due to change in temperature.

Shear Force and Bending Moment

2

Span of a beam:-

(i) The clear horizontal distance between the supports is called clear span of the beam.

(ii) The horizontal distance between the centres of the end bearings is called the effective span of the beam.

Types of Support:-

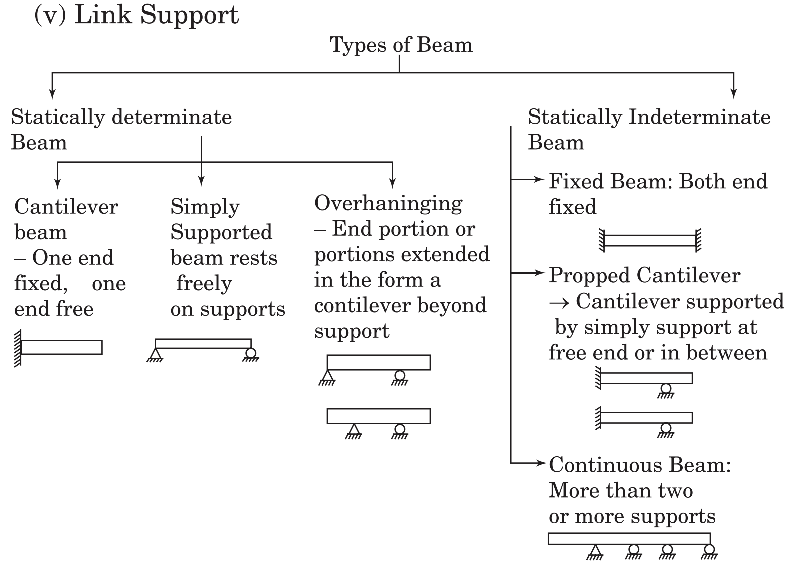
(i) A Simple or free support/Roller Support/Rocker support

(ii) Hinged or pinned support.

(iii) A built in or fixed or encastre support

(iv) Slider support

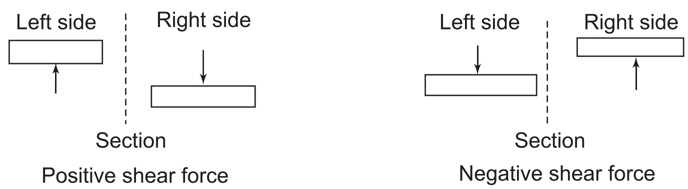
(v) Link Support



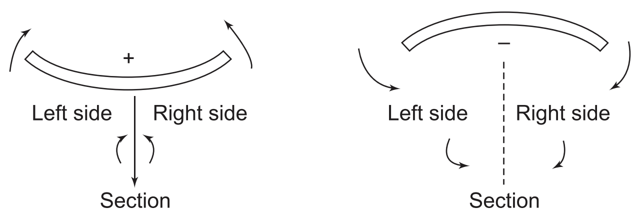
Note:- A continuous beam may or may not be an overhanging beam.

Shear force:- It is the resultant of all transverse forces to the right or left of the section.

S.F at a Section is +ve if the resultant of all transverse forces to the right of the section is downward or resultant of transverse forces to the left of section is upwards.



Bending moment:- It is the resultant moment at a section due to all the transverse forces either to the left or right of the section.

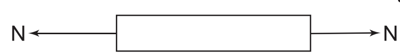


Positive Bending moment = Sagging

Negative Bending moment = Hogging

Note:- Bending moment is the algebraic sum of moments at that section while moment at a point is the summation of moment due to all loading on the beam produced at that point.

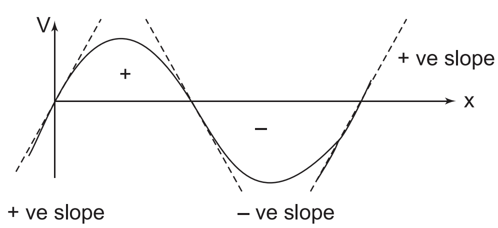
Axial Thrust → Force acting along the longitudinal axis of the members. Axial thrust is +ve if it tries to elongate the members.



Relationship between Bending moment, Shear force and Loading

(i) Slope of the shear force diagram = Intensity of distributed load

$$\boxed{\frac{dV}{dx} = W_x}$$



If the slope of SFD is positive, this implies the load intensity at that point is +ve i.e upwards and if the slope of SFD is negative, this implies the load intensity at that point is –ve ie downwards.

