

AS3020: Aerospace Structures Module 3: Introduction to Elasticity

Instructor: Nidish Narayanaa Balaji

Dept. of Aerospace Engg., IIT-Madras, Chennai

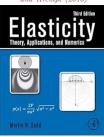
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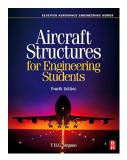
Chapters 1-5 in Lai, Rubin, and Krempl (2010)



 $Chapters \ 1\text{--}5 \ in \ Sadd \ (2009)$ 

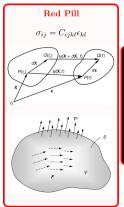


Chapter 5 in Budynas, Nisbett, and Shigley (2015)

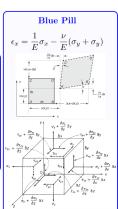


Chapters 1,2 in Megson (2013)

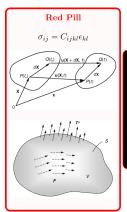
### We have to make a choice!



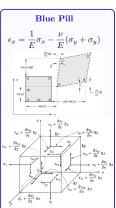




# We have to make a choice!







### 1.1. Vector Convention, Notation I

1. Mathematical Rudiments

### Vector Notation: $\underline{v} = \underline{v}^T \underline{\underline{e}}$

- We will put a  $(\cdot)$  underneath a symbol to denote that it is **a vector** (e.g.,  $\underline{v}$ ).
- We will put a  $(\cdot)$  underneath a symbol to denote that it is **an array**, i.e., a collection of

numbers (e.g., 
$$\underline{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
).

Note that 
$$\underline{\underline{e}} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{e_1} \\ \underline{e_2} \\ \underline{e_3} \end{bmatrix}$$
, i.e., a collection of unit vectors.

• For tensors we will put two bars below:  $\underline{\bigodot}$ . Correspondingly, matrices will be written with two tilde underneath  $\underline{\bigodot}$ .

### Einstein's Summation Convention: Dummy Indices

$$s = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i \to a_i x_i = a_k x_k = a_m x_m$$

Consider 
$$\alpha = a_{ij}x_ix_j$$
,  $\underline{v} = v_i\underline{e_i}$ ,  $\underline{\underline{T}} = T_{ij}\underline{e_i}\,\underline{e_j}$ 

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1.1. Vector Convention, Notation II

### Inner Products

- We will use both  $\langle u, v \rangle$  and  $u \cdot v$  to denote the inner product of u and v.
- For tensors we use  $\langle \underline{T}, \underline{Q} \rangle$  and  $\underline{T}: \underline{Q}$  to denote tensor inner products.
- For tensors operating on vectors, we have both the left contraction and right contraction as  $\langle \underline{u}\,,\underline{T}\,\rangle \text{ and } \langle \underline{T}\,,\underline{u}\,\rangle \text{ respectively (also }\underline{u}\,\cdot\underline{\underline{T}} \text{ and }\underline{\underline{T}}\,\cdot\underline{u}\,).$

$$\textbf{Note: } \langle \underline{v},\underline{u} \rangle = \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u} = \underline{v}^T \underline{u}; \langle \underline{\underline{T}},\underline{v} \rangle = \underline{\underline{T}} \cdot \underline{v} = (\underbrace{\underline{T}}\underline{v})^T \underline{\underline{e}}; \langle \underline{u}, \langle \underline{\underline{T}},\underline{v} \rangle \rangle = \underline{u} \cdot \underline{\underline{T}} \cdot \underline{v} = \underline{u}^T \underline{\underline{T}}\underline{v}.$$

#### Free Indices

$$\left. \begin{array}{ll} y_1 &= a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 \\ y_2 &= a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 \\ y_3 &= a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33}x_3 \end{array} \right\} \implies y_i = a_{ij}x_j$$

Consider  $T_{ij} = A_{im}A_{im}$ .

# 1.1. Vector Convention, Notation III

#### 1. Mathematical Rudiments

### The Kronecker Delta

$$\begin{split} \delta_{ij} &:= \langle \underline{e_i}\,,\underline{e_j}\,\rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & i=j\\ 0 & i\neq j \end{cases} \\ \text{Consider } C_{ijkl} &= \delta_{ik}\delta_{jl}, \\ C_{ijkl} &= \delta_{il}\delta_{jk}. \end{split}$$

### The Levi-Civita Symbol

$$\epsilon_{ijk} := \langle \underline{e_i} \times \underline{e_j}, \underline{e_k} \rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \{(i,j,k)\} \in \{(1,2,3),(2,3,1),(3,1,2)\} \\ -1 & \text{if } \{(i,j,k)\} \in \{(3,2,1),(2,1,3),(1,3,2)\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note:  $e_i \times e_i = \epsilon_{ijk} e_k$ . Consider  $a \cdot (b \times c)$ ,  $\Delta F$ .

Property: 
$$\epsilon_{ijk}\epsilon_{mnk} = \delta_{im}\delta_{jn} - \delta_{in}\delta_{jm}$$

$$\begin{split} \epsilon_{ijk}\epsilon_{mnk} &= (\epsilon_{ijk}\underline{e_k}) \cdot (\epsilon_{mnk}\underline{e_k}) = (\underline{e_i} \times \underline{e_j}) \cdot (\underline{e_m} \times \underline{e_n}) \\ (\underline{e_i} \times \underline{e_j}) \cdot (\underline{e_m} \times \underline{e_n}) &= \begin{cases} 1, & \underline{e_i} \times \underline{e_j} = \underline{e_m} \times \underline{e_n} \\ -1, & \underline{e_i} \times \underline{e_j} = -\underline{e_m} \times \underline{e_n} = \underline{e_n} \times \underline{e_m} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \delta_{im}\delta_{jn} - \delta_{in}\delta_{jm} \end{bmatrix} \end{split}$$

Consider  $(a \times b) \cdot (c \times d)$  (Lagrange's identity).



# 1.1. Vector Convention, Notation IV 1. Mathematical Rudiments

#### **Derivative Notation**

$$\underline{\nabla}\,\underline{u}\,\equiv\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j}:=u_{i,j}.$$

In **Operator Notation**, we may write  $\underline{\nabla}(\cdot) = \frac{\partial(\cdot)}{\partial x_1} \underline{e}_1 + \frac{\partial(\cdot)}{\partial x_2} \underline{e}_2 + \frac{\partial(\cdot)}{\partial x_2} \underline{e}_3$ . Exercise: Express the following in indicial notation:  $\underline{\nabla} \underline{u}, \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{u}, \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{u}, \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{u}, \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{u}$ ,

$$\Delta \underline{u} \, = \nabla^2 \underline{u} \, = \underline{\nabla} \, \cdot (\underline{\nabla} \, \underline{u} \,), \, \underline{\nabla} \, \cdot (\underline{\nabla} \, \times \underline{u} \,), \, \underline{\nabla} \, \times \underline{\nabla} \, \times \underline{u} \,, \, \underline{\nabla} \, \cdot \underline{\sigma} \,.$$

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Indicial notation leads to some very nifty tricks while dealing with classical matrix algebra.

Consider the following:

Determinant of a Matrix is Written as a scalar triple product of its columns or row vectors:

1.2. Matrix Algebra in Indicial Notation

$$\underbrace{A}_{\approx} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow A_{ij}.$$

$$det(\underbrace{A}) = \langle A_{1i}\underline{e_i} \times A_{2j}\underline{e_j}, A_{3k}\underline{e_k} \rangle = \epsilon_{ijk}A_{1i}A_{2j}A_{3k}$$
$$= \langle A_{i1}\underline{e_i} \times A_{j2}\underline{e_j}, A_{k3}\underline{e_k} \rangle = \epsilon_{ijk}A_{i1}A_{j2}A_{k3}.$$

 $Adj(A)_{1i} = \epsilon_{ijk}A_{j2}A_{k3}$ , and  $Adj(\mathcal{A})_{i1} = \epsilon_{ijk} A_{2j} A_{3k}.$ 

You should be able to verify easily that  $Adj(\underline{A})\underline{A} = det(\underline{A})\underline{I}.$ 

Rows(Columns) of the adjoint of a Matrix can be written as the

components of the cross product

of the remaining Column(Row) vectors

The derivative of the determinant is simplified as

$$\begin{split} \frac{d}{dp}(\det(\underbrace{A})) &= \frac{d}{dp}(\epsilon_{ijk}A_{1i}A_{2j}A_{3k}) = \epsilon_{ijk}\left(A'_{1i}A_{2j}A_{3k} + A_{1i}A'_{2j}A_{3k} + A_{1i}A_{2j}A'_{3k}\right) \\ &= Adj(\underbrace{A})_{i1}A'_{1i} + Adj(\underbrace{A})_{j2}A'_{2j} + Adj(\underbrace{A})_{k3}A'_{3k} = Adj(\underbrace{A})_{ij}A'_{ji} \\ &= trace(Adj(\underbrace{A})_{ij}A'_{jk}) = trace(Adj(\underbrace{A})\underline{A}'). \end{split}$$

This will turn out to be quite an important result later on.

### 1.3. Some Multi-Variate Calculus

1. Mathematical Rudiments

#### Differential Calculus

- Scalar, vector fields
- Gradients, directional derivative
- Divergence, Curl

#### Observe:

$$\frac{\nabla \times (\nabla \cdot \phi) = \epsilon_{ijk} \phi_{,kj} \underline{e_i}}{\text{But } \epsilon_{ijk} \phi_{,kj} = -\epsilon_{ikj} \phi_{,jk}},$$

So for **continuously differentiable**  $\phi$ , we have

$$\epsilon_{ijk}\phi_{,jk} = 0 \Longrightarrow \nabla \times (\nabla \cdot \phi) = 0$$
.

