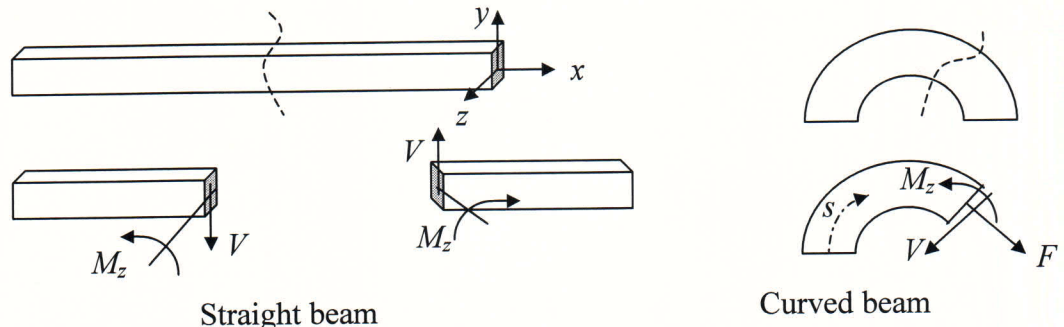


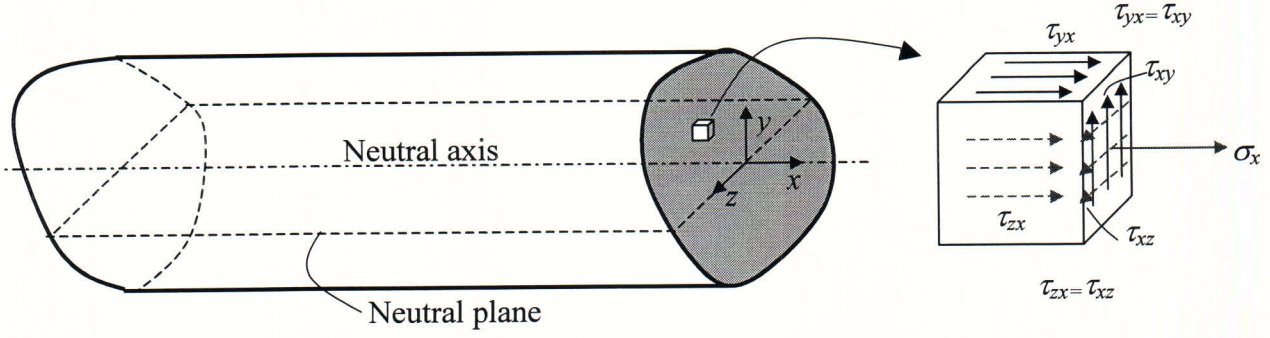
## Beams – Review of straight beams and introducing curved beams

Beams are one-dimensional models of slender 3-D elastic continua. They can be subject to axial forces like bars and their behavior is same as bars in this case. Now, we will study the effects of loads perpendicular to the axis, called transverse loads. Transverse loads can act either in the  $y$  direction or  $z$  direction for a beam shown in the figure below. The effect of transverse loads is to bend the beam. Loads in the  $y$  direction will bend it in the  $xy$ -plane while the  $z$ -loads bend it in the  $xz$ -plane. In what follows, we will only consider transverse loads in the  $y$  direction because the effects are the same for  $z$ -loads as well. Additionally, a beam may also be subject to torque (i.e., moments about the axial direction) loads. Torque loads cause the beam to twist about its axis.

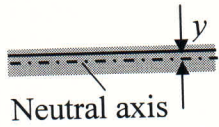
When you cut a portion of a beam and make it free-body, on the cross-section at the point where it is cut, a vertical shear force  $V$ , and a bending moment  $M_z$  will exist as reactions to keep the free-body in static equilibrium with external forces and support reactions. Our sign convention for positive values is shown in the figure. For a curved beam, the axis is curved. In it, transverse loads also create an axial reaction force  $F$ , as shown. Drawing shear force and bending moment (and axial force) diagrams for curved beams is same as it is for straight beams. The difference is only that we should move along the curved axis with a path variable  $s$  instead of  $x$ . The transverse loads are always normal (i.e., perpendicular) to the axis.



