

Lessione 3 - FEA & FEA (Practical Applications)

(Just theory)

Different Approaches to Practical Analysis

→ Analytical

- ↳ exact solutions → only approach that does so
- ↳ very few solved cases
- ↳ valid for classes of problems.

$$\sigma = \frac{P}{A}$$

→ Experimental

- ↳ direct link to physical objects
- expensive (ϵ & time)
- ↳ non transferable to other cases.

from strain gauge



$$\epsilon \rightarrow \sigma = E\epsilon$$

→ Numerical → approximation and validity of cases

- ↳ versatile
 - ↳ approximated
 - ↳ nontransferable to similar cases
- ↳ cheapest approach to solve many cases
- can be a problem based on case,
- ↳ the results are valid just for that object.

$$\boxed{\text{FEM}} \rightarrow P \quad \{u\} = [h]^{-1} \{F\} \rightarrow \{\epsilon\} \rightarrow \{\sigma\}$$

More steps more approximation error.

What is used in FEM

More numerical methods for mechanical engineers entirely within the context of computer aided approach

FEA / FEM falls within CAE (computer aided engineering)
↳ tools for calculation and checking.

In CAE there is more than just FEA but also things like CFD, MBD and CAO.

FEA is a method for solving the analytical models in engineering
↳ Everything that we do to allow us to apply FEM.

FEA → setup FEM → the algorithm

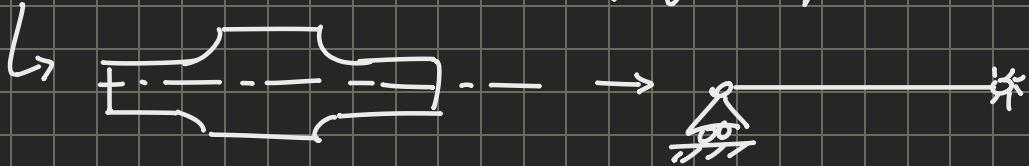
FEM was born in the 40s (before computers), but was only picked up in the 60s and 70s (thanks to computers) due to high numbers of repetitive calculations.
↳ It was developed by engineers through intuitive losses rather than mathematical, now it has become mathematical.

We will be using FEA/FEM to solve problems of solid mechanics, but it's usable in problems where we have field quantities.

the
FEM is ✓ simulation of physical phenomena via numerical process based on piecewise polynomial interpolation.

General Overview of FEA (for solid mechanics)

- ↳ 1. Defining a suitable mathematical model (abstract schematization) of the real physical problem.

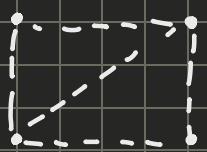


- 2. since there is no continuity, we divide the object in parts, finite elements. We discretize. The elements are connected to each other at nodes. The resulting grid is called the mesh. Two elements talk to another through nodes.

↳ The advantage for discretization is that the mathematics are easier, since we go from a differential problem to a system of linear/non-linear equations

Each equation describes what is happening at one specific node, of the system

were specifically at one d.o.f
for one node, so we need one equation for each d.o.f.



→ we need at least 4 equations, more depending on the degrees of freedom

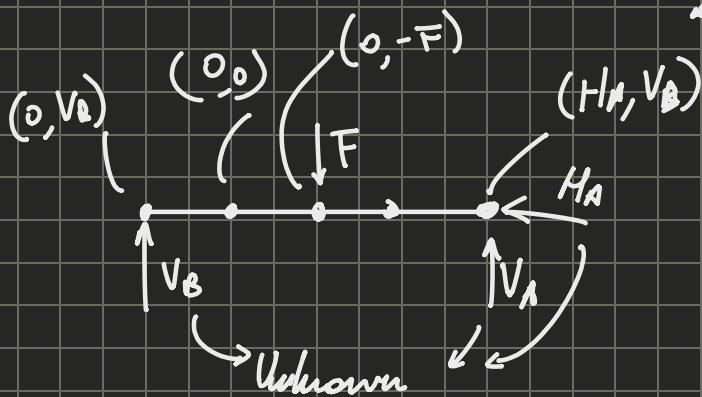
When we solve the system we know the displacement of each node, but not what happens in between, so we will have to solve this.

3. The system of equations is solved after imposing the appropriate boundary conditions at nodes

$$[h] \{u\} = \{F\} \quad \text{Load applied at each node.}$$

↳ d.o.f freedom
at nodes

→ Stiffness matrix \rightarrow stiffness is a function of the geometry and the material.