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#### Differential Calculus

1.3. Some Multi-Variate Calculus

- Scalar, vector fields
- Gradients, directional derivative
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$$\epsilon_{ijk}\phi_{,jk} = 0 \Longrightarrow \nabla \times (\nabla \cdot \phi) = 0$$
.

#### Curvilinear Coordinates

 Scalar field φ gradient:  $\delta\phi = \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x_1}\delta x_1 + \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x_2}\delta x_2$ 

$$= \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial r} \delta r + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \theta} \delta \theta$$

Polar bases

$$\begin{array}{l} \underline{e}_{\,r} = C_{\theta}\underline{e}_{\,1} + S_{\theta}\underline{e}_{\,2} \implies \delta\underline{e}_{\,r} = \delta\theta\underline{e}_{\,\theta} \\ \underline{e}_{\,\theta} = -S_{\theta}\underline{e}_{\,1} + C_{\theta}\underline{e}_{\,2} \implies \delta\underline{e}_{\,\theta} = -\delta\theta\underline{e}_{\,r} \end{array}$$

Position vector

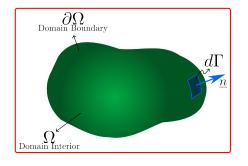
$$\begin{split} \delta \underline{r} &= \delta r \underline{e}_{\,r} + r \delta \underline{e}_{\,r} \\ &= \delta r \underline{e}_{\,r} + r \delta \theta \underline{e}_{\,\theta} \end{split}$$

• For  $\delta \phi = \nabla \phi \cdot \delta r$ .

$$\nabla \phi = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial r} \underline{e}_r + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \theta} \underline{e}_\theta$$

### 1.3. Some Multi-Variate Calculus

1. Mathematical Rudiments



#### Integral Calculus

• Gauss Divergence Theorem

$$\int_{\Omega} F_{,i} d\Omega = \int_{\partial \Omega} \overbrace{\langle F\underline{e_i}\,, n_j\underline{e_j} \rangle}^{Fn_i} d\Gamma$$

This is a general result that works for all objects!

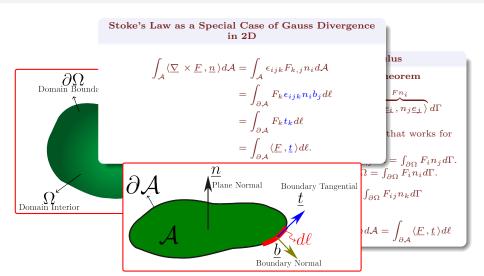
- Vectors:  $\int_{\Omega} F_{i,j} d\Omega = \int_{\partial \Omega} F_i n_j d\Gamma$ . Also  $\int_{\Omega} F_{i,i} d\Omega = \int_{\partial \Omega} F_i n_i d\Gamma$ .
- Tensors:  $\int_{\Omega} F_{ij,k} d\Omega = \int_{\partial \Omega} F_{ij} n_k d\Gamma$
- Stoke's Law:

$$\int_{\mathcal{A}} \langle (\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{F}), \underline{n} \rangle d\mathcal{A} = \int_{\partial \mathcal{A}} \langle \underline{F}, \underline{t} \rangle d\ell$$

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### 1. Mathematical Rudiments

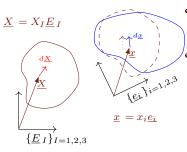
1.3. Some Multi-Variate Calculus



### 2. Deformations and Strain

#### 2.1. The Basic Premise

How to describe the change in shape independently of rigid body motions?



How does  $d\underline{X}$  transform into  $d\underline{x}$ ?

$$x = X + u$$

• The deformations are mapped as

Lagrangian 
$$x_i = x_i(\underline{X})$$
  
Eulerian  $X_i = X_i(\underline{x})$ 

• Under the Lagrangian description we have,

$$dx_i = \overbrace{\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial X_I}}^{F_{iI}} dX_I$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Length} \ ds^2 = ||d\underline{x}||^2 = dx_i dx_i = \\ \ dX_I \left[ \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial X_I} \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial X_J} \right] dX_J \\ \text{Angle} \ ds_1 ds_2 \cos \theta = dx_i dx_j = \\ \ dX_I \left[ \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial X_I} \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial X_J} \right] dX_J \end{array}$$



2. Deformations and Strain

• A vector  $\underline{v}$  is written as

$$\underline{v} = v_i \underline{e_i}$$
,

and is defined as a linear combination of the bases of its vector-space.

- Suppose I have another coordinate system spanning the same vector-space, this comes with its own set of basis vectors  $\{\underline{e_i}'\}_{i=1,\dots,n}$ .
- If the vector represents a physical/geometrical measurement, it can not change based on coordinate system, i.e., it is objective.
- So, the following equality must hold:

$$\underline{v} = v_i \underline{e_i} = v_i' \underline{e_i}',$$

with  $v_i$  and  $v'_i$  being the components of the same vector under the different coordinate frames.

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### 2.2. Objectivity and Coordinate Transformation 2. Deformations and Strain

• Assuming that both  $\{\underline{e_i}\}$  and  $\{\underline{e_i}'\}$  represent **orthogonal rectilinear coordinate systems** (inner products  $\langle \underline{e_i}, \underline{e_i} \rangle \equiv \langle \underline{e_i}', \underline{e_i}' \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ ), we write down:

$$v_i = \langle \underline{e_i}, \underline{v} \rangle; \quad v'_i = \langle \underline{e_i}', \underline{v} \rangle.$$

• Evaluating  $v'_i$  we obtain,

$$v_i' = \langle \underline{e_i}', v_j \underline{e_j} \rangle = \langle \underline{e_i}', \underline{e_j} \rangle v_j.$$

Denoting  $\langle \underline{e_i}', \underline{e_j} \rangle = Q_{ij}$ , we get our **component tranformation law for a vector**:

$$\boxed{v_i' = Q_{ij}v_j} \Leftrightarrow \boxed{\underline{v}' = \underbrace{Q}_{\widetilde{z}}\underline{v}}.$$

• Using the array notation we have  $\underline{v} = \underline{v}^T \underline{e} = \underline{v}'^T \underline{e}'$ . Substituting the above we can show that the basis vectors themselves also transform (assuming rectilinear transformations) as

$$\boxed{\underline{\underline{e}}' = \underline{\underline{Q}}\underline{\underline{e}}}.$$

# 2.2. Objectivity and Coordinate Transformation: Tensors

2. Deformations and Strain

• We will define a (2nd order) tensor as a linear combination of basis-dyads:

$$\underline{\underline{T}} = T_{ij}\underline{e_i}\underline{e_j} = T'_{ij}\underline{e_i}'\underline{e_j}',$$

where we have required  $\underline{T}$  to be invariant under coordinate change.

• Using a double-contraction operation (dyadic inner product), we write down the components of  $T'_{ij}$  as,

$$\begin{split} T'_{ij} &= \langle \underline{\underline{T}}, \underline{e_i}' \underline{e_j}' \rangle = T_{mn} \langle \underline{e_m} \, \underline{e_n}, \underline{e_i}' \underline{e_j}' \rangle \\ &= T_{mn} \underbrace{\langle \underline{e_i}', \underline{e_m} \rangle}_{Q_{im}} \underbrace{\langle \underline{e_j}', \underline{e_n} \rangle}_{Q_{im}} \\ &= Q_{im} T_{mn} Q_{jn}. \end{split}$$

In array notation we write the components as,

$$\boxed{\underline{\underline{T}}' = \underline{\underline{Q}} \underline{\underline{T}} \underline{\underline{Q}}^T}.$$

For a tensor to be invariant, its components have to transform in this fashion.

2.2. Objectivity and Coordinate Transformation: Summary

#### 2. Deformations and Strain

Supposing I specify a basis change by

$$\underline{\underline{e}}' = \underline{\underline{Q}}\underline{\underline{e}},$$

 $\bullet$  for a vector  $\underline{v}=\underline{v}^T\underline{e}$  to be invariant, its components have to transform as

$$\underline{v}' = \underline{Q}\underline{v}.$$

• for a tensor  $\underline{T} = \underline{T}\underline{e} \otimes \underline{e}$  to be invariant, its components have to transform as

$$\underline{\underline{T}}' = \underbrace{\underline{Q}}_{\widetilde{z}} \underline{\underline{T}} \underbrace{\underline{Q}}^T$$

• If it transforms in any other fashion, then invariance is not guaranteed, or in other words, the quantity is not objective.

# 2.2. Objectivity and Coordinate Transformation: Relationship to Gradients

2. Deformations and Strain

We will now establish a relationship between coordinate transformation and component-gradients.

