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# CIV-E4080

# Material Modelling

# in Civil Engineering D

Period V, 2024

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# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

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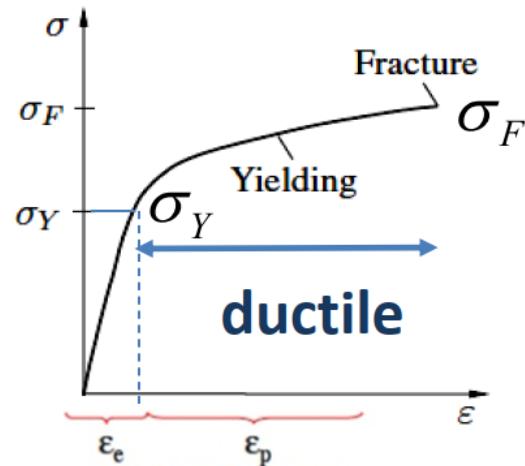
## Contents

1. *Plastic deformation mechanisms*
2. *Experimental observations*
3. *Plasticity models*
4. *Yield criteria*
5. *Hardening rules*
6. *Software (Abaqus) demonstration*

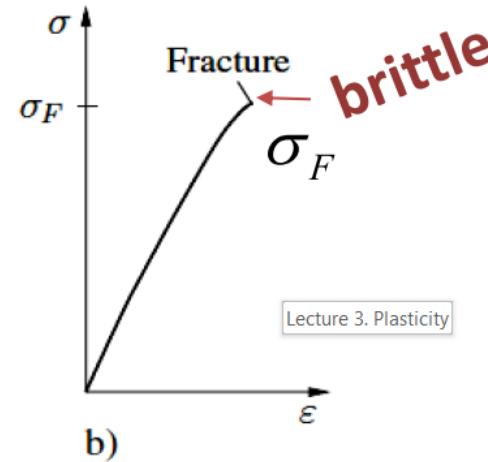
# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Ductile vs Brittle material

### ductile failure - *yield*



### brittle failure - *fracture*



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

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

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

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

# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

**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

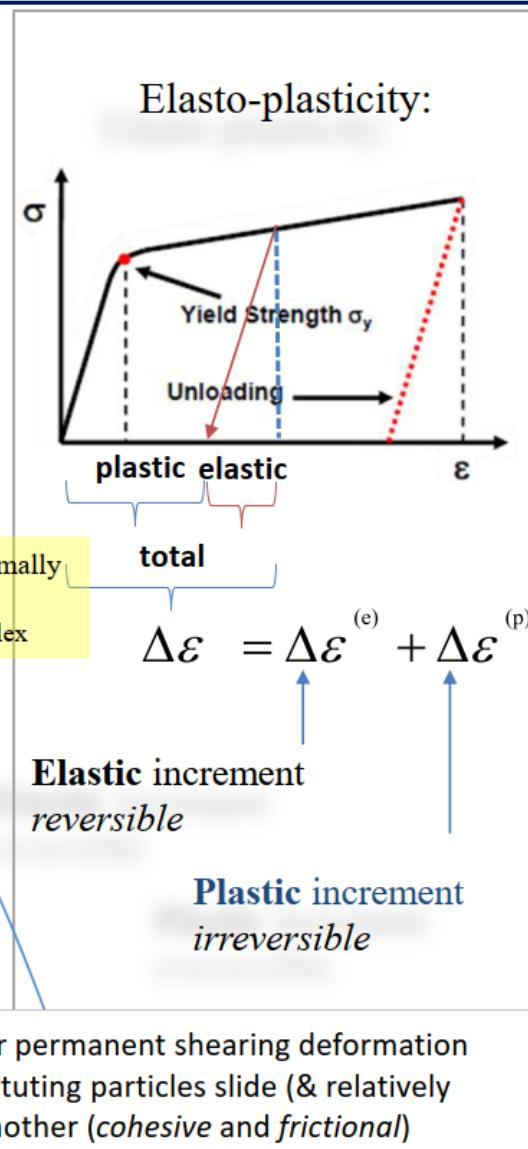
$$T < T_{melting} / 4$$

...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)

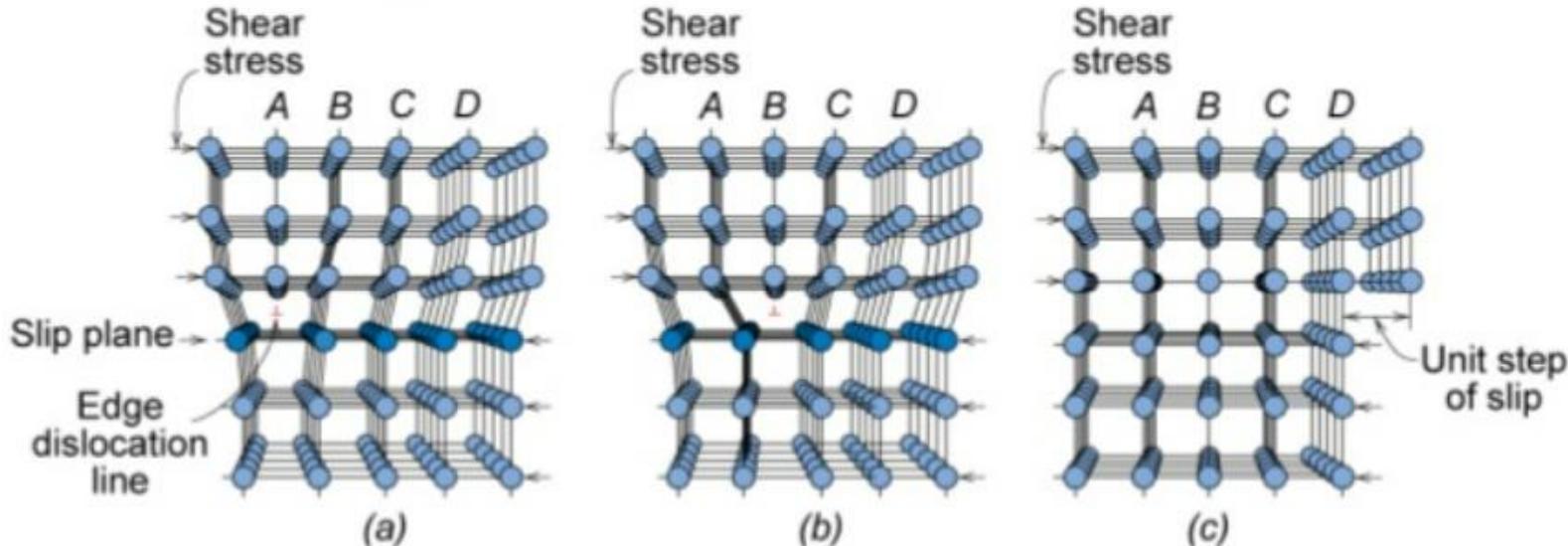


# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Dislocation Motion

Dislocation motion & plastic deformation

- Metals - plastic deformation occurs by **slip** – an edge dislocation (extra half-plane of atoms) slides over adjacent plane half-planes of atoms.



- If dislocations can't move, plastic deformation doesn't occur!

Adapted from Fig. 7.1,  
Callister & Rethwisch 8e.

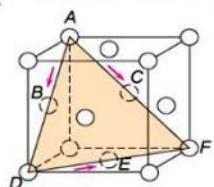
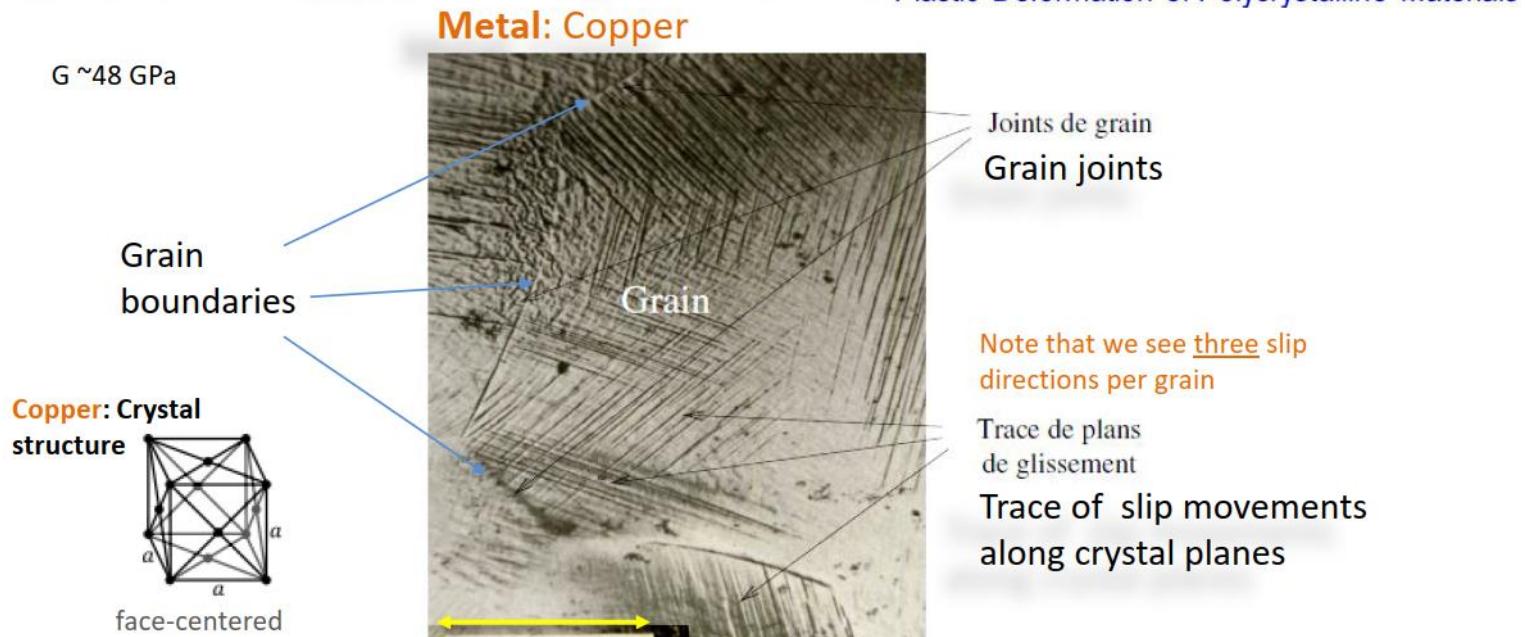
Chapter 7 - 4



