

Stress, Strain, and Viscosity

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Palmdale



Solids and Liquids



- **Solid Behavior:**

- elastic
- rebound
- retain original shape
- small deformations are temporary
- (e.g. Steel, concrete, wood, rock, lithosphere)

- **Liquid Behavior:**

- fluid
- no rebound
- shape changes
- permanent deformation
- (e.g. Water, oil, melted chocolate, lava)

Solids and Liquids



Linear Viscous Fluid:

- Rate of deformation is proportional to the applied stress
- A “**linear**” viscous fluid (*w.r.t. stress and strain rate*)
- Also known as a “Newtonian Fluid”

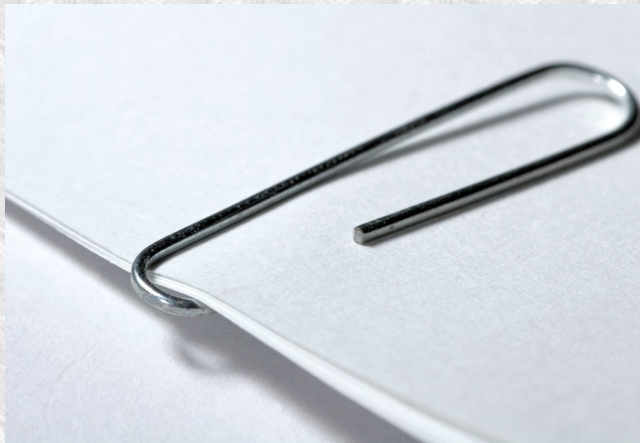
Solids > ? > Liquids

- Is there anything that behaves in a way *between* solid and liquid ?
- **Plastic Material**
 - solid
 - but deforms permanently
 - malleable
 - ductile
- Ductile or malleable materials are “non-linear”



Solids and Liquids

- Are all materials either a *solid* or a *fluid, all the time* ?
- Applied heat can cause solid materials to behave like a fluid
- Some material may be *elastic* when small forces are applied but *deform permanently* with larger applied forces



- **Elastic:** Deformed material returns to original shape



- **Ductile:** Stress exceeds the *elastic limit* and deforms material permanently



This rock responded to stress by folding and flowing by *ductile* deformation.

Occurs under *high heat* and *high pressure*



This rock fractured under stress by *brittle* deformation.

Occurs under low heat and at shallow depths in the Earth's crust.

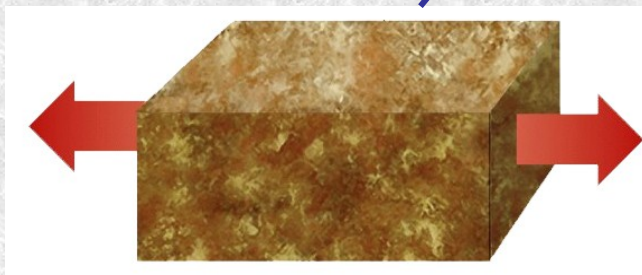
Three types of stress

Figure 9.2

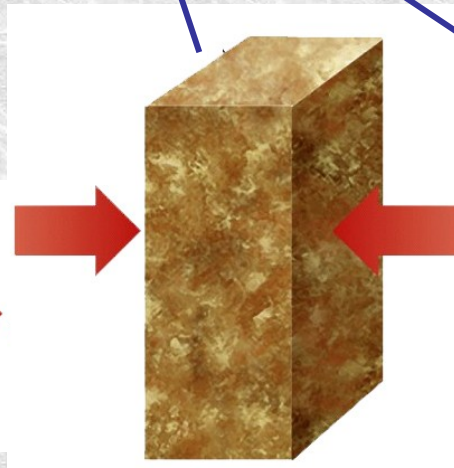
Stress: is the force acting on a surface, per unit area – may be greater in certain directions.



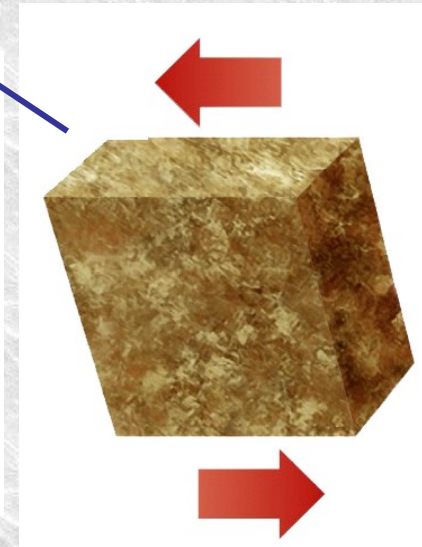
Unstressed
cube of rock



TENSIONAL
STRESS

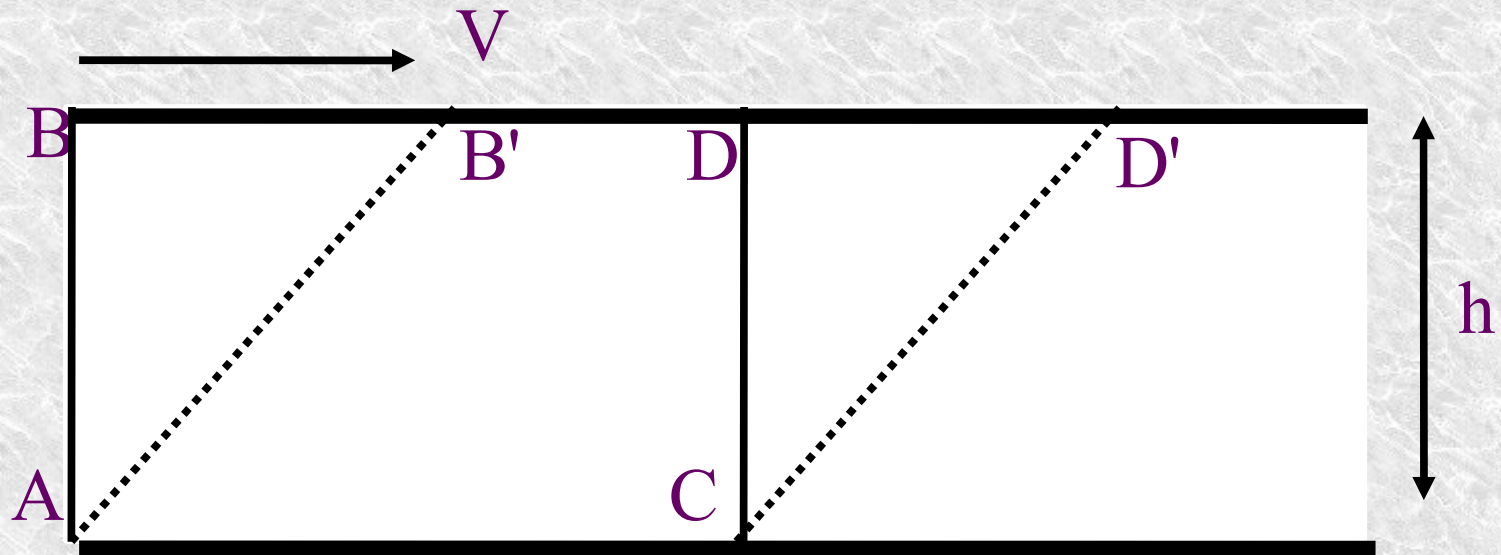


COMPRESSIONAL
STRESS



SHEAR
STRESS

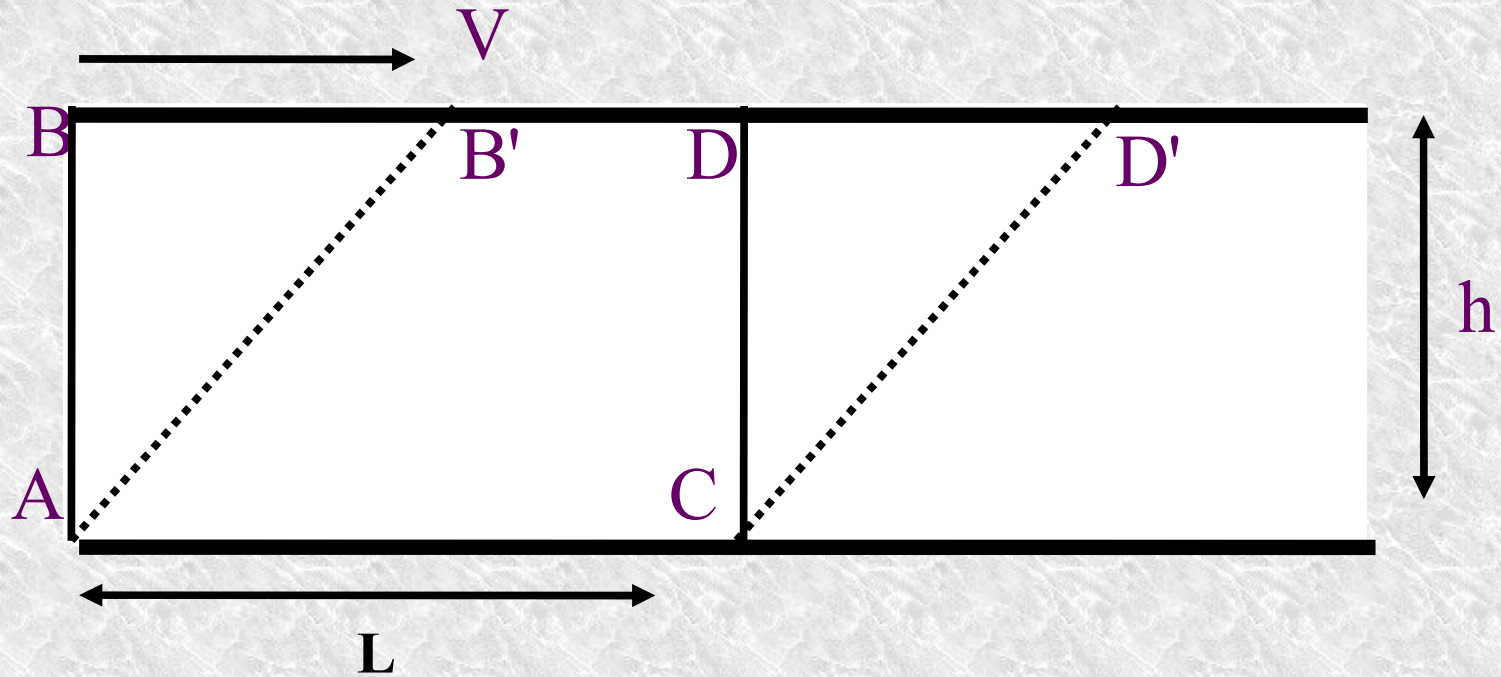
Strain



- Consider a layer of fluid between 2 plates
- The top plate moves with velocity, V
- The *shape change* can be written as $V \Delta t / H$
- The rate of shape change is $d/dt(\text{shape change})$

$$\text{rate of deformation} = \dot{\epsilon} = V/H \quad (\text{units of } 1/\text{time})$$

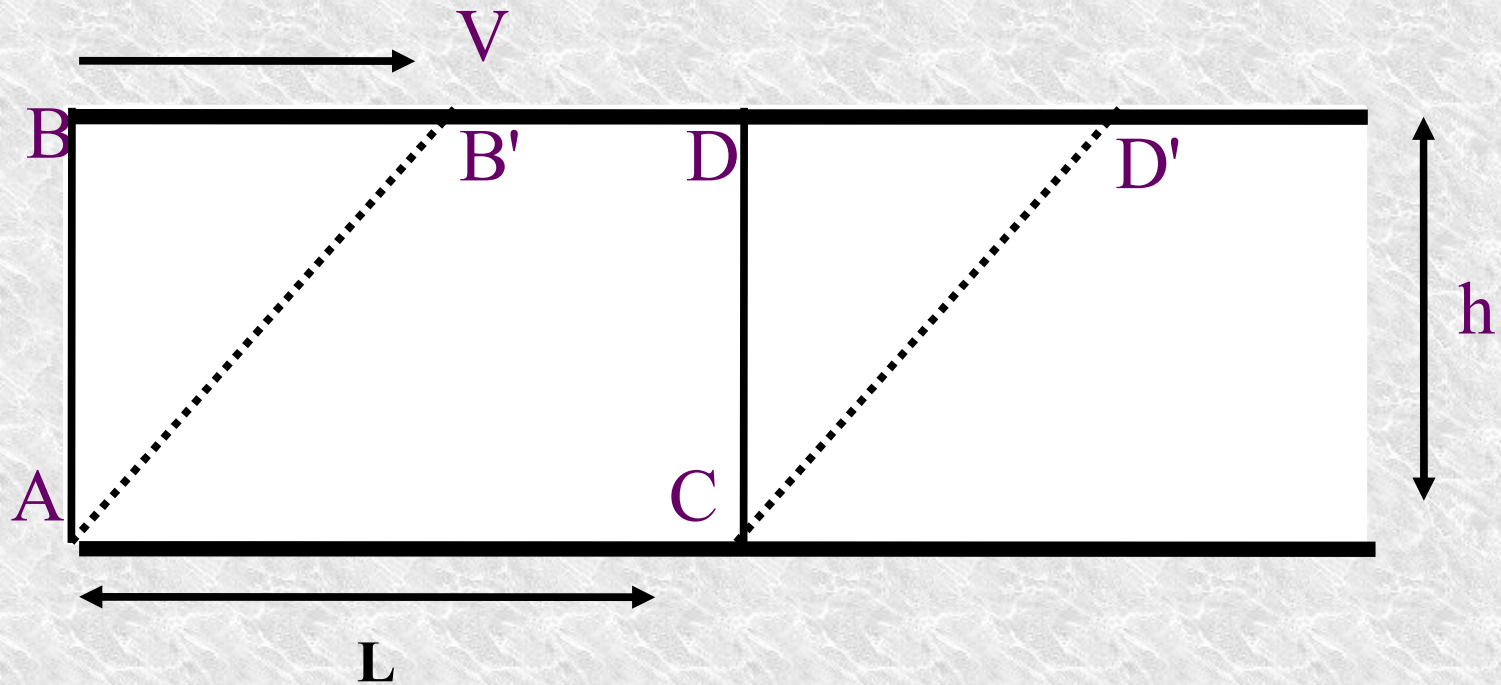
Stress



- Pressure is applied to move the fluid
- Stress is described as *force per unit area* (units of pressure, Pa)

$$\sigma = \text{force/area} = F/LW$$

Viscous Fluid



- A viscous fluid is defined by the relationship of stress to strain rate

$$\sigma = 2\mu\dot{\epsilon}$$

- Viscosity (μ) is the constant of proportionality (*units of Pas*)
- This “constitutive” equation describes the mechanical properties of A material

Viscous Fluid

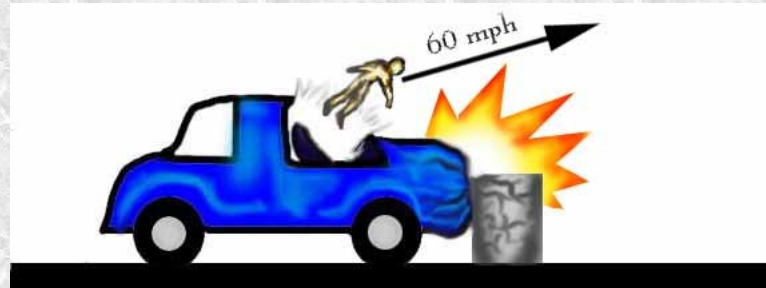
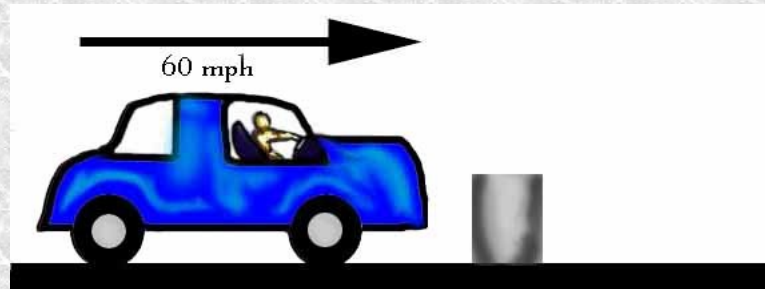
$$\sigma = 2\mu\dot{\epsilon}$$

- If material has a high viscosity (μ),
it will strain less for a given applied stress (σ)

$$\mu = \sigma / 2\dot{\epsilon}$$

Physical Laws of Motion

- **Newton's 1st Law:** Object in motion stays in motion;
Action and reaction,
Velocity motion imparted by the top plate induces a
reaction of the fluid below



Physical Laws of Motion

- **Newton's 2nd Law:**

Acceleration of fluid is proportional to the net force

What does this mean?

- If there is no acceleration, then forces balance, that is things move but don't accelerate. In this case, forces balance and there is “**no net force**”
- For all viscous fluids, the *net force* = 0
- Velocities in the Earth's mantle are small and *accelerations* are negligible
- *Momentum* is also negligible in slow viscous fluids

Conservation of Mass

- Mass is conserved in fluid flow
(density changes are negligible)
- Fluid is “*incompressible*”.
- Rate of fluid flow into box = flow out of box
- No net accumulation of material

- See **Class notes** – Formal treatment of stress and strain

- Stress $>$

- Strain $>$

- Viscosity $>$

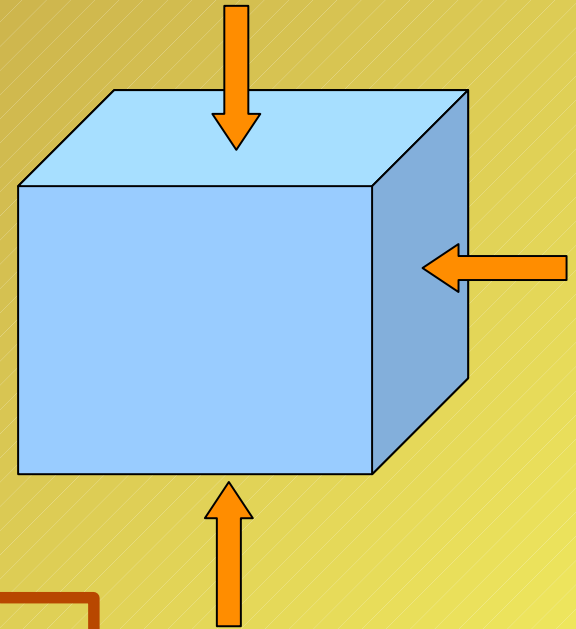
Hydrostatic Stress

- *Hydrostatic stress* is defined as confining pressure
- Normal stresses acting on a particle are equal on all sides
- Known as “isotropic”

$$\sigma_{11} = \sigma_{22} = \sigma_{33} = -P$$

- With no tangential components

$$\sigma_{12} = \sigma_{13} = \sigma_{23} = 0$$



Deviatoric Stress

- Mantle flow is **not** driven by hydrostatic pressure
- But is driven by deviations from it, known as *deviatoric stress*
- Let's consider an *average* normal stress

$$\sigma_{\text{ave}} = \frac{\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} + \sigma_{33}}{3} = \sigma_{ii} / 3$$

- Then *deviatoric stress* is given by

$$\sigma_{\text{dev}} = \sigma_{ij} - \sigma_{\text{ave}}$$

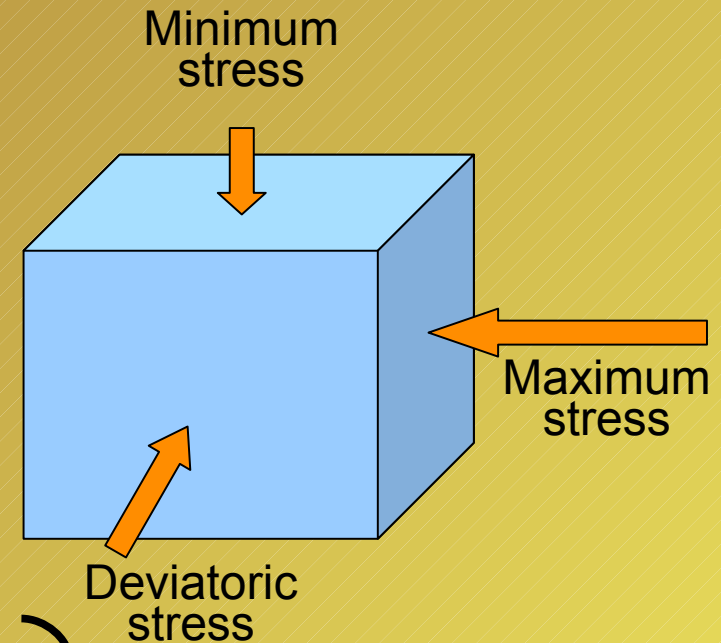
the applied stress - average normal stress = difference
(deviatoric stress)

Deviatoric Stress

$$\sigma_{\text{dev}} = \sigma_{ij} - \sigma_{\text{ave}}$$

- If *deviatoric stress* is non-zero, than fluid flow proceeds

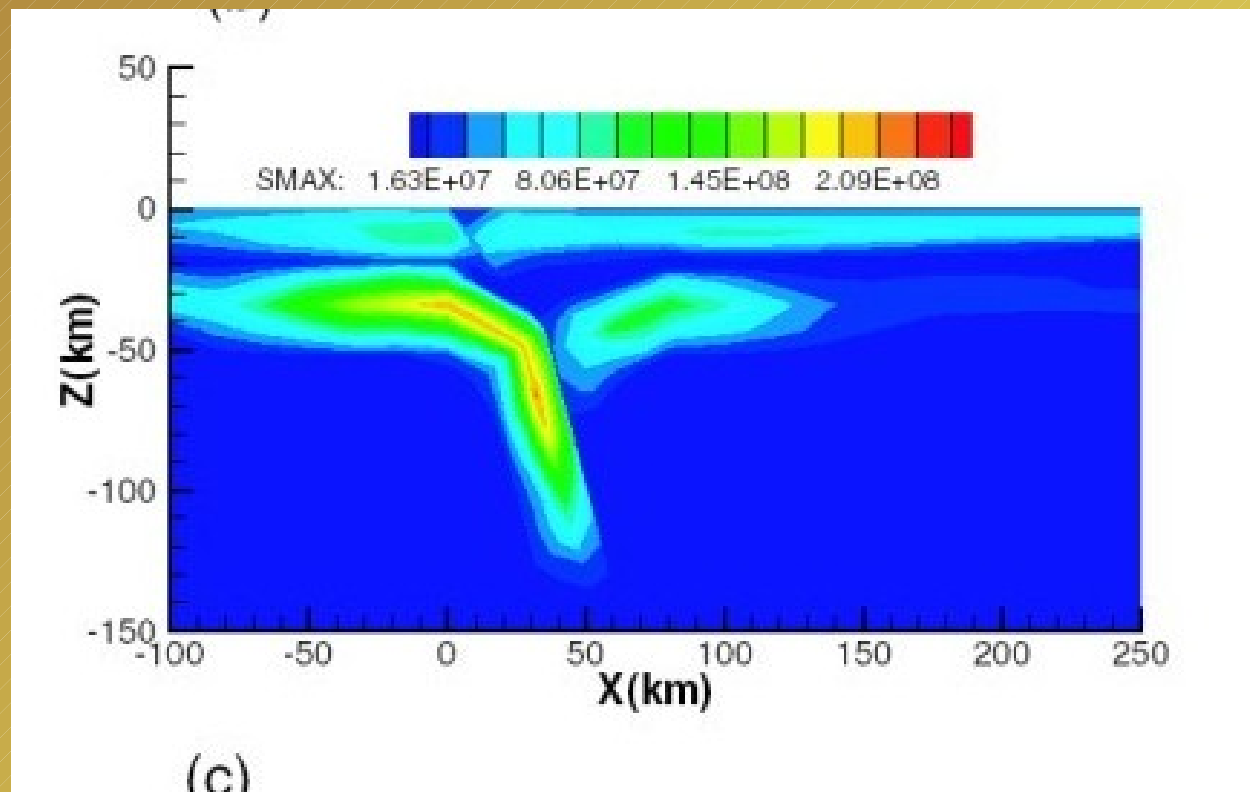
$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} - \sigma_{\text{ave}} & \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{13} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_{22} - \sigma_{\text{ave}} & \sigma_{23} \\ \sigma_{31} & \sigma_{32} & \sigma_{33} - \sigma_{\text{ave}} \end{bmatrix}$$



- If the diagonals are all equal, then there is *no deviatoric stress*
- And there is no fluid flow

Lithostatic Stress

- A special case of hydrostatic stress
- Hydrostatic stress increases with depth in the Earth
- But at each depth, normal stresses are *balanced*



- As a slab sinks into the Earth's interior, it experiences progressively increasing hydrostatic stress with depth known as *lithostatic stress*.

Measuring Lithostatic Stress

- Near the surface, stress measurements are strongly effected by faults, joints, etc.
- At deeper depths, pressure closes faults and fractures and stresses are transmitted across faults
- Activity: calculate deviatoric stress in a continental block



Normal faults in El Salvador



Jointing in a rock

Measuring Lithostatic Stress

Depth

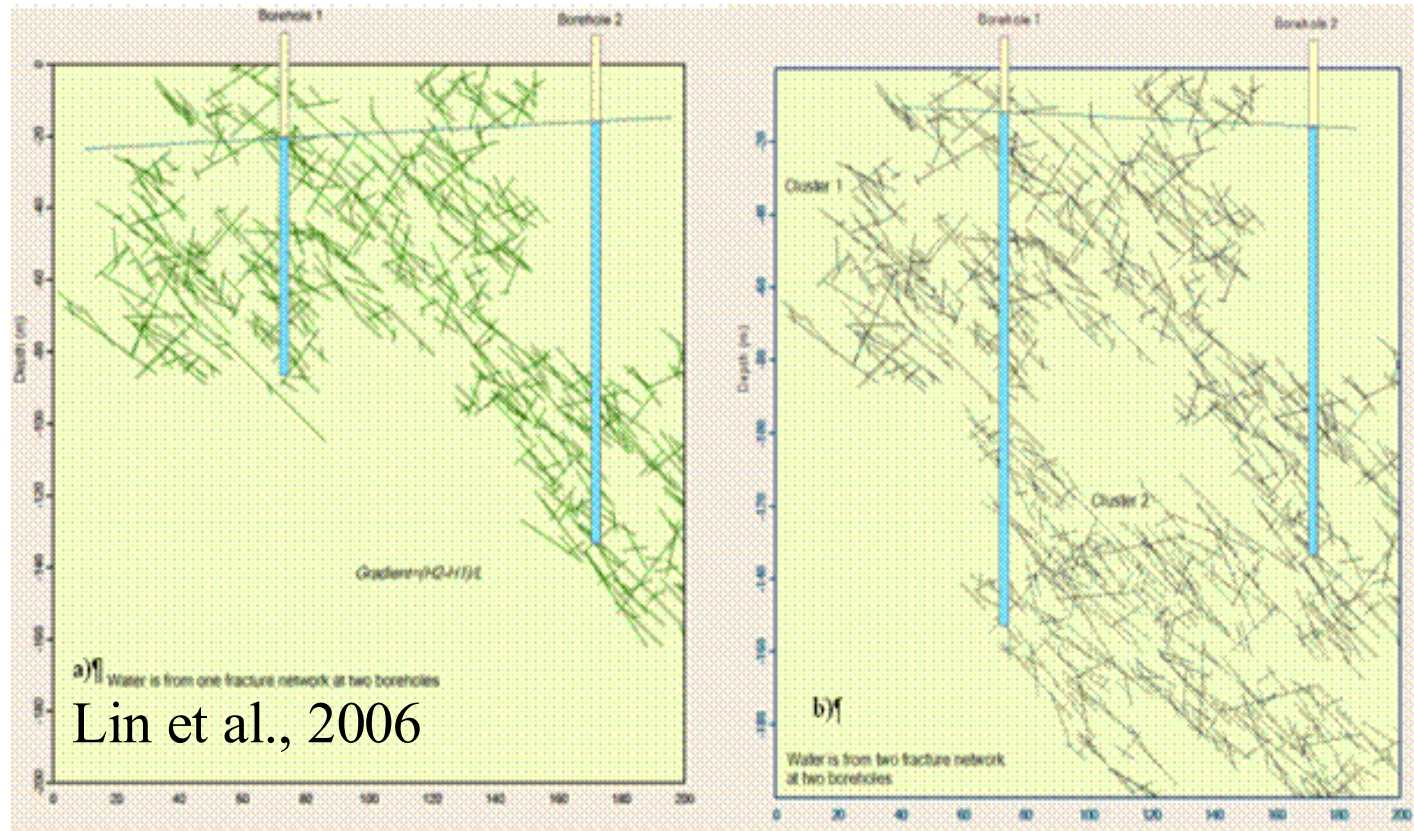
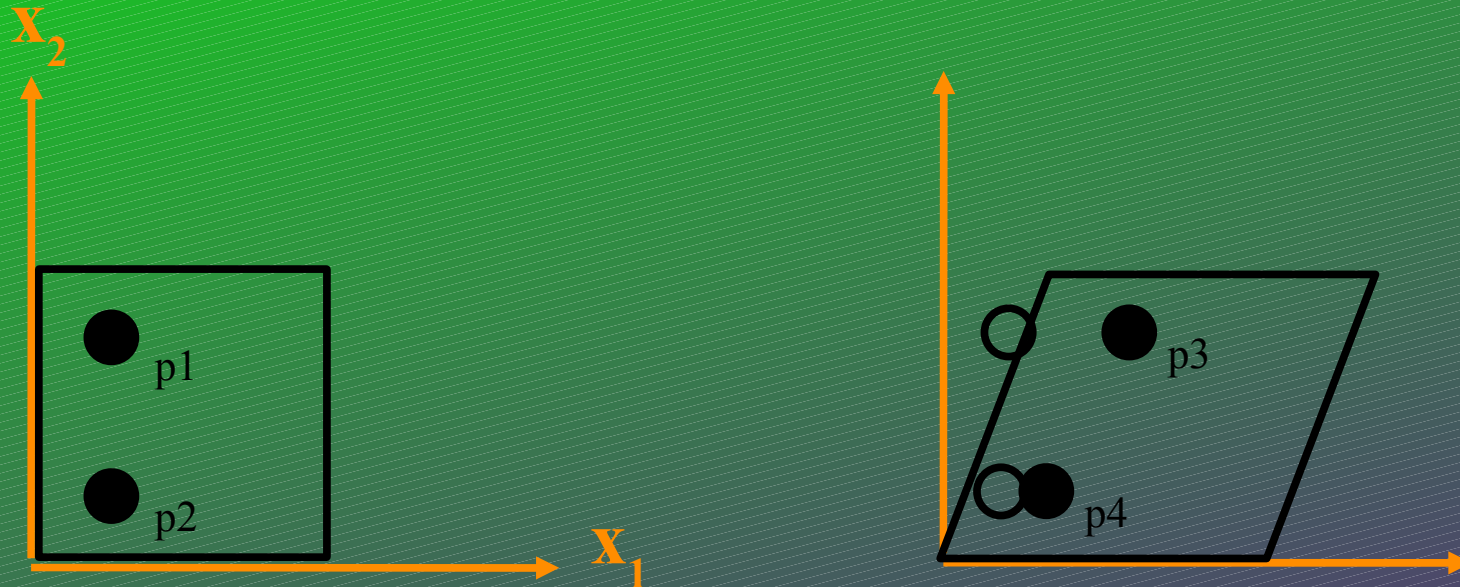


Fig.9 Interconnected fractures generated based on surface measurement of TMG sandstones at Eseljaberg, Villedorp, Western Cape, at a size of 200×200 m, with the involvement of two boreholes, indicating the change of groundwater situation before and after the extension of borehole 1.

- Fracture density measured in the field in south Africa
- Boreholes show reduced hydraulic conductivity at deeper depths
- Indicating that fractures close with increasing *lithostatic stress*

Strain

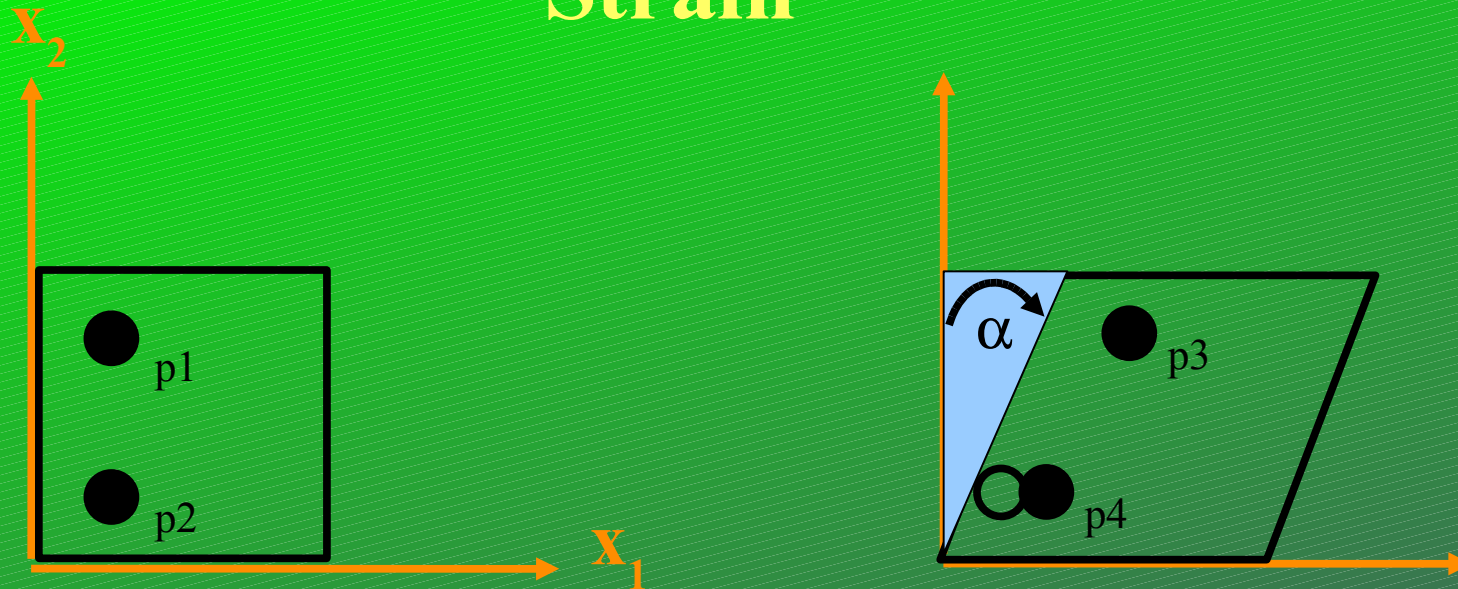
- *Strain* is a measure of deformation
- When deformation occurs, different parts of a body are displaced by different amounts



$$u_1 = b x_2$$

- Displacements (u) in x_1 direction increase with increasing x_2 .
- No displacement in x_2 direction: $u_2 = 0$

Strain

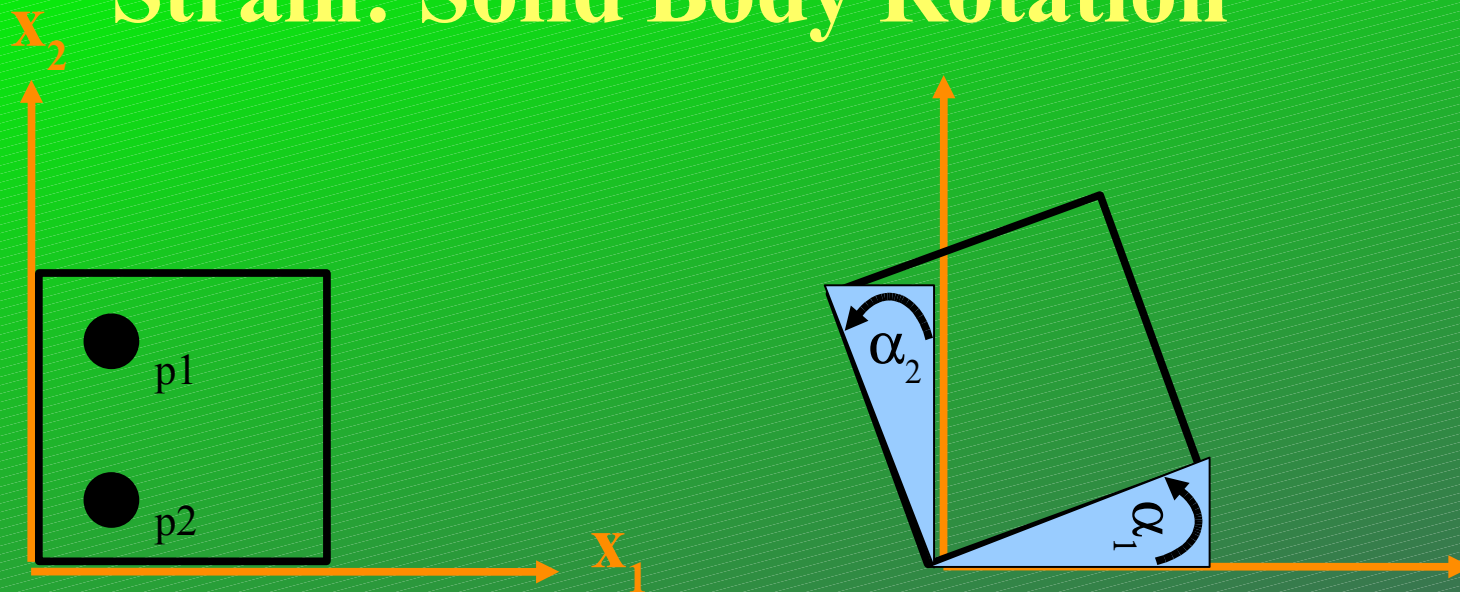


- Displacement of p1 and p2 are not equal
- This implies a *gradient* of displacement

$$\frac{d u_1}{d x_2} = b = - \tan \alpha$$

- Where α is the angle through which the body deforms
- Shearing deformation changes along the x_2 direction.

Strain: Solid Body Rotation



- If $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2$, then we have rotation only and no deformation
- In this case, the *gradient* in deformation can be written as:

$$\tan \alpha_1 = \frac{d u_2}{d x_1}$$

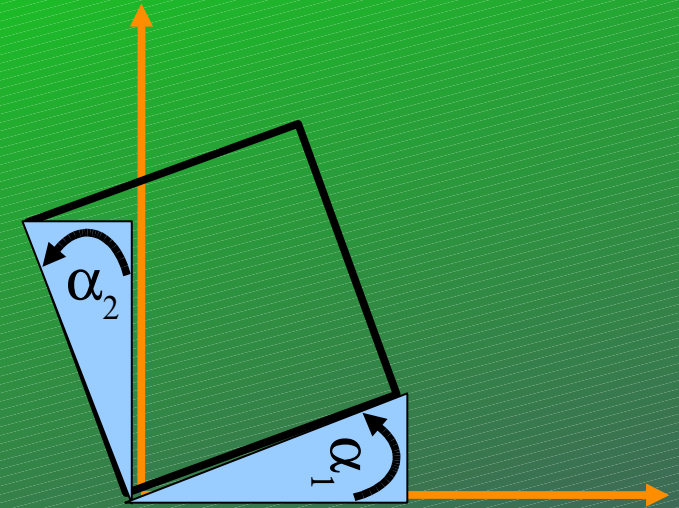
$$\tan \alpha_2 = \frac{-d u_1}{d x_2}$$

- *Solid body* rotation suggests the gradient of deformations are equal

Strain:

How do we distinguish *deformation* and *rotation* ?

- Think about how α_1 and α_2 relate to each other



Rotation only

$$(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2) = 0$$

$$(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2) = \text{nonzero}$$

Deformation

$$(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = 0$$

Pure shear

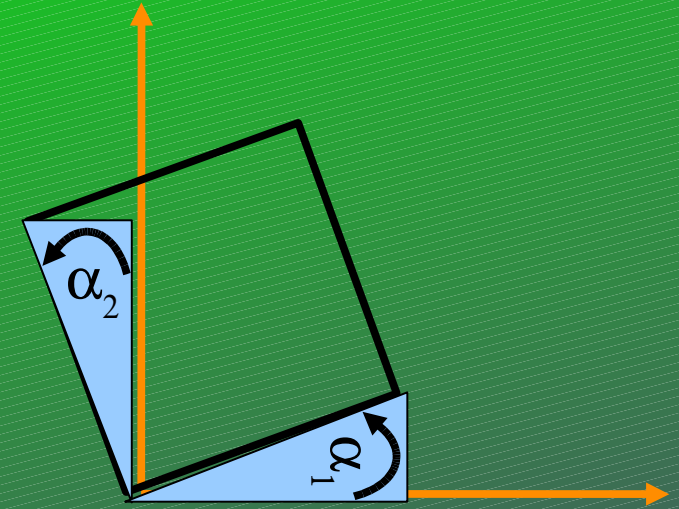
$$(\alpha_1 + \cancel{\alpha_2}) \neq 0$$

Simple shear

Strain:

How do we distinguish *deformation* and *rotation* ?

- We generally write this in terms of the tangent of the rotation angle



Rotation:

$$\omega_{12} = \frac{1}{2} (\tan \alpha_1 + \tan \alpha_2) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d u_2}{d x_1} - \frac{d u_1}{d x_2} \right)$$

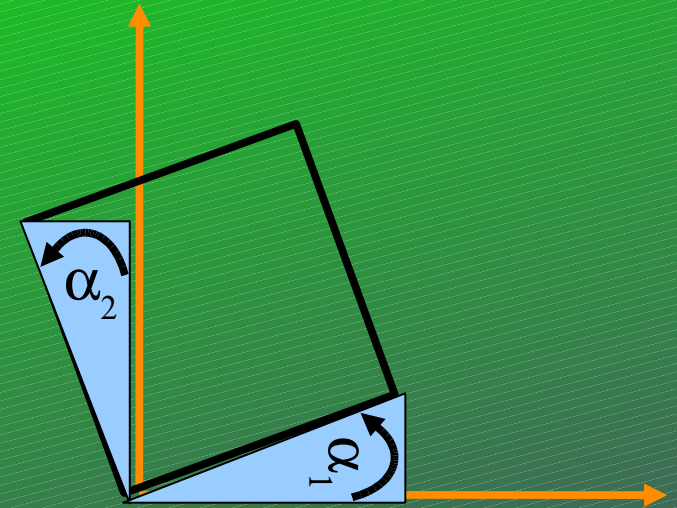
Deformation:

$$\epsilon_{12} = \frac{1}{2} (\tan \alpha_1 - \tan \alpha_2) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d u_1}{d x_2} + \frac{d u_2}{d x_1} \right)$$

The Strain Tensor

- The *strain tensor* can then be written

$$\epsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d u_i}{d x_j} + \frac{d u_j}{d x_i} \right)$$



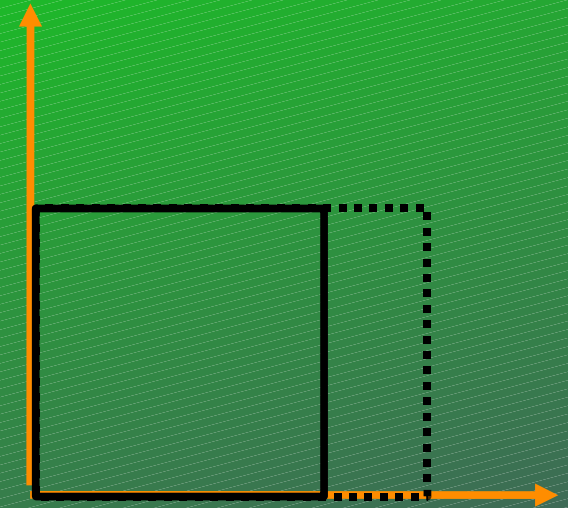
- And the rotation *tensor* can then be written

$$\omega_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d u_j}{d x_i} - \frac{d u_i}{d x_j} \right)$$

The Strain Tensor : Test

- The *strain tensor* can then be written

$$\epsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d u_i}{d x_j} + \frac{d u_j}{d x_i} \right)$$

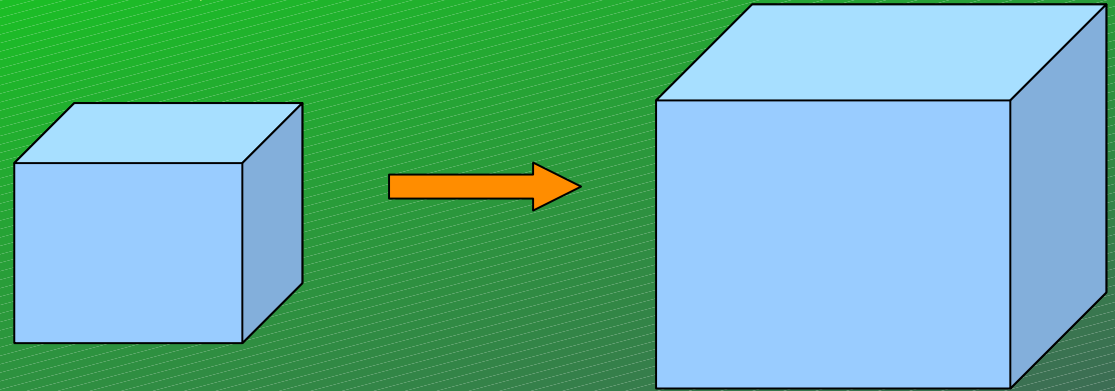


Let's try a test: In the case of a box that is “stretched”

- What is i and j in ϵ_{ij} ?
- Then find the solution

The Strain Tensor : Case of Volume Change

- If a cube expands (or shrinks)

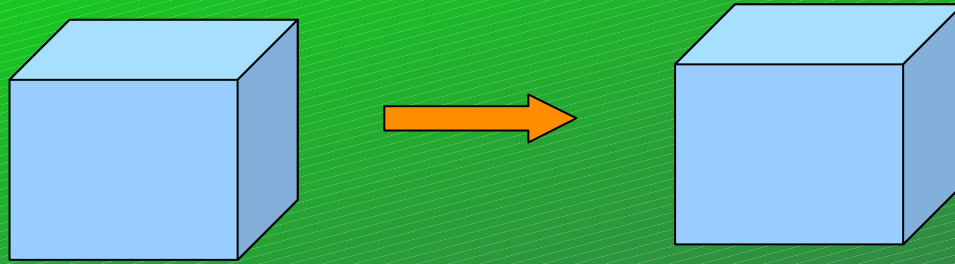


$$\frac{V - V_0}{V_0} = \epsilon_{11} + \epsilon_{22} + \epsilon_{33}$$

$$E_{ij} = \frac{d u_i}{d x_i} = \nabla \cdot u$$

$\nabla \cdot u$ Indicates volume change, dilatation, divergence

The Strain Tensor : Case of Volume Change



$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

Means there is no volume change
and fluid is *incompressible*

Strain Rate

- Strain rate describes deformation *change over time*
- How fast can a material deform ?
- How fast can fluid flow ?



Strain Rate

- **Strain rate** describes deformation *change over time*
- How fast can a material deform ?
- How fast can fluid flow ?
- Rates are concerned with *velocity*

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d V_i}{d x_j} + \frac{d V_j}{d x_i} \right)$$

- We can use velocity gradient to measure the rate of fluid flow or shear

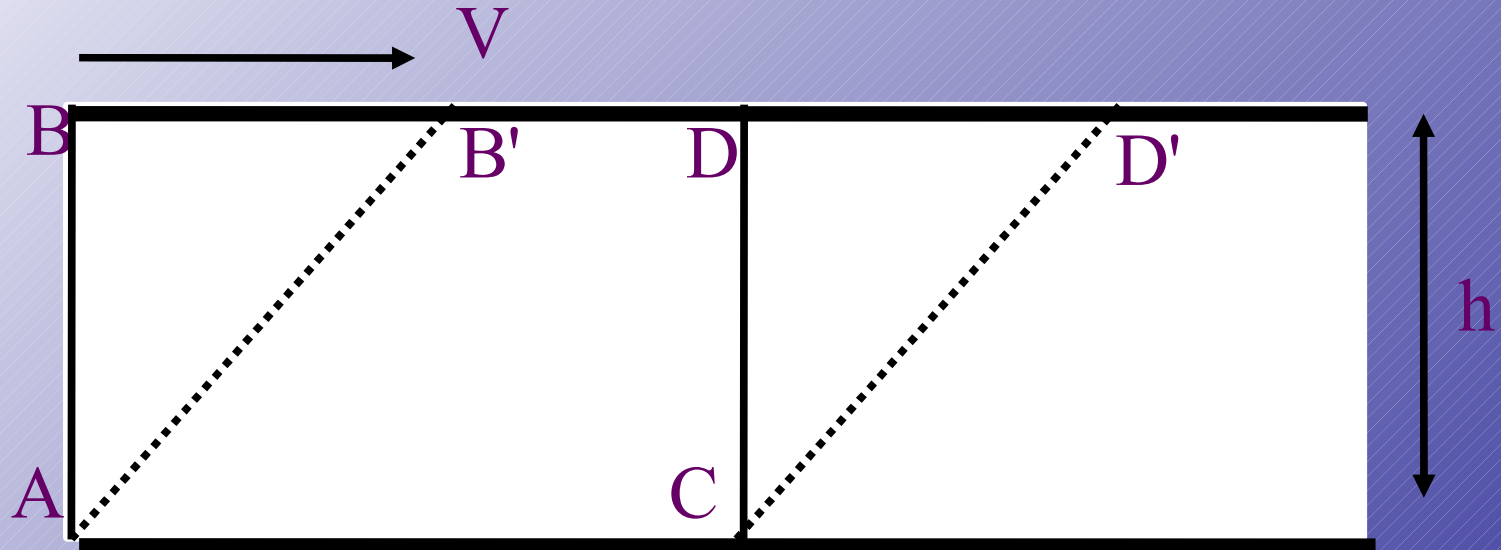
Viscous Fluids

- *Viscous fluids* resist shearing deformation
- Have a linear relationship between stress and strain rate (known as Newtonian fluids)
- Fluid examples:
 - air, water viscosities are low
 - honey, thick oil viscosities are high

Viscous Fluids

- *Viscous fluids* resist shearing deformation
- Have a linear relationship between stress and strain rate (known as Newtonian fluids)
- See Class Notes:

Viscous Fluids



- *Viscous fluids* resist shearing deformation
- Have a linear relationship between stress and strain rate (known as Newtonian fluids)