- Consider an infinitesimal line vector  $d\underline{x} = dx_i \underline{e_i} = dx'_i \underline{e_i}'$ .
- ullet It is obvious that the components  $d\widetilde{x'}$  have to be related to the components  $d\widetilde{x}$ . So we write

$$dx_i' = \frac{\partial x_i'}{\partial x_j} dx_j \tag{1}$$

• By invariance requirements, we have

$$dx_i' = Q_{ij}dx_j. (2)$$

• Comparing eq. (1) and eq. (2) we obtain,

 $Q_{ij} = \frac{\partial x_i'}{\partial x_j} \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{\begin{matrix} Q = grad(\underline{x}') \\ \widetilde{z} \end{matrix}}$ 

 $\xrightarrow{grad(\cdot) \text{ operator } \Longrightarrow \atop gradient \text{ operation}}$ 

## 2.2. Objectivity and Coordinate Transformation: The Deformation Gradient

2. Deformations and Strain

- The deformation gradient  $(F_{iI} = \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial X_I})$  relates quantities in the deformed  $(x_i)$  and the undeformed configurations  $(X_I)$ . So we shall investigate the influence of coordinate change on it.
- $\bullet$  We setup coordinate change as  $\underline{\underline{E}} \to \underline{\overline{\underline{E}}}$  (undeformed configuration coordinate change) and  $\underline{e} \rightarrow \underline{e}'$  (deformed configuration coordinate change) such that the coordinate transformation matrices are

$$\boxed{Q_{IJ}^{(X)} = \frac{\partial \overline{X_I}}{\partial X_J} = \langle \overline{E_I}, \underline{E_J} \rangle} \text{ and } \boxed{Q_{ij}^{(x)} = \frac{\partial x_i'}{\partial x_j} = \langle \underline{e_i}', \underline{e_j} \rangle}$$

Under this coordinate change we have,

mate change we have,
$$\overline{F}'_{iI} = \frac{\partial x'_i}{\partial \overline{X}_I} = \frac{\partial x'_i}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial X_J} \frac{\partial X_J}{\partial \overline{X}_I}$$
We assume orthonormal rectilinear bases, so  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ .
$$= Q^{(x)}_{ij} F_{jJ} (Q^{(X)T})_{JI} \implies \boxed{\overline{E}' = Q^{(x)}_{\widetilde{Z}} F_{Q^{(X)T}}}.$$

This is transforming quite unlike a tensor

 $\underline{Q}^{(x)}$  and  $\underline{Q}^{(X)}$  need not necessarily be the same (we are free to choose measurement coordinates at each instant)

### 2.2. Objectivity and Coordinate Transformation: The Cauchy Deformation Tensor

2. Deformations and Strain

• Now we consider  $C = \tilde{E}^T \tilde{E}$ . Under coordinate change this becomes,

$$\overline{\underline{\zeta}} = \overline{\underline{\xi}}^{T} \overline{\underline{\xi}}' = \left( \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(x)} \underline{\underline{\xi}} \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(X)T} \right)^{T} \left( \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(x)} \underline{\underline{\xi}} \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(X)T} \right) \\
= \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(X)} \underline{\underline{\xi}}^{T} \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(x)T} \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(x)T} \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(x)T} \\
\Longrightarrow \left[ \underline{\underline{\zeta}} = \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(X)} \underline{\underline{\xi}}^{T} \underline{\underline{F}} \underline{\underline{\zeta}}^{(X)T} \right]$$

#### Unlike the deformation gradient...

...this is transforming like a tensor's components!

So it would make sense to define a tensor of the form  $\underline{C} = C_{IJ} \underline{E}_{I} \underline{E}_{J}$ . This is referred to as the Cauchy deformation tensor.

Note that all of the above is merely an aside, motivating the construction of an "objective representation" of deformation. We will next see how this is practically useful.

### 2.3. The Strain Tensor

- 2. Deformations and Strain
  - We are now ready to define the strain tensor based on length change. Denoting  $||d\underline{X}|| = dS$  and  $||d\underline{x}|| = ds$  we write,

$$ds^{2} - dS^{2} = dX_{I} \left( F_{iI} F_{jJ} - \delta_{IJ} \right) dX_{J} = dX^{T} \left[ \underbrace{F}_{\approx}^{T} \underbrace{F}_{\approx} - \underbrace{I}_{\approx} \right] dX$$



• For small changes in length,  $ds^2 - dS^2 = (ds + dS)(ds - dS) \approx 2dS(ds - dS)$ . So the above equation becomes

$$2dS(ds-dS) = d\underline{X} \cdot \left[\underline{\underline{C}} - \underline{\underline{I}}\right] \cdot d\underline{X} \implies \boxed{\frac{ds-dS}{dS} = \left(\frac{d\underline{X}}{dS}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\left[\underline{\underline{C}} - \underline{\underline{I}}\right]\right) \cdot \left(\frac{d\underline{X}}{dS}\right)}.$$

• We hereby come across a convenient objective tensor quantity:

$$\underline{\underline{\mathcal{E}}} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \underline{\underline{C}} - \underline{\underline{I}} \right].$$

Formally  $\underline{\mathcal{E}}$  is known as the Green Lagrange Strain Tensor.



# 2.3. The Strain Tensor: Interpretations

Deformations and Strain

• Let us consider  $dX = dSE_1$ , i.e., in the undeformed configuration the line segment is along  $\underline{e}_1$ . The relative length change for this can be written as

$$\frac{ds - dS}{dS} = (\underline{E}_1) \cdot \underline{\mathcal{E}} \cdot (\underline{E}_1) = \mathcal{E}_{11}.$$

I.e.,  $\mathcal{E}_{11}$  represents the relative elongation of a line segment along the  $\underline{E}_1$  direction in the undeformed state.

(Similarly  $\mathcal{E}_{22}, \mathcal{E}_{33}$  can be interpreted)

- ullet So the diagonal elements of  $\underline{\mathcal{E}}$  represent relative elongations, a.k.a., "straight strains".
- If the undeformed element is along some arbitrary unit vector  $\underline{n}$ , then the relative change in length is given as:

$$\frac{ds - dS}{dS} = \underline{n} \cdot \underline{\underline{E}} \cdot \underline{n}.$$

How about **shape change**?

### 2.3. The Strain Tensor: Interpretations

2. Deformations and Strain

- For considering shape changes, it is not enough just to look at a single line-segment.
- Let us consider 2 line-vectors along the  $\underline{E}_1$  and  $\underline{E}_2$  vectors:  $d\underline{X}^{(A)} = dS^{(A)}\underline{E}_1$ ,  $dX^{(B)} = dS^{(B)}E_2$  (so we have  $dX^{(A)} \cdot dX^{(B)} = 0$ ).
- After deformation, the angle between the two,  $\theta$  can be obtained through the inner product:

$$d\underline{x}^{(A)} \cdot d\underline{x}^{(B)} = ds^{(A)} ds^{(B)} \cos \theta.$$

• Writing  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2} - \gamma_{12}$  and  $ds^{(A)} = (1 + \mathcal{E}_{11})dS^{(A)}$  (similarly for  $ds^{(B)}$ ), the above simplifies as

$$d\underline{X}^{(A)} \cdot \underline{\underline{C}} \cdot d\underline{X}^{(B)} = dS^{(A)} dS^{(B)} (1 + \mathcal{E}_{11}) (1 + \mathcal{E}_{22}) \sin \gamma_{12} \approx \gamma_{12}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} dS^{(A)} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \underbrace{\mathcal{E}}_{\approx} + \underbrace{I}_{\approx} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ dS^{(B)} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \approx dS^{(A)} dS^{(B)} (\gamma_{12} + \underbrace{\mathcal{E}_{11} \gamma_{12} + \mathcal{E}_{22} \gamma_{12} + \mathcal{E}_{11} \mathcal{E}_{22} \gamma_{12}}_{12})$$

$$d\underline{X}^{(B)} \uparrow d\underline{x}^{(B)} \quad dS^{(A)}dS^{(B)}2\mathcal{E}_{12} = dS^{(A)}dS^{(B)}\gamma_{12}.$$

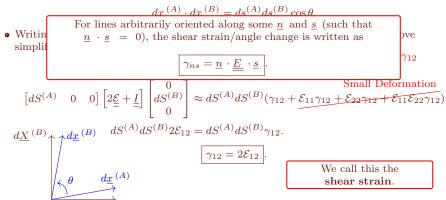
$$\gamma_{12} = 2\mathcal{E}_{12}.$$

$$\gamma_{12} = 2\mathcal{E}_{12}$$

We call this the shear strain.

# 2.3. The Strain Tensor: Interpretations

- 2. Deformations and Strain
  - For considering shape changes, it is **not enough just to look at a single** line-segment.
  - Let us consider 2 line-vectors along the  $\underline{E_1}$  and  $\underline{E_2}$  vectors:  $d\underline{X}^{(A)} = dS^{(A)}\underline{E_1}$ ,  $d\underline{X}^{(B)} = dS^{(B)}\underline{E_2}$  (so we have  $d\underline{X}^{(A)} \cdot d\underline{X}^{(B)} = 0$ ).
  - After deformation, the angle between the two,  $\theta$  can be obtained through the inner product:



## 2.3. The Strain Tensor: In terms of displacement

2. Deformations and Strain

Let us now express strain in terms of the displacement field  $\underline{u}(\underline{X})$ .

• We have  $x_i = X_i + u_i$ . So the deformation gradient is written as,

$$F_{iI} = \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial X_I} = \delta_{iI} + u_{i,I} \Leftrightarrow \underset{\approx}{F} = \underset{\approx}{I} + \underset{\approx}{\nabla} \underline{\underline{\underline{\underline{v}}}}.$$

• Cauchy deformation tensor is written as (with components  $\widetilde{\underline{C}} = \widetilde{\underline{E}}^T \widetilde{\underline{E}}$ ),

$$C_{IJ} = F_{iI}F_{iJ} = \delta_{IJ} + u_{I,J} + u_{J,I} + u_{i,I}u_{i,J}.$$

• From this, the strain tensor is written as (with components  $\underline{\underline{\mathcal{E}}} = \frac{1}{2}(\underline{\underline{C}} - \underline{\underline{I}})$ )

$$\mathcal{E}_{IJ} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u_I}{\partial X_J} + \frac{\partial u_J}{\partial X_I} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial X_I} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial X_J}}_{\text{ignored for small strain}} \right)$$

• Infinitesimal Strain Tensor:  $\left| \mathcal{E}_{IJ} = \frac{1}{2} (u_{I,J} + u_{J,I}) \right|$ .



