

Key physical processes and concepts

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• Present the main physical processes and concepts we need to consider to understand lithospheric geodynamics

• Provide necessary background for the rest of the course



- This course is titled "Introduction to lithospheric geodynamic modelling"
 - What does this title bring to mind for you?



Dissecting the course title

- This course is titled "Introduction to lithospheric geodynamic modelling"
 - Our focus is on the lithosphere
 - Outermost layer of the Earth that is rigid over geological timescales
 - Thermal lithosphere: Portion of outer layers below ~1300°C
 - Crust and lithospheric mantle
 - No convecting mantle



Dissecting the course title

- This course is titled "Introduction to lithospheric geodynamic modelling"
 - Our focus is on geodynamics
 - Plate tectonics and related phenomena
 - Physical processes/topics
 - Stress and strain
 - Heat transfer
 - Deformation: Faulting and folding, rheology



Dissecting the course title

- This course is titled "Introduction to lithospheric geodynamic modelling"
 - Our focus is on modelling
 - Using computers to solve equations and simulate geodynamic processes
 - We will learn how to solve equations using numerical methods, and how to implement those numerical solutions in computer code
 - Few geodynamic processes are simple enough to be explored without the use of computers



The path forward

- For the rest of this lecture, we will briefly review the different physical processes and concepts related to geodynamics
- In the following lecture we'll take some of the equations we'll see in this lecture and discuss what is needed to solve them
- In the afternoon we will review basic computing concepts by way of examples using the Python programming language

 Some of this will be review for you, but it never hurts to revisit these fundamental topics before moving on to more challenging topics

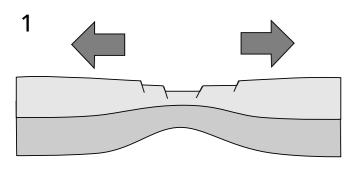


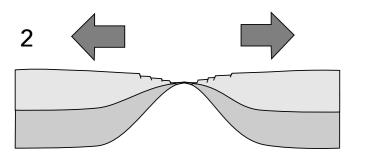
Plate Tectonics and related phenomena

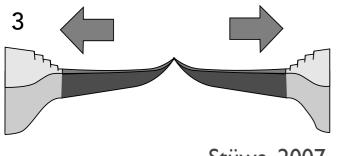
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Lithospheric geodynamic processes

The Wilson cycle

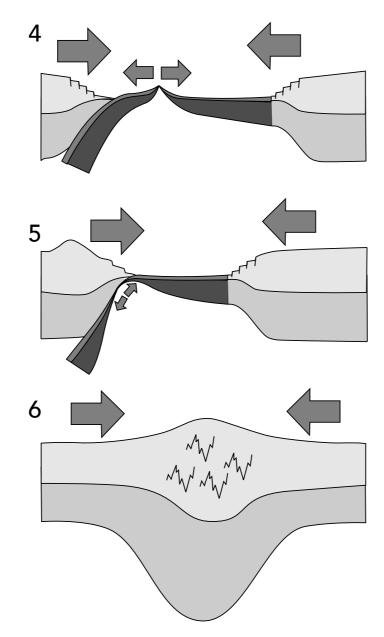






Stüwe, 2007

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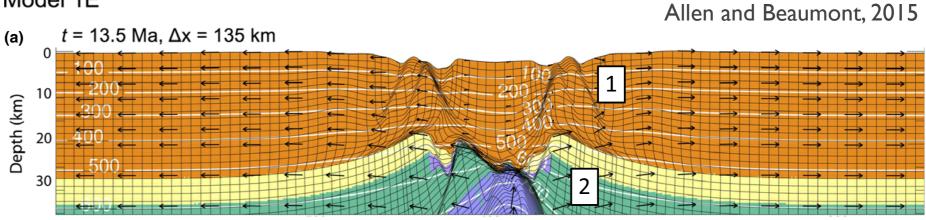


The focus for this lecture will be on the lithosphere and the dynamic processes involved in its deformation and evolution

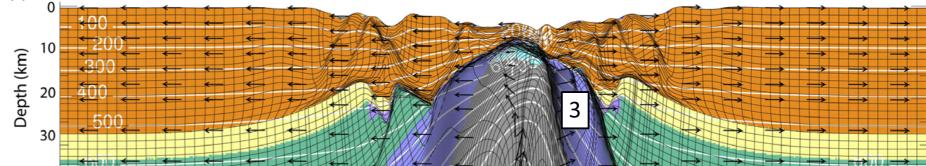
 Many of these processes can be directly linked to Plate Tectonics and the Wilson cycle

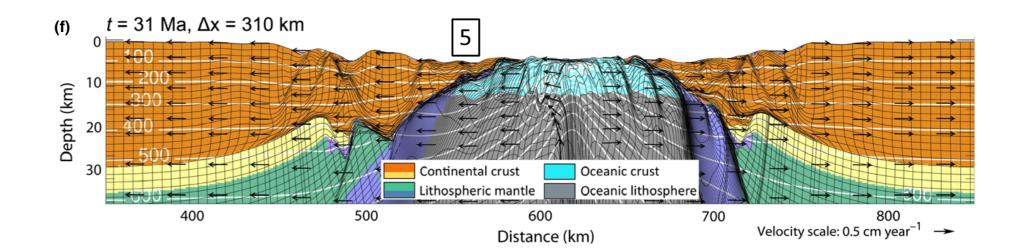
Rifting of the lithosphere

Model 1E



(c) $t = 21 \text{ Ma}, \Delta x = 210 \text{ km}$





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Stüwe, 2007

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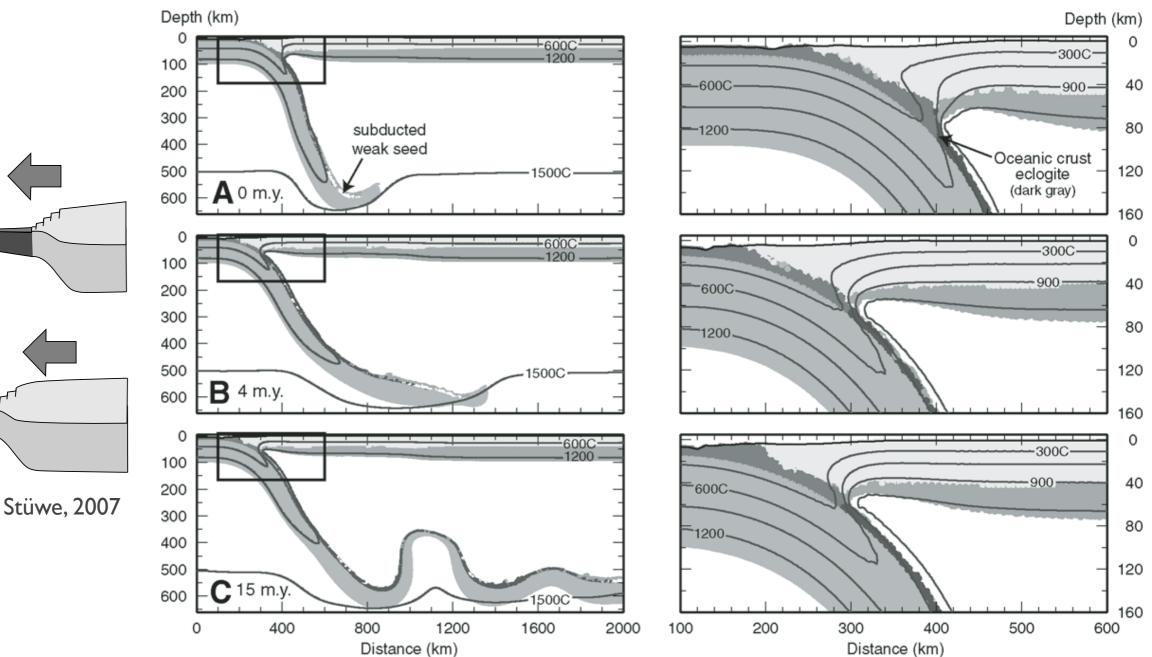
Intro to geodynamic modelling

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Oceanic subduction



Currie et al., 2015

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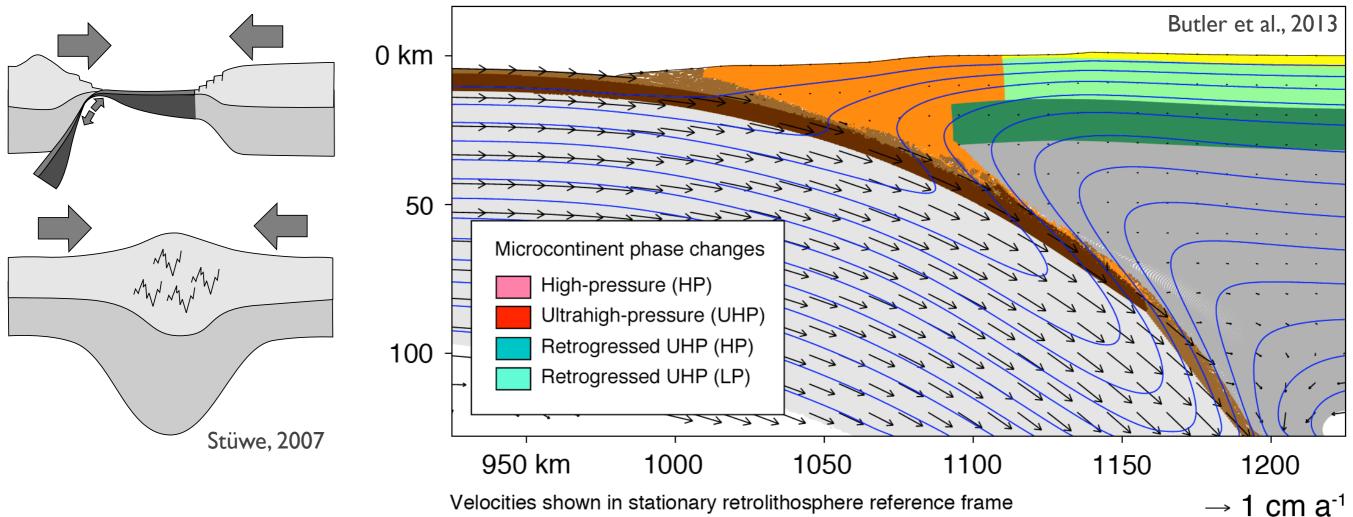
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Alpine-type Model S Tectonics and Velocity



