

# Stress, Strain and Deformation

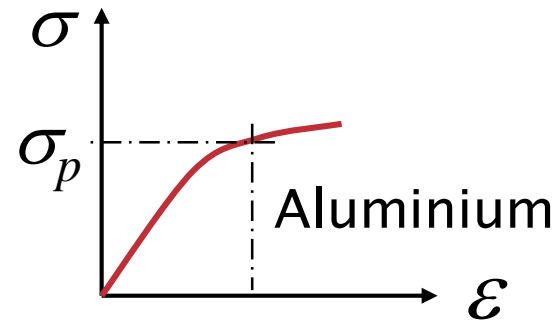
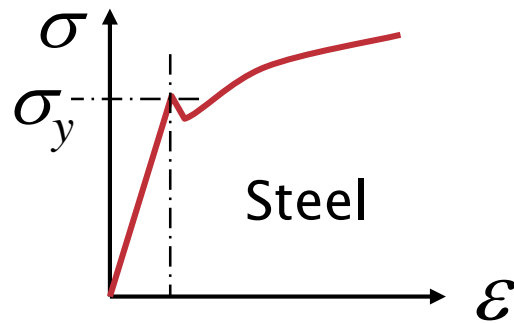
## Elastic Limit and Elastic-Plastic Behaviour

Dr Luiz Kawashita

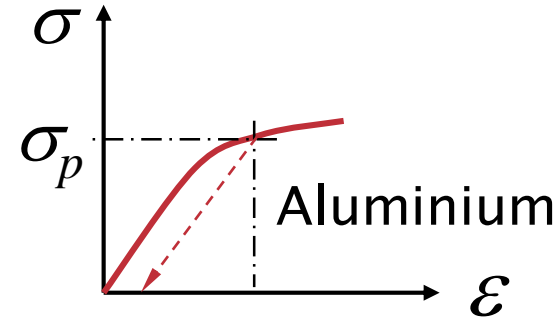
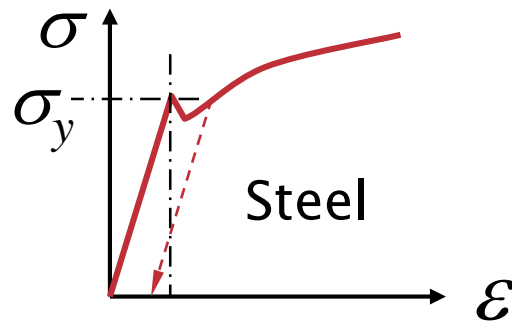
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- Real stress-strain curves:

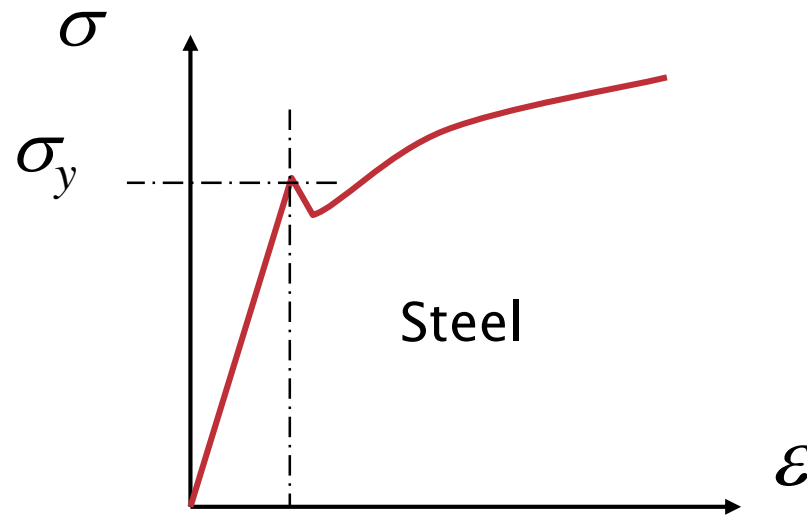


- Typically elastic limit occurs at 0.1% to 0.2% strain
- The stresses associated with the onset of significant yielding (plasticity) are:
  - “yield strength”  $\sigma_y$
  - “proof stress”  $\sigma_p$

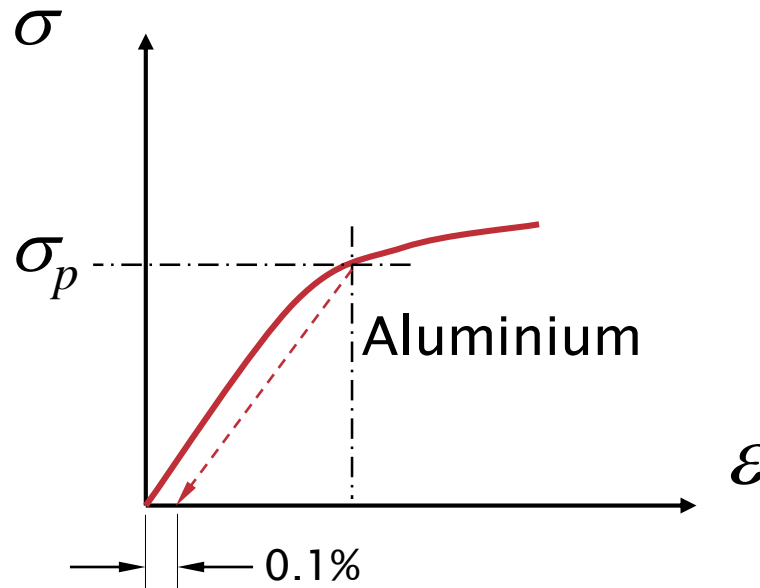


- Below the elastic limit (yield or proof stress or strain) the material **recovers elastically**, *i.e.* with **no permanent strain**
- Above the elastic limit the material retains a **permanent strain** or **plastic deformation**

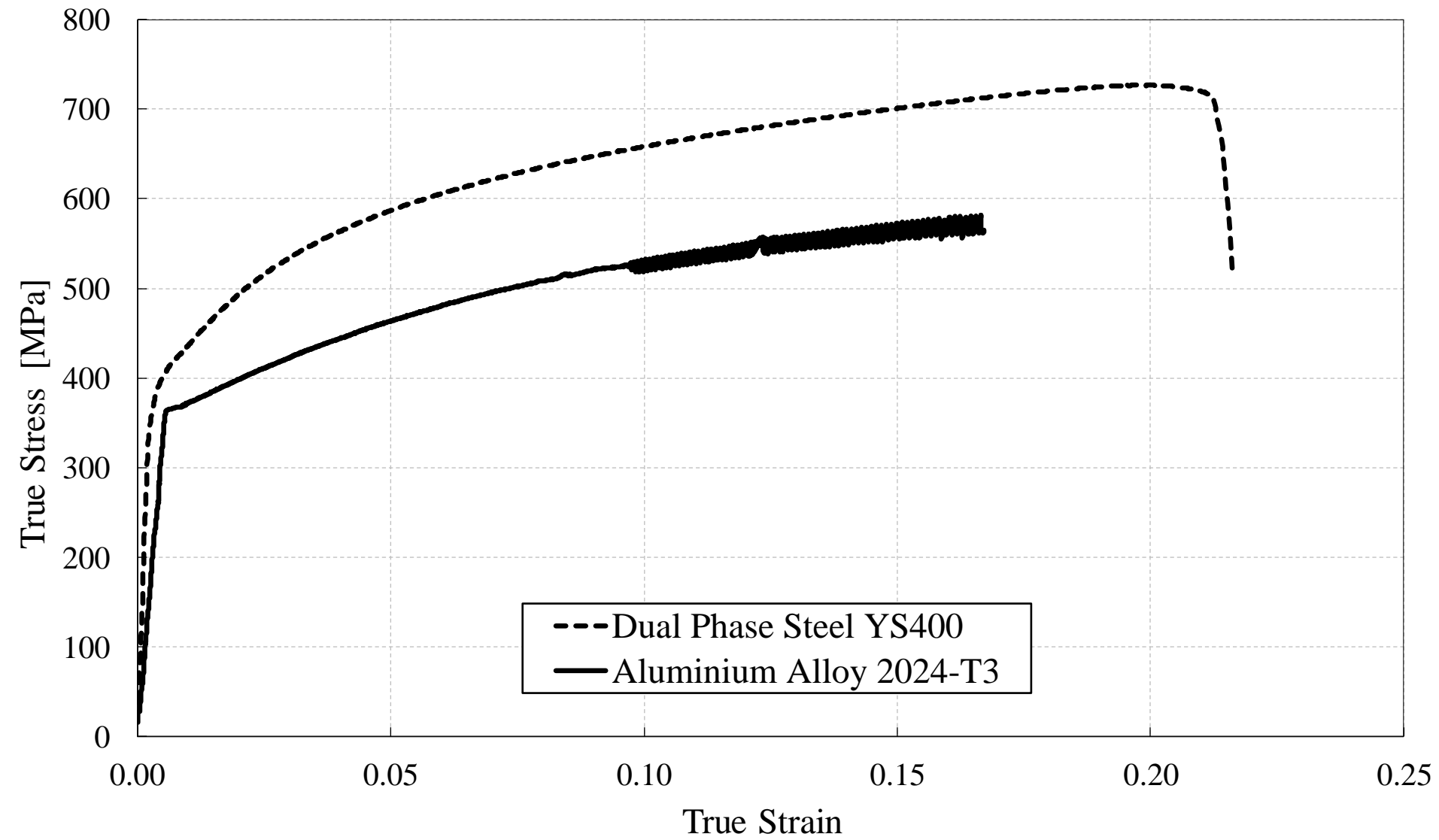
- Yield stress  $\sigma_y$  defines the elastic limit and onset of yielding when the transition is pronounced, *e.g.* typical of some steel alloys