# 2.3. The Strain Tensor: Volume Change

2. Deformations and Strain

• Consider three <u>arbitrarily oriented</u> vectors  $d\underline{X}^{(1)}$ ,  $d\underline{X}^{(2)}$ ,  $d\underline{X}^{(3)}$  in the undeformed configuration. The volume that they describe is given by

$$dV = \epsilon_{IJK} dX_I^{(1)} dX_J^{(2)} dX_K^{(3)}.$$

• Upon deformation, using the same notation as above, the volume becomes

$$dv = \epsilon_{ijk} dx_i^{(1)} dx_j^{(2)} dx_k^{(3)}.$$

Using the deformation gradient to write this out  $(d\underline{x} = \underline{F}d\underline{X})$ , we have

$$dv = \underbrace{\epsilon_{ijk} F_{iI} F_{jJ} F_{kK}}_{} dX_{I}^{(1)} dX_{J}^{(2)} dX_{K}^{(3)}$$

• We have previously seen that  $\epsilon_{ijk}F_{iI}F_{jJ}F_{kK} = \epsilon_{IJK}det(\widetilde{\underline{E}})$ . Substituting this in the above we get,

$$dv = \epsilon_{IJK} det(\widetilde{\mathfrak{E}}) dX_I^{(1)} dX_J^{(2)} dX_K^{(3)} = det(\widetilde{\mathfrak{E}}) dV.$$

•  $J:=det(\begin{subarray}{c} F\end{subarray})$  is known as the Jacobi determinant.  $\boxed{dv=JdV}$ 



# 2.3. The Strain Tensor: Infinitesimal Volume Change

- 2. Deformations and Strain
  - For the infinitesimal case, the deformation gradient component matrix is expressed as

$$\underset{\approx}{F} = \underset{\approx}{I} + \varepsilon \underbrace{\nabla u},$$

where  $\varepsilon > 0$  is some small number ( $\varepsilon \ll 1$ ).

• Since  $\varepsilon$  is small, we will try to expand out J as a Taylor series in  $\varepsilon$  about  $\varepsilon = 0$ :

$$J(\varepsilon) = J(\varepsilon = 0) + \varepsilon \frac{dJ}{d\epsilon} \Big|_{\varepsilon = 0} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2).$$

#### Derivative of Determinant

$$\frac{d}{dp}\left(det(\underbrace{\widetilde{M}})\right) = trace\left(Adj(\underbrace{\widetilde{M}})\frac{d\underbrace{\widetilde{M}}}{\widetilde{dp}}\right)$$

For invertible M,  $Adj(M) = JM^{-1}$ .

• This simplifies as,

$$\underline{\nabla}\cdot\underline{u}=tr(\underline{\mathcal{E}})$$

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$$J(\varepsilon) = \det(\underline{\underline{I}}) + \varepsilon \left(J(\varepsilon = 0) trace\left(\underline{\underline{I}}^{-1} \underbrace{\overleftarrow{\nabla}}\underline{\underline{u}}\right)\right) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2) \approx 1 + \varepsilon \quad \underbrace{tr(\overleftarrow{\nabla}}\underline{\underline{u}})$$

## 2.3. The Strain Tensor: Infinitesimal Volume Change

2. Deformations and Strain

• Undeformed volume is dV, deformed volume is dv = JdV. So **relative change in volume is** 

$$\frac{dv - dV}{dV} = J - 1.$$

• For the infinitesmial displacement case  $J \approx 1 + tr(\nabla u)$  (we have set  $u \to \varepsilon u$  here). Substituting, we get

$$\frac{dv - dV}{dV} = tr(\nabla u) = u_{I,I} = \mathcal{E}_{II} = tr(\underbrace{\mathcal{E}}_{\widetilde{\Sigma}}).$$

• So the **trace of the strain tensor** is the relative volume change.

### In Summary we have, for the strain tensor,

- Each diagonal element corresponds to stretching/compressing,
- Off-diagonal elements correspond to shearing,
- Trace (sum of diagonal elements) corresponds to volume change.

### Summary

2. Deformations and Strain

- We have defined the deformation gradient matrix  $\widetilde{\mathcal{E}}$  and the strain tensor  $\underline{\underline{\mathcal{E}}}$ .
- Notice: Under no deformation, if you just changed the coordinate frame of observation, \( \tilde{E} \) will change, but \( \tilde{E} \) will not.

#### Rigid Body Motion

$$\underline{x} = \underline{c} + \underline{R}\underline{X}$$

- What is the deformation gradient here?
- What is the infinitesimal strain tensor here?
- What is the finite strain tensor here?
- What should the material **respond to**? What is the quantity that the **material wants to resist**?

Additional Reading: Einstein's Covariance Principle

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2. Deformations and Strain

#### Necessary Reading

Read Section 1.10 in Megson (2013)

- Since strains are defined **based on the displacement field**, the <u>different strain</u> components are related.
- For the infinitesimal case we have:  $2\mathcal{E}_{IJ} = u_{I,J} + u_{J,I}$ . To avoid confusion with the Levi-Civita symbol we will use  $\underline{\mathcal{E}}$  to denote the strain tensor henceforth. We want to manipulate this such that we get an equality fully expressed in the strains alone.
- Differentiating by  $X_K$  and premultiplying by  $\epsilon_{MJK}$  we have,

$$2\epsilon_{MJK}\mathcal{E}_{IJ,K} = \epsilon_{MJK}u_{I,JK} + \epsilon_{MJK}u_{J,IK} \to \boxed{\text{free indices: } I,M}$$

• We differentiate this by  $X_L$  and pre-multiply by  $\epsilon_{NIL}$  to get:

$$2\epsilon_{NIL}\epsilon_{JKM}\mathcal{E}_{IJ,KL} = \epsilon_{MJK}\epsilon_{NJL}\mathcal{I}_{J,KL} \xrightarrow{0} \text{free indices: } K,L$$

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# 2.4. Strain Compatibility

2. Deformations and Strain

- The compatibility equation  $\epsilon_{MJK}\epsilon_{NIL}E_{IJ,KL}=0$  represents a 3 × 3 system of 9 equations.
- We have **two symmetries**:  $E_{IJ} = E_{JI}$  (strain tensor symmetry), and  $E_{IJ,KL} = E_{IJ,LK}$  (strain continuously differentiable). Applying this can convince us that the equation is also symmetric. So we have  $\frac{3(3+1)}{2} = 6$  unique equations.
- In component notation, these can be written out as,

$$\begin{array}{c} (M,N)=(1,1) \\ E_{22,33}+E_{33,22}=2E_{23,23}, & E_{22,13}+E_{13,22}=E_{12,23}+E_{23,12} \\ (M,N)=(2,2) \\ E_{33,11}+E_{11,33}=2E_{13,13}, & E_{33,12}+E_{12,33}=E_{13,23}+E_{23,13} \\ (M,N)=(3,3) \\ E_{11,22}+E_{22,11}=2E_{12,12}, & \overline{E}_{11,23}+E_{23,11}=E_{12,13}+E_{13,12} \end{array}$$

The strains  $\frac{\text{have to satisfy these conditions}}{\text{differentiable displacement field.}}$ 

Deformations and Strain

• Displacement Field ( $\varepsilon > 0$  some small number):

$$\underline{u} = \varepsilon \begin{bmatrix} 0.1X_1 + 0.8X_2 \sin(4X_1) \\ 0.2(\cos(4X_1) - 1) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Deformation Gradient  $(\underbrace{F} = \underbrace{I} + \underbrace{\nabla \underline{u}})$ :

• Deformation Gradient 
$$(\underbrace{F}_{\sim} = \underbrace{\mathbb{I}}_{\sim} + \underbrace{\nabla \underline{u}}_{\sim})$$
:
$$\underbrace{F}_{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \varepsilon(0.1 + 3.2X_2 \cos(4X_1)) & \varepsilon 0.8 \sin(4X_1) & 0 \\ -\varepsilon 0.8 \sin(4X_1) & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

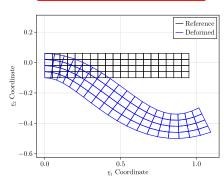
$$\underbrace{S}_{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Infinitesimal Strain Tensor components:

$$\underbrace{\mathcal{E}}_{} = \varepsilon \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 + 3.2 X_2 \cos(4 X_1) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

• Stretched length of axial "fibre" (initially along  $e_1$ ) is

Also try to get expressions for how areas and volumes will transform!