(ii) Slope of Bending moment diagram = Shear force at that section.

$$\boxed{\frac{dM}{dx} = V}$$

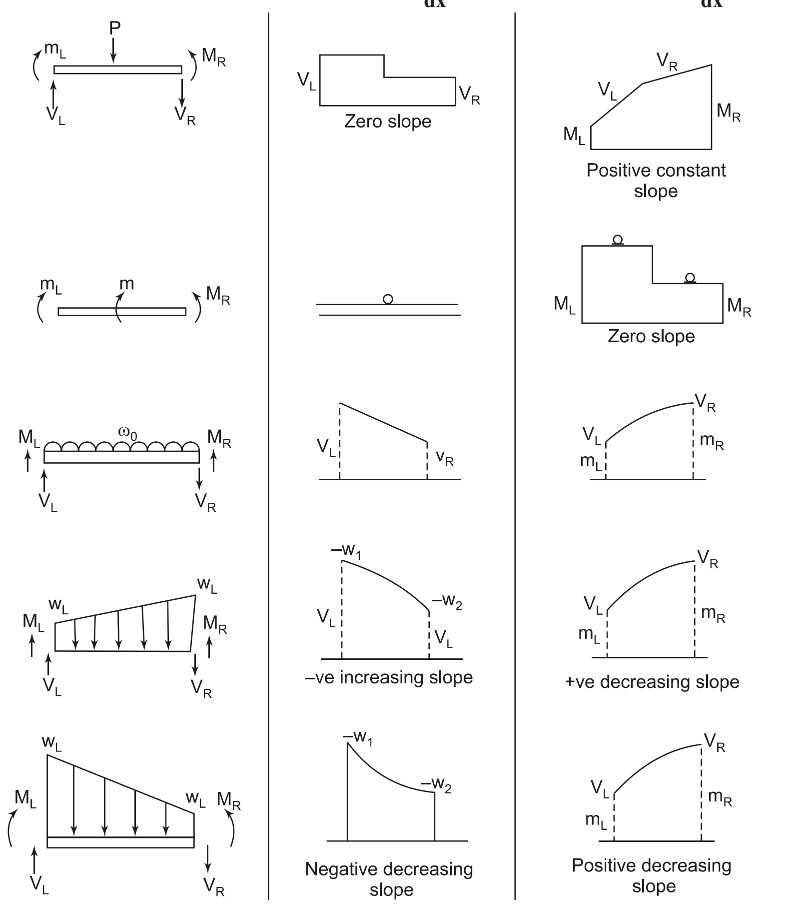
NOTE:-

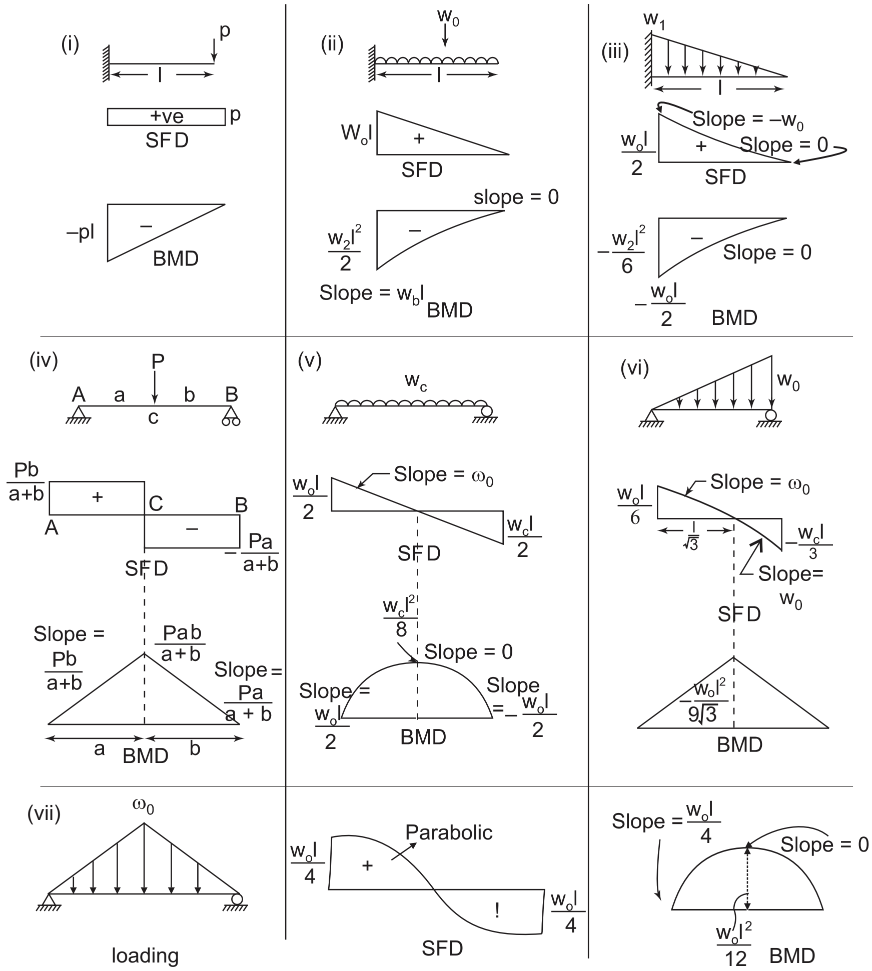
$$\Delta V = \int W_x dx$$

$$\Delta M = \int V dx$$

$M_{final} - M_{initial}$ = Area under the Shear force diagram between those two sections.

