

Material modelling in civil engineering

Version
27.5.2021

Department of Civil and Structural Engineering

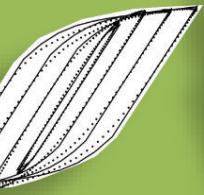
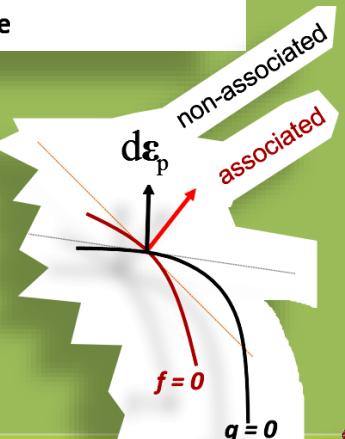
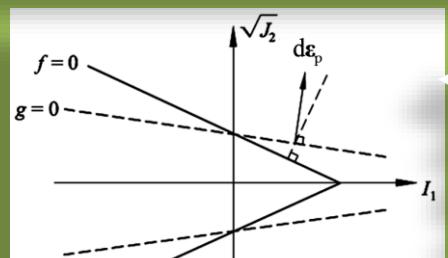
• Plasticity – plastisuuus

Engineering

• Failure hypotheses - lujuushypoteesit

$$f(\sigma) = \sqrt{J_2} + \alpha I_1 - k \quad \text{Drucker-Prager yield criterion}$$

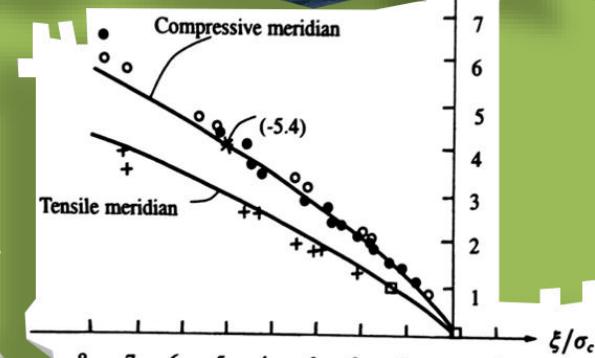
$$g(\sigma) = \sqrt{J_2} + \beta I_1 - k \quad \text{Flow rule}$$



$$A \frac{J_2}{\sigma_c} + \Lambda \sqrt{J_2} + BI_1 - \sigma_c = 0,$$



Djebar BAROUDI, PhD.
Lecturer @ Aalto-university
Civil Engineering Department



Ref: Ottosen et al., The mechanics of constitutive modeling, 2015.



This material is not a collection of lecture-slides.

It represents an illustrated reading supporting material for me and for you. I hope it will activate student's interest for the subject. The topics treated in this intensive course cannot be avoided by structural engineers; they will wait for you hidden inside the FE-software you will use to perform advanced structural analysis. This course may be the right place for first contact them in a friendly learning environment.

Supporting Material in MyCourses

0. INTRODUCTION

1. ELASTICITY

2. VISCOELASTICITY (+ basics of creep)

3. PLASTICITY

4. DAMAGE

Reading – Textbooks:

- Lemaitre and Chaboche – *Mechanics of Solid Materials*
- Ottosen & Ristinmaa – *The Mechanics of Constitutive Modeling*
- W.F. Chen, D.J. Han – *Plasticity for Structural Engineers* (only chapters 1-5)

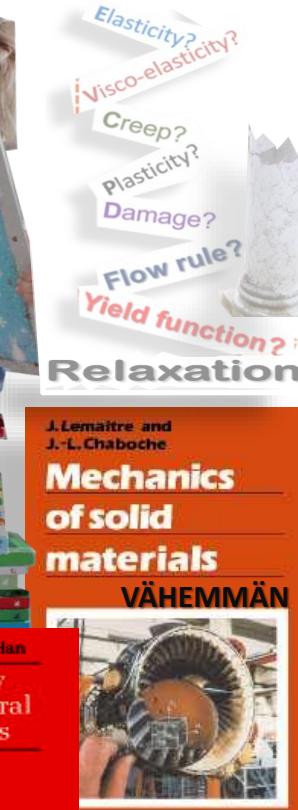
Classical Textbooks: (not obligatory)

L. M. Kachanov

Fundamentals of the theory of Plasticity



$$A \frac{J_2}{\sigma_c} + \Lambda \sqrt{J_2} + BI_1 - \sigma_c = 0,$$



Lemaitre & Chaboche textbook as an **e-book**:

<http://proquestcombo.safaribooksonline.com.libproxy.aalto.fi/book/physics/9781107384712>

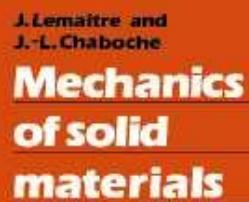
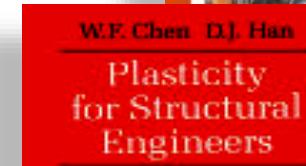
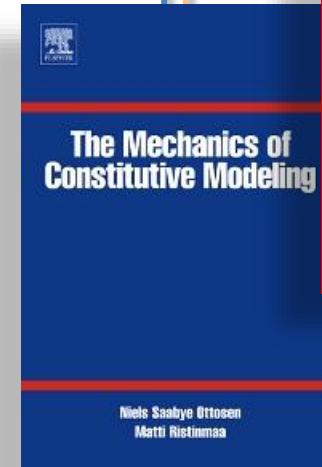
Literature & textbooks

Learning Supporting Material in MyCourses

- 0. INTRODUCTION
- 1. ELASTICITY
- 2. VISCOELASTICITY (& some basics of creep)
- 3. PLASTICITY (& Failure Hypotheses)
- 4. DAMAGE → Guest lecture

Reading:

- Lemaitre, chapter 5. – **Plasticity**
or
- W.F. Chen, D.J. Han, chapters 1-5 **Plasticity for Structural Engineers**
or
- Ottosen & Ristinmaa, chapters 8...12 – **Plasticity**



Not directly related to this course, however, worth to visit:
Structures & Structural Analysis & Structural Mechanics:
<https://www.colorado.edu/engineering/CAS/courses.d/Structures.d/>

Lemaitre & Chaboche textbook as an **e-book**:

<http://proquestcombo.safaribooksonline.com.libproxy.aalto.fi/book/physics/9781107384712>

A must reading:

Erittäin ytimekkääitä - rutikuiva
Very concise and covers
entirely our course

Prof. Reijo Kouhia's lecture
notes:

***Introduction to materials
modelling , 103 pp.***

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Maximal Minimalism: Less than 20 pp.

These pdfs are in MyCourses

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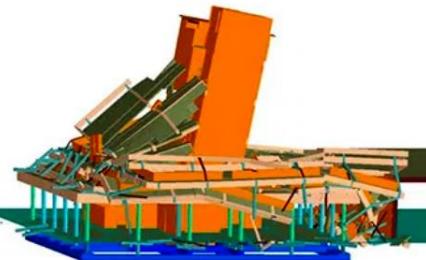
Must visit sites:

<https://www.appliedelementmethod.org/> (AEM)

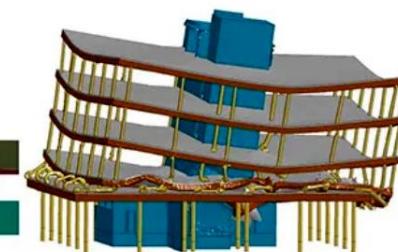
Numerical prediction of progressive collapse of buildings due to extreme loading
Applied finite element AEM is a ingenious combination (hybrid) of continuous finite element technology FEM and discrete elements DEM technology. FEM performs for regions with no discontinuities and DEM performs better when discontinuities and separation starts.



Pyne Gould Collapse



AEM



FEM

Reliability of collapse simulation – Comparing finite and applied element method at different levels

Must visit sites:

<http://solidmechanics.org/index.html>

Summarizes physical laws, mathematical models, and algorithms that are used to predict the response of materials and structures to mechanical or thermal loading

Example of content:

3. Constitutive Equations: Relations between Stress and Strain

3.1 General Requirements for Constitutive Equations

3.2 Linear Elastic Material Behavior

- 3.2.1 Isotropic, linear elastic material behavior
- 3.2.2 Stress—strain relations for isotropic, linear elastic materials
- 3.2.3 Reduced stress-strain equations for plane deformation of isotropic solids
- 3.2.4 Representative values for density, and elastic constants of isotropic solids
- 3.2.5 Other elastic constants – bulk, shear and Lame modulus
- 3.2.6 Physical Interpretation of the elastic constants for isotropic materials
- 3.2.7 Strain energy density for isotropic solids
- 3.2.8 Stress-strain relation for a general anisotropic linear elastic material
- 3.2.9 Physical Interpretation of the anisotropic elastic constants.
- 3.2.10 Strain energy density for anisotropic, linear elastic solids
- 3.2.11 Basis change formulas for the anisotropic elastic constants
- 3.2.12 The effect of material symmetry on anisotropic stress-strain relations
- 3.2.13 Stress-strain relations for linear elastic orthotropic materials
- 3.2.14 Stress-strain relations for linear elastic transversely isotropic material
- 3.2.15 Values for elastic constants of transversely isotropic crystals
- 3.2.16 Linear elastic stress-strain relations for cubic materials
- 3.2.17 Representative values for elastic properties of cubic crystals

3.3 Hypoelasticity - elasticity with nonlinear stress-strain behavior

3.4 Generalized Hooke's law – elastic materials subjected to small stretches but large rotations

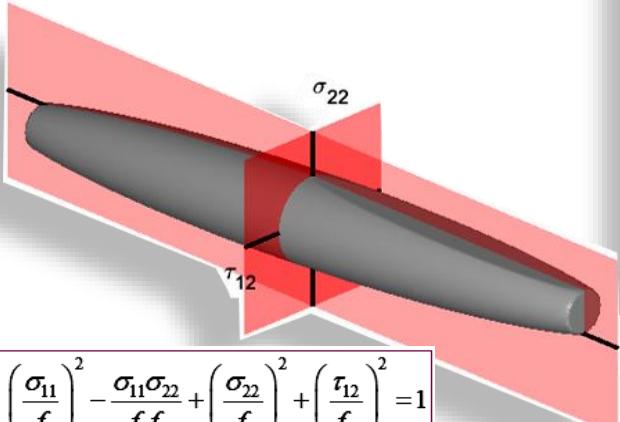
3.5 Hyperelasticity - time independent behavior of rubbers and foams subjected to large strains

- 3.5.1 Deformation measures used in finite elasticity
- 3.5.2 Stress measures used in finite elasticity
- 3.5.3 Calculating stress-strain relations from the strain energy density
- 3.5.4 A note on perfectly incompressible materials
- 3.5.5 Specific forms of the strain energy density
- 3.5.6 Calibrating nonlinear elasticity models
- 3.5.7 Representative values of material properties for rubbers and foams

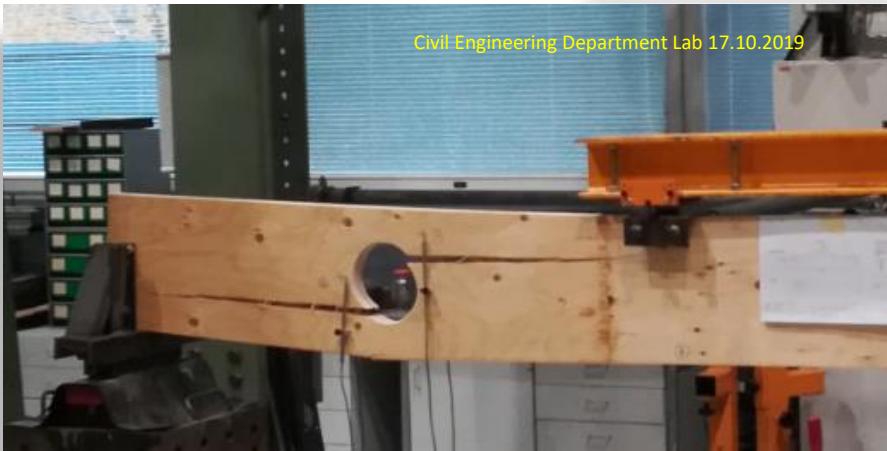
Guest lecture year 2020:
18 MAI 2018 klo 14-16, zoom

Norris criterion (Norris 1962)

- Multi-surface approach
- No distinction tension/compression



$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{11}}{f_1}\right)^2 - \frac{\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}}{f_1 f_2} + \left(\frac{\sigma_{22}}{f_2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\tau_{12}}{f_{12}}\right)^2 = 1$$
$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{11}}{f_1}\right)^2 = 1$$
$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{22}}{f_2}\right)^2 = 1$$



I reproduce some failure criteria commonly used for wood
this pdf-material is from the presentation (2020) given by
Joonas Jaaranen (reproduced with permission)

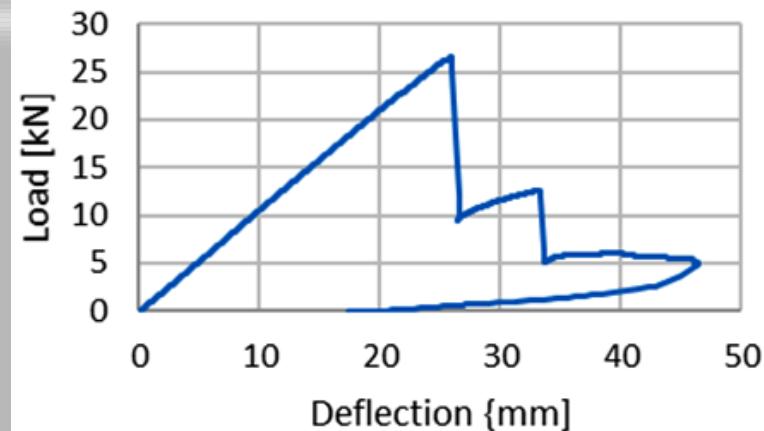
Aalto University School of Engineering

Failure criteria and material modelling of wood

Presentation on CIV-E4080 Material Modelling in Civil Engineering

Joonas Jaaranen, Aalto University

The background of the slide features a close-up view of a complex steel truss structure with many intersecting beams and joints.



Guest lecture from 2021:
17 MAI 2021 klo 14-16 in the air

Introduction to creep modelling

Reijo Kouhia

Tampere University, Structural Mechanics

May 18, 2021

- Phenomenology of creep
- Application areas
- Macroscopical modelling of creep
 - ▶ Viscoelasticity
 - ▶ Viscoplasticity
 - ▶ Creep
 - ▶ Continuum damage mechanics
- Some rules of thumb
- Example case
- Selected literature

Final constitutive equations

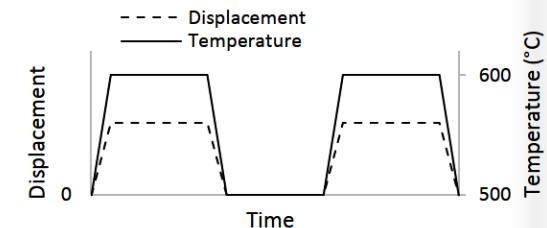
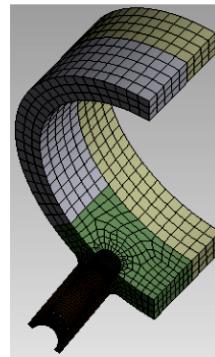
$$\sigma = \omega C_e : \varepsilon_e,$$

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_c = \frac{h_c}{t_c} \left(\frac{\bar{\sigma}}{\omega \sigma_{rc}} \right)^p \frac{\partial \bar{\sigma}}{\partial \sigma},$$

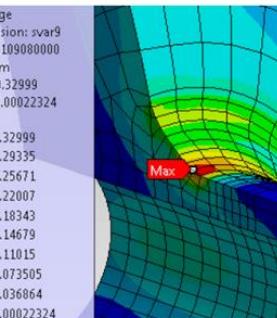
$$\mathbf{q} = -\lambda \operatorname{grad} T.$$

The integrity rates

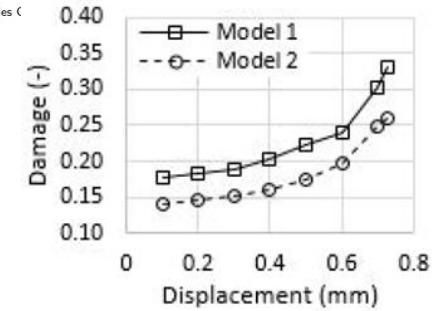
$$\dot{\omega} = -\frac{h_c}{(1+k+p)\tau_d \omega^k} \left(\frac{Y}{Y_r} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}p}$$



Important in the analysis of engines, power plant boilers & superheaters etc.



Figures by Valmet Technologies ©



Numerical modelling of quasi-brittle materials with polygonal finite elements

Timo Saksala, Docent صكسل تمو

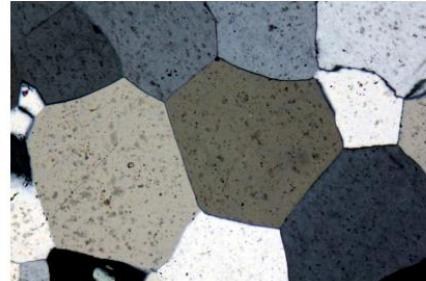
Academy Research Fellow

Civil Engineering Tampere University

Visiting lecture at Aalto University, May 2, 2018
At 14:15–16, Lecture hall R2
Rakentajanaukio 4 A, Otaniemi, Espoo

We wish you welcome – coffee at 4 pm
Jarkko Niiranen, Assistant Professor
Djebar Baroudi, Lecturer
Department of Civil Engineering,
School of Engineering,
Aalto University

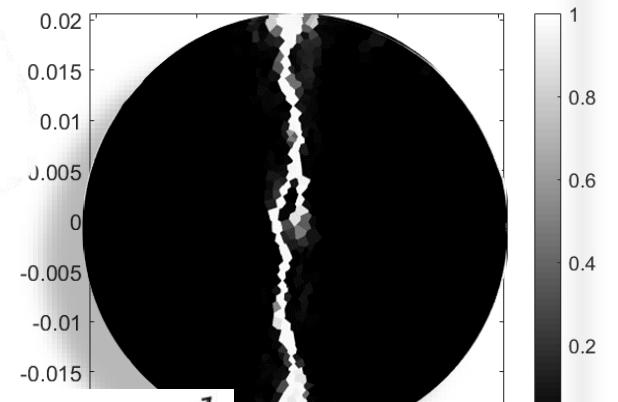
Polygonal texture in quartz*



- Physics of brittle behavior
- Constitutive modeling: combined viscoplasticity damage model with contact
- Numerical modeling: Finite Element Method with special polygonal elements, Cutting-Plane method, impact and contact
- Application: progressive damage in rock, fracture analysis, rock dynamics, ...

Real experiment

Mathematical Model



Viscoplastic model Hoek-Brown criterion:

$$f_{HB}(\sigma, \lambda, \dot{\lambda}) = (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)^2 + \sigma_c(\lambda, \dot{\lambda})^2 \left(\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_t(\lambda, \dot{\lambda})} - 1 \right)$$

$$\sigma_t = \sigma_{t0} + h_t \lambda + s_t \dot{\lambda},$$

$$\sigma_c = \sigma_{c0} + h_c \lambda + s_c \dot{\lambda}.$$

Damage model

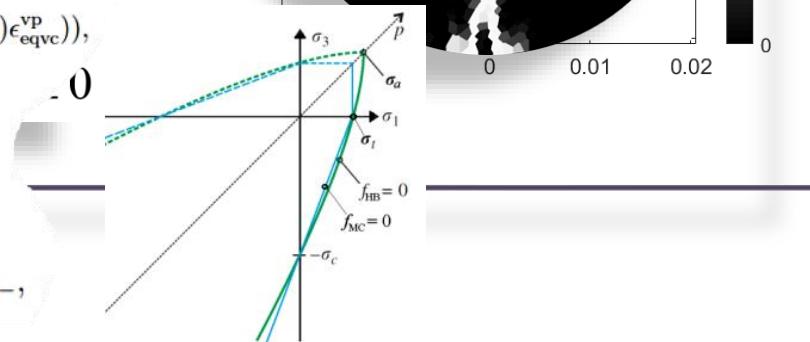
$$\omega_t = A_t (1 - \exp(\beta_t \epsilon_{eqvt}^{vp})),$$

$$\omega_c = A_c (\sigma_{conf})(1 - \exp(\beta_c (\sigma_{conf}) \epsilon_{eqvc}^{vp})),$$

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{eqvt}^{vp} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^3 \langle \dot{\epsilon}_i^{vp} \rangle_+^2},$$

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{eqvc}^{vp} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3} \dot{\epsilon}_{dev}^{vp} : \dot{\epsilon}_{dev}^{vp}}.$$

$$\sigma = (1 - \omega_t) \bar{\sigma}_+ + (1 - \omega_c) \bar{\sigma}_-,$$



Continuum Damage Plasticity for Concrete Modeling

Guest-lecture kindly offered by

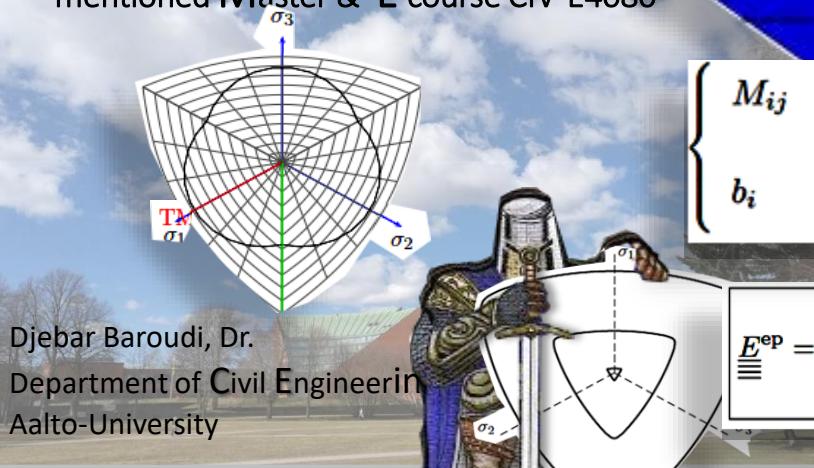
Dr. Alexis Fedoroff 

Scientist @ VTT



25 MAI 2021 klo 12-14

- The topic of this lecture is one of the six topics which are addressed in the above mentioned Master & L-course CIV-E4080



Djebar Baroudi, Dr.

Department of Civil Engineering
Aalto-University

Teacher:
Djebar BAROUDI, Dr.

$$A \frac{J_2}{\sigma_c} + \Lambda \sqrt{J_2} + BI_1 - \sigma_c = 0,$$

$$\begin{cases} M_{ij} &= \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial \underline{\zeta}} \cdot \frac{\partial g_j}{\partial \underline{Z}} + \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial \underline{Z}} \cdot \frac{\partial \underline{\zeta}}{\partial \underline{\zeta}} \cdot \frac{\partial g_j}{\partial \underline{Z}} \\ b_i &= -\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial \underline{\eta}} \cdot \dot{\underline{\eta}} - \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial \underline{Z}} \cdot \frac{\partial \underline{Z}}{\partial \underline{\eta}} \cdot \dot{\underline{\eta}}. \end{cases}$$

$$\underline{\underline{E}}^{ep} = \underline{\underline{E}}(d) + \frac{(\underline{\underline{E}}(0) : (\underline{\underline{\epsilon}} - \underline{\underline{\epsilon}}^p)) \otimes ((\underline{\underline{\epsilon}} - \underline{\underline{\epsilon}}^p) : \underline{\underline{E}}(0))}{\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial d} / \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial Y}} - \frac{(\underline{\underline{E}}(0) : \underline{\underline{n}}) \otimes (\underline{\underline{n}} : \underline{\underline{E}}(0))}{\frac{1-d}{d} \underline{\underline{n}} : \underline{\underline{E}}(0) : \underline{\underline{n}} + \underline{\underline{n}} : \frac{\partial H}{\partial \underline{X}} : \underline{\underline{n}} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial \pi}}$$

Tangent vector to the yield surface:

$$\underline{\underline{M}} \dot{\underline{\lambda}} = \underline{\underline{b}}$$

$$\dot{\underline{\lambda}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \underline{Z}}{\partial \underline{\zeta}} \cdot \dot{\underline{\zeta}} + \frac{\partial \underline{Z}}{\partial \underline{\eta}} \cdot \dot{\underline{\eta}} \\ \dot{\underline{\zeta}} \\ \dot{\underline{\eta}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Continuum Damage Plasticity for Concrete Modeling

Guest-lecture offered by



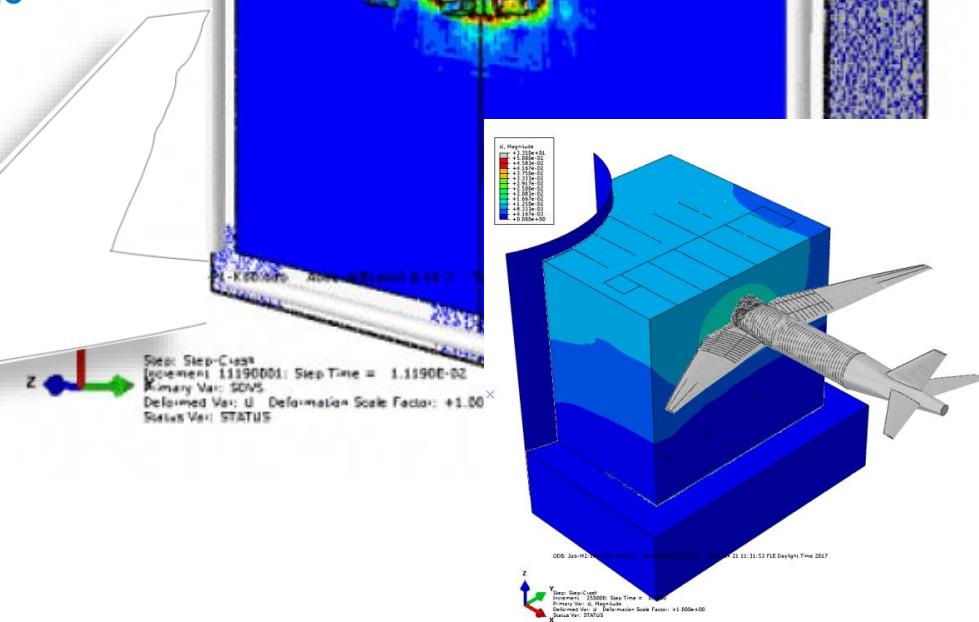
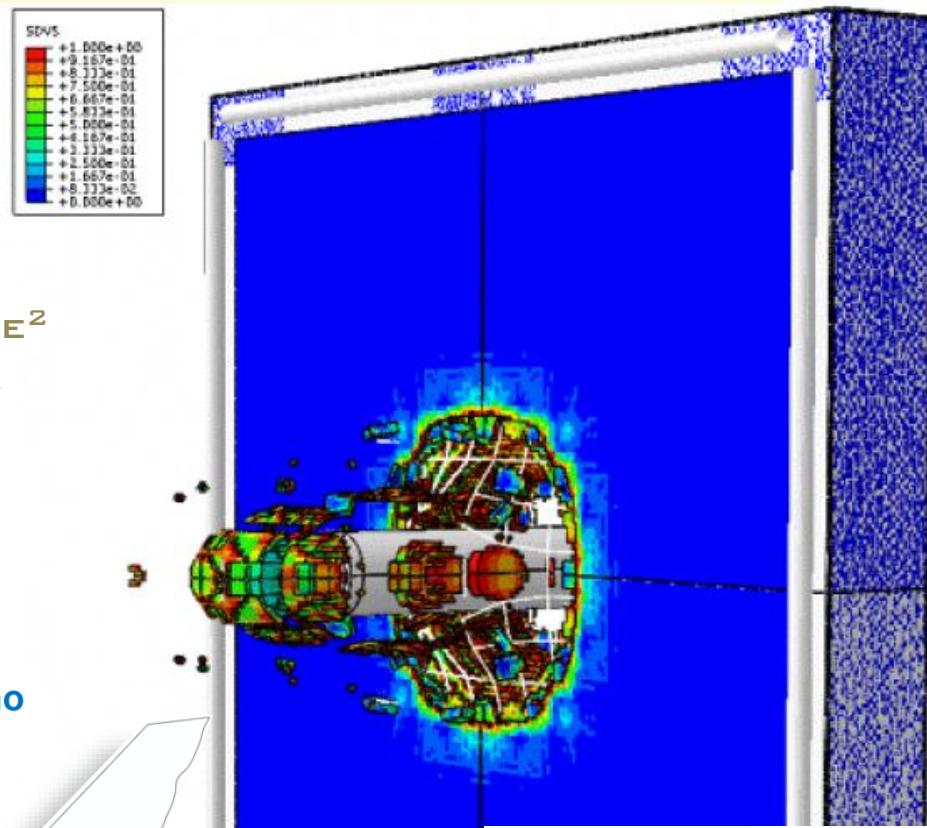
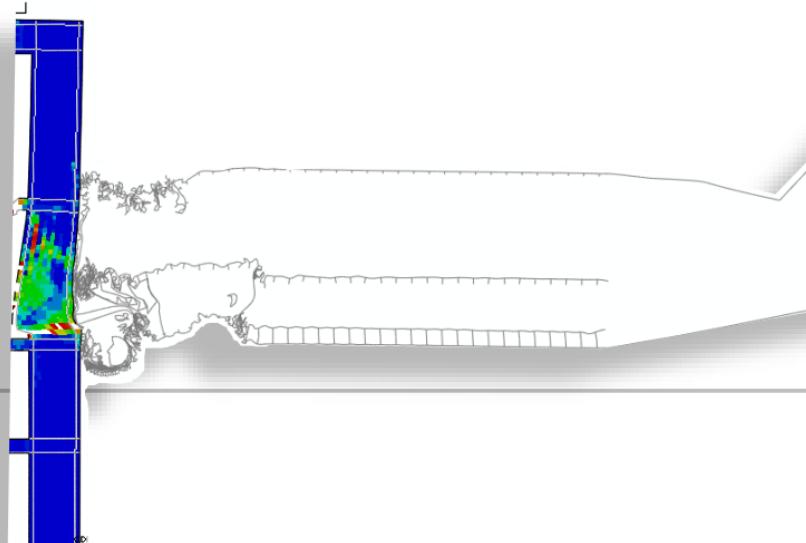
Dr. **Alexis Fedoroff** – Civil Engineer & Scientist @ VTT

A physically motivated element deletion criterion

for the concrete damage plasticity model

Alexis Fedoroff, Juha Kuutti, and Arja Saarenheimo

Technical research centre of Finland (VTT), Nuclear safety.



Guest-lecture offered by

Dr. Alexis Fedoroff –

Civil Engineer & Scientist @



Concrete Damage Plasticity with applications

▪ Pre-requisites: Continuum thermodynamics

- ✓ Conservation laws,
- ✓ I & II principles of thermodynamics, Clausius-Duhem inequality
- ✓ Maximum dissipation postulate
- ✓ Consistency condition
- ✓ Solving the Lagrange multipliers

▪ Introduction to the Abaqus CDP material model

- ✓ Thermodynamic potential, yield potential, flow potential
- ✓ Concrete behaviour in uniaxial tests, hardening laws
- ✓ Evolution of the yield surface, expressions of the normal vectors
- ✓ Evolution of stiffness degradation
- ✓ Incremental stress-strain relationship

▪ Examples of application of the Abaqus CDP model

An introductory course to Abaqus CDP material modelling

Constitutive equations

▪ The identity $\gamma = \gamma_{\text{def}}$ must hold for all states $(\underline{\underline{\sigma}}, \underline{q}, \underline{Z}, \underline{\underline{\epsilon}}^e, \dot{T})$:

- Elasticity rule: $\underline{\underline{\sigma}} = \rho \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \underline{\underline{\epsilon}}^e} = -\rho \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \underline{\underline{\epsilon}}^p}$
- Entropy relation: $s_* = \rho \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial T}$
- Plastic flow rule: $\underline{\dot{\epsilon}}^p = \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial \underline{\underline{\sigma}}}$
- Internal variable flow rule: $\dot{\underline{\zeta}} = -\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial \underline{Z}}$
- Temperature flow rule: $\underline{\nabla} \ln T = -\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial \underline{q}}$

▪ The dissipation rate simplifies to:

$$\gamma = \underline{\underline{\sigma}} : \underline{\dot{\epsilon}}^p - \underline{Z} \cdot \dot{\underline{\zeta}} - \underline{q} \cdot \underline{\nabla} \ln T = \gamma^M + \gamma^T$$

Example: Mises plasticity with isotropic hardening and scalar damage

- Flux variables: $\boldsymbol{\eta} = \{\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}\}$ and $\boldsymbol{\xi} = \{\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^p, -\varepsilon_{eq}^p, -d\}$. Force variable $\mathbf{X} = -\rho \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \boldsymbol{\xi}} = \{\underline{\underline{\sigma}}, \sigma_y, Y\}$.
- Helmholtz potential $\rho\psi(\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^e, \varepsilon_{eq}^p, d) = \frac{1}{2}\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^e:(1-d)\mathbb{E}:\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^e + \frac{1}{2}H\varepsilon_{eq}^p{}^2$, whence:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} (1-d)\mathbb{E}:\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^e \\ H\varepsilon_{eq}^p \\ -\frac{1}{2}\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^e:\mathbb{E}:\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^e \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\xi}} = \begin{pmatrix} -(1-d)\mathbb{E} & 0 & \mathbb{E}:\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^e \\ 0 & -H & 0 \\ \mathbb{E}:\underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^e & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Yield functions $f_1(\underline{\underline{\sigma}}, \sigma_y; d) = \frac{1}{1-d} \left(\sqrt{3J_2(\underline{\underline{\sigma}})} - \sigma_y \right)$, $f_2(Y; d) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{Y^2}{k(1-d)}$

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{1-d} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{n}{2} \\ -1 \\ f_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial \boldsymbol{\xi}} = \frac{1}{1-d} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -f_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{1-d} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-1}{2(1-d)} \underline{\underline{\varepsilon}}^e \\ 0 \\ Y/k \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \boldsymbol{\xi}} = \frac{1}{1-d} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -f_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Guest-lecture offered by

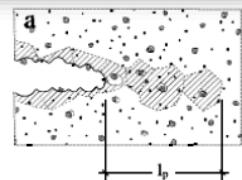
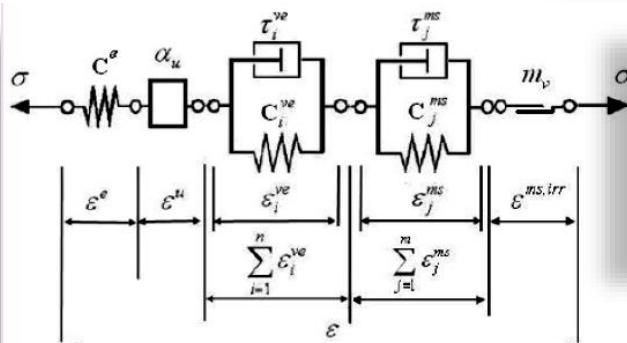
Dr **Stefania FORTINO** – Senior Scientist @ VTT

Hygro-mechanical behaviour of wooden structural elements

Stefania Fortino

Senior Scientist

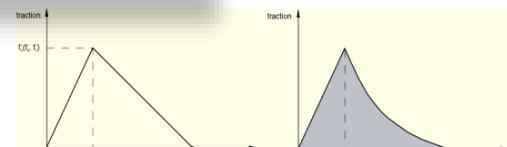
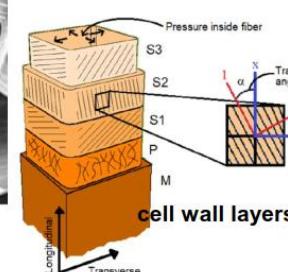
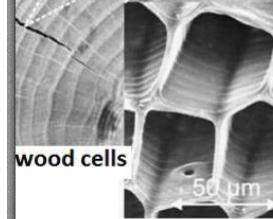
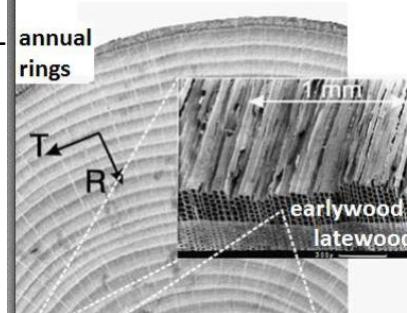
VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland



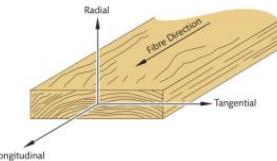
Exponential softening (suitable for parametric study and for wood)

$$D = 1 - \left\{ \frac{\delta_m^o}{\delta_m^{\max}} \right\} \left\{ 1 - \frac{1 - \exp(-\alpha(\frac{\delta_m^{\max} - \delta_m^o}{\delta_m^{\max} - \delta_m^o}))}{1 - \exp(-\alpha)} \right\} . \quad \delta_m = \sqrt{(\delta_n)^2 + (\delta_s)^2 + (\delta_t)^2}$$

$$\psi(T, u, \epsilon, \epsilon_i^{ve}, \epsilon_j^{ms}) = \phi(T, u) + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^e : \mathbf{C}^e : \epsilon^e + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i^{ve} : \mathbf{C}_i^{ve} : \epsilon_i^{ve} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^m \epsilon_j^{ms} : \mathbf{C}_j^{ms} : \epsilon_j^{ms}$$



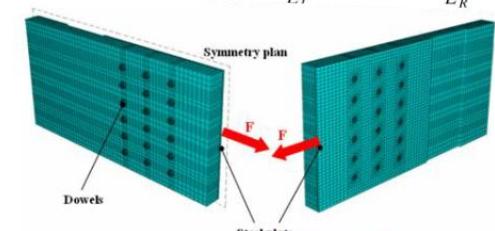
- The mechanical properties of wood depend on its material structure from annual rings to wood cells and cell wall layers



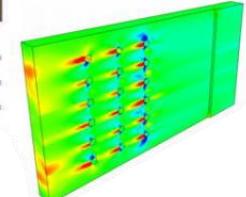
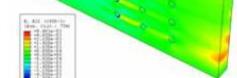
- Orthotropic material
- Elastic compliance matrix:

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{E_R} & -v_{TR} & -v_{TL} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -v_{RT} & \frac{1}{E_T} & -v_{LT} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -v_{RL} & -v_{TL} & \frac{1}{E_L} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{G_{RT}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{G_{RL}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{G_{TL}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v_{RL} = \frac{E_R}{E} v_{LR}, \quad v_{TL} = \frac{E_T}{E} v_{LT}, \quad v_{TR} = \frac{E_T}{E_R} v_{RT}$$



Example of computational work
for MSc theses



Content

Motivation

- Course of materials modelling in other universities
- Literature & textbooks
- Some historical notes on engineering plasticity
- Motivation: How engineering Plasticity is seen in Abaqus, Ansys, Lusas?
- Stress invariants
- Examples of Failure of Structures
- What is failure? Types of failures, failure envelopes and failure criteria

Plasticity

Failure hypothesis or Yield criteria

Plasticity Isotropic & Isothermal Rate-Independent

- Examples
- Some basic physics for Engineering Plasticity
- Plastic basic behavior in simple tension & compression

Modelling of uniaxial behavior in plasticity – simplified models

- Elastic-Perfectly Plastic Model
- Elastic-Linear Work-hardening model
- Elastic-Exponential Hardening model
- Ramberg-Osgood model
- **Tangent- and plastic modulus**
- **Hardening rules**
- **Elastic-plastic behaviour – cyclic loading**
 - Worked uniaxial example – analytical & Abaqus
- Loading history dependency and **strain hardening effects**
- Homework: Uniaxial Elastic-plastic behaviour : ex #1, ex #2
- Some examples of solved problems in Plasticity
 - ✓ **Plastic limit load and displacement-force relation in bending**

Continued...

Engineering Plasticity

Classical theory – fundamentals

The three ingredient of the classical plasticity theory

- **Yield criteria**
- **Flow rule**
- **Hardening rule**

Yield Criteria

Pressure independent Yield criteria

- Tresca yield Criterion
- Von Mises yield Criterion

Pressure dependent Yield criteria

- Mohr-Coulomb Criterion
- Drucker-Prager Criterion
- Ottosen (1977) developed a 4-parameters failure criterion for concrete
- Hoek-Brown failure criterion
- The Cam-Clay model
 - (good to know) Example of material Behavior of Clay and Silt in Otaniemi

Other types of failure criteria

- Maximum Principle Stress Criteria (Rankine)
- Maximum Principal strain (St. Venant)

Anisotropic yield criteria

...

Appendices

- **Appendix 1:** Stress invariants
- **Appendix 2:** Recommended compulsory reading

• Plasticity – plastisuus

Failure hypotheses - lujuushypoteesit



Continued

Hardening – notions

- Hardening Rules
- Examples of simple rheological models for Rate-independent plasticity
- Examples of hardening rules in Abaqus – how they looks like?

Flow rules

Flow rule & Consistency condition

Plastic strain increment

Principle of maximum plastic work

Normality rule

Consistency Condition

Associative and Non-associate Plasticity

- Convexity of the criterion
- Normality of the plastic flow
- Some application examples of associated and non-associated plasticity

Incremental Stress-Strain Relationships

Example of a flow rule for isotropic hardening

Examples of hardening rules in Abaqus – how it looks like?

EOL

Literature & textbooks

Learning Supporting Material in MyCourses

0. INTRODUCTION

1. ELASTICITY

2. VISCOELASTICITY (& some basics of creep)

3. PLASTICITY (& Failure Hypotheses)

Content

Plasticity

Failure hypothesis or Yield criteria

Plasticity Isotropic & Isothermal Rate-Independent

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CONTINUE...

Engineering Plasticity

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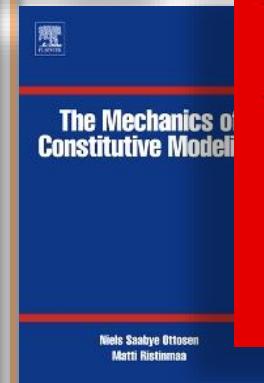
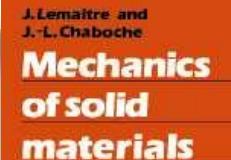
Anisotropic yield criteria

...

Detailed content on next slide

Reading:

- Lemaitre, chapter 5. – Plasticity
or
- W.F. Chen, D.J. Han, chapters 1-5
Plasticity for Structural Engineers
or
- Ottosen & Ristinmaa, chapters 8...12 – Plasticity



In one word: it is question of modeling the material behavior beyond its domain of elasticity (Plasticity is one kind of material non-linearity)

Lemaître & Chaboche textbook as an e-book:

<http://proquestcombo.safaribooksonline.com.libproxy.aalto.fi/book/physics/9781107384712>

Course of materials modelling in other universities



TECHNISCHE
UNIVERSITÄT
DARMSTADT

Technische Universität Darmstadt

13-02-0003-vI Werkstoffmechanik

9.10.2016

Veranstaltungsdetails

Lehrende: Prof. Dr.-Ing. Michael Vormwald; Dipl.-Ing. Melanie Fiedler

Veranstaltungart: Vorlesung

Orga-Einheit: FB13 Bau- und Umweltingenieurwissenschaften

Anzeige im Stundenplan: Werkstm. (V)

Fach:

Anrechenbar für:

Semesterwochenstunden: 3

Unterrichtssprache: Deutsch

Min. | Max. Teilnehmerzahl: - | -

Lehrinhalte:

- Klassifizierung der Phänomene des Deformations- und Festigkeitsverlustes
- Lineare Elastizität
- Isotropie, Anisotropie (Orthotropie, transversale Isotropie)
- Elastoplastizität
- Idealplastizität, Isotrope und kinematische Verfestigung
- Viskoelastizität, Viskoplastizität
- Werkstoffgesetze für Stahl, Beton, Glas, Holz, Kunststoffe und Geomaterialien
- Numerische Umsetzung

Today subject

... for comparison of the courses contents at two universities to show the relevance of such course content for CIV-engineers

Content:

- Elasticity – **kimmoisuus tai elastisuus**
(linear, hyper-elasticity, isotropy, anisotropy, orthotropy)
- Viscoelasticity - **viskoelastisuus**
- Viscoplasticity or creep - **viskoplastisuus ... viruminen**
- Failure hypotheses - **lujuushypoteesit**
- Plasticity - **plastisuus**
associative, non-associative
- Damage - **vauriotuminen**
damage-plasticity ex. Concrete Damage Plasticity, Model in Abaqus

Djebar BAROUDI, PhD
Aalto-University

GOTO slide 24 if you are in a hurry

Ref: thanks go to an exchange student for providing the course content-list above

Reminding the full content of this course

Hyvää Wappua 2017



We lose two lectures! Will be replaced today
(3.5.2018)

30.4.2018 – wapun aattona



1.5.2017 Helsinki



→ skip

CONTENT

Elasticity in Solids

Definitions

Thermodynamical framework

Elastic Solids

Isothermal Cauchy-elastic material

Green-Elastic or Hyper-elastic Materials

Examples of Non-Linear Elasticity

Hysteresis during loading and unloading

Equations of Elasticity

Material Symmetries

Degree of symmetry

Linear Elasticity – Matrix Formulation

Anisotropy

Isotropy

Limits on Elastic Parameters Values

Orthotropy

Transversal isotropy

Limits on Elastic Parameters Values

Nonlinear isotropic Hooke formulation

Generalized Hooke's Law – Examples of problems

Orthotropic case – A worked example

Good to know: layered composite (transverse orthotropy)

Transformation of Stress and Strain Components

Example exercises for training

...

1. INTRODUCTION
2. ELASTICITY
3. VISCOELASTICITY
4. PLASTICITY



Minimum L-level

Nonlinear isotropic Hooke formulation

Some general aspects

Why splitting volumetric and deviatoric (shearing)?

Thermo-elasticity

Rubber or rubber-like Elasticity

Terminology and some definitions

Thermodynamics of rubber – enthalpic and entropic forces

Some classical models

Neo-Hookean model

Mooney-Rivlin model

Yeoh model

Ogden model

Example of Rubber Elasticity In Abaqus

W. Gilbert's experiment

On thermodynamics of elastomers

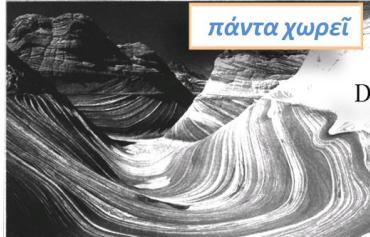
Homework

Appendix 1

Stress invariants (Recall)

Appendix 2

On Thermodynamics of Rubber
Enthalpic and Entropic forces



πάντα χωρεῖ

$$De = \frac{\tau_c}{\tau_p}$$

small: fluid
large: solid

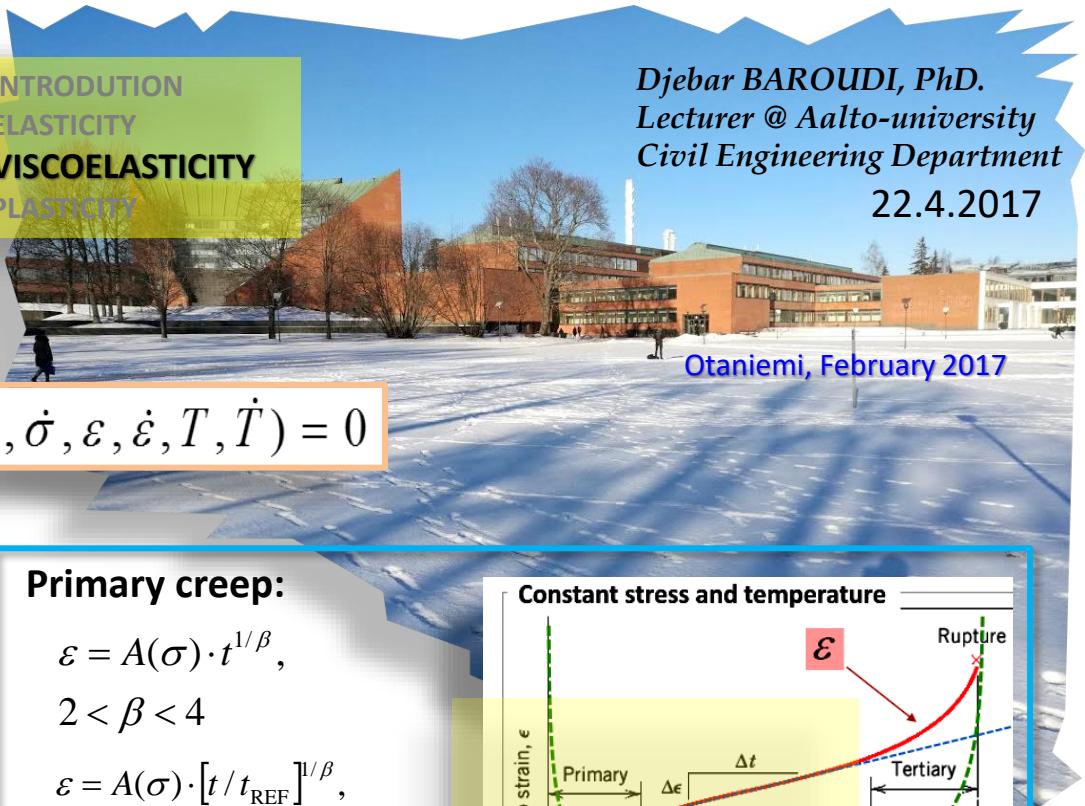
"The mountains flowed before the Lord"
(The Song of Deborah, Bible)
תְּבַדֵּל



1. INTRODUCTION
2. ELASTICITY
3. VISCOELASTICITY
4. PLASTICITY

Djebar BAROUDI, PhD.
Lecturer @ Aalto-university
Civil Engineering Department

22.4.2017



Otaniemi, February 2017

Viscoelasticity

Content

- Experimental observations: evidence of viscoelastic behavior
- Stress relaxation at constant strain
- Creep at constant stress
- Strain-rate dependence
- Constitutive models in the rate form:
 - Maxwell model
 - Kelvin-Voight model
 - Standard linear solid model
 - Burgers model
 - Generalized Maxwell model
 - Kelvin chain model



Reading: Textbooks

- Lemaitre and Chaboche – *Mechanics of Solid Materials*. [Chapter 4.3](#)
- Ottosen & Ristinmaa – *Introduction to time-dependent material behaviour*. [Chapter 14](#)

Lemaitre & Chaboche textbook as an e-book:

<http://proquestcombo.safaribooksonline.com.libproxy.aalto.fi/book/physics/9781107384712>

$$\mathcal{F}(\sigma, \dot{\sigma}, \varepsilon, \dot{\varepsilon}, T, \dot{T}) = 0$$

Primary creep:

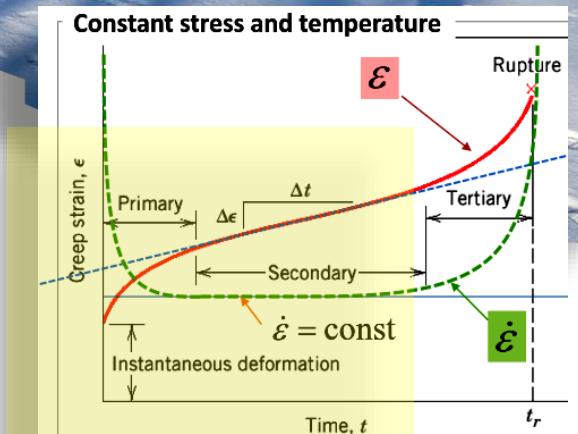
$$\dot{\varepsilon} = A(\sigma) \cdot t^{1/\beta},$$

$$2 < \beta < 4$$

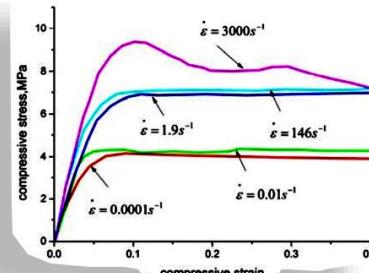
$$\varepsilon = A(\sigma) \cdot [t / t_{\text{REF}}]^{1/\beta},$$

Secondary creep:

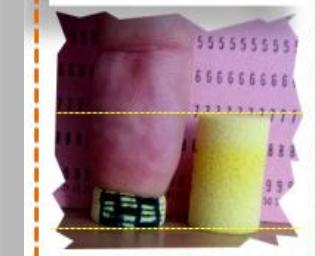
$$\dot{\varepsilon} = K_2 \left[\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_{\text{Ref}}} \right]^n \exp\left(-\frac{Q_c}{RT}\right)$$



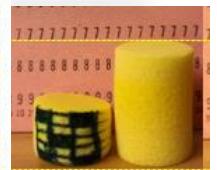
Experimental: Compressive responses of balsa wood at static, intermediate, and high strain rate



Initial loading



Partial recovery



Content Motivation

- Course of materials modelling in other universities
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Engineering Plasticity

Engineering Plasticity

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- The Cam-Clay model

(good to know) Example of material Behavior of Clay and Silt in Otaniemi

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- Maximum Principal strain (St. Venant)

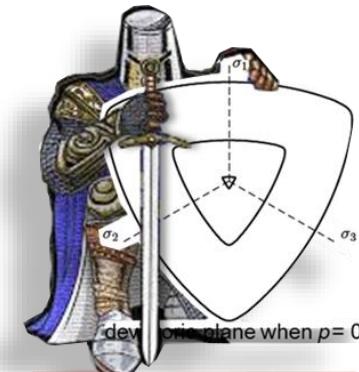
Anisotropic yield criteria

- INTRODUCTION
- ELASTICITY
- VISCOELASTICITY
- PLASTICITY

Appendices

Appendix 1: Stress invariants

Appendix 2: Recommended compulsory reading



Continued

Hardening – notions

- Hardening Rules
- Examples of simple rheological models for Rate-independent plasticity
- Examples of hardening rules in Abaqus – how they looks like?

Flow rules

Flow rule & Consistency condition

Plastic strain increment

Principle of maximum plastic work

Normality rule

Consistency Condition

Associative and Non-associate Plasticity

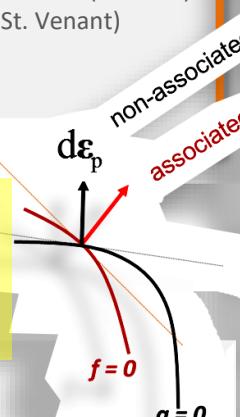
Convexity of the criterion
Normality of the plastic flow
Some application examples of associated and non-associated plasticity

Incremental Stress-Strain Relationships

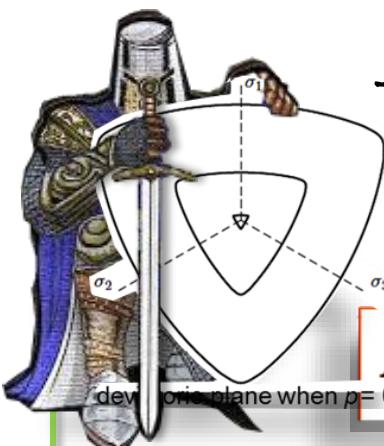
Example of a flow rule for isotropic hardening

Examples of hardening rules in Abaqus – how it looks like?

EOL



The story about engineering plasticity



$$A \frac{J_2}{\sigma_c} + \Lambda \sqrt{J_2} + BI_1 - \sigma_c = 0,$$

BEGIN

{

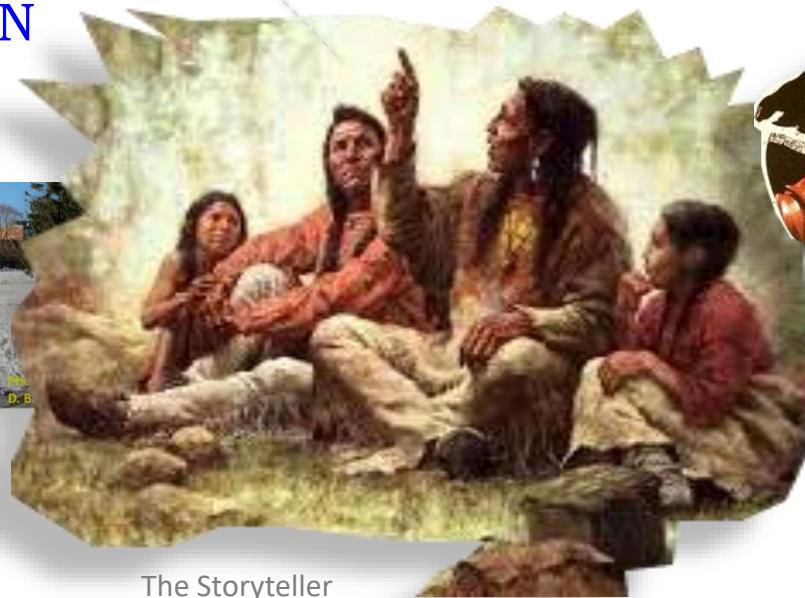
The story
START,
GO on,
keep going ...
... till the end
THEN
STOP

END

}



S



The Storyteller

SOUAD MASSI

Raoui (Storyteller)

ya rawi hki hkaya
madabik tkoun rwaya,
hkili 3ala nass zman
hkili 3ala alf lila w lila
w3ala loundja bin Ighoula
w3la wlid soultan
hadjitek, majitek,



Djebar BAROUDI

**Table of Contents****Preface****Notation****Part I – Fundamentals**

Chapter 1 – Introduction

Chapter 2 – Yield and Failure Criteria

Chapter 3 – Elastic Stress-Strain Relations

Part II – Plastic Stress-Strain Relations

Chapter 4 – Stress-Strain Relations for Perfectly Plastic Materials

Chapter 5 – Stress-Strain Relations for Work-Hardening Materials

Part III – Metal Plasticity

Chapter 6 – Implementation in Metals

Part IV – Concrete Plasticity

Chapter 7 – Implementation in Concretes

Part V – Limit Analysis

Chapter 8 – General Theorems of Limit Analysis and Their Applications

Chapter 9 – Limit Analysis of Engineering Structures

Index

Wai Fah Chen, D.J. Han. **Plasticity for Structural Engineers.** Springer New York, 2012

Wai Fah Chen, D.J. Han
Springer New York, 2012 - Technology & Engineering - 606 pages

our course

Textbook – Engineering Plasticity
(very good and complete for Structural Eng. Students and others....)

Plasticity for Structural Engineers is a practical work that provides engineers and students in structural engineering or structural mechanics with the background needed to make the transition from fundamental theory to computer implementation and engineering practice

Key Features

- Outlines the finite element implementation of the generalized stress-strain relations for the solution of practical steel and concrete structural problems
- Provides fully-worked examples, end-of-chapter problems, answers to selected problems, and clear illustrations and tables
- Features important constitutive equations for structural materials and applications to steel and concrete structures
- Includes examples of the most useful constitutive models and analytical methods

Good to know if one wants
to study 'difficult' subjects:

S_D Health ▾ Tech ▾ Enviro ▾ Society ▾ Quirky ▾

Science News

from research organizations

Movie research results: Multitasking overloads the brain

The brain works most efficiently when it can focus on a single task for a longer period of time

Date: April 25, 2017

Source: Aalto University

Summary: Previous research shows that multitasking, which means performing several tasks at the same time, reduces productivity by as much as 40%. Now a group of researchers specializing in brain imaging has found that changing tasks too frequently interferes with brain activity. This may explain why the end result is worse than when a person focuses on one task at a time.

The brain works most efficiently when it can focus on a single task for a longer period of time.

Neural Mechanisms for Integrating Consecutive and Interleaved Natural Events

Juha M. Lahnakoski ,^{1,2,3*} Iiro P. Jääskeläinen,¹ Mikko Sams,¹ and Lauri Nummenmaa^{4,5}

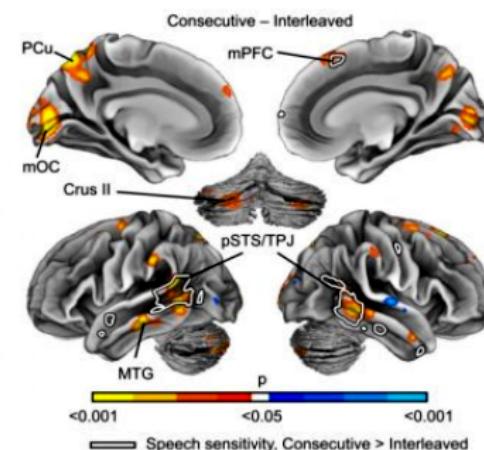
¹Department of Neuroscience and Biomedical Engineering (NBE), School of Science, Aalto University, Espoo, FI-00076, Finland

²Advanced Magnetic Imaging (AMI) Centre, Aalto NeuroImaging, School of Science, Aalto University, Espoo, FI-00076, Finland

³Independent Max Planck Research Group for Social Neuroscience, Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry, Munich, DE-80804, Germany

⁴Turku PET Centre, University of Turku, Turku, FI-20521, Finland

⁵Department of Psychology, University of Turku, Turku, FI-20521, Finland



The subjects brain areas functioned more smoothly when they watched the films in longer segments.

Credit: Juha Lahnakoski

The brain works most efficiently when it can focus on a single task for a longer period of time.

Previous research shows that multitasking, which means performing several tasks at the same time, reduces productivity by as much as 40%. Now a group of researchers specialising in brain imaging has found that changing tasks too frequently interferes with brain activity. This may explain why the end result is worse than when a person focuses on one task at a time.

'We used functional magnetic resonance imaging to measure different brain areas of our research subjects while they watched short segments of the Star Wars, Indiana Jones and James Bond movies,' explains Aalto University Associate Professor Iiro Jääskeläinen.

Journal Reference:

1. Juha M. Lahnakoski, Iiro P. Jääskeläinen, Mikko Sams, Lauri Nummenmaa. **Neural mechanisms for integrating consecutive and interleaved natural events.** *Human Brain Mapping*, 2017; DOI: 10.1002/hbm.23591

```
CONST nweeks = 6
```

```
iw= 0;
```



Aalto University

BEGIN

iw = 3

END

Content:

Djebar BAROUDI, PhD.
Aalto-University

- **Elasticity – kimoisuus tai elastisuus**
(linear, hyper-elasticity, isotropy, anisotropy, orthotropy)
- **Viscoelasticity - viskoelastisuus**
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- **Failure hypotheses - lujuushypoteesit**
- **Plasticity - plastisuus**
associative, non-associative
- **Damage - vauriotuminen**
damage-plasticity ex. Concrete Damage Plasticity, Model in
Abaqus

← If time...

← this year
Guest Lectures



About material modelling

In general, modelling or choosing an adequate material model for a real material is challenging and is definitely not a simple task. The behaviour of real materials is complex. Even for such usual material like steel, many aspects of its mechanical behaviour remains not well-known.

It is quite impossible, for a specific material, to develop a universal model giving the response under all possible conditions of use (or loading). That is why, in every problem, one has to choose a simplest model reproducing with a relevant accuracy a specific aspect of the behaviour one wants to capture. Therefore, we account in the most simplest way, for the key physics needed to capture, with satisfactory precision, the response spectra we are interested in, in a specific problem. In other word, the question itself, to which we are trying to find an answer, defines the needed or necessary complexity level of the model.

Imagine, the earth in its trajectory around the sun. You need only to determine this trajectory. Thus, the simplest mechanics is to reduce the earth with all the diversity that it holds, to a simple mathematical point having the total mass of the Earth. Then applying Newton's equations of motion, you will deduce the Kepler's laws about the trajectory. A more simpler working model cannot exist. Now, if you are interested, to make weather casting (to determine the weather of tomorrow based on measurements of today), then you need to introduce more complexity to the previous model. A material point is not enough for that. You should account for the motion of the atmosphere (air), temperature, pressure, velocity, input sun-energy, etc... the simplest model in this case is represented by the Navier-Stokes equations. If now, you need to determine the weather, for longer time, then you must account for the effect of oceans, seas and so on. This example, is just to show that the question defines the level necessary level of complexity of the model to develop or to use.

Equivalently, if I am interested in the elastic behaviour of steel for small strains, then Hooke's law is sufficient. If you, need to determine the plastic limit load of a member made of steel, then ideal-plastic model is sufficient. Now, if you have loading-unloading and reverse loading cycles, may be you need to integrate hardening to your elasto-plastic model. Now, if you need to account for effects of temperature, then thermally activated creep, or in other words, thermo-visco-plasticity should be added to the model. Then, if you are interested in fatigue failure, related to life-time of the steel member under low-cycles of high-cycles loading, then you should construct accounting for damage and damage accumulation. So, we see that for the same material, there is a multitude of models.

6 Engineering plasticity

6.1 Preliminary words

In structural mechanics or, equivalently, in strength of materials, traditionally, a macroscopic view of the deformation phenomena of a body is adopted. Consequently, the resulting stresses are also a macroscopic resultant of internal cohesion forces resisting such macroscopic deformation. This macroscopic framework has been proven through its wide spectrum of successful applications to be very fruitful and efficient in traditional engineering sciences and practices. Such framework is also known as *phenomenological*.

Engineering plasticity is one such phenomenological model which is of great importance, for instance, in civil and mechanical engineering, cold forming of metal and so on. In such theories, we consider macroscopic *plastic deformations* without having to know the subsequent microscopic processes from which they result, and develop internally operational and consistent theories of deformations and the resulting stresses. Successful such theories are the *classical engineering plasticity* that you are now studying in this notes. In these models, you will read about *yield criteria*, *flow rule* and *hardening rule* in *mathematical terms* in forms of equations. Such set of equations enhance the self-confidence of our engineer that everything is under control since he controls the equations themselves. No doubt about that!

However, it is an intellectual curiosity and a professional duty, even for a 100-% pure structural engineer, to understand what are the microscopic processes or mechanisms from which these macroscopic plastic deformations result. In the following, I will make a short summary of that as regard to *metal plasticity*. For curious students, please refer to good courses or books on *material sciences* and specially for solids⁸.

⁸Richard J. D. Tilley, *Understanding solids - The science of materials*. 2nd Ed., Wiley, 2013.

6.2 What is plasticity at microscopical level?

As already pointed previously, I mean *metal plasticity* as regard to our engineering application. We try to understand, by opening the *macroscopic black box* of the plastic (macroscopic) strain $\epsilon^{(P)}$ and understand the origin of the microscopic motion from which it is the result.

It is an experimental fact that pure metals deform more than the metallic bond permits. This mystery is explained by the presence of *defects* in the crystals. (going without saying that metals are polycrystals (Fig. 5)). These defects allow the deformation to occur without breaking the *metallic bonds*. These defects are known as *dislocations*.

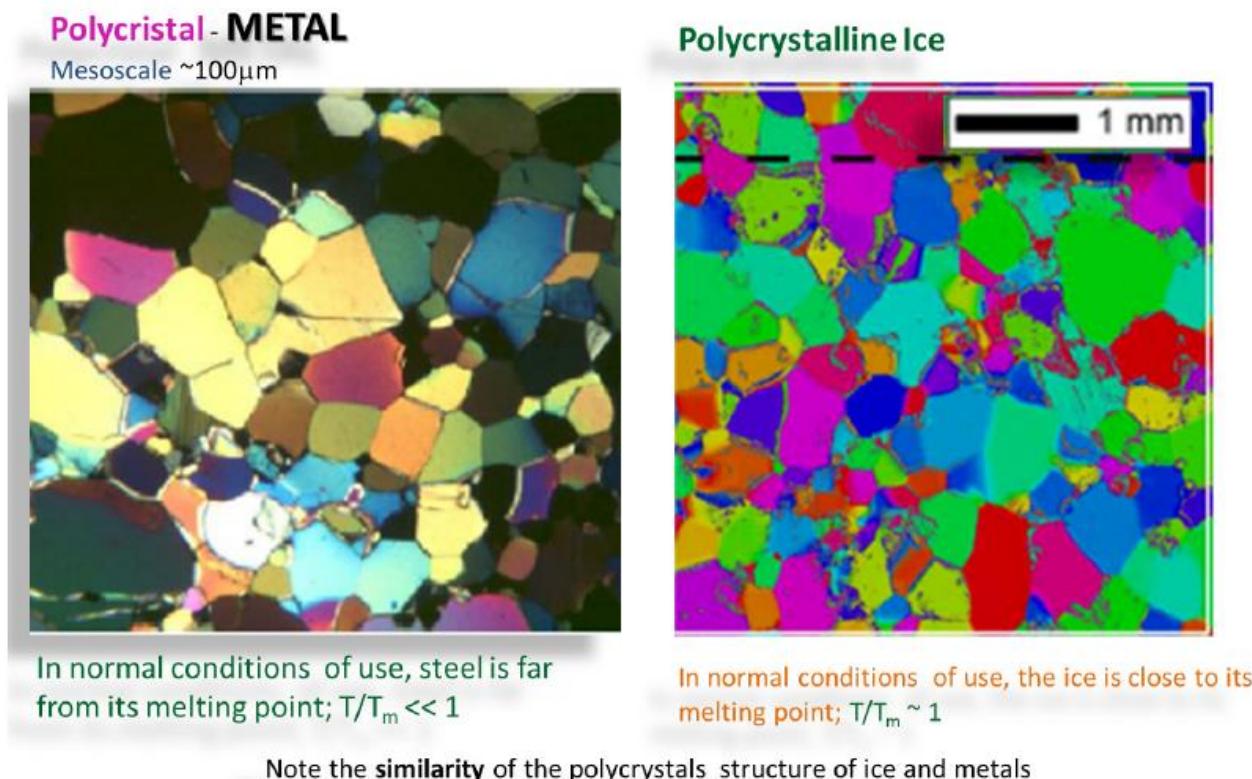


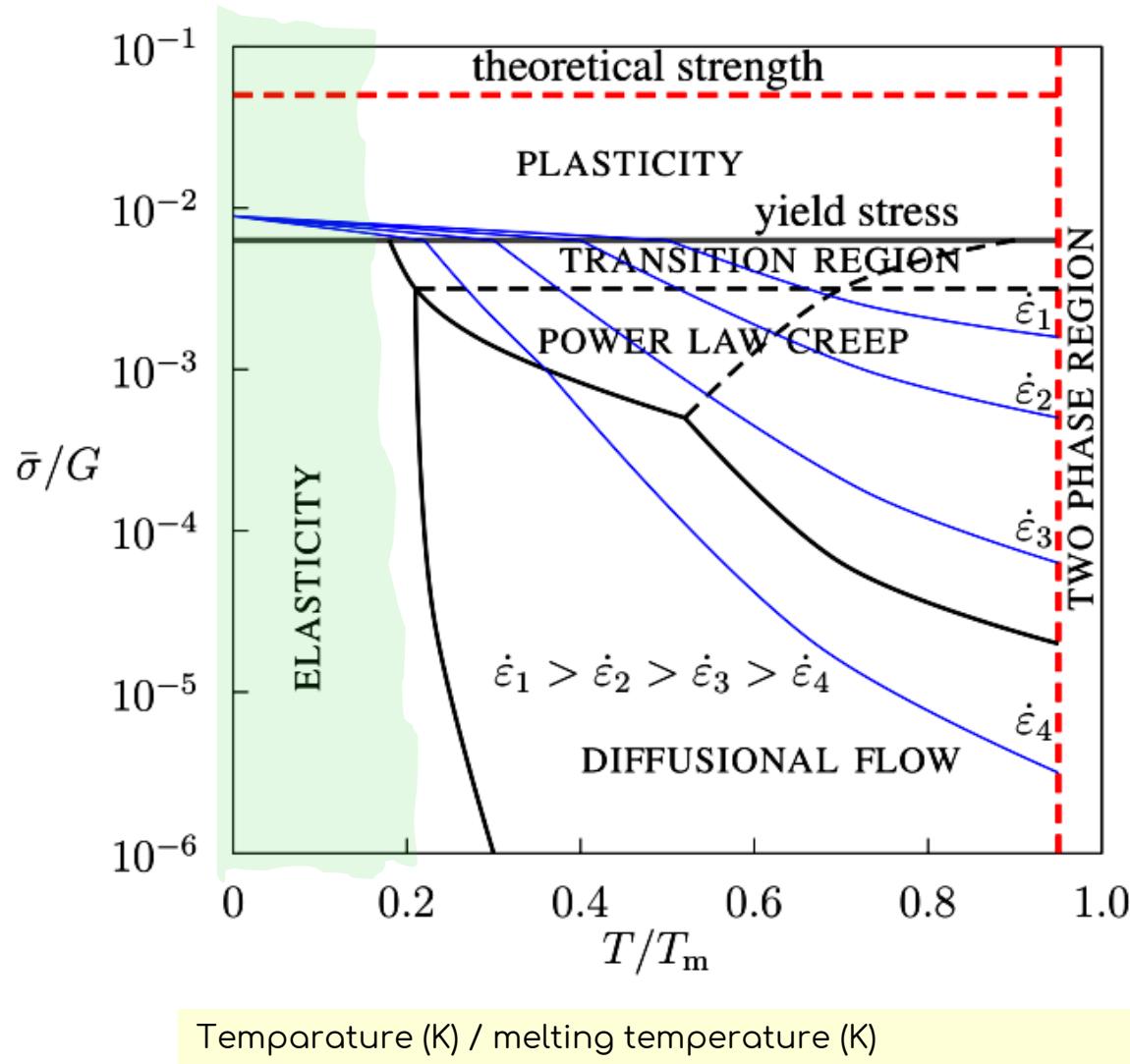
Figure 5: Metal and ice micro-structure under polarized light. The different colors correspond to different orientations in the mono-crystals (grains).

Ductility of metals: Metals can be deformed easily without breaking. They retain the deformed shape permanently when stressed beyond some threshold level. This property, results from the crystal structure of the metals which are roughly speaking, formed by packing less or more spherical atoms. Under stress these planes can roll each over the other easily resulting in deformation without breaking the strong metallic bonds. Such permanent deformations are what is macroscopically called *plastic deformations*. On the other hand, for example, ceramics under the same stress conditions that the above metal, will fracture in a brittle manner with much less deformations.

This plasticity property of metals results from the presence of linear defects named *edge dislocations* which move freely in the solid under application of stress.

Dislocations: Edge dislocations consist of extra half-planes of inserted atoms into the crystal. It is these dislocations that allow metals to deform plastically, like in low carbon steels, for example. When a dislocation movement is prevented or made harder to occur, the material becomes *hard* and can even become brittle like cast iron, for instance.

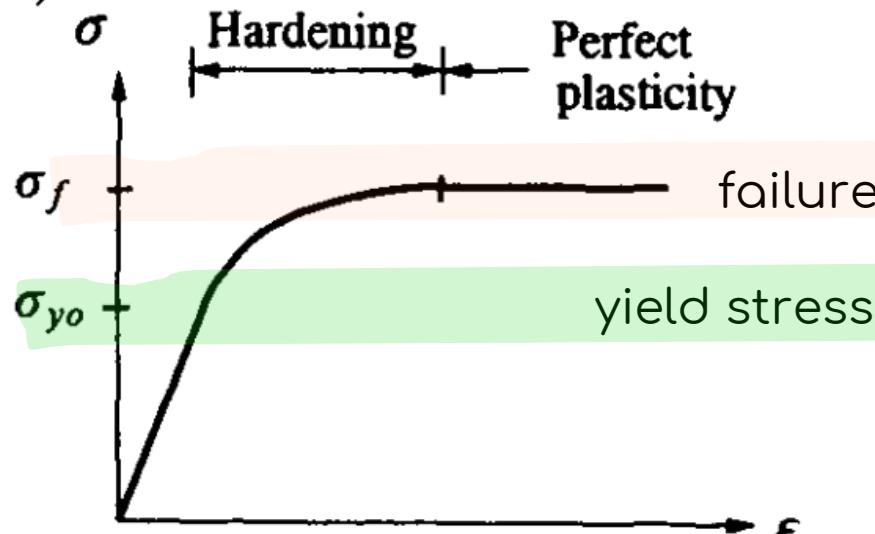
Schematic deformation mechanism map for a metal alloy.



Ductile steel and ductile metals

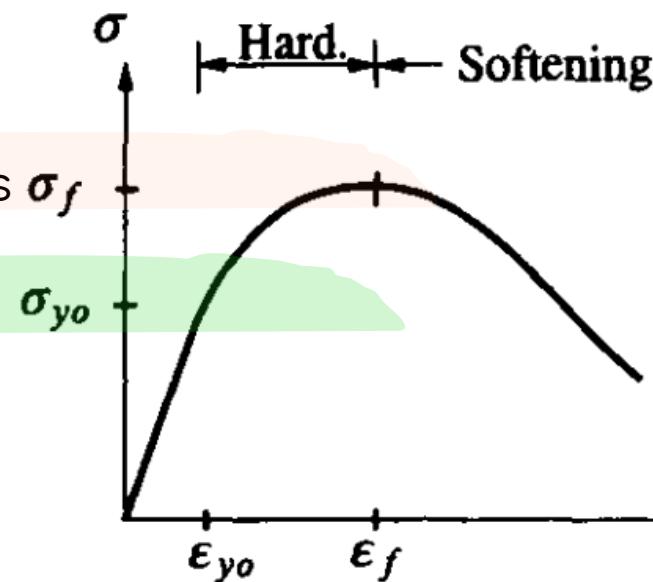
Concrete, rocks, soils, ...

a)

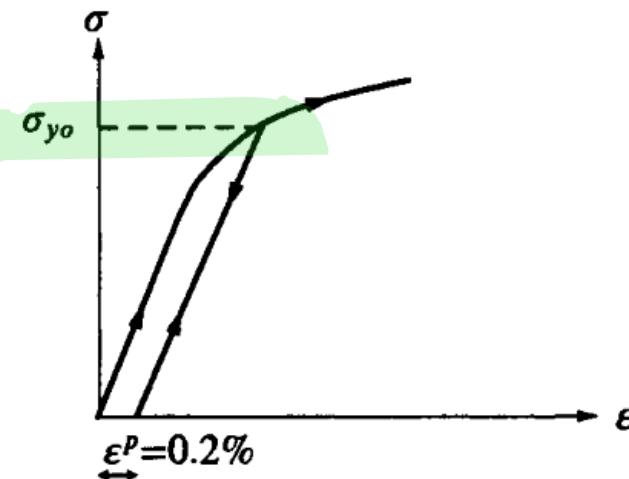


a) Hardening and perfect plasticity;

b)



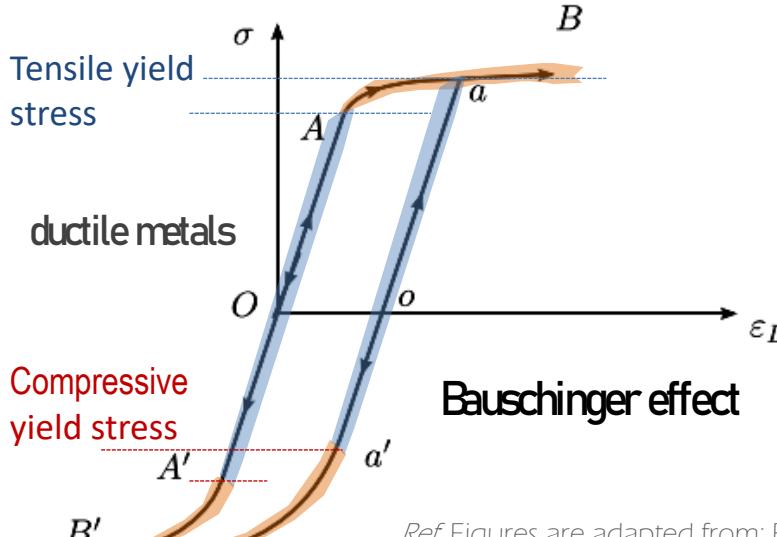
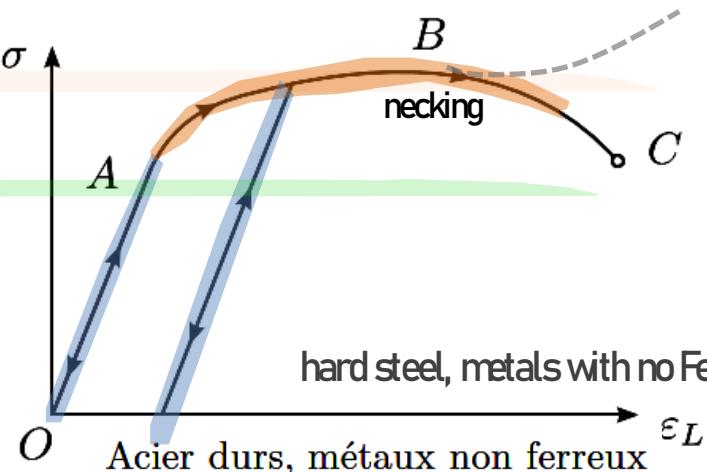
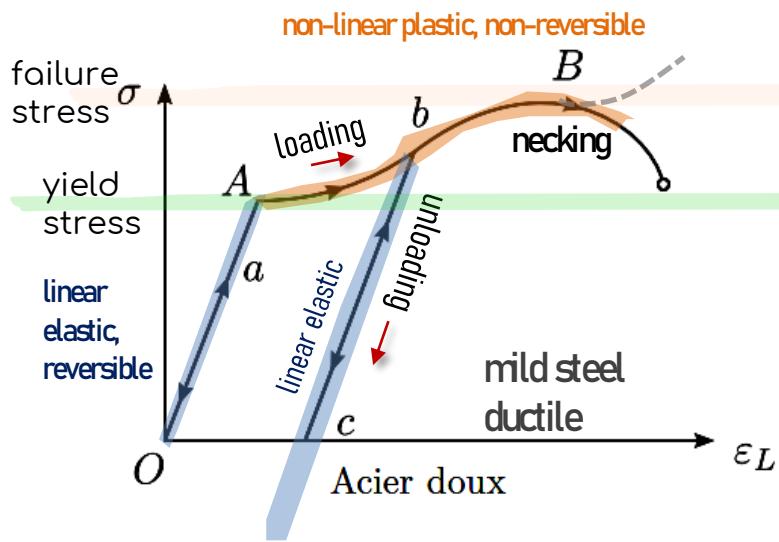
b) hardening and softening plasticity.



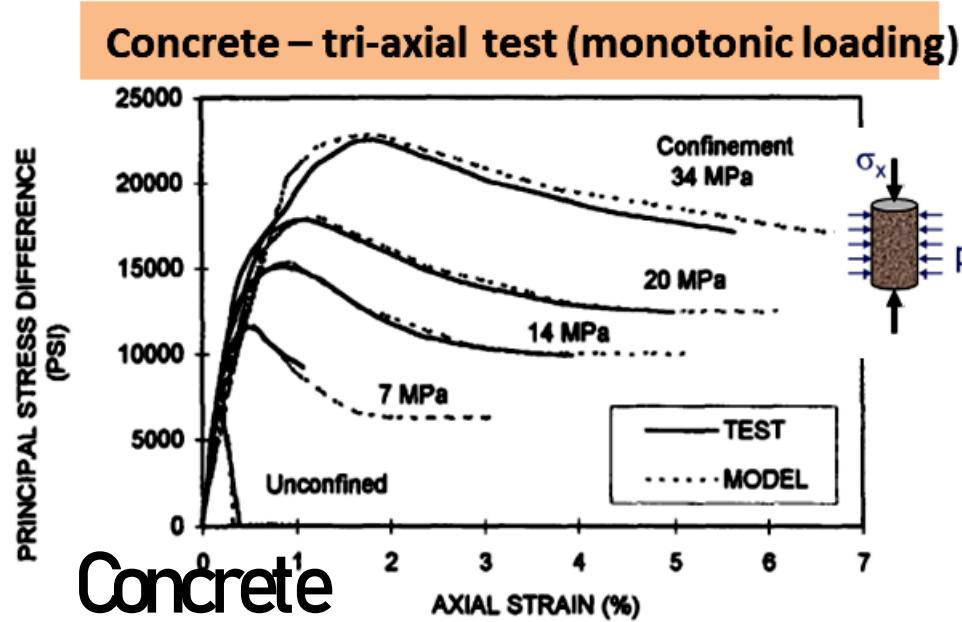
For general stress states, the conditions for failure or initial yielding are called *failure* or *initial yield criteria* respectively. Since they can be treated in a unified manner, we will often simply use the word criterion. We will see that stress invariants play an extremely important role in failure and yield criteria

Engineering Plasticity in metals

Metals at ambient temperature & quasi-static loading

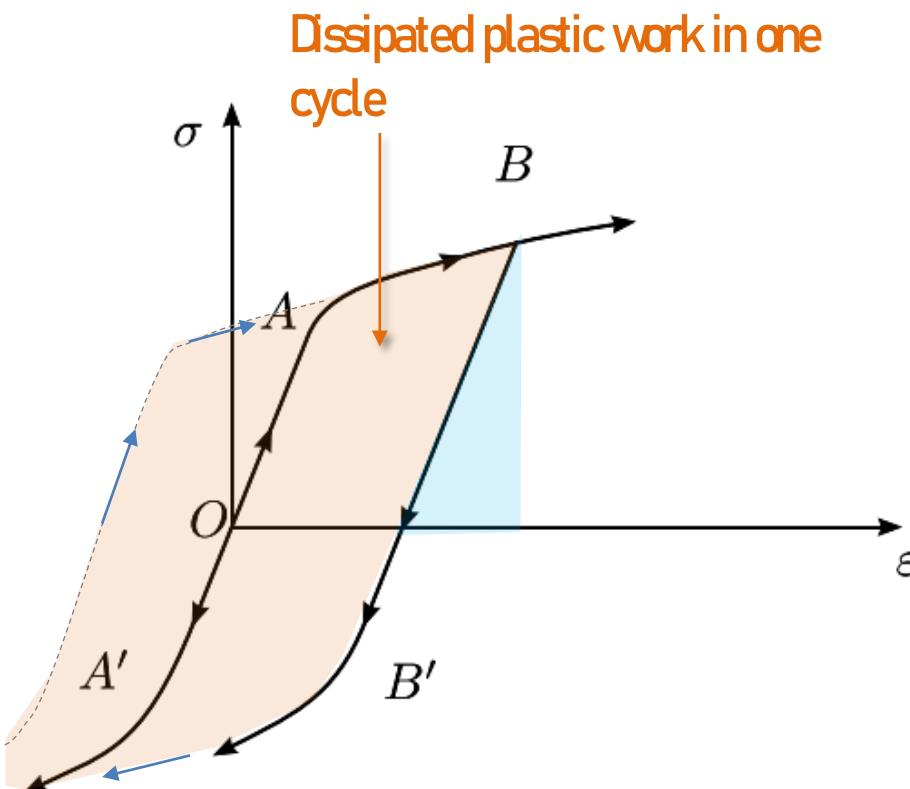


Ref. Figures are adapted from: F. Sidoroff
Mécanique des milieux continus
École central de Lyon.



Plastic behaviour in metals

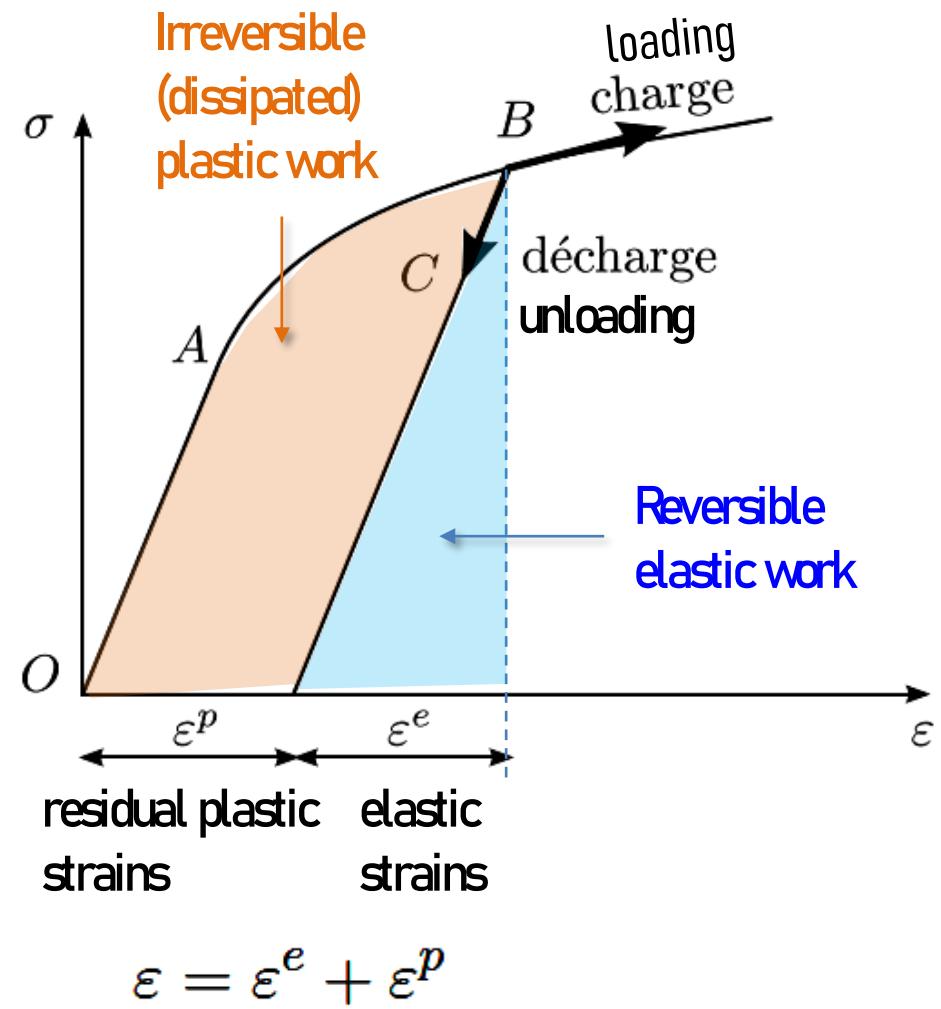
a) Cyclic loading.



$$\sigma_{A'} < \sigma < \sigma_A \quad \sigma = E\varepsilon$$

$$\sigma_{B'} < \sigma < \sigma_B \quad d\varepsilon^p = 0$$

b) Loading-unloading

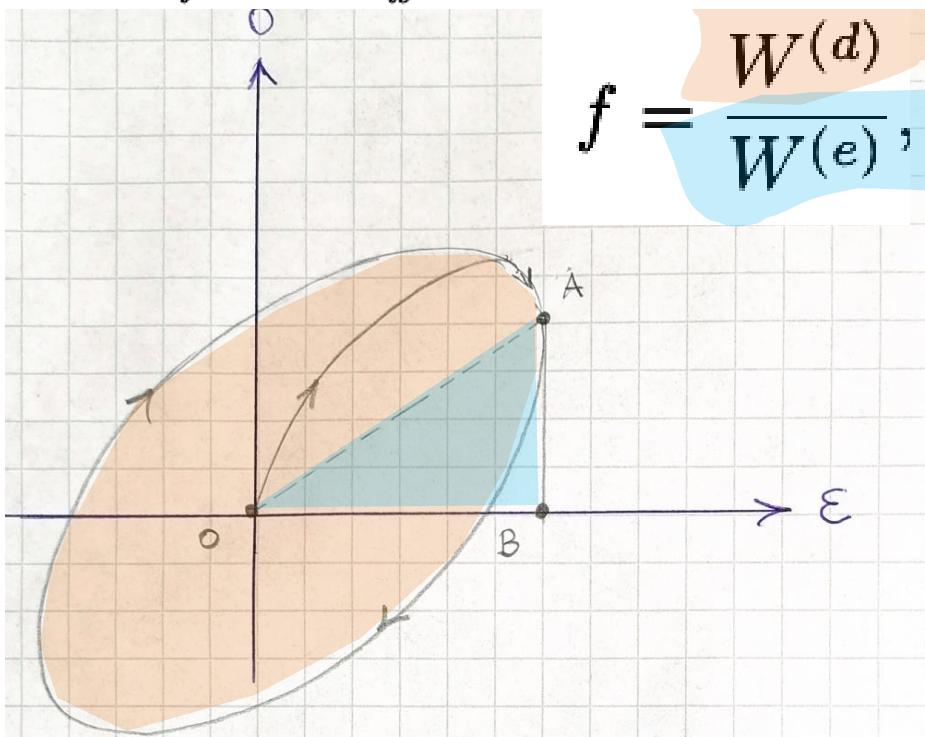


$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p$$

Internal friction coefficient

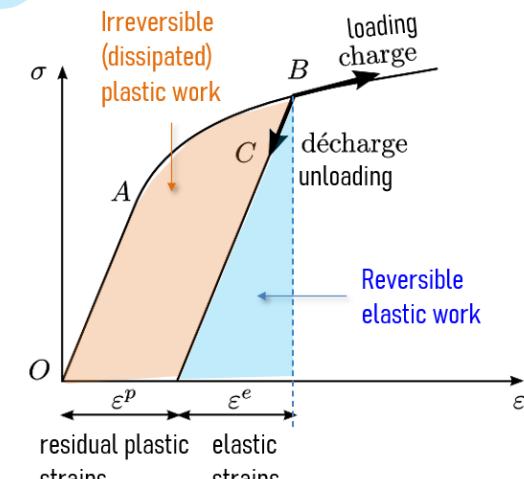
When a structure is dynamically loaded, it starts to response according to the laws of dynamics of deforming bodies. Assume the structure remains undamaged, and that at some time $t > t_0$ the load is removed completely. Despite the external forces removal, the structure continues to vibrate with decreasing amplitude until it reaches again a static equilibrium where all vibrations stop. Such vibrations are called *free vibrations*.

The processes *damping* these vibrations are the *dissipative* forces in the system: *internal* and *external*. External are those resulting from friction between parts of the structure and the surrounding, at supports, joints, aero-elastic forces, interface-soil structure, etc. The *internal friction* processes are related to the dissipative processes occurring with the deforming material itself; like viscous-type dissipation, plasticity. The resulting internal friction behaviour can be characterised by defining *internal friction coefficient*



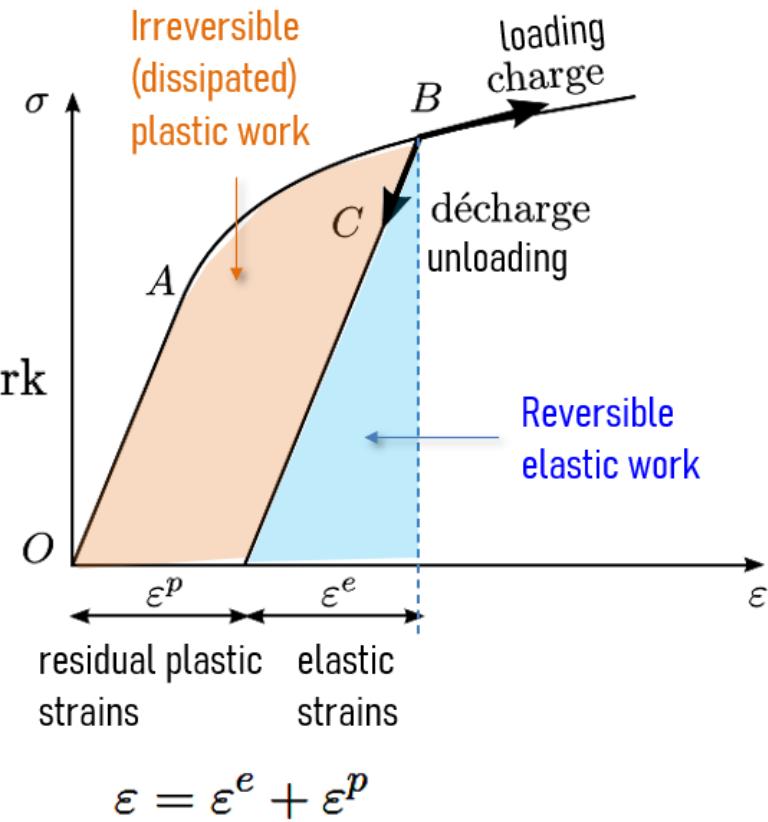
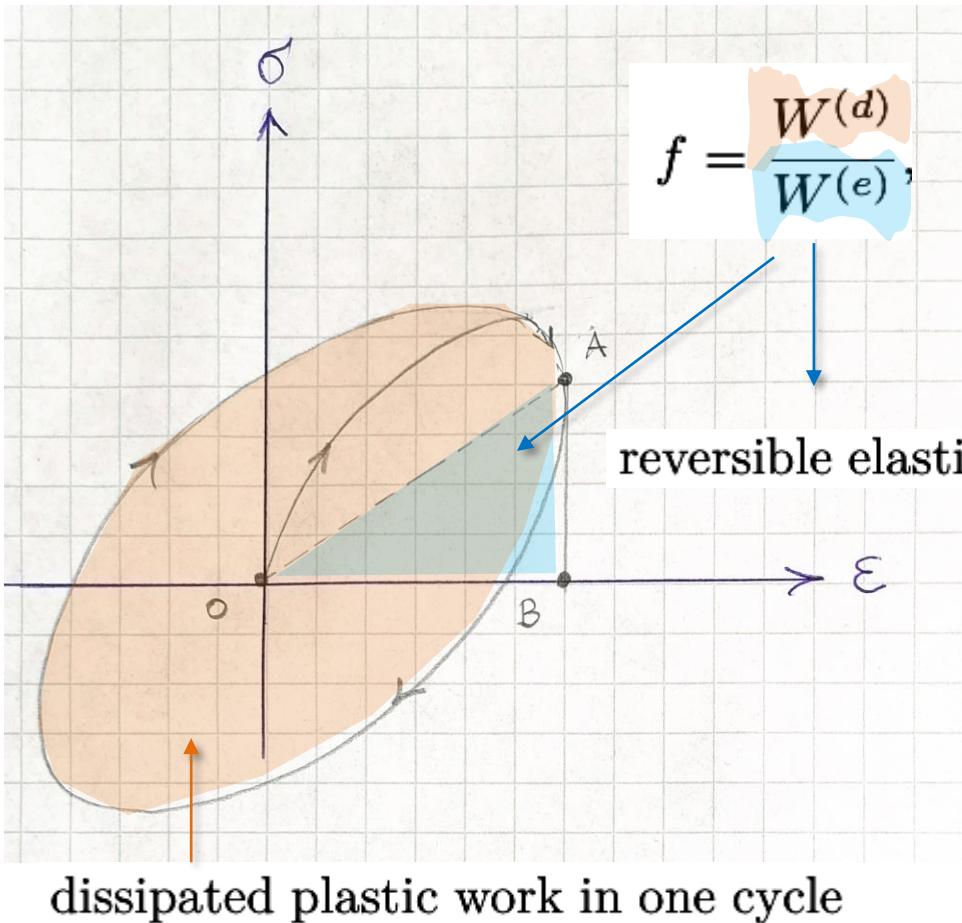
$$f = \frac{W(d)}{W(e)},$$

dissipated plastic work in one cycle
reversible elastic work



$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p$$

Internal friction coefficient



The internal friction coefficient f depends on the excitation frequency and on temperature. It remains practically independent of amplitudes for sufficiently small amplitudes, naturally.

For metals, at normal temperatures, f is very small ($10^{-5} \dots 10^{-4}$). For polymers, it becomes significant. For instance, for rubbers (vulcanised), it can be as large as 0.6 at 16 Hz and low temperature (-20 deg. Celsius).

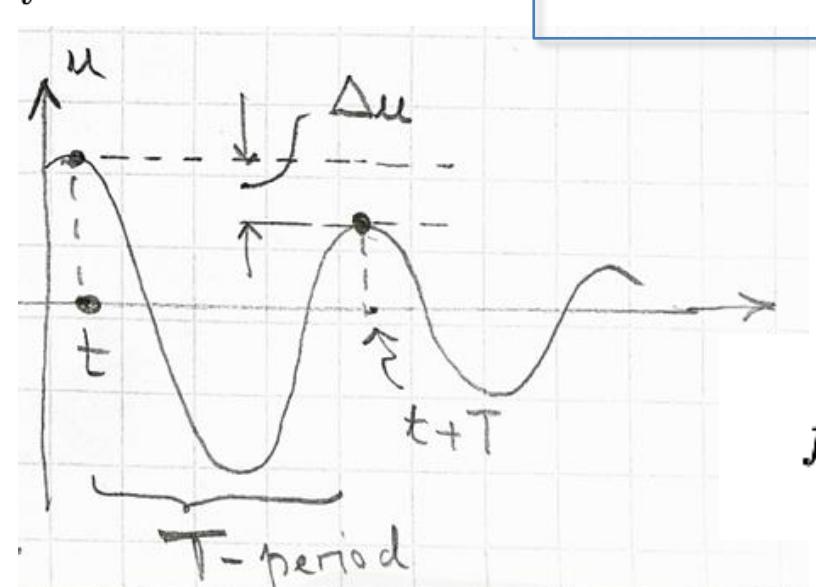
Internal friction and logarithm decrement in damping

There is a close relation between the internal friction coefficient f and the logarithmic decrement coefficient δ of damped free vibrations (lower part of Fig. 6).

During damped free vibrations, the ratio of two successive maximum amplitudes of vibrations (or strains) defines

$$\delta = \Delta u(t)/u(t), \quad \Delta u = u(t+T) - u(t)$$

Let's go back to energy viewpoints: the work dissipated within such period T is equal to the elastic work which is not restored between these two maximum amplitudes, namely $W^{(d)} = 1/2k \cdot [\Delta u]^2$. The stored elastic work is simple $W^{(e)} = 1/2ku^2$, where k being the relevant elasticity coefficient of the system



$$f = \frac{W^{(d)}}{W^{(e)}} = \frac{1/2k \cdot [\Delta(u)]^2}{1/2k \cdot u^2} = \frac{[\Delta u]^2}{u^2} \equiv \delta^2.$$

Classical theories of plasticity

There are two classes of such theories for modelling *engineering plasticity*. The first one is known as *total strain or deformation theory* of Hencky⁸, Ilyushin⁹ and also Nadai¹⁰. The second one is called *incremental or flow theory* of Prandtl¹¹-Reuss¹².

Usually, incremental plasticity theory is used in structural and mechanical engineering where plastic strains are designed to remain small (may be of order of elastic strains for safety).

On the contrary, total strain plasticity theory is suitable for large deformations like those encountered in cold forming of metals or in performing classical limit-plastic analysis where ideal plasticity (no hardening) plasticity is used.

⁸Hencky H. *Zeit Angew Math Mech*, 1924, **4**, 323.

⁹Ilyushin A. A. *Prik Matem Mekh*, AN SSSR, 1946, **10**, 347

¹⁰Nadai A. *Plasticity: A Mechanics of the Plastic State of Matter*, 1931, McGraw-Hill, New York.

¹¹Prandtl L. *Proc. 1st Int Congr Appl Mech. Delft*, 1924, p. 43.

¹²Reuss A. *Zeit Agnew Math Mech*, 1930, **10**, 266.

Classical theories of plasticity

1. **Hencky-Ilyushin** - the deformation theory with no-hardening plasticity uses *total strains*. The total strain, under yielding, is decomposed into a deviatoric and volumetric part. The volumetric part results from mean normal stress and the deviatoric (shear deformation) part results from shear stress. The total strain tensor ϵ'_{ij} being defined as

$$\epsilon'_{ij} = \phi\sigma'_{ij} + \frac{\sigma_{kk}}{9K}\delta_{ij}$$

where $\phi > 0$ for loading and $\phi = 0$, for unloading and $E = 3K(1 - 2\nu)$. Assuming incompressibility ($\nu = 1/2$) in the above equation, simplifies enormously the total strain theory of plasticity and results in the good approximation

$$\epsilon'_{ij} = \phi\sigma'_{ij} - \phi\frac{\sigma_{kk}}{3}\delta_{ij}$$

Classical theories of plasticity

2. **Prandtl-Reuss** - In the incremental theory of plasticity, the total strain increment is decomposed into *elastic* (reversible) and *plastic* (irreversible) components

$$d\epsilon_{ij} = d\epsilon_{ij}^{(e)} + d\epsilon_{ij}^{(p)}$$

where, essentially speaking, the plastic component $d\epsilon_{ij}^{(p)}$ being determined from a *flow rule* as

$$d\epsilon_{ij}^{(p)} = d\lambda \cdot \partial f / \partial \sigma_{ij}, \text{ associative}$$

and the plastic constraint parameter $d\lambda$ being determined from the condition that during additional plastic flow, the actual stress point σ remains on the yield surface f . For the non-associative flow, the flow rule becomes

$$d\epsilon_{ij}^{(p)} = d\lambda \cdot \partial g / \partial \sigma_{ij}, \text{ non-associative}$$

where the plastic potential function g being close to the yield function f . Both potential functions are scalar valued.

Both potential functions f and g are scalar valued. The deviation from normality of the plastic increment for granular-type materials, results from 'plastic' volume increase at failure and is encoded into a *dilation* or more properly called *dilatation* angle into g related to the internal friction coefficient of the material. For metals, it's known that the plastic flow occurs with no appreciable volume change in normal pressure conditions (roughly, less than 10). It is this incompressibility of the plastic flow that results in the normality flow rule for the plastic deformation increment.

Failure criteria

In this course, we assume the plastic deformations to remain small → *incremental plasticity*

What one means by *failure* is application and material dependent.

Generally speaking, here *yielding*, for metals, is associated with failure. So, the material fails when it yields. For other materials, engineering materials, failure should be clearly defined.

Classical plasticity Elastic and plastic deformation

When loaded, a body deforms elastically. Upon full unloading, the body recovers its initial shape and volume. The elastic deformation is said to be *reversible*. Elasticity is then synonym for *reversibility* of deformations.

On the contrary, *plastic deformations*, are *irreversible*. This is the most visible feature of plasticity. In this case, in some parts of the body, being deforming by the loading, a combination of the resulting stresses reaches a material dependent threshold value leading to local yielding. Now, even when the load is completely removed, *permanent strains will remain*. These residual strains are called *plastic permanent strains*.

To model the time-independent *elasto-plastic* response of a material, one need to account, as sub-models, a set of three equations which *closes* the constitutive model:

1. **Yield criterion** - (myötö-ehto) delimits elastic and plastic regions
2. **Flow rule** - (myötö-sääntö) defines how plastic strains evolve
3. **Hardening rule** - (myötö-lujittumis-sääntö) defines how the yield criterion, itself, evolves with evolving of plastic strains.

Time-dependent *plasticity* can be simply modelled using various visco-plasticity formulations.

Failure criteria

Suppose we have a know stress state around a material point P expressed by the stress tensor σ , or equivalently, its components $\sigma_{i,j}$. The question: *under what stress conditions, the material around the point P fails?* Here we assume that yielding leads to failure.

In general, the *failure criterion*, which should be written in terms of *stress invariants*, is usually expressed by oe of the equivalent conditions

$$f(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3) = 0,$$

$$f(I_1, I_2, I_3) = 0,$$

$$f(I_1, J_2, J_3) = 0,$$

$$f(I_1, J_2, \cos(3\theta)) = 0,$$

--> the failure surface has a clear geometrical representation

$$f(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, k; \kappa) = 0$$

or also expressed in terms of stress invariants I_1 , J_2 and J_3 instead of principle stresses. The threshold stress $k = k(\kappa)$ can depend on some internal parameter κ , like cumulated effective plastic strain or plastic work, is yield stress σ_y in uni-axial tension or τ_y yield shear stress in pure shear test.

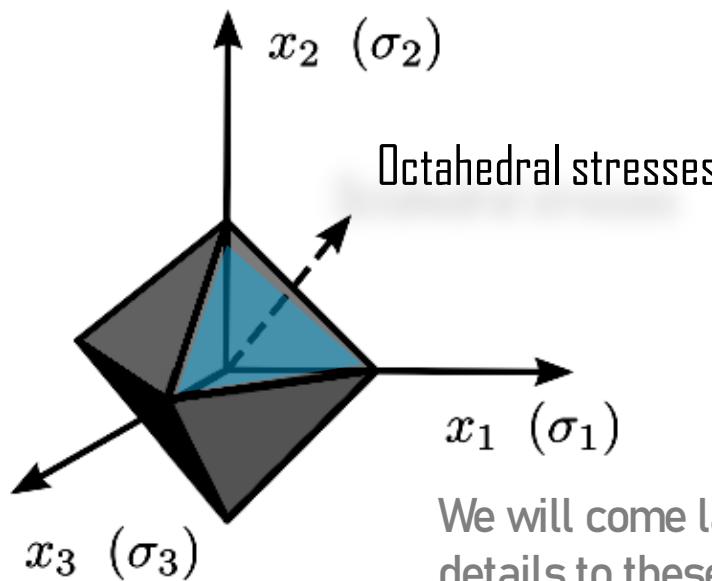
In the above, the two last set of invariants, are the most usually used in practice.

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{2} s_{ij} s_{ji} ; \quad \cos 3\theta = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2} \frac{J_3}{J_2^{3/2}} ; \quad J_3 = \frac{1}{3} s_{ij} s_{jk} s_{ki}$$

Failure criteria example: yielding of metals, for instance

$$T_n^{oct} = \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3}{3} = \frac{I_1}{3}$$

$$T_t^{oct} = \frac{1}{9} \left\{ (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2 \right\} = -\frac{2}{3} J_2$$



We will come later back and in details to these two failure criteria

von Mises

$$T_t^{oct} < \sigma_y$$

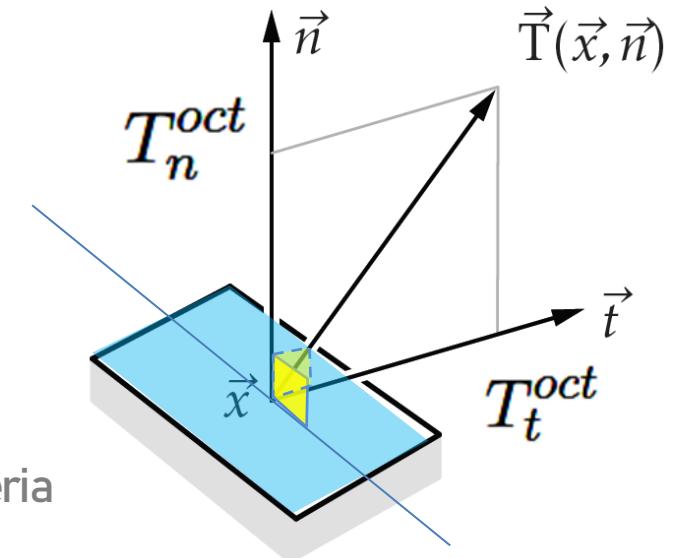
threshold values for yielding
in various situation (to be
determined from tension and
pure shear tests)

Tresca

$$\sup T_t = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2} < \tau_y$$

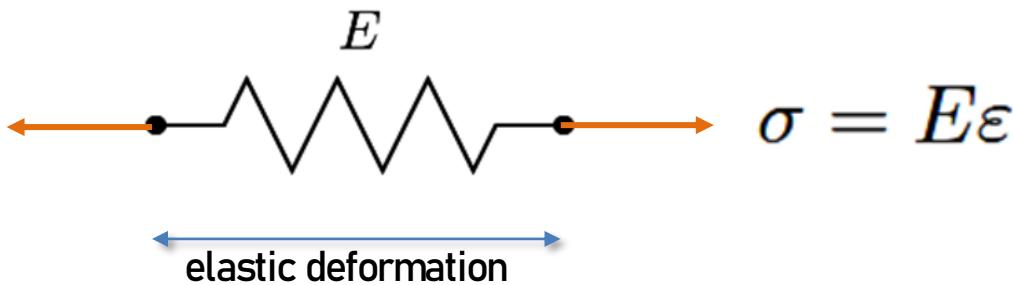
$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \sigma_3$

maximum shear stress



Basic rheological models for plasticity

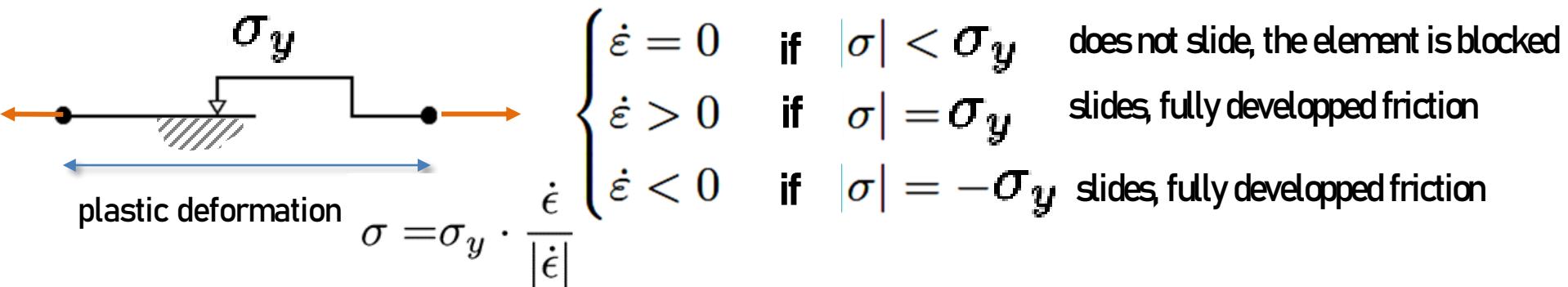
Hookean element for elasticity



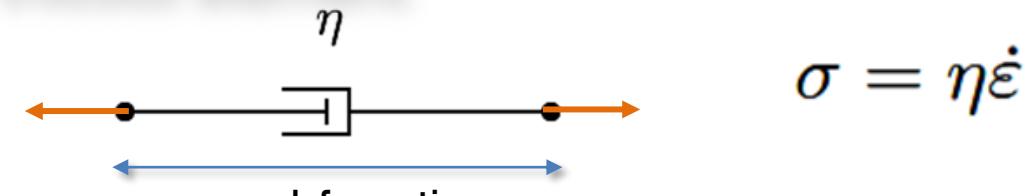
Various plasticity and viscoplasticity material behaviours can be captured combining these basic rheological models

Friction element for plasticity

In the basic rheological friction model, the Coulomb's sliding friction coefficient μ corresponds to the threshold stress value at yield; the yield stress σ_y



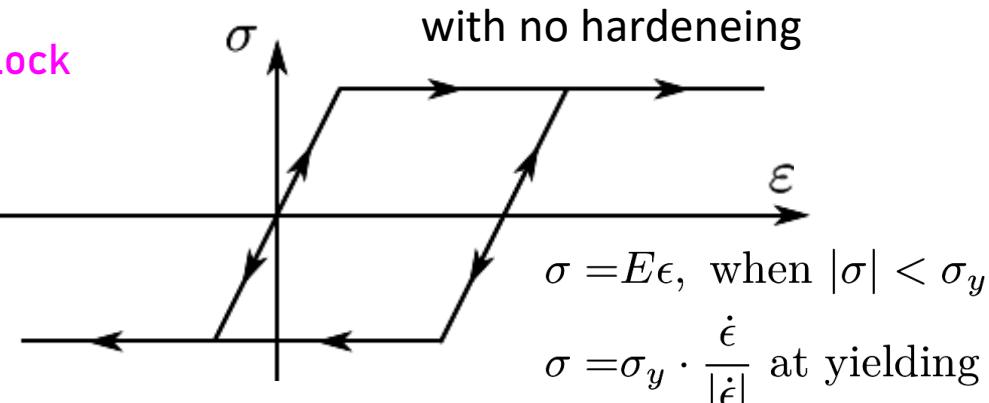
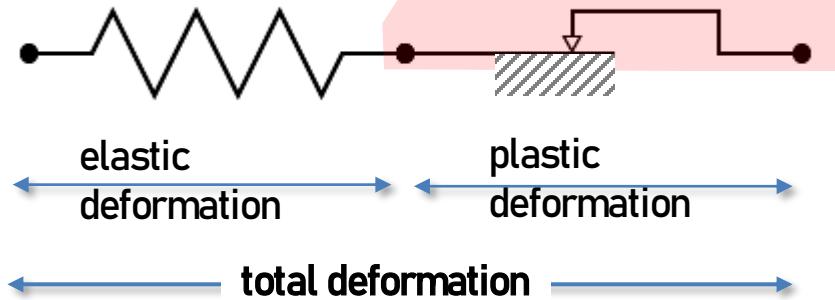
Viscous element



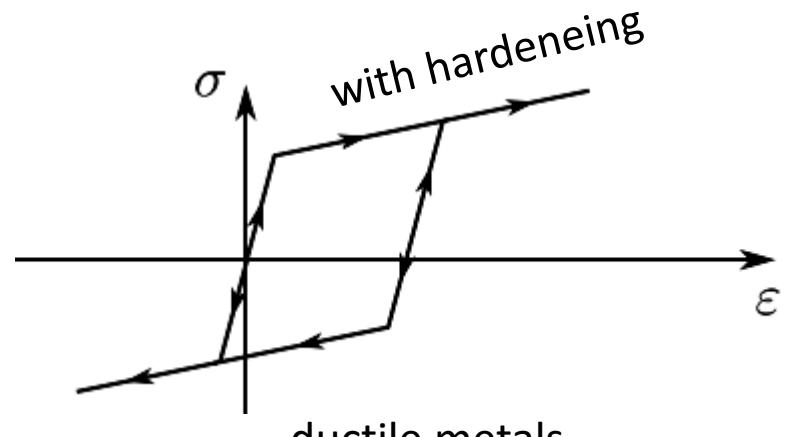
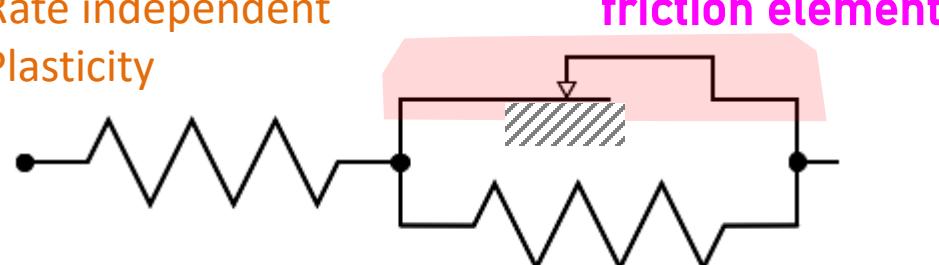
Rheological models for plasticity & visco-plasticity

Simple rheological models

Rate independent Plasticity

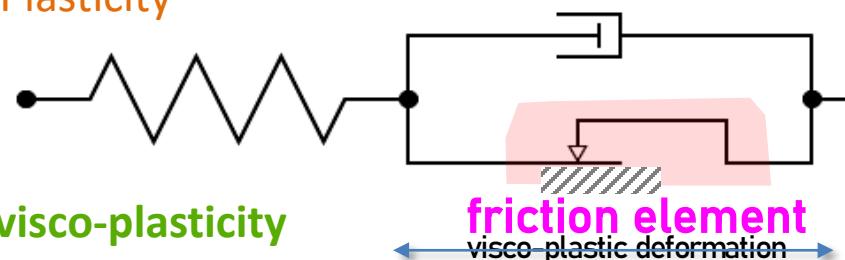


Rate independent Plasticity



Rate dependent Plasticity

bingham model



asphalts, some pastes, 'pâtes', teeth paste, ...

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} E\epsilon, & |\sigma| < \mu \equiv \sigma_Y \\ \mu + \eta\dot{\epsilon}, & |\sigma| \geq \mu > 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\mu \equiv \sigma_Y$$

Example from research of use of rheological models for visco-plasticity 1(2)

An elastic, plastic, viscous model for slow shear of a liquid foam

Philippe Marmottant and François Graner
Laboratoire de Spectrométrie Physique, CNRS-Université Grenoble I,

Article in The European Physical Journal E · September 2007

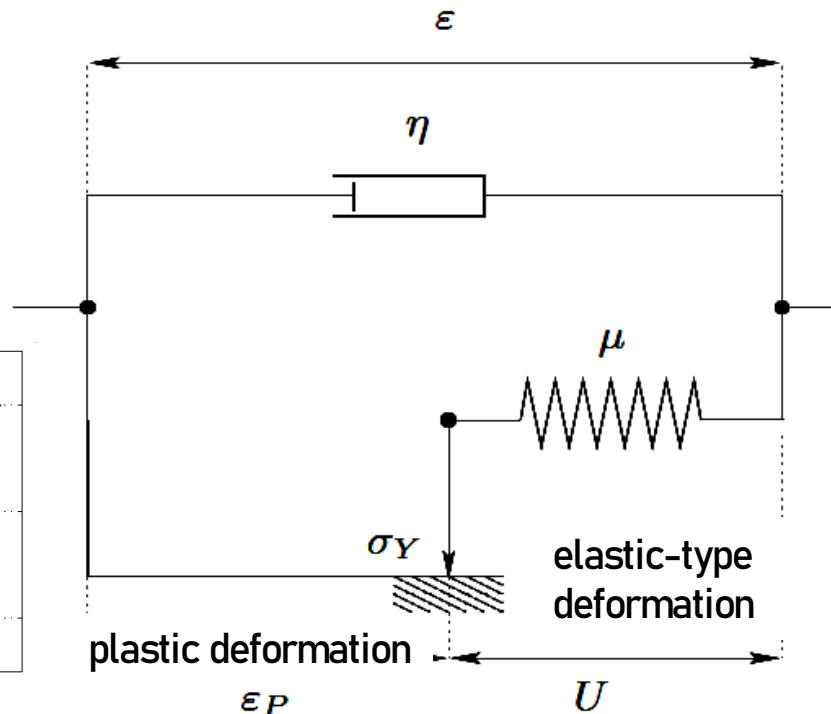
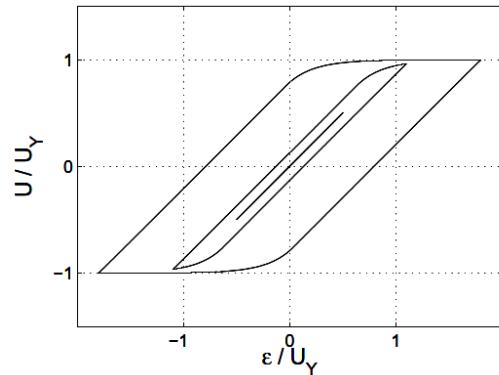
DOI: 10.1140/epje/i2006-10193-x · Source: PubMed

Various plasticity and visco-plasticity material behaviours can be captured combining these basic rheological models

a polymeric model

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma &= \sigma^{\text{el}} + \sigma^{\text{vis}} \\ &= \mu U + \eta \dot{\varepsilon}.\end{aligned}$$

$$\dot{\varepsilon} = \frac{dU}{dt} + \dot{\varepsilon}_P.$$



We suggest a scalar model for deformation and flow of an amorphous material such as a foam or an emulsion. To describe elastic, plastic and viscous behaviours, we use three scalar variables: elastic deformation, plastic deformation rate and total deformation rate; and three material specific parameters: shear modulus, yield deformation and viscosity. We obtain equations valid for different types of deformations and flows slower than the relaxation rate towards mechanical equilibrium. In particular, they are valid both in transient or steady flow regimes, even at large elastic deformation. We discuss why viscosity can be relevant even in this slow shear (often called “quasi-static”) limit. Predictions of the storage and loss moduli agree with the experimental literature, and explain with simple arguments the non-linear large amplitude trends.

Example from research of use of rheological models for visco-plasticity 2(2)

An elastic, plastic, viscous model for slow shear of a liquid foam

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a polymeric model

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma &= \sigma^{\text{el}} + \sigma^{\text{vis}} \\ &= \mu U + \eta \dot{\varepsilon}.\end{aligned}$$

Oscillating shear

$$\varepsilon = \gamma \sin(\omega t)$$

Storage and loss moduli: predictions

$$\sigma^* = (G' + iG'')\varepsilon^*$$

storage

loss modulus

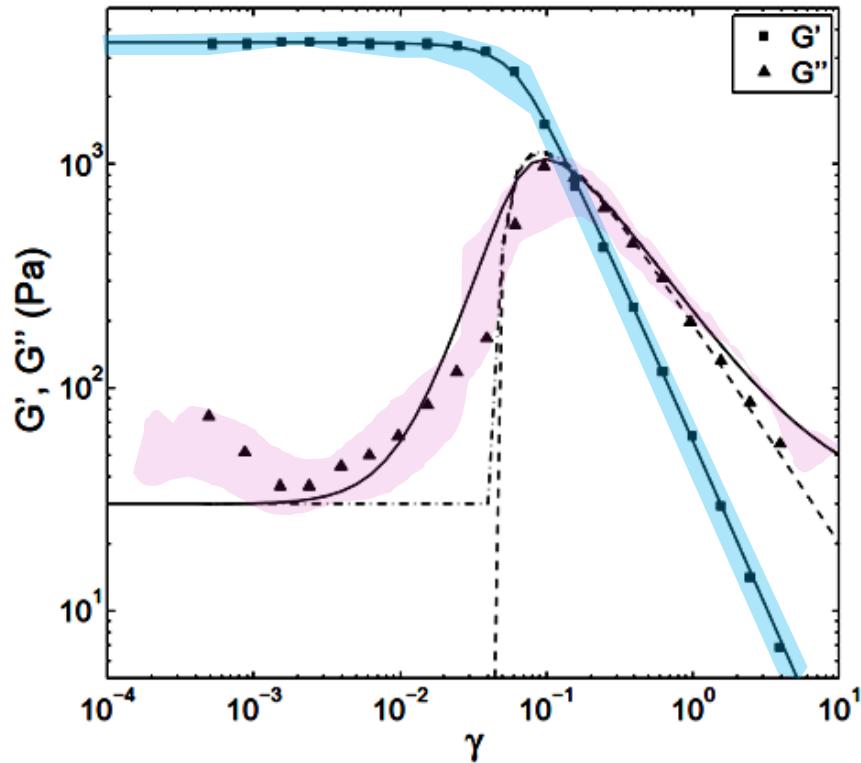
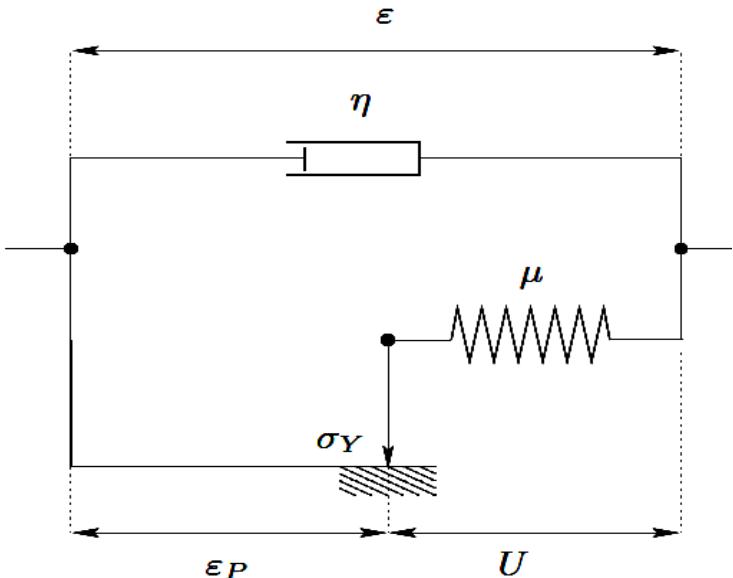


FIG. 9: Storage and loss moduli *versus* strain amplitude for a monodisperse emulsion. Symbols: experimental G' (circles) and G'' (triangles) in a close-packed emulsion (Fig. 1 of ref. [43], fraction of the continuous phase 20%, droplet size 0.53 μm , oscillation pulsation $\omega = 1 \text{ rad s}^{-1}$). Lines: models for G' (solid line), and for G'' with an abrupt transition (dashed line), with viscosity (dash-dotted line), with viscosity and a smooth yield function $h = (U/U_Y)^2$, $U_y = 0$ (solid line). Model parameters: shear modulus $\mu = 1.7 \cdot 10^3 \text{ Pa}$, yield deformation $U_Y = 0.045$, viscosity $\eta = 30 \text{ Pa.s.}$

Motivation

How engineering Plasticity is ‘written’ in Abaqus, Ansys, Lusas, ...?

