

Solid Mechanics

Chapter 1: 1D Elasticity

Oxford, Michaelmas Term 2020

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1 Introduction: one-dimensional elasticity

1.1 A one-dimensional theory

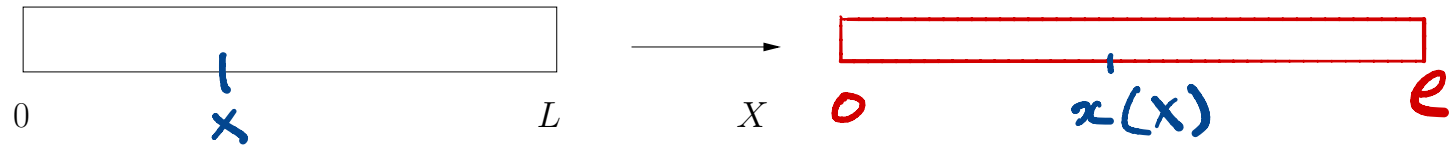
Here, we consider a one-dimensional continuum that can only deform along its length. Therefore, there is no bending, twisting, or shearing, just stretching. The steps to develop a theory are

- 1) **Kinematics:** A description of the possible deformations. The definition of *strains*, given by geometry: stretch along the line.
- 2) **Mechanics:** The definitions of *stresses* and *forces* acting on the medium. Then a statement of balance laws based on the balance of linear and angular momenta.
- 3) **Constitutive laws:** A relationship between stresses and strains.

The results of these three steps is a closed set of equations whose solutions (with appropriate boundary conditions and initial data) is a description of the stresses and deformations in a particular body under a particular set of forces.

1.2 Kinematics

Consider a 1D continuum of length L . Any material point is labelled by $X \in [0, L]$. The motion or deformation is the mapping $x = x(X, t)$ which is assumed smooth and invertible.



$$\lambda = \frac{\partial x}{\partial X}, \text{ stretch; } \dot{x} = V(X, t) = \frac{\partial x}{\partial t}, \text{ velocity.} \quad (1)$$

Since the mapping is invertible, we have $\lambda > 0$ for all motion.

If the deformation is *homogeneous*: $\lambda = l/L$ (current/original length)

The identity mapping $x = X$ corresponds to the stress-free (Langrangian) configuration.

Motion: The velocity of a material point is $V(X, t) = \dot{x} = \partial x / \partial t$. Since $X = X(x, t)$ is invertible, we can write,

$$v(x, t) = \dot{x}(X(x, t), t), \quad (2)$$

where v is the velocity at the spatial point x .

The acceleration of a point is,

$$\ddot{x}(X, t) = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}, \quad \text{or} \quad a = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}, \quad (3)$$

where

$$\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \quad (4)$$

is the *material time derivative*.

1.3 Dynamics

1.3.1 Conservation of mass

We define ρ : linear density in the current configuration (mass per unit length as measured in the current configuration)
 ρ_0 : the linear density in the reference configuration.

Assuming no mass is created, we have

$$\int_{X_1}^{X_2} \rho_0 dX = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \rho dx, \quad (5)$$

with $x_1 = x(X_1, t)$, $x_2 = x(X_2, t)$. Since $dx = \lambda dX$, we have

$$\int_{X_1}^{X_2} \rho_0 dX = \int_{X_1}^{X_2} \rho \lambda dX, \quad \Rightarrow \quad \int_{x_1}^{x_2} (\rho_0 - \rho \lambda) dx = 0$$

which implies that $\lambda \rho = \rho_0$, the Lagrangian conservation of mass. This is the first conservation law.

