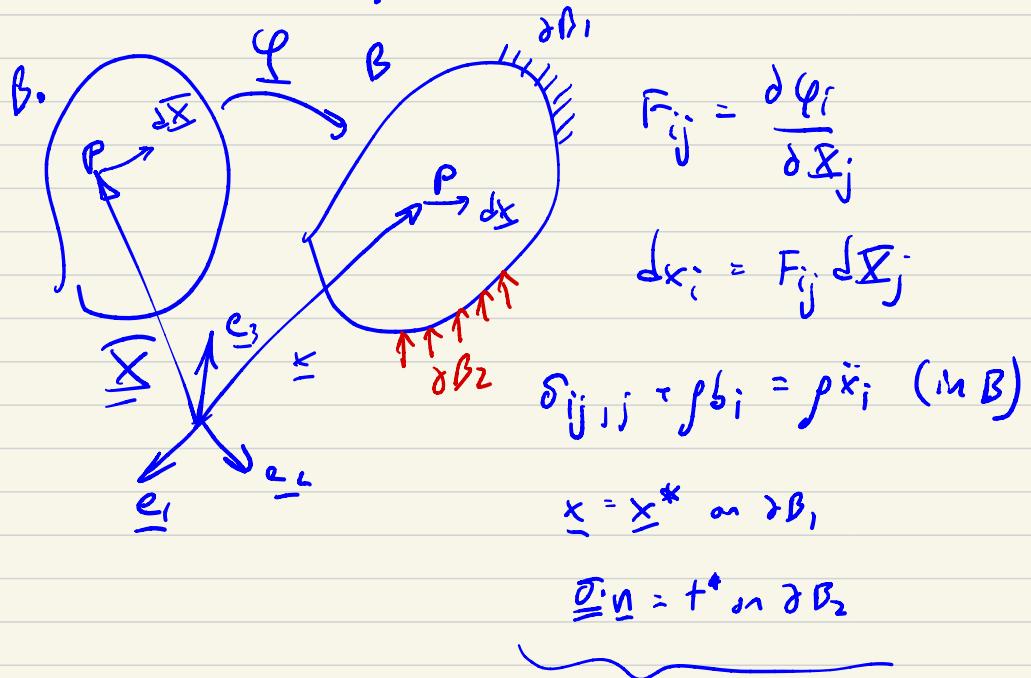


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Linear Elasticity (constitutive Law)



$$F_{ij} = \frac{\partial \varphi_i}{\partial \underline{x}_j}$$

$$\delta x_i = F_{ij} \delta \underline{x}_j$$

$$\delta_{ij,j} + f_{bi} = \rho \ddot{x}_i \quad (\text{in } B)$$

$$\underline{x} = \underline{x}^* \text{ on } \partial B_1$$

$$\underline{\sigma}_{in} = t^* \text{ on } \partial B_2$$

So far we derived this

We still need something to relate measures of stress & kinematics:

$\underline{\sigma} = \underline{\sigma}(\underline{E})$ function of deformation gradient.

We call this constitutive relation

can also be $\underline{\sigma} = \underline{\sigma}(\underline{E}, \dot{\underline{E}}, p)$

Everything discussed so far is very generic:

- applies to all material (fluids, solids, elastic, plastic, etc.)
- also applies to all deformation regimes (finite & infinitesimal)
- The only missing link to be able to solve real problems is the material behavior i.e. how deformation & deformation rates relate to stress.
- Material behavior enters the mathematical formulation through constitutive equations.
- When stresses are proportional to strains we say that the material is linear elastic.

Observations :

- Most solids are linearly elastic for sufficiently small strains
- For large strains, solids typically deviate from linear elasticity to exhibit non-linear elastic behavior (ex: rubber), or to break (brittle material) or to plastically flow (brittle materials such as metals) (rate)

- Hence, small (infinitesimal) strains usually imply linear elasticity and the other way around
- That is why linear elasticity is typically formulated for infinitesimal deformations.