CIV-students should be able to read correctly the theory manuals
and to exchange using exact terminology with experts!

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- 3. Elements
 - 4. Mechanical Constitutive Theories
 - 4.1 Overview
 - 4.2 Plasticity overview
 - 4.2.1 Plasticity models: general discussion
 - 4.2.2 Integration of plasticity models
 - 4.3 Metal plasticity
 - 4.3.1 Metal plasticity models
 - Reference
 - 4.3.2 Isotropic elasto-plasticity
 - 4.3.3 Stress potentials for anisotropic metal plasticity
 - 4.3.4 Rate-dependent metal plasticity (creep)
 - 4.3.5 Models for metals subjected to cyclic loading
 - 4.3.6 Porous metal plasticity
 - 4.3.7 Cast iron plasticity
 - 4.3.8 ORNL constitutive theory
 - 4.3.9 Deformation plasticity
 - 4.3.10 Heat generation caused by plastic straining
 - 4.4 Plasticity for non-metals
 - 4.4.1 Porous elasticity
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 - Reference
 - 4.4.4 Drucker-Prager/Cap model for geological materials

ISOTROPIC ELASTO-PLASTICITY

The elasticity can be written in volumetric and deviatoric components as follows.
Volumetric:

$$p = -K\varepsilon_{vol},$$

(4.3 ~)

where

$$p = -\frac{1}{3} \text{trace}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})$$

is the equivalent pressure stress.

Deviatoric:

$$\mathbf{S} = 2G \mathbf{e}^d,$$

where \mathbf{S} is the deviatoric stress.

$$\mathbf{S} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} + p \mathbf{I}.$$

The flow rule is

$$d\mathbf{e}^{pl} = d\bar{\mathbf{e}}^{pl} \mathbf{n},$$

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\mathbf{S}}{a},$$

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} \mathbf{S} : \mathbf{S}},$$

) equivalent plastic strain rate.
quires that the material satisfy a uniaxial-stress plastic-dependent, this is the yield condition:

$$q = \sigma^0,$$

and is defined by the

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{3}{2} S_{ij} : S_{ij} = \frac{3}{2} \mathbf{S} : \mathbf{S} \equiv 3J_2$$

$$f(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) = q,$$

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} \mathbf{S} : \mathbf{S}},$$

$$\mathbf{S} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} - \frac{1}{3} \text{trace}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) \mathbf{I} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} - \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I} : (\boldsymbol{\sigma}).$$

circle in the plane normal to the hydrostatic axis is

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{1}{q} \frac{3}{2} \mathbf{S},$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \sigma \partial \sigma} = \frac{1}{q} \left(\frac{3}{2} \mathbf{S} - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)$$

fourth-order tensor function of the Mises function to allow

$$\sigma_{xx}^2 + \sigma_{yy}^2 + \sigma_{zz}^2 +$$

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THEORY GUIDE

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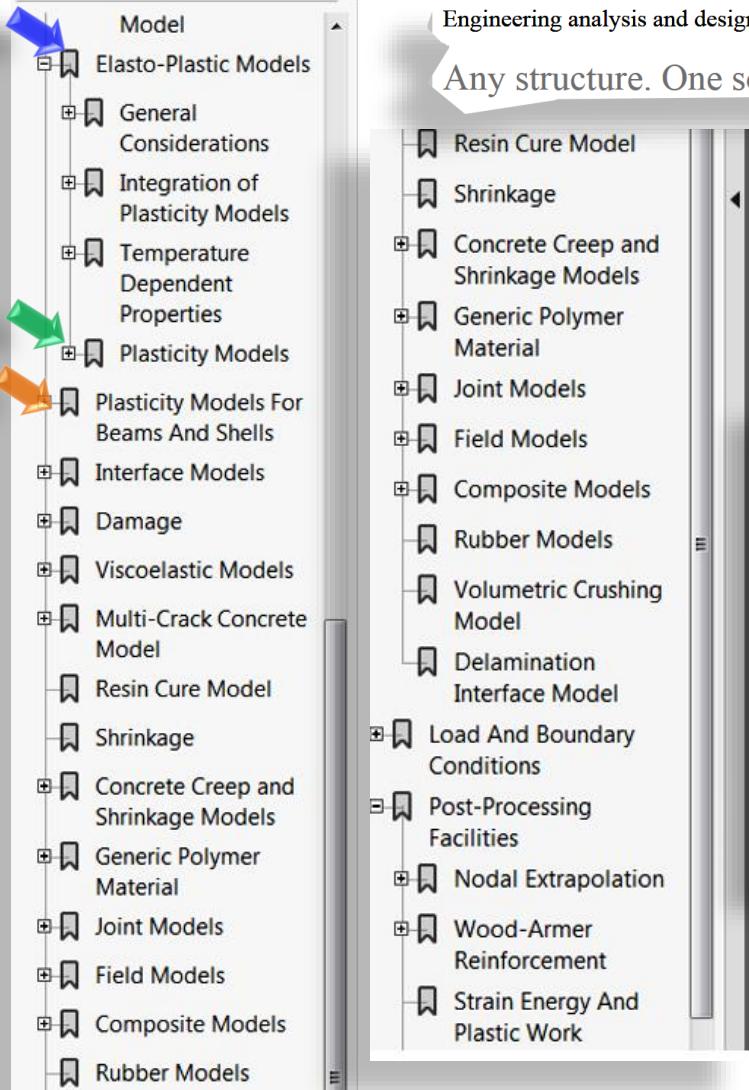
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The screenshot shows the LUSAS software interface. On the left, there is a navigation tree under the 'Model' category. The tree includes 'Elasto-Plastic Models' which further branches into 'General Considerations', 'Integration of Plasticity Models', 'Temperature Dependent Properties', 'Plasticity Models', 'Plasticity Models For Beams And Shells', 'Interface Models', 'Damage', 'Viscoelastic Models', 'Multi-Crack Concrete Model', 'Resin Cure Model', 'Shrinkage', 'Concrete Creep and Shrinkage Models', 'Generic Polymer Material', 'Joint Models', 'Field Models', 'Composite Models', 'Rubber Models', 'Volumetric Crushing Model', 'Delamination Interface Model', 'Load And Boundary Conditions', 'Post-Processing Facilities', 'Nodal Extrapolation', 'Wood-Armer Reinforcement', 'Strain Energy And Plastic Work'. To the right of the tree, a list of available models is displayed: Resin Cure Model, Shrinkage, Concrete Creep and Shrinkage Models, Generic Polymer Material, Joint Models, Field Models, Composite Models, Rubber Models, Volumetric Crushing Model, Delamination Interface Model, Load And Boundary Conditions, Post-Processing Facilities, Nodal Extrapolation, Wood-Armer Reinforcement, Strain Energy And Plastic Work.

Engineering analysis and design software

Any structure. One solu

Material models – an example

Theory Manual Volume 1

the plastic strains are integrated according to a strict interpretation of the flow rules governing their evolution. Recent developments in numerical analysis have re-interpreted the classic laws in a search for greater numerical efficiency and have led to the concept of "consistency" of formulation. These methods have the advantage of improved stability for large load steps and quadratic convergence in the global Newton-Raphson iterations. Within the framework of the consistent formulation, time dependent inelastic straining has also been modelled.

The models available within LUSAS are as follows:

The models available within LUSAS are as follows:

Continuum formulation

- von Mises, Tresca, Mohr-Coulomb and Drucker-Prager
- stress resultant models for beams and shells
- models for sliding interfaces

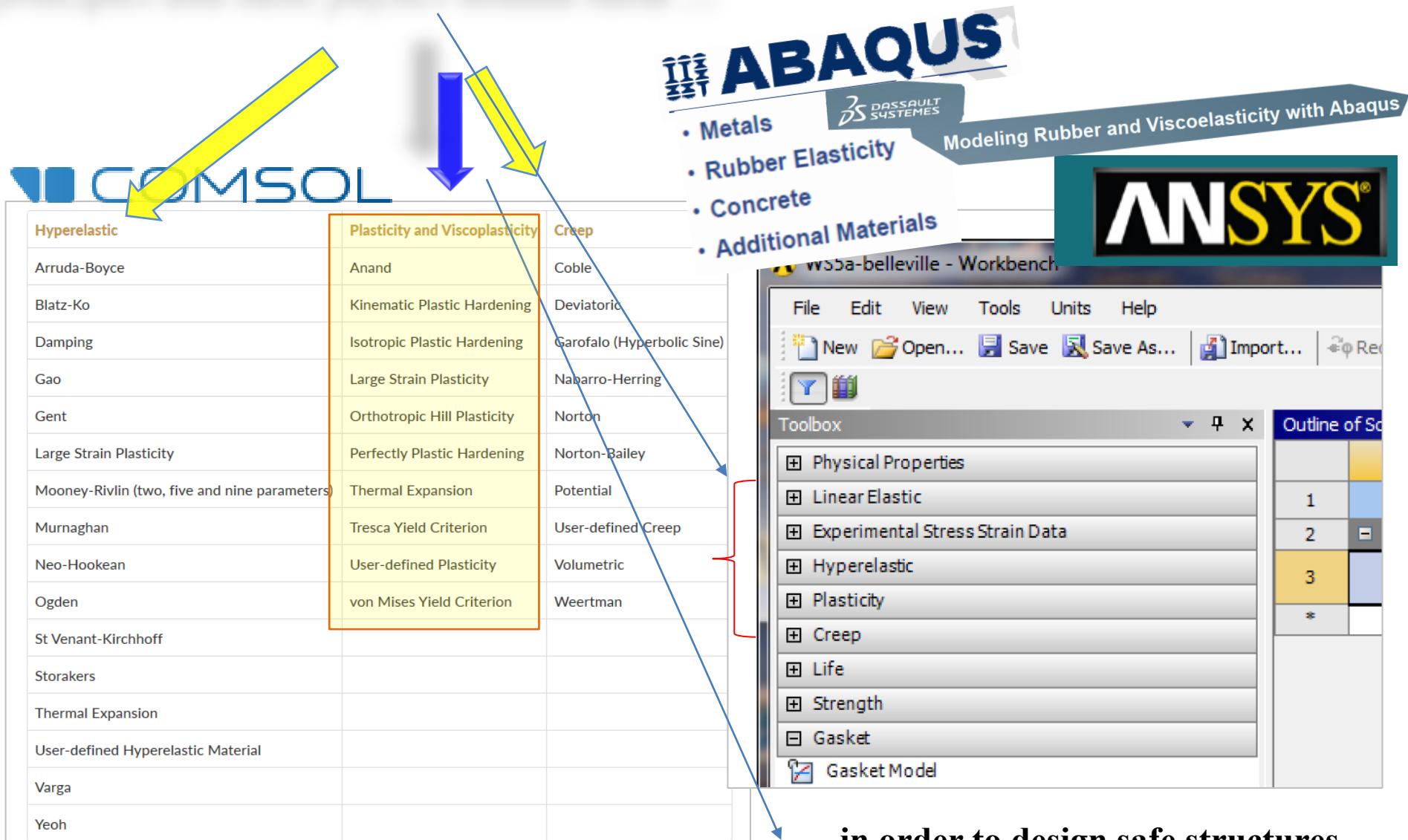
Consistent formulation

- Rate independent formulations, e.g. Hoffman, modified von Mises, Hill, von Mises
- Rate dependent formulations, e.g. Uniaxial creep laws generalised to multiaxial states

- the constitutive response is independent of the rate of deformation or straining,
- the elastic response is not affected by the plastic deformation,

Plasticity
in Lusas

Material models: the user – engineers - should know the *basics principles and basic physics* behind them ...



... in order to design safe structures

A!jatuksia

L'Intelligence, ce n'est pas seulement la résolution de problème, c'est aussi la capacité à bien gérer les exceptions*.

Intelligence is not only problem solving, it is also the ability to cope with unexpected circumstances*, too.

DI, Antti Valkonen, end of 2016 or 2017! He wrote:

...

"Minulla oli helpottunut olo tutkinnon suorittamisen jälkeen . . . Tunne, että olin saanut lukutaitoon verrattavan kyvyn, jonka jälkeen oppiminen voi alkaa...."

....



*Find good solutions for **unexpected** problems in real time.



Koehalli – rakennusosasto, February 2017
CIV's main experimental hall

Cf. Appendix 2

for

**Recommended additional
literature**

Historical notes on Plasticity**

Classical work and applications of *plasticity concepts as failure criteria and flow rule*, as all civil engineering students should remember, goes back to soil mechanics – **Coulomb** (1773) and **Rankine** (1853), in the problem of evaluating *earth pressure on retaining structures* giving emergence to concepts as limit equilibrium and limit analysis.

Experimental observations of plastic deformation and metal forming by **Coulomb** and **Tresca** in France. **Tresca** (1864-1872) introduced the first yield condition. Some fundamental investigations into plasticity in Germany under **Prandtl**.

The foundation of **Classical Theory of Plasticity** goes back to the fundamental work of **Hill** (1950) and **Koiter** (1960).

P. W. **Bridgman** was an American physicist who won the **1946 Nobel Prize in Physics** for his work on *the physics of high pressures*. Some of his experimental results (as a side product) showed that plastic flow of metals under hydrostatic pressures occurs without plastic volume change. This result influenced the work of **Hill** (1950) in developing the fundaments of classical plasticity starting from this incompressibility of plastic flow observation.

Got interested, read more from:

Kozo Osakada
History of plasticity and metal forming analysis
Journal of Materials Processing Technology 210 (2010) 1436–1454



**This historical note is not from the cited reference.

This topic we had during the 1st lecture → skip

Cf. Appendix 1

Stress Invariants (Recall)

Recall

Elements of solid mechanics

Limited to the necessary minimum to follow this course

Stress Invariants

It is Natural to express yield conditions in a coordinate free form because they are independent of the observer ... for this reason stress and strain Invariants are used.



Principal Stresses and Principal Planes

Why? 

Why? 

Stress tensor (or matrix)

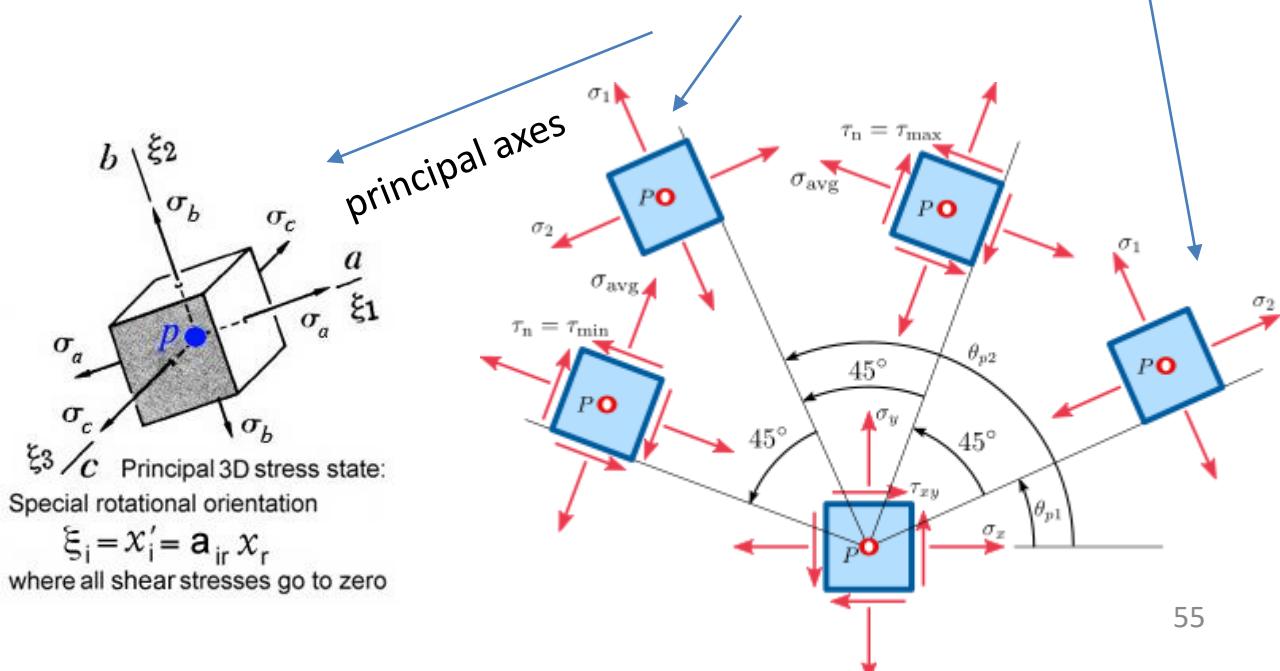
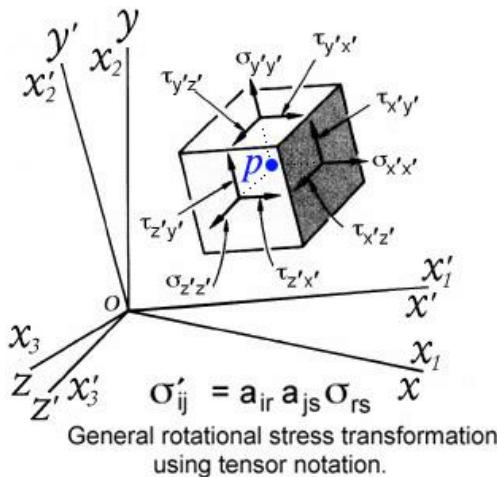
$$(\sigma - \lambda I) \cdot \hat{n} = 0$$

principal stresses

principal directions

- Determination of **maximum normal stresses and shear stresses** at a point is of considerable interest
- Many *failure criteria* are expressed using **stress/strain invariants**

The principal axes: solely **normal stresses** and **no shear stresses** appear in sections perpendicular to these axes



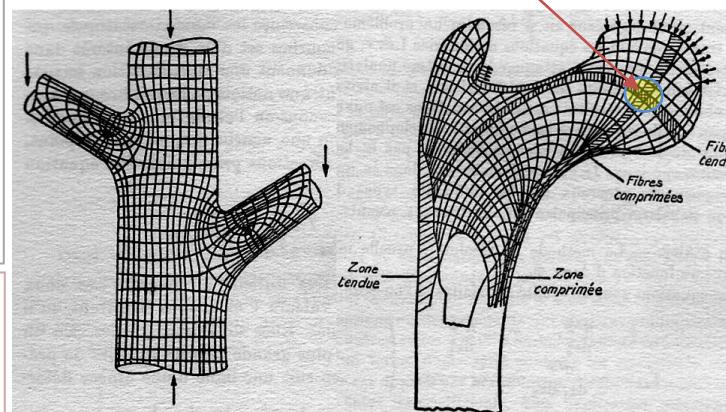
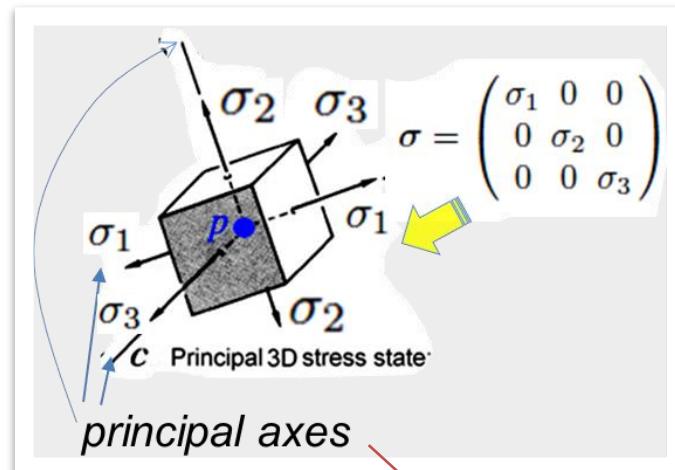
Principal Stresses and Principal Planes

The same holds for strains

For any arbitrary state of stress, we can find a set of orthogonal planes on which only normal stresses act and the shearing stresses are zero

- Called Principal Planes and the normal stresses acting on these planes are Principal Stresses denoted as
- They are ordered such that : $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \sigma_3$
- Maximum shear stresses are in planes forming an angle of 45 deg. with Principal Planes

$$\tau_{\max} = \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_3}{2}$$



Isostatiques des nœuds du bois et d'une tête de fémur

$$I_A = \text{tr}(\mathbf{A})$$

$$II_A = \frac{1}{2} ((\text{tr}\mathbf{A})^2 - \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}))$$

$$III_A = \det(\mathbf{A})$$

Stress Invariants 1(2)

Stress tensor (or matrix)

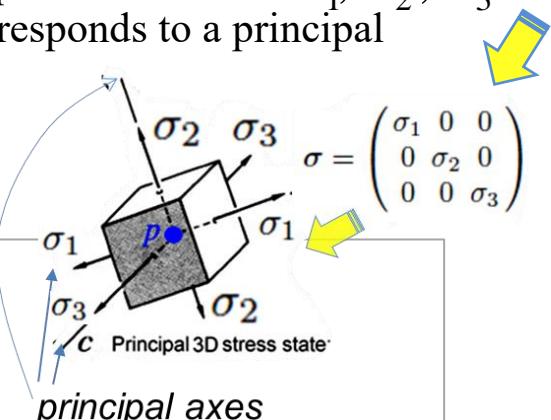
$$(\sigma - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} = \mathbf{0}$$

principal stresses
principal directions

\Rightarrow

$$\sigma^3 - I_\sigma \sigma^2 - II_\sigma \sigma - III_\sigma = 0$$

Solutions give the principal stresses $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$
Each principal stress corresponds to a principal direction



Also denoted as: I_1, I_2, I_3

$$I_1 = I_\sigma = \sigma_{ii} = \sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} + \sigma_{33},$$

$$I_2 = II_\sigma = (\sigma_{ij}\sigma_{ij} - \sigma_{ii}\sigma_{jj})/2$$

$$= -(\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22} + \sigma_{22}\sigma_{33} + \sigma_{33}\sigma_{11}) + \sigma_{12}^2 + \sigma_{23}^2 + \sigma_{31}^2,$$

$$I_3 = III_\sigma = \det(\sigma_{ij}) = \begin{vmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{13} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{23} \\ \sigma_{31} & \sigma_{32} & \sigma_{33} \end{vmatrix}.$$

The same formula are valid for strain invariants too

Stress Invariants in terms of principle stresses

$$(\sigma - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} = 0$$

principal stresses
principal directions

\Rightarrow

$$\sigma^3 - I_\sigma \sigma^2 - II_\sigma \sigma - III_\sigma = 0$$

Solutions give the principal stresses $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$
Each principal stress corresponds to a principal direction

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Also denoted as: I_1, I_2, I_3

$$I_1 \equiv \text{tr}(\sigma) = \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3$$

$$I_2 \equiv II_\sigma = \frac{1}{2} [\text{tr}(\sigma)^2 - \text{tr}(\sigma^2)]$$



$$I_1 = \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3$$

$$I_2 = \sigma_1\sigma_2 + \sigma_2\sigma_3 + \sigma_3\sigma_1$$

$$I_3 = \sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3$$

$$I_3 \equiv III_\sigma = \det(\sigma)$$

Most tensors used in engineering are symmetric 3×3 .
For this case the invariants can be calculated as:

$$I_A = \text{tr}(A)$$

$$II_A = \frac{1}{2} ((\text{tr}A)^2 - \text{tr}(AA))$$

$$III_A = \det(A)$$

Deviatoric stress

Jännitysdeviaattori

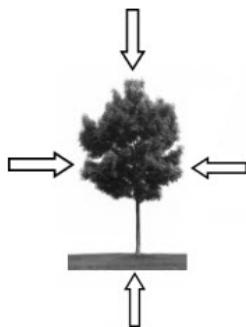
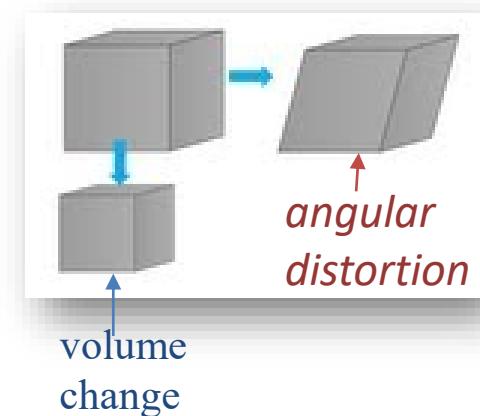
$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{13} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{23} \\ \sigma_{31} & \sigma_{32} & \sigma_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_m & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_m & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_m \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} s_{11} & s_{12} & s_{13} \\ s_{21} & s_{22} & s_{23} \\ s_{31} & s_{32} & s_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

- additive decomposition of stress tensor – very useful

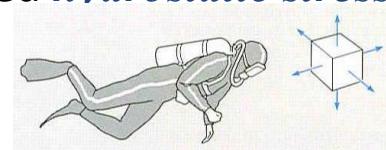
$$\sigma_{ij} = \frac{\sigma_{kk}}{3} \delta_{ij} + s_{ij}$$

or

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \sigma_m \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{s}$$



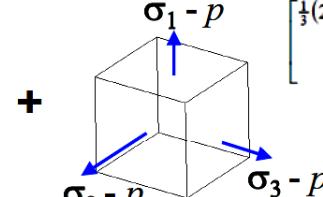
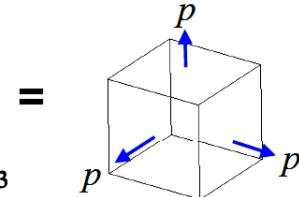
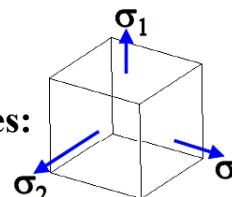
Mean normal stress – $p \equiv \sigma_m$ or also called **hydrostatic stress state**



$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = -p\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{s}$$

$$\sigma_m = \frac{\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} + \sigma_{33}}{3}$$

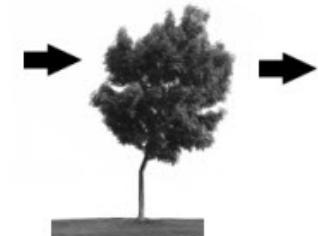
Expressed in principle stresses:



$$(\sigma_1 \neq \sigma_2 \neq \sigma_3)$$

hydrostatic stress
volume change only

Deviatoric stress S characterizes deviation of the stress state from a hydrostatic state



$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3}(2\sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22} - \sigma_{33}) & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{13} \\ \sigma_{21} & \frac{1}{3}(2\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{11} - \sigma_{33}) & \sigma_{23} \\ \sigma_{31} & \sigma_{32} & \frac{1}{3}(2\sigma_{33} - \sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22}) \end{bmatrix}$$

deviatoric stress - jännitysdeviaattori
angular distortion only

Stress Invariants 2(2)

Also denoted as: J_1, J_2, J_3

Invariants of the deviatoric stress:

$$J_1 \quad I_s = 0 ,$$

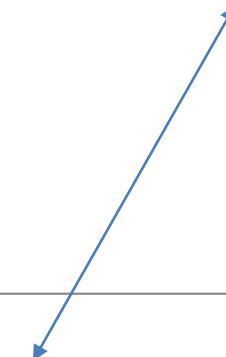
$$J_2 \quad II_s = \frac{1}{2} s_{ij} s_{ij} = \frac{1}{6} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} [(\sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22})^2 + (\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{33})^2 + (\sigma_{33} - \sigma_{11})^2] + \sigma_{12}^2 + \sigma_{23}^2 + \sigma_{31}^2$$

$$J_3 \quad III_s = \frac{1}{3} s_{ij} s_{jk} s_{ki}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} \text{tr}(\mathbf{s}^3)$$

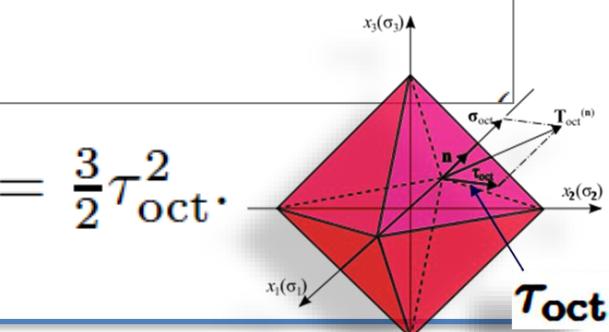
$$\tau_{oct} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} J_2$$



$$J_1 = 0,$$

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{3}(I_1^2 - 3I_2),$$

$$J_3 = \frac{1}{27}(2I_1^3 - 9I_1I_2 + 27I_3).$$

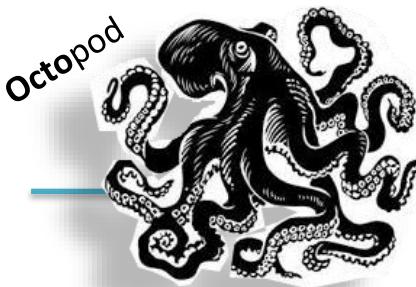


- For instance, the *equivalent stress* (von Mises stress) – *vertailujännitys* – $\tau_{oct} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} J_2 \leftrightarrow$ commonly used in solid mechanics is = $\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$ (which is up to a constant coefficient a weighted maximum shear stress on the octahedral planes)

$$\sigma_e \propto \tau_{oct}$$

Maximum shear stress

- **Extreme shear** stresses appear in sections with normal is perpendicular to one *principal axis* and forms **angles of 45 deg.** with the remaining two axes



Octahedral stresses

Octa = eight = 8; we have 8 such planes

- Normal and shear stress in cross sections whose normal forms an equal angle with all three (3) principal axes:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma_{\text{oct}} = \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3}{3} = \frac{\sigma_{ii}}{3} = \frac{I_{\sigma}}{3}, \\ \tau_{\text{oct}} = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2}. \end{array} \right.$$

Mean normal stress — $p \equiv \sigma_m$
or also called **hydrostatic stress state**

$$\sigma_n = t \cdot n = t_i n_i = \sigma_{ij} n_i n_j.$$

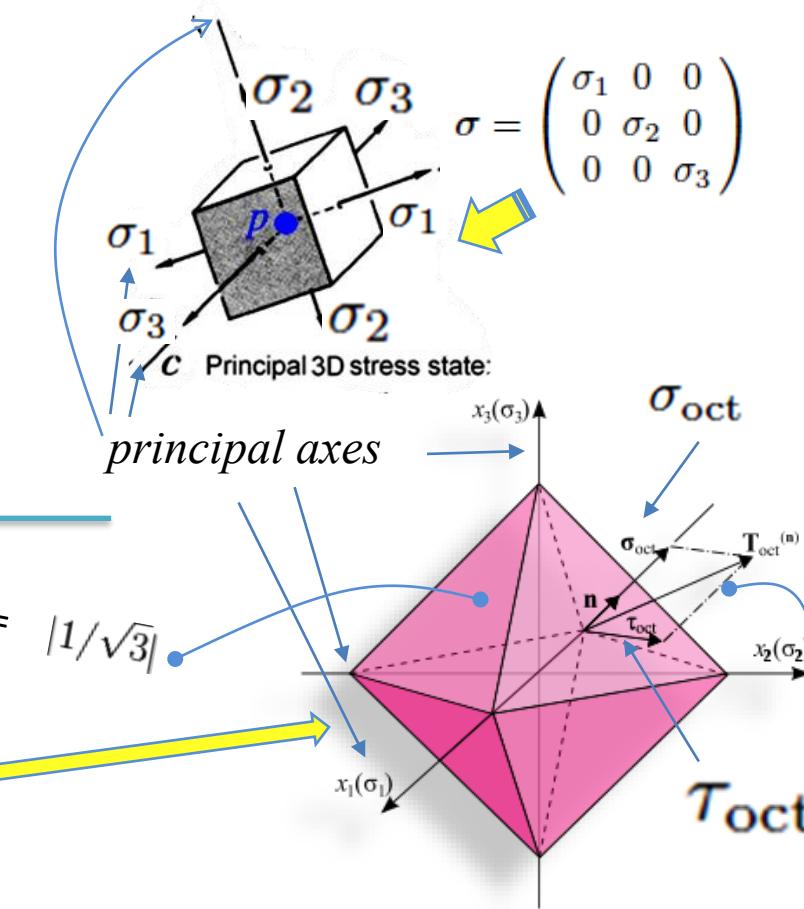
$$n \equiv n_{\text{oct}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot \tau_{\text{oct}} \approx 1.2 \tau_{\text{oct}}$$

Octahedral shear stress

component  $\tau_{\text{oct}} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3} J_2} \leftrightarrow \sigma_e = \sqrt{3 J_2}$

Equivalent stress or von Mises stress



Strain invariants

Same formula as for the stress tensor:

$$\varepsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}(u_{i,j} + u_{j,i}) . \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_{11} & \varepsilon_{12} & \varepsilon_{13} \\ \varepsilon_{21} & \varepsilon_{22} & \varepsilon_{23} \\ \varepsilon_{31} & \varepsilon_{32} & \varepsilon_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

$(\partial u_i / \partial X_j \ll 1)$

Engineering strains

$I_\varepsilon, II_\varepsilon, III_\varepsilon$



$$I_\varepsilon = \varepsilon_V = \varepsilon_{kk} = \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_3 .$$

decomposition: $\varepsilon_{ij} = \frac{\varepsilon_{kk}}{3} \delta_{ij} + e_{ij}$ or $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \frac{\varepsilon_V}{3} \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{e}$

volumetric strain (relative volume change)

distortion = deviator

second invariant of the deviator: $II_e = \frac{1}{2} e_{ij} e_{ij} = \frac{1}{6} [(\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2)^2 + (\varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3)^2 + (\varepsilon_3 - \varepsilon_1)^2] .$

Classical Failure Hypotheses

Lujuushypoteesit

Here we mean: Failure hypothesis of MATERIALS
– materiaalien murtohypoteesit



Reference:
TECHNICAL BRIEFS

An Optical Interferometric Band as an
Indicator of Plastic Deformation Front
Sanichiro Yoshida et al. *J. Appl. Mech* 72(5),
792-794 (Feb 07, 2005) (3 pages)

Lüders bands



Failure of Structures

Lämmittelyksi...

Mostly structural failure even though there is also material failure too. Often we cannot dissociate the two

This is not the scope of our course!

We are concerned in

Failure of Engineering Materials



Failure of Structures

Mostly structural failure even though there is also material failure too. Often we cannot dissociate the two

The Best, 10 points goe to ...



Slope Stability Failure

(got interested? Take corses from soil mechanics, geo-engineering, ...)

Note that, the building is over dimensioned (ylimoitettu) since it survived such serious ...

What is Failure?

Types of failures

Failure Envelope

&

Failure Criteria

The three ingredients of engineering plasticity theory

- Yielding criteria myötöehto
- Flow rule myötösääntö
- Hardening rule lujittumisehto

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$$

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{2} s_{ij} s_{ij} = \frac{1}{6} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]$$

What is Failure? Types of failure

- approach : Macroscopic & Phenomenological
 - only **Material failure** is considered
- Materiaalin vaurioehdot tai -hypoteesit**

Failure hypotheses

Lujuushypoteesit

- **Strength or failure hypotheses** are *quantified criteria* about the conditions under which a material fails consequently to action of external loads
- **Lujuushypoteesi** vastaa kvantitatiivisesti (siis kaavalla) kysymykseen: "Missä (jännitys-)olosuhteissa kappaleen lujuus ylitetään?"
- Their basis are experiments conducted under specific and often simple loading conditions

Failure criteria

are functions - in stress or strain space - which separate "**failed**" states from "**unfailed**" states



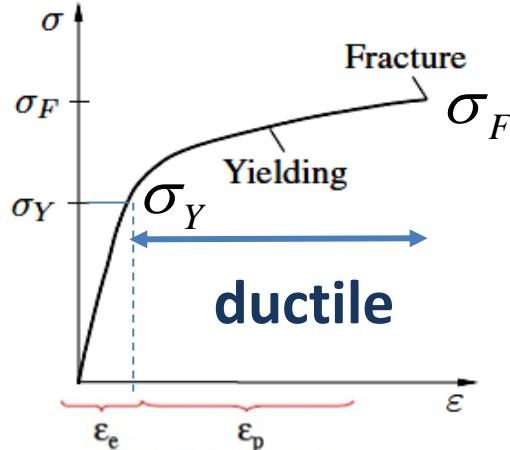
Soil Failure (slope stability)



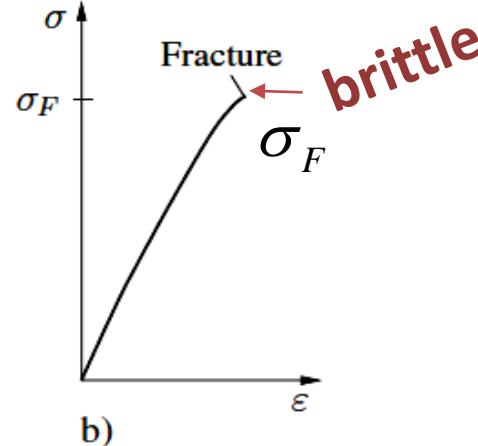
Ductile versus Brittle material 1(2)

The failure of a material
is classified into:

ductile failure - *yield*



brittle failure - *fracture*



Ductile material: has a well defined **yield point** – *ductile failure* on yielding (**plasticity**)

The ultimate stress at fracture will be reached only after sufficiently large inelastic deformations – thus people have time to escape safely

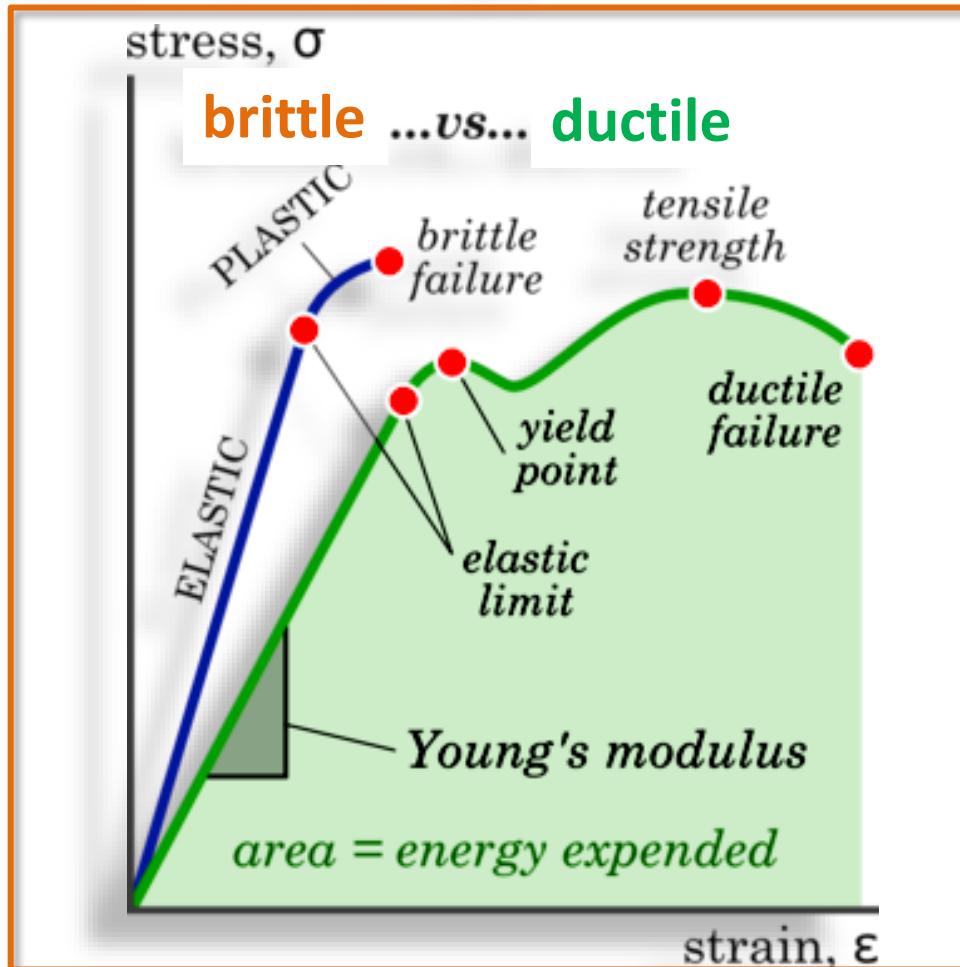
Brittle material: has no yield point & sudden failure – *brittle failure*

No significant inelastic deformations occur prior to Fracture – thus people do not get prior signs before failure

Ductile versus Brittle material 2(2)

Ductile failure
yield

Brittle failure
fracture



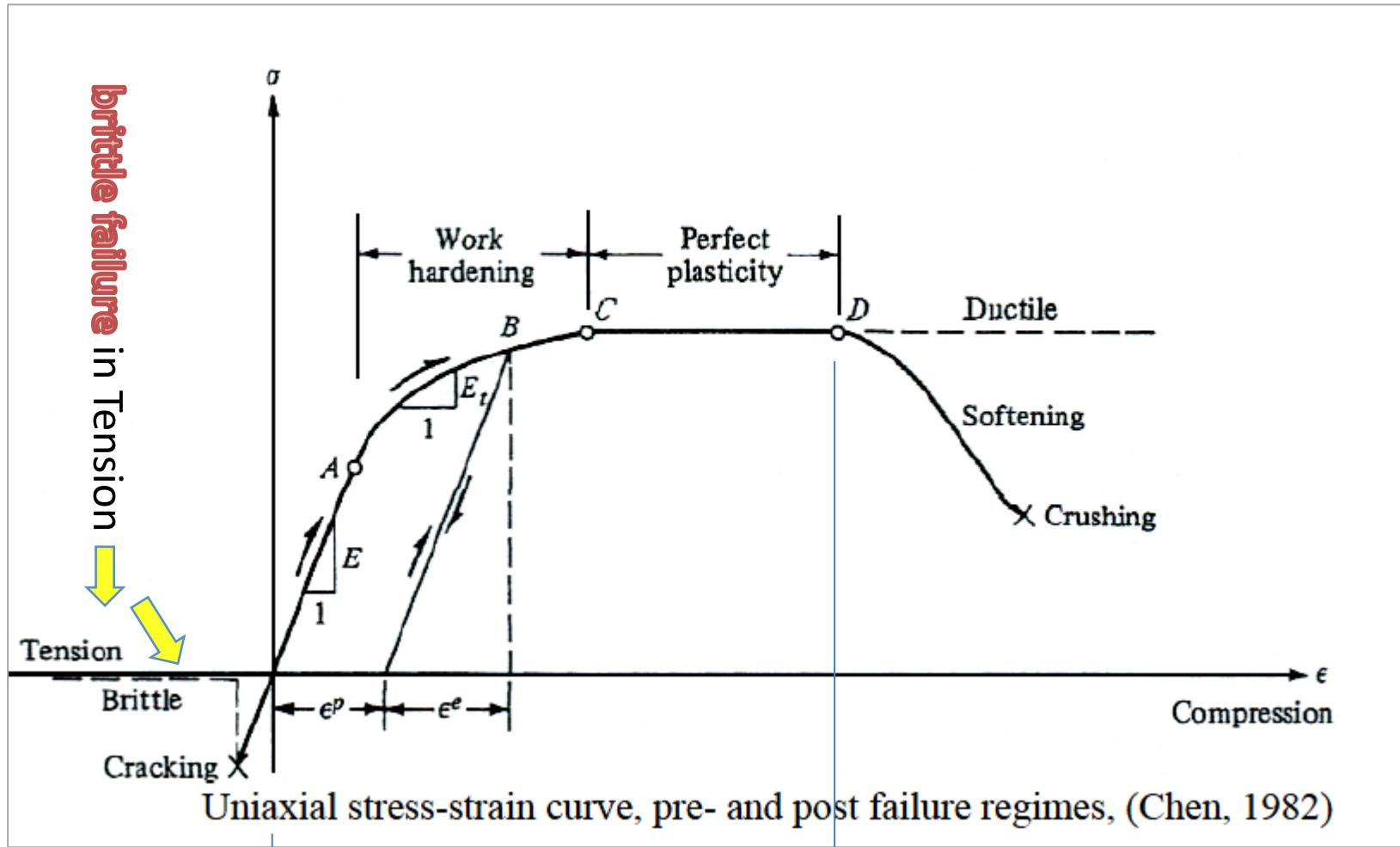
Ductile material: has a well defined **yield point** – **ductile failure** on yielding (**plasticity**)

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No significant inelastic deformations occur prior to Fracture – thus people do not get prior signs before failure

Ductile versus Brittle material 2(2)



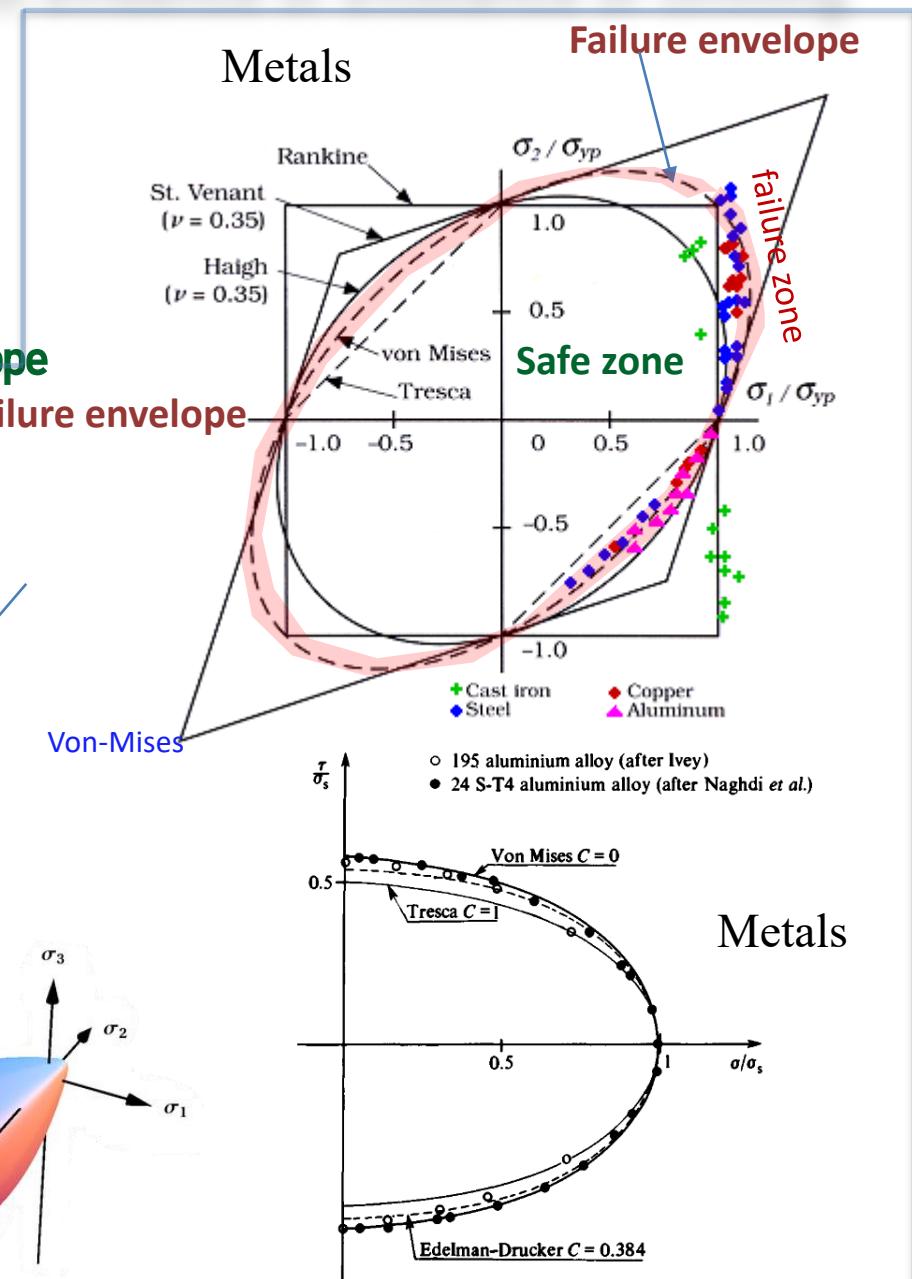
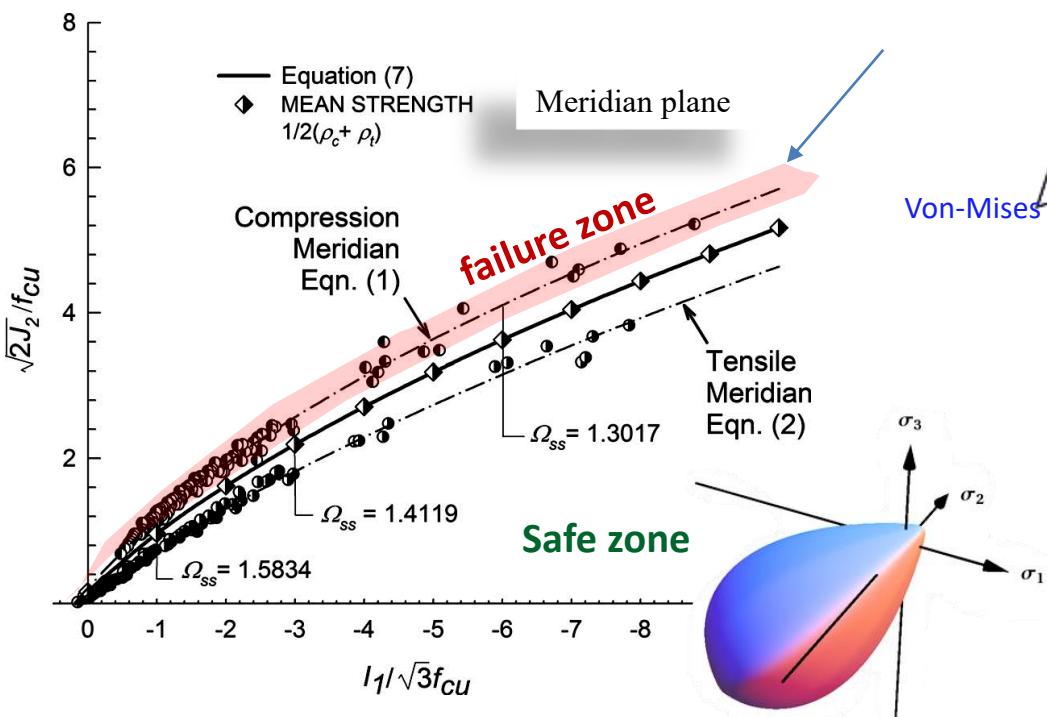
Tension ← ← Compression →
Fragility Ductility

Strength Hypotheses - experimental evidence of existance of limiting failure surface

Failure criteria are functions in stress or strain space which separate "failed" states from "unfailed" states

$$F(\sigma_{ij}) = 0 \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Failed - on the boundaries} \\ \text{Unfailed - inside the envelope} \end{array}$$

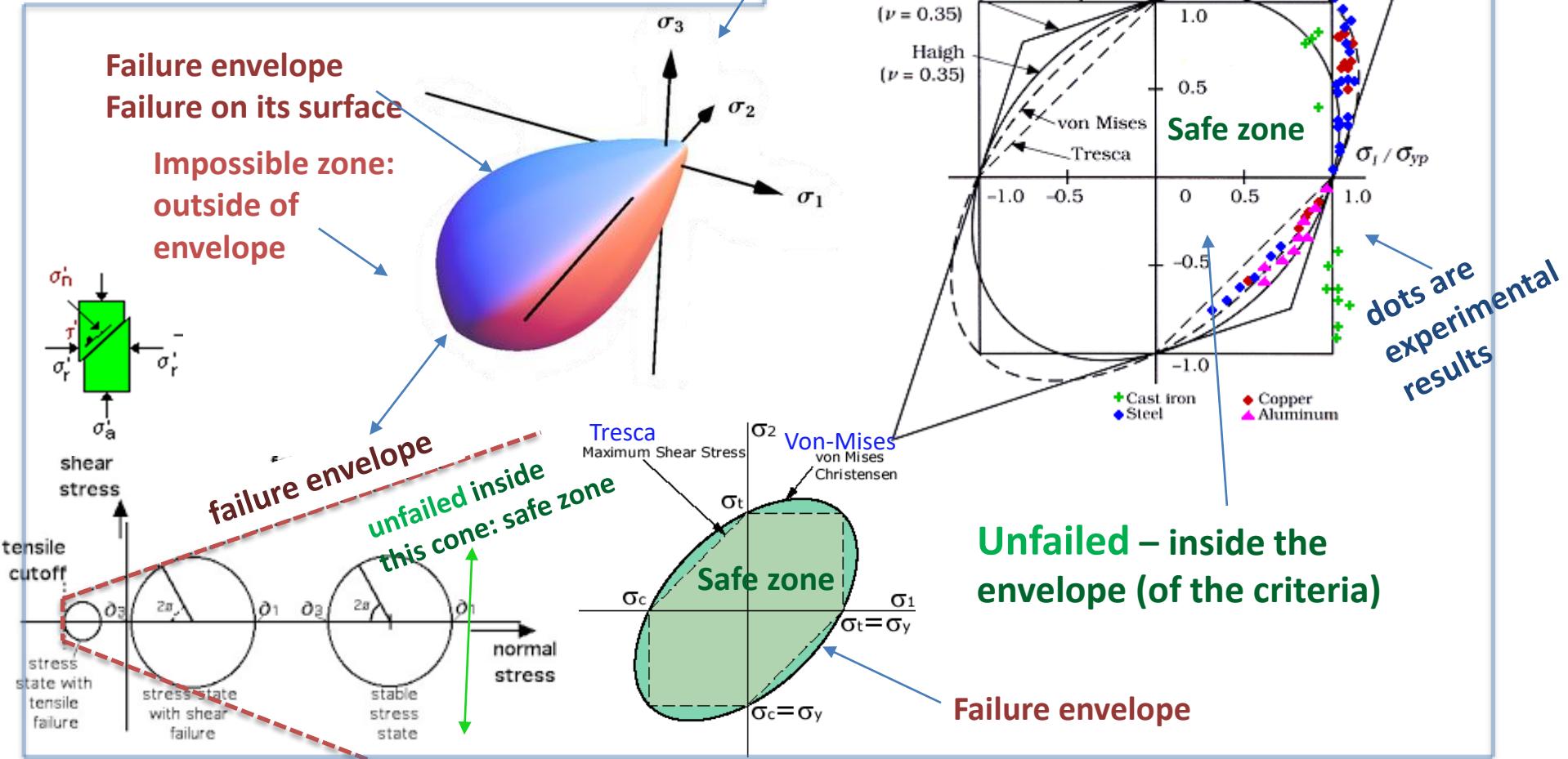
Experimental: Mean concrete strength from CONCRETE compression and tension data



Strength Hypotheses

Failure criteria are functions in stress or strain space which separate "failed" states from "unfailed" states

$$F(\sigma_{ij}) = 0$$



Strength Hypotheses

Failure criteria are functions in stress or strain space which separate "failed" states from "unfailed" states

Failure criteria:

$$F(\sigma_{ij}) = 0$$

or

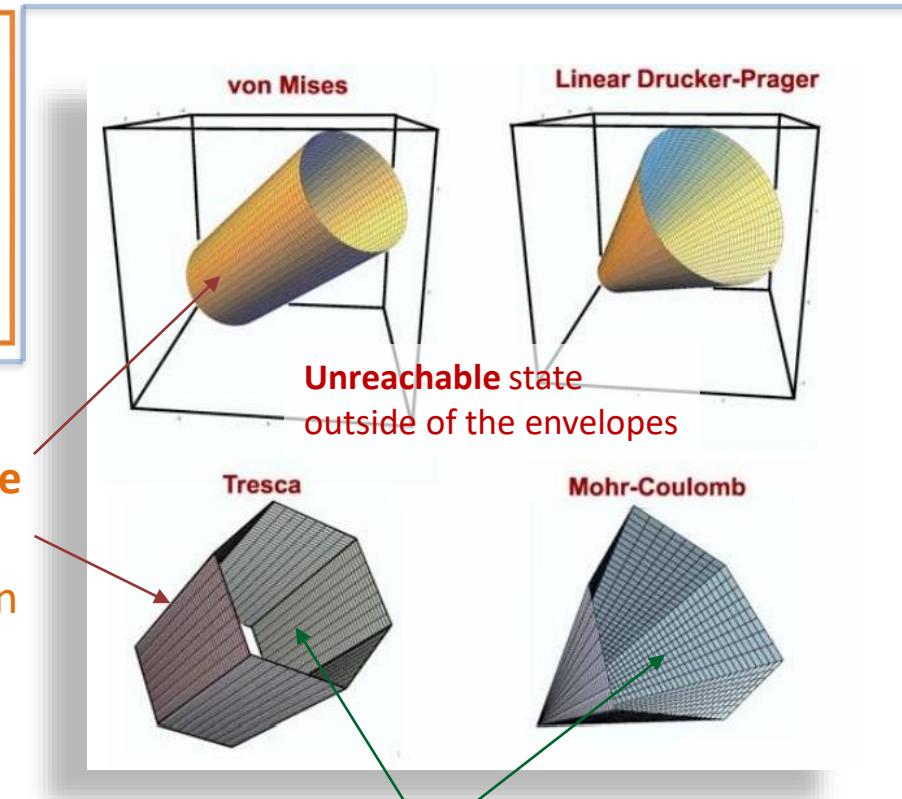
$$G(\varepsilon_{ij}) = 0$$

Failure envelope
= failure criteria
= failure function

The **failure condition**, as for instance the **yield** or **fracture condition**, corresponds to a **failure surface** in the 6-dimensional stress space or alternatively, in the **3-dimensional space of principal stresses** or expressed as functions of stress or strain

Invariants

$$I_1, J_2 \text{ & } \cos(3\theta)$$
$$f(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3; \kappa_1, \kappa_2, \dots, \kappa_n) = 0$$

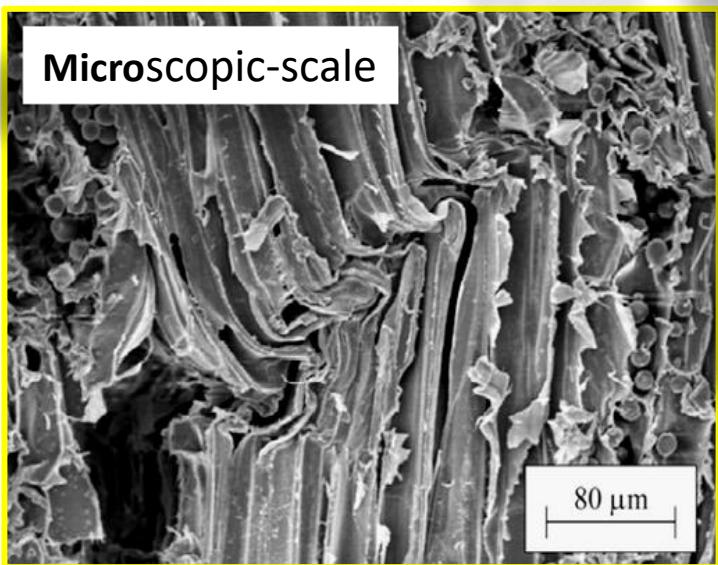


The basis of strength or failure hypothesis (for example *yield criteria*) are experiments conducted under specific and often more or less simple loading conditions

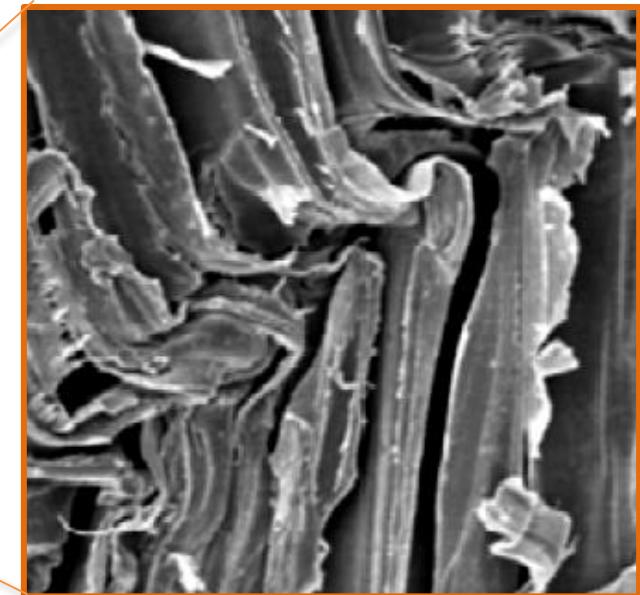
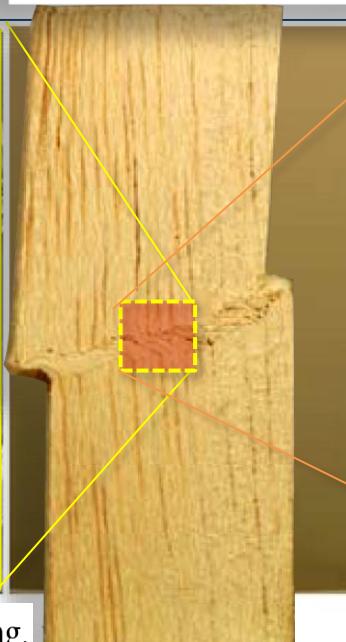
Good to know... Wood

MACROscopic-scale

Microscopic-scale



Photograph showing evidence of kink band broadening.

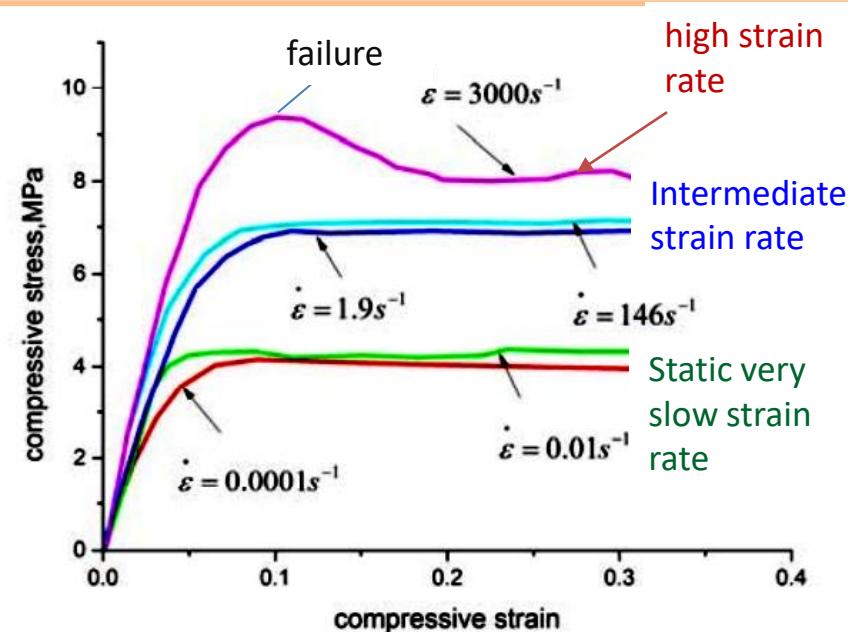


Experimental: Compressive responses of **balsa wood** at different strain rate

Ref: *Advances in the study of mechanical properties and constitutive law in the field of wood research* S Zhao, , J X Zhao and G Z Han, 2016
Global Conference on Polymer and Composite Materials (PCM 2016)
Materials Science and Engineering 137 (2016) 012036
doi:10.1088/1757-899X/137/1/012036

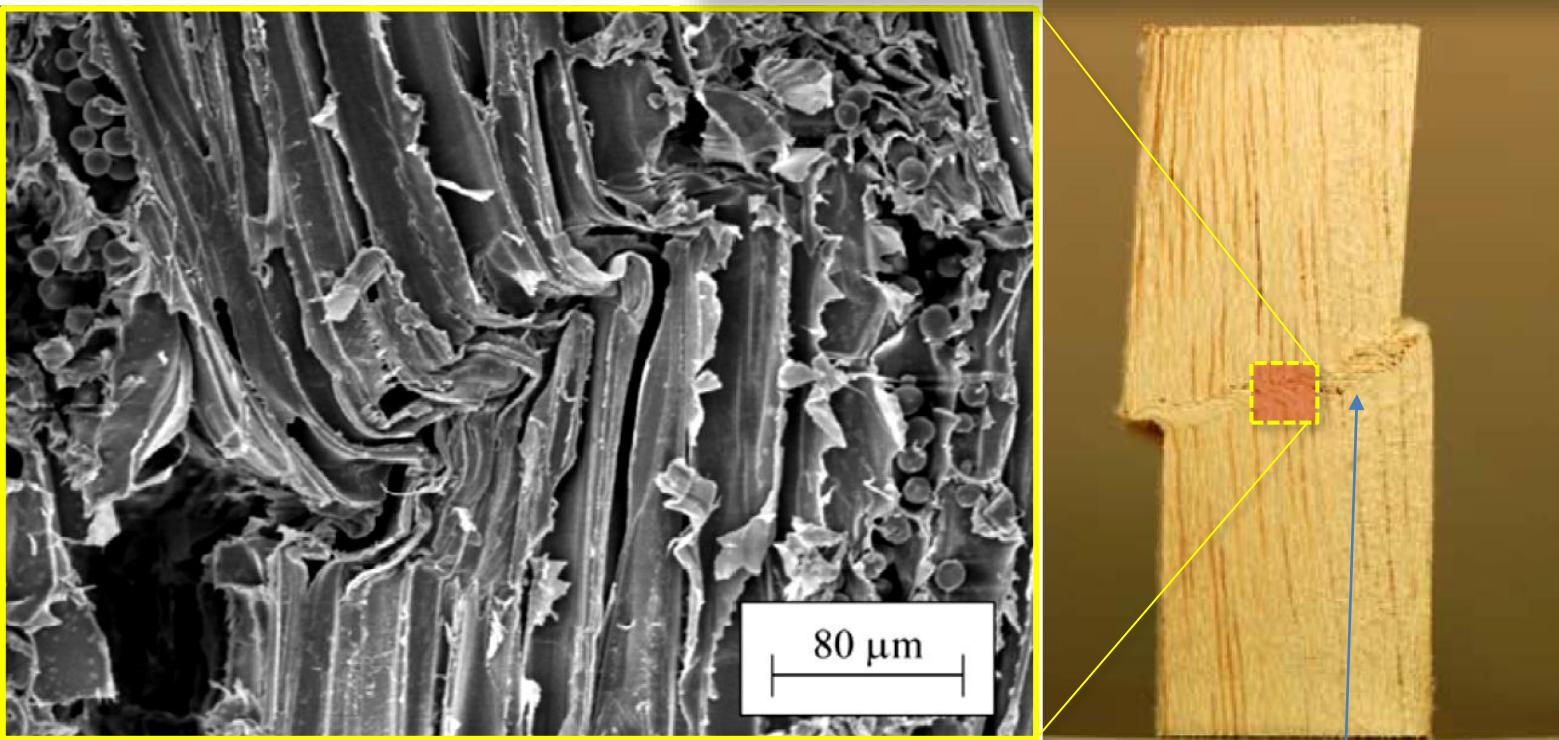
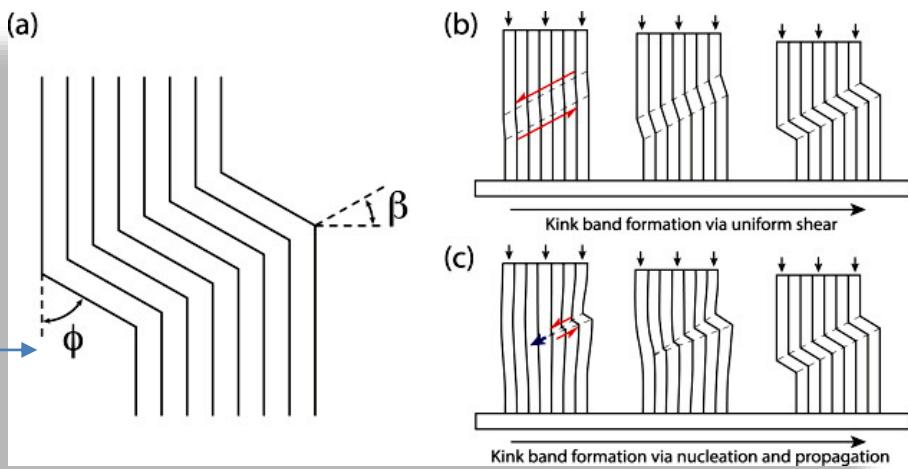
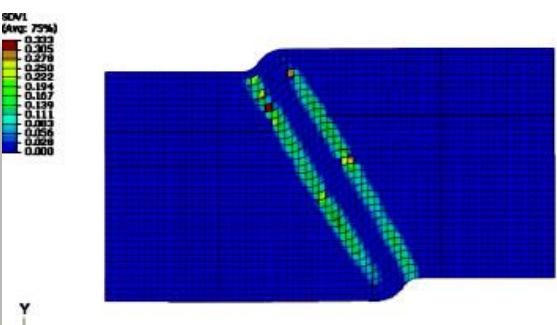
The complex mechanical behaviour of wood cannot be treated in this short course.

Wood deserves a complete course and an expertise in the field that I have not.



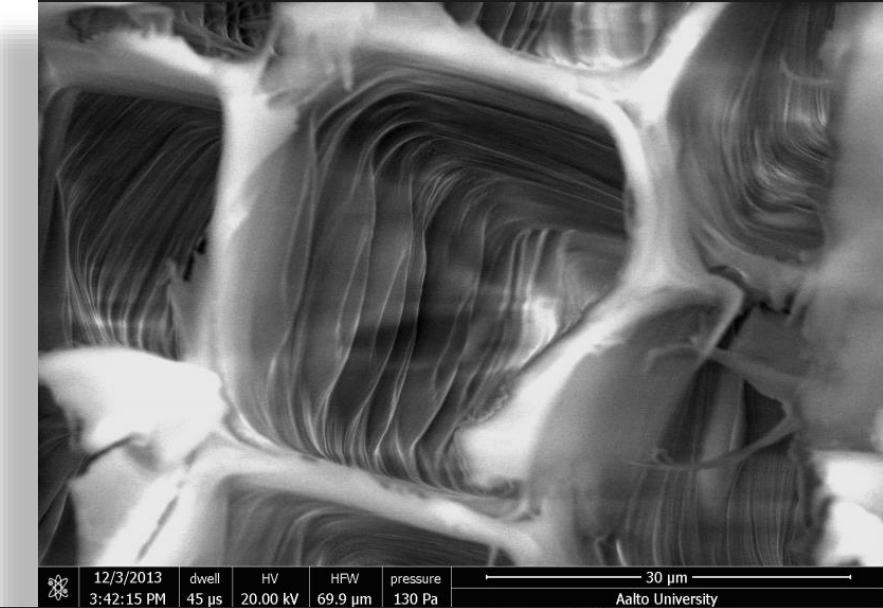
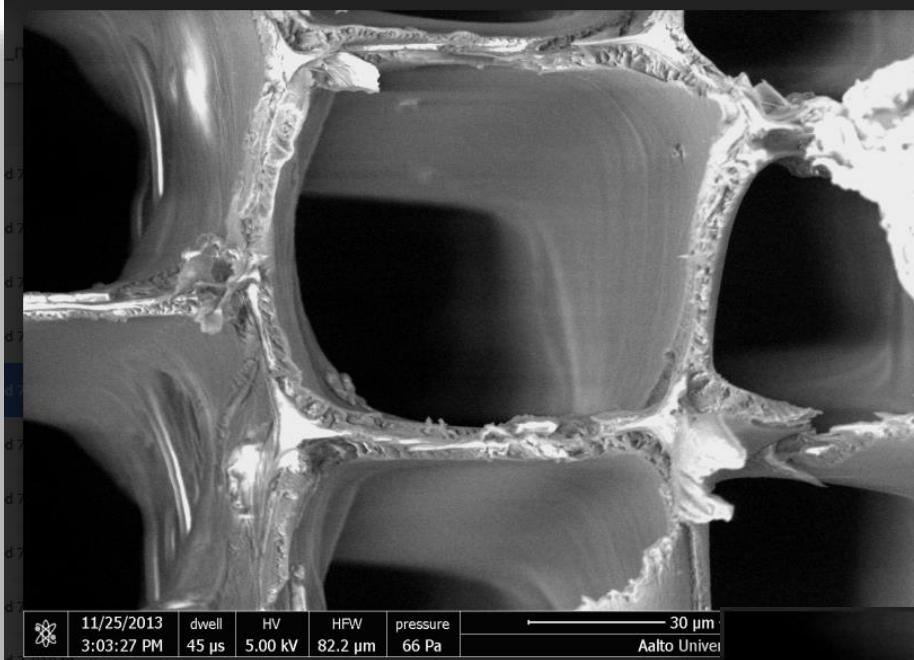
Wood

Good to know...



Photograph showing evidence of kink band broadening.

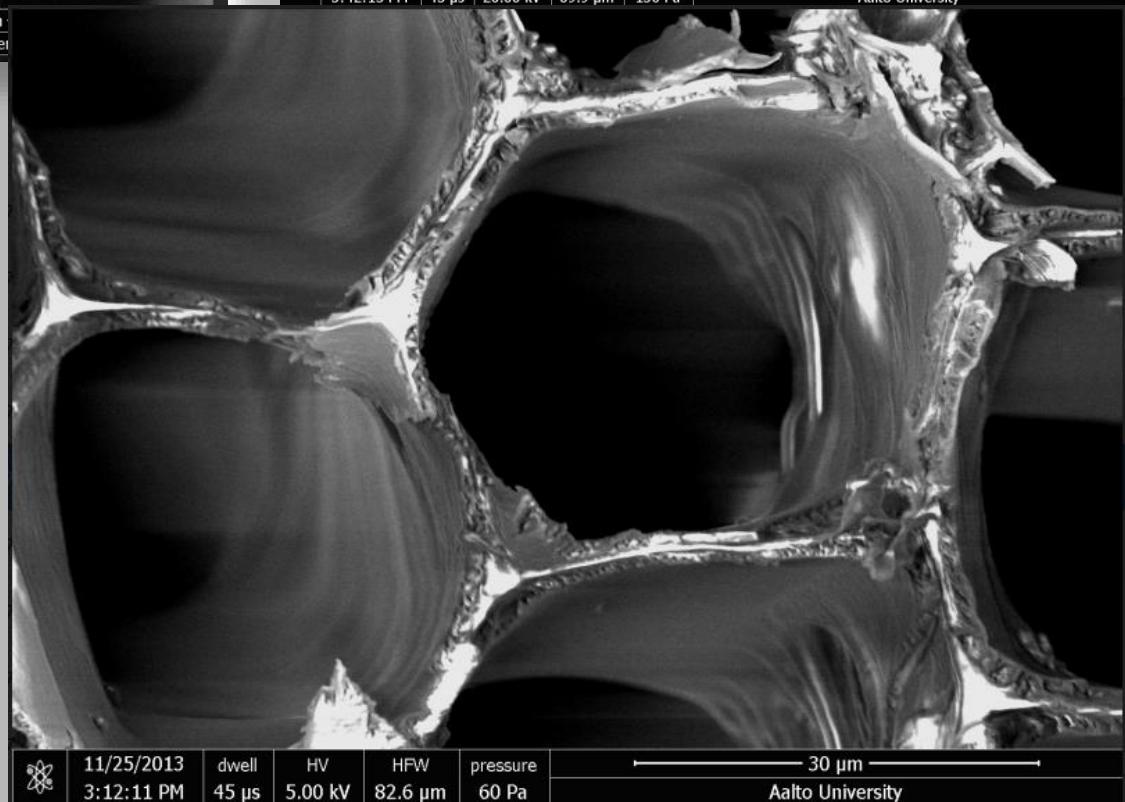
Ref: *Advances in the study of mechanical properties and constitutive law in the field of wood research*
S Zhao, J X Zhao and G Z Han, 2016 Global Conference on Polymer and Composite Materials (PCM 2016)
Materials Science and Engineering 137 (2016) 012036 doi:10.1088/1757-899X/137/1/012036



Wood - microstructure

Some SEM-micrographs
by Dr. Djebar Baroudi & Dr.
Andrzej Cwirzen

Good to know...



Synthesis of the experimental observations related to plastic behaviour

What general can be conclude from all these experimental observations on plastic behaviour at constant normal room temperatures and with no damaging loading ?

At leas for metals, one can say:

1. Thermodynamic *irreversibility* phenomenon related to plasticity is seen *via* the existence of plastic strains
2. These plastic strains are practically strain-rate independent, and ...
3. The resulting plastic volume change is practically zero (incompressible plastic flow in metals; experimental evidence will be shown in further slides – Bridgman experiments)
4. Existence of a threshold or **plastic-yield surface** (such surface is represented by a *convex* hypersurface in the stress space. To conclude this much more intellectual work is needed. Does not follow from a simple observation)
5. This yield-surface possibly depends on plastic-strain history (hardening); experimental evidence will be shown in further slides

Plasticity

Yield criteria

Isotropic & Isothermal Rate-Independent*

Plasticity deals with yielding of materials under complex stress states

Readings

- Lemaitre, chapter 5. – **Plasticity** or
- Chen & Han, chapters 1 – 5 (complete)
- Ottosen & Ristinmaa, chapter 8...12 – *Plasticity*
- **Can have a look**
- Dietmar Gross, chapter 1.3.3
- Primer, Chapter 4
- *Elective:* Lubliner, Section 3.3 *Yield Criteria, Flow Rules and Hardening*

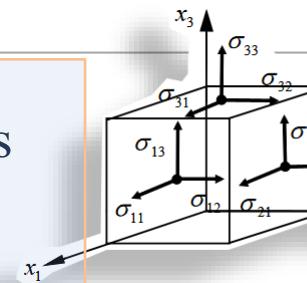
Yield, residual deformations



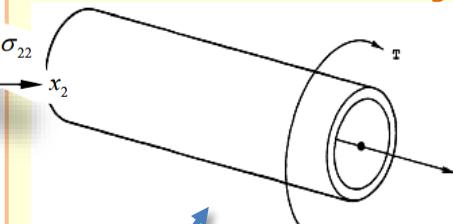
-
- * 1. Isotropic & Isothermal Rate-Independent plasticity is the subject of this course. A quantitative review of commonly used *isotropic yield criteria* will be done.
 - 2. For anisotropic cases (*i.e.*, plastic behavior having a directional dependency), there exist several anisotropic yield criteria – these are not the subject of this course.

Plasticity & Yield criteria

Plasticity deals with Yielding of materials under Complex Stress States



Combined loading



Consider a body under loading of gradually increasing magnitude resulting in a given combined stress state.

The initial small deformation of the body is entirely *elastic* and the body recovers its shape entirely under complete unloading.

If one continues loading then *for a certain combination of the applied stresses*, plastic deformation appears and thus the material **yields**.

A Law defining the Limit of the Elastic Behavior under any combination of stresses is called **Yield Criterion**. ?

Since the **physical yield** is independent on which coordinate system the stress tensor is written (*i.e.*, independent on who is observing the yield), the **yield criterion** should be a function of the **Stress Invariants** in the isotropic case. However, for anisotropic cases, principal directions of anisotropy will be involved.

$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{13} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} & \sigma_{23} \\ \sigma_{31} & \sigma_{32} & \sigma_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The Question: for which stress combination the metal of the tube will yield?

Failure Hypotheses

or more precisely

Yield Criteria myötäehdot

Terminologia: Lujuushypoteesit
Strength hypotheses

- Distortional energy
- Maximum shear stress
- Maximum Principal stress

brittle
materials

- Maximum Principal strain
- Maximum strain energy
- Mohr-Coulomb hypothesis
- Octahedral shear Stress theory or
Drucker-Prager hypothesis - DRUCKER (1918-2001) & PRAGER (1903-1980)

– Von Mises yield condition
(as metals – plastic yield insensitive to pressure)
– TRESCA yield condition [1864]

– RANKINE (1820–1872), [1850]

LAMÉ (1795–1870) & NAVIER (1785–1836)

– SAINT-VENANT (1797–1886) & BACH (1889)

– BELTRAMI (1835-1900)

... for granular and geological materials
materials having pressure dependent yield

materials with pressure-sensitive yield

... initially developed for granular and geological materials

These criteria above are some of commonly used (engineering) isotropic yield criteria. This course will provide a quantitative review

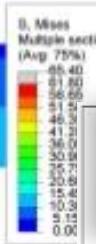
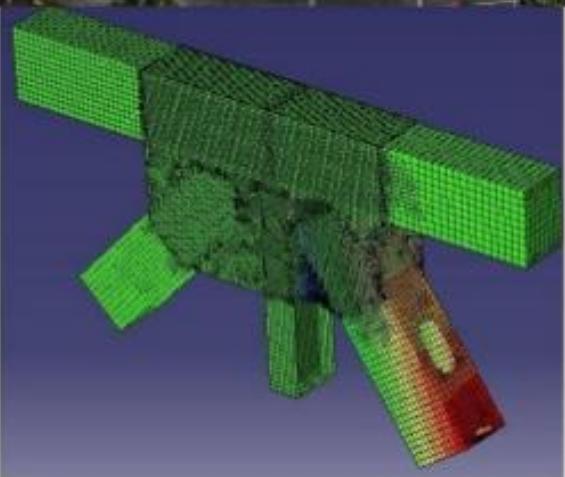
Also known as Strength Hypotheses

Collapse of the I-35W Bridge, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 2007

Plasticity



Accident cause: ! steel gusset plates that were undersized and inadequate to support the intended load of the bridge as the loading had increased over time!



Von MISES
Stress



plastic yielding: orange and red shading exceeds yield stress

$$F = J_2 - k^2 = 0$$

Crosti, C. & Duthinh, D. (2014) "A nonlinear model for gusset plate connections, *Engineering Structures*, V. 62-63, pp.135-147.

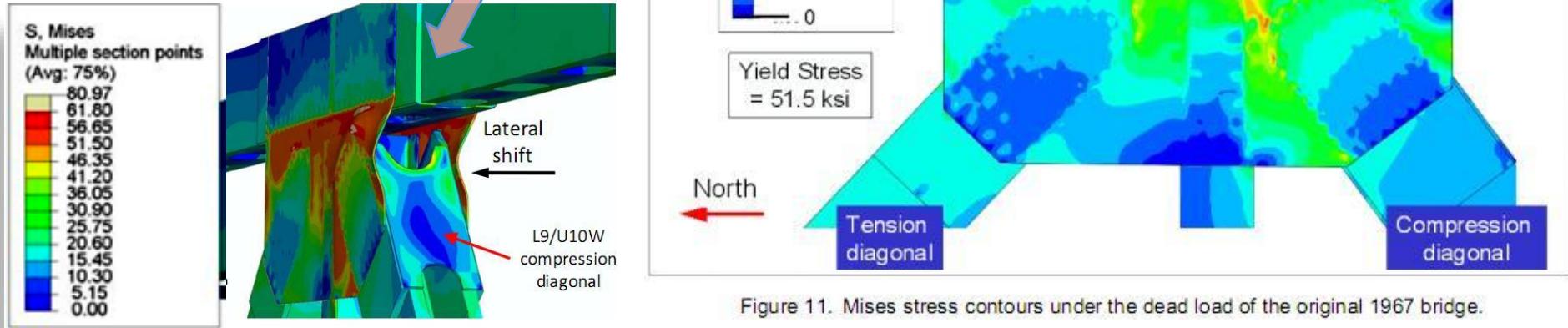
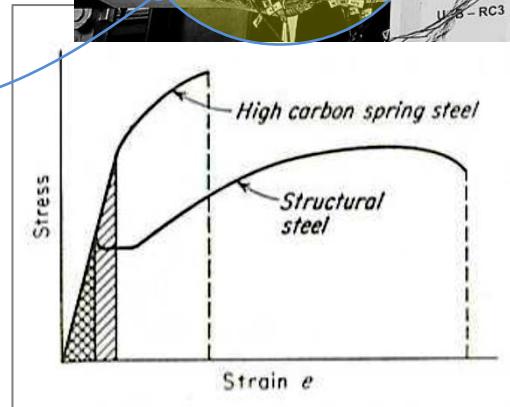
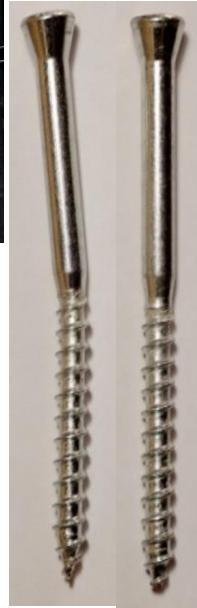
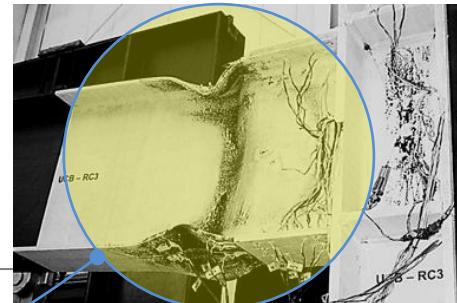
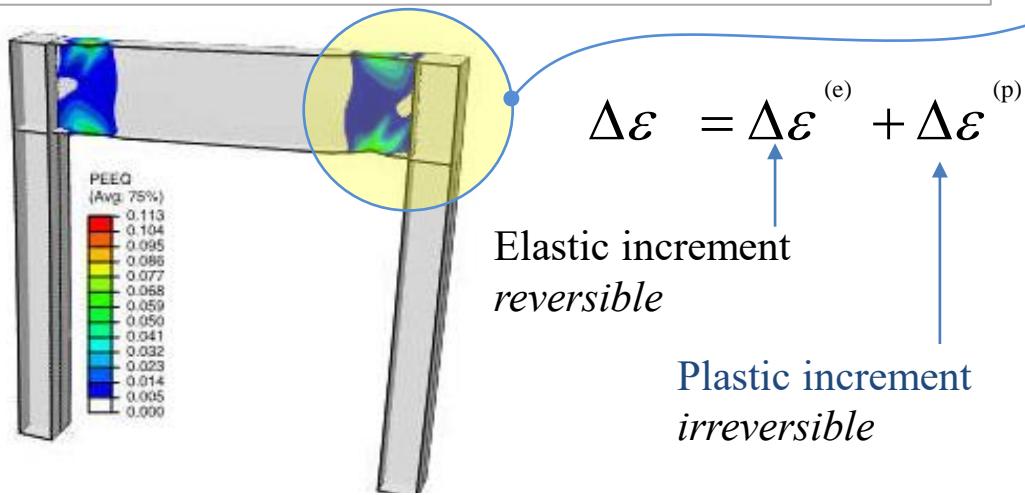


Figure 14. Indicating the lateral shift of the L9/U10W diagonal, with Mises stress contours.

Engineering Plasticity

One effect of plastic yielding are **remaining plastic deformations** after unloading

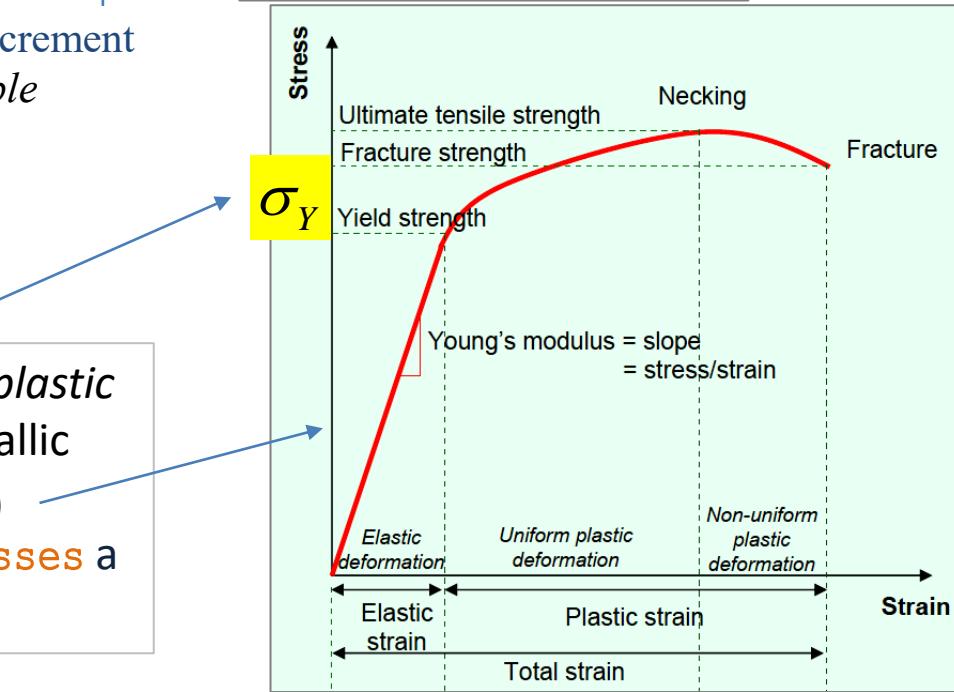
Plasticity: theory of time-independent irreversible deformations



The three ingredients of engineering plasticity theory

- Yielding criteria [myötöehتو](#)
- Flow rule [myötösääntö](#)
- Hardening rule [lujittumisehto](#)

- If stresses or strains **exceed a certain limit**, *plastic yielding* may be observed, especially in metallic materials (here one have a uniaxial tensile test)
- **under arbitrary combination of stresses** a more general yield criteria is needed



Plasticity

Plasticity: theory of isothermal time-independent irreversible deformations



Domain of validity and use:

❖ **Metal and alloys:**

- mainly movement of dislocations:

The total strain (increment) can be partitioned into reversible (elastic) and irreversible (plastic)

- Restrictions:** - Low temperature

- Non-damaging loads

$$T < T_{melting} / 4$$

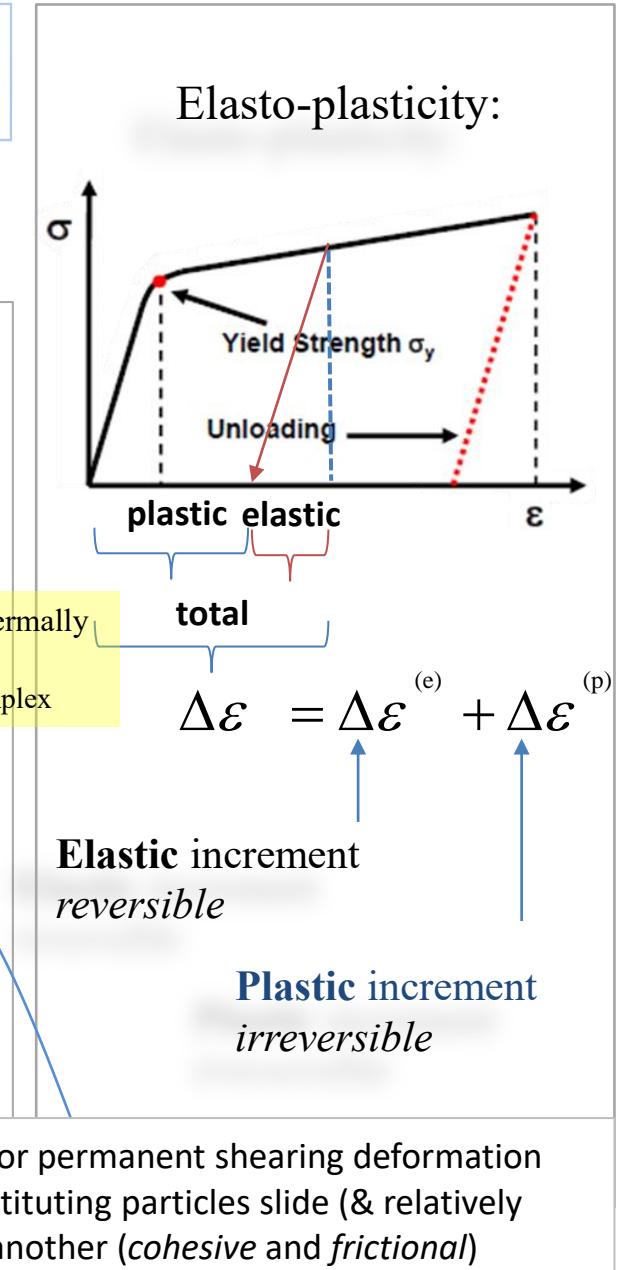
...otherwise → viscoplasticity, thermally activated creep

... further recrystallization...too complex

❖ **Soils:** Restrictions: occurrence of slip surfaces caused by instability

❖ **Polymers and Wood:** irreversible deformations are better accounted by **visco-elasticity** (however, for temperatures close to melting temperatures → thermoplastics)

❖ **Concrete:** irreversible deformations are due mainly to micro-cracks therefore a *model coupling elasticity or plasticity and damage* may be preferable
(for longtime response, creep results in irreversible deformations)



Plasticity -- some basic physics

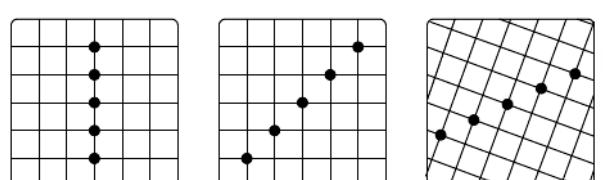
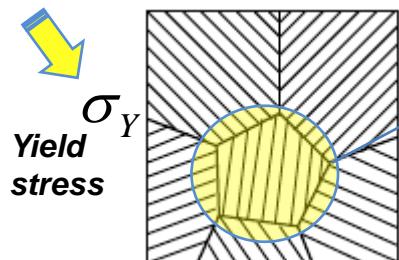
(cf. to some basics textbooks)

plastic yielding \rightarrow remaining plastic deformations after unloading

- Metal and alloys:** mainly movement of dislocations
(crystal plasticity)

- The total strain can be partitioned into reversible (elastic) and irreversible (plastic)

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{(p)} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{(e)}$$



Microstructure of a single crystal showing plastic deformation followed by elastic deformation

The **total strain is partitioned** into reversible (**elastic**) and irreversible (**plastic**):

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^e + \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^p \\ d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^e + d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p \end{array} \right.$$

Need for a *flow rule* to compute this increment

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{C} : \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^e = \mathbf{C} : (\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p)$$

Elasticity

Dislocation := motion of atoms in the crystal structure rearranging themselves to have new neighbors

Should use true strain when ~few percent larger ... (large deformation)

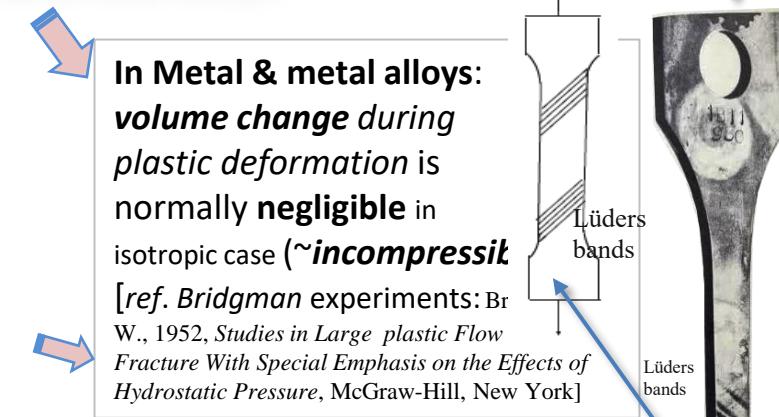
Elasto-plasticity:

total strain: $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^e + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p$,

Variations in the inter-atomic distances without changes of place

'slip' movements along crystal planes with modifications of inter-atomic bonds direction of the largest resolved shear stress (distortion=shear)

Metal and alloys



Clay or fine-grained soil: For these highly porous materials, the *inelastic* deformation has both **distortional** and **volumetric** components

Stainless-steel at 315 °C. Diagonal lines are slip bands, i.e., regions with high degree of plastic slip (ref. Shanley, Strength of materials, 1957)

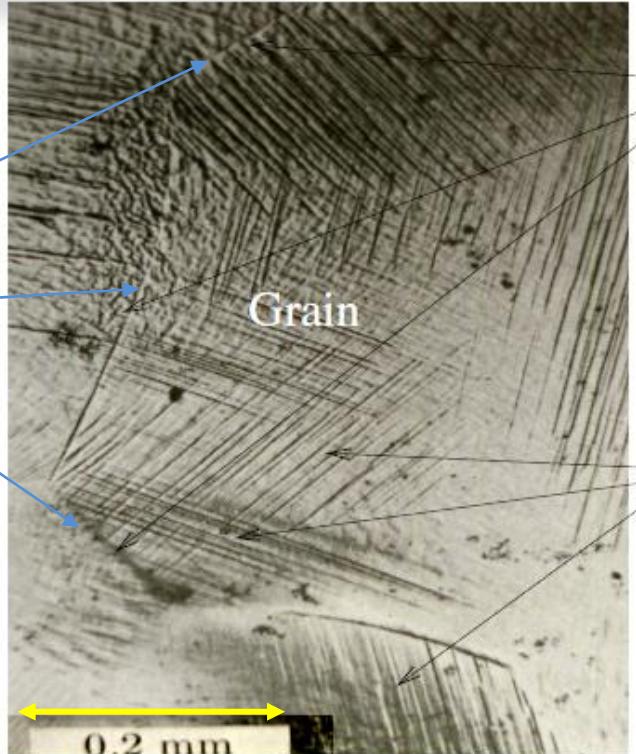
Illustration of slip planes in a grain of a metal (a monocrystal)

Plastic Deformation of Polycrystalline Materials

Metal: Copper

$G \sim 48 \text{ GPa}$

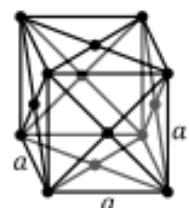
Grain boundaries



Joints de grain

Grain joints

Copper: Crystal structure



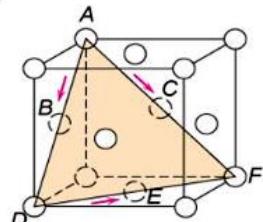
face-centered cubic (fcc)

Note that we see three slip directions per grain

Trace de plans de glissement

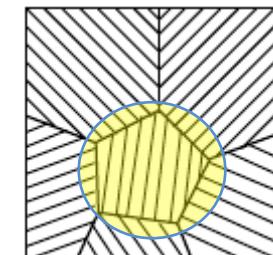
Trace of slip movements along crystal planes

Note that the slip orientations changes with the grain orientations



□ Slip plane - plane allowing easiest slippage

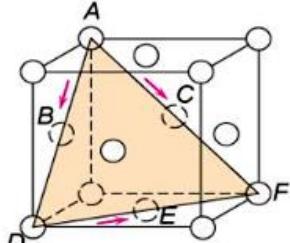
Ref: Rupture et Plasticité, lecture notes by Pierre Suquet



Dislocation := motion of atoms in the crystal structure rearranging themselves to have new neighbors

Plastic Deformation of Polycrystalline Materials

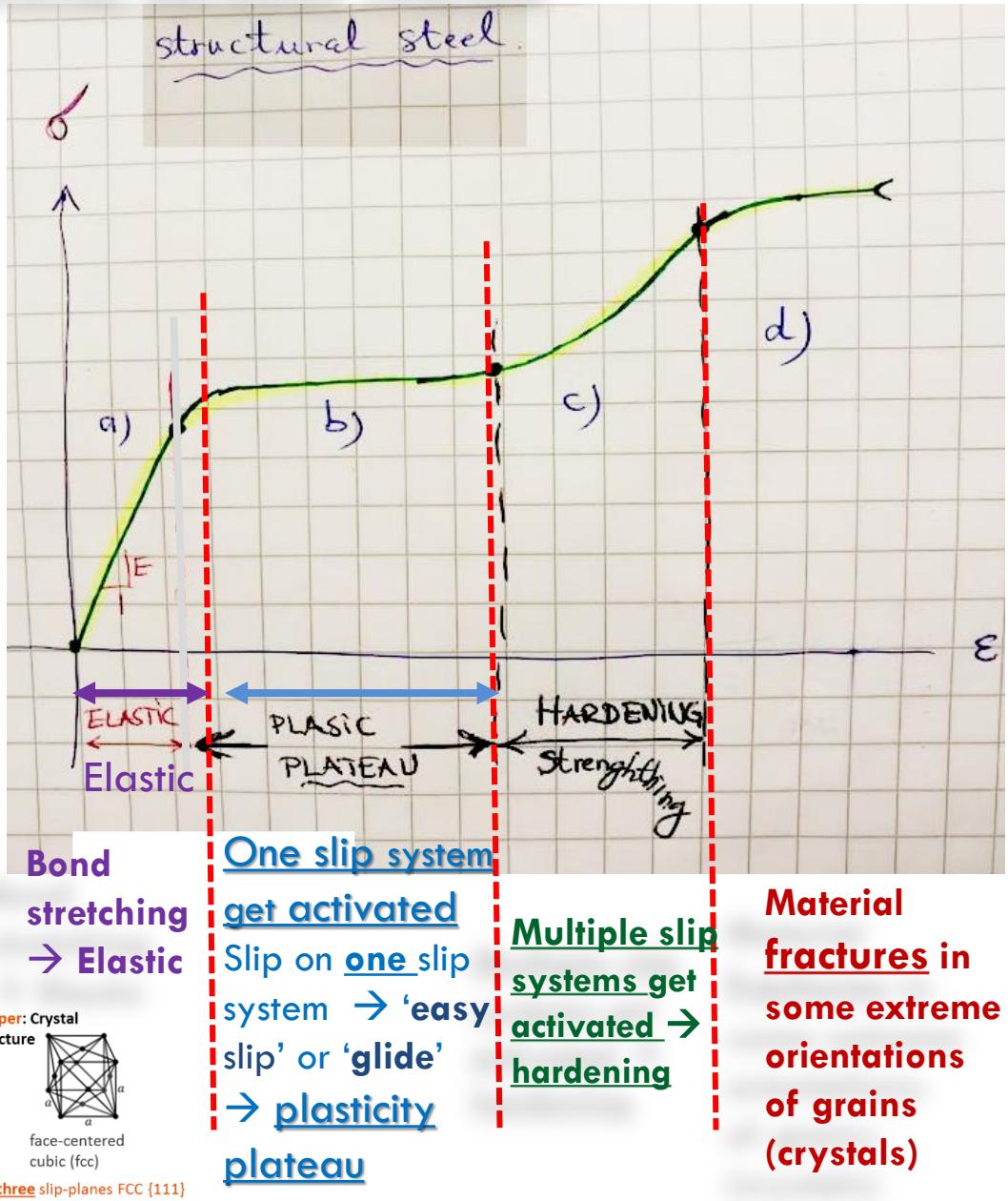
- Random crystallographic orientations of the numerous grains, the direction of slip varies from one grain to another → **deformation and slip is complex**
- Photomicrograph of a polycrystalline copper specimen
 - Before deformation, the surface was **polished**
 - Slip lines visible
 - Two sets of parallel yet intersecting **sets of lines** → It appears that two slip systems operated
 - The difference in alignment of the slip lines for the several grains → variation in grain orientation



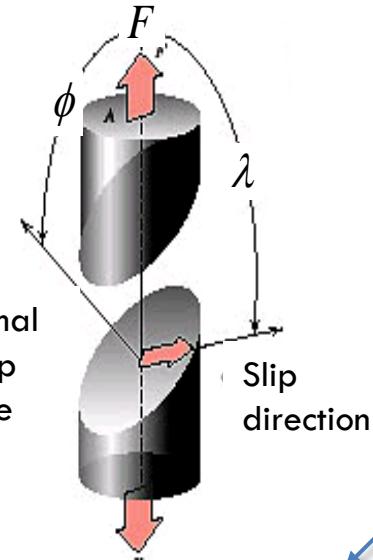
- **Slip plane** - plane allowing easiest slippage



Should be known to you from earlier material bachelor courses



Def: slip system = slip plane & slip direction



Stainless-steel at 315 °C. Diagonal lines are slip bands, i.e., regions with high degree of plastic slip (ref. Shanley, Strength of materials, 1957)

Largest resolved shear stress

(in a single crystal):

$$\tau_{\max} = \frac{F_s}{A_s} = \frac{F \cos \lambda}{A / \cos \phi} = \sigma [\cos \lambda \cos \phi]_{\max}$$

↑
Schmidt factor

Therefore, the minimum stress to begin yielding (= slip) occurs when slip direction $\lambda = \phi = 45 \text{ deg}$.

Good to know

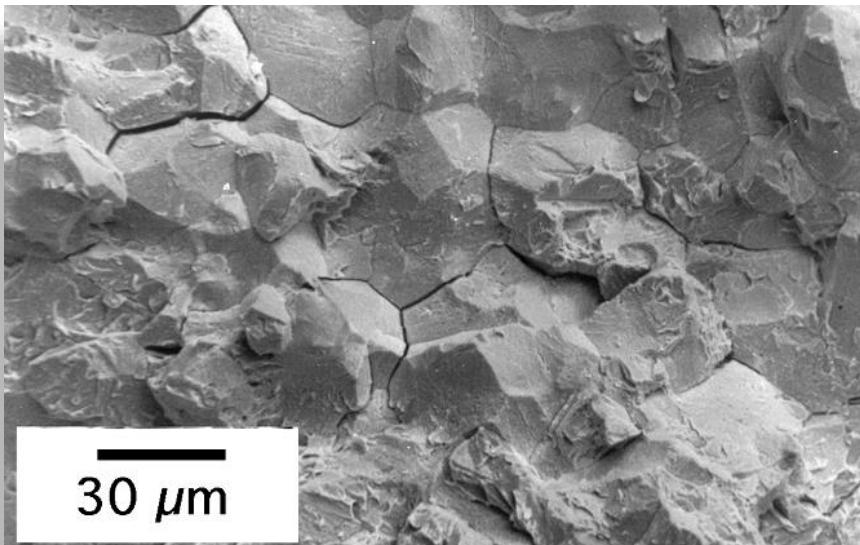
polycrystals

- **Hall-Petch Equation:** For many materials, Yield strength varies with grain size as

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_0 + k_y d^{-1/2}$$

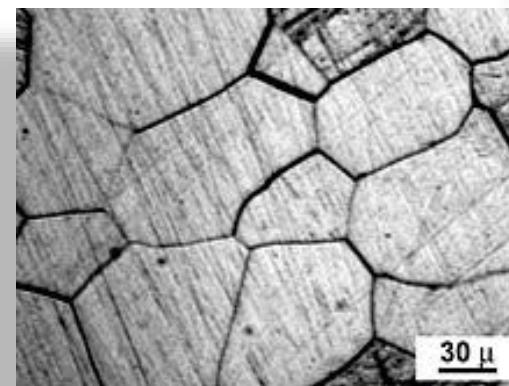
d: average grain diameter
 σ_0 and k_y are material constants

This a good approximation for moderate grain size.



Micrograph – Steel grain boundary failure

[https://www.phase-
trans.msm.cam.ac.uk/2008/Steel_Microstructure/SM.html](https://www.phase-trans.msm.cam.ac.uk/2008/Steel_Microstructure/SM.html)

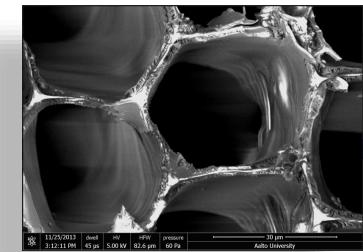


Micrograph of a polycrystalline Metal; grain boundaries evidenced by acid etching.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grain_boundary



Wood – for comparison



30 μm

SEM-micrographs by Dr. D. Baroudi & Dr. A. Cwirzen

Got interested! Go to some basic textbook on material science of engineering materials to learn more...

To have an idea of the order of magnitude ...

Typical tensile strengths		
Material	Yield strength (MPa)	Ultimate tensile strength (MPa)
Steel, structural ASTM A36 steel	250	400–550
Steel, 1090 mild	247	841
Chromium-vanadium steel AISI 6150	620	940
Human skin	15	20

<https://www.google.com/search?q=yield+stress+steel&ie=utf-8&oe=utf-8&client=firefox-b-ab>

Effect of Hydrostatic Pressure

Good to know 1(3)

About “In Metals *volume change during plastic deformation* is normally negligible (~incompressible)

Reading pause ...

Experiments by Bridgman *et al.*, (see [1] and [2]), have shown that under hydrostatic pressures, materials as metals, are practically incompressible (for not very high pressures) when undergoing yield even for very large plastic strain changes. The only volumetric change being elastic. /Bridgman won the **Nobel Prize in Physics** (1946) for his work on the physics of high pressure

Therefore, a metal is assumed to have incompressible plastic strains.

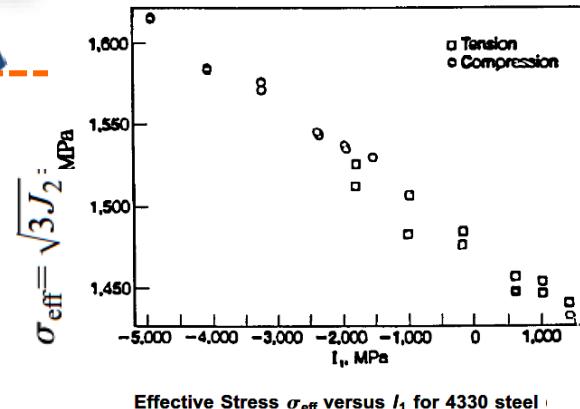
- no influence of hydrostatic pressure on yielding
- and incompressibility for plastic strain
- The only volumetric change being elastic

In addition, Bridgman found increase of hydrostatic pressure increased the ductility (much larger strains before fracture were obtained with increased hydrostatic pressure).

However, later work by Bridgman showed that There is a definite effect of hydrostatic pressure on the strain hardening curves of mild steel.

[3] Spitzig, W. A., Sober, R. J., and Richmond, O., 1976, “The Effect of Hydrostatic Pressure on the Deformation Behavior of Maraging and HY-80 Steels and Its Implications for Plasticity Theory,” *Metall. Trans. A*, **7A**, Nov., pp. 1703–1710.

Effects of hydrostatic pressure up to ~1 GPa on the yield strength of four steels [3].



Effective Stress σ_{eff} versus I_1 for 4330 steel

$$I_1 = \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3$$

These two observations are the basis of the *classical theory of plasticity*

Influence of pressure on shear modulus:

Between 0 and 10 GPa, the shear modulus changed by about 2% for coiled steel and nickel (Bridgeman's experiments) / shear modulus G encodes the *influence of hydrostatic pressure on yielding* /

[1] Bridgman, P. W., 1952, *Studies in Large Plastic Flow and Fracture With Special Emphasis on the Effects of Hydrostatic Pressure*, McGraw-Hill, New York

[2] Bridgman, P. W., 1947, “The Effect of Hydrostatic Pressure on the Fracture of Brittle Substances,” *J. Appl. Phys.*, **18**, p. 246.

Effect of Hydrostatic Pressure

Good to know 2(3)

About “In Metals *volume change during plastic deformation* is normally negligible (*~incompressible*)”

- Experiments by Bridgman *et al.* have shown that under hydrostatic pressures, materials as metals, are practically incompressible (for not very high pressures) when undergoing yield even for very large plastic strain changes.
- The only volumetric change being elastic.

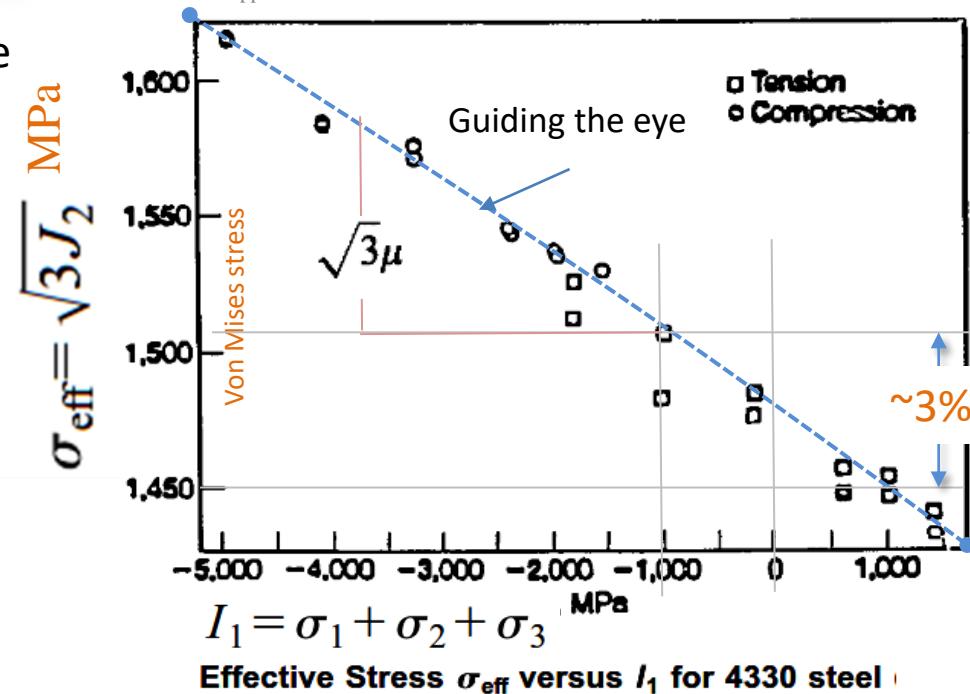
Therefore, a metal is assumed to have incompressible plastic strains

- no influence of hydrostatic pressure on yielding*
- and *incompressibility for plastic strain*
- The only volumetric change being elastic

$$\sqrt{J_2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} s_{ij} s_{ij}} \equiv \tau_e$$

Effects of hydrostatic pressure up to 1,100 MPa on the yield strength of four steels [3].

[3] Spitzig, W. A., Sober, R. J., and Richmond, O., 1976, “The Effect of Hydrostatic Pressure on the Deformation Behavior of Maraging and HY-80 Steels and Its Implications for Plasticity Theory,” *Metall. Trans. A*, **7A**, Nov., pp. 1703–1710.



May be can improve Von

Mises yield criteria this way:

Engineering Fracture Mechanics Vol. 44, No. 5, PP. 649-661, 1993

A pressure sensitive parameter

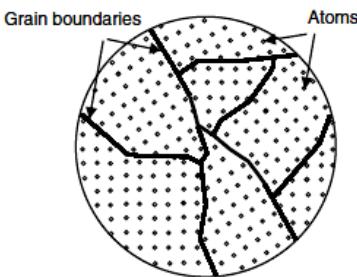
Influence of pressure on shear modulus:

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Effect of Hydrostatic Pressure

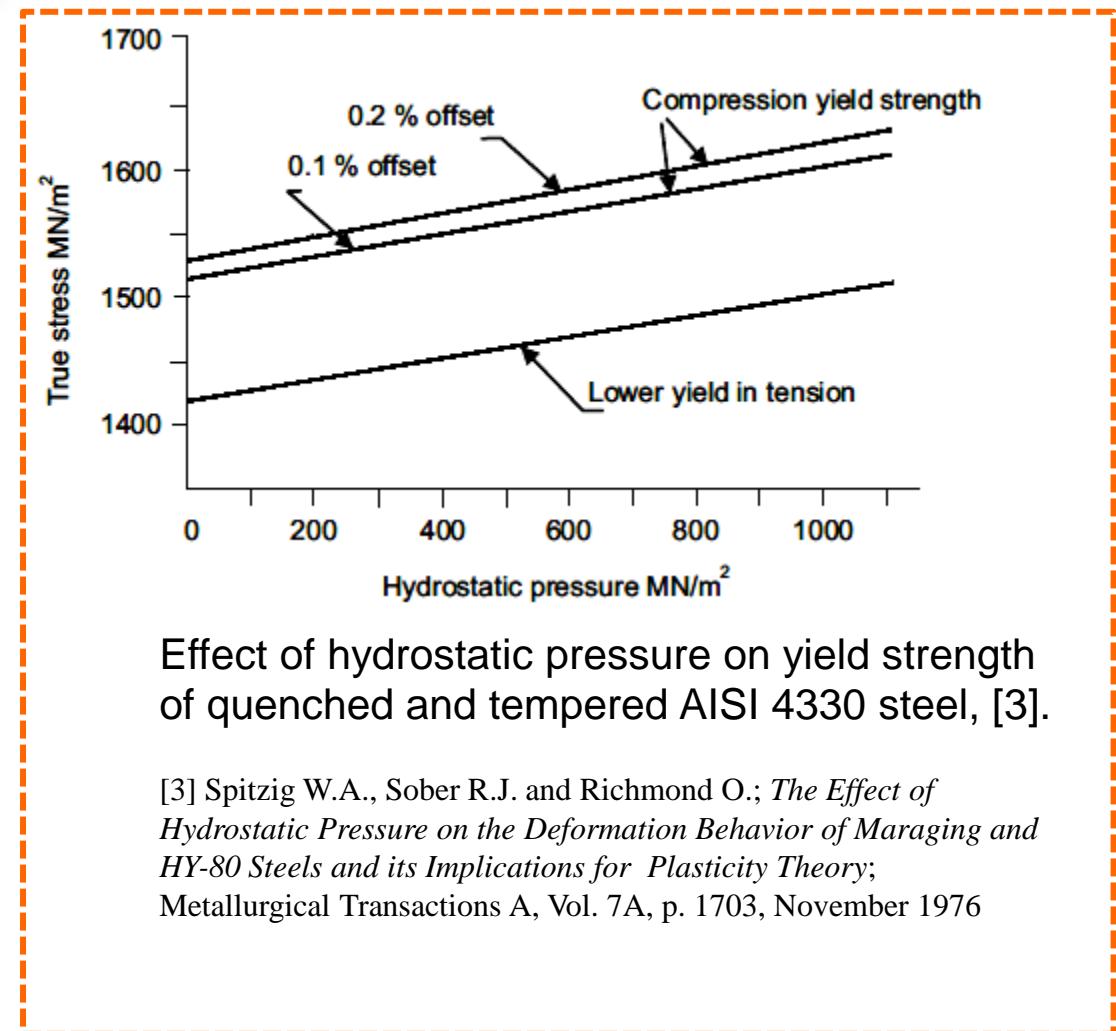
Good to know 3(3)

- Hydrostatic pressure may affect the properties of metals [3]



Grain structure

- Even brittle materials may be plastically deformed under suitable hydrostatic pressures



Effect of hydrostatic pressure on yield strength of quenched and tempered AISI 4330 steel, [3].

[3] Spitzig W.A., Sober R.J. and Richmond O.; *The Effect of Hydrostatic Pressure on the Deformation Behavior of Maraging and HY-80 Steels and its Implications for Plasticity Theory*; Metallurgical Transactions A, Vol. 7A, p. 1703, November 1976

NB. In soils, during **plastic deformation**, both **deviatoric** (shear) **plastic increment** and **volumetric plastic increments** occurs (plastic volume changes or dilatancy during plastic shearing).