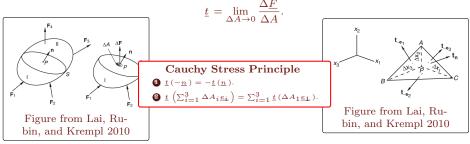
Deformed configuration plotted for  $\varepsilon = 1$ . A discretized wire-mesh is chosen just for plotting.

$$\ell_{def} = \int_{0}^{1} (1 + \mathcal{E}_{11}) dX_1 = 1 + \varepsilon (0.1 + 0.8X_2 \sin(4)).$$

# 3. Stress and Equilibrium

### Force is a vector. Area is a vector. What is **pressure** (F/A)?

ullet Consider a small area  $\Delta A$  in a cut-section of an elastic body as shown. The **traction** vector  $\underline{t}$  is the limiting force



• By basic force-balance arguments, we can argue that the relationship between the traction vector and the normal vector to the chosen area has to be linear.

$$\boxed{t_i = \sigma_{ij} n_j} \Leftrightarrow \boxed{\underline{t} = \underline{\underline{\sigma}} \cdot \underline{n}}.$$

Cauchy Stress Tensor:  $\underline{\sigma} = \sigma_{ij}\underline{e_i}\underline{e_j}$  s.t.  $\underline{t} = t_i\underline{e_i} = \sigma_{ij}n_j\underline{e_i} = \underline{\sigma} \cdot \underline{n}$ .

## Force Equilibrium

3. Stress and Equilibrium

- Consider the forces on a small volume dv in the **deformed domain** (denoted  $\Omega_d$ ):
  Body loads  $\int_{\Omega_d} f_i(\underline{x}) dv$ Surface tractions  $\int_{\partial\Omega_d} t_i d|a|$
- Static equilibrium is written as

$$\int_{\partial\Omega_d} \sigma_{ij} da_j + \int_{\Omega_d} f_i dv = 0.$$

• Applying Gauss divergence, this simplifies to,

$$\int_{\Omega_d} \sigma_{ij,j} + f_i dv = 0 \implies \boxed{\sigma_{ij,j} + f_i = 0}.$$

• This is the static equilibrium equation.

# Moment Equilibrium

3. Stress and Equilibrium

• We next consider the balance of the moments of forces on the same differential element.

$$\int_{\partial\Omega_d}\underbrace{\epsilon_{ijk}x_j\sigma_{kl}da_l}_{\underline{x}\times\underline{t}|d|a|} + \int_{\Omega_d}\epsilon_{ijk}x_jf_kdv = 0.$$

Applying Gauss divergence again we get,

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Omega_d} \epsilon_{ijk} ((x_j \sigma_{kl})_{,l} + x_j f_k) dv &= \int_{\Omega_d} \epsilon_{ijk} \left( \delta_{jl} \sigma_{kl} + x_j \underbrace{(\sigma_{kl,l} + f_k)} \right) dv = 0 \\ &\Longrightarrow \boxed{\epsilon_{ijk} \sigma_{jk} = 0} \end{split}$$

which is an assertion of symmetry of the stress tensor.

• Note that we have assumed the absense of body moments here.

#### 3.1. Stress Work Done

3. Stress and Equilibrium

- Let us now consider the work done by the stress. For convenience, we start with the rate of work done: force×velocity.
- On the infinitesimal element we have,

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = \int_{\partial \Omega_d} \sigma_{ij} \dot{u}_i da_j + \int_{\Omega_d} f_i \dot{u}_i dv.$$

Application of Gauss divergence leads to,

$$\begin{split} \frac{dU}{dt} &= \int_{\Omega_d} \left(\sigma_{ij} \dot{u}_i\right)_{,j} + f_i \dot{u}_i dv = \int_{\Omega_d} \sigma_{ij} \dot{u}_{i,j} + \dot{u}_i \underbrace{\left(\sigma_{ij,j} + f_i\right)} dv \\ &\Longrightarrow \frac{dU}{dt} = \int_{\Omega_d} \sigma_{ij} \frac{1}{2} \left(\dot{u}_{i,j} + \dot{u}_{j,i}\right) dv = \int_{\Omega_d} \sigma_{ij} \mathcal{E}_{ij} dv. \end{split}$$

• The power density is written as,

$$\frac{d\mathcal{U}}{dt} = \sigma_{ij}\dot{\mathcal{E}}_{ij} \ .$$



# 3.1. Stress Work Done: Non-Dissipative Solid

3. Stress and Equilibrium

Additional Reading: What is an **Exact Differential**?

- For a general non-dissipative solid, the work done must be path-independent, i.e., the energy *U* must be a state of the system. In other words, the energy must be solely dependent on the system's configuration, i.e., kinematic state.
- So we shall write

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = \frac{\partial U}{\partial \mathcal{E}_{ij}} \dot{\mathcal{E}}_{ij}.$$

• The above also holds for the energy density  $\mathcal{U}$  and we already have  $\dot{\mathcal{U}} = \sigma_{ij} \dot{\mathcal{E}}_{ij}$ . So

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{U}}{\mathcal{E}_{ij}} \dot{\mathcal{E}}_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} \dot{\mathcal{E}}_{ij} \implies \boxed{\sigma_{ij} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{U}}{\mathcal{E}_{ij}}}.$$

- In other words, it MUST be possible to write the stress as a gradient of a scalar energy density with respect to strain for non-dissipativity.
- So we say that stress and strain are energy conjugates of one another.

#### **Technical Note**

In the above derivation, we have made some rather sweeping assumptions about the deformations and the deformation gradients being small. For e.g., the deformed domain  $\Omega_d$  is taken to be approximately the same as the un-deformed domain  $\Omega$  and the infinitesimal strain formula is directly invoked. See sec. 4.12 in Lai, Rubin, and Krempl 2010 for the general case.

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3.2. Principal Stress Components

# • Since stress is an objective tensor, its components may be written as a $3 \times 3$ matrix for the general case. Under coordinate transformation (with Q), this transforms as

$$\underline{\underline{\sigma}}' = \underline{\underline{Q}} \underline{\underline{\sigma}} \underline{\underline{Q}}^T, \quad \underline{\underline{Q}} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \langle \underline{\underline{e}}', \underline{e_1} \rangle & \langle \underline{\underline{e}}', \underline{e_2} \rangle & \langle \underline{\underline{e}}', \underline{e_3} \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}.$$

 $\bullet$  Since  $\underline{\sigma}$  is a symmetric matrix (from angular momentum balance), it is always possible to find a coordinate system under which  $\underline{\sigma}'$  is a strictly diagonal matrix:

$$\underline{\underline{\sigma}}' = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_3 \end{bmatrix} \implies \underline{\underline{\sigma}}' \underline{e_1}' = \sigma_1 \underline{e_1}' \quad (|||^{ly} \text{ for } 2,3),$$

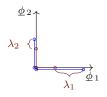
i.e., the traction on each of the fundamental coordinate planes is strictly normal.

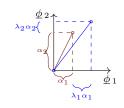
• The values  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$  are known as the **principal stresses** and the columns of Q are the components of the **principal axes** components expressed in the  $\underline{e}$  frame.

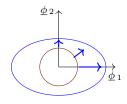
There is no loss in generality in choosing the principal axis while talking about things like the Mohr's circle since the prinicipal coordinate system can be obtained for any given stress tensor. So all the insights gained therein also generalize.

#### 3.2. Principal Stress Components: Interpretations 3. Stress and Equilibrium

- Principal components may be defined for strains too. These come with a geometric interpretation as follows.
- Consider the operation  $\underbrace{\mathcal{E}}_{\underline{u}}$ . Say,  $\underline{v} = \underbrace{\mathcal{E}}_{\underline{u}}$ .  $\underline{v}$  represents the **components of a vector** which can be arbitrarily oriented w.r.t.  $\underline{v}$ .
- Consider some unit vector  $\phi$  such that  $\mathcal{E}\phi = \lambda \phi$ . The operation of the matrix  $\underline{\mathcal{E}}$  leads to perfect stretching by a factor of  $\lambda$ .
- The pair  $(\lambda, \phi)$  are known as an **eigenpair** of  $\mathcal{E}$ , where  $\lambda$  is a principal strain and  $\phi$ represents the components of the principal axis.
- For 3D mechanics, we have 3 principal directions.
- Consider the 2D case below:







#### 3.3. Mohr's Circle

Stress and Equilibrium

- Consider a 2D case with  $\underset{\approx}{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ .
- Consider a plane section with normal  $\underline{n} = \cos \theta \underline{e}_1 + \sin \theta \underline{e}_2$  (at angle  $\theta$  with  $\underline{e}_1$ ). The perpendicular is denoted  $\underline{n}_{\perp} = -\sin \theta \underline{e}_1 + \cos \theta \underline{e}_2$ . Note that  $\underline{n}_{\perp}$  lies on the plane itself.
- The traction vector is given by  $\underline{t} = \underline{\sigma} \cdot \underline{n}$  and its components can be written as

$$\underline{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} \cos \theta + \sigma_{12} \sin \theta \\ \sigma_{12} \cos \theta + \sigma_{22} \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}.$$

• This is resolved along the  $(\underline{n},\underline{n}_{\perp})$  directions by the coordinate transformation,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_n \\ \tau_s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{n}_{T}^T \\ \tilde{n}_{\perp}^T \end{bmatrix} \tilde{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22}}{2} + \frac{\sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22}}{2} \cos 2\theta + \sigma_{12} \sin 2\theta \\ -\frac{\sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22}}{2} \sin 2\theta + \sigma_{12} \cos 2\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

# 3.3. Mohr's Circle

Stress and Equilibrium

• If we are willing to re-define  $\theta$  as the angle from the first principal axis, then the Mohr's circle equations simplify to yield the normal and tangential traction components as:

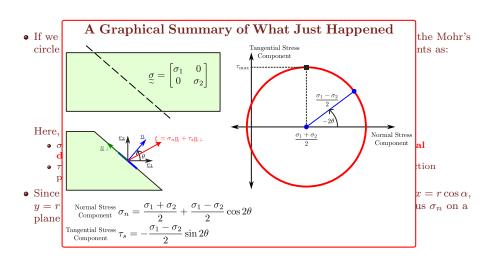
$$\sigma_n = \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2}{2} + \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2} \cos 2\theta$$
$$\tau_s = -\frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2} \sin 2\theta.$$

Here,

- $\sigma_n$  is the magnitude of the traction that is acting along the section normal direction n.
- $\tau_s$  is the magnitude of the traction that is acting "in-plane", i.e., in a direction perpendicular to the section normal, say  $\underline{n}_{\perp}$ .
- Since the above is the equation of a circle centered at  $(\frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2}{2}, 0)$  (remember  $x = r \cos \alpha$ ,  $y = r \sin \alpha$  for a circle centered at the origin), we can graphically plot  $\tau_s$  versus  $\sigma_n$  on a plane for different values of  $\theta$ .  $\Longrightarrow$  This will trace out a circle.

