

# Elements of linear elastic mechanics (LEM). Outline of topics

- A. Basic rules of LEM.
- B. Modes of deformation and elastic constants. Tension, compression, shear, hydrostatic pressure.
- C. The stress and strain tensors. Simple stress fields.
- D. Constitutive equations for a linear, elastic isotropic solid.
- E. Pure bending of a beam.
- F. Torsion of cylindrical shaft.

**Text:** Crandall et al. *An Introduction to the Mechanics of Solids* (on reserve), esp. Chs. on “Stress and strain”, “Torsion”, “Stresses due to bending”.

# A. Basic rules of LEM

- **Matter is a continuum.**
- **Linearity. Directly proportional relation between stress and strain. No terms with exponent higher than 1.**
- **Elasticity. Time-independent mechanical behavior. Loading and deformation independent of time.**
- **Isotropy. The elastic constants are independent of loading direction.**
- **Conservation of mass.**

# Three steps used in solving structural problems of solid mechanics (Crandall's triad).

1. **Force equilibrium**: The sum of all external forces and moments that act on the body, and on every part of the body, is zero.
2. **Geometric compatibility**: Body deforms in such a way that a displacement of a given point takes only one value, so that adjacent parts of the body remain connected.
3. **Stress-strain laws (constitutive equations)**: Forces related to deformations through material properties (if "linear elastic" behavior, use elastic constants  $E$ ,  $G$ ,  $K$  or  $\nu$ ).

# **“Structures” in solid mechanics are houses, planes, bridges, hip prostheses**

- In solving a structure, consider the geometry and especially the symmetry (tube? membrane? sheet?); the load distribution that, combined with the geometry, determines the “stress field” (e.g., single vs multiple load); and the material used (rigid? flexible?).
- **Structure = geometry + loading pattern +  
+ material properties**

## **B. Modes of deformation and elastic constants.**

- **Elastic constants, such as Young's modulus,  $E$ , the shear modulus, the compressibility modulus, are material properties that relate stress to strain. Another constant, Poisson's ratio, relates strain along two orthogonal axes.**
- **These constants can be defined by referring to certain simple stress fields. The simplest fields are simple tension and compression, shear and hydrostatic pressure.**

Diagram defining simple tension  
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**Simple tension**

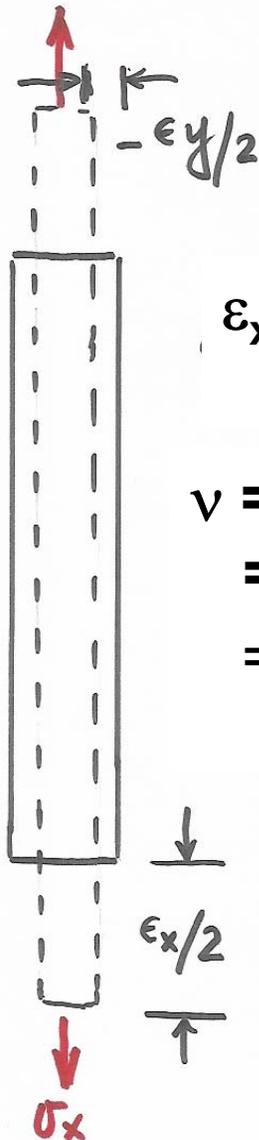
**from Ashby  
textbook**

Diagram defining simple compression  
removed for copyright reasons.

**Simple compression**

**from Ashby  
textbook**

# Simple tension



$\epsilon_x \cong (L-L_0)/L_0$ . Compression described by reversing signs.

$\nu = \text{lateral strain/longitudinal strain} =$   
 $= \text{tensile strain/contractile strain} =$   
 $= -\epsilon_y / \epsilon_x$

$$0 \leq \nu \leq 0.5$$

Typical values of Poisson's ratio,  $\nu$   
(a measure of volume change) :

rubber, tissues  $\cong 0.5$

aluminum, 0.33

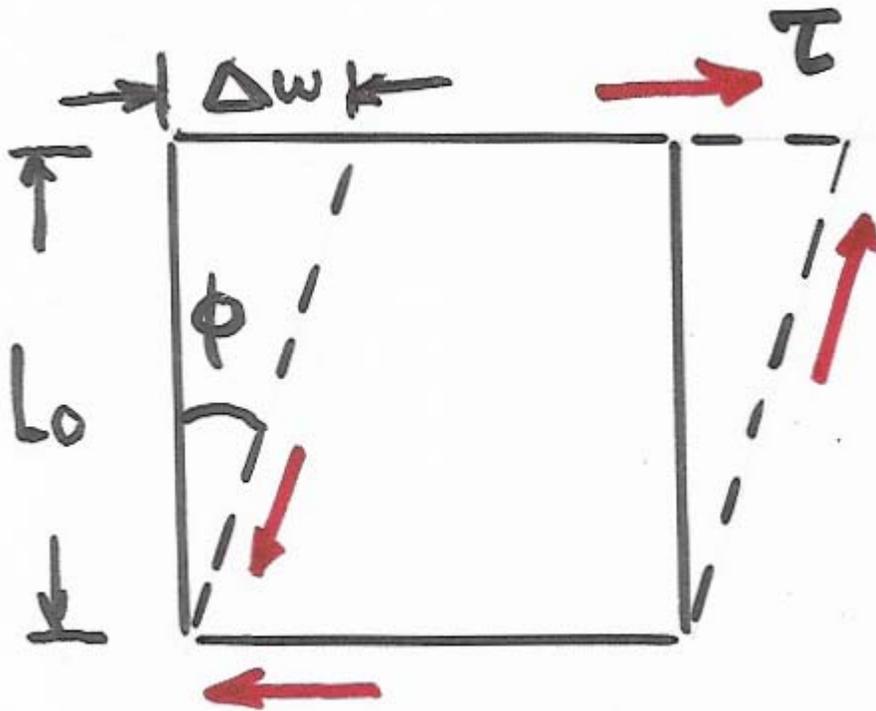
stainless steel, 0.27

Diagram defining pure shear  
removed for copyright reasons.

**Pure shear**

**From  
Ashby textbook**

## Pure shear



shear stress =  $\tau$

shear strain =  $\gamma = \Delta w/L_0 =$   
 $= \tan \phi \cong \phi$

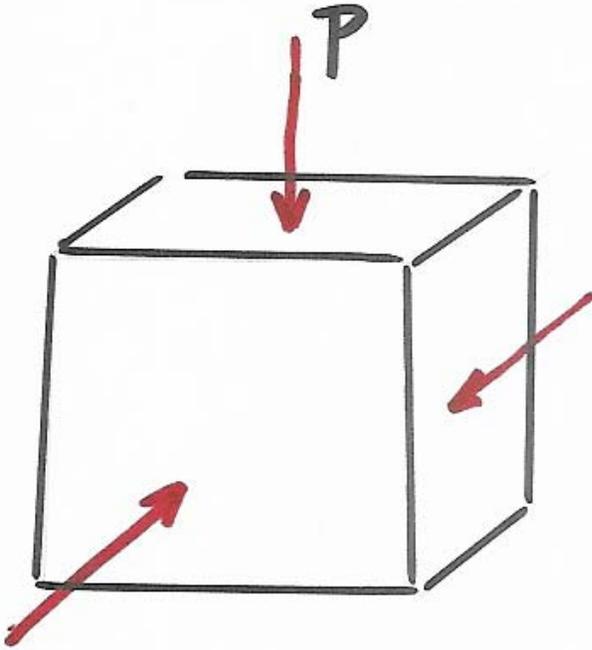
shear modulus =  $G = \tau/\gamma \cong \tau/\phi$   
 $G$  is a measure of change in  
shape only (not size change)

Diagram defining hydrostatic pressure  
removed for copyright reasons.

**Hydrostatic pressure**

**From Ashby  
textbook**

## Hydrostatic pressure



$$\text{stress} = P = (\sigma_x + \sigma_y + \sigma_z)/3$$
$$\text{strain} = -\Delta V/V_0$$

bulk modulus  $K = -(\sigma_x + \sigma_y + \sigma_z)/(3\Delta V/V_0)$   
K is a measure of change in size only  
(not shape)

# Relations among elastic constants. Shape vs. size changes

**$G = E/[2(1+\nu)]$  . As  $\nu \rightarrow 0.5$  (tissues),  $G \rightarrow E/3$   
(rubber, many tissues)**

**$K = E/[3(1-2\nu)]$ . As  $\nu \rightarrow 0.5$  (tissues),  $K \rightarrow \infty$   
(incompressible material)**

**Generally, deformation =  $\Delta(\text{shape}) + \Delta(\text{size})$ .**

$$\Delta(\text{size}) = \Delta V/V_0 = \varepsilon_x(1-2\nu).$$

**If  $\nu = 1/2$ , the material is 'incompressible'.**

**$\Delta(\text{shape})$  = depends on geometry. Certain modes of loading lead to change of shape with no change in size (pure torsion); the reverse can also occur (hydrostatic compression).**