- Proof stress  $\sigma_p$  defines the effective elastic limit and onset of yielding when the transition is vague, *e.g.* typical of some aluminium alloys

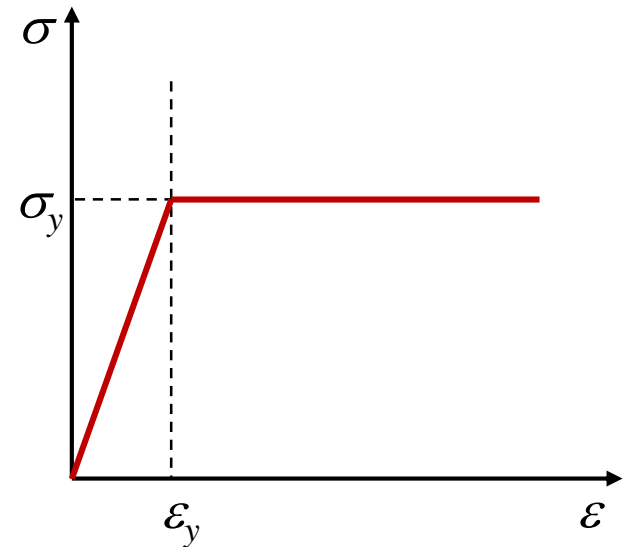


- For example, a 0.1% proof stress is the stress level which leaves a 0.1% strain when released

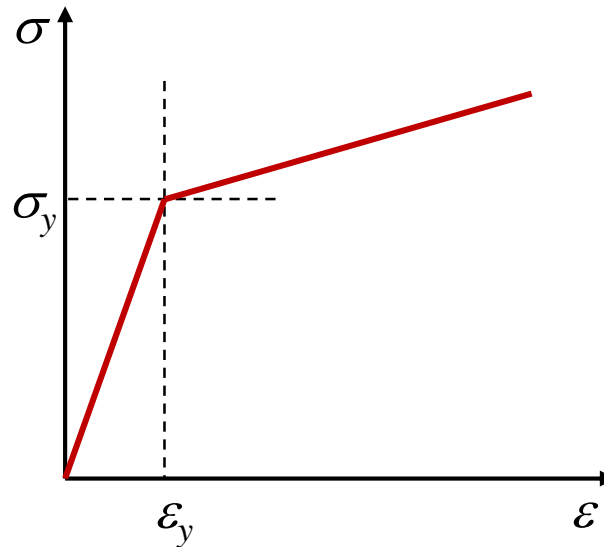


- Common elastic-plastic models for metals:

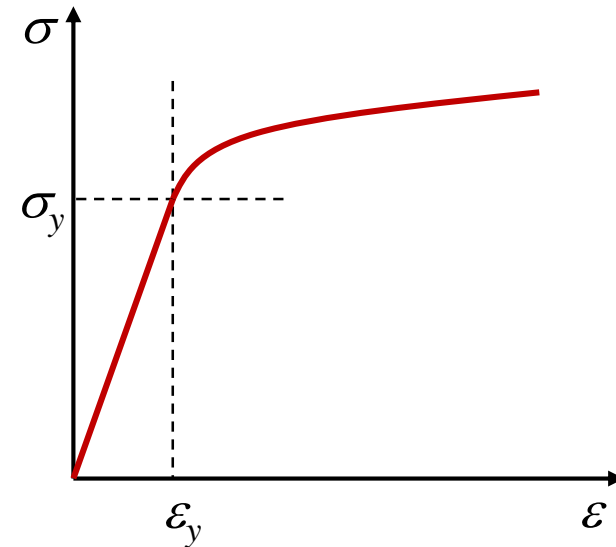
Elastic perfectly-plastic



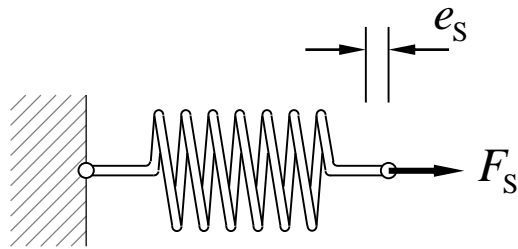
Linear work-hardening  
(or bi-linear model)



Power-law work-hardening



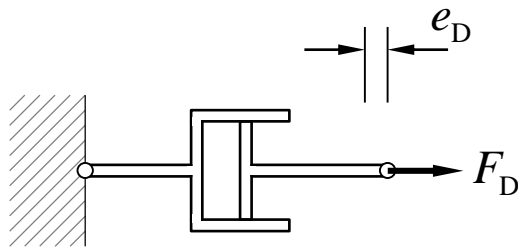
- Spring: linear relationship between **force** and **displacement**



Stiffness

$$F_S = \lambda \cdot e_S$$

- Material elasticity: stress as a function of strain:  $\sigma_S = E \cdot \varepsilon_S$



Damping coefficient

$$F_D = c \cdot \frac{de_D}{dt}$$

Displacement rate

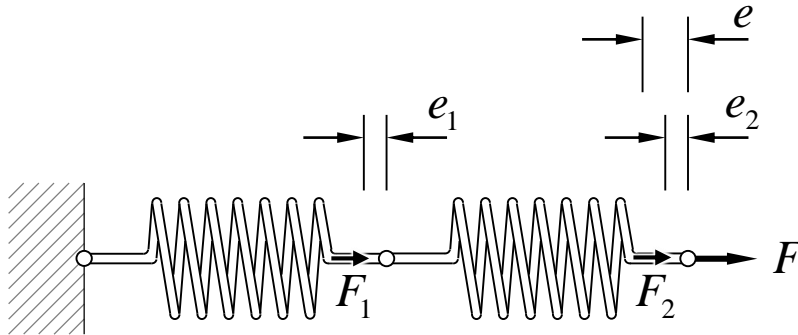
- Material viscosity: stress as a function of strain rate:  $\sigma_D = \eta \cdot \frac{d\varepsilon_D}{dt}$