Hooke's Law

$$\underline{\sigma} \leftrightarrow \underline{\varepsilon}$$

$$\underline{\sigma} (\underline{\varepsilon}) \rightarrow \text{this means}$$

$$\sigma_{11} = f_{11}(\varepsilon_{11}, \varepsilon_{12}, \dots, \varepsilon_{33})$$

$$\sigma_{12} = f_{12}(\varepsilon_{11}, \varepsilon_{12}, \dots, \varepsilon_{33})$$

:

$$\sigma_{33} = f_{33}(\varepsilon_{11}, \varepsilon_{12}, \dots, \varepsilon_{33})$$

- The simplest relation would be a linear one:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma_{11} = C_{111} \varepsilon_{11} + C_{112} \varepsilon_{12} + C_{113} \varepsilon_{13} \\ \quad + \dots + C_{1133} \varepsilon_{33} \\ \sigma_{12} = C_{1211} \varepsilon_{11} + C_{1212} \varepsilon_{12} + \\ \quad \dots + C_{1233} \varepsilon_{33} \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_{33} = C_{3311} \varepsilon_{11} + \dots + C_{3333} \varepsilon_{33} \end{array} \right.$$

(81 coefficients!!)

(each component of $\underline{\sigma}$ is a function of all components of $\underline{\varepsilon}$)



9 functions
Rank 4 tensor

$$\underline{\sigma}_{ij} = C_{ijkl} \varepsilon_{kl}$$

In direct notation:

- we write: $\underline{\underline{\sigma}} = \underline{\underline{C}} : \underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ \rightarrow Hooke's Law

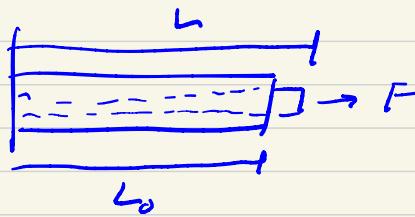
where $\underline{\underline{C}}$ is a rank 2 tensor w/ components

C_{ijkl} . $\underline{\underline{C}}$ is called the elasticity tensor
or tensor of elastic moduli.

Notes:

- The component of $\underline{\underline{\sigma}}$ a linear combination of the components of $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$, with the coefficients given by the components of $\underline{\underline{C}}$
- There might be a problem w/
 - 1) $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ is defined in the reference configuration whereas $\underline{\underline{\sigma}}$ is defined in the deformed configuration!
- In linear elasticity we assume that both config are indistinguishable, ie $\underline{x} \sim \underline{\underline{x}}$
$$\underline{\underline{\sigma}}(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \underline{\underline{\sigma}}(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_3)$$
 and the same $\underline{\underline{C}}$

- under this assumption, the first Pk tensor is identical to the Cauchy stress tensor $\underline{\underline{\sigma}} \approx \underline{\underline{\Sigma}}$



Initial area A_0
Final area A

$$\sigma_{rr} = \frac{f}{A} \quad p_{rr} = \frac{f}{A_0}$$

for inf. def.

$$A \approx A_0 \rightarrow \sigma_{rr} \approx p_{rr}$$

Symmetries of the elasticity tensor

- $\underline{\underline{\Sigma}} = \underline{\underline{\Sigma}}^T$ or $\sigma_{ijl} = \Sigma_{ijkl} \epsilon_{klr}$
- As a rank 4 tensor, $\underline{\underline{\Sigma}}$ has $3^9 = 81$ comps.
- However, to be consistent w/ the definitions of cont. mechanics, there are some constraints on $\underline{\underline{\Sigma}}$ that limit the number of independent components:

1) $\underline{\underline{\sigma}}$ and $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ are symmetric \Rightarrow Reduces # of independent comps to 36 *

$$\sigma_{ijl} = \sigma_{jli}; \quad \epsilon_{klr} = \epsilon_{lkr}$$

$\Rightarrow \Sigma_{ijkl} = \Sigma_{jikl}, \Sigma_{ijkl} = \Sigma_{jilk}$
(minor symmetry)

2) The strain energy density is quadratic

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{1}{2} \underline{\underline{\epsilon}} \cdot \underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$$

or $E = \frac{1}{2} C_{ijkl} \epsilon_{ij} \epsilon_{kl}$

$$\Rightarrow C_{ijkl} = C_{klij} *$$

(Major Symmetry)

Minor + Major symmetries combined reduce the number of independent components of $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ to

21

3) Material Symmetry

- Most materials have some symmetry in their structure that translate in symmetries in its response to strains
- These symmetries may impose extra constraints in $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$.