# 3.3. Mohr's Circle

Stress and Equilibrium



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#### 3.3.1. Mohr's Circle of Strain

Mohr's Circle

Since strain is also an objective tensor, pursuing its 2D transformation through a similar approach leads to the Mohr's circle of strain.

- Starting from a 2D case with  $\underset{\approx}{\mathcal{E}} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathcal{E}_{11} & \frac{\gamma_{12}}{2} \\ \frac{\gamma_{12}}{2} & \mathcal{E}_{22} \end{vmatrix}$  we consider two infinitesimal lines initially oriented along n and s (dSn, dSt).
- The elongation that a line along  $dS\underline{n}$  experiences is  $\left| \frac{ds dS}{dS} = \underline{n} \cdot \underline{\mathcal{E}} \cdot \underline{n} \right| = \varepsilon_n$ .
- The shear strain between them is  $| \gamma_s = 2\underline{t} \cdot \underline{\underline{\mathcal{E}}} \cdot \underline{n} |$
- Substituting, we get

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_n \\ \gamma_s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\varepsilon_{11} + \varepsilon_{22}}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon_{11} - \varepsilon_{22}}{2} \cos 2\theta + \frac{\gamma_{12}}{2} \sin 2\theta \\ -(\varepsilon_{11} - \varepsilon_{22}) \sin 2\theta + \gamma_{12} \cos 2\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

• In terms of principal stress (redefining  $\theta$  as before) the above becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_n \\ \gamma_s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2}{2} \cos 2\theta \\ - (\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2) \end{bmatrix}.$$



# 4. Constitutive Relationships

- We have developed tensor-representations of both the stress,  $\underline{\underline{\sigma}} = \sigma_{ij}\underline{e_i}\underline{e_j}$  and strain,  $\underline{\mathcal{E}} = \mathcal{E}_{ij}\underline{e_i}\underline{e_j}$ . We are now interested in relating the components of the two.
- The most general linear relationship that one can assume is

$$\sigma_{ij} = C_{ijkl} \mathcal{E}_{kl}.$$

• If the system is **non-dissipative**, then the stress must be expressible as  $\sigma_{ij} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{U}}{\partial \mathcal{E}_{ij}}$ . So,

$$\frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{U}}{\partial \mathcal{E}_{ij} \partial \mathcal{E}_{kl}} = C_{ijkl}.$$

- Since we expect a smooth energy density, the indices (i, j) and (k, l) must be swappable. This represents the first symmetry property of  $C_{ijkl}$   $(i, j \leftrightarrow k, l)$ .
- Since stress and strain are also symmetric, the following index-swaps must be permissible:  $i \leftrightarrow j, k \leftrightarrow l$ .

# Simplification Arguments

4. Constitutive Relationships

In summary we have the following roadmap for simplification:

General Case	$C_{ijkl}$	$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 = 81 \text{ terms}$
Stress-Strain Symmetry	$i \leftrightarrow j, \ k \leftrightarrow l$	$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 = 81 \text{ terms}$ $\frac{3(3+1)}{2} \times \frac{3(3+1)}{2} = 36 \text{ terms}$
Non-dissipativity, smoothness	$(i,j) \leftrightarrow (k,l)$	$\frac{6(6+1)}{2} = 21 \text{ terms}$

- Suppose the material is isotropic, then the components  $C_{ijkl}$  are invariant under coordinate transformations. This means that it must be composed of  $\delta$ . symbols.
- Under symmetry, we have 3 unique combinations:

$$\delta_{ij}\delta_{kl}, \quad \delta_{ik}\delta_{jl}, \quad \delta_{il}\delta_{jk},$$

and we write:

$$C_{ijkl} = \alpha_1 \delta_{ij} \delta_{kl} + \alpha_2 \delta_{ik} \delta_{jl} + \alpha_3 \delta_{il} \delta_{jk}.$$

• Applying this to the stress-strain relationship, we get:

$$\sigma_{ij} = \alpha_1 \delta_{ij} \mathcal{E}_{kk} + \alpha_2 \mathcal{E}_{ij} + \alpha_3 \mathcal{E}_{ji} \implies \sigma_{ij} = \lambda \delta_{ij} \mathcal{E}_{kk} + 2\mu \mathcal{E}_{ij}$$



# 4.1. Linear Isotropic Elasticity

- 4. Constitutive Relationships
  - We shall define the Young's modulus  $E_Y$  and Poisson's ratio in terms of the principal stresses and strains as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \varepsilon_3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{E_Y} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\nu & -\nu \\ -\nu & 1 & -\nu \\ -\nu & -\nu & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ \sigma_2 \\ \sigma_3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

• From the Mohr's circle expressions we have the stresses and strains for a plane and line at angle  $\theta$  for a 2D case as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_n \\ \tau_s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2}{2} + \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2} \cos 2\theta \\ -\frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2} \sin 2\theta \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_n \\ \gamma_s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2}{2} \cos 2\theta \\ -(\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2) \sin 2\theta \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_n \\ \gamma_s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2}{2} \cos 2\theta \\ -(\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2) \sin 2\theta \end{bmatrix}.$$

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• From the above constitutive relationship (assuming  $\sigma_3 = 0$ ), the shear strain becomes:

$$\gamma_s = -(\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2)\sin 2\theta = -\frac{1+\nu}{E_Y}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)\sin 2\theta = > \boxed{\gamma_s = \frac{2(1+\nu)}{E_Y}\sigma_n}.$$

• The modulus between the shear strain and shear stress is denoted  $G = \frac{E_Y}{2(1+\nu)}$  and is referred to as the shear modulus. It is important to note that this is not an independent constitutive constant.

AS3020\* September 8, 2025 Balaji, N. N. (AE, IITM)

### 4.1. Linear Isotropic Elasticity

4. Constitutive Relationships

• We have also spoken about volume change. In terms of strains this is,

$$\frac{dv - dV}{dv} = \mathcal{E}_{11} + \mathcal{E}_{22} + \mathcal{E}_{33}$$
$$= \frac{1 - 2\nu}{E} (\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} + \sigma_{33}).$$

• In other words we have  $\mathcal{E}_{ii} = \frac{1}{\kappa} \frac{\sigma_{ii}}{3}$ , where  $\frac{\sigma_{ii}}{3}$  is the volumetric stress (or pressure). Here  $\kappa = \frac{E_Y}{3(1-2\nu)}$  is known as the bulk modulus.

#### Stability Requirements

- For elastic stability, all the modulii must be positive (for positive definite potentials). Physical observation shows us that most materials are stable.
- For G > 0, we need to have  $\nu > -1$ ; and for  $\kappa > 0$ , we need to have  $\nu < 0.5$ .
- In summary we have,  $\nu \in (-1, 0.5)$ ,  $E_Y > 0$ .

#### Constitutive Relationship

In summary, the constitutive relationship can be written as,

$$\mathcal{E}_{ij} = \frac{1}{E} \left[ (1 + \nu) \sigma_{ij} - \nu \sigma_{kk} \delta_{ij} \right].$$

# 4.1. Linear Isotropic Elasticity

#### Constitutive Relationships

	λ	μ	E <sub>Y</sub>	ν	k
, μ	λ	μ	$\frac{\mu(3\lambda + 2\mu)}{\lambda + \mu}$	$\frac{\lambda}{2(\lambda + \mu)}$	$\lambda + \frac{2}{3}\mu$
, ν	λ	$\frac{\lambda(1-2\nu)}{2\nu}$	$\frac{\lambda(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)}{\nu}$	ν	$\frac{\lambda(1+v)}{3v}$
, k	λ	$\frac{3(k-\lambda)}{2}$	$\frac{9k(k-\lambda)}{(3k-\lambda)}$	$\frac{\lambda}{(3k-\lambda)}$	k
u, Ε <sub>γ</sub>	$\frac{\mu(E_Y - 2\mu)}{3\mu - E_Y}$	μ	E <sub>Y</sub>	$\frac{E_Y}{2\mu} - 1$	$\frac{\mu E_Y}{3(3\mu - E_Y)}$
u, ν	$\frac{2\mu\nu}{(1-2\nu)}$	μ	$2\mu(1 + v)$	ν	$\frac{2\mu(1+\nu)}{3(1-2\nu)}$
u, k	$k-\frac{2}{3}\mu$	μ	$\frac{9k\mu}{(3k+\mu)}$	$\frac{3k-2\mu}{6k+2\mu}$	k
Σγ, ν	$\frac{vE_{\gamma}}{(1+v)(1-2v)}$	$\frac{E_Y}{2(1+v)}$	E <sub>Y</sub>	ν	$\frac{E_Y}{3(1-2\nu)}$
E <sub>Y</sub> , <i>k</i>	$\frac{3(kE_Y-3k^2)}{(E_Y-9k)}$	$\frac{3kE_Y}{(9k-E_Y)}$	E <sub>Y</sub>	$v = \frac{(3k - E_Y)}{6k}$	k
k, v	$\frac{3kv}{(1+v)}$	$\frac{3k(1-2v)}{2(1+v)}$	3k(1-2v)	ν	k
λ, <i>Ε</i> γ	λ	$\mu(\lambda, E_Y)^*$	E <sub>Y</sub>	$\frac{E_Y}{2\mu(\lambda, E_Y)} - 1$	$\frac{\mu(\lambda, E_Y)E_Y}{3[3\mu(\lambda, E_Y) - E_Y]}$