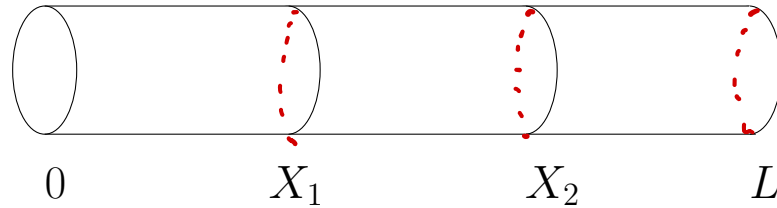
$$\Rightarrow \quad \lambda \rho = \rho_0$$

1.3.2 Balance of linear momentum

The general principle for the balance of linear momentum is

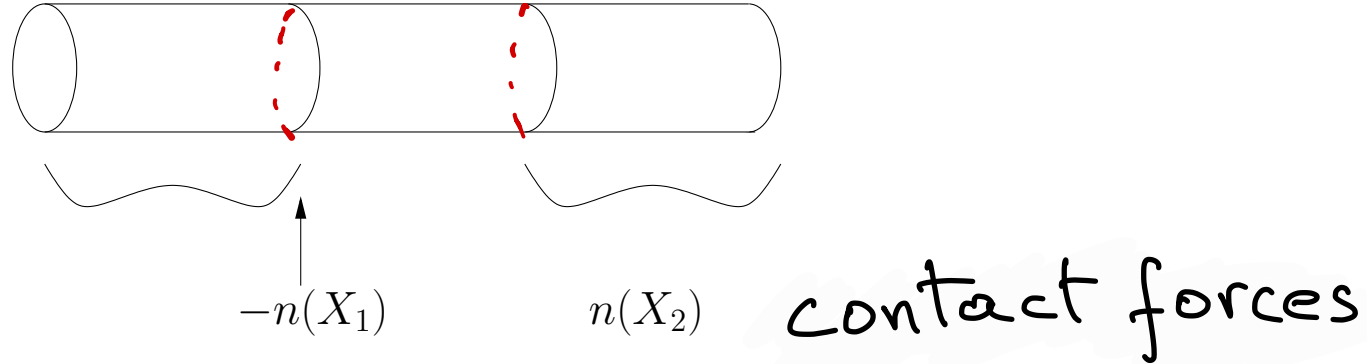
$$\frac{d}{dt}(\text{linear momentum}) = \text{force acting on the system.}$$

We decompose this into



1) **The linear momentum:**

$$\int_{X_1}^{X_2} \rho_0 \dot{x} dX \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{d}{dt} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \rho_0 \dot{x} dx = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \rho_0 \ddot{x} dx \quad (7)$$



2) **forces**: themselves further decompose into forces due to **external (body)** forces or **internal (contact)** forces:

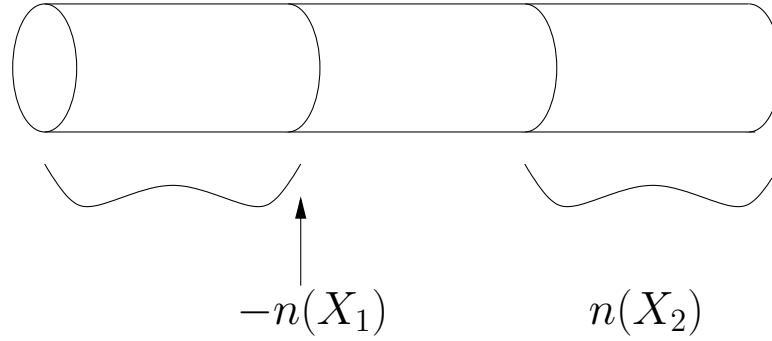
- **Body forces**,

$$\int_{X_1}^{X_2} \rho_0 f \, dX \quad (8)$$

where f is the density of body force (force per unit mass).

- **Contact forces**: force the material exerts on itself.