We will have knowns and unknowns in $\{u\}$ and $\{F\}$, depending in the configuration.

Obtained results are known within the limits.

What is the physical meaning behind $[h]$?

The components of the matrix are integrals

Through an energetic approach we get:

$$[h] = \int_V [B]^T [E] [B] dV$$

↳ If linear this is the equivalent to Hooke's law.

$[E]$ is the material property matrix

$[B]$ is the strain displacement matrix $\Rightarrow \{\varepsilon\} = [B]\{u\}$

From the elastic deformation energy we get [K]:

$$V_{el} = \frac{1}{2} \int_V \{\varepsilon\}^T [\mathbf{E}] \{\varepsilon\} dV = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \int_V \{\varepsilon\}^T [\mathbf{B}] [\mathbf{E}] [\mathbf{B}] \{\varepsilon\} dV}_{\{\delta\}} \xrightarrow{\text{Discretized representation of continuous medium}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \{u\}^T [\mathbf{B}]^T [\mathbf{E}] [\mathbf{B}] \{u\} = \frac{1}{2} \{u\}^T [\mathbf{k}] \{u\}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \varepsilon_x &= \frac{du}{dx} \\ \varepsilon_y &= \frac{dv}{dy} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \left. \begin{aligned} \gamma_{xy} &= \frac{dv}{dx} + \frac{du}{dy} \end{aligned} \right\} \rightarrow \text{Components of } [\mathbf{B}]$$

 we are effectively saying that each elements in a discrete structure acts like a spring, so the structure is a superposition of a system of linear elastic springs.

→ 4. Approximation of the displacement field between nodes

Since we now know the displacement of each node, we now can interpolate between elements to find an estimate of the position, this can be linear or polynomial (excluding linear)

Using second order elements (parabolic) to interpolate is better in terms of accuracy but is more computationally expensive. The smaller the elements the better the result but the slower the calculation.

↓
dilute elements can be useful but if we are unloading it can be disastrous.

5. Known displacement, stress and strain can be computed.

There is a trade-off between time and computational accuracy.

Software for FEM

Pre-processor → graphical environment for defining the problem



Solver → carrying out calculations



Post-Processor → graphical environment in which we get the results and manipulate them.

The worst-case scenario is when we get the wrong results that seem reasonable.

Types of Analyses

→ linear
 | → simplest
 | → most common
 | → shortest

→ assumptions can be verified by hand.

Non-linear

→ nonlinearities: geometry (large displacements), material, loads, contact problems

- in general, iterative and requires more computational time
- numerical convergence can become an issue
- require experience in both linear and non-linear physics.

Types of finite elements

↳ There are infinite, but some are more common than others
pg. 15 last

cubes are the elements with the most nodes, and can be difficult to divide.

$$(\text{Strain} = \text{deformation} : \epsilon)$$

Common Types of Finite Elements

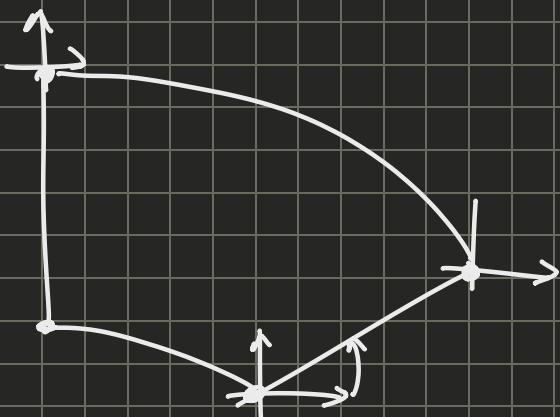
Finite Elements for (solid) continuum mechanics



Finite Elements suitable for this kind of problem are independent on the dimension of the element.

An approach based on displacements is adopted:
the primary unknown are the translation displacements,

other quantities are derived through the appropriate relations.



The rotations are dependent on the displacements with respect to the starting condition.

Deriving the rotation from other things, reduces the degrees of freedom, allowing us to reduce the calculations.
For the one and solid this is not true.

To use non-linear elements we need to get another node for each element.

1D elements still work in 3D space.

Important shapes are:

↳ Linear triangles and Squares, as well as non-linear triangles and squares.

↳ These are comparable 3D forms.

Day 2 - FEA & FEM

↳ We commonly use solid elements which function the same based on their dimensions.

Finite Elements for structural mechanics

→ In structural mechanics we work with kinematics (rotations and displacements). Typically only 1D and 2D are used, like beams, plates and shells.

We reduce the number of degrees of freedom, meaning that the mathematical equations are different.