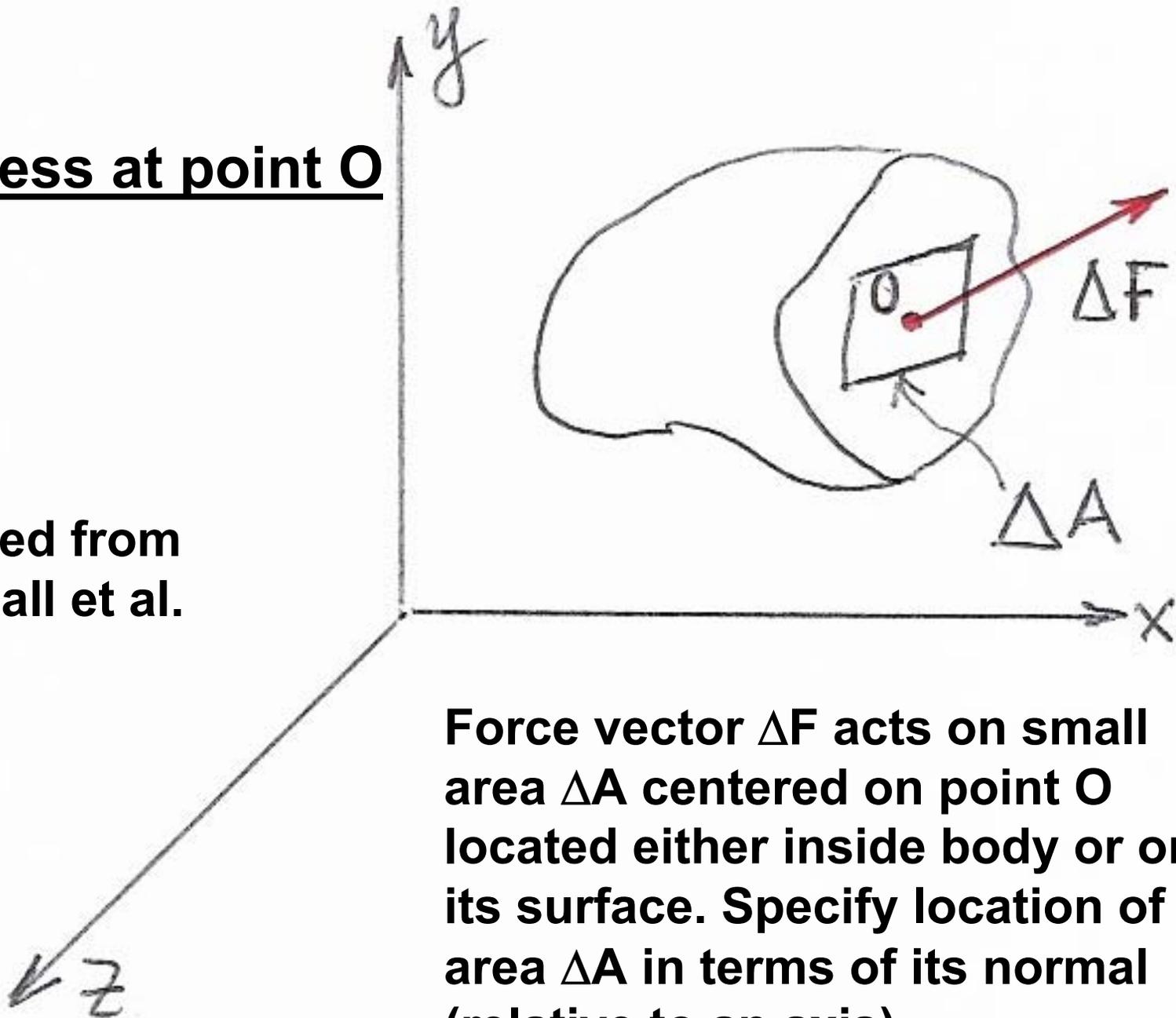
# C. The stress and strain tensors.

## Simple stress fields.

- Unlike forces that are represented as vectors (3 components acting along each of three axes), stress and strain are represented as tensors (9 components). The reason for the additional complexity arises from the need to describe not only the magnitude (scalar) and direction (vector describes both magnitude and direction) of a stress component but also the plane in which it is located inside the body. A tensor component informs about magnitude and direction at a specific location inside a medium.
- Stress and strain tensors are symmetric. They summarize valuable information about the mechanical conditions at a point O, located either inside or at the surface of a body.

## Stress at point O

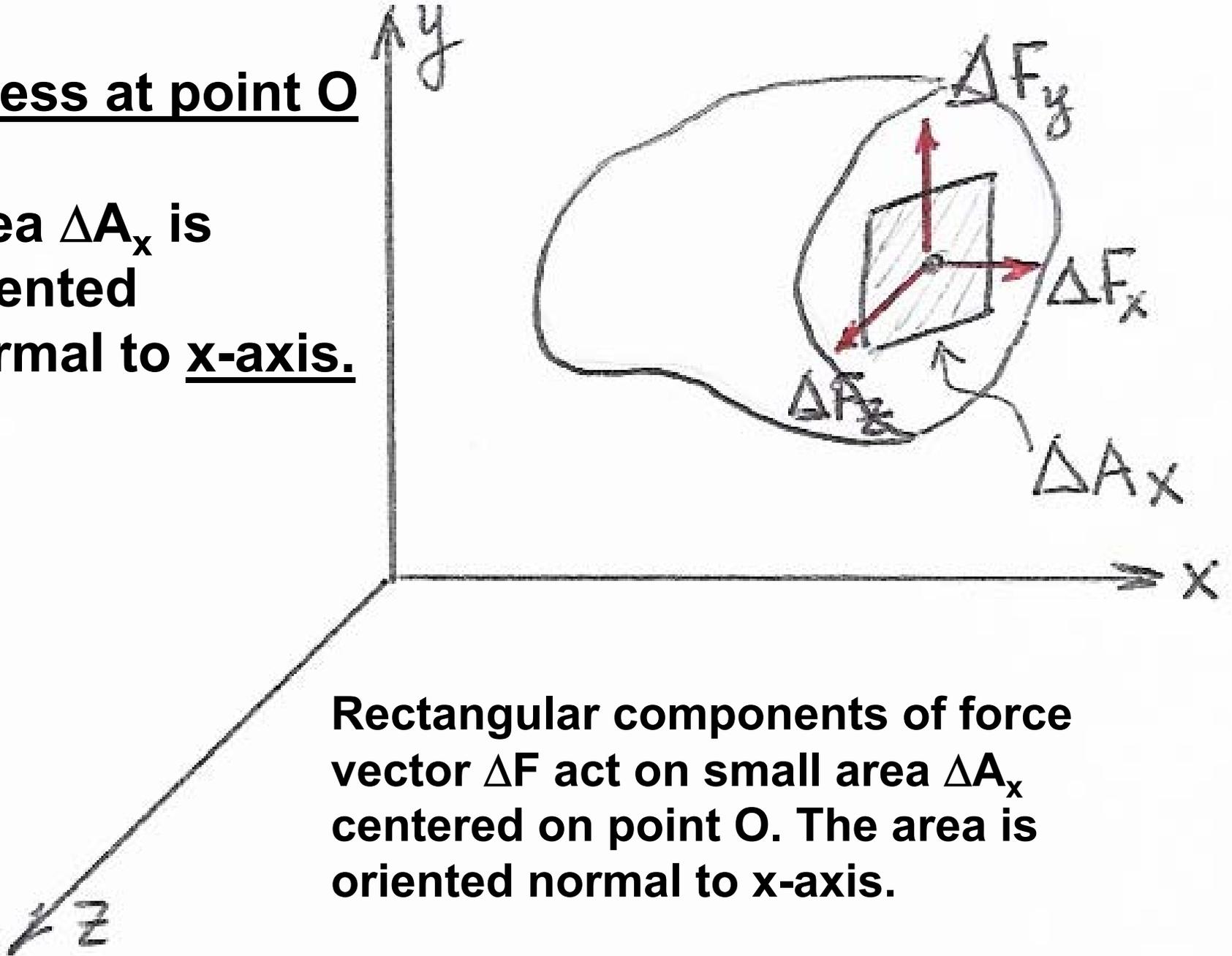
Adapted from  
Crandall et al.



**Force vector  $\Delta F$  acts on small area  $\Delta A$  centered on point  $O$  located either inside body or on its surface. Specify location of area  $\Delta A$  in terms of its normal (relative to an axis).**

**Stress at point O**

**Area  $\Delta A_x$  is oriented normal to x-axis.**



**Rectangular components of force vector  $\Delta F$  act on small area  $\Delta A_x$  centered on point O. The area is oriented normal to x-axis.**

# From force vector to stress

In the limit, as  $\Delta A_x \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\Delta F_x / \Delta A_x$  becomes a stress component acting at point O. It is located in the plane normal to the x-axis and acts along the x-axis as well.

$$\sigma_{xx} = \lim_{\Delta A_x \rightarrow 0} \Delta F_x / \Delta A_x$$

The first subscript of the tensor notation describes the location of the stress component in the plane that is defined by its normal to the x-axis.

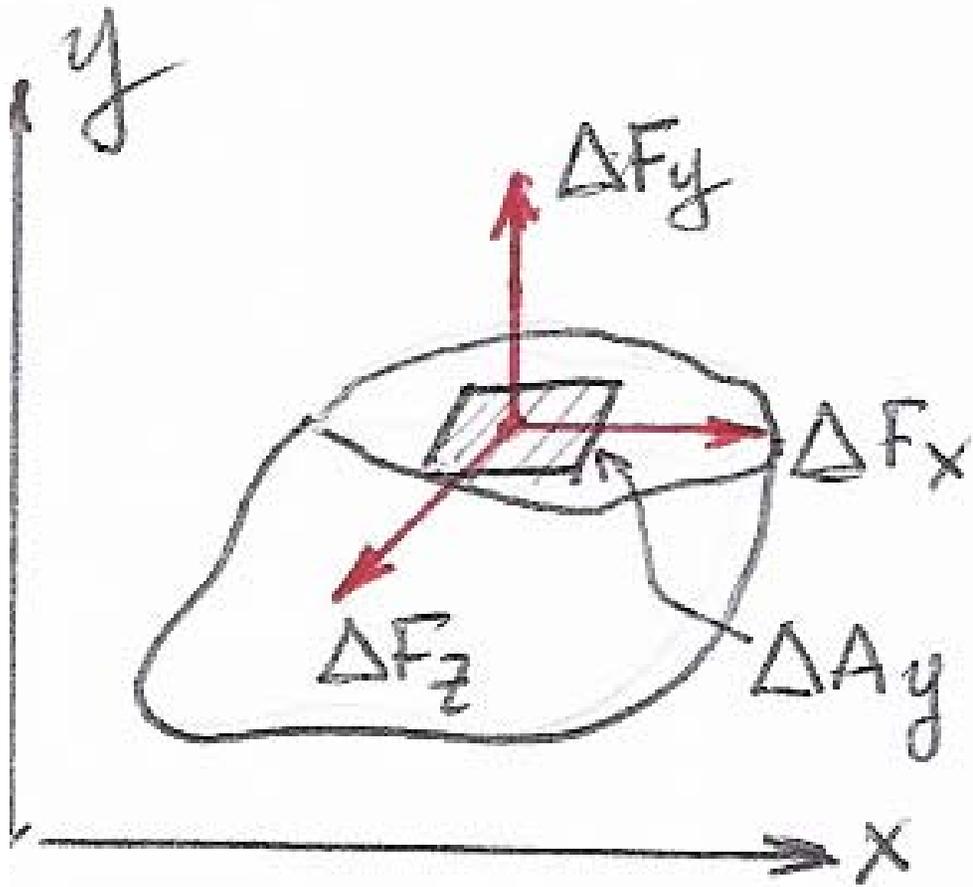
The second subscript describes the direction of the stress component, defined simply (as with vector notation) by the x-axis along which it acts.