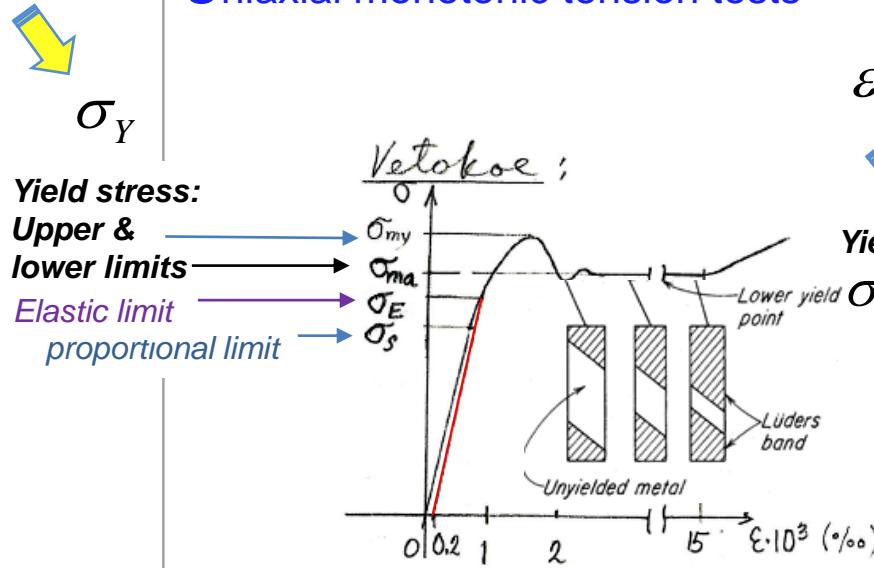
Characteristic Plastic Behavior in simple tension & compression

Some basic plasticity properties – uniaxial test

in the macro-mechanical meaning

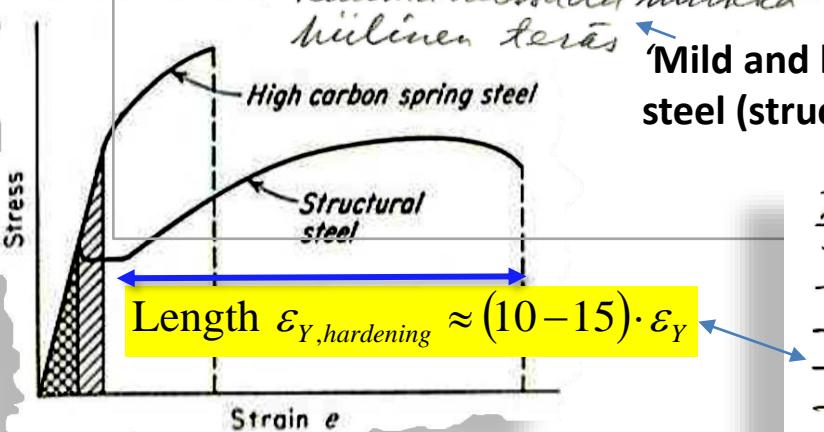
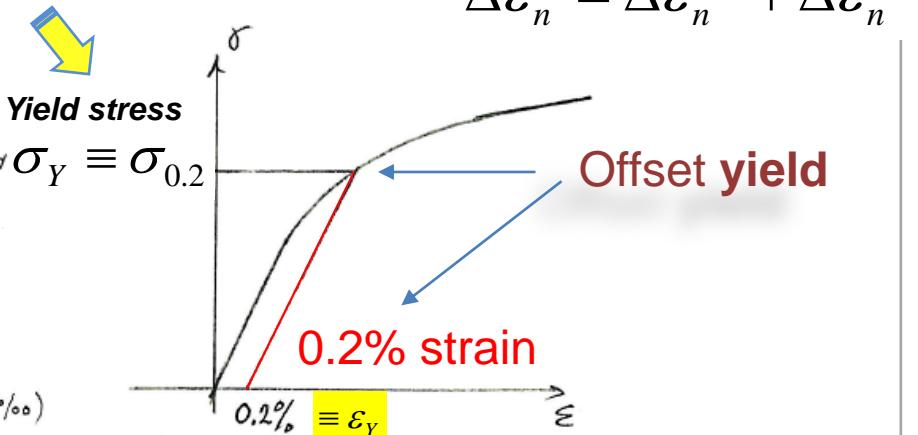
Engineering stress-strain curves:

Uniaxial monotonic tension tests



$$\varepsilon_{n+1} = \varepsilon_n + \Delta\varepsilon_n$$

$$\Delta\varepsilon_n = \Delta\varepsilon_n^{(e)} + \Delta\varepsilon_n^{(p)}$$



'Mild and low-carbon' steel (structural steel)

Ref: Manuscripts & drawing in this slide: Emeritus prof. M. Mikkola

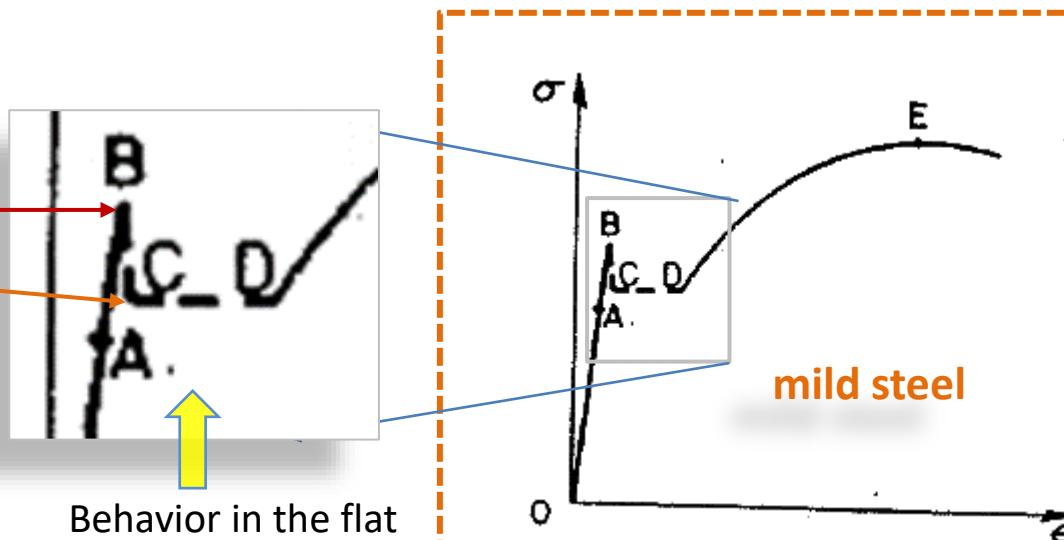
- Teräksen ominaisuuksia (Kuumavalss, mukkabilin.)
- Kuumokerroin $E \approx 2,1 \cdot 10^6 \text{ kp/cm}^2 (206\,000 \text{ MN/m}^2)$
 - myötöräja $\sigma_m \approx 2400 - 8000 \text{ kp/cm}^2$ (jopa ylikin) $(235 - 785 \text{ MN/m}^2)$
 - myötövenyys $\epsilon_m \approx 1 - 4 \%$
 - lujenemusalue $\epsilon_{ml} \approx (10 - 15) \cdot \epsilon_m$
 - murtovenyys $\delta \approx 250 \epsilon_m$

Monotonic loading

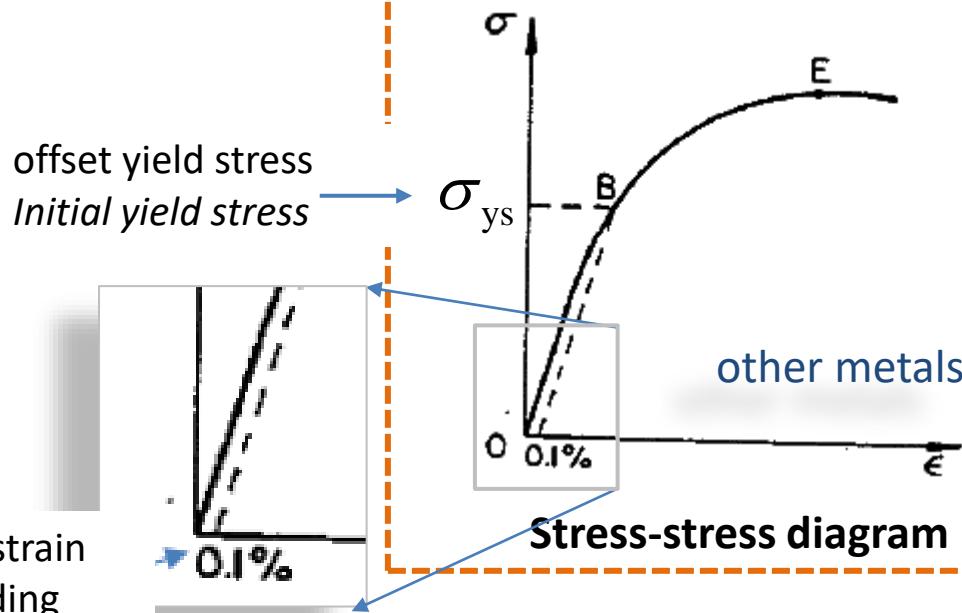
Upper yield stress

Lower yield stress

- For mild steel a well defined **flat plastic region** exists; so the **yield stress (yield point)** is well defined.
- For **most of metals**, such plastic plateau is **not well discernible** (visible); so the **yield strength** is **defined by an offset of yield stress** corresponding usually to a certain amount of **plastic strain** – 0.1%, 0.2% or what ever is relevant for the application.
- This apparent yield point is called *initial yield stress*.
- Above the yield point the behavior of the material is both elastic and plastic; elasto-plastic



Stress-stress diagram



other metals

Stress-stress diagram

Permanent strain
upon unloading

Loading and unloading

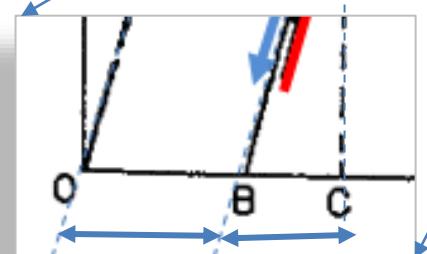
Loading history: assume the test specimen is loaded monotonically to some specific value beyond the initial yield point and then completely unloaded

- Loading history dependence (or Load path dependence)

- In plasticity, because of path dependency of the behavior, the constitutive law for strain plastic is known only for strain increments

$$d\varepsilon = d\varepsilon_e + d\varepsilon_p$$

$$\Delta\varepsilon = \Delta\varepsilon_e + \Delta\varepsilon_p$$



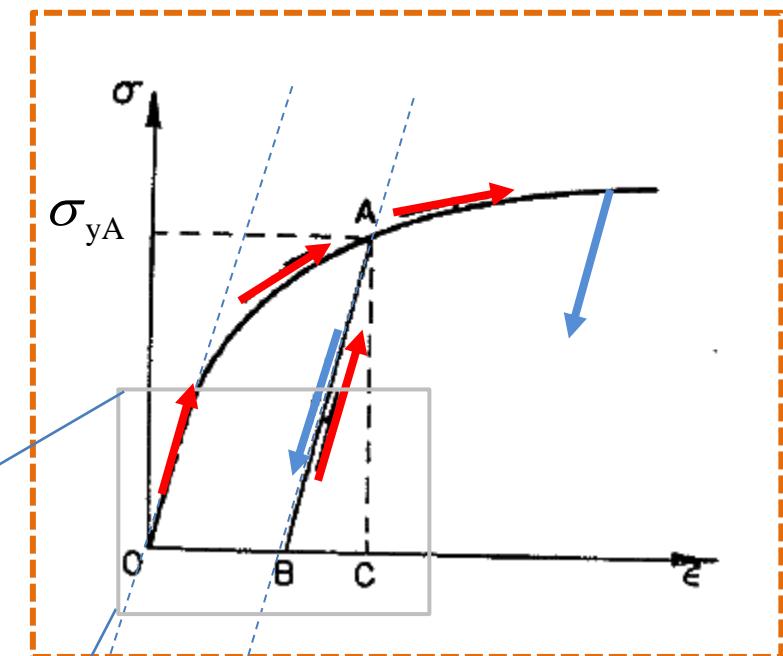
Permanent strain OB

$$\varepsilon_p$$

Elastic strain BC

$$\varepsilon_e$$

$$\Delta\varepsilon = \Delta\varepsilon_e + \Delta\varepsilon_p$$



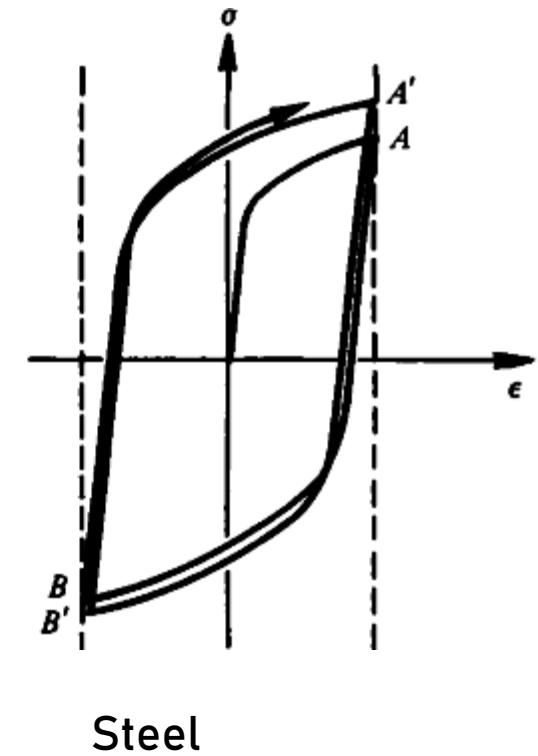
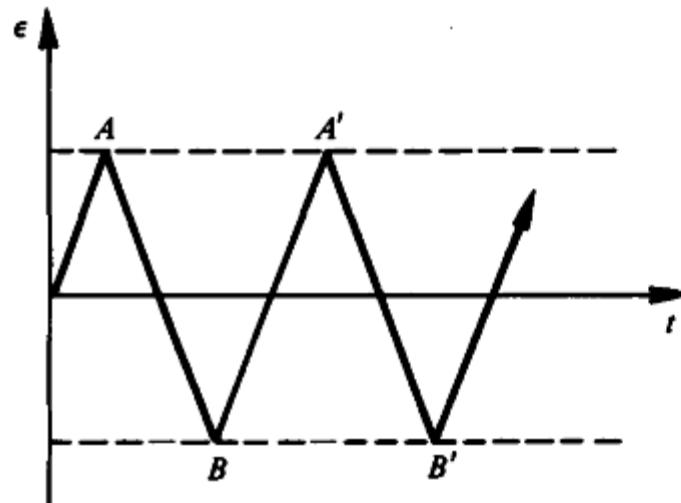
Parallels ; the unloading occurs elastically

σ_{yA} - subsequent yield stress

For many materials (metals), after reaching the initial yield point, the **stress-strain curve continues to rise** although with decreasing slope → This behavior is called **strain- or work hardening**

Cyclic loading

Cyclic test under
prescribed strain
history

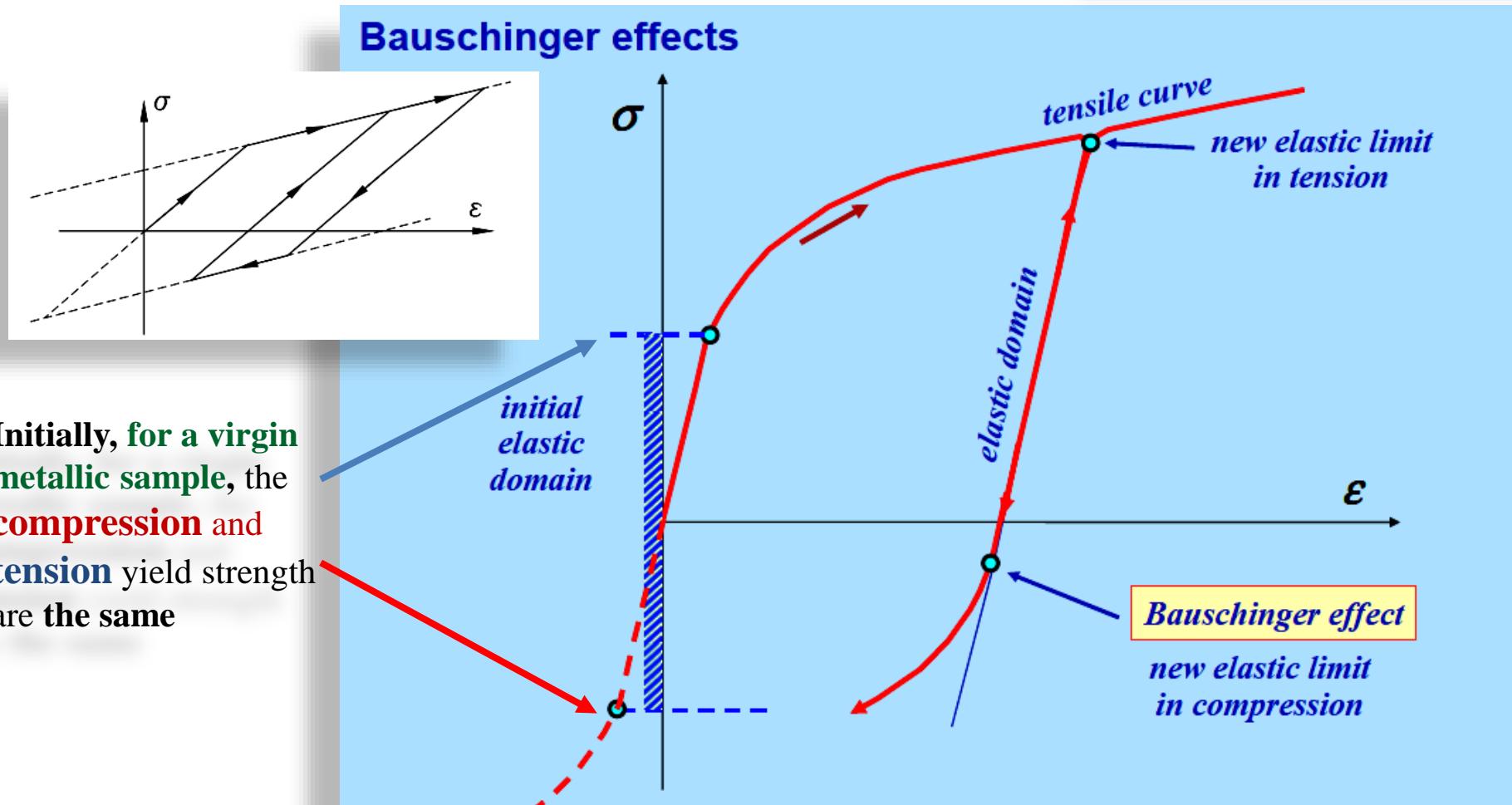


ref: Chaboche *et al.*

Reversed loading

The yield stress in **compression** is **not the same** as the yield strength in **tension** after reloading the specimen (cyclic loading)

Such **Bauschinger** effect is present whenever there is a reversal loading (cyclic)



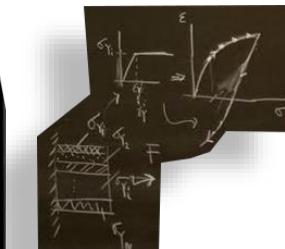
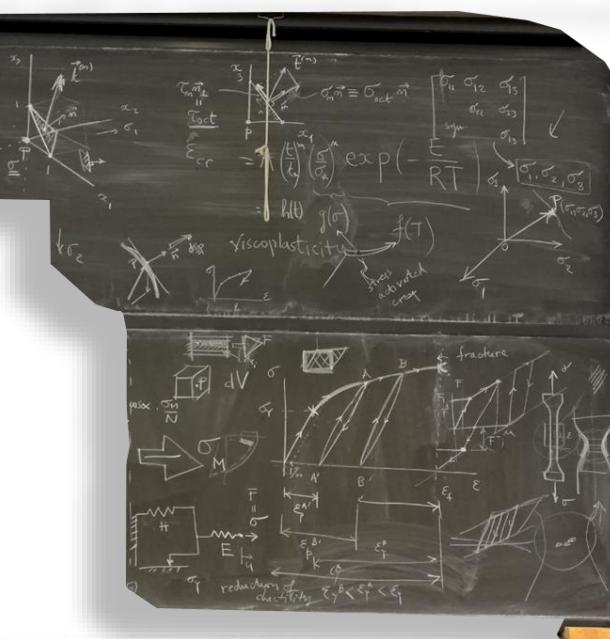
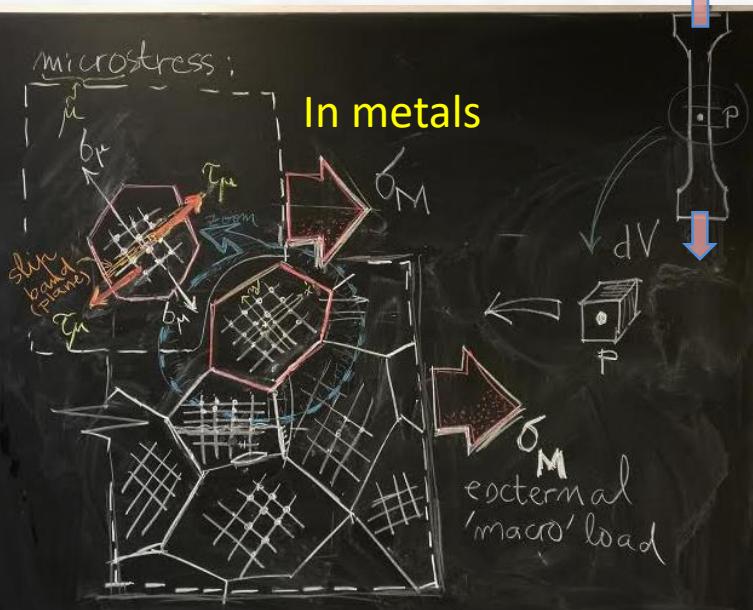
Ref: This figure is based on Chaboche slide from:

ATHENS – Course MP06 – 16 – 20 March 2009

- Load path dependence

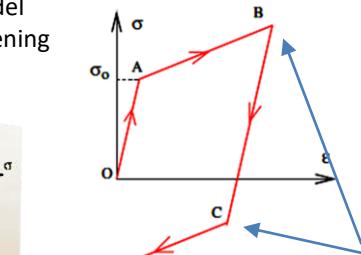
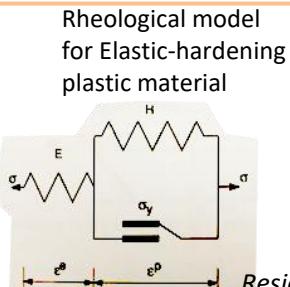
During the lecture held on 26.4.2017 on plasticity we discussed a lot about the subject below with interested students present.

I reproduce some of the trace of such discussion with no commenting & no sound track.



Stainless-steel at 315 °C.
Diagonal lines are slip bands, i.e., regions with high degree of plastic slip (ref. Shanley, Strength of materials, 1957)

- Bauschinger effect** is partly explained by the presence **residual stresses** (in grains and grain boundaries) during reverse loading
- Strain-hardening** results from the **sequential activation of more and more different slip planes in different grains** as the load increases
- Ductility** (the value of maximum strain prior fracture) is reduced during **loading-unloading cycles**



Slip bands in nickel based Waspaly.

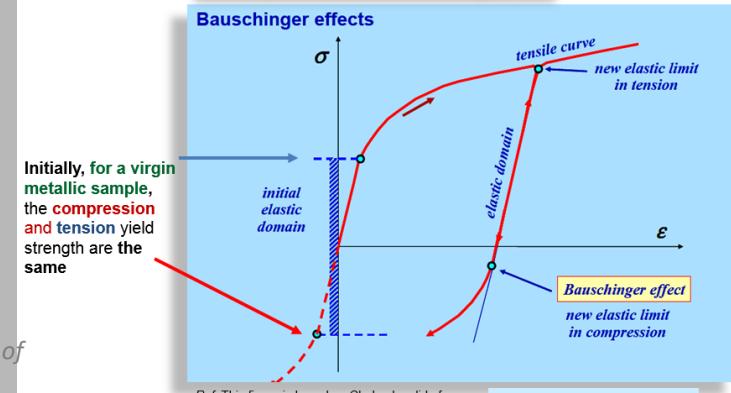
Ref. Lemaitre & Chaboche, Mechanics of Solid materials, Cambridge Press University, 1990.

Residual stress in the spring H in reverse loading explains this difference

Reversed loading

The yield stress in compression is not the same as the yield strength in tension after reloading the specimen (cyclic loading)

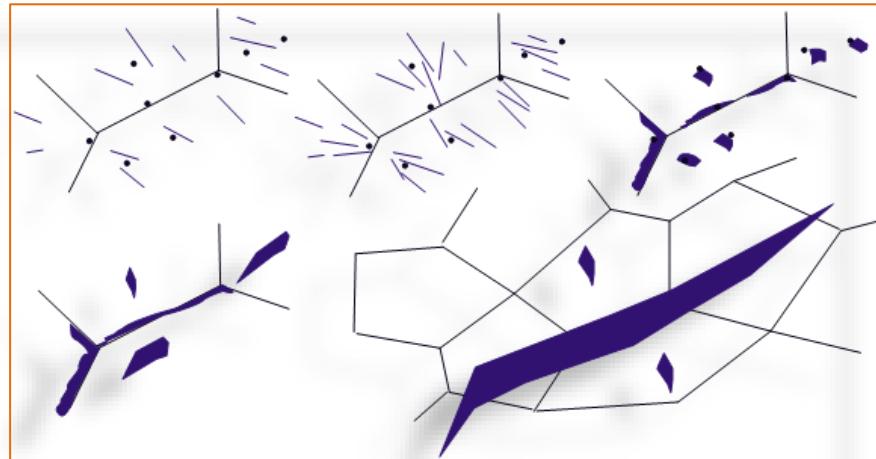
Such Bauschinger effect is present whenever there is a reversal loading (cyclic)



Ref. This figure is based on Chaboche slide from: ATHENS – Course MP06 – 16 – 20 March 2009

- Load path dependence

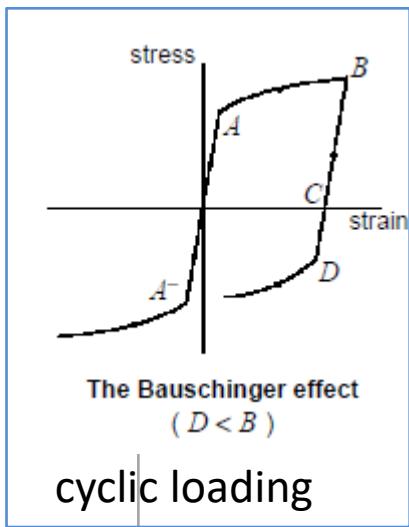
Voids growing and merging - coalescence
in ductile material lead to failure



http://www.ltas-cm3.ulg.ac.be/FractureMechanics/overview_P3.html

Examples of some basic plasticity properties – uniaxial test

in the macro-mechanical meaning

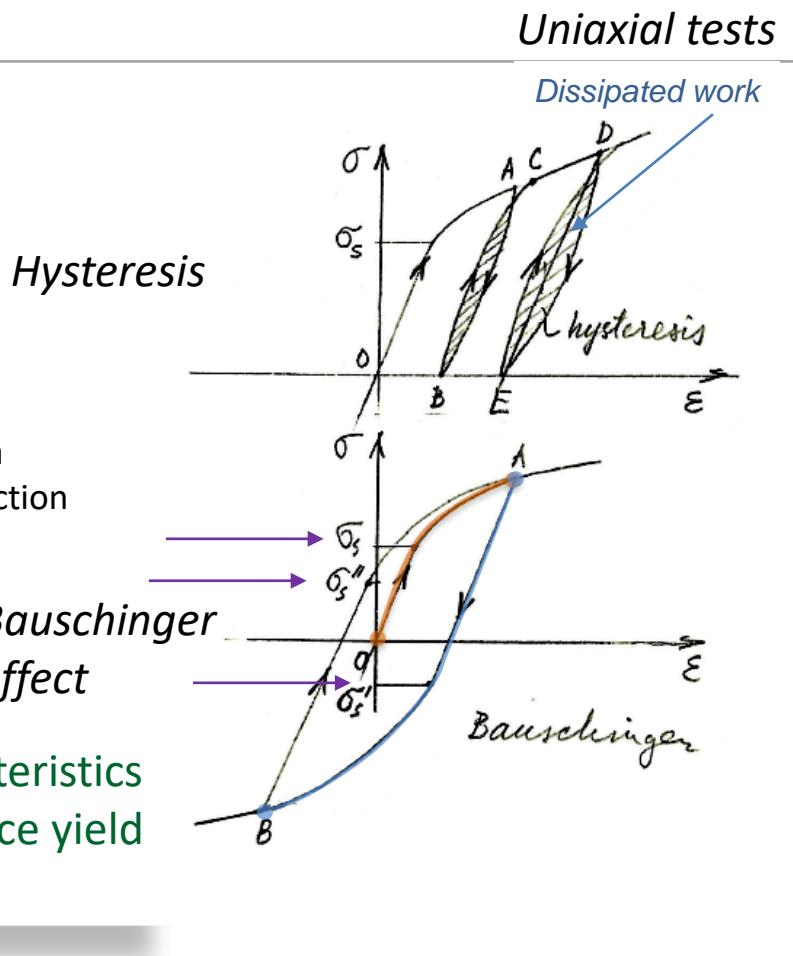


cyclic loading

For example, yield strength of a metal decreases when the direction of strain is changed

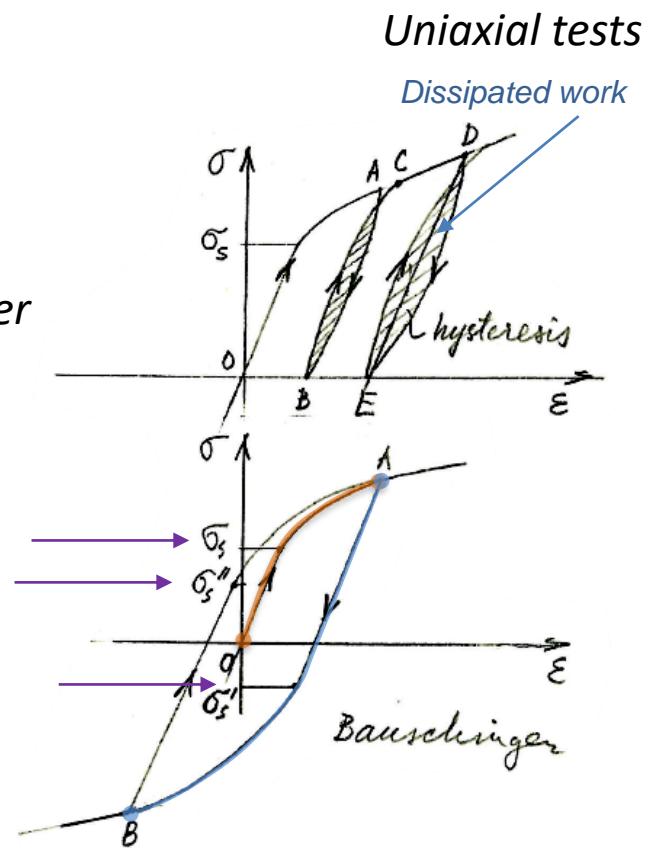
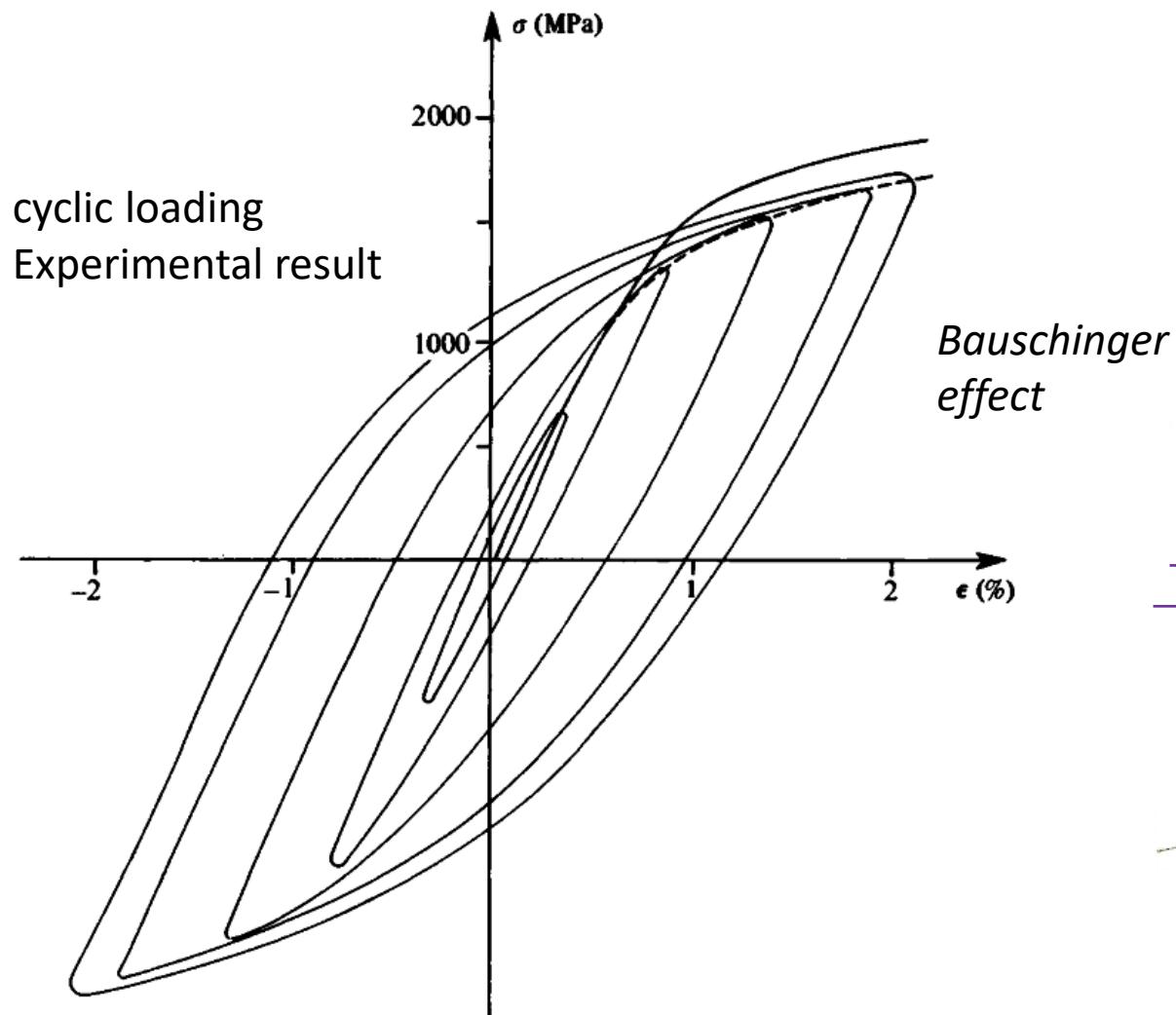
Effect: material's stress/strain characteristics *change in cyclic loading* as for instance yield stress (strength) or elasticity limit, ...

Bauschinger effect



In soils permanent shearing deformation occurs when constituting particles slide over one another

Examples of some basic plasticity properties – uniaxial test cyclic loading



Cyclic hardening curve: 30 NCD 16 nickel–chromium steel (after Lieurade).

The Bauschinger Effect

Muokkaus, kylmämuovaus

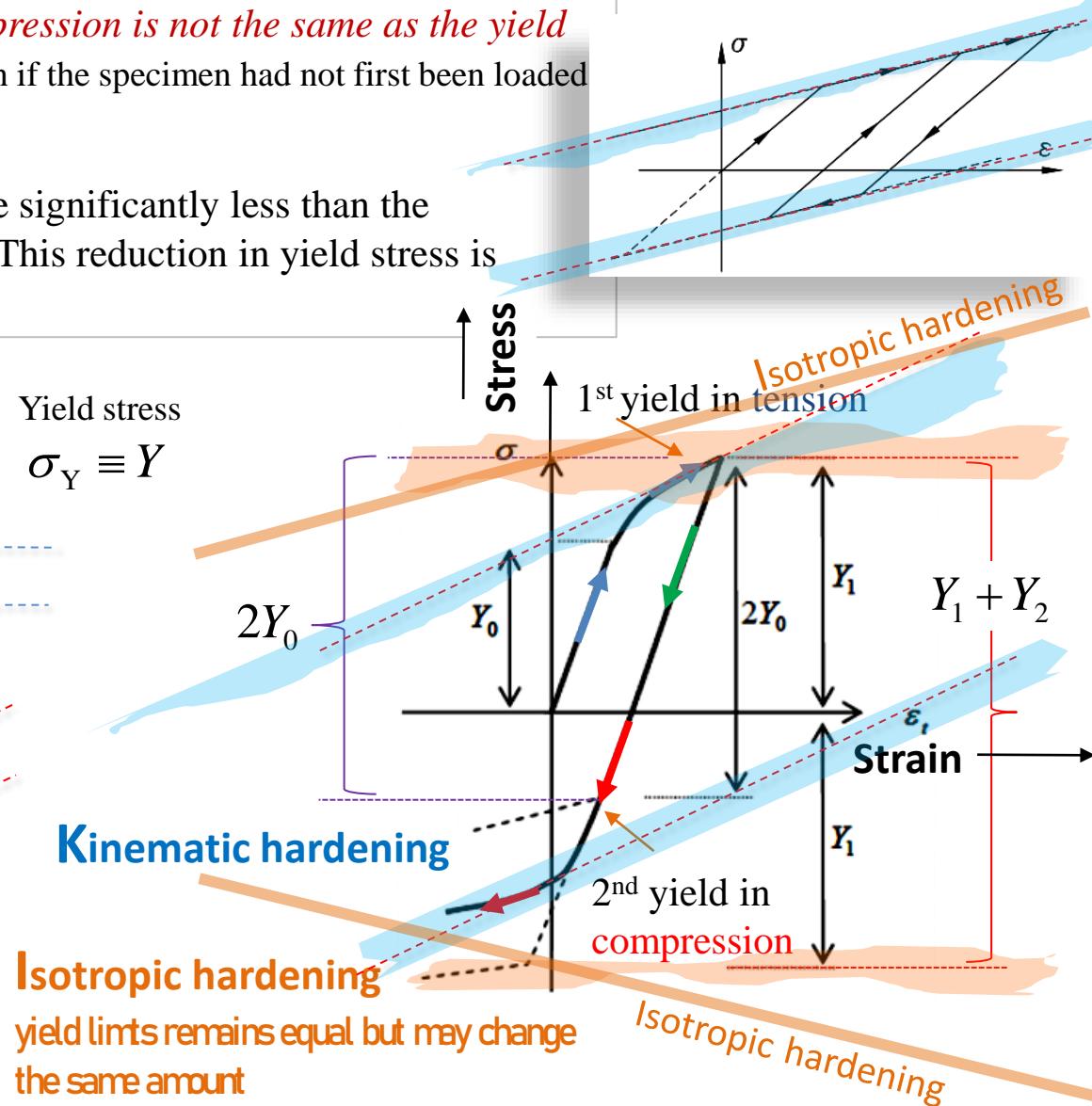
Test: Load a virgin sample first in tension into the plastic range, and then unload it and continue to load it into compression beyond yield.

Observation: the *yield stress in compression is not the same as the yield strength in tension*, as it would have been if the specimen had not first been loaded in tension.

The yield point in compression will be significantly less than the corresponding yield stress in tension. This reduction in yield stress is known as the **Bauschinger effect**.

Two extreme cases used in plasticity models:

- **Isotropic hardening** (lujittuminen) model, in which the **yield stress in tension and compression are maintained equal**
- **Kinematic hardening**, in which the **total elastic range is maintained constant** throughout the deformation



Idealization of elasto-plastic behaviour, some examples of 1D-models & terminology

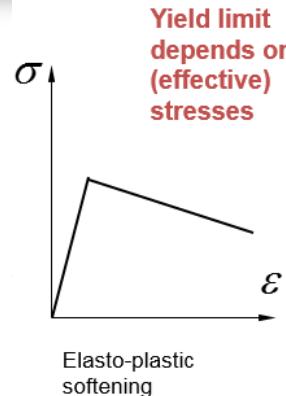
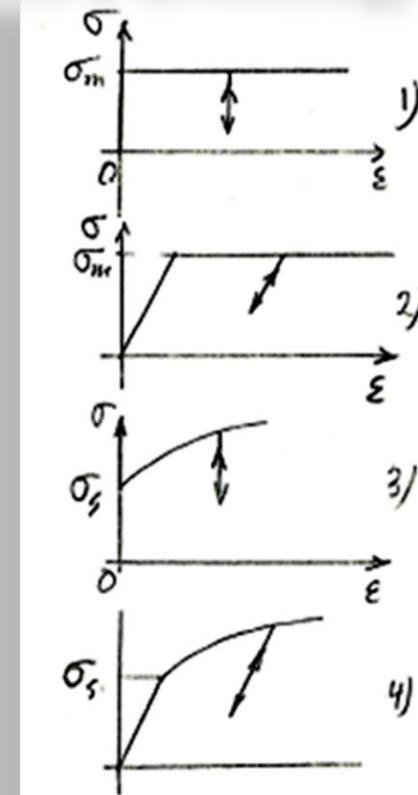
Rigid Perfectly Plastic
Jäykkä ideaaliplastinen

Elasto-plastic perfect plasticity
Kimmoinen ideaaliplastinen

Rigid perfectly plastic with
hardening
Jäykkä myötälujeneva

Elasto-plastic hardening
Kimmoinen myötälujeneva

Elasto-plastic softening
Kimmo-plastinen myötä-
pehmenevä
Maa, soils,...



For example,
1D-curve of *work-hardening*
solids (without a sharply
defined yield stress) can be
approximated by:
Ramberg–Osgood formula

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} + \alpha \frac{\sigma_R}{E} \left(\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_R} \right)^m,$$

↑
reference stress
↑
dimensionless constants

To accommodate an elastic range
with an initial **yield** → modified
to:

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} E\varepsilon, & \varepsilon \leq \frac{\sigma_E}{E}, \\ \sigma_E \left(\frac{E\varepsilon}{\sigma_E} \right)^n, & \varepsilon \geq \frac{\sigma_E}{E}. \end{cases}$$

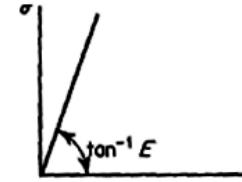
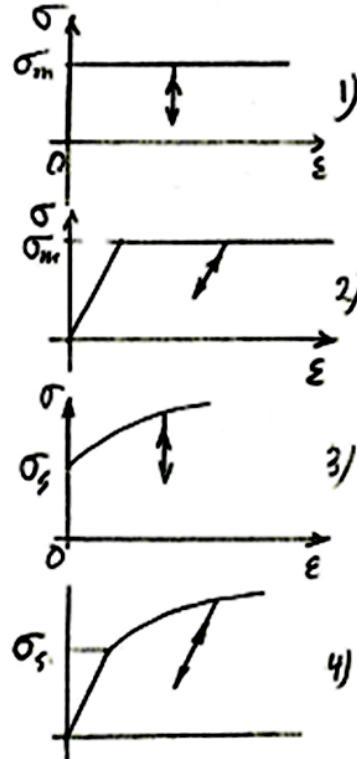
Examples of rheological models for plasticity

Rigid Perfectly Plastic
Jäykkiä ideaaliplastinen

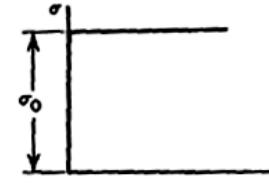
Elasto-plastic perfect plasticity
Kimmoinen ideaaliplastinen

Rigid perfectly plastic with
hardening
Jäykkiä myötälujeneva

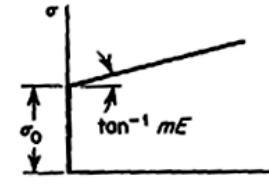
Elasto-plastic hardening
Kimmoinen myötälujeneva



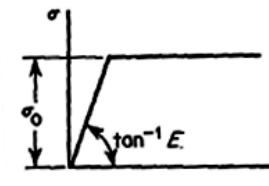
(a)



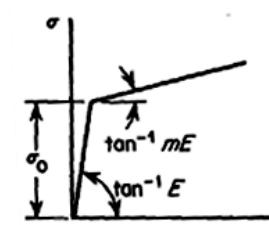
(b)



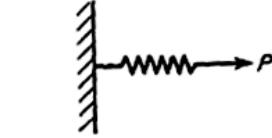
(c)



(d)



(e)



Idealized stress-strain curves: (a) perfectly elastic, brittle; (b) rigid, perfectly plastic; (c) rigid, linear strain hardening; (d) elastic, perfectly plastic; (e) elastic, linear strain hardening.

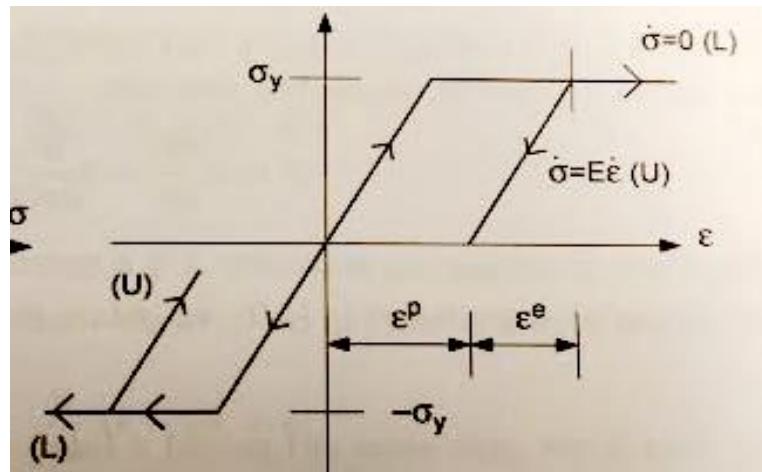
Examples of rheological models for two cases of plasticity

Good to know

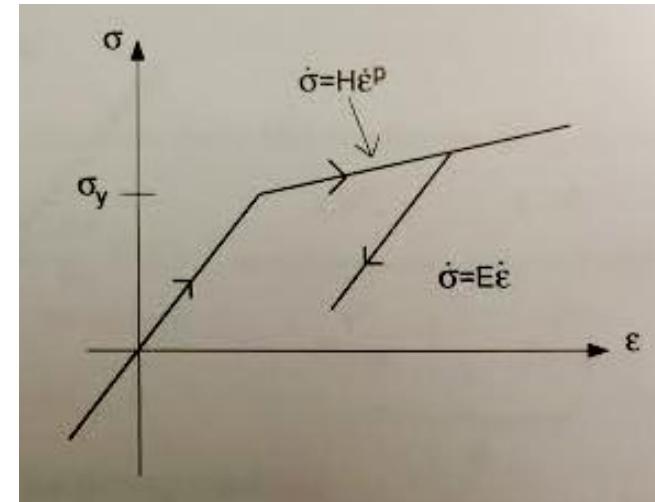
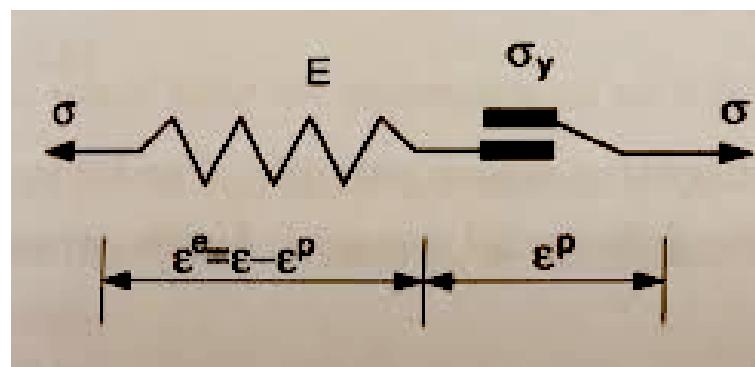
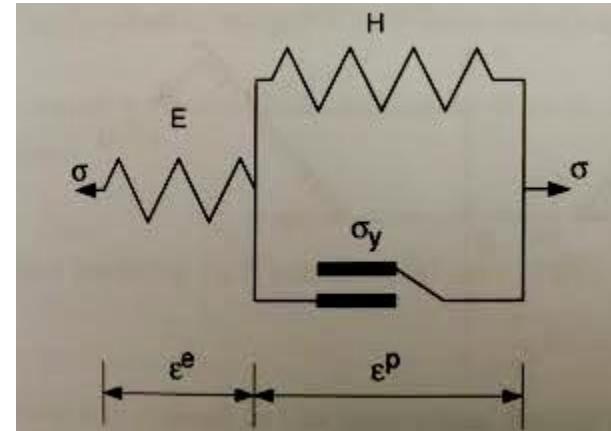
Free to do: Derive the constitutive laws and solve them then draw the strain-stress graphs for some cyclic loading history. You can integrate the ODE by hand or Matlab...

Construct one corresponding mechanical device (at least for the simplest case) and do the experiments by yourself. What do you observe? Feel the force. Is it conform to what is described by the models?

Rheological model form an Elastic-perfectly plastic material

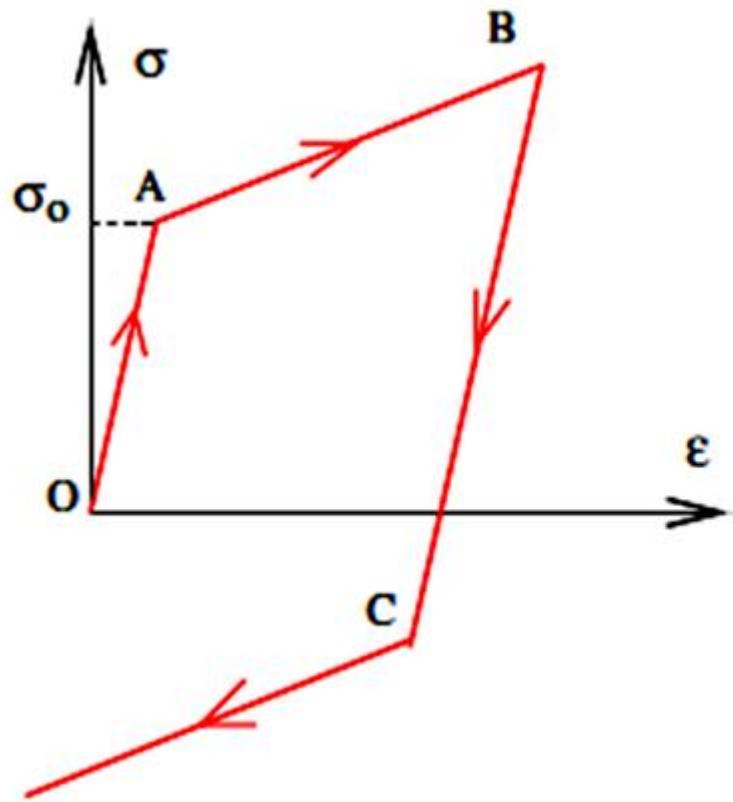


Rheological model form an Elastic-hardening plastic material

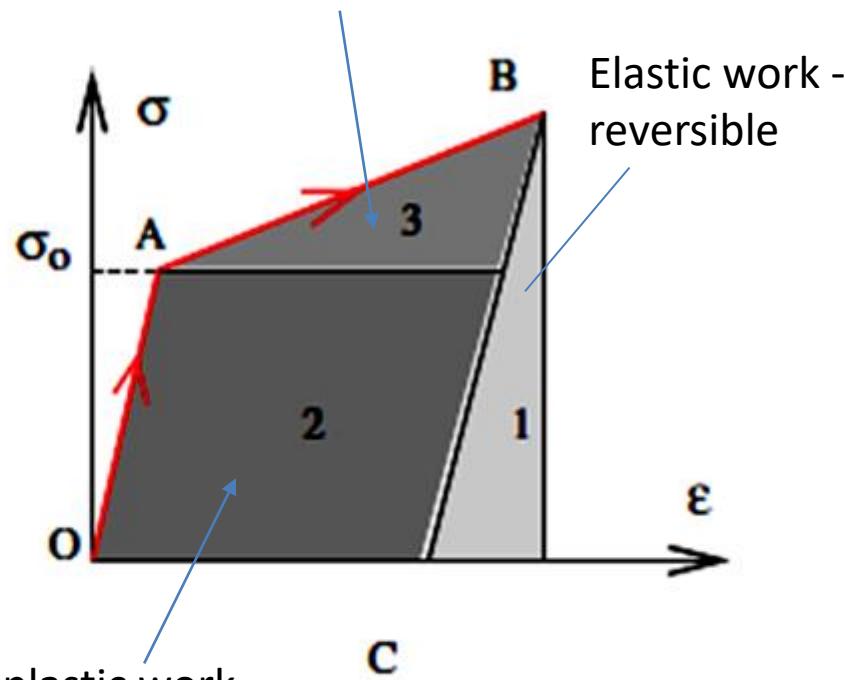


In this course, rate-independent plasticity is not treated through rheological models

Linear kinematic strain hardening – partition of work partition



Strain hardening plastic work - irreversible



2 := ideal plastic work - irreversible

2 + 3 = plastic work - irreversible

Modelling of uniaxial behavior in plasticity – simplified models

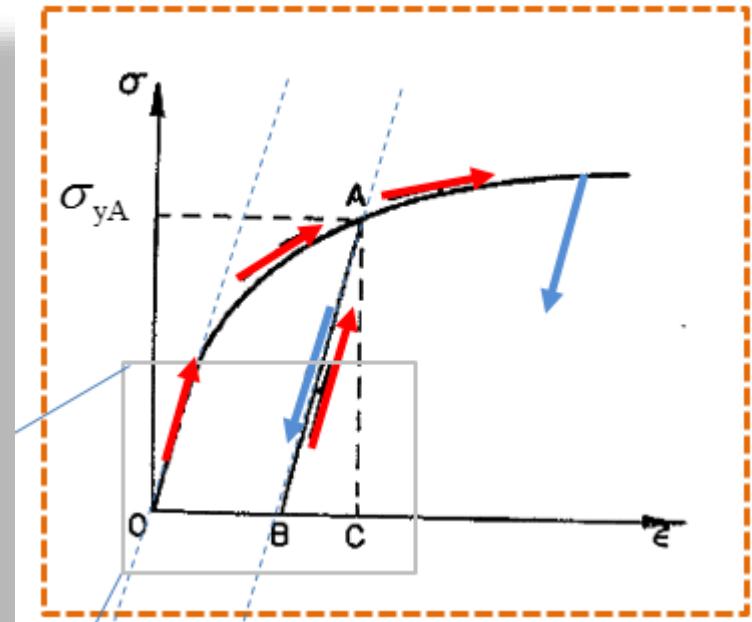
- Elastic-Perfectly Plastic Model
- Elastic-Linear Work-hardening model
- Elastic-Exponential Hardening model
- Ramberg-Osgood model

N.B.

In plasticity, because of path dependency of the material behavior, the constitutive law for the plastic strain is known only for *strain increments*

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_e + d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_p$$

Stress-strain relations are known only in their incremental or equivalently rate forms.



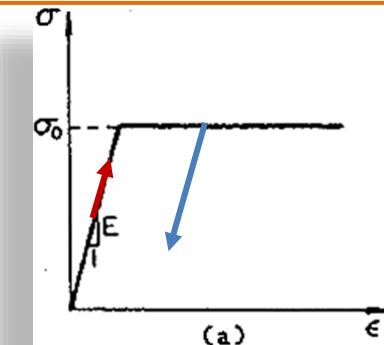
Elastic-Perfectly Plastic Model

$$\varepsilon = \begin{cases} \frac{\sigma}{E}, & \sigma < \sigma_0 \\ \frac{\sigma}{E} + \lambda, & \sigma = \sigma_0 \end{cases}$$

Total strain: $\varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p$

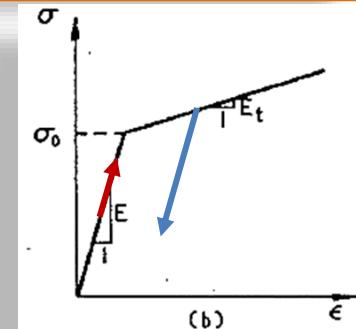
Strain increments:

$$d\varepsilon = d\varepsilon_e + d\varepsilon_p$$



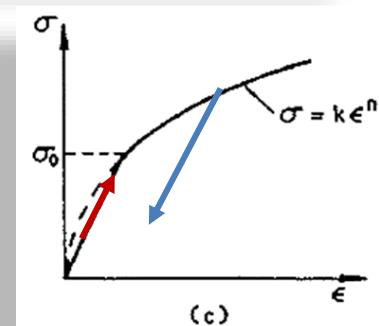
Elastic-Linear Work-hardening model

$$\varepsilon = \begin{cases} \frac{\sigma}{E}, & \sigma \leq \sigma_0 \\ \frac{\sigma_0}{E} + \frac{1}{E_t}(\sigma - \sigma_0), & \sigma > \sigma_0 \end{cases}$$



Elastic-Exponential Hardening model

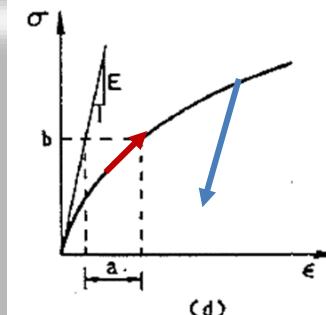
$$\sigma = \begin{cases} E\varepsilon, & \sigma \leq \sigma_0 \\ k\varepsilon^n, & \sigma > \sigma_0 \end{cases}$$



Ramberg-Osgood model

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} + a\left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^n \quad \text{or more esthetically written} \quad \varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} + K\left(\frac{\sigma}{E}\right)^n$$

$a, b, n, b, k, K, E_t, \lambda$ – describe the hardening behavior of the material.



Tangent- and plastic modulus

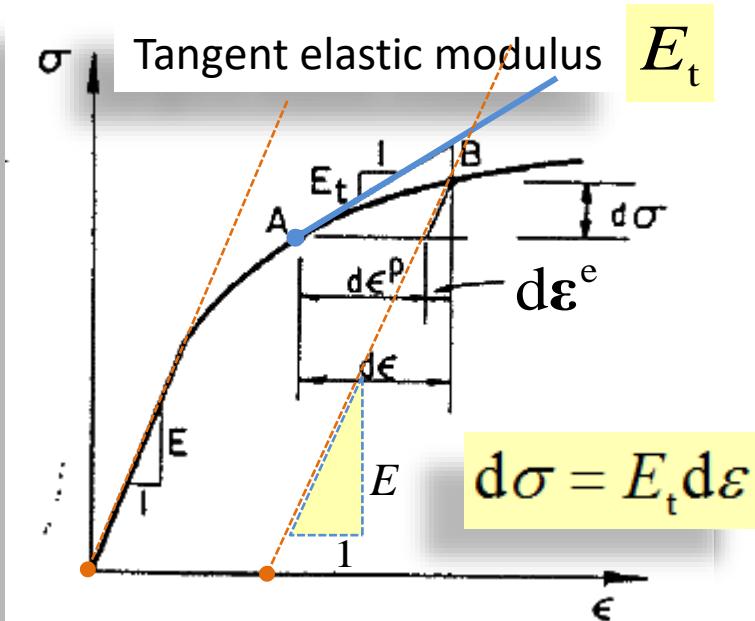
In plasticity the material shows *path or history dependency* behavior; thus the *strain-stress* response of the material is *non-linear* by nature (elastic-plastic behavior),



Stress-strain relations are known only in their **incremental** or equivalently **rate forms**.

$$d\epsilon = d\epsilon^e + d\epsilon^p$$

$$d\sigma = d\sigma^e + d\sigma^p$$



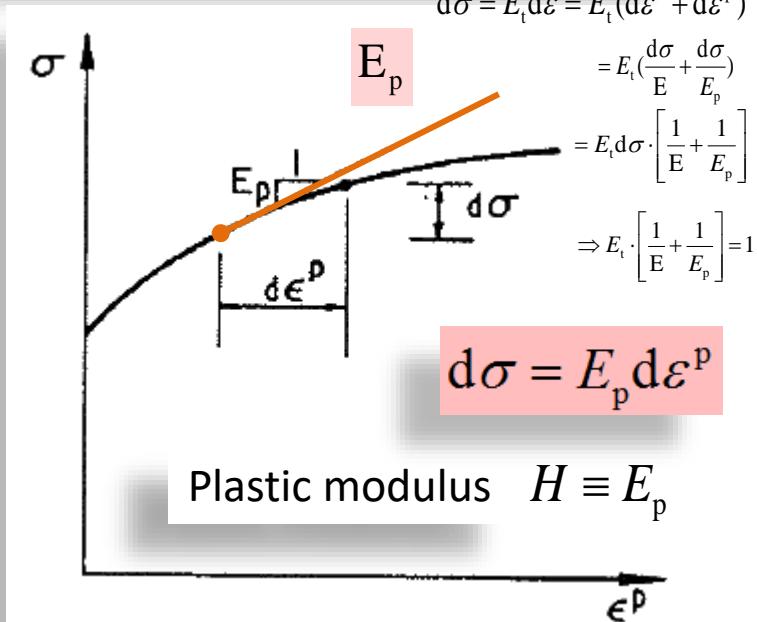
Tangent elastic modulus: E_t , $d\sigma = E_t d\epsilon$

Plastic modulus: E_p , $d\sigma = E_p d\epsilon^p$

The relation between the three moduli:

Show that it is true!

$$\frac{1}{E_t} = \frac{1}{E} + \frac{1}{E_p}$$



Elasto-Plastic constitutive matrix

3D-example

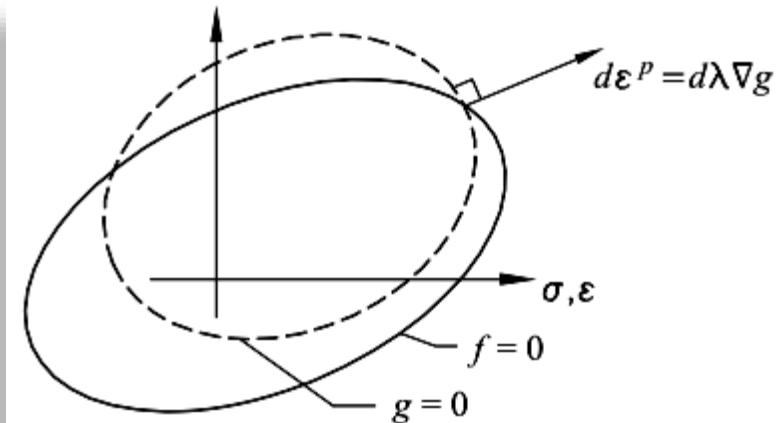
We will come back in details to these examples...

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^e + d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p$$

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p = d\lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} = d\lambda \nabla g$$

$$d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{D}^{ep} d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

the elasto-plastic constitutive matrix



The consistency condition leads to:

The elasto-plastic constitutive relation

No hardening:

$$d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \left(\mathbf{D} - \frac{\mathbf{D} \frac{\partial g}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} \right)^T \mathbf{D}}{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} \right)^T \mathbf{D} \frac{\partial g}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}}} \right) d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

the elastic constitutive matrix

$$\text{1-D: } d\sigma = E_t d\varepsilon$$

With hardening:

$$d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \left(\mathbf{D} - \frac{\mathbf{D} \frac{\partial g}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} \right)^T \mathbf{D}}{H + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} \right)^T \mathbf{D} \frac{\partial g}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}}} \right) d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

Hardening parameter

The elasto-plastic constitutive relation defines the stress increment uniquely once the total strain increment and the current state of stress is known

Hardening rules

The phenomena of hardening: Yield stress increases with further increase of plastic strains

Hardening and its various stages is modelled by introducing some *internal variable* as for instance a *hardening parameter* $\kappa > 0$

and assumes, for instance, that the plastic modulus changes as a function of the hardening parameter

$$E_p = E_p(\kappa)$$

Choice of the hardening parameter:

$$\kappa = W_p \quad \text{or} \quad \kappa = \varepsilon_p$$

plastic work

$$W_p = \int \sigma_{ij} d\varepsilon_{ij}^p \quad W_p > 0$$

accumulated effective or equivalent plastic strain

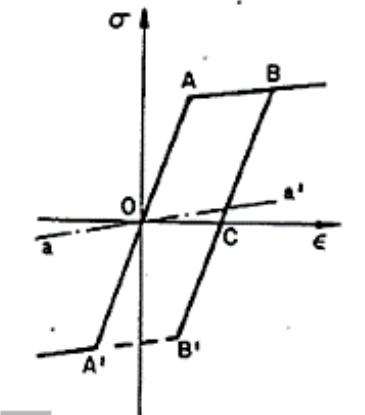
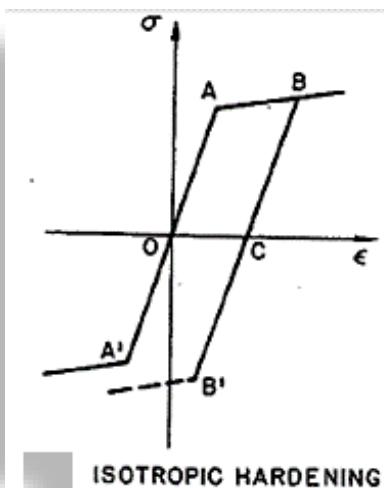
$$\varepsilon_p = \int \sqrt{d\varepsilon_{ij}^p d\varepsilon_{ij}^p} > 0$$

Effective plastic strain increment:

$$|d\varepsilon_p| = \sqrt{d\varepsilon_{ij}^p d\varepsilon_{ij}^p} \geq 0$$

Using such hardening parameter - the *lazy way* - is more practical than computing the plastic work

For a material, the functional relation $E_p = E_p(\kappa)$ can be determined from the uniaxial tensile stress-strain curve in terms of the above definition of the hardening parameter κ



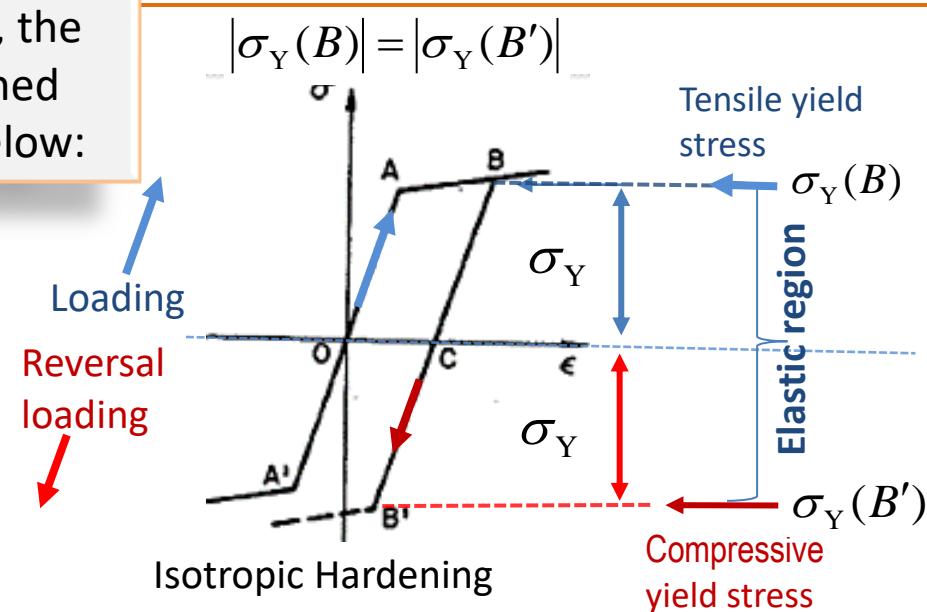
Hardening rules (models)

For a material under **reversal** or cyclic loading, the subsequent *yield stress* σ is usually determined usually by one of the three hardening rules below:

Isotropic Hardening rule:

- Assumes **equal yield stress** in **tension** and **compression**
 - thus the *Bauschinger* effect is *completely neglected*.

$$\text{Hardening rule: } |\sigma| = |\sigma(\kappa)|, \quad \kappa > 0$$



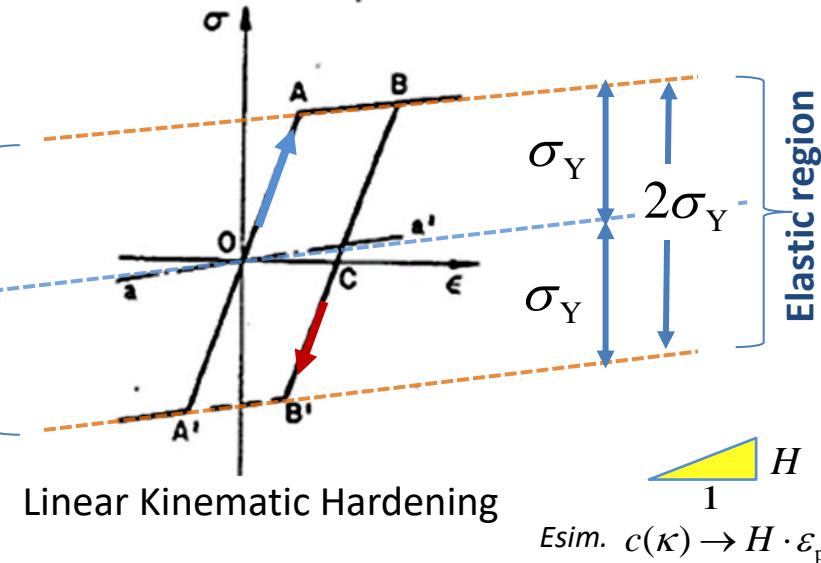
Kinematic Hardening rule:

- The **elastic range remains unchanged** during hardening
 - So the *Bauschinger* effect is *accounted* to its full extent.

Hardening rule:

$$|\sigma - c(\kappa)| = \sigma_0, \quad \text{shift of the yield stress, } \kappa > 0$$

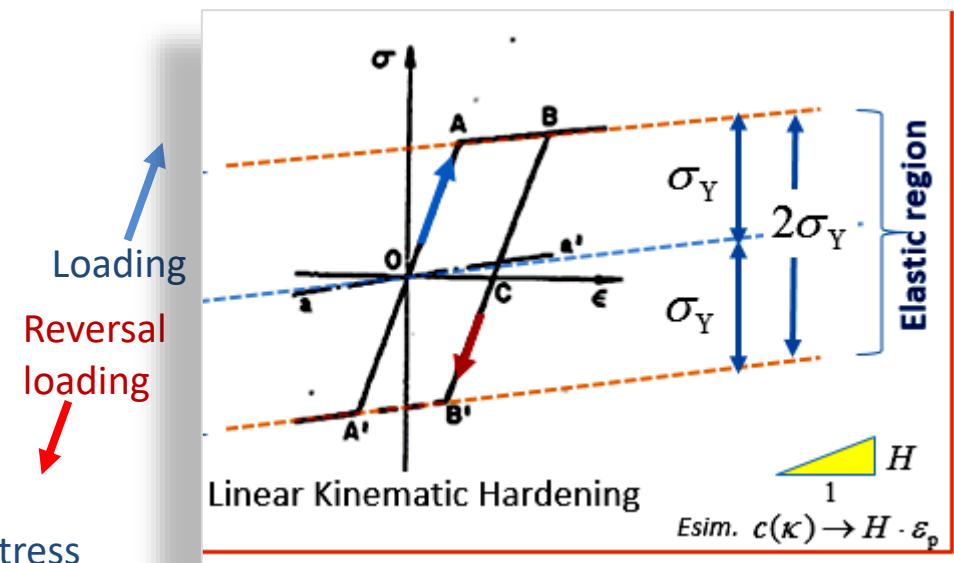
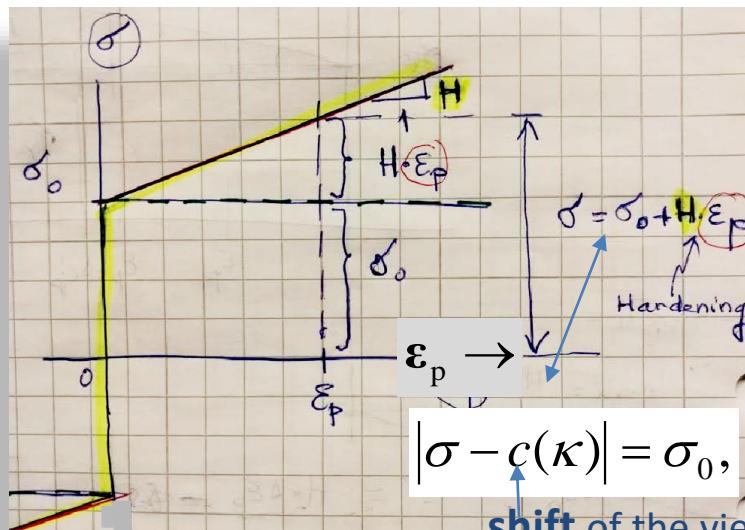
The center of the elastic region moves (shifted) along the straight line



$$\text{Esim. } c(\kappa) \rightarrow H \cdot \varepsilon_p$$

Hardening rules (models)

Kinematic Hardening rule:



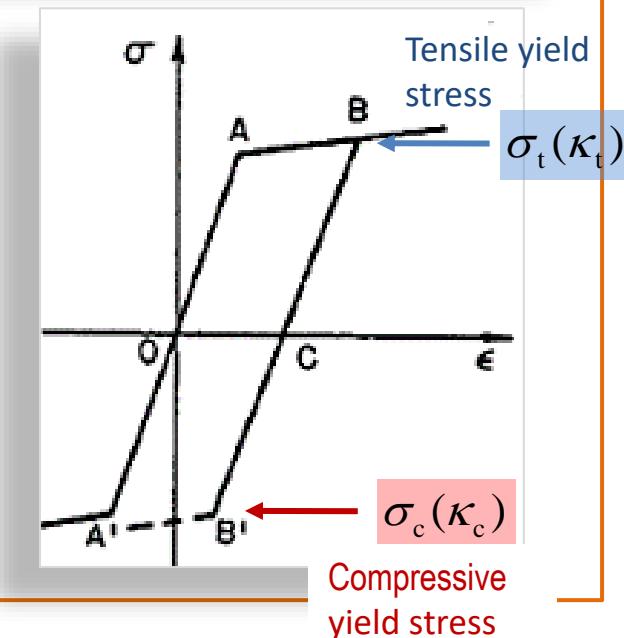
Independent Hardening rule:

- Assumes **yield stress** in **tension** and **compression** are **independent** (different)

Hardening rule:

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} \sigma_t(\kappa_t), & \sigma > 0 \\ \sigma_c(\kappa_c), & \sigma < 0 \end{cases}$$

$\kappa_t > 0$
tension
 $\kappa_c > 0$
compression

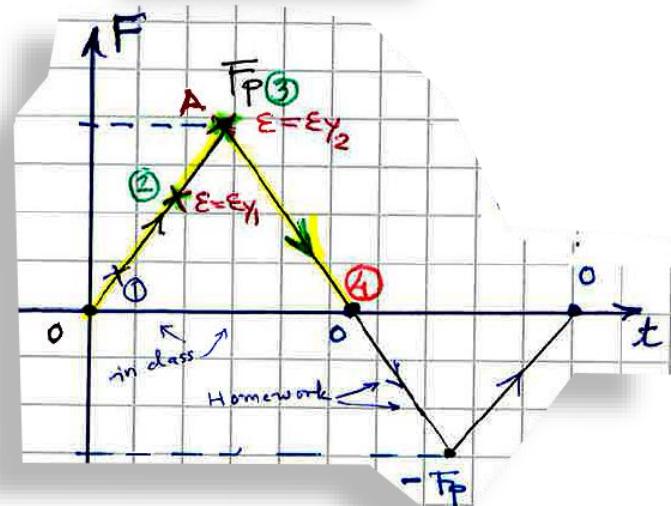


Elastic-plastic behaviour – Cyclic loading

Worked uniaxial example

This simple example demonstrates some fundamental aspects related to engineering plasticity as applied to structures such a *non-linear force-displacement relation*, *loading path (history) dependence*, *residual stresses and strains*, *residual displacements upon complete unloading, reloading, ... etc.*

loading history



Example

Elastic-plastic behaviour – an example of uniaxial behaviour

Example

Loading history dependency, residual stresses and residual displacement upon complete unloading and Bauschinger effect (as an exercise to be continued by the student)

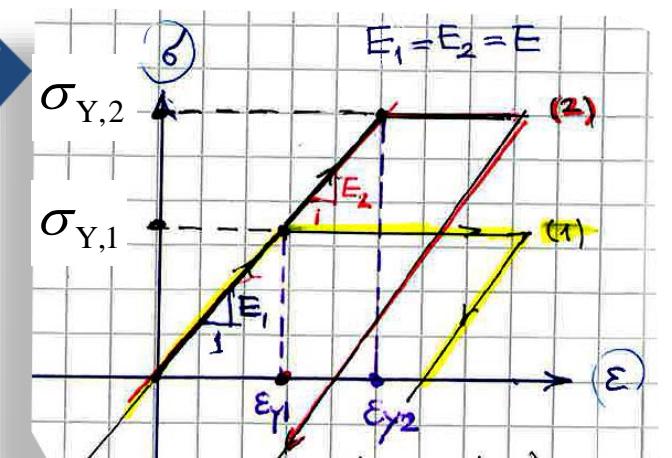
Introduction: It is well known that the mechanical behaviour of a polycrystal metallic material, as metals, can be analogous to a truss structure composed of many bares having elastic-plastic individual material behaviour.

Consider a single such bare of length ℓ which is composed of two different metallic materials which are perfectly bond to each other. Both materials isotropic and are made of elastic-perfectly plastic materials. The cross-section of the bares are and $A_1 = A_2 = A$ modulus is $E_1 = E_2 = E$.

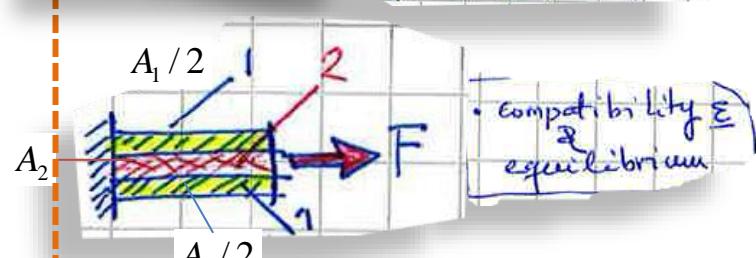
Both materials behave separately symmetrically in compression and in tension.

The composite bare is loaded according to the history shown on the figure (bottom). The applied load increases from $F = 0$ to the plastic limit load $F = F_p$ and then decreases to zero (loading path 0-1-2-3-4-5).

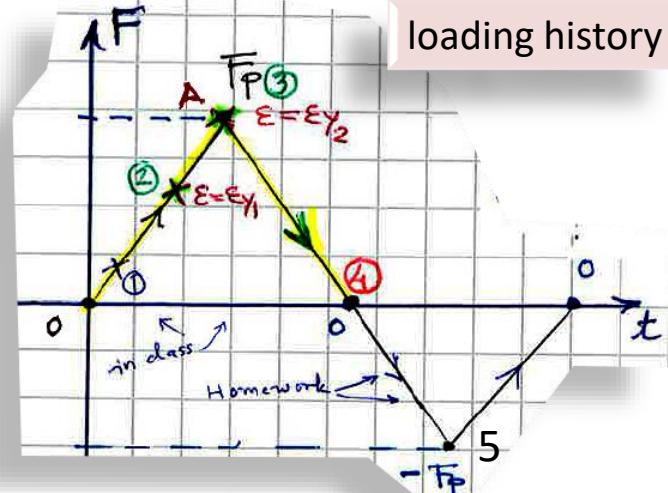
- Determine the corresponding force-displacement curve
- Upon complete unloading, find the residual stresses and strains and residual displacement.
- Finish the force-displacement curve for the compression till point 5.



Material model



loading history

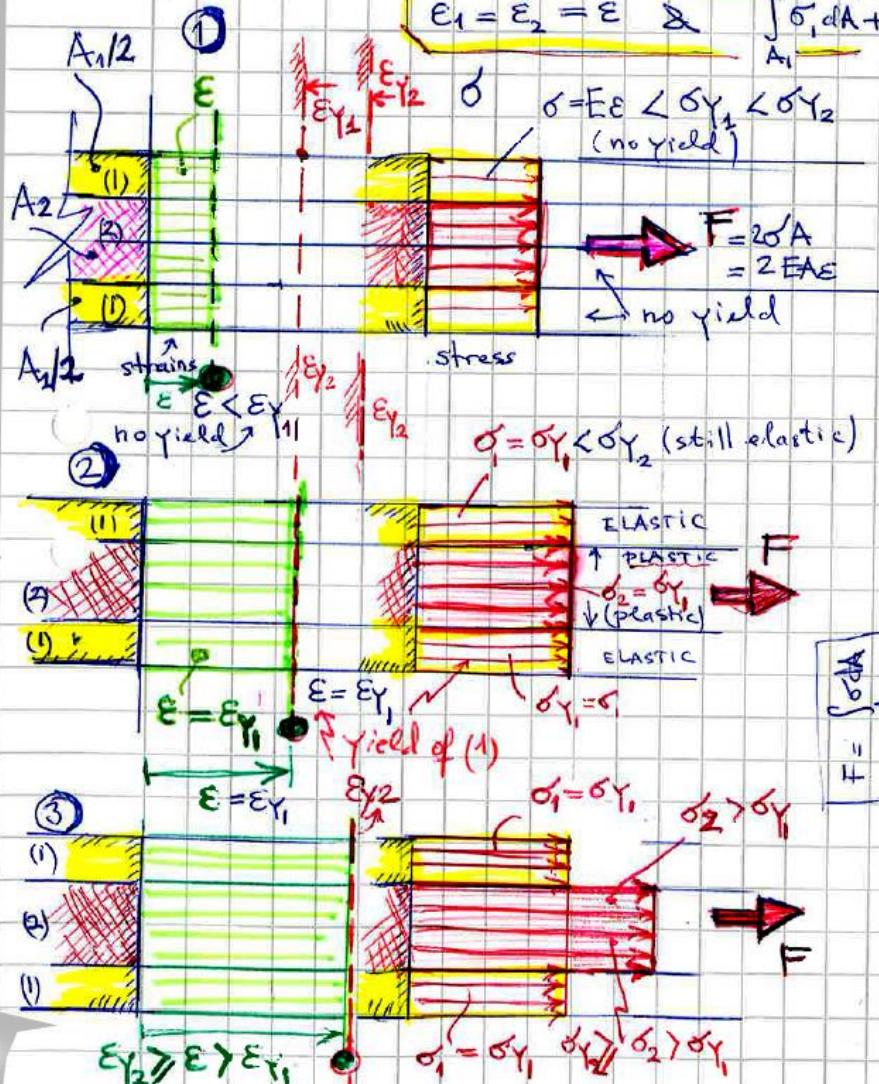


Solution 1(5)

Example

I) Loading from $F=0$ to F_p monotonically

(Hint: think that the force F is imposed by a displacement control: increasing tip displacement monotonically until the limit plastic (resistance) load F_p is reached)



$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_1 &= E_1 \epsilon_1 = E \epsilon (\sigma_{Y_1}) \\ \sigma_2 &= E_2 \epsilon_2 = E \epsilon < \sigma_{Y_2} \end{aligned}$$

$$F = \sigma_1 A_1 + \sigma_2 A_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} F &= EA + EA \\ &= 2EA \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \epsilon \cdot l = \frac{\sigma l}{E} = \frac{Fl}{2EA} \\ &= \frac{F}{2A} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_1 &= E_1 \epsilon_1 = E_1 \epsilon_{Y_1} \\ \sigma_2 &= E_2 \epsilon_2 = E_2 \epsilon_{Y_1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F &= \sigma_1 A_1 + \sigma_2 A_2 = \\ &= E_1 \epsilon_{Y_1} A_1 + E_2 \epsilon_{Y_1} A_2 = \\ &= EA \epsilon_{Y_1} \cdot 2 = 2 \sigma_{Y_1} A \end{aligned}$$

$$u = \epsilon l = \epsilon_{Y_1} l = \frac{\sigma_{Y_1} l}{E_1}$$

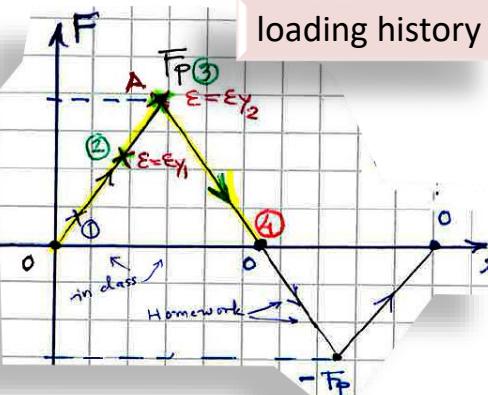
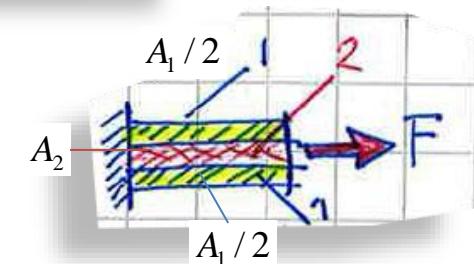
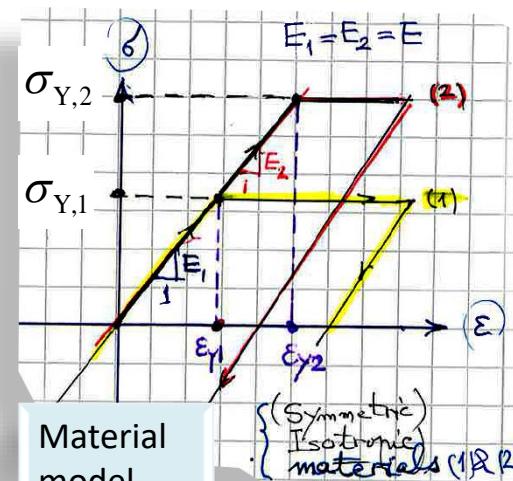
$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_1 &= \sigma_{Y_1} \quad \epsilon = \epsilon_2 = \epsilon \\ \sigma_1 &< \sigma_2 \leq \sigma_{Y_2} \end{aligned}$$

$$F = \sigma_1 A_1 + \sigma_2 A_2 = A(\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2})$$

$$\text{at yield} \Rightarrow F_p = \sigma_1 A_1 + \sigma_2 A_2$$

$$F_p = A(\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2})$$

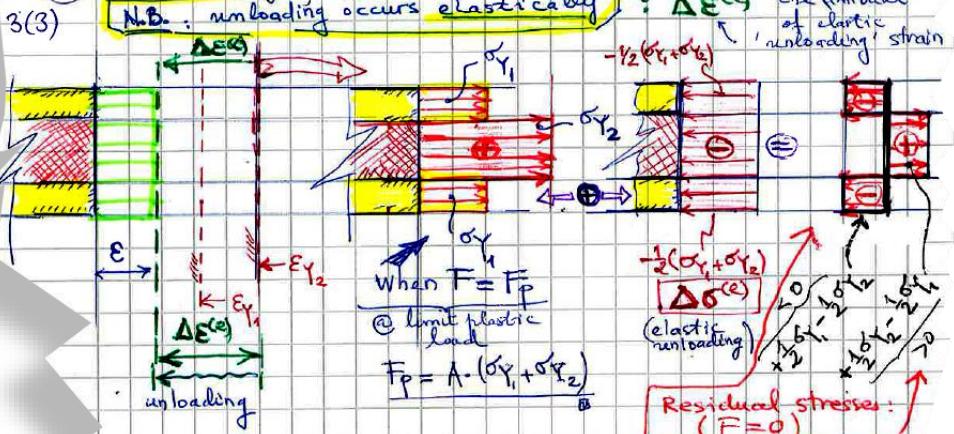
$$u = \epsilon l = \epsilon_2 l = \frac{\sigma_{Y_2} l}{E_2}$$



The 'seed':

- compatibility ϵ
- equilibrium

II • Unloading from $F = F_p$ to $F = 0$



Elastic unloading by an amount such that the resulting stress distribution have a zero resultant when $F=0$

New stress state: $\begin{cases} \sigma_i = \sigma_{Y_i} + \Delta \sigma_i^{(e)} & (a) \\ \Delta \sigma_i^{(e)} = E_i \Delta \varepsilon_i^{(e)} & \end{cases}, i=1,2$

and $F = \int \sigma dA = 0 \Rightarrow \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)}$ will be solved

$\sigma_1 = \sigma_{Y_1} + E_1 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)}$ $\rightarrow A_1 \sigma_1 + A_2 \sigma_2' = 0 \Rightarrow$

$\sigma_2' = \sigma_{Y_2} + E_2 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)}$

$A_1 (\sigma_{Y_1} + E_1 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)}) + A_2 (\sigma_{Y_2} + E_2 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)}) = 0$

$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} = -(E_1 A_1 + E_2 A_2) \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \Rightarrow$

$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} = -(E_1 A_1 + E_2 A_2) \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)}$ now $(E_1 = E_2 = E)$

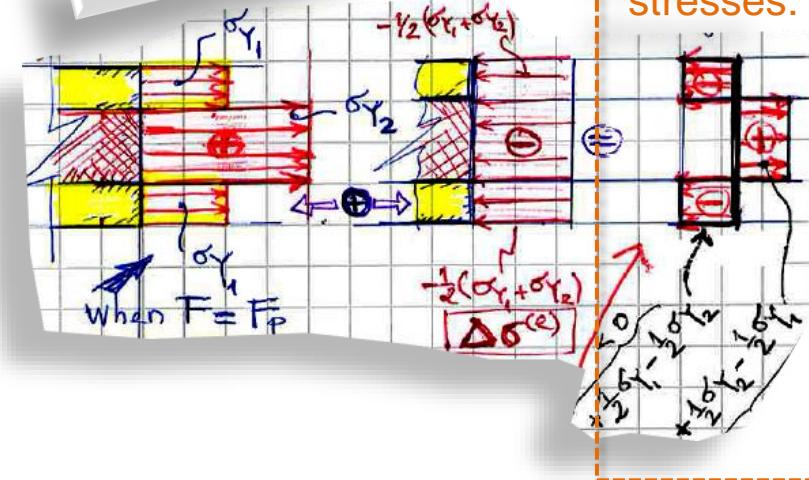
$\Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} = -\frac{A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2}}{E_1 A_1 + E_2 A_2}; \text{ now } \{E_1 = E_2 = E \text{ and } A_1 = A_2 = A\}$

$\Rightarrow E \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} = +\Delta \sigma^{(e)} = -\frac{1}{2} (\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2}) \quad (b)$

therefore $\sigma_i = \sigma_{Y_i} + \Delta \sigma^{(e)}$

stress distribution @ $F=F_p$ N.B.

Solution 2(5)



Residual stresses:

therefore $\sigma_i = \sigma_{Y_i} + \Delta \sigma^{(e)}$

elastic stress distribution @ $F=F_p$

stress distribution upon complete unloading $F=0$

$\int \Delta \sigma^{(e)} dA = -\frac{1}{2} A (\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2}) = -F$

RESIDUAL STRESSES:

$\sigma_1 = \sigma_{Y_1} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_1} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_2} = +\frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_1} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_2} + C$

$\sigma_2 = \sigma_{Y_2} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_1} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_2} = +\frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_2} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_1} + C$

Residual stresses: $\sigma_1^R = (\sigma_{Y_1} - \sigma_{Y_2})/2 = -\sigma_2^R$

$$F = 0$$

$$\sigma_2^R = (\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1})/2 = -\sigma_1^R$$

$$\bullet u(F=0) = u(F_p) + \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \cdot l$$

$$u(F=0) = \sigma_{Y_2} \cdot l - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2})}{E} \cdot l$$

$$= \frac{1}{2E} (\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1}) \cdot l = \frac{l}{2} (\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1}) / E$$

Residual tip displacement:

$$u(F=0) \equiv u^R = \frac{\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1}}{2E} l$$

Residual stresses: $\sigma_1^R = (\sigma_{Y_1} - \sigma_{Y_2})/2 = -\sigma_2^R$

$$F = 0$$

$$\sigma_2^R = (\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1})/2 = -\sigma_1^R$$

$u(F=0) = u(F_f) + \Delta \varepsilon^{(2)} \cdot l$

$$u(F=0) = \frac{\sigma_{Y_2} \cdot l}{E} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2}}{E} \right) l$$
$$= \frac{1}{2E} (\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1}) l = \frac{l(\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1})}{E}$$

Residual tip
displacement:

$$u(F=0) \equiv u^R = \frac{\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1}}{2E} l$$

Good to know: non-homogeneous residual strains lead to **residual stresses** upon full unloading.

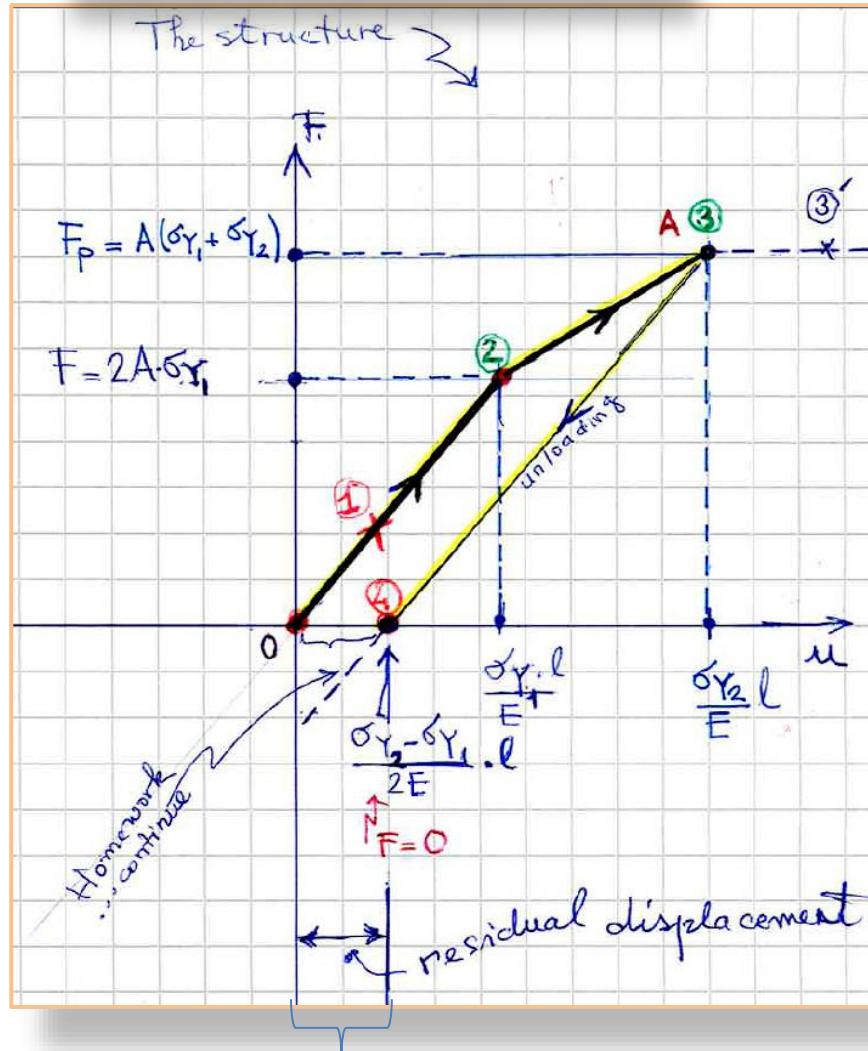
In order to decrease or reduce the these residual stresses heating can be used:
annealing or recovery temperature of $T \approx 0.3T_m$
For metals is needed.

Melting temperature

→ stress relaxation by thermal annealing

Solution 3(5)

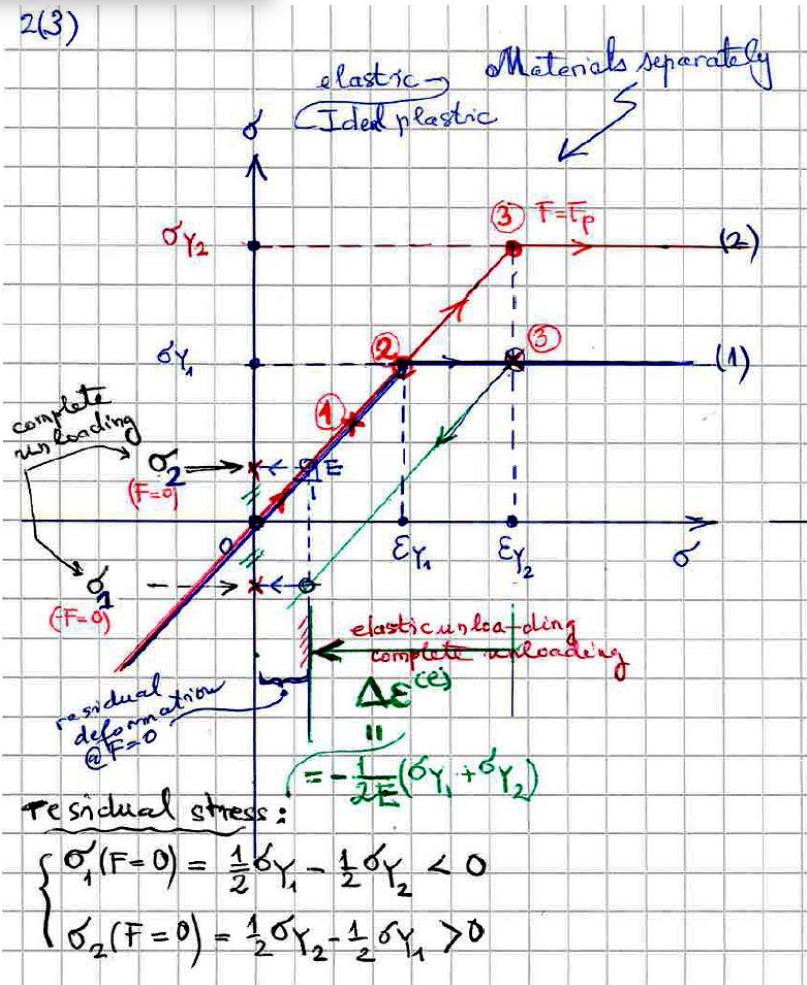
The force-displacement curve



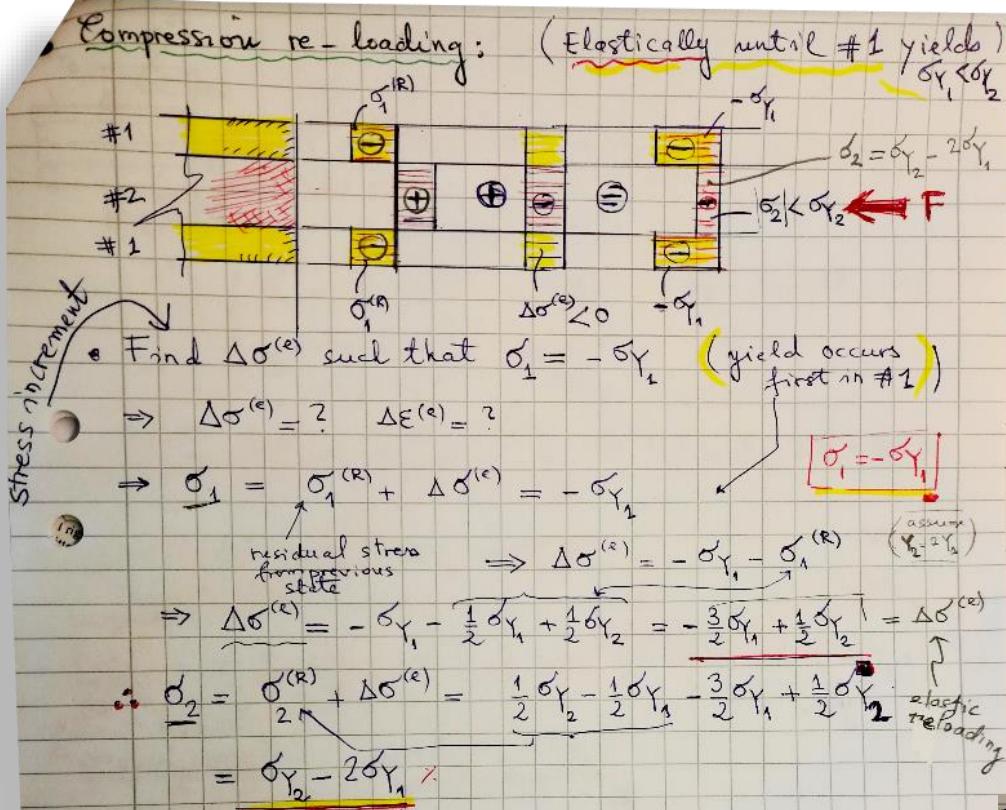
Residual displacements upon complete unloading

$$F = 0$$

Material model

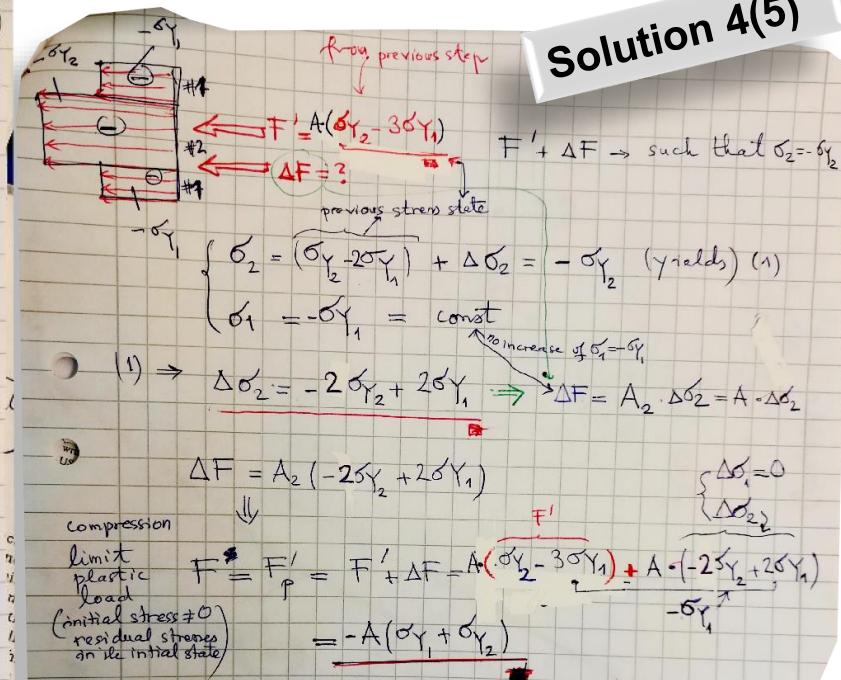
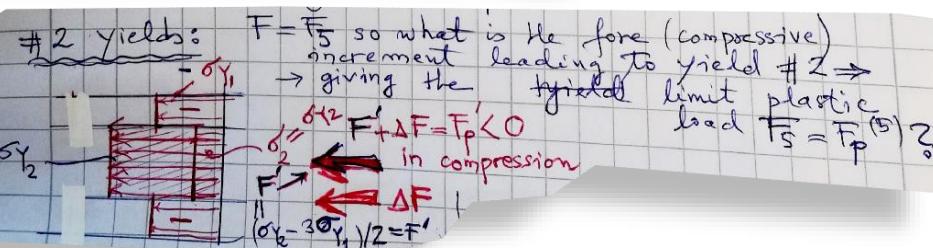


Solution 4(5)

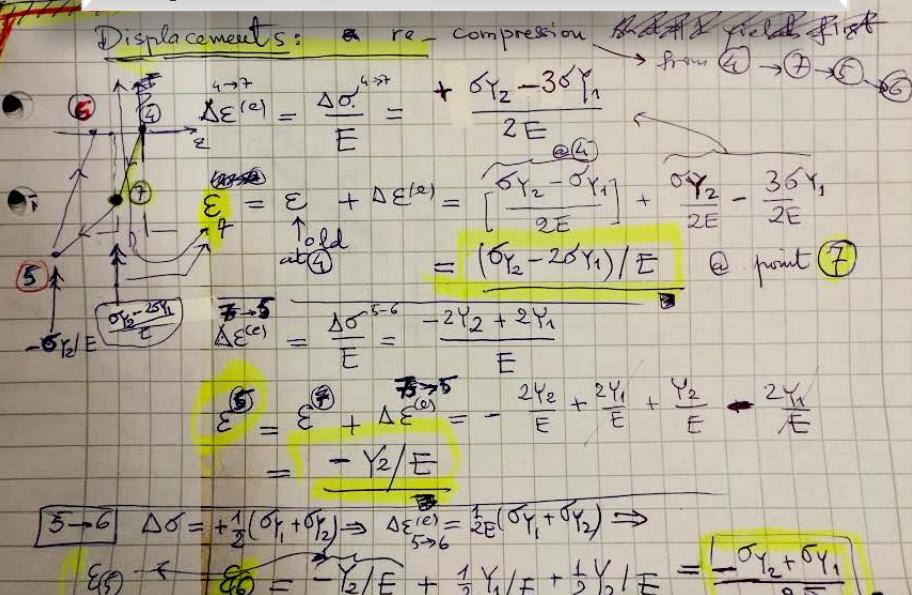


$$F' = F = \sigma_1 A_1 + \sigma_2 A_2 = -\sigma_{Y_1} A_1 + \sigma_{Y_2} A_2 - 2A\sigma_{Y_1} = A(\sigma_{Y_2} - 3\sigma_{Y_1})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{F'}{A_1 + A_2} = \frac{F}{2A} = \frac{\sigma_{Y_2} - 3\sigma_{Y_1}}{2} < 0 \quad (\text{equiv. stress})$$



Displacements: 4 → 7 → 5 → 6



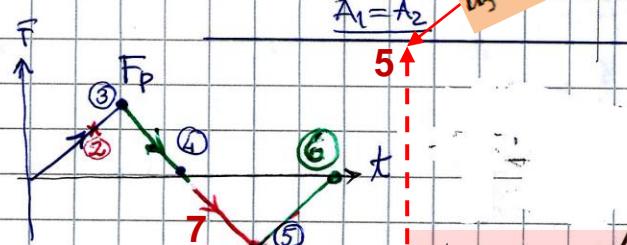
$$F = F_p = A(\delta_{Y_1} + \delta_{Y_2})$$

limit plastic
load on traction
• yield of bare #2

Solution 5(5)

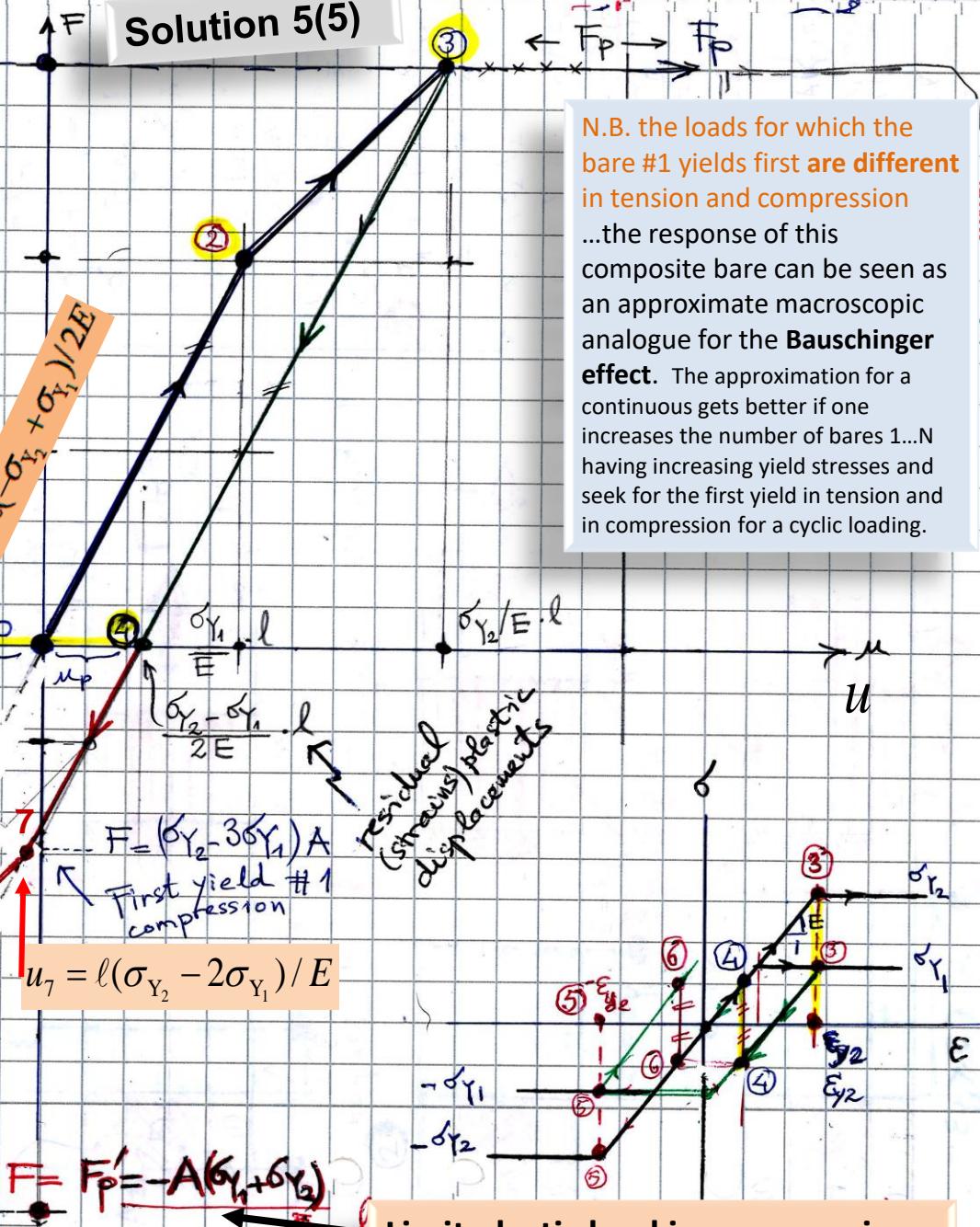
$$F_{p,\#1}^c = 2A\sigma_{Y_1} = F = 2A\delta_{Y_1}$$

First yield of bare #1 traction



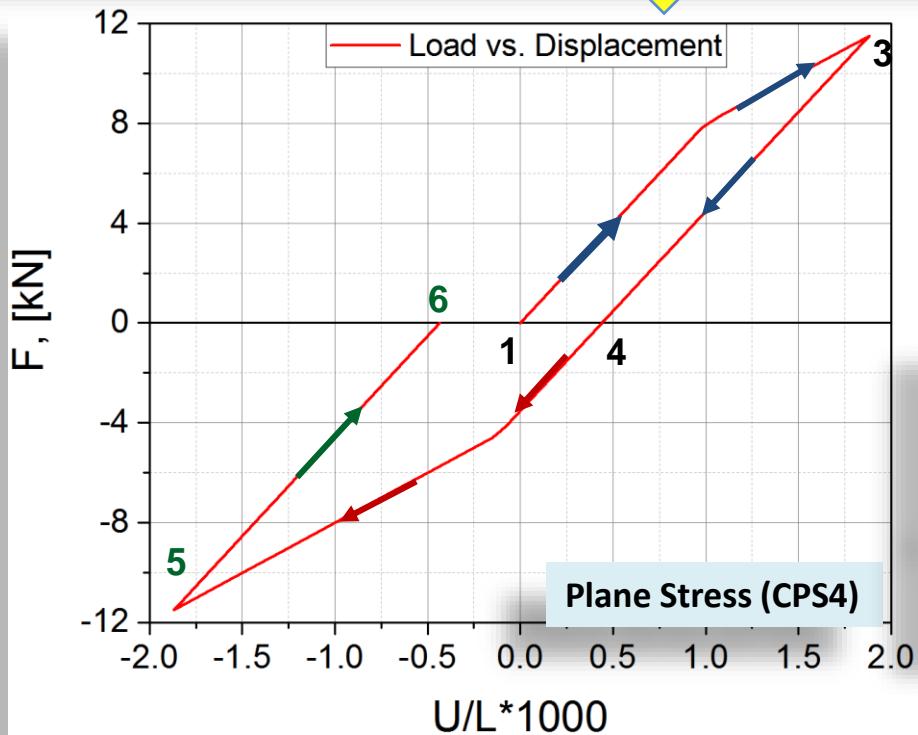
for example

$$Y_2 = Y_1 \cdot 2$$



Solution 6(5): thanks to our doctoral student

Serguei Khakalo who did the **Abaqus simulation**



Abaqus input file:

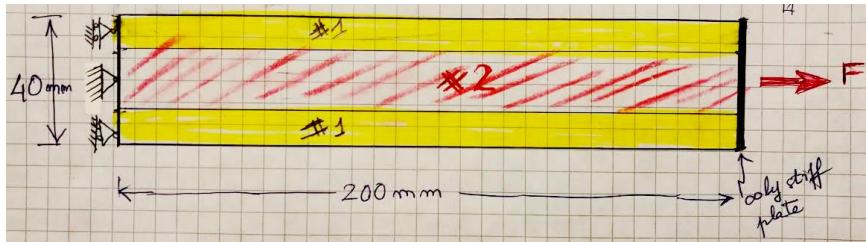
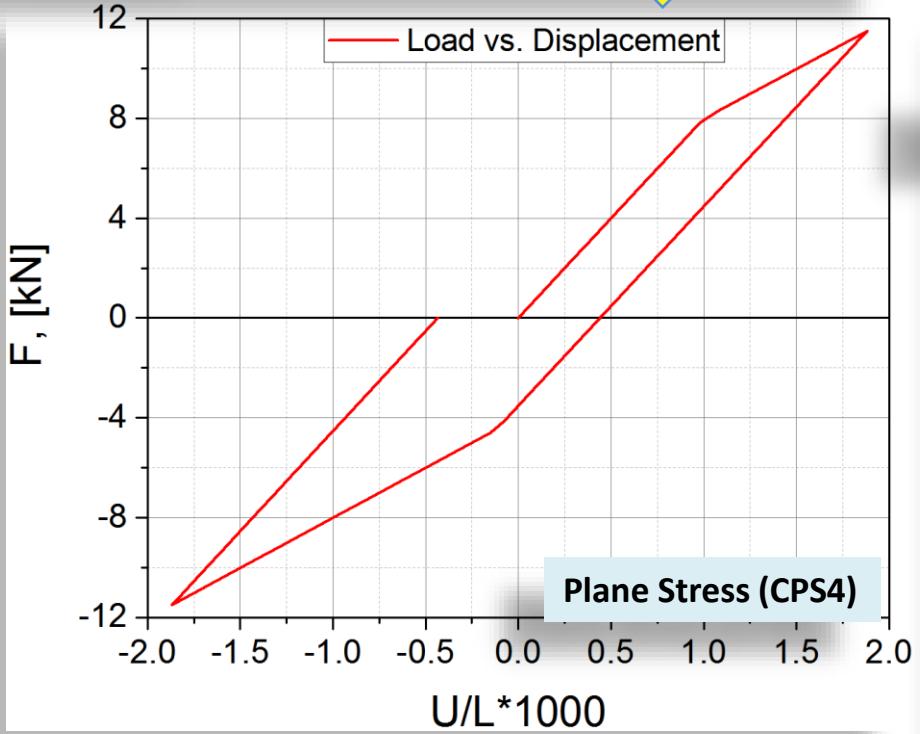
00_ABAQUS_elasto_elastic_bere_by_Serguei_El_Pl_Strip_01.inp

```
00_elasto_elastic_bere_by_Serguei_El_Pl_Strip_01.inp
```

The image shows a portion of the Abaqus input file (00_elasto_elastic_bere_by_Serguei_El_Pl_Strip_01.inp) with several lines highlighted in blue. The highlighted lines define a node set (1, 2, 3, 4), a solid section (EL314), a boundary condition (TYPE=DISPLACEMENT), and a material (M1; MAT_1). The input file also includes definitions for material properties (density, elastic modulus, plasticity), boundary conditions, and a step definition (STEP 1).

```
1 **  
2 **  
3 **  
4 ** file created by ANSA Thu Feb 09 14:07:38 2017  
5 **  
6 ** output from :  
7 **  
8 ** C:/WORK/Aalto/Abaqus/Djebar/2017_02_Elasto_Plastic_Strip/Unti  
9 **  
10 *HEADING  
11 100 ** STEPS  
12 101  
13 102 ***  
14 103 ***  
15 104 *** STEP 1  
16 105  
17 106 *STEP, NAME=Anonymous STEP 1, NLGEOM=YES  
18 107 *STATIC  
19 108 ***  
20 109 *** CLOAD  
21 110 ***  
22 111 *CLOAD, AMPLITUDE=A1;Load_1  
23 112 LOAD, 1, 11500.  
24 113 ***  
25 114 *SOLID SECTION, EL314  
26 115 1., 116 *** BOUNDARY  
27 117 1., 118 ***  
28 119 TPUT, FIELD, NUMBER INTERVAL=100, VARIABLE=PRESELECT  
29 120 D STEP  
30 1., 18463, 1, -1.  
31 1., 18464, 1, -1.  
32 1., 18465, 1, -1.  
33 10.999948, 10.999948, 0.  
34 ***  
35 ***  
36 **M1;MAT_1  
37 ***  
38 *MATERIAL, NAME=M1;MAT_1  
39 *DENSITY  
40 7.85E-9,  
41 *ELASTIC, TYPE=ISOTROPIC  
42 200000., 0.3  
43 *PLASTIC, HARDENING=KINEMATIC  
44 200., 0., 1., 0.  
45 ***  
46 **M2;MAT_2  
47 ***  
48 *MATERIAL, NAME=M2;MAT_2  
49 *DENSITY  
50 7.85E-9,
```

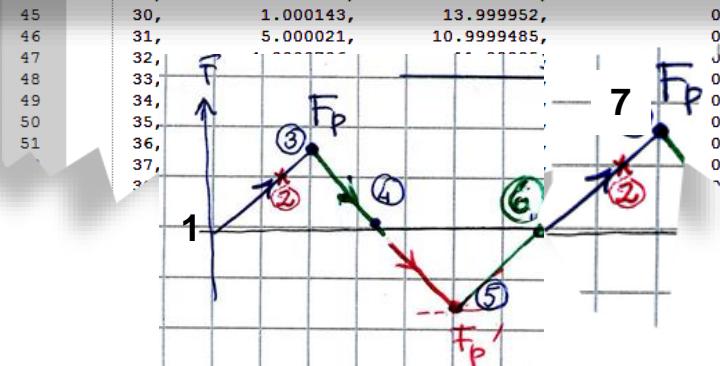
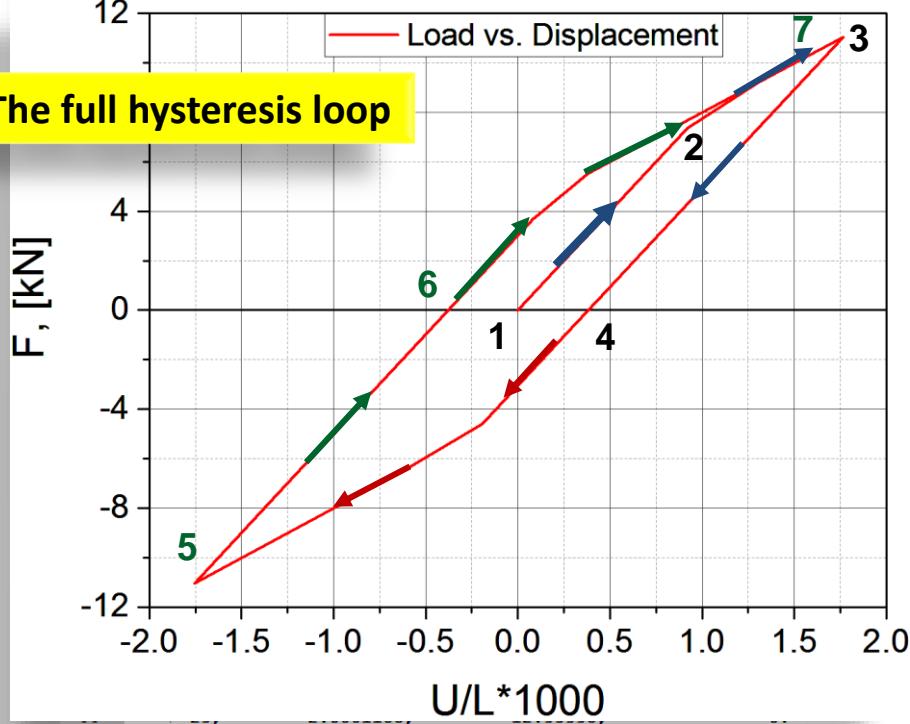
Solution 6(5): thanks to our doctoral student
Serguei Khakalo who did the **Abaqus**
simulation



Abaqus input file:

00_ABAQUS_elasto_elastic_bere_by_Serguei_El_Pl_Strip_01.inp

```
00_elasto_elastic_bere_by_Serguei_El_Pl_Strip_01.inp
1 **
2 **
3 **
4 ** file created by A N S A Thu Feb 09 14:07:38 2017
5 **
6 ** output from :
7 **
8 ** C:/WORK/Aalto/Abaqus/Djebar/2017_02_Elasto_Plastic_Strip/Unti
9 **
10 *HEADING
```



Elastic-plastic behaviour – an example of uniaxial behaviour

Example

Self-reading

Loading history dependency and Bauschinger effect

EXAMPLE 1.1. The behavior of a polycrystal metallic material composed of many monocrystals is analogous to a truss structure composed of many individual bars. Therefore, it is possible to use a simple truss model to simulate the elastic-plastic behavior of metallic materials. In this example, an overlay truss structure shown in Fig. 1.7 is considered. The Bauschinger effect will be simulated by the model.

In Fig. 1.7, two pairs of bar elements in parallel carry the load P . The vertical bars are made of elastic-perfectly plastic materials with different yield strength. Discuss the loading, unloading, and reloading characteristics of this structural model.

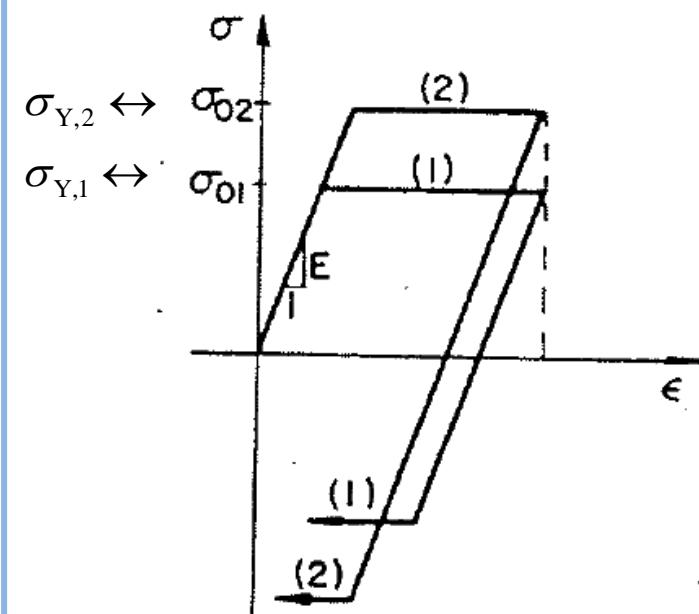
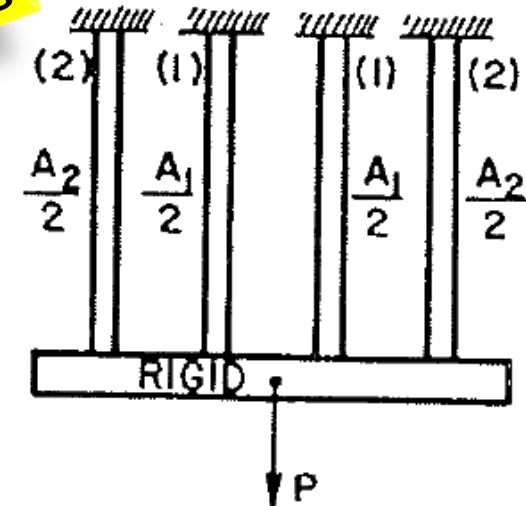
LOADING BEHAVIOR. With the load P increasing from zero, the first two significant stages occur when bars 1 yield followed by the yielding of bars

N.B. This simple example demonstrates some fundamental aspects related to engineering plasticity as applied to structures such a *non-linear force-displacement relation*, *loading path (history) dependence*, *residual stresses and strains*, *residual displacements upon complete unloading* ... etc.

There will be a homework on this specific topic.

This worked example from reference below is meant for self-study.

[2] Chen & Han. *Plasticity for Structural Engineers*



Elastic-plastic behaviour – an example of uniaxial behaviour

Solution

2. Noting that both materials have the same elastic modulus, the load at first yield is found as

$$P_a = \sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{01}A_2 \quad (1.15)$$

The equivalent stress can be expressed as

$$\sigma_a = \frac{\sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{01}A_2}{A_1 + A_2} = \sigma_{01} \quad (1.16)$$

The corresponding strain is

$$\epsilon_a = \frac{\sigma_{01}}{E} \quad (1.17)$$

At the yielding of bars 2, the load, the stress, and the strain may be expressed as

$$P_b = \sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{02}A_2 \quad (1.18)$$

$$\sigma_b = \frac{\sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{02}A_2}{A_1 + A_2} \quad (1.19)$$

$$\epsilon_b = \frac{\sigma_{02}}{E} \quad (1.20)$$

UNLOADING BEHAVIOR. After this, further elongation of the bars does not result in any increase in load. Therefore, the next significant occurrence will be an unloading phase. During unloading, the modulus is the same as the initial modulus E . Therefore, load P reaches zero when the strain has been reduced by an amount

$$\epsilon = \frac{\sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{02}A_2}{E(A_1 + A_2)} \quad (1.21)$$

At this point, the stress in bars 1, σ_1 , and that in bars 2, σ_2 , are represented by

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_{01} - E\epsilon = \frac{(\sigma_{01} - \sigma_{02})A_2}{A_1 + A_2} \quad (1.22)$$

$$\sigma_2 = \sigma_{02} - E\epsilon = \frac{(\sigma_{02} - \sigma_{01})A_1}{A_1 + A_2} \quad (1.23)$$

Because $\sigma_{02} > \sigma_{01}$, we have $\sigma_1 < 0$, $\sigma_2 > 0$, indicating that there exists a residual compression in the lower-yield-strength bars 1 and a residual tension in the higher-yield-strength bars 2 with the applied load being reduced to zero.

Solution:

Self-reading

$$P_a = \sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{01}A_2$$

$$\sigma_a = \frac{\sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{01}A_2}{A_1 + A_2} = \sigma_{01}$$

$$\epsilon_a = \frac{\sigma_{01}}{E}$$

$$P_b = \sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{02}A_2$$

$$\sigma_b = \frac{\sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{02}A_2}{A_1 + A_2}$$

$$\epsilon_b = \frac{\sigma_{02}}{E}$$

$$\epsilon = \frac{\sigma_{01}A_1 + \sigma_{02}A_2}{E(A_1 + A_2)}$$

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_{01} - E\epsilon = \frac{(\sigma_{01} - \sigma_{02})A_2}{A_1 + A_2}$$

$$\sigma_2 = \sigma_{02} - E\epsilon = \frac{(\sigma_{02} - \sigma_{01})A_1}{A_1 + A_2}$$

Since we assume that the bar itself is elastic-perfectly plastic, compressive yield will occur in bars 1 when the strain has been reduced by an amount

$$\epsilon = 2 \frac{\sigma_{01}}{E} \quad (1.24)$$

At this instance, the load in bars 1 is

$$P_1 = -\sigma_{01}A_1 \quad (1.25)$$

The load in bars 2 is

$$P_2 = (\sigma_{02} - 2\sigma_{01})A_2 \quad (1.26)$$

The equivalent stress is

$$\sigma_d = \frac{(\sigma_{02} - 2\sigma_{01})A_2 - \sigma_{01}A_1}{A_1 + A_2} \quad (1.27)$$

Noting that the reversed yield load in Eq. (1.27) is less in magnitude than the initial yield load in Eq. (1.16), it follows therefore that bars 1 yield much earlier than they would have on initial loading, because they are already in compression when $P=0$ as indicated in Eq. (1.22).

Compressive yielding occurs in bars 2 when the strain has been reduced by the amount

$$\epsilon = 2 \frac{\sigma_{02}}{E} \quad (1.28)$$

At this point, the load and the equivalent stress can be expressed as

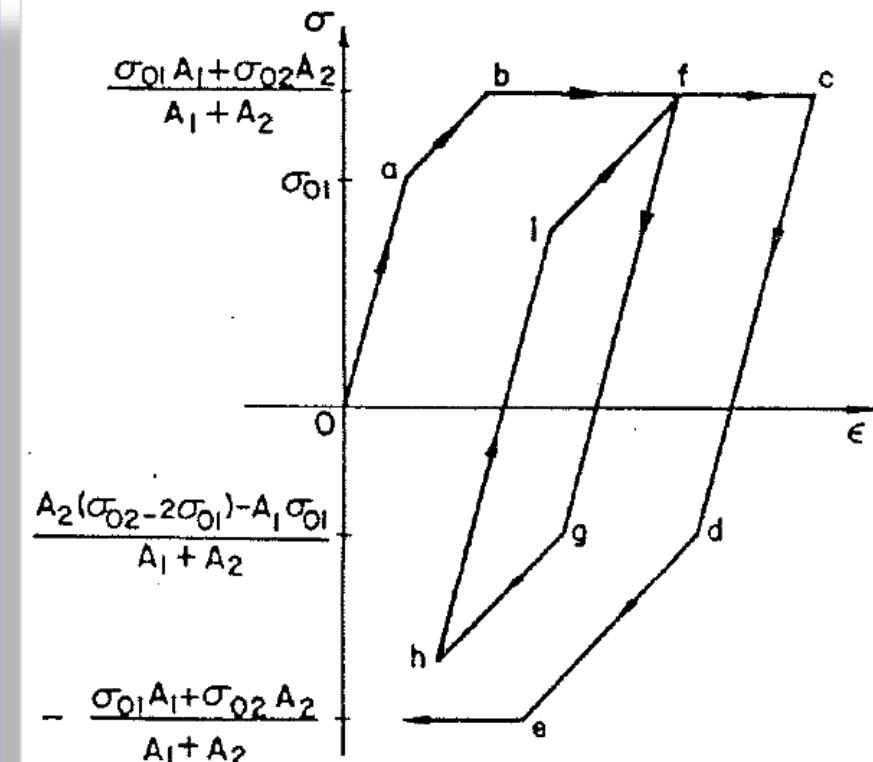
$$P_e = -\sigma_{01}A_1 - \sigma_{02}A_2 \quad (1.29)$$

$$\sigma_e = \frac{-\sigma_{01}A_1 - \sigma_{02}A_2}{A_1 + A_2} \quad (1.30)$$

The σ - ϵ curve for this loading path is shown in Fig. 1.8 by 0-a-b-c-d-e. If more bar elements with different yield strengths are included in the structural model, a more smooth σ - ϵ curve will be obtained.

RELOADING BEHAVIOR. Consider now the case in which compressive loading is terminated at point h before compressive-plastic flow in bars 2 begins. Reloading of the structural system in tension will follow the linear response with the initial modulus E but bars 1 will eventually yield again in tension at point i and plastic flow begins at point f. The σ - ϵ curve for this loading cycle is shown in Fig. 1.8 by f-g-h-i.

This structural model with an assemblage of bars of different yield strengths may be considered, qualitatively, to represent a real specimen with slip planes of different strengths, and therefore explains why a real specimen generally exhibits the Bauschinger effect.



Loading and unloading characteristics of the overlay model.

Self-reading

Solution

Self-reading

Loading history dependency and **strain hardening effects**

An example – *reading assignment*

Elastic-plastic behaviour – an example of uniaxial behaviour

Example

Loading history dependency and strain hardening effects

EXAMPLE 1.2. The σ - ϵ response in simple tension for an elastic-linear hardening plastic material is approximated by the following expressions.

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 + m\epsilon^p \quad \text{for } \sigma \geq \sigma_0$$

$$\epsilon^p = \frac{\sigma}{E}$$

where $\sigma_0 = 207$ MPa, $E = 207$ GPa, and $m = 25.9$ GPa. A material sample is first stretched to a total strain $\epsilon = 0.007$, is subsequently returned to its initial strain-free state ($\epsilon = 0$) by continued compressive stressing, and then is unloaded and reloaded in tension again to reach the same strain $\epsilon = 0.007$ (see Fig. 1.9). Sketch the stress-strain curve for the following hardening rules: (i) isotropic hardening, (ii) kinematic hardening, (iii) independent acting tensile and compressive hardening.

SOLUTION. According to the definition of the plastic modulus in Eq. (1.7), we have

$$E_p = \frac{d\sigma}{d\epsilon^p} = m = 25,900 \text{ MPa}$$

and the tangent modulus E_t is found from Eq. (1.9) as

$$E_t = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{E} + \frac{1}{E_p}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{207,000} + \frac{1}{25,900}} = 23,020 \text{ MPa}$$

Self-reading

which assumes the constant value 23,020 MPa for the linear hardening material.