 ${}^*\mu(\lambda.E_Y) = \left\{ -(3\lambda - E_Y) + \sqrt{(3\lambda - E_Y)^2 + 8E_Y\lambda} \right\}/4.$ 

Note:  $(1/8 + v - 1/2, k - \infty, L - \infty, L - \infty, L) = 5/3$ , (2) it is generally accorded that compressive hydrostatic stress state will not lead to an increase in volume, therefore, v < 1/2, (2) if is retarder invariants whose transverse strain is negative when subjected to the action of simple extension, the Poisson's ratio is  $0 \le v < 1/2$  and (4) for the so-called auxetic materials, the transverse strain is positive while under simple extension, the Poisson's ratio is regulate. Thus, for an isotropic material, in general, -1 < v < 1/2. For a discussion of the lower limit 0 - 1, see Section 5.52 in Part of the Chapter.

#### 5. Failure Theories

Necessary Reading: Secs. 5-3 to 5-9 in Budynas, Nisbett, and Shigley 2015

- Elasticity only deals with the reversible deformation behavior. But real materials undergo yielding, necking, and eventually failure under large loads.
- Since there is permanent loss during the yield process (irreversibility), we will have to abandon non-dissipativity and modify the stress-strain relationship.

#### An Approach for a Failure Theory...

- Conduct controlled experiments in the lab
- Observe characteristics of failure
- Propose generalizations and test with further experimentation



Failed mild steel specimens (under uni-axial tension)

#### 5. Failure Theories

- A first observation (recall from Module 2) is that systems can be classified as brittle or ductile based on whether they undergo a plastic yield before failure.
- Generally, a material is said to be

Ductile if strain at failure is greater than 5%, Brittle if strain at failure is lesser than 5%.

- For **Ductile Materials** the commonly applicable theories are
  - Maximum Shear Stress Theory (MSS): Failure occurs when the maximum shear stress reaches a threshold. (aka Tresca theory)
  - Distortion Energy Theory (DE): Failure occurs when the distortional strain energy reaches a threshold
  - Ductile Coulomb-Mohr (DCM) Theory: The shear stress threshold for failure grows linearly with straight stress. Proposed to account for tensile and compressive strengths being different
- For Brittle Materials the applicable theories are
  - Maximum Normal Stress Theory (MNS): Failure occurs when the normal stress reaches a threshold.
  - Brittle Columb-Mohr (BCM) Theory: Same idea as in DCM, to account for different tensile and compressive strengths.
- We will only bother ourselves with MSS and DE here.

# 5.1. Maximum Shear Stress Theory

- For ductile materials, failure in a uniaxial tensile test almost always involves a plane at 45° from the direction of loading.
- From the Mohr circle relationships for the uniaxial case at yielding point (σ<sub>1</sub> = S<sub>u</sub>, σ<sub>2</sub> = 0) we have,

$$\sigma_n = \frac{S_y}{2} + \frac{S_y}{2}\cos 2\theta, \quad \tau_s = -\frac{S_y}{2}\sin 2\theta.$$

• We empirically observe that the  $\theta=45^{\circ}$  also corresponds to the plane where the shear traction component is maximum!

#### We hypothesize that

...yielding begins whenever the maximum shear stress in any element equals or exceeds the maximum shear stress in a tension-test specimen of the same material when that specimen begins to yield.



Failed mild steel specimens (under uni-axial tension)

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Note: Critical shear stress is  $S_{sy} = S_y/2 = 0.5S_y$ 



Failed mild steel specimens (under uni-axial tension)

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# 

Note: Critical shear stress is  $S_{sy} = S_y/2 = 0.5S_y$ 

Observe that the failure theory is INTEGRALLY tied down to a very specific experiment (uniaxial stress test) that you must conduct.

> If you're not prepared/able to do this test at least once, the theory is useless.



Failed mild steel specimens (under uni-axial tension)

# 5.1. Maximum Shear Stress Theory: Application to Bi-Axial Loading

Failure Theories

- For a general case, all of  $\sigma_1$ ,  $\sigma_2$  and  $\sigma_3$  are non-zero.
- The maximum shear stress that can be achieved (among all possible planes) is  $\tau_{\max} = \frac{\sigma_1 \sigma_2}{2}$ . MSS predicts that failure will happen when  $\tau_{\max} \geq 0.5 S_y$ , i.e.,

$$[|\sigma_1 - \sigma_2| \ge S_y], [|\sigma_1 - \sigma_3| \ge S_y], [|\sigma_2 - \sigma_3| \ge S_y].$$

Note that for the 2D case we will take  $\sigma_3 = 0$ .

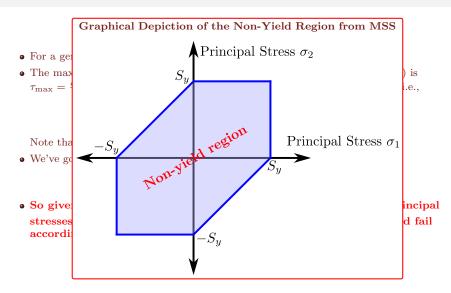
• We've got the "non-yield region" in the  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  space to be:

$$\{(\sigma_1, \sigma_2) \mid |\sigma_1 - \sigma_2| < S_y, |\sigma_1| < S_y, |\sigma_2| < S_y\}$$

 So given a general state of stress σ, we must first estimate the principal stresses and check if they fall within the above to check if it would fail according to the MSS/Tresca theory.

# 5.1. Maximum Shear Stress Theory: Application to Bi-Axial Loading

Failure Theories



- We hypothesize here that shape change energy is what leads to failure, NOT isotropic volume change.
- So we "remove" the volume change energy from the overall energy and require that the remaining energy (which we will call as "distortional" since this only represents shape change) does not exceed the energy contained in a uniaxial test context.

#### Formally we hypothesize that

yielding occurs when the distortion strain energy per unit volume reaches or exceeds the distortion strain energy per unit volume for yield in simple tension or compression of the same material.

Failure Theories

• The total energy for a general state of stress in an isotropic material is given by:

$$\mathcal{U} = \frac{1}{2E_Y} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & \sigma_2 & \sigma_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\nu & -\nu \\ -\nu & 1 & -\nu \\ -\nu & -\nu & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ \sigma_2 \\ \sigma_3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2E_Y} \left( \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \sigma_3^2 - 2\nu(\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \sigma_1\sigma_3 + \sigma_2\sigma_3) \right)$$

• The work done by the "hydrostatic pressure" is written by replacing each  $\sigma_i$  by  $\sigma_{av} = \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3}{3}$ :

$$\underline{U}_{v} = \frac{3(1-2\nu)}{2E_{Y}}\sigma_{av}^{2} = \frac{1-2\nu}{6E_{Y}}(\sigma_{1}^{2} + \sigma_{2}^{2} + \sigma_{3}^{2} + 2(\sigma_{1}\sigma_{2} + \sigma_{1}\sigma_{3} + \sigma_{2}\sigma_{3})).$$

 $\mathcal{U}_v$  is interpreted as energy that only goes into volume change.

• The shape change/distortional energy is the "remaining energy" after taking  $\mathcal{U}_v$  out of  $\mathcal{U}$ :

$$\mathcal{U}_d = \mathcal{U} - \mathcal{U}_v = \frac{1+\nu}{E_Y} \left( \frac{(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2}{2} \right).$$

• A uniaxial tensile test specimen fails when the state of stress is  $(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3) = S_y$ . The corresponding distortional energy is written as

$$\mathcal{U}_{d,y} = \frac{1+\nu}{E_V} S_y^2 \implies \boxed{\mathcal{U}_d < \mathcal{U}_{d,y}}$$
 to avoid yielding.

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Failure Theories

#### Take a Second to Interpret!

• Mathematical Summary:

$$\sqrt{\frac{(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2}{2}} < S_y$$

- An alternative interpretation of this theory comes from the fact that the shear stress magnitude on an octahedral plane (plane with normal 
   \$n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\infty}} \Big[ 1 & 1 & 1 \Big]^T \Big)\$ is the same as the LHS above.
- Sometimes referred to as the Maximum Octahedral Stress Theory, this states that failure happens due to shear on an octahedral plane. It is mathematically identical to DE.
- It is interesting to note that the epistemology of failure is actually not our concern here we are merely interested in putting our uniaxial tensile testing data to good use in a way that captures the uniaxial tensile test itself as just a sub-case!

$$\mathcal{U}_{d,y} = \frac{1+\nu}{E_Y} S_y^2 \implies \boxed{\mathcal{U}_d < \mathcal{U}_{d,y}}$$
 to avoid yielding.