If we know the stress components for all possible orientations of faces through point O, we say that we know the “state of stress at that point”.

## Stress at point O

This time the area  $\Delta A_y$  is oriented normal to the y-axis

Define stress components located in plane normal to y-axis:  
 $\sigma_{yy}$ ,  $\tau_{yx}$ ,  $\tau_{yz}$  etc.



Rectangular components of force vector  $\Delta F$  act on small area  $\Delta A_y$  centered on point O. The area is oriented normal to y-axis.

# Normal and shear stress components of the stress tensor

- A normal stress component acts along the same axis as that which defines its location. There are only three normal components:  $\sigma_{xx}$ ,  $\sigma_{yy}$ ,  $\sigma_{zz}$ . They are abbreviated as  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\sigma_y$ ,  $\sigma_z$ .
- A shear stress component acts along an axis that is different than that which defines its location. There are six shear components:  $\tau_{xy}$ ,  $\tau_{xz}$ , etc.
- The stress tensor comprises 3 normal + 6 shear components = 9 total components. However, since the diagonal components  $\tau_{xy} = \tau_{yx}$ ,  $\tau_{xz} = \tau_{zx}$ , etc., these three equalities reduce the number of independent components of the tensor to 6.

# Set up the symmetric stress and strain tensors as follows:

1. The tensor is a 3x3 matrix. Start by setting up the normal stresses along the diagonal:

$$\begin{matrix} \sigma & & \\ & \sigma & \\ & & \sigma \end{matrix}$$

2. Write  $\tau$  for the shear stresses in all other positions:

$$\begin{matrix} \sigma & \tau & \tau \\ \tau & \sigma & \tau \\ \tau & \tau & \sigma \end{matrix}$$

# Set up stress and strain tensors

(cont.):

3. Take advantage of the symmetry by inserting the first subscripts with x's in first row, y's in second row, etc.:

x	x	x
y	y	y
z	z	z

4. Now insert the second subscripts with x, y, z in each row:

x	y	z
x	y	z
x	y	z

A similar procedure yields the strain tensor.

# Stress and strain tensors

**stress tensor**

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \sigma_x & \tau_{xy} & \tau_{xz} \\ \tau_{yx} & \sigma_y & \tau_{yz} \\ \tau_{zx} & \tau_{zy} & \sigma_z \end{array}$$

**strain tensor**

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \varepsilon_x & \gamma_{xy} & \gamma_{xz} \\ \gamma_{yx} & \varepsilon_y & \gamma_{yz} \\ \gamma_{zx} & \gamma_{zy} & \varepsilon_z \end{array}$$

- **These two tensors define the state of stress and strain at a point in an isotropic linear elastic body. Only 6 components are independent.**

# Examples

**Tensorial representation of certain simple stress fields:**

- **Tendon and ligament**
- **Dermis and cornea**
- **Femoral bone**

a. Tendon and ligament: simple tension (one-dimensional beam; both size and shape changes). Stress tensor is:

$$\begin{matrix} \sigma_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{matrix}$$

**Tendon connects  
muscle to bone  
and supports  
axial forces**

Diagram illustrating extension and flexion  
removed for copyright reasons.

**From Vander et al.  
*Human Physiology*,  
McGraw-Hill, 1970, p. 230**

**b. Dermis and cornea: plane stress  
(two dimensional sheet/membrane;  
both size and shape changes).**

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \sigma_x & \tau_{xy} & 0 \\ \tau_{xy} & \sigma_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$$

**sphere of  
radius  $r$   
and  
thickness  $t$   
( $t \leq 0.1r$ )**

$$\sigma_r = 0$$

$$\sigma_\theta = pr/2t$$

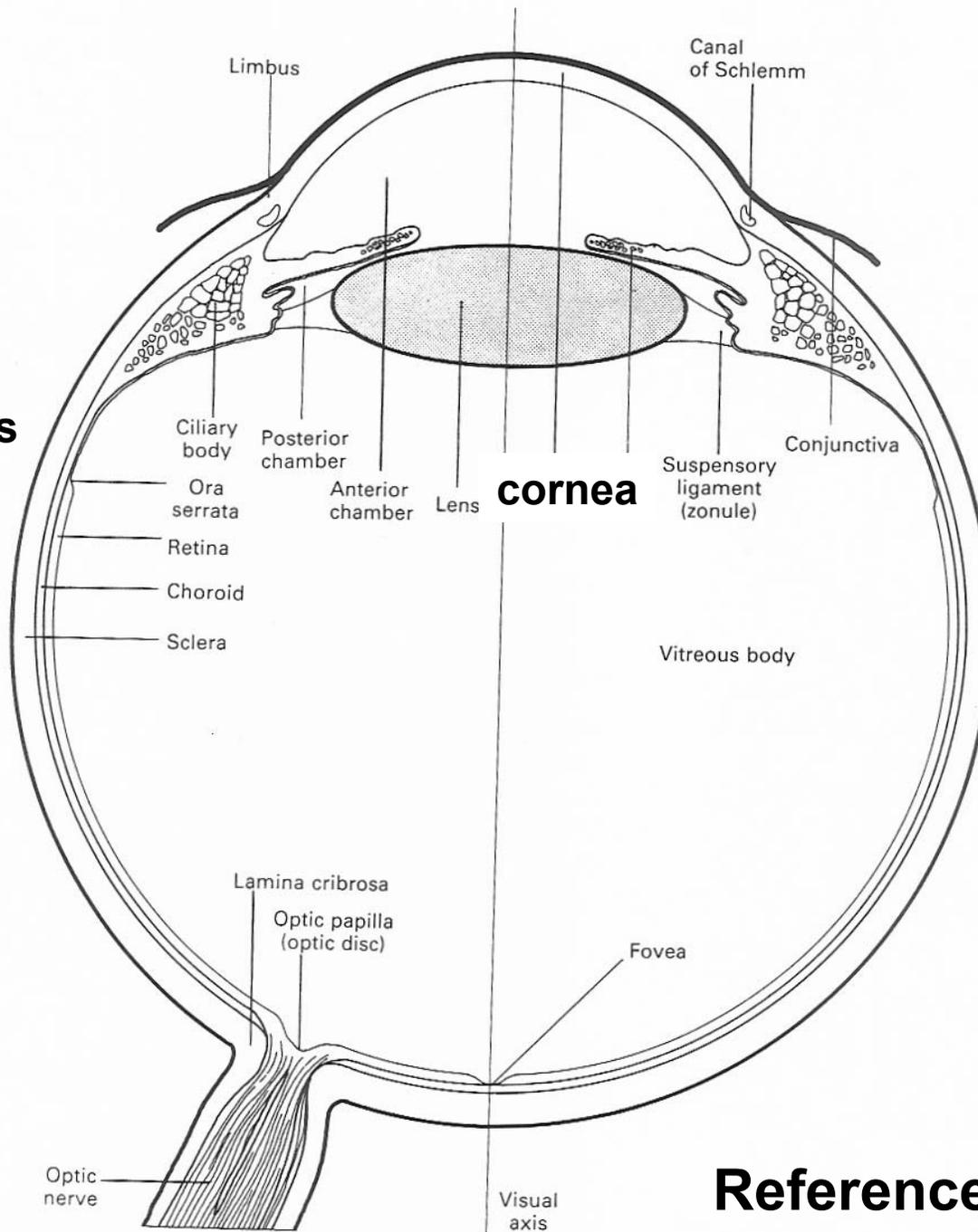
$$\sigma_z = pr/2t$$

**shear  
stresses  
are zero  
(symmetry)**

Diagram defining biaxial tension  
removed for copyright reasons.

# The eye

the cornea is a very thin membrane that is subjected to a plane stress field



Reference not recalled

**CORNEA. Membrane protects curved eye surface from tangential forces. Planar orientation of collagen fibers.**

Photo removed for copyright reasons.

Tadpole cornea

**Gross article from *Sci. Amer.***

# SKIN

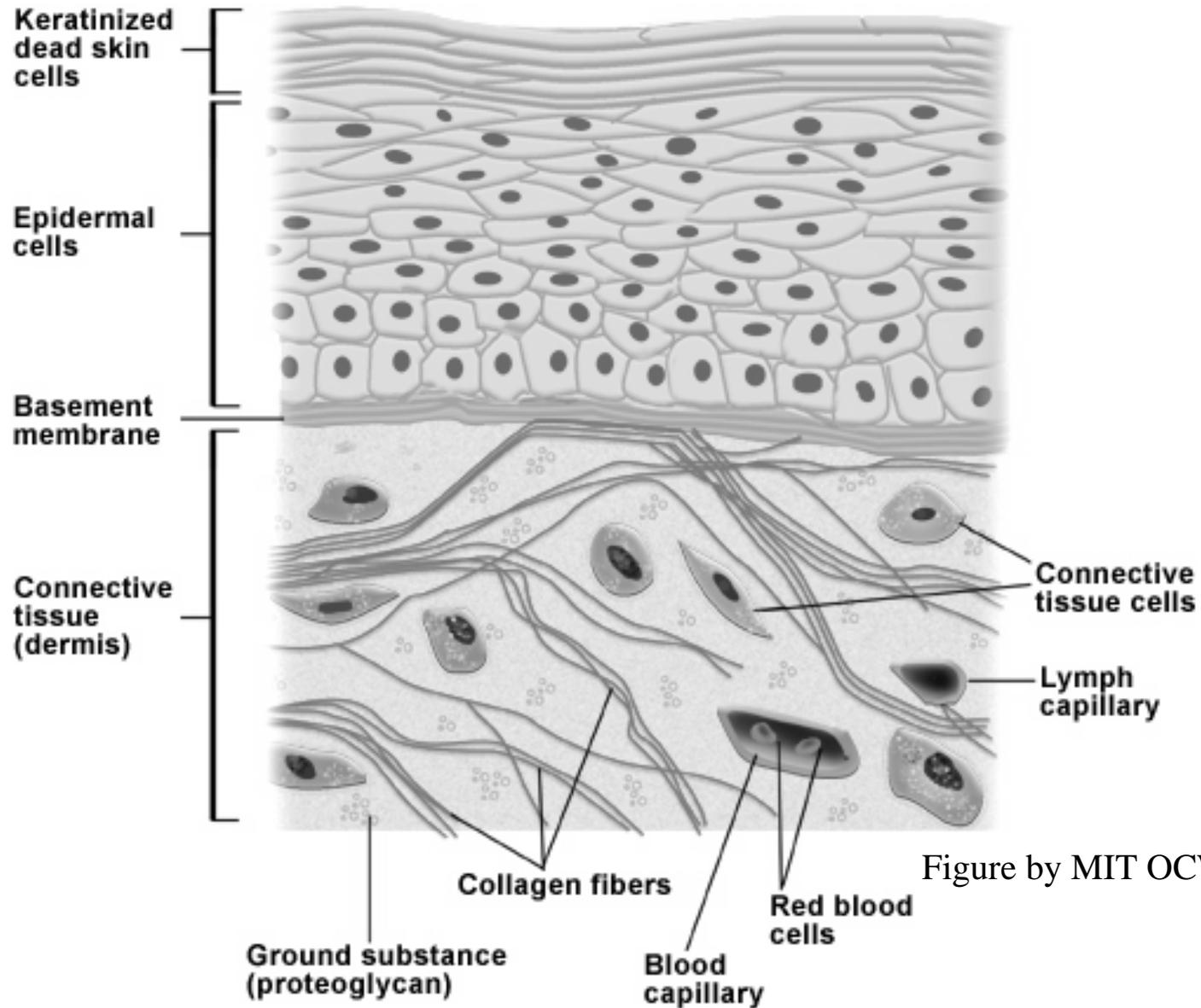


Figure by MIT OCW.