Loading | **Shear Diagram, $\frac{dV}{dx} = W$** | **Moment Diagram, $\frac{dM}{dx} = V$**




(i)
p
l
+ve
p
SFD
–pl
–
BMD
(ii)
w_0
l
$W_o l$
+
SFD
slope = 0
$\frac{w_2 l^2}{2}$
–
Slope = $w_b l$
BMD
(iii)
w_1
l
Slope = $-w_0$
$\frac{w_o l}{2}$
+
Slope = 0
SFD
$-\frac{w_2 l^2}{6}$
–
Slope = 0
$-\frac{w_o l}{2}$
BMD
(iv)
P
A
a
b
B
c
$\frac{Pb}{a+b}$
+
C
B
A
–
$-\frac{Pa}{a+b}$
SFD
Slope =
$\frac{Pb}{a+b}$
$\frac{Pab}{a+b}$
Slope =
$\frac{Pa}{a+b}$
a
BMD
b
(v)
w_c
$\frac{w_o l}{2}$
Slope = ω_0
$\frac{w_c l}{2}$
SFD
$\frac{w_c l^2}{8}$
Slope = 0
Slope =
$\frac{w_o l}{2}$
Slope
$= -\frac{w_o l}{2}$
BMD
(vi)
w_0
Slope = ω_0
$\frac{w_o l}{6}$
$\frac{l}{\sqrt{3}}$
$-\frac{w_c l}{3}$
Slope=
w_0
SFD
$\frac{w_o l^2}{9\sqrt{3}}$
BMD
(vii)
ω_0
loading
Parabolic
$\frac{w_o l}{4}$
+
!
$\frac{w_o l}{4}$
SFD
Slope = $\frac{w_o l}{4}$
Slope = 0
$\frac{w_o l^2}{12}$
BMD

3

Principal Stress and Principal Strain

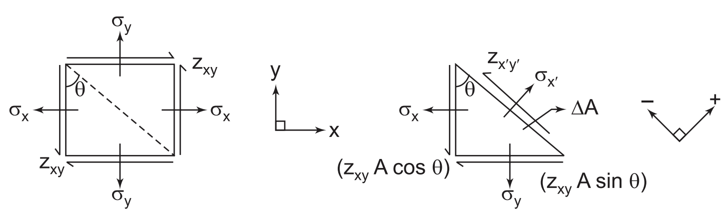
Whenever any structural component is under equilibrium due to external forces then each and every point inside the volume of the structural component must be in equilibrium and must have stress less than the permissible stress.

Plane stress:- When two faces of cubic elements are free of any stress, the stress condition is termed as plane stress condition

$$\boxed{\sigma_z = \tau_{zx} = \tau_{zy} = 0}$$

So plane stress components are and σ_x, σ_y and τ_{xy}

Transformation of Plane Stress



$$\sigma'_x = = \frac{\sigma_x + \sigma_y}{2} + \frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\cos 2\theta + Z_{xy}\sin 2\theta$$

$$Z_{x'y'} = -\left(\frac{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}{2}\right)\sin 2\theta + Z_{xy}\cos 2\theta$$

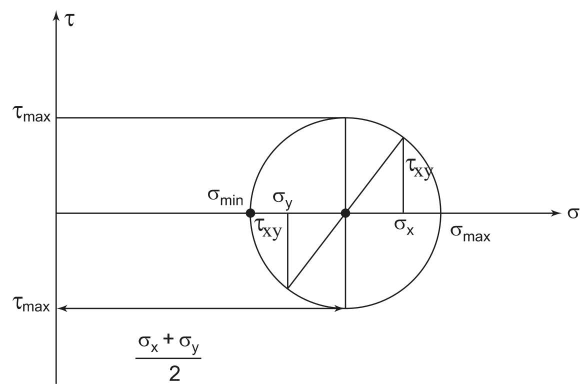
$$\boxed{\sigma_x + \sigma_y = \sigma_x{}' + \sigma_y{}'}$$

NOTE:- The sum of normal stresses exerted on a cubic element of a material is independent of the orientation of element.

Principal Stress and maximum shear stress:- It is the maximum or minimum normal stress which may be developed on a loaded body. The plane of principal stress does not carry any shear stress.

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

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



Mohr's Circle for plane stress → It is the locus of points representing the magnitude of normal and shear stress at various plane in a given stress element.

1. $\sigma_{max/min}$ = Principal stresses, end points of diameter on σ–axis
2. τ_{max} = max shear stress, whose magnitude is equal to radius of mohr's circle
3. $\tan 2\theta_s = \frac{-(\sigma_x + \sigma_y)}{2\tau_{xy}}$ $\quad \tan 2\theta_p = \frac{2\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x - \sigma_y}$

   So $\quad \tan 2\theta_s \times \tan 2\theta_p = -1$

   ⇒ $\quad 2\theta_s$ and $2\theta_p$ are 90° apart.

   Hence, plane of Max. Shear stress are 45° to the principal planes (i.e. θ_s and θ_p are 45° apart)

4. Normal stress on a plane of maximum shear stress is represented by co-ordinates of centre of Mohr's circle.
5. In hydrostatic loading → Mohr circle reduces to a point.
6. In Pure Shear case → centre of mohr circle will fall at origion.

