

1D linear elasticity

- ◆ Taking the limit as the number of springs and masses goes to infinity (and the forces and masses go to zero):

$$\ddot{x}(p) = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(E(p) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial p} x(p) - 1 \right) \right)$$

- If density and Young's modulus constant,

$$\frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial t^2} = \frac{E}{\rho} \frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial p^2}$$

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Sound waves

- ◆ Try solution $x(p,t) = x_0(p-ct)$
- ◆ And $x(p,t) = x_0(p+ct)$
- ◆ So speed of "sound" in rod is $\sqrt{\frac{E}{\rho}}$
- ◆ Courant-Friedrichs-Levy (CFL) condition:
 - Numerical methods only will work if information transmitted numerically at least as fast as in reality (here: the speed of sound)
 - Usually the same as stability limit for good explicit methods [what are the eigenvalues here]
 - Implicit methods transmit information infinitely fast

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Why?

- ◆ Are sound waves important?
 - Visually? Usually not
- ◆ However, since speed of sound is a material property, it can help us get to higher dimensions
- ◆ Speed of sound in terms of one spring is

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{kL}{m}}$$

- ◆ So in higher dimensions, just pick k so that c is constant
 - m is mass around spring [triangles, tets]
 - Optional reading: van Gelder

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Damping

- ◆ Figuring out how to scale damping is more tricky
- ◆ Go to differential equation (no mesh)

$$\frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial t^2} = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(E \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial p} - 1 \right) + D \frac{\partial v}{\partial p} \right)$$

- ◆ So spring damping should be

$$f_{i+\frac{1}{2}} = k_{i+\frac{1}{2}} \frac{x_{i+1} - x_i - L_{i+\frac{1}{2}}}{L_{i+\frac{1}{2}}} + d_{i+\frac{1}{2}} \frac{v_{i+1} - v_i}{L_{i+\frac{1}{2}}}$$

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Extra effects with springs

- ◆ (Brittle) fracture
 - Whenever a spring is stretched too far, break it
 - Issue with loose ends...
- ◆ Plasticity
 - Whenever a spring is stretched too far, change the rest length part of the way
- ◆ More on this later

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Mass-spring problems

- ◆ [anisotropy]
- ◆ [stretching, Poisson's ratio]
- ◆ So we will instead look for a generalization of "percent deformation" to multiple dimensions: elasticity theory

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Studying Deformation

- ◆ Let's look at a deformable object
 - World space: points x in the object as we see it
 - Object space (or rest pose): points p in some reference configuration of the object
 - (Technically we might not have a rest pose, but usually we do, and it is the simplest parameterization)
- ◆ So we identify each point x of the continuum with the label p , where $x=X(p)$
- ◆ The function $X(p)$ encodes the deformation

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Going back to 1D

- ◆ Worked out that $dX/dp-1$ was the key quantity for measuring stretching and compression
- ◆ Nice thing about differentiating: constants (translating whole object) don't matter
- ◆ Call $A = \partial X/\partial p$ the deformation gradient

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Strain

- ◆ A isn't so handy, though it somehow encodes exactly how stretched/compressed we are
 - Also encodes how rotated we are: who cares?
- ◆ We want to process A somehow to remove the rotation part
- ◆ [difference in lengths]
- ◆ $A^T A - I$ is exactly zero when A is a rigid body rotation
- ◆ Define Green strain

$$G = \frac{1}{2}(A^T A - I)$$

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Why the half??

- ◆ [Look at 1D, small deformation]
- ◆ $A=1+\epsilon$
 - ∪ $A^T A - I = A^2 - 1 = 2\epsilon + \epsilon^2 \approx 2\epsilon$
 - ∪ Therefore $G \approx \epsilon$, which is what we expect
 - ∪ Note that for large deformation, Green strain grows quadratically
 - maybe not what you expect!
 - ∪ Whole cottage industry: defining strain differently

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Cauchy strain tensor

- ◆ Get back to linear, not quadratic
- ◆ Look at "small displacement"
 - Not only is the shape only slightly deformed, but it only slightly rotates (e.g. if one end is fixed in place)
- ◆ Then displacement $x-p$ has gradient $D=A-I$
- ◆ Then $G = \frac{1}{2}(D^T D + D + D^T)$
- ◆ And for small displacement, first term negligible
- ◆ Cauchy strain $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}(D + D^T)$
- ◆ Symmetric part of deformation gradient
 - Rotation is skew-symmetric part