This material exerts a force $n(X_2)$ on $[0, X_2]$ counted positive (tensile) if the force is in the direction of the axis, compressive otherwise. Therefore, from the principle of action=reaction, the contact force acting on the segment $[X_1, X_2]$ is $n(X_2) - n(X_1)$



Therefore, the balance of linear momentum for a one-dimensional continuum implies

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{X_1}^{X_2} \rho_0 \dot{x} dX = \int_{X_1}^{X_2} \rho_0 f dX + n(X_2) - n(X_1) \quad (9)$$

We obtain an expression with a single integral by (i) moving the derivative inside the integral and (ii) use the fundamental theorem of calculus,

$$\int_{X_1}^{X_2} \frac{\partial n}{\partial X} dX = n(X_2) - n(X_1). \quad (10)$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{X_1}^{X_2} \left[\rho_0 \ddot{x} - \rho_0 f + \frac{\partial n}{\partial X} \right] dX = 0$$

This relation is valid $\forall X_1, X_2$, so that, we can localise the integral (assuming continuity of the integrand) to obtain

$$\rho_0 a = \rho_0 f + \frac{\partial n}{\partial X}. \quad \text{Lagrangian} \quad (12)$$

This is an equation for the force $n(X)$ in the material (Cauchy first equation).

This equation is in the reference configuration (all quantities depend on the material variable X and time t). We can obtain an equation in the current configuration by using $dX = \lambda^{-1} dx$

$$\rho a = \rho f + \frac{\partial n}{\partial x}. \quad \text{Eulerian} \quad (13)$$

The process to obtain a *local* equation (PDE) is:

- (i) **balance law** from physical principle
- (ii) **transport**: all quantities in the same reference frame
- (iii) **localisation**: transform an integral relation to a differential one.

But what is $\partial n / \partial x$? We need a constitutive law to close the system.

1.3.3 Constitutive laws

To close the problem, we need to relate the stresses to the strains, such as Hooke's law

$$n = K(\lambda - 1). \quad (14)$$

For large deformations, we will assume that the material is *hyperelastic*: the constitutive law derives from an elastic potential Ψ :

$$n = f(\lambda) = \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \lambda}. \quad (15)$$

we require $f(1) = 0$ and the derivative of f at $\lambda = 1$ exists.

Then, the Hooke constant $K = f'(1)$ is then simply the linearised behaviour around the stress-free state.

The theory of three-dimensional elasticity developed in next section when applied to the uniaxial extension of an incompressible rectangular *neo-Hookean* bar suggests the following nonlinear law