2 for nodes in 3D, 3 in 2D.

Comparative

Due to Buxley Due to Sander

$$\text{Diagram of a beam element under axial force } F \text{ and bending moment } M_B. \text{ The beam has length } L \text{ and modulus of elasticity } E_B = 300 \text{ GPa.}$$
$$M_B = 1 + 0.031$$

In this case FEA is not really needed but when comparing to different kinds of elements.

With the single linear element gives us the exact solution. On the other hand other 2D terms are worse at estimating (in this case) at varying degrees.

The problem with using 1D elements is that for continuum mechanics they are not good, as they don't consider the rotatory effect which has a substantial impact on the result.

Triangular and square linear are bad at measuring constant strain.

If we consider elements with linear strain the performance is improved, with linear we need more points, some like quadratic elements.

Triangles are generally worse than squares.

Distortion in the shape of elements introduces errors in the case.

We should always try to use the best applicable case.

Distortion

If the geometric domain which we need to make measurement is regular, there is no issue.

If it's distorted it introduces errors.

Types:

- ↳ For squares if $a/b > 10$ it's distorted
- ↳ $\beta > 45^\circ, \alpha > 135^\circ$ it's distortion.

Distortions come in many forms.

↳ Distortions come from the setup to the calculation part.

While distortions are not favored, they are many times unavoidable, so the best we can do is to try our best to reduce it.

Set up of FEA: steps:

- ↳ mathematical models for FEA work on idealization of the real physical model.
- ↳ The most appropriate idealization can be defined a fine-tuned to understand the physical nature of the problem, this idealization occurs in our brain out.

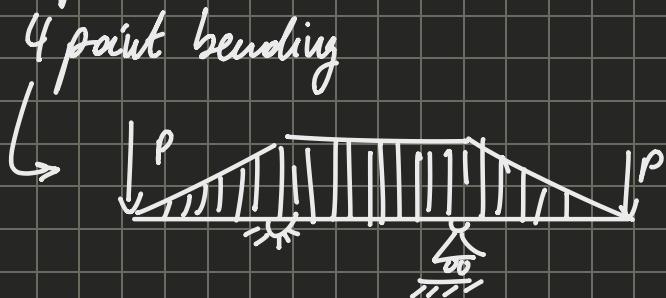
GARBAGE IN = GARBAGE OUT

- To idealize we need to remove all superfluous details while keeping the needed, reducing time and keeping the accuracy.

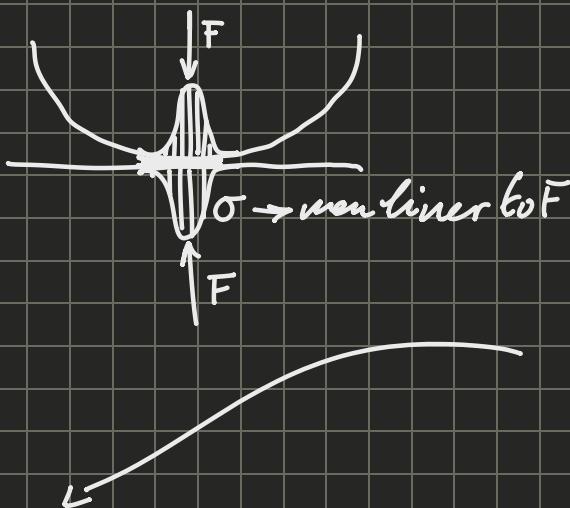
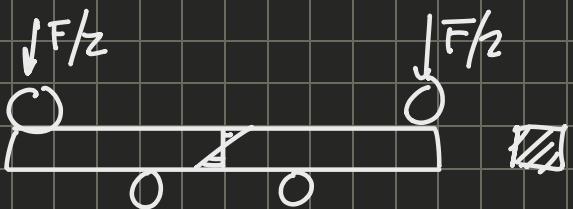
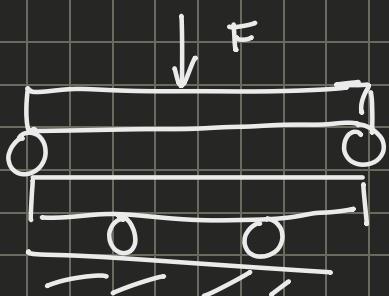
To where the appropriate elements it's not possible:

- without working the theory
- knowing the elements (what they can and cannot do)

Example:

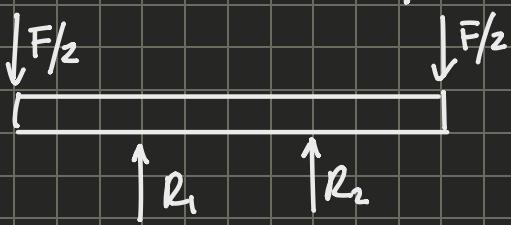


Roller points are contact points, since contact points are non-linear, the analysis will immediately be non-linear.