With the material sample stretching, yielding occurs at the point with strain

$$\epsilon = \frac{\sigma_0}{E} = 0.001$$

Then, the sample is further stretched to point A with strain $\epsilon = 0.007$, at which the stress σ_A is found as

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_A &= \sigma_0 + \Delta\sigma \\ &= \sigma_0 + E_t \Delta\epsilon \\ &= 207 + 23,020(0.007 - 0.001) = 345 \text{ MPa}\end{aligned}$$

The subsequent stresses are determined for the three hardening rules as follows:

(i) *Isotropic hardening case* [Fig. 1.9(i)]: During unloading and reversed loading in compression, the sample behaves elastically until it yields again in compression at point B . According to the isotropic hardening rule, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_B &= -\sigma_A = -345 \text{ MPa} \\ \epsilon_B &= \epsilon_A - 2 \frac{\sigma_A}{E} = 0.007 - 2 \left(\frac{345}{207,000} \right) = 0.00367\end{aligned}$$

Now, the material sample is yielding until load reversal occurs at point C as $\epsilon = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_C &= \sigma_B + E_t \Delta\epsilon \\ &= -345 + 23,020(0 - 0.00367) = -429 \text{ MPa}\end{aligned}$$

Upon reversal of the straining, the material is elastic up to point D at which

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_D &= 429 \text{ MPa} \\ \epsilon_D &= \epsilon_C + 2 \frac{\sigma_D}{E} = 0 + 2 \left(\frac{429}{207,000} \right) = 0.004145\end{aligned}$$

As the strain ϵ reaches 0.007 at point E , the stress is

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_E &= \sigma_D + E_t \Delta\epsilon \\ &= 429 + 23,020(0.007 - 0.004145) \\ &= 495 \text{ MPa}\end{aligned}$$

(ii) *Kinematic hardening case* [Fig. 1.9(ii)]: The yield stress at point *B* is

$$\sigma_B = \sigma_A - 2\sigma_0 = 345 - 2(207) = -69 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\epsilon_B = \epsilon_A - 2 \frac{\sigma_0}{E} = 0.007 - 2 \left(\frac{207}{207,000} \right) = 0.005$$

At point *C*,

$$\sigma_C = \sigma_B + E_t \Delta \epsilon$$

$$= -69 + 23,020(0 - 0.005) = -184 \text{ MPa}$$

At point *D*, the sample yields again in tension at a stress

$$\sigma_D = \sigma_C + 2\sigma_0$$

$$= -184 + 2(207) = 230 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\epsilon_D = \epsilon_C + \frac{2\sigma_0}{E} = 0 + 2 \left(\frac{207}{207,000} \right) = 0.002$$

At point *E*, the stress is

$$\sigma_E = \sigma_D + E_t \Delta \epsilon$$

$$= 230 + 23,020(0.007 - 0.002) = 345 \text{ MPa}$$

(iii) *Independent hardening case* [Fig. 1.9(iii)]: Because the material has not yielded in compression before, the yield stress at point *B* is

$$\sigma_B = -\sigma_0 = -207 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\epsilon_B = \epsilon_A - \frac{\sigma_A}{E} - \frac{\sigma_0}{E}$$

$$= 0.007 - \frac{345}{207,000} - \frac{207}{207,000} = 0.00433$$

At point *C*,

$$\sigma_C = \sigma_B + E_t \Delta \epsilon$$

$$= -207 + 23,020(0 - 0.00433) = -307 \text{ MPa}$$

At point *D*, the material yields again in tension at a stress equal to σ_A , i.e.,

$$\sigma_D = \sigma_A = 345 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\epsilon_D = \epsilon_C + \frac{\sigma_C}{E} + \frac{\sigma_D}{E} = 0 - \frac{(-307)}{207,000} + \frac{345}{207,000} \\ = 0.00315$$

At point *E*, the stress is

$$\sigma_E = \sigma_D + E_t \Delta \epsilon$$

$$= 345 + 23,020(0.007 - 0.00315) = 434 \text{ MPa}$$

The stress-strain curves for each of the three cases are shown in Fig. 1.9.

$$(1.5)$$

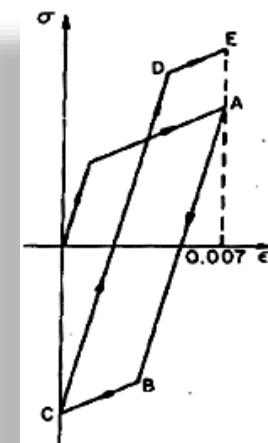
$$d\epsilon = d\epsilon^e + d\epsilon^p$$

$$(1.6)$$

$$d\sigma = E_t d\epsilon$$

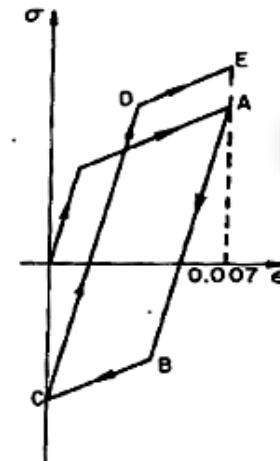
The stress increment $d\sigma$ is related to the strain increment $d\epsilon$ by
where E_t is the tangent modulus which is changing during plastic deformation. In the case of uniaxial loading, E_t is the current slope of the σ - ϵ curve (Fig. 1.5a). If we separate the plastic strain ϵ^p from the total strain ϵ , then the plastic strain increment $d\epsilon^p$ and the stress increment $d\sigma$ are related by
 $d\sigma = E_p d\epsilon^p$

$$(1.7)$$



I) ISOTROPIC HARDENING

strain hardening



II) KINEMATIC HARDENING

III) INDEPENDENT HARDENING

Self-reading

Uniaxial Elastic-plastic behaviour

Homework #1, #2 and some other exercises

Uniaxial Elastic-plastic behaviour

Homework #1, #2 and some other exercises

Homework – plasticity, basic concepts

Homework #1.1

Hardening behavior and yield offset – uniaxial behavior in Plasticity

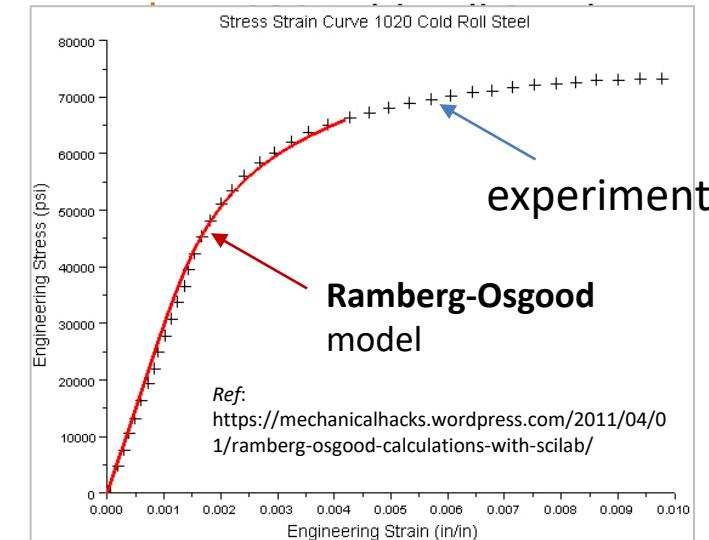
During a uniaxial (monotonic) stress testing of particular solid material the stress-strain curve was measured. It was found that this curve can be approximated by the non-linear **Ramberg-Osgood** model for 1-D case as

$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p = \frac{\sigma}{E} + \left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^n, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p = \frac{\sigma}{E} + K\left(\frac{\sigma}{E}\right)^n.$$

0. Make graphs for three or four different values of the exponent parameter with a fixed value of K or b
1. Determine the *tangent elastic modulus* E_t and the *plastic modulus* $H \equiv E_p$ as functions of stress and strain.
Show that $1/E_t = 1/E + 1/E_p$ holds.
2. Determine the plastic work W_p as function of stress and plastic strain. On the strain-stress graph show the elastic and the plastic work and also the hardening work partition.
3. Determine the yield stress. What is the value of the yield stress?
4. Assume $n=5$ and determine the (offset tensile) stresses corresponding to values of 0.1 % and 0.2 % plastic strain (permanent strain). Plot your results on the graphs.
5. Assume $n=1$, draw the stress-strain curve for loading followed by a complete unloading.

or equivalently

$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p = \frac{\sigma}{E} + K'\left(\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_{0.2}}\right)^n.$$



n, b, K – describe the hardening behavior of the material.

Elastic-plastic behaviour – uniaxial behaviour

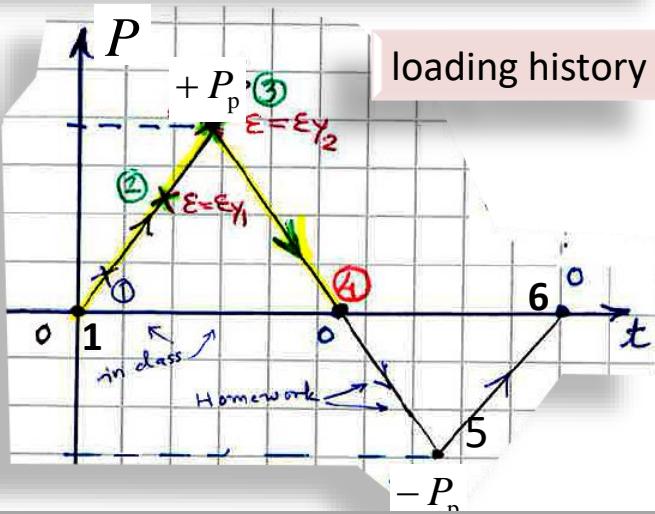
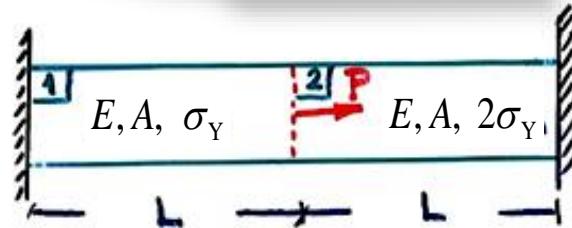
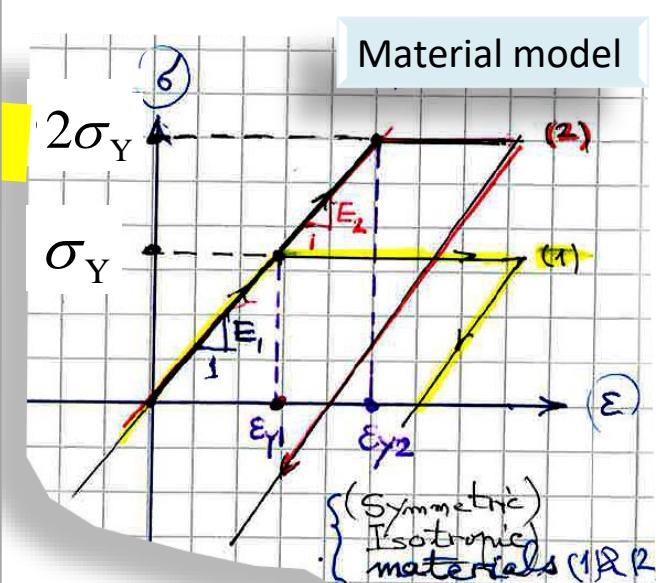
Homework #1.2

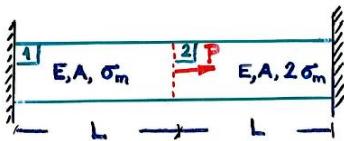
Consider a single such bare of length $2L$ which is composed of two different metallic materials which are perfectly bond to each other (see Figure). Both materials are isotropic and are made of **elastic-perfectly plastic** materials. The cross-section of the bares are $A_1 = A_2 = A$ and equal elasticity moduli $E_1 = E_2 = E$.

Both materials behave separately symmetrically in compression and in tension.

The composite bare is loaded according to the history shown on the figure (bottom). The applied load increases from $P=0$ to the plastic limit load $P=P_p$ and then decreases to zero (loading history 1-3-4-5-6).

- Determine the corresponding full **force-displacement curve**
- Upon complete unloading (points 4 and then 6), find the **residual stresses, strains and residual displacement**.
- Extra:** Choose, for basic properties steel having two different yield stresses and do the numerical simulation [plane stress] on **Abaqus** [free download student version] or equivalent... (non-linear FEA)
- Conclusions?





Vaihe 1: molemmat sauvat käyttäytyvät kimmisesti.

$$|\sigma'| = \frac{P}{2A} \leq \sigma_m \Rightarrow P \leq 2\sigma_m A$$

Vaihe 2: Tämän jälkeen kuormituksen lisäys jää vain oikean puoleisen osan kannettavaksi

$$|\sigma'| = \sigma_m + \frac{\bar{P}}{A} \leq 2\sigma_m \Rightarrow \bar{P} \leq \sigma_m A$$

$$P_{\text{kok}} = P + \bar{P} = 3\sigma_m A$$

Vaihe 3: Kuorman poistaminen.

Tällöin molemmat osat toimivat kimmisesti.

Jännityksen muutos

$$\Delta\sigma' = \frac{P}{2A} - \frac{3\sigma_m A}{2A} = \frac{3}{2}\sigma_m$$

Toisin sanoen, osassa 1 jännitys on

$$\sigma_m - \frac{3}{2}\sigma_m = -\frac{1}{2}\sigma_m$$

ja osassa 2 vastaavasti

$$-2\sigma_m + \frac{3}{2}\sigma_m = -\frac{1}{2}\sigma_m$$

Siirtymähistoria:

Vaihe 1: Sauva 1 venyy ja sauva 2 kokoonpuristuu määrään

$$\delta = \frac{PL}{2EA} = \frac{2\sigma_m AL}{2EA} = \frac{\sigma_m L}{E}$$

Vaihe 2: Sauva 2 kokoonpuristuu kuorman vaikutuksesta, sauva 1 seuraa mukana

$$\bar{\delta} = \frac{PL}{EA} = \frac{\sigma_m AL}{EA} = \frac{\sigma_m L}{E}$$

Sauvan 1 pituus $L_1 = L + \frac{2\sigma_m L}{E}$

Sauvan 2 pituus $L_2 = L - \frac{2\sigma_m L}{E}$

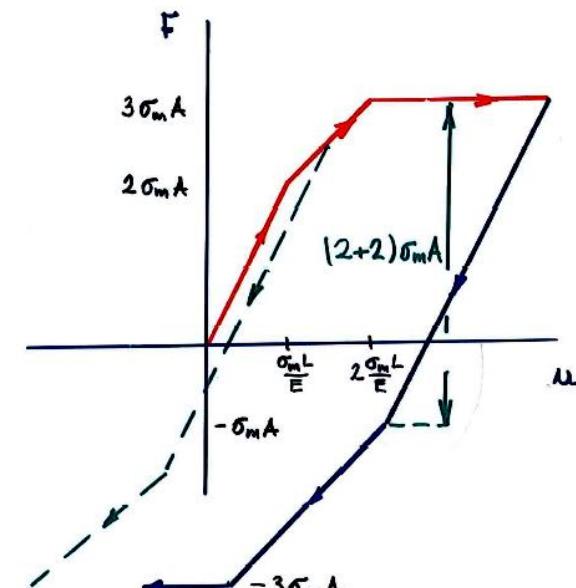
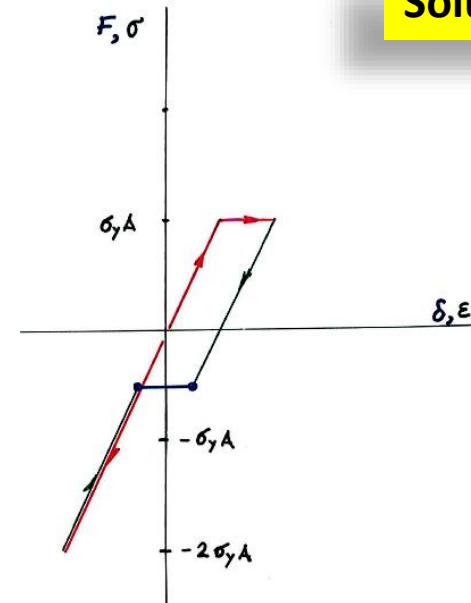
Vaihe 3: Kuorman poistaminen jälleen kimmoinen

sauva 1 $L_1 = L + \frac{2\sigma_m L}{E} - \frac{3\sigma_m AL}{2AE}$

$$= L + \frac{\sigma_m L}{2E}$$

sauva 2 $L_2 = L - \frac{2\sigma_m L}{E} + \frac{3\sigma_m AL}{2AE}$

$$= L - \frac{\sigma_m L}{2E}$$

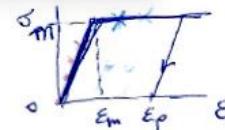
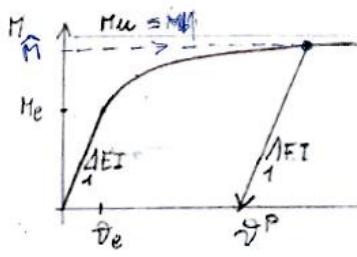


Engineering **Plasticity**

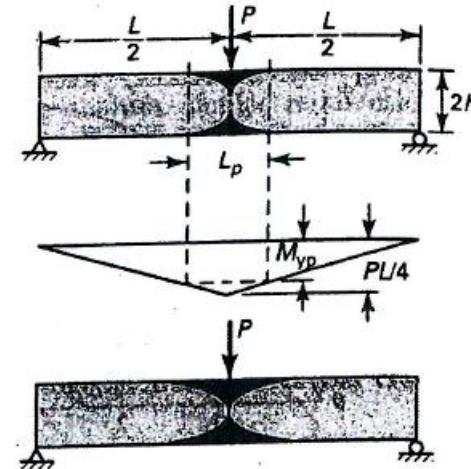
Some Solved examples

Homework/example-residual stresses

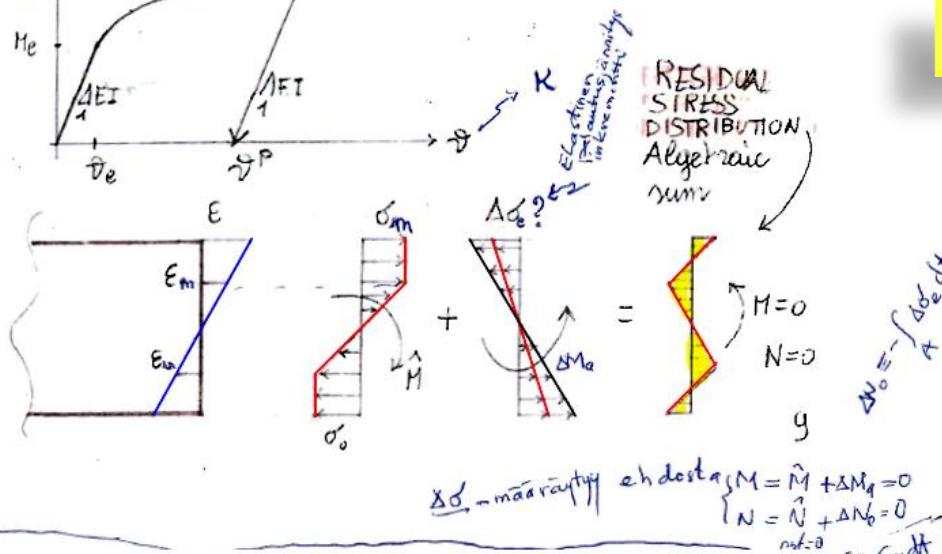
What happens if we release the load?



Bending of a rectangular beam: (a) plastic region; (b) moment diagram; (c) plastic hinge.



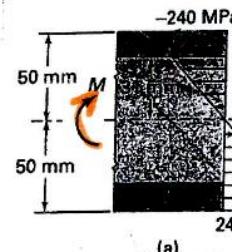
Self-reading



$$\begin{cases} M = \bar{M} + \Delta M_e = 0 \\ N = \bar{N} + \Delta N_e = 0 \end{cases}$$

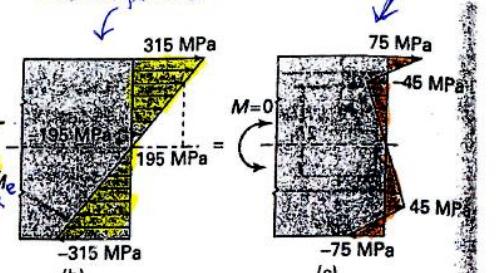
Formulate more properly...if you'll have time ..

Kiinnioplastinen tilanne



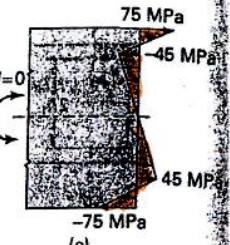
Example 12.7 (continued). Stress distribution in a rectangular beam.
(a) elastic-plastic; (b) elastic rebound; (c) residual.

ΔM_e : tuntematon "elastinen palautestaikeus monialta": ΔM_e määritetyy ehdosta: $\begin{cases} \Delta M_e = \int A \sigma_e g dA \\ \Delta N_e = \int A \delta g dA \end{cases}$



Tehtävävä: Olkoon jännitystila (a) saavutettu taittuuvaltaa. Mitä jännityset näät kun voite poistaa ulkoisen kierontus?

ulkoisen voiteen poistua tarkistaa
"Elastinen palautus". Jäännösjännitykset



$$\Delta N_e = \int A \delta g dA$$

Lower Bound Plastic Collapse Theorem

The lower bound theorem provides a safe estimate of the collapse loads for a rigid plastic solid.

Statically admissible stress field...

KESKEN, PAHASTI...

6.2.6.2 Example 2: Rigid Indenter in Contact with a Half-Space

We consider a flat indenter with width a that is pushed into the surface of a half-space by a force P . The stress state illustrated in Figure 6.31 will be used to obtain a lower bound to the collapse load in the solid. Note the following:

1. Regions C, E, and F are stress free.
2. The stress in regions A and D consists of a state of uniaxial stress, with direction parallel to the boundaries between AC (or AE) and CD (or DF), respectively. We will denote this stress by $\sigma^A \mathbf{m} \otimes \mathbf{m}$, where \mathbf{m} is a unit vector parallel to the direction of the uniaxial stress.
3. The stress state in the triangular region B has principal directions of stress parallel to \mathbf{e}_α . We will write this stress state as $\sigma_{11}^B \mathbf{e}_1 \otimes \mathbf{e}_1 + \sigma_{22}^B \mathbf{e}_2 \otimes \mathbf{e}_2$.

The stresses in each region must be chosen to satisfy equilibrium and to ensure that the stress is below yield everywhere. The stress is constant in each region, so equilibrium is satisfied locally. However, the stresses are discontinuous across AC, AB, etc. To satisfy

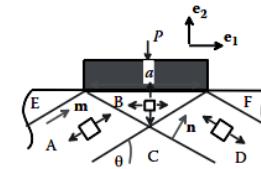
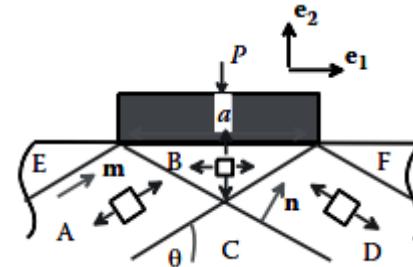


FIGURE 6.31 Statically admissible stress field for a rigid plastic solid indented by a flat punch.

equilibrium, equal and opposite tractions must act on the material surfaces adjacent to the discontinuity, which requires, for example, that $\sigma_{ij}^A \mathbf{n}_j = \sigma_{ij}^B \mathbf{n}_j$, where \mathbf{n} is a unit vector normal to the boundary between A and B as indicated in Figure 6.31. We enforce this condition as follows:

1. Note that $\mathbf{m} = \cos\theta \mathbf{e}_1 + \sin\theta \mathbf{e}_2$ $\mathbf{n} = \sin\theta \mathbf{e}_1 + \cos\theta \mathbf{e}_2$.
2. Equilibrium across the boundary between A and B requires

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^A (\mathbf{m} \otimes \mathbf{m}) \cdot \mathbf{n} &= (\sigma_{11}^A \mathbf{e}_1 \otimes \mathbf{e}_1 + \sigma_{22}^A \mathbf{e}_2 \otimes \mathbf{e}_2) \cdot \mathbf{n} \\ &\Rightarrow \sigma^A (\cos\theta \mathbf{e}_1 + \sin\theta \mathbf{e}_2) 2 \sin\theta \cos\theta = \sigma_{11}^A \mathbf{e}_1 \sin\theta + \sigma_{22}^A \mathbf{e}_2 \cos\theta \\ &\Rightarrow \sigma_{11}^B = 2\sigma^A \cos^2\theta \quad \sigma_{22}^B = 2\sigma^A \sin^2\theta. \end{aligned}$$
3. We must now choose σ^A and θ to maximize the collapse load but ensure that the stresses do not exceed yield in regions A or B. Clearly, this requires $\sigma^A = -Y$, whereas θ must be chosen to ensure that $|\sigma_{22}^B - \sigma_{11}^B| < Y$. This requires $1/2 < \cos\theta < \sqrt{3}/2$. The largest value for θ maximizes the bound.
4. Finally, substituting for θ gives $\sigma_{22}^B = -3Y/2$. We see that the lower bound is $P = -3Ya/2$.

Lower and upper-Bound Plastic Collapse Theorem

Self-reading

SOIL MECHANICS AND PLASTIC ANALYSIS OR LIMIT DESIGN*

BY

D. C. DRUCKER AND W. PRAGER

Brown University

*Received Nov. 19, 1951. The results presented in this paper were obtained in the course of research sponsored by the Office of Naval Research under Contract N7onrr-35801 with Brown University.

1. Introduction. Problems of soil mechanics involving stability of slopes, bearing capacity of foundation slabs and pressures on retaining walls are often treated as problems of plasticity. The soil is replaced by an idealized material which behaves elastically up to some state of stress at which slip or yielding occurs. The shear stress required for simple slip is often considered to depend upon the cohesion and linearly upon the normal pressure on the slip surface. In more complete plane investigations an extended Coulomb's rule is used,**

7. Simple discontinuous solutions. Any soil mass, in particular the slope shown in Fig. 3, may fail by rigid body "sliding" motion in two simple ways. As is well known, the surfaces of discontinuity, idealizations of discontinuity layers, are planes and circular cylinders for a Prandtl-Reuss material, $\alpha = 0$. When $\alpha \neq 0$, a plane discontinuity surface is still permissible but the circle is replaced by a logarithmic spiral which is at an

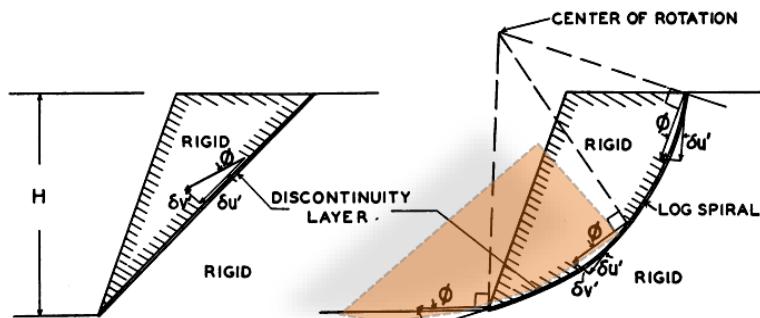


FIG. 3. Rigid body "slide" motions.

angle φ to the radius from the center of rotation. The circle is not a permissible surface for rigid body "sliding" because a discontinuity in tangential velocity requires a separation velocity. For a "slide" discontinuity the angle between the velocity vector and the discontinuity surface is φ , as is seen from Eq. (16).

and

$$H_c \leq \frac{4c}{w} \tan\left(45 + \frac{\varphi}{2}\right) \quad (25)$$

The usual theory furnishes the right-hand side of (25) as the critical height. However there is a factor of 2 between the upper bound (25) and the lower bound (22) for H_c .

The upper bound can be improved by considering a rotational discontinuity (logarithmic spiral, Fig. 4c) instead of the translational type.

8. Example: Critical height of vertical bank. The computation of the critical height H_c of a vertical bank, Fig. 4, will serve as an illustration of the procedure consistent with plasticity theory. No attempt will be made here to get an exact plasticity solution to this problem for even if it could be obtained it would not be helpful for more complicated slopes. Instead, the upper and lower bound techniques of limit design will be used.

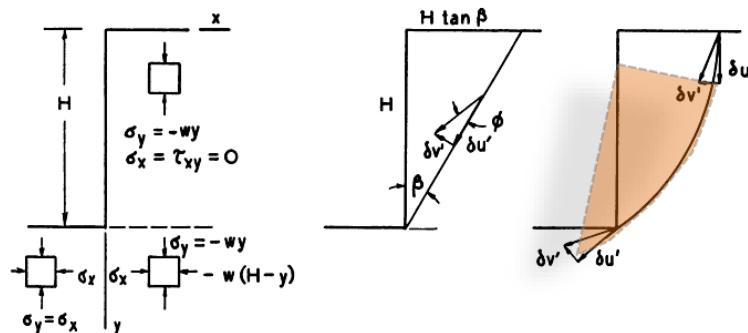


FIG. 4. (a) An equilibrium solution, (b) Plane, (c) Log. spiral compatible solutions.

Denoting the specific weight of the soil by w , Fig. 4a shows a discontinuous equilibrium solution in which the maximum shearing stress is $wH/2$ at the lower ground level, where the average normal stress is $-wH/2$. It should be remembered that the stress field need bear no resemblance to the actual state of stress. Equilibrium alone must be satisfied in addition to the yield condition (1) or (2) for H to be safe. From Eq. (1)

$$\frac{wH}{2} = c \cos \varphi + \frac{wH}{2} \sin \varphi$$

or a lower bound on the critical height H_c is given by

$$H_c \geq H = \frac{2c}{w} \frac{\cos \varphi}{1 - \sin \varphi} = \frac{2c}{w} \tan\left(45 + \frac{\varphi}{2}\right) \quad (22)$$

An upper bound on H_c may be found by taking a plane slide as a velocity pattern, Fig. 4b. Equating external rate of work to the dissipation Eq. (18) gives

$$\frac{wH^2 \tan \beta}{2} \frac{\delta u'}{\cos \varphi} \cos(\varphi + \beta) = \frac{cH}{\cos \beta} \delta u',$$

so that

$$H_c \leq H = \frac{2c}{w} \frac{\cos \varphi}{\sin \beta \cos(\varphi + \beta)}. \quad (23)$$

minimizing the right hand side gives

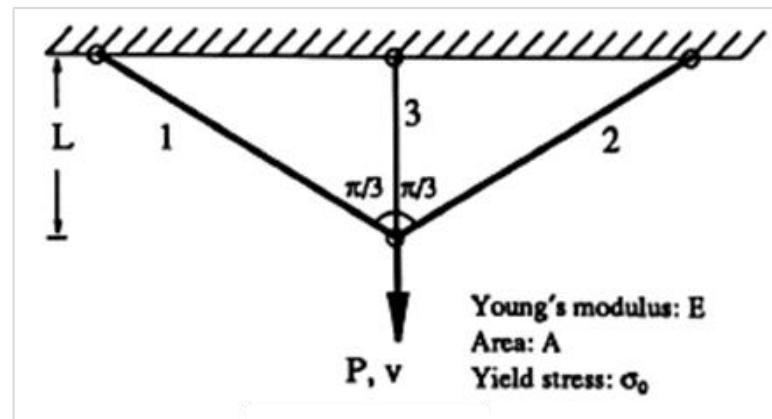
$$\beta = 45 - \frac{\varphi}{2} \quad (24)$$

Three-Bar Truss Problems

Self-reading

A three-bar truss subjected to a vertical load P is shown in the figure. The bars are made of an elastic-perfectly plastic material with elastic modulus E and yield stress σ_0 . All three bars have the same area A . The load P is first increased to the plastic limit P_p and then is unloaded to zero. Afterward, P is increased in the reversed direction until all three bars yield again in compression and then is unloaded again to zero.

- Determine the elastic limit load P_e and the plastic limit load P_p in the initial loading.
- Determine the elastic limit load P'_e and the plastic limit load P'_p in the reversed loading.
- Determine the residual stresses and strains of the bars and the residual horizontal and vertical displacements at the load point at the end of the loading history.



Solved problems 1(2)

Solution: The basic equilibrium and compatibility equations are

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1 &= \sigma_2, & \sigma_1 + \sigma_3 &= \frac{P}{A} \\ \varepsilon_1 &= \varepsilon_2, & 4\varepsilon_1 &= \varepsilon_3\end{aligned}$$

Using the elastic stress-strain relations, we obtain the elastic solution as

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \frac{1}{5} \frac{P}{A}, \quad \sigma_3 = \frac{4}{5} \frac{P}{A}$$

Initial Loading

The elastic limit load is obtained by equating σ_3 to σ_0 ,

$$\frac{P_e}{A} = \frac{5}{4} \sigma_0$$

and at $P = P_e$, we have

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \frac{1}{4} \sigma_0, \quad \sigma_3 = \sigma_0, \quad \varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = \frac{1}{4} \varepsilon_0, \quad \varepsilon_3 = \varepsilon_0$$

$$u = 0, \quad v = L \varepsilon_0$$

where u and v are the horizontal and vertical displacements respectively at the load point.

For $P > P_e$, $\Delta\sigma_3 = 0$. Thus, from the basic equations we obtain the plastic limit load as

$$\frac{P_p}{A} = 2\sigma_0$$

and at $P = P_p$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1 &= \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = \sigma_0, & \varepsilon_1 &= \varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_0, & \varepsilon_3 &= 4\varepsilon_0 \\ u &= 0, & v &= 4L\varepsilon_0\end{aligned}$$

Unloading

When the load P is unloaded to zero, the incremental stresses are

$$\Delta\sigma_1 = \Delta\sigma_2 = -\frac{2}{5} \sigma_0$$

Thus, at $P = 0$, we obtain

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \frac{3}{5} \sigma_0, \quad \sigma_3 = -\frac{3}{5} \sigma_0, \quad \varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = \frac{3}{5} \varepsilon_0, \quad \varepsilon_3 = \frac{12}{5} \varepsilon_0$$

$$u = 0, \quad v = \frac{12}{5} L \varepsilon$$

Reversed Loading

In the reversed loading, Bar 3 yields first again. We can easily obtain the elastic limit and plastic limit load in the reversed loading.

$$\frac{P'_e}{A} = -\frac{1}{2} \sigma_0, \quad \frac{P'_p}{A} = -2\sigma_0$$

and at $P = P'_p$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1 &= \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = -\sigma_0, & \varepsilon_1 &= \varepsilon_2 = -\varepsilon_0, & \varepsilon_3 &= -4\varepsilon_0 \\ u &= 0, & v &= -4L\varepsilon_0\end{aligned}$$

Unloading

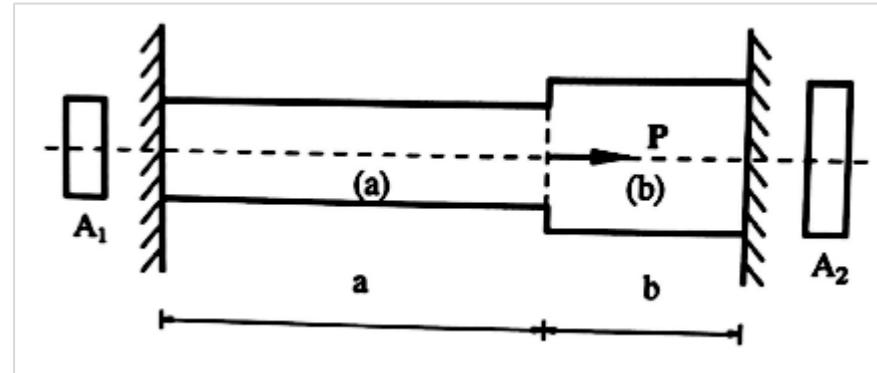
Finally, when the load P is unloaded to zero again, we obtain the residual stresses and strains as

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_1^* &= \sigma_2^* = -\frac{3}{5} \sigma_0, & \sigma_3^* &= \frac{3}{5} \sigma_0, & \varepsilon_1^* &= \varepsilon_2^* = -\frac{3}{5}, & \varepsilon_3^* &= -\frac{12}{5} \varepsilon_0 \\ u &= 0, & v &= -\frac{12}{5} L \varepsilon_0\end{aligned}$$

Stepped and Tapped Bar Problems

A fixed-end bar with two areas of cross-section is shown in Part a has an area A_1 and of length a, and Part b has an area A_2 and of length b. Assume $a > b$ and $A_2/A_1 > 1$. The bar is made of an elastic-perfectly plastic material with a yield stress σ_y , and is subjected to an axial force P at the intersection of the two parts. For the given loading path: $P = 0 \rightarrow P_p \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow P'_p$, where P_p and P'_p are the plastic limit loads in the initial loading and in the reversed loading, respectively

- Determine P_e and P_p in the initial loading;
- Determine the residual stresses and residual strains when P is unloaded to zero;
- Determine the elastic limit load P'_e and the plastic limit load P'_p in the reversed loading;
- For the case $A_2/A_1 = 2$ and $a = 2b$, plot curves for P vs. u, σ_a vs. P, and σ_b vs. P.



Solved problems 2(2)

Solution:

Basic Equations

The equilibrium and compatibility equations are

$$\sigma_a - \alpha \sigma_b = \frac{P}{A_1}, \quad a \epsilon_a + b \epsilon_b = 0$$

where $\alpha = A_2/A_1$.

Elastic Solution

Combining the above equations with the elastic stress-strain relation, the elastic solution for stresses is obtained as

$$\sigma_a = \frac{b}{b + \alpha a} \frac{P}{A_1}, \quad \sigma_b = -\frac{a}{b + \alpha a} \frac{P}{A_1}$$

Initial Loading

Since $|\sigma_b| > |\sigma_a|$, the plastic flow starts in Part b at Point A. The elastic limit load is then obtained as

$$\frac{P_e}{A_1} = (\alpha + \frac{b}{a}) \sigma_y$$

The plastic limit load at Point B is also easily obtained as

$$\frac{P_p}{A_1} = (1 + \alpha) \sigma_y$$

Unloading

Using the elastic solution, the residual stresses and strains after the load P is unloaded to zero are obtained as (Point C)

$$\sigma_a^* = \frac{\alpha(a-b)}{b+\alpha a} \sigma_y > 0, \quad \sigma_b^* = \frac{(a-b)}{b+\alpha a} \sigma_y > 0$$

$$\epsilon_a^p = 0, \quad \epsilon_b^p = -(\frac{a}{b} - 1) \epsilon_y$$

The plastic limit load at Point B is also easily obtained as

$$\frac{P_p}{A_1} = (1 + \alpha) \sigma_y$$

Unloading

Using the elastic solution, the residual stresses and strains after the load P is unloaded to zero are obtained as (Point C)

$$\sigma_a^* = \frac{\alpha(a-b)}{b+\alpha a} \sigma_y > 0, \quad \sigma_b^* = \frac{(a-b)}{b+\alpha a} \sigma_y > 0$$

$$\epsilon_a^p = 0, \quad \epsilon_b^p = -(\frac{a}{b} - 1) \epsilon_y$$

$$\epsilon_a^* = \frac{\alpha(a-b)}{b+\alpha a} \epsilon_y > 0, \quad \epsilon_b^* = -\frac{\alpha a(a-b)}{b(b+\alpha a)} \epsilon_y$$

Reversed Loading

Using the elastic solution and the expressions of residual stresses, stresses during the reversed loading are expressed as

$$\sigma_a = \frac{\alpha(a-b)}{b+\alpha a} \sigma_y + \frac{b}{b+\alpha a} \frac{\Delta P}{A_1}$$

$$\sigma_b = \frac{(a-b)}{b+\alpha a} \sigma_y - \frac{a}{b+\alpha a} \frac{\Delta P}{A_1}$$

where ΔP is the incremental load. From the above expressions, we see that Part b yields first in the reversed loading. The elastic limit load and the plastic limit load in reversed loading are obtained as

$$\frac{P'_e}{A_1} = (1 - \alpha - 2 \frac{b}{a}) \sigma_y \quad (\text{Point D})$$

$$\frac{P'_p}{A_1} = -(1 + \alpha) \sigma_y \quad (\text{Point E})$$

For $A_2/A_1 = 2$ and $a = 2b$, the P vs. u curve is plotted in Fig. S1.16a, and the σ_a, σ_b vs. P curves are plotted in Fig. S1.16b.

Plastic limit load and displacement-force relation

A cantilever made of elastic-ideal plastic material (steel) is loaded as shown in the figure. The cross-section is rectangular with thickness of half of its height. Assume that lateral buckling is prevented.

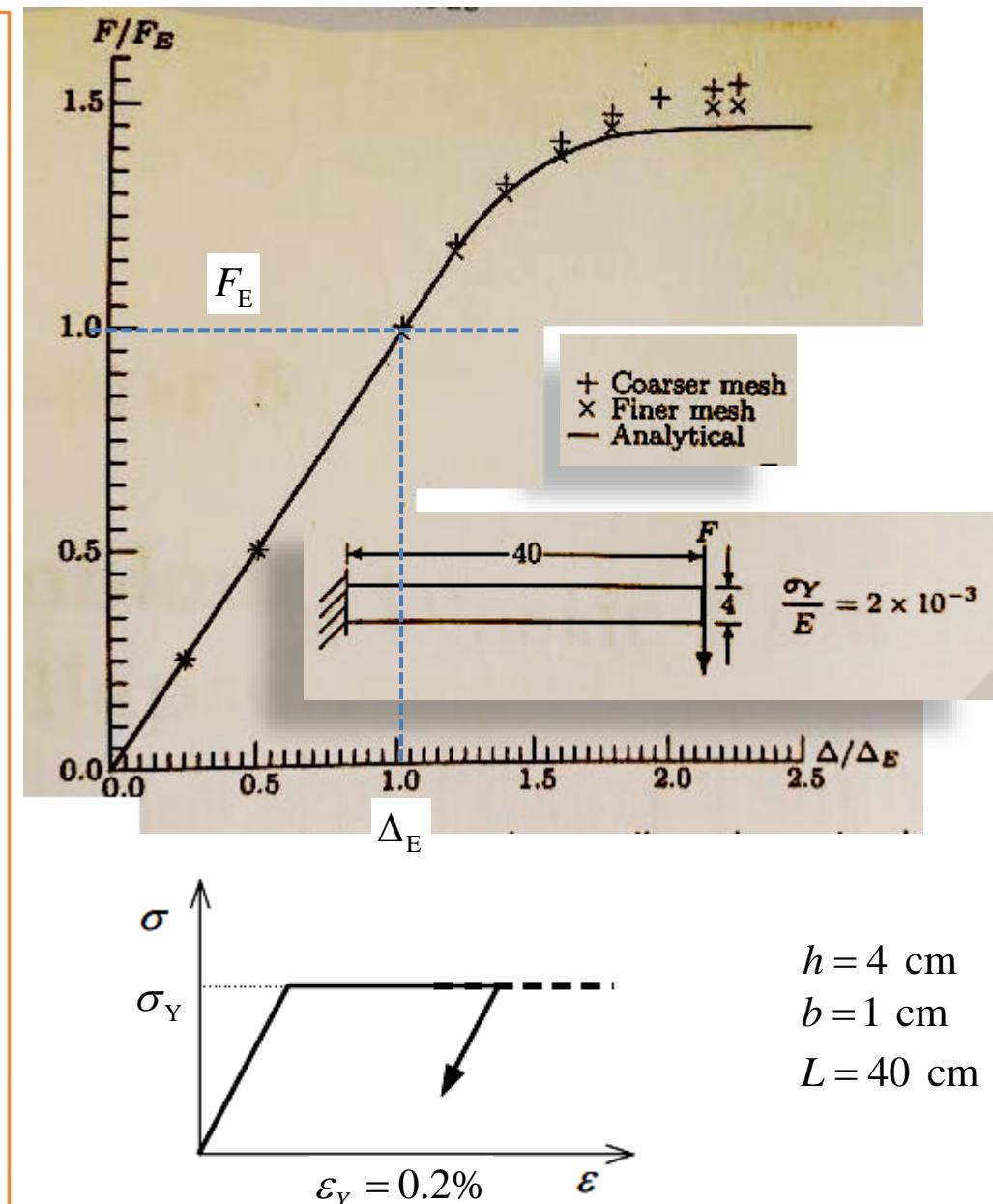
Determine the displacement-force relation for a load increasing from zero to the ultimate load and find the ultimate load.

Further, unload completely and determine the residual tip displacement. Draw the full loading-unloading displacement diagram.

Determine the residual stress distribution

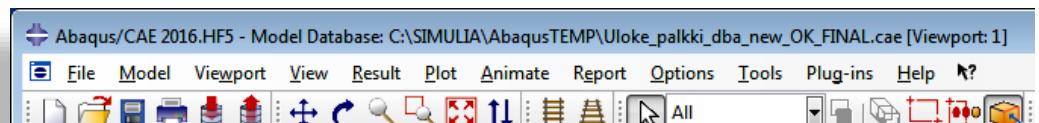
Solve the problem analytically** and using Abaqus.

Abaqus: Show the evolution of the regions of extend of the plastic deformation between loading and complete-unloading.



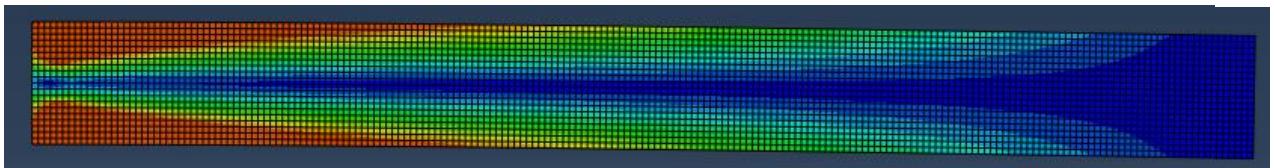
Elastic-perfectly plastic material behaviour symmetric for compression.

** at least the loading phase till plastic collapse was treated in details in your first master's course of structural mechanics (beams and frames)



Plane stress

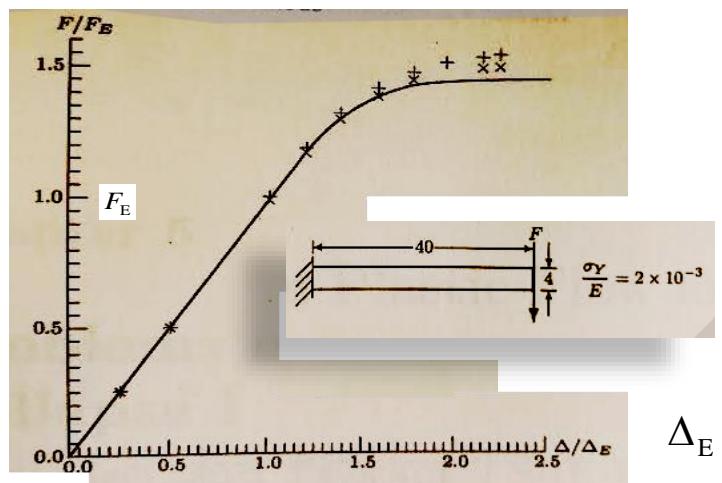
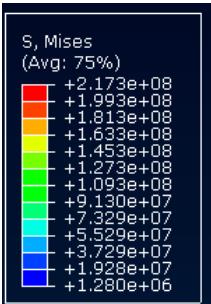
Load increment step 0.7533 (of 1)



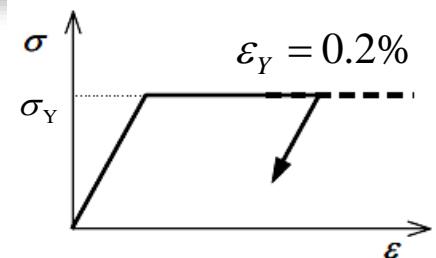
BC all dofs fixed



Load increment step 0.2875 (of 1)

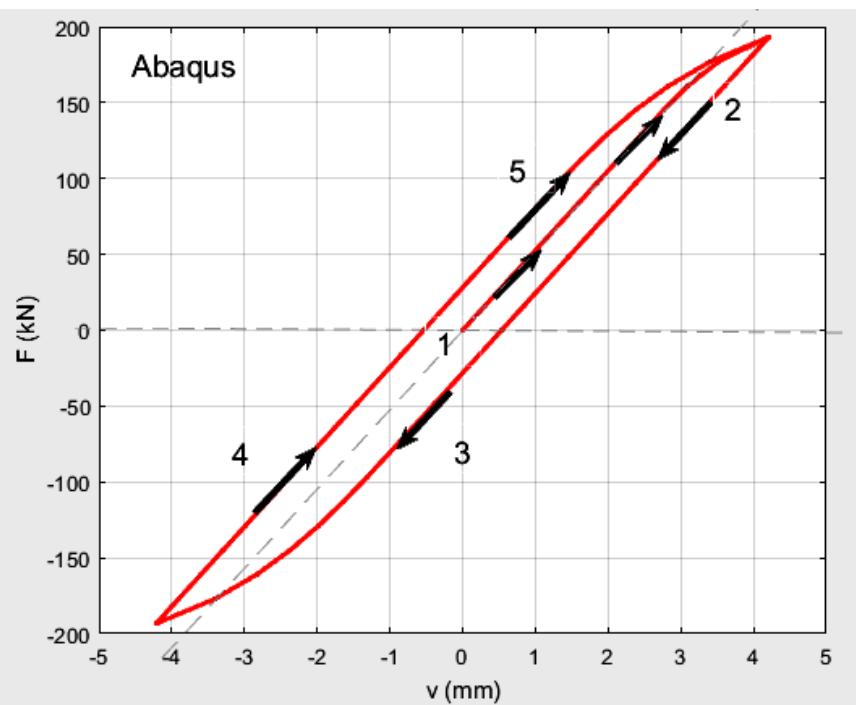


$$F = -F_p$$

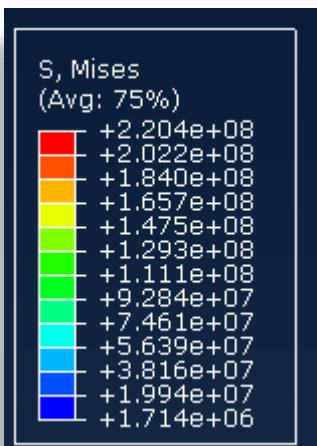


$$L = 40 \text{ cm } b = 1 \text{ cm } h = 4 \text{ cm}$$

$$F = F_p$$



$$F_p = 200\text{kN}$$

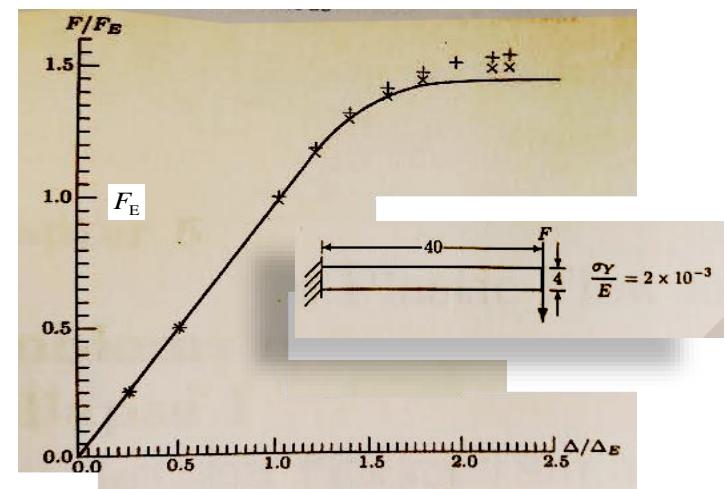
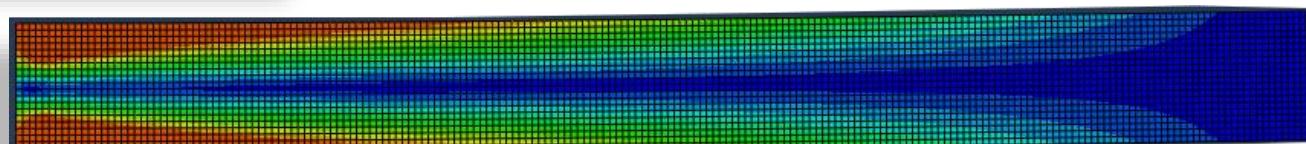


Student: Compare to analytical solution. For the elasto-plastic phase we have

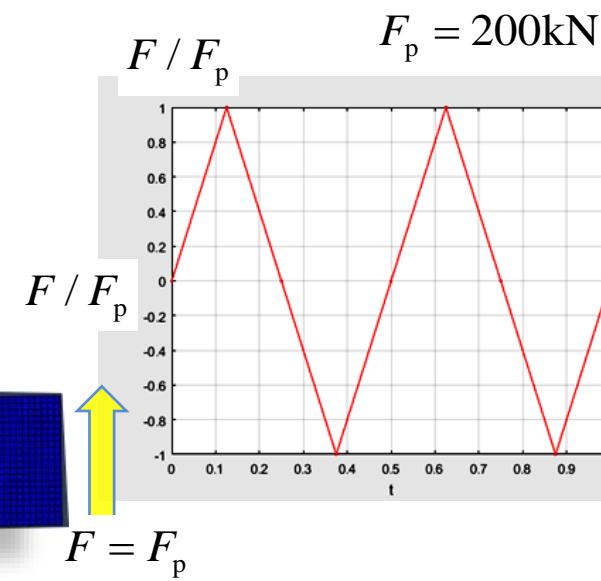
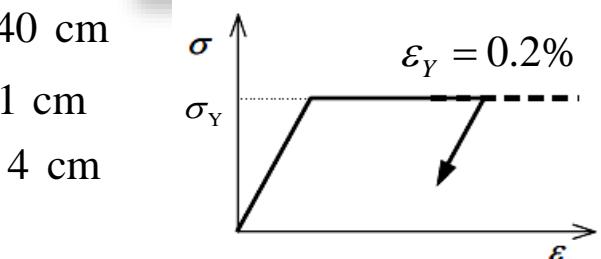
$$\Delta = \Delta_m \left(\frac{P_m}{P} \right)^2 \left[5 - \left(3 + \frac{P}{P_m} \right) \sqrt{3 - 2 \frac{P}{P_m}} \right].$$

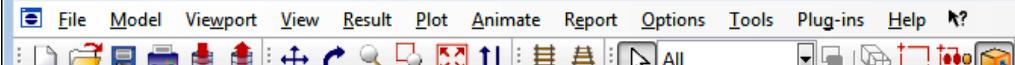
$$v_{el.beam} \approx 2.5\text{mm} \quad \Delta_E$$

Load increment step 0.155 (of 1)



$$\begin{aligned} L &= 40 \text{ cm} \\ b &= 1 \text{ cm} \\ h &= 4 \text{ cm} \end{aligned}$$

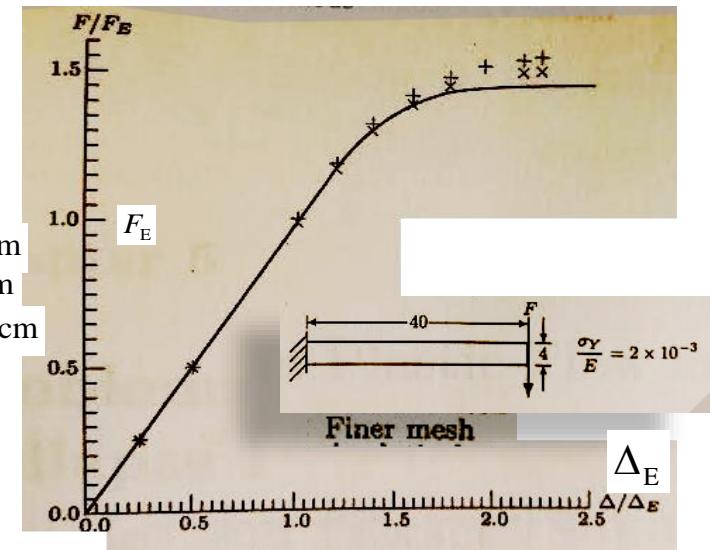
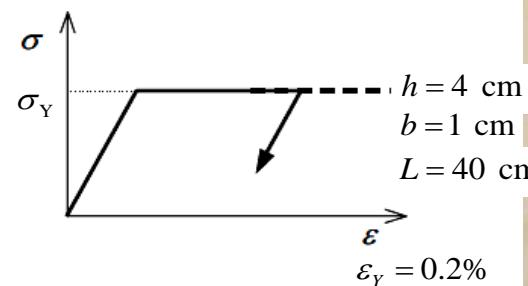
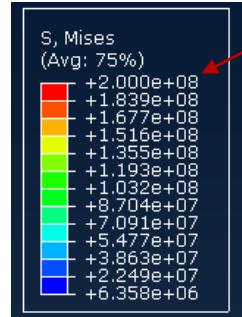




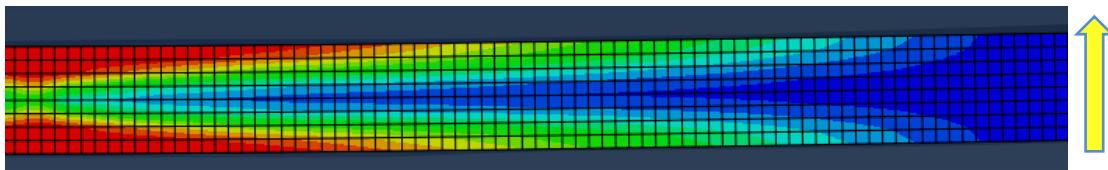
Uloke_palkki_dba_new_OK.cae

 $t = 0.25$

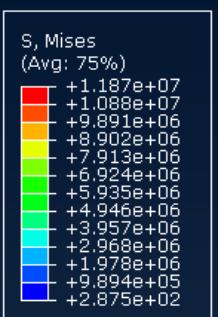
$\sigma_Y = 200 \text{ MPa}$



$t = 0.25, F = F_p$



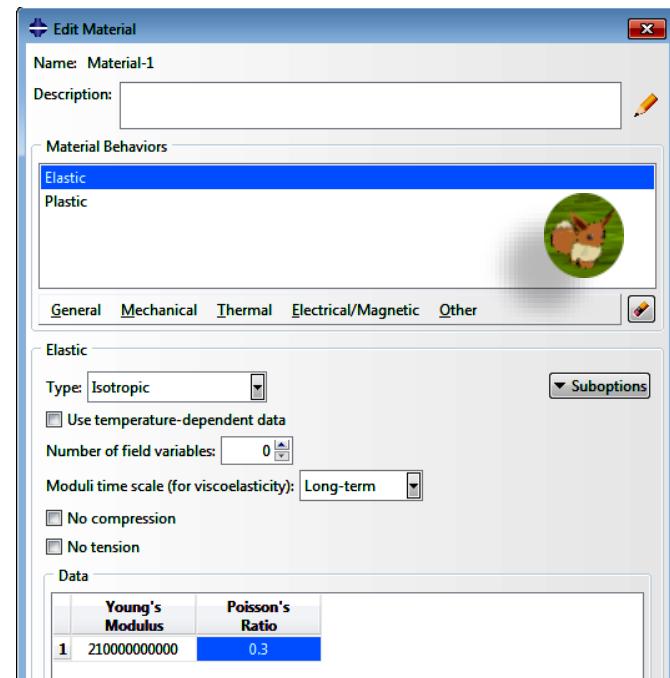
$F = F_p$

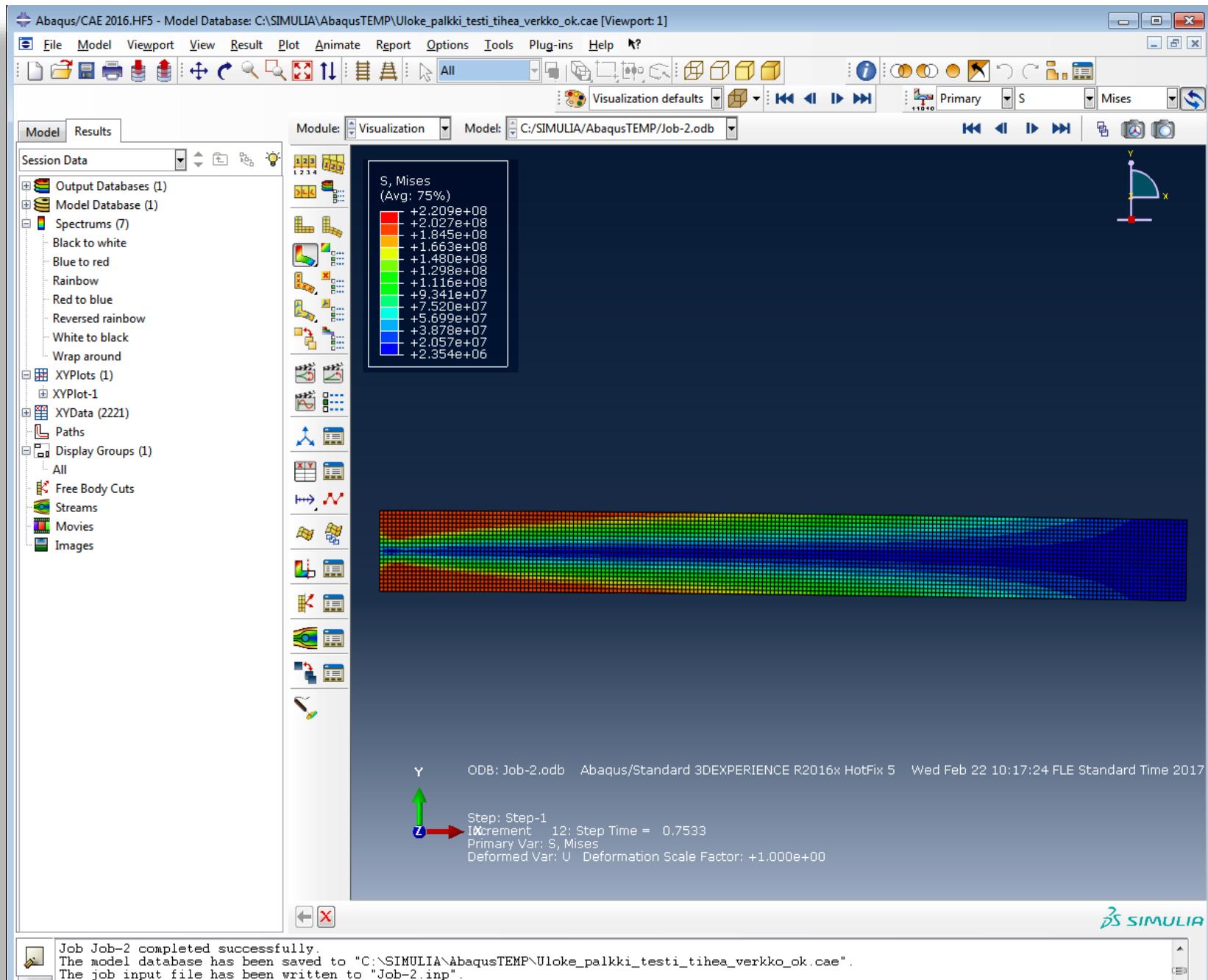


$t = 0.5, F = 0$

Residual stresses on complete 1st unloading

$F = 0$





Engineering Plasticity

Classical theory - fundamentals

When going beyond the ‘tiny’ domain of elasticity of a material the deformation process becomes often irreversible.

There are many sources for irreversibility such as brittle fracture, fracture, plasticity, damage, aging, etc..

In previous courses you’ve come familiar with elastic stability of structures. Such phenomenon represents a geometrical non-linearity behavior.

In plasticity, we will explore the material response far beyond the elastic range and go...

In the present course, you will come familiar with another aspect of non-linearity since Plasticity corresponds to a material non-linearity

‘tiny’ domain
of elasticity

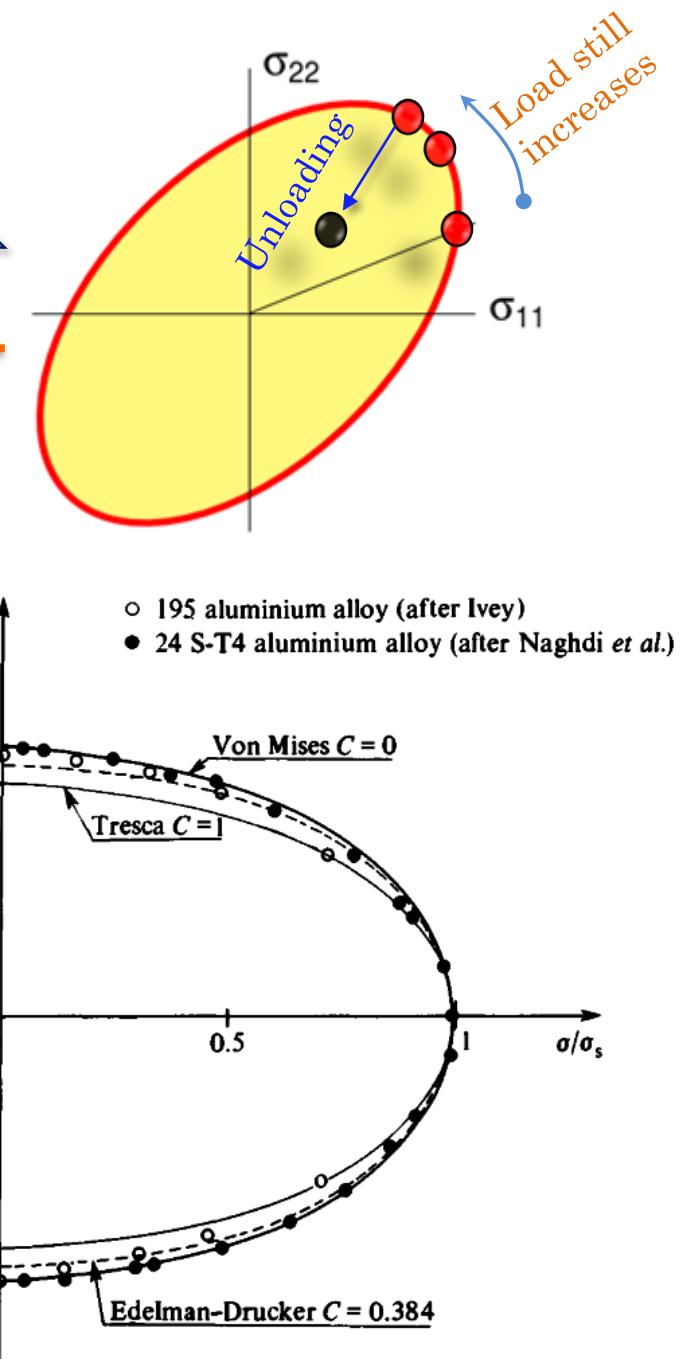
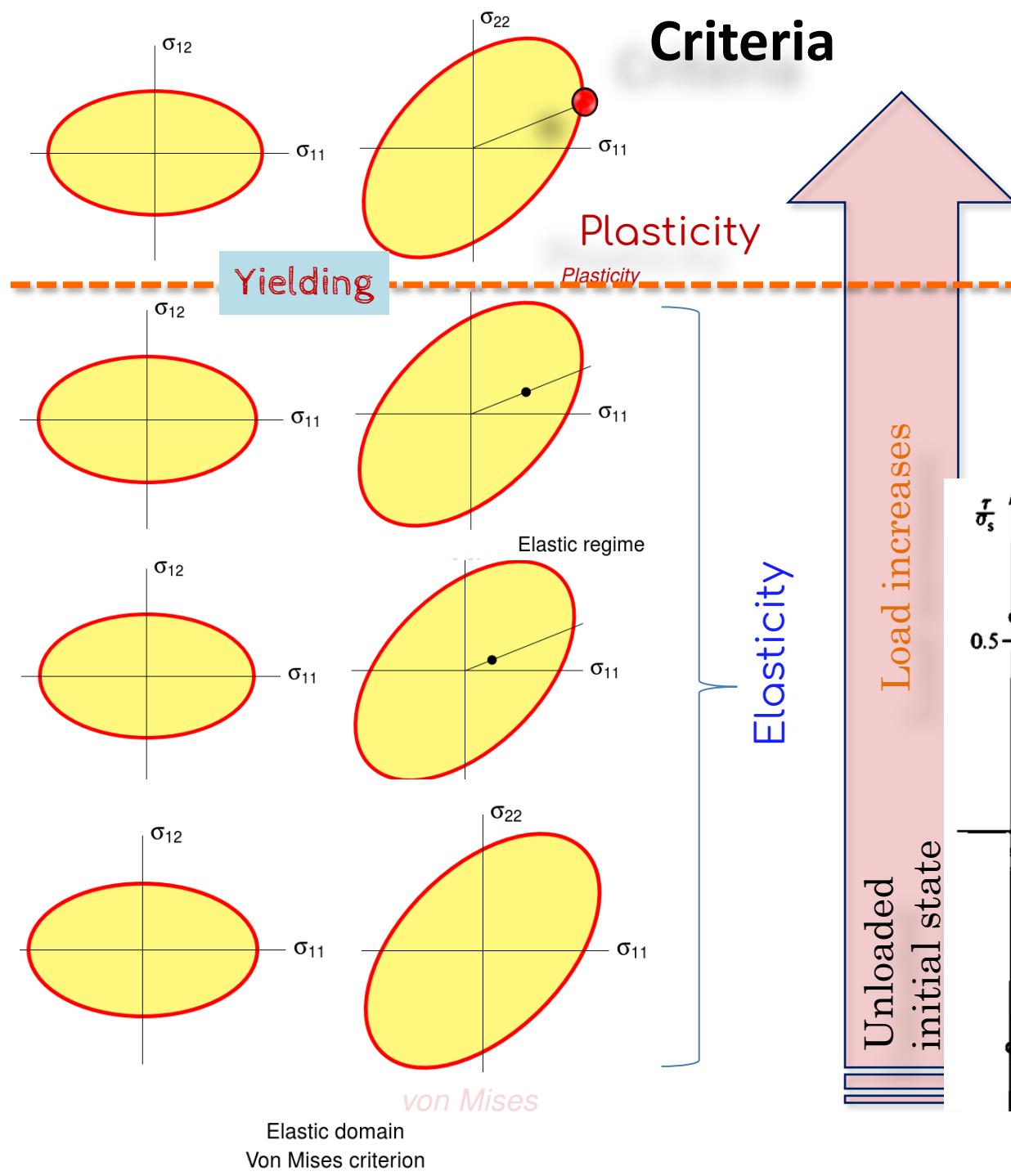
$$|\varepsilon_{\text{elastic}}| \leq 10^{-3}$$

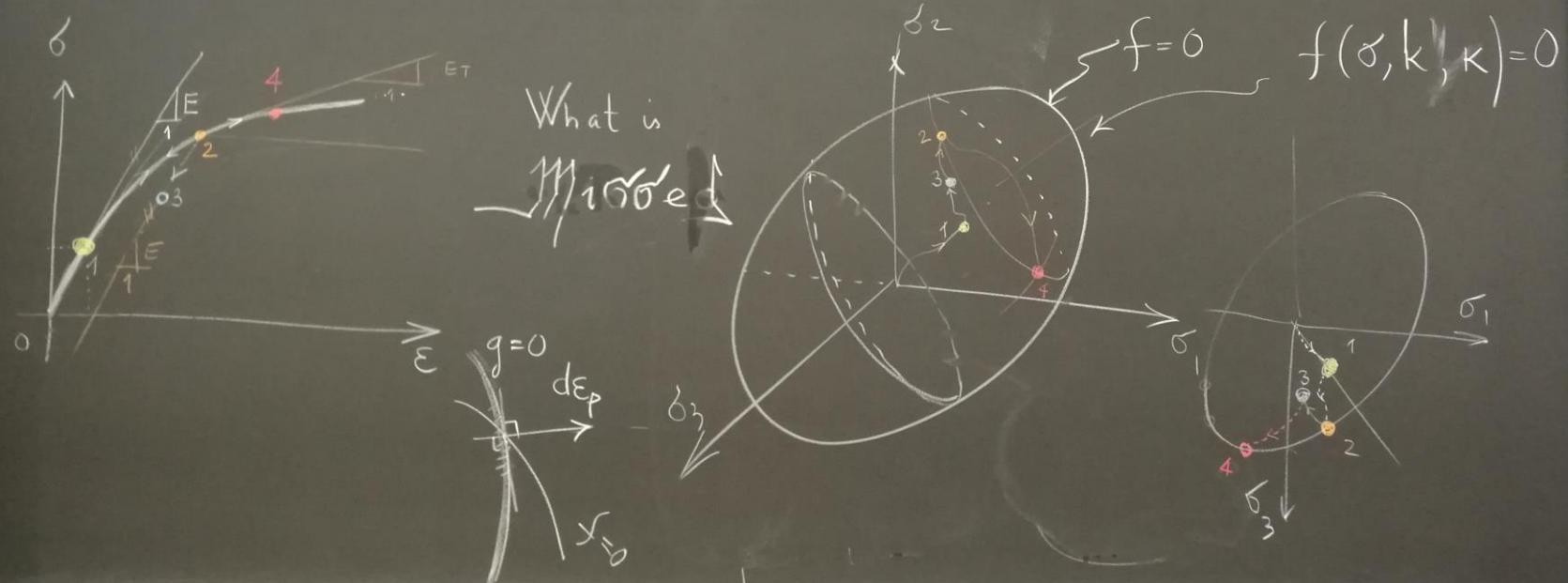
Plastic domain
 $\sim 10 - 20 \times |\varepsilon_{\text{elastic}}|$



GO ... Where no man has gone before

Criteria

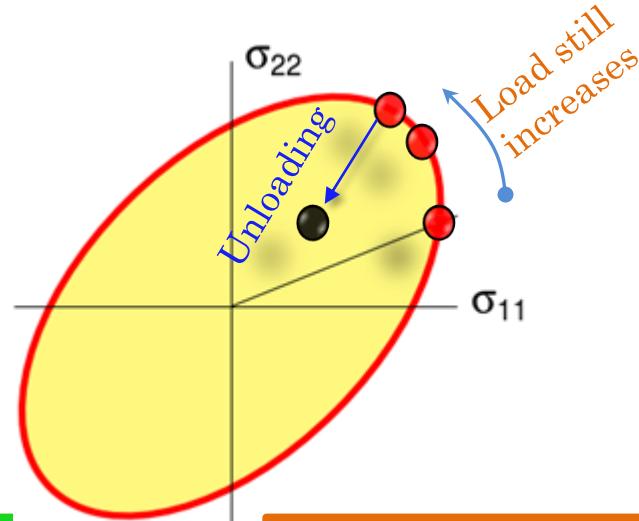




$$f(\sigma, k, \kappa) = 0$$

Plastic threshold Hardening parameter

Plasticity in short



- $\epsilon = \epsilon^e + \epsilon^p$ Strain decomposition
- $f(\sigma, k, \kappa) = 0$ Yield criteria
- $\Delta\epsilon^p = \dots$ Flow rule
- $\Delta\kappa = \dots$ Hardeningrule

How to compute?

$$\Delta\epsilon^p$$
$$\Delta\kappa$$

$$f(\sigma, k, \kappa) = 0$$

Plastic threshold

$$f(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3; \kappa_1, \kappa_2, \dots, \kappa_n) = 0$$

Hardening parameter

internal parameters

or in terms of stress invariants (usually)

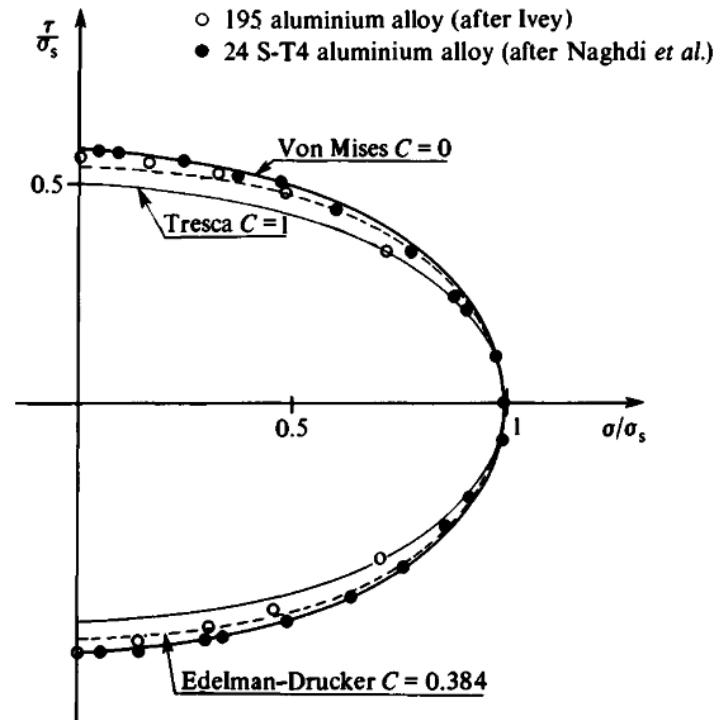
$$I_1, J_2 \text{ & } \cos(3\theta)$$

The three ingredients of engineering plasticity theory

- Yielding criteria myötöehto
- Flow rule myötösääntö
- Hardening rule lujittumisehto

$$f(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, k; \kappa) = 0$$

or in terms of stress invariants (usually)
 $I_1, J_2 \text{ & } \cos(3\theta)$



or also expressed in terms of stress invariants I_1, J_2 and J_3 instead of principle stresses. The threshold stress $k = k(\kappa)$ can depend on some internal parameter κ , like cumulated effective plastic strain or plastic work, is yield stress σ_y in uni-axial tension or τ_y yield shear stress in pure shear test.

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Firstly *three ingredients* is not related to *la haute cuisine* but is an imaged saying for the *three sub-models* needed in the constitutive model involved during plastic flow. These sub-models can also be combined. These sub-models will tell you, depending on the material, the actual stress state, the history of plastic deformations, will the considered material point yield or remain elastic? If it yields then what will be the resulting additional plastic increment. That's all. Now, the complexity arises from the fact that the yielding criteria, usually, evolves with subsequent plastic deformations, so it depends on the history. In other word, the mechanical problem is simply *materially non-linear*.

⁸I have the convinced feeling that the complexity in model such plasticity, time-independent-plasticity, is the result of this restriction itself: the evolution problem is set as an non-evolution problem giving rise to inequality constraints in the formulation, for the process of plastic flow. I think, that this complexity should be simplified by re-giving the plastic flow it's time dimension and formulating it's as an evolutionary physical process which depends on time. Now probably, we will face an other difficulty rising from the the new time-scales introduced to the mechanical problem. These new time-scales may be order of magnitude shorter than the time-scales of the macroscopical processes related to observed deformations. However, this is worth to investigate. Introduce more physics, and please, time dependent physics.

Here we mean time-independent plasticity under isothermal processes. So, the temperature is constant and should not activate the creep; so $T \leq T_m/4$, where T_m being the melting temperature. When this is not the case, this results in thermally activated creep and leads to one type of time dependent plasticity.

The three ingredients of engineering plasticity theory

- **Yielding criteria:** $f(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, k; \kappa) = 0$

The yield function can also be expressed in terms of stress invariants I_1 , J_2 and J_3 instead of principle stresses. The threshold stress $k = k(\kappa)$ can depend on some internal parameter κ , like cumulated effective plastic strain or plastic work, is yield stress σ_y in uni-axial tension or τ_y yield shear stress in pure shear test.

Note that in simple words, the yield criterion given by $f = 0$ is in general, *non-linear*. This non-linearity results not only from the fact that for many materials the plasticity threshold k depends on history and evolves $k = k(\sigma, \kappa)$ but also, the internal parameters, here the plastic deformations, depend also on history even in time independent plasticity. For instance, in some metals, the Bauschinger effect, means that the yield thresholds are changed by *cold forming* due to plastic deformations in cyclic loading.

- **Flow rule** $d\epsilon_{ij}^{(P)} = \lambda \cdot \partial f / \partial \sigma_{ij}$ for associative response. This rule expresses normality of the plastic increment which is proportional to the gradient $\nabla_{\sigma} f$ in the principle stress space. For many metals normality expresses the incompressibility of the plastic flow (the volumetric part of the plastic deformation is zero). For non-associative case, like friction materials (concrete, soils, . . .) the *normality rule* does not hold and then $d\epsilon_{ij}^{(P)} = \lambda \cdot \partial g / \partial \sigma_{ij}$. The function g has to be specified. Usually, the function g is 'close to the yield function f because the departure from normality is often not huge.
- **Hardening rule** – defines how the yielding or loading surface evolves during the course of evolution of plastic flow.

The Three Ingredients of the Classical Plasticity Theory

$$\text{Total deformation increment } d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{(p)} + d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{(e)}$$

Plastic strain increment

Elastic strain increment

- 1. Initial yield surface** – also called a *loading surface*
- defines, in stress space, the stress level (*i.e.*, the combination of stress components) at which yielding occurs
- 2. Hardening rule** – defines *how the yielding or loading surface evolves* during the course of plastic flow
- 3. Flow rule** – defines the direction of the incremental plastic deformation *by postulating a plastic potential*. More precisely, defines an incremental plastic strain-stress relation.

$$d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{D}^{ep} d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

Elastic-plastic material stiffness (non-linear)

The exact form should be derived using the *consistency condition* (see later)

a plastic potential

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{(p)} = d\lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}}$$

positive scalar

Three ingredients of plasticity models

classical

If stresses or strains exceed a certain limit, plastic **yielding** may be observed especially in metallic and ductile materials

$$\sigma = C : \varepsilon^e = C : (\varepsilon - \varepsilon^p)$$

$$d\varepsilon = d\varepsilon^e + d\varepsilon^p$$

$$\dot{\varepsilon} = \dot{\varepsilon}^e + \dot{\varepsilon}^p$$

$$\dot{\varepsilon}^{(p)} = \dot{\lambda} \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma}$$

g - plastic potential

Three ingredients of plasticity models: **Threshold**, **plastic flow** and **hardening**

1. **Yield criteria** - myötöeho tai -funktio

$$F(\sigma_{ij}) = 0$$

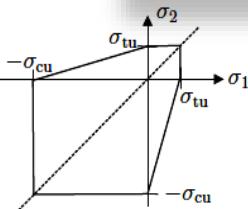
2. **Flow rule** - myötösääntö

$$d\varepsilon^p$$

3. **Hardening rule** – myötölujenemissääntö

The yield function may change due to plastic flow

Work hardening, also known as strain hardening or cold working, is the strengthening of a metal by plastic deformation which leads to subsequent modifications of the yield surface



ex. Failure surface: **Mohr-Coulomb** for biaxial stress states

A general yield surface:

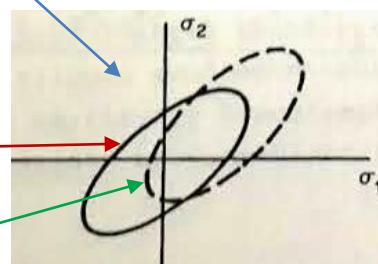
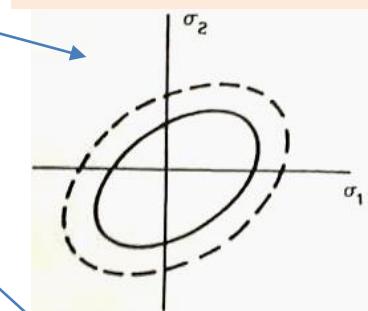
$$F(\sigma_{ij}, \varepsilon_{ij}^p; k(\varepsilon^p)) = 0,$$

Effective plastic strain
An increasing function
Threshold value
yield stress

Initial yield surface

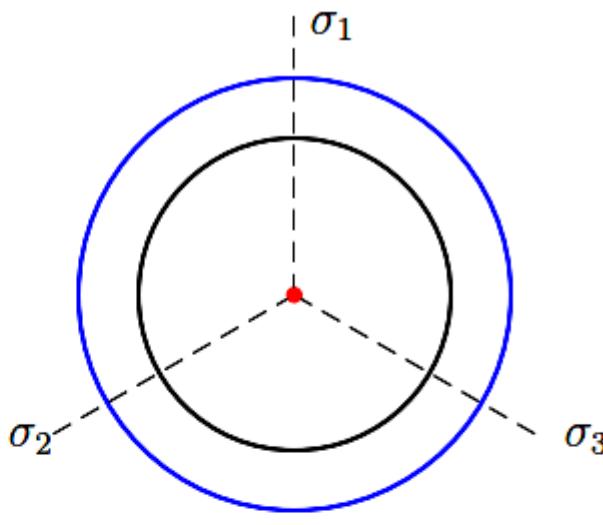
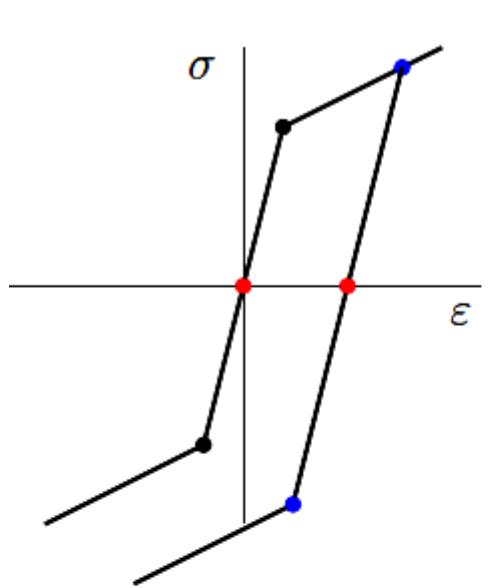
Subsequent yield surface after loading
The yield surface remains constant in size and it moves

Isotropic hardening

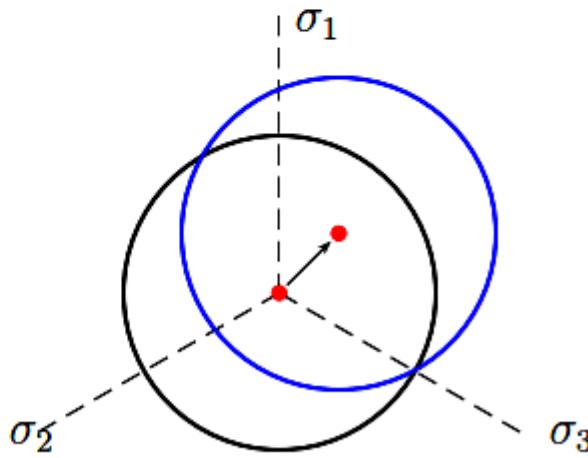
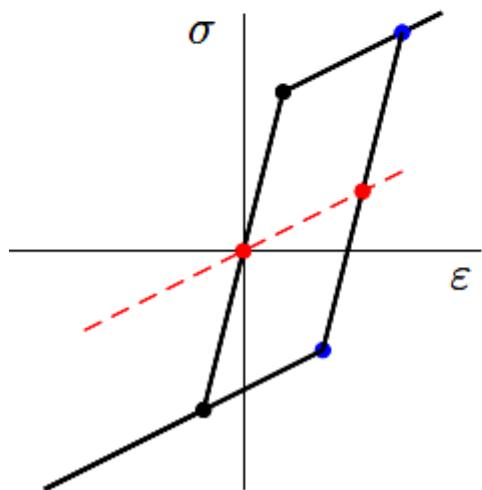


Kinematic hardening
(most metals)

Linear isotropic (above) and kinematic hardening.



isotropic hardening.

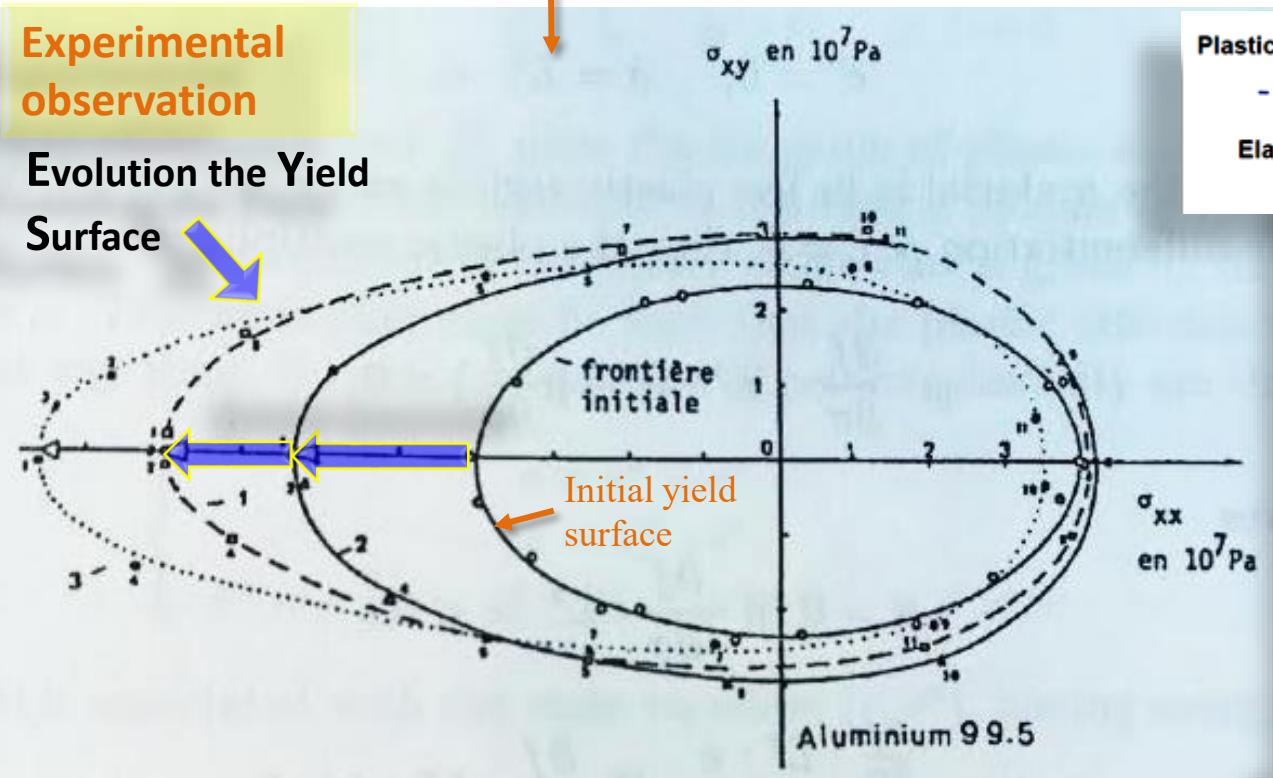


kinematic hardening.

Experimental Evidence of Evolution the Yield Surface for metals (Aluminum)

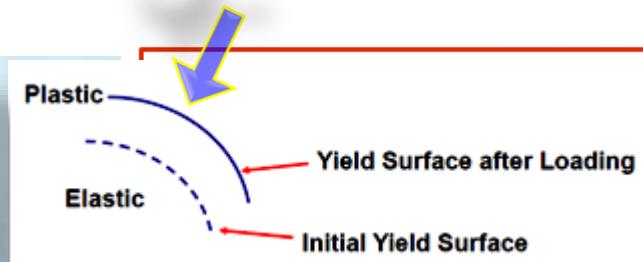
Experimental observation

Evolution the Yield Surface

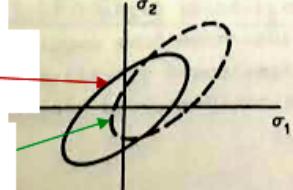
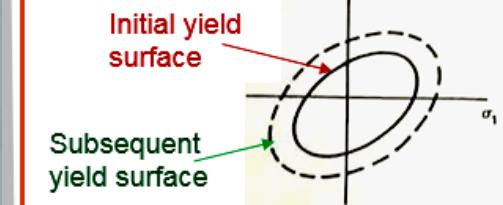


Evolution of the elastic domain with the plastic strain in a torsion-traction experiment of a thin aluminum tube, after Bui [34]. Reproduced by permission of the author.

Evolution the Yield Surface



Isotropic hardening



Kinematic hardening (most metals)

Reference: GA. Maugin: *The thermomechanics of plasticity and fracture*. Cambridge (book).

The experiments: Bui H.D. (1970), Evolution de la frontière du domaine élastique des métaux avec écrouissage plastique

Mém. Artillerie Franc., Sci. Tech. Armement, 1, 141-65.

Hardening rule – myötölujenemissääntö

F

The yield function may change due to plastic flow

The hardening rule...

- describes how the yield surface changes (evolves) due to plastic deformation
- determines when the material will yield again in load continues or is reversed

A subsequent general yield surface:

$$F(\sigma_{ij}, \varepsilon_{ij}^p; k(\bar{\varepsilon}^p)) = 0,$$

Given an initial yield surface, the hardening rule defines its modifications during plastic flow:

Threshold value
A yield stress

effective plastic strain
An increasing function ... cumulated equivalent (deviatoric part) plastic strain

$$F(\sigma_{ij}, \varepsilon_{ij}^p; k(\bar{\varepsilon}^p)) = F(\sigma_{ij}, \varepsilon_{ij}^p) - k^2(\bar{\varepsilon}^p) = 0,$$

General form of a hardening rule

F determines the shape

determines the size

Isotropic hardening

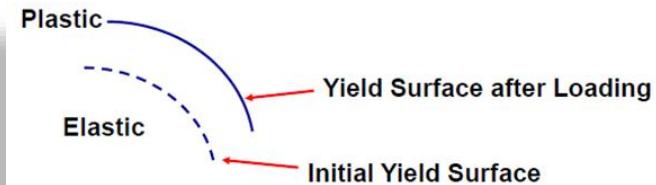
- The yield surface expands uniformly in size in all directions with the plastic flow

Kinematic hardening

- The yield surface remains constant in size and moves in the direction of yielding

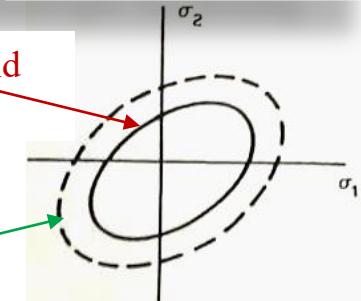
For instance, in the yield criterion on the plastic work

$$F(\sigma_{ij}; k(\kappa)) = 0 \quad \text{yield stress } \sigma_p \text{ depends on a kinematic parameter as } W_p = \int \sigma : d\varepsilon_p \quad \text{where } \kappa = \frac{1}{2} \int d\varepsilon_p : d\varepsilon_p \quad \text{equivalent plastic strain } \bar{\varepsilon}_p$$



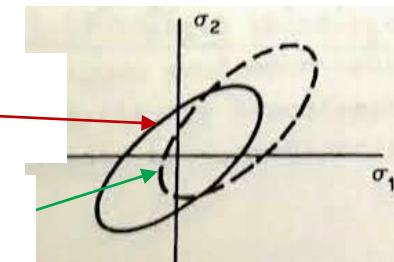
Isotropic hardening

Initial yield surface



Subsequent yield surface

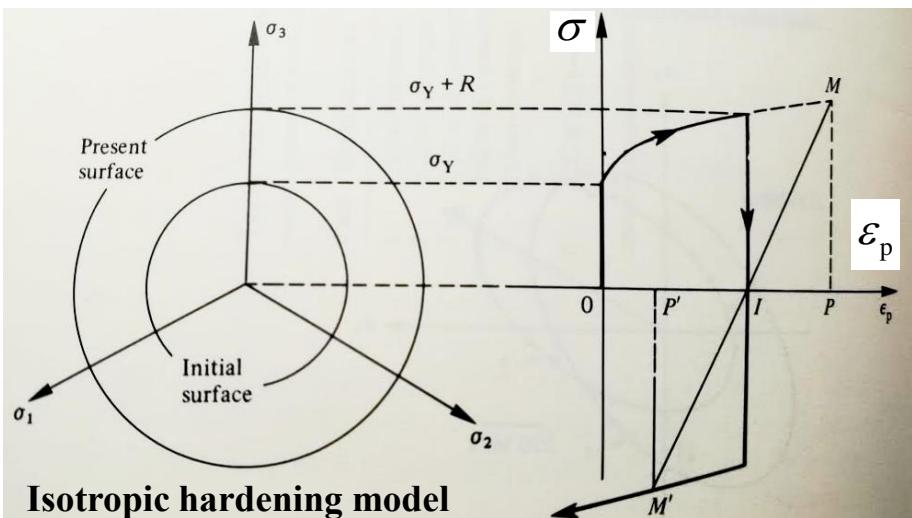
Initial yield surface



Subsequent yield surface after loading
yield surface remains constant in size and it moves

Kinematic hardening (most metals)

which depends for instance, on the plastic work

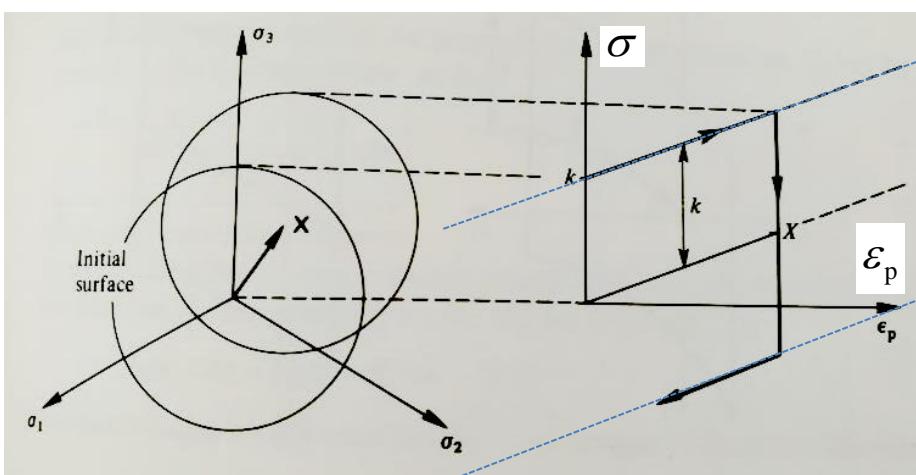
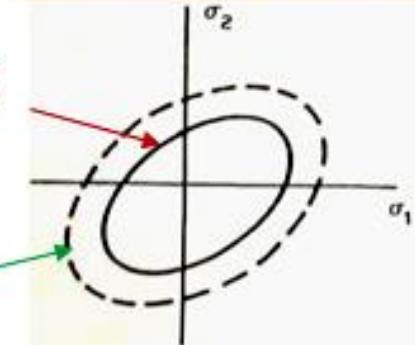


Isotropic hardening model

Isotropic hardening

Initial yield surface

Subsequent yield surface



Kinematic hardening model

**Kinematic hardening
(most metals)**

Some 1-D empirical models for work (also called strain-) hardening phenomena:

These models are relationship

$$\sigma = K \epsilon_p^n$$

between the stress and the amount
of plastic strain

$$\sigma = \sigma_y + K \epsilon_p^n \quad n \sim 0.2 \dots 0.5$$

$$\sigma = \sigma_y + K(\epsilon_0 + \epsilon_p)^n$$

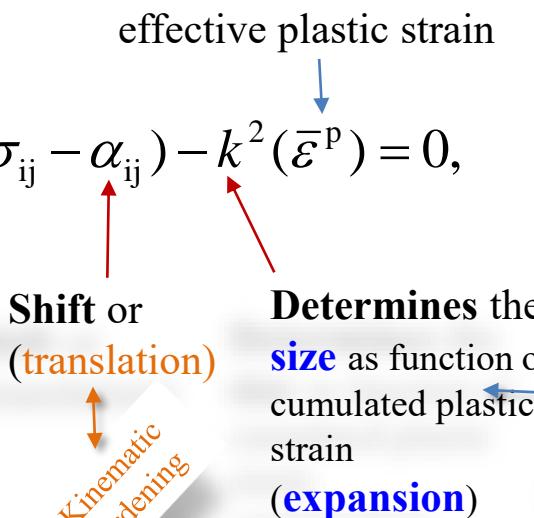
Mixed hardening rule

A subsequent yield surface:

$$F(\sigma_{ij}, \epsilon_{ij}^p; k(\epsilon_{ij}^p)) = F(\sigma_{ij} - \alpha_{ij}) - k^2(\bar{\epsilon}^p) = 0,$$

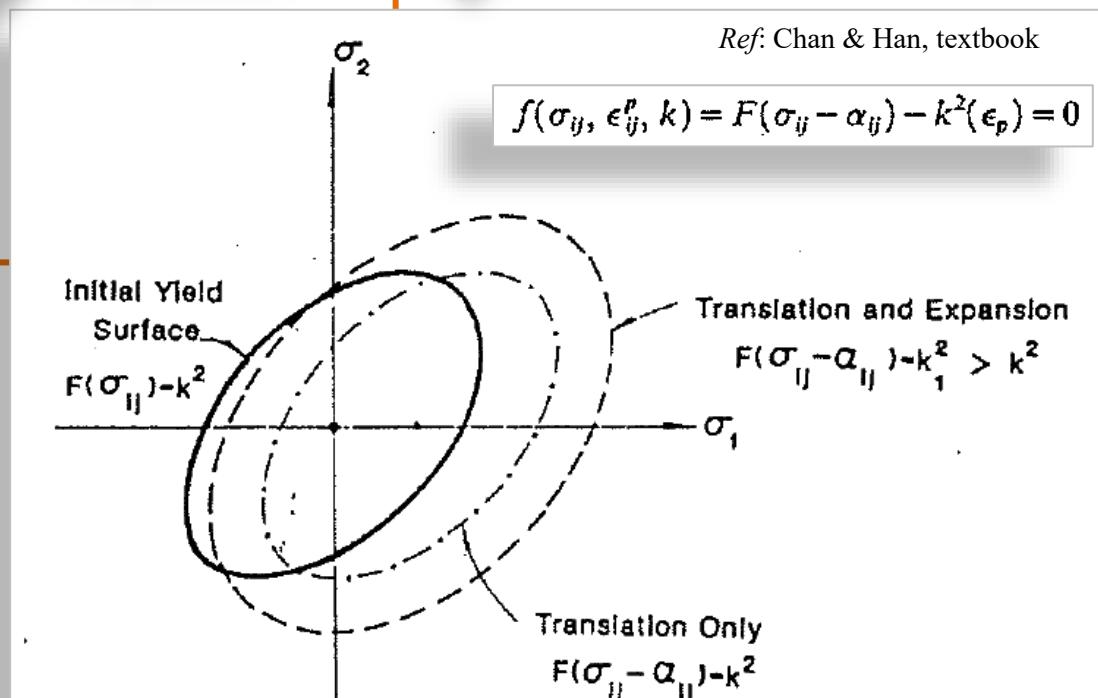
F determines
the **shape**

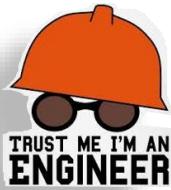
α_{ij}, k^2 - hardening parameters



Mixed hardening rule allows to model different degrees of Bauschinger effect by adjusting the two hardening parameters α_{ij} & k^2

Mixed hardening is a result of a combination of *kinematic* and *isotropic* hardening (Hodge, 1957)





Plasticity - Yield Criteria

Here we mean time-independent⁸ plasticity under isothermal processes. So, the temperature is constant and should not activate the creep; so $T \leq T_m/4$, where T_m being the melting temperature. When this is not the case, this results in thermally activated creep and leads to one type of time dependent plasticity.

Note that in simple words, the yield criterion given by $f = 0$ is in general, *non-linear*. This non-linearity results not only from the fact that for many materials the plasticity threshold k depends on history and evolves $k = k(\sigma, \kappa)$ but also, the internal parameters, here the plastic deformations, depend also on history even in time independent plasticity. For instance, in some metals, the Bauschinger effect, means that the yield thresholds are changed by *cold forming* due to plastic deformations in cyclic loading.

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The three ingredients of engineering plasticity theory

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- **Yielding criteria:** $f(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3, k; \kappa) = 0$

The yield function can also expressed in terms of stress invariants I_1 , J_2 and J_3 instead of principle stresses. The threshold stress $k = k(\kappa)$ can depend on some internal parameter κ , like cumulated effective plastic strain of plastic work, is yield stress σ_y in uni-axial tension or τ_y yield shear stress in pure shear test.

Note that in simple words, the yield criterion given by $f = 0$ is in general, *non-linear*. This non-linearity results not only from the fact that for many materials the plasticity threshold k depends on history and evolves $k = k(\sigma, \kappa)$ but also, the internal parameters, here the plastic deformations, depend also on history even in time independent plasticity. For instance, in some metals, the Bauschinger effect, means that the yield thresholds are changed by *cold forming* due to plastic deformations in cyclic loading.

- **Flow rule:** The flow rule is just a model to determine the increment of subsequent plastic strains. Classically, it is defined to be proportional to gradient $\nabla_{\sigma}f \equiv \partial f / \partial \sigma_{ij}$ of a scalar plastic potential f or g . The proportionality coefficient $d\lambda$ has to be determined by constraining the subsequent stress state resulting from this increment of plastic deformation to remain on the yield surface $f(\sigma) = 0$. This condition is known as *consistency* condition for the plastic flow.

$$d\epsilon^{(p)} = d\lambda \cdot \underbrace{\nabla_{\sigma}f}_{\equiv \mathbf{n}_f},$$

associative case = hydrostatic pressure insensitive

$$d\epsilon^{(p)} = d\lambda \cdot \underbrace{\nabla_{\sigma}g}_{\equiv \mathbf{n}_g},$$

non-associative case = hydrostatic pressure sensitive

For hydrostatic pressure insensitive materials, like metals, the plastic potential is directly given by the flow rule $f(\sigma) = 0$. For such materials the relative volume change resulting from plastic deformations is zero. Mathematically, this is equivalent to say that the increment of plastic deformations $d\epsilon^{(p)}$ is normal to the yield surface $f = 0$ as expressed by the relation $\mathbf{n}_f = \nabla_{\sigma}f$. This last relation is called *normal* flow rule. Normal means orthogonal. Now for hydrostatic pressure sensitive materials, like geo-materials, concrete, friction-materials, the material failure ('yield') is accompanied with a noticeable volume change due to rearrangements of the 'discrete' micro-structures. Mathematically speaking, the plastic strain increment is not any more *normal* to the yield function $f = 0$. There is a small deviation angle from it called *dilatation* or *dilatancy*. A new potential g , close to f , is constructed. Now the flow rule is again *normal* but expressed with respect to this new potential $g(\sigma) = 0$ as given by $\mathbf{n}_g = \nabla_{\sigma}g$. This was the story of the plastic flow.

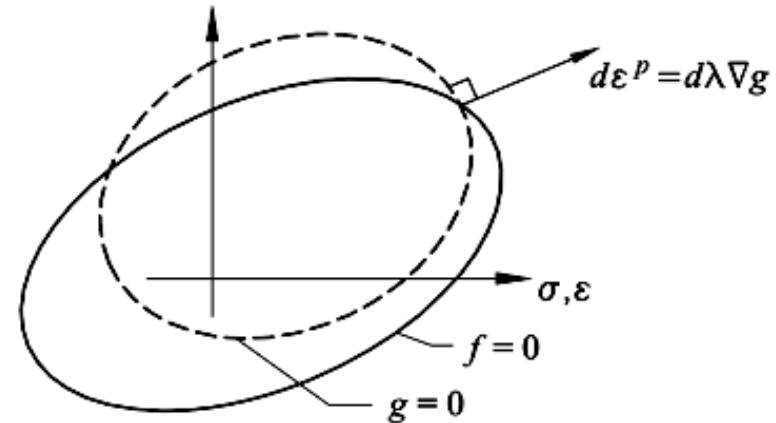
- **Flow rule:** The flow rule is just a model to determine the increment of subsequent plastic strains. Classically, it is defined to be proportional to gradient $\nabla_{\sigma}f \equiv \partial f / \partial \sigma_{ij}$ of a scalar plastic potential f or g . The proportionality coefficient $d\lambda$ has to be determined by constraining the subsequent stress state resulting from this increment of plastic deformation to remain on the yield surface $f(\sigma) = 0$. This condition is known as *consistency* condition for the plastic flow.

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$$d\epsilon^{(p)} = d\lambda \cdot \underbrace{\nabla_{\sigma}g}_{\equiv n_g},$$

non-associative case = hydrostatic pressure sensitive



- **Hardening rule** – defines how the yielding or loading surface evolves during the course of evolution of plastic flow.

Engineering Plasticity -

Yield Criteria

Pressure sensitive yield

For materials having pressure dependent yield as

Soils, sand, rocks, concrete,
granular materials, powders,...

Pressure insensitive yield

For materials, as metals, for instance, plastic yield independent of the hydrostatic pressure (for moderate pressures)

Isotropic yield criteria also known as *failure hypotheses*:

- Maximum Principal Stress Theory (Rankine)
 - Maximum Principal Strain Theory (St. Venant)
 - Maximum Shear Stress Theory (Tresca)
 - Maximum Distortion Energy Theory (von Mises)
-
- Mohr-Coulomb yield criterion
 - Drucker-Prager yield criterion

into details {

non-associative & associative flow laws

N.B. Depending on the specific application field, there exists an enormous amount of other three-dimensional failure or 'yield' criteria. They remain out of the scope of this course.

Pressure independent Yield criteria

- **Tresca yield criterion** – Maximum Shear Stress Theory
- **Von Mises yield criterion** – Maximum Distortion Energy Theory

Von Mises yield Criteria

$$\sqrt{J_2} = k \equiv \tau_Y \quad = \text{yield stress of the material under pure shear}$$

It looks very simple **formula**

Von Mises Yield criteria:

$$F = J_2 - k^2 = 0$$

or
equivalently $\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2} = \sigma_Y$

$$J_2 = k^2 \equiv \tau_Y^2$$

where k is the yield stress of the material in pure shear $k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3}$

yield in
uniaxial test

$$k \equiv \tau_Y = \text{yield stress under pure shear}$$

... however, let's start from the beginning and have some fundamentals and experimental observations on which the models are based and not only enumerating the various yield criteria

Von Mises and Tresca yield Criteria

- **Isotropic material:** the *yield criterion depends only on the stress invariants or equivalently on invariants of deviatoric stresses*

$$I_1, I_2, I_3 \quad I_1 \quad J_2, J_3$$

- **Hydrostatic stress** causes for many materials, especially **metals**, a purely elastic volumetric strains (plastic volumetric strains = 0, **incompressible, zero dilatancy**) → I_1 does not influence yielding (for not very high pressures)

$$I_1 \equiv \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) = \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3$$

The plastic volume change is called "dilatancy"

• Distortional energy	– Von Mises yield condition
• Maximum shear stress	– TRESCA yield condition
• Maximum Principal stress	– RANKINE (1820–1872), LAMÉ (1795–1870) & NAVIER (1785–1836)
• Maximum Principal strain	– SAINT-VENANT (1797–1886) & BACH (1889)
• Maximum strain energy	– BELTRAMI (1835–1900)
• Mohr-Coulomb hypothesis	... for granular and geological materials
• Octahedral shear Stress theory or Drucker-Prager hypothesis	- DRUCKER (1918–2001) & PRAGER (1903–1980) ... for granular and geological materials

Yield criteria - myötöeho tai -funktio

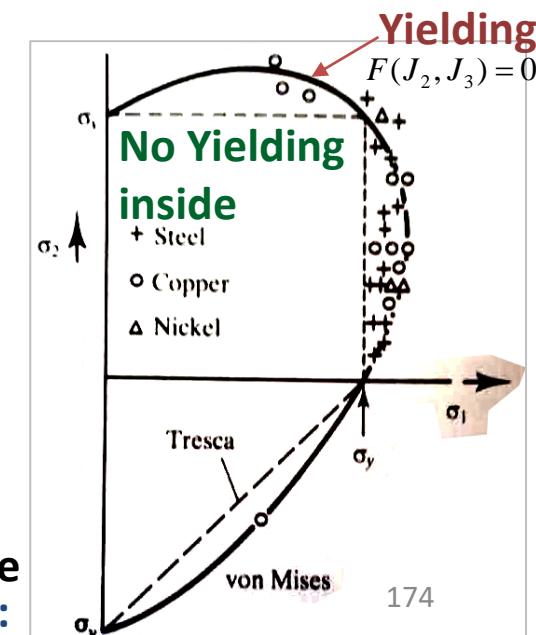
$$F(J_2, J_3) = 0$$

$$F(\sigma_{ij}) = 0$$

VON MISES
yield criterion

TRESCA
yield criterion

Experimental evidence
Von-Mises and Tresca:



Definitions

Vertailujännitys

Equivalent stress (effective stress or von Mises Stress):

It defines a uniaxial equivalent stress:
(Vertailujännitys)

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{3}{2} s_{ij} : s_{ij} = \frac{3}{2} \mathbf{s} : \mathbf{s} \equiv 3J_2$$

$$J_2 \equiv II_s = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{s} : \mathbf{s}, \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma} - p\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{s} \quad \text{deviator stress}$$

Definition: A three-dimensional stress state $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ or respectively \mathbf{s} is *equivalent* to one-dimensional stress state σ_e , (characterized by a material's **uniaxial** (1D) stress-strain curve $\sigma(\varepsilon)$), if their **second invariants** J_2 are equal (or equivalently, distortional elastic strain energies are equal)

3-D stress state: \mathbf{s}



1D- stress state:

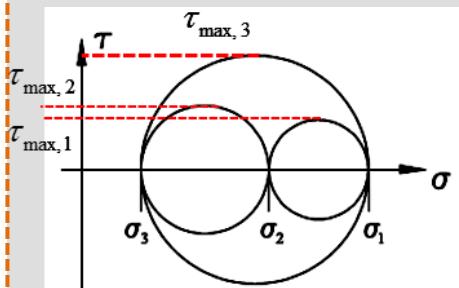
$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_e, \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = 0$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} J_2 = \frac{1}{6} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2] \\ \sigma_e^2 = 3J_2 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_e = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]} \quad (2)$$

Effective stress or Von Mises Stress – tehokasjännitys, vertailujännitys

NB. Both $\tau_{\max}(1)$ and $\sigma_e = 3/\sqrt{2} \cdot \tau_{\text{oct}}$ in (2) are shear stresses



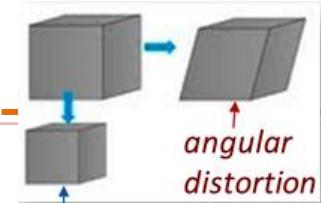
$$\tau_{\max} = \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_3 - \sigma_1| \quad (1)$$

$$- p\mathbf{I}$$

Yield, in metals or ductile materials, is *insensitive* to hydrostatic pressure p

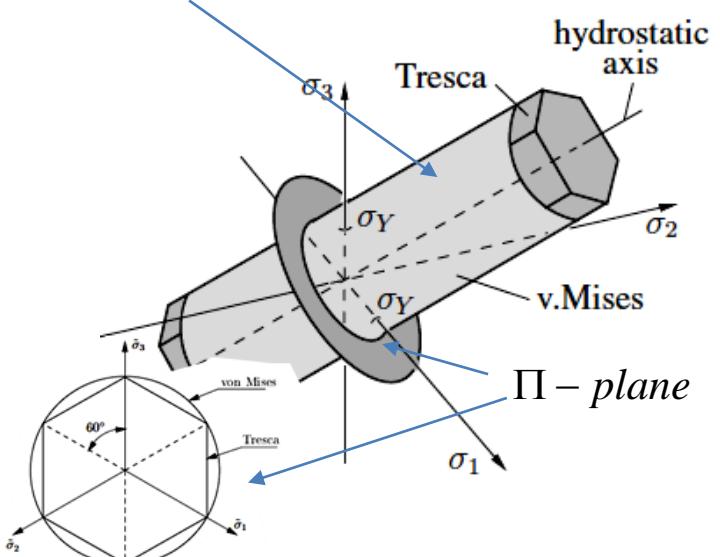
$$\begin{aligned} \tau_{\text{oct}} &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} J_2 \\ \tau_{\text{oct}} &= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} \sigma_e \end{aligned}$$

Von Mises yield Criterion (Distortional Energy Criteria)



- Failure or *yielding* occurs when equivalent stress $\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$ (Von Mises stress) reaches the *yield stress* k of the material $\sigma_e = \sigma_y$
- Equivalently, *yielding* occurs when the (maximum) distortional elastic strain energy of density U_G reaches a critical value which is a property of the material

cylindrical surface of radius of radius $\sqrt{2}k$ around hydrostatic axis $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \sigma_3$



Yield criteria - myötöehoito

$$F(\sigma; k) = J_2 - k^2 = 0$$

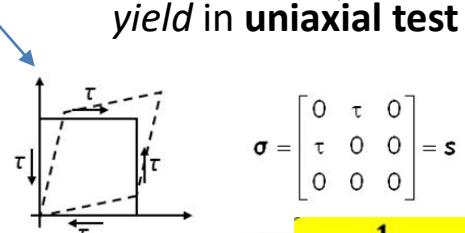
$$F = \frac{1}{6}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2] - k^2 = 0$$

k - yield stress $\equiv \tau_y$ in pure shear, $k = \sigma_y / \sqrt{3}$

$$U_G = \frac{J_2}{2G} = \frac{k^2}{2G}$$

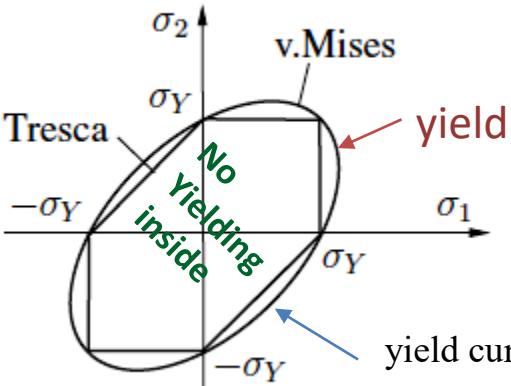
3D-stress state

Uniaxial stress state



$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \tau & 0 \\ \tau & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = s$$

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\sigma_y$$



Von-Mises criteria is also known as maximum octahedral shear stress criterion

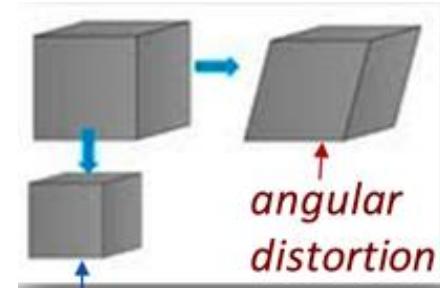
$$J_2 = \frac{3}{2}\tau_{oct}^2$$

octahedral shear stress

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{6}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]$$

Distortional Energy Criteria:

Yielding will occur when the ***distortion energy*** in a unit volume of the material equals the distortion energy in the same volume which is uniaxially stressed till yielding occurs



Von Mises Yield criteria:

$$F = J_2 - k^2 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$F = \frac{1}{6}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2] - k^2 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\tau_Y \equiv k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3}$$

yield in
uniaxial test

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]} = k = \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sqrt{3}}$$

von Mises
equivalent stress

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_e = \sigma_Y \quad \text{yielding criteria}$$

The material yields when **von Mises equivalent stress exceeds** the uniaxial material yield strength

$$\sigma_e$$

$$\sigma_e = \sigma_Y$$

Von Mises yield Criterion

Yield criterion:

$$F(\sigma, k) = J_2 - k^2 = 0$$

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$$

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{6} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]$$

Special cases of the yield condition:

1-D tensile case: $\sigma_1 = \sigma_Y, \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = 0,$

$$F = \frac{1}{6} [\sigma_1^2 + (-\sigma_1)^2] - k^2 = 0 \Rightarrow k^2 = \frac{1}{3} \sigma_Y^2$$

$\sigma_Y \quad \Rightarrow k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3} \approx 0.577 \sigma_Y$

2-D plane stress state: when $\sigma_3 = 0$

Yield condition: $\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_1\sigma_2 + \sigma_2^2} = \sigma_Y$

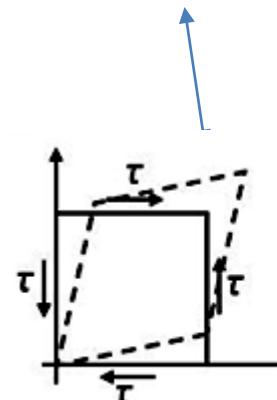
Or

$$\sqrt{\sigma_{xx}^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2} = \sigma_Y$$

when $\sigma_{yy} = 0,$

$$F = \frac{1}{6} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2] - k^2 = 0$$

k - yield stress $\equiv \tau_Y$ in pure shear, $k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3}$



yield in uniaxial test

$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \tau & 0 \\ \tau & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = s$$

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \sigma_Y$$

Effective stress or Von Mises Stress – tehokasjännitys, vertailujännitys:

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{3}{2} s_{ij} : s_{ij} = \frac{3}{2} s : s \equiv 3J_2$$

For instance, for an *isotropically hardening* material, the yield criterion becomes

$F(\sigma_{ij}, t)$ = 'Yield' or threshold parameter depends on some internal variable, a *kinematic variable* which depends for ex., on the plastic work

$W_p = \int \sigma : d\bar{\epsilon}_p'$ or other equivalent variables as the accumulated plastic deformations $\bar{\epsilon}_p = \int_0^{\epsilon_p} d\epsilon_e^p$

$$d\epsilon_e^p = \sqrt{2/3 d\epsilon_p : d\epsilon_p}$$

Von Mises yield Criterion - Distortional Energy Criteria

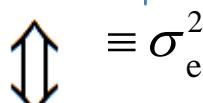
$$F = J_2 - k^2 = 0$$

Yield Function



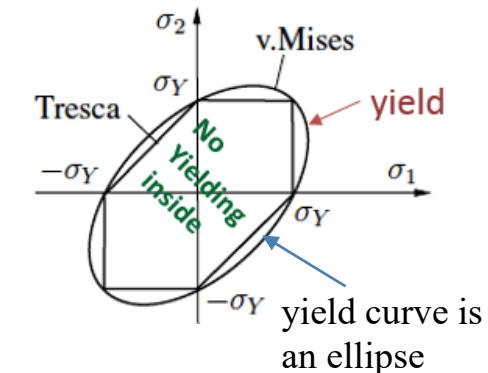
$$3k^2 = 3\sigma_Y^2 / 3 = \sigma_Y^2$$

Yield in uniaxial test



$$k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3} \equiv \tau_Y$$

Yield stress in pure shear



Yield Function in another equivalent form:

$$f = \frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2] - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$$

$$f = \sigma_e^2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$$

Definition of equivalent Von Mises stress:

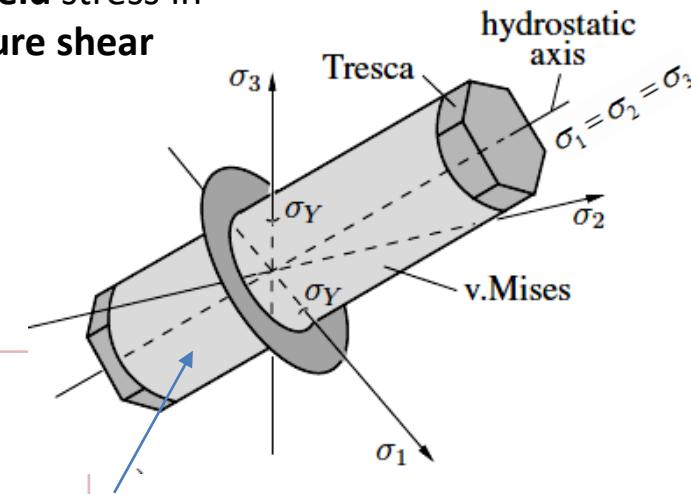
$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$$

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]}$$



$$f = \sigma_e^2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$$

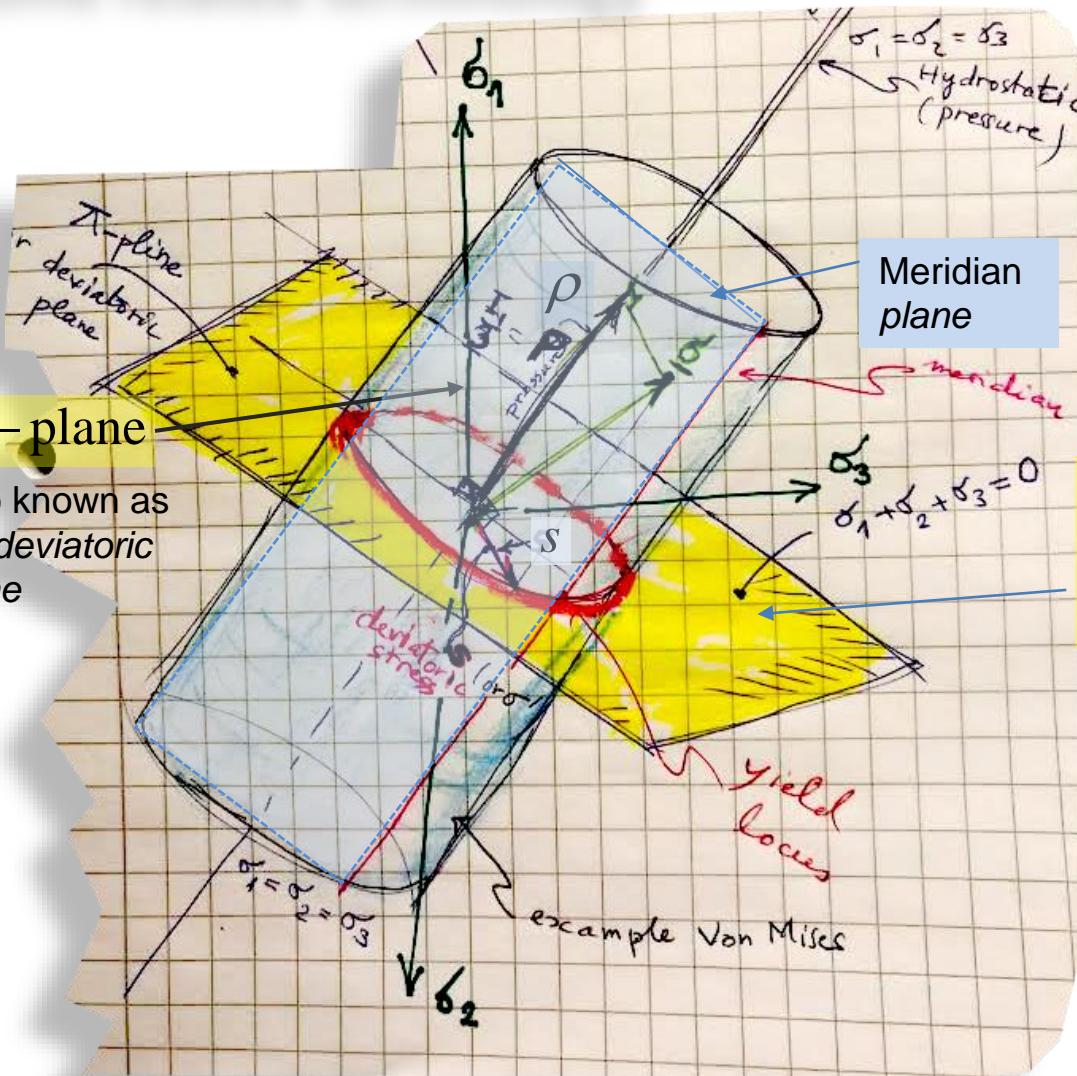
← Yield Function – a useful form



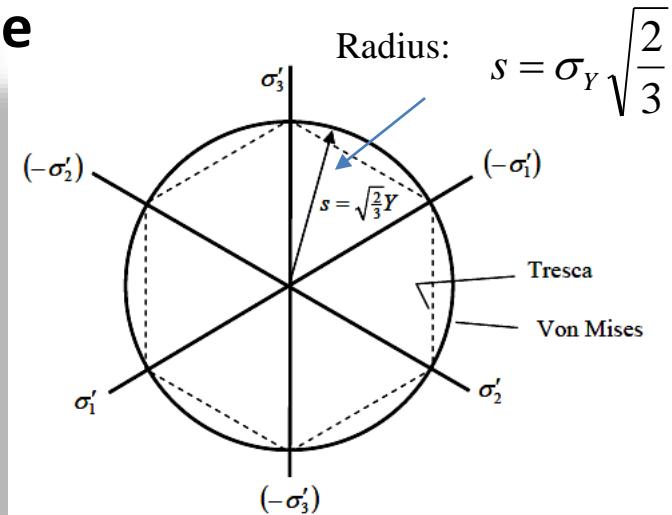
cylindrical surface of radius of
radius $\sqrt{2}k$ around hydrostatic
axis

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \sigma_3$$

Graphical representation of the failure surface & some related terminology



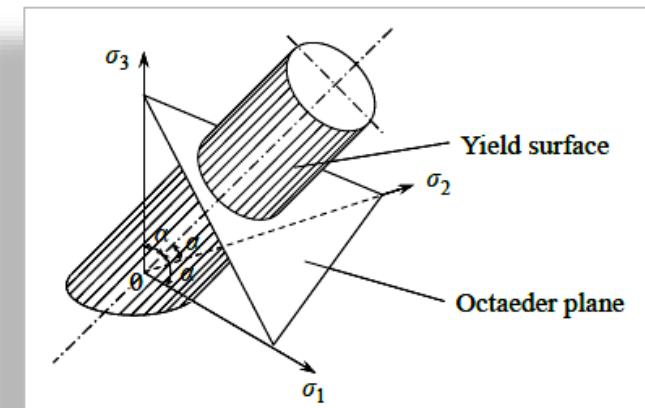
Yield surface in three dimensional stress-space



The Von Mises criterion in the π -plane

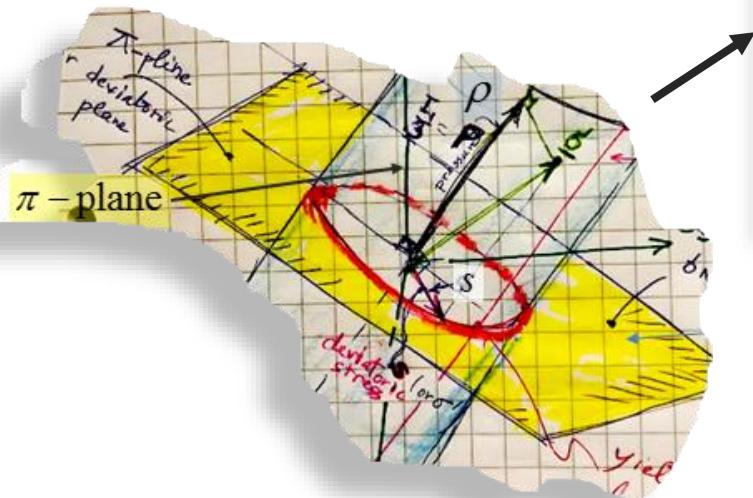
$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$$

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{3}{2} s_{ij} : s_{ij} = \frac{3}{2} \mathbf{s} : \mathbf{s} \equiv 3J_2$$



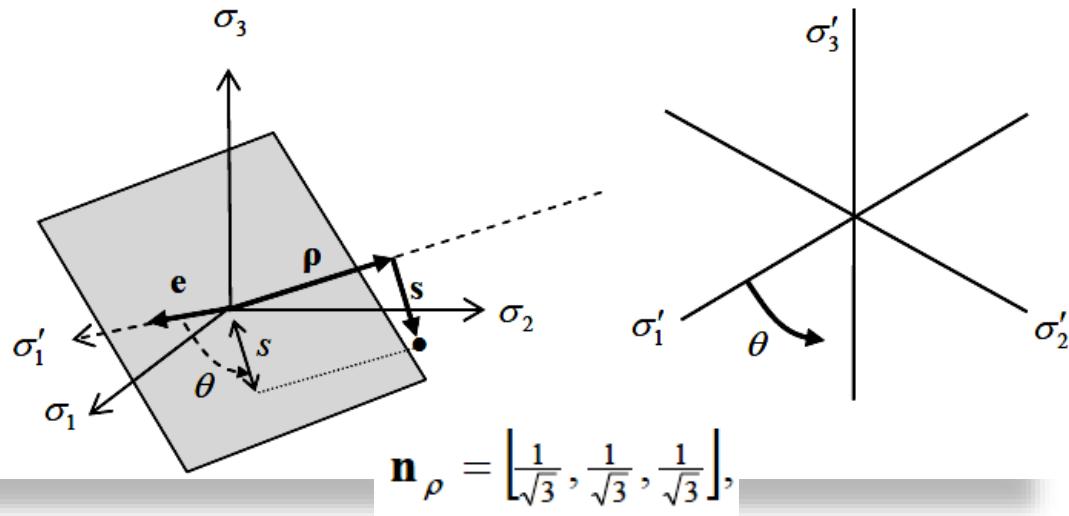
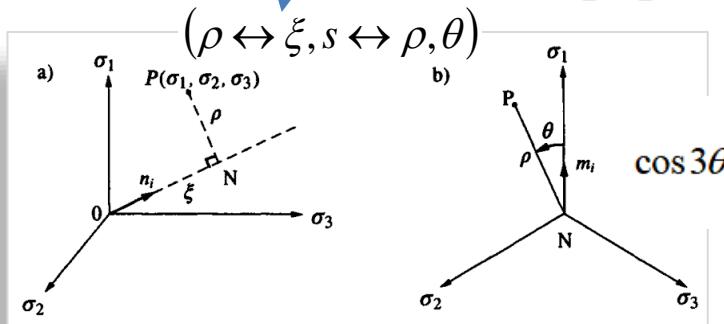
Haigh-Westergaard Stress Space [self-reading]

It is sometime more convenient to describe yield criteria with (ρ, s, θ) coordinates, than in terms of principal stresses.



