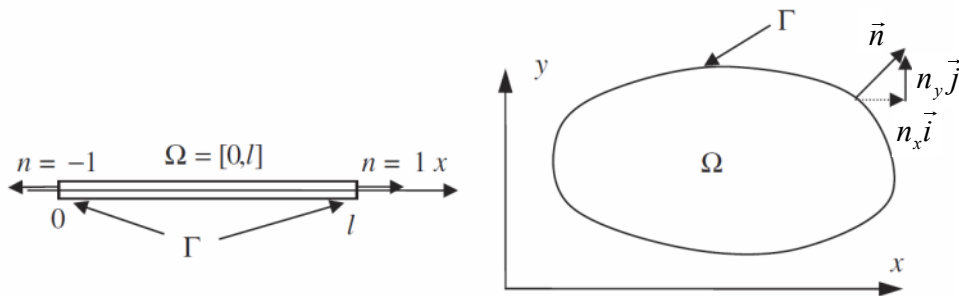
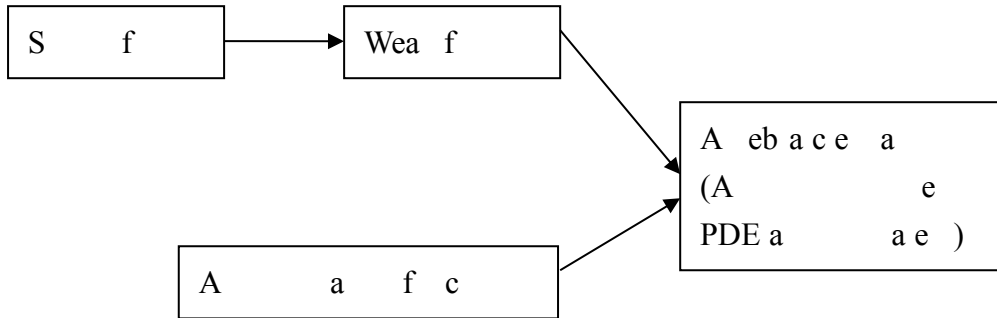


Chapter 3: Linear Elasticity and 2D Triangular and Rectangular Finite Element Formulation

3.1 Introduction



Dimension	Domain	Boundary
1D	Line	Point
2D	Area	Curve
3D	Volume	Surface

In Cartesian coordinates, the strong form of the linear elasticity problem is defined by the equilibrium equations, constitutive equations, and boundary conditions. The weak form is derived by multiplying the strong form by a test function and integrating by parts. The finite element method is used to approximate the solution by discretizing the domain into elements and using shape functions to approximate the displacement field.

A common approach is to use the Galerkin method, where the test functions are chosen to be the same as the shape functions. This leads to the Galerkin weak form, which is then discretized to form a system of linear equations. The finite element method is a powerful tool for solving linear elasticity problems, especially for complex geometries and boundary conditions.

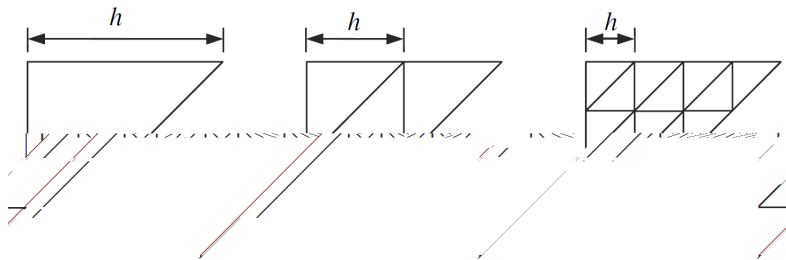
element e is defined by

On each element e , the shape functions are defined by **similarity** to the reference element.

Remark 1: The finite element method is a powerful tool for solving partial differential equations. In the context of the FEM, the accuracy of the solution depends on the quality of the shape functions and the mesh. Numerical solutions of partial differential equations are often obtained by approximating the solution using a finite number of elements.

Remark 2: In 2D and 3D problems, the power of the FEM becomes clearly apparent. The accuracy of the solution depends on the quality of the shape functions and the mesh. Numerical solution of the partial differential equations is generally the **ONLY** possibility for practical problems. Overall, the accuracy of the solution remains the same: as the number of finite element shape functions increases, the quality of the solution is improved.

As the element size $h \rightarrow 0$ (h being the element size), the numerical solution converges to the exact solution.



Mathematical Preliminaries

One common notation for vectors is \vec{u} . We denote the vector \vec{u} as follows:

$$(3.1) \quad \vec{u} = u_x \vec{i} + u_y \vec{j}$$

consider the differential equation $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = f$ in a domain Ω with boundary Γ . The unknown vector field \mathbf{u} is to be determined such that it satisfies the equation in the interior and the boundary conditions on Γ .

We can write the differential equation in **matrix notation**. A vector field \mathbf{u} can be represented as $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \end{bmatrix}$. The differential equation $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = f$ can be written as:

$$(3.2) \quad \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \end{bmatrix}$$

A scalar field u can be represented as $u = \begin{bmatrix} u \end{bmatrix}$. The differential equation $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = f$ can be written as:

$$(3.3) \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = f$$

Q: How can we represent the vector field \mathbf{u} in matrix notation? $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \end{bmatrix}$ and

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{bmatrix} r_x \\ r_y \end{bmatrix}?$$

A:

$$(3.4)$$

A scalar field u can be represented as $u = \begin{bmatrix} u \end{bmatrix}$. The **gradient** is a measure of the slope of a field, so **it is the 2D counterpart of a derivative in 1D**. The gradient of a scalar field u is defined as:

$$(3.5) \quad \nabla u = \left(\vec{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \vec{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) u$$

The gradient operator ∇ applied to a scalar field u is a vector field. The divergence of a vector field \mathbf{u} is a scalar field. The divergence of a vector field \mathbf{u} is defined as:

Q: What is the divergence of a vector field \mathbf{u} ?

A: (3.6)

The matrix form of the divergence theorem is:

$$(3.7) \quad \nabla = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

Next, we define the divergence of a vector field \mathbf{u} as:

Q: The divergence of a vector field $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \end{bmatrix}$ is defined as:

A:

$$(3.8) \quad \text{div } \mathbf{u} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y}$$

3.2 Linear Elasticity

Linear elasticity is a model of the mechanical behavior of materials under the influence of forces. It is based on the assumption that the deformation is small and reversible. The stress-strain relationship is linear, and the material returns to its original shape after the forces are removed. We can describe the behavior of a linear elastic material using Hooke's law:

The stress $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is related to the strain $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ by the constitutive equation:

1. $\sigma_{11} = E \epsilon_{11}$;
2. $\sigma_{22} = E \epsilon_{22}$;
3. $\sigma_{33} = E \epsilon_{33}$;
4. $\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{21} = 2G \epsilon_{12}$;

The constitutive equation for a linear elastic material can be written in matrix form as:



The element stiffness matrix is given by $k = \int_{\Omega} B^T D B d\Omega$. The element force vector is given by $f = \int_{\Omega} B^T f d\Omega$.

1. The element stiffness matrix is given by $k = \int_{\Omega} B^T D B d\Omega$.
2. The element force vector is given by $f = \int_{\Omega} B^T f d\Omega$.
3. The element force vector is given by $f = \int_{\Omega} B^T f d\Omega$.

I add, the element stiffness matrix is given by $k = \int_{\Omega} B^T D B d\Omega$, the element force vector is given by $f = \int_{\Omega} B^T f d\Omega$.

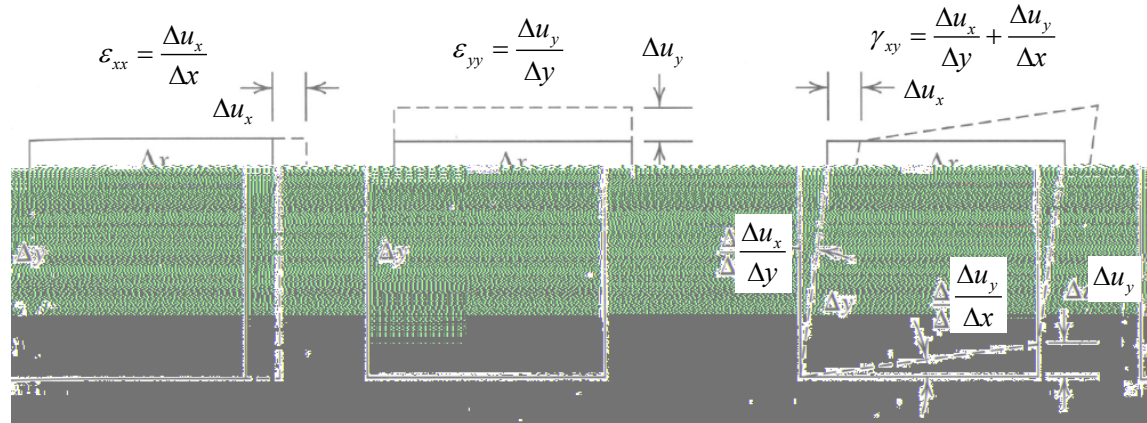
Based on the element stiffness matrix, the element force vector is given by $f = \int_{\Omega} B^T f d\Omega$.

Ke = (S - D) / (E A)

The displacement vector $u = [u_x, u_y]^T$. We can calculate the element stiffness matrix k and the element force vector f .

$$(3.1 \text{ and } 3.2) \quad \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \end{bmatrix} \quad \bar{\mathbf{u}} = u_x \bar{\mathbf{i}} + u_y \bar{\mathbf{j}} \quad (\text{in Cartesian coordinates})$$

Under the assumption of small displacement gradients, the element stiffness matrix is given by $k = \int_{\Omega} B^T D B d\Omega$. The element force vector is given by $f = \int_{\Omega} B^T f d\Omega$.



The strains ϵ_{xx} and ϵ_{yy} are calculated by
 $\epsilon_{xx} = \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x}$; $\epsilon_{yy} = \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y}$ and $\gamma_{xy} = \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial x}$.
 Let Δx and Δy are small, then:

$$(3.9) \quad \epsilon_{xx} = \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x} \quad \epsilon_{yy} = \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y} \quad \gamma_{xy} = \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial x}$$

Q: Recall 1D, the strain is $\epsilon(x) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x+\Delta x) - u(x)}{\Delta x} = \frac{du}{dx}$ (Eq. (1.2)).

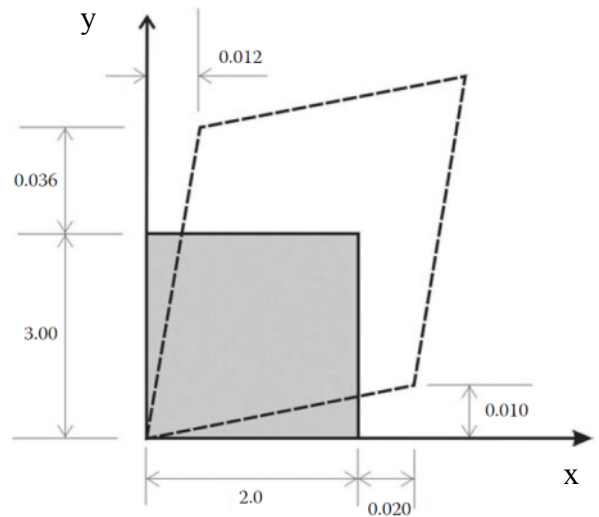
What is the strain in 2D?

A:

Answer:

A 2D element is defined by its nodes. The displacement field is defined by the nodal displacements. The strain is defined by the displacement field.

Answer



Remark:

The shear strain γ_{xy} is defined as the angle between the original and deformed elements. It is related to the shear stress τ_{xy} by the equation $\tau_{xy} = \frac{1}{2}\gamma_{xy}$.

If we consider a small element, the strain components are given by:

$$(3.10) \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{xx} \\ \varepsilon_{yy} \\ \gamma_{xy} \end{bmatrix}$$

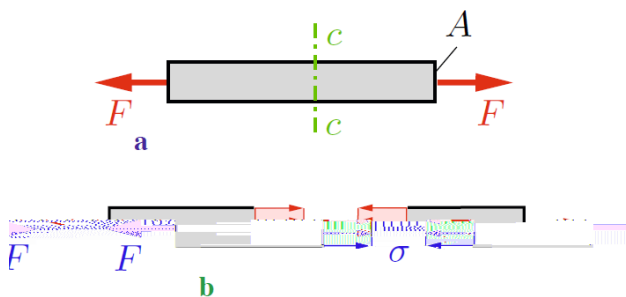
And the corresponding stress components are:

$$(3.11) \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \nabla_s \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \end{bmatrix}$$

where ∇_s is a symmetric gradient matrix operator.

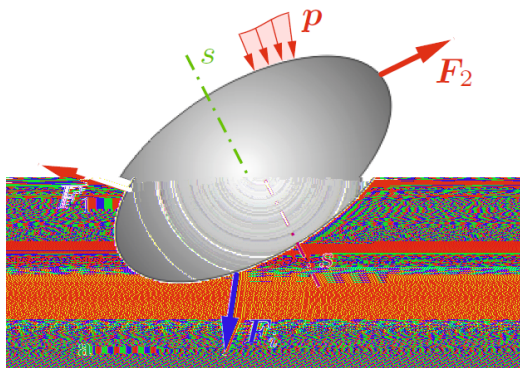
1D Stress and Strain

The relationship between stress and strain in 1D is given by Hooke's law. In 1D, the stress σ is related to the strain ε by the equation $\sigma = E\varepsilon$, where E is the Young's modulus.

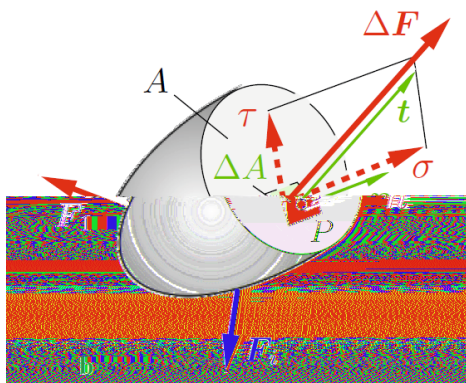


Let us consider a 2D and 3D element. The stress components are given by $\vec{F}_i = \sigma_{ij} \vec{p}_j$, where \vec{F}_i is the force vector, σ_{ij} is the stress tensor, and \vec{p}_j is the normal vector. (a)

be .



The total force ΔF acting on the area ΔA is the resultant of the forces acting on it. It is defined as the vector sum of the forces acting on the area ΔA . The force ΔF is defined as the vector sum of the forces acting on the area ΔA .

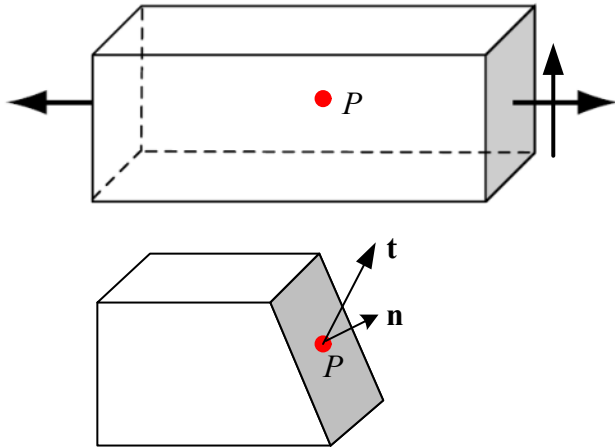


Since the force ΔF is the resultant of the forces acting on the area ΔA , **it must be defined at an arbitrary point P of the cross section** (see Fig. (b) above). The force ΔF is defined as the vector sum of the forces acting on the area ΔA . The force ΔF is defined as the vector sum of the forces acting on the area ΔA . We define the force ΔF as the vector sum of the forces acting on the area ΔA as $\Delta A \rightarrow 0$ and define it as:

$$\vec{t} = \lim_{\Delta A \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta \vec{F}}{\Delta A} = \frac{d\vec{F}}{dA}$$

The force \vec{t} is called **stress vector**. Since the force \vec{t} is defined at an arbitrary point P of the cross section, the force \vec{t} is defined at an arbitrary point P of the cross section.

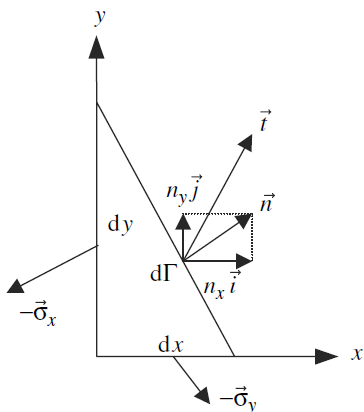
Let \vec{t} be the traction vector at point P on a surface with normal vector \vec{n} . The traction vector is defined as the force per unit area acting on the surface.



The traction vector \vec{t} at point P is defined as the force per unit area acting on the surface. If \vec{t} is the traction vector at point P , then the traction vector is $\vec{t} = \sigma \cdot \vec{n}$. A traction vector is a vector that represents the force per unit area acting on a face. The traction vector is defined as the force per unit area acting on the surface.

Let \vec{t} be the traction vector at point P , then the traction vector is $\vec{t} = \sigma \cdot \vec{n}$. We can write the traction vector as $\vec{t} = \sigma \cdot \vec{n}$.

We can define the stress vectors $\vec{\sigma}_x$ and $\vec{\sigma}_y$ as the traction vectors acting on the faces of a differential element.



The force balance on a differential element is:

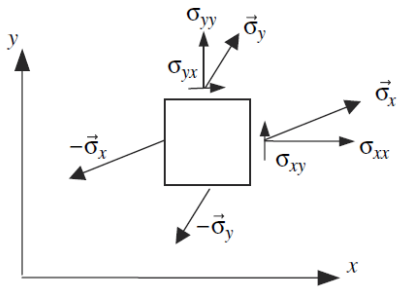
$$\vec{t}d\Gamma - \vec{\sigma}_x dy - \vec{\sigma}_y dx = \vec{0}$$

Since

$$dy = n_x d\Gamma \quad \text{and} \quad dx = n_y d\Gamma$$

We obtain:

$$(3.12) \quad \vec{t} - \vec{\sigma}_x n_x - \vec{\sigma}_y n_y = \vec{0}$$



Now define a 2D element stress vectors

$\vec{\sigma}_x$ and $\vec{\sigma}_y$:

$$(3.13) \quad \vec{\sigma}_x = \sigma_{xx} \vec{i} + \sigma_{xy} \vec{j}$$

$$(3.14) \quad \vec{\sigma}_y = \sigma_{yx} \vec{i} + \sigma_{yy} \vec{j}$$

Stresses are thus **mathematical description of internal forces**. The stress components are defined as follows: σ_{xx} and σ_{yy} are normal stresses and σ_{xy} and σ_{yx} are shear stresses. For equilibrium, $\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_{yx}$. The stress components are related to the displacement field (u, v) by the constitutive equations (see Appendix C).

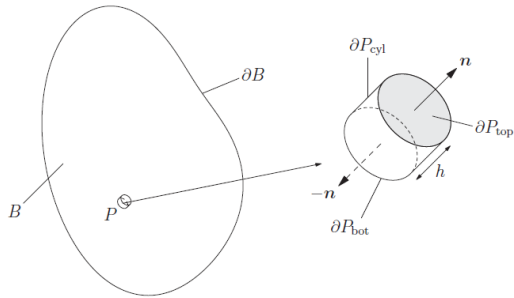
The stress components σ_{xx} , σ_{yy} , and σ_{xy} are uniquely determined by the displacement field (u, v) .

If the displacement field is known, the stress components are:

c e f d a d f d .

E a e: C de a b - a e d b d de f a a e b d B.S e b
 a e a e a P, e e ec e de f a face a e e a a d
 e. T a ,

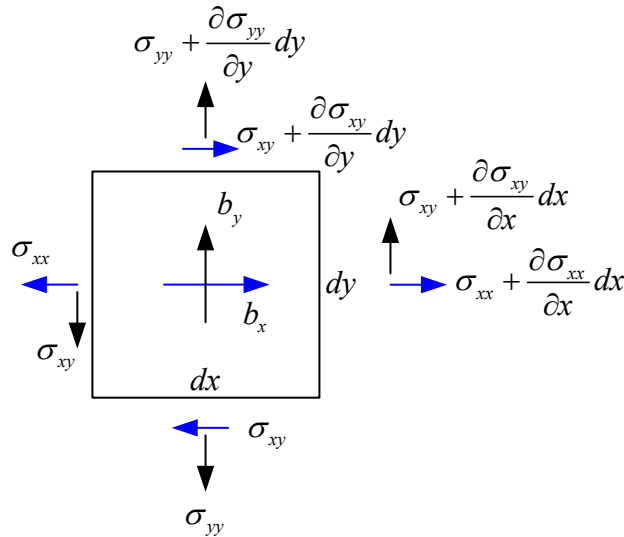
$$\vec{r}(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = -\vec{r}(\vec{x}, -\vec{y})$$



(Answer)

E b E a

F e b e e e a a c a d f f e e a e e e f a c e 2D.



Q: W a e a c e b f f c e e x d e c ?

A:

We ca d e a e f e y-d e c . T e d f f e e a e a f e b f a 2D b e a e

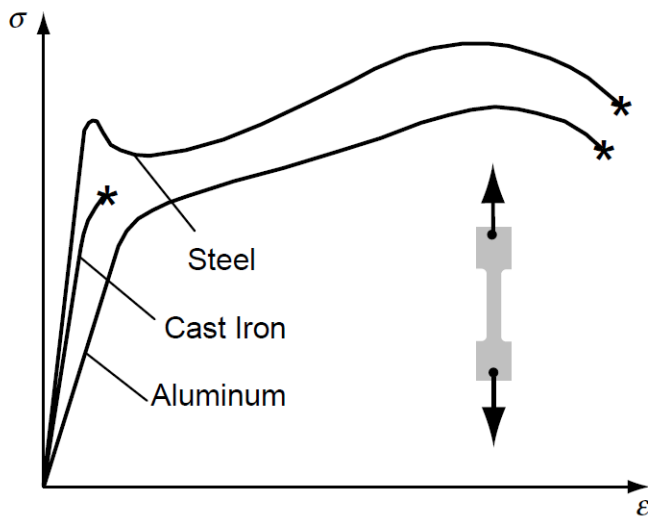
$$(3.19) \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \sigma_{xx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xy}}{\partial y} + b_x &= 0 \\ \frac{\partial \sigma_{xy}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{yy}}{\partial y} + b_y &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Q: We can write the constitutive law in matrix form. If we define a vector of nodal displacements \mathbf{u} and a vector of nodal forces \mathbf{f} , then the constitutive law can be written as $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{K}\mathbf{u}$, where \mathbf{K} is the stiffness matrix.

A:

(3.20)

Constitutive Law (Stress-Strain)



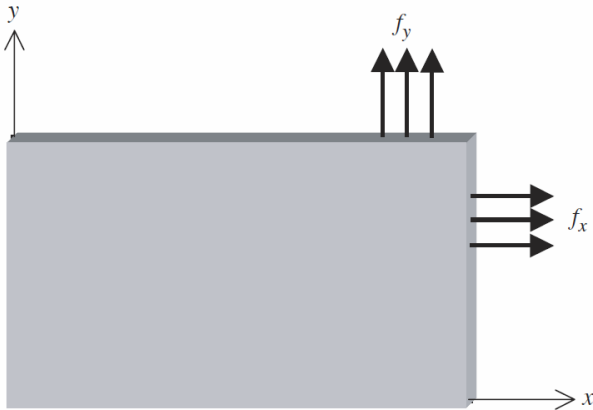
In the case of a uniaxial stress state, the constitutive law can be written as $\sigma = E\epsilon$, where E is the Young's modulus.

(3.21) $\sigma = \mathbf{D}\epsilon$

where \mathbf{D} is a 3×3 matrix and $\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{xy} \end{bmatrix}$, $\epsilon = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{xx} \\ \epsilon_{yy} \\ \gamma_{xy} \end{bmatrix}$. The constitutive law can be written as $\sigma = \mathbf{D}\epsilon$.

Here a .I a a a e c, e-def e a .I -d e a b e ,
 e a D de e d e e e a e a a e e a a e a c d .T e e
 a de e e e de fedf a ee-d e a ca b d
 a -d e a de .

(a) Plane stress problem



The element ($t = l_z \ll l_x \approx l_y$) and becomes a plane stress problem (i.e., $\sigma_z = 0$).

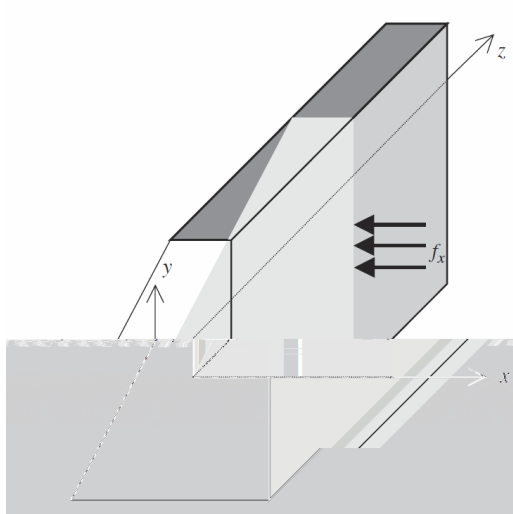
$$\Rightarrow \sigma_z = 0, \sigma_{zx} = 0, \sigma_{zy} = 0 \quad (\text{plane stress})$$

$$\sigma_z = 0 \Rightarrow \varepsilon_z = -\frac{\nu}{E}(\sigma_x + \sigma_y) \neq 0 \quad (\text{plane strain})$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \frac{E}{1-\nu^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \nu & 0 \\ \nu & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1-\nu}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{xy} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{E}{1-\nu^2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \nu & 0 \\ \nu & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1-\nu}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{xx} \\ \varepsilon_{yy} \\ \gamma_{xy} \end{bmatrix}$$

(b) Plane strain problem



Load applied in the x direction.

$$l_z \gg l_x \approx l_y$$

$$w = u_z = 0 \Rightarrow \epsilon_z = \epsilon_{zx} = \epsilon_{zy} = 0$$

$$\epsilon_{zz} = \epsilon_{xx} = \epsilon_{yy} = 0$$

Remark: The 3D problem can be reduced to a 2D problem because the displacement in the z-direction is zero. This is a plane strain problem.

$$\mathbf{D} = \frac{E}{(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)} \begin{bmatrix} 1-\nu & \nu & \nu & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \nu & 1-\nu & \nu & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \nu & \nu & 1-\nu & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1-2\nu}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1-2\nu}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1-2\nu}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{zz} \\ \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{yz} \\ \sigma_{zx} \end{bmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{xx} \\ \varepsilon_{yy} \\ \varepsilon_{zz} \\ \gamma_{xy} \\ \gamma_{yz} \\ \gamma_{zx} \end{bmatrix}$$

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

Edwards, 1970; D.L. Blevins, *A First Course in Finite Element Method, 4th Edition*, 2011
 (Advanced Calculus for Engineers and Scientists) by R. Courant.

3.3 Linear Elasticity: Strong Form

Recall (3.19), the equilibrium equations in 2D are:

$$\frac{\partial \sigma_{xx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xy}}{\partial y} + b_x = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \sigma_{xy}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{yy}}{\partial y} + b_y = 0$$

The equilibrium equations can be written in vector form as follows (using (3.13) and (3.14)) and defined as (3.6):

$$(3.22) \quad \begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\sigma}_x + b_x &= 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\sigma}_y + b_y &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\mathbf{n} = \bar{\mathbf{t}}$
 (3.23) $\bar{\sigma}_x \cdot \bar{\mathbf{n}} = \bar{t}_x$
 $\bar{\sigma}_y \cdot \bar{\mathbf{n}} = \bar{t}_y$
 The boundary conditions are:

$\mathbf{n} = \bar{\mathbf{t}}$

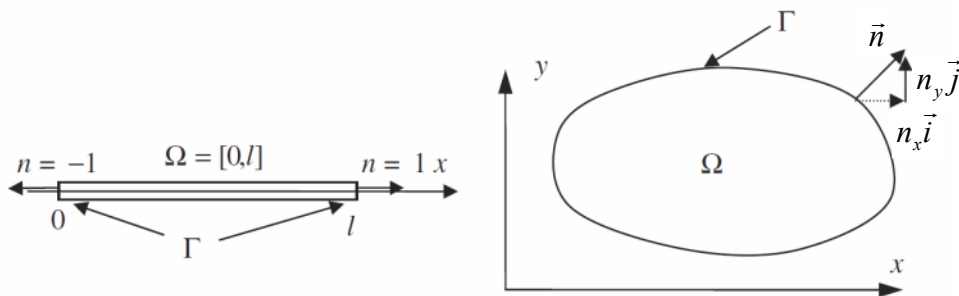
ec f (ee (3.17)):

(3.23) $\bar{\sigma}_x \cdot \bar{\mathbf{n}} = \bar{t}_x$
 $\bar{\sigma}_y \cdot \bar{\mathbf{n}} = \bar{t}_y$

The boundary conditions are:

(3.24) $\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{\sigma}_x + b_x = 0$ and $\bar{\nabla} \cdot \bar{\sigma}_y + b_y = 0$ on Ω
 $\bar{\sigma}_x \cdot \bar{\mathbf{n}} = \bar{t}_x$ and $\bar{\sigma}_y \cdot \bar{\mathbf{n}} = \bar{t}_y$ on Γ_t
 $\bar{\mathbf{u}} = \bar{\bar{\mathbf{u}}}$ on Γ_u

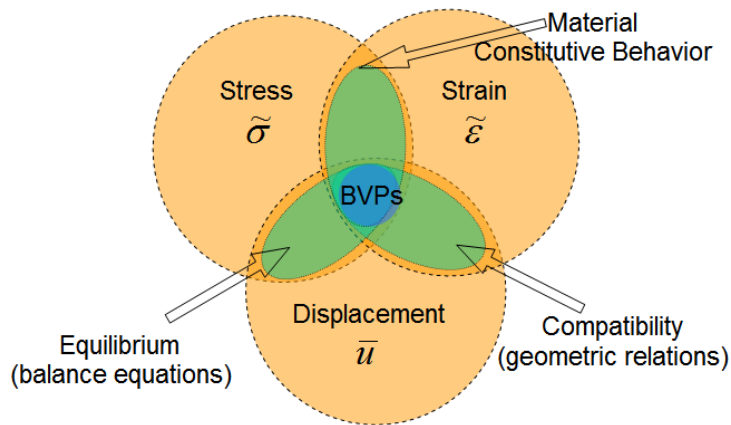
The boundary conditions are 1D and 2D and 3D and Ω and Γ and $\bar{\mathbf{n}}$ and $\bar{\mathbf{t}}$ and $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$.



D e	D a Ω	B da Γ
1D	L e	T e d
2D	A ea	C ed e
3D	V e	C ed face

Summary

The finite element method is a numerical technique for solving partial differential equations (PDEs) over a domain. It is based on the concept of discretization, where the domain is divided into small elements. The unknown field variables are approximated by a finite number of degrees of freedom (DOFs) at the nodes of the elements. The method is used to solve a wide range of problems, including structural analysis, fluid dynamics, and heat transfer. The finite element method is a powerful tool for solving complex problems that are difficult to solve analytically. The finite element method is a numerical technique for solving partial differential equations (PDEs) over a domain. It is based on the concept of discretization, where the domain is divided into small elements. The unknown field variables are approximated by a finite number of degrees of freedom (DOFs) at the nodes of the elements. The method is used to solve a wide range of problems, including structural analysis, fluid dynamics, and heat transfer. The finite element method is a powerful tool for solving complex problems that are difficult to solve analytically.



3.4 Linear Elasticity: Weak Form

We first define the **basic three steps** of the 1D beam problem. Before we proceed, we assume the Green's strain: the 2D and 3D case are the same as the 1D case.

Mathematical Preliminaries

Green's strain: the 2D and 3D case are the same as the 1D case. Consider **ANY** scalar function $\phi(x, y)$ (function of x and y are scalar functions of \bar{u} and \bar{v}). The Green's strain is an **integral of a gradient of a scalar function over an area (volume) to a contour (surface) integral** as follows:

$$(3.25) \quad \int_{\Omega} \bar{\nabla} \phi \, d\Omega = \int_{\Gamma} \phi \bar{n} \, d\Gamma$$

The following is a definition of the divergence theorem (also known as Gauss's theorem or the divergence theorem). The divergence theorem states that the volume integral of the divergence of a vector field over a volume is equal to the surface integral of the vector field over the boundary of the volume.

Q: We can find the divergence of a 2D vector field, $\vec{\nabla} = (\vec{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \vec{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y})$, and add it to the vector field. What is the result?

A:
(3.26a)

(3.26b)

We can use (3.26a) and (3.26b) to derive the **area (volume) integral of the divergence of a vector field to the contour (surface) integral of a vector field:**

$$(3.27) \quad \int_{\Omega} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} \, d\Omega = \int_{\Gamma} \vec{u} \cdot \vec{n} \, d\Gamma$$

Be aware that the scalar field $\phi(x, y)$ (3.26a) and u_x and (3.26b) u_y :

$$\int_{\Omega} \left(\frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y} \right) d\Omega = \int_{\Gamma} (u_x n_x + u_y n_y) d\Gamma$$

compare the result with (3.27).

Remark: Divergence of a vector field is a scalar field, and the surface integral of a vector field is a scalar field. The divergence of a vector field is a scalar field. The surface integral of a vector field is a scalar field.

For a 2D and 3D case, the divergence theorem is:

$$(3.28) \quad \int_{\Omega} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} \, d\Omega = \int_{\Gamma} \vec{u} \cdot \vec{n} \, d\Gamma - \int_{\Omega} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} \, d\Omega$$

We can define the derivative of a product

1D $\frac{d}{dx}(wf) = w \frac{df}{dx} + f \frac{dw}{dx}$. **The power of the gradient operator is shown by the**

following product rule in 2D and 3D:

$$(3.29) \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot (w\vec{u}) = \vec{\nabla} w \cdot \vec{u} + w\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u}$$

(Derivation Exercise) Verify the derivation of (3.29) in 2D (or 3D) using the product rule.

Answer:

Integrate (3.29) over a domain Ω to get:

$$(3.30) \quad \int_{\Omega} \vec{\nabla} \cdot (w\vec{u}) \, d\Omega = \int_{\Omega} \vec{\nabla} w \cdot \vec{u} \, d\Omega + \int_{\Omega} w\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} \, d\Omega$$

Q: What is the relationship between the two terms on the LHS of (3.30)?

A:

$$(3.31)$$

Subtract (3.31) from (3.30), to get:

$$\int_{\Omega} w \vec{u} \cdot \vec{n} \, d\Omega = \int_{\Omega} w \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} \, d\Omega + \int_{\Omega} \vec{\nabla} w \cdot \vec{u} \, d\Omega$$

Compare the result with (3.28), to see the relationship between 2D and 3D.

Weak Formulation

We are interested in the weak form of the problem. We will follow a **three-step** procedure to derive it.

Step 1

The following identity (3.24) holds for all $w_x \in U_0$ and $w_y \in U_0$.

$$(3.32a) \quad \int_{\Omega} w_x \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\sigma}_x \, d\Omega + \int_{\Omega} w_x b_x \, d\Omega = 0 \quad \forall w_x \in U_0$$

$$(3.32b) \quad \int_{\Omega} w_y \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\sigma}_y \, d\Omega + \int_{\Omega} w_y b_y \, d\Omega = 0 \quad \forall w_y \in U_0$$

Let U_0 be the space of functions $w_i(x, y)$ that are zero on Γ_u and satisfy the boundary conditions (3.28) and (3.29).

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_x \\ w_y \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{w} = w_x \vec{i} + w_y \vec{j} \quad (\text{in } \mathbb{R}^2)$$

Step 2

In the next step, we define \vec{u} and \vec{w} as follows. Take \vec{u} and \vec{w} as defined in (3.28), (3.29) and (3.30).

Q: What are the boundary conditions for \vec{u} and \vec{w} on Γ_u and Γ_t ?

A:

$$(3.33a) \quad \vec{u} = \vec{0} \quad \text{on } \Gamma_u$$

$$(3.33b) \quad \vec{w} = \vec{0} \quad \text{on } \Gamma_u$$

Step 3

In the next step, we add (3.33a) and (3.33b) to (3.32a) and (3.32b) respectively, and integrate by parts over Ω .

$$(3.34a) \quad \int_{\Omega} (\vec{\nabla} w_x \cdot \vec{\sigma}_x + \vec{\nabla} w_y \cdot \vec{\sigma}_y) \, d\Omega = \int_{\Gamma_t} (w_x \vec{\sigma}_x \cdot \vec{n} + w_y \vec{\sigma}_y \cdot \vec{n}) \, d\Gamma + \int_{\Omega} (w_x b_x + w_y b_y) \, d\Omega$$

O the RHS is effective:

$$(3.34b) \int_{\Omega} (\vec{\nabla} w_x \cdot \vec{\sigma}_x + \vec{\nabla} w_y \cdot \vec{\sigma}_y) d\Omega = \int_{\Gamma_t} \vec{w} \cdot \vec{t} d\Gamma + \int_{\Omega} \vec{w} \cdot \vec{b} d\Omega$$

Q: What is $\vec{\nabla} w_x \cdot \vec{\sigma}_x + \vec{\nabla} w_y \cdot \vec{\sigma}_y$ physically called?

A:

The effective LHS of (3.34b) can be written as

$$(3.35) \quad \begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla} w_x \cdot \vec{\sigma}_x + \vec{\nabla} w_y \cdot \vec{\sigma}_y &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial w_x}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial w_y}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial w_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w_y}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{xx} \\ \sigma_{yy} \\ \sigma_{xy} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (\nabla_s \mathbf{w})^T \boldsymbol{\sigma} \\ &= (\nabla_s \mathbf{w})^T \mathbf{D} \nabla_s \mathbf{u} \end{aligned}$$

where ∇_s is the symmetric gradient matrix operator defined (3.11) as

$$\text{and in 2D } \nabla_s = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The effective 2D can be written as (3.35):

(3.36)

Find $\mathbf{u} \in U$ such that

$$\int_{\Omega} (\nabla_S \mathbf{w})^T \mathbf{D} \nabla_S \mathbf{u} \, d\Omega = \int_{\Gamma_t} \mathbf{w}^T \bar{\mathbf{t}} \, d\Gamma + \int_{\Omega} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{b} \, d\Omega \quad \forall \mathbf{w} \in U_0$$

where $U = \{\mathbf{u} \mid \mathbf{u} = \bar{\mathbf{u}} \text{ on } \Gamma_u\}$ and $U_0 = \{\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{w} = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_u\}$.

Elementary derivation of (3.36) follows from the weak form of the equilibrium equations, which are:

$$(3.37) \quad \sum_{e=1}^{n_{el}} \left\{ \int_{\Omega^e} (\nabla_S \mathbf{w}^e)^T \mathbf{D}^e (\nabla_S \mathbf{u}^e) \, d\Omega - \int_{\Omega^e} \mathbf{w}^{eT} \mathbf{b} \, d\Omega - \int_{\Gamma_t^e} \mathbf{w}^{eT} \bar{\mathbf{t}} \, d\Gamma \right\} = 0$$

Remark:

Recall the elementary 1D case (Eq. (1.11))

Find $u(x)$ such that

$$\int_{\Omega} \left(\frac{dw}{dx} \right)^T AE \frac{du}{dx} dx - \int_{\Omega} w^T b \, dx - (w^T A \bar{t}) \Big|_{\Gamma_t} = 0 \quad w = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_u$$

Analogous derivation in 1D:

$$(2.31) \quad \sum_{e=1}^{n_{el}} \left\{ \int_{\Omega^e} \left(\frac{dw^e}{dx} \right)^T A^e E^e \frac{du^e}{dx} dx - \int_{\Omega^e} w^{eT} b \, dx - (w^{eT} A^e \bar{t}) \Big|_{\Gamma_t^e} \right\} = 0$$

Yielded a set of equations for the unknown nodal displacements. The finite element method (FEM) is a numerical technique for solving these equations.

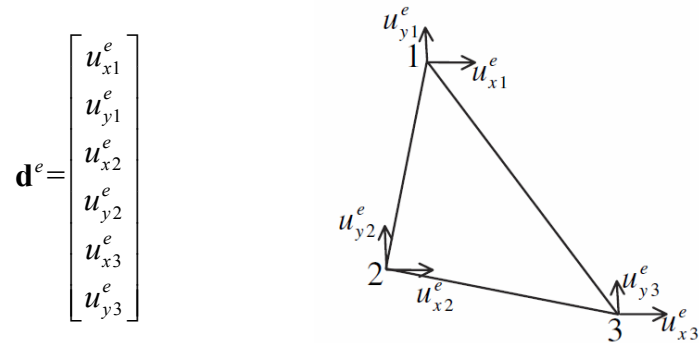
3.5 Linear Elasticity: Finite Element Formulation from Weak Form

Elementary

We define the elementary finite element problem in 2D as follows:

$$(3.41) \quad \mathbf{d}^e = \left[u_x^e \quad u_y^e \quad u_x^e \quad u_y^e \quad \dots \quad u_{x n_{en}}^e \quad u_{y n_{en}}^e \right]^T$$

For a triangle, $n_{en} = 3$ and each node has two degrees of freedom:



So, the shape functions $\hat{\mathbf{w}}^e$ (3.39) are:

$$(3.42) \quad \hat{\mathbf{w}}^e = \left[\hat{w}_{x1}^e \quad \hat{w}_{y1}^e \quad \hat{w}_{x2}^e \quad \hat{w}_{y2}^e \quad \dots \quad \hat{w}_{x n_{en}}^e \quad \hat{w}_{y n_{en}}^e \right]^T$$

Q: How do we find the shape functions?

A:

As each node has two degrees of freedom, the shape functions are:

$$(3.43) \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^e = \nabla_s \mathbf{u}^e = \nabla_s \mathbf{N}^e \mathbf{d}^e = \mathbf{B}^e \mathbf{d}^e$$

The relationship between \mathbf{B}^e is:

$$(3.44) \quad \mathbf{B}^e = \nabla_s \mathbf{N}^e = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial N_1^e}{\partial x} & 0 & \frac{\partial N_2^e}{\partial x} & 0 & \dots & \frac{\partial N_{n_{en}}^e}{\partial x} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\partial N_1^e}{\partial y} & 0 & \frac{\partial N_2^e}{\partial y} & \dots & 0 & \frac{\partial N_{n_{en}}^e}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial N_1^e}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial N_1^e}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial N_2^e}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial N_2^e}{\partial x} & \dots & \frac{\partial N_{n_{en}}^e}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial N_{n_{en}}^e}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix}$$

So, define the following:

$$(3.45) \quad (\nabla_s \mathbf{w}^e)^T = (\mathbf{B}^e \hat{\mathbf{w}}^e)^T = \hat{\mathbf{w}}^{eT} \mathbf{B}^{eT}$$

Substituting (3.44) and (3.45) into (3.37) and using $\mathbf{d}^e = \mathbf{L}^e \mathbf{d}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{w}}^e = \mathbf{L}^e \hat{\mathbf{w}}$ we get:

$$(3.46) \quad \hat{\mathbf{w}}^T \left\{ \sum_{e=1}^{n_{el}} \mathbf{L}^{eT} \left[\int_{\Omega^e} \mathbf{B}^{eT} \mathbf{D}^e \mathbf{B}^e d\Omega \mathbf{L}^e \mathbf{d} - \int_{\Gamma_i^e} \mathbf{N}^{eT} \bar{\mathbf{t}} d\Gamma - \int_{\Omega^e} \mathbf{N}^{eT} \mathbf{b} d\Omega \right] \right\} = 0 \quad \forall \hat{\mathbf{w}}_F$$

$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_F$ is arbitrary, therefore we have NOT a weak form.

We can define element matrices as follows:

(1) Element stiffness matrix

$$(3.47) \quad \mathbf{K}^e = \int_{\Omega^e} \mathbf{B}^{eT} \mathbf{D}^e \mathbf{B}^e d\Omega$$

(2) Element force vector

$$(3.48) \quad \mathbf{f}^e = \mathbf{f}_{\Omega}^e + \mathbf{f}_{\Gamma}^e = \int_{\Omega^e} \mathbf{N}^{eT} \mathbf{b} d\Omega + \int_{\Gamma_i^e} \mathbf{N}^{eT} \bar{\mathbf{t}} d\Gamma$$

Summary: Formulate the element matrices and assemble!

The assembly of a 2D element is equivalent to the assembly of a 1D element.