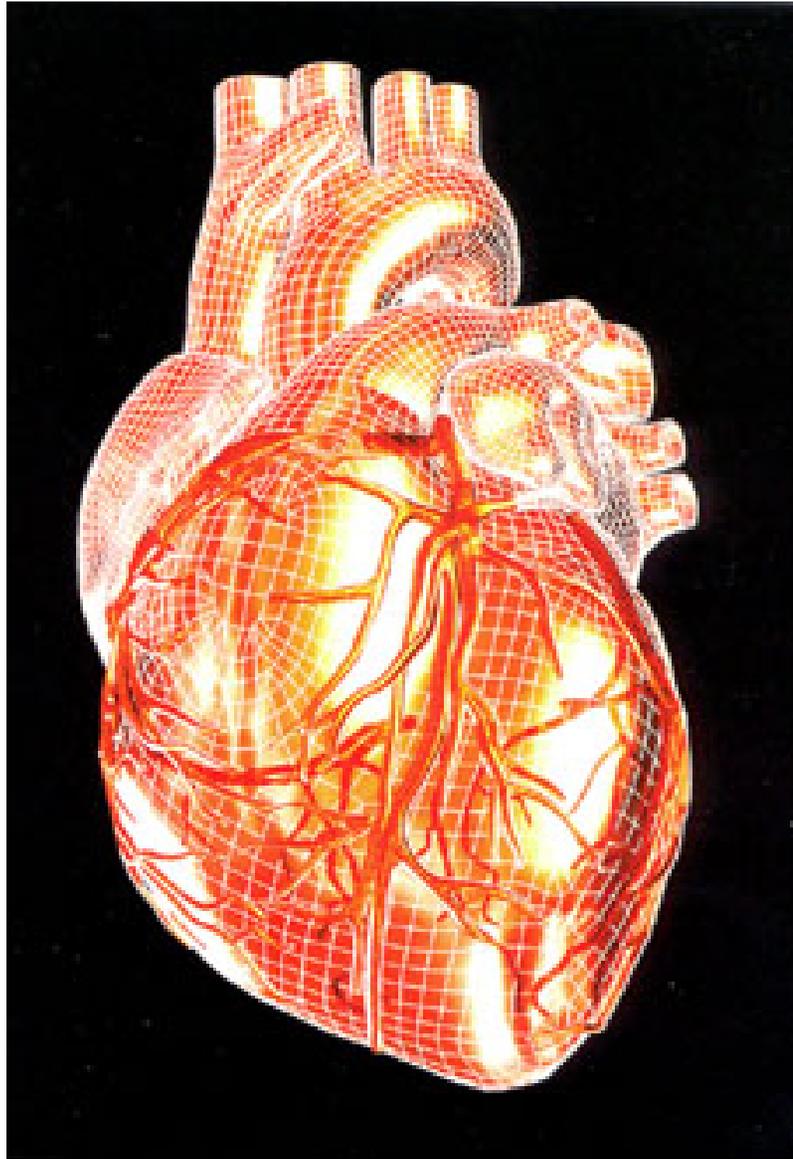


Image courtesy of Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory.

**Example from current research**  
**Identify stress field that appears to  
block nerve regeneration**

# Rat sciatic nerve model of nerve regeneration

Diagram removed for copyright reasons.

**From The Guinea Pig  
book**

# **NERVE: Transection (cut through) leads to neuroma formation. The endoneurium does not regenerate.**

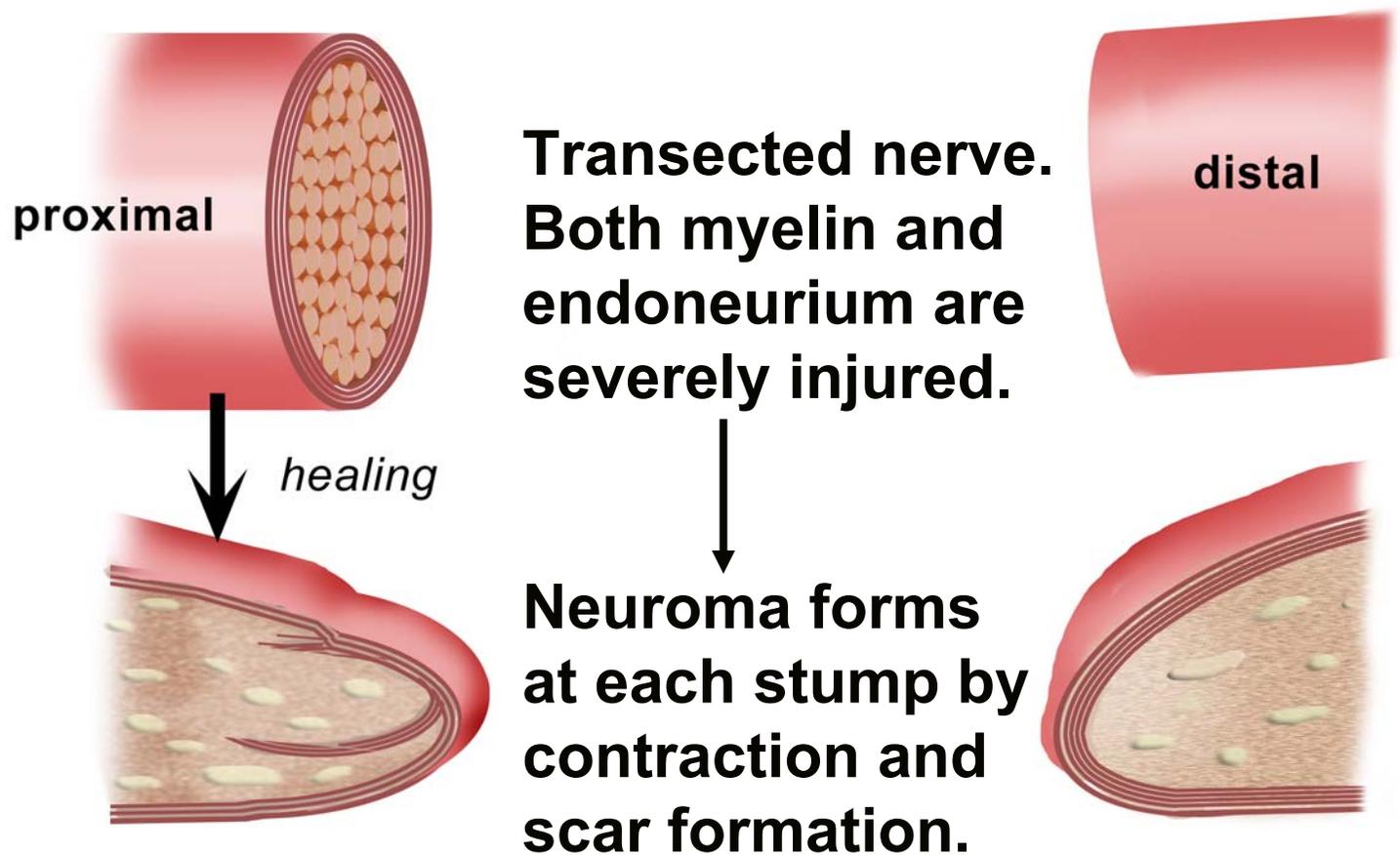
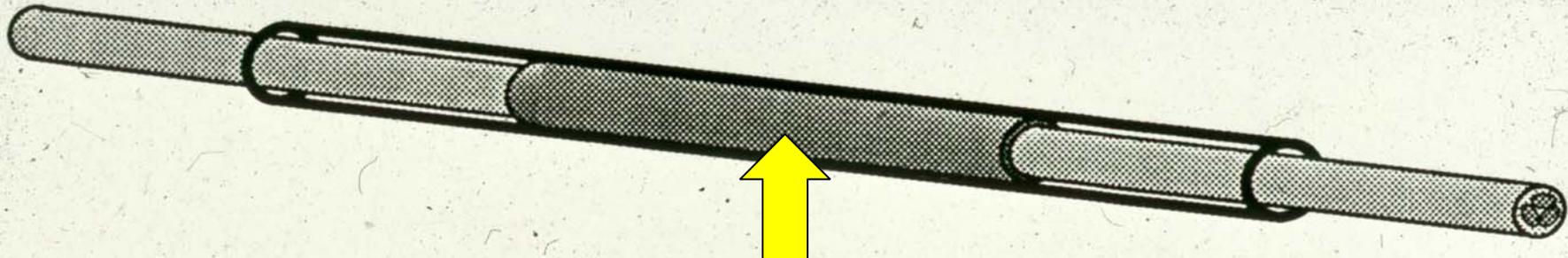
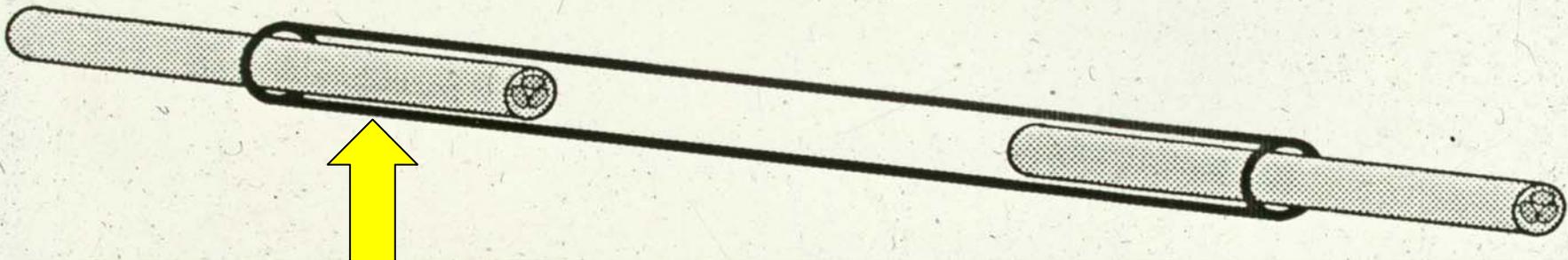


Figure by MIT OCW. After Yannas 2001.