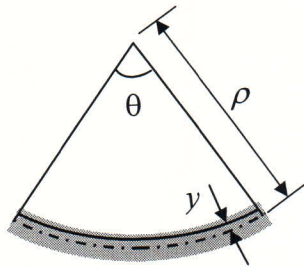
As can be imagined, when the beam bends, say concave down, the lines parallel to the axis but above it contract and the ones below it elongate. So, there must exist a line that neither elongate nor contracts. This is called the neutral axis and taken as the axis of the beam. The  $xz$ -plane containing the neutral axis is called the neutral plane. See the figure below. Since beam is a one-dimensional model, we only consider stresses that involve the axial direction, i.e.,  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\tau_{xy}$ , and  $\tau_{xz}$ . These are shown for an infinitesimally small cube taken inside a beam.



### Straight beam in pure bending



Before bedding



After

$$\text{Axial strain} = \epsilon_x = \frac{(\rho - y)\theta - \rho\theta}{\rho\theta} = \frac{-y}{\rho}$$

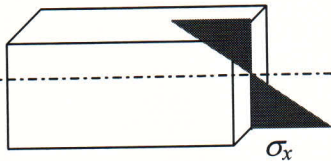
$$\epsilon_m = |\epsilon_{\max}| = \frac{c}{\rho}$$

$c$  = max. absolute distance from the neutral axis of the farthest point on c/s.

$$\rho = \frac{c}{\epsilon_m} \Rightarrow \epsilon_x = \frac{-y}{c} \epsilon_m$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_x = \text{axial stress} = \frac{-y}{c} E \epsilon_m = \frac{-y}{c} \sigma_m$$

$\sigma_x$  is linear in  $y$ .



where is the neutral axis?

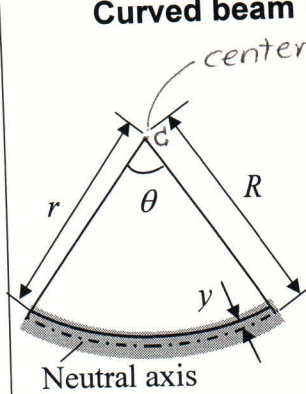
comes from force-balance in the  $x$  direction at the c/s.

$$\Sigma F_x = 0 \Rightarrow \int \sigma_x dA = 0$$

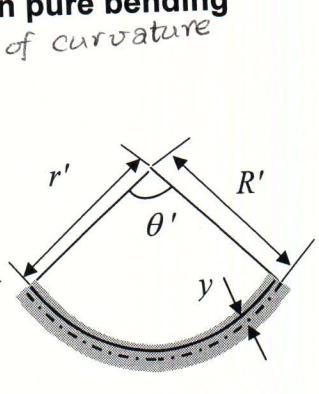
$$\Rightarrow -\frac{\sigma_m}{c} \int y dA = 0$$

This is true only if the neutral axis passes through the centroid of the c/s.

### Curved beam in pure bending



Before bedding



After

$$\theta' = \theta + \Delta\theta$$

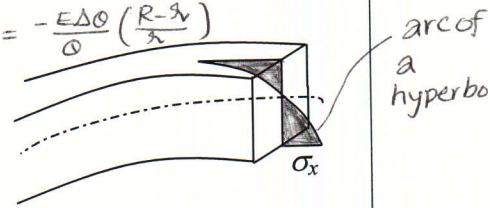
$R\theta = R'\theta'$  (because neutral axis doesn't contract or elongate)

$$\epsilon_x = \frac{r'\theta' - r\theta}{r\theta} = \frac{(R' - y)\theta' - (R - y)\theta}{r\theta}$$

$$= \frac{-y\Delta\theta}{\theta(R - y)} \quad \left\{ \text{using } R\theta = R'\theta' \right\}$$

$$\sigma_x = \frac{-E y \Delta\theta}{\theta(R - y)} = \frac{-E \Delta\theta}{\theta} \left( \frac{R - \bar{r}}{\bar{r}} \right)$$

$\sigma_x$  is not linear in  $y$ .



where is the neutral axis?

$$\Sigma F_x = 0 \Rightarrow \int \sigma_x dA = 0$$

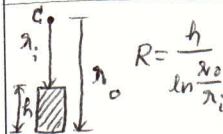
$$\Rightarrow \frac{-E \Delta\theta}{\theta} \int \frac{R - \bar{r}}{\bar{r}} dA = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{R}{\bar{r}} dA - \int \frac{dA}{\bar{r}} = 0 \Rightarrow R = \frac{A}{\int \frac{dA}{\bar{r}}}$$

$$\text{Recall that } \bar{r} = \frac{1}{A} \int \bar{r} dA$$

$\bar{r}$  = distance from the center of curvature to the centroid of the c/s.

$$e = \bar{r} - R = \frac{1}{A} \int \bar{r} dA - \frac{A}{\int \frac{dA}{\bar{r}}}$$



$$R = \frac{1}{2} \left( \bar{r} + \sqrt{\bar{r}^2 - e^2} \right)$$

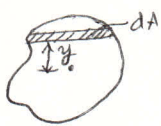


Magnitude of  $\sigma_m$ ?

Comes from z-moment balance.

$$\Sigma M_z = 0 \Rightarrow \int y \sigma_x dA + M = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\sigma_m}{c} \int y^2 dA = M$$



defined as second moment of inertia of c/s area.

$$\therefore \sigma_m = \frac{Mc}{I} \Rightarrow \sigma_x = -\frac{My}{I}$$

In fact  $M$  is  $M_z$  and  $I$  is  $I_z$ .

Recall that we are only considering transverse loads in the y-direction.

If we consider z-transverse loads, there will be  $M_y$  too.

In general for a beam with y and z transverse loads,

$$\sigma_x = -\frac{M_z y}{I_z} + \frac{M_y z}{I_y}$$

This "+" is correct in our sign convention.

For a beam with 3-D loads, both  $M_z$  and  $M_y$  become relevant. If there are axial loads,  $\frac{F}{A}$  also needs to be added to the mix in computing  $\sigma_x$ .

Isn't it wonderful that Hooke's law and static equilibrium gives so much information about beams?

Magnitude of  $\sigma_x$ ?

(Note we still don't know  $\frac{\Delta \theta}{\theta}$ ).

Again, it comes from z-moment balance.

$$\Sigma M_z = 0 \Rightarrow \int y \sigma_x dA + M_z = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{E \Delta \theta}{\theta} \frac{R-y}{r} y dA = M_z$$

Noting that  $y = R-r$ ,

$$\Rightarrow \frac{E \Delta \theta}{\theta} \left\{ \int \frac{(R-r)^2}{r} dA \right\} = M_z$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{E \Delta \theta}{\theta} \left\{ \int \frac{R^2}{r} dA + \int r dA - \int 2Rr dA \right\} = M_z$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{E \Delta \theta}{\theta} \left\{ RA + \bar{r} A - 2RA \right\} = M_z$$

$$\because R = \frac{A}{\int \frac{dA}{r}} \quad \because \bar{r} = \frac{\int r dA}{A}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{E \Delta \theta}{\theta} = \frac{M_z}{A(\bar{r}-R)} = \frac{M_z}{Ae}$$

Since  $\sigma_x = -\frac{E \Delta \theta}{\theta} \frac{y}{(R-y)}$ , the above equation gives

$$\sigma_x = \frac{-M_z y}{Ae(R-y)} = \frac{M(R-r)}{Ae r}$$

## Deflection of the neutral axis

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{\epsilon_m}{c} = \frac{\sigma_m}{EC} = \frac{mc}{I} \cdot \frac{1}{EC} = \frac{M}{EI}$$

$$\frac{M}{EI} = \frac{1}{\rho} = \text{curvature}$$

Euler-Bernoulli theorem

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \text{curvature} = \frac{w''}{(1+w'^2)^{3/2}}$$

$w$  = transverse deflection of the neutral axis as a function of  $x$ ; +ve downward

$$w' = \frac{dw}{dx} \quad w'' = \frac{d^2w}{dx^2}$$

For small deflections,  $w'^2$  can be neglected.

$$\therefore \frac{1}{\rho} \approx w''$$

$$\Rightarrow w'' = \frac{M}{EI} \quad \& \quad EIw'' = M$$

Since  $\frac{dM}{dx} = V$  and  $\frac{dV}{dx} = f = \text{distributed load,}$

we can write

$$M = EIw''$$

$$V = EIw''' = EI \frac{d^3w}{dx^3}$$

$$f = EIw^{(4)} = EI \frac{d^4w}{dx^4}$$

## Deflection of the neutral axis

$$R\theta = R'\theta' \quad (\text{see what we had before})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{R'} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{\theta'}{\theta}$$

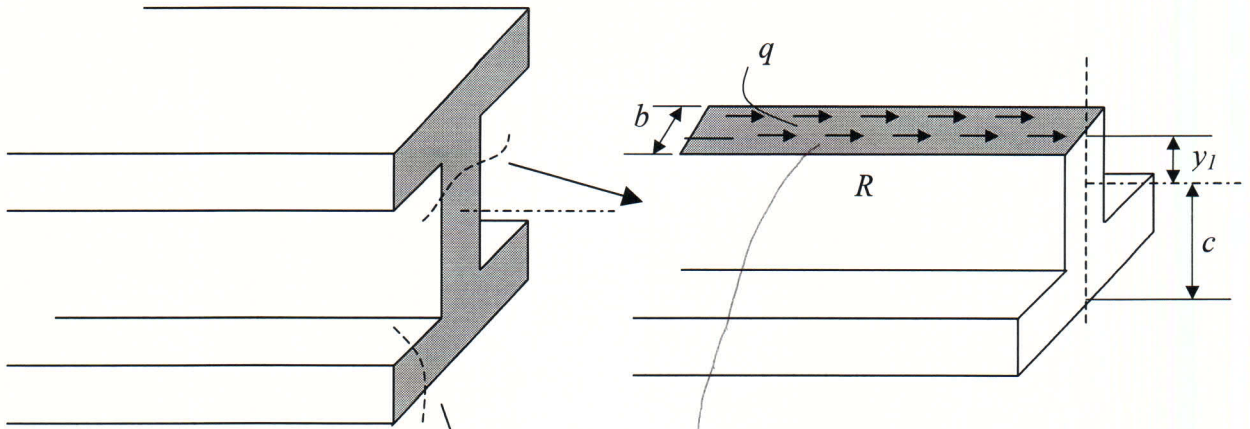
$$= \frac{1}{R} \left( \frac{\theta + \Delta\theta}{\theta} \right) = \frac{1}{R} \left( 1 + \frac{\Delta\theta}{\theta} \right)$$

$$\frac{\Delta\theta}{\theta} = \frac{M_z}{EAe}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{R'} - \frac{1}{R} = \frac{M}{EAeR}$$

This can be used to compute the transverse deflection.

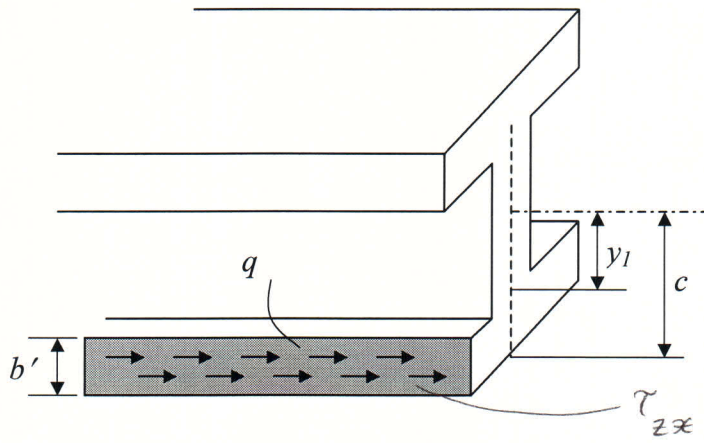
## Shear stress due to bending of beams



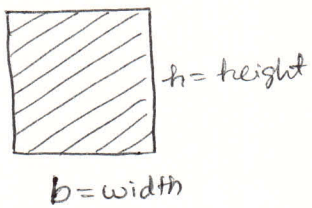
$$\tau_{xy} = \frac{VQ}{Ib} = \tau_{yx}$$

$$\text{Shear flow} = q = \frac{VQ}{I}$$

$$Q = \int_{y_1}^c y \, dA$$



$$\tau_{zx} = \tau_{xz} = \frac{Vq}{Ib'}$$



$$Q = \frac{b}{2} \left( \frac{h^2}{4} - y_1^2 \right)$$

$$\tau = \frac{V}{2I} \left( \frac{h^2}{4} - y_1^2 \right) \Rightarrow \tau_{\max} = \frac{3V}{2A}$$

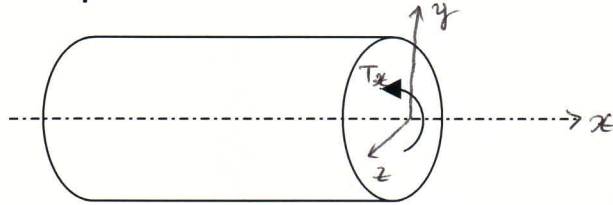


$$Q = \frac{2}{3} (r^2 - y_1^2)$$

$$\tau = \frac{4V}{3\pi r^2} \left( 1 - \frac{y_1^2}{r^2} \right)$$

$$\tau_{\max} = \frac{4V}{3A}$$

**Shear stress due to torque load on a beam**



$$\tau_{xy} = \frac{T r'}{J}$$

$r'$  = distance from center to any point on c/s

$$J = \int r'^2 dA = \text{polar moment of inertia of c/s}$$

$$= \frac{\pi d^4}{32} \text{ for a circle c/s}$$

$\Rightarrow \tau_{max} = \frac{T r}{J}$   
 $r$  = radius of circle.

For rectangular c/s,

$$\tau_{xy} = \frac{T}{Q} ; Q = \frac{8a^2b^2}{3a+1.8b}$$

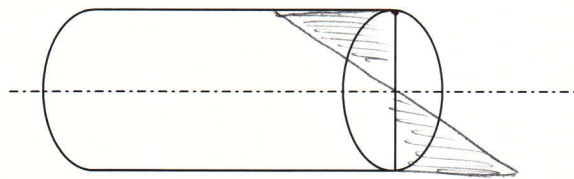
Twists

$$\theta = \frac{Tl}{JG} \text{ for circular c/s}$$

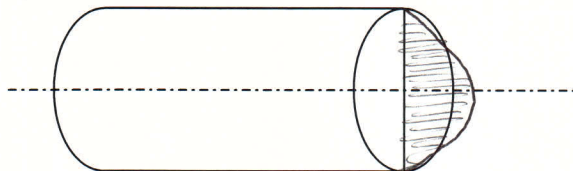
$$= \frac{Tl}{K_G} \text{ for rect. c/s, } K = ab^3 \left( \frac{16}{3} - 3.36 \frac{b}{a} \left( 1 - \frac{b^4}{12a^4} \right) \right)$$

$G$  = rigidity modulus  
 $= \frac{E}{2(1+\nu)}$

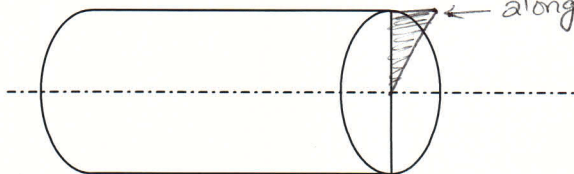
**For a beam with circular cross-section with transverse loads and torque....**



Normal stress due to bending,  $\sigma_x$



Shear stress due to bending,  $\tau_{xy}$



Shear stress due to torsion,  $\tau_{xy}$

← along all radii in all directions



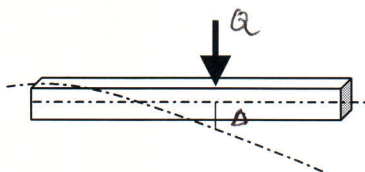
### Strain energies in bars and beams

Type of loading	Stress	Strain	Strain energy in terms of loads and material properties	Strain energy in terms of deflections and material properties
Axial				
Bending moment				
Vertical shear				
Torque				

### Castiglianos theorem

Castiglianos theorem is one of the powerful applications of energy methods and is very helpful in determining the deflections at specific points without solving for deflections everywhere. It is also very useful in statically indeterminate structures to determine unknown reaction forces because it facilitates determination of deflections at specific points without much work. The theorem states that the deflection at a point is equal to the partial derivative of the strain energy taken with respect to a dummy (or real) load applied at the point of interest in the direction of interest. Mathematically,

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial(SE)}{\partial Q}$$



Since we always imply a moment load when we say a load, the theorem can also be used to compute deflections. Then, the load Q is interpreted as a moment. The deflection determined using the theorem is the slope at the point where the moment is applied.

$$\theta = \frac{\partial(SE)}{\partial Q}$$



In order to apply this theorem, we just need to compute the strain energy symbolically in terms of the load Q. If a real load does not exist at that point, we add a dummy load. After we get the expression for the deflection (or slope), we simply substitute  $Q = 0$ . It is just as easy!