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

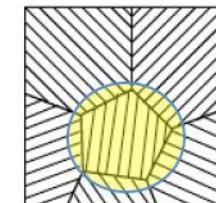
Illustration of slip planes in a grain of a metal (a monocrystal)

Plastic Deformation of Polycrystalline Materials



□ 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

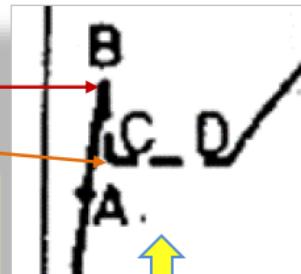
# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Monotonic loading

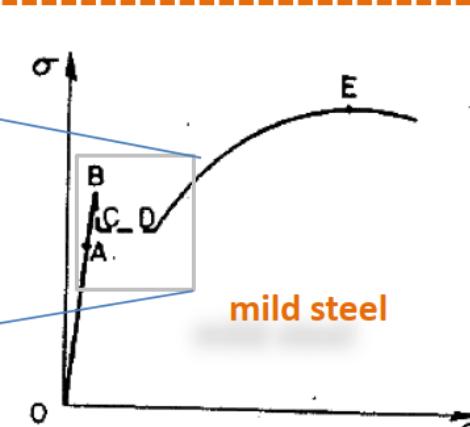
Upper yield stress

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



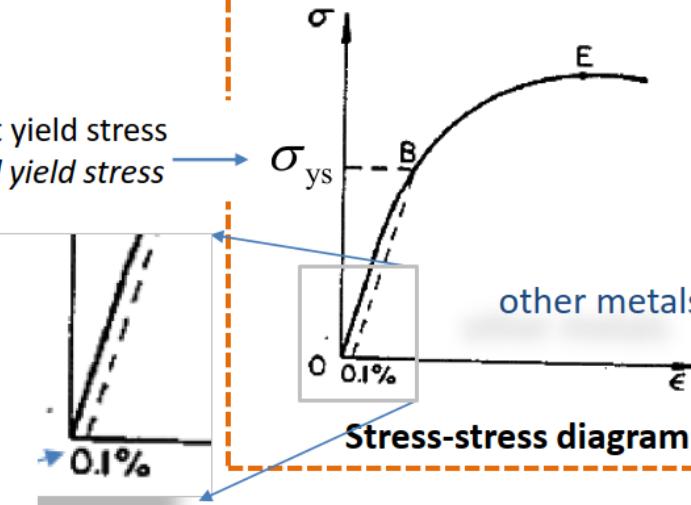
Behavior in the flat region CD is called **plastic flow**



Stress-stress diagram

Permanent strain  
upon unloading  
0.1%

offset yield stress  
Initial yield stress



Stress-stress diagram

# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Loading and unloading

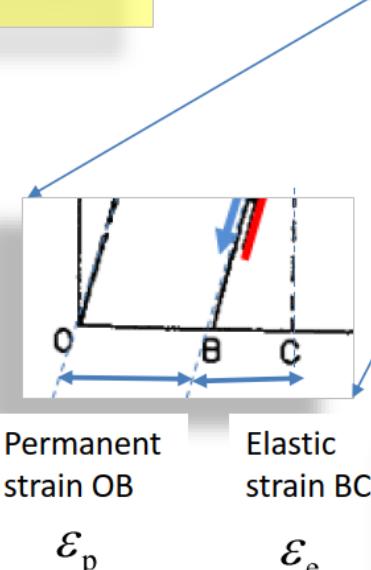
**Loading history:** assume the test specimen is loaded monotonically to some specific value beyond the initial yield point and then completely unloaded

- Loading history dependence (or Load path dependence)

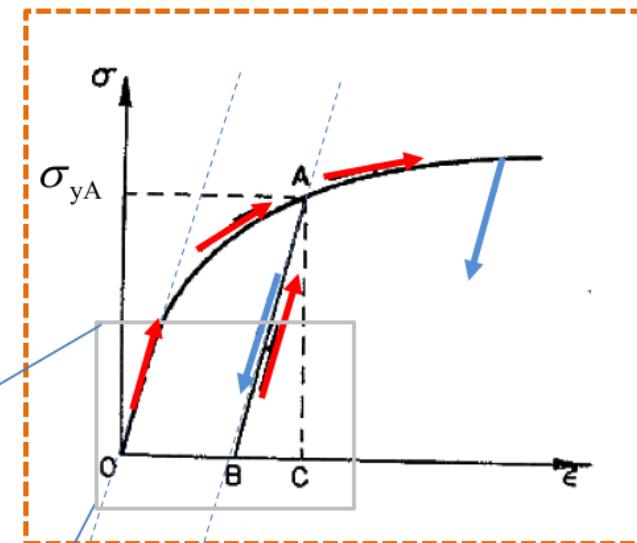
- In plasticity, because of path dependency of the behavior, the constitutive law for strain plastic is known only for strain increments

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

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



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



Parallels ; the unloading occurs elastically

$\sigma_{yA}$  - 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**

# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

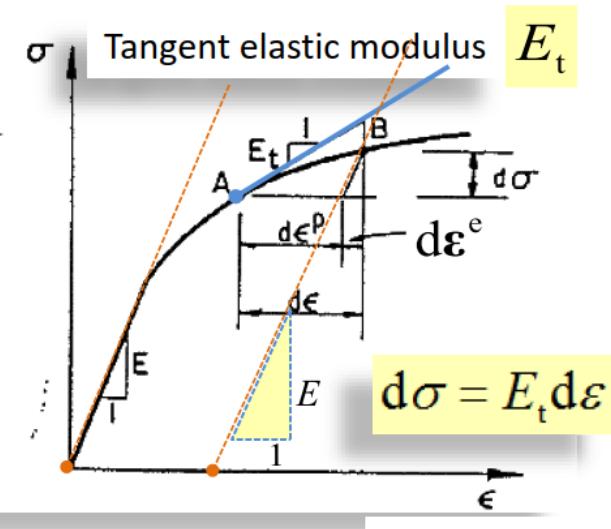
## Tangent- and plastic modulus

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**.

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



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

Tangent elastic modulus:  $E_t$ ,

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

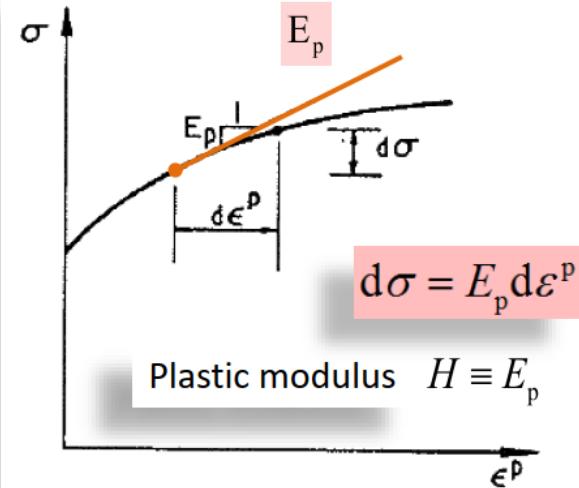
Plastic modulus:

$$E_p, \quad d\sigma = E_p d\epsilon^p$$

The relation between the three moduli:

Show that it is true!