# Tubulation model for study of nerve regeneration



**Filling of gap between stumps with a template can induce regeneration**



**Unfilled gap. Study effect of tube alone on regeneration**

**unpublished**

Diagram removed due to copyright considerations.  
See Figure 10.7 top left in [Yannas 2001]: Yannas, I. V. *Tissue and Organ Regeneration in Adults*. New York: Springer, 2001.

**normal sciatic  
nerve of rat**

**Classical data: Cell capsule is always present around regenerated nerve. Circular perimeter of capsule. Kinks in capsule perimeter.**

Diagram removed for copyright reasons.  
See Figure 10.7 in [Yannas 2001].

**Regenerated nerve**

**Intact nerve**

**Jenq and Coggeshall, 1985**

**Regenerated nerve.  
Close view of  
capsule  
surrounding it.**

Diagram removed for copyright reasons.  
See Figure 10.7 top right in [Yannas 2001].

# Capsule of contractile cells surrounds regenerating nerve

Photo removed for copyright reasons.

**regenerated nerve**



**contractile cells**



**original stump surface**

**silicone tube**  
yields low quality  
regenerated nerve

**collagen tube** yields a  
regenerated nerve of  
much higher quality

Photo removed for  
copyright reasons.

Photo removed for  
copyright reasons.

**thick**  
capsule of  
contractile  
cells  
(arrows)

**thin**  
capsule

**Chemical composition of tube has dramatic effect on  
nerve regeneration**

**Chamberlain et al., 1998**

# Use the data to set up a mathematical model of nerve regeneration

The pressure cuff hypothesis. A cuff of contractile cells surrounding the regenerating nerve blocks its regeneration. Model the effect of a contractile cell capsule surrounding a regenerating nerve as if it were a cylinder filled with gas under pressure:

$$\sigma_r = 0$$

$$\sigma_\theta = pr/t$$

$$\sigma_z = pr/2t$$

Calculate the radial strain  $\varepsilon_r = \Delta R/R_o$

$$\Delta R/R_o = (1/E)(1-\nu)\sigma_\theta \text{ where } \sigma_\theta = \sigma_{\text{cell}}t$$

Brau, 2002

c. Femoral bone: pure bending of beam (shear stresses zero; only one normal stress nonzero; geometry alone determines deformation; no change in shape)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \sigma_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$$

**Normal bones**

**Collagen fibers  
in bones lack  
crosslinking**

Photos removed for copyright reasons.

**Gross article in  
Sci. American**

d. Knee joint in basketball injury:  
simple torsion of shaft (all normal stresses zero; only one shear stress nonzero; geometry alone determines deformation; no change in size)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & \tau_{\theta z} & 0 \\ \tau_{\theta z} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$$

## **D. Constitutive equations of linear elastic mechanics (Hooke's law).**

**Six equations expressing each component of the strain tensor as a function of one or more components of stress tensor:**

$$\varepsilon_x = (1/E) [\sigma_x - \nu(\sigma_y + \sigma_z)]$$

$$\varepsilon_y = (1/E) [\sigma_y - \nu(\sigma_z + \sigma_x)]$$

$$\varepsilon_z = (1/E) [\sigma_z - \nu(\sigma_x + \sigma_y)]$$

$$\gamma_{xy} = \tau_{xy}/G$$

$$\gamma_{yz} = \tau_{yz}/G$$

$$\gamma_{zx} = \tau_{zx}/G$$

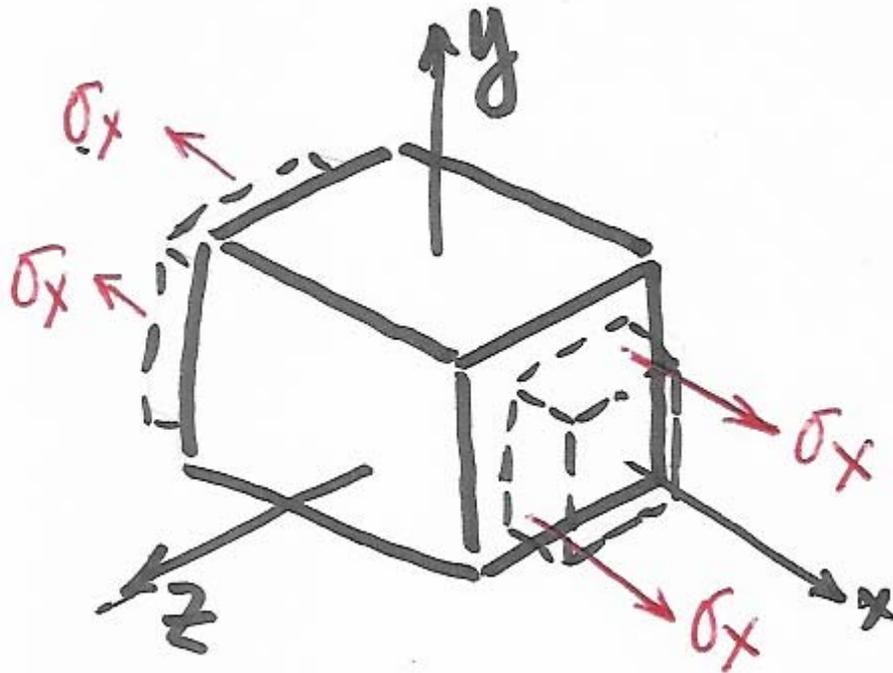
# Constitutive equations of LEM (cont.)

- Exactly how does the mathematical notation describe these bodies as being "linear"? What in the math makes them "elastic"? Which experiments can diagnose a material as being linear? Elastic?
- The constitutive equations can alternately be written in terms of the stress components as well as in indicial notation. (see Crandall et al. Chap. "Stress and strain".)

**Derive the constitutive equations  
by identifying stress components  
of the tensor one by one**

1. Add the first stress  $\sigma_x$ . It causes strain  $\varepsilon_x$ .
  2. Assume linear elastic isotropic material.
- Uniaxial stress  $\sigma_x$  acting alone.

$$\sigma_y = \sigma_z = \tau_{xy} = \tau_{xz} = \tau_{yz} = 0$$

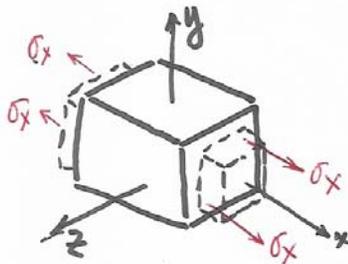


tension along x-axis  
leads to tensile strain

$$\varepsilon_x = \sigma_x / E$$

Sketches adapted from  
Crandall et al.

**2. Lateral strains resulting from first stress**  
 **$\underline{\sigma_x}$ . The normal stress  $\sigma_x$  also causes lateral contraction along y- and z- axes. Lateral strains due to contraction along y-axis and z-axis must be equal because neither the material (isotropic) nor the mode of stressing favors either direction.**

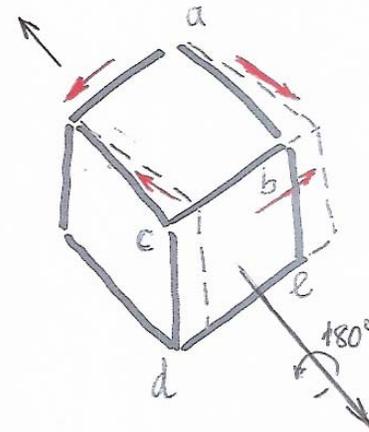
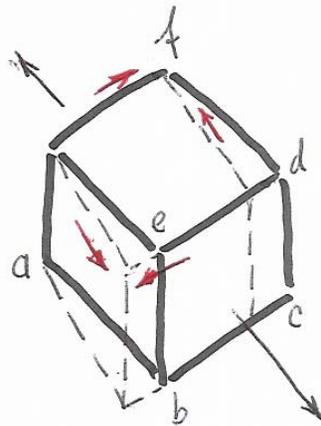


$$\varepsilon_y = \varepsilon_z = -\nu\varepsilon_x = -\nu\sigma_x/E$$

Sketches adapted from  
Crandall et al.

3. Do normal stresses produce shear strains? Consider possibility that shear strains result from normal stress  $\sigma_x$ . If a shear strain was present (left, broken lines), rotation by  $180^\circ$  about the x-axis would give shear strain in the opposite sense (right). However, since the material is isotropic, the stress-strain behavior should be independent of a  $180^\circ$  rotation. Avoid this contradiction only if shear strain due to normal stress becomes zero.

before  
 $180^\circ$   
rotation



after  
 $180^\circ$   
rotation

Sketches adapted from Crandall et al.