Viscosity

Strain rate



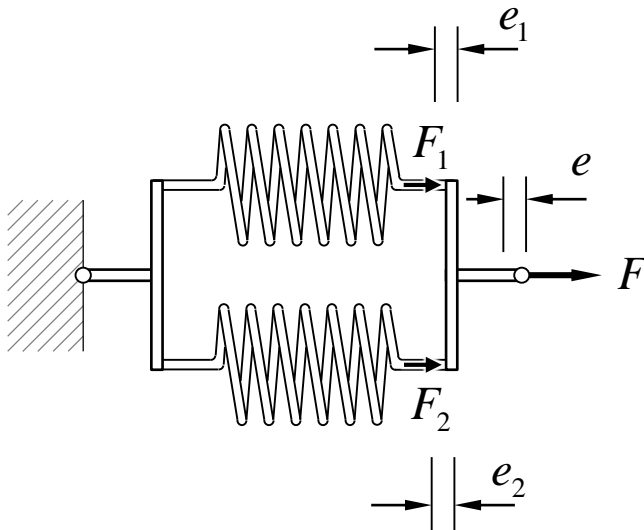
- Springs in **series**



$$F = F_1 = F_2$$

$$e = e_1 + e_2$$

- Springs in **parallel**

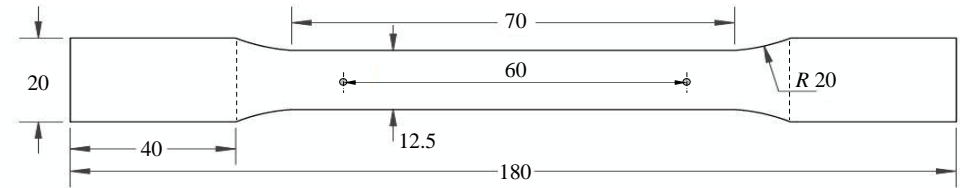


$$F = F_1 + F_2$$

$$e = e_1 = e_2$$

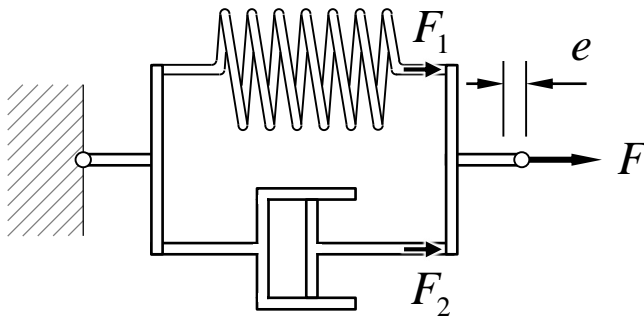
- Tensile tests on three different materials:

- Aluminium alloy
- Polyamide 6 (Nylon 6)
- High-density polyethylene (HDPE)



- You will see that **real** material behaviour is rather complex, especially for polymers:

*E.g.* Kelvin-Voigt viscoelastic model



# Stress, Strain and Deformation

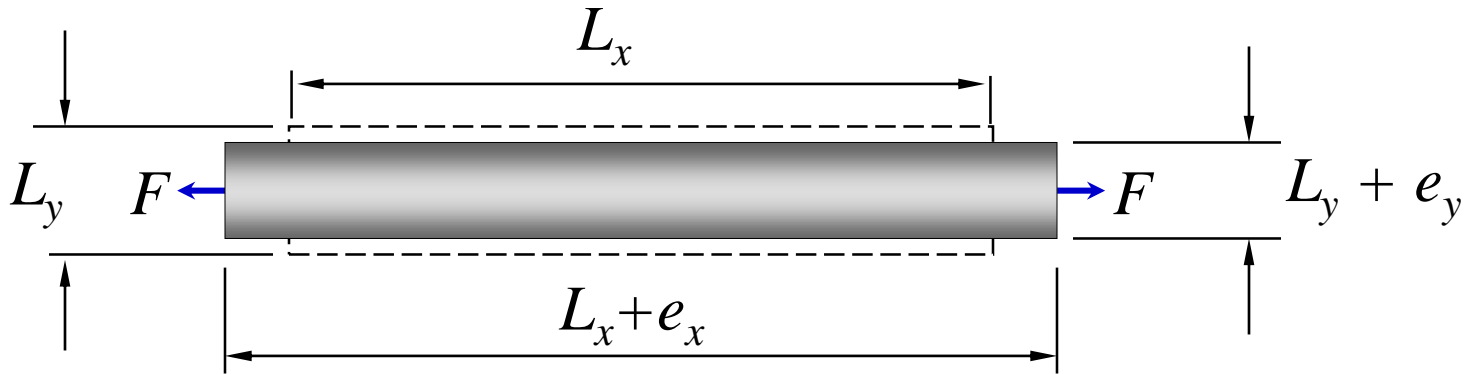
## Poisson's Ratio and Biaxial Stress States

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- Lateral as well as longitudinal strains occur under longitudinal loading:



Longitudinal strain:  $\epsilon_x = \frac{e_x}{L_x}$

Lateral (transverse) strain:  $\epsilon_y = \frac{e_y}{L_y}$   $\therefore$

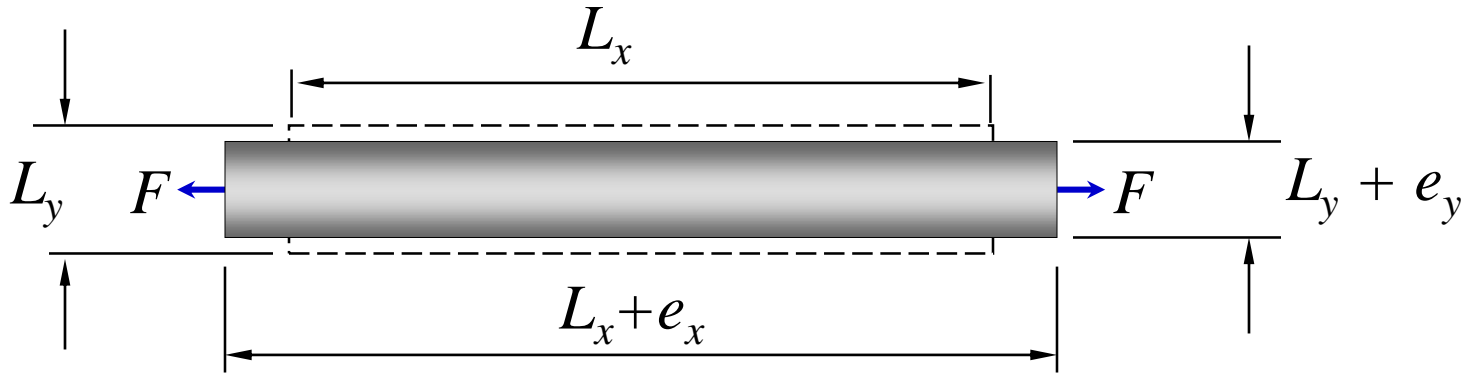
Therefore:  $\epsilon_y = -\nu \epsilon_x$

Poisson's Ratio:

$$\nu = -\frac{\epsilon_y}{\epsilon_x}$$

$\nu$  = 'nu' (sounds like 'new')

- Lateral as well as longitudinal strains occur under longitudinal loading:



- Poisson's Ratio** = ratio of transverse strain to longitudinal strain
- Typically  $\nu = 0.3$  for metals**
- Positive, since the 'minus' sign used in the formula compensates for the fact that the longitudinal and transverse strains are in opposite sense

Poisson's Ratio:

$$\nu = -\frac{\epsilon_y}{\epsilon_x}$$

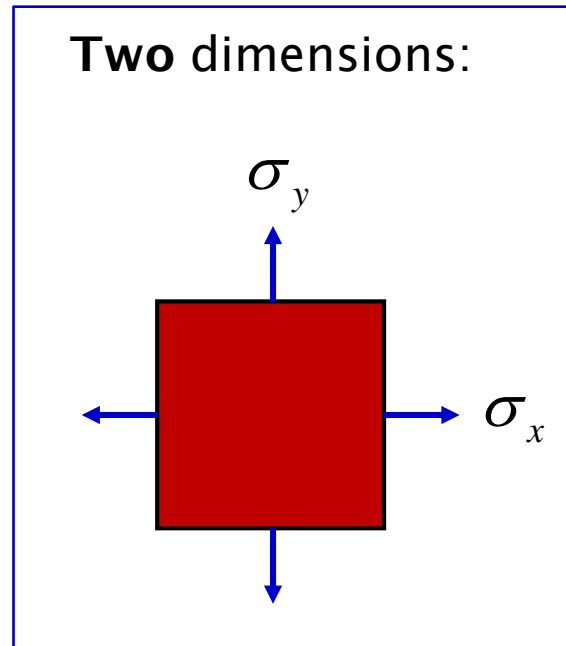
$\nu$  = 'nu' (sounds like 'new')

- So far we have only considered one dimension
- However stresses and strains can exist in **two** or **three** dimensions
- We consider here the strains produced by a **bi-axial stress system** for a cube of unit dimensions

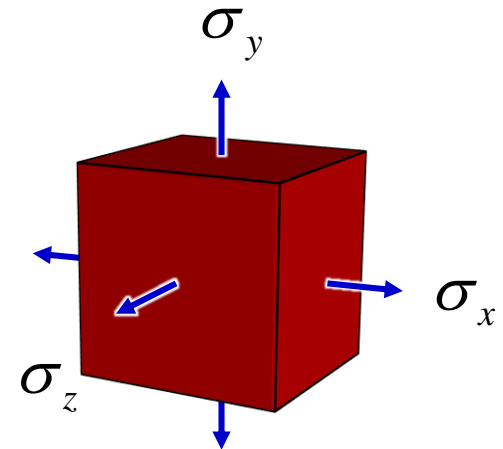
One dimension:



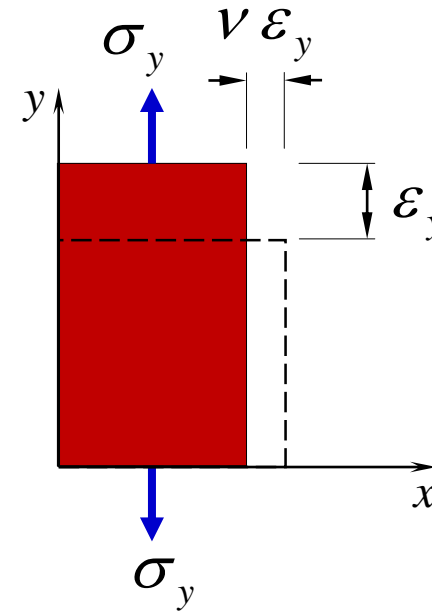
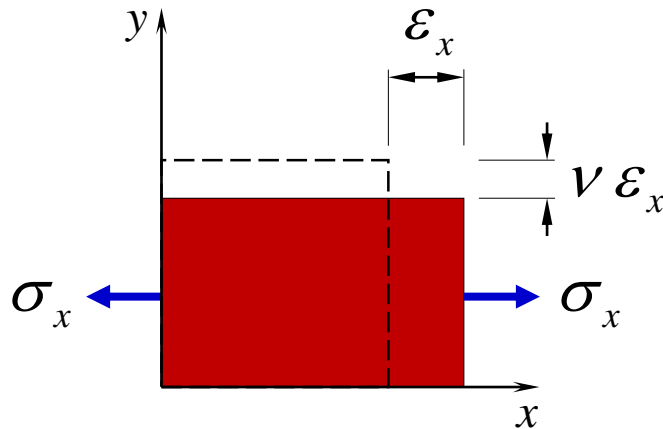
Two dimensions:



Three dimensions:



- In a biaxial stress state:



$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_x &= \frac{\sigma_x}{E} - \nu \frac{\sigma_y}{E} \\ \epsilon_y &= -\nu \frac{\sigma_x}{E} + \frac{\sigma_y}{E}\end{aligned}$$

Where  $\epsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E}$

# Stress, Strain and Deformation

## **Biaxial Stress States: Thin-Walled Pressure Vessels**

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- “Containers designed to maintain internal pressures that are substantially different from the exterior pressure in which the container operates”



Chemical reactors



Gas/Liquid Storage



Autoclaves

- Transport / Defence:



Airliner at cruise altitude (11,000m / 36,000ft) :

- external pressure: 0.25 bar / 25 kPa / 3.6 psi
- standard internal pressure: 0.77 bar / 77 kPa / 11 psi
- (Boeing 787 / Airbus A350: 0.82 bar / 82 kPa / 12 psi)

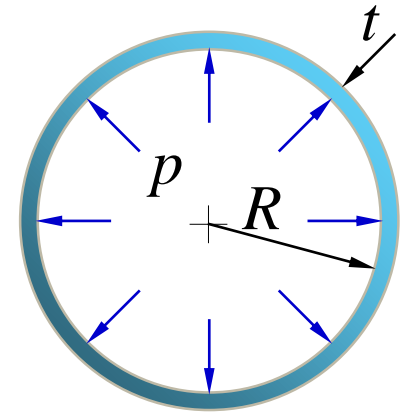


Military submarine (400m H<sub>2</sub>O) :

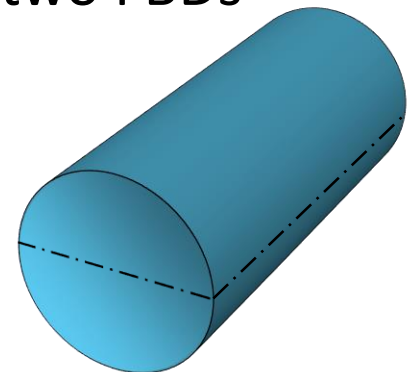
- external pressure: about 40 bar / 4 MPa / 510 psi
- internal pressure: 1 bar / 100 kPa / 14.6 psi

- Consider a cylindrical vessel of mean radius  $R$  and wall thickness  $t$  subjected to an internal pressure  $p$  :
- Assuming a thin-walled cylinder:

$$t \ll R \quad \therefore \quad R_{\text{inner}} \cong R_{\text{outer}}$$



- In this case the stresses are uniform through the thickness, *i.e.* we consider only '**membrane stresses**'
- To reveal these stresses consider the equilibrium of two FBDs obtained by sectioning the cylinder in two halves:



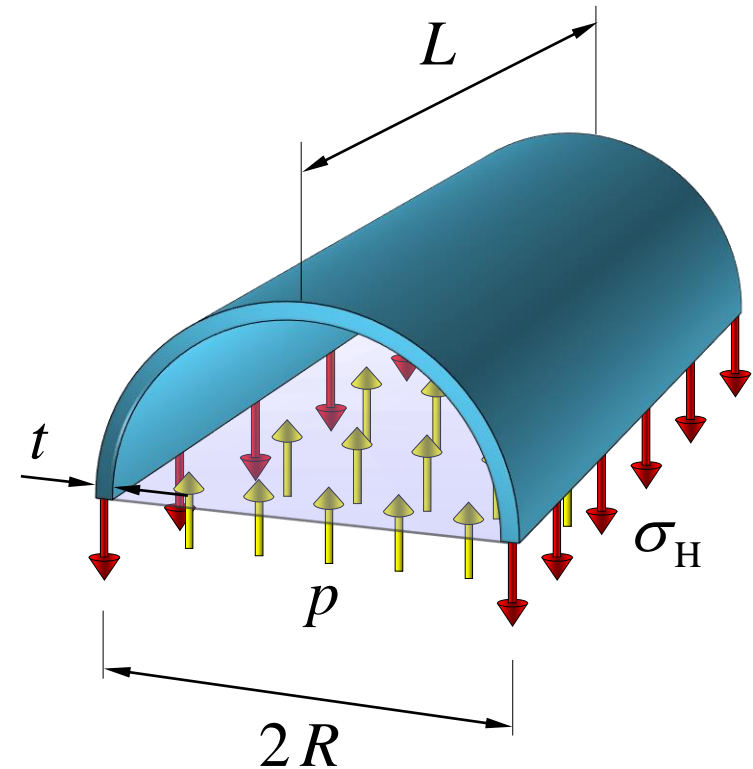
- Equilibrium of FBD:

$$\sum F_y = 0$$

Pressure force - wall membrane force = 0

$$p(2R)(L) - 2\sigma_H(t)(L) = 0$$

$$\sigma_H = \frac{pR}{t}$$

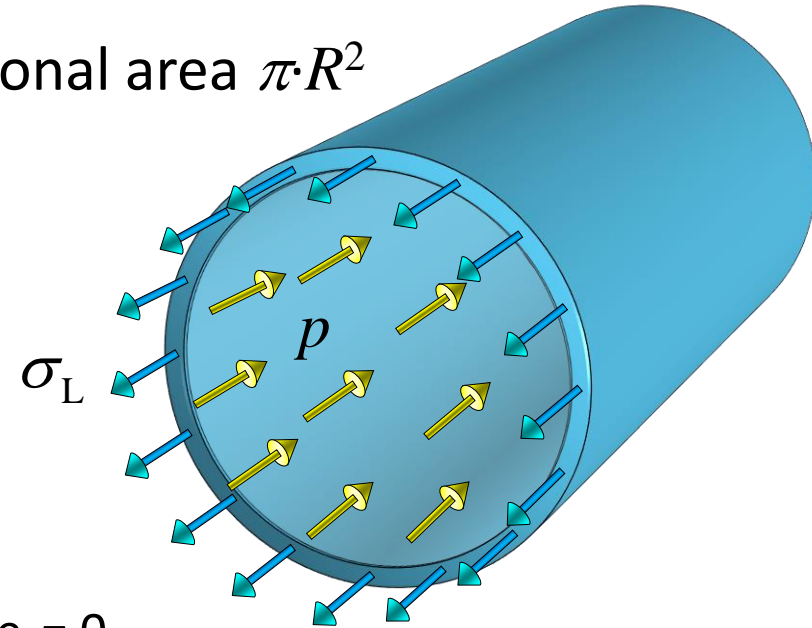


- Note: the force exerted in any direction due to a pressure  $p$  is  $p_A$ , where  $A$  is the projected area normal to the direction of the force