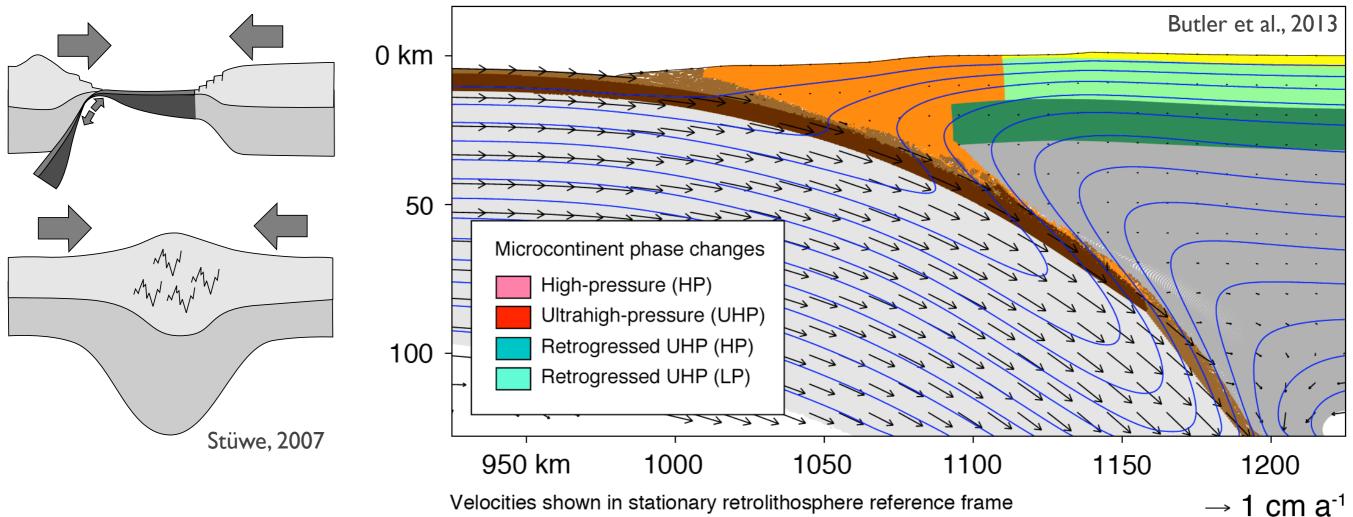


T contours every 100°C, starting at 100°C



Alpine-type Model S Tectonics and Velocity

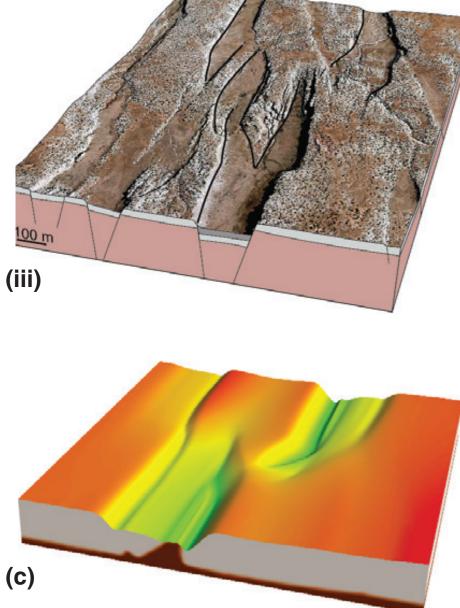




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Toward three dimensions

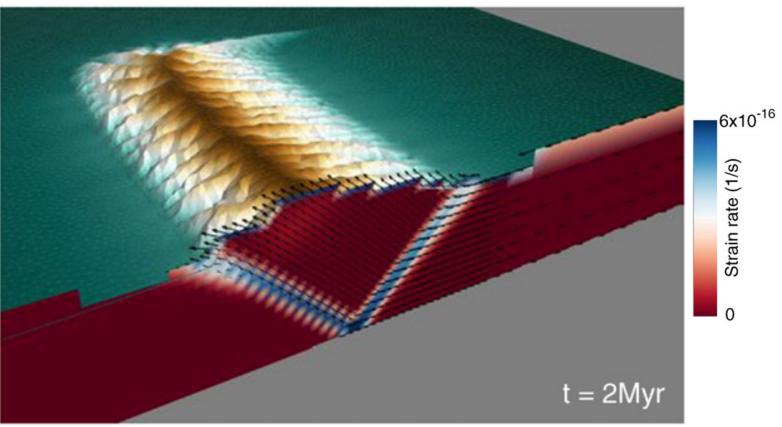
Rifting



Allken et al., 2012

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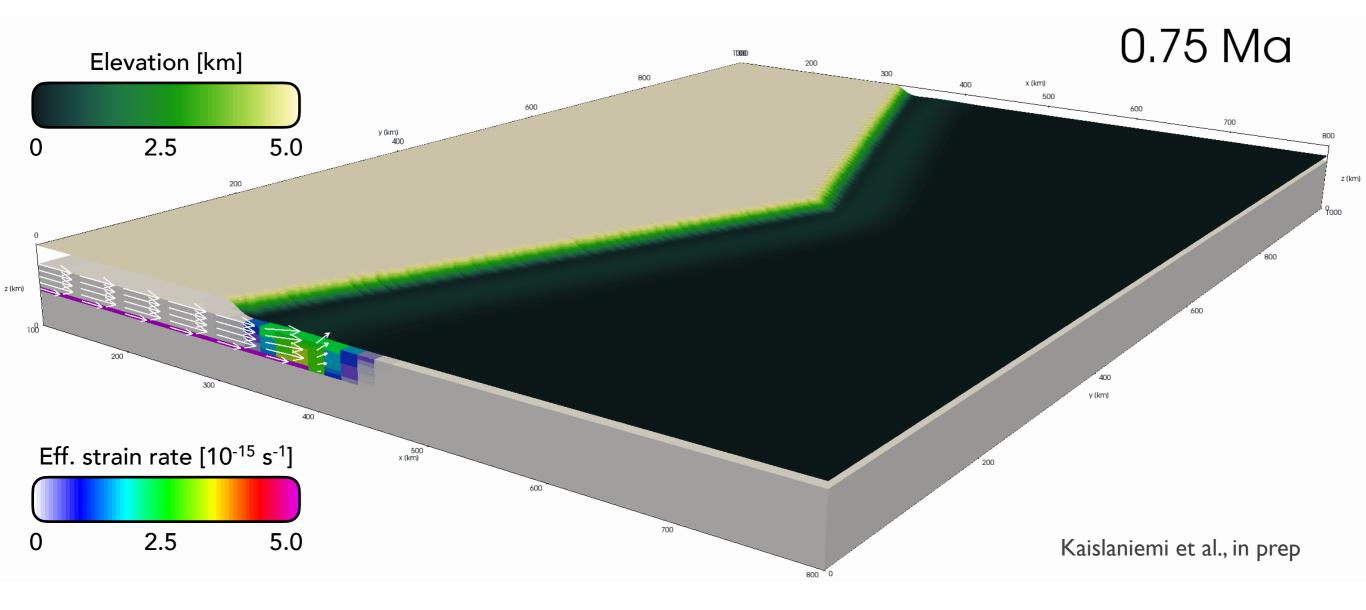
Continental collision



Braun and Yamato, 2010

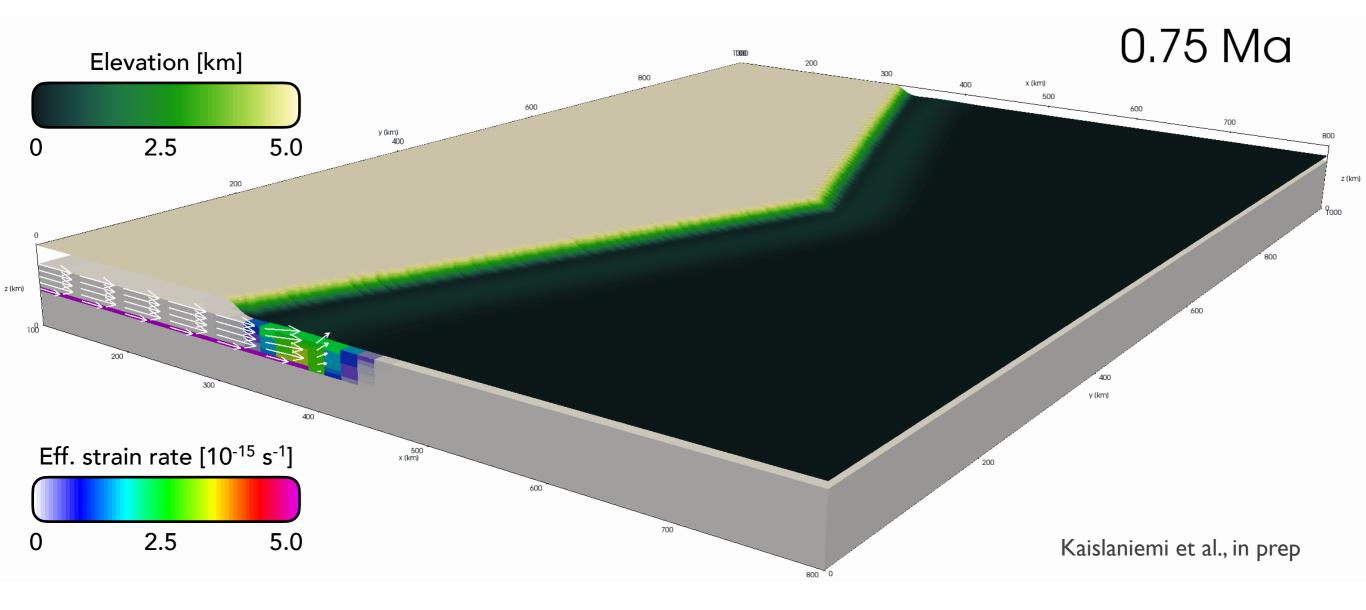


Fold-and-thrust belt growth and erosion





Fold-and-thrust belt growth and erosion





What is a model?

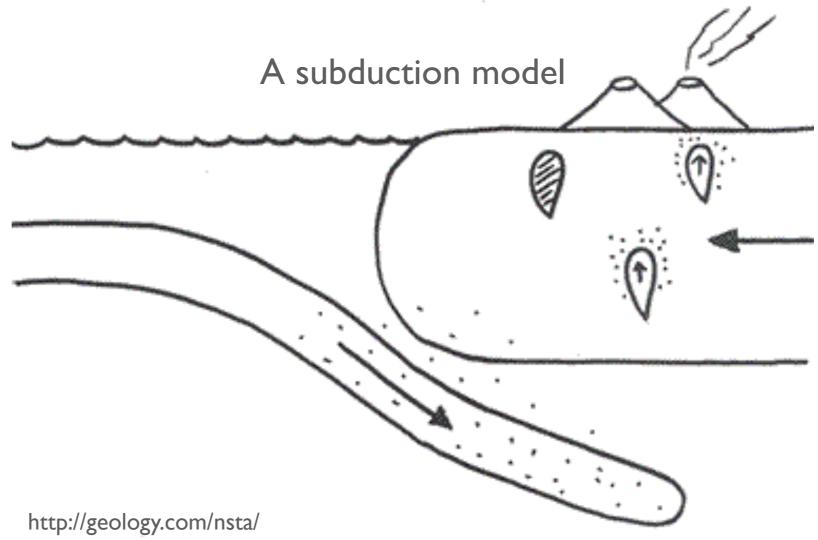


• "A model it tool used to <u>describe the world around us</u> in a simplified way so that we can understand it better"

Stüwe, 2007

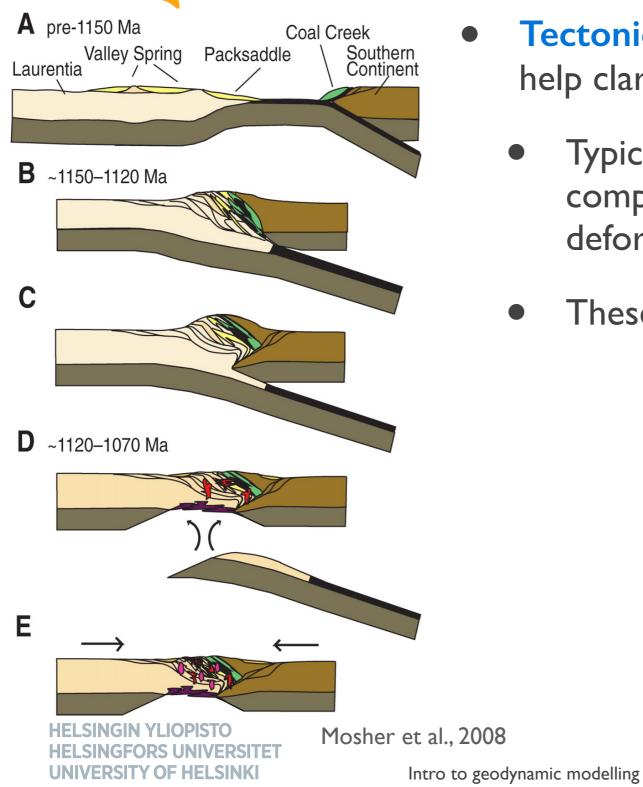


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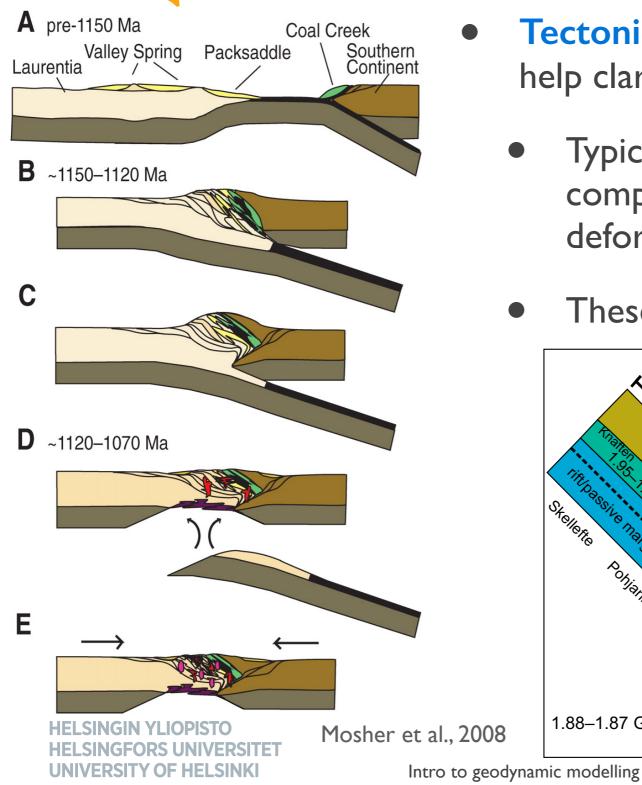


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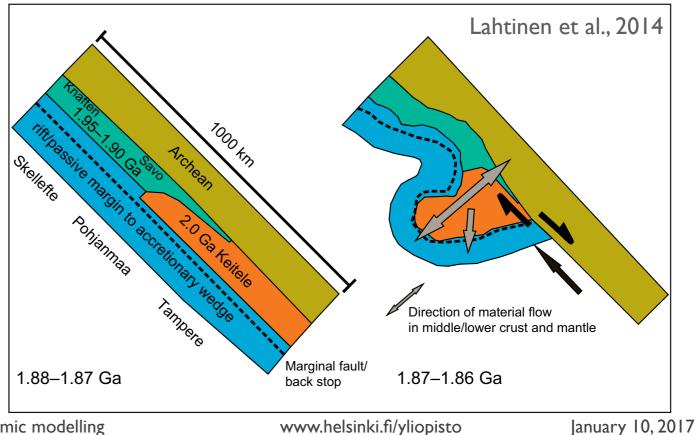
<u>Stüwe, 2007</u>



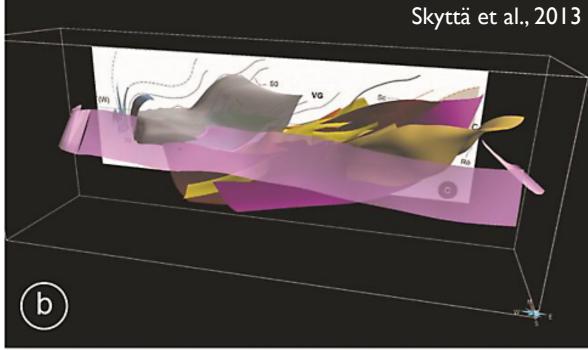
- **Tectonic diagrams** are a familiar form of model to help clarify the time evolution of a study area
 - Typically this kind of model is used to simplify the complex modern geology and restore it to a predeformation state
 - These models, though, have no basis in physics



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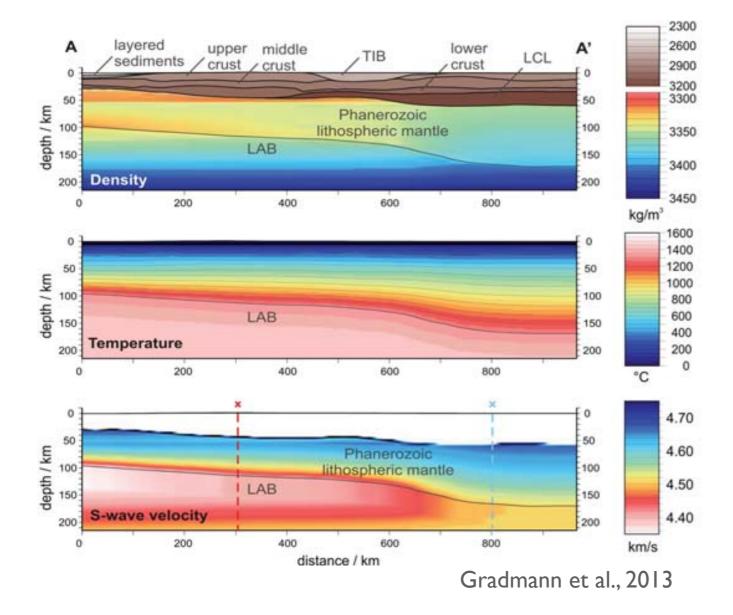
- 3D structural or geological models are closer to reality in that they are based on a combination of surface and subsurface geological and geophysical observations
- The primary goal of these models is data visualisation, again helping us understand complex geometries
- Models of this type typically do not simulate physical processes

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Intro to geodynamic modelling

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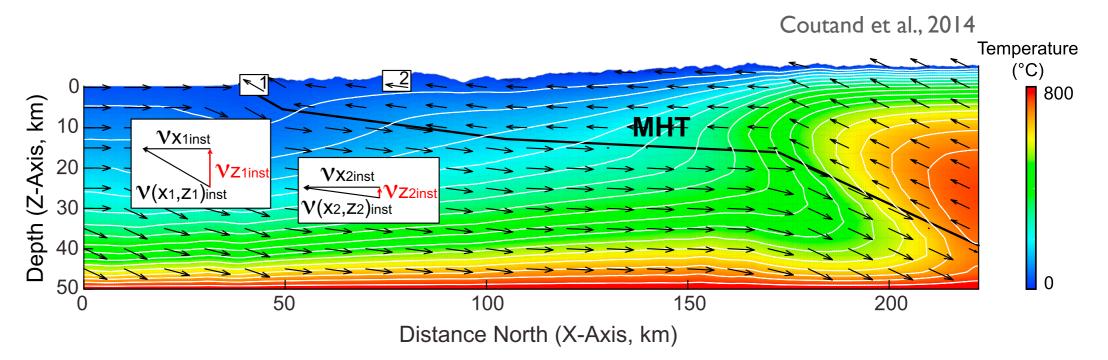
Integrated geophysical modelling



Integrated geophyiscal models use a combination of an input crustal structure and composition, and rock thermal properties to calculate various properties of the lithosphere (gravity anomalies, seismic velocities, surface heat flow, etc.)

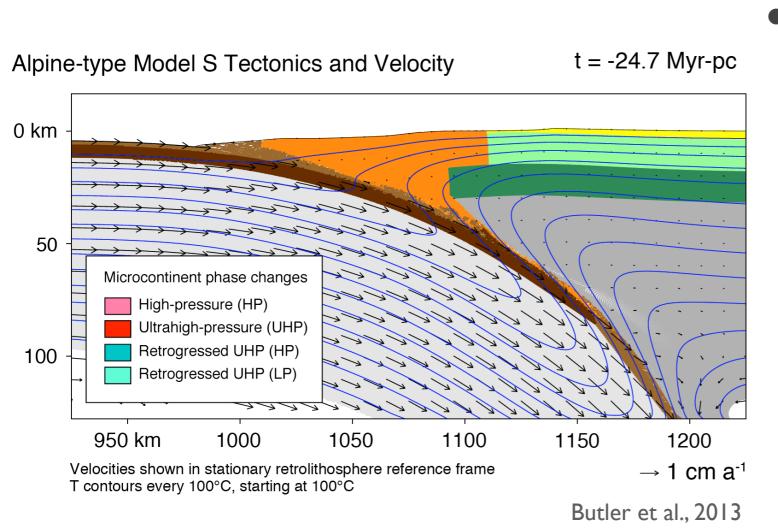
• These models involve a 2D or 3D geometrical model and calculation of heat transfer in the lithosphere and upper mantle





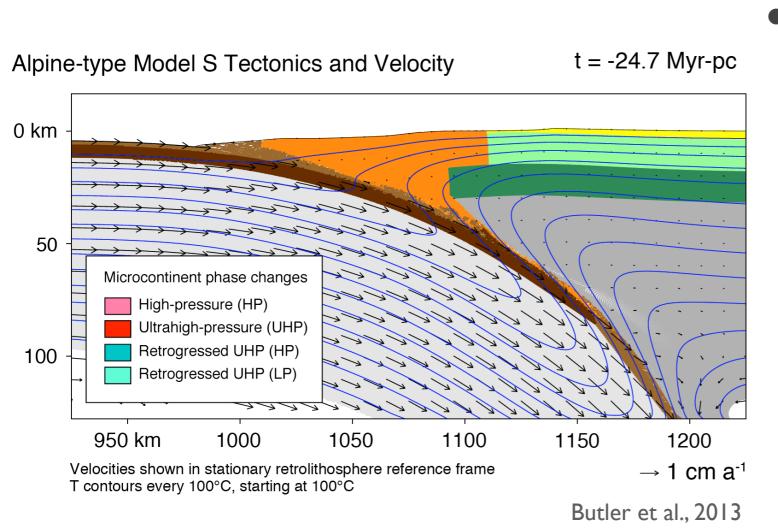
- Thermo-kinematic (or thermokinematic) models simulate both mass transport and heat transfer using a pre-defined velocity field and input rock thermal/physical properties
- Models of this type can be compared to a number of observables, including surface heat flow and mineral cooling ages, and typically have a geometry based on surface geological observations and geophysical data such as reflection seismics





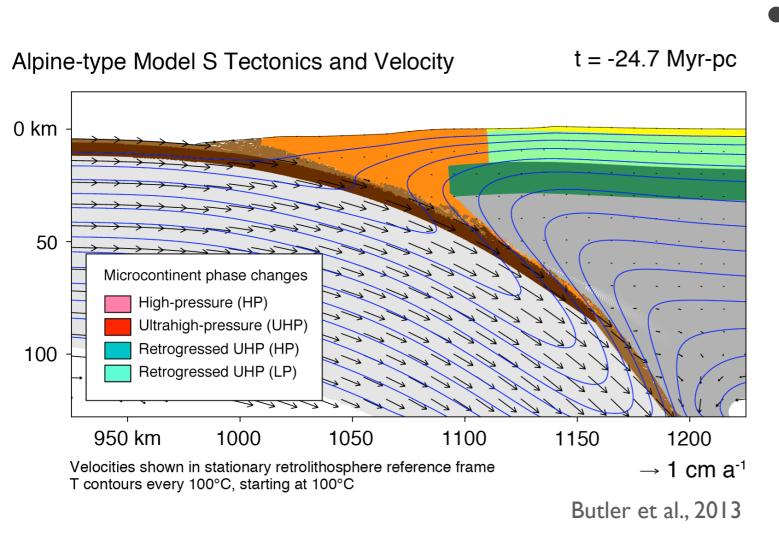
- Thermo-mechanical models
 truly simulate lithospheric
 dynamics
 - Internal deformation in the model is determined based on the material properties of rock in the model and not prescribed
 - Heat transfer will vary as a result of model deformation, but also affect the model material properties





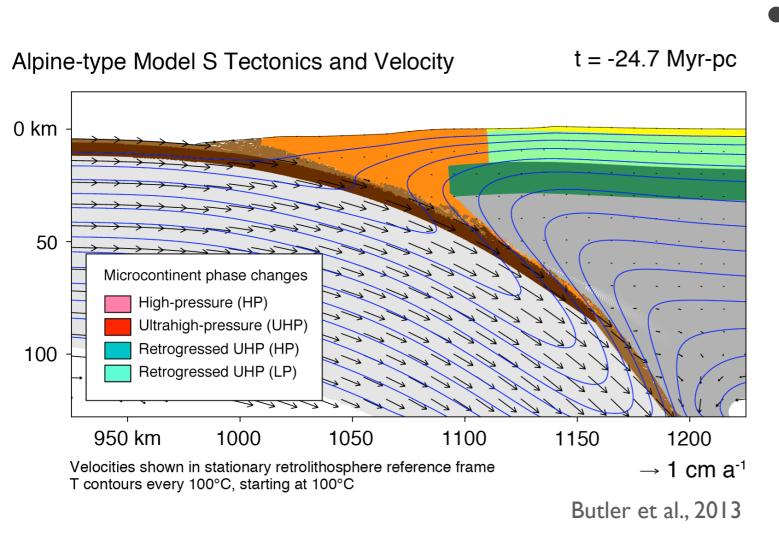
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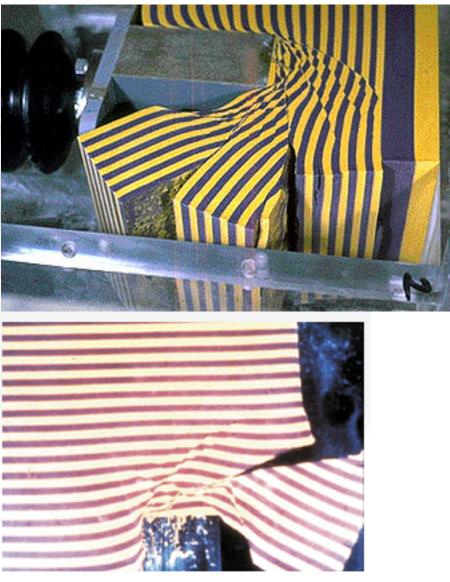
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 - This type of model offers the greatest predictive power, but can be difficult to directly link to geological observations because the model evolution is not known *a priori*
 - This kind of model is the focus for the remainder of this presentation





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Analogue versus numerical models



Tapponnier et al., 1982

Analogue models are an alternative to thermomechanical models where materials analogous to Earth materials are used to simulate deformation of the Earth in physical models

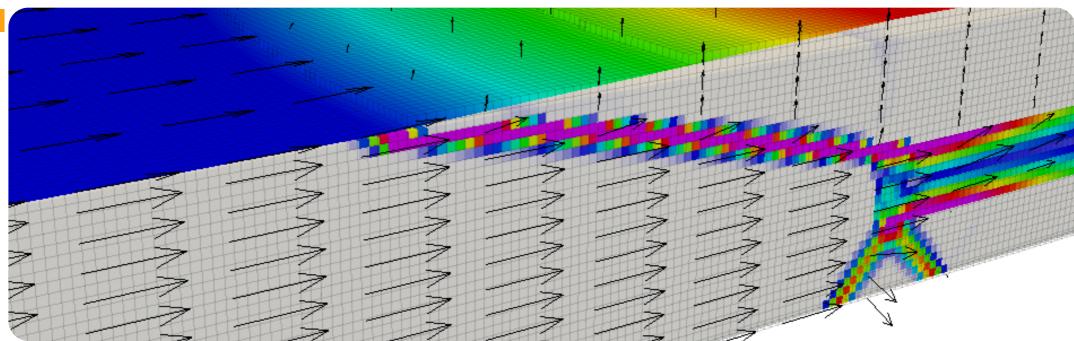
- These models do not prescribe any material behavior, but rather allow the material to deform subject to imposed deformation at the boundaries
- Though these are a viable alternative to numerical models, it is difficult to simulate temperature-dependent materials and scaling of the model properties can be a problem



Physical model concepts: Earth as a continuum



What does that even mean?



Velocities and strain rates in a lithospheric geodynamic model

- Most geodynamic models treat the Earth as a continuum such that there are no material gaps or voids at the macroscopic scale
 - Field variables such as pressure, velocity, or stress are thus fully continuous
- In this context the Earth is a fluid with a very high viscosity (typically 10¹⁸ - 10²³ Pa s)



Earth as a fluid? Even the lithosphere?

• Fluid: Any material that flows in response to an applied stress

• Differences between solids and fluids

Solids	Fluids
Strain from being stressed	Continuous deformation under applied forces
Stresses related to strains	Stresses related to rates of strain
Strain result of displacement gradients	Strain result of velocity gradients

• Rheological (or constitutive) law: An equation relating stress to strain rates in a fluid



• Fluid mechanics is the science of fluid motion



• Fluid mechanics is the science of fluid motion

- Based on conservation of three basic physical property and their corresponding mathematical representations
 - **Conservation of mass** The continuity equation
 - **Conservation of momentum -** The momentum equation
 - Conservation of energy The heat transfer equation



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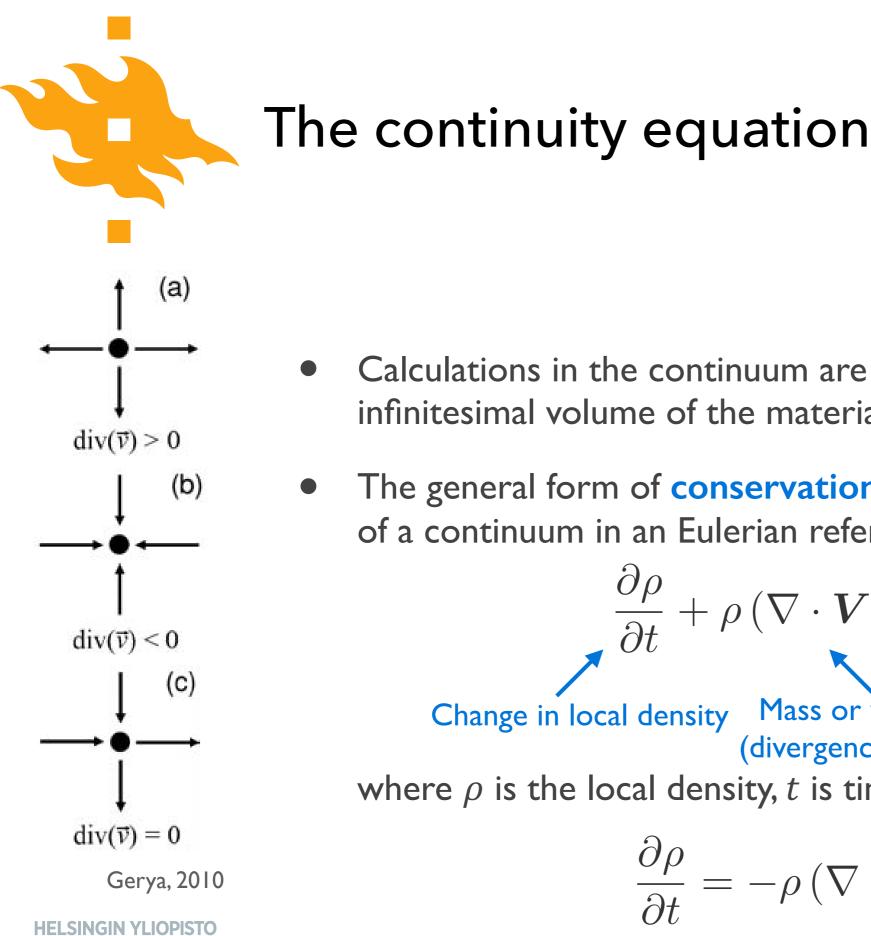
 Conservation of mass, momentum and energy are combined with rheological laws to <u>describe fluid movement under an</u> <u>applied force</u>



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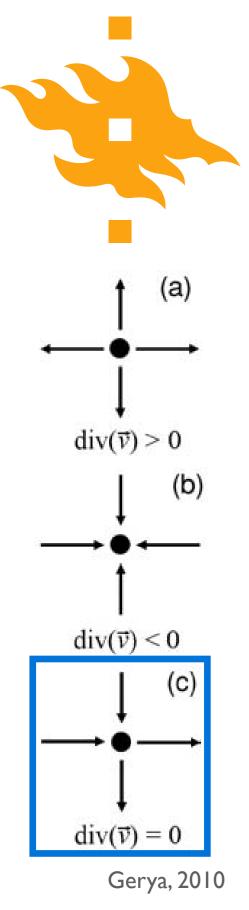


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- Calculations in the continuum are performed by considering an infinitesimal volume of the material, the local volume
- The general form of conservation of mass for a local volume of a continuum in an Eulerian reference frame is

 $+\rho\left(\nabla\cdot\boldsymbol{V}\right)=0$ Mass or volume flux Change in local density (divergence of velocity) where ρ is the local density, t is time and V is the local velocity

$$rac{\partial
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ight)$$
 Alternative form



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The continuity equation

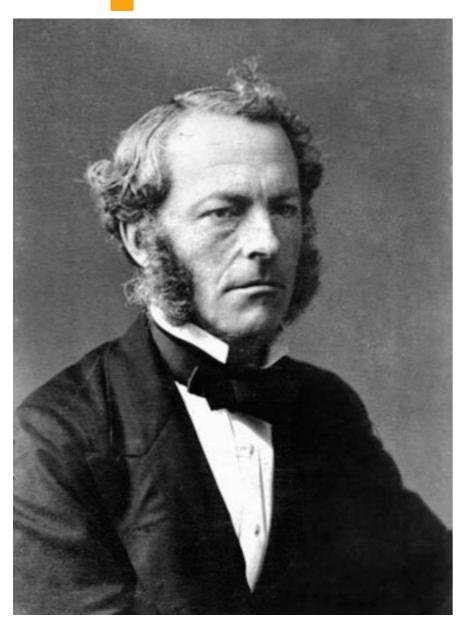
- It is common in geodynamic numerical models, particularly in the crust or lithosphere, to assume the <u>material is</u> <u>incompressible</u>
- In this case, the **continuity equation** simplifies to

$$\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{V} = 0$$

stating simply that there is no divergence in the velocity field of the continuum

In many numerical models, this condition is not strictly obeyed, allowing a very small amount of compressibility in the materials

What drives a fluid to flow?

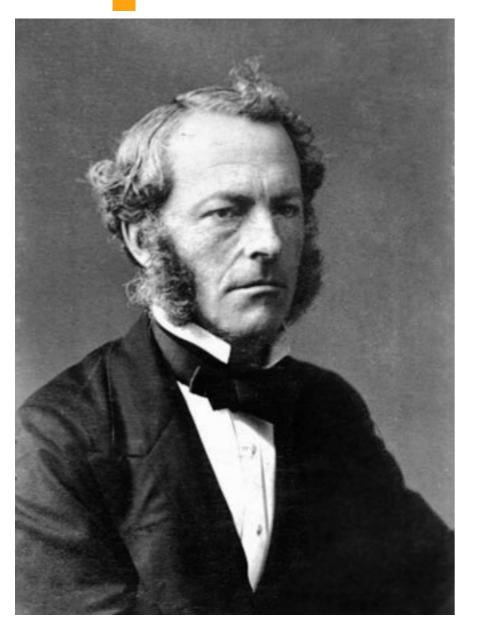


• At this point, we have established that geodynamicists often model the Earth as a continuous, highly viscous fluid. Since we're interested in the dynamics of this fluid, a reasonable question to ask is what might cause a fluid to flow?

Sir George Stokes

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The momentum equation



Sir George Stokes

 The basic relationship that thus determines the dynamics of material in the continuum is conservation of momentum, the balance of internal and external forces acting on the material

• The conservation of momentum for a fluid subject to gravity is the Navier-Stokes equation $\nabla \cdot \eta (\nabla V + \nabla V^{T}) - \nabla P - \rho g = \rho \dot{V}$

Fluid velocity Fluid pressure

where η is the fluid shear viscosity, P is pressure, g is the acceleration due to gravity, and \dot{V} is the material time derivative of the fluid velocity (acceleration)

HELSINGIN YLIOPISTO HELSINGFORS UNIVERSITET UNIVERSITY OF HELSINKI Body forces Acceleration

The momentum equation



Sir George Stokes

 For highly viscous fluids with a very small Reynolds number <u>the acceleration term of the Navier-Stokes</u> <u>equation can be ignored</u> reducing to the equation of <u>Stokes flow</u> (and simplifying the solutions)

$$\nabla \cdot \eta (\nabla V + \nabla V^{\mathrm{T}}) - \nabla P = \rho g$$

Fluid velocity Fluid pressure Body forces

 It is trivial to demonstrate that the Reynolds number of most geodynamic flows is extremely low

$$\mathbf{Re} = \frac{\rho VI}{n}$$

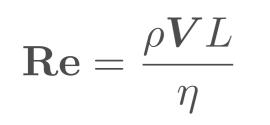
Inertial forces Viscous forces

The Reynolds number

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• The Reynolds number determines whether or not a fluid flow should be expected to be turbulent or laminar



The Reynolds number

 The critical value of the Reynolds number is ~2000, above which flow is turbulent

- Using your best guess at the equation values, estimate the Reynolds number for convection of the upper mantle
 - Do we need to worry about turbulence?



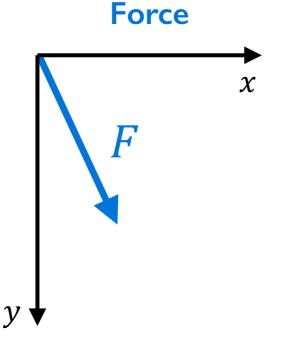
Physical model concepts: Stress and strain



- Force: <u>A push or pull applied to a body</u>.
 Force = mass x acceleration (Newton's second law)
- **Units**: Newtons [N]; $1 \text{ N} = 1 \text{ kg m s}^{-2}$

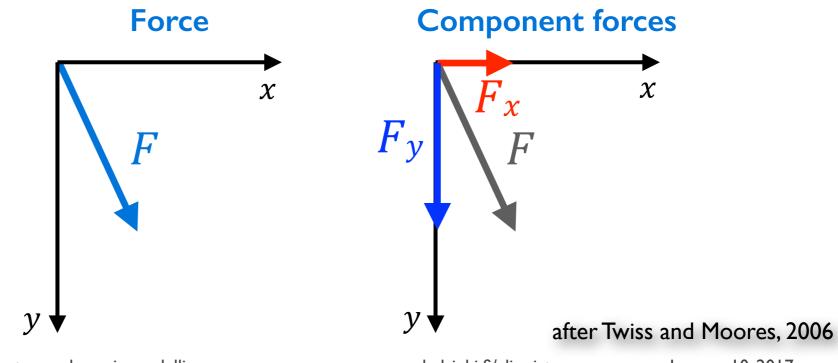


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Body forces versus surface forces

- Body force: Forces that <u>act throughout the volume of a solid</u>.
 <u>Proportional to its volume or mass</u>.
 - Example: Slab pull (gravity)

- Surface force: Forces that <u>act on the surface area bounding an</u> <u>element or volume</u>. <u>Proportional to the area upon which the</u> <u>force acts</u>.
 - Example: Friction along a fault plane

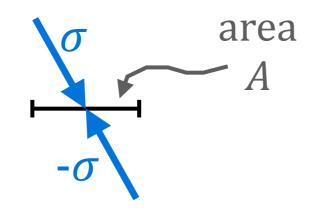
Surface stresses

- Stress: A force per unit area transmitted through a material by interatomic force fields
 - Surface stress: A pair of equal and opposite forces acting on the area of a surface in a specific orientation

Surface stresses

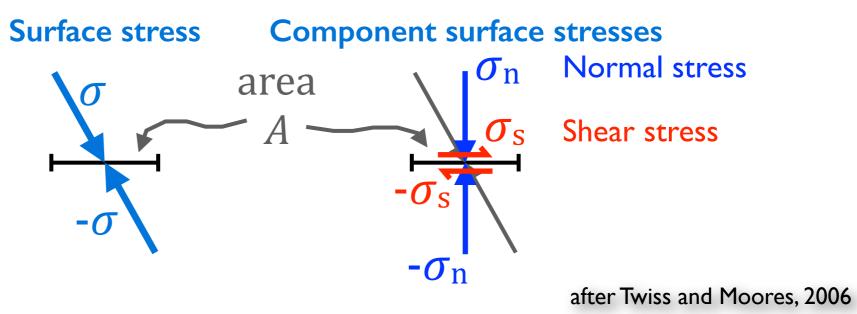
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 - **Representation**: Pair of vectors with a specified surface area/orientation
 - **Example**: Hand pushing on table, table pushing back

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Stress in two dimensions

Surface forces in 2D

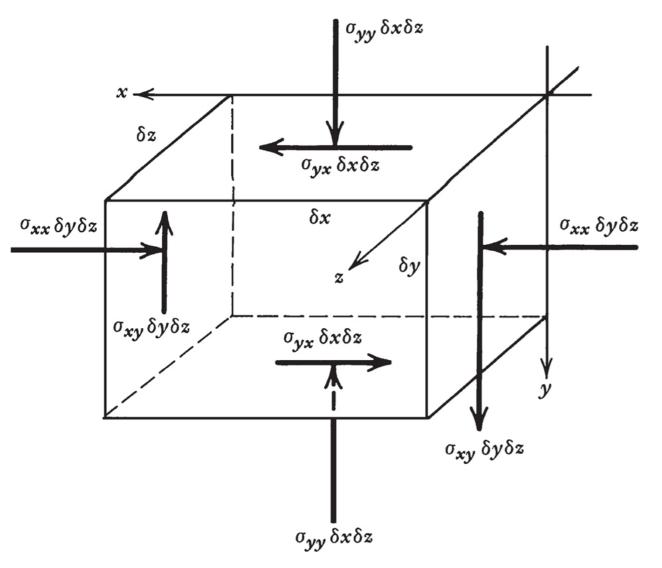


Fig. 2.13, Turcotte and Schubert, 2014

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- In two dimensions, we consider forces acting on four faces of an infinitesimal cube of dimension $\delta x \times \delta y \times \delta z$
 - Here we assume no forces act or vary in the *z* direction

Stress in two dimensions

Surface forces in 2D

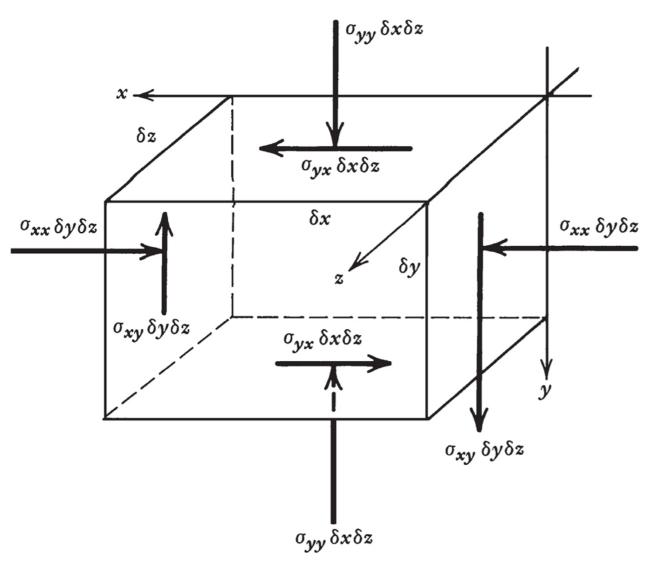


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- Normal stresses: σ_{xx} , σ_{yy}
- Shear stresses: σ_{xy} , σ_{yx}
- At equilibrium we can state $\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_{yx}$

Stress in two dimensions

Surface forces in 2D

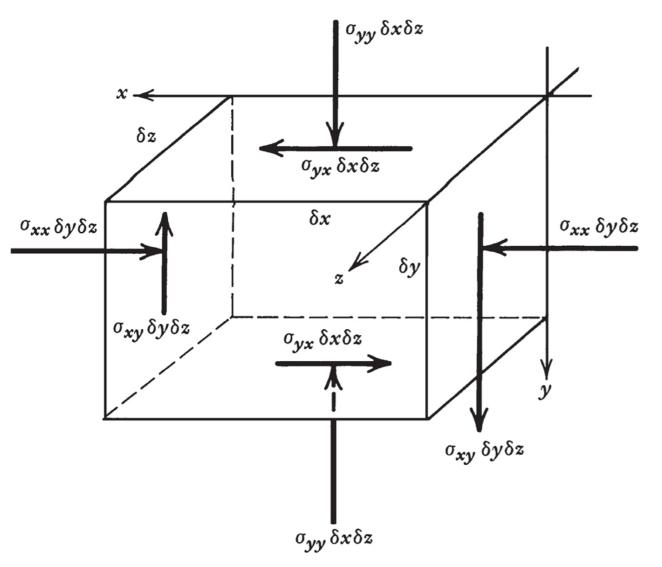
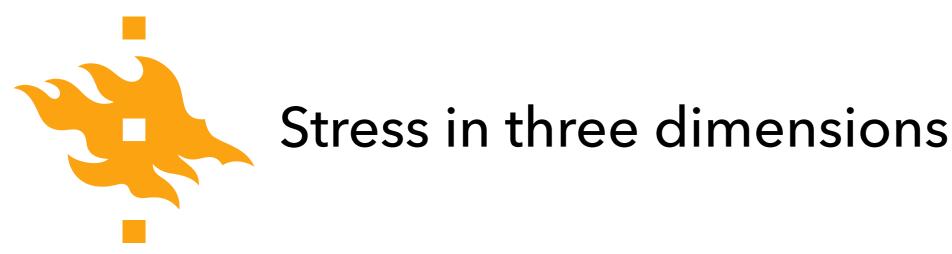


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• Why?



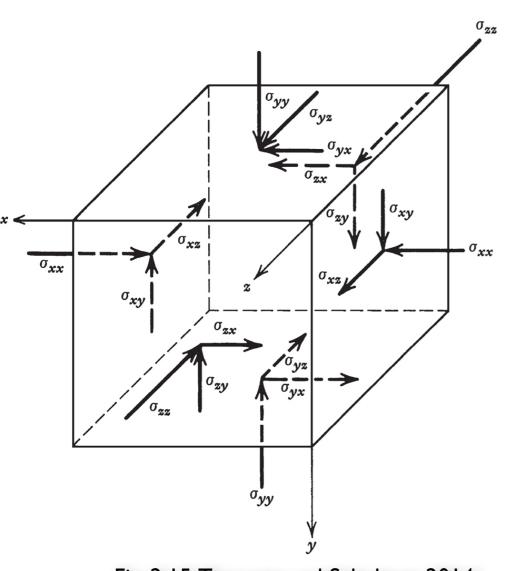
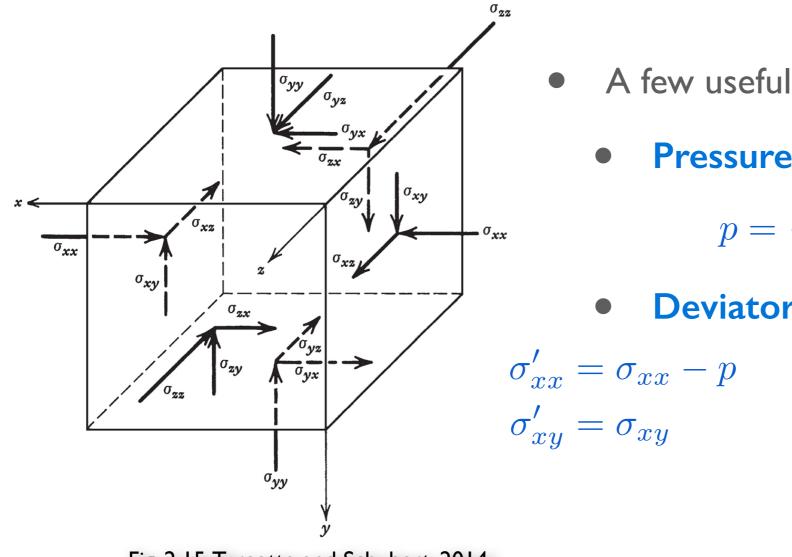


Fig. 2.15, Turcotte and Schubert, 2014

- In three dimensions, we consider forces acting on all six faces of an infinitesimal cube of dimension $\delta x \times \delta y \times \delta z$
- Normal stresses: σ_{xx} , σ_{yy} , σ_{zz}
- Shear stresses: σ_{xy} , σ_{yx} , σ_{xz} , σ_{zx} , σ_{yz} , σ_{zy}
- At equilibrium we can state $\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_{yx}, \sigma_{xz} = \sigma_{zx},$ $\sigma_{yz} = \sigma_{zy}$





- A few useful stress values
 - **Pressure** (mean stress) $p = \frac{1}{3} \left(\sigma_{xx} + \sigma_{yy} + \sigma_{zz} \right)$
 - **Deviatoric stress** (indicated by primes)

 $\sigma'_{xx} = \sigma_{xx} - p$ $\sigma'_{yy} = \sigma_{yy} - p$ $\sigma'_{zz} = \sigma_{zz} - p$ $\sigma'_{xy} = \sigma_{xy} \qquad \qquad \sigma'_{xz} = \sigma_{xz} \qquad \qquad \sigma'_{yz} = \sigma_{yz}$

Fig. 2.15, Turcotte and Schubert, 2014

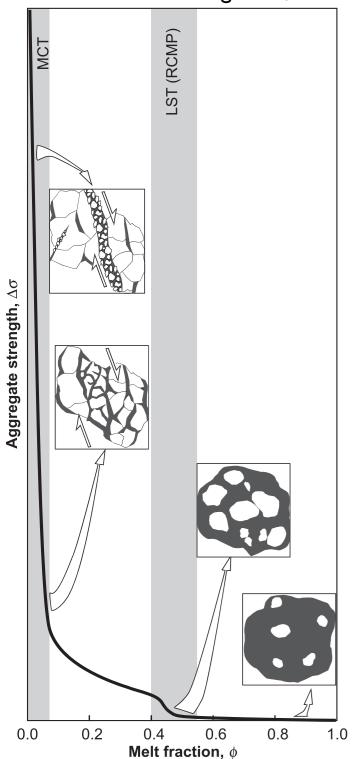
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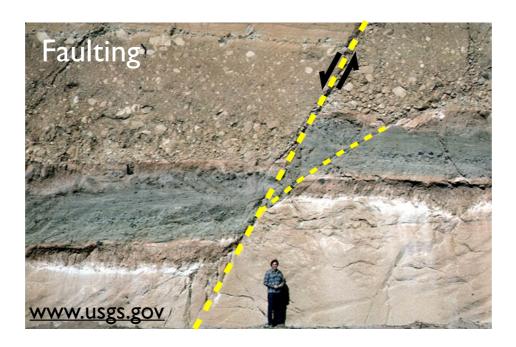


Physical model concepts: Heat transfer

Why does temperature matter?

Rosenberg et al., 2007







- Rock deformation strongly depends upon temperature
 - Rock strength drops 80-90% for even small amounts of partial melt (5-7%)
 - Whether rocks are brittle and fault, or ductile and fold is largely determined by temperature



Heat transfer processes in the lithosphere

• Conduction

• **Production**

• Advection



Heat transfer processes in the lithosphere

• Conduction: The diffusive transfer of heat by <u>kinetic atomic or</u> <u>molecular interactions</u> within the material. Also known as thermal diffusion.

Production





Fourier's first law of heat conduction

• In ID, the mathematical translation of "Heat flux *q* is *directly* proportional to the thermal gradient in a material" is

$$q_z = -k\frac{dT}{dz}$$

- Here, T represents temperature and z represents spatial position, depth in the Earth for our example
- Thus, *dT/dz* is the change in temperature with depth, or the thermal gradient
- The proportionality constant k is known as the thermal conductivity



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• Why is there a negative sign?

• In general, we can state Fourier's first law of heat conduction as $\label{eq:q} {\bf q} = -k \nabla T$



Heat transfer processes in the lithosphere

• Conduction: The diffusive transfer of heat by <u>kinetic atomic or</u> <u>molecular interactions</u> within the material. Also known as thermal diffusion.

• Production: Not really a heat transfer process, but rather a source of heat. Sources in the lithosphere include radioactive decay, friction in deforming rock or chemical reactions such as phase transitions.

• Advection



Radiogenic heat production

- Radiogenic heat production, A or H, is one of several heat sources and results from the <u>decay of radioactive isotopes in</u> <u>the Earth</u>, mainly ²³⁸U, ²³⁵U, ²³²Th and ⁴⁰K. A is often used for volumetric heat production and H for heat production by mass.
- These elements occur in the mantle, but are <u>concentrated in</u> <u>the crust</u>, where radiogenic heating can be significant
 - The surface heat flow in continental regions is ~65 mW m⁻² and ~37 mW m⁻² is from radiogenic heat production (57%)

Rock Type	U (ppm)	Concentration Th (ppm)	K (%)
Reference undepleted (fertile) mantle	0.031	0.124	0.031
"Depleted" peridotites	0.001	0.004	0.003
Tholeiitic basalt	0.07	0.19	0.088
Granite	4.7	20	4.2
Shale	3.7	12	2.7
Average continental crust	1.42	5.6	1.43
Chondritic meteorites	0.008	0.029	0.056

Heat transfer processes in the lithosphere

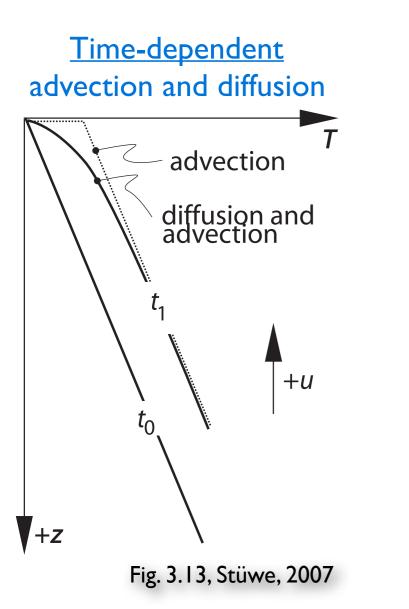
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 Production: Not really a heat transfer process, but rather a source of heat. Sources in the lithosphere include radioactive decay, friction in deforming rock or chemical reactions such as phase transitions.

• Advection: The transfer of heat by <u>physical movement</u> of molecules or atoms within a material. A type of convection, mostly applied to heat transfer in solid materials.



Mathematical description of advection



Advection in the vertical direction at velocity v_z at steady state can be represented mathematically as

$$v_z \frac{dT}{dz} = 0$$

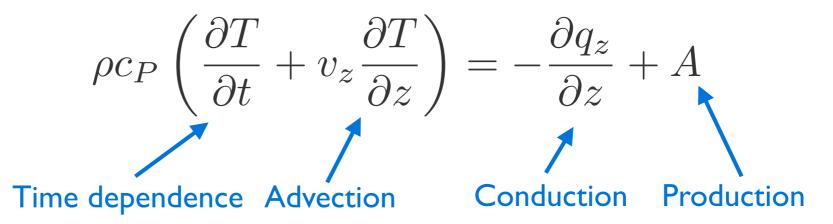
- Note that this equation simply describes the vertical translation of temperatures, and that in order for any change in temperature to occur, advection must be combined with other heat transfer processes such as conduction
- In general, we can describe head advection as

$$\boldsymbol{V}\cdot\nabla T=0$$



The heat conservation equation

- We now combine our three heat transfer components (conduction, production, advection) into the heat conservation equation, which describes heat transfer subject to each of these processes
- In one dimension (vertical), this equation is



 Alternatively, we can state the same equation in substituting in Fourier's first law for the heat flux q

$$\rho c_P \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + v_z \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(k \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right) + A$$



The heat conservation equation

- We now combine our three heat transfer components (conduction, production, advection) into the heat conservation equation, which describes heat transfer subject to each of these processes
- In general, we can state

$$\rho c_P \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{V} \cdot \nabla T \right) = \nabla \cdot k \nabla T + A$$

$$\boldsymbol{f} \qquad \boldsymbol{f} \qquad \boldsymbol$$



Physical model concepts: Rheological laws

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Rheology of the lithosphere

- The term **rheology** refers to the flow characteristics of materials
 - For most geoscientists this term describes the <u>deformation</u> <u>behavior of materials</u> regardless of whether deformation occurs by flow, fracture, or other mechanisms

- Rock deformation mainly occurs by three deformation mechanisms:
 - Elasticity
 - Plasticity
 - Viscous flow



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- Rock deformation mainly occurs by three deformation mechanisms:
 - Elasticity Can ignore this, not relevant for long time scales
 - Plasticity
 - Viscous flow

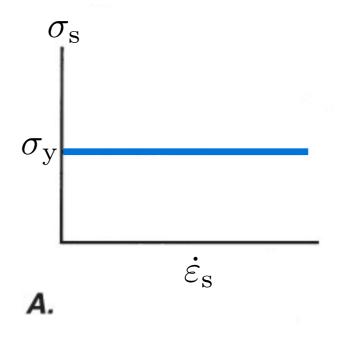
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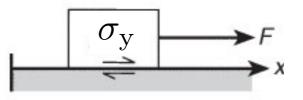


Perfectly plastic behavior

Twiss and Moores, 2007

- Constant stress required for deformation
 - No deformation prior to exceeding yield stress
 - Infinite deformation if applied stress equals (or exceeds) yield stress
 - $\sigma < \sigma_{\rm y}$ no deformation
 - $\sigma = \sigma_y$ failure; infinite deformation
- Nonrecoverable

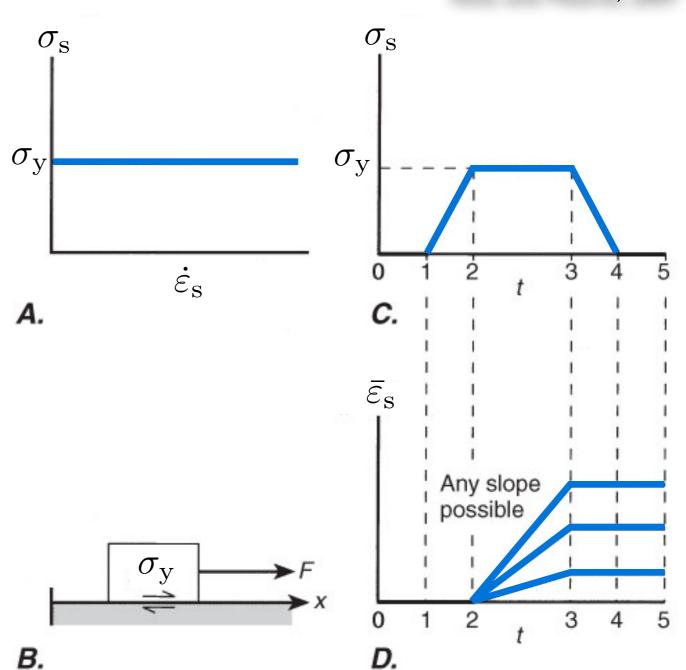




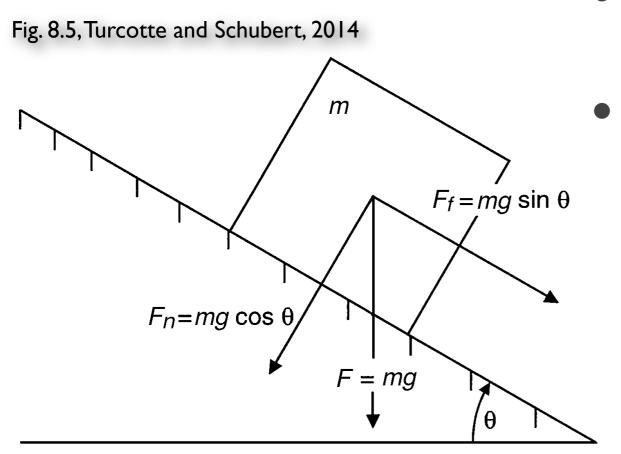


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Normal stress

$$\sigma_{\rm n} = \frac{mg\cos\theta}{A}$$
$$\sigma_{\rm s} = \frac{mg\sin\theta}{A}$$

Shear stress

- Fault slip accounts for a large portion of deformation of the upper crust
- Friction must be overcome for slip to occur
 - After exceeding the frictional resistance, slip will occur on the fault or shear zone
 - Known as **frictional plasticity**
 - The basic relationship for static friction is $\pi = f \pi$

 $au_{f_{\mathrm{s}}} = f_{\mathrm{s}}\sigma_{\mathrm{n}}$ (Amonton's law)

where f_s is the coefficient of static friction, and τ_{fs} is the static frictional stress required for slip

(Linear) Viscous deformation

• In simple shear,

 $au_{
m s}=\eta\dot{\gamma}\qquad\eta$ Dynamic viscosity

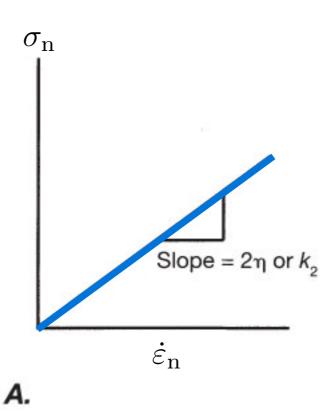
Shear stress proportional to shear strain rate

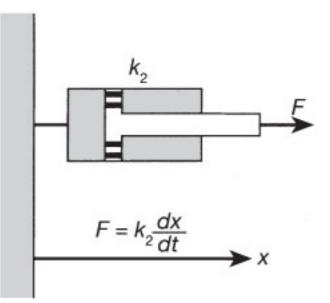
• In general,

 $\boldsymbol{\tau} = 2\eta \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$

deviatoric stress is proportional to strain rate

- For linear viscous (Newtonian) materials, η is constant
- Nonrecoverable





В.

(Linear) Viscous deformation

• In simple shear,

 $au_{
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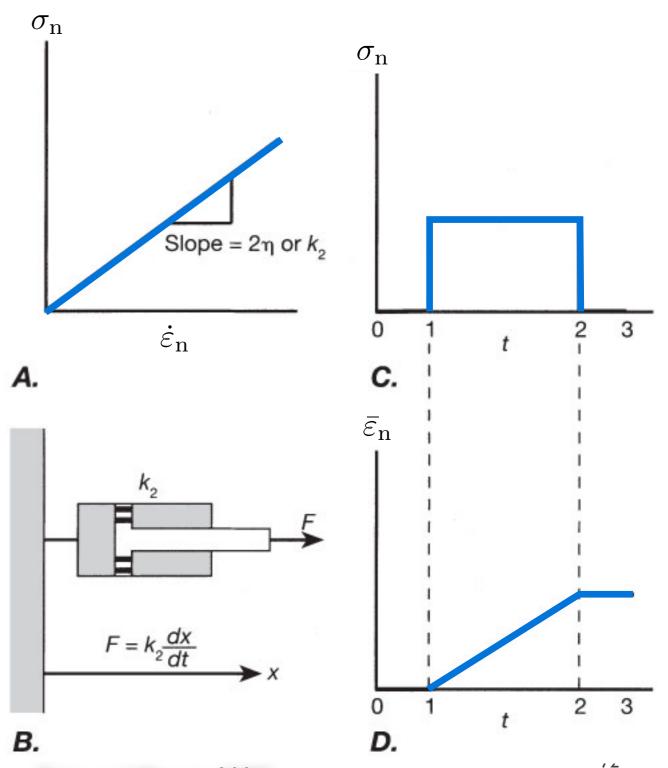
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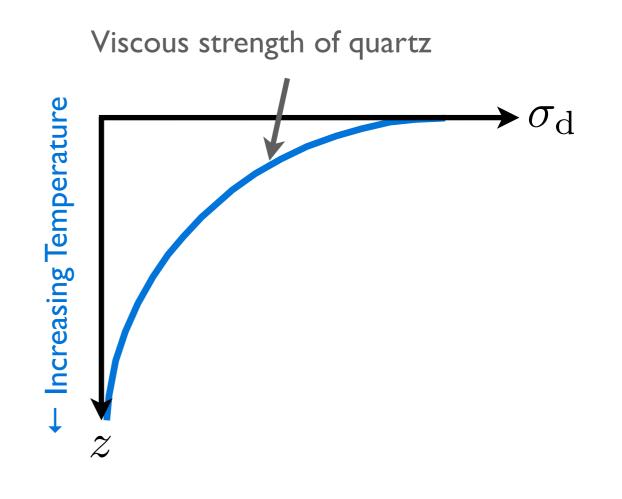
- For linear viscous (Newtonian) materials, η is constant
- Nonrecoverable



Nonlinear viscous deformation

- Most rocks <u>do not</u> behave as Newtonian viscous materials
- Why not?
- Two main reasons:
 - Temperature dependence $\eta = A_0 e^{Q/RT_{\rm K}}$

 A_0 is the pre-exponent constant, Q is the activation energy, R is the universal gas constant and T_K is temperature in Kelvins



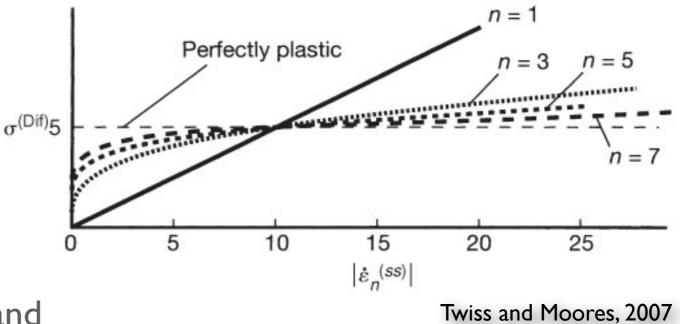
Nonlinear viscous deformation

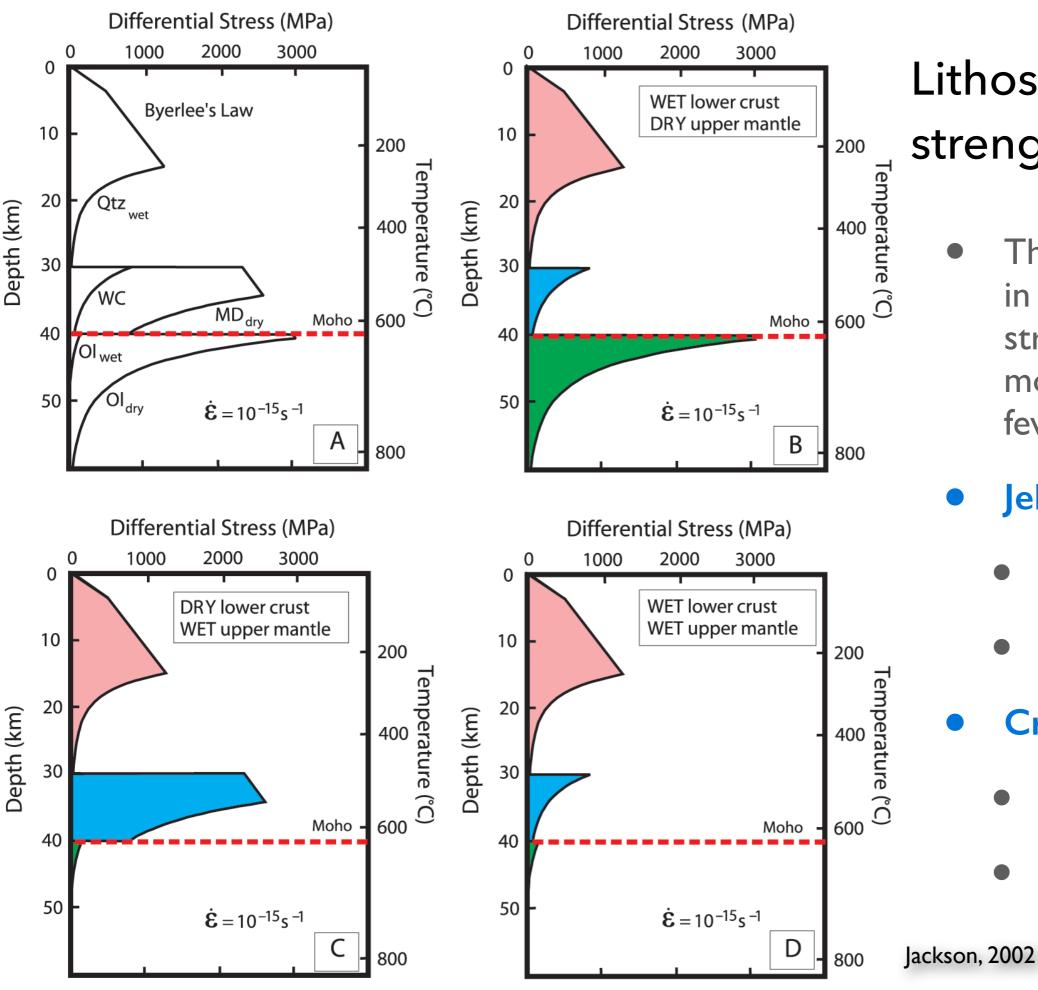
- Most rocks <u>do not</u> behave as Newtonian viscous materials
- Why not?
- Two main reasons:
 - Nonlinearity

 $\tau_{\rm s}^n = A_{\rm eff} \dot{\gamma}$

n is the power law exponent and A_{eff} is a material constant in $Pa^n s$

• Many rocks <u>deform 8 times as fast</u> <u>when stress is doubled</u>





Lithospheric strength envelopes

- There are many ways in which lithospheric strength can be modelled, here are a few
- Jelly sandwich
 - A Brace-Goetze
 - B Wet LC
- Crème brûlée
 - C Wet UM
 - D Wet LC, UM



- The aim of this course is to help you understand lithospheric geodynamic models
 - The models are (thermo-)mechanical, where the internal and external forces acting on the extremely viscous fluid in the model determine how the model will deform
 - The physics and general concepts of the equations are fairly simple, but as you will see, the numerical solution of the equations and the output can be complex



- Deformation of the Earth in numerical geodynamic models is based on three simple conservation equations
 - **Conservation of mass** The continuity equation
 - **Conservation of momentum -** The momentum equation
 - Conservation of energy The heat transfer equation

 Conservation of mass, momentum and energy are combined with rheological laws to <u>describe fluid movement under an</u> <u>applied force</u>



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 $\sigma_{n} \text{ or } \sigma_{s}$ Slope = E or 2G $\varepsilon_{n} \text{ or } \varepsilon_{s}$

 $\pmb{\sigma}\propto \pmb{arepsilon}$

- Stress is proportional to strain
- For I-D normal stress

(recoverable)

 $\sigma_{xx} = E\varepsilon_{xx}$ E: Young's modulus (ID) G: Shear modulus (ID)• If stress $\rightarrow 0$, strain $\rightarrow 0$ А.

$$F = k_1 \Delta x$$



$\pmb{\sigma}\propto \pmb{arepsilon}$

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