Haigh-Westergaard
coordinates: (ρ, s, θ)

NB the different notation



$$\rho = |\mathbf{\rho}| = \sqrt{3}\sigma_m = I_1 / \sqrt{3}, \quad s = |\mathbf{s}| = \sqrt{2J_2}$$

$$\mathbf{\rho} = (\sigma_m, \sigma_m, \sigma_m) \quad \mathbf{s} = (s_1, s_2, s_3)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ \sigma_2 \\ \sigma_3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} \rho \\ \rho \\ \rho \end{bmatrix} + \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} s \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \cos(\theta - 2\pi/3) \\ \cos(\theta + 2\pi/3) \end{bmatrix}$$

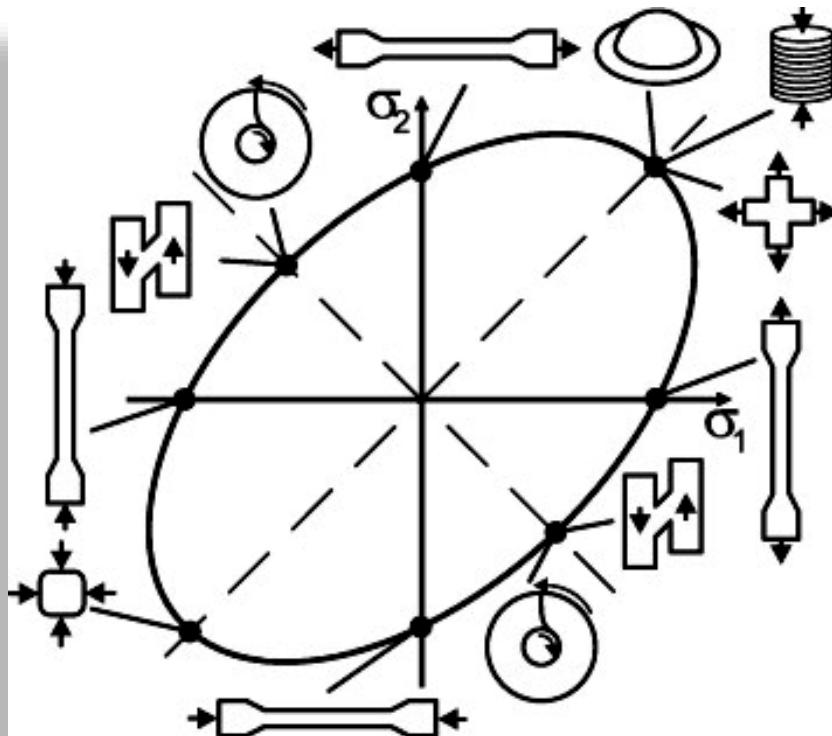
$$\begin{bmatrix} s_1 \\ s_2 \\ s_3 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \sqrt{J_2} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \cos(2\pi/3 - \theta) \\ \cos(2\pi/3 + \theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

Von Mises: $f(s) = \frac{1}{2}s^2 - k = 0$

Tresca

$$\cos 3\theta = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2} \frac{J_3}{J_2^{3/2}}$$

$$f(s, \theta) = \sqrt{2}s \sin(\theta + \frac{\pi}{3}) - Y = 0$$



Von Mises yield Criterion – yield surface

Plane stress

$$\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1 \sigma_2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$$

$$F = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 - \sigma_x \sigma_y + 3\tau_{xy}^2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$$

xy-stress components

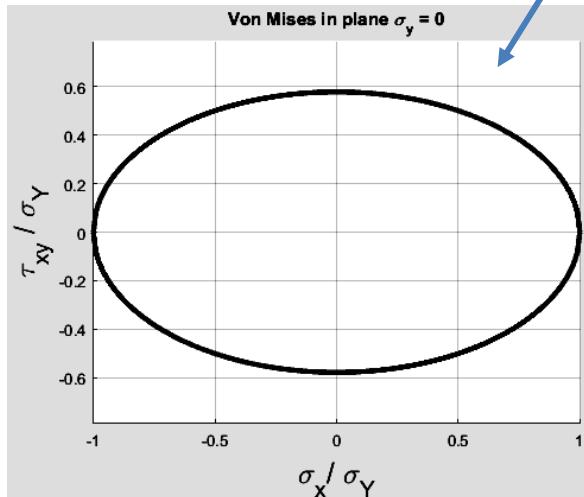
Consider the section (intersection) plane of the yield surface with the plane formed by $\sigma_y = 0$ in this plane, the von Mises yield function will be:

$$F = \sigma_x^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0 \rightarrow \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2} = \sigma_Y$$

$$\sigma_x^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2 = \sigma_Y^2 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\sigma_x / \sigma_Y}{1} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\tau_{xy} / \sigma_Y}{1/\sqrt{3}} \right)^2 = 1$$

Ellipse

$$1/\sqrt{3} \approx 0.577$$

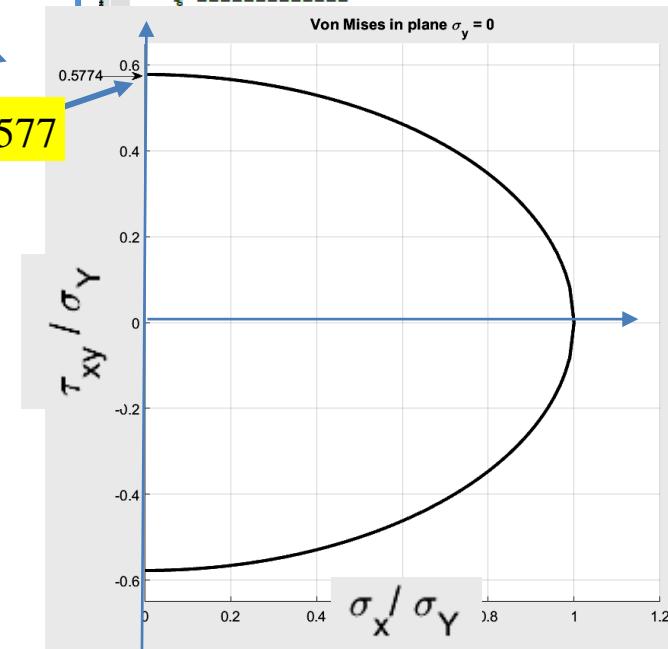


yield in uniaxial test

$$k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3} \equiv \tau_Y$$

yield stress in pure shear,

```
% Plane stress case:
% Von Mises in plane sigma_y = 0
x = 0:0.01:1;
y = sqrt( (1 - x.^2) ) / sqrt(3);
figure
plot( x, y, 'k-', 'LineWidth', 3 );
hold on;
plot( x,-y, 'k-', 'LineWidth', 3 )
plot(-x,-y, 'k-', 'LineWidth', 3 )
plot(-x, y, 'k-', 'LineWidth', 3 )
grid on; axis equal;
```



Von Mises yield Criterion - Distortional Energy Criteria

Yield when (yield criteria):

3D-stress state
Principal stresses

$$\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2] - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$$

$$\sigma_e^2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \tau_{\text{oct}}^2 = \frac{2}{3} J_2 = \frac{2}{3} k^2$$

1D-uniaxial tension

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_Y, \quad \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{Yield when}$$

$$k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3}$$

Plane stress

$$\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1 \sigma_2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0 \quad \text{principle stresses}$$

$$\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 - \sigma_x \sigma_y + 3\tau_{xy}^2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0 \quad \text{xy-stress components}$$

3D-stress state
General

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22})^2 + (\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{33})^2 + (\sigma_{33} - \sigma_{11})^2] + \dots$$

$$\dots + 3[\sigma_{12}^2 + \sigma_{23}^2 + \sigma_{31}^2] \quad \sigma_{23} \leftrightarrow \sigma_{yz}$$

Von Mises stress: $\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]}$$

$$f = \sigma_e^2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{Yield Function}$$

yield in uniaxial test

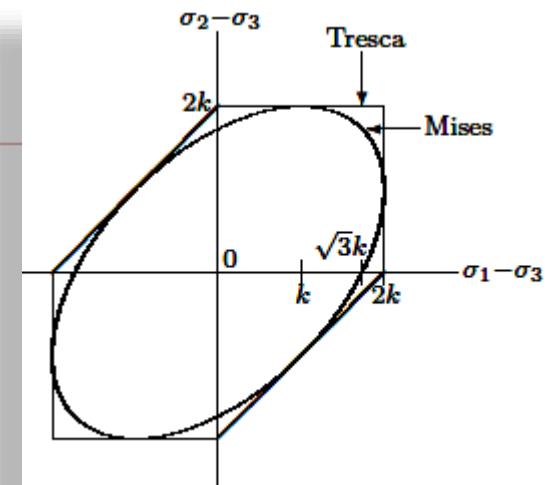
$$k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3}$$

k - yield stress in pure shear,

$$k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3} \equiv \tau_Y$$

Yield stress in pure shear

Yield stress in a uniaxial tension test



Example – design of weld

Do you recognise Von Mises and related concepts as yield condition and equivalent stress?

$$\sigma_{eq} = \sqrt{\frac{(\sigma_{xx} - \sigma_{yy})^2 + (\sigma_{yy} - \sigma_{zz})^2 + (\sigma_{zz} - \sigma_{xx})^2 + 6 \cdot (\tau_{xy}^2 + \tau_{yz}^2 + \tau_{zx}^2)}{2}}$$

Applied to welds:

$$\sigma_2 \ll \tau_1$$

$$\sigma_{eq} = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + 3(\tau_1^2 + \tau_2^2)} \leq \sigma_Y$$

Design code

$$\sigma_{eq} = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + 3(\tau_1^2 + \tau_2^2)} \leq \frac{f_u}{\beta_w \cdot \gamma_{M2}}$$

Example

$$\tau_1 = \frac{F_{sd}}{2 \cdot a \cdot l} \quad \tau_2 = 0 \quad \sigma_1 = 0$$

$$\sigma_{eq} = \frac{\sqrt{3} \cdot F_{sd}}{2 \cdot a \cdot l} \leq \frac{f_u}{\beta_w \cdot \gamma_{M2}}$$

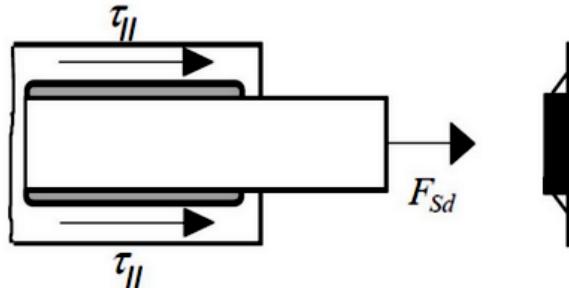
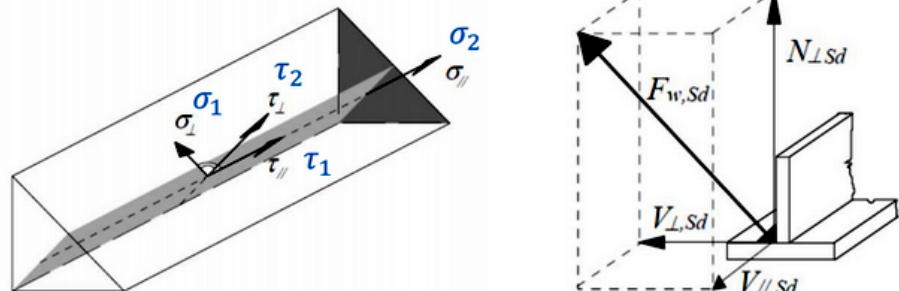


Illustration example provided by Wei Lu; go and take her courses ...

Example – design of filled weld

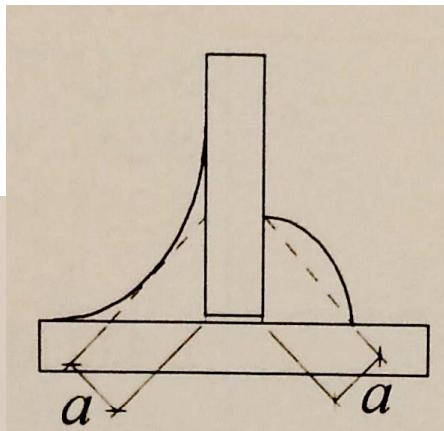
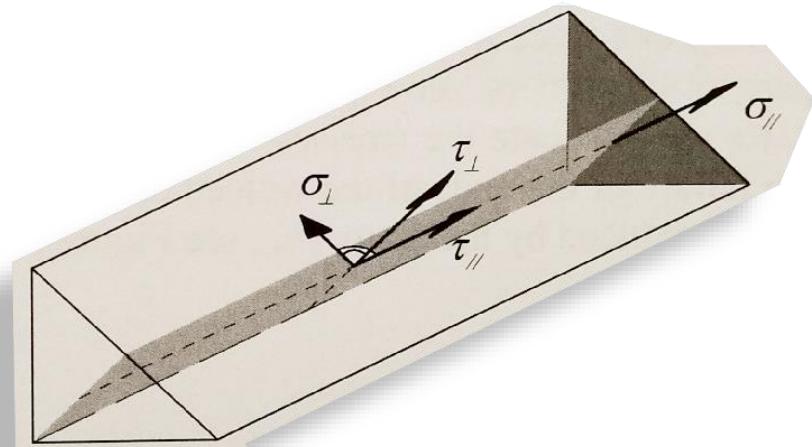


Figure 3.1 Definition of throat thickness a



Stress in critical plane of fillet weld

In the design procedure the internal force on the fillet weld is resolved into components parallel transverse to the critical plane of the weld throat, see Figure 3.2. A uniform stress distribution is assumed on the critical throat section of the weld, leading to the following normal stresses and shear stresses:

- σ_{\perp} the normal stress perpendicular to the critical plane of the throat,
- σ_{\parallel} the normal stress parallel to the axis of the weld, it should be neglected when calculating the design resistance of a fillet weld,
- τ_{\perp} the shear stress (in the critical plane of the throat) perpendicular to the weld axis,
- τ_{\parallel} the shear stress (in the critical plane of the throat) parallel to the weld axis.

Do you recognise Von Mises?

$$\sqrt{\sigma_{\perp}^2 + 3(\tau_{\perp} + \tau_{\parallel})^2} \leq \frac{f_u}{\beta_w \gamma_{Mw}}$$

and

$$\sigma_{\perp} \leq \frac{f_u}{\gamma_{Mw}}.$$

The resistance of the fillet weld will be sufficient if the

$$\sqrt{\sigma_{\perp}^2 + 3(\tau_{\perp} + \tau_{\parallel})^2} \leq \frac{f_u}{\beta_w \gamma_{htw}}$$

and

$$\sigma_{\perp} \leq \frac{f_u}{\gamma_{htw}}.$$

The correlation factor β_w is summarised in Table 3.1.

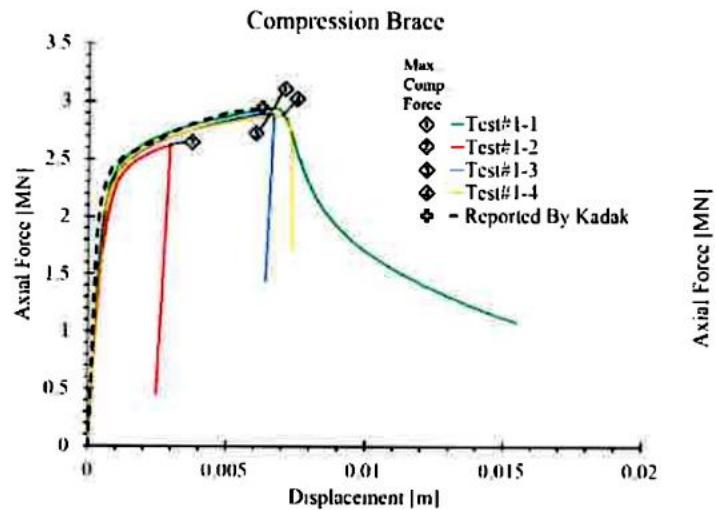
prEN 1993-1-8 includes a simplified procedure for calculating the resistance of a fillet weld per unit length independent of the direct

$$f_{weld} = \frac{f_u}{\sqrt{3} \beta_w \gamma_{htw}}$$

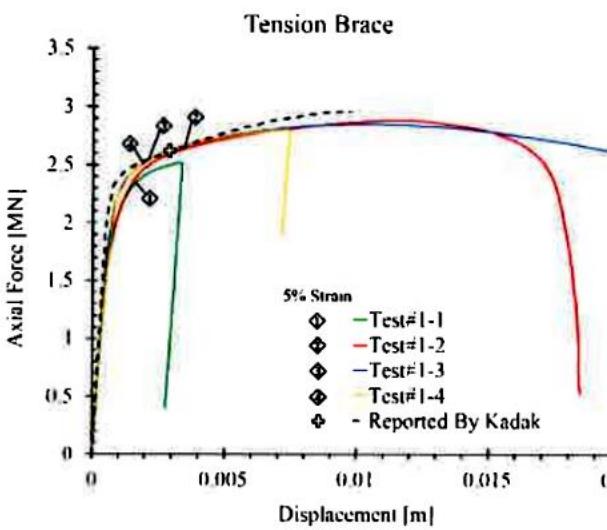
2-D plane stress state:

$$\sqrt{\sigma_{xx}^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2} = \sigma_Y$$

Analysis using Abaqus Elastic-Plastic Steel K-joint



(a)



(b)

Figure D-1: Comparison of load-displacement curves of different loading conditions for specimens joint with 30 degrees brace inclination angle: a) Tension braces, b) Compression Braces

Example from Master Thesis
by Pooya Saremi, 2016 at
CIV-department@here

Elastic-Plastic Analysis of Steel K-joints

Flow rule associated with von Mises yield function (Structural Steel)

Von Mises stresses

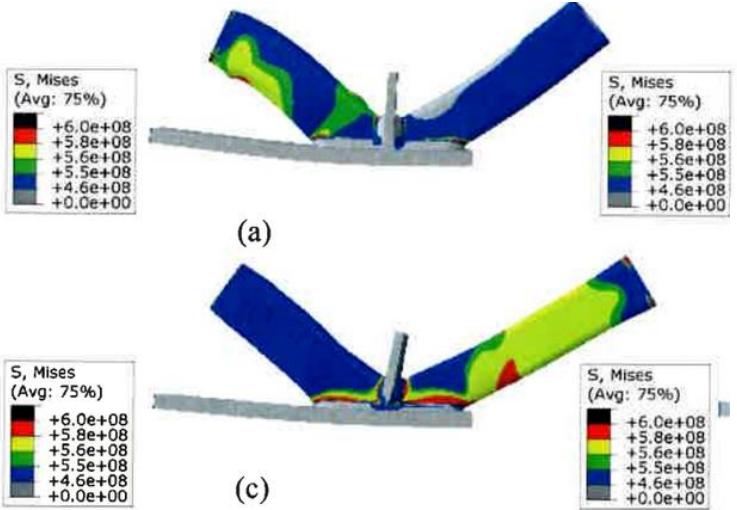
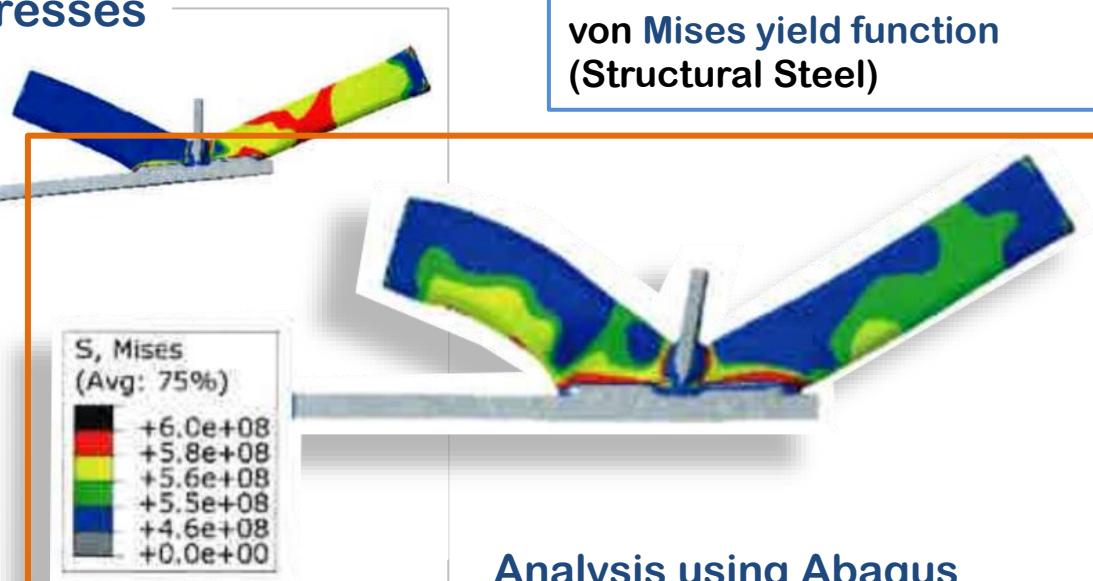


Figure D-2: The contoured, deformed shapes at peak compression load for: a) load type#1-1, b) load type#1-2, c) load type#1-3 and d) load type#1-4



Analysis using Abaqus
Elastic-Plastic Steel K-joint

Tresca Yield Criterion – Maximum Shear Stress Criterion

Yield criterion: plastic flow (yield) occurs if the maximum shear stress τ_{\max} reaches a certain critical value : k

Yield criteria -
myötöeho tai -funktio

$$F = \tau_{\max} - k = 0,$$

$$\tau_{\max} = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_Y \Rightarrow \text{Yield}$$

$$F = \max \left\{ \frac{1}{2}|\sigma_1 - \sigma_2|, \frac{1}{2}|\sigma_2 - \sigma_3|, \frac{1}{2}|\sigma_3 - \sigma_1| \right\} - k$$

Tresca: $\tau_{\max} = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) = \tau_y$

Note that in Tresca criteria one of principle stresses does not enter the yield condition! here, max is $\sigma_3 - \sigma_1$ (in plane stress ok, where one principle stress component = 0)

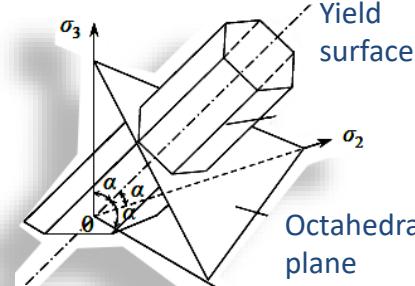
$F = \tau_{\max} - k < 0 \Rightarrow$ elastic (no yielding)

$F = \tau_{\max} - k = 0 \Rightarrow$ onset of yielding

k - yield stress in pure shear according to Tresca yielding criterion

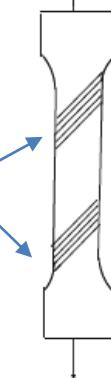
At yielding in uniaxial tension test:

$$\max_{\text{maximum shear stresses}} \frac{1}{2}|\sigma_1 - \sigma_2| = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_Y = \tau_y$$

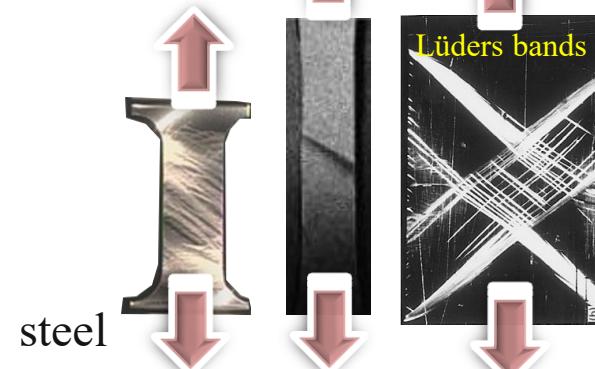


$$\tau_{\max} = \tau_y$$

Lüders bands
Slip planes - dislocations



In metals, plastic deformation results from slip; inter-crystalline shearing governed by tangential stresses.



Tresca Yield Criterion – Maximum Shear Stress Criterion

Yield criterion: plastic flow (yield) occurs if the *maximum shear stress* τ_{\max} reaches a certain *critical value* k

$$F = \max \left\{ \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_1 - \sigma_2|, \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_2 - \sigma_3|, \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_3 - \sigma_1| \right\} - k$$

Tresca: $\tau_{\max} = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) = \tau_y$

Note that σ_2 is not considered! This makes the criteria less accurate than the Von-Mises.

Example:

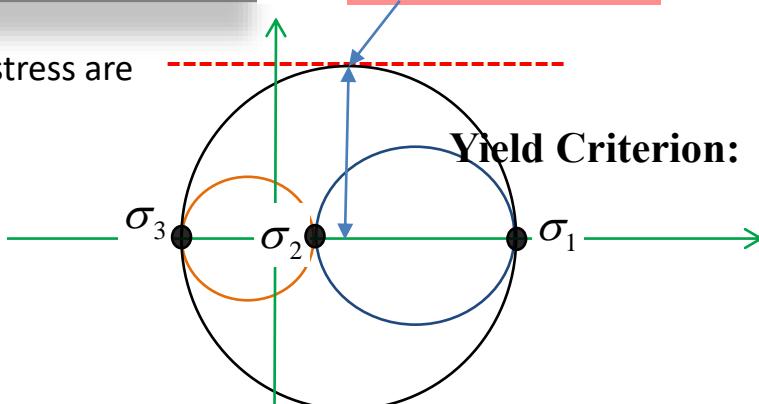
$$\tau_{\max} = (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)/2 = k = \sigma_Y/2$$

$$\Rightarrow (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) = \sigma_Y$$

$$\tau_{\max} = (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)/2$$

when principle stress are ordered:

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \sigma_3$$



Yield criteria - myötöeho tai -funktio

$$F = \tau_{\max} - k = 0,$$

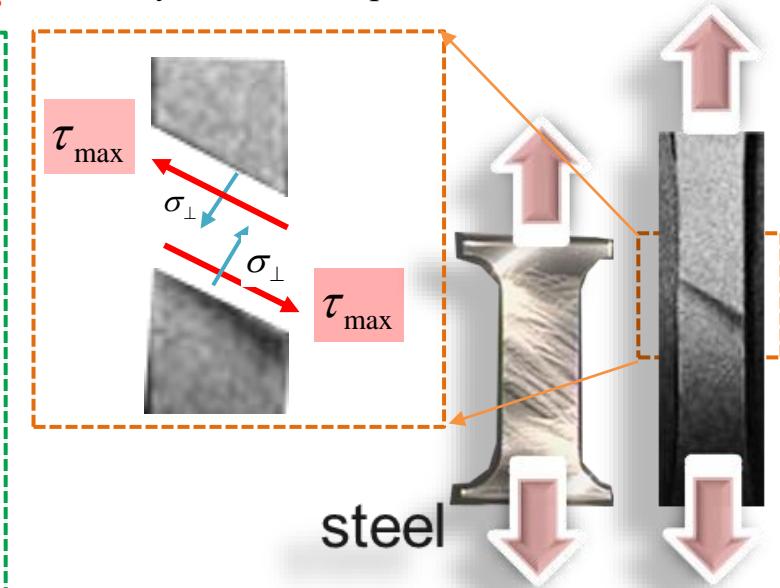
$$\tau_{\max} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_Y \Rightarrow \text{Yield}$$

σ_Y – yield in uniaxial test

τ_Y – yield in pure shear test

$$k = \sigma_Y / 2 = \tau_Y$$

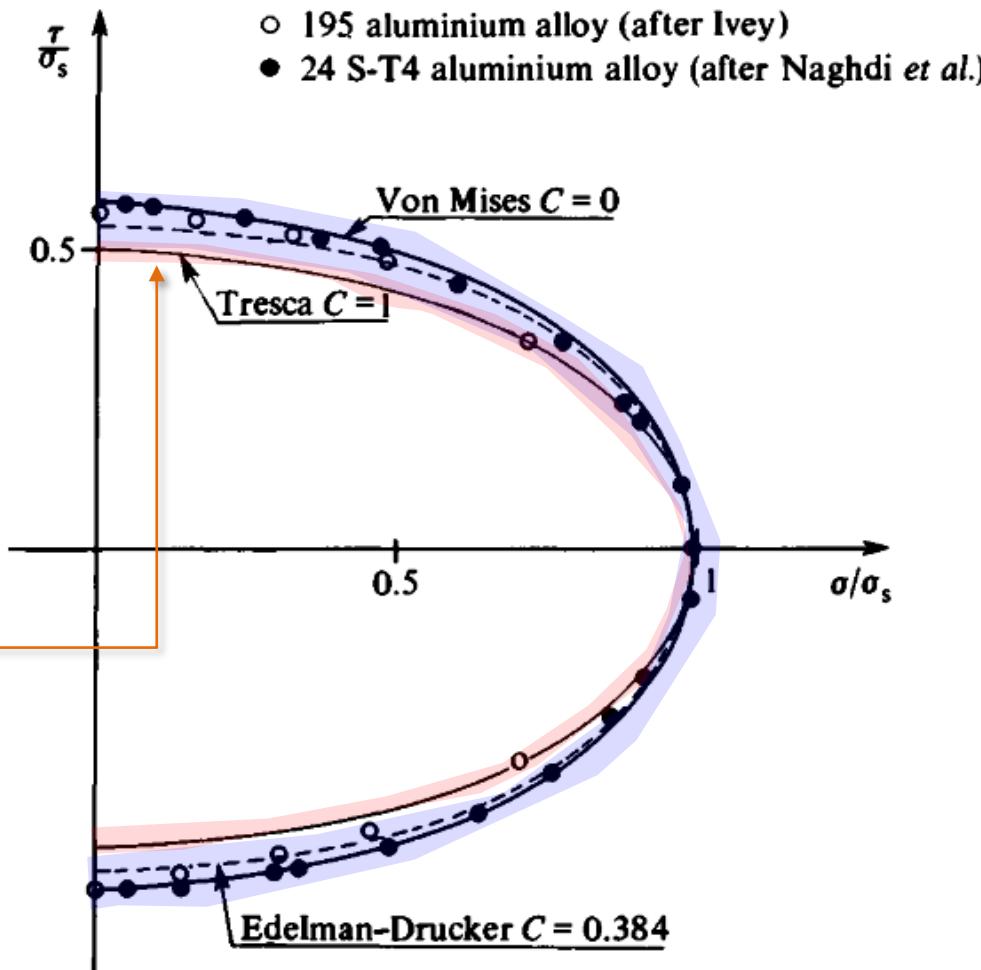
Yield: When maximum shear stress reaches yield stress in pure shear



$$k_{\text{Tresca}} = \sigma_Y / 2 = 0.5\sigma_Y$$

$$k_{\text{von Mises}} = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3} \approx 0.577\sigma_Y$$

$$\text{Tresca: } \tau_{\max} = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) = \tau_y$$



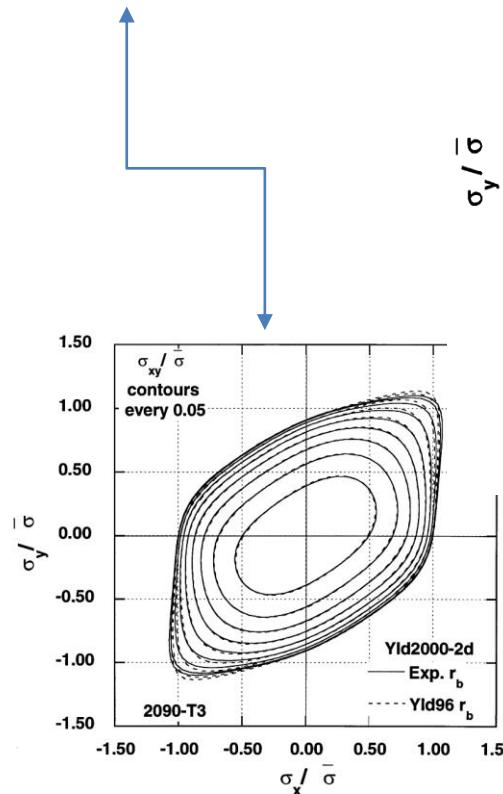
Tresca: $\tau_{\max} = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) = \tau_y$. This criterion ignores σ_2 , so it may be more suitable for plane stress cases having $\sigma_2 = 0$. Note that, for instance, the von-Mises criterion accounts for all the stress components σ_1, σ_2 and σ_3 . Despite this remark, this model seems to give conservative results as compared to von-Mises.



PERGAMON

Plane stress yield function for aluminum alloy sheets—part 1: theory

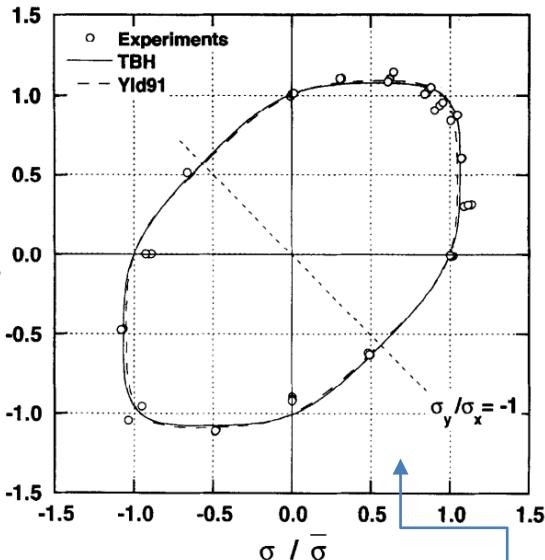
F. Barlat^{a,b,*}, J.C. Brem^a, J.W. Yoon^{b,c}, K. Chung^d, R.E. D.J. Lege^a, F. Pourboghrat^e, S.-H. Choi^f, E. Chu^t



Tricomponent yield surface for AA2090-T3 predicted with Yld2000-2d (experimental r_b) and Yld2000-2d (Yld96 r_b).

Tresca/Mises

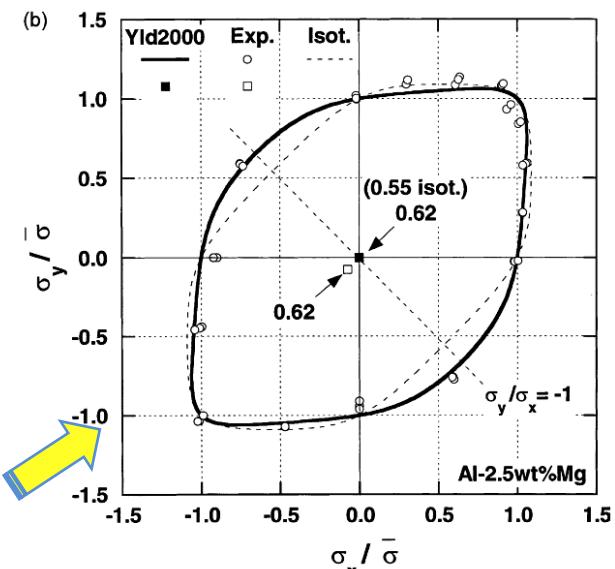
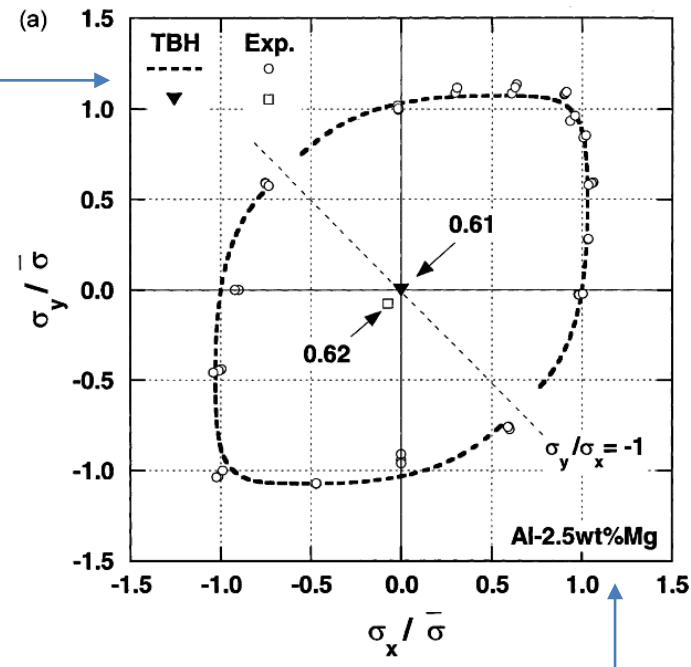
Yield function development for aluminum alloy sheets



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YIELD FUNCTION DEVELOPMENT FOR ALUMINUM ALLOY SHEETS

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Normalized yield surface for an Al-2.5 wt.% Mg binary sheet sample. Open circles denote experimental planar locus ($\sigma_{xy} = 0$) and the open square denotes the maximum experimental simple shear stress ($\sigma_{xx} \approx \sigma_{yy} \approx 0$). (a) Dash line ($\sigma_{xy} = 0$) and solid triangle ($\sigma_{xx} \approx \sigma_{yy} \approx 0$) denote polycrystal TBH predictions. (b) The solid line (planar locus, $\sigma_{xy} = 0$) and full square (maximum simple shear stress, $\sigma_{xx} \approx \sigma_{yy} \approx 0$) denote Yld2000-2d predictions using $\sigma_0 = \sigma_{45} = \sigma_{90} = \sigma_b$ and $r_0 = 0.20$, $r_{45} = 0.28$, $r_{90} = 0.20$, $r_b = 1.0$. Dash line represents isotropic response (isot.).

Comparison between Von-Mises and Tresca criteria

Tresca's criterion

1. Plastic flow occurs when the maximum shear stress reaches a particular value
 $\tau_{\max} = k = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)$, $\sigma_y = 2k$
when $\sigma_1 = \sigma_4$ and $\sigma_3 = 0$.
2. Simple to use.
3. Less accurate as σ_2 is not considered except σ_1 and σ_3 are considered.
4. It is more conservative.

Von-Mises criterion

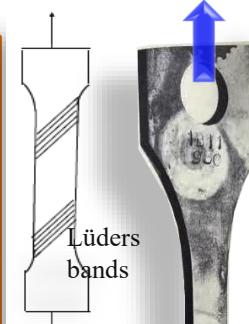
1. Plastic flow occurs when strain energy reaches a value equal to the strain energy at elastic point in uniaxial tension (σ_y)
 $\sigma_y = \sqrt{3}.k$.
2. Not simple.
3. More accurate as principal stresses σ_1 , σ_2 and σ_3 are considered.
4. Less conservative.

- Plastic deformation slip-bands in tensile stresses gives clear evidence in favor of **Tresca's** yield condition saying that:

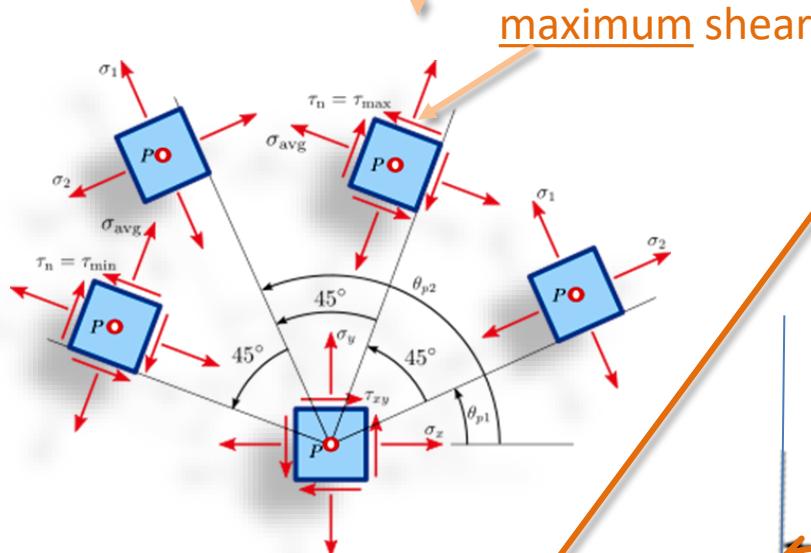
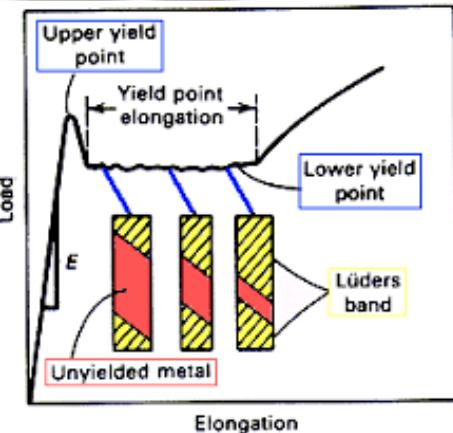
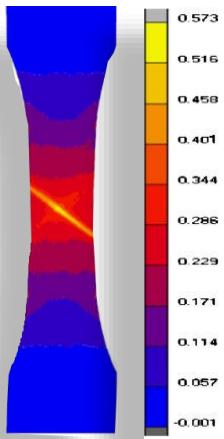
yield occurs when the **maximum shear stress**

equals the yield stress in shear

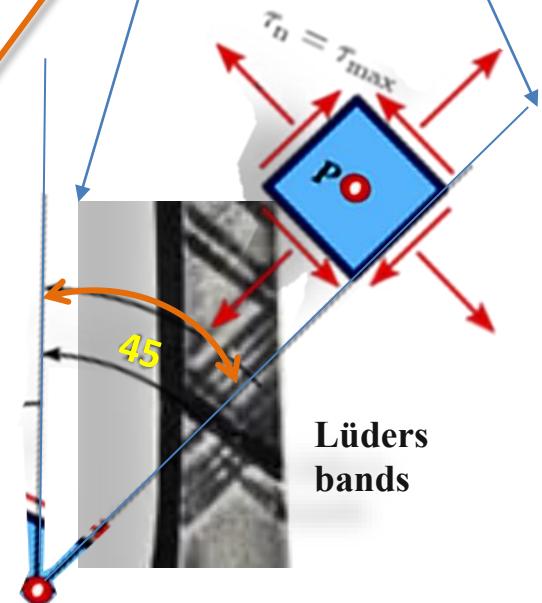
Remember that maximum shear stresses makes an angle of 45 degree with the principle stresses



Lüders bands



- ex. **Lüders bands** or **slip-bands** are localized bands of plastic deformation in tensile stresses and are common to low-carbon steels



Exercises – Example

Consider the following stress state

$$(\text{units in MPa}): \quad \sigma_x = 200 \equiv \sigma_{11}$$

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_z = 120$$

$$\tau_{xy} = 110, \quad \tau_{yz} = 0$$

Yield stress in uniaxial test: $\sigma_Y = 240 \text{ MPa}$

Question: how much the stress component can be increased before yield occurs? *a)* according to von Mises and *b)* Tresca yield condition.

Let use the notations:

$$\tau_{xz} \equiv \alpha \sigma_0$$

$$\sigma_x = 200 \equiv \sigma_{11} = 2\sigma_0$$

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_z = 1.2\sigma_0$$

$$\tau_{xy} = 1.1\sigma_0, \quad \tau_{yz} = 0$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \sigma_0 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1.1 & \alpha \\ & 1.2 & 0 \\ & & \text{Symm.} \end{bmatrix} \quad 1.2$$

HW b) do the same for Tresca yield

Tresca Yield Criteria:

$$F = \max \left\{ \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_1 - \sigma_2|, \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_2 - \sigma_3|, \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_3 - \sigma_1| \right\} - k$$

Von Mises Yield Criteria: $F = \sigma_e^2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$

$$F = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]}_{\equiv \sigma_e^2 = 3J_2} - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$$

... or in component form

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{1}{2} [(\sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22})^2 + (\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{33})^2 + (\sigma_{33} - \sigma_{11})^2] + \dots$$

$$\dots + 3[\sigma_{12}^2 + \sigma_{23}^2 + \sigma_{31}^2] \quad \Downarrow$$

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_0^2 \cdot \underbrace{[(2-1.2)^2 + (1.2-1.2)^2 + (1.2-2)^2]}_{\equiv a} + \dots$$

$$\dots + 3\sigma_0^2[1.1^2 + 0 + \alpha^2] = \sigma_Y^2 \Rightarrow$$

$$3\alpha^2 = (\sigma_Y / \sigma_0)^2 - 4.27 \rightarrow [(240/100)^2 - 4.27]/3 =$$

$$\alpha \approx 0.705$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\tau_{xz} = \alpha \sigma_0} = 0.705 \cdot 100 \approx 70 \text{ MPa}$$

Exercises – Example

Consider the following stress state
(units in MPa): $\sigma_x = 200 \equiv \sigma_{11}$

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_z = 120$$

$$\tau_{xy} = 110, \quad \tau_{yz} = 0$$

Yield stress in uniaxial test: $\sigma_Y = 240$ MPa

Question: how much the stress component can be increased before yield occurs? a) according to von Mises and b) Tresca yield condition.

Let use the notations:

$$\tau_{xz} \equiv \alpha \sigma_0$$

$$\sigma_x = 200 \equiv \sigma_{11} = 2\sigma_0$$

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_z = 1.2\sigma_0$$

$$\tau_{xy} = 1.1\sigma_0, \quad \tau_{yz} = 0$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \sigma_0 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1.1 & \alpha \\ & 1.2 & 0 \\ & Symm. & 1.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_3 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_0 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0.2337 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.2000 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2.9663 \end{bmatrix}$$

Von Mises Yield Criteria: $F = \sigma_e^2 - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$

$$F = \frac{1}{2} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2] - \sigma_Y^2 = 0$$

$$\equiv \sigma_e^2 = 3J_2$$

... or in component form

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{1}{2} [(\sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22})^2 + (\sigma_{22} - \sigma_{33})^2 + (\sigma_{33} - \sigma_{11})^2] + \dots$$

$$\dots + 3[\sigma_{12}^2 + \sigma_{23}^2 + \sigma_{31}^2] \quad \Downarrow$$

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_0^2 \cdot [(2 - 1.2)^2 + (1.2 - 1.2)^2 + (1.2 - 2)^2] + \dots$$

$$\dots + 3\sigma_0^2[1.1^2 + 0 + \alpha^2] = \sigma_Y^2 \Rightarrow \boxed{\alpha \approx 0.705}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\tau_{xz} = \alpha \sigma_0} = 0.705 \cdot 100 \approx 70 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_e = 239.996 \approx 240 \text{ MPa}$$

→ YIELD occurs

```
% check of the results
%
sigma_0 = 100;
a = 0.7047;
sigma=[2 1.1 a;
       1.1 1.2 0;
       a 0 1.2];

s_e_0 = 0.5 * ( (sigma(1,1) - sigma(2,2))^2 + ...
                 + (sigma(2,2) - sigma(3,3))^2 + ...
                 + (sigma(3,3) - sigma(1,1))^2 ) + ...
                 + 3* ( sigma(1,2)^2 + sigma(2,3)^2 + sigma(3,1)^2 )

SIGMA_EQUIV = sigma_0 * sqrt(s_e_0) % Von Mises stress
Y = 240;
```

$$SIGMA_EQUIV = 239.9960 \text{ MPa}$$

Exercises – Example – HW – Tresca and von Mises

Consider a closed thin-walled steel cylindrical vessel having a diameter with wall thickness subjected to internal pressure t . The ends of the vessel are half-sphere in order to avoid bending state (boundary layers - reunahäiriö). The material is steel.

Yield stress in uniaxial test: $\sigma_0 = 225 \text{ MPa}$

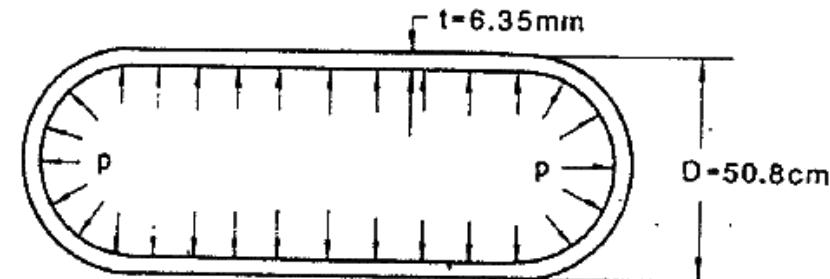
Question: how much the pressure can be increased before yield begins? a) according to von Mises and b) Tresca yield condition.

Hints: consider that the stress state is bi-axial (thin-walled cylindrical shell) where

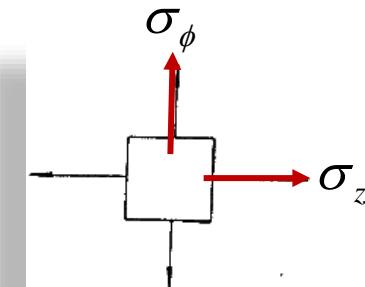
$$\sigma_\phi = \frac{pD}{2t} \quad \text{- circumferential stress}$$

$$\sigma_z = \frac{pD}{4t} \quad \text{- axial stress}$$

Hydrostatic pressure insensitive yield criteria



Assume a biaxial stress state, $t \ll 2R=D$



ex. 1-d tensile test and the hardening rule

Determination of $d\sigma_f/d\epsilon_e^p$. Uniaxial tensile test

In a standard uniaxial tensile test, during plastic flow we have

$$\sigma_{11} \neq 0 ; \text{ all other } \sigma_{ij} \equiv 0$$

and

$$d\epsilon_{11}^p \neq 0 ; d\epsilon_{22} = d\epsilon_{33} = -\frac{1}{2}d\epsilon_{11} ; \text{ all other } d\epsilon_{ij}^p \equiv 0$$

i.e.,

$$f = \sigma_e - \sigma_f = \sigma_{11} - \sigma_f = 0 \Rightarrow \sigma_f = \sigma_{11}$$

and

$$d\epsilon_e^p = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\left\{1 + 2\cdot\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^2\right\}} \cdot d\epsilon_{11}^p = d\epsilon_{11}^p$$

In the uniaxial tensile test, the function

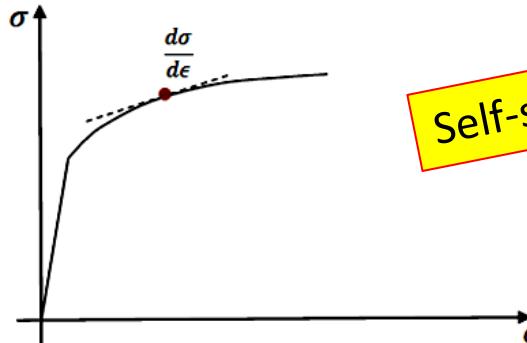
$$\sigma_f = \phi(\epsilon_e^p)$$

will therefore simplify into

$$\sigma_{11} = \phi(\epsilon_{11}^p)$$

and the function can be found from the test results. Suppose, for instance, that the uniaxial test curve of Fig. 2 has been recorded. In the plastic region one then has

$$de = d\epsilon^e + d\epsilon^p = \left(\frac{1}{E} + \frac{1}{\phi'}\right)d\sigma \Rightarrow \frac{d\sigma}{de} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{E} + \frac{1}{\phi'}} \Rightarrow \phi' = \frac{\frac{d\sigma}{de}}{1 - \frac{1}{E} \frac{d\sigma}{de}}. \quad (22)$$



Self-study

(16)

(17)

Fig. 2 Uniaxial tensile test curve

(18) Note, therefore, that the derivative $d\sigma/d\epsilon$ directly measured in the uniaxial test curve must be ‘postprocessed’ in order to find ϕ' !

In a simple case, this function may be linear, i.e.,

$$\sigma_f = \phi(\epsilon_e^p) = \sigma_s + c^{(i)}\epsilon_e^p \quad (23)$$

and

$$\frac{d\sigma_f}{d\epsilon_e^p} = c^{(i)} \quad (24)$$

The flow rule can then be simplified:

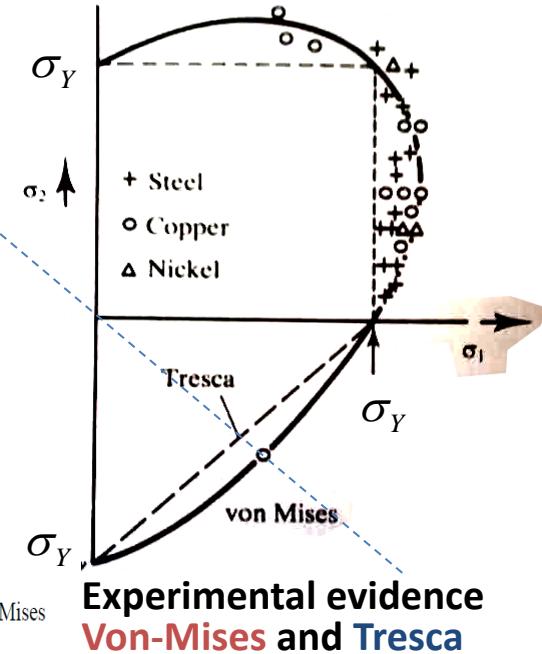
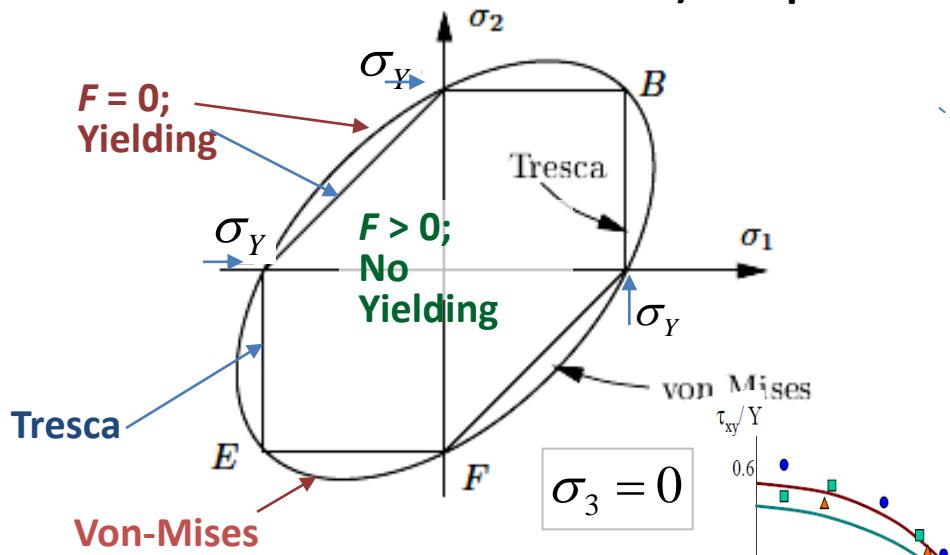
$$d\epsilon_{ij}^p = \frac{9}{4} \cdot \frac{s_{kl}d\sigma_{kl}}{c^{(i)}\sigma_e^2} \cdot s_{ij} \quad (25)$$

or

$$d\epsilon_{ij}^p = \frac{d\sigma_f}{c^{(i)}} \cdot \frac{3s_{ij}}{2\sigma_e} = \frac{d\sigma_e}{c^{(i)}} \cdot \frac{3s_{ij}}{2\sigma_e} \quad (26)$$

(the 2nd equality since during plastic flow, $\sigma_f = \sigma_e$). Eq. (26) is perhaps the most convenient version of the flow rule. Note, again, that a linear stiffness measured in a tensile test must be recalculated in order to find $c^{(i)}$ (see Eq. (22)!).

Failure envelopes:



b) Tresca ... conservative:

Von-Mises:

$$f = 1/2 \cdot [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2] - 3\tau_Y^2 = 0$$

$$F = J_2 - \tau_Y^2 = 0$$

Tresca:

$$F = \max \left\{ \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_1 - \sigma_2|, \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_2 - \sigma_3|, \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_3 - \sigma_1| \right\} - \tau_Y = 0$$

yield stress in pure shear

$$F = \tau_{\max} - k < 0 \Rightarrow \text{No yielding} \quad k \equiv \tau_Y$$

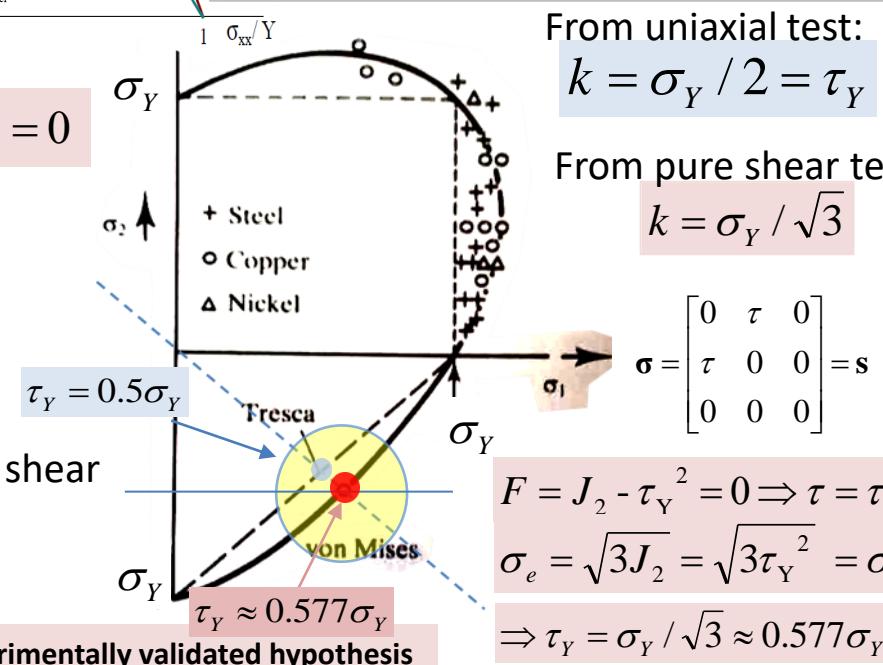
$$F = \tau_{\max} - k < 0 \Rightarrow \text{Onset of yielding}$$

From uniaxial test:

$$k = \sigma_Y / 2 = \tau_Y$$

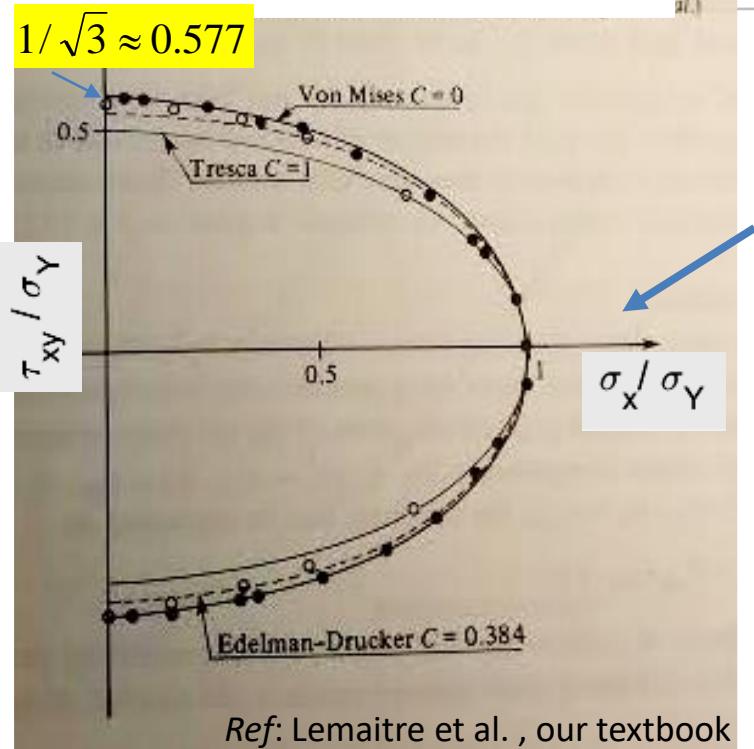
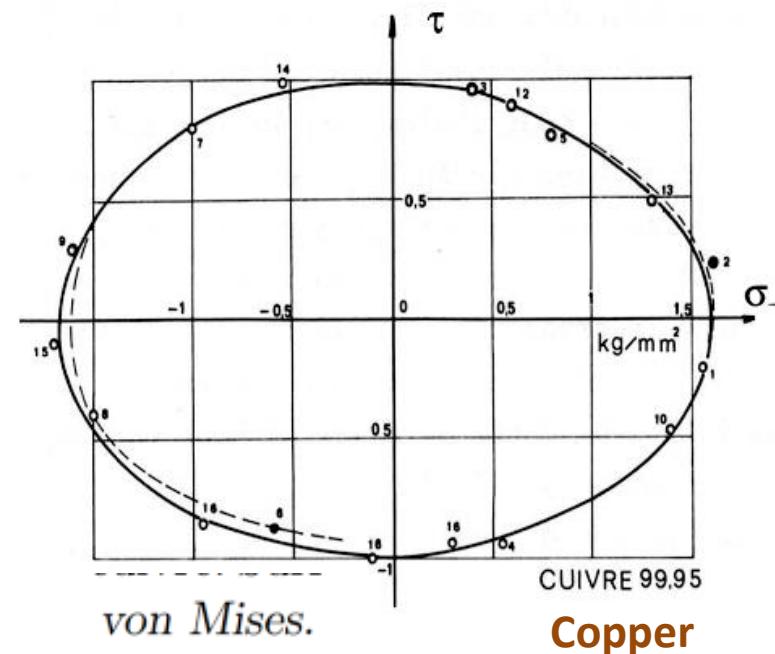
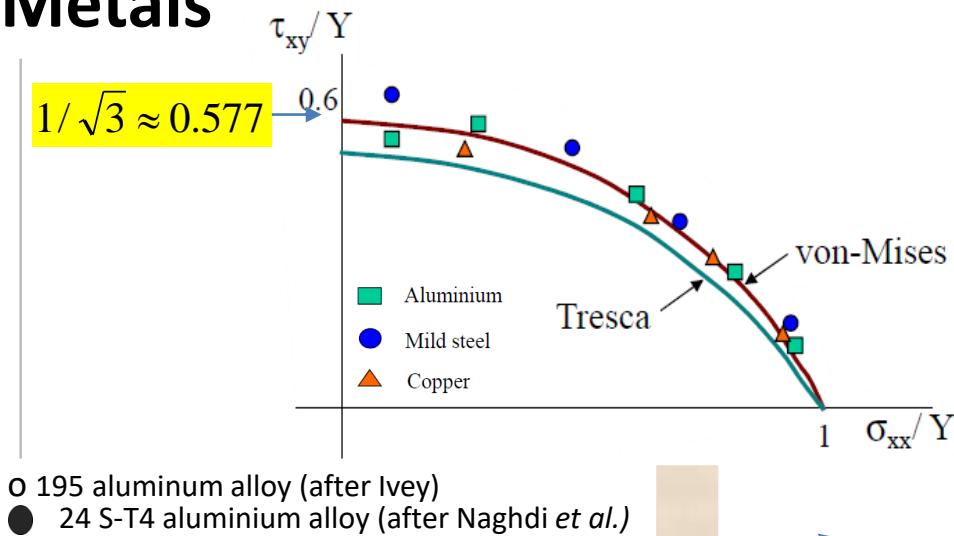
From pure shear test:

$$k = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3}$$



Experimentally validated hypothesis

Experimental Evidences Metals



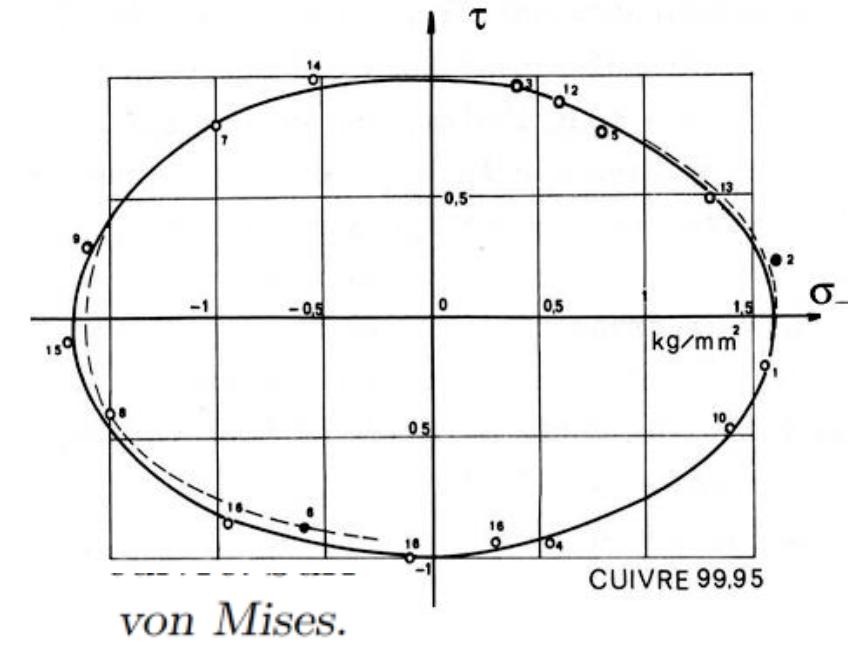
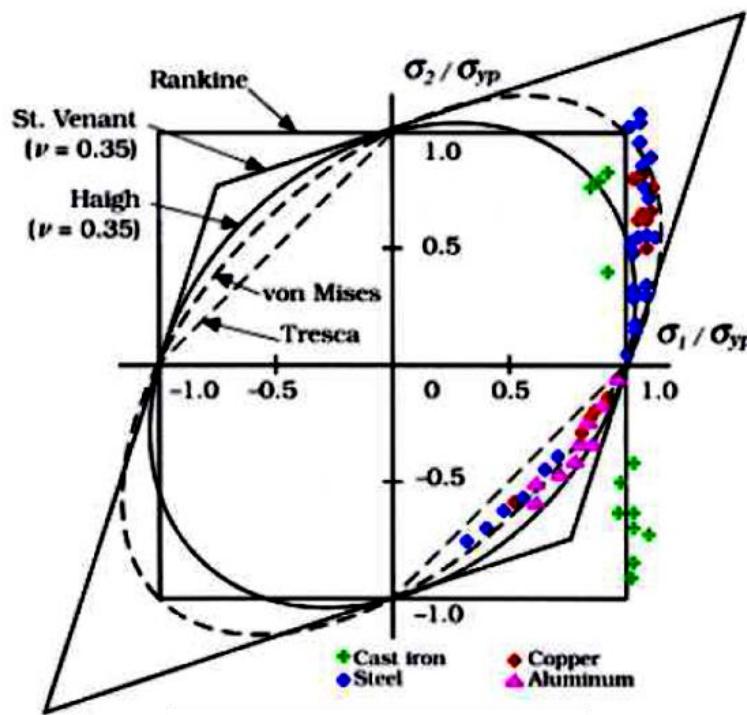
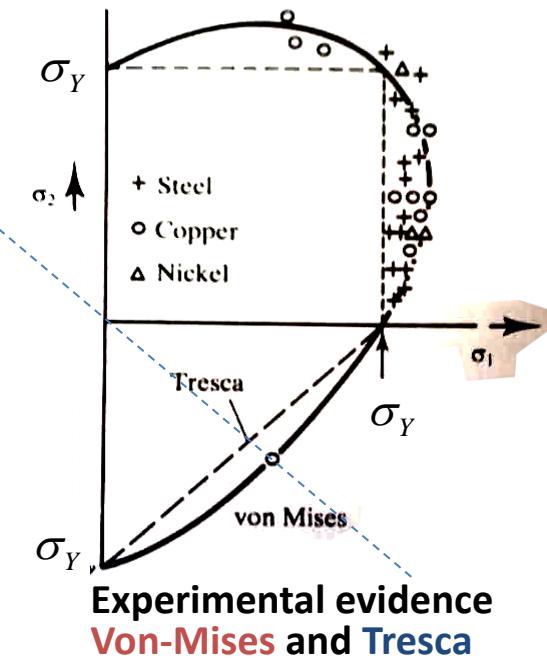
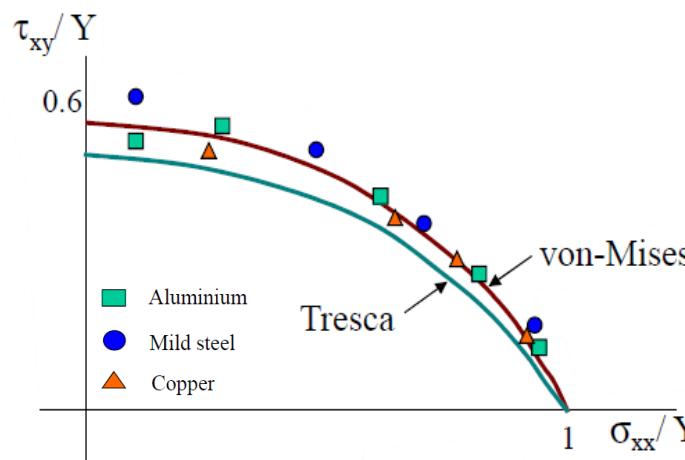
Experimental evidence
Von-Mises and **Tresca**

From these experimental results, it seems that 'von Mises' describe better than 'Tresca' the yield of metals (isotropic). 'Tresca is good too' despite its simplicity.

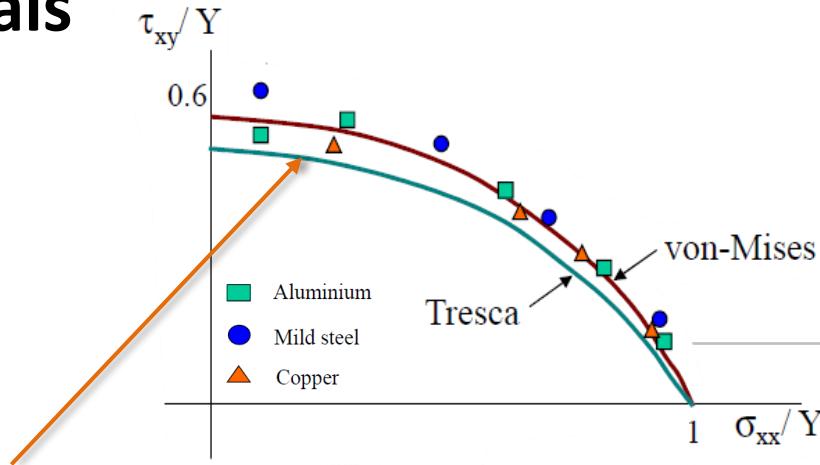
Reason: The driving force for plastic flow in both criteria is *shearing*; maximum shear stress for Tresca and maximum distortion energy for von Mises, and distortion cannot be without shearing *cqfd*.

NB. Anisotropic yield criteria: In this case, the material have principle or preferred directions of anisotropy. Therefore, such information bout theses directions should appear in the yield criteria. Thus, such yield criteria cannot be described by stress invariant alone. Such criteria are for instance Hill criterion and Tsai criterion. (*ref. Lemaitre et Chaboche, our course textbooks*). Also, strain hardening introduces anisotropy. These aspects are not in the scope of this course, so *cf. to literature*.

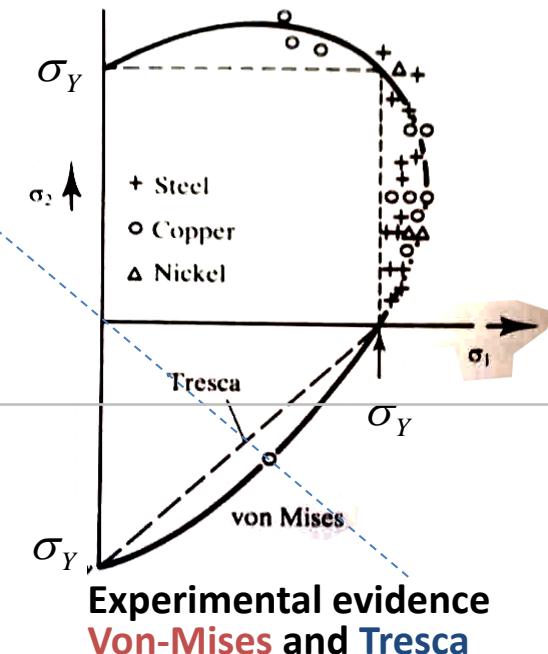
Experimental Evidences Metals



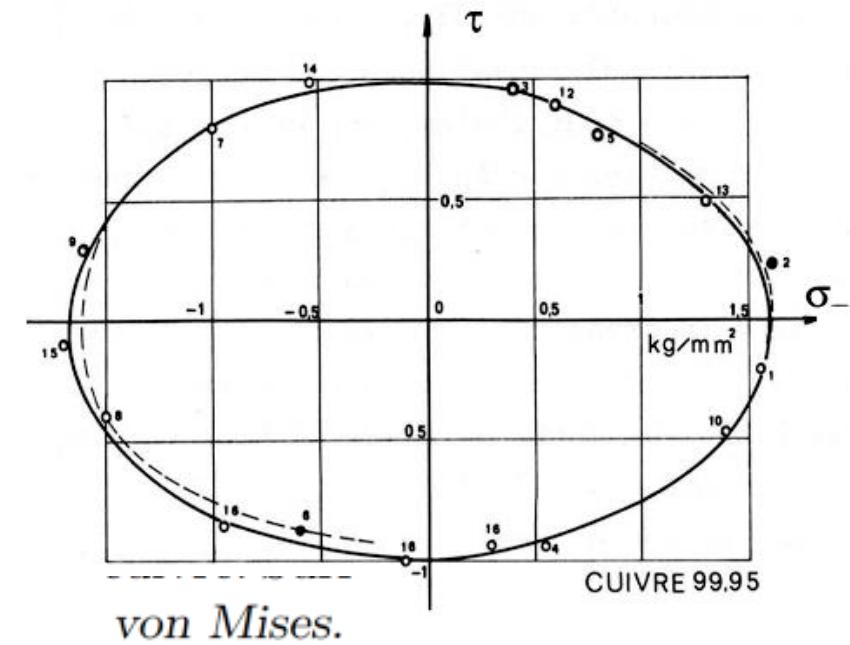
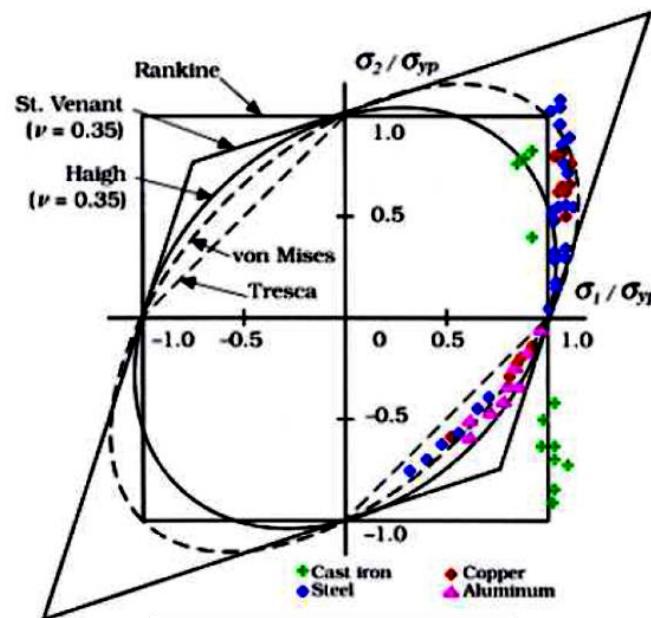
Experimental Evidences Metals



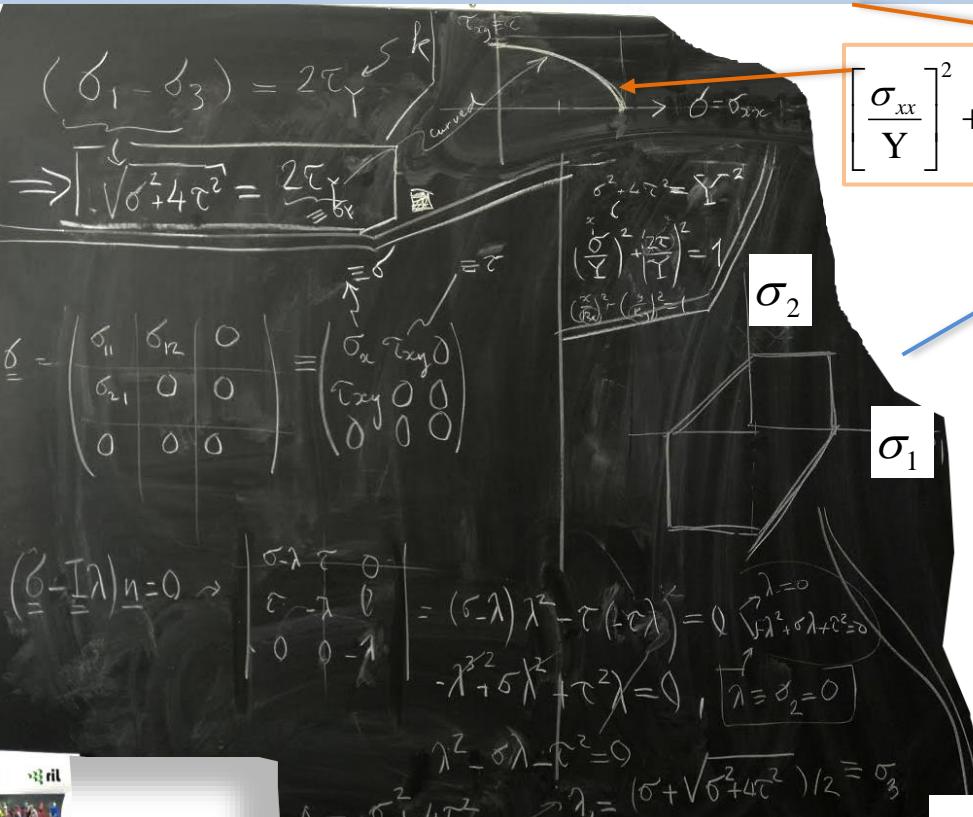
Challenge: show that Tresca yield locus, against direct intuition, is not a straight line but is a curved curve in this plane.



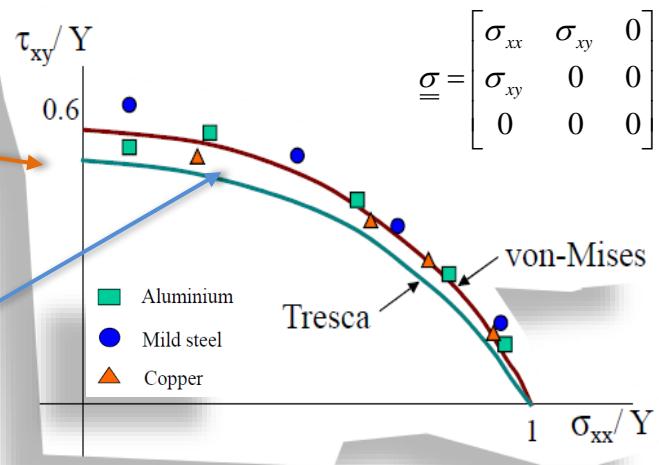
Experimental evidence
Von-Mises and Tresca



Challenge: show that Tresca yield locus, against a too rapid direct intuition, is not a straight line but is a *curved* curve in this plane.



$$\left[\frac{\sigma_{xx}}{Y} \right]^2 + \left[\frac{\sigma_{xy}}{Y/2} \right]^2 = 1$$



$$\underline{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} & 0 \\ \sigma_{xy} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_{xx}^2 + 4\sigma_{xy}^2 = Y^2 \equiv \sigma_Y^2$$

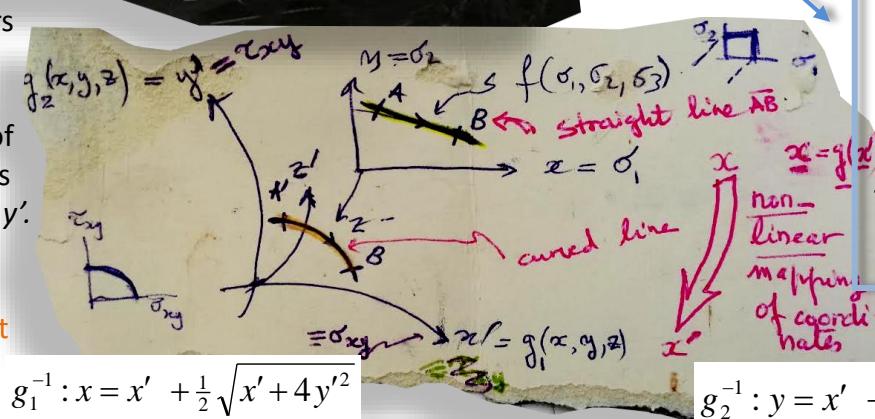
$$\left[\frac{\sigma_{xx}}{Y} \right]^2 + \left[\frac{\sigma_{xy}}{Y/2} \right]^2 = 1$$

Is an ellipse when Tresca yield condition is expressed in the coordinates σ_{xx}, σ_{xy}

N.B. when it is expressed in principle stresses coordinates

$$\sigma_1, \sigma_2 = 0, \sigma_3$$

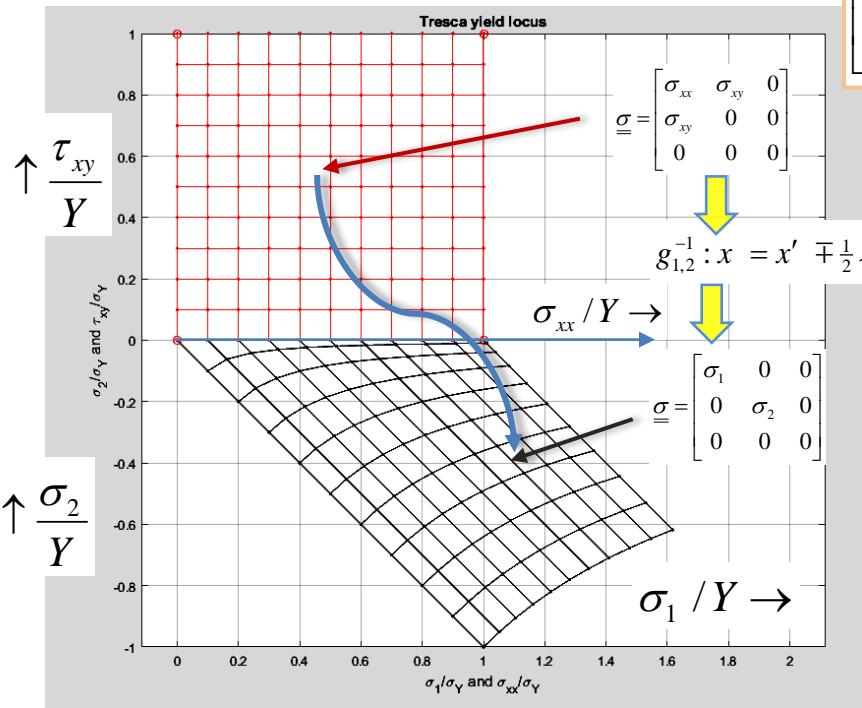
then the yield locus is formed by straight lines



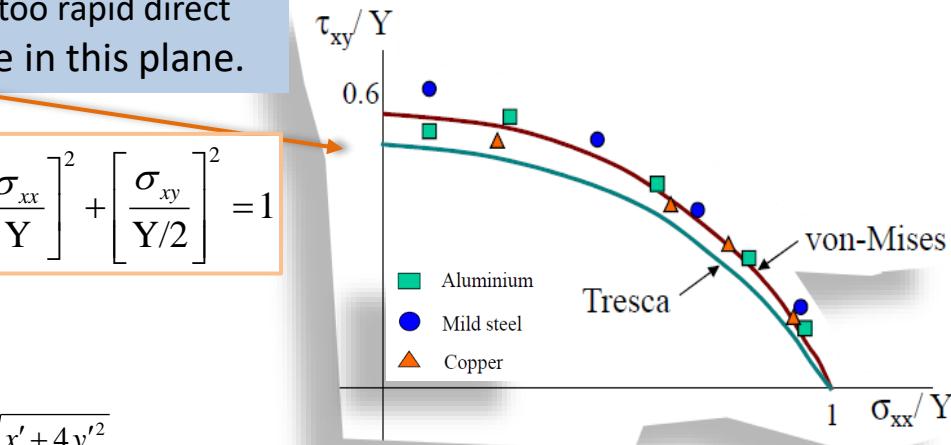
$$g_1^{-1}: y = x' - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{x'^2 + 4y'^2}$$

The geometric 'paradox' disappears when we write our geometrical mapping familiar notation from geometry and write the equation of a straight line - given in coordinates x, y - in a new coordinate system x', y' . The mapping $g(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ between the two coordinate systems is NOT LINEAR. It why the mapped straight segment AB is curved in the new coordinate system to A'B'

Challenge: show that Tresca yield locus, against a too rapid direct intuition, is not a straight line but is a *curved* curve in this plane.



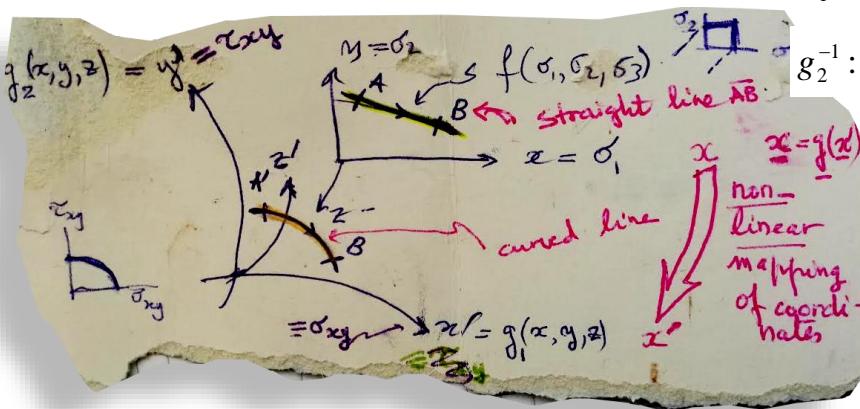
$$\left[\frac{\sigma_{xx}}{Y} \right]^2 + \left[\frac{\sigma_{xy}}{Y/2} \right]^2 = 1$$



$$\begin{aligned} (\sigma + \sqrt{\sigma^2 + 4\tau^2})/2 &\equiv \sigma_3 \\ -(\sigma - \sqrt{\sigma^2 + 4\tau^2})/2 &\equiv \sigma_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{xx}^2 + 4\sigma_{xy}^2 &= Y^2 \equiv \sigma_Y^2 \\ \left[\frac{\sigma_{xx}}{Y} \right]^2 + \left[\frac{\sigma_{xy}}{Y/2} \right]^2 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Is an ellipse when Tresca yield condition is expressed in the coordinates σ_{xx}, σ_{xy}



$$g_1^{-1}: x = x' + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{x'^2 + 4y'^2}$$

$$g_2^{-1}: y = x' - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{x'^2 + 4y'^2}$$

N.B. when it is expressed in principle stresses coordinates

$$\sigma_1, \sigma_2 = 0, \sigma_3$$

then the yield locus is formed by straight lines

$$g_{1,2}^{-1}: x = x' \mp \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{x'^2 + 4y'^2}$$

Reading assignment:

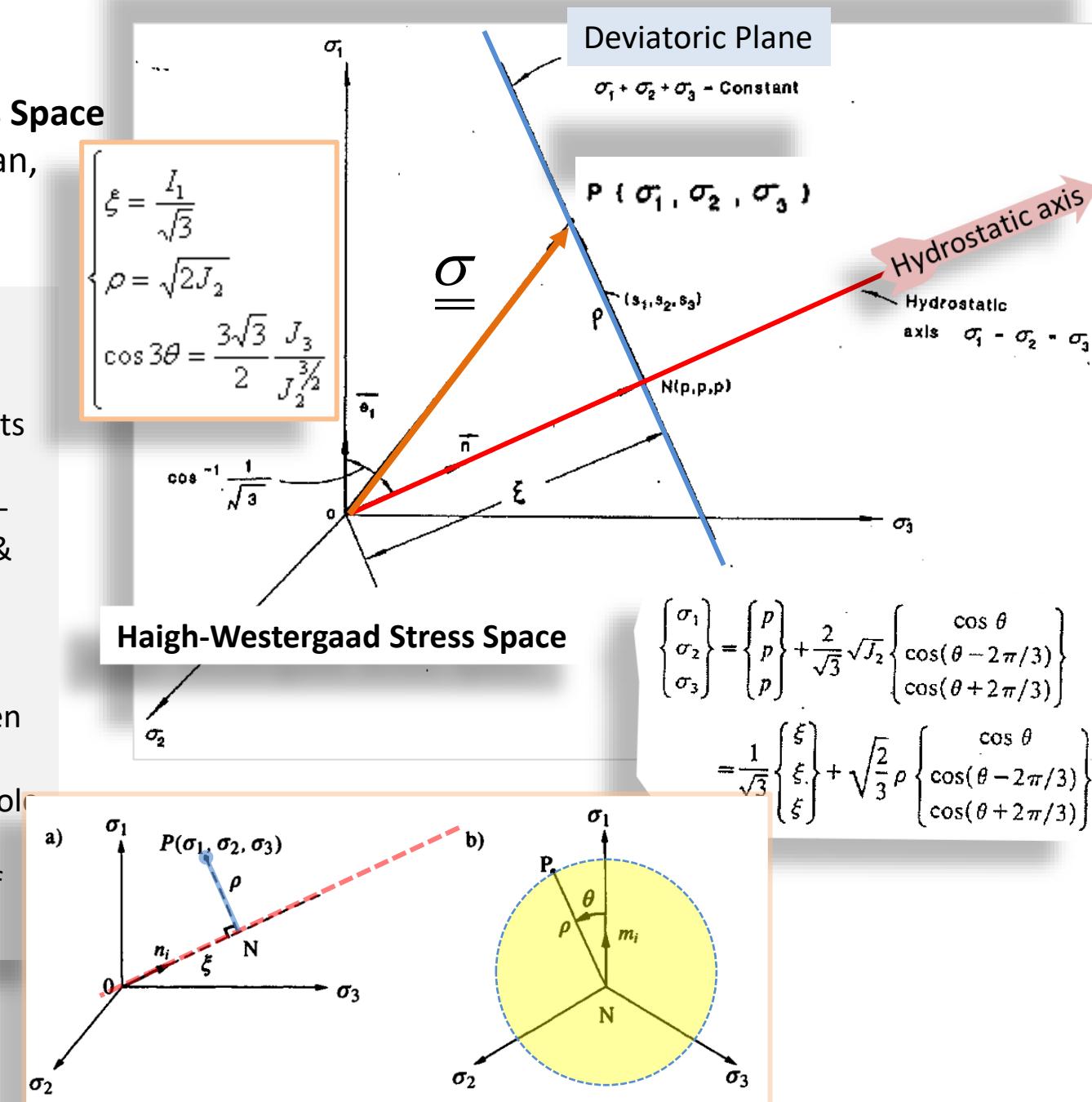
Haigh-Westergaard Stress Space

chapter 2.1.9 - Chan & Han,
*Plasticity for Structural
 Engineers*

Haigh-Westergaard Stress Space

- a very useful and concepts clarifying 3D-geometric representation for stress-state and yield surfaces & in general, for studying plasticity
- The stress-space is chosen as the three principle stresses which play the role of coordinates for a representative point P of the stress state.

$$P(\underline{\underline{\sigma}}) = P(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3)$$



Haigh-Westergaard coordinate system: deviatoric plane perpendicular

Pressure dependent Yield criteria

- Mohr-Coulomb yield criterion
- Drucker-Prager yield criterion

Drucker-Prager yield criterion

As stated earlier for metals and metal alloys – no plastic volume changes are shown during plastic flow for not very high hydrostatic pressures. Therefore the assumption of incompressibility during plastic deformation is realistic enough for structural engineers and the von Mises yield criteria describe well the plastic deformation in metals.

It is well known that granular and friction materials - as geomaterials; soils, rock and concrete* (multiaxial loading) – have a non-negligible plastic volume increase (volumetric dilatation, dilatancy) during ‘plastic flow’(under shearing) and consequently, the von Mises yield criterion *fails* ... unless one modifies it in order to account for this change in plastic volume accompanying the yielding.

Drucker and Prager did exactly that and they formulated a *modified (or generalized*) von Mises criterion* by adding a term accounting for the hydrostatic pressure (the mean stress term).

* The Drucker–Prager criterion goes back to the *Mohr theory of rupture* in which failure (rupture) occurs on a plane in a body when the shear stress and normal stress (=pressure) on that plane achieve some defined critical combination. The Drucker–Prager failure criterion was established as a generalization of the Mohr–Coulomb criterion for soils.

From the yield surface one can note that, as compared to the von Mises criterion (a tube),

- there is a *limit for tensile* mean stresses
- the material is strengthened by superimposing of compressive mean pressure

Drucker-Prager criterion (1952)

$$f(I_1, J_2; k) = \sqrt{J_2} + \alpha I_1 - k = 0,$$

Hydrostatic pressure:

$$I_1 = \frac{1}{3} \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) = \frac{1}{3} (\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} + \sigma_{33})$$

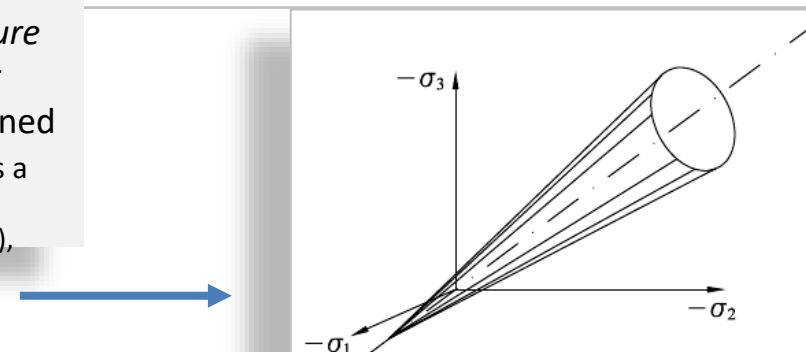
α – a friction-type material parameter k – a threshold parameter

These parameters can be expressed as ‘cohesion’ and ‘internal friction angle’ or they can be determined from triaxial tests drawing in

I_1, J_2 -space.

$$k_{VM} = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3}$$

Cf. Von Mises: $f(J_2; k) = \sqrt{J_2} - k_{VM} = 0,$



For concrete, Ottosen’s 4-parameter failure criterion for concrete is more adequate, (presented few slides later)

Suggested reading: State-of-the-art report, bulletin 45. 2008, task group 4.4. Fib CEB-FIP – Practitioner’s guide to finite element modelling of reinforced concrete structures

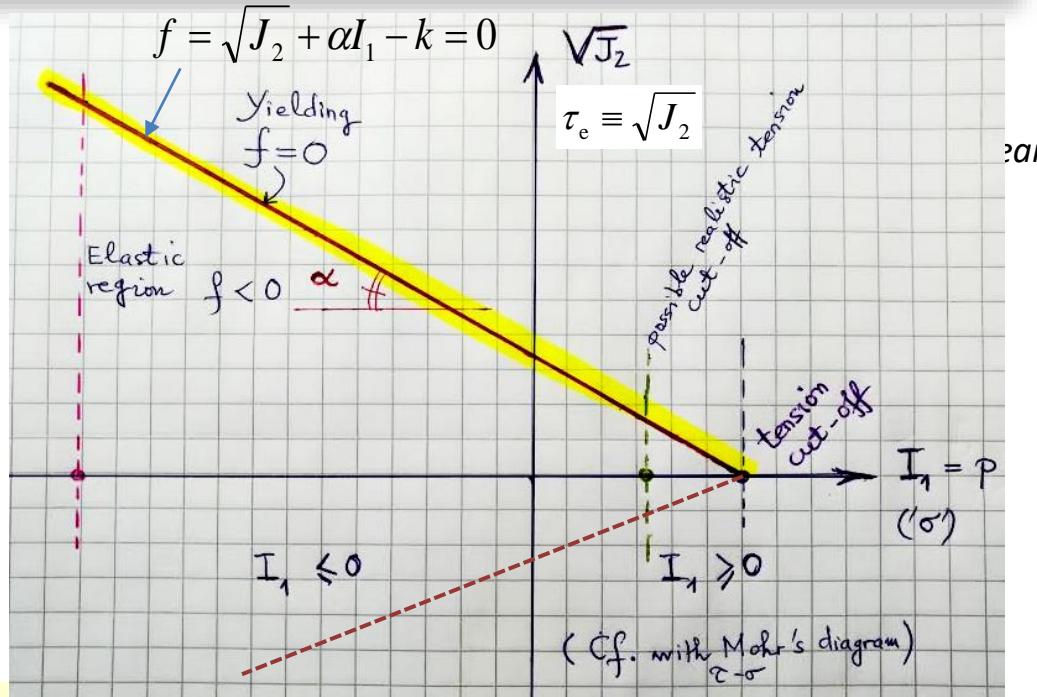
Drucker-Prager criterion

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}' \equiv \mathbf{s} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} - p\mathbf{I} \Leftrightarrow s_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} - p\delta_{ij}I_1 \rightarrow \text{The deviatoric stress (shear)}$$

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{s} : \mathbf{s} \Rightarrow \sqrt{J_2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}s_{ij}s_{ij}} \equiv \tau_e \quad \text{Equivalent stress}$$

The model parameters in terms of *internal friction angle* ϕ and of *cohesion* intercept C of the material are:

$$\alpha = \frac{2 \sin \phi}{\sqrt{3}(3 - \sin \phi)}, \quad k = \frac{6c \cdot \cos \phi}{\sqrt{3}(3 - \sin \phi)}$$



From the yield surface one can note that, as compared to the von Mises criterion (a 'tube'),

- there is a *limit for tensile mean stresses*
- the material *strengthening* by superimposing of *compressive mean pressure* (*confinement*)

Drucker-Prager (DP) criterion:

$$f(I_1, J_2; k) = \sqrt{J_2} + \alpha I_1 - k = 0,$$

Hydrostatic pressure:

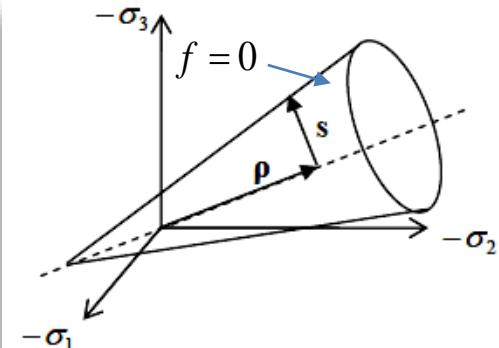
$$I_1 = \frac{1}{3} \text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) = \frac{1}{3} (\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} + \sigma_{33})$$

α — a friction-type material parameter

k — a threshold parameter

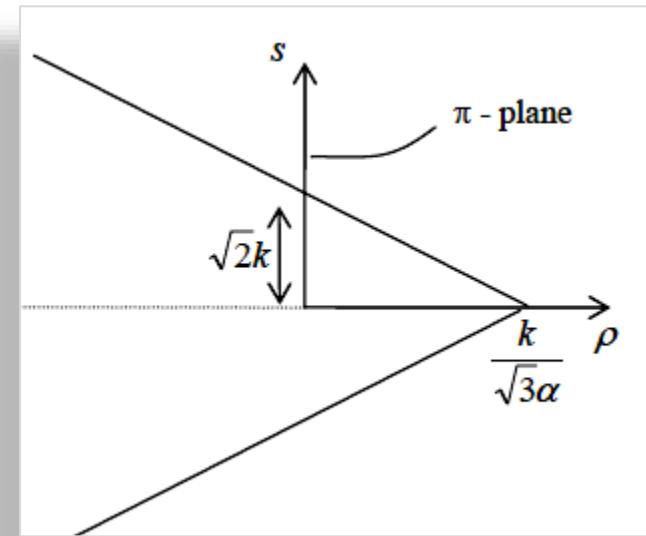
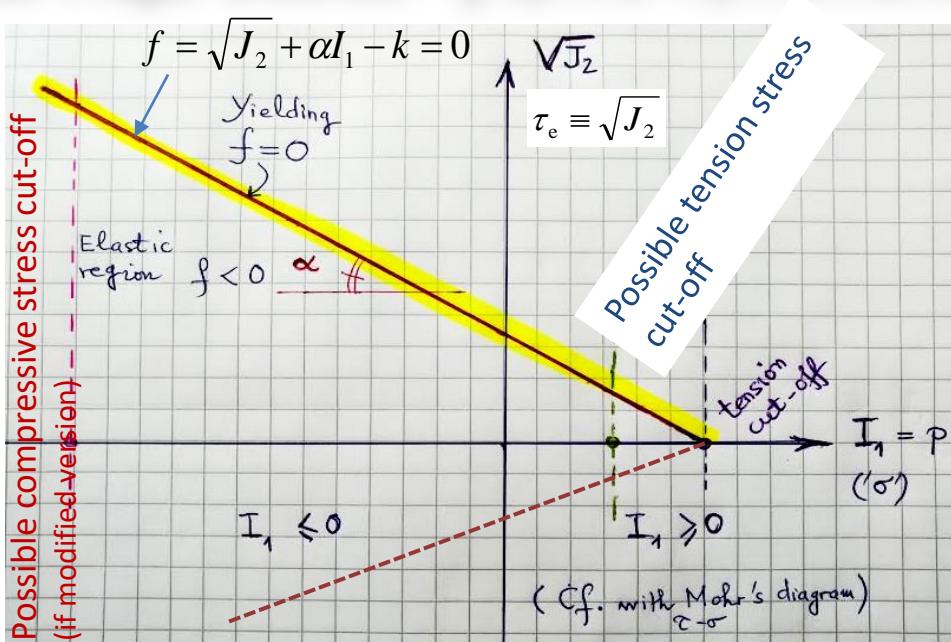
These material parameters can be expressed as '*cohesion*' and '*internal friction angle*' or they can be determined from triaxial tests graphs in space.
 $I_1, \sqrt{J_2} -$

The Drucker-Prager cone



NB. Some experimental results on RC show indicate that **concrete** does not response linearly, as assumed in DP-model, in the space $\sqrt{J_2} - I_1$ when subjected to severe hydrostatic pressures (and probably also for very low pressures)

Drucker-Prager criterion – graphical representation



The Drucker-Prager criteria in the Meridian Plane

The Drucker-Prager cone

$$f(I_1, J_2; k) = \sqrt{J_2} + \alpha I_1 - k = 0,$$

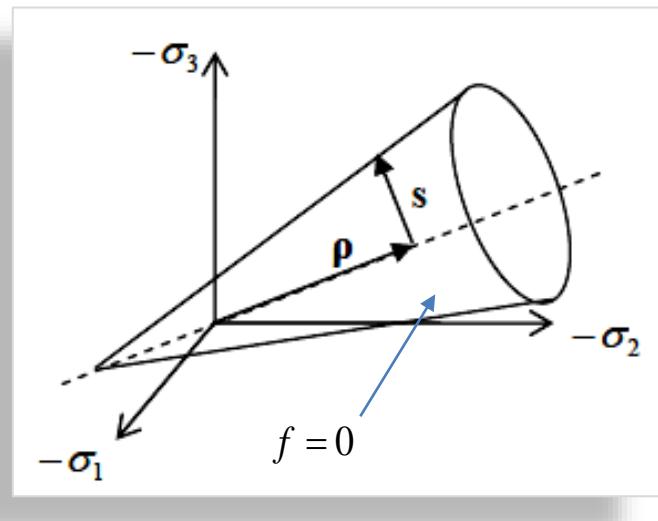


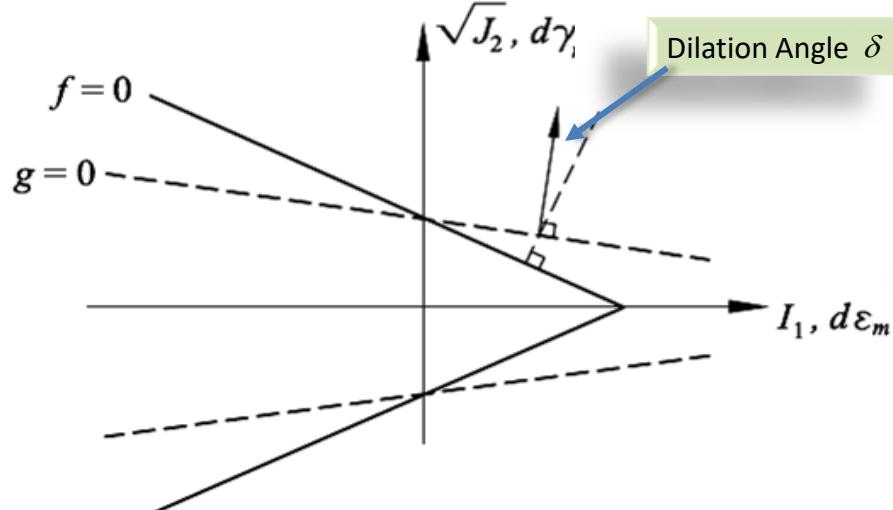
Illustration: Non-associated plasticity, flow rule

$$f(\sigma) = \sqrt{J_2} + \alpha I_1 - k$$

$$g(\sigma) = \sqrt{J_2} + \beta I_1 - k$$

Drucker-Prager yield criterion

Flow rule



Drucker-Prager plasticity with nonassociated flow rule.

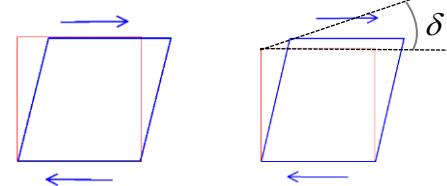
non-associated
 $d\epsilon_p$

associated

$$f = 0$$

$$g = 0$$

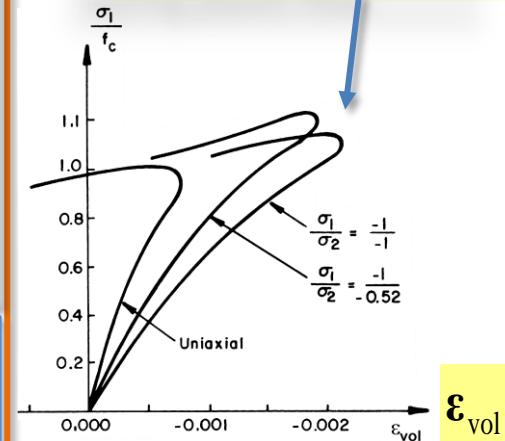
The angle of dilation controls an amount of plastic volumetric strain development during plastic flow



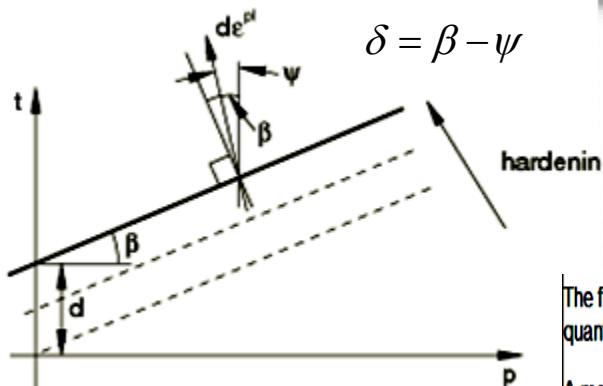
Zero dilatancy,
associative
Incompressible
plastic flow

Dilatancy not null,
non-associative,
compressible
plastic flow

Volumetric Strain grows
during plastic flow



Concrete Compressive Stress Versus
Volumetric Strain (Data from Kupfer, 1969
as Presented by Chan and Han, 1988)



$\beta \equiv \phi$ - internal friction angle

δ - dilatancy angle



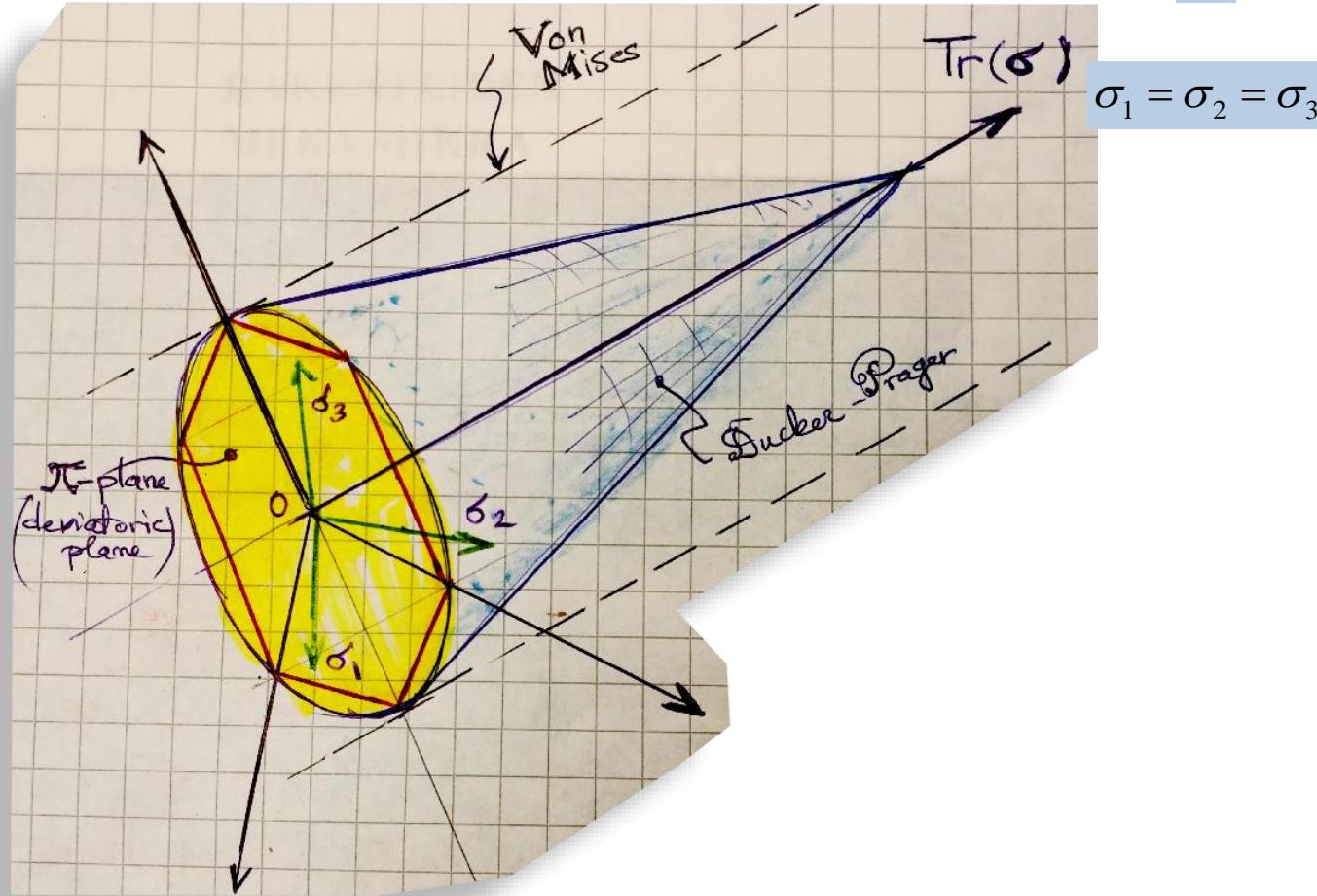
The formulation treats β as constant with respect to stress, although it is straightforward to extend the theory to provide for the functional dependence of β on quantities such as p .

A method for converting Mohr-Coulomb data (ϕ , the angle of Coulomb friction, and c , the cohesion) to appropriate values of β and d is described in the [Abaqus Analysis User's Guide](#).

Schematic of hardening and flow for the linear model in the $p-t$ plane.

Drucker-Prager criterion

I_1



$$f(I_1, J_2; k) = \sqrt{J_2} + \alpha I_1 - k = 0,$$

Equivalent stress: $\sqrt{J_2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} s_{ij} s_{ij}} \equiv \tau_e$

The yield criteria for this class of models are based on the shape of the yield surface in the meridional plane. In ABAQUS/Standard the yield surface can have a linear form, a hyperbolic form, or a general exponent form; in ABAQUS/Explicit only the linear form is available. These surfaces are illustrated in [Figure 18.3.1-1](#).

In ABAQUS/Standard the *yield surface* can have a linear form a hyperbolic form or a general exponent form

NB the curved part of the curve in tension, often, corresponds better to observed behaviour.

Stress invariants

The yield stress sur

$$p = -\frac{1}{3} \text{trace}(\sigma),$$

and the Mises equivalent stress,

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}(\mathbf{S} : \mathbf{S})},$$

where \mathbf{S} is the stress deviator,

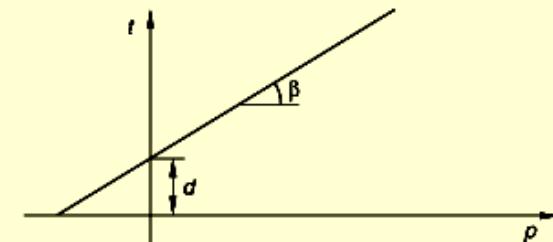
$$\mathbf{S} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} + p\mathbf{I}.$$

In addition, the linear model also uses the third invariant of deviatoric stress.

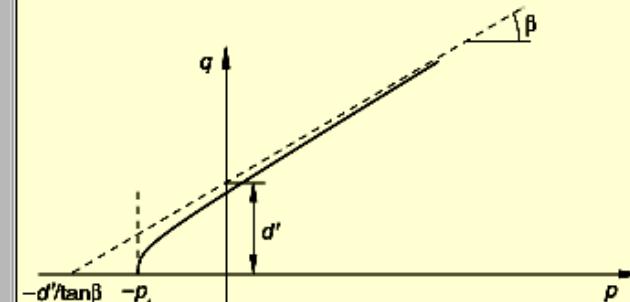
$$r = \left(\frac{9}{2}\mathbf{S} : \mathbf{S} : \mathbf{S}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}.$$

$$t = \frac{1}{2}q \left[1 + \frac{1}{K} - \left(1 - \frac{1}{K} \right) \left(\frac{r}{q} \right)^3 \right]. \quad 0.778 \leq K \leq 1.0$$

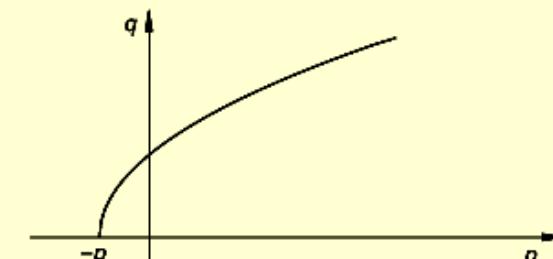
Figure 18.3.1-1 Yield surfaces in the meridional plane.



a) Linear Drucker-Prager: $F = t - p \tan \beta - d = 0$

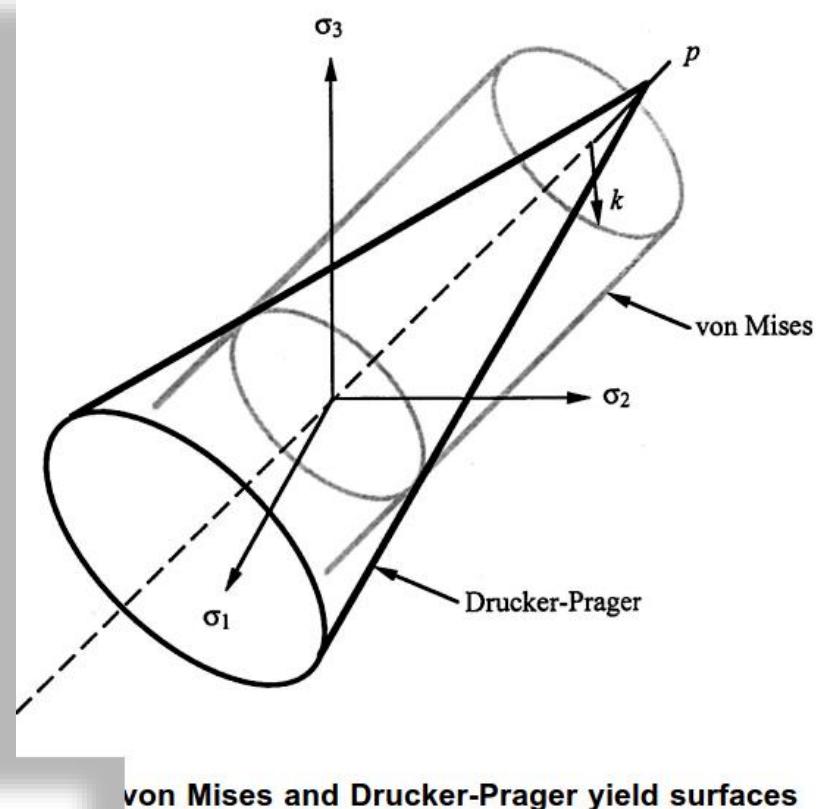


b) Hyperbolic: $F = \sqrt{(d')^2 - p_{t_0}^2 \tan^2 \beta} + q^2 - p \tan \beta - d' = 0$



c) Exponent form: $F = aq^b - p - p_{t_0} = 0$

Summary - Drucker-Prager & von Mises criteria



Possible Abaqus

Simulation- Slope Stability Failure HW

6.7.3 Numerical Examples

As an example, the plane-strain problem of a layer of material ($\phi = 20^\circ$ and $c = 10 \text{ lb/in}^2$) under a strip of uniform pressure p , as shown in Fig. 6.12, is analyzed by the finite-element method (Mizuno and Chen, 1980).

The Drucker-Prager criterion with different material constants is used. Bound-

Figure 6.12 Plane-strain problem of a layer of material under a strip loading; $E = 30 \text{ kips/in}^2$, $\nu = 0.3$, $\phi = 20^\circ$, $c = 10 \text{ lb/in}^2$.

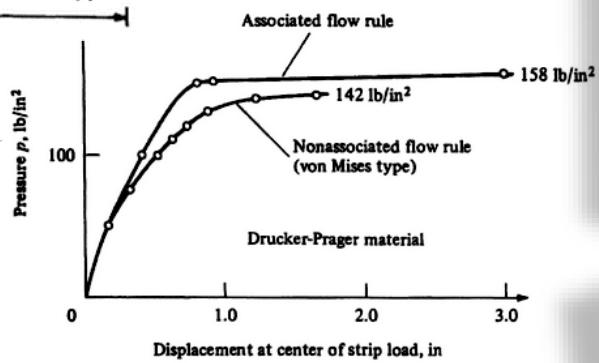
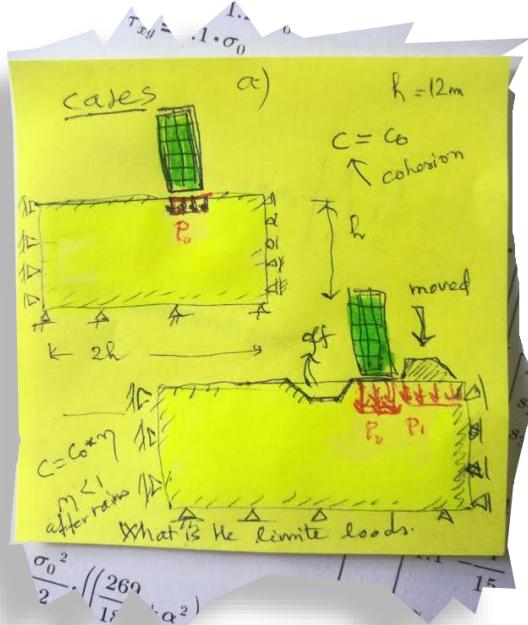
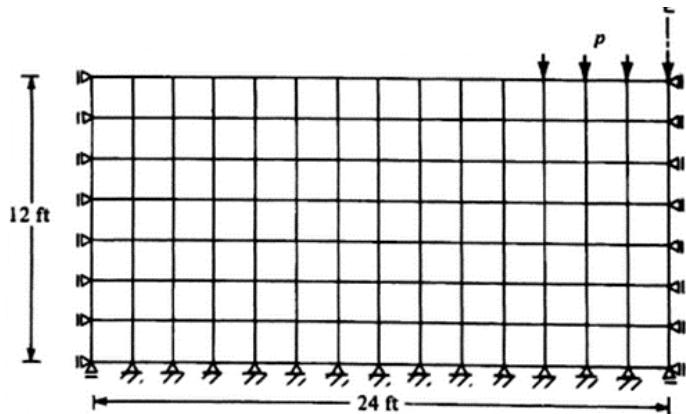
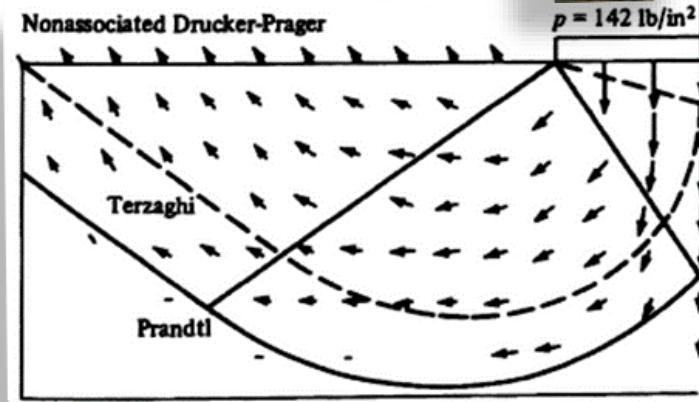


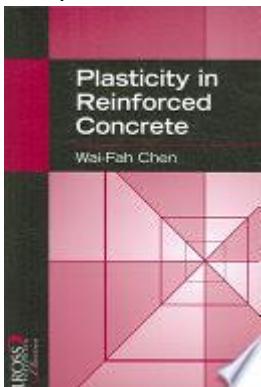
Figure 6.14 Comparison of analyses with an associated and nonassociated

Figure 6.13 Velocity field at numerical collapse load: (a) associated flow rule and small deformation (158 lb/in²); (b) nonassociated flow rule and small deformation (142 lb/in²).



Possible Comsol or Abaqus Simulation HW

Adapted from



6.7.3 Numerical Examples

As an example, the plane-strain problem of a layer of material ($\phi = 20^\circ$ and $c = 10 \text{ lb/in}^2$) under a strip of uniform pressure p , as shown in Fig. 6.12, is analyzed by the finite-element method (Mizuno and Chen, 1980).

The Drucker-Prager criterion with different material constants is used. Bound-

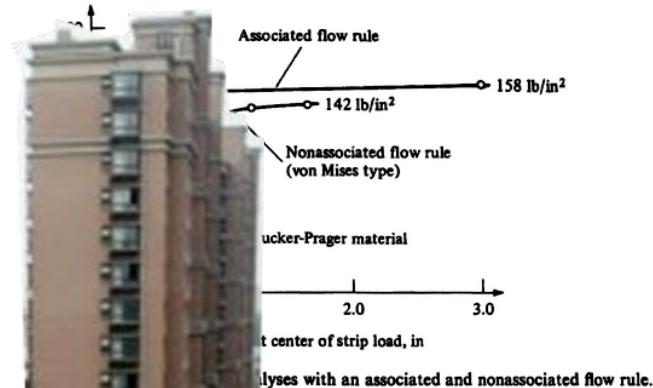
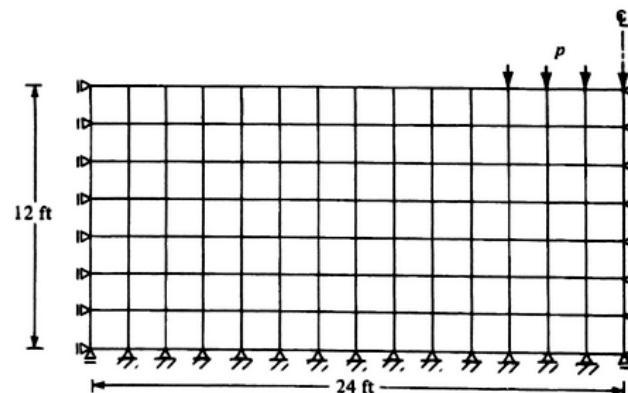
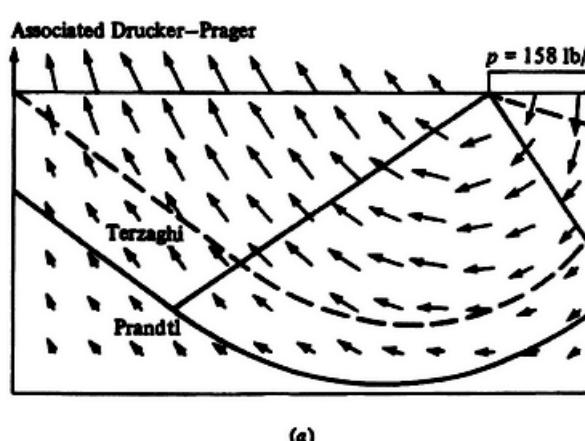
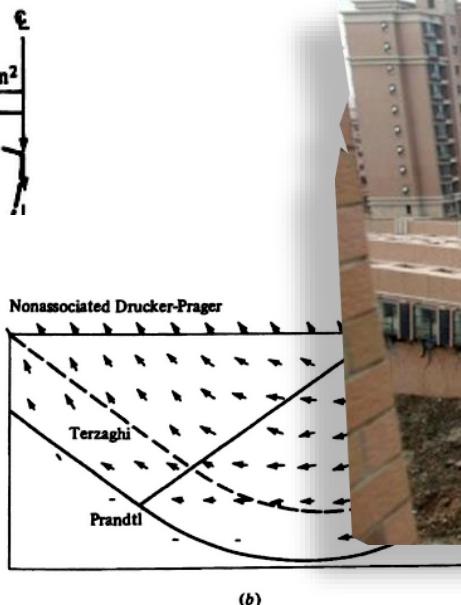


Figure 6.12 Plane-strain problem of a layer of material under a strip loading; $E = 300 \text{ lb/in}^2$, $\phi = 20^\circ$, $c = 10 \text{ lb/in}^2$.

Plasticity in Reinforced Concrete
By Wai-Fah Chen



(a)



(b)

Figure 6.15 Velocity field at numerical collapse load: (a) associated flow rule and small deformation (158 lb/in^2); (b) nonassociated flow rule and small deformation (142 lb/in^2).



Ottosen (1977) developed a **4-parameters failure criterion for concrete** which reproduces the four key properties for 'concrete' and which is one of the best models [20, 21, 22, 23].

13111

AUGUST 1977

EM4

Good to know

JOURNAL OF THE ENGINEERING MECHANICS DIVISION

Ottosen's 4-parameter failure criterion

The characteristic features for the failure surface:

1. The uniaxial *tensile* strength is 5 – 10% of the uniaxial compressive strength
2. The shape of the failure curves on the meridian plane is slightly curved
3. Hydrostatic compression cannot cause failure
4. The shape of the failure locus on the deviatoric plane is triangular for small hydrostatic pressure and gets rounded with increasing hydrostatic pressure.