Now consider the cylinder sectioned **transversely**:

- The pressure  $p$  acts on the cross-sectional area  $\pi R^2$
- Equilibrium of FBD:

$$\sum F_x = 0$$



Pressure force - longitudinal membrane force = 0

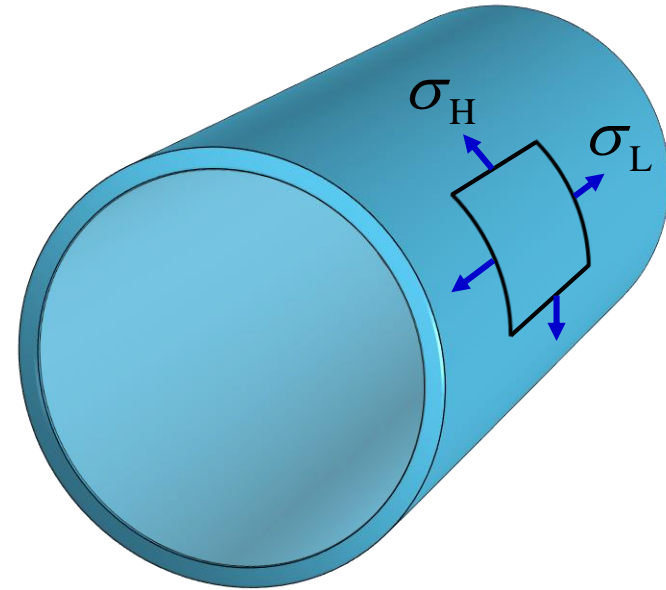
$$p(\pi R^2) - \sigma_L(2\pi R)(t) = 0$$

$$\sigma_L = \frac{pR}{2t}$$

- Therefore the thin-walled cylindrical pressure vessel is in a **biaxial stress state**
- For cylindrical vessels, the **hoop stress is equal to twice the longitudinal stress**:

$$\sigma_H = \frac{p R}{t}$$

$$\sigma_L = \frac{1}{2} \frac{p R}{t}$$

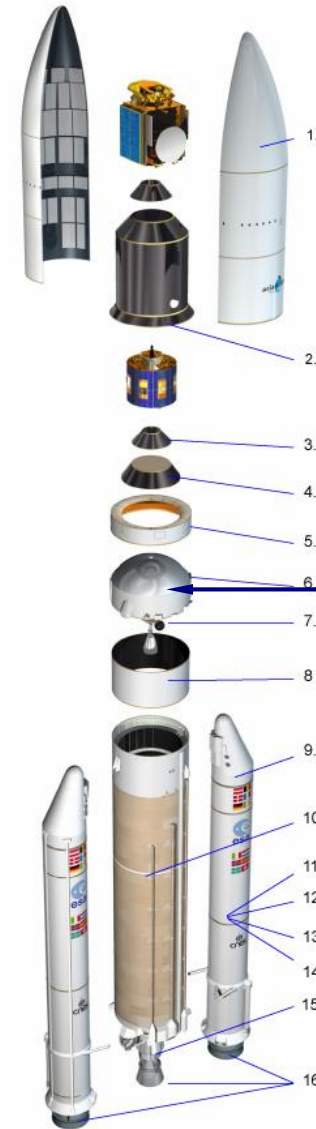


- This is why cylindrical vessels burst along the length rather than at the caps!



- What is the most 'efficient' shape for a pressure vessel, in terms of the stress state of its walls?
  - Answer: a **sphere**!

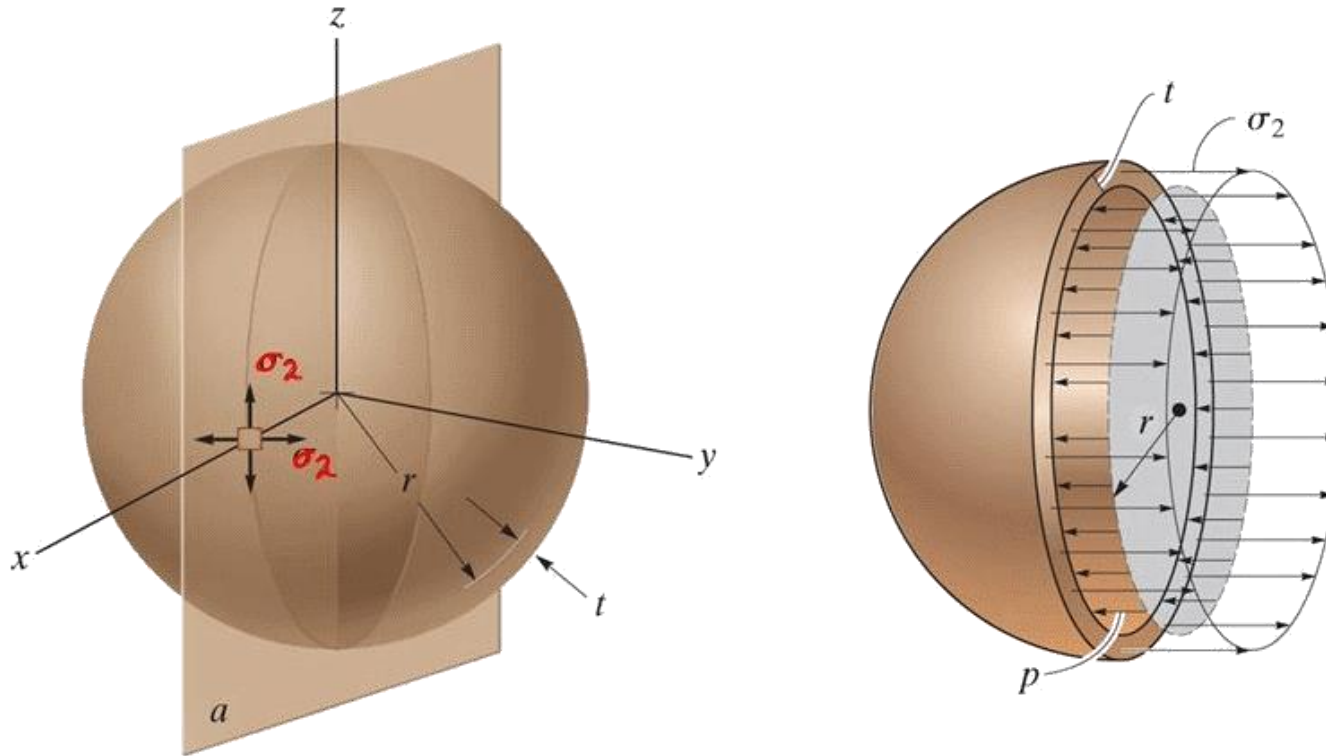
Gas storage



Ariane 5  
cryogenic fuel  
tank



- Spheres have infinite numbers of planes (or axes) of symmetry:



- Therefore the two components of membrane stresses are always identical:

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{p R}{t}$$



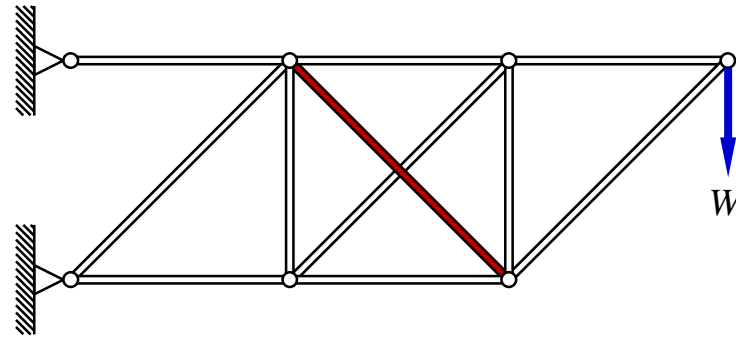
# Stress, Strain and Deformation Constitutive Relations

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- Problems where there are more unknowns than equations of static equilibrium. Consider our previous pin-jointed truss with an 'extra' (redundant) member:



- There is one more load path than needed for equilibrium
- The load taken by each member will then depend on the relative stiffness and accuracy of fit of each member
- To solve this we need more equations!