$$n = \frac{K}{3}(\lambda^2 - \lambda^{-1}), \quad (16)$$

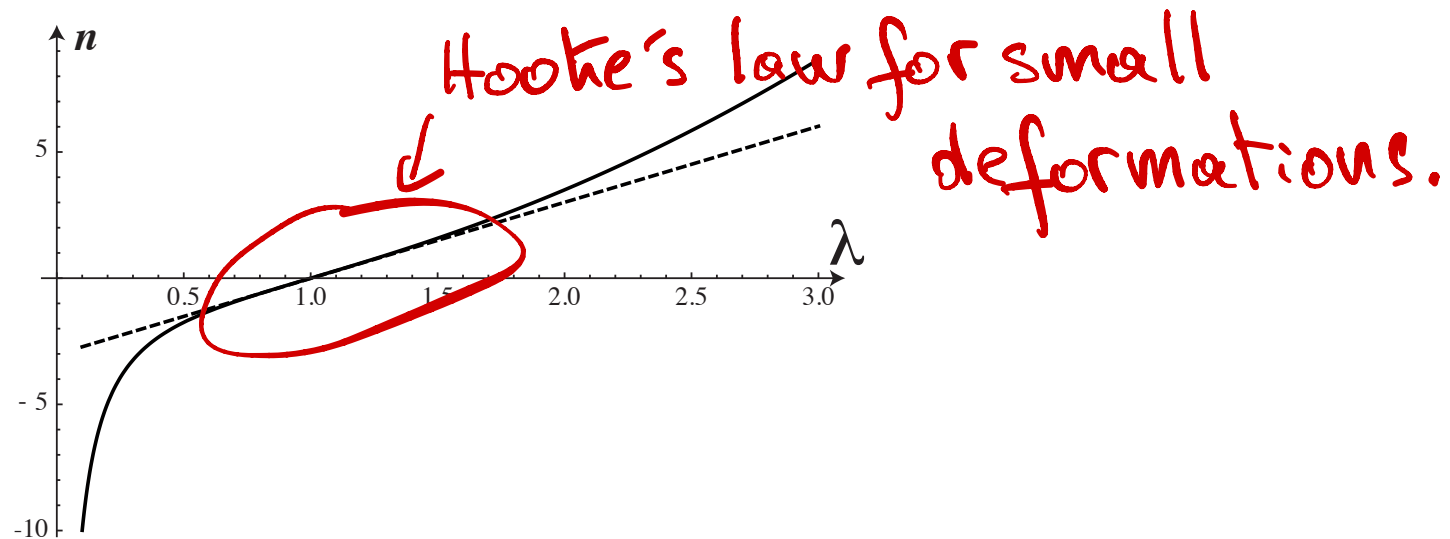
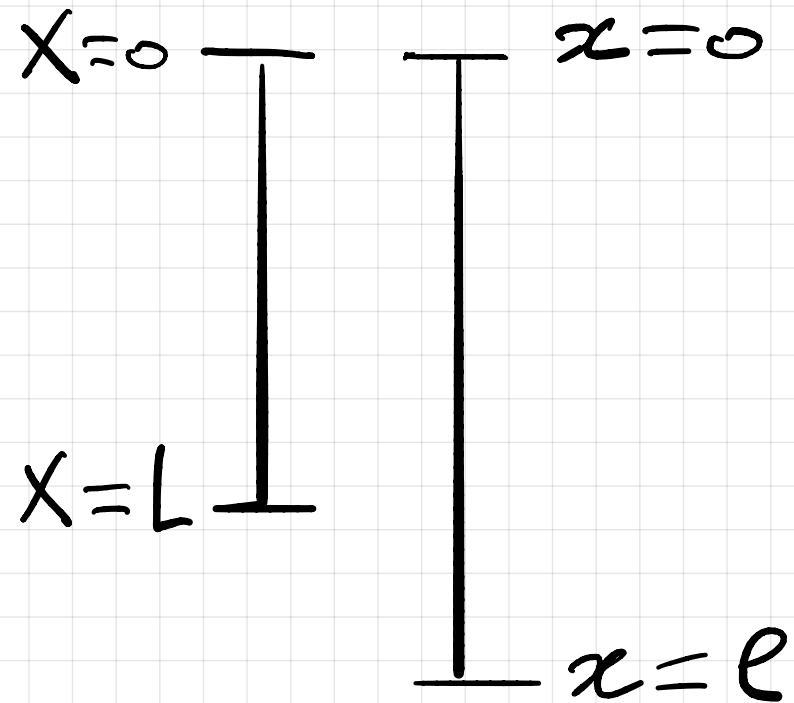


Figure 1: Comparison between the linear (dash) and nonlinear (solid) Hookean response for $K = 3$.

Example: Bungee cord.

1 April 1979, Oxford Club for Dangerous Sports



length of rope under
its own weight?