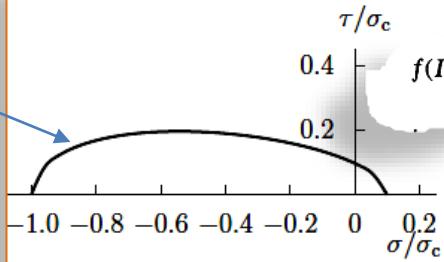
Ref. Saba Tahaei Yaghoubi, Reijo Kouhia, Juha Hartikainen and Kari Kolari. A continuum damage model based on Ottosen's four parameter failure criterion for concrete. *Rakenteiden Mekaniikka* (Journal of Structural Mechanics) Vol. 47, No 2, 2014, pp. 50 – 66

$$A \frac{J_2}{\sigma_c} + \Lambda \sqrt{J_2} + BI_1 - \sigma_c = 0,$$

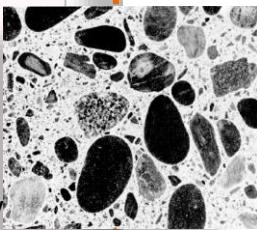
$$\Lambda = \begin{cases} k_1 \cos[\frac{1}{3} \arccos(k_2 \cos 3\theta)] & \text{if } \cos 3\theta \geq 0 \\ k_1 \cos[\frac{1}{3}\pi - \frac{1}{3} \arccos(-k_2 \cos 3\theta)] & \text{if } \cos 3\theta \leq 0 \end{cases}.$$

$$\cos 3\theta = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2} \frac{J_3}{J_2^{3/2}}, \quad A \geq 0; \quad B \geq 0; \quad k_1 \geq 0; \quad 0 \leq k_2 \leq 1.$$

N.B. the graph is a curved curve and not a straight line as in Mohr-Coulomb or Drucker-Prager



σ_c – uniaxial compression test, failure stress

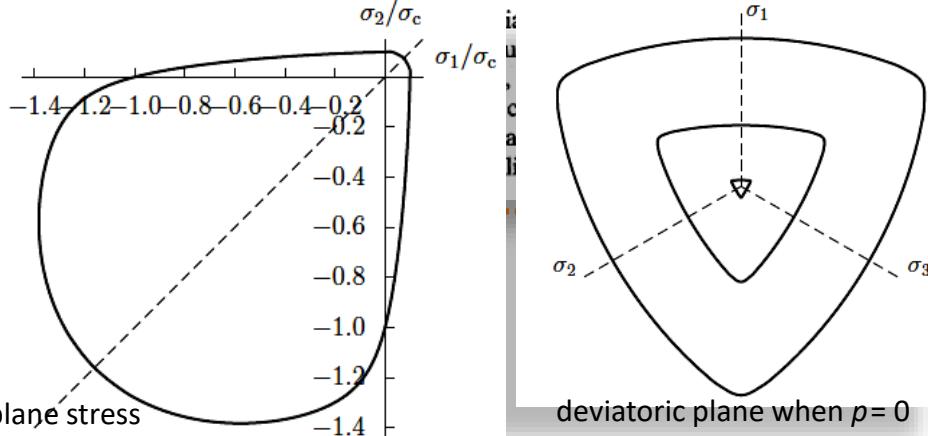


A FAILURE CRITERION FOR CONCRETE

By Niels Saabye Ottosen¹

INTRODUCTION

At the present stage of computer programs development, the use of inadequate material models is often one of the limiting factors in structural analysis. This



[20] N.S. Ottosen. A failure criterion for concrete. *Journal of the Engineering Mechanics, ASCE*, 103(EM4):527–535, August 1977.

element analysis of concrete structures. Technical Research Laboratory, DK-4000 Roskilde, Denmark, May 1980.

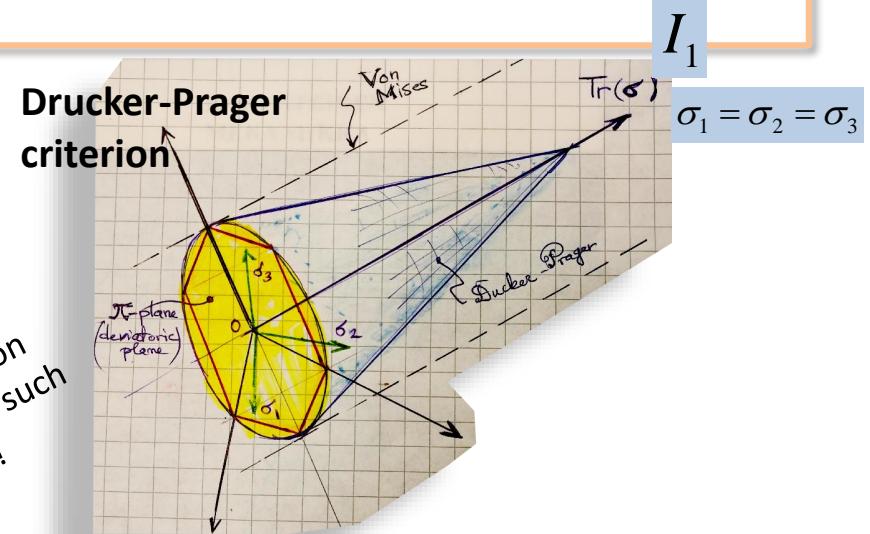
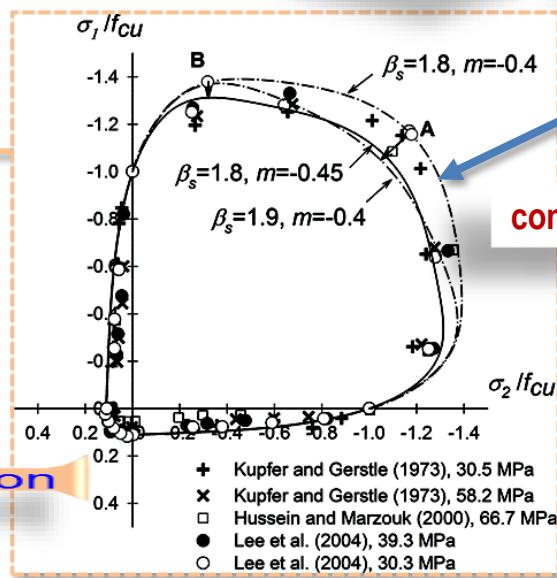
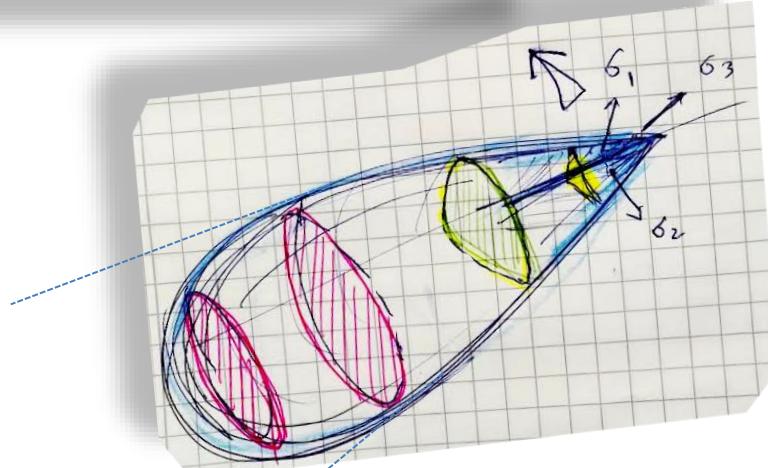
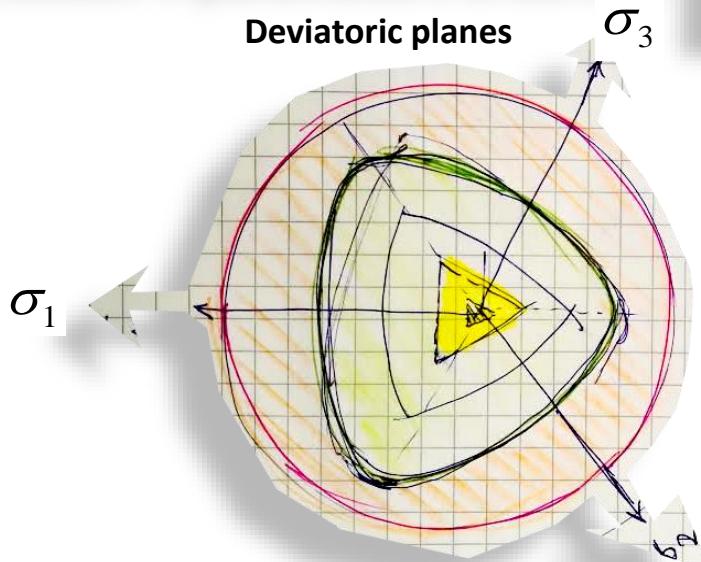
Recommended reading: State-of-the-art report, bulletin 45. 2008, task group 4.4. *fib CEB-FIP – Practitioner's guide to finite element modelling of reinforced concrete structures*

$$f(I_1, J_2, \cos 3\theta) = A \frac{J_2}{\sigma_c^2} + \lambda \frac{\sqrt{J_2}}{\sigma_c} + B \frac{I_1}{\sigma_c} - 1 = 0.$$

[23] K. Willam and E.P. Warnke. Concrete. In *IABSE Proceedings*, volume Structures Subjected to Triaxial Str

Ottosen 4-parameters criterion:

$$A \frac{J_2}{\sigma_c} + \Lambda \sqrt{J_2} + BI_1 - \sigma_c = 0,$$



Concrete – plane stress

The Ottosen 4-parameter General model

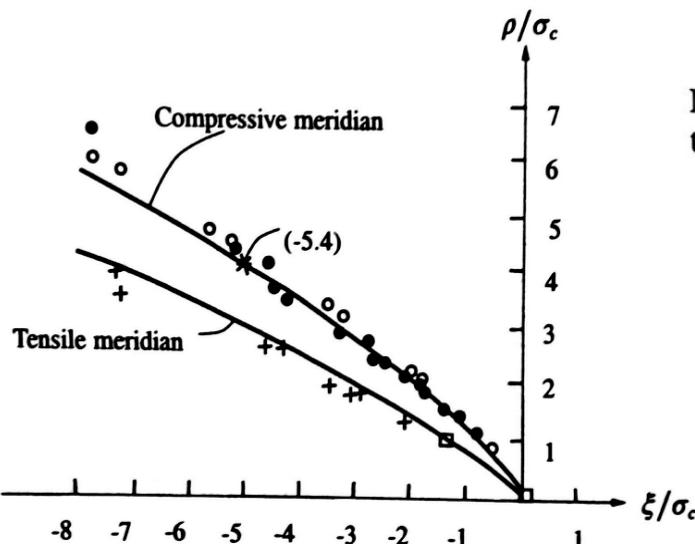
Ref: the Ottosen *et al.* textbook (reading elective assignment)

4-parameter criterion was proposed by Ottosen (1977)

$$A \frac{J_2}{\sigma_c^2} + \lambda \frac{\sqrt{J_2}}{\sigma_c} + B \frac{I_1}{\sigma_c} - 1 = 0 \quad 8.62$$

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} K_1 \cos[\frac{1}{3} \arccos(K_2 \cos 3\theta)] & \text{if } \cos 3\theta \geq 0 \\ K_1 \cos[\frac{\pi}{3} - \frac{1}{3} \arccos(-K_2 \cos 3\theta)] & \text{if } \cos 3\theta \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

Experimental validation



4-parameter criterion compared with experimental data in the meridian plane. Along compressive meridian: Balmer (1949)o, Richart *et al.* (1928)•; along tensile meridian: Richart *et al.* (1928)+, Kupfer *et al.* (1969)□. Moreover, $\sigma_t = 0.10\sigma_c$ is assumed.

$$A \geq 0 ; \quad B \geq 0 ; \quad K_1 \geq 0 ; \quad 0 \leq K_2 \leq 1$$

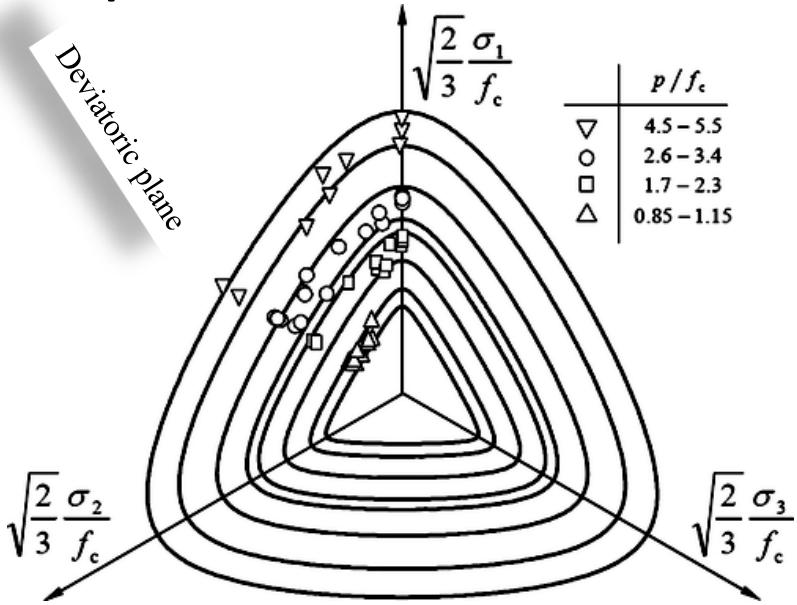
Moreover, (8.62) shows that the meridians are smooth, convex and curved and to obtain further insight we may solve (8.62) to obtain

Eq. 8.62 in the meridian plane

$$\frac{\sqrt{J_2}}{\sigma_c} = \frac{1}{2A} \left[-\lambda + \sqrt{\lambda^2 - 4A(B \frac{I_1}{\sigma_c} - 1)} \right]$$

The idea in this slide is to show experimental evidence of the existence of a failure surface

Experimental validation

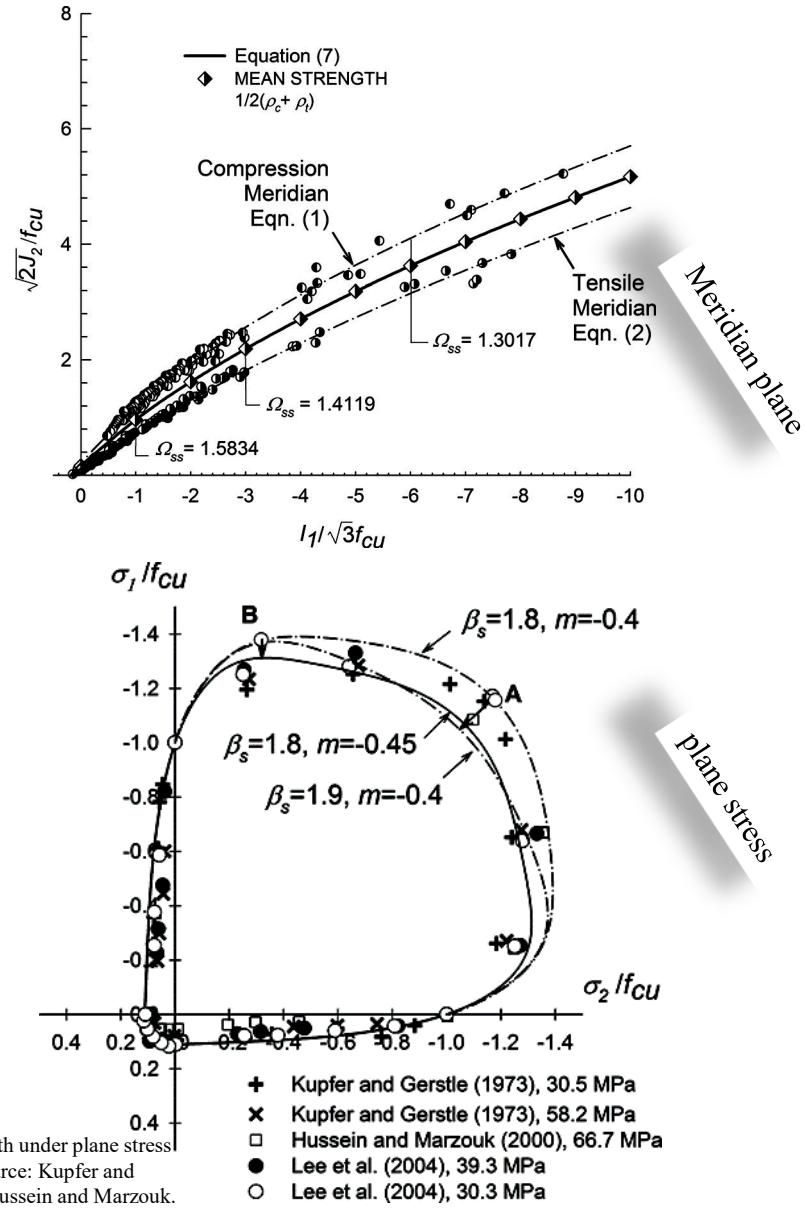


Comparison of the experimental results by Guo and Wang 1991 and the modeling results by using the proposed criterion p is held constant

Ref: J. Eng. Mech., 2010, 136(1): 51-59

Nonlinear Unified Strength Criterion for Concrete under Three-Dimensional stress States. Xiu-Li Du; De-Chun Lu; Qiu-Ming Gong; and Mi Zhao

Mean concrete strength from compression and tension data



Concrete strength under plane stress
Conditions. Source: Kupfer and Gerstle 1973; Hussein and Marzouk 2000; Lee et al. 2004

Ref: Simple Single-Surface Failure Criterion for Concrete. Sean D. Hinchberger

J. Eng. Mech., 2009, 135(7): 729-732

Time-independent material models for concrete

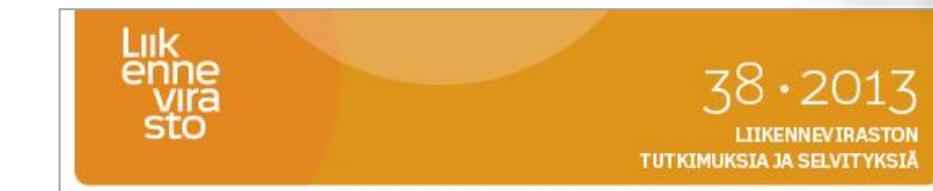
Good to know

Recommended reading

Recommended reading for future
and actual engineers in structures:

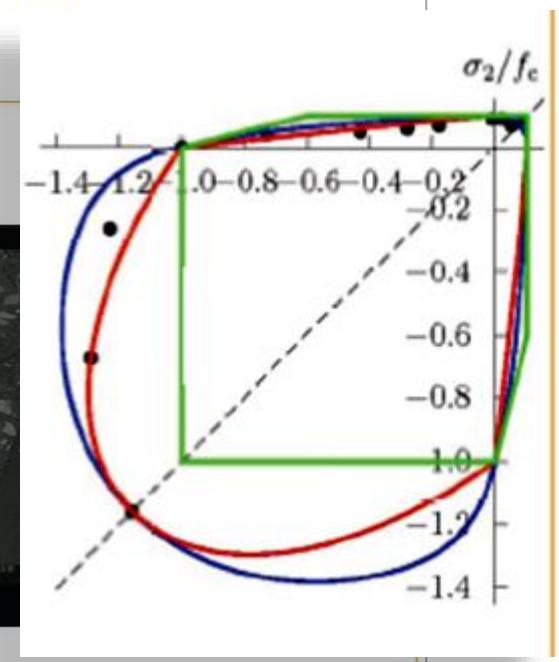
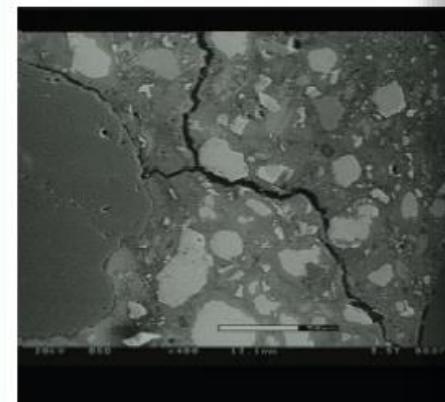
An extensive detailed review on
existing material models for concrete
for time-independent behavior

By Prof. Reijo Kouhia



Betonin ajasta riippumattomat
materiaalimallit

Concrete



Hoek–Brown failure criterion

Good to know

The Hoek–Brown failure criterion is used widely in mining engineering design.

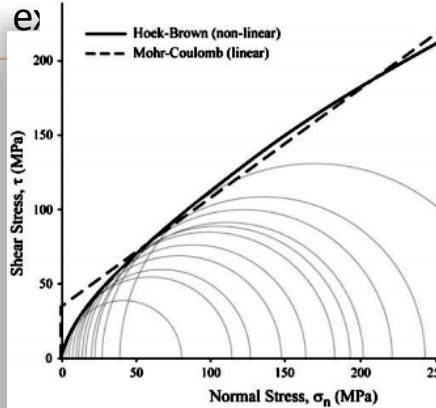
The **Hoek–Brown failure criterion** is an **empirical** stress failure criterion (surface) used in rock mechanics to predict the failure of rock.

Updated of the criterion (2002) exists and it includes improvements accounting for geological strength index (**GSI**), and may be also to include the effect of the missing stress component σ_2 .

[This criteria – Have two parameters only – it has some serious shortcomings (flaws) and it needs more improvements, work is going on.

Cf. with Ottosen 4-parameter model]

The basic idea of the Hoek–Brown criterion was to start with the properties *intact rock* and to add factors to reduce those properties because of the



The **GSI** characterizes for ex. rock-mass strength and deformation modulus (GSI-system describes rock structure and surface conditions). Such properties are needed in analysis in rock engineering for designing tunnels, slopes or foundations in rocks

In its original form:

This criterion was conceived based on Hoek's experiences with brittle rock failure and his use of a parabolic Mohr envelope derived from Griffith's crack theory [1].

Failure criteria

In terms of principal effective stresses:

$$-\sigma_1 + \sigma_3 + \sqrt{A\sigma_3 + B^2} = 0$$

$\sigma_i, i = 1, 2, 3$ - **effective stresses**

A, B - materials constants

$$A = A(GSI, \dots), \quad B = B(GSI, \dots)$$

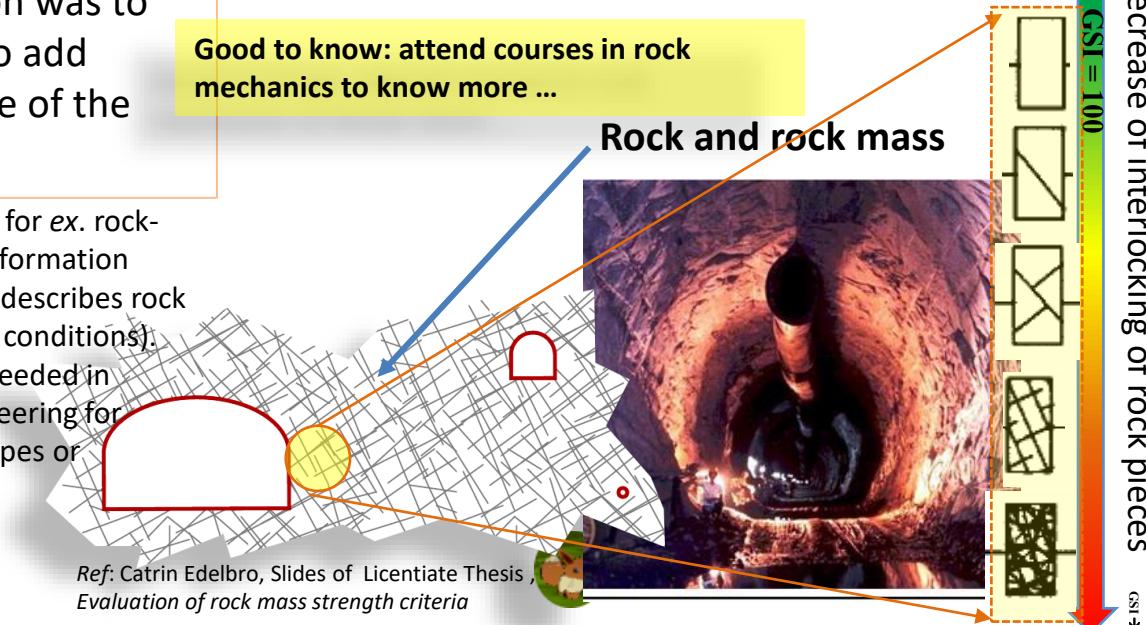
In terms of maximum shear stress and mean normal stresses:

$$\tau_m - \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{A(\sigma_m - \tau_m) + B^2} = 0$$

$$\tau_m = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3), \quad \sigma_m = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_3)$$

σ_2 is assumed not 'affecting' the criterion

Good to know: attend courses in rock mechanics to know more ...



[1] Ref: Rock Mech Rock Eng (2012) 45:981–988

DOI 10.1007/s00603-012-0276-4

The GSI - Index

Good to know

Failure criteria

For intact rock:

Evert Hoek

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 + \sigma_{ci} \sqrt{m_i \frac{\sigma_3}{\sigma_{ci}} + 1}$$

$\sigma_i, i = 1, 2, 3$ - effective stresses

σ_{ci} - uniaxial compressive strength
for intact rock elements

m_i - Hoek-Brown constant for intact
rock elements

For joined rock mass:

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_3 + \sigma_{ci} \sqrt{m_b \frac{\sigma_3}{\sigma_{ci}} + s}$$

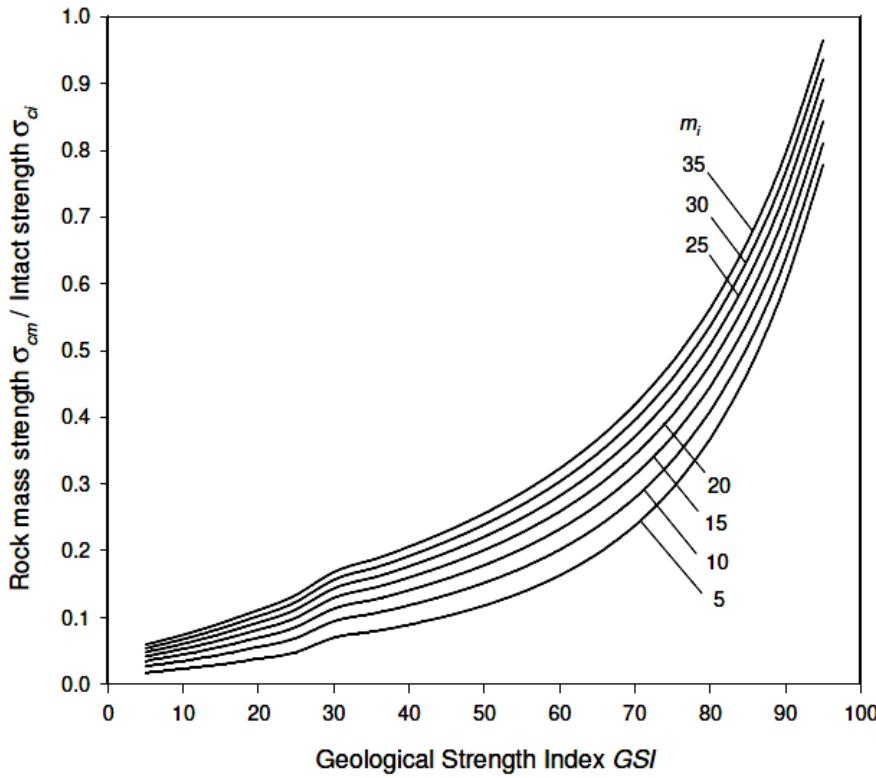
Material constants for the rock mass
Example of empiric relations

Reference:
Evert Hoek

$$-\sigma_1 + \sigma_3 + \sqrt{A\sigma_3 + B^2} = 0$$
$$A = A(GSI, \dots), B = B(GSI, \dots)$$

Rock mass properties for underground mines

Published in *Underground Mining Methods: Engineering Fundamentals and International Case Studies*. (Edited by W. A. Hustrulid and R. L. Bullock), Littleton, Colorado: Society for Mining, Metallurgy, and Exploration (SME) 2001



Ex. Ratio of uniaxial compressive strength of rock mass to intact rock
versus Geological Strength Index **GSI** (depth > 30 m)

$$m_b = m_i \exp\left[\frac{GSI - 100}{28}\right]$$
$$s = \exp\left[\frac{GSI - 100}{9}\right]$$

Abaqus – theory Manuel ...to be able to read it, at least.

DS SIMULIA

ABAQUS 6.14

THEORY GUIDE

- 3. Elements
- 4. Mechanical Constitutive Theories
 - 4.1 Overview
 - 4.2 Plasticity overview
 - 4.2.1 Plasticity models: general discussion
 - 4.2.2 Integration of plasticity models
 - 4.3 Metal plasticity
 - 4.3.1 Metal plasticity models
 - Reference
 - 4.3.2 Isotropic elasto-plasticity
 - 4.3.3 Stress potentials for anisotropic metal plasticity
 - 4.3.4 Rate-dependent metal plasticity (creep)
 - 4.3.5 Models for metals subjected to cyclic loading
 - 4.3.6 Porous metal plasticity
 - 4.3.7 Cast iron plasticity
 - 4.3.8 ORNL constitutive theory
 - 4.3.9 Deformation plasticity
 - 4.3.10 Heat generation caused by plastic straining
 - 4.4 Plasticity for non-metals
 - 4.4.1 Porous elasticity
 - 4.4.2 Models for granular or polymer behavior
 - 4.4.3 Critical state models
 - The strain rate decomposition
 - Elastic behavior
 - Plastic behavior
 - Reference
 - 4.4.4 Drucker-Prager/Cap model for geological materials

ISOTROPIC ELASTO-PLASTICITY

The elasticity can be written in volumetric and deviatoric components as follows.

Volumetric:

$$p = -K\epsilon_{vol},$$

where

$$p = -\frac{1}{3} \text{trace}(\sigma)$$

is the equivalent pressure stress.

Deviatoric:

$$\mathbf{S} = 2G \mathbf{e}^{el},$$

where \mathbf{S} is the deviatoric stress,

$$\mathbf{S} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} + p \mathbf{I}.$$

The flow rule is

$$d\mathbf{e}^{pl} = d\bar{\epsilon}^{pl} \mathbf{n},$$

$$f(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) = q,$$

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\mathbf{S}}{q},$$

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} \mathbf{S} : \mathbf{S}},$$

$$\mathbf{S} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} - \frac{1}{3} \text{trace}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) \mathbf{I} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} - \frac{1}{3} \mathbf{II} : (\boldsymbol{\sigma}).$$

circle in the plane normal to the hydrostatic axis is

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{1}{q} \frac{3}{2} \mathbf{S},$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \sigma \partial \sigma} = \frac{1}{q} \left(\frac{3}{2} \mathbf{S} - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{II} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)$$

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{3}{2} S_{ij} : S_{ij} = \frac{3}{2} \mathbf{S} : \mathbf{S} \equiv 3J_2$$

and is defined by the

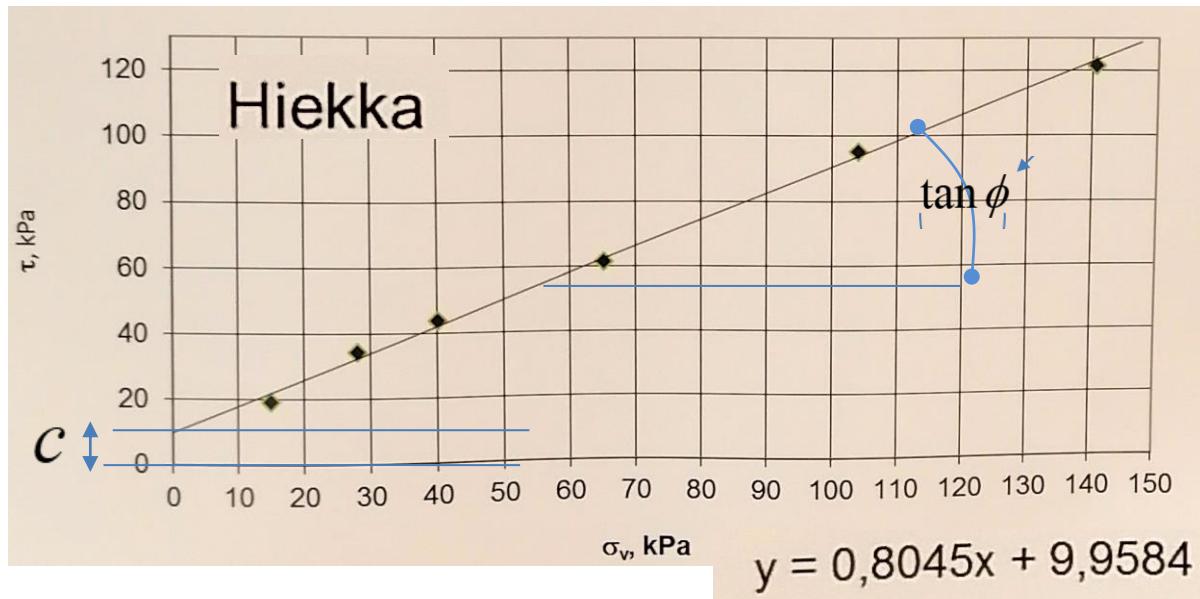
fourth-order tensor function of the Mises function to allow

$$\sigma_{xz}^2 +$$

Mohr-Coulomb yield criterion

Experimental result from a shear box with sand

(ref. 1st floor, soil mechanics lab, Raxa, 2021)



σ	τ
28,1	34,34
103,9	95,26
65,2	61,54
140,5	121,62
40,1	43,85
15	19,16

Kohde: Hannan hiekka
Raekoko: 0,25-0,50 mm
k 1
A(0) 35,65 cm²
V 142,64
Ominaistilavuus : 1,65

on failure one have:

$$|\tau| = c - \sigma_n \tan \phi$$

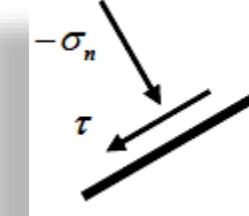
$$\equiv \mu$$

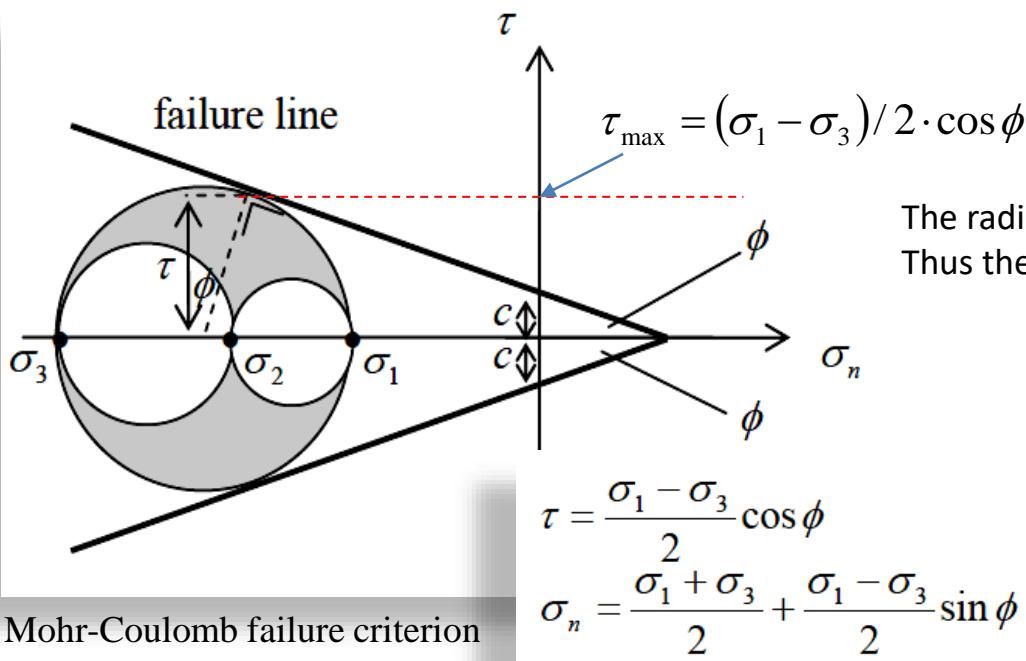
Mohr-Coulomb (failure) criterion is based on Coulomb's 1773 friction equation (Mohr 1900)

on failure one have:

$$|\tau| = c - \sigma_n \tan \phi$$

shear stress angle of internal friction
 cohesion normal stress
 $\equiv \mu$ sliding friction coefficient





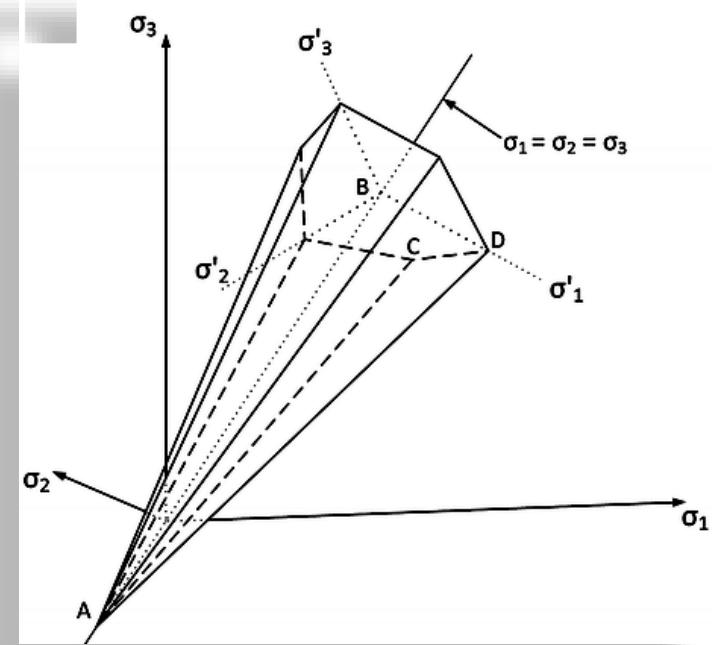
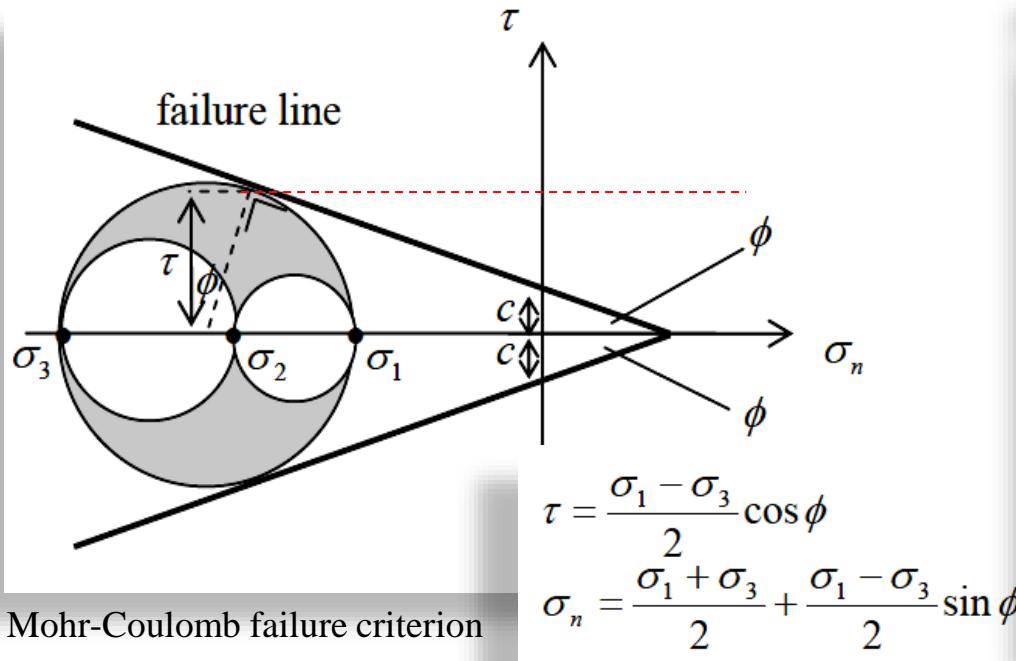
The radius of the large Mohr circle is $(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)/2$
 Thus the maximum shear stress is $\tau_{\max} = (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)/2 \cdot \cos \phi$

Mohr-Coulomb criterion:

$$(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) = 2c \cos \phi - (\sigma_1 + \sigma_3) \sin \phi$$

$$\max_{i \neq j} [\sigma_i - \sigma_j] + (\sigma_i + \sigma_j) \sin \phi = 2 \cos \phi$$

A hexagonal pyramid



Mohr-Coulomb criterion:

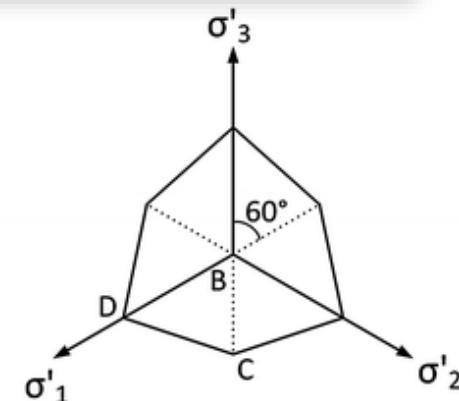
$$(\sigma_1 - \sigma_3) = 2c \cos \phi - (\sigma_1 + \sigma_3) \sin \phi$$

In terms of principle stresses:

$$\max_{i \neq j} [|\sigma_i - \sigma_j| + (\sigma_i + \sigma_j) \sin \phi] = 2c \cos \phi$$

Family of Mohr-Coulomb criteria:

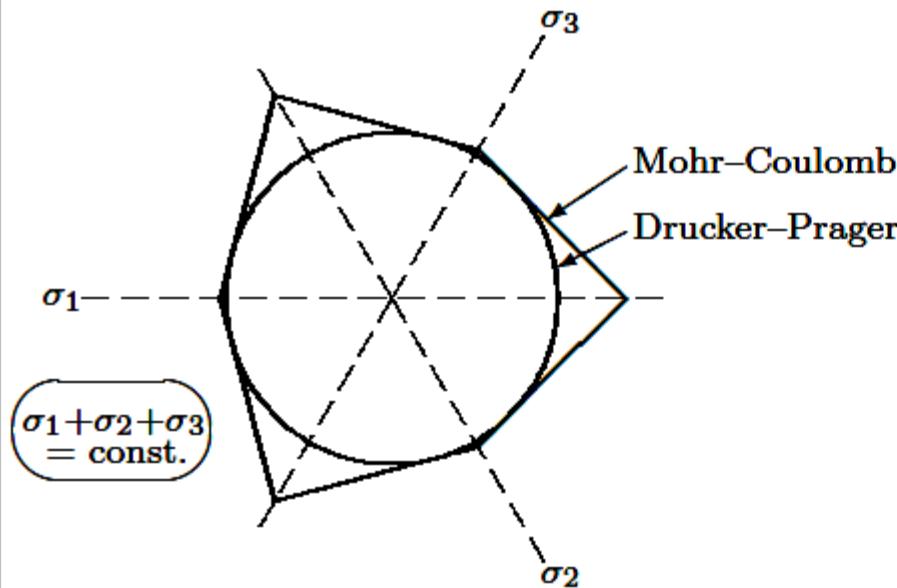
$$F(J_2, J_3) = c - \lambda I_1$$



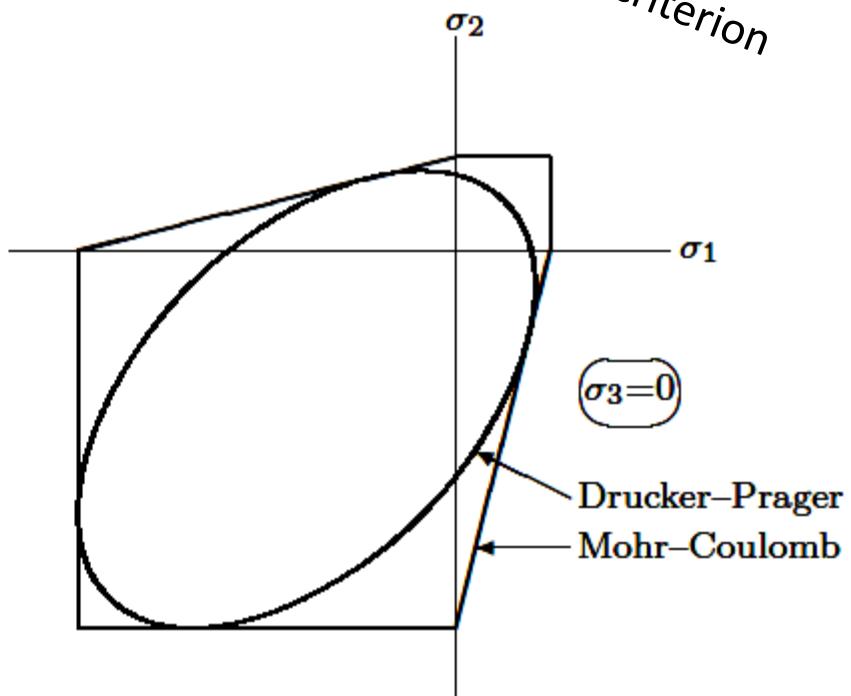
Comparison

Drucker-Prager criterion

Mohr-Coulomb yield criterion



(a)



(b)

Mohr-Coulomb and Drucker-Prager criteria: (a) plane parallel to π -plane; (b) plane stress.

Ref: Figures from Lubliner

N.B. **Good to know:** For Mohr-Coulomb and Drucker-Prager (failure, yield) surfaces applying a pure hydrostatic pressure will not affect yield since such surfaces are *open*. However, many geomaterials, as for instance soils, a large enough hydrostatic pressure will induce permanent deformation. For such cases, a *closed (capped) yield surface* is more appropriate. Such capped yield surface can be the modified *Cam-Clay criterion*... to learn more of this subject, please join the courses with these topics of geotechnics and soil mechanics, with prof. Woiteck.

$$\text{Cam-Clay criterion: } 3J_2 = -\frac{1}{3}I_1M^2(2p_c + \frac{1}{3}I_1)$$

If you got interested →
join courses of
geotechnics ...

Good to know

Material Behavior of Clay and Silt in Otaniemi

Yield Functions :

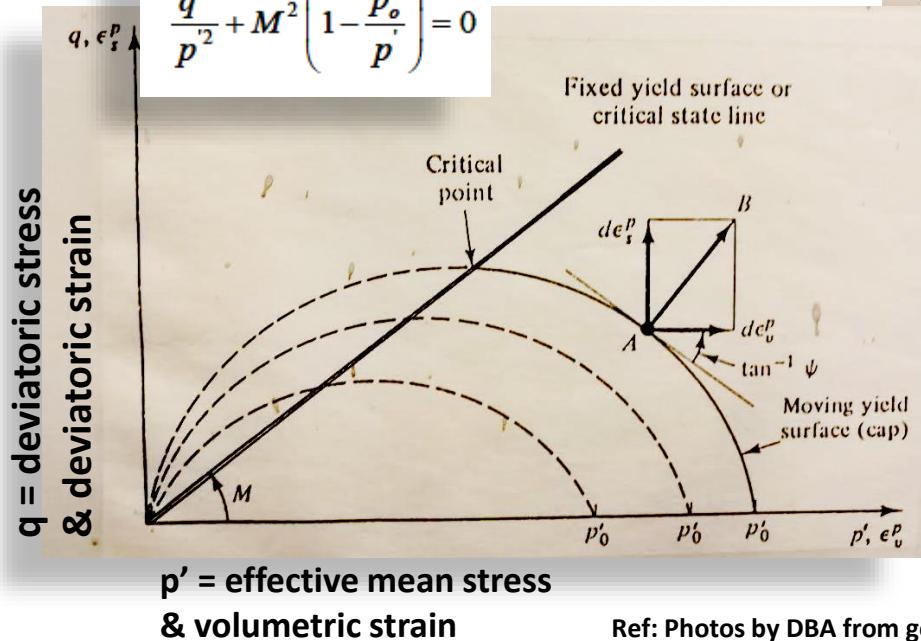
Cam-Clay

$$q + Mp' \ln\left(\frac{p'}{p_o}\right) = 0$$

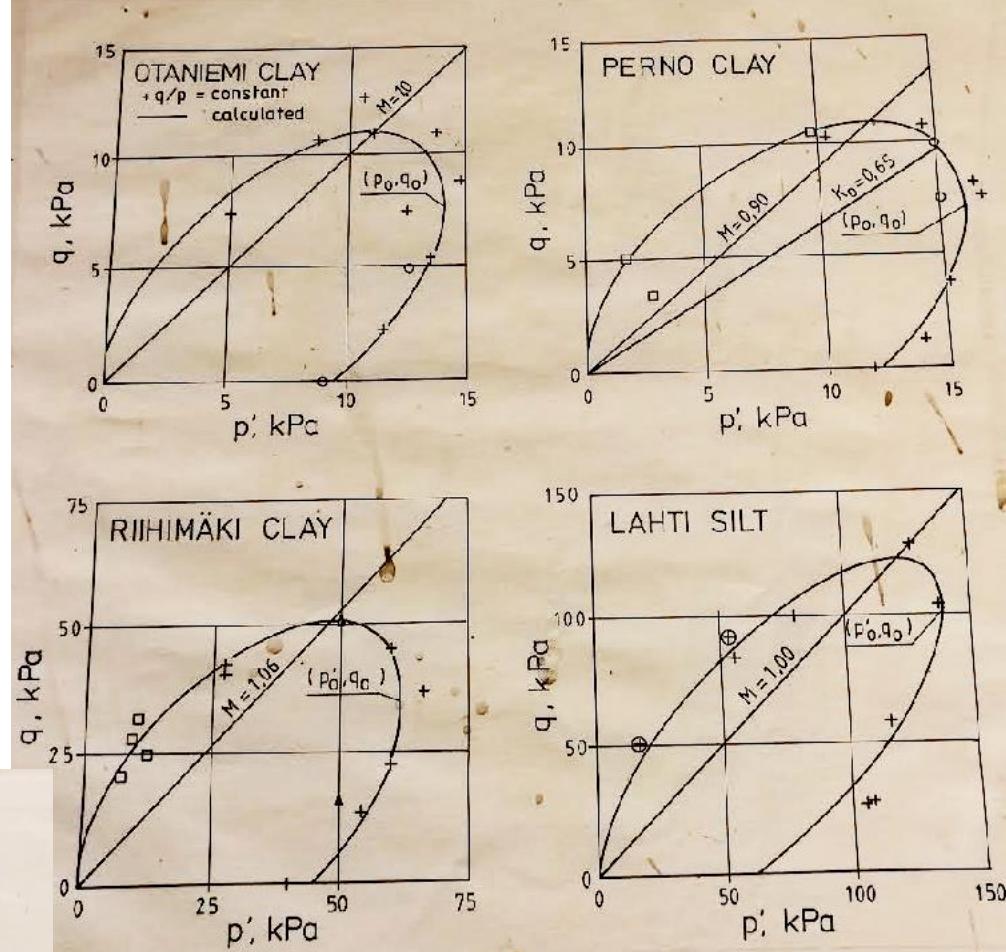
Modified Cam-Clay

$$\frac{q^2}{p'^2} + M^2 \left(1 - \frac{p'_o}{p'}\right) = 0$$

NB. In soils, both
incremental plastic
volumetric strain
and *incremental*
plastic shear strain
components exist



q = deviatoric stress



p' = effective mean stress
(tr(sigma) - water pore pressure)

The Cam-Clay model is assumed to be isotropic, elasto-plastic, and it is not affected by creep (time-independent plasticity). The yield surface of the Cam clay model is described by a log arc (original Cam-Clay model) or an ellipse (modified Cam-Clay model).

Such models explain well the pressure-dependent soil strength and the volume change (contraction and dilation) of clayey soils during shear.

Animation industry – example of use of Drucker-Prager elasto-plasticity model

Drucker-Prager Elastoplasticity for Sand Animation

Gergely Klár Theodore Gast Andre Pradhana Chuyuan Fu Craig Schroeder Chenfanfu Joseph Teran
University of California, Los Angeles

, we use Drucker-Prager elastoplasticity [Drucker and Prager 1952]. The elastic part of this relation is ex-



Figure 12: Sand is poured from a spout into a pile in a lab (left) and with our method (right).

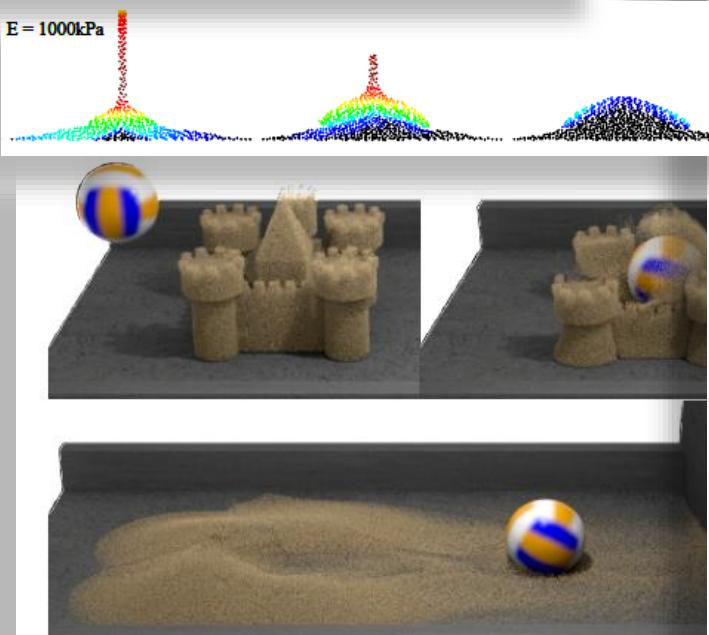


Figure 3: A sand castle is hit with a deformable ball while The sand and ball are fully coupled in the simulation.

Abstract

Schroeder Chenfanfu
geles

We simulate sand dynamics using an elastoplastic, continuum assumption. We demonstrate that the Drucker-Prager plastic flow model combined with a Hencky-strain-based hyperelasticity accurately recreates a wide range of visual sand phenomena with moderate computational expense. We use the Material Point Method (MPM) to discretize the governing equations for its natural treatment of contact, topological change and history dependent constitutive relations. The Drucker-Prager model naturally represents the frictional relation between shear and normal stresses through a yield stress criterion. We develop a stress projection algorithm used for enforcing this condition with a non-associative flow rule that works naturally with both implicit and explicit time integration. We demonstrate the efficacy of our approach on examples undergoing large deformation, collisions and topological changes necessary for producing modern visual effects.

$$\sigma = \frac{t}{\det t}$$

$\psi(F^E)$ is the elastic energy of the non-rigid F^E (see Section 6.3).

With the Drucker-Prager model, frictional interactions between grains of sand can be expressed in the continuum via a relation between shear and normal stresses. Using a Coulomb friction model, shear stresses resisting sliding motions between grains can only be

6.3 Constitutive model

We adopt the energy density $\psi(F)$ from Mast et al. [2013]. This model uses the same energy density as St. Venant-Kirchhoff, but it replaces the left Cauchy Green strain with the Hencky strain $\frac{1}{2} \ln(FF^T)$. This makes a number of aspects of the Drucker-Prager plastic projection very simple (see the supplementary technical document [Klár et al. 2016]). The model is most conveniently written in terms of the singular value decomposition $F = U\Sigma V^T$ as

$$\psi(\mathbf{F}) = \mu \text{tr}((\ln \Sigma)^2) + \frac{1}{2}\lambda(\text{tr}(\ln \Sigma))^2, \quad (25)$$

Figure 6: Relationship between \mathbf{F} , $\mathbf{F}^{\perp\perp}$, and \mathbf{F}^\perp .

Maximum Principle Stress Criteria (Rankine)

(Brittle) materials fail/ruptures/breaks when maximum principal stress σ_{\max} in tension reaches some limit value (tensile yield) k

Failure criteria:

$$F = \max \{|\sigma_1|, |\sigma_2|, |\sigma_3|\} - k = 0$$

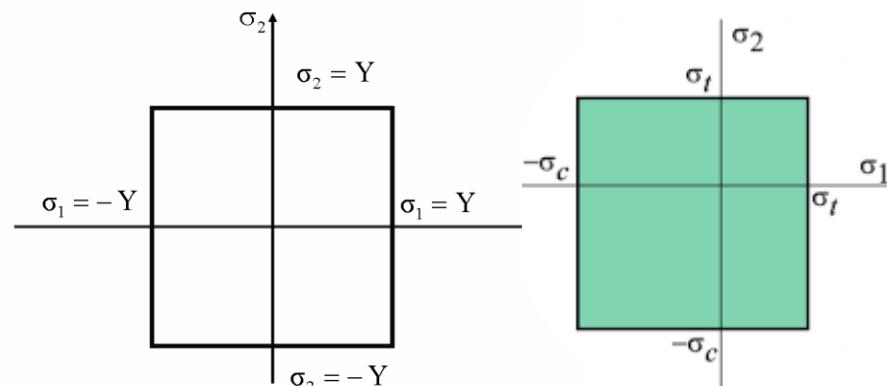
$F < 0 \Rightarrow$ no yielding or no rupture

$F = 0 \Rightarrow$ onset of yielding or rupture

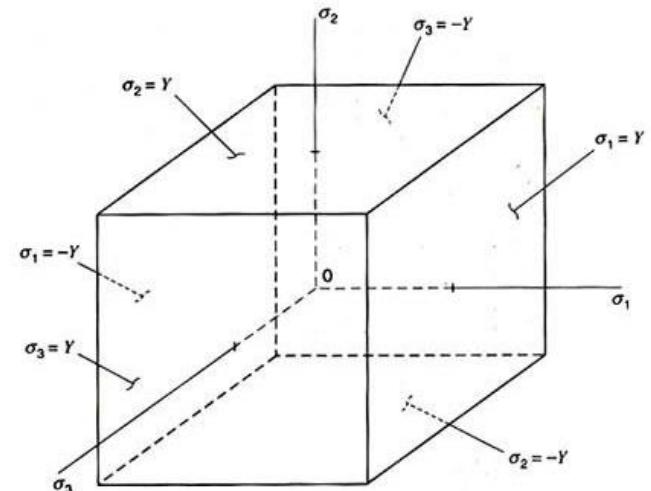
Applicable to brittle materials (mostly in tension)

The failure surface is called *tension-failure surface* or simply *tension cutoff*.

k - can be different in compression and tension



$$k \equiv Y \equiv \sigma_Y$$



2.3.2. The Maximum-Tensile-Stress Criterion (Rankine)

The maximum-tensile-stress criterion of Rankine, dating from 1876, is generally accepted today to determine whether a tensile failure has occurred for a brittle material. According to this criterion, brittle failure takes place when the maximum principal stress at a point inside the material reaches a value equal to the tensile strength σ_0 as found in a simple tension test, regardless of the normal or shearing stresses that occur on other planes through this point. The equations for the failure surface defined by this criterion are

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_0, \quad \sigma_2 = \sigma_0, \quad \sigma_3 = \sigma_0 \quad (2.168)$$

which result in three planes perpendicular to the σ_1 , σ_2 , and σ_3 axes, respectively as shown in Fig. 2.20a. This surface will be referred to as the tension-failure surface or the simple *tension cutoff*. When the variables ξ , ρ , θ or I_1 , J_2 , θ are used, the failure surface can be fully described by the following equations within the range $0 \leq \theta \leq 60^\circ$ using Eq. (2.123).

$$f(I_1, J_2, \theta) = 2\sqrt{3J_2} \cos \theta + I_1 - 3\sigma_0 = 0 \quad (2.169)$$

or identically

$$f(\xi, \rho, \theta) = \sqrt{2}\rho \cos \theta + \xi - \sqrt{3}\sigma_0 = 0 \quad (2.170)$$

Figures (2.20b and c) show the cross-sectional shape on the π -plane ($\xi = 0$) and the tensile ($\theta = 0^\circ$) and compressive ($\theta = 60^\circ$) meridians of the failure surface.

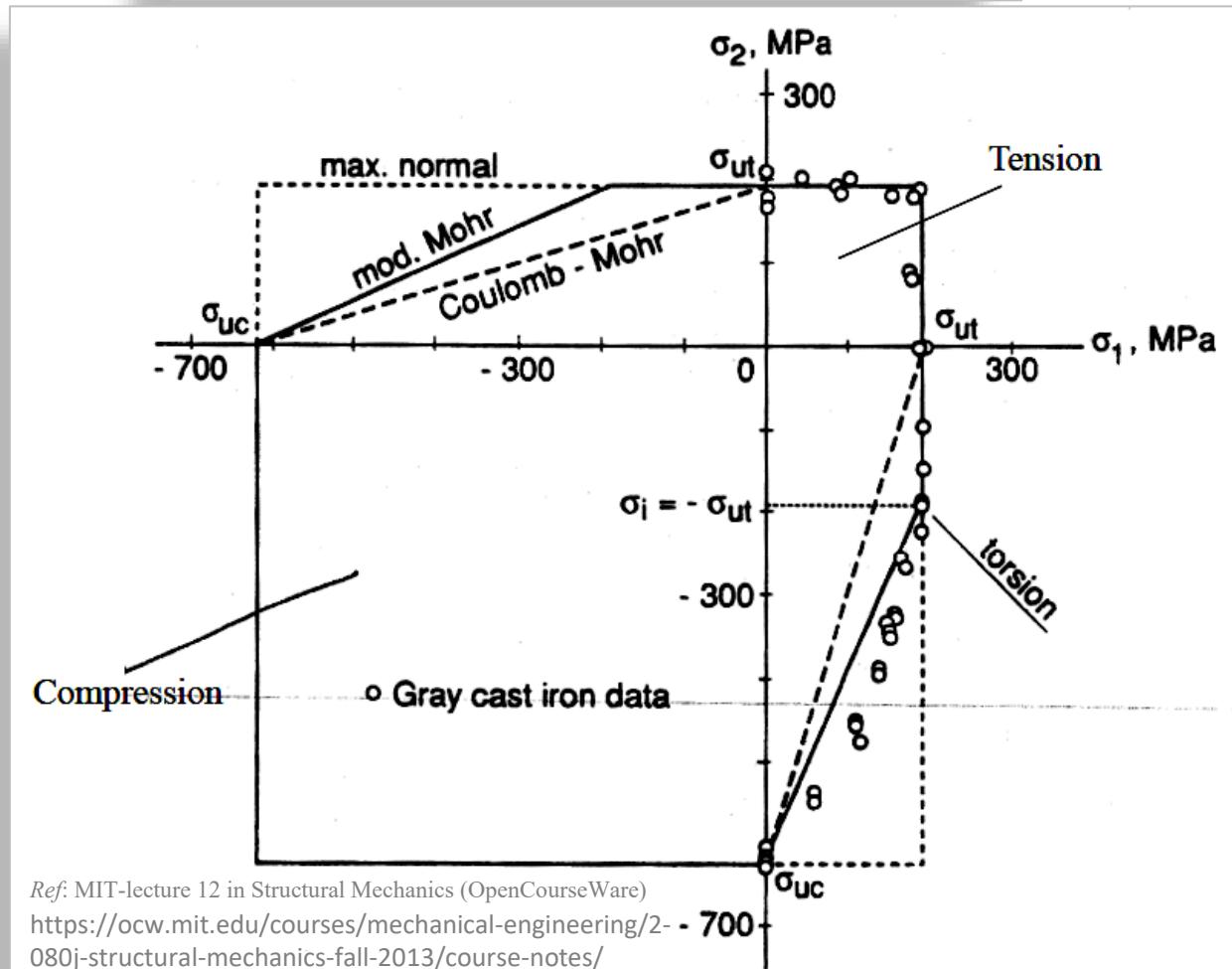
As we know, some of the nonmetallic materials, such as concrete, rocks, and soils, have a good compressive strength. Under compression loading with confining pressure, this kind of material may even exhibit some ductile and shear failure behavior. Under tension loads, however, a brittle failure behavior with a very low tensile strength is generally observed. Hence, the Rankine criterion is sometimes combined with the Tresca or the von Mises criterion to approximate the failure behavior of such materials. The combined criteria are referred to as the Tresca or the von Mises criterion with a tension cutoff, and their graphical representations consist of two surfaces, corresponding to a combined behavior of shear failure in compression and tensile failure in tension. An example of such failure surfaces is shown in Fig. 2.21, in which the compressive strength is assumed three times as large as the tensile strength.

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_0, \quad \sigma_2 = \sigma_0, \quad \sigma_3 = \sigma_0$$

Experimental validation

Brittle or quasi-material as cast iron behave differently in tension than in compression (asymmetry). For such materials pressure or normal stress dependent criteria may be adequate. The maximum principal stress criteria is also adequate, cf. data bellow,

Biaxial fracture data of gray cast iron



Anisotropic yield criteria

Anisotropic criteria

Hill's criterion :
orthotropic

$$f = \sqrt{\underline{\sigma} : \underline{\underline{H}} : \underline{\sigma}} - k(\dots) \leq 0$$

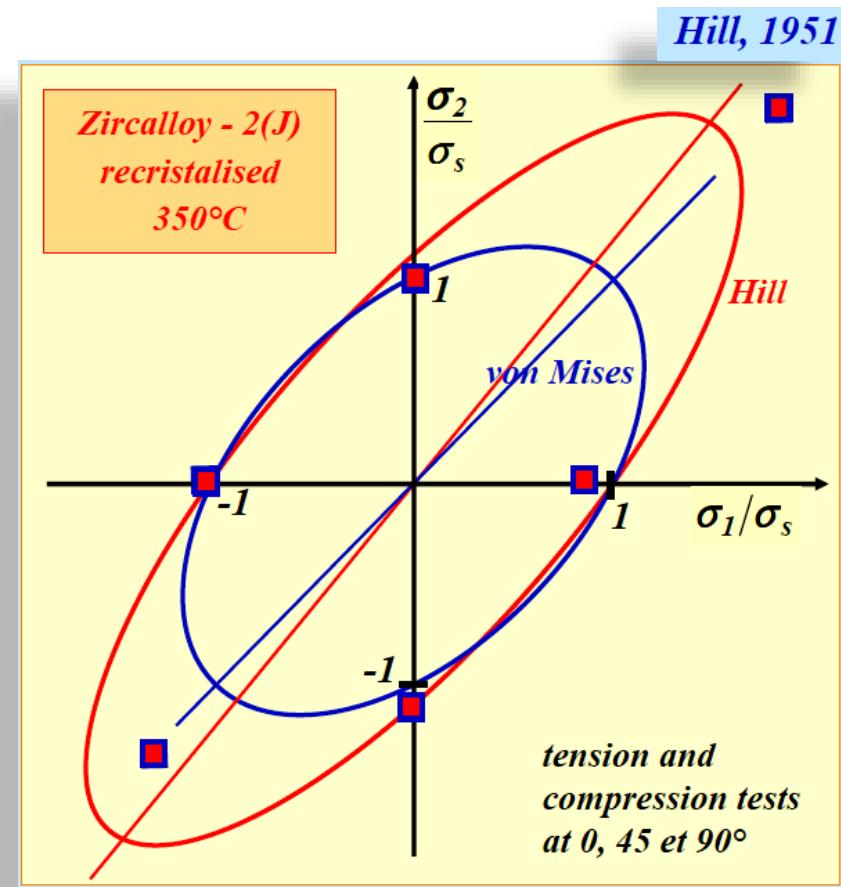
$\underline{\underline{H}}$ = 4 rank tensor
defined in the material
principal directions

$$\underline{\underline{H}} = \underline{\underline{I}}^d : \underline{\underline{H}} : \underline{\underline{I}}^d$$

« isovolumic » case

$$\underline{\underline{I}}^d = \text{deviatoric projector :}$$
$$I_{ijkl}^d = \frac{1}{2}(\delta_{ik}\delta_{jl} + \delta_{il}\delta_{jk}) - \frac{1}{3}\delta_{ij}\delta_{kl}$$

Zirconium alloys ([ZIRALLOY](#) is a trademark by Implant Manufacturing and Testing) are alloys formed by zirconium or other metals, for instance few percent of tin, niobium, iron, chromium, nickel , etc. They are used in nuclear technology for their hardness, corrosion resistance, ductility and some other nuclear properties as regarded to low absorption of thermal neutrons, for instance. They have also biocompatibility properties and used for body implant. Etc.

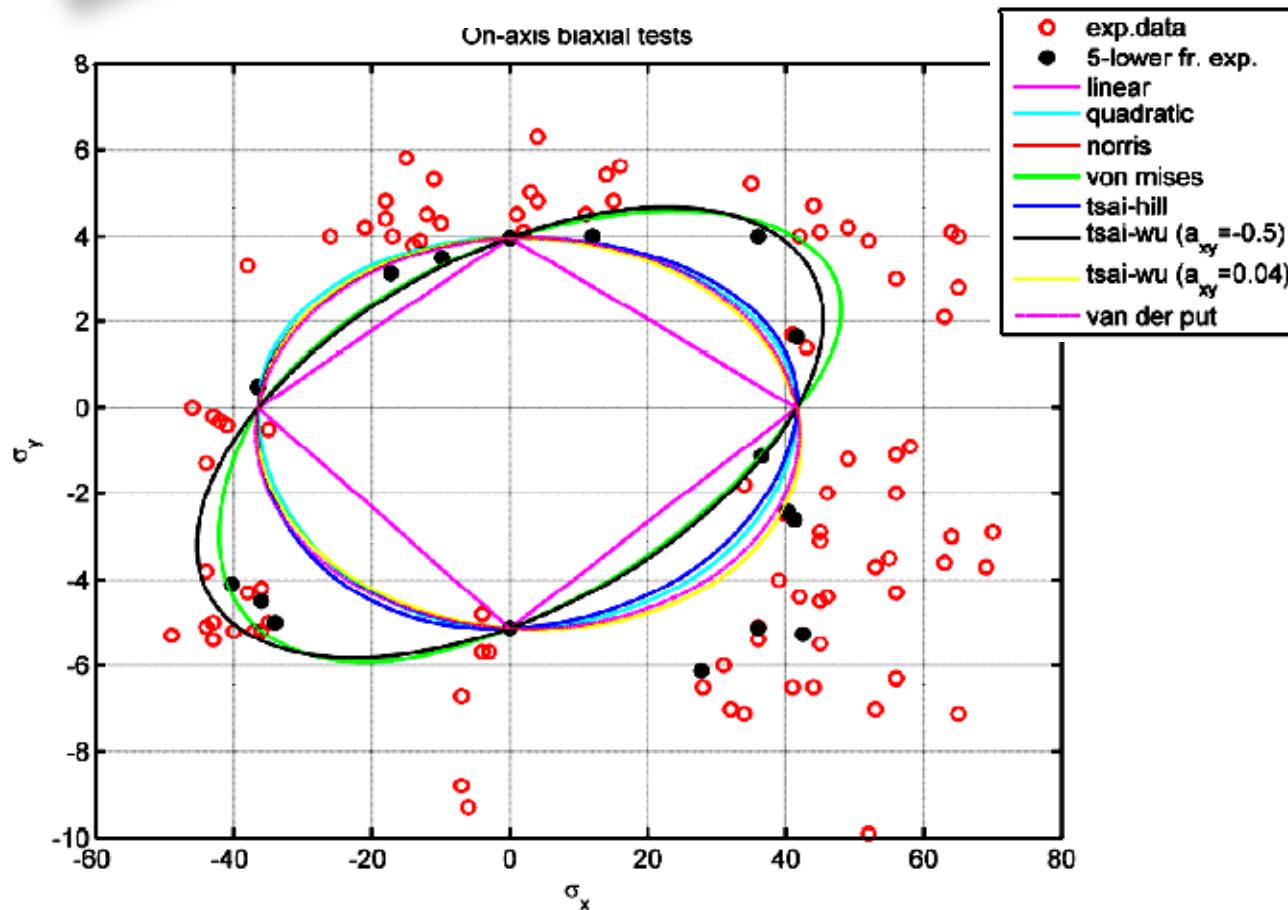


EVALUATION OF FAILURE CRITERIA IN WOOD MEMBERS

José M. Cabrero¹, Kifle G. Gebremedhin²

W C T E
WORLD CONFERENCE ON
TIMBER ENGINEERING
2 0 1 0

Example



Plot of the failure criteria with the on-axis experimental data from Eberhardsteiner (2002).

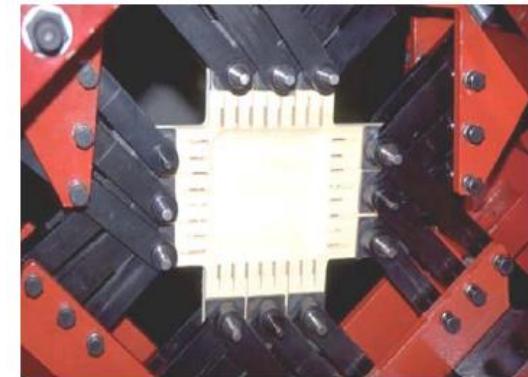
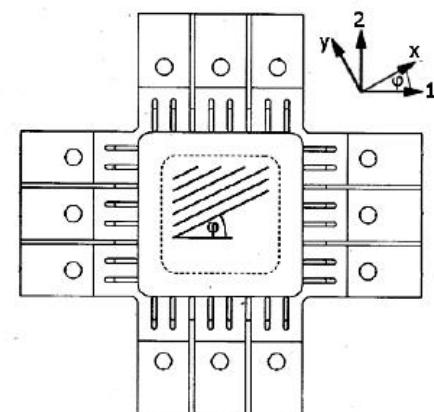


Figure 1. Experimental set up (taken from Eberhardsteiner, 2002).



2.1 Standards-Eurocodes

In Eurocodes, EN 1993-1-8 and EN 1993-1-12 are used in designing joints in high strength steels. Eurocode 3 part 1-12 extends the use of Eurocode 3 part 1-8 in designing of joints for steel grades higher than S460 upto S700. It also allows the use of undermatched consumables and make the selection of filler materials against the strength of lower grade base material in the joint. Calculation of the design resistance of every component in a welded joint is recommended [1]. There are two methods to calculate the strength of fillet welded connections: the directional method and the simplified method [1]. In the directional method the carried forces are divided by the throat area and split into stress components parallel and transverse to the longitudinal axis of the weld and normal and transverse to the plane of its throat. The design resistance is calculated according to two conditions below;

$$\left[\sigma_{\perp}^2 + 3(\tau_{\perp}^2 + \tau_{\parallel}^2) \right]^{0.5} \leq \frac{f_u}{(\beta_w \gamma_{M2})} \quad (2.1)$$

and

$$\sigma_{\perp} \leq \frac{0.9 f_u}{\gamma_{M2}} \quad (2.2)$$

where

f_u - is the nominal ultimate tensile strength of the weaker part joined

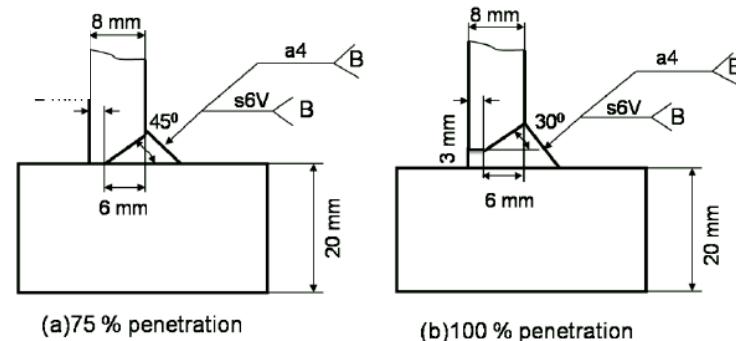
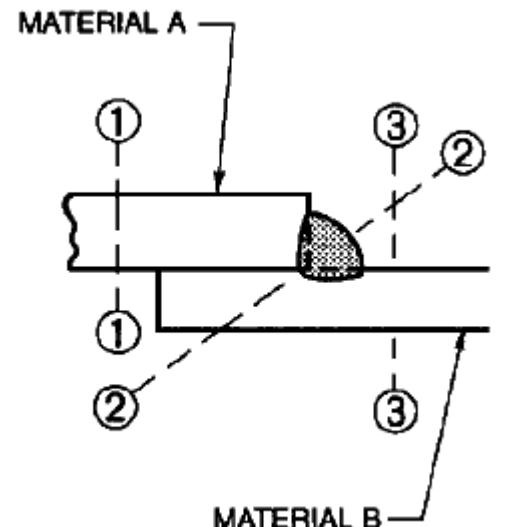
β_w - is the appropriate correlation factor taken from Table 4.1 EN 1993 -1-8

σ_{\perp} - is the normal stress perpendicular to the throat

σ_{\parallel} - is the normal stress parallel to the axis of the weld

τ_{\perp} - is the shear stress (in the plane of the throat) perpendicular to the axis of the weld

τ_{\parallel} - is the shear stress (in the plane of the throat) parallel to the axis of the weld.



I reproduce some failure criteria commonly used for wood.
This pdf-material is from the presentation in this course
(2020) given by Joonas Jaaranen (reproduced with his
permission)

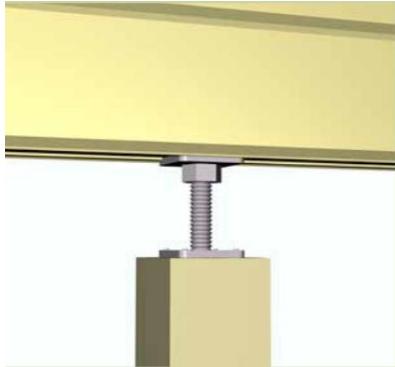
Failure criteria and material modelling of wood

Presentation on CIV-E4080 Material
Modelling in Civil Engineering

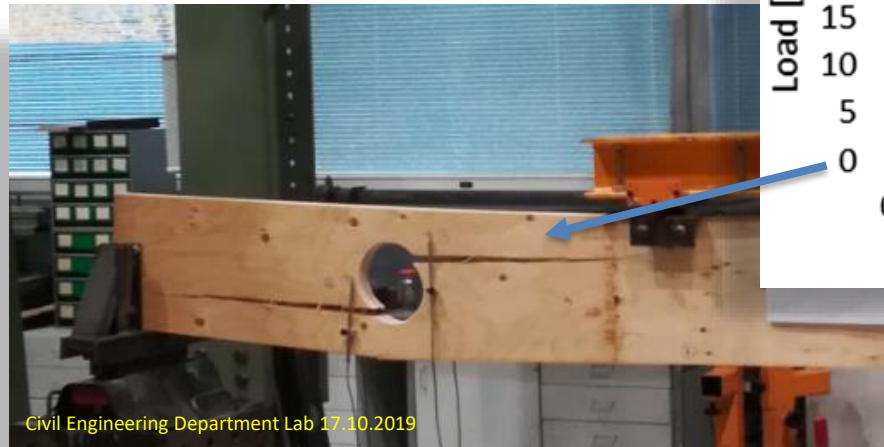
Joonas Jaaranen, Aalto University

Motivation

Details with complex behaviour



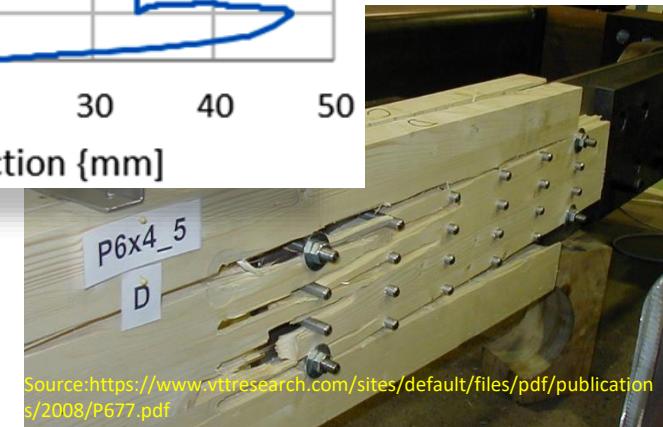
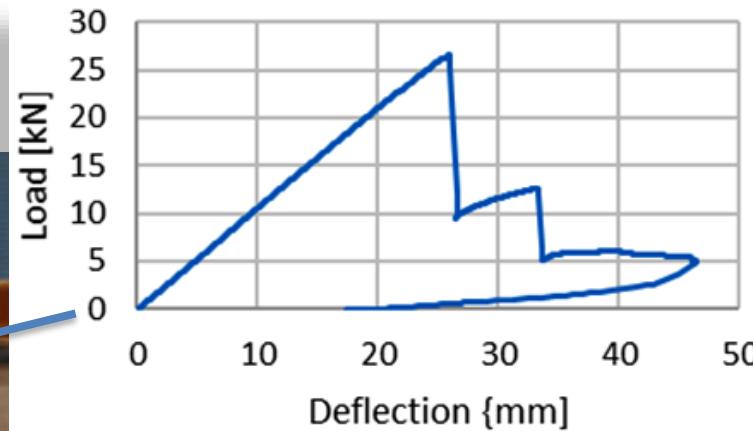
Source: RT 82-11168



Civil Engineering Department Lab 17.10.2019



Source: https://eurocodes.jrc.ec.europa.eu/doc/WS2008/EN1995_3_Dietsch.pdf



Source: <https://www.vtresearch.com/sites/default/files/pdf/publications/2008/P677.pdf>

Wood as material

- Naturally grown material
- Microscale: cellular structure
- Macroscale growth characteristics: annual rings, knots, spiral grain, compression wood,...
- Time- and moisture-dependent behaviour
- 'Ductile' like compressive failure behaviour
- Brittle tensile failure
- Strongly orientated properties
- Different strength in tension and compression
- Properties depend on wood species, growth conditions, density, moisture content, stress-history,...

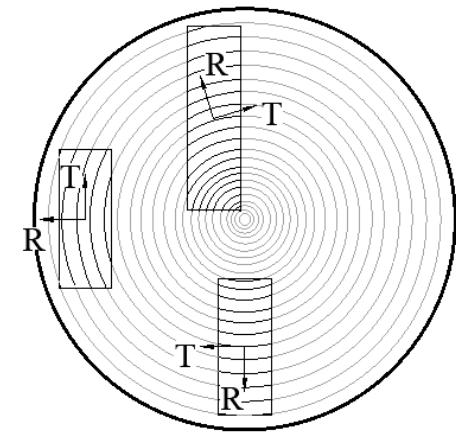
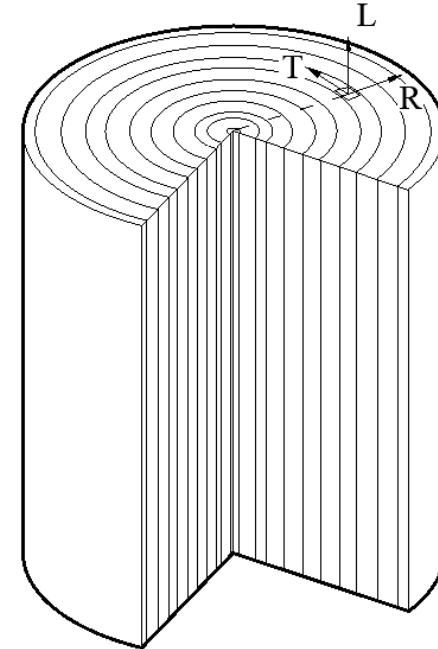
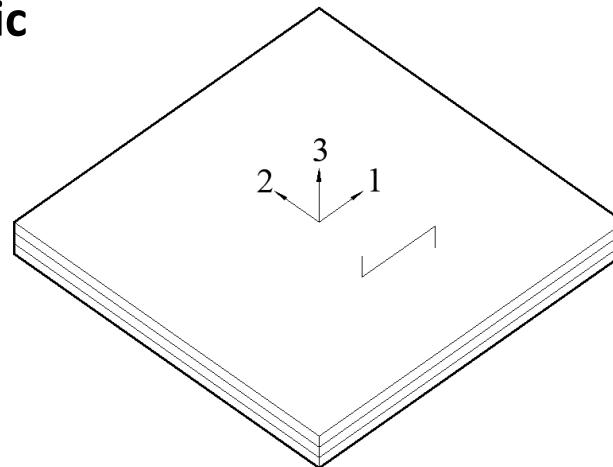
Wood as material

Common assumptions for modelling

- Homogeneity
- Orthotropy
- Grain orientation aligns with length-wise direction of the component

Choices of material coordinate system

- Cylindrical orthotropic
- Cartesian orthotropic
- Transverse isotropic



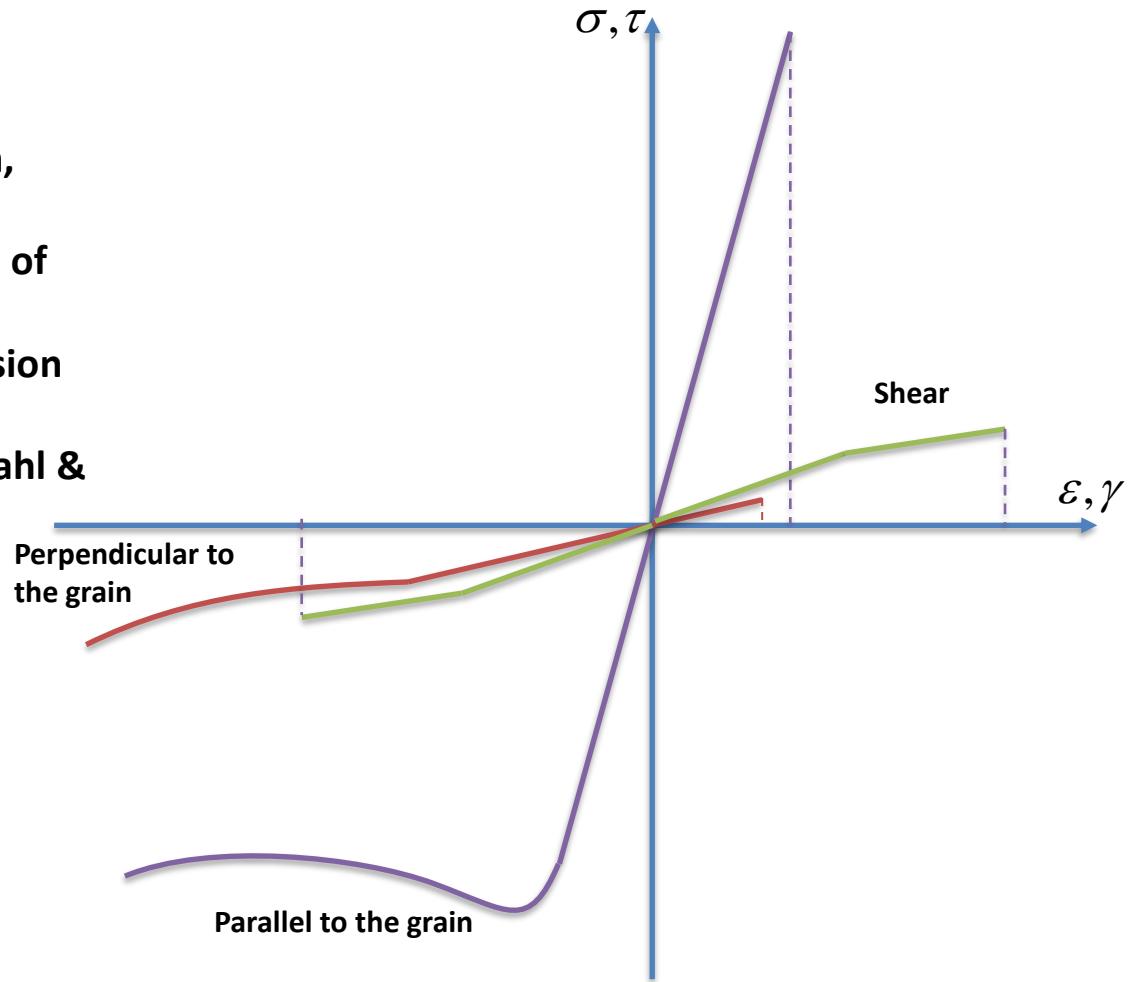
Wood as material

Material behaviour

- Different behaviour in tension, compression and shear
- Dependent on the orientation of the load
- Example references: compression (Holmberg et al. 1998, Widehammar 2004), shear (Dahl & Malo 2009)

$$\frac{f_{t,90}}{f_{t,0}} \approx \frac{1}{20} \dots \frac{1}{30}$$

$$\frac{f_{c,90}}{f_{c,0}} \approx \frac{1}{10}$$



Common failure criteria

Basic criteria

- Common in practice
- Basis for many multi-surface criteria

Maximum stress

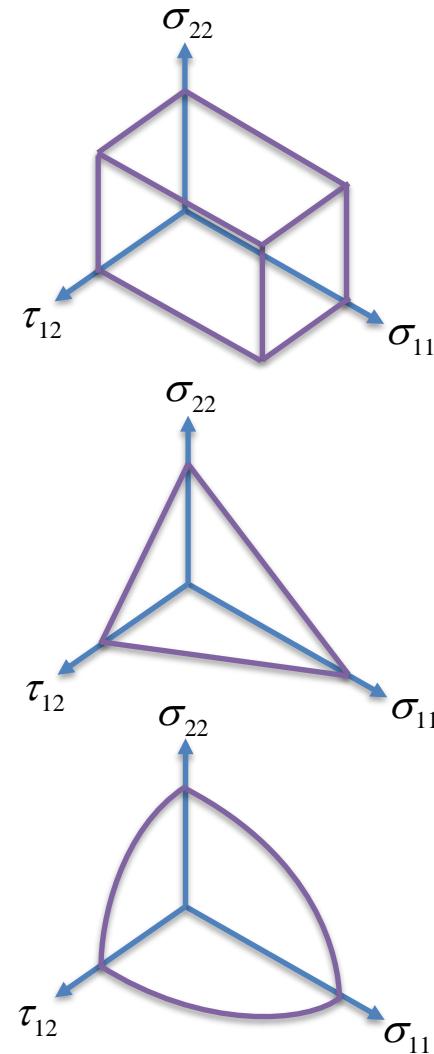
$$\frac{\sigma_{11}}{f_1} = 1, \quad \frac{\sigma_{22}}{f_2} = 1, \quad \frac{\tau_{12}}{f_{12}} = 1$$

Linear interaction

$$\frac{\sigma_{11}}{f_1} + \frac{\sigma_{22}}{f_2} + \frac{\tau_{12}}{f_{12}} = 1$$

Quadratic interaction

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{11}}{f_1}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_{22}}{f_2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\tau_{12}}{f_{12}}\right)^2 = 1$$



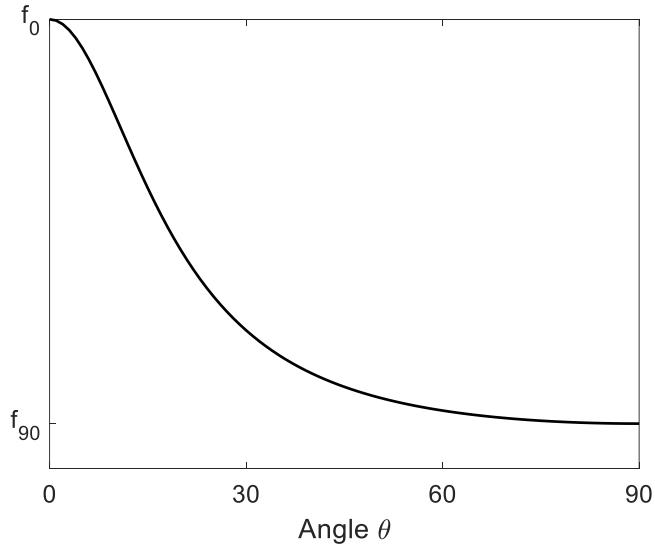
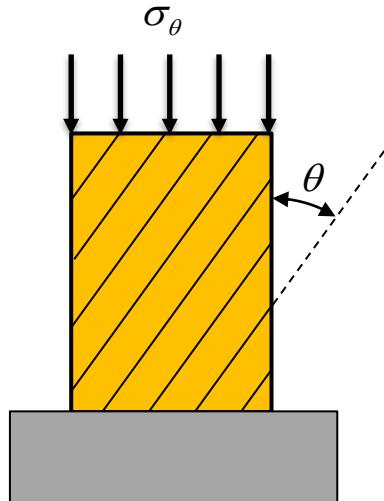
Common failure criteria

Hankinson equation (Hankinson, 1921)

- Axial strength at angle to the grain
- Originally for compression
- Widely used for practical calculations
- For example EN 1995-1-1

$$\frac{\sigma_\theta}{f_\theta} = 1$$

$$f_\theta = \frac{f_0 f_{90}}{f_0 \sin^2 \theta + f_{90} \cos^2 \theta}$$

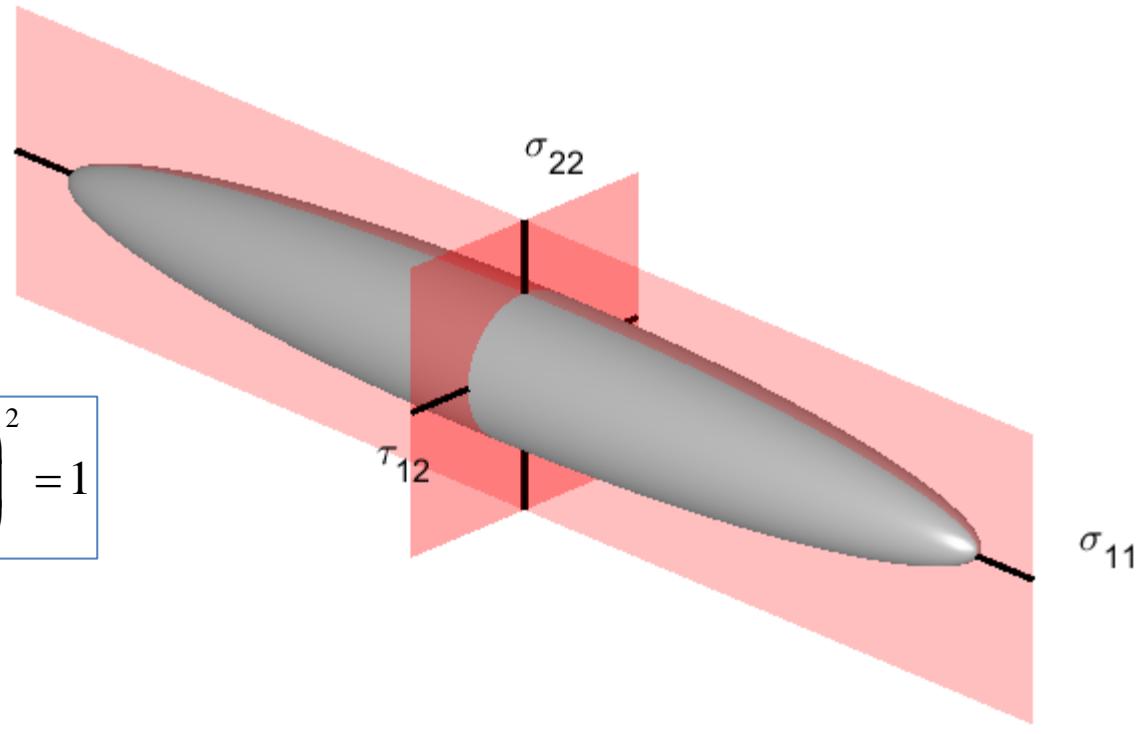


Common failure criteria

Tsai-Hill criterion (Azzi & Tsai 1965)

- Accounts different orientation
- No distinction tension/compression

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{11}}{f_1}\right)^2 - \frac{\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}}{f_1^2} + \left(\frac{\sigma_{22}}{f_2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\tau_{12}}{f_{12}}\right)^2 = 1$$



Common failure criteria

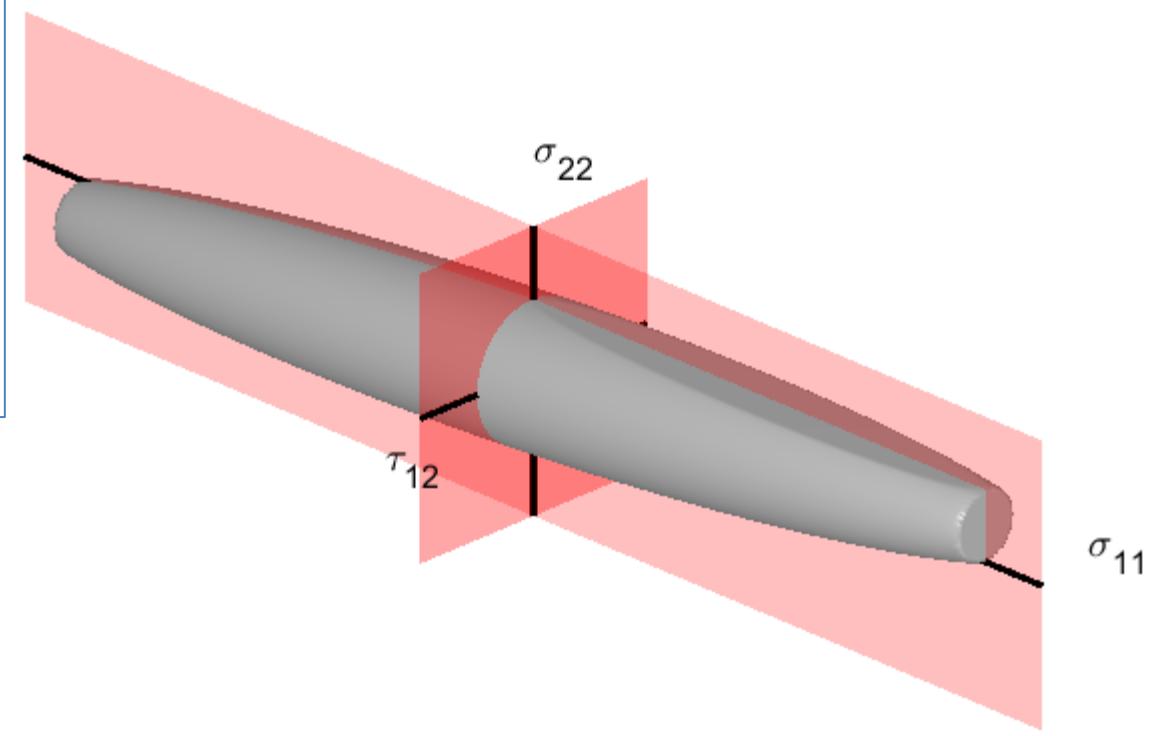
Norris criterion (Norris 1962)

- Multi-surface approach
- No distinction tension/compression

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{11}}{f_1}\right)^2 - \frac{\sigma_{11}\sigma_{22}}{f_1 f_2} + \left(\frac{\sigma_{22}}{f_2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\tau_{12}}{f_{12}}\right)^2 = 1$$

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{11}}{f_1}\right)^2 = 1$$

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{22}}{f_2}\right)^2 = 1$$



More Failure theories – two of them

Maximum Principal strain SAINT-VENANT (1797–1886) & BACH (1889)

Maximum strain energy BELTRAMI (1835-1900)

For brittle materials

Maximum Principal Strain Theory

- ✓ Failure occurs when maximum value of applied strain exceeds the strain value corresponding to yield point of the material.
- ✓ If 'Y' is the yield stress then under uni-axial loading yield strain is defined as

$$\varepsilon_y = Y/E$$

- ✓ Maximum strain developed in the design component should be less than ε_y .
- ✓ Principal stresses $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 & \sigma_3$ corresponds to principal strains $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 & \varepsilon_3$.

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{\sigma_1}{E} - \frac{v}{E}(\sigma_2 + \sigma_3)$$

$$\varepsilon_2 = \frac{\sigma_2}{E} - \frac{v}{E}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_3)$$

For brittle materials

Maximum Principal Stress Theory

- ✓ Maximum principal stress reaches tensile yield stress (Y).
- ✓ Estimate principal stresses σ_1 , σ_2 & σ_3 .
- ✓ Apply yield criteria:

$$f = \max(|\sigma_1|, |\sigma_2|, |\sigma_3|) - Y$$

If, $f < 0$ no yielding

$f = 0$ onset of yielding

$f > 0$ not defined

For brittle materials

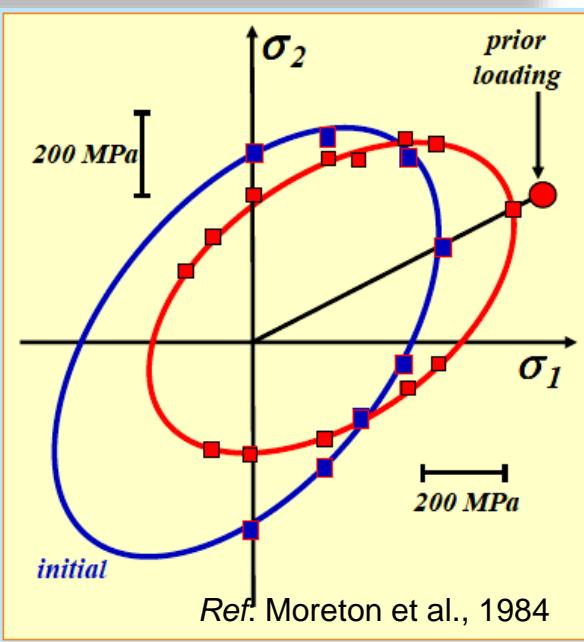
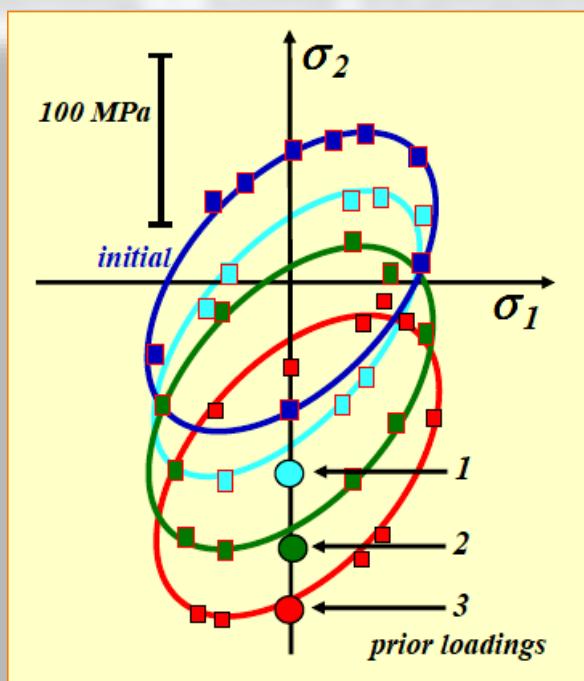
Hardening – notions & examples



1.2.2017, Otaniemi

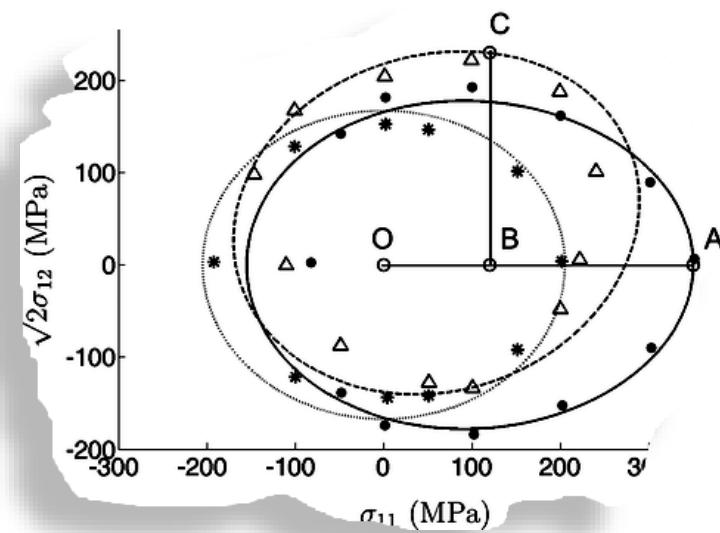
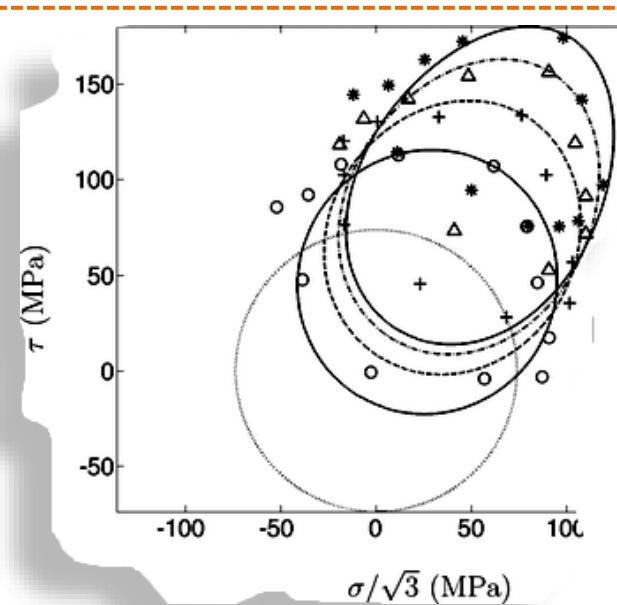
Hardening – some examples

Kinematic hardening



Ref. Moreton et al., 1984

Tension-compression and internal/external pressure



Hardening - notion

Perfectly plastic: the yield surface remains unchanged

General case: the yield surface may change size, shape and position

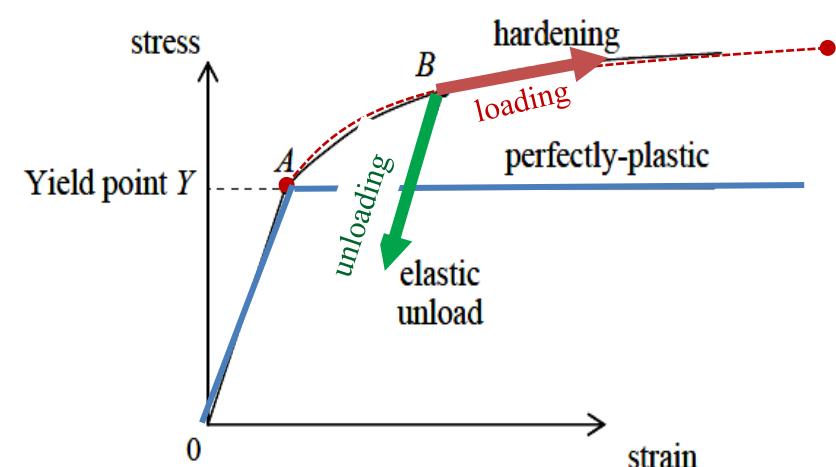
Hardening can be described by

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, K_k) = 0,$$

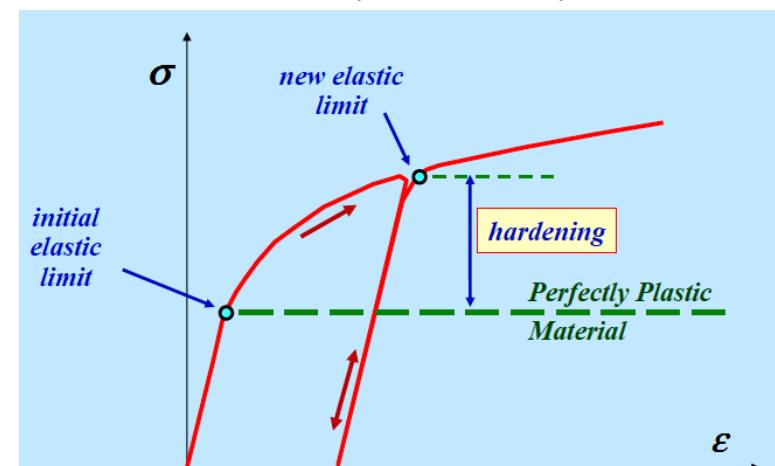
Hardening parameters (scalars, vectors, tensors), which change during plastic deformation and determine the evolution of the yield surface.

At first yield, the hardening parameters are zero;

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, 0) = f_0(\sigma_{ij})$$



Uniaxial stress-strain curve (typical metal)

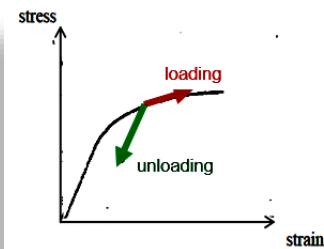


Ref: Chaboche slide from: ATHENS – Course MP06 – 16 – 20 March 2009

Hardening Rules

Isotropic hardening: the yield surface remains the same shape but expands during loading increase

Isotropic hardening



Can be modelled by

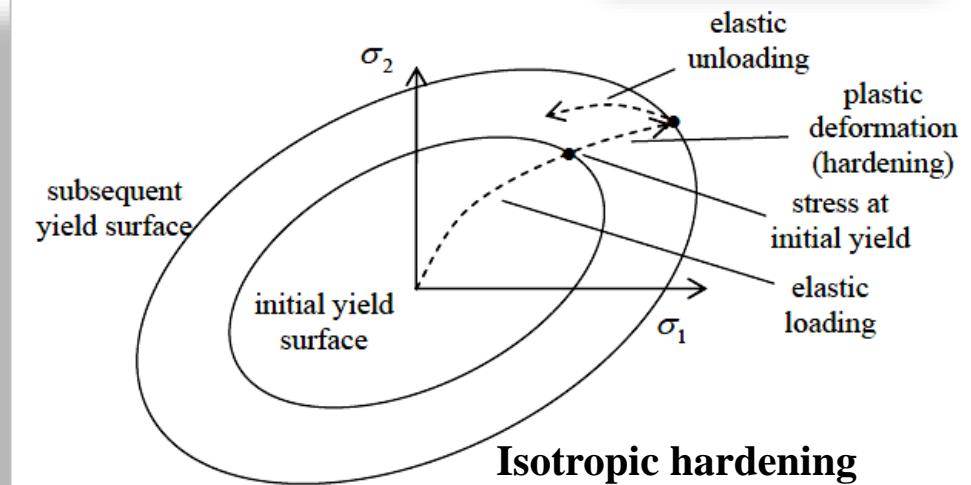
$$f(\sigma_{ij}, K_k) = f_0(\sigma_{ij}) - K = 0,$$

hardening parameter

The initial yield function specifies the shape its subsequent size changes as the *hardening parameter K* changes

not yet specified explicitly

$$I_1 = (\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} + \sigma_{33})/3$$



Examples of models:

- Von Mises yield surface:

initial yield surface: $f_0(\sigma_{ij}) = \sqrt{3J_2} - \sigma_Y$

cylinder with radius
(in stress-space)

$$\sqrt{2/3}\sigma_Y$$

subsequent yield
surface:

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, K_k) = \sqrt{3J_2} - \sigma_Y - K$$

radius expands for
increasing loading

$$\sqrt{2/3} \cdot (\sigma_Y + K)$$

- Drucker-Prager criterion: initial : $f_0(\sigma_{ij}) = \sqrt{J_2} + \alpha I_1 - k = 0,$

uniaxial tension yield test →

$$I_1 = \sigma_Y \rightarrow \sqrt{J_2} = \sigma_Y / \sqrt{3}$$

subsequent yield surface: $f(\sigma_{ij}) = \frac{1}{\alpha + 1/\sqrt{3}} \left(\sqrt{J_2} + \alpha I_1 \right) - \sigma_Y - K = 0,$

$$\rightarrow k = (\alpha + 1/\sqrt{3}) \cdot \sigma_Y$$

Hardening Rules

Kinematic hardening: the yield surface remains the same shape and size but moves during loading increase

Can be modelled by

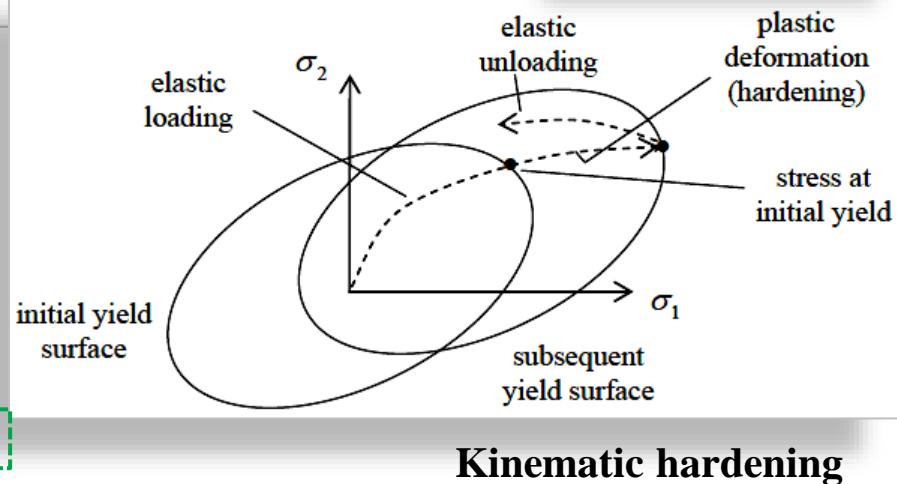
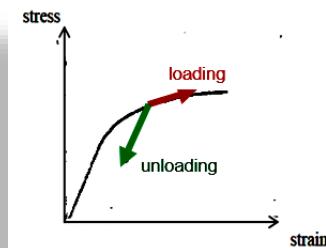
$$f(\sigma_{ij}, K_k) = f_0(\sigma_{ij} + \alpha'_{ij}) = 0,$$

The initial yield function specifies shape & size it is subsequently moved (shifted)

The hardening parameter is called *shift- or back-stress*. In practice, only the deviatoric stress is shifted $(s_{ij} - \alpha'_{ij})$

Kinematic hardening

$$I_1 = (\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} + \sigma_{33})/3$$



Examples of models:

- *Von Mises yield surface:*
initial yield surface:

$$f_0(\sigma_{ij}) = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} s_{ij} s_{ij}} - \sigma_Y = 0$$

α'_{ij} — deviatoric part of α_{ij}

- subsequent yield surface:

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, K_k) = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} (s_{ij} - [\alpha'_{ij}]) (s_{ij} - [\alpha'_{ij}])} - \sigma_Y = 0$$

- Based on experimental observations, an *evolution law*, should be specified, to determine how the hardening parameter(s) changes with deformation
- Mixed kinematic and isotropic hardening models can be combined

Mixed hardening rule

A subsequent yield surface:

$$F(\sigma_{ij}, \epsilon_{ij}^p; k(\epsilon_{ij}^p)) = F(\sigma_{ij} - \alpha_{ij}) - k^2(\bar{\epsilon}^p) = 0,$$

F determines
the **shape**

Shift or
translation

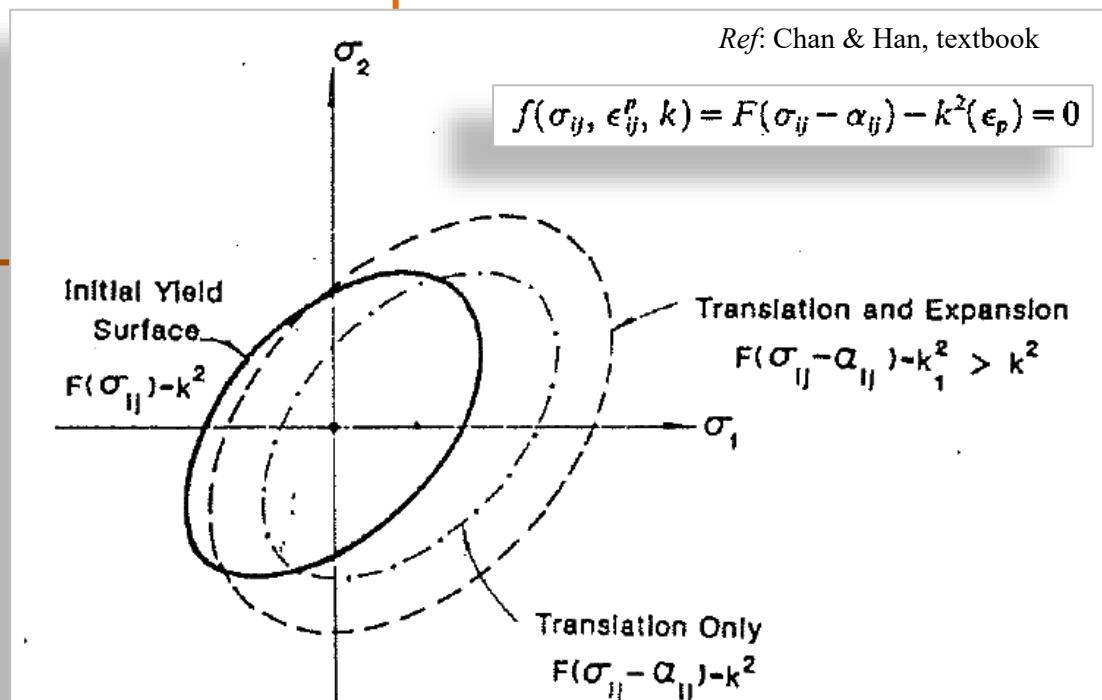
effective plastic strain

Determines the
size as function of
cumulated plastic
strain (*expansion*)

α_{ij}, k^2 - hardening parameters

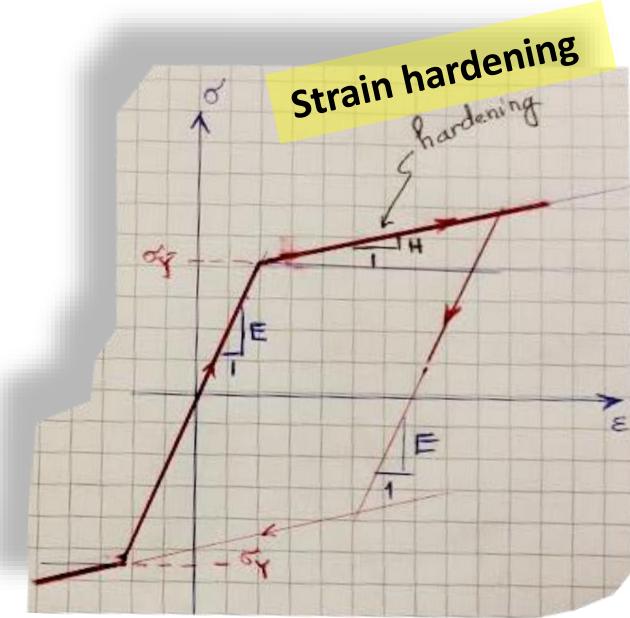
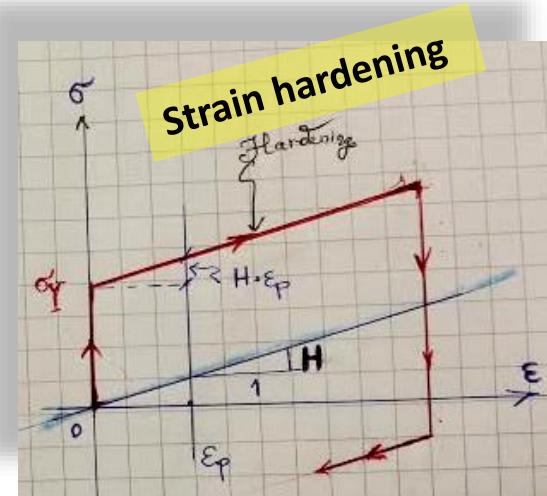
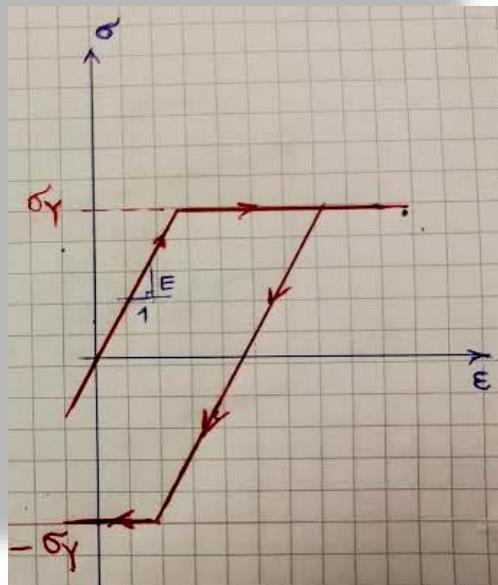
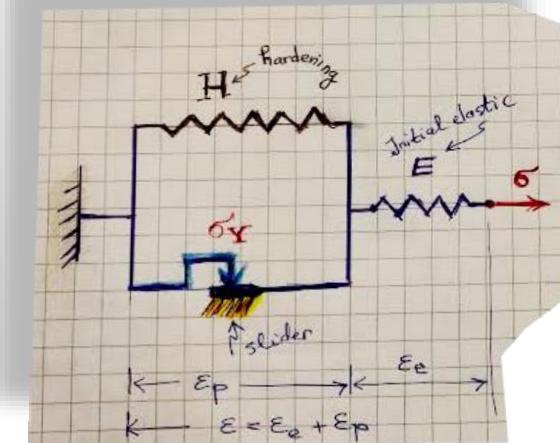
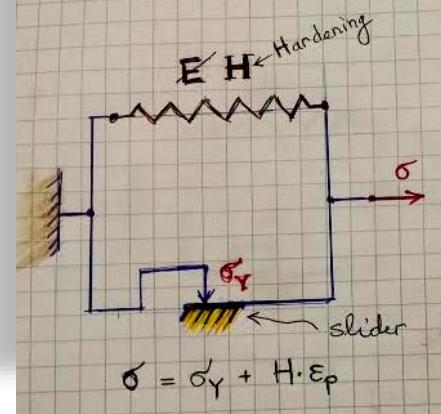
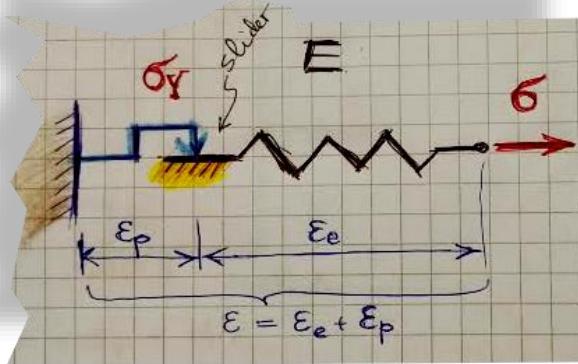
Mixed hardening is a result
of a combination of
kinematic and *isotropic*
hardening (Hodge, 1957)

Mixed hardening rule allows to
model different degrees of
Bauschinger effect by adjusting the
two hardening parameters
 α_{ij} & k^2



Simple rheological models for Rate-independent plasticity

Some strain hardening models



N.B. insert 'dashpots' to obtain rate-dependent plasticity as for Bingham model

Example 4: Kinematic Hardening Plasticity

- Plasticity:

- Yield function:

$$\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}(S_{ij} - \alpha_{ij})(S_{ij} - \alpha_{ij}) - \sigma_y = 0.$$

- Equivalent plastic strain rate:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}}.$$

- Plastic flow law:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl} = \frac{3}{2}(S_{ij} - \alpha_{ij})\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl}/\sigma_y.$$

- Prager-Ziegler (linear) kinematic hardening:

$$\alpha_{ij} = \frac{2}{3}h\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}.$$

This course notation:

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, K_k) = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}(S_{ij} - [\alpha'_{ij}])(S_{ij} - [\alpha'_{ij}]) - \sigma_y = 0$$

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, K_k) = \sqrt{3J_2} - \sigma_y - [K]$$

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, K_k) = \sqrt{3J_2} - (\sigma_y + K)$$

$$\bar{\varepsilon}_{pl} \equiv \int_0^{\varepsilon_{ij}^{pl}} \sqrt{2/3 \cdot d\varepsilon_{ij}^{pl} d\varepsilon_{ij}^{pl}} \equiv \sigma_y (\bar{\varepsilon}_{pl})$$

Examples of hardening rules in Abaqus – how they looks like?

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, K_k) = \sqrt{3J_2} - (\sigma_y + K) \equiv \sigma_y (\bar{\varepsilon}_{pl})$$

Example 5: Isotropic Hardening Plasticity

$$\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}S_{ij}S_{ij} - \sigma_y(\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}) = 0,$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}S_{ij}S_{ij} - \sigma_y(\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}) = 0, \quad S_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} - \frac{1}{3}\delta_{ij}\sigma_{kk}.$$

- Equivalent plastic strain:

$$\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \int_0^t \dot{\varepsilon}^{pl} dt, \quad \dot{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}}.$$

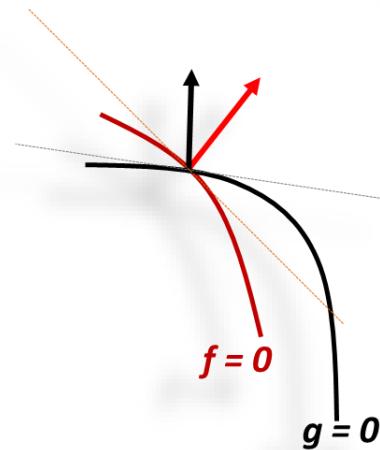
- Plastic flow law:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl} = \frac{3}{2}\sigma_{ij}\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl}.$$

$$\bar{\varepsilon}_{pl} \equiv \int_0^{\varepsilon_{ij}^{pl}} \sqrt{2/3 \cdot d\varepsilon_{ij}^{pl} d\varepsilon_{ij}^{pl}}$$

Flow rules

Reading: Chapter 5.3 *Formulation of general constitutive laws*
Lemaître et Chaboche, our textbooks



Helsinki, January 2017
D. Baroudi

Flow rule & Consistency condition

Plastic flow occurs under the simultaneous two conditions:

- 1. The representative point of the **stress state σ^*** is located on **the loading (or yield-) surface** (in stress-space representation), thus

$$f(\sigma^*, V_k) = 0$$

internal variable related to the change of yielding surface during yielding (to account for hardening)

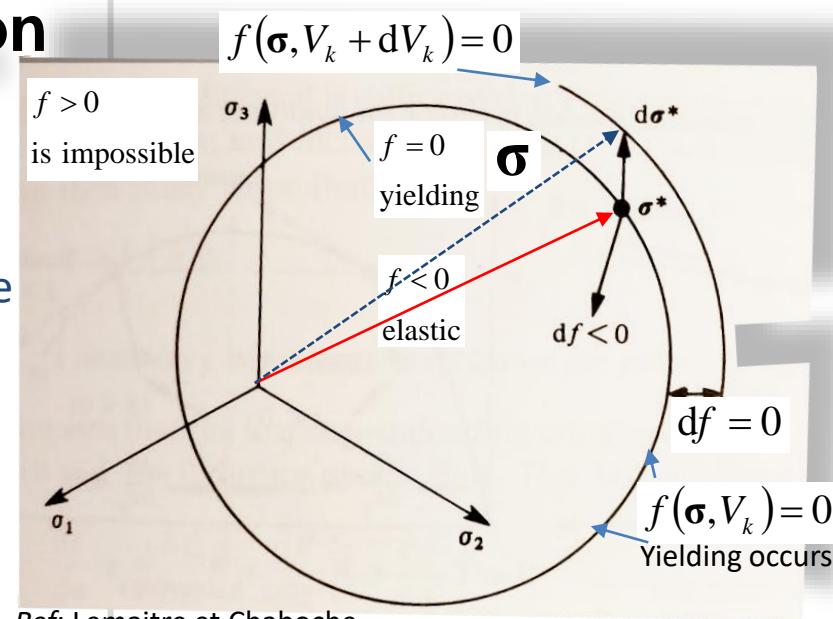
- 2. During the continuous plastic flow (or yielding), **the representative point of the stress state remains on the yield surface** $f > 0$ is impossible (in classical plasticity) and therefore $df = 0$

Consistency condition:

$$df(\sigma^*) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} : d\sigma^* + \frac{\partial f}{\partial V_k} dV_k = 0$$

$\Rightarrow (\sigma^* + d\sigma^*)$ the new 'point' P remains on the yield surface

Unloading is allowed, the stress point moves to the interior of the surface. This corresponds to the condition: $df(\sigma^*) < 0$
The behavior becomes **elastic** during unloading.