If the roller is much stiffer than the beam, then the area of application can be loosely approximated to a point where the force is applied.

This means we can approximate to:

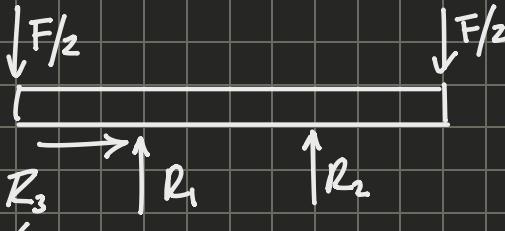


→ we can also simplify this, by just taking a slice, assuming a properly taken plate stress consideration and assuming our 2D object can simulate the 3D object.

$$[h]\{u\} = \{F\}$$

Since $[h]$ is solp, the system must beostatic or hyperstatic

With how it's currently drawn it's not isostatic since we have not put the horizontal constraint on the left; it means that it will then be static.



The force still needs to be added, even though it can't act to be 0.

We can also simplify by realizing the symmetry of a system which we are looking at.

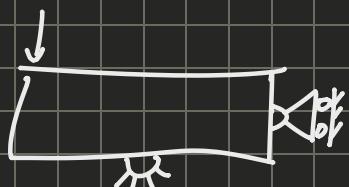


The roller can be seen as the same as the hinge since the horizontal is 0.

With symmetry we either use half the elements or use the same number of elements for half the space so more accuracy.

By using symmetry we need to add constraints to make the system workable. Since nodes of solid objects only have 2 d.o.f. since they can't rotate, we only can constrain in 2 possible ways.

To prevent our structure from compressing we need to fix the movement in the horizontal direction



While the vertical movement won't be constrained since we want to allow the movement to be the same as the original.

It's possible to have more than one pair of constraint, since we want to reduce calculations, we still need to keep the symmetry constraints.

We need to make sure each symmetry is the exact same.

If the aim was to find the deplacement we could think about 1 DoFs. Since we change the dimension, we must change the constraint at the axis of symmetry, since we now have to also consider the rotation we need to block the deformation so it's the same as the original system. we need to constrain like before, so the constraint becomes a slide.

Discretisation (after idealisation)

↳ The mesh is not a given, but an unknown of the problem.

In accordance with de Saint-Venant, independent on how we apply the load, the stresses will be the same.

↳ This explains why we can approximate the \sum in a roller to a force in a single point.

When we place a load on a point, the model generates stresses around the area which in reality does not exist, so the stresses have no physical meaning and we can ignore it.

Constraints:

- $\Rightarrow \text{set} = 0$ certain degrees of freedom.
- Since in reality ideal constraints do not exist, we can state the compliance to these constraints.

Multi-Point Constraints

Constraints which relate a specific master d.o.f to another master d.o.f

Master node

$$\hookrightarrow C_1 + C_2 u_n + C_3 v_n + C_4 w_n = u_i$$

↳ Example case.

Slave node

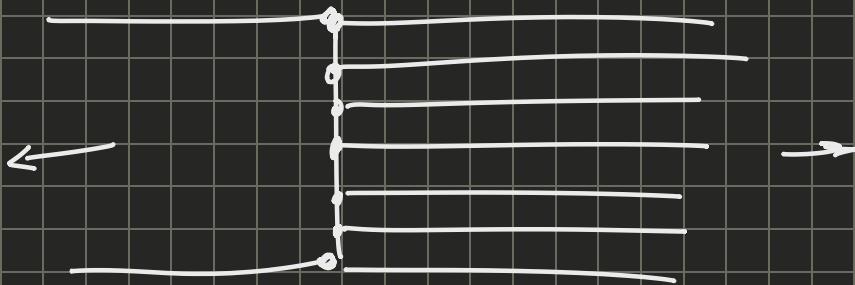
$$\downarrow$$

↳ Horizontal displacement of i , is a linear combination of the displacement in all directions for node n .

Practical Implementation

- Piso (Welding together elements)
- Tiling elements
- Coupling
- Slider

Sliders when we don't have enough computable elements.
Welding together elements of different sizes.



The problem with this is that the nodes don't have neighbors so if we don't tie we have problem. With the tie we are able to do it.