Strain Energy per unit Volume:-

1. **Plane Stress Condition:-**

$$U = \frac{1}{2}\left(\sigma_x \varepsilon_x + \sigma_y \varepsilon_y + t_{xy}\gamma_{xy}\right)$$

When σ_1 and σ_2 principal stresses then

$$V = \frac{1}{2E}\left(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - 2\mu\sigma_1\sigma_2\right)$$

2. **Under Triaxial Stress Condition:**

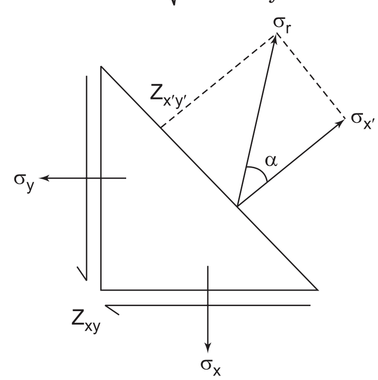
$$V = \frac{1}{2}\left(\sigma_x\varepsilon_x + \sigma_y\varepsilon_y + \sigma_z\varepsilon_z + \tau_{xy}\gamma_{xy} + \tau_{xz}\gamma_{xz} + \tau_{zx}\gamma_{zx}\right)$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2E}\left(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 + \sigma_z^2 - 2\mu\left(\sigma_x\sigma_y + \sigma_y\sigma_z + \sigma_z\sigma_x\right)\right)$$

Angle of obliquity:- Angle that line of action of resultant stress on a plane makes with the normal to the plane is called angle of obliquity.

α = Angle of obliquity

$$\sigma_r = \sqrt{\sigma_{x^1}^2 + \tau_{x'y'}^2}$$



Plane Strain:- If the deformations are those in x-y plane only then only 3-strain components exist ε_x, ε_y, γ_{xy}

NOTE:- Strain energy only leads to distortion of element. It does not lead to change in volume. Normal stresses on the other hand leads to change in volume.

Transformation of Plane Strain

$$\varepsilon_{x^1} = \frac{\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y}{2}\cos 2\theta + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\sin 2\theta$$

$$\varepsilon_{y^1} = \frac{\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y}{2} - \frac{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y}{2}\cos 2\theta - \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\sin 2\theta$$

$$\varepsilon_{x1} + \varepsilon_{y1} = \varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y$$

$$\frac{\gamma_{x^1y^1}}{2} = -\frac{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y}{2}\sin 2\theta + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\cos 2\theta$$

Comparison of Plane Stress and Plane Strain

	Plane Stress	Plain Strain
Stress	$\sigma_z = 0$ $\tau_{xz} = 0$ $\tau_{yz} = 0$ σ_x, σ_y, and $\tau_{xy} \rightarrow$ non zero	$\tau_{xz} = 0$, $\tau_{yz} = 0$ σ_x, σ_y, σ_z, $\tau_{xy} \rightarrow$ Non-zero
Strain	$\gamma_{xz} = 0$ $\gamma_{yz} = 0$ ε_x, ε_y, ε_z, ε_{xy} ε Non zero	$\varepsilon_z = 0$ $\gamma_{xz} = 0$ $\gamma_{yz} = 0$ ε_x, ε_y, ε_{xy} ε Non-zero

Mohr circle for Plane Strain:-

1. Principal Strains

$$\varepsilon_{max/min} = \frac{\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y}{2} \quad \sqrt{\frac{\left(\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y\right)^2}{2} + \left(\frac{\tau_{xy}}{2}\right)^2}$$

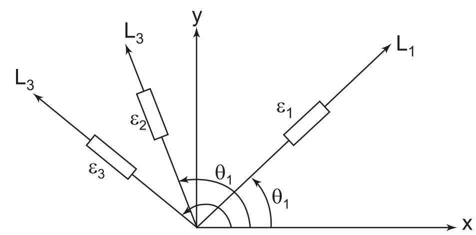
2. Maximum In plane shearing strain = Radius of Mohr's circle (R)

$$R = \left(\frac{\gamma_{max}}{2}\right)_{in\ plane} = \sqrt{\frac{\left(\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y\right)^2}{2} + \left(\frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\right)^2}$$

Strain Rosette $\rightarrow$ A group of three gauges arranged in a particular pattern such that it can measure **normal strain** in three different directions on the surface of a structural element.

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y}{2}\cos 2\theta_1 + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\sin 2\theta_1$$

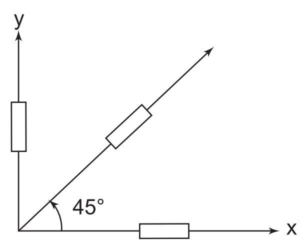
$$\varepsilon_2 = \frac{\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y}{2}\cos 2\theta_2 + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\sin 2\theta_2$$



Special Case:- when $\varepsilon_1 \rightarrow$ along x-axis ie ε_x

$\theta_2 \rightarrow 45^\circ$

$\varepsilon_3 \rightarrow$ along y-axis i.e. ε_y



then,
$$\varepsilon_2 = \frac{\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}$$

or
$$\gamma_{xy} = \varepsilon_2 - \left(\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y\right)$$