Ref: Lemaître et Chaboche

Yield criterion for a positive hardening

Reading: Chapter 5.3 *Formulation of general constitutive laws*
Lemaître et Chaboche, our textbooks

Summary:

$f < 0 \rightarrow$ Elastic behavior

$f = 0$ and $df = 0 \rightarrow$ Plastic behavior

$f = 0$ and $df < 0 \rightarrow$ Elastic unloading

Plastic strain

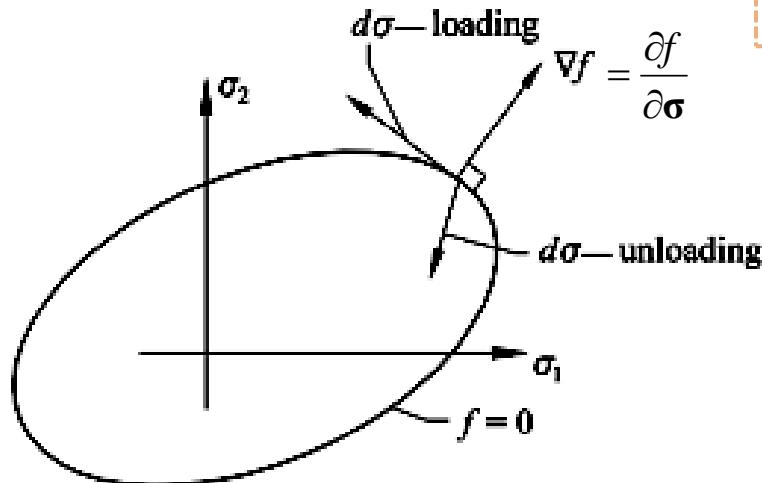
The total strain increment partition:

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^e + d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p$$

$f < 0 \rightarrow$ Elastic behavior

$f = 0$ and $df = 0 \rightarrow$ Plastic behavior

$f = 0$ and $df < 0 \rightarrow$ Elastic unloading



Plastic loading and unloading

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \underline{\sigma}} = [\partial f / \partial \sigma_{11} \dots \partial f / \partial \sigma_{33}]^T$$

Voigt's vector notation for stress

For an **associative flow*** rule:

$$g = f$$

For **nonassociative flow**** rule:

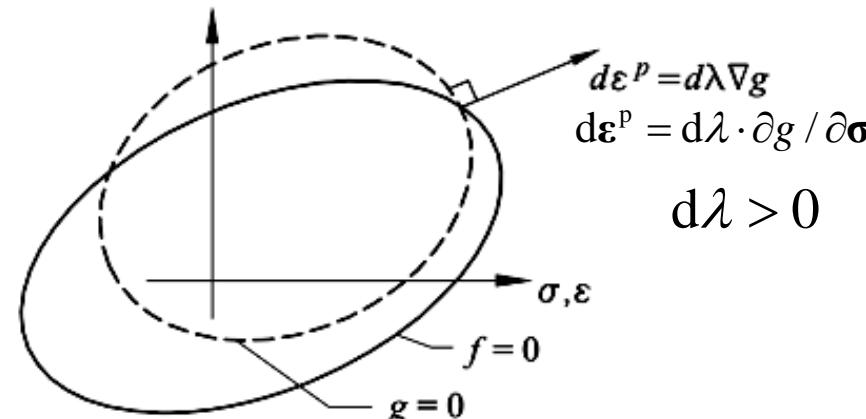
$$g \neq f$$

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p = d\lambda \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \underline{\sigma}}$$

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p = d\lambda \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial \underline{\sigma}}$$

A positive scalar (which determined by the consistency condition)

g : A general **dissipation potential** (convex) which provides the *laws of evolution of the plastic deformation and internal variables*. This potential is often called **a plastic potential** provides the direction of the plastic flow



Plastic strain increment

In case of **associative flow rule** $d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p = d\lambda \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \underline{\sigma}}$

* metals and metal alloys – no plastic volume changes during plastic flow (or negligible)

**describes well granular and friction materials as geomaterials, soils, concrete – have non negligible plastic volume change during plastic flow

Plastic strain and Plastic stress increments – graphical representation

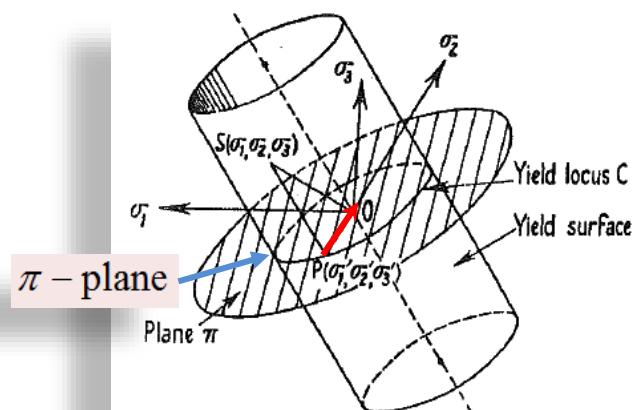
During continued deformation P and Q describes curves representing the stress- and strain-paths which projections on the deviatoric plane (π – plane) are shown in the figure.

The hydrostatic stress and strain components are perpendicular to Pi-plane of the figure thus all the **strain and stress components shown on the deviatoric plane represent their respective deviatoric components**.

QQ' – total strain increment: $d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^e + d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p$

PP' – total stress increment $d\boldsymbol{\sigma}'$

RQ – elastic strain increment $d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'^e = d\boldsymbol{\sigma}' / 2G$



The strain increment can be decomposed into an elastic part and a plastic part:

Prandtl-Reuß equations:

(When plastic flow occurs)

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{ij} = \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{ij}^e + \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{ij}^p$$

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{ij} = d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{ij}^e + d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{ij}^p$$

Rate or incremental formulations

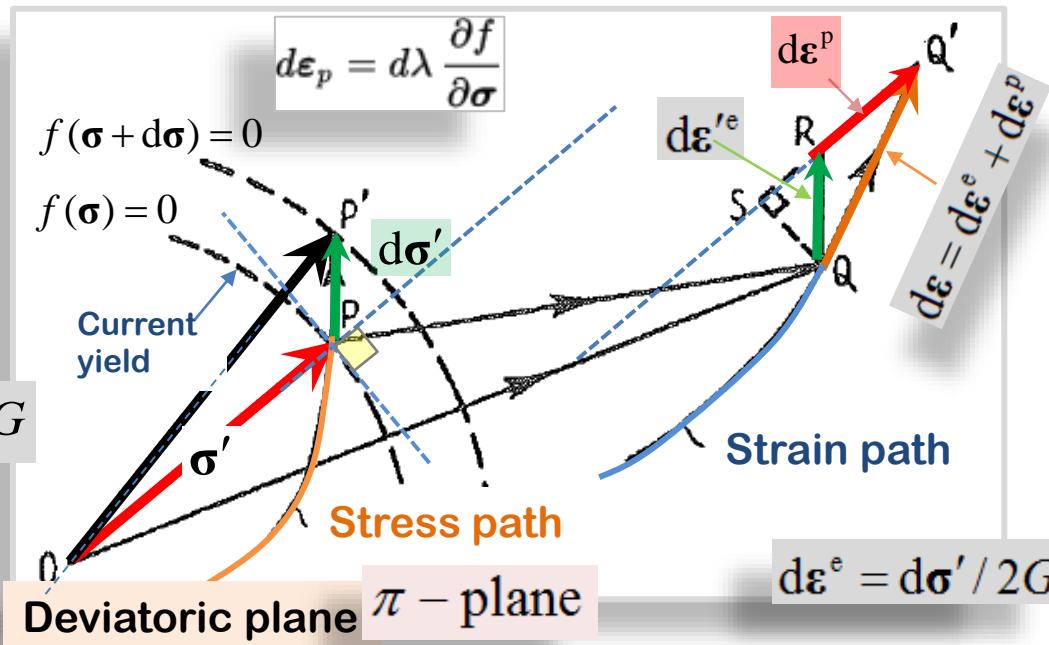
$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{ij}^p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{ij}}$$

$$d\lambda > 0$$

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{ij}^p = \dot{\lambda} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{ij}}$$

$$\dot{\lambda} > 0$$

This graphical 2D-representation is due to Hill



Representation of the Reuss relation for a plastic element of work-hardening metal when the principle axes of stress are fixed in the element. (think that the stress strain states are superposed and projected on the Pi-plane)

If you understand this graphical representation then you have understood already a lot about theory of plasticity.

Principle of maximum plastic work

Normality rule

Consistency Condition

Associative and Non-associate Plasticity

Convexity of the criterion

Normality of the plastic flow

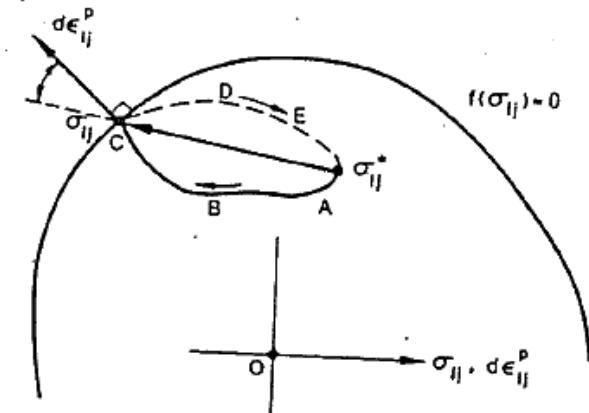
Principle of maximum plastic work

Work done on a loading-unloading cycle stress path from σ^* to σ and then unloading back to σ^* (occurs elastically) is dissipated as a **plastic work increment** and is **positive** for plastic deformation.

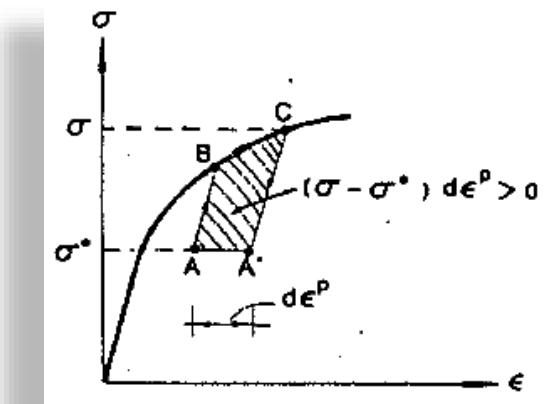
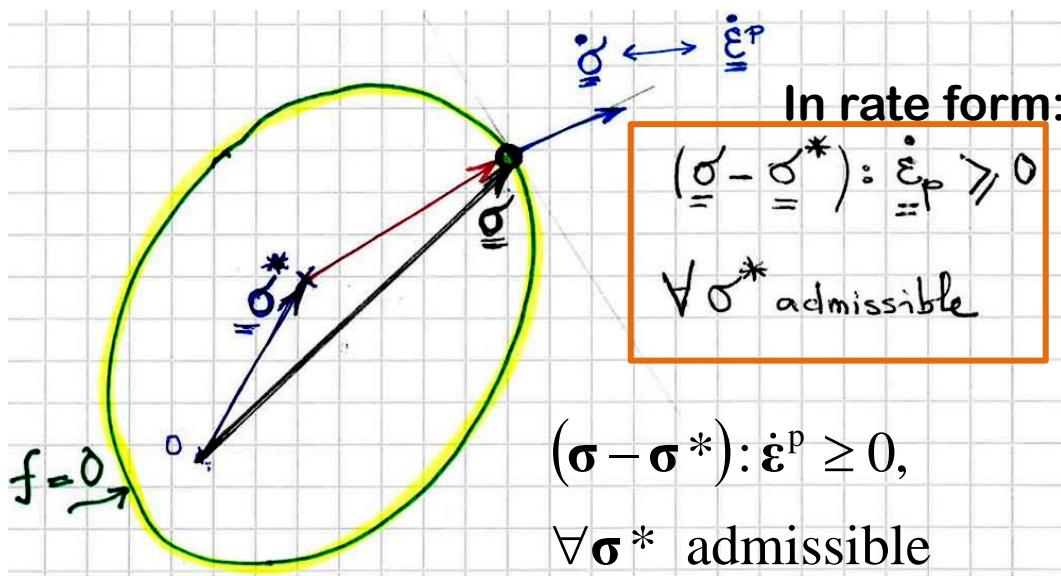
This is known as **Drucker's material stability postulate**: $d\sigma : d\epsilon^p \geq 0$

Applicable to hardening materials only

"The plastic work done in an infinitesimal stress cycle is always non-negative."

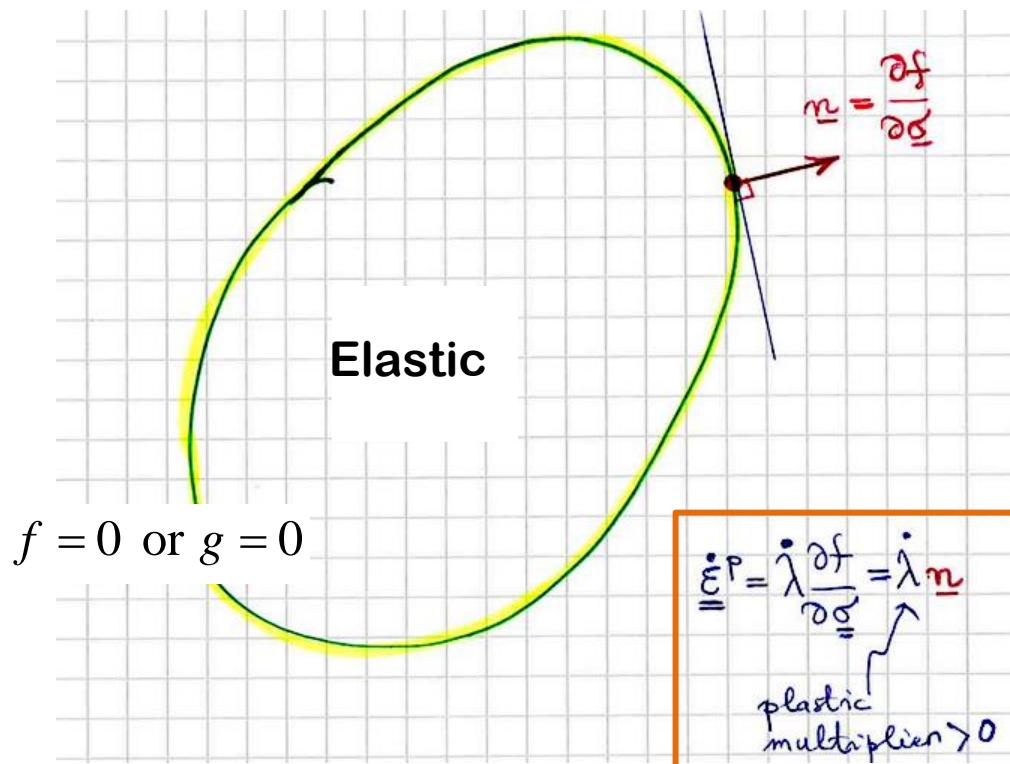


$$(\underline{\sigma} - \underline{\sigma}^*) : \dot{\underline{\epsilon}}^p \geq 0, \\ \forall \sigma^* \text{ admissible}$$



Some names: Drucker's (1951) and then later Ilyushin's (1961) postulates for *material stability*.

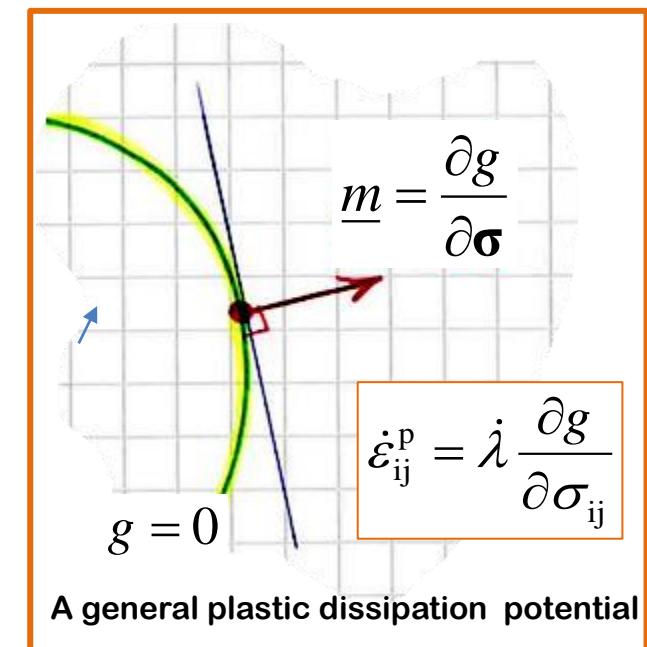
Normality rule



$f = 0$ – Yield function

$g = 0$ – A plastic dissipation potential which may be different from f

For a general plasticity with a general plastic dissipation potential not necessarily equal to the yield function:



Normality rule implies

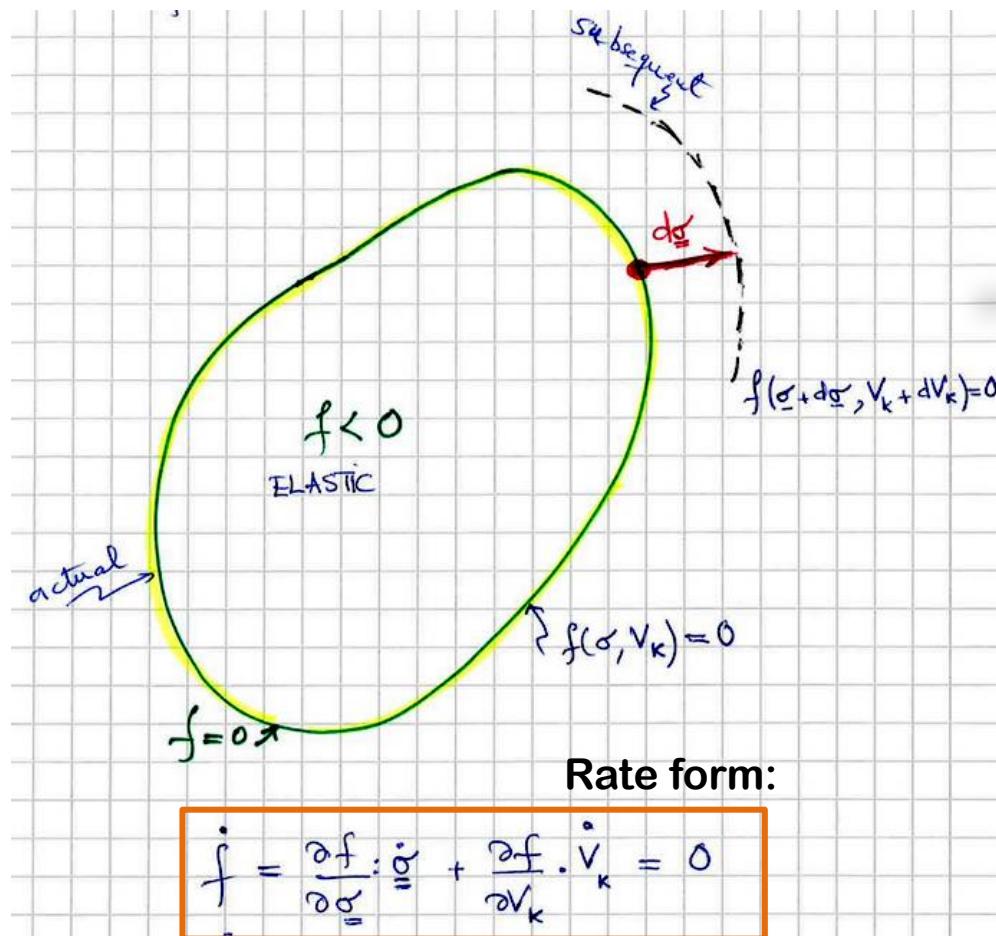
- convexity of the yield function
- Incompressibility of the plastic strain for hydrostatic pressure independent plasticity

$$d\varepsilon_{ij}^p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}}$$

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^p = \lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}}$$

Consistency condition

$d\lambda$



Rate form:

$$\dot{f} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} : \ddot{\sigma} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial V_k} \cdot \dot{V}_k = 0$$

$$f(\sigma^*, V_k) = 0$$

The plastic multiplier λ is determined by combining the hardening rule and the consistency condition

Prager consistency condition:

Incremental form:

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} : d\sigma + \frac{\partial f}{\partial V_k} dV_k = 0$$

Rate form:

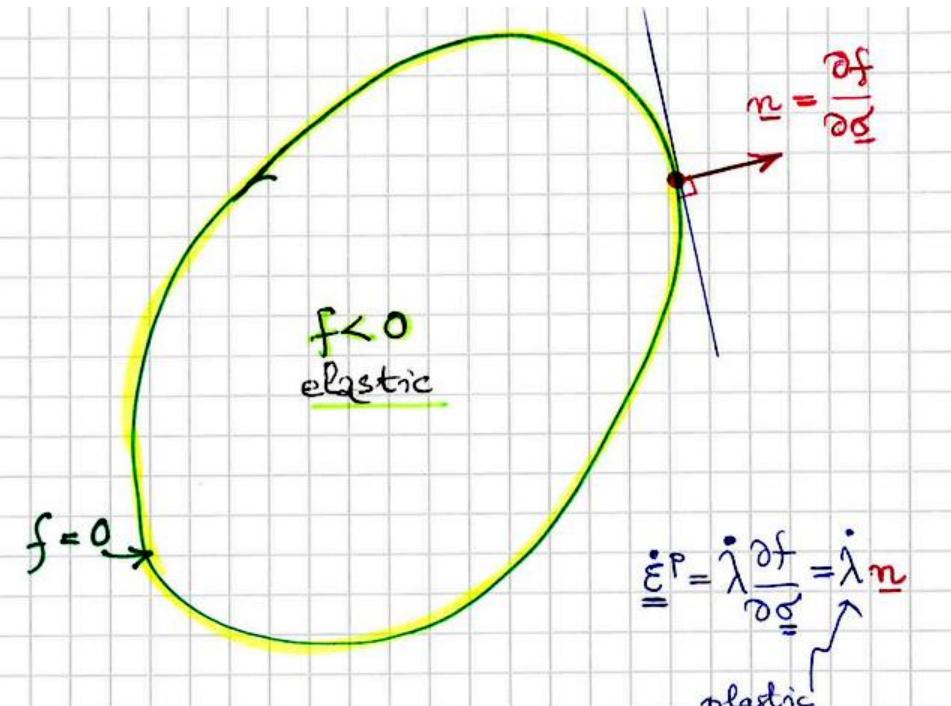
$$\dot{f} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} : \dot{\sigma} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial V_k} \dot{V}_k = 0$$

V_k is an internal (or hidden) variable related to the change of yielding surface during yielding (to account for hardening)

Associated and non-associated plasticity

$f = 0$ – Yield function

Associative flow rule

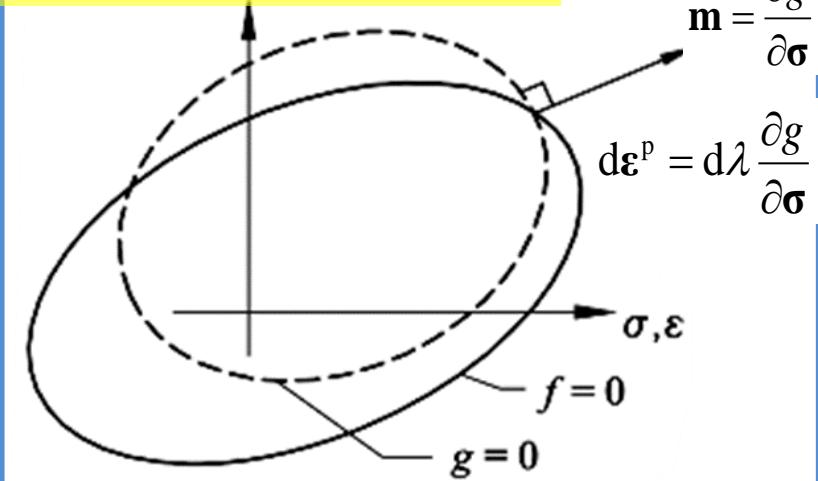


The plastic dissipation potential is the same as the yield function $g = f$

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} = d\lambda \cdot \mathbf{n}$$

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^p = \dot{\lambda} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} = \dot{\lambda} \cdot \mathbf{n}$$

Non-associative flow rule



$g = 0$: A plastic dissipation potential which is different from the yield function f

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p = d\lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} = d\lambda \cdot \mathbf{m}$$

$$d\lambda > 0$$

$$\dot{\lambda} > 0$$

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^p = \dot{\lambda} \frac{\partial g}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} = \dot{\lambda} \cdot \mathbf{m}$$

兵马俑

The Terracotta Army in Xi'an, China



terra cocta (Latin)
means baked earth;
a clay-based ceramic.

Clay samples – soils mechanics laboratory

Civil Engineering Department
Aalto-University
Photo: DBA, February 2017

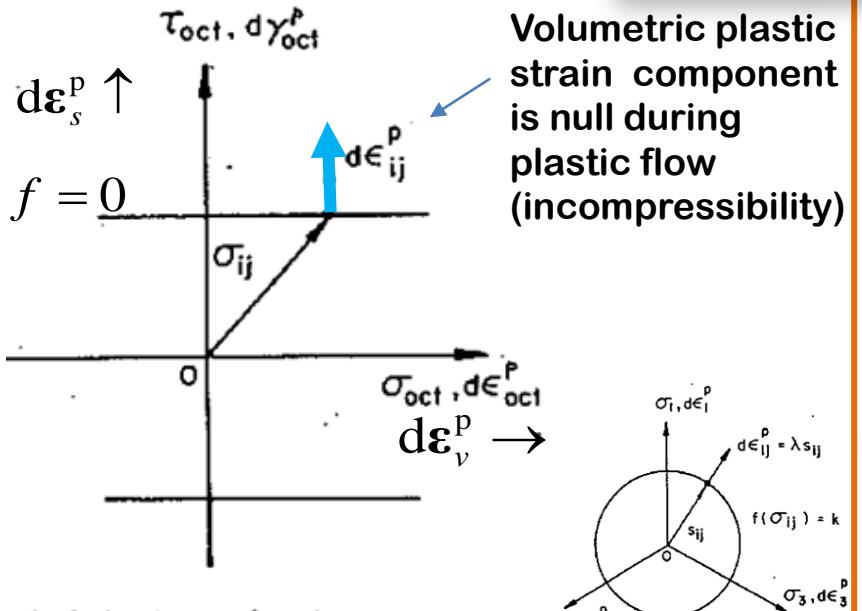
Modified Cam-
Clays yield function:

$$f = q^2 - M^2 [p' (p_0' - p')] = 0$$

Some application examples of associated and non-associated plasticity

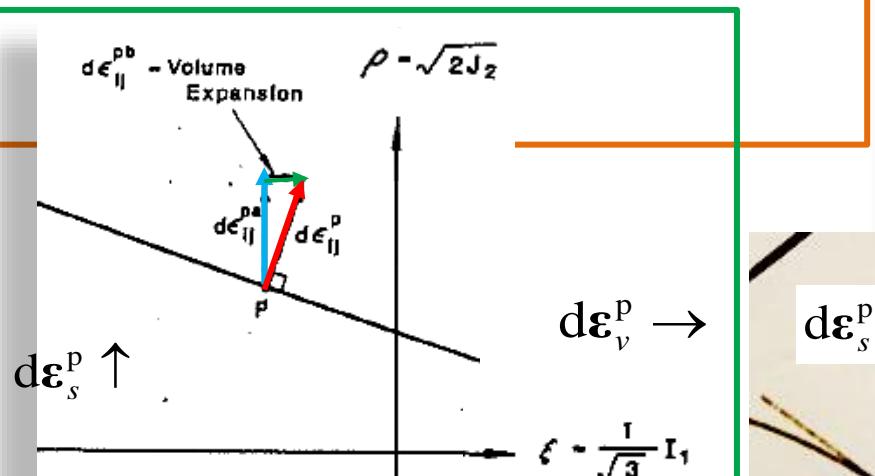
Ref: Chinese soldiers: By Maros M r a z (Maros) - Own work, CC BY-SA 3.0,
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=2704700>

Flow rule associated with von Mises yield function (Metals)



(a) Hydrostatic plane

(b) Deviatoric plane



Plastic volume expansion associated with Drucker-Prager yield surface

Examples

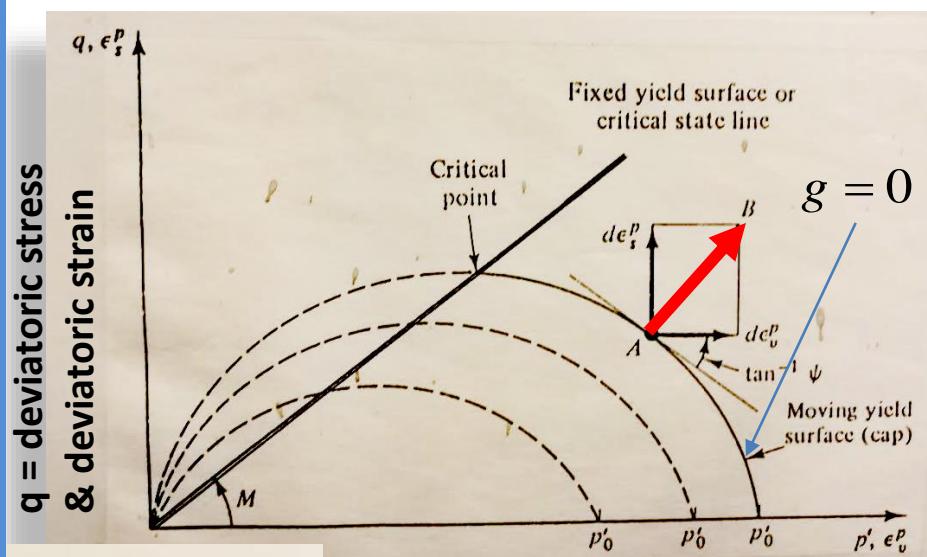
Flow rule associated with a non-associative plasticity (Soils)

Modified Cam-Clays yield function:

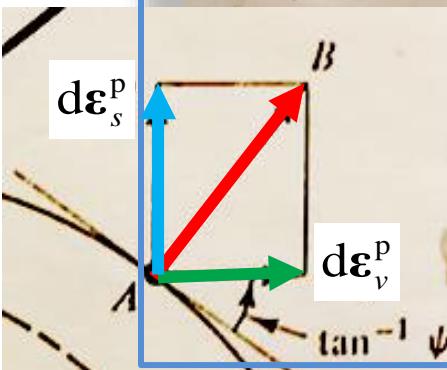
Plastic strain increment has both a non-zero volumetric $d\epsilon_v^p$ and deviator (shear) $d\epsilon_s^p$ components in plastic flow (compressibility or dilatancy)

$$f = q^2 - M^2 [p'(p_0 - p')] = 0$$

p' = effective mean stress



p' = effective mean stress & volumetric strain



Plastic deformation increment given by combining Consistency condition, Flow rule & Hardening rule

The general idea

Normality rule

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^p = \lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} = \lambda \cdot \mathbf{n}$$

This is in the rate form. To obtain incremental form

$$\lambda \leftrightarrow \lambda dt = d\lambda$$

Hardening rule

(known behavior, modeled by an evolution law)

$$\dot{V}_k = \lambda H_k(\boldsymbol{\sigma}, V_j)$$

V_k is an internal (or hidden) variable related to the change of yielding surface during yielding (to account for hardening)

Consistency condition

$$\dot{f} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} : \dot{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial V_k} \dot{V}_k = \mathbf{n} : \dot{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} + \lambda H_k \frac{\partial f}{\partial V_k} = 0$$

The plastic multiplier:

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} : \dot{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}}{-H_k \frac{\partial f}{\partial V_k}} = \frac{1}{h_p} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{\sigma}} : \dot{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} = \frac{1}{h_p} \mathbf{n} : \dot{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}$$

Hardening plastic modulus:

$$h_p \equiv -H_k \frac{\partial f}{\partial V_k}$$

$$d\lambda > 0$$

$$\lambda > 0$$

Loading-unloading condition and normality:

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_p = \frac{1}{h_p} H(f) \langle \mathbf{n} : \dot{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} \rangle \mathbf{n}$$

$$d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_p = \frac{1}{h_p} H(f) \langle \mathbf{n} : d\boldsymbol{\sigma} \rangle \mathbf{n}$$

$$H(f) = \begin{cases} 1, & f \geq 0 \\ 0, & f < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\langle x \rangle = xH(x)$$

Inserting the result above into Hooke's law will provide the elastic-plastic tangent modulus as shown in next slide

$$d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{C}^e : d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^e = \mathbf{C}^e : (d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p) = \mathbf{C}^e : (d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - d\lambda \cdot \partial g / \partial \boldsymbol{\sigma})$$

Incremental Stress-Strain Relationships

Reading: Chapter 5.7 – Chan & Han

Elastic-Plastic stiffness tensor of tangent modulus

Case: general elastic-plastic work hardening material

You may remember for the 1-D case the idea behind the tangent modulus:

$$d\sigma = E_t d\varepsilon$$

For the general 3D-case we seek for an equivalent incremental stress-strain relation:

$$d\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{C}^{ep} d\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \leftrightarrow d\sigma_{ii} = C_{iikl}^{ep} d\varepsilon_{kl}$$

The elastic-plastic tangent modulus (tensor)

History dependent ... needed in numerical algorithms

Yield surface: $f(\sigma, \epsilon^p, k) = 0$, $k = k(\bar{\epsilon}_p)$

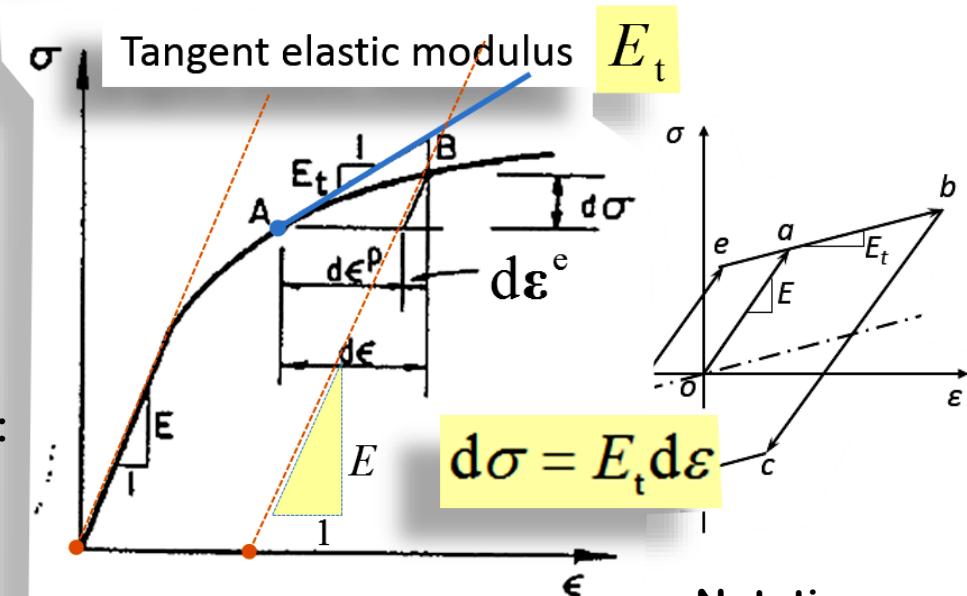
Plastic potential: $g(\sigma, \epsilon^p, k) = 0$, (if associated plasticity the $g = f$)

$$d\varepsilon = d\varepsilon^e + d\varepsilon^p \Rightarrow d\sigma = C^e : d\varepsilon^e = C^e : (d\varepsilon - d\varepsilon^p) = C^e : \left(d\varepsilon - d\lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma} \right)$$

Hooke's law Elastic modulus (tensor)

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} : d\sigma + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \epsilon^p} : d\epsilon^p + \frac{\partial f}{\partial k} dk = 0$$

As previously done, combining consistency condition and normality one obtains the *plastic multiplier* (for plastic flow)



Isotropic hardening parameters

$$\bar{\varepsilon}_p = C \sqrt{d\varepsilon^p : d\varepsilon^p}$$

Equivalent plastic strain

$$C_{ijkl}^{ep} = C_{ijkl}^e - \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{mn}} C_{mnkl}^e C_{ijst}^e \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma_{st}} \\ h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{pa}} C_{pquiv}^e \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma_{uv}}$$

The constitutive relation is fully known once the *plastic multiplier* determined

$$h = 0 \text{ - For elastic-ideal plastic case}$$

Hardening plastic modulus (scalar function) /known once hardening rule specified/

Incremental Stress-Strain Relationships

Elastic-Plastic stiffness tensor of tangent modulus

Case: general elastic-plastic work hardening material

1-D the tangent modulus: $d\sigma = E_t d\epsilon$

3D-incremental stress-strain relation:

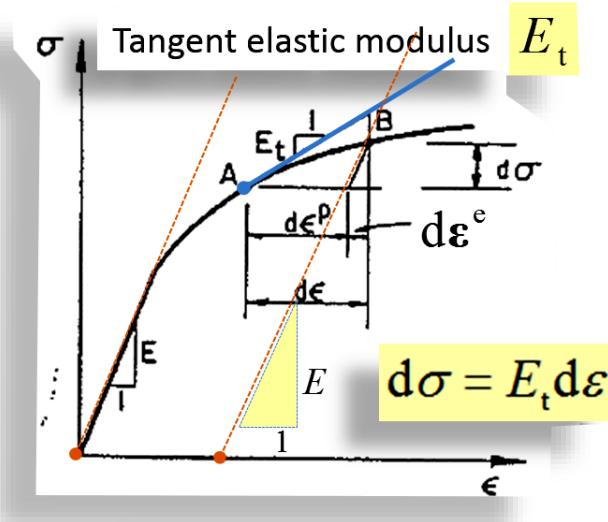
$$d\sigma = \mathbf{C}^{ep} d\epsilon \leftrightarrow d\sigma_{ij} = C_{ijkl}^{ep} d\epsilon_{kl}$$

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma}$$

$$\mathbf{m} = \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma}$$

The elastic-plastic tangent modulus (tensor)

FEM: linearization of the weak form gives: $[K_e^T] = \int_{\Omega_e} [B]^T [D^{ep}] [B] d\Omega,$



$$\mathbf{C}^{ep} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{D}^{ep}$$

(if associated plasticity the $g = f$...symmetric positive definite, otherwise not symmetric and not necessarily positive definite)

$$\mathbf{D}^{ep} = \mathbf{D} - \frac{\mathbf{D} \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T \mathbf{D}}{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T \mathbf{D} \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma}}$$

$$\mathbf{C}_{ijkl}^{ep} = \mathbf{C}_{ijkl}^e - \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{mn}} \mathbf{C}_{mnkl}^e \mathbf{C}_{ijst}^e \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma_{st}}}{h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{pq}} \mathbf{C}_{pquv}^e \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma_{uv}}}$$

matrix form
(assumes Voigt's notation for stress and stress tensors)

$$\mathbf{C}^{ep} = \mathbf{C}^e - \frac{\mathbf{C}^e \mathbf{m} \mathbf{n}^T \mathbf{C}^e}{h + \mathbf{n}^T \mathbf{C}^e \mathbf{m}}$$

Dyadic product $(\mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{b})_{ijkl} = a_{ij} b_{kl}$

Tensor form

$$\mathbf{C}^{ep} = \mathbf{C}^e - \frac{(\mathbf{C}^e : \mathbf{n}) \otimes (\mathbf{C}^e : \mathbf{m})}{h + \mathbf{n} : \mathbf{C}^e : \mathbf{m}}$$

Double contraction:

$$\mathbf{A} : \mathbf{B} = \sum_{i,j} A_{ij} B_{ij}$$

$$(\mathbf{a} \otimes \mathbf{b}) \leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Incremental Stress-Strain Relationships needed in non-linear FEM (plasticity)

Reading: Chapter 5.6 – Lemaitre et Chaboche
Elements of computational methods in elastoplasticity

FEM: linearization of the weak form gives:

$$[K_{n,i}^T] \{\Delta u_i\} = \{F_n^a\} - \{F_{n,i}^{nr}\},$$

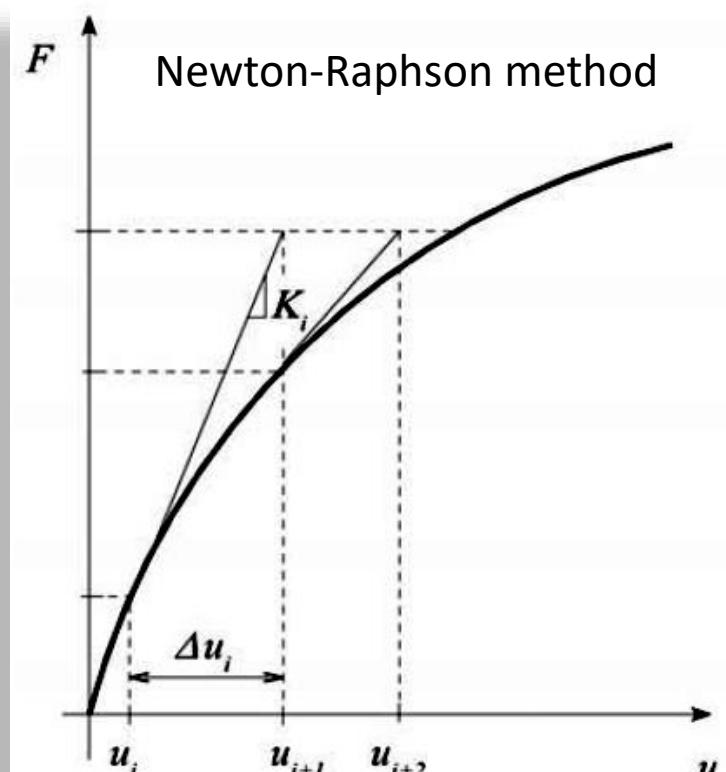
$$[K_e^T] = \int_{\Omega_e} [B]^T [D^{ep}] [B] d\Omega,$$

$$d\sigma = C^{ep} d\varepsilon$$

$$C^{ep} \leftrightarrow D^{ep}$$

The elastic-plastic tangent modulus (tensor)

Incremental solution: In such case the resulting loading $\{F_a\}$ is divided into substeps and in each of them is applied the Newton-Raphson procedure to solve displacements then strain and stress are computed...



$$\mathbf{Ku} = \mathbf{f}$$

Linear case

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{u}) \cdot \Delta \mathbf{u} = \Delta \mathbf{f} + \Delta \mathbf{f}_{\sigma_0} \quad \text{Elasto-plastic case (non-linear)}$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{f}_{\sigma_0} = - \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{B}^T \Delta \boldsymbol{\sigma}_0 d\Omega$$

$$\Delta \boldsymbol{\sigma}_0 = a \Delta \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^p$$

Treated as initial stress during the increment

Example of a flow rule

Reading: Chapter 5.3 *Formulation of general constitutive laws*
Lemaitre et Chaboche (our textbooks)



Otaniemi, 12.2.2017

Reading: Chapter 5.3
*Formulation of general
constitutive laws*
Lemaitre et Chaboche, our
textbooks

Flow rule for isotropic hardening – example 1(2)

For metals, associative Flow rule is adequate

For a ***perfectly plastic*** material the yield criterion: $f(\sigma_{ij}) = 0$,

Von Mises

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$$

Von Mises: $f(\sigma_{ij}) = \sigma_e(\sigma_{ij}) - \sigma_Y = 0$, where the equivalent stress $\sigma_e = \sqrt{3/2 s_{ij} s_{ij}}$,

$$= \sqrt{3/2 s_{ij} s_{ij}} - \sigma_Y = 0,$$

For an ***isotropically hardening*** material, the yield criterion:

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, \kappa(\varepsilon_{ij}^p)) = 0,$$

In the von Mises case one can write:

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, \kappa(\varepsilon_{ij}^p)) = \sigma_e(\sigma_{ij}) - \sigma_f(\varepsilon_{ij}^p) = 0,$$

depends on plastic strain history

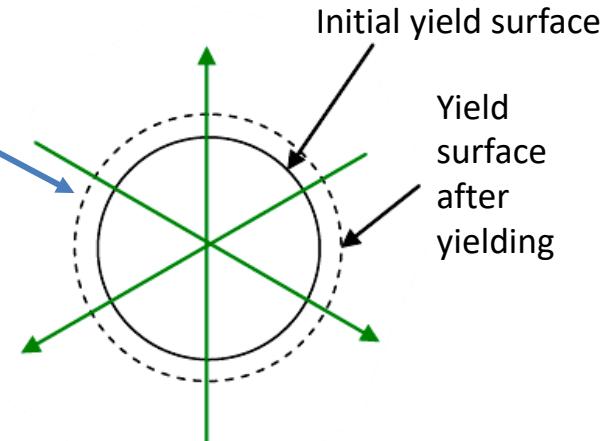
A scalar (instantaneous plastic yield $\sigma_Y(\varepsilon_{ij}^p)$ or flow stress) which increases monotonically with the accumulated plastic deformation.

$$f(\sigma_{ij}, \kappa(\varepsilon_{ij}^p)) = \sqrt{3/2 s_{ij} s_{ij}} - \sigma_f(\varepsilon_{ij}^p) = 0,$$

Frequently, the ***isotropic hardening rule*** is written as $\sigma_f(\varepsilon_{ii}^p) = \sigma_f(\varepsilon_e^p)$,

where $\varepsilon_e^p \equiv \int_0^{\varepsilon_{ij}^p} \sqrt{2/3 d\varepsilon_{ij}^p d\varepsilon_{ij}^p}$, cumulated ‘plastic equivalent strain’ from $d\varepsilon_e^p \equiv \sqrt{2/3 d\varepsilon_{ij}^p d\varepsilon_{ij}^p}$

internal variable modeling the monotonic increase of the yielding surface (or of the yield stress)



Flow rule for isotropic hardening – example 2(2)

Von Mises

Use of the consistency condition:

$f = 0$ and $df = 0 \rightarrow$ Plastic behavior

$$f = \sigma_e(\sigma_{ij}) - \sigma_f(\varepsilon_e^p) = 0,$$

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}} d\sigma_{ij} + \boxed{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \varepsilon_e^p} d\varepsilon_e^p} = 0$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma_e \equiv \sqrt{3/2 s_{ij} s_{ij}}, \\ \sigma_e \equiv \sqrt{3 J_2}, \end{array} \right.$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3 J_2}} 3 \frac{\partial J_2}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{\sigma_Y} s$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{s_{ij}}{\sigma_e} \quad (3)$$

*This result can be shown easily;
homework

$$d\varepsilon_p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma}$$

is an associated flow rule

$$d\lambda = \frac{\frac{3}{2} \frac{s_{ij}}{\sigma_e} d\sigma_{ij}}{\frac{d\sigma_f}{d\varepsilon_e^p}} \quad (4)$$

Flow rule: $d\varepsilon_{ij}^p = d\lambda \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}}$ (1) $\leftrightarrow \dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^p = \dot{\lambda} \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}}$ (rate form)

The problem is to determinate the value of the amplitude of the plastic increment $d\lambda$

Using the definition $\varepsilon_e^p \equiv \int_0^{\varepsilon_{ij}^p} \sqrt{2/3} d\varepsilon_{ij}^p d\varepsilon_{ij}^p$, together with (1) one obtains the simple relation:

$$d\varepsilon_e^p = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}} d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}} = d\lambda \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} \frac{s_{ij} s_{ij}}{\sigma_e^2}}$$

(2)

$$d\varepsilon_p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma}$$

Combining (1) & (3) & (4) results in:

$$d\varepsilon_{ij}^p = \frac{3}{2} \frac{s_{ij}}{\sigma_e} d\varepsilon_e^p$$

(Prandtl-Reuß equations)



Example 4: Kinematic Hardening Plasticity

- Plasticity:

- Yield function:

$$\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}(S_{ij} - \alpha_{ij})(S_{ij} - \alpha_{ij}) - \sigma_y = 0 .$$

- Equivalent plastic strain rate:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}}.$$

- Plastic flow law:

$$\dot{\alpha}_{ij} = \frac{3}{2}(S_{ij} - \alpha_{ij})\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl}/\sigma_y .$$

- Prager-Ziegler (linear) kinematic hardening:

$$\alpha_{ij} = \frac{2}{3}h\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}.$$

ABAQUS
Version 6.6 Documentation

$$\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}|_0 + \int_0^t \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl} : \dot{\varepsilon}^{pl}} dt$$

In addition to the standard output identifiers available in ABAQUS ([“ABAQUS/Standard output”](#), [“ABAQUS/Explicit output variable identifiers,”](#) Section 4.2.2), the following variable has special plasticity models:

PEEQ

Equivalent plastic strain, $\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}|_0 + \int_0^t \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl} : \dot{\varepsilon}^{pl}} dt$, where $\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}|_0$ is the initial equivalent plastic strain (zero or user-specified; see [“Initial conditions”](#)).



Examples of hardening rules in Abaqus – how it looks like?

Classic Metal Plasticity

Example 5: Isotropic Hardening Plasticity



- Plasticity:

- Yield function:

$$\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}S_{ij}S_{ij}} - \sigma_y(\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}) = 0 ,$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}S_{ij}S_{ij}} - \sigma_y(\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}) = 0 , \quad S_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} - \frac{1}{3}\delta_{ij}\sigma_{kk} .$$

- Equivalent plastic strain:

$$\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \int_0^t \dot{\bar{\varepsilon}}^{pl} dt, \quad \dot{\bar{\varepsilon}}^{pl} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}}.$$

- Plastic flow law:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl} = \frac{3}{2}\frac{S_{ij}}{\sigma_y}\dot{\bar{\varepsilon}}^{pl}.$$

END OF this LECTURE SERIES

Recall

Appendix 1

Stress invariants (Recall)

Recall

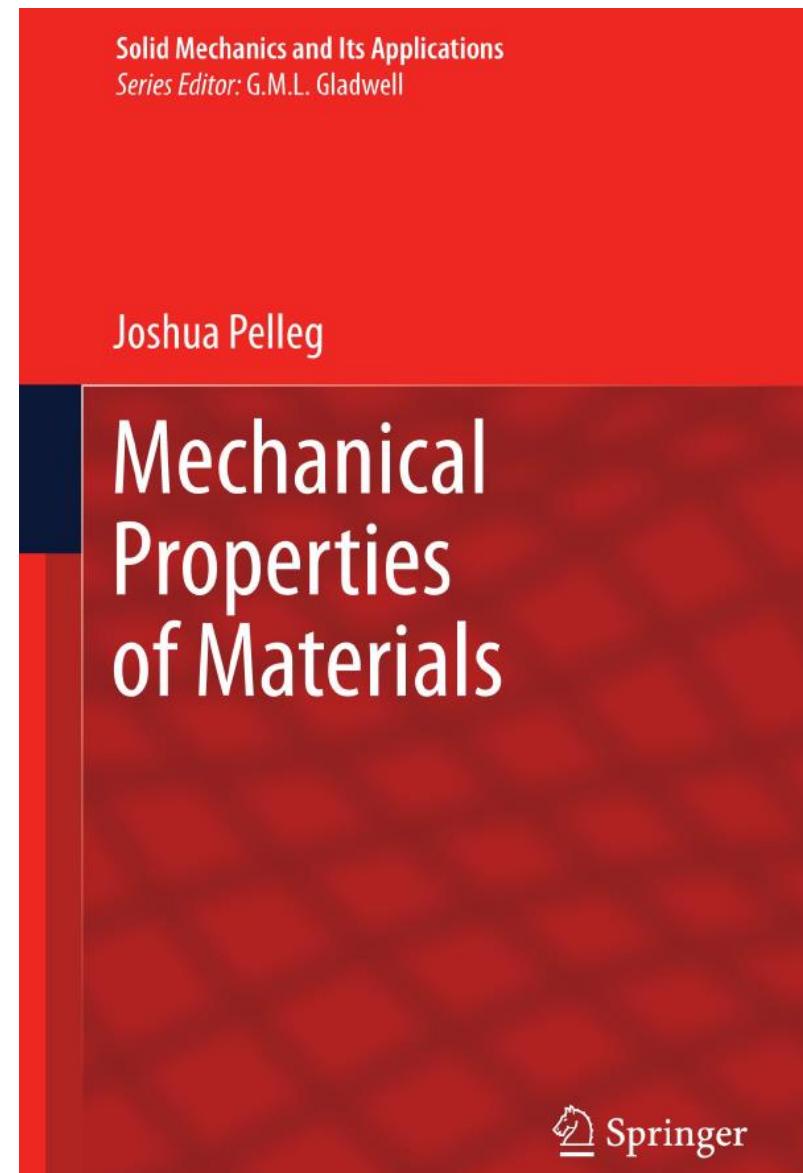
Elements of solid mechanics

Limited to the necessary minimum to follow this course

Not mandatory additional textbook – if you need to know about Mechanical Properties of Materials

Usually, our master students should have this type of knowledge (bachelor course)

- [!\[\]\(47b55a18dd3d477128f2d296a594c9db_img.jpg\) Mechanical Properties of Materials](#)
- [!\[\]\(84ba263664d92a2fb805e40a10a2f109_img.jpg\) Preface](#)
- [!\[\]\(bb3ed7c926767577e712de7de237685e_img.jpg\) Contents](#)
- [!\[\]\(d54c661189ff4c21338a5ff07e0ac99c_img.jpg\) Chapter 1: Mechanical Testing of Materials](#)
- [!\[\]\(201f7f8a811752c2f9661287ad69484e_img.jpg\) Chapter 2: Introduction to Dislocations](#)
- [!\[\]\(9ceac7f352b11cb3adb7cc134f40aaa8_img.jpg\) Chapter 3: Plastic Deformation](#)
- [!\[\]\(b89bf563069ec85961b0bea42a2635c9_img.jpg\) Chapter 4: Strengthening Mechanisms](#)
- [!\[\]\(7b792dcd9e1cb1d683a58335c875275c_img.jpg\) Chapter 5: Time Dependent Deformation – Creep](#)
- [!\[\]\(51438aad7d584f2a9fb32f0ae2035c26_img.jpg\) Chapter 6: Cyclic Stress – Fatigue](#)
- [!\[\]\(847f96ba98a921e9f1ccdb7e756f9999_img.jpg\) Chapter 7: Fracture](#)
- [!\[\]\(52bb921d1ace410f615c5ee1b79cbca9_img.jpg\) Chapter 8: Mechanical Behavior in the Micron and Submicron/Nano Range](#)
- [!\[\]\(1c699436646af8b524dffe7b9e5fe2ec_img.jpg\) About the Author](#)
- [!\[\]\(ea2efa3f507c050d3e8baca7d105850c_img.jpg\) Index](#)



Not mandatory additional classical textbooks and equivalent on plasticity

W.F. Chen D.J. Han

Plasticity for Structural Engineers

[Wai Fah Chen, D.J. Han](#)

Springer New York, 6 Dec 2012 -

[Technology & Engineering](#) - 606 pages



Fundamentals of the Theory of Plasticity

THE
MATHEMATICAL THEORY OF
PLASTICITY

L. M. Kachanov

BY
R. HILL
Formerly Professor of Mechanics of Solids,
University of Cambridge

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*Formerly Professor of Mechanics of Solids,
University of Cambridge*

CLARENDON PRESS · OXFORD

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PLASTICITY THEORY

[Revised Edition \(PDF\)](#)

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University of California at Berkeley

[http://www.ewp.rpi.edu/hartford/~ernesto/F2008/
MEF2/Z-Links/Papers/Lubliner.pdf](http://www.ewp.rpi.edu/hartford/~ernesto/F2008/MEF2/Z-Links/Papers/Lubliner.pdf) (25.1.2017)

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Plasticity for Structural Engineers is a practical work that provides engineers and students in structural engineering or structural mechanics with the background needed to make the transition from fundamental theory to computer implementation and engineering practice

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Key Features

- Outlines the finite element implementation of the generalized stress-strain relations for the solution of practical steel and concrete structural problems
- Provides fully-worked examples, end-of-chapter problems, answers to selected problems, and clear illustrations and tables
- Features important constitutive equations for structural materials and applications to steel and concrete structures
- Includes examples of the most useful constitutive models and analytical methods

Raakeleita Homework

Homework, exercises – plasticity – yield criteria ...

2. Materiaalin yksiakselinen puristuslujuus on σ_c . Lisäksi se murtuu puristusmeridi-anilla jännitystilassa $\sigma_m = -3\sigma_c$, $\sigma_e = 5\sigma_c$, jossa $\sigma_m = \frac{1}{3}I_1 = \frac{1}{3}\text{tr}\sigma$ on keskimääräinen jännitys ja σ_e on von Misesin teholinen jännitys $\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$. Määritä

$$(a) \text{ Druckerin-Pragerin murtoehdon } \sqrt{3J_2} + \alpha I_1 - \beta = 0 \text{ ja}$$

$$(b) \text{ Mohrin-Coulombin murtoehdon}$$

materiaaliparametrit. Mohrin-Coulomin mutoehdo voidaan ilmaista useilla parametrikkien binaatioilla. Määritä ensin m ja f_c ja sieltä kitkakulma ϕ ja koheesio c .

Määritä myös minkä lujuusarvon kyseiset mallin antavat yksiakselisessa vedossa.

Piirrä puristusmeridiaani (σ_m, σ_e)-koordinaatistossa.

$$a) \text{ Drucker-Prager } \sqrt{3J_2} + \alpha I_1 - \beta = 0$$

$$\text{1-aki. puristuslujuus } \sigma_c$$

lisäksi summan murtoehdo, jossa: $\sigma_m = -3\sigma_c$ ja $\sigma_e = 5\sigma_c$

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}, \quad I_1 = \text{tr}\underline{\sigma} = 3\sigma_c$$

$$\text{1-aki. puristus } \sigma_{11} = -\sigma_c$$

$$\underline{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sigma_c & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{3}{2}\sigma_c & & \\ & \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c & \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c \\ & \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c & \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2} = \sigma_c$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \sigma_c - \alpha \sigma_c - \beta^2 = 0 \\ 5\sigma_c - 9\sigma_c - \beta^2 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_c & 1 \\ 5\sigma_c & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_c \\ 5\sigma_c \end{pmatrix}$$

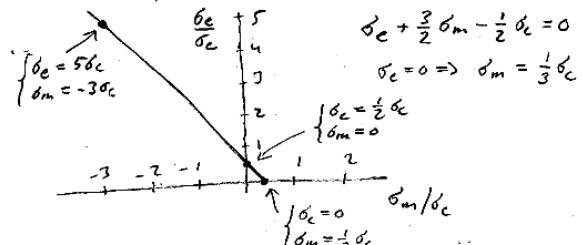
$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sigma_c - 5\sigma_c} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -9 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_c \\ 5\sigma_c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Murtoehdo on siiressä } \sigma_e + \frac{1}{2}I_1 - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c = 0$$

$$b) \text{ 1-aki. vektori } \underline{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_t & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_e = \sigma_t, \quad I_1 = \sigma_t$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}\sigma_t = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c \Rightarrow \sigma_t = \frac{1}{3}\sigma_c$$

c) Kaksi murtoehdot eivät riitä J_3 :sta tai Leden kohdasta θ , kaikki meridiaanit ovat suorat



b) Mohrin-Coulombin murtoehdo:

Puristusmeridiaanilla

$$\sigma_c + 3 \frac{m-1}{m+2} \sigma_m - \frac{3}{m+2} \sigma_c = 0 \quad f_c = \sigma_c$$

$$\text{mutta } \sigma_c = 5\sigma_c \quad \text{j. } \sigma_m = -3\sigma_c$$

$$\Rightarrow 5 - 9 \frac{m-1}{m+2} - \frac{3}{m+2} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{3m-2}{m+2} = \frac{5}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow m = 4$$

$$\tan \phi = \frac{m-1}{2\sqrt{m}} = \frac{3}{4} \Rightarrow \phi = 36,9^\circ$$

$$c = \frac{\sigma_c}{2\sqrt{m}} = \frac{1}{4}\sigma_c$$

Veturimurtoehdoissa näiden helppoinmin

$$m\sigma_1 - \sigma_3 - \sigma_c = 0 \quad \text{mutta } \sigma_3 = 0$$

$$\sigma_t = \frac{\sigma_c}{m} = \frac{1}{4}\sigma_c$$

$$\text{Puristusmeridiaani: } \sigma_c + \frac{3}{2}\sigma_m - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c = 0$$

yleinen Druckerin-Pragerin murtoehdoon!

Huom: DP murtoehdolla σ -meridiaanit ovat suorat. Näin ei ole MC-murtoehdossa, jossa vektorimurtoehdoilla on lauseke

$$\sigma_c + 3 \frac{m-1}{2m+1} \sigma_m - \frac{3}{2m+1} \sigma_c = 0$$

eli tällä tapauksessa

$$\sigma_c + \sigma_m - \frac{1}{3}\sigma_c = 0.$$

Homework, exercises – plasticity – yield criteria ...

2. Materiaalin yksiakselinen puristuslujuus on σ_c . Lisäksi se murtuu puristusmeridi-anilla jännitystilassa $\sigma_m = -3\sigma_c$, $\sigma_e = 5\sigma_c$, jossa $\sigma_m = \frac{1}{3}I_1 = \frac{1}{3}\text{tr}\sigma$ on keskimääräinen jännitys ja σ_e on von Misesin teholinen jännitys $\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}$. Määritä

(a) Druckerin-Pragerin murtoehdon $\sqrt{3J_2} + \alpha I_1 - \beta = 0$ ja

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materiaaliparametrit. Mohrin-Coulomin mutoehdo voidaan ilmaista useilla parametrikkom binaatioilla. Määritä ensin m ja f_c ja sieltä kitkakulma ϕ ja koheesio c .

Määritä myös minkä lujuusarvon kyseiset mallin antavat yksiakselisessa vedossa.

a) Drucker-Prager $\sqrt{3J_2} + \alpha I_1 - \beta = 0$

I-akts. puristuslujuus σ_c

lisäksi murtoehdot murtutile, jossa $\sigma_m = -3\sigma_c$ ja $\sigma_e = 5\sigma_c$

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2}, \quad I_1 = \text{tr}\sigma = 3\sigma_m$$

I-akts. puristus $\sigma_{11} = -\sigma_c$

$$\underline{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sigma_c & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{3}{7}\sigma_c & & \\ & \frac{1}{3}\sigma_c & \frac{1}{3}\sigma_c \\ & \frac{1}{3}\sigma_c & \frac{1}{3}\sigma_c \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_e = \sqrt{3J_2} = \sigma_c$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \sigma_c - \alpha\sigma_c - \beta = 0 \\ 5\sigma_c - 9\sigma_c - \beta = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_c & 1 \\ 9\sigma_c & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_c \\ 5\sigma_c \end{pmatrix}$$

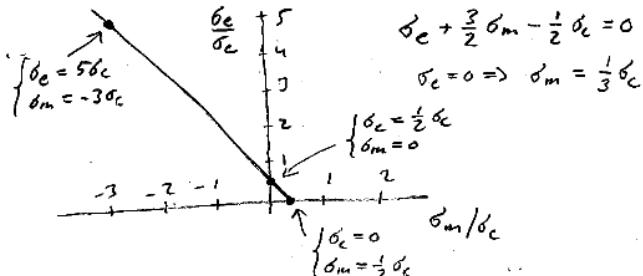
$$(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\sigma_c - 9\sigma_c} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -9\sigma_c & \sigma_c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_c \\ 5\sigma_c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c \end{pmatrix}$$

Murtoehdot on sääs $\sigma_c + \frac{1}{2}I_1 - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c = 0$

b) I-akts. vektori $\underline{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_t & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_c = \sigma_t, \quad I_1 = \sigma_t$

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Puristusmeridianaanilta

$$\sigma_c + 3 \frac{m-1}{m+2} \sigma_m - \frac{3}{m+2} \sigma_c = 0 \quad f_c = \sigma_c$$

$$\text{mutt } \sigma_c = 5\sigma_c \quad j\ddot{c} \quad \sigma_m = -3\sigma_c$$

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$$c = \frac{\sigma_c}{2\sqrt{m}} = \frac{1}{4}\sigma_c$$

Veturimurtoehdossa maledon helppoinmin

$$m\sigma_1 - \sigma_3 - \sigma_c = 0 \quad \text{mutt } \sigma_3 = 0$$

$$\sigma_t = \frac{\sigma_c}{m} = \frac{1}{4}\sigma_c$$

$$\text{Puristusmeridianaanilta } \sigma_c + \frac{3}{2}\sigma_m - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_c = 0$$

yleinen Druckerin-Pragerin murtoehdottoon!

Huom: DP murtoehdolla σ_m merkitään lähtöön vektorina. Nämä eivät ole MC-murtoehdossa, jossa vektorimurtoehdolla on lauseke

$$\sigma_c + 3 \frac{m-1}{2m+1} \sigma_m - \frac{3}{2m+1} \sigma_c = 0$$

eli tällä tapauksessa

$$\sigma_c + \sigma_m - \frac{1}{3}\sigma_c = 0.$$

plasticity

Rak-54.125 Plastisuus- ja viskoelastisuusteoaria

Laskuharjoitus 17 23.3.1992

① Tarkastellaan tasomuodonmuutostilaan ja oletetaan, että pääjännitystä σ_3 vastaava venymä on nolla. Johda myötöehdot

- a. Trescan mallille
- b. Misesin mallille
- c. Mohrin-Coulombin mallille.

Voidaan käyttää kimmoteorian mukaista yhteyttä $\epsilon_3 = (\sigma_3 - v \cdot (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)) / E = 0$ ja sijoittaa $\sigma_3 = v \cdot (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)$ yleiseen myötöehdoon?

② Ohutseinäistä ideaalikimmoista putkea vedetään, kunnes se myötää, siten sitä aletaan väentää kuitenkin niin, että aksiaalinen siirtymä pysyy vakiona. Määritä putken liukukulma γ_{xy} leikkausjännityksen τ_{xy} funktiona.

③ Laske paksuseinäiseen putkeen jääviä jäännösjännityksiä, kun sisäpuolinen paine p poistetaan. (jatkoa tehtävälle 3 /laskuharjoitus 15). Miten jäännösjännitykset suhtautuvat uudelleen kuormitettaessa?

Rak-54.125

7(2)
25

① Kimmoteorian yhteyttä $\epsilon_3 = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_3 - v(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)) = 0$ ei voi käytää. Tämä johtuu ristiriitaisesta tilanteestaan Trescan ja Mohr-Coulombin mallille, jos ei olisi tilanne $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_3 \geq \sigma_2$ tai $\sigma_1 \leq \sigma_3 \leq \sigma_2$. Tällöin yhteytä tasajännitystilaan. Jos σ_3 olisi suurin tai pienin pääjännityksessä murtotaso olisi viro $\sigma_1 - \sigma_2$ -pintaan vastaan. Tämä riikoo tason muodenmuutostilan oletusta vastaan.

Tasomuodenmuutostilassa otaksutaan kimmiset venymät häviävän pieniksi plastisän verrattuna (oiken keltua murtotilaan tarkasteltuessa).

$$\Rightarrow v \cdot \text{laan} \quad \text{otaksua kokoonpäristumahomius}$$

$$\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y = 0 \Rightarrow v = 0,5$$

$$\text{tällöin } \epsilon_3 = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_3 - v(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_3 = 0,5(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} & \sigma_1 \leq \sigma_3 \leq \sigma_2 \\ & \sigma_1 \geq \sigma_3 \geq \sigma_2 \end{aligned}$$

a) Tresca

$$B_m = |\sigma_1 - \sigma_2|$$

b) Mises

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]} = B_m$$

$$\text{sijoitetaan } \sigma_3 = 0,5(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)^2]} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)^2]} = B_m^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_2 - \sigma_1)^2]} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2} = B_m^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 = B_m^2$$

c) Mohr-Coulomb

$$m \sigma_1 - \sigma_2 = f_c, \quad \sigma_1 \geq \sigma_3 \geq \sigma_2$$

$$m \sigma_2 - \sigma_1 = f_c, \quad \sigma_1 \leq \sigma_3 \leq \sigma_2$$

$$m = \frac{f_c}{f_c}$$

plasticity

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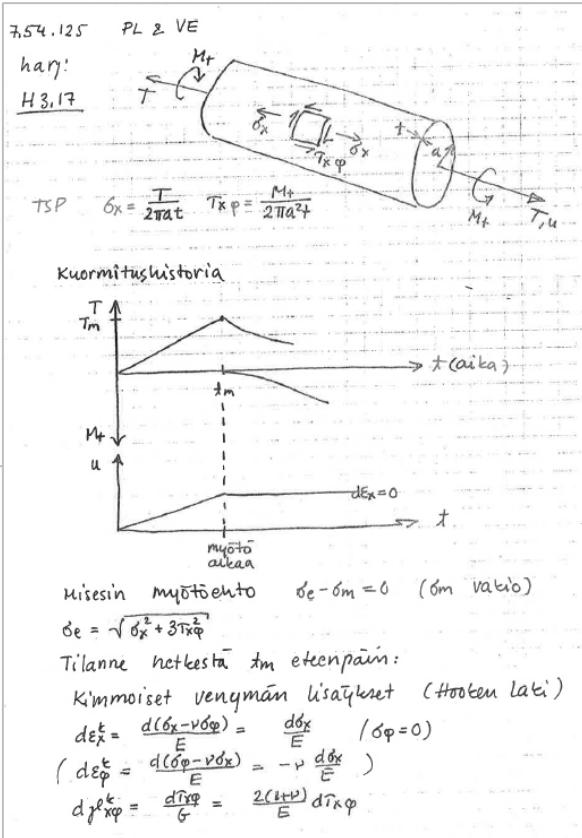
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Voidaanko käyttää kimmoteorian mukaista yhteyttä $\epsilon_3 = (\sigma_3 - v(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2))/E = 0$ ja sijoittaa $\sigma_3 = v(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)$ yleiseen myööhointoon?

② Ohutseinäistä ideaalikimmoista putkea vedetään, kunnes se myötää, siten sitä aletaan väentää kuitenkin niin, että aksialinen siirtymä pysyy vakiona.

Määritä putken liukukulma γ_{xy} leikkausjännityksen τ_{xy} funktiona.

③ Laske paksuseinäiseen putkeen jäävä jäännösjännityksiä, kun sisäpuolin paine p polstetaan. (jatko tehtävälle 3 /laskuharjoitus 15).
Miten jäännösjännitykset suhtautuvat uudelleen kuormitettessa?



7.54.125 PL & VE harj:

H3,17 jätteen

Plastiiset venymän lisäykset (Prandtl-Reussin yht.)

$d\epsilon_x^p = d\lambda \frac{3(\sigma_x - p)}{2\sigma_e} = d\lambda \frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_m} \quad \text{paine } p = \frac{1}{3}(\sigma_x + \sigma_y + \sigma_z)$

($d\epsilon_y^p = d\lambda \frac{3(\sigma_y - p)}{2\sigma_e} = -d\lambda \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_m}$) $= \frac{1}{3}\delta x,$

$d\gamma_{xy}^p = d\lambda \frac{3\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_e} = d\lambda \frac{3\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_m} \quad \text{myööhö jätkeen } \Rightarrow \sigma_e = \sigma_m$

yhdistettynä $d\epsilon_x = d\epsilon_x^k + d\epsilon_x^p$ jne.

Ehdosta $d\epsilon_x = d\epsilon_x^k + d\epsilon_y^p = 0$ seuraavat

$d\lambda = - \frac{d\sigma_x}{\sigma_x} \frac{\sigma_m}{E}$.

$d\tau_{xy} = d\gamma_{xy}^k + d\gamma_{xy}^p = \frac{2(1+v)}{E} d\tau_{xy} + d\lambda \frac{3\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_m}$

$= \frac{2(1+v)}{E} d\tau_{xy} - \frac{3\tau_{xy}}{E} \frac{d\sigma_x}{\sigma_x}$

Jännityksia sitoo myööhointo $\sigma_e = \sigma_m$ (vatio)

$\Rightarrow \sigma_e^2 = \sigma_x^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2 = \sigma_m^2 \quad (\text{vatio}) \Rightarrow \sigma_e^2 = \sigma_m^2 - 3\tau_{xy}^2$

Kok. differentiaali $d(\sigma_e^2) = 2\sigma_x d\sigma_x + 6\tau_{xy} d\tau_{xy} = 0$

$\Rightarrow d\sigma_x = -3 \frac{\tau_{xy} d\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x} \Rightarrow \frac{d\sigma_x}{\sigma_x} = 3 \frac{\tau_{xy} d\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_x^2 - 3\tau_{xy}^2}$

sij. $d\tau_{xy}$:n lausekkeeseen

$d\tau_{xy} = \frac{1}{E} \left\{ 2(1+v) - \frac{9\tau_{xy}^2}{3\tau_{xy} - \sigma_m} \right\} d\tau_{xy}$

integroidaan hetkestä t_m , jossa $\tau_{xy} = \tau_{xy0}$

$\Rightarrow \tau_{xy} = \int_0^{t_m} \frac{d\tau_{xy}}{d\tau_{xy0}} d\tau_{xy0} = \frac{1}{E} \left[(2v-1)\tau_{xy0} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \ln \frac{\sigma_m + \sqrt{3}\tau_{xy0}}{\sigma_m - \sqrt{3}\tau_{xy0}} \right]$

(Integrointi: $\int \frac{x^2}{ax^2+c} dx = \frac{x}{a} - \frac{c}{a} \int \frac{dx}{ax^2+c}$
ja $\int \frac{dx}{ax^2+c} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{ac}} \log \frac{|x\sqrt{a}-\sqrt{-c}|}{|x\sqrt{a}+\sqrt{-c}|}$ | kun $a>0, c<0$
kts. esim. Reihicäin)

plasticity

TÄYSIN KIMMOINEN



$$\begin{cases} \sigma_r = \frac{P a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \\ \sigma_\theta = \frac{P a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[1 + \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \\ \sigma_z = \frac{2 P a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \end{cases}$$

OSITTAIN PLASTISOITUMINEN

PLASTINEN OSO $a \leq r \leq c$

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_r = 3m \left[\ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \\ \sigma_\theta = 3m \left[1 + \ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \end{cases}$$

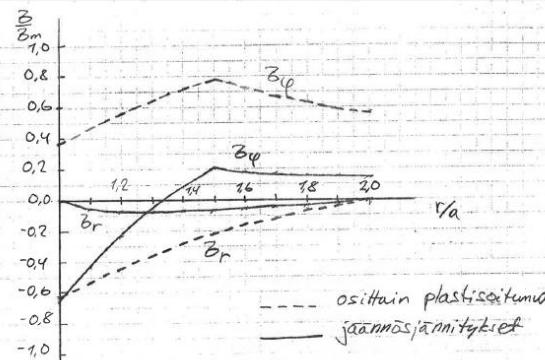
KIMMOINEN OSO $c \leq r \leq b$

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_r = \frac{3m}{2} \frac{c^2}{b^2 - c^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \\ \sigma_\theta = \frac{3m}{2} \frac{c^2}{b^2 - c^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \end{cases}$$

TÄYSIN KIMMOINEN, paineella P

$$\rho = -3m \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_r = -\frac{3ma^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \\ \sigma_\theta = -\frac{3ma^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \end{cases}$$



Asetetaan putken mitoiksi $b=2a$ $c=\frac{3}{2}a$

Osittain plastisoituneen ratkaisun jäännösjännitykset voidaan laskea

$a \leq r \leq c$

$$\sigma_r = 3m \left[\ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$\sigma_\theta = 3m \left[1 + \ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline r/a & \sigma_r/3m & \sigma_\theta/3m \\ \hline 1.0 & -0.674 & 0.376 \\ 1.1 & -0.523 & 0.477 \\ 1.2 & -0.442 & 0.558 \\ 1.3 & -0.362 & 0.628 \\ 1.4 & -0.288 & 0.712 \\ 1.5 & -0.215 & 0.781 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$c \leq r \leq b$

$$\sigma_r = 3m \left[\frac{a}{32} - \frac{9}{8} \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\sigma_\theta = 3m \left[\frac{a}{32} + \frac{9}{8} \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline r/a & \sigma_r/3m & \sigma_\theta/3m \\ \hline 1.5 & -0.213 & 0.781 \\ 1.6 & -0.158 & 0.721 \\ 1.7 & -0.108 & 0.671 \\ 1.8 & -0.066 & 0.628 \\ 1.9 & -0.030 & 0.553 \\ 2.0 & 0.000 & 0.563 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

JÄÄNNÖSJÄNNITYKSET ja jäännösjännitysten tarkastaminen
ja jäännösjännityksen määritys (yhtälöt 2 ja 3)
ja jäännösjännityksen määritys (yhtälö 4)

JÄÄNNÖSJÄNNITYSTEN TÄYTÄNNÖN MERITYS:

A practical application of shakedown in thick tubes is the "autofrettage" process, which has been used for many years in the manufacture of gun barrels. It is clearly desirable that the inner bore of the barrel should retain its dimensional accuracy on repeated pressurization due to firing. By subjecting the barrel to an overpressure before the final surface machining is done, a residual stress system is set up in the barrel which ensures that the bore never goes into the plastic range subsequently, under normal conditions.

Murtumis- ja väsymistäkastelut ovat osoittautuneet tarpeellisiksi monien onnettomuuksien syitä selvittäessä. Ensimmäinen suihkumootoriässä Comet otettiin käyttöön vuonna 1952 yli 300 tuntia kestäänne koelento-Ohjelman jälkeen. Neija päätti tarkastusten jälkeen kone syökseksi Välimereen. Tutkimukset paljastivat, että rungon ikkuna-akkojen kulma oli lähestytty liikkeelle väsymissäörjä. Runko oli paineistettu 18000 kertaa matkalentokorkeutta vastaavalla ylipaineella, jonka aiheuttama jäännitys oli 40 % käytetyn alumiiniseoksen murtolujudesta. Tätä kuormituskoetta ennen runko oli kuitenkin kuoritettu 30 kertaa 1.75...2.75 -kerrotaisella paineella. Tällainen ylikuormitus synnytti ilmeisesti kriittisiin kohtiin plastisten muodonmuutosten vuoksi niin suuren paristavan jäännösjännitystilan, että koerunko ei murtunut vaan antoi virheellisen kuvan rungon väsymiskestävyydestä todellisessa kuormitustilanteessa.

$a \leq r \leq c$

$$\sigma_r^j = 3m \left[\ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$= 3m \frac{a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\sigma_\theta^j = 3m \left[1 + \ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$= 3m \left[1 + \ln \frac{2r}{3a} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{9}{16} \right) \right] - 3m \frac{1}{3} \left[-\ln \frac{2r}{3a} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{9}{16} \right) \right] \left[1 + \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline r/a & \sigma_r^j/3m & \sigma_\theta^j/3m \\ \hline 1.0 & 0,000 & -0,665 \\ 1.1 & -0,043 & -0,925 \\ 1.2 & -0,072 & -0,228 \\ 1.3 & -0,077 & -0,062 \\ 1.4 & -0,071 & +0,080 \\ 1.5 & -0,057 & +0,203 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$c \leq r \leq b$

$$\sigma_r^j = \frac{3m}{2} \frac{c^2}{b^2 - c^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \frac{a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \frac{a^2}{4a^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{2a}{3a} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{9}{16} \right) \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \left[0,073 - 0,293 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\sigma_\theta^j = \frac{3m}{2} \frac{c^2}{b^2 - c^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \frac{a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \frac{a}{94 - \frac{7}{16}} \left[1 + \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \frac{1}{3} \left[-\ln \frac{2r}{3a} + \frac{7}{32} \right] \left[1 + \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

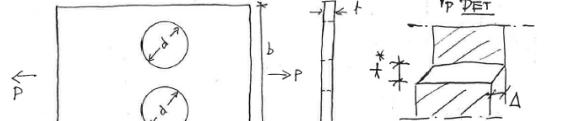
$$= 3m \left[0,073 + 0,293 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline r/a & \sigma_r^j/3m & \sigma_\theta^j/3m \\ \hline 1.5 & -0,057 & 0,203 \\ 1.6 & -0,041 & 0,188 \\ 1.7 & -0,028 & 0,174 \\ 1.8 & -0,017 & 0,164 \\ 1.9 & -0,008 & 0,154 \\ 2.0 & 0,000 & 0,146 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

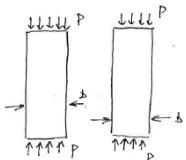
① Tarkastellaan vedettäv levyä, jossa on pyöreä reikä. Johda vetävälle rajakuormalle P staattisella menetelmällä alaraja ja kinemaattisella menetelmällä yläraja. Oletetaan aineen noudattavan Trescan myötöehdoa. Tarkastele sekä tasojännitystila (ohut levy) että tasomuodonmuutostilaa. Miten reiän muoto vaikuttaa ratkaisuun?



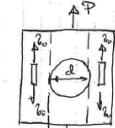
② Suorita tehtävän 1 tarkastelu kahden reiän tapauksessa.



③ Johda kinemaattisella menetelmällä yläraja puristetulle betonisärmöille. Betonin otaksutaan noudattavan Mohrin-Coulombin myötöehdoa.



① TJK (TASOJÄNNITYSTILA) & TRESCA



Alaraja

Oletetaan kuoriin mukainen, jonne tasokkuus on ollut tällaisen tasopainochalan

$$\Rightarrow P = \sigma_0(b-d)t$$

Yläraja

Oletetaan kuoriin mukainen liukumal levyjen välillä.

Jos oletetaan liukupinnan muodostuvan DEI mukaisen δ -paljaisesta kurrekeskusta. Kurrekeskessä tapahtuu liukuminen

$$\delta = \frac{A}{t}$$

Sisäissä δ -kehä puristuvan kosti saadaan

$$w_s = \sigma_0 \delta t = \sigma_0 t$$

Sisässä δ -kehä hukkumalla on

$$W_s = \sigma_0 A(b-d)t$$

Ulkoinen tulo on

$$W_u = P \sin \alpha$$

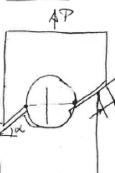
$$W_s = W_u \Rightarrow P^u = \frac{\sigma_0(b-d)t}{\sin \alpha} = \frac{2\sigma_0(b-d)t}{\sin 2\alpha}$$

$$P_{min}^u = 2\sigma_0(b-d)t = \underline{\underline{\sigma_0(b-d)t}} \quad (\text{TRESCA})$$

b) TJK & TRESCA

ALARAJA
Sama kuin TJK:ssäkin $P^L = \sigma_0(b-d)t$

YÄRÄJÄ



Oletetaan kuoriin mukainen liukupinta. liukupintojen pituisia sää minimaan kuin liukupinta lähempänä yläpinnan ja sen korkeudien välissä.

$$\Rightarrow W_s = \sigma_0 \frac{(b-d)t}{\cos \alpha}$$

Ulkoinen tulo

$$W_u = P \sin \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow P^u = \frac{\sigma_0(b-d)t \sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha \sin \alpha}$$

$$P^u = \frac{2\sigma_0(b-d)t}{\sin 2\alpha} \therefore \underline{\underline{\sigma_0(b-d)t}} = 2\sigma_0 (Tresca)$$

$$P_{min}^u = \frac{2\sigma_0(b-d)t}{\sin 2\alpha} = \underline{\underline{\sigma_0(b-d)t}}$$

$\alpha = 45^\circ$

Hajotus - 1/0/18

34

① CHEN & HAN S. 486 P 8.1

P

$$P^L = \sigma_0 A'$$

$$P^u \frac{\delta}{\sin \alpha} = k \frac{A'}{\cos \alpha} \frac{\delta}{\sin \alpha}$$

$$\Rightarrow \min_{\alpha} P^u = \min_{\alpha} \frac{2kA'}{\sin 2\alpha} = 2kA' = \sigma_0 A'$$

$$P^c = P^L = P^u = \sigma_0 A' \quad \square$$

P

A'

25.3.1992

25

② CHEN & HAN S. 487 P 8.2

(a) TJK & TRESCA

P

$$P^L = \sigma_0 t(b-2d)$$

t

d

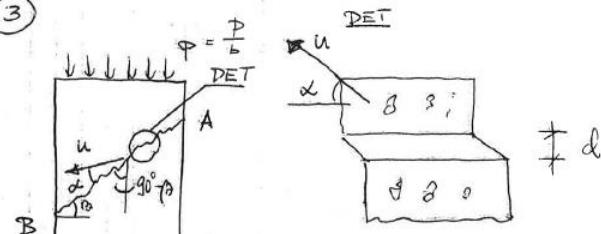
δ

α

δ

α </

(3)



u alennan osan liukupintaan nähden, kyt sekä venymis ettei liukumaa.

$$\epsilon = u \sin \alpha / b \Rightarrow \frac{\epsilon}{b} = \tan \alpha \quad (1)$$

Materiaali: noudattaa Mohrin-Coulombin myötähtea

$$\sigma = \sigma' + \epsilon \tan \phi - k = 0 \quad (2)$$

Myötähteen mukaan plastiset muodonmuutostilajukset tapahtuvat lehdissä myötäpinnan vastaan ts.

$$d\epsilon_{ij} = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_{ij}} \Rightarrow d\epsilon_p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = \tan \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\epsilon_p}{d\sigma_p} = \tan \phi \quad (2)$$

Vertamalla lehtoja (1) ja (2) havaitaan, että $\alpha = \phi$

$$\Rightarrow b = \frac{k - \sigma'}{\tan \phi}$$

Sisäinen työliukupinnalla:

$$W_s = \frac{b}{\cos \beta} (\sigma' \gamma + \sigma \epsilon) \Delta$$

$$= \frac{b}{\cos \beta} \left(\sigma' \frac{w \cos \phi}{b} + \frac{(k - \sigma') w \sin \phi}{\tan \phi} \right) \Delta =$$

$$= \frac{b}{\cos \beta} (\sigma' \cos \phi + (k - \sigma') \cos \phi) w = \frac{bk \cos \phi \times w}{\cos \beta}$$

$$W_u = P \cos(90^\circ - \beta + \phi) - P u \sin(\beta - \phi)$$

$$W_{sis} = W_{uu} \Rightarrow b w k \frac{\cos \phi}{\cos \beta} = P u \sin(\beta - \phi) \quad (3)$$

$$\Rightarrow k = \frac{P \sin(\beta - \phi)}{b \cos \phi} \cos \beta$$

$$\frac{dk}{d\sigma_p} = \frac{P}{b \cos \phi} \left\{ \cos(\beta - \phi) \cos \beta - \sin \beta \sin(\beta - \phi) \right\} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{P}{b \cos \phi} \cos(\beta - \phi + \beta) = 0 \Rightarrow \cos(2\beta - \phi) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 2\beta - \phi = \frac{\pi}{2} \Rightarrow \beta = \frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\phi}{2} \quad (4)$$

$$(3) \Rightarrow P = \frac{P}{b} = \frac{k \cos \phi}{\sin(\beta - \phi) \cos \beta} \quad \text{si} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{si} \quad \sin(\beta - \phi) \cos \beta = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\phi}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\phi}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \sin \phi)$$

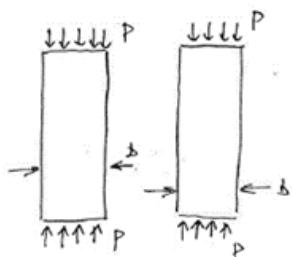
$$\Rightarrow (3) \Rightarrow P = \frac{2k \cos \phi}{1 - \sin \phi} = 2k \tan\left\{\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\phi}{2}\right\}$$

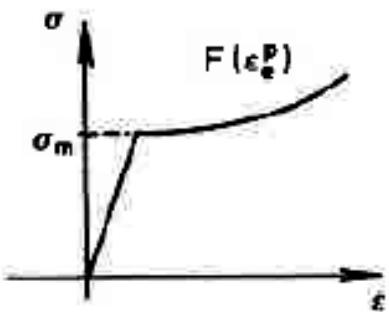
Siinä voidaan lopettaa menemisille



③ Johda kinemaattisella menetelmällä yläraja puristetulle betonisärmölle.

Betonin otaksutaan noudattavan Mohrin-Coulombin myötähtea.





H3.20

H3.20 Vedetyn sauvan materiaali on isotrooppisesti myötölujeneva ja noudattaa Misesin myötöehtoa $f = \sigma_e - F(\epsilon_e^P)$, missä

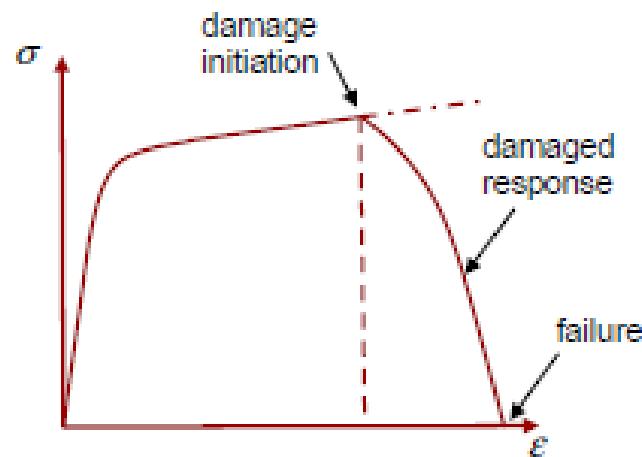
$$\text{a)} \quad F(\epsilon_e^P) = \begin{cases} \sigma_m + k\sqrt{\epsilon_e^P}, & d\epsilon_e^P > 0 \\ \sigma_m, & \text{muulloin} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{b)} \quad F(\epsilon_e^P) = \begin{cases} \sigma_m + k(\epsilon_e^P)^{2/3}, & d\epsilon_e^P > 0 \\ \sigma_m, & \text{muulloin} \end{cases}$$

Määritä sauvan jännitys-muodonmuutosriippuvuuus. Kimmoiset muodonmuutokset otaksutaan merkityksettömän pieniksi.

Additional material

Ei jakeluun



Typical material response showing progressive damage

Muodostumustos jätetään kinumaisen ja plastiseen
osaan.

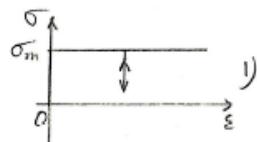
$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p$$

(1)

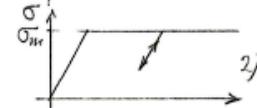
Kinumaisen osa on palauttuva; plastisen osa on palauttamaton eli irreverreibeli; ajasta riippuvaton, sille tääntää ns. dislokaatioteorian avulla (ks. Hult: Hållfasthetslära s. 209)

Käytettävijä idealeisointeja

1) Jäykkiä ideaaliplastinen



2) Kinumainen ideaaliplastinen



3) Jäykkiä myötöläjeneva

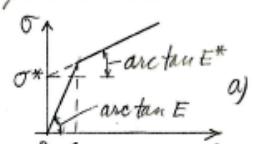


4) Kinumainen myötöläjeneva

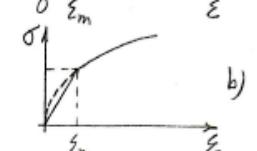


Analytisia lauseleita myötöläjeneville
malleille:

$$a) \sigma = \begin{cases} E\varepsilon, & -\varepsilon_m \leq \varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_m \\ \sigma^* \operatorname{sgn}\varepsilon + E^* \varepsilon, & |\varepsilon| \geq \varepsilon_m \end{cases}$$



$$b) \sigma = \begin{cases} E\varepsilon, & |\varepsilon| \leq \varepsilon_m \\ A|\varepsilon|^k \operatorname{sgn}\varepsilon, & (0 \leq k \leq 1), |\varepsilon| \geq \varepsilon_m \end{cases}$$



PT 1.2

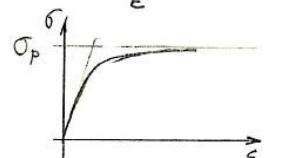
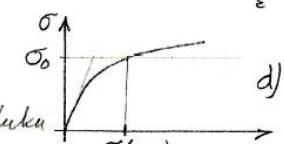
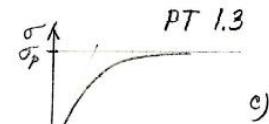
$$c) \sigma = \sigma_p \tanh \frac{E\varepsilon}{\sigma_p}, \quad \forall \varepsilon$$

$$d) \varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} \left[1 + \alpha / \sigma_0 / \beta^{-1} \right]$$

Ramberg - Osgood ; $\alpha=3/7$, n kokon. luku

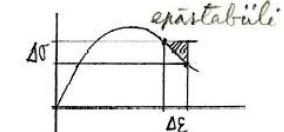
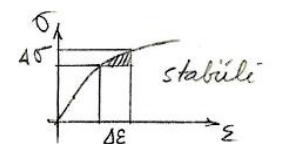
$$e) \varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} \frac{1 - c/\sigma_p^n}{1 - 1/\sigma_p^n}$$

Ylinen: $0 \leq c < 1$, n kokon. luku



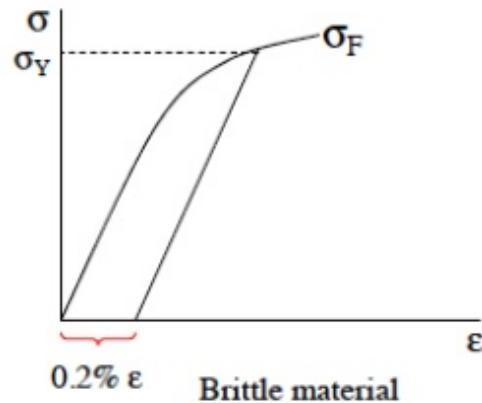
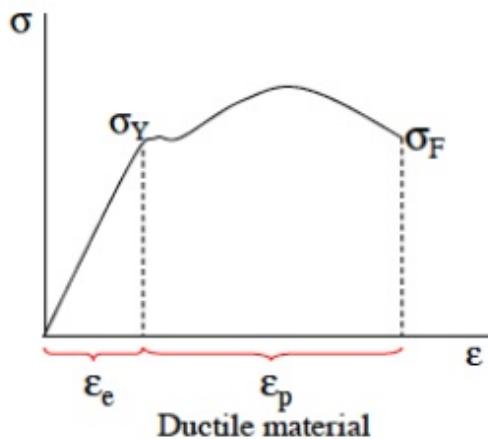
Stabili - epästabili

Ainetta sanotaan stabiliiksi
tietynä pisteessä, jos
 $\Delta \sigma \Delta \varepsilon > 0$
muutoin epästabiliiksi.





Ductile vs. Brittle Material



- ✓ **Ductile material** : Well defined yield point- Failure on yielding.
- ✓ **Brittle material** : No yield point & sudden failure – Failure on failure load.

Joitakin esim. tehtäviä – plasticity

- Tresca
- Von Mises
- Mohr-Coulomb

plasticity

Rak-54.125 Plastisuus- ja viskoelastisuusteoaria

Laskuharjoitus 17 23.3.1992

① Tarkastellaan tasomuodonmuutostilaan ja oletetaan, että pääjännitystä σ_3 vastaava venymä on nolla. Johda myötöehdot

- a. Trescan mallille
- b. Misesin mallille
- c. Mohrin-Coulombin mallille.

Voidaan käyttää kimmoteorian mukaista yhteyttä $\epsilon_3 = (\sigma_3 - v \cdot (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)) / E = 0$ ja sijoittaa $\sigma_3 = v \cdot (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)$ yleiseen myötöehdoon?

② Ohutseinäistä ideaalikimmoista putkea vedetään, kunnes se myötää, siten sitä aletaan väentää kuitenkin niin, että aksiaalinen siirtymä pysyy vakiona. Määritä putken liukukulma γ_{xy} leikkausjännityksen τ_{xy} funktiona.

③ Laske paksuseinäiseen putkeen jääviä jäännösjännityksiä, kun sisäpuolinen paine p poistetaan. (jatkoa tehtävälle 3 /laskuharjoitus 15). Miten jäännösjännitykset suhtautuvat uudelleen kuormitettaessa?

Rak-54.125

7(2)
25

① Kimmoteorian yhteyttä $\epsilon_3 = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_3 - v(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)) = 0$ ei voi tulla. Tämä johtuu ristiriitaisesta tilanteesta Trescan ja Mohr-Coulombin mallille, jos ei olisi tilanne $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_3 \geq \sigma_2$ tai $\sigma_1 \leq \sigma_3 \leq \sigma_2$. Tällöin yhteytä tasajännitystilaan. Jos σ_3 olisi suurin tai pienin pääjännityksessä murtotaso olisi viro $\sigma_1 - \sigma_2$ -pintaan vastaan. Tämä riikoo tasomuodonmuutostilan oletusta vastaan.

Tasomuodonmuutostilassa otaksutaan kimmiset venymät häviävän pieniksi plastisän verrattuna (oiken keltaa murtotilaan tarkasteltuessa).

$$\Rightarrow v \cdot \text{laan} \quad \text{otaksua kokoonpäristumahomius}$$

$$\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y = 0 \Rightarrow v = 0,5$$

$$\text{tällöin } \epsilon_3 = \frac{1}{E}(\sigma_3 - v(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_3 = 0,5(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_1 \leq \sigma_3 \leq \sigma_2$$

$$\text{tai} \\ \sigma_1 \geq \sigma_3 \geq \sigma_2$$

a) Tresca

$$B_m = |\sigma_1 - \sigma_2|$$

b) Mises

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]} = B_m$$

$$\text{sijoitetaan } \sigma_3 = 0,5(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_1)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)^2]} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)^2]} = B_m^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}[(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2]} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2} = B_m^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 = B_m^2$$

c) Mohr-Coulomb

$$m \sigma_1 - \sigma_2 = f_c, \quad \sigma_1 \geq \sigma_3 \geq \sigma_2$$

$$m \sigma_2 - \sigma_1 = f_c, \quad \sigma_1 \leq \sigma_3 \leq \sigma_2$$

$$m = \frac{f_c}{f_c}$$

plasticity

Rak-54.125 Plastisuus- ja viskoelastisuusteoria
Laskuharjoitus 17 23.3.1992

① Tarkastellaan tasomuodonmuutostila ja oletetaan, että pääjännitystä σ_3 vastaava venymä on nolla. Johd myötöehdot

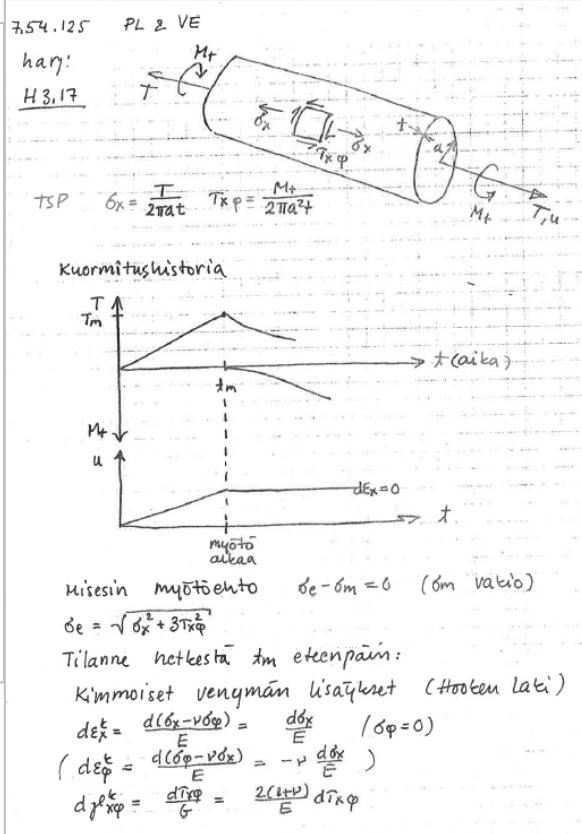
- a. Tresca mallille
- b. Misesin mallille
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Voiako käyttää kimmoteorian mukaista yhteyttä $\epsilon_3 = (\sigma_3 - v(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2))/E = 0$ ja sijoittaa $\sigma_3 = v(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)$ yleiseen myötöehdoon?

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7.54.125 PL & VE harj:

H3,17 jätteen Plastiiset venymän lisäykset (Prandtl-Reussin yht.)

$$d\epsilon_x^p = d\lambda \frac{3(\sigma_x - p)}{2\sigma_e} = d\lambda \frac{\delta x}{\delta m} \quad \text{paine } p = \frac{1}{3}(\sigma_x + \sigma_y + \sigma_z)$$

$$(d\epsilon_y^p = d\lambda \frac{3(\sigma_y - p)}{2\sigma_e} = -d\lambda \frac{\delta x}{\delta m}) = \frac{1}{3}\delta x,$$

$$d\epsilon_{xy}^p = d\lambda \frac{3\tau_{xy}}{\sigma_e} = d\lambda \frac{3\tau_{xy}}{\delta m} \quad \text{myötö jätkeen } \Rightarrow \sigma_e = \delta m$$

yhdistettynä $d\epsilon_x = d\epsilon_x^k + d\epsilon_x^p$ jne.

Ehdosta $d\epsilon_x = d\epsilon_x^k + d\epsilon_y^p = 0$ seuraavat

$$d\lambda = - \frac{d\sigma_x}{\delta x} \frac{\delta m}{\delta m}.$$

$$d\epsilon_{xy}^p = d\epsilon_{xy}^k + d\epsilon_{xy}^p = \frac{2(1+v)}{E} d\tau_{xy} + d\lambda \frac{3\tau_{xy}}{\delta m}$$

$$= \frac{2(1+v)}{E} d\tau_{xy} - \frac{3\tau_{xy}}{E} \frac{d\sigma_x}{\delta x}$$

Jännityksia sitoo myötöehdot $\sigma_e = \delta m$ (vakiо)

$$\Rightarrow \delta e^2 = \delta x^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2 = \delta m^2 \quad (\text{vakiо}) \Rightarrow \delta x^2 = \delta m^2 - 3\tau_{xy}^2$$

$$\text{kok. differentiaali } d(\delta x^2) = 2\delta x d\delta x + 6\tau_{xy} d\tau_{xy} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow d\delta x = -3 \frac{\tau_{xy} d\tau_{xy}}{\delta x} \Rightarrow \frac{d\delta x}{\delta x} = 3 \frac{\tau_{xy} d\tau_{xy}}{3\tau_{xy}^2 - \delta m^2}$$

sij. $d\tau_{xy}$:n lausekkeeseen

$$d\tau_{xy} = \frac{1}{E} \left\{ 2(1+v) - \frac{9}{3\tau_{xy} - \delta m} \right\} d\tau_{xy}$$

integroidaan hetkestä t_m , jossa $\tau_{xy} = \tau_{xy} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \tau_{xy} = \int_0^{t_m} \frac{d\tau_{xy}}{d\tau_{xy}} dt_{xy} = \frac{1}{E} \left[(2v-1) \tau_{xy} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \ln \frac{\delta m + \sqrt{3}\tau_{xy}}{\delta m - \sqrt{3}\tau_{xy}} \right]$$

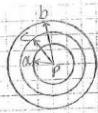
(integointi: $\int \frac{x^2}{ax^2+c} dx = \frac{x}{a} - \frac{c}{a} \int \frac{dx}{ax^2+c}$

$$\text{ja } \int \frac{dx}{ax^2+c} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{ac}} \log \frac{|x\sqrt{a}-\sqrt{-c}|}{|x\sqrt{a}+\sqrt{-c}|} \quad \text{kun } a>0, c<0$$

kts. esim. Reinh'einen)

plasticity

TÄYSIN KIMMOINEN



$$\begin{cases} \sigma_r = \frac{P a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \\ \sigma_\theta = \frac{P a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[1 + \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \\ \sigma_z = \frac{2 P a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \end{cases}$$

OSITTAIN PLASTISOITUMINEN

PLASTINEN OSOJA $a \leq r \leq c$

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_r = 3m \left[\ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \\ \sigma_\theta = 3m \left[1 + \ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \end{cases}$$

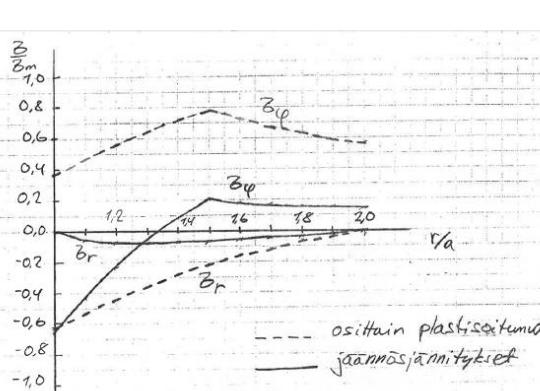
KIMMOINEN OSOJA $c \leq r \leq b$

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_r = \frac{3m}{2} \frac{c^2}{b^2 - c^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \\ \sigma_\theta = \frac{3m}{2} \frac{c^2}{b^2 - c^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \end{cases}$$

TÄYSIN KIMMOINEN, paineella P

$$\rho = -3m \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_r = -\frac{3ma^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \\ \sigma_\theta = -\frac{3ma^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right] \end{cases}$$



Asetetaan putken mitoiksi $b=2a$ $c=\frac{3}{2}a$

Osittain plastisoituneen ratkaisun jäännösjäykset voidaan laskea

$a \leq r \leq c$

$$\sigma_r = 3m \left[\ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$\sigma_\theta = 3m \left[1 + \ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

r/a	$\sigma_r/3m$	$\sigma_\theta/3m$
1.0	-0.674	0.376
1.1	-0.523	0.477
1.2	-0.442	0.558
1.3	-0.362	0.628
1.4	-0.288	0.712
1.5	-0.215	0.781

r/a	$\sigma_r/3m$	$\sigma_\theta/3m$
1.0	-0.674	0.376
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1.2	-0.442	0.558
1.3	-0.362	0.628
1.4	-0.288	0.712
1.5	-0.215	0.781

$c \leq r \leq b$

$$\sigma_r = 3m \left[\frac{a}{32} - \frac{9}{8} \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\sigma_\theta = 3m \left[\frac{a}{32} + \frac{9}{8} \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

r/a	$\sigma_r/3m$	$\sigma_\theta/3m$
1.5	-0.215	0.781
1.6	-0.158	0.721
1.7	-0.108	0.671
1.8	-0.066	0.628
1.9	-0.030	0.553
2.0	0.000	0.563

r/a	$\sigma_r/3m$	$\sigma_\theta/3m$
1.5	-0.215	0.781
1.6	-0.158	0.721
1.7	-0.108	0.671
1.8	-0.066	0.628
1.9	-0.030	0.553
2.0	0.000	0.563

JÄÄHNOSJÄRMITYKSET jaadaan vähentämällä
plastisoituneen tilan jäähnosjärmitöistä (yleistöt 2 ja 3)
taavan negatiivisen kuvan ja kuituna
jaarinen jäähnosjäyksilä (yleistöt 4)

JÄÄHNOSJÄRMITYSTEN TÄYTÄNNÖN MERITYS:

A practical application of shakedown in thick tubes is the "autofrettage" process, which has been used for many years in the manufacture of gun barrels. It is clearly desirable that the inner bore of the barrel should retain its dimensional accuracy on repeated pressurization due to firing. By subjecting the barrel to an overpressure before the final surface machining is done, a residual stress system is set up in the barrel which ensures that the bore never goes into the plastic range subsequently, under normal conditions.

Murtumis- ja väsymistarkastelut ovat osoittautuneet tarpeellisiksi monien onnettomuuksien syitä selvittäässä. Ensimmäinen suihkumootoriikäytöön matkustajakone Comet otettiin käyttöön vuonna 1952 yli 300 tuntia kestäänne koelento-Ohjelman jälkeen. Neija päivän tarkastusten jälkeen kone syöksyi Välimereen. Tutkimukset paljastivat, että rungon ikkuna-aukkojen kulma oli lähtenyt liikkeelle väsymissärköjä. Runko oli paineistettu 18000 kertaa matkalentokorkeutta vastaavalla ylipaineella, jonka aiheuttama jäähnosy oli 40 % käytetyn alumiiniseoksen murtolujudesta. Tätä kuormituskoetta ennen runko oli kuitenkin kuoritettu 30 kertaa 1.75...2.75 -kerroksella paineella. Tällainen ylikuormitus synnytti ilmeisesti kriittisiin kohtiin plastisten muodonmuutosten vuoksi niin suuren paristavan jäähnosjäähnosjäyksilän, ettei koerunko ei murtunut vaan antoi virheellisen kuvan rungon väsymiskestävyydestä todellisessa kuormitustilanteessa.

$a \leq r \leq c$

$$\sigma_r^j = 3m \left[\ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$= 3m \left[\frac{\ln \frac{2r}{3a}}{b^2 - a^2} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{b}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \left[-0.927 + \ln \frac{2r}{3a} + 0.832 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\sigma_\theta^j = 3m \left[1 + \ln \frac{r}{c} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] -$$

$$3m \frac{a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{b}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \left[1 + \ln \frac{2r}{3a} - \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right) \right] -$$

$$3m \frac{1}{3} \left[-\ln \frac{2r}{3a} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 + 4 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \left[0.573 + \ln \frac{2r}{3a} - 0.832 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

r/a	$\sigma_r^j/3m$	$\sigma_\theta^j/3m$
1.0	0.000	-0.665
1.1	-0.043	-0.525
1.2	-0.072	-0.228
1.3	-0.077	-0.062
1.4	-0.071	+0.060
1.5	-0.057	+0.203

$c \leq r \leq b$

$$\sigma_r^j = \frac{3m}{2} \frac{c^2}{b^2 - c^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{b} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$3m \frac{a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{b}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= \frac{3m}{2} \frac{3a^2}{b^2 - \frac{9}{4}a^2} \left[1 - \frac{9}{76} \right] \left[1 - 4 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \left[0.073 - 0.293 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\sigma_\theta^j = \frac{3m}{2} \frac{c^2}{b^2 - c^2} \left[1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{b}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$3m \frac{a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \left[-\ln \frac{a}{c} + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \left(\frac{c}{b} \right)^2 \right) \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{b}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

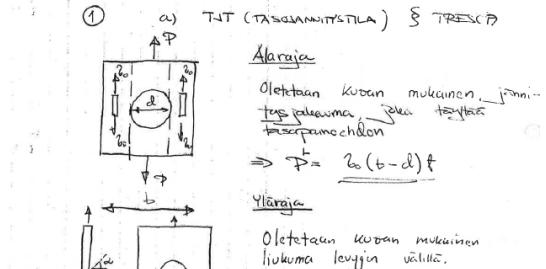
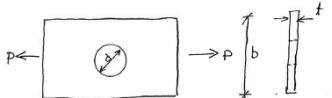
$$= 3m \frac{a}{74 - \frac{7}{32}} \left[1 + 4 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right] -$$

$$3m \frac{1}{3} \left[-\ln \frac{2r}{3} + \frac{7}{32} \right] \left[1 + 4 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 3m \left[0.073 + 0.293 \left(\frac{a}{r} \right)^2 \right]$$

r/a	$\sigma_r^j/3m$	$\sigma_\theta^j/3m$
1.5	-0.057	0.203
1.6	-0.041	0.188
1.7	-0.028	0.174
1.8	-0.017	0.164
1.9	-0.008	0.154
2.0	0.000	0.146

① Tarkastellaan vedettäv levyä, jossa on pyöreä reikä. Johda vetävälle rajakuormalle P staattisella menetelmällä alaraja ja kinemaattisella menetelmällä yläraja. Oletetaan aineen noudattavan Trescan myötöehdoa. Tarkastele sekä tasojännitystila (ohut levy) että tasomuodonmuutostila. Miten reiän muoto vaikuttaa ratkaisuun?



Alaraja

Oletetaan kuvan mukainen, jonnekin vakiemman jalan tekijän tasonmuodostelma

$$\Rightarrow P = \sigma_0(b-d)t$$

Yläraja

Oletetaan kuvan mukainen liukumal levyjen välillä.

Jos oletetaan liukupinnan muodostuvan DET mukaisen δ -paljaisesta kurrekeskusta. Kurrekesken tapauksissa liukuminen on

$$\delta = \frac{A}{t} \quad \text{sisäissuuntaan ja ulosvaan kosti saadaan}$$

$$w_s = \sigma_0 t \quad \delta^* = \sigma_0 t$$

Sisäissuuntaan ja ulosvaan kosti saadaan

$$w_u = \sigma_0 t \sin \alpha$$

$$W_s = W_u \Rightarrow P^u = \frac{\sigma_0(b-d)t}{\sin \alpha} = \frac{2\sigma_0(b-d)t}{\sin 2\alpha}$$

$$P_{min}^u = 2\sigma_0(b-d)t = \underline{\underline{\sigma_0(b-d)t}} \quad (\text{TRESCA})$$

b) TJT & TRESCA

ALARAJA Sama kuin TJT:ssäkin $P^L = \sigma_0(b-d)t$

YÄRÄJÄ

Oletetaan kuvan mukainen liukupinta. liukupintojen pituisaa minimaan kunn liukupinta lähettää ympyrän joka on koskivinaan liukupinnasta.

$$\Rightarrow w_s = \sigma_0 \frac{(b-d)t}{\cos \alpha}$$

Ulkoinen δ :

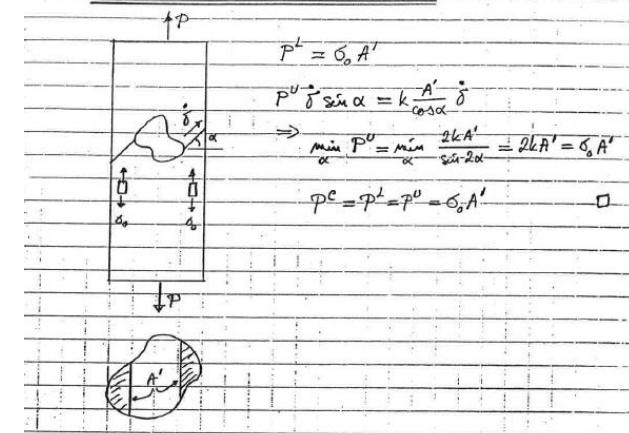
$$w_u = P \sin \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow P^u = \frac{\sigma_0(b-d)t \sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha \sin \alpha}$$

$$P^u = \frac{2\sigma_0(b-d)t}{\sin 2\alpha} \quad \therefore \sigma_0 = 2\sigma_0 \quad (\text{TRESCA})$$

$$P_{min}^u = \frac{2\sigma_0(b-d)t}{\sin 2\alpha} = \underline{\underline{\sigma_0(b-d)t}}$$

② CHEN & HAN S. 486 P 8.1

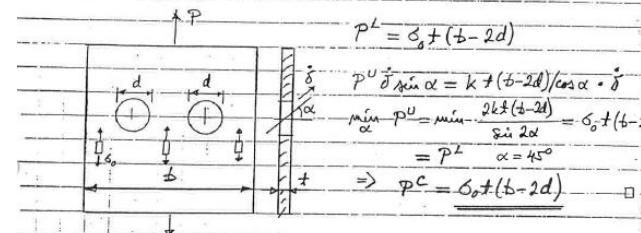


25.3.1992

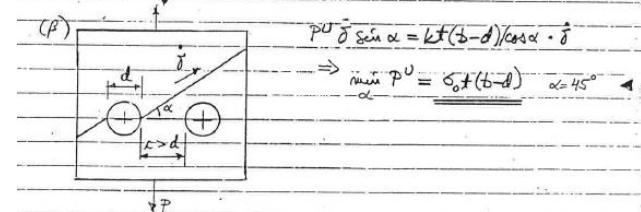
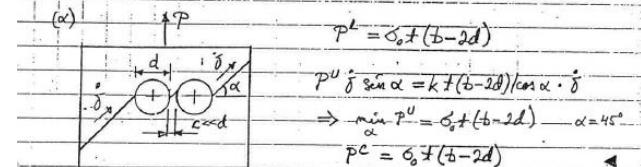
25

② CHEN & HAN S. 487 P 8.2

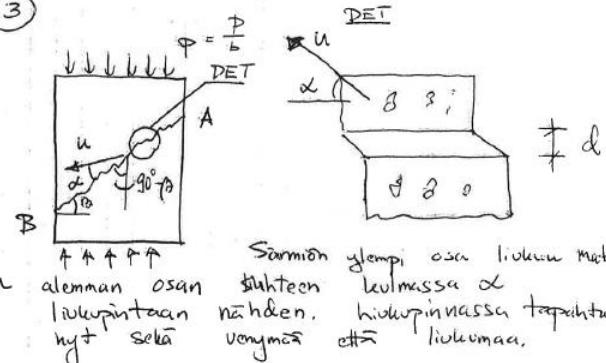
(a) TJK & TRESCA



(b) THTK & TRESCA



(3)



$$\varepsilon = u \sin \alpha / b \Rightarrow \frac{\varepsilon}{b} = \tan \alpha \quad (1)$$

$$\gamma = u \cos \alpha / b$$

Materiaali: noudattaa Mohrin-Coulombin myötähtea

$$\gamma = \sigma + \gamma' \tan \varphi - c = 0 \quad (2)$$

Myötähteen mukaan plastiset muodonmuutostilajukset tapahtuvat lehdissä myötäpintan vastaan ts.

$$d\varepsilon_{ij}^p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial z_{ij}} \Rightarrow d\varepsilon_p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = \tan \varphi$$

$$d\gamma_p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \gamma} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\varepsilon_p}{d\gamma_p} = \tan \varphi \quad (2)$$

Vertamalla lehtoja (1) ja (2) havaitaan, että $\alpha = \varphi$

$$\Rightarrow b = \frac{k-5}{\tan \varphi}$$

Sisäinen työliukupinnalla:

$$W_s = \frac{b}{\cos \beta} (\sigma \gamma + 2 \varepsilon) \Delta$$

$$= \frac{b}{\cos \beta} (\sigma \frac{u \cos \alpha}{b} + \frac{(k-5)}{\tan \varphi} u \sin \alpha) \Delta =$$

$$= \frac{b}{\cos \beta} (\sigma \cos \alpha + (k-5) \cos \varphi) u = \frac{bk \cos \varphi \times u}{\cos \beta}$$

$$W_u = P \cos(90^\circ - \beta + \varphi) - P u \sin(\beta - \varphi)$$

$$W_{sis} = W_{uu} \Rightarrow bu \frac{k \cos \varphi}{\cos \beta} = P u \sin(\beta - \varphi) \quad (3)$$

$$\Rightarrow k = \frac{P \sin(\beta - \varphi)}{b \cos \varphi} \cos \beta$$

$$\frac{dk}{d\gamma_p} = \frac{P}{b \cos \varphi} \left\{ \cos(\beta - \varphi) \cos \beta - \sin \beta \sin(\beta - \varphi) \right\} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{P}{b \cos \varphi} \cos(\beta - \varphi + \beta) = 0 \Rightarrow \cos(2\beta - \varphi) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 2\beta - \varphi = \frac{\pi}{2} \Rightarrow \beta = \frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\varphi}{2} \quad (4)$$

$$(3) \Rightarrow P = \frac{P}{b} = \frac{k \cos \varphi}{\sin(\beta - \varphi) \cos \beta} \quad \text{si} \quad (4)$$

$$\sin(\beta - \varphi) \cos \beta = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\varphi}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\varphi}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \sin \varphi)$$

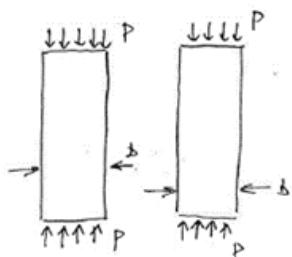
$$\Rightarrow (3) \Rightarrow P = \frac{2k \cos \varphi}{1 - \sin \varphi} = 2k \tan\left\{\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\varphi}{2}\right\}$$

Sama voidaan lopettaa mielellämme



③ Johda kinemaattisella menetelmällä yläraja puristetulle betonisärmölle.

Betonin otaksutaan noudattavan Mohrin-Coulombin myötähtoa.



Plasticity - thanks n to prof. Woitek

- yield surface (yield locus)
 - why , how it is defined, what it defines
- plastic potential surface and flow rule
 - plastic potential surface (why we need it, what it defines)
 - what is flow rule, why we need it, differences between associated and non-associated flow rule
- hardening rule,
 - what is it, why we use it
- consistency conditions
 - why we need it, what we use it for
- elasto-plastic tangent matrix (what it is, why we need it)

Example

- Pure shear stress τ to yield

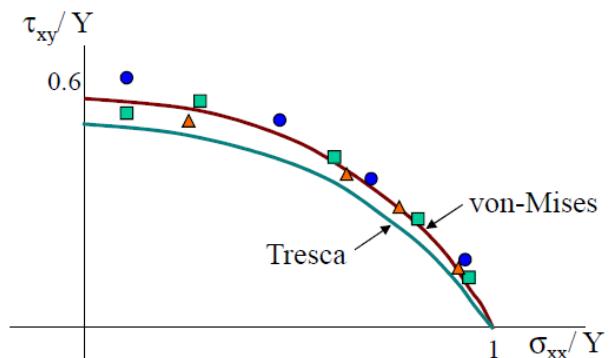
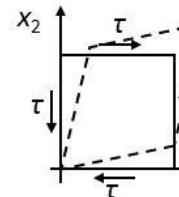
$$\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \tau & 0 \\ \tau & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = s$$

$$\|s\| = \sqrt{s : s} = \sqrt{\tau^2 + \tau^2} = \tau\sqrt{2}$$

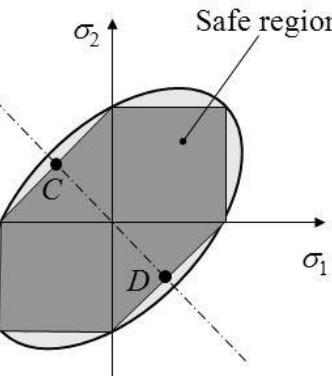
- Yield surface:

$$\sqrt{2}\tau = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\sigma_y \Rightarrow \tau = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\sigma_y$$

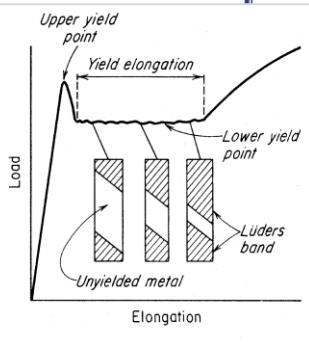
- Failure in max. shear stress theory
Safe in distortion energy theory
- Von Mises is more accurate, but
Tresca is more conservative



- Aluminium
- Mild steel
- Copper



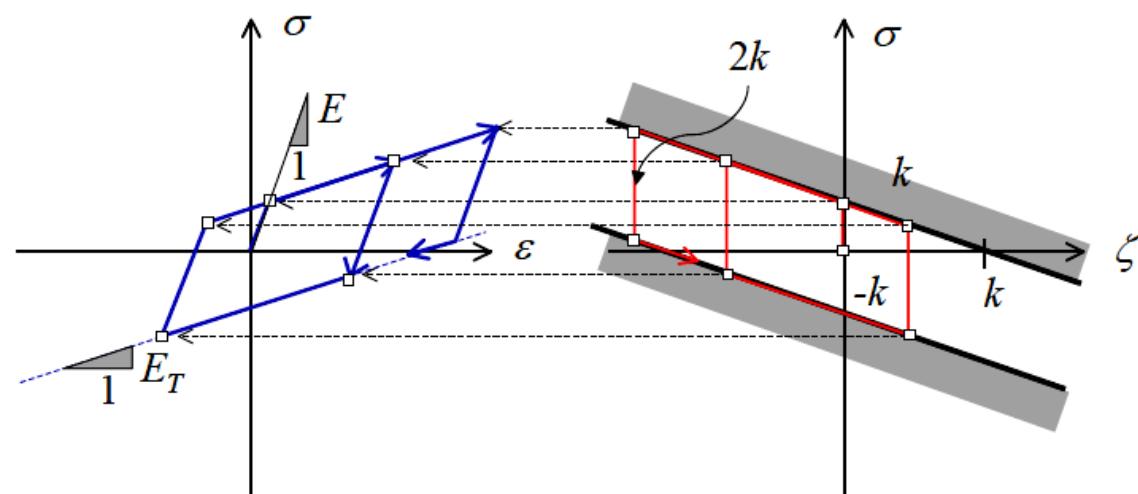
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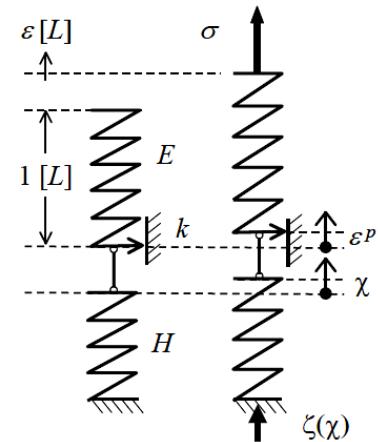
1D-Kinematic Hardening Model

1D →

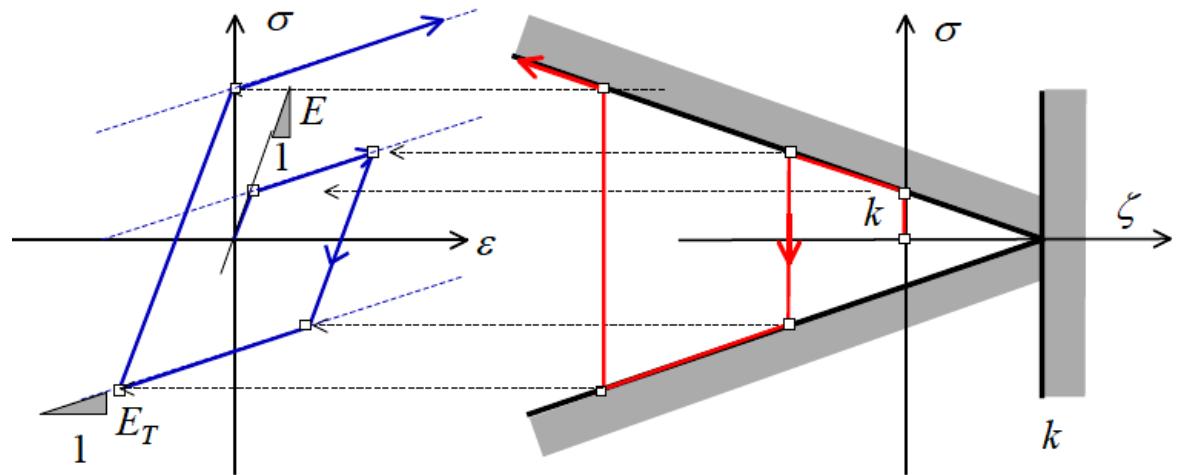
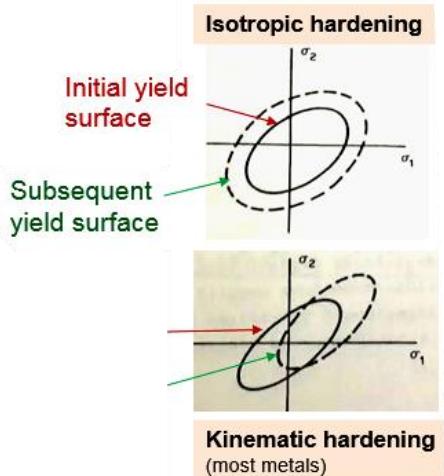


Stress σ , Strain ε
Plastic Strain ε^p
Hardening Variable χ
Hardening Force ζ

$$f = |\sigma + \zeta| - k \leq 0$$

$$\varphi dt = \sigma d\varepsilon - d\Psi \geq 0$$
etc


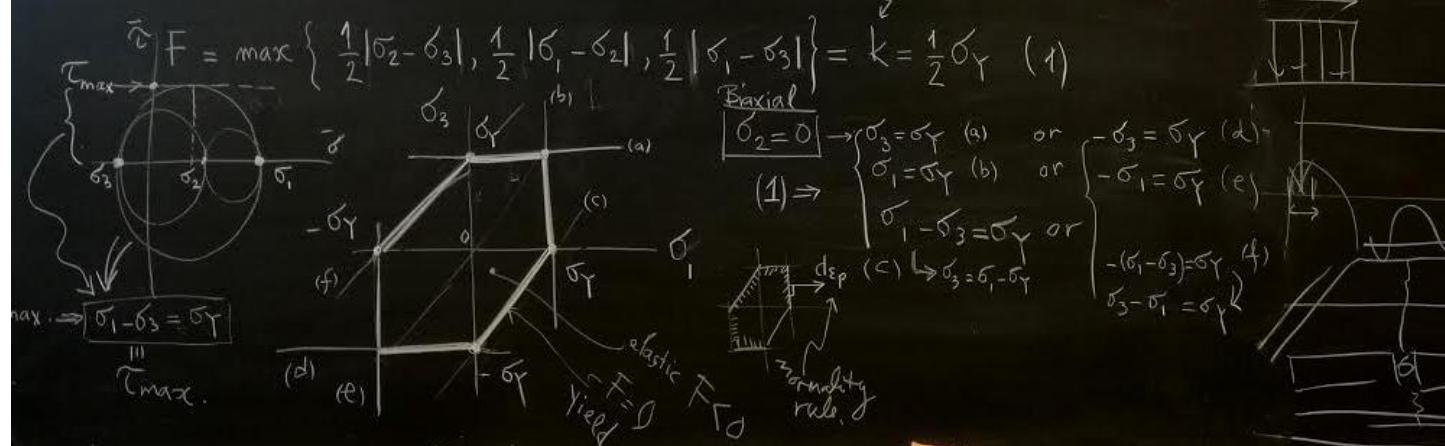
1D-Isotropic Hardening Model





Tresca:

$$F(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3) = 0$$



Semaine du 23 janvier

Poésie



Poésies de loups

23/1

Le loup vexé

Un loup sous la pluie,
Sous la pluie qui mouille,
Loup sans parapluie,
Pauvre loup gribouille.
Est-ce qu'un loup nage ?
Entre chien et loup,
Sous l'averse en rage,
Un hurluberloup ?
Un loup est vexé
Parce qu'on prétend
Que par mauvais temps
Un loup sous la pluie
Sent le chien mouillé.