There are 3 arguments available to solve a statically indeterminate structural problem:

- Static equilibrium of forces and moments
- Compatibility of displacements and rotations (constraints)
- Constitutive relations:

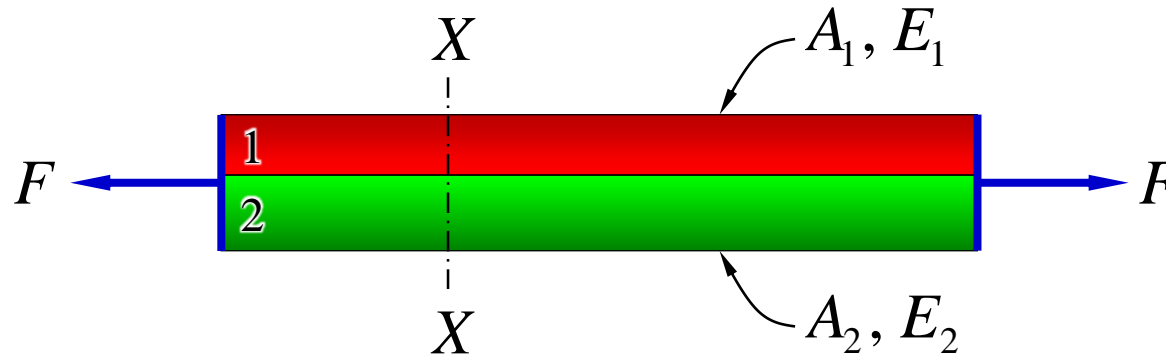
– Force-displacement:

$$F = \lambda e$$

– Stress-strain:

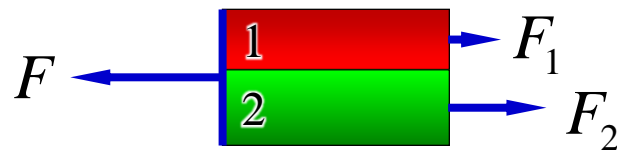
$$\sigma = E \varepsilon$$

- Two dissimilar bars constrained to carry an axial load together:



- These behave as two springs in parallel !

- Let us analyse the FBD of the left-hand-side of section  $X-X$ :



There are 3 unknowns:  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ ,  $e$

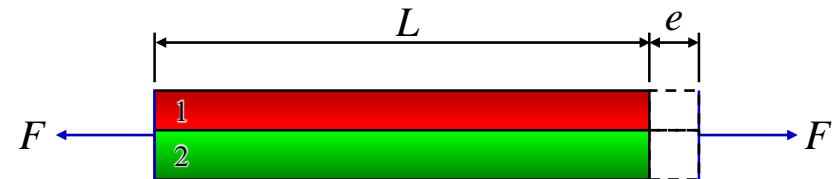
- Static equilibrium

$$\sum F_x = 0 \quad \therefore \quad -F + F_1 + F_2 = 0$$



- Compatibility of displacements

$$e_1 = e_2 = e$$



- Constitutive relations

$$F_1 = \lambda_1 e_1$$

$$F_2 = \lambda_2 e_2$$

$$\text{where } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \lambda_1 = \frac{A_1 E_1}{L_1} \\ \lambda_2 = \frac{A_2 E_2}{L_2} \end{array} \right.$$

# Stress, Strain and Deformation

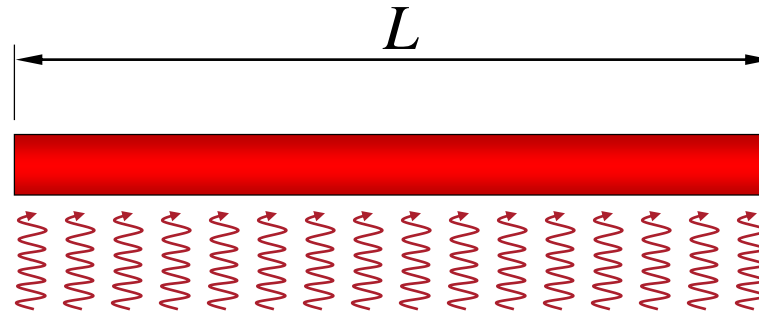
## Thermal Stresses and Strains

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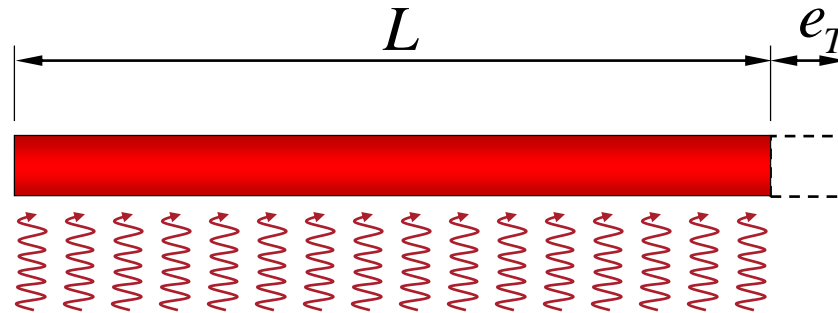
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- Consider a metal bar heated to a new increased temperature:



- Original length,  $L$  [m or mm]
- Change in temperature,  $\Delta T$  [ $^{\circ}\text{C}$  or K]
- Expansion coefficient,  $\alpha$  [ $^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$  or  $\text{K}^{-1}$ ]  $\alpha$  = 'alpha'
  - units of strain (non-dimensional) per  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  or K
- For metals: typically  $\alpha = 10^{-5} \text{ K}^{-1}$

- Considering 1D linear expansion and assuming no thermal distortion (i.e. no shear strains):



- For an unrestrained bar:

- Free thermal strain:

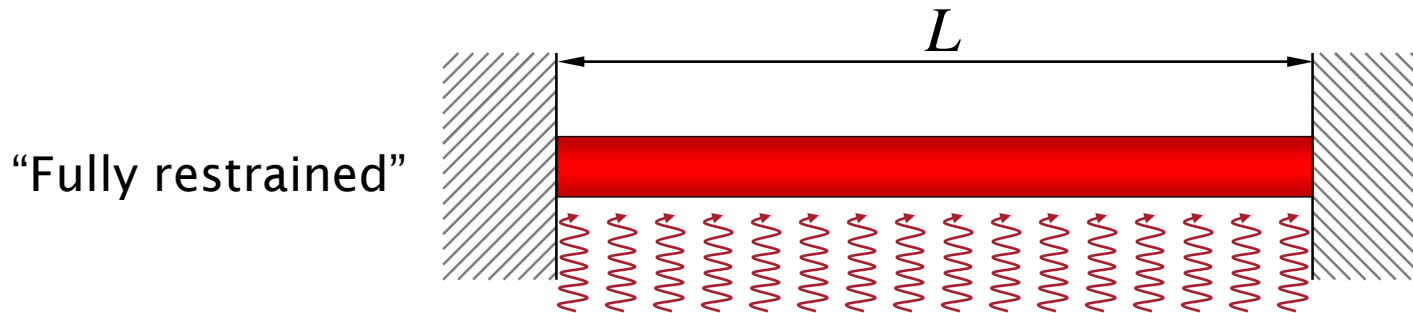
$$\varepsilon_T = \frac{e_T}{L} = \alpha \Delta T$$

- Change in length:

$$L \varepsilon_T = L \alpha \Delta T$$



- If unrestrained then thermal stress will be zero
- If constrained then a thermal stress will result