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Analyzing Strain

- ◆ Strain is a 3x3 "tensor" (fancy name for a matrix)
- ◆ Always symmetric
- ◆ What does it mean?
- ◆ Diagonalize: rotate into a basis of eigenvectors
 - Entries (eigenvalues) tells us the scaling on the different axes
 - Sum of eigenvalues (always equal to the trace=sum of diagonal, even if not diagonal): approximate volume change
- ◆ Or directly analyze: off-diagonals show skew (also known as shear)

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Force

- ◆ In 1D, we got the force of a spring by simply multiplying the strain by some material constant (Young's modulus)
- ◆ In multiple dimensions, strain is a tensor, but force is a vector...
- ◆ And in the continuum limit, force goes to zero anyhow---so we have to be a little more careful

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Conservation of Momentum

- ◆ In other words $F=ma$
- ◆ Decompose body into "control volumes"
- ◆ Split F into
 - f_{body} (e.g. gravity, magnetic forces, ...) force per unit volume
 - and traction t (on boundary between two chunks of continuum: contact force) dimensions are force per unit area (like pressure)

$$\int_{\Omega_W} f_{\text{body}} dx + \int_{\partial\Omega_W} t ds = \int_{\Omega_W} \rho \ddot{X} dx$$

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Cauchy's Fundamental Postulate

- ◆ Traction t is a function of position x and normal n
 - Ignores rest of boundary (e.g. information like curvature, etc.)
- ◆ **Theorem**
 - If t is smooth (be careful at boundaries of object, e.g. cracks) then t is linear in n :
 $t = \sigma(x)n$
- ∪ σ is the Cauchy stress tensor (a matrix)
- ∪ It also is force per unit area
- ∪ Diagonal: normal stress components
- ∪ Off-diagonal: shear stress components

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Cauchy Stress

- ◆ From conservation of angular momentum can derive that Cauchy stress tensor σ is symmetric:
 $\sigma = \sigma^T$
- ∪ Thus there are only 6 degrees of freedom (in 3D)
 - In 2D, only 3 degrees of freedom
- ∪ What is σ ?
 - That's the job of **constitutive modeling**
 - Depends on the material (e.g. water vs. steel vs. silly putty)

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Divergence Theorem

- ◆ Try to get rid of integrals
- ◆ First make them all volume integrals with divergence theorem:

$$\int_{\partial\Omega_W} \sigma n ds = \int_{\Omega_W} \nabla \cdot \sigma dx$$

- ◆ Next let control volume shrink to zero:

$$f_{\text{body}} + \nabla \cdot \sigma = \rho \ddot{X}$$

- Note that integrals and normals were in world space, so is the divergence (it's w.r.t. x not p)

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Constitutive Modeling

- ◆ This can get very complicated for complicated materials
- ◆ Let's start with simple elastic materials
- ◆ We'll even leave damping out
- ◆ Then stress σ only depends on strain, however we measure it (say G or ϵ)

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Linear elasticity

- ◆ Very nice thing about Cauchy strain: it's linear in deformation
 - No quadratic dependence
 - Easy and fast to deal with
- ◆ Natural thing is to make a linear relationship with Cauchy stress σ
- ∪ Then the full equation is linear!

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Young's modulus

- ◆ Obvious first thing to do: if you pull on material, resists like a spring:
 $\sigma = E\varepsilon$
- ∪ E is the Young's modulus
- ∪ Let's check that in 1D (where we know what should happen with springs)

$$\nabla \cdot \sigma = \rho \ddot{x}$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(E \left(\frac{\partial X}{\partial p} - 1 \right) \right) = \rho \ddot{x}$$

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Poisson Ratio

- ◆ Real materials are essentially incompressible (for large deformation - neglecting foams and other weird composites...)
- ◆ For small deformation, materials are usually somewhat incompressible
- ◆ Imagine stretching block in one direction
 - Measure the contraction in the perpendicular directions
 - Ratio is ν , Poisson's ratio
- ◆ [draw experiment; $\nu = -\frac{\varepsilon_{22}}{\varepsilon_{11}}$]

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What is Poisson's ratio?

- ◆ Has to be between -1 and 0.5
- ◆ 0.5 is exactly incompressible
 - [derive]
- ◆ Negative is weird, but possible [origami]
- ◆ Rubber: close to 0.5
- ◆ Steel: more like 0.33
- ◆ Metals: usually 0.25-0.35
- ◆ [cute: cork is almost 0]

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