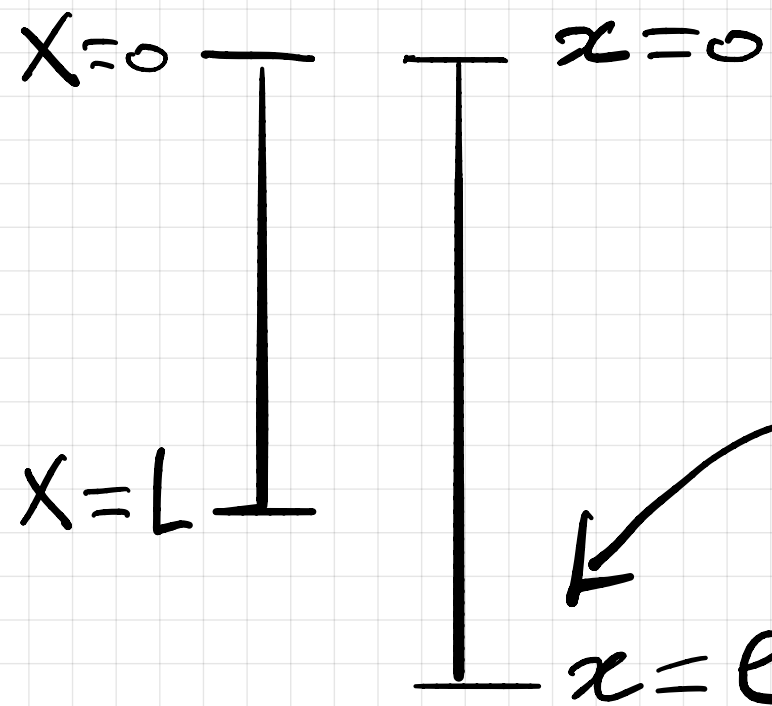
Example: Bungee cord.



$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} &= -\rho_0 g \\ n(x=L) &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\}$$



Example: Bungee cord.

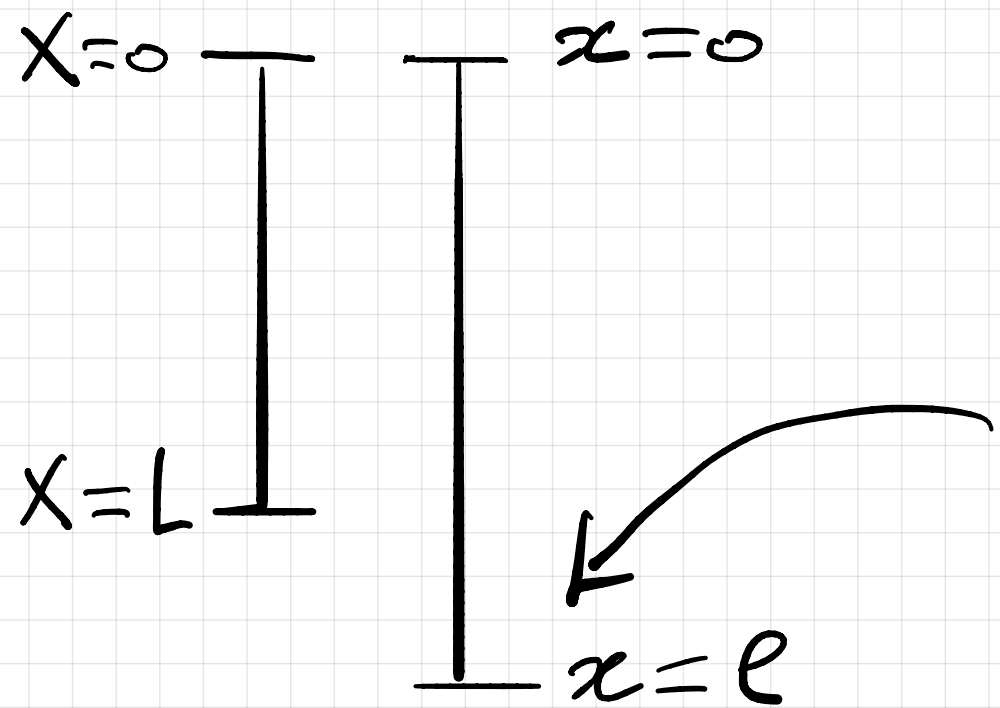


$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} &= -\rho_0 g \\ n(x=L) &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow n = \rho_0 g (L - x)$$

Check $n(0) = \rho_0 g L$ (rope's weight)
✓

Example: Bungee cord.