4

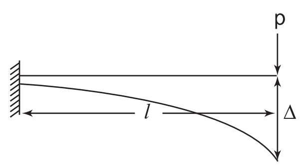
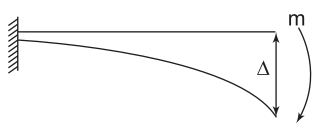
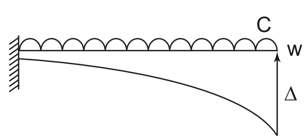
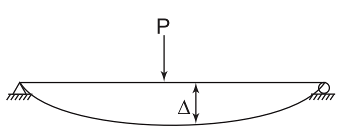
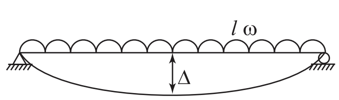
Deflection of Beams

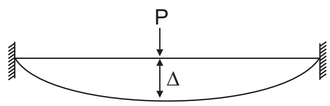
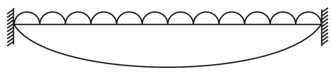
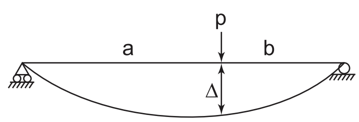
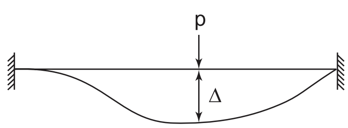
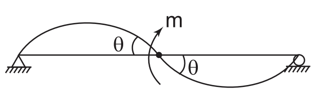
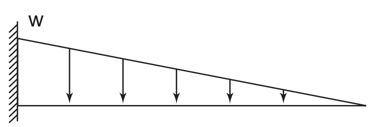
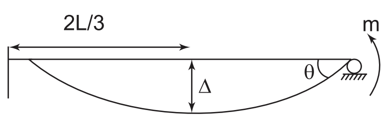
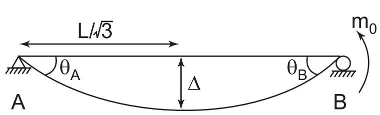
Deflection of structure is caused by its internal loadings such as Normal force, Shear force, Bending Moment, Torsion.

For **Beams** and **Frames**, major deflection is due to **Bending**

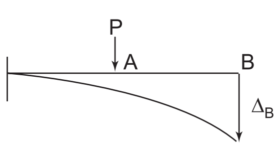
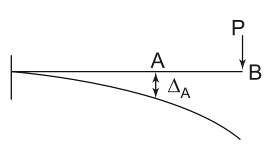
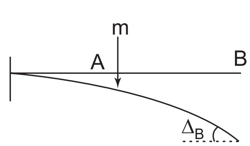
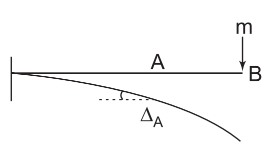
For **Trusses**, deflection is caused by internal Axial Forces

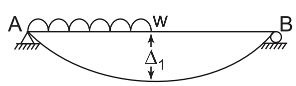
Some standard results of deflection and slopes.

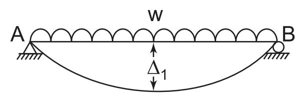
Loading	**Deflection**	**Slopes**
	$\Delta = \frac{Pl^3}{3EI}$	$\theta = \frac{Pl^2}{2EI}$
	$\Delta = \frac{ML^2}{2EI}$	$\theta = \frac{ML}{EI}$
	$\Delta = \frac{wL^4}{8EI}$	$\theta = \frac{wL^3}{6EI}$
	$\Delta = \frac{PL^3}{48EI}$	$\theta = \frac{PL^2}{16EI}$
	$\Delta = \frac{5}{384}\frac{wL^4}{EI}$	$\theta = \frac{wL^3}{24EI}$

	$\Delta = \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{PL^3}{48EI}\right)$	
	$\Delta = \frac{1}{5}\left(\frac{5}{384}\frac{wL^4}{EI}\right)$	
	$\Delta = \frac{Pa^2b^2}{3EIL}$	
	$\Delta = \frac{Pa^3b^3}{3EIL^3}$	
		$\theta = \frac{ML}{24EI}$
	$\Delta = \frac{wL^4}{30EI}$	$\theta = \frac{wL^3}{24EI}$
	$\Delta = \frac{ML^2}{27EI}$	$\theta = \frac{ML}{4EI}$
	$\Delta = \frac{ML^2}{9\sqrt{3}EI}$	$\theta_A = \frac{ML}{6EI}$ $\theta_B = \frac{ML}{3EI}$

Maxwell's Reciprocal Theorem:- In any beam, frame or truss, the deflection at any point due to load P at any point A is equal to deflection at any point A due to load P at any point B.