Evaluation of results

↳ We don't leave many tools to do so, development trust in ourselves.

Useful tools:

↳ checking reaction forces \rightarrow if errors $\sim 5\text{-}10\%$. first steps ^{are good.}

↳ observing the discontinuity of the calculated stress field.

↳ carrying out a convergence analysis.

don't have
breaks on

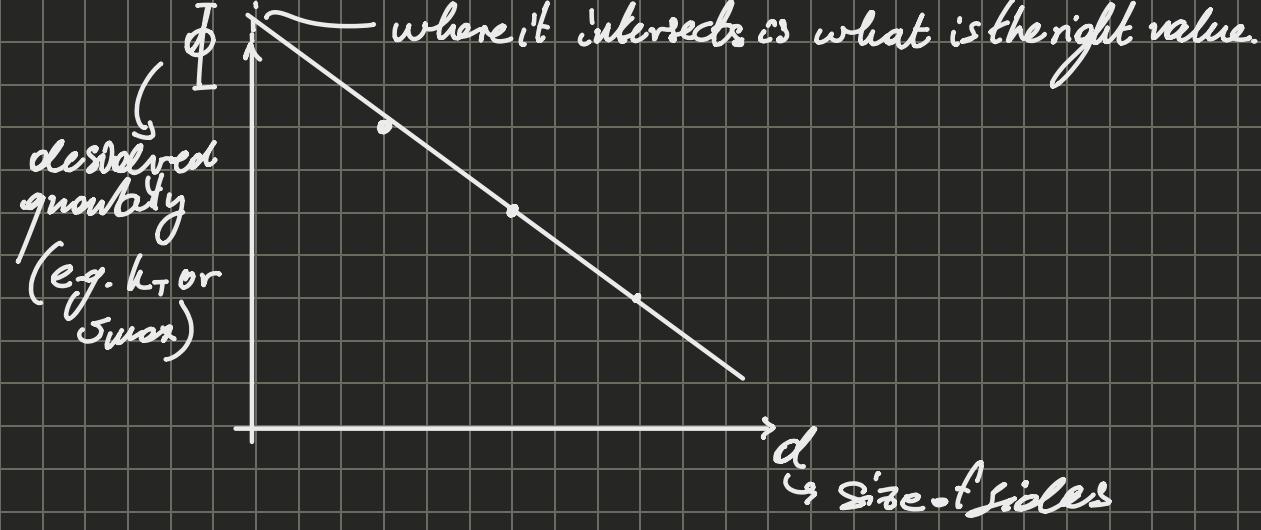
↳ many programs automatically calculate the average, we have to turn it off, since it's terrible.

↳ No numerical convergence

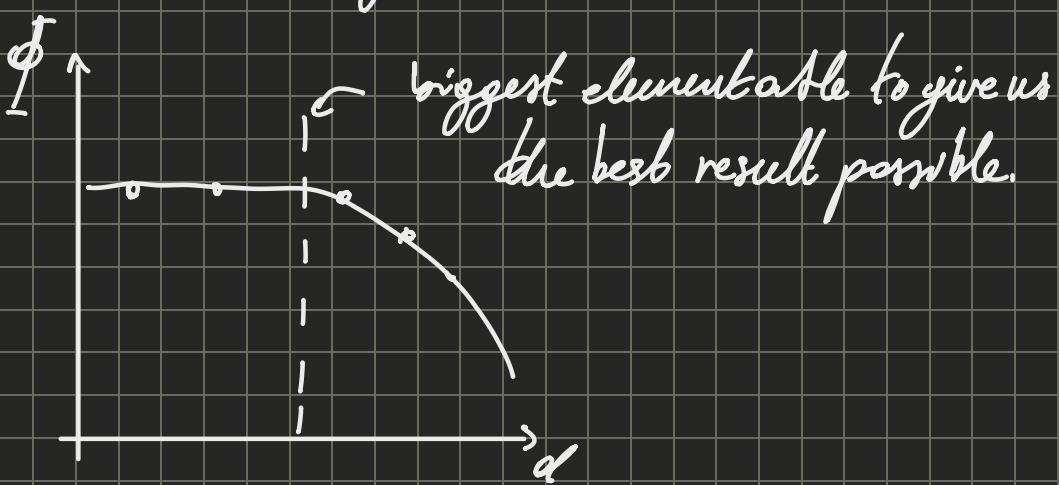
↳ analysing our mesh with the size of our solution.

✓

elements in



Other times it goes like:



We should always apply it to have an idea of the best size.