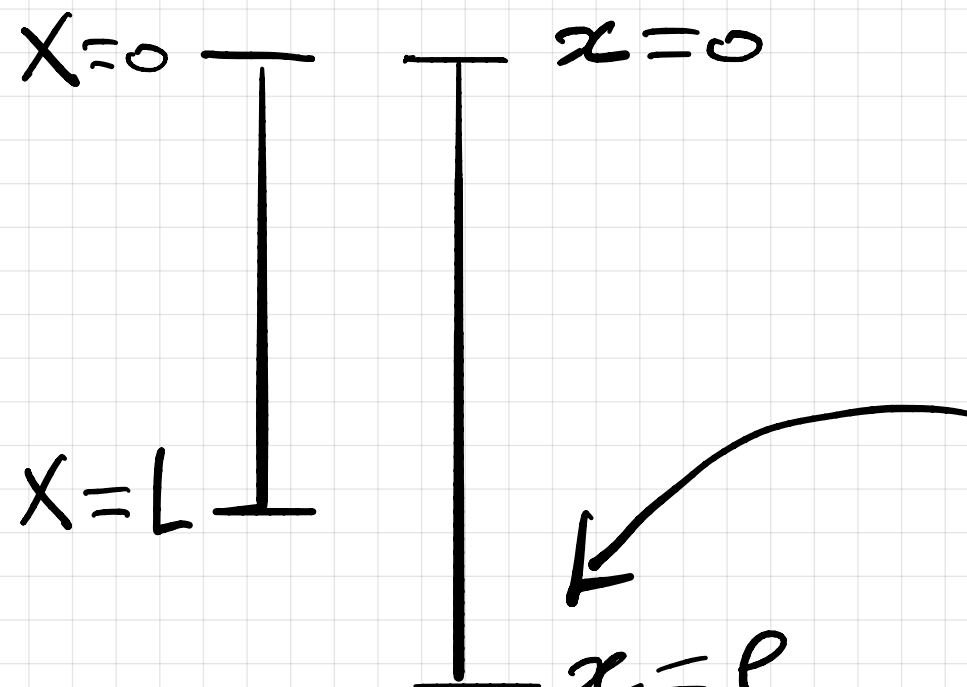

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} = -\rho_0 g \\ n(x=L) = 0 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow n = \rho_0 g (L - x)$$

Hookean assumption:

$$\frac{n}{A} = E (\lambda - 1)$$

$$\hookrightarrow \lambda = \frac{\partial x}{\partial X}$$

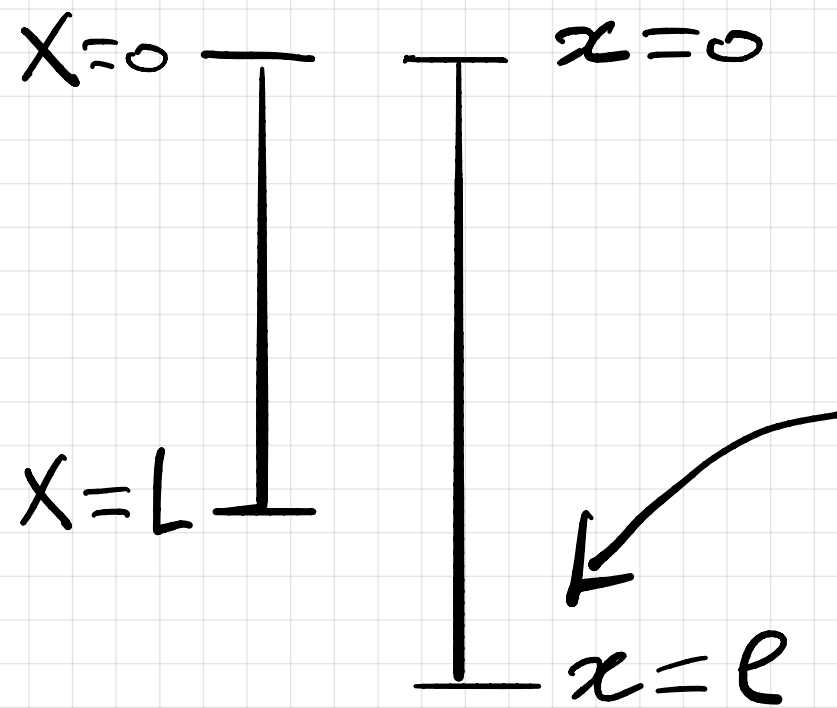
Example: Bungee cord.