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Rotation as symmetry

- Consider the following situation
 - Conduct experiment (1), in which a strain $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ is applied to a body and a stress $\underline{\underline{\sigma}}$ results
 - Now conduct experiment (2), in which the body is rotated w/ a rotation defined by $\underline{\underline{\alpha}}$ and the same $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}$ is applied resulting in stress $\underline{\underline{\sigma}}'$ \neq not rotated
 - Definition: Rotation $\underline{\underline{\alpha}}$ is called a symmetry of the elastic body if, for any $\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}, \underline{\underline{\sigma}} = \underline{\underline{\sigma}}'$ (same stress)
 - Practically speaking, we cannot determine whether or not the body was rotated

For example, a crystalline material

$$\begin{matrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{matrix} \quad \text{usually remain indifferent to several rotations } \underline{\underline{\alpha}}.$$

Then for each

$$\underline{\underline{\alpha}}: C_{ijpq} = C_{ijkl} \underline{\underline{\alpha}}^k \underline{\underline{\alpha}}^{l,j} \underline{\underline{\alpha}}^{l,p} \underline{\underline{\alpha}}^{k,q}$$

- This set of equations provide further constraints on $\underline{\underline{C}}$ which reduce the number of independent components needed.
- The more symmetries a material has, the less independent component of $\underline{\underline{C}}$ are needed.
- For example, a material w/ one plane of symmetry, the number is reduced from 21 to 13.
- An orthotropic material (three mutually perpendicular symmetry planes) has 9 independent material constants.
- A cubic material can be characterized w/ only 3 elastic constants

Isotropic materials

- Definition: An elastic body is isotropic if every rotation $\underline{\alpha}$ is a symmetry of that body.
 - physically speaking: the body has no "special" direction
 - mathematically speaking,
- $C_{ijk\ell} = C_{ijk\ell}(\alpha)$ if $\alpha_{ij} \alpha_{kl} = \alpha_{kj} \alpha_{il}$ for all rotations $\underline{\alpha}$
- Such tensors ($\underline{\underline{C}}$) are called Isotropic
 - It can be shown that their most general form:

$$C_{ijkl} = \lambda \delta_{ij} \delta_{kl} + \mu_1 \delta_{ij} \delta_{lk} + \mu_2 \delta_{ik} \delta_{lj}$$

- However, the minor symmetry leads to $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu$
- hence, for an isotropic linear elastic material:

$$\boxed{C_{ijkl} = \lambda \delta_{ij} \delta_{kl} + \mu (\delta_{ik} \delta_{jl} + \delta_{il} \delta_{jk})}$$

2 independent constants

• we can derive the expression for the stress:

$$\sigma_{ij} = C_{ijkl} \epsilon_{kl}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{ij} &= [\lambda \delta_{ij} \delta_{kk} + \mu (\delta_{ik} \delta_{jl} + \delta_{il} \delta_{jk})] \epsilon_{kl} \\&= \lambda \delta_{ij} \delta_{kk} \epsilon_{kl} + \mu (\delta_{ik} \delta_{jl} \epsilon_{kl} + \delta_{il} \delta_{jk} \epsilon_{kl}) \\&= \lambda \epsilon_{kk} \delta_{ij} + \mu \underbrace{(\epsilon_{ij} + \epsilon_{ji})}_{2\epsilon_{ij}}\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\sigma_{ij} = \lambda \epsilon_{kk} \delta_{ij} + 2\mu \epsilon_{ij}} \quad (\star)$$

$$\boxed{\underline{\sigma} = \lambda \operatorname{tr}(\underline{\epsilon}) \underline{I} + 2\mu \underline{\epsilon}}$$

Remarks:

- Isotropic linear elastic material have only 2 independent elastic constants.
- $\lambda + \mu$ are called Lame' constants
- μ is also called the shear modulus
↳ if pure shear, $\text{tr}(\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}) = 0$
- Lame' constants are usually combined and used in different forms. The most common combinations are:

$$E = \frac{\mu(3\lambda + 2\mu)}{\lambda + \mu} \quad (\text{Young's Modulus})$$

$$\nu = \frac{\lambda}{2(\lambda + \mu)} \quad (\text{Poisson's Ratio})$$

$$K = \frac{(3\lambda + 2\mu)}{3} \quad (\text{Bulk Modulus})$$

- (*) can be inverted in terms of E and ν

$$\underline{\underline{\epsilon}}_{ij} = \frac{-\nu}{E} \delta_{kk} \delta_{ij} + \frac{1+\nu}{E} \underline{\underline{\delta}}_{ij}$$

- Note that if we create a state of stress $\underline{\sigma}$, strain $\underline{\epsilon}$ results.

If we remove all loads so $\underline{\sigma} = 0$, then $\underline{\epsilon}$ becomes 0 as well (no strain)

This is a property of linear elastic materials.

- If the body is isotropic, its elastic properties can be described by just two elastic moduli
e.g.: λ and μ

If λ and μ are the same for all points of the body, then its elastic properties are homogeneous.

Otherwise, we say the body has heterogeneous elastic properties.