 $\sigma_2\sigma_3)$ 

of  $\mathcal{U}$ :

The

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# • For the plane stress situation ( $\sigma_1 \neq 0, \sigma_2 \neq 0, \sigma_3 = 0$ ), the non-yield region is given by

$$\{(\sigma_1, \sigma_2) \mid \frac{(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}{2} \le S_y^2\},$$

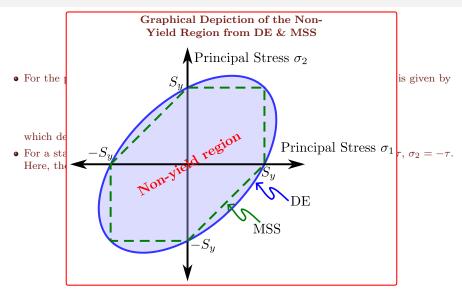
which defines a rotated ellipse in 2D.

5.2. Distortion Energy Theory

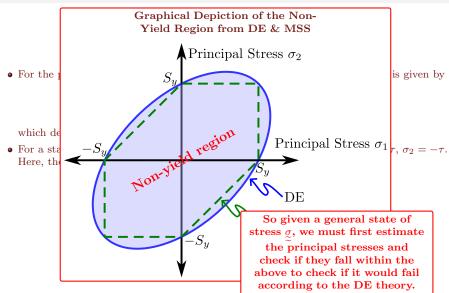
• For a state of "pure shear" of magnitude  $\tau$ , the principal stresses are  $\sigma_1 = \tau$ ,  $\sigma_2 = -\tau$ . Here, the criterion becomes,

$$3\tau^2 \le S_y^2 \implies S_{sy} = \frac{S_y}{\sqrt{3}} = 0.577S_y.$$

Failure Theories



Failure Theories



### • For the plane stress situation ( $\sigma_1 \neq 0, \sigma_2 \neq 0, \sigma_3 = 0$ ), the non-yield region is given by

$$\{(\sigma_1, \sigma_2) \mid \frac{(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}{2} \le S_y^2\},$$

which defines a rotated ellipse in 2D.

5.2. Distortion Energy Theory

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$$3\tau^2 \le S_y^2 \implies S_{sy} = \frac{S_y}{\sqrt{3}} = 0.577 S_y.$$

What about **Plane Strain**? Will there be any difference?

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#### 6. 2D Problems

• In 2D, the governing equations can be written as,

$$\sigma_{11,1} + \sigma_{12,2} + f_1 = 0$$
  
$$\sigma_{12,1} + \sigma_{22,2} + f_2 = 0.$$

• Differentiation the first by  $X_1$  and the second by  $X_2$  leads to

$$\sigma_{11,11} + \sigma_{22,22} + 2\sigma_{12,12} + f_{1,1} + f_{2,2} = 0.$$

• Strain Compatibility equations in 2D reads:

$$2\mathcal{E}_{12,12} = \mathcal{E}_{11,22} + \mathcal{E}_{22,11}$$

• We, however, need compatibility in terms of stresses, not strains. Now we formalize the notion of two dimensions:

Plane Stress  $\sigma_{33} = 0$ Plane Strain  $\mathcal{E}_{33} = 0$ 

### The "Plane Stress" Case

6. 2D Problems

• Here, we assume  $\sigma_{33} = 0$  (but  $\mathcal{E}_{33} \neq 0$  in general). So the stress-strain relationships are,

$$\mathcal{E}_{11} = \frac{1}{E}\sigma_{11} - \frac{\nu}{E}\sigma_{22}, \quad \mathcal{E}_{22} = \frac{1}{E}\sigma_{22} - \frac{\nu}{E}\sigma_{11}$$
$$2\mathcal{E}_{12} = 2\frac{1+\nu}{E}\sigma_{12}, \quad \mathcal{E}_{33} = -\frac{\nu}{E}(\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22})$$

Substituting this into the compatibility equations we get,

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2(1+\nu)}{E}\sigma_{12,12} = \frac{1}{E}\left(\left(\sigma_{11} - \nu\sigma_{22}\right)_{,22} + \left(-\nu\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22}\right)_{,11}\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{E}\left(\left(\sigma_{11,22} + \sigma_{22,11}\right) - \nu(\sigma_{11,11} + \sigma_{22,22})\right)$$

• Combining the two we get,

# The "Plane Strain" Case

6. 2D Problems

• Here, we assume  $\mathcal{E}_{33} = 0$  ( $\sigma_{33} \neq 0$  in general). So the stress-strain relationships are simplified as,

$$\mathcal{E}_{33} = \frac{\sigma_{33} - \nu(\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22})}{E} = 0 \implies \sigma_{33} = \nu(\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22}),$$

$$\implies \mathcal{E}_{11} = \frac{\sigma_{11}}{E} - \frac{\nu}{E}(\sigma_{22} + \sigma_{33}) = \frac{1 - \nu^2}{E}\sigma_{11} - \frac{\nu(1 + \nu)}{E}\sigma_{22}$$

$$\implies \mathcal{E}_{22} = \frac{\sigma_{22}}{E} - \frac{\nu}{E}(\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{33}) = \frac{1 - \nu^2}{E}\sigma_{22} - \frac{\nu(1 + \nu)}{E}\sigma_{11}$$

Substituting this into the compatibility equations we get,

$$\implies \frac{2(1+\nu)}{E}\sigma_{12,12} = \frac{1+\nu}{E} \left( ((1-\nu)\sigma_{11} - \nu\sigma_{22})_{,22} + (-\nu\sigma_{11} + (1-\nu)\sigma_{22})_{,11} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1+\nu}{E} \left( (1-\nu)(\sigma_{11,22} + \sigma_{22,11}) - \nu(\sigma_{11,11} + \sigma_{22,22}) \right)$$

• Combining the two we get,

$$(1-\nu)(\sigma_{11,11}+\sigma_{11,22}+\sigma_{22,11}+\sigma_{22,22})+f_{1,1}+f_{2,2}=0 => \boxed{\sigma_{ii,jj}+\frac{1}{1-\nu}f_{i,i}=0}.$$

# 6.1. Airy's Stress Function

6. 2D Problems

- We can now combine both the **governing equations** and the **compatibility equations**, so we can write out the solution fully in terms of stress only.
- For the homogeneous case  $(f_i = 0)$ , we have (for both plane stress and plane strain),

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial X_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial X_2^2}\right)(\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22}) = 0. \tag{3}$$

 $\bullet$  We introduce the Airy's Stress function  $\phi$  that simplifies the system of two PDE's into a scalar PDE by the substitutions:

$$\sigma_{11} := \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial X_2^2}, \quad \sigma_{22} := \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial X_1^2}, \quad \sigma_{12} := -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial X_1 \partial X_2}.$$

(it is easily verified that this satisfies the governing equations  $\sigma_{ij,j}=0$  by definition)

• Substitution into eq. (3) leads to

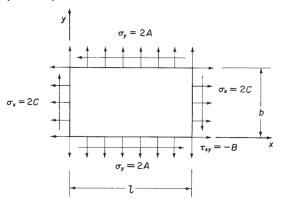
$$\phi_{,1111} + 2\phi_{,1122} + \phi_{,2222} = \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial X_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial X_2^2}\right)^2 \phi = 0, \qquad \boxed{\nabla^4 \phi = 0},$$

also known as the Biharmonic Equation.



# 6.1. Airy's Stress Function: Tutorial

• The Airy stress function can be used to solve problems with boundary loads. Consider this simple example from your textbook:

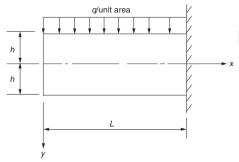


• Airy Stress Function:  $\phi = Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2$ 

# 6.1. Airy's Stress Function: Tutorial

6. 2D Problems

• Consider this second example from your text book (example 2.3):



#### **Boundary Conditions**

$$\sigma_{11} = \sigma_{22} = \sigma_{12} = 0, \quad y = h$$

$$\sigma_{11} = \sigma_{12} = 0, \quad y = h$$

$$\sigma_{22} = -q, \quad y = -h$$

$$\sigma_{11} = \sigma_{22} = \sigma_{12} = 0, \quad x = 0$$

$$\int_{-h}^{h} y \sigma_{11} dy = 0, \quad x = 0$$

with a candidate Airy stress function  $\phi(x,y) = Ax^2 + Bx^2y + Cy^3 + D(5x^2y^3 - y^5)$ .

# 6.1. Airy's Stress Function

6. 2D Problems

- It may be the case that the Airy stress function doesn't meet all the boundary conditions. In this case we find a stress function that approximately satisfies the BCs in some sense.
- So is this completely useless? No.

#### St. Venant's Principle (rephrased as in Lai, Rubin, and Krempl 2010)

If some distribution of forces acting on a portion of the surface of a body is replaced by a different distribution of forces acting on the same portion of the body, then the effects of the two different distributions on the parts of the body sufficiently far removed from the region of application of the forces are essentially the same, provided that the two distribution of forces have the same resultant force and the same resultant couple.

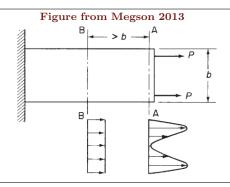
# 6.1. Airy's Stress Function

6. 2D Problems

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