Claude Roy

Le loup

Je suis poilu,
Fauve et dentu,
J'ai les yeux verts.
Mes crocs pointus
Me donnent l'air
Patibulaire.
Le vent qui siffle,
Moleste et gifle
Le promeneur,
Je le renifle
Et son odeur
Parle à mon cœur.

Sur l'autre rive
Qui donc arrive
A petits pas?
Hmmm! Je salive!

C'est mon repas
Qui vient là-bas!
Du bout du bois
Marche vers moi
Une gamine
Qui, je le vois,
Tantôt lambine,
Tantôt trottine.
Un chaperon
Tout rouge et rond
Bouge et palpite
D'un air fripon
Sur la petite
Chattemite...

Moi je me lèche
Et me pourlèche
Le bout du nez,
Je me dépêche
Pour accoster
Cette poupee.
Ah qu'il est doux
D'être le loup
De ces parages,
Le garde-fou
Des enfants sages
Du bois sauvage !

Pierre Gripa



par cœur
pour le 6
mars FE
(au choix)

kapo teknologia- tai ongelmistoiaa.
Tai ehkä päättäjien jakamaton huomio
on keskittynyt viennin edistämiseen.

VIIME VUOSINA rakennusalta ei ole
juuri saanut innovaatioita rahoitta-
valta Tekesiltä varoja uusiin hank-
keisiin. Myös koulutuspolitiikassa
on tehty huonoja päätöksiä.

Tuntuu siltä, ettei Aalto-yliopis-
tossa oteta rakennusalaa tosissaan.
Päävästuu rakennusalan tarpeita
vastaavan korkeakoulutuksen tar-
joamisesta on siirrynyt melkein
yksinomaan Tampereen teknilliselle
yliopistolle. Osa lahjakkaista opis-
kelijoista valitseekin jonkin toisen
koulutusalan, kun pääkaupunki-
seudulla ei ole kunnollista alan
korkeakoulutusta.

Aalto-yliopiston kannattaisi pyr-
kiä löytämään yhteinen savel rakentajien
kanssa koulutussisältöjen
suunnittelussa ja esimerkiksi uusien
tutkimus- ja kehityshankkeiden
käynnistämisessä. Tästä olisi hyötyä
kaikille osapuolille.

Huippututkimukseen kannattaa
panostaa rakennusalallakin. Suomi
on tässä selvästi esimerkiksi Ruotsia
jäljessä.

VAHVAT SISÄMARKKINAT ovat Suo-
men etu, ja rakennusalta on avain-
asemassa niiden luomisessa. Pai-
kallisten rakennusalan yrityjien
saamat tuotot jäävät kiertämään
paikallistalouteen ja luovat sinne
vaurautta.

Rakennusalaa tukemalla olisi
mahdollista nostaa työllisyysastetta

Rakennusalasta voisi kehittyä palveluvien kivijalka.

Kansainvälisille markkinoille
päästäkseen cleantech-yritykset
tarvitsevat ehdottomasti referens-
sejä kokeiluhankkeista. Onnistuneet
kokeiluhankkeet taas todistaisivat
rakennusalan yritysten osaami-
esta.

RUOTSISSA tällaisia jännittäviä
hankkeita, joissa yhdistyvät monien
alojen osaaminen, kehittää esi-
merkiksi Linköpingissä toimiva
Plantagon-yhtiö. Kyseessä on ruo-
salainen ratkaisu kaupungistumisen
ja ruoan tuottamisen yhdistämiseen
kestävällä tavalla.

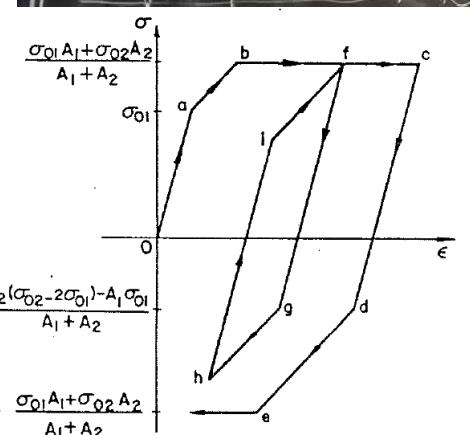
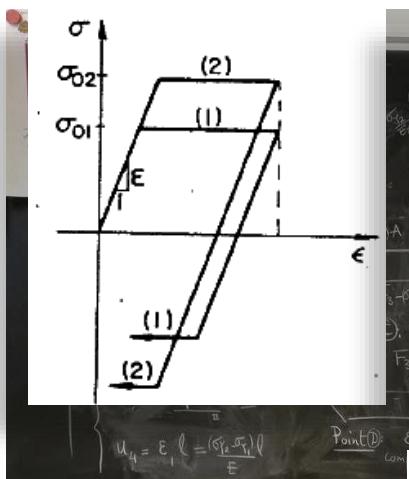
Vastaavat rakennukset voivat
yleistyä tulevaisuudessa, mikäli
tällaiset kokeiluhankkeet osoittau-
tuват lupavaksi tai menestyksel-
lisiksi.



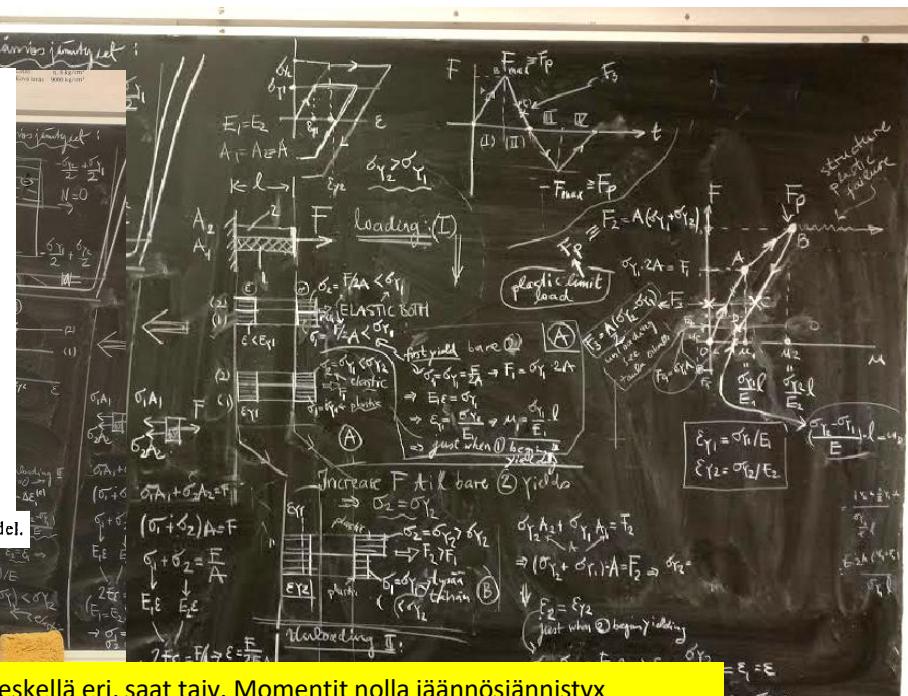
Juha Metsälä

Kirjoittaja on Pohjola Rakennuksen
konsernijohtaja ja Rakennusteollisuus
RT:n varapuheenjohtaja.

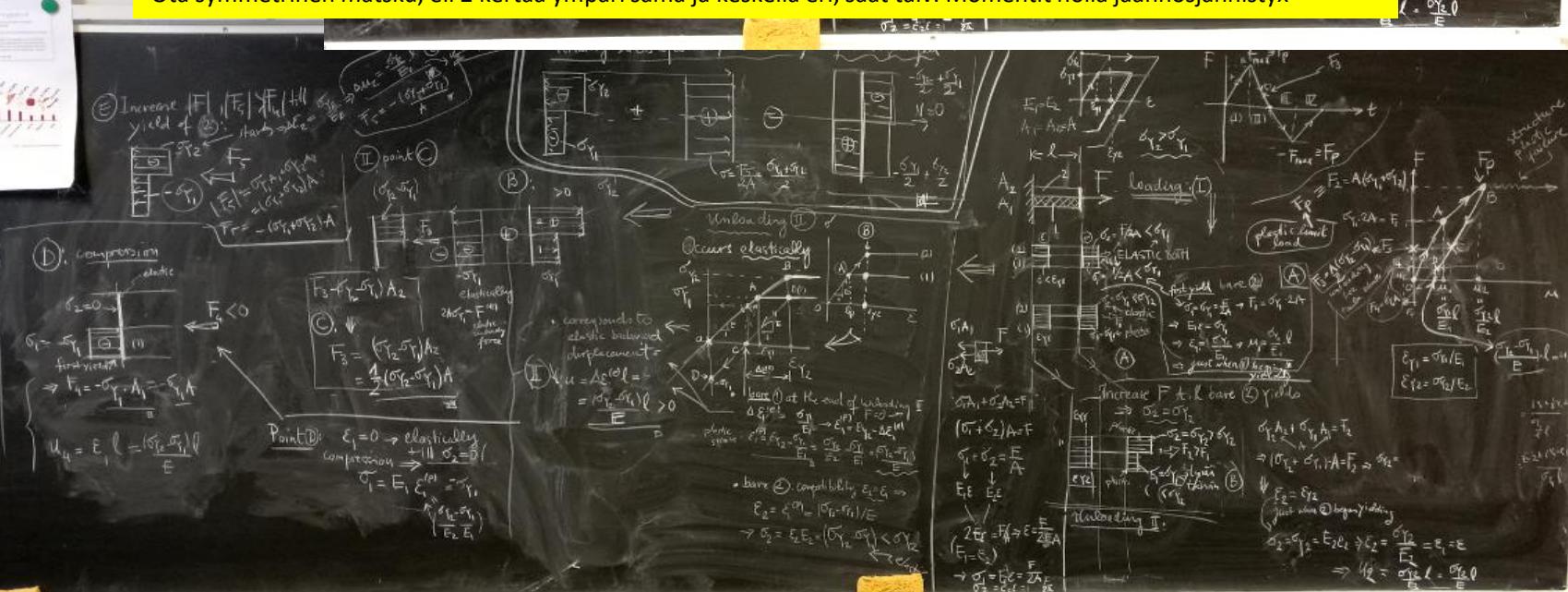
Simplified version of previous example



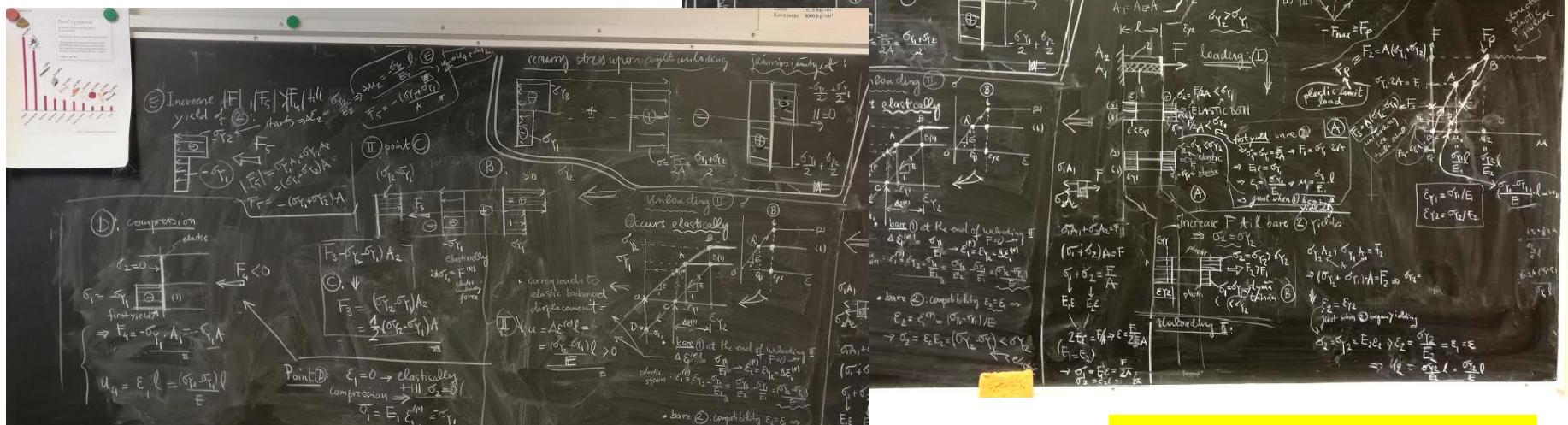
Loading and unloading characteristics of the overlay model.



Ota symmetrinen matsuksi, eli 2 kertaa ympäri sama ja keskellä eri, saat taiv. Momentit nolla jäähnösjännityksx

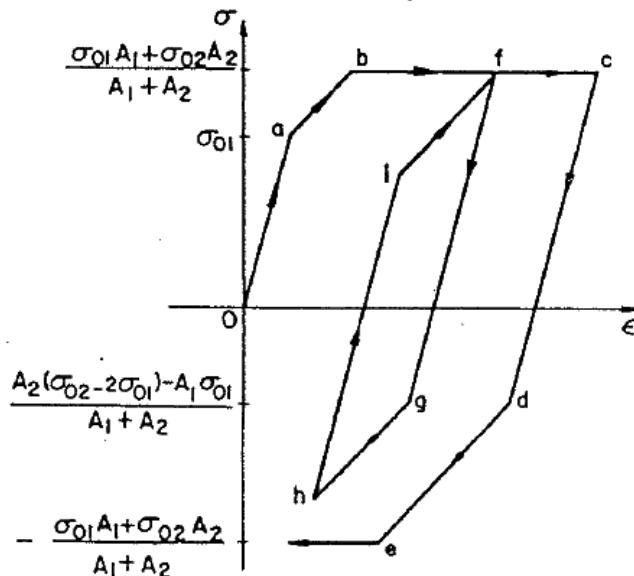
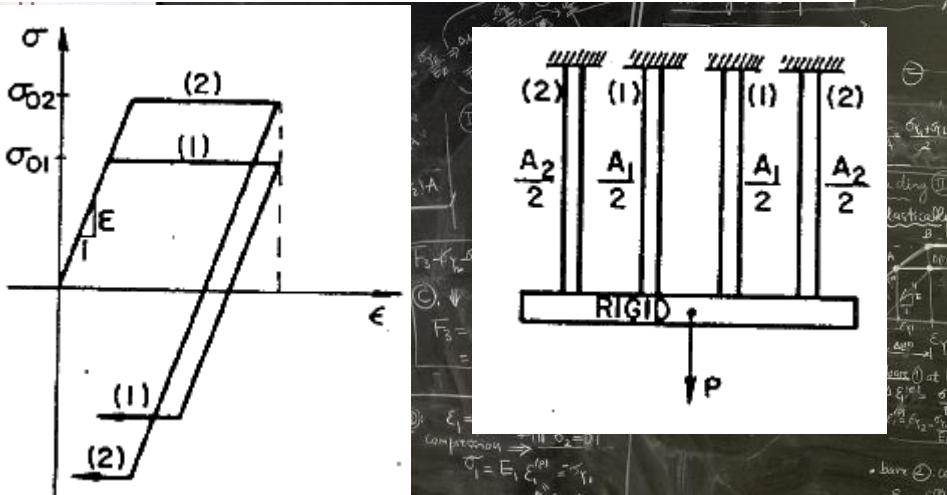


Simplified version of previous example



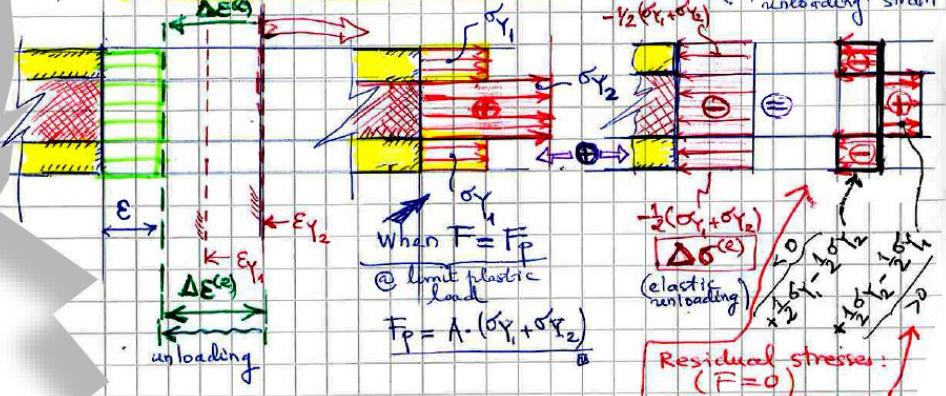
Minun kirjan tehtävässä $A_2 = A_1 = A$,
joten ratkaisut po samat, kts. Sp. Ja
liitutaulu

Ota symmetrinen matsu, eli 2 kertaa
ympäri sama ja keskellä eri, saat taiv.
Momentit nolla jäännösjännityks



(II) • Unloading from $F = F_p$ to $F = 0$

3(3) No. B.: unloading occurs elastically:



④ Elastic unloading by an amount $\Delta \epsilon^{(e)} = \Delta \epsilon_i^{(e)}$, $i=1,2$
 such that the resulting stress distribution have a zero resultant when $F=0$

$$\text{New stress state : } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma_i = \sigma_{i0} + \Delta \sigma_i^{(e)} \\ \Delta \sigma_i^{(e)} = E_i \Delta \epsilon_i^{(e)} \end{array} \right. , i=1,2$$

and $\int_A \sigma dA = 0 \Rightarrow \Delta \epsilon^{(e)}$
will be solved

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \sigma'_1 = \delta Y_1 + E_1 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \\ \sigma'_2 = \delta Y_2 + E_2 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow A_1 \sigma'_1 + A_2 \sigma'_2 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$A_1 (\sigma_{Y_1} + E_1 \Delta E^{(e)}) + A_2 (\sigma_{Y_2} + E_2 \Delta E^{(e)}) = 0$$

$$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} = (E_1 A_1 + E_2 A_2) \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \Rightarrow$$

$$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} \quad . \quad \text{now } E_1 = E_2 = E$$

$$\Delta E^{(e)} = - \frac{A_1 \delta Y_1 + A_2 \delta Y_2}{F_A + F_A} ; \quad \text{now } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} E_1 = E_2 = E \\ \text{and} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Rightarrow E\Delta\varepsilon^{(e)} = + \underline{\Delta\delta^{(e)}} = -\frac{1}{2}(\delta_{Y_1} + \delta_{Y_2}) \quad (b)$$

→ therefore $\sigma_i = \sigma_{y_i} + \Delta\sigma^{(e)}$

therefore $\sigma_i = \sigma_{Y_i} + \Delta\sigma^{(e)}$

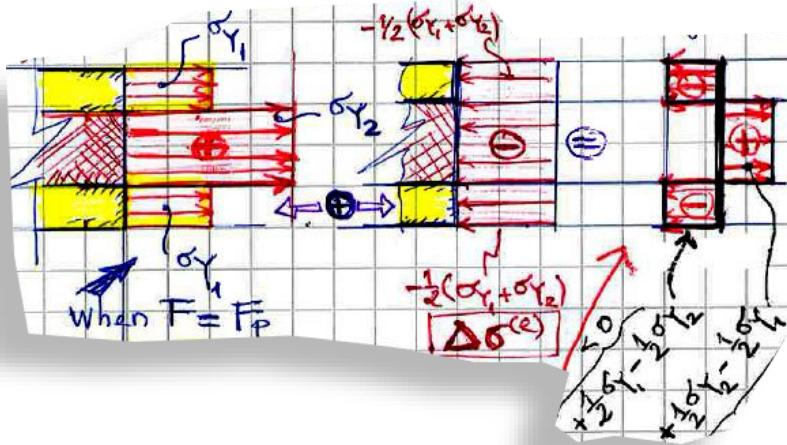
elastic stress distribution

$\int \Delta\sigma^{(e)} dA = -\frac{1}{2}A(\delta Y_1 + \delta Y_2) \equiv -F$

$\sigma_i = \sigma_{Y_i} - \frac{1}{2}\delta Y_1 - \frac{1}{2}\delta Y_2 = +\frac{1}{2}\sigma_{Y_1} - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_{Y_2} + C$

stress distribution @ $F=F_p$

stress distribution upon complete unloading $F=0$

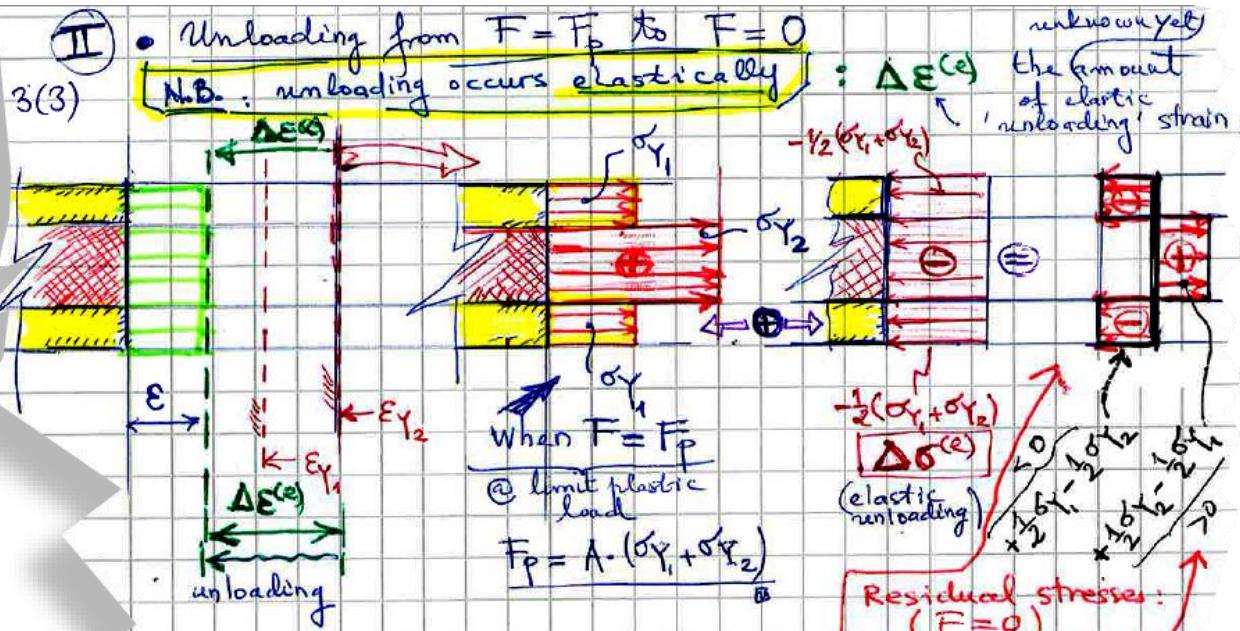


$$\mu(F=0) = \mu(F_p) + \Delta \varepsilon^{(2)} \cdot l$$

$$\mu(F=0) = \frac{\sigma_{Y_2} \cdot l}{E} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2}}{E} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2E} (\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1}) \cdot l$$

II



Elastic unloading by an amount $\Delta \epsilon^{(e)} = \Delta \epsilon_i^{(e)}$, $i=1,2$
such that the resulting stress distribution have
a zero resultant when $F=0$

New stress state:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma'_i = \sigma_{Y_i} + \Delta \sigma_i^{(e)} \\ \Delta \sigma_i^{(e)} = E_i \Delta \epsilon_i^{(e)} \end{array} \right. , i=1,2 \quad (a)$$

and $\int_A \sigma dA = 0 \Rightarrow \Delta \epsilon^{(e)}$
will be solved

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \sigma'_1 = \sigma_{Y_1} + E_1 \Delta \epsilon^{(e)} \\ \sigma'_2 = \sigma_{Y_2} + E_2 \Delta \epsilon^{(e)} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow A_1 \sigma'_1 + A_2 \sigma'_2 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$A_1 (\sigma_{Y_1} + E_1 \Delta \epsilon^{(e)}) + A_2 (\sigma_{Y_2} + E_2 \Delta \epsilon^{(e)}) = 0$$

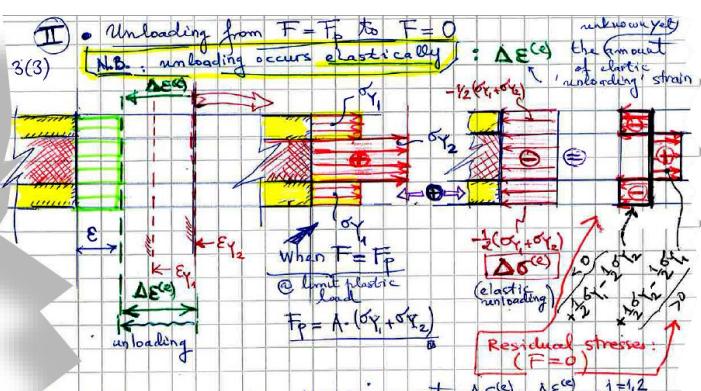
$$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} = -(E_1 A_1 + E_2 A_2) \Delta \epsilon^{(e)} \Rightarrow$$

$$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} = -F (A_1 + E_2 A_2) \Delta \epsilon^{(e)} \Rightarrow$$

$$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} = -F (A_1 + E_2 A_2) \Delta \epsilon^{(e)} \Rightarrow$$

$$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} = -F (A_1 + E_2 A_2) \Delta \epsilon^{(e)} \Rightarrow$$

$$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} = -F (A_1 + E_2 A_2) \Delta \epsilon^{(e)} \Rightarrow$$



Elastic unloading by an amount $\Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} = \Delta \varepsilon_i^{(e)}, i=1,2$ such that the resulting stress distribution have a zero resultant when $F=0$

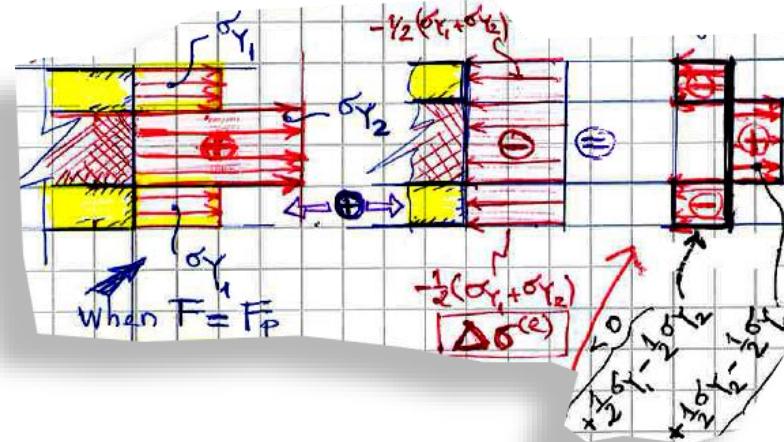
New stress state: $\begin{cases} \sigma'_i = \sigma_{Y_i} + \Delta \sigma^{(e)} \\ \Delta \sigma^{(e)} = E_i \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \end{cases}, i=1,2$ and $\int \sigma dA = 0 \Rightarrow \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)}$ will be solved

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma'_1 &= \sigma_{Y_1} + E_1 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \\ \sigma'_2 &= \sigma_{Y_2} + E_2 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \end{aligned} \Rightarrow A_1 \sigma'_1 + A_2 \sigma'_2 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$A_1 (\sigma_{Y_1} + E_1 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)}) + A_2 (\sigma_{Y_2} + E_2 \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)}) = 0$$

$$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} = (E_1 A_1 + E_2 A_2) \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \Rightarrow$$

$$A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2} \quad \text{now } E_1 = E_2 = E$$



$$\Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} = -\frac{A_1 \sigma_{Y_1} + A_2 \sigma_{Y_2}}{E_1 A_1 + E_2 A_2}; \quad \text{now } E_1 = E_2 = E$$

$$\Rightarrow E A \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} = +\Delta \sigma^{(e)} = -\frac{1}{2} (\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2}) \quad (b)$$

therefore $\sigma_i = \sigma_{Y_i} + \Delta \sigma^{(e)}$

stress distribution elastic stress distribution
@ $F=F_p$

stress distribution upon complete unloading up to $F=0$

N.B. $\int \Delta \sigma^{(e)} dA = -\frac{1}{2} A (\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2}) = -F_p$

RESIDUAL STRESSES:

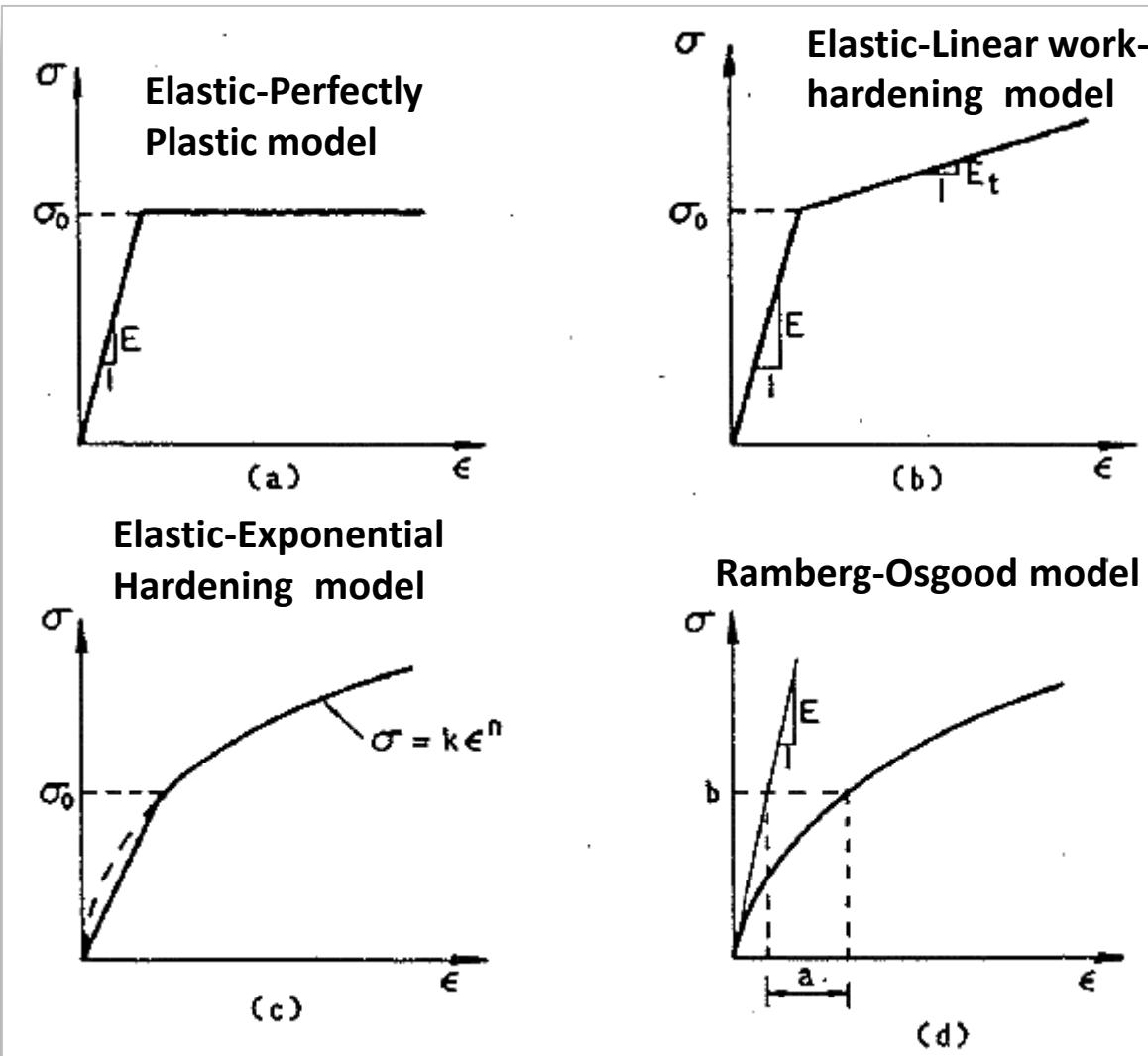
$$\begin{aligned} \sigma'_1 &= \sigma_{Y_1} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_1} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_2} = +\frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_1} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_2} + C \\ \sigma'_2 &= \sigma_{Y_2} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_1} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_2} = +\frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_2} - \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{Y_1} + C \end{aligned}$$

$u(F=0) = u(F_p) + \Delta \varepsilon^{(e)} \cdot l$

$$u(F=0) = \frac{\sigma_{Y_2} \cdot l}{E} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sigma_{Y_1} + \sigma_{Y_2}}{E} \right) l$$

$$= \frac{1}{2E} (\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1}) l = \frac{l}{2} (\sigma_{Y_2} - \sigma_{Y_1}) / E$$

Modelling of uniaxial behavior in plasticity – simplified models



Idealized stress-strain curves

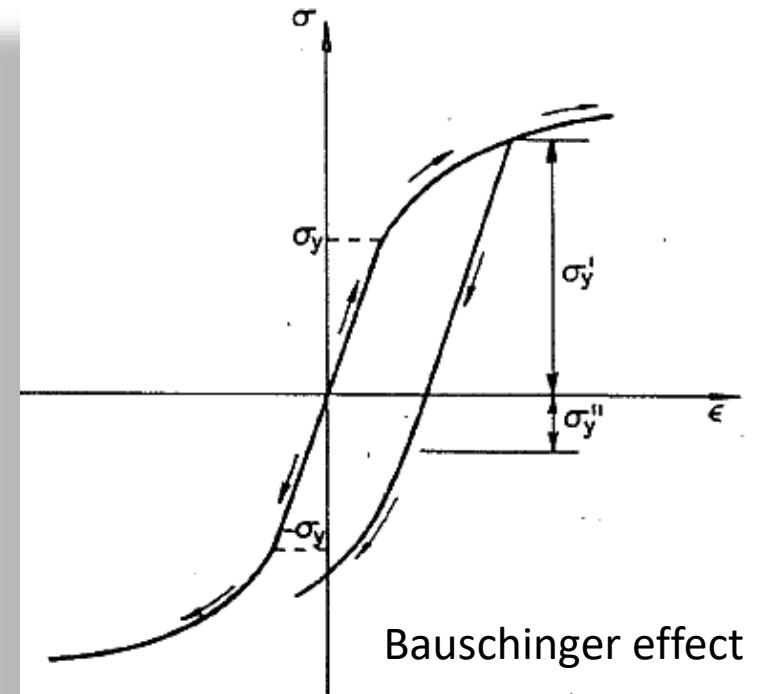
Reversed loading

Loading history: Cf. the graph →

- Load path dependence

Bauschinger effect – see later the detailed description (theses slides)

Such Bauschinger effect is present whenever there is a reversal loading (cyclic)



Homework – plasticity

Solution

Hardening behavior and yield offset – uniaxial behavior in Plasticity

During a uniaxial (monotonic) stress testing of particular solid material the stress-strain curve was measured. It was found that this curve can be approximated by the non-linear **Ramberg-Osgood** model for 1-D case as

$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p = \frac{\sigma}{E} + \left(\frac{\sigma}{b} \right)^n, \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p = \frac{\sigma}{E} + K \left(\frac{\sigma}{E} \right)^n.$$

0. Make graphs for three or four different values of the exponent parameter with a fixed value of K or b

1. Determine the **tangent elastic modulus** E_t and the **plastic modulus** $H \equiv E_p$ as functions of stress and strain.

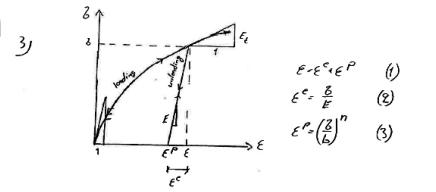
Show that $1/E_t = 1/E + 1/E_p$ holds.

2. Determine the plastic work W_p as function of stress and plastic strain. On the strain-stress graph show the elastic and the plastic work and also the hardening work partition.

3. Determine the yield stress. What is the value of the yield stress?

4. Assume $n=5$ and determine the (offset tensile) stresses corresponding to values of 0.1 % and 0.2 % plastic strain (permanent strain). Plot your results on the graphs.

5. Assume $n=1$, draw the stress-strain curve for loading followed by a complete unloading.



$$a) \quad d\sigma = E_t d\varepsilon \quad ; \quad E_t = \frac{d\sigma}{d\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\frac{d\varepsilon}{d\sigma}} \quad ; \quad \varepsilon = \frac{1}{E} \cdot (\frac{\sigma}{b})^{n-1}$$

$$d\sigma = E_p d\varepsilon^n \quad ; \quad E_p = \frac{d\sigma}{d\varepsilon^n} = \frac{1}{\frac{d\varepsilon^n}{d\sigma}} \quad ; \quad \varepsilon^n = (\frac{\sigma}{b})^n$$

$$d\sigma = \frac{n}{b} (\frac{\sigma}{b})^{n-1} \quad ; \quad E_p = \frac{1}{(\frac{\sigma}{b})^{n-1}}$$

ε_p ja E_p voidaan lukea, kuntaan ε^n on avarilla tarkkuudella $\varepsilon^n = (\frac{\sigma}{b})^n$.

$$b) \quad W_p = \int_0^{\sigma} \sigma d\varepsilon^n = b \int_0^{\sigma} (\varepsilon^n)^{\frac{1}{n}} d\varepsilon^n = \frac{b}{n+1} (\varepsilon^n)^{\frac{n+1}{n}} = \frac{b}{n+1} (\frac{\sigma}{b})^{\frac{n+1}{n}}$$

$$\text{Kun } \varepsilon^n \text{ ja } W_p \text{ ovat vakiin -tavalla.} \\ W_p = \frac{1}{2} b \varepsilon^2 \quad ; \quad \varepsilon = \frac{n+1}{n+1} \frac{W_p}{b}$$

$$c) \quad W_p = \frac{nb}{n+1} (\varepsilon^n)^{\frac{n+1}{n}} \Rightarrow (\varepsilon^n)^{\frac{n+1}{n}} = \frac{n+1}{n} \frac{W_p}{b} ; \\ \varepsilon^n = \left(\frac{n+1}{n} \frac{W_p}{b} \right)^{\frac{n}{n+1}}. \quad \text{Sijoittamalla tähän } \varepsilon^n \text{ on } \varepsilon_p \text{ ja } E_p \text{ kunnostettavaa saadaan hyväksi tulokset.}$$

d) "initial yield stress" on se johdetaan, että sijoitetaan $\varepsilon = b(\sigma)^{\frac{1}{n}}$ sijoittamalla ε^n partille sovittavaa (vaihto 0.1% -taulua) ja sen 0,2% metallista

$$e) \quad n=1 \Rightarrow E = \frac{\sigma}{E} + \frac{\sigma}{b} \quad \text{loading: } \varepsilon = (\frac{\sigma}{E} + \frac{\sigma}{b}) \\ \text{unloading: } \varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E}$$

$$f) \quad \text{sijoitetaan taulauan } \sigma = b(\varepsilon^n)^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

tuom. kohta d) periaatteessa "initial yield stress" on Ramberg-Osgoodin mallilla 0, sillä plasticum reaumurii syntyy heikkenemällä tukistakin. Mallia käytetään seuraaville aineille, joissa ei ole sellaista kuumintaa aluetta, jossa näitä metalluja ovat esim. ruostumatona toivat, kuperat, jne. Tavallisia kuumavalssattuja terälehtiä σ - ε suodettuna ovatkin hyvin kuumo-idealesta plastiista malleja.

describe the hardening behavior of the material.

$$n, b, K$$

Incremental Stress-Strain Relationships

Plastiset muodonmuutokset ovat myotopinhan normaalin seuraavaiset:

$$d\epsilon_{ij}^p = d\lambda \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}} \quad (4)$$

Ideaaliplastiselle aineelle $d\lambda$ määritämätön vakio, joka on positiivinen plastisten muodonmuutosten tapahtuessa (seuraus myotopinhan kuperundesta). Myötö ~~ja~~ ^{ja} (4) sanotaan myotähtoon + littyväksi myotospäämötökseksi. (Myös: Minimia plastiican potentiinali) Kimmoviset muodonmuutokset tapahtuvat Hooken laki mukaisesti.

$$d\epsilon_{ij}^e = B_{ijkl} d\sigma_{kl} \quad (5)$$

Kolonaismuodonmuutokset ovat

$$d\epsilon_{ij} = d\epsilon_{ij}^e + d\epsilon_{ij}^p \quad (6)$$

Yhtätöt (4), (5) ja (6) määrittelevät kimmovisen ideaaliplastisen aineen käytäytymisen.

Kuormitus-palautuminen

Määritellään:

$$\text{Kuormitus: } f(\sigma_{ij}) = 0, \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{ij}} d\sigma_{ij} = df = 0$$

$$\text{Palautuminen: } f(\sigma_{ij}) = 0, df < 0$$

Plastiican muodonmuutoksia vain kuormitustilanteessa. Palautumisessa Hooken laki pätee.

Jännitysincrementit voidaan lausua jännitystilan ja muodonmuutosincrementtien avulla

$$d\sigma_{ij} = A_{ijkl} d\epsilon_{kl} - \frac{A_{ijpq} A_{rskl} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{pq}} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{rs}}}{A_{pqrs} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{pq}} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{rs}}} d\epsilon_{kl} \quad (7)$$

Huom. jos $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{kl}} = 0$, niin plastiican tilaonmuutos $d\epsilon_{kl}^p = 0$.

Reading: Chapter 5.7 – Chan & Han Incremental Stress-Strain Relationships

It can be shown that (for details ref. to Chapter 5.7 of Chan & Han)

2.4.2 Fundamentals of Classical Theory of Plasticity

There are three basic assumptions used in the development of the classical theory of plasticity: an initial yield surface, a hardening rule, and a flow rule. An initial yield surface in stress space defines the stress level at which plastic deformation begins. A hardening rule regulates the evolution of the subsequent loading surfaces during the course of plastic flow. A flow rule defines an incremental plastic stress-strain relationship using a plastic potential function. And the formulation of plasticity theory gives the following incremental stress-strain relation (Chen and Han, 1988).

$$d\sigma_{ij} = D_{ijkl}^{ep} d\epsilon_{kl} \quad (2.4.1)$$

where

$$D_{ijkl}^{ep} = D_{ijkl}^e - \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{mn}} D_{mnkl}^e D_{ijst}^e \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma_{st}}}{h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{pq}} D_{pquv}^e \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma_{uv}}} \quad (2.4.2)$$

in which D_{ijkl} , D_{ijkl}^e = elastic and elastic-plastic material tensors; f = a loading function (surface); g = a potential function; and h = a scalar function related to the hardening rule associated with a particular material. For an associated flow rule, f is equal to g while $f \neq g$ is assumed for a non-associated flow rule. This implies that in general the symmetry

$$d\sigma_{ij} = D_{ijkl}^{ep} d\epsilon_{kl}$$

$$D_{ijkl}^{ep} = D_{ijkl}^e - \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{mn}} D_{mnkl}^e D_{ijst}^e \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma_{st}}}{h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma_{pq}} D_{pquv}^e \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma_{uv}}}$$

2.5 Incremental stress-strain relations

In computational elasto-plastic analysis one usually proceeds by applying a load increment which produces a displacement increment, and thus a total strain increment. The stress increment corresponding to this increment in total strain can be determined by a constitutive relation similar to the relation one has in elasticity, i.e.

$$d\sigma = D^{ep} d\varepsilon \quad (38)$$

where D^{ep} is the elasto-plastic constitutive matrix. Such a relation was first derived and used in an finite element context by Zienkiewicz *et al.* [2]. The elasto-plastic constitutive matrix can be derived by considering the basic relations discussed in the foregoing. The total strain increment is given as the sum of the elastic strain increment and the plastic strain increment

$$d\varepsilon = d\varepsilon^e + d\varepsilon^p \quad (39)$$

Hooke's law gives the relation between stresses and elastic strains as

$$\sigma = D\varepsilon^e = D(\varepsilon - \varepsilon^p) \quad (40)$$

or in rate form as

$$d\sigma = D(d\varepsilon - d\varepsilon^p) \quad (41)$$

where D is the elastic constitutive matrix. The plastic strain increment is determined by the flow rule (29) as

$$d\varepsilon^p = d\lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma} \quad (24)$$

$$f(\sigma + d\sigma) = f(\sigma) + \nabla f^T d\sigma = 0 \quad (25)$$

where

$$\nabla f = [\partial f / \partial \sigma_x, \dots, \partial f / \partial \tau_{zx}]^T \quad (25)$$

is the normal to the yield surface and $d\sigma$ is a stress increment, see Figure 9. Since $f(\sigma) = 0$

$$df = \nabla f^T d\sigma = 0 \quad (26)$$

In other words, (26) states that during plastic loading the change in stress, if any, occurs tangential to the yield surface. This is the so-called consistency condition which, as shall be shown later, is a key ingredient in the general theory.

In unloading the state of stress immediately becomes elastic which can be written as

$$df = \nabla f^T d\sigma < 0 \quad (27)$$

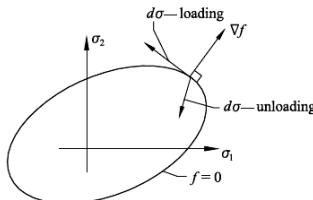


Figure 9: Plastic loading and unloading.

where D is the elastic constitutive matrix. The plastic strain increment is determined by the flow rule (29) as

$$d\varepsilon^p = d\lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma} \quad (42)$$

Thus, the stress increment is given by

$$d\sigma = D d\varepsilon - d\lambda D \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma} \quad (43)$$

The expression for the stress increment is now substituted into the consistency condition (26)

$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T \left(D d\varepsilon - d\lambda D \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma} \right) = 0 \quad (44)$$

Solving this equation for the scalar $d\lambda$ one obtains

$$d\lambda = \frac{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T D d\varepsilon}{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T D \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma}} \quad (45)$$

Finally, $d\lambda$ is substituted back into (43) to yield

$$d\sigma = D \left(d\varepsilon - \frac{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T D d\varepsilon \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma}}{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T D \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma}} \right) \quad (46)$$

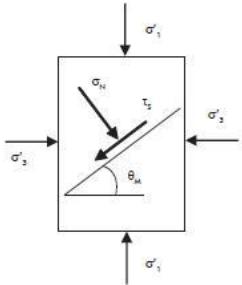
which is rearranged to give the elasto-plastic constitutive relation

$$d\sigma = \left(D - \frac{D \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T D}{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T D \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma}} \right) d\varepsilon \quad (47)$$

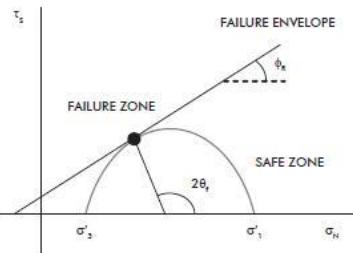
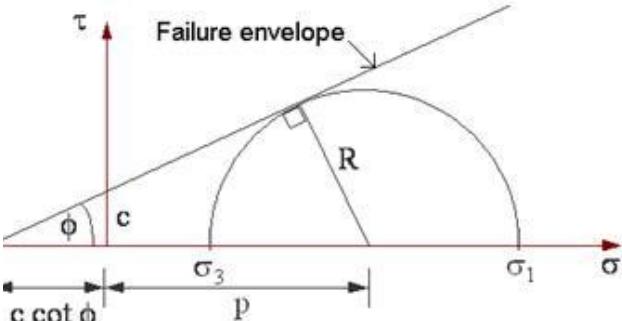
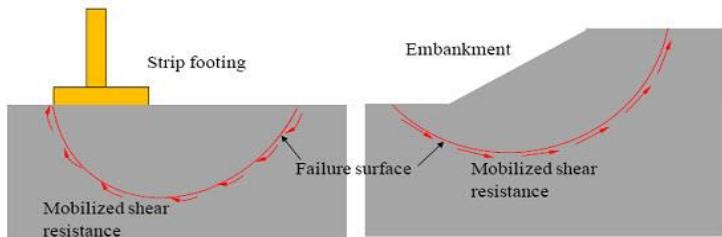
and thus, the elasto-plastic constitutive matrix introduced in (38) is

$$D^{ep} = D - \frac{D \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T D}{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} \right)^T D \frac{\partial g}{\partial \sigma}} \quad (48)$$

The elasto-plastic constitutive relation defines the stress increment uniquely once the total strain increment and the current state of stress is known, whereas the strain increment cannot be determined uniquely on the basis of a stress increment, i.e. D^{ep} is singular. When used in finite element formulations (48) defines a nonlinear relation between stress and strain increments since the evaluation of the current stress must naturally be influenced by the magnitude of the stress increment. In this way the use of (48) leads to a classical type of finite element nonlinearity where the current state and an increment is known, but where the effect of the increment depends on the state that the increment gives rise to, i.e. an iterative procedure must be applied.

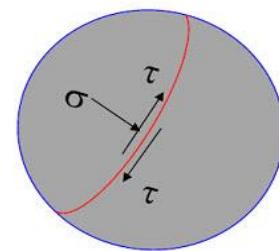
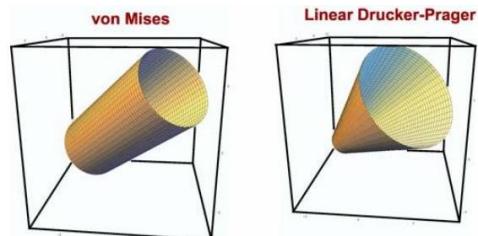


(a)

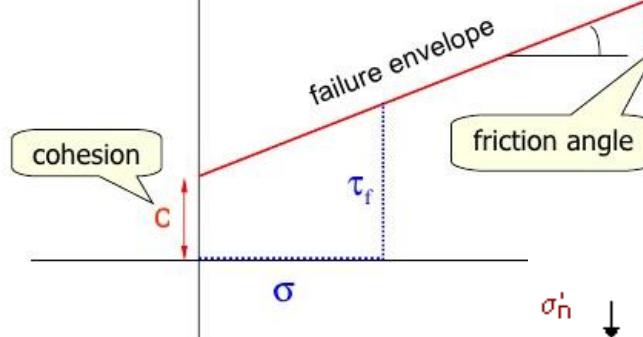


(b)

Figure 1 a) Shear failure under the Mohr Coulomb criterion (Osorio, 2003). b) Overlay of the Mohr circle with the failure envelope (Osorio, 2003)

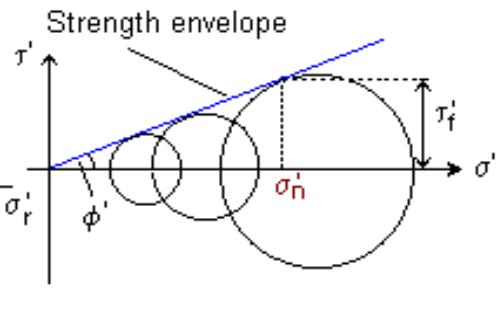
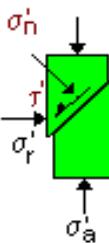


$$\tau_f = c + \sigma \tan \phi$$

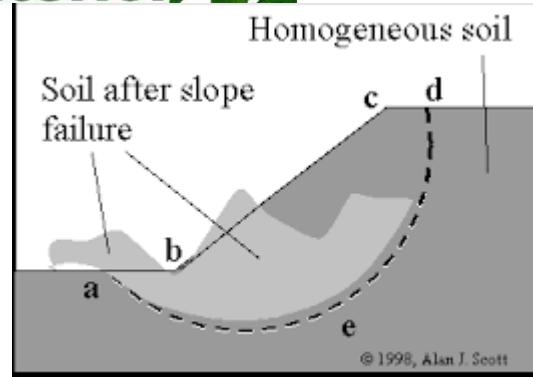


τ_f is the maximum shear stress the without failure, under normal stress

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Criterion



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strength hypotheses

Basic concepts

Aloita tästä “2.1 Basic concepts” ja sitten goto plasticity

Strength hypotheses are intended to make a statement about the circumstances under which a material fails.

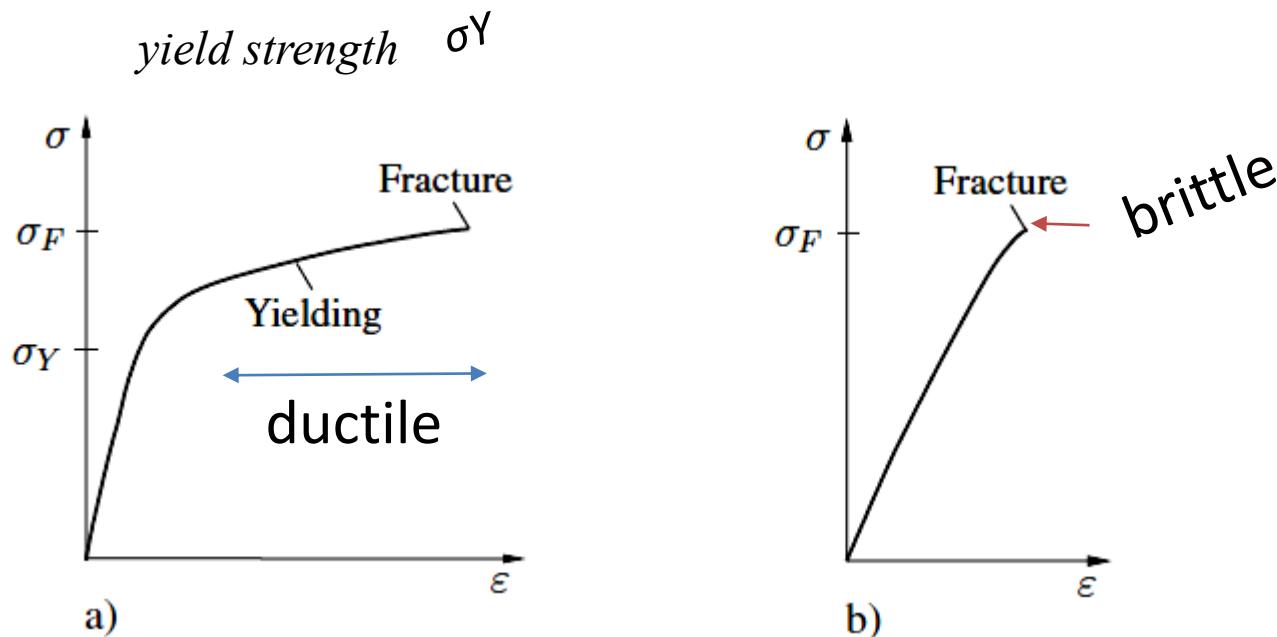
Plasticity

Yield criterion

Incremental theory

Their basis are experiments conducted under specific, mostly simple, loading conditions.

Mohr–Coulomb theory



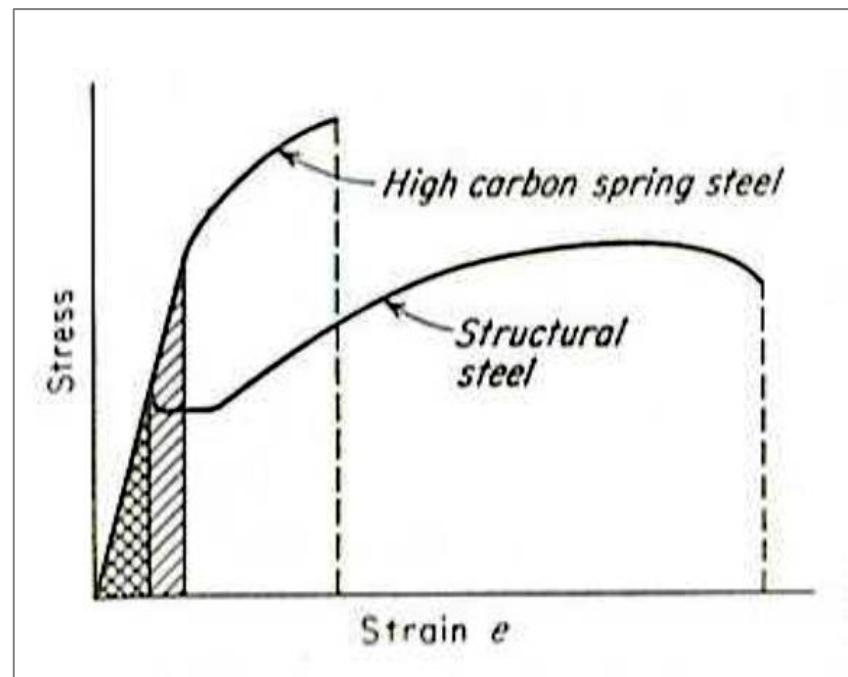
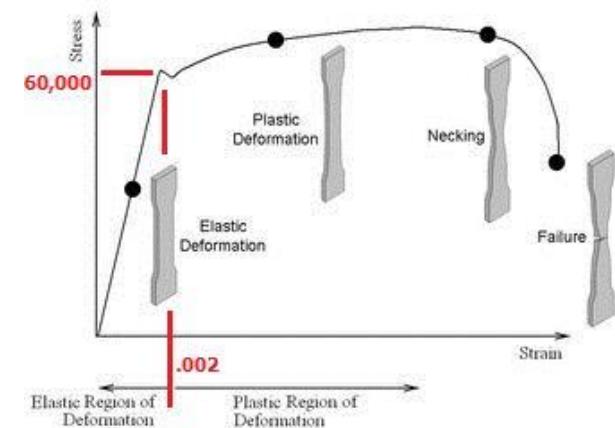
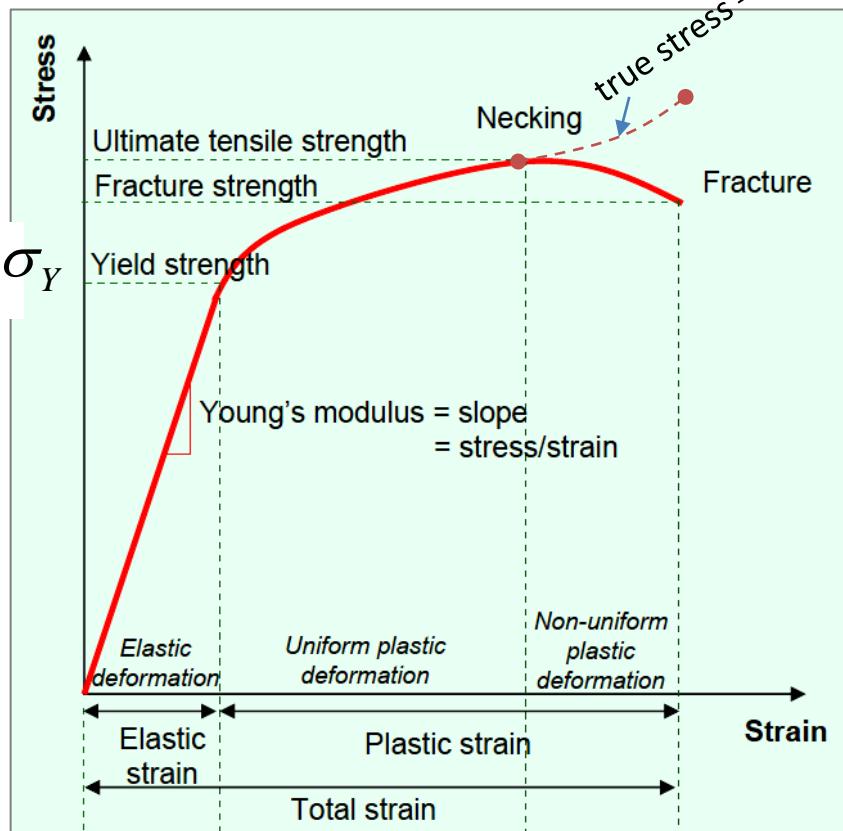
Mohr–Coulomb theory

- In geotechnical engineering it is used to define shear strength of soils and rocks at different effective stresses
- In structural engineering it is used to determine failure load as well as the angle of fracture of a displacement fracture in concrete and similar materials

Examples plasticity properties:

uniaxial tension test - yksiakselainen vetokoe

Some remarkable features and terminology



Time-independent material models for concrete

Liik
enne
vira
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38 · 2013
LIKENNEVIRASTON
TUTKIMUKSIA JA SELVITYKSIÄ

By Prof. Reijo Kouhia

REJO KOUHIA

Betonin ajasta riippumattomat
materiaalimallit

Concrete

σ_2/f_c

Recommended reading for future and actual
engineers in structures:
An extensive detailed review

ned by the Drucker-Prager criterion whereas the flow rule is c
tion, e.g.

$$f(\sigma) = \sqrt{J_2} + \alpha I_1 - k$$

$$g(\sigma) = \sqrt{J_2} + \beta I_1 - k \quad \beta < \alpha$$

be smaller than α . The situation is illustrated in Figure 11

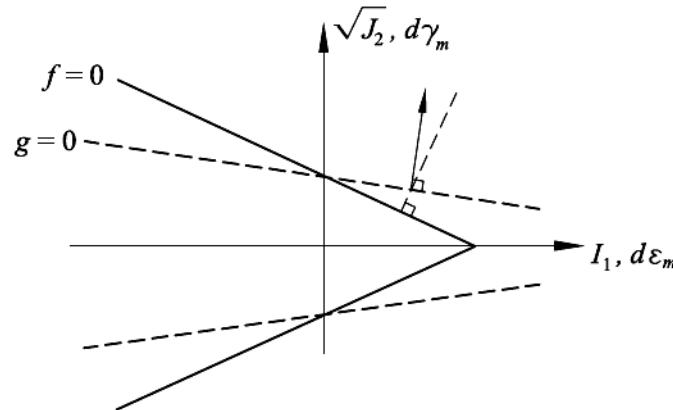
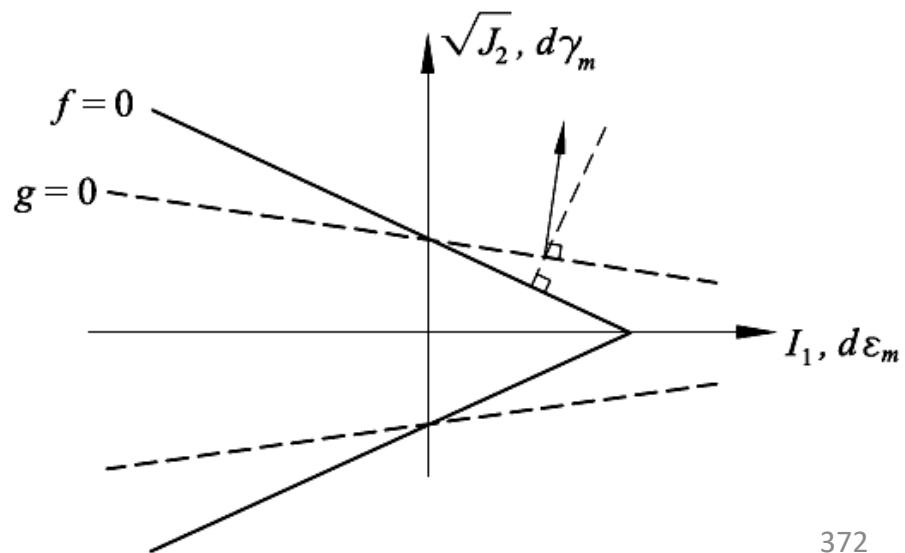


Figure 11: Drucker-Prager plasticity with nonassociated flow rule.

For soils, however, the volumetric dilatation predicted by the associated Drucker-Prager flow rule is often somewhat larger than can be verified experimentally. Therefore, a nonassociated flow rule can be used, i.e. the elastic limit is still defined by the Drucker-Prager criterion whereas the flow rule is defined by some other function, e.g.



Maximum Principal Stress Theory

- ✓ Maximum principal stress reaches tensile yield stress (Y).
- ✓ Estimate principal stresses σ_1, σ_2 & σ_3 .
- ✓ Apply yield criteria:

$$f = \max(|\sigma_1|, |\sigma_2|, |\sigma_3|) - Y$$

If, $f < 0$ no yielding

$f = 0$ onset of yielding

$f > 0$ not defined

Maximum Principal Strain Theory

- ✓ Failure occurs when maximum value of applied strain exceeds the strain value corresponding to yield point of the material.
 - ✓ If ' Y ' is the yield stress then under uni-axial loading yield strain is defined as
- $$\epsilon_y = Y/E$$
- ✓ Maximum strain developed in the design component should be less than ϵ_y
 - ✓ Principal stresses σ_1, σ_2 & σ_3 corresponds to principal strains ϵ_1, ϵ_2 & ϵ_3 .

$$\epsilon_1 = \frac{\sigma_1}{E} - \frac{v}{E}(\sigma_2 + \sigma_3)$$

$$\epsilon_2 = \frac{\sigma_2}{E} - \frac{v}{E}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_3)$$

Strain Energy Theory

- ✓ Failure at any point in a body is defined when the energy density in the body at the applied load equals the energy density corresponds to the elastic limit of the material.

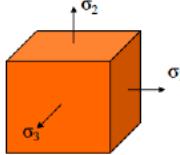
- ✓ Uni-axial loading :

- $\sigma = E\epsilon$ (Hooke's Law)

- Strain energy density :

$$U = \int \sigma_{ij} d\varepsilon_{ij} \Rightarrow U = \int_0^{\epsilon_y} \sigma d\varepsilon$$

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \frac{Y^2}{E}$$



- ✓ Body subjected to principal stresses :

$$U = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_1 \epsilon_1 + \sigma_2 \epsilon_2 + \sigma_3 \epsilon_3)$$

$$U = 1/2E [\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \sigma_3^2 - 2v(\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \sigma_2\sigma_3 + \sigma_1\sigma_3)]$$

- ✓ For the onset of yielding :

$$Y^2/2E = 1/2E [\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \sigma_3^2 - 2v(\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \sigma_2\sigma_3 + \sigma_1\sigma_3)]$$

- ✓ Yield function

$$f = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \sigma_3^2 - v(\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \sigma_2\sigma_3 + \sigma_1\sigma_3) - Y^2$$

$$f = \sigma_e^2 - Y^2$$

Yielding $\Rightarrow f = 0$, safe $f < 0$

von Mises Criteria (Distortion Energy Criteria)

- ✓ Failure occurs when equivalent stress (von Mises stress) reaches the yield stress of the material.

- ✓ von Mises yield criteria also suggests a failure or yielding when the elastic energy of distortion reaches a critical value. von Mises criteria is also known as maximum distortion energy criteria.

$$U_D = \frac{1}{12G} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]$$

$$2Y^2 = (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2$$

$$f = \sigma_e^2 - Y^2$$

Tresca Theory (Maximum Shear Stress Theory)

- ✓ Failure/yielding occurs when the maximum shear stress at a point equals the maximum shear stress at yield.

$$\tau_{max} = K_T = \left| \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2} \right| \Rightarrow \tau_{max} = \frac{Y}{2} = K_T$$

- ✓ Maximum shear stress less than 0.5 Y (No failure).

Shear stress yield = 0.5 (Tensile stress yield)

Tresca Theory (Cont...)

- ✓ In terms of principal stresses σ_1, σ_2 & σ_3 .

- ✓ Maximum shear stresses.

$$\max \left\{ \left| \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2} \right|, \left| \frac{\sigma_2 - \sigma_3}{2} \right|, \left| \frac{\sigma_3 - \sigma_1}{2} \right| \right\}$$

- ✓ Yield function :

$$f = \max \left\{ \left| \frac{\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{2} \right|, \left| \frac{\sigma_2 - \sigma_3}{2} \right|, \left| \frac{\sigma_3 - \sigma_1}{2} \right| \right\} - K_T \left(= \frac{Y}{2} \right)$$

$f < 0 \Rightarrow$ No yielding

$f = 0 \Rightarrow$ Onset of yielding

- The von Mises yield criterion predicts that yielding will occur whenever the distortion energy in a unit volume equals the distortion energy in the same volume when uniaxially stressed to the yield strength.

- From this theory, a scalar invariant (von Mises equivalent stress) is derived as:

$$\sigma_e = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} [(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)^2 + (\sigma_2 - \sigma_3)^2 + (\sigma_3 - \sigma_1)^2]}$$

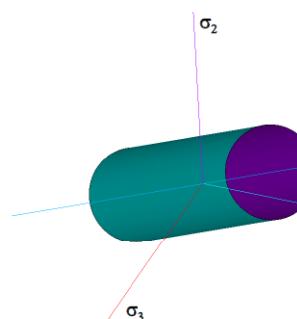
- When von Mises equivalent stress exceeds the uniaxial material yield strength, general yielding will occur.

- If plotted in 3D principal stress space, the von Mises yield surface is a cylinder.

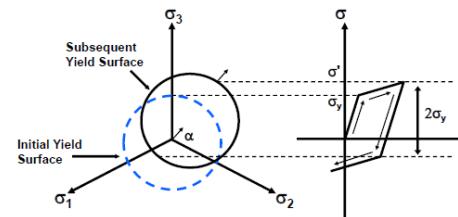
The cylinder is aligned with the axis $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \sigma_3$.

Note that if the stress state is inside the cylinder, no yielding occurs. This means that if the material is under hydrostatic pressure ($\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \sigma_3$), no amount of hydrostatic pressure will cause yielding.

Another way to view this is that stresses which deviate from the axis ($\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \sigma_3$) contribute to the von Mises stress calculation.



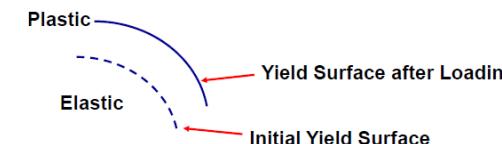
- The stress-strain behavior for linear kinematic hardening is illustrated below:



- At the edge of the cylinder (circle), yielding will occur.
- No stress state can exist outside of the cylinder.
- Instead, hardening rules will describe how the cylinder changes with respect to yielding.

- Subsequent yield in compression is decreased by the amount that the yield stress in tension increased, so that a $2\sigma_y$ difference between the yields is always maintained. (This is known as the Bauschinger effect.)

- The hardening rule describes how the yield surface changes (size, center, shape) as the result of plastic deformation.
- The hardening rule determines when the material will yield again if the loading is continued or reversed.
 - This is in contrast to elastic-perfectly-plastic materials which exhibit no hardening -- i.e., the yield surface remains fixed.



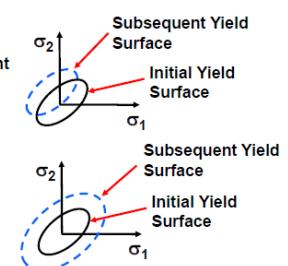
- There are two basic hardening rules to prescribe the modification of the yield surface:

Kinematic hardening.

- The yield surface remains constant in size and translates in the direction of yielding.

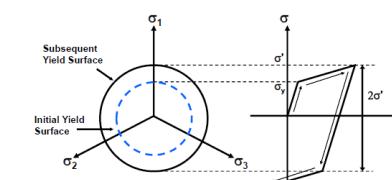
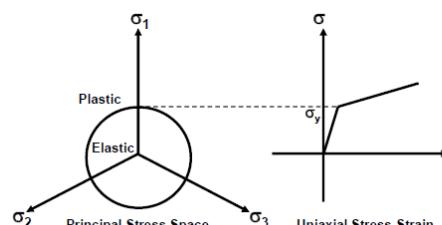
Isotropic hardening.

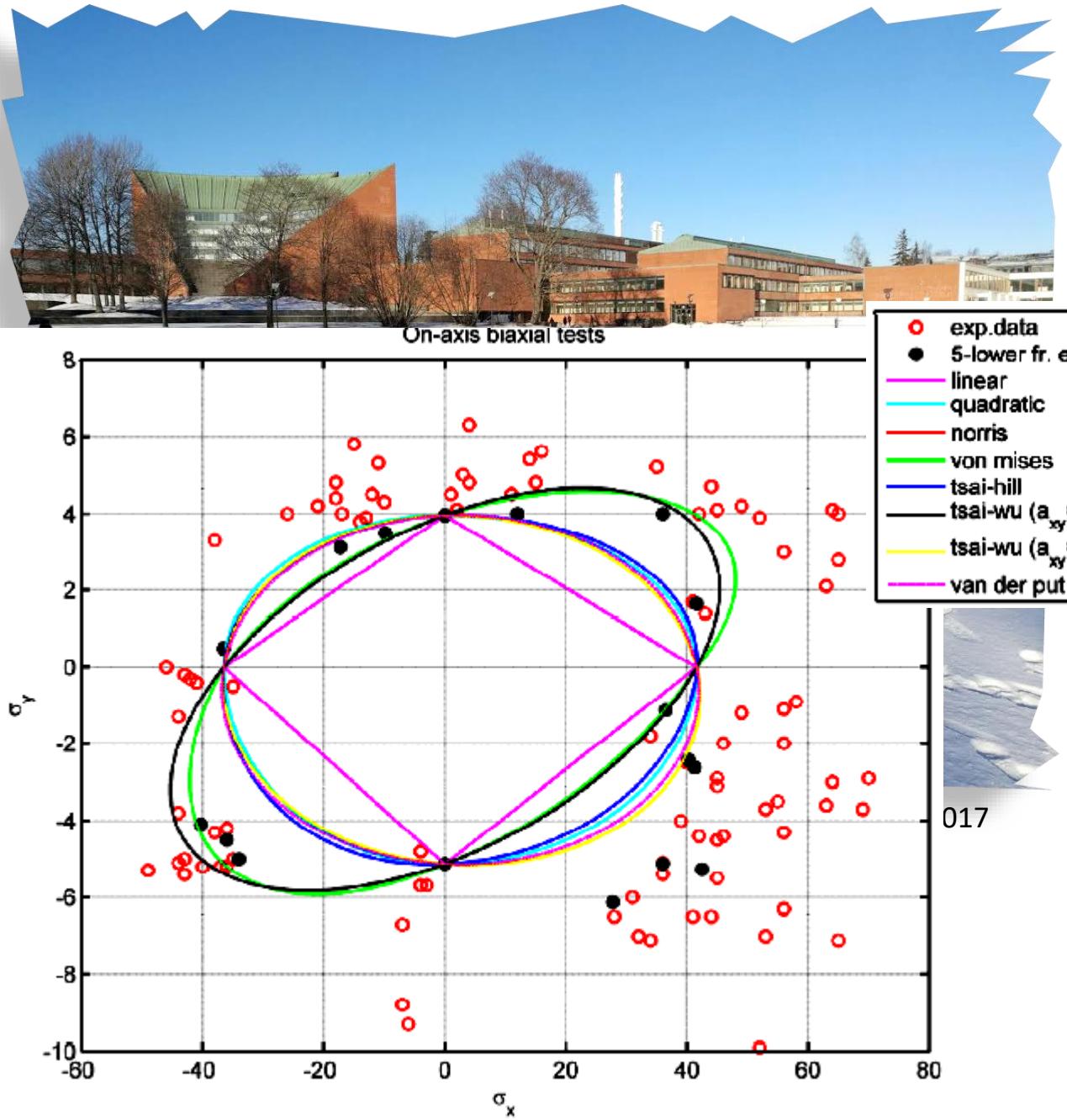
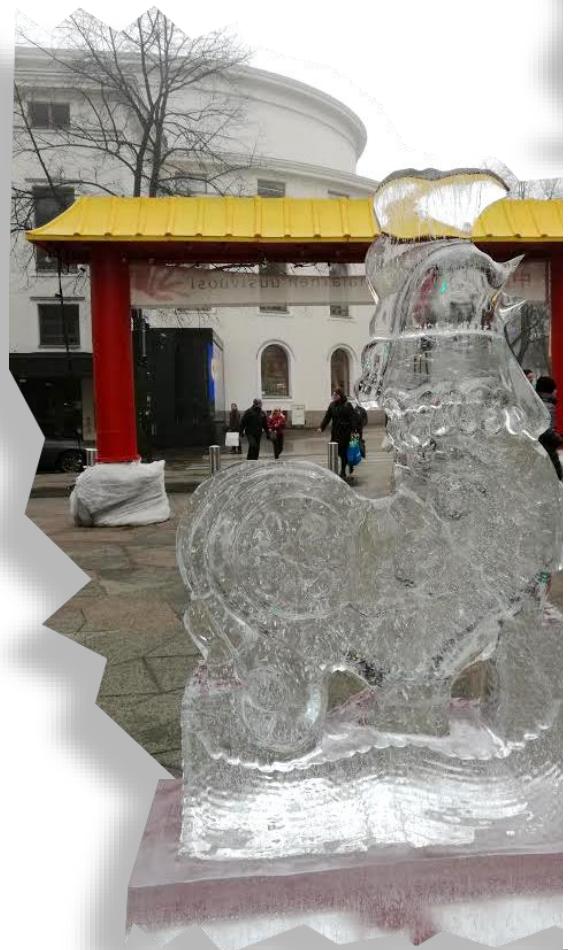
- The yield surface expands uniformly in all directions with plastic flow.



metals exhibit kinematic hardening behavior for small cyclic loading.

Isotropic hardening states that the yield surface expands uniformly during plastic flow. The term 'isotropic' refers to the uniform dilatation of the yield surface and is different from an 'isotropic' yield criterion (i.e., material orientation).





Chinese new-year in Helsinki, 2002

Plot of the failure criteria with the on-axis experimental data from Eberhardsteiner (2002).

Homework, exercises – plasticity – yield criteria ...

2. Materiaalin jännitys-venymä riippuvuutta yksiaksialisessa vedossa aproksimoidaan Ramberg-Osgood tyyppisellä kaavalla

$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p = \frac{\sigma}{E} + \left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^n.$$

- (a) Määritä tangenttimoduuli E_t ja plastinen moduuli H sekä jännityksen, että plastisen venymän ε^p funktiona.
- (b) Määritä plastinen työ W_p sekä jännityksen että plastisen venymän funktiona.
- (c) Mikä on myötöjännityksen arvo?
- (d) Mikäli $n = 5$, mikä on 0,1 % ja 0,2 % pysyvää venymää vastaava jännityksen arvo?

$$y) \quad \varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p = \frac{\sigma}{E} + \left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^n$$

$$a) \quad \varepsilon^p = \left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^n \quad H = \frac{d\sigma}{d\varepsilon^p}$$

$$\delta = b(\varepsilon^p)^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad H = \frac{b}{n} (\varepsilon^p)^{\frac{1}{n}-1} = \frac{b}{n} (\varepsilon^p)^{\frac{n-1}{n}}$$

$$E_t = \frac{d\sigma}{d\varepsilon} \quad \underline{\underline{= \frac{b}{n} \left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^{1-n}}}$$

$$d\varepsilon = \frac{1}{E} d\sigma + n \left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^{n-1} \frac{1}{b} d\sigma$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{E} + \frac{n}{b} \left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^{n-1}\right) d\sigma$$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{E} + \frac{n}{b} \left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^{n-1}}$$

$$b) \quad W_p = \int_0^{\varepsilon'} \delta d\varepsilon^p = \int_0^{\varepsilon'} b(\varepsilon^p)^{\frac{1}{n}} d\varepsilon^p = \frac{nb}{n+1} (\varepsilon^p)^{\frac{n+1}{n}}$$

$$= \frac{nb}{n+1} \left(\frac{\sigma}{b}\right)^{n+1}$$

$$c) \quad \text{Ripun määräntaso on } 0,2\% \text{ pross.}$$

Vertaista varten avo valtaa määrä, joilla se on. R-O-mallin plastiseen määräntasoon on $\delta \neq 0$.

$$\delta_q = b(0,002)^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

$$d) \quad \delta_{q,0,1} = b(0,001)^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

$$\delta_{q,0,2} = b(0,002)^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

Näiden tulue on $\left(\frac{1,001}{0,002}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \approx 0,87$.

Homework, exercises – plasticity – yield criteria ...

3. Myötöeho

$$3J_2 + (\sigma_c - \sigma_t)I_1 - \sigma_c\sigma_t = 0$$

tunnetaan von Mises-Schleicher ehtona ja jossa σ_t ja σ_c ovat materiaalin yksiaikaisen jännitystilan vето- ja puristuslujuudet. Invarianttien I_1 ja J_2 lausekkeet ovat $I_1 = \sigma_{kk}$ ja $J_2 = \frac{1}{2}s_{ij}s_{ji}$, jossa s on deviatorinen jännitystensori.

- (a) Määritä ja piirrä myötöeho tasojännitystilassa. Määritä myös biaksiaalinen puristuslujuus σ_{bc} kun $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = -\sigma_{bc}$.
- (b) Määritä ja piirrä puristus- ja vetomeridiaanit meridiaanitasolla.
- (c) Miten myötöeho eroaa Druckerin-Pragerin ehdosta?

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$$3J_2 + (\sigma_c - \sigma_t)I_1 - \sigma_c\sigma_t = 0$$

Tasojännitystila $\underline{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ purist. luv.

$$I_1 = \sigma_1 + \sigma_2$$

$$\underline{I} = \underline{\sigma} - \frac{1}{3}I_1 \underline{I} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 - \frac{1}{3}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) & & \\ & \sigma_2 - \frac{1}{3}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) & \\ & & -\frac{1}{3}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3}\sigma_1 - \frac{1}{3}\sigma_2 & & \\ & \frac{2}{3}\sigma_2 - \frac{1}{3}\sigma_1 & \\ & & -\frac{1}{3}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} J_2 &= \frac{1}{2}s_{ij}s_{ji} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{2}{3}\sigma_1 - \frac{1}{3}\sigma_2 \right)^2 + \left(\frac{2}{3}\sigma_2 - \frac{1}{3}\sigma_1 \right)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{4}{9}\sigma_1^2 - \frac{4}{9}\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \frac{1}{9}\sigma_2^2 + \frac{4}{9}\sigma_2^2 - \frac{4}{9}\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \frac{1}{9}\sigma_1^2 + \frac{1}{9}\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \frac{1}{9}\sigma_2\sigma_1 + \frac{2}{9}\sigma_1\sigma_2 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{6}{9}\sigma_1^2 + \frac{6}{9}\sigma_2^2 - \frac{6}{9}\sigma_1\sigma_2 \right) = \frac{1}{3}(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1\sigma_2) \end{aligned}$$

$$(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1\sigma_2) + (\sigma_c - \sigma_t)(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) - \sigma_c\sigma_t = 0$$

jos. $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = -\sigma_{bc}$

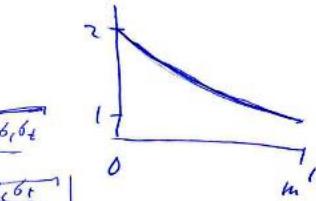
~~$$\sigma_{bc}^2 + (\sigma_c - \sigma_t)2\sigma_{bc} - \sigma_c\sigma_t = 0$$~~

$$\sigma_{bc} = \frac{2(\sigma_c - \sigma_t)}{2 + \sqrt{4(\sigma_c - \sigma_t)^2 + 4\sigma_c\sigma_t}}$$

$$= \frac{2(\sigma_c - \sigma_t)}{2 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{4\sigma_c\sigma_t}{(\sigma_c - \sigma_t)^2}}}$$

$$= \frac{2(\sigma_c - \sigma_t)}{2 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{4\sigma_c\sigma_t}{(\sigma_c - \sigma_t)^2}}} \quad \sigma_t = m\sigma_c$$

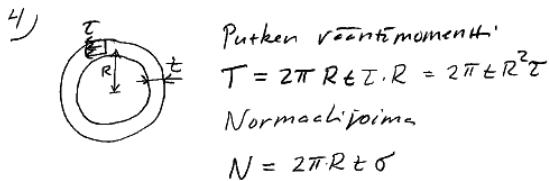
$$\sigma_t = m\sigma_c$$



Homework, exercises – plasticity – yield criteria ...

1. Ohutseinämäistä ympyräputkea käytetään usein plastisten ainemallien parametreiden määrittämiseksi tehtävissä kokeissa. Oletetaan, että putken seinämän paksuus t on hyvin paljon pienempi kuin putken poikkileikkauskseen sädé R , eli $t/R \ll 1$. Putkea kuormitetaan väntömomentilla T ja normaalivoimalla N .

- (a) Mikäli materiaali noudattaa von Misesin myötöehoa $\sqrt{3J_2} = \sigma_y$, jossa σ_y on materiaalin myötöraja. Kirjoita myötöeho väntömomentin T ja normaalivoiman N avulla. J_2 on jännitysmatriisi deviaattorin toinen invariantti $J_2 = \frac{1}{2}\text{tr}(s^2)$.
- (b) Mikä on Loden kulman θ arvo kun kuormituksena on pelkkä (i) väntömomentti tai (ii) normaalivoima (huom: normaalivoiman merkki)?
- (c) Mikäli putkea rasittaa normaalivoima N , joka yksistää aiheuttaa jännitystilan, joka on puolet myötörajasta. Kuinka suuren putken sisäisen ylipaineen se kestää?



$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \tau = \frac{T}{2\pi t R^2} \\ \sigma = \frac{N}{2\pi t R} \end{cases} \quad \underline{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma & \tau & 0 \\ \tau & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \sigma_m = \frac{1}{3}\sigma$$

$$\underline{\underline{\sigma}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3}\sigma & \tau & 0 \\ \tau & -\frac{1}{3}\sigma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{3}\sigma \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J_2 = \frac{1}{2}S_{ij}S_{ji} = \frac{1}{2}S_{ij}S_{ij} = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{4}{9}\sigma^2 + \frac{1}{9}\sigma^2 + \frac{1}{9}\sigma^2 + 2\tau^2\right) = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 + \tau^2$$

$$a) \sqrt{3J_2} = \sqrt{\sigma^2 + 3\tau^2} = \sigma_y$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{N^2}{4\pi^2 t^2 R^2} + 3\frac{T^2}{4\pi^2 t^2 R^4}} = \sigma_y$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{N^2 + 3\left(\frac{T}{R}\right)^2} = \sigma_y 2\pi t R = N_y$$

N_y on normaalivirrma, kun materiaali myötörää ja putkeen rasittaa pelkkä normaalivirrma.

$$b) \theta = \frac{1}{3}\arccos \frac{\sqrt{3}J_2}{2} \frac{J_2}{\sqrt{J_2}}$$

putkeen väntömomentti \Rightarrow periheli τ

$$\Rightarrow J_2 = \tau^2, J_3 = 0 \Rightarrow \theta = 30^\circ$$

periheli normaalivirrma \Rightarrow periheli σ

$$\Rightarrow J_2 = \frac{1}{3}\sigma^2, J_3 = \frac{2}{27}\sigma^3 \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2} \cdot \frac{\frac{2}{27}\sigma^2}{\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{3/2}/6^3} = \frac{\sigma}{18t}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = \frac{1}{3}\arccos 1 \quad \text{ja} \quad \sigma > 0 \Rightarrow \theta = 0^\circ$$

$$\theta = \frac{1}{3}\arccos(-1) \quad \text{ja} \quad \sigma < 0 \Rightarrow \theta = 60^\circ$$

$$\sigma_y \downarrow \frac{p}{\tau} \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow \sigma_y \quad p \cdot 2R = \sigma_y \cdot 2t$$

$$\sigma_y = p \cdot \frac{R}{t}$$

$$\underline{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2}\sigma_y & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & p \frac{R}{t} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_m = \frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{1}{2}\sigma_y + p \frac{R}{t}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}\sigma_y + \frac{1}{3}p \frac{R}{t}$$

$$\underline{\underline{\sigma}} = \begin{pmatrix} \left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{3}\xi\right)\sigma_y - \frac{1}{3}p \frac{R}{t} & & \\ & -\frac{1}{6}\sigma_y - \frac{1}{3}p \frac{R}{t} & \\ & & -\frac{1}{6}\sigma_y - \frac{1}{3}p \frac{R}{t} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sqrt{3J_2} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}S_{ij}S_{ij}} = \sigma_y \quad \text{merkit} \quad p = \xi \sigma_y \frac{t}{R}$$

$$\underline{\underline{\sigma}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3}\xi^2 & & \\ & -\frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{3}\xi & \\ & & -\frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{3}\xi \end{pmatrix} \sigma_y$$

$$\sqrt{3J_2} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}\left[\frac{1}{9}(1-\xi)^2 + \frac{1}{36}(1-2\xi)^2 + \frac{1}{36}(1+2\xi)^2\right]} \sigma_y = \sigma_y$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{1}{6}(1-\xi)^2 + \frac{1}{12}(1-2\xi)^2} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{12}[2-4\xi+2\xi^2+1-4\xi+4\xi^2] = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 6\xi^2 - 8\xi - 9 = 0 \Rightarrow \xi = \frac{2}{3} \pm \sqrt{\frac{25}{18}}$$

Jos putkeen varittaa vektori normaalivirrma

$$N = 2\pi t R \frac{1}{2}\sigma_y = \pi t R \sigma_y$$

suunn. ja Loden alipaineen on

$$p = \left(\frac{2}{3} + \sqrt{\frac{25}{18}}\right) \frac{t}{R} \sigma_y$$

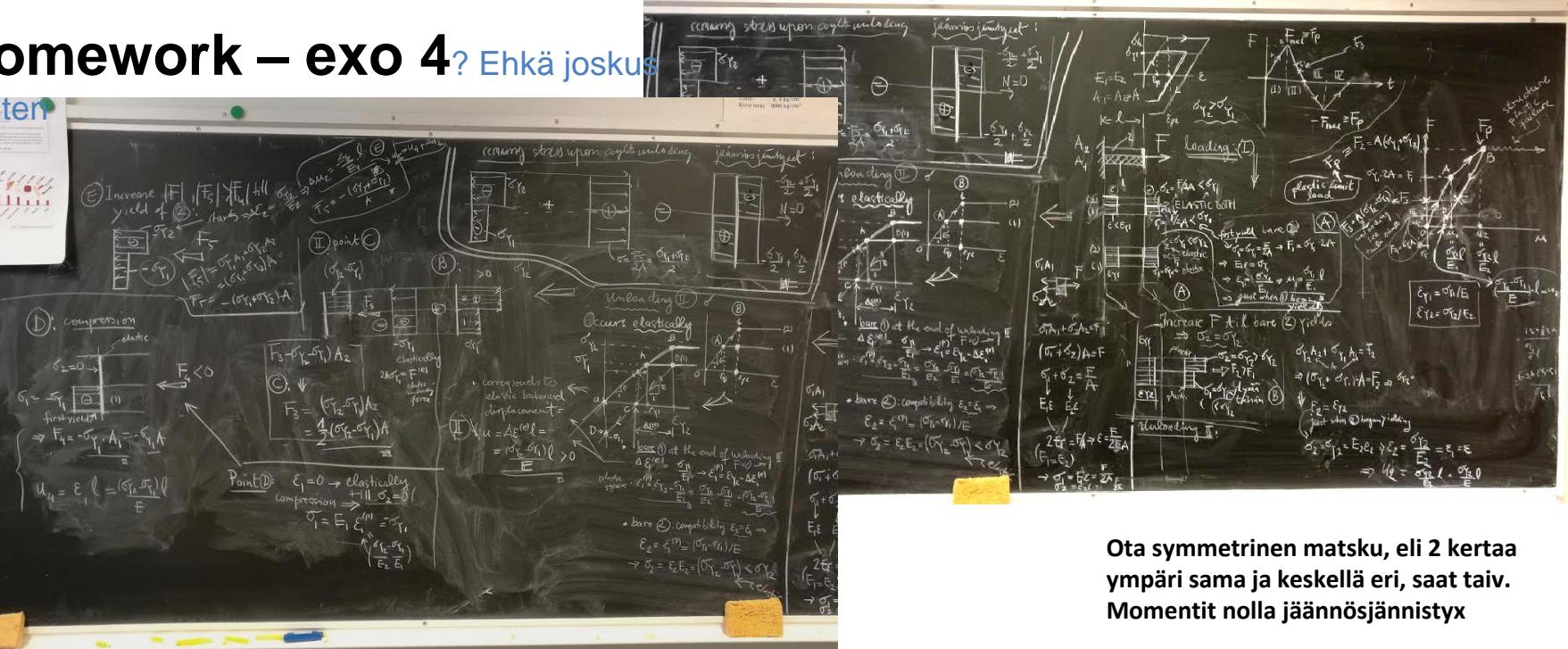
pienin alipaineen varitevaarki

$$p = \left(\frac{2}{3} - \sqrt{\frac{25}{18}}\right) \frac{t}{R} \sigma_y$$

Mikäli putkeen varittainiin punottavat normaalivirrmat, johdetaan tähän jännitystilaan $-\frac{1}{2}\sigma_y$, lasketaan merkit, samoin tapauksessa.

Homework – exo 4? Ehkä joskus

toisten



Ota symmetrinen matsku, eli 2 kertaa ympäri sama ja keskellä eri, saat taiv. Momentit nolla jäännösjännityks

Example – design of filled weld

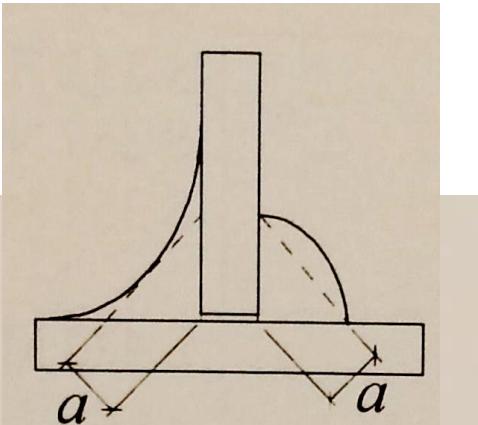
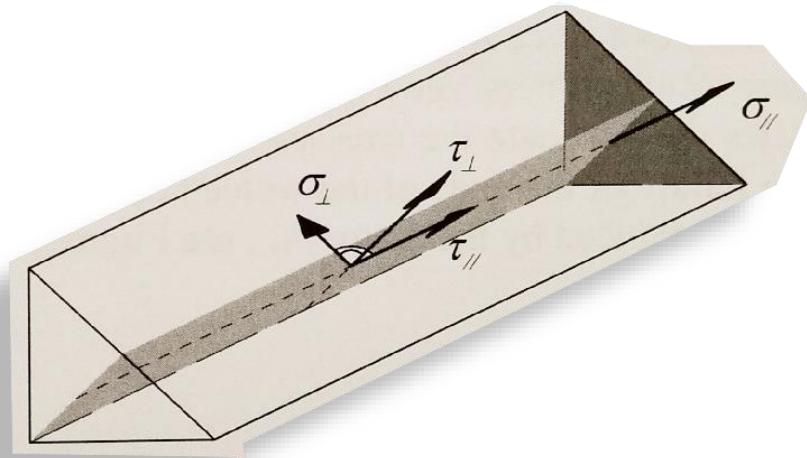


Figure 3.1 Definition of throat thickness a



Stress in critical plane of fillet weld

In the design procedure the internal force on the fillet weld is resolved into components parallel transverse to the critical plane of the weld throat, see Figure 3.2. A uniform stress distribution is assumed on the critical throat section of the weld, leading to the following normal stresses and shear stresses:

- σ_{\perp} the normal stress perpendicular to the critical plane of the throat,
- σ_{\parallel} the normal stress parallel to the axis of the weld, it should be neglected when calculating the design resistance of a fillet weld,
- τ_{\perp} the shear stress (in the critical plane of the throat) perpendicular to the weld axis,
- τ_{\parallel} the shear stress (in the critical plane of the throat) parallel to the weld axis.

2-D plane stress state:

$$\sqrt{\sigma_{xx}^2 + 3\tau_{xy}^2} = \sigma_Y$$

Do you recognise Von Mises?

$$\sqrt{\sigma_{\perp}^2 + 3(\tau_{\perp} + \tau_{\parallel})^2} \leq \frac{f_u}{\beta_w \gamma_{Mw}}$$

and

$$\sigma_{\perp} \leq \frac{f_u}{\gamma_{Mw}}.$$

The resistance of the fillet weld will be sufficient if the

$$\sqrt{\sigma_{\perp}^2 + 3(\tau_{\perp} + \tau_{\parallel})^2} \leq \frac{f_u}{\beta_w \gamma_{htw}}$$

and

$$\sigma_{\perp} \leq \frac{f_u}{\gamma_{htw}}.$$

The correlation factor β_w is summarised in Table 3.1.

prEN 1993-1-8 includes a simplified procedure for calculating the resistance of the fillet weld per unit length independent of the direct

$$f_{weld} = \frac{f_u}{\sqrt{3} \beta_w \gamma_{htw}}$$

Example 4: Kinematic Hardening Plasticity

- Plasticity:

- Yield function:

$$\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}(S_{ij} - \alpha_{ij})(S_{ij} - \alpha_{ij}) - \sigma_y = 0 .$$

- Equivalent plastic strain rate:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}}.$$

- Plastic flow law:

$$\dot{\alpha}_{ij} = \frac{3}{2}(S_{ij} - \alpha_{ij})\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl}/\sigma_y .$$

- Prager-Ziegler (linear) kinematic hardening:

$$\dot{\alpha}_{ij} = \frac{2}{3}h\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}.$$

Examples of hardening rules in Abaqus – how it looks like?



Example 5: Isotropic Hardening Plasticity

- Plasticity:

- Yield function:

$$\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}S_{ij}S_{ij}} - \sigma_y(\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}) = 0 ,$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}S_{ij}S_{ij}} - \sigma_y(\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl}) = 0 , \quad S_{ij} = \sigma_{ij} - \frac{1}{3}\delta_{ij}\sigma_{kk} .$$

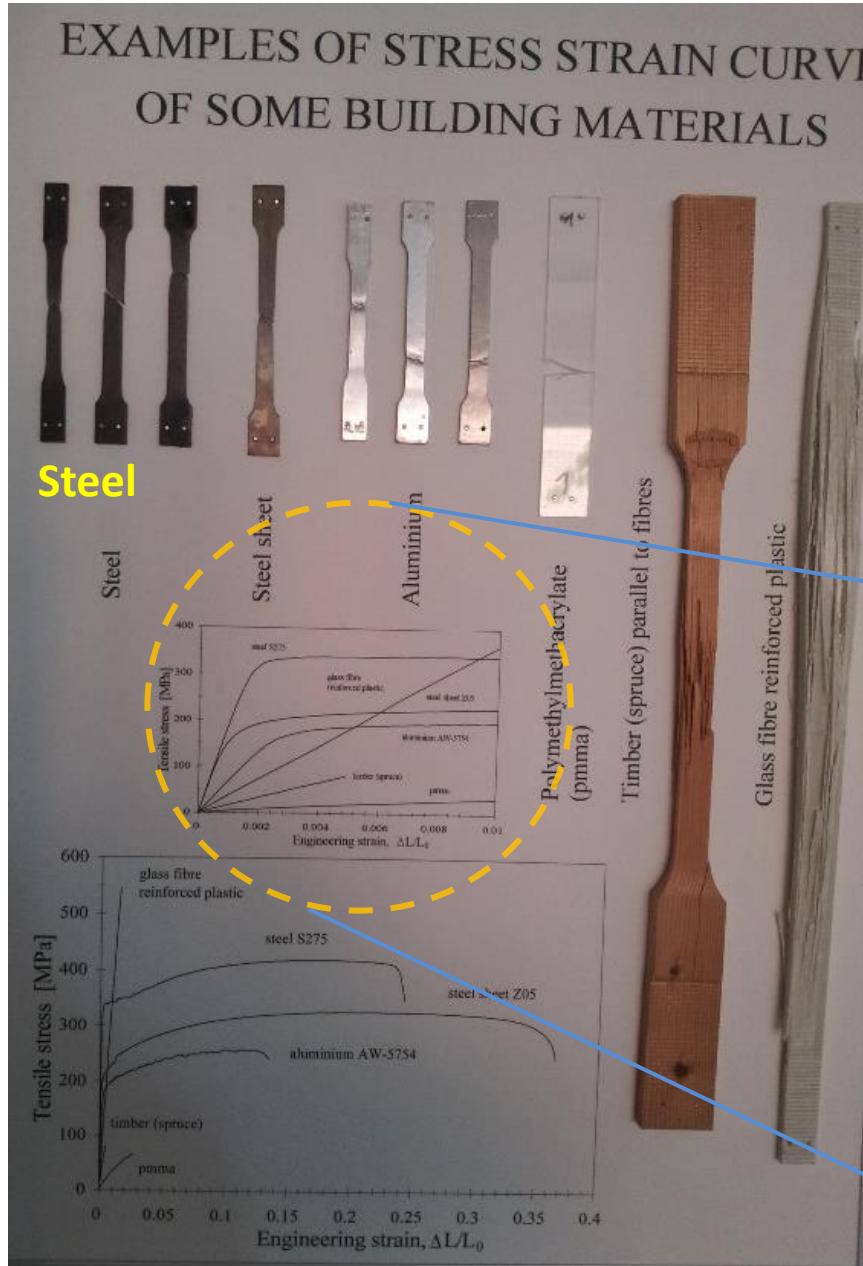
- Equivalent plastic strain:

$$\bar{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \int_0^t \dot{\varepsilon}^{pl} dt, \quad \dot{\varepsilon}^{pl} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl}}.$$

- Plastic flow law:

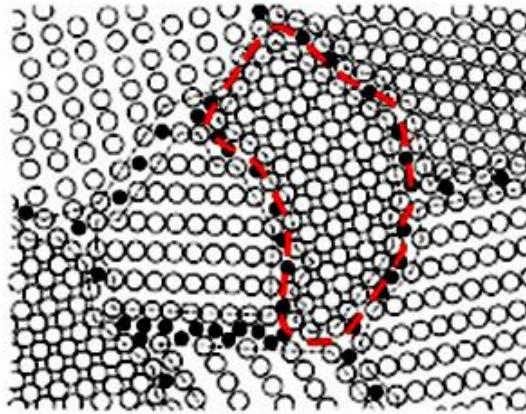
$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^{pl} = \frac{3S_{ij}}{2\sigma_y}\dot{\varepsilon}^{pl}.$$

A word about the tensile test

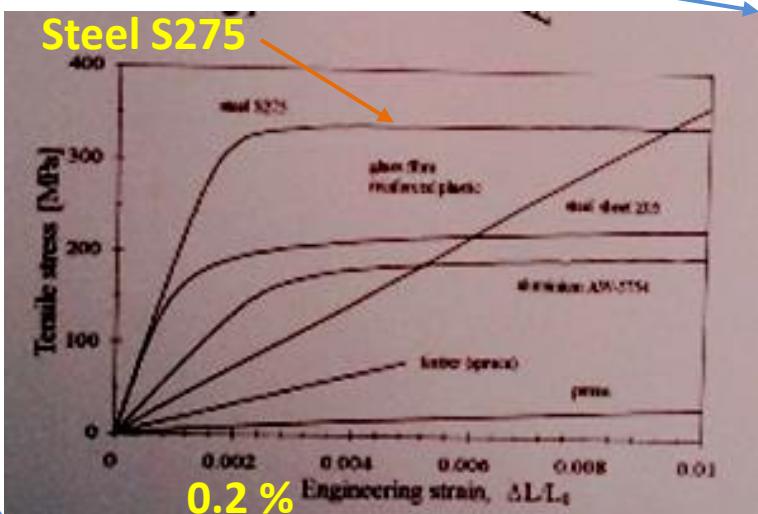


1 grain = 1 cristal + 1 orientation

Schematic view of a polycrystal



Y. Gleiter, Acta Mater. 48 (2000), p. 3



E3.2

Eräässä kontinuumin pisteessä vallitsee jännitystila, jossa jännityskomponentit suhtauvuvat toisiinsa seuraavasti:

$$\tau_{zx}: \tau_{yz}: \tau_{xy}: \sigma_z: \sigma_y: \sigma_x = 1: 2: 3: 4: 5: 6$$

Millä jännityksen σ_x arvolla tapahtuu myötäminen a) Misesin, b) Trescan myötöehdon mukaan, kun aineen myötöraja on $\sigma_m = 240$ MPa?

a) Misesin myötöehdo kolmidimensiosessa jännitystilassa on

$$\sigma_0^2 = \sigma_m^2 / 45 \Rightarrow \sigma_0 = 35.8 \text{ MPa},$$

josta edelleen ratkaisuksi $\sigma_x = 6\sigma_0 = 214.7$ MPa.

b) Trescan myötöehdo kuuluu

$$\max \left\{ \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_1 - \sigma_2|, \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_2 - \sigma_3|, \frac{1}{2} |\sigma_3 - \sigma_1| \right\} - \tau_m = 0$$

Pääjännitykset saadaan jännitysmatriisin ominaisarvoina ts. d

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_x - \sigma & \tau_{xy} & \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{yx} & \sigma_y - \sigma & \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{zx} & \tau_{zy} & \sigma_z - \sigma \end{bmatrix} = 0,$$

mistä saadaan kolmannen asteen yhtälö

$$\sigma^3 - 15\sigma_0\sigma^2 + 60\sigma_0^2\sigma - 67\sigma_0^3 = 0$$

Yhtälön juuret ovat

$$\begin{cases} \sigma_1 = 1.921 \sigma_0 \\ \sigma_2 = 3.730 \sigma_0 \\ \sigma_3 = 9.349 \sigma_0 \end{cases}$$

Trescan ehdosta tulee myötäjännitykseksi σ_0

$$\frac{1}{2}(\sigma_3 - \sigma_1) - \tau_m = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_3 - \sigma_1) - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_m = 0 \Rightarrow \sigma_0 = 32.3 \text{ MPa},$$

mistä saadaan ratkaisuksi $\sigma_x = 6\sigma_0 = 193.9$ MPa.

Exercises – Example - HW

Erikoisaihe

**Taipumien arvointi – plastisessa rajatilassa
Kehät**

Aikaisemmin on tarkasteltu vain sauvarakenteen plastisen rajakuorman määritelmistä tai rajamitotusta. Joissakin tapauksissa on tarpeen tutkia myös rakenteessa syntyviä siirtymäjä. Jos rakenteen käyttökelpoisuus/toimintakelpoisuus riippuu siirtymien suuruudesta, on riittämätöntä tarkastella ainoastaan kuormankantokykyä vaan on otettava huomioon myös siirtymien arvo murtorajatilassa. Niiden tarkka määritelmäinen on suhteellisen työlästä, varsinkin siinä tapauksessa että rakenteen geometrian muutokset siirtymien suuruden takia on otettava huomioon. Tällainen geometrisesti epälineaarinen analyysi voidaan tehdä tietokoneella esim. elementtimenetelmään perustuen.

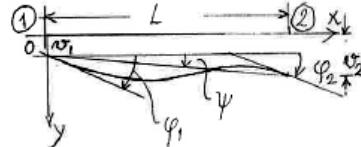
Seuraavassa esitettävä likimääriäinen menetelmä perustuu otaksumiin:

- idealisoituun taivutusmomentti-käyristymä -riippuvuus pätee, jolloin plastisia muodonmuutoksia tapahtuu vain myötönivelissä ja sauvat ovat muutoin kimmisia,
- kuormitus kasvaa monotonisesti yhden parametrin, kuormaparametrin, funktiona nollasta rajakuorman arvoon,
- sen jälkeen kun myötönivel on syntynyt, plastinen rotaatio siinä muuttuu koko ajan samaan suuntaan, ts. $\theta\dot{\theta} \geq 0$,
- siirtymät ovat niin pieniä, että rakenteen geometrian muutokset voidaan jättää huomionottamatta.

Murtorajatilassa n kertaa staattisesti määritämättömässä rakenteessa on $n+1$ myötönnivelit. Taipuma lasketaan tilassa, jolloin viimeinen myötönivel syntyy, ts. siinä ei vielä ole tapahtunut plastista siirtymää. Nivelien syntymisjärjestystä ei yleensä tiedetä ennen kaikkea, vaan on kokeiltava joitakin mahdollisia viimeisen nivelien kohtia ja määritettävä vastaava taipuma. Oikeaa viimeisen nivelin otaksumaa vastaa suurin taipuman arvo, ts. rakenne toimii plastisten nivelkiertymien suhteen mahdollisimman joustavasti. Tarkistus saadaan myös siitä, että nivelkiertymien ja nivelissä vallitsevien täysplastisten momenttien on oltava merkiltään samoja.

Kimmoisen savan muodonmuutokset

Kimmoisen tasajykän saavan sauvanpääkiertymät ovat (ks. RM1:n luenton):



$$\varphi_1 = 2\beta M_1 - \beta M_2 + \alpha_1^0 + \psi = 2\beta(M_1 - MK_1) - \beta(M_2 - MK_2) + \psi$$

$$\varphi_2 = -\beta M_1 + 2\beta M_2 + \alpha_2^0 + \psi = -\beta(M_1 - MK_1) + 2\beta(M_2 - MK_2) + \psi$$

Kaavoissa α_1^0 ja α_2^0 ovat kuormituksen aiheuttamat sauvanpääkiertymät, MK_1 ja MK_2 kuormituksen aiheuttamat kiinnitysmomentit ja ψ on sauvakiertymä

$\psi = (v_2 - v_1)/L$. Sauvavakio β on $\beta = L/6EI$. Kiertymien ja momenttien positiivinen suunta on myötäpäivään.

Myötönivellessä i syntyvä kiertymä lausutaan siitä oikealle ja vasemmalle olevien sauvanpääkiertymien avulla

$$\theta_i = -(\varphi_{i,\text{six}} - \varphi_{i,\text{var}})$$

Kimmoisessa sauvassa yllä oleva kiertymä on jatkuvudeltaan takia nolla samoin kuin myötönivelien juuri syntyy, mutta muutoin se esittää plastista siirtymää. Edelleen on otettava huomioon, että sauvanpäämomentit myötönivelien oikealla ja vasemmalla puolella ovat

$$M_{i,\text{six}} = \text{sign}(\theta_i) M_p$$

$$M_{i,\text{var}} = -\text{sign}(\theta_i) M_p$$

Esimerkki 1. Määritä oheisen palkin taipuma δ pistekuoran kohdalla rajatilassa.

Plastinen rajakuorma:

$$(-M_p)(-\hat{\theta}) + M_p \hat{\theta} + (-M_p)(-\hat{\theta}) = F2/\hat{\theta}$$

$$\text{Saadaan } F_p = 3M_p/\hat{\theta}.$$

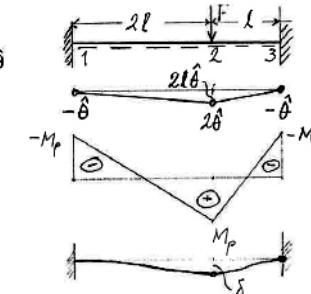
Kimmoiset sauvanpääkiertymät:

$$\varphi_{12} = -4\beta M_p + 2\beta M_p + \psi = -2\beta M_p + \psi$$

$$\varphi_{21} = 2\beta M_p - 4\beta M_p + \psi = -2\beta M_p + \psi$$

$$\varphi_{23} = 2\beta M_p - \beta M_p - 2\psi = \beta M_p - 2\psi$$

$$\varphi_{32} = -\beta M_p + 2\beta M_p - 2\psi = \beta M_p - 2\psi$$



Yhtälöissä on $\beta = l/6EI$ ja $\psi = \delta/2l$. Kuormitustermit ovat nollia, koska solmupisteiden välillä ei ole kuormaa.

Nivelkiertymät ovat:

$$\theta_1 = -\varphi_{12} = 2\beta M_p - \psi$$

$$\theta_2 = -(\varphi_{23} - \varphi_{21}) = -3\beta M_p + 3\psi$$

$$\theta_3 = \varphi_{32} = \beta M_p - 2\psi$$

Otaksumaan alaksi, että niveli syntyy viimeiseksi solmuun 1. Tällöin ehdosta $\theta_1 = 0$ saadaan $\psi = 2\beta M_p$. Nivelkiertymille θ_2 ja θ_3 , seuraavat silloin arvot $\theta_2 = 3\beta M_p$ ja $\theta_3 = -3\beta M_p$, joita ovat merkiltään oikeat. Taipuman arvoksi tulee $\delta = 4\beta M_p l = 2M_p l^2 / 3EI$.

Seuraavaksi otaksutaan viimeisen nivelin syntynä solmuun 2. Ehdosta $\theta_2 = 0$ seuraa $\psi = \beta M_p$ ja edelleen nivelkiertymät $\theta_1 = \beta M_p$ ja $\theta_3 = -\beta M_p$, joista edellinen on merkiltään väärä ts. ei vastaa murtomekanismin merkkiä. Taipuman arvo on $\delta = 2\beta M_p l = M_p l^2 / 3EI$, joka on vain puolet aikaisemmin saadusta.

Kolmas mahdollisuus on otaksua viimeisen nivelin syntynä solmuun 3. Ehdosta $\theta_3 = 0$ seuraa $\psi = \beta M_p / 2$ ja edelleen nivelkiertymät $\theta_1 = 3\beta M_p / 2$ ja $\theta_2 = -3\beta M_p / 2$, jotka ovat molemmat merkiltään väärä verrattuna murtomekanismiin. Taipuman arvo on vain neljännes ensimmäisessä kohdassa saadusta.

Voidaan siis päätellä, että niveli syntyy viimeiseksi solmuun 1 ja että solmuun 2 taipuma rajatilassa on $\delta = 4\beta M_p l = 2M_p l^2 / 3EI$.

Esimerkki 2. Määritä oheisen kehän solmun 2 (tai 4) vaakasiirtymä δ rajatilassa.

Plastinen rajakuorma:

$$(-M_p)(-\hat{\theta}) + M_p 2\hat{\theta} + (-M_p)(-2\hat{\theta}) + M_p \hat{\theta} = 2F/l\hat{\theta}$$

Saadaan $F_p = 3M_p/l$. Taivutusmomentti $M_2=0$ ratkaistaan esim. palkkimekanismin 2-3-4 avulla.

Kimmoiset sauvanpääkiertymät:

$$\varphi_{12} = -2\beta M_p + \psi$$

$$\varphi_{21} = \beta M_p + \psi$$

$$\varphi_{23} = \beta M_p + \tilde{\psi}$$

$$\varphi_{32} = -2\beta M_p + \tilde{\psi}$$

$$\varphi_{34} = 2\beta M_p - \beta M_p - \tilde{\psi} = \beta M_p - \tilde{\psi}$$

$$\varphi_{43} = -\beta M_p + 2\beta M_p - \tilde{\psi} = \beta M_p - \tilde{\psi}$$

$$\varphi_{45} = -2\beta M_p + \beta M_p + \psi = -\beta M_p + \psi$$

$$\varphi_{54} = \beta M_p - 2\beta M_p + \psi = -\beta M_p + \psi$$

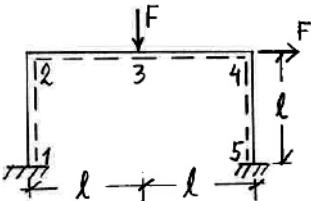
Yhtälöissä on $\beta = l/6EI$, $\psi = \delta/l$ ja $\tilde{\psi} = v_3/l$. Kuormitustermit ovat nollia, koska solmupisteiden välillä ei ole kuormaa.

Nivelkiertymät ovat:

$$\theta_1 = -\varphi_{12} = 2\beta M_p - \psi$$

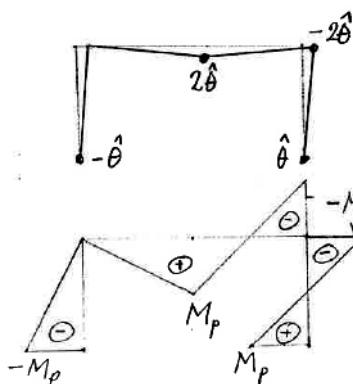
$$\theta_2 = -(\varphi_{23} - \varphi_{21}) = \psi - \tilde{\psi} = 0$$

$$\theta_3 = -(\varphi_{34} - \varphi_{32}) = -3\beta M_p + 2\tilde{\psi}$$



$$\theta_4 = -(\varphi_{45} - \varphi_{43}) = 2\beta M_p - \psi - \tilde{\psi}$$

$$\theta_5 = \varphi_{54} = -\beta M_p + \psi$$



Koska murtomekanismissa ei ole plastista nivelästä solmussa 2, on $\tilde{\psi} = v_3/l = \psi = \delta/l$.

a) Otaksutaan, että nivel syntyy viimeiseksi solmuun 1. Tällöin $\theta_1 = 0$, koska saava on jääkästi kiinnitetty 1:ssä. Tästä ehdosta saadaan $\psi = 2\beta M_p$. Nivelkiertymille θ_3 , θ_4 ja θ_5 seuraavat silloin arvot $\theta_3 = \beta M_p$, $\theta_4 = -2\beta M_p$, ja $\theta_5 = \beta M_p$, jotka ovat merkiltään oikeat ts. vastaavat murtomekanismin merkkejä. Vaakasiirtymän arvoksi tulee $\delta = 2\beta M_p l = M_p l^2 / 3EI$.

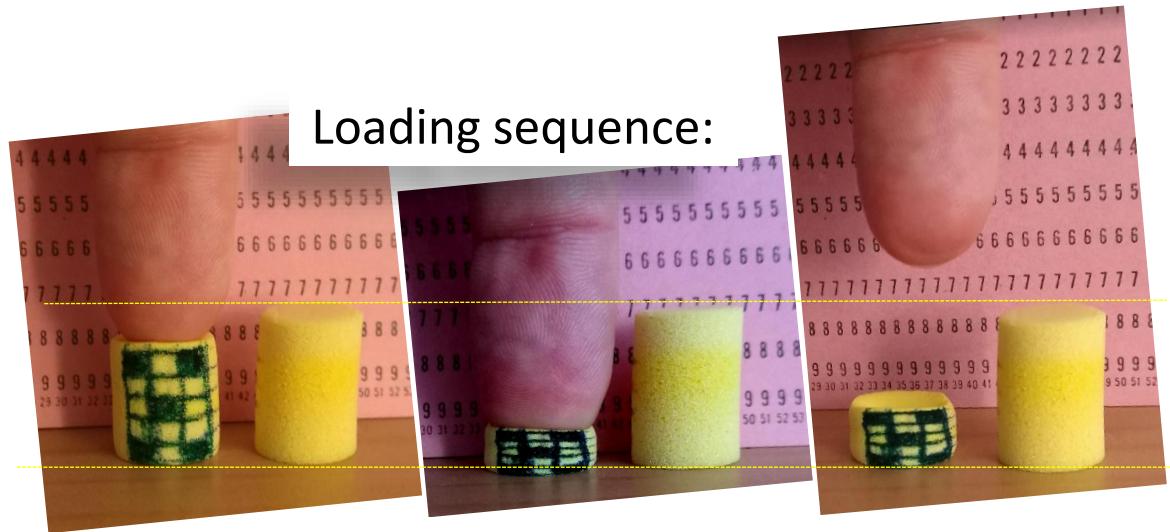
b) Seuraavaksi otaksutaan viimeisen nivelen syntyvän solmuun 3. Ehdosta $\theta_3 = 0$ seuraa $\psi = 3\beta M_p / 2$ ja edelleen nivelkiertymät $\theta_1 > 0$, $\theta_4 < 0$ ja $\theta_5 > 0$, joista ensimmäinen on merkiltään väärä ts. ei vastaa murtomekanismin merkkiä. Siirtymän arvo on kolme neljäsosaa aikaisemmin saadusta.

c) Otaksuttaessa viimeisen nivelen syntyvän solmuun 4 saadaan ehdosta $\theta_4 = 0$ seuraa $\psi = \beta M_p$, ja edelleen nivelkiertymät $\theta_1 = \beta M_p$, ja $\theta_3 = -\beta M_p$, jotka ovat molemmat merkiltään väärä verrattuna murtomekanismiin. Siirtymän arvo on vain puolet a)-kohdassa saadusta.

Viimeisen myötönvelen otaksuminen solmuun 5 tuottaa c)-kohdan mukaisen tuloksen. Voidaan siis päätellä, että nivel syntyy viimeiseksi solmuun 1 ja että solmun 2 (ja 4) vaakasiirtymä rajatilassa on $\delta = 2\beta M_p l = M_p l^2 / 3EI$.

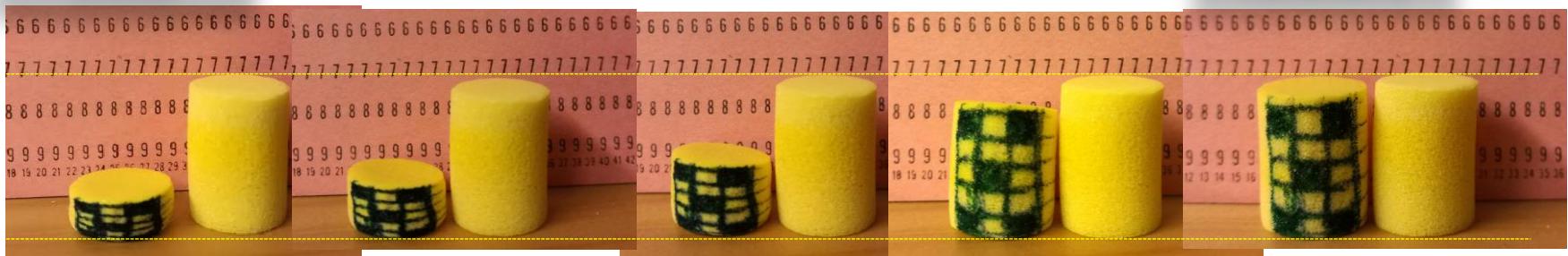
Viscoelasticity

Loading sequence:



Initial

Full recovery

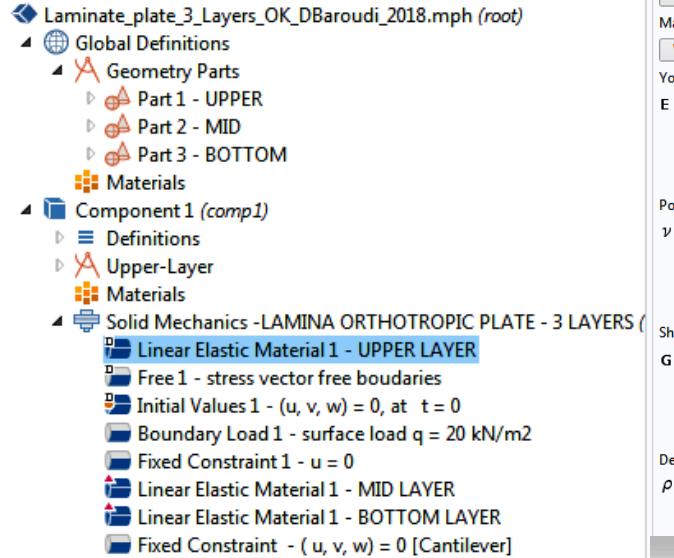


0 min

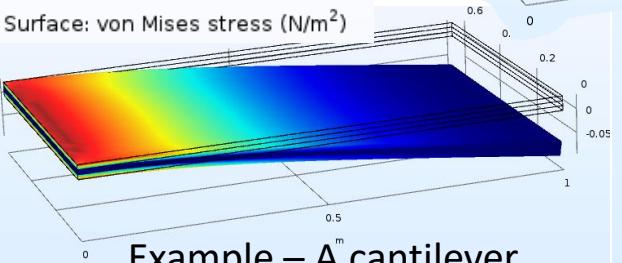
40 min

Multilayered orthotropic lami

Example – A cantilever plate

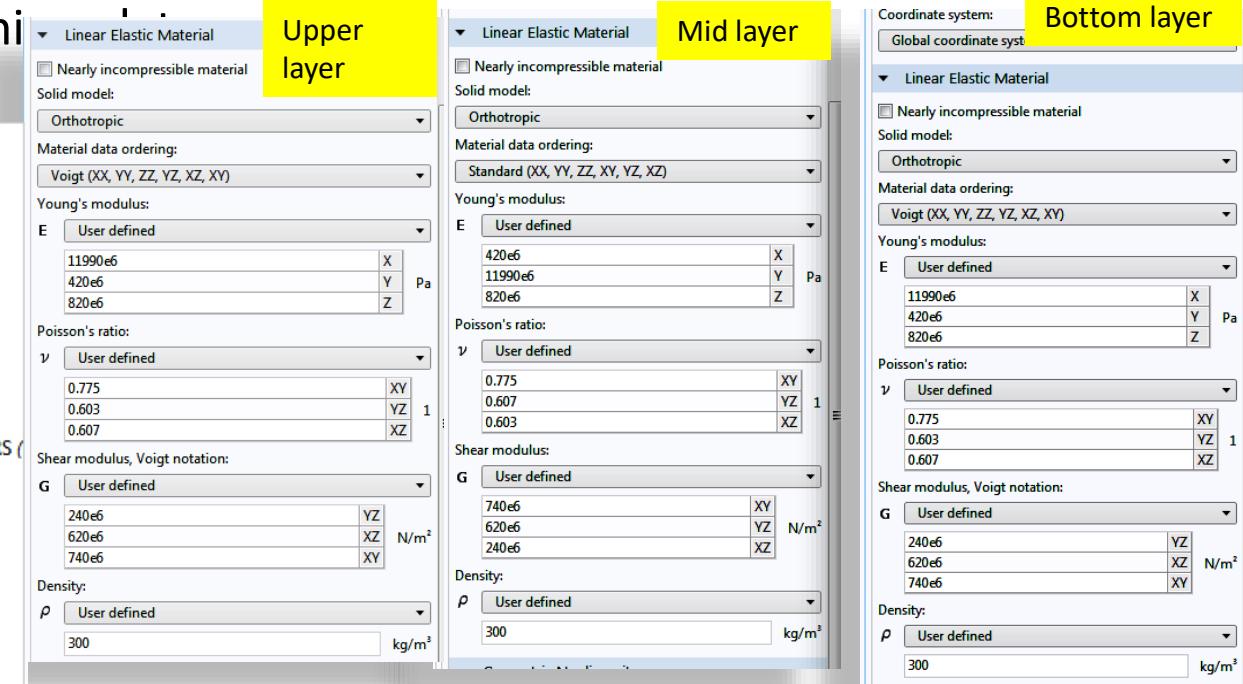


FEA Example using
Comsol



Here in FEA, I used 3D-solids elements. So I used 3D-elasticity and not plate theory. (It was a bit ‘impossible’ to have, in Comsol, layered plates bounded together! At least for me.)

Laminate_plate_3_Layers_OK_DBaroudi_2018.mph



NB, here I did the FEA for a cantilever laminate plate, you should now update to the boundary conditions of the homework.