**$\therefore$  A normal stress produces only normal strains.  
No shear strains produced from normal stress.**

#### **4. Strains from adding a second normal component of stress, $\sigma_y$ .**

**Because of the linearity of the  $\sigma$ - $\varepsilon$  relation an increment of stress produces the same increment of strain regardless of the level of stress present before the increment was later added. Therefore, the strains resulting from adding  $\sigma_y$  are linearly related to  $\sigma_y$  and are directly additive to the strains due to  $\sigma_x$  .**

$$\varepsilon_y = \sigma_y/E$$

**Furthermore, due to isotropy, the lateral strains  $\varepsilon_x$  and  $\varepsilon_z$  due to  $\sigma_x$  are equal.**

$$\varepsilon_x = \varepsilon_z = -\nu\varepsilon_y = -\nu\sigma_y/E$$

**5. Add a third normal component of the stress,  $\sigma_z$ .**

**Analogous results obtained for strains due to  $\sigma_z$ :**

$$\varepsilon_z = \sigma_z/E$$

$$\varepsilon_x = \varepsilon_y = -\nu\varepsilon_z = -\nu\sigma_z/E$$

**6. Can a normal strain component  $\varepsilon_y$  be due to a shear stress component  $\tau_{zx}$  ?**

**A rotation would change the sign of the shear stress component  $\tau_{zx}$  but the sign of the hypothetical  $\varepsilon_y$  would be unchanged. However, linearity of the material requires consistent changes of sign for a proportionality between  $\varepsilon_y$  and  $\tau_{zx}$  to exist. Contradiction avoided if the normal strain  $\varepsilon_y$  is zero. Similar arguments lead to conclusion:**

**$\therefore$  Each shear stress component produces only its corresponding shear strain component.**

**7. Shear strains caused by shear stresses.**  
Since linearity requires proportionality between stress and strain, and isotropy requires that the constant of proportionality **G** (shear modulus) remain independent of orientation, we get:

$$\gamma_{zx} = \tau_{zx}/G$$

$$\gamma_{xy} = \tau_{xy}/G$$

$$\gamma_{yz} = \tau_{yz}/G$$

**Add up all the contributions from  
preceding steps 1-7**

$$\varepsilon_x = (1/E) [\sigma_x - \nu(\sigma_y + \sigma_z)]$$

$$\varepsilon_y = (1/E) [\sigma_y - \nu(\sigma_z + \sigma_x)]$$

$$\varepsilon_z = (1/E) [\sigma_z - \nu(\sigma_x + \sigma_y)]$$

$$\gamma_{xy} = \tau_{xy}/G$$

$$\gamma_{yz} = \tau_{yz}/G$$

$$\gamma_{zx} = \tau_{zx}/G$$

# Example of simple tension. Calculate components of stress and strain tensors.

$$\sigma_x = \varepsilon_x \mathbf{E}; \quad \sigma_y = \sigma_z = \tau_{xy} = \tau_{xz} = \tau_{zy} = 0$$

$$\varepsilon_x = (1/E)[\sigma_x - \nu(\sigma_y + \sigma_z)] =$$

$$= (1/E)[\sigma_x - \nu(0 + 0)] = (1/E)\sigma_x$$

$$\varepsilon_y = (1/E)[\sigma_y - \nu(\sigma_x + \sigma_z)] = (1/E)[0 - \nu(\sigma_x + 0)] =$$

$$= -\nu\sigma_x/E$$

$$\varepsilon_z = (1/E)[\sigma_z - \nu(\sigma_x + \sigma_y)] =$$

$$= (1/E)[0 - \nu(\sigma_x + 0)] = -\nu\sigma_x/E$$

# Example of simple tension. Set up stress and strain tensors

stress tensor

$$\begin{matrix} \varepsilon_x E & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{matrix}$$

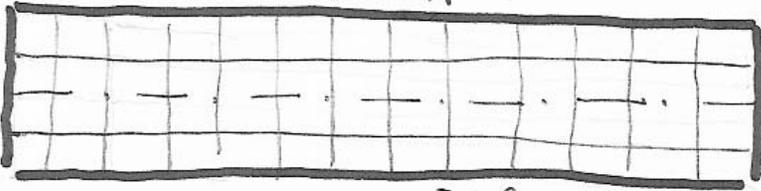
strain tensor

$$\begin{matrix} \sigma_x/E & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\nu\sigma_x/E & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\nu\sigma_x/E \end{matrix}$$

## **E. Pure bending of a beam.**

- **What is a beam? A slender member ( $L/W > 10$ ) that is subjected to transverse loading.**
- **In “pure bending” a beam transmits a constant bending moment. Result: In a plane of symmetry, plane cross sections remain plane. Planes do not bulge or buckle!**
- **Procedure:**
  - 1. Calculate the strains.**
  - 2. Calculate the stresses.**
  - 3. Derive the constitutive equations.**

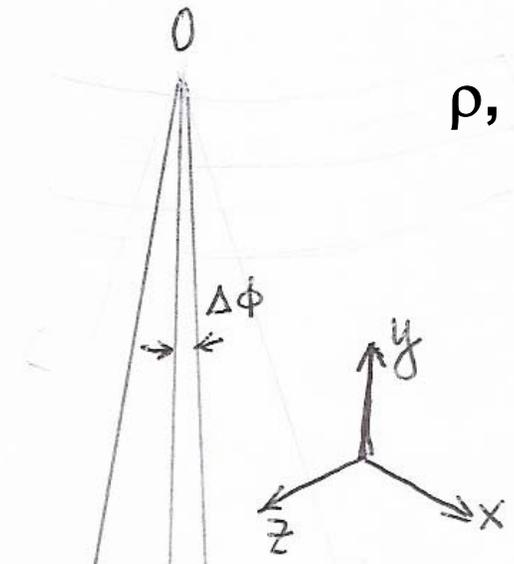
$\Delta x$   
→ | ←  
A D



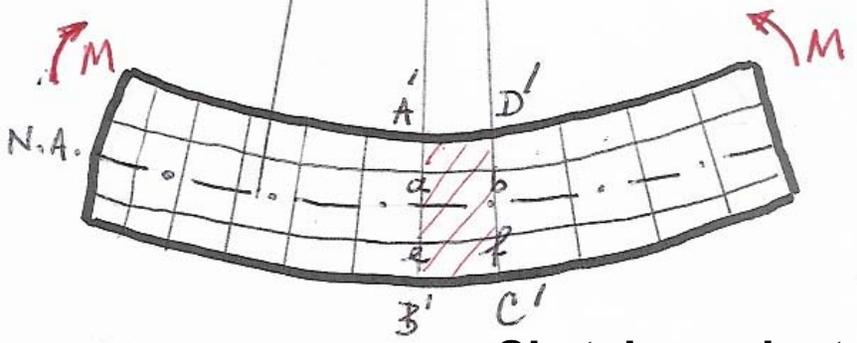
undeformed beam

1. Calculate strains in deformed beam

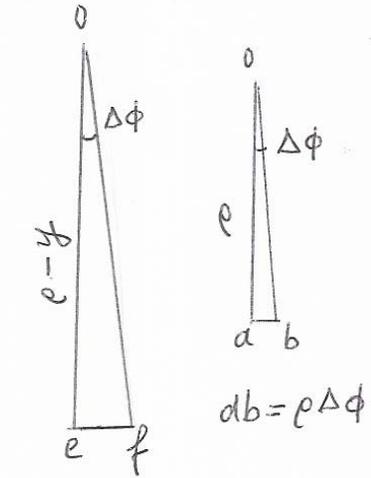
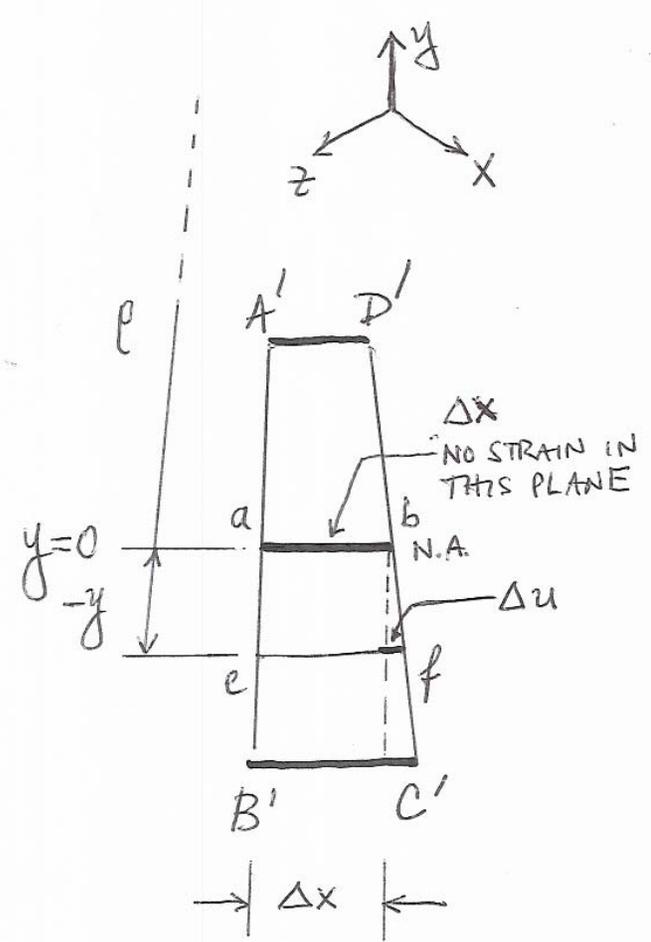
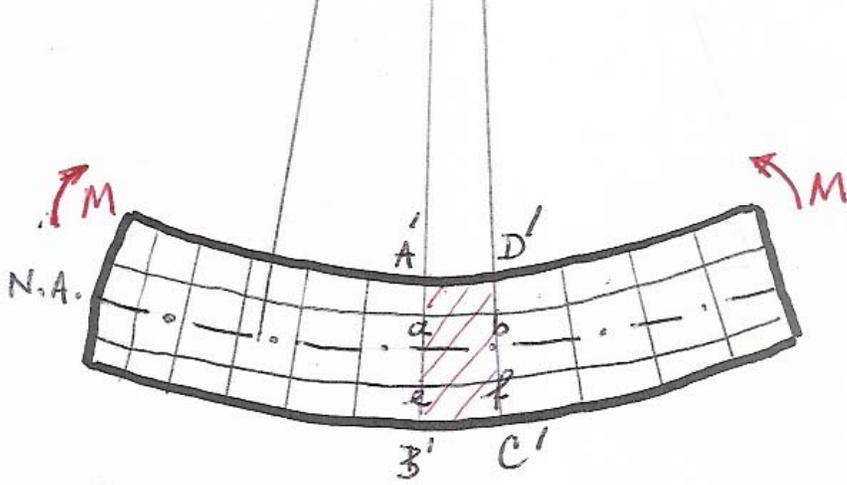
$\rho$ , radius of curvature



N.A., neutral axis



Sketches adapted from Crandall et al.