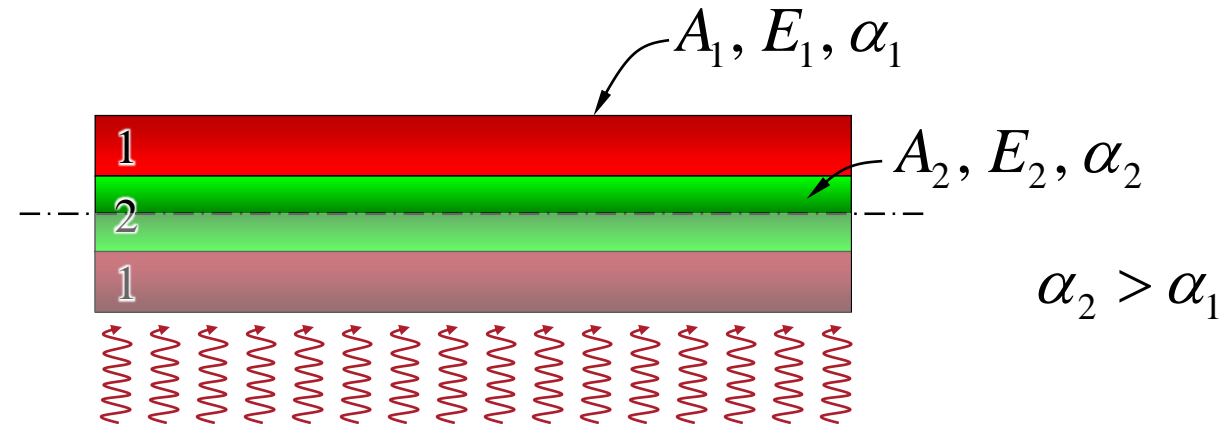


- ‘Residual strain’ = prevented thermal strain:
- ‘Residual stress’ = thermal stress:
  - (assuming linear elastic behaviour, i.e. Hooke’s law)

$$\varepsilon = \alpha \Delta T = \varepsilon_R$$

$$\sigma = E \varepsilon_R = \sigma_R$$

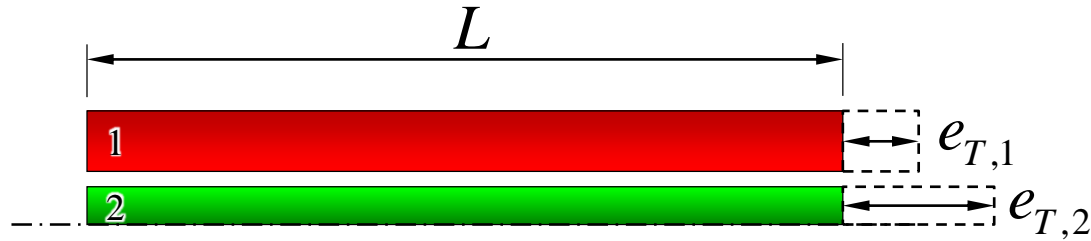
- Consider a composite bar which is symmetric through the thickness being subjected to a temperature rise of  $\Delta T$ :



- Because of symmetry we only need to focus on the upper half of the beam as shown

- Free thermal expansion:

- No attachment between bars



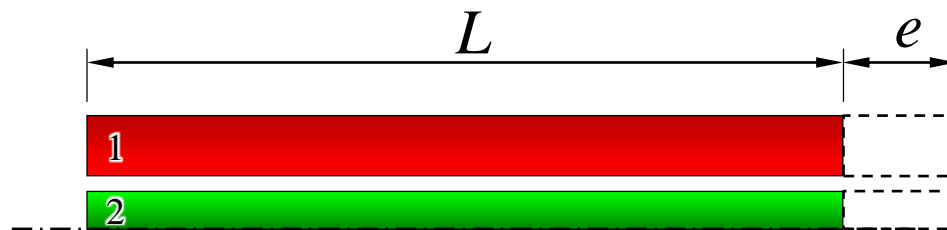
$$e_{T,1} = \alpha_1 \Delta T L$$

$$e_{T,2} = \alpha_2 \Delta T L$$

- No internal forces generated

- Constrained thermal expansion:

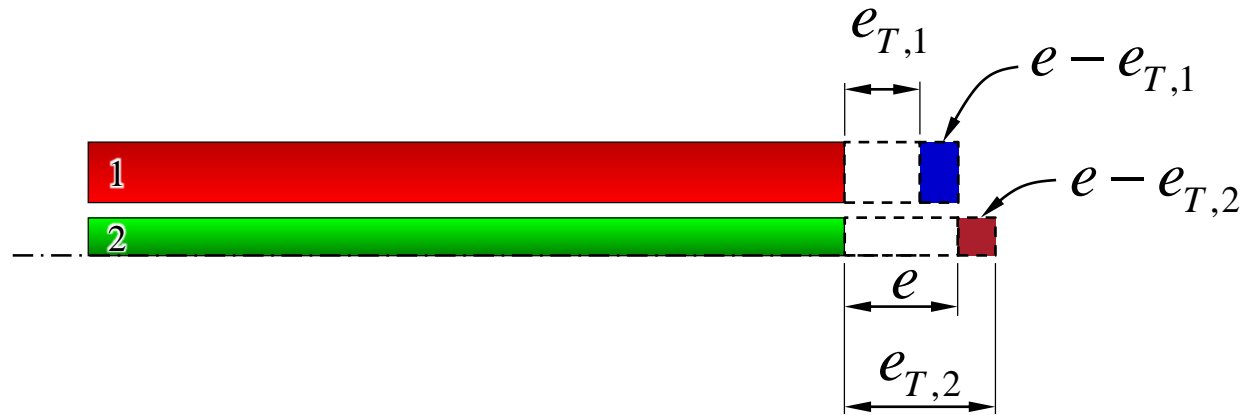
- Bars bonded together



Common extension  $e$

$$e_{T,1} < e < e_{T,2}$$

- Internal forces generated



- Prevented extension =  $e - e_{T,i}$ 
  - (i.e. common extension minus free thermal extension)
- This generates internal forces:
  - element 1 “pulled on” to common extension by element 2
  - element 2 “held back” to common extension by element 1

- Static equilibrium

$$\sum F_x = 0 \quad \therefore \quad F_1 + F_2 = 0$$

- Note: zero net external forces



- Compatibility of displacements

$$e_1 = e_2 = e$$



- Note: forces relate to prevented strains

- Constitutive relations

$$F_1 = \lambda_1 (e - e_{T,1}) \quad F_2 = \lambda_2 (e - e_{T,2})$$

- Note: here  $F_1$  is positive (tension) and  $F_2$  is negative (compression)

# Stress, Strain and Deformation

## Shear Stresses and Strains

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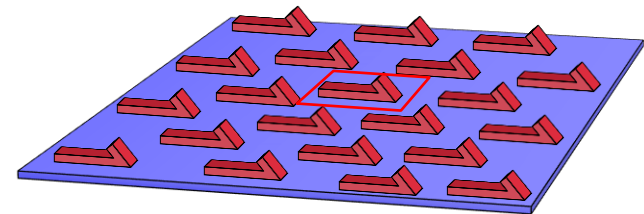
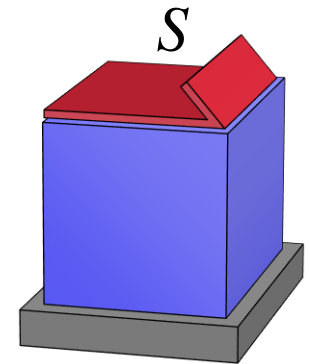
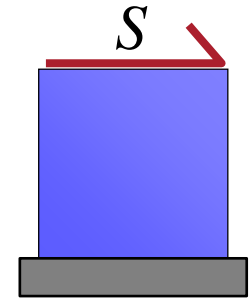
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- Consider a cube element of material subject to a 'sliding force' (*i.e.* a force tangential to the surface) of intensity  $S$
- The **shear stress**  $\tau$  is a measure of 'force per unit area' where the force is tangential to the surface
- It is a field property like the 'direct stress'  $\sigma$ ; it can vary continuously within a body and can be considered at a point:

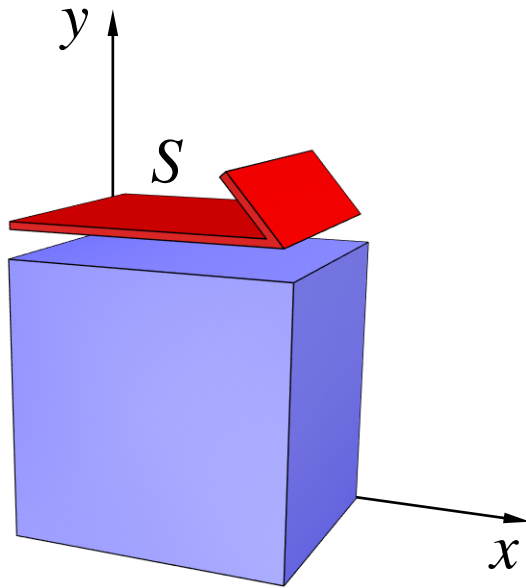
$$\tau = \lim_{\delta A \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta S}{\delta A} \quad \tau = \text{'tau'}$$

- Same units as for other stresses, *i.e.*

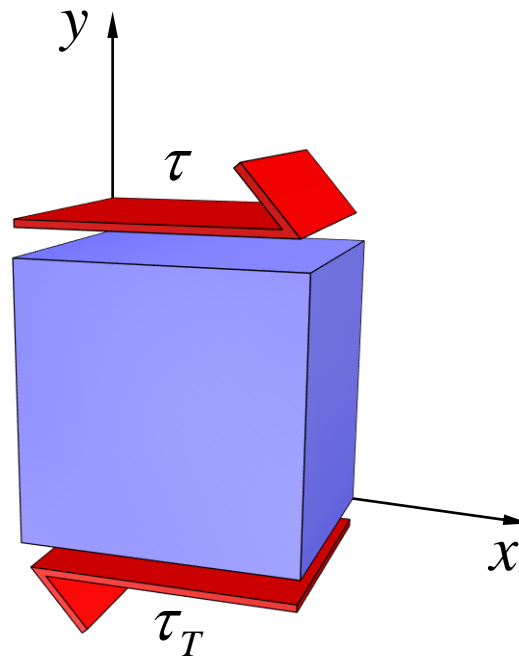
$$1 \text{ Pa} = 1 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}^2} = 10^{-6} \text{ MPa} = 10^{-6} \frac{\text{N}}{\text{mm}^2}$$



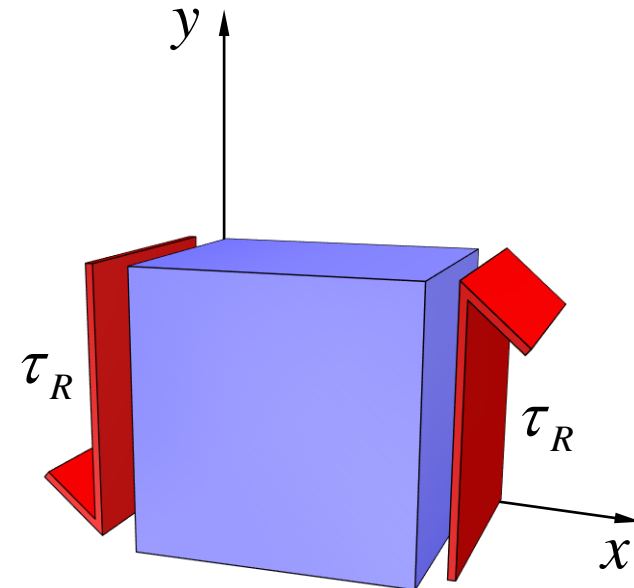
- For equilibrium, **complementary shear stresses** must exist to balance translational and rotational tendencies



Applied shear force



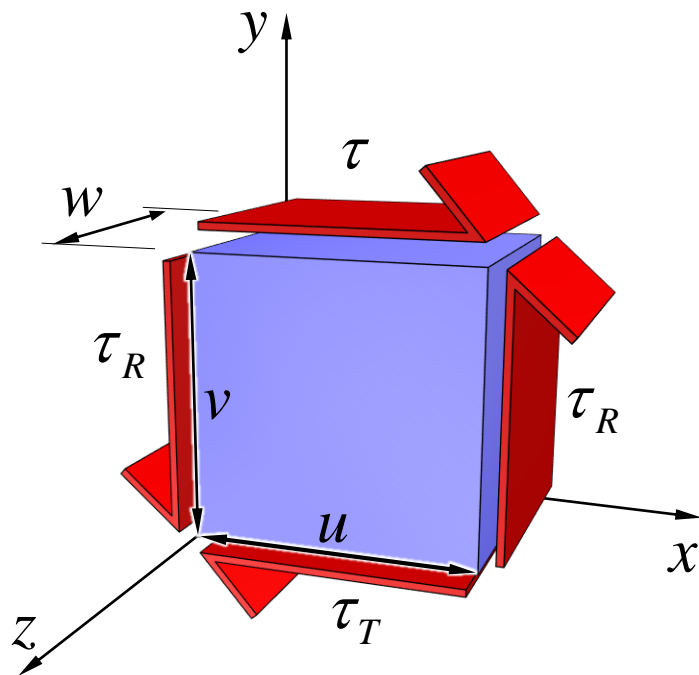
Shear stresses for translational balance



Shear stresses for rotational balance



- In order to balance translational and rotational tendencies the magnitudes of the shear stress components are related:



$$\sum F_x = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{Translational equilibrium along axis } x$$

$$\tau (u w) - \tau_T (u w) = 0$$

$$\tau = \tau_T$$

$$\sum M_z = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{Rotational equilibrium about axis } z$$

$$\tau (u w)(v) - \tau_R (v w)(u) = 0$$

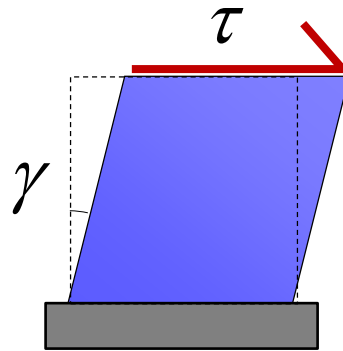
$$\tau = \tau_R$$

*i.e.* all complementary stresses are equal!

- **Shear strain  $\gamma$** : angular rotation in radians (non-dimensional)

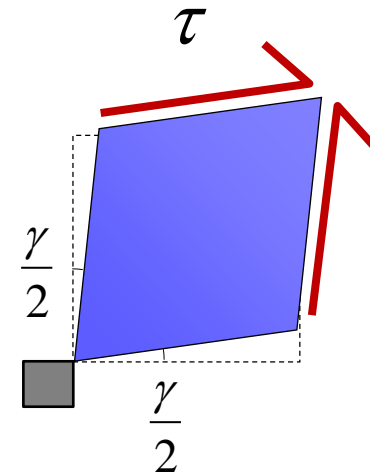
## Simple Shear

‘Element fixed along an edge’



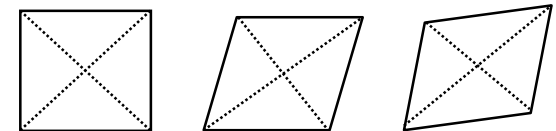
## Pure Shear

‘Element fixed at a corner’



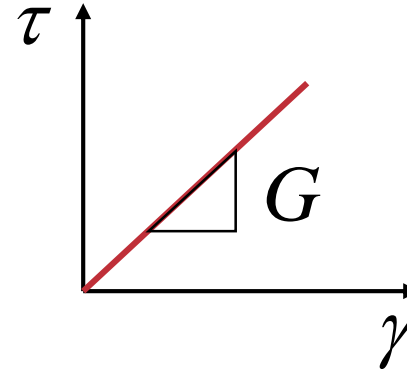
$\gamma = \text{'gamma'}$

- Element ‘edges’ (or ‘shear planes’) do not change length but simply translate or rotate
- Element ‘diagonals’ **do** change length:
  - *i.e.* shear = diagonal ‘tension’ and ‘compression’



- For linear elastic behaviour shear stress is proportional to shear strain

$$\tau = G \gamma$$



- Where the proportional constant  $G$  is the **Shear Modulus**
  - This is a **material property** like Young's modulus  $E$  or Poisson's ratio  $\nu$
  - In fact, for **isotropic materials** these three properties obey a very simple relationship:

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