$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} &= -\rho_0 g \\ n(x=L) &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow n = \rho_0 g (L-x)$$

Hookean assumption: $\frac{n}{A} = E(\lambda - 1)$

$$\rho_0 g (L-x) = E \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial x} - 1 \right)$$
$$\Rightarrow 1 + \frac{\rho_0 g}{AE} (L-x) = \frac{\partial x}{\partial x}$$

Example: Bungee cord.

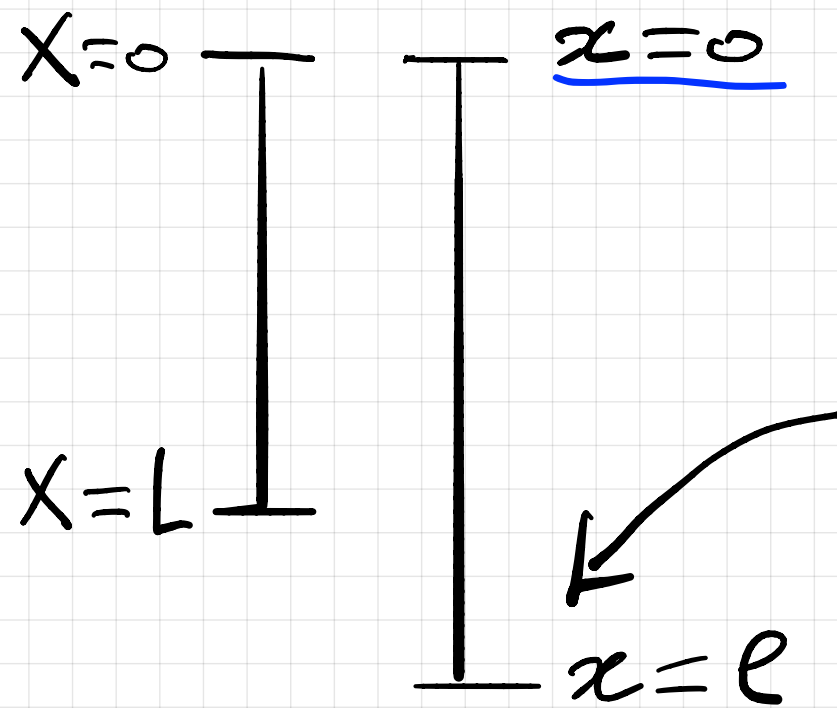

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} &= -\rho_0 g \\ n(x=L) &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow n = \rho_0 g (L-x)$$

Hookean assumption: $\frac{n}{A} = E(\lambda - 1)$

\Rightarrow

$$\mathcal{L} = X + \frac{\rho_0 g}{AE} \left(LX - \frac{X^2}{2} \right)$$

Example: Bungee cord.



$x=0$ $x=l$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} &= -\rho_0 g \\ n(x=L) &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\}$$
$$\Rightarrow n = \rho_0 g (L - x)$$

Hookean assumption: $\frac{n}{A} = E(\lambda - 1)$

\Rightarrow

$$x = X + \frac{\rho_0 g}{AE} \left(LX - \frac{X^2}{2} \right)$$

\Rightarrow

$$l = L \left(1 + \frac{\rho_0 g L}{AE} \right)$$

End of Chapter 1