		$\Delta_A = \Delta_B$
		$\theta_A = \theta_B$





$\Delta_2 = 2\,\Delta_1$
C→ mind
point of AB

Methods of determining slope and deflection at a point

(1) **Double Integration Method** ⇒ Gives deflection only due to bending

$$\boxed{\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{M}{EI}} \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \frac{M}{EI} \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{d\grave{e}}{dx} = \frac{M}{EI}}$$

where, EI = Flexural rigidity

$$\text{Flexural Stiffness} = \frac{\text{Flexural rigidity}}{\text{Length}}$$

$$\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} = \frac{dM/dx}{EI} \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} = \frac{V}{EI}} \Rightarrow \frac{d^4y}{dx^4} = \frac{dV/dx}{EI} \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{d^4y}{dx^4} = \frac{W}{EI}}$$

(2) **Macaulay's Method** ⇒ Modification is done in loading pattern so that udl or uvl becomes continuous up to last segment.

$$EI\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = M = \frac{-P}{2}x + \frac{3P}{2}(x - 2a)$$

Integrate and put boundary conditions

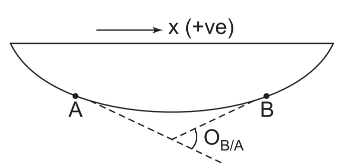
(a) $x = 0,\ y = 0$ (b) $x = 2a, y = 0$

Then, Deflection at $x = 3a$, $y = \frac{-Pa^3}{Ei}$

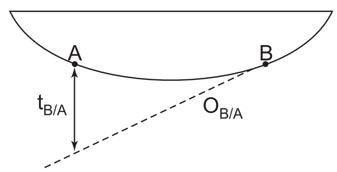
(3) Moment Area Method – Mohr's Method

Theorem 1:- The change in slope between two points on elastic curve equals the area of $\frac{M}{EI}$ diagram between these two points.

$\theta_{B/A}$ = Slope of B with respect to tangent drawn on elastic curve at A = Area of $\frac{M}{EI}$ diagram between A and B.



Theorem 2:→ Deflection of any point A on elastic curve with respect to tangent drawn at another point B (tAB) equals the moment of area under diagram between A and B about point A.



$$t_{A/B} = \bar{x}\int_A^B \frac{M}{EI}dx$$

(4) **Moment diagram by parts:-** The resultant BM at any section is the algebraic sum of bending moments at that section caused by each loading separately (either from left or right of that section). So the effect of individual load can be considered instead of taking effects of all the loads together for drawing BMD.

(5) **Conjugate beam method:-**

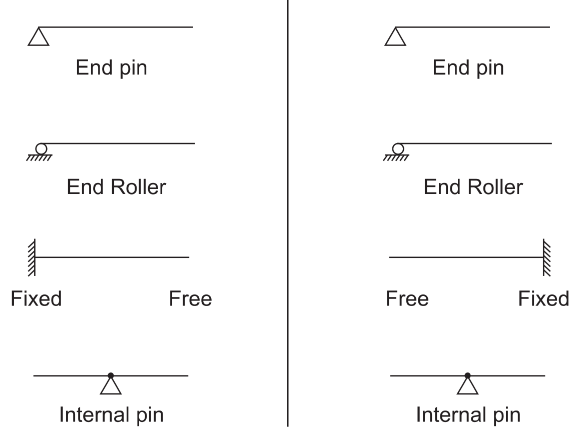
$$V = \int w\,dx$$
$$\downarrow \qquad \uparrow$$
$$\theta = \int \frac{M}{EI}\,dx$$

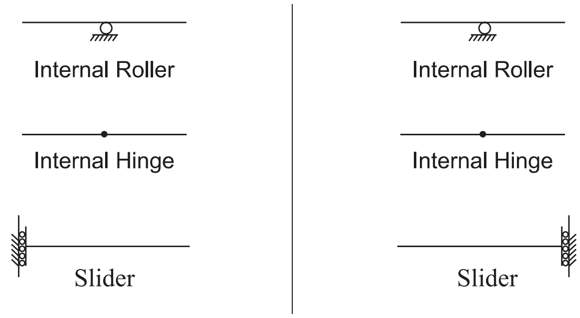
Slope at any point in real beam = Shear at that point in conjugate beam

$$M = \int\left(\int w\,dx\right)dx$$
$$\downarrow \qquad \uparrow$$
$$y = \int\left(\int \frac{M}{EI}dx\right)dx$$

Deflection at any point in real beam = BM at that point in conjugate beam

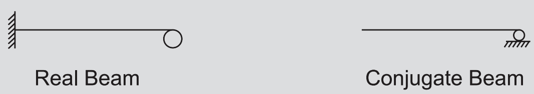
Real Beam | **Conjugate Beam**





NOTE:- (1) Area moment theorem requires understanding of geometry of deflected shape and applicable only when deflected shape is continuous, while in conjugate beam method, principle of statics is used. Hence, this method can also be used when deflected shape is not continuous i.e, Internal Hinge case.

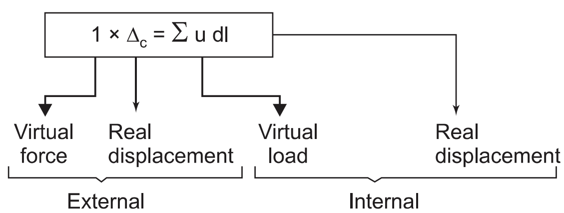
(2)



A **statically intermediate** real beam can have **unstable** conjugate beam.

(6) **Method of virtual work (Unit load method)**

External virtual work = Internal virtual work



So, $$1 \times \Delta = \int_0^L \frac{m\ M\ dx}{EI}$$ $$1 \times \theta = \int_0^L \frac{m_\theta\ M\ dx}{EI}$$

Note:- Unit load method can be applied to plastic range of stress-strain also, but $d\theta$ will not be equal to $\frac{M}{EI}dx$

(7) **Castigliano's theorem (Method of least work – its 2nd theorem)**

$$\boxed{\Delta = \frac{\partial U}{\partial P}} \qquad \boxed{\theta = \frac{\partial U}{\partial M}}$$

For beam's and frames $U = \frac{M^2\,dx}{2EI}$

So, $$\boxed{\Delta = \int_0^L \frac{M \frac{\partial M}{\partial P}\,dx}{EI}} \qquad \boxed{\theta = \int_0^L \frac{M \frac{\partial M}{\partial m}\,dx}{EI}}$$

Note:- This theorem is applicable only when there is constant temperature, unyielding support and linear elastic material response.

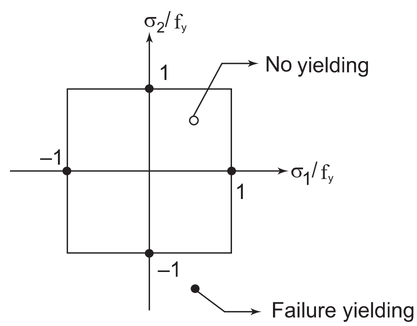
5 Theories of Failure

Under uniaxial tension or compression practically, yielding begins at the yield strength at which plastic deformation is significant. But when several components exist, the yielding depends on some combination of these components. The theory of failure is used to establish, the behaviour of material subjected to **simple tension** or **compression**, the point at which **failure** will occur under any type of combined loading. These theories are applicable to **static loading** only.

(1) **Maximum principal stress theory (Rankine's theory, Lame's theory are max stress theory)**

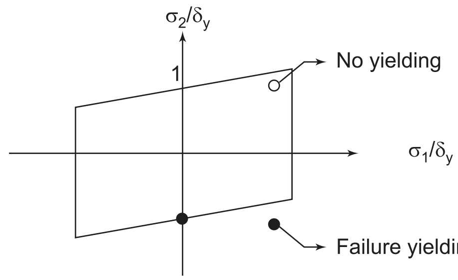
$$\boxed{\theta \leq \frac{fy}{FOS}}$$

Applicable for brittle material



(2) **Max principal strain theory (St. venant theory)**

$$\boxed{\sigma_1 - \mu(\sigma_2 + \sigma_3) \leq \frac{fy}{FOS}}$$

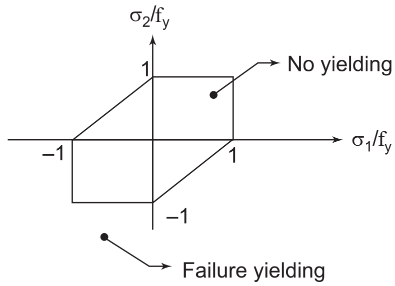


Satisfactorily applicable to brittle material, but over estimates the strength of ductile material. Even not suitable for pure shear case.

(3) **Max shear stress theory (Tresca, Guest, coulomb theory)**

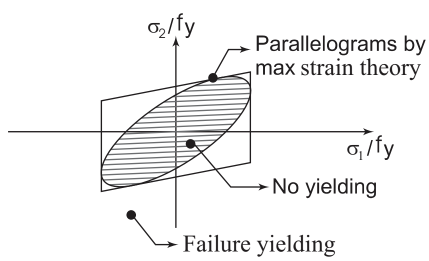
$$\text{Max of}\left[\left|\frac{\sigma_{max}-\sigma_{min}}{2}\right|.\left|\frac{\sigma_{max}}{2}\right|.\left|\frac{\sigma_{min}}{2}\right|\right] \le \frac{fy}{2(FOS)}$$

Applicable for ductile material and gives the most conservative design out of various other theories of failure



(4) **Maximum strain energy theory (Beltrami - Haigh theory)**

$$\left[\sigma_1^2+\sigma_2^2+\sigma_3^2-2\mu\left(\sigma_1\sigma_2+\sigma_2\sigma_3+\sigma_3\sigma_1\right)\right] \le \left(\frac{fy}{FOS}\right)^2$$

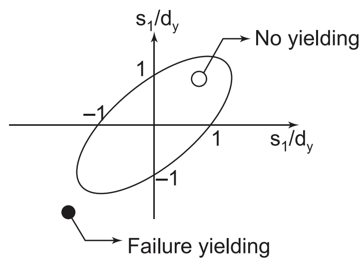


Applicable for ductile material and not suitable for brittle material or pure shear case.