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



$$d\sigma = E_p d\epsilon^p$$

$$\text{Plastic modulus } H \equiv E_p$$

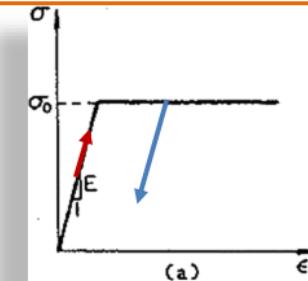
# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Elastic-Perfectly Plastic Model

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

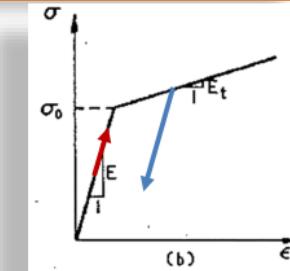
Total strain:  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon^e + \varepsilon^p$

Strain increments:  $d\varepsilon = d\varepsilon_e + d\varepsilon_p$



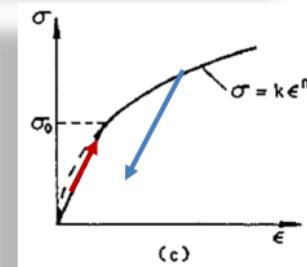
## Elastic-Linear Work-hardening model

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



## Elastic-Exponential Hardening model

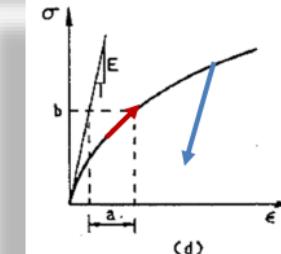
$$\sigma = \begin{cases} E\varepsilon, & \sigma \leq \sigma_0 \\ k\varepsilon^n, & \sigma > \sigma_0 \end{cases}$$



## Ramberg-Osgood model

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

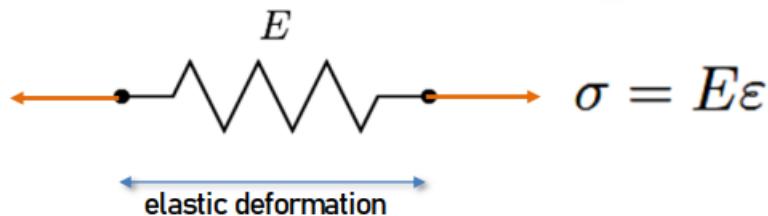
$a, b, n, b, k, K, E_t, \lambda$  – describe the hardening behavior of the material.



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Basic rheological models for plasticity

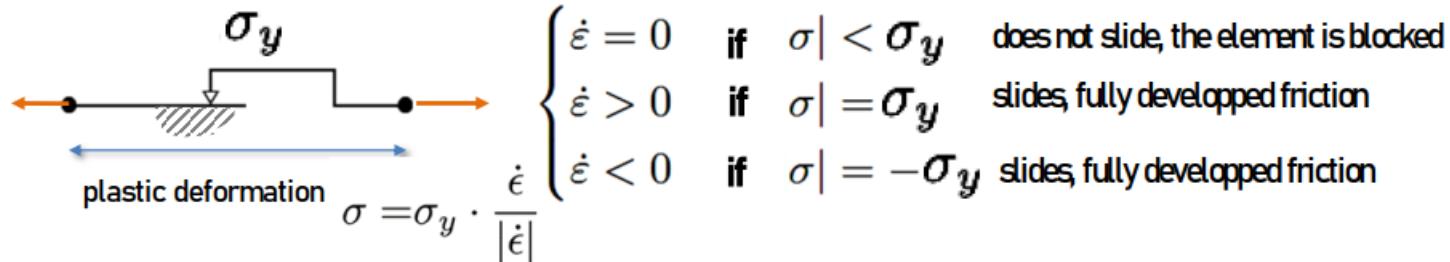
### Hookean element for elasticity



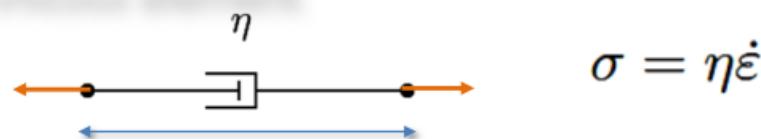
Various plasticity and visco-plasticity material behaviours can be captured combining these basic rheological models

### Friction element for plasticity

In the basic rheological friction model, the Coulomb's sliding friction coefficient  $\mu$  corresponds to the threshold stress value at yield; the yield stress  $\sigma_y$ ,



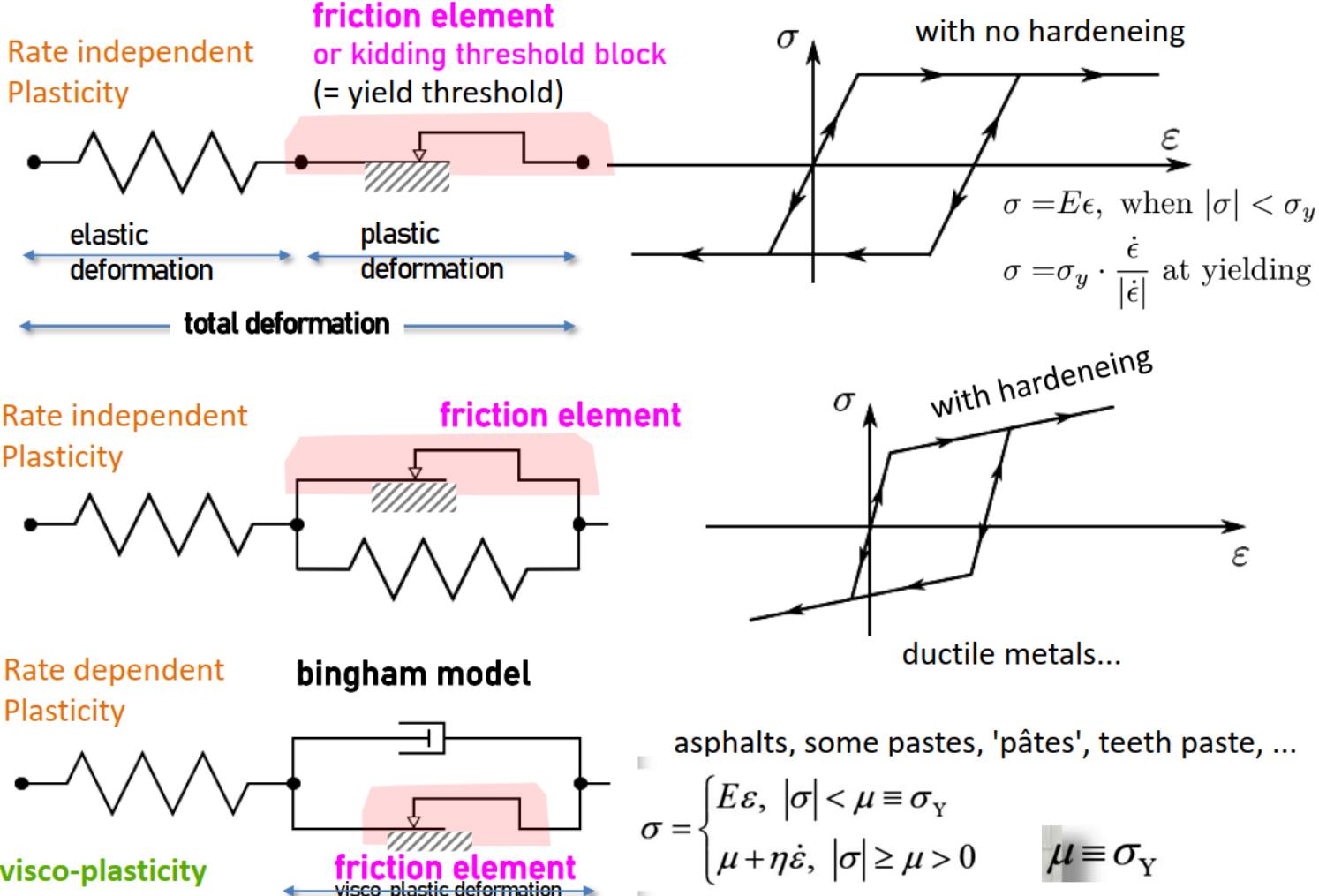
### Viscous element



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

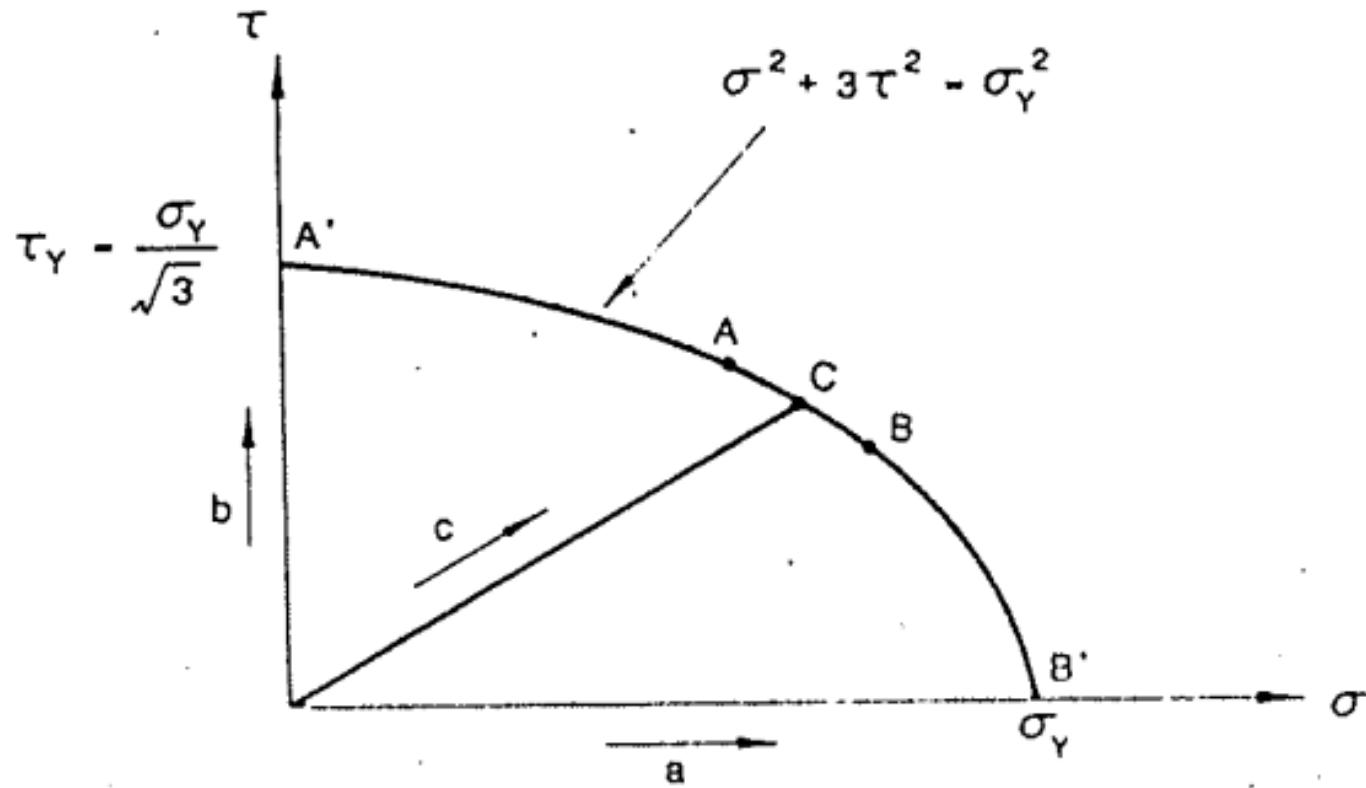
## Rheological models for plasticity & visco-plasticity