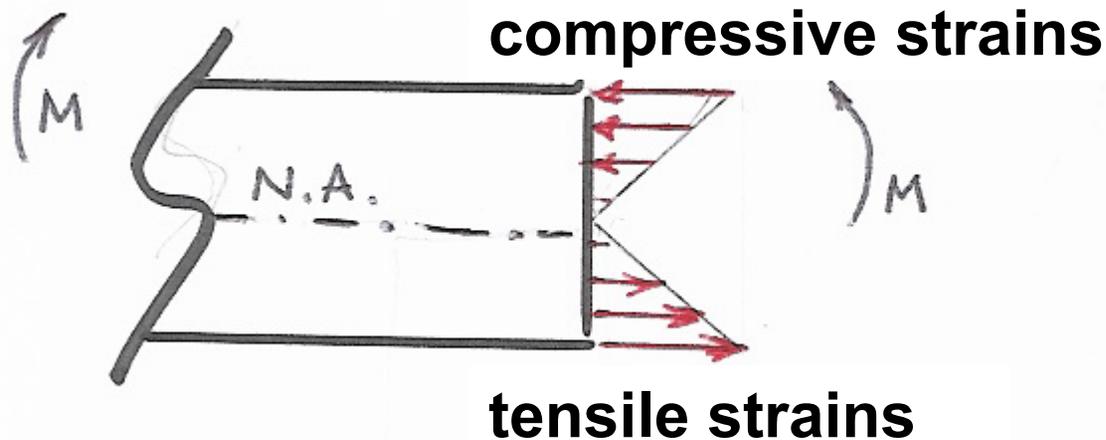
$$ef = (\rho - y)\Delta\phi$$

$$\epsilon_x = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta x} \approx \frac{ef - ab}{ab} = \frac{(\rho - y)\Delta\phi - \rho\Delta\phi}{\rho\Delta\phi} = -\frac{y}{\rho}$$

**∴ In pure bending, the strains increase linearly away from N.A.**

Sketches adapted from Crandall et al.

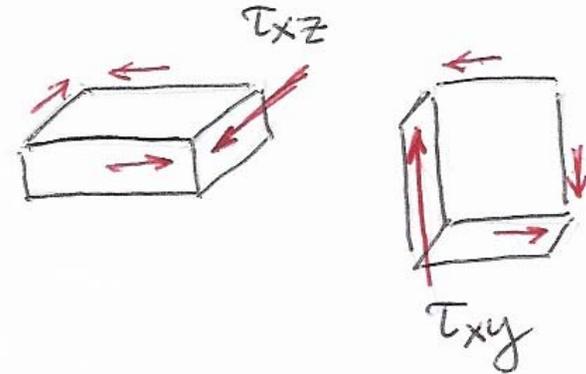
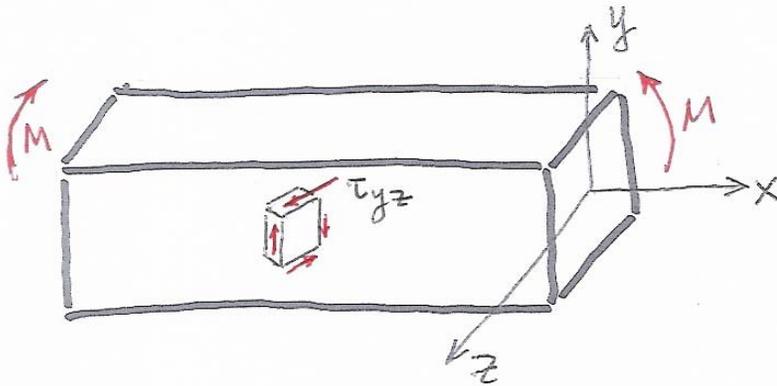
Since  $\varepsilon_x = -y/\rho$ , the normal strain increases linearly with  $-y$ . Strains are negative (compressive) when  $y > 0$  and positive (tensile) when  $y < 0$ . The strain profile along the cross section is linear. At the neutral axis, the profile changes from tension to compression.



section of a beam subjected to pure bending with a bending moment  $M$ .

Since plane sections remain plane (rather than bend or buckle) in pure bending, the shear strains along the two orthogonal cross-sections of the beam (defined by planes  $xy$  and  $xz$ ) must be zero.

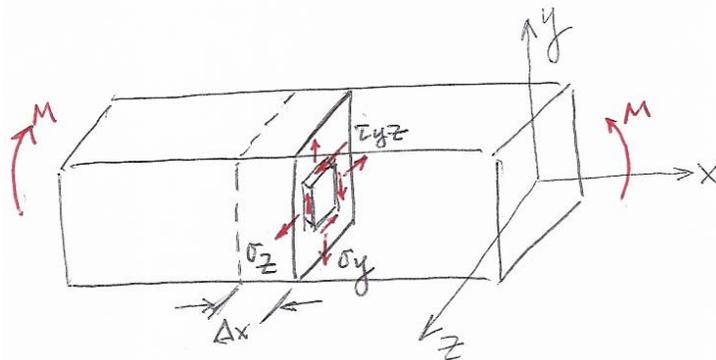
$$\gamma_{xy} = 0$$
$$\gamma_{xz} = 0$$



Since  $\gamma_{xy} = \tau_{xy}/G$ , it follows that  $\tau_{xy} = 0$ . Also,  $\tau_{xz} = 0$ . At this point, there is still no information about  $\tau_{yz}$ .

## 2. Calculate the stresses.

Due to the slenderness of the beam (transverse dimensions are small compared to length) an assumption will be made about the transverse behavior. The external surfaces of an elemental slice of thickness  $\Delta x$  are free of normal and shear stresses. Due to slenderness assume that the stresses  $\sigma_y$ ,  $\sigma_z$  and  $\tau_{yz}$  shown in diagram below remain zero in the interior of the beam. We conclude that:



$$\sigma_y = \sigma_z = \tau_{yz} = 0$$

Since  $\tau_{yz} = 0$  we also have

$\gamma_{yz} = 0$ . However,  $\sigma_x \neq 0$  since

$$\epsilon_x = -y/\rho. \text{ Also}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_x &= (1/E)[\sigma_x - \nu(\sigma_y + \sigma_z)] = \\ &= (1/E)[\sigma_x - \nu(0 + 0)] = \end{aligned}$$

$$= (1/E)\sigma_x ; \text{ therefore, } \sigma_x = \epsilon_x E =$$

$$= E(-y/\rho) = -Ey/\rho$$

### 3. Derive the constitutive equations for pure bending.

$$\sigma_x = \varepsilon_x E = -E(y/\rho); \quad \sigma_y = \sigma_z = \tau_{xy} = \tau_{xz} = \tau_{zy} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_x &= (1/E)[\sigma_x - \nu(\sigma_y + \sigma_z)] = (1/E)[\sigma_x - \nu(0 + 0)] = \\ &= (1/E)\sigma_x = (1/E)[-E(y/\rho)] = -y/\rho \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_y &= (1/E)[0 - \nu(\sigma_x + 0)] = -\nu\sigma_x/E = -(\nu/E)(-yE/\rho) = \\ &= \nu y/\rho \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_z &= (1/E)[0 - \nu(\sigma_x + 0)] = -\nu\sigma_x/E = -(\nu/E)(-yE/\rho) = \\ &= \nu y/\rho \end{aligned}$$

# Summary for pure bending.

In pure bending of a (slender) beam shear stresses are negligible; only tensile and compressive stresses are important. The stress and strain profiles along the cross section are linear, changing from tension to compression (at the neutral axis). Straight lines remain straight and plane cross sections remain plane.

<u>stress tensor</u>			<u>strain tensor</u>			
$-Ey/\rho$	0	0	0	$-y/\rho$	0	0
0	0	0	0	$vy/\rho$	0	
0	0	0	0	0	$vy/\rho$	

## **F. Torsion of cylindrical shaft.**

- **A slender ( $L/W > 10$ ) cylinder is subjected to a twisting moment.**
- **Mechanical power transmission over a long distance is based mostly on cylindrical shafts. This is analogous to electric power transmission over long distance via cable.**
- **Other examples are use of a torsion bar as a spring suspension for the front wheels of an automobile; and the torsion balance for weighing of small masses.**

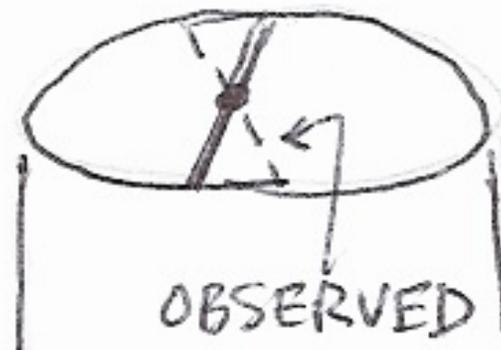
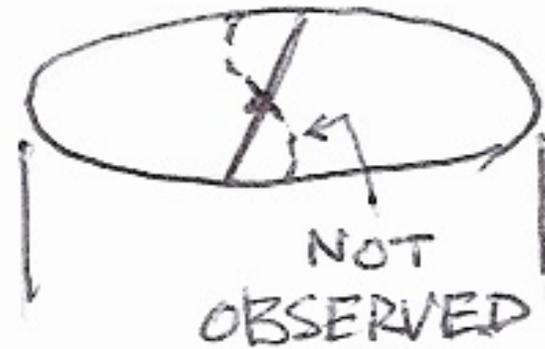
- **When subjecting a slender cylinder to torsion we need to know the stresses in order to prevent damage to cylinder and be able to use cylinder over and over again.**
- **Use the symmetry of the cylinder to estimate the strains. Then calculate the stresses.**

# 1. Calculate the strains.

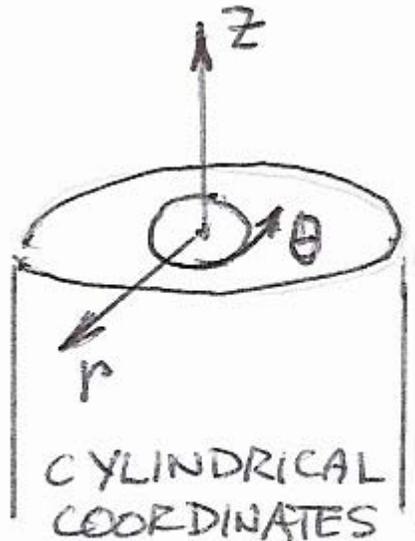
Cut a slice of the untwisted cylinder, originally with faces plane and normal to the axis of the shaft. Now cut the slice after twisting. Observe that the ends of the slice did not bulge or dish out: When a circular shaft is twisted, “plane cross sections remain plane”. Also, there was no change in volume. It follows that the extensional strains are zero:

$$\epsilon_x = \epsilon_y = \epsilon_z = 0$$

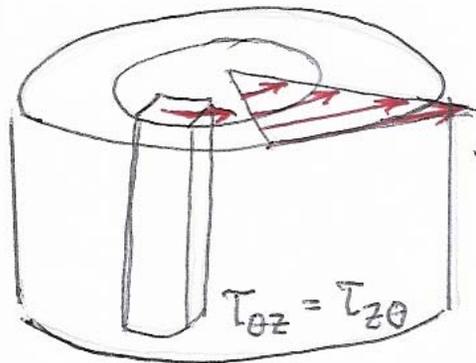
The original straight diameter (solid line) does not twist (broken line). “Diameters remain straight”.



Sketches adapted from Crandall et al.



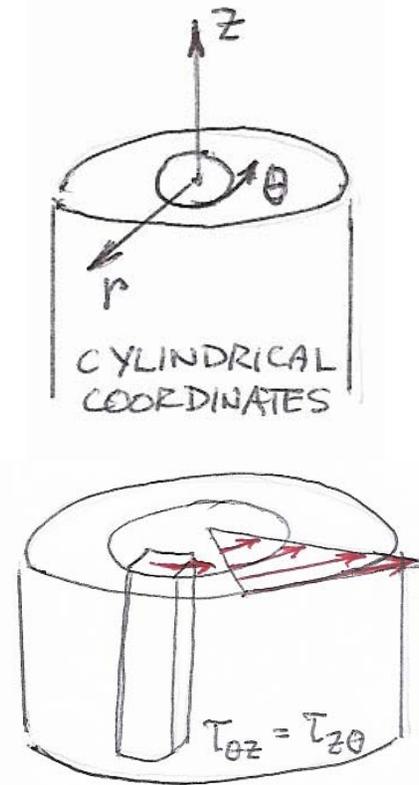
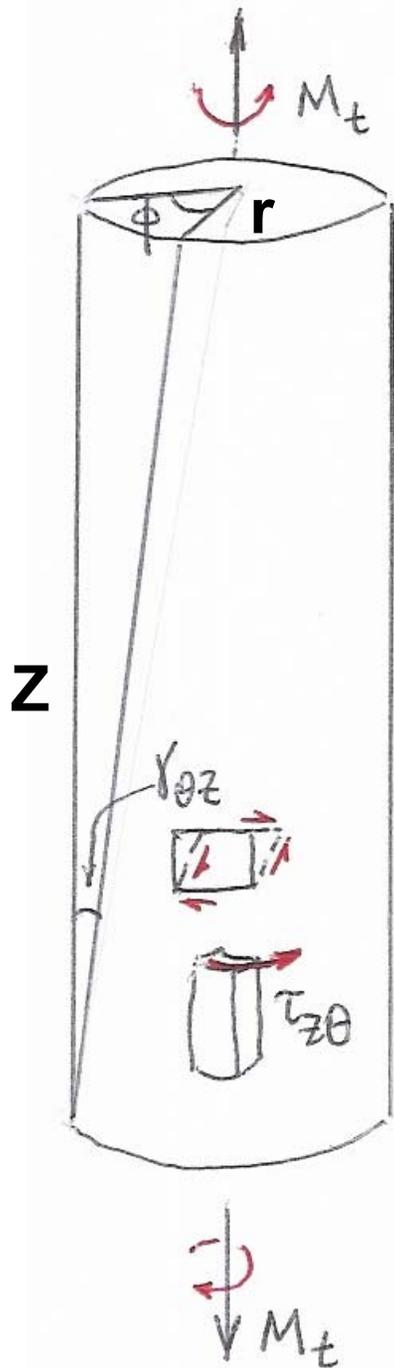
**We conclude that the cross sections of the shaft remain undeformed and simply rotate with respect to one another.**



$$\gamma_{r\theta} = \gamma_{rz} = 0$$

**but  $\gamma_{\theta z} \neq 0$**

**A twisted slice**



$$\gamma_{\theta z} = \lim_{\Delta z \rightarrow 0} r \Delta \phi / \Delta z = r(d\phi/dz)$$

$$\Delta z \rightarrow 0$$

**The shear strain increases linearly with the radius**

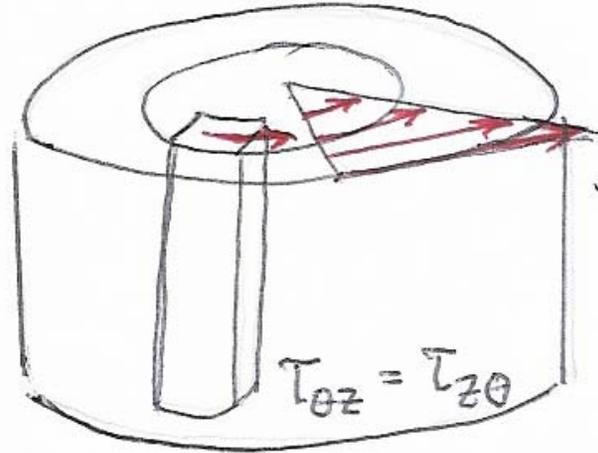
Sketches adapted from Crandall et al.

## 2. Calculate the stresses.

Use the values of the strains deduced above together with the constitutive equations of LEM to conclude that:

$$\sigma_r = \sigma_\theta = \sigma_z = \tau_{r\theta} = \tau_{rz} = 0$$

$$\tau_{\theta z} = \mathbf{G} \gamma_{\theta z} = \mathbf{G} r (d\phi/dz)$$



### 3. Derive the constitutive equations for pure torsion (use cylindrical coordinates).

$$\sigma_r = \sigma_\theta = \sigma_z = \tau_{r\theta} = \tau_{rz} = 0$$

$$\tau_{\theta z} = \mathbf{G}\gamma_{\theta z} = \mathbf{G}r(d\phi/dz)$$

$$\varepsilon_r = (1/E)[\sigma_r - \nu(\sigma_\theta + \sigma_z)] = 0$$

$$\varepsilon_\theta = \varepsilon_z = \gamma_{r\theta} = \gamma_{rz} = 0$$

$$\gamma_{\theta z} = r(d\phi/dz)$$

# Summary for pure torsion.

In pure torsion of a slender cylinder (shaft) plane cross sections remain plane and diameters remain straight. Normal and shear strains are negligible---except for the shear stress causing rotation of plane cross sections around the shaft axis which is nonzero. The shear stress and strain profiles are linear along (increase with) the radius.

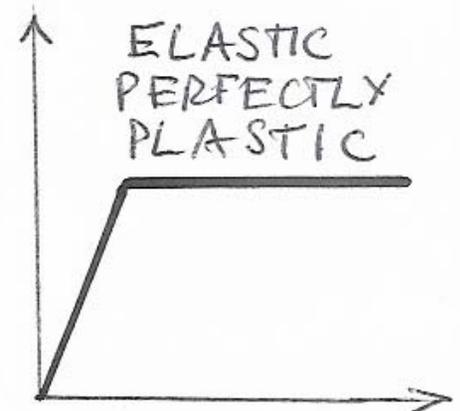
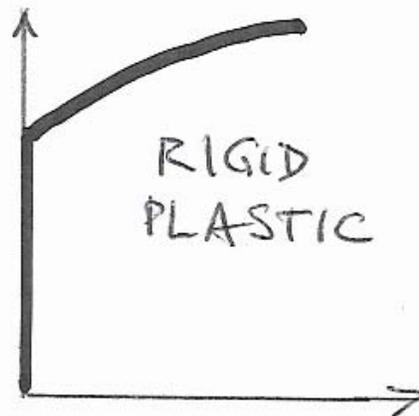
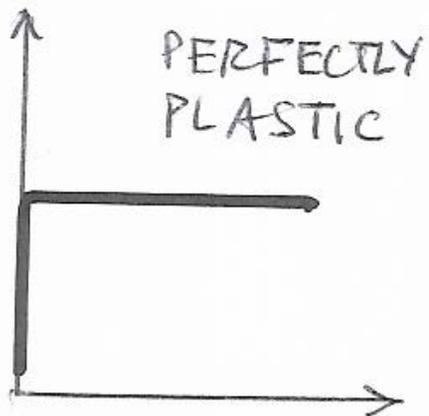
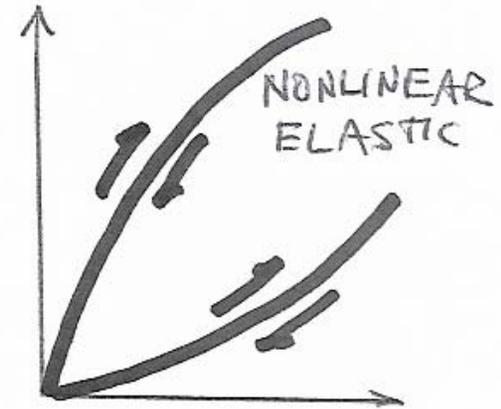
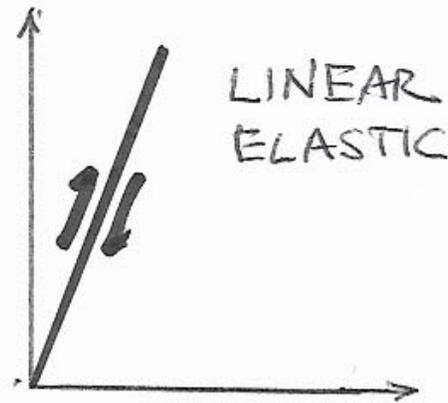
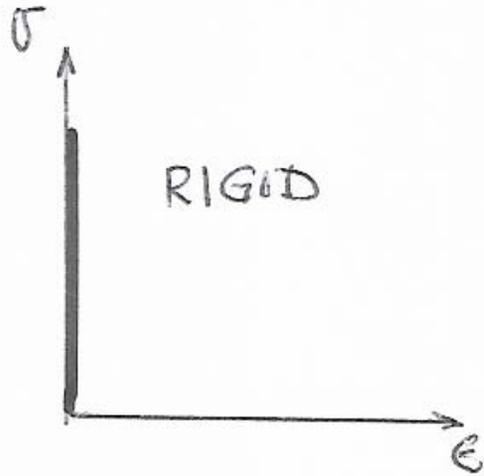
stress tensor

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & G\gamma_{\theta z} \\ 0 & G\gamma_{\theta z} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

strain tensor

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \gamma_{\theta z} \\ 0 & \gamma_{\theta z} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Various types of mechanical behavior



# ERRORS

1. In derivation of constitutive equations, step 5, the equation should be:

$$\varepsilon_x = \varepsilon_y = -\nu\varepsilon_z = -\nu\sigma_z/E$$

2. In “Example of simple tension”, the strain tensor should be:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \sigma_x/E & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\nu\sigma_x/E & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\nu\sigma_x/E \end{array}$$

3. Femoral bone, delete “No change in shape”.