(5) **Max shear strain energy theory (Distortion energy theory) – Huber-Hencky von mises theory**

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{2}\left[(\sigma_1-\sigma_2)^2+(\sigma_2-\sigma_3)^2+(\sigma_3-\sigma_1)^2\right]\le\left(\frac{fy}{FOS}\right)^2}$$

Applicable in pure shear case



(6) **Octahedral shear stress theory**

$$\boxed{\sigma_1^2+\sigma_2^2+\sigma_1\sigma_2\left(\frac{fy}{FOS}\right)^2}$$

Applicable to ductile material in pure shear case

NOTE:

Total strain energy = volumetric strain energy + Distortion energy.

Volumetric strain energy = $\frac{1}{2}\times$ volumetric stress × volumetric strain

Volumetric strain energy $=\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\sigma_1+\sigma_2+\sigma_3}{3}\right)\left(\frac{(\sigma_1+\sigma_2+\sigma_3)(1-2\mu)}{E}\right)$

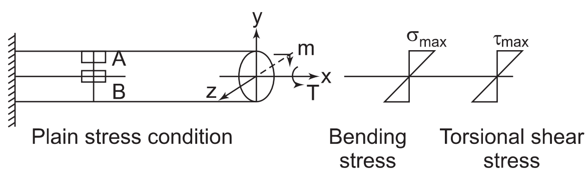
Total strain energy $=\frac{1}{2E}\left[\sigma_1^2+\sigma_2^2+\sigma_3^2-2\mu\,(\sigma_1\sigma_2+\sigma_2\sigma_3+\sigma_3\sigma_1)\right]$ ..(1)

Hence, (2)-(1) =

$$\boxed{\text{Distortion Energy}=\frac{1}{12G}\left[(\sigma_1-\sigma_2)^2+(\sigma_2-\sigma_3)^2+(\sigma_3-\sigma_1)^2\right]}$$

6 Combined Stress

Combined Bending and Torsion



For point A:-

$$\tau_{max} = \frac{16T}{\pi D^3} \qquad \sigma_{max} = \frac{32M}{\pi D^3}$$

For point B:-

$$\tau_{xy} = \frac{-16T}{\pi D^3}$$

Principal Stresses at A:-

$$\sigma_{max/min} = \frac{16T}{\pi D^3}\left[M \pm \sqrt{M^2 + T^2}\right]$$

$$\tau_{max} = \frac{16T}{\pi D^3}\left(\sqrt{M^2 + T^2}\right)$$

Principal Stresses at B:- $\boxed{\sigma_{max/min} = \pm\frac{16T}{\pi D^3}}$

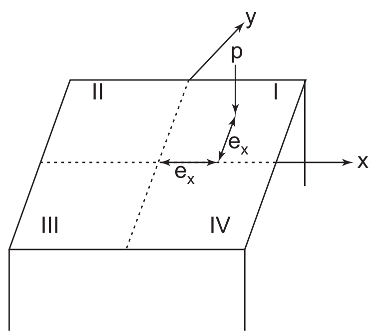
Equivalent Moment $\boxed{M_e = \frac{1}{2}\left(M \pm \sqrt{M^2 + T^2}\right)}$

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

Combined Bending and Axial Force

$$\sigma = \frac{-P}{A} - \frac{(Pe_x)x}{I_y} - \frac{(Pe_y)y}{I_x}$$

(–ve means compressive)

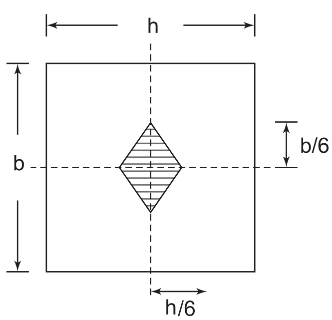


Equation of Neutral axis (put σ = 0)

$$\left(\frac{e_x}{r_y^2}\right)x + \left(\frac{e_y}{r_x^2}\right)y = 1$$

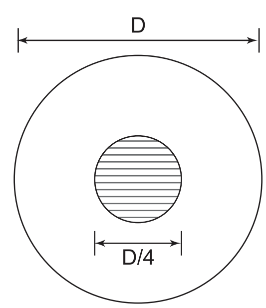
Kern:- It is the area of the x-section on which if compressive loading occurs then there will be no tension anywhere on the entire x-section (when bending occurs due to axial force)

Kern for Rectangular Section



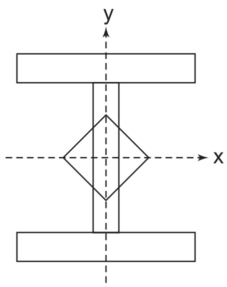
Rhombus shape

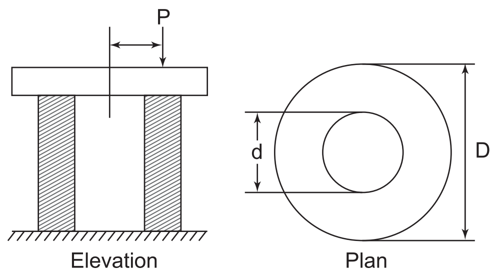
Kern for Circular Section



Circular shape of diameter=D/4

Kern for I-section **Kern for hallow circular section**





Rhombus shape

$$\text{Dia of Kern} = \frac{D^2 + d^2}{4D}$$