Simple rheological models



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Combined loading



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Von Mises and Tresca yield Criteria

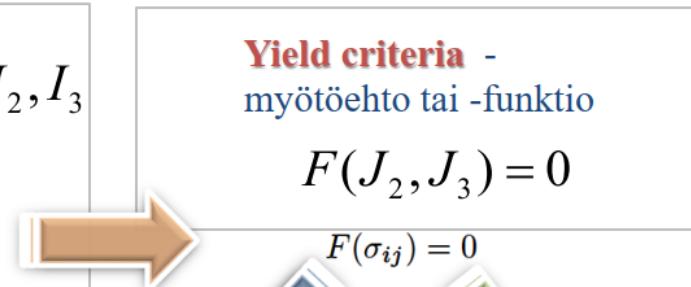
- **Isotropic material:** the *yield criterion depends only on the stress invariants or equivalently on invariants of deviatoric stresses* and  $I_1, I_2, I_3$
- Hydrostatic stress causes for many materials, especially metals, a purely elastic volumetric strains (plastic volumetric strains = 0, **incompressible, zero dilatancy**) →  $I_1$  does not influence yielding (for not very high pressures)

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

The plastic volume change is called "dilatancy"



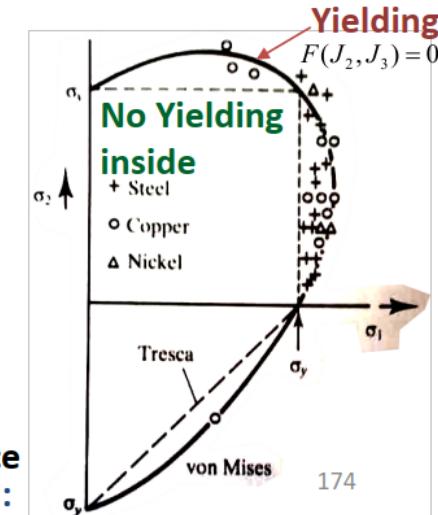
- Distortional energy — Von Mises yield condition
- Maximum shear stress — TRESCA yield condition
- Maximum Principal stress — RANKINE (1820–1872), LAMÉ (1795–1870) & NAVIER (1785–1836)
- Maximum Principal strain — SAINT-VENANT (1797–1886) & BACH (1889)
- Maximum strain energy — BELTRAMI (1835–1900)
- 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



**VON MISES**  
yield criterion

**TRESCA**  
yield criterion

**Experimental evidence**  
**Von-Mises and Tresca:**

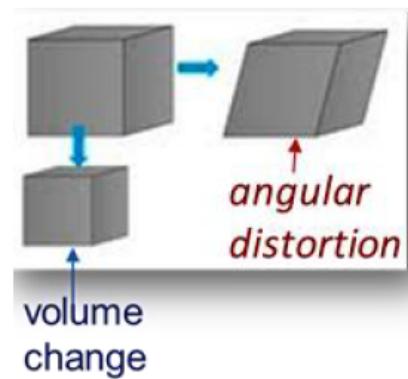


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# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## 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  $\equiv \sigma_e$

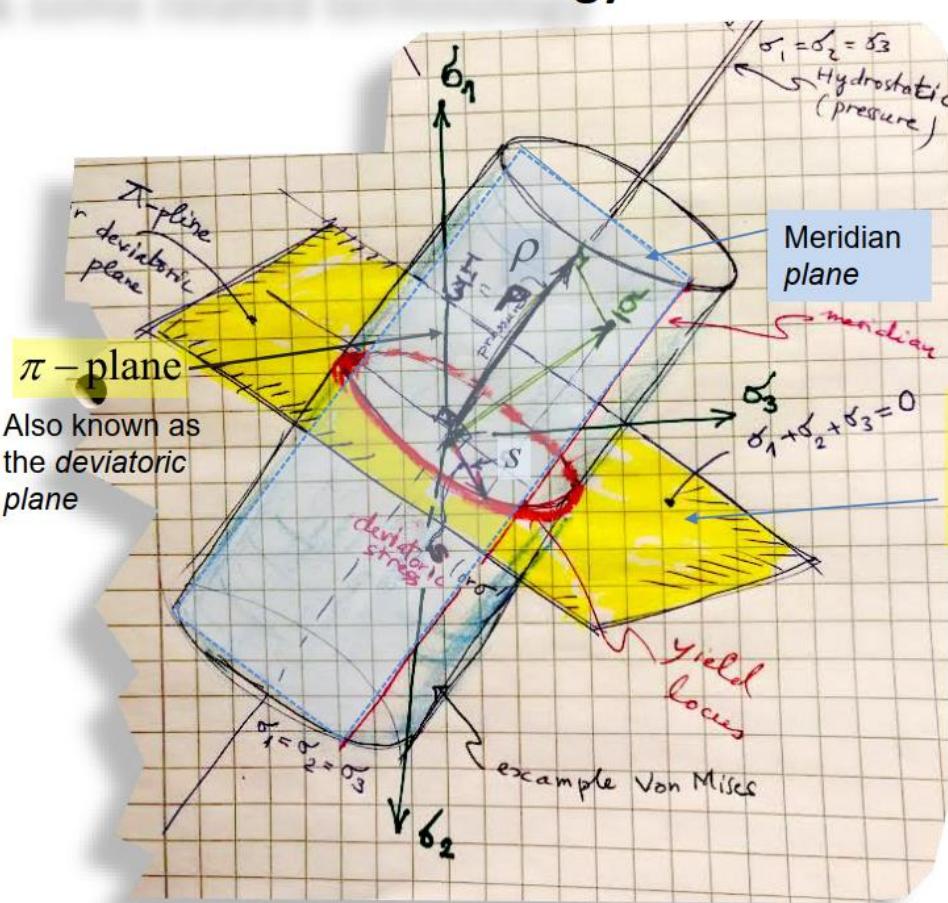
$$\Rightarrow \sigma_e = \sigma_Y \quad \text{yielding criteria}$$

The material yields when **von Mises equivalent stress**  $\sigma_e$  **exceeds** the uniaxial material yield strength

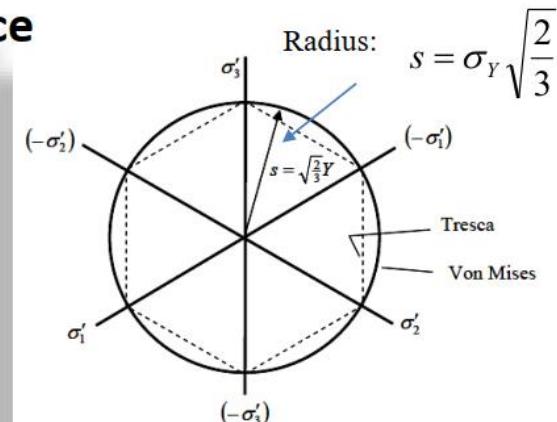
$$\sigma_e = \sigma_Y$$

# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Graphical representation of the failure surface & some related terminology



Yield surface in three dimensional stress-space



The Von Mises criterion in the  $\pi$ -plane

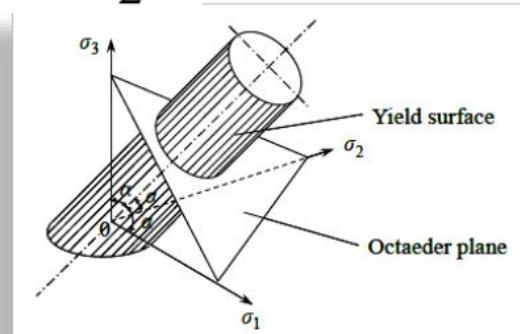
$$\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3 = 0$$

$$(I_1 = 0)$$

perpendicular to the hydrostatic axis

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

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



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Tresca Yield Criterion – Maximum Shear Stress Criterion

**Yield criterion:** plastic flow (yield) occurs if the maximum shear stress  $\tau_{\max}$  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)

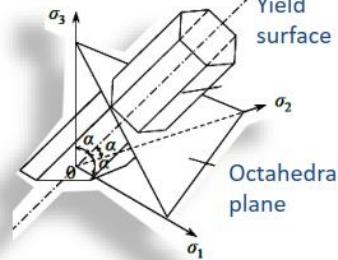
$$F = \tau_{\max} - k < 0 \implies \text{elastic (no yielding)}$$

$$F = \tau_{\max} - k = 0 \implies \text{onset of yielding}$$

$k$  - yield stress in pure shear according to Tresca yielding criterion

At yielding in uniaxial tension test:

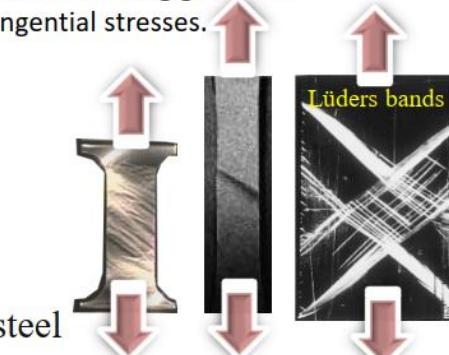
$$\text{maximum shear stress} = \frac{1}{2}|\sigma_1 - \sigma_2| = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_y = \tau_y$$



$$\tau_{\max} = \tau_y$$

Lüders bands  
Slip planes - dislocations

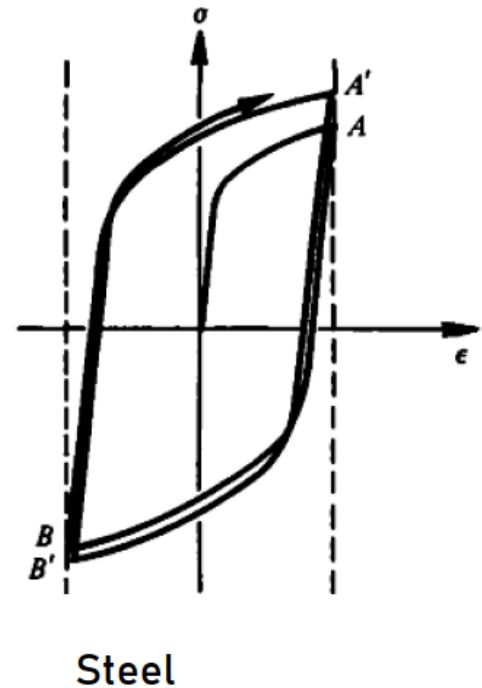
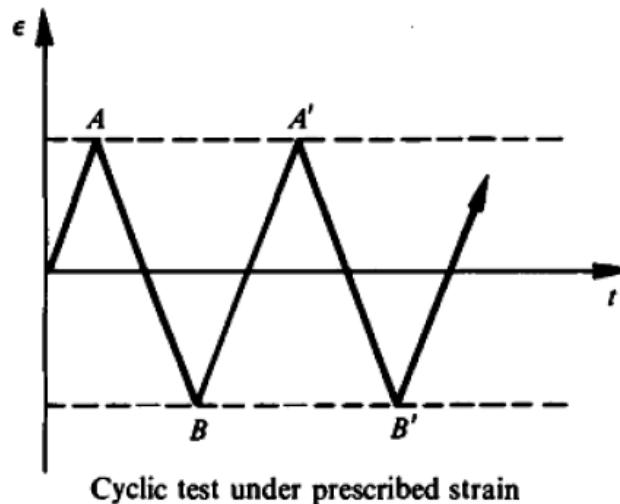
In metals, plastic deformation results from slip; inter-crystalline shearing governed by tangential stresses.



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Cyclic loading

Cyclic test under  
prescribed strain  
history



ref: Chaboche *et al.*

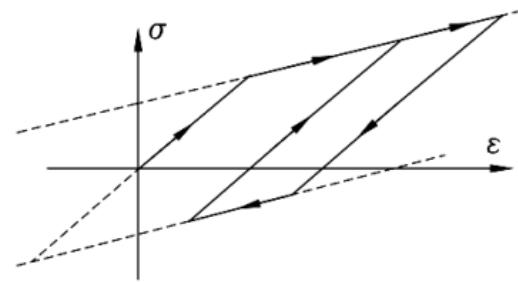
# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Reversed loading

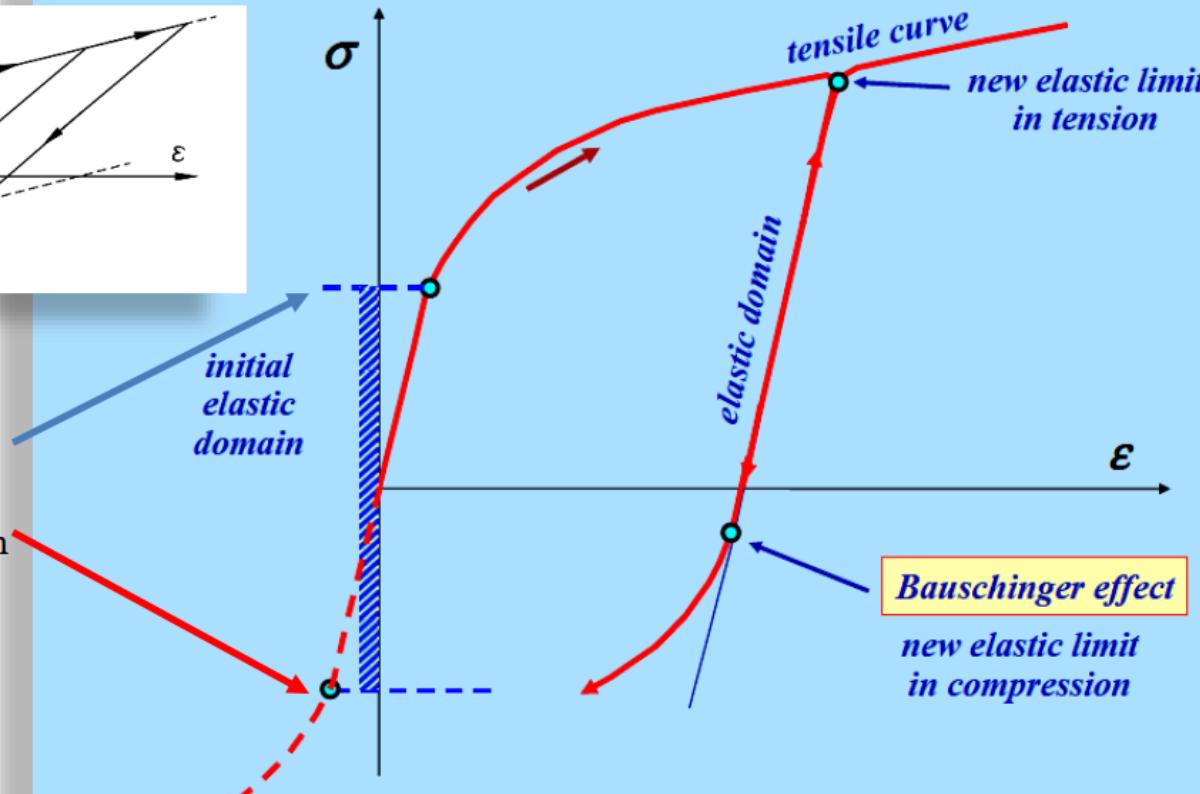
The yield stress in **compression** is **not the same** as the yield strength in **tension** after reloading the specimen (cyclic loading)

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

Bauschinger effects



Initially, for a virgin metallic sample, the **compression** and **tension** yield strength are **the same**



Ref: This figure is based on Chaboche slide from:

ATHENS – Course MP06 – 16 – 20 March 2009

# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## The Bauschinger Effect

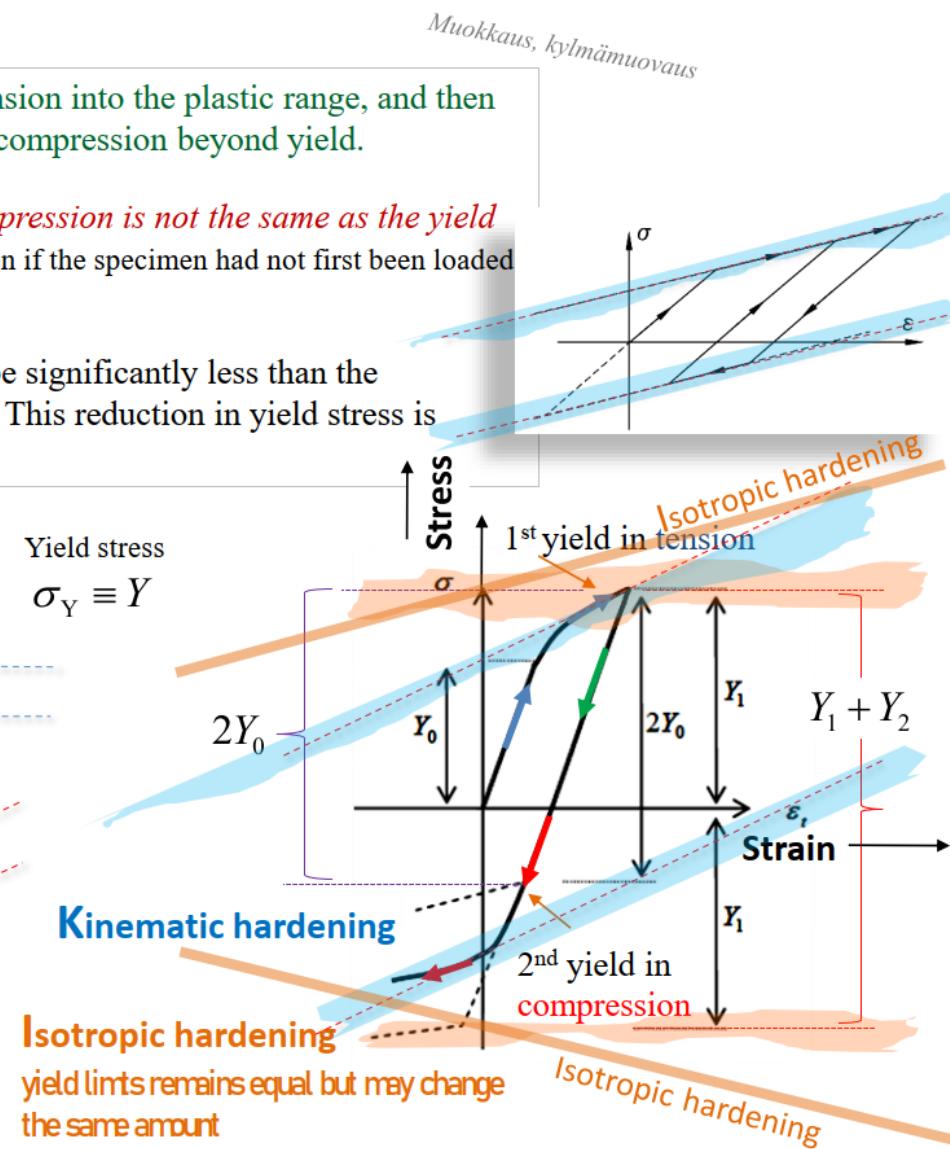
**Test:** Load a virgin sample first in tension into the plastic range, and then unload it and continue to load it into compression beyond yield.

**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



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## 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:

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

plastic work

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

$$\kappa = \epsilon_p$$

accumulated effective or equivalent plastic strain

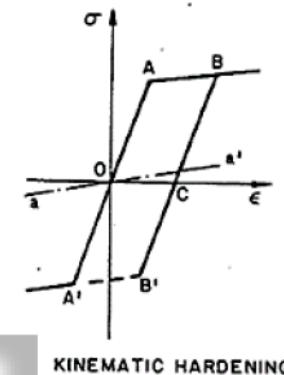
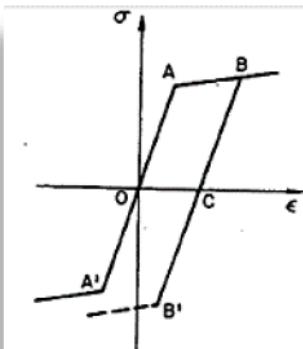
$$\epsilon_p = \int \sqrt{d\epsilon_{ij}^p d\epsilon_{ij}^p} > 0$$

Effective plastic strain increment:

$$|d\epsilon_p| = \sqrt{d\epsilon_{ij}^p d\epsilon_{ij}^p} \geq 0$$

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  $\kappa$



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

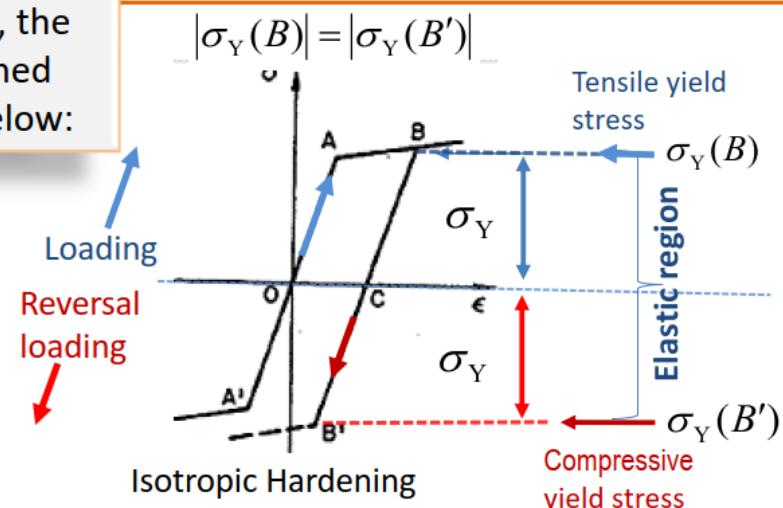
## Hardening rules (models)

For a material under **reversal** or cyclic loading, the subsequent *yield stress*  $\sigma$  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*.

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

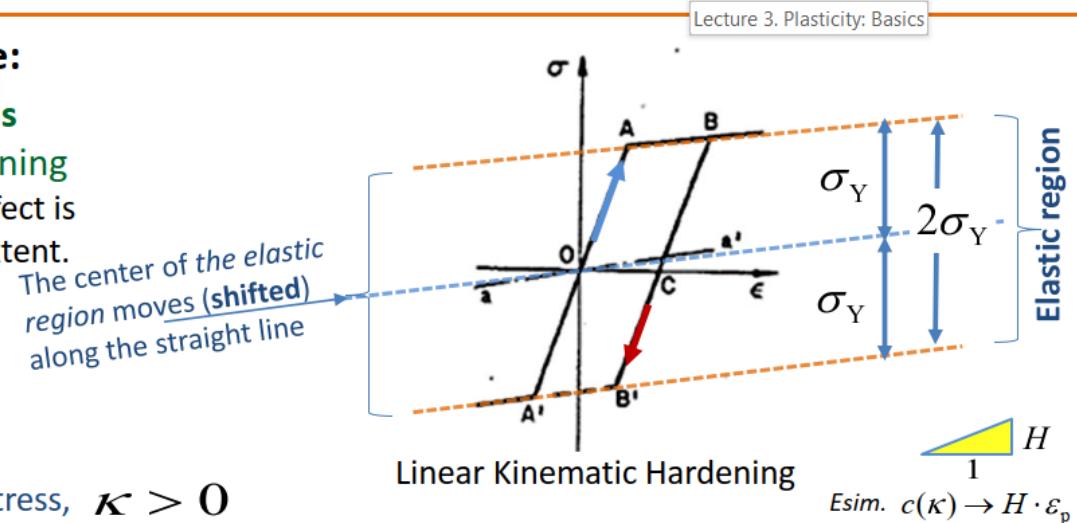


### Kinematic Hardening rule:

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

#### Hardening rule:

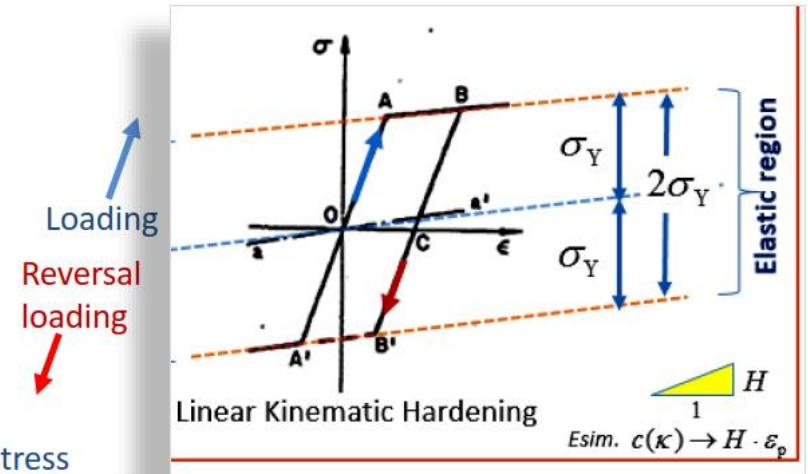
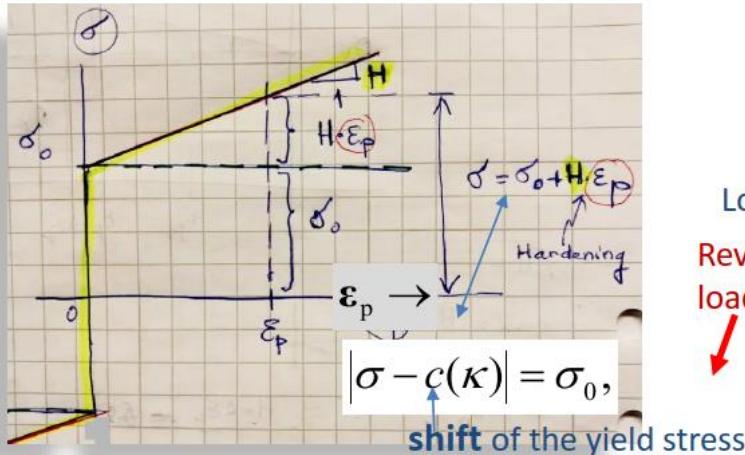
$$|\sigma - c(\kappa)| = \sigma_0, \quad \text{shift of the yield stress, } \kappa > 0$$



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Hardening rules (models)

Kinematic Hardening rule:



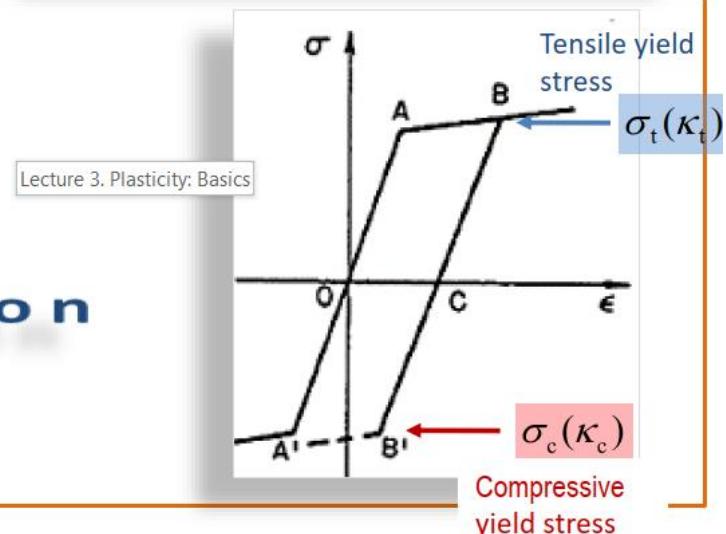
Independent Hardening rule:

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

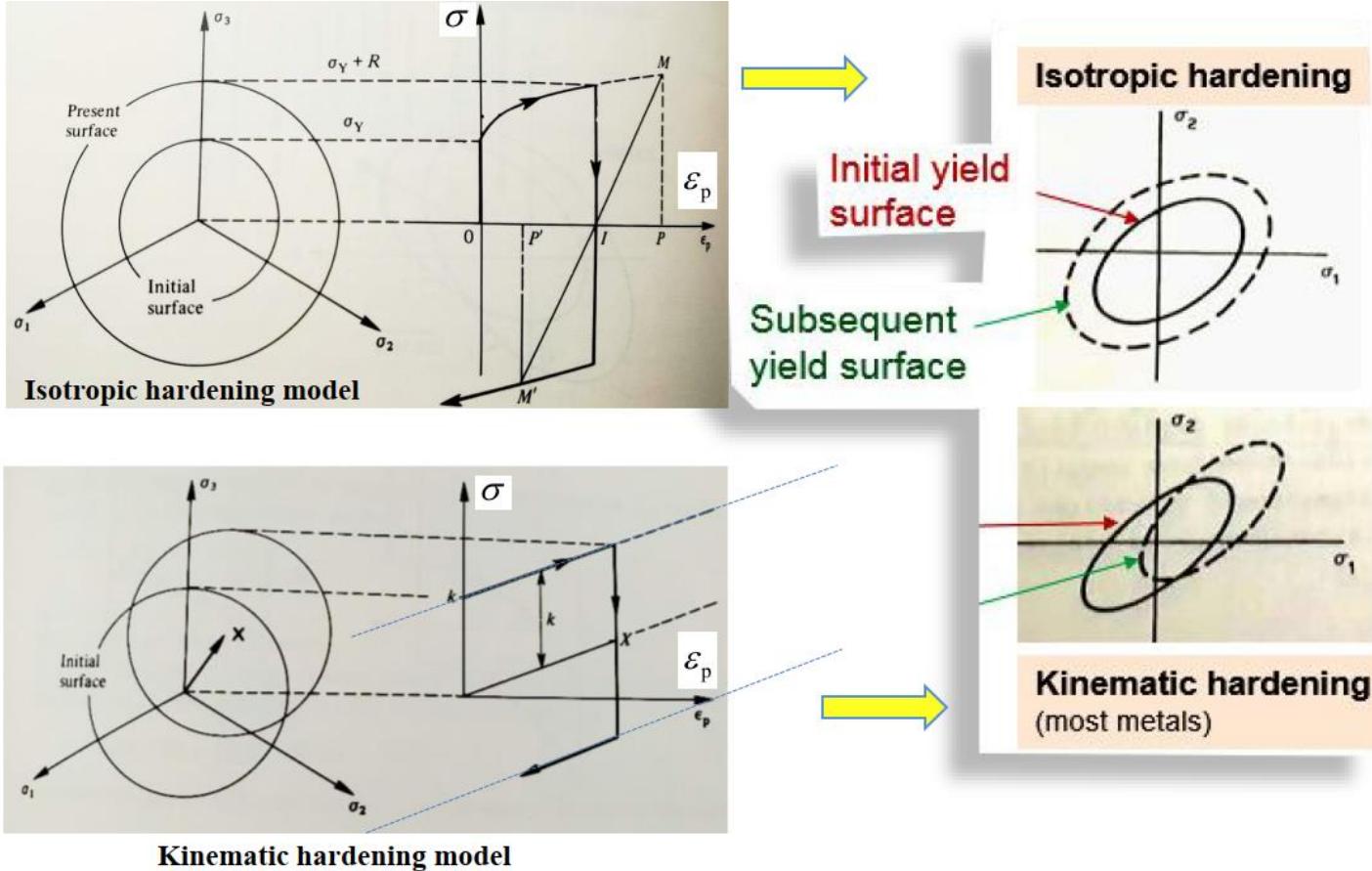
Hardening rule:

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

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



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics



Some 1-D empirical models for work (also called strain-) hardening phenomena:

These models are relationship  
between the stress and the amount  
of plastic strain

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma &= K\epsilon_p^n \\ \sigma &= \sigma_y + K\epsilon_p^n \quad n \sim 0.2 \dots 0.5 \\ \sigma &= \sigma_y + K(\epsilon_0 + \epsilon_p)^n\end{aligned}$$

# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## Mixed hardening rule

A subsequent yield surface:

$$F(\sigma_{ij}, \varepsilon_{ij}^p; k(\varepsilon_{ij}^p)) = F(\sigma_{ij} - \alpha_{ij}) - k^2(\bar{\varepsilon}^p) = 0,$$

$\alpha_{ij}, k^2$  - hardening parameters

**F** determines the shape

effective plastic strain

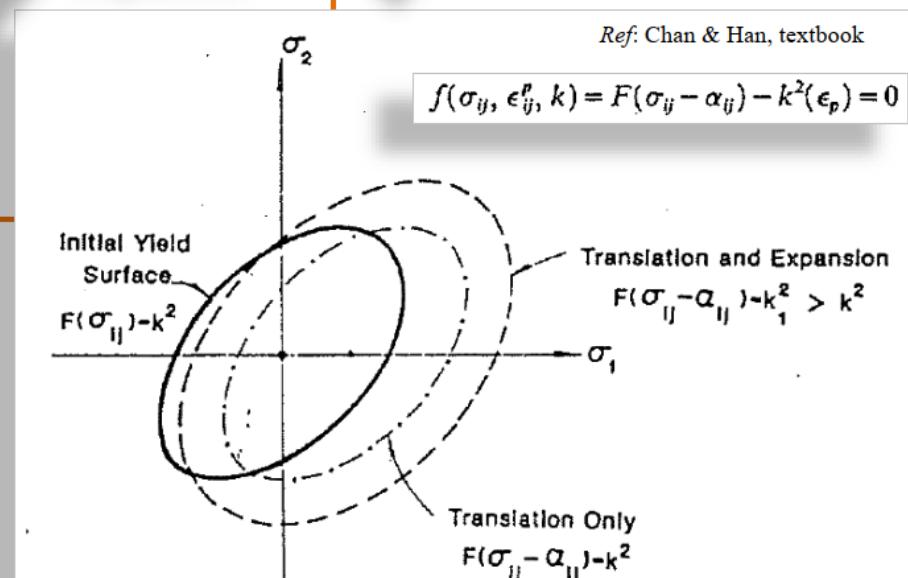
Shift or (translation)  
Kinematic hardening

Determines the size as function of cumulated plastic strain (expansion)

Isotropic hardening

Mixed hardening rule allows to model different degrees of Bauschinger effect by adjusting the two hardening parameters  $\alpha_{ij}$  &  $k^2$

**Mixed hardening** is a result of a combination of *kinematic* and *isotropic* hardening (Hodge, 1957)

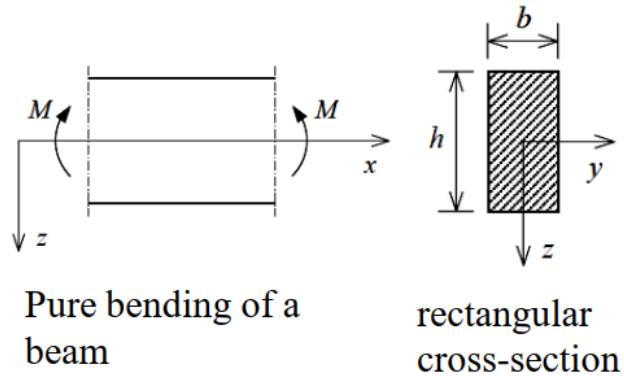
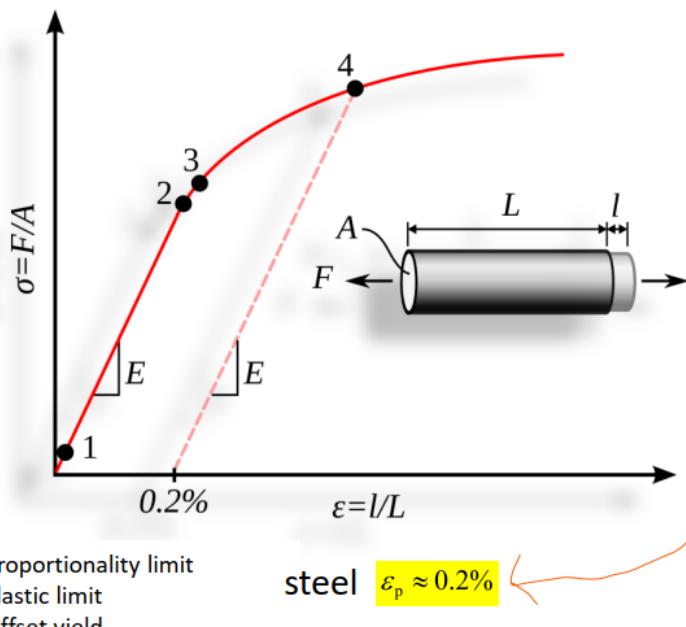


# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

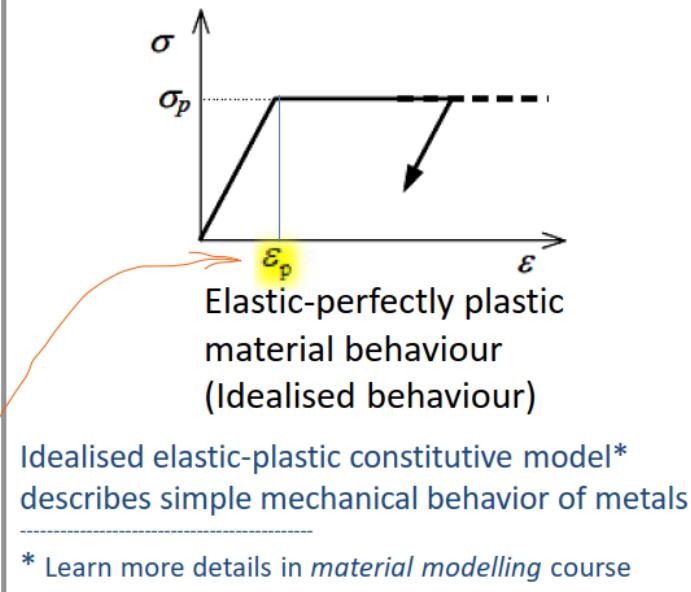
## The elastic-plastic calculation

### The moment-curvature relation for the symmetric rectangular cross-section

**Task:** Derive the relation between the bending moment  $M$  and the resulting curvature  $\kappa(M)$  when the loading increases monotonically.



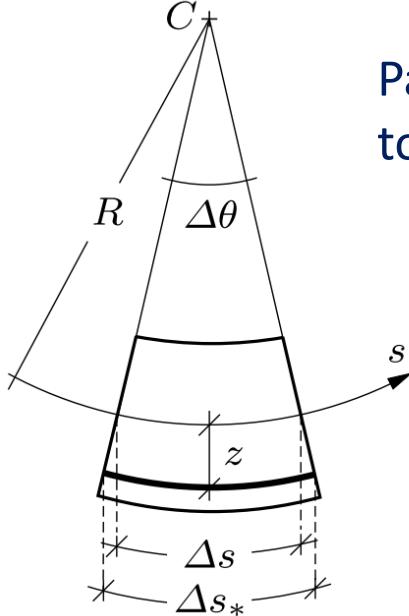
Pure bending of a rectangular cross-section



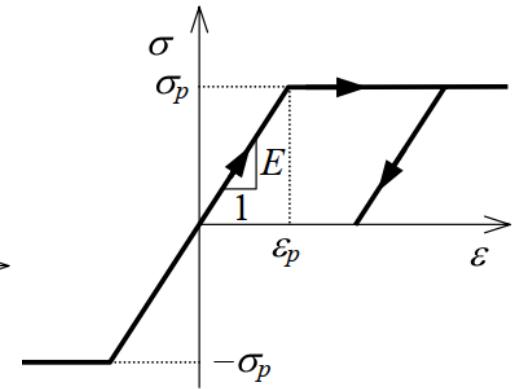
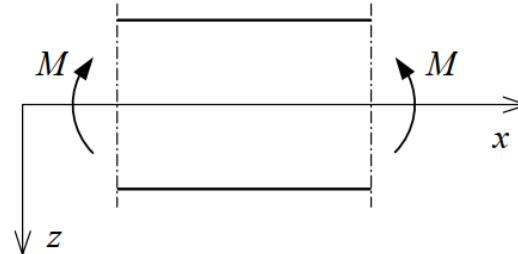
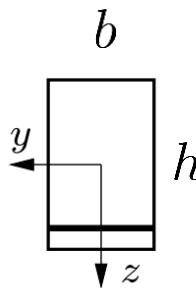
N.B. it is assumed that stability effects come after the profile reaches full plastic moment

# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## The moment-curvature relation for the rectangular cross-section



Part of a beam with rectangular cross section subjected to bending, with ideal-plastic material behaviour.



$$\text{Normal strain: } \varepsilon = \frac{\Delta s_* - \Delta s}{\Delta s} = kz$$

$$\text{Normal stress: } \sigma = E\varepsilon = E kz$$

$$I = \int_A z^2 dA = \frac{bh^3}{12}$$

$$\text{Bending moment: } M = \int_A z\sigma dA = k \int_A Ez^2 dA = EIk \quad \text{-- if } E \text{ is constant}$$

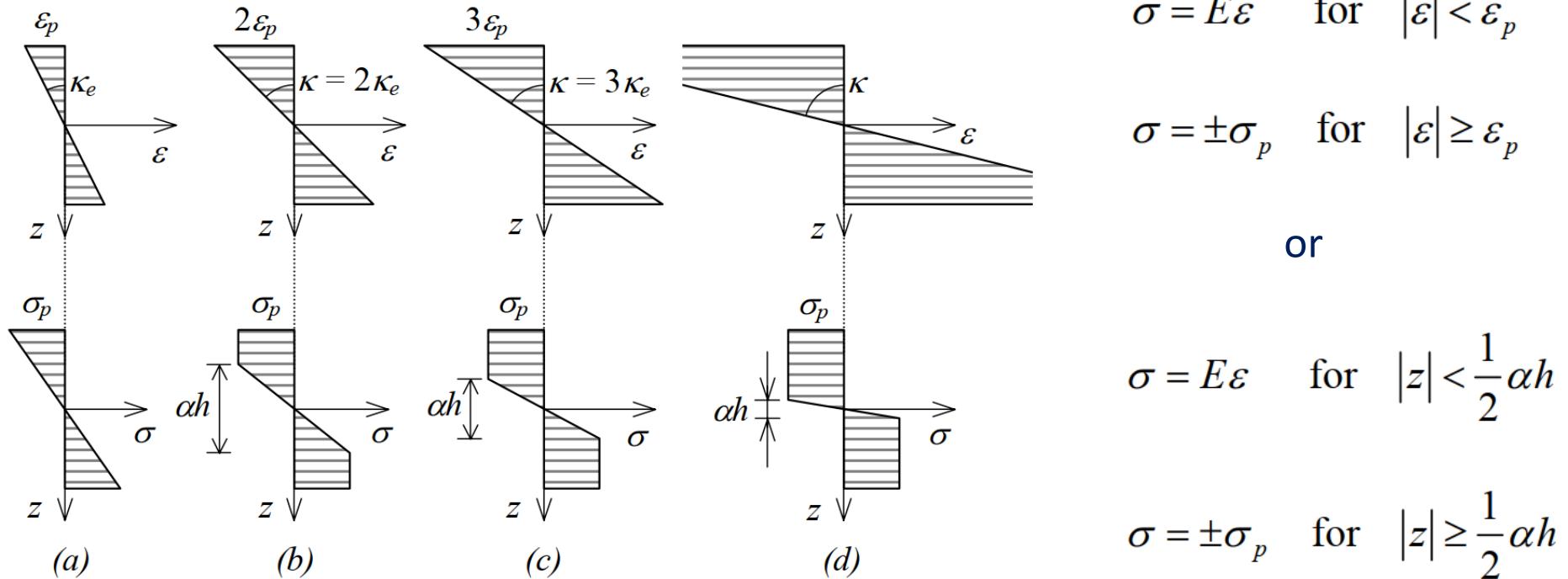
# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

## The moment-curvature relation for the rectangular cross-section

This is valid until the yield stress  $\sigma_p$  is reached in the extreme fibres, i.e., until

$$M = M_e = \frac{1}{6} b h^2 \sigma_p \quad \text{and} \quad \kappa = \kappa_e = \frac{2}{h} \frac{\sigma_p}{E}$$

Strain and stress distributions in the cross-section:



# Lecture 3. Plasticity: Basics

The moment-curvature relation for the rectangular cross-section

Relation between  $M$  and  $\kappa$  in the elastic-plastic phase takes the form:

$$M = M_p \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{\kappa_e}{\kappa} \right)^2 \right] \quad \text{for } \kappa \geq \kappa_e, \quad \text{where } M_p = \frac{1}{4} b h^2 \sigma_p \text{ is the fully plastic moment.}$$

The moment